# **UC Davis UC Davis Previously Published Works**

# **Title**

Cellobionate production from sodium hydroxide pretreated wheat straw by engineered Neurospora crassa HL10.

**Permalink** <https://escholarship.org/uc/item/3vc1k8jv>

**Journal** Bioprocess Engineering, 47(10)

# **Authors**

Wang, Jiajie Kasuga, Takao Fan, Zhiliang

**Publication Date**

2024-10-01

# **DOI**

10.1007/s00449-024-03061-w

Peer reviewed

**RESEARCH PAPER**



# **Cellobionate production from sodium hydroxide pretreated wheat straw by engineered** *Neurospora crassa* **HL10**

**Jiajie Wang<sup>1</sup> · Takao Kasuga2,3 · Zhiliang Fan1**

Received: 1 October 2023 / Accepted: 3 July 2024 / Published online: 12 July 2024 © The Author(s) 2024

#### **Abstract**

This study investigated cellobionate production from a lignocellulosic substrate using *Neurospora crassa* HL10. Utilizing NaOH-pretreated wheat straw as the substrate obviated the need for an exogenous redox mediator addition, as lignin contained in the pretreated wheat served as a natural mediator. The low laccase production by *N. crassa* HL10 on pretreated wheat straw caused slow cellobionate production, and exogenous laccase addition accelerated the process. Cycloheximide induced substantial laccase production in *N. crassa* HL10, enabling the strain to yield approximately 57 mM cellobionate from pretreated wheat straw (equivalent to 20 g/L cellulose), shortening the conversion time from 8 to 6 days. About 92% of the cellulose contained in the pretreated wheat straw is converted to cellobionate. In contrast to existing methods requiring pure cellobiose or cellulase enzymes, this process efciently converts a low-cost feedstock into cellobionate at a high yield without enzyme or redox mediator supplementation.

**Keywords** Cellobionic acid · Wheat straw · *Neurospora crassa* · Sodium hydroxide pretreatment

# **Introduction**

Due to the rising global energy crisis and pressing environmental issues, there is a growing interest in producing fuels and chemicals from renewable resources to replace those derived from petroleum [[1,](#page-7-0) [2\]](#page-7-1). Organic acids directly made from sugars have drawn substantial attention, for organic acids and their derivatives are essential platform chemicals [[1,](#page-7-0) [2\]](#page-7-1). An aldonic acid is produced via the oxidation of the aldehyde functional group in an aldose to the corresponding carboxylic acid. Among them is lactobionic acid (LBA), which is comprised of a galactose moiety linked to a gluconic acid molecule. LBA is obtained from the oxidation of lactose. LBA displays biodegradable, antioxidant,

 $\boxtimes$  Zhiliang Fan jzfan@ucdavis.edu biocompatible, anti-aging, and chelating properties and has wide applications in the food, pharmaceutical, chemical, and cosmetic industries  $[3-7]$  $[3-7]$ ; thus, it is well-positioned as a high-value, low-volume chemical [[7\]](#page-7-3). Cellobionic acid (CBA) is a stereoisomer of lactobionic acid composed of a glucose moiety linked to a gluconic acid molecule instead. Because of the physicochemical similarity of CBA and LBA, CBA is expected to have similar applications as those of LBA [[8,](#page-7-4) [9](#page-7-5)]. Therefore, cellobionate could potentially serve as an alternative carbon source for fuels and chemical production. A study conducted by Desai et al. demonstrated the production of iso-butanol from the cellobionate [[10\]](#page-7-6). Tao et al. investigated using cellobionate and glycerol as the co-substrate to produce ethanol [\[11](#page-7-7)].

CBA (cellobionate) can be produced by the oxidation of cellobiose. Oh, et al. produced cellobionate from cellobiose using *Pseudomonas taetrolensas,* which homologously expressed a quinoprotein glucose dehydrogenase. The cellobionate production titer and productivity were 200 g/L and 9.52 g/L/h, respectively [[12\]](#page-7-8). Using the same recombinant strain, they further improved productivity by adopting a strategy of whole-cell catalysis [\[13](#page-7-9)]. However, in both cases, refned cellobiose was needed as the substrate. Oh, et al. utilized the same strain as a whole-cell catalyst to produce LBA using lactose as the substrate [[14\]](#page-8-0). Because cellobiose is a

<sup>1</sup> Department of Biological and Agricultural Engineering, University of California , Davis, One Shields Avenue, Davis, CA 95616, USA

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Department of Plant Pathology, University of California, Davis, One Shields Avenue, Davis, CA 95616, USA

United States Department of Agriculture—Agricultural Research Service, University of California, Davis, CA 95616, USA

much more expensive starting material than lactose, it leads to a higher production cost of cellobionate than the cost of producing lactobionate. To lower the feedstock cost, Yoo et al. investigated the possibility of producing CBA using waste paper as the substrate [\[15](#page-8-1)]. Under optimized reaction conditions, cellulase-catalyzed hydrolysis generated 23 g/L cellobiose from 80 g/L waste paper. CBA was produced at a fnal titer of 24 g/L from the 23 g/L cellobiose using the recombinant *P. taetrolens* strain [\[15](#page-8-1)]. However, the addition of cellulase enzymes for the hydrolysis of waste paper to produce cellobiose introduces an additional processing cost.

In previous studies, we engineered *Neurospora crassa* strains to produce cellobionate from cellulose without adding any enzyme [\[8](#page-7-4), [16\]](#page-8-2). The wild-type *N. crassa* strain can naturally produce cellulases that hydrolyze cellulose to form cellobiose [[17](#page-8-3)]. The engineered *N. crassa* strain F5∆*ace-1*∆*cre-1*∆*ndvB* has six β-glucosidase*(bgl*) genes and the cellobionate phosphorylase (*ndvB*) gene deleted from the genome of the wild-type strain  $[16]$  $[16]$  $[16]$ . These deletions disabled the strain's ability to consume cellobionate or cellobiose produced from cellulose hydrolysis. In addition, the transcription factors genes *acre-1* and *cre-1* were also deleted, which led to higher cellulase production on cellulose. This strain produced 20 mM cellobiose and 10 mM cellobionate from 20 g/L Avicel in 7 days [\[16](#page-8-2)].

Cellobiose dehydrogenase (CDH) is the key enzyme to convert cellobiose to CBA or lactose to LBA [\[18\]](#page-8-4). When CDH oxidizes cellobiose to form CBA, CDH accepts the electrons and gets reduced. The electrons carried by the reduced CDH need to be transferred to an electron acceptor for CDH to regain functionality [\[19](#page-8-5)]. The re-oxidation of CDH by oxygen is slow and is the rate-limiting step of CBA and LBA production. The CDH-redox mediator-laccase system has been widely used to improve the conversion of lactose to LBA [[19–](#page-8-5)[23](#page-8-6)]. In such a system, artificial redox mediators such as dichlorophenolindophenol (DCPIP) or 2,2'-azino-bis 3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulphonic acid (ABTS) can reoxidize the reduced CDH, then get regenerated through oxidation by laccase. Laccase then passes the electrons to oxygen as the fnal electron acceptor. The CDH-redox mediator-laccase system was also used to improve cellobionate production from cellulose. When laccase and a low concentration of ABTS were added to the fermentation system, the strain *N. crassa* F5∆*ace-1*∆*cre-1*∆*ndvB* produced about 40 mM cellobionate from Avicel [\[24](#page-8-7)]. To avoid exogenous laccase addition, Lin et al. heterologously expressed a codon-optimized *Botrytis aclada* laccase gene in the *N. crassa* F5∆*ace-1*∆*cre-1*∆*ndvB* strain to enable laccase production under a copper-inducible producer, resulting in the strain *N. crassa* HL10. This strain could convert cellulose to cellobionate without the addition of any enzyme. About 81% of the cellulose was converted, and the titer produced was 47.4 mM. The yield of cellobionate from the consumed cellulose was approximately 94.5% [[8\]](#page-7-4). However, a catalytic amount of ABTS was still required to achieve efficient conversion while pure cellulose (Avicel) was used as the substrate.

In the present study, we are interested in converting wheat straw, a sustainable and low-cost cellulosic feedstock, to cellobionate using the engineered *N. crassa* strain HL10. Wheat straw is the main by-product of wheat production. It is the second most abundant agricultural residue in the U.S. Wheat straw, like other cellulosic biomass, contains cellulose, hemicellulose, and lignin as the three major components. It needs an efective pretreatment process to facilitate the hydrolysis of the cellulose contained by fungal cellulases. Leading pretreatment methods include acid or base pretreatment, steam explosion, and ammonia explosion treatment  $[25, 26]$  $[25, 26]$  $[25, 26]$ . Among these, sodium hydroxide (NaOH) pretreatment is one of the most common pretreatment methods that has been extensively studied in processing cellulosic biomass [[27\]](#page-8-10). Compared to dilute acid-based pretreated wheat straw, NaOH-pretreated wheat straw efectively dissolves lignin and retains more hemicellulose fraction in the pretreated solids [[27\]](#page-8-10). We report the conversion of NaOH-pretreated wheat straw to cellobionate using *N. crassa* HL10, identification of the conversion bottlenecks, and strategies to improve the conversion.

# **Material and methods**

### **Strain and chemicals**

The strain *N. crassa* HL10 used in this study was constructed previously in the lab [\[8\]](#page-7-4). Wheat straw was obtained from the Idaho National Laboratory, which contained 34% cellulose, 18% hemicellulose, and 16% lignin (Idaho Falls, ID, USA). ABTS, DCPIP, cellobiose, sodium fuoride, β-glucosidase from *Aspergillus niger*, laccase from *Aspergillus sp.*, cycloheximide, p-nitrophenyl-β-D-lactopyranoside (pNPL), were obtained from Sigma Aldrich.

#### **Diluted sodium hydroxide pretreatment**

Wheat straw was frst milled and sieved to pass through meshes of size  $0.45 - 1$  mm. The milled wheat straw was pretreated in 2% NaOH solution at 121 °C for 30 min with 10% w/v solid loadings. After pretreatment, the pretreated solids were washed with a large quantity of water. The pH of the washed solids was adjusted to 7 using concentrated  $H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>$  before being dried in a 70 °C oven for 48 h. The contents of glucan, xylan, and lignin were determined according to the standard protocol described in NREL/ TP-510–42618 [\[28](#page-8-11)].

# *N. crassa* **HL10 submerged fermentation experiments**

*N. crassa* HL10 was grown on agar with  $1 \times$ Vogel's media and 2% sucrose for 3 days in an incubator with light at 30 °C and another 7 days at room temperature to produce spores. Fermentation was carried out in 250 mL Erlenmeyer fasks in a rotary shaker at 200 rpm with constant light at 30 °C for 10 days. Each flask contained  $1 \times \text{Vogel's media}$ , 3 g/L glucose, 20 g/L Avicel or pretreated wheat straw with 20 g/L cellulose equivalent, and 0.8 mM CuSO4. The total liquid volume is 50 mL. Fermentation was initiated by inoculating the flasks with 10–14 days old conidia at a final  $OD_{420}$ of 0.1. Samples were collected at various time intervals to measure cellobiose and cellobionate concentrations. To study the role of ABTS and laccase in cellobionate production, a fnal concentration of 0.02 mM ABTS or/and 0.5 U/mL laccase was added to the fermentation broth at the specified time. To study the effect of cycloheximide addition time on cellobionate yield, cycloheximide was added at a concentration of  $3 \mu M$  on day 2. All fermentation conditions were performed at a minimum in triplicate.

#### **Enzyme activity measurement**

CDH and laccase assay were conducted using previously established methods, with slight modifcations [[16](#page-8-2), [29](#page-8-12)]. CDH activity was determined by measuring the reduction of DCPIP in 96 well plates using a plate reader at 515 nm at 30 °C ( $\varepsilon_{515} = 6,800 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-1}$ ). Cellobiose was used as the substrate. The fnal assay mixture contained 0.25 mM DCPIP, 75 mM sodium acetate buffer, 3.75 mM cellobiose, and 5 mM sodium fuoride. One unit of CDH activity is defned as the amount of enzyme required to reduce 1 μmol of DCPIP per minute.

Laccase activity was measured by the oxidation of ABTS ( $\varepsilon_{436} = 29,300 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-1}$ ) at 436 nm at 30 °C in a plate reader. The assay mixture contained 2 mM ABTS and 150 mM sodium acetate bufer. 10 mg/ml β-glucosidase from *Aspergillus niger* was added to the sample at a volumetric ratio of 1:1 to hydrolyze all the cellobiose contained in the sample to glucose, removing the substrate for CDH to oxidize before the laccase assay to avoid interference from CDH activity in the laccase assay. One unit of laccase activity is defned as the amount of enzyme required to oxidize 1 μmol of ABTS per minute.

Exoglucanase (CBH) activity was carried out using pNPL as the substrate following a previous protocol with slight modifications [\[8](#page-7-4)]. The reaction mixtures containing  $80 \mu L$  of 1 mg/mL pNPL in 50 mM citric acid bufer (pH 4.8) and 80 μL of fve folds diluted culture supernatants were incubated at 37 °C for 30 min. The reaction was then quenched by adding 80  $\mu$ L of 150 mM NaOH to the solutions. The released p-nitrophenyl was measured at 405 nm. One unit of CBH activity is defned as the amount of enzyme required to release 1 μmol of p-nitrophenyl per minute. Nitrophenyl is used to prepare for the standard curve.

#### **Fungal biomass measurement**

Fungal growth estimation was achieved by evaluating glucosamine content with a modifed version of a previously described method [\[30\]](#page-8-13). Fermentation residue, along with filter paper, underwent sequential washing with 15 mL of acetone and 30 mL of DI water. The washed samples were then mixed with 9 mL of 1.2 g/mL potassium hydroxide. Hydrolysis was carried out by autoclaving at 121 °C for 40 min. To precipitate glucosamine, 25 μL of the resulting hydrolysate was combined with 0.5 mL of ice-cold 70% ethanol, followed by the addition of 0.15 mL of Celite suspension (1 g of Celite suspended in 10 ml of 70% ethanol). After keeping in ice for 20 min, the samples were centrifuged at 12,500 rpm for 30 min at 0 °C and the supernatant was removed. This procedure was repeated by an initial wash with 0.8 mL of ice-cold 40% ethanol and two subsequent washes with 0.8 mL of ice-cold DI water. Finally, glucosamine content was determined through a colorimetric assay in accordance with previous studies. Standard curves were prepared with glucosamine hydrochloride (0–30 μg/ mL) [\[30](#page-8-13)].

#### **Cellobiose and cellobionate analysis**

Concentrations of cellobiose and cellobionate were measured by a Shimadzu high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) at 80 °C equipped with a CARBOSep COREGEL 87C column (Concise Separations, San Jose, USA) and refraction index detector (RID). 4 mM calcium chloride was used as the mobile phase at a flow rate of 0.5 mL/min [\[16\]](#page-8-2).

#### **Calculations of the yields**

The cellulose conversion was calculated by the amount of cellulose consumed divided by the starting cellulose amount. The xylan conversion was calculated by the amount of xylan consumed divided by the starting xylan amount. The cellobionate yield from consumed cellulose was defned as cellobionate produced (molar) divided by the amount of cellulose consumed (molar, assuming the molecular weight of 324 g/mol).

All experiments were performed in triplicates. The analyzed data are presented as the mean $\pm$  standard deviation (SD) of three triplicates. Statistical analysis was performed using Microsoft Excel.

# **Results and Discussion**

# **Composition of the alkali‑pretreated wheat straw**

 The NaOH-pretreated wheat straw has the following composition: glucan  $55.9 \pm 2.9\%$ , xylan  $20.3 \pm 1.0\%$ ; and lignin  $13.2 \pm 3.0\%$ .

### **The exogenous addition of ABTS on cellobionate production on Avicel by** *N. crassa* **HL10**

The effect of redox mediator (ABTS) on cellobionate production using Avicel (20 g/L) as the substrate was investigated. ABTS was added to fermentation fasks on day 3 to reach a fnal concentration of 0.02 mM. Cellobiose and cellobionate concentrations were tracked for ten days. As shown in Fig. [1,](#page-4-0) cellobiose accumulated to 16 mM on day 3, indicating that the rate of cellobiose production from cellulose hydrolysis was faster than the rate of conversion to cellobionate. Without ABTS addition, the cellobiose and cellobionate concentrations kept rising throughout the experiment. The titers of cellobionate and cellobiose reached 23 mM and 21 mM at the end of 10 days, respectively. The presence of ABTS caused a deacrease in the cellobiose concentration after day 3 and an increase in cellobionate concentration at a higher rate than without ABTS addition.



<span id="page-4-0"></span>**Fig. 1** The efect of ABTS on cellobionate production from Avicel using *N. crassa* HL10. The experiments were conducted in triplicate. Error bars indicate the standard deviations of sample replicates

On day 8, the cellobionate concentration was about 47 mM, and cellobiose was completely consumed. Adding a catalytic amount of ABTS doubled the cellobionate titer. Since *N. crassa* HL10 produces both CDH and laccase [\[8](#page-7-4)], the CDHredox mediator-laccase system in the HL10 fermentation seemed to be redox mediator limited when grown on Avicel. Supplementing exogenous redox mediator substantially improved the cellobionate titer and productivity. Although ABTS was only needed in catalytic amounts, it is costly for industrial applications.

# **The efect of ABTS addition on cellobionate production by HL10 on pretreated wheat straw**

The effect of ABTS on cellobionate production using NaOHpretreated wheat straw as a substrate was investigated. As shown in Fig. [2](#page-4-1), the cellobiose and cellobionate production profles were very similar with or without ABTS addition, indicating that the effect of ABTS addition on CBA production was marginal when the NaOH-pretreated wheat straw was used as the substrate. Our prior study found that the natural lignin and its degradation products in wheat straw can serve as the redox mediator for the CDH-laccase system [[31\]](#page-8-14). It seemed that the NaOH-pretreated lignin filled the same role. When lignin is present in the system, laccase can oxidize the lignin to oxidized lignin radicals and pass the electrons to oxygen as the fnal electron acceptor [[32\]](#page-8-15). The lignin radical can receive the electrons from the reduced CDH, regenerating CDH and itself [[31\]](#page-8-14). Adding ABTS led to only a marginal increase in cellobionate production, indicating that the system was no longer redox mediator limited. The cellobionate produced from 20 g/L cellulose equivalent



<span id="page-4-1"></span>**Fig. 2** The efect of ABTS on cellobionate production from pretreated wheat straw using *N. crassa* HL10. The experiments were conducted in triplicate. Error bars indicate the standard deviations of sample replicates

wheat straw was about 52 mM, which is higher than that from 20 g/L Avicel.

#### **The efect of laccase on cellobionate production**

To test the hypothesis that the CDH-redox mediator-laccase system in the HL10 fermentation system was laccase limited, we studied cellobionate production using strain HL10 with exogenous laccase and ABTS addition. 0.05 U/mL of laccase, or 0.05 U/mL of laccase plus 0.02 mM ABTS, were added to the wheat straw fermentation broth on day 4. As shown in Fig. [2](#page-4-1), adding laccase alone led to faster cellobionate production. The strain *N. crassa* HL10 produced 58 mM cellobionate by day 6, while the control (the case without laccase addition) did not reach 57 mM cellobionate until day 8. Adding 0.02 mM of ABTS to the system besides laccase led to no further improvement in cellobionate production titer and rate.

These results indicated that laccase was the rate-limiting factor in cellobionate production using strain HL10 and pretreated wheat straw as the substrate. Additional laccase led to faster cellobionate production. However, the titer did not change. Further addition of ABTS besides laccase led to no noticeable improvement of CBA production, indicating that the redox mediator in the system was sufficient to support the bi-enzyme-catalyzed cellobionate production.

# **The efect of cycloheximide addition on laccase production and cellobionate production by** *N. crassa* **HL10 on pretreated wheat straw**

The strain *N. crassa* HL10 was cloned with a heterologous laccase gene under a copper-inducible promoter. Fig. [3](#page-5-0) It heterologously produced laccase at 30—80 U/L when the strain was grown on glucose with 0.8 mM copper sulfate added as the inducer  $[8]$  $[8]$ . When the same strain was grown on pretreated wheat straw, *N. crassa* HL10 (control) produced detectable laccase activity  $(< 0.38$  U/L), as shown in Fig. [4.](#page-5-1) However, laccase activity was much lower than when the same strain was grown on glucose [[8\]](#page-7-4). The laccase activity came from the expression of the heterologous laccase gene. *N. crassa* has a native laccase gene. However, it is not expressed when the strain grows vegetatively under the experimental conditions in this study [\[33](#page-8-16), [34\]](#page-8-17). The native laccase gene is inducible when a protein synthesis inhibitor such as cycloheximide is present [\[33,](#page-8-16) [34](#page-8-17)]. Cycloheximide successfully induced laccase production in the *N. crassa* wild-type strain [[33](#page-8-16), [34\]](#page-8-17). The strain *N. crassa* F5∆*ace-1*∆*cre-1*∆*ndvB*, the parent strain of *N. crassa* HL10, produced up to 150 U/L of laccase upon the induction by 3 μM of cycloheximide when the strain was grown on glucose [\[24\]](#page-8-7). Cycloheximide also successfully induced native laccase production in strain *N. crassa* F5, a strain with multiple



<span id="page-5-0"></span>Fig. 3 The effect of exogenous laccase addition on cellobionate production from pretreated wheat straw using *N. crassa* HL10. The experiments were conducted in triplicate. Error bars indicate the standard deviations of sample replicates



<span id="page-5-1"></span>Fig. 4 The effect of cycloheximide addition on CBH, CDH, and laccase production by *N. crassa* HL10 on pretreated wheat straw. The experiments were conducted in triplicate. Error bars indicate the standard deviations of sample replicates

copies of β-glucosidase genes deleted, and improved the conversion of the lactose to lactobionic acid without exogenous laccase addition by this strain [[35\]](#page-8-18). We applied a similar strategy to improve the cellobionate production by the strain *N. crassa* HL 10, which is a derivative of the strain *N. crassa* F5∆*ace-1*∆*cre-1*∆*ndvB,* using wheat straw as the substrate. Cycloheximide was added to the *N. crassa* HL10 fermentation on pretreated wheat straw at a fnal concentration of 3 μM on day 2. As shown in Fig. [4](#page-5-1), apparent laccase activity was observed on day 3, one day after cycloheximide addition. The highest laccase activity of about 53.9 U/L was observed on day 4, and the laccase activity for the control and Avicel remained below 0.5 U/L. However, cycloheximide, a protein synthesis inhibitor, negatively afected CBH and CDH production. CBH activity accumulated to 36 U/L for the control. However, with cycloheximide addition, CBH began to decrease after 48 h and reached as low as 11 U/L at the end of the fermentation. (Fig. [5](#page-6-0)) CDH activity declined sharply to almost zero after cycloheximide addition, whereas CDH activity for the control (without cycloheximide addition) remained in the 87–252 U/L range. Cycloheximide also negatively afected fungal biomass production. However, due to higher laccase production in the fermentation broth, cellobiose conversion to cellobionate was accelerated despite the decline in CDH activity in the wheat straw system. The strain *N. crassa* HL10 produced about 57.0 mM of cellobionate on day 6 with cycloheximide addition, while the control (the case without cycloheximide addition) took 2 more days to reach that cellobionate concentration.

In a separate experiment conducted identically to the above experiment with cycloheximide addition on day 2 and the control, fasks were harvested after 6 days and 8 days, respectively, without intermediate sampling. The supernatant was collected for cellobionate and cellobiose measurements. The solid residues were analyzed for residual cellulose and xylan amount. The cellulose conversion for



<span id="page-6-0"></span>**Fig. 5** The effect of cycloheximide addition on fungal biomass and cellobionate production by *N. crassa* HL10 on pretreated wheat straw. The experiments were conducted in triplicate. Error bars indicate the standard deviations of sample replicates

cycloheximide addition was about  $97.3 \pm 0.1\%$  and the xylan conversion was about  $98.0 \pm 1.7\%$  $98.0 \pm 1.7\%$  $98.0 \pm 1.7\%$  as shown in Table 1. The yield of the cellobionate from the consumed cellulose was about 97 $\pm$ 0.8%. About 92.0 $\pm$ 0.7% of the cellulose contained in the pretreated wheat straw was converted to cellobionate. The yield of the cellobionate from the consumed cellulose was close to the theoretical maximum. Cellulose conversion for the control was about  $94.6 \pm 0.3\%$  and xylose conversion reached  $99 \pm 0.05\%$ . There was no significant improvement in the cellobionate yield from consumed sugar between the control and cycloheximide addition.

In a previous study, when *N. crassa* HL 10 was grown on 20 g/L Avicel as the substrate, the cellulose conversion was only 81% after 8-days of fermentation. The titer of cellobionate produced was about 47.4 mM. The cellobionate from the consumed cellulose was approximately 94.5%. About 76% of the cellulose contained in Avicel was converted to cellobionate [[8\]](#page-7-4). When the strain *N. crassa* HL10 was grown on Avicel, the strain had a limited carbon source to support cell growth and enzyme production. Because the strain HL10 had multiple  $β$ -glucosidase genes and the cellobionate phosphorylase (*ndvB*) gene deleted from its genome, the strain can not use the main cellulose hydrolysis product, cellobiose, as the carbon source. Instead, it was fed on glucose generated by the side reaction of cellobiohydrolases on cellulose [[36\]](#page-8-19). As a result, the fraction of cellulose that stayed un-converted was relatively high [\[8](#page-7-4)]. The cellobionate titer (57.0 mM) produced by *N. crassa* HL10 from the pretreated wheat straw, which contained 20 g/L cellulose equivalent, was signifcantly higher than that from Avicel.

It is worth noting that the presence of hemicellulose in wheat straw appeared to provide an additional carbon source that supported enhanced fungal growth and increased performance of the HL10 system compared to Avicel. *N. crassa* HL10 produced the full spectrum of hemicellulases to use the hemicellulose for cell growth and enzyme production [\[17\]](#page-8-3). Therefore, more cellulose was diverted to cellobionate production.

The NaOH-pretreated wheat straw is a more attractive substrate for cellobionate production than Avicel. Hemicellulose in the pretreated wheat straw provides an additional carbon source to support strain growth and enzyme production. Lignin serves as the redox mediator and removes

<span id="page-6-1"></span>**Table 1** Percentages of cellulose hydrolyzed and converted to cellobionate for the HL10 strain grown on 20 g/L cellulose equivalent of NaOHpretreated wheat straw with or without cycloheximide addition

Fermentation condition	Amount $(g)$ of cellulose		Cellulose conversion	Xylan conversion	Yield $(\%)$ from
	starting	residual	(%)	$(\%)$	consumed cellulose
Control	00.	$0.054 + 0.003$	$94.6 \pm 0.3$	$99 \pm 0.1$	$96 \pm 0.8$
Cycloheximide addition	.00	$0.027 + 0.001$	$97.3 + 0.1$	$98 + 1.7$	$97 \pm 0.8$

the need for an exogenous artifcial redox mediator. Under the optimized condition, cellulose and xylan conversions were very high  $(>97\%)$ . The yield of cellobionate from the consumed cellulose was close to the theoretical maximum (97%). The heterologous laccase production in *N. crassa* HL10 was low when it was grown on pretreated wheat straw, which limited the cellobionate production rate. Cycloheximide addition successfully induced native laccase production and shortened the fermentation time. However, it harmed CBH, CDH, and fungal biomass production and also represented additional processing costs. It is desirable to fnd alternative strategies to improve laccase production. An alternative approach to increase laccase production is to de-repress native laccase production under vegetative growth conditions using genetic manipulation instead of protein inhibitors. The native laccase gene expression in *N. crassa* was regulated by a cross-pathway control gene *cpc-1* [\[37\]](#page-8-20). The *N. crassa* mutant lah-1 with increased expression of *cpc-1* produced extracellular laccase about three folders higher than when the wild type was induced with cycloheximide [[37](#page-8-20), [38\]](#page-8-21). We can potentially over-express the *cpc-1* gene in F5∆*ace-1*∆*cre-1*∆*ndvB* to construct a strain with the native laccase gene de-repressed. Another option is to improve the heterologous laccase production by engineering better promoter, secretion signal, and laccase gene.

# **Conclusion**

*N. crassa* HL10 produced cellobionate using Avicel as the substrate. However, high cellobionate yield was only achievable with exogenous redox mediators addition. Lignin in NaOH-pretreated wheat straw cellulosic biomass can efectively serve as a redox mediator, removing the need for an exogenous redox mediator. However, the low laccase activity produced by *N. crassa* HL10 remained a bottleneck for cellobionate conversion. Cycloheximide successfully induced a high level of laccase expression in *N. crassa* HL10. About 57 mM cellobionate was produced from the pretreated wheat straw containing 20 g/L cellulose in 6 days with 0.3 μM of cycloheximide on day 2. The cellulose conversion was about 97.3%. Cellobionate yield from the consumed cellulose was about 97%.

**Acknowledgements** The authors acknowledge the support of the Idaho National Laboratory for providing the wheat straw samples. This project was partially supported by Agriculture and Food Research Initiative Competitive Grant No. 2022-67021-38320 from the USDA National Institute of Food and Agriculture. We would also like to thank Peter Russell for reading through this paper.

**Author contribution** Jiajie Wang: data curation, writing–original draft. Takao Kasuga: supervision, writing—review and editing. Zhiliang Fan: conceptualization, funding acquisition, supervision, project administration, writing—review and editing.

**Data availability** The data supporting this study's fndings are available from the corresponding author ZF upon request.

### **Declarations**

**Conflict of interest** The authors declare that they have no known competing fnancial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to infuence the work reported in this paper.

**Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>.

# **References**

- <span id="page-7-0"></span>1. Nigam PS (2009) Production of organic acids from agro-industrial residues, 1st edn. Springer, Netherlands
- <span id="page-7-1"></span>Rajagopal D (2011) The economics of biofuel policies. Biofuels-Uk 2:599–601
- <span id="page-7-2"></span>3. Gerling KG (1998) Large scale production of lactobionic acid use and new applications. Int Dairy Fed 9804:251–261
- 4. Oskarsson H, Frankenberg M, Annerling A, Holmberg K (2007) Adsorption of novel alkylaminoamide sugar surfactants at tailormade surfaces. J Surfactants Deterg 10:41–52
- 5. Green BA, Yu RJ, Van Scott EJ (2009) Clinical and cosmeceutical uses of hydroxyacids. Clin Dermatol 27:49–501
- 6. Chung TW, Yang J, Akaike T, Cho KY, Nah JW, Kim SI, Cho CS (2002) Preparation of alginate/galactosylated chitosan scafold for hepatocyte attachment. Biomaterials 23:2827–2834
- <span id="page-7-3"></span>7. Alonso S, Rendueles M, Diaz M (2013) Bio-production of lactobionic acid: current status, applications and future prospects. Biotechnol Adv 31:1275–1291
- <span id="page-7-4"></span>8. Lin H, Hildebrand A, Kasuga T, Fan Z (2017) Engineering Neurospora crassa for cellobionate production directly from cellulose without any enzyme addition. Enzyme Microb Technol 99:25–31
- <span id="page-7-5"></span>9. Bieringer E, Vázquez UG, Klein L, Bravo NM, Tobler M, Weuster-Botz D (2023) Bioproduction and applications of aldobionic acids with a focus on maltobionic and cellobionic acid. Bioprocess Biosystems Eng 46:921–940
- <span id="page-7-6"></span>10. Desai SH, Rabinovitch-Deere CA, Fan ZL, Atsumi S (2015) Isobutanol production from cellobionic acid in Escherichia coli. Microb Cell Fact 14:1–10
- <span id="page-7-7"></span>11. Tao WY, Kasuga T, Li S, Huang H, Fan ZL (2019) Homoethanol production from cellobionate and glycerol using recombinant Klebsiella oxytoca strains. Biochem Eng J 151:107364
- <span id="page-7-8"></span>12. Oh YR, Eom GT (2022) Efficient production of cellobionic acid from cellobiose by genetically modifed pseudomonas taetrolens. Biochem Eng J 178:108282
- <span id="page-7-9"></span>13. Oh YR, Song JK, Eom GT (2022) Efficient production of cellobionic acid using whole-cell biocatalyst of genetically modified Pseudomonas taetrolens. Bioprocess Biosystems Eng 45:1057–1064
- <span id="page-8-0"></span>14. Oh YR, Jang YA, Hong SH, Han JJ, Eom GT (2020) Efficient production of lactobionic acid using genetically engineered Pseudomonas taetrolens as a whole-cell biocatalyst. Enzyme Microb Technol 141:109668
- <span id="page-8-1"></span>15. Yoo Y, Oh YR, Eom GT (2022) Valorization of cellulose in waste paper into value-added cellobionic acid by genetically engineered Pseudomonas taetrolens. Ind Crop Prod 186:115186
- <span id="page-8-2"></span>16. Hildebrand A, Szewczyk E, Lin H, Kasuga T, Fan ZL (2015) Engineering neurospora crassa for improved cellobiose and cellobionate production. Appl Environ Microbiol 81:597–603
- <span id="page-8-3"></span>17. Eberhart BM, Beck RS, Goolsby KM (1977) Cellulase of Neurospora crassa. J Bacteriol 130:181–186
- <span id="page-8-4"></span>18. Henriksson G, Johansson G, Pettersson G (2000) A critical review of cellobiose dehydrogenases. J Biotechnol 78:93–113
- <span id="page-8-5"></span>19. Baminger U, Ludwig R, Galhaup C, Leitner C, Kulbe KD, Haltrich D (2001) Continuous enzymatic regeneration of redox mediators used in biotransformation reactions employing favoproteins. J Mol Catal B-Enzym 11:541–550
- 20. Dhariwal A, Mavrov V, Schroeder I (2006) Production of lactobionic acid with process integrated electrochemical enzyme regeneration and optimisation of process variables using response surface methods (RSM). J Mol Catal B-Enzym 42:64–69
- 21. Ludwig R, Ozga M, Zamocky M, Peterbauer C, Kulbe KD, Haltrich D (2004) Continuous enzymatic regeneration of electron acceptors used by flavoenzymes: Cellobiose dehydrogenasecatalyzed production of lactobionic acid as an example. Biocatal Biotrans 22:97–104
- 22. Van Hecke W, Bhagwat A, Ludwig R, Dewulf J, Haltrich D, Van Langehove H (2009) Kinetic modeling of a bi-enzymatic system for efficient conversion of lactose to lactobionic acid. Biotechnol Bioeng 102:1475–1482
- <span id="page-8-6"></span>23. Van Hecke W, Ludwig R, Dewulf J, Auly M, Messiaen T, Haltrich D, Van Langenhove H (2008) Bubble-free oxygenation of a bi-enzymatic system: efect on biocatalyst stability. Biotechnol Bioeng 102(1):122–131
- <span id="page-8-7"></span>24. Hildebrand A, Kasuga T, Fan ZL (2015) Production of cellobionate from cellulose using an engineered neurospora crassa strain with laccase and redox mediator addition. PLoS ONE 10:e0123006
- <span id="page-8-8"></span>25. Wyman CE, Dale BE, Elander RT, Holtzapple M, Ladisch MR, Lee YY (2005) Coordinated development of leading biomass pretreatment technologies. Bioresour Technol 96:1959–1966
- <span id="page-8-9"></span>26. Wyman CE, Dale BE, Elander RT, Holtzapple M, Ladisch MR, Lee YY (2005) Comparative sugar recovery data from laboratory scale application of leading pretreatment technologies to corn stover. Bioresour Technol 96:2026–2032
- <span id="page-8-10"></span>27. Kim JS, Lee YY, Kim TH (2016) A review on alkaline pretreatment technology for bioconversion of lignocellulosic biomass. Bioresour Technol 199:42–48
- <span id="page-8-11"></span>28. Sluiter A, Hames B, Ruiz R, Scarlata C, Sluiter J, Templeton D (2008) Determination of structural carbohydrates and lignin in biomass laboratory analytical procedure (LAP). National Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL/TP-510–42618)
- <span id="page-8-12"></span>29. Baminger U, Nidetzky B, Kulbe KD, Haltrich D (1999) A simple assay for measuring cellobiose dehydrogenase activity in the presence of laccase. J Microbiol Methods 35:253–259
- <span id="page-8-13"></span>30. Ride JP, Drysdale RB (1972) A rapid method for the chemical estimation of flamentous fungi in plant tissue. Physiol Plant Pathol  $2.7 - 15$
- <span id="page-8-14"></span>31. Zhou M, Tao L, Russell P, Britt RD, Kasuga T, Lü X, Fan Z (2022) The role of lignin in the conversion of wheat straw to cellobionic acid by Neurospora crassa HL10. Ind Crop Prod 188:115650
- <span id="page-8-15"></span>32. Felby C, Nielsen BR, Olesen PO, Skibsted LH (1997) Identifcation and quantifcation of radical reaction intermediates by electron spin resonance spectrometry of laccase-catalyzed oxidation of wood fbers from beech (Fagus sylvatica). Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 48:459–464
- <span id="page-8-16"></span>33. Linden RM, Schilling BC, Germann UA, Lerch K (1991) Regulation of laccase synthesis in induced neurospora-crassa cultures. Curr Genet 19:375–381
- <span id="page-8-17"></span>34. Froehner SC, Eriksson KE (1974) Induction of neurospora-crassa laccase with protein-synthesis inhibitors. J Bacteriol 120:450–457
- <span id="page-8-18"></span>35. Poltorak A, Zhou X, Kasuga T, Xu Y, Fan ZL (2023) Conversion of deproteinized cheese whey to lactobionate by an engineered neurospora crassa strain F5. Appl Biochem Biotechnol 196(3):1292–1303
- <span id="page-8-19"></span>36. Wu W, Hildebrand A, Kasuga T, Xiong X, Fan Z (2013) Direct cellobiose production from cellulose using sextuple beta-glucosidase gene deletion Neurospora crassa mutants. Enzyme Microb Technol 52:184–189
- <span id="page-8-20"></span>37. Harashima T, Inoue H (1998) Pleiotropic defciencies of the laccase-derepressed mutant lah-1 are caused by constitutively increased expression of the cross-pathway control gene cpc-1 in Neurospora crassa. Mol Gen Genet 258:619–627
- <span id="page-8-21"></span>38. Zamma A, Tamaru H, Harashima T, Inoue H (1993) Isolation and characterization of mutants defective in production of laccase in Neurospora crassa. Mol Gen Genet 240:231–237

**Publisher's Note** Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional afliations.