

Materials Research Innovations

ISSN: 1432-8917 (Print) 1433-075X (Online) Journal homepage: <https://www.tandfonline.com/loi/ymri20>

Bioconversion of poly(vinyl alcohol) to vanillin in a *Phanerochaete chrysosporum* **culture medium**

Amanda Inés Mejía, Betty Lucy Lopez & Michael Hess

To cite this article: Amanda Inés Mejía, Betty Lucy Lopez & Michael Hess (2003) Bioconversion of poly(vinyl alcohol) to vanillin in a *Phanerochaete chrysosporum* culture medium, Materials Research Innovations, 7:3, 144-148, DOI: [10.1007/s10019-003-0239-1](https://www.tandfonline.com/action/showCitFormats?doi=10.1007/s10019-003-0239-1)

To link to this article: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10019-003-0239-1>

Published online: 13 Oct 2016.

 $\overline{\mathscr{L}}$ [Submit your article to this journal](https://www.tandfonline.com/action/authorSubmission?journalCode=ymri20&show=instructions) \mathbb{F}

III Article views: 15

 \bullet [View related articles](https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/mlt/10.1007/s10019-003-0239-1) σ

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Amanda Inés Mejía · Betty Lucy Lopez · Michael Hess

Bioconversion of poly(vinyl alcohol) to vanillin in a Phanerochaete chrysosporum culture medium

Received: 25 September 2002 / Revised: 30 January 2003 / Accepted: 25 September 2002 / Published online: 10 April 2003 Springer-Verlag 2003

Abstract The bioconversion of *Phanerochaete chryso*sporium cultures in aqueous poly(vinyl alcohol) – PVAL – solutions was studied. A 50% weight loss was observed within 20 days, caused by a lignin peroxidase – LiP – enzyme which is produced during the secondary metabolism of Phanerochaete chrysosporium. The changes of the chemical structure of PVAL were studied by UV- and IR-spectroscopy. The presence of vanillin – the major metabolic reaction product, benzaldehyde, and veratrylalcohol was determined chromatographically (HPLC) in the extra cellular medium after different reaction times. A possible mechanism of the biological degradation is outlined.

Keywords Biodegradation \cdot Poly(vinyl alcohol) \cdot Vanillin · Phanerochaete chrysosporium

Introduction

Vanillin and related flavour compounds are of great economical importance because of the demand and their price. Low-expansive biotechnological processes therefore are of great interest. The demand for vanillin, for example exceeds its natural production. Only 0.2% of the flavour's world market is presently covered by natural resources; the major part is synthetic material [1]. The tendency to use the products from natural sources

B. L. Lopez

Instituto de Química, Grupo Ciencia de los Materiales, Universidad de Antioquia, Medellin, Colombia, AA 1226

M. Hess

Department of Physical Chemistry, Gerhard-Mercator-University, D-47048 Duisburg, Germany

increases because it is found that they frequently are healthier so that vanillin, for example, can be applied in higher concentration. The drawback however, is the high price. Biotechnologically produced vanillin is considered as "natural."

Vanillin is a bioactive compound which is easily recognized because of its scent. Its biotechnological production makes it available independent from agricultural problems like the climate, contamination by fertilizers, pesticides or plagues. Also, market restrictions or socio-political uncertainties can be ruled out.

The highest concentration of natural vanillin $(1-3\%)$ is found in matured grains of the Vanilla orchid, an easily satisfied parasitic tropical plant which does not need much more than clean air and water to survive [2]. Vanillin can be isolated from the mature grains of the plant as a brown alcoholic solution and has multiple applications in this crude form. However, the amount of material produced is strongly depending on the climatic conditions and the price is high, so early attempts for a synthetic production were investigated. The first large scale production of synthetic vanillin was started from sulphated lignin waste waters in 1936 by the Salvo Corporation in the USA [2].

Vanillin is also an intermediate product in the metabolic oxidation of lignin by the fungus *Phanerochaete* chrysosporium in the course of the biodegradation of lignin, lignin model compounds and aromatic pollutants [3]. Other intermediate products during biodegradation are substituted quinones, hydroquinones, and benzoic acid. Open ring fragments and benzaldehyde are later formed by intracellular metabolic processes [4, 5].

Pseudomonas putida and Streptomyces setonii are also able to produce vanillin from eugenol or ferulic acid substrates [5] in quantities of 5 g/L. Several strains of Nocardia are also able to produce vanillin from vanillic acid [6]. Also gen-technical methods have been developed [7]. Recent investigations [8] report about a biotechnological potential of producing vanillin by enzymatic hydrolysis of red pepper and capsaicin [8]. Among several phenolic components vanillin was identified after

A. I. Mejía (<u>×</u>)

Departamento de Farmacia, Facultad de Química Farmacéutica, Grupo Biotecnología, Universidad de Antioquia, Medellin, Colombia, AA 1226 e-mail: amejia@quimbaya.udea.edu.c

22 days under controlled conditions from cultures of the fungus Pycnoporous cinnabarinus (DMS-1184). Literature does not reveal any results referring to the production of vanillin from PVAL using the enzymatic system of the fungus Phanerochaeta chrysosporum. PVAL is a polymer which is widely used in pharmaceutical, cosmetic, and chemical applications [9]. The production of PVAL was 500,000 t in 1995 world wide [10]. In previous publications [11, 12], we have studied the biodegradation of PVAL with enzymatic extracts of the Phanerochaete chrysosporium fungus, in which the lignin peroxidase activity (LiP) was detected. The results of Gel Permeation Chromatography (GPC) there showed that given the conditions of that study, in 15 days the average molar mass of the polymer decreases about 80%. Benzaldehyde and vanillin were the main degradation products. In the present study, we now want to quantify the amounts of vanillin produced during the degradation using the same biodegradation conditions as applied in ref. 11 and 12.

Materials and methods

The PVAL used in this study had been produced by the BASF Chemical Company, distributed in Colombia by Generic Chemical Products S.A. (gmp), and had an average molar mass of 160,000 g/ mol.

The degree of hydrolysis (HD) of the polymer, the volatiles, sodium acetate and ash content were determined according to JIS K6726-1977 [13]. All values were determined twice. The inserted PVAL had a degree of hydrolysis of 98.99% (mol), 0.568% w/w ash content, and 0.0567% (mol) Na-acetate in the dry product.

Phanerochaeta chrysosporum BKM-F-1767 (ATCC 24725) was cultivated in YMPG medium containing 1% w/v yeast extract, 1% w/v malt extract, 0.2% w/v bacteriological peptone, 1% w/v glucose, 0.1% w/v asparagine, 0.2% w/v KH₂PO₄, 0.1% w/v MgSO4, 1% w/v thiamine hydrochloride, and 2% w/v agar. It was sterilized and incubated for 5 days at 37° C. After that treatment it was kept at $4 °C$ [14, 15].

The expression fluid where the enzyme ligninperoxidase – LiP – is produced contained 0.1 g/mL% PVAL, $0.\overline{1}\%$ w/v glucose, 0.02% w/v ammonium tartrate, 0.05% w/v $MgSO₄$, 0.01% w/v 5 CaCl₂·12 H₂O, 0.05% w/v between 80, 0.1% w/v thiamine, 2.5 m/mol veratryl alcohol and 70 ml/L of trace element solutions (1 L of this trace element solution contained 1.5 g nitriloacetic acid, 0.3 g MgSO₄.5 H₂O, 0.1 g NaCl, 0.1 g FeSO₄.7H₂O, 0.1 g CaCl₂.12 H_2O , 0.1 g ZnSO₄·7H₂O, 0.01 g CuSO₄·5H₂O, 0.01 g AlK(SO₄)₂·12 H₂O, 0.01 g HBO₃, Na₂MoO₄.2H₂O [16]). The pH was adjusted to 4.5 with a sodium tartrate buffer. The ionic strength was about 0.2 mol.

The expression fluid was filtered through 0.45 μ m membranes. Twelve aliquots of 175 ml of this solution were poured into 500 ml Erlenmeyer covered with cotton torundes, under sterile conditions. In nine of them freshly replied Phanerochaete chrysosporium spores (not older than 3 weeks) were inoculated until a final concentration of 18×10^4 spores/mL was reached [16, 17] and the lasted three without spores are used as control samples. Orbital shaking speed was set at 150 rpm at 25 $^{\circ}$ C.

Three of the PVAL samples were maintained during 10 days, three during 20 days, and finally three during 30 days. Three control samples were maintained during 30 days. For the analysis, the total amount of each Erlenmeyer flask was filtered using 0.45 μ m membranes.

LiP-activity

The activity of LiP was determined according to Kirk et al. [18] using a Varian Cary 50 Bio uv-vis spectrometer.

Extraction of the metabolites

Each sample was adjusted to pH 2 with HCl 3 M and extracted with three aliquots of 20 mL of fresh mixtures of acetonitrile/ methylenechloride (90:10). The combined extracts were concentrated at 55 °C with a RotavaporTM. The organic phase (with a strong vanillin smell) was kept at -20 °C until further analysis. After thawing the sample a thin white layer of PVAL had precipitated. The precipitate was filtered and dried for further analysis.

Concentration of residual PVAL

The concentrations of residual PVAL was determined according to the method of Alzate et al. [19], which is based on, the method described by Finch [20]. The calibration curve of PVAL was composed in the culture medium.

Residual PVAL was separated from the culture solution after defined reaction times by freeze-precipitation at -20 °C, separated by centrifugation and dried to constant weight at 70° C. Solutions containing 0.1% g/mL were analysed as described below.

IR-Spectroscopy

A Perkin-Elmer Spectrum one FTIR spectrometer was used. A PVAL film was produced by evaporating the aqueous solution of the polymer in a SeZn-ATR cell. These solid-state spectra cannot be used for an exact quantitative analysis, qualitative and relative information, however, can be drawn from them.

GC-MS analysis

The combined extracts of each sample as described above was subjected to a GC-MS analysis (Varian) on OV-5 polar columns (30 m length), temperature ramp 70–220 \degree C with a heating rate of 10 K/min. The components were identified with the corresponding standards.

HPLC-analysis

A Waters liquid chromatography equipped with a 996 UV diode array and C-18 columns (4.6 mm \times 250 mm, particle size 5 μ m, mobile phase: 53% ortho phosphoric acid, 0.2% H₂O, 47% acetonitrile; flow rate: 1 mL/min; injected volume 20 μ L) was used for quantitative determination of vanillin, veratryl alcohol and benzaldehyde after establishing the corresponding calibrations with the pure components.

Results and discussion

The time dependence of the LiP-activity and the PVAL concentration is given in Fig. 1a and the vanillin production is given in Fig. 1b. The activity of the LiP and the vanillin production increases with the time after 10 days. The fungus secretes LiP enzyme into extra cellular environment under nutrient limited conditionsspecific glucose and nitrogen- [11, 12, 21]. The presence of the LiP causes the degradation of the PVAL to produce

Fig. 1 a) time dependence of LiP-activity (triangles) and polymer concentration (squares). The unit "U" used for description of biochemical enzyme activity is defined by $U \equiv \mu$ mol/min, b) time dependence of the vanillin concentration during the enzymatic degradation of PVAL

vanillin as one of the main degradation product. There is no activity and it is no vanillin production in the PVAL control samples.

Although the molar mass of the polymers were not explicitly determined in this work, previous work under the same biodegradation conditions showed that the average molar mass of the polymer determined by GPC decreased after 10 days [11, 12]. It seems that during the initial period of the degradation (<10 days) a decrease of the polymer chain length is negligible and the predominant reactions are functionalization reactions of a still rather intact main chain (see spectroscopic results). After 30 days, no precipitate could be isolated, indicating that the degradation of the PVAL chains had reached a state where only oligomeric material is left which soluble in the culture medium even at low temperatures.

The infrared spectra of the PVAL after different incubation times are given in Fig. 2.

The peak at the wave number 3314 cm^{-1} shows the unchanged OH-stretching vibration of the PVAL in the control sample and degraded polymer after 10 days respectively 20 days, as indicated. The splitting of the 3314 cm^{-1} signal into two peaks indicates the presence of hydroperoxide groups produced during degradation. At 2936 cm^{-1} is correlated with the CH-stretching vibration and becomes markedly weaker with increasing incubation time – in particular for times >20 days. The signal at 2974 cm⁻¹ merging around 20 days of reaction time is attributed to the appearance of $= C - H$ stretching vibrations [22, 23]. The intensity of vibrations of carbonyl groups -1710 cm^{-1} – is only small and found for samples with a high degree of hydrolysis [9]. However, it increases in intensity for samples incubated >20 days.

Fig. 2 Time dependence of IR-spectrum of PVAL during the course of biodegradation (precipitated as a film), for details see text

The C=C, indicated by an absorption at 1600 cm^{-1} [22] increases with increasing incubation time. For incubation times >20 days this band shifts to 1580 cm⁻¹ indicating a possible conjugation with the carbonyl function of an aldehyde or a ketone [22].

Considering the decreasing mass of the precipitating PVAL being due to decreasing chain length of the polymers, the biotransformation of PVAL seems to be initiated by a longer period of functionalization reactions before the chain degradation mechanism – probably dominated by intra-chenar cyclization reactions – takes over after about twenty days.

Since the chain length of PVAL does not change considerably during the first 10 days, and no vanillin production was found in the absence of PVAL, a possible explanation is that degradation starts at the chain ends or is due to completely soluble oligomeric material present in the polymer which is not detected by the precipitation analysis used in this work.

GC-MS analyses show the presence of vanillin, veratryl alcohol and benzaldehyde. Benzaldehyde was only found in some samples with variable concentration. This effect is apparently caused by the sensibility of this reaction product to oxidation and other side reactions.

The initial concentration of veratryl alcohol added to the culture medium was 2.5 mmol/L and we found 3.0 mmol/L after 10 days, because this compound is formed by the ligninolitic machinery of Phanerochaete chrysosporium [11, 23]. After 20 days and 30 days, the concentration of veratryl alcohol decreased to 2.1 mmol/L and 1×10^{-2} mmol/L respectively; no change in the concentration of the veratryl alcohol was observed in the control. This substance acts as a mediator in the production of LiP.

The linear single strand PVAL can contain small rings formed by etherification side reactions as shown in the reaction scheme (Table 1). The enzyme LiP can cause deterioration of PVAL during the first (<10 days) and the second stage (>10 days) of the biodegradation process. During the first stage, the enzyme eliminates residual

First Cycle

Propagation cycle (10-30 days)

LiP(o ferric enzyme) + H_2O_2
 Compound I (Oxoiron-IV-Porphyrin)* Compound I + Veratryalcohol -> Compound II or Complex (Oxoiron-IV-Porphyrin)

Hundred of cycles take place in this state of degradation

Termination Cycle

acetate ester groups forming diketones, break the intramolecular ether linkages and oxidize hydroxyl groups [12, 24]. In the second stage the enzymes cause the degradation of the polymer main chain resulting in a decrease of the average molar mass and an increase of the solubility of the reaction products. The LiP-catalyzed degradation forms free radicals, and the FTIR-spectra indeed show the presence of hydroperoxides as their intermediate products. Other radical reactions like recombination, disproportion play an inferior role in the reaction which is mainly governed by the fast propagation of the radical-propagated degradation process. Only in the final state of the reaction ketones, quinones, and aromatic compounds are formed by the other radical reactions mentioned above [24].

Conclusion

Under the biodegradation conditions utilized in this work, the PVAL was bioconverted to Vanillin in amounts comparable to other biodegradation processes [4, 5].

The LiP can be produced and regenerated in higher quantities in stable systems as they were investigated in the present work. For at least 30 days, the LiP was produced without interference by metabolites. Veratryl alcohol is consumed in stabilizing the complex II (see

Table 1). The complex II is essential for the oxidative degradation of the PVAL.

Although the enzymatic activity of Phanerochaete chrysosporium and its effect on degradation of recalcitrant and xenobiotic compounds [25] has been known for 15 years, the interactive site between the substrate and the peroxidase is still unidentified. Johjima et al. [26] suggest that the substrate is not able to interact with the hemogroup of LiP directly (probably due to steric hindrance) and that a small redox mediator molecule is required to carry out the initial reactions. Veratryl alcohol is well known as a physiological substrate for LiP.

Phanerochaete chrysosporium provides with its complex enzyme system a highly efficient bioconversion of PVAL to vanillin. The necessary condition is that the enzymatic system has to be stabilized by veratryl alcohol as it had been described by Cameron et al. [25]. However, many variables influence the reactions. One important question is the role of veratryl alcohol in the formation of vanillin, if it is directly involved in its formation. Until now, no experiment carried out without veratryl alcohol in the presence of PVAL resulted in a formation of vanillin. There is no explanation why veratryl alcohol is not regenerated when the reaction approaches equilibrium. More experiments are necessary to establish the metabolic flow, influencing parameters and side reactions. In particular studies of the behaviour of the molar mass of the polymer parallel with the concentration of veratryl alcohol, vanillin, and the reproducibility of the benzaldehyde production, the analysis of the radical reactions with ESR and conformational analysis of the polymer should give deeper insight into the reactions.

Acknowledgements We thank the Universidad de Antioquia for the resources assigned to this project.

References

- 1. Krings U, Berger RG (1998) Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 49: 1
- 2. Hocking MB (1997) J Chem Ed 74: 1055
- 3. Thompson DN, Hames BR, Reddy CA, Grethlein HE (1998) Biotech & Bioeng 57 (6): 704
- 4. Akileswaran L, Brock BJ, Cereghino JL, Gold MH (1999) Appl & Environm Microbiol 65: 415
- 5. Muheim A, Lerch K (2001) Biotech Progress Jan: 457
- 6. Li T, Rosazza JPN (2000) Appl & Environm Microbiol 66: 684 7. Walton NJ, Narbad A, Faulds CB, Williamson G (2000) Current Opinion in Biotechnology 11: 490
- 8. Heuvel RHH, Fraaije MW, Laane C, Berkel WJH (2001) J Agricult & Food Chem 49: 2954
- 9. Finch CA (ed) (1992) Polyvinyl alcohol. Developments. J Wiley Sons, London, Chap 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 11, 19
- 10. Moritani T, Kajitani K (1997) Polymer 38 [12]: 933
- 11. López BL, Mejía AI, Sierra L (1999) Polymer Eng & Sci 39: 1346
- 12. Mejía AI, López BL, Mulet PA (1999) Macromolecul Chem & Phys Symposia 148: 131
- 13. Standard Industrial Japan JIS K 6726 (1977) Testing Methods for polyvinylalcohol
- 14. Tien M, Kirk TK (1983) Science 221: 661
- 15. Glenn JK, Morgan MA, Mayfield MB, Kuwahara M, Gold MH (1983) Biochem Biophys 114: 1077
- 16. Jiménez T GA, Mejía G AI, López O BL (1999). Rev Acad Colombiana Ciencias Físicas, Exactas y Naturales 23: 587
- 17. Penninckx M, Jiménez GA (1996) Microbiology transformation of the biomass, Theoretical-practical course. In University of Antioquia. Medellin
- 18. Kirk TK, Tien M, Kersten PJ, Mozuch MD, Kalyanaraman B (1986) Biochem J 236: 279
- 19. Alzate JH, Arbeláez CA, Mejía AI y López BL (2001) Caracterización del Polivinilalcohol (PVOH) en Medios de Disolución Complejos. Vitae 8:47
- 20. Finch CA (ed) (1973) Polyvinyl alcohol. Properties and aplications. Wiley, London, Chap 1, Appendix 3
- 21. Jiménez GA., Penninckx MJ, Lejeune R (1997) Enzyme & Microb Technol 21: 537
- 22. Moo LY, Hwi KS, K Jeong S (1996) Polymer 37: 5897
- 23. Sutherland GRJ, Khindaria A, Aust SD (1996) Arch Biochem & Biophys 327: 20
- 24. Holland BJ, Hay JN (2001) Polymer 42: 6775
- 25. Cameron MD, Timofeevski S, Aust SD (2000) Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 54: 751
- 26. Johjima T, Itoh N, Kabuto M, Tokimura F, Nakagawa T, Warrishi H, Tanaka H (1999) Proc Natl Acad Sci US 96: 1989