การ โคลนยืน การแสดงออก และลักษณะสมบัติของ ใลเพสจาก*Fusarium solani* สำหรับการผลิต ใบ โอคีเซล

นาย วีระศักดิ์ ถเกิงการกิจ

วิทยานิพนธ์นี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปริญญาวิทยาศาสตรมหาบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาเทคโนโลยีชีวภาพ คณะวิทยาศาสตร์ จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย ปีการศึกษา 2553 ลิขสิทธิ์ของจุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

## GENE CLONING, EXPRESSION AND CHARACTERIZATION OF LIPASE

FROM Fusarium solani

FOR THE PRODUCTION OF BIODIESEL

Mr. Weerasak Thakernkarnkit

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Science Program in Biotechnology Faculty of Science Chulalongkorn University Academic Year 2010 Copyright of Chulalongkorn University

Thesis Title	GENE CLONING, EXPRESSION AND
	CHARACTERIZATION OF LIPASE FROM
	Fusarium solani FOR THE PRODUCTION OF
	BIODIESEL
By	Mr. Weerasak Thakernkarnkit
Field of Study	Biotechnology
Thesis Advisor	Associate Professor Tikamporn Yongvanich
Thesis Co-advisor	Pakorn Winayanuwattikun, Ph.D.

Accepted by the Faculty of Science, Chulalongkorn University in Partial

Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Master's Degree

......Dean of the Faculty of Science

(Professor Supot Hannongbua, Dr.rer.nat.)

### THESIS COMMITTEE

.....Chairman (Professor Piamsook Pongsawasdi, Ph.D.)

......Thesis Advisor

(Associate Professor Tikamporn Yongvanich)

(Pakorn Winayanuwattikun, Ph.D.)

.....Examiner

(Kittinan Komolpis, Ph.D.)

.....External Examiner

(Yodsoi Kanintronkul, Ph.D.)

วระศักดิ์ ถเกิงการกิจ : การโลลนยืน การแสดงออก และลักษณะสมบัติของไลเพสจาก Fusarium solani สำหรับการผลิตไบโอดีเซล (GENE CLONING, EXPRESSION AND CHARACTERIZATION OF LIPASE FROM Fusarium solani FOR THE PRODUCTION OF BIODIESEL) อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก: รศ. ทิฆัมพร ยงวณิชย์, อ. ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์ร่วม: อ. ดร. ปกรณ์ วินะยานุวัติคุณ, 107 หน้า.

้ไบโอดีเซลเป็นผลิตภัณฑ์ที่เกิดจากไตรกลีเซอไรด์ในปฏิกิริยาทรานส์เอสเทอริฟิเคชั่นที่มีกรด หรือเบสเป็นตัวเร่ง อย่างไรก็ตาม ตัวเร่งปฏิกิริยาทางชีวภาพเช่นไลเพสได้รับความสนใจมากขึ้น ด้วยเหตุ ้นี้จึงมีการคัดเลือกไลเพสจากจุลินทรีย์ในธรรมชาติเพื่อนำมาใช้ในการผลิตไบโอดีเซลค้วยปฏิกิริยา ้ดังกล่าว โดยนำพันธุวิศวกรรมมาใช้พัฒนาและเพิ่มปริมาณการผลิตไลเพส งานวิจัยนี้ทำการโคลนยืน ใลเพสที่ผลิตได้จาก เชื้อรา Fusarium solani เข้าสู่ pPICZαA พบว่ายืนที่ได้มีขนาด 1002 คู่เบส และ แปลรหัสเป็นกรคอะมิโนได้ 333 หน่วย จากนั้นถ่ายโอนยืนไลเพสดังกล่าวเพื่อแสดงออกใน Pichia pastoris สายพันฐ์ KM71 พบว่า ภาวะที่เหมาะสมในการเหนี่ยวนำการแสดงออกได้แก่การบ่มใน เมทานอลปริมาณ 3% ที่อุณหภูมิ 30 องศาเซลเซียส เวลา 5 วัน จากนั้นทำรีคอมบิแนนท์ไลเพสที่ได้ให้ ้บริสุทธิ์เพื่อศึกษาลักษณะสมบัติ พบว่าเอนไซม์มีความบริสุทธิ์เพิ่มขึ้น 2.5 เท่า และมีน้ำหนักโมเลกูล ประมาณ 40 กิโลดาลตัน จากการศึกษาความจำเพาะของสารตั้งต้น พบว่า เอนไซม์มีความจำเพาะต่อสาร ตั้งต้นที่มีจำนวนการ์บอนตั้งแต่ 4 ถึง 14 อะตอม ภาวะที่เหมาะสมของการทำงานคือกวามเป็นกรดค่าง เท่ากับ 9 ช่วงอุณหภูมิ 35-40 องศาเซลเซียส อีกทั้งมีความเสถียรที่ความเป็นกรคค่าง 5.0 ถึง 10.0 ที่ อุณหภูมิต่ำกว่า 35 องศาเซลเซียส เมื่อศึกษาสารที่มีผลต่อการทำงานของเอนไซม์ พบว่า ไอออนของ ้โลหะ ตัวทำละลายที่ไม่มีขั้วและสารลดแรงดึงผิวส่วนใหญ่ไม่มีผลต่อก่าการทำงานของรีกอมบิแนนท์ไล เพส แต่ถูกขับขั้งอย่างรุนแรงด้วย SDS และสารรีดิวซึ่ง β- mercaptoethanol เมื่อนำรีคอมบิแนนท์ไลเพส มาเร่งปฏิกิริยาไฮครอลิซิสของน้ำมันพืช 7 ชนิค ได้แก่ มะพร้าว เงาะ ปาล์ม มะละกอ มะกอก สบู่ดำ และ ดอกคำฝอย พบว่าน้ำมันมะพร้าวเป็นสารตั้งต้นที่ให้ก่าการทำงานจำเพาะสูงสุดเท่ากับ 1.14 ไมโครโมล ต่อนาที่ต่อมิลลิกรัมโปรตีน จากนั้นศึกษาการเร่งปฏิกิริยาทรานส์เอสเทอริฟิเคชั่นของเอนไซม์ โดยใช้ น้ำมันที่ให้ค่าการทำงานจำเพาะสูงจากปฏิกิริยาไฮครอลิซิส 4 ชนิค ได้แก่มะพร้าว เงาะ มะละกอ และ ปาล์ม เป็นสารตั้งต้น พบว่าน้ำมันที่สกัดจากเงาะสามารถผลิตไบโอดีเซลได้ประมาณ 45 เปอร์เซ็นต์ซึ่งสง กว่ามะละกอ ปาล์ม และมะพร้าว ตามลำคับ

จากผลการศึกษาทั้งหมดสรุปได้ว่าสามารถโคลนยืนไลเพสจากเชื้อรา Fusarium solani ซึ่งมีความสามารถแสดงออกในการเร่งปฏิกิริยาไฮครอลิซิสและทรานส์เอสเทอริฟิเคชั่นสำหรับการผลิต ใบโอดีเซลได้

สาขาวิชา <u></u>	<u>เทคโนโลยีชีวภาพ</u>	ลายมือชื่อนิสิต
ปีการศึกษา <u>.</u>	2553	ลายมือชื่อ อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก
		ลายบื้อชื่อ อ ที่ปรึกมาวิทยาบิพบธ์ร่าน

#### # # 5072598223 : MAJOR BIOTECHNOLOGY

KEYWORDS: LIPASES / Fusarium solani / GENE CLONING /BIODIESEL

WEERASAK THAKERNKARNKIT: GENE CLONING, EXPRESSION AND CHARACTERIZATION OF LIPASE FROM *Fusarium solani* FOR THE PRODUCTION OF BIODIESEL. ADVISOR: ASSOC. PROF.TIKAMPORN YONGVANICH. CO-ADVISOR: PAKORN WINAYANUWATTIKUN, Ph.D., 107 pp.

Biodiesel is the product derived from triglycerides by transesterification catalyzed by acid or base. However, biological catalyst such as lipase has become more attractive. The screening for natural microbial lipases with the transesterification activities together with gene technology can therefore be applied to develop and increase the production of large quantities of the enzyme. In this research, the lipase gene was cloned from lipase producing fungus namely, Fusarium solani into the pPICZaA. The result revealed that the gene was composed of 1,002 bp and could be deduced into 333 residues of amino acids. The lipase gene was then transformed and expressed in *Pichia pastoris* strain KM71. It was found that the incubation in the presence of 3 % of methanol at 30 °C for 5 days was optimal for the induction of the expression. The expressed recombinant lipase was subsequently purified and 2.5 purification folds with the molecular weight of approximately 40 kDa were obtained. The study of substrate specificity showed that the enzyme was specific towards the substrates with carbon chain lengths between 4-14. The optimal conditions were found to be pH 9 at 35-40 °C while the enzyme was stable at pH between 5.0-10.0 and the temperature below 35 °C. The effect of chemicals revealed that the activity of recombinant lipase was not influenced by most studied metal ions and detergents but strongly inhibited by SDS and reducing agent,  $\beta$ mercaptoethanol. When the recombinant lipase was tested for the hydrolysis of 7 types of plant oils including coconut, rambutan, palm, papaya, olive, physic nuts and safflowers, the highest specific activity of 1.14 µmol/min/mg protein was obtained from the coconut oil as substrate. Finally, the transesterification of 4 types of oils with high hydrolytic activities ie. coconut, rambutan, palm and papaya was investigated. The results indicated that approximately 45% of biodiesel were obtained from rambutan oil which was higher than papaya, palm and coconut respectively.

From this study, it could therefore be concluded that lipase gene from *Fusarium solani* was successfully cloned and expressed. The obtained recombinants could catalyze both the hydrolysis and transesterification for the production of biodiesel.

Field of Study :	Biotechnology	Student's Signature
Academic Year :	2010	Advisor's Signature
		Co-advisor's Signature

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Sincere gratitude is expressed to Associate Professor Tikamporn Yongvanich, my advisor and Dr. Pakorn Winayanuwattikun, my co-adviser for their guidance throughout the project. All my research was conducted with Associate Professor Tikamporn Yongvanich, who has supported my work through the last 4 years and encouraged me in every aspect of my life. Without her, I would not have been able to complete this research. Dr. Pakorn Winayanuwattikun, my co-adviser, was the person who introduced me to the molecular biology aspect of biofuels. I always feel deeply grateful and cherish the memory of my four year experience with him.

I would like to thank Associate Professor Dr.Warawut Chulaluksananukul for his kind provision of HPLC, PCR and electroporation in this research. My thanks are also extended to Miss Chutima Keawpiboon, Miss Kaewjai Sangkhaha, Miss Kingkeaw Piriyakananon, Miss Supaluk Tantong and all members in 617/3 for their friendship, kind assistance and suggestion.

Furthermore, I gratefully acknowledge the financial support received from Agricultural Research Development Agency (Public Organization), CU graduate school thesis grant and Biofuels by Biocatalysts Research Unit, Faculty of Science, Chulalongkorn University.

Last but not least, I would like to express my wholehearted gratitude and the deepest appreciation to my mother, and my sister for their morale support, understanding, and strong encouragement throughout my entire education.

### CONTENTS

#### Page

1

1

3

3

3

ABSTRACT (THAI)	iv
ABSTRACT (ENGLISH)	v
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	vi
CONTENTS	vii
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiv
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xvi

# CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION. 1.1 Statement of purpose. 1.2 Objectives. 1.3 Scopes of study. 1.4 Expected results.

1.5 Thesis organization	3
e	

### CHAPTER II THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND LITERATURE

REVIEWS	4
2.1 Biodiesel	4
2.1.1 Biodiesel production	5
2.2 Lipase	6
2.2.1 Sources of lipases	7
2.2.2 Properties of lipases	8
2.2.3 Enzymatic reaction of lipase	9
2.2.4 Application of lipases	10

2.3 DNA technology	11
2.4 Protein purification	14

## 

3.1 Equipments	17
3.2 Chemicals	18
3.3 Bacterial and fungal strains	18
3.4 Enzymes	18
3.5 Commercial plasmids	19
3.6 Commercial kits	19
3.7 Synthetic oligonucleotides	19
3.8 Purification column	19
3.9 Oils	20
3.10 Miscellaneous	20
3.11 Data analysis program	20
3.12 Research methodology	20
3.12.1 Identification of the lipase producing fungi	21
3.12.1.1 Molecular identification	21
3.12.1.1.1 Genomic DNA extraction	21
3.12.1.1.2 ITS gene amplification	22
3.12.1.1.3 Ligation of ITS gene into vector	22
3.12.1.1.4 Preparation of competent cells by calcium chloride (CaCl <sub>2</sub> ) method	23
3.12.1.1.5 Transformation into <i>E.coli</i> DH5α by heat shock method	24

3.12.1.1.6 Screening of the recombinant clones by rapid size screening method	
3.12.1.1.7 Extraction of plasmid	
3.12.1.1.8 Restriction analysis	
3.12.1.1.9 DNA sequencing and analysis	
3.12.2 Cloning of the lipase gene	
3.12.2.1 Preparation of the lipase gene	
3.12.2.2 Preparation of the plasmids	
3.12.2.3 Double digestion of lipase gene and pPICZαA plasmids by restriction enzyme	
3.12.2.4 Ligation of lipase gene into pPICZαA vectors	
3.12.2.5 Transformation of recombinant plasmids into <i>E.coli</i> DH5α competent cells	
3.12.2.6 Screening of the recombinant clones	
3.12.2.7 DNA sequencing and analysis	
3.12.3 Expression of lipase gene in <i>Pichia pastoris</i>	
3.12.3.1 Preparation of recombinant plasmid	
3.12.3.2 Preparation of the competent cells	
3.12.3.3 Transformation of recombinant plasmids into <i>Pichia pastoris</i> by electroporation	
3.12.3.4 Screening of recombinant clones by rhodamine B plate visualization	
3.12.3.5 Optimization of the expression	
3.12.3.5.1 Effect of the methanol concentration	
3.12.3.5.2 Effect of the time	
3.12.4 Purification of the lipase	
3.12.4.1 Lipase assay	

3.12.4.2 Protein determination.	33
3.12.5 Characterization of lipase	33
3.12.5.1 Substrate specificity of the purified lipase	33
3.12.5.2 Effect of pH on the activity of lipase	33
3.12.5.3 Effect of temperature on the activity of lipase	34
3.12.5.4 Stability of recombinant lipase	34
3.12.5.4.1 Effect of pH	34
3.12.5.4.2 Effect of temperature	34
3.12.5.5. Effect of metal ions on the activity of lipase	35
3.12.5.6 Effect of chemicals on the activity of lipase	35
3.12.5.7 Effect of organic solvents on the activity of lipase	35
3.12.5.8 Effect of alcohol on the activity of lipase	36
3.12.5.9 Hydrolysis of oil	36
3.12.5.10 Transesterification for the production of biodiesel	37
3.12.5.10.1 HPLC analysis	37

CHAPTER IV RESULTS	41
4.1 Identification of the lipase producing fungi	41
4.1.1 Molecular identification	41
4.2 Cloning of the lipase gene	42
4.3 Expression of lipase gene in <i>Pichia pastoris</i>	45
4.3.1 Optimization of the expression	46
4.3.1.1 Effect of the methanol concentration	46
4.3.1.2 Effect of the time	46
4.4 Purification of the lipase	47

4.5 Characterization of lipase	50
4.5.1 Substrate specificity of the purified lipase	50
4.5.2 Effect of pH on the activity of lipase	51
4.5.3 Effect of temperature on the activity of lipase	52
4.5.4 Stability of recombinant lipase	53
4.5.4.1 Effect of pH	53
4.5.4.2 Effect of temperature	54
4.5.5. Effect of metal ions on the activity of lipase	55
4.5.6. Effect of chemicals on the activity of lipase	56
4.5.7 Effect of organic solvents on the activity of lipase	58
4.5.8 Effect of alcohol on the activity of lipase	59
4.5.9 Hydrolysis of oil	61
4.5.10 Transesterification of oil	62

CHAPTER V DISCUSSION	63
5.1 Identification of the lipase producing fungi	63
5.2 Cloning of the lipase gene	64
5.3 Expression of the lipase gene in <i>Pichia pastoris</i>	65
5.4 Purification of the lipase	66
5.5 Characterization of lipase	66
5.5.1 Substrate specificity of the purified lipase	66
5.5.2 Effect of pH on the activity of lipase	67
5.5.3 Effect of temperature on the activity of lipase	68
5.5.4 Stability of recombinant lipase	68
5.5.4.1 Effect of pH	68

5.5.4.2 Effect of temperature	69
5.5.5 Effect of metal ions on the activity of lipase	69
5.5.6 Effect of chemicals on the activity of lipase	70
5.5.7 Effect of organic solvents on the activity of lipase	71
5.5.8 Effect of alcohol on the activity of lipase	72
5.5.9 Hydrolysis of oil	72
5.5.10 Transesterification of oil	73
CHAPTER VI CONCLUSION	75 77
APPENDICES	85
APPENDIX A	86
APPENDIX B	96
APPENDIX C	97
APPENDIX D	99

<b>BIOGRAPHY</b>	107
------------------	-----

## LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
2-1	Comparative properties of diesel and biodiesel	4
2-2	Lipase purification	16
3-1	List of primers	19
3-2	Restriction enzymes	25
4-1	Purification of lipase from Fusarium solani	49
4-2	Effect of number of substrate chain lengths on the specific activity of the purified recombinant lipase	50
4-3	Hydrolysis of oil	62
C-1	Reagent volume for preparation of standard curve	97
D-1	Fatty acid composition of oils	102

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
2-1	Enzymatic reactions of lipases	9
2-2	Aminolysis reaction catalyzed by lipases	10
2-3	Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR)	13
3-1	Physical map of pGEMT® - T Easy vector	39
3-2	Physical map of pPICZαA vector	40
4-1	PCR amplification of ITS gene	41
4-2	Alignment of ITS gene to database of BLAST program	42
4-3	Agarose gel electrophoresis represented pPICZ $\alpha$ A and the restriction enzyme analysis.	43
4-4	Alignment of amino acid sequence using BLAST program	44
4-5	Amino acid composition of lipase gene from Fusarium solani	45
4-6	The effect of methanol concentration on the hydrolysis activity	46
4-7	The effect of time on the hydrolysis activity	47
4-8	Chromatographic purification profile of recombinant lipase from <i>Fusarium solani</i>	48
4-9	SDS-PAGE analysis of samples on purification of the lipase from <i>Fusarium solani</i>	49
4-10	Effect of number of substrate chain lengths on the specific activity of the purified recombinant lipase	51
4-11	Effect of pH on the activity of the purified recombinant lipase	52
4-12	Effect of temperature on the relative activity of the purified recombinant lipase	53
4-13	Effect of pH on lipase stability	54
4-14	Effect of temperature on lipase stability	55
4-15	Effect of metal ions on lipase activity	56
4-16	Effect of chemicals on lipase activity	57

## Figure

4-17	Effect of organic solvents on lipase activity	59
4-18	Effect of methanol on lipase activity	60
4-19	Effect of ethanol on lipase activity	61
C-1	Standard curve of BSA	98
D-1	Molecular structure of triglyceride	100
D-2	Transesterification of palm oil and methanol	104
D-3	Chromatogram of methyl ester from transesterification catalyzed by microbial lipase and analyzed by high performance liquid chromatography	106

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

bp	basepair	μg	microgram
°C	degree celcius	μl	microliter
et al.	et alia (latin)	μΜ	micromolar
FAME	Fatty Acid Methyl Ester	mg	milligram
FFA	Free Fatty Acid	ml	milliliter
Fig.	figure	mM	millimolar
g	gram	min	minute
hr.	hour	М	Molar
ITS	Internal transcribes spacer	mol	mole
kb	kilobase	nm	nanometer
kDa	kilodalton	1b/in <sup>2</sup>	pound (force) per square inch
kg	kilogram	S	second
L	liter	v/v	volume by volume
m	meter	w/w, wt	weight by weight

#### **CHAPTER I**

#### INTRODUCTION

#### **1.1 Statement of purpose**

The growth in petroleum consumption throughout the world has caused an urgent economic, security, and environmental problems. One of the best solutions to alleviate such problem is to develop the alternative fuels such as biodiesel (Guan et al., 2009). Biodiesel is a natural replacement of diesel fuel generated from various types of organic feedstocks including fresh or waste vegetable oils, animal fats, and oilseed plants (Jeong et al., 2009; Patil and Deng, 2009 and Rosa et al., 2008). Biodiesel releases significantly lower emissions than petroleum-based diesel when it is burned, both in its pure form or blended with petroleum diesel. It does not contribute to an increase in the level of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere but also minimizes the intensity of greenhouse effect (Antolin et al., 2002 and Vicente et al., 2004). In addition, biodiesel is better than diesel fuel in terms of sulfur content, flash point, aromatic content and biodegradability. Biodiesel can be produced by transesterification (alcoholysis) of vegetables oils or animal fats. This reaction can be catalyzed by chemical or biological catalysts such as acid, base and lipase, respectively. However, biodiesel produced by chemical catalyst has several drawbacks such as difficulties in recovery of glycerol, removal of basic catalyst from product and the treatment of alkaline wastewater. On the other hand, the enzymatic reaction by lipase has attracted much more attention for biodiesel production as it produces high purity product and enables easy separation from the byproduct, glycerol. Lipases (Triacylglycerol acylhydrolases EC 3.1.1.3) are enzyme catalysing the hydrolysis of triglycerides at the oil-water interface. Generally, lipases are very applicable by many industries e.g., detergent, oil and fats, baking, organic synthesis, hard surface cleaning, leather and paper industries. Lipases are normally found in plants, animals and microorganisms (Cihangir and Sarikaya, 2004 and Deng *et al.*, 2005). Microbial lipases display great potential for commercial applications because they show wide range of pH and temperature stability, as well as broad substrate specificity. In addition, microbial lipases are extracellular thus it is easy for the separation. Furthermore, microorganisms are easy to culture because they can be grown in small amount of media. Nevertheless, natural microbial lipases are inadequate for industrial applications. Hence, the modification of the gene encoding the enzyme by gene technology should be promising to increase the yield of enzyme production. This technology offers several benefits to the enzyme industries such as; the use of safe and well documented host organisms resulting in efficiency enhancement, higher product purity and finally, the enzymes with improved stability and activity (Falch, 1991).

From the previous studies, 70 fungal strains isolated from the samples of oil contaminated soil and waste water were screened for lipase production. After the determination of lipase activity, the isolate NAN 103 exhibited the highest specific activity of lipase,  $88.73 \pm 0.99$  U/mg (Malilas, 2006). When the production of biodiesel using the palm oil and methanol as substrates catalyzed by purified lipases from isolate NAN 103 was determined at 40 °C for 48 hours, the percent conversion was found to be  $23.98 \pm 3.21$  (Winayanuwattikun *et al*, 2011). Therefore, this research attempted to clone and express the lipase gene from this isolated NAN 103 to be used as the catalyst for the production of biodiesel.

#### **1.2 Objectives**

To clone the gene, express, purify and characterize lipases from *Fusarium solani* as the catalyst for the biodiesel production

#### **1.3 Scopes of the study**

- 1.3.1 To identify the lipase producing fungi
- 1.3.2 To clone lipase gene
- 1.3.3 To express lipase gene
- 1.3.4 To purify recombinant lipase
- 1.3.5 To characterize recombinant lipase

#### **1.4 Expected results**

This research should provide the lipase which can be produced from *Fusarium solani* in order to catalyze transesterification for the production of biodiesel.

#### 1.5 Thesis organization

This thesis comprises six chapters as follows: Chapter 1 is the introduction. Chapter 2 gives the theoretical background and literature reviews. In Chapter 3, material and methods is provided. The results can be found in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 is the discussion and the final chapter is the conclusion.

#### **CHAPTER II**

#### THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND LITERATURE REVIEWS

#### **2.1 Biodiesel**

Biodiesel is a diesel fuel substitute produced from renewable sources such as vegetable oils, animal fats and recycled cooking oils. Chemically, it is defined as the monoalkyl ester of long chain fatty acids (chain length  $C_{14}$ – $C_{22}$ ) (Demirbas, 2009). This fuel has many advantages over petroleum diesel namely; the raw materials used are natural and renewable, biodegradable, non- toxic and results in low exhaust emission of carbon monoxide, particulates and hydrocarbon so it is an environmental friendly fuel (West *et al.*, 2008; Albuquerque *et al.*, 2009; Eevera *et al.*, 2009; Demirbas, 2009). Biodiesel can be produced by several processes and the property is similar to petrodiesel as shown in Table 2-1.

Table 2-1. Comparative	properties of	diesel and	biodiesel
------------------------	---------------	------------	-----------

Fuel properties	Diesel	Biodiesel
Fuel Standard	ASTM D975	ASTM D6751
Lower Heating Value, Btu/gal	~129,050	~118,176
Kinematic Viscosity, at 40°C	1.3 - 4.1	4.0 - 6.0
Specific Gravity Kg/l, at 60°F	0.85	0.88
Density, lb/gal, at 15°C	7.079	7.328
Water and Sediment, vol%	0.05 max	0.05 max
Carbon, wt%	87	77
Hydrogen, wt%	13	12
Oxygen, by dif. wt%	0	11
Sulfur, wt%	0.05 max	0.0 to 0.002

Boiling Point, °C	180 to 340	315 to 350
Flash Point, °C	60 to 80	100 to 170
Cloud Point, °C	-15 to 5	-3 to 12
Pour Point, °C	-35 to -15	-15 to 10
Cetane Number	40 - 55	48 - 65
Lubricity SLBOCLE, grams	2000-5000	>7,000
Lubricity HFRR, microns	300 - 600	<300

From Dwivedi et al., 2006

#### 2.1.1 Biodiesel production

Previous studies have shown that triglycerides hold promise as alternative diesel engine fuels. Some natural glycerides contain higher levels of unsaturated and saturated fatty acids. They can not be used as fuel in a diesel engine in their original form. The high viscosity, acid composition, and free fatty acid content of such oil, as well as gum formation due to oxidation and polymerization during storage and combustion, carbon deposits, and lubricating oil thickening are some of the more obvious problems (Darnoko et al., 2000, Komers et al., 2001 and Demirbas A., 2003). Consequently, considerable effort has gone into developing vegetable oil derivatives that approximate the properties and performance of hydrocarbon-based diesel fuels. Problems encountered in substituting triglycerides for diesel fuels are mostly associated with their high viscosity, low volatility and polyunsaturated character. There are four primary methodologies for producing biodiesel namely: direct use and blending, microemulsion, thermocracking (pyrolysis) transesterification and

(Joelianingsih *et al.*, 2008; Sinha *et al.*, 2008; Demirbas, 2009). In particular, they are applied to encounter the problems of high fuel viscosity (about 11–17 times higher than diesel fuel) (Meher *et al.*, 2006).

#### 2.2 Lipase

Lipases or triacylglycerol acylhydrolases (EC 3.1.1.3) are water soluble enzymes which catalyze the hydrolysis of triacylglycerols to glycerol and free fatty acids at an oil-water interface (Cardenas *et al.*, 2001<sup>a</sup>, Betigeri and Neau, 2002; Hung *et al.*, 2003; Saxena *et al.*, 2003). From the EC number of lipase, 3.1.1.3, whose components indicate the following groups of enzymes:

E.C.3. Hydrolases
E.C.3.1. Acting on ester bonds
E.C.3.1.1. Carboxylic ester hydrolases
E.C.3.1.1.3 Triacylglycerol lipases

In some literature, lipases are defined as carboxyl-esterases which hydrolyze preferentially long-chains of fatty acids higher than 8 at alkaline pH (Côté and Shareck, 2008; Sun and Xu, 2009). Lipases are activated only the interface of oil and water and do not hydrolyze dissolved substrates in the bulk fluid (Vakhlu and Kour, 2006). Generally, the catalytic triad of lipase is mostly composed of serine, histidine and aspartate or glutamate also found in serine proteases (Reis *et al.*, 2009). Moreover, most lipases carry a lid-like structure rich in non-polar residues located around the active site and covered in the inactive form of the lipase. On the other hand, when lipases attach to the nonpolar substrate, the lid will move leading to the open form which makes the binding site accessible to the substrate (Côté and Shareck, 2008).

#### 2.2.1 Sources of lipases

The success of lipases in industrial applications is due to their specific properties and price depending on its source. Lipases are widely found in most organisms from the animals, plants and microbes (Cardenas *et al.*, 2001<sup>a,b</sup>, Reis et al., 2009). The animal lipase obtained from pancreas of mammalian such as pancreatic lipase of porcine origin is one of the earliest recognized and is still the best known lipase (Vakhlu and Kour, 2006). Moreover, the most important source of mammalian lipase is the pancreas of human, cattle, sheep and guinea pig. In plants, lipases have been purified from the seeds of plants such as maize (Zea mays), castor (Ricinus communis), rapeseed (Brassica napus), ironweed (Vernonia galamensis), wheat (Triticum aestivum), cotton (Gossypium spp.) and soy (Glycine max) (Eastmond, 2006). The plant lipases are not commercially used while the animal and microbial lipases are more applied (Vakhlu and Kour, 2006). Nonetheless, microbial lipases show greater potential for commercial applications due to their stability, selectivity and broad substrate specificity (Betigeri and Neau, 2002). Both intracellular and extracellular lipases can be produced by a widespread number of microorganisms namely, bacteria, fungi and yeast. In particular, lipases produced by bacteria such as *Pseudomonas* sp. (Karadzic et al., 2006) Burkholderia cepacia; fungi belonging to the genera Penicillium, Rhizopus and Rhizomucor and especially yeast such as Candida sp., one of the most wellknown industrial lipase producers.

#### 2.2.2 Properties of lipases

Lipases are amongst the most important biocatalysts that carry out novel reactions in aqueous and non-aqueous media (Vakhlu and Kour, 2006). Animal lipases show high activity at an optimum pH range from 8.0–9.0, according to the type of substrates, salt and emulsifiers (Malcata *et al.*, 1992). Most of the microbial lipases show the stability around pH 6.0-7.5. Extracellular lipase from Aspergillus niger, Chromobacterium viscosum and Rhizopus sp. are active at acidic pH whereas an alkaline lipases active at pH 11.0 have been isolated from Pseudomonas nitroreducens (Saxena et al., 2001). Morever, microbial lipases are more stable in high temperature than lipases from animals and plants (Hasan et al., 2006). The pancreatic lipases lose activity upon storage at temperatures above 40 °C while lipases of Aspergillus niger, Ranunculus japonicus, and Chromobacterium viscosum are stable at 50 °C. Lipases from thermotolerant Humicola lanuginosa and Pseudomonas nitroreducens are stable at 60 °C and 70 °C, respectively. Nonetheless, the maximum activities of *Calvatia gigantea* and other lipases from mesophiles were at 30–35 °C. Moreover, purified lipase from Aspergillus terreus retained 100% of its activity at 60 °C after 24 hr. In general, lipases show considerable variations in their reaction specificities: this property is generally referred as enzyme specificity. Thus, some lipases have affinity for short-chain fatty acids (acetic, butyric, capric, caproic, caprylic, etc.), some have preference for unsaturated fatty acids (oleic, linoleic, linolenic, etc.), while many others are nonspecific and randomly split the fatty acids from the triglycerides. From the glycerol side of the triglycerides, lipases often show positional specificity and attack the fatty acids at 1 or 3 carbon position of

glycerol or at both positions but not the fatty acid at the 2<sup>nd</sup> position of the glycerol molecule. The specific characteristics of lipase presented by enzymes are high level of catalytic efficiency and high degree of specificities including substrate specificity, region-specificity, stereo-specificity and enantioselectivity. Activity of lipases can be assayed by many methods namely: spectrophotometry or titrimetry, radiolabelling assay, fluorimetry, surface tension method and estimation of free fatty acids by high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC). Tributyrin plate assay and titrimetry are the most commonly used methods for screening of lipase producers and estimation of lipase activity, respectively (Saxena *et al.*, 2001).

#### 2.2.3 Enzymatic reaction of lipase

The biological function of lipases is to catalyze the hydrolysis of triglycerides, especially long chain triacylglycerols, as act on ester bonds (Al-Zuhair *et al.*, 2008) to yield diglycerides, monoglycerides, glycerol and fatty acids. Lipases are powerful tools for catalysis of not only hydrolysis, but also various reverse reactions, such as esterification, interesterification, alcoholysis, acidolysis, and aminolysis (Fig. 2-1) (Reis *et al.*, 2009; Saxena *et al.*, 2003 Foresti and Ferreira, 2007). The reaction is reversible and the direction of the reaction depends upon the water content available in the reaction. In low water media, lipases catalyse esterification, interesterification and transesterification (Vakhlu and Kour, 2006). The two main categories of reactions with lipase catalysis can be classified as follows;

i. Hydrolysis:

 $R_1COOR_2 + H_2O \longrightarrow R_1COOH + R_2OH$ 

ii. Synthesis:

Reactions under this category can be further classified as:

(a) Esterification			
$R_1COOH + R_2OH$	$\longrightarrow$	$R_1COOR_2$ +	$H_2O$
(b) Interesterification			
$R_1COOR_2$ + $R_3COOR_4$	$\longrightarrow$	R <sub>3</sub> COOR <sub>2</sub> +	R <sub>1</sub> COOR <sub>4</sub>
(c) <u>Alcoholysis</u>			
$R_1 COOR_2 + R_3 OH$	$\longrightarrow$	$R_1COOR_3$ +	R <sub>3</sub> OH
(d) <u>Acidolysis</u>			
$R_1COOR_2$ + $R_3COOH$	$\longrightarrow$	R <sub>3</sub> COOR <sub>2</sub> +	R <sub>1</sub> COOH

Fig. 2-1 Enzymatic reactions of lipases (Reis et al., 2009; Saxena et al., 2003)

The last three reactions are often grouped together into the single term of transesterification. Furthermore, lipase efficiently catalyzes the aminolysis of different acrylic esters and aliphatic amines shown in Fig. 2-2.

Aminolysis

 $R_1COOR_2 + R_3-NH_3 \longrightarrow R_1CONHR_3 + R_2OH$ **Fig. 2-2** Aminolysis reaction catalyzed by lipases (Villeneuve *et al.*, 2000;

Saxena et al., 2003)

### 2.2.4 Application of lipases

Since lipase have many advantages (Vakhlu and Kour, 2006) and they are capable of preserving their catalytic activity in organic solvents, the activities of lipases as catalysts have been investigated to determine their potential for the conversion of fats and oils into higher value products for food industrial uses. Hence, lipases are generally applied in a variety of other biotechnological industries such as dairy enrichment (cheese ripening, flavour development, enzyme-modified cheese (EMC) technology), fruit juice, baked food, vegetable fermentation, detergent, pharmaceutical (naproxen, ibuprofen), agrochemical (insecticide, pesticide) and oleochemical industries (fat and oil hydrolysis, biosurfactant synthesis) industries (Saxena *et al.*, 2001), cosmetics, flavors, single cell protein production and biosensor preparation. They are also used in leather industry for processing hides and skins (bating) and for environmental treatment of activated sludge and other aerobic waste products where they remove the thin layer of the fats and by so doing provide for oxygen transport (Hung *et al.*, 2003; Vakhlu and Kour, 2006; Chang *et al.*, 2007; Abdel-fattah and Gabaiia, 2008; Côté and Shareck, 2008). Ultimately, lipases can be further applied in many newer areas where they can serve as potential biocatalysts.

#### 2.3 DNA technology

DNA technology has revolutionized modern science. Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA), or an organism's genetic material is inherited from one generation to the next. It holds many clues that have unlocked some of the mysteries behind human behavior, disease, evolution, and aging. As technological advances lead to a better understanding of DNA, new DNA-based technologies will emerge. Recent advances in DNA technology including cloning, PCR, recombinant DNA technology, DNA fingerprinting, gene therapy, DNA microarray technology, and DNA profiling have already begun to shape medicine, forensic sciences, environmental sciences, and national security. In 1956, the structure and composition of DNA was elucidated and confirmed previous studies more than a decade earlier demonstrating DNA is the genetic material that is passed down from one generation to the next. A novel tool called PCR (polymerase chain reaction) was developed not long after DNA was discovered representing one of the most significant discoveries or inventions in DNA technology.

PCR (polymerase chain reaction) is a technique in which cycles of denaturation, annealing with primer, and extension with DNA polymerase, are used to amplify the number of copies of a target DNA sequence by more than 100 times in a few hours. American molecular biologist Kary Mullis developed the techniques of PCR in the 1970s. For his ingenious invention, he was awarded the 1993 Nobel Prize in physiology or medicine. PCR amplification of DNA is like any DNA replication by DNA polymerase in vivo. (in living cells) The difference is that PCR produces DNA in a test tube. For a PCR reaction to proceed, four components are necessary: template, primer, deoxyribonucleotides (adenine, thymine, cytosine, guanine) and DNA polymerase. In addition, part of the sequence of the targeted DNA has to be known in order to design the according primers. In the first step, the targeted double stranded DNA is heated to over 90 °C for denaturation. During this process, two strands of the targeted DNA are separated from each other. Each strand is capable of being a template. The second step is carried out around 50 °C. At this lowered temperature, the two primers anneal to their complementary sequence on each template. The DNA polymerase then extends the primer using the provided nucleotides. As a result, at the end of each cycle, the numbers of DNA molecules double (Fig. 2-3).



**Fig. 2-3** Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR)

Not long after PCR technology was developed, genetic engineering of DNA through recombinant DNA technology quickly became possible. Genetic engineering is the alteration of genetic material with a view to producing new substances or creating new functions. The most common form of genetic engineering involves the insertion of new genetic material at an unspecified location in the host genome. This technique requires three elements: the gene to be transferred, a host cell in which the gene is to be inserted, and a vector to effect the transfer. This is accomplished by isolating and copying the genetic material of interest, generating a construct containing all the genetic elements for correct expression, and then inserting this construct into the host organism. The utilization of gene technology and of new production technologies have made industrial enzymes with improved properties or better cost performance available. The benefits to the customers are considerable: cost savings in the application process, improved product quality, and in most cases also a significantly reduced impact on the environment. Gene technology offers several benefits to the enzyme industry. This technology enables the use of safe, well documented host organisms easy to cultivate, the microbial production of enzymes from animal and plant origins, the realization of enhanced efficiency and high product purity, and also the production of enzymes with improved stability and activity, for example, lipase from *Burkholderia cepacia* strain G63 (Hasan *et al.*, 2006). The purified lipase can be kept stable at a temperature range of 40-70 °C. After 10 hr. of incubation at 70 °C, the optimal temperature of this enzyme, it still retained 86.1 % of its activity. In addition, the enzyme was also highly tolerant to a series of organic solution. Incubated in 50 % methanol solution up to 48 hr, the enzyme still kept 98.3 % of its activity. The transesterification activity of soybean oil to fatty acid methyl esters (FAMEs) reached 87.8 % after 72 hr. (Yang *et al.*, 2007).

#### 2.4 Protein purification

Protein can be purified by various methods depending on its properties. The following methods were the example of protein purification using four characteristics.

#### A. Protein solubility

- (1) Isoelectric precipitation
- (2) Ionic strength change
- (3) Dielectric constant decrease

#### **B.** Protein size

- (1) Gel filtration
- (2) Ultrafiltration
- (3) Dialysis

## C. Protein charge

- (1) Ion- exchange chromatography
- (2) Isoelectric focusing

## **D.** Specific biological properties

Affinity chromatography

In this study, some of the methods shown in the Table 2-2 were applied to purify the obtained recombinant lipase.

Bucillus spp.	Purification steps	Recovery (%)/ purification fold	Molecular weight (kDa)	Reference
Bacillus spp.	ammonium sulfate fractionation, treatment with acrinol, DEAE- Senhadex A-50. Toyonearl	9%/7762	22	Sugihara & al., 1991
	HW-55F and buryl-Toyopearl 650 M			
Bacillus thermocatenulati (lipase gene cloned int Escherichia coli)	<ul> <li>cell disintegration, heat precipitation,</li> <li>ion exchange chromatography and</li> <li>hydronablic interaction chromatography</li> </ul>	312	16	Schmidt-Dannert et al., 1996
Bacillus spp. THL027	ultrafiltration and Senhadex G-100	2.6	69	Dharmsthith and Luchai, 1999
Bacıllus pumulus	ammonium sulfate fractionation and gel filtration on Sephadex G-100	75		lose and Kurup, 1999
Bacıllus alcalophilus	ammonium sulfate precipitation, Sephadex G-100	111		Ghanem et al., 2000
Bacillus stearothermophi, (lipase gene cloned int Escherichia coli)	lus CM-Sepharose and DEAE-Sepharose o	62.2%/11.6		Kim et al., 2000
Bacillus spp	acetone fractionation,	20%/3028	25	Imamura and Kitaura, 2000
	and, octyl-Sepharose CL-4B, Q-Sepharose and Sepharose-12			-
Pseudomonas fragi	acidification, annonium sulfate fractionation, DEAE-Toyopearl	48%/68	33	Nishin et al., 1987
Pseudomonas fluorescens	animonium sulfate precipitation and chronatography on DEAE-	21%/3390	45	Sztajer et al., 1992
Pseudomonas spp.	Q-Sepharose, octyl-Sepharose CL-4B Q-Sepharose, octyl-Sepharose and the enzyme cluted with isopropanol	56%/159	35	Kordel et al., 1991
Pseudomonas cepacia	liquid-liquid (10% PEG 6000 and 10% Degrad 500) extraction and observationship using 0. Sachurges	30%/55	58	Diminalipit et al., 1991
Pseudomonas cepacia	polyoxyethylene detergent C14EO6- based acueous two phase partitioning	76%/24	60	Tenstappen et al., 1992
Pseudomonas putida 3SK	DEAE-Sephadex A-50 and Sephadex G-100	21%/5.3	45	Lue and Rheg, 1993
Pseudomonas fluorescens	ultrafiltration, ammonium sulfate precipitation, DEAE-Toyopearl 650 M and phenel-Toyorearl 650	42%/6.1	33	Kojima et al., 1994
Pseudononas spp. Vo103	ammonium sulfate precipitation, DEAE-cellulose and Sephadex G-200	3.7%/62	38	Kiu, et al., 1997
Pseudomonas aeruginosa	ammonium sulfate precipitation, hydroxyapatite column chromatography	518	30	Shurrow et al., 1998
Rhizopus japonicus	hydroxyapatite, octyl-Sepharose	31%/93	30	Suzuki et al., 1986
Rhizopus oryzac	acetone precipitation (80%), Sephadex G-100	64%/160		Razak et al., 1997
Rhizopus delemar	oleic acid affinity chromatography, CM-Sephadex	30%/10.3	30.3	Hans et al., 1992
Rhizopus arthizus	ammonium sulfate fractionation and Scohadex G-100 gel filtration	42%/720	67	Chattepadhyay et al., 1999
Rhizopus chinensis	CM-Cellulofine C-500, ether Toyopearl 650 M, Super Q Toyopearl and CM- Cellulofine C-500	27.6%	28.4	Yasuda et al., 2000
Rhizopus oryzae	ammonium sulfate fractionation, sulfopropyl-Sepharose, Sephadex G-75 and again on sulfopropyl-Sepharose	22%/1260	32	Hiol et al., 2000

## Table 2-2 Lipase purification (Saxena et al., 2003)

## **CHAPTER III**

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

## 3.1 Equipments

Agarose gel electrophoresis	(BioRad, USA)
Autoclave	(Ta Chang Medical instrument, Taiwan)
Balance	(Sartorius, Germany)
Digital Balance	(Mettler Toledo, USA)
Digital Dry Bath	(Labnet International, Inc., USA)
Gel Documentation	(UVP, UK)
High performance liquid chromatography	(Shimudzu, Japan)
Incubator	(Gallenkamp, UK)
Laminar flow	(Thermo electron corporation, USA)
Magnetic stirrer	(KIKA Labortechnik, Malaysia)
Magnetic bar	(Lio Lab Limited Partnership)
Microcentrifuge	(Satorious, Germany)
Microplate reader spectrophotometer	(ASYS Hitech GMBH, Austria)
Microrefrigerated centrifuge	(Hettich, USA)
Microwave	(Sharp, Thailand)
pH meter	(Mettler Toledo, USA)
Peristaltic pump	(LKB-Pump P.1 Pharmacia, Sweden)
Refrigerated incubator shaker	(New Brunswick Scientific Co., Ltd, China)
Slab gel electrophoresis equipment	(Biorad, USA)
Thermal Cycler	(Biorad, USA)
UV-VIS spectrophotometer	(Thermo scientific, UK)

Vortex	(Scientific industries, USA)
Water bath	(T.S. Instrument, Thailand)

#### **3.2** Chemicals

In all experiments, the analytical grade and/or molecular biological grade chemicals and reagents were purchased from various manufacturers; namely, Sigma (USA), Merk (Germany), Fluka (Switzerland), Carlo Erba (Italy), Ajax Finechem (Australia), Difco (USA), Usb (USA), Biorad (USA) and Invitrogen (Canada).

#### 3.3 Bacterial and fungal strains

Fusarium solani was used as the donor of chromosomal DNA.

*E.coli* DH5 $\alpha$  (F-Ø80*lac*Z $\Delta$ M15 $\Delta$  (*lac*ZYA-*arg*F)U169 *deo*R *rec*A1 *end*A1 *hsd*R17(rk-, mk+) *phoAsup*E44 *thi*-1 *gyr*A96 *rel*A1  $\lambda$ -) was used as host for plasmid propagation.

*Pichia pastoris* strain KM71 was used as host for expression of the gene constructed in pPICZαA.

#### 3.4 Enzymes

BamHI	New England Biolabs (USA)
EcoRI	New England Biolabs (USA)
HindIII	New England Biolabs (USA)
NotI	New England Biolabs (USA)
SacI	New England Biolabs (USA)
Taq DNA polymerase	New England Biolabs (USA)
T4 DNA ligase	New England Biolabs (USA)

## **3.5** Commercial plasmids

pGEM <sup>®</sup> -T Easy vector (Fig. 3-1)	Promega (USA)
pPICZaA (Fig. 3-2)	Invitrogen (USA)

### 3.6 Commercial kits

QIAprep Spin Miniprep Kit	QIAGEN (Germany)
QIAquick Gel extraction Kit	QIAGEN (Germany)
Genomic DNA Extraction Kit	QIAGEN (Germany)

### 3.7 Synthetic oligonucleotides

All synthetic oligonucleotides, used as primers, were purchased from Bio Basic Inc. (Canada). The primers information was shown in Table 3-1.

Table 3-1 List of primers

Primers	Sequences	T <sub>m</sub> °C
	5'- G <u>GAATTC</u> ATGATGCTCATCCTATCTATTCTTTC –3'	
FSF1		59.4
	(EcoRI)	
DOD G1	5'-TATCAAAT <u>GCGGCCGC</u> CTAAGTCATCTGCTTAACAAA	<i></i>
FSRS1		64.5
	TTC-3'(NotI)	
ITS1-F	5'- CTTGGTCATTTAGAGGAAGTAA -3'	49.2
ITS4	5'- TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC -3'	49.7

### **3.8 Purification column**

DEAE column

GE Healthcare Bio-Science AB (Sweden)

## **3.9 Oils**

Coconut oil	(Pumedin natural products, Thailand)
Olive oil	(Rafael Salgado, Spain)
Palm oil	(Morakot industry, Thailand)
Papaya oil	(Extracted in laboratory)
Physic nut oil	(Extracted in laboratory)
Rambutan oil	(Extracted in laboratory)
Safflower oil	(OHIO, Mexico)

#### **3.10 Miscellaneous**

TriDye <sup>TM</sup> 1 kb DNA Ladder	New England Biolabs (USA)
Prestained Protein Ladder, Broad Range	Fermentas (Canada)
6X DNA loading dye	Fermentas (Canada)
pUC Mix Marker	Fermentas (Canada)

## 3.11 Data analysis program

Sequence analysis program	(BioEdit, Chromas Lite and BLAST program)
Statistical analysis program	(Graph Pad InStat3)
Graph analysis program	(Graph Pad Prism4)

## 3.12 Research methodology

The research methodology is as follows:

- 3.12.1 Identification of the lipase producing fungi
- 3.12.2 Cloning of the lipase gene
- 3.12.3 Expression of the lipase genes
3.12.5 Characterization of the lipase

#### 3.12.1 Identification of the lipase producing fungi

### 3.12.1.1 Molecular identification

# 3.12.1.1.1 Genomic DNA extraction

The genomic DNA of NAN 103 was extracted by cetyl trimethyl ammonium bromide known as CTAB method (Zhou et al., 1999). The hyphae suspended in broth were collected and the cells were later lysed by freezing in liquid nitrogen and ground by mortar and pestle. The powdered samples were thawed and homogenized in 1000  $\mu$ l of washing buffer (Appendix A) followed by centrifugation at 13,000 rpm for 5 min. Then, the pellets were twice washed with the same amount of washing buffer and centrifugation condition. These pellets were washed by 700 µl 2X CTAB (Appendix A) and subsequently incubated at 65 °C for 1 hr. Next, the complete extraction was achieved by an equal volume of chloroform-isoamyl alcohol mixture (24:1 v/v). The obtained DNAs were precipitated by adding an equal volume of chilled isopropanol and left on ice for 30 min. After centrifugation at 8,000 rpm for 5 min, the precipitated DNAs were washed by 500 µl of 70 % ethanol and centrifuged again at the same condition. The precipitation was repeated by resolubilizing the DNAs obtained from the previous step in 100 µl of sterilized distilled water before treating with 1 µl of 10 mg/ml RNase for

30 min at room temperature. Subsequently, 60  $\mu$ l of 20 % PEG (Appendix A) was added and later centrifuged at 13,000 for 10 min before washing by 70 % ethanol. The genome of NAN 103 were finally resuspended in 100  $\mu$ l of TE buffer (Appendix A).

# 3.12.1.1.2 ITS gene amplification

The ITS gene was amplified from the obtained genome by using oligonucleotide primer ITS1-F 5'CTTGGTCATTTAGAGGAAGTAA-3' ITS4 and 5'-TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC-3'. PCR amplification was performed in 50 µl reaction mixture containing 10 ng of DNA template, 0.5 µM of each primer, 0.2 mM dNTP, 1.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 1X PCR buffer and 2.5 U Taq DNA polymerase. The 50 µl reaction mixture was incubated at 94 °C for 5 min, followed by 38 cycles of incubation at 94 °C for 1 min, 51 °C for 1 min and 72 °C for 1 min and finally at 72 °C for 5 min, respectively. Then, the obtained PCR products were detected by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis (Appendix A).

## 3.12.1.1.3 Ligation of ITS gene into vector

The purified PCR products were ligated into pGEM-T Easy vector. The ligation condition was performed in 10  $\mu$ l reaction mixture containing 1X T4 ligation buffer, PCR product, pGEM-T Easy vector and 5U of T4 DNA ligase. The molar ratio of PCR product to vector was 3:1 (Appendix D).

The 10  $\mu$ l reaction mixture was incubated overnight in water bath at 16 °C.

# 3.12.1.1.4 Preparation of competent cells by calcium chloride

# (CaCl<sub>2</sub>) method

A single colony of *E.coli* strain DH5α was inoculated into 3 ml of LB broth before incubation at 37 °C, 250 rpm overnight. 500 µl of culture cell was transferred into 50 ml LB broth in 250 ml flask and later incubated at 37 °C, 250 rpm until the absorbance at 600 nm was 0.3 to 0.4 and then placed on ice for 10 min followed by cell harvesting with centrifugation at 4,000 rpm, 4 °C for 10 min. The pellets were resuspended with 10 ml of chilled 0.1 M CaCl<sub>2</sub> and put on ice for 10 min. Then, the mixture was centrifuged at 4,000 rpm, 4 °C for 10 min. The previous step was repeated; namely, resuspending in the same amount of chilled 0.1 M CaCl<sub>2</sub>, storing on ice and centrifugation condition. However, the pellets were resuspended with 2 ml of chilled 0.1 M CaCl<sub>2</sub> and added with 900 µl of steriled glycerol. The solution was gently mixed and stored on ice for 15 min before the aliquots were transferred into microcentrifuge tubes (100µl/tube) and stored in -80 °C until use.

# 3.12.1.1.5 Transformation into *E.coli* DH5α by heat shock method

10  $\mu$ l of recombinant plasmids were mixed with 100  $\mu$ l of competent cells. The mixture was stored on ice for 30 min and immediately heated at 42 °C for 90 sec. The reaction was quickly chilled on ice for 5 min. Next, 900  $\mu$ l of LB broth were added and incubated at 37 °C, 250 rpm for 1 hr. The transformed cells were observed by spreading on the ITPG screening plates containing 100  $\mu$ g/ml ampicillin and further incubated overnight at 37 °C.

# 3.12.1.1.6 Screening of the recombinant clones by rapid size screening method

*E.coli* strain DH5 $\alpha$  containing recombinant plasmids were visible as white colonies on agar plate. These clones were picked for master plate preparation. Next, the colonies were then selected from the obtained master plates and later screened by rapid size screening method. The cells were lyzed with 30 µl of lysis buffer (Appendix A). The obtained mixture was incubated at 37 °C for 5 min, followed by chilling on ice for 5 min and centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 5 min at room temperature. Finally, 20 µl of upper phase was further analyzed by agarose gel electrophoresis.

# 3.12.1.1.7 Extraction of plasmid

*E.coli* strain DH5 $\alpha$  containing expected recombinant plasmids were inoculated in 3 ml LB broth containing

100  $\mu$ g/ml ampicillin and incubated at 37 °C, 250 rpm for 14 to 16 hr. Then, the cells were harvested by centrifugation at 5,000 rpm, at 4 °C for 10 min. The recombinant plasmids were extracted by the commercial extraction kit, Qiagen spin miniprep kit.

# 3.12.1.1.8 Restriction analysis

The expected recombinant plasmids were checked by digesting with 3 units of EcoRI. The 10 µl of reaction medium consisted of certain restriction enzymes in the NEBuffer EcoRI as indicated in Table 3-2 and incubated at 37 °C for 3 hr. The digested recombinant plasmids were analyzed by agarose gel electrophoresis and detected by Gel Documentation machine.

Table 3-2 Restriction enzymes

Restriction enzymes	Recognition sequence (5'-3')	Reagents Supplied
BamHI	G'GATCC	NEBuffer 3 + BSA
EcoRI	G´AATTC	NEBuffer EcoRI
HindIII	A'AGCTT	NEBuffer 2
NotI	GC'GGCCGC	NEBuffer 3 + BSA

# 3.12.1.1.9 DNA sequencing and analysis

The expected recombinant clones containing fragment were verified by nucleotide sequencing using automated DNA sequencer (1st BASE, Malaysia). Then, the obtained sequences were selected by Chromas Lite and BioEdit program and were later aligned to GenBank database using the BLAST program to determine the most relevant sequence of lipase gene.

#### **3.12.2** Cloning of the lipase gene

#### **3.12.2.1** Preparation of the lipase gene

The hyphae from NAN 103 in medium broth were collected and the cells were later lyzed by freezing in liquid nitrogen and ground by mortar and pestle. Finally, RNA was extracted using the extraction kits. The cDNA of lipase gene was synthesized by reverse transcriptase using mRNA as template. This cDNA was then used as template for amplifying lipase gene by nucleotide primer FSF1 (5'G<u>GAATTC</u>ATGATGCTCATCCTATCTATTCTTTC-3') and FSRS1 (5'TATCAAATGCGGCCGCCTAAGTCATCTGCTTAACAAATTC3'). The underlined sequences represented the EcoRI and NotI restriction sites. The reaction was carried out in a thermocycler by incubating at 94 °C for 3 min, followed by repeating 32 cycles of 94 °C for 1 min, 55 °C for 30 sec and 72 °C for 90 sec and final incubation was performed at 72 °C for 7 min. The PCR products were finally purified by 1 % agarose gel using commercial gel extraction kit, QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit.

#### 3.12.2.2 Preparation of the plasmids

A single colony of pPICZ $\alpha$ A plasmid was inoculated into 5 ml of low salt LB medium containing 25 µg/ml zeocin and subsequently shaken at 37 °C, 250 rpm for 14 to 16 hr. The suspended cells were

collected by centrifugation at 4 °C, 5,000 rpm for 10 min. The obtained pellets were resuspended in 400 µl of STET buffer (Appendix A) before transferring to 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tube. Next, 10 µl of 50 mg/ml lysozyme was added and then incubated at 37 °C for 10 min. After incubation, the mixture was boiled for 45 sec followed by centrifugation at 13,000 rpm for 15 min and the pellets were removed, respectively. Subsequently, 5 % CTAB was added and centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 15 min. The pellets were resuspended in 300 µl of 1.2 M NaCl and mixed well. 3 µl of 10 mg/ml RNase A was then added and incubated at 37 °C for 1.5 hr. Before centrifugation at 12,000 rpm for 5 min, the mixture was added with 300 µl of chloroform-isoamyl alcohol mixture (24:1 v/v). The obtained solution was separated into two phases. The upper phase was then transferred to the new tubes before precipitating with two volumes of cold absolute ethanol and freezing at -20 °C for 30 min. After freezing, this mixture was later centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 15 min. The pellet was twice washed with 100 µl of 70 % ethanol followed by drying at 55 °C for 10 min and resuspended in 20-30 µl of distilled water.

# 3.12.2.3 Double digestion of lipase gene and pPICZαA plasmids by restriction enzyme

Both pPICZ $\alpha$ A plasmids and fungal lipase gene were double digested with 5 units of *Eco*RI and *Not*I restriction enzymes in 50 µl of appropriate reaction buffer (Table 3-2) and incubated at 37 °C for 3 hr. Both digested pPICZ $\alpha$ A plasmids and lipase gene were analyzed by agarose gel electrophoresis and visualized by Gel Documentation machine.

#### 3.12.2.4 Ligation of lipase gene into pPICZaA vectors

The digested lipase gene was ligated into digested pPICZ $\alpha$ A vector. The ligation condition was performed in 10 µl reaction mixture containing 1X T4 ligation buffer, lipase gene, pPICZ $\alpha$ A vector and 5U of T4 DNA ligase. The molar ratio of PCR product to vector was 3:1. The mixture was later incubated overnight at 16 °C.

# 3.12.2.5 Transformation of recombinant plasmids into *E.coli* DH5α competent cells

 $10 \ \mu$ l of recombinant plasmids were transformed into *E.coli* DH5 $\alpha$  by heat shock method. The cells were then spread on low salt LB agar plate containing 25  $\mu$ g/ml zeocin before incubation overnight at 37 °C.

#### **3.12.2.6** Screening of the recombinant clones

Recombinant clones were preliminarily checked by rapid size screening method as described in 3.12.1.1.6 and further verified by restriction enzyme analysis using *Eco*R I and *Not* I, according to the method in 3.12.2.3.

#### 3.12.2.7 DNA sequencing and analysis

The expected recombinant clones with lipase gene fragments were verified by nucleotide sequencing using automated DNA sequencer (1<sup>st</sup> BASE, Malaysia). Nucleotide sequences were checked and analyzed by the method described in 3.12.1.1.9.

# 3.12.3 Expression of lipase gene in Pichia pastoris

#### 3.12.3.1 Preparation of recombinant plasmid

The *E.coli* containing an expected recombinant plasmid were grown in LB low salt medium containing 25  $\mu$ g/ml zeocin and incubated at 37 °C, 250 rpm for 14 to16 hr. The cells were collected by centrifugation at 5,000 rpm, 4 °C for 10 min before extraction by CTAB method as described in 3.12.2.2 and later digested by *SacI* to linearise the obtained recombinant plasmid. These plasmids were subsequently purified by phenol/chloroform extraction method followed by ethanol precipitation (Appendix B).

#### **3.12.3.2** Preparation of the competent cells

A single colony of *Pichia pastoris* strain KM71 was grown into 5 ml YPD and then incubated at 30 °C, 250 rpm until the absorbance at 600 nm reached 1.3 to 1.6. The cells were collected by centrifugation at 2,000 g, 4 °C for 5 min. The obtained pellets were further resuspended in 40 ml YPD and 8 ml of 1 M HEPES, pH 8.0. The mixture was added with 1 ml of 1 M DTT and 1 ml of 5 M LiAc pH 7.0, and then gently mixed and incubated at 30 °C for 15 min. 150 ml of cold water was then added and centrifuged at 4 °C, 250 rpm for 10 min. The obtained pellets were washed by 100 ml of cold water and then centrifuged at 4 °C, 250 rpm for 10 min. The cell pellets were resuspended twice, firstly in 8 ml of cold 1 M sorbitol and later in 0.4 ml cold 1 M sorbitol. Each resuspension was followed by centrifugation at 4 °C, 250 rpm for 10 min.

# 3.12.3.3 Transformation of recombinant plasmids into *Pichia* pastoris by electroporation

*Pichia pastoris* strain KM71 was mixed with 10  $\mu$ g of recombinant plasmid linearized by *Sac*I and 4  $\mu$ l DNA carriers and was chilled on ice for 1 min. The mixture was then transferred to cold electroporation cuvette. After pulsation, 1 ml of 1 M ice-cold sorbitol was immediately added into the cuvette. Then, the mixture was transferred to 15 ml tube and incubated at 30 °C followed by the addition of 1 ml YPD and shaken at 30 °C, 250 rpm for 3 hr. Next, the mixture was later spread on YPDS plate containing 200  $\mu$ g/ml zeocin before incubation overnight at 30 °C.

# 3.12.3.4 Screening of recombinant clones by rhodamine B plate visualization

*Pichia pastoris* containing recombinant clones grown on BMGY plate (Appendix A) at 30 °C for a day were then picked and transferred onto BMMY plate supplemented with the mixture of 1% olive oil and 0.0002 % rhodamine B. The BMMY plates were later incubated at 30 °C. The induction of expression was conducted every 24 hr. by the addition of 150  $\mu$ l fresh methanol on the plate lid. The lipase activity was detected as orange fluorescence under UV light.

### 3.12.3.5. Optimization of the expression

Recombinant clones with the activity were inoculated into 5 ml YPD and then incubated at 30 °C, 250 rpm until the absorbance at 600 nm was 7 to 8. Next, cell culture was transferred to 6 ml of BMGY medium before shaking at 250 rpm, 30 °C until the absorbance at 600 nm was 7 to 8 again. The cells were harvested by centrifugation at 4 °C, 5,000 rpm for 10 min before resuspending in 1 ml BMMY. The cell medium was shaken at 30 °C, 250 rpm for 5 days.

# 3.12.3.5.1 Effect of the methanol concentration

The cell medium was shaken at 30 °C, 250 rpm for 5 days. The induction was conducted by the separate addition of 1% to 5% fresh methanol every 24 hr. before the assay of hydrolytic activity as described in 3.12.4.1.

#### 3.12.3.5.2 Effect of the time

To investigate the optimal time of the induction, the cells were incubated for 1 to 7 days at 30 °C, 250 rpm and added every 24 hr. with optimal concentration of methanol obtained from 3.12.3.5.1. Finally, the lipase activity was assayed according to the protocol in 3.12.4.1.

#### **3.12.4 Purification of the lipase**

The recombinant strain was grown according to the method described in 3.12.3.5 using the optimal conditions obtained from 3.12.3.5.1 and 3.12.3.5.2. After centrifugation at 5000 rpm, 4 °C for 1.30 hr., supernatant was concentrated by viva flow and then purified using DEAE Hitrap column (5ml) previously equilibrated with 5 column volumes of 50 mM Tris buffer pH 7.5 with 60 ml/min flow rate. The concentrated solution was loaded to a column. Then, the column was washed with 5 column volumes of 50 mM Tris buffer to remove the unbound protein. The 5 ml fractions were collected and the adsorbed protein was eluted with linear gradient of 0-1 M ammonium sulfate. The fractions with high lipase activity were pooled and concentrated. The homogeneity and the approximate molecular weight of the purified lipase were further analyzed by SDS-PAGE.

#### 3.12.4.1 Lipase assay

Lipase activity was determined by spectrophotometry using two solutions; namely A and B (Appendix A). The assay reagent was prepared by dropwisely adding 1 ml of solution A to 9 ml of solution B to get an emulsion that remained stable for 2 hr. The assay mixture contained 180  $\mu$ l of the emulsion and 20  $\mu$ l of appropriately diluted enzyme solution. The liberated *p*-nitrophenol was measured at 410 nm. One unit of enzyme was defined as the amount of released 1  $\mu$ mol *p*-nitrophenol from the substrate per min.

#### **3.12.4.2** Protein determination

The protein concentration was determined by Bradford's protein assay method. 5  $\mu$ l of sample and 300  $\mu$ l of Bradford reagent were mixed in 96 well plates before incubating at room temperature for 5 min and later measured for the absorbance at 595 nm. The protein concentrations were determined from the standard curve of bovine serum albumin (BSA) shown in the Appendix C.

### 3.12.5 Characterization of lipase

# 3.12.5.1 Substrate specificity of the purified lipase

Various substrates with different hydrocarbon chain lenghts such as *p*-nitrophenyl esters (*p*NP-acetate (C2), *p*NP-butyrate (C4), *p*NP-caprylate (C8), *p*NP-caprate (C10), *p*NP-laurate (C12), *p*NP-myristate(C14), *p*NP-palmitate (C16) and *p*NP-stearate (C18) were tested for the specificity of the obtained enzyme.

# 3.12.5.2 Effect of pH on the activity of lipase

The effect of pH on lipase activity using the optimal substrate obtained from 3.12.5.1. was studied in various pH buffers from 5.0 to 11.0; namely 50mM acetate/Na-acetate buffer for pH 5.0,  $50 \text{ mM } \text{K}_2\text{HPO}_4/\text{KH}_2\text{PO}_4$  buffer for pH 6.0 to 7.0, 50 mM Tris–HCl buffer for pH 8.0 to 10.0 and  $50 \text{ mM } \text{NaCO}_3/\text{HCl}$  for pH 11.0.

#### **3.12.5.3** Effect of temperature on the activity of lipase

The effect of temperature was also determined by varying the incubating temperature from 30 to 60 °C using the obtained optimal pH buffer from the above 3.12.5.2. The lipase activity was then determined.

# 3.12.5.4 Stability of recombinant lipase

There are 2 factors which may have the effect on the stability of recombinant lipase ie. pH and temperature. Therefore, the effects of these factors were investigated by the following methods.

# 3.12.5.4.1 Effect of pH

The effect of pH on lipase stability was determined by incubating 0.5mg/ml purified lipase in various pH buffers varying from 4.0 to 11.0 at 4 °C for 20 hr. and residual activity was assayed at room temperature.

#### 3.12.5.4.2 Effect of temperature

To determine the influence of temperature on the enzyme stability, 1.0 mg/ml the purified lipase dissolved in the optimal pH buffer obtained from 3.12.5.2 above was incubated at various temperatures ranging from 20–60 °C for 5 hr. Subsequently, the residual activity was assayed at room temperature.

#### 3.12.5.5 Effect of metal ions on the activity of lipase

The effect of metal ions on the lipase activity was determined by incubating 1.0 mg/ml purified lipase dissolved in optimal pH buffer and incubating temperature obtained from 3.12.5.4.2 with various metal ions such as 1 and 10 mM of K<sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>, Li<sup>+</sup>, Ag<sup>+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, Fe<sup>2+</sup>, Cu<sup>2+</sup>, Mn<sup>2+</sup>, Co<sup>2+</sup>, Zn<sup>2+</sup>, Hg<sup>2+</sup>, Fe<sup>3+</sup> and metal-chelating agent, EDTA for 1 hr. The activity in the presence of non-metal ions was defined as control. The remaining activity was further measured as method described above.

#### 3.12.5.6 Effect of chemicals on the activity of lipase

The chemicals studied were DMSO; detergents such as Triton X-100, Tween-80, and SDS together with reducing agents like DTT and  $\beta$ - mercaptoethanol. The effect of these chemicals on enzyme activity were comparatively studied by using the concentrations at 1% and 5% (v/v) of all chemicals. 1.0 mg/ml of purified lipase was dissolved in optimal pH buffer and incubating temperature obtained from 3.12.5.4.2. The activity of the mixture without chemicals was defined as control. The remaining activity was later checked as described above.

# 3.12.5.7 Effect of organic solvents on the activity of lipase

To study the effect of organic solvents on the lipase activity, 13 types of the solvents namely; methanol, ethanol, iso-propanol, glycerol, butanol, acetone, hexane, cyclohexane, n-heptane, chloroform, isooctane, benzene and diethyl ether were selected. 1.0 mg/ml of purified lipase was mixed with an equal volume of organic solvent followed by incubating temperature obtained from 3.12.5.4.2 and stirred at 300 rpm for 1 and 6 hr. The purified lipase with the same amount of optimal pH buffer from 3.12.5.2 was used as control. The residual activity was measured and the percentage of the organic solvent tolerance of enzymes was calculated relative to control.

#### **3.12.5.8** Effect of alcohol on the activity of lipase

The alcohol tolerance was then tested by varying the concentrations of methanol and ethanol from 0.5, 1, 2 and 3 % under the same conditions for 12 and 24 hr. Finally, the residual activity was measured and calculated as percentage relative to control.

#### 3.12.5.9 Hydrolysis of oil

Hydrolysis was performed by using seven types of oil as substrates. Three types were obtained from local groceries such as palm, olive, and safflower oil while the other four were obtained from extraction by hexane namely; coconut, physic nut, papaya and rambutan. The fatty acid contents obtained from reaction were quantitated by titration method. The reaction was prepared by mixing 0.5 ml of buffer at the optimal pH (obtained from 3.12.5.2) with 0.4 ml of the mixture of an equal volume of 2.0 % polyvinyl alcohol and various oils before sonicating and incubating at room temperature for 5 min. Subsequently, 0.1 ml of the purified lipase was later added into the reaction mixture. This reaction was stirred at 300 rpm and incubated at temperature obtained from 3.12.5.4.2 for 5 hr. Next, 1 ml of 95 % ethanol was immediately added to stop the reaction. The liberated free fatty acids were quantified by titrating with 5 mM NaOH using phenolphthalein as indicator. One unit of lipase activity was defined as the amount of released 1 µmol of free fatty acids per min under the above conditions.

#### **3.12.5.10** Transesterification for the production of biodiesel

Transesterification reactions were carried out in 20 ml screw-capped vials containing 8 mg/ml purified lipase and 0.5 g suitable oil from 3.12.5.9 in the molar ratio of oil to methanol at 1:3 using three steps addition of methanol at 0, 4 and 8 hr. This reaction was carried out by stirring the mixtures with magnetic stirrer at 300 rpm for 24 hr. at 35 °C. The samples were taken from the reaction mixture and the obtained fatty acid methyl esters were later determined by high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC).

## 3.12.5.10.1 High performance liquid chromatography analysis

Samples were taken from the reaction mixture at specified time and centrifuged at 12,000 rpm 10 min to obtain the upper layer. The 10  $\mu$ l of upper layer, 490  $\mu$ l of chloroform and 10  $\mu$ l of internal standard were precisely weighed into 1.5 ml vial. Reaction products were analyzed by normal phase HPLC to separate and quantify the FAME, free fatty acid and acylglycerols. The LC-20A HPLC apparatus (Shimadzu Corp., Kyoto) was equipped with Apollo Silica 5U column (250 m x 4.6 mm x 5 µm) from Alltech (Deerfield, IL) and ELSD-LT Evaporative Light Scattering Detector (Shimadzu Corp., Kyoto). Two mobile phases were employed: phase A consisted of hexane, 2-propanol, ethyl acetate and formic acid (80:10:10:0.1 v/v) and phase B consisted of hexane and formic acid (100:0.05 v/v). The flow rate was 1.5 ml/min and the injection volume was 20 µl. The protocol employed for the mobile phase involved a linear elution gradient of 1 % (v/v) phase A increasing to 98 % (v/v) in 20 min. The final mixture (A:B, 98:2 v/v) was employed for 3 min. Next, the system was restored to initial condition by passing the A:B, 1:99 (v/v) mixture through the column for 15 min. Biodiesel yield was calculated as the percentage of the actual amount of methyl ester detected in the reaction process divided by the theoretical quantity of methyl ester. Calculation of the biodiesel yield was described in Appendix D (Winayanuwattikun et al., 2008).



Fig. 3-1 Physical map of  $pGEMT^{\text{®}}$  - T Easy vector

T7 RNA polymerase transcription initiation site	1
multiple cloning region	10–128
SP6 RNA polymerase promoter (-17 to +3)	139–158
SP6 RNA polymerase transcription initiation site	141
pUC/M13 Reverse Sequencing Primer binding site	176–197
lacZ start codon	180
lac operator	200–216
β-lactamase coding region	1337–2197
phage f1 region	2380-2835
lac operon sequences	2836–2996, 166–395
pUC/M13 Forward Sequencing Primer binding site	2949–2972
T7 RNA polymerase promoter $(-17 \text{ to } +3)$	2999–3



Fig. 3-2 Physical map of pPICZaA vector

5' AOX1 promoter region	1-941
5' AOX1 priming site	855-875
α- factor signal sequence	941-1207
Multiple cloning site	1208-1276
<i>c-myc</i> epitope	1275-1304
Polyhistidine (6xHis) tag	1320-1337
3' <i>AOX</i> 1 priming site	1423-1443
AOX1 transcription termination region	1341-1682
TEF1 promoter	1683-2093
EM 7 promoter	2095-2162
Sh ble ORF	2163-2537
CYC 1 transcription termination region	2538-2855
pUC origin	2866-3539

#### **CHAPTER IV**

# RESULTS

# 4.1 Identification of the lipase producing fungi

# 4.1.1 Molecular identification

The ITS gene was amplified by PCR technique and the result from agarose gel electrophoresis showed that the size of ITS gene was 564 kilobase (kb) (Fig. 4-1). The gene was then purified and ligated into pGEM-T Easy vector. The expected recombinant clones containing ITS fragment were verified by nucleotide sequencing and aligned to GenBank database by using the BLAST program. The results showed that the submitted sequence was 99% identical to the ITS gene of *Fusarium solani* (accession number, AM412642.1) (Fig. 4-2)



Fig. 4-1 PCR amplification of ITS gene. Lane M, DNA markers; lane 1, ITS gene was indicated by black arrow at 564 bp.

```
> _ gb[FJ719812.1] Fusarium solani strain MTCC 9622 18S ribosomal RNA gene, partial
sequence; internal transcribed spacer 1, 5.8S ribosomal
RNA gene, and internal transcribed spacer 2, complete sequence;
and 28S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence
Length=594
 Score = 1020 bits (552), Expect = 0.0
Identities = 560/564 (99%), Gaps = 0/564 (0%)
 Strand=Plus/Minus
Query 1
         TTAAGTTCAGCGGGTATTCCTACCTGATTCGAGGTCAACATTCAGAAGTTGGGTGTTTTA
                                                          60
         Sbjct 573
                                                          514
         TTAAGTTCAGCGGGTATTCCTACCTGATTCGAGGTCAACATTCAGAAGTTGGGTGTTTTA
Query 61
         CGGCGTGGCCGCCGCCGCTCTCCAGTTGCGAGGTGTTAGCTACTACGCAATGGAAGCTGCG
                                                          120
         Sbjct
     513
         CGGCGTGGCCGCCGCCCCCCCAGTTGCGAGGTGTTAGCTACTACGCAATGGAAGCTGCG
                                                          454
         GCGGGACCGCCACTGTATTTGGGGGACGGCGTTGTGCCCACAGGGGGCTTCCGCCGATCC
                                                          180
Query 121
          Sbjct
     453
         GCGGGACCGCCACTGTATTTGGGGGACGGCGTTGTGCCCGCAGGGGGCTTCCGCCGATCC
                                                          394
Query 181
         CCAACGCCAGACCCGGGGGCCTGAGGGTTGTAATGACGCTCGAACAGGCATGCCCGCCAG
                                                          240
          Sbjct
     393
         CCAACGCCAGGCCCGGGGGCCTGAGGGTTGTAATGACGCTCGAACAGGCATGCCCGCCAG
                                                          334
Query 241
         AATACTGGCGGGCGCAATGTGCGTTCAAAGATTCGATGATTCACTGAATTCTGCAATTCA
                                                          300
          Sbjct 333
         AATACTGGCGGGCGCAATGTGCGTTCAAAGATTCGATGATTCACTGAATTCTGCAATTCA
                                                          274
Query
     301
         CATTACTTATCGCATTTCGCTGCGTTCTTCATCGATGCCAGAGCCAAGAGATCCGTTGTT
                                                          360
          Sbjct 273
         CATTACTTATCGCATTTCGCTGCGTTCTTCATCGATGCCAGAGCCAAGAGATCCGTTGTT
                                                          214
Query
     361
         GAAAGTTTTGATTTATTTGCTTGTTTACTCAGAAAAAACATTATAGAAACAGAGTTAGGG
                                                          420
          Sbjct 213
         GAAAGTTTTAATTTATTTGCTTGTTTACTCAGAAGAAACATTATAGAAACAGAGTTAGGG
                                                          154
Query 421
         GGTCCTCTGGCGGGGGGGGGCCGTGTTACGGGGCCGTCTGTTCCCGCCGAGGCAACGTTT
                                                          480
         Sbjct 153
                                                          94
         GGTCCTCTGGCGGGGGGGGGCCGTGTTACGGGGCCGTCTGTTCCCGCCGAGGCAACGTTT
     481
                                                          540
Query
         TAGGTATGTTCACAGGGTTGATGAGTTGTATAACTCGGTAATGATCCCTCCGCTGGTTCA
         Sbjct 93
         TAGGTATGTTCACAGGGTTGATGAGGTTGTATAACTCGGTAATGATCCCTCCGCTGGTTCA
                                                          34
Query 541 CCAACGGAGACCTTGTTACGACTT
                             564
         ........
Sbjct 33
                             10
         CCAACGGAGACCTTGTTACGACTT
```

Fig. 4-2 Alignment of ITS gene to database of GenBank using BLAST program

r - 0

#### 4.2 Cloning of the lipase gene

The lipase gene was amplified by PCR in order to clone the gene of *Fusarium solani* into pPICZ $\alpha$ A. From Fig. 4-3, their sizes were approximately 1 kb and 3.6 kb, respectively. Lipase gene and pPICZ $\alpha$ A were then ligated and transformed into *E.coli* DH5 $\alpha$ . The recombinant plasmids were checked by the restriction enzyme analysis using *Eco*RI and *Not*I. The result was shown in Fig. 4-3. Moreover, the DNA

sequencing analysis by BLAST program resulted in 92% identity to extracellular lipases in *Nectria haematococca* or *Fusarium solani* (Eddine *et al.*, 2001). The deduced amino acid sequence revealed a protein of 333 amino acid residues with a calculated molecular mass approximately 36 kDa as shown in Fig. 4-4 and 4-5, respectively.



Fig. 4-3 Agarose gel electrophoresis represented pPICZαA and the restriction enzyme analysis. Lane M, DNA marker. Lane 1, a lipase gene. Lane 2, a pPICZαA plasmid. Lane 3, a restriction enzyme analysis by *Eco*RI and *Not*I.

> emb|CAC19602.1| extracellular lipase [Nectria haematococca] gb [EEU34629.1] predicted protein [Nectria haematococca mpVI 77-13-4] Length=333 Score = 639 bits (1647), Expect = 0.0, Method: Compositional matrix adjust. Identities = 308/333 (92%), Positives = 325/333 (97%), Gaps = 0/333 (0%) Query 1 MMLILSILSIIAFTAAGPVPSVDENTRVLEHRAVTVTTQDLSNFRFYLQHADAAYCNFNT 60 MMLILSILSIIAF AA PVPS+DEN RVLEHRAVTVTTQDLSNFRFYLQHADAAYCNFNT Sbjct 1 MMLILSILSIIAFAAASPVPSIDENIRVLEHRAVTVTTQDLSNFRFYLQHADAAYCNFNT 60 Query 61 AVGKPVYCSAGNCPDIEKDAAIVVKSVIGTKTGIGAYVATDNARKEIVVSVRGSINVRNW 120 AVGKPV+C AGNCPD+EKD+AIVV SV+GTKTGIGAYVATDNARKEIVVSVRGSINVRNW Sbjct 61 AVGKPVHCGAGNCPDVEKDSAIVVGSVVGTKTGIGAYVATDNARKEIVVSVRGSINVRNW 120 Query 121 ITNFDFGQKACDLVAGCGVHTGFLDAWEEVAANIKAAVTAAKAANPTFKFVATGHSLGGA 180 ITNF+FGQK CDLVAGCGVHTGFL+AWEEVAANIKAAV+AAK ANPTFKFV TGHSLGGA Sbjct 121 ITNFNFGQKTCDLVAGCGVHTGFLEAWEEVAANIKAAVSAAKTANPTFKFVVTGHSLGGA 180 Query 181 VATIAAAYLRKDGFPFDLYTYGSPRVGNDFFANFVTQQTGAEYRVTHGDDPVPRLPPIIF 240 VAT+AAAYLRKDGFPFDLYTYGSPRVGNDFFANFVTQQTGAEYRVTHGDDPVPRLPPI+F 181 VATVAAAYLRKDGFPFDLYTYGSPRVGNDFFANFVTQQTGAEYRVTHGDDPVPRLPPIVF 240 Sbjct Query 241 GYRHTSPEYWLDGGPLDKDYTVTEIKVCEGMANVMCNGGTVGLDILAHITYFQSMATCAP 300 GYRHTSPEYWLDGGPLDKDYTV+EIKVC+G+ANVMCNGGT+GLDILAHITYFQSMATCAP Sbjct 241 GYRHTSPEYWLDGGPLDKDYTVSEIKVCDGIANVMCNGGTIGLDILAHITYFQSMATCAP 300 Query 301 IAIPWKRDMSDEELEKKLTRYSELDQEFVKQMT 333 IAIPWKRDMSDEEL+KKLT+YSE+DQEFVKQMT Sbjct 301 IAIPWKRDMSDEELDKKLTQYSEMDQEFVKQMT 333

**Fig. 4-4** Alignment of amino acid sequence and sequence data from GenBank using BLAST program



**Fig. 4-5** Amino acid composition of lipase from *Fusarium solani* representing the calculated molecular mass of approximately 36 kDa by bioedit program

# 4.3 Expression of lipase gene in *Pichia pastoris*

The recombinant plasmids were extracted by CTAB method and then digested by *SacI* to linearise recombinant plasmids. They were later purified and precipitated by phenol/chroloform extraction and ethanol precipitation method, respectively. Then, they were transformed into *Pichia pastoris* strain KM71 which were grown on BMGY plate at 30 °C for a day. The clones were transferred onto BMMY plate which were later incubated at 30 °C. The induction of expression was conducted every 24 hr by adding 150  $\mu$ l of fresh methanol. The clones with high lipase activities were selected from BMMY plate and were later used to determine the optimal concentration of methanol and optimal time, respectively.

### 4.3.1 Optimization of the expression

#### 4.3.1.1 Effect of the methanol concentration

The cell medium was shaken at 30 °C, 250 rpm for 5 days. The optimal concentration of methanol was investigated by adding 1 % to 5 % of fresh methanol to maintain induction every 24 hr. From the results shown in Fig 4-6, the hydrolysis activity gradually increased and the highest activity of  $0.114 \pm 0.015 \mu$ mol/min was reached in the presence of 3% methanol. However, the hydrolysis activity was decreased by approximately 50 % when 4 % of methanol was added and decreased further with 5 % methanol. Hence, the optimal concentration for methanol was 3 %.



Fig 4-6 The effect of methanol concentration on the hydrolysis activity

# 4.3.1.2 Effect of the time

Once the optimal concentration of methanol was obtained at 3 %, the optimal time was investigated by adding 3 % of fresh methanol to maintain the induction every 24 hr. The cells were incubated for 1 to 7 days at 30 °C, 250 rpm. From the result, the obtained maximum hydrolysis activity was  $0.137 \pm 0.012 \mu mol/min$  when the cells were incubated for 5 days (Fig 4-7).



Fig 4-7 The effect of time on the hydrolysis activity

# 4.4 Purification of the lipase

The recombinant strain was grown at 30 °C, 250 rpm for 5 days and 3 % of fresh methanol was added to maintain the induction every 24 hr. After centrifugation at 5000 rpm at 4 °C for 1.30 hr., the supernatant was concentrated by viva flow and later purified using DEAE Hitrap column. The unbound or the flowthrough proteins were initially obtained by 50 mM Tris buffer pH 7.5 and the adsorbed fractions were

later eluted by the linear gradient of 0-1 M ammonium sulfate as shown in the elution profile in Fig 4-8. From this figure, it was clearly shown that much higher protein content was apparently obtained in the unbound fractions than the eluted. Hence, to confirm the presence of recombinant lipase, all pools of protein fractions were assayed for the lipase activity. From the results, more than ten nmol/min/mg protein of lipase activity was interestingly obtained merely in the flowthrough pool with the presence of recombinant lipase. Table 4-1 summarized the results of the purification and it can be seen that the purity of lipase increased by 2.5 folds after purification which was confirmed by SDS-PAGE shown in Fig 4-9. From the electrophoretic pattern, the single band of recombinant lipase was obtained with the approximate molecular mass of 40 kDa.



**Fig. 4-8** Chromatographic purification profile of recombinant lipase from *Fusarium solani*. Approx. 50 mg of sample was loaded on DEAE Hitrap column (5x1 ml) previously equilibrated with 5 column volumes of 50 mM Tris buffer pH 7.5 with the flow rate of 60 ml/min. 5 ml fractions were collected and the column was finally eluted with linear gradient of 0-1 M ammonium sulfate.

Table 4-1 Purification of lipase from Fusarium sold	ıni
---	-----

Fraction	Total protein (mg)	Total activity (µmol/min)	Specific activity (nmol/min/mg protein)	Purification (fold)	Activity Yield (%)
Crude extract	188	2.80	14.9	1	100
Flow through fractions from DEAE	149.5	5.45	36.5	2.5	194.6



Fig. 4-9 SDS-PAGE analysis of purified lipase from *Fusarium solani*.

Lane 1: molecular weight markers. Lane 2: a crude extract.

Lane 3: purified protein from DEAE Hitrap column chromatography

#### 4.5 Characterization of lipase

#### 4.5.1 Substrate specificity of the purified lipase

Substrate specificity of lipase was studied by using *p*-nitrophenyl esters with various chain lengths as substrates. From Table 4-2, the maximum specific activity was  $0.035 \pm 0.001 \ \mu \text{mol/min/mg}$  protein when *p*NP-caprate (C10) was used as substrate while the minimum was 0.011  $\mu$ mol/min/mg protein from *p*NP-acetate (C2). From Fig. 4-10, the relative activity was 99.6  $\pm$  0.6 and 98.4  $\pm$  1.9 % when *p*NP-caprate (C10), *p*NP-laurate (C12) were used as substrates, respectively. *p*NP-acetate (C2) gave the lowest relative activity, approximately 32.3  $\pm$  0.8 %. Thus, *p*NP-caprate (C10) and *p*NP-laurate (C12) were specific substrate for purified lipase. Since *p*NP-caprate (C10) is more expensive than *p*NP-laurate (C12), *p*NP-laurate (C12) was therefore selected as the substrate for the subsequent experiments.

 Table 4-2 Effect of substrate chain lengths on the specific activity of the purified recombinant lipase

Substrates	Specific activity (µmol/min/mg protein)
C2 (acetate)	$0.011 \pm 0$
C4 (butyrate)	$0.031 \pm 0$
C8 (caprylate)	$0.032 \pm 0.001$
C10 (caprate)	$0.035 \pm 0.001$
C12 (laurate)	$0.034 \pm 0.001$
C14 (myristate)	$0.033 \pm 0$
C16 (palmitate)	$0.025 \pm 0.001$
C18 (stearate)	$0.013 \pm 0.001$



Fig. 4-10 Effect of substrate chain lengths on the specific activity of the purified recombinant lipase

# 4.5.2 Effect of pH on the activity of lipase

The effect of pH on the purified lipase activity was determined by using *p*-nitrophenyl laurate as the substrate. The optimum pH of enzyme activity was determined in triplicates at room temperature using various buffers with pH ranging from 5.0 to 11.0. The results showed that purified lipase was active at slightly alkaline pH range from 8.5–9.5 and the obtained optimal pH was 9 (Fig. 4-11). Therefore, 50 mM Tris–HCl buffer, pH 9.0 was used to determine the lipase activity in the following experiment.



Fig. 4-11 Effect of pH on the activity of the purified recombinant lipase.0.5 mg/ml of purified lipase was added to various pH buffers from 5.0 to 11.0.

# 4.5.3 Effect of temperature on the activity of lipase

The effect of temperature on the purified lipase activity was determined by using *p*-nitrophenyl laurate as the substrate. The optimal temperature of lipase activity was determined by measuring the rate of reaction at temperatures ranging from 30 to 60 °C under the standard assay conditions and the results were illustrated in Fig. 4-12. The enzyme exhibited high activities at temperatures range of 35-40 °C.



Fig. 4-12 Effect of temperature on the relative activity of the purified recombinant lipase. 0.5 mg/ml of purified lipase was incubated at 30 to 60 °C.

# 4.5.4 Stability of recombinant lipase

### 4.5.4.1 Effect of pH

The effect of pH on lipase stability was determined by incubating the purified lipase (0.5 mg/ml) in the different pH buffers (pH 4.0-11.0) at 4 °C for 20 hr. The residual activity was assayed by spectrophotometric method at room temperature. From Fig. 4-13, it can be seen that 80 % of lipase activity were still retained at pH 5.0 to 10.0 revealing that the obtained recombinant enzyme was relatively stable for the wide range of pH. Nevertheless, pH at which the maximal activity of purified lipase was obtained equaled 8.0



**Fig. 4-13** Effect of pH on lipase stability. 0.5 mg/ml of purified lipase was incubated in pH buffer (pH 4-11) at 4 °C for 20 hr.

# **4.5.4.2 Effect of temperature**

To determine the influence of temperature on the enzyme stability, the purified lipase (1.0 mg/ml) was preincubated in 50 mM Tris–HCl buffer, pH 9 at temperature ranging from 20 to 60 °C for 5 hr. Subsequently, the residual activity was analyzed at room temperature. From the result, the enzyme activity retained above 80 % at 20 to 35 °C. However, the residual activity was the highest at 35 °C, approximately 99.9  $\pm$  6.1 %. The activity of the enzyme declined dramatically when the temperature was elevated more than 35 °C and finally lost all of the activity at 40 °C (Fig. 4-14). These results demonstrated that the recombinant lipase is reasonably stable below 35°C.



Fig. 4-14 Effect of temperature on lipase stability. The purified lipase (1.0 mg/ml) was preincubated in 50mM Tris–HCl buffer, pH 9 at temperature ranging from 20 to 60 °C for 5 hr.

#### 4.5.5 Effect of metal ions on the activity of lipase

The effect of various metal ions and metal chelating agent, EDTA on the activity of the purified recombinant lipase was studied. The enzyme solution was incubated with various kinds of metal ions and EDTA at 35 °C for 1 hr. The residual activity was measured at room temperature and expressed as the % residual activity relative to the control. The remained activity of purified recombinant lipase after 1 hr. incubation was shown in Fig. 4-15. Both concentrations, 1 mM and 10 mM of metal ions such as K<sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>, Li<sup>+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, Fe<sup>2+</sup>, Cu<sup>2+</sup>, Mn<sup>2+</sup>, Co<sup>2+</sup> and Zn<sup>2+</sup> showed no significant effect on the lipase activity. This indicated that the recombinant lipase was metal ion independent with the positive confirmation from the result of EDTA which also had no effect on the activity of lipase. Expectedly, 90 % of the activity was sharply inhibited by 10 mM Hg<sup>2+</sup>.



Fig. 4-15 Effect of metal ions on lipase activity. 1 mg/ml of purified lipase was mixed with 50mM Tris–HCl buffer, pH 9 containing 1 or 10 mM of various metal ions such as of K<sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>, Li<sup>+</sup>, Ag<sup>+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, Fe<sup>2+</sup>, Cu<sup>2+</sup>, Mn<sup>2+</sup>, Co<sup>2+</sup>, Zn<sup>2+</sup>, Hg<sup>2+</sup>, Fe<sup>3+</sup> and EDTA. The reactions were carried out at 35 °C for 1 hr.

# 4.5.6 Effect of chemicals on the activity of lipase

The effect of various kinds of chemicals on the activity of the purified recombinant lipase was studied by mixing enzyme solution with 1 % and 5 % (v/v) of detergents as well as reducing agent incubated at 35 °C for 1 hr. The residual activity was measured at room temperature. The effect of these chemicals on the percentage of enzyme activity was calculated by comparing the residual activity to the control. The comparison of residual activity from both 1 % and 5 % (v/v) chemicals was shown in Fig. 4-16. From the results, most chemicals gave quite similar effect except for SDS and
$\beta$ -mercaptoethanol. It could be seen that, in the presence of most of the 1 % (v/v) chemicals, 10 to 27 % increase of the residual activity were obtained. The high residual activity, approximately 27 %, 20 % increase were obtained under the influence of reducing agent, DTT and detergent Triton X-100. However, higher concentration of 5 % appeared to decrease the activities. Interestingly, 5 % of  $\beta$ -mercaptoethanol showed 80 % inhibition while both concentrations of SDS showed absolute inhibition.



Fig. 4-16 Effect of chemicals on lipase activity. 1.0 mg/ml of purified lipase was dissolved in 50mM Tris–HCl buffer, pH 9 and incubated for 1 hr. at 35 °C with 1 % and 5 % (v/v) of various chemicals.

### 4.5.7 Effect of organic solvents on the activity of lipase

The effect of various organic solvents on the activity of the purified recombinant lipase was studied by incubating enzyme solution in 50 % (v/v) of various polar and non-polar organic solutions at room temperature for 1 and 6 hr. The residual activity was measured at room temperature. The organic solvent tolerance of enzymes was calculated from the % residual activity relative to the control. The retained activities of lipases after incubation were shown in Fig. 4-17. From the results, it can be seen that different polarity of organic solvents showed completely opposite effect on the enzyme. Apparently, the recombinant enzyme displayed more tolerance towards non-polar solvents; namely diethyl ether, benzene, cyclohexane, hexane, n-heptane and isooctane than the polar such as methanol, ethanol, acetone, iso-propanol and butanol. The highest residual activity was obtained after incubation for 1 and 6 hr. (100.8  $\pm$  4 % and 94  $\pm$  15 %) in the presence of cyclohexane and n-heptane, respectively.



Fig. 4-17 Effect of organic solvents on lipase activity. Purified lipase was incubated with 50mM Tris–HCl, pH 9 in the presence of 13 types of the solvents; methanol, ethanol, iso-propanol, glycerol, butanol, acetone, hexane, cyclohexane, n-heptane, chloroform, isooctane, benzene and diethyl ether. The reaction mixture was incubated at 35 °C and stirred at 300 rpm for 1 and 6 hr.

# 4.5.8 Effect of alcohol on the activity of lipase

From the results in 4.5.7, the purified lipase was found to be completely inactivated by 50% methanol and ethanol. The concentrations of both organic solvents and the incubation period at which lipase could exhibit tolerance were therefore determined. The results showed that the enzyme could tolerate the concentrations of 0.5-2 % both methanol and ethanol for 12 hr and still retained 80% of the activity.

Considering the effect of the incubation period, the purified lipase was incubated with 0.5, 1, 2 and 3 % of methanol at 35 °C, 300 rpm for 12 and

24 hr in comparison. From Fig. 4-18 and 4-19, it was found that longer incubation period at 24 hr, the lipase could still retain 80 % of the activities in the presence of 0.5 % of both alcohols but decreased further by higher concentrations from 1-3 %. Similarly, the presence of ethanol gave the same trend as methanol in both the concentrations and the incubation time illustrated in Fig 4-19.



Fig. 4-18 Effect of methanol on lipase activity. 0.5 mg/ml of purified lipase was dissolved in 50mM Tris–HCl buffer, pH 9 containing 0.5, 1, 2 and 3 % methanol. The reaction was carried out by incubating at 35 °C and stirring at 300 rpm for 12 and 24 hr.



Fig. 4-19 Effect of ethanol on lipase activity. 0.5 mg/ml of purified lipase was dissolved in 50mM Tris–HCl buffer, pH 9 containing 0.5, 1, 2 and 3 % ethanol, and incubated at 35 °C for 12 and 24 hr.

### 4.5.9 Hydrolysis of oil

Hydrolysis was performed by using seven types of oil namely; coconut, olive, palm, safflower, physic nut papaya and rambutan. The reaction was carried out by incubating at 35 °C, 300 rpm for 5 hr. The results showed that all the oil samples could be hydrolyzed by the purified recombinant lipase and the specific activities obtained were tabulated in Table 4-3. However, the highest specific activity was  $1.136 \pm 0.084 \mu mol/min/mg$  protein when coconut oil was used as substrate. From the table, the coconut, palm, papaya and rambutan oil were therefore subsequently selected as the substrates for transesterification according to their specific activities respectively. The calculation of the lipase activity was described in Appendix D.

	Specific activity
Oils	µmol/min/mg protein
Coconut	1.136 ± 0.084
Olive	0.639 ± 0.013
Palm	$0.72 \pm 0.010$
Safflower	0.535 ± 0.009
Physic nut	$0.558 \pm 0.027$
Papaya	$0.705 \pm 0.013$
Rambutan	$0.756 \pm 0.124$

 Table 4-3 Hydrolysis of oil

## 4.5.10 Transesterification of oil

The oil samples from coconut, palm, papaya and rambutan selected from hydrolysis assay (4.5.9) were used as substrates in transesterification for the production of biodiesel. The mixture was composed of oil, purified lipase and methanol. The reaction was stirred at 300 rpm, 35 °C for 24 hr. and the samples were taken for analysis by HPLC. From the results, about  $3.31 \pm 4.68$  %,  $7.03 \pm 1.73$  %,  $9.88 \pm 3.14$  % and  $44.7 \pm 2.2$  % of fatty acid methyl esters could be obtained from coconut, palm, papaya and rambutan oil, respectively.

From this study, it can be seen that rambutan oil might have been applied as the substrate for transesterification catalyzed by the lipase from *Fusarium solani*.

### **CHAPTER V**

## DISCUSSION

In general, the most preferrable source of microbial lipases is from the fungus since the obtained excreted extracellular enzymes can facilitate the extraction from fermentation media. The production of lipase by several strains of *Fusarium sp*. has been studied in terms of enzyme production, protein, properties and purification. Among all of studied *Fusarium sp.*, *Fusarium solani* is the most common species which can be recovered in humans, animals, plants and soil. In this study, the fungal samples, NAN 103, were obtained from the culture collection of Biofuels By Biocatalysts Research unit, Faculty of Science, Chulalongkorn University (Malilas, 2006). The samples were initially confirmed for the identification and were further studied for cloning, expression, purification and characterization of the obtained recombinant lipases.

## 5.1 Identification of the lipase producing fungi

The fungi, NAN103 were morphologically identified. When observed under the microscope, the colonies of white puffy fibers with cross walls that divide the cytoplasm into segments called septate hyphae were detected (Malilas, 2006).

After the samples were morphologically identified, they were genetically confirmed using the internal transcribed spacer (ITS); the nucleotide sequences localized at 5.8 ribosomal RNA. In this work, such conserved region was used to specify the definite species of fungi. The ITS gene was amplified by a pair of primers namely; ITS1F and ITS4 by PCR technique. The 564 bp PCR products were obtained and sequenced. The submitted sequence showed 99% identity with the closest known

relative of *Fusarium solani*. Hence, the identification of the samples was confirmed as follows.

Kingdom: Fungi Phylum: Ascomycota Class: Pyrenomycetes Order: Hypocreales Genus: *Fusarium* Species: *Fusarium solani* 

## 5.2 Cloning of the lipase gene

In this study, the fragment containing the lipase operon was amplified by PCR technique with the primers FSF1 and FSRS1. From Fig. 4-3, the result showed that the size was 1,002 bp containing an ORF of 999 bp. The recombinant plasmid was successfully constructed by ligating the purified lipase gene into pPICZ $\alpha$ A vector and later subjected for sequencing. The obtained sequences were selected by Chromas Lite and BioEdit program and aligned to GenBank database using the BLAST program. The results showed 92 % identity to extracellular lipases of *Fusarium solani* (Fig. 4-4). At neutral pH, the deduced amino acid sequence revealed the protein of 333 amino acid residues with the same numbers of 36 negatively charged (Asp and Glu) and 36 positively charged (Arg, Lys and His) residues. The total number of charged residues (Asp, Glu, Arg, Lys and His) apparently account for 72 (21.6 %) from the total number of amino acids in the protein molecule. On the other hand, it was found that the hydrophobic amino acids (Ala, Ile, Leu, Met, Phe, Pro, Trp and Val) make up 45 % of the protein. According to the amino acid composition (Fig. 4-5), the calculated molecular mass was approximately 36 kDa. From all of the

mentioned above, the obtained lipase gene was closely related to that of *Fusarium solani* which consists of 999 bp in an ORF and the encoded protein consists of 333 amino acids with a molecular weight of 35 kDa (Eddine *et al.*, 2001). Hence, the primary morphological identification of the fungus was positively confirmed.

### 5.3 Expression of lipase gene in *Pichia pastoris*

Pichia pastoris is a methylotrophic yeast which has been shown to be a more effective production host than Saccharomyces cerevisiae (Shen et al., 2009). This microorganism is well suited for the expression of heterologous proteins since it is easy for genetic manipulation. The cells are also easier to culture with high density than the mammalian cells. Purification procedure required for the secreted heterologous proteins is also simple (Daly and Hearn, 2005). Moreover, it can carry post-translational modification of foreign proteins such as glycosylation similar to mammalian and insect cells (Abdelmoula-souissi et al., 2007). The yeast, *Pichia pastoris* is capable of metabolizing methanol as its sole carbon source. The metabolism of methanol is the oxidation of methanol to formaldehyde and hydrogen peroxide using oxygen by the enzyme alcohol oxidase. The optimal methanol concentration and incubation time are the important factors for the expression. Too high the concentration of methanol may lead to low expression of protein or even death. On the other hand, too low the concentration of methanol added in the reaction may not be sufficient. Similarly, the shorter time may not be suitable for expression of yeast cell whereas the longer time may attribute to cell damage. In this research, the recombinant plasmid was transformed into Pichia pastoris strain KM71 as expression vector. The expressed protein was secreted into the culture medium and the expression level of protein was induced in the presence of different methanol concentrations and time of induction. The results showed that the optimal condition for the expression of lipase from *Fusarium solani* in *Pichia pastoris* strain KM71 was 3 % of methanol for the period of 5 days. This is not consistent with the results from *Galactomyces geotrichum* Y05 in which 0.5 % of methanol for 6 days were necessary (Yan *et al.*, 2007). Thongekkaew and Boonchird studied the induction in *Candida thermophilia*, the results showed that 0.5 % methanol for the period of 7 days were required for the optimization (Thongekkaew and Boonchird, 2007).

### 5.4 Purification of the lipase

From the results in Fig. 4-8, the activities of lipase from DEAE cation exchanger column from the pools of negatively charged recombinant proteins was obtained from the unbound flowthrough pool and the purity increased by 2.5 folds. When the sample was tested for homogeneity from SDS-PAGE, the single band was obtained with the approximate MW of 40 kDa (Fig 4-9). The calculated molecular mass was approximately 36 kDa which was closed to 39 KDa of an extracellular lipase from *Yarrowia lipolytica* (Yu *et al.*, 2007) and 45 kDa of mature lipase (SAL3) from *Staphylococcus aureus* (Horchani *et al.*, 2009). The obtained higher molecular weight may have been the result from the post-translational glycosylation in which the site of N-glycosylation (Asn-Pro-Thr) was found at position-165 according to amino acid sequences (Rotticci-Mulder *et al.*, 2001).

### 5.5 Characterization of lipase

## 5.5.1 Substrate specificity of the purified lipase

Generally, lipases can hydrolyze p-nitrophenyl esters with various chain lengths (C2-C18). Moreover, the specificity for the acyl chain length of

substrate fatty acids varies according to the shape and size of the active site groove or pocket (Lee and Swaisgood, 1998). The substrate specificity of the recombinant lipase in this work was performed with substrates, *p*-nitrophenyl esters, with the various numbers of carbon chain lengths ranging from C2-C18. From the results, the approximately 90-nearly 100 % residual activities were obtained from C4-C14. The highest activity of the enzyme was obtained towards both C10 and C12 similar to the bacterial lipase from psychrotrophic *Pseudomonas* sp. (Kumar *et al.*, 2005). In addition, medium chain lengths (pNP-C4 - pNP-C8), p-nitrophenyl laurate (pNP-C12) and p-nitrophenyl myristate (pNP-C14) appeared to be the good substrates for purified lipase whereas the poor activities were obtained towards pNP-C2 and pNP-C18. These results demonstrated that the recombinant lipase has the strong catalytic ability to the substrates with medium chain lengths but displayed low activities towards the substrates with short and long chains. In contrast, the native lipase from Fusarium solani reported by Winayanuwattikun et al exhibited a narrow range of specificity towards only p-nitrophenyl laurate (pNP-C12) (Winayanuwattikun et al., 2011). This contradictory results may have been the consequence from the obtained higher molecular weight of purified lipase resulted from the N-glycosylation of the lipase molecule. This might have altered the amino acid sequence at the active site resulting in the differences of the substrate specificity.

### 5.5.2 Effect of pH on the activity of lipase

From the result in 4.5.2, the optimal pH of purified lipase was pH 9.0. This result was similar to *Fusarium solani* FS1 lipase in which low activity was obtained from pH lower than 8.0. The other lipase producing fungi such as *Aspergillus sp.* and *Mucor sp.* also showed the optimal pH at alkaline pH approximately at 10 (Savitha *et al.*, 2007).

However, extracellular lipase of *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *line* and *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *vasinfectum* showed optimal pH at 7.0 and 5.8, respectively (Maia *et al.*, 1999).

### 5.5.3 Effect of temperature on the activity of lipase

The optimal temperature of purified recombinant lipase was between 35 to 40 °C, slightly higher than at 37 °C of native lipase from *Fusarium solani* (Eddine *et al.*, 2001). Nevertheless, the result was consistent to extracellular lipase, YlLip7, from *Yarrowia lipolytica* (Yu *et al.*, 2007).

# 5.5.4 Stability of recombinant lipase

#### 5.5.4.1 Effect of pH

From Fig. 4-13, regarding the trend of the results obtained, the purified recombinant lipase was apparently stable in a broad range of pH values between pH 5.0 to 10.0 by retaining over 80 % of the residual activity. This indicated that the recombinant enzyme was stable at both slightly acid and more alkaline pH which was quite similar to the extracellular lipase from *Fusarium oxysporum* (Maia *et al.*, 1999).

### 5.5.4.2 Effect of temperature

For the thermal stability study in 4.5.4.2, the results illustrated that the residual activity of the purified lipase was highest at 35 °C and still retained the activity above 80 % at the temperature between 20-35 °C. The obtained recombinant lipase was obviously more stable in wider range of temperature than the lipase of *Fusarium solani* FS1 in which the maximum of stability was observed in the temperature range from 25-30 °C (Maia *et al.*, 1999).

## 5.5.5 Effect of metal ion on the activity of lipase

The effect of various metal ions on the activity of the purified recombinant lipase was studied by incubating enzyme solution with various kinds of metal ions at 35 °C for 1 hr. From the results (Fig. 4-15), almost all studied metal ions had no effect on lipase activity indicating that *Fusarium solani* lipases activities were metal ion independent. This is consistent to the previous reports that  $Ca^{2+}$  and  $Mg^{2+}$  cations did not produce adverse effect. On the other hand, calcium is generally known to stabilize lipolytic enzymes (Côté and Shareck, 2008). Nevertheless, strong inhibition by  $Hg^{2+}$  on the activity of the recombinant lipase was expected due to the alteration of enzyme conformation resulting from heavy metal denaturation (Yan *et al.*, 2007). Moreover, when 1mM of EDTA was tested, 20% increase of the activity was clearly observed more than control. However, increase of the concentration to 10 mM resulted in the significant drop of lipase activity. This indicated that only low concentration of EDTA was reported to have no

effect on the lipase from *Bacillus subtilis* suggesting that the enzyme was not a metalloenzyme (Kamini *et al.*, 2000). However, our results were opposite to psychrotrophic bacterium, *Pseudomonas* sp. strain KB700A reported by Rashid *et al.*, 2001 in which addition of EDTA completely abolished lipase activity.

## 5.5.6 Effect of chemicals on the activity of lipase

The effects of various types together with the concentrations of the chemicals on the activity of the purified recombinant lipase were studied by incubating enzyme solution with 1 % and 5 % (v/v) of chemicals at 35  $^{\circ}$ C for 1 hr. two categories of chemicals were studied namely; the detergents such as Triton X-100, Tween-80, and SDS and the reducing agents such as DTT and  $\beta$ - mercaptoethanol and together with DMSO. From the effect of concentration (Fig. 4-16), the results showed that 1 % v/v of most chemicals tended to enchance the activity of recombinant lipase whereas slight inhibition was observed at higher concentration of 5 % (v/v). However, both 1 and 5 % of SDS exhibited 100 % inhibitory effect and 5 % β-mercaptoethanol showed 80 % inhibition. SDS is the anionic detergent with the ability to disrupt the structure of proteins which can unfold the structural protein or polypeptide to the single strand with negative charges.  $\beta$ -mercaptoethanol affects native protein structure via its ability to cleave disulfide bonds. Nevertheless, the purified recombinant lipase was not inhibited by DTT, it has high conformational propensity to form a six-membered ring with an internal disulfide bond contributing to the difficulty to react with disulfide bonds in protein molecule. Moreover, many studies have shown that disulfide bonds are

not needed for the enzyme activity but rather for stability and correct folding formation of the enzyme structure (Côté and Shareck, 2008). In consistence, almost all studied detergents such as Triton X-100 and Tween-80, as well as reducing agent like DTT showed slight enhancement (approximately 10-20 %) on the activity of lipase. Similar to the previous report, DMSO was found to have a marked stimulatory effect on lipase activity by increasing the proportion of substrate present in a monomeric form. Since the lipase was active in both soluble and emulsified substrates, this effect of DMSO could partly be accounted for by an effect of apparent increase in substrate concentration, i.e. by an increase in the concentration of substrate accessible to the lipase. Moreover, it possibly enhances the activity of lipase via the disaggregation of the lipase (Kamini *et al.*, 2000).

### 5.5.7 Effect of organic solvents on the activity of lipase

The effect of various organic solvents on the activity of the purified recombinant lipase was studied by incubating enzyme solution in 50 % (v/v) of various polar and non-polar organic solutions at 35 °C for 1 and 6 hr. From the results (Fig. 4-17), the recombinant enzyme appeared to display more tolerance towards non-polar solvents; namely hexane, cyclohexane, n-heptane, isooctane, benzene and diethyl ether than the polar such as methanol, ethanol, iso-propanol, butanol and acetone. In general, lipases are diverse in their sensitivity to solvent but there is general agreement that polar water miscible solvents. In polar organic solvents group, the highest residual activity was shown in the presence of glycerol. It has been proposed that a thin layer of water molecules tightly

bound to the enzyme acting as a protective sheath along the enzyme's hydrophilic surfaces and allowing retention of the native conformation. Conversely, methanol, ethanol, iso-propanol, butanol, chloroform and acetone were shown to be the strong inhibitors by causing the rapid protein denaturation or disturbance of the reaction mixture interface (Yan *et al.*, 2007).

### 5.5.8 Effect of alcohol on the activity of lipase

The concentration required for both methanol and ethanol, plays important role in transesterification for the production of biodiesel since the excessive alcohol content will certainly inactivate lipase (Ma and Hanna, 1999; Fukuda *et al.*, 2001). Hence, the percentage of alcohol tolerance for the recombinant lipase was studied in comparison. The purified lipase was mixed with 0.5, 1, 2 and 3 % of alcohol and incubated at 35 °C, 300 rpm for 12 and 24 hr. Various short-chain alcohols (C1-C2) were the acyl acceptors in transesterification (Yang *et al.*, 2007). From the results in 4.5.8 (Fig. 4-18 amd Fig. 4-19) the high residual activity was obtained from incubating purified lipase with 0.5 - 2 % of both alcohols retaining 80% of activity.

### 5.5.9 Hydrolysis of oil

Hydrolysis was performed by using seven types of oil such as palm, olive, safflower, coconut, physic nut, papaya and rambutan. With regard to the suitability of such oils as the feedstock of biodiesel production, palm and coconut have been widely used for this purpose. Additionally, physic nut, papaya and rambutan were the agricultural waste from the industrial sector. The property of biodiesel produced from these oils have passed the specification among the three biodiesel standards; Biodiesel standards of Thailand (2007), USA (ASTM D6751-07a) and European Standards Organization (EN 14214:2003) (Winayanuwattikun et al., 2008). From the results shown in Table 4-3, the purified recombinant lipases revealed the hydrolytic activities towards all of the studied oils. The specific activity of more than 0.5 µmol/min/mg protein was obtained. From this study, it could therefore be concluded that lipase from *Fusarium solani* can catalyze many substrates with a wide variety of hydrocarbon chain lengths. Nevertheless, the highest specific activity of  $1.136 \pm 0.084 \mu mol/min/mg$  protein was obtained when coconut oil was used as substrate. The main composition of fatty acids are as follows: 12:0 (34.37), 14:0 (13.75), 16:0 (9.29), 18:0 (10.53), 18:1 (12.34), 18:2 (6.46), 18:3 (0.72) and 20:0 (7.72) (Winayanuwattikun et al., 2008). From this, the C-12 substrate yielded the best hydrolysis of oil which was positively correlated to the result from substrate specificity of the enzyme recombinant in 5.5.1. Hence, C-12 was the most suitable substrate for hydrolysis consistent with the high content in palm and papaya oils. This is different from the quite low content of C-12 but high specific activity from the rambutan oil.

### 5.5.10 Transesterification of oil

The four types of plant oils with higher specific activities for hydrolysis were investigated as the substrates in transesterification for the production of biodiesel namely; coconut, palm, papaya and rambutan oils respectively. The reaction mixture was composed of oil, purified lipase and methanol, continuously stirred at 300 rpm, 35 °C for 24 hr. The samples were taken for analysis by HPLC. From the results, the highest biodiesel production yield of  $44.7 \pm 2.2$  % was obtained from rambutan oil whereas the lowest fatty acid methyl ester of  $3.31 \pm 4.68$  % was obtained from coconut oil. Notably, the transesterification of coconut oil gave the contradictory result from hydrolysis. This may be the results from the high percentage of water content and the differences in composition of fatty acids in the coconut oil causing the reaction to favour the hydrolytic reaction instead of transesterification.

### **CHAPTER VI**

### CONCLUSION

From this study, the lipase producing fungus was genetically confirmed as *Fusarium solani*. The genome was extracted and the lipase gene was amplified by specific primers. The gene was successfully cloned into pPICZaA using E.coli DH5a as the competent cells. After analysis by BLAST program, the open reading frame was composed of 999 bp encoding 333 amino acids. The lipase gene was then expressed by linearizing the recombinant plasmids with Sac I digestion and later transformed into *Pichia pastoris* strain KM71. Additionally, the expression conditions were optimized in which 3 % of methanol for the period of five days was the most suitable regarding the lipase activity. The expressed product was later purified and the obtained lipase was 2.5 folds higher in purity, molecular mass of approximately 40 kDa with 194.6 % of activity yield. The recombinant lipase showed the strong catalytic ability towards the broad range of substrates with carbon numbers of medium chain lengths between C4-C14. Nevertheless, the highest activity was obtained from *p*-nitrophenyl caprate, *pNP*-C10 and *p*-nitrophenyl laurate, *pNP*-C12 with optimal pH and temperature at 9 and 35-40 °C respectively. The lipase was found to be stable at pH range between 5.0 and 10.0 and temperature below 35 °C. The studies on the influence of various chemicals showed that the activity of the enzyme was metal ion independent. Furthermore, almost all studied detergents resulted in the slight enhancement of the activity and the lipase displayed tolerance towards non-polar solvents. However, the enzyme was strongly inhibited by SDS and reducing agent,  $\beta$ -mercaptoethanol. When the enzyme was assayed for hydrolytic activity with 7 types of plant oils namely, palm, coconut, olive, safflowers, physic nuts, papaya and rambutan, the highest specific activity of  $1.136 \pm 0.084 \ \mu mol/min/mg$  protein was obtained with coconut oil as a substrate. Finally, the transesterification with 4 types of oils with high hydrolytic activities; coconut, rambutan, palm and papaya as substrates was investigated for the production of biodiesel. The highest production of 45 % biodiesel was obtained from rambutan oil which was higher than papaya, palm and coconut respectively.

### REFERENCES

- Abdel-fattah, R. Y., and Gabaiia, A. A. (2008). Identification and over expression of a thermostable lipase from *Geobacillus thermoleovorans* Toshki in *Escherichia coli*. <u>Microbiological Research</u>. 163: 13-20.
- Abdelmoula-souissi, S., Rekik, L., Gargouri, A., and Mokdad-gargouri, R. (2007).
   High-level expression of human tumor suppressor P53 in the methylotrophic yeast: *Pichia pastoris*. <u>Protein Expression and Purification</u>. 54: 283-288.
- Albuquerque, M. C. G., et al. (2009). Properties of biodiesel oils formulated using different biomass sources and their blends. <u>Renewable Energy</u>. 34: 857–859.
- Al-zuhair, S., Ramachandran, K. B., and Hasan, M. (2008). Effect of enzyme molecules covering of oil-water interfacial area on the kinetic of oil hydrolysis. <u>Chemical Engineering Journal</u>. 139: 540-548.
- Antolin, G., et al. (2002). Optimization of biodiesel production by sunflower oil transesterification. <u>Bioresource Technology</u> 83:111–114.
- Betigeri, S. S., and Neau, S. H. (2002). Immobilization of lipase using hydrophilic polymers in the form of hydrogel beads. <u>Biomaterials.</u> 23: 3627–3636.
- Cardenas, F., et al. (2001). Screening and catalytic activity in organic synthesis of novel fungal and yeast lipases. <u>Journal of Molecular Catalysis B:</u> Enzymatic. 14: 111-123.
- Cardenas, F., et al. (2001). Novel microbial lipases: catalytic activity in reactions in organic media. <u>Enzyme and Microbial Technology</u>. 28:145-154.
- Chang, S. F., Chang, S. W., Yen, Y. H., and Shieh, C. J. (2007). Optimum immobilization of *Candida rugosa* lipase on Celite by RSM. <u>Applied Clay</u> <u>Science</u>. 37: 67-73.

- Cihangir, N., and Sarikaya, E. (2004). Investigation of lipase production by a new isolate of *Aspergillus* sp. <u>World Journal of Microbiology & Biotechnology</u> 20: 193–197.
- Côté, A., and Shareck, F. (2008). Cloning, purification and characterizatrion of two lipases from *Streptomyces coelicolor* A3 (2). <u>Enzyme and Microbial</u> <u>Technology</u>. 42: 381-388.
- Daly, R., and Hearn, T. W. M. (2005). Expression of heterologous proteins in *Pichia pastoris*: a useful experimental tool in protein engineering and production. Journal of Molecular Recognition. 18: 119-138.
- Darnoko, D., and Cheryan, M. (2000). Kinetics of palm oil transesterification in a batch reactor. JAOCS 77: 1263–1267.
- Demirbas, A. (2003). Biodiesel fuels from vegetable oils via catalytic and noncatalytic supercritical alcohol transesterifications and other methods: a survey. <u>Energy Conversion and Management 44</u>: 2093–2109.
- Demirbas, A. (2009). Progress and recent trends in biodiesel fuels. <u>Energy</u> <u>Conversion and Management</u>. 50: 14–34.
- Deng, H.T., Xu, Z.K., Dai, Z.W., Wu, J., and Seta, P. (2005). Immobilization of *Candida rugosa* lipase on polypropylene microfiltration membrane modified by glycopolymer: hydrolysis of olive oil in biphasic bioreactor. <u>Enzyme and</u> <u>Microbial Technology</u> 36: 996–1002.
- Dwivedi, D., Agarwal, A. K., and Shama, M. (2006). Particular emission characterization of a biodiesel vs diesel-fuelled compression ignition transport engine: A comparative study. <u>Atmospheric Environment</u> 40: 5586-5595.

Eastmond, P. J. (2006). SUGAR-DEPENDENT1 encodes a patatin domain triacylglycerol lipase that initiates storage oil breakdown in germinating *Arabidopsis* seeds. <u>Plant Cell</u>. 18: 665–675.

- Eddine, A. N., Hannemann, F., and Schäfer, W. (2001). Cloning and expression analysis of *NHL1*, a gene encoding and extracellular lipase from the fungal pea pathogen *Nectria haematococca* MP VI (*Fusarium solani* f. sp. *pisi*) that is expressed *in planta*. <u>Mol Genet Genomics</u>. 265: 215-224.
- Eevera, B. T., Rajendran, K., and Saradha, S. (2009). Biodiesel production process optimization and characterization to assess the suitability of the product for varied environmental conditions. <u>Renewable Energy</u>. 34: 762–765.
- Falch, E. A. (1991). Industrial enzymes developments in production and application. <u>Biotechnology Advances</u>. 9: 643-658.
- Foresti, M. L., and Ferreira, M. L. (2007). Chitosan-immobilized lipases for the catalysis of fatty acid esterifications. <u>Enzyme and Microbial Technology</u>. 40: 769-777.
- Fukuda, H., Kondo, A., and Noda, H. (2001). REVIEW: biodiesel fuel production by transesterification of oils. <u>Journal of Bioscience and Bioengineering</u>.
  92: 405-416.
- Guan, G., Kusakabe, K., Sakurai, N., and Moriyama, K. (2009). Transesterification of vegetable oil to biodiesel fuel using acid catalysts in the presence of dimethyl ether. <u>Fuel</u>. 88: 81–86.
- Hasan, F., AliShah, A., and Hameed, A. (2006). Industrial applications of microbial lipases. <u>Enzyme and Microbial Technology</u>. 39: 235–251.

- Horchani, H., Mosbah, H., Salem, N. B., Gargouri, Y., and Sayari, A. (2009).
  Biochemical and molecular characterisation of a thermoactive, alkaline and detergent-stable lipase from a newly isolated *Staphylococcus aureus* strain. Journal of Molecular Catalysis B: Enzymatic 56: 237–245.
- Hung, T. C., Girihar, R., Chiou, S. H., and Wu, W. T. (2003). Binary immobilization of *Candida rugosa* lipase on chitosan. Journal of Molecular Catalysis B: <u>Enzymatic</u>. 26: 69-78.
- Jeong, G.T., Yang, H.S., and Park, D.H. (2009). Optimization of transesterification of animal fat ester using response surface methodology. <u>Bioresource</u> <u>Technology</u> 100: 25–30.
- Joelianingsih, M. H., et al. (2008). Biodiesel fuels from palm oil via the non-catalytic transesterification in a bubble column reactor at atmospheric pressure: A kinetic study. <u>Renewable Energy</u>. 33: 1629–1636.
- Kaewpiboon, C. (2007). <u>Production of biodiesel catalyzed by lipases from bacteria</u>, <u>yeast and fungi</u>. Master's thesis, Department of Biotechnology. Faculty of Science Chulalongkorn University.
- Kamini, R. N., Fujii, T., Kurosu, T., and Iefuji, H. (2000). Production, purification and characterization of an extracellular lipase from the yeast, *Cryptociccus* sp.S-2. <u>Process Biochemistry</u>. 36: 317-324.
- Karadzic, I., Masui, A., Zivkovic, L. I., and Fujiwara, N. (2006). Purification and Characterization of an Alkaline Lipase from *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* Isolated from Putrid Mineral Cutting Oil as Component of Metal working Fluid. Journal of Bioscience and Bioengineering 102, 2: 82–89.

- Komers, K., Stloukal, R., Machek, J., and Skopal, F. (2001). Biodiesel from rapeseed oil, methanol and KOH 3: Analysis of composition of actual reaction mixture. <u>European Journal of Lipid Science and Technology</u>. 103: 347–363.
- Kumar, S., Kikon, K., Upadhyay, A., Kanwar, S. S., and Gupta, R. (2005).
  Production, purification and characterization of lipase from thermophilic and alkaliphilic *Bacillus coagulans* BTS-3. <u>Protein Expression and Purification</u>. 41: 38-44.
- Lee, P., and Swaisgood, E. H. (1998). Cloning and expression of a streptavidin-lipase fusion gene in *Escherichia coli* and characterization of the immobilized fusion protein. <u>Enzyme and Microbial Technology</u>. 22: 246-254
- Ma, F., and Hanna, M. A. (1999). Biodiesel production: a review. <u>Bioresource</u> <u>Technology</u>. 70: 1-15.
- Maia, de Mascena., et al. (1999). Production of extracellular lipase by the phytopathogenic fungus *Fusarium solani* FS1. <u>Revista de Microbiologia</u>. 30: 304-309.
- Malcata, F. X., Reyes, H. R., Garcia, H. S., Hill, C. G., and Amundson, C. (1992). Kinetics and mechanisms of reactions catalysed by immobilized lipases. <u>Enzyme and Microbial Technology</u>. 14, 6: 426-446.
- Malilas, W. (2006). <u>Screening and induced mutation of lipolytic fungi to enhance</u> <u>hydrolytic activity</u>. Master's Thesis. Program in Genetics. Faculty of Science Chulalongkorn University.
- Meher, L. C., Sagar, D. Y., and Naik, S. N. (2006). Technical aspects of biodiesel production by transesterification-a review. <u>Renewable and Sustainable</u> Energy Reviews. 10: 248–268.

- Patil, P.D., and Deng, S. (2009). Optimization of biodiesel production from edible and non-edible vegetable oils. <u>Fuel</u> 88: 1302-1306.
- Rachid, N., Shimada, Y., Ezaki, S., and Atomi, H. (2001). Low-temperature lipase from psychrotrophic *Pseudomonas* sp. strain KB700A. <u>Applied and</u> <u>Environmental Microbiology</u>. 4064-4069.
- Ramos, M. J., Fernandez, C. M., Casas, A., Rodrguez, L., and Perez, A. (2009). Influence of fatty acid composition of raw materials on biodiesel properties. <u>Bioresource Technology</u>. 100: 261–268.
- Reis, P., Holmberg, K., Watzke, H., Leser, M. E., and Miller, R. (2009). Lipases at interfaces: A review. <u>Advances in Colloid and Interface Science</u>. 147-148: 237-250.
- Rosa, C.D., et al. (2008). Lipase-catalyzed production of fatty acid ethyl esters from soybean oil in compressed propane. Journal of Supercritical Fluids 47: 49-53.
- Rotticci-mulder, C. J., Gustavsson M., Holmquist, M., Hult, K., and Martinelle, M. (2001). Expression in *Pichia pastoris* of *Candida antarctica* lipase B and lipase B fused to a cellulose-binding domain. <u>Protein Expression and</u> <u>Purification</u>. 21: 386-392.
- Savitha, J., et al. (2007). Identification of potential fungal strain(s) for the production of inducible, extracellular and alkalophilic lipase. <u>African Journal of Biotechnology</u>. 6(5): 564-568.
- Saxena, R. K., Davidson, W. S., Sheoran, A., and Giri, D. (2003). Purification and characterization of an alkaline thermostable lipase from *Aspergillus carneus*. <u>Process Biochemistry</u>. 39: 239-247.

- Saxena, R. K., et al. (2001). Role of fungal enzymes in food processing. <u>Applied</u> <u>Mycology and Biotechnology</u>. 1: 353-386.
- Shen, M., Wang, Q., Mu, X., Xu, H., and Yan, W. (2009). Expression, purification and characterization of recombinant human β-amyloid 1-42 in *Pichia pastoris*. Protein Expression and Purification. 63: 84-88.
- Sinha, S., Agarwal, A. K., and Garg, S. (2008). Biodiesel development from rice bran oil: Transesterification process optimization and fuel characterization. <u>Energy Conversion and Management.</u> 49: 1248–1257.
- Sun, S. Y., and Xu, Y. (2009). Membrane-bound 'synthetic lipase' specifically cultured under solid-state fermentation and submerged fermentation by *Rhizopus chinensis:* A comparative investigation. <u>Bioresource Technology</u>. 100: 1336–1342.
- Thongekkaew, J., and Boonchird, C. (2007). Molecular cloning and functional expression of a novel extracellular lipase from the thermotolerant yeast *Candida thermophilia*. Federation of European Microbiological Societies. 7: 232-243.
- Vakhlu, J., and Kour, A. (2006). Yeast lipases: enzyme purification, biochemical properties and gene cloning. <u>Electronic Journal of Biotechnology</u>. *REVIEW ARTICLE*. DOI: 10.2225.
- Vicente, G., Martínez, M., and Aracil, J. (2004). Integrated biodiesel production: a comparison of different homogeneous catalysts systems. <u>Bioresource</u> <u>Technology</u>. 92: 297-305.
- Villeneuve, P., Muderhwa, J. M., Graille, J., and Haas, M. J. (2000). Review: Customizing lipases for biocatalysis: a survey of chemical, physical and molecular biological approaches. <u>Journal of Molecular Catalysis B:</u>

Enzymatic. 9: 113–148.

- West, A. H., Posarac, D., and Ellis, N. (2008). Assessment of four biodiesel production processes using HYSYS Plant. <u>Bioresource Technology</u>. 99: 6587–6601.
- Winayanuwattikun, P., et al. (2011). Immobilized lipase from potential lipolytic microbes for catalyzing biodiesel production using palm oil as feedstock. <u>African Journal of Biotechnology</u>. 10(9): 1666-1673.
- Winayanuwattikun, P., et al. (2008). Potential plant oil feedstock for lipase-catalyzed biodiesel production in Thailand. <u>Biomass and Bioenergy</u>. 32: 1279–1286.
- Yan, J., Yang, J., Xu, L., and Yan, Y. (2007). Gene cloning, overpression and characterization of a novel organics solvent tolerant lipase from *Galactomyces geotrichum* Y05. Journal of Molecular Catalysis B: Enzymatic. 49: 28-35.
- Yang, J., Guo, D., and Yan, Y. (2007). Cloning, expression and characterization of a novel thermal stable and short-chain alcohol tolerant lipase from *Burkholderia cepacia* strain G63. <u>Journal of Molecular Catalysis B:</u> <u>Enzymatic</u> 45: 91–96.
- Yu, M., Lange, S., Richter, S., Tan, T., and Schmid, D. R. (2007). High-level expression of extracellular lipase Lip2 from *Yarrowia lipolytica* in *Pichia pastoris* and its purification and characterization. <u>Protein Expression and</u> <u>Purification</u>. 53: 225-263.
- Zhou, Z., Miwa, M., and Hogetsu T. (1999). Analysis of genetic structure of a Suillus grevillei population in a Larix kaempferi stand by polymorphism of intersimple sequence repeat (ISSR). <u>New Phytologist</u>. 144: 55-63.

APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A

# **REAGENT PREPARATION**

1.1 Buffered Glycerol-complex Medium (BMGY) 1 L

## 1. Preparation for media

# Peptone20gYeast extract10g

All components were dissolved in 700 ml distilled water and then steriled at  $121 \circ C$ ,  $15 \text{ lb/in}^2$  for 15 min. Next, the mixture was cooled down at room temperature and added the following and mix well:

1 M potassium phosphate buffer, pH 6.0	100	ml
10X Yeast Nitrogen Base	100	ml
500X Biotin (4x10 <sup>-5</sup> % biotin)	2	ml
10X Glycerol	100	ml

Stored media at 4 ° C

# 1.2 Buffered Glycerol-complex Medium plate (BMGY plate) 1 L

Peptone	20	g
Yeast extract	10	g
Agar	15	g

All components were dissolved in 700 ml distilled water and then steriled at  $121 \,^{\circ}$  C,  $15 \, 1$ b/in<sup>2</sup> for 15 min. Next, the mixture was cooled down at room temperature and added the following and mix well:

1 M potassium phosphate buffer, pH 6.0 100 ml

10X Yeast Nitrogen Base	100	ml
500X Biotin (4x10 <sup>-5</sup> % biotin)	2	ml
10X Glycerol	100	ml
Stored media at 4 ° C		

# 1.3 Buffered Methanol-complex Medium (BMMY) 1 L

Peptone	20	g
Yeast extract	10	g

All components were dissolved in 700 ml distilled water and then steriled at 121  $^{\circ}$  C, 15 1b/in<sup>2</sup> for 15 min. Next, the mixture was chilled at room temperature and added the following and mix well:

1 M potassium phosphate buffer, pH 6.0	100	ml
10X Yeast Nitrogen Base	100	ml
500X Biotin (4x10 <sup>-5</sup> % biotin)	2	ml
10X M (0.5 % methanol)	100	ml
Stored at 4 ° C		

# 1.4 Buffered Methanol-complex Medium plate (BMMY plate) 1 L

Peptone	20	g
Yeast extract	10	g
Agar	15	g

All components were dissolved in 700 ml distilled water and then steriled at 121 ° C, 15  $1b/in^2$  for 15 min. Next, the mixture was chilled at room temperature and added the following and mix well:

1 M potassium phosphate buffer, pH 6.0 100 ml

10X Yeast Nitrogen Base	100	ml
500X Biotin (4x10 <sup>-5</sup> % biotin)	2	ml
10X M (0.5 % methanol)	100	ml
Stored media at 4 ° C		

# 1.5 Low Salt Luria-Bertini (LB) broth 1 L

Tryptone	10	g
Yeast extract	5	g
NaCl	5	g

All components were dissolved in 950 ml distilled water. The pH of solution was adjusted to 7.5 with NaOH and then brough the volume up to 1,000 ml by distilled water. Subsequently, the mixture was autoclaved at 121  $^{\circ}$  C, 15 1b/in<sup>2</sup> for 15 min.

# 1.6 Luria-Bertini (LB) broth 1 L

Tryptone	10	g
Yeast extract	5	g
NaCl	10	g

All components were dissolved in 1,000 ml distilled water and then autoclaved at 121  $^{\circ}$  C, 15 1b/in<sup>2</sup> for 15 min.

# 1.7 LB agar 1 L

Tryptone	10	g
Yeast extract	5	g
NaCl	10	g

Agar	15	g
All components were dissolved in 1,000 ml distilled wa	ter and	then

autoclaved at 121 ° C, 15 1b/in<sup>2</sup> for 15 min.

# 1.8 Yeast Extract Peptone Dextrose Medium (YPD) 1L

Peptone	20	g
Yeast extract	10	g

All components were dissolved in 900 ml distilled water and then autoclaved at 121  $^{\circ}$  C, 15 1b/in<sup>2</sup> for 15 min. Next, the mixture was chilled at room temperature and then added 100 ml of 20 % dextrose.

# 2. Preparation for DNA extraction

## 2.1 Washing buffer

PVP (polyvinylpyrrolidone)	2	g
Ascorbic acid	1.76	g
1 M Tris buffer pH 8.0	20	ml
2-mercaptoethanol	4	ml

The steriled water was added for adjusting volume to 200 ml and stored at 4  $^{\circ}\,\mathrm{C}$ 

# 2.2 2X CTAB lysis buffer

СТАВ	4	g
1 M Tris buffer pH 8.0	20	ml
1 M EDTA pH 8.0	8	ml
NaCl	16.36	g

89

2-me	ercaptoet	hanol							1	L	ml
The	steriled	water	was	added	for	adjusting	volume	to	200	ml	and

stored at 4 ° C

# 2.3 20 % Polyethylene glycol 6000 (PEG)

PEG	20	g
NaCl	14.61	g

The steriled water was added for adjusting volume to 200 ml and stored at 4  $^{\circ}\,\mathrm{C}$ 

# 2.4 50 X Tris-Acetate-EDTA buffer (TAE buffer) 1 L

Tris base	242	g
Acetic Acid	57.1	ml
0.5 M EDTA	100	ml

The distilled water was added for making up volume to 1 liter and its pH was adjusted to 8.5 by using KOH. Then, it was autoclaved at 121  $^{\circ}$  C, 15 1b/in<sup>2</sup> for 15 min and stored at room temperature.

# 2.5 50 X Tris-EDTA buffer (TE buffer)

1 M Tris buffer pH	8.0	500	m

0.5 M EDTA pH 8.0 100 ml

The distilled water was added for adjust volume to 1 liter and autoclaved at 121  $^{\circ}$  C, 15 1b/in<sup>2</sup> for 15 min, followed by storing at room temperature.

Agarose	1	g
1 X TAE buffer	100	ml

# 2.7 Lysis buffer

100 mM NaOH
60 mM KCL
5 mM EDTA
10 % (w/v) sucrose
0.25 % (w/v) SDS
0.05 % (w/v) bromphenol blue
The distilled water was added for adjust volume to 30 $\mu$ l

# 2.8 STET buffer

8 % sucrose	16	g
50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0	10	ml
50 mM EDTA pH 8.0	20	ml
0.1 % Triton X-100	0.2	ml

The distilled water was added for adjust volume to 200  $\mu$ l and autoclaved at 121 ° C, 15 1b/in<sup>2</sup> for 15 min, followed by storing at room temperature.

# 3. Preparation of solutions for hydrolysis assays

# 3.1 1 M Tris buffer, pH 8

Tris base

91

121 g

Distilled water 800 ml The pH of solution was adjusted to 8.0 by HCl and brought the volume up to 1,000 ml distilled water. Stored at 4 ° C and was diluted to 50 mM Tris buffer before use.

# 3.2 Solution A

<i>p</i> -nitrophenyl palmitate	30	μg
<i>p</i> -nitrophenyl palmitate was dissolved with 10 ml of 2-prop	panol. T	Гhen,
the solution was mixed well and kept in the brown bottle and store	d at 4 °	C.

# **3.3 Solution B**

Triton X-100	0.4	g
Gum Arabic	0.1	g

All components was dissolved with 90 ml of 50 mM Tris buffer pH 8.0 and stored at 4  $^{\circ}$  C.

# 4. Preparation for polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis

# 4.1 Stock reagent

# 4.1.1 30 % Acrylamide, 0.8 % bis-acrylamide 100 ml

Acrylamide	29.2	mg
N,N-methylene-bis-acrylamide	0.8	g

# 4.1.2 1.5 M Tris-HCl, pH 8.8

Tris	(hydroxymethyl)-aminomethane	18.17 g
		0
The pH of solution was adjusted to 8.8 by HCl and the volume was brought up to 100 ml distilled water.

# 4.1.3 1 M Tris-HCl, pH 6.8

Tris (hydroxymethyl)-aminomethane 12.1 g The pH of solution was adjusted to 6.8 by HCl and the volume was brought up to 100 ml distilled water.

# 4.1.4 10 % Ammonium persulfate

Ammonium persulfate	0.1	mg
Distilled water	1	ml

### 4.1.5 10 % SDS

SDS	0.1	mg
Distilled water	1	ml

## 4.2 5 X Sample buffer for SDS-PAGE

1 M Tris-HCl, pH 6.8	0.6	ml
Glycerol	2.5	ml
10 % SDS	2	ml
2-mercaptoethanol	0.5	ml
1 % bromophenol blue	1	ml
Distilled water	3.4	ml

One part of 5 X sample buffer is added to four parts of sample. The mixture is heated at 95 °C for 5 min and centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 5 min before loading to the gel.

# 4.3 SDS-PAGE

## 4.3.1 12 % separating gel

Distilled water	3.3	ml
1.5 M Tris-HCl, pH 8.8	2.5	ml
30 % acrylamide solution	4	ml
10 % SDS	0.1	ml
10 % Ammonium persulfate	0.1	ml
TEMED	0.004	ml

## 4.3.2 5.0 % stacking gel

Distilled water	1.4	ml
1 M Tris-HCl, pH 6.8	0.25	ml
30 % acrylamide solution	0.33	ml
10 % SDS	0.02	ml
10 % Ammonium persulfate	0.02	ml
TEMED	0.002	ml

## 4.4 10 X Electrophoresis buffer for SDS-PAGE 1 L

Tris (hydroxymethyl)-aminomethane	30.3	g
Glycine	144	g

SDS		1	0	g

The distilled water was used for adjusting volume to 1 liter.

# 4.5 Staining solution

Coomassie brilliant blue R-250	0.5	g
Methanol	250	ml
Glacial acetic acid	50	ml

The distilled water was used for adjusting volume to 500 ml and mixed well.

# 4.6 Destaining solution

Methanol	100	ml
Glacial acetic acid	100	ml
Add distilled water to 1000 ml and mix.		

#### **APPENDIX B**

## **METHODS**

#### 1. Phenol/Chloroform Extraction

1) Add an equal volume of phenol: chloroform (1:1) (at least 200 µl) to

digestion reaction

2) Mix well, spin at 13000 rpm for 5 min

3) Carefully remove the aqueous layer (upper phase) to a new tube, avoid the

interface

4) Repeat step 1-3 until an interface is no longer visible

5) To remove traces of phenol, add an equal volume of chloroform to the

aqueous layer

6) Spin at 13000 rpm for 2 min

7) Remove aqueous layer (upper phase) to new tube

8) Clean sample by ethanol precipitation

## 2. Ethanol Precipitation

1) Add 10% volume of 3M NaOAc pH 4.6

2) Add 3.5 volume of 95% ethanol

3) Spin at 13000 rpm for 20 min

4) Wash with 200 µl of 70% ethanol

5) Air dry

6) Resuspend with 10-20 µl sterile distilled water

#### **APPENDIX C**

# PREPARATION AND STANDARD CURVE FOR PROTEIN DETERMINATION

## 1. Standard curve of BSA

The standard curve of BSA was constructed using Bradford protein assay method for protein determination. The method is as follows;

- 1.  $1 \mu g/\mu l$  BSA was diluted with distilled water as 0.1-0.6  $\mu g$  (Table C-1).
- 2. 5 µl BSA from stock solution was added into 96 wells microplate.

BSA	Reagent volume (µl)			
(µg)	1 μg / μl of BSA	dH <sub>2</sub> O		
0	-	1000		
0.1	100	900		
0.2	200	800		
0.3	300	700		
0.4	400	600		
0.5	500	500		
0.6	600	400		

Table C-1 Reagent volume for preparation of standard curve

- 3. 300 µl of Bradford's reagent was added and incubated for 5 minutes.
- 4. The product was measured by an increase in the absorbance at 595 nm.



Fig. C-1 Standard curve of BSA

#### **APPENDIX D**

## **CALCULATION METHOD**

#### 1. Calculation of the lipase activity

*p*-nitrophenyl palmitate as substrate

 $\epsilon_{p-NPP}$  at 410 nm = 15 mM<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup>

A = Elc; l = 0.6 cm

Activity = (  $\Delta nOD 410 / time$ ) x Dilution Factor x 0.00111)

Specific activity = Activity

Concentration of protein

One unit (1 U) was defined as that amount of enzyme that liberated 1  $\mu$ mol of *p*NPP per minute under the test conditions.

## 2. Calculation of total protein

The absorbance value at 595 nm was calculated by:

$$Y = aX + b$$

Where

Value X axis = Standard protein concentration (mg/ml)

Value Y axis = Absorbance at 595 nm

# 3. Calculation of PCR (insert) volume for ligation

Molar ratio of insert and vector = 3:1

Volume of insert (ng) = volume of vector (ng) x size of insert x molar ratio

size of vector

4. Calculation of specific activity in hydrolysis by titrate method

Mole of NaOH = 
$$\frac{CV}{1000}$$

Mole of NaOH = Mole of fatty acid changed to  $\mu$ mole

Specific activity =  $\mu$ Mole of fatty acid/min/mg protein

5. Molecular weight of palm oil



Fig. D-1 Molecular structure of triglyceride

$$MW_{TG} = 3R_{Aver} + 173$$
$$R_{Aver} = \frac{(\%FA_n \times MW_n)}{100}$$

 $MW_{TG}$  = Molecular weight of triglyceride = Molecular weight of palm oil

 $R_{Aver}$  = Mass of three fatty acids esterified with glycerol

(minus molecular weight of COOH)

 $%FA_n = %$  fatty acid commposition

 $MW_n$  = Molecular weight of three fatty acid – COOH

=  $MW_{FA} - 45$  (from main structure of triglyceride) (Fig. D-1)

Molecular weight of palm oil can be calculated as follows;

$$\begin{split} R_{Ave} &= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{0.59}{100} \times 155 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \frac{0.96}{100} \times 183 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \frac{38.67}{100} \times 211 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \frac{0.11}{100} \times 209 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \frac{3.32}{100} \times 239 \end{pmatrix} \\ &+ \begin{pmatrix} \frac{45.45}{100} \times 237 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \frac{10.87}{100} \times 235 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \frac{0.20}{100} \times 233 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \frac{0.23}{100} \times 267 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \frac{0.02}{100} \times 295 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= & 0.915 + 1.757 + 81.594 + 0.221 + 7.935 + 107.717 + 25.545 + \\ & 0.466 + 0.614 + 0.059 \\ &= & 226.823 \\ MW_{TG} = & & (3 \times 226.823) + 173 \\ &= & 853.469 \end{split}$$

So, molecular weight of palm oil is 853.47

Fatty acids	Abbreviation		% composition			
,		Coconut	palm	papaya	rambutan	
Lauric acid	12 · 0	34 37	0.50	0.26	0.08	
$C_{12}H_{24}O_2$	12.0	54.57	0.59	0.20	0.08	
Myristic acid	14:0	13 75	0.96	0.46	0.11	
$C_{14}H_{28}O_2$	14.0	15.75	0.90	0.40	0.11	
Palmitic acid	16 · 0	9.29	38 67	17 12	8 77	
$C_{16}H_{32}O_2$	10.0	9.29	50.07	17.12	0.77	
Palmitoleic acid	16 · 1	_	0.11	0.45	0.96	
$C_{16}H_{30}O_2$	10.1	_	0.11	0.45	0.90	
Stearic acid	18 · 0	10.53	3 32	2.98	7 25	
$C_{18}H_{36}O_2$	10.0	10.55	5.52	2.90	1.25	
Oleic acid	18 · 1	12 34	45 45	72 91	55.25	
$C_{18}H_{34}O_2$	10.1	12.54	-55	/2./1	55.25	
Linoleic acid	18 · 2	6.46	10.87	4 83	3 72	
$C_{18}H_{32}O_2$	10.2	0.40	10.07	ч.0 <i>5</i>	5.12	
Linolenic acid	18 - 3	0.72	0.20	0.29	0.26	
$C_{18}H_{30}O_2$	18:5	0.72	0.20	0.27	0.20	
Arachidic acid	20 - 0	7 72	0.23	0.67	22.25	
$C_{20}H_{40}O_2$	20.0	1.12	0.25	0.07	22.23	
Behenic acid	22 · 0	_	0.02	0.07	1 34	
$C_{22}H_{44}O_2$	22.0		0.02	0.07	1.5 1	

**Table D-1**Fatty acid composition of oils (Winayanuwattikun et al., 2008)

Fatty acids	Abbreviation	%	% composition		
		physic nut	olive	safflower	
Lauric acid	12 · 0	0.14	0.03	0.02	
$C_{12}H_{24}O_2$	12.0	0.14	0.05	0.02	
Myristic acid	14 · 0	0.17	0.02	0.11	
$C_{14}H_{28}O_2$	14.0	0.17	0.02	0.11	
Palmitic acid	16 : 0	14.82	11 37	6.44	
$C_{16}H_{32}O_2$	10.0	14.02	11.57	0.11	
Palmitoleic acid	16 : 1	0.81	0.63	0.06	
$C_{16}H_{30}O_2$	10.1	0.01	0.05	0.00	
Stearic acid	18 · 0	4.15	2 58	2 20	
$C_{18}H_{36}O_2$	10.0	ч.15	2.50	2.20	
Oleic acid	18 - 1	40.08	80.46	1/12	
$C_{18}H_{34}O_2$	10.1	40.98	80.40	14.13	
Linoleic acid	18 - 2	28.61	4 17	76 57	
$C_{18}H_{32}O_2$	10.2	58.01	4.1/	10.51	
Linolenic acid	18 - 3	0.27	0.56	0.15	
$C_{18}H_{30}O_2$	10.5	0.27	0.50	0.15	
Arachidic acid	20 - 0	0.06	0.21	0.20	
$C_{20}H_{40}O_2$	20.0	0.00	0.21	0.20	
Behenic acid	22 · 0	_	0.01	0.15	
$C_{22}H_{44}O_2$	22.0		0.01	0.15	

#### 6. Volume of methanol

Since a triglyceride has a glycerine molecule as its base with three long chain fatty acids attached, the characteristics of fat are determined by the fatty acids attached to the glycerine. During the transesterification process, the triglyceride reacts with three moles of methanol in the presence of a catalyst to form the mono-alkyl ester, or biodiesel and crude glycerol. So, the ratio of oil and methanol is 1:3 according to the equation in Fig. D-2 (Sinha *et al.*, 2008; West *et al.*, 2008; Ramos *et* 



Fig. D-2 Transesterification of palm oil and methanol

So, palm oil 1 g =  $0.5/853.47 \sim 5.89 \times 10^{-4}$  mole Thus, the volume of methanol =  $3 \times 5.89 \times 10^{-4} = 1.76 \times 10^{-3}$  mole Since molecular weight of methanol is equal to 32, methanol  $1.76 \times 10^{-3}$  mole =  $1.76 \times 10^{-3} \times 32 = 0.056$  g

> From D = M V D = Density of methanol (0.792 g/ml) M = Mass of methanol (0.056 g) V = Volume of methanol (X ml) V = 0.056 g0.792 g/ml

So, the volume of methanol is equal to 0.071 ml. ( $\sim$  71 µl)

%conversion of fatty acid can be calculated as follows;

 $% FFA = \frac{[FFA]}{\{[FAME] + ([TAG] x 3) + [FFA] ([1,3 DAG] x 2) + ([1,2 DAG] x 2) + [MAG]\}} x 100$ 

%conversion of fatty acid methyl ester can be calculated as follows;

% FAME =  $\frac{[FAME]}{\{[FAME] + ([TAG] x 3) + [FFA] ([1,3 DAG] x 2) + ([1,2 DAG] x 2) + [MAG]\}} x 100$ 

When:	FAME	E = Fatty Acid Methyl Ester
	FFA	= Free Fatty Acid
	TAG	= Triacylglycerol
	DAG	= Diacylglycerol
	MAG	= Monoacylglycerol



**Fig. D-3** Chromatogram of methyl ester from transesterification catalyzed by microbial lipase and analyzed by high performance liquid chromatography

Where

Peak 1 = Eicosane
Peak 2 = Fatty acid methyl ester (FAME or Biodiesel)
Peak 3 = Triglyceride (TAG)
Peak 4 = Free fatty acid (FFA)
Peak 5 = 1,3 Diglyceride (1,3 DAG)
Peak 6 = 1,2 Diglyceride (1,2 DAG)
Peak 7 = Monoglyceride (MAG)

#### BIOGRAPHY

Mister Weerasak Thakernkarnkit was born on April 19, 1985 in Ratchaburi, Thailand. He graduated with the Bachelor of Science in Biochemistry from Department of Biochemistry, Faculty of Science, Chulalongkorn University in 2006 and furthered his Master's of Science in Biotechnology from Program in Biotechnology at the same institution at which he finished in April of 2011. He was co-author in the publication entitled: "Potential Plant Oil Feedstock for Lipase-catalyzed Biodiesel Production in Thailand" by Winayanuwattikun, P., Kaewpiboon, C., Piriyakananon, K., Tantong, S., Thakernkarnkit, W., Chulalaksananukul, W. and Yongvanich, T. in Biomass and Bioenergy, 2008, 32: 1279-1286. In addition, his work had been continuously presented as proceedings together with the posters in both national and international levels. For the proceedings at the international level, at The 7<sup>th</sup> International Symposium of High Temperature Air Combustion and Gasification (HiTACG 2008), his work was presented on the topic of "Lipase catalyzed biodiesel production from non-edible and waste plant oils" and at The 22<sup>nd</sup> Annual Meeting of the Thai Society for Biotechnology on the topic of "Gene cloning and expression of lipase from Fusarium solani for the production of biodiesel". For national level, at The 2<sup>nd</sup> BMB Conference: Biochemistry and Molecular Biology for Regional-Sustainable Development on the topic of "Gene cloning, expression of lipase from *Stenotrophomonas sp.* for the production of biodiesel". Furthermore, his posters were presented in both national and international levels. For international level, at The 13th Biological Science Graduated Congress on the topic of "Gene cloning, expression, purification and characterization of lipase from Stenotrophomonas maltophilia". For the national level, his poster was presented at The 17th Annual Symposium of Science Forum on the topic of "Gene cloning, expression and characterization of lipase from *Stenotrophomonas sp.* for the production of biodiesel". and at The 4<sup>th</sup> Annual Symposium of Protein Society of Thailand on the topic of "Gene cloning, expression of lipase from Stenotrophomonas sp. for the production of biodiesel".