Effect of Cultural Conditions on Biosurfactant production by *Candida* sp. isolated from the sap of *Elaeis guineensis*

I.V. Nwaguma ^{1*}, C.B. Chikere ², G.C. Okpokwasili ²

(+2348063442891, Nwaguma.vivian@aceuniport.org) ¹World Bank African Centre of Excellence, Centre for Oil Field Chemicals Research, University of Port Harcourt, River State, Nigeria ²Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Science, University of Port Harcourt, River State, Nigeria

E-mail address: nwaguma.vivian@aceuniport.org; jjeomanwaguma@gmail.com

13 15 16

1

2

3

4

5 6 7

8

9

10 11

12

ABSTRACT

Aims: This study is aimed at determining the effect of cultural condition on biosurfactant production by *Candida* sp. isolates from saps of *Elaeis guineensis*

Methodology: Chemical analysis of the sap was carried out. Yeast isolates from the sap were screened for biosurfactant production based on emulsification index (E_{24}), emulsification assay, haemolytic assay, oil displacement test, CTAB and tilted glass slide ability. The best biosurfactant-producing yeast isolate was identified based on its phenotypic, microscopic, and biochemical characteristics. The emulsification capacity of the produced biosurfactant on selected oils was studied. Optimum cultural and nutritional requirements (temperature, pH, inoculum concentration, nitrogen sources and carbon sources) for biosurfactant production by the isolate were determined.

Results: The characteristics of the sap from *Elaeis guineensis* were reducing sugar (0.51 \pm 0.03 mg/ml), alcohol (14.04 \pm 0.15 %), specific gravity (0.827 \pm 0.024), and pH (5.68 \pm 0.03). The crude biosurfactant produced displaced a thin film of crude oil on petri dish by 55 mm, and revealed high emulsification index (E₂₄) of 52.5% using Olive oil as substrate compared to E₂₄ of 60.6% by sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS). Based on colonial, microscopic, and biochemical characteristics, the isolate SA2 was identified as *Candida* sp. The crude biosurfactant showed varying capacity in emulsifying the different oils that were examined. Optimization data revealed maximum biosurfactant production after 7 days of incubation, inoculum concentration of 10%, at temperature of 20 ° C, pH of 2 with cassava peel as substrate.

Conclusion: The study has demonstrated the capacity of *Candida* sp. from the sap of *Elaeis guineensis* to produce biosurfactant utilizing cassava peel as substrate. The use of cassava peel, which represents a low-cost substrate, is important in reducing the cost of biosurfactant production. Moreover, using yeasts from *Elaeis guineensis* make the production process ecologically friendly.

17 *Keywords:* Biosurfactant, *Candida* sp., optimization, *Elaeis guineensis*

18 1. **INTRODUCTION**

Biosurfactants are green extracellular molecules synthesized by microorganism such as bacteria, yeasts, and fungi. They are amphipathic in nature comprising hydrophilic and hydrophobic moieties that form partitions between oil/water or air/water interfaces [1]. According to Satpute *et al.* [2], this inherent amphipathic property, increases the solubility of hydrophilic molecules, hence reducing both surface and interfacial tensions at air/water interface. 25 Recent preference for biosurfactants over chemically synthesized surfactant is due to its 26 higher biodegradability, environmental friendliness, ability to withstand extreme high 27 temperature, salinity and pH, ease of production from renewable agro-wastes, active and 28 non-toxic nature, multi-functionality, and specificity in terms of its industrial applications [3]. 29 These surface active molecules are classified as glycolipids (rhamnolipids, sophorolipids and 30 trehalolipids) [4]; fatty acids and phospholipids [5]; polymeric biosurfactants (emulsan, alasan) [6-7], and particulate biosurfactants [1], based on their chemical structure and 31 32 microbial origin.

33 Microorganisms that produce biosurfactants are naturally abundant; they are found in ecological places like land (polluted soil, sediment, sludge), water bodies (fresh water, 34 35 ground water, marine water), and also in some extreme environments (e.g., oil reservoirs), 36 where they can flourish in wide range of temperatures, pH values, and salinity [8]. In the past 37 decades, yeast has proven their proficiency for production of biosurfactant, despite having been isolated from different sources as recorded by some researchers. This is majorly 38 39 attributed to their importance in food and pharmaceutical industries on the basis of "generally 40 regarded as safe" (GRAS) status and, also ability to produce biosurfactant in a larger 41 quantities than bacteria [1]. The following Candida species: Candida tropicalis [9]; Candida 42 albicans [10]; Candida antarctica [11]; Candida bombicola [12]; Candida sp. SY16 [13]; 43 Candida sphaerica UCP0995 [14]; Candida utilis [15]; Candida glabrata [16], Candida 44 guilliermondii [17] are known biosurfactant producers.

The type, quality, and quantity of biosurfactant depend on production process conditions such as pH, temperature, agitation, aeration, inoculum concentration, nature of substrates, carbon sources and nitrogen sources [18]. Since environmental factors may significantly affect the yield and characteristics of the produced biosurfactant, it is therefore essential to optimize the process conditions in order to achieve high yield.

50 Biosurfactants find application in different areas. In the environment, play vital roles in 51 bioremediation of polluted soils and refinery wastewater and microbial enhanced oil recovery; industrially, they have been used in detergent formulation, household cleaning 52 agent, pesticides and textile production, agriculture, food and pharmaceutical industries [19-53 20]. Several biosurfactants exhibits antibacterial, antifungal, antiviral and antitumor (inhibiting 54 tumor growth and its toxic effects) properties, making them potential alternatives to 55 56 conventional therapeutic agents in many biomedical applications [21-22]. This work was 57 aimed at isolating, screening and optimizing biosurfactant production from Candida 58 haemulonis SA2 obtained from the sap of Elaeis guineensis. Finally, the ability of the 59 biosurfactant produced to emulsify different hydrocarbons was evaluated.

60 61

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

62

63 **2.1 Sample Collection**

64

The *Elaeis guineensis* (oil palm) samples used for the yeast isolation were obtained in a sterile 500 mL sample containers, each from a palm wine taper within 30 to 60 min of tapping. The samples were aseptically transported to the laboratory in ice packs within two hours of collection. Sampling was done on two different locations: Bunu, and Kpite community within Tai Local Government Area (Ogoni land) of Rivers State, Nigeria.

70

71 **2.2 Physicochemical Analysis of Oil Palm Samples**

The physicochemical parameters analysed were pH, temperature, specific gravity, ethanol content, total dissolved solids at 25 °C, salinity at 25 °C, reducing sugar and conductivity at 25 °C as described by Ukwuru and Awah [23], and titrable acidity Nwachukwu *et al.* [24].

75 **2.3 Isolation of Yeasts**

76 For the isolation of hydrocarbon degrading, 2 % (v/v) of crude oil was added to 100 mL of palm wine in a 250 mL conical flask. The pH of the medium was adjusted to 6. The conical 77 flasks were then incubated at 28 °C in a shaker incubator with agitation speed of 150 rpm 78 for 7 days and 14 days, respectively. At each of the days, 1 mL of enriched palm wine was 79 used for serial dilution according to Nanhini and Josephine [25]; this was followed by spreading of 0.1 mL from 10^{-3} 10^{-5} and 10^{-6} dilutions on triplicates potato dextrose agar 80 81 82 (PDA) plates containing 0.05 mg/mL of gentamycin and chloramphenicol (0.1% wt/v) to inhibit bacterial growth. The plates were incubated at 28 ° C for 48 h [26]. The selected 83 84 colonies (confirmed to be yeasts using a microscopic examination) were purified by re-85 streaking on PDA agar plates. The pure isolates were maintained in PDA agar slants. The 86 isolates were sub-cultured from the slants for the various experiments conducted in this 87 work.

88 **2.3 Identification of Yeast Isolates**

89 The yeast isolates were examined macroscopically on PDA agar plates for the following 90 features, colony elevation, pigmentation, colony size, nature and shape. For microscopy, 91 water mount was employed; with a bacteriologic loop, sterile distilled water was placed on a 92 glass slide and a light emulsion of the yeast made in this drop of water. The glass slide was 93 covered with a cover slip and examines under 40X objective lens. The reason is because 94 yeast settles on a slide more quickly in an aqueous medium making it easier to measure 95 them. The biochemical features examined were urease test, carbohydrates fermentation test 96 (glucose, galactose, sucrose, maltose, fructose, lactose, raffinose), Germ tube test, growth 97 at 37 °C, and pellicle formation.

98

99 **2.4 Screening for Biosurfactant Production**

100

101 The yeast isolates were screened for biosurfactant production using the following 102 techniques: emulsification stability (E_{24}) test, emulsification assay, oil displacement, tilted 103 glass slide and haemolytic assay as described by Nwaguma *et al.* [18]. The selection of the 104 biosurfactant producer was based on the ability of a given strain to give positive results in all 105 the screening test procedures.

106

107 2.4.1 Emulsification stability (E-24) test

108

This screening method for biosurfactant-producing microorganisms has been described as one of the commonest [27]. The method described by Plaza *et al.* [28], was adopted. In brief, 2 mL of kerosene was added to 3 mL of cell free broth in a test tube and vortexed at maximum speed for 2 min to homogenize the mixture. After 24h, the emulsification stability was calculated using the formula below:

114

$E-24 = \frac{\text{total height of the emulsified layer}}{X 100}$

115 116

117 The emulsion formed by the cell-free broth was compared with that formed by 10 % (w/v)

sodium dodecyl sulphate (positive control) and distilled water (negative control), respectively.

120 2.4.2 Emulsification assav

121

122 Three millimetres of supernatant centrifuged at10000 rpm for 15 min/RT was mixed with 0.5 123 mL of kerosene. The mixture was vigorously homogenized by vortexing for 2 min, and was 124 left undisturbed for 1 h to separate the aqueous and the hydrocarbon phases. The 125 spectrophotometry absorbance of the aqueous phase was measured at 600 nm [29]. Un-126 inoculated broth was used as blank.

- 127 128 2.4.3 Oil spreading test
- 129

130 This method is rapid and easy to perform, and most reliable in detecting diverse biosurfactant-producing microorganisms [28, 30]. The method suggested by Morikawa et al. 131 132 [31] was used. In brief, 20 µL of crude oil was used in making a thin layer onto a petri plates 133 (100 mm by 15 mm) containing 50 mL of distilled water. 10 µL of cell free broth was 134 delivered onto the oil coated surface; a clear zone on the surface indicated a positive result. 135 The diameter of the clear zone was measured and compared with that obtained with SDS. 136

137 2.4.4 Tilted glass slide test

138

139 This is an effective modified drop collapse method [2]. A sample colony grown on nutrient 140 agar plates for 24 h was mixed with a drop of 0.85 % NaCl at the edge of the glass slide. 141 According to Satpute et al. [2], collapsing down of droplet when tilted indicated biosurfactant 142 production.

143

2.5 Optimization of Cultural Conditions for Biosurfactant Production 144

145

146 The effects of different cultural conditions (inoculum concentration, pH, temperature, 147 nitrogen sources and agro-wastes as carbon sources) on the growth of selected yeast 148 isolates and the ability of the strain to produce biosurfactant were determined. The inoculum 149 for the optimization used was standardized using 0.5 McFarland's standard.

150 The optimum incubation time for growth and biosurfactant production by the selected strain 151 was studied by varying the incubation time (24, 48, 72, 96, 120, 144, and 168 h) of the 152 culture medium. The culture medium was inoculated with a 24 h culture broth containing a total viable cell count of 2.38 x 10⁸ cfu/ mL of the selected isolates and incubated at 28 °C 153 154 for 168 h in a rotary shaker incubator. Biosurfactant production was measured using E-24 155 while growth was determined using a spectrophotometer. The yeast isolates were incubated 156 at different temperature (20, 30, 40, 50 and 60 ° C) for 168 h, after which the biosurfactant 157 production and growth of the strain were determined. The inoculum concentration with 158 different percentage such as 2, 4, 6, 8, and 10 % (v/v) was added into the culture broth, 159 incubated for 168 h, after which the growth of yeast isolates and the production of biosurfactant were determined. The optimum pH of 2. 4, 6, 8, and 10 for the growth of the 160 161 yeast isolates and biosurfactant produced were determined after incubation for 168 h. The 162 yeast isolates were incubated using different agro-wastes (cassava peel, soya bran, 163 sugarcane bagasse, coconut pulp and beans bran) as carbon sources, and their growth and 164 biosurfactant production estimated after 168h of incubation. Finally, the yeast isolates was 165 incubated with different nitrogen sources (urea + yeast extract, yeast extract + NaNo₃, 166 NH_4SO_4 + yeast extract, NH_4NO_3 + yeast extract, and peptone + yeast extract for 168 h), 167 and the growth of yeast isolates and biosurfactant production determined thereafter.

168

169 **2.6 Biosurfactant Production**

171 The optimized parameters were used in setting up the biosurfactant production media. The 172 production was carried out in a 500 mL Erlenmeyer flask containing 300 mL of the 173 production media with the following ingredients: KH_2P0_4 , 0.03g; MgSO_4, 0.03g; NaNO_3, 0.3g; 174 yeast extract, 0.1g, 4% of olive oil as carbon source. The conical flasks were then incubated 175 at 28 ° C under 180 rpm for 7 days

176 177

2.7 Application of the Biosurfactant on Hydrocarbon Emulsification

178

The biosurfactant produced was applied on different oils (soya oil, red oil, olive oil, coconut
oil, orange oil, and castor oil) and the ability to emulsify these oils determined using E-24
Index.

182183 2.8 Statistical Analysis

184

The results were compared by one-way analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA) and multiple range tests to find the differences between the measurement means at 5 % (0.05) significance level using IBM[®] and SPSS[®] Statistics Version 20.0 (Gally and Alder, US) [32].

189 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

190

191 3.1 Sample Source

According to Olowonibi [1]. (2017), palm wine are naturally synthesized milky alcoholic juice from the saps of *Elaeis guineensis* (oil palm), proven to be highly nutritious, which support the growth of yeast species. Figure 1, shows the picture of milky coloured palm wine sap from oil palm.

196



197 198

199 **Figure 1: Sap of** *Elaeis guineensis*

200 201

3.2 Physicochemical Analysis of Palm Wine Sap

202

The physicochemical characteristics of the palm wine are presented in Table 1. The palm wine sap had a temperature of 17.1° C ± 1.27 and a pH value of 5.68 ± 0.03 at the point of collection. The pH value decreased to 3.8.6 after 6 h interval. The specific gravity, conductivity, salinity and total dissolved solids values @ 25 ° C were 0.827 kgm⁻³, 2.67, 1.4 % and 1355, respectively.

208 209

Table1. Physicochemical properties of the sap of *Elaeis guineensis*

Parameters

I.

Palm wine Saps of Oil palm

Temperature (°C)	17.1 ± 1.27	211
рН	5.68 ± 0.03	
pH (after 6 h interval)	3.86 ± 0.1	
Alcohol content (%)	14.04 ± 0.15	
Alcohol content (after 6 h interval, %)	15.74 ± 0.27	
Reducing sugar (mg/ml)	0.51 ± 0.03	
Reducing sugar after 6h interval (mg/ml)	0.50 ± 0.02	
Specific gravity (kgm ⁻³)	0.827 ± 0.024	
Titratable acidity	2.3 mL of NaOH	
Conductivity (at 25 °C) (µS/cm)	2.67 ± 0.33	
Total dissolved solid (TDS) @ 25 ° C (mg/L)	1355 ± 28.28	
Salinity (at 25 °C)(‰)	1.4 ± 0.56	

3.3. Selection and Identification of Biosurfactant-producing Yeast Isolates

213

Out of the five (5) yeast isolates screened, two (2) isolates were selected as biosurfactant producers based on their ability to give positive results to all the screening methods employed. From the two biosurfactant-producing yeasts, the best isolate SA2 was chosen (Table 2). The distribution of yeast isolates within the different palm wine saps of *Elaeis guineensis* are shown in (Table 3). The cultural and colonial characteristics of the best biosurfactant-producing yeast isolate are shown in Figure 2 and Table 4. Table 5 presents the biochemical characteristics of the biosurfactant-producing yeast isolate. Microscopically, using wet mount, budding yeast-like cells which are ovoid in shape were seen.

222 223

Table 2. Screening results of the selected yeast isolates

Isolate code	source	Emulsification index (E ₂₄)% (using kerosene)	Oil spreading (using crude oil)(mm ²)	Haemolytic assay (mm)	Tilted glass slide test	Emulsification assay (OD ₆₀₀ nm)
SA5	OP	61.3 ± 6.36	37 ± 5.66	Y	+	2.156 ± 0.06
*SA2	OP	62.5 ± 7.78	55 ± 7.07	γ	+	1.977 ± 0.023
SA7 SA3	OP OP	12.9 ± 2.69 -	7 ± 2.83 36 ± 8.46	Y Y	-	0.244 ± 0.010 0.256 ± 0.024
SA8	OP	45.2 ± 5.94	-	γ	-	2.314 ± 0.154

224 Legend: $OP = oil palm; \gamma = gamma haemolysis; + = positive test; - = negative test; *=isolate$

showing positive results in all the screening methods; and OD =optical density

225 226 227

3.4 Count of the Yeast Isolates within the Sap of *Elaeis guineensis*

228 The result obtained from the sap of *Elaeis guineensis* revealed count of 2.38x10⁸.

Table 3. Colony morphology of biosurfactant-producing yeast isolate

Isolate code	SA2
Size	medium
Shape	Ovoid
Margin	entire
Elevation	Flat
pigment	- ve
Colour	cream
Texture	Dry

Surface Opacity	Flat & smooth Opaque					
Legend - = negative						
Table 4. Dischamissel identifis						
Table 4: Biochemical Identific	ation of the biosurfactant-producing yeast isolate					
Isolate code	SA2					
Carbohydrate fermentation						
Maltose	+/A					
Lactose	-/-					
Sucrose	+/-					
Glucose	+/A					
Galactose	+/A					
Fructose	+/A					
Raffinose	_/_					
Pellicle formation	-					
Growth @ 37 ° C Germ tube	-					
Microscopy (wet mount)	- Ovoid to globose, budding yeast-like cells					
Urease test	+					
Probable genus	Candida					
	positive; - = negative; A = acid production					
	B SA2 SDS CONTRACTOR					
	ate; B: Emulsification stability ood agar; D: displacement of					

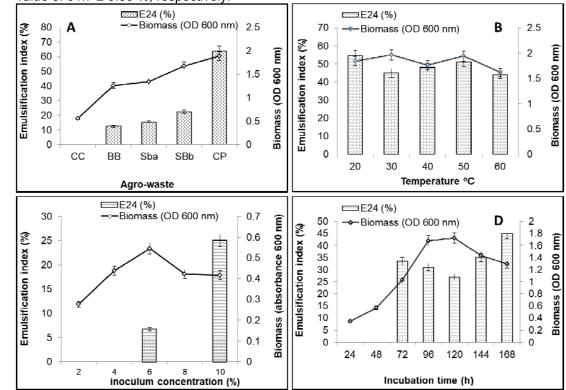
Figure 2. Growth and screening characteristics of the biosurfactant-producing isolate.

3.5 Optimization of Cultural Conditions for Improved Biosurfactant Production

Based on the analysed results, the optimum incubation time for growth and biosurfactant production were 120 and 168 h with the OD (optical density) reading of 1.720 ± 0.009 and E-24 value of 45 ± 7.07 %, respectively. Fig 1A shows the effect of different agro-wastes as

carbon sources on growth and biosurfactant production by the yeast isolate; OD reading of 0.703 \pm 0.01 and E-24 value of 55.9 \pm 2.82 % were obtained. Cassava peel was the best carbon source for biomass formation and biosurfactant production, with E₂₄ value of 64 \pm 1.41 % and OD reading of 1.8840 \pm 0.01, respectively. The effect of different incubation temperatures on growth and biosurfactant production by the yeast isolate showed the optimum incubation temperatures to be 30 ° C and 20 ° C for growth and biosurfactant production, respectively (Fig 3B).

253 The effect of different percentage inoculum concentrations on growth and production of 254 biosurfactant showed optimum inoculum concentrations of 6 % and 10 % for growth and for biosurfactant production (Fig 3C). From the data, the optimum inoculum concentration with 255 256 OD reading of 0.545 ± 0.028 and optimum biosurfactant production with E-24 value of 25 ± 257 1.41 % were obtained. The result on the effect of incubation time on growth and biosurfactant production is presented in Fig 3D. The effect of different pH values on growth 258 259 and biosurfactant production showed the optimum pH values to be 6 and 2, respectively and 260 is presented in Fig 3E. Finally, Fig 3F shows that NaNO₃ and yeast extract favoured growth 261 and biosurfactant production by the yeast isolates with OD value of 2.286 \pm 0.01 and E₂₄ 262 value of 61.7 ± 3.53 %, respectively.



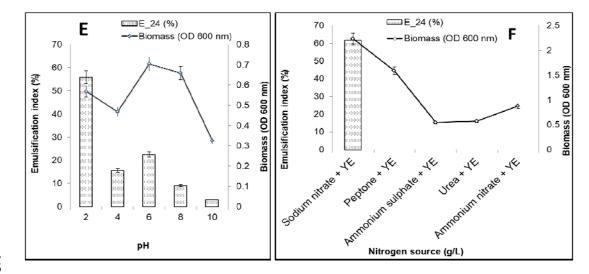
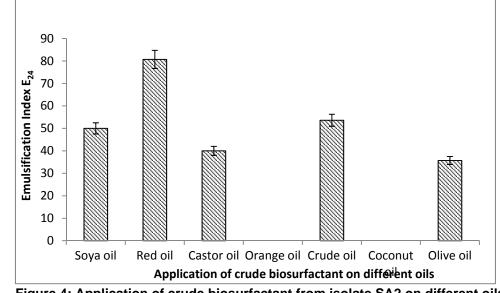
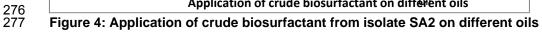


Figure 3: Effect of different cultural conditions on biomass and biosurfactant production. Legend: CC - Coconut chaff; BB - Beans bran; Sba - Soya bran; SBb -Sugarcane bagasse; CP - Cassava peel; A - Effect of different agro-wastes; B - Effect of different temperature; C - Effect of different inoculum concentration; D - Effect of different incubation time; E – Effect of different pH; F – Effect of different nitrogen sources.

3.6 Application of the Biosurfactant on Oil Emulsification

When the crude biosurfactant produced was applied on different oils, it showed varying degrees of emulsification (Fig 5).





4. **DISCUSSION**

282 This study has demonstrated the ability of Candida sp., isolated from oil palm in producing 283 biosurfactant. Although, there is dearth information available in literature, regarding the 284 production of biosurfactant by yeasts isolated from oil palm. Konishi et al. [33] reported that 285 biosurfactant-producing yeasts inhabit various vegetables and fruits. Iroha et al. [34] 286 confirmed this by producing glycolipid biosurfactant from cashew fruit bagasse using 287 Pseudomonas aeruginosa. Many researchers have reported that yeasts from different 288 sources have the potentials of producing biosurfactants. Amaral et al. [35], reported that the 289 majority of microbial biosurfactants are of bacterial origin. However, the pathogenic nature of 290 this producing organism, has limited the application of these compounds in food and 291 pharmaceutical industries. The study of biosurfactant by yeast has been of immense 292 importance, because of 'generally regarded as safe' (GRAS) status that most of the species 293 present. This GRAS status means that the yeasts do not present pathogenic or toxic 294 considerations, thus, enhancing the application of their products for industrial usage.

295 The use of efficient screening strategy is the major key to successful discovery of new 296 biosurfactant producers [36]. The screening methods employed in this study were 297 haemolytic assay, oil-spreading test, emulsification index (E_{24}), emulsification assay, and 298 tilted glass slide test. These methods have been previously reported for the identification of 299 biosurfactant-producing microorganisms such as bacteria and yeasts: haemolytic assay [37-300 38], oil spreading [31, 30, 39], emulsification index [40-42], emulsification assay [43], tilted 301 glass slide [44-46]. The yeast isolates screened showed varying results for the different 302 screening methods employed. The biosurfactant-producing yeasts were selected based on 303 its competence in giving positive results to all the screening methods. According to Satpute 304 et al. [45], the examples of qualitative screening techniques are haemolytic assay and tilted 305 glass slide test, whereas that of the quantitative screening techniques are emulsification 306 index and oil spreading test. The screening techniques used in this study, employed both 307 qualitative and quantitative methods. The use of these techniques is similar to the report of 308 Satpute et al. [45], who used the combination of oil spreading, drop collapse, tilted glass 309 slide and emulsification index to select biosurfactant producers. Satpute et al. [45], 310 suggested that a single method is not suitable to select all the biosurfactant-producing 311 microorganisms, and recommended the combination of methods. In addition, Dhimans et al. 312 [47] used different screening methods, such as emulsification index, oil spreading method, 313 oil displacement assay, surface tension measurement and drop collapse test to detect 314 biosurfactant production. Ndibe and Usman [46], reported the confirmation of biosurfactant-315 production using the following classical techniques: haemolysis test, oil spreading, drop 316 collapse, and emulsification index test.

317 To develop a process for maximum biosurfactants production is very crucial to optimize the 318 medium and thus use suitable fermentation conditions. Incubation time has significant 319 effects on biosurfactant production because microorganisms produce biosurfactant at 320 different time intervals. This study investigated the effect of incubation time (24, 48, 72, 96, 321 120, 144 and 168 h) on the ability of the test yeast isolate to grow well (biomass formation), 322 and produce biosurfactant. The optimum biosurfactant production with E_{24} value of 45 ± 323 7.071 was observed after 168 h (7 days) of incubation time. However, the optimum growth 324 (1.720 ± 0.009) was also observed after 120 h (5 days) of incubation time. This is similar to 325 the result of Cavalero and Cooper, [48] and Felsa et al. [49], who obtained maximum 326 biosurfactant production from Aspergillus ustus after 5 days of incubation. Morita et al. (2006) reported that 16.3 gL⁻¹ of glycolipid biosurfactants was produced by *Pseudozyma* 327 328 antarctica after seven days of incubation using glycerol as a source of carbon. Klebsiella 329 pneumoniae strain IVN 51 isolated from hydrocarbon polluted soil had optimum growth and 330 biosurfactant production after five and two days of incubation, respectively [18].

Microbial processes are temperature dependent and, they usually get affected by change in temperature. According to Saharan *et al.* [50], most of the biosurfactant productions from fungi reported so far have been performed in a temperature range of 25 to 30 $^{\circ}$ C. It was observed that the growth of *Candida bombicola* reaches a maximum at temperature of 30 $^{\circ}$ C, while 27 °C was the best temperature for the production of Sophorolipids [51]. This study is unique, in the sense that the yeast isolate was able to produce biosurfactant at an optimum temperature of 20 °C, with an E_{24} value of 54.7 ± 0.282 %, and biomass production with OD value of 1.965 ± 0.007 at optimum temperature of 30 °C. Khopade *et al.* [52], stated that many physiochemical factors such as pH, temperature, growth conditions and agitation have been shown to strongly influence microbial growth and metabolism. Among them pH of the production medium has proven to be the key factor for microbial growth.

342 The effect of pH (2, 4, 6, 8, 10) on the microbial growth and biosurfactant production were 343 investigated. The results showed that maximum biosurfactant production was achieved at 344 acidic pH of 2, with E_{24} value of 55.9 ± 2.85 % and the yeast isolates grew best at pH of 6 345 (0.703 ± 0.009). According to Bednarski et al. [53], the acidity of the production medium 346 was the parameter studied in the synthesis of glycolipids by Candida antarctica and Candida 347 apicola. When pH is maintained at 5.5, the production of glycolipids reached a maximum. 348 The synthesis of the biosurfactant decreased without the pH control indicating the 349 importance of maintaining it throughout the fermentation process. The pH of 6, favours the growth (biomass formation) and production of biosurfactant by Pseudomonas aeruginosa 350 351 2297, as reported by Kumar et al. [54]. Candida lipolytica at pH of 5.0 and Candida batistae, 352 at pH of 6.0 produced maximum biosurfactant [55-56]. Amaral et al. [57], confirmed the 353 production of Yansan, with a stable pH between 3 and 9 from Yarrow lipolytica.

354 It is estimated that substrate (carbon source) account for 10 to 30% of the total production 355 costs of biosurfactant [58]. Thus, to reduce the cost involved in biosurfactant production, it is 356 desirable to use low-cost raw materials like agro-industrial wastes. The effects of agro-357 industrial wastes (cassava peel, sugarcane bagasse, soya bran, coconut chaff, and beans 358 bran) as carbon sources on biosurfactant production and growth of the yeast isolate was 359 also investigated in this study. The result shows that cassava peel favoured the growth and 360 production of biosurfactant with OD value of 1.884 \pm 0.011 and E₂₄ value of 64 \pm 1.41 %, 361 respectively. According to Nitschke et al. [59], microorganisms for biosurfactant productions 362 can be selected using agro-industrial wastes such as cassava flour waste water. Nigeria has 363 cassava in abundance, and most of the wastes are discarded. Therefore, finding industrial 364 use for these wastes will have positive economic benefits.

365 Several nitrate salts such as sodium nitrate, ammonium nitrate, potassium nitrate was used 366 as nitrogen sources for biosurfactant production. A combination of sodium nitrate and yeast 367 extract were most influential nitrogen source. The result obtained revealed that these 368 nitrogen sources favoured the growth of the test isolate with OD value of 1.884 ± 0.01 , and 369 E-24 value of 64 ± 1.41 % for biosurfactant production. The result is similar to the report of 370 Abbasi et al. [60] that NaNO₃ (39.3 g) and yeast extract (3.93g) enhanced the optimum 371 conditions for biosurfactant production by Pseudomonas aeruginosa MA01. Silva et al. [61], 372 showed that P. aeruginosa 44T1 fail to give good biosurfactant yield with ammonium salts 373 but instead gave good yield when NaNO₃. However, in another study, higher yield of 374 biosurfactant by Candida glabrata UCP 1002 was observed with ammonium nitrate and 375 yeast extract [62]. The effect of different inoculum concentration on the growth of the test 376 isolate and for biosurfactant production was carried out. The result shows that inoculum 377 concentration of 6 % (v/v) (E₂₄ value of 25 \pm 1.41 %) and 10 % (v/v) (OD value of 0.545 \pm 378 0.007), enhanced the biosurfactant production and biomass formation by the test yeast 379 isolate, respectively.

380

381 **4. CONCLUSION**

The results obtained from this study demonstrated the capacity of a yeast isolate from the sap of *Elaeis guineensis* to produce biosurfactant. The yeast isolate was identified as *Candida* sp. Production of biosurfactant from ecological safe source has an added advantage of excluding any risk of toxicity and pathogenic reactions to the environment. The ability to produce biosurfactant was dependent on the incubation media conditions. 387 Moreover, the biosurfactant was able to emulsify at varying degrees different hydrocarbons. 388 Therefore, biosurfactant from *Candida* sp. can be scaled up for industrial production.

389

390 FUNDING

391 This study was partly funded by the World Bank African Centre of Excellence Project.

393 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

394

392

The authors wish to thank the management and staff of Medavistic Medical and Environmental Laboratory where the experiment was carried out.

398 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

399 The authors declare that they have no competing interest.

400

397

401 AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

IVN and GCO conceived the study. IVN carried out the laboratory analysis. IVN, GCO, and
 CBC participated in the study design and coordination and drafting of the manuscript. All
 authors read and approved the final manuscript.

405 406 **REFERENCES**

407

411

415

418

423

424

- Santos DKF, Rufino RD, Luna JM, Santos VA, Sarubbo LA. Biosurfactants: Multifunctional Biomolecules of the 21st Century. Intl J Mol Sci. 2016;17(3):401. doi:10.3390/ijms17030401.
- 412 2. Satpute SK, Arun GB, Prashant KD, Banat IM, Chopade AC. Methods for investigating biosurfactants and bioemulsifier: a review. Crit Rev Biotechno. 2010;130(2):127–144. doi:10.3109/07388550903427280.
- 416
 417
 3. Banat IM, Makkar IM, Cameotra SS. Potential commercial applications of microbial surfactants. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 2000; 53:495-508.
- 4. Cortes-Sanchez AJ, Hernandez-Sanchez H, Jaramillo-Flores ME. Biological activity of glycolipids produced by microorganisms: new trends and possible therapeutic alternatives. Microbiol Res. 2013; 68(1):22-32. doi: 10.1016/j.micres.2012.07.002.
 - 5. Gautam KK, and Tyagi VK. Microbial surfactants: A review. J. Oleo Sci. 2006;55:155-166.
- 425
 426
 427
 428
 6. Lang S. Biological amphiphiles (microbial biosurfactants). Curr Opinion Colloid and Interface Sci. 2002;7(1):12–20.
- 429 7. Hatha AAM, Edward G, Rahman KSMP. Microbial biosurfactants-review. J Mar
 430 Atmos Res. 2007; 3:1-17.
- 432 8. Chirwa EMN, Bezza FA. Petroleum hydrocarbon spills in the environment and abundance of microbial community capable of biosurfactant production. J Pet Environ Biotechnol. 2015; 6:237.
- 436
 437
 437
 438
 438
 439
 9. Almeida DG, Soares da Silva RC, Luna JM, Rufino RD, Santos VA, Sarubbo, LA. Response Surface Methodology for optimizing the production of biosurfactant by *Candida tropicalis* on industrial waste substrates. Front Microbiol.2017; 8:157.

- Padmapriya B, Suganthi S, Anishya RS. Screening, Optimization and Production of Biosurfactants by *Candida* Species Isolated from Oil Polluted Soils. Biointerfaces 2013;79:174–183.
- 444 11. Kitamoto D, Ikegami T, Suzuki GT, Sasaki A, Yuichiro Takeyama Y, Idemoto Y,
 445 Koura N, Yanagishita H. Microbial conversion of n-alkanes into glycolipid
 446 biosurfactants, mannosylerythritol lipids, by *Pseudozyma (Candida antarctica)*.
 447 Biotechnol Lett. 2001;23(20):1709–1714.
- 449 12. Solaiman DKY, Ashby RD, Nunez A, Foglia A. Production of sophorolipids by 450 *Candida bombicola* grown on soy molasses as substrate. Biotechnol. Lett. 2004a; 451 26: 1241-1245.
- 453
 453
 454
 454
 455
 13. Kim HS, Jeon JW, Kim BH, Ahn CY,Oh HM, Yoon BD. Extracellular production of a glycolipid biosurfactant, mannosylerythritollipid, by *candida* sp. SY16 using fed-batch fermentation. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol. 2006;70:391-96.
- 457 14. Luna JM, Rufino RD, Albuquerque CD, Sarubbo LA, Campos-Takaki GM. Economic
 458 optimized medium for tension-active agent production by *Candida sphaerica*459 UCP0995 and application in the removal of hydrophobic contaminant from sand. Int
 460 J Mol Sci 2011;12:2463–76.doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijms12042463.
 - Campos JM, Montenegro TL, Asfora Sarubbo SL, de Luna JM, Rufino RD, Banat IM. Microbial Biosurfactants as Additives for Food Industries. Biotechnol Progr. 2013;29(5). DOI 10.1002/btpr.1796.
 - Luna JM, Sarubbo LA, Campos-Takaki GM. A new biosurfactant produced by Candida glabrata UCP1002: characteristics of stability and application in oil recovery. Braz. Arch. Biol. Technol. 2009; 52:785-793.
- 470
 471 17. Sitohy MZ, Rashad MM, Sharobeem SF, Mahmoud AE, Nooman MU, Al Kashef
 471 AS. Bioconversion of soy processing waste for production of surfactants. Afri J
 472 Microbiol Res. 2010;4(24):2811-2821.
- 474
 475
 475
 476
 476
 476
 476
 477
 477
 478
 479
 479
 479
 470
 470
 470
 471
 471
 472
 473
 474
 475
 475
 475
 476
 476
 477
 477
 477
 477
 478
 478
 479
 479
 479
 470
 470
 470
 470
 470
 471
 471
 472
 473
 473
 474
 475
 475
 475
 475
 476
 477
 477
 477
 477
 477
 478
 478
 478
 479
 479
 470
 470
 470
 470
 470
 471
 471
 471
 472
 473
 473
 474
 474
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 476
 477
 477
 477
 477
 478
 478
 478
 479
 479
 479
 470
 470
 470
 471
 471
 471
 472
 473
 473
 474
 474
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
 475
- 478 19. Geys R, Soetaert W, Van Bogaert I. Biotechnological opportunities in biosurfactant
 479 production. Curr. Opin. Biotechnol. 2014; 30:66–72. doi:
 480 10.1016/j.copbio.2014.06.002.
- 20. Rebello S. Asok AK, Mundayoor S, Jisha MS. Surfactants: toxicity, remediation and green surfactants. Environ. Chem. Lett. 2014;12: 275–287. doi: 10.1007/s10311-014-0466-2
- 484 21. Marchant R, Banat I. Microbial biosurfactants:challenges and opportunities for future
 485 exploitation. Trends Biotechnol. 2012; 30(11):558-565. doi:
 486 10.1016/j.tibtech.2012.07.003.
 487
- 488 22. Müller MM, Kugler JH, Henkel M, Gerlitzki M, Hormann B, Pohnlein M, C. Syldatk
 489 C, Hausmann R. Rahmnolipids Next generation Surfactants?. J. Biotechnol.
 490 2012;162 :366-380.

443

448

452

456

461 462

463

464

465 466

467

468

469

- 492
 493
 493
 494
 23. Ukwuru MU, Awah JI. Properties of palm wine yeasts and its performance in wine making. Afri.J. Biotechnol. 2013 ;12(19):2670-2677 DOI: 10.5897/AJB12.2447.
 494
- 495 24. Nwachukwu IN, Ibekwe VI, Nwabueze RN, Anyanwu BN. Characterisation of palm
 496 wine yeast isolates for industrial utilization. Afr. J. of Biotechnolo. 2006; 5 (19):1725497 1728.

500

501 502

503

504

505

509

513 514

515

516 517 518

519

520

521 522

523

524

528

533

- 25. Nandhini B, Josephine RM. A study on bacterial and fungal diversity in potted soil. Int J Curr Microbiol App Sci. 2013; 2(2):1–5.
- Olowonibi OO. Isolation and Characterization of Palm Wine Strains of Saccharomyces cerevisiae Potentially Useful as Bakery Yeasts. Euro. J. of Exp. Bio. 2017;7(2):11.
- Walter V, Syldatk C, Hausmann R. Screening Concepts for the Isolation of Biosurfactant Producing Microorganisms. Adv Exp Med Biol. 2010; 672:1-13.DOI: 10.1007/978-1-4419-5979-91.
- 510 28. Plaza GA, Zjawiony I, Banat IM. Use of different methods for detection of 511 thermophilic biosurfactant producing bacteria from hydrocarbon contaminated soils. 512 J Petrol Sci Eng.2006; 50(1):71-77. DOI:10.1016/j.petrol.2005.10.005.
 - Patil JR, Chopade BA. Distribution and in vitro antimicrobial susceptibility of *Acinetobacter* species on the skin of healthy humans. Natl Med J India. 2001;14(4):204-8.PMID: 11547525.
 - Youssef NH, Dunacn KE, Nagle DP, Savage KN, Knapp RM, Mcinerney MJ. Comparison of methods to detect biosurfactant production by diverse microorganism. J Microbiol Meth. 2004;56(3):339–347.
 - 31. Morikawa M, Hirata Y, Imanaka T. A study on the structure-function relationship of the lipopeptide biosurfactant. Biochim. Biophys. Acta. 2000; 1488:211-218.
- 525 32. Ezebuiro V, Ogugbue CJ, Oruwari B, Ire FS. Bioethanol production by an ethanol 526 tolerant *bacillus cereus* strain GBPS9 using sugarcane bagasse and cassava peels
 527 as feedstocks. J Biotechnol Biomate. 2015;5:213. doi:10.4172/2155-952X.1000213.
- 33. Konishi M, Hatada Y, Horiuchi JI. Draft genome sequence of the basidiomycetous yeast-like fungus *Pseudozyma hubeiensis* SY62, which produces an abundant amount of the biosurfactant mannosylerythritol lipids. Genome Announc. 2013;1(4):e00409-13. doi:10.1128/genomeA.00409-13.
- 34. Iroha OK, Njoku OU, Ogugua, VN, Okpashi VE. Characterization of biosurfactant
 producedfrom submerged fermentation of fruits bagasse of yellow cashew
 (*Anacardium occidentale*) using *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. Afr. J. Environ. Sci.
 Technol. 2015;9(5):473-481.
- 35. Amaral PFF, Coelho MAZ, Marrucho IMJ, Coutinho JAP. Biosurfactants from Yeasts: Characteristics, Production and Application. In: Sen R. (eds) Biosurfactants: Advances in Experimental Medicine and Biology, vol 672.Springer, New York; 2010.

544 36. Sari M, Kusharyoto W, Made Artika I. Screening for Biosurfactant-producing Yeast: 545 Confirmation of Biosurfactant Production. Biotechnol J(Faisalabad). 2014;3(3):106-546 111.DOI:10.3923/biotech.2014.106.111. 547 548 37. Banat IM. The isolation of a thermophilic biosurfactant producing Bacillus sp. Biotechnol Lett. 1993;15(6):591-594. 549 550 551 38. Carrillo PG, Mardaraz C, Pitta-Alvarez SI, Giuliett AM. Isolation and selection of 552 biosurfactant-producing bacteria. World J Microbiol Biotechnol. 1996;12:82-84. 553 554 39. Chandran P. Das N. Characterization of sophorolipid biosurfactant produced by 555 yeast species grown on diesel oil. Int. J. Sci. Nat. 2011; 2: 63-71. 556 557 40. Cooper DG, Goldenberg BG. Surface-active agents from two Bacillus species, 558 Applied and Environmental Microbiology 1987;53(2): 224–229. 559 560 41. Haba E, Espuny MJ, Busquets M, Manresa A. Screening and production of 561 rhamnolipids by Pseudomonas aeruginosa 47T2 NCIB 40044 from waste frying oils. 562 J Appl Microbiol. 2000; 88:379–387. 563 564 42. Ellaiah P, Prabhakar T, Sreekanth M, Taleb AT, Raju PB, Saisha V. Production of glycolipids containing biosurfactant by Pseudomonas species. Indian J Exp Bio. 565 2002;40:1083-1086. 566 567 568 43. Jagtap S, Yavankar S, Pardesi K, Chopade B. Production of bioemulsifier by 569 Acinetobacter sp. from healthy human skin of tribal population. Ind J Expt Biol. 2010;48:70-76. 570 571 572 44. Persson A, Molin G. Capacity for biosurfactant production of environmental 573 Pseudomonas and Vibrionaceae growing on carbohydrates. Appl Microbiol 574 Biotechnol. 1987;26(5):439-442. 575 576 45. Satpute SK, Bhawsar BD, Dhakephalkar PK, Chopade BA. Assessment of different screening methods for selecting biosurfactant producing marine bacteria. Indian J 577 578 Mar Sci.2008; 37(3):243–250. 579 46. Ndibe TO, Eugene WC, Usman, JJ. Screening of Biosurfactant-producing bacteria 580 Isolated from River Rido, Kaduna State, Nigeria. J. Appl. Sci. Environ. Manage. 581 582 2018; 22 (11): 1855–1861. DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.4314/jasem.v22i11.22. 583 584 47. Dhiman R, Meena KR, Sharma A, Kanwar, SS. Biosurfactants and their screening methods. Res. J. Recent Sci. 2016; 5(10): 1-6. 585 586 587 48. Cavalero DA, Cooper DG. The effect of medium composition on the structure and 588 physical state of sophorolipids produced by Candida bombicola ATCC 22214. J. 589 Biotechnol. 2003; 103:31-41. 590 591 49. Felse, PA, Shah V, ChanJ, Rao, KJ, Gross RA. Sophorolipid biosynthesis by 592 Candida bombicola from industrial fatty acid residues. Enzyme Microb. Technol. 593 2007;40:316-323. 594

595 50. Saharan BS, Sahu RK, Sharma D. A review on biosurfactants: fermentation, current 596 developments and perspectives. Genet Eng. Biotechnol.2011;29:1-14. 597 598 51. Deshpande M. Daniels L. Evaluation of sophorolipid biosurfactant production by 599 Candida bombicola using animal fat. Bioresour. Technol. 1995;54:143-150. 600 601 52. Khopade RB, Liu X, Mahadik K, Zhang L, Kokare C, "Production and stability 602 studies of the biosurfactant isolated from marine Nocardiopsis sp. B4," Desalination. 603 2012;285:198-204. 604 53. Bednarski W, Adamczak M, Tomasik J, Plaszczyk M. Application of oil refinery 605 606 waste in the biosynthesis of glycolipids by yeast. Bioresour Technol. 2004;95:15–18. 607 doi: 10.1016/j.biortech.2004.01.009. 608 609 54. Kumar V, Kumari A, Kumar D, Yadav SK. Biosurfactant stabilized anticancer 610 biomolecule-loaded poly (d, I-lactide) nanoparticles. Colloids Surf B: 611 Biointerf. 2014;117:505-511. doi: 10.1016/j.colsurfb.2014.01.057. 612 613 55. Sarubbo L, Luna G, Campos- Takaki G. Production and stability studies of the 614 bioemulsifier obtained from a new strain of Candida glabrata UCP 1002. Electron j. Biotechn. 2006;9:400-406. 615 616 617 56. Bhardwai G, Cameotra SS, Chopra HK. Biosurfactants from Fungi: A Review J Pet 618 Environ Biotechnol 2013b;4:6. Doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.4172/2157-7463.1000160. 619 620 57. Amaral P, da Silva J, Lehocky M. Production and characterization of a bioemulsifier 621 from Yarrowia lipolytica. Process Biochem. 2006; 41(8):1894 -1898. 622 623 58. Kamalijeet K, Sokhon R. Biosurfactants produced by genetically manipulated 624 microorganisms; challenges and opportunities, In: Biosurfactants: Production and 625 Utilization Processes, Technologies and Economics. Surfactant Science-CRC 626 Press Taylor and Francis group. 2014;159: 276 - 284. 627 628 59. Nitschke M, Ferraz C, Pastore GM. Selection of microorganisms for biosurfactant 629 production using agro-industrial wastes. Braz. J. Microbiol. 2004; 435,:81-85. 630 631 60. Abbasi H, Hamedi MM, Lotfabad TB, Zahiri HS, Sharafi H, Masoomi F, Moosavi-632 Movahedi AA, Ortiz A, Amanlou M, Noghabi KA. Biosurfactant-producing bacterium, Pseudomonas aeruginosa MA01 isolated from spoiled apples: Physicochemical and 633 634 structural characteristics of isolated biosurfactant. J. Biosci. Bioena. 2012;113(2):211-9DOI: 10.1016/j.jbiosc.2011.10.002. 635 636 637 61. Silva SNRL, Farias CBB, Rufino RD, Luna JM, Sarubbo LA .Glycerol as substrate 638 for the production of biosurfactant by Pseudomonas aeruginosa UCP0992. Colloids 639 Surf B Biointerfaces. 2010;79(1):174-83. doi: 10.1016/j.colsurfb.2010.03.050. 640 62. Rufino, RD, Sarubbo LA, Campos-Takaki GM. Enhancement of stability of 641 642 biosurfactant produced by Candida lipolytica using industrial residue as 643 substrate. World J. Microbiol. Biotechnol.2007;23:729-734.