

# Submerged Fermentation of Orange Albedo to Produce Gibberellic Acid Using *Fusarium moniliforme* and *Aspergillus niger*

Patricia F. Omojasola\* and Damola O. Adejoro

Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Life Sciences, University of Ilorin, P.M.B. 1515, Ilorin, Kwara State, Nigeria.

Received October 7, 2017; Revised November 11, 2017; Accepted November 17, 2017

## Abstract

This study investigated the potential of orange albedo, an agro-industrial waste, as a suitable substrate for the production of gibberellic acid (GA) through submerged fermentation using *Fusarium moniliforme* ATCC 10052 and *Aspergillus niger* CBS 513.88 due to the high cost of synthetic and plant-extracted GA. The orange fruits were washed and the albedo removed. The albedo was dried, ground, and its proximate composition was determined. The ground orange albedo was incorporated into a modified CzapekDox medium and was fermented using the test fungi. Carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC) served as control. Fermentation conditions were: pH 5.5; inoculum size, 1 mL ( $5 \times 10^5$  CFU/mL *F. moniliforme*) ( $2 \times 10^6$  CFU/mL *A. niger*); substrate concentration 2 g; temperature  $25 \pm 2$  °C for seven days. Fermentation was optimized by supplementation with copper sulphate and variation of fermentation conditions. Results of proximate analysis were: moisture 7.46%; crude protein 4.69%; lipids 0.62%; ash 2.41%; crude fibre 27.67%; and carbohydrate 57.15%. GA yield by *F. moniliforme* and *A. niger* on the orange albedo substrate was 5.53 g/L and 6.33 g/L respectively. This increased to 9.39 g/L by *F. moniliforme* and 7.42 g/L by *A. niger* after optimization. These results support the suitability of orange albedo as a promising cheap substrate production of GA.

**Keywords:** Orange albedo, gibberellic acid, fermentation, *Aspergillus niger*, *Fusarium moniliforme*, fruit waste

## 1. Introduction

Gibberellins are isoprenoid phytohormones which play important roles in early germination processes of plants by activating enzyme production and mobilizing storage reserves (Rademacher, 2016). Gibberellic acid (GA) is one of the most important members of the gibberellins due to its industrial and agricultural applications (Rodrigues *et al.*, 2009). Over 120 members of this group of phytohormones have been identified and structurally characterized using chemical and spectroscopic methods (Macmillan, 2002). Among the gibberellins, the ones that have been reported as bioactive are GA<sub>1</sub>, GA<sub>3</sub>, GA<sub>4</sub>, and GA<sub>7</sub>. The biologically-inactive gibberellins occur in plants as precursors for the synthesis of the bioactive ones (Yamaguchi, 2008). Gibberellic acid (gibberellin A<sub>3</sub> or GA<sub>3</sub>) is one of the most important members of the bioactive gibberellins due to its industrial and agricultural applications (Ates *et al.*, 2006).

Gibberellic and abscisic acids are endogenous growth-regulating hormones which control the breaking of seed dormancy to germination alongside other factors such as light, temperature, moisture, and nutrients (Gupta and Chakrabarty, 2013). While GA stimulates seed

germination, abscisic acid on the other hand, is concerned with the establishment and maintenance of dormancy. GA has been used extensively for the promotion of crop yields, resistance to pest, alleviation of plant stress, reduction in fruit spoilage and the reduction in flowering times of ornamental plants (Barani *et al.*, 2013; Akter *et al.*, 2014; Alrashdi *et al.*, 2017; Alvarenga *et al.*, 2017). However, its high cost has restricted its application to the growth-promotion of plants with high economic values. While GA can be isolated from some tissues in plants, it is a difficult process often marked by poor yields which may be as low as 38 mg/tonne of plant tissue (Mander, 2003). In a similar manner, the production of gibberellins through chemical synthesis is very complicated and unprofitable for industrial applications (Rademacher, 2016). Research has been geared to finding wider GA applications in agriculture and plant biotechnology (Shukla *et al.*, 2005; Da Silva *et al.*, 2013). Hence, there is a need to utilize cheap substrates for the production of GA.

Oranges (*Citrus sinensis*) are grown in more than 125 countries, and the worldwide production for 2016/17 was estimated at 50.2 million tonnes (USDA, 2017). Apart from fruit-processing industries, oranges are also consumed for their fleshy fruit and juice, after which the peel and albedo are discarded into the environment. Citrus

\* Corresponding author. e-mail: folakejasola@yahoo.co.uk; jasola@unilorin.edu.ng

\*\* Abbreviations: CMC (Carboxymethyl cellulose), GA (Gibberellic acid), OA (Orange albedo).

peel waste comprises about 50% of the fresh weight of the fruit (Rodriguez-Fernandez *et al.*, 2011). The orange -juice processing industries produce significant volumes of wastes made up of soluble and insoluble carbohydrates (Zhou *et al.*, 2011). The disposal of fruit wastes poses considerable environmental and economic problems (Bezalwar *et al.*, 2013). However, the utilization of these wastes for fermentation purposes will not only reduce their potentially deleterious effects on the environment, but will also serve as cheap carbon sources for the industrial production of value-added products (Rivas *et al.*, 2008, Torrado *et al.*, 2011; Omojasola and Benu, 2016).

Industrially, GA is produced largely by a submerged fermentation technique using *Gibberella fujikuroi* (renamed *Fusarium fujikuroi*), the perfect stage of *Fusarium moniliforme* (Bruckner and Blechschmidt, 1991; O'Donnell *et al.*, 1998; Santos *et al.*, 2003). Other methods of GA production, which include the chemical synthesis and extraction from plants, are not economically feasible (Sleem, 2013). While solid-state fermentation has been reported to have a potential for higher yields, lower energy consumption, reduced risk of bacterial contamination, lower catabolic repression, and lesser environmental impacts (Vinięra-Gonzalez *et al.*, 2003; Torrado *et al.*, 2011; Rangaswamy, 2012; Zhang *et al.*, 2015), however, it is difficult to monitor the fermentation parameters such as pH, inoculum concentration, nutrient composition, dissolved oxygen composition and fermentation time, and to optimize them using solid-state fermentation (Kumar *et al.*, 2011). In addition, submerged fermentation allows an easier purification of the product (Subramaniyam and Vimala, 2012). Some other microorganisms that have been found to produce GA include: *Aspergillus niger*, *Azospirillum*, *Azotobacter*, *Bacillus* spp. and *Pseudomonas* spp. (Rademacher, 1994; Cihangir, 2002; Ates *et al.*, 2006; Karacoç and Aksöz, 2006; Ambawade and Pathade, 2015). A variety of agro and fruit wastes have been utilized in the production of organic acids using submerged and solid-state fermentation such as pineapple peel, sugarcane baggasse, banana peel to produce citric acid (Kareem and Rahman, 2013; Omojasola *et al.*, 2014), cashew apple juice and corn cob to produce oxalic acid (Betiku *et al.*, 2016; Mai *et al.*, 2016), *Jatropha* seedcake, sweet potato peel to produce itaconic acid (El Imam *et al.*, 2013; Omojasola and Adeniran, 2014) Shea nut shell, citric pulp, soy bran, soy husk, cassava bagasse and coffee husk to produce GA (Rodrigues *et al.*, 2009; Kobomoje *et al.*, 2013).

To our knowledge, there is a dearth of data on the suitability of orange peel wastes for the production of GA. Hence, the primary aim of the current work was to study the suitability of orange albedo as a substrate for the production of GA by *F. moniliforme* and *A. niger*.

## 2. Materials and Methods

### 2.1. Collection of Samples and Test Organisms

The oranges (*Citrus sinensis*) were procured from the Ipata Market in Ilorin in Kwara State, Nigeria (with coordinates 8.99897 N, 4.561369 E) in November of 2016. The orange fruits were authenticated at the Herbarium Unit of the Department of Plant Biology at the University of

Ilorin, with voucher specimen number UILH/001/996. The microorganisms used for the fermentation were *Fusarium moniliforme* ATCC 10052 and *Aspergillus niger* CBS 513.88 obtained from the Microbial Culture Collection of the Department of Microbiology at the University of Ilorin in Nigeria. They were maintained on PDA slants at 4 °C to be used later.

### 2.2. Substrate Preparation

The orange fruits were washed with clean water to remove dirt; after which they were peeled, taking care while separating the peel from the albedo. The albedo was then air-dried for seven days. It was thereafter ground into fine particles (1 mm particle size) by an electric blender (Binatone BLG 699). Then it was stored in a cool and dry place to avoid moisture uptake (Nandini *et al.*, 2014).

### 2.3. Proximate Analysis

The proximate analysis of the substrate was carried out using standard procedures. The parameters investigated were moisture content (Bradley, 2010), lipid, crude fibre, ash, crude protein and carbohydrate contents (AOAC, 1990, 2002).

### 2.4. Spore Suspension

Fungal spore inoculum was produced by washing spores of a fully-sporulated (7-day old) Potato Dextrose Agar (Difco) slant of each test fungus with 10 mL of sterile distilled water in sterile 250 ml Erlenmeyer flasks. The flasks were then agitated at 150 rpm for thirty minutes for uniform dispersal of spores (Omojasola and Benu, 2016) and adjusted approximately to  $5.0 \times 10^5$  CFU/mL and  $2.0 \times 10^6$  CFU/mL for *F. moniliforme* and *A. niger* respectively. The size of the inoculum was determined by counting using the improved Neubauer haemocytometer.

### 2.5. Fermentation Media

The fermentation medium was a modified CzapekDox broth using the method of Rangaswamy (2012) with replacement of sucrose with orange albedo substrate. The fermentation medium was compounded by adding 2 g of substrate to 100 mL of mineral salts medium. The composition of the mineral salts in 1 litre of water was NaNO<sub>3</sub> (3g), K<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub> (1g), MgSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O (0.5g), KCl (0.5g), and FeSO<sub>4</sub> (0.01g). The fermentation medium was sterilized by autoclaving at 121 °C before use.

### 2.6. Submerged Fermentation

The test organisms were drawn separately from the spore suspension, and each was inoculated into 100 mL of sterile fermenting medium. The fermentation was carried out at 25±2 °C on a rotary shaker (LH Fermentation, Model Mk V orbital shaker) at 150 rpm for seven days. The final pH was adjusted using 2M NaOH or 1M HCl. The GA production was monitored every twenty-four hours.

#### 2.6.1. Optimization of GA Production

The optimization experiments were conducted varying the following parameters: fermentation period (fermentation was allowed to continue till GA yield began to drop); pH (4.5 - 5.5); inoculum size (1.0 - 2.0%); substrate concentration (1.0 - 3.0g).

### 2.6.2. Media Supplementation

The effect of copper sulphate (CuSO<sub>4</sub>) supplementation on GA production was evaluated. Three concentrations of CuSO<sub>4</sub> (0.02% w/v, 0.05% w/v, and 0.08% w/v) were added to different fermentation media (Chinedu *et al.*, 2011), and the fermentation proceeded under the same conditions as the non-supplemented cultures.

### 2.6.3. Assay of GA

This was estimated in the supernatant of fermentation media by spectrophotometrically (Searchtech 752N UV-VIS) using a modified method described by Berrios *et al.* (2004) at 254 nm. The amount of gibberellic acid was calculated from the standard curve obtained by dissolving 0.4 g in absolute alcohol, and diluted to 100 ml in a volumetric flask with absolute alcohol. Each series of data obtained from the spectrophotometric measurement was fitted by linear regression analysis using GraphPad Prism software. The calibration graph obtained was used for the determination of the concentration of gibberellic acid with interpolated values after entering the obtained figures of absorbance.

### 2.6.4. Recovery of GA

GA was recovered from the fermentation media using methods described by Rachev *et al.* (1993), and Ates *et al.* (2006). The fermentation broth was filtered to separate the mycelia from the media. The filtrate was then adjusted to pH 2 - 2.5 with 2 N HCl, and extracted with ethyl acetate (ratio 1:3, filtrate to solvent). The ethyl acetate phase was treated with activated charcoal 1:1.33% (w/v), and re-filtered to remove the activated charcoal. The ethyl acetate phase was extracted with equal volume of saturated NaHCO<sub>3</sub> to separate the GA from other organic impurities. This was further acidified to pH 2.5 with 2 N HCl; re-extracted, dried over anhydrous Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and concentrated to about 2% of its initial volume using a rotary evaporator. The concentrate was kept at 8°C for crystallisation.

### 2.7. Data Analysis

Statistical significance was determined using the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and two-way ANOVA, while multiple comparisons between means were determined by Tukey's or Sidak's multiple comparisons test. Analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism software (GraphPad Software Inc. La Jolla, CA, USA), and SigmaPlot for Windows (version 10.0) (SysStatSoftwares Inc.). All data are expressed as means of triplicates ± SEM or SD, and values of ( $p < 0.05$ ) were considered significant, and 'n' represented independent experiments.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Proximate Analysis

The proximate analysis of the orange albedo substrate showed that it contained 7.46% moisture, 4.69% crude protein, 0.62% lipid, 2.41% ash, 27.67% crude fibre and 57.15% carbohydrate (Table 1).

**Table 1.** Proximate composition of orange albedo.

Moisture Content (%)	Crude Protein (%)	Lipid Content (%)	Ash Content (%)	Crude Fibre (%)	Carbohydrate (%)
7.46±0.02	4.69± 0.18	0.62±0.01	2.41±0.14	27.67±0.45	57.15±0.98

Values represented are means of triplicates ±SEM

### 3.2. Pre-optimization of GA Production

The GA production by *F. moniliforme* peaked at 5.53 ±0.02 g/L on Day 6, while the maximum yield by *A. niger* 6.30 ±0.01 g/L was on day five (Table 2). The CMC control produced significantly lower ( $p < 0.05$ ) yield than the OA substrate. *F. moniliforme* and *A. niger* produced 3.62 ±0.01 g/L and 2.61 ±0.07 g/L of GA respectively when CMC was used as substrate.

**Table 2.** Production of gibberellic acid by submerged fermentation of orange albedo using *Fusarium moniliforme* and *Aspergillus niger*.

Time (Days)	Gibberellic acid (g/L)			
	<i>Fusarium moniliforme</i>		<i>Aspergillus niger</i>	
	Orange albedo	CMC (Control)	Orange albedo	CMC (Control)
1	0.48±0.05 <sup>a</sup>	0.14±0.01 <sup>b</sup>	2.42±0.01 <sup>a</sup>	0.03±0.01 <sup>b</sup>
2	0.90±0.12 <sup>b</sup>	0.91±0.02 <sup>a</sup>	2.80±0.01 <sup>a</sup>	0.15±0.01 <sup>b</sup>
3	2.50±0.61 <sup>a</sup>	1.73±0.01 <sup>a</sup>	4.15±0.02 <sup>a</sup>	0.82±0.02 <sup>b</sup>
4	1.67±0.80 <sup>b</sup>	3.62±0.01 <sup>a</sup>	4.10±0.16 <sup>a</sup>	1.24±0.11 <sup>b</sup>
5	2.22±0.01 <sup>a</sup>	1.88±0.04 <sup>b</sup>	6.30±0.01 <sup>a</sup>	2.61±0.07 <sup>b</sup>
6	5.53±0.02 <sup>a</sup>	1.78±0.02 <sup>b</sup>	3.73±0.01 <sup>a</sup>	2.54±0.01 <sup>b</sup>
7	5.25±0.13 <sup>a</sup>	2.63±0.03 <sup>b</sup>	4.07±0.17 <sup>a</sup>	1.46±0.03 <sup>b</sup>

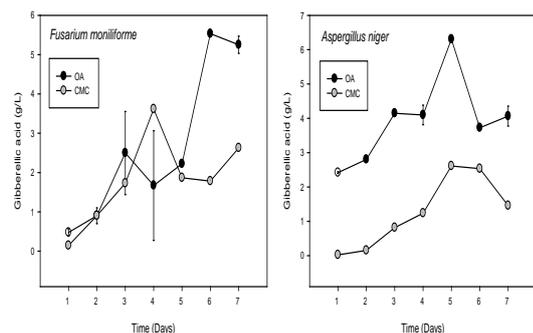
Values represented are means of triplicates ±SEM of amount of gibberellic acid. Means with the same superscript in a column are not statistically different from each other (*F. moniliforme* and *A. niger* were compared separately)

### 3.3. Optimization of GA Production

To optimize the GA yield, fermentation parameters such as time, pH, inoculum size and substrate concentration were varied.

#### 3.3.1. Effect of Varying Fermentation Time

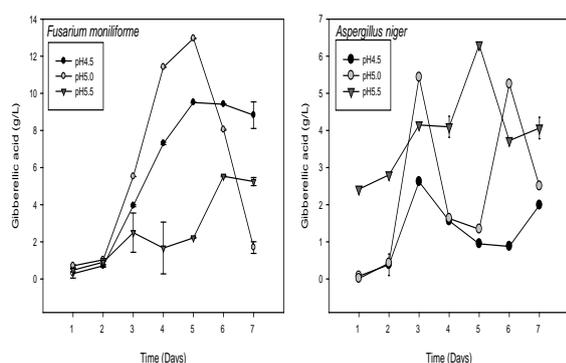
The GA yield by *F. moniliforme* peaked on the day six of fermentation (5.5 ±0.03 g/L); however, there was no significant difference ( $p < 0.05$ ) in the yields on day six and seven. The highest GA yield of 6.3 ±0.09 g/L by *A. niger* was recorded on day five (Figure 1). Generally, the yields from the OA substrate were higher than the CMC control.



**Figure 1.** Effect of varying fermentation time on gibberellic acid production by *F. moniliforme* and *A. niger* using orange albedo.

### 3.3.2. Effect of Varying pH

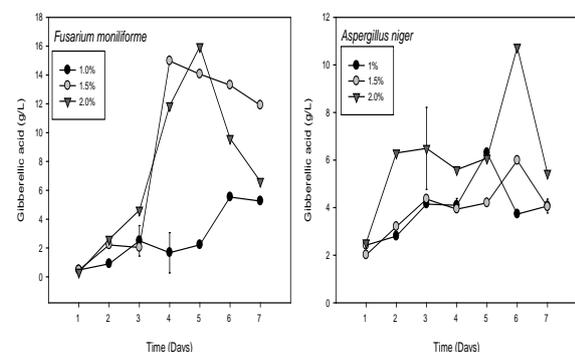
*F. moniliforme* produced the highest GA yields at pH 5.0 ( $12.96 \pm 0.03$  g/L) significantly higher than pre-optimized yields (Figure 1). The lowest peak yield of  $5.53 \pm 0.03$  g/L was at pH 5.5. For *A. niger*, pH 5.5 recorded the highest yield of  $6.30 \pm 0.98$ g/L, while the lowest peak yield of  $2.62 \pm 0.02$  g/L was recorded at pH 4.5 (Figure 2).



**Figure 2.** Effect of varying pH on gibberellic acid yield using *F. moniliforme* and *A. niger* grown on orange albedo

### 3.3.3. Effect of Varying Inoculum Size

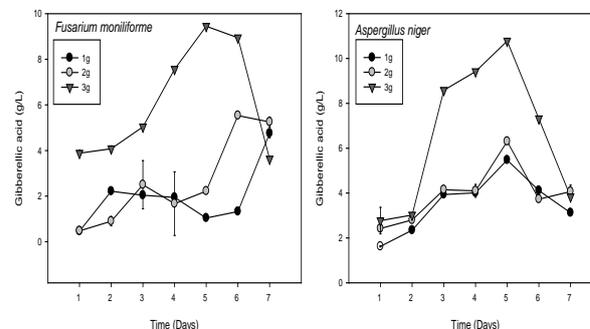
The highest GA yield was recorded using 2% inoculum for both fermenting organisms. The yield of *F. moniliforme* was  $15.96 \pm 0.04$  g/L and *A. niger*  $10.74 \pm 0.04$  g/L (Figure 3). The yield by *F. moniliforme* was the highest yield in this study and was significantly higher ( $p < 0.05$ ) than pre-optimized yields.



**Figure 3.** Effect of varying inoculum size on gibberellic acid yield using *F. moniliforme* and *A. niger* grown on orange albedo.

### 3.3.4. Effect of Varying Substrate Concentration

Peak yields of GA were obtained at substrate concentration of 3 g for both *F. moniliforme* and *A. niger*. *F. moniliforme* yielded  $9.47 \pm 0.09$ g/L, while *A. niger* yielded  $10.78 \pm 0.08$  g/L (Figure 4). These yields were also significantly higher than pre-optimized yields.



**Figure 4.** Effect of varying substrate concentration on gibberellic acid yield using *F. moniliforme* and *A. niger* grown on orange albedo.

### 3.3.5. Effect of Medium Supplementation

The yields of gibberellic acid obtained after supplementation with different concentrations of  $\text{CuSO}_4$  recorded highest GA yields of 5.86 g/L on day seven by *F. moniliforme* using 0.08%  $\text{CuSO}_4$  and 6.33 g/L on day five by *A. niger* also with 0.08%  $\text{CuSO}_4$  supplementation (Table 3). It was also observed that there were no significant differences in the yields obtained at 0.02% and 0.08% on day seven for *F. moniliforme* and all the concentrations used on day five for *A. niger* (Table 3).

**Table 3.** Gibberellic acid production by *F. moniliforme* and *A. niger* grown on orange albedo supplemented with different concentrations of copper sulphate.

Time (Days)	<i>Fusarium moniliforme</i>				<i>Aspergillus niger</i>			
	0.02% $\text{CuSO}_4$	0.05% $\text{CuSO}_4$	0.08% $\text{CuSO}_4$	Control	0.02% $\text{CuSO}_4$	0.05% $\text{CuSO}_4$	0.08% $\text{CuSO}_4$	Control
1	0.74±0.11 <sup>a</sup>	0.70±0.03 <sup>a</sup>	0.70±0.05 <sup>a</sup>	0.48±0.05 <sup>a</sup>	1.75±0.23 <sup>b</sup>	1.42±0.09 <sup>c</sup>	2.29±0.08 <sup>a</sup>	2.42±0.01 <sup>a</sup>
2	1.34±0.05 <sup>a</sup>	1.44±0.06 <sup>a</sup>	1.48±0.04 <sup>a</sup>	0.90±0.12 <sup>a</sup>	3.20±0.10 <sup>a</sup>	3.28±0.18 <sup>a</sup>	2.80±0.09 <sup>b</sup>	2.80±0.01 <sup>b</sup>
3	1.52±0.07 <sup>b</sup>	1.53±0.08 <sup>b</sup>	1.45±0.04 <sup>b</sup>	2.50±0.61 <sup>a</sup>	4.06±0.09 <sup>a</sup>	2.83±0.07 <sup>b</sup>	4.15±0.21 <sup>a</sup>	4.15±0.02 <sup>a</sup>
4	1.99±0.10 <sup>a</sup>	1.68±0.09 <sup>a</sup>	1.74±0.11 <sup>a</sup>	1.67±0.80 <sup>a</sup>	4.33±0.25 <sup>b</sup>	3.65±0.05 <sup>c</sup>	5.29±0.05 <sup>a</sup>	4.10±0.16 <sup>b</sup>
5	3.21±0.06 <sup>a</sup>	3.37±0.06 <sup>a</sup>	3.79±0.04 <sup>a</sup>	2.22±0.01 <sup>b</sup>	6.29±0.12 <sup>a</sup>	5.99±0.20 <sup>a</sup>	6.33±0.10 <sup>a</sup>	6.30±0.01 <sup>a</sup>
6	5.53±0.05 <sup>a</sup>	4.35±0.16 <sup>b</sup>	4.04±0.10 <sup>b</sup>	5.53±0.02 <sup>a</sup>	5.39±0.09 <sup>a</sup>	5.56±0.17 <sup>a</sup>	3.70±0.12 <sup>b</sup>	3.73±0.01 <sup>b</sup>
7	5.55±0.07 <sup>a</sup>	4.25±0.12 <sup>b</sup>	5.86±0.05 <sup>a</sup>	5.25±0.13 <sup>a</sup>	3.56±0.08 <sup>b</sup>	4.22±0.23 <sup>a</sup>	3.47±0.20 <sup>b</sup>	4.07±0.17 <sup>b</sup>

Values represented are means  $\pm$ SD of amount of Gibberellic acid. Means with the same superscript across a column are not statistically different from each other (*F. moniliforme* and *A. niger* were compared separately)

### 3.3.6. Optimized Production of GA

The GA yield under optimized conditions recorded  $9.39 \pm 0.16$  g/L by *F. moniliforme* and  $7.42 \pm 0.02$  g/L by *A. niger* both on day six of fermentation (Table 4). These were significantly higher ( $p < 0.05$ ) than the peak yields obtained from the CMC control under the same optimized conditions. These yields were higher than those from the pre-optimized fermentations which were  $5.53 \pm 0.02$  g/L and  $6.30 \pm 0.01$  g/L by *F. moniliforme* and *A. niger* respectively (Table 2). In addition, *F. moniliforme* produced higher amounts of GA, although not significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) than *A. niger* under optimized conditions.

**Table 4.** Production of gibberellic acid by submerged fermentation of orange albedo using *Fusarium moniliforme* and *Aspergillus niger* under optimized conditions.

Time (Days)	Gibberellic acid (g/L)			
	<i>Fusarium moniliforme</i>		<i>Aspergillus niger</i>	
	Orange albedo	CMC (Control)	Orange albedo	CMC (Control)
1	$1.55 \pm 0.03^a$	$0.91 \pm 0.03^b$	$1.72 \pm 0.02^a$	$1.31 \pm 0.03^b$
2	$4.19 \pm 0.02^a$	$2.75 \pm 0.03^b$	$3.81 \pm 0.01^a$	$1.81 \pm 0.03^b$
3	$5.26 \pm 0.03^a$	$5.25 \pm 0.02^a$	$4.35 \pm 0.06^a$	$2.21 \pm 0.03^b$
4	$5.64 \pm 0.03^a$	$5.56 \pm 0.06^a$	$3.84 \pm 0.03^a$	$2.39 \pm 0.03^b$
5	$5.48 \pm 0.01^b$	$6.84 \pm 0.06^a$	$5.60 \pm 0.02^a$	$3.45 \pm 0.04^b$
6	$9.39 \pm 0.16^a$	$7.03 \pm 0.04^b$	$7.42 \pm 0.02^a$	$4.28 \pm 0.04^b$
7	$8.95 \pm 0.05^a$	$3.80 \pm 0.09^b$	$3.80 \pm 0.01^a$	$1.85 \pm 0.03^b$

Values represented are means  $\pm$ SEM of gibberellic acid produced. Means with the same superscript in a row are not statistically different from each other (*F. moniliforme* and *A. niger* were compared separately)

## 4. Discussion

Fruit wastes constitute part of the most abundant and locally-available agricultural wastes containing high carbohydrate content, which serve as fermentable substrate for microorganisms (Bezalwar *et al.*, 2013). The proximate analysis of the OA substrate showed that it contained 57.15% carbohydrate, 27.67% crude fibre, 4.69% crude protein, 0.62% lipids, 7.46% moisture and 2.41% ash (Table 1). This is within the range reported by other workers which have shown OA to contain between 40–64% carbohydrate, 2–9% protein, 17–35% crude fibre and 0.85 – 13.4% ash (Oikeh *et al.*, 2013; M'Hiri *et al.*, 2015; Taha *et al.*, 2015; Hassan *et al.*, 2016; Romelle *et al.*, 2016). The high carbohydrate content constituted a good carbon source for the growth of the fermenting organisms. In addition, the amount of carbohydrate relative to protein gave a high C/N ratio which is recommended for a good GA production (Kumar and Lonsane, 1989). The production of gibberellins starts during fermentation when nitrogen is depleted in the medium, and continues when enough carbon is available in the substrate (Escamilla *et al.*, 2000). Nitrogen repression is a well-known regulatory principle for secondary metabolite formation (Munoz and Agosin, 1993). A good substrate should provide sufficient nutrients for the initial mycelial growth of the fermenting fungi in a nitrogen-limited but balanced medium (Rodrigues *et al.*, 2009). This substrate with 57.15% carbohydrate and 4.69% protein fits this criterion. The

presence of lipids in the OA is beneficial. Kawanabe *et al.* (1983) and Tudzynski (1999) reported that the biosynthesis of GA is based on acetate and follows the isoprenoid pathway. Therefore, plant oils are inert for catabolite repression. They also provide a pool of acetyl CoA, and may yield precursors for GA biosynthesis.

The highest GA yield by *F. moniliforme* and *A. niger* on OA before optimization was 5.53 g/L and 6.30 g/L respectively with *A. niger* showing higher productivity (Table 2). These differences in yields were statistically significant ( $p < 0.05$ ). This yield was higher than 680 mg/L reported by Muddapur *et al.* (2015) using *Fusarium* sp.; 2.86 g/L by *G. fujikuroi* (Escamilla *et al.*, 2000); 0.7 g/L by *G. fujikuroi* (Lale *et al.*, 2006); 1.82 g/L by *F. moniliforme* (Kobomoje *et al.*, 2013); 2.8g/L by *F. moniliforme* (Pastrana *et al.*, 1993); and 460.06 mg/L by *G. fujikuroi* reported by Cuali-Alvarez *et al.* (2011). However they were lower than 11.3 g/L by *F. moniliforme* (Bilkay *et al.*, 2010) and 15 g/L and 32.8 g/L reported by Rangaswamy (2012) and Omojasola and Benu (2016) on *Jatropha* seedcake using *F. moniliforme* and *A. terreus* respectively. The various differences in the GA yields may be attributed to the differences in the conditions of fermentation, substrates and fermenting organisms. *F. moniliforme* and *A. niger* that were used for fermentation in this study are highly cellulolytic (Dashtban *et al.*, 2009) and efficient in the utilization of the cellulosic substrate. Physiological factors often determine the outcome of the fermentation process, and may influence the yield of GA (Kahlon and Malhotra, 1986; Karakoc and Aksoz, 2006).

In studying the effect of time on the GA yield, it was observed that GA production commenced on day one of fermentation (Figure 1). This correlates with the observation of Ates *et al.* (2006) and Lale and Gadre (2010) who also recorded GA yields within the first twenty-four hours of fermentation. However, it is contrary to some findings that GA was recorded about forty-six hours after the commencement of fermentation following nitrogen depletion in the medium (Escamilla *et al.*, 2000; Rodrigues *et al.*, 2009; Rios-Iribe *et al.*, 2011). The early onset of GA production may be attributed to the small amounts of protein in the OA substrate leading to its speedy exhaustion (Shukla *et al.*, 2005; Sleem, 2013). GA production peaked on day six for *F. moniliforme* and day five for *A. niger* (Figure 1). Peak GA yields have reported between days 4–8 for *F. moniliforme* (Kumar and Lonsane, 1990; Meleigy and Khalaf, 2009; Rangaswamy, 2012; Omojasola and Benu, 2016) and days 6–12 for *A. niger* (Bilkay *et al.*, 2010).

It was observed that the GA yield was highest at pH 5.0 and 5.5 for *F. moniliforme* and *A. niger* respectively (Figure 2). This agrees with the works of other researchers who also observed peaks in GA yields at similar pH ranges (Qian *et al.*, 1994; Shukla *et al.*, 2005; Bilkay *et al.*, 2010; Kobomoje *et al.*, 2013). Borrow *et al.* (1964) observed that GA production decreased when pH was outside the range of 3.0–5.5 in a stirred culture. The pH is considered one of the most important factors on biomass and yield because of its great influence on the physiological activities of the fermenting organisms (Sleem, 2013).

Maximum GA yields were observed when 2% inoculum of both *F. moniliforme* and *A. niger* were used for the fermentations (Figure 3). However, statistical

comparisons of means showed no significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ ) between the peak yields obtained when 1.5% and 2% inoculum of *F. moniliforme*; and 1% and 1.5% inoculum of *A. niger* were used. The use of sufficient inoculum for fermentation purposes is important as inadequate inoculum may lead to reduction in biomass and GA production, while excessive inoculum can also lead to low yields resulting from overpopulation and subsequent competition for available nutrients by the fungi (Omojasola and Benu, 2016).

The highest GA yields were recorded at 3 g substrate concentration for both fungi (Figure 4). A balanced amount of substrate is necessary for a good GA production. GA is a secondary metabolite produced in the log/stationary phase of growth. Low glucose concentration ( $< 4\%$ ) is required for GA production and maintenance of biomass in the production phase (Kumar and Lonsane, 1989), meanwhile GA biosynthesis is suppressed by high amounts ( $> 20\%$ ) of glucose (Bruckner, 1992).

Supplementation of the fermentation media with different concentrations of copper sulphate appeared to show negligible and no significant difference ( $p < 0.05$ ) in GA yield (Table 3). This observation differs from the report of Arakaki *et al.* (2011), who found improved biomass production in yeasts grown under submerged fermentation when  $\text{CuSO}_4$  was incorporated. The inability of the supplement to increase GA production may be because it is not essential in the normal physiological activities of both *F. moniliforme* and *A. niger*, especially with respect to the production of GA.

After the optimization experiment, the peak production of GA by *F. moniliforme* and *A. niger*, was observed on day six of the fermentation (Table 4). This is in tandem with Meleigy and Khalaf (2009) and Omojasola and Benu (2016) who reported GA production by *F. moniliforme* and *A. niger* respectively to be optimum on day six of the fermentation. In contrast to the pre-optimized fermentations, *F. moniliforme* showed higher productivity. Generally, the optimization of fermentation conditions provided significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) higher yields compared to pre-optimization. The optimized yields obtained on OA by *F. moniliforme* and *A. niger* were 9.39 g/L and 7.42 g/L respectively; corresponding to a 69.8% and 17.78% increase respectively. These results are consistent favorably with those of Ates *et al.* (2006) who reported GA yields 13.0 mg/100 mL and 16.0 mg/100 mL by *G. fujikuroi* and *A. niger* respectively, which increased to 17.5 mg/100 mL and 20.5 mg/100 mL respectively after the optimization using silicone oil. The % GA recovery from the fermentation medium was 5.6% equaling 56.0 mg of GA per g of OA substrate fermented.

## 5. Conclusion

The production of GA through submerged fermentation of OA by *Fusarium moniliforme* ATCC 10052 and *Aspergillus niger* CBS 513.88 is described in this study. The results indicate that orange albedo (OA) is a cheap and readily available substrate for the production of GA. Yields of GA produced by *F. moniliforme* and *A. niger* were 9.39 g/L and 7.42 g/L respectively. However, in the optimization experiments, yields of 15.97 g/L and 10.74 g/L were produced by *F. moniliforme* and *A. niger*

respectively, which are among the highest reported in literature demonstrating that the OA substrate can be used for the efficient production of GA. This indicates that high yields are dependent on the use of appropriate physical and nutritional conditions during fermentation. It can be concluded that *Fusarium moniliforme* ATCC 10052 and *Aspergillus niger* CBS 513.88 can be employed on a large scale in the production of this valuable acid using the agro-waste of OA, which will also help reduce the environmental pollution.

## References

- Akter N, Islam MR, AbdulKarim M and Hossain T. 2014. Alleviation of drought stress in maize by exogenous application of gibberellic acid and cytokinin. *J Crop Sci Biotechnol*, **17**(1): 41 – 48.
- Alrashdi AMA, Al-Qurashi AD, Awad MA, Mohamed SA and Al-rashdi AA. 2017. Quality, antioxidant compounds, antioxidant capacity and enzymes activity of 'El-Bayadi' table grapes at harvest as affected by preharvest salicylic acid and gibberellic acid spray. *Sci Hort* **220**: 243 – 249.
- Alvarenga R, Moraes JC, Auad AM, Coelho M and Nascimento AM. 2017. Induction of resistance of corn plants to *Spodoptera frugiperda* (J. E. Smith, 1797) (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) by application of silicon and gibberellic acid. *Bull Entomol Res*, **107**(4):1-7.
- Ambawade MS and Pathade GR. 2015. Production of gibberellic acid by *Bacillus siamensis* BE 76 isolated from banana plant (*Musa* spp). *Int J Sci Res*, **4**(7): 394 – 398.
- AOAC. 1990. Official Methods of Analysis of the Association of Official Analytical Chemists (15<sup>th</sup>ed.). Arlington, Virginia.
- AOAC. 2002. Official Methods of Analysis of the Association of Official Analytical Chemists (17<sup>th</sup>ed.) Volume I and II. Maryland.
- Arakaki AH, Vandenberghe LP, Soccol VT, Masaki R, Filho EF, Gregório A and Soccol CR. 2011. Optimization of biomass production with copper bioaccumulation by yeasts in submerged fermentation. *Braz Arch Biol Technol*, **54**(5): 1027-1034.
- Ates S, Ozenir S and Gökdere M. 2006. Effect of silicone oil on gibberellic acid production by *Gibberella fujikuroi* and *Aspergillus niger*. *Appl Biochem Microbiol*, **42**(5): 500–501.
- Barani M, Akbari N and Ahmadi H. 2013. The effect of gibberellic acid ( $\text{GA}_3$ ) on seed size and sprouting of potato tubers (*Solanum tuberosum* L.). *Afr J Agric Res*, **8**(29): 3898-3903.
- Berrios J, Illanes A and Aroca G. 2004. Spectrophotometric method for determining gibberellic acid in fermentation broths. *Biotechnol Lett*, **26**(1): 67 – 70.
- Betiku E, Emeko HA and Solomon BO. 2016. Fermentation parameter optimization of microbial oxalic acid production from cashew apple juice. *Heliyon*, **2**(2):e00082.
- Bezalwar P, Ashok VG, Harshal MS and Pranita AG. 2013. Production and optimization of citric acid by *Aspergillus niger* using fruit pulp waste. *Int J Curr Microbiol Appl Sci*, **2**(10): 347-352.
- Bilkay IS, Karakoc S, Aksoz N. 2010. Indole-3-acetic acid and gibberellic acid production in *Aspergillus niger*. *Turk J Biol*, **34**: 313-318.
- Borrow A, Brown S, Jefferys EG, Kessell RHJ, Lloyd EC, Lloyd PB, Rothwell A, Rothwell B and Swait JC. 1964. The effect of varied temperature on the kinetics of metabolism of *Gibberella fujikuroi* in stirred culture. *Can J Microbiol*, **10**: 445 – 466.

- Bradley RL. 2010. Moisture and total solids analysis. In: **Food Analysis**. Springer, US, pp 85 – 104.
- Bruckner B. 1992. Regulation of gibberellins formation by the fungus *Gibberella fujikuroi*. *Ciba Foundation Symposium* **171**: 129-137.
- Bruckner B and Blechschmidt D. 1991. The gibberellin fermentation. *Crit Rev Biotechnol*, **11(2)**: 163-192.
- Chinedu SN, Eni AO, Adeniyi AI and Ayangbemi JA. 2010. Assessment of growth and cellulase production of wild-type microfungi isolated from Ota, Nigeria. *Asian J Plant Sci*, **9(3)**:118-125.
- Cihangir N. 2002. Stimulation of the gibberellic acid synthesis by *Aspergillus niger* in submerged culture using a precursor. *World J Microbiol Biotechnol*, **18**: 727-729.
- Cuali-Alvarez I, Pavon-Romero SH and Colin-Cruz A. 2011. Production of gibberellic acid from *Gibberella fujikuroi* using municipal sewage sludge as a substrate. *Univ Sci*, **16(1)**: 51-62.
- Dashtban M, Schraft H and Qin W. 2009. Fungal bioconversion of lignocellulosic residues: opportunities and perspectives. *Int J Biol Sci*, **5**: 578-595.
- Da Silva AL, Rodrigues C, Costa JD, Machado MP, Penha RD, Biasi LA, Vandenberghe LP and Soccol CR. 2013. Gibberellic acid fermented extract obtained by solid-state-fermentation using citrus pulp by *Fusarium moniliforme*: Influence on *Lavandula angustifolia* Mill., cultivated *in vitro*. *Pak J Bot*, **45(6)**: 2057-2064.
- Escamilla EM, Dendooven L, Magana IP, Parra R and De La Torre M. 2000. Optimization of gibberellic acid production by immobilized *Gibberella fujikuroi* mycelium in fluidized bioreactors. *J Biotechnol*, **76**: 147 – 155.
- Gupta R and Chakrabarty SK. 2013. Gibberellic acid in plant: Still a mystery unresolved. *Plant Signal Behav*, **8(9)**: e25504.
- Hassan AA, El- Gharabli MM, El-Desouky AI, Eltanahy HH and Abdelslam AM. 2016. Technological feasibility of preparing spaghetti enriched with some by-products of food industry in Egypt. *Ann Agric Sci*, **54(4)**: 853-864.
- Kahlon SS and Mahlotra S. 1986. Production of gibberellic acid by fungal mycelium immobilized in sodium alginate *Enzyme Microb Technol*, **8**:613-616
- Karacoç S and Aksöz N. 2006. Some optimal cultural parameters for gibberellic acid biosynthesis by *Pseudomonas* sp. *Turk J Biol*, **30**: 81 – 85.
- Kareem SO and Rahman RA. 2013. Utilization of banana peels for citric acid production by *Aspergillus niger*. *ABJNA*, **4(4)**: 384-387.
- Kawanabe Y, Yamane H, Murayama T, Takahashi N and Nakamura T. 1983. Identification of gibberellins A<sub>3</sub> in mycelia of *Neurospora crassa*. *Agric Biol Chem*, **47**: 1693-1694.
- Kobomoje OS, Mohammed AO and Omojasola PF. 2013. The production of gibberellic acid from shea nut shell (*Vitellaria paradoxa*) using *Fusarium moniliforme*. *Asian J Plant Sci Res*, **3(2)**: 23-26.
- Kumar S, Venkata DV and Pakshirajan K. 2011. Purification and characterization of glutaminase-free L-Asparaginase from *Pectobacterium carotovorum* MTCC 1428. *Bioresourc Technol*, **102(2)**: 2077-2082.
- Kumar PKR and Lonsane BK. 1989. Microbial production of gibberellins: state of the art. *Adv Appl Microbiol*, **34**: 29-139.
- Kumar PKR and Lonsane BK. 1990. Solid state fermentation: physical and nutritional factors influencing gibberellic acid production. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol*, **34**: 145-148.
- Lale G, Jogdand VV and Gadre RV. 2006. Morphological mutants of *Gibberella fujikuroi* for enhanced production of gibberellic acid. *J Appl Microbiol*, **100**: 65-72.
- Lale G and Gadre R. 2010. Enhanced production of gibberellin A<sub>4</sub> (GA<sub>4</sub>) by a mutant of *Gibberella fujikuroi* in wheat gluten medium. *J Ind Microbiol Biotechnol*, **37**: 297-306.
- Macmillan J. 2002. Occurrence of gibberellins in vascular plants, fungi, and bacteria. *J Plant Growth Regul*, **20**: 387-442.
- Mai HTN, Lee KM and Choi SS. 2016. Enhanced oxalic acid production from corn cob by a methanol-resistant strain of *Aspergillus niger* using semi solid-state fermentation. *Proc Biochem*, **51**:9-15.
- Mander LN. 2003. Twenty years of gibberellin research. *Nat Prod Rep*, **20(1)**: 49-69.
- Meleigy SA and Khalaf MA. 2009. Biosynthesis of gibberellic acid from milk permeate in repeated batch operation by a mutant *Fusarium moniliforme* cells immobilized on loofa sponge. *Bioresourc Technol*, **100**: 374-379.
- M'Hiri N, Ioannru I, Ghoul M, Doudhrioua MN. 2015. Proximate chemical composition of orange peel and variation of phenols and antioxidant activity during convective air drying. *Agri & Bio Tech*, **(9)**: 881-890.
- Muddapur UM, Gadhari MV, Kulkarni SM, Sabannavar PG, Niyonzima FN and More SS. 2015. Isolation and characterization of gibberellic acid 3 producing *Fusarium* sp. from Belgaum agriculture land and its impact on green pea and rice growth promotion. *AJAPB*, **1(2)**: 1-9.
- Munoz GA and Agosin E. 1993. Glutamine involvement in nitrogen control of gibberellic acid production in *Gibberella fujikuroi*. *Appl Environ Microbiol*, **5(2)**: 298-310.
- Nandini S, Nandini KE and Krishna SS. 2014. Food and Agriculture Residue (FAR): A potential substrate for tannase and gallic acid production using competent microbes. *J Bioprocess Biotech*, **5**: 193.
- O'Donnell K, Cigelnik E and Nirenberg HI. 1998. Molecular systematics and phylogeography of the *Gibberella fujikuroi* species complex. *Mycologia*, **90**: 465-93.
- Oikeh EI, Oriakhi K and Omoregie ES. 2013. Proximate analysis and phytochemical screening of *Citrus sinensis* fruit wastes. *The Bioscientist*, **1(2)**: 164 – 170.
- Omojasola PF, Okun HA, Oladoye CO, Kayode RMO and Ahmed El-Imam A. 2014. Citric acid production by *Aspergillus niger* and *Trichoderma longibrachiatum* using *Ananas cosmosus* waste and *Saccharum officinarum* baggasse. *Nig J Biochem Mol Biol*, **29(2)**: 117-127.
- Omojasola PF and Adeniran EA. 2014. The production of itaconic acid from sweet potato peel using *Aspergillus niger* and *Aspergillus terreus*. *Albanian J Agric Sci*, **13(4)**: 1-5.
- Omojasola PF and Benu OE. 2016. Fermentative production of gibberellic acid from *Jatropha curcas* seed cake using *Aspergillus niger* and *Aspergillus terreus*. *FUTA Journal of Research in Sciences*, **12(2)**: 242 – 251.
- Pastrana LM, Gonzalez MP and Murado MA. 1993. Production of gibberellic acid from mussel processing wastes in submerged batch culture. *Bioresourc Technol*, **4(5)**: 213 – 221.
- Qian X-M, du Preez JC and Kilian SG. 1994. Factors affecting gibberellic acid production by *Fusarium moniliforme* in solid-state cultivation on starch. *World J Microbiol Biotechnol*, **10**: 93-99.
- Rachev RC, Pavlova-Rouseva R, Bojkova SV and Gancheva VK. 1993. Isolation of gibberellic acid produced by *Fusarium moniliforme*. *J Nat Prod*, **56(7)**: 1168-1170.

- Rademacher W. 1994. Gibberellic formation in microorganisms. *Plant Growth Regulation*, **15**: 303-314.
- Rademacher W 2016. Chemical regulators of gibberellin status and their application in plant production. In: **Annual Plant Reviews: The Gibberellins (Vol 49)**, Hedden P and Thomas SG (Eds.), Wiley-Blackwell, UK, pp 359–404.
- Rangaswamy V. 2012. Improved production of gibberellic acid by *Fusarium moniliforme*. *J Microbiol Res*, **2(3)**: 51-55.
- Rios-Iribe EY, Flores-Cotera LB, Gonzalez-Chavira MM, Gonzalez-Alatorre G, Escamilla-Silva EM. 2011. Inductive effect produced by a mixture of carbon source in the production of gibberellic acid by *Gibberella fujikuroi*. *World J Microbiol Biotechnol*, **27**: 1499–1505.
- Rivas B, Torrado A, Torre P, Converti A and Dominguez JM. 2008. Submerged citric acid fermentation on orange peel autohydrolysate. *J Agric Food Chem*, **56**: 2380-2387.
- Rodrigues C, Vandenbergh LP, Teodoro J, Oss JF, Pandey A and Soccol CR. 2009. A new alternative to produce gibberellic acid by solid state fermentation. *Braz Arch Biol Technol*, **52(special)**:181-188.
- Rodriguez-Fernandez DE, Rodriguez-Leon JA, de Carvalho JC, Sturm W, Soccol CR. 2011. The behaviour of kinetic parameters in production of pectinases and xylanase by solid state fermentation. *Bioresour Technol*, **102**: 10657-10662.
- Romelle FD, Ashwini RP, Ragu SM. 2016. Chemical composition of some selected fruit peels. *Eur J Food Sci Technol*, **4(4)** 12-21.
- Santos EMG, Couto CMC, Montenegro MCBSM, Neves MGPMS, Rebelo SLH, Cavaleiro JAS and Reis, BF. 2003. Ion-selective electrodes based on metallo-porphyrins for gibberellic acid determination in agricultural products. *Anal Bioanal Chem*, **375**: 511 – 516.
- Shukla R, Chand S and Srivastava AK. 2005. Improvement of gibberellic acid production using a model based fed-batch cultivation of *Gibberella fujikuroi*. *Process Biochem*, **40**: 2045 – 2050.
- Sleem DAE. 2013. Studies on the bioproduction of gibberellic acid from fungi. PhD Thesis, Benha Univ, Egypt.
- Subramaniam R and Vimala R. 2012. Solid state and submerged fermentation for the production of bioactive substances: A comparative study. *Int J Sci Nat*, **3(3)**: 480-486.
- Taha FT, Elsaadany SS, Abo-Eyta AM and Wahden KM. 2015. Proximate compositions, phytochemical constituents and antimicrobial activities of peels extracts of bitter orange and banana. *Zagazig J Agri Res.*, **42(6)**:
- Torrado AM, Cortes S, Salgado JM, Max B, Rodriguez N, Bibbins B, Converti A and Dominguez JM. 2011. Citric acid production from orange peel wastes by solid state fermentation. *Braz J Microbiol*, **42(1)**: 394-409.
- Tudzynski B. 1999. Biosynthesis of gibberellins in *G. fujikuroi* biomolecular aspects. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol*, **52**: 298-310.
- United States Department of Agriculture USDA. 2017. Citrus: World Markets and Trade. *Foreign Agricultural Service. July 2017*: 1-9. (Sept. 27, 2017).
- Viniegra-Gonzalez G, Favela-Torres E, Aguilar CN, Romero-Gomez SJ, Diaz-Godinez G and Augur C. 2003. Advantages of fungal enzyme production in solid state over liquid fermentation systems. *Biochem Eng J*, **13**: 157-167.
- Yamaguchi C. 2008. Gibberellin metabolism and its regulation. *Annu Rev Plant Biol*, **59**: 225-251.
- Zhang B, Lu L and Xu G. 2015. Why solid-state fermentation is more advantageous over submerged fermentation in converting high concentration of glycerol into Monacolin K by *Monascus purpureus* 9901: A mechanistic study. *J Biotechnol*, **206**: 60-65.
- Zhou IM, Ge XY and Zhang WG. 2011. Improvement of polygalacturonase production at high temperature by mixed culture of *Aspergillus niger* and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Bioresour Technol*, **102**:10085-10088.