



Title Engineering filamentous fungi for

conversion of d-Galacturonic acid to L-

Galactonic acid

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Abstract

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D-galacturonic acid, the main monomer of pectin, is an attractive substrate for bioconversions, since pectin rich biomass is abundantly available and pectin is easily hydrolysed. L-Galactonic acid is an intermediate in the eukaryotic pathway for D-galacturonic acid catabolism, but extracellular accumulation of L-galactonic acid has not been reported. By deleting the gene encoding L-galactonic acid dehydratase (lgd1 or gaaB) in two filamentous fungi, strains were obtained that converted D-galacturonic acid to L-galactonic acid. Both *Trichoderma reesei Δlgd1* and Aspergillus niger $\Delta gaaB$ produced L-galactonate at yields of 0.6 to 0.9 g per g substrate consumed. While T. reesei $\Delta lgd1$ could produce L-galactonate at pH 5.5, lower pH was necessary for A. niger $\Delta gaaB$. Provision of a co-substrate improved the production rate and titre in both strains. Intracellular accumulation of L-galactonate (40 to 70 mg [g biomass]⁻¹) suggested that export may be limiting. Deletion of the L-galactonate dehydratase from A. niger was found to delay induction of D-galacturonate reductase and overexpression of the reductase improved initial production rates. Deletion of the L-galactonate dehydratase from A. niger also delayed or prevented induction of the putative D-galacturonate transporter An14g04280. In addition, A. *niger* $\Delta gaaB$ produced L-galactonate from polygalacturonate as efficiently as from the monomer.

Introduction

D-galacturonic acid is the principal component of pectin, a major constituent of sugar beet pulp and citrus peel which are abundant and inexpensive raw materials. The annual worldwide production of sugar beet and citrus fruit is about 250 x 10⁶ and 115 x 10⁶ metric tons respectively. After beet processing, 5-10% of the sugar beet remains as dried sugar beet pulp. This pulp contains about 25% pectin (5). Citrus peel contains about 20% pectin on a dry mass basis. Sugar beet pulp and citrus peel are mainly used as cattle feed or they are dumped. The use

as cattle feed requires that pulp and peel are dried since otherwise they rot rapidly. Disposal of the material is problematic because of the bad odour generated at the dumping sites. In the case of sugar beet pulp the energy consumption for drying and pelleting are 30% to 40% of the total energy used for beet processing (5). This process is only economical when done in large scale and when energy costs are low. Other products, such as pectin and limonene, may be extracted from citrus peel. Pectin is used as a gelling agent in the food industry; limonene as a flavour compound. These are limited markets and with increasing energy costs and alternative animal feed sources reducing the revenues from pectin-rich biomass for cattle feed sales, it is desirable to find new ways to convert this biomass to other useful products. This may be accomplished by microbial fermentation (16). Genetically modified bacteria have been used to produce ethanol from pectin rich biomass (6, 7). Using genetically modified fungi, D-galacturonic acid has been converted to galactaric acid (14) or to 2-keto-3-deoxy-L-galactonic acid (20).

Using fungi to valorise D-galacturonic acid is attractive since many species can use D-galacturonic acid efficiently for growth, indicating that these species have efficient D-galacturonic acid uptake. Filamentous fungi, especially *Aspergillus niger*, may also efficiently produce pectinases, enabling simultaneous hydrolysis and conversion of the pectin rich biomass. Other advantages are that many fungi are robust, low pH tolerant organisms with simple nutritional requirements.

In fungi, D-galacturonic acid is catabolised through a pathway (Fig. 1) which includes reactions catalysed by D-galacturonic acid reductase (10), L-galactonate dehydratase (9), 2-keto-3-deoxy galactonate aldolase (8) and L-glyceraldehyde reductase (11); the intermediates are L-galactonate, 2-keto-3-deoxy-L-galactonate (3-deoxy-L-threo-hex-2-ulosonate) and L-glyceraldehyde and the products of the pathway are pyruvate and glycerol. D-galacturonic acid

can induce pectinolytic and D-galacturonic acid catabolic genes in *A. niger*, regardless of whether D-galacturonic acid is metabolised or not (4, 14).

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By disrupting the native D-galacturonic acid catabolic pathway it is possible to engineer fungal strains for alternative D-galacturonic acid conversions (14, 20). In the case of galactaric acid production, the gene encoding D-galacturonic acid reductase was deleted and a gene encoding a D-galacturonic acid dehydrogenase expressed (14). Strains lacking the reductase were unable to grow on D-galacturonic acid and the strains also expressing the dehydrogenase converted D-galacturonic acid to galactaric acid. To produce 2-keto-3-deoxy-L-galactonic acid, it was only necessary to delete the gene for the 2-keto-3-deoxy-L-galactonic acid aldolase (20). The resulting strain did not grow on D-galacturonic acid (8), but converted D-galacturonic acid to 2-keto-3-deoxy-L-galactonic acid. The pathway for D-galacturonic acid catabolism in fungi can also be interrupted at the L-galactonate dehydratase step. A strain of Trichoderma reesei (anamorph of *Hypocrea jecorina*) in which the L-galactonate dehydratase, *lgd1*, was deleted was unable to grow on D-galacturonic acid (9). In the present communication we show that deletion of the gene encoding L-galactonate dehydratase, i.e. lgdl in T. reesei and gaaB in A. niger, results in strains that convert D-galacturonic acid to L-galactonic acid which is excreted into the medium.

L-galactonic acid is currently expensive and not widely used, but has the potential to be used more widely once it is available at a low price. The physico-chemical properties are similar to those of D-gluconic acid, which is widely used as a chelator, in the pharmaceutical, cosmetic, and other industrial (e.g. dyes, detergents, solvents, paints) sectors and as an acidifier in food. L-Galactonic acid is also a precursor for L-ascorbic acid (vitamin C) synthesis. The L-galactono-

1,4-lactone which forms from L-galactonic acid at acidic pH can be oxidised to L-ascorbic acid chemically (3) or in a fermentative process (17).

Materials and Methods

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86 **Strains.** The deletion of the *lgd1* in *Trichoderma reesei* (anamorph of *Hypocrea jecorina*) was described previously (9).

Aspergillus niger ATCC 1015 \(\Delta pvrG\), with the gene encoding the orotidine-5'-phosphate decarboxylase (pvrG) deleted (14), was used to construct the gaaB deletion strain. The cassette for deletion of gaaB contained 1550 bp from the A. niger gaaB promoter, 1533 bp from the A. niger gaaB terminator, and a 1920 bp fragment containing the pyrG gene flanked with its native promoter and terminator. These fragments were obtained by PCR of A. niger ATCC1015 genomic DNA using primers gaaB-5-F, gaaB-5-R, gaaB-3-F, gaaB-3-R, pyrG-del-F n, and pyrG-del-R n (Table 1), and the proofreading DNA polymerase Phusion (Finnzymes). Plasmid pRSET-A (Invitrogen) was digested with EcoRI and PvuII (both NEB) and the terminator fragment (gaaB-3) with EcoRI to produce an intermediary construct by ligation using T4 DNA ligase (NEB). This intermediary construct was digested with XhoI (NEB) and Ecl136II (Fermentas) and ligated to the *XhoI* digested promoter fragment (gaaB-5). The resulting vector was digested with Ecl136II and treated with phosphatase. The pyrG DNA fragment, after digestion with SmaI, was inserted between the two gaaB flanking regions. The deletion cassette, 5006 bp containing the gaaB flanking regions and the pyrG gene, was released by EcoRI + XhoI digestion and introduced into A. niger ATCC1015 $\Delta pyrG$ as described previously (14). Transformants were selected by ability to grow in the absence of uracil. Strains with a correct deletion were verified by PCR and tested for growth on D-galacturonate as a sole carbon source.

The cassette for the overexpression of A. niger D-galacturonate reductase (gaaA) contained the native gaaA gene between the gpdA promoter and upC terminator from A. nidulans, following the hygromycin B phosphotransferase (hph) gene under the gpdA promoter. The gaaA fragment was obtained by PCR from ATCC1015 genomic DNA using the primers gaaA-exp-F and gaaA-exp-R (Table 1). The plasmid (JKp1-hph) containing the gpdA-trpC-hph fragment was derived from pRS426 (ATCC). Both JKp1-hph and the PCR-amplified gaaA fragment were digested with SacI and XmaI (both NEB), followed by ligatation using T4 DNA ligase to generate the intermediary construct JKp1-hph-gaaA. JKp1-hph-gaaA was digested with BspHI and PsiI (both NEB) and the fragment containing the gpdA-gaaA-trpC-hph cassette was introduced into A.niger ATCC1015 $gaaB\Delta$ strain by transformation. Transformants were screened for integration of the gpdA-gaaA-trpC-hph cassette by growth in the presence of 400 μ g mI $^{-1}$ hygromycin B (Calbiochem). Integration of the transformed cassette into the genome was confirmed by PCR with the primers gpdA-F and gaaA-exp-R (Table 1).

Media. The defined medium of Vogel (19), modified as described by Mojzita et al. (14), was used to assess L-galactonate production in flasks and bioreactors. D-Xylose (2 to 11 g l⁻¹) was provided as carbon source and ammonium sulphate (1.65 or 3.3 g l⁻¹) as nitrogen source. D-galacturonate (approximately 10 g l⁻¹; prepared as sodium salt), or polygalacturonate (15 g l⁻¹; prepared as sodium salt and containing 11 g D-galacturonic acid l⁻¹ plus 1 g l⁻¹ combined D-xylose, D-galactose and D-mannose when hydrolysed) were used as substrates in production media. Alternatively, the *A. nidulans* defined minimal medium of Barratt *et al.* (1) was used for *A. niger* cultures with 20 g D-galacturonate l⁻¹ and 5 g D-xylose l⁻¹. The pH of production media was adjusted between 3.0 and 6.0 with NaOH.

Medium (modified from Vogel (19)) for pre-cultures contained 20 g xylose 1⁻¹ and was supplemented with 1 g bactopeptone 1⁻¹ to provide more rapid growth in this chemically defined medium. *A. niger* pre-cultures also contained 4 g agar 1⁻¹ or 30 g gelatin 1⁻¹, so that growth would be more filamentous. Agar was used in pre-cultures for bioreactor cultures, since it was not metabolised by *A. niger*, and thus the biomass received the same nutrients as the *T. reesei* precultures. For studies of gene expression, pre-cultures of *A. niger* were grown in medium containing 10 g yeast extract 1⁻¹, 20 g peptone 1⁻¹ (YP) and 30 g gelatin 1⁻¹.

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Cultural conditions. Small scale cultures were grown in 250 ml Erlenmeyer flasks containing 50 ml medium and incubated at 30°C, 200 rpm. Pre-culture flasks were inoculated with conidial suspensions (final concentrations 5.3 x 10⁵ conidia ml⁻¹) and production flasks with mycelium from the pre-cultures. T. reesei pre-cultures were allowed to grow for approximately 24 h before being harvested by vacuum filtration through disks of sterile, disposable cleaning cloth (X-tra, 100% viscose household cleaning cloth, Inex Partners Oy, Helsinki) and rinsed with sterile H₂O (> 2 volumes) to remove residual peptone and D-xylose. A. niger was grown for 24 h in pre-culture medium containing 4 g agar 1⁻¹ or 30 g gelatin 1⁻¹ to reduce formation of pellets. Mycelium (5 ml) from agar-containing pre-cultures was transferred to fresh pre-culture medium lacking agar (50 ml) and incubated for 18 h to reduce the agar content in the cultures and provide inoculum consisting of very small (<2 mm diam.) pellets for D-galacturonate conversion which could be filtered and washed in the same manner as the T. reesei pre-cultures. Alternatively, gelatin-containing pre-cultures were harvested by vacuum filtration and rinsed with sterile H₂O warmed to 37 °C to remove gelatin, then with cold H₂O. Washed mycelium was aseptically transferred to production medium.

For larger scale cultures, mycelium was grown in bioreactors in 500 ml (Multifors, max working volume 500 ml, Infors HT, Switzerland). Cultures were maintained at 30°C, 800 rpm, with 1.6 volume gas [volume culture]⁻¹ min⁻¹ (vvm). Culture pH was kept constant at pH 4.5, 4.9 or 5.5 by the addition of sterile 1 M KOH or 1 M H₃PO₄. Polypropylene glycol (mixed molecular weight (21)) was added to control foam production.

The initial biomass concentration in *T. reesei* cultures was 0.3 g l^{-1} and in *A. niger* cultures 0.4 g l^{-1} in bioreactors and 0.7 to 1.4 g l^{-1} in flasks.

Chemical analyses. Samples (1 to 60 ml, depending on the culture scale and density of biomass) were removed at intervals and mycelium was separated from the supernatant by filtration through cloth. For analysis of intracellular L-galactonate concentrations, biomass which had been washed first with an equal volume 9 g NaCl l⁻¹, then with distilled water, was frozen at -20°C and subjected to freeze-drying. After weighing, L-galactonate in the dried biomass was extracted in 5 mM H₂SO₄, as described previously for extraction of intracellular 2-keto-3-deoxy-L-galactonate (20). Intracellular amounts are given as mg per g dry biomass, but concentration may be estimated by assuming the volume (ml) of cytoplasm per g dry biomass would be similar to that of *Penicillium chrysogenum*, which has been determined to be 2.86 ml per g dry biomass (15).

The concentration of D-xylose, D-galacturonate and L-galactonate was determined by HPLC using a Fast Acid Analysis Column (100 mm x 7.8 mm, BioRad Laboratories, Hercules, CA) linked to an Aminex HPX-87H organic acid analysis column (300 mm x 7.8 mm, BioRad Laboratories) with 2.5 or 5.0 mM H₂SO₄ as eluant and a flow rate of 0.5 ml min⁻¹. The column was maintained at 55°C. Peaks were detected using a Waters 410 differential refractometer and a Waters 2487 dual wavelength UV (210 nm) detector.

Expression analysis. Samples (1 ml) were collected from flask cultures and the mycelium was harvested by vacuum filtration. The filtered mycelium was immediately frozen with liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C. RNA was extracted using the RNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen) and 1 μg of total RNA was used for cDNA synthesis with the Transcriptor High Fidelity cDNA Synthesis Kit (Roche), following the manufacturer's instructions. cDNA samples were diluted 1:10 with RNase free water (Roche) and 5 μl of diluted cDNA was used for quantitative PCR (qPCR) using a LightCycler II with the LightCycler SYBR green I Master mix (both Roche). The expression of *gaaA*, An03g01620, An07g00780, An14g04280 and actin were quantified using corresponding primers listed in (Table 1). The level of expression of *gaaA* and the genes encoding the putative transporters was normalized to actin using the accompanying software (Advance Relative Quantification tool).

Results

Conversion of D-galacturonate to L-galactonate by T. reesei and A. niger (at pH 5.5).

Deletion of T. reesei lgd1 (9) and A. niger gaaB resulted in drastically reduced growth of the

corresponding strains on D-galacturonic acid when this was provided as the sole carbon source

(data not shown). Preliminary experiments demonstrated that both T. reesei $\Delta lgd1$ (1.8 g Γ^{-1}) and

A. niger $\Delta gaaB$ (5.9 \pm 0.1 g l⁻¹) produced L-galactonate when incubated for 120 h in flasks

initially containing 10 g l⁻¹ D-galacturonate and 2 g l⁻¹ D-xylose as co-substrate (initial pH 5.1).

Less L-galactonate (2.0 \pm 0.1 g l⁻¹) was produced by A. niger $\Delta gaaB$ when no D-xylose was

provided and D-xylose was included as co-substrate in all further experiments.

When cultivated in a bioreactor, T. reesei $\Delta lgd1$ L-galactonate production and D-galacturonate utilisation increased with the provision of increasing concentrations of D-xylose as co-substrate (Fig. 2). Up to 7.2 g L-galactonate l^{-1} were produced in the culture provided 11 g D-

xylose l⁻¹. The initial production rate was 0.07 to 0.12 g L-galactonate l⁻¹ h⁻¹ and final yields were 0.60 to 0.85 g L-galactonate per g D-galacturonate consumed (Fig. 2). Although initial yields of 0.9 to 1.0 g L-galactonate per g D-galacturonate were observed, the yield decreased during the production phase. The biomass concentration also increased with increasing provision of D-xylose (yield 0.5 g biomass [g D-xylose]⁻¹), and the specific L-galactonate production rate was lower when 11 g D-xylose l⁻¹ was provided than with 3 g l⁻¹ (Fig. 2F).

Extracellular L-galactonate was not observed in *T. reesei* $\Delta lgdl$ until D-xylose had been consumed, but L-galactonate was present intracellularly prior to this (Fig. 2). During the production phase there was 40 to 70 mg intracellular L-galactonate [g biomass]⁻¹. Intracellular D-galacturonate remained below 2 mg [g biomass]⁻¹ (data not shown).

A. niger $\Delta gaaB$ produced only 1.4 - 1.9 g L-galactonate I^{-1} when cultivated in bioreactors at pH 5.5 (Fig. 2), although 5.9 g I^{-1} had been produced in the preliminary flask experiment. Biomass concentrations were similar to those of *T. reesei* $\Delta lgdI$ (yield 0.56 g biomass [g D-xylose]⁻¹), as were intracellular concentrations of L-galactonate (Fig. 2). D-Galacturonate (10-30 mg [g biomass]⁻¹) was also detectable in mycelia from the cultures which received 6 or 11 g D-xylose I^{-1} . An initial assessment indicated that gaaA expression in this strain was low (data not shown).

Production of L-galactonate by A. niger is sensitive to culture pH. The modified Vogel's medium used here is not well buffered and thus pH in flask cultures decreased as ammonium was consumed and increased when D-galacturonate was taken up from the medium without release of L-galactonate from the hyphae. Data from the preliminary A. niger flask cultures indicated that the highest L-galactonate production rates were observed when pH was low (Fig. 3), and suggested that pH 5.5 may be too high for L-galactonate production by A.

niger. Indeed, L-galactonate production decreased with increasing pH above 5.0 in flask cultures, but was generally high (5-6 g l⁻¹) at pH values below 5 (Fig. 3). L-Galactonate production was further improved at pH 3 to 4 by cultivating the strain in buffered medium with 20 g D-galacturonate l⁻¹ and 5 g D-xylose l⁻¹ (Fig. 3).

When *A. niger* $\Delta gaaB$ was grown in a pH controlled bioreactor at pH 4.8 with 10 g D-galacturonate I^{-1} and 6 to 7 g D-xylose I^{-1} , 2.7 g L-galactonate I^{-1} were produced within 72 h at a rate of 0.04 g I^{-1} h⁻¹ (yield 0.7 g L-galactonate [g D-galacturonate consumed]⁻¹, Fig. 4). An additional pulse of 8 g D-xylose I^{-1} was added after 127 h to compensate for the decreasing biomass and a further 2.5 g L-galactonate were produced at the same rate to give a final concentration of 5.4 g I^{-1} (yield 0.9 g [D-galacturonate consumed]⁻¹, Fig. 4) when the culture was harvested at 171 h. Intracellular L-galactonate accumulation (56 ± 2 mg [g biomass]], Fig. 4) was similar to that observed at pH 5.5 (Fig. 2), but decreased after the addition of D-xylose. D-Galacturonate (<1.6 mg [g biomass]⁻¹) did not accumulate in the mycelia (data not shown).

Bioconversion of polygalacturonate to L-galactonate. *A. niger* $\Delta gaaB$ converted polygalacturonate to L-galactonate at a similar rate (initial rate 0.04 g Γ^{-1} h⁻¹, increasing to 0.07 g Γ^{-1} h⁻¹ after addition of extra D-xylose) and titre (2.5 g L-galactonate Γ^{-1} within 72 h) as it converted the monomer D-galacturonate (Fig. 4). L-Galactonate (1.2 g Γ^{-1}) was present in the culture supernatant after 26 h, but did not accumulate above 2.8 g Γ^{-1} at any time during the cultivation. Addition of D-xylose after 127 h resulted in a total of 6.5 g L-galactonate Γ^{-1} (yield 0.85 g L-galactonate [g D-galacturonate consumed]⁻¹) after 171 h, increasing to 7.6 g Γ^{-1} after 195 h. The intracellular concentration of L-galactonate (52 ± 4 mg [g biomass]⁻¹) was similar to that observed in other L-galactonate producing cultures and also decreased after the addition of D-

xylose (Fig. 4). Low concentrations of D-galacturonate (0.2 to 4.3 mg [g biomass]⁻¹) were also extracted from mycelia incubated in polygalacturonate (data not shown).

Overexpression of *A. niger gaaA*. Since gaaA expression appeared low in the $\Delta gaaB$ strain, the galacturonate reductase coding gene, gaaA, was overexpressed in *A. niger* $\Delta gaaB$. *A. niger* ATTC1015, $\Delta gaaB$ and the overexpression strain ($\Delta gaaB$ -gaaA) were grown in modified Vogel's medium with 10 g D-galacturonate Γ^1 and 2 g D-xylose Γ^1 at initial pH 3 in flasks. Expression of gaaA in *A. niger* $\Delta gaaB$ was considerably lower compared to the wild type after 6 h (Table 3). In contrast, in *A. niger* $\Delta gaaB$ -gaaA expression of gaaA was much higher at 0 and 6 h, as expected (Table 3). After 24 h, gaaA expression in *A. niger* $\Delta gaaB$ and *A. niger* $\Delta gaaB$ -gaaA was similar, whereas its expression in the wild type had decreased (Table 3), probably due to D-galacturonate depletion.

Approximate L-galactonate production rates were determined for the flask cultures. During the first 24 h after inoculation, *A. niger* $\Delta gaaB$ -gaaA produced L-galactonate at a significantly (p < 0.05) higher rate (0.070 g L-galactonate l⁻¹ h⁻¹) than *A. niger* $\Delta gaaB$ (0.048 g L-galactonate l⁻¹ h⁻¹, Table 4). After 24 h the difference in the production rates of the $\Delta gaaB$ and $\Delta gaaB$ -gaaA strains decreased, and after 48 h, when L-galactonate production by both strains was decreasing, their production rates were similar (p > 0.05, 0.046 and 0.054 g L-galactonate l⁻¹ h⁻¹, respectively, Table 4).

The final L-galactonate titres of $\Delta gaaB$ and $\Delta gaaB$ -gaaA strains were compared in both modified Vogel's and A. nidulans minimal medium in flasks (Table 2). Both L-galactonate titre and yield were generally higher for A. niger $\Delta gaaB$ -gaaA than for A. niger $\Delta gaaB$ when grown at pH 3 or 4 in either medium (Table 2). At pH 5 in A. nidulans minimal medium, the final L-galactonate titre was notably lower than at pH 4 for both strains and there was no difference

between the strains. However, the yield of L-galactonate on D-galacturonate for A. niger $\Delta gaaB$ -gaaA was higher than for A. niger $\Delta gaaB$ also at pH 5 (Table 2).

Transciption of putative transporter genes in *A. niger* $\Delta gaaB$. The relative transcript levels of 3 genes which have been identified as possible transporters of D-galacturonate (An07g00780, An14g04280, and An03g01620, (12)) were assessed in *A. niger* ATCC1015 and *A. niger* $\Delta gaaB$ 3, 6 and 24 h after transfer to D-galacturonic acid containing medium at pH 3 (Table 5). Both An14g04280 and An03g01620 were strongly induced in ATC1015 within 3 hours of the transfer, whereas induction of An07g00780 was only seen 24 h after the transfer. In contrast, no induction of An14g04280 was observed in *A. niger* $\Delta gaaB$. Transcription of An03g1620 and An07g00780 in *A. niger* $\Delta gaaB$ was similar to that observed in the control strain.

Discussion

Deletion of the gene for the L-galactonate dehydratase, *lgd1* in *T. reesei* or *gaaB* in *A. niger*, resulted in strains that converted D-galacturonate to L-galactonate, which was secreted to the culture supernatant (Figs. 2 to 5). This confirmed that D-galacturonate was still taken up in the deletion strains, as was also the case when either the D-galacturonate reductase (*gar1* or *gaaA* in *T. reesei* and *A. niger*, respectively, (14)) or the 2-keto-3-deoxy-L-galactonate aldolase, *lga1* or *gaaC*, (20) were deleted. In *T. reesei*, the conversion of D-galacturonate to L-galactonate occurred at similar rates (0.07 to 0.12 g L-galactonate l⁻¹ h⁻¹) as previously reported for the conversion to keto-deoxy-L-galactonate (0.10 to 0.14 g l⁻¹ h⁻¹, (20)), but was faster than the conversion of D-galacturonate to L-galactonate (0.04 to 0.07 g L-galactonate l⁻¹ h⁻¹) was much

slower than the conversion to keto-deoxy-L-galactonate (0.27 to 0.33 g l⁻¹ h⁻¹, (20)), suggesting that the disruption of the pathway at the earlier step created additional constraints in this strain.

The yield of L-galactonate from D-galacturonate was 0.6 to 0.8 g g⁻¹ for *T. reesei* $\Delta lgd1$ and 0.7 to 0.9 for *A. niger* $\Delta gaaB$. Thus, the yields were only slightly lower than the theoretical yield (1.0 g L-galactonate [g D-galacturonate]⁻¹), but still indicated that some of either the D-galacturonate or the produced L-galactonate were consumed in unidentified metabolic reaction(s). Futile consumption of D-galacturonate has been observed previously in strains deleted of gaaA/gar1 or gaaC/lga1 (14, 20), but the fate of the carbon remains unclear since there is no measureable production of biomass from D-galacturonate in these strains.

Although production of both L-galactonate and keto-deoxy-L-galactonate require NADPH as a co-factor for the D-galacturonate reductase, L-galactonate production was more dependent on the addition of D-xylose as a co-substrate (Fig. 2) to obtain good production than was the production of the keto-deoxy derivative. This may reflect a greater need for energy in the export of L-galactonate, since we observed that the intracellular concentration of L-galactonate (40 to 70 mg L-galactonate [g biomass]⁻¹ in both *T. reesei* and *A. niger*) was higher than the maximum intracellular concentrations of keto-deoxy-L-galactonate (35 to 45 mg L-galactonate [g biomass]⁻¹) in the corresponding strains (20). After provision of additional co-substrate to *A. niger* $\Delta gaaB$ cultures at pH 4.5 to 4.8 the intracellular L-galactonate concentration decreased to around 23 mg [g biomass]⁻¹ (Fig. 4), supporting the hypothesis that energy is needed for export.

Assuming the volume of cytoplasm to be approximately 2.86 times the dry biomass (10), the average intracellular concentration of L-galactonate was ~ 20 g l⁻¹ and was much higher than the L-galactonate concentration in the medium. This also suggests that export may be a bottleneck in extracellular production. In addition, the high intracellular concentration of L-

galactonate may limit the rate of D-galacturonate conversion by feedback inhibition and/or providing substrate for the reverse reaction, which has been shown to occur with both the *T. reesei* gar1 (10) and the *A. niger* gaaA (13) D-galacturonate reductases. The K_m for L-galactonate of *T. reesei* gar1 is 4 mM (0.8 g l⁻¹) (10), which is much lower than the intracellular L-galactonate concentrations observed. Thus, accumulation of L-galactonate may limit the reaction more than accumulation of keto-deoxy-L-galactonate, since the action of the L-galactonate dehydratase is irreversible (9). Generation of intracellular D-galacturonate may also have affected uptake of the substrate, about which little is known in filamentous fungi. Intracellular D-galacturonate was, however, only observed in *A. niger* and not in *T. reesei*.

In contrast to keto-deoxy-L-galactonate production (20), L-galactonate production was more efficient in *T. reesei* than in *A. niger* at pH 5.5, producing higher titres at higher rates (Fig. 2). *T. reesei* was also found to be more effective than *A. niger* in the production of galactarate (14), and these results confirm that *T. reesei* is an interesting and useful host for organic acid production, even though it is not known as a high producer of organic acids, nor tolerant to very low culture pH.

Low galactarate production by A. niger $\Delta gaaA$ -udh was attributed to subsequent metabolism of the galactarate (14). Metabolism of L-galactonate appeared negligible (Fig. 4) or limited (Fig. 2) in A. niger $\Delta gaaB$, rather L-galactonate production by A. niger was found to be pH-dependent, with the highest production rates and titres observed at pH values below 5.0 and no reduction in production even at pH 3.0 (Fig. 3). At pH 4.5 to 4.8, production of L-galactonate by A. niger $\Delta gaaB$ was as good as that of T. reesei $\Delta lgdI$ at pH 5.5. At low extracellular pH, more of the product is protonated to L-galactonic acid (pKa \sim 3.5) creating a greater difference in concentration between the dissociated intra- and extracellular L-galactonate pools. If the

protonated organic acid is not re-imported to the cytoplasm, then a low extracellular pH can provide the dominant driving force for organic acid export, as has been predicted for citrate export from *A. niger* (2). Further, low extracellular pH may influence the transport of D-galacturonic acid (pKa=3.51). However, *A. niger* transported D-galacturonate at much higher rates when producing keto-deoxy-L-galactonate at pH 5.5 (0.12 to 0.56 g l⁻¹ h⁻¹, (20)) or galactarate at pH 5.0 (0.21 to 0.46 g l⁻¹ h⁻¹, (14)) than observed during L-galactonate production at any pH (0.04 to 0.15 g l⁻¹ h⁻¹, Fig. 2 and data not shown). Thus improved uptake at low pH is unlikely to explain the improved L-galactonate production observed.

D-galacturonate is an inducer of the D-galacturonate pathway genes gaaA, gaaB and gaaC in A. niger ATCC1015, CBS120.49 and $\Delta gaaA$ strain (12, 14). In ATCC1015, the transcription of these three genes was induced simultaneously within 4 hours of transfer to D-galacturonate and induction of gaaB and gaaC remained similar in A. niger $\Delta gaaA$ compared to ATCC1015 (14). In this study, we observed that gaaA was not induced in A. niger $\Delta gaaB$ even 6 hours after exposure to D-galacturonate (Table 3), although transcription had increased after 24 hours. In ATCC1015, gaaA expression was already reduced after 24 h incubation, due to D-galacturonate depletion. Induction of the gene encoding the third enzyme of the pathway, gaaC, was similarly delayed in A. niger $\Delta gaaB$ (J. Kuivanen, unpublished data), suggesting that the induction of the entire pathway was affected by the deletion of gaaB. The similar transcriptional response of gaaA and gaaC might be expected since these genes share a common bidirectional promoter (13). The altered transcription profiles of the genes in the $\Delta gaaB$ strain suggest that L-galactonate, keto-deoxy-L-galactonate or L-galactonate dehydratase itself may have roles in transcriptional regulation of the D-galacturonate pathway genes. Regardless of the regulatory

mechanism, the delayed induction of gaaA in the $\Delta gaaB$ strain would account for low initial rates of D-galacturonate conversion.

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In order to eliminate gaaA induction as a rate limiting factor for L-galactonate production, gaaA was overexpressed under the gpdA promoter in A. niger $\Delta gaaB$. The L-galactonate production rate was initially significantly (p<0.002) higher in A. niger $\Delta gaaB$ -gaaA compared to A. niger $\triangle gaaB$ in flasks at pH 3 (Table 4), indicating that low gaaA expression was indeed a rate limiting factor. However, gaaA was expressed under the gpdA promoter, which gives less induction in the absence of a metabolisable carbon source (here D-xylose), even though it is generally described as constitutive. Thus, expression of gaaA decreased during the expression studies. After 24 h, when gaaA expression had been induced in the gaaB deletion strain, the production rates of A. niger $\Delta gaaB$ -gaaA and A. niger $\Delta gaaB$ were similar (Table 4). The initial improved production resulted in 24 to 39% more L-galactonate being produced at pH 3 when gaaA was overexpressed than when it was not, with corresponding improvements in the conversion efficiency and yield (Table 2). Interestingly, the benefit of overexpression of gaaA was pH dependent even though gaaA expression was not (J. Kuivanen, unpublished data), with the greatest benefit at pH 3, although smaller improvements in yield were also observed at higher pH values (Table 2).

D-Xylose was previously found to be a good co-substrate in the production of keto-deoxy-L-galactonate (20), but D-Galacturonate did not appear to be taken up while D-xylose was being consumed (Fig. 2). Limited D-galacturonate uptake during the time when gaaA expression was high in A. $niger \Delta gaaB$ -gaaA probably limited the improvement in L-galactonate production which could be achieved by this strain. In addition, only two of the three putative D-galacturonate transporters (12) were induced in the $\Delta gaaB$ strain (Table 5). The roles of these

putative transporters is not known, but the limited D-galacturonate transport in A. $niger \Delta gaaB$ and A. $niger \Delta gaaB$ -gaaA may indicate that the protein encoded by An14g04280 has a dominant role.

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Despite the fact that production of L-galactonate with A. niger $\Delta gaaB$ required more investigation and additional strain development than with T. reesei $\Delta lgdl$, A. niger is more suitable for development of a consolidated L-galactonate production process, which would use less processed polymeric substrates, such as polygalacturonate, pectin, or even raw, untreated biomass. A. niger produces a more complex spectrum of pectinases than T. reesei, which is unable to degrade pectin (20). Using the current A. niger \(\Delta gaaB \) strain, production of Lgalactonate from polygalacturonate was found to be as efficient as production from the Dgalacturonate monomer (Fig. 4). Thus, a high concentration of extracellular D-galacturonate was not necessary to sustain its uptake and the slow release of monomer may be beneficial in providing continual induction of the native gaaA gene. Polygalacturonate was used as a substrate here, but these results suggest that L-galactonate could also be produced directly from pectin, which would require less processing and would also provide the co-substrates (e.g. D-galactose, D- xylose, L-arabinose) for the initial production of biomass and NADPH. A more gradual provision of co-substrate in a fed-batch or continuous process may also be useful, since this would ensure that production rates did not decrease as a result of cell lysis after the co-substrate was consumed and for the $\Delta gaaB$ -gaaA strain would sustain higher expression levels of gaaA.

D-Galactonate has been produced in high concentration from D-galactose using *Gluconobacter oxydans* (18), but this is the first report of extracellular production of L-galactonate in gram quantities from D-galacturonic and polygalacturonic acids. Its production has led to further insights into D-galacturonate metabolism in *A. niger*, while further

enhancement in production by both strain engineering and process development may provide an efficient source of L-galactonate for e.g. microbial ascorbic acid production and other applications.

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TABLE 1 Primers used to generate vectors for deletion of gaaB and incorporation of gaaA in A.

niger ATCC1015 $\Delta pyrG$, to confirm integration and for qPCR.

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Primer	Sequence
gaaB-5-F	TATACTCGAGAGTTCCTCGATCAGGAACGA
gaaB-5-R	TATAGAGCTCGCAATCTAGTTGCAATGC
gaaB-3-F	TATAGAGCTCGCATTACATTGGTTATGTGGG
gaaB-3-R	TATAGAATTCAGACATTAGTCCCCGAGAA
pyrG-del-F_n	TATACCCGGGTGATTGAGGTGATTGGCGAT
pyrG-del-R_n	TATACCCGGGTTATCACGCGACGGACAT
gaaB-ORF-F	AGATCACAAGTTTCACCACGA
gaaB-ORF-R	GCCCCTCCAGAATGGTCTT
gaaA-exp-F	ATGAATTCGAGCTCCACAATGGCTCCCCCAG
gaaA-exp-R	AGGCGCCCCGGGCTACTTCAGCTCCCACTTTC
gpdA-F	AAGTGGAAAGGCTGGTGTGC
gaaA_qPCR_F	AGGACACGATTACTCTACTTGTG
gaaA_qPCR_R	GAGCCCATATAATGGAAGTACTG
act_qPCR_F	CAACATTGTCATGTCTGGTGG
act_qPCR_R	GGAGGAGCAATGATCTTGAC
An07g00780_qPCR_F	CTATCATCAATGCCGCCTCC
An07g00780_qPCR_R	CCACTGACGAAGCCATAGAC
An14g04280_qPCR_F	GTATGTGAGCGAGATCTTCCC
An14g04280_qPCR_R	TTTCCTTGGCGAAGACAATGAC

An03g01620_qPCR_F	GGAATACGAAGAAGTGCAGGA
An03g01620_qPCR_R	GGTGTTTCCAGACATGCCAG

TABLE 2 L-Galactonate (L-GalA) production at 144 h by *A. niger* $\Delta gaaB$ and the $\Delta gaaB$ strain overexpressing gaaA ($\Delta gaaB$ -gaaA) in buffered *A. nidulans* minimal medium (MM) with 20 g D-galacturonate I^{-1} and 5 g D-xylose I^{-1} and in modified Vogel's medium with 10 g D-galacturonate I^{-1} and 2 g D-xylose I^{-1} in flasks at initial pH 3, 4 or 5. Mean \pm SEM (n = 3). The conversion and yield on D-galacturonate (D-GalUA) are also shown.

				Conversion (g g ⁻¹)	Yield (g g ⁻¹)
	Initial		L-GalA	L-GalA [D-	L-GalA [D-
Medium	pН	Strain	(g l ⁻¹)	GalUA _{initial}] ⁻¹	GalUA _{consumed}] ⁻¹
<i>A</i> .	5	$\Delta gaaB$	4.1 ± 0.2	0.20	0.82
nidulans	3	∆gaaB-gaaA	4.1 ± 0.3	0.20	0.97
MM	4	$\Delta gaaB$	7.2 ± 0.8	0.35	0.95
	4	∆gaaB-gaaA	7.8 ± 0.4	0.38	0.97
	3	$\Delta gaaB$	6.3 ± 0.1	0.31	0.86
	3	$\Delta gaaB$ - $gaaA$	8.7 ± 0.2	0.43	1.00
modified	4	$\Delta gaaB$	4.2 ± 0.1	0.41	0.70
Vogel's	4	∆gaaB-gaaA	5.0 ± 0.1	0.49	0.75
	3	$\Delta gaaB$	4.9 ± 0.1	0.47	0.70
	3	ΔgaaB-gaaA	6.2 ± 0.3	0.59	0.82

TABLE 3 Relative expression of *gaaA* in *A. niger* ATCC1015, $\Delta gaaB$ and $\Delta gaaB$ -gaaA when grown in flasks in modified Vogel's medium with 10 g D-galacturonate l⁻¹ and 2 g D-xylose l⁻¹ at initial pH 3.0. Average \pm SEM (n = 3).

	Rela	ntive transcription of g	gaaA
Time (h)	ATCC1015	$\Delta gaaB$	$\Delta gaaB$ - $gaaA$
0	0.2 ± 0.0	0.4 ± 0.0	14.0 ± 0.0
3	3.6 ± 0.6	0.1 ± 0.0	16.6 ± 0.6
6	2.6 ± 0.1	0.1 ± 0.0	9.5 ± 0.6
24	0.2 ± 0.1	1.5 ± 0.1	1.5 ± 0.2

TABLE 4 L-Galactonate production rates for *A. niger* $\Delta gaaB$ and $\Delta gaaB$ -gaaA when grown in flasks in modified Vogel's medium with 10 g D-galacturonate l⁻¹ and 2 g D-xylose l⁻¹ at initial pH 3.0. Values (average \pm SEM, n = 3) in the same row with different superscripts ^a or ^b differed significantly (p < 0.05).

	LGalactonate production rate (g l ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)		
Time interval (h)	$\Delta gaaB$	∆gaaB-gaaA	
0-24	0.048 ± 0.001 a	0.070 ± 0.002 b	
24-48	0.064 ± 0.001 a	0.075 ± 0.002^{b}	
48-78	0.046 ± 0.000^{a}	0.054 ± 0.002^{a}	

TABLE 5 Relative expression of putative transporters An07g00780, An14g04280, and An03g01620 in *A. niger* ATCC1015 and $\Delta gaaB$ when grown in flasks in modified Vogel's medium with 10 g D-galacturonate l⁻¹ and 2 g D-xylose l⁻¹ at initial pH 3.0. Average \pm SEM (n = 3), n.d. = no data.

		Relative transcription		
Putative transporter	Time (h)	ATCC1015	$\Delta gaaB$	
An07g00780	0	0.4 ± 0.0	0.1 ± 0.0	
	3	0.1 ± 0.0	n.d.	
	6	0.3 ± 0.0	0.2 ± 0.1	
	24	1.1 ± 0.3	1.9 ± 1.0	
An14g04280	0	0.0 ± 0.0	0.0 ± 0.0	
	3	2.1 ± 0.2	0.1 ± 0.0	
	6	0.9 ± 0.0	0.1 ± 0.0	
	24	0.1 ± 0.0	0.1 ± 0.0	
An03g01620	0	0.0 ± 0.0	0.0 ± 0.0	
	3	2.0 ± 0.5	3.4 ± 0.4	
	6	0.3 ± 0.0	0.2 ± 0.1	
	24	0.0 ± 0.0	0.0 ± 0.0	

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Figure legends

- 492 FIG 1 The fungal D-galacturonic acid pathway. The genes encoding the enzymes in T. reesei
- and A. niger are indicated. The deletion of lgd1 in T. reesei and gaaB in A. niger disrupted the
- 494 pathway and generated strains which accumulated L-galactonate.
- 495 **FIG 2** Concentrations of extracellular A) L-galactonate, B) biomass, C) D-galacturonate, D) D-
- 496 xylose, and intracellular E) L-galactonate from T. reesei Δlgd1 (solid symbols) and A. niger
- 497 $\Delta gaaB$ (open symbols) in modified Vogel's medium initially containing 10 g D-galacturonate l^{-1} ,
- and 2.5 or 3, 6 or 11 g D-xylose 1⁻¹, as indicated, at pH 5.5, 800 rpm, 1.6 vvm aeration, 30°C. F)
- 499 The effect of D-xylose concentration on the yield of L-galactonate on D-galacturonate
- consumed, and the volumetric production and specific production rates of L-galactonate for T.
- 501 reesei $\Delta lgdl$. Error bars represent \pm SEM (n = 2).
- FIG 3 L-Galactonate production by A. niger $\Delta gaaB$ in flasks. A) L-Galactonate production rate
- as a function of pH for unbuffered cultures provided 10 g D-galacturonate l⁻¹ at initial pH 5.2,
- with no (open symbols) or 2 g l⁻¹ D-xylose (solid symbols) provided for growth. Error bars
- represent \pm SEM, n = 3. B) Concentration of L-galactorate produced in 120-144 h in unbuffered
- modified Vogel's medium containing 10 g D-galacturonate l⁻¹ and 2 g D-xylose l⁻¹ (solid
- symbols) and in buffered A. nidulans medium containing 20 g D-galacturonate l⁻¹ and 5 g D-
- 508 xylose l⁻¹ (open symbols). The pH of the media was initially adjusted to 3, 4, 5 or 6, but average
- culture pH is shown. Error bars represent \pm SEM for 3 to 6 replicate cultures and where not
- visible are smaller than the symbol.
- FIG 4 Concentration of L-galactonate, biomass and intracellular L-galactonate in cultures of A.
- 512 niger $\Delta gaaB$ in modified Vogel's medium with 5 g D-xylose l⁻¹ and containing 10 g D-

galacturonate l^{-1} (open symbols, pH 4.8) or 15 g polygalacturonate l^{-1} (solid symbols pH 4.5). Cultures were maintained at 30°C, 800 rpm, 1.6 vvm aeration and were given an additional 9 g

D-xylose l^{-1} at 127.8 h. Error bars represent \pm SEM (n = 2) and where not visible are smaller than

the symbol.







