



MARCELA CAROLINE BATISTA DA MOTA

**BACTERIAL CELLULOSE PRODUCED FROM AGRO-
INDUSTRIAL CO-PRODUCTS FOR REMOVAL OF DYES
FROM LABORATORY RESIDUES**

**LAVRAS – MG
2023**

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Tese apresentada a Universidade Federal de Lavras, como parte das exigências do Programa de Pós-graduação em Microbiologia Agrícola, área de concentração em Microbiologia Agrícola, para obtenção do título de Doutora.

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**LAVRAS – MG
2023**

Aos meus pais, Sérgio Mota e Marli Mota, pelo amor, dedicação, incentivo e por não medirem esforços para o alcance de cada conquista em minha vida.

Dedico

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RESUMO

A celulose é um polímero natural sintetizado por plantas e algumas espécies de bactérias do ácido acético (AAB). A celulose bacteriana (CB) é um polímero natural que pode ser utilizado pelas indústrias farmacêutica e alimentícia e na recuperação de ambientes contaminados com metais. Para que as empresas utilizem cada vez mais esse biomaterial, é importante buscar novas fontes de carbono com custos mais atrativos. A CB possui características físico-químicas vantajosas como alta pureza, alta cristalinidade, alta resistência à tração e alta porosidade. Uma alternativa econômica e ambiental é a utilização de nutrientes provenientes de fontes alternativas, como resíduos agroindustriais. Este referencial teórico discute possíveis substratos alternativos para a produção de CB, as condições ideais para a produção deste biopolímero, sua estrutura molecular e o custo de produção por meios convencionais e alternativos.

Palavras-chave: Resíduos agroindustriais. Glicerol. Casca de café. Bactérias do ácido acético. Celulose microbiana.

ABSTRACT

Cellulose is a natural polymer synthesized by plants and some species of acetic acid bacteria (AAB). Bacterial cellulose (BC) is a natural polymer that can be used by the pharmaceutical and food industries and in the recovery of environments contaminated with metals. In order for companies to increasingly use this biomaterial, it is important to seek new sources of carbon at more attractive costs. The BC has advantageous physicochemical characteristics such as high purity, high crystallinity, high tensile strength and high porosity. An economic and environmental alternative is to use nutrients from alternative sources such as agro-industrial residues. This theoretical reference discusses possible alternative substrates for BC production, the ideal conditions for producing this biopolymer, its molecular structure and the cost of production by conventional and alternative means.

Keywords: Agroindustrial waste. Glycerol. Coffee husk. Acetic acid bacteria. Microbial cellulose.

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PRIMEIRA PARTE

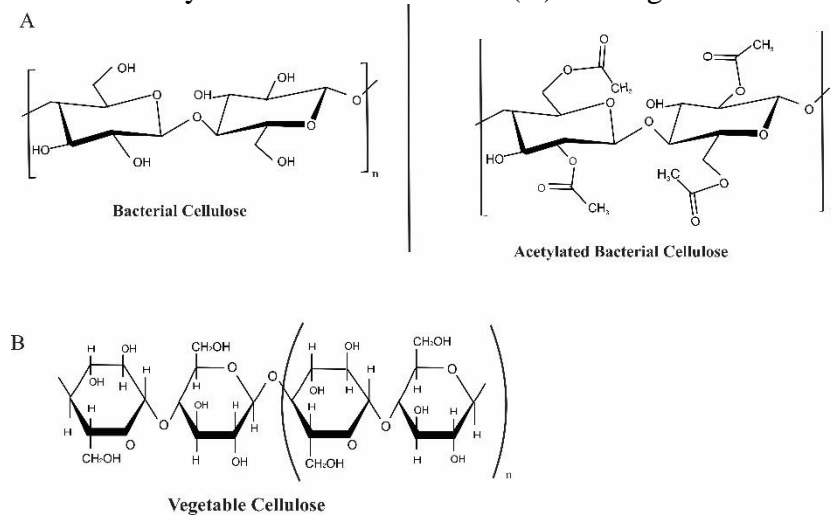
1 INTRODUCTION

Bacterial cellulose (BC) is a biopolymer linked by long-chain linear unbranched β -D-glucose bonds and linked by β -1,4-glycosidic bonds (KLEMM et al. 2005; LIMA et al. 2015, DA SILVA et al. 2021). These biomolecules are produced by living organisms, such plants and microorganisms. Bacterial cellulose is a naturally occurring exopolysaccharide produced by some bacterial species as a survival strategy. It occurs as a metabolic response when microorganisms feel threatened, either to avoid attacks by organisms such as protozoa and bacteriophages, or to disperse in different ecosystems, and can be isolated from soil, plants, insects, humans and food sources (RÜHS et al., 2018; VALERA et al., 2017; MCDUGALD et al., 2012).

BC has multiple applications, such as in the food industry, packaging materials, biomedical engineering, tissues and cartilage (SVENSSON et al., 2005, LIU et al., 2018). In addition, it has the same chemical composition as vegetable cellulose ($C_6H_{10}O_5$), however the BC is not associated with biopolymers such as lignin, hemicellulose and pectin (PURZ et al., 1998; PENG et al., 2021) (FIGURE 1). Purification of plant-based cellulose is expensive and makes use of severe chemical treatment, generating polluting waste (KLEMM et al., 2001; SUN et al., 2010). As the BC has no association with unwanted biopolymers, such purification step is not required and costs are reduced.

BC can be chemically modified, for example, by the acetylation reaction (FIGURE 1), which makes the molecule less hydrophilic. This process occurs when a less hydrophilic acetyl group (NOGI et al., 2009) replaces the hydroxyl group found on the surface of the fibers. For this reaction to occur BC is expanded into acetic acid and then, in the presence of acetic anhydride and sulfuric acid or perchloric acid (catalysts), it gets converted to its acetylated form (JONOBI et al., 2011; GHADIKOLAEI et al., 2018).

Figure 1 – Structure of acetylated bacterial cellulose (A) and vegetable cellulose (B).



Subtitle: (n) repeating polymeric units.

Source: from the author (2023)

Among the properties of BC are high purity (99%), high crystallinity (74 - 96%), high tensile strength (300 MPa) (COSTA et al., 2017), high porosity (greater than 85%) and a high degree of polymerization (16,000-mer) (LI et al., 2015; SANTOS et al., 2015; XU et al., 2015) (TABLE 1). The production of this biopolymer occurs through the oxidation of carbohydrates, mainly glucose, by oxidative fermentation that consists of the ability to produce acetic acid through the oxidation of ethanol. Cellulose synthesis occurs from four enzymatic steps in which glucose is cleaved into glucose-6-phosphate, then into glucose-1-phosphate, which is metabolized to UDP-glucose and ultimately produced bacterial cellulose (ROSS et al., 1991; MAMLOUK; GULLO, 2013).

Table 1 – Difference between the properties of plant and bacterial cellulose.

Properties	Vegetable cellulose	Bacterial cellulose	Reference
Crystallinity (%)	40 - 80	74 - 96	PARK et al., 2010
Purity (%)	< 80	> 99	KLEMM et al., 2005
Porosity (%)	< 75	> 85	PURNAMA et al., 2019
Degree of polymerization (n)	300 - 10.000	14.000 - 16.000	TAHARA et al., 1997 SZYMAŃSKA-
Fiber size (nm)	20 - 100	Micrometer scale	CHARGOT et al., 2011
Total surface area (m ² /g)	< 10	> 150	UL-ISLAM et al., 2012
Tensile strength (Mpa)	25 - 200	20 - 300	FENG et al., 2015
Water storage capacity (%)	25 - 35	> 95	REBELO et al., 2018

Within the Acetic Acid Bacteria (AAB) group, cellulose producers include species of the genera *Komagataeibacter* (formerly known as *Gluconacetobacter*), *Acetobacter*, *Agrobacterium*, *Achromobacter* and *Aerobacter* (TABLE 2 and 3). *Komagataeibacter* has a greater capacity to assimilate different sources of carbon and nitrogen (LEE et al., 2014; ISLAM et al., 2017), leveraging the use of alternative substrates containing monosaccharides, oligosaccharides, organic acids and alcohols as carbon. Nitrogen sources that can be used are yeast extract, peptone, ammonium sulfate, sodium nitrate and urea as nitrogen sources, a trait that is beneficial for the synthesis of BC (NASCIMENTO et al., 2016) (TABLE 3).

Table 2 – Cellulose-producing bacteria of the genus *Komagataeibacter* and their main characteristics (to be continued).

Species	Strain	Origin	Production condition	Main features	Reference
<i>K. xylinus</i>	ATCC53524		Static culture, 30°C for 96h	Purity, high crystallinity and densely packed network.	MIKKELSEN et al., 2019
	ATCC700178		Hectic culture, 29°C, for 7 days, 175 rpm		DAHMAN et al., 2010
	ATCC23770		Static culture, 30°C for 7 days	High crystallinity, stable mechanical property and nanoscale polymer (fibers were in the range of 15 to 70 nm, with an average width of 35 to 40 nm).	CAVKA et al., 2013
	ATCC23767		Hectic culture, 30°C, for 48h, 100 rpm	Nanoscale dimensions (length of several μm , width between 20 and 70 nm) and nanostructured network.	CHENG et al., 2017
	K3	Kombucha culture	Static culture, 30°C for 48h	Purity and high crystallinity	NGUYEN et al., 2008
	KJ1	Rotten grape	Hectic culture, 30°C, for 5 days, 150 rpm		SON et al., 2002
<i>K. hansenii</i>	P2A	Residues from vinegar fermentation, vinegar samples and fresh produce	Static culture, 30°C for 7 days	Under static conditions: an orderly and dense network of fibrils with diameters as fine as 8–10 nm; under agitated culture conditions: much looser agglomeration of disordered short and fine fibrils, relative crystallinity index of 72.6-78.7% (78.7, 72.6 and 77.3% for static, agitated and agitated conditions, respectively) and with a single degradation step (starting at 280–300 °C)	AYDIN; AKSOY, 2014
	PJK	Rotten apple	Hectic culture, 30°C, for 24h, 200 rpm	High Purity	PARK, 2003
	CGMCC3917	Homemade Vinegar / Mutagenesis	Hectic culture, 30°C, and 150 rpm		GE et al., 2011

Table 2 – Cellulose-producing bacteria of the genus *Komagataeibacter* and their main characteristics (conclusion).

Species	Strain	Origin	Production condition	Main features	Reference
	UAC099	Contaminated grape wine	Static culture, room temperature for 14 days	Ultrafine lattice structure, high crystal structure, high tensile strength, high oxygen barrier but low water barrier.	RANI, 2011
	ATCC 53582		Static culture, 30°C for 96h	Cellulose tapes	FANG; CATCHMARK, 2015
	ATCC23769		Static culture, 30°C for 96h		IYER et al., 2010
	ATCC1082		Static culture, room temperature for 7-14 days	Looser structure, catalytic metal precipitation ability and chemical structure mutability	EVANS et al., 2003
<i>K. rhaeticus</i>	DST GL02T	Apple juice	Static culture, 28°C for 72h		DELLAGLIO et al., 2005
	P 1463	Kombucha	Static culture, 30°C for 72h	Good physical and mechanical properties	SEMJONOV et al., 2011
<i>K. oxydans</i>	TQ-B2	Malt extract	Static culture, 28°C for 72h	Ultrafine cellulose fibrils	Jia et al., 2004
<i>K. oboediens</i>		Governor's Plum, Papaya and Watermelon	Static culture, 30°C for 14 days		HUNGUND; GUPTA, 2010

Source: LIN et al. (2020); JOZALA et al. (2016).

Table 3 – Cellulose-producing bacteria of the genus *Komagataeibacter* and their main characteristics.

Genera	Species	Source of insulation	Growth Culture Medium	Physiological characteristics	Cellulose's Role for Bacteria	References
<i>Agrobacterium</i>	<i>Agrobacterium tumefaciens</i>	Soil and plants	Mannitol Agar	Aerobics, Gram-negative	Increases the attachment of bacteria to plant cells	ZOGAJ et al., 2003
<i>Aerobacter</i>	<i>Aerobacter sp.</i>	Human intestine	Macconkey Agar	Aerobics, Gram-negative	Increase pathogenicity through biofilm production	MATTHYSSE et al., 2005
<i>Achromobacter</i>	<i>Achromobacter xylosoxidans</i>	Soil and human gastrointestinal tract	Basal salt medium (BSM)	Aerobics, Gram-negative	Increase pathogenicity through biofilm production	AUGIMERI et al., 2015
<i>Rhizobium</i>	<i>Rhizobium spp.</i>	Ground	YMA medium (Mannitol Yeast Agar)	Aerobics, Gram-negative	Increases adherence of bacteria to plant roots	BARNHART et al., 2013
<i>Komagataeibacter</i>	<i>Komagataeibacter sp.</i>	Fruits	HS medium	Aerobics, Gram-negative	Protect the cell against UV light	AL-DERESAWI et al., 2023

The reagents used to produce BC on a commercial scale is a challenge, as they have a high price, increasing production costs. An interesting strategy to increase the interest of the industry to invest in this area and increase competitiveness is the use of low-cost nutritional sources. Some co-products have been promisingly tested before, such as sugar beet molasses (KESHK et al., 2006), corn steep liquor (EL-SAIED et al., 2008), several fruit juices including orange, pineapple, apple, japanese pear, grape (KUROSUMI et al., 2009), coffee husk (RANI et al., 2011) and coconut water (KONGRUANG, 2008).

Fermentation media based on residues and by-products can reduce costs by up to 50% (VÁZQUEZ et al., 2013), not to mention that the production of BC takes an average of 14 days, the same time of production achieved in conventional fermentation media (HUNGUND; GUPTA, 2010; VÁZQUEZ et al., 2013; RANI; APPAIAH, 2013, Li et al., 2015). The challenge is to select a highly efficient alternative substrate, considering the presence of inhibitory compounds that can directly affect cellulose production. A suitable substrate will certainly draw the attention of industries that generally use glucose, peptone and yeast extract, thus, they can expand production in various fields explored. Among the fields of applications are the medical, food, technological, purification, recovering of degraded areas and water treatment (ALVES et al., 2020).

Considering that there is a great potential for the use of BC in different sectors of the industry, we address here the physiological and phylogenetic characteristics of the cellulose-producing AAB, the ideal conditions for the synthesis of this biopolymer and co-products that can be used as alternative sources of substrate to reduce costs and increase the efficiency of cellulose synthesis.

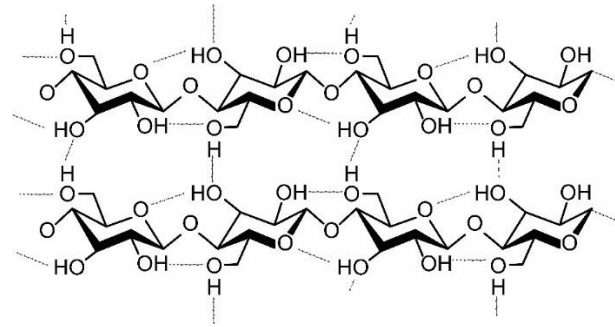
2 THEORETICAL REFERENTIAL

2.1 Why produce BC and for what?

One of the challenges of modern society is to associate economic and productive growth with environmental preservation to promote the sustainability (DA SILVA et al., 2021). Therefore, it is important to consider the idea of sustainable development (HALATI; HE, 2018), whose objective is alternative and integrated production systems that minimize waste introduced into the environment (PRIEDULENA, 2016). The use of organic material from agro-industrial by-products for the production of new compounds with high added value, primarily via fermentation, is an option that meets the 12th Objective of Sustainable Development - Responsible Consumption and Production - of the United Nations (GUNAWAN et al., 2020).

BC is considered a biodegradable material and agro-industrial residues can be used as a fermentation medium for the production of this biopolymer (ALVES et al., 2020). In addition, its structural properties draw attention, such as, a three-dimensional network organized in nanofibrils ranging from 2 to 4 nm in width that is composed of 1.5-nm subfibrils and may contain simple polymer chains ranging from 1 to 9 nm in length, equivalent to 2000 to 20,000 glucose units structured in nanoribbons (TABUCHI, 2007; CACICEDO et al., 2016). The BC has a typical molecular model because it is composed of linear polymers ordered by anhydroglucose and three hydroxyl groups (ROSS et al., 1991; NISHIYAMA et al., 2003). Through this arrangement, hydrogen bonds (indicated by the thick lines) and Van der Waals forces form a glycosidic torsion angle mainly composed of the I α -type crystalline phase, composing the BC morphology (NISHIYAMA et al., 2003; CHEN WS et al., 2018; ZHONG, 2020). (FIGURE 2).

Figure 2 – Bacterial cellulose: molecular structure



Subtitle: Thick lines indicate hydrogen bonds.

Source: POGORELOVA (2020).

The structural characteristics of cellulose allow that this biopolymer synthesized via microbial fermentation has great potential and can be used in multiple applications (TABLE 4).

Table 4 – Bacterial cellulose application areas.

Application areas	Application Form	Reference
Electronic	Acoustic diaphragms for headphones and speakers. Opto-electronic materials (liquid crystal display, OLED support).	CZAJA et al., 2007; DONINI, 2011
Medical	Synthesis of artificial blood vessels (BASIC® - Synthesized Bacterial Cellulose), as dressings in the healing of burn patients, and components of dental implants.	ULLAH et al., 2016, DONINI, 2011
Bioremediation	Can be applied on soils contaminated with heavy metals, organic solvents, and oil.	WANG et al., 2019
Foods	Food packaging, use of cellulose as candy (nata de coco).	ZHU et al, 2010
Paper industry	Using cellulose to make paper instead of using wood.	DONINI, 2011
Textile industry	Clothing and shoes made from bacterial cellulose.	DONINI, 2011

In electronic equipment such as loudspeakers (HOENICH, 2006; CZAJA et al., 2007). Whereas BC-based capacitors can deliver a maximum power of up to 390.53 kW/kg, which is higher than traditional graphene capacitors (power approximately 250 kW/kg) (CHEN et al., 2013). BC can also be applied in manufacturing dressings for burn patients (SULAEVA et al., 2015). Comparative studies between cellulose-based and Vaseline-based dressings (xeroform gauze) for the treatment of diabetic foot showed that cure with BC took 32 days, while cure with xeroform gauze took 48 days, the wound healed closed 1.7 times faster when using BC (SOLWAY et al., 2011; SULAEVA et al., 2015).

BC can be applied to soils contaminated with heavy metals (REZAEI et al., 2005). Mercury contamination, for example, originates from several sources: industry, petrochemicals, mining, fertilizers and others (MANOHAR et al., 2002). Mercury is toxic to human health and can cause neurological problems and kidney disorders (CYR et al., 2002). Mercury removal from contaminated water is imperative and several types of technologies are used for this, such as chemical precipitation, conventional coagulation and reverse osmosis (REZAEI et al., 2005), all requiring substantial economic resources.

The ability of BC to remove mercury in contaminated soils has drawn attention, because when using it, the biomaterial was able to remove $65 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ of mercury in 15 ml of effluent, while synthetic coagulation removed $80 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ of mercury (REZAEI et al., 2005). Although BC removes less mercury, the efficiency of BC in the adsorption of lead and other metals, such as manganese (Mn^{2+}) and chromium (Cr^{3+}), can be increased when BC is enriched with iron (Fe_3O_4). The efficiency increases because Fe_3O_4 forms hydrogen bonds with the hydroxyl groups present in the cellulose nanofiber (YAMANAKA; SUGIYAMA 2000; ZHU et al., 2011). Therefore, BC appears as a suitable alternative for the treatment of waters contaminated with cationic metals.

BC has been the subject of numerous researches in the cosmetic area, because the industry seeks to invest in innovations, concerned with the market, combining quality and reduction of environmental pollutants (GALLEGOS et al., 2016). This material has high compatibility with the human epidermis, high water retention, permeability and may have a whitening effect (RAJWADE et al., 2015). Research indicates that its use increased skin hydration by 76 %, which increases the industry's interest in investing in this area (PACHECO et al., 2018).

The *Nata de coco* is the main form of commercialization of BC. The price per ton varies from US\$ 200 to US\$ 1.000 depending on the quality of the product (UL-ISLAM et al., 2020). The main producers of *nata de coco* are Asian countries and the United States, which together produce 78.6 tons of BC (UL-ISLAM et al., 2020). The market in the use of BC is promising and is on the rise, it is estimated that the global BC market is worth US\$ 451.1 million in 2021 and by 2028 the forecast is US\$ 1.044.9 million, an average growth of 12.7% being driven mainly in the food sector (BUSINESS RESEARCH, 2023). Most areas of BC application are in the study phase, are not available for commercialization, and need to be improved in order to be commercialized.

2.2 Acetic acid-producing bacteria and the importance of cellulose synthesis

In 1886, Adrian Brown reported the presence of a solid mass on the surface of a fermentation medium when cultivating *Bacterium acetium*, which is known as “vinegar plant” or “mother” because it was used in the production of vinegar. The confirmation that this was a cellulose biopolymer only came in 1931, when Hibbert and Barsha accurately determined the chemical composition and structural properties for the chemical reaction of cellulose hydrolysis with hydrochloric acid and zinc chloride to produce glucose, which is the basis of the composition of BC.

The genus *Komagataeibacter* is the most promising for cellulose production, including *K. xylinus*, *K. hansenii*, *K. swingsii* and *K. rhaeticus*, all gram-negative bacilli obligate aerobes belonging to the family Acetobacteraceae (YAMADA et al., 1997). The genus *Komagataeibacter* is commonly found in decaying fruits and vegetables. Its metabolic capacity to oxidize sugars and alcohols plays a major role in decomposition processes (AYDIN; AKSOY, 2014).

The yield of BC by *Komagataeibacter* sp. can vary from 1.0 to 4.0% (w/v), depending on the fermentation medium (MATHUR et al., 2015). For example, in a medium modified by pretreatment with orange husk, the BC yield was 4.2-6.32 times higher than in the conventional HS medium (Hestrin Schramm) (KUO et al., 2019). HS medium comprises glucose 20 g L⁻¹, meat peptone 5 g L⁻¹, yeast extract 5 g L⁻¹, dibasic sodium phosphate (Na₂HPO₄) 2.7 g L⁻¹, citric acid 1.15 g L⁻¹ and bacteriological agar 15 g L⁻¹ (HESTRIN; SCHRAMM, 1954). Another tested medium was cashew juice and soybean molasses, which obtained 4.50 g L⁻¹ of BC, in the standard HS medium (control) the yield was lower, 4.03 g L⁻¹ was obtained (SOUZA et al. (2020), representing a yield increase of 11%. The use of fermentative medium based on distiller’s grain enzymatic hydrolysate (DEH) also yielded 3.72 times the BC than HS medium (control) using the same bacterial species, *K. xylinus* (HE et al. 2020).

The synthesis of BC may provide some physiological advantages to the bacteria producing it. One of the most common explanations for this process is that biofilms are formed due to decreased habitat quality, resource depletion, or increased competition between cells present in the environment (SCHLEHECK et al., 2009). For example, changes in nutrient concentrations, temperature, oxygen depletion and high or low levels of iron (MCDUGALD et al., 2012). Cells produce cellulose mainly when they are in the stationary phase, indicating the presence of resource limitations (HENTZER et al., 2005). Biofilms are produced in response to the stress to prevent attack by protozoa and bacteriophages, which are responsible for bacterial death. Dispersion in different environments is also facilitated by biofilm production.

One of the main functions of cellulose is to protect bacterial cells against antimicrobial compounds, limiting their diffusion and, consequently, increasing the resistance of cells to antibiotics, in addition to protecting them against washing by liquid flow when present on surfaces and facilitating the exchange of DNA by conjugation (GULLO et al., 2018). Thus, biofilms enable bacteria to colonize a range of habitats, thereby significantly dispersing themselves in the environment (MCDOUGALD et al., 2012).

2.3 Physicochemical factors

The production of cellulose is a transient characteristic of activated species in environmental situations that threaten their survival (RYNGAJŁŁO ET AL., 2020), determined by such factors as the nutrient sources in the culture medium, oxygen rate, pH, whether the culture is static or agitated (WANG et al., 2019) and the bacterial strain used.

2.3.1 pH

The ideal pH range for BC production depends on the strain used but is between 4 and 7 (LEE et al., 2014). Organic acids such as glycolic, acetic and lactic acids, derived from the secondary metabolism of sugars and nitrogen, decrease the pH of the medium, depending on its composition; therefore, it is important to use a buffer solution to avoid sudden differences in the pH of the culture medium (LEE et al., 2014; WANG et al., 2019), as well as the excretion of products, that alkalize it (VELÁSQUEZ – RIAÑO; BOJACÁ, 2017). The pH of the fermentation medium should be controlled because the production of BC can be interrupted at pH values below 4 (KOIZUMI et al., 2008). One option is the use of buffer solutions based on acetic acid (H_3CCOOH) and sodium acetate salt ($H_3CCOONa$) or ammonium hydroxide (NH_4OH) and ammonium chloride salt (NH_4Cl) that maintain the pH around 5, considered ideal.

2.3.2 Temperature

Temperature is one more important factor influencing cell growth and, therefore, cellulose production. AABs are mesophilic, so the temperature should not exceed 45 °C and optimal growth and performance is achieved in the range of 28 to 30 °C (FERNANDES et al., 2020). Temperature above 45 °C can negatively affect cell physiology, such as denaturation of

nucleic acids and proteins (COSTA et al., 2017). The ideal temperature for BC production is species-dependent. For example, 30 °C is the ideal temperature for *K. xylinus* B-12068 (WATSON et al., 2016), while for *Acetobacter xylinum*, 23-30 °C is the best temperature range for growth, without affecting cellulose production (COSTA et al., 2017). When *Komagataeibacter* sp. was tested in a wide range of temperatures (20 - 45 °C), the highest cellulose production occurred between 28-30 °C (1.99 – 2.31 g L⁻¹), whereas decreased production and complete inhibition occurred between 40 - 45 °C (RANI; APPAIAH, 2013).

2.3.3 Oxygenation

All cellulose-producing species are obligate aerobic and it is important to increase the contact surface between cells and atmospheric oxygen, being more significant under static growth. AABs produce a cellulose mesh at the air-liquid interface to allow oxygen to more easily come into the cell (COSTA et al., 2017). BC production in batch cultures achieves its maximum concentration 7 - 14 days in average, depending on the strain and the fermentation medium (COSTA et al., 2017). With the extension of the cellulose mesh, oxygen access to the culture medium is interrupted and thus decreases or hinders the active growth of the bacteria, being considered bad for cell multiplication (RUKA et al., 2012).

2.3.4 Nutritional factors

The nutrients for growth and microbial metabolism come from the natural or synthetic sources. In fermentative biotechnological processes, nutrients are artificially supplied in the culture media or must. The wort broth has adequate sources of macro- and micronutrients in addition to growth factors. For example, carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, phosphorus and sulfur are essential in synthesizing carbohydrates, lipids, proteins and nucleic acids. Micronutrients such as manganese, zinc, cobalt, molybdenum, nickel and copper assist in synthesizing enzymes and act as enzymatic cofactors (SPEROTTO et al., 2021). Cell metabolism and microbial growth depend directly on the composition of the growth medium (KIM; KIM, 2017).

The average yield of BC can be increased by replenishing nutrients throughout the cultivation in batch operations fed with the addition of a nutrient medium throughout the fermentation process (KLEMAN et al., 1991). An alternative for conducting the fermentation

process is the continuous system, which differs from the batch and fed-batch systems, in which substrate is added and the product is removed constantly (BRETHAUER; WYMAN, 2010).

The continuous system offers higher production and productivity in some processes, but this is not observed for BC. Bae and Shoda, 2004 tested the continuous and discontinuous fermentation system using molasses as a source of nutrients for the growth of the *Acetobacter xylinum* BPR2001 strain. In the continuous system the bacteria were fed continuously at a flow rate of 25 mL h⁻¹ of molasses for 40 h, in this system the cell number and the production of bacterial cellulose stabilized. This occurred because at a high concentration of molasses, the lag phase is prolonged and cell growth becomes slower (BAE; SHODA, 2004).

In the batch system, different volumes of molasses were added during the fermentation process (0.5 L of molasses was supplied four times), changing the sugar concentration at each feeding. This technique was able to increase the concentration of BC, increasing the number of bacterial cells and concentration of polysaccharide (BAE; SHODA, 2004).

These results showed that the addition of low concentrations of sugar in the molasses medium it is possible to obtain optimal cell growth and effective BC productivity. In the continuous system, the yield was 0.033 g L⁻¹ day⁻¹ in dry weight of BC, while in the discontinuous system, the production reached values 0.058 g L⁻¹ day⁻¹ in dry weight (BAE; SHODA, 2004).

The semi-continuous system is also a viable alternative, as this method is based on average replenishment with exact proportions of nutrients and with a given time (AYTEKIN et al., 2016). The replenishment period can be predetermined by the carbohydrate used or by the growth time of the microorganism, increasing the biomass retention period, thus offering sufficient time to produce new generations of bacteria (HUANG et al., 2015). With this, it is possible to achieve greater yield and productivity of BC (AYTEKIN et al., 2016).

Glucose is the carbon source used on a laboratory scale for cellulose production by *K. xylinus*. However, this species can assimilate other monosaccharides, oligosaccharides, starch, alcohol and organic acids (HESTRIN; SCHRAMM, 1954), so glucose can be replaced, which might support the constant search for low-cost substrates to enable the production of BC (TSOUKO et al., 2015). The use of plant biomass hydrolysates such as corn cobs, cotton-based textile waste (HONG et al. 2012), corn starch (AL-ABDALLAH; DAHMAN, 2013), sweet potato pulp (SHIGEMATSU et al. 2005), molasses (KHATTAK et al. 2015), fruit juices (coconut, pineapple) (BUDHIONO et al. 1999), are some examples of unconventional substrates that can be used.

There is research aimed at the production of mannitol for use in the food, pharmaceutical, medical and chemical industries. Using it as a substrate for microbial growth instead of glucose is an alternative. During mannitol metabolism, conversion to fructose occurs by the enzyme D-mannitol dehydrogenase which is then converted into glucose, which follows the metabolic pathway of BC production (RAGHAVENDRAN et al., 2020). Glucose undergoes isomerization into glucose-6-phosphate and then UDP-glucose is synthesized, which generates BC by the action of cellulose synthase (OIKAWA et al., 1997, WANG et al., 2019).

Other glucose substitutes can be agro-industrial by-products and residues. Such substitution can increase cellulose production, as they are chemically complex substrates. Studies carried out by Castro et al. (2011) studied the morphology and structure of BC fermented in an alternative substrate (pineapple peel) using the bacterial species *K. xylinus* (PTCC, 1734). The production reached 2.8 g L⁻¹ of cellulose and in the standard synthetic medium HS produced 2.1 g L⁻¹ of cellulose (CASTRO et al., 2011). Despite the apparently small difference, the use of unconventional substrate becomes viable on a production scale of thousands of liters as it provides lower production costs. It should also be considered that the positive impact of the use of agricultural residues/co-products reduces the volume of residues deposited in the environment. In addition, the morphological characteristics of the BC fibers were similar in both conventional and non-conventional media.

Another example of a substitute substrate is low quality date syrup. Studies revealed that *K. xylinus* (PTCC, 1734) was used to produce BC in two culture media (date syrup and sucrose solution), whose production of BC was approximately 2.5 times higher (4.35 g ml⁻¹ in a medium based on date syrup) than in a medium based on sucrose (1.69 ml⁻¹) (MOOSAVI-NASAB, YOUSEFI, 2011). Other fruit-based sources, such as melon, pomegranate, watermelon, tomato, oranges, molasses, corn steep liquor, sugarcane juice, coconut water and coconut milk, are alternatives for production. The bacterium *Gluconacetobacter persimmonis* was examined in various unconventional (pineapple, pomegranate, melon, watermelon, tomato, orange and others) and conventional (glucose, fructose, sucrose and others) media. Melon residue afforded a yield of 8.08 g L⁻¹ cellulose and when fructose was used as the carbohydrate source base, the production was 5.56 g L⁻¹ (HUNGUND et al., 2013). Other by-products, such as glycerol and grape pomace, along with corn steep liquor were tested using the species *K. xylinus*. The carbon sources proved suitable for use as a carbon source and provided yields of 10 g L⁻¹ and 8 g L⁻¹ of BC, representing 155% more cellulose than in conventional HS medium, in addition to morphological characteristics similar to those obtained in conventional carbon sources (VÁZQUEZ et al., 2013).

Molasses is another alternative as it has readily available sugars such as glucose, fructose and sucrose. It is also a source of nitrogen and vitamins, representing a low-cost alternative for the production of BC (TYAGI, SURESH, 2016). The strain *Gluconacetobacter intermedius* SNT-1 under static condition was grown in HS culture medium replacing the carbon source with glucose, fructose, sucrose and molasses. The highest production of BC was observed in the molasses-based medium (22.9 g L⁻¹), while the HS medium combined with glucose produced 6.75 g L⁻¹. There is an excellent opportunity to investigate alternative sources of nutrients to raise the production of BC at a lower cost.

2.4 Metabolic pathway of BC synthesis

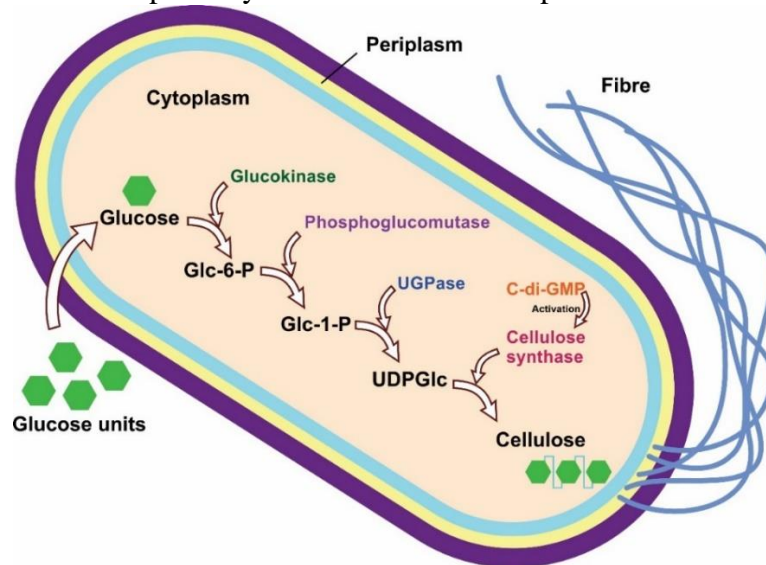
The citric acid cycle (Krebs) or pentose-phosphate cycle are metabolic pathways involved in producing cellulose by *K. xylinus* and gluconeogenesis and depend on the carbon source used (LEE et al., 2014; RAGHAVENDRAN et al., 2020). When glucose is available as a substrate, it is usually intended to produce cellulose. The availability of ethanol and acetate, the route to be followed is the Krebs cycle via acetyl phosphate, and when oxaloacetate via pyruvate enters the cell, gluconeogenesis occurs (RAGHAVENDRAN et al., 2020; OIKAWA et al., 1997).

Several metabolic routes can produce BC in the cell, depending on the initial carbon source. If acetate, lipids, or proteins are the carbon source, the Krebs cycle initiates the metabolic pathway (LEE et al., 2014). When glucose is used, oxidation occurs through the pentose-phosphate cycle (RYNGAJŁŁO et al., 2019). Glucose is transported into the cell through the phosphoenolpyruvate-dependent sugar phosphotransferase system, dependent on the gradient of protons or cations, or by ABC transporters activated by ATP (JAHREIS et al., 2008). From the entry of glucose into the intracellular medium, depending on the physiological state of the cell, there is: i) glucose phosphorylation by glucokinase; ii) isomerization of glucose-6-phosphate into glucose-1-phosphate by phosphoglucomutase; iii) UDP-glucose synthesis by UDPG-pyrophosphorylase (UGPase) and; iv) the cellulose synthesis reaction controlled by the enzyme cellulose synthase (LEE et al., 2014).

UDP-glucose is commonly found in microorganisms that synthesize cellulose and UGPase is approximately 100 times more active in strains of cellulose-producing bacteria than in others (LEE et al., 2014) (FIGURE 3). *Komagataeibacter* has two types of operons, *bcsI* (type I), comprising four types of genes (*bcsAI*, *bcsBI*, *bcsCI* and *bcsDI*). This operon is flanked

by the accessory genes *cmcAx*, *ccpAx* and *bglAx*, which modulate the BC synthesis process (RÖMLING; GALPERIN, 2015). The second operon, *bcsII* (type II), is responsible for the production of acylated cellulose, i.e., it is the substitution of hydroxyl groups by acetate and this action is catalyzed by the enzyme acetyltransferase present in its structure (UMEDA et al., 1999).

Figure 3 – Metabolic pathway of bacterial cellulose production in the cell.



Source: from the author (2023).

When disaccharides are used as the carbon source (sucrose and maltose), they should be initially hydrolyzed into monosaccharides (glucose and fructose) and then proceed to the four steps for cellulose synthesis as previously reported (FERREIRA et al., 2009).

The synthesis of BC also involves the presence of an acid called cyclic diguanylic acid (c-di-GMA), an allosteric activator of the cellulose synthase enzyme. In the absence of this acid, the enzyme responsible for giving rise to cellulose, cellulose synthase, remains inactive or nearly so (ROSS et al., 1990; ROSS et al., 1991). In bacterial cells, c-di-GMA is bound to this enzyme or is free in the cytoplasm (ROSS et al., 1990; ROSS et al., 1991; TONOUCI et al., 1996; WEINHOUSE et al., 1997). Cellulose monomers should initially be synthesized inside the bacterial cell, but BC is assembled extracellularly since their size exceeds the transport capacity through the membrane (DE LEY et al., 1984).

Activation of the cellulose synthase enzyme occurs post-translationally and is mediated by *bis*-(3',5')-cyclic dimeric guanosine monophosphate (c-di-GMP) (Tal et al., 1998). The *bcsA* gene is interconnected with the PiLZ domain and activated allosterically (Römling et al., 2013).

The compound c-di-GMP is controlled at the cellular level by diguanylate cyclases (DGCs) and c-di-GMP-specific phosphodiesterases (TAL et al., 1998; RÖMLING, 2012).

It is important to understand the different metabolic pathways of bacteria depending on the substrate used in order to obtain better yields during the production of BC.

2.5 Alternative substrates for BC production

As mentioned earlier, one of the obstacles to producing BC on a large scale is the cost of the fermentation medium, which represents in average 50% of the total cellulose production cost (RIVAS et al., 2004; VÁZQUEZ et al., 2013). The alternative to lower the production costs is to use substrates that do not affect productivity (TYAGI; SURESH, 2016). Several replacement possibilities can be tested: residues from fruit processing, glycerol, coffee husk and wastewater from sweets processing (HUNGUND; GUPTA, 2010; VÁZQUEZ et al., 2013; RANI; APPAIAH, 2013; LI et al., 2015). Important examples of waste from commodity-producing countries used as substrates for BC production are described in this section.

2.5.1 Glycerol

Glycerol or 1,2,3-propanetriol, also called glycerin, results from biodiesel production (WANG et al., 2001). Biodiesel is synthesized through the transesterification of fatty acids, together with a solvent, methanol or ethanol, in the presence of a catalyst that can be an acid or a base and will depend on the raw material used, such as vegetable oil, animal fat and kitchen oil (MAHABIR et al., 2021; HAMZA et al., 2021). The by-product generated during the production of biodiesel is crude glycerol, which represents 10% of the total biodiesel weight produced and can be classified into three categories: crude, purified and refined and commercially synthesized glycerol (MAUERWERK et al., 2020). In general, purified glycerol is of greater interest to industries than crude glycerol, so unrefined glycerol has become an environmental problem (LEONETI et al., 2012).

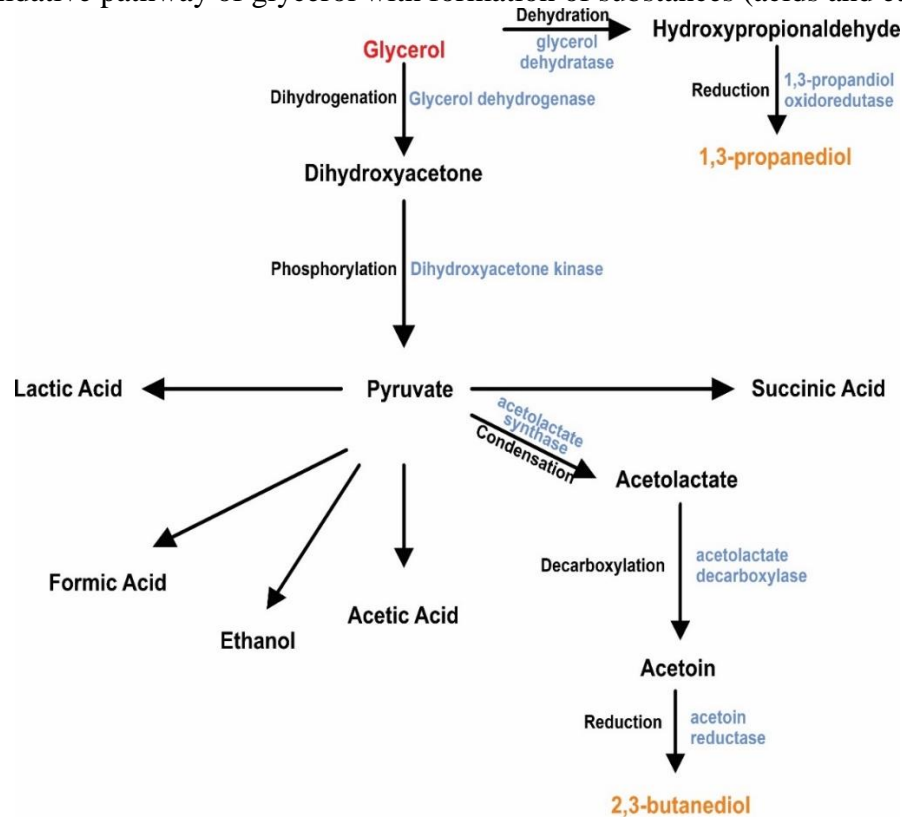
Crude glycerol has impurities such as water, methanol and fatty acids (Wang et al., 2001). Chemically, glycerol is simple alcohol made of 13% water, 7% methanol, 30% fatty acids and 50% carbohydrates (VERUSSA et al., 2017). Can be used in the cosmetic, pharmaceutical, food and automotive industries and as a raw material in the composition of chemical products (WANG et al., 2001). Enough glycerol is generated to be used as a substrate in industrial fermentations. Biodiesel production has increased worldwide, intending to replace

fossil fuels. In 2019, 53.5×10^9 t of biodiesel was produced, 13% more than in the previous year (AZADBAKHT et al., 2021), which proportionally increases glycerol generation. Crude glycerol is considered a highly relevant co-product that can be used in the fermentation medium for aerobic and anaerobic microorganisms such as bacteria and yeasts. As also to produce BC and can be purchased at a low cost (TANI; YAMADA, 1987; LAGES et al., 1999; CHENG et al., 2007). When using glycerol as a carbon source for cellulose synthesis, microorganisms must be able to synthesize hexoses via gluconeogenesis (FIGURE 4).

In recent years, the demand for alternative media has increased and the use of glycerol has been investigated as a carbon source by MIKKELSEN et al. (2009) and VÁZQUEZ et al. (2013). The nutritional source made up of glycerol, remaining from biodiesel production and corn steep liquor offered nutrients (carbon and nitrogen) required for the bacteria *K. xylinus* to produce 10.0 g L^{-1} BC, while in the HS medium (control), the production was 2.0 g/L BC (VÁZQUEZ et al., 2013). HS culture medium supplemented with glycerol, glucose, mannitol, or fructose was used for the cultivation of *K. xylinus* strain ATCC 53524, the strain was able to grow and produce BC in all carbon sources tested. However, the one with the highest yield was the glycerol medium (3.75 g L^{-1}), followed by glucose (3.33 g L^{-1}) and mannitol and fructose (both with yields lower than 2.5 g L^{-1}) (MIKKELSEN et al., 2009).

The catabolic pathway of glycerol oxidation (FIGURE 4) starts with dihydroxyacetone formation by glycerol dehydrogenase, phosphorylation and the formation of dihydroxyacetone phosphate by the action of ATP-dependent dihydroxyacetone kinase (PARATE et al., 2018). Dihydroxyacetone phosphate (FIGURE 4) is considered an intermediate and essential molecule for gluconeogenesis.

Figure 4 – Oxidative pathway of glycerol with formation of substances (acids and ethanol).



Subtitle: Entry of substrate into the cell (in red), Enzymes involved in the metabolism (in blue), produced substrates (in orange).

Source: from the author (2023).

2.5.2 Coffee

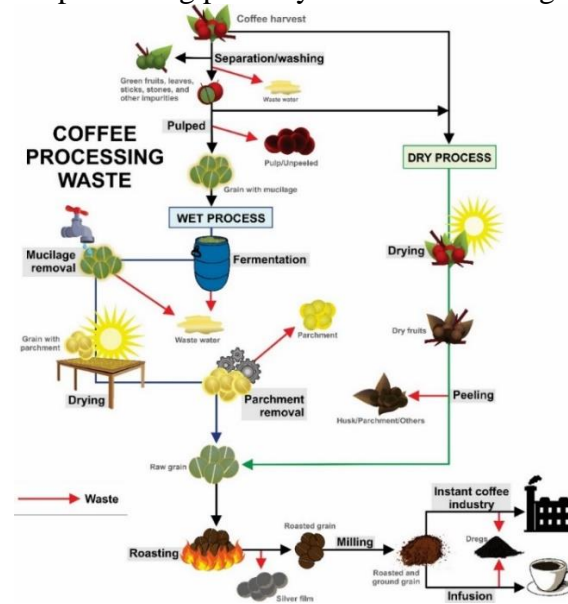
O Coffee originated from South Asia or Africa and is currently grown in several countries, such as Ethiopia, Mexico, Colombia, Brazil, India and Indonesia (United States Department of Agriculture – USDA, 2021), so there are many opportunities to use its waste in different parts of the globe (HEIMBACH et al., 2010). There are different species of *Coffea*, but the two most commercialized are *Coffea arabica* and *Coffea canephora*. Each species has distinct characteristics, such as the levels of caffeine, chlorogenic acids, sucrose, lipids, proteins and volatiles in its beans (BERTRAND et al., 2012, FARAH et al., 2006, BORÉM et al., 2016).

Coffee processing generates waste from harvest to commercialization. At harvest, the pulp, husk and leaves of the plant are the primary residues released during fruit processing (DESAI, 2020), in which three pathways can be followed (FIGURE 5): i) the dry method, in which the fruits are dried whole, keeping intact the exocarp, mesocarp, endocarp and seed of the fruit. Upon reaching a moisture content of 11%, it is called coconut or natural coffee and it is in the processing that residues such as husk and parchment are generated (MURTHY et al.,

2009); ii) the wet process, where the pulp and mucilage of the fruits are mechanically removed and the seeds are put in tanks with a large volume of water, where the fermentation process occurs. The fermented water generated is usually discarded in the environment (VILELA et al., 2010, HE et al., 2020). After roasting the beans, coffee beverages can be prepared, for which coffee grounds are generated (DELGADO et al., 2019).

The solid waste generated during processing consists mainly of the husk and pulp (FIGURE 5), which together make up a nutrient-rich substrate (containing sucrose, glucose, fructose, citric acid, malic acid and succinic acid) and can be used as a carbon source during microbial growth (SILVA, 2014). When improperly discarded, they can pollute the water and soil (ESQUIVEL; JIMÉNEZ, 2012). Most co-products generated during coffee processing are reused as organic fertilizer (DA GRAÇA; CALDAS, 2017; CORRÊA et al., 2021). The coffee bean is separated from the husk, silver skin and parchment during processing. These residues have low moisture content (9 – 16 %), high lignin content (27 – 43 %) and high energy (18 - 19 MJ kg⁻¹) (MARTINEZ et al., 2019). Therefore, they have favorable characteristics for burning in furnaces to roast the grain (DA GRAÇA; CALDAS, 2017). Among the parts that make up the fruit, 30 - 50 % is discarded after processing (OLIVEIRA et al., 2008), so an appropriate destination for such waste is important and mandatory task for the industry (TOSCHI et al., 2014). The reuse of waste is usually attractive when it has profitable use since it has a low economic value and does not compete with human food (BONILLA-HERMOSA et al., 2014).

Figure 5 – Coffee processing pathways and main waste generated.



Source: DURÁN et al. (2017).

The coffee husk is rich in glucose (15 %), fructose (10 %) and sucrose (5 %), supporting the growth of AAB (GOUVEA et al., 2009) but being one of the most highly generated residues that bring a risk to the environment due to the presence of phenolic compounds (approximately 9 %) and flavonoids (CALVERT, 1997). Which cause toxicity that inhibits root and plant growth and contributes to the increase in greenhouse gases during its decomposition (SHEMEKITE et al., 2014). The inadequate disposal of coffee husks also affects water resources (GOUVEA et al., 2009). Microorganisms present in water resources, when using organic substances present in the bark and oxygen dissolved in water, create anaerobic conditions that negatively affect macro-and micro aquatic species, in addition to causing a repulsive odor.

Coffee pulp, also considered an agricultural byproduct produced in high amounts, mainly resulting from the wet processing of coffee beans, represents a risk of pollution when improperly disposed of (OROZCO et al., 2008). The pulp consists of 50 % carbohydrate, 10 % protein, 2.5 % fat and 18 % fiber. This composition has drawn the attention of companies that have promoted its use in biological processes such as fermentation (OROZCO et al., 2008). This nutritional composition emphasizes that its use can be used as a substrate in culture media for the production of BC.

Despite the anti-nutritional factors usually mentioned as difficulties in using the husk and pulp for microbial growth, coffee husk (7 %) and pulp (50 %) have enough carbohydrate levels to be used in bioprocesses (SARATALE et al., 2020).

2.5.3 Milhocine (corn steep liquor)

The fermentation industry is constantly on the rise and the production of corn steep liquor (CSL) occurs from the corn fermentation. The surplus of this fermentation is CSL, considered a great raw material with high nutritional value and which has high concentrations of nitrogen that can be used as an alternative medium in the fermentation of microorganisms (XIAO et al., 2013).

CSL can be used as a substrate in the production of some substances such as glutamic acid, penicillin, lactic acid, hyaluronic acid and others (NASCIMENTO et al., 2009). During the fermentation process, CSL can be used as a nutritional supplement because it is rich in proteins and vitamins (NASCIMENTO et al., 2009).

CSL is basically composed of reducing sugars, minerals, vitamins, carbohydrates, organic acids and amino acids. 17 marker compounds were determined as composing CSL (GAO; YUAN, 2011). Among such compounds are lactic acid, glycolic acid, urea, glycine, proline, aspartate, cysteine, alanine, xylitol, fructose, glucose, among other compounds (GAO; YUAN, 2011). Geographic differences, harvest time, type of processing used, cultivar and others factors can interfere with the composition. Overall, CSL is composed of 40% dry weight, 40% crude protein and an average of 14% acidity (GAO; YUAN, 2011).

Fermentation media generally need to be supplemented with commercial reagents when the base is some type of co-product, so it is possible to supply the nutritional deficiencies of the residue used (MARTINEZ-BURGOS et al., 2021). The most used supplements are carbon sources such as glucose and sucrose (SYDNEY et al., 2014), minerals such as iron, magnesium and nickel and amino acids such as methionine, alanine, histidine (HOFER et al., 2018). One strategy to avoid the use of commercial supplements is to mix different types of co-products that have complementary composition (MARTINEZ-BURGOS et al., 2021). CSL can be used as a supplement in fermentation media, as in addition to being a rich source of nutrients, it is a low-cost source of carbon, nitrogen, amino acids and vitamins and is indicated for use in bioprocess development (HOFER et al., 2018). In addition to minimizing the effect of environmental pollution that is considered arising and increasing.

The use of CSL and molasses was investigated using *Acetobacter* sp. V6 as a supplement in fermentation medium under agitation and showed promising results. The strain synthesized 3.12 g L⁻¹ (+/- 0.03) of bacterial cellulose, while in conventional media it produced twice less (JUNG et al., 2010). As a characteristic, bacterial cellulose produced in the alternative medium presented higher crystallinity (83.04 %) compared to the conventional medium (67.27

%) (JUNG et al., 2010). When comparing the production of BC in the HS medium and in the medium plus CSL, promising results were observed. The mixture of 2.5 % CSL and 1.5 % glucose produced 73 % more cellulose than in the HS medium (COSTA et al., 2017). These results demonstrate that bacterial cellulose can be satisfactorily produced in a fermentation medium supplemented with CSL.

2.5.4 By-products such as fruit and vegetable scraps

Uma One way to reduce BC production costs is to use inexpensive and readily available substrates. In Egypt, for example, beet is used to produce most of the sugar consumed in the country and beet molasses, which is the by-product generated, corresponds to about 5.5 %. Therefore, it is estimated that the production of 250 thousand tons of beet sugar generates about 15 thousand tons of beet molasses (KESHK et al., 2006). Molasses contains about 50 % sugar, 12.8 % protein and 2.05 % nitrogen, which represents an important low-cost, renewable nutritional source for BC production (KESHK et al., 2006). Thus, this co-product was used as a carbohydrate source in the HS medium by the strain *G. xylinus* ATCC 10245, the results showed that in the medium based on beet molasses the production was 1.75g of BC and in the control medium the glucose base production was 1.34g (KESHK et al., 2006). Through this study, it was possible to observe that molasses can be used as a base of fermentation medium for the production of cellulose (KESHK et al., 2006).

Fruits in general are consumed *in natura*, but when they are damaged or of a non-standard size, they are usually destined to be processed to make jellies and sauces, for example. When the fruits cannot be destined for this purpose, they are usually discarded, which leads to waste. However, these fruits have high levels of carbohydrates such as glucose and fructose and can be used in bioprocesses (KUROSUMI et al., 2009). As an example, bacteria of the genus *Komagataeybacter* can assimilate these types of sugars and produce cellulose (ADEJOYE et al., 2006).

Fruit juices such as oranges, pineapples, apples, Japanese pears and grapes have already been tested as a fermentation medium and have glucose, fructose and sucrose in their composition mainly and with concentrations of up to 4.2 %, 5.9 % and 4.9 % of these types of sugars respectively (KUROSUMI et al., 2009).

The bacterial strain *Acetobacter xylinum* NBRC 13693 was examined for the production of bac- cellulose in various fruit juices (orange, pineapple, apple, Japanese pear and grape). Fermentation medium based on orange juice (5.9 g L⁻¹ of BC) and pineapple juice (4.1 g L⁻¹ of

BC) showed superior results compared to other fruits, because these fruits have nitrogen sources such as proteins and higher amino acids than the others (KUROSUMI et al., 2009). Apple juice when added to a nitrogen source produced 19.5 times more cellulose than in the medium with apple juice alone. Thus, the use of fruit juices are promising alternatives for the production of bacterial cellulose (KUROSUMI et al., 2009).

2.6 Analysis of production cost

Conventional media based on glucose, fructose and sucrose are widely used in the production of BC, especially at the laboratory level. However, they increase the production cost and limit industrial gains (JOZALA et al., 2016). The production of BC using conventional media such as HS, GYC (glucose yeast extract and calcium carbonate) and mannitol can cost an average of US\$ 427.86 for the preparation of up to 25 L of fermentation medium with an average production of 4.0 g L⁻¹ BC, that is, US\$ 4.17 g⁻¹. Conversely, when alternative media are used, the costs can be reduced by up to 76 %, i.e., US\$ 104.65 (TABLE 5) for an average of 4.5 g L⁻¹ BC (glycerol) or 4.3 g L⁻¹ BC (coffee husk), that is, US\$ 1.05 g⁻¹. The cost analysis presented in TABLE 5 shows the economic importance of identifying a culture medium with lower cost, which can bring high-cost savings.

The choice of the alternative source must take into account, in addition to the cost, the yield obtained. Furthermore, there must be a carbon source compatible with the metabolic production pathway and minimal presence of inhibitory compounds that can lead to decreased efficiency of cellulose production. Therefore, it is important to test different strains of AAB and physicochemically characterize the residues/coproducts to evaluate the chemical variations and predict which corrective actions could avoid interference with production to maintain quality and decrease costs.

Table 5 – Cost analysis of conventional and alternative culture medium for microbial growth.

Conventional Culture Media		
	Composition (500g)	Cost (U\$)
HS (Hestrin; Schramm)	Glucose	7.75
	Peptone	104.65
	Yeast extract	83.33
	Dibasic Sodium Phosphate	6.93
	Citric acid	231.97
Total		434.65
Mannitol	D-mannitol	17.44
	Peptone	104.65
	Yeast extract	83.33
Total		205.42
Alternative Culture Media		
Coffee husk	Coffee husk	0.0
	Peptone	104.65
	Corn Steep liquor	0.0
	Glucose	5.45
Total		110.1
Crude glycerol	Crude glycerol	0.0
	Peptone	104.65
	Corn Steep liquor	0.0
Total	Total	104.65

Source: from the author (2023).

2.7 Commercial and industrial applications

BC has been widely used in the medical field as a dressing in patients who have suffered burns. This use is possible because this material is considered nontoxic, biodegradable, biocompatible and has high purity, allowing its direct use and being a highly elastic, flexible and resistant material (HU et al., 2014; PICHETH et al., 2017). BC has excellent mechanical and physical properties and has a 3D structure that differs from plant cellulose since BC fibrils aggregate to form a nanostructured network, providing these superior characteristics (PICHETH et al., 2017).

The intrinsic characteristics of BC contribute to its use in various industrial and commercial sectors, such as in the manufacture of sustainable clothing (COSTA et al., 2017), the production of biodegradable packaging (AZEVEDO et al., 2019) such as artificial blood vessels (KLEMM et al., 2001) and the synthesis of drugs and cosmetics (DE AMORIM et al., 2020).

In the food industry, this material can be used in packaging, providing an efficient barrier that protects the food, ensures its quality and increases the shelf life of products (KUSWANDI, 2017). Bideau et al. (2018) observed that a coating based on oxidized BC with (2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidine-1-yl)-oxyl and polypyrrole could improve the mechanical properties and gas permeability of the coated packaging. The authors stated that this result was due to the dense network formed by the oxidized particles of cellulose (2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidine 1-yl)-oxyl and polypyrrole.

BC can also synthesize optically transparent paper applied in producing electronic devices, such as solar cells, flexible screens, organic light-emitting diodes, thin-film transistors and antennas (NOGI et al., 2009; ZHU et al., 2014). Generally, these materials use glass-based substrates and when BC was tested, the results showed high efficiency and a water-dispersible and recyclable material (GRISHKEWICH et al., 2017).

In cosmetics, the application of BC has also drawn attention. Its use in propolis extract to prepare a moisturizing mask, with anti-inflammatory characteristics indicated for acne-prone skin, was reported (DE AMORIM et al., 2020). Therefore, there is a growing propensity to produce BC-based substances with economic interest and environmental issues.

Among the cellulose-producing companies, Seven Indústria de Produtos Biotecnológicos Ltda, located in Londrina, Paraná (Brazil), which produces Nexfill®, Dermafill® and Cuticellepigraft® (BSN - Europe) (NEXFILL, 2021) dressings, stands out. Bionext® Produtos Biotecnológicas Ltda. produces Bionext®, intended for use in patients with burns, trauma wounds, or chronic ulcers (BIONEXT, 2021, web). The company Evophancie biotech Ltda. (New Taipei/Taiwan) specializes in research and BC-based products, especially medical masks (EVOPHANCIE, 2021). Neurocel (Curitiba, PR, Brazil) is a company specialized in producing dura mater (meninges) based on BC applied in clinical cases of tumors or trauma (NEUROCEL, 2021, web).

2.8 Use of bacterial cellulose in effluent treatment

The use of synthetic membranes as selective barriers of substances is commonly used and the composition varies according to the type, which can be microfiltration membrane (polypropylene), ultrafiltration (cellulose acetate, polysulfone, polyethersulfone, polyacrinonitrile, polyvinylpyrrolidone), nanofiltration (polyacrylamide) and reverse osmosis (polyamide and polyacrylamide) (WAGNER, 2001).

The bacterial cellulose-based membrane does not generate secondary pollutants, making it an ecologically correct technique (ALVES et al., 2020). Companies and industries use various techniques to remove pollutants from effluents, such as toxic metals, organic molecules, pathogens, among others.

The filtration method with conventional membranes can be used in different techniques, such as membrane filtration, which is indicated for treating inorganic effluents. It is possible to remove solid and organic compounds in suspension and inorganic contaminants such as heavy metals (BARAKAT, 2011). Particle size also determines which type of membrane filtration can be used: ultrafiltration and nanofiltration. Ultrafiltration separates heavy metals, macromolecules and suspended solids from inorganic solution based on pore size (5 - 20 nm) and molecular weight of compounds (1000-100,000 Da) (BARAKAT, 2011). Nanofiltration has pores from 0.5 to 2.0 nm and retains molecular compounds that weigh about 200-1000 Da (BARAKAT, 2011).

Chemical precipitation is another widely used conventional process and is generally used in inorganic effluents, where lime and limestone are the precipitating agents commonly used due to their low cost and availability in most countries (AZIZ et al., 2008). Lime precipitation effectively treats inorganic effluents with metal concentrations above 1000 mg/L (BARAKAT, 2011). The precipitation technique requires using large amounts of chemicals to minimize the concentration of heavy metals to reach safe levels (BARAKAT, 2011). Another disadvantage is the excessive production of iodine which requires additional treatment (AZIZ et al., 2008)

Electrodialysis is a conventional membrane separation technique in which ionized species are in solution across the membrane and ion exchange occurs through an electrical potential (BARAKAT, 2011). When the ionic solution contacts the membrane, the anions migrate towards the anode and the cations towards the cathode (CHEN, 2004). Tzanetakis et al. (2003), tested two types of membrane, one based on Nafion perfluorosulfonic and another based on sulfonated polyvinyl difluoride, the first one removed 90% of heavy metals (Nickel (II) and Copper (II)) through cation exchange.

Adsorption is an effective method of removing dyes from wastewater. This method was tested using melamine, which has three free amino groups and three aromatic nitrogen atoms in its molecule and showed that it could absorb vanadium, a heavy metal (PENG et al., 2019). The high adsorption capacity was also observed when melamine was used to remove chromium (III). This technique made it possible to remove 98.63% of this heavy metal.

The use of bacterial cellulose in the treatment of effluents has shown to be highly promising, as this biopolymer is non-toxic, hypoallergenic and biodegradable (HUANG et al., 2014), presenting an attractive alternative to developing a biofilter from bacterial cellulose. Taha et al. (2012) developed a biopolymer composed of cellulose acetate, silica and NH_2 to remove chromium (VI) through bonds with heavy metal ions chrome. Removal of oil-in-water emulsions using bacterial cellulose membrane by filtration method was investigated by Hassan et al. (2017). This study revealed that CB efficiently removed oil droplets smaller than $1 \mu\text{m}$ that were trapped in the membrane due to its nanoporous structure. Therefore, bacterial cellulose can replace the conventional filtration method with biofilters, including removing heavy metals, oil emulsions, pathogenic microorganisms and dyes (ALVES et al., 2020).

2.9 Future Perspectives and conclusion

The production cost has limited the production of BC and there is a trend to use agroindustrial waste to solve this problem. Cost reduction will be an incentive for companies and an asset to the preservation of the environment. The physicochemical characteristics of BC produced from agroindustrial waste are like those produced from conventional media, with the attraction of presenting superior yield with up to a 50% reduction in production costs. Some residues have been satisfactory in yield and productivity, but we can highlight some that are still little used or not used, such as glycerol, coffee husk, CSL and fruit pulps. Cellulose produced from waste can be destined biomedical and food companies in the manufacture of biodegradable packaging, textile in the manufacture of sustainable clothing, in the remediation of soils contaminated with heavy metals and in the composition of electronic devices. Therefore, the use of cellulose covers several areas and has great promising potential.

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SEGUNDA PARTE - ARTIGO

ARTIGO 1 - CELULOSE BACTERIANA PRODUZIDA A PARTIR DE COPRODUTOS DA AGROINDUSTRIA PARA REMOÇÃO DE CORANTES DE RESÍDUOS DE LABORATÓRIO

Artigo elaborado de acordo com a NBR 6022 (ABNT, 2018)

RESUMO

As fontes de água potável sofrem constantes ameaças através de descartes incorretos como de contaminantes químicos. O uso de biofiltro a base de celulose bacteriana (CB) é uma alternativa de tratamento de efluente. O objetivo dessa pesquisa foi produzir CB por *Komagataeibacter xylinus* (ATCC 23769), a partir de coprodutos para o desenvolvimento de um biofiltro com intuito de remover corantes de microscopia. O experimento foi conduzido através da inoculação de 10^8 UFC mL⁻¹ da cepa padrão *K. xylinus* (ATCC 23769) em três meios de cultura, controle (manitol), GBM (glicerol bruto e milhocina) e CCM (casca de café e milhocina) por quatro dias de incubação (ID) (0, 4, 8, 12 e 16) em triplicata, utilizando o delineamento inteiramente casualizado (DIC), aplicando o teste de *tukey* ($p < 0,05$). Os carboidratos, ácidos e álcoois foram quantificados através da análise de cromatografia líquida, o tratamento controle apresentou maiores concentrações de frutose (2,22 g L⁻¹ em ID 8) e etanol (52,14 g L⁻¹ em ID 8). Para GBM, o metanol (17,6 g L⁻¹ em ID 0) e ácido acético (22,2 g L⁻¹ em ID4) se sobressaíram. O tratamento CCM se destacou para presença de glicose (3,35 g L⁻¹ em ID0). Os compostos voláteis detectados foram ácidos graxos, éster, álcool e hidrocarbonetos. Controle se destacou pela presença de hidrocarbonetos como heneicosano e hexadecano, GBM e CCM os ácidos graxos ácido 9,12-octadecadienóico, ácido 9-octadecenóico e ácido hexadecananóico se sobressaíram. Os parâmetros avaliados foram, concentração de CB, produção e produtividade, propriedades mecânicas, microscopia eletrônica de varredura (MEV), espectroscopia vibracional na região do infravermelho (FTIR) e análise do efluente. A concentração de CB foi superior para o tratamento GBM (16,9 g L⁻¹), assim como para produção (14,28 g L⁻¹) demonstrando que a fonte nutricional, cepa utilizada e via metálica contribuem para maior produção de celulose. Maior módulo Young foi observado no tratamento GBM (77,4 Mpa) que representa maior elasticidade. A análise de microscopia eletrônica de varredura mostrou que o tipo de meio de cultura pode dar origem a características morfológicas diferentes de fibras de celulose em que GBM não purificado apresentou maior diâmetro médio de fibra (8,3 µm). O efluente filtrado pelo biofiltro originado do tratamento GBM mostrou resultados promissores para o seu uso. De forma geral, a pesquisa apontou ser satisfatória. A produção de CB utilizando resíduos de baixo custo é, até agora, a mais alta em um processo usando coprodutos.

Palavras-chave: *Komagataeibacter xylinus*. Milhocina. Celulose bacteriana. Glicerol, Cromatografia gasosa.

ABSTRACT

Drinking water sources are constantly threatened by incorrect disposal and chemical contaminants. The use of a biofilter based on bacterial cellulose (BC) is an alternative for treating effluent. The objective of this research was to produce CB by *Komagataeibacter xylinus* (ATCC 23769), from co-products for the development of a biofilter with the aim of removing microscopy dyes. The experiment was conducted by inoculating 10^8 CFU mL⁻¹ of the standard strain *K. xylinus* (ATCC 23769) in three culture media, control (mannitol), GBM (crude glycerol and corncin) and CCM (coffee husk and corncin). for four days of incubation (ID) (0, 4, 8, 12 and 16) in triplicate, using a completely randomized design (DIC), applying the Tukey test ($p < 0.05$). Carbohydrates, acids and alcohols were quantified through liquid chromatography analysis, the control treatment showed higher concentrations of fructose (2.22 g L⁻¹ in ID 8) and ethanol (52.14 g L⁻¹ in ID 8). For GBM, methanol (17.6 g L⁻¹ in ID 0) and acetic acid (22.2 g L⁻¹ in ID4) stood out. The CCM treatment stood out for the presence of glucose (3.35 g L⁻¹ in ID0). The volatile compounds detected were fatty acids, esters, alcohols and hydrocarbons. Control stood out for the presence of hydrocarbons such as heneicosane and hexadecane, GBM and CCM, 9,12-octadecadienoic acid, 9-octadecenoic acid and hexadecanoic acid, fatty acids stood out. The parameters evaluated were CB concentration, production and productivity, mechanical properties, scanning electron microscopy (SEM), vibrational spectroscopy in the infrared region (FTIR) and effluent analysis. The CB concentration was higher for the GBM treatment (16.9 g L⁻¹), as well as for production (14.28 g L⁻¹), demonstrating that the nutritional source, strain used and metallic route contribute to greater cellulose production. Higher Young's modulus was observed in the GBM treatment (77.4 Mpa) which represents greater elasticity. Scanning electron microscopy analysis showed that the type of culture medium can give rise to different morphological characteristics of cellulose fibers in which unpurified GBM presented a larger average fiber diameter (8.3 μ m). The effluent filtered by the biofilter originating from the GBM treatment showed promising results for its use. In general, the research was satisfactory. The production of CB using low-cost waste is, so far, the highest in a process using co-products.

Keywords: *Komagataeibacter xylinus*. Milhocina. Bacterial cellulose. Glycerol. Gas chromatography.

1 INTRODUÇÃO

A água é um dos elementos primários mais importantes e comuns do universo e sem ela dificilmente é possível gerar e estabelecer a vida (HAFEEZ et al., 2021). Apesar de ser um recurso indispensável, as fontes de água têm sofrido constantes ameaças quanto à sua qualidade decorrentes do crescimento populacional desenfreado (80 milhões de crianças nascem por ano) (FAZAL et al., 2020; FU, 2020); urbanização sem precedentes (em 2050 estima-se que a população urbana mundial será de 6,6 bilhões, atualmente somos cerca de 4,2 bilhões de pessoas) (UNDP, 2019; WANG et al., 2021) e consumo exacerbado de produtos e descarte inadequado de resíduos domésticos em rios (80% dos córregos com rejeitos domésticos são despejados diretamente nos rios) (VINUEZA et al., 2021).

O acesso a água de qualidade é um dos requisitos básico de subsistência da população (LI; WU, 2019). Sendo que o uso universal e equitativo da água potável é um dos propósitos dos 17 Objetivos de Desenvolvimento Sustentável (ODS) das Nações Unidas até 2030 (ONU, 2023). Essa meta representa um desafio devido ao problema de escassez de água, distribuição desigual de recursos hídricos e da sua poluição dos corpos d'água (BO et al., 2021).

É fundamental notar que existe uma tendência forte e progressiva para a presença de contaminantes químicos na água, como medicamentos, artigos de higiene pessoal, produtos farmacêuticos, subprodutos de desinfecção, resíduos agrícolas, corantes utilizados em laboratórios, entre outros (RIVA et al., 2018). Ensaio microbiológicos realizados em laboratório fazem uso constante de corantes em testes de microscopia (FRANCO et al., 2023). Um dos métodos mais aplicados é a técnica de coloração de Gram, em que são utilizados o corante cristal violeta, fucsina básica, solventes (álcool-acetona) e lugol para identificar bactérias Gram-negativas e Gram-positivas em amostras laboratoriais (SMITH; HUSSEY, 2005; FRANCO et al., 2023).

As substâncias químicas encontradas nesses corantes como: oxalato de amônio que compõe o cristal violeta; dimetil safranina e trimetil safranina, encontrados na safranina, são consideradas tóxicos; e o principal método de tratamento desse efluente é a incineração controlada, produzindo cinzas e emissão de gases poluente como CO₂, óxido de enxofre e HCL (FRANCO et al., 2023). Dessa forma, é importante averiguar novas técnicas de tratamento que causam menor impacto ao meio ambiente.

Uma alternativa emergente aplicável em efluentes é o processo de filtração, como o filtro de areia rápido, usado em estações de tratamento de água composto por areia e seixos, capaz de remover partículas e microrganismos (GARCÍA-ÁVILA et al., 2021); e filtro de areia

lento, técnica de baixo custo e fácil manutenção, composto por água sobrenadante, meio filtrante (camada única de carvão ativado) e manta não tecida (2) (ARNDT; WAGNER, 2004). Este método é caracterizado pela formação de uma camada biológica denominada *Schmutzdecke*, que nada mais é do que um biofiltro composto por algas, detritos, bactérias e protozoários (HENDRICKS, 1991). Método eficiente na remoção de turbidez, coliformes totais e bactérias como *Escherichia coli* (HUISMAN; WOOD, 1974; RAZZAK et al., 2022).

A CB, exemplo de biofiltro, é composta por moléculas de carbono, oxigênio e hidrogênio ($C_6H_{10}O_5$) (UL-ISLAM et al., 2012; DA SILVA et al., 2021). É considerada um material biodegradável, com estrutura nanoporosa e hipoalergênica, o que a torna atrativa e eficiente (UL-ISLAM et al., 2012; DASGUPTA et al., 2015).

Pesquisa como de Brandes et al. (2018) demonstraram que a CB foi capaz de reter 90% do pigmento azul de metileno de efluente. Alves et al. (2020), constatou que a CB foi capaz de remover *Escherichia coli* em suspensão em alta concentração (10^8 células mL^{-1}). A CB também removeu óleos e solventes orgânicos do meio ambiente em 185 vezes o seu próprio peso (SAI et al., 2015). Demonstrando que a CB é eficiente no tratamento de efluentes contaminados por corantes, microrganismos e óleo.

Produzir CB em escala comercial ainda é um desafio, devido ao seu alto custo de produção. Meios fermentativos a base de coprodutos apresentam um valor econômico potencial de uso e cerca de 50% do valor pode ser poupado (RIVAS et al., 2004; VAZQUEZ et al., 2013).

A síntese de CB pode ocorrer a partir de coprodutos agroindustriais como glicerol bruto e casca de café (HUSSAIN et al., 2019). O glicerol bruto é um álcool simples formado principalmente por 13% de água, 7% de metanol, 30% de ácidos graxos e 50% de carboidrato (VERUSSA et al., 2017). Sendo fonte de carbono para microrganismos como bactérias e leveduras (CHENG et al., 2007). A casca de café contém 72,3% de carboidrato e 7% de proteína (MURTHY; NAIDU, 2012). Ao usar essas fontes nutricionais reduz a emissão de poluentes e gera produto com alto valor agregado.

Considerando o grande potencial do uso da CB no tratamento de efluente, o objetivo dessa pesquisa foi produzir CB por *Komagataeibacter xylinus* (ATCC 23769), a partir de coprodutos para o desenvolvimento de um biofiltro com intuito de remover corantes de microscopia.

2 MATERIAL E MÉTODOS

2.1 Microrganismo e condições de fermentação para produção de celulose

O experimento foi conduzido no Laboratório de Biotecnologia Ambiental do Departamento de Biologia na Universidade Federal de Lavras (UFLA), Brasil. A cepa padrão *Komagataeibacter xylinus* ATCC 23769 foi adquirida da Fundação André Tosello Pesquisa e Tecnologia e, reativada em caldo manitol composto por D-manitol (25 g L⁻¹) (Himedia), peptona (3 g L⁻¹) (Kasvi) e extrato de levedura (5 g L⁻¹) (Kasvi), pH 5 (OIKAWA et al., 1997) e incubadas à 30 °C, por 48 horas, seguindo as recomendações do fornecedor (FUNDAÇÃO ANDRÉ TOSELLO PESQUISA E TECNOLOGIA, 2019).

Após reativação foi inoculado em Erlenmeyer 10⁸ UFC mL⁻¹ da cepa padrão (25 ml – cerca de 10%) no caldo manitol (125 ml), denominado tratamento controle. Os tratamentos testes consistiram da produção de CB em outros dois meios alternativos: 1) meio a base de glicerol bruto + milhocina (GBM: 25 g L⁻¹ de glicerol bruto, 5 g L⁻¹ de milhocina, 3 g L⁻¹ de peptona (Kasvi)) (VAZQUEZ et al., 2013); e 2) meio a base de casca de café + milhocina (CCM: 25 g L⁻¹ de casca de café, 5 g L⁻¹ de milhocina, 3 g L⁻¹ de peptona (Kasvi), 5g L⁻¹ de glicose (Neon) (RANI; APPAIAH, 2013). O pH dos meios foram ajustados para 5. Solução tampão de acetato de sódio (H₃CCOONa_(s)) a 0,3 mol L⁻¹ foi utilizada como base no preparo de todos os tratamentos. Os ensaios foram incubados à 30 °C por 16 dias sem agitação e as análises realizadas com 0, 4, 8, 12 e 16 dias de incubação, denominado ID.

O preparo do extrato da casca de café (50 - 60% umidade) foi realizado utilizando 50g de casca de café sanitizada com 2% de hipoclorito de sódio durante 15 minutos. A casca foi triturada com 250 mL de água ultrapura com o auxílio de liquidificador Mondial Easy Power L-550-W velocidade 2 por 90 segundos e em seguida foi filtrada com coador de tecido 100% algodão 140 mm antes do preparo do meio.

A casca de café (cultivar catuaí amarelo) e a milhocina foram doadas por produtores da região de Lavras – MG, Brasil e mantidos em congelador a - 15 °C até o dia do prepare dos meios. O glicerol bruto foi doado pela Usina de Processamento de Biodiesel da Universidade Federal de Lavras (UFLA) e armazenado em temperatura ambiente, Brasil. Os coprodutos obtidos foram adquiridos em volume suficiente para todo o experimento.

2.2 Caracterização dos meios fermentativos para produção de celulose bacteriana

2.2.1 Análise da concentração de carboidratos, ácidos orgânicos e álcoois por cromatografia líquida de alta eficiência (HPLC)

A concentração de carboidratos (glicose, frutose, sacarose e arabinose), ácidos (ácido acético, láctico e succínico) e álcoois (etanol e metanol) dos tratamentos das amostras obtidas foram avaliadas durante todo o período de fermentação [0 (ID0), 4 (ID4), 8 (ID8), 12 (ID12), 16 dias (ID16)] para comparar os compostos produzidos e sintetizados durante os dias de incubação. As amostras foram filtradas com filtro de acetato de celulose de 0,22 μm e em seguida avaliadas usando um sistema de cromatografia líquida (Shimadzu, modelo LC-10Ai, Shimadzu Corp., Japão) equipado com sistema de índice de refração (RID-10Ai). A coluna de exclusão iônica Shim-pack SCR-101H (7,9 mm \times 30 cm) foi usada para detectar ácidos a 50 °C com uma taxa de fluxo de 0,6 ml min^{-1} de ácido perclórico (100 mM). A detecção de carboidratos e álcoois foram realizadas usando a coluna Shim-pack SCR-101C a 80 °C com fluxo de 0,6 ml min^{-1} de água Milli-Q deionizada. Os ácidos foram detectados via absorvância UV (210 nm), enquanto carboidratos e álcoois detectados via RID. A identificação dos compostos foi baseada no tempo de retenção dos padrões injetados usando as mesmas condições. A concentração das amostras foi determinada usando uma calibração externa. As curvas de calibração foram obtidas através da injeção de diferentes concentrações dos padrões e as áreas adquiridas foram usadas para traçar uma curva linear para estimar a concentração dos compostos nas amostras (EVANGELISTA et al., 2014). As amostras foram analisadas em triplicata.

2.2.2 Análise dos Compostos Voláteis Presentes no meio fermentativo entre os Tratamentos por cromatografia Gasosa (GC)

Os meios fermentativos dos tratamentos (controle, GBM e CCM) e glicerol bruto foram submetidos a análise de cromatografia gasosa para avaliar os compostos voláteis presentes nas amostras ID0 (antes de inocular com *K. xylinus*) e ID16 (final do processo fermentativo), com intuito de comparar possíveis compostos produzidos e consumidos durante o processo fermentativo pela *K. xylinus*.

O tratamento controle, GBM (glicerol bruto e milhocina), CCM (casca de café e milhocina) e glicerol bruto passaram por transesterificação de acordo com a metodologia de Singh et al. (2020). Esse método consiste em adicionar 2 mL de n-hexano (Dinâmica) e 1 mL de KOH metanólico (Neon) 2 M, em seguida os tubos foram fechados e agitados vigorosamente por 30 segundos em vortex e incubados por 20 minutos a 70°C. Após alcançar a temperatura ambiente foi acrescentado 1,2 mL de HCl (Synth) 1 M com agitação manual e 1 ml de n-hexano (Neon). Posteriormente a mistura foi deixada em repouso para a separação de fases. A fase

límpida superior foi transferida para vial 2ml para posterior determinação dos compostos gasosos presentes na amostra por cromatografia gasosa acoplada a espectrometria de massas (GC – MS).

As amostras (controle, GBM, CCM e glicerol bruto) foram submetidas as análises cromatográficas de acordo com a metodologia descrita por Singh et al. (2020) em duplicata com adaptação da coluna cromatográfica. O sistema GC/MS (modelo GCMS-QP2010SE; Shimadzu, Tokio, Japão) equipado com uma coluna capilar (Rtx- 5MS) (Restec) de 30 m de comprimento e 0,25 µm de espessura acoplada a um detector quadrupolo foi utilizado.

Um sistema de ionização de elétrons com energia de ionização de 70 eV, e o gás de arraste (hélio 99,99%) com taxa de fluxo constante de 1,1 ml min⁻¹ foi utilizado. A linha de transferência de massa e a temperatura do injetor foram ajustadas em 220°C e 250°C, respectivamente, e a temperatura do forno foi programada conforme indicado: 1) a temperatura inicial foi de 50°C por 2 min, 2) 4°C min⁻¹ a 220°C por 10 min, 3) seguido por 250°C por 2 minutos após a corrida. 1 µl de amostra foi injetado em modo split 10:1. Os sinais foram registrados no modo de varredura completa (20 – 600 m/z). Os compostos foram identificados por comparação dos seus espectros de massa através do uso da biblioteca NIST 11. Em seguida, foi realizada a porcentagem relativa, referente a área total de pico, considerada 100%.

2.3 Parâmetros de produção, características físicas e propriedades mecânicas da celulose bacteriana

2.3.1 Purificação da Película de Celulose

A celulose bacteriana foi purificada utilizando-se solução de NaOH (Êxodo científica) 0,1 M, por 24 horas a 80 °C em banho-maria em condições estáticas, para remover o excesso de meio e restos de células (SOUZA et al., 2021). Após esse tratamento a celulose bacteriana foi seca em estufa (7Lab, SSAi, Rio de Janeiro, Brasil) a 50 C° por 48 horas para serem realizadas as análises de Microscopia Eletrônica de Varredura (MEV), análises de espectroscopia vibracional na região do infravermelho (FTIR). Para avaliação das propriedades mecânicas a CB foi utilizada fresca e purificada.

2.3.2 Concentração de celulose bacteriana

O peso úmido (g) e peso úmido pós-purificação (g) produzidos no meio fermentativo (L) foram averiguados durante todo o período de fermentação da CB a cada 4 dias (ID4, ID8,

ID12, ID16) totalizando 16 dias de incubação (ID) utilizado balança de precisão semi analítica 510 x 0,001g, Marte Científica.

Cálculo da concentração de celulose bacteriana (g L^{-1}) foram descritos de acordo com a equação 1 (Eq. 1) (SCHMIDELL et al., 2001).

$$C = \text{PMC}/\text{VMC} \text{ (Eq. 1)}$$

Sendo C: Concentração (g L^{-1}); PMC: peso da membrana de celulose úmida e úmida pós-purificação (g); VMC: volume do meio de cultura (L).

2.3.3 Produção e produtividade de celulose

O rendimento da produção de celulose bacteriana ($Y_{p/s}$) foi determinado através da concentração de celulose (g L^{-1}) utilizado balança de precisão semi analítica 510 x 0,001g, Marte Científica e a concentração de açúcares totais (g L^{-1}). A produtividade de celulose bacteriana (Q_p) foi calculada como a razão entre o peso do produto e o tempo total de fermentação, medido em gramas de celulose por litro de meio fermentado por hora ($\text{g L}^{-1} \text{ hora}^{-1}$) (SCHMIDELL et al., 2001; DUARTE et al., 2011).

$$\text{Eq. 1 } Y_{p/s} = (P - P_0) / (S_0 - S)$$

$$\text{Eq. 2 } Q_p = P/t_f$$

Sendo P o peso final de celulose e P_0 é o peso inicial de celulose, S é a concentração final de carboidrato e S_0 é a concentração inicial de carboidrato, t_f é o tempo total da fermentação, Eq (equação).

2.3.4 Propriedades Mecânicas da Celulose Bacteriana

Os testes de propriedades mecânicas foram realizados no Departamento de Ciência dos Alimentos da Universidade Federal de Lavras Brasil com o objetivo de determinar se a CB possa ser utilizada como biofiltro. Foi determinada resistência a tração, módulo *Young*, força de punctura e tenção versos deformação do material. O método ASTM D 882/1995 foi seguido usando o instrumento de teste universal da LLOYD (LLOYDS-50 K, Londres, Reino Unido) (RANI; APPAIAH, 2013). A mostras de celulose bacteriana de $1,5 \times 10$ cm de tamanho foram utilizadas. A separação inicial da empunhadura foi ajustada em 50 mm com velocidade da

cabeça transversal de 100 mm min⁻¹. O TS (resistência a tração) foi calculado dividindo a carga máxima para quebrar o filme por área de seção transversal e porcentagem de alongamento (% E) dividindo o alongamento do filme na ruptura para o comprimento inicial do medidor à temperatura ambiente (25 ± 2° C). Foram realizadas 5 medições por amostra. Finalmente, os resultados de TS e % E foram calculados para 25 micrometros de espessura de filmes de CB para comparação.

2.3.5 Microscopia eletrônica de varredura (MEV)

A microscopia eletrônica de varredura foi realizada no Laboratório de Microscopia Eletrônica e Análise Ultraestrutural (LME), localizado no Departamento de Fitopatologia da Universidade Federal de Lavras (UFLA), Brasil. Através dessa análise foi possível verificar a morfologia da celulose bacteriana não purificada e purificada. As imagens da CB foram observadas no Microscópio Eletrônico de Varredura de alta resolução, modelo Clara, marca Tescan (República Tcheca). As amostras foram montadas em *stubs* com fita dupla face de carbono e revestidas com ouro em aparelho *sputter coated* SCD 050 (Bal-Tec) (SOUZA et al., 2011). As imagens foram geradas e gravadas digitalmente e observadas em vários aumentos utilizando uma aceleração de voltagem de 20 Kv e uma distância de trabalho de até 1 mm. As imagens geradas foram gravadas e abertas no pacote *CorelDraw Graphics Suite 2023* para seleção e preparação de pranchas. A análise foi realizada em triplicata.

2.3.6 Espectroscopia vibracional na região do infravermelho (FTIR)

As análises de espectroscopia vibracional na região do infravermelho foram realizadas no Centro de Análises e Prospecção Química (CAPQ) no Departamento de Química da Universidade Federal de Lavras (UFLA), Brasil. As amostras dos meios de fermentação controle (manitol) e alternativos (GBM e CCM) foram submetidas a espectrômetro Shimadzu FTIR modelo-8201A com transformada de Fourier (FTIR), em uma faixa espectral de 400 - 4000 cm⁻¹, resolução de 4 cm⁻¹ e 64 varreduras, usando pastilhas de KBr (brometo de potássio) (LIN et al., 2014). As imagens foram geradas e analisadas com o auxílio do programa *OriginPro* 2020.

2.3.7 Análise de efluente resultante da Coloração de Gram

A CB não purificada foi utilizada como biofiltro, as amostras foram filtradas pelo sistema a vácuo constituído de Kitazato (Vidralabo) de 1000 mL, bomba de vácuo (Famem) com pressão de 300 mm Hg e sistema de filtração em que foram avaliados o efluente sem filtrar contendo 10 mg L⁻¹ de corantes, e dois efluentes submetidos à dois tipos de filtros: 1 - filtro de celulose bacteriana oriunda do meio fermentativo do tratamento controle (manitol), 2 – filtro de celulose bacteriana oriunda do meio fermentativo do tratamento GBM (glicerol bruto e milhocina). Todas as amostras foram encaminhadas para o laboratório de análises Quimi Quali (Campinas/São Paulo, Brasil) e analisadas de acordo com as instruções de referência estabelecidos pelo *Standard Methods for Examination of Water and Wastewater* (RICE et al., 2012), comparadas com as normas do CONAMA de 13 de maio de 2011 que dispõe sobre os Métodos para as Análises de Águas Potáveis e Residuais (resolução nº430). Os parâmetros avaliados foram DBO (demanda bioquímica de oxigênio), DQO (demanda química de oxigênio), nitrogênio total, sólidos sedimentáveis e cor verdadeira.

2.3.8 Desenho experimental e análise estatística

O desenho experimental constituiu em delineamento inteiramente casualizado (DIC) em que foram avaliados três meios de cultura [manitol (controle), GBM (glicerol bruto e milhocina)] e CCM (casca de café e milhocina), com o uso da cepa *Komagataeibacter xylinus* (ATCC 23769) para produzir celulose bacteriana (CB), durante quatro dias de incubação (ID) (0, 4, 8, 12 e 16) em triplicata. Para a concentração de CB foram analisados 4, 8, 12 e 16 ID em triplicata. Desta forma, os resultados foram comparados de acordo com as médias e erro padrão da média, e os dados das variáveis mensuradas foram analisados por análise de variância (ANAVA) e as médias submetidas ao teste de *tukey* - ($p < 0,05$). Todas as análises foram realizadas pelo software SISVAR® (FERREIRA, 2011). A análise de cromatografia gasosa (GC) ocorreu no início e fim do processo fermentativo (ID0 e ID16) em duplicata e os gráficos foram gerados utilizando o Software R. O programa de computador denominado *ImageJ* foi usado para dimensionar os diâmetros das fibras de CB produzida pelas imagens geradas por microscopia eletrônica de varredura (MEV) (SOUZA et al., 2011), somando um total de oito medições por tratamento. Os gráficos gerados para análise de FTIR foram plotadas no programa *Origin Pro 8* (LIN et al., 2014). O mapa de calor foi projetado usando o Software XLSTAT 2019 2.1.

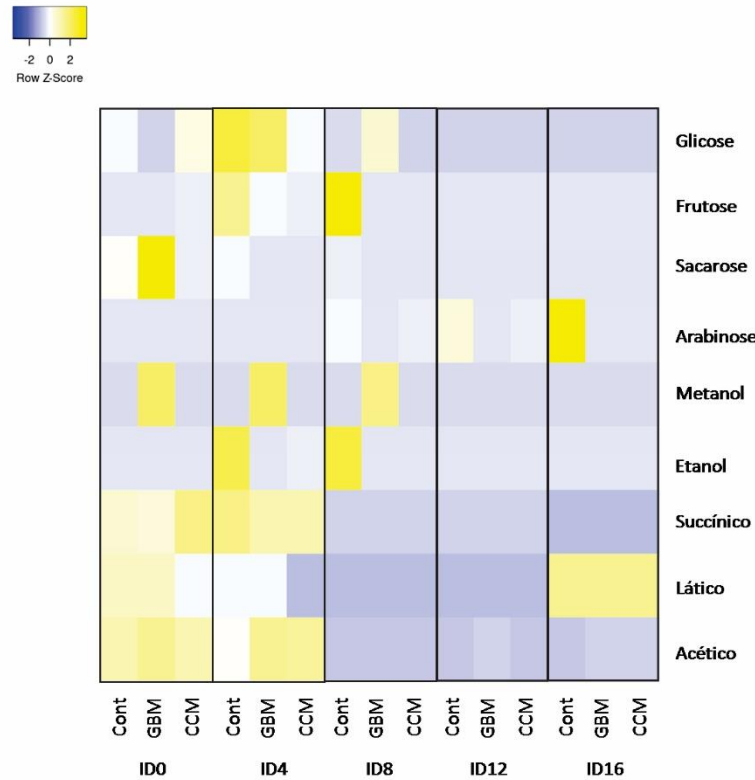
3 RESULTADOS E DISCUSSÃO

3.1 Concentrações de carboidratos, álcoois e ácidos orgânicos no meio de cultura durante o período de fermentação

A *K. xylinus* foi capaz de utilizar os carboidratos, álcoois e ácidos orgânicos presentes no meio fermentativo para biosíntese de CB. Glicerol bruto, casca de café e milhocina foram capazes de suprir o crescimento e desenvolvimento de *K. xylinus* ATCC 23769. O perfil da concentração e consumo dos compostos durante a fermentação são mostrados na FIGURA 1. De maneira geral, os compostos avaliados foram consumidos com redução significativa das concentrações durante 16 dias de incubação. Dependendo do meio fermentativo, condições de produção e cepa utilizada esse período pode variar de 24 horas até 21 dias (LIN et al., 2020; JOZALA et al., 2016).

A *K. xylinus* é capaz de utilizar compostos orgânicos como glicose, frutose, lactose, glicerol, sacarose, galactose como fonte de energia e de carbono para sintetizar CB (VELASCO-BEDRÁN; LÓPEZ-ISUNZA, 2007; WANG et al. 2018; HAN et al., 2020).

Figura 1 – Mapa de calor com intensidades normalizadas dos grupos não voláteis apontando a diferença significativa entre as concentrações dos compostos analisados em relação aos dias de incubação.



Legenda: Cont: controle; glicerol bruto e milhocina (GBM) e casca de café e milhocina (CCM). ID: dias de incubação. ID0, ID4, ID8, ID12 e ID16 correspondem aos dias de avaliação.

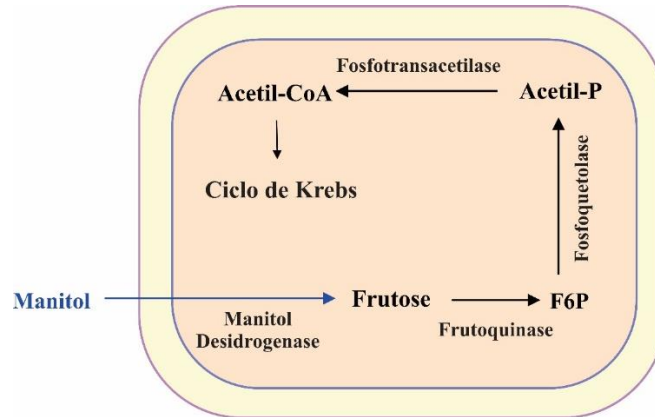
Fonte: do autor (2023).

Cada tratamento apresentou variação significativa dos resultados ($p < 0,05$). O meio fermentativo do tratamento controle se destacou pela concentração superior de frutose e etanol no tempo ID8 ($2,22 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ de frutose e $52,14 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ de etanol). Após 4 dias (ID12) as concentrações desses compostos chegaram a zero. Durante a fermentação o comportamento do consumo de frutose no meio controle foi diferenciado, visto que no início (ID0) esse composto não foi detectado. No decorrer de quatro dias (ID4) a concentração de frutose foi de $1,19 \text{ g L}^{-1}$, e com oito dias (ID8) a concentração triplicou ($2,22 \text{ g L}^{-1}$), e em ID12 esse carboidrato foi totalmente consumido.

O manitol presente no meio de cultura do tratamento controle, pode ser convertido em frutose através da ação enzimática do D-manitol desidrogenase, o que pode ter levado ao aumento da concentração desse composto (RAGHAVENDRAN et al., 2020). Essa fonte de carbono segue a via do ácido tricarbóxico que ao entrar na célula é convertido em frutose pela

enzima manitol desidrogenase e posteriormente é transformada em frutose-6-fosfato pela frutoquinase, que por sua vez, sofre a ação da fosfoquetolase formando o acetil fosfato que é então convertido em Acetil-CoA pela enzima fosfo-trans-acetilase (FIGURA 2) (RAGHAVENDRAN et al., 2020). Possivelmente os níveis de frutose decaem nessa fase (ID12), visto que o Acetil-CoA sintetizado a partir desse composto, segue para o ciclo de *Krebs* para realizar a síntese de CB (RAGHAVENDRAN et al., 2020). Além disso, a hidrólise da sacarose em glicose e frutose também pode ter colaborado para esse aumento (MIKKELSEN et al., 2009).

Figura 2 – Via seguida pelo nutriente manitol no interior da célula bacteriana *K. xylinus* e as enzimas envolvidas durante o seu metabolismo.



Legenda: F6P: Frutose-6-fosfato, acetil-P: Acetil fosfato, acetil-CoA: acetil coenzima A

Fonte: do autor (2023).

A concentração de etanol também apresentou comportamento semelhante no meio fermentativo do tratamento controle. No início da fermentação o etanol não foi detectado, porém em ID4 (48,7 g L⁻¹) e ID8 (52,14 g L⁻¹) a concentração aumentou significativamente ($p < 0,05$). Ao final da fermentação (ID12 e ID16) a presença do mesmo não foi detectada. A *K. xylinus* é capaz de realizar a fermentação oxidativa de álcoois de açúcar como o manitol, e a partir dessa oxidação produzir etanol (HE et al., 2022). Outro fator que pode ter contribuído para o decréscimo de produção é a redução da atividade metabólica e a evaporação observada no sistema semiaberto (HE et al., 2022).

Em ID16 arabinose e ácido láctico foram detectados em maiores concentrações no controle (5,09 g L⁻¹ e 0,1 g L⁻¹, respectivamente). Durante a oxidação da glicose um dos produtos originados é a arabinose (ADACHI et al., 2011; HE et al., 2022). O ácido láctico é resultado da fermentação da glicose por bactérias heterofermentativas, como é o caso da *K*

xylinus, que tem como produtos da fermentação de substâncias o ácido acético, etanol, dióxido de carbono e ácido láctico (CARR et al., 2002).

O meio fermentativo do tratamento GBM nos tempos ID0 e ID4 apresentou maior concentração de metanol (17,6 g L⁻¹ e 17,3 g L⁻¹, respectivamente) e ácido acético (22,1 g L⁻¹ e 22,2 g L⁻¹ respectivamente) diferenciando estatisticamente dos demais (p < 0,05); glicose (8,83 g L⁻¹) e ácido succínico (2,26 g L⁻¹) em ID4 também foram destaques nesse tratamento.

A síntese de biodiesel ocorre com a adição de alguns solventes como o metanol, tendo o glicerol bruto como coproduto, reação denominada transesterificação (WANG et al., 2001), o que explica a constatação desse álcool no tratamento GBM, que também é considerado um estimulador na produção de CB (HUNGUND et al., 2010). A presença do ácido acético é resultado da degradação do glicerol pela bactéria do ácido acético (PARATE et al., 2018; HE et al., 2022). A detecção de glicose nesse meio fermentativo pode ser explicada pela presença do coproduto milhocina que possui esse carboidrato em sua composição (GAO; YUAN, 2011). O ácido succínico é um dos produtos metabólicos sintetizados durante a degradação do glicerol pela célula bacteriana (PARATE et al., 2018).

O tratamento CCM se destacou (p < 0,05) em ID0 pela maior concentração de glicose (3,35 g L⁻¹) e ácido succínico (2,66 g L⁻¹). A concentração de arabinose aumentou significativamente (p < 0,05) no tempo de fermentação ID8 (0,15 g L⁻¹). A casca de café, base do tratamento CCM, é rica em nutrientes como glicose e ácido succínico, que são fontes de carbono importantes para o crescimento microbiano (SILVA, 2014). A milhocina, coproduto que compõe esse meio, é constituída por carboidratos como a glicose (GAO; YUAN, 2011). Arabinose é sintetizado a partir da degradação da glicose (HE et al., 2022).

3.2 Compostos Voláteis

Os efeitos dos compostos voláteis nos meios fermentativos dos tratamentos controle, GBM e CCM foram analisados (FIGURA 3).

hexadecanóico e estearato de metila (16 dias). Assim, *K. xilynus*, foi capaz de sintetizar ácidos graxos na presença de glicerol bruto e casca de café.

As sínteses de ácidos graxos ocorrem quando o meio de cultivo possui excesso de carbono (glicose, por exemplo) e nitrogênio (essencial na formação de proteínas e ácidos nucleicos). Dessa forma a célula assimila a glicose disponível convertendo-a em ácidos graxos que por sua vez, produzem fosfolipídeos continuamente e são incorporados na membrana celular (LENNEN et al., 2010). A maquinaria metabólica envolvida na biossíntese de proteínas e ácidos nucleicos cessam no estágio final de crescimento da célula, dessa forma os lipídeos formados não são incorporados e se acumulam no meio extracelular (RATLEDGE, 2013), sendo possível detectá-los nos tratamentos analisados. O coproduto glicerol bruto apresentou concentração de 44,7 ppm de ácido 9,12-octadecadienóico (dados não mostrados). O meio GBM em 0 dias a concentração foi de 2,5 ppm e em ID16 2,9 ppm. O estearato de metila no meio GBM foi detectados três vezes mais em 16 dias do que em 0 dias.

Dentre os ácidos graxos identificados o ácido 9,12-octadecadienóico, de nomenclatura usual ácido linoleico, é considerado antimicrobiano (SENIZZA et al., 2020). Esse ácido graxo foi detectado no tratamento GBM, principalmente em ID16, 2,9 ppm (GBM). De forma geral, as bactérias possuem a capacidade de sobreviver na presença desse ácido adotando algumas estratégias, como hidrogenação de ácidos graxos livres insaturados em produtos mais saturados, visto que são considerados menos tóxicos (MAIA et al., 2010).

O ácido 9-octadecenóico (ácido oleico) foi detectado no tratamento GBM e no glicerol bruto nas mesmas concentrações (1,2 ppm). A presença desse composto em baixa concentração melhora a fluidez da membrana, de forma que se a célula sofrer algum tipo de dano a membrana celular é capaz de se reconstituir de forma mais eficiente (JINGJING et al., 2020).

O ácido hexadecanóico (ácido palmítico), detectado no tratamento CCM, é um composto saturado de cadeia longa (C16) que pode ser sintetizado por bactérias, tendo como uma de suas funções modular o crescimento microbiano, auxiliar na sobrevivência, no estresse microbiano, na estrutura da membrana celular e resposta imune, além de alterar a fluidez da membrana das células e regular os componentes estruturais (LIBRÁN-PÉREZ et al., 2019). Esse composto provavelmente deve ter sido sintetizado pela bactéria, visto que em ID0 ele não foi detectado, porém foi observado no tempo final (ID16) (concentração de 1,2 ppm).

O composto, ácido acético, éster butílico, foi encontrado no tratamento com casca de café (CCM) no início e final do processo fermentativo na mesma concentração (0,3 ppm). Esse ácido apresenta propriedades antimicrobianas (HEINS et al., 1966; AABU-GHARBIA et al.,

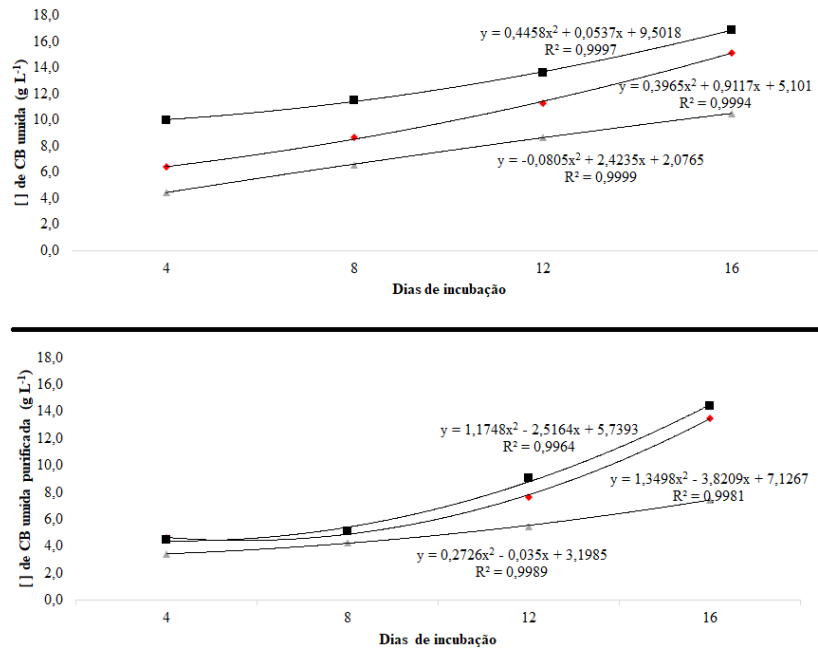
2020), o que pode ter contribuído para não propagar microrganismos invasores no meio fermentativo durante os 16 dias de incubação.

Por fim, o tolueno pertence ao grupo dos hidrocarbonetos, que foi detectado no meio GBM no início e final do processo fermentativo (0,3 ppm). O tolueno é capaz de aumentar a atividade da oxigenase de bactérias que é a enzima responsável por catalisar a incorporação de átomos de oxigênio a partir do oxigênio molecular (O_2) em compostos orgânicos ou inorgânicos (GAUR; KHARE, 2009). A presença de tolueno pode aumentar a concentração de ácidos graxos saturados de muitas bactérias Gram-positivas e negativas, com isso é possível notar aumento da rigidez da membrana que impede a entrada de compostos tóxicos para a célula (SRAIN; PANTOJA-GUTIÉRREZ, 2022).

3.3 Concentração de celulose bacteriana durante o período de fermentação

O peso da CB úmida purificada (g) e úmida não purificada (g) foram monitorados em relação a sua concentração ($g L^{-1}$) durante os dias de incubação (ID4, ID8, ID12 e ID16), e os resultados podem ser observado na FIGURA 4 (A e B).

Figura 4 – Concentração de celulose bacteriana (úmida e úmida purificada) durante o processo de fermentação oxidativa da bactéria *K. xylinus*.



Legenda: (♦) Controle, (■) GBM, (▲) CCM. Controle: manitol, GBM: glicerol bruto e milhocina, CCM: casca de café e milhocina. []: concentração. CB: Celulose bacteriana. (A) [] de CB úmida; (B) [] de CB úmida purificada.

Fonte: do autor (2023).

O meio fermentativo controle apresentou alto rendimento como já esperado, $15,1 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ de CB não purificada e $13,5 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ quando purificada, uma vez que, é um meio padrão para produção de CB. Gullo et al. (2019) testaram a produção de CB pela cepa de *K. xylinus* UMCC2756 isolada do chá Kombucha tendo manitol como fonte de carbono. A produção foi de $8,8 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ de CB utilizando como base o meio HS (*Hestrin and Schramm*).

Tsouko (2015) utilizou meio de cultura a base de glicerol e farinha de girassol para o crescimento de bactérias produtoras de celulose com produção de $13,3 \text{ g L}^{-1}$. Nessa pesquisa a produção de CB no meio GBM foi de $16,9 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ (úmida) e $14,4 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ para úmida purificada ao final do processo fermentativo. Isso demonstra que o glicerol, mesmo sendo de fontes diferentes, apresenta composição apropriada para sustentar o crescimento e produção de CB. Demonstrando mais uma vez o potencial de uso de coprodutos agrícolas como fonte de nutrientes para microrganismos em processos biotecnológicos.

O tratamento CCM apresentou maior concentração de glicose pela análise de HPLC em relação aos outros tratamentos ($5,5 \text{ g L}^{-1}$). No entanto, apresentou menor concentração de CB ($p < 0,05$), mesmo com a adição desse carboidrato: $10,5 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ – concentração de CB úmida e $7,4 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ – concentração de CB úmida purificada. Rani e Appaiah (2013) utilizaram *K. xylinus* e meio de cultura a base de casca de café, produzindo $5,6 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ de CB. A produção chegou a

8,2 g L⁻¹ quando esse meio foi enriquecido com ureia, milhocina e etanol, (RANI; APPAIAH, 2013). Novas formas de enriquecer o meio de cultura utilizando a casca de café devem ser testadas para torna-lo ainda mais promissor, visto que é um coproduto gerado em grandes volumes em regiões cafeeiras. Uma alternativa seria enriquecer com outras fontes de carbono de baixo custo.

O estudo em foco sugere que a produção de CB é alterada pela fonte nutricional utilizada. Os compostos frutose e etanol presentes no tratamento controle são fontes de carbono importantes no meio de cultura que elevam a produção de CB. O tratamento GBM se destacou pelas fontes metanol e glicose. Já o tratamento CCM a produção de CB foi favorecida pela presença de sacarose. As bactérias produtoras de celulose possuem inúmeras enzimas e vias metabólicas que afetam diretamente no desenvolvimento e produção de CB apresentando diferentes rendimentos (ZHONG et al., 2013).

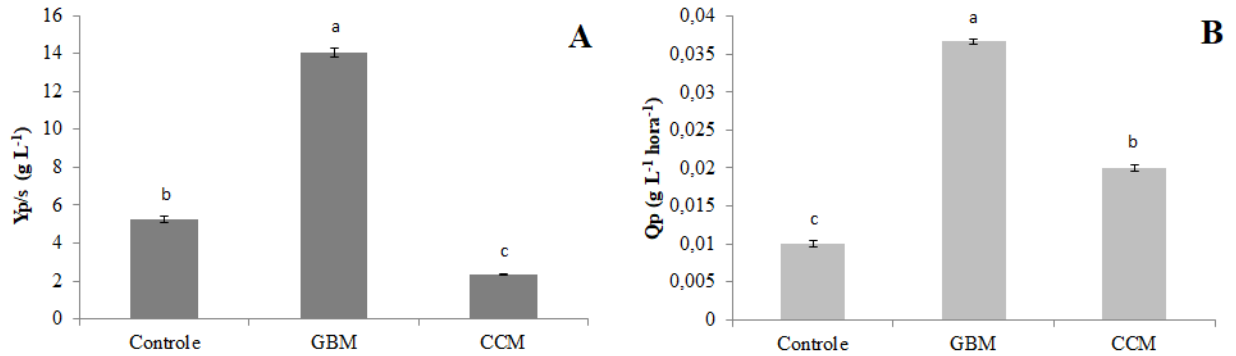
3.4 Produção e produtividade da celulose bacteriana

A produção ($Y_{P/S}$) e a produtividade (Q_p) da celulose bacteriana pela cepa *K. xylinus* foram calculadas (FIGURA 5). O tratamento GBM apresentou maior produção ($Y_{P/S}$: 14,28 g L⁻¹) de CB ao longo dos 16 dias de fermentação. Isso corresponde cerca de 83,2% maior do que o tratamento CCM e 62,7% maior que o controle. Maior produtividade também foram observadas no tratamento GBM de 0,04 g L⁻¹ hora⁻¹, correspondendo 45,5% e 72,7% a mais em relação à CCM e controle, respectivamente (FIGURA 6). O crescimento da cepa *komagataeibacter xylinus* (ATCC 11142) no meio de cultura HS (*Hestrin and Schramm*) com substituição da fonte de carbono por glicerol bruto resultou na produção de 5,68 g L⁻¹ e produtividade de 0,03 g L⁻¹ hora⁻¹ de CB (YANG et al., 2019).

Os tratamentos, controle e CCM, apresentaram $Y_{P/S}$ de 5,2 g L⁻¹ e 2,36 g L⁻¹, respectivamente. A produtividade foi de 0,01 g L⁻¹ hora⁻¹ (controle) e 0,02 g L⁻¹ hora⁻¹ (CCM). A produção de CB foi menor no tratamento CCM, mas a produtividade foi superior ao controle, sugerindo que esse meio é menos indicado, pois aumentar o tempo de fermentação não é uma alternativa positiva, visto que a concentração de carboidrato em 16 horas é muito baixa, com resultado próximo de zero. A baixa produção no tratamento CCM pode ser explicada pela presença da casca de café que possuem compostos fenólicos em sua composição e são considerados fatores antinutricionais (CALVERT, 1997). Podendo causar redução na absorção de nutrientes presentes no meio de cultivo (SINHA; KHARE, 2017), prejudicando o crescimento bacteriano e produção de CB. Sendo indicado o tratamento prévio da casca de café

com solventes orgânicos como etanol e metanol para extração desses compostos (KIM; LEE, 2002).

Figura 5 – (A) $Y_{P/S}$ de produção e (B) Q_p produtividade de celulose bacteriana durante o período de fermentação pela *K. xylinus*.



Legenda: (A): $Y_{P/S}$ produção; (B): Q_p : produtividade; GBM (glicerol bruto e milhocina), CCM (casca de café e milhocina). Letras diferentes são estatisticamente diferentes entre si ($p < 0,05$).

Fonte: do autor (2023).

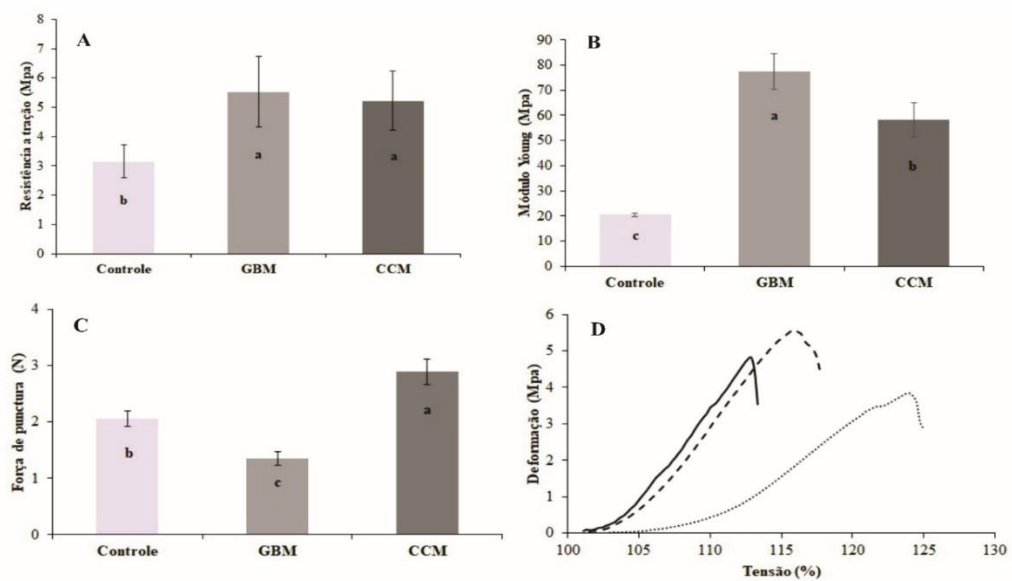
No presente estudo a produção no meio fermentativo GBM foi de 2,5 vezes maior (14,28 g L⁻¹ de CB) que o tratamento controle e produtividade 1,3 vezes maior (0,04 g L⁻¹ hora⁻¹) do que o tratamento CCM. O tratamento GBM que possui o glicerol bruto e a milhocina em sua composição, são ricos em nutrientes o que podem ter contribuído para potencializar os maiores resultados de produção e produtividade. O glicerol é rico em lipídeos (ácidos graxos) sendo considerado material de reserva energética caso o organismo fique sem suprimento de carbono, além de ser altamente assimilável, auxilia na regulação do potencial redox e favorece o uso de fosfato inorgânico dentro da célula (RATLEDGE, 2013). Compostos como ácidos orgânicos (succínico, láctico, acético), carboidratos e álcoois como etanol também compõem o glicerol (PARATE et al., 2018). A milhocina contém glicose, ácido láctico, ácido succínico, etanol, aminoácidos, vitaminas e minerais (WANG et al., 2014; AMARTEY; LEUNG, 2000).

Sendo assim, não existe um padrão de comportamento quando são utilizados cepas e meios de cultura variados. Os valores encontrados são dependentes do estado fisiológico da célula, vias metabólicas presentes nas cepas bacterianas e o meio de crescimento utilizado. Com isso, é importante investigar fonte de carbono e cepas bacterianas que melhor se adequem para obter maior produção de CB, pois as fontes de carbono levam a diferentes produções, produtividades e propriedades físicas (TABAI; EMTIAZI, 2016).

3.5 Propriedades Mecânicas observadas durante análise da celulose bacteriana

As propriedades mecânicas (resistência a tração, módulo *Young*, força de punctura e tenção versus deformação) são fatores importantes que devem ser avaliados para a aplicação da celulose (FIGURA 6). No geral, a CB dos tratamentos GBM e CCM se sobressaíram em relação ao controle para resistência a tração e módulo *Young*.

Figura 6 – Valores médios e desvio padrão das propriedades mecânicas da celulose bacteriana produzida em meios a base de manitol (controle), glicerol bruto (GBM) e casca de café (CCM) por *K. xylinus*. (A) resistência a tração, (B) módulo *Young*, (C) força de punctura e (D) tenção versus deformação.



Letras minúsculas nas barras (a, b e c) representam comparações estatísticas usando teste de *Tukey*, sendo que letras diferentes indicam diferenças significativas ($p < 0,05$) entre os tratamentos. Legenda: Controle (manitol), GBM (glicerol bruto e milhocina), CCM (casca de café e milhocina). (—) CCM, (- -) GBM e (.....) Controle.

Fonte: do autor (2023).

A celulose oriunda do controle apresentou valores inferiores para os parâmetros mecânicos: resistência a tração (2,2 Mpa) e módulo *Young* (20 Mpa) caracterizando menor resistência do material, causando fissuras na CB. A celulose do tratamento GBM apresentou maior resistência a tração e módulo *Young* (5,5 Mpa e 77,4 Mpa, respectivamente) o que representa melhor distribuição das nanofibrilas e maior compactação (DO LAGO et al, 2021). Enquanto a celulose do tratamento CCM apresentou maiores médias apenas para resistência a tração (5,2 Mpa).

A resistência a tração é a máxima tensão que o material pode suportar ao ser esticado antes de se romper (CALLISTER; RETHWISCH, 2008). O módulo *Young* está relacionado a

ligações interatômicas formadas pela celulose bacteriana e é diretamente proporcional a forças de ligações entre as moléculas. Logo a composição química do material está fortemente correlacionada a essa característica (CALLISTER; RETHWISCH, 2008).

A resistência a tração é um dos parâmetros analisados em biofiltros para que sejam utilizados como membranas na filtração de efluente principalmente a base de nanotubos de carbono. Estudos realizados por Pandey e Srivastava (2022), relataram que o filtro de membrana FMWCNTs a base de nanotubos de carbono é considerado um dos mais atuais e eficientes, e apresenta resistência a tração de 6 Mpa e nesse estudo o tratamento GBM apresentou valores próximos (5,5 Mpa). Testes realizados em filtros de nanotubos de carbono utilizados para filtrar efluentes que possuem hidrocarbonetos oriundos do petróleo e água contaminada por bactérias, como *Escherichia coli* ou o poliovírus nanométrico (~25nm) possui resistência a tração média de 2,2 Mpa, módulo *Young* de 50 Mpa (SRIVASTAVA et al., 2004). Nessa pesquisa os valores alcançados no tratamento GBM foram 5,5 Mpa e 77,4 Mpa, respectivamente. Logo, a CB do tratamento GBM apresentam características interessantes que podem ser exploradas nessa área.

As maiores médias para força de punctura que estão relacionados com a resistência da celulose bacteriana, foram observadas no tratamento CCM (2,9 N), que provavelmente possui quantidades suficientes de nanofibrilas que possibilitou maior força ao material para esse tratamento (GUIMARÃES et al., 2015).

A curva de tensão versus deformação (FIGURA 6D) indicam duas regiões denominadas linear (deformação elástica e recuperável) e não linear (deformação plástica e não recuperável). Sendo que a região denominada linear são os valores exponenciais observados no gráfico. No entanto, quando os valores decrescem de forma abrupta, a região passa a se chamar não linear (CALLISTER; RETHWISCH, 2008). A CB dos tratamentos GBM e CCM apresentaram maiores resistências do material ao processo de deformação (região linear), pois apresentaram maior inclinação da reta, assim o material resistiu o processo de deformação por mais tempo em relação ao tratamento controle. A CB forma redes extensas de nanofibrilas ligadas por ligações de hidrogênio o que atribui alta rigidez ao material (MARQUES et al., 2019).

3.6 Estrutura da celulose bacteriana através da microscopia eletrônica de varredura

A CB produzida em cada tratamento apresentou fibras com características e espaçamentos distintos dependendo do meio de cultura utilizado. Isso indica que a composição

dos meios de cultura empregados influencia na estrutura física e morfológica da celulose produzida (TABELA 1).

Tabela 1 – Caracterização da celulose bacteriana purificada e não purificada de acordo com os tratamentos controle, GBM e CCM.

CB	Tratamento	Característica da fibra	Rede de fibras	Diâmetro médio (μm)	Distância média entre as fibras (μm)
Purificada	Controle	Delgadas, lisas	Fibras mais frouxas.	0,5	1,24
	GBM	Rugosas	Pouco espaço entre as fibras.	1,24	0,5
	CCM	Delgadas, lisas	Fibras mais frouxas	0,8	2,47
Não purificada	Controle	Rugosas		3,3	2,52
	GBM	Lisas	Pouco espaço entre as fibras.	8,3	0,4
	CCM	Delgadas, lisas		2,0	2,37

Legenda: CB: Celulose bacteriana, Controle (manitol), GBM (glicerol bruto e milhocina), CCM (casca de café e milhocina).

A CB produzida no tratamento controle purificado (FIGURA 6A) apresentou fibras tridimensionais mais frouxas, com média de $1,24 \pm 0,1 \mu\text{m}$ de distância entre as fibras e diâmetro de $0,05 \pm 0,1 \mu\text{m}$. Enquanto que a CB não purificada apresentou maior distância ($2,52 \pm 0,2 \mu\text{m}$), e diâmetro de fibras seis vezes maior ($3,13 \pm 0,1 \mu\text{m}$) (FIGURAS 6B).

As fibras de CB do meio fermentativo GBM purificada apresentaram-se rugosas com diâmetro médio de $1,24 \pm 0,1 \mu\text{m}$, enquanto a celulose não purificada apresentou diâmetro médio de $8,3 \mu\text{m}$. Ambas com poucos espaços entre as fibras em relação aos outros tratamentos (cerca de 50% menos), formando uma estrutura mais compacta, com distância média de $0,5 \pm 0,1 \mu\text{m}$ entre fibras (FIGURAS 6C e 6D). Além disso, a celulose purificada (GBM) apresentou um tamanho 83% maior do que as fibras obtidas a partir do meio controle e 35,5% maior do que o tratamento CCM ($p < 0,05$). A estrutura da CB não purificada do tratamento GBM alcançou diâmetro médio de fibra 75,6% maior do que o tratamento CCM.

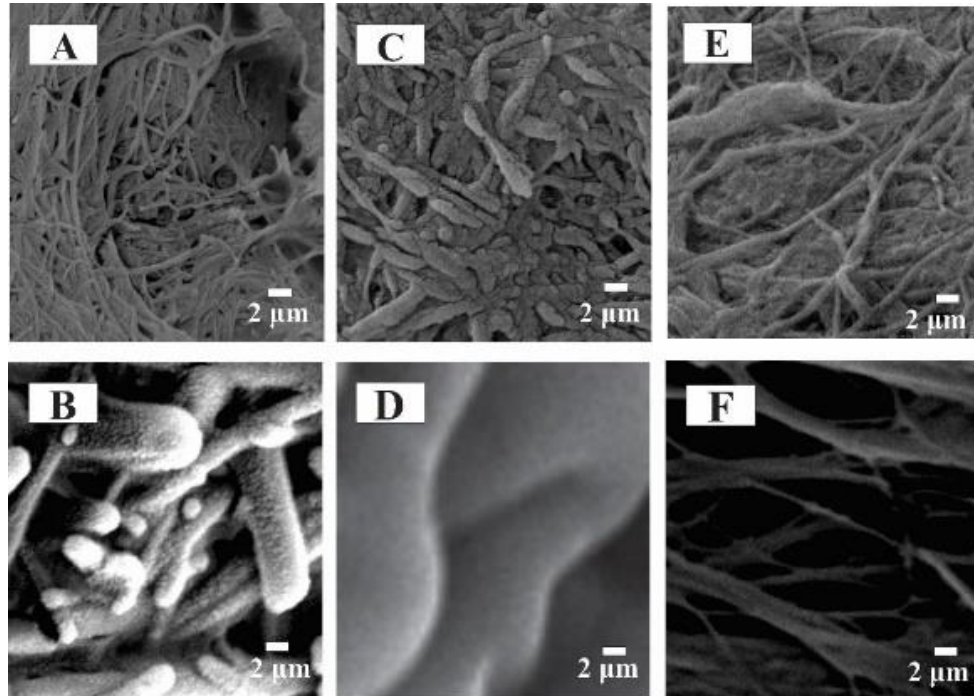
As distâncias médias entre as fibras de CB do tratamento CCM purificada e não purificada foram próximas ($2,47 \pm 0,1 \mu\text{m}$ e $2,37 \pm 0,1 \mu\text{m}$, respectivamente) não apresentando

diferença significativa entre elas e nanofibras mais delgadas foram observadas nesses tratamentos (diâmetro da fibra purificada $0,8 \pm 0,2 \mu\text{m}$ e não purificada $2 \pm 0,1 \mu\text{m}$) (FIGURAS 7E e 7F).

É característico da CB apresentar fibras entrelaçadas de maneira irregular e possuir espessuras que variam de 25 a 200 nm dependendo do meio de cultura utilizado (GAMA et al., 2016). Os tratamentos que apresentaram espessuras superiores podem ser explicados pela presença de meio de cultura que engloba a CB durante o processo de fermentação e que não passaram pelo processo de purificação.

A estrutura das fibras de CB confere a elas, alta resistência a umidade, rede nano porosa, capacidade de remover contaminantes, e, portanto, sendo indicadas para o tratamento de efluentes industriais (GALDINO et al., 2020; ALVES et al., 2020). Além disso, o diâmetro das fibras celulósicas pode ser correlacionado com a área de aplicação, como a área médica (curativos e vasos sanguíneos a base de CB, 300 nm) (CZAJA et al., 2006), embalagens de alimentos (80 - 180 nm), área da beleza como máscaras faciais (0,5 - 10 μm) (PACHECO et al., 2018) e tratamento de efluente contaminado com corantes e patógenos (10 - 250 nm) (ALVES et al., 2020).

Figura 7 – Microscopia eletrônica de varredura das nanofibrilas de celulose bacteriana em resposta aos meios fermentativos à base de manitol (controle), glicerol bruto (GBM) e casca de café (CCM) para produção de celulose por *K. xylinus* ATCC 23769.



Legenda: A, C e E: celulose purificada. B, D e F: celulose não purificada. [A e B - tratamento controle], [C e D - tratamento GBM (glicerol bruto e milhocina)], [E e F tratamento CCM (casca de café e milhocina)].

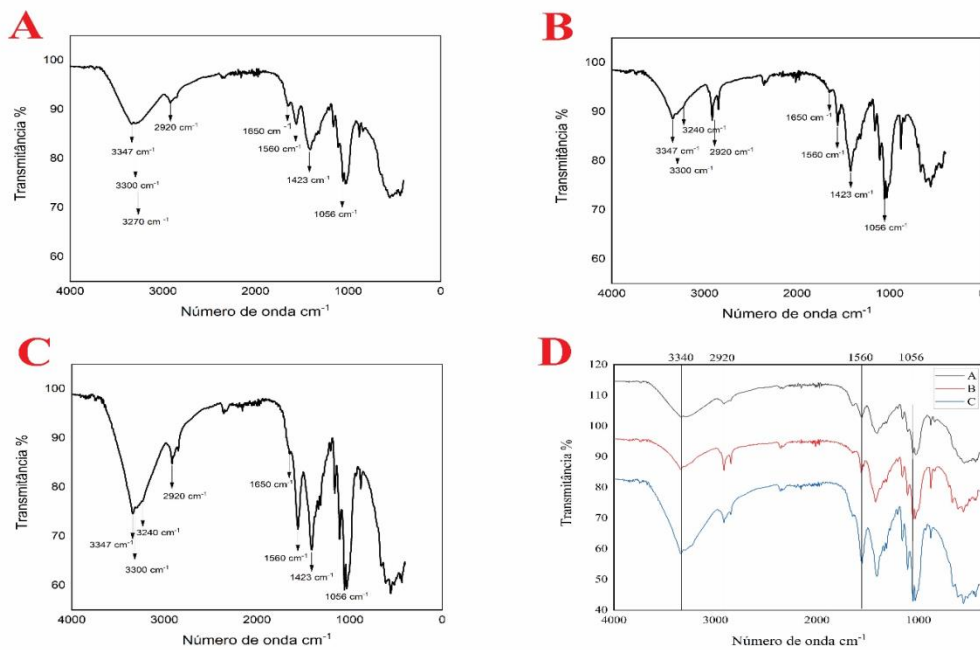
Fonte: do autor (2023).

A complexidade e as concentrações da composição química dos meios de cultura causaram mudanças na morfologia, arranjo e comprimento das fibras, como observado pelas diferentes estruturas das CB obtidas que pode estar relacionado a diferentes polissacarídeos dos coprodutos (URBINA et al 2021). Urbina et al. (2017), utilizaram coprodutos de maçã resultante da produção de sidra misturado com cana-de-açúcar para produzir CB e foi observado que as nanofibras decorrentes do meio HS eram mais espessas (63 nm) do que a CB produzida em meio a base de coprodutos de maçã (55 nm). O diâmetro médio das nanofibras observadas de CB produzida no meio à base de efluente residual do processamento de bala cristalizada foi de 5,9 nm (LI et al. 2015), em contrapartida em meio a base de casca de nóz-pecã o diâmetro médio foi de 165 nm (DÓRAME-MIRANDA et al. 2019).

3.7 Espectroscopia de Infravermelho (FTIR)

Os tratamentos apresentaram bandas típicas de absorção resultante que são representados por: ligações $-C O$ em torno de 1056 cm^{-1} , ligações $-C H$ em torno de 2920 cm^{-1} e ligações $-O H$ em torno de 3347 cm^{-1} (FIGURA 8). Os sinais próximos a 3270 cm^{-1} são indicativos de polímero como a celulose bacteriana do tipo I β (SUGIYAMA, PERSSON; CHANZY, 1991; SANTOS et al., 2015) como ocorreu na CB produzida no controle (FIGURA 8A). Porém é possível constatar que a celulose produzida nos tratamentos CCM e GBM são do tipo I α , com absorção resultante de 3340 cm^{-1} , indicativo de celulose cristalina (SUGIYAMA, PERSSON; CHANZY, 1991; SANTOS et al., 2015).

Figura 8 – Espectroscopia vibracional na região do infravermelho das fibras de celulose em resposta aos meios fermentativos (A) controle, (B) GBM, (C) CCM, (D) todos os tratamentos para identificação dos grupos químicos funcionais.



Legenda: 3347 cm^{-1} : ligações $-O H$; 3300 cm^{-1} : estiramento do $O-H$; 3270 cm^{-1} : celulose bacteriana tipo I β , 3240 cm^{-1} : celulose bacteriana tipo I α ; 2920 cm^{-1} : ligações $-C H$; 1650 cm^{-1} : ligações de hidrogênio entre os grupos $(COOH)$; 1560 cm^{-1} : água adsorvida pelo filme; 1423 cm^{-1} : a flexão do grupo CH_2 ; 1056 cm^{-1} : ligações $-C O$. Tratamento A (controle - manitol), B (GBM – glicerol bruto e milhocina), C (CCM – casca de café e milhocina), D (todos os tratamentos).

Fonte: do autor (2023).

A banda espectral localizada em torno de 1560 cm^{-1} é atribuída a vibração da água adsorvida pelo filme (YORDSHAHI et al., 2020). Além disso, os picos que estão em torno de 3300 cm^{-1} ocorreram devido ao estiramento dos grupos hidroxila presentes nos anéis de glicose da CB (JAMAL et al., 2020). Outra banda de absorção característica da CB foi observada em

1650 cm^{-1} que representa ligações de hidrogênio entre os grupos (COOH) indicando um grupo funcional útil para interagir com metais pesados (SAYAGO; CASTRO, 2022).

Outro aspecto que chama atenção são os picos mais alongados observados para a CB obtidas no meio fermentativo CCM (FIGURA 8C) em comparação aos outros tratamentos. As bandas localizadas em 3347 cm^{-1} para a celulose do tratamento CCM o pico apresentou maior intensidade, quase duas vezes mais do que o tratamento controle. Isso pode ser atribuído a vibração de estiramento do grupo –OH causado pela presença da água na superfície das fibras representando a água livre presente (WEI et al., 2017; WANG et al., 2014). Na absorvância de 1423 cm^{-1} apresentou uma transmitância para a CB sintetizada no meio de cultura do tratamento CCM (três vezes mais do que no tratamento controle) e representa a flexão do grupo CH_2 (BARUD et al., 2008). Por fim, foi observado maior intensidade na banda localizada em 1056 cm^{-1} da CB oriunda do meio fermentativo CCM, em que a transmitância foi 41% mais intenso do que o tratamento controle que se refere a deformação do grupo $\text{C} = \text{O}$ ou CO da cadeia principal de carboidratos (WEI et al., 2017).

As diferentes características observadas na CB possibilitam destinos diversos para o seu uso. CB com maior número de ligações de hidrogênio entre as fibras é indicado para ambientes contaminados com metais pesados (WANG; TAVAKOLI; TANG, 2019). CB com maior quantidade de água livre pode ser utilizada para área da beleza como máscaras faciais (DE AMORIM et al., 2020), assim como para produção de doces e curativos (ZHONG, 2020).

3.8 Uso de Celulose Bacteriana para filtrar efluente resultante da coloração de Gram

Nessa pesquisa foi empregado o uso de celulose bacteriana na filtração do efluente resultante da coloração de Gram. As características químicas do efluente estão apresentados na TABELA 2.

Tabela 2 – Análise do efluente resultante da coloração de Gram após seu uso para identificação de bactérias Gram positivas e negativas.

Análises	Sem filtrar	Filtro 1	Filtro 2
DBO (mg L ⁻¹) (Demanda bioquímica de oxigênio)	269	122	100
DQO (mg L ⁻¹) (Demanda química de oxigênio)	879	396	180
Nitrogênio Total (mg L ⁻¹)	1,55	2,35	1,55
Sólidos Sedimentáveis (mg L ⁻¹)	< 0,5	< 0,5	< 0,5
Cor Verdadeira (Uc)	64	50	10

Legenda: Sem filtrar: Efluente não filtrado; Filtro 1: Efluente filtrado com CB cultivada no meio controle; Filtro 2: Efluente filtrado com a CB cultivada no meio GBM.

Amostras de efluente resultante da coloração de Gram foram avaliadas, e os resultados demonstraram que a demanda bioquímica de oxigênio (DBO), equivalente a quantidade de matéria orgânica biodegradável presente na água (HUSSAIN et al., 2021), apresentaram diferentes resultados entre os efluentes analisados. Segundo Derisio (1992) águas não poluídas apresentam saturação de 8 mg L⁻¹, a 25 °C em uma altitude de 0 a 1000 metros. Dependendo da fonte poluidora altos índices de DBO são atingidos como, esgoto doméstico (300 mg L⁻¹), cervejaria (1000 - 2000 mg L⁻¹), curtumes (1000 - 1500 mg L⁻¹) e laticínios (500 - 2000 mg L⁻¹) (MOTA, 1995). Em águas poluídas os microrganismos anaeróbios se multiplicam rapidamente elevando a reação de oxidação dos compostos orgânicos, prejudicando a sobrevivência dos seres vivos aeróbicos no ambiente aquático (AHMED; SHAH, 2017).

É importante destacar que águas que apresentam baixas concentrações de oxigênio dissolvido contêm alto DBO. O oxigênio é considerado um gás pouco solúvel, pois sua solubilidade depende da pressão, temperatura e sais presentes (AHMED; SHAH, 2017). Os resultados dessa pesquisa expressam que o efluente do filtro 2 apresentou menor nível de DBO (100 mg L⁻¹), quando comparados aos demais efluentes avaliados (sem filtro: 269 mg L⁻¹; filtro 1: 122 mg L⁻¹). Logo, o filtro 2 indicou maior concentração de oxigênio dissolvido. De acordo com a resolução N° 430 de 13 de maio de 2011 do Conama (Conselho Nacional do Meio Ambiente), efluentes com DBO de até 120 mg L⁻¹ são um dos parâmetros permitidos para o seu lançamento em sistema de tratamento de esgoto sanitário (CONAMA, 2011). Assim, o filtro 2 (100 mg L⁻¹), está dentro da faixa tolerável de DBO permitida.

Outro indicador essencial que detecta a presença de contaminantes orgânicos na água é a Demanda Química de Oxigênio (DQO). Esse método detecta a quantidade de oxigênio molecular (mg de O₂) que são necessários para quebrar todas as substâncias orgânicas por litro de efluente em CO₂ e H₂O pela oxidação química (ELFEKY et al., 2022). Essa oxidação

geralmente é realizada utilizando agentes químicos oxidantes fortes como dicromato, cério (IV), iodato e permanganato (VALENTE et al., 1997).

O efluente sem filtrar apresentou concentração de DQO 62,8% maior que o efluente proveniente do filtro 2. Enquanto que o efluente oriundo do filtro 1 apresentou concentração 18% maior de DQO que o efluente decorrente do filtro 2. Logo, o uso do biofiltro produzido no meio GBM foi capaz de diminuir os níveis de DQO de forma mais eficiente do que os outros biofiltros, sendo observado DQO de 180 mg L^{-1} , respeitando os limites estabelecidos pela normativa N° 1 do Copam 2008 de Minas Gerais que autoriza o lançamento de efluentes com esse nível de DQO em corpos d'água (COPAM, 2008). O Conama (Conselho Nacional do Meio Ambiente), 2011 estabelece que o DQO pode ser de até 200 mg L^{-1} .

Segundo Porto (1991), o efluente é considerado biodegradável quando a relação DQO/DBO apresentam valores menores do que 5. Todos os efluentes foram considerados biodegradáveis, entretanto o efluente oriundo do filtro 2 apresentou resultados inferiores (1,9) aos outros efluentes (sem filtrar - 3,3 e efluente do filtro 1 - 3,2).

O parâmetro nitrogênio total é considerado um fator limitante para o processo de eutrofização dos corpos d'água. Após o processo de oxidação, o nitrogênio total não deve ultrapassar $2,18 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ em ambientes com água de fluxo constante como rios, riachos e córregos (CONAMA, 2005; 2011). Os resultados mostraram que o efluente oriundo do filtro 2 apresentou concentração de $1,5 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ de nitrogênio total, cumprindo as condições padrões de qualidade da água.

A cor verdadeira também foi um dos parâmetros avaliados e se refere a determinação da cor em amostras sem turbidez medidos logo após o processo de filtração ou centrifugação (RICE et al., 2012). Os resultados mostram que o efluente do filtro 2 também se sobressaiu em relação aos outros efluentes. A cor verdadeira do efluente sem filtrar foi 84,4% maior que o 2; e o efluente do filtro 1 foi 80% maior que o 2.

Logo, o uso de celulose bacteriana mostrou ser um sistema promissor de filtração de efluente oriundo da coloração de Gram e melhoria dos recursos hídricos.

As características do efluente são análises importantes, porém outros padrões de qualidade para o lançamento de efluentes precisam ser averiguados para o destino correto e seguro do resíduo como, sólidos suspensos, valores permitidos de arsênio, bário, boro, cádmio, chumbo, cromo, mercúrio, níquel, sulfeto, zinco e outros parâmetros inorgânicos determinados pelo Conama seguindo a resolução N° 430 de 2011 (CONAMA, 2011).

4.0 CONCLUSÕES

O presente estudo demonstra que os coprodutos (glicerol bruto, milhocina e casca de café) podem ser usados como fonte de carbono para a produção de celulose bacteriana. No entanto, as condições de fermentação alteram as características morfológicas e químicas da celulose, impactando na possível aplicação. Apesar do meio fermentativo GBM e a bactéria *K. xylinus* ATCC 23769 relatado aqui é, até agora, a mais alta na produção de CB, é importante testar novos coprodutos e concentrações para incrementar a produtividade. O biofiltro oriundo do tratamento GBM se destacou na filtragem de efluente de microscopia, o que pode despertar interesse para estudos mais avançados nessa área, assim como testar outros tipos de corantes.

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