

**Biosurfactant production and concomitant hydrocarbon degradation potentials  
of bacteria isolated from extreme and hydrocarbon contaminated environments**

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## Abstract

Amongst the total forty-seven bacterial isolates, eleven potent biosurfactant producing and concomitant hydrocarbon degraders were obtained after primary screening involving drop collapse method (DCM) and Oil-spreading method (OSM) followed by secondary screening comprising of Haemolytic assay (HA), Cetyl trimethyl ammonium bromide (CTAB) assay, Surface tension (ST), Emulsification index ( $E_{24}$ ) and Emulsification activity (EA). 16S-rRNA sequencing and phylogenetic analysis revealed the presence of *Achromobacter*, *Bacillus*, *Citrobacter*, *Lysinibacillus*, *Ochrobactrum* and *Pseudomonas*. Two genera, *Achromobacter* (PS1) (observed for the first time) and *Bacillus* (SLDB1) were found to be glycolipid producers as evident by TLC, FT-IR and GC-MS chromatograms. The surface tension values were 30.43 mN/m and 31.10 mN/m with ( $E_{24}$ ) of 69.90% and 65.23% respectively. Similarly the TLC, FT-IR and GC-MS results of the other two genera *Ochrobactrum* (GREW1) and *Bacillus* (SB2) confirmed them as lipopeptide biosurfactant producers with surface tension values of 31.14 mN/m and 28.16 mN/m and ( $E_{24}$ ) of 59.51% and 61.35% respectively. Qualitative 2,6 - Dichlorophenol Indophenol (2,6 - DCPIP) and quantitative methods for hydrocarbon degradation revealed that *Achromobacter* sp. (PS1) showed a maximum degradation (46.32%) of 2% (w/v) crude oil with 70.77% and 77.17% reduction in peak area of aliphatic and aromatic fractions respectively with simultaneous lowering of surface tension from 59.27 mN/m (control) to 32.43 mN/m in 7 days. In case of *Achromobacter* sp. (PS1) and *Bacillus* sp. (SB2 and SLDB1), glucose supported biosurfactant production, whereas in *Ochrobactrum* sp. (GREW1) glucose along with 1% diesel enhanced biosurfactant production. This signifies the role of substrate in the nature of biosurfactants produced.

**Keywords:** Biosurfactant; Hydrocarbon degradation; Microbial Diversity; Glycolipid; Lipopeptide.

1 **1. Introduction**

2 Keeping in view of the increasing awareness towards environmental safeguards, stringent policies,  
3 volatile petroleum prices and simultaneous increase in consumer's demand, in recent years, the  
4 focus has been directed at the use of microbially produced surface active amphiphilic compounds  
5 known as the biosurfactants. They are promising substitutes for chemically – synthesized  
6 surfactants because of their unique properties like higher biodegradability, low toxicity, ecological  
7 acceptability, increased surface activities, higher foaming, low critical micelle concentrations  
8 (CMC), high selectivity and specificity at extreme temperatures, pH and salinity ranges.  
9 Biosurfactants constitute a heterogeneous group of biomolecules ranging from low molecular  
10 weight glycolipids, lipopeptides, flavolipids, phospholipids to high-molecular-weight polymers as  
11 lipoproteins, lipopolysaccharide-protein complexes and polysaccharide protein fatty acid  
12 complexes with wide structural and functional variability. These factors make them a  
13 multifunctional material of the 21<sup>st</sup> century with many commercial applications as cosmetics,  
14 personal care, textile processing, food, agricultural formulations, pharmaceutical industries, soil  
15 remediation, hydrocarbon degradation and oil recovery. For a bioremediation application, where  
16 solubility is an important criterion, biosurfactants prove to be promising vehicles for the removal  
17 of toxic polyaromatic hydrocarbons / dyes from contaminated soil / aquifers by lowering the  
18 surface tension and increasing the solubility of these compounds, thereby enhancing their  
19 bioavailability. In heavy metal-contaminated environments, biosurfactant enhances metal  
20 desorption from soils by forming complexes with free non-ionic forms of metals in solution. It  
21 also makes direct contact with absorbed metals at solid-solution interface under conditions of  
22 reduced interfacial tension with subsequent sequestration of metals into micelles [1].

23 Globally, in 2015 the biosurfactant market was estimated at 370.5 kilo tons, which is expected to  
24 reach 476.5 kilo tons equivalent to 2.21 billion USD by 2018 and to a further 2.69 billion USD by  
25 2023 with a compound annual growth rate (CAGR) of 4.2% [2]. However, the successful  
26 commercialization of the biosurfactants is hindered by the high raw material and processing costs,  
27 lower product concentrations and severe stable foam formation under aerated and agitated  
28 conditions. These factors can be overcome by the selection of efficient strains, optimized medium  
29 composition, use of cost-free agro-industrial wastes, development of novel economical and  
30 efficient downstream processing methods. This study is designed to isolate and screen potent  
31 biosurfactant producing bacteria with hydrocarbon degrading potential.

## 32 **2. Materials and methods**

### 33 **2.1. Chemicals**

34 All chemicals, solvents and reagents used in the present study were of analytical grade. The crude  
35 oil was provided by IOCL Mathura refinery, Uttar Pradesh, India. Glycolipid (Rhamnolipid)  
36 standard (JBR 215, 15% solution in water) was obtained from Jeneil biosurfactant Company  
37 (Saukville, WI, USA), Lipopeptide standard (Surfactin) of 99.0% purity from Sigma.

### 38 **2.2. Sampling sites**

39 Hydrocarbon contaminated samples as oil spilled soil, raw oil effluent, activated sludge, refinery  
40 tank settled sludge, sludge with oil recovered, dry sludge, waste drain, refinery tank cleaning water,  
41 surge pond water and bioremediation site soil were collected from various sections of petroleum  
42 refineries as these are known to be excellent sources for isolating biosurfactant producing  
43 microbes. Also, the samples from extreme environments as desert soil and hot spring water were  
44 collected. The samples were collected in sterile Duran bottles and stored at 4°C until use.

### 45 **2.3. Enrichment and isolation**

46 For isolation of pure microbial colonies, collected samples were subjected to three successive  
47 cycles of enrichment in erlenmeyer flasks containing 50 mL of minimal salt medium (MSM), pH  
48 6.5 supplemented with 1% (v/v) of sterile diesel as carbon source and incubated at 30°C, 120 rpm  
49 for 7 days. The composition of minimal salt medium (g/L) is as follows: NaNO<sub>3</sub> (7.5); KCl (1.1);  
50 NaCl (1.1); FeSO<sub>4</sub>.7H<sub>2</sub>O (0.00028); K<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub> (4.4); KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> (3.4); MgSO<sub>4</sub>.7H<sub>2</sub>O (0.5); yeast  
51 extract (0.5); glucose (C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>12</sub>O<sub>6</sub>) (10.0) and trace element composition (g/L): ZnSO<sub>4</sub>.7H<sub>2</sub>O (0.29);  
52 CaCl<sub>2</sub>.4H<sub>2</sub>O (0.24); CuSO<sub>4</sub>.5H<sub>2</sub>O (0.25); MnSO<sub>4</sub>. H<sub>2</sub>O (0.17) [3].

53 The final enrichment culture broth was plated on Bushnell Haas (BH) agar plates supplemented  
54 with (1% v/v) diesel and incubated at 30°C for 24 h. BH agar is a recommended medium for  
55 studying the microbial utilization of hydrocarbons. The composition of BH agar (g/L) is,  
56 MgSO<sub>4</sub>.7H<sub>2</sub>O (0.2); CaCl<sub>2</sub>.4H<sub>2</sub>O (0.02); KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> (1.0); K<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub> (1.0); NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub> (1.0); FeCl<sub>3</sub> (0.05)  
57 and agar (20.0) [4]. Phenotypically different colonies were picked and pure colonies were  
58 maintained on nutrient agar (NA) plates with subsequent sub-culturing for further studies.

#### 59 **2.4. Screening of biosurfactant producing isolates**

60 The phenotypically different colonies obtained were initially screened using drop collapse and oil  
61 spread method as these methods give more precise response based on the surfactant property. The  
62 stability of the drops and the displacement of oil are dependent on the surface tension and  
63 correlated to the biosurfactant concentration [5]. Subsequently, the colonies found positive in  
64 primary screening were further selected for secondary screening.

##### 65 **2.4.1. Primary screening:**

66 **2.4.1.1. Drop collapse method (DCM):** Approximately 40 µL of culture filtrate was placed on  
67 the hydrophobic surface of parafilm strip to observe the shape of the drop. The presence of  
68 surfactant leads to a reduction in the interfacial tension between the hydrophobic film and

69 hydrophilic drop which cause the appearance of flat/collapsed drops on the film. Un-inoculated  
70 filtrate served as the negative control [5].

71 **2.4.1.2. Oil-spreading method (OSM):** Approximately 30 mL of distilled water was poured to a  
72 petri dish of 90 mm diameter followed by the addition of 30  $\mu$ L of diesel on the water surface to  
73 form a thin oil layer. Subsequently, 10  $\mu$ L of culture supernatant obtained after seven days of  
74 incubation was gently placed on the center of the oil layer surface. The diameter of displaced oil  
75 was chosen as the criteria for the selection of potent biosurfactant producers [5].

#### 76 **2.4.2. Secondary screening:**

77 **2.4.2.1. Haemolytic assay (HA):** Haemolytic assay was carried out by incubating the streaked 5%  
78 blood agar plates (Hi-Media) with overnight grown culture at 30°C for three days [5]. Appearance  
79 of dark green zones under the colonies indicate alpha haemolysis or partial haemolysis. A yellow  
80 transparent zone around the colony indicate beta or complete hemolysis of the blood cells. No  
81 change in the blood agar plates indicates gamma or no hemolysis. Alpha and beta haemolysis were  
82 considered positive for biosurfactant production.

83 **2.4.2.2. Cetyl trimethyl ammonium bromide (CTAB) agar test:** Approximately 30  $\mu$ L of each  
84 72h cell-free culture supernatant was loaded into pre-cut wells in CTAB-methylene blue agar  
85 plates and incubated at 30°C for 72 h. The appearance of a dark blue halo zone around the well  
86 was considered positive for anionic biosurfactant production [6].

87 **2.4.2.3. Emulsification index (E<sub>24</sub>):** In a 15 mL clear glass tube, 1 mL each of diesel and seventh  
88 day culture filtrate was added and vortexed vigorously for 2 min. The emulsified mixture was  
89 allowed to stand undisturbed at room temperature for 24 h to separate the aqueous and oil phases.  
90 The emulsification index (E<sub>24</sub>) was calculated as the percentage of height (cm) of the emulsion  
91 layer divided by the total height (cm) [5].

92 **2.4.2.4. Emulsification activity (EA):** For emulsification activity, an emulsification mixture  
93 comprising of 0.3 mL diesel, 1 mL of buffer and 0.5 mL of cell-free supernatant was incubated for  
94 1h at room temperature and the absorbance of the aqueous layer was determined  
95 spectrophotometrically at 400 nm. This constitutes the test sample ( $A_T$ ) as against the control ( $A_C$ )  
96 in which the cell-free supernatant was replaced by 0.5 mL distilled water. The dilution factor was  
97 kept into consideration [7].

$$98 \quad \text{EU/mL} = \text{Absorbance at 400nm} \times \text{dilution factor}/0.01 \quad \text{Eq (A.1)}$$

99 **2.4.2.5. Surface Tension (ST):** The surface tension of the culture filtrate obtained after seven days  
100 of incubation was measured with a digital surface tensiometer (SEO, Instruments, Korea) working  
101 on the principle of Du Nouy ring method [8]. An un-inoculated flask served as the control. The  
102 lowering of surface tension is dependent on the surfactant property. All surface tension readings  
103 were taken in triplicates.

## 104 **2.5. Identification of the biosurfactant producers**

### 105 **2.5.1. Biochemical characterization**

106 The bacterial isolates were characterized and identified using the results of following biochemical  
107 tests - IMViC, catalase, coagulase, triple sugar iron (TSI), arginine dihydrolase, casease, gelatin  
108 hydrolysis as recommended by Bergey's manual of determinative bacteriology and as described  
109 in "Laboratory exercises in microbiology" [9,10].

### 110 **2.5.2. Molecular identification**

#### 111 **2.5.2.1. DNA extraction and PCR amplification of 16S-rRNA gene fragment**

112 The bacterial isolates were identified by 16S-rRNA gene sequencing. Genomic DNA of the  
113 bacterial isolates was extracted from overnight grown culture, the extracted genomic DNA was  
114 used as the template for PCR amplification of the 16S-rRNA sequence of the isolates using two

115 universal primers. These were BS1F 5'-GAGTTTGATCCTGGCTCA-3' and BS1R  
116 5'ACGGCTACCTTGTTACGACTT-3', which are complementary to the conserved regions at the  
117 5'- and 3'- ends of the 16S-rRNA gene corresponding to positions 9-27bp and 1477-1498bp of the  
118 *Escherichia coli* 16S-rRNA gene [11]. The thermal cycle amplification program was performed  
119 on a Bio-Rad PCR system 2400 (Bio-Rad laboratories, USA) with temperature program as: 94°C  
120 for 5 min, 94°C for 1 min, 54°C for 1 min, 72°C for 1 min, 30 cycles; then final extension at 72°C  
121 for 10 min and finally storage at 4°C. The purity and size of each PCR product was examined by  
122 resolving the amplified product by gel electrophoresis on 2.0% agarose gel in 1× TAE (Tris acetate  
123 EDTA) buffer for 1–2 h at 80V. The gel profiles were visualized in UV gel documentation system  
124 (Bio-Rad laboratories, USA).

125 The sequencing of the amplified 16S-rRNA gene was outsourced from Eurofins genomics India  
126 Pvt. Ltd. Bangalore. The amplified 16S-rRNA gene was sequenced through Sanger sequencing  
127 method in Applied Biosystems 3730xL Genetic Analyzers, USA. The sequenced nucleotides were  
128 searched for 16S-rRNA gene sequence homology using BLAST algorithm with NCBI database  
129 [12].

130 Multiple sequence alignment was performed using CLUSTAL W and the phylogenetic tree was  
131 constructed using the Neighbor-Joining method. The evolutionary distances were computed using  
132 the maximum composite likelihood method and were expressed in the units of the number of base  
133 substitutions per site. Phylogenetic analyses were conducted using MEGA4 [13].

134 The 16S-rRNA sequences of isolates from this study have been submitted to the NCBI Genbank  
135 database and the accession numbers have been provided for the same.

## 136 **2.6. Evaluation of hydrocarbon degrading potential**



137 One of the numerous adaptations of microorganisms induced by presence of hydrocarbons is  
138 biosurfactant production, which helps in metabolizing and degrading hydrocarbons thereby  
139 representing a physiological response [14]. Hence, the eleven selected isolates obtained after  
140 secondary screening were also evaluated for hydrocarbon degradation potential both qualitatively  
141 and quantitatively.

#### 142 **2.6.1. Qualitative degradation using Di-chlorophenol indophenol (DCPIP) method**

143 Hydrocarbons ranging from simple to complex with varying chain lengths were selected to  
144 evaluate the hydrocarbon degrading potential of the isolates using DCPIP as redox indicator in W  
145 medium with hydrocarbon source at 1% (v/v) [15]. These were hexane, decane, benzene, diesel  
146 (C10 - C19 hydrocarbons) and crude oil (mixture of straight or branched chain aliphatics ranging  
147 from C4 - C40 and aromatics from benzene to multi-ring polycyclic compounds). The acceptance  
148 of electrons by an electron acceptor (DCPIP) results in the change of redox state from oxidized  
149 (blue) to reduced state (colourless) thereby indicating the use of the hydrocarbon as carbon source.

#### 150 **2.6.2. Quantitative degradation using gravimetric method and GC-FID**

##### 151 **Gravimetric method**

152 Quantitatively the degradation of the hydrocarbon, in crude oil was evaluated by inoculating  
153 overnight grown culture ( $OD_{600}$  equivalent to 1.0) of these respective eleven isolates separately in  
154 50 mL of MSM supplemented with 2% (w/v) crude oil as sole carbon source at 30°C, 120 rpm for  
155 seven days. Un-inoculated medium was treated as control. After seven days of incubation, the  
156 culture broth was filtered through a porous layer of non-absorbent cotton to separate the crude oil  
157 from the growth medium. The filtered broth was then centrifuged at 5000 rpm, 4°C and the  
158 supernatant was analyzed for surface tension measurements. Each treatment was performed in  
159 triplicates [16].

160 The residual amount of the total petroleum hydrocarbon (TPH) in the flask and the cotton was  
161 recovered by adding 20 mL of petroleum ether thrice. The petroleum ether fraction containing the  
162 residual crude oil of each treatment was pooled and dehydrated using anhydrous sodium sulfate  
163 for 4 h to remove moisture. This was then vacuum dried using a rotary evaporator at 40°C. The  
164 mass of the residual oil was measured by gravimetric method using a high accuracy electronic  
165 balance (Sartorius, Germany). The degrading efficiency of the isolates was calculated as follows  
166 [17],

$$167 \quad \text{TPH degrading efficiency} = [1 - (Y + e) / X] * 100 \quad \text{Eq (A.2)}$$

168 Where 'X' is initial crude oil concentration (g)

169 'Y' is residual oil (g)

170 'e' is oil loss (g) due to evaporation, [Oil loss = weight of crude oil in control (uninoculated)  
171 flask at zero day of incubation - weight of crude oil in control (uninoculated) flask after seven  
172 days of incubation]

### 173 **Gas Chromatography -FID Analysis**

174 Approximately 0.1g of degraded TPH was dissolved in *n*-pentane to remove all asphaltenes;  
175 subsequently, the soluble fraction was air dried and re-dissolved in 1 mL of hexane and loaded on  
176 silica gel (60-120 mesh) column. Aliphatic and aromatic fractions of the crude oil were separated  
177 by eluting the loaded sample using hexane (150 mL) and toluene (150 mL) respectively [18]. The  
178 hexane and toluene extracted fractions were further vacuum dried and analyzed by gas  
179 chromatography (GC) (Shimadzu GC-2010 7890A) with flame ionization detector (FID) using  
180 capillary Rtx-5MS column (25 m × 0.25 mm × 0.25 μm) to examine the degradation profile of  
181 crude oil by these eleven isolates. The oven temperature program was: initial temperature: 110°C

182 held for 2 min, then heated to 250°C at 10°C/min and held for 5 min, then heated to 280°C at  
183 15°C/min and held for 17 min. Nitrogen was used as carrier gas (28.4 mL/min).

## 184 **2.7. Biosurfactant production profile for four best biosurfactant producers**

185 Based on the biosurfactant production and hydrocarbon degradation profile, four organisms were  
186 selected to evaluate the biosurfactant production pattern in terms of supplementation of carbon  
187 source in MSM. The experiment involved three sets; A: 1% (w/v) dextrose supplemented with 1%  
188 (v/v) diesel; B: 1% (w/v) dextrose only and C: 1% (v/v) diesel only.

## 189 **2.8. Extraction of biosurfactant**

190 The culture filtrate obtained was acidified with 6N HCl to pH 2.0 and kept overnight for  
191 precipitation. The precipitate was separated after centrifugation and extracted twice with a mixture  
192 of chloroform: methanol (2:1 v/v). The extracts were pooled and were concentrated under vacuum  
193 using a rotary evaporator [16].

## 194 **2.9. Characterization of the partially purified biosurfactant**

### 195 **2.9.1. Thin layer chromatography**

196 The partially purified extract was analyzed by thin layer chromatography (TLC) on silica gel 60  
197 F<sub>254</sub> plates (Merck Co., Inc., Darmstadt, Germany) with a solvent system consisting of  
198 chloroform/methanol/water (65:15:2, v/v/v) and visualized with different color developing  
199 reagents. Ninhydrin reagent (0.2% ninhydrin in ethanol) was used to detect lipopeptide  
200 biosurfactant as red-pink spots, iodine vapour for detecting lipids, orcinol-sulphuric acid reagent  
201 (1% in concentrated sulphuric acid) for the presence of glycolipids which shows the appearance  
202 of brown spots on heating to 110°C [16].

### 203 **2.9.2. Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopy**

204 Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR) analysis for molecular composition of  
205 biosurfactant was carried out using a Varian-7000 Fourier transform-infrared spectrophotometer  
206 by first preparing its pellet in spectral grade KBr applying 5–6 tons /cm<sup>2</sup> of pressure for 10 min  
207 using the hydraulic press followed by its scanning in the transmittance mode in the range of 400–  
208 4000 cm<sup>-1</sup> with a resolution of 4 cm<sup>-1</sup> [12].

### 209 **2.9.3. Gas chromatography–mass spectrometry (GC–MS) of fatty acids**

210 The partially purified biosurfactant (10 mg) was dissolved and derivatized in 1 mL of 1M HCl–  
211 methanol using a closed screw-cap tube for 4 h at 100°C. The product containing the fatty acid  
212 methyl esters (FAMES) was partitioned by adding double distilled H<sub>2</sub>O (1 mL) and the organic  
213 phase was extracted over anhydrous sodium sulfate for moisture removal. The samples were  
214 analyzed by GC-MS: 1 µl was injected into a Shimadzu GC–MS (QP2010 ultra) equipped with a  
215 RTX-5MS fused silica capillary column (0.25 mm film thickness, 0.25 mm internal diameter, 30  
216 m in length). Helium at 1.5 mL/min flow rate was used as the carrier gas and the operating  
217 temperature of the column and injector were 140°C and 260°C respectively, the electron impact  
218 ion source was maintained at 230°C. Electron impact mass spectra were recorded at 70 keV. The  
219 mass spectrum of each fatty acid methyl ester was matched to the “National Institute of Standards  
220 and Technology” (NIST) mass spectral library database to determine probable fatty acids  
221 composition of the biosurfactant.

## 222 **3. Results and Discussion**

### 223 **3.1. Screening and identification of biosurfactant producing isolates**

224 Amongst forty-seven total isolates, thirty-seven isolates showed positive results for DCM and  
225 OSM respectively in primary screening (Table 1). Of these thirty-seven primary screened colonies,  
226 eleven colonies were finally selected based on secondary screening results which involved

227 lowering of surface tension in the range between 28 to 42 mN/m with the maximum reduction  
228 observed in *Bacillus* sp. (SB2), *Achromobacter* sp. (PS1), *Bacillus* sp. (SLDB1) and  
229 *Ochrobactrum* sp. (GREW1) with values of  $28.16 \pm 0.19$  mN/m,  $30.43 \pm 0.44$  mN/m,  $31.10 \pm 0.71$   
230 mN/m and  $31.14 \pm 0.68$  mN/m respectively as against the un-inoculated (control) medium with  
231 a surface tension of  $69.84 \pm 2.2$  mN/m and deionized water of  $70.31 \pm 1.84$  mN/m (Table 2).  
232 Cooper [19] reported that an isolate can be a promising biosurfactant producer if it reduces the  
233 surface tension of a liquid medium to 40 mN/m or less. The highest emulsification index ( $E_{24}$ ) of  
234  $69.90 \pm 0.97\%$ ,  $65.23 \pm 1.48\%$ ,  $64.22 \pm 1.44\%$  and  $61.35 \pm 1.15\%$  was observed in isolates  
235 *Achromobacter* sp. (PS1), *Bacillus* sp. (SLDB1), *Pseudomonas* sp. (MRBSIT1), and *Bacillus* sp.  
236 (SB2) respectively with stable emulsions even after one week. The similar rating was observed for  
237 emulsification activity with highest in *Achromobacter* sp. (PS1) ( $97.05 \pm 1.62$  EU/mL). These  
238 colonies also showed mucoid colony morphology on BH agar plates supplemented with diesel  
239 indicating the production of exopolysaccharides as reported by Subudhi et al. [20].

240 Among the eleven isolates, five isolates were found to be Gram negative and six were Gram  
241 positive. The sequence and the phylogenetic analysis are shown in Fig. 1. The 16S-rRNA gene  
242 revealed the presence of six different genera *Achromobacter*, *Bacillus*, *Citrobacter*, *Lysinibacillus*,  
243 *Ochrobactrum* and *Pseudomonas*. These genera belonged to either Proteobacteria or Firmicutes  
244 phylum (Table 3). The 16S-rRNA gene sequence analysis showed 100% sequence similarity for  
245 *Pseudomonas* sp. (MRBSIT1) and *Ochrobactrum* sp. (GREW1), whereas 99% for all the other  
246 isolates. Occurrence of *Pseudomonas* as the dominant genera for biosurfactant production in  
247 hydrocarbon contaminated environments has also been reported by Chirwa and Bezza [21]. Saisa-  
248 Ard et al. [22] reported species belonging to *Acinetobacter*, *Bacillus*, *Corynebacterium*,  
249 *Pseudomonas*, *Rhodococcus* and *Serratia* as the most widely reported genera for biosurfactant-

250 producing bacteria from hydrocarbon contaminated terrestrial or marine sites, however only very  
251 few reports have been highlighted related to biosurfactant production from genera *Achromobacter*  
252 [23], *Citrobacter* [24], *Lysinibacillus* [25] and *Ochrobactrum* [26].

### 253 **3.2. Evaluation of the hydrocarbon degrading potential of biosurfactant producers**

254 Evaluation of qualitative hydrocarbon degradation using DCPIP by the eleven isolates of genera  
255 *Achromobacter*, *Bacillus*, *Citrobacter*, *Lysinibacillus*, *Ochrobactrum*, and *Pseudomonas* showed  
256 positive results for 1% (v/v) crude oil and diesel (Table 4). Of all the genera, only *Pseudomonas*  
257 (MRBSIT1) and two isolates of *Bacillus* (TC2 and SB2) were found to degrade hexane. For  
258 benzene, *Pseudomonas* (MRBSIT1) and *Citrobacter* (BRRO1) showed positive results. This  
259 limitation in degradation behavior with respect to hexane and benzene hydrocarbons may be  
260 explained on the basis of log  $K_{ow}$  (octanol/water partition coefficient), which proves to be a useful  
261 parameter to predict the suitability of the solvent for bioconversion [27]. It is well established that  
262 the solubility of hydrocarbons in aqueous system decrease while their respective log  $K_{ow}$  values  
263 increase with the corresponding increase in the molecular weight of hydrocarbons. This allows the  
264 diffusion of low molecular weight hydrocarbons hexane and benzene having low log  $K_{ow}$  values  
265 of 2.3 and 3.5 respectively from the surrounding aqueous system to the cells thereby destabilizing  
266 the cell membrane integrity and thus resulting in the limitation of hydrocarbon degradation. On  
267 the other hand, the higher molecular weight hydrocarbons (decane and diesel) with low solubility  
268 in aqueous system and corresponding higher  $K_{ow}$  values of 5.6 and 7.7 respectively form a biphasic  
269 system with the W medium used in DCPIP method. In the presence of these less soluble  
270 hydrocarbons, the logarithmic phase cells with cell density of 1.0 at OD<sub>600</sub> nm, shows an adaptation  
271 by producing biosurfactant. These amphiphilic biosurfactant molecules partition themselves at the  
272 hydrocarbon water interphase and acts as a mediator by increasing the mass transfer rates of

273 hydrophobic contaminants (hydrocarbon based substances) into the aqueous phase through  
274 specific interaction resulting in mobilization and solubilization. Mobilization involves the  
275 reduction of surface and interfacial tension while solubilization results in the dramatic increase in  
276 the apparent solubility of hydrocarbon due to its aggregation within the surfactant micelles [28].  
277 Similarly, Kubota et al. [15] reported degradation of decane using DCPIP method by one *Bacillus*  
278 (ODMI57) and two *Pseudomonas* sp. (F721 & F722). While none of the isolates amongst the  
279 thirty-six bacterial colonies belonging to different genera *Acinetobacter*, *Rhodococcus*, *Gordonia*,  
280 *Pseudomonas*, *Ralstonia*, *Bacillus* and *Alcaligenes* were able to degrade benzene.

281 The gravimetric results of the residual total petroleum hydrocarbon (TPH) showed 46.32%  
282 degradation of 2% (w/v) crude oil by *Achromobacter* sp. (PS1) with surface tension value of 32.43  
283  $\pm$  0.83 mN/m, followed by 38.93% degradation by *Ochrobactrum* sp. (GREW1) with surface  
284 tension value of 33.14  $\pm$  0.54 mN/m respectively as against the un-inoculated control (59.27  $\pm$  1.16  
285 mN/m). The GC-FID results of the percentage degradation of the aliphatic fraction by  
286 *Achromobacter* sp. (PS1) and *Ochrobactrum* sp. (GREW1) was observed as 70.77% and 79.24%  
287 respectively and that of aromatic fraction as 77.17% and 72.13% respectively (Table 4). Mnif et  
288 al. [29] also reported degradation of aliphatic fractions of 1% crude oil from micro-organisms of  
289 different genera with maximum degradation of 96.20% and 93.30% by *P. aeruginosa* and *H. lutea*  
290 in twenty days. Microbial degradation of crude oil has been shown to be fast in aerobic conditions  
291 as compared to anaerobic and occurs by the action of oxygenases on the aliphatic and aromatic  
292 fractions. Aerobic degradation of aliphatic hydrocarbons results in the formation of fatty acids.  
293 The carboxylic acid groups in the fatty acids are then further metabolized *via* the  $\beta$ -oxidation  
294 pathway to form acetyl CoA or propionyl CoA depending on the number of carbon atoms (even  
295 or odd) in the *n*-alkane. These compounds are then subsequently metabolized *via* the tricarboxylic

296 acid (TCA) cycle to CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O, together with the production of electrons in the electron  
297 transport chain. This chain is repeated, further degrading the aliphatic hydrocarbons. In aromatic  
298 hydrocarbons, under aerobic conditions arenes in PAH rings are oxidized leading to formation of  
299 intermediates such as protocatechuate and catechols. The catechols are further cleaved to  
300 metabolites such as acetate, succinate, pyruvate or acetaldehyde, which subsequently enter the  
301 TCA cycle and are thus available as energy and carbon sources to the cell [30]. On the other hand,  
302 *Bacillus* sp. (SB2) though showed maximum reduction in surface tension of 28.16 mN/m in 2%  
303 crude oil, yet the degradation percentage of TPH was found to be 20.91%. This may be explained  
304 on the basis that the biosurfactant produced by *Bacillus* sp. (SB2) was not that efficient to emulsify  
305 and utilize the extremely complex high molecular weight recalcitrant carbon structures of  
306 asphaltenes present in crude oil due to its relatively lower emulsification index (E<sub>24</sub>) of 61.35%.  
307 Also, it has been reported that asphaltenes are recalcitrant to degradation [31] while NSO (nitrogen,  
308 sulphur, and oxygen) compounds show an inhibitory effect on the degradation of many creosote  
309 compounds comprising of six major classes – aromatic hydrocarbons (polyaromatic hydrocarbons  
310 and alkylated polyaromatic hydrocarbons), tar acids/phenolics, tar bases/nitrogen containing  
311 heterocycles, aromatic amines, sulphur containing heterocycles and oxygen containing  
312 heterocycles [32]. *Pseudomonas* sp. (MRBSIT1) showed the preferential percentage degradation  
313 of aliphatic fraction of crude oil to 93.86% though with a low TPH degradation of 25.19%. These  
314 differences in the ability of the bacteria to degrade hydrocarbons may also be linked to several  
315 other inherent factors such as cell surface hydrophobicity, catabolic enzyme activity, gene  
316 arrangement besides the nature of the biosurfactant production [33]. Thus, this study gives a clear  
317 association between the synthesis of emulsifying agent and concomitant hydrocarbon degradation



318 with solubilization of hydrocarbons rendering them more accessible for their breakdown and  
319 uptake.

### 320 **3.3. Biosurfactant production profile of best biosurfactant producing and concomitant** 321 **hydrocarbon degrading isolates**

322 The biosurfactant production profile of the isolates *Achromobacter* sp. (PS1) and *Bacillus* sp.  
323 (SLDB1) showed low surface tension values of  $32.12 \pm 0.78$  mN/m and  $30.54 \pm 0.70$  mN/m  
324 respectively in set B comprising of only glucose against the set A comprising of glucose and diesel  
325 (Fig. 2). *Bacillus* sp. (SB2) showed almost same surface tension values ( $28.41 \pm 0.41$  and  $28.52 \pm$   
326  $0.26$  mN/m) in sets A and B. While *Ochrobactrum* sp. (GREW1) showed a different pattern of  
327 biosurfactant production with low surface tension values of ( $31.06 \pm 0.28$  and  $31.38 \pm 1.36$  mN/m)  
328 in set A and C comprising of glucose with 1% (v/v) diesel and only 1% (v/v) diesel respectively  
329 as against the set B (only glucose) with surface tension of  $56.75 \pm 0.38$  mN/m. This difference in  
330 production pattern may be attributed owing to the involvement of complex synthetic machinery  
331 governed by several intrinsic and extrinsic interacting parameters and also on the substrate  
332 composition.

### 333 **3.4. Characterization of the biosurfactant**

#### 334 **3.4.1. Thin layer chromatography (TLC)**

335 The TLC result of the extracted biosurfactant from *Achromobacter* sp. (PS1) and *Bacillus* sp.  
336 (SLDB1) suggested a glycolipid nature of the biosurfactant with two prominent spots at  $R_f$  of 0.34  
337 and 0.72 relating to di-rhamnolipid and mono-rhamnolipid moieties similar to Jeneil JBR 215  
338 rhamnolipid standard when developed with orcinol reagent (Fig. 3A). Similar results were reported  
339 by Bhat et al. [34] for Jeneil standard rhamnolipid as well as rhamnolipid produced from  
340 *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* with the following  $R_f$  0.35 and 0.73 values. Till date glycolipid

341 production has not been reported from *Achromobacter* sp. The genus *Bacillus*, has been most  
342 commonly reported for the production of lipopeptide type of biosurfactants [12]. Our results are  
343 however contrary to earlier reports as production of glycolipid type of biosurfactant was observed  
344 from *Bacillus* sp. (SLDB1) using 1% glucose but are in accordance with the reports of  
345 Chandankere et al. [35] wherein the production of glycolipid biosurfactant from *Bacillus*  
346 *methylophilus* USTBa has been reported using 2% crude oil. The TLC results for extracted  
347 biosurfactant from *Ochrobactrum* sp. (GREW1) and *Bacillus* sp. (SB2) showed positive spots  
348 when developed with ninhydrin reagent indicating the presence of peptide moieties in the molecule  
349 confirming the lipopeptide nature of the biosurfactant. The peptide moiety was observed as a single  
350 spot ( $R_f$  0.55) in *Ochrobactrum* sp. (GREW1) and two spots ( $R_f$  0.72 and 0.55) in case of *Bacillus*  
351 sp. (SB2) as shown in Fig. 3B. Similar TLC pattern was reported by Qiao and Shao [36] for  
352 lipopeptide type biosurfactant.

### 353 **3.4.2. Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopy**

354 Characteristic absorption bands corresponding to specific functional groups present in each of the  
355 four biosurfactants were determined and confirmed to characterize the type of biosurfactant. In  
356 *Achromobacter* sp. (PS1) and *Bacillus* sp. (SLDB1), a significant broad band at  $3423\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  
357  $3416\text{ cm}^{-1}$  respectively corresponds to O–H stretching vibrations of free hydroxyl groups and the  
358 stretching bands around  $1080\text{ cm}^{-1}$  indicates the presence of polysaccharide or polysaccharide-like  
359 substances revealing the glycolipid nature of biosurfactants. Similar absorption bands were  
360 reported by Singh and Tiwary [37].

361 On the other hand, respective characteristic absorbance bands at  $3275\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $3277\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , resulting  
362 from the N-H stretching mode and the absorption bands corresponding to C–O stretching and N–  
363 H bending of amide groups around  $1536\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $1658\text{ cm}^{-1}$  in *Ochrobactrum* sp. (GREW1) and

364 *Bacillus* sp. (SB2) signifies the presence of peptide bonds and lipopeptide nature of the  
365 biosurfactant. Ramani et al. [38] also reported that the characteristic stretching frequency of amides  
366 which lie in the region 3250-3300  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and 1500-1650  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  is specific for lipopeptide type of  
367 biosurfactant and generally not observed in glycolipid biosurfactants.

### 368 **3.4.3. GCMS of Fatty acids**

369 The fatty acid compositions of the biosurfactant produced from *Achromobacter* sp. (PS1) and  
370 *Bacillus* sp. (SLDB1), showed the presence of 3-hydroxydecanoic acid ( $\text{C}_{10:0}$ ) as the most  
371 abundant fatty acid with  $88.27 \pm 0.07$  and  $90.11 \pm 0.07$  relative percentage respectively. Other  
372 fatty acids were also found however in minor amounts and were identified as 3-hydroxydodecanoic  
373 ( $\text{C}_{12:0}$ ), 3-hydroxytetradecanoic ( $\text{C}_{14:0}$ ), 3-hydroxyhexadecanoic ( $\text{C}_{16:0}$ ), 3-hydroxyoctadecanoic  
374 ( $\text{C}_{18:0}$ ), and 3-hydroxyheneicosanoic ( $\text{C}_{21:0}$ ). A similar pattern was observed in the fatty acid  
375 composition of rhamnolipid standard (Jeneil biosurfactant) with 3-hydroxy decanoic fatty acid as  
376 the major ( $91.45 \pm 0.04\%$ ) component (Table 5). This result of our finding is in accordance with  
377 the reported literature for glycolipids where decanoic acid is the most commonly reported fatty  
378 acid [39].

379 In case of *Ochrobactrum* sp. (GREW1) and *Bacillus* sp. (SB2), the fatty acid content of the  
380 lipopeptides was diverse with several longer chain fatty acids. Major fatty acid composition peaks  
381 of 3-hydroxyoctadecanoic acid ( $33.03 \pm 0.09\%$ ) and 3-hydroxyheneicosanoic acid ( $32.82 \pm 0.03\%$ )  
382 in *Ochrobactrum* sp. (GREW1) and 3-hydroxyhexadecanoic acid ( $56.89 \pm 0.01\%$ ) and  
383 hydroxyheneicosanoic ( $39.02 \pm 0.03\%$ ) in *Bacillus* sp. (SB2) were observed. This diversity  
384 observed in lipopeptide production may be a consequence of differences the fatty acid components  
385 which not only depends on the producing bacteria but also on the culture conditions and substrates  
386 used. A mixture of  $\beta$ -hydroxy fatty acids of dodecanoic, tetradecanoic, pentadecanoic,

387 hexadecanoic, octadecanoic, (9)-octadecenoic and (9,12)-octadecadienoic in the lipoprotein  
388 biosurfactant have also been reported by Qiao and Shao [36], Ramani et al. [38] and Leon et al.  
389 [40].

#### 390 **4. Conclusions**

391 The potent biosurfactant producers and concomitant hydrocarbon degraders obtained from the  
392 present investigation provides an insight for the productive competence of different types of  
393 biosurfactants with *Achromobacter* sp. (PS1) and *Bacillus* sp. (SLDB1) producing glycolipids and  
394 *Ochrobactrum* sp. (GREW1) and *Bacillus* sp. (SB2) producing lipopeptides as confirmed by TLC,  
395 FT-IR and GC-MS results. All the biosurfactants exhibited high emulsification activity with low  
396 surface tension values and efficiently degraded crude oil revealing their promising applicability in  
397 bioremediation processes. Moreover, the utilization of cheap glucose as the carbon source in the  
398 case of *Achromobacter* sp. (PS1) and *Bacillus* sp. (SLDB1 and SB2) further directs towards the  
399 use of agro-waste residues for sustainable cost effective biosurfactant production with high yields.

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