



UNIVERSIDADE ESTADUAL DE CAMPINAS
FACULDADE DE ENGENHARIA DE ALIMENTOS

GABRIEL CICALÉSE BEVILAQUA

**POLIÓIS: UM ESTUDO DA PRODUÇÃO BIOLÓGICA SIMULTÂNEA DE XILITOL
E ARABITOL A PARTIR DE RESÍDUOS AGROINDUSTRIAIS**

**POLYOLS: A STUDY OF THE SIMULTANEOUS BIOLOGICAL PRODUCTION OF
XYLITOL AND ARABITOL FROM AGROINDUSTRIAL WASTE**

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Supervisor/Orientador: Marcus Bruno Soares Forte
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RESUMO

O xilitol e o arabitól são poliálcoois estereoisômeros que possuem propriedades e aplicações similares e despertam o interesse mercadológico. Mesmo que a via química seja atualmente mais empregada na produção desses compostos, a produção por meio de processos fermentativos utiliza condições brandas e é ambientalmente menos danosa. Apesar disso, a via biotecnológica apresenta obstáculos como o baixo rendimento e a viabilidade econômica do processo. Nesse contexto, estudos de otimização da produção destacam-se como forma de tornar o processo mais rentável, utilizando hidrolisados hemicelulósicos de biomassas lignocelulósicas como fontes de carbono, e oportunidades ainda não exploradas podem ser desenvolvidas, como a aplicação simultânea dos dois poliálcoois como um único produto, o que dispensaria a separação dos mesmos. Este trabalho buscou otimizar a coprodução biológica de xilitol e arabitól a partir do hidrolisado hemicelulósico de bagaço de cana-de-açúcar e fontes alternativas de nitrogênio. Para isso, verificou-se a possibilidade de utilização de *Candida tropicalis* para conversão de pentoses em poliálcoois e sua respectiva adaptação ao hidrolisado hemicelulósico destoxificado de bagaço de cana-de-açúcar. Em seguida, definiu-se que o hidrolisado de levedura foi a fonte mais promissora para ser adicionada ao meio e permitir uma maior produção dos compostos alvo. A partir de estratégias de delineamento experimental (DOE), foi possível definir uma composição e condições favoráveis para o processo fermentativo com inserção de água de maceração de milho como fonte de nitrogênio adicional ao processo, com a condição mais promissora para a coprodução sendo composta de hidrolisado hemicelulósico diluído para 75 g/L de xilose inicial, pH inicial de 6,5 e adição de 2,2 g/L de nitrogênio, sendo 80 % de hidrolisado de levedura e 20 % de água de maceração de milho. A partir da ampliação de escala em biorreatores foi possível obter concentrações de xilitol (52,1 g/L) e arabitól (4,2 g/L) 65 e 3,7 vezes maiores, respectivamente, em relação a processos similares de coprodução encontrados na literatura, apresentando produtividades e rendimentos de 0,24 g/L.h e 0,74 g/g para o xilitol e 0,02 g/L.h e 0,43 g/g para o arabitól. Esses resultados mostram o potencial biotecnológico para a obtenção simultânea desses dois álcoois de açúcar a partir da fermentação de hidrolisado hemicelulósico de bagaço de cana de açúcar por *C. tropicalis*.

ABSTRACT

Xylitol and arabitol are stereoisomeric polyalcohols that have similar properties and applications and arouse market interest. Even though the chemical route is currently more used in the production of these compounds, production through fermentation processes uses mild conditions and is less environmentally harmful. Despite this, the biotechnological route presents difficulties such as the low yield and the economic viability of the process. In this context, production optimization studies stand out as a way to make the process more profitable, using hemicellulosic hydrolysates of lignocellulosic biomass as carbon sources, for example, and opportunities not yet explored can be developed, such as the simultaneous use of the two polyalcohols, which would dispense with the process of separating them. This project sought to optimize the biological coproduction of xylitol and arabitol from the hemicellulosic hydrolysate of sugarcane bagasse and alternative nitrogen sources. For this, the possibility of using *Candida tropicalis* for the conversion of pentoses into polyalcohols and their respective adaptation to the detoxified hemicellulosic hydrolysate of sugarcane bagasse was verified. Then, it was defined that the yeast hydrolysate was the most promising source to be added to the medium and allow a greater production of the target compounds. From experimental design strategies (DOE), it was possible to define a composition and favorable conditions for the fermentation process with the insertion of corn steep water as a source of additional nitrogen to the process, with the most promising condition for co-production being composed of hemicellulosic hydrolysate diluted to 75 g/L of initial xylose, initial pH of 6.5 and addition of 2.2 g/L of nitrogen, being composed 80% by yeast hydrolysate and 20% by corn steep liquor. From the scale-up in bioreactors it was possible to obtain concentrations of xylitol (52.1 g/L) and arabitol (4.2 g/L) which are 65 and 3.7 higher, respectively, in relation to similar processes of co -production found in the literature, showing productivities and yields of 0.24 g/L.h and 0.74 g/g for xylitol and 0.02 g/L.h and 0.43 g/g for arabitol. These results show the biotechnological potential for simultaneously obtaining these two sugar alcohols from the fermentation of sugarcane bagasse hemicellulosic hydrolysate by *C. tropicalis*.

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INTRODUÇÃO

O xilitol e o arabitól são poliálcoois de cinco carbonos produzidos naturalmente por diferentes organismos vivos em pequenas quantidades ou como composto intermediário no metabolismo celular (HERNÁNDEZ-PÉREZ *et al.*, 2019; KORDOWSKA-WIATER, 2015). Nos mamíferos, por exemplo, o xilitol é gerado pelas células hepáticas, mas é liberado apenas em quantidades traço no organismo (KALU; MASORO, 1986). Das diferentes propriedades desses dois compostos, a de maior interesse para o meio comercial é a capacidade de atuar como edulcorante, substituindo o açúcar e fornecendo um menor valor calórico ao produto final (HERNÁNDEZ-PÉREZ *et al.*, 2019; KORDOWSKA-WIATER, 2015).

Esses poliálcoois são produzidos a partir de fontes renováveis, sendo obtidos a partir de pentoses (xilose e arabinose) por vias químicas ou biotecnológicas. Apesar da via química ser amplamente utilizada, a mesma é composta por etapas dispendiosas e que impactam negativamente o meio ambiente. Nesse sentido, a via biotecnológica, fundamentada na conversão bioquímica, principalmente por leveduras em condições brandas, é mais sustentável e vem ganhando destaque, sendo o xilitol biotecnológico já produzido, inclusive, em escala industrial. Apesar disso, há desafios relativos ao custo do processamento e à otimização dos parâmetros operacionais como forma de tornar a produção por via biológica tão rentável quanto a via química (KORDOWSKA-WIATER, 2015; XU *et al.*, 2019).

Nesse sentido, o uso de resíduos agroindustriais como substrato dos processos fermentativos é uma forma de reduzir custos e promover a sustentabilidade. Resíduos vegetais, como o bagaço de cana de açúcar, já vêm sendo utilizados como uma fonte para a obtenção de hidrolisado hemicelulósico, fornecendo pentoses e hexoses necessárias para a ocorrência do processo biológico (ALVES *et al.*, 2021; DE MEDEIROS *et al.*, 2020). Apesar disso, outros resíduos agroindustriais também podem ser utilizados a fim de atuarem como fontes de nutrientes necessários ao crescimento e manutenção das leveduras, reduzindo ainda mais os custos associados às matérias-primas na etapa de fermentação. Ressalta-se que o uso de extrato de levedura como fonte de nitrogênio é um dos principais obstáculos a serem superados para a viabilização de processos

biotecnológicos em larga escala, tendo em vista o seu custo elevado inclusive na produção de xilitol (SADH; DUHAN; DUHAN, 2018; SALGADO *et al.*, 2009).

Após a etapa de produção biotecnológica do xilitol ou do arabitól, são necessários processos dispendiosos de separação e purificação a fim torná-los aptos à comercialização. Ressalta-se que o xilitol e o arabitól são isômeros e, devido à similaridade química, há dificuldade no processo de separação (HERNÁNDEZ-PÉREZ *et al.*, 2019; KORDOWSKA-WIATER, 2015; SAHA; KENNEDY, 2020). Nesse contexto, o arabitól é geralmente tratado como um composto indesejável no processo produtivo, tendo em vista que o xilitol atualmente possui um mercado mais expressivo (GRAND VIEW RESEARCH, 2022b; SAHA; KENNEDY, 2020). Apesar disso, questiona-se o porquê de o arabitól e o xilitol, devido à similaridade de propriedades e aplicações, não poderem ser tratados como coprodutos, reduzindo custos de separação e otimizando o aproveitamento das matérias primas.

De Medeiros e colaboradores (2020), a partir de hidrolisado de bagaço de sisal com a levedura *Debaryomyces hansenii*, e Araújo e colaboradores (2021), a partir de hidrolisados hemicelulósicos alternativos e a levedura *Komagataella pastoris*, indicaram a possibilidade de produção simultânea de xilitol e arabitól. Contudo, o quantitativo dos poliálcoois obtido nos dois casos foi bastante inferior ao reportado na literatura para tais compostos separadamente. Além disso, não foram encontrados estudos que avaliem parâmetros de produção para a otimização do processo, a ampliação de escala ou a alteração do modo de operação para biorreatores, revelando que ainda existem lacunas quanto ao conhecimento associado à produção conjunta de tais compostos a partir de hidrolisados hemicelulósicos.

Nesse contexto, o presente trabalho buscou avaliar os parâmetros que influenciam o processo fermentativo para a produção simultânea dos álcoois de açúcar, xilitol e arabitól, como possibilidade de reaproveitamento de resíduos agroindustriais e viabilização do processo biotecnológico em maiores escalas.

OBJETIVOS

Este trabalho objetivou avaliar a produção simultânea de xilitol e arabitól a partir de hidrolisado hemicelulósico de bagaço de cana-de-açúcar por uma cepa de *Candida tropicalis* e, para isso, teve como objetivos específicos:

- i. Verificar a capacidade de *C. tropicalis* consumir os açúcares presentes no hidrolisado hemicelulósico;
- ii. Selecionar a fonte nitrogenada que permita maior produção dos poliálcoois;
- iii. Avaliar a influência das condições de cultivo, tais como temperatura e composição do meio, no rendimento e produtividade do processo biotecnológico;
- iv. Verificar a possibilidade de alteração do modo de operação para biorreatores de bancada.

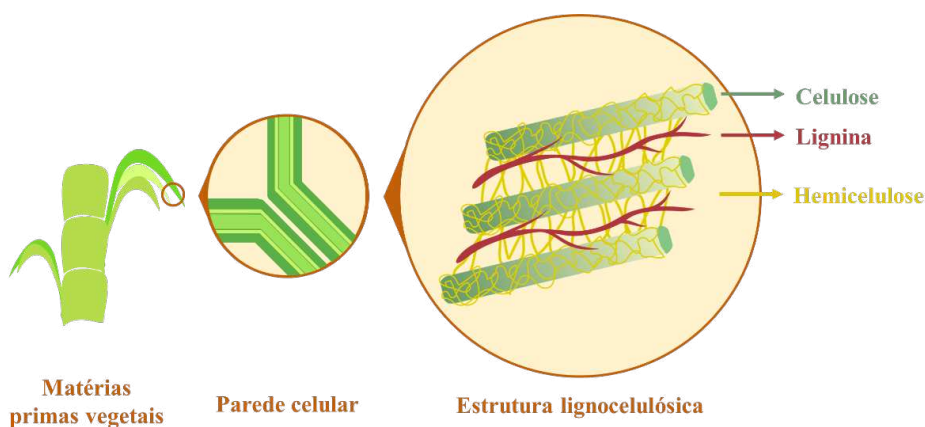
REVISÃO BIBLIOGRÁFICA

i. Biomassas lignocelulósicas e hidrolisado hemicelulósico

Lignocelulose pode ser definida como a estrutura polimérica tridimensional que está presente na parede celular de vegetais, sendo um componente estrutural que confere, de forma geral, o aspecto estrutural das matérias-primas de origem vegetal. A biomassa lignocelulósica pode ser caracterizada como a mais abundante disponível no planeta, constituindo um recurso renovável e sendo relevante para o desenvolvimento sustentável principalmente por corresponder a diversos resíduos urbanos e agroindustriais, como a espiga de milho e o bagaço de cana-de-açúcar. Por se tratar de resíduos que muitas vezes não podem ser devidamente aproveitados para a alimentação humana ou animal, tais materiais despertam o interesse também por evitarem a competição entre matérias primas destinadas à produção de energia e biocompostos *versus* à alimentação (BANWELL *et al.*, 2021; FARIAS *et al.*, 2022).

Em relação à composição, a lignocelulose é constituída, além de componentes presentes em menores quantidades, como proteínas, compostos extrativos e minerais, de três estruturas poliméricas principais: lignina, celulose e hemicelulose (FARIAS *et al.*, 2022), como apresentado no esquema da Figura 1. A composição em termos de cada um desses componentes pode variar de acordo com a espécie, porém, tem-se, em média, de 10 a 20 % de lignina, 20 a 40 % de hemicelulose e 30 a 50 % de celulose (MUSSATTO; DRAGONE, 2016).

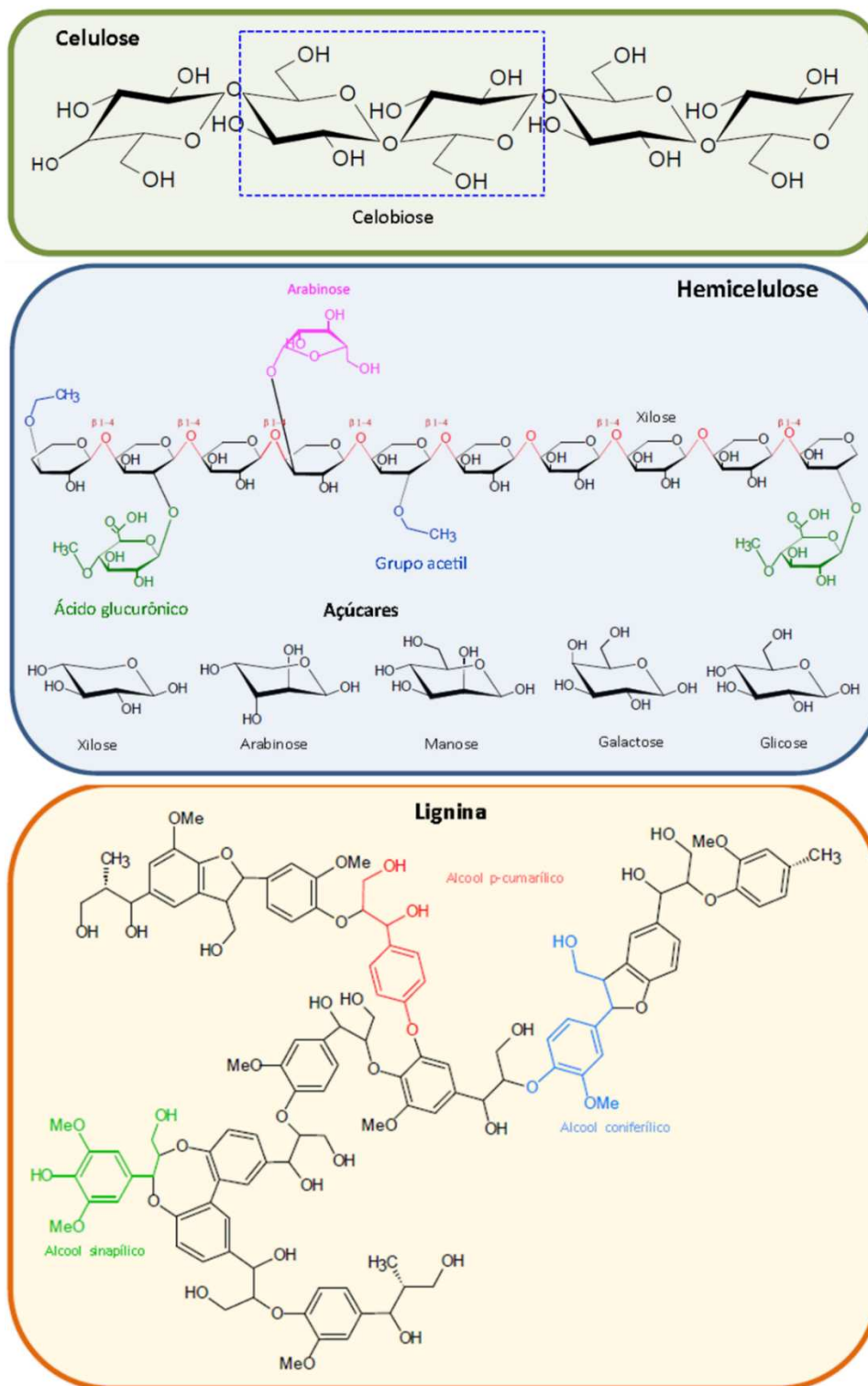
Figura 1. Esquema representativo da biomassa lignocelulósica,



Fonte: elaboração própria.

A estrutura química generalizada dos principais componentes da biomassa lignocelulósica é apresentada na Figura 2.

Figura 2. Estrutura química geral de celulose, hemicelulose e lignina.



Fonte: adaptado de Mussatto e Dragone (2016)

O principal polímero constituinte da lignocelulose é a celulose, formada por moléculas de glicose ligadas por ligações glicosídicas β -1,4, formando fibras rígidas conectadas por ligações de hidrogênio intra e intermoleculares. Microscopicamente há regiões amorfas, menos ordenadas, e cristalinas, altamente ordenadas e que dificultam a hidrólise enzimática ou química da celulose para a liberação de glicose ou oligossacarídeos (FARIAS *et al.*, 2022; MUSSATTO; DRAGONE, 2016)

Quanto à lignina, apesar de estar presente em menores quantidades, é o maior responsável pela recalcitrância da biomassa lignocelulósica. Constitui-se de uma estrutura polimérica de fenil propanóides, como o ácido coniferílico e os álcoois sinapílico e p-cumarílico, conectados por diferentes tipos de ligações e inclusive conectado às estruturas de celulose e hemicelulose por ligações covalentes. Essa estrutura covalente complexa e amorfa confere a união e a rigidez da biomassa (MUSSATTO; DRAGONE, 2016)

Em relação à hemicelulose, trata-se de um dos biopolímeros mais abundantes no mundo, atrás apenas da celulose. Esta pode ser definida como os polissacarídeos não celulósicos que compõem a estrutura da biomassa lignocelulósica. Possuem estrutura amorfa e heterogênea, sendo constituída de pentoses, hexoses e grupos ácidos, ligadas à celulose por ligações de hidrogênio e à lignina por ligações covalentes. As principais cadeias presentes na hemicelulose são compostas por xilose, chegando a 90 %, e L-arabinose, com cerca de 10 %, podendo variar de acordo com a matéria-prima (MUSSATTO; DRAGONE, 2016; XIE *et al.*, 2020).

No contexto de biorrefinarias, ou seja, do aproveitamento de biomassas renováveis para a produção de combustíveis, compostos químicos e materiais, a biomassa lignocelulósica é introduzida como um elemento fundamental (CHANDEL *et al.*, 2021). Nesse sentido, a mesma pode ser submetida a diferentes pré-tratamentos físicos, químicos, físico-químicos, biológicos e combinações desses como forma de romper a estrutura lignocelulósica e obter diferentes compostos que atuarão como substrato para diferentes processos integrados, como a produção de carvão, a produção de biodiesel e a fermentação para a produção de polióis (CHANDEL *et al.*, 2021; WAGLE *et al.*, 2022). A Figura 3 sumariza os diferentes

pré-tratamentos que podem ser realizados e os produtos que podem ser obtidos a partir da biomassa lignocelulósica.

Figura 3. Visão geral dos diferentes pré-tratamentos que podem ser aplicados e produtos que podem ser obtidos a partir da biomassa lignocelulósica.



Fonte: adaptado de Wagle et al. (2022)

Os pré-tratamentos são processos aplicados como forma de tornar a lignocelulose mais disponível para os processos hidrolíticos, podendo atuar, por exemplo, aumentando a área superficial, diminuindo a cristalinidade da celulose e separando a hemicelulose. A aplicação de tais processos, que podem variar de acordo com a biomassa e com o objetivo desejado, possibilitam a realização dos processos de biorrefinaria de forma mais eficiente, para, a partir daí, obter os produtos desejados do processo (WAGLE *et al.*, 2022).

Em relação especificamente à hemicelulose, diferente da celulose, sua estrutura pode ser facilmente hidrolisada por diferentes processos, como o uso de

ácido diluído, o uso de compostos alcalinos, explosão a vapor, processos hidrotérmicos e a aplicação de líquidos iônicos (CHANDEL *et al.*, 2021; FARIAS *et al.*, 2022). Dependendo da aplicação desejada e das tecnologias disponíveis, diferentes pré-tratamentos podem ser mais adequados. A utilização de solventes alcalinos, por exemplo, promove a quebra das ligações de hidrogênio entre a hemicelulose e a celulose assim como as covalentes entre a hemicelulose e a lignina. Isso faz com que seja obtida uma hemicelulose de maior pureza com as moléculas de xilose apresentadas principalmente na forma polimérica de xilana, que pode ser interessante, por exemplo, para a produção de xilooligossacarídeos, compostos prebióticos (BANWELL *et al.*, 2021)

O processo que utiliza ácido diluído, por outro lado, é um dos mais bem estabelecidos comercialmente em larga escala. Em tal processo aplicam-se soluções de ácidos diluídos, como o sulfúrico, o nítrico, clorídrico ou o fluorídrico, em combinação com temperaturas que podem variar entre 120 e 140 °C. Nesse processo, as ligações entre a hemicelulose e a celulose são quebradas e é promovida a solubilização e hidrólise da própria hemicelulose. Nesse contexto, é promovida uma maior quebra da estrutura polissacarídica hemicelulósica, levando à liberação de unidades de açúcares, como a xilose, a glicose e a arabinose, e ácidos, como o acético e o glucurônico (BANWELL *et al.*, 2021; CHANDEL *et al.*, 2021; FARIAS *et al.*, 2022).

Os açúcares liberados constituem um grande interesse para a utilização do hidrolisado hemicelulósico ácido em processos de biorrefinaria fermentativos, já que os monossacarídeos podem ser melhor aproveitados pelos microrganismos para a formação de diferentes bioprodutos. Por outro lado, compostos como os fenólicos e o ácido acético, liberados na quebra da estrutura lignocelulósica e da cadeia hemicelulósica, e furânicos, furfural e 5-hidroximetilfurfural, subprodutos gerados a partir da desidratação, respectivamente, das pentoses e hexoses pelo tratamento térmico ácido, devem ser adequadamente monitorados, tendo em vista que os mesmos possuem potencial de inibir o metabolismo microbiano (CHOUDHARY *et al.*, 2021; FARIAS *et al.*, 2022; YE *et al.*, 2021).

Nesse sentido, metodologias de remoção desses compostos podem ser desenvolvidas a fim de obter um hidrolisado hemicelulósico com menores concentrações de inibidores, ou seja, destoxificados. Uma das metodologias bem

estabelecidas para essa remoção é o *liming*, processo que consiste em elevar o pH até a neutralidade do hidrolisado hemicelulósico ácido seguido de redução até o pH desejado para o processo fermentativo. Assim, é promovida a precipitação de compostos que são instabilizados pela alteração do pH. Esse processo pode ser seguido de métodos adicionais, como a adsorção em carvão ativado para aumentar a eficiência do processo. Apesar de ocorrerem perdas da concentração inicial dos açúcares presentes no hidrolisado hemicelulósico, essa metodologia é bastante eficiente, principalmente na remoção de compostos inibidores aromáticos, como é o caso do furfural e do 5-hidroximetilfurfural (PALLADINO *et al.*, 2021; RAVELLA *et al.*, 2012).

Dessa maneira, podem ser obtidos hidrolisados hemicelulósicos ricos em açúcares, apresentando baixas concentrações de compostos inibidores e com potencial para a utilização em processos biotecnológicos. Ressalta-se que é possível utilizar as pentoses e hexoses liberadas como substratos para processos químicos e bioquímicos (fermentativos ou enzimáticos) como forma de gerar produtos como o xilitol, o arabitol, o etanol, o 2,3-butanodiol, butanol, ácidos orgânicos e biopolímeros (ARCAÑO *et al.*, 2020; KUMAR *et al.*, 2018).

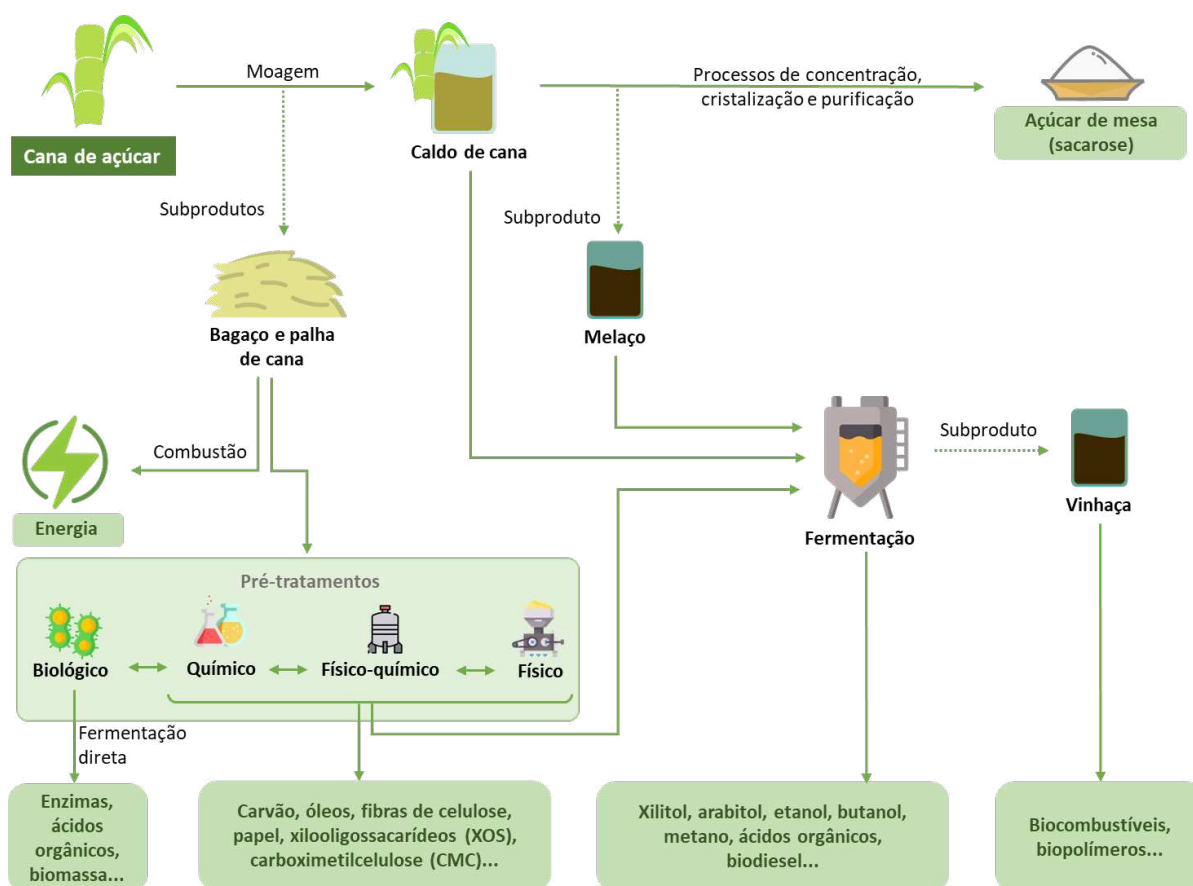
ii. Hidrolisado hemicelulósico de bagaço de cana-de-açúcar

Avaliando o contexto brasileiro, a cana-de-açúcar continua apresentando destaque como biomassa lignocelulósica. Isso acontece porque a cana-de-açúcar continua sendo a principal matéria-prima utilizada para a produção de bioetanol, além de poder ser processada para a obtenção do açúcar de mesa. A partir de tais processos, o bagaço da cana-de-açúcar pode ser considerado como um dos principais resíduos gerados, sendo muitas vezes destinado para a combustão ou a geração de energia térmica nas próprias usinas (FARIAS *et al.*, 2022; REENA *et al.*, 2022; SHABBIRAHMED *et al.*, 2022).

Nesse contexto, o reaproveitamento do bagaço de cana-de-açúcar permite a integração, na própria usina, dos processos de produção de etanol de segunda geração e outros bioprodutos. Assim, a ideia de desenvolvimento de uma biorrefinaria integrada para a produção de bioprodutos, biocombustíveis e energia desponta como uma possibilidade no reaproveitamento integral dessa biomassa

(FARIAS *et al.*, 2022). A Figura 4 esquematiza o processo de aproveitamento e possibilidades de metodologias e produtos a partir da cana-de-açúcar.

Figura 4. Esquema de aproveitamento da cana-de-açúcar e seu bagaço em processos integrados para a geração de bioprodutos, combustíveis e energia.



Fonte: elaboração própria

O uso de biomassa lignocelulósica oriunda de resíduos agroindustriais para a produção biotecnológica de diferentes compostos promove o conceito de *biobased economy*. Isso acontece porque esse tipo de aplicação induz a redução do uso de fontes fósseis, não renováveis, como o petróleo, para a utilização de um recurso renovável e de mais baixo custo na produção de combustíveis e químicos de alto valor agregado, reduzindo os impactos ambientais e promovendo a sustentabilidade (MUSSATTO; DRAGONE, 2016).

Nesse contexto, o hidrolisado hemicelulósico do bagaço de cana-de-açúcar, fonte de pentoses e hexoses que pode ser obtido a partir desse resíduo, representa um substrato em potencial para processos biotecnológicos. A Tabela 1

mostra a composição de uma amostra de hidrolisado hemicelulósico de bagaço de cana de açúcar caracterizado no Laboratório de Engenharia Metabólica e Bioprocessos da Universidade Estadual de Campinas.

Tabela 1. Composição de hidrolisado hemicelulósico de bagaço de cana de açúcar.

Componente	Composição (g.L⁻¹)	Composição (%)
Xilose	48,209	79,53
Glicose	5,197	8,57
Arabinose	5,179	8,54
Ácido acético	1,948	3,21
Furfural	0,043	0,07
Hidroximetilfurfural	0,038	0,06

Fonte: baseado em Travália (2020)

Percebe-se que a xilose foi o principal constituinte, mas as concentrações de glicose e arabinose, apesar de menos presentes que a xilose, também apresentaram percentuais significativos, acima de 8 %. Tais aspectos tornam essa matéria prima um substrato potencial para a utilização por leveduras assimiladoras de pentoses, como é o caso das capazes de produzir xilitol e arabitól. Ressalta-se que as proporções de hemicelulose na biomassa lignocelulósica e a composição da própria hemicelulose podem variar de acordo com a espécie, estágio de desenvolvimento, condições de crescimento e as partes da planta que originaram a biomassa. Além disso, o hidrolisado hemicelulósico é obtido de um processo de solubilização em ácido diluído seguido de evaporação, logo, a concentração dos componentes pode variar dependendo das condições em que os processos são realizados, principalmente a evaporação (HERNÁNDEZ-PÉREZ; DE ARRUDA; FELIPE, 2016; SHRESTHA *et al.*, 2021).

iii. Xilitol e arabitól: definições, aplicações e mercado

O xilitol é um poliálcool composto de cinco carbonos que tem ocorrência na natureza e possui a capacidade de atuar como composto adoçante de alimentos e bebidas, tendo propriedades de doçura similares à sacarose comercial, mas sendo

40% menos calórico (XU *et al.*, 2019). Esse composto é obtido exclusivamente a partir de biomassa, especificamente da D-xilose presente nela, e vem sendo utilizado comercialmente como substituto da sacarose. Aplica-se o xilitol, por exemplo, em alimentações especiais, como a de diabéticos, por seu metabolismo independente da insulina e efeito de saciedade, e na nutrição parenteral, por ser inerte a aminoácidos e, portanto, mais estável em tais produtos (ALBUQUERQUE *et al.*, 2014; XU *et al.*, 2019).

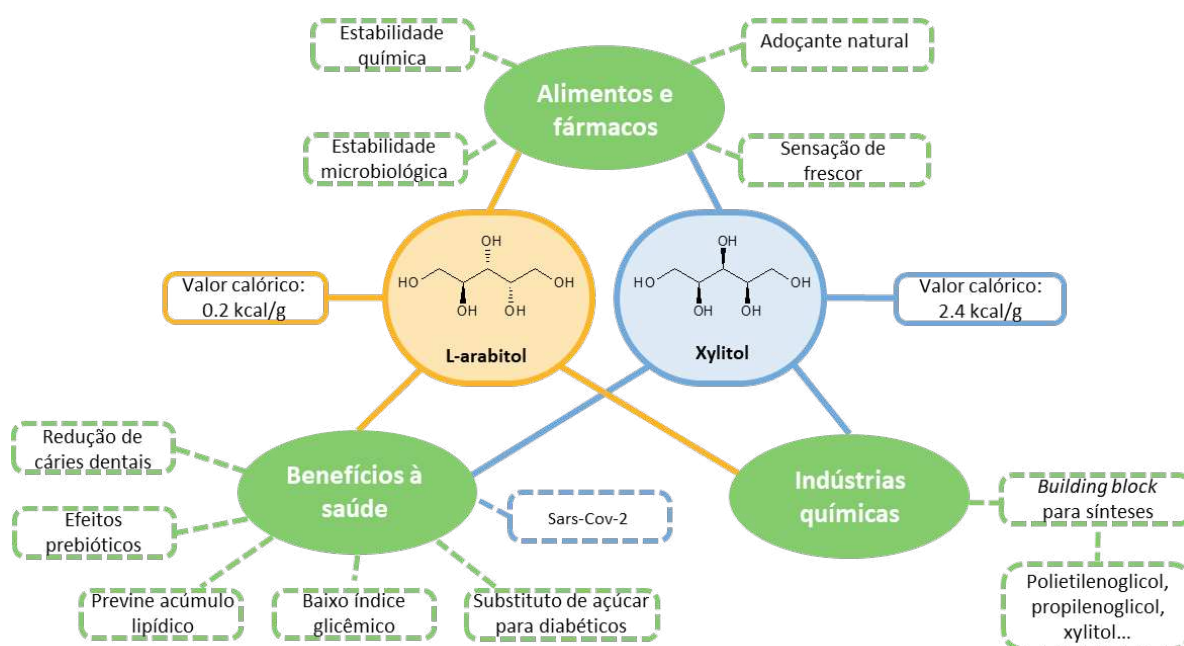
Em relação aos seus efeitos benéficos à saúde, estudos indicam que o xilitol atua como um prebiótico, reduzindo o pH fecal, além de contribuir na prevenção da osteoporose e na proteção dos dentes contra a formação de cáries e a desmineralização. Tais características, junto à capacidade de retenção de umidade e à sensação de frescor, causada na boca pelo calor de dissolução endotérmico do xilitol, fazem com que o produto seja amplamente utilizado em gomas de mascar sem açúcar e em cremes dentais. Além disso, o xilitol pode ser utilizado como matéria prima na indústria química para a produção de outros compostos, como propilenoglicol, polietilenoglicol e ácido xilárico (ALBUQUERQUE *et al.*, 2014; ARCAÑO *et al.*, 2020; XU *et al.*, 2019).

Em relação ao L-arabitol, trata-se de um poliálcool de cinco carbonos, que é um estereoisômero do xilitol. Além das semelhanças nas estruturas químicas, esses dois compostos compartilham de propriedades similares. O arabitol possui capacidade de atuar como composto adoçante, com doçura 70% menor que o xilitol, mas possuindo um teor calórico de 0,2 kcal/g, que é 12 vezes menor que o do xilitol e 20 vezes menor que o da sacarose, fazendo com que, mesmo que adicionado em maior quantidade para um mesmo dulçor, apresente menor valor calórico (AWUCI; ECHETA, 2019; ZHENG *et al.*, 2020).

Devido ao calor de dissolução endotérmico, o arabitol gera a sensação de frescor na boca e, também de maneira similar ao xilitol, possui potencial para a aplicação em produtos de saúde bucal por propriedades anticariogênicas, podendo ser utilizado em alimentações para diabéticos por seu metabolismo independente da insulina. Do mesmo modo, esse composto pode auxiliar na manutenção de bactérias probióticas no organismo e pode ser utilizado pela indústria química para a síntese de fármacos e outros compostos como xilitol, propilenoglicol e etilenoglicol, sendo apontado como um composto alvo para o desenvolvimento de pesquisas em

biotecnologia industrial (ERICKSON; NELSON; WINTERS, 2012; KORDOWSKA-WIATER, 2015; KORDOWSKA-WIATER; KUBIK-KOMAR; TARGOŃSKI, 2013). O esquema da Figura 5 sumariza as principais aplicações em potencial e propriedades de interesse do xilitol e do arabitól.

Figura 5. Principais propriedades e aplicações potenciais do xilitol e do arabitól

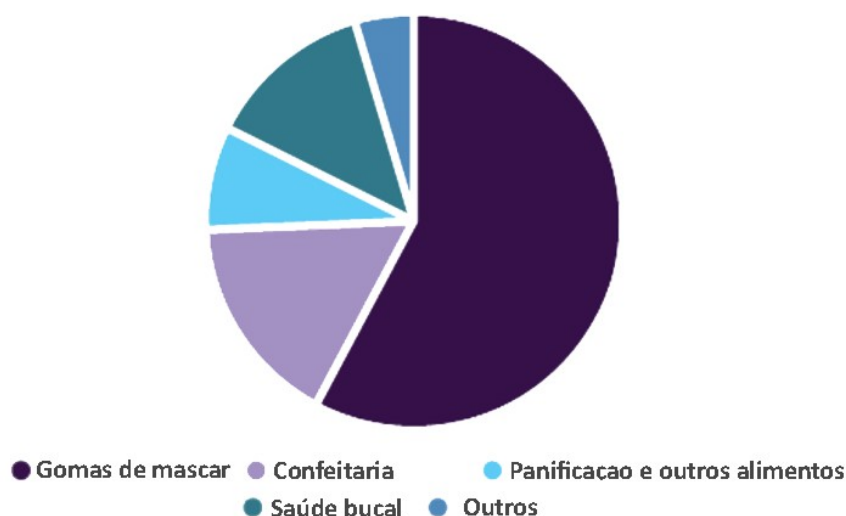


Fonte: adaptado de Farias et al. (2022).

Com o aumento da demanda por produtos mais saudáveis e funcionais, o mercado de álcoois de açúcar está em constante expansão, tendo sido estimado em 3.42 bilhões de dólares em 2021 e com previsão de aumento para até 5.14 bilhões até 2028 (GRAND VIEW RESEARCH, 2022b). Especificamente em relação ao xilitol, o mesmo foi responsável pela circulação de 880 milhões de dólares em 2019, com previsão de aumento da circulação no setor para valores superiores a 1 bilhão de dólares até 2026 (GLOBAL MARKET INSIGHTS, 2020).

A Figura 6 apresenta a distribuição do mercado de xilitol por área de aplicação. Percebe-se, como ressaltado anteriormente, que a principal aplicação atual no mercado para o xilitol está no setor de gomas de mascar, correspondendo a mais de 50 %. Além disso, o setor de alimentos apresenta um grande destaque, sendo responsável por mais de 75 % do mercado de xilitol.

Figura 6. Mercado de xilitol por aplicações, baseado no mercado de \$ 447,9 milhões avaliados em 2019



Fonte: adaptado de Grand View Research (2022a)

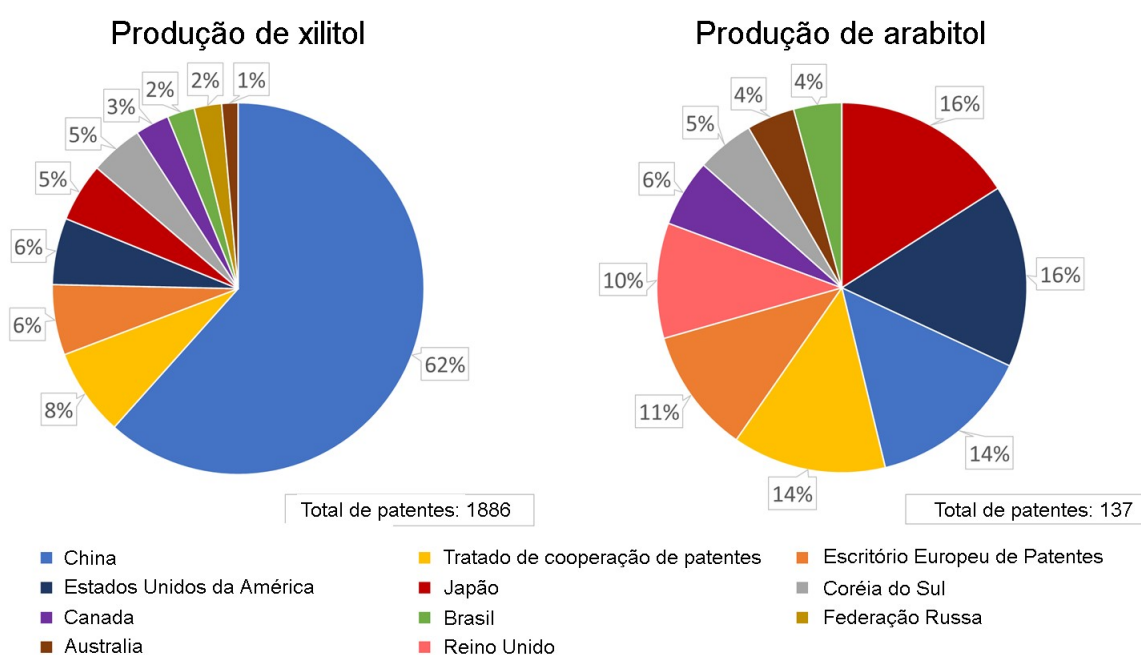
Quanto ao arabitol, apesar do mercado não ser tão expressivo, evidencia-se que, caso o custo de produção do arabitol fosse reduzido, o mesmo teria potencial para concorrer diretamente com o xilitol, por possuir propriedades semelhantes associadas a um menor valor calórico (LOMAN, A. A.; ISLAM; JU, 2018; LOMAN, ABDULLAH AI; JU, 2013). Além disso, uma das principais lacunas associadas às indústrias que utilizam xilitol é a não disponibilidade de uma alternativa viável de substituição do mesmo (GLOBAL MARKET INSIGHTS, 2020).

Em relação ao conhecimento de produção de xilitol e arabitol pelo mercado, a Figura 7 apresenta a distribuição de patentes associadas a tais conteúdos por países. Nota-se que há um número mais de dez vezes menor de patentes associadas à produção de arabitol em comparação com o xylitol, apesar disso, as patentes associadas ao arabitol apresentam ampla distribuição, indicando oportunidades em diferentes regiões geográficas.

Quanto ao xilitol, percebe-se que há uma relação entre os principais mercados produtores e o domínio regional de patentes, tendo em vista que a China é um dos principais produtores de xilitol, já tendo sido responsável por mais de 50 % da produção mundial em 2012 e, conseqüentemente, detém historicamente o maior número de patentes. Além disso, outro país que tem aumentado o potencial

produtivo de xilitol é os Estados Unidos, que passaram a explorar a biomassa lignocelulósica de eucalipto para tal fim. No cenário atual, portanto, as principais companhias responsáveis pela produção de xilitol são a DuPont, cuja sede está localizada nos Estados Unidos, e a Futaste Pharmaceutical, cuja sede está localizada na China (GLOBAL MARKET INSIGHTS, 2020; RAVELLA *et al.*, 2012).

Figura 7. Distribuição de patentes associadas à produção de xilitol ou arabitól por países em 2021.

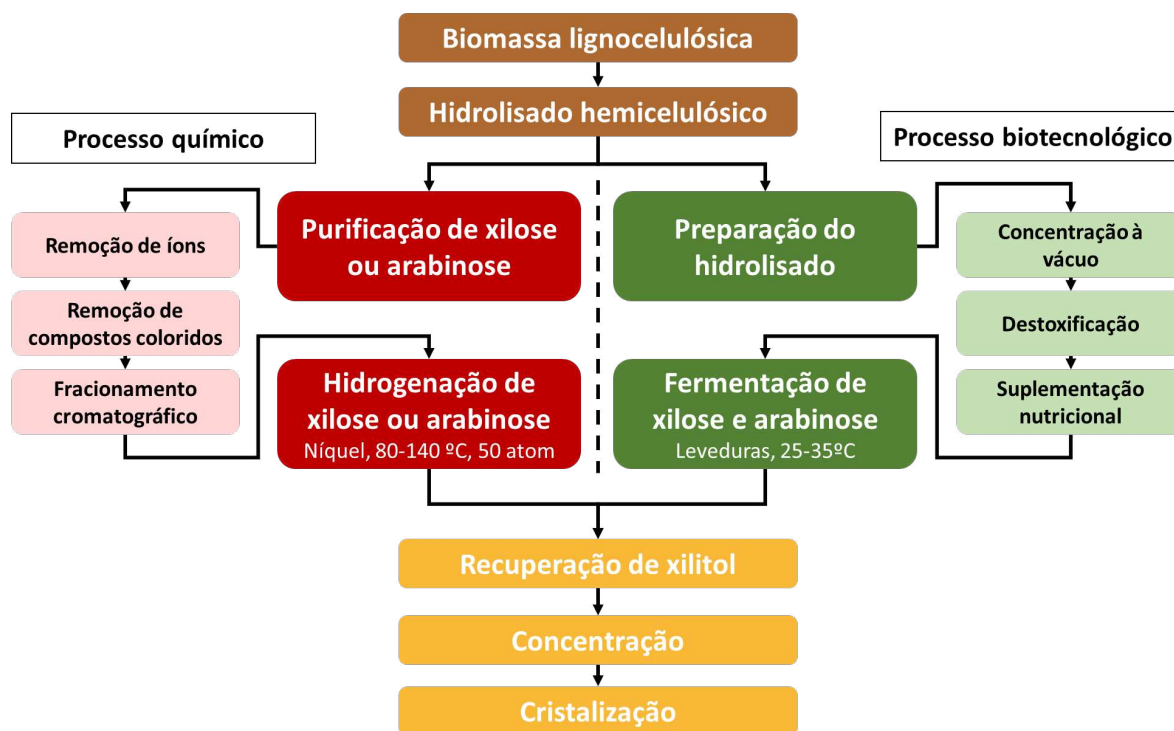


Fonte: adaptado de Farias et al. (2022)

iv. Produção química e biotecnológica de xitol e arabitól

O xitol e o arabitól podem ser produzidos por vias químicas e biotecnológicas, como mostrado no fluxograma comparativo da Figura 8. Apesar disso, comercialmente, tanto o xitol como o arabitól vêm sendo produzidos majoritariamente por meio de processamentos químicos (XU *et al.*, 2019; ZHENG *et al.*, 2020).

Figura 8. Comparação entre os processos de produção química e biotecnológica para a obtenção do xilitol.



Fonte: adaptado de Hernández-Pérez et al. (2019).

No processo químico de obtenção do xilitol, após o tratamento da biomassa lignocelulósica a fim de obter o hidrolisado hemicelulósico, é necessária uma onerosa etapa de purificação da xilose, uma vez que a presença de impurezas pode reduzir a eficiência do processo de catálise química. Esse processo é constituído, então, de diferentes etapas que incluem, inclusive, o fracionamento cromatográfico até a obtenção da xilose purificada. A partir daí, é promovida uma reação por meio de catalisadores metálicos, como ligas de níquel e alumínio, em temperaturas entre 70 e 140 °C e pressões acima de 40 atm (HERNÁNDEZ-PÉREZ *et al.*, 2019; MUSSATTO; ROBERTO, 2004; ZHANG *et al.*, 2013). Em relação ao arabitól, ele é quimicamente obtido a partir de lactonas do ácido arabinônico, em um processo similar ao do xilitol, em que etapas de purificação inicial são necessárias, com o uso posterior de um catalisador metálico em temperaturas de cerca de 100 °C (KORDOWSKA-WIATER, 2015; KUMDAM; MURTHY; GUMMADI, 2013). Tanto em relação ao xilitol quanto ao arabitól, são necessárias etapas

posteriores de separação e purificação a fim de obter o produto final separado do excedente de reagentes (HERNÁNDEZ-PÉREZ *et al.*, 2019).

Percebe-se que o processamento químico dos dois produtos demanda condições drásticas (elevadas pressão e temperatura), aplicam metais onerosos como catalisadores e possuem etapas de separação e purificação com elevados custos. Esses fatores são responsáveis por tornar o processo mais dispendioso, com elevados consumo de energia e agressão ao meio ambiente, não contribuindo para a sustentabilidade do planeta (XU *et al.*, 2019; ZHENG *et al.*, 2020).

Nesse contexto, vem ganhando destaque a via de produção biotecnológica, que utiliza o metabolismo de microrganismos, como a levedura *Candida tropicalis*, para converter açúcares como a xilose e a arabinose, presentes no hidrolisado hemicelulósico, em xilitol e arabitól. O processo biológico desperta o interesse por utilizar condições de operação brandas, gerando um menor impacto ambiental, além de ser biosseletivo, ou seja, o hidrolisado hemicelulósico pode ser utilizado de forma concentrada e destoxificada, mas dispensando etapas de purificação da xilose ou da arabinose, pois os microrganismos são capazes de assimilar as pentoses de interesse no próprio meio complexo. Apesar disso, algumas dificuldades também são evidenciadas, como o elevado custo dos meios de cultivo, o baixo rendimento do processo e os custos e eficiência não satisfatórios dos processos de separação e purificação (XU *et al.* 2019; ALVES *et al.* 2021). O esquema da Figura 9 sumariza as diferenças e desafios entre os processamentos por via química ou biotecnológica para a produção de xilitol ou arabitól.

Figura 9. Esquema comparativo entre as vias química e biotecnológica de produção de xilitol e arabitól.



Fonte: elaboração própria.

Em relação ao alto custo associado aos meios de cultivo, trata-se de uma consequência tanto do preparo do hidrolisado hemicelulósico, quando este é utilizado, quanto da adição de outros componentes ao mosto fermentativo. Nesse sentido, estudos de otimização de composição do meio nesses processos biotecnológicos são relevantes como forma de promover o menor custo inicial com as matérias primas. Em relação à composição de nitrogênio, por exemplo, há trabalhos que avaliam o efeito de diferentes fontes do nutriente no rendimento do processo, inclusive de fontes alternativas, como o farelo de arroz, como forma de reduzir ainda mais os custos atrelados à produção (KORDOWSKA-WIATER, 2015; LU *et al.*, 1995; MORAIS JUNIOR *et al.*, 2019; PALLADINO *et al.*, 2021; RACHWAŁ *et al.*, 2020; WU *et al.*, 2018). Além da redução de custos, o uso de resíduos agroindustriais em bioprocessos pode contribuir com a diminuição dos impactos do homem ao meio ambiente e agrega valor a subprodutos, tornando as cadeias produtivas mais sustentáveis (SADH; DUHAN; DUHAN, 2018).

Quanto ao rendimento do processo, diversos fatores permitem a obtenção de uma maior quantidade de bioprodutos, como o aperfeiçoamento da composição do meio e a otimização das condições de fermentação, como a temperatura e a oxigenação do mosto, fatores relacionados à manutenção das vias metabólicas dos microrganismos (CHENG *et al.*, 2014; LOMAN, A. A.; ISLAM; JU, 2018; MORAIS JUNIOR *et al.*, 2019).

Ressalta-se que, devido à similaridade química dos compostos, é obtida uma mistura de difícil e onerosa separação, em que o arabitol é geralmente tratado como uma impureza do xilitol (SAHA & KENNEDY, 2020). Apesar disso, as propriedades e aplicabilidades bastante equivalentes desses bioprodutos indicam uma possibilidade de utilização simultânea dos mesmos, embora não haja citações na literatura quanto a tal uso. Metodologias de produção e separação vêm sendo estudadas e, principalmente em relação ao arabitol, a literatura necessita de progresso em relação aos processos aplicados desde a obtenção do bioproduto (KORDOWSKA-WIATER, 2015; XU *et al.*, 2019).

v. Vias metabólicas de assimilação de pentoses

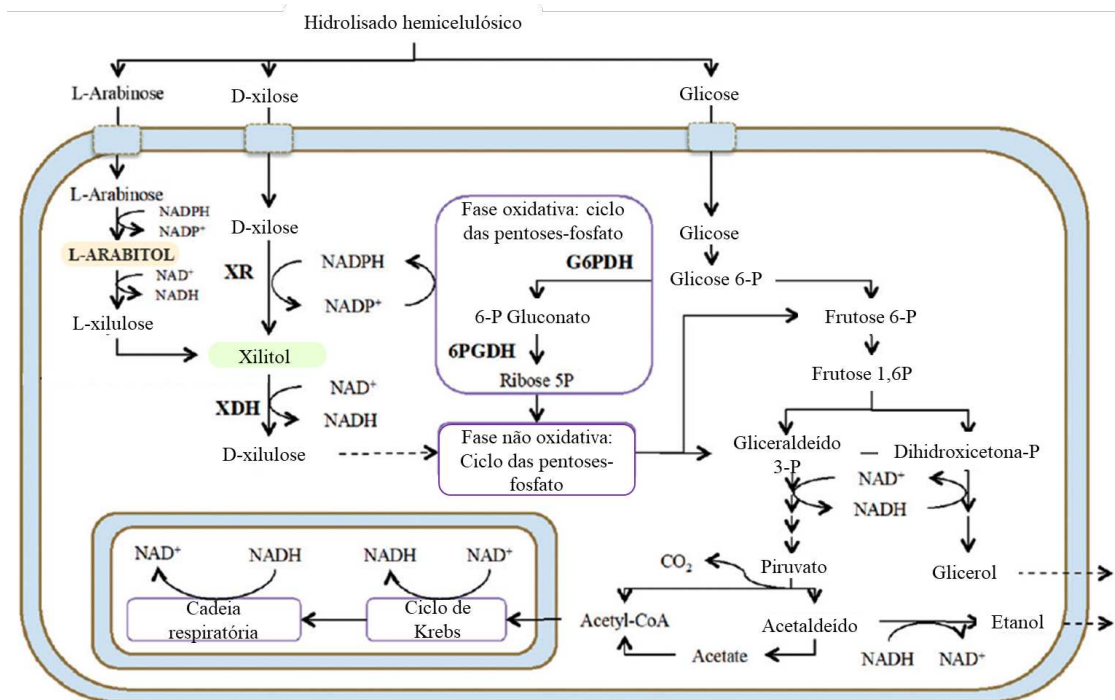
O xilitol e o arabitol, quando produzidos a partir da xilose e da arabinose por fungos filamentosos e leveduras, são gerados no meio celular como intermediários em vias metabólicas energéticas, de autorregulação e de aumento da biomassa celular dos microrganismos (FARIAS *et al.*, 2022; FRANCOIS; ALKIM; MORIN, 2020; HERNÁNDEZ-PÉREZ *et al.*, 2019). A Figura 10 esquematiza as vias metabólicas de assimilação dos açúcares de hidrolisados hemicelulósicos por leveduras e a Figura 11 particulariza a etapa de síntese do xilitol e do arabitol.

Em relação a *Eubacteria*, como *Escherichia coli*, apesar de serem capazes de assimilar pentoses, as vias metabólicas não geram xilitol ou arabitol, seguindo por vias catalisadas por L-arabinose e D-xilose isomerases (Figura 11), com raras exceções, como *Mycobacterium smegmatis*.

Na via metabólica dos fungos filamentosos e leveduras assimiladoras de pentoses (Figura 11), a assimilação das pentoses ocorre por processos de oxirredução, dependentes dos cofatores NAD(P)⁺ (oxidante) e NAD(P)H (redutor). Após a assimilação das pentoses para o meio intracelular por estruturas transportadoras de açúcar na membrana, uma enzima aldose redutase NADPH dependente (L-arabitol ou D-xilose redutase) reduz L-arabinose ou D-xilose a, respectivamente, L-arabitol ou xilitol. Em seguida, o L-arabitol ou o xilitol sintetizados podem ser oxidados a L-xilulose ou D-xilulose por ação das enzimas NAD⁺ dependentes L-arabitol desidrogenase ou xilitol desidrogenase, respectivamente (BETTIGA *et al.*, 2009; FARIAS *et al.*, 2022; JAGTAP; RAO, 2018). A L-xilulose produzida a partir do L-arabitol é então reduzida a xilitol pela enzima NADPH

dependente L-xilulose redutase e, então, como descrito anteriormente, o xilitol é oxidado a D-xilulose. A D-xilulose produzida pelos processos de assimilação de L-arabinose e D-xilose pode, então, ser fosforilada em um processo irreversível que consome ATP, a D-xilulose 5-fosfato, molécula que será introduzida no Ciclo das Pentoses Fosfato (PPP) para a continuidade do metabolismo celular (FARIAS *et al.*, 2022; FRANCOIS; ALKIM; MORIN, 2020; GUO *et al.*, 2019; SEIBOTH; METZ, 2011).

Figura 10. Esquema do metabolismo envolvido na assimilação dos principais carboidratos do hidrolisado hemicelulósico.



Fonte: adaptado de Hernández-Pérez et al. (2019).

Figura 11. Via metabólica de assimilação de D-xilose e L-arabinose por bactérias (linha tracejada) e por fungos filamentosos e leveduras com geração intermediária de xilitol (linha cheia).

excretados pelas células (BETTIGA *et al.*, 2009; FARIAS *et al.*, 2022; HERNÁNDEZ-PÉREZ *et al.*, 2019; JAGTAP; RAO, 2018).

Percebe-se, portanto, que a disponibilidade de oxigênio durante o processo fermentativo pode determinar se o xilitol e o arabitól permanecerão no meio ou se serão utilizados para a obtenção de energia e crescimento da biomassa celular, fazendo com que a quantidade de oxigênio seja um fator chave no controle do bioprocesso (ARCAÑO *et al.*, 2020; BETTIGA *et al.*, 2009; JAGTAP; RAO, 2018). Ressalta-se que há estudos indicando que leveduras assimiladoras de pentoses, como *Candida tropicalis*, são capazes de sobreviver em anaerobiose, mas a quantidade de xilitol gerado no meio nesse caso é inferior ao obtido com o fornecimento controlado de oxigênio, pois nesses contextos a via de assimilação das pentoses é limitada, sendo este um fator chave na produção biotecnológica desses poliálcoois (CHENG *et al.*, 2014; HERNÁNDEZ-PÉREZ *et al.*, 2019; KORDOWSKA-WIATER, 2015).

vi. Xilitol e arabitól por *Candida tropicalis* e outras leveduras

Candida sp. é uma espécie de levedura que apresenta diversas espécies conhecidas por serem capazes de produzir compostos de interesse biotecnológico. *Candida tropicalis*, apesar de ser um microrganismo oportunista de classe de risco 2, é relatada como uma espécie capaz de sintetizar diferentes ácidos carboxílicos, além de assimilar xilose e arabinose, convertendo-as em xilitol e arabitól. Em relação à produção dos poliálcoois a partir de pentoses, principalmente quanto ao xilitol, *C. tropicalis* é relatada como uma levedura que possui um elevado rendimento de conversão, com valores superiores a 90 % (BERNARD *et al.*, 1981; DALLI; PATEL; RAKSHIT, 2017; JAGTAP; RAO, 2018; MCMILLAN; BOYNTON, 1994; SCHÖRKEN; KEMPERS, 2009).

Em trabalhos prévios do grupo de pesquisa do Laboratório de Engenharia Metabólica e Bioprocessos da Faculdade de Engenharia de Alimentos da Unicamp, especificamente na produção biológica do xilitol a partir de hidrolisado hemicelulósico de bagaço de cana de açúcar com a levedura *C. tropicalis*, percebeu-se que, após 86 h de cultivo, toda a arabinose do meio havia sido consumida (ALVES, 2018; ALVES *et al.*, 2021). Esse fator é um indicativo de que o arabitól

pode estar sendo produzido no meio a partir da arabinose, gerando um meio com presença simultânea de xilitol e arabitol.

Tal aspecto vem sendo explorado pelo grupo e pode representar um potencial no reaproveitamento do bagaço de cana de açúcar. Na sequência, foi identificada a produção simultânea de xilitol e arabitol na presença de xilose e arabinose pela mesma levedura (dados não mostrados). No entanto, um estudo visando a otimização do meio e das condições do processo fermentativo para a coprodução de xilitol e arabitol por essa levedura, principalmente em relação à oxigenação, ainda não foi realizada pelo grupo e é necessária.

A Tabela 2 sumariza estudos de produção biotecnológica de xilitol e arabitol a partir de hidrolisados hemicelulósicos de biomassas assim como a partir de arabinose, xilose e glicose na forma purificada.

Em relação à produção de xilitol, nota-se que há uma grande variedade de modos de operação e escalas, indo de erlenmeyers a biorreatores, assim como de microrganismos, geneticamente modificados ou não, e biomassas lignocelulósicas. Além disso, os resultados atuais levam a valores de produtividade de até 7,9 g/L.h e rendimentos de até 90 % do valor teórico (0,917 g/g) (DOS SANTOS *et al.*, 2011; FARIAS *et al.*, 2022; OU *et al.*, 2020; SASAKI *et al.*, 2010; SU *et al.*, 2015). Ressalta-se também que um dos maiores rendimentos identificados foi obtido a partir de *C. tropicalis* em hidrolisado de bagaço de cana de açúcar, 0,86 g/g (MORAIS JUNIOR *et al.*, 2019).

Em relação à produção de arabitol, percebe-se que a diversidade de estudos não é tão ampla quanto a de xilitol, com os trabalhos limitados, em sua maioria, à produção em Erlenmeyers e utilizando pentoses purificadas como substrato. Nesse contexto, foi possível atingir valores elevados de rendimento, praticamente equivalentes ao teórico (1,01 g/g) a partir de *C. tropicalis* (MCMILLAN; BOYNTON, 1994). Em relação à produção a partir de hidrolisados hemicelulósicos, destacou-se a produção do hidrolisado de farinha de soja, com a maior produtividade encontrada na literatura, de 0,90 g/L.h (LOMAN, A. A.; ISLAM; JU, 2018).

Tabela 2. Estudos de produção de xilitol e arabitol a partir de xilose, arabinose e hidrolisados de biomassas lignocelulósicas.

Microorganismo	Substrato	Concentração de açúcares	Tipo de processo	Xol, Arol (g/L)	Y _{ps} (g/g)	Pr (g/L.h)	Referência
Produção de xilitol							
<i>Candida boidinii</i>	Hidrolisado de bagaço de azeitona	24,0 g/L de xilose	Batelada, Erlenmeyers de 100 mL	6,0	0,43	0,07	López-Linares et al. (2020)
<i>Candida guilliermondii</i>	Hidrolisado de palha de trigo	58,0 g/L de xilose	Batelada, Erlenmeyers de 250 mL	41,0	0,71	0,94	Saravanan et al. (2021)
<i>Candida guilliermondii</i>	Hidrolisado de madeira de choupo	50,0 g/L de xilose	Batelada, Biorreatores de 1 L	46,0	0,92	0,88	Dalli et al. (2017)
<i>Candida tropicalis</i>	Hidrolisado de bagaço de cana-de-açúcar	41,0 g/L de xilose	Batelada, Erlenmeyers de 1 L	19,3	0,55	0,21	Alves et al. (2021)
<i>Candida tropicalis</i>	Hidrolisado de bagaço de cana-de-açúcar	177,0 g/L de xilose	Batelada, Erlenmeyers de 125 mL	109,5	0,86	2,81	Morais Junior et al. (2019)
<i>Candida tropicalis</i>	Hidrolisado de palha de arroz	45,0 g/L de xilose	Biorreator contínuo de 5 L com unidade de microfiltração	31,0	0,78	0,21	Zahed et al. (2016)
<i>Candida tropicalis</i>	Hidrolisado de espiga de milho	57,2 g/L de xilose	Batelada, Erlenmeyers de 500 mL com células imobilizadas	41,0	0,73	0,43	Yewale et al. (2016)
<i>Debaryomyces hansenii</i> var <i>hansenii</i>	Hidrolisado de palha de arroz	60,0 g/L de xilose	Batelada, Erlenmeyers de 250 mL	40,0	0,72	0,83	Saravanan et al. (2021)
<i>Kluyveromyces marxianus</i>	Hidrolisado de espiga de milho	32,0 g/L de xilose	Batelada, Biorreatores de 5 L	24,2	0,82	0,4	Du et al. (2020)
<i>Pachysolen tannophilus</i>	Hidrolisado de espiga de milho	60,0 g/L de xilose	Batelada, Erlenmeyers de 250 mL	49,0	0,81	1,02	Saravanan et al. (2021)
MG <i>Candida tropicalis</i>	Xilose purificada	300,0 g/L	Batelada alimentada, Biorreatores de 5 L	260,0	0,92	5,09	Lee et al. (2003)
MG <i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	Oat and soybean hull hydrolysates	18,0 g/L de xilose	Batelada, Biorreator de 2 L	8,2	0,45	0,08	Cortivo et al. (2018)
MG <i>Ashbya gossypii</i>	Xilose purificada	20,0 g/L	Batelada, Erlenmeyers	22,6	0,8	0,14	Díaz-Fernández et al. (2017)
Produção de arabitol							
<i>Candida parapsilosis</i>	L-arabinose purificada	20,0 g/L	Batelada, Erlenmeyers de 100 mL	10,7	0,53	0,15	Kordowska-Wiater et al. (2017)
<i>Candida tropicalis</i>	L-arabinose purificada	15,5 g/L	Batelada, Erlenmeyers de 250 mL	8,0	1,02	0,09	McMillan & Boynton (1994)
<i>Debaryomyces hansenii</i>	Hidrolisado de bagaço de sisal	2,9 g/L de xilose	Batelada, Erlenmeyers de 1 L	1,1	0,99	0,01	de Medeiros et al. (2020)
<i>Pichia manchurica</i>	L-arabinose purificada	150,0 g/L	Batelada, Erlenmeyers de 250 mL	13,7	0,09	0,11	Sundaramoorthy & Gummadi (2019)
<i>Pichia stipitis</i>	L-arabinose purificada	15,0 g/L	Batelada, Erlenmeyers de 250 mL	8,2	0,57	0,09	McMillan & Boynton (1994)
MG karyoductant of <i>S. cerevisiae</i> and <i>Pichia stipitis</i>	L-arabinose purificada	32,5 g/L	Batelada, Erlenmeyers de 100 mL	18,9	0,58	0,39	Kordowska-Wiater et al. (2012)
MG <i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	L-arabinose, glicose e xilose purificadas	20,0 g/L de cada	Batelada, Erlenmeyers de 1 L	17,5	0,95	0,145	Sanchez et al. (2010)

Arol – arabitol; MG: Modificado geneticamente; Pr – Produtividade; xol – xilitol; Y_{ps} – rendimento de substrato em produto.

Fonte: adaptado de Farias et al. (2022)

Em relação à produção simultânea de xilitol e arabitol, apenas dois estudos recentes foram identificados reportando tal coprodução a partir de hidrolisados hemicelulósicos. De Medeiros e colaboradores (2020) observaram a produção de xilitol e arabitol pela levedura *Debaryomyces hansenii* em hidrolisado de sisal e, apesar de terem identificado valores elevados para o rendimento de arabitol, a concentração inicial dos açúcares foi de apenas 2,84 g/L de xilose e 1,14 g/L de arabinose na composição, levando a valores de 1,1 g/L de arabitol e 0,1 g/L de xilitol.

Um segundo estudo, proposto por Araújo e colaboradores (2021), também promoveu a produção de xilitol e arabitol por *Komagataella pastoris* a partir de hidrolisados hemicelulósicos de casca de banana, de resíduos de grãos de cervejarias, de talos de uva, de espiga de milho, de serragem e de bagaço de uva. Apesar de terem avaliado diferentes hidrolisados como potencial para a coprodução de xilitol e arabitol, as concentrações máximas obtidas foram de 4,0 g/L de xilitol e 0,9 g/L de arabitol.

Nesse contexto, nota-se que o presente estudo é o primeiro a propor o estudo da produção simultânea de xilitol e arabitol a partir de fermentação de hidrolisado de bagaço de cana pela levedura *Candida tropicalis*, principalmente no que tange à otimização considerando a introdução de subprodutos industriais como fonte de nitrogênio para o microrganismo, visando a otimização do processo fermentativo.

vii. Água de maceração de milho

No processamento do milho, uma das possíveis etapas realizadas é a moagem úmida. Esse processo consiste em umedecer os grãos secos em uma solução contendo ácido láctico e sulfitos por diferentes combinações de tempo e temperatura. Com isso, o amido presente no grão absorve a umidade, amolecendo-o, e a matriz proteica que protege o grão é rompida. Um dos principais objetivos desta etapa é remover as proteínas solúveis do grão, que migram para a solução, e facilitar os processos subsequentes de moagem para extração do amido (SELIM et al., 2021; ZHOU et al., 2022).

A água utilizada nesse processo que, portanto, carrega consigo diversos sólidos solúveis presentes nos grãos de milho, é definida como água de maceração

de milho (*corn steep water* – CSW), um dos principais resíduos das indústrias de processamento desse grão. Devido principalmente a fatores como a presença de grãos danificados, sejam brocados ou danificados pelo calor, a água de maceração de milho pode conter também a presença de açúcares redutores em diferentes concentrações. A sua composição pode variar de acordo com a variedade do grão e o tipo e a etapa do processamento, mas, de uma forma geral, define-se que esse efluente é composto principalmente de proteínas, aminoácidos, minerais, ácidos orgânicos, vitaminas, açúcares redutores e enzimas, o que o caracteriza como um substrato em potencial para o crescimento microbiano (HULL et al., 1996; SELIM et al., 2021; ZHOU et al., 2022).

Uma das principais aplicações atuais de CSW é para a ração animal, já que ele pode ser concentrado e misturado a sólidos, glúten e materiais fibrosos. Contudo, CSW já vem sendo aplicado também em pequenas quantidades como fonte de nutrientes de baixo custo em processos fermentativos diversos, para a produção de, por exemplo, enzimas, etanol, penicilina, ácido glutâmico e ácido lático (SELIM et al., 2021; ZHOU et al., 2022). Adicionalmente, CSW tem recebido destaque recente devido à capacidade de gerar, a partir de processos fermentativos, biossurfactantes, moléculas com aplicações diversas, que apresentam inclusive potencial antimicrobiano, e que podem substituir os surfactantes de origem química (LÓPEZ-PRIETO et al., 2019; MARTÍNEZ-ARCOS; MOLDES; VECINO, 2021).

Selim e colaboradores (2021), em uma caracterização de CSW, identificaram a presença de vitamínicos e íons inorgânicos, com destaque para fósforo, magnésio e cálcio, e concentrações de 11,3 g/L de proteínas e 10,7 g/L de aminoácidos livres, estando presentes 17 tipos de aminoácidos distintos, diversidade relevante para o crescimento microbiano. Apesar disso, detectou-se também um teor elevado de carboidratos, chegando a 250 g/L. Hull e colaboradores (1996) realizaram a caracterização de CSW em diferentes etapas do processamento e obtiveram concentrações de aminoácidos totais variando de 8 a 62 g/L e, para carboidratos, de 5,6 a 17,2 g/L. Nota-se que há uma grande variação dependendo do processamento realizado com os grãos e, portanto, o uso de CSW exige cautela, tendo em vista que ele pode conter concentrações relevantes de açúcares ou compostos inibidores diversos que podem alterar o comportamento esperado dos microrganismos.

**ARTIGO - SIMULTANEOUS PRODUCTION OF XYLITOL AND ARABITOL
BY *Candida tropicalis* FERMENTATION IMPROVING AGRO-INDUSTRIAL
WASTES VALORIZATION**

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As autorizações para uso integral do artigo nesta tese encontram-se no Anexo IV.

Simultaneous production of xylitol and arabitol by *Candida tropicalis* fermentation improving agro-industrial wastes valorization

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Abstract

Xylitol and arabitol are sugar alcohols with similar properties and applications. Although the biotechnological production of xylitol is already being explored, its coproduction with arabitol is still in the early stages. This study aimed to improve the coproduction of xylitol and arabitol by *Candida tropicalis* from sugarcane bagasse hemicellulosic hydrolysate. The most promising results were achieved with 2.2 g L⁻¹ nitrogen, obtained by mixing 80% yeast hydrolysate and 20% corn steep water. For fermentations conducted in a bioreactor, the concentrations of xylitol (52.1 g L⁻¹) and arabitol (4.2 g L⁻¹) were 65 and 3.7 times higher, respectively, than those reported in the literature for similar processes, with productivities and yields of 0.24 g L⁻¹ h⁻¹ and 0.74 g g⁻¹ for xylitol and 0.02 g L⁻¹ h⁻¹ and 0.43 g g⁻¹ for arabitol. These results show promise for the coproduction of sugar alcohols from sugarcane bagasse hemicellulosic hydrolysate by *C. tropicalis*.

Keywords

biorefinery, fermentation, pentose-assimilating yeasts, polyols, sugar substitutes

Highlights

- i. Optimum media for sugar alcohols production reduced media costs by 10 times
- ii. Corn steep water can substitute 20 % of yeast hydrolysate as nitrogen source
- iii. Optimum media improved the production of xylitol by 450 % and arabitol by 250 %
- iv. Bioreactor fermentation produced 52.1 g L⁻¹ of xylitol and 4.2 g L⁻¹ of arabitol

Abbreviations

CSW – Corn steep water

SBHH – Sugarcane bagasse hemicellulosic hydrolysate

YH - Yeast hydrolysate

YE – Yeas extract

YPMG - Yeast peptone malt glucose

YP – Yeast peptone

PB12 – Plackett-Burman

DOE – Design of experiments

$Y_{xol,xyl}$ – Xylitol yield

$Y_{arol,arab}$ – Arabitol yield

$Y_{x,s}$ – Biomass yield

P_{xyl} – Xylitol productivity

P_{arol} – Arabitol productivity

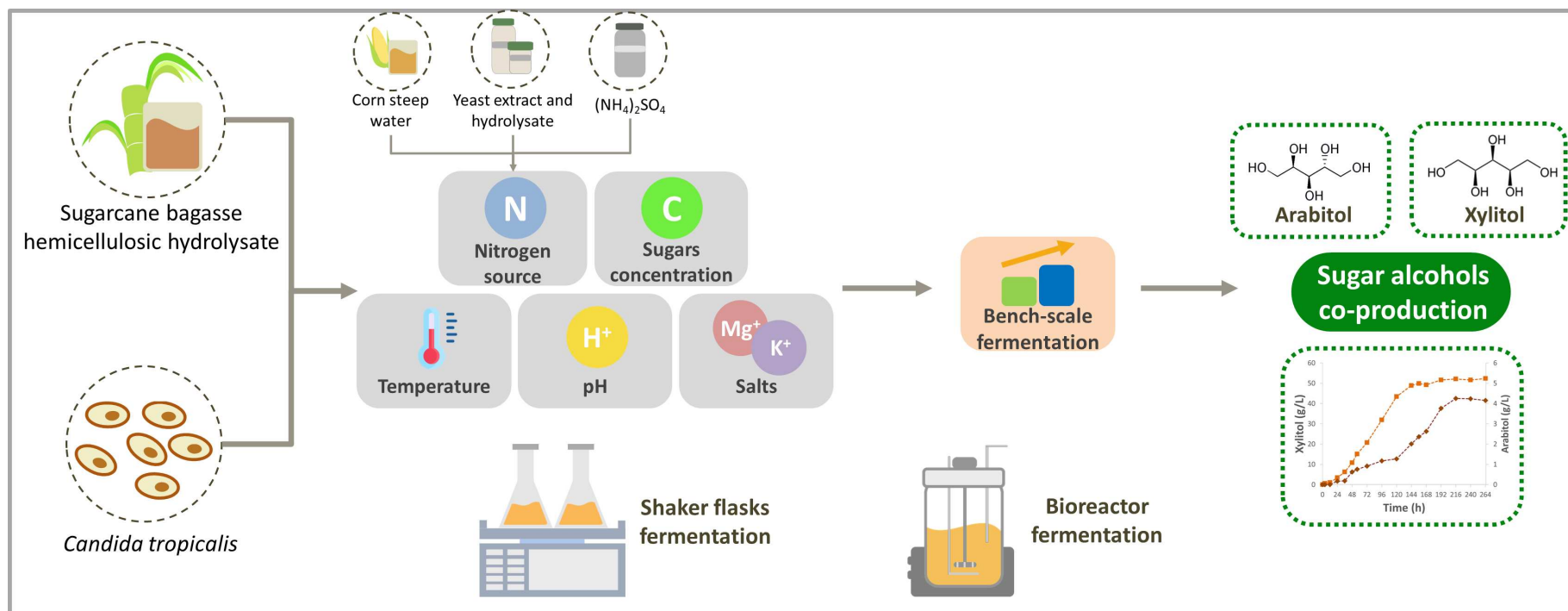
ϵ_{xyl} – Xylose consumption

ϵ_{arab} - Arabinose consumption

C_{xol} – Xylitol concentration

C_{arol} – Arabitol concentration

Graphical abstract



1. Introduction

The sugar alcohol market is under constant expansion, forecast to increase from US\$3.42 billion in 2021 to US\$5.14 billion in 2028 (Grand View Research 2022). Xylitol and arabitol are sugar alcohol stereoisomers that can be used as sweetening agents in foods and beverages (Farias et al., 2022).

Xylitol has a sweetening potency similar to that of sucrose but with 40 % less calories (2.4 kcal g^{-1}). Additionally, it can help protect teeth against cavities and impart a fresh sensation to the mouth, with major application in chewing gums (Farias et al., 2022; Xu et al., 2019). Regarding arabitol, even though it has a sweetening power of 70% to that of sucrose, its caloric value is 20 times lower (0.2 kcal g^{-1}), having also properties similar to xylitol, such as sensation of freshness and protection against teeth cavities. Furthermore, arabitol, like xylitol, is classified as one of the 12 biomass-derivable chemicals designated for further research within biotechnology (Kordowska-Wiater et al., 2017; Farias et al., 2022).

Arabitol, despite having similar properties, is not widely used as a food additive, which consequently affects its cost in the market. While xylitol is marketed for less than US\$ 0.04 per gram, arabitol, a molecule with similar synthesis and application, is marketed only in its purified form for more than US\$ 60 per gram, which increases the interest in the production of this molecule. It should be noted, however, that if its production costs were reduced, arabitol would compete directly with xylitol in food applications or could be applied together for possible synergistic effects not yet explored (Loman and Ju 2013; Loman et al. 2018; Xu et al. 2019; Arcaño et al. 2020, Farias et al., 2022).

Xylitol and arabitol can be chemically synthesized via processes that are both expensive and environmentally harmful (Xu et al. 2019; Zheng et al. 2020). On the other hand, biotechnological production is an ecofriendly route using microorganisms, such as the yeast *Candida tropicalis*. This species has been applied to metabolize pentoses into sugar alcohols, but current methods are hampered by drawbacks such as expensive growth media and low yields (Xu et al. 2019).

The main substrates used in the bioproduction of sugar alcohols are hemicellulosic hydrolysates derived from lignocellulosic biomasses, such as sugarcane bagasse, which serve as sources of glucose, xylose, and arabinose (Antunes et al. 2019). Xylitol and arabitol co-production is also a way of promoting the full use of pentoses present in lignocellulosic biomass, since xylose can be converted to xylitol and arabinose to arabitol (Murzin et al., 2020; Farias et al., 2022). Also, valuing the application of a co-product of xylitol and arabitol would reduce purification costs, since the separation of these molecules is potentially not cost effective (Saha and Kennedy, 2020).

In these fermentative processes, the requirement for medium enrichment with nitrogen is an important additional cost. Studies assessed the effects of different nitrogen sources on biological fermentation, including rice bran and other industrial wastes (Kordowska-Wiater 2015; Morais Junior et al. 2019; Palladino et al. 2021). However, no studies were found with corn steep water (CSW) in association with hemicellulosic hydrolysates for coproducing polyalcohols.

CSW is an effluent resulting from corn milling. Its composition may vary but it can be characterized as a source of nitrogen and other nutrients and is commonly applied in animal feed. Due to the presence of sulfites and organic acids, CSW should not be used directly in human food (Zhou et al., 2022; Xiao et al., 2012). Despite this, this byproduct has been applied in processes of interest to food industries that undergo further purification processes, such as the growth of probiotics (Wu et al., 2020) and carotenoids (Rodrigues et al., 2019), polysaccharides (Lee et al., 2018) and biosurfactants (Almeida et al., 2021) production. It should be noted that valorization of agro-industrial wastes via bioprocessing contributes to environmental sustainability and favors the development of a circular economy.

Studies on the optimization of xylitol bioproduction are being developed, including by our workgroup, also addressing the bioproduct purification stages, separating it from residual sugars, colored compounds, organic acids and generated co-products, such as ethanol, in which the optimization of the

fermentation is also highlighted as a way to improve xylitol purification (Alves et al., 2021; Cardoso and Forte, 2021). However, there is limited research on the simultaneous production of arabitol. Even though both polyalcohols are produced from pentoses present in the medium, arabitol is either not analyzed or treated as a contaminant in xylitol production (Saha and Kennedy 2020). However, xylitol and arabitol production through integral utilization of hemicellulosic hydrolysates as substrates allows for combined application of these compounds. Coproduction from synthetic media has been reported, and recent studies have underscored the possibility of producing both sugar alcohols from hemicellulosic hydrolysates (De Medeiros et al. 2020; Araújo et al. 2021). Nevertheless, there is still a gap in our understanding of the possibility of operating in bioreactors, scaling up the process and of the contribution of process variables to fermentative coproduction, especially regarding *C. tropicalis*.

In view of the above, this study aimed to investigate and optimize the simultaneous production of xylitol and arabitol from sugarcane bagasse hemicellulosic hydrolysate (SBHH) using a *C. tropicalis* strain isolated from Brazilian sugarcane crops. The possibility of reducing process costs through the use of less expensive protein sources, such as CSW, was evaluated. Fermentations were evaluated at the bioreactor level, the first step of the scale-up, and conversion parameters were optimized to ensure the feasibility of the biotechnological process.

2. Materials and methods

Fig. 1 presents a flowchart illustrating the steps adopted in this research.

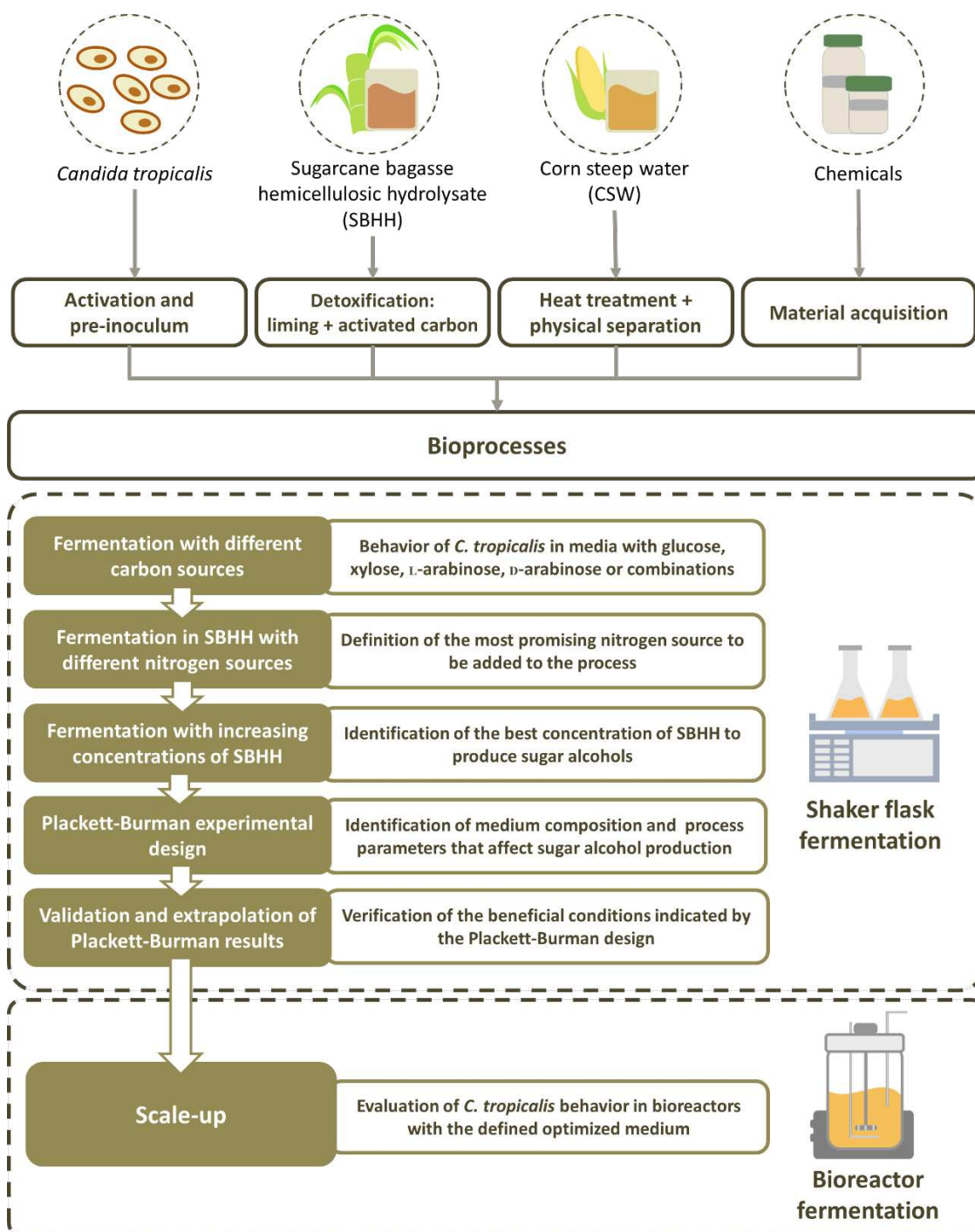


Fig. 1. Flowchart illustrating the methods used in the study

2.1. Raw materials

CSW was kindly provided by Ingredion Brasil. The raw material was heat treated (121 °C, 20 min), centrifuged (Andreas Hettich GmbH & Co, Rotanta 460r, Germany) (5000 rpm, 10 min), and filtered. Yeast hydrolysate (YH) (NuCell, Procelys) was kindly provided by Procelys by Lesaffre. Yeast extract (YE) was obtained commercially from Neogen®.

SBHH was produced by treatment of dried sugarcane bagasse with sulfuric acid (0.5% v/v) at 121 °C for 20 min, followed by vacuum evaporation. Two batches of SBHH (hereafter referred to as batches A and B) were obtained at the facilities of the Brazilian Biorenewables National Laboratory (LNBR). Crude SBHH was detoxified by overliming and activated carbon adsorption, according to a method adapted from Antunes (2019). The process was carried out in three stages, and, after each stage, the mixture was centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 15 min. In step 1, the pH was raised from 0.5 to 7.0 by adding sodium hydroxide solution (45% w/v). In step 2, the pH was reduced from 7.0 to 5.5 with concentrated phosphoric acid. Finally, in step 3, activated carbon (2.5% w/v) was added, and the mixture was incubated in a rotary shaker/incubator (New Brunswick Scientific Co., Innova 4430, United States) at 30 °C and 200 rpm for 1 h.

2.2. Yeast strain

The *C. tropicalis* strain, isolated from Brazilian sugarcane crops, was kindly provided by the Laboratory of Genomics and Expression of the University of Campinas, Institute of Biology, Campinas, Brazil. The microorganism was activated on Yeast Peptone Malt Glucose (YPMG) medium (3 g L⁻¹ YE, 5 g L⁻¹ peptone, 3 g L⁻¹ malt extract, 10 g L⁻¹ glucose, and 10 g L⁻¹ bacteriological agar) in a bacteriological incubator at 30 °C for 48 h. For use in fermentation processes, pre-inocula were prepared in 300 mL of Yeast Peptone (YP) media (10 g L⁻¹ yeast extract and 20 g L⁻¹ peptone) added of 30 g L⁻¹ xylose to 1 L shaker flasks in a rotary shaker/incubator (30 °C, 200 rpm, 24 h).

2.3. Fermentations using different carbon sources

Fermentative processes were carried out in YP media supplemented with one of the following carbon sources at 30 g L⁻¹: glucose, xylose, L-arabinose, D-arabinose, glucose + L-arabinose (1:2), and glucose + D-arabinose (1:2). Fermentations were performed in 125 mL shaker flasks containing 50 mL of medium in a rotary shaker/incubator (30 °C, 200 rpm, 72 h).

2.4. Fermentations in SBHH supplemented with different nitrogen sources

The growth of *C. tropicalis* on different nitrogen sources was studied by carrying out fermentative processes in diluted detoxified SBHH media (batch A, 30 g L⁻¹ xylose) added of KH₂PO₄ (2.7 g L⁻¹) and MgSO₄ (0.3 g L⁻¹) at an initial pH of 6.0. Four nitrogen sources were tested: (i) YE, (ii) YE + ammonium sulfate ((NH₄)₂SO₄), (iii) YH, and (iv) CSW. The concentration of all media was equivalent to 0.8 g L⁻¹ total nitrogen (Morais Júnior et al., 2019; Antunes et al., 2021). YE was treated as control because it is conventionally added to hemicellulosic hydrolysates. The YE + (NH₄)₂SO₄ process contained 0.6 g L⁻¹ nitrogen from YE and 0.2 g L⁻¹ nitrogen from (NH₄)₂SO₄. Fermentations were performed in 1 L flasks containing 300 mL of medium in a rotary shaker/incubator (35 °C, 200 rpm, 120 h).

2.5. Fermentations using increasing SBHH concentrations

Fermentative processes were performed using detoxified SBHH media at different concentrations (batch A, 30, 55, 75, and 85 g L⁻¹ xylose) added of KH₂PO₄ (2.7 g L⁻¹), MgSO₄ (0.3 g L⁻¹), salts conventionally added to this culture medium (Narisetty et al., 2021; Morais Júnior et al., 2019), and 0.8 g L⁻¹ nitrogen from the nitrogen source selected in the previous experiment (YH), at an initial pH of 6.0. Fermentations were performed in 1 L shaker flasks containing 300 mL of medium in a rotary shaker/incubator (35 °C, 200 rpm, 120 h). An additional fermentation was carried out in a 1 L baffled flask containing medium at an initial xylose concentration of 75 g L⁻¹.

2.6. Plackett–Burman experimental design

The effects of fermentation conditions and medium composition on sugar alcohol production were assessed using a Plackett–Burman (PB12) experimental design with 12 runs, 6 factors at high (+1) and low (−1) levels, and 4 replications of the center point (0), totaling 16 tests (Rodrigues and Iemma, 2014), in order to simultaneously and multivariately identify the effect of medium composition parameters and define the most appropriate process conditions for the production of sugar alcohols from SBHH. The six factors were initial nitrogen concentration (x_1), initial KH_2PO_4 concentration (x_2), initial MgSO_4 concentration (x_3), temperature (x_4), initial pH (x_5), and CSW percentage in the nitrogen source (x_6). Factor levels and runs are detailed in Section 3.5. Fermentative processes were performed using detoxified SBHH (Batch A) at an average concentration of 75 g L^{-1} xylose in 1 L shaker flasks containing 300 mL of medium in a rotary shaker/incubator (200 rpm, 96 h). The main nitrogen source was YH. Data were analyzed using the online tool Protimiza Experimental Design (experimental-design.protimiza.com.br).

2.7. Validation and extrapolation of Plackett–Burman results

For validation (V-I to V-IV) of the most productive and least expensive conditions, fermentations were performed under the beneficial conditions identified from the results of the Plackett–Burman design. Fermentation processes were carried out using detoxified SBHH (batch B) at an average concentration of 75 g L^{-1} xylose in a rotary shaker/incubator (200 rpm, 96 h). Fermentation conditions and medium compositions are described in Section 3.6. An additional test (CP) was performed under center point conditions using crude (undetoxified) SBHH to assess the feasibility of eliminating the detoxification step in subsequent reactions.

2.8. Bioreactor fermentations

After the best conditions were defined in the Plackett–Burman validation and extrapolation step, a bench scale fermentation process was carried out using 1 L of diluted detoxified SBHH culture medium (batch B, 75 g L^{-1} xylose) added of CSW (39.3 g L^{-1}) and YH (16.0 g L^{-1}), resulting in a nitrogen concentration of 2.2 g L^{-1} , at an initial pH of 6.5. Fermentations were performed for 264 h in a 2 L

bioreactor without baffles (New Brunswick BioFlo 3000 Fermentor, Canada) under compressed air aeration ($0.7 \text{ L min}^{-1}/0.7 \text{ vvm}$) and constant agitation (250 rpm) provided by a flat-blade turbine-type stirrer. Antifoam C emulsion (Sigma, A8011) was added as needed to prevent excessive foaming.

2.9. Analysis

Medium components and fermentation products were quantified using a high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) system (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Accela, United States) equipped with a refractive index detector (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Accela, United States). Xylose, arabinose, glucose, ethanol, xylitol, and arabitol were separated, with the methodology adapted from de Medeiros et al. (2020), by elution on an Agilent Hi-Plex Ca column at 65°C using ultrapure water at a flow rate of 0.4 mL min^{-1} . Acetic acid, hydroxymethylfurfural, and furfural were separated by elution on a Bio-Rad Aminex HPX-87h column at 45°C using H_2SO_4 solution (pH 2.6) at a flow rate of 0.6 mL min^{-1} .

Total nitrogen quantification of nitrogen sources (YE, YH, and CSW) was performed using a PerkinElmer 2400 CHN elemental analyzer.

C. tropicalis suspensions were quantified by measuring the optical density at 600 nm (OD_{600}) using a spectrophotometer (Beckman DU-640). Cell mass was estimated by correlating gravimetric measurements of the same fermentative processes with OD_{600} values.

2.10. Fermentative process parameters

Product and biomass yields were calculated as the ratio of product formed to substrate consumed. Xylitol ($Y_{\text{xol,xyl}}$) and arabitol ($Y_{\text{arol,arab}}$) yields were calculated considering xylose and arabinose as substrates, respectively. Biomass yield ($Y_{\text{x,s}}$) was calculated from total sugars (glucose, xylose, and arabinose). Xylitol (P_{xyl}) and arabitol (P_{arol}) productivities at specific times were calculated as the ratio of the quantity of product generated to the respective time. Xylose (ϵ_{xyl}) and arabinose (ϵ_{arab}) consumptions were calculated as the percentage of substrate consumed in relation to its initial concentration.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Characterization of raw materials

Characterization of SBHH (Table 1) revealed variations in sugar concentration between SBHH batches. This result was expected, given that acid hydrolysis was followed by evaporation, which can lead to different sugar concentrations depending on variations in operating conditions, especially evaporation time. Despite this, sugar proportions were similar, with glucose and arabinose corresponding from 9% to 12% of the total sugars' concentration.

It was observed that the detoxification process efficiently removed furanic compounds (furfural and hydroxymethylfurfural) from crude hydrolysate, resulting in concentrations lower than 0.01 g L^{-1} in detoxified SBHH. This result is relevant because furanic compounds, generated during acid hydrolysis of hemicellulose, are potent inhibitors of microbial growth. Additionally, it was noted that detoxification caused a sugar loss of up to 20%, which was within the expected range for an overliming process followed by activated carbon adsorption (Antunes et al. 2019).

Acetic acid, generated during acid hydrolysis, remained at concentrations greater than 4 g L^{-1} even after detoxification. This result raises some concerns, because acetic acid may negatively affect the pentose metabolism of yeasts, especially at more acidic pH (lower than its pK_a , 4.76). It should be noted, however, that the inhibitory effect of acetic acid is likely reduced by SBHH dilution during preparation of the culture medium (Morais Junior et al. 2019; Singh et al. 2022).

Table 1. Sugars, acetic acid, furfural and 5-hydroxymethylfurfural concentrations in raw and detoxified sugarcane bagasse hemicellulosic hydrolysate.

Raw material	C _{xyl} (g L ⁻¹)	C _{arab} (g L ⁻¹)	C _{glu} (g L ⁻¹)	C _{Ac acid} (g L ⁻¹)	C _{HMF} (g L ⁻¹)	C _{FUR} (g L ⁻¹)
SBHH-r (batch a)	114.82 ± 1.95	15.33 ± 0.34	14.16 ± 0.27	5.06 ± 0.12	0.57 ± 0.05	1.00 ± 0.07
SBHH -r (batch b)	153.22 ± 1.38	21.86 ± 1.56	20.60 ± 1.48	4.56 ± 0.21	0.06 ± 0.02	2.64 ± 0.08
SBHH-d (batch a)	92.74 ± 3.49	12.16 ± 0.25	11.45 ± 0.43	4.23 ± 0.23	< 0.01	< 0.01
SBHH d (batch b)	137.73 ± 3.49	17.52 ± 0.25	18.64 ± 0.43	4.20 ± 0.91	< 0.01	< 0.01

r - Raw sugarcane bagasse hemicellulosic hydrolysate

d - Detoxified sugarcane bagasse hemicellulosic hydrolysate

Ac acid – Acetic acid; Arab – Arabinose; FUR – Furfural; Glu – Glucose; HMF – 5-hydroxymethylfurfural; C – concentration

As for nitrogen sources, the results showed that YH and YE had similar concentrations of total nitrogen (0.10 and 0.11 g g⁻¹, respectively). YE is a source of nitrogen and nutrients commonly used in culture media, being produced from yeast growth, cell lysis and nutrient purification processes. YH is a less purified variation of conventional YE with the aim of being applied on a large scale in the food industry. Consequently, it has a reduced cost: while YE is sold for, on average in the Brazilian market, US\$ 150.00 kg⁻¹, YH can be acquired for 6.8 times less, US\$ 22 kg⁻¹.

CSW had a lower nitrogen concentration (0.01 g g⁻¹) but also some advantages over the other nitrogen substrates. CSW is a liquid substrate with an average density of 1.02 g cm⁻³, which translates into a nitrogen content of about 9.80 g L⁻¹, confirming its potential as a nitrogen source. CSW is considered an effective substrate for microbial growth because it contains several amino acids and inorganic compounds required for cell growth. However, its composition may vary according to the industry of origin and processing method (Hull et al. 1996; Selim et al. 2021). It is also noteworthy that xylose (1.2 g L⁻¹), arabinose (5.7 g L⁻¹), and acetic acid (2.2 g L⁻¹) were detected in CSW, but these compounds were likely to have had only a minimal effect on the reaction because the substrate was diluted with SBHH, a more concentrated carbon source used in greater amounts. Therefore, sugars derived from SBHH have a more significant contribution to medium composition.

3.2. Fermentations using different carbon sources

By analyzing the growth of *C. tropicalis* in synthetic media containing different carbon sources (Table S1, Supplementary material), it was found that the yeast was able to metabolize all the evaluated carbon sources. However, consumption was minimal ($\epsilon_{\text{arab}} = 3.8\% \pm 1.4\%$) in medium containing D-arabinose only, as evidenced by comparison with medium containing glucose, which resulted in 100% consumption. Interestingly, D-arabinose consumption was more expressive ($\epsilon_{\text{arab}} = 20.0\% \pm 1.0\%$) in medium containing both glucose and D-arabinose, possibly owing to the increase in biomass growth provided by

glucose metabolism (100% consumption). The potential of obtaining products from the metabolization of D-arabinose, due to it being a rarer sugar in nature, is not yet fully explored (Ruchala and Sibirny 2021). There are studies in butanetriol production (Wang et al., 2022) and identification of aldose reductase, converting d-arabinose to arabitol in *Pichia stipitis* (Watanabe et al., 2016). However, no reports on its metabolization by *C. tropicalis* were found.

Analysis of product formation showed that the medium containing only glucose led to the production of ethanol, confirming that *C. tropicalis* is able to metabolize hexoses. Media containing xylose, L-arabinose, or D-arabinose resulted in the production of xylitol and arabitol. This fact attests to the interrelation between metabolic routes for xylose and arabinose assimilation; that is, regardless of the pentose used as substrate, *C. tropicalis* can generate these two polyols.

It was possible to observe that xylose consumption was directed toward xylitol formation and that L-arabinose consumption was directed toward arabitol formation, given that these polyalcohols were the first to be formed in the metabolic route of each respective substrate. In pentose assimilation routes of *C. tropicalis*, xylose is directly converted to xylitol and L-arabinose is directly converted to L-arabitol by the action of arabinose reductase enzymes with preferably NADPH as cofactor. Then, for arabitol, two other enzymatic processes can occur: the conversion of L-arabitol to L-xylulose and the reduction of L-xylulose to xylitol. The xylitol formed by these metabolic pathways can then be dehydrogenated to D-xylulose, which will be phosphorylated and consumed via the pentose-phosphate pathway for cellular metabolism (Ruchala and Sibirny 2021; Farias et al., 2022; Soares et al., 2022).

Table S1. Parameters of xylitol, arabitol and ethanol production by *C. tropicalis* after 72 h of fermentation (30 °C, 200 rpm) with different carbon sources (30 g L⁻¹) in the composition of the synthetic medium (yeast extract – 10 g L⁻¹, peptone – 20 g L⁻¹).

Carbon source	ϵ_{glu} (%)	ϵ_{xyl} or ϵ_{arab} (%)	C_{EtoH} (g L ⁻¹)	$Y_{\text{etoh,glu}}$ (g g ⁻¹)	C_{gol} (g L ⁻¹)	$Y_{\text{gol,glu}}$ or $Y_{\text{gol,xyl}}$ (g g ⁻¹)	C_{xol} (g L ⁻¹)	$Y_{\text{xol,xyl}}$ or $Y_{\text{xol,arab}}$ (g g ⁻¹)	C_{arol} (g L ⁻¹)	$Y_{\text{arol,xyl}}$ or $Y_{\text{arol,arab}}$ (g g ⁻¹)
Glu	100.0 ± 0.0		5.81 ± 0.82	0.26 ± 0.03	0.35 ± 0.10	0.02 ± 0.01	-	-	-	-
Xyl	-	100.0 ± 0.0	-	-	0.93 ± 0.03	0.04 ± 0.01	15.11 ± 0.75	0.57 ± 0.03	0.21 ± 0.11	0.01 ± 0.01
L-arab	-	59.1 ± 11.2	-	-	-	-	0.99 ± 0.42	0.06 ± 0.04	5.27 ± 0.19	0.32 ± 0.04
D-arab	-	3.8 ± 1.4	-	-	-	-	0.06 ± 0.05	0.29 ± 0.16	0.06 ± 0.10	0.06 ± 0.10
Glu + L-arab (1:2)	100.0 ± 0.0	59.7 ± 5.6	-	-	-	-	0.72 ± 0.04	0.06 ± 0.01	5.38 ± 0.03	0.45 ± 0.01
Glu + D-arab (1:2)	100.0 ± 0.0	20.0 ± 1.0	-	-	-	-	0.15 ± 0.04	0.13 ± 0.07	0.18 ± 0.02	0.05 ± 0.03

Arab – arabinose; arol – arabitol; etoh – ethanol; glu - glucose; xol – xylitol; xyl – xylose; Y – yield; ϵ – substrate conversion; C – concentration.

As a direct consequence of metabolic pathways, xylitol production was highest in the medium containing xylose only ($C_{\text{xol}} = 15.11 \pm 0.75 \text{ g L}^{-1}$, $Y_{\text{xol,xyl}} = 0.57 \pm 0.03 \text{ g g}^{-1}$), with 100.0% xylose consumption. Similarly, arabitol production was highest in the medium containing glucose and L-arabinose ($C_{\text{arol}} = 5.38 \pm 0.03 \text{ g L}^{-1}$, $Y_{\text{xol,xyl}} = 0.45 \pm 0.01 \text{ g g}^{-1}$), with 100% glucose consumption and $59.7\% \pm 5.6\%$ arabinose consumption (Table S1, Supplementary material). It should be noted that L-arabinose is the isomer of arabinose that is mostly present in the hemicellulosic hydrolysate (Kordowska-Wiater et al., 2017; Palladino et al., 2021).

The results confirmed the ability of *C. tropicalis* to convert pentoses into polyalcohols, demonstrating its potential application in fermentation reactions with hemicellulosic hydrolysates, which are renewable, low-cost sources of xylose, glucose, and arabinose, contributing to the economic and environmental feasibility of xylitol and arabitol production.

3.3. Fermentations in SBHH supplemented with different nitrogen sources

The kinetic profile of SBHH fermentative processes with different nitrogen sources was used to determine xylitol (P_{xol}) and arabitol (P_{arol}) productivities. For the four nitrogen sources evaluated, the maximum combined productivity ($P_{\text{xol}} + P_{\text{arol}}$) occurred after 56 h of reaction. The parameters of compound production and yeast growth in different nitrogen sources were therefore assessed at this reaction time (Table S2, Supplementary material) (Fig. 2).

Table S2. Parameters of xylitol and arabitol production by *C. tropicalis* after 56 h of fermentation (35 °C, 200 rpm) with different nitrogen sources (0.8 g L⁻¹ of total nitrogen) in the medium composition using diluted sugarcane bagasse hemicellulosic hydrolyzate as carbon source (30 g L⁻¹ of xylose).

Nitrogen source	C _{xol} (g L ⁻¹)	C _{arol} (g L ⁻¹)	Y _{xol.xyl} (g g ⁻¹)	Y _{arol.arab} (g g ⁻¹)	P _{xol} (g L ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)	P _{arol} (g L ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)	Y _{x,s} (g g ⁻¹)	ε _{xyl} (%)	ε _{arab} (%)
YE	9.80 ± 1.19a	1.23 ± 0.30a	0.40 ± 0.02a	0.41 ± 0.13ab	0.18 ± 0.01a	0.02 ± 0.01a	0.23 ± 0.05a	84.9 ± 10.1a	59.1 ± 8.6a
YE + NH	9.62 ± 1.17a	1.63 ± 0.28a	0.35 ± 0.07a	0.49 ± 0.06a	0.17 ± 0.01a	0.03 ± 0.01a	0.19 ± 0.08a	96.7 ± 3.0ab	78.0 ± 19.4ab
YH	15.17 ± 1.73b	1.80 ± 0.15a	0.53 ± 0.06b	0.46 ± 0.06ab	0.27 ± 0.03b	0.03 ± 0.01a	0.21 ± 0.07a	100.0 ± 0.1b	82.2 ± 5.9ab
CSW	4.86 ± 1.53c	1.33 ± 0.21a	0.19 ± 0.01c	0.33 ± 0.06b	0.09 ± 0.02c	0.02 ± 0.01a	0.23 ± 0.04a	100.0 ± 0.1b	0.92 ± 0.6b

Different letters in the same column indicate a statistically significant difference by the Tukey Test at the 5% level.

xol – xylitol; xyl – xylose; arol – arabitol; arab – arabinose; x – biomass; s – total sugars (glucose, xylose and arabinose); Y – yield; P – productivity; ε – substrate conversion; C - concentration

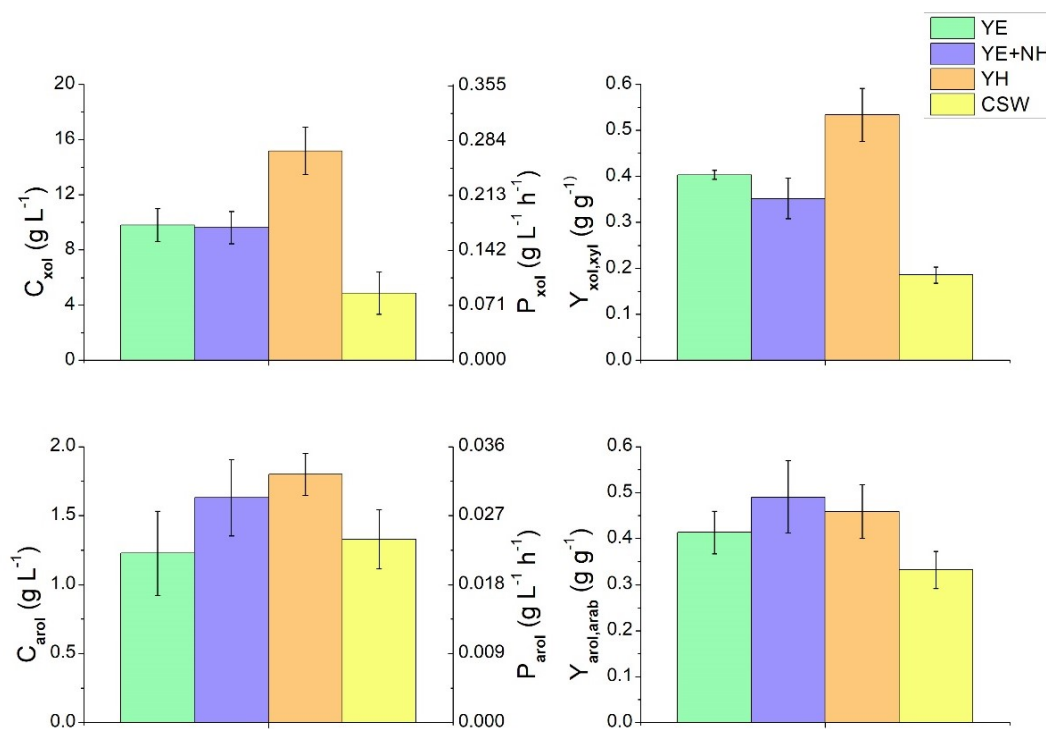


Fig. 2. Xylitol and arabinol production from different nitrogen sources (0.8 g L⁻¹ total nitrogen) after 56 h of fermentation (35 °C, 200 rpm) by *C. tropicalis* in media containing diluted sugarcane bagasse hemicellulose hydrolysate (30 g L⁻¹ xylose) as carbon source. YE, yeast extract; YE + NH, yeast extract + ammonium sulfate (80:20); YH, yeast hydrolysate; CSW, corn steep water; xol, xylitol; xyl, xylose; arol, arabinol; arab, arabinose; C, concentration; Y, yield; P, productivity

YE and YE + (NH₄)₂SO₄ assays did not differ statistically ($p > 0.05$) in any parameter, revealing that partial replacement of yeast extract with ammonium sulfate (inorganic nitrogen source) did not significantly affect conversion factors or substrate consumption. Arabinol concentration, yield, and productivity were not significantly influenced by nitrogen source. Therefore, any of the four evaluated nitrogen sources can be used under the appropriate fermentation conditions.

Xylitol production, on the other hand, was influenced by nitrogen source. The use of CSW as the sole nitrogen source, although providing cost benefits because of the material's low cost, was the least attractive in terms of production, affording the lowest xylitol yield and productivity. The final xylitol concentration was 50% lower than that of the control (YE). YH provided the highest xylitol concentration, productivity, and yield ($C_{xol} = 15.17 \pm 1.73$ g L⁻¹, $P_{xol} = 0.27 \pm 0.03$ g L⁻¹ h⁻¹, $Y_{xol,xyl} = 0.53 \pm 0.06$ g g⁻¹), being about 1.4 times

higher than the values obtained with the control nitrogen source (YE). Furthermore, xylitol productivity and yield were 2.8 and 2.4 times higher, respectively, than that obtained with CSW. In this context, YH was used as the main nitrogen source in subsequent experiments.

These findings support that not only total concentration but also nitrogen source is relevant in the production of sugar alcohols by yeasts. Nitrogen assimilation can be facilitated or hindered depending on the nitrogen source. Some microorganisms have preferences for inorganic sources, others for organic sources, such as *C. tropicalis* (Morais Junior et al. 2019). Regarding organic sources, their assimilation is made possible at the cellular level from molecules of low molecular weight, such as amino acids. The amino acid profile can affect the growth of the microorganism and, if the medium contains peptides and soluble proteins, proteases must first be released to promote hydrolysis and subsequent assimilation (Hofer et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2019). In the studied context, CSW may present a higher fraction of nitrogen in molecules of higher molecular weight, including lipopeptides and phospholipids (Rodríguez-Lopez et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2022), therefore, the growth of microorganisms may be hindered using it as the only nitrogenous source when compared to the other evaluated sources.

It was possible to achieve xylitol concentrations, yields, and productivities in SBHH medium that were statistically equivalent to those obtained in synthetic medium containing 30 g L⁻¹ xylose. Arabitol concentration and productivity in SBHH medium containing YH ($C_{arol} = 1.80 \pm 0.15$ g L⁻¹, $P_{arol} = 0.032 \pm 0.003$ g L⁻¹ h⁻¹) were lower than those obtained in synthetic medium. This result was expected given that the initial arabinose concentration in diluted SBHH was four times lower than the initial concentration in synthetic medium. Nevertheless, arabitol yield did not differ between complex ($Y_{arol, arab} = 0.46 \pm 0.02$ g g⁻¹) and synthetic media. These results demonstrate the good adaptability of the microorganism to the complex medium, which has SBHH as carbon source. Similar results of polyalcohol production from pentoses were obtained in media with synthetic carbon source.

3.4. Fermentations using increasing SBHH concentrations

An increase in the initial concentration of the carbon source resulted in a longer time to reach maximum productivity (Fig. 3) (Table S3, Supplementary material). The yeast requires more time to convert a greater mass of substrates. In medium containing more than 45 g L⁻¹ xylose, the biomass yield remained below 0.10, without significant differences between runs. Biomass yield was highest ($Y_{x,s} = 0.21 \pm 0.07$ g g⁻¹) at the lowest initial SBHH concentration (30 g L⁻¹ xylose). This result possibly occurred because of the increased substrate consumption ($\epsilon_{xyl} = 100.0\%$, $\epsilon_{arab} = 82.2\% \pm 5.9\%$), which might be associated with the reduced concentration of inhibitory compounds, such as acetic acid and phenolics (Soares et al., 2022).

Arabitol concentration and yield did not differ according to initial SBHH concentration. Productivity, however, decreased with increasing initial SBHH concentrations, attributed to the increase in time needed to convert the same amount of arabitol. Arabinose consumption was less than 50% at the highest substrate concentration, although it can be expected to increase with time, increasing arabitol formation.

With the increase in initial SBHH concentration from 30 to 75 g L⁻¹ xylose, xylitol concentration and productivity increased, but yield was not significantly influenced. Xylitol productivity was lower at 85 g L⁻¹ xylose compared with 75 g L⁻¹ xylose, given the increase in the time needed for substrate conversion. This factor further confirms the possibility that compounds derived from SBHH inhibit fermentation and that such effects are potentiated at higher initial SBHH concentrations.

Moreover, different studies report substrate inhibition in xylitol production (Winkelhausen et al., 1998; Bedo et al., 2021). Regarding *C. tropicalis*, a study in synthetic medium with initial xylose concentration between 15 and 300 g L⁻¹ found substrate inhibition in both cell growth and xylitol formation. Optimal concentrations were obtained between 60 and 80 g/L of xylose, similar to our study. It was also observed that, beyond this range, a greater proportion of the

substrate was directed towards cellular respiration and ATP formation, balancing the high osmotic pressure associated with higher substrate concentration (Tamburini et al., 2015)

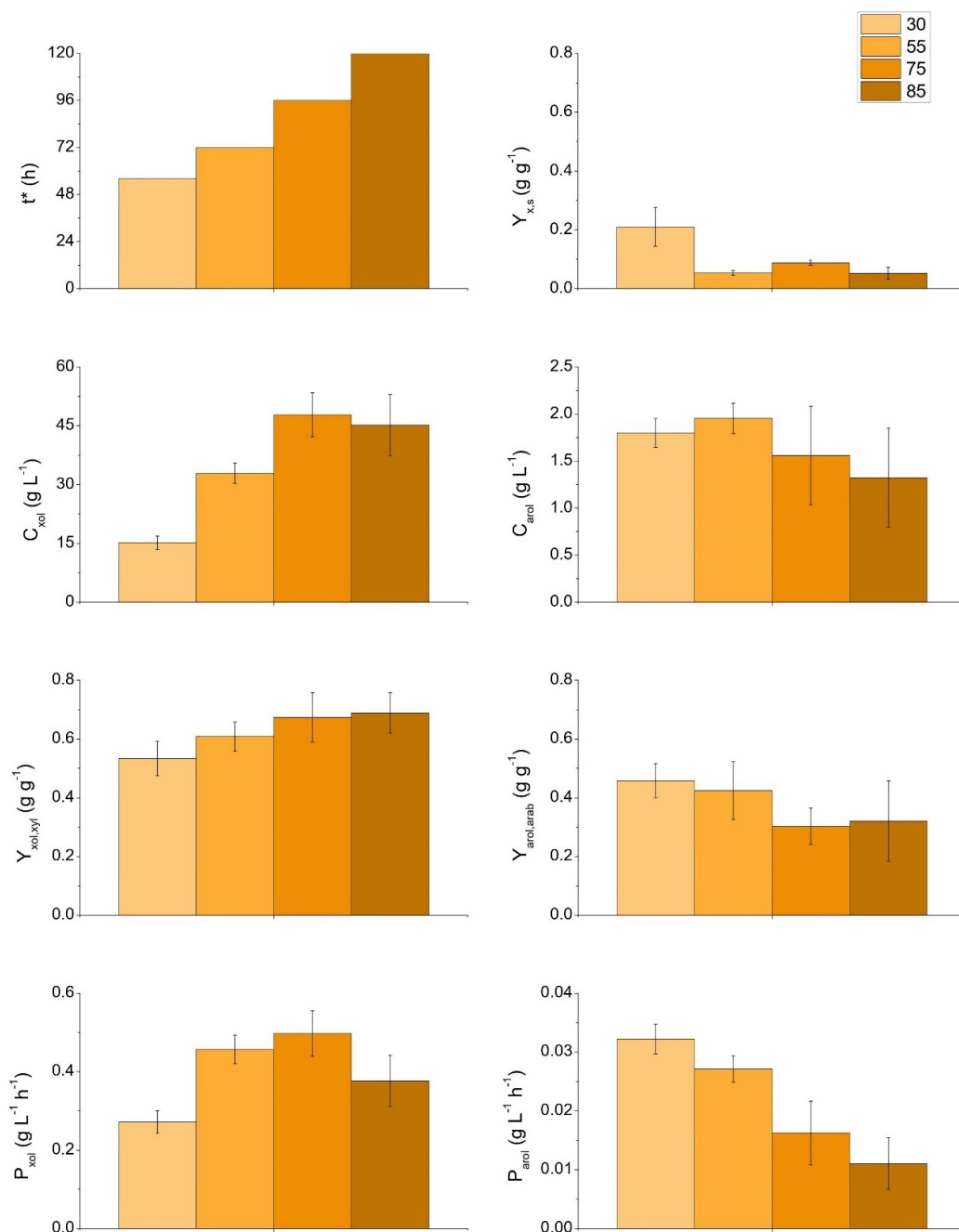


Fig. 3. Xylitol and arabitol production by *C. tropicalis* from fermentations (35 °C, 200 rpm) in media containing different initial concentrations of sugarcane bagasse hemicellulose hydrolysate (30, 55, 75, or 85 g L⁻¹ xylose) at the time of maximum productivity (t^*). xol, xylitol; xyl, xylose; arol, arabitol; arab, arabinose; x, biomass; s, total sugars (glucose, xylose, and arabinose); C, concentration; Y, yield; P, productivity

Table S3. Parameters of xylitol and arabitol production by *C. tropicalis* in fermentations (35 °C, 200 rpm) with different concentrations of sugarcane bagasse hemicellulosic hydrolysate as carbon source.

Initial C _{xyl} (g L ⁻¹)	t*	C _{xol} (g L ⁻¹)	C _{arol} (g L ⁻¹)	Y _{xol,xyl} (g g ⁻¹)	Y _{arol,arab} (g g ⁻¹)	P _{xol} (g L ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)	P _{arol} (g L ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)	Y _{x,s} (g g ⁻¹)	ε _{xyl} (%)	ε _{arab} (%)
30	56	15.17 ± 1.73a	1.80 ± 0.15a	0.53 ± 0.06a	0.46 ± 0.06a	0.27 ± 0.03a	0.03 ± 0.01a	0.21 ± 0.07a	100.0 ± 0.1a	82.2 ± 5.9a
55	72	32.92 ± 2.61b	1.95 ± 0.16a	0.61 ± 0.05a	0.42 ± 0.10a	0.46 ± 0.04bc	0.03 ± 0.01a	0.05 ± 0.01b	96.6 ± 0.9a	49.7 ± 6.8b
75	96	47.79 ± 5.59c	1.56 ± 0.52a	0.67 ± 0.08a	0.30 ± 0.06a	0.50 ± 0.06c	0.02 ± 0.01b	0.09 ± 0.01b	93.1 ± 4.9a	42.6 ± 13.2b
85	120	45.18 ± 7.84bc	1.32 ± 0.53a	0.69 ± 0.07a	0.32 ± 0.14a	0.38 ± 0.06ab	0.01 ± 0.01b	0.05 ± 0.02b	77.6 ± 19.4a	36.0 ± 18.1b

Different letters in the same column indicate a statistically significant difference by the Tukey Test at the 5% level.

arab – arabinose; arol – arabitol; s – total sugars (glucose, xylose and arabinose); t* – time of maximum productivity; xol – xylitol; xyl – xylose; x – biomass; P – productivity; Y – yield; ε – substrate conversion; C - concentration

In view of the greater effect of xylitol concentration on combined productivity ($P_{\text{xol}} + P_{\text{arol}}$), we chose to use an initial SBHH concentration of 70–80 g L⁻¹ xylose in subsequent experiments. It should be noted that these changes to substrate concentration led to 3.1 and 1.8 times increase in xylitol concentration and productivity ($C_{\text{xol}} = 47.79 \pm 5.59$ g L⁻¹, $P_{\text{xol}} = 0.50 \pm 0.06$ g L⁻¹ h⁻¹) compared to the less concentrated media (xylose 30 g L⁻¹).

After definition of the initial SBHH concentration, the influence of baffles, if present, and, consequently, of a higher oxygen transfer rate, was tested in baffled flasks. Biomass yield was higher in baffled flasks ($Y_{\text{x,s}} = 0.34 \pm 0.07$ g g⁻¹), being up to 6.8 times higher than under the other conditions.

It should be noted that pentose metabolism by *C. tropicalis* is closely associated with medium oxygenation. As highlighted earlier, xylitol and L-arabitol produced by the initial assimilation of pentoses are converted to D-xylulose or L-xylulose by dehydrogenase enzymes, following the yeast metabolic pathway. These dehydrogenase enzymes require the cofactor NAD⁺, which is consumed and converted to NADH. Under conditions of high oxygenation, the generated NADH is constantly regenerated to NAD⁺ in the respiratory chain, favoring the enzymatic reaction for the consumption of polyalcohols. In oxygen limitation, the regeneration of NADH to NAD⁺ is impaired, generating an imbalance of NAD⁺/NADH. This imbalance means that, despite being produced, xylitol and arabitol are not preferentially consumed by the following metabolic stages. So, the higher the oxygenation, the greater the utilization of xylose and arabinose for cellular metabolism and growth. On the other hand, under low oxygen conditions, there is a reduction in the activity of enzymes that metabolize the sugar alcohols, consequently, xylitol and arabitol are produced but only partially metabolized, leading to their accumulation (Farias et al., 2022).

Therefore, high biomass growth and low polyalcohol accumulation are expected in baffled flasks. This hypothesis was confirmed by the reduction in xylitol concentration ($C_{\text{xol}} = 23.00 \pm 0.45$ g L⁻¹), yield ($Y_{\text{xol,xyl}} = 0.32 \pm 0.45$ g g⁻¹), and productivity ($P_{\text{xol}} = 0.32 \pm 0.01$ g L⁻¹ h⁻¹) in baffled flasks compared with

normal flasks under the same conditions. By contrast, arabitol concentration ($C_{\text{arol}} = 2.66 \pm 0.07 \text{ g L}^{-1}$) and yield ($Y_{\text{arol, arab}} = 0.62 \pm 0.04 \text{ g g}^{-1}$) were higher in baffled runs. These findings may be due to the greater use of glucose and xylose for biomass production and cellular metabolism, with greater regeneration of NADPH, necessary for the conversion of arabinose to arabitol (Farias et al., 2022). Possibly, given enough time, the arabitol formed would also be consumed for biomass and metabolism. Considering the effects of process parameters on the combined production of xylitol and arabitol and the higher concentration of xylitol in the medium, it was decided to use baffle-free flasks in subsequent assays.

3.5. Plackett–Burman experimental design

The influence of the factors initial nitrogen concentration (from 0.8 to 3.6 g L^{-1}) (x_1), initial KH_2PO_4 concentration (from 0.4 to 5 g L^{-1}) (x_2), initial MgSO_4 concentration (from 0.1 to 0.5 g L^{-1}) (x_3), temperature (from 28 to 36°C) (x_4), initial pH (from 6 to 7) (x_5), and CSW percentage in the nitrogen source (from 0 to 20 %) (x_6) in the fermentation process of *C. tropicalis* aiming to produce xylitol and arabitol was studied using Design of Experiments (DOE) with Plackett-Burman (PB12) experimental design. It is worth clarifying that, even though CSW did not provide the best results as a nitrogen source, it was included in the experimental design because of its low cost and environmental friendliness. The results of tests carried out according to the DOE PB12 are described in Tables 2 and 3 and Table S4 (Supplementary material). A reaction time of 96 h was adopted, because this period corresponded to the highest combined productivity for medium containing an initial xylose concentration of 75 g L^{-1} (as described in Section 3.4). Due to this, the effects related to "concentration" and "productivity" responses are similar, therefore, only the effects related to productivity are presented

Center point runs (runs 13–16, Table 2) compared with the other runs, afforded the highest concentrations, yields, and productivities for xylitol parameters and intermediate values for arabitol. Runs 11 and 12, which had high nitrogen source concentrations and lacked or not 40% CSW, respectively,

afforded the highest arabitol concentrations (Table 2). Furthermore, xylitol concentration and productivity of runs 11 and 12 were close to those of center point runs, with higher xylose and arabinose conversions.

Runs carried out at pH (6.0) and nitrogen (0.8 g L^{-1}) levels provided the least promising results for combined production of sugar alcohols (runs 5, 6, and 10). In runs 6 and 10, there was no substrate consumption or significant product or biomass formation. These tests, in addition to having low nitrogen concentration and pH, were carried out at high temperatures ($36 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$). These combined factors might have potentiated the action of inhibitors, derived from SBHH, particularly acetic acid, which remained even after detoxification.

It is noteworthy that acetic acid is a weak acid (pK_a 4.756 at $25 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) and lower pH favors the balance to keep it in the undissociated form. In this chemical form, acetic acid, like other organic acids, is more permeable to the cell membrane and, when in contact with the cytoplasm with a pH generally closer to neutrality, it dissociates, reducing the intracellular pH (Palmqvist and Hahn-Hägerdal, 2000; Chaves et al., 2021). The presence of intracellular acetic acid mainly affects the conformation of protein structures. This can structurally and functionally alter cytoplasmic organelles and cause a reduction in the activity of enzymes, such as xylose reductase, which converts xylose to xylitol and is inhibited at relatively low concentrations of acetic acid (5.4 g L^{-1}) (Rafiqul et al., 2015; Morais Júnior et al., 2019; Chaves et al., 2021). Moreover, increasing the temperature may favor the effect of acetic acid, even at low concentrations. An increase of 30 to $40 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ reduces the acidity constant (K_a) of this acid (Paabo et al., 1965), favoring its undissociated form and entry into cells. The combination of acetic acid in concentrations below 4.8 g L^{-1} with higher temperatures ($37\text{-}40 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) can also cause the fragmentation of mitochondrial membranes, affecting cellular respiration and resulting in the so-called high enthalpy cell death (Chaves et al., 2021).

Table 2. Plackett–Burman experimental design for assessing the effects of medium composition and process variables on xylitol and arabitol production from sugarcane bagasse hemicellulose hydrolysate (75 g L⁻¹ initial xylose) fermentation (96 h, 200 rpm) by *Candida tropicalis*.

Run	N (g L ⁻¹) (x ₁)	KH ₂ PO ₄ (g L ⁻¹) (x ₂)	MgSO ₄ (g L ⁻¹) (x ₃)	T (°C) (x ₄)	pH (x ₅)	CSW (%) (x ₆)	C _{xol} (g L ⁻¹)	C _{arol} (g L ⁻¹)	Y _{xol,xyl} (g g ⁻¹)	Y _{arol,arab} (g g ⁻¹)	P _{xol} (g L ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)	P _{arol} (g L ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)	ε _{xyl} (%)	ε _{arab} (%)	Y _{x,s} (g g ⁻¹)
1	0.8 (-1)	5 (1)	0.1 (-1)	36 (1)	7 (1)	40 (1)	43.810	1.540	0.611	0.156	0.456	0.016	97.2	58.5	0.074
2	0.8 (-1)	0.4 (-1)	0.5 (1)	28 (-1)	7 (1)	40 (1)	12.258	2.442	0.300	0.323	0.128	0.025	56.7	45.7	0.286
3	3.6 (1)	0.4 (-1)	0.1 (-1)	36 (1)	6 (-1)	40 (1)	42.520	1.900	0.575	0.249	0.443	0.020	94.2	51.6	0.055
4	0.8 (-1)	5 (1)	0.1 (-1)	28 (-1)	7 (1)	0 (-1)	24.612	0.576	0.410	0.061	0.256	0.006	74.4	54.2	0.145
5	0.8 (-1)	0.4 (-1)	0.5 (1)	28 (-1)	6 (-1)	40 (1)	11.860	0.900	0.371	0.217	0.124	0.009	40.0	36.0	0.192
6	0.8 (-1)	0.4 (-1)	0.1 (-1)	36 (1)	6 (-1)	0 (-1)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.0	0.000
7	3.6 (1)	0.4 (-1)	0.1 (-1)	28 (-1)	7 (1)	0 (-1)	45.246	2.088	0.670	0.234	0.471	0.022	88.7	51.0	0.151
8	3.6 (1)	5 (1)	0.1 (-1)	28 (-1)	6 (-1)	40 (1)	21.420	1.970	0.665	0.392	0.223	0.021	38.8	30.6	0.131
9	3.6 (1)	5 (1)	0.5 (1)	28 (-1)	6 (-1)	0 (-1)	41.940	2.440	0.573	0.306	0.437	0.025	87.6	48.4	0.110
10	0.8 (-1)	5 (1)	0.5 (1)	36 (1)	6 (-1)	0 (-1)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.0	0.000
11	3.6 (1)	0.4 (-1)	0.5 (1)	36 (1)	7 (1)	0 (-1)	46.660	3.750	0.626	0.301	0.486	0.039	100.0	73.4	0.072
12	3.6 (1)	5 (1)	0.5 (1)	36 (1)	7 (1)	40 (1)	43.280	3.240	0.591	0.274	0.451	0.034	97.5	70.1	0.088
13	2.2 (0)	2.7 (0)	0.3 (0)	32 (0)	6.5 (0)	20 (0)	50.960	1.620	0.759	0.182	0.531	0.017	84.5	54.7	0.071
14	2.2 (0)	2.7 (0)	0.3 (0)	32 (0)	6.5 (0)	20 (0)	53.000	2.200	0.736	0.234	0.552	0.023	90.3	57.2	0.081
15	2.2 (0)	2.7 (0)	0.3 (0)	32 (0)	6.5 (0)	20 (0)	44.090	1.970	0.702	0.182	0.459	0.021	86.1	64.1	0.097
16	2.2 (0)	2.7 (0)	0.3 (0)	32 (0)	6.5 (0)	20 (0)	48.040	1.960	0.726	0.223	0.500	0.020	88.4	53.8	0.057

N, added nitrogen concentration; T, temperature; CSW, corn steep water percentage in the nitrogen source; xol, xylitol; xyl, xylose; arol, arabitol; arab, arabinose; x, biomass; s, total sugars (glucose, xylose, and arabinose); C, concentration; Y, yield; P, productivity; ε, substrate conversion. Theoretical Y_{xol,xyl} = 0.917 g g⁻¹ and Y_{arol,arab} = 1.01 g g⁻¹.

Tabela S4. Statistical parameters per response from the Plackett-Burman experimental design for the study of medium composition and process variables on xylitol and arabitol production from sugarcane bagasse hemicellulose hydrolysate (75 g L⁻¹ initial xylose) fermentation (96 h, 200 rpm) by *Candida tropicalis*.

Response	Variables	Effect	Standard error	calculated t	p-value
P_{xol}	Mean	0.290	0.033	8.817	< 0.001
	Curvature	0.442	0.131	3.363	0.010
	Nitrogen source (x ₁)	0.258	0.066	3.925	0.004
	KH ₂ PO ₄ (x ₂)	0.029	0.066	0.434	0.676
	MgSO ₄ (x ₃)	-0.037	0.066	-0.566	0.587
	Temperature (x ₄)	0.033	0.066	0.500	0.631
	Initial pH (x ₅)	0.170	0.066	2.591	0.032
	CSW (x ₆)	0.029	0.066	0.444	0.669
Y_{xol,xyl}	Mean	0.449	0.033	13.725	< 0.001
	Curvature	0.563	0.131	4.298	0.003
	Nitrogen source (x ₁)	0.335	0.065	5.111	0.001
	KH ₂ PO ₄ (x ₂)	0.051	0.065	0.784	0.456
	MgSO ₄ (x ₃)	-0.078	0.065	-1.196	0.266
	Temperature (x ₄)	-0.098	0.065	-1.492	0.174
	Initial pH (x ₅)	0.171	0.065	2.607	0.031
	CSW (x ₆)	0.139	0.065	2.123	0.067
ε_{xyl}	Mean	64.592	6.908	9.350	< 0.001
	Curvature	45.467	27.634	1.645	0.139
	Nitrogen source (x ₁)	39.750	13.817	2.877	0.021
	KH ₂ PO ₄ (x ₂)	2.650	13.817	0.192	0.853
	MgSO ₄ (x ₃)	-1.917	13.817	-0.139	0.893
	Temperature (x ₄)	0.450	13.817	0.033	0.975
	Initial pH (x ₅)	42.317	13.817	3.063	0.016
	CSW (x ₆)	12.283	13.817	0.889	0.400
Y_{arol,arab}	Mean	0.209	0.015	14.080	< 0.001
	Curvature	-0.008	0.059	-0.140	0.892
	Nitrogen source (x ₁)	0.166	0.030	5.597	0.001
	KH ₂ PO ₄ (x ₂)	-0.023	0.030	-0.756	0.471
	MgSO ₄ (x ₃)	0.055	0.030	1.843	0.103
	Temperature (x ₄)	-0.092	0.030	-3.098	0.015
	Initial pH (x ₅)	0.031	0.030	1.037	0.330
	CSW (x ₆)	0.118	0.030	3.973	0.004
P_{arol}	Mean	0.018	0.001	15.092	< 0.001
	Curvature	0.004	0.005	0.904	0.392
	Nitrogen source (x ₁)	0.017	0.002	7.302	< 0.001
	KH ₂ PO ₄ (x ₂)	-0.002	0.002	-0.904	0.392
	MgSO ₄ (x ₃)	0.008	0.002	3.269	0.011
	Temperature (x ₄)	< 0.001	0.002	0.070	0.946
	Initial pH (x ₅)	0.011	0.002	4.660	0.002
	CSW (x ₆)	0.006	0.002	2.295	0.051

Tabela S4. (continued).

Response	Variables	Effect	Standard error	calculated t	p-value
ϵ_{arab}	Mean	-0.468	-0.027	-17.135	< 0.001
	Curvature	-0.212	-0.109	-1.942	0.088
	Nitrogen source	0.147	-0.055	2.683	0.028
	KH_2PO_4 (x_2)	-0.002	-0.055	-0.038	0.971
	MgSO_4 (x_3)	0.037	-0.055	0.679	0.516
	Temperature (x_4)	0.051	-0.055	0.927	0.381
	Initial pH (x_5)	0.239	-0.055	4.377	0.002
	CSW (x_6)	0.038	-0.055	0.694	0.507
$Y_{x,s}$	Mean	0.109	0.005	23.849	< 0.001
	Curvature	-0.064	0.018	-3.530	0.008
	Nitrogen source	-0.015	0.009	-1.646	0.138
	KH_2PO_4 (x_2)	-0.035	0.009	-3.804	0.005
	MgSO_4 (x_3)	0.032	0.009	3.512	0.008
	Temperature (x_4)	-0.121	0.009	-13.278	< 0.001
	Initial pH (x_5)	0.055	0.009	5.999	< 0.001
	CSW (x_6)	0.058	0.009	6.365	< 0.001

arab – arabinose; arol – arabitol; CSW – corn steep water; P – productivity; s – total sugars (glucose, xylose and arabinose); xol – xylitol; xyl – xylose; x – biomass; Y – yield; ϵ – substrate conversion.

In assessing the effects of process parameters on production variables (Table 3), in the range studied and considering 90 % of significance ($p < 0.10$), it was found that the results of previous assays were confirmed: nitrogen source concentration (x_1) had a positive effect on all parameters except $Y_{x,s}$ and the most significant effect was exerted on sugar alcohol yield and productivity. It was observed that the curvature had a significant effect on most of the evaluated responses, showing that inflection points (maximum or minimum) are included between the lower and upper levels studied (Rodrigues and Iemma, 2014), indicating, in this case, adequate ranges for the study. As demonstrated by the significant positive effect of the curvature, center point runs provided superior results of xylitol production.

Xylitol variables were not significantly influenced by factors x_2 , x_3 or x_4 . In other words, added salt concentration and process temperature did not significantly influence xylitol yield, xylitol productivity, or xylose consumption. All variables, except for x_2 , significantly influenced at least one of the arabitol parameters ($Y_{\text{arol, arab}}$, P_{arol} , and ϵ_{arab}). Based on these effects, it can be inferred that the insertion of CSW in the nitrogen source can be beneficial for the

production of both sugar alcohols; the variation in KH_2PO_4 concentration did not have significant effects; the high temperature can negatively affect the production of arabitol and the central point presented the best results for the production of xylitol.

Table 3. Summary of the standardized effects (calculated t) of medium composition and process variables on xylitol and arabitol production from sugarcane bagasse hemicellulose hydrolysate (75 g L^{-1} initial xylose) fermentation (96 h, 200 rpm) by *C. tropicalis*.

Variable	P_{xol}	$Y_{xol,xyl}$	ϵ_{xyl}	P_{arol}	$Y_{arol,arab}$	ϵ_{arab}	$Y_{x,s}$
N (x_1)	+	++	+	+++	+	+	
KH_2PO_4 (x_2)							-
MgSO_4 (x_3)				+			+
T (x_4)					-		----
pH (x_5)	+	+	+	++		++	+
CSW (x_6)		+		+	+		+
Curvature	+	++				-	-

N, added nitrogen concentration; T, temperature; CSW, corn steep water percentage in the nitrogen source; xol, xylitol; xyl, xylose; arol, arabitol; arab, arabinose; x, biomass; s, total sugars (glucose, xylose, and arabinose); Y, yield; P, productivity; ϵ , substrate conversion.

Statistical significance was set at $p < 0.10$. Significant effects are indicated in green (positive) or red (negative). Gray cells represent non-significant effects.

Biomass yield was negatively affected by factors. The main factor positively influencing sugar alcohol production, x_1 , had no significant effect on biomass yield. Center point conditions did not favor biomass yield. These results confirm the expectation that the higher the value of $Y_{x,s}$, the greater the amount of polyalcohols consumed and directed toward metabolic pathways of cell growth (Hernández-Pérez et al. 2019).

This experiment provided a similar xylitol concentration and productivity to the initial SBHH concentration experiment (Section 3.4) as well as higher xylose conversion (up to 7.4% higher), arabitol concentration and productivity (up to 2.4 times higher), and arabinose consumption (up to 72.3% higher).

3.6. Validation and extrapolation of Plackett–Burman results

Fermentation conditions and medium compositions for validation of Plackett–Burman design experiments are presented in Table 4 and Table 5 presents its results. Center point runs conducted with different SBHH batches (CP-a and CP-b) did not differ significantly in arabitol variables or xylitol concentration and

productivity. There were, however, differences in xylitol yield and xylose consumption. Such differences between batches can be attributed to differences in substrate composition regarding micronutrients, organic acids, and phenolic compounds. These factors may affect yeast metabolism.

We found no significant differences between experiments carried out using the same SBHH batch (CP-b, V-I, V-II, V-III, and V-IV), demonstrating that any of the culture media conditions can be applied for sugar alcohol production.

The V-I run was conducted under the same conditions as that of the center point of the Plackett–Burman design but without addition of KH_2PO_4 or MgSO_4 salts. These salts are commonly added to culture media for xylitol production from hemicellulosic hydrolysates (Kordowska-Wiater et al. 2017; Morais Junior et al. 2019). CSW is known to contain different minerals, such as phosphorus, magnesium, calcium, zinc, manganese, and aluminum, with phosphorus being one of the major minerals (Selim et al. 2021). These minerals, together with mineral components already present in YH, might have contributed to meeting the micronutrient demands of yeast, precluding the need for potassium and magnesium salt addition for bioprocess optimization.

Table 4. Fermentations carried out to explore different processing conditions based on the results of the Plackett–Burman experimental design.

Run	N (g L ⁻¹)	KH ₂ PO ₄ (g L ⁻¹)	MgSO ₄ (g L ⁻¹)	T (°C)	pH	CSW (%)
CP	2.2 (0)	2.7 (0)	0.3 (0)	32 (0)	6.5 (0)	20 (0)
V-I	2.2 (0)	0 (-)	0 (-)	32 (0)	6.5 (0)	20 (0)
V-II	3.6 (+1)	0.4 (-1)	0.5 (+1)	32 (0)	7 (+1)	40 (+1)
V-III	5 (+2)	0.4 (-1)	0.5 (+1)	32 (0)	7 (+1)	40 (+1)
V-IV	3.6 (+1)	0 (-)	0.5 (+1)	32 (0)	7 (+1)	20 (0)

N, added nitrogen concentration, T, temperature; CSW, corn steep water percentage in the nitrogen source; CP, center point.

The center point run was performed using batches A and B of sugarcane bagasse hemicellulosic hydrolysate. Coded values of the Plackett–Burman experimental design are indicated in parentheses. Level +2 represents a higher concentration than that used in the original experiment. A hyphen (-) indicates absence of the nutrient in the culture medium.

Table 5. Validation and exploration of Plackett–Burman experimental results for assessing the effects of medium composition and process variables on xylitol and arabitol production from sugarcane bagasse hemicellulose hydrolysate fermentation (96 h, 200 rpm) by *C. tropicalis*.

Run	C_{xol} (g L ⁻¹)	C_{arol} (g L ⁻¹)	$Y_{xol,xyl}$ (g g ⁻¹)	$Y_{arol,arab}$ (g g ⁻¹)	P_{xol} (g L ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)	P_{arol} (g L ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)	$Y_{x,s}$ (g g ⁻¹)	ε_{xyl} (%)	ε_{arab} (%)
CP (batch A)	49.02 ± 3.87a	1.94 ± 0.24a	0.73 ± 0.02a	0.21 ± 0.03b	0.51 ± 0.04 ^a	0.020 ± 0.002a	0.07 ± 0.01b	87.3 ± 2.5b	57.5 ± 4.7a
CP (batch B)	38.70 ± 4.34ab	2.11 ± 0.79a	0.56 ± 0.07b	0.27 ± 0.09ab	0.40 ± 0.05ab	0.022 ± 0.008a	0.15 ± 0.04 ^a	100.0 ± 0.00a	65.7 ± 9.0a
V-I	39.09 ± 4.90ab	2.61 ± 0.14a	0.55 ± 0.09b	0.40 ± 0.10a	0.41 ± 0.05ab	0.027 ± 0.001a	0.13 ± 0.04ab	100.0 ± 0.00a	67.8 ± 15.1a
V-II	37.38 ± 0.58b	2.57 ± 0.43a	0.52 ± 0.01b	0.26 ± 0.03ab	0.39 ± 0.01b	0.027 ± 0.004a	0.16 ± 0.03 ^a	100.0 ± 0.00a	68.2 ± 2.0a
V-III	34.75 ± 5.81b	2.96 ± 0.25a	0.45 ± 0.07b	0.33 ± 0.02ab	0.36 ± 0.06b	0.031 ± 0.003a	0.11 ± 0.01ab	100.0 ± 0.00a	68.1 ± 4.7a
V-IV	43.56 ± 3.29ab	2.39 ± 0.86a	0.61 ± 0.06b	0.22 ± 0.05b	0.45 ± 0.03ab	0.025 ± 0.009a	0.06 ± 0.01b	100.0 ± 0.00a	71.1 ± 13.6a

N, added nitrogen concentration; T, temperature; CSW, corn steep water percentage in the nitrogen source; xol, xylitol; xyl, xylose; arol, arabitol; arab, arabinose; x, biomass; s, total sugars (glucose, xylose, and arabinose); C, concentration; Y, yield; P, productivity; ε , substrate conversion; CP, center point.

Different letters in the same column indicate significant differences at $p < 0.05$ by Tukey's test

Runs V-II and V-III, as compared with V-I, despite having higher CSW addition (40%), had higher total nitrogen concentration. In V-IV, the percentage addition of CSW was 20%, but there was also an increase in total nitrogen concentration. In these runs, therefore, it was necessary to add more YH to the medium, increasing process costs. Given the statistical equivalence of these runs with CP-b, it can be said that the increase in total nitrogen concentration at the evaluated levels did not contribute significantly to production parameters. Furthermore, runs V-II, V-III, and V-IV were performed at pH 7, indicated as positive for arabitol production. However, as the results did not differ from those of run VI, pH was found not to influence arabitol production parameters.

The medium conditions used in run V-I (2.2 g L⁻¹ of nitrogen with 20 % of CSW, 32 °C, initial pH 6.5 and no MgSO₄ or KH₂PO₄) were selected for the subsequent experiment. This run combines the most economical and environmentally friendly conditions, namely non-addition of salts, low YH concentration (16 g L⁻¹), and addition of CSW to the medium (20% total nitrogen, 39.3 g L⁻¹). It is noteworthy that, in a cost estimate based on the Brazilian market, this improved medium is equivalent to US\$ 0.35 L⁻¹, almost 10 times less than a standard medium with MgSO₄, KH₂PO₄ and YE as the only nitrogen source, which would cost US\$ 3.58 L⁻¹.

A further test was conducted using crude SBHH under center point conditions. In this assay, substrate consumption or product formation did not occur, demonstrating the need for hydrolysate detoxification for successful fermentation by *C. tropicalis*. The high concentrations of inhibitory compounds in crude SBHH inhibited microbial growth.

3.7. Bioreactor fermentations

Fermentation was conducted in a 2 L bioreactor with 1 L working volume using medium composition defined in the previous experiment, namely SBHH detoxified with about 75 g L⁻¹ xylose and 2.2 g L⁻¹ total nitrogen (80% YH and 20% CSW). The kinetic behaviors are depicted in Fig. 4.

Glucose was completely consumed in 12 h of fermentation, leading to the formation of ethanol and biomass. During this period, xylose and arabinose

concentrations also declined. Preferential glucose consumption at the beginning is important for biomass growth and generation of NADPH, a coenzyme regenerated from the pentose phosphate pathway that will act in the synthesis of xylitol and arabitol with aldose reductase enzymes (Yuan et al., 2021; Farias et al., 2022). Studies with *C. tropicalis* report that there is Carbon Catabolite Repression (CCR) by glucose, so glucose in the medium reduces the metabolism of pentoses due to repression of gene regulation and decreased activity of pentose reductase enzymes (Oktaviani et al., 2021; Chattopadhyay et al., 2020). This repression can occur with glucose, xylose, and arabinose because they share common sugar transport systems in the cell and glucose is more effective for cellular energy generation (Fonseca et al., 2007; Oktaviani et al., 2021). Despite this, during these first 12 h period, xylose and arabinose concentrations slightly declined.

After 24 h, xylose continued to be consumed by microorganisms, affording xylitol, but arabinose concentration remained practically constant, with low arabitol formation. Therefore, there was CCR in the metabolism of arabinose due to the presence of xylose, a prioritized pentose that is assimilated in fewer steps in the metabolic pathway compared to arabinose (Farias et al., 2022). Similar xylose repression behavior was identified by Oktaviani group (2021) evaluating xylitol production by *C. tropicalis*.

From 156 h onward, with xylose tending toward depletion, the rate of xylitol formation decreased and arabinose consumption increased, leading to arabitol formation. At this time, there was greater biomass growth, possibly due to the occurrence of arabinose consumption concomitantly with sugar alcohol formation for metabolism and cell growth.

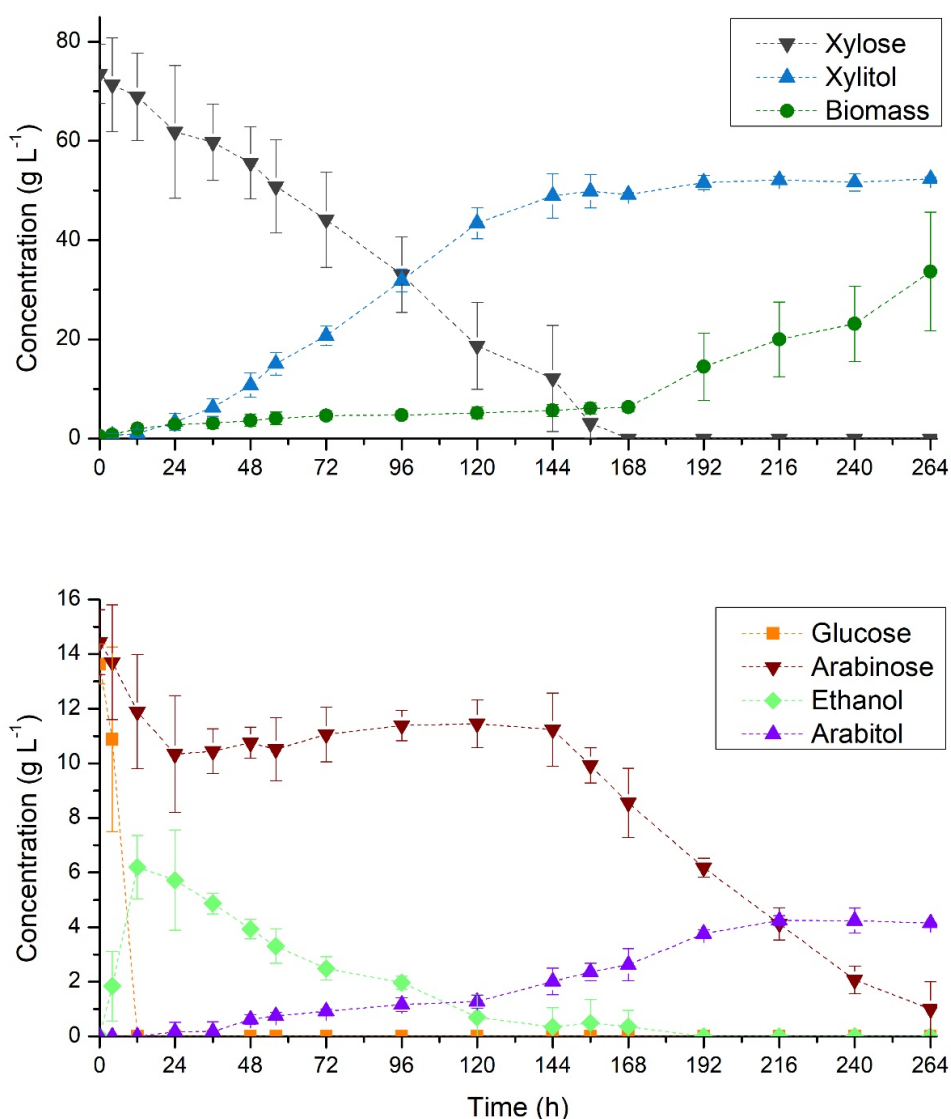


Fig. 4. *C. tropicalis* fermentation (0.7 L min⁻¹, 250 rpm) in a bioreactor using diluted hemicellulosic hydrolysate as carbon source (75 g L⁻¹ initial xylose).

Glucose depletion in the first hours of the reaction and subsequent prioritization of xylose consumption have also been reported in previous studies using different yeasts for xylitol production in hemicellulosic hydrolysate (Antunes et al. 2021; Narisetty et al. 2021), highlighting the possibility of optimizing the process in two stages: consumption of glucose for cell growth and consumption of pentoses for the production of sugar alcohols. This is the first identified report of arabinose consumption and arabitol formation in hemicellulosic hydrolysates with high initial concentrations of glucose, xylose, and arabinose.

It was possible to observe that, in experiments carried out in the bioreactor, a longer time was required to obtain greater substrate conversion and xylitol and arabitol formation than in experiments carried out in shaker flasks. Such a finding is evidenced by the maximum productivity, which, for xylitol, was reached after 144 h ($P_{xol} = 0.34 \pm 0.03 \text{ g L}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$) and, for arabitol, only after 216 h ($P_{arol} = 0.020 \pm 0.001 \text{ g L}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$). Such productivities were lower than those obtained with the same culture medium in shaker flasks, possibly due to the use of agitation and aeration conditions that did not adequately represent the oxygen transfer rate of the shaker flasks.

Of note, some bioreactor parameters, such as agitation and aeration, were not assessed. These factors affect the oxygen transfer rate of the process, which, as previously highlighted, is fundamental for pentose metabolism and polyalcohol accumulation by yeasts (Manjarres-Pinzón et al. 2022). These operating parameters may hold potential for increasing the combined productivity of xylitol and arabitol production in bioreactors and may have caused the reduction in bioreactor productivity compared to shaker flasks. The bioreactor experiment afforded the highest arabitol concentration ($C_{arol} = 4.25 \pm 0.18 \text{ g L}^{-1}$) as well as a high xylitol concentration ($C_{xol} = 52.12 \pm 3.87 \text{ g L}^{-1}$) after 216 h of fermentation compared with all other experiments conducted in the current study, being 450 % for xylitol, and 250 %, for arabitol, higher than the concentrations obtained in the first experiments with standard nitrogen source and SBHH (Section 3.3).

Fig. 5 compares the results obtained in standard and improved culture media in shaker flask and bioreactor through carbon mass balance using a calculation basis of 100 kg of total sugars from SBHH. The determination of CO₂ generated was performed from stoichiometric balances of growth, respiration and product formation by cells (each carbon mol for biomass, sugar alcohols, ethanol and respiration generating, respectively, 0.095, 0.111, 0.500 and 1.000 mols of CO₂) (Converti et al., 2002; Bonan et al., 2021). The improved processes did not promote an increase in the mass conversion of arabinose to arabitol, despite this, there was a reduction in the volume required for the process, which leads to a more concentrated product, a relevant factor

for downstream purification processes (Marques Júnior and Rocha, 2021). For xylitol, there was an increase in mass conversion of 57% with the change in the medium and an additional 23% with the change in the mode of operation for bioreactors.

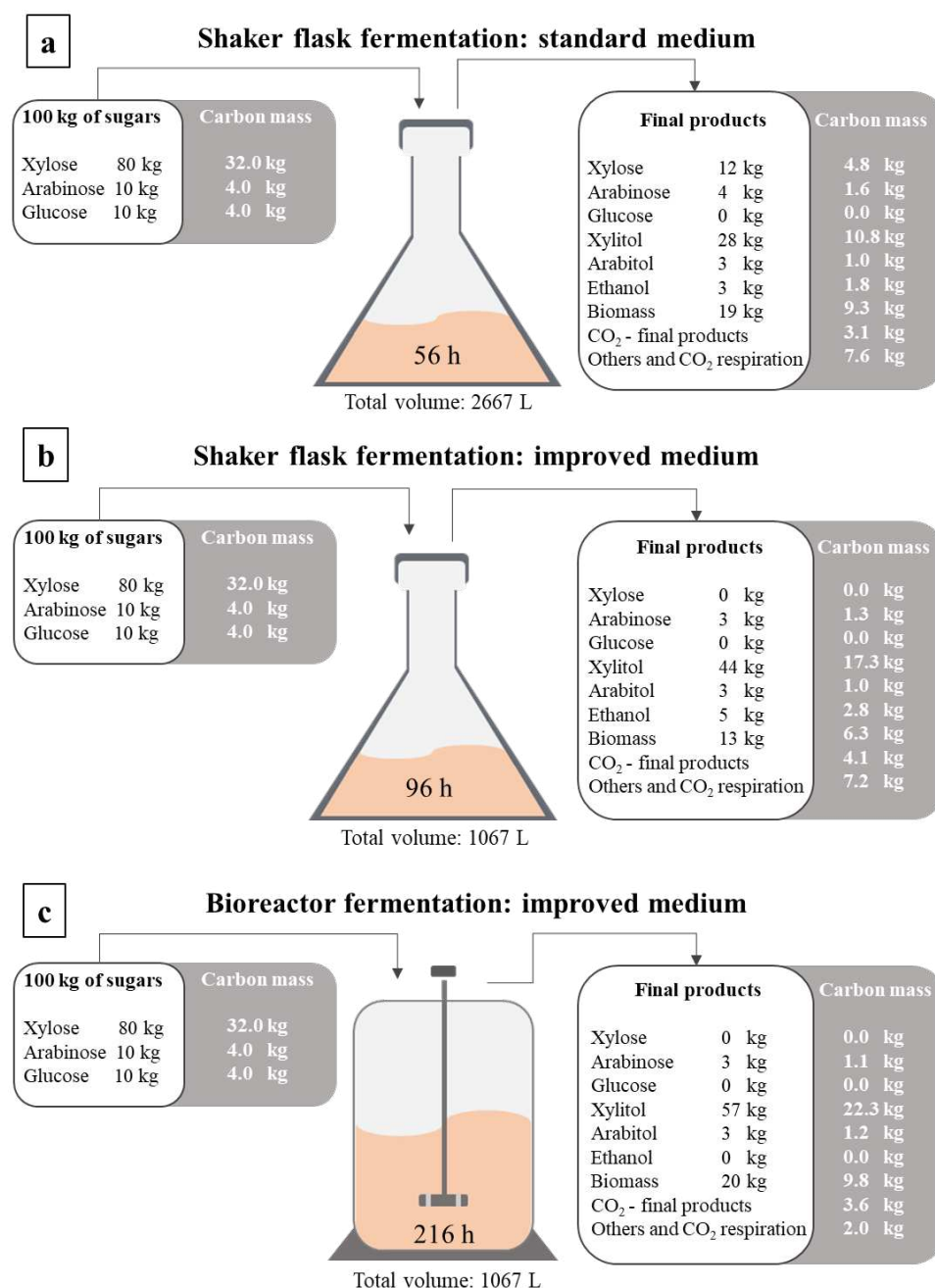


Fig. 5. Carbon mass balance of xylose, arabinose, glucose, xylitol, arabitol, ethanol, biomass (dry cell weight) and CO₂ with 100 kg of total sugars as basis of calculation for fermentations with *C. tropicalis* in SBHH with different media composition and operation modes. **a.** Standard medium with YE, MgSO₄ and KH₂PO₄ **b.** Media with YH + CSW as nitrogen source **c.** Same media as “b” in bioreactor operation mode.

Comparing the conversions in terms of carbon mass, in the process with standard media 30% of the initial carbon was converted to xylitol and arabitol. In the same process with improved media this carbon conversion was 46%, while in bioreactors it reached 59%. The increased conversion of carbon to products reveals the better targeting of initial carbon sources for the production of sugar alcohols. This fact can also be evidenced by the carbon mass expended for other metabolites and in the generation of CO₂ by cellular respiration, which reduced from 7.6 kg to 2.0 kg in the process in bioreactors. A similar behavior was evidenced by the Tamburini group (2015) who observed a reduction in CO₂ used in cellular respiration of approximately 30% to 5% under conditions that optimized *C. tropicalis* adaptation and xylitol production.

Table 6 presents a comparison of the results obtained in shaker flasks after 96 h of fermentation, bioreactor after 216 h of fermentation, and previous studies reported in the literature conducted under similar conditions. Other studies reported superior results, but the experiments were conducted with addition of pure xylose or L-arabinose to the medium, a factor that can elevate production costs, particularly when low conversion rates are obtained.

Palladino et al. (2021) investigated the effect of introducing an alternative nitrogen source, rice bran, to SBHH for the production of xylitol by *Cyberlindnera xylosilytica*. In the current study, addition of CSW as an alternative nitrogen source in bioreactor processes afforded a 17% higher $Y_{xol,xyl}$ and 20% higher P_{xol} . Although shaker flask experiments had lower yields, productivities were about 50% higher.

Arruda et al. (2017) produced xylitol under similar conditions in bioreactors but without arabitol formation. In our study, we obtained comparable but superior results for C_{xol} and $Y_{xol,xyl}$ (44% and 14% higher, respectively).

Table 6. Comparison of the results of the current study with similar works assessing xylitol and arabitol production by yeasts.

Reference	Feedstock	Microorganism	Reactor type	C_{xol} (g L ⁻¹)	C_{arol} (g L ⁻¹)	$Y_{xol,xyl}$ (g g ⁻¹)	$Y_{arol,ara}$ (g g ⁻¹)	P_{xol} (g L ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)	P_{arol} (g L ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)	ϵ_{xyl} (%)	ϵ_{arab} (%)
This work ^a	SBHH	<i>Candida tropicalis</i>	1 L shaker flasks	39.1	2.61	0.55	0.40	0.41	0.027	100.0	57.5
This work ^b	SBHH	<i>Candida tropicalis</i>	2 L bioreactor	52.1	4.25	0.74	0.43	0.24	0.020	100.0	70.3
Alves et al. (2021)	SBHH	<i>Candida tropicalis</i>	1 L shaker flasks	19.3	ND	0.55	ND	0.21	ND	100.0	100.0
Antunes et al. (2021)	SBHH	<i>Candida tropicalis</i>	125 mL shaker flasks	12.0	ND	0.61	ND	0.12	ND	100.0	ND
Morais Júnior et al. (2019)	SBHH + xylose	<i>Candida tropicalis</i>	125 mL shaker flasks	109.5	ND	0.86	ND	2.81	ND	55.4	ND
Arruda et al. (2017)	SBHH	<i>Candida guilliermondii</i>	2.4 L bioreactor	36.0	ND	0.65	ND	0.28	ND	92.0	71.5
Palladino et al. (2021)	SBHH	<i>Cyberlindnera xylosilytica</i>	125 mL shaker flasks	14.1	ND	0.63	ND	0.20	ND	ND	ND
Kordowska-Wiater et al. (2017)	L-Arabinose	<i>Candida parapsilosis</i>	100 mL shaker flasks	ND	10.70	ND	0.53	ND	0.007	ND	100.0
Kordowska-Wiater et al. (2013)	L-Arabinose	<i>Candida parapsilosis</i>	500 mL shaker flasks	ND	17.90	ND	0.48	ND	0.372	ND	100.0
McMillan and Boynton (1994)	L-Arabinose and xylose	<i>Candida tropicalis</i>	250 mL shaker flasks	6.0	8.00	0.35	1.02	0.06	0.087	97.0	21.0
Medeiros et al. (2020)	Sisal bagasse hydrolysate	<i>Debaryomyces hansenii</i>	1 L shaker flasks	0.1	1.14	0.04	0.96	0.01	0.01	100	100.0
Araújo et al. (2021)	Grape stalks hydrolysate	<i>Komagataella pastoris</i>	250 mL shaker flasks	0.8	0.34	0.25	0.85	0.006	0.003	56.4	21.0

^a Fermentation in shaker flasks (V-I) for 96 h.^b Fermentation in a bioreactor for 216 h.xol, xylitol; xyl, xylose; arol, arabitol; arab, arabinose; C, concentration; Y, yield; P, productivity; ϵ , substrate conversion; SBHH, sugarcane bagasse hemicellulosic hydrolysate; ND, not determined

Only two recent studies highlighted the potential for simultaneous production of xylitol and arabitol from hemicellulosic hydrolysates using different yeasts (Table 5) (de Medeiros et al. 2020; Araújo et al. 2021). High values of $Y_{\text{arol, arab}}$ were obtained, but the scale of production was low, being limited to shaker flasks; consequently, substrate consumption, as well as product formation, was lower than those found in our study. In general, C_{xol} , P_{xol} , and $Y_{\text{xol, xyl}}$ were up to 65, 24, and 3 times higher, respectively, and C_{arol} and P_{arol} were up to 3.7 and 2 times higher, respectively, in our bioreactor experiment than in literature reports. Furthermore, in 216 h, $Y_{\text{xol, xyl}}$ and $Y_{\text{arol, arab}}$ corresponded to, respectively, 80.7% and 42.6% of the theoretical yields of 0.917 g g⁻¹ for xylitol (Farias et al., 2022) and 1.01 g g⁻¹ for arabitol (McMillan and Boynton, 1994).

It can be concluded that, even if optimization studies can be carried out to achieve higher conversion parameters, the results for xylitol production alone were superior to those reported in the literature, and, regarding coproduction of xylitol and arabitol from hemicellulosic hydrolysate, our findings are the most promising to date. A unique factor of our study was that processes were also carried out on a benchtop bioreactor scale.

4. Conclusions

It was verified that xylitol and arabitol can be coproduced by *C. tropicalis* using SBHH as substrate and increasing the initial concentration of SBHH from 30 to 75 g L⁻¹ of xylose contributed to the formation of coproducts. Analysis of the culture medium and the effects of variables showed that the nitrogen source and the added amount of it represented the greatest influence on sugar alcohol production. In addition, it was possible to define improved culture medium conditions in terms of economic and environmental feasibility using YH as the main nitrogen source, without adding salts and using 20 % of total nitrogen from CSW, enabling an almost 10-fold reduction in the cost of culture medium. It was also possible to perform coproduction in a bioreactor reaching concentrations of xylitol and arabitol 65 and 3.7 times higher, respectively, than those reported in the literature for similar processes. These results contribute to the viability of the bioproduction of xylitol and arabitol and show promise for the coproduction of sugar alcohols from sugarcane bagasse hemicellulosic hydrolysate by *C. tropicalis*.

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CONCLUSÃO

Neste trabalho, a proposta de coprodução biotecnológica de xylitol e arabitol a partir de *C. tropicalis* usando hidrolisado hemicelulósico de bagaço de cana de açúcar como substrato foi validada. A partir da análise dos efeitos de diferentes variáveis sobre a produção dos sugar alcohols, foi possível desenvolver condições mais econômicas e ambientalmente amigáveis para o meio de cultivo. Para isso, utilizou-se um meio sem adição de sais e com a fonte nitrogenada composta por um hidrolisado de levedura menos dispendioso associado à inserção de água de maceração de milho, um resíduo agroindustrial.

Destaca-se, também, que foi possível manter parâmetros de coprodução de xylitol e arabitol a partir de hidrolisados hemicelulósicos em biorreatores de bancada, passo inicial para a ampliação de escala do bioprocessos. Com isso, foram encontrados valores de concentração e produtividade conjuntas dos sugar alcohols superiores ao evidenciado na literatura para processos fermentativos similares. Nesse contexto, este trabalho é mais um passo no desenvolvimento de processos sustentáveis que favorecem o reaproveitamento de resíduos agroindustriais com redução do impacto ambiental gerado, promovendo também os conceitos associados à economia circular.

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ANEXO I – REALIZAÇÕES ACADÊMICAS NO PERÍODO

- a. Participação do “Programa de Estágio Docente” das disciplinas “TA332 – Fundamentos de Cálculo em Processos” em 2022.1 e “TA736 – Engenharia de Bioprocessos” em 2023.1, disciplinas do curso de graduação em Engenharia de Alimentos da Universidade Estadual de Campinas
- b. Coautoria em artigo de revisão bibliográfica “New biotechnological opportunities for C5 sugars from lignocellulosic materials” publicado na revista científica “Bioresource Technology Reports” classificada como B1 em “Ciência de Alimentos” no quadriênio 2017-2020 pela Qualis Periódicos CAPES.

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New biotechnological opportunities for C5 sugars from lignocellulosic materials

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ABSTRACT

The transition to sustainable development with the replacement of gasoline and petroleum-based products with biofuels and green chemicals is a common goal for current concepts of the bioeconomy. In this sense, biorefinery integration appears as a promising route to replace chemical technologies. Moreover, there is the possibility of using existing first-generation (1G) bioethanol plants facilities as the host for the development of new processes using the huge amount of lignocellulosic biomasses available in the world. In order to maximize profitability, all sugars released after biomass pre-treatment and hydrolyses must be converted into target products. Regarding the pentose fraction, sugar conversion by microorganisms is not optimally performed, compared to glucose, to give rise to the production of bioproducts in a sustainable and competitive manner. Thus, this review focuses on the recent progresses and emerging strategies aiming towards pentose utilization, efficient assimilation and conversion into industrially relevant bioproducts.

- c. Apresentação do trabalho “Xylitol and arabitol: biotechnological trends for the reuse of lignocellulosic biomass” na modalidade pôster no evento XXIII SINAIFERM/XIV SHEB/XIV ENZITEC realizado de 28 a 31 de agosto de 2022



- d. Apresentação do trabalho "Identification of the biotechnological production potential of sugar alcohols by *Candida tropicalis*" na modalidade pôster no evento 2nd International Congress on Bioactive Compounds realizado de 9 a 10 de novembro de 2022.



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Finalidade do Acesso: **Pesquisa**

Espécie

Candida tropicalis

Título da Atividade: **Produção e purificação de produtos biotecnológicos**

Equipe

Marcus Bruno Soares Forte	UNICAMP
Priscila Hoffmann Carvalho	UNICAMP
Beatriz Medeiros Travália	UNICAMP
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1 mensagem

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13 de fevereiro de 2023 às 10:10

Dear Gabriel,

Greeting for the day!

As requested, please find attached the sample report on **Xylitol Market**.

The sample might not represent the full scope of the study due to masking and data trimming. Moreover, since each segment is individually assessed and then collated to form the whole market, the study can be tailor-made to fit your exact requirements.

With reference to your interest in the market data for "**Xylitol Market Analysis**", please note that you can certainly use the data available on the website or from the attached sample report, with proper citation of the source as '**Grand View Research**'.

If you have any further queries or requirements, please get back to me & I would be glad to assist.

Have a great day ahead.

Thanks & Regards,

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Author: Gabriel Cicalese Bevilaqua, Francisco Maugeri Filho, Marcus Bruno Soares Forte

Publication: Food and Bioprocess Technology

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