POLYHYDROXYALKANOATES PRODUCTION BY <u>Cupriavidus necator</u> TRANSFORMANTS HARBORING POLYHYDROXYALKANOATE SYNTHASE OF <u>Chromobacterium</u> sp. USM2 (PhaC_{Cs}) AND ITS POTENTIAL APPLICATION FOR LIPASE ASSAY KIT

TANG HUI JIA

UNIVERSITI SAINS MALAYSIA

2024

POLYHYDROXYALKANOATES PRODUCTION BY Cupriavidus necator TRANSFORMANTS HARBORING POLYHYDROXYALKANOATE SYNTHASE OF Chromobacterium sp. USM2 (PhaC_{cs}) AND ITS POTENTIAL APPLICATION FOR LIPASE ASSAY KIT

by

TANG HUI JIA

Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science

May 2024

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First and foremost, I would like to express my heartfelt gratitude and appreciation to my supervisor, Professor Dr. K. Sudesh Kumar A/L C. Kanapathi Pillai for his guidance, support, and mentorship throughout my master's study. Thanks to his insightful feedback and helpful suggestions, I have acquired valuable knowledge and experience in this field of study.

Next, I am also deeply grateful to the labmates of the Ecobiomaterial Research Laboratory, for establishing a productive and encouraging research atmosphere. I wish to extend my gratitude to all the laboratory members, especially Mr. Neoh Soon Zher, for their invaluable assistance and constructive comments that enriched the quality of my research.

Besides that, I would like to acknowledge the Electron Microscopy Unit at the School of Biological Sciences, USM for their assistance in using the facilities.

Last but not least, I would like to thank my family for their continuous support and encouragement, which has served as a constant source of motivation for me to complete my master's study. Their emotional support provides me with the strength to endure and overcome obstacles.

ii

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACK	NOWLE	DGEMENT	ii
TAB	LE OF CO	ONTENTS	iii
LIST	OF TAB	LES	viii
LIST	OF FIGU	URES	X
LIST	OF SYM	BOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS	xii
LIST	OF APP	ENDICES	xvi
ABS	Г R AК		xvii
ABS	FRACT		xix
CHA	PTER 1	INTRODUCTION	
1.1	Introduc	tion	1
1.2	Problem	statement	5
1.3	Objectiv	/es	5
CHA	PTER 2	LITERATURE REVIEW	6
2.1	Polyhyd	roxyalkanoates (PHAs)	6
2.2	PHA syr	nthase (PhaC)	8
	2.2.1	PhaC from Chromobacterium sp. USM2	10
	2.2.2	PhaC from Aquitalea sp. USM4	11
	2.2.3	PhaC from mangrove metagenome (PhaC _{BP-M-CPF4})	12
2.3	PHA bio	osynthesis pathways	13
2.4	Types of	f PHA	
	2.4.1	P(3HB)	
	2.4.2	P(3HB-co-3HV)	19
	2.4.3	P(3HB-co-3HHx)	
	2.4.4	P(3HB-co-4HB)	21
2.5	Applicat	tion of PHA	

2.6	Lipase		29
2.7	PHA deg	gradation by lipases	30
2.8	Degradation studies on P(3HB-co-4HB) by lipases		31
CHA	PTER 3	MATERIALS AND METHODS	33
3.1	General	techniques	33
	3.1.1	Aseptic technique	33
	3.1.2	Sterilization	33
	3.1.3	Optical density (OD) and pH measurement	33
	3.1.4	Maintenance of bacterial cells	34
	3.1.5	Glycerol stock preparation	34
3.2	Media p	reparation	34
	3.2.1	Lysogeny broth (LB)	34
	3.2.2	Nutrient rich (NR) medium	35
	3.2.3	Simmons citrate agar	35
	3.2.4	Tryptic soy broth (TSB)	36
	3.2.5	Mineral medium (MM)	36
	3.2.6	Preparation of kanamycin stock solutions	37
3.3	Carbon S	Source	38
	3.3.1	Crude palm kernel oil (CPKO).	38
	3.3.2	Fructose	38
3.4	Preparat	ion of structurally related carbon sources	38
	3.4.1	Sodium valerate	38
	3.4.2	Sodium 4-hydroxybutyrate	39
	3.4.3	Sodium 5-hydroxyvalerate	39
3.5	Bacteria	l strains and plasmids	40
3.6	Commo	n molecular techniques	42
	3.6.1	Primer design	42

	3.6.2	Genomic DNA extraction	2
	3.6.3	Plasmid extraction	3
	3.6.4	DNA quantification	4
	3.6.5	Agarose gel electrophoresis	5
	3.6.6	Polymerase chain reaction (PCR)	5
	3.6.7	Gel purification	8
	3.6.8	Digestion of PCR product and plasmid vector by restriction enzyme	9
	3.6.9	PCR product purification	0
	3.6.10	Cloning	1
		3.6.10(a) Ligation	1
	3.6.11	Bacterial transformation	1
	3.6.12	Colony PCR	2
	3.6.13	Bacterial transconjugation	4
	3.6.14	DNA sequencing	5
3.7	Construc	ction of <i>C. necator</i> transformants PHB ⁻⁴ harboring $phaC_{Cs}$	5
3.8	Construction of <i>C. necator</i> transformants Re2058 and Re2160 harboring <i>phaC</i> _{Cs}		g 5
3.9	PHA bio	synthesis 50	б
	3.9.1	Cultivation in shake flasks	б
	3.9.2	Harvesting	7
3.10	Analytic	al procedures	7
	3.10.1	Cell dry weight (CDW) calculations	7
	3.10.2	PHA content and monomer composition measurement	8
		3.10.2(a) Methanolysis solution preparation	3
		3.10.2(b) Preparation of caprylic methyl ester solution	8
		3.10.2(c) Methanolysis	8
		3.10.2(d) Gas chromatography (GC) settings	9

		3.10.2(e) Calculation of PHA content and monomer composition
3.11	Statistica	al analysis63
3.12	PHA pol	ymer extraction
3.13	Differen	tial scanning calorimetry (DSC) analysis64
3.14	Enzymat	tic degradation studies65
	3.14.1	Solvent casting of PHA polymer blends film65
	3.14.2	List of commercial lipases used in lipase depolymerizing activity
	3.14.3	Lipase drop test on thin PHA cast film
	3.14.4	Surface change of PHA film <i>via</i> SEM analysis68
CHAI	PTER 4	RESULTS
4.1	Construc	ction of <i>C. necator</i> transformants harboring <i>phaC</i> _{Cs}
4.2	PHA biosynthesis by <i>C. necator</i> PHB ⁻⁴ harboring <i>phaC</i> _{Cs} using different carbon sources and precursors	
4.3	PHA biosynthesis of <i>C. necator</i> transformant from fructose and 4HB precursors	
4.4	PHA biosynthesis of of Re2058/pHJ1-C _{Cs} from fructose supplemented with different concentrations of sodium 4-hydroxybutyrate76	
4.5	PHA biosynthesis of Re2058/pHJ1-C _{Cs} from different fructose concentrations at a fixed nitrogen concentration	
4.6	Time course analysis of PHA biosynthesis by Re2058/pHJ1-C _{Cs}	
4.7	Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) analysis	
4.8	Lipase degradation of PHA films	
4.9	Surface i lipase de	morphology of P(3HB-co-4HB)/P(3HB-co-8 mol% 3HHx) film after polymerizing activity
CHAI	PTER 5	DISCUSSION
5.1	Construc	ction of <i>C. necator</i> transformants harboring <i>phaC</i> _{Cs}
5.2	PHA biosynthesis by PHB ⁻ 4/pBBR1-C _{Cs} using various carbon sources and precursors	

5.3	PHA biosynthesis by <i>C. necator</i> transformants using different 4HB precursors	
5.4	PHA biosynthesis of Re2058/pHJ1-C _{Cs} from fructose co-fed with different concentrations of sodium 4-hydroxybutyrate	
5.5	PHA biosynthesis of Re2058/pHJ1- C_{Cs} from different fructose concentrations at a fixed nitrogen concentration	
5.6	Time course study of PHA biosynthesis	
5.7	Characterization of PHA polymers	
5.8	Lipase depolymerizing activity on the thin cast film of P(3HB- <i>co</i> -4HB)/P(3HB- <i>co</i> -8 mol% 3HHx) blends and their surface morphology changes	
CHAP	PTER 6 CONCLUSION 103	
CHAP	TER 7 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE WORK 105	
REFE	RENCES 107	
APPE	NDICES	

LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1	Classes of PhaCs9	
Table 2.2	Applications of PHA and its commercial companies25	
Table 3.1	Constituents of MM	
Table 3.2	Constituents of trace element	
Table 3.3	List of bacterial strains used in this study40	
Table 3.4	List of plasmids used in this study41	
Table 3.5	Oligonucleotides used in the plasmid construction46	
Table 3.6	PCR reaction mixture for amplification of plasmid vector, $phaC_{Cs}$ 47	
Table 3.7	Thermocycling condition for amplification of plasmid vector,	
	<i>phaC</i> _{Cs}	
Table 3.8	The primer pairs, DNA template and PCR product47	
Table 3.9	Reaction mixture used for purified PCR products digestion49	
Table 3.10	Reaction mixture used for purified plasmid vector digestion50	
Table 3.11	Ligation reaction mixture	
Table 3.12	PCR amplifications for colony PCR using EconoTaq [®] Plus Green	
	2 × Master Mix	
Table 3.13	Thermocycling condition for colony PCR using EconoTaq® Plus	
	Green 2 × Master Mix	
Table 3.14	Monomer at its retention time with k value61	
Table 3.15	Types of lipases used in enzymatic degradation studies	
Table 4.1	PHA biosynthesis by C. necator PHB ⁻⁴ transformant	
	$(PHB^-4/pBBR1-C_{Cs})$ using different carbon sources and	
	precursors71	

Table 4.2	PHA biosynthesis in C. necator transformant harboring phaCcs
	supplemented with 10 g/L of fructose and 5 g/L of 4HB precursors
Table 4.3	Biosynthesis of P(3HB-co-4HB) copolymer by Re2058/pHJ1-C _{Cs}
	using different concentrations of sodium 4-hydroxybutyrate77
Table 4.4	Effect of different fructose concentrations on P(3HB-co-4HB)
	biosynthesis by Re2058/pHJ1-C _{Cs} 79
Table 4.5	Thermal properties of P(3HB-co-4HB) and its blending with
	P(3HB-co-8 mol% 3HHx) with varying 4HB monomer
	composition

LIST OF FIGURES

Page

Figure 2.1	General chemical structure of PHAs. Functional alkyl R group
	determines the number of carbon atoms and PHA designations.
	The n symbol refers to the number of repeating units
Figure 2.2	Metabolic pathway of PHA biosynthesis16
Figure 2.3	Chemical structure of P(3HB). 'n' represents number of repeating
	units
Figure 2.4	Chemical structure of P(3HB-co-3HV). 'x' and 'y' represent
	repeating unit of each monomer20
Figure 2.5	Chemical structure of P(3HB-co-3HHx). 'x' and 'y' represent
	repeating unit of each monomer21
Figure 2.6	Chemical structure of P(3HB-co-4HB). 'x' and 'y' represent
	repeating unit of each monomer
Figure 3.1	Illustration of genotypes of C. necator mutant host and
	recombinant plasmid pBBR1 and pHJ1 harboring $phaC_{Cs}$. In
	PHB ⁻⁴ host, <i>phaC1</i> was mutated. In Re2058 host, <i>phaC1</i> and <i>proC</i>
	were deleted from the genome. In Re2160 host, phaC1, phaB1,
	phaB2, phaB3, and proC were deleted from the genome. Plasmid
	pBBR1_ C_{Cs} consists of <i>C. necator phaC1</i> promoter and <i>phaC</i> _{Cs} .
	Plasmid pHJ1 consists of <i>C. necator phaC1</i> promoter, <i>phaCcs</i> , and
	proC whereas plasmid pHT1-CBP-M-CPF4 contains C. necator
	phaCl promoter, phaAcn, phaJlPa, phaCBP-M-CPF4, and proC.
	Re2058/pHT1-C _{BP-M-CPF4} was constructed by Tan <i>et al.</i> (2020)41
Figure 3.2	Lipase depolymerization activity on the PHA polymer films67
Figure 3.3	Each quadrant represents one type of lipase with different
	concentrations (0.5 mg/mL, 1.0 mg/mL, 2.5 mg/mL) on the PHA
	polymer film
Figure 4.1	Time course analysis of PHA biosynthesis by Re2058/pHJ1- C_{Cs} 80

LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

α	Alpha
~	Approximately
β	Beta
Da	Dalton
°C	Degree Celsius
Δ	Delta
wt%	Dry weight percent
γ	Gamma
GPa	Gigapascal
g	Gram
g/L	Gram per liter
Hz	Hertz
h	Hour
kDa	Kilodalton
kPa	Kilopascal
L	Liter
MPa	Megapascal
μg	Microgram
μL	Microliter
μm	Micrometer
mg	Milligram
mL	Milliliter
mM	Millimolar
min	Minute
_	Minus
М	Molar
mol%	Mole percent
ng	Nanogram
nm	Nanometer
%	Percentage
±	Plus-minus

psi	Pounds per square inch
(<i>R</i>)	Rectus-isomer
rpm	Revolutions per minute
S	Second
<i>(S)</i>	Sinister isomer
×	Times
$\times g$	Times gravity
V	Volt
v/v	Volume per volume
w/v	Weight per volume
3H4MV	3-hydroxy-4-methylvalerate
3HB	3-hydroxybutyrate
3HB-CoA	3-hydroxybutyryl-CoA
3HD	3-hydroxydodecanoate
3HHx	3-hydroxyhexanoate
3HHx-CoA	3-hydroxyhexanoyl-CoA
ЗНО	3-hydroxyoctanoate
3HV	3-hydroxyvalerate
4HB	4-hydroxybutyrate
4HB-CoA	4-hydroxybutyryl-CoA
5HV	5-hydroxyvalerate
ACP	Acyl-carrier-protein
ANOVA	One-way analysis of variance
CDW	Cell dry weight
CME	Caprylic methyl ester
C/N ratio	Carbon-to-nitrogen ratio
CoA	Coenzyme-A
СРКО	Crude palm oil kernel
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
dNTP	Deoxyribonucleoside triphosphate
EDTA	Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
GC	Gas chromatography
gDNA	Genomic DNA
HA	Hydroxyacyl

HA-CoA	Hydroxyacyl-CoA
LB	Lysogeny broth
MCL	Medium-chain-length
MM	Mineral medium
NADPH	Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate
NR	Nutrient rich
OD	Optical density
OD _{600nm}	Optical density at wavelength 600 nm
P(3HB)	Poly(3-hydroxybutyrate)
P(3HB-co-3H4MV)	Poly(3-hydroxybutyrate- <i>co</i> -3-hydroxy-4-methylvalerate)
P(3HB-co-3HHx)	Poly(3-hydroxybutyrate-co-3-hydroxyhexanoate)
P(3HB-co-3HV)	Poly(3-hydroxybutyrate-co-3-hydroxyvalerate)
P(3HB-co-4HB)	Poly(3-hydroxybutyrate-co-4-hydroxybutyrate)
P(3HB-co-5HV)	Poly(3-hydroxybutyrate-co-5-hydroxyvalerate)
PCR	Polymerase chain reaction
PP	Polypropylene
pН	Potential of hydrogen
ProC	Pyrroline-5-carboxylate reductase
P-value	Probability value
PHA	Polyhydroxyalkanoate
PhaA	Beta-ketothiolase
PhaB	NADPH-dependent acetoacetyl-CoA reductase
PhaC	PHA synthase
PhaJ	(<i>R</i>)-specific enoyl-CoA hydratase
PhaR	PHA synthase subunit R
FadA	3-ketoacyl-CoA thiolase
FadB	enoyl-CoA hydratase
FadD	acyl-CoA synthetase
FadE	acyl-CoA dehydrogenase
FabG	3-ketoacyl-CoA reductase
sucD	succinic semialdehyde dehydrogenase
4hbD	4-hydroxybutyrate dehydrogenase
OrfZ	succinyl-CoA: CoA transferase
RBS	Ribosomal binding sites

SCL	Short-chain-length
SD	Standard deviation
sp.	Species
TAE	Tris-acetate-EDTA
TCA	Tricarboxylic acid
$T_{ m g}$	Glass transition temperature
T _m	Melting temperature
Tc	Crystalline temperature
TSB	Tryptic soy broth

LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX A GEL ELECTROPHORESIS (CLONING)

PENGHASILAN POLIHIDROKSIALKANOAT OLEH TRANSFORMAN Cupriavidus necator YANG MENGANDUNGI POLIHIDROKSIALKANOAT SINTASE Chromobacterium sp. USM2 (PhaC_{cs}) DAN POTENSI APLIKASINYA UNTUK KIT ASAI LIPASE

ABSTRAK

Polihidroksialkanoat (PHA) adalah biopoliester yang disintesis oleh mikroorganisma sebagai simpanan karbon di bawah keadaan sumber karbon yang berlebihan tetapi sumber nutrient penting yang terhad. Disebabkan oleh kesifatan biodegradasi, poli(3-hidroksibutirat-ko-4-hidroksibutirat) [P(3HB-ko-4HB)] telah digunakan dalam aplikasi industri termasuk pembungkusan, plastik yang boleh terbiodegradasi, peranti perubatan, dan aplikasi bioperubatan. Chromobacterium sp. USM2 telah dipencilkan dari Langkawi, Malaysia dan didapati berupaya menghasilkan PHA. PHA sintase Chromobacterium sp. USM2 berupaya mempolimerisasikan pelbagai monomer seperti 3-hidroksibutirat (3HB), 3hidroksivalerat (3HV) dan 3-hidroksiheksanoat (3HHx) daripada sumber karbon atau prekursor. Sehingga kini, tiada laporan berkaitan potensi PhaC_{Cs} untuk menghasilkan P(3HB-ko-4HB). Dalam kajian ini, ujian siri pengoptimuman dan biosintesis PHA telah dijalankan untuk menilai keupayaan ekspresi heterolog PhaCcs dalam transforman *C. necator* menghasilkan P(3HB-*ko*-4HB) dengan menggunakan prekursor 4HB yang berkaitan secara struktural seperti 1,6-heksanediol, 1,4-butanediol, γ -butirolakton dan natrium 4-hidroksibutirat. Polimer yang diperolehi kemudiannya dinilai ciri-cirinya untuk menentukan komposisi monomer, analisa termal dan aktiviti depolimerasi lipase. C. necator Re2058 yang mengandungi phaCcs didapati berupaya menghasilkan 5.9 g/L berat kering sel dan kandungan PHA

xvii

sebanyak 53.4 wt% dengan komposisi monomer 4HB yang tinggi (25 mol% 4HB) dengan menggunakan campuran 10 g/L fruktosa dan 5 g/L natrium 4-hidroksibutirat sebagai sumber karbon. Oleh itu, keupayaan transforman ini telah dinilai ciri-cirinya dengan menggunakan pelbagai kepekatan prekursor 4HB yang berkaitan secara struktur, kepekatan fruktosa dan analisis selang masa. C. necator Re2058 yang mengandungi phaC_{cs} dilaporkan berupaya menghasilkan P(3HB-ko-4HB) dengan maksimum komposisi monomer 4HB sebanyak 52 mol% dengan menggunakan campuran 10 g/L fruktosa dan 20 g/L natrium 4-hidroksibutirat pada nisbah C/N 10 selama 48 jam. Analisa termal pada filem campuran P(3HB-ko-4HB)/P(3HB-ko-8 mol% 3HHx) yang mengandungi pelbagai komposisi monomer 4HB telah diuji untuk menentukan kestabilan termal. Kaedah pencampuran ini dapat meningkatkan kestabilan polimer dan jangka hayatnya untuk digunakan sebagai bahan biologi. Aktiviti depolimerasi lipase komersial pada filem polimer PHA menunjukkan penghasilan tompok hidrolisis yang legap. Campuran polimer PHA didapati boleh digunakan dalam kit asai lipase sebagai substrat untuk menentukan aktiviti lipase dan ia menyediakan pilihan yang mesra alam untuk komersialisasi kit asai lipase.

POLYHYDROXYALKANOATES PRODUCTION BY Cupriavidus necator TRANSFORMANTS HARBORING POLYHYDROXYALKANOATE SYNTHASE OF Chromobacterium sp. USM2 (PhaC_{cs}) AND ITS POTENTIAL APPLICATION FOR LIPASE ASSAY KIT

ABSTRACT

Polyhydroxyalkanoates biopolyesters (PHAs) are produced by microorganisms as carbon storage in the presence of abundant carbon sources and the limitation of growth nutrients. Poly(3-hydroxybutyrate-*co*-4-hydroxybutyrate) [P(3HB-co-4HB)] has been used for industrial applications, including packaging, biodegradable plastics, medical devices, and biomedical applications, owing to its biodegradability properties. Chromobacterium sp. USM2 was isolated in Langkawi, Malaysia, and was able to accumulate PHA. PHA synthase of Chromobacterium sp. USM2 (PhaC_{cs}) was able to polymerize various monomers such as 3-hydroxybutyrate (3HB), 3-hydroxyvalerate (3HV), and 3-hydroxyhexanoate (3HHx) from carbon sources or precursors due to its broad substrate specificity. To date, there is no report on the potential of PhaC_{cs} to produce P(3HB-co-4HB) copolymer. In this study, a series of optimization tests and PHA biosynthesis were performed to investigate the potential of the heterologous expression of PhaC_{Cs} in C. necator transformants to produce P(3HB-co-4HB) using 4HB-structurally related precursors such as 1,6-hexanediol, 1,4-butanediol, γ -butyrolactone, and sodium 4-hydroxybutyrate. The polymers obtained were then further characterized to determine their monomer compositions, thermal properties, and lipase depolymerizing activity. It was found that C. necator Re2058 harboring phaCcs was able to produce 5.9 g/L of cell dry weight (CDW) and 53.4 wt% of PHA content with high 4HB monomer composition (25 mol%

4HB) from a mixture of 10 g/L of fructose and 5 g/L of sodium 4-hydroxybutyrate. Therefore, the ability of this transformant was further characterized using various concentrations of 4HB-structurally related precursors, concentrations of fructose, and time course analysis. It was reported that C. necator Re2058 harboring phaCcs could produce P(3HB-co-4HB) with maximum 4HB monomer composition (52 mol%) using a mixture of 10 g/L of fructose and 20 g/L of sodium 4-hydroxybutyrate at C/N ratio 10 for 48 hours. The thermal properties of the thin cast film of of P(3HB-co-4HB)/P(3HB-co-8 mol% 3HHx) blend with various 4HB monomer compositions were investigated to determine their thermal stability. This blending method could improve polymer stability and increase its shelf life to be used as biomaterials. The depolymerizing activity of different commercial lipases on the thin cast film of polymer blends showed the formation of opaque hydrolysis spots. It was found that PHA polymer blends can be used in lipase assay kits as substrates to detect lipase activity, which provides an environmentally friendly alternative for the commercialization of lipase assay kits.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Lipases are enzymes that break down triglycerides into free fatty acids and glycerol (Singh & Mukhopadhyay, 2012). They are produced by microorganisms, plants, and animals (Haki & Rakshit, 2003). Lipases are soluble in water and can react with substrates that do not dissolve in water, leading to the formation of an enzymesubstrate complex at the interface of an emulsion. This proves advantageous when reacting with substrates that are insoluble in water but can dissolve in other organic that do not mix with water (Rodríguez-Contreras et al., 2012). They are widely used in various industries, including food processing, baking, detergent, pharmaceuticals, leather, and biodiesel industry (Houde et al., 2004; Aravindan et al., 2007; Singh & Mukhopadhyay, 2012). Measurement of lipase activity is important for quality assurance, research, and advancement in these fields. One such approach for evaluating lipase activity is the use of lipase assay kits, which provide convenience and rapid detection of lipase activity (Ch'ng & Sudesh, 2013). The lipase assay kit can be developed by employing polyhydroxyalkanoate (PHA) as a substrate (Ch'ng & Sudesh, 2013; Mok et al., 2016). PHA, a biopolymer, has attracted attention owing to its biodegradable nature and its adaptability as a substrate for lipase assay. The applications of lipase assay using PHA as a substrate can be used as a diagnostic tool to detect conditions related to lipid metabolism and digestion such as pancreatic lipase levels (Singh & Mukhopadhyay, 2012).

PHAs are produced and accumulated by most bacteria and archaea under excessive carbon sources and limitation of essential nutrients (Anderson & Dawes, 1990; Sudesh *et al.*, 2000). PHAs can be classified into three groups based on the

number of carbons: short-chain-length PHAs (SCL-PHAs), medium-chain-length PHAs (MCL-PHAs), and a combination of SCL- and MCL-PHA (Madison & Huisman, 1999; Sudesh, 2012). The types of monomers in the PHA polymer chain can affect the thermal and mechanical properties of the PHA polymer produced (Tan *et al.*, 2020). Poly(3-hydroxybutyrate) [P(3HB)] is the most common PHA homopolymer accumulated by many PHA producers. It is brittle, highly crystalline, and has a high melting temperature thus limiting its applications (Reinecke & Steinbüchel, 2009). One method of improving the properties of the P(3HB) homopolymer is by copolymerization with other PHA monomers such as 3-hydroxyhexanoate (3HHx), 4-hydroxybutyrate (4HB) and many more monomer units. Copolymerization with other monomers can improve the physicochemical properties of the PHA making them better than that of P(3HB) homopolymer. The copolymer is more flexible and applicable in industries such as poly(3-hydroxybutyrate-*co*-4-hydroxybutyrate) [P(3HB*-co*-4HB)] (Noda *et al.*, 2005).

P(3HB-*co*-4HB) is SCL-PHAs, composed of two different PHA monomers, 3HB and 4HB monomer units. The copolymerization of 4HB monomer with 3HB monomer increases tensile strength and elastomeric properties, making it more flexible than P(3HB) homopolymer (Loo & Sudesh, 2007). Depending on the 4HB monomer composition, the properties of P(3HB-*co*-4HB) vary from crystalline to elastic. The most outstanding properties of P(3HB-*co*-4HB) are its ability to be degraded by lipase, biocompatible, and bioabsorbable (Martin & Williams, 2003). P(3HB-*co*-4HB) can be degraded by both lipase and PHA depolymerase giving them an extra advantage compared to most other PHAs. The biodegradability rate of P(3HB-*co*-4HB) relies on factors such as 4HB monomer composition, concentration, and the type of lipase, as well as environmental conditions (Ch'ng *et al.*, 2012). Since P(3HB-*co*-4HB) can be degraded by lipase and hence, is commonly used for screening of lipase depolymerizing activity and in medical applications such as tissue engineering, drug delivery, sutures, scaffolds, and wound care (Williams *et al.*, 2013).

PHA synthase (PhaC) is the key enzyme in PHA biosynthesis and catalyzes the conversion of (*R*)-HA-CoA to PHA with a concomitant release of CoA (Rehm, 2003; Sudesh, 2012). Some PhaCs prefer to polymerize SCL-PHA monomers whereas some prefer to polymerize MCL-PHA monomers. There are also a few PhaCs that can polymerize both SCL- and MCL-PHA. In this study, one such PhaC from *Chromobacterium* sp. USM2 (PhaC_{cs}) which is used in this study (Bhubalan *et al.*, 2010). There are some efforts in the engineering of PhaC have been made to broaden their substrate specificity and improve PHA accumulation (Rehm, 2003; Harada *et al.*, 2021).

Chromobacterium sp. USM2 is a Gram-negative bacterium, that was isolated from a waterfall in Langkawi, Malaysia. The PhaC_{Cs} is a highly active PhaC with the highest polymerizing ability so far (Bhubalan *et al.*, 2011). Several studies have been done to broaden the substrate specificity of PhaC_{Cs}. Chuah and co-workers reported that performing saturation point mutagenesis at position A479 in PhaC_{Cs} could result in an improved substrate specificity towards 3HHx, leading to a notable increase in 3HHx content of up to 6.6 mol% when compared to the wild-type PhaC_{Cs}. In a previous study, it had been reported to incorporate 3HB, 3HHx, 3-hydroxyvalerate (3HV), and 3-hydroxy-4-methylvalerate (3H4MV) when supplied with appropriate carbon sources or precursors (Yong, 2009; Bhubalan *et al.*, 2010; Ling *et al.*, 2011). In another study by Bhubalan *et al.* (2010), PhaC_{Cs} was studied for the production of copolymer or terpolymer with better thermal and mechanical properties from suitable carbon sources and precursors.

On the other hand, C. necator is the best candidate for PHA production as it shows robust cell growth and PHA accumulation from various carbon sources (Reinecke & Steinbüchel, 2009; Morlino et al., 2023). C. necator is also the most wellstudied organism in PHA production and accumulation. The heterologous expression of PhaC_{cs} in PHA-negative mutant C. necator PHB⁻⁴ transformants could produce poly(3-hydroxybutyrate-co-3-hydroxyvalerate) [P(3HB-co-3HV)] with 3HV monomer composition as high as 60 mol% when fed with a mixture of fructose and sodium valerate. Furthermore, C. necator PHB⁻⁴ transformant harboring phaCcs could also produce poly(3-hydroxybutyrate-co-3-hydroxyhexanoate) [P(3HB-co-3HHx)] with 4 mol% of 3HHx from crude palm kernel oil (CPKO) (Bhubalan et al., 2010). So far, there is no report that the C. necator transformants harboring phaC_{Cs} could produce any P(3HB-co-4HB) or P(3HB-co-5HV) with structurally related precursors. Therefore, in this study, PhaC_{Cs} was characterized for its substrate specificity using C. necator PHB⁻⁴ as the host. The ability of PhaCcs to accumulate P(3HB-co-4HB) was further characterized using C. necator Re2058 and Re2160 as hosts. The 4HB-structurally related precursors such as 1,6-hexanediol, 1,4-butanediol, γ -butyrolactone, and sodium 4-hydroxybutyrate were fed to the transformants. Besides that, the ability of $PhaC_{Cs}$ to accumulate P(3HB-co-4HB) was further characterized using various concentrations of precursor, concentrations of fructose, and time course analysis. The P(3HB-co-4HB) copolymers with various 4HB monomer compositions obtained were blended physically with P(3HB-co-8 mol% 3HHx) copolymers and the blend films were prepared using a solvent-casting method to characterize their degradability by various lipases and thermal properties.

1.2 Problem statement

The ability of the PHA synthase of *Chromobacterium* sp. USM2 to produce P(3HB-*co*-4HB) has not been determined. P(3HB-*co*-4HB) copolymer is a well-known PHA to be degraded by lipases. However, the biodegradability of P(3HB-*co*-4HB) and P(3HB-*co*-8 mol% 3HHx) polymer blends by lipases are unknown. Hence, there is a need to study its potential to be used as substrate in rapid microassay which provides a more environmentally friendly option for lipase activity screening. It is also unclear whether blended PHA can offer improved polymer stability and shelf-life over the individual PHA.

1.3 Objectives

- a) To investigate the ability of PhaC_{Cs} to polymerize various PHA monomers from structurally related precursors and carbon sources.
- b) To evaluate the potential of the heterologous expression of PhaC_{cs} in *C. necator* transformants for P(3HB-co-4HB) production using structurally related 4HB substrates.
- c) To produce and characterize P(3HB-*co*-4HB) and P(3HB-*co*-8 mol% 3HHx) polymer blends.
- d) To evaluate the lipase depolymerizing activity on the thin cast film of P(3HB-co-4HB)/P(3HB-co-8 mol% 3HHx) blends for the development of rapid lipase assay.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Polyhydroxyalkanoates (PHAs)

Polyhydroxyalkanoates (PHAs) are environmentally friendly and sustainable biopolymers that are synthesized by microorganisms and accumulated in the cytoplasm as carbon and energy storage. PHA accumulation occurs when the essential nutrients are limited, such as nitrogen, magnesium, or oxygen, and the carbon sources are excessive (Anderson & Dawes, 1990; Doi, 1990). PHA granules can accumulate discretely within cells, reaching levels of up to 90% of the cell dry weight (Madison & Huisman, 1999). The general chemical structure of PHA is shown in Figure 2.1.

The PHA was first discovered by a French scientist, Maurice Lemoigne in 1926 (Lemoigne, 1926; Palmeiro-Sánchez *et al.*, 2022). P(3HB) homopolymer was first found in *Bacillus megaterium*, which is the most typical type and well-characterized PHA homopolymer (Lemoigne, 1926). In 1974, Wallen and Rohwedder identified 3HV and 3HHx from the PHA biosynthesis using activated sewage sludge (Wallen & Rohwedder, 1974). In 1983, Witholt and coworkers discovered 3-hydroxyoctanoate (3HO) and minor constituents of 3HHx units in *Pseudomonas oleovorans* when the cells were cultured on *n*-octane (de Smet *et al.*, 1983; Lageveen *et al.*, 1988). To date, many monomer units can be incorporated into the PHA polymer chain which provides different physicomechanical properties of PHA polymers and it is believed more to come soon (Rehm, 2003).

PHAs can be categorized into 3 main groups, which are determined by the number of carbon atoms present in the monomer unit. They are SCL-PHAs, containing PHA monomers of 3 - 5 carbon atoms, MCL-PHAs, consisting of 6 - 14 carbon atoms and a combination of SCL- and MCL-PHA, consisting of 3 - 14 (Madison & Huisman,

1999; Sudesh, 2012). The examples of the monomer units in SCL-PHAs are 3HB, 3HV, and 4HB while the monomer units in MCL-PHAs are 3HHx, 3HO, and 3-hydroxydodecanoate (3HD) (Sudesh, 2012). The mixture of SCL- and MCL-PHA is well represented in P(3HB-*co*-3HHx) (Anderson & Dawes, 1990; Steinbüchel, 1991). PHA can be produced as a homopolymer or heteropolymer. A homopolymer consists of the repetition of the same monomer whereas a heteropolymer consists of two or more different monomers. Different types of PHA have different thermal and mechanical properties based on their respective monomer compositions (Sudesh *et al.*, 2000). SCL-PHAs are brittle, rigid, high melting temperature, high crystallinity, and high glass transition temperature. In contrast, MCL-PHAs are elastic, flexible, have lower crystallinity, and have lower glass transition temperature (Yu, 2007; Reddy *et al.*, 2022). Nevertheless, it was found that the properties of the SCL-MCL-PHA copolymers were better than the homopolymers of SCL-PHA and MCL-PHA. These copolymers are more ductile, moldable, and durable than PHA homopolymers, which are preferred for wider applications (Tsuge, 2002).

Generally, PHAs possess superior properties including biodegradability, biocompatibility, thermoplasticity, good ultraviolet resistance, and non-toxicity. PHAs can be degraded, which makes them eco-friendly and reduces plastic pollution. Besides that, the biocompatibility and bioresorbability of PHAs make them applicable in the medical field such as scaffolds and sutures as they are not harmful to the human body. PHA can also be melted and reshaped into desired shapes for bottles, packaging, and agriculture sheets (Poltronieri & Kumar, 2017). Furthermore, they are hydrophobic polymers that cannot be soluble in water, making them resistant to hydrolytic degradation (Sudesh *et al.*, 2000; Chen, 2010).



Figure 2.1: General chemical structure of PHAs. Functional alkyl R group determines the number of carbon atoms and PHA designations. The n symbol refers to the number of repeating units.

2.2 PHA synthase (PhaC)

The PHA synthases (PhaCs) have a significant role in PHA biosynthesis. They catalyze the polymerization of 3-hydroxyacyl-CoA (3HA-CoA) into PHA. PhaCs can be categorized into four major groups depending on their primary structure, subunit composition, and substrate specificities as shown in Table 2.1 (Sudesh et al., 2000; Rehm, 2003). Class I, III, and IV PhaCs prefer the SCL-PHA monomers while class II prefers MCL-PHA monomers. Although the substrate specificities of class I and class II PhaCs are different, they have one similarity, whereby both comprise one type of subunit (Sudesh et al., 2000; Sudesh, 2012). Examples of class I PhaCs are PhaCs from *Cupriavidus necator* (PhaC_{Cn}) while class II can be found in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (PhaC_{Pa}). On the other hand, Class III PhaC comprises two subunits, forming a heterodimer. The heterodimer is formed by PhaC and PhaE subunits, which are identified in Allochromatium vinosum while class IV PhaCs consist of PhaC and PhaR subunits, which can be found in Bacillus megaterium (McCool & Cannon, 2001). However, there are also a few PhaCs which can polymerize both SCL- and MCL-PHA such as PhaC from Chromobacterium sp. USM2 (PhaCcs) and PhaC from mangrove soil metagenome (PhaC_{BP-M-CPF4}) (Bhubalan et al., 2010; Foong et al., 2018).

Table 2.1: Classes of PhaCs

Class	Subunits	Substrate	Representative species
I	PhaC	SCL-HA-CoA	Cupriavidus necator
	~60 – 73 kDa		
Π	$\begin{array}{c c} \hline PhaC1 & PhaC2 \\ \hline \sim 60 - 65 \text{ kDa} \end{array}$	MCL-HA-CoA	Pseudomonas aeruginosa
III		SCL-HA-CoA:	Allochromatium vinosum
	PhaC PhaE	MCL-HA-CoA	
	~ 40 kDa ~ 40 kDa		
IV	PhaC PhaR	SCL-HA-CoA	Bacillus megaterium
	$\sim 40 \text{ kDa} \sim 22 \text{ kDa}$		

2.2.1 PhaC from *Chromobacterium* sp. USM2 (PhaC_{Cs})

Chromobacterium sp. USM2 is a PHA producer discovered in Langkawi, Malaysia. It was reported to produce P(3HB) homopolymer from glucose, fructose, hexanoic acid, or CPKO. A previous study reported that the PhaC_{Cs} has high preference towards 3HV monomers when cultured with sodium valerate, sodium propionate, or valeric acid as carbon sources (Steinbüchel et al., 1993; Kolibachuk et al., 1999; Bhubalan et al., 2010). It can accumulate up to 98 mol% of 3HV from sodium valerate. Nevertheless, when valeric acid is used as the sole carbon source, it affects cell growth when used in a high concentration. Higher concentrations of 3HV precursors will inhibit cell growth due to toxicity, resulting in low PHA content and cell dry weight (Park et al., 2001). Besides that, PhaC_{Cs} was also reported to incorporate 3HB, 3HV, and 3HHx when heterologous expressed in C. necator PHB⁻⁴. The heterologous expression of PhaC_{Cs} in C. necator PHB⁻⁴ could produce P(3HB-co-3HV) with up to 60 mol% of 3HV monomer composition in the presence of fructose and sodium valerate. Besides that, C. necator PHB⁻⁴ harboring $phaC_{Cs}$ could produce P(3HB-co-3HHx) with 4 mol% of 3HHx from CPKO (Bhubalan et al., 2010). Furthermore, C. necator PHB-4 harboring *phaC*_{Cs} could produce P(3HB-*co*-3HV-*co*-3HHx) terpolymer from the combination of CPKO and sodium valerate or sodium propionate (Bhubalan et al., 2010). These findings showed the potential of $PhaC_{Cs}$ to incorporate both SCL- and MCL-PHA. Bhubalan et al. (2011) also reported that the polymerization activity of purified PhaC_{Cs} towards 3HB-CoA was 8-fold higher than that of PhaC from C. necator (PhaC_{Cn}) and also has the highest enzymatic activity among all reported purified PhaCs with superior polymerizing ability (Bhubalan et al., 2011).

2.2.2 PhaC from *Aquitalea* sp. USM4

Aquitalea sp. USM4 was first isolated from a waterfall in Perak, Malaysia. It is a Gram-negative bacterium that possesses a high sequence identity which is nearly 99% to Aquitalea magnusonii. Later, the whole genome sequence of Aquitalea sp. USM4 was further analyzed and renamed as Aquitalea pelogenes USM4 (Wan et al., 2023). Aquitalea sp. USM4 was able to produce PHA using sugars such as glucose, fructose, and sucrose, but it was unable to accumulate PHA when CPKO was utilized as a carbon source (Ng & Sudesh, 2016). However, the heterologous expression of the PhaC of Aquitalea sp. USM4 (PhaC_{As}) in C. necator PHB⁻⁴ could produce PHA from CPKO. It was also reported that C. necator PHB⁻⁴ harboring phaCAs was able to accumulate PHA at 2-fold higher than Aquitalea sp. USM4 from sugar. It was reported that the synthase activity of the C. necator transformant harboring $phaC_{As}$ was higher than that of wild-type Aquitalea sp. USM4 which was suggested due to higher enzyme expression level. The synthase activity of the heterologous expression of the PhaC1_{As} in C. necator PHB⁻⁴ (1402 U/g) was comparable to the PhaC from A. caviae (PhaC_{Ac}) (1600 U/g) (Kichise et al., 1999; Ng & Sudesh, 2016). Both the wild-type Aquitalea sp. USM4 and C. necator PHB⁻⁴ harboring phaCAs could incorporate 3HB, 3HV, 4HB, and 3H4MV when appropriate precursors were supplemented (Ng & Sudesh, 2016; Lim et al., 2021). Overall, it showed that PhaC_{As} has high activity and wide substrate specificity (Ng & Sudesh, 2016; Teh et al., 2018).

2.2.3 PhaC from mangrove metagenome (PhaC_{BP-M-CPF4})

PhaC_{BP-M-CPF4} was isolated from the metagenome of the mangrove soil from Balik Pulau, Penang, Malaysia. This PhaC was reported to have a wide substrate specificity enabling it to accumulate SCL-PHA and MCL-PHA from suitable precursors, including P(3HB), P(3HB-co-3HV), P(3HB-co-4HB), P(3HB-co-3H4MV), P(3HB-co-5HV), and P(3HB-co-3HHx). This PhaC has the potential to be used for the production of PHA for medical applications due to its ability to incorporate 4HB and 5HV monomer units which are susceptible to lipase degradation (Foong et al., 2018). PhaC_{BP-M-CPF4} could incorporate also up to 23 mol% of 5HV when supplemented with fructose and sodium 5-hydroxyvalerate. When fructose and sodium 4-hydroxybutyrate were used as substrates, it also accumulated up to 14 mol% of 4HB. Foong et al. (2018) also reported that C. necator PHB⁻⁴ harboring PhaC_{BP-M-CPF4} was able to produce 44 wt% of P(3HB-co-3HHx) with 18 mol% of 3HHx when supplemented with fructose and sodium hexanoate whereas when supplied with CPKO as sole carbon source, 62 wt% of P(3HB-co-3HHx) with 7 mol% was accumulated. Furthermore, Tan et al. (2020) reported that the co-expression of PhaJ from P. aeruginosa and PhaCBP-M-CPF4 in C. necator transformants could increase the 3HHx monomer composition in PHA copolymer.

2.3 PHA biosynthesis pathways

Different carbon sources and precursors uptake by microorganisms will enter different pathways and eventually form HA-CoA which are PHA monomers. These HA-CoA will then be polymerized into PHA polymer by PhaCs (Sudesh *et al.*, 2000). Various pathways can be used by the bacteria to supply the PHA monomers for PHA biosynthesis. For instance, tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle, fatty acid β -oxidation, and fatty acid *de novo* synthesis (Madison & Huisman, 1999).

The simplest pathway is P(3HB) biosynthesis pathway. This pathway involved three PHA main genes which are *phaA*, *phaB*, and *phaC* that encode β -ketothiolase (PhaA), nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADPH) reductase (PhaB), and PhaC, respectively. When sugar or oil or any carbon source is supplied, the most common intermediate formed will be acetyl-CoA. The conversion of acetyl-CoA into PHA involved three enzymatic steps (Anderson & Dawes, 1990; Sudesh et al., 2000). First, PhaA catalyzes the condensation of two molecules of acetyl-CoA into acetoacetyl-CoA followed by the reduction of acetoacetyl-CoA into (R)-3-hydroxybutyryl-CoA [(R)-3HB-CoA] through a reduction reaction by PhaB. Lastly, PhaC will catalyze the polymerization of (R)-3HB-CoA into P(3HB) (Figure 2.2, pink colour pathway).

In the fatty acid β -oxidation pathway, triglycerides will first be broken down into glycerol and fatty acids. Acyl-CoA synthetase (FadD) catalyzes the conversion of fatty acids to acyl-CoA. Acyl-CoA dehydrogenase (FadE) catalyzes the oxidation of acyl-CoA into *trans*-2-enoyl-CoA. Then, enoyl-CoA hydratase (FadB) catalyzes the hydration of *trans*-2-enoyl-CoA into (*S*)-3-HA-CoA. Next, 3-HA-CoA dehydrogenase (Had) catalyzes the oxidation of (*S*)-3-HA-CoA into 3-ketoacyl-CoA. Then, 3-ketoacyl-CoA thiolase (FadA) will catalyze the conversion of 3-ketoacyl-CoA back into acyl-CoA by releasing one acetyl-CoA. The acetyl-CoA will be converted into P(3HB) homopolymer using the *phaA*, *phaB*, and *phaC* genes. (*R*)-specific enoyl-CoA hydratase (PhaJ) is an enzyme that catalyzes the hydration of six carbons *trans*-2-enoyl-CoA into (*R*)-3-HA-CoA (Fukui *et al.*, 1998; Tang *et al.*, 2022). PhaC will then polymerize the (*R*)-3-HA-CoA into PHA (Figure 2.2, purple colour pathway).

In fatty acids *de novo* synthesis pathway, acetyl-CoA will convert into malonyl-CoA followed by conversion into malonyl-ACP *via* catalytic reaction by malonyl-CoA-ACP transacylase (FabD). β -ketoacyl-ACP synthase (FabB) catalyzes the conversion of malonyl-ACP to 3-ketoacyl-ACP followed by conversion into (*R*)-3-HA-CoA, catalyzed by 3-ketoacyl-ACP reductase (FabG). PhaC polymerizes (*R*)-3-HA-CoA into PHA (Figure 2.2, purple colour pathway) (Rehm *et al.*, 2001; Tsuge, 2002).

When sodium propionate or sodium valerate is supplemented, it leads to the formation of propionyl-CoA (Steinbüchel & Lütke-Eversloh, 2003). Propionyl-CoA and acetyl-CoA will be condensed to form 3-ketovaleryl-CoA, catalyzed by 3-ketothiolase (BktB). Ketovaleryl-CoA will be reduced to form (*R*)-3-hydroxyvaleryl-CoA by PhaB, then polymerized by PhaC (Figure 2.2, orange colour pathway).

When 4HB precursors are used as carbon sources, microorganisms that can express succinic semialdehyde dehydrogenase (*sucD*), 4-hydroxybutyrate dehydrogenase (*4hbD*), and succinyl-CoA: CoA transferase (*orfZ*) can produce P(3HB-*co*-4HB) (Valentin *et al.*, 1995). First, succinyl-CoA from the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle is converted to succinic semialdehyde, catalyzed by *sucD*. Then, succinic semialdehyde is converted to 4-hydroxybutyrate *via* the catalytic reaction of *4hbD* followed by conversion to 4HB-CoA *via* a catalytic reaction of *orfZ* (Figure 2.2, dark blue colour pathway). With the supplies of γ -butyrolactone, the lactone is cleaved into 4-hydroxybutyric acid, catalyzed by esterases or lactonases, and then converted into 4HB-CoA by transferase or thiokinase (Figure 2.2, green colour pathway). When ω -alkanediols such as 1,4-butanediol and 1,6-hexanediol are used as 4HB precursors, they will be oxidized to 4-hydroxybutyric acid to form 4-hydroxybutyryl-CoA and then converted to 4-hydroxybutyrate (Figure 2.2, green and dark red colour pathway) (Kunioka *et al.*, 1989). With the incorporation of 3HB monomers, P(3HB-*co*-4HB) copolymer is formed. The PHA biosynthesis pathways are shown in Figure 2.2.

With the supplies of the precursors or structurally related substrates, the copolymers can be produced from biosynthesis. For example, sodium propionate or sodium valerate are the precursors that are used to produce P(3HB-*co*-3HV). Sodium 4-hydroxybutyrate, 1,4-butanediol or γ -butyrolactone are used to synthesis P(3HB-*co*-4HB) whereas isocaproic acid is used to produce P(3HB-*co*-3H4MV) (Kunioka *et al.*, 1989; Lütke-Eversloh *et al.*, 2001; Bhubalan *et al.*, 2008; Ling *et al.*, 2011).



Figure 2.2: Metabolic pathway of PHA biosynthesis. Pink, purple, and orange colour represent the pathway of P(3HB), P(3HB-*co*-3HHx), and P(3HB-*co*-3HV), respectively. Dark blue, green, and dark red colour represent the pathway of P(3HB-*co*-4HB). Abbreviation: PHA, polyhydroxyalkanoate; PhaA, β-ketothiolase; PhaB, NADPH-dependent acetoacetyl-CoA reductase; PhaC, PHA synthase; FadA, 3-ketoacyl-CoA thiolase; FadB, enoyl-CoA hydratase; FadD, acyl-CoA synthetase; FadE, acyl-CoA dehydrogenase; FabG, 3-ketoacyl-CoA reductase; 3HB-CoA,

(*R*)-3-hydroxybutyryl-CoA; PhaJ, (*R*)-specific enoyl-CoA hydratase; *sucD*, succinic semialdehyde dehydrogenase; *4hbD*, 4-hydroxybutyrate dehydrogenase; *OrfZ*, succinyl-CoA: CoA transferase. Adapted from Sudesh *et al.* (2000) and Tsuge (2002)

2.4 Types of PHA

2.4.1 P(3HB)

P(3HB) homopolymer was first discovered by Maurice Lemoigne in the year 1925 (Lemoigne, 1926). It is the most common, widely studied, and well-characterized PHAs (Madison & Huisman, 1999). The chemical structure of P(3HB) homopolymer is shown in Figure 2.3. In the 1980s, it was produced by Imperial Chemical Industries through an industrial-scale fermentation process. It appears in an amorphous state in its granule (Holmes, 1988). The melting temperature of the polymer is approximately 180 °C and its glass transition temperature is around 4 °C. The mechanical properties of P(3HB) are close to polypropylene (PP). The Young's modulus of P(3HB) is 3.5 GPa whereas the tensile strength is 43 MPa. However, the elongation at break of P(3HB) is lower than that of PP (5% versus 400%) (Sudesh et al., 2000). Hence, P(3HB) is stiffer and more brittle than PP. Since P(3HB) is brittle, has high melting temperature, and hard to be heat processed, it has limited application. Therefore, extensive work on improving the properties of PHA has been done. For instance, the incorporation of other PHA monomers such as 3HV, 3HHx, and 4HB into P(3HB) homopolymer had caused changes in the mechanical and physical properties, attracting more attention from academic and industrial (Anderson & Dawes, 1990; Madison & Huisman, 1999; Loo & Sudesh, 2007). Besides that, the recombinant bacteria had been constructed to produce P(3HB) with better physical and mechanical properties. A previous study showed that a recombinant E. coli harboring PHA biosynthesis gene from C. necator was capable of producing P(3HB) homopolymer with ultra-high molecular weight (Kusaka et al., 1998).



Figure 2.3: Chemical structure of P(3HB). 'n' represents number of repeating units.

2.4.2 P(3HB-co-3HV)

P(3HB-co-3HV) is made up of 3HB and 3HV monomer units. The chemical structure of this copolymer is shown in Figure 2.4. In the 1980s, Imperial Chemical Industries (ICI) introduced it to the market as BiopolTM, marking its initial commercialization. The substrates supplemented for the production of P(3HB-co-3HV) random copolymers were propionic acid and glucose (Holmes, 1988). The 3HV monomer compositions obtained ranged from 0 - 30 mol%. P(3HB-co-3HV) copolymer shows isodimorphism, causing both 3HV and 3HB monomer units to co-crystallize in either of the polymer crystal lattices. Therefore, the degree of crystallinity of P(3HB-co-3HV) remains almost similar to P(3HB), which means this property of this copolymer did not change as compared to P(3HB) (Bluhm et al., 1986; Sudesh et al., 2000). However, varying 3HV monomer shows a significant effect on P(3HB-co-3HV) copolymer. The tensile strength and Young's Modulus of P(3HB-co-3HV) films decreased as the 3HV monomer composition increased from 0 to 25 mol%, which also means that the flexibility of (3HB-co-3HV) films increased too. Furthermore, P(3HB-co-3HV) with 28 mol% of 3HV has increased elongation at break as high as 700 %. When 3HV monomer composition increased from 0 to 25 mol%, the melting temperature (T_m) decreased without affecting the thermal degradation temperature (Sudesh & Abe, 2010).



Figure 2.4: Chemical structure of P(3HB-*co*-3HV). 'x' and 'y' represent repeating unit of each monomer.

2.4.3 P(3HB-co-3HHx)

P(3HB-*co*-3HHx) copolymer is comprised of 3HB and 3HHx monomers. The chemical structure of this copolymer is shown in Figure 2.5. Due to its longer alkyl side chain, 3HHx prevents isodimorphism between 3HB and 3HHx monomer units. Both monomer units are not able to fit into the crystalline lattices of each other (Doi *et al.*, 1995). When 3HHx increased from 0 to 25 mol%, the crystallinity of this copolymer decreased from 60 to 18 %. As 3HHx molar compositions increased from 0 to 17 mol%, the elongation at break of this copolymer increased from 6 to 850 % while its tensile strength decreased from 43 to 20 MPa (Sudesh & Abe, 2010). The copolymer becomes softer and more flexible as 3HHx increases (Asrar *et al.*, 2002). The melting temperature of P(3HB-*co*-3HHx) copolymer with 5 mol% of 3HHx is less than 155 °C and it can be as low as 52 °C when 3HHx molar composition further increased to 25 mol% (Doi *et al.*, 1995; Loo *et al.*, 2005). P(3HB-*co*-3HHx) is a potential copolymer to be used in blending to obtain a better-quality polymer (Freier, 2006).



Figure 2.5: Chemical structure of P(3HB-*co*-3HHx). 'x' and 'y' represent repeating units of each monomer.

2.4.4 P(3HB-co-4HB)

P(3HB-*co*-4HB) copolymer is made up of 3HB and 4HB monomer units. The number of carbon atoms of 4HB monomer units is the same as 3HB except that it does not have an alkyl side group. The structure of 4HB is linear thus, avoiding the co-crystallization between 4HB and 3HB monomer units in the 3HB crystal lattice. 4HB has altered the 3HB crystal lattice thoroughly. There is a deformation process in the 4HB lattice for them to fit into the 3HB monomer lattice (Mitomo *et al.*, 2001). The chemical structure of this copolymer is shown in Figure 2.6. It was reported that the increment of 4HB molar fractions from 0 to 64 mol% showed a declining trend in the crystallinity of P(3HB-*co*-4HB) from 60 to 15 %. However, when 4HB molar fractions increased from 78 to 100 mol%, the crystallinity of P(3HB-*co*-4HB) increased from 15 to 34 %. The T_m of P(3HB-*co*-4HB) copolymer is lower than P(3HB) homopolymer. As 4HB monomer compositions increase from 0 to 100 mol%, T_m decreases from 178 to 50 °C. Meanwhile, the glass transition temperature (T_g) also showed a declining trend. The incorporation of 4HB monomer composition into P(3HB) homopolymer makes the copolymer more elastomeric and flexible. The elongation at break values of

P(3HB-*co*-82 mol% 4HB) could be as high as 1320 % showing that this copolymer was very flexible. However, as 4HB monomer composition further increases from 82 to 100 mol%, it shows a declining trend in the elongation at break from 1320 to 1000 %. When 4HB monomer compositions in the P(3HB-*co*-4HB) copolymer are more than 64 mol%, the tensile strength increases up to 104 MPa (Saito *et al.*, 1995). P(3HB-*co*-4HB) copolymers are biocompatible and bioabsorbable, making them suitable for various medical applications. Examples of medical applications are surgical sutures, implantation, and gauzes (Jaeger *et al.*, 1995; Martin & Williams, 2003).



Figure 2.6: Chemical structure of P(3HB-*co*-4HB). 'x' and 'y' represent repeating units of each monomer.

2.5 Application of PHA

PHA has a wide range of interesting properties and can be applied in various fields such as packaging, single-use items, tissue engineering, the skin care industry, and agriculture. It has been commercialized in the United States (Danimer Scientific), Japan (KANEKA), Germany (Biomer), China (Bluepha), and Italy (Bio-On) (Tan *et al.*, 2021; Koller & Mukherjee, 2022). Table 2.2 shows the applications of PHA and its producing companies.

In single-use applications, P(3HB-*co*-3HHx) was used as shopping bags, bottles, food containers, drinking straws, and coffee capsules by KANEKA Corporation, Danimer Scientific, and Metabolix due to its close resemblance to PP and low-density polyethylene (Reddy *et al.*, 2022; Tang *et al.*, 2022). In addition, P(3HB-*co*-3HHx) has been evaluated for potential utilization in the cosmetics and skin care industry as a facial oil-absorbing film (Sudesh *et al.*, 2007). It was also reported that PHA films can absorb sebum from the skin even in the absence of any supplementary lipophilic additives. The transparency on P(3HB-*co*-3HHx) films indicated that oil was absorbed into the films. Besides facial oil-blotting film, P(3HB) is also applied as micro powder-based sun creams, developed by Unilever to increase water resistance and minimize their effects to the environment (Reddy *et al.*, 2022).

In the agricultural field, PHAs are used as eco-friendly mulch because of their potential to improve the soil structure, retain moisture, and reduce environmental pollution (Samrot *et al.*, 2021). Biodegradable mulch made of P(3HB-*co*-3HHx) copolymer had been patented by Danimer Scientific (Chen, 2009). PHAs are also used to make agricultural nets to improve crop yield and protect them from harmful factors such as insects and birds. The PHA-based agricultural nets are compostable and can be disposed of directly into the soil (Guerrini *et al.*, 2017). Furthermore, growing bags

made of PHA do not release hazardous substances into the soil once they are degraded. The degraded PHA monomers can also serve as a carbon source which can improve microbial growth and increase the fertility of the soil (Samrot *et al.*, 2021). PHAs can also be applied as a coating for controlled-release fertilizers, pesticides, or herbicides. Due to the biodegradability of PHA, as PHA degrades, it releases the compounds slowly and efficiently to the target site, minimizing the negative impact on the plants and environment (Grillo *et al.*, 2011).

Due to the biocompatibility and bioresorbability of PHA such as P(4HB) and P(3HB-*co*-4HB), it has the potential to be applied in tissue engineering scaffolds, osteosynthetic materials, surgical sutures, and cardiovascular patches (Martin & Williams, 2003). In the medical field, the scaffold and sutures made from P(3HB-*co*-4HB) encourage cell attachment, proliferation, and differentiation. They can be implanted into the human body without triggering any severe immune response or side effects. For example, the tissue response towards P(3HB-*co*-4HB) copolymers electrospun implant in a rat model showed improvement with increasing 4HB monomer composition (Tang *et al.*, 2008). Besides that, TephaFLEXTM absorbable suture made from P(4HB) is one excellent example of a PHA-based biomaterial that has received United States Food and Drug Administration approval (Tang *et al.*, 2010).