Microbial Biosurfactants as Additives for Food Industries

Jenyffer Medeiros Campos and Tânia Lúcia Montenegro Stamford

Dept. de Nutrição, Universidade Federal de Pernambuco, Programa de Pós-graduação em Nutrição, Av. Prof. Moraes Rego, 1235, Cidade Universitária, Recife, CEP: 50670-901, PE, Brazil

Leonie Asfora Sarubbo, Juliana Moura de Luna, and Raquel Diniz Rufino

Centro de Ciências e Tecnologia, Universidade Católica de Pernambuco, Rua do Príncipe, 526, Boa Vista, Recife CEP: 50050-900, PE, Brazil

Ibrahim M. Banat

School of Biomedical Sciences, Faculty of Life and Health Sciences, University of Ulster, BT52 1SA, Northern Ireland, U.K.

DOI 10.1002/btpr.1796

Published online Month 00, 2013 in Wiley Online Library (wileyonlinelibrary.com)

Microbial biosurfactants with high ability to reduce surface and interfacial surface tension and conferring important properties such as emulsification, detergency, solubilization, lubrication and phase dispersion have a wide range of potential applications in many industries. Significant interest in these compounds has been demonstrated by environmental, bioremediation, oil, petroleum, food, beverage, cosmetic and pharmaceutical industries attracted by their low toxicity, biodegradability and sustainable production technologies. Despite having significant potentials associated with emulsion formation, stabilization, antiadhesive and antimicrobial activities, significantly less output and applications have been reported in food industry. This has been exacerbated by uneconomical or uncompetitive costing issues for their production when compared to plant or chemical counterparts. In this review, biosurfactants properties, present uses and potential future applications as food additives acting as thickening, emulsifying, dispersing or stabilising agents in addition to the use of sustainable economic processes utilising agro-industrial wastes as alternative substrates for their production are discussed. © 2013 American Institute of Chemical Engineers Biotechnol. Prog., 000:000–000, 2013

Keywords: biosurfactants, food additives, bioemulsifiers, thickeners, solubilisers

Introduction

Surfactants are chemical compounds made up of amphipathic molecules containing hydrophilic and hydrophobic moieties that partition at the interface between liquid, gas, and solid phases such as oil—water or air—water interfaces, which have varying degrees of polarity and hydrogen bridges. The nonpolar portion is often a hydrocarbon chain, whereas the polar portion may be ionic (cationic or anionic), non-ionic or amphoteric. Figure 1 shows the general surfactants structures.

Surfactants are characterized by their capacity to alter the surface and interfacial properties of a liquid, which allows the formation of microemulsions, in which oils can become solubilized in water or vice-versa.² Such properties enable a wide range of industrial applications, including emulsification, detergency, foaming capacity, lubrication, moisture retention, solubilization, and phase dispersion.^{3,4} In recent years, surfactants produced by micro-organisms have attracted attention and as an ecologically adaptable, biologically safe, environmental friendly, and effective type of molecules.

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to L.A. Sarubbo at leonie@unicap.br

Surface tension which is an important parameter for surfactants effectiveness measures the force of attraction between the molecules of liquids, which significantly diminishes when the surfactant concentration in an aqueous medium is increased and micelles are formed. Micelles are aggregated amphipathic molecules with the hydrophilic and hydrophobic portion positioned toward the external on internal part of the micelle depending on whether the environment is water or oil, with hydrophilic moiety facing water and the hydrophobic moiety facing oil.⁵ The critical micelle concentration (CMC) is the minimal concentration of surfactant needed to reduce surface tension to the maximal degree after which additional surfactants have no further effect. When the CMC is reached, a number of micelles are formed.⁶ The CMC is the most frequently used measure for the assessment of surfactant activity and can also be defined as the solubility of a surfactant in the aqueous phase.⁷ Efficiency and effectiveness are essential characteristics that determine a good surfactant; the former is usually determined by the CMC, whereas the latter is related to surface and interfacial tensions.8

Surfactant effectiveness is also determined by studying its hydrophilic-lipophilic balance (HLB), which indicates whether a biosurfactant is likely to form water-in-oil or oil-inwater emulsion. This is determined by calculating values for

1

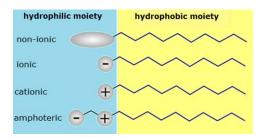


Figure 1. General surfactant structures according to the composition of their hydrophilic moieties and into nonionic, anionic, cationic, amphoteric compositions.

the different regions of the molecule and varies between 0 and 20. HLB values therefore are usually used to determine likely suitable applicability of surfactants. Emulsifiers with high HLB for example confers better solubility of oil in water, whereas those with low HLB value have the opposite effect and are more lipophilic in nature stabilizing water-in-oil.⁶

Most commercially available surfactants are chemically synthesized from the petrochemical industry and currently account for 70–75% of all surfactants used in the industrialized nations. The total market value of surfactants in 2012 is $\approx\!12$ million tons when compared with 3.5 million tons for bio-based surfactants. The bio-based portion of the market has revenue of \$ 6,588 million. New environmental legislations however have led to the search for natural surfactants as an alternative to existing products. This trend is fuelled by the search for environmentally friendlier products for the replacement of nonbiodegradable compounds (branched alkyl benzenes), as well as the enhancement of product specificity.

There has been considerable interest in methods for obtaining surfactants from microorganisms. ^{12,13} A number of compounds with surfactant properties are synthesized by living organisms, such as plants (saponins), microorganisms (glycolipids) and even humans (biliary salts), which are considered natural surfactants. ¹⁴

The term biosurfactant is used loosely in that it usually includes emulsifying and dispersing agents that are mainly metabolic byproducts from yeasts, bacteria and filamentous fungi. Compounds with these characteristics are useful to the petroleum, petrochemical, food, beverage, pharmaceutical, ^{15–18} cosmetic, mining, metallurgical, agrochemical, paper and other industries. ^{19,20} The use of surfactants has been mainly concentrated in areas of cleaning (soaps and detergents), environmental petroleum, and cosmetic industries. ^{21,22} During the past two decades worldwide use of surfactants has expanded a great deal, estimates of volume of ~9 million tonnes in 1995 increasing to 13 million tonnes in 2008 and 15.6 million in 2012 have been reported ^{9,23} with the majority used as raw material for the manufacturing of industrial and household detergents.

Most literature on biosurfactant applications have been concentrating on bioremediation of hydrocarbon pollution and pollutants in addition to microbial enhanced oil recovery. These microbial compounds, however, exhibit a variety of useful properties and applications that are relevant in various fields. In this review, we discuss the potential roles and applications of biosurfactants mainly focusing on areas such as food and food-related industries (as emulsifiers, foaming, wetting, solubilizers). The key features of the microbial biosynthesis of biosurfactants, their physicochemi-

cal and bioactive properties, and their food industry application potential are summarized. We also provide an overview of the emerging fields for their potential uses and considering the exploitation of agroindustrial wastes as alternative cost effective and sustainable substrates for biosurfactant production.

Biosurfactants Microbial Origin and Classification

Biosurfactants are mainly produced by aerobically growing microorganisms in aqueous media from a carbon source feedstock, for example carbohydrates, hydrocarbons, fats, oils or mixtures thereof. It is believed that biosurfactants are secreted into the culture medium to assist in growth of the microorganism through facilitating transport and translocation of insoluble substrates across cell membranes. All biosurfactants are of nonionic or anionic structures as there are no literature reports of cationic structures; however, in some instances the presence of nitrogen-containing groups imparts a degree of cationic feature to parts of the molecule altering adsorption on dispersed solids or their particle flocculation characteristics. Similar to all surface-active molecules, biosurfactants contain one or several lipophilic and hydrophilic moieties. The lipophilic moiety can be a protein or a peptide with a high proportion of hydrophobic side chains or can be a hydrocarbon chain of a fatty acid with 10-18 carbon atoms, although higher molecular weight fatty acids have been reported. The hydrophilic moiety can be an ester, a hydroxy, a phosphate or carboxylate group, or a sugar carbohydrate.

Chemically synthesized surfactants are normally classified according to their dissociation patterns in water, biosurfactants in comparison are categorized by their chemical composition, mode of action, molecular weight, physicochemical properties and microbial origin. A fast and simple preliminary method of characterization of biosurfactants is by thin-layer chromatography with sequential staining. The actual structure analysis is carried out by various spectrometric and classical chemical methods, which was outlined by Satpute et al. ²⁸

According to molecular weights, biosurfactants are divided into low-molecular-mass compounds including phospholipids, glycolipids and lipopeptides and into high-molecular-mass biosurfactants/bioemulsifiers containing amphipathic polysaccharides, proteins, lipoproteins, Lipopolysaccharides or complex mixtures of these biopolymers. High-molecular-mass biosurfactants are more effective at stabilizing oil-in-water emulsions, whereas low-molecular-mass biosurfactants are efficient in lowering surface and interfacial tensions. 1

A variety of microorganisms are capable of producing biosurfactants with different molecular structures. The following are among the most commonly reported microorganisms investigated for the production of biosurfactants: *Arthrobacter*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Acinetobacter calcoaceticus*, *Bacillus subtilis*, *Candida lipolytica*, and *Torulopsis bombicola*. Most biosurfactants are produced from waterinsoluble substrates, such as solid and liquid hydrocarbons, oils and fats, although many are obtained through soluble substrates or a combination of both types of substrates.³²

Microbial biosurfactants attracted considerable attention because of their characteristics of biodegradability, low toxicity, ecological acceptability, and the ability to be produced

Table 1. Microbial Biosurfactants Main Functions Types and Applications

Functions	Types	Fields of Application
Emulsifier and dispersant	Liposan from Candida lipolytica	Cosmetics, paints, oils, foods
Solubilizer	Lipopeptide from Pseudomonas aeruginosa	Pharmaceuticals and hygiene products
Moisture retention and		, ,
penetration agent	Polysaccharide-protein complex from Curvularia lunata	Pharmaceuticals, textiles and paints
Foaming agent	Glicolipids from Torulopsis bombicola KSM 35	Hygiene products and cosmetics
	Manoprotein from Saccharomyces cerevisiae Rhaminolipids	
Thickener	W.O. 2004/040984 (patent)	Paints and foods
Metal sequestering agent	Rhaminolipids from <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	Mining
	Surfactin and Iturin from Bacillus subtilis Mannosylerythritol	
	lipids from Candida antarcticaRufisan from Candida	
Anti-microbial activity	lipolytica and Lunasan from Candida sphaerica	Biological control of phytopathogens
De-emulsifier	Rhamnolipid from Pseudomonas aeruginosa	Waste treatment and oil recovery
Detergent, cleaner	Glycolipid from Candida antarctica	Detergent manufacturing
Oil mobilization	Sophorolipids from Candida bombicola	Enhanced Oil Recovery
Bioremediation agent	Rhamnolipids from Pseudomonas aeruginosa	Environmental restoration
_	Lipopeptide from Bacillus licheniformis PCT/IB2009/055334	
Biofilms disruption/ penetration	(patent)	Pharmaceutical

Partly adapted from Banat et al.²¹ and Muthusamy et al.²⁶

from low-cost, renewable sources.^{7,33–41} Bacteria account for the greatest production of biosurfactants, surfactin from *Bacillus subtilis*, and rhamnolipids form *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* considered some of the most powerful biosurfactants capable of efficiently reducing surface tension at concentrations below 0.005%. Among yeasts, representatives of the genus *Candida* (class *Deuteromycetes*, order *Saccharomycetales*) have been extensively reported able for the emulsification and solubilization of hydrocarbons and ability to produce biosurfactants. *Candida lipolytica* has been successfully used due to its potential for producing biopolymers with a high degree of emulsification activity using regional substrates as the carbon source.³³

Besides, *Candida*, *Yarrowia* is also among the yeasts investigated for the production of emulsifiers and both genera have been successfully employed in the production of biosurfactants. Their status as "generally regarded as safe" (GRAS) is a considerable advantage to the use of yeasts and demonstrates that these microorganisms do not exhibit risks of toxicity or pathogenicity, thereby allowing their use in the food industry. *Yarrowia lipolytica*, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, and *Kluyveromyces lactis* are examples of such yeasts.³⁸

Bacillus amyloliquefaciens and other members of the Bacillus subtilis group are also considered safe and classified with the GRAS status, with some cellular non biosurfactant products. A few notable examples are the enzymatic preparation pectate lyase from Bacillus subtilis (GRAS n° 114), α -amylase derived from Bacillus licheniformis (GRAS n° 79) and pullulanase from Bacillus licheniformis (GRAS n° 72).

Biosurfactants Proprieties and Applications

Biosurfactants have varied applications in different industrial processes; and due to their diverse structures and properties it is likely that new applications for these biomolecules will be discovered. It is therefore believed that during the upcoming years biosurfactants will become known as "multifunctional materials." ^{22,26}

Biosurfactants are quite versatile chemical compounds as they have or can be applied in different fields, such as in enhancement of oil recovery as well as the biodegradation of water-insoluble pollutants and materials processed in the food industry. They are most often employed in the petroleum industry in which they play a part in the oil

extraction process or are incorporated in lubricant formulations. Owing to their action on the oil–water interface, they have been used in the bioremediation of contaminated water and soil for the emulsification and dispersal of hydrocarbons, thereby enhancing the degradation of such compounds in the environment. Other applications include the dispersal of oil spills, the removal and mobilization of oil residues in storage tanks and microbial enhanced oil recovery. 43,45

Lin et al. 46 employed biosurfactants for the partial solubilization of coal using a biosurfactant solution produced by *Candida bombicola*, whereas Mulligan 47 used sophorolipids, rhamnolipids, and surfactin in the removal of heavy metals from sediments. Other uses of biosurfactants have also been reported in the paper, textile and ceramic industries, as well as in uranium processing. 48 Similarly, a number of other industrial products require similar surfactants in their composition such as insect repellents, antacids, contact lens solutions, deodorants, fingernail products, toothpastes among many. 49

Biosurfactants have also found applications in therapeutic, health, and biomedical fields. Their antiviral, antifungal, and antibacterial activities makes them suitable pounds/molecules for use as therapeutic agents, and owing to their biological origin, they are largely considered safer than synthetic pharmaceuticals. 18 Biosurfactants general abilities to disrupt membranes resulting in increased membrane permeability, metabolite leakage and cell lysis, and hence, antimicrobial activity are of relevance in these applications. Moreover, due to their ability to partition at the interfaces properties such as adhesion of cells/microorganisms on surfaces are also affected. Numerous literature describing such biomedical applications of biosurfactants have been published. 15,18,22,50,51

Industrial and environmental processes are often associated with extreme conditions of temperature, pH, and ionic strength. Thus, stability studies under such conditions are important to determine the viability of possible use of some biosurfactants. ^{8,52} Table 1 lists the types of different industries using biosurfactant.

Despite the diversity in the chemical composition and properties of biosurfactants they exhibit a number of characteristics common to most of them and offer advantages over conventional surfactants including the following:

Surface and interfacial activity: which is the contractive tendency of the surface and or adhesive forces of a

liquids that allows them to resist an external force; some biosurfactants are more efficient and effective than conventional surfactants, diminishing the surface tension of liquids at very low concentrations. Surfactin for example can lower the water's surface tension from 72 mN/m to 27 mN/m at a concentration as low as $20 \text{ } \mu\text{M}.^{53}$

Tolerance to temperature, pH, and ionic strength: which is the ability to function under a wide range of each parameter showed many biosurfactants can be used under extreme conditions; glycolipids such as rhamnolipids, sophorolipids, and others are not affected by autoclaving at 120°C under pressure and remain effective within a wide range of pH values 5–10.

Biodegradability: which is the ability to be degraded by biological activities or enzymes shows biosurfactants are easily degraded by bacteria and other microorganisms in water and soil, which makes these molecules particularly suitable for bioremediation processes and waste treatment.

Low toxicity: measuring the degree to which a substance can damage living cells or organisms; biosurfactants have received considerable attention because of growing concerns regarding the allergic effects of artificial products and some preliminary testing showed low toxicity, 54 which favors the use of these substances in food products, cosmetics, and pharmaceuticals.

Availability: or the ease of obtaining the target product shows biosurfactants can be produced from widely available sustainable raw materials and can also be produced using industrial waste as substrate.

Specificity: as complex organic molecules with specific functional groups, biosurfactants also have specific actions, which are of considerable interest regarding the detoxification of specific pollutants or in particular applications in the pharmaceutical, cosmetic, and food industries.

Biocompatibility and digestibility: these properties allow the application of biosurfactants in the pharmaceutical, cosmetic, and food industries.

Emulsion formation and breaking: stable emulsions can be produced with a lifespan of months and years.⁵⁵ Biosurfactants may stabilize (emulsify) or destabilize (de-emulsifiy) the emulsion. Sophorolipids from Torulopsis bombicola have been shown to reduce surface and interfacial tension, but are not as good emulsifiers.⁵⁶ By contrast, liposan does not reduce surface tension, but has been used successfully to emulsify edible oils. Polymeric surfactants offer additional advantages because they coat droplets of oil, thereby forming stable emulsions. This property is especially useful for making oil/water emulsions for cosmetics and food industry uses.²⁶

Many lipopeptide surfactants have potent antibiotic activity and have been studied for the discovery of new antibiotics and as antimicrobials. Moreover, biosurfactants have physiological functions, such as the transport of hydrocarbons, cell adherence/release, and antibiotic activity, although the mechanisms of action remain not fully understood. 16,23,57

Sustainable Biosurfactant Production

High quantity of organic waste materials are generally produced by the food, forestry, municipal, and agriculture

related industries. Recent approaches toward enhancing sustainability and resource recovery has influenced waste management practices and resources production and utilization often supported by directives to reduce waste generation and promote recycling, recovery, reuse, and energy recapture from waste materials such as lignocellulosic materials.⁵⁸

Although biosurfactants have a number of advantages over synthetic surfactants, they are not yet capable of competing cost-wise with chemical surfactants.²³ The increase in environmental awareness, however, has led to the need for the development of biosurfactants as an alternative to existing products.

The fermentation production process is key for reducing the cost of biosurfactant production, which can utilize different microorganisms and renewable substrates. Optimizing culturing conditions such as temperature, duration, agitation speed, pH, and added nutrients in addition to refining both upstream and downstream processes for product recovery allows the acquisition sufficient product with distinct structural characteristics and physical attributes. This makes biosurfactants comparable to synthetic surfactants in terms of efficiency; however, production costs, remain uncompetitive. ⁵⁹

The use of low-cost agro-industrial waste for alternative nutrients substrates would significantly improve the economic problem of biosurfactant production. The main challenge using such waste is obtaining substrates with the proper balance of nutrients to support cell growth, as well as suitable and consistent product yields.

In most agricultural countries the availability of agroindustrial by-products are quite significant; soap stock, a waste generated by the processing/refining soybean oil, palm oil and babassu oil and other vegetable oils refining products including sunflower, soybean, rapeseed, olive, groundnut, sesame, safflower, coconut, palm and mustard oils are all common. Similar availabilities in the United States exist for soybean oil refining processes producing huge quantities of cheap soap stock, retailing at 1/10th the cost of the refined vegetable oil. Utilizing such wastes and reducing associated wastewaters generated from such industries are of great benefit to reduce waste disposal and associated environmental impact of these wastes.

The literature describes many interesting researches with the use of industrial wastes for biosurfactant production. Candida lipolytica for example was grown on ground nut oil for production of a new biosurfactant yields up to 4.5 g/L and also grew well using soybean oil refinery residue as substrate. 7,37 The same group reported a low cost medium for biosurfactant production containing 5.0% groundnut oil refinery residue plus 2.5% corn steep liquor as substrates using Candida sphaerica and reported yields of 4.5 g/L low broth surface tension (26 mN/m) and CMC (0.08%).³⁹ Gusmão et al.65 explored biosurfactant production using Candida glabrata on vegetable fat waste as substrate and reported on the effects and interactions of substrate, yeast extract, and glucose on surfactant production. Coimbra et al.66 reported successful production of biosurfactant using six Candida strains cultivated in substrates for 144 h, including ground nut oil refinery residues and corn steep liquor, whereas Nawawi et al.⁶⁷ used sludge palm oil for biosurfactant production using locally isolated strains. Batista et al.⁶⁸ studied the influence of medium constituents on the production of biosurfactants by Candida tropicalis grown on waste frying oil. Their biosurfactant product showed emulsifications

properties and significant surface tension reduction to 33.6 mN/m. Luna and group⁶⁹ characterized biosurfactant produced from industrial waste by *Candida sphaerica* UCP 0995 reporting surface tension reduction in the medium up to 25 mN/m. Fleurackers⁷⁰ also showed sophorolipids production by *Candida bombicola* ATCC 22214 using restaurant oil waste, whereas Shah et al.⁷¹ reported yield of 34 g/L sophorolipids on restaurant oil waste using batch and fed batch fermentations.

Comparable observations were reported for rhamnolipids production using low-cost carbon substrates such as soybean, cottonseed, babassu, palm and corn oil, and strain Pseudomonas aeruginosa LBI. Soybean soap stock waste was reported best for this strain giving yields of 11.7 g/L rhamnolipids, 45 whereas Benicasa and Accorsini 72 reported using this strain in an integrated production process on wastes from refining sunflower oil. Similarly, Zhu et al. 73 reported 20 g/L rhamnolipids using Pseudomonas aeruginosa on restaurant waste oil in bioreactor configurations. Rocha and coworkers⁷⁴ reported the ability to produce biosurfactants from Pseudomonas aeruginosa using cashew apple juice and mineral media supplemented with peptone and nutritive broth. Glycerol, a by-product of biodiesel production processes, was also used to produce rhamnolipids using Pseudomonas aeruginosa UCP0992 achieving yields of 8.0 g/L with significant surface tension reduction (27.4 mN/m), emulsification index (E24) value of 80%, and CMC of 700 mg/L after 72 h^{75} .

Aparna and coworkers⁷⁶ evaluated five different low cost carbon substrates for biosurfactant production by *Pseudomonas sp.*2B. Using medium containing 1% molasses they reported biosurfactant yield of ≈5g/L and surface tension reduction to 30 mN/m. Cassava waste water + waste cooking oil were also successfully used to produce biosurfactant form *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* L2-1, which formed stable emulsions and low surface tension of 30 mN/m. Dubey et al⁷⁷ described the production of biosurfactants form crude whey by *Pseudomonas* PP2 and *Kokuria turfanesis* strain-j. The biosurfactants showed differences in their surface-active property and specificity to emulsify hydrophobic compounds under extreme conditions of temperature, pH, and salinity.

Another group based in Brazil have reported on the utilization of mineral medium containing clarified cashew apple juice by *Bacillus subtilis* LAMI008 strain. Al-Bahry et al. Oman used date molasses for fermentation production of biosurfactants using *Bacillus subtilis* B20 and obtained a product yield of 2.3 g/L. The biosurfactant reduced the surface tension to 25 mN/m and showed significant stability under a wide range of temperatures, pH, and salt concentrations. Other agro-industrial wastes such as potato peels were also successfully used for biosurfactant production using two *Bacillus subtilis* strains in fermentation systems. The fermentation process resulted in biosurfactant (lipopeptides) with good surface activity and yield.

Portilla-Rivera et al.⁸² were the first to look in to the capability of *Lactobacillus* sp. to use hemicellulosic hydrolyzates from various agricultural residues for simultaneous production of biosurfactants and lactic acid. The use of such dual production strategy makes biosurfactant more economically viable.

Biosurfactant structure, concentration and recovery process determine the viability of large-scale production and technologies involved its extraction process. Thus, it is of fundamental importance to develop strategies that allow the production and consequent downstream processing on an industrial scale, such as the use of low-cost substrates, the selection of highly productive microorganisms, and suitable extraction and purification processes. 48,66

One possible solution is the use of industrial by-products, such as vegetal oil residue. For example, large amounts of glycerol are generated by the biodiesel industry and can be used as a low-cost carbon source in the production of biosurfactants.⁸³ Glycerol, however, may be inhibitory for some microorganisms at high concentrations. Moreover, variations in the composition of the culture medium can also allow an increase in productivity through culture conditions optimization.³⁷ Another technology developing for biosurfactant production from agro industrial residuals is use of solid-state fermentation processes using filamentous fungi such as Aspergillus fumigatus.⁸⁴ Ohno et al (1995) reported the utilization of soybean residues for the simultaneous production of a lipopeptide surfactin and iturin in solid state fermentation (SSF) using Bacillus subtilis NB22.85 Ghribi et al. also reported on the production of biosurfactants using another B. subtilis SPB1in solid state fermentation.86

Huge quantities of industrial waste are generated and discarded in the environment every year. Studies on the selection of adequate, low-cost substrates for the production of biosurfactants highlight the use of agro-industrial waste. Such waste include by-products from processing soybean, corn, coconut, peanut and canola oils and from animal fats, beet sugar, sorghum, soybean husks, sugarcane bagasse, fruit waste, and chicken fat.⁸⁷ Other agroindustrial products include dairy waste, whey, molasses and glycerine, ¹⁹ and cassava roots. ⁶⁰ Substrate selection mainly depends on choosing waste with a balanced of nutrients for microorganism growth and for biosurfactant production such as a high carbohydrate and lipid content. Table 2 displays the different types of waste used by different microorganisms.

The production of biosurfactants by microorganisms using industrial waste as substrate represents an alternative for the production of petroleum based chemical surfactants. Maximum productivity can be achieved through the use of a factorial design aimed at minimizing costs and optimizing production.³⁷ A large number of studies are currently underway for the selection of suitable biosurfactant-producing microorganisms for the food and other industries. Moreover, studies are being carried out for the development of technologies aimed at improving strains and production processes. ¹¹¹

Food Additives

Food additives are ingredient with no nutritional value added to food to modify physical, chemical, biological, or sensory characteristics during the manufacturing, processing, preparation, treatment, packaging, storage, transport or handing. A fundamental principles of additive use is safety therefore before approval for use, an additive must comply with adequate toxicological evaluation, taking into account any accumulative, synergic, and protective effects stemming from its use. 112,113 Additives confer many properties such as thickening gelling, stabilization, and emulsifying. Table 3 lists the currently permitted additives and their properties in these categories. Glyceryl monostearate and carboxymethyl cellulose for example are synthetic emulsifiers that are widely used in the food industry. Despite being extremely

Table 2. The Main Organic Waste Products Used by Biosurfactant-Producing Microorganisms

Waste	Microorganism at Pseudomonas sp	
Olive oil effluent		
Bovine tallow	Candida bombicola	89
Frying oil	Pseudomonas sp.	90
Peanut oil residue	Candida sphaerica UCP 0995	39
Groundnut oil refinery residue and corn	·	
steep liquor	Candida sphaerica UCP 0995	69
Rice stalk	Pseudomonas aeruginosa BSZ07	91
Orange peels	Pseudomonas aeruginosa MTCC 2297	92
Soapstock	Acinetobacter calcoaceticus RGA-1 Acinetobacter calcoaceticus A2	93
Soapstock	Pseudomonas aeruginosa	94
	Aureobasidium pullulans, Xanthomonas campestres ASpergillus niger Aureobasidium pullulans Bacillus subtilis MTCC 2423 Pseudomonas	
Molasses	aeruginosa GS3 Gordonia polyisoprenivorans CCT 7137	95-101
	Ganoderma lucidum Acetobacter xylinus Kluyveromyces fragilis Pseud-	
Whey	monas aeruginosa BS2	102-105
Cassava roots	Aureobasidium pullulans Rhizopus Rhizopus stolonifer LAU 07	106-108
Potato processing waste	Bacillus subtilis ATCC 21332	109,110

Table 3. Some Additives Used in Foods 113-117

INS*	Additive	Function
407 a	Processed Euchema seaweed	thickener/stabilizer/gelling agent
417	Tara gum	thickener/stabilizer
418	Gellan gum	thickener/stabilizer/gelling agent
440	Pectin	thickener/stabilizer/gelling agent
460 ii	Powdered cellulose	anti-humectant/emulsifier/thickener/stiffener
461	Methyl cellulose	thickener/stabilizer
462	Ethyl cellulose	Emulsifier/thickener/stabilizer/stiffener
464	Hydroxypropyl methyl cellulose	Emulsifier/thickener/stabilizer
466	Sodium carboxymethyl cellulose	Thickener
467	Ethyl hydroxyethyl cellulose	Emulsifier/thickener/stabilizer

^{*}INS, International Numbering System.

efficient, these additives have been subject to restrictions particularly by consumers' demands for less use of "artificial" or chemically synthesized additives in favor of more natural ingredients.

Emulsifiers are essential ingredients in many foods particularly those containing oils and fats. They are surface active agents, which facilitate the formation of an emulsion due to their capacity to reduce interfacial tension between two immiscible phases and subsequently stabilize the emulsion formed 118 and improving texture and shelf life. For example, during foam fractionation gas bubbles are introduced into liquid containing surface active substances that leads to foam formation when surface active molecules attach to the gas—liquid interface of the introduced bubbles becoming stabilized. 119

Application of Biosurfactants in Food Industry

Discovering new microbial polysaccharides and surfactants has been a highly sought after accomplishment in many industries to secure new ingredient additives with thickening and stabilizing abilities similar to xanthan gum or a new gelling emulsifier like emulsan. This combined with the desire to reduce dependency on plant emulsifiers produced by genetically modified (GM) crops such as GM modified soybean and availing of other favorable properties, including antioxidants, antiadhesives, antimicrobial, and biofilm disruption capacity has resulted in an increased interest in finding alternative natural sources for biosurfactant amphiphilic molecules suitable for used in new and advanced formulations in food and other industries.

Emulsification plays a role in consistency and texture as well as phase dispersion and the solubilization of aromas in most food industry products. The function of an emulsifier is to stabilize the emulsion by controlling the clustering of globules and stabilizing aerated systems. By definition, an emulsion is a heterogeneous system consisting of at least one immiscible liquid dispersed in another in the form of droplets. The stability of such systems can be enhanced by surfactants, which reduce the interfacial tension, thereby diminishing the surface energy between the two phases and preventing the coalescence of particles through the formation of steric and electrostatic barriers. The emulsification index (E24) is a fast and qualitative method to determine the emulsifying properties of a surfactant.

Emulsifying and dispersing agents used in food products do not necessarily need the ability to reduce the surface tension of water or of hydrocarbons. Cooper and Paddock ¹²³ for example, analyzing some microbial emulsifiers such as the sophorolipids from *Turulopsis bombicola*, demonstrated that they have the power to reduce surface and interfacial tension even if they are not be classified as good emulsifiers. In contrast, liposan has been shown not to reduce the surface tension of water and yet has been used successfully to emulsify commercial edible oils. ¹²⁴

Biosurfactant as food emulsifiers

Food emulsions and colloids are intricate systems consisting of several components of food ingredients. Low molecular weight amphiphiles play and essential role in the stability of such liquid emulsions as (beverages, dressings, sauces and alcoholic emulsions and others). Food colloids therefore mainly consist of blends of monomeric and polymeric hydrocolloids and proteins. Food agencies and health authorities worldwide are constantly enforcing limitations and restrictions on the use of synthetic emulsifiers combined with the desire to reduce dependency on plant emulsifiers produced by genetically modified (GM)¹²⁵ crops has resulted in an increased interest in finding alternative natural sources for such amphiphilic molecules suitable for used in new and advanced food formulations.¹²⁶ In many food industries emulsifiers are used in order to obtain the right consistency and texture of food additives product process. The capacity of surface-active compounds to modifying the rheological characteristics of dough or the emulsification of partially broken fat tissue explains the need for their usage application in bakery and meat processing practices.¹²⁷

A number of natural plant crop derived food emulsifiers, such as lecithin and gum Arabic, have traditionally been accepted by food industries. They, however, occasionally have some functional limitations in some modern process involving irradiation or use of microwaves. They also are increasingly being produced by genetically modified crops worldwide particularly soybean, 126 which creates some limitations for food industries reluctant to use such GM products due to biological and biomedical concerns. 128 An example is the use of lecithin in the food industry, which can be found in the production of cocoa powder and chocolates. Cocoa powder is one of the most popular ingredients in a number of dry mixes for desserts and drinks that are easy to prepare and to store. The advantages of dry mixes products include economical packaging and storage, longer shelf life, and easier transportation. However, one of the difficulties of using cocoa powders in such drinks is its low solubility in water, which resulted in the need to use emulsifiers and surfactants as an ingredient to enhance the ability to obtain such instant mixes. Cocoa powder tends to float on the surface of water because of its poor wettability caused by the presence of cocoa butter that repels water. Changing the hydrophobic (water-repelling) cocoa powder into hydrophilic powder is achieved by coating the cocoa powder particles with lecithin creating and outer surface that has a hydrophilic character enhancing wettability and dispersion.

Concern about the use of chemicals in food coupled with the avoidance to use GM crops such as soybean, which is the main source of lecithin, has intensified the search for natural alternatives that are able to provide wetting, dispersing and emulsifying properties. The production of microbial emulsifiers and biosurfactants offers an alternative to existing additives, some of which are more tailored to modern food processing demands. Mayonnaise, butters, cream, margarine, salad dressing, chocolates, and hotdogs are examples of foods processed from emulsions. A bioemulsifier produced by *Candida utilis* has been reported used in salad dressings 124 and rhamnolipids have also been reported to improve the properties of croissants, butter, and frozen pastries. 26

Saccharomyces cerevisiae mannorprotein produced through a low cost simple biotechnological fermentation process has been used to stabilize water-oil and creating emulsions suitable for the production of mayonnaise, cookies, and ice creams. In addition to stability at a broad pH range, its biomass and by-products can also be used in animal feeds. Most biosurfactant reported produced by yeasts and bacteria exhibits adequate stability at wide ranges of temperatures

and pH values. The yeasts *Candida valida*, *Candida utilis*, *Hansenula anomala*, *Rrhodotorula graminis*, *Rhodospiridium diobovatum* and, the red alga *Porphiridium cruentum* and bacteria belonging to the *Klebsiella* sp and *Acinetobacter calcoaceticus* have been reported as producers of extracellular bioemulsifiers with better stabilizing activity than gum Arabic and carboxymethyl cellulose.⁸

In addition to the obvious role as surface and interfacial tension reducing agents enhancing stabilization of emulsion formation, microbial biosurfactants have other important uses in food including; controlling texture and shelf-life of starch-containing products, improving consistency and texture of fat-based products, agglomeration of fat globules, stabilizing aerated systems, and modifying rheological properties of wheat dough.⁵⁷ In bakery and ice cream formulations biosurfactants have been reported to improve consistency, delaying staling, and solubilizing flavor oils and as fat stabilizers and anti-spattering agents. Rhamnolipids in particular have been used to enhance dough texture, stability, volume and conservation of bakery products; ^{118,129} L-Rhamnose has considerable potential as a precursor for flavoring and it is already used industrially as a precursor of high-quality flavor components like furaneol (strawberry furanone).

Biosurfactants as antioxidant agents

Biosurfactants show some potential as antioxidant agents; Mannosylerythritol lipids (MELs) are versatile biosurfactants known for their versatile interfacial and biochemical properties. Using free-radical and superoxide anion-scavenging assay Takahashi et al. 130 reported antioxidant activity in vitro. They concluded that MEL-C has highest antioxidant and protective effects in cells and suggest potential use as anti-aging skin care ingredients. Similar observations were reported for a biosurfactant obtained from *B. subtilis* RW-I showing antioxidant capacity to scavenge free radicals and suggesting potentials use as alternative natural antioxidants. 131

Some time ago a polysaccharide emulsifier from *Klebsiella* was also shown to have potent inhibition of the auto-oxidation of soybean oil. The emulsifier suppressed soybean oil peroxidation by encapsulation, thereby isolating the oil from the surrounding medium. This polysaccharide was under development in France, as a source of rhamnose for the manufacture of furaneol, a flavor precursor. 124

Biosurfactant as antiadhesives

Several biosurfactants display antiadhesive and antimicrobial activities. ^{133,134} Zeraik and Nitschke ¹³⁵ recently reported antiadhesive activity against attachments of *Listeria monocytogenes, Staphylococcus aureus*, and *Micrococcus luteus* on polystyrene surfaces using rhamnolipids and surfactin. Lunasan produced by the yeast *Candida sphaerica* UCP0995 also completely inhibited the adhesion of several *Streptococcus, Staphylococcus, Pseudomonas, and Candida* strains on plastic tissue culture plates. ¹³⁶ The same research group also described antiadhesive and antimicrobial activities of Rufisan, a biosurfactant produced by the yeast *Candida lipolytica*. ³⁷ Similar observations were reported for biosurfactant produced by the strain *Lactobacillus strains* isolated from a Portuguese dairy plant ¹³⁷ and from fresh cabbages ¹³⁸ and other sources. ¹³⁹ Such antiadhesive activity of biosurfactants against bacteria indicates their potential application either as

coating agents for food related utensils and surfaces or to decrease antifouling rate or occurrence.

Potential applications have been suggested some time ago to decrease microbial fouling in dairy processing caused by microbial attachment to heat exchanger. Such attachments are troublesome because they can cause the contamination of pasteurized milk. Lalande et al. 141 reported when biosurfactants are produced by cells adhering to surfaces act as antiadhesive biological coating which reduces microbial fouling in dairy processing.

L. acidophilus biosurfactant were also reported to inhibit the adhesion of uropathogenic *enterococci* and inhibit the growth of uropathogens known to colonize the human body. Such application of dairy probiotic *L. acidophilus* strain to humans may therefore become possible as a strain suitable for oral delivery as a functional food with desirable effects. ¹⁴²

Role of biosurfactants in biofilm formations

Biofilms are aggregates of microorganisms in which microbial cells adhere to a surface and to each other. They include bacteria and a mixture of microbial extracellular material produced at the surface and any other material trapped within the resulting matrix. In the food industry bacterial biofilms present on surfaces mostly represent sources of contamination, which is often associated with disease transmission and food spoilage. Therefore, minimizing microbial adherence to surfaces in contact with food is an essential step in providing quality safe products to consumers. Biosurfactants involvement in microbial adhesion to, and detachment from surfaces, has been investigated and described above. Meylheuc et al. 143 reported on the preconditioning of stainless steel surfaces with a Pseudomonas fluorescens anionic biosurfactant as a method to reduce the number of Listeria cells adhering to the surfaces that favored disinfectants bactericidal activities. The bioconditioning of surfaces through the use of microbial surfactants has been suggested as a new strategy to reduce adhesion.

Nitschke et al. 144 also reported on the effect of rhamnolipids and surfactin biosurfactants use on the adhesion of several food pathogens to polypropylene and stainless steel surfaces. The use of surfactin in particular caused a reduction in the number of adhering cells on preconditioned stainless steel polypropylene and polystyrene surfaces and delayed bacterial adhesion of both growing and nongrowing cells. Rhamnolipids and other plant biosurfactants have also recently been reported to have some role in the inhibition of complex biofilms and as adjuvants to enhance some antibiotics microbial inhibitors. 145 These properties suggests that biosurfactants could be considered as suitable compounds for developing strategies to delay or prevent microbiological colonization of industrial plant surfaces used for foodstuffs preparation. Other possible future uses may be for biofilms prevention or reduction for oral cavities which are the main surfaces exposed to food stuffs within the human body. Whether such components may eventually become as a part of hygiene products or simply involved in food stuffs such as chewing gums remain to be seen.

Constraints for applications

Despite their potential applications in the food industry biosurfactants are not yet employed as additives on any significant scale. Many of the properties of biosurfactants, wide range of types and nature of the producing microorganisms, in addition to the availability of use food-approved downstream processing are all parameters that are constraining applications. Furthermore regulations governing new ingredients for foods require much research and testing to secure approvals for inclusion. Finally, in relation to use as food additive the lack of toxicity testing combined with the need to secure both consumers and concerned legislative bodies need also to be addressed.

Conclusions

Searching for novel emulsifiers/biosurfactants suitable for food industries has been steadily increasing driven by industries seeking to reduce dependency on plant emulsifiers produced by genetically modified crops. Unfavorable economic production costs and difficulties to produce sufficient quantities of biosurfactants, however, have hampered uptake by many industries. Using cheap sustainable resources, strains improvements, and optimizing production and extraction technologies to increase yields and productivities in addition to greater understanding of microorganisms' metabolic capabilities can bring the required breakthrough in production yields and costs. We conclude that through specialized cost-effective applications in the food industry and directed testing and investigations to establish toxicity we can look forward to biosurfactants as the molecules of the future.

Literature Cited

- Singh A, Van Hamme JD, Ward OP. Surfactants in microbiology and biotechnology: Part 2. Application aspects. *Biotechnol Adv.* 2007;25:99–121.
- Nguyen TTL, Edelen A, Neighbors B, Sabatini DA. Biocompatible lecithin-based microemulsions with rhamnolipid and sophorolipid biosurfactants: formulation and potential applications. *J Colloid Interface Sci.* 2010;348:498–504.
- Desai JD, Banat IM. Microbial production of surfactants and their commercial potential. *Microbiol Mol Biol Rev.* 1997;61: 47–64.
- Barros FFC, Quadros CP, Pastore GM. Propriedades emulsificantes e estabilidade de biossurfactante produzido por *Bacillus* subtilis em manipueira. Cienc Tecnol Aliment. 2008;28:979–985.
- Satpute SK, Banpurkar AG, Dhakephalkar PK, Banat IM, Chopade BA. Methods for investigating biosurfactants and bioemulsifiers: a review. Crit Rev Biotechnol. 2009;30:127–144.
- Pacwa-Plociniczak M, Plaza GA, Piotrowska-Seget S, Cameotra SS. Environmental applications of biosurfactants: recent advances. *Int J Mol Sci.* 2011;12:633–654.
- Rufino RD, Sarubbo LA, Campos-Takaki GM. Enhancement of stability of biosurfactant produced by *Candida lipolytica* using industrial residue as substrate. World J Microbiol Biotechnol. 2007;23:734–741.
- Barros FFC, Quadros CP, Maróstica Júnior MR, Pastore GM. Surfactina: propriedades químicas, tecnológicas e funcionais para aplicações em alimentos. Quim Nova. 2007;30:409–414.
- Marketandmarket.com, 2012. Available at: http://www.marketsandmarkets.com/Market-Reports/biosurfactants-market-493.html. Accessed on Jan 2013.
- Rahman PKSM, Gakpe E. Production, characterization and applications of biosurfactants—review. *Biotechnol*.2008;7:360– 370.
- Perfumo A, Smyth TJP, Marchant R, Banat IM. Production and roles of biosurfactants and bioemulsifiers in accessing hydrophobic substrates. In: Timmis KN, editor. Handbook of Hydrocarbon and Lipid Microbiology. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer-Verlag; 2010:1501–1512.
- Satpute SK, Banat IM, Dhakephalkar PK, Banpurkar AG, Chopade BA. Biosurfactants, bioemulsifiers and exopolysaccharides from marine microorganisms. *Biotechnol Adv.* 2010;28:436–450.

- Franzetti A, Gandolfi I, Bestetti G, Smyth TJP, Banat IM. Production and applications of trehalose lipid biosurfactants. Eur J Lipid Sci Technol. 2010;112:617–627.
- Kaczorek E, Chrzanowski L, Pijanowska A, Olszanowski A. Yeast and bacteria cell hydrophobicity and hydrocarbon biodegradation in the presence of natural surfactants: Rhamnolipides and saponins. *Bioresour Technol*. 2008;99:4285–4291.
- Fracchia L, Cavallo M, Giovanna Martinotti M, Banat IM. Biosurfactants and bioemulsifiers biomedical and related applications. In: Ghista DN, editor, Present Status and Future Potentials, Biomedical Science, Engineering and Technology. Shanghai: InTech; 2012:325–70.
- Saravanakumari P, Mani K. Structural characterization of a novel xylolipid biosurfactant from *Lactococcus lactis* and analysis of antibacterial activity against multidrug resistant pathogens. *Bioresour Technol*. 2010;101:8851–8854.
- Leighton A. Adrem Biotech Inc.: method for treating rhinitis and sinusitis by rhamnolipids. PCT Patent 2010/080406, 2010. Adrem Biotech Inc., Miami.
- Rodrigues L, Banat IM, Teixeira J, Oliveira R. Biosurfactants: potential applications in medicine. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 2006;57:609–618.
- Makkar RS, Cameotra SS. An update on the use of unconventional substrates for biosurfactant production and their new applications. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol. 2002;58:428–434.
- Smyth TJP, Perfumo A, Marchant R, Banat IM, Chen M, Thomas RK, Penfold J, Stevenson PS, Parry NJ. Directed microbial biosynthesis of deuterated biosurfactants and potential future application to other bioactive molecules. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol*. 2010;87:1347–1354.
- Banat IM, Makkar RS, Cameotra SS. Potencial commercial applications of microbial surfactants. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol*. 2000;53:495–508.
- Banat IM, Franzetti A, Gandolfi I, Bestetti G, Martinotti MG, Fracchia L, Smyth TJ, Marchant R. Microbial biosurfactants production, applications and future potential. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol*. 2010;87:427–444.
- Marchant R, Banat IM. Microbial biosurfactants: challenges and opportunities for future exploitation. *Trends Biotechnol*. 2012; 11:558–565.
- 24. Franzetti A, Gandolfi I, Bestetti G, Banat IM. (Bio)surfactant and bioremediation, successes and failures. In: Plaza G, editor, Trends in Bioremediation and Phytoremediation. Kerala, India: Research Signpost; 2011:145–56.
- 25. Connolly HE, Rahman PKSM, Banat IM, Lord RA. Resource recovery and reduction of oily hazardous wastes via biosurfactant washing and bioremediation. In: Plaza G, editor. Trends in Bioremediation and Phytoremediation. Kerala, India: Research Signpost; 2011:43–57.
- Muthusamy K, Gopalakrishnan S, Ravi TK, Sivachidambaram P. Biosurfactants: properties, commercial production and application. *Curr Sci.* 2008;94:736–747.
- Müller MM, Küglera JH, Henkel M, Gerlitzki M, Hörmann B, Pöhnlein M, Syldatk C, Hausmann R. Rhamnolipids-Next generation surfactants? *J Biotechnol*. 2012;162:366–380.
- Satpute S, Banat IM, Dhakephalkar PK, Banpurkar AG, Chopade BA. Biosurfactants, bioemulsifiers and exopolysaccharides from marine microorganisms. *Biotechnol Adv.* 2010;28: 436–450.
- Smyth TJP, Perfumo A, McClean S, Marchant R, Banat IM. Isolation and analysis of lipopeptides and high molecular weight biosurfactants. In: Timmis KN. Handbook of Hydrocarbon and Lipid Microbiology, Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer-Verlag; 2010: 3689–3704.
- Smyth TJP, Perfumo A, Marchant R, Banat IM. Isolation and analysis of low molecular weight microbial glycolipids. In: Timmis KN, editor. Handbook of Hydrocarbon and Lipid Microbiology, Berlin, Heidelberg, Springer-Verlag; 2010:3705–3723.
- Calvo C, Manzanera M, Silva-Castro GA, Uad I, González-López J. Application of bioemulsifiers in soil oil bioremediation processes. Future prospects. Sci Total Environ. 2009;407:3634– 3640.
- 32. Van-Hamme JD, Singh A, Ward OP. Physiological aspects part 1 in a series of papers devoted to surfactants in microbiology and biotechnology. *Biotechnol Adv.* 2006;24:604–620.

- Sarubbo LA, Porto ALF, Campos-Takaki GM. The use of babassu oil as substrate to produce bioemulsifiers by *Candida lipolytica*. Can J Microbiol. 1999;45:423–426.
- Sarubbo LA, Marçal MC, Neves MLC, Silva MPC, Porto ALF, Campos-Takaki GM. Bioemulsifier production in batch culture using glucose as carbon source by *Candida lipolytica*. Appl Biochem Biotechnol. 2001;95:59–67.
- Sarubbo LA, Luna JM, Campos-Takaki GM. Production and stability studies of the bioemulsifier obtained from a new strain of Candida glabrata UCP 1002. Electron J Biotechnol. 2006;9: 400–406.
- 36. Sarubbo LA, Farias CBB, Campos-Takaki GM. Co-utilization of canola oil and glucose on the production of a surfactant by *Candida lipolytica*. *Curr Microbiol*. 2007;54:68–73.
- Rufino RD, Sarubbo LA, Benicio BN, Campos-Takaki GM. Experimental design for the production of tension-active agent by *Candida lipolytica*. J Ind Microbiol Biotechnol. 2008;35: 907–914.
- 38. Fontes GC, Amaral PFF, Coelho MAZ. Produção de Biossurfactante por levedura. *Quim Nova*. 2008;31:2091–2099.
- Sobrinho HBS, Rufino RD, Luna JM, Salgueiro AA, Campos-Takaki GM, Leite LFC, Sarubbo LA. Utilization of two agroindustrial by-products for the production of a surfactant by *Candida sphaerica* UCP0995. *Process Biochem*. 2008;43:912–917.
- Luna JM, Sarubbo LA, Campos-Takaki GM. A new biosurfactant produced by *Candida glabrata* UCP 1002; characteristics of stability and application in oil recovery. *Braz Arch Biol Technol*. 2009;52:785–793.
- Franzetti A, Gandolfi I, Raimondi C, Bestetti G, Banat IM, Smyth TJ, Papacchini M, Cavallo M, Fracchia L. Environmental fate, toxicity, characteristics and potential applications of novel bioemulsifiers produced by *Variovorax paradoxus* 7bCT5. *Bio*resour Technol. 2012;108:245–51.
- Monteiro AS, Bonfim MRQ, Domingues VS, Corrêa Júnior A, Siqueira EP, Zani CL, Santos VL. Identification and characterization of bioemulsifier-producing yeasts isolated from effluents of a dairy industry. *Bioresour Technol*. 2010;101:5186–5193.
- 43. Pacheco GJ, Ciapina EMP, Gomes EB, Junior NP. Biosurfactant production by *Rhodococcus erythropolis* and its application to oil removal. *Braz J Microbiol*. 2010;41:685–693.
- Perfumo A, Rancich I, Banat IM. Possibilities and challenges for biosurfactants uses in petroleum industry. Adv Exp Med Biol. 2010;672:135–145.
- 45. Nitschke M, Ferraz C, Pastore GM. Selection of microorganisms for biosurfactant producing using agroindustrial wastes. *Braz J Microbiol*. 2004;35:81–85.
- Lin SC, Sharma MM, Georgiou G. Production and deactivation of biosurfactant by *Bacillus licheniformis* JF-2. *Biotechnol Prog.* 1993;8:138–145.
- 47. Mulligan CN. Environmental applications of biosurfactants. *Environ Pollut*. 2005;133:183–198.
- Deleu M, Paquot M. From renewable vegetables resources to microorganisms: new trends in surfactants. C R Chim. 2004;7: 641–646.
- Mayer RM, Soberón-Chávez G. Pseudomonas aeruginosa rhmnolipids: biosynthesis and potential applications. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol. 2000;54:625–633.
- 50. Rodrigues LR, Teixeira JA. Biomedical and therapeutic applications of biosurfactants. *Adv Exp Med Biol.* 2010;672:75–87.
- Seydlová G, Svobodová J. Review of surfactin chemical properties and the potential biomedical applications. *Cent Eur J Med.* 2008;3:123–133.
- 52. Ilori MO, Amobi CJ, Odocha AC. Factors affecting biosurfactant production by oil degrading *Aeromonas spp.* isolated from a tropical environment. *Chemosphere*. 2005;61:985–992.
- Yeh MS, Wei YH, Chang JS. Enhanced Production of surfactin from *Bacillus subtilis* by addition of solid carriers. *Biotechnol Prog.* 2005;4:1329–1334.
- 54. Gandhi, NR. Rhamnolipid biosurfactant as a low toxicity alternative to synthetic surfactants. Conference: 229th National Meeting of the American-Chemical-Society.229:U926–U926
- Kosaric N. Biosurfactants ant their application for soil bioremediation. Food Technol Biotechnol. 2001;39:295–304.

- Cooper DG, Cavalero DA. The effect of medium composition on the structure and physical state of sophorolipids produced by Candida bombicola ATCC 22214. J Biotechnol. 2003;103:31– 41.
- Marchant R, Banat IM. Biosurfactants: a sustainable replacement for chemical surfactants? *Biotechnol Lett.* 2012;34:1597–1605
- 58. Makkar RS, Cameotra SS, Banat IM. Advances in utilization of renewable substrates for biosurfactant production. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol Exp.* 2011;1:1–5.
- Gautam KK, Tyagi VK. Microbial Surfactants: a review. J Oleo Sci. 2006;55:155–166.
- Nitschke M, Pastore GM. Production and properties of a surfactant obtained from *Bacillus subtilis* grown on cassava wastewater. *Bioresour Technol.* 2006;97:336–341.
- Oliveira FJS, Vazquez L, de Campos NP, de França FP. Production of rhamnolipids by a *Pseudomonas alcaligenes* strain. *Process Biochem.* 2009;44:383–389.
- Pandey RA, Sanyal PB, Chattopadhyay N, Kaul SN. Treatment and reuse of wastes of a vegetable oil refinery. *Resour Conserv Recycl.* 2003;37:101–117.
- Dumont M-J, Narine SS. Soapstock and deodorizer distillates from North American vegetable oils: review on their characterization, extraction and utilization. Food Res Int. 2007;40:957– 974.
- 64. Cammarota MC, Freire DMG. A review on hydrolytic enzymes in the treatment of wastewater with high oil and grease content. *Bioresour Technol.* 2006;97:2195–2210.
- 65. Gusmão B, Rufino RD, Sarubbo LA. Laboratory production and characterization of a new biosurfactant from *Candida glabrata* UCP1002 cultivated in vegetable fat waste applied to the removal of hydrophobic contaminant. *World J Microbiol Bio*technol. 2010;26:1683–1692.
- Coimbra CD, Rufino RD, Luna JM, Sarubbo LA. Studies of the Cell Surface Properties of *Candida* Species and relation to the production of biosurfactants for Environmental Applications. *Curr Microbiol*. 2009;58:245–251.
- Nawawi WMFW, Jamal P, Alam MZ. Utilization of sludge palm oil as a novel substrate for biosurfactant production. *Biore-sour Technol*. 2010;101:9241–9247.
- 68. Batista RM, Rufino RD, Luna JM, de Souza, JEG, Sarubbo, LA. Effect of medium components on the production of a biosurfactant from *Candida tropicalis* applied to the removal of hydrophobic contaminants in soil. *Water Environ Res.* 2010;82:418–425.
- 69. Luna JM, Rufino RD, Sarubbo LA, Campos-Takaki GM. Characterisation, surface properties and biological activity of a biosurfactant produced from industrial waste by Candida sphaerica UCP0995 for application in the petroleum industry. Colloids Surf B Biointerfaces. 2013;102:202–209.
- 70. Fleurackers SJJ. On the use of waste frying oil in the synthesis of sophorolipids. *Eur J Lipid Sci Technol*. 2006;108:5–12.
- Shah V, Jurjevic M, Badia D. Utilization of restaurant waste oil as a precursor for sophorolipid production. *Biotechnol Prog.* 2007;23:512–515.
- Benincasa M, Accorsini FR. Pseudomonas aeruginosa LBI production as an integrated process using the wastes from sunflower-oil refining as a substrate. Bioresour Technol. 2008; 99:3843–3849.
- Zhu Y, Gan J-j, Zhang G-l, Yao B, Zhu W-j, Meng Q. Reuse of waste frying oil for production of rhamnolipids using *Pseudo-monas aeruginosa* zju.u1M. *J Zhejiang Univ Sci A*. 2007;8: 1514–1520.
- 74. Rocha M, Souza M, Benedicto S, Bezerra M, Macedo G, Pinto G, Gonçalves L. *Production of biosurfactant by Pseudomonas aeruginosa* grown on cashew apple juice. *Appl Biochem Biotechnol*. 2007;137–140:185–194.
- Silva SNRL, Farias CBB, Rufino RD, Luna JM, Sarubbo LA. Glycerol as substrate for the production of biosurfactant by Pseudomonas aeruginosa UCP 0992. Colloids Surf B Biointerfaces. 2010;79:174–183.
- Aparna A, Srinikethana G, Smithab H. Production and characterization of biosurfactant produced by a novel Pseudomonas sp.

- 2B. Colloids Surf B Biointerfaces. 2012; doi:10.1016/j.colsurfb.2012.01.043
- 77. Dubey KV, Charde PN, Meshram SU, Shendre LP, Dubey VS, Juwarkar AA. Surface-active potential of biosurfactants produced in curd whey by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strain-PP2 and *Kocuria turfanesis* strain-J at extreme environmental conditions. *Bioresour Technol*. 2012;126:368–374.
- 78. Ponte Rocha M, Gomes BR, Melo V, Barros GL. Evaluation of cashew apple juice for surfactin production by *Bacillus subtilis* LAMI008. *Appl Biochem Biotechnol*. 2009;155:63–75.
- Oliveira DWF, Franca ÍWL, Félix AKN, Martins JJL, Giro MEA, Melo VMM, Gonçalves LRB. Kinetic study of biosurfactant production by *Bacillus subtilis* LAMI005 grown in clarified cashew apple juice. *Colloids Surf B Biointerfaces*. 2013;101:34–43
- Al-Bahry SN, Al-Wahaibi YM, Elshafie AE, Al-Bemani AS, Joshi SJ, Al-Makhmari HS, Al-Sulaimani HS. Biosurfactant production by *Bacillus subtilis* B20 using date molasses and its possible application in enhanced oil recovery. *Int Biodeterior Biodegradation*. 2012;141:141–146.
- 81. Das K, Mukherjee AK. Comparison of lipopeptide biosurfactants production by *Bacillus subtilis* strains in submerged and solid state fermentation systems using a cheap carbon source: some industrial applications of biosurfactants. *Process Biochem*. 2007;42:1191–1199.
- 82. Portilla-Rivera OM, Moldes Menduiña AB, Torrado Agrasar AM, Domínguez González JM. Biosurfactants from grape marc: Stability study. *J Biotechnol*. 2007;131:S136–S136.
- 83. Freitas F, Alves VD, Pais J, Costa N, Oliveira C, Mafra L, Hilliou L, Oliveira R, Reis MAM. Characterization of an extracellular polysaccharide produced by a *Pseudomonas* strain grown on glycerol. *Bioresour Technol*. 2009;100:859–865.
- 84. Martins VG, Kalil SJ, Vieira CJA. Lipases and biosurfactant production by solid state fermentation for utilization in bioremediation of vegetable oils and hydrocarbons. *Quim Nova*. 2008; 31:1942–1947.
- 85. Ohno A, Ano T, Shoda M. Production of a lipopeptide antibiotic, surfactin, by recombinant *Bacillus subtilis* in solid state fermentation. *Biotechnol Bioeng*.1995;47:209–214.
- 86. Ghribi D, Abdelkefi-Mesrati L, Mnif I, Kammoun R, Ayadi I, Saadaoui I, Maktouf S, Chaabouni-Ellouze S. Investigation of antimicrobial activity and statistical optimization of *Bacillus subtilis* SPB1 biosurfactant production in solid-state fermentation. *J Biomed Biotechnol*. 2012; 2012:373682; DOI: 10.1155/2012/373682.
- 87. Gallert C, Winter JZ. Solid and liquid residues as raw materials for biotechnology. *Z Naturforsch C*. 2002;89:483–496.
- Mercade ME, Manresa MA, Robert M, Espuny MJ, de Andres C, Guinea J. Production and deactivation of biosurfactant by Bacillus licheniformis JF-2. Bioresour Technol. 1993;43:1–6.
- 89. Desphande M, Daniels L. Evaluation of sophorolipid biosurfactant production by *Candida bombicola* using animal fat. *Biores Technol*. 1995;54:143–150.
- Haba E, Espuny MJ, Busquets M, Manresa A. Screening and production of Rhamnolipids by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* 47T2 NCBI40044 from waste frying oils. *J Appl Microbiol*. 2000;88: 379–387.
- Zhang QZ, Cai WM, Wang J. Stimulatory effects of biosurfactant produced by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* BSZ-07 on rice straw decomposing. *J Environ Sci.* 2008;20:975–980.
- George S, Jayachandran K. Analysis of rhamnolipid biosurfactants produced through submerge fermentation using orange fruit peelings as sole carbon source. *Appl Biochem Biotechnol* 2009; 158:694–705.
- Shabtai Y. Production of exopolysaccharides by *Acinetobacter* strains in a controlled fed-batch fermentation process using soap stock oil (SSO) as carbon source. *Int J Biol Macromol*. 1990;12: 145–152.
- 94. Benincasa M, Abalos A, Oliveira I, Manresa A. Chemical structure, surface properties and biological activities of the biosurfactant produced by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* LBI from soapstock. Antonie Van Leeuwenhoek. *Int J Gen Mol Microbiol*. 2004;85: 1–8.

- 95. Lazaridou A, Roukas T, Biliaderis CG, Vaikousi H. Characterization of pullulan produced from beet molasses by *Aureobasidium pullulans* in a stirred tank reactor under varying agitation. *Enzyme Microb Technol*. 2002;31:122–132.
- Kalogiannis S, Iakovidou G, Liakopoulou-Kyriakides M, Kyriakidis DA, Skaracis GN. Optimization of xanthan gum production by *Xanthomonas campestris* grown in molasses. *Process Biochem.* 2003;39:249–256.
- 97. Ikram-Ul H, Ali S, Qadeer MA, Iqbal J. Citric acid production by selected mutants of *Aspergillus niger* from cane molasses. *Bioresour Technol.* 2004;93:125–130.
- 98. Shin HT, Baig SY, Lee SW, Suh DS, Kwon ST, Lim YB, Lee JH. Production of fructooligosaccharides from molasses by *Aureobasidium pullulans* cells. *Bioresour Technol*. 2004;93:59–62.
- Makkar RS, Cameotra SS. Utilization of molasses for biosurfactant production by two *Bacillus* strains at thermophilic conditions. *J Am Oil Chem Soc.* 1997;74:887–889.
- Patel RM, Desai AJ. Biosurfactant production by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* GS3 from molasses. *Lett Appl Microbiol*. 1997;25: 91–94.
- 101. Fusconi R, Assunção RMN, Guimarães RM, Filho GR, Machado AEH. Exopolysaccharide produced by *Gordonia polyisoprenivorans* CCT 7137 in GYMcommercial medium and sugarcane molasses alternative medium: FT-IR study and emulsifying activity. *Carbohydr Polym.* 2010;79:403–408.
- 102. Lee H, Song M, Yu Y, Hwang S. Production of *Ganoderma lucidum* mycelium using cheese whey as an alternative substrate: response surface analysis and biokinetics. *Biochem Eng J.* 2003;15:93–99.
- 103. Battad-Bernardo E, McCrindle SL, Couperwhite I, Neiln BA. Insertion of an E. coli lacZ gene in Acetobacter xylinus for the production of cellulose in whey. FEMS Microbiol Lett. 2004; 231:253–260.
- 104. Ghaly AE, Kamal MA. Submerged yeast fermentation of acid cheese whey for protein production and pollution potential reduction. Water Res. 2004;38:631–644.
- 105. Dubey K, Juwarkar A. Distillery and curd whey wastes as viable alternative sources for biosurfactant production. World J Microbiol Biotechnol. 2001;17:61–69.
- Barnett C, Smith A, Scanlon B, Israilides CJ. Pullulan production by *Aureobasidium pullulans* growing on hydrolysed potato starch waste. *Carbohydr Polym.* 1999;38:203–209.
- 107. Christen P, Bramorski A, Revah S, Soccol CR. Characterization of volatile compounds produced by *Rhizopus* strains grown on agroindustrial solid wastes. *Bioresour Technol*. 2000; 71:211–215.
- 108. Lateef A, Gueguim Kana EB. Utilization of cassava wastes in the production of fructosyltransferase by *Rhizopus stolonifer* LAU 07. *Rom Biotechnol Lett.* 2012;17:7309–7316.
- 109. Fox SL, Bala GA. Production of surfactant from *Bacillus subtilis* ATCC 21332 using potato substrates. *Bioresour Technol*. 2000;75:235–240.
- 110. Thompson DN, Fox SL, Bala GA. Biosurfactants from potato process effluents. Appl Biochem Biotechnol. 2000;84:917–930.
- Daverey A, Pakshirajan K. Production of sophorolipids by the yeast *Candida bombicola* using simple and low cost fermentative media. *Food Res Int.* 2009;42:499–504.
- 112. Brasil, Portaria nº 540 Agência Nacional de Vigilância Sanitária – Ministério da Saúde, de 27 de outubro de 1997, Brasília, Brasil.
- 113. Brasil, Resolução RDC n° 234 Agência Nacional de Vigilância Sanitária Ministério da Saúde, de 19 de agosto de; 2002.
- 114. Brasil, Portaria nº 376 Agência Nacional de Vigilância Sanitária – Ministério da Saúde, de 26 de abril de; 1999.
- 115. Brasil, Portaria n° 375 Agência Nacional de Vigilância Sanitária – Ministério da Saúde, de 26 de abril de; 1999.
- 116. Brasil, Portaria nº 503 Agência Nacional de Vigilância em Saúde – Ministério da Saúde, de 22 de junho de; 1998.
- 117. Brasil, Portaria nº 156 Agência Nacional de Vigilância Sanitária – Ministério da Saúde, de 20 de fevereiro de; 1998.
- 118. Kralova I, Sjöblom J. Surfactants used in food industry: a review. *J Dispers Sci Technol*. 2009;30:1363–1383.
- 119. Burghoff B. Foam fractionation applications. *J Biotechnol*. 2012;161:126–137.

- 120. Radhakrishnan N, Kavitha V, Madhavacharyulu E, Gnanamani A, Mandal AB. Isolation, production and characterization of bioemulsifiers of marine bacteria of coastal Tamil Nadu. *Indian J of Geo-Marine Sciences*. 2011;40:76–82.
- 121. Nitschke M, Costa SGVAO. Biosurfactants in food industry. Trends Food Sci Technol. 2007;18:252–259.
- Patino JMR, Sánchez CC, Niño MMR. Implications of interfacial characteristics of food foaming agents in foam formulations. Adv Colloid Interface Sci. 2008;140:95–113.
- Cooper DG, Paddock DA. Production of a biosurfactant from Torulopsis bombicola. Appl Environ Microbiol. 1984;47:173– 176.
- 124. Shepherd R, Rockey J, Shutherland IW, Roller S. Novel bioemulsifiers from microorganisms for use in foods. *J Biotechnol*. 1995;40:207–217.
- 125. Miles S, Hafner C, Bolhaar S, et al. Attitudes towards genetically modified food with a specific consumer benefit in food allergic consumers and non-food allergic consumers. *J Risk Res.* 2006;9:801–813 DOI: 10.1080/13669870600958061
- 126. Herman EM. Genetically modified soybeans and food allergies. *J Exp Bot.* 2003;54:1317–1319; DOI: 10.1093/jxb/erg164.
- Kourkoutas Y, Banat IM. Biosurfactant production and application. In: Pandey AP, editor. The Concise Encyclopedia of Bioresour Technol. Philadelphia: Haworth Reference Press; 2004: 505–515.
- 128. Celec Peter, et al. Biological and biomedical aspects of genetically modified food. *Biomed Pharmacother*. 2005;59:531–540.
- 129. Van Haesendonck IPH, Vanzeveren ECA. Rhamnolipids in bakery products. 2004.W.O. 2004/040984, International application patent (PCT), Washington.
- 130. Takahashi M, Morita T, Fukuoka T, Tomohiro I, Kitamoto D. Glycolipid biosurfactants, mannosylerythritol lipids, show antioxidant and protective effects against H2O2—induced oxidative stress in cultured human skin fibroblasts. *J Oleo Sci.* 2012; 61:457–464.
- 131. Yalcin E, Cavusoglu K. Structural analysis and antioxidant activity of a biosurfactant obtained from *Bacillus subtilis* RW-I. *Turkish J Biochem-Turk Biyokimya Dergisi*. 2010;35:243–247.
- 132. Kawaguchi K, Satomi K, Yokoyama M, Ishida Y. Antioxidative properties of an extracellular polysaccharide produced by a bacterium *Klebsiella sp.* isolated from river water. *Nippon Suisan Gakkaishi*. 1996;42:243–251.
- 133. Remichkova M, Galabova D, Roeva I, Karpenko E, Shulga A, Galabov AS. Anti-herpesvirus activities of *Pseudomonas* sp. S-17 rhamnolipid and its complex with alginate. *Z Naturforsch C*. 2008;63:75–81.
- 134. Sotirova AV, Spasova DI, Galabova DN, Karpenko E, Shulga A. Rhamnolipid–biosurfactant permeabilizing effects on grampositive and gram-negative bacterial strains. *Curr Microbiol*. 2008;56:639–644.
- 135. Zeraik AE, Nitschke M. Biosurfactants as agents to reduce adhesion of pathogenic bacteria to polystyrene surfaces: effect of temperature and hydrophobicity. *Curr Microbiol*. 2010;61: 554–559.
- 136. Luna JM, Rufino RD, Sarubbo LA, Rodrigues LR, Teixeira JA, Campos-Takaki GM. Evaluation antimicrobial and antiadhesive properties of the biosurfactant lunasan produced by *Candida sphaerica* UCP 0995. *Curr Microbiol*. 2011;62:1527–1534.
- 137. Gudiña EJ, Teixeira JA, Rodrigues LR. Isolation and functional characterization of a biosurfactant produced by *Lactobacillus paracasei*. *Colloids Surf B Biointerfaces*. 2010;76:298–304.
- 138. Fracchia L, Cavallo M, Allegrone G, Martinotti MG. A Lacto-bacillus-derived biosurfactant inhibits biofilm formation of human pathogenic Candida albicans biofilm producers. In: Mendez Vilas A, editor. Current Research, Technology and Education Topics in Applied Microbiology and Microbial Biotechnology; Spain, 2010:827–837.
- 139. Brzozowski B, Bednarski W, Golek P. The adhesive capability of two *Lactobacillus* strains and physicochemical properties of their synthesized biosurfactants. *Food Technol Biotechnol*. 2011;49:177–186.
- 140. Bouwman S, Lund D, Driessen FM, Schmidt DG. Growth of thermoresistant *streptococci* and deposition of milk constituents

- on plates of heat exchangers during long operating times. J $Food\ Prot.\ 1982;45;806-812.$
- 141. Lalande M, René F, Tissier JP. Fouling and its control in heat exchangers in the dairy industry. *Biofouling*. 1989;1:233–251.
- 142. Reid G. In vitro testing of *Lactobacillus acidophilus* NCFMTM as a possible probiotic for the urogenital tract. *Int Dairy J.* 2000;10:415–419.
- 143. Meylheuc T, Renault M, Bellon-Fontaine MN. Adsorption of a biosurfactant on surfaces to enhance the disinfection of surfaces contaminated with *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Int J Food Microbiol*. 2006;109:71–78.
- 144. Nitschke M, Araújo LV, Costa SG, Pires RC, Zeraik AE, Fernandes AC, Freire DM, Contiero J. Surfactin reduces the adhesion of food-borne pathogenic bacteria to solid surfaces. *Lett Appl Microbiol*. 2009;49:241–247.
- 145. Quinn GA, Maloy AP, Banat MM, Banat IM. A comparison of effects of broad-spectrum antibiotics and biosurfactants on established bacterial biofilms. *Curr Microbiol. In Press*; DOI 10.1007/s00284-013-0412-8.

Manuscript received Apr. 17, 2013, and revision received Jul. 22, 2013.