



Molecular Characterization and Potential of Fungal Species Associated with Cassava Waste

Aniekpeno Isaac Elijah^{1*} and Naomi Udo Asamudo²

¹Department of Food Science and Technology, University of Uyo, Uyo, Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria.

²Department of Microbiology, University of Uyo, Uyo, Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria.

Authors' contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration between both authors. Author AIE designed the study, wrote the protocol and wrote the first draft of the manuscript. Authors AIE and NUA managed the literature searches and performed the analyses. Both authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Article Information

DOI: 10.9734/BBJ/2016/16559

Editor(s):

(1) Christopher Cullis, Francis Hobart Herrick Professor and Chair of Biology, Case Western Reserve University, USA.

(2) Robert L. Brown, Food and Feed Safety Research Unit, USDA-ARS-SRRC, New Orleans, USA.

(3) Mahalingam Govindaraj, ICRISAT, Patancheru, India.

Reviewers:

(1) Amira Souii, University of Tunis El Manar, Tunisia.

(2) Ali Mohamed Elshafei, National Research Centre, Egypt.

(3) Gerardo Vázquez-Marrufo, Universidad Michoacana de San Nicolás de Hidalgo, Mexico.

Complete Peer review History: <http://sciencedomain.org/review-history/12217>

Original Research Article

Received 6th February 2015
Accepted 19th October 2015
Published 9th November 2015

ABSTRACT

Aims: Efficient utilization of cassava waste for value addition depends largely on proper understanding of its true microbial diversity. The aim of this study was to characterize using molecular methods, fungal species associated with cassava waste and to highlight their industrial potential.

Study Design: Cassava peel (CP) waste from CP waste dumpsites and cassava waste water from cassava wastewater discharge outlets were collected from major cassava processing centres in Abeokuta, Ogun State, Nigeria, for the study.

Place and Duration of Study: Biotechnology Centre, Federal University of Agriculture, Abeokuta, Ogun State, Nigeria; between June 2011 and March 2012.

Methodology: Two molecular methods namely, total fungal community DNA and isolates DNA sequence analysis were employed to characterize and identify the fungal species. Total fungal community DNA was extracted directly from CP waste and cassava wastewater, using the Soil DNA isolation kit (Norgen, Canada), while total genomic DNA was extracted from fungal isolates,

*Corresponding author: Email: anielijah@gmail.com;

using the same kit. The fungal ITS2 (Internal transcribed spacer) gene sequence of total fungal community and genomic DNA was amplified by Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) using ITS2 primers. Total fungal community DNA amplicons were spliced into PCR-TRAP Cloning Vector, used to transform competent cells of *Escherichia coli* and sequenced. Sequences were identified by aligning with sequences in the GenBank.

Results: Results showed that 17 fungal species including *Eurotiomycetes – Eurotiales* (6 species), *Mucormycotina – Mucorales* (1 species), *Sordariomycetes - Hypocreales* (1 species), *Saccharomycetes Saccharomycetales* (8 species), and unidentified fungi (1 species) were present in cassava peel (CP). The dominant species was *Aspergillus niger* (15.2%). However, cassava wastewater had 27 fungal species including *Eurotiomycetes – Eurotiales* (2 species), *Saccharomycetes Saccharomycetales* (24 species) *Tremellomycetes-Tremellales* (1 species); the dominant species being *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and *Candida krusei* each with 8.7% relative abundance.

Conclusion: This study shows that cassava waste, on account of its rich fungal diversity, is an important microbial resource.

Keywords: Cassava waste; ITS2 gene; molecular characterization; fungal diversity; total community DNA; *Aspergillus niger*; yeast.

1. INTRODUCTION

Huge amount of waste such as peels, fibrous core and carbohydrate rich pressing slurry, is generated during cassava processing and utilization. It is estimated that about 0.3 - 0.4 tonne of cassava peel (CP) is generated when 1 tonne of starch is produced [1]. In Nigeria, about 450,000 tonnes of CP is generated annually, with an increasing trend [2]. On the average, 2.62 m³ tonnes⁻¹ of residues from washing and 3.68 m³ tonnes⁻¹ from the water residues resulting from cassava flour production have been reported [3,4]. Presently, these wastes generated pose serious environmental challenges, especially when dispose of indiscriminately. With the projected total world cassava utilization of 275 million tonnes by 2020 [5,6], resulting from ongoing effort at stimulating cassava production and utilization globally, a more challenging environmental concern is undoubtedly anticipated.

Over the years, researchers have made tremendous impact on the use of cassava waste for value added products. The production of animal feed from CP has been well studied [7-9]. A major improvement in this regard, has been in nutrient enrichment of CP by fermentation using microorganisms such as yeast and lactic acid bacteria [10], *Aspergillus* and *Trichoderma* species [11], for enhanced animal nutrition. CP has also been used for the production of functional food [12], ethanol [13], biofertilizer [14], and as substrate for mushroom cultivation [15]. Similarly, cassava wastewater has been used for the production of butanol [16], organic acids [17],

biosurfactant [18], volatile aromatic compounds [19], and has even been considered for the production of a probiotic beverage [20]. Besides, even much more could be achieved if the true microbial diversity and dynamics of cassava waste is clearly understood.

Cassava waste is a known veritable source of important microorganisms [21,14,22], with industrial importance. Yet information on the microbial diversity of cassava waste is scanty. The natural decomposition of cassava waste is a complex process involving a community of fungi and bacteria. A recent study revealed a rich bacterial diversity in cassava waste [23], indicating its potential for industrial applications. A similar study on fungal diversity in cassava waste, especially employing molecular procedures, would complement this finding. This would enhance better utilization of the waste. Novel fungal species of industrial importance may possibly be identified. In addition, fungal species already identified from cassava waste by cultural/biochemical methods could be authenticated and fully exploited if characterized using molecular methods. The aim of this study was therefore to characterize using molecular methods, fungal species associated with cassava waste in order to reveal its true diversity. Industrial potential of the species are also highlighted.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Sample Collection and Pre-treatment

Cassava peel (CP) waste from CP waste dumpsites and cassava wastewater from

cassava wastewater discharge outlets were collected from major cassava processing centres in Abeokuta, Ogun State, Nigeria. Prior to DNA extraction, samples were pre-treated as follows: 5 g of CP waste was added to 10 ml of sterile physiological solution (0.9%, w/v NaCl) in a beaker containing glass beads and shaken with a vortex mixer (Vortex genie 2, Scientific Industries, USA) at room temperature ($30\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$) for 15 min to dislodge microorganisms from the peels. The resulting mixture designated as pre-treated CP sample, was sieved using cheese cloth to remove debris. The filtrate from CP waste and the cassava wastewater, respectively, were centrifuged for 5 min at $4000 \times g$ using a microcentrifuge (Spectrafuge 24D, Labnet International, USA). In each case, the pellet was discarded while the supernatant was centrifuged for 10 min at $10,000 \times g$ to pellet cells. This was repeated until enough amount of cell was obtained. The pellet was washed in Tris-EDTA (TE) buffer, centrifuged for 10 min at $6000 \times g$ and the supernatant was discarded. This step was repeated for 3 times. The resulting cell pellet was used for fungal DNA extraction.

2.2 Isolation of Fungal Species

For fungal isolation, pre-treated CP waste was used while cassava wastewater was used directly. The pre-treated sample was allowed to settle and the supernatant was kept for use while the sediment was discarded. The supernatant as well as the cassava wastewater were diluted serially to 10^{-8} and 10^{-5} respectively. One milliliter (1 ml) of each sample was pour plated on Sabouraud dextrose agar (SDA) to which chloramphenicol (0.25 mg/l) was added, to suppress bacteria growth, and incubated at 28°C for 48 h for isolation of fungi. Discrete representative colonies were picked from the plates and streaked out on SDA to obtain pure cultures which were transferred to slant and stored at 4°C .

2.3 Characterization and Identification of Fungal Species

Two molecular methods namely, total fungal community DNA and isolates DNA sequence analysis were employed to characterize and identify the fungal species, to ensure that no species was left undetected. The former method is a culture-independent method while the later is a culture-dependent method.

2.4 Total Fungal Community DNA Extraction

Total fungal community DNA was extracted directly from CP waste and cassava wastewater respectively, using the Soil DNA isolation kit (Norgen, Canada), with slight modification of the procedure provided by the manufacturer. Cell pellet already washed in TE buffer was resuspended in $750 \mu\text{l}$ of lysis solution and transferred to a bead tube using a micropipette. Lysis additive ($100 \mu\text{l}$) was added and vortexed briefly. The tube was secured horizontally on a flat-bed vortex pad with tape, vortexed for 5 min at maximum speed and then centrifuged for 1 min at $14,000 \times g$. The supernatant ($450 \mu\text{l}$) was transferred to a DNAase-free microcentrifuge tube. Binding solution ($100 \mu\text{l}$) was added, mixed by inverting the tube 5 times, incubated for 5 min on ice and then spun for 1 min at $14,000 \times g$ to pellet any protein and soil particles. The supernatant ($450 \mu\text{l}$) was transferred into a DNAase-free microcentrifuge tube. An equal volume supernatant ($450 \mu\text{l}$) of 70% ethanol was added to the lysate collected above, and mixed by vortexing. The clarified lysate and 96 -100% ethanol ($600 \mu\text{l}$) was applied onto the spin column and centrifuged for 1 min at $14,000 \times g$. The flow-through was discarded and the spin column reassembled with the collection tube. Wash solution I ($500 \mu\text{l}$) was added to the column and centrifuged for 1 min at $14,000 \times g$. The flow-through was also discarded and the spin column reassembled with the collection tube. Wash solution II ($500 \mu\text{l}$) was added to the column and centrifuged for 1 min at $14,000 \times g$. This was repeated twice. The column was spun for 2 min in order to thoroughly dry the resin. The collection tube was discarded while the column was placed in a fresh 1.7 ml elution tube. The elution buffer ($50 \mu\text{l}$) was added to the column, centrifuged for 2 min at $200 \times g$, followed by a 1 min spin at $14,000 \times g$ to obtain the DNA solution. The purified genomic DNA was stored at -20°C for use.

2.5 Fungal Isolate Genomic DNA Extraction

Total genomic DNA was extracted from fungal isolates using the Soil DNA isolation kit (Norgen, Canada), with slight modification of the procedure provided by the manufacturer. Pure isolates were inoculated in potato dextrose broth (PDB) and incubated at 28°C for 48 h. Cells were harvested in a microcentrifuge tube by

centrifuging for 10 min at 5000 x g and the supernatant discarded. The pellet was subsequently used for lysate preparation, binding of DNA to column, column wash and DNA elution following the protocol reported above for fungal community DNA extraction

2.6 Amplification of the ITS2 Gene

The fungal ITS2 gene sequence from total fungal community and genomic DNA was amplified using the ITS2 primers (ITS86F – GTGAATCATCGAATCTTTGAA and ITS4 – TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC). PCR amplification was carried out in a Techne TC-412 Thermal Cycler (Model FTC41H2D, Bibby Scientific Ltd, UK) in a 50 µl reactions containing 25 µl of 2 X PCR Master Mix (Norgen Biotek, Canada), 1.5 µl of template DNA (0.5 µg), 1 µl of both forward and reverse primers (2.5 µM of each) and 21.5 µl of nuclease free water in a PCR tube added in that order. PCR was carried out at an initial denaturation step at 94°C for 2 min, followed by 30 cycles at 94°C for 30 sec, 45°C for 30 sec and 72°C for 2 min, and a final extension step at 72°C for 5 min. PCR products (amplicons) were separated by electrophoresis on a 1% agarose TAE gel containing ethidium bromide and visualized by UV transillumination (Foto/UV 15, Model 3-3017, Fotodyne, USA).

2.7 Cloning

Cloning was carried out using the PCR TRAP Cloning System (GenHunter Corporation, USA), following the manufacturer's protocol. Amplicons from total fungal community DNA were spliced into the PCR TRAP Cloning Vector using the T4 DNA ligase. Competent cells were transformed with the recombinant DNA and inoculated in Luria-Bertani (LB)-Tet agar (containing 20 µg/ml of tetracycline). Plasmids containing the gene insert were verified by colony-PCR method using the Lgh and Rgh primers that flank the cloning site of the PCR-TRAP vector. Tetracycline resistant colony was picked with a clean pipette tip and transferred into 50 µl of the colony lysis buffer in a microcentrifuge tube. The tube was incubated in boiling water for 10 min, spun (10,000 x g) at room temperature (30±2°C) for 2 min to pellet the cell debris, and the supernatant (cell lysate) transferred into a clean microcentrifuge tube. The lysate was used immediately for PCR analysis in a PCR reaction containing 20 µl reaction mixture: 10 µl of 2 X PCR Master Mix (Norgen Biotek, Canada), 2.0 µl of colony lysate, 2.0 µl of both Lgh and Rgh primers (2.0 µM of each) and 4.0 µl of nuclease

free water in a PCR tube. The PCR mixture was mixed thoroughly and spun down before placing the PCR tube in the Thermocycler. The PCR was carried out using an initial denaturation step at 94°C for 2 min, followed by 30 cycles at 94°C for 30 s, 52°C for 40 s and 72°C for 1 min, followed by a final extension step at 72°C for 5 min. The PCR product after colony-PCR was verified to be of correct length (120 bp longer than the original PCR insert before cloning due to the flanking vector sequence being amplified) after electrophoresis on 1% agarose.

2.8 DNA Sequencing and Analysis

PCR products from the total community and genomic DNAs were sequenced with 518F and 800R primers using ABI PRISM Big Dye Terminator cycle sequencer (Macrogen, USA). The gene sequences obtained were compared by aligning the result with sequences in the GenBank using the Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST) search program at the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI).

2.9 Phylogenetic Analysis

Evolutionary analysis was conducted in Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis (MEGA)5 [24]. The evolutionary history was inferred using the Neighbor-Joining method [25]. The evolutionary distances were computed using the Kimura 2-parameter method [26], and were in the units of the number of transversional substitutions per site.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study reports on molecular characterization and identification of fungal species associated with cassava waste and showcases their industrial potential. Gel electrophoresis profile of amplified ITS2 sequence of total fungal community and fungal isolates DNA from cassava peel and cassava wastewater are presented in plate 1, 2 and 3. PCR amplification of the ITS2 sequences yielded amplicons of about 350 bp confirming that the ITS2 sequence was successfully amplified.

3.1 Fungal Species Associated with Cassava Peel

The distribution of fungi identified in the ITS2 clone library of CP fungal community DNA is presented in Table 1. The result showed that 46 fungal clones belonging to 5 major fungal

domains were detected in the ITS2 clone library of CP. These included *Eurotiomycetes* – *Eurotiales* (24 clones), *Mucormycotina* – *Mucorales* (4 clones), *Sordariomycetes* – *Hypocreales* (2 clones), *Saccharomycetes* *Saccharomycetales* (14 clones) and unidentified fungi (2 clones). However, 18 fungal isolates including *Eurotiomycetes* – *Eurotiales* (12 isolates), *Mucormycotina* – *Mucorales* (2 isolates), *Sordariomycetes* – *Hypocreales* (1 isolate), and *Saccharomycetes* *Saccharomycetales* (3 isolates), were detected from the ITS2 gene sequence analysis of fungal isolates DNA from CP (Table 2).

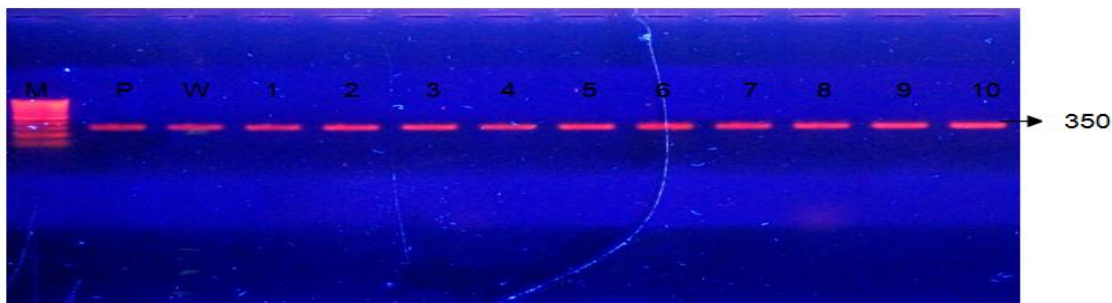


Plate 1. Gel electrophoresis profile of amplified ITS2 sequence of total fungal community DNA and fungal isolates DNA from cassava peel and cassava wastewater. lane M, 1,000 bp DNA ladder; lane P, total fungal community DNA from cassava peel; lane W, total fungal community DNA from cassava wastewater; lane 1 – 10, cassava peel fungal isolates' DNA

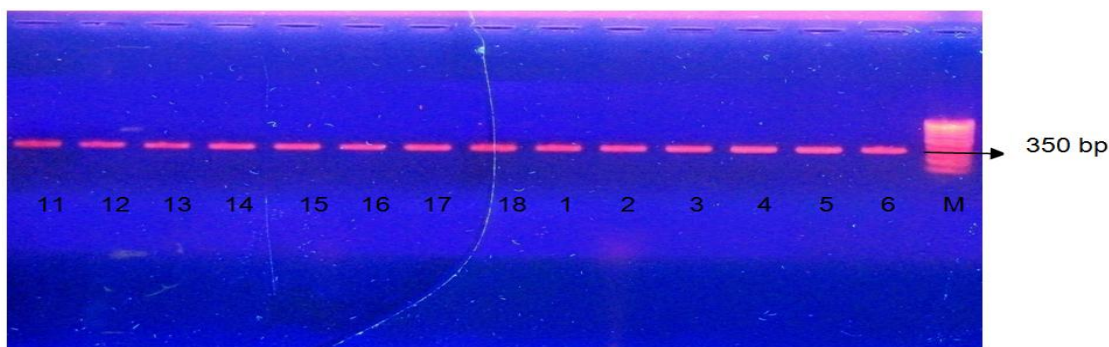


Plate 2. Gel electrophoresis profile of amplified ITS2 sequence of fungal isolates DNA from cassava peel and cassava wastewater. Lane 11 - 18, cassava peel fungal isolates' DNA; Lane 1 – 6, cassava wastewater fungal isolates' DNA; lane M, 1,000 bp DNA ladder

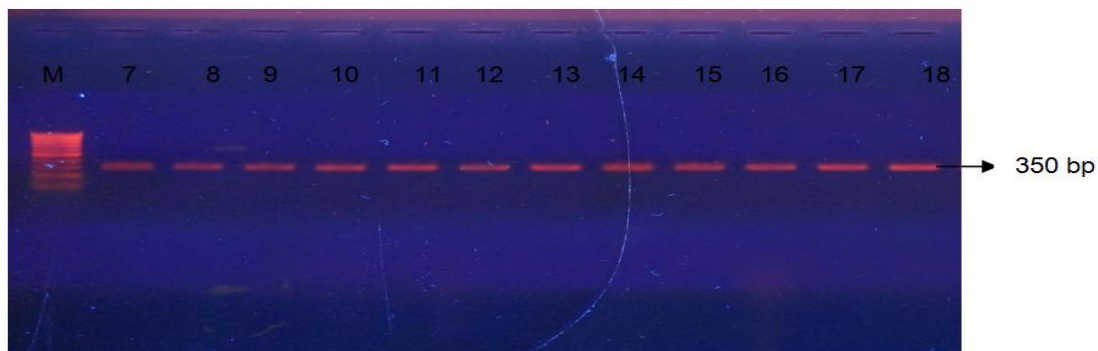


Plate 3. Gel electrophoresis profile of amplified ITS2 sequence of fungal isolates DNA from cassava wastewater. lane 7 - 18, cassava wastewater fungal isolates' DNA; lane M, 1,000 bp DNA ladder

In all, a total of 17 fungal species were detected in CP including *Eurotiomycetes* – *Eurotiales* (6 species), *Mucormycotina* – *Mucorales* (1 species), *Sordariomycetes* - *Hypocreales* (1 species), *Saccharomycetes* *Saccharomycetales* (8 species), and unidentified fungi (1 species). The dominant species was *Aspergillus niger* (15.2%).

A comparison of fungal species identified by total fungal community DNA and isolates DNA sequence analyses revealed as expected that all fungal species detected by isolates' ITS2 DNA sequence analysis were also detected by total fungal community ITS2 DNA sequence analysis. However, *Saccharomyces exigus*, *Zygosaccharomyces bailli*, *Z. florentinus*, *Candida krusei*, *C. guilliermondii* and an unidentified fungus clone B5F31 were detected only by total fungal community ITS2 DNA sequence analysis. It is generally believed that uncultured organisms comprise the vast majority of the microbial world [27].

Most of these species detected in CP have been reported to be associated with cassava fermentation for various food products. Other researchers [11,14] have also reported the dominance of *Aspergillus* species in decaying cassava peels. *Aspergillus niger* has been used to convert cassava wastes by semi-solid fermentation technique to phosphate biofertilizer [14]. *Aspergillus niger* is a filamentous ascomycete fungus that is ubiquitous in the environment particularly the soil. Although it has been implicated in opportunistic infections of humans [28], *A. niger* has industrial relevance. It produces a wide array of hydrolytic and oxidative enzymes involved in the breakdown of plant lignocellulose. The hydrolytic enzymes are responsible for polysaccharide degradation while the oxidative and extracellular ligninolytic enzymes degrade lignin and open phenyl rings [29]. *Aspergillus niger* is also an important model organism for several important research areas including the study of eukaryotic protein secretion in general, the effects of various environmental factors on suppressing or triggering the export of various biomass degrading enzymes, molecular mechanisms critical to fermentation process development, and mechanisms involved in the control of fungal morphology [30]. In addition, it has been reported that microorganisms isolated from fermented pulp juice including *Aspergillus niger* and *Aspergillus flavus* were capable of reducing the levels of cyanogenic glycosides in cassava peels to non-toxic levels and also improving the

nutritional value of the peels by increasing the protein content of the peels appreciably [31].

Penicillium expansum, *Trichoderma viride* and an unidentified fungus similar (98%) to an uncultured fungus clone B5F31 identified in this study were reported for the first time in cassava peel. These new strains were clustered together in the phylogenetic tree (Fig. 1), suggesting that they are closely related to one another.

Penicillium expansum is a known producer of important enzymes such as pectinase, protopectinase, amylase, cellulases, invertase, phospholipase and lipase. However, it is best known as the cause of distinct brown rot of apples in storage and also to lesser extent, implicated in a number of soft fruits [32], where it produces a mycotoxin – patulin.. Almost 100% of *P. expansum* isolates are patulin producers [33,34]. Human exposure by ingestion to patulin-contaminated products and can lead to serious health problems. Animals fed with *P. expansum* contaminated cassava peel can therefore be exposed to serious health hazard.

The use of biological control agents, particularly the ones also isolated from cassava peel in this study, is promising for the treatment of cassava peel for animal feed, following reports that *Panteoa agglomerans* [34], *Pichia anomala* [35] and *Rhodotorula glutinis* [36] are effective in the control of *Penicillium expansum*.

Independent phylogenetic tree was constructed for each genus of fungi identified in this study in order to establish the relatedness between species of fungi identified in this study and closely related species from the Genebank. Results showed that except for *Aspergillus flavus* (Fig. 2), other fungal species including *Aspergillus niger* (Fig. 3), *Penicillium expansum* (Fig. 4) and *Rhizopus oryzae* (Fig. 5) were closely related to sequences of species from the Genebank.

Fig. 3 showed that the *Aspergillus niger* isolated from cassava peel was closely related to *Aspergillus niger* strain AG68 isolated from a sugar factory in Thailand [37], while the *Penicillium expansum* isolated from cassava peel was closely related to *Penicillium expansum* strain isolated from decayed kiwifruit (*Actinidia arguta*) in China [38]. On the other hand, the *Rhizopus oryzae* isolated from cassava peel was closely related to *Rhizopus oryzae* strain 2013-028 isolated from sugar beet root rot in Germany.

Table 1. Distribution of fungi identified in the ITS2 clone library from cassava waste fungal community

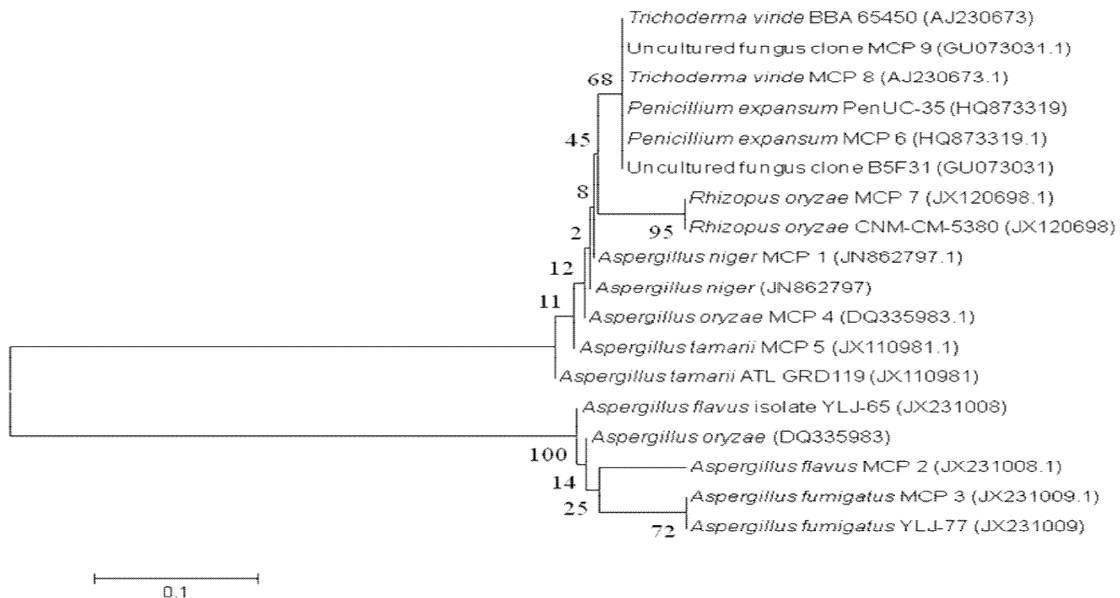
Clone identity/fungal domain	Accession number	% identity	No of clones (relative abundance)	
			P	W
Eurotiomycetes – Eurotiales				
<i>Aspergillus niger</i>	JN862797.1	100	7 (15.2%)	2 (3.5%)
<i>Aspergillus flavus</i>	JX231008.1	96	2 (4.3%)	-
<i>Aspergillus fumigates</i>	JX231009.1	100	5 (10.8%)	-
<i>Aspergillus oryzae</i>	DQ335983.1	99	3 (6.5%)	-
<i>Aspergillus tamari</i>	JX110981.1	98	4 (8.6%)	-
<i>Penicillium expansum</i>	HQ873319.1	100	3 (6.5%)	1 (1.7%)
Mucormycotina – Mucorales				
<i>Rhizopus oryzae</i>	AB181305.1	100	4 (8.6%)	-
Sordariomycetes –Hypocreales				
<i>Trichoderma viride</i>	AJ223773.1	98	2 (4.3%)	-
Saccharomycetes-Saccharomycetales				
<i>Geotrichum candidum</i>	FN376415.1	97	-	3 (5.2%)
<i>Geotrichum fragrans</i>	AB499021.1	95	-	2 (3.5%)
<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	AM900397.1	100	4 (8.6%)	5 (8.7%)
<i>Saccharomyces exigus</i>	AJ229063.1	99	2 (4.3%)	1 (1.7%)
<i>Zygosaccharomyces bailli</i>	X84641.1	99	1 (2.1%)	1 (1.7%)
<i>Zygosaccharomyces florentinus</i>	Z48363.1	98	1 (2.1%)	1 (1.7%)
<i>Candida tropicalis</i>	FJ011533.1	100	2 (4.3%)	4 (7.0%)
<i>Candida krusei</i>	AB054034.1	100	2 (4.3%)	5 (8.7%)
<i>Candida rugopelliculosa</i>	FR819719.1	92	-	1 (1.7%)
<i>Candida inconspicua</i>	EU315758.1	100	-	3(5.2%)
<i>Candida maris</i>	D43812.1	99	-	1 (1.7%)
<i>Candida glabrata</i>	U70498.1	97	-	1 (1.7%)
<i>Candida humilus</i>	HE572527.1	100	-	2 (3.5%)
<i>Candida ethanolica</i>	FJ662418.1	98	-	1 (1.7%)
<i>Candida valida</i>	AB053233.1	100	-	1 (1.7%)
<i>Candida holmii</i>	Z75740.1	93	-	2 (3.5%)
<i>Candida utilis</i>	U70504.1	100	1 (2.1%)	3 (5.2%)
<i>Pichia rhodanensis</i>	D83149.1	100	-	2 (3.5%)
<i>Pichia anomala</i>	FJ605112.1	98	-	2 (3.5%)
<i>Pichia guilliermondii</i>	DQ680842.1	96	1 (2.1%)	1 (1.7%)
<i>Pichia kudriavzevii</i>	JX174414.1	95	-	2 (3.5%)
<i>Galactomyces geotrichum</i>	JN974290.1	100	-	4 (7.0%)
<i>Issatchenkia scutulata</i>	D89349.1	100	-	4 (7.0%)
<i>Hanseniaspora guilliermondii</i>	AJ512433.1	97	-	1 (1.7%)
Tremellomycetes-Tremellales				
<i>Trichosporon asahii</i>	JQ863250.1	100	-	1 (1.7%)
Uncultured fungus				
Uncultured fungus clone B5F31	GU073031.1	98	2 (4.3%)	-

CP = Cassava peel, W = Cassava wastewater

Table 2. Distribution of fungi identified in the ITS2 fragment analysis of cassava waste fungal isolates' DNA

Isolate identity/ Bacteria domain	Accession number	% identity	No of isolates (relative abundance)	
			P	W
Eurotiomycetes – Eurotiales				
<i>Aspergillus niger</i>	JN862797.1	100	4 (22.2%)	-
<i>Aspergillus flavus</i>	JX231008.1	96	1 (5.5%)	-
<i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i>	JX231009.1	100	3 (16.6%)	-
<i>Aspergillus oryzae</i>	DQ335983.1	99	1 (5.5%)	-
<i>Aspergillus tamari</i>	JX110981.1	98	1 (5.5%)	-
<i>Penicillium expansum</i>	HQ873319.1	100	2 (11.1%)	-
Mucormycotina – Mucorales				
<i>Rhizopus oryzae</i>	JX120698.1	98	2 (11.1%)	-
Sordariomycetes – Hypocreales				
<i>Trichoderma viride</i>	AJ230673.1	100	1 (5.5%)	-
Saccharomycetes Saccharomycetales				
<i>Geotrichum candidum</i>	FN376415.1	91	-	1 (5.5%)
<i>Geotrichum fragrans</i>	GQ222355.1	94	-	1 (5.5%)
<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	AM900397.1	100	2 (11.1%)	4 (22.2%)
<i>Saccharomyces exigus</i>	AJ229063.1	100	-	1 (5.5%)
<i>Candida tropicalis</i>	FJ011533.1	99	1 (5.5%)	2 (11.1%)
<i>Candida krusei</i>	AB054034.1	98	-	3 (16.6%)
<i>Candida inconspicua</i>	EU315758.1	97	-	1 (5.5%)
<i>Candida utilis</i>	U70504.1	100	-	2 (11.1%)
<i>Issatchenkia scutulata</i>	AJ512433.1	97	-	2 (11.1%)
<i>Galactomyces geotrichum</i>	JN974290.1	100	-	1 (5.5%)

CP = cassava peel, W = cassava wastewater

**Fig. 1. Phylogenetic tree showing grouping patterns of ITS2 sequences from mould isolated from cassava peel. MCP, mould isolated from cassava peel in this study; the rest are close relatives from database. See materials and methods for details of phylogenetic reconstruction**

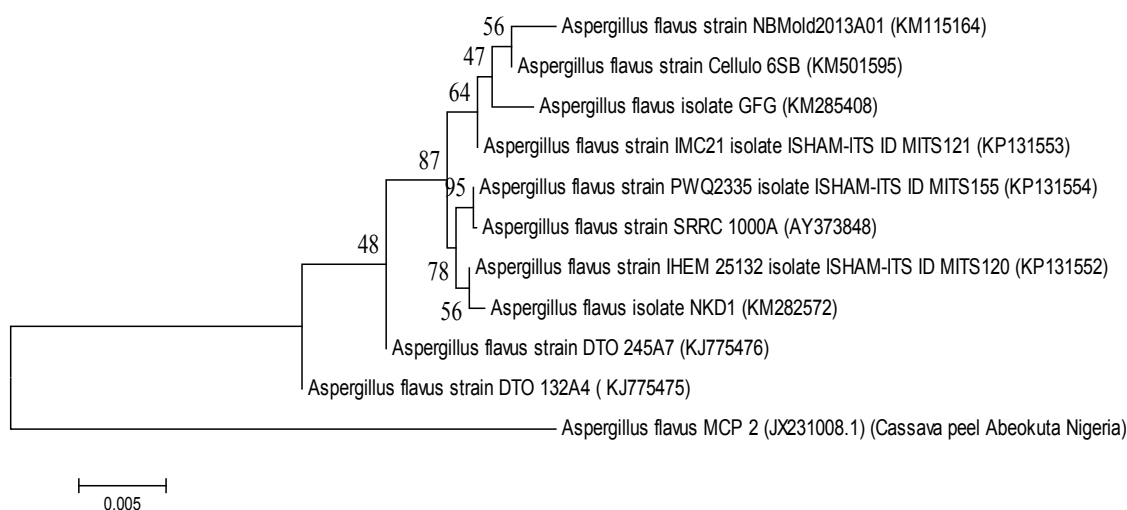


Fig. 2. Phylogenetic tree showing grouping patterns of ITS2 sequences from *Aspergillus flavus* isolated from cassava peel and sequences of closely related species from the genebank. MCP, *Aspergillus flavus* isolated from cassava peel in this study

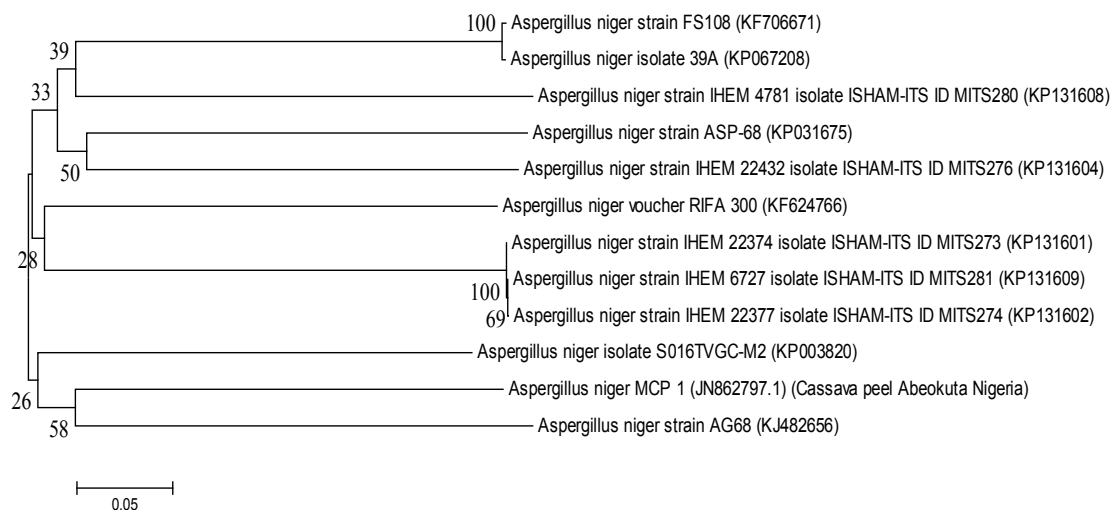


Fig. 3. Phylogenetic tree showing grouping patterns of ITS2 sequences from *Aspergillus niger* isolated from cassava peel and sequences of closely related species from the genebank. MCP, *Aspergillus niger* isolated from cassava peel in this study

3.2 Microorganisms Associated with Cassava Wastewater

The distribution of fungi identified from the ITS2 clone library of cassava wastewater fungal community DNA is also presented in Table 1. The result showed that 57 fungal clones were detected in cassava wastewater. The clones belonged to 3 major fungal domains namely *Eurotiomycetes* – *Eurotiales* (3 clones), *Saccharomycetes* – *Saccharomycetales* (53 clones) and *Tremellomycetes-Tremellales*

(1 clone). However, only 18 fungal isolates belonging to *Saccharomycetes-Saccharomycetales* domain were obtained from cassava wastewater (Table 2). In all, a total of 27 fungal species were detected in cassava wastewater belonging to *Eurotiomycetes* – *Eurotiales* (2 species), *Saccharomycetes* – *Saccharomycetales* (24 species) and *Tremellomycetes-Tremellales* (1 species). The dominant species were *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (8.7%) and *Candida krusei* (8.7%).

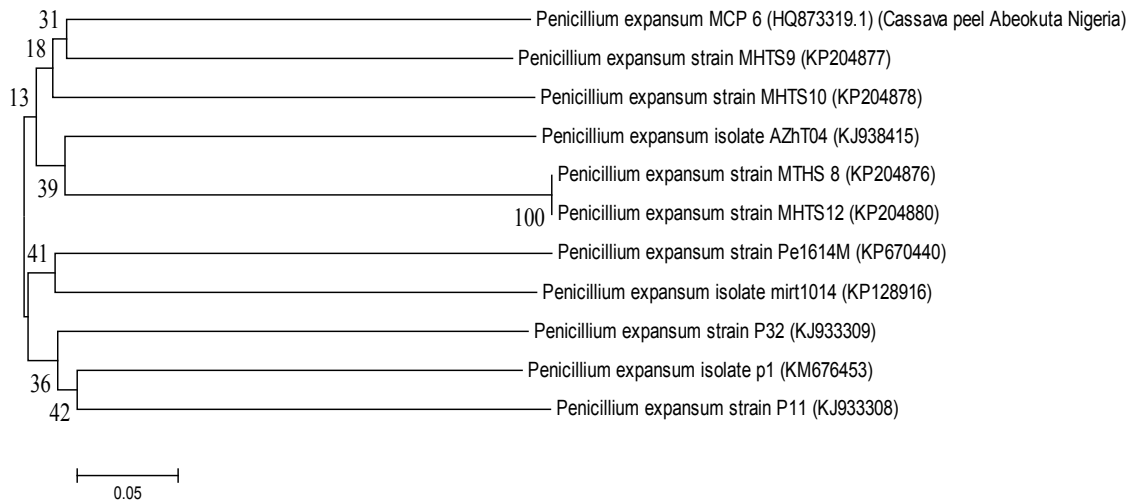


Fig. 4. Phylogenetic tree showing grouping patterns of ITS2 sequences from *Penicillium expansum* isolated from cassava peel and sequences of closely related species from the genbank. MCP, *Penicillium expansum* isolated from cassava peel in this study

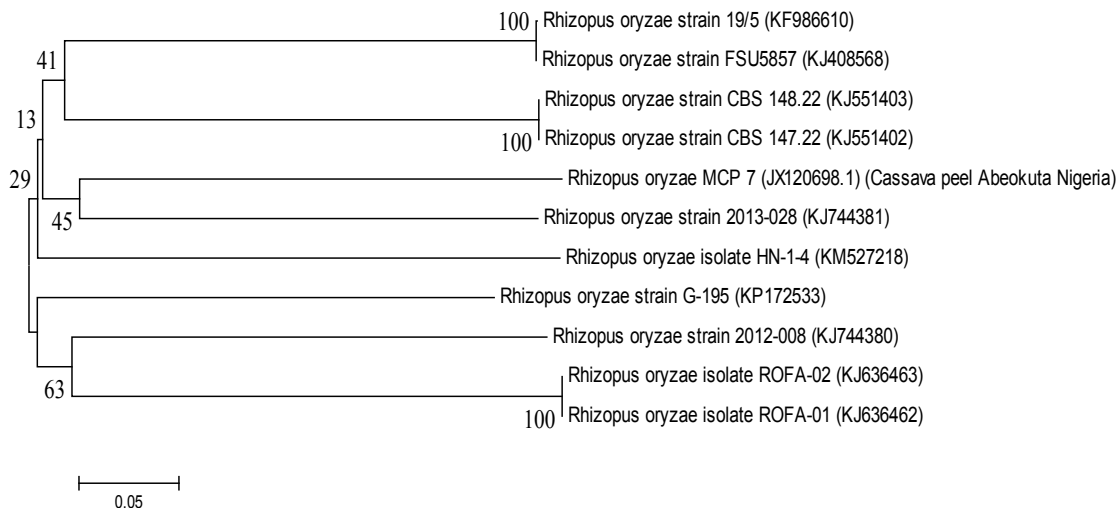


Fig. 5. Phylogenetic tree showing grouping patterns of ITS2 sequences from *Rhizopus oryzae* isolated from cassava peel and sequences of closely related species from the genbank. MCP, *Rhizopus oryzae* isolated from cassava peel in this study

A comparison of fungal species identified by total fungal community DNA and fungal isolates DNA analyses showed that all organisms detected by isolate DNA analysis were also detected by total fungal community DNA analysis. Nevertheless, *Aspergillus niger*, *Penicillium expansum*, *Zygosaccharomyces bailli*, *Z. florentinus*, *Candida rugopelliculosa*, *C. guilliermondii*, *C. maris*, *C. glabrata*, *C. humilus*, *C. ethanolica*, *C. holmii*, *Pichia anomala*, *P. rhodanensis*, *P. kudriavzevii*, *Issatchenkia scutulata*, *Hanseniaspora guilliermondii* and

Trichosporon asahii were detected only by total fungal community DNA analysis.

In principle, all species detected by isolates' DNA analysis should have been found in the clone library. However, this was not the case as few isolates detected by isolates' DNA analysis were not found in the clone library, demonstrating that cultivation-dependent and independent methods are complementary. As expected, more organisms were detected by total microbial community DNA analysis than by isolates DNA

analysis. This is also in line with the generally accepted view that plate culturing techniques reveal only a little portion of the true microbial population in a natural ecosystem.

Majority (47%) of the fungal species found in cassava wastewater were yeasts. Previous studies have reported the presence of different species of yeasts in cassava wastewater [39,40]. Likewise, different authors have reported the dominance of different species of yeast in cassava fermentation. Earlier studies reported *Geotrichum*, *Saccharomyces* and *Brettanomyces* as the predominant genera of yeasts in cassava fermentations [41,42]. However, it was later reported that *Galactomyces geotrichum* and *Issatchenkia* spp. were the prevalent yeasts [43]. In "lafun" fermentation, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* was reported as the predominant yeast species [44] while *Candida tropicalis* was the predominant species in "Attieke" [45]. The inconsistencies in the dominance of species could result from the fact that the cassava wastewater used in the different studies was obtained from different food products.

Trichosporon asahii identified in this study has been reported, previously, but at low incidence (<5%) during cassava fermentation for "lafun" production [46]. Phylogenetic analysis (result not presented) showed that *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* is not closely related to *Saccharomyces exiguus* in both cassava peel and cassava wastewater.

Generally, yeasts have been identified as the second predominant microorganisms involved in cassava fermentation after lactic acid bacteria [47,48]. It has been shown that different strains of *Candida* species participated in the traditional fermentation of cassava [49]. *Candida* species are important, especially, for their co-metabolism ability with lactic acid bacteria, a parameter reported as desirable for adequate fermentation of cassava [50]. According to another researcher [51], yeast seems to have an important role in the survival and in the activity of lactic acid bacteria during the cassava fermentation process, as they are involved in the cassava starch hydrolysis into simple sugars, which are converted into organic acids by the lactic acid bacteria.

This study has revealed the presence of fungal species such as *Zygosaccharomyces bailli*, *Geotrichum fragrans*, *Z. florentinus*, *Candida maris*, *C. humilus*, *C. ethanolica*, *C. holmii*,

Pichia anomala and *Issatchenkia scutulata* in cassava wastewater, which were not reported in previous studies. Some of these species possess many interesting technological properties which hold promises for industrial applications. It has been reported that under cassava wastewater cultivation, *Geotrichum fragrans* produced fruit aroma volatile compounds such as ester, alcohol and acid-like fruit aromas: 1-butanol, 3-methyl 1-butanol (isoamylic alcohol), 2-methyl 1-butanol, 1-3 butanediol and phenylethanol; ethyl acetate, ethyl propionate, 2-methyl ethyl propionate and 2-methyl propanoic [19]. This aerobic microorganism isolated from cassava wastewater also had cyanide resistant respiration which enhanced its ability to reduce the COD value of the cassava wastewater by 40% [19].

Similarly, *Geotrichum candidum* (anamorph; *Galactomyces geotrichum*) has demonstrated potential in food applications, particularly in the dairy industry, where it plays functional roles in cheese making. On some cheeses, like St. Marcellin, it is responsible for the appearance of the cheese, imparting a uniform, white, velvety coat to the surface [52]. On soft cheeses, such as Camembert, and semihard cheeses, such as St. Nectaire and Reblochon, the biochemical attributes of *G. candidum* impact the course of cheese ripening [53]. In addition, *G. candidum* reduces bitterness in industrial Camemberts [54]. Metabolites produced by *G. candidum* can also inhibit *Listeria monocytogenes* [55], which can cause food poisoning. Thus, the *G. candidum* identified in this study could be investigated as a possible source of cheese ripening enzymes.

Also, *Pichia anomala* has been reported as a good flavouring agent, and has applications in producing food bioemulsifiers [56]. It has also been reported to produce biosurfactant. A thermotolerant strain which was isolated from "Khao Mhak", a Thai fermented food, displayed surface lowering capacities and has attracted much interest since it is regarded as a source of protein and vitamin [57]. In addition, *P. anomala* has biotechnological significance as it is amenable to genetic analysis because of its heterothallic nature with known strains of stable opposite mating types [58].

Different strains of *Pichia guilliermondii* have been successfully applied to control postharvest pathogens on a number of fruits and vegetables, such as *Penicillium digitatum* on grapefruits, *Penicillium expansum* on apples and *Rhizopus nigricans* on tomato fruit [59,60] and

Colletotrichum capsici on chillifruit [61]. Generally, competition for nutrients and space is considered the main mode of action of yeast biocontrol agents [62].

4. CONCLUSION

This study has shown that cassava waste, on account of its rich fungal diversity, is an important microbial resource. Most of the species identified have great industrial potential. The results indicated *Aspergillus niger* as the dominant fungal species in CP waste while *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and *Candida krusei* are the dominant species in cassava wastewater. The use of molecular identification methods has further revealed novel fungal species hitherto not reported in cassava waste, thus demonstrating the importance and the need to adopt this new approach in studying microbial diversity in food and related samples.

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

REFERENCES

- Hou W, Chen X., Song G, Wang Q, Chang CC. Effect of copper and cadmium on heavy metal polluted water body restoration by duckweed (*Lemna minor*). Plant Physiol Biochem. 2007;45:62–69.
- FAO. Statistical database of the Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations; 2006. Available:<http://faostat.fao.org/> (accessed 14 August 2007; verified 2 August 2008). FAO, Rome.
- Horsfall M (Jnr.), Abia AA, Spiff AI. Kinetic studies on the adsorption of Cd²⁺, Cu²⁺ and Zn²⁺ ions from aqueous solutions by cassava (*Manihot esculanta* Crantz) tuber bark waste. Biores Technol. 2006;97:283-291.
- Isabirye MG, Ruyschaert L, Van- Linden, J, Poesen, Maguada MK, Deckers J. Soil losses due to cassava and sweet potatoes harvesting: A case study from low input traditional agriculture. Soil Tillage Res. 2007;92:96-103.
- IFPRI (2008). Reaching sustainable food security for all by 2020. Getting the priorities and responsibilities right. International Food Policy Research Institute, Washington, D.C: IFPRI. In Aeowolo and Adaja; 2012
- Arowolo AA, Adaja JI. Investigation of *Manihot esculenta* and *Manihot duleis* production in Nigeria: An econometric approach. J. Appl. Sci. Environ. 2012;3: 18-24.
- Iyayi EA, Lossel, DM. Protein enrichment of cassava by-products through solid state fermentation by fungi. The J Food Technol Afri. 2000;6(40):116-118.
- Tweyongyere R, Katongole I. Cyanogenic potential of cassava peels and their detoxification for utilization as livestock feed. Vet Hum Toxicol. 2002;44(6): 366-369.
- Akinfala EO, Tewe OO. Supplemental effects of feed additives on the utilization of whole cassava plant by growing pigs in the tropics. Livestock Res Rural Dev. 2004;16:10.
- Obboh G. Nutrient enrichment of cassava peels using a mixed culture of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and *Lactobacillus* spp. Solid media fermentation. Electr J Biotechnol. 2006; 9(1):46-49.
- Obadina AO, Oyewole OB, Sanni LO, Abiola SS. Fungal enrichment of cassava peels protein. Afri J Biotechnol. 2006;5(3): 302-304.
- Raupp Dd-S, Rosa DM, Marques SHd-P, Banzatto DA. Digestive and functional properties of a partially hydrolyzed cassava solid waste with high insoluble fiber concentration. Sci Agric (Piracicaba, Braz.). 2004;61(3):286-291.
- Adesanya OA, Oluyemi KA, Josiah SJ, Adesanya RA, Shittu LAJ, Ofusori DA, et al. Ethanol production by *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* from cassava peel hydrolysate. The Internet J Microbiol. 2008;5:1. DOI: 10.5580/4f
- Ogbo FC. Conversion of cassava wastes for biofertilizer production using phosphate solubilizing fungi. Biores Technol. 2010; 101:4120–4124.
- Beux MR, Soccol CR., Marin B, Tonial T, Roussos S. Cultivation of *Lentinus edodes* on the mixture of cassava bagasse and sugarcane bagasse. In: Roussos S, Lonsane BK, Raimbault M, Viniegra-Gonzalez G, editors. Advances in Solid State Fermentation. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Dordrecht; 1995.

16. Wang W, Xie L, Luo G, Lu Q. Optimization of biohydrogen and methane recovery within a cassava ethanol wastewater/waste integrated management system. *Biores Technol.* 2012;120:165-172.
17. Pandey J, Ganesan K, Jain RK. Variations in T-RFLP profiles with differing chemistries of fluorescent dyes used for labeling the PCR primers. *J Microbiol Meth.* 2007;68:633–638.
18. Nitschke M, Pastore GM. Production and properties of a surfactant obtained from *Bacillus subtilis* grown on cassava wastewater. *Biores Technol.* 2006;97: 336–341.
19. Damasceno S, Cereda MP, Pastore GM, Oliveira JG. Production of volatile compounds by *Geotrichum fragrans* using cassava wastewater as substrate. *Process Biochem.* 2003;39:411-414.
20. Avancini SRP, Faccin GL, Vieira MA, Rovaris AA, Podesta R, Tramonte R, et al. Cassava starch fermentation wastewater: Characterization and preliminary toxicological studies. *Food Chemical Toxicol.* 2007;45:2273–2278.
21. Oyeleke SB, Oduwole AA. Production of amylase by bacteria isolated from a cassava waste dumpsite in Minna, Niger State, Nigeria. *Afri J Microbiol Res.* 2009; 3(4):143-146.
22. Akpomie OO, Akponah E Okorawhe P. Amylase production potentials of bacterial isolates obtained from cassava root peels. *Agric Sci Res J.* 2012;2(2):95-99.
23. Elijah AI, Atanda OO, Popoola AR, Uzochukwu SVA. Molecular characterization and potentials of bacterial species associated with cassava waste. *Nig Food J.* 2014;32(2):57–66.
24. Tamura K, Peterson D, Peterson N, Stecher G, Nei M, Kumar S. MEGA5: Molecular evolutionary genetics analysis using maximum likelihood, evolutionary distance, and maximum parsimony methods. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* 2011;28(10): 2731–2739.
25. Saitou N, Nei M. The neighbour-joining method: A new method for reconstructing phylogenetic trees. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* 1987;4: 406-425.
26. Kimura M. A simple method for estimating evolutionary rate of base substitutions through comparative studies of nucleotide sequences. *J. Mol. Evol.* 1980;16:111-120.
27. Head IM, Saunders JR, Pickup RW. Microbial evolution, diversity, and ecology: A decade of ribosomal RNA analysis of uncultivated microorganisms. *Microbial. Ecol.* 1998;35:1-21.
28. Perfect JR, Cox GM, Lee, JY. The impact of culture isolation of *Aspergillus* species: A hospital-based survey of aspergillosis. *Clin. Infect. Disease.* 2001;33:1824–1833.
29. Sanchez C. Lignocellulosic residues: Biodegradation and bioconversion by fungi. *Biotechnol. Adv.* 2009;27(2): 185–194.
30. Baker SE. *Aspergillus niger* genomics: Past, present and into the future. *Medical Mycol.* 2006;44:S17-S21.
31. Adamafio NA, Sakyiamah M, Tettey J. Fermentation in cassava (*Manihot esculenta* Crantz) pulp juice improves nutritive value of cassava peel. *Afri J Biochem Res.* 2010;4(3):51-56.
32. Dahot MU. Cultivation of *P. expansum* on rice husk powder for protease production. *J. Islamic Acad. Sci.* 1993;6(3):193-196.
33. Andersen L, Smedsgaard J, Frisvad JC. *Penicillium expansum*: Consistent production of patulin, chaetoglobosins and other secondary metabolites in culture and their natural occurrence in fruit products. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 2004;52:2421–2428.
34. Morales H, Marín S, Obea L, Patino B, Domenech M, Ramos AJ. Ecophysiological characterization of *Penicillium expansum* population in Lleida (Spain). *Int. J. Food Microbiol.* 2008;122: 243–252.
35. Lahlali R, Massart S, De Clercq D, Serrhini MN, Creemers P, Jijakli MH. Assessment of *Pichia anomala* (strain K) efficacy against blue mould of apples when applied pre- or post-harvest under laboratory conditions and in orchard trials. *Eur. J. Plant Pathol.* 2009;123:37–45.
36. Zhang HY, Wang L, Ma LC, Dong Y, Jiang S, Xu B. Biocontrol of major postharvest pathogens on apple using *Rhodotorula glutinis* and its effects on postharvest quality parameters. *Biol. Control.* 2009;48: 79–83.
37. Boonyuen N, Manoch L, Luangsa-ard JJ, Piasai O, Chamswarnng C, Chuaseeharonnachai C, Ueapattanakit J, Arnthong J, Sri-indrasutdhi V. Decomposition of sugarcane bagasse with lignocellulose-derived thermotolerant and

- thermo-resistant *Penicillia* and *Aspergilli*. Int. Biodeterior. Biodegradation. 2014;92: 86-100.
38. Wang CW, Ai J, Lv HY, Qin HY, Yang YM, Liu YX, Fan ST. First report of *Penicillium expansum* causing postharvest decay on stored kiwifruit (*Actinidia arguta*) in China. Plant Dis. 2015;99(7):1037.
 39. Arotupin DJ. Evaluation of microorganisms from cassava wastewater for production of amylase and cellulose. Res. J. Microbiol. 2007;2(5):475-480.
 40. Ahaotu CC, Ogueke CI, Owuamanam NN, Ahaotu, Nwosu JN. Protein improvement in gari by the use of pure cultures of microorganisms involved in the natural fermentation process. Pakistan J. Biol. Sci. 2011;14:933-938.
 41. Cárdenas OS, de-Buckle TS. Sour cassava starch production: A preliminary study. J. Food Sci. 1980;45:1509–1512.
 42. Carvalho EP, Canhos VP, Vilela ER, Asqueri ER, Carvalho HP. Determinacion de la flora microbiana de la fecula de yuca fermentada (Polvilho azedo) durante las diferentes etapas de procesamiento. Alimentaria, Madrid. 1999;305:97–103.
 43. Lacerda ICA, Miranda RL, Borelli BM, Nunes AC, Nardi RMD, Lachance MA et al. Lactic acid bacteria and yeasts associated with spontaneous fermentations during the production of sour cassava starch in Brazil. Int. J. Food Microbiol. 2005;105:213–219.
 44. Padonou SW, Nielsen DS, Hounhouigan JD, Thorsen L, Nago MC, Jakobsen M. The Microbiota of Lafun, an African traditional cassava food product. Int. J. Food Microbiol. 2009b;133:22–30.
 45. Coulin P, Farah Z, Assanvo J, Spillmann H, Puhan Z. Characterisation of the microflora of “attieke”, a fermented cassava product, during traditional small-scale preparation. Int. J. Food Microbiol. 2006;106:131–136.
 46. Padonou SW, Hounhouigan JD, Nago MC. Physical, chemical and microbiological characteristics of “lafun” produced in Benin. Afr. J. Biotechnol. 2009a;8(14): 3320-3325.
 47. Okafor N. Microorganisms associated with cassava fermentation for gari production. J. Appl. Bacteriol. 1977;42:279–284.
 48. Oyewole OB, Odunfa SA. Characterization and distribution of lactic acid bacteria in cassava fermentation during fufu production. J. Appl. Bacteriol. 1990;68: 145-152.
 49. Oguntoyinbo FA. Evaluation of diversity of *Candida* species isolated from fermented cassava during traditional small scale gari production in Nigeria. Fd Control. 2008;19: 465–469.
 50. Amoa-Awua WKA, Appoh FE, Jakobsen M. Lactic acid fermentation of cassava dough into “agbelima”. Int. J. Food Microbiol. 1996;31:87–98.
 51. Oyewole OB. Characteristics and significance of yeasts involvement in cassava fermentation for ‘fufu’ production. Int. J. Fd. Microbiol. 2001;65(3):213–218.
 52. Gueguen M, Schmidt JL. Les levures et *Geotrichum candidum*. In: Hermier J, Lenoir J, Weber F, editors. Paris, France: Les groupes microbiens d’intere`t laitier. CEPIL; 1992. French.
 53. Marcellino N, Beuvier E, Grappin R, GUE’guen M, Benson DR. Diversity of *Geotrichum candidum* strains isolated from traditional cheesemaking fabrications in France. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 2001; 67(10):4752–4759.
 54. Auberger B, Lenoir J, Bergere JL. Partial characterization of exopeptidases produced by a strain of *Geotrichum candidum*. Sciences des Aliment. 1997;17: 655-670.
 55. Dieuleveux VD, Pyl VD, Chataud J, Gue’guen M. Purification and characterization of anti-Listeria compounds produced by *Geotrichum candidum*. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 1998;64:800–803.
 56. Shepherd R, Rocky J, Sutherland JW, Roller S. Novel bioemulsifiers from microorganisms for use in foods. J. Biotechnol. 1995;40:207-217.
 57. Litchfield JN. Single-cell protein. Sci. 1983; 219:740-746.
 58. Kurtzman CP. *Pichia hansen*. In: Kreger-van Rij NJW, editor. The Yeasts, a Taxonomic Study, 3rd ed. Amsterdam: Elsevier; 1984.
 59. Scherm B, Ortu G, Muzzu A, Budroni M, Arras G, Migheli O. Biocontrol activity of antagonistic yeasts against *Penicillium expansum* on apple. J. Plant Pathol. 2003; 85:205–213.
 60. Zhao Y, Tu K, Shao XF, Jing W, Su ZP. Effects of the yeast *Pichia guilliermondii*

- against *Rhizopus nigricans* on tomato fruit. Postharvest Biol. Technol. 2008;49:113–120.
61. Nantawanit N, Chanchaichaovivat A, Panijpan B Ruenwongsa P. Induction of defense response against *Colletotrichum capsici* in chili fruit by the yeast *Pichia guilliermondii* strain R13. Biol. Control. 2010;52:145–152.
62. Zhang D, Spadaro D, Garibaldi A, Gullino M. Potential biocontrol activity of a strain of *Pichia guilliermondii* against grey mold of apples and its possible modes of action. Biol. Control. 2011;57:193–201.

© 2016 Elijah and Asamudo; This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0>), which permits unrestricted use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Peer-review history:
The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here:
<http://sciencedomain.org/review-history/12217>