

SURVEY FOR FUNGAL DECAYING ARCHAEOLOGICAL WOOD AND THEIR ENZYMATIC ACTIVITY

Mohamed El-Sayed OSMAN¹, Amany Abo El-Nassr EL-SHAPHY¹, Dalia Ahmed MELIGY², Maha Mahmoud AYID^{3*}

 ¹ Department of Botany and Microbiology, Faculty of Science, Helwan University, Egypt.
 ² Environmental pollution Researches Center, Ministry of Antiquities affairs, Egypt.
 ³ Microbiology Lab, Conservation center, Grand Egyptian Museum, Ministry of Antiquities Affairs, Egypt.

Abstract

Fungi play a considerable role in deterioration/degradation of cultural heritage due to their enormous enzymatic activity. A total of 112 fungal isolates were identificated from selected archaeological wood objects located at different areas (Islamic Art Museum, Storage area of Cheops's Solar Boat, Excavation of Saqqara and Grand Egyptian Museum). Aspergillus spp. were predominant in all investigated samples. Thirty seven fungal isolates were screened for cellulases, pectinases and ligninases activity. Aspergillus brasiliensis Varga, Frisvad et Janos and Penicillium duclauxii Delacroix exhibited high cellulolytic activity while Aspergillus amstelodami (Mangin) Thom and Cruch and Aspergillus parasiticus Speare have high pectinolytic activity. Seven fungal species showed ligninolytic potential activity based on their ability to oxidize dyes.

Keywords: Biodeterioration/biodegradation; Archaeological wood; Cultural heritage; Fungal cellulases; Pectinases; Ligninases.

Introduction

The fungal colonization of art pieces presented in display rooms of museums, galleries or stored in depots is nowadays a significant problem for cultural heritage conservators [1]. Materials colonized by fungi usually undergo changes in their chemical and physical characteristics [2], leading to biodeterioration/biodegradation and must not be neglected due to the increasing aesthetic value of art objects as well as the impact on health of the curator.

Moisture is a key factor to achieving the microbial decay. Even in buried tombs from arid regions some moisture is usually present, allowing selected microbes to grow and progressively degrade the wood. In addition to moisture, many other factors influence microorganism growth, such as temperature, pH, nitrogen, and other nutrients [3]. Favorable conditions allow rapid colonization by fungi and fast decomposition, but unfavorable conditions

Corresponding author: ayidmaha@gmail.com Tel: +201118044327

usually cause develop of other organisms which tolerate the extreme environmental conditions to dominate. The type of wood and presence of extractives within the wood cells also influences decay [4].

The fungus represent the principal factors of wood degradation in terrestrial sites and decay can be classified into broad categories of white, brown, and soft rot depending on the color and texture of the residual wood after decay [3, 5]. In historical and cultural wooden objects soft rot decay has been described in wood samples from a range of sites and environments, for example waterlogged archaeological wood, construction timbers in great houses lived-in by native Americans, ancient wooden coffins and tomb structures, a wide range of ancient wooden Egyptian objects, and the historic expedition huts in Antarctica [3, 6-12]. This type of decay occurs generally when wood is exposed to excessive moisture, but it can also occur in dry environments [7]. Before wood degradation occurs by the actions of extracellular enzymes and other metabolites produced by fungi, the type and sequence of attack on wood cell wall components (i.e. cellulose, hemicelluloses and lignin) can vary depending on the specific degradative actions of the fungus. However fungi are well known as agents of decomposition of organic matter, in general, and of cellulosic substrate in particular [13]. Pectinases are the first cell wall degrading enzymes that are secreted by pathogens and are important virulence factors [14]. Pectinases are group of enzymes that attack pectin and depolymerize it by hydrolysis and trans-elimination as well as by de-esterification reactions, which hydrolyses the ester bond between carboxyl and methyl groups of pectin [15]. They weaken the plant cell wall and expose other polymers to degradation by hemicellulases and cellulases. Enzymes hydrolyzing cellulose have been categorized as endoglucanases and exoglucanases that act synergistically [16].

By contrast, lignin is highly resistant in chemical and biological degradation, and confers mechanical resistance to wood. The main groups of fungal ligninolytic enzymes (ligninases) are lignin peroxidase (LiP), manganese peroxidase (MnP) and laccase (Lac). Although many different types of microorganisms are capable to degrade using cellulases as carbon and energy sources, a much smaller group of microorganisms especially fungi, have evolved the ability to break down lignin. Different group of fungi have been reported as producers of ligninolytic enzymes [17]. Most of the lignocellulolytic fungi secrete extracellular enzymes released in the presence or absence of inducers in the media [18, 19].

Materials and methods

Samples collection

Various biodeteriorated/biodegradated wood samples were collected from different archaeological objects in different areas (Islamic Art Museum, Storage area of Cheops's Solar Boat, Excavation of Saqqara and Grand Egyptian Museum) (Table 1).

Isolation and Identification of fungi

Isolation of fungi was carried out using sterile cotton swab technique or biodeteriorated/biodegradated wood pieces technique. In biodeteriorated/biodegradated wood pieces technique, very small biodeteriorated/biodegradated wood separated from the original ancient wood objects were surface sterilized by soaking for one minute in a 5% hypochlorite solution, followed by two rinses in sterile distilled water, sliced and cultured on a variety of enriched and semi-selective media prepared as agar plates.

The used media were potato dextrose agar, PDA (Difco), cellulose agar medium and Lignin Cellulose medium (LCM) [20], supplemented with chloramphenicol (100mg/L) to prevent bacterial contamination. Isolated fungi were identified at least to the genus level

depending on their morphological characteristics on different culture media (Czapek agar media- Malt extract agar media) using Upright light microscopes (Zeiss) with the aid of the following references: [21-24] and identification of some species were confirmed by Assiut University Mycological Center (AUMC), Egypt.

Current	Current Name of object		Number	Code of sample	
Location		Dynasty			
Islamic Art Museum	Stucco window surrounded by wooden frames	Osmanic period	No. 9393/1	Code.1	
	Wooden mask from coffin carrying the remains of the plaster layer	Late period	No.341wl/2012	Code.2	
	contains drawings of four God of the dead (Anubis and Horas)	Late period (No. 330wl/2012		Code.3	
Excavation of Saqqara	Cover of wooden coffin loses both of the chest and face. This part contains the drawings represent died and canopic containers. There are also drawings of some of the dead gods.	Late period	No. 340wl/2012)	Code.4	
	Abo-Rawash boat	Archaic Period -First dynasty period- king Den	-	Code.5	
	3 Offering food box of Tut Ankhamun	Modern period- Eighteenth dynasty	Gem 6827, 6831 and 6842	Code. 6,7 and 8 respectively	
Grand Egyptian Museum	3 Wooden black box for shawabti statute of Tut Ankhamun	Modern period- Eighteenth dynasty	Gem 478 , 476 and 477	Code. 9,10 and11 respectively	
	2 model of boat of Tut Ankhamun	Modern period- Eighteenth dynasty	Gem 4621 and 4618	Code.12 and13 respectively	
Storage area of Cheops's Solar Boat	Falling parts of boat have been replaced with other parts during restoration	Old kingdom - Fourth dynasty	-	Code.14	

Table 1. Types and sites of collected samp

Screening for cellulolytic activity

Thirty seven fungal isolates were preliminary screened for cellulolytic enzyme activity using disc plate method. The basal medium described by S. Bland and E.E. Douglas [25] was used for cellulose production. The developed colonies were further incubated at 50°C for 8 hour to detect the clear zone around their growth [26]. The diameter of the clear zone formed around the colonies corresponds to the enzymatic activity of the culture and was determined using Rosebengal as described by S. Bland and E.E. Douglas [25].

Quantitative assay for cellulase activity. Filter paper assay

Cellulase activity was determined by a method of M. Mandels *et al.* [27]. An aliquot of 0.5mL of cell-free culture supernatant was transferred to a clean test tube and 1.0mL of sodium acetate buffer (pH = 4) was added. Whatman #1 filter paper strip (6cm ×1.0cm) was added to each tube. The mixture was incubated in a water bath at 50°C for 30min [28, 29] followed by an addition of 1ml of 3,5 dinitrosalicylic acid reagent [30]. Tubes were then placed in a boiling water bath for 5min and then in an ice-bath. The developed colour was detected at wavelength 540nm using T 60 U Spectrophotometer. The amount of reducing sugar liberated was quantified

using glucose as standard. One unit of cellulase is defined as the amount of enzyme that liberates 1µmol of glucose equivalents per minute under the assay conditions [31].

Carboxymethyl Cellulase "CMCase" (endoglucanase) assay

CMCase activity was determined by the method of M. Mandels *et al.* [27] as described above with a modification of using 0.5mL of 1% (w/v) CMC as a substrate instead of filter paper strips. Enzyme activity was determined in terms of International Unit (IU) which is defined as an amount of enzyme that produces 1 μ mole of glucose per minute.

Pectinase assay

Pectinase activity was determined using citrus pectin as substrate. The reaction mixture, containing equal amounts of 1% pectin prepared in sodium acetate buffer (0.1M; pH = 5.0) and suitably diluted crude enzyme, was incubated at 50°C in water bath for 30 minutes. The reaction was stopped with 1.0mL dinitrosalicylic acid solution [30] and then the mixture was boiled for 10min and cooled. The colour was detected at wavelength 540nm. The amount of reducing sugar released was quantified using galacturonic acid as standard.

Soluble protein assay

Protein content of the culture supernatant was determined according to the method described O.H. Lowry *et al.* [32]. One ml of the crude enzyme supernatant was used and 5.0mL reaction mixture was added in a clean dry test tube. The tubes were kept at room temperature for 10 minutes. Then 0.5mL of Folin reagent (Fluka) was added to the previous mixture. After 30 minutes, the optical density of the sample was determined spectrophotometry at 700nm against blank.

Screening for ligninolytic enzyme on solid medium with isolated fungi

Synthetic phenolic reagents such as 0.01% guaiacol was used as an indicator for the ligninolytic enzyme reaction with fungal isolates on 2% MEA or PDA plates [33].

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis of data was carried out by using one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by homogenous subsets (Duncuna) using the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) version 17. Duncan's multiple range tests were used at significance P = 0.05 according to F. Colao *et al.* [34].

Results and Discussion

Isolation and identification of fungi

A total number of 112 fungal isolates were selected from different wooden artifacts located at different area and then identified. The isolates belong to the phyla *Deuteromycota* (10 genera), *Ascomycota* (4) and *Zygomycota* (1). 95 isolates were from plates incubated at 28°C and 17 from plates incubated at 37°C. The number of fungi isolated on each medium was as follows: 61 isolates on PDA; 23 isolates on Cellulose agar Medium and 28 isolates on Lignin Cellulose medium (LCM) (Table 2). All fungal isolates were transferred by sub-culturing from hyphal tips, colonies or spores to fresh PDA plates for pure culture.

Biodeteriogens/biodegradogens are organisms involved in deterioration and degradation of artifacts. They are very specific for each type of artifact in accordance with its chemical structure and environment. They also have different nutritional requirements and act directly or indirectly on the substrate. The main intrinsic reasons for the permanent establishment of microorganisms on ancient surfaces are their capacity of adhesion, oligotrophy, metabolic flexibility and tolerance to adverse conditions. The adhesion of microorganisms to a substrate is the result of cell hydrophobicity and of excreted polymeric substance contained by sheaths, capsules and slimes [35].

Fungal isolata	Archaeological objects					Frequency	Incubation		Isolation media						
Fungarisolate	1	2	3	4	5	6 -11	12	13	14	%	28°C	37°C	PDA	Cellulose agar media	LC M
Alternaria alternate	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	7.1%	+	-	+	-	+
Alternaria sp	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	7.1%	+	-	+	-	-
Aspergillus aegyptiacus	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	7.1%	+	-	-	+	-
A. amstelodami (AUMC No. 9486)	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	7.1%	+	-	-	-	+
A. brasiliensis (AUMC No. 9482)	+	-	+	+	+		-	+	-	35.7%	+	+	+	+	+
A. flavipes	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.1%	+	NT	+	-	-
A. flavus group	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	7.1%	-	+	+	-	-
A. flavus var columnaris	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	21.4%	+	-	+	+	+
A. niger	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	7.1%	-	+	+	-	+
A. ochraceus	-	-	+	-	-		-	-	-	7.1%	+	-	+	+	-
A. parasiticus (AUMC No. 9483)	-	-	+	-	-		-	-	+	14.2%	+	+	+	+	+
A terreus	-	-	-	+	-		-	-	+	14.2%	+	-	+	-	+
A. terreus Var. africanus (AUMC No. 9485)	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.1%	+		+	-	-
A versicolor group(1)	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.1%	+	+	-	-	+
A versicolor group(2)	-	-	-	+	+		-	-	-	14.2%	+	-	+	+	-
Aspergillus sp. (1)	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.1%	+	NT	+	-	-
Aspergillus sp (2)	-	-	-	-	-		-	-	+	7.1%	+	-	-	+	-
Chaetomium sp	-	-	-	-	-		-	-	+	7.1%	+	-	+	-	-
Cladosporium cladosporioides	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	7.1%	+	-	+	+	+
Cladosporium sp (1)	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	14.2%	+	-	+	+	_
Cladosporium sp.(1)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	7.1%	+	-	+	+	+
Emericella nidulans	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	7.1%	_	+	_	_	+
Enicoccum nigrum	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.1%	+		+	-	+
(AUMC No. 9489)										7.10/	,	NT			
Eurotium amstelodami	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.1%	+	-	+	-	-
E. chevalieri	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.1%	+	-	+	-	-
E. glaucus	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.1%	+	NI	+	-	+
Paecilomyces sp.	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	7.1%	+	-	+	-	-
Pencillium capsulatum (AUMC No. 9491)	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	7.1%	+	-	+	-	-
P. duclauxii (AUMC No. 9487)	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	7.1%	-	+	-	-	+
Penicillium sp. (1)	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	7.1%	+	-	+	-	+
Penicillium sp. (2)	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	21.4%	+	-	+	+	+
Penicillium sp. (3)	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	14.2%	+	+	+	+	-
Penicillium sp. (4)	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.1%	+	-	-	+	-
Phoma sp.(AUMC No. 9481)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	7.1%	+	-	+	-	-
Scopulariopsis sphaerospora	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.1%	+	-	-	-	+
(AUMC No. 9490) Stemphylium botryosum	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	7.1%	+		+	-	-
(AUMC No. 9484)	-									7 10/	L	NT			
Trichonhyton sp (1)	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	7.1%	+	-		+	-
Trichophyton sp. (1)	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	7.1%	+	+	+	+	-
Ulooladium en	-	-	-	-	т _	-	-	-	-	7 10/	- -	Ŧ	- -	Ŧ	-
Total No. of isolates	-	-	-	-		112	-	-	-	/.1/0	05	17	61	- 23	- 28
1 0tai 110. 01 ISUIAICS						112					75	1 /	01	43	20

Table 2. Fungi isolated from different archaeological objects in different locations
(Islamic Art Museum, Storage area of Cheops's Solar Boat, Excavation of Saqqara and Grand Egyptian Museum).

Note + = presence of fungal isolates; - = absence of fungal isolates & NT means not tested.

Object 1= wooden frames of Stucco window; object 2= wooden mask No.341WL/2012; object 3= Part of wooden coffin No.330WL/2012; object 4= Cover of wooden coffin No. 340WL/2012; object 5= Abo-Rawash boat; object 6= Offering food box of Tut Ankhamun Gem 6827; object 7= Offering food box Gem 6831; object 8= Offering food box Gem 6842; object 9= Wooden black box for shawabti statute Gem 478; object 10= Wooden black box for shawabti statute Gem 476; object 12= model of boat Gem 4621; object 13= model of boat Gem 4618 and object 14 = Falling wooden parts of Cheops's Solar boat.

The obtained results showed that 26 isolates, represented 10 fungal species were obtained from Storage area of Cheops's Solar Boat. The most dominant fungi on falling wooden parts of Cheops's Solar boat (object 14) were *Aspergillus* (5 spp.), *Penicillium* (1sp.), *Alternaria* (1 sp.), *Cladosporium* (1 sp.), *Chaetomium* (1 sp.), and *Phoma* (1 sp.). The results also, showed that 24 isolates, representing 9 fungal species were obtained from Islamic Art Museum. The most dominant fungi on wooden frames of Stucco window No. 9393/1 (object 1) were *Aspergillus* (4 spp.), *Penicillium* (1sp.), *Cladosporium* (1 sp.), *Syncephalastrum* (1 sp.), *Epicoccum* (1 sp.), and *Eurotium* (1 sp.). While the examination of Abo-Rawash boat (object 5) from Grand Egyptian Museum revealed the presence of 22 isolates, representing 9 fungal species were *Aspergillus* (2 spp.), *Trichophyton* (2 spp.), *Penicillium* (1sp.), *Cladosporium* (1 sp.). Alternaria (1 sp.), *Ulocladium* (1 sp.), and *Stemphylium* (1 sp.). Also, 16 isolates

representing 12 fungal species were obtained from Excavation of Saqqara. The most dominant fungi on Cover of wooden coffin No. 340WL/2012 (object 4) were *Aspergillus* (6 spp.), *Penicillium* (3 spp.), *Cladosporium* (1 sp.), *Emericella* (1 sp.), and *Paecilomyces* (1 sp.). On the other hand, the examination of object 3 (Part of wooden coffin No. 330WL/2012) revealed the presence of 11 isolates, representing 5 fungal species from genera *Aspergillus* (3 spp.), and *Penicillium* (2 spp.). Also object 2 (wooden mask No. 341WL/2012) examination revealed the presence of 6 isolates, representing 5 fungal species from genera *Aspergillus* (2 spp.), *Eurotium* (2 spp.) and *Scopulariopsis* (1 sp.). The results also showed that 5 isolates, representing 2 species of *Aspergillus* were obtained from boat model of Tutankhamun Gem No. 4618 (object 13) and one species of *Pencillium* from boat model Gem No. 4621 (object 12). The results of objects 6 to 11 showed no fungal colonization on the used media due to the controlled condition system.

These results are in line with those obtained by A.M. Abed ElHameed [36] who isolated Alternaria alternata, Aspergillus flavus, A. versicolor, A. niger, A. terreus, Cladosporium cladosporioides, Mortierella sp., and Pencillium chrysogenum from wooden coffins in Egyptian museum. Also, similar results were obtained by H. Hanna [37] who isolated species of the genera Alternaria, Aspergillus, Pencillium, Rhizopus and Stemphylium from wood specimens of Cheops boat. G.M. Ljaljevic et al. [38] isolated species of Absidia, Alternaria, Aspergillus, Chaetomium, Neurospora, Penicillium, Rhizopus, Syncephalastrum and Trichoderma from the wooden substratum in the quarantine room of the Cultural Center of Belgrade. Also, D. Bridžiuvienė and V. Raudonienė [39] isolated Alternaria, Cladosporium, Fusarium, Penicillium, Phoma, Trichoderma and Ulocladium genera from treated wood. Also, S.M.N. Maghazy et al. [40] isolated 106 fungal species related to 41 genera collected from 32 places (16 Pharaonic, 8 Greek Roman and 8 Coptic) in Minia governorate. From the isolated genera, Alternaria, Aspergillus, Penicillium, Cladosporium, Chaetomium, Emericela, Epicoccum, Paecilomyces, Phoma, Stemphylium, Syncephalastrum, and Ulocladium.

The most common fungi isolated from different wooden objects belonged to the following genera *Aspergillus* (35.78%), followed by *Cladosporium* (28.34%) and *Pencillium* (18.33%), while other fungal species were detected at low incidence rate (Table 3).

H.A. Burge et al. [41] reported that the most prevalent molds growing in indoor environments were Penicillium, Aspergillus, and Cladosporium species. Penicillium and Aspergillus spp. can produce numerous mitospores, or conidia, which are easily dispersed by the air, where they include species that can grow at relatively lower moisture availability than other cellulolytic fungi. These fungi and certain species of Alternaria are usually as contaminants or biodeterioration agents in many different habitats and materials, including those considered as representative of historical and cultural heritage [42]. Penicillium usually forms green colonies on wood surface nevertheless they rarely have been reported to cause soft rot [43]. Cladosporium sp. is cosmopolitan and has a high abundance in air samples in many areas of the world. Cladosporium cladosporioides isolated from freshly sawn wood [44] and Chromated copper arsenate (CCA)-treated wood [43], and can degrade historic wood [45]. Furthermore, this species has been found causing soft-rot type 2 attack on birch wood [46]. Cladosporium, Phoma as well as Ulocladium have black pigment (melanin) that caused distinctly seen dark grey discoloration on wood joints studied [22]. J.-J. Kim et al. [43] reported that even 45% of the isolates from CCA-treated wood radiata pine board stored at the yard in Korea have been Phoma species though in the study of D. Bridžiuvienė and V. Raudonienė [39] it was isolated only once as in the present study. The genus Chaetomium includes more than 80 different species and many of them have been reported to occur on or in wood [47]. T. Nilsson [48] demonstrated that C. globosum, C. elatum, and C. funicola, can cause weight losses of 20% or more on birch wood, and all three species can produce both type 1 and type 2 soft-rot attack, and *Chaetomium* thermophilum can also cause soft-rot attack on wood, with weight losses of 13.8%, at very high temperature. However, for this case study, the deteriogenic potential of the *Chaetomium* sp. isolated cannot be stated, as they were not identified to the species level.

No. of	Fungel isolete	Occurrence	Phylum	
Isolates	Fungarisolate	%	rnyium	
1	Alternaria alternata	2.68%		
2	Alternaria sp.	0.89%		
3	Aspergillus aegyptiacus	0.89%		
4	A. amstelodami	0.89%		
5	A. brasiliensis	11.61%		
6	A. flavipes	0.89%		
7	A. flavus group	1.79%		
8	A. flavus var columnaris	8.03%	Deuteromycota	
9	A. niger	3.57%	Deuteromyeota	
10	A. ochraceus	1.79%		
11	A. parasiticus	9.82%		
12	A. terreus	1.79%		
13	A. terreus Var. africanus	0.89%		
14	A. versicolor group(1)	1.79%		
15	A. versicolor group (2)	2.68%		
16	Aspergillus sp. (1)	0.89%		
17	Aspergillus sp.(2)	0.89%		
18	Chaetomium sp.	0.89%	Ascomycota	
19	Cladosporium cladosporioides	6.25%	Deuteromycota	
20	Cladosporium sp.(1)	2.68%	Deuteronnycota	
21	Cladosporium sp.(2)	5.36%		
22	Emericella nidulans	0.89%	Ascomycota	
23	Epicoccum nigrum	0.89%	Deuteromycota	
24	Eurotium amstelodami	0.89%	Accomycosta	
25	E. chevalieri	0.89%	Ascomycota	
26	E. glaucus	1.79%		
27	Paecilomyces sp.	0.89%		
28	Pencillium capsulatum	0.89%		
29	Penicillium duclauxii	0.89%		
30	Penicillium sp.(1)	0.89%		
31	Penicillium sp.(2)	7.14%		
32	Penicillium sp.(3)	4.46%	Deuteromycota	
33	Penicillium sp.(4)	0.89%		
34	Phoma sp.	0.89%		
35	Scopulariopsis sphaerospora	0.89%		
36	Stemphylium botryosum	0.89%		
37	Svncephalastrum racemosum	1.79%	Zvgomvcota	
38	Trichophyton sp. (1)	0.89%		
39	Trichophyton sp. (2)	2.68%	Ascomycota	
40	Ulocladium sp.	1.79%	Deuteromycota	

Table 3. Occurrence of different fungi isolated from different wooden objects

Screening for fungal Cellulases

37 fungal isolates obtained were tested for cellulases production [FPase and endoglucanase (CMCase)]. During the present study, filter paper assay for cellulase activity was found to be highest in *Aspergillus brasiliensis* with 24.48U/mL and endoglucanase with an activity level represented by 18.23U/mL, followed by *Penicillium duclauxii* which gave FPase (24.27U/mL) and CMCase (17.74U/mL). The activities ranged from 14.96 to 24.48U/mL for FPase. Not all the tested species were capable of exhibiting hydrolysis for CMC so the activities ranged from very low or no detectable to with the highest level (18.23U/mL) for endoglucanase assay. The two species *Aspergillus brasiliensis* and *Penicillium duclauxii* exhibited the highest extracellular cellulase activities compared to other isolates as shown in activity assay performed for all isolates (Table 4). Soluble protein also varied greatly as indicated in Table 4. There was

a negative correlation between cellulase activity (diameter of clear zone) and soluble protein (r = -0.08437).

No Europhicolate		Diameter of Clear	FPase	CMCase	Soluble protein
190.	r ungai isolate	zone (cm)	(U mL-1)	(U mL-1)	(µg/ml)
1	Alternaria alternata	$4.06\pm0.05^{\text{de}}$	$19.42\pm0.37^{\text{de}}$	$10.70\pm0.30^{\text{efg}}$	292
2	Alternaria sp.	3.20 ± 0.20^{kl}	17.67 ± 0.31^{ghi}	11.79 ± 0.43^{bcde}	296
3	Aspergillus aegyptiacus	3.53 ± 0.11^{ghijk}	18.23 ± 0.73^{fgh}	$10.59\pm0.64^{\text{fg}}$	141
4	A. amstelodami	3.86 ± 0.15^{efg}	21.60 ± 0.41^{bc}	11.19± 0.55 ^{cdefg}	240
5	A. brasiliensis	5.80 ± 0.17^{a}	24.48 ± 0.52^{a}	18.56 ± 0.80^{a}	188
6	A. flavipes	3.76 ± 0.20^{efgh}	$18.13 \pm 0.28^{\text{fgh}}$	$10.59 \pm 0.70^{\text{fg}}$	195
7	A. flavus group	3.27 ± 0.25^{jkl}	15.96 ± 0.49^{klmn}	ND	269
8	A. flavus var columnaris	$3.2 \ 0 \pm 0.26^{kl}$	16.15 ± 0.38^{klm}	$11.49 \pm \ 0.67^{bcdef}$	229
9	A. ochraceus	4.06 ± 0.20^{de}	$20.81 \pm 0.74^{\circ}$	10.90 ± 0.70^{cdefg}	202
10	A. parasiticus	$4.53 \pm 0.32^{\circ}$	19.65 ± 0.53^{d}	11.49 ± 0.59^{bcdef}	227
11	A.terreus	4.30 ± 0.36^{cd}	21.30 ± 0.70^{bc}	12.42 ± 0.35^{b}	164
12	A. terreus var.	3.23 ± 0.21^{jkl}	$18.62 \pm 0.54^{\text{defg}}$	11.20 ± 0.87^{cdefg}	271
12	africanus	$5.25 \pm 0.21^{\circ}$	18.02 ± 0.04	11.29 ± 0.87	271
13	A. versicolor group(1)	$2.03\pm0.06^{\rm o}$	15.41 ± 0.81^{lmn}	11.89 ± 0.78^{bcd}	203
14	A. versicolor group (2)	2.43 ± 0.15^{n}	15.46 ± 0.50^{lmn}	$10.33\pm0.35^{\text{g}}$	232
15	Aspergillus sp. (1)	3.06 ± 0.11^{1m}	16.74 ± 0.30^{ijk}	ND	221
16	Aspergillus sp.(2)	$3.40 \pm 0.17^{\text{hijkl}}$	$18.73 \pm 0.88^{\text{defg}}$	11.09 ± 0.80^{cdefg}	146
17	Chaetomium sp.	$4.56 \pm 0.23^{\circ}$	22.00 ± 0.38^{b}	10.70 ± 0.55^{efg}	200
18	Cladosporium cladosporioides	$3.43\pm0.11^{\rm hijkl}$	$18.33\pm0.56^{\text{efgh}}$	ND	177
19	Emericella nidulans	$4.50 \pm 0.17^{\circ}$	21.11 ± 0.47^{bc}	10.99 ± 0.36^{cdefg}	224
20	Epicoccum nigrum	2.36 ± 0.05^{no}	15.36 ± 0.71^{lmn}	ND	222
21	Eurotium amstelodami	3.33 ± 0.15^{ijkl}	$17.43\pm0.54^{\rm hij}$	ND	277
22	E. chevalieri	3.95 ± 0.23^{ef}	$19.22 \pm 0.37^{\text{def}}$	10.99 ± 0.79^{cdefg}	149
23	E. glaucus	3.33 ± 0.25^{ijkl}	16.84 ± 0.69^{ijk}	ND	275
24	Paecilomyces sp.	$3.60 \pm 0.17^{\text{fghij}}$	18.73 ± 0.68^{defg}	10.80 ± 0.58^{defg}	136
25	Pencillium capsulatum	$2.76\pm0.15^{\rm m}$	$15.85{\pm}~0.95^{klmn}$	11.98 ± 0.63^{bc}	180
26	P. duclauxii	4.93 ± 0.21^{b}	24.27 ± 0.39^{a}	17.74 ± 0.40^{a}	255
27	Penicillium sp.(1)	$3.66 \pm 0.15^{\text{fghi}}$	16.74 ± 0.65^{ijk}	ND	221
28	Penicillium sp (2)	3.26 ± 0.30^{jkl}	16.35 ± 0.75^{jkl}	ND	193
29	Penicillium sp.(3)	$3.40 \pm 0.26^{\text{hijkl}}$	16.84 ± 1.12^{ijk}	ND	258
30	Penicillium sp.(4)	2.36 ± 0.15^{no}	15.06 ± 0.67^{mn}	10.70 ± 0.98^{efg}	173
31	Phoma sp.	$3.43 \pm 0.11^{\rm hijkl}$	18.03 ± 0.53^{gh}	ND	86
32	Scopulariopsis sphaerospora	$2.03\pm0.06^{\rm o}$	15.16 ± 0.42^{mn}	11.19 ± 0.66^{cdefg}	256
33	Stemphylium botryosum	$3.53\pm0.23^{\text{ghijk}}$	$17.74\pm0.84^{\text{ghi}}$	$10.99\pm0.64^{\text{cdefg}}$	230
34	Syncephalastrum racemosum	2.83 ± 0.15^{m}	14.96 ± 0.49^{n}	11.49 ± 0.54^{bcdef}	258
35	Trichophyton sp. (1)	3.50 ± 00^{hijk}	18.02 ± 0.57^{gh}	11.59 ± 1.01^{bcdef}	205
36	Trichophyton sp. (2)	$3.40 \pm 0.17^{\text{hijkl}}$	17.44 ± 0.78^{hij}	$10.60 \pm 0.69^{\mathrm{fg}}$	180
37	Ulocladium sp.	3.53 ± 0.15^{ghijk}	$18.63\pm0.55^{\text{defg}}$	10.80 ± 0.32^{defg}	143

Table 4. Total cellulases (FPase), endoglucanase (CMCase) produced by different fungal isolates

Note: ND= very low value (no detectable). Data are expressed as mean \pm SD, Means within the same column and followed by the same letter are not significantly different from each other according to Duncan's Multiple range test (P = 0.05). Correlation Coefficient (r) between Diameter of Clear zone and Soluble protein=-0.08437.

Aspergillus brasiliensis belongs to Aspergillus section Nigri. The filamentous fungus, Aspergillus niger secretes a complex array of degradative enzymes to hydrolyze cellulose efficiently and it is an important commercial source of cellulase [49]. Endo- β -1,4-glucanase is the main component of cellulose degradation by *A. niger* and has been classified as a member of the glycosyl hydrolase family 12 [50]. S. Nwodo-Chinedu *et al.* [51] isolated some cellulolytic fungi from wood-wastes in Lagos, Nigeria. The strains of *A. niger* (ANL 301) and *P. chrysogenum* (PCL501) isolated by the group were reported to produce cellulases [52] and xylanases [53]. Thus, these fungi produce the full complement of enzymes required for the hydrolysis of cellulosic biomass.

Pectinolytic and ligninolytic activities

The isolated cultures were screened for their pectinolytic and ligninolytic activities. The polygalacturonase production ranged from 48.76 - 420.84U/mL in which *Aspergillus amstelodami* and *Aspergillus parasiticus* recorded the maximum polygalacturonase production (table 5). There was a positive correlation between Pectinase activity and soluble protein (r = 0.40232). Soluble protein varied greatly from cellulase activity as indicated in Table 4 about pectinase activity as in table 5 due to different media used with different nitrogen source.

No. of	Fungal isolata	Pectinase	Soluble protein
Isolates	i uligat isolate	(U mL ⁻¹)	(µg/ml)
1	Alternaria alternata	131.04 ± 2.54^{1}	80
2	Alternaria sp.	48.76 ± 1.69^{x}	214
3	Aspergillus aegyptiacus	84.24 ± 1.78^{s}	257
4	A. amstelodami	420.84 ± 3.14^{a}	349
5	A. brasiliensis	213.71 ± 2.53^{d}	145
6	A. flavipes	$58.67 \pm 1.22^{\text{w}}$	323
7	A. flavus group	72.34 ± 2.60^{tu}	312
8	A. flavus var columnaris	123.11 ± 2.35^{m}	364
9	A. ochraceus	$185.16 \pm 2.06^{\rm f}$	173
10	A. parasiticus	342.12 ± 2.87^{b}	1035
11	A. terreus	149.87 ± 1.21^{i}	241
12	A. terreus Var. africanus	168.91 ± 2.55^{g}	303
13	A. versicolor group (1)	$104.46 \pm 1.32^{\circ}$	295
14	A. versicolor group (2)	89.99 ± 2.10^{r}	145
15	Aspergillus sp. (1)	90.99 ± 1.79^{r}	179
16	Aspergillus sp. (2)	75.32 ± 2.73^{t}	125
17	Chaetomium sp.	74.93 ± 3.04^{t}	286
18	Cladosporium cladosporioides	$63.03 \pm 1.72^{\circ}$	116
19	Emericella nidulans	140.35 ± 2.32^{k}	154
20	Epicoccum nigrum	144.91 ± 2.92^{j}	89
21	Eurotium amstelodami	111.76 ± 3.53^{n}	254
22	E. chevalieri	133.61 ± 1.18^{1}	164
23	E. glaucus	141.15 ± 1.53^{jk}	190
24	Paecilomyces sp.	$69.57 \pm 2.38^{\mathrm{u}}$	227
25	Pencillium capsulatum	97.93 ± 2.15^{p}	339
26	P. duclauxii	$202.21 \pm 3.68^{\circ}$	99
27	Penicillium sp.(1)	97.13 ± 2.55^{pq}	124
28	Penicillium sp.(2)	$64.42 \pm 1.56^{\circ}$	167
29	Penicillium sp.(3)	85.24 ± 2.93^{s}	123
30	Penicillium sp.(4)	125.29 ± 1.90^{m}	102
31	Phoma sp.	164.74 ± 2.69^{h}	157
32	Scopulariopsis sphaerospora	$93.56 \pm 3.28^{\rm qr}$	222
33	Stemphylium botryosum	$107.05 \pm 2.80^{\circ}$	430
34	Syncephalastrum racemosum	69.97 ± 2.62^{u}	103
35	Trichophyton sp. (1)	$106.85 \pm 1.88^{\circ}$	631
36	Trichophyton sp. (2)	76.31 ± 3.22^{t}	140
37	Ulocladium sp.	$230.37 \pm 2.49^{\circ}$	246

Table 5.	Pectinoly	tic activity	of tested	fungal	isolates
	1 0000000000000000000000000000000000000	cie aeci i icj	01 100104	- angai	1001000

Data are expressed as mean \pm SD, Means within the same column and followed by the same letter are not significantly different from each other according to Duncan's Multiple range test (P = 0.05). Correlation Coefficient (r) between Pectinase and Soluble protein= 0.40232.

Aspergillus parasiticus belongs to Aspergillus section Flavi. S.S. Panda *et al.* [54] exhibited that Aspergillus niger and A. flavus are the highest potential for cellulase and pectinase enzyme activity, respectively. Penicillium and Aspergillus are among the most studied cellulolytic and pectinolytic fungi [55, 56].

Fungi developed on wood sometimes are able to degrade lignin as well. The phenoloxidases (peroxidase, tyrosinase and laccase) that take part in lignin decomposition are not characteristic of every fungus. The following isolates showed ligninase activity; *Cladosporium cladosporioides, Epicoccum nigrum, Phoma* sp., *Chaetomium* sp., *Stemphylium*

botryosum, Trichophyton sp.(1), and Trichophyton sp. (2), while other ones showed no activities.

A.M. Mabrouk *et al.* [57] found that *Epicoccum purpurascens* gave laccase activity of 10.85 U/ml with specific activity of 59.30U/mg. Donnison *et al.* [58] found that *Phoma* sp. exhibited phenoloxidase activity where *Phoma* oxidize Mn(II) and deposit Mn oxides [59]. A. Verdin *et al.* [60] reported that the ability of *Cladosporium* strains to degrade polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons. Also, D. Bridžiuvienė and V. Raudonienė [39] found that *Cladosporium cladosporioides* showed phenoloxidase activity. P.A. Geethanjali [61] showed that the phenol concentration of areca husk samples inoculated with *Chaetomium* sp. was high. According to C.K. Padmaja and D.L. Lavanya [62] Lignin rich coir pith, inoculated with *Chaetomium globosum* showed reduced lignin content greatly, because of the action of lignolytic enzymes of the fungi [63].

H. Bermek *et al.* [64] found that the fungus *Trichophyton rubrum* LSK-27, isolated from a decayed hardwood chip pile in the vicinity of Chonnam, Korea, produced high concentrations of MnP and low amounts of laccase so it degrades lignin mainly through MnP. This fungus was able to efficiently degrade lignin in both softwood and hardwood and secreted the lignin-degrading enzymes LiP, MnP and laccase during the degradation of wood [65]. So this fungus was classified as a white-rot fungus [64]. M.A. Lone *et al.* [66] found that the activity of the enzyme cellulase of *Trichophyton terrestre*, at a wide range of temperatures, exhibits higher activity at low temperature and thermal resistance even at 50°C.

The ability of the fungus to damage wood is dependent on many parameters prevailing at the site, such as synergism with the enzymes of other fungi [67, 68], antagonism with other organisms such as bacteria [69, 70], and environmental factors such as the moisture content [71], temperature [72], and pH [73, 74] of the soil.

Conclusion

Fungi play a very important role in deterioration of ancient wood antiques. In the present study, it could be concluded that the fungal cultures isolated from different wooden artifacts possess cellulolytic and pectinolytic activity. Among these fungal isolates, *Aspergillus brasiliensis* and *Penicillium duclauxii* were found to have maximum cellulase activity. *Aspergillus amstelodami* and *Aspergillus parasiticus* have high pectinolytic activity. The phenoloxidases (peroxidase, tyrosinase and laccase) that take part in lignin decomposition (and supposed to degrade preservatives of aromatic compound origin) were not characteristic of every fungus studied. Seven fungal species showed ligninolytic potential activity based on their ability to oxidize dyes.

References

- K. Sterflinger, Fungi: Their role in deterioration of cultural heritage, Fungal Biology Reviews, 24(1-2), 2010, pp. 47–55.
- [2] M.-L.E. Florian, Fungal Facts: Solving Fungal Problems in Heritage Collections, Archetype Publications LtD., London, 2002, p.146.
- [3] K.E.L. Eriksson, R.A. Blanchette, P. Ander, *Microbial Degradation of Wood and Wood Components*, Microbial and Enzymatic Degradation of Wood and Wood Components. Springer-Verlag, Berlin, 1990, p. 407.
- [4] R.A. Zabel, J.J. Morrell, Wood Microbiology, Decay and Its Prevention, Academic Press, London, 1992, p. 498.
- [5] R.A. Blanchette, A guide to wood deterioration caused by fungi and insects, The Structural Conservation of Panel Paintings, (Editors: R.A.K. Dardes), Getty Conservation Institute, Los Angeles, 1998, pp. 55–68.

- [6] C.G. Björdal, T. Nilsson, G.F. Daniel, Microbial decay of waterlogged archaeological wood found in Sweden: applicable to archaeology and conservation, International Biodeterioration and Biodegradation, 43, 1999, pp. 63–73.
- [7] R.A. Blanchette, A review of microbial deterioration found in archaeological wood from different environments, International Biodeterioration and Biodegradation, 46, 2000, pp. 189–204.
- [8] R.A. Blanchette, B.W. Held, J.A. Jurgens, D.L. McNew, T.C. Harrington, S.M. Duncan, R.L. Farrell, *Wood-destroying soft rot fungi in the historic expedition huts of Antarctica*, Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 70(3), 2004, pp. 1328–1335.
- [9] R.A. Eaton, M.D.C. Hale, Wood: Decay, Pests and Protection, Chapman & Hall, London, 1993, p. 546.
- [10] L.N. Santhakumaran, A.P. Singh, Destruction of Two Tropical Timbers by Marine Borers and Microorganisms in GoaWater (India), International Research Group on Wood Preservation, IRG/WP Document No. 44176-92, 1992
- [11] A.P. Singh, R.N. Wakeling, Novel Observations on the Micromorphology of Soft Rot Attack of Wood, International Research Group on Wood Preservation. IRG/WP Document No. 96-10176, 1996.
- [12] C.J.K. Wang, J.J. Worall, Soft Rot Decay Capabilities and Interactions of Fungi and Bacteria from Fumigated Utility Poles, Materials Science (Electric Power Research Institute), 24(11), 1992, p. 63.
- [13] L.R. Lynd, P.J. Weimer, W.H. van Zyl, I.S. Pretorius, *Microbial cellulose utilization: fundamentals and biotechnology*, Microbiology and Molecular Biology Reviews, 66(3), 2002, pp. 506–577.
- [14] A. Tomassini, A. Sella, R. Raiola, Corrigendum: Characterization and expression of Fusarium graminearum endo-polygalacturonases in vitro and during wheat infection, Plant Pathology, 58, 2009, pp. 556–564.
- [15] L. Ceci, J. Loranzo, Determination of enzymatic activities of commercial pectinases for the clarification of apple juice, Food Chemistry, 61, 2008, pp. 237–241.
- [16] S.D. Mansfield, J.N. Saddler, G.M. Gübitz, Characterization of endoglucanases from the brown rot fungi Gloeophyllum sepiarium and Gloeophyllum trabeum, Enzyme and Microbial Technology, 23, 1998, pp. 133–140.
- [17] C. Sánchez, Lignocellulosic residues: Biodegradation and bioconversion by fungi, Biotechnology Advances, 27(2), 2009, p. 185–194.
- [18] F. Patrick, G. Mtui, A. Mshandete, A. Kivaisi, Optimum production of lignin peroxidase, manganese peroxidase and laccase in submerged culture of Trametes trogii using various growth media compositions, Tanzania Journal of Science, 36, 2010, pp. 1–18.
- [19] F. Patrick, G. Mtui, A.M. Mshandete, A. Kivaisi, Optimization of laccase and managnese peroxidase production in submerged culture of Pleurotus sajor-caju, African Journal of Biotechnology, 10(50), 2011, pp. 10166–10177.
- [20] R.R.M. Paterson, P.D. Bridge, Biochemical Techniques for Filamentous Fungi, Egham, CAB International, Wallingford, UK, 1994, p. 125.
- [21] M.B. Ellis, Dematiaceous Hyphomycetes. Nature Genetics, Vol. 41, Common Wealth Mycological Institute, 1971, p. 608.
- [22] K.H. Domsch, W. Gams, T.H. Anderson, Compendium of Soil Fungi, 2nd ed., IHW-Verlag, Eching, 2007, p. 672.
- [23] K.B. Raper, D.I. Funnel, The Genus Aspergillus, Robert, E. Ktieger Publ. Co., New York, 1977, p. 686.
- [24] K.B. Raper, C. Thom, Manual of the Penicillia. Soil Science, Vol. 68, The Williams and Wilkins Co., 1949, p. 415.

- [25] S. Bland, E.E. Douglas, Semiquantitative Plate Assay for Determination of Cellulase Production by Trichoderma viride, Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 33(1), 1977, pp. 178–183.
- [26] M.E. Osman, H.K. Om Kalthoum, A.A. El-Shaphy, Production of Cellulase and Pectinase from Some Aquatic Hyphomycetes, Research Journal of Microbiology, 3, 2008, pp. 213–224.
- [27] M. Mandels, R. Andreotti, R. Roche, *Measurement of saccharifying cellulase*. Biotechnology and Bioengineering Symposium, 6, 1976, pp. 17–37.
- [28] D. Sternberg, *Recent advances in cellular technology*, **Technology**, **54**, 1976, pp. 267–289.
- [29] K. Nisizawa, T. Kanda, S. Shikata, K. Wakabayashi, Mutarotation of hydrolysis products by different types of exo-cellulases from Trichoderma viride, Journal of Biochemistry, 83(6), 1978, pp. 1625–1630.
- [30] G.L. Miller, Use of Dinitrosalicylic Acid Reagent for Determination of Reducing Sugar, Analytical Chemistry, 31(3), 1959, pp. 426–428.
- [31] M. Mandels, J.E. Medeiros, R.E. Andreotti, F.H. Bissett, *Enzymatic hydrolysis of cellulose: Evaluation of cellulase culture filtrates under use conditions*, Biotechnology and Bioengineering, 23(9), 1981, pp. 2009–2026.
- [32] O.H. Lowry, N.J. Rosebrough, L. Farr, R.J. Randall, *Protien measurement with the folin phenol reagent*, Journal of Biological Chemistry, 193, 1951, pp. 265–275.
- [33] E. Erden, M.C. Ucar, T. Gezer, N.K. Pazarlioglu, Screening for ligninolyltic enzymes from autochthonous fungi and applications for decolarization of ramezole marine blue, Brazilian Journal of Microbiology, 40, 2009, pp. 346–353.
- [34] F. Colao, R. Fantoni, L. Fiorani, A. Palucci, I. Gomoiu, R. Academy, S. Independentei, Compact scanning lidar fluorosensor for investigation biodegradation on ancient painted surfaces, Journal of Optoelectronics and Advanced Materials, 7(6), 2005, pp. 3197– 3208.
- [35] A .Walter, D.B. Duncan, *Multiple ranges and multiple tests*, **Biometries**, **11**, 1969, pp.1–24.
- [36] A.M. Abed ElHameed, Studies of the Treatment and Conservation of Polychrome Wooden Coffins and Practical Application in this Field, Cairo University, Egypt, 1999.
- [37] H. Hanna, Cheops Wooden Boat and its Museum; Condition Case Study, COM-CC_Wood, Furniture and Lacquer, The International Conference on Heritage of Naqada and Qus region Monastery of the Archangel Michael, Naqada, Egypt, Vol. I, 2007, pp. 182–195.
- [38] G.M. Ljaljevic, M. Stupar, J. Vukojevic, I. Maricic, N. Bungur, *Molds in museum environments: Biodeterioration of art photographs and wooden sculptures*, Archives of Biological Sciences, 65(3), 2013, pp. 955–962.
- [39] D. Bridžiuvienė, V. Raudonienė, Fungi Surviving on Treated Wood and Some of Their Physiological Properties, Materials Science, 19(1), 2013, pp. 1–8.
- [40] S.M.N. Maghazy, H.M.A. Abdel- Zaher, Z.K. EL-Gendy, Studies on mycobiota of monumental elements in Minia governorate, El-Minia Science Bulletin, 24(1), 2013, pp. 83–115.
- [41] H.A. Burge, D.L. Pierson, T.O. Groves, K.F. Strawn, S.K. Mishra, *Dynamics of airborne fungal populations in a large office building*, Current Microbiology, 40, 1999, pp. 10–16.
- [42] C. Abrusci, A. Martín-González, A. Del Amo, F. Catalina, J. Collado, G. Platas, *Isolation and identification of bacteria and fungi from cinematographic films*, International Biodeterioration and Biodegradation, 56(1), 2005, pp. 58–68.

- [43] J.-J. Kim, S.-M. Kang, Y.-S. Choi, G.-H. Kim, *Microfungi Potentially Disfiguring CCA-treated Wood*, International Biodeterioration and Biodegradation, 60, 2007, pp. 197 201.
- [44] M.R. Mikluscak, B.E. Dawson-Andoh, Microbial colonizers of freshly sawn yellow-poplar (Liriodendron tulipifera L.) lumber in two seasons: part 1. Fungi, Holzforschung, 58(2), 2004, pp. 173–181.
- [45] B.E. Arenz, B.W. Held, J.A. Jurgens, R.L. Farrell, R.A. Blanchette, *Fungal diversity in soils and historic wood from the Ross Sea Region of Antarctica*, Soil Biology and Biochemistry, 38(10), 2006, pp. 3057–3064.
- [46] S.E. Anagnost, Light microscopic diagnosis of wood decay, IAWA Journal, 19(2), 1998, pp.141–167.
- [47] E.L. Stewart, J.G. Palmer, Deuteromycetes and Selected Ascomycetes that occur on or in Wood: A Indexed bibliography, Madison Forest Products Laboratory United States Department of Agriculture, 1979, p. 165.
- [48] T. Nilsson, *Studies on wood degradation and cellulolytic activity of microfungi*, **Studia** Forestalia Suecia, 1973, p.104.
- [49] D.J. Coleman, M.J. Studler, J.J. Naleway, A long-wavelength fluorescent substrate for continuous fluorometric determination of cellulase activity: resorufin-β-D-cellobioside, Analytical Biochemistry, 371, 2007, pp. 146–153.
- [50] S. Khademi, D. Zhang, S.M. Swanson, A. Wartenberg, K. Wittec, E.F. Meyer, *Determination of the structure of an endoglucanase from Aspergillus niger and its mode of inhibition by palladium chloride*, Acta Crystallographica, 58, 2002, pp. 660–667.
- [51] S. Nwodo-Chinedu, V.I. Okochi, H.A. Smith1, O. Omidijii, Isolation of Cellulolytic Microfungi Involved in Wood-Waste Decomposition : Prospects for Enzymatic Hydrolysis of Cellulosic Wastes, International Journal of Biomedical and Health Sciences, 1(2), 2005, pp. 41 – 51.
- [52] N.S. Chinedu, O.C. Nwinyi, V.I. Okochi, *Growth and cellulase activity of wild type Aspergillus niger ANL 301 in different carbon sources*, Canadian Journal of Pure and Applied Sciences, 2(2), 2008a, pp. 357–362.
- [53] S.N. Chinedu, U.A. Okafor, T.N. Emezue, V.I. Okochi, Xylanase production of Aspergillus niger and Penicillium chrysogenum from ammonia pretreated cellulosic waste, Research Journal of Microbiology, 3(4), 2008b, pp. 246–253.
- [54] S.S. Panda, K. Sahoo, R. Das, N.K. Dhal, Pectinolytic and cellulolytic activity of soil fungal isolates from similipal bioreserve forest, World Environment, 2(2), 2012, pp.1–3.
- [55] R.K. Sukumaran, R.R. Singhania, A. Pandey, *Microbial Cellulases Production, application and challenges*, Journal of Scientific and Industrial Research, 64, 2005, pp. 832 844.
- [56] E. Favela-Torres, T. Volke-Sepúlveda, G. Viniegra-González, Production of Hydrolytic Depolymerising Pectinases, Food Technology and Biotechnology, 44, 2006, pp. 221– 227.
- [57] A.M. Mabrouk, Z.H. Kheiralla, E.R. Hamed, A.A. Youssry, A.A. Abd El Aty, Screening of some marine-derived fungal isolates for lignin degrading enzymes (LDEs) production, Agriculture and Biology Journal of North America, 11(4), 2010, pp. 591–599.
- [58] L.M. Donnison, G.S. Griffith, J. Hedger, P.J. Hobbs, R.D. Bardgett, Management influences on soil microbial communities and their function in botanically diverse haymeadows of northern England and Wales, Soil Biology and Biochemistry, 32(2), 2000, pp. 253–263.
- [59] M.A. De la Torre, G. Gomez-Alarcon, *Manganese and iron oxidation by fungi isolated from building stone*, **Microbial Ecology**, **27**, 1994, pp. 177–188.

- [60] A. Verdin, A.L.-H. Sahraoui, R. Durand, Degradation of Benzo[a]pyrene by Mitosporic Fungi and Extracellular Oxidative Enzymes, International Biodeterioration and Biodegradation, 53, 2004, pp. 65 – 70.
- [61] P.A. Geethanjali, A study on lignin degrading fungi isolated from the litter of evergreen forests of Kodagu (D), Karnataka, International Jornal of Environmental Sciences, 2(4), 2012.
- [62] C.K. Padmaja, D.L. Lavanya, Efficiency of Humicola grisea Eraan on the biodegradation of coir waste, Asian Journal of Microbiology and Environment Science, 8, 2006, pp. 259–262.
- [63] D.S. Suganya, S. Pradeep, J. Jayapriya, S. Subramanian, *Bioleaching in coir for value addition*, Asian Journal of Microbiology and Environment Science, 9, 200, pp. 263–265.
- [64] H. Bermek, H. Yazıcı, H. Öztürk, C. Tamerler, H. Jung, K. Li, F. Xu, Purification and characterization of manganese peroxidase from wood-degrading fungus Trichophyton rubrum LSK-27, Enzyme and Microbial Technology, 35, 2004, pp. 87–92.
- [65] X. Geng, H. Jung, K. Li, Degradation of wood and pulp by three fungi, Pycnoporus cinnabarinus, Trichophyton rubrum LKY-7 and Trichophyton rubrum LSK-27. Lignocellulose biodegradation, American Chemical Society, Washington, DC, 2004, pp. 139–151.
- [66] M.A. Lone, M.R.Wani, N.A. Bhat, S.A. Sheikh, M.A. Reshi, Evaluation of cellulase enzyme secreted by some common and stirring rhizosphere fungi of Juglans regia L. by DNS method, Journal of Enzyme Research, 3(1), 2012, pp. 18–22.
- [67] H. Seta"la", M.A. McLean, Decomposition rate of organic substrates in relation to the species diversity of soil saprophytic fungi, Oecologia, 139(1), 2004, pp. 98–107.
- [68] S. Ha"ttenschwiler, A.V. Tiunov, S. Scheu, *Biodiversity and litter decomposition in terrestrial ecosystems*, Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics, 36, 2005, pp. 191–218.
- [69] W. De Boer, L.B. Folman, R.C. Summerbell, L. Boddy, *Living in a fungal world: impact of fungi on soil bacterial niche development*, FEMS Microbiology Reviews, 29(4), 2005, pp. 795–811.
- [70] A.M. Romaní, H. Fischer, C. Mille-Lindblom, L.J. Tranvik, Interactions of bacteria and fungi on decomposing litter: differential extracellular enzyme activities, Ecology, 87(10), 2006, pp. 2559–2569.
- [71] R.A.M. Badran, A. Abdel-Rahiem, The effect of soil moisture content on the cellulolytic mycoflora of soil amended with cellulosic remains, Microbiological Research, 151(3), 1996, pp. 301–308.
- [72] J. Pietika⁻⁻inen, M. Pettersson, E. Bååth, Comparison of temperature effects on soil respiration and bacterial and fungal growth rates, FEMS Microbiology Ecology, 52(1), 2005, pp. 49–58.
- [73] B. Berg, R. Laskowski, Decomposers: soil microorganisms and animals, Advances in Ecological Research, 38, 2005, pp. 73–100.
- [74] M.C.N. Saparrat, A.M. Arambarri, P.A. Balatti, Growth response and extracellular enzyme activity of Ulocladium botrytis LPSC 813 cultured on carboxy-methylcellulose under a pH range, Biology and Fertility of Soils, 44(2), 2007, pp. 383–386.

Received: December, 07, 2013 Accepted: July, 21, 2014