
Extracellular enzyme production by freshwater ascomycetes

A. Abdel-Raheem^{1*} and C.A. Shearer²

¹South Valley University, Faculty of Science, Botany Department, Sohag 82524, Egypt

²Department of Plant Biology, University of Illinois, 265 Morrill Hall, 505 South Goodwin Avenue, Urbana, IL 61801 USA

Abdel-Raheem, A. and Shearer, C.A. (2002). Extracellular enzyme production by freshwater ascomycetes. *Fungal Diversity* 11: 1-19.

Thirty species of freshwater ascomycetes isolated from woody and/or herbaceous substrates were screened for their ability to produce extracellular degradative enzymes on solid media. Enzymes tested included: amylase, endoglucanase, endoxylanase, β -glucosidase, laccase, lipase, pectinase, peroxidase, polygalacturonase, polyphenoloxidase, protease, tyrosinase and β -xylosidase. All species were positive for cellulase and endoxylanase/ β -xylosidase. Two species, *Chaetomastia typhicola* (herbicolous) and *Massarina* sp. A25 (lignicolous) tested positive for all enzyme assays. *Submersisphaeria aquatica* (lignicolous) was positive for all enzymes except tyrosinase and *Jahnula* sp. A322 (lignicolous) was positive for all enzymes except polyphenoloxidase. Generally, the species which were isolated from herbaceous substrates and woody/herbaceous substrates had good growth rates on different types of enzyme media used (such as, peptone, yeast extract, glucose agar, etc.). Fifty percent of the lignicolous species produced pectin degrading enzymes, compared to about 80% for herbicolous and woody/herbicolous species, suggesting that there may be some specialization in the types of enzymes produced within substrate groups. The greatest differences among species occurred in the production of enzymes associated with detection of lignin degradation. Laccase and peroxidase detection depended on the assay technique used. Freshwater ascomycetes, as a group, produce many of the extracellular enzymes important in the decomposition of plant structural materials thereby supporting the idea that they play an important role in recycling in aquatic habitats.

Key words: aquatic, decomposition, fungi, woody debris.

Introduction

Freshwater ascomycetes occur commonly on a wide variety of dead submerged plant substrates such as wood or emergent macrophytes (Shearer, 1993, 2001). With the exception of studies by Zare-Maivan and Shearer (1988 a,b) and Yuen *et al.* (1998) little is known about the enzymatic capabilities and decomposition activities of these fungi. In contrast, much more is known about this aspect in the freshwater 'Ingoldian' or aquatic hyphomycetes that colonize submerged deciduous leaves and woody debris (Chamier, 1985; Abdel-

* Corresponding author: A. Abdel-Raheem; e-mail: a.abdel-raheem@lycos.com

Raheem, 1997). These fungi produce a wide range of plant cell wall degrading enzymes (Chamier, 1985) and are able to cause weight loss in leaves (Triska, 1970; Bärlocher and Kendrick, 1974; Suberkropp and Klug, 1976, 1981; Chamier and Dixon, 1982; Suberkropp *et al.*, 1983; Zemek *et al.*, 1985; Butler and Suberkropp, 1986; Abdel-Raheem and Badran, 1997), and wood (Sanders and Anderson, 1979; Abdel-Raheem, 1997).

Among the freshwater ascomycetes, substrate specialization with respect to broad categories (herbaceous vs. woody) occurs (Shearer, 2001), i.e. most species are found on herbaceous or woody substrates, but only a few species are found on both. Whether or not differences in enzymatic capabilities exist among species from different substrate specific groups is not known.

The following study was undertaken to determine: (1) the kinds of enzymes produced by freshwater ascomycetes that could play a role in plant decomposition, and (2) whether there are qualitative differences in the enzymes produced among lignicolous, herbicolous and substrate non-specific freshwater ascomycetes.

Materials and methods

Thirty ascomycete species isolated from submerged plant substrates in the USA were selected for study (Table 1): eight species have been reported only from herbaceous substrates, 14 species only from woody substrates, and eight species from both woody and herbaceous debris (Shearer, 2001). All cultures were isolated according to the procedures of Shearer (1993) and Shearer *et al.* (2002). Strains are maintained in the culture collection of C.A. Shearer.

Species were grown on peptone, glucose, yeast extract agar (PYG) that provides amino acids, a simple carbon source, and vitamins, respectively (peptone 1.25 g, glucose, 3 g, yeast extract 1.25 g, agar 18 g and one liter of de-ionized water). Inoculum discs (5 mm diam.) were cut from the leading edge of colonies grown on PYG (30 ml in 9 cm plastic Petri dishes).

Production of extracellular enzymes was determined by incorporation of test substrates into a basic medium, inoculating the medium with discs of fungal hyphae, allowing the fungi to grow out on the medium, and adding reagents to the plates to detect the test substrate remaining. Colony radial growth rates and substrate clearing zones were measured for each fungal species on each substrate. Three replicates of each treatment were assayed and non-inoculated plates with substrates served as negative controls. Inoculated plates were checked at 5 or 10 days depending on the growth rates of the individual species. When the colonies had grown to 50-60% of the area of the

Table 1. Fungal strains used in this study with, isolate number, and substrate isolated from which they were isolated.

Species	Authorities	Strain	Substrate
<i>Ascovaginospora stellipala</i>	Fallah & Shearer	P5-1E	Herbaceous
<i>Chaetomastia typhicola</i>	(Karst.) Leuchtman	A6-ID	Herbaceous
<i>Massariosphaeria scirpina</i>	(Winter) Leuchtman	A8-2D	Herbaceous
<i>Massariosphaeria</i> sp. A-33		A33-2C	Herbaceous
<i>Ophioceras arcuatisporum</i>	Shearer, J.L. Crane & W. Chen	A167-1C	Herbaceous
<i>Phaeosphaeria typharum</i>	(Desm.) Holm	A165-ID	Herbaceous
<i>Pleospora</i> sp. A168-1		A168-IE	Herbaceous
Pyrenomycete sp. A90-1		A90-1B	Herbaceous
<i>Annulatascus velatisporus</i>	K.D. Hyde	A70-1B	Woody
<i>Boerlagiomyces websteri</i>	Shearer & J.L. Crane	A59-1B	Woody
<i>Byssothecium flumineum</i>	J.L. Crane, Shearer & Huhndorf	A21-3C	Woody
Discomycete sp. A93		A93-2A	Woody
<i>Halosarpheia heteroguttulata</i>	C.W. Wong, K.D. Hyde & E.B.G. Jones	A108-7C	Woody
<i>Jahnula</i> sp. A322		A322	Woody
<i>Kirschsteniniothelia elaterascus</i>	Shearer	A22-1A	Woody
<i>Lasiosphaeria ovina</i>	(Pres.:Fr.) Cesati & de Not.	A-120-1A	Woody
Loculoascomycete sp. A242		A242-3E	Woody
<i>Massarina</i> sp. A25		A25-1B	Woody
<i>Massarina ingoldiana</i>	Shearer & K.D. Hyde	A39-1B	Woody
<i>Pseudohalonectria</i> sp. A251		A251-1D	Woody
<i>Pseudoproboscispora caudae-suis</i>	(Ingold) J. Campb., Shearer, J.L. Crane & Fallah	A40-11B	Woody
<i>Submersisphaeria aquatica</i>	K.D. Hyde	A354-1D	Woody
<i>Cercophora newfieldiana</i>	(Ellis & Everh.) R. Hilber	A136-1A	Woody & herbaceous
<i>Hymenoscyphus scutula</i>	(pers.:Fr.) Philips var. furcata Philips	A1-1A	Woody & herbaceous
Loculoascomycete sp. A211		A211-5B	Woody & herbaceous
<i>Ophioceras commune</i>	Shearer, J.L. Crane & W. Chen	A165-1D	Woody & herbaceous
<i>Phomatospora</i> sp. A5		A5-1B	Woody & herbaceous
Pyrenomycete sp. A3-1		A3-1B	Woody & herbaceous
Pyrenomycete sp. A54		A54-11F	Woody & herbaceous
Pyrenomycete sp. A161		A161-1B	Woody & herbaceous

plate, chemical indicators were added to assay enzyme activity and activity zones were measured when appropriate.

Amylase

Amylase activity was assayed by growing the fungi on starch medium (starch – 2 g, peptone – 1 g, yeast extract – 1 g, agar – 20 g; distilled water – 1 L. After 5-10 days, the plates were flooded with a 1% aqueous IKI solution. A yellow zone around the colony in an otherwise blue medium was considered a positive test for starch hydrolysis (Gessner, 1980).

Lipase

Lipase activity was determined by growing the isolates on a medium containing a lipid (Tween 20, Sigma Chemical Co.) as the primary source of carbon. The medium was as follows: peptone – 1 g, yeast extract – 0.1 g, agar – 18 g, Tween 20 – 10 mL (autoclaved separately from the rest of the medium), distilled water – 990 mL. A positive test was the occurrence of precipitated fatty acid crystals around the colony (Gessner, 1980).

Pectolytic enzymes

To detect pectolytic activity, we used the medium described by Hankin and Anagnostakis (1975). This medium contained 500 mL of mineral salt solution, 1 g yeast extract, 15 g of agar, 5 g of pectin, and 500 mL of distilled water. The mineral salts solution contained per liter: 2 (NH₄)₂ SO₄, 4 g KH₂ PO₄, 6 g Na₂ HPO₄, 0.2 g FeSO₄·7 H₂O, 1 mg CaCl₂, 10 µg H₃BO₃, 10 µg Mn SO₄, 10 µg ZnSO₄, 50 µg CuSO₄, 10 µg; MoO₃, pH7 or pH₅ as needed. This medium at pH7 was used to detect pectate lyase production. The same medium at pH5 was used to detect polygalacturonase activity. For all tests, plates were incubated for 5-10 days and then flooded with 1% aqueous solution of hexadecyltrimethylammonium bromide. This reagent precipitates intact pectin in the medium and thus a clear zone around a colony in an otherwise opaque medium indicates degradation of the pectin.

Proteolytic enzymes

The medium used to detect proteolytic enzyme activity contained gelatin as the protein substrate (Hankin and Anagnostakis, 1975). This medium consists of nutrient agar plus 0.4% gelatin at pH6. An 8% solution of gelatin in water was sterilized separately and added to the nutrient agar at the rate of 5 mL per 100 mL of medium. After incubation, plates were flooded with an aqueous saturated solution of ammonium sulfate which precipitates protein. A clear zone around colonies indicated the presence of protease.

Cellulolytic enzymes

Three methods were used to detect cellulolytic enzymes (cellulase, endoglucanase and β -glucosidase). These methods were described in detail by Pointing (1999). The cellulolysis basal medium (CBA) consisted of: C₄H₁₂N₂O₆ – 5 g, KH₂PO₄ – 1 g, MgSO₄·7H₂O – 0.5 g, yeast-extract – 0.1 g, CaCl₂·2H₂O – 0.001 g, distilled water – 1L.

Cellulase (cellulose azure agar)

CBM medium supplemented with 1.8% w/v agar was transferred in 10 mL aliquots to glass culture bottles, autoclaved, and allowed to solidify. Gently and carefully mixed viscous 0.1 mL CBM medium supplemented with 1% w/v cellulose azure (azure I dye, C.I.52010) and 1.8% w/v agar was added to the surface of the solidified agar as an overlay. The BI-layered medium was inoculated with discs of the test fungi and incubated. Migration of dye into the clear lower layer indicated the presence cellulase (Pointing, 1999).

Endoglucanase (CMC agar)

CBM medium was supplemented with 1% w/v low viscosity carboxymethylcellulose (CMC) and 1.8% w/v agar was added. The medium was autoclaved, dispensed into Petri dishes, allowed to solidify and inoculated with discs of the test fungi and incubated. After growth for 5-10 days, the plates were flooded with 2% aqueous Congo red (C.I.22120) and allowed to sit for 15 minutes. The stain was washed from the agar surface with distilled water and the plates were then flooded with 1 M NaCl to destain for 15 minutes. The NaCl solution was then removed. CMC degradation around the colonies appears as a yellow-opaque area against a red color for un-degraded CMC (Pointing, 1999).

β -glucosidase (Esculin agar)

Activity of β -glucosidase was detected by growing the test fungus on agar containing esculin (6,7-dihydroxycomarin-6-glucosidase) as the sole carbon source. CBM medium was supplemented with 0.5% esculin, 1.8% w/v agar and autoclaved. One mL of a sterile 2% w/v aqueous ferric sulphate solution was aseptically added for each 100 mL CBM prepared. The medium was dispensed into Petri dishes, allowed to solidify, inoculated and incubated. A black color develops in the medium of colonies producing β -glucosidase (Pointing, 1999).

Hemicellulolytic (xylanolytic) enzymes

Two methods were used to detection xylanolytic enzyme activity: dye staining of xylan agar and dye diffusion from a xylan-dye complex [remazol

brilliant blue R bound to a modified (soluble) xylan (4-O-methyl-D-glucourono-D-xylan)]. These methods were described in detail by Pointing (1999).

Lignin enzymes

The process of lignin degradation is brought about by a suite of oxidative enzymes including polyphenol oxidase, tyrosinase, peroxidase, and laccase. The production of these enzymes was assayed using the detailed methods presented by Pointing (1999). Peroxidase production also was determined by a modification of the procedures of Egger (1986). Fungi were grown on CMA in Petri dishes for 5-10 days. Wells approximately 5 mm in diam. were cut in the test medium near the growing edges of colonies. One drop each of freshly prepared 1% w/v aqueous solution of pyrogalllic acid and 0.4% hydrogen peroxidase activity was added to each well; presence of a golden yellow to brown color indicates peroxidase activity.

Results

Generally, species from herbaceous substrates and woody/herbaceous substrates had the fastest growth rates on PYG and most of the test substrates (Table 2). The least growth generally occurred on the peroxidase 1 and laccase 2 media of Pointing (1999). Otherwise, all species grew to some degree on most test substrates. All species were positive for cellulase, endoxylanase and β -xylosidase (Tables 3, 4). Most species were able to degrade, to some degree, starch, lipid, protein, pectin, and hemicellulose and produced enzymes thought to be active in lignin decomposition such as polyphenoloxidase, peroxidase, tyrosinase and laccase (Tables 3, 4). Two species, *Chaetomastia typhicola* (herbicolous) and *Massarina* sp. A25 (lignicolous) were able to degrade all substrates tested. *Submersisphaeria aquatica* (lignicolous) was positive for all enzymes except tyrosinase and *Jahnula* sp. A322 (lignicolous) was positive for all enzymes except polyphenoloxidase.

Species differed mostly in their ability to produce lignin-degrading enzymes (Table 3). Twenty-one species were positive for polyphenoloxidase, while only 16 species were positive for tyrosinase. Peroxidase activity of the species differed according to the method used. For azure B agar (PE1) (Pointing, 1999), only five species tested positive, while for the second method (PE2) (Egger, 1986), twenty species tested positive. All species except *Ascovaginospora stellipala* were positive for laccase using the ABTS method (LA1) (Pointing, 1999), while only four species were only positive for laccase using the syringaldazine well test (LA2) (Egger, 1986).

Discussion

Solid media enzyme assays detect enzyme synthesis, release from the mycelium, and activity in the medium following production. Thus the lack of a positive result could mean that either the enzyme is not produced, or that it is produced and not released from the mycelium, or that it is produced and released, but the medium inhibits its detection. Thus absence of a reaction is not absolute confirmation of a species inability to produce a particular enzyme.

The relationship between the ability to grow on a particular test medium and ability to produce the corresponding enzyme to digest the substrate incorporated into the medium is not well correlated. All species in this study grew reasonably well on most assay substrates except for PE1 (Pointing, 1999) and LA2 (Egger, 1986). Most species however, did not produce enzymes on all the media on which they grew. Positive growth but negative enzyme results could be due to the reasons discussed in the preceding paragraph, the ability of the fungus to use other materials in the medium rather than the test substrate, or the fungus growing solely from the carbon source in the inoculum discs. In some cases, a fungus may grow rapidly across a plate when conditions are unfavorable, for example on plain water agar. Growth rates of the fungal species in this study were similar to those reported for tropical freshwater fungi (Yuen *et al.*, 1998). Growth rates of herbicolous and lignicolous/herbicolous species were slightly higher than those of lignicolous species. Whether this is a reflection of the longevity of their respective substrates, i.e. fungi on more rapidly decomposed substrates may have faster growth rates, is not known.

Pectic substances function as intercellular cement between plant cells, and degradation of these substances causes cell separation, which decreases the size of detritus and increases the surface area available to decomposers. A number of enzymes are involved in the hydrolysis of pectic substances. The activity of two of these complexes was detected in this study, Polygalacturonase (Dingle *et al.*, 1953) cleaves the 1, 4 glycosidic bonds between uronic acid monomers, and pectin methyl esterase (McComb and McCready, 1958) removes the methoxyl groups to yield pectic acid. The extracellular pectic enzyme polygalacturonase and pectate lyase are active at pH5 and pH7, respectively. Media at pH7 will not detect galacturonase and vice versa (Hankin *et al.*, 1971). Pectins are diluted to quantitative insignificance during secondary thickening and lignification of the cell wall of wood tissue (Kirk, 1983), therefore, the possession of enzymes necessary to degrade pectins may not be critical to the success of wood colonizing fungi. Zare-Maivan and Shearer (1988b) found support for this idea when they found that three commonly occurring species known only from submerged wood, *Leptosaeria* sp., *Nais inornata* and *Trichocladium lignicola*, lacked pectinases

Table 2. Colony diam. (cm) after growth for ten days **on** the different test media.*

Species	Media																
	PYG	AM	PR	LP	PEC	PG	CL	EN	BG	EX&BX1	EX&BX2	PX	PE1	PE2	TY	LA1	LA2
<i>Ascovaginospora stellipala</i>	3.9	5.3	3.7	2.6	7.0	5.8	2.8	5.1	4.1	3.6	3.6	3.6	-	3.6	3.3	0.2	-
<i>Chaetomastia typhicola</i>	2.0	2.2	2.2	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.9	2.5	3.1	2.1	1.7	2.5	-	1.9	1.7	1.7	-
<i>Massariosphaeria scirpina</i>	1.6	1.8	2.3	1.3	1.7	1.7	0.9	1.4	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.6	-	1.0	1.0	0.7	-
<i>Massariosphaeria</i> sp. A-33	3.9	7.0	3.4	3.6	2.9	3.2	2.5	6.3	6.7	6.7	5.2	8.0	-	5.6	6.2	5.0	-
<i>Ophioceras arcuatisporum</i>	3.6	2.2	3.2	3.3	3.0	2.2	1.9	0.5	0.6	2.9	2.8	3.7	-	2.9	3.2	2.2	-
<i>Phaeosphaeria typharum</i>	4.4	4.3	2.5	2.6	2.9	3.8	1.4	4.8	3.7	2.9	2.4	3.0	-	2.5	2.3	1.6	-
<i>Pleospora</i> sp. A168-1	2.6	2.5	2.9	2.8	2.2	2.6	1.2	1.2	0.6	1.1	3.6	1.4	-	-	-	1.2	-
Pyrenomycete sp. A90-1	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.7	1.4	1.5	0.9	0.8	-	0.9	0.8	0.8	-	1.5	1.5	1.1	-
<i>Annulatascus velatisporus</i>	1.1	1.7	2.4	1.1	2.1	2.6	1.4	2.1	2.2	1.4	1.5	2.2	-	1.7	1.7	1.3	-
<i>Boerlagiomyces websteri</i>	1.6	0.7	0.6	0.8	1.3	0.9	0.6	1.0	1.5	1.2	1.2	0.7	-	1.4	1.4	0.7	-
<i>Byssothecium flumineum</i>	1.6	1.5	1.8	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.0	0.8	1.0	0.9	0.9	1.9	-	1.1	1.1	1.1	-
Discomycete sp. A-93	1.2	1.6	1.0	1.5	1.1	0.9	1.4	1.0	0.6	0.7	0.9	3.6	-	1.1	1.2	0.9	-
<i>Halosarpheia heteroguttulata</i>	1.2	1.2	1.2	0.9	0.6	0.9	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.6	1.0	0.7	-	0.9	-	0.6	-
<i>Jahnula</i> sp. A322	1.4	1.4	1.8	1.6	1.7	1.4	0.7	1.1	2.8	1.4	0.7	1.3	-	0.9	0.8	1.1	2.2

* PYG: yeast extract glucose agar; AM: amylase; **PR**: protease; LP: lipase; PEC: pectinase; PG: polygalacturonase; CL: cellulase; EN: endoglucanase; BG: β -glucosidase; EX&BX1: Endoxylanase & β -xylosidase (Method 1; Pointing, 1999); EX&BX2: endoxylanase & β -xylosidase (Method 2; Pointing, 1999); PX: polyphenoloxidase; PE1: peroxidase (Pointing, 1999); PE2: peroxidase (Egger, 1986); TY: tyrosinase; LA1: laccase (Pointing, 1999); LA2: laccase (Egger, 1986).

Table 2. (continued).

Species	Media																
	PYG	AM	PR	LP	PEC	PG	CL	EN	BG	EX& BX1	EX& BX2	PX	PE1	PE2	TY	LA1	LA2
<i>Kirschsteiniothelia elaterascus</i>	1.8	3.1	3.4	3.2	2.1	2.4	1.5	0.8	1.3	1.4	2.6	2.3	-	2.8	2.2	2.2	-
<i>Lasiosphaeria ovina</i>	1.6	1.3	3.0	1.6	2.6	1.8	1.1	1.8	1.0	1.5	1.1	1.8	-	1.2	1.2	1.0	-
Loculoascomycete sp. A242	1.6	2.0	2.9	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.4	0.6	1.1	2.9	1.3	2.1	2.1	1.4	1.3	1.3	-
<i>Massarina</i> sp. A25	2.4	3.4	5.2	2.7	2.4	1.4	1.0	1.9	3.2	1.0	1.2	2.2	-	1.3	1.2	1.4	-
<i>Massarina ingoldiana</i>	1.4	2.2	2.2	2.1	0.9	1.5	0.9	0.7	1.1	3.1	1.2	2.3	1.8	1.3	1.3	0.9	-
<i>Pseudohalonectria</i> sp. A251	1.5	1.2	1.8	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.0	1.5	1.3	0.9	1.2	1.6	-	1.3	1.3	0.8	1.9
<i>Pseudoproboscispora caudae-suis</i>	1.3	1.4	1.6	0.9	0.9	1.3	1.3	1.7	0.9	1.3	1.1	1.7	-	1.2	1.1	1.0	-
<i>Submersisphaeria aquatica</i>	1.1	0.7	1.1	0.9	1.0	0.8	0.9	1.0	0.8	0.6	1.1	1.0	-	1.1	1.0	0.8	1.4
<i>Cercophora newfieldiana</i>	1.8	1.2	2.2	1.8	1.2	2.2	1.1	0.9	1.4	1.0	0.8	2.1	1.5	1.0	1.2	1.2	-
<i>Hymenoscyphus scutula</i>	1.6	3.0	3.3	1.8	1.7	1.5	1.0	1.6	2.7	1.3	1.5	1.9	-	1.6	1.4	0.9	1.8
Loculoascomycete sp. A211	2.4	2.6	3.6	1.9	2.1	2.7	1.5	2.0	1.4	1.8	1.2	2.8	-	1.3	1.2	1.1	-
<i>Ophioceras commune</i>	2.8	3.5	3.1	3.0	3.8	3.0	2.7	1.9	1.4	3.1	2.5	3.7	-	1.6	-	1.4	-
<i>Phomatospora</i> sp. A5	1.3	1.3	2.6	1.3	1.3	1.1	2.4	1.6	1.5	1.0	1.1	1.2	-	1.1	1.1	1.0	-
Pyrenomycete sp. A3-1	2.7	1.6	1.4	1.5	2.1	1.6	1.2	1.2	0.6	1.4	2.6	2.1	-	2.9	3.9	2.4	-
Pyrenomycete sp. A54	1.4	1.3	2.5	1.0	1.6	1.2	0.9	3.2	3.3	1.4	0.9	1.4	1.6	0.9	0.8	0.7	-
Pyrenomycete sp. A-161	2.2	2.4	3.1	1.0	2.8	2.4	1.7	3.1	2.1	2.7	1.6	4.0	-	1.6	1.6	1.2	-

Table 3. Production of extracellular enzymes by freshwater ascomycetes*.

Species	LP	CL	βG	EX&PX BX1	PE1	PE2	TY	LA1	LA2
<i>Ascovaginospora stellipala</i>	++	+	-	++	+y	-	-	++	-
<i>Chaetomastia typhicola</i>	+	+	+	+	+w	-	+	++	++
<i>Massariosphaeria scirpina</i>	++	+	+	+	+w	+	+	+	-
<i>Massariosphaeria</i> sp. A-33	+	+	+	++	-	-	-	++	-
<i>Ophioceras arcuatisporum</i>	-	+	+	++	+y	-	-	++	++
<i>Phaeosphaeria typharum</i>	++	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	-
<i>Pleospora</i> sp. A168-1	++	+	+	++	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Pyrenomycetes</i> sp. A90-1	-	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	-
<i>Annulatasacus velatisporus</i>	++	+	+	+	+w	-	-	-	+
<i>Boerlagiomyces websteri</i>	-	+	-	+	+y	-	+	+	-
<i>Byssothecium flumineum</i>	+	+	+	+	+w	-	+	+	++
<i>Discomycete</i> sp. A-93	+	+	+	+	+y	-	+	-	+
<i>Halosarpheia heteroguttulata</i>	++	+	+	+	+y	+	+	-	++
<i>Jahnula</i> sp. A322	++	+	+	++	-	-	+	+	+
<i>Kirschsteiniothelia elaterascus</i>	-	+	+	++	+y	-	-	-	++
<i>Lasio-sphaeria ovina</i>	-	+	++	++	-	-	+	+	++
<i>Loculoascomycete</i> sp. A-242	++	+	+	+	+w	+	+	-	++
<i>Massarina</i> sp. A25	++	+	++	++	+y	-	+	+	++
<i>Massarina ingoldiana</i>	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	++
<i>Pseudohalonectria</i> sp. A251	-	+	+	+	+y	-	+	-	++
<i>Pseudoproboscispora caudae-suis</i>	++	+	+	+	+y	-	+	-	++
<i>Submersisphaeria aquatica</i>	+	+	++	++	+y	+	-	-	++
<i>Cercophora newfieldiana</i>	-	+	+	+	+y	-	-	++	+
<i>Hymenoscyphus scutula</i>	++	+	+	+	+y	-	+	+	++
<i>Loculoascomycete</i> sp. A211	-	+	+	+	+w	-	+	+	++
<i>Ophioceras commune</i>	-	+	+	++	+y	-	-	-	++
<i>Phomatospora</i> sp. A5	++	+	+	+	+w	-	+	-	+
<i>Pyrenomycete</i> sp. A3-1	-	+	+	++	+y	-	-	++	++
<i>Pyrenomycete</i> sp. A54	++	+	+	+	-	-	+	-	+
<i>Pyrenomycete</i> sp. A161	++	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	+

*LP: lipase; CL: cellulase; βG: β-glucosidase; EX&BX1: endoxylanase & β-xylosidase (Pointing, 1999); PX: polyphenoloxidase; PE1: peroxidase (Pointing, 1999); PE2: peroxidase (Egger, 1986); TY: tyrosinase; LA1: laccase (Pointing, 1999); LA2: laccase (Pointing, 1999); ++ = strong reaction; + = weak reaction; - = no reaction; w = white colour; y = yellow colour.

Table 4. Production of extracellular enzymes by freshwater ascomycetes as measured by width of clearing or color reaction zone in cm*.

Species	AM	PR	PEC	PG	EN	EX&BX2
<i>Ascovaginospora stellipala</i>	1.2	-	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.5
<i>Chaetomastia typhicola</i>	0.7	1.4	0.9	1.2	0.2	0.5
<i>Massariosphaeria scirpina</i>	-	1.9	0.2	-	1.1	0.4
<i>Massariosphaeria</i> sp. A-33	0.7	2.4	-	0.5	0.1	0.1
<i>Ophioceras arcuatissporum</i>	0.1	-	-	-	-	1.6
<i>Phaeosphaeria typharum</i>	0.7	-	-	-	0.1	0.4
<i>Pleospora</i> sp. A168-1	-	-	0.6	0.1	0.2	0.8
Pyrenomycete sp. A90-1	0.5	-	0.2	-	0.7	0.9
<i>Annulatasacus velatisporus</i>	0.6	3.1	-	-	0.3	1.1
<i>Boerlagiomyces websteri</i>	0.6	0.4	-	0.1	-	0.1
<i>Byssothecium flumineum</i>	0.8	0.3	-	-	0.1	0.8
Discomycete sp. A-93	1.5	2.4	-	-	-	0.7
<i>Halosarpheia heteroguttulata</i>	0.2	1.6	-	-	0.3	0.3
<i>Jahnula</i> sp. A322	0.5	1.2	0.6	0.2	0.6	0.4
<i>Kirschsteiniothelia elaterascus</i>	1.7	-	0.9	0.5	0.4	1.3
<i>Lasiosphaeria ovina</i>	0.8	-	-	-	0.2	0.3
Loculoascomycete sp. A-242	1.3	-	-	-	0.2	0.5
<i>Massarina</i> sp. A-25	0.5	1.6	1.0	1.8	0.2	0.1
<i>Massarina ingoldiana</i>	0.9	2.2	-	0.6	-	1.3
<i>Pseudohalonectria</i> sp. A251	-	-	-	-	0.5	0.1
<i>Pseudoproboscispora caudae-suis</i>	0.1	3.1	-	0.1	0.7	0.8
<i>Submersisphaeria aquatica</i>	0.2	0.9	0.3	0.1	0.4	0.8
<i>Cercophora newfieldiana</i>	1.2	1.6	-	-	0.1	0.5
<i>Hymenoscyphus scutula</i>	-	2.5	0.5	-	1.6	0.4
Loculoascomycete sp. 211	0.9	2.0	-	0.2	0.3	0.9
<i>Ophioceras commune</i>	0.2	-	0.5	0.2	0.3	0.3
<i>Phomatospora</i> sp. A5	1.2	2.6	0.2	-	0.3	0.9
Pyrenomycete sp. A3-1	0.5	-	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.1
Pyrenomycete sp. A54	0.6	1.8	0.4	-	0.3	0.5
Pyrenomycete sp. A161	-	1.6	1.1	-	0.3	0.1

*AM: amylase; PR: protease; PEC: pectinase; PG: polygalacturonase; EN: endoglucanase; EX&BX2: endoxylanase and β -xylosidase (Pointing, 1999); - = no reaction.

and most of the other woody species gave weak pectinase reactions. In this study, 25% of the herbicolous species, 22% of the herbicolous/lignicolous and 50% of the lignicolous species were negative for both pectinase and polygalacturonase. Only four of 14 lignicolous species were positive for both pectinases and three of 14 lignicolous species were positive only for polygalacturonase.

Hemicelluloses are one of the three major components in plant cell wall. They comprise 25-40% of angiosperm woods and 25-30% of coniferous woods (Rayner and Boddy, 1988). The major hemicellulose of angiosperms is glucomoxylan (15-30%), followed by glucomannan 2-3% (Pettersen, 1984). Hemicelluloses are the most easily hydrolyzed of the plant cell wall polysaccharide compounds. Xylans are the predominant compounds in the hemicellulose fraction (Flannigan, 1970). Xylanase has been shown to have applications for bleaching of wood pulp (Viikari *et al.*, 1986; Paice *et al.*, 1988; Senior *et al.*, 1991; Nakamura *et al.*, 1993). Gessner (1980) found that all the salt marsh isolates he tested exhibited xylanase activity. Zare-Maivan and Shearer (1988a) reported positive xylanase reactions for all lignicolous freshwater fungi tested. Marine ascomycetes also produce xylanase (Raghukumar *et al.*, 1994). In this study, two test procedures were used, xylan agar medium (Table 4) and RBB-Xylan agar medium (Table 3) (Pointing, 1999). All species of freshwater ascomycetes tested positive for endoxylanase and β -xylosidase with both tests.

The most abundant polymer in wood, cellulose, may account for about 40-50% of dry weight of temperate woods (Pettersen, 1984). Native cellulose is partially crystalline and requires three hydrolytic enzymes acting synergistically for its complete degradation (Kirk and Cowling, 1984). All species in this study tested positive for cellulase. Endoglucanase acts on crystalline and non-crystalline cellulose. In our study, all the species were positive for endoglucanase except, *Boerlagiomyces websteri*, Discomycete sp. A-93, *Massarina ingoldiana*, and *Ophioceras arcuatisporum* (Table 4). Cellulase activity has been recorded for other aquatic fungi, including salt marsh fungi (Gessner, 1980), aquatic hyphomycetes (Suberkropp *et al.*, 1983), and freshwater lignicolous fungi (Zare-Maivan and Shearer, 1988a,b). Rohrman and Molitoris (1992) recorded cellulase activity on acid-swollen avicel for marine ascomycetes and Raghukumar *et al.* (1994) recorded about 80% of the marine species they tested were positive for cellulotic enzymes. Highley (1980) reported the inability of extracellular enzyme preparations from several species of brown-rot fungi grown on avicel to release reducing sugars from a similar substrate in vitro, concluding that activity was lacking (Reese *et al.*, 1950). Montencourt and Eveleigh (1977) working with the highly

cellulolytic *Trichoderma reesi*, found that this fungus failed to produce 'clearing zones' in acid swollen cellulose plates unless the surfactant photon D was added. They suggested that this compound may promote the release of cell bound enzymes to permit increased digestion of cellulose.

Lignins are complex aromatic polymers formed from phenyl propenoid subunits (Kirk and Obst, 1988). They comprise 20-30% of woody tissue (Pettersen, 1984) and form a physical barrier that protects cellulose and hemicellulose from degradative enzymes. Cellulose microfibriles are coated or overlaid by hemicelluloses, which are covered by a lignin sheath (Kirk and Cowling, 1984). Laccase enzymes are commonly produced by wood-decay fungi (Reinhammar, 1984; Leonowicz *et al.*, 1985; Mayer, 1987) and has been implicated in fungal degradation of lignin and its derivatives (Galliano *et al.*, 1988; Archibald and Roy, 1992; Higuchi, 1993). Laccase has been reported to depolymerise lignins and various lignin model compounds (Galliano *et al.*, 1988; Archibald and Roy, 1992; Bourbonnais and Paice, 1992; Higuchi, 1993). Laccase plate assays are easy, quick, and convenient (Sundman and Nase, 1971; Niku-Paavola *et al.*, 1990). They are based on the ability of an organism to oxidize compounds such as ABTS (2,2'-azino-bis-[3-ethylbenzene-6-sulfonic acid]), guaiacol, and syringaldazine incorporated in the media resulting in intense color production next to the fungal colony. Laccase has been correlated with white rot decay (Ander and Eriksson, 1976). Platt *et al.* (1984) suggested that preliminary activity by laccase is required for lignin degradation.

In the present study, two different methods were used to detect laccase activity (Pointing, 1999). The first was the ABTS agar method. For this method, colorless agar medium turns green due to the oxidation of ABTS (2,2'-azino-bis(3-ethylbenz-thiazoline-6-sulfonic acid) to ABTS-azine in the presence of laccase (Nika-Paavola *et al.*, 1990). Only two species, *Ascovaginospora stellipala* and *Pleospora* sp. A-168 (species from herbaceous substrates) had negative laccase activity using the first method (Table 3). The second method was the well test of syringaldazine (4-hydroxy-3, 5-dimethoxybenzaldehyde) (Pointing, 1999). All species were negative for laccase activity using the second method, except for, *Hymenoscyphus scutula*, *Submersisphaeria aquatica* and *Jahnula* sp. A-322, (Table 3). Zare-Mavin and Shearer (1988a) showed that of 18 species of freshwater lignicolous fungi, 66% produced laccase on malt extract medium and 33% on cornmeal agar. Clearly the method and/or medium used influences the results of laccase plate tests. Raghukumar *et al.* (1994) found that the laccase plate assay was much less reliable than spectrophotometric laccase determination using extracellular culture fluid from fungal culture grown in liquid media. They found that several identified and unidentified taxa of marine fungi isolated from the coast

of India from decaying mangroves and sea grass tested positive for the presence of laccase (Raghukumar *et al.*, 1994). Bourbonnais *et al.* (1997) recorded that laccase also generates radicals from a low-molecular-mass redox mediator, but in an H₂O₂- independent reaction. The mediator compound has been identified as 3-hydroxyanthranilate in the laccase producing white-rot fungus *Pycnoporus cinnabarinus*. Although several artificial mediator compounds such as 1-hydroxybenztriazole (HBT) and 2,2'-azino-bis-(3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonic acid) (ABTS) are also capable of acting as laccase mediators (Pointing *et al.*, 2000).

In this study, five species were positive for peroxidase activity using the method of Pointing (1999) while 20 species produce peroxidase using the method of Egger (1986). In the presence of H₂O₂, peroxidase catalyze oxidation of an endogenously generated low-molecular mass redox mediator veratryl alcohol (Reddy and D' Souza, 1994), which in turn carries out an one-electron oxidation of non-phenolic aromatic nuclei in lignin to generate aryl cation radicals. These then degrade non-enzymatically to aromatic and aliphatic products, which are mineralized intercellularly. The radicals generated can carry out a variety of reaction, including benzylic alcohol oxidation, carbon-carbon bond cleavage, hydroxylation, phenol dimerization / polymerization, and demethylation (Pointing, 2001).

Tyrosinase, a common enzyme acting in melanin biosynthesis, is assumed to participate also in lignin degradation by the detoxification of its breakdown products. Lyr (1958) found tyrosinase for 62 out of 154 species of wood-decaying fungi. Gessner (1980) recorded about half of the salt marsh fungi he tested were positive for tyrosinase activity when grown on a malt extract medium. In our study, approximately 50% of the species were positive for tyrosinase. Zare-Maivan and Shearer (1988a) showed that tyrosinase production depends on the medium used, since on malt extract agar only 10% of the strains of freshwater lignicolous fungi produced this enzyme, whereas on cornmeal agar, tyrosinase was positive in 45% of the strains.

In our study, 70% of the species produced phenoloxidizing enzymes. Most of the herbaceous species were negative for phenoloxidases enzymes (Table 3). The physiology of Lip (peroxidase), MnP (polyphenoloxidase) and Lac (laccase) has been extensively studied using submerged liquid cultures and is comprehensively reviewed elsewhere (Buswell and Odier, 1987; Boominathan and Reddy, 1992; Wariishi *et al.*, 1992; Hattaka, 1994; Reddy and D' Souza, 1994; Thurston, 1994; Orth and Tien, 1995; Leonowicz *et al.*, 1999). They are often referred to as lignin-modifying enzymes or LME (Pointing, 2001). LME production occurs during secondary metabolism and is induced by limited nutrient levels, particularly nitrogen. Some taxa have,

however, been demonstrated to produce Lip, MnP and Lac under conditions of nitrogen sufficiency (Buswell *et al.*, 1984). Production of Lip and MnP is generally optimal at high oxygen tensions, but is repressed by agitation of fungi grown in submerged liquid culture. Genes encoding LiP, MnP (Gold and Alic, 1993; Reddy and D' Souza, 1994), and Lac (Mansur *et al.*, 1997) have been characterized, and current evidence suggests that all three enzymes are encoded by gene families that allow complex regulation, and production of multiple isoforms. Recent research has shown that nutrient nitrogen levels, mediator compounds, and required-metal (i.e. Mn²⁺ for MnP, Cu²⁺ for Lac) concentrations affect transcription levels of LiP (Li *et al.*, 1994), MnP (Ruiz-Duenas *et al.*, 1999), and Lac (Collins and Dobson, 1997; Palmieri *et al.*, 2000).

This study demonstrates that freshwater ascomycetes are able to produce many extracellular enzymes important in the decomposition of plant structural materials. It appears that there may be some specialization in the types of enzymes produced between lignicolous and herbicolous species. Further work using natural substrates and additional taxa is needed to better understand the role of freshwater ascomycetes in decomposing submerged plant substrates and species specificities in types of substrates decomposed.

Acknowledgements

The first author is thankful to the government of Egypt for a grant to allow him to visit and work in the Department of Plant Biology, Illinois University, Urbana, USA.

References

- Abdel-Raheem, A.M. (1997). Laccase activity of lignicolous aquatic hyphomycetes isolated from the River Nile in Egypt. *Mycopathologia* 139: 145-150.
- Abdel-Raheem, A. and Badran, R. (1997). Xylanolytic activity of some species of river Nile aquatic hyphomycetes. *Acta Hydrobiologia* 39: 1-8.
- Ander, P. and Eriksson, K.E. (1976). The importance of phenol-oxidase activity in lignin degradation by the white-rot fungus *Sporotrichum pulverulentum*. *Archives of Microbiology* 109: 1-8
- Archibald, F. and Roy, B. (1992). Production of manganese chelates by laccase from the lignin degrading fungus *Trametes (Coriolus) versicolor*. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 58: 1496-1499.
- Bärlocher, F. and Kendrick, B. (1974). Dynamics of the fungal population on leaves in a stream. *Journal of Ecology* 62: 76-791.
- Boominathan, K.R. and Reddy, C.A. (1992). Biotechnological applications. In: *Fungal Degradation of Lignin* (eds. D.K. Akora, R.P. Elander and K.G. Mukerji). *Handbook of Applied Mycology*, Vol. 4, Dekker, New York: 763-782.
- Bourbonnais, R. and Paice, M.G. (1992). Demethylation and delignification of Kraft pulp by *Trametes versicolor* laccase in the presence of 2,2-azinobis (3-ethybenzthiazoline-6-sulphonate). *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology* 36: 823-827.

- Bourbonnais, R., Paice, M.G., Freiemuth, B., Bodie, E. and Borneman, S. (1997). Reactivities of various mediators and laccase with Kraft pulp and lignin model Compounds. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 63: 4627-4632.
- Buswell, J.A. and Odier E. (1987). Lignin biodegradation. *Critical Reviews of Bio-technology* 6: 1-60.
- Buswell, J.A., Mollet, B and Odier, E. (1984). Ligninolytic enzyme production by *Phanerochaete chrysosporium* under conditions of nutrient sufficiency. *FEMS Microbiology letters* 25: 295-299.
- Butler, S.K. and Suberkropp, K. (1986). Aquatic hyphomycetes on oak leaves: comparison of growth, degradation and palatability. *Mycologia* 78: 922-928.
- Chamier, A. (1985). Cell. Wall degrading enzymes of aquatic hyphomycetes: a review. *Botanical Journal of The Linnean Society* 91: 67-81.
- Chamier, A and Dixon, P.A. (1982). Pectinases in leaf degradation by aquatic hyphomycetes: the enzymes and leaf maceration. *Journal of General Microbiology* 128: 2469-2483.
- Collins, P.J. and Dobson, A.D.W. (1997). Regulation of laccase gene transcription in *Trametes versicolor*. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 63: 3444-3450.
- Dingle, J., Reid, W.W. and Solomons, G.L. (1953). The enzymatic degradation of pectin and other polysaccharides. II. Application of the "cup-plate" assay to the estimation of enzymes. *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture* 4: 149-155.
- Egger, K.N. (1986). Substrate hydrolysis patterns of post-fire ascomycetes (Pezizales). *Mycologia* 78: 771-780.
- Flannigan, B. (1970). Degradation of arabinoxylan and carboxy-methyl cellulose by fungi isolated from barley kernels. *Transactions of the British Mycology Society* 55: 277-281.
- Galliano, H., Gass, G. and Boudent, A. (1988). Biodegradation of *Hevea brasiliensis* lignocelluloses by *Rigidoporus lignosus*. Influence of culture conditions and involvement of oxidizing enzymes. *Plant Physiology and Biochemistry* 26: 619-627.
- Gessner, R.V. (1980). Degradative enzyme production by salt march fungi. *Botanica Marina* 23: 133-139.
- Gold, M.H. and Alic, M. (1993). Molecular biology of the lignin-degrading basidiomycete *Phanerochaete chrysosporium*. *Microbiology Reviews* 57: 605-622.
- Hankin, L. and Anagnostakis, S.L. (1975). The use of solid media for detection of enzyme production by fungi. *Mycologia* 67: 597-607.
- Hankin, L., Zucker, M. and Sands, D.C. (1971). Improved solid medium for the detection and enumeration of pectolytic bacteria. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 22: 205-209.
- Hatakka, A. (1994). Lignin-modifying enzymes from selected white-rot fungi, production and role in lignin degradation. *FEMS Microbiology Reviews* 13: 125-135.
- Highley, T.L. (1980). Cellulose degradation by cellulose-clearing and non-cellulose clearing brown-rot fungi. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 40: 1145-1147.
- Higuchi, T. (1993). Biodegradation mechanisms of lignin by white-rot basidiomycetes. *Journal of Biotechnology* 30: 1-8.
- Kirk, T.K. (1983). Degradation and conversion of lignocellulose. In: *The Filamentous Fungi* (eds. J.F. Smith, D.R. Berry and B. Kristansen). Edward Arnold, London: 266-695.
- Kirk, T.K. and Cowling, E.B. (1984). Biological decomposition of solid wood. *American Chemical Society Series* 207: 457-487.
- Kirk, T.K. and Obst, J.R. (1988). Lignin determination. In: *Methods in Enzymology Biomass, Part b: lignin, pectin and chitin* (eds. W.A. Wood and S.T. Kellogg). Academic Press, San Diego 161: 87-101.

- Leonowicz, A., Matuszewska, A., Luterek, J., Ziegenhagen, D., Wojtas-Wasilewska, M., Cho, N.S., Hofrichter, M. and Rogalski, J. (1999). Biodegradation of lignin by white-rot fungi. *Fungal Genetic Biology* 27: 175-185.
- Leonowicz, A., Szklarz, G. and Wojtas-Wasilewska, M. (1985). The effect of fungal laccase on fractionated lignosulfonates (peritan Na). *Phytochemistry* 22: 8-16.
- Li, D., Alic, M. and gold, M.H. (1994). Nitrogen regulation of lignin peoxidase gene transcription. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 60: 3447-3449.
- Lyr, H. (1958). Ber den Nachweis von Oxydasen und peroxydasen bei h'heren pilzen und die Bedeutung dieser enzyme für die Bavendamm-Reaktion. *Planta* 50: 359-370.
- Mansur, M., Suarez, T., Fernandez-Larrea, J.B., Brizuela, M.A. and Gonzalez, A.E. (1997). Identification of a laccase gene family in the new lignin-degrading basidiomycete CECT 20197. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 63: 2737-2746.
- Mayer, A.M. (1987). Polyphenol oxidase in plants: recent progress. *Phytochemistry* 26: 11-20.
- McComb, E.A. and McCready, R.M. (1958). Use of hydroxamic acid for determining pectin esterase activity. *Stain Technology* 33: 129-131.
- Montencourt, B.S. and Eveleigh, D.E. (1977). Semiquantitative plate assay for determination of cellulase production by *Trichoderma viride*. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 33: 178-183.
- Nakamura, S.K., Wakabayashi, R., Nakai, R.A. and Horikoshi, K. (1993). Purification and some properties of an alkaline xylanase from alkaliphilic *Bacillus* sp. strain 41M-1. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 59: 2311-2316.
- Niku-Paavola, M.L., Raaska, L. and Itavaara, M. (1990). Detection of white-rot fungi by nontoxic stain. *Mycological Research* 94: 27-31.
- Orth, A.B. and Tien, M. (1995). Biotechnology of lignin degradation. In: *The Mycota. II. Genetics and bio-technology* (eds. K. Esser and P.A. Lemke). Springer, New York: 287-302.
- Paice, M.G., Bernier, R. and Jurasek, L. (1988). Viscosity-enhancing bleaching of hardwood kraft pulp with xylanase from a cloned gene. *Biotechnology and Bioengineering* 32: 235-239.
- Palmieri, G., Giardina, P., Bianco, C., Fontanella, B., Sannia, G. (2000). Copper induction of laccase iso-enzyme in the ligninolytic fungus *Pleurotus ostreatus*. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 66: 920-940.
- Pettersen, R.C. (1984). The chemical composition of wood. In: *The Chemistry of Solid Wood* (ed. R.M. Rowell). Advances in Chemistry Series 207, American Chemical Society, Washington, DC: 57-126.
- Platt, M.W., Hander, Y. and Chet, I. (1984). Fungal activities involved in lignocellulose degradation by *Pleurotus*. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology* 20: 150-154.
- Pointing, S.B. (1999). Qualitative methods for the determination of lignocellulolytic enzyme production by tropical fungi. *Fungal Diversity* 2: 17-33.
- Pointing, S.B. (2001). Feasibility of bioremediation by white-rot fungi. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology* 57: 20-23.
- Pointing, S.B., Jones, E.B.G. and Vrijmoed, L.L.P. (2000). Optimization of laccase production by *Pycnoporus sanguineus* in submerged liquid culture. *Mycologia* 92: 139-144.
- Raghukumar, C., Raghukumar, S., Chinnaraj, A., Chandramohan, D., D'Souza, T.M. and Reddy, C.A. (1994). Laccase and other lignocellulose modifying enzymes of marine fungi isolated from the coast of India. *Botanica Marina* 37: 515-523.
- Rayner, A.D.M. and Boddy, L. (1988). *Fungal Decomposition of Wood: its biology and ecology*. John Wiley and Sons, New York.

- Reddy, C.A. and D'Souza, T.M. (1994). Physiology and molecular biology of the lignin peroxidase of *Phanerochaete chrysosporium* FEMS Microbiology Reviews 13: 137-152.
- Reese, E.T., Siu, R.G.H. and Levinson, H.S. (1950). The biological degradation of soluble cellulose derivatives and its relationship to the mechanism of cellulose hydrolysis. *Journal of Bacteriology* 59: 485-497.
- Reinhammer, B. (1984). Laccases. In: *Copper proteins and copper enzymes* (ed. R. Lontie). Vol. III, CRC Press, Inc., Boca Raton, Florida: 2-35.
- Rohrmann, S. and Molitoris, P. (1992). Screening of wood-degrading enzymes in marine fungi. *Canadian Journal of Botany* 70: 2116-2123.
- Ruiz-Duenas, F.J., Guillen, F., Camarero, S., Perez-Boada, M., Martínez, M.J. and Martínez, A.T. (1999). Regulation of peroxidase transcript levels in liquid cultures of the ligninolytic fungus *Pleurotus eryngii*. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 65: 4458-4463.
- Sanders, P.F. and Anderson, J.M. (1979). Colonization of wood blocks by aquatic hyphomycetes. *Transaction of the British Mycological Society* 73: 103-107.
- Senior, D.J., Mayers, P.R. and Saddler, J.N. (1991). The interaction of xylanases with commercial pulps. *Biotechnology and Bioengineering* 37: 274-279.
- Shearer, C.A. (1993). The freshwater ascomycetes. *Nova Hedwigia* 56: 1-33.
- Shearer C.A. (2001). The distribution of freshwater filamentous ascomycetes. In: *Mycology: Trichomycetes other Fungal Groups and Mushrooms* (eds. J.K. Misra and B.W. Horn). Science Publishers, Inc., Enfield, New Hampshire, USA: 225-292.
- Shearer, C.A., Deborah, M.L. and Joyce, E.L. (2002). Fungi in Freshwater Habitats. In: *Measuring and Monitoring Biological Diversity: standard methods for fungi* (eds. G.M. Mueller, G.F. Bills and M.S. Foster). Smithsonian Institution Press, Washington, D.C. (In press).
- Suberkropp, K.T.L. and Klug, M.J. (1976). Fungi and bacteria associated with leaves during processing in a woodland stream. *Ecology* 57: 707-719.
- Suberkropp, K.T.L. and Klug, M.J. (1981). The degradation of leaf litter by aquatic hyphomycetes. In: *The Fungal Community: its organization and role in the ecosystem* (eds. D.T. Wicklow and G.C. Carroll). Marcel Dekker, Inc., New York: 761-776.
- Suberkropp, K.T.L., Arsuffi, T.L. and Anderson, J.P. (1983). Comparison of degradative ability, enzymatic activity, and palatability of aquatic hyphomycetes grown on leaf litter. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 46: 237-244.
- Sundman, V. and Nase, L. (1971). A simple plate test for direct visualization of biological lignin degradation. *Paper and Timber* 53: 67-71.
- Thurston, C.F. (1994). The structure and function of fungal laccases. *Microbiology* 140: 19-26.
- Triska, F.J. (1970). *Seasonal distribution of aquatic hyphomycetes in relation to the disappearance of leaf litter from a woodland stream*. Ph.D. thesis, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.
- Viikari, L., Ranua, M., Kantelinen, A., Sundquist, J. and Linko, M. (1986). Bleaching with enzymes. In: *Proceedings of the Third International Conference of Biotechnology in the Pulp and Paper Industry*. Swedish Association of Pulp and Paper Engineers, Stockholm, Sweden: 1-67.
- Wariishi, H., Valli, K. and Gold, M.H. (1992). Manganese(II) oxidation by manganese peroxidase from the basidiomycete *Phanerochaete chrysosporium*. *Journal of Biological Chemistry* 267: 23688-23695.

Fungal Diversity

- Yuen, T.K., Hyde K.D. and Hodgkiss, I.J. (1998). Physiological growth parameters and enzyme production in tropical freshwater fungi. *Material und Organismen* 32: 2-16.
- Zare-Maivan, H. and Shearer, C.A. (1988a). Wood decay activity and cellulase production by freshwater lignicolous fungi. *International Biodeterioration* 24: 459-474.
- Zare-Maivan, H. and Shearer, C.A. (1988b). Extracellular enzyme production and cell wall degradation by freshwater lignicolous fungi. *Mycologia* 80: 365-375.
- Zemek, J., Marvanová, L., Kuniak, L. and Kadleüková, B. (1985). Hydrolytic enzymes in aquatic hyphomycetes. *Folia Microbiology* 30: 363-372.

(Received 8 January 2002; accepted 22 April 2002)