http://www.stockton-press.co.uk/jim

Fungal Cellulases and the Microbial Decomposition of Cellulosic Fabric

MARY MANDELS AND E. T. REESE

Food Division, Pioneering Research Division U.S. Army Natick Laboratories, Natick, Massachusetts

The biological degradation of cotton fabric involves more than the enzymatic hydrolysis of the glycosidic linkages of the cellulose chain. Cell-free enzyme preparations from active cotton-degrading organisms often have extremely limited action on native cellulose (cotton), although they readily degrade soluble cellulose derivatives or swollen celluloses. Cultures of *Trichoderma viride* produce an extracellular enzyme complex which is active on cotton fiber causing 30% digestion in a week, 70-80% upon extended treatment. Frequent changes of the enzyme solutions are not required. Under similar conditions, preparations from other cellulolytic fungi — including the widely used *Myrothecium verrucaria* — are much less effective.

Our recent attempts at separation of the hydrolytic (Cx) and solubilizing (C-1) factors of the cellulase complex have given partial separation of the two factors by zone electrophoresis and good separation by chromatography on DEAE-dextran. Recombination of the two components is markedly synergistic for action on cotton (Cx + C-1), but not for action on carboxymethyl cellulose (Cx alone).

The activity of the *Trichoderma* enzymes on cotton is relatively unaffected by dialysis or acetone precipitation. A slight inhibition results from the addition of cellobiose (1%), urea (1.5%), glycerol (2%), or ethanol (2%). Over 50% inhibition is caused by addition of Na keryl sulfonate (0.01%), methyl cellulose (0.005%), and the persimmon cellulase inhibitor. The activity is markedly reduced by treating at pH 2.0 or pH 8.0 for 1 hour at 30 C and is completely destroyed by heating to 80° for 20 minutes at pH 4.4. These responses of the C-1 component are similar to those of the Cx factor.

INTRODUCTION

Practical control of microbial deterioration of cellulosic fabrics is obtained by the uniform distribution of a suitable fungicide in the item to be protected. Suitable fungicides are available. Current problem areas arise because of other requirements imposed by the user. Thus, in garments which contact the skin, the fungicide must not irritate or poison the wearer. In multifunctional fabrics, the fungicide must not interract with the other additives in such a way as to destroy their usefulness.

While the search for new fungicides continues, other approaches are also being investigated:

(1) Modifications of cellulose for crease resistance and other purposes have indicated that many such treatments confer resistance to decay. However, when decay resistance is achieved, the item may lack consumer acceptance because of excessive 'add on' weight, inferior 'hand,' or decreased moisture or dye uptake. While this method gives better decay resistance than fungicides, its use must be limited by its compatibility with the other demands on the fabric.



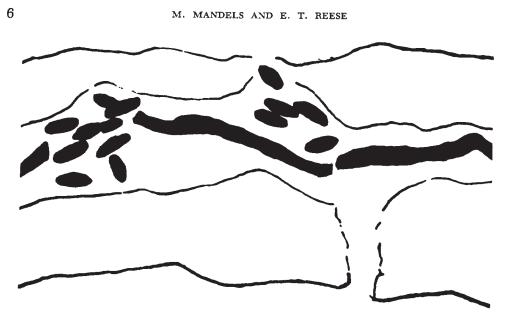


Fig. 1. Hyphae and spores of Myrothecium verrucaria within the lumen of jute. (Drawn from photomicrograph). After Basu and Ghose (1962a) used by permission, Textile Research Journal.

- (2) Synthetics may be substituted for cotton in special situations. Thus, nylon thread in shoes avoids the requirement for uniform distribution of fungicide in the cotton thread previously used. This, of course, is avoiding the problem.
- (3) Our understanding of decay is dependent upon a clearer picture of the fine structure of cellulosic materials. Much of the work at the Southern Utilization Research and Development Division of the U.S. Department of Agriculture (Rollins and Tripp, 1961) and the Empire State Paper Research Institute (Sumi, Hale, and Ränby, 1963) is aimed at broader usage of cellulose through improved methods of treatment based on a better understanding of the morphology of the fiber. The work of Stamm and Wagner (1961) at the Forest Products Laboratory on the porosity of wood may be helpful in determining whether or not enzymes can penetrate cell walls to an appreciable distance from the living hyphae (Cowling, 1963).
- (4) Finally, there has been a renewed attack on understanding the nature of the enzymes responsible for microbial damage of cellulose fibers. Approximately half of all fungi that have been tested are able to destroy cellulosic fabrics. The attack usually involves penetration of the fiber wall, growth of the hyphae within the lumen, and digestion from within (Basu and Ghose, 1962b; Heyn, 1954; Marsh, 1957; Reese, 1959; Taylor and Marsh, 1963; Fig. 1). Under favorable conditions, the attack is rapid, and the fabric loses its strength, pulls apart, or is punctured easily. Loss of functionality precedes extensive digestion.

The action of the organism on the cellulose is by means of digestive enzymes secreted by the fungus. The action of these enzymes results in several changes:

a. Alkali swelling provides the most rapid and sensitive measure of the activity of filtrates of cellulolytic fungi on native cellulose. Cotton fibers treated with culture filtrates diluted 1:100 for as little as 30 minutes at 50 C show increased swelling in 18% sodium hydroxide (Reese and Gilligan, 1954). Under these conditions, no changes are

MICROBIAL ASPECTS OF LEATHER AND FABRICS

detectable by any other method. The action is probably on the cellulose network of the primary wall and may be related to increased staining of damaged fibers with Congo red (Marsh et al., 1953).

- b. Transverse cracking (Marsh, 1957) occurs on short exposure (2 hr) and spiral fissures on more prolonged incubation (5 days) of cotton fibers in cellulolytic filtrates (Blum and Stahl, 1952). Spiral fissures appear much earlier (in 1 hr) if undried fibers, fresh from the boll, are used (Marsh, 1957). Similar fissures and cracks appear in cotton (Heyn, 1954) and jute (Basu and Ghose, 1962a) attacked by the living fungus (Fig. 2).
- c. Loss in tensile strength (Blum and Stahl, 1952) is the next detectable change in cotton fibers treated with enzyme. It may be related to the spiral and transverse cracking. For many enzyme preparations, loss in tensile strength reaches a maximum of about 30% unless several changes of fresh enzyme are applied (Selby, 1963).
 - d. The degree of polymerization is lowered (Reese, 1959).
- e. An increase in alkali (10% NaOH) solubility occurs apparently due to formation of water-insoluble intermediates (Abrams, 1950) of fairly short chain length (18).

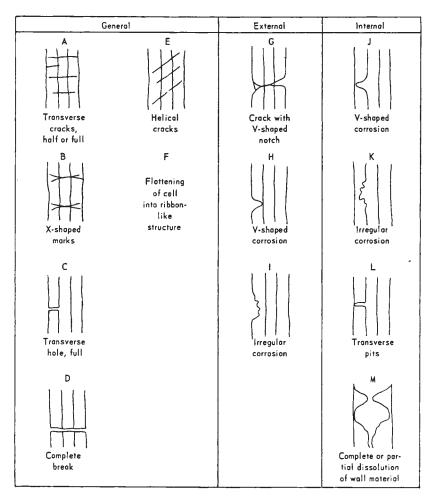


Fig. 2. Types of structural damage to jute fibers by living fungi. After Basu and Ghose (1962b), used by permission, Textile Research Journal.



M. MANDELS AND E. T. REESE

f. Loss of weight and production of reducing sugars occur much more slowly than the preceding changes. For many enzyme preparations, the loss of weight of native cellulose (cotton) is restricted to about 3%, and the resulting residue is highly resistant to further degradation (Reese, 1959; Walseth, 1952). The residue shows a decrease in moisture regain. This is generally considered evidence for the removal of the more amorphous, readily accessible portion of the cellulose.

The C₁ and C_x Concept

8

The enzymatic changes above, although limited, are sufficient to destroy the functional usefulness of cellulosic fibers. Attack by the living organism leads to more rapid and complete solubilization of the cellulose, and absorption by the fungus, of the sugars produced. The isolated enzymes, despite their restricted attack on native cellulose such as cotton, extensively degrade soluble derivatives and swollen or ball-milled celluloses. During the past 10 years, investigations have shown that cellulase is a complex of enzymes. Rapid attack on the cotton fiber requires a member or members of the complex which are absent in many cellulase preparations (Fig. 3).

On the molecular level, hydrolysis of cellulose is a simple reaction; addition of water cleaving the glucosidic bonds resulting in depolymerization of the chain leading to loss in viscosity and strength and, finally, in the production of glucose and cellobiose as end products. However, in the attack on cotton cellulose, one must consider intermolecular binding, aggregation of chains, insolubility, degree of hydration, accessibility of the linkage to the enzyme, variations in chain length, and presence of noncellulosic substances, which make the story more complicated. Reese and co-workers postulated some years ago that cellulose digestion occurs by a series of steps (Reese, 1959). The first step, carried out by a factor C1, converts native cellulose into a reactive cellulose. The nature of this action and even the question as to whether it is enzymatic was not known. The C1 factor has not been studied because there is no direct measure of its activity. Until very recently, no one had claimed more than 3% degradation of cotton cellulose by cell-free enzymes. We have assumed that if a preparation acts on cotton it contains C1, and we have pictured C1 acting in such a way as to permit an increased moisture uptake, hydrating the cellulose and pushing apart the closely packed chains. The resultant reactive cellulose (including also swollen celluloses and soluble derivatives) is acted on by Cx, a group of enzymes which hydrolyze the glucosidic bonds producing reducing sugars. The Cx enzymes have been studied in a number of laboratories, usu-

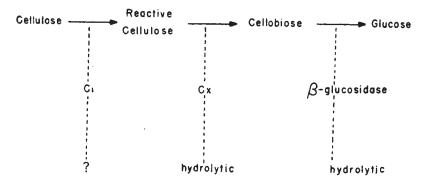


Fig. 3. Degradation of cellulose, the C_1 , C_x concept.

MICROBIAL ASPECTS OF LEATHER AND FABRICS

ally using carboxymethyl cellulose as a substrate. Most workers have found that a single organism produces a series of $C_{\rm x}$ enzymes which can be separated by physical procedures such as electrophoresis and adsorption (Gilligan and Reese, 1954; Hash and King, 1958; Miller and Birzgalis, 1961; Grimes, Duncan, and Hoppert, 1947). The β -glucosidases which hydrolyze cellobiose to glucose are well known and are readily distinguished from cellulases.

Production of a Cellulase Having High Activity on Cotton

Selby (1963; Selby, Maitland, and Thompson, 1963) recently obtained losses of 30% in the weight of cotton yarn treated with 30 daily changes of *Myrothecium verrucaria* cellulase. Under comparable conditions, we were able to achieve a weight loss of only 13% and a loss of only 2% in 35 days with four changes of enzyme (Table 1). How-

Table 1. Production of C1 and C2 by various fungi

QM No.	Preparation	C_1 units	Cx	Hydrolysis, percent	
			units	Sugar	Wt. loss
	Buffer (0.05 M acetate)	0	0	0	1
6a	Trichoderma viride	50.0	50.0	58	53
826	Sporotrichum pruinosum	30.0	70.0	11	19
137g	Penicillium pusillum	27.0	110.0	22	23
1224	Fusarium moniliforme	NT	3.5	39	39
72f	Aspergillus terreus	5.0	36.0	28	24
806	Basidiomycete	5.0	75.0	15	23
94d	Stachybotrys atra	1.0	8.0	5	6
B814	Streptomyces sp	0.7	40.0	9	12
38g	Fusarium roseum	0.7	10.0	9	10
381	Pestalotiopsis westerdijkii	0.7	60.0	4	8
460	Myrothecium verrucaria	0.4	28.0	2	2
459	Chaetomium globosum	0.2	0.5	NT	NT

Cultures grown on Solka Floc, except Penicillium pusillum 137g grown on cotton duck.

ever, when dewaxed cotton sliver was treated with 30 changes of the cellulase of *Trichoderma viride*, weight losses of 80% were obtained (Fig. 4). Unlike Selby's findings, frequent changes of enzyme solution were not required for extensive weight losses. In an experiment lasting 45 days, the losses were 71% for 30 enzyme changes, 73% for 18 changes, 69% for 7 changes, and 59% when the enzyme solution was unchanged.

The cellulase of T. viride is much more effective in hydrolyzing native cellulose than are the cellulases of other organisms (Table 1). It is rich in the C_1 factor. We have made a study of this cellulase, comparing its action on carboxymethylcellulose (C_x) with its action on cotton (C_1) . C_x activity is maximal at pH 4.8, 60 C; C_1 activity is greatest

C_x units (Reese and Mandels, 1963): action on carboxymethyl cellulose (0.5%) for 1 hr 50°.

C₁ units (text): action on cotton sliver (4.0%) for 24 hr at 40 C.

Hydrolysis of 1.0% cotton sliver at 29 C, pH 4.5, for 35 days (4 changes of enzyme).

M. MANDELS AND E. T. REESE

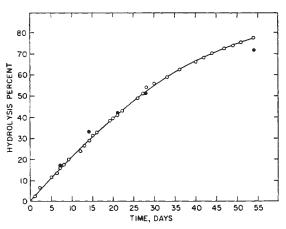


Fig. 4. Hydrolysis of cotton by Trichoderma viride QM 6a cellulase. 10-ml culture filtrate, 100-mg cotton sliver, 0.05 M acetate buffer, pH 4.8, 0.005% merthiolate, 29 C.

- creducing sugar production

weight loss of cotton, 30 changes of enzyme solution.

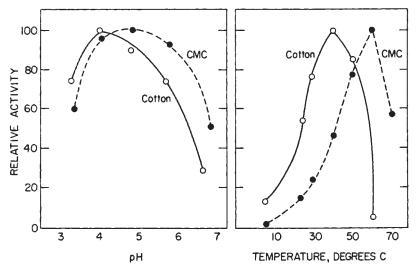


Fig. 5. Effect of pH and temperature on activity of *Trichoderma viride* 6a, cellulase.

• • • • activity on 1% cotton sliver (by sugar production). pH curve: 50 C_x units/ml, 29 C, 25 days, 3 changes; temperature curve: 20 C_x units/ml, pH 4.5, 22 days, 3 changes.

• • • activity on 0.5% carboxy methyl cellulose. pH curve: 0.2 C_x units/ml, 50 C, 1 hr; temperature curve: 0.2 C_x units/ml, pH 5.0, 1 hr.

at pH 4.0, 40 C (Fig. 5). Since CMC was digested for only 1 hour by a highly diluted enzyme, and the cotton was treated for 25 days with an undiluted enzyme, the differences in the two curves may not be of much significance. The action on cotton is proportional to enzyme concentration, and to concentration of substrate (Fig. 6). Similar relationships were reported earlier for $C_{\mathbf{x}}$ (Mandels and Reese, 1963).

The C_1 activity of T. viride was greatly reduced by heating to 80 C for 20 minutes or by treating at pH 2 or 10 at 30° for 1 hour. The addition of most chemicals had little effect on C_1 (Table 2). Anionic detergents were markedly inhibitory, cationics were not. Methyl cellulose and cellobiose were inhibitory, glucose was not. The natural inhibitors (Mandels and Reese, 1963) were active. No marked differences were noted in the response of C_1 and C_x to chemicals. Dialysis, addition of versene, or acetone precipitation did not affect the activity of T. viride cellulase on cotton (not shown).

In our initial studies with C_1 , long incubation periods were used (Fig. 4, Table 1). Use of optimal conditions, particularly the increased cotton concentration, permits a much shorter assay period (24 hr). As a C_1 activity unit, we now use that amount of enzyme which in 1 ml acts on 40 mg of cotton sliver at pH 4.0 for 24 hours at 40 C to produce 0.40 mg of reducing sugar measured as glucose. This is not wholly satisfactory since the production of reducing sugar is dependent not only on C_1 but also on the subsequent action of C_x . However, the unit works well for preparations rich in C_x and C_1 activity can be demonstrated in other preparations by addition of C_x (free of C_1).

Many fungi rapidly degrade cellulose in shaker flasks, but the extra-cellular fluids vary greatly in their content of the various cellulolytic enzymes. In active Chaetomium globosum cultures, very little C_1 or $C_{\mathbf{x}}$ has ever been detectable, in Pestalotiopsis westerdijkii cultures, large amounts of $C_{\mathbf{x}}$ and little C_1 are found, while in Trichoderma viride relatively large amounts of both factors are present (Table 1). No instance of high C_1 , low $C_{\mathbf{x}}$ has been observed.

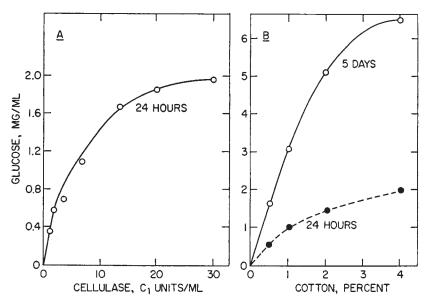


Fig. 6. Effect of enzyme and substrate concentrations on the hydrolysis of cotton by T. viride cellulase. Conditions: 0.05 M acetate, pH 4.0, 40 C. A 4% cotton sliver—24 hr, B 30 C₁ units per ml; 24 hr, and 5 days.

M. MANDELS AND E. T. REESE

Table 2. Effect of various additions on the C1 and Cx of Trichoderma viride

	Concen-	Change %		
Additive	tration mg/ml	Action on 1% cotton (C ₁)*	Action on CMC (C _x)†	
Glucose. Cellobiose. Giberellin. Protease (R&H, PF). Peptone. Gelatin.	10.0 10.0 0.1 3.3 1.0	+ 8 -54 + 8 -15 + 9 +16	+13 -34 -10 0 0 + 5	
Persimmon inhibitor Merthiolate NaCl CaCl ₂ MgCl ₂	0.01 3.3 2.9 0.5 0.5	-50 -36 + 1 + 9 + 5	-97 0 0 - 4 +16	
Na keryl benzene sulfonate	0.05 0.05 0.5 0.5	-48% $-50%$ $+2%$ $-40%$	-30 -25 -15 -10	
Urea	15.0 20.0 20.0	$-33\% \\ -36\% \\ -45\%$	$0 \\ 0 \\ -20\%$	
Brassic acid	0.1 0.02	$-65\% \\ -33\%$	-28% -34%	

^{*}Cotton-20 days at 29 C; †CMC-1 hr at 50 C.

In a similar vein, the correlation between the short-term C_1 assay and the long-term digestion of cotton is not always a good one (Table 1). T. viride cellulase is rich in C_1 measured either as units or as extent of hydrolysis of cotton in 35 days (Table 1). Sporotrichum pruinosum and Penicillium pusillum filtrates also have high unit values, but they are not nearly as active as the T. viride enzyme on long-term hydrolysis. Conversely, the Fusarium moniliforme solution with low unit activity had high activity in the long term experiment. Differences in stability, or in adsorbability on cellulose, of the enzymes possibly account for the variations observed. The C_1 factor is produced by most T. viride cultures. Of 71 Trichoderma culture filtrates tested, 58 produced 10-44% hydrolysis of cotton in 18 days. The most active organism on the C_1 unit basis was T. viride QM 6a. Most active in long-term hydrolysis was T. viride QM 317 which produced almost 5% sugar from 6% wood cellulose (Solka Floc).

Next in importance to the organism itself for the production of these enzymes are the conditions of growth (Table 3). The growth substrate affects both the amount and the



MICROBIAL ASPECTS OF LEATHER AND FABRICS

Table 3. Effect of growth substrate on production of C1 and Cz by Trichoderma viride QM 6a

Substrate (1%)	C ₁ units	C _x units	R C ₁ /C _x
	μ/ml	μ/ml	
Cotton sliver	88.0	43.0	2.0
Cotton sliver (ground)	98.0	54.0	1.8
Cotton duck (ground)	100.0	83.0	1.2
Solka Floc (ground)	88.0	100.0	0.9
Filter paper (ground)	70.0	85.0	0.8
Cellobiose	25.0	38.0	0.7
Glucose	11.0	25.0	0.4
Lactose	10.0	48.0	0.2
Starch	0.3	0.4	_
Glycerol	0.2	0.3	

relative levels of C_1 and C_x . Cultures grown on glycerol or starch contain no C_x and do not act on cotton. Cultures grown on cellulose have more C_1 and more long term activity on cotton than those produced on cellulose, glucose, or lactose. It should be emphasized, however, that T. viride cultures have more C_1 activity even when grown on sugars than do cultures of most other organisms grown on cellulose.

Most cellulosic substrates (Table 4) are hydrolyzed by the cellulase of *T. viride* QM 6a. The rate of the reaction depends on the form of the cellulose. Materials like filter paper or newspaper show considerable breakdown in 1 day. Cotton is the most resistant of the pure celluloses. Woody materials are resistant unless thoroughly ground by ball milling (Pew and Weyna, 1962). As an example of the possible conversion of cellulosic wastes to sugar by the use of cellulase, 50 g of newspaper were digested, producing 12.8 g of sugar. The product was predominantly glucose, but cellobiose and xylose were also present.

The length of incubation, or age of the culture, affects the relative amounts of the various cellulase components present in the medium. This has been shown for M. verrucaria, with CMC (C_x), and with swollen cellulose (Gilligan and Reese, 1954) or cotton (Selby, 1963; Fig. 7), as substrates. In both cases, the activity against solid cellulose appeared before C_x . In our present tests, using cotton hydrolysis as a measure of C_1 , we have not been able to show great differences in the C_1/C_x ratio during growth (Fig. 8). We have also been unable to elute either C_1 or C_x from culture solids during the early stages of incubation before their appearance in the medium. Selby (1963), on the other hand, has eluted M. verrucaria cellulase from the culture solids using borate at pH 9 or soluble cellulose derivatives at pH 5.5.

In T. viride QM 6a, we have an excellent organism for the production of C_1 and C_x . The use of different organisms and of different assay techniques explain why our results do not always agree with those of others. The high C_1 level of T. viride cellulase has led to its commercial application in the Japanese food industry (Toyama, 1963).

Separation of C_1 and C_x

Both similarities and differences between C_1 and C_x are shown above. If C_1 and C_x are different enzymes, one should be able to separate them. In early experiments (Gilligan



M. MANDELS AND E. T. REESE

Table 4. Activity of Trichoderma viride cellulase on a number of cellulosic substrates

1	Hydrolysis—percent			
	Reducing Sugar		Wt. Loss	
	1 day	14 days	14 days	
Substrate—unground*				
Cotton sliver	9	45	48	
Cotton duck	5	36	33	
Filter paper	33	97	96	
Newspaper unprinted	30	40	41	
Newspaper printed	30	37	35	
Esparto cellulose	33	85	79	
Bran flakes	16	38	29	
Substrate—ground*				
Cotton sliver	7	38	34	
Cotton duck	11	48	41	
Cellulose powder (Whatman)	6	36	29	
Solka Floc (SW 40A)	23	77	83	
Spruce wood (Wiley Mill)	7	11	8	
Spruce wood (ball milled)	39	60	41	
Pine twigs	5	11	12	
Pine lumber	3	4	3	
Bayberry twigs	2	5	0	

^{*}Substrate (1%) in cellulase solution (20 $C_x \mu/ml$), pH 4.0; 29 C_x

and Reese, 1954) with phosphate gel columns, we successfully separated cellulase components differing in their relative activities on CMC (C_x) , swollen cellulose, and cotton (swelling factor). Selby (1963) differentiated a C_x component from a second factor responsible for loss in strength of cotton fiber (his component A). Toyama and Shibata (1961) electrophoretically separated factors differing in their activities on CMC and on filter paper.

In the current work, cotton fiber hydrolysis is used as a measure of the pre- C_x enzyme, C_1 . Its resistance to hydrolysis by C_x (free of C_1) makes it well suited for this purpose. Other variously degraded celluloses may be, in part, susceptible to both C_x and C_1 and thus confuse the interpretation of the data. Even CMC is not entirely without fault in this respect!

Attempts have been made to separate cellulase components by means of the molecular sieve principle. Four enzymatically active fractions were found in *Polyporus versicolor* (Petterson and Porath, 1963), one of which had a molecular weight of about 11,000, another a weight of about 50,000, but no attempt was made to correlate these with C₁ and C_x. Our efforts at fractionating *Trichoderma viride* cellulase on Sephadex gels G25, G50, and G75 were unsuccessful.

Attempts to fractionate cellulase on DEAE-cellulose were abandoned because rapid degradation of the column occurred (10% digestion in 8 hrs). DEAE-dextran (Sephadex

MICROBIAL ASPECTS OF LEATHER AND FABRICS

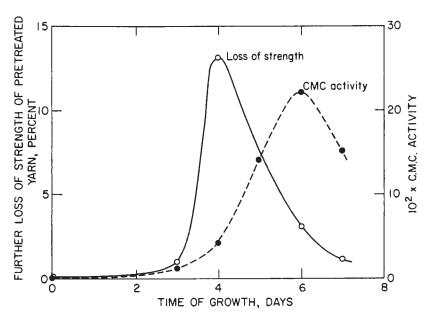


Fig. 7. The rate of development of activity towards cotton yarn and towards carboxymethylcellulose in cultures of *Myrothecium verrucaria*. After Selby (1963), used by permission of the author.

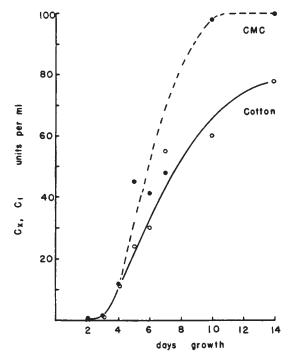


Fig. 8. Appearance of C_x and C_1 during growth of *Trichoderma viride* on cellulose. Mineral salts medium (Reese and Mandels, 1963) + 1% Solka Floc; shake culture at 29 C. o —— o C_x units; • —— • C_1 units

A25 and A50), however, gave good separations when Trichoderma cellulase was introduced at pH 7 and eluted either with a pH gradient (M/50 PO₄, pH 7 \rightarrow 3) or with a salt gradient (O - 0.5 M NaCl in M/50 PO₄ at pH 7.0.) β -Glucosidase passed rapidly through the column while C_x came off as two major peaks, one very early, the other at about pH 5.5 or at about 0.1 M NaCl. Traces of C_x activity were found in almost every fraction. The first C_x peak usually overlapped the β -glucosidase, but, in one experiment, complete separation of C_x and β -glucosidase was achieved (Table 5). The C_x

Table 5. Synergistic effects between fractions of T. viride cellulase separated on Sephadex A50

Fraction	β-glucosidase mg glucose/ml	${ m C_x} \ { m units/ml}$	C ₁ + water mg glucose/ml	C ₁ + Fraction D mg glucose/ml
A	0.84 0 0 0 0 0.05 0	0 1.8 0 14.2 10.3 0.3	0 0.08 0.12 0.16 0.52 0.48 0.25	0.16 0.16 0.23 0.17 0.54 1.28 0.48
A B C D E F G Found Calculated		3.9 3.5	0.87 0.23	1.28

NaCl gradient at pH 7.0.

β-glucosidase—glucose from 0.2% salicin, 2 hrs 50°; C_x units— C_1 eluate (× ½) on 4% cotton 24 hrs 40° + 1 ml water or 1 ml Fraction D.

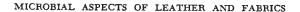
Recoveries: β-glucosidase 66%, Cx 66%, C1 11%.

On recombined fractions C_x 73%, C₁ 40% (or 59% with Fraction D added).

components had almost no activity on cotton. C_1 came off much later than C_x , e.g., at about pH 4.5 or at about 0.2 M NaCl. It was associated with the major protein peak and had a trace of activity on CMC (Fig. 9). The C_1 component acted on cotton, but this activity was greatly increased when a small quantity of the separated C_x (from either peak) was added (Fig. 9). The addition of Pestalotiopsis westerdijkii C_x (Table 1) also increased the action of the T. viride C_1 fraction on cotton. The addition of C_1 to C_2 did not stimulate the activity on CMC. When all fractions from a column separation were recombined, the action on CMC was close to the theoretical average, but the action on cotton was increased four- to fivefold (Table 5). Similar synergistic effects were previously reported by Gilligan and Reese (1954) for fractions separated on phosphate gel columns.

When the separated C_1 peak was again chromatographed on the DEAE-Sephadex, the trace of C_x remained associated with it. However, when the separated C_1 peak was subjected to starch block zone electrophoresis, the C_x and C_1 components migrated at different rates (Fig. 9).

Another technique that has given a partial separation of cellulase fractions is differential adsorption on the substrate, cellulose. The C_1 fraction was more strongly adsorbed than the C_x fractions (Reese, 1959; Selby, 1963), but the separation was not



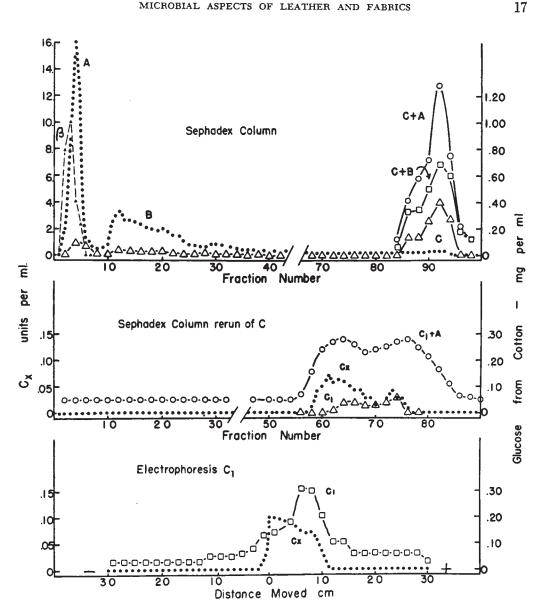


Fig. 9. Separation of components of *Trichoderma viride* QM 6a cellulase. 1. Initial separation on Sephadex A50. 20-ml dialyzed and concentrated culture filtrate applied to 5 g Sephadex A50 (1" × 7.5" col.). Eluted with pH gradient (M/50 PO₄, pH 7.2 → 3.5). 20-ml samples collected. Fractions combined:

C_x = #2-5; C_x = #9-25; C₁ = #84-98.

C₁ peak dialyzed and concentrated to 25 ml for reseparation. 2. Rechromatogram of C₁ on Sephadex A50. 10-ml C₁ peak from 1 on Sephadex A50, pH gradient $6.5 \rightarrow 3.5$. Note change in ordinate. 3. Electrophoretic separation of C₁. C₁ peak (from 1) separated by starch block zone electrophoresis (Mandels, Miller, and Slater, 1961) at pH 7. 8v/cm, 20 hr. β -glucosidase --- action on 0.2% salicin. C_x — units -- scale for 2 and $3 = 40 \times 1$ C₁ — action on 4% cotton 24 hrs 40°, $\frac{1}{2}$ ml acetate buffer, pH 4.0, 3-ml eluate, + 1-ml water Δ —— Δ ; or + 1 ml C_x \Box ——— \Box ; or + 1 ml C_x \circ — \circ . Scale for 2 and $3 = 2 \times 1$.

M. MANDELS AND E. T. REESE

complete, and elution of the adsorbed enzymes was difficult. Selby attributed the need for daily replenishing his enzyme solutions to the adsorption of "A" enzyme on the cellulose being digested. However, our C_1 factor from T. viride was not significantly depleted during the long term incubation with cotton.

The multiplicity of cellulase components is well documented. Not only do the components separate on columns and in electrophoresis, but they differ in their activity on various types of cellulose. Further evidences of difference are: the synergistic effects of recombined fractions acting on solid cellulose, the different slopes — fluidity vs. reducing sugar of the several components (Gilligan and Reese, 1954; Nisizawa, 1961), and the differences in inhibitory power of cellobiose and of methocel (Reese, 1959).

DISCUSSION

 C_1 is an enzyme. It is a large molecule, retained in a dialysis sack, precipitated by solvents, and excluded by Sephadex G 75. It is an induced enzyme, pH and temperature dependent, inactivated by heat and by chemical inhibitors. Except in T. viride, C_1 is conspicuous by its absence in the culture medium, yet it must be present in all actively cellulolytic fungi. It may be located on the surface of the mycelium or adsorbed on the culture solids. Efforts to remove it have been unsuccessful except for Selby's work with M. verrucaria. In his cultures it appears before C_x (Fig. 7) and diminishes on longer incubation. If it had been adsorbed in the culture solids, its concentration in the medium should increase with time as the cellulose is consumed.

The methods used to evaluate the components of cellulase have varied widely, but there has been general agreement that at least two types of activity are being measured. C_x activity is the hydrolytic phase, measured by loss of viscosity, or production of reducing sugars from carboxymethyl cellulose. This is a suitable measure of C_x action since it seems increasingly likely that C_1 has no action on CMC. The best substrate for measurement of C_1 is cotton fiber since it is acted on by C_1 but not by C_x . But not all methods involving cotton fiber are measures of C_1 .

- (a) Our 'loss in weight' (sugar production) procedure is perhaps the best measure of C_1 but depends on the presence of C_x . A direct measure of the prehydrolytic reaction is needed.
- (b) Alkali 'swelling factor' is found to be associated more closely with the C_x components isolated from columns than with C_1 but synergistic effects when components are recombined occur here as well as in (a) (not shown).
- (c) Loss in tensile strength of cotton may occur with very little weight loss by a factor which has been separated from the C_x component (Selby, 1963) in *Myrothecium verrucaria*. No data are available as to synergistic effects of C_x on this factor, or on its relation to C_1 as defined in (a).
- (d) Cotton, filter paper, cellulose sol (Petterson and Porath, 1963), and swollen cellulose (Walseth, 1952) have been used as substrates for C_1 . These substrates are acted on to some extent by C_x itself, with a synergistic effect from C_x plus C_1 . It appears that the swelling or pulping process has partially simulated the action of C_1 .

If all these methods do evaluate C_1 , there should be a correlation between the action of various enzyme samples tested by them. This is not the case. Action on filter paper and on swollen cellulose agree fairly well but differ markedly from our measure of C_1 and from swelling factor. The latter, in turn, do not agree well with each other. This supports a previous report (Gilligan and Reese, 1954) that action on swollen cellulose did not correlate with swelling factor (ratios 0.06-10.0). It is time now to compare the

MICROBIAL ASPECTS OF LEATHER AND FABRICS

action of isolated components on cotton fibers using as many procedures as are available. Is C₁ hydrolytic? One possibility is that it is an extremely random acting member of the C_x group, producing maximum fluidity for minimum change in reducing groups. The possibility that it is a result of high local concentrations of Cx, as might occur at a hyphal tip, is ruled out by our data and by that of Selby (1963). C₁ might also be a very small Cx molecule able to penetrate the cellulose lattice. However, our data on gel separation indicates that C_1 does not differ appreciably from C_x in size, at least in T. viride. Petterson and Porath (1963) found that for Polyporus versicolor, the molecule acting on a cellulose sol was larger than that acting on CMC. Although a large enzyme molecule might be hindered by the CMC substituents, it is unlikely that a small C_x molecule would fail to act on CMC. Another possibility is that C₁ may be hydrolytic, acting on a bond or substrate present in minute amounts in the cotton fiber. 'Weak' linkages have been proposed, and noncellulosic polysaccharides have been found in cotton. The hydrolysis of these could open up the structure for the subsequent action of C_x. However, in our search for enzymes capable of such action, (31 fungal preparations having a wide variety of carbohydrases), none was found.

If C₁ is not hydrolytic, how might it act? It must carry out some action that solubilizes the cellulose and allows Cx to reach the sites where it is active. How? The hydrogen bondase of Siu would be a possible explanation if one could believe in such an enzyme. Possibly C1 may bind to cellulose relaxing the intramolecular bonds of the cellulose and allowing C_x to act. This could also be an explanation of the usual absence of C₁ in filtrates. In most organisms, C₁ might remain bound to the cellulose or complexed with residual carbohydrate in an inactive form.

In conclusion, we may sum up the current status of the C₁ problem. First, there is ever stronger evidence of a pre-C_x factor both in the results reported here and in those of Selby, Toyama, and others. Second, is the development of a cellulase system (T. viride) with high C1 and with the ability to extensively degrade native cellulose. Third is the successful separation of the C_1 factor from C_x on DEAE dextran.

What we need now is cooperation from those able to detect small changes in cellulosic fibers. We can effect the change. Who can detect it? That is the question.

REFERENCES

- Abrams, E. 1950. Microbiological deterioration of cellulose during the first 72 hours of attack.

 Textile Res. J. 20:71-86.
- Basu, S.N., and R. Ghose. 1962a. A microscopical study on the degradation of jute fiber by microorganisms. Textile Res. J. 32:677-694.
- Basu, S. N., and R. Chose. 1962b. Structural changes brought about in the jute fiber by microorganisms and their enzymes. *Textile Res. J.* 32:932-942.

 Blum, R., and W. H. Stahl. 1952. Enzymic degradation of cellulose fibers. *Textile Res. J.* 22:178-192.
- Cowling, E. 1963. Structural features of cellulose that influence its susceptibility to enzymatic hydrolysis. In Advances in Enzymic Hydrolysis of Cellulose and Related Materials, pp. 1-32.
- Edited by Elwyn T. Reese. Pergamon Press, London. Gilligan, W., and E. T. Reese. 1954. Evidence for multiple components in microbial cellulases. Can. J. Microbiol. 1:90-107.
- Grimes, R. M., C. W. Duncan, and C. A. Hoppert. 1957. Multiplicity of cellulolytic enzymes of Myrothecium verrucaria. Arch. Biochem. Biophys. 68:412-424.
- Hash, J. H., and K. W. King. 1958. On the nature of the β-glucosidase of Myrothecium verrucaria. J. Biol. Chem. 232:395-402.
 Heyn, A. N. J. 1956. Causes and detection of damage in raw cotton. Textile Industries, 120: 137-145.
- Mandels, Mary, G. L. Miller, and R. W. Slater, Jr. 1961. Separation of fungal carbohydrates by starch block zone electrophoresis. Arch. Biochem. Biophys. 93:115-121.
 Mandels, Mary, and E. T. Reese. 1963. Inhibition of cellulases and β-glucosidases. In



20 M. MANDELS AND E. T. REESE

Advances in Enbymic Hydrolysis of Cellulose and Related Materials, pp. 115-118. Edited by Elwyn T. Reese. Pergamon Press, London.

Marsh, P. B., K. Bollenbacher, M. L. Butler, and L. R. Guthrie. 1953. "S Factor." A microbial enzyme which increases the swelling of cotton in alkali. Textile Res. J. 23:878-888.

Marsh, P. J. 1957. Microscopic observations on cotton fibers subjected to enzymatic degrada-

tion. Textile Res. J. 27:913-916.

Miller, G. L., and Rasma Birzgalis. 1961. Carboxymethyl cellulase and cellopentase activities of electrophoretic fractions of cellulase. Arch. Biochem. Biophys. 95:19-24.

Nisizawa, K. 1961. Proceedings of the first symposium on cellulase and related enzymes, pp. 39. Cellulase Association, Department Ferment Technol. and Engin. Osaka University, Japan. Petterson, G., and J. Porath. 1963. Studies on cellulolytic enzymes. II. Multiplicity of the cellulolytic enzymes of Polyporus versicolor. Biochem. Biophys. Acta 67:9-15.

Pew, J. C., and P. Weyna. 1962. Fine grinding, enzyme digestion and the lignin cellulose

Reese, E. T. 1959. Cellulose decomposition: fungi. In Marine Boring and Fouling Organisms, pp. 265-290. Edited by D. L. Ray. Friday Harbor Symposia. University of Washington Press, Seattle.

Reese, E. T., and W. Gilligan. 1954. The swelling factor in cellulose hydrolysis. Textile

Res. J. 24:663-669.

Reese, E. T., and Mary Mandels. 1963. Enzymic hydrolysis of cellulose and its derivatives. In Methods in Carbohydrate Chemistry, III Cellulose, pp. 139-143. Academic Press, Inc., New York.

Rollins, Mary, and V. W. Tripp. 1961. The architecture of cellulose, a microscopic review. Forest Prod. J. 11:493-504.

Selby, K., C. C. Maitland, and Katherine V. A. Thompson. 1963. The degradation of fibrous cotton by the extracellular cellulase of Myrothecium verrucaria. Biochem. J. 86, 9P.

Selby, K. 1963. The effect of cellulolytic enzymes on some properties of cotton fibers. In

Advances in Enzymic Hydrolysis of Cellulose and Related Materials, pp. 33-49. Edited by

Elwyn T. Reese. Pergamon Press, London.

Stamm, A. J., and E. Wagner. 1961. Determining the distribution of interstructural openings in wood. Forest Prod. J. 11:141-144.

Sumi, Y., R. D. Hale, and B. Ränby. 1963. The accessibility of native cellulose microfibrils.

Tappi 46:126-129.

Taylor, E. S., and P. B. Marsh. 1963. Cellulose decomposition by Pythium. Can. J. Microbiol. 9:353-358.

Toyama, N. 1963. Degradation of foodstuffs by cellulase and related enzymes. In Advances in Enzymic Hydrolysis of Cellulose and Related Materials, pp. 235-253. Édited by Elwyn T. Reese. Pergamon Press, London.

Toyama, N., and T. Shibata. 1961. Cellulase and carboxymethyl cellulase of *Trichoderma koningi*. J. Ferment. Technol. 39:262 (Japanese).

Walseth, C. S. 1952. The influence of fine structure of cellulose on the action of cellulases. Tappi 35:233-238.