jmb

Evaluation of the Synergistic Effect of Mixed Cultures of White-Rot Fungus *Pleurotus ostreatus* and Biosurfactant-Producing Bacteria on DDT Biodegradation

Adi Setyo Purnomo*, Khoirul Ashari, and Farizha Triyogi Hermansyah

Department of Chemistry, Faculty of Mathematics and Natural Sciences, Institut Teknologi Sepuluh Nopember (ITS), Kampus ITS Sukolilo, Surabaya 60111, Indonesia

Received: January 31, 2017 Revised: March 21, 2017 Accepted: April 20, 2017

First published online April 21, 2017

*Corresponding author Phone: +62-31-5943353; Fax: +62-31-5928314; E-mail: adi_setyo@chem.its.ac.id; adi.spurnomo@yahoo.com

pISSN 1017-7825, eISSN 1738-8872

Copyright© 2017 by The Korean Society for Microbiology and Biotechnology DDT (1,1,1-trichloro-2,2-*bis*(4-chlorophenyl) ethane) is one of the organic synthetic pesticides that has many negative effects for human health and the environment. The purpose of this study was to investigate the synergistic effect of mixed cutures of white-rot fungus, *Pleurotus ostreatus*, and biosurfactant-producing bacteria, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Bacillus subtilis*, on DDT biodegradation. Bacteria were added into the *P. ostreatus* culture (mycelial wet weight on average by 8.53 g) in concentrations of 1, 3, 5, and 10 ml (1 ml $\approx 1.25 \times 10^{9}$ bacteria cells/ml culture). DDT was degraded to approximately 19% by *P. ostreatus* during the 7-day incubation period. The principal result of this study was that the addition of 3 ml of *P. aeruginosa* into *P. ostreatus* culture gave the highest DDT degradation rate (approximately 86%) during the 7-day incubation period. This mixed culture combination of the fungus and bacteria also gave the best ratio of optimization of 1.91. DDD (1,1-dichloro-2,2-*bis*(4-chlorophenyl) ethylene), and DDMU (1-chloro-2,2-*bis*(4-chlorophenyl) ethylene) were detected as metabolic products from the DDT degradation by *P. ostreatus* and *P. aeruginosa*. The results of this study indicate that *P. aeruginosa* has a synergistic relationship with *P. ostreatus* and can be used to optimize the degradation of DDT by *P. ostreatus*.

Keywords: Biodegradation, DDT, Pleurotus ostreatus, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Bacillus subtilis

Introduction

Environmental pollution is an inseparable part of human life. Increasing human needs have encouraged the growth of industries, leading to the production of new products and the use of modern technologies. Among the various kinds of environmental pollutants, synthetic pesticides from the agricultural industry now constitute a serious environmental problem. Organochlorine pesticides have been widely used in the fields of agriculture and health since the 1940s. DDT (1,1,1-trichloro-2,2-*bis*(4-chlorophenyl) ethane) was introduced as an organochlorine pesticide during World War II to combat mosquitoes that spread malaria and typhus [1–3]. DDT was the first synthetic pesticide to gain popularity all over the world and it is still being used in some developing countries for essential public health and agricultural purposes [3]. However, DDT has been prohibited in most countries owing to its negative impacts on wildlife and its ill effects on human health [3, 4].

Although DDT has been banned, its residues are still present in the environment in high concentrations, especially in flowing water bodies and soil around agricultural areas [1, 5, 6]. Some treatment methods that work by degrading the compound have been developed to reduce and minimize the adverse impacts of the use of DDT. Among the several methods used, biodegradation is the most secure, efficient, and relatively low-cost method. Biodegradation uses microorganisms (fungi and bacteria) as agents to degrade DDT, by converting the compound into a form that is either less toxic or not toxic at all.

The ability of microorganisms, particularly white-rot fungi, to degrade DDT has been investigated by researchers. White-rot fungi have ligninolytic enzyme systems that play a role in degrading DDT. An example of such white-rot fungi is Pleurotus ostreatus. Purnomo et al. [7] reported that P. ostreatus was capable of degrading DDT to approximately 45% in potato dextrose broth (PDB) medium during a 14-day incubation. In addition, spent mushroom waste (SMW) of *P. ostreatus* degraded and mineralized DDT to approximately 48% and 51% during 28-day and 56-day incubation periods, respectively [8]. The SMW P. ostreatus was also applied to degrade DDT in sterilized and un-sterilized soils to 40% and 80%, respectively, in a 28-day incubation period. These reports indicate that *P. ostreatus* is a potential fungus for the biodegradation of DDT in pure culture as well as in contaminated soil. However, the amount of DDT degradation by P. ostreatus is still low and requires a long incubation time. Therefore, it is necessary to modify the culture so as to enhance its ability in degrading DDT.

This study examined the optimization of DDT degradation by P. ostreatus through the addition of biosurfactantproducing bacteria, Pseudomonas aeruginosa [9-15] and Bacillus subtilis [16-18]. Since DDT is a hydrophobic compound, the addition of biosurfactant can increase the solubility of DDT thereby optimizing the process. Apart from being able to produce biosurfactant, P. aeruginosa is also capable of degrading the compounds of pollutants, including DDT [19, 20]. P. aeruginosa can degrade DDT to several metabolic products such as DDMU (1-chloro-2,2bis(4-chlorophenyl) ethylene), DDMS (1-chloro-2,2 bis (4'chlorophenyl) ethane), DDOH (2,2-bis (p-chlorophenyl) ethanol), DDA (bis (p-chlorophenyl) acetic acid), 2chlorobiphenyl, 4-chlorophenyl, 4-chlorobenzoic acid, and also two polar metabolic products, catechol and hydroquinone [19]. In addition, P. aeruginosa strain 640X degrades DDT to non-chlorinated metabolic products such as phenylacetate, phenylpropnioate, and salicylic acid [20]. B. subtilis, on the other hand, can degrade organic pollutants such as dyes [21, 22], aflatoxin [23], diethyl phthalate [24], and DDT [25, 26]. Given these properties, the effect of the addition of biosurfactant-producing bacteria on DDT degradation by P. ostreatus was investigated and the metabolic products were identified.

Materials and Methods

Chemicals

DDT was purchased from Tokyo Chemical Industry Co. (Japan). Acetone, methanol, *n*-hexane, and *N*,*N*-dimethylformamide (DMF) were purchased from Wako Pure Chemical Industries (Japan).

Fungus Culture Conditions

Stock cultures of *P. ostreatus* BM9073 were maintained on 9-cmdiameter potato dextrose agar plates (PDA; Difco, USA) that had been incubated at 25°C. The mycelia from the agar plate were transferred to a sterile blender cup containing 25 ml of sterile water and then homogenized for 30 sec. One milliliter of this homogenate was inoculated into 10 ml of PDB (Difco) medium in a 100-ml Erlenmeyer flask. The cultures were pre-incubated statically at 25°C for 7 days [27–29].

Bacteria Culture Conditions

Stock cultures of *P. aeruginosa* NBRC 3080 and *B. subtilis* NBRC 3009 were maintained on 9-cm-diameter nutrient agar (NA; Difco) that had been incubated at 37°C. The colony was inoculated into 40 ml of nutrient broth (NB; Difco) medium in 50-ml Falcon flasks. The cultures were pre-incubated at 37°C for 12 h with a shaker (180 rpm) [30].

Biodegradation of DDT by P. ostreatus

After pre-incubation for 7 days, 50 μ l of 5 mM DDT in DMF was added to each flask inoculated with *P. ostreatus* (final concentration, 0.25 μ mol). The headspace of each flask was flushed with oxygen and then sealed with a glass stopper and sealing tape, to prevent the volatilization of substrate. The cultures were incubated statically for 7 days at 25°C. As a control, the cultures were killed by autoclaving (121°C, 20 min) after pre-incubation. The experiments were performed in triplicates [7, 27–29].

Biodegradation of DDT by Biosurfactant Producing Bacteria

After pre-incubation for 12 h, bacteria cultures were inoculated separately into PDB culture (final volume 10 ml) at different concentrations of 1, 3, 5, and 10 ml (1 ml $\approx 1.25 \times 10^{9}$ bacteria cells/ml culture). Fifty microliters of 5 mM DDT in DMF (final concentration, 0.25 µmol) was added to each bacteria-inoculated flask. The headspace of each flask was flushed with oxygen and then sealed with a glass stopper and sealing tape to prevent the volatilization of substrate. The cultures were incubated statically for 7 days at 25°C. As a control, the cultures were killed by autoclaving (121°C, 20 min) after pre-incubation. The experiments were performed in triplicates.

Biodegradation of DDT by *P. ostreatus* with Addition of Biosufactant-Producing Bacteria

After fungus pre-incubation for 7 days, bacteria cultures were added separately into the *P. ostreatus* culture at concentrations of 1, 3, 5, and 10 ml (1 ml $\approx 1.25 \times 10^{\circ}$ bacteria cells/ml culture). Fifty microliters of 5 mM DDT in DMF (final concentration, 0.25 µmol) was added to each flask containing the mixed culture. To prevent the volatilization of substrate, the flask was sealed with a glass stopper and sealing tape after the headspace of each flask had been flushed with oxygen. The cultures were incubated statically

for 7 days at 25°C. As a control, the cultures were terminated by autoclaving (121°C, 20 min) after pre-incubation. The experiments were performed in triplicates. The ratio optimization (RO) was calculated as amount of degradation by mixed cultures per total amounts of degradation by fungus and bacteria.

Analytical Method

Fifty microliters of 5 mM pyrene in DMF (final concentration, 0.25 μmol) was added to each of the samples as an internal standard. The mixtures were homogenized with 40 ml of methanol and then washed with 120 ml of acetone. After filtration through a glass fiber filter (1.0 μm pore size; Advantec, Japan), the filtrates were mixed and evaporated. The filtrates were extracted with 250 ml of *n*-hexane and the organic fraction was collected and dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate. The extracts were evaporated and concentrated to dryness under reduced pressure. The concentrate was diluted with methanol and then analyzed by high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC; Jasco, Japan) to quantify the amount of DDT. The HPLC system consisted of a PU-1500 intelligent pump (Jasco) and an MD-1510 multiwavelength detector (Jasco) fitted with an Inertsil ODS-3 column (150 mm) with an inner diameter of 4.6 mm (GL Science, Japan).

The samples were eluted with 82% methanol in a 0.1% trifluoroacetic acid aqueous solution at a flow rate of 1 ml/min. DDT and its metabolic products were identified on the basis of the retention time and absorption maximum at specific wavelengths in comparison with authentic standards. For quantitative analysis, the peak areas of DDT and its metabolites were compared with the peak area of pyrene [29]. To identify metabolic products that could not be detected by HPLC, samples were further diluted with *n*-hexane and then analyzed by gas chromatography/mass spectrometry (GC/MS; HP, USA). GC/MS was performed on an HP 6890 GC system (HP) linked to an HP 5973 mass-selective detector (HP) with a 30-m fused DB-5MS column (J&W Scientific, USA). The oven temperature was held at 80°C for 3 min, followed by a linear increase to 300°C at 20°C/min and it was held at this temperature for 5 min. The injector temperature was set at 250°C. Injection was splintless at approximately 1 µl [27, 31, 32].

Statistical Analysis

The results were calculated as the average of triplicate determinations. The Student's *t*-test was used to detect any significant differences between or within groups during DDT transformation. Differences between means at a confidence level of 5% (p < 0.05) were considered to be statistically significant [33, 34].

Results and Discussion

Many fungi have been reported to have abilities for metabolizing DDT, such as Aspergillus flavus, Aspergillus niger, Penicillium brefeldianum [35], Pleurotus sajor-caju, Pleurotus florida, Pleurotus eryngii [36], P. chrysosporium [36–38],

Pleurotus ostreatus [7, 8, 31, 37], Phlebia lindtneri, and Phlebia brevispora [39], as well as brown-rot fungi Gloeophyllum trabeum, Daedalea dickinsii, and Fomitopsis pinicola [7, 27, 29, 31]. It has been reported in previous studies that P. ostreatus is capable of degrading DDT in pure liquid medium [7], SMW, as well as in contaminated soil [8]. However, the degradation amount is still low and the process requires a long incubation time. Therefore, in this study, the ability of P. ostreatus to degrade DDT was enhanced through the addition of biosurfactant-producing bacteria. P. aeruginosa and B. subtilis have been reported as biosurfactant-producing bacteria [9, 11, 13-18], which can increase the solubility of hydrophobic organic substances, including DDT, to optimize the access of microbial uptake. In this study, degradation occurred for 7 days due to a shorter incubation time than that reported in previous studies (14 d) [7] as well as to compare the effectiveness of addition of bacteria on DDT degradation by P. ostreatus.

Degradation of DDT by Individual Organisms

DDT degradation by the individual fungus or bacterium is shown in Table 1. P. ostreatus only degraded DDT at an amount of approximately 19% during the 7-day incubation time. In the case of DDT degradation by bacteria, it was observed that the higher the concentration of *P. aeruginosa*, the higher was the degradation rate obtained. P. aeruginosa started to degrade DDT at concentrations from 1 to 5 ml, and the highest degradation rate of approximately 36% was recorded at the 5 ml concentration. However, addition of excess P. aeruginosa (10 ml) resulted in a decrease in DDT degradation amount (26%) due to competition for survival among the bacteria rather than promotion of DDT degradation. In an abundant population of bacteria in the stationery phase, the bacteria produce some secondary metabolites, which may be toxic for others in order to survive. On the other hand, B. subtilis was also capable of degrading DDT, and the higher the concentration of B. subtilis, the higher was the degradation of DDT obtained (Table 1). At a concentration of 1 ml, B. subtilis could not degrade DDT owing to the low number of bacteria. However, B. subtilis started to degrade DDT at a concentration of 3 ml, and the highest DDT degradation by B. subtilis was obtained at a concentration of 10 ml with a degradation amount of approximately 42%. Based on these results, B. subtilis had a higher degradation amount than P. aeruginosa in PDB medium during the 7-day incubation period.

Many bacteria have been reported to have capabilities to degrade DDT, such as *Aerobacter aerogenes* [40, 41], *Trichoderma viridae*, *Micrococcus* sp., *Arthrobacter* sp., *Bacillus* sp. [42],

Microorganims	Bacteria concentration (ml)	Recovery (%)		$\mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{r}}$	
		Control	Treatment	- Degradation amount (%)	
P. ostreatus	0	$98.56 \pm 4.78^*$	$79.22 \pm 1.85^*$	19.34	
P. aeruginosa	1	99.08 ± 2.80	95.96 ± 2.26	3.12	
	3	$102.91 \pm 4.21^*$	77.36 ±5.92*	25.55	
	5	$103.15 \pm 4.60^*$	$67.08 \pm 3.01^*$	36.07	
	10	$97.78 \pm 1.36^*$	$71.55 \pm 6.17^*$	26.23	
B. subtilis	1	98.49 ± 6.90	98.49 ±3.43	0.00	
	3	97.79 ± 3.93*	77.72 ± 2.63*	20.07	
	5	$95.49 \pm 2.87^*$	$67.63 \pm 3.15^*$	27.86	
	10	$97.75 \pm 0.72^*$	$56.1 \pm 4.79^*$	41.65	

Table 1. Degradation of DDT by individual cultures of *P. ostreatus* or bacteria in PDB medium during a 7-day incubation period.

Analyses were conducted using HPLC. Data are the mean \pm standard deviation (n = 3). Within each row, values followed by (*) are significantly different (p < 0.05). One milliliter of bacteria concentration is equal to 1.25×10^9 bacteria cell/ml culture. PDB, potato dextrose broth.

Hydrogenomonas sp. [43-45], Alcaligenes eutrophus A5 [46], Pseudomonas putida [35], Bosea thiooxidans [47], Pseudomonas sp. [42, 48], and Sphingobacterium sp. [49]. Bidlan [19] reported that P. aeruginosa strain DT-Ct1 degraded 5 ppm DDT completely in 96 h. Langlois et al. [26] had reported that whole cells of Bacillus cereus, Bacillus coagulans, B. subtilis, Escherichia coli, and Enterobacter aerogenes degraded DDT in trypticase soy broth medium. Bacillus sp. degraded DDT by 51% in liquid culture during a 7-day incubation period [50]. It has also been reported that *P. aeruginosa* and *B. subtilis* are capable of degrading some persistent organic pollutants, including DDT [19, 20, 25, 26]. The bacterium Rhodococcus sp. ITR03 was reported to produce biosurfactants (trehalolipid and rhamnolipid) as well as degrade DDT residues and chlorinated aromatic compounds [51]. Thus, the results indicate that both bacteria, P. aeruginosa and B. subtilis, had the ability to degrade DDT in addition to

producing biosurfactants. Therefore, they might be potential bacteria for enhancing DDT degradation by the fungus *P. ostreatus*.

Degradation of DDT by Mixed Cultures

The analysis results of biodegradation of DDT by *P. ostreatus* with the addition of bacteria are shown in Table 2. From HPLC analysis, the amounts of degradation of DDT by *P. ostreatus* with the addition of *P. aeuginosa* at concentrations of 1, 3, 5, and 10 ml were approximately 21%, 86%, 69%, and 30%, respectively. In addition, the amounts of DDT degradation for *P. ostreatus* on the addition of *B. subtilis* at concentrations of 1, 3, 5, and 10 ml were approximately 25%, 30%, 43%, and 9%, respectively. These results indicate that the addition of bacteria resulted in increasing DDT degradation rates by *P. ostreatus*. Degradation of organic pollutants by fungal-bacterial mixed cultures

Microorganims	Bacteria	Recovery (%)**		Degradation	Ratio
Microorganinis	concentration (ml)*	Control	Treatment	amount (%)	optimization
P. ostreatus	0	$98.56 \pm 4.78^*$	$79.22 \pm 1.85^{*}$	19.34	-
Mix P. osteatus & P. aeruginosa	1	$99.08 \pm 2.80^*$	$78.28 \pm 7.51^*$	20.80	0.93
	3	$102.91 \pm 4.21^*$	$17.17 \pm 3.05^*$	85.74	1.91
	5	$103.15 \pm 4.60^*$	$34.20 \pm 4.47^*$	68.95	1.24
	10	$97.78 \pm 1.36^*$	$68.26 \pm 1.94^*$	29.52	0.65
Mix P. ostreatus & B. subtilis	1	$98.49 \pm 6.90^{*}$	$73.68 \pm 4.60^*$	24.81	1.28
	3	$97.79 \pm 3.93^*$	$67.45 \pm 0.72^*$	30.34	0.77
	5	$95.49 \pm 2.87^*$	$52.49 \pm 6.46^*$	43.00	0.91
	10	$97.75 \pm 0.72^*$	$89.29 \pm 2.79^*$	8.46	0.14

Analyses were conducted using HPLC. Data are the mean \pm standard deviation (n = 3). Within each row, values followed by (*) are significantly different (p < 0.05). One milliliter of bacteria concentration is equal to 1.25×10^9 bacteria cell/ml culture. PDB, potato dextrose broth.

has been previously reported. Wang et al. [52] reported that the fungal-bacterial mixed cultures removed the highest amounts of pyrene (67%) during a 28-day incubation, compared with mixed fungal cultures (39%) and mixed bacterial cultures (56%), as well as in the degradation of phenanthrene and fluoranthene. Hai et al. [53] reported pesticide removal by a mixed culture of bacteria from sludge and white-rot fungus Coriolus versicolor, in which the concentrations of aldicarb, atrazine, and alachlor dropped by 82%, 77%, and 67%, respectively, after incubation for 7 days. Furthermore, the addition of an exogenous aerobic bacteria mixture (Bacillus cereus, B. subtilis, Staphylococcus saprophyticus, Staphylococcus xylosus, and Pantoea agglomerans) on white-rot fungus Phanerochaete chrysosporium effectively enhanced the hydrolysis and acidogenesis processes of municipal solid waste degradation [54].

Fig. 1 compares the individual DDT degradation rates of the fungus *P. ostreatus* and the bacterium *P. aeruginosa* with those of their mixed cultures. The addition of *P. aeruginosa* into *P. ostreatus* culture had an influence on the degradation of DDT. Higher DDT degradation rates were obtained on addition of *P. aeruginosa* than for *P. ostreatus* only. The addition of 3 ml of *P. aeruginosa* in cultures of *P. ostreatus* produced the highest degradation of about 86%. Synergism between the fungus and the bacteria might be caused by the ability of *P. aeruginosa* to produce a rhamnolipid biosurfactant form, which can improve the solubility of DDT for degradation [10, 55]. In addition to producing biosurfactant, this bacterium is also capable of metabolizing

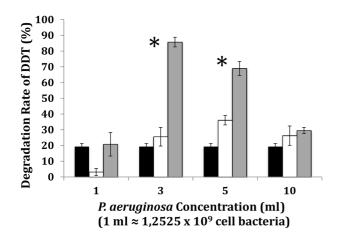


Fig. 1. DDT degradation amounts for white-rot fungus (*P. ostreatus*) only (black bars), bacteria (*P. aeruginosa*) only (white bars), and mixed cultures of *P. ostreatus* and *P. aeruginosa* (grey bars) during incubation for 7 days.

Data points are the means and standard deviations (n = 3). The (*) on each bar indicates significant differences (p < 0.05).

DDT [19, 20]. However, the addition of excess *P. aeruginosa* resulted in a decrease in DDT degradation by *P. ostreatus* due to increased competition for nutrients and the production of some toxic metabolites for survival rather than the degradation of DDT. Rhamnolipid biosurfactants, which are produced by *P. aeruginosa*, also have antifungal activity [56, 57], and this might inhibit *P. ostreatus* from degrading DDT.

Fig. 2 compares the individual DDT degradation rates of the fungus P. ostreatus and the bacterium, B. subtilis with those of their mixed cultures. The addition of B. subtilis in the culture of *P. ostreatus* had a varying effect on the process of DDT degradation. The degradation amounts increased on the addition of 1, 3, and 5 ml of B. subtilis, but decreased on addition of 10 ml of B. subtilis. The addition of 5 ml of B. subtilis in cultured P. ostreatus produced the highest degradation rate of about 43%. B. subtilis has been reported to produce lipopeptide biosurfactants, which improve solubility of non-polar substances [17, 58]. In addition, the bacteria are able to degrade DDT [25, 26]. However, as was observed with P. aeruginosa, the addition of excess B. subtilis (10 ml) resulted in an antagonistic relationship, thereby decreasing the DDT degradation amount. B. subtilis also produces biosurfactants that have antifungal activity [57], and this might inhibit P. ostreatus from degrading DDT. Furthermore, B. subtilis is known to produce secondary metabolites, including cyclic lipopeptides, polypeptides, proteins (enzymes), and non-peptide products, which have antimicrobial properties [59]. Enhancement of

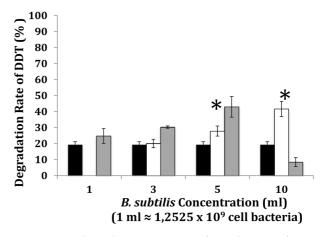


Fig. 2. DDT degradation amounts for white-rot fungus (*P. ostreatus*) only (black bars), bacteria (*B. subtilis*) only (white bars), and mixed cultures of *P. ostreatus* and *B. subtilis* (grey bars) during the 7-day incubation period.

Data points are the means and standard deviations (n = 3). The (*) on each bar indicates significant differences (p < 0.05).

Species	Degradation amount	Incubation time	Metabolites products	Addition sources	References
Serratia marcescens	100%	72 Hours	Not reported	Yeast extract, peptone, glycerol, tryptone soya broth	[74]
Shewanella decolorationis S12	60%	9 Months	DDD, DDMS, DBP	Iron oxide (α-FeOOH)	[75]
Sphingobacterium sp.	$0.031 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{l}^{-1} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$	21 Days	DDD, DDE, DDMU, DDNS, DDA, DBP	Glucose	[49]
Phanerochaete chrysosporium ACCC 3055	74%	28 Days	DDE, DDD, DBP	Microemulsion: Tween 80, 1-pentanol, linseed oil	[60]
Clostridium sp. BXM	74%	6 Hours	DDD, DDE	Na_2SO_4	[76]
Bacillus thuringiensis	79%	8 Weeks	DDD, DDE	KH ₂ PO ₄ , Urea, Tween 80	[61]
Flavobacterium sp.					
Variovorax soli					
Lysobacter sp.					
Bosea sp.					
Bacillus thuringiensis	94%	8 Weeks	DDD, DDE	KH ₂ PO ₄ , Urea	[61]
Flavobacterium sp.					
Phenylobacterium sp.					

Table 3. Enhancement of biodegradation of DDT by microorganisms with additional sources.

biodegradation of DDT by a specific bacterium or fungus using additional sources has been reported by various researchers and is shown in Table 3. Tween 80 has been used to enhance DDT degradation by some fungi [60, 61], which indicates that surfactants can improve the DDT degradation amount. However, synthetic surfactants are expensive to use; therefore, the use of biosurfactant-producing bacteria for optimizing fungal cultures is a promising method for application in the bioremediation of DDT.

The degradation abilities of the individual fungus or bacterium were different from those of their mixed cultures. P. aeruginosa only showed the highest DDT degradation rate at a concentration of 5 ml, but in the mixed culture, the highest DDT degradation rate was observed when the concentration of P. aeruginosa was 3 ml (Fig. 1). This indicates that the concentration of the bacterium affected the synergistic relationship between *P. ostreatus* and *P. aeruginosa*. A similar pattern was also observed with B. subtilis. The highest DDT degradation amount was observed at a concentration of 10 ml for B. subtilis only; however, the highest DDT degradation amount in the mixed cultures was observed on addition of 5 ml of B. subtilis to the P. ostreatus culture. Excess concentrations of bacteria might produce more biosurfactants, but this is only beneficial in degradation processes involving only the bacteria. Excess production of biosurfactants might be harmful for fungus, because biosurfactants exhibit antifungal activity.

Ratio Optimization

The effectiveness of compositions of mixed cultures was determined by RO. The RO indicated the level of enhancement of DDT degradation due to the synergistic relationship between P. ostraeus and the bacteria, compared with the degradation by the individual organisms. In the case of P. aeruginosa, the addition of 3 and 5 ml of the bacterium into P. ostreatus culture showed RO > 1, which indicates that DDT degradation by the mixed cultures was higher than the total of those of the individual fungus and bacterium (Table 2, Fig. 1). The addition of 3 ml of P. aeruginosa showed the highest RO, which enhanced the degradation by approximately 2 folds. The addition of 10 ml of P. aeruginosa showed the lowest RO, although the degradation rate was higher than that of 1 ml of P. aeruginosa. On the other hand, addition of B. subtilis in mixed cultures showed RO < 1, except in the addition of 1 ml of *B. subtilis* where no DDT degradation was observed for 1 ml of B. subtilis only. This indicates that, even though 1 ml of B. subtilis only could not degrade DDT, 1 ml of B. subtilis in the mixed culture could produce enough biosurfactants to enhance the degradation process. Based on these results, P. ostreatus and 3 ml of P. aeruginosa gave the best-mixed culture combination with a RO of 1.91 (Table 2), as well as the highest degradation of DDT. Thus, it was selected for further experiments on identification of metabolic products.

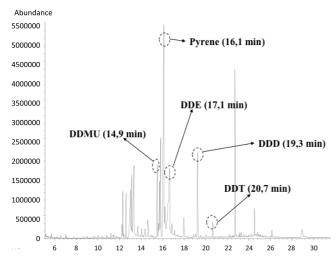


Fig. 3. GC/MS chromatogram of metabolite products of DDT degradation by mixed cultures of *P. ostreatus* and *P. aeruginosa*.

Identification of Metabolic Products

The result of GC MS analysis showed that the mixed culture of *P. ostreatus* and *P. aeruginosa* (3 ml) was able to degrade DDT to some metabolites, including DDE, DDD, and DDMU (Fig. 3). These metabolites were the same as those produced by *P. ostreatus* only (data not shown). However, *P. aeruginosa* only transformed DDT to DDE as the end product, which indicates that DDE was subjected to further transformation by *P. ostreatus*.

In general, the bacteria can degrade DDT aerobically or anaerobically. The bacteria are incubated aerobically to degrade DDT via the dehydrochlorination reaction and to give DDE as the metabolic product, whereas DDT is predominantly converted to DDD metabolites anaerobically [5]. Bidlan [19] reported that P. aeruginosa degraded DDT to several metabolic products, such as DDMU, DDMS, DDOH, DDA, 2-chlorobiphenyl, 4-chlorophenyl, 4-chlorobenzoic acid, and also two polar metabolic products, catechol and hydroquinone, anaerobically [19]. In addition, P. aeruginosa strain 640X degraded DDT to non-chlorinated metabolic products such as phenylacetate, phenylpropnioate, and salicylic acid [20]. However, in this study, the experiment was performed aerobically by adding oxygen, and DDE was detected as the end metabolic product of DDT degradation by P. aeruginosa.

In previous reports, spent mushroom of white-rot fungus *P. ostreatus* converted DDT to other metabolites, including DDD, DDMU, DDA, and DDMS as well as mineralization to CO_2 [8]. In the present study, the mixed cultures of *P. ostreatus* and *P. aeruginosa* converted DDT to DDE, DDD,

and DDMU. The presence of DDE was due to the conversion by *P. aeruginosa*, whereas DDD and DDMU are attributable to *P. ostreatus*. Moreover, DDE, as end metabolites from *P. aeruginosa*, might be converted by *P. ostreatus* to other metabolites such as DDD and DDMU. However, since DDD and DDMU may not be end products of DDT biotransformation by mixed cultures of *P. ostreatus* and *P. aeruginosa*, further investigation is needed to use DDT metabolites (DDE, DDD, and DDMU) as substrates for degradation by mixed cultures of *P. ostreatus* and *P. aeruginosa*.

In aerobic condition, oxygenase and peroxidase are the key enzymes of aerobic biodegradation. P. ostreatus produces oxidative ligninolytic enzymes such as laccase, MnP, and LiP, which are responsible for degrading lignin and pollutants [62]. Among the ligninolytic enzymes, MnP shows high activity in P. ostreatus culture [8]. However, P. ostreatus was found to metabolize some aromatic compounds by hydroxylation that does not depend on ligninolytic enzymes [63-65]. Intracellular enzymes may also be involved in DDT degradation, and one of them is cytochrome P450 monooxygenase (P450). The P450 enzyme catalyzes a wide variety of reactions such as hydroxylation, oxidation, reduction, dehalogenation, and dehydrogenation, which are involved in the degradation of some pollutants [64-70]. Under aerobic condition, DDT is metabolized to DDD, dicofol, and 2,2-bis(4-chlorophenyl) acetic acid (DDA) by P450 [71, 72], and DDT monohydroxylation of aromatic ring by P450 has been proposed as a new metabolic pathway of DDT biodegradation [73]. It is assumed that alongside ligninolytic enzymes, the intracellular enzyme P450 may have an important role in the metabolism of DDT.

This study highlighted the optimization of DDT degradation by white-rot fungus *P. ostreatus* through the addition of biosurfactant-producing bacteria. The addition of 3 ml of *P. aeruginosa* into *P. ostreatus* culture resulted in the highest DDT degradation of approximately 86% in PDB medium during a 7-day incubation period. This fungus-bacterium culture combination also gave the highest optimization ratio of 1.91. DDE, DDD, and DDMU were detected as metabolic products from DDT degradation by mixed cultures of *P. ostreatus* and *P. aeruginosa*. This study demonstrates the effectiveness of addition of bacteria, especially *P. aeruginosa*, on DDT degradation by *P. ostreatus*.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by a grant from the research project No: 010/SP2H/LT/DRPM/IV/2017 from the Directorate of Research and Community Service, Directorate

General of Strengthening Research and Development, Ministry of Research, Technology and Higher Education, Indonesia.

References

- Boul HL. 1995. DDT residues in the environment a review with a New Zealand perspective. N.Z. J. Agric. Res. 38: 257-277.
- Busvine JR. 1989. DDT: fifty years for good or ill. *Pestic. Outlook* 1: 4-8.
- 3. Foght J, April T, Biggar K, Aislabie J. 2001. Bioremediation of DDT-contaminated soils: a review. *Bioremediat. J.* 5: 225-246.
- 4. Kale SP, Murthy NBK, Raghu K, Sherkhane PD, Carvalho FP. 1999. Studies on degradation of ¹⁴C-DDT in the marine environment. *Chemosphere* **39**: 959-968.
- Aislabie JM, Richards NK, Boul HL. 1997. Microbial degradation of DDT and its residues – a review. N.Z. J. Agric. Res. 40: 269-282.
- 6. Simonich SL, Hites RA. 1995. Global distribution of persistent organochlorine compounds. *Science* **269**: 1851-1854.
- Purnomo AS, Kamei I, Kondo R. 2008. Degradation of 1,1,1trichloro-2,2-bis (4-chlorophenyl) ethane (DDT) by brown-rot fungi. J. Biosci. Bioeng. 105: 614-621.
- Purnomo AS, Mori T, Kamei I, Nishii T, Kondo R. 2010. Application of mushroom waste medium from *Pleurotus ostreatus* for bioremediation of DDT-contaminated soil. *Int. Biodeterior. Biodegrad.* 64: 397-402.
- Abalos A, Pinazo A, Infante MR, Casals M, Garcia F, Manresa A. 2001. Physicochemical and antimicrobial properties of new rhamnolipids produced by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* AT10 from soybean oil refinery wastes. *Langmuir* 17: 1367-1371.
- Datta S. 2011. Optimization of culture conditions for biosurfactant production from *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* OCD1. *J. Adv. Sci. Res.* 2: 32-36.
- Guerra-Santos L, Käppeli O, Fiechter A. 1984. Pseudomonas aeruginosa biosurfactant production in continuous culture with glucose as carbon source. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 48: 301-305.
- Rahman KSM, Rahman TJ, McClean S, Marchant R, Banat IM. 2002. Rhamnolipid biosurfactant production by strains of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* using low-cost raw materials. *Biotechnol. Prog.* 18: 1277-1281.
- Silva SNRL, Farias CBB, Rufino RD, Luna JM, Sarubbo LA. 2010. Glycerol as substrate for the production of biosurfactant by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* UCP0992. *Colloids Surf. B Biointerfaces* 79: 174-183.
- Yin H, Qiang J, Jia Y, Ye J, Peng H, Qin H, et al. 2009. Characteristics of biosurfactant produced by *Pseudomonas* aeruginosa S6 isolated from oil-containing wastewater. Process Biochem. 44: 302-308.
- 15. Zhang C, Wang S, Yan Y. 2012. Isomerization and biodegradation of beta-cypermethrin by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*

CH7 with biosurfactant production. *Bioresour. Technol.* **102**: 7139-7146.

- Gudiña EJ, Rangarajan V, Sen R, Rodrigues LR. 2013. Potential therapeutic applications of biosurfactants. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.* 34: 667-675.
- Pornsunthorntawee N, Arttaweeporn N, Paisanjit S, Somboonthanate P, Abe M, Rujiravanit R, *et al.* 2008. Isolation and comparison of biosurfactants produced by *Bacillus subtilis* Pt2 and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* SP4 for microbial surfactant-enhanced oil recovery. *Biochem. Eng. J.* 42: 172-179.
- Zouari R, Chaabouni SE, Aydi DG. 2014. Optimization of Bacillus subtilis SPB1 biosurfactant production under solidstate fermentation using by-products of a traditional olive mill factory. Achiev. Life Sci. 8: 162-169.
- Bidlan R. 2003. Studies on DDT degradation by bacterial strains. PhD Thesis, Central Food Technological Research Institute, University of Mysore, India.
- Golovleva L, Skryabin GK. 1980. Degradation of DDT and its analogs by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* 640x. *Biol. Bull. Acad. Sci. USSR* 7: 143-151.
- Bumpus JA. 1995. Microbial degradation of azo dyes, pp. 157-175. In Singh VP (ed.), Biotransformations: Microbial Degradation of Health-Risk Compounds. Elsevier Science, Amsterdam. The Netherlands.
- Cho EA, Seo J, Lee DW, Pan JG. 2011. Decolorization of indigo carmine by laccase displayed on *Bacillus subtilis* spores. *Enzyme Microb. Technol.* 49: 100-104.
- Farzaneh M, Shi ZQ, Ghassempour A, Sedaghat N, Ahmadzadeh M, Mirabolfathy M, et al. 2012. Aflatoxin B1 degradation by *Bacillus subtilis* UTBSP1 isolated from pistachio nuts of Iran. *Food Control* 23: 100-106.
- Sompornpailin D, Siripattanakul-Ratpukdi S, Vangnai AS. 2014. Diethyl phthalate degradation by the freeze-dried, entrapped *Bacillus subtilis* strain 3C3. *Int. Biodeterior. Biodegrad.* 91: 138-147.
- Johnson BT, Kennedy JO. 1973. Biomagnification of p,p'-DDT and methoxychlor by bacteria. *Appl. Microbiol.* 26: 66-71.
- Langlois BE, Collins JA, Sides KG. 1970. Some factors affecting degradation of organochlorine pesticide by bacteria. *J. Dairy Sci.* 53: 1671-1675.
- Purnomo AS, Mori T, Kondo R. 2010. Involvement of Fenton reaction in DDT degradation by brown-rot fungi. *Int. Biodeterior. Biodegrad.* 64: 560-565.
- Purnomo AS, Mori T, Putra SR, Kondo R. 2013. Biotransformation of heptachlor and heptachlor epoxide by white-rot fungus *Pleurotus ostreatus*. *Int. Biodeterior. Biodegrad.* 82: 40-44.
- Purnomo AS, Nawfa R, Martak F, Shimizu K, Kamei I. 2017. Biodegradation of aldrin and dieldrin by white-rot fungus *Pleurotus ostreatus. Curr. Microbiol.* 74: 320-324.
- Wahyuni S, Suhartono MT, Khaeruni A, Purnomo AS, Asranudin, Holilah, Riupassa PA. 2016. Purification and

characterization of thermostable chitinase from *Bacillus* SW41 for chitin oligomer production. *Asian J. Chem.* **28**: 2731-2736.

- Purnomo AS, Mori T, Takagi K, Kondo R. 2011. Bioremediation of DDT contaminated soil using brown-rot fungi. *Int. Biodeterior. Biodegrad.* 65: 691-695.
- 32. Purnomo AS, Koyama F, Mori T, Kondo R. 2010. DDT degradation potential of cattle manure compost. *Chemosphere* **80**: 619-624.
- Purnomo AS, Mori T, Kamei I, Kondo R. 2011. Basic studies and applications on bioremediation of DDT: a review. *Int. Biodeterior. Biodegrad.* 65: 921-930.
- Purnomo AS, Putra SR, Shimizu K, Kondo R. 2014. Biodegradation of heptachlor and heptachlor epoxidecontaminated soils by white-rot fungal inocula. *Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res.* 21: 11305-11312.
- Subba Rao RV, Alexander M. 1985. Bacterial and fungal cometabolism of 1,1,1-trichloro-2,2-bis-(4-chlorophenyl) ethane (DDT) and its breakdown products. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 49: 509-516.
- Arisoy M. 1998. Biodegradation of chlorinated organic compounds by white-rot fungi. *Bull. Environ. Contam. Toxicol.* 60: 872-876.
- Bumpus JA, Aust SD. 1987. Biodegradation of DDT [1,1,1tri-chloro-2,2-bis(4-chlorophenyl) ethane] by the white rot fungus *Phanerochaete chrysosporium*. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 53: 2001-2008.
- Shah MM, Barr DP, Chang N, Aust SD. 1992. Use of white rot fungi in the degradation of environmental chemicals. *Toxicol. Lett.* 64/65: 493-501.
- Xiao P, Mori T, Kamei I, Kondo R. 2011. A novel metabolic pathway for biodegradation of DDT by white rot fungi, *Phlebia lindtneri* and *Phlebia brevispora*. *Biodegradation* 22: 859-867.
- 40. Wedemeyer G. 1966. Dechlorination of DDT by Aerobacter aerogenes. Science 152: 647.
- Wedemeyer G. 1967. Dechlorination of 1,1,1-trichloro-2,2bis(p-chlorophenyl) ethane by Aerobacter aerogenes. Appl. Microbiol. 15: 569-574.
- Patil KC, Matsumura F, Boush GM. 1970. Degradation of endrin, aldrin, and DDT by soil microorganisms. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 19: 879-881.
- 43. Pfaender FK, Alexander M. 1972. Extensive microbial degradation of DDT in vitro and DDT metabolism by natural communities. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* **20**: 842-846.
- 44. Focht DD, Alexander M. 1970. DDT metabolites and analogs: ring fission by *Hydrogenomonas. Science* **170**: 91-92.
- Focht DD, Alexander M. 1971. Aerobic cometabolism of DDT analogues by *Hydrogenomonas* sp. J. Agric. Food Chem. 19: 20-22.
- Nadeau LJ, Mann FM, Breen A, Sayler GS. 1994. Aerobic degradation of 1,1,1-trichloro-2,2-bis-(4-chlorophenyl) ethane (DDT) by Alcaligenes eutrophus A5. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 60: 51-55.

- 47. Pesce SF, Wunderlin DA. 2004. Biodegradation of lindane by a native bacterial consortium isolated from contaminated river sediment. *Int. Biodeterior. Biodegrad.* 54: 255-260.
- Kamanavalli CM, Ninnekar HZ. 2004. Biodegradation of DDT by a *Pseudomonas* species. *Curr. Microbiol.* 48: 10-13.
- 49. Fang H, Dong B, Yan H, Tang F, Yu Y. 2010. Characterization of a bacterial strain capable of degrading DDT congeners and its use in bioremediation of contaminated soil. *J. Hazard. Mater.* **184**: 281-289.
- Kantachote D, Singleton I, McClure N, Naidu R, Megharaj M, Harch BD. 2003. DDT resistance and transformation by different microbial strains isolated from DDT-contaminated soils and compost materials. *Compost Sci. Util.* 11: 300-310.
- Bajaj A, Mayilraj S, Mudiam MK, Patel DK, Manickam N. 2014. Isolation and functional analysis of a glycolipid producing *Rhodococcus* sp. strain IITR03 with potential for degradation of 1,1,1-trichloro-2,2-*bis*(4-chlorophenyl) ethane (DDT). *Bioresour. Technol.* 167: 398-406.
- Wang S, Nomura N, Nakajima T, Uchiyama H. 2012. Case study of the relationship between fungi and bacteria associated with high-molecular-weight polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon degradation. *J. Biosci. Bioeng.* 113: 624-630.
- 53. Hai FI, Modin O, Yamamoto K, Fukushi K, Nakajima F. 2012. Pesticide removal by a mixed culture of bacteria and white-rot fungi. *J. Taiwan Inst. Chem. Eng.* **43**: 459-462.
- Ge S, Liu L, Xue Q, Yuan Z. 2016. Effects of exogenous aerobic bacteria on methane production and biodegradation of municipal solid waste in bioreactors. *Waste Manag.* 55: 93-98.
- Mata-Sandoval JC, Karns J, Torrents A. 2001. Influence of rhamnolipids and Triton X-100 on the biodegradation of three pesticides in aqueous and soil slurries. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 49: 3296-3303.
- Deepika KV, Kalam S, Sridhar PR, Podile AR, Bramhachari PV. 2016. Optimization of rhamnolipid biosurfactant production by mangrove sediment bacterium *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* KVD-HR42 using response surface methodology. *Biocatal. Agric. Biotechnol.* 5: 38-47.
- El-Sheshtawy HS, Doheim MM. 2014. Selection of *Pseudomonas* aeruginosa for biosurfactant production and studies of its antimicrobial activity. *Egypt. J. Petrol.* 23: 1-6.
- Bezza FA, Chirwa EMN. 2015. Production and applications of lipopeptide biosurfactant for bioremediation and oil recovery by *Bacillus subtilis* CN2. *Biochem. Eng. J.* 101: 168-178.
- 59. Wang T, Liang Y, Wu M, Chen Z, Lin J, Yang L. 2015. Natural products from *Bacillus subtilis* with antimicrobial properties. *Chinese J. Chem. Eng.* **23**: 744-754.
- Zheng G, Selvam A, Wong JW. 2012. Oil-in-water microemulsions enhance the biodegradation of DDT by *Phanerochaete chrysosporium. Bioresour. Technol.* 126: 397-403.
- Betancur-Corredor B, Pino NJ, Cardona S, Peñuela GA. 2015. Evaluation of biostimulation and Tween 80 addition for the bioremediation of long-term DDT-contaminated soil. *J. Environ. Sci.* 28: 101-109.

- 62. Buswell JA, Cai YJ, Chang ST. 1993. Fungal- and substrateassociated factors affecting the ability of individual mushroom species to utilize different lignocellulosic growth substrates, pp. 141-150. *In* Chang S, Buswell JA, Chiu S (eds.), *Mushroom Biology and Mushroom Products*. The Chinese University Press, Hong Kong.
- Masaphy S, Levanon D, Henis Y, Venkateswrlu K, Kelly SL. 1995. Microsomal and cytosolic cytochrome-P450 mediated benzo(a)pyrene hydroxylation in *Pleurotus pulmonarius*. *Biotechnol. Lett.* 17: 969-974.
- Masaphy S, Levanon D, Henis Y, Venkateswarlu K, Kelly SL. 1996. Evidence for cytochrome P-450 and P-450-mediated benzo(a)pyrene hydroxylation in the white rot fungus *Phanerochaete chrysosporium. FEMS Microbiol. Lett.* 135: 51-55.
- Bezalel L, Hadar Y, Fu PP, Freeman JP, Cerniglia CE. 1996. Initial oxidation products in the metabolism of pyrene, anthracene, fluorene, and dibenzothiophene by the white rot fungus *Pleurotus ostreatus*. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 62: 2554-2559.
- Kamei I, Kondo R. 2005. Biotransformation of dichloro-, trichloro-, and tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin by the white-rot fungus *Phlebia lindtneri*. Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol. 68: 560-566.
- Kamei I, Sonoki S, Haraguchi K, Kondo R. 2006. Fungal bioconversion of toxic polychlorinated biphenyls by white-rot fungus, *Phlebia brevispora*. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **73**: 932-940.
- 68. Mori T, Kondo R. 2002. Oxidation of chlorinated dibenzo-*p*dioxin and dibenzofuran by white-rot fungus, *Phlebia lindtneri*. *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.* **216**: 223-227.
- 69. Mori T, Nakamura K, Kondo R. 2009. Fungal hydroxylation

of polychlorinated naphthalenes with chlorine migration by wood rotting fungi. *Chemosphere* **77:** 1230-1235.

- Hiratsuka N, Wariishi H, Tanaka H. 2001. Degradation of diphenyl ether herbicides by the lignin-degrading basidiomycete *Coriolus versicolor. Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* 57: 563-571.
- Cùany A, Pralavorio M, Pauron D, Berge JB, Fournier D, Blais C. 1990. Characterization of microsomal oxidative activities in a wild-type and in a DDT resistant strain of *Drosophila melanogaster. Pestic. Biochem. Physiol.* 37: 293-302.
- 72. Joußen N, Heckel DG, Haas M, Schuphan I, Schmidt B. 2008. Metabolism of imidacloprid and DDT by P450 CYP6G1 expressed in cell cultures of *Nicotiana tabacum* suggests detoxification of these insecticides in *Cyp6g1*-overexpressing strains of *Drosophila melanogaster*, leading to resistance. *Pest Manag. Sci.* 64: 65-73.
- 73. Suhara H, Adachi A, Kamei I, Maekawa N. 2011. Degradation of chlorinated pesticide DDT by litter-decomposing basidiomycetes. *Biodegradation* **22:** 1075-1086.
- Bidlan M, Manonmani HK. 2002. Aerobic degradation of dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane (DDT) by Serratia marcescens DT-1P. Process Biochem. 38: 49-56.
- Li FB, Li XM, Zhou SG, Zhuang L, Cao F, Huang DY, *et al.* 2010. Enhanced reductive dechlorination of DDT in an anaerobic system of dissimilatory iron-reducing bacteria and iron oxide. *Environ. Pollut.* **158**: 1733-1740.
- 76. Bao P, Hu ZY, Wang XJ, Chen J, Ba YX, Hua J, et al. 2012. Dechlorination of p,p'-DDTs coupled with sulfate reduction by novel sulfate-reducing bacterium *Clostridium* sp BXM. *Environ. Pollut.* 162: 303-310.