

BIOLUMINESCENCE IN MUSHROOM AND ITS APPLICATION POTENTIALS

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ABSTRACT

Bioluminescence is a biological process through which light is produced and emitted by a living organism resulting from a chemical reaction within the body of the organism. The mechanism behind this phenomenon is an oxygen-dependent reaction involving substrates generally termed luciferin, which is catalyzed by one or more of an assortment of unrelated enzyme called luciferases. The history of bioluminescence in fungi can be traced far back to 382 B.C. when it was first noted by Aristotle in his early writings. It is the nature of bioluminescent mushrooms to emit a greenish light at certain stages in their life cycle and this light has a maximum wavelength range of 520-530 nm. Luminescence in mushroom has been hypothesized to attract invertebrates that aids in spore dispersal and testing for pollutants (ions of mercury) in water supply. The metabolites from luminescent mushrooms are effectively bioactive in anti-moulds, anti-bacteria, anti-virus, especially in inhibiting the growth of cancer cell and very useful in areas of biology, biotechnology and medicine as luminescent markers for developing new luminescent microanalysis methods. Luminescent mushroom is a novel area of research in the world which is beneficial to mankind especially with regards to environmental pollution monitoring and biomedical applications. Bioluminescence in fungi is a beautiful phenomenon to observe which should be of interest to Scientists of all endeavors.

Key words: Bioluminescence, luciferin, luminous mushrooms, applications.

INTRODUCTION

Bioluminescence comes from the Greek word '*bios*' meaning living and the Latin word '*lumen*' meaning light. So put together, you have living lights. Bioluminescence is a biological process through which light is produced and emitted by a living organism resulting from a chemical reaction occurring within the body of an organism (Weitz, 2004). These organisms use a variety of body parts to emit light in different colours and for different purposes. These myths about the origin of fire comes from the (burning of the sea) ocean which is now known to be as a result of bioluminescent planktons (the Dinoflagellates) in the ocean (Lee, 2008). Bioluminescent organisms range from marine bacteria and other plankton to corals and fishes, worms and insects, fungi and humans. The most commonly known example of bioluminescence is the firefly, which lights its abdomen during its mating season to communicate with potential mates (Weitz, 2004).

Bioluminescence occurs in 25 different phyla many of which are totally unrelated and

diverse with the phylum fungi included in the list. One of the features of biological light that distinguishes it from other forms of light is that it is cold light. Unlike the light of a candle and that of a light bulb, bioluminescent light is produced with very little heat radiation (Weitz, 2004).

HISTORY OF BIOLUMINESCENCE IN MUSHROOM

Bioluminescence in fungi (mushroom) has been known down the ages. Shimomura (2006) noted that this phenomenon was described by Aristotle as early as the 4th century B.C. and Pliny in the 1st century A.D. Aristotle called this phenomenon 'shinning wood' and 'fire fox'. Pliny the elder (23-79 AD) mentioned feasting on a glowing, sweet fungus found on trees in France and, in the late 15th century, a Dutch consul gave account of Indonesian peoples using fungi fruiting bodies to illuminate forest pathways. In Micronesia, luminous mushrooms were frequently destroyed because their presence means an ill omen (Desjardin et al., 2008; Vladimir et al., 2012).

According to Vladimir et al. (2012) many Scientists made observations and notations of luminous earth. Early observations on luminescence were attributed to interactions of insects or animal. Report on light from luminous wood due to fungi was recorded in a study of luminous timbers on luminescence in mines by Bishoff in 1823. This study paved way for further research by several scientists which established room for modern experimental work on bioluminescent fungi by 1855 to include:

- 1) The light without heat
- 2) The light ceased in vacuum in presence of hydrogen and carbon dioxide
- 3) The light was independent of humidity, temperature, light, and do not burn any brighter in pure oxygen (Vladimir et al., 2012).

The luminescent parts of the mushroom included the pileus (cap), hymenium (gills), and the mycelia threads in combination or separately. Similarly, the individual spores were seen to be luminescent. Shimomura (2006) noted that the aboriginals of Micronesia used luminescent mushrooms on their heads as decorations for ritual dances or crushed them to paint their faces to intimidate enemies, although, luminous mushrooms were frequently destroyed because to find them was considered an ill omen (Desjardin et al., 2008). As stated by Desjardin et al. (2008) all known bioluminescent fungi came from the basidiomycetes belonging to three distinct lineages. Twelve (12) species occur within the *Omphalotus* lineage, five (5) in *Armellaria* lineage while forty seven (47) in Mycenoid lineage. Luminous mushrooms have been found in North and South America, Europe, Asia, Australia and Africa hence the list keeps steadily increasing as more and more new species are found both in subtropical and tropical zones of the globe where natural conditions are most favourable for their habitation (Vladimir et al., 2012).

MECHANISM OF MUSHROOM BIOLUMINESCENCE

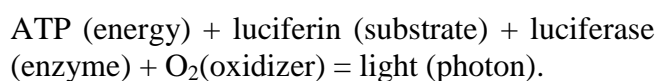
Like other organisms in which it occurs, bioluminescence in mushroom is an oxygen-dependent reaction involving substrates

generically termed luciferins, which is catalyzed by one or more of an assortment of unrelated enzymes referred to as luciferases (Perry, 2007). During luciferic-luciferase reaction, unstable chemical intermediates are produced. As these intermediates decompose, excess energy is released as light emission, causing the tissues in which this reaction occurs to glow or luminesce (Perry, 2007).

The reaction involves the following elements;

- 1) Enzymes (luciferase) – a biological catalyst that accelerates and control the rate of chemical reaction in cells.
- 2) Photons – packs of light energy.
- 3) ATP – Adenosine triphosphate, the energy storing molecule of all living organisms.
- 4) Substrates (luciferin) – a specific molecule that undergoes a chemical change when affixed by an enzyme.
- 5) Oxygen – as a catalyst.

A simplified formula for the bioluminescent reaction is;



The bioluminescent reaction occurs in two stages;

1. The reaction involves a substrate (D – luciferin), combining with ATP and oxygen, which is controlled by the enzyme (luciferase).
2. The chemical energy in stage 1 excites a specific molecule (the luminescent molecules; the combining of luciferase and luciferin). The excitement is caused by the increased energy level of that of the luminescent molecule. The result of this excitement is decay which is manifested in the form of photon emissions that produces the light. The light given off does not depend on external light or other energy taken in by the organism and is just the by-product of the chemical reaction and is therefore cold light.

The energy in photons can vary with the frequency (colour) of the light. Different types of substrates (luciferins) in organisms produce different colours. Hence, the various luminous organisms have their own different colours. Fungi emit greenish bluish light, marine organisms emit blue light, and fire flies emit greenish yellow and so on.

THE LUMINESCENT MOLECULE

Luciferin is a chemical substance found in the cells of bioluminescent organisms. It is gotten from the Latin word '*lucifer*' meaning light – bringers. It is a generic term for the light emitting compound found in organisms that generate bioluminescence. It is a natural substrate for the enzyme luciferase that catalyzes the production of the typical green light of mushrooms and firefly (Meroni et al., 2009). When luciferin is oxidized under the catalytic influence of luciferase and ATP, a bluish green light is produced. Because the reaction is dependent on ATP, it allows researchers to determine the presence of energy of life (Meroni et al., 2009).

The isolation of luciferin from luminescent mushrooms has not yet been accomplished (Sun, 2009). Only three luciferins structures have been elucidated; namely firefly luciferin, cypridina luciferin and latia luciferin. No relationship is apparent from the structures of these luciferins (Goro, 2010). Although luciferin-luciferase bioluminescence is found in hundreds of taxa across many phyla, there are five basic luciferin-luciferase systems; bacterial luciferin, dinoflagellate luciferin, vargula luciferin, coelenterazine and fire fly luciferin which have been found to be similar to the luciferin isolated from *Mycena citricolor* cultivated mycelium (Desjardin et al., 2008) (Figure 1).

Luciferin isolated from organisms are

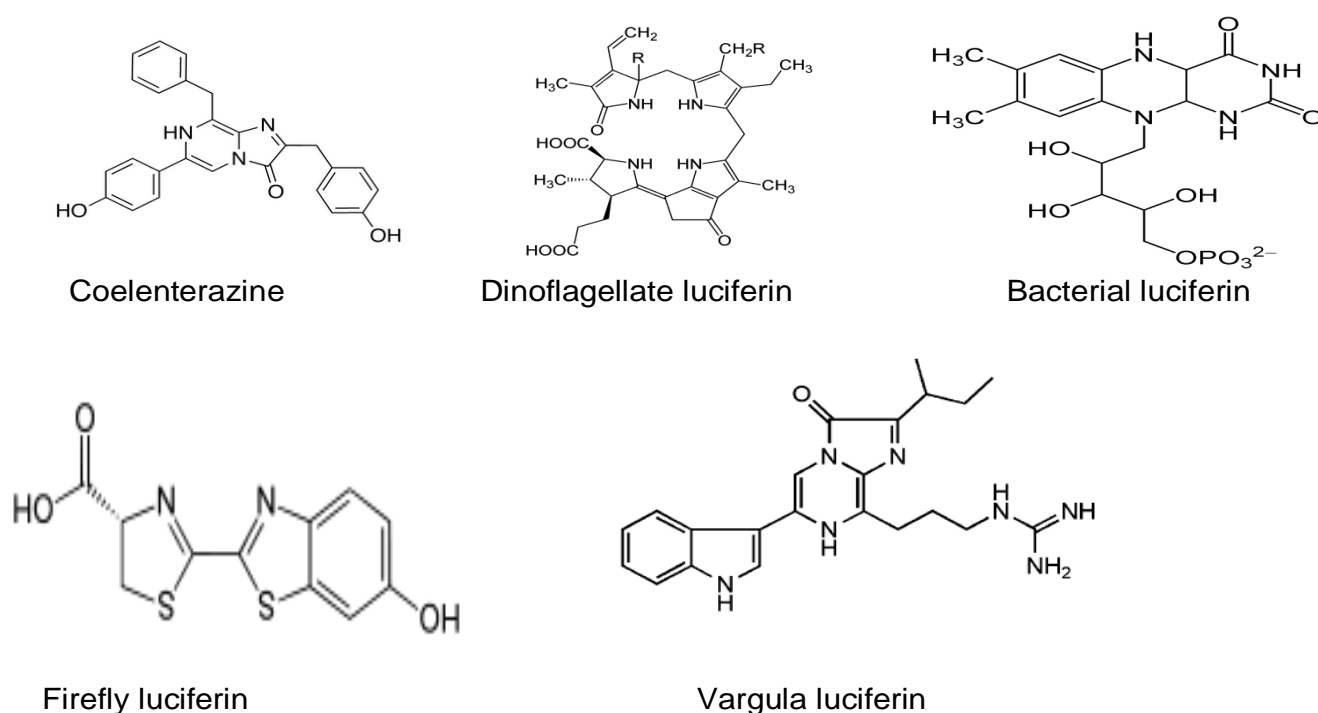


Figure 1. Luciferin isolated from various luminescent organisms. Source: Desjardin et al. (2008).

applicable in various forms; including their applications in variety of *in vitro* assays to monitored the production of light using luminescent or scintillation counter. It is used in the monitoring of the production of light *in vivo* (Meroni et al., 2009). Luciferase is applicable in the conversion of D-luciferin to produce bioluminescence applicable in real time - low imaging of gene expression in cell cultures, individual cells, whole and transgenic organisms

(Meroni et al., 2009). Luciferin obtained from fire fly is particularly a good reporter for *in vivo* biophotonic imaging due to properties of its emission spectrum (Meroni et al., 2009).

NATURE OF BIOLUMINESCENT MUSHROOM

More than two-thirds of these bioluminescent species are members of the diverse and widespread genus *Mycena*. Other genera

containing luminescent species include *Armillaria*, *Omphalotus* (including *Lampteromyces* and luminescent *Pleurotus* species), *Gerronema*, *Panellus* and *Dictyopanus* (Table 1). Luminescence may occur in both mycelia and fruiting bodies, as in *Panellus stipticus* and *Omphalotus olearius* or only in the mycelia and young rhizomorphs as

in *Armillaria mellea* (Wietz, 2004). In *Mycena lamprospora* however, it is the mature spores that has been observed to luminesce. In many instances, it is the hyphae present in decaying plant tissues that luminesce, resulting in the appearance of luminescent wood or leaves (Wietz, 2004).

It is common knowledge that bioluminescent

Table 1. Various examples of luminescent mushroom.

| Binomial Name | Common name | Luminescent part | Distribution |
|---|-------------------------|------------------------------|---|
| <i>Armillaria fuscipes</i> Petch | Nil | Mycelium | Malaysia |
| <i>Armillaria gallica</i> Marxm. & Romagn. | Nil | Mycelium | Europe, North America |
| <i>Armillaria mellea</i> (Valh.) P.Kumm. | Honey fungus | Mycelium | Europe, North America |
| <i>Armillaria solidipes</i> (Romagn.) Henrik | Nil | Mycelium | Europe, North America |
| <i>Armillaria tabescens</i> (Scop.) Emel | Nil | Mycelium | Europe, North America |
| <i>Gerronema viridilucens</i> Desjardin, Capelari & Stevani | Nil | Mycelium and fruiting bodies | South America |
| <i>Mycena asterina</i> Desjardin, Capelari & Stevani | Nil | Fruiting bodies | South America |
| <i>Mycena citricolor</i> (Berk. & M.A. Curtis) Sacc. | Nil | Mycelium | South America, Central America |
| <i>Mycena chlorophos</i> (Berk. & M.A. Curtis) Sacc. | Puff balls | Mycelium and fruiting bodies | Malaysia, Japan, Pacific Islands |
| <i>Mycena daisyogunensis</i> Kobayasi | Nil | Fruiting bodies | Japan |
| <i>Mycena discobasis</i> Metrod | Nil | Fruiting bodies | South America, Africa |
| <i>Mycena epipterygia</i> (Scop. Fr.) S.F.Gray | Nil | Mycelium | Europe, North America, Japan |
| <i>Mycena fera</i> Maas Geest. & de Meijer | Nil | Fruiting bodies | South America |
| <i>Mycena galopus</i> (Pers.: Fr.) P.Kumm. | Milk drop mycena | Mycelium | Europe, North America, Japan |
| <i>Mycena haematopus</i> (Pers.: Fr.) P.Kumm. | Bleeding fairy helmet | Mycelium and fruiting bodies | Europe, North America, Japan |
| <i>Mycena illuminans</i> Henn. | Milking mycena | Fruiting bodies | Malaysia, Japan |
| <i>Mycena inclinata</i> (Fr.) Quél. | Clustered bonnet | Mycelium | Europe, North America, Africa |
| <i>Mycena kentingensis</i> | Oak stump bonnet | Fruiting bodies | Taiwan |
| <i>Mycena lacrimans</i> Singer | Nil | Fruiting bodies | South America |
| <i>Mycena lamprospora</i> (Corner) E.Horak | Nil | Spores | Malaysia, Australia |
| <i>Mycena lucentipes</i> Desjardin, Capelari & Stevani | Glowing stem mushroom | All parts | South America, Central America and the Caribbean |
| <i>Mycena luxaeterna</i> B.A.Perry & Desjardin | Eternal light mushroom | Mycelium and fruiting bodies | South America |
| <i>Mycena maculata</i> P.Karst. | Reddish spotted mycena | Mycelium | Europe, North America, Africa |
| <i>Mycena manipularis</i> (Berk.) Métrod | Nil | Mycelium and fruiting bodies | Australia, Malaysia, Pacific islands |
| <i>Mycena noctilucens</i> Kawam. ex Corner | Nil | Fruiting bodies | Malaysia, Pacific islands |
| <i>Mycena olivaceomarginata</i> (Masseepud Cooke) Masee | Nil | Mycelium | Europe, North America |
| <i>Mycena polygramma</i> (Bull.: Fr.) S.F.Gray | Grooved bonnet | Mycelium | Africa, Europe, North America, Japan |
| <i>Mycena pseudostylobates</i> Kobayasi | Nil | Mycelium | Japan |
| <i>Mycena pura</i> (Pers.: Fr.) P.Kumm. | Nil | Mycelium | Europe, North America, South America, Japan |
| <i>Mycena rosea</i> (Bull.) Gramberg | Rosy bonnet | Mycelium | Europe |
| <i>Mycena sanguinolenta</i> (Alb. & Schwein.: Fr.) P.Kumm. | Bleeding bonnet | Mycelium | Europe, North America, Japan |
| <i>Mycena stylobates</i> (Pers.: Fr.) P.Kumm. | Nil | Mycelium | Africa, Europe, North America, Japan |
| <i>Mycena sublucens</i> Corner | Bulbous bonnet | Basidiomes | Malaysia |
| <i>Neonothopanus gardneri</i> (Berk. ex Gardner) Capelari, Desjardin, Perry, Asai & Stevani | Nil | Mycelium and fruiting bodies | South America |
| <i>Neonothopanus nambi</i> (Speg.) Petersen & Krisai-Greilhuber | Nil | Fruiting bodies | Australia, South America, Central America and the Caribbean, Malaysia |
| <i>Nothopanus noctilucens</i> (Lév.) Singer | Nil | Fruiting bodies | Japan |
| <i>Omphalotus illudens</i> (Schwein.) Bresinsky & Besl. | Jack-o-lantern mushroom | All parts | Europe, North America |
| <i>Omphalotus japonicus</i> (Kawam.) Kirchn. & O.K.Mill. | Moon light mushroom | All parts | Japan |
| <i>Omphalotus mangensis</i> (J.Li & X.Hu) Kirchn. & O.K.Mill. | Nil | Fruiting bodies | China |

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|--|-------------------------|------------------------------|--|
| <i>Omphalotus nidiformis</i> (Berk.) O.K.Mill. | Ghost fungus | Gills | Australia |
| <i>Omphalotus olearius</i> (DC.: Fr.) Singer | Jack-o-lantern mushroom | Gills | Europe |
| <i>Omphalotus olivascens</i> H.E.Bigelow, O.K.Mill.&Thiers | West jack-o-lantern | Fruiting bodies | North America |
| <i>Panellus luminescens</i> (Corner) Corner | Nil | Mycelium and fruiting bodies | Malaysia |
| <i>Roridomyces roridus</i> | Dripping bonnet | Spores | North America, South America |
| <i>Panellus stipticus</i> (Bull.: Fr.) P.Karst. | Bitter oyster | Gills | Australia, Africa, Europe, North America, South America, Japan |

Source: Desjardin et al. (2008).

mushrooms are generally saprophytes (less frequently-pathogen) of plants all of which are white-spored Basidiomycetes. At different stages of their life cycle they emit greenish light with maximum wavelength range of 520-530 nm (Shimomura, 2006; Desjardin et al., 2008; Bondar et al., 2011). A luminous mushroom emits light only for a certain period (periods) of its life cycle; after and before that period, it practically does not glow (Shimomura, 2006). Dao (2006) observed that light emission from the mycelia of *Omphalotus af. illudens* in open air (oxygen) was maximum after 5 h, fall down to 13th hour and eventually stop emitting light (Figure 2). On the whole, the luminescence of younger fruiting bodies and young actively growing mycelium is brighter than mature fruiting bodies and old mycelium, even though the intensity of their luminescence varies widely with species and environment (Vladimir et al., 2012). The light emitted is often quite faint and typically

requires very dark conditions to see. While the light or luminescence is difficult to observe in some species of *Mycena*, others are relatively brighter, bright enough to read and can be visible from a distance of up to 40 m (Perry, 2007).

Panellus stipticus is unusual in that luminescence is exhibited only in the North America strains of *P. stipticus* and not by the Eurasian strains (Weitz, 2004). Vladimir et al. (2012) noted that wood destroying fungi are specified by substantially higher luminescence (visible luminescence) and intensity of these species correlates with the activity of enzymes of the secondary metabolism participating in lignin destruction. They found no correlation between the edibility of the mushroom and its bioluminescence.

APPLICATION POTENTIALS OF BIOLUMINESCENCE IN MUSHROOM

Generally, functions of bioluminescence in organisms have been to attract prey, to detect prey,

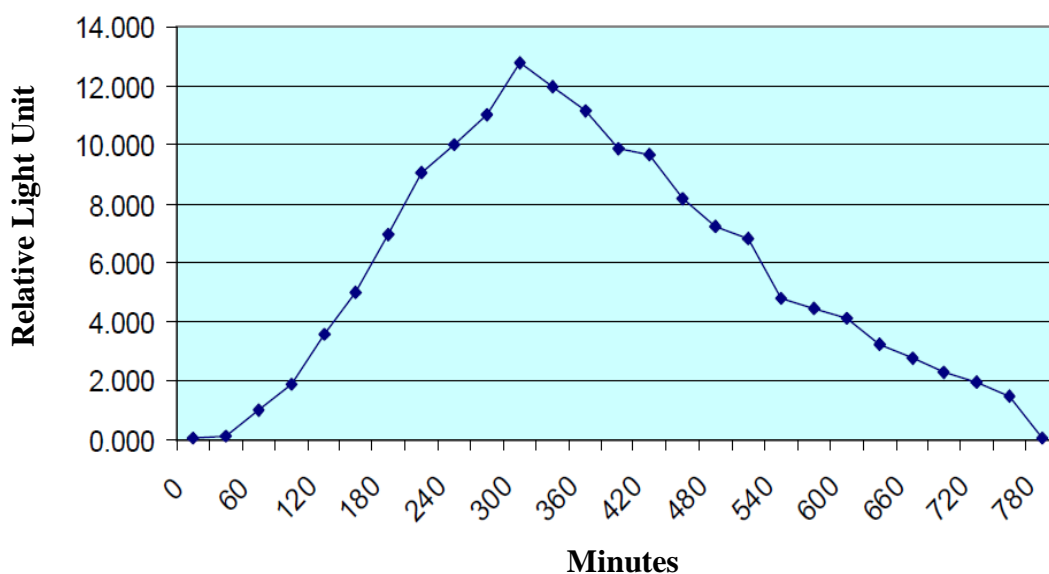


Figure 2. Light intensity from mycelia of *Omphalotus af. illudens* in open air following time. Source: Dao (2006).

to defend oneself against a predator, to communicate between same species and to navigate. In fungi, luminescence has been hypothesized to attract invertebrates that aid in spore dispersal (Desjardin, 2008). This is especially adaptive in closed canopy forests where wind dispersal is hindered. In application of the saying...*befriend the enemy of your enemy*, some mushrooms glow to attract the predators of fungivores, repulsion of phototropic fungivores, and as a warning signal to nocturnal fungivores (Desjardin et al., 2008; Weitz, 2004). This application is especially useful to animal and environmental biologists who study these fungivores (invertebrates), hence mushrooms can be used as a lure for trapping these insects.

During the Vietnam War, to avoid being spotted by enemy aircraft, the Vietnamese army used to wear luminescent chunks of rotting wood behind their hat to keep track of each other while operating at night in the forest. In these chunks, mycelia system of luminescent mushrooms grows strongly. Local people have collected and put luminescent fruit-bodies in plastic bags to use them for illumination at night (Dao, 2006). The feasibility of employing bioluminescent mushrooms as an indicator test object for bioassays has been studied. *Armillaria mellea*, *Mycena citricolor*, and *Gerronema viridilucens* were used to develop toxicity test (Weitz, 2004; Horsewell et al., 2005; Mendes, and Stevani, 2010).

Many scientific researchers have developed luminescent mushrooms into applications in testing for pollutants [ions of mercury (Hg)] in water supply when concentrations are too low to detect by conventional means (Dao, 2006; Wan et al., 2014). Luminous mushrooms were used to detect toxicity of 3,5-dichlorophenol, pentachlorophenol and salts of heavy metals. These compounds have been shown to inhibit the luminescence of mycelium of *Armillaria mellea* and *Mycena citricolor*. The luminous mushrooms are of real interest as luminescent markers in developing new luminescent microanalysis methods for biology, biotechnology and medicine. The light generated by this reaction has been utilized by scientists as a bio indicator or biosensor for tuberculosis as well as heavy metals (Vladimir et al., 2012). As it is an oxygen-dependent

reaction, it has been hypothesized that bioluminescence may have evolved as a method to consume excess oxygen produced in the cells of organisms during other metabolic processes (that is an antioxidant). The luminescent molecule can be used in lux-gene transformation into living organism to make desired luminescent organism (Dao, 2006).

The metabolite from the luminescent mushrooms present the effectively bioactive terpenoids such as Nambinones A-C, 1-epinambionone B and Nambinone D compounds which possess anti-mould, anti-bacteria, ant-virus and especially in inhibiting growth of cancerous cells. Therefore, a number of metabolites were isolated from fungi which found their way into medical applications as natural products, starting material for pharmaceuticals or as lead structures for the development of pharmaceutical products (Dao, 2006; Mehmet and Gulsen, 2015).

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

We live in the era of illumination. Luminescent mushroom is a novel area of research in the world which would be beneficial to mankind especially with regards to environmental pollution, gene-transformation, pharmaceutical, biochemical and biomedical application. Bioluminescence in fungi is a beautiful phenomenon to observe which should be of interest to Scientists of all endeavors.

Mushrooms occur abundantly in our forests and terrestrial environment. Luminescent mushrooms should be identified and cultivated by mycologists. Collaborative work should be encouraged among biochemists, chemists and physicists on the isolation and purification of Luciferin compounds present in these mushrooms and other possible potentials in production of light. Due to unavailability of light supply in Nigeria, luminescent mushrooms may be an alternative source of illumination in our local communities at night.

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