Hany A. Abdel-Salam^{1*}, Sahar M. Abdel-Badeea¹, Dalia S. Hamza¹, Abdel-Hamid A.M. Ali² and Hayam I. EL Shaarawy¹

I- Zoology Department, Faculty of Science, Benha University, Benha 13518, Egypt
 2- National Institute of Oceanography and Fisheries (NIOF), Suez, Egypt
 *Corresponding author: E-mail address: hany.abdelsalam@fsc.bu.edu.eg

ABSTRACT

Galaxea fascicularis is a hermatypic (reef-building) scleractinain coral that forms massive colonies of calcium carbonate skeleton. The ultrastructural investigations of the skeleton and the polyps of G. fascicularis that collected from the reef edge of El Ain El Sukhna (Gulf of Suez, Red Sea) have been observed by using the Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM). In this study, SEM was used to observe and understand the occurrence and distribution of microflora which may cause diseases to coral species before doing any further molecular or genomic studies. The collected colonies of G. fascicularis had green or brown colored polyps. Each polyp lives in a skeleton cup, called a corallite that had a circle of septa around the calice opening. The septa occurred in hexamerous cycles (6 primary, 6 secondary, 12 tertiary, and 24 quaternary). The deposition of two crystal types, aragonite (blade-shaped crystals) and calcite (fusiform crystals) at the growth surface of the septa were investigated. Formation of semi-solid masses by fusiform crystals suggests that the crystals might play a structural role in septal extension. Microbial communities were observed at the surface of the polyp. Fungi appeared to be a regular component of all investigated polyps, while the bacteria were observed on some polyps. The muco-polysaccharides surface of G. fascicularis might provide a matrix for microbial colonization leading to the formation of biofilm-forming microbial communities. These communities might lead to tissue degradation and holes formation.

Key words: Scleractinian Coral, *Galaxea fascicularis*, Skeleton, Crystals, Microbial Communities, Scanning Electron Microscopy.

INTRODUCTION

Coral reefs are indeed a major marine ecosystem, because those species diversity greatly exceeds that of any other marine environment. They are generally known as the rainforest of the oceans. It is assumed that, while their total area is less than 0.2% of the sea surface ⁽¹⁾; coral reefs host almost 30% of all the marine biodiversity ⁽²⁾.

Egypt coastline possesses a significant proportion and considerable range of the coral reefs found in the Red Sea with about 3800 Km² of reef area and 1,800 km long. Of about 300 hard coral species found in the Red Sea, 2/3 are found in the Egyptian reefs, including some endemic species ^(3,4). Scleractinian corals are the most important hermatypic (reefbuilding) organisms in the Red Sea. They are highly mineralised animals that possess a massive CaCO₃ skeleton (limestone) in the form of aragonite, covered by two-layered epithelium^(5,6). Skeletal growth occurs extracellularly at the interface between the underlying skeleton and a single-cell epithelial layer called the calicoblastic ectoderm. This external skeleton then creates a 3D framework that forms a complex habitat, increasing species abundance and total productivity. Such limestone structures may reach 1.3 km thick and up to 2,000 km long ⁽²⁾. The CaCO₃ skeleton shape is characteristic at the species level^(7, 8,9,10).

Two kinds of crystals; fusiform and blade or needle-shaped crystals, have been observed on the surface of skeletons of hermatypic corals^(11, 12, 13, 14, 15).

Studies of the crystalline and overall skeletal structure of scleractinian corals required the removal of the surrounding epithelia to visualize the $CaCO_3$ skeleton underneath. Many treatments have been used to dissolve the epithelial tissue, including H_2O_2 (Jell, 1974; Clode and Marshall, 2003b)^(16,17) freshwater ⁽¹⁸⁾, NaOH ^(17, 18, 19) and commercial bleach (sodium hypochlorite)^(11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26).

There is a recent increase in information concerning total microbial communities associated with healthy^(27,28) and diseased corals⁽²⁹⁾. Coral-specific microbial communities are hypothesized to have important physiological and ecological roles on coral reefs^(30,31).

Euendolithic microorganisms are known to penetrate actively, by chemical dissolution, into substrates forming a network of tunnels conforming to the shape of their bodies ⁽³²⁾, and also are boring phototrophic and organotrophic microorganisms that include cyanobacteria, chlorophytes, rhodophytes, and fungi ⁽³³⁾. They develop in a large variety of carbonate substrates, including crustose coralline algal thalli and coral skeletons ^(34, 35).

Euendolithic cyanobacteria and chlorophytes penetrate by an unknown chemical dissolution process into calcareous skeletons (i.e. shells and corals), as well as carbonate rocks, play an important role in the destruction of the invaded substrate in marine and freshwater environments^(32, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42).

Fungi are known to associate with shallow-water corals, both as potential symbionts $^{(43,43,44)}$ and pathogens $^{(45,46,47,48)}$.

In live corals, Euendoliths are known to have different activities. Boring heterotrophic fungi appear to inflict damages to their live hosts^(42, 44, 49, 50), while autotrophic (cyanobacteria and algae) euendoliths may provide benefits, especially in cases of bleaching events, through the release of nutrients and organic compounds^(51, 52, 53, 54).

Galaxea fascicularis is a hermatypic scleractinian coral in the family Oculinidae. It is usually ball or dome shaped in captivity. Shapes that include spires, plates, encrustations, and branches are sometimes found. *G. fascicularis* can be green, grey, pink or brown, but always with contrasting colored tips. This species has polyps which are amongst the most beautiful of all corals. Each polyp has coloured translucent tentacles, which usually have white tips. The tentacles will be out during the day ⁽⁵⁵⁾. The polyp lives in a corallite which has a circle of septa. The septa that extend above the top of the corallite wall are referred to as exsert septa. The exsert septa are one of the primary sites of CaCO3 deposition and skeletal extension in the scleractinian coral *Galaxea fascicularis* ⁽⁵⁶⁾.

Compared to some other reef corals, *G. fascicularis* is relatively resilient to stress from bleaching ⁽⁵⁷⁾ and from sedimentation^(58,59), however it can affected by microbial communities such as bacteria ⁽³¹⁾ and fungi ⁽⁶⁰⁾.

In this study, we describe the ultrastructure of the polyps and skeleton of the scleractinian coral *G. fascicularis* and its associated microbial communities by using scanning electron microscope.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Collection and maintenance

Colonies of scleractinian coral (*Galaxea fascicularis* Linnaeus, 1767) were collected from the reef edge of El Ain El Sukhna (western coast of Gulf of suez, Red Sea, Egypt) at a depth of 3-5 meters. The corals were transported in buckets of seawater to the laboratory, where they were maintained in sunlit, well-aerated, flow-through aquaria in natural seawater at 24–25 °C. Different samples of *G. fascicularis* were photographed by a digital camera.

11

Ultrastructure of Galaxea fascicularis from El-Ain El-Sukhna, Gulf of Suez Red Sea

Polyp preparation

Ten individual polyps were separated from different live colonies and fixed for ultrastructural investigations by immersing them immediately in ${}_4F_1G$, phosphate buffer solution (PH 7.2) at 4°C overnight. The polyps were then post fixed in 2% OsO₄ in the same buffer at 4°C for 2 hours, then washed in the buffer and dehydrated at 4°C through a graded series of ethanol, and dried.

Skeleton preparation

Galaxea fascicularis colonies were immersed in commercial bleach (12% NaOCl) at 60 °C for 30 min. The resultant colonies were rinsed well in running water and then several times in dH₂O to remove the overlying soft tissues. The skeletons were then dried at 60 °C for 24 h. Ten corallites of different sizes were easily separated from the skeletons with forceps; five of them were divided crosswise to investigate the internal structure. Pieces of peritheca (skeletal area between the corallites) and endothecal dissepiments (skeletal area beneath the corallites) were separated.

Ultrastructural investigations

The prepared polyps, corallites, peritheca and endothecal dissepiments were mounted by using carbon paste on an Al-stub and coated with gold up to a thickness of 400Å in a sputter- coating unit (JFC-1100E). Investigations of the samples were performed in a JEOL JSM-5300 scanning electron microscope operated between 15 and 20 KV.

RESULTS

G. fascicularis collected colonies were solid, ball or dome shaped and green or brown in color. Each colony consisted of many polyps with different sizes. The polyps had long coloured finger-like tentacles arranged in cycles around the mouth opening (Fig. 1a, b, c). The polyp embedded in a skeleton cup made of calcium carbonate, called a corallite. The corallites were irregular in shape and rounded or slightly elliptical in cross section with vertical walls. They were separated, distinct and had mixed sizes. The corallite diameter varied from 1.5 mm to about 15 mm. The skeletal area between the corallites was called the peritheca while the area beneath them known as endothecal dissepiments. The corallites were generally at least 2 to 3 mm apart, often more and rised at least 2 mm and sometimes over 15 mm above the peritheca (Fig. 1d, e, f).

Ultrastructural investigations of G. fascicularis skeleton

The investigated corallites had the same structure. The upper, open face of the corallite from which the living polyp protrudes is called the calice. Each corallite had a circle of septa surrounded the calice opening. The septa protruded above the level of the corallite wall (theca) and were clearly visible as thin, sharp blades to form exserted septa (Fig. 2a, b). The septa occurred in hexamerous cycles (6 primary, 6 secondary, 12 tertiary, and 24 quaternary) (Fig. 2a, b, c). Septal margins were smooth, granular or dentate with septal teeth or spines, while the septal sides were smooth or dentate (Fig. 2c, d, e, f). The inner ends of the primary septa were fused in the center of the corallite forming upright column called the columella (the central axis of the corallite found below the calice). The columella had a styliform (rod-like) (Fig. 2g, h).

Costae continued a short way down the outside of the theca but were absent from perithecal areas. Theca and costae had many bores (Fig 2i). The peritheca was slightly rough due to the presence of irregular low vesicles and had bores (Fig. 2j). The endothecal dissepiments had overlapping lamellae and fusiform crystals between them (Fig. 2k).

Hany A. Abdel-Salam et al.

Upper view of crosswise divided corallite showed that the structure of the septal edge was differentiated between the upper and inner margins. Inner margins have only 3 cycles of septa (Fig. 2 l, m). There were large elongate fusiform crystals precipitated at the growing lateral edges of the septa (Fig. 2 m, n, o).

Microbial communities associated to G. fascicularis polyps

Fungi appeared to be a regular component of all investigated polyps. The fungal hyphae were observed attached to the tentacles and septal margins (Fig. 3a, b). These hyphae associated to the mucous which secreted by the polyp and had fungal conidia (Fig. 3c). The fungal hyphae were found attached to fusiform and blade-shaped crystals (Fig. 3b, c, d). These crystals were observed around the tentacles and septa (Fig. 3b, e), sometimes were seen attached to each other (Fig. 3f).

Bacterial communities were observed above the oral surface of some polyps attached together and form a web-like structure (Fig. 3g, h, i, j).

Skeletal spines or cones and bores were appeared at the surface of all investigated polyps (Fig. 3k, 1). The bores caused tissue degradation and mineralization by micro-granular calcite (Fig. 3m, n, o).

DISCUSSION

In *G. fascicularis* collected samples, corallites were separated and had mixed sizes. corallite diameter varies from 1.5 mm to about 15 mm and was irregular in shape at the surface. Corallites were irregular in shape, that was depending on how closely they were packed and on their position on the corallum as revealed by Veron and Pichon⁽⁶¹⁾.

The septa of *G. fascicularis* had fasciculate surfaces as reported for other corals ⁽²⁰⁾. The fasciculi were composed of blade-shaped crystals ran parallel to each other. In addition to the blade-shaped crystals, fusiform crystals of various sizes were observed at the growing lateral edges of the septa. Fusiform crystals have been suggested to be calcite, in contrast to the bulk of the skeleton, which is formed from aragonite as reported by Gladfelter ⁽¹²⁾.

In our study, blade-shaped and fusiform crystals were seen attached together around the septa of *G. fascicularis*. Hidaka (15) suggested that blade-shaped crystals are deposited on the surface of the fusiform crystals and that further growth and addition of blade-shaped crystals result in parallel bundles of crystals. Tips of these bundles protrude above the surface of the skeleton to form irregular-shaped, fish scale-like fasciculi. However, it is not clear whether the fasciculi are formed only in this manner and are always derived from fusiform crystals. Also, Gladfelter ⁽¹²⁾ reported that, clusters of needlelike crystals extended from fusiform crystals to ultimately form fasciculi.

Fusiform crystals on investigated *G. fascicularis* septa were typically observed at the lateral edges where centers of calcification do not persist as reported by Cuif and Dauphin, $^{(62)}$ and Clode and Marshall $^{(17)}$. This is consistent with the suggestion of Constantz $^{(26)}$ that centers of calcification were not required for nucleation and growth of fusiform crystals.

Variability in the reported distribution of fusiform crystals on septa^(12,63) made interpretation and understanding of crystal deposition and skeletal extension in corals difficult. Reasons for these reported differences are unknown, but preparatory techniques and environmental conditions may have significant effects upon skeletal microstructure^(64,65).

The investigated crystals at the growth edges of the septa were one of the primary sites of CaCO3 deposition and skeletal extension in the scleractinian coral *Galaxea fascicularis*. Gladfelter ⁽¹²⁾ reported that fusiform crystals form loose scaffolding on the surface of exsert septa at night and acicular crystals nucleate on the fusiform crystals during the day, ultimately giving rise to fasciculi. This cycle of deposition of fusiform crystals was proposed to account for skeletal extension in zooxanthellate corals. Hidaka⁽¹³⁾ also proposed

that, no fusiform crystals or needle-shaped crystals were found on the septa of polyps kept in darkness lead to low rate of calcification in the coral.

Bacterial and fungal communities were observed in this study on *G. fascicularis* polyp. Pascal and Vacelet⁽³⁰⁾ revealed that, the coral surface was covered by muco-polysaccharides, which provided a matrix for bacterial colonization leading to the formation of biofilm-forming microbial communities. Kim ⁽⁶⁶⁾ postulated that, mucus-covered coral surfaces are often colonized by bacteria and other microorganisms. However, a few studies suggested that corals might be associated with specific bacteria. Differences in the composition of the surface mucus produced by specific corals resulted in different populations of associated microbes⁽²⁸⁾. Furthermore, mucus-associated bacteria had specific carbon source utilization patterns that were consistently associated with certain coral species and varied among different species of coral as reported by Ritchie and Smith ⁽⁶⁷⁾.

The present study established the abundant presence of fungi in *G. fascicularis* polyp. Fungal hyphae were found to be common in corals and assumed the following ecological roles as recorded by Le Campion-Alsumard *et al.*(68): as euendoliths they penetrate coral skeleton; as cryptoendoliths they resided within pore spaces; and as endophytes they grew inside filaments of endolithic algae. In addition, fungi were found inside the soft coral tissue, where they produced conidia in situ.

This study disclosed that endolithic fungi elicit defensive behavior on the part of the coral, indicating a parasitic rather than saprophytic relationship. Formation of conical carbonate structures has been reported earlier for species of the corals *Colpophyllia* and *Monastrea* by Scherer ⁽⁶⁹⁾, who observed cones rising from pore walls by algae. Those structures reported in this paper as skeletal spins or cones. Scherer speculated on the mechanisms that might have caused precipitation by algae, but did not consider that the deposition might be a response of the coral to endolith action.

Bores were detected in this study on the skeleton and tissues of *Galaxea fascicularis* lead to tissue degradation, so the tissues became mineralized by micro-granular calcite. Prokaryotic penetration into coral tissue has been described previously, resulting in the bleaching (loss of zooxanthellae) of the tissue ⁽⁷⁰⁾. It has previously been proposed that physical penetration of bacteria into the coral tissue is aided by chemical degradation that results in a mat containing decaying coral tissue as it migrates across the coral colony ^(71,72).

Glynn ⁽⁷³⁾ revealed that, the bioeroding potential of bacteria and the various taxa involved is very limited, preliminary observations suggested that these organisms might be important under certain conditions. Fungi were capable of deep penetration into coral skeletons by chemical dissolution. The hyphae produce narrow borings and penetrate the deepest recesses of coral skeletons, probably because of their ability to utilize the organic matrix of coral skeletons.

Acknowledgements

13

This work is a part of the project supported financially by the Science and Technology Development Fund (STDF), Egypt, Grant No 4706.

REFERENCES

- 1- Smith, L. (1978): Coral reef area and the contributions of reefs to processes and resources of the world's oceans. Nature, 273: 225-226.
- 2- Porter, J. W. and Tougas, J. I. (2001): Reef ecosystems: threats to their biodiversity. In: Encyclopedia of Biodiversity, Levin, S.A. (ed.), Vol. 5, San Diego: Academic Press, pp. 73-95.
- 3- Spalding, M. D., Ravilious, C. and Green, E. P. (2001): World atlas of coral reefs: University of California Press, Berkeley, Los Angeles, London.

- 4- Kotb, M. M. A.; Hanafy, M. H.; Rirache, H.; Matsumara, S.; Al-Sofyani, A. A.; Ahmed, A. G.; Bawazir, G. and Al-Horani, F. (2008): Status of coral reefs in the Red Sea and Gulf of Aden Region. In: Status of Coral Reefs of the World: 2008, Wilkinson, C.E. (ed.), Townsville (Australia): Global Coral Reef Monitoring Network and Reef and Rainforest Research Centre, pp. 67-78.
- 5- Clode, P.L. and Marshall, A.T. (2003a): Calcium associated with a fibrillar organic matrix in the scleractinian coral *Galaxea fascicularis*. Protoplasma, 220:153–161.
- 6- Perrin, C. (2003): Compositional heterogeneity and microstructural diversity of coral skeletons: implications for taxonomy and control on early diagenesis. Coral Reefs, 22: 109–120.
- 7- Goreau, T.F. (1959): The physiology of skeleton formation in corals. I. A method for measuring the rate of calcium deposition by corals under different conditions. Biol. Bull., 116:59–75.
- 8- Pearse, V.B. and Muscatine, L. (1971): Role of symbiotic algae (zooxanthellae) in coral calcification. Biol. Bull., 141:350–363.
- 9- Chalker, B.E. and Taylor, D.L. (1975): Light-enhanced calcification, and the role of oxidative phosphorylation in calcification of the coral *Acropora cervicornis*. Proc. R. Soc. Lond. B, 190:323–331.
- 10- Al-Horani, F.A.; Salim, T.F.; Al-Moghrabi, M. and de Beer, D. (2005): Spatial distribution of calcification and photosynthesis in the scleractinian coral Galaxea fascicularis. Coral Reefs, 24: 173-180.
- 11- Gladfelter, E.H. (1982): Skeletal development in *Acropora cervicornis*: I. Patterns of calcium carbonate accretion in the axial corallite. Coral Reefs, 1:45-51.
- 12- Gladfelter, E. H. (1983): Skeletal development in *Acropora cervicornis* II: Diel patterns of calcium carbonate accretion. Coral Reefs, 2: 91–100.
- 13- Hidaka, M. (1988): Surface structure of skeletons of the coral *Galaxea fascicularis* formed under different light conditions. Pp. 95–100 in Proceedings of the Sixth International Coral Reef Symposium, Vol. 3, J. H. Choat *et al.*, eds. 6th International Coral Reef Symposium Executive Committee, Townsville, Australia.
- 14- Le Tissier, M. D. (1988): Diurnal patterns of skeleton formation in *Pocillopora damicornis* (Linnaeus). Coral Reefs, 7: 81–88.
- 15- Hidaka, M. (1991): Deposition of fusiform crystals without apparent diurnal rhythm at the growing edge of septa of the coral *Galaxea fascicularis*. Coral Reefs, 10: 41–45.
- 16- Jell, J. S. (1974): The microstructure of some scleractinian corals. Pp. 301–320 in Proceedings of the Second International Coral Reef Symposium, A. M. Cameron, ed. Great Barrier Reef Committee, Brisbane, Australia.
- 17- Clode, P.L. and Marshall, A.T. (2003): Variation in skeletal microstructure of the coral *Galaxea fascicularis:* Effects of an aquarium environment and preparatory Techniques. Biol. Bull., 204: 138–145.
- 18- Johnston, I. S. (1979): The organization of a structural organic matrix within the skeleton of a reef-building coral. Scanning Electron Microsc., 1979 II: 421–431.
- 19- Isa, Y. (1986): An electron microscope study on the mineralization of the skeleton of the staghorn coral *Acropora hebes*. Mar. Biol., 93: 91–101.
- 20- Sorauf, J. E. (1972): Skeletal microstructure and microarchitecture in Scleractinia (Coelenterata). Palaeontology, 15: 11–23.
- Sorauf, J. E. (1974): Observations on microstructure and biocrystallization in coelenterates. Biomineralization, 7: 37–55.
- 22- Brown, B. E.; Hewit, R. and Le Tissier, M. D. (1983): The nature and construction of skeletal spines in *Pocillopora damicornis* (L.). Coral Reefs, 2: 81–89.

- 23- Hidaka, M. (1991): Fusiform and needle-shaped crystals found on the skeleton of a coral, *Galaxea fascicularis*. Pp. 139–143 in Mechanisms and Phylogeny of Mineralization in Biological Systems, S. Suga and H. Nakahara, eds. Springer Verlag, Tokyo.
- 24- Le Tissier, M. D'A. A. (1990): The ultrastructure of the skeleton and skeletogenic tissues of the temperate coral *Caryophyllia smithi*. J. Mar. Biol. Assoc. UK 70: 295–310.
- 25- Le Tissier, M. D'A. A. (1991): The nature of the skeleton and skeletogenic tissues in the Cnidaria. Hydrobiologia, 216/217: 397–402.
- 26- Constantz, B. R. (1989): Skeletal organization in Caribbean Acropora spp. (Lamarck). Pb. 175-199 in origin. Evolution and Modern Aspects of Biomineralization in Plants and Animals, R. E. Crick, ed. Plenum press, New York.
- 27- Rohwer, F.; Breitbart, M.; Jara, J.; Azam, F. and Knowlton, N. (2001): Diversity of bacteria associated with the Caribbean coral *Montastrea franksi*. Coral. Reefs, 20: 85-91.
- 28- Rohwer, F.; Seguritan, V.; Azam, F. and Knowlton, N. (2002): Diversity and distribution of coral-associated bacteria. Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser., 243:1–10.
- 29- Frias-Lopez, J.; Zerkle, A.L.; Bonheyo, G.T. and Fouke, B.W. (2002): Partitioning of bacterial communities between seawater and healthy, black-band diseases, and dead coral surfaces. Appl. Environ. Microbiol., 68:2214–2228
- 30- Pascal, H. and Vacelet, E. (1981): Bacterial utilization of mucus on the coral reef of Aquaba (Red Sea). Proc 4th Int. Coral. Reef. Symp., 1:669–677
- 31- Sabdono, A.; Radjasa, O.K.; Stöhr, R. and Zocchi, E. (2005): Diversity of culturable bacterial community associated with the coral *Galaxea fascicularis* from Ujung Kulon, Indonesia Journal of Coastal Development, 9(1): 36-42.
- 32- Pantazidou, A. Louvrou I.; Economou-Amilli, A. (2006): Euendolithic shell-boring cyanobacteria and chlorophytes from the saline lagoon Ahivadolimni on Milos Island, Greece. Eur. J. Phycol., 41(2): 189–200.
- 33- Tribollet, A. (2008): The boring microflora in modern coral reefs: a review of its roles, in: Current Developments in Bioerosion, edited by: Wisshak, M. and Tapanila, L., Berlin-Heiderlberg, Springer-Verlag, pp 67–94.
- 34- Tribollet, A. and Payri, C. (2001): Bioerosion of the crustose coralline alga *Hydrolithon onkodes* by microborers in the coral reefs of Moorea, French Polynesia. Oceanolog Acta, 24:329-342.
- 35- Tribollet, A. and Golubic, S. (2005): Cross-shelf differences in the pattern and pace of bioerosion of experimental carbonate substrates exposed for 3 years on the northern Great Barrier Reef, Australia. Coral Reefs, 24: 422–434.
- 36- Poulicek, M. (1984): Patterns of mollusc shell biodegradation in bathyal and abyssal sediments. J. Mollus. Stud., 12A: 136–141.
- 37- Poulicek, M. and Jaspar-Versali, M.F. (1983): Biode´gradation de la frame organique des coquilles de mollusques en milieu marin. Action des microorganismes endolithes. Soc. Roy. Sciences de Liege, 53: 114–126.
- 38- Radtke, G.; Le Campion-Alsumard, T. and Golumic, S. (1996): Microbial assemblages of the bioerosional "notch" along tropical limestone coasts. Algol. Stud., 83: 469–482.
- 39- Radtke, G.; Le Campion-Alsumard, T. and Golubic, S. (1997): Microbial assemblages involved in tropical coastal bioerosion: an Atlantic-Pacific comparison. Proc. 8th Internat. Coral Reef Symp., Panama City 1996: 1825–1830.
- 40- Schneider, J. and Le Campion- Alsumard, T. (1999): Construction and destruction of carbonates by marine and freshwater cyanobacteria. Eur. J. Phycol., 34: 417–426.
- 41- Vogel, K., Gektidis, M., Golubic, S., Kiene, W.E. and Radtke, G. (2000): Experimental studies on microbial bioerosion at Lee Stocking Island, Bahamas, One Tree Island,

Great Barrier Reef, Australia: implications for paleoecological reconstructions. Lethaia, 33: 190–204.

- 42- Bentis, C.J.; Kaufman, L. and Golubic, S. (2000): Endolithic fungi in reef-building corals (Order: Scleractinia) are common, cosmopolitan, and potentially pathogenic. Biol. Bull, 198: 254–260.
- 42- Glaub, I. & Vogel, K. (2004): The stratigraphic record of microborings. Fossils Strata, 51: 126–135.
- 43- Ravindran, J.; Raghukumar, C. and Raghukumar, S. (2001): Fungi in *Porites lutea*: association with healthy and diseased corals. Dis. Aquat. Org., 47: 219–228.
- 44- Domart-Coulon, I.J.; Sinclair, C.S.; Hill, R.T.; Tambutte, S.; Puverel, S. and Ostrander, G.K. (2004): Abasidiomycete isolated from the skeleton of *Pocillopora damicornis* (Scleractinia) selectively stimulates short-term survival of coral skeletogenic cells. Mar. Biol., 144: 583–592.
- 45- Raghukumar, C. and Raghukumar, S., (1991): Fungal invasion of massive corals. Mar. Ecol., 12 (3): 251–260.
- 46- Yarden, O.; Ainsworth, T.D.; Roff, G.; Leggat, W.; Fine, M. and Hoegh-Guldberg, O. (2007): Increased prevalence of ubiquitous Ascomycetesinan Acroporid coral (Acroporaformosa) exhibiting symptoms of Brown Band Syndrome and Skeletal Eroding Band Disease. Appl. Env. Microbiol., 73 (8): 2755–2757.
- 47- Zuluaga-Montero, A.; Toledo-Hernandez, C.; Rodriguez, J.A.; Sabat, A.M. and Bayman,
 P. (2010): Spatial variation in fungal communities isolated from healthy and diseased sea fans Gorgonia vetalina and seawater. Aquatic Biol., 8:151–160.
- 48- Julia, P.; Galkiewicz; Stellick, S.H.; Gray, M.A. and Kellogg, C.A. (2012): Cultured fungal associates from the deep-sea coral *Lopheli apertusa*. Deep-Sea Research I, 67:12–20.
- 49- Le Campion-Alsumard, T.; Golubic, S. and Hutchings, P.A. (1995a): Microbial endoliths in skeletons of live and dead corals: *Porites lobata* (Moorea, French Polynesia). Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser., 117:149-157.
- 50- Alker, A. P.; Smith, G. W. and Kim, K. (2001): Characterization of *Aspergillus sydowii* (Thom et Church), a fungal pathogen of Carribean sea fan corals. Hydrobiologia, 460: 105–111.
- 51- Odum, H. T. and Odum, E. P. (1955): Trophic structure and productivity of a windward coral reef community on Eniwetok atoll, Ecol. Monogr., 25, 291–320.
- 51- Odum, H. T. and Odum, E. P. (1955): Trophic structure and productivity of a windward coral reef community on Eniwetok atoll, Ecol. Monogr., 25, 291–320.
- 52- Ferrer, L. M. and Szmant, A. M. (1988): Nutrient regeneration by the endolithic community in coral skeletons, Proceedings of the 6th International Coral Reef Symposium, 1–4.
- 53- Schlichter, D.; Zscharnack, B. and Krisch, H. (1995): Transfer of photoassimilates from endolithic algae to coral tissue, Naturwissenschaften, 82(12): 561–564.
- 54- Fine, M. and Loya, Y. (2002): Endolithic algae: an alternative source of photoassimilates during coral bleaching, Proc. R. Soc. Lond. B, 269: 1205–1210.
- 55- Veron, J.E.N. (1986): Corals of Australia and the Indo-pacific. University of Hawaii Press ed. Pp: 363-367.
- 56- Marshall, A. T. and Wright, A. (1998): Coral calcification: autoradiography of a scleractinian coral *Galaxea fascicularis* after incubation in 45Ca and 14C. Coral Reefs, 17: 37–47.
- 57- Marshall, P.A. and Baird, A.H. (2000): Bleaching of corals on the Great Barrier Reef: differential susceptibilities among taxa. Coral Reefs, 19: 155–163.

- 58- Wesseling, I.; Uychiaoco, A.J.; Alino, P.M.; Aurin, T. and Vermaat, J.E. (1999): Damage and recovery of four Philippine corals from short-term sediment burial. Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser., 176: 11–15.
- 59- Philipp, E. and Fabricius, K. (2003): Photophysiological stress in Scleractinian corals in response to short-term sedimentation. J. Exp. Mar. Biol. Ecol., 287: 57–78.
- 60- Jia, X.U.; Xiao-ling, L.; Zhi-gang, S.; Bin, C.; Bi-hong, X. (2011): Isolation of symbiotic fungi from the coral *Galaxea fascicularis* and screening of their antibacterial activities. Chinese Journal of Marine Drugs. 5.
- 61- Veron, J.E.N and Pichon, M. (1979): Scleractinia of Eastern Australia. Australia Institute of Marine Science monograph series. Volume 4, pb 209.
- 62- Cuif, J. P. and Dauphin, Y. (1998): Microstructural and physico-chemical characterization of 'centers of calcification' in septae of some recent scleractinian corals. Palaeontol. Z., 72: 257–270.
- 63- Hidaka, M. and Shirasaka, S. (1992): Mechanism of phototropism in young corallites of the coral *Galaxea fascicularis*. J. Exp. Mar. Biol. Ecol., 157: 69–77.
- 64- Carlson, B. A. (1999): Organism responses to rapid change: what aquaria can tell us about nature. Am. Zool. 39: 44–55.
- 65- Clode, P.L. and Marshall, A.T. (2003): Skeletal Microstructure of *Galaxea fascicularis* exsert septa: A High-resolution SEM study. Marine biologival laboratory. Boil. Bull., 204:146-154.
- 66- Kim, K. (1994): Antimicrobial activity in gorgonian corals (Coelenterata, Octocorallia). Coral Reefs, 13 (2): 75- 80.
- 67- Ritchie, K.B. and Smith, G.W. (1995): Preferential carbon utilization by surface bacterial communities from water mass, normal, and white-band diseased *Acropora cervicornis*. Mol. Mar. Biol. Biotechnol., 4:345–354.
- 68- Campion-Alsumard, T.; Golubic, S. and Priess, K. (1995): Fungi in corals: symbiosis or disease? Interaction between polyps and fungi causes pearl-like skeleton biomineralization. Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser., 117:137-147.
- 69- Scherer, M. (1974): The influence of two endolithic microorganisms on the diagenesis of recent coral skeletons. N. Jb. Geol. Palaeontol. Monatsh, 9: 557-566.
- 70- Banin, E; Ben-Haim, Y; Israely, T; Loya, Y and Rosenberg, E. (2000): Effect of the environment on the bacterial bleaching of corals. Water Air Soil Pollut., 123:337– 352.
- 71- Rutzler, K.; Santavy, D.L. and Antonius, A. (1983): The black band disease of Atlantic reef corals. III. Distribution, Ecology and Development. PSZNI: Mar. Ecol., 4(4): 29-358.
- 72- Chacon, E.; Berrendero, E.; and Pichel, F.G. (2006): Biological signature of microboring cyanbacterial communities in marine carbonate from Cabo Rojo, Puerto Rico. Sedimentary Geology, 185: 215-228.
- 73- Glynn, P.W. (1997): Bioerosion and Coral Reef Growth: A Dynamic Balance. Life and Death of Coral Reefs. Pp 69-98.



Fig. 1. Photograph pictures of *Galaxea fascicularis*: (a) Part of green colony, (b) Part of brown colony, (c) Individual polyps from brown colony, (d) Part of skeleton of green colony, (e) Part of skeleton of brown colony, (f) Part of skeleton of brown colony shows endothecal dissepiment (asterisk). Abbr.: c, corallite; mo, mouth opening; p, polyp; pe, peritheca; t, tentacle. Scale bar= 5 mm.

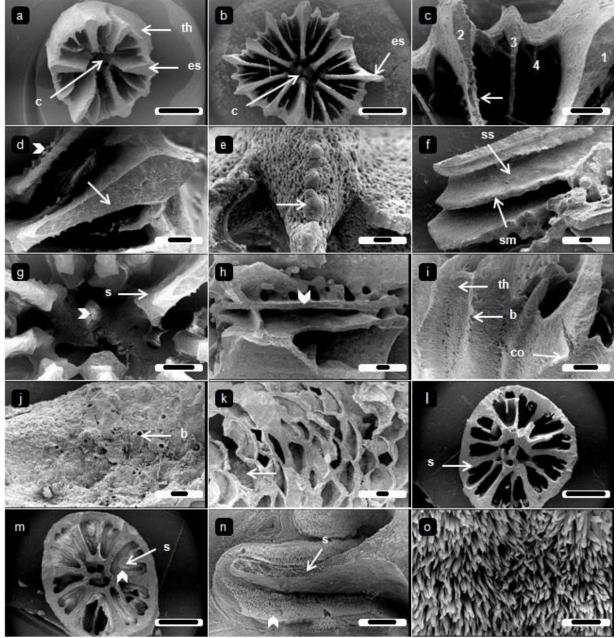


Fig. 2. Scanning electron micrographs of *G. fascicularis* skeleton: (a, b) Upper view of the corallite, (c) 1-4 are septa arranged in four cycles and the arrow refers to the dentate septal margin, (d) Smooth septal margin (arrow) and dentate septal side (head arrow), (e) Granular septal margin (arrow), (f) Septal margin and smooth septal side, (g) Upper view of the corallite shows the columella (head arrow) below the calice, (h) Lateral view of columella (head arrow), (i) Outer surface of corallite wall, (j) Peritheca, (k) Endothecal dissepiments shows the fusiform crystals (arrow) between the lamellae, (l) Upper view of crosswise divided corallite shows the precipitation of crystals (head arrow) at the growth surface of the septa, (n) Fusiform crystals (head arrow) at the growth surface of the septa, (o) High magnification of the fusiform crystals. Abbr.: b, bore; c, calice; co, costa;

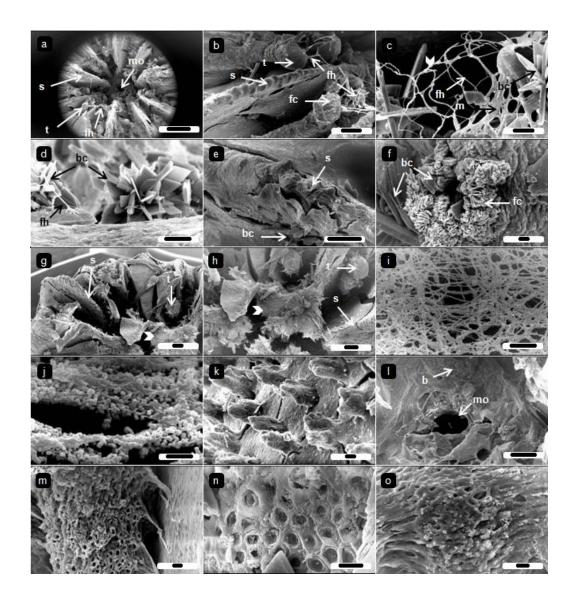


Fig. 3. Scanning electron micrographs of microbial communities associated with *G. fascicularis* polyps: (a) Individual polyp infected with fungal communities, (b) Fungal communities attached to tentacles, septa and fusiform crystals, (c) Fungal hyphae associated with the mucous which secreted by the polyp, head arrow refers to fungal conidia, (d) Fungal hyphae attached to blade-shaped crystals, (e) Blade-shaped crystals around the septa, (f) Fusiform and blade-shaped crystals attached to each other, (g) Individual polyp infected with bacterial communities(head arrow), (h) Web-like structure of bacteria (head arrow) above the oral surface, (i, j) Bacterial communities attached together in the form of web-like structure, (k) Skeletal spines, (l, m, n) Bores formed by microbial communities at the surface of the polyp, (o) Bores and micro-granular calcite on the tissue of the polyp. Abbr.: b, bores; bc, blade-shaped crystals; fc, fusiform crystals; fh, fungal hyphae; m, mucous; mo, mouth opening; s, septa; t, tentacle. Scale bar: $a = 500 \mu m$; b, g, h, $l = 100 \mu m$; $e = 50 \mu m$; c, d, f, i, k,

التركيب الدقيق لاحدى المرجانيات المتكلسة Galaxea fascicularis من منطقة العين السخنة في خليج السويس

هانى عبد المجيد عبد السلام¹ و سحر محمد عبد البديع¹ وداليا سعيد حمزة¹ ، عبد الحميد عبد الرحمن على² و هيام الشعراوى 1⁻ قسم علم الحيوان كلية العلوم جامعة بنها- بنها- مصر 2⁻ المعهد القومى لعلوم البحار والمصايد – السويس مصر

تمثل Galaxea fasicularis احدى المرجانيات التي تبني مستعمرات ضخمة من الشعاب و يتكون هيكلها من كربونات الكالسيوم في هذه الدراسة تم دراسة التركيب المجهري للهيكل و الكائن الذي تم تجميعه من منطقة الشعاب في العين السخنة (خليج السويس البحر الاحمر). وقد استخدمت تقنية المجهر الالكتروني لدراسة وفهم حدث وتوزيع الميكر وفلورا التي من الممكن ان تسبب امراض لانواع المراجين وقد وجد ان لدى المستعمرات المجمعه الوان اما الميكر وفلورا التي من الممكن ان تسبب امراض لانواع المراجين . وقد وجد ان لدى المستعمرات المجمعه الوان اما ميكر وفلورا التي من الممكن ان تسبب امراض لانواع المراجين . وقد وجد ان لدى المستعمرات المجمعه الوان اما خضراء او بنيه للكائن. و ان كل كائن يعيش داخل كاس هيكلي يسمى corallite ديه مجموعه من الحواجز تحيط بفتحة دعضراء او بنيه للكائن. و ان كل كائن يعيش داخل كاس هيكلي يسمى corallite ديه مجموعه من الحواجز تحيط بفتحة وجد ان المسئول عن نمو سطح الحواجز هو ترسيب نوعين من البلورات التي الاراجونيت (بلورات حاده تكون على شكل سيني أورات من العد 6 ومضاعفاته (6 ابتدائية، 6 ثانوية، 24 وباعية، 24 وباعي شكل وجد ان المسئول عن نمو سطح الحواجز هو ترسيب نوعين من البلورات العار الاراجونيت (بلورات حاده تكون على شكل مغر ات) و الكالسيت (بلورات مغز لية). تلعب البلورات المغز لية دورا هيكليا وهاما في زيادة وتمديد الحواجز حيث انها من أسفرات) و الكالسيت (بلورات مغز لية). تلعب البلورات المغز لية دورا هيكليا وهاما في زيادة وتمديد الحواجز حيث انها مغر ات) و الكالسيت (بلورات مغز لية). تلعب البلورات المغز لية دورا هيكليا وهاما في زيادة وتمديد الحواجز حيث انها وجد ان لمسئول عن نمو سطح الحواجز هو ترسيب نوعين من البلورات العار الاراجونيت (بلورات حاده تكون على شكل مغر ت) و الكالسيت (بلورات مغز لية). تلعب البلورات المغز لية دورا هيكليا وهاما في زيادة وتمديد الحواجز حيث انها مغر أنها في زيادة وتمديد الحواجز حيث انها وجد ان ألمزات) و الكائسيت (بلورات مغز لية). تلعب البلورات المغز لية دورا هيكليا وهاما في زيادة وتمديد الحواجز وي تكون كالمورات المغربي وي ألمن في زيادة وتمديد الحواجز وي تكون نها فور أولون وي كل كالمور وي ألمزي وي ألمز وي ألمو ألمزي وي ألمون وي ألمون وي ألمورات المغربي وي كائس من ألموف وي ألمون وي كلمورون المغربي وي ألموي أولو ألموي ألموي وي أل