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2 **THE EFFICIENCY OF *Pistacia atlantica* GUM FOR INCREASING**  
3 **RESISTANCE OF RAPESEED OIL-HEAT TREATED WOOD TO**  
4 **FUNGAL ATTACKS**

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15 **ABSTRACT**

16 In this research, we used *Pistacia atlantica* gum during cooling phase of oil-heat treatment of  
17 poplar wood (*Populus deltoids*) to improve its resistance to the white-rot fungus *Trametes*  
18 *versicolor* and growth of the mold fungus *Penicillium expansum*. Thermal modification was  
19 carried out using rapeseed oil at 180 °C, 200 °C and 220 °C for 2 hours and 4 hours. The  
20 modified wood specimens were then directly cooled in the oil containing 0 %, 5 % and 10 %  
21 (w/w) of the gum at 25 °C for 30 minutes. The chemical constituents of the essential oil  
22 extracted with a Clevenger type apparatus were determined by chromatography–mass  
23 spectrometry (GC-MS). The amounts of  $\alpha$ -pinene,  $\beta$ -pinene and  $\alpha$ -terpinolene of the essential oil  
24 were 60,2 %, 8,7 % and 3,9 %, respectively. The mold resistance was greatly improved, while  
25 the improvement against the decay fungus was only observed for the specimens modified at 180  
26 °C. Our results confirmed that the enhanced fungal resistance was not only due to the presence of  
27 monoterpenes in the essential oil, but also to a further reduction in the hygroscopicity of the  
28 treated wood.

29 **Keywords:** Fungal resistance, oil-heat treated wood, *Penicillium expansum*, *Pistacia atlantica*,  
30 *Populus deltoids*, *Trametes versicolor*.

## 31 INTRODUCTION

32 Natural compounds of plants, such as essential oils, and extractives from very durable wood  
33 species, can be used as alternatives to harmful chemical preservatives for biological protection of  
34 wood (Pánek *et al.* 2014; Xie *et al.* 2017; Fernández-Costas *et al.* 2017, Zhang *et al.* 2016,  
35 Bahmani and Schmidt 2018). Essential oils are mostly composed of terpenes (e.g. mono-, di-  
36 and sesqui-terpenes), which have antimicrobial activity (Dhifi *et al.* 2016). So far, the potential  
37 uses of several essential oils from different parts of plants like *Syzygium aromaticum*, *Betula*  
38 *pendula*, *Lavandula angustifolia*, *Origanum vulgare*, *Acorus calamus*, *Satureja hortensis*, *Salvia*  
39 *officinalis*, *Melaleuca alternifolia*, *Thymus vulgaris* (Pánek *et al.* 2014), *Cymbopogon*  
40 *citratus*, *Pelargonium graveolens*, *Cinnamomum zeylanicum*, *Eugenia caryophyllata* (Xie *et al.*  
41 2017), *Eucalyptus camaldulensis*, *Pinus rigida* (Salem *et al.* 2016), *Cedrus atlantica* (Fidah *et al.*  
42 2016), *Artemisia monosperma*, *Cupressus sempervirens*, *Citrus limon*, *Thuja occidentalis*  
43 and *Schinus molle*, *Pelargonium graveolens* (Mohareb *et al.* 2013), *Cymbopogon winterianus*,  
44 *Eucalyptus globulus*, *Foeniculum vulgare*, *Ilium verum*, *Juniperus mexicana*, *Matricaria*  
45 *chamomilla*, *Melaleuca alternifolia*, *Melea arachdirachta*, *Mentha arvensis*, *Mentha piperita*,  
46 *Oenothera biennis*, *Trachyspermum copticum* (Bahmani and Schmidt 2018) have been  
47 investigated for protection of wood against mold and decay fungi.

48 *Pistacia atlantica* is a deciduous tree species which grows from Iranian plateau to North Africa.  
49 The exudate gum from the tree trunk which is rich in monoterpene hydrocarbons is used in  
50 pharmaceutical and food industries (Barrero *et al.* 2005, Benhammou *et al.* 2008). It was  
51 historically used by some philosophers such as Abu Ali Sina as a medicine for abdominal pain  
52 and stomach ulcers. The gum exudate is obtained by injuring the trunk using a sharp adze at the  
53 end of spring. The production process of the gum was described in detail by Ahmed (2017).

54 Antifungal and antibacterial properties of the essential oil extracted from different parts of *P.*  
55 *atlantica* tree (leaves, fruits and gum) have been reported in numerous previous works  
56 (Benhammou *et al.* 2008; Talebi *et al.* 2012; Habibi Najafi *et al.* 2014; Rezaie *et al.* 2015;  
57 Hamelian *et al.* 2018), but the question is whether the essential oil can improve the resistance to  
58 wood-decay fungi. Unlike molds, which generally feed on starch, simple sugars and proteins  
59 stored in the ray and axial parenchyma cells of sapwood, the decay fungi consume the cell wall  
60 components (i.e. cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin). Sadeghi *et al.* (2016) found that the gum,  
61 fruit and leaves essential oils of *Pistacia atlantica* subsp. *Kurdica* had insecticide activities  
62 against *Tribolium castaneum* (Herbst) (Coleoptera: Tenebrionidae) beetle. The insecticidal  
63 properties of the essential oils of this plant against *Callosobruchus maculatus* (Fabricius)  
64 (Coleoptera: Bruchidae) was also reported by Pourya *et al.* (2018).

65 Oil-heat treatment (OHT) is one of the most environmentally friendly methods of wood  
66 modification, which involves the heating of wood in oil at relatively high temperatures (usually  
67 180 °C to 260 °C). Thermal modification is well known to be effective in improving the  
68 dimensional stability and decay resistance of wood (Lee *et al.* 2018). Various vegetable oils with  
69 high thermal stability (e.g. linseed, canola, palm, soy and coconut oil) can be used for the  
70 modification. The oil provides a fast and uniform heat transfer in wood and prevents its oxidation  
71 by formation of a barrier between the wood and oxygen. The characteristics of oil-heat treated  
72 wood depend on several factors, such as oil temperature, wood species, period of heating and  
73 weight percent gain (Lee *et al.* 2018). Although oil heat treatment improves the resistance of  
74 wood against biodeterioration agents, the modified wood remains susceptible to decay fungi and  
75 molds. Therefore, some researchers have recently used several additives with oil to improve the  
76 performance of oil-heat treated wood (Lyona *et al.* 2007, Mohebbi *et al.* 2014). It was found that

77 impregnation of wood with a 1,0 % w/w boric acid solution prior to oil treatment reduced the  
78 leaching of the preservative, and improved the decay and termite resistance of the wood (Lyona  
79 *et al.* 2007). Mohebi *et al.* (2014) also improved the physico-mechanical properties of  
80 oleothermal modified fir wood by using soybean oil combined with maleic anhydride.

81 This study aimed to improve the resistance of oil-heat treated poplar wood to growth of the  
82 mold *Penicillium expansum* and the white-rot fungus *Trametes versicolor* by using *P. atlantica*  
83 gum during the cooling stage of the thermal modification process. Poplar is a fast-growing  
84 species that is widely used for the manufacture of a broad range of forest products. However,  
85 modification or preservative treatment is generally required to extend the service life of this non-  
86 durable wood.

## 87 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 88 **Materials**

89 A poplar tree species (*Populus deltoids* L.), growing in an experimental forest  
90 (Nowshahr, Mazandaran Province, Iran), belonging to University of Tehran was felled. Then, the  
91 sapwood specimens with dimensions required for each test were cut. *P. atlantica* gum with  
92 density of 1100 kg/m<sup>3</sup> and pH of 5 was prepared from Zagros forest located in Kurdistan  
93 province of Iran. Rapeseed oil with density of 920 kg/m<sup>3</sup> and dynamic viscosity of 0,078 Pa·s at  
94 20 °C was used for thermal modification. The oil was purchased from Zeyton Talaei Co. in  
95 Qazvin, Iran.

96 **Extraction of essential oil**

97 In order to determine the type and amount of components in the essential oil of *P. atlantica*, the  
98 oil was initially extracted from the gum by hydrodistillation method using a Clevenger type  
99 apparatus. For this purpose, 50 g of gum was heated with distilled water at the boiling  
100 temperature of about 100 °C for 2 hours. The extracted essential oil was subsequently dried over  
101 anhydrous sodium sulfate and stored in a dark glass inside a refrigerator at 4 °C until tested.

102 **Gas chromatography/mass spectrometry analysis**

103 Gas chromatography–mass spectrometry (5975C Series GC/MSD system) with column length of  
104 30 m and inside diameter (id) of 0,25 mm was used to identify the essential oil components.  
105 Helium gas was used as the carrier gas at a flow rate of 1 ml/min. The column temperature  
106 ranged from 45 °C to 250 °C at 3 °C/min.

107 **Attenuated total reflectance/Fourier transform infrared (ATR-FTIR) spectroscopy**

108 The chemical structure of the gum was also determined by Equinox 55 ATR-FTIR spectrometer  
109 (Bruker Optics GmbH, Ettlingen, Germany). The spectroscopy was carried out at the  
110 wavenumber of 400 cm<sup>-1</sup> to 4000 cm<sup>-1</sup> using 64 scans at a resolution of 4 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The obtained  
111 spectra were baseline corrected by the concave rubber band method and max–min normalized.

112 **Thermal modification**

113 Prior to thermal modification, the wood samples were conditioned at 20 °C and relative humidity  
114 (RH) of 65 % to 12 % moisture content (MC). Then, the specimens were immersed in a cylinder  
115 containing rapeseed oil. Thermal modification was carried out at 180 °C, 200 °C and 220 °C for  
116 2 hours and 4 hours. The cooling stage of the process was done in the rapeseed oil containing *P.*

117 *atlantica* gum at concentrations of 5 % and 10 % (w/w) at 25 °C for 30 minutes. After cooling,  
118 the temperature of the solution varied from 50 °C to 60 °C. The modified samples were dried at  
119 103 °C ± 2 °C for 24 hours and weighed to determine the weight percent gain (WPG).

## 120 **X-ray scanning**

121 The vertical density profile of the modified wood specimens was measured using a commercial  
122 X-ray scanner (Siempelkamp's Sicoscan, Germany) to determine the uniformity of the  
123 modification process. The specimens were prepared with dimensions of 50 mm × 50 mm × 50  
124 mm according to the instruction manual of the device. The measurements were performed by  
125 scanning across the thickness in the middle of the specimens.

## 126 **Moisture exclusion efficiency**

127 The oven-dried samples were placed in a conditioning room at 20 °C and 65 % RH for 3 weeks  
128 to determine the moisture exclusion efficiency (MEE) of the modified woods. The efficiency was  
129 determined by equation (1):

$$MEE = \frac{(E_u - E_m)}{E_u} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

130 where  $E_u$  and  $E_m$  are the equilibrium moisture content (EMC) of the control and modified woods.

## 131 **Decay test**

132 The resistance of the wood samples to the white-rot fungus *Trametes versicolor* (strain: CTB  
133 863A) was evaluated. The fungal strain was obtained from Wood Preservation Laboratory,  
134 Research Unit, BioWooEB, CIRAD, Montpellier, France. Wood blocks with dimensions of 15  
135 mm × 25 mm × 50 mm (L × R × T) were prepared according to European standard test method  
136 EN113 (CEN 1996). A uniform culture medium (malt extract agar, MEA) was prepared by  
137 adding 45 g of malt agar to 1000 ml of distilled water, followed by heating the solution for 15

138 minutes. Then, the medium was sterilized inside a steam autoclave at 120 °C for 20 minutes.  
139 Cubic glass containers with metal lids were used for fungal cultivation. Each container was  
140 filled with 70 ml of 4,8 % (w/v) malt agar solution. A 20-mm diameter hole was made on the  
141 glass lid and compressed cotton was placed inside the hole for the air exchange. One modified  
142 sample and one unmodified sample were placed inside each container. A plastic mesh was used  
143 to prevent the direct contact of the wood samples with the medium. Five replicates were used for  
144 each treatment. The specimens were incubated at 22 °C and 75 % RH for 16 weeks. After this  
145 period, they were removed from incubator, cleaned from the surface fungal mycelium and dried  
146 for 24 hours in an oven at  $103 \pm 2$  °C for 24 hours and the weight loss were finally calculated.

#### 147 **Mold resistance test**

148 Wood blocks with dimensions of 7 mm × 20 mm × 70 mm (T × R × L) were cut according to the  
149 American Society for Testing and Material D 4445-91 (ASTM 1996). Control samples were also  
150 prepared from freshly-cut boards with moisture content of about 60%. The strains of *Penicillium*  
151 *expansum* was provided from Department of Plant Protection at University of Tehran. The wood  
152 samples were sterilized in an autoclave at 120 °C for 20 minutes. Mold spore suspension was  
153 prepared by adding 10 ml of distilled water to petri dishes, containing mold spores. Eight filter  
154 papers sprayed with the distilled water were placed into each petri dish. Glass tubes with  
155 diameter of 3 mm were put under the wood specimens to prevent the direct contact of the  
156 specimens with the wet filter papers. The specimens were sprayed with 1ml of mold spore  
157 suspension and incubated at 25 °C and 70 % RH for 4 weeks. After this period, the mold  
158 coverage was visually determined on a scale of 0-5 and reported as 0 (free of mold growth), 1 (1  
159 % to 5 %), 2 (6 % to 25 %), 3 (26 % to 50 %), 4 (51 % to 75 %) and 5 with heavy mold growth

160 (mold coverage of 76 % to 100 %). Data analysis was done using SPSS software and the mean of  
161 data was compared using Duncan test at 5 % level.

## 162 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

### 163 **Chemical structure of *P. atlantica* essential oil**

164 The chemical components of *P. atlantica* essential oil are shown in Table 1.  $\alpha$ -pinene,  $\beta$ -pinene  
165 and  $\alpha$ -terpinolene were the most constituents of the oil with amount of 60,15 %, 8,68 % and 3,93  
166 %, respectively. The type and amount of chemical compounds of *P. atlantica* essential oil  
167 determined in this study were slightly different with those reported in some previous researches  
168 (Alma *et al.* 2004; Barrero *et al.* 2005; Salimi *et al.* 2011). Barro *et al.* (2005) identified the  $\alpha$ -  
169 pinene and  $\beta$ -pinene as the main components of the essential oil with amount of 42,9 % and 13.2  
170 %, respectively. These differences may be due to variation in tree species, sampling time, and  
171 growth conditions (Alma *et al.* 2004).

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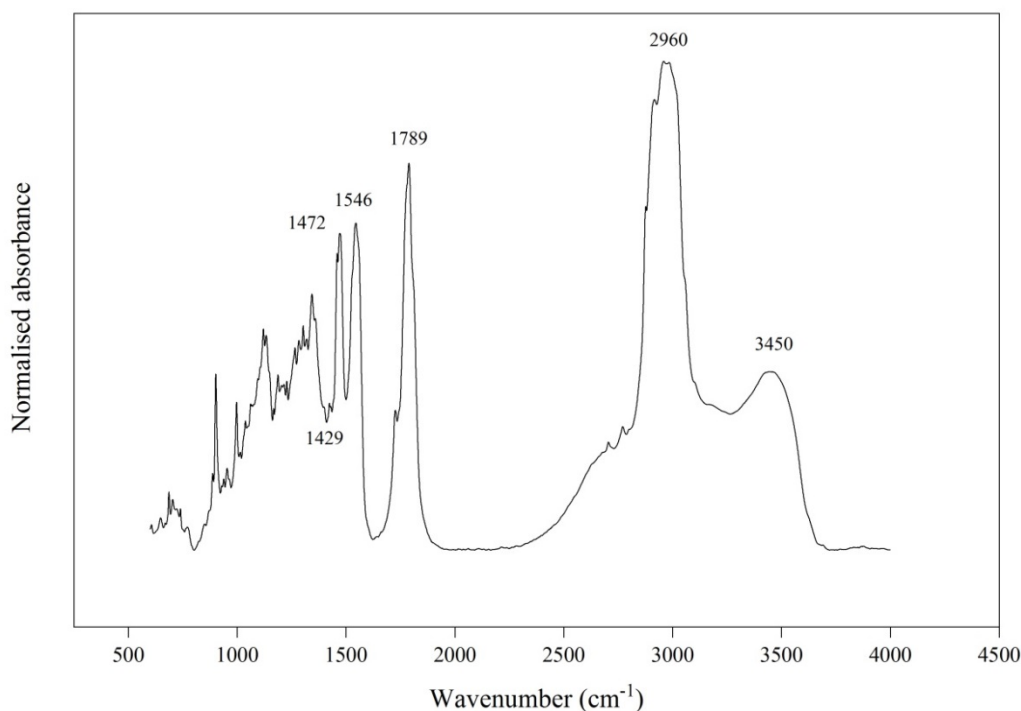


182 **Table 1:** Chemical composition of *P. atlantica* gum.

Chemical name	Molecular weight	Formula	CAS number	Percentage
$\alpha$ -pinene	136,13	C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>16</sub>	8-56-000080	60,15
$\beta$ -pinene	136,13	C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>17</sub>	3-91-000127	8,68
$\alpha$ -terpinolene	136,13	C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>16</sub>	9-62-000586	3,94
Trans-verbenol	152,12	C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>16</sub> O	3-09-001820	3,03
Del- limonene	163,13	C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>16</sub>	3-86-000138	2,67
P-mentha-1,5-dien-8-ol	152,12	C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>16</sub> O	0-20-001686	2,57
Pinocarveol, trans	152,12	C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>16</sub> O	5-61-000547	2,49
$\alpha$ -terpineol	154,14	C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>18</sub> O	5-55-000098	2,29
Camphene	136,13	C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>16</sub>	5-92-000079	1,99
$\beta$ -myrcene	136,12	C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>16</sub>	3-35-000123	1,70
$\alpha$ -bornyl acetate	196,15	C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>20</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	8-61-005655	1,65
1,8-cineole	154,14	C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>18</sub> O	6-82-000470	1,57
Camphor aldehyde	152,12	C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>16</sub> O	1-03-026882	1,32
Delta-3-carene	136,13	C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>16</sub>	9-78-013466	1,31
Hexane	86,11	C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>14</sub>	3-54-000110	1,24
Pi- mirsen	134,11	C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>14</sub>	6-87-000099	1,04
Mirtenol	152,12	C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>16</sub> O	4-00-000515	0,75
Trans-(+)carveol	152,12	C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>16</sub> O	5-07-001197	0,66
2-pinen-4-one	150,10	C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>14</sub> O	9-57-000080	0,55
Exo-2-hydroxycineole	212,14	C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>20</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	2-95-057709	0,41

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184 The FTIR spectrum of the gum is given in Figure 1. The peaks at wavenumbers of  $3450\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  
185  $2960\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $1789\text{ cm}^{-1}$  are related to the stretching vibration of O-H, C-H, and C=O,  
186 respectively. The absorption bands at wavenumbers of  $1429\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $1472\text{ cm}^{-1}$  are due to  
187 vibration of C-H group. The peak occurred in the wavenumber of  $1546\text{ cm}^{-1}$  is also caused by  
188 vibration of N-H and C=N.



189 **Figure 1:** ATR-FTIR spectrum of *P. atlantica* gum.

### 190 **Weight percent gain and moisture exclusion efficiency**

191 The oil-heat treatment yielded a WPG in the range of 60,7 % to 77,6 % (Figure 2). The WPG  
192 after thermal modification in oil was previously reported to be in the range of 50 % to 90 %,  
193 depending on the process variables (time and temperature) and wood species (Sailer *et al.* 2000;  
194 Lee *et al.* 2018). The weight of wood is normally reduced due to thermal degradation of the cell  
195 wall polymers; however, the amount of oil uptake during thermal modification with oil is much

196 more than the weight loss caused by the thermal degradation, resulting in the weight gain. The  
197 WPG increased by using *P. atlantica* gum, which was directly proportional to its concentration.  
198 In agreement with previous works (Lee *et al.* 2018), the WPG decreased by increasing the  
199 modification temperature from 180 °C to 220 °C when the cooling stage was carried out in the  
200 oil without *P. atlantica* gum. This can be due to further destruction of the wood cell wall  
201 compounds at higher temperatures. In contrast, the WPG was greater at higher temperatures  
202 when the specimens were cooled in the oil containing 5 % *P. atlantica* gum. It is believed that  
203 the oil is significantly absorbed during the cooling stage of the oil-heat treatment process due to  
204 the pressure gradient (Lee *et al.* 2018).

205 A uniform pattern of density profile for the modified wood specimens (Figure 3) indicates a  
206 roughly homogeneous thermal modification and oil uptake through the specimen thickness. As  
207 expected, thermal modification reduced the EMC of wood samples (Figure 4). The moisture  
208 exclusion efficiency is usually attributed to degradation of the cell wall polymers, reduction in  
209 the hydroxyl (OH) accessibility, polycondensation reactions in the lignin, and formation of  
210 thermal degradation products which reduce the microporosity of the cell walls (Esteves and  
211 Pereira 2009). The efficiency was also improved by using *P. atlantica* gum.

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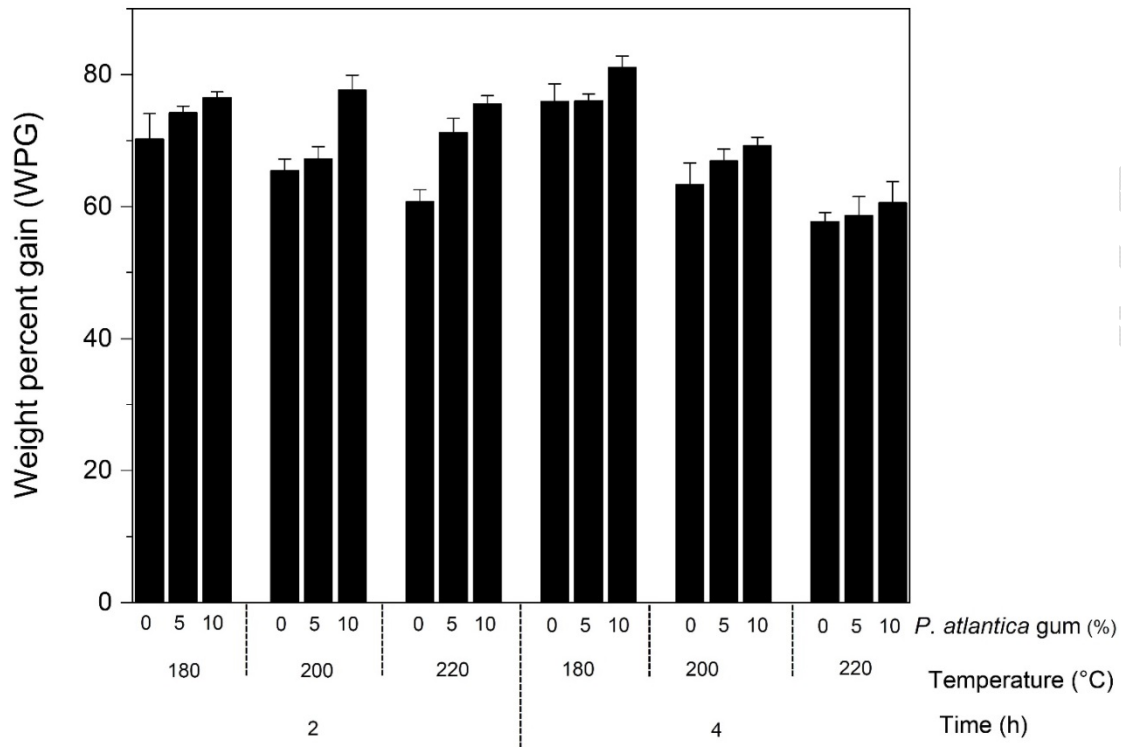
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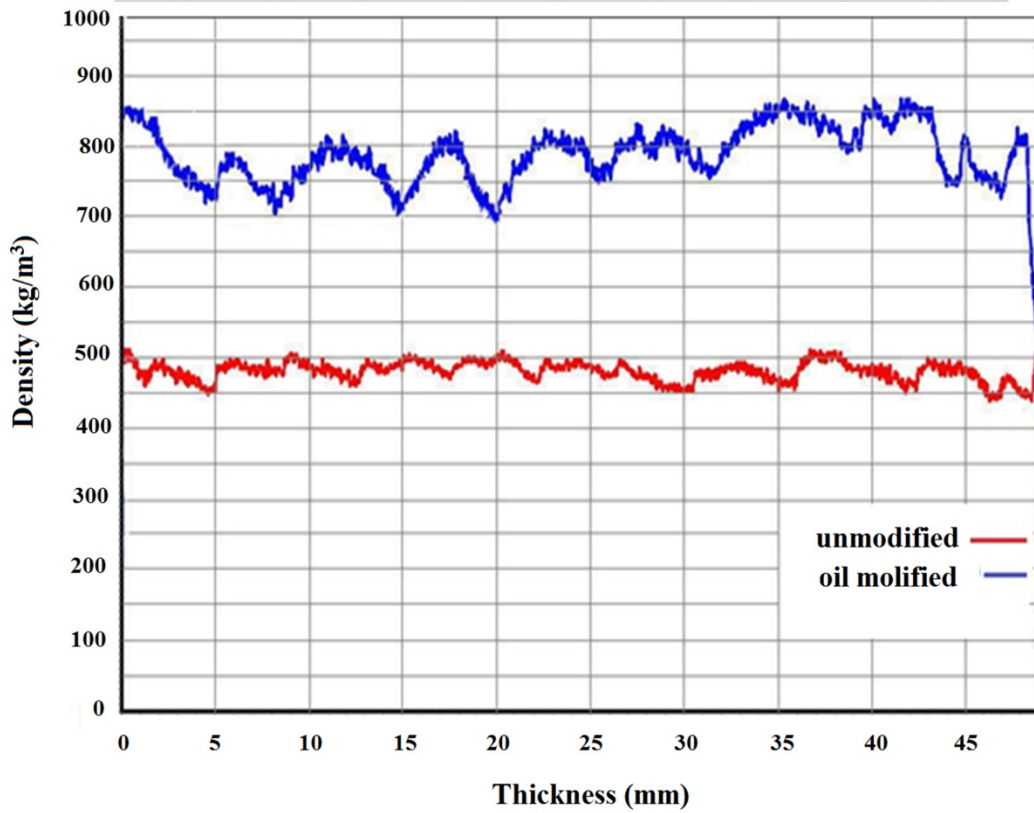
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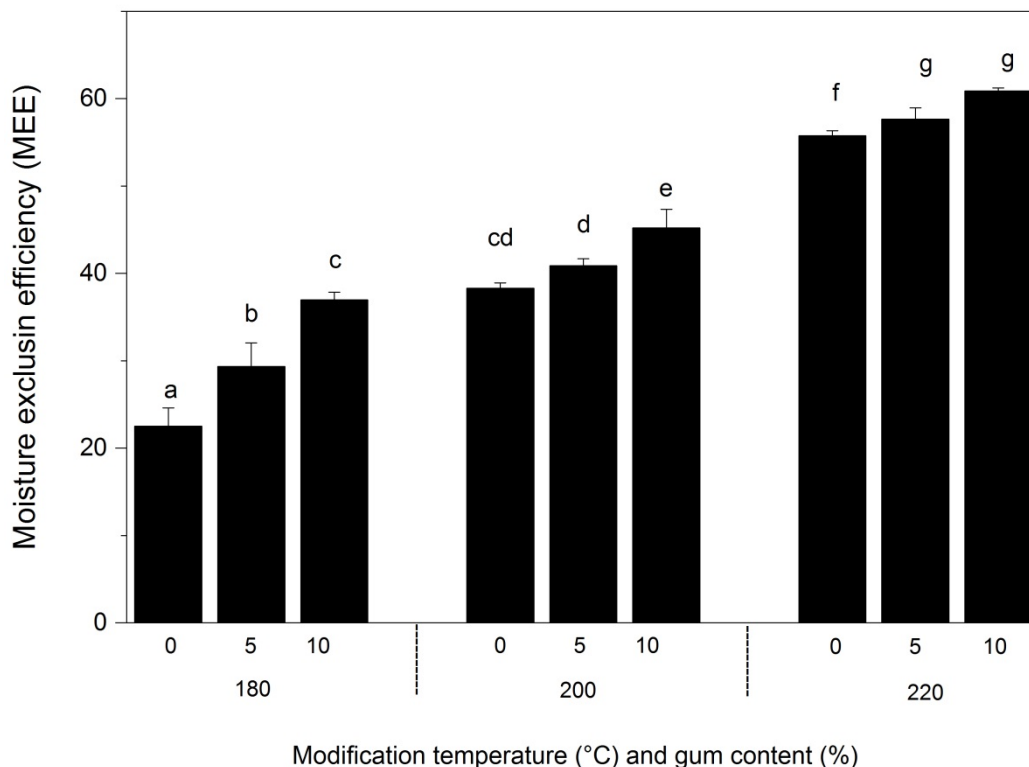
218 **Figure 2:** Weight percent gain (WPG) of the poplar wood samples after heat treatment with oil  
219 under different treatment conditions. Means with similar letters are not statistically significantly  
220 different ( $\alpha=5\%$ ) based on Duncan's multiple range test.

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222



223 **Figure 3:** Density profile across the thickness of the control (unmodified) and oil-heat treated  
224 poplar wood (treatment condition: 200 °C, 2 h).



225 **Figure 4:** Moisture exclusion efficiency of the poplar wood specimens modified at different  
226 temperatures and *P. atlantica* gum contents for 2 hours. Means with similar letters are not  
227 statistically significantly different ( $\alpha=5\%$ ) based on Duncan's multiple range test.

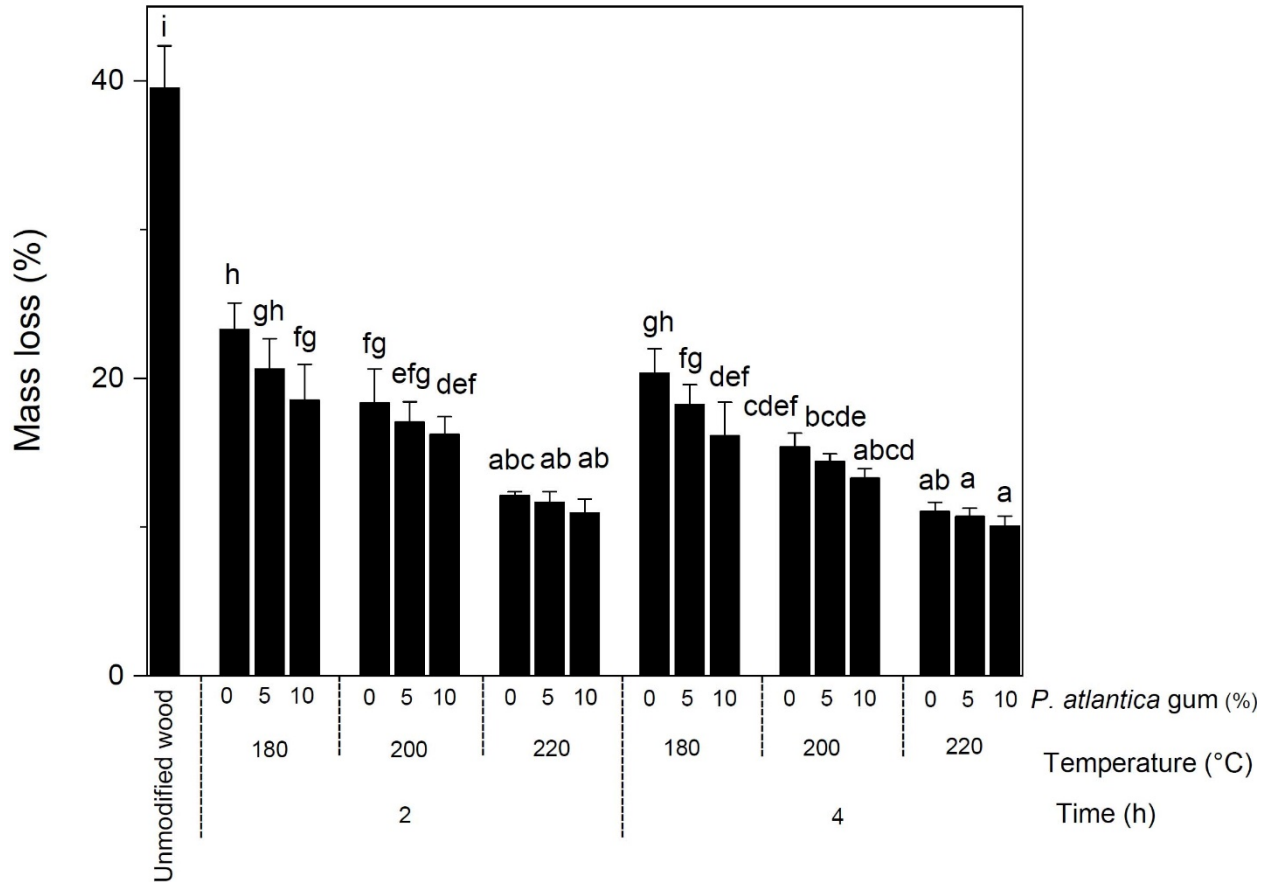
#### 228 Fungal resistance

229 Results showed that resistance of the wood samples to *Trametes versicolor* was improved by oil  
230 heat treatment (Figure 5). The improvement in the fungal resistance of wood by thermal  
231 modification can be explained by the bulking effects, reduction in the accessible hydroxyl (OH)  
232 groups and moisture content (Esteves and Pereira 2009; Hill 2006; Thybring 2013). Various  
233 toxic extractives, such as phenolic compounds are formed due to thermal modification, which  
234 can reduce the fungal growth until they remain in the modified wood. Diffusion of low molecular  
235 weight degradative agents within the cell walls is the most likely mechanism responsible for  
236 wood decay during initial biodegradation (Schmidt 2006). The presence of water in the cell walls

237 is essential for such a diffusion process. A reduction in the cell wall moisture content caused by  
238 thermal modification limits the diffusion rate (Esteves and Pereira 2009; Thybring 2013).  
239 Changes in the crystallinity of wood due to thermal modification can be another factor in  
240 controlling the natural durability of the modified wood (Esteves and Pereira 2009). In agreement  
241 with previous findings (Esteves and Pereira 2009; Calonego *et al.* 2010; Lee *et al.* 2018), our  
242 results showed that the decay resistance was improved by increasing the temperature of thermal  
243 modification from 180 °C to 220 °C. Hakkou *et al.* (2006) also reported a strong correlation  
244 between the temperature of thermal modification and fungal durability of heat-treated beech  
245 wood to *T. versicolor*. We found no improvement in the decay resistance by increasing the  
246 modification time. The decay resistance of wood specimens modified at 180 °C was slightly  
247 improved by using *P. atlantica* gum. The improving effect can be due to monoterpenes of the  
248 gum that have antifungal activity (Mohareb *et al.* 2013). However, at higher modification  
249 temperatures, i.e. 200 °C and 220 °C, the use of *P. atlantica* gum was not effective in improving  
250 the decay resistance. Bahmani and Schmidt (2018) showed the inhibition of surface colonization  
251 of *Fagus orientalis* wood samples by the oils from *Cytopogon winterianus*, *Lavandula*  
252 *angustifolia*, *Thymus vulgaris* and *Trachyspermum copticum*.

253 Mold resistance of the specimens was also improved after oil heat treatment. The improvement  
254 was more pronounced at higher temperatures (Figure 6). This is mainly due to reduction in the  
255 hygroscopicity of wood after heat treatment (Ahmed *et al.* 2017). On the other hand, similar to  
256 what was observed with the decay resistance, the growth of mold was not significantly affected  
257 by increasing the heat treatment duration from 2 hours to 4 hours. According to the classification  
258 system of mold attacks (Waals *et al.* 2003), all oil heat-treated specimens were in the same class

259 of the mold growth. The control specimens with 76 % to 100 % mold coverage were in class 5,  
 260 while the modified specimens with 51 % to 75 % mold coverage were in class 4.



261 **Figure 5:** Mass loss of the control and oil heat-treated poplar wood specimens due to  
 262 degradation by *Trametes versicolor*. Means with similar letters are not statistically significantly  
 263 different ( $\alpha=5\%$ ) based on Duncan's multiple range test.

264 Although the oil heat treatment improved the mold resistance, the modified woods were not  
 265 completely safe from the mold attack. Unlike decay fungi that feed on the cell wall compounds,  
 266 molds feed on the stored starches, sugars and proteins, and thus the cell wall alteration caused by  
 267 thermal modification has little influence on the mold control. Thus, it is recommended to use  
 268 mold-resistant coatings for protection of thermally modified wood against molds. Boonstra *et al.*  
 269 (2007) also found that the heat-treated radiata pine and Norway spruce were susceptible to mold

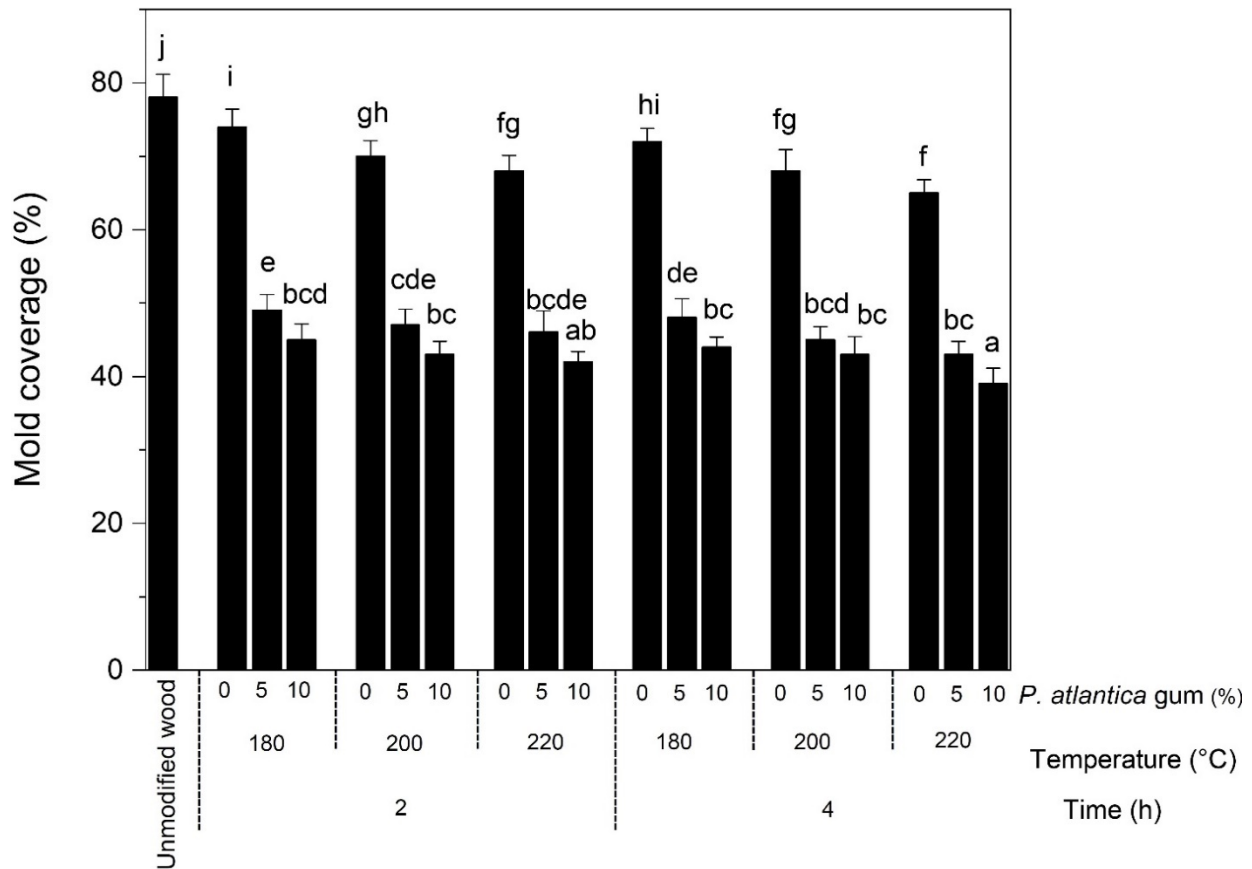


270 growth due to formation of some thermal degradation products like surges. The addition of *P.*  
271 *atlantica* gum to the rapeseed oil significantly reduced the mold coverage. All wood specimens  
272 treated by using *P. atlantica* gum with mold coverage of 26 % to 50 % were in class 3. However,  
273 the gum could not completely prevent the mold growth. The enhanced mold resistance is due to  
274 the antimicrobial properties of the gum, along with the improved moisture exclusion efficiency  
275 of the modified wood. Antifungal efficiency of *P. atlantica* essential oil against *Penicillium*  
276 *italicum* (Talibi *et al.* 2012), *Aspergillus niger*, *Aspergillus flavus*, *Aspergillus fumigatus* (Shialy  
277 *et al.* 2015), *Rhizopus stolonifer*, *Trichoderma sp* and *Fusarium sp* (Benhammou *et al.* 2008) was  
278 also previously reported. Schmidt and Bahmani (2018) showed complete growth inhibition of *A.*  
279 *niger* and *P. commune* on *Pinus taeda* wood samples by the oils from *Cytopogon winterianus*,  
280 *Lavandula angustifolia* and *Thymus vulgaris* and additionally by *Trachsporum copticum* oil on  
281 *Fagus orientalis* samples.

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286 **Figure 6:** Mold resistance of the control and oil heat-treated poplar wood. Means with similar  
287 letters are not statistically significantly different ( $\alpha=5\%$ ) based on Duncan's multiple range test.

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## 290 CONCLUSIONS

291 We found that the *P. atlantica* gum had more pronounced effect on the mold growth of the oil-  
292 heat treated wood than the decay resistance. The improvement can be due to the presence of  
293 monoterpenes such as  $\alpha$ -pinene,  $\beta$ -pinene and  $\alpha$ -terpinolene in the *P. atlantica* essential oil as  
294 well as a further increase in the moisture exclusion efficiency of the treated wood. The results of  
295 this study also showed that increasing the heat-treatment temperature was more successful than

296 increasing the heat-treatment time to improve the resistance of the oil-heat treated wood to the  
297 fungal attacks. Considering the high amount of  $\alpha$ -pinene and  $\beta$ -pinene in the *P. atlantica*  
298 essential oil, study on its efficiency for preservation of wood against wood-destroying insects is  
299 recommended.

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