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1 **Assessment of Ni accumulation capability for a possible approach to remove metals from soils**
2 **and waters.**

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29 **ABSTRACT**

30 Abandoned industrial sites and mines may constitute possible hazards for surrounding environment due to
31 the presence of toxic compounds that may contaminate soils and waters. The possibility to remove metal
32 contaminants, specifically nickel (Ni), by means of fungi was presented exploiting a set of fungal strains
33 isolated from a Ligurian dismissed mine. The achieved results demonstrate the high Ni(II) tolerance up to
34 500 mg Ni l⁻¹, and removal capability of *Trichoderma harzianum* Rifai. strain. This latter hyperaccumulates
35 up to 11,000 mg Ni kg⁻¹ suggesting its possible use in a bioremediation protocol to provide a sustainable
36 reclamation of broad contaminated areas.

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39 **KEYWORDS:** Mycoremediation, hyperaccumulation, metals, pollution, *Trichoderma harzianum*.

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42 **1. INTRODUCTION**

43 Abandoned industrial sites and mines may constitute possible hazardous for surrounding environment due to
44 the presence of toxic metal compounds that may contaminate soils and waters.

45 As a matter of fact, the European Environment Agency (EEA 2014) evaluates that contaminated sites will
46 rise 50% up to 2025 and around 340,000 sites will possibly need urgent remediation. Conventional
47 technologies for metal-contaminated soil remediation are often expensive and disruptive (SOER 2010).
48 Thirteen trace metals and metalloids (specifically, Ag, As, Be, Cd, Cr, Cu, Hg, Ni, Pb, Sb, Se, Tl, and Zn)
49 are considered priority pollutants (Gadd 2010; Brzostowski *et al.*, 2011). Among these, Ni occurs naturally
50 in the environment, often combined with iron and sulphur, and it also has many industrial uses and
51 anthropogenic sources (e.g. industrial waste materials, lime, fertilizer, and sewage sludge) that may
52 contaminate the environment (Sharma and Agrawal 2005; Kabata-Pendias and Mukherjee 2007), mainly
53 soils (Abedin 2014). Furthermore, this metal represents a threat to the human health. Soluble Ni salts and
54 mixture of Ni sulphides and oxides from refinery dust are carcinogenic to the lung and nasal tissues (EA
55 2009). Conventional metal removal technologies include filtration, ion exchange, osmosis, chemical
56 oxidation, reduction and precipitation, membrane technologies and evaporation recovery (Ahluwalia and

57 Goyal 2007). These processes are extremely expensive, and in most cases ineffective (e.g. removal of 1-100
58 mg l⁻¹ of metals from wastewaters) (Moore *et al.* 2008). Table 1 lists the main remediation technologies, the
59 related costs and application fields.

60 Recently, biological treatments, like metals biosorption or bioaccumulation, increased being cheap and
61 highly efficient (Moore *et al.* 2008). Many microbial species, such as bacteria and fungi (including yeasts),
62 are known to accumulate or adsorb metals (Johnson and du Plessis 2015). In extreme environments, fungi
63 play a key role in biogeochemical cycles since they represent the major component of soil biota, especially
64 owing to their polymorphism and reproduction by spores (SOER 2010). Some fungi can be defined as
65 extremophil microorganisms, which can survive and grow in strong metal-contaminated substrates. This
66 capacity is due to some proteins called metallothioneins and phytochelatins, which bind and deactivate toxic
67 metals (Anahid *et al.* 2011). These characteristics make fungi able to perform an efficient sustainable
68 remediation of metals. In this context, Johnson (2014) defined biomining as a cheap and feasible technology
69 to extract metals and remediate contaminated industrial sites using biological systems. Furthermore, the use
70 of fungal accumulation allows both metal extraction (mycoextraction) from ores or waste materials and
71 metal recovery (mycomining) from fungal biomass (Roccotiello *et al.* 2015). Mycomining could also allow
72 the reuse of a raw material in the industry adopting metal reintegration. Ni has a relatively high price,
73 estimated of US \$ 10,000 per ton (www.lme.com). The Ni price fluctuation is similar to many other metals
74 (<http://www.infomine.com>). The application of a on-site, full-scale, mycomining requires first providing
75 scientific evidence via laboratory and large-scale experiment, most of which is still missing.

76 In this context our work was aimed at identifying and selecting native microfungus strains able to efficiently
77 bioaccumulate Ni via mycoextraction, which can be exploited for sustainable environmental remediation in
78 the future.

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80 **Table 1** Overview on the costs and fields of application of the traditional remediation and bioremediation techniques.

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84 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

85 **2.1. Fungal isolation and screening test**

86 A set of fungi, including *Aspergillus alliaceus* Thom & Church, *Trichoderma harzianum* Rifai., *Eurotium*
87 *amstelodami* L. Mangin and *Clonostachys rosea* (Link) Schroers, was collected from the abandoned Libiola
88 Cu-Fe sulphide mine (NW Italy), identified and stored in the culture collection of Mycological Laboratory of
89 DISTAV (University of Genoa, Italy) (Zotti *et al.* 2014). Then, a screening test for Ni-tolerance was carried
90 out to select the fungal strains able to survive at high toxic Ni concentrations. The microfungal strains were
91 cultivated on malt extract agar (MEA) in test tubes. The strains were tested using a modified medium
92 prepared adding different NiSO₄ · 6H₂O (SIGMA) concentrations (0; 100; 200; 400; 800 mg Ni l⁻¹) in the
93 MEA solutions. These concentrations were chosen in the range of the European law limits for soil metals
94 (CE 1986; Legislative Decree 2006), exceeding the highest limits in the screening test. All the media were
95 sterilized by autoclaving (121°C, 20 min) and then inoculated with 0.5 ml fungal solutions, which were
96 prepared by diluting conidia of each fungal strain in a semisolid suspension of 5 ml Tween 80 (polysorbitan
97 80). The conidia were counted using a Burkner chamber to quantify the inocula (8 × 10⁵ conidia ml⁻¹). After
98 12 days of incubation at 24°C in the dark, the most Ni-tolerant fungal strain with fastest growth was selected
99 to the further Ni bioaccumulation tests.

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101 **2.2. Ni(II) mycoaccumulation test**

102 The NiSO₄ · 6H₂O enriched solid media and the control medium were prepared (Ni 0; 100; 200; 400 mg Ni l⁻¹)
103 ¹) to evaluate the Ni(II) uptake capability of the selected fungal strain. Sterilized microporous cellulose
104 acetate membrane (BioRad) was placed on each Petri dish and inoculated with 0.5 ml fungal Tween 80
105 solution. These membranes assure the mycelia isolation from solid media. The experiments were conducted
106 in triplicate.

107 After 14 days of incubation at 24°C in the dark, fungal biomass was removed by a sterile plastic scraper and
108 dried at 60°C, 48 h. Fresh and dry fungal biomasses were weighted for each Ni(II) concentration to evaluate
109 the strain ability to grow under different Ni(II) concentrations.

110 Dry mycelia were analyzed by the ALS Analytical Lab (Sweden) in order to quantify Ni concentration in
111 biomass.

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113 **2.3. Total Ni(II) concentration in fungi**

114 The total Ni concentrations of the dry mycelia were analyzed by Inductively Coupled Plasma-Mass
115 Spectrometry (ICP-MS) at ALS Analytical Lab (Sweden). The ICP-MS detects metals and several non-
116 metals at concentrations as low as one part in 10 (ppt) (Anahid *et al.* 2011). This is achieved by ionizing the
117 sample to separate and quantify ions (Jenner *et al.* 1990). The Ni concentration was measured in triplicate for
118 quality measurement assurance and the percentage coefficients of relative standard deviation were below
119 10%, reaching maximum values of about 25% only for those concentrations close to the detection limit of
120 the element.

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122 **2.4. Data analysis**

123 The fungal ability to cope with Ni was expressed with Tolerance Index (TI) (Fomina *et al.* 2005; Crane *et al.*
124 2010):

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126 $TI = (\text{Dry Weight (DW) of treated mycelium} / \text{Dry Weight (DW) of control mycelium}) \times 100$

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128 The mobility of Ni(II) from culture medium to mycelium was evaluated by means of the Bioconcentration
129 Factor (BCF), i.e., the ratio between the element concentration in the organism and the element concentration
130 in the surrounding environment (García *et al.* 2009). Microfungi are able to bioconcentrate (BCF > 1) or to
131 exclude (BCF < 1) specific metal ions from their cells.

132 The statistical analyses were performed using Statistica 8.0 (Statsoft Inc.) software.

133 The TI and BCF variability at different Ni(II) concentrations were evaluated by means of one-way ANOVA.
134 A post-hoc Tuckey's Honest Significant Difference (HSD) test was performed to evaluate the data
135 significance. The level of significance was considered at $P < 0.05$.

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140 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

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142 Table 2 shows the results of the growing test of the isolated fungal strains at different Ni concentrations. 3
143 Petri dishes were used to evaluate the accumulation capability for each strain and Ni concentration for a total
144 of 48 dishes (samples). The test highlighted that *Trichoderma harzianum* is the most Ni-tolerant strain with
145 the fastest growth (highest biomass after 2 week, data not shown). Hence, *T. harzianum* was employed in the
146 Ni bioaccumulation test. However, the end point concentration (800 mg Ni l⁻¹) was not tested since it did not
147 allow mycelia maturation in the test.

148 The ICP-MS results of *T. harzianum* dried biomass are summarized in Figure 1. Data, reported in a
149 logarithmic scale, showed a significant Ni accumulation capability, which increases at higher Ni(II)
150 concentrations (Figure 1) ($P < 0.05$). Conversely, the biomass weight showed no significant difference
151 between control and treatments (mean \pm SD, Ni0: 1.6 \pm 0.41 g; Ni100: 1.7 \pm 0.33 g; Ni200: 1.6 \pm 0.35 g; Ni400:
152 1.6 \pm 0.30 g; $P > 0.05$).

153 The Ni bioaccumulation test highlighted the highest Ni(II) uptake by *Trichoderma harzianum* with respect to
154 the other native microfungi *Aspergillus alliaceus*, *Eurotium amstelodami*, and *Clonostachys rosea*, known to
155 uptake other ecotoxic metals (Joseph *et al.* 2011; Ceci *et al.* 2012; Gazem and Nazareth 2013). *Trichoderma*
156 species are highly resistant to a wide variety of toxins, xenobiotic compounds, and metals (Harman *et al.*
157 2004; Wang and Wang 2013). Specifically, some studies showed the high metal tolerance and uptake of
158 *Trichoderma harzianum* for the lanthanides (i.e., Cd, Zn, Hg) (Krantz-Rülcker *et al.* 1993), and high Ni
159 tolerance (Kredics *et al.* 2001). However, none is reported for Ni mycoextraction in *T. harzianum*. Some
160 studies investigated and tested Ni(II) uptake by several fungal species (i.e. *Aspergillus niger* – Magyarosy *et al.*
161 *al.* 2002; *Penicillium oxalicum* – Abedin 2014; *Candida* sp. - Dönmez and Aksu 2001). However, Dönmez
162 and Aksu (2001) evaluated that *Candida* sp. growth was severely inhibited by 500 mg Ni l⁻¹.

163 Table 3 reports TI and BCF mean values. TI is strongly high and does not show any significant difference
164 between control and treatments ($P > 0.05$). The BCF values are always very higher than 1 for each Ni
165 concentration and show no significant difference among treatments (Table 3) ($P > 0.05$).

166 Our study proves the ability of *Trichoderma harzianum* to live and uptake Ni(II) at metal concentration
167 usually considered toxic (400 mg Ni l⁻¹). The TI and BCF values supported this finding and showed a high
168 fungal tolerance to Ni(II), which increased over time. ICP-MS results revealed also a high and exponential

169 Ni bioaccumulation capability (maximum 11,000 mg Ni kg⁻¹), and a high biomass growth. These results
170 highlight the great role that this *T. harzianum* strain may have in Ni removal and recovery. Extremophile
171 organisms like native fungi from contaminated or metalliferous sites can represent the turning point to a new
172 and sustainable remediation concept (Zotti *et al.* 2014; Roccotiello *et al.* 2015). Ni mycoextraction by *T.*
173 *harzianum* may be employable in a removal protocol useful for both soil and water restoration, and Ni
174 recovery while respecting ecosystem biodiversity and stability. Furthermore, mycoextraction could allow Ni
175 recycling and Ni reinsertion on the market via mycomining. While the majority of research in the last two
176 decades was focused on phytomining (Brooks *et al.* 1998; Chaney *et al.* 2007; Van der Ent *et al.* 2015) little
177 information is available about mycoextraction and its potential exploitation for mycomining. Metal removal
178 by means of fungi from soils and waters is less energy intensive processes than conventional ones and can
179 strongly reduce costs for the industry. Indeed, *T. harzianum* is able to actively accumulate up to 1.1% Ni kg⁻¹
180 DW and can remove Ni from soils up to 1 m deep even with a slower but more prolonged growth with
181 respect of the one of bacteria. We can estimate an operating cost comparable with biohydrometallurgy (i.e.
182 10-70 \$/t) with a biomass yield of 11 kg Ni/t, with a possible net yield of 60 US \$/t.
183 In addition some mining waste as ore deposit or some degraded lands may not be remediated with
184 conventional approaches. Metal removal by fungi can provide a cost effective alternative to conventional
185 remediation techniques.
186 However much research remains to be carried out, in order to estimate the actual value of this removal
187 technology. Surely, the selection of the Ni mycoaccumulator *Trichoderma harzianum* strain represents the
188 first step to an economic self-sufficient, sustainable remediation system.

189
190 **Table 2** Screening of isolated fungal strains at different Ni concentrations (0, 100, 200, 400, 800 respectively).
191 Experiments were conducted in triplicate to evaluate the accumulation capability for each strain and Ni concentration
192 for a total amount of 48 dishes (samples). The sign plus (“+”) indicates that the strain grew during the test.

193 **Table 3** Summary of *Trichoderma harzianum* ability to tolerate (TIs = (DW of treated mycelium/DW of control
194 mycelium) × 100) and bioconcentrate (BCFs= [Ni_{fungi}] / [Ni_{medium}]) Ni(II) at different Ni treatments (0, 100, 200, 400
195 mg Ni l⁻¹, respectively). Means ± SD (n=12).

196 **Figure 1** Ni(II) accumulation capability by *T. harzianum* (dried biomass) at different Ni treatment (0, 100, 200, 400,
197 respectively). Means ± SD (n=12), data on Ni(II) accumulation are reported on a log scale.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest related to this work.

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318 **Table 1** Overview on the costs and fields of application of the traditional remediation and bioremediation techniques.

Technique	Localization	Pollutant type	Method	Intervention	Environmental matrix	Cost	Reference
Separation pollutant is separated from polluted matrix and treated	<i>In situ</i>	Inorganic and organic compounds	Chemical-physical	dual phase extraction; sieving	Soil; Soil -Water; subsoil; groundwater	250-500 \$/t	Bertelle and Beretta 2009; Bortone <i>et al.</i> 2013
				pump & treat	Groundwater	1-5 \$/t	
				soil flushing	Topsoil	13-136 \$/t	Khan <i>et al.</i> 2004
		Metals Cu, Zn, Cd, Pb, U, Fe, Ni, Ag, Th, Ra	Biological	biohydrometallurgy (bacteria and fungi)	water, leachate	10-70 \$/t	Poulin and Lawrence 1996
				Biosorption by alive or dead fungal cells (e.g <i>Aspergillus niger</i> , <i>A. oryzae</i> , <i>Penicillium chrysogenum</i> , <i>P. spinulosum</i> , <i>Saccaromyces</i>	Wastewaters	1000-5000 \$/t	Bishnoi and Garima 2005

cerevisiae, Rhizopus nigricans, R. arrhizus, Mucor rouxii)

Metals Ag, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Hg, Mn, Mo, Ni, Pb, Zn radionuclide (⁹⁰ Sr, ¹³⁷ Cs, ²³⁹ Pu, ^{238,234} U)	Phytoextraction (e.g. <i>Brassica juncea, Thlaspi caerulescens, Helianthus annuus, Alyssum sp., Populus sp.</i>)	Soil, sediment, sludge	25-100 \$/t	EPA 2000a; Khan <i>et al.</i> 2004
Inorganic and organic compounds	soil washing	Soil	170 \$/t	Khan <i>et al.</i> 2004
Inorganic compound	Bioleaching (bacteria and fungi)	water and waste stream	40 \$/t	Brown 1999; Harvey and Bath 2007
Fe, Cu, Zn, Au	Biomining by bacteria (<i>At. ferrooxidans</i> and <i>At. thiooxidans</i>)	waste stream	40 \$/t	Brown 1999; Harvey and Bath 2007
Au, Pt, Ag, Pd	Biomining by fungi (<i>Aspergillus niger, Cladosporium cladosporoides, Mucor rouxii,</i>	aqueous solutions	-	Das 2010

Rhizopus arrhizus)

		Metals, radionuclides		Rhizofiltration	Water, groundwater	10-35 \$/t	Schnoor 1998
	<i>Ex situ</i>	Inorganic and organic compounds	Chemical- physical	soil washing	Soil	130-140 \$/t 42- 115 \$/t physical separation 240- 1025 \$/t Chemical extraction	FRTR 2007; Dermont 2008; Bertelle and Beretta 2009
				solvent extraction	Soil	360-440 \$/t	Schnoor 1998
Transformation	<i>In situ</i>	Se, Hg, As, chlorinated solvents	Biological	Phytovolatilization (e.g. <i>Populus</i> sp., <i>Medicago sativa</i> , <i>Robinia</i> <i>pseudoacacia</i> , <i>Brassica juncea</i>)	Soil, sediment, sludge, water, groundwater	25-100 \$/t	EPA 2000a
Pollutant is transformed into less toxic/harmless substances	<i>Ex situ</i>	Inorganic and organic compounds	Chemical- physical	Chemical treatment; inerting	Soil	360-600 \$/t	EPA 2000b
Immobilization	<i>In situ</i>	Mainly inorganic compounds	Chemical- physical	solidification; containment	Soil	240-340 \$/t	Schnoor 1998
Pollutant is immobilized into a matrix or via		Inorganic and	Thermal	Vitrification	Soil	110 \$/t	Khan <i>et al.</i>

transformation into less mobile substances	organic compounds					2004
	As, Cd, Cr, Cu, Hg, Pb, Zn	Biological	Phytostabilization (e.g. <i>Brassica juncea</i> , <i>Populus</i> sp., etc.)	Soil, sediment, sludge	0.01-0.6 \$/t	EPA 2000a
	<i>Ex situ</i> Inorganic and organic compounds	Thermal	Vitrification	Soil	50-200 \$/t	Khan <i>et al.</i> 2004
	Mainly inorganic compounds	Chemical-physical	Solidification	Soil	145-600 \$/t	EPA 2000b

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322 **Table 2** Screening of isolated fungal strains at different Ni concentrations (0, 100, 200, 400, 800 respectively).

323 Experiments were conducted in triplicate to evaluate the accumulation capability for each strain and Ni concentration

324 for a total amount of 48 dishes (samples). The sign plus (“+”) indicates that the strain grew during the test.

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Strain	Treatments (mg Ni l ⁻¹)				
	0	100	200	400	800
<i>Aspergillus alliaceus</i>	+	+	+	-	-
<i>Clonostachys rosea</i>	+	+	+	-	-
<i>Eurotium amstelodami</i>	+	+	-	-	-
<i>Trichoderma harzianum</i>	+	+	+	+	+

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327 **Table 3** Summary of *Trichoderma harzianum* ability to tolerate (TIs = (DW of treated mycelium/DW of control328 mycelium) × 100) and bioconcentrate (BCFs= [Ni_{fungi}] / [Ni_{medium}]) Ni(II) at different Ni treatments (0, 100, 200, 400329 mg Ni l⁻¹, respectively). Means ± SD (n=12).

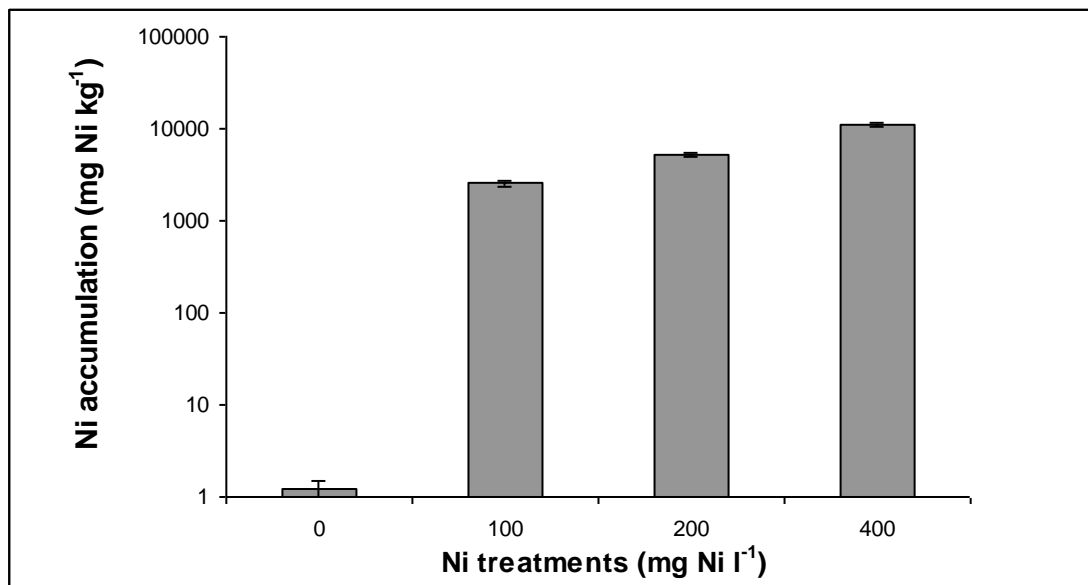
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Treatments (mg Ni l ⁻¹)	TI (%)	BCF
0	100	-
100	104.6 ± 9.7	25.4 ± 2.4
200	102.4 ± 11.1	26.0 ± 0.8
400	101.8 ± 7.1	27.3 ± 1.4

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333 **Figure 1** Ni(II) accumulation capability by *T. harzianum* (dried biomass) at different Ni treatment (0, 100, 200, 400,
334 respectively). Means \pm SD ($n=12$), data on Ni(II) accumulation are reported on a log scale.
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