



Bioremediation potential of Cd by transgenic yeast expressing a metallothionein gene from Populus trichocarpa

Article

Accepted Version

Creative Commons: Attribution-Noncommercial-No Derivative Works 4.0

De Oliveira, V. H., Ullah, I., Dunwell, J. M. and Tibbett, M. (2020) Bioremediation potential of Cd by transgenic yeast expressing a metallothionein gene from *Populus trichocarpa*. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety*, 202. 110917. ISSN 0147-6513 doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoenv.2020.110917> Available at <http://centaur.reading.ac.uk/91328/>

It is advisable to refer to the publisher's version if you intend to cite from the work. See [Guidance on citing](#).

To link to this article DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoenv.2020.110917>

Publisher: Elsevier

All outputs in CentAUR are protected by Intellectual Property Rights law,

including copyright law. Copyright and IPR is retained by the creators or other copyright holders. Terms and conditions for use of this material are defined in the [End User Agreement](#).

www.reading.ac.uk/centaur

CentAUR

Central Archive at the University of Reading

Reading's research outputs online

1 **Bioremediation potential of Cd by transgenic yeast expressing a**
2 **metallothionein gene from *Populus trichocarpa***

3
4 Authors: Vinicius Henrique **DE OLIVEIRA**^{a,1}, Ihsan **ULLAH**^a, Jim M. **DUNWELL**^a, Mark
5 **TIBBETT**^{a,b*}

6
7 ^a School of Agriculture, Policy and Development, University of Reading, Earley Gate,
8 Reading, RG6 6AR, UK.

9 ^b Department of Sustainable Land Management & Soil Research Centre, University of
10 Reading, RG6 6AR, UK

11 ¹ Present address: Department of Plant Biology, Institute of Biology, University of Campinas,
12 Campinas, Sao Paulo 13083-970, Brazil

13
14 ***Corresponding author:** Mark Tibbett m.tibbett@reading.ac.uk

15 **Address:** School of Agriculture, Policy and Development, University of Reading,
16 Whiteknights, PO Box 237, Reading, RG6 6AR.

17

18

19

20

Abstract

Cadmium (Cd) is an extremely toxic environmental pollutant with high mobility in soils, which can contaminate groundwater, increasing its risk of entering the food chain. Yeast biosorption can be a low-cost and effective method for removing Cd from contaminated aqueous solutions. We transformed wild-type *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (WT) with two versions of a *Populus trichocarpa* gene (*PtMT2b*) coding for a metallothionein: one with the original sequence (*PtMT2b* 'C') and the other with a mutated sequence, with an amino acid substitution (C3Y, named here: *PtMT2b* 'Y'). WT and both transformed yeasts were grown under Cd stress, in agar (0; 10; 20; 50 μ M Cd) and liquid medium (0; 10; 20 μ M Cd). Yeast growth was assessed visually and by spectrometry OD₆₀₀. Cd removal from contaminated media and intracellular accumulation were also quantified. *PtMT2b* 'Y' was also inserted into mutant strains: *fet3fet4*, *zrt1zrt2* and *smf1*, and grown under Fe-, Zn- and Mn-deficient media, respectively. Yeast strains had similar growth under 0 μ M, but differed under 20 μ M Cd, the order of tolerance was: WT < *PtMT2b* 'C' < *PtMT2b* 'Y', the latter presenting 37% higher growth than the strain with *PtMT2b* 'C'. It also extracted ~80% of the Cd in solution, and had higher intracellular Cd than WT. Mutant yeasts carrying *PtMT2b* 'Y' had slightly higher growth in Mn- and Fe-deficient media than their non-transgenic counterparts, suggesting the transgenic protein may chelate these metals. *S. cerevisiae* carrying the altered poplar gene offers potential for bioremediation of Cd from wastewaters or other contaminated liquids.

40

Keywords: biosorption; environmental biotechnology; functional expression; heavy metals; transgenic yeast; waste treatment

43

44

45

46

47 **1. Introduction**

48 Cadmium (Cd) is an element that lacks a known biological function. It is one of the
49 most hazardous metals in the environment, because it can affect animals, plants and
50 microorganisms at relatively low concentrations (Alloway, 2013). Several anthropogenic
51 activities are responsible for Cd addition into the environment, such as: atmospheric deposition,
52 industrial and municipal wastes, mining activities, smelting and metal ore processing, battery
53 production, soil fertilisation and sewage sludge application (Mirlean and Roisenberg, 2006;
54 Smolders and Mertens, 2013; He et al., 2015; Khan et al., 2017). Sewage sludge is an inevitable
55 by-product from industrial or domestic wastewater processing, and is commonly used as an
56 organic amendment in soils; however if wastewater is not pre-treated for metal removal, it can
57 lead to high metal contents being added into agricultural soils and crops (Chen and Wang,
58 2008; Jamali et al., 2009).

59 Cd is also highly mobile in soils (Lei et al., 2010) with a potential risk of contaminating
60 the groundwater. Estimated leaching of Cd from European soils is between 100 to 5,700 mg
61 Cd ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ (Smolders and Mertens, 2013). Cd is readily taken up by plant roots and poses a
62 risk when entering the food chain, possibly causing biomagnification, in which a low Cd
63 concentration can increase and become even more toxic through different trophic levels
64 (Janssen et al., 1993).

65 A low-cost and effective method of removing heavy metals from wastewater or aqueous
66 solutions is by using natural materials of biological origin (algae, fungi, bacteria, yeast) in a
67 process known as biosorption (Goksungur et al., 2005; Bulgariu and Bulgariu, 2016; Beni and
68 Esmaili, 2020). This process has many advantages, such as low operating costs, decreased
69 volume of the sludge generated and high efficiency in detoxifying very dilute effluents
70 (Marques et al., 2000). The yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* has been frequently studied as a
71 biosorbent for several heavy metals, such as Pb, Cr, Zn, Cu and Cd (Oliveira et al., 2012;

72 Vijayaraghavan and Balasubramanian, 2015). Although biosorption is a term commonly used
73 for non-living biomaterials that bind and concentrate contaminants, this process occurs in both
74 living and dead organisms (Amirnia et al., 2015).

75 Employing living microorganisms for metal biosorption has an advantage of
76 simultaneously exploiting their inherent ability of absorbing and accumulating heavy metals
77 intracellularly, a process known as bioaccumulation (Pankiewicz et al., 2015). Recently, a
78 system of continuous growth of *S. cerevisiae* was demonstrated to be an efficient method of
79 removing copper and lead ions from water (Amirnia et al., 2015). *S. cerevisiae* is a promising
80 candidate for bioremediation of metal-contaminated waters or other liquids for several reasons,
81 such as: (1) its reproduction by budding (asexual) or spore formation (sexual) (Wang and Chen,
82 2009); (2) it is easy to cultivate and available from various food and beverage industries (Wang
83 and Chen, 2006); (3) it has high adsorbent capacity even in dead cells (Goksungur et al., 2005),
84 (4) it can accumulate high intracellular amounts of heavy metals (Brady and Duncan, 1994;
85 Joutey et al., 2013), (5) it can flocculate easily in metal solutions and sediment, which facilitates
86 the separation process after remediation (Machado et al., 2008, Soares, 2011), and, finally, (6)
87 *S. cerevisiae* is a model system in biology and can be easily manipulated genetically and
88 morphologically for numerous purposes (Karathia et al., 2011; Farcasanu and Ruta, 2017).

89 Genetically engineered microorganisms appear to be the next frontier in terms of
90 bioremediation and biodegradation of contaminants, in which remediation pathways are
91 enhanced by inserting foreign genes of specific interest (Joutey et al., 2013; Kulshreshtha,
92 2013). Genes coding for phytochelatins (PCs) and metallothioneins (MT) are frequently the
93 focus for engineering microorganisms for heavy metal remediation (Sriprang et al., 2003;
94 Singh et al., 2008; Ruiz et al., 2011).

95 Metallothioneins are low-molecular weight proteins rich in Cys (usually 9-16 Cys
96 residues), which are able to bind metals in metal-thiolate clusters (Cobbett and Goldsbrough,

97 2002; Sheoran et al., 2011), such as Zn^{2+} and Cu^{2+} (Bulgarelli et al., 2016). Most MT proteins
98 belong to the sub-family MT2 of plants, which is known for binding divalent cations, such as
99 Cd^{2+} (Cobbett and Goldsbrough, 2002), or some nutrients like Fe^{2+} , Zn^{2+} and Cu^{2+} (Jin et al.,
100 2014). The MT2 sub-family has already been demonstrated to increase Cd tolerance through
101 heterologous expression in yeast (Kohler et al., 2004) and *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Gu et al.,
102 2012).

103 Similarly, we have recently demonstrated that the gene *PtMT2b* from tree species
104 *Populus trichocarpa* cv 'Trichobel' was able to reduce Cd toxicity when expressed in *S.*
105 *cerevisiae* (De Oliveira et al., 2020). This poplar clone is particularly tolerant to elevated Cd
106 concentrations (De Oliveira and Tibbett, 2018), whose high expression of MT2b in roots was
107 shown to be correlated to enhanced Cd sequestration (De Oliveira et al., 2020). Moreover, those
108 yeasts expressing poplar MT2b may effectively remove Cd from contaminated water by
109 preventing the excretion of metals back to the medium through chelation (Ruta et al., 2017).

110 Considering the role of MTs in binding divalent cations and micronutrients (e.g. Zn,
111 Cu) (Jin et al., 2014), it is possible that MT2b is involved in binding other metals besides Cd,
112 such as Fe, Mn and Zn. In this sense, the use of mutant *S. cerevisiae* strains, lacking a particular
113 metal transporter, can help unveil these roles. For instance, DEY1453 is defective for low and
114 high-affinity Fe^{2+} uptake systems, while ZHY3 lacks two Zn^{2+} transporters (ZRT1 and ZRT2)
115 and SMF1 strain lacks a high affinity Mn^{2+} uptake gene (SMF1) (Ullah et al., 2018). If under
116 nutrient deficiency these mutants (carrying MT2b) display growth improvement, it could mean
117 that MT2b is also involved in binding those nutrients.

118 Therefore, our main objectives were to verify the effect of two versions of the poplar
119 gene *PtMT2b* (the original gene and a mutated version) in Cd tolerance, accumulation and
120 bioremediation potential of *S. cerevisiae*. We hypothesised that: i) *PtMT2b* increases Cd
121 tolerance in transformed yeast; ii) a mutated version of the gene *PtMT2b* 'Y' (encoding a C3Y

122 substitution) is not as efficient in conferring Cd tolerance in yeast due to the lack of one cysteine
123 in the peptide sequence; and iii) if transformed yeasts are more tolerant to Cd, they can also
124 effectively bioremediate Cd from aqueous solutions (by surface biosorption or intracellular
125 accumulation). Considering the role of MTs in binding divalent cations, it was also
126 hypothesised that this metallothionein could improve the growth of mutant *S. cerevisiae* strains
127 in nutrient depleted media (Fe, Mn or Zn), possibly by containing a larger internal metal storage
128 than the non-transformed yeast.

129

130 **2. Materials and Methods**

131 **2.1 Cloning of poplar's *PtMT2b***

132 **2.1.1 RNA extraction and cDNA synthesis**

133 DNA was extracted from *Populus trichocarpa* cv. 'Trichobel' roots and leaves with
134 DNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen, UK), following the manufacturer's instructions. Total RNA
135 was extracted from approximately 100 g of fresh weight material (roots) macerated in liquid
136 nitrogen via TissueLyser II (Qiagen®). Extraction was performed by a modified version of the
137 CTAB method (Jaakola et al., 2001): macerated samples were incubated with CTAB buffer
138 (hexadecyltrimethylammonium bromide) for 25 min at 65°C (instead of 10 min), while LiCl
139 addition was 1/3 of total extract volume (instead of 1/4). After overnight precipitation at 4°C,
140 extract was centrifuged for 60 min (instead of 20 min); supernatant was then discarded and
141 RNA pellets were purified with the RNeasy Plant Mini kit (Qiagen, UK), including a DNase
142 treatment (Qiagen, UK) for 20 min.

143 The extracted RNA was converted into cDNA using the SensiFAST cDNA synthesis
144 kit (Bioline, UK) following the manufacturer's instructions. The full coding sequence was then
145 amplified with a *PtMT2b* primer set containing attB overhang (annealing temperature: 58°C),
146 with sequences (5' – 3'), according to De Oliveira et al., (2020):

147 F - GGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTCATGTCTTGCTGTGGAGGAAA;

148 R - GGGGACCACTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTCTCATTTCAGGAGCATGGAT.

149 *PtMT2b* sequence has been deposited in GenBank (accession number: MN974475).

150

151 **2.1.2 Amino acid substitution (*PtMT2b* 'Y')**

152 During the cloning process, two different *PtMT2b* sequences were obtained due to a
153 probable error during DNA amplification (Fig. 1). This was later confirmed by sequencing the
154 *MT2b* gene directly from the genomic DNA extracted. One codon had a single nonsynonymous
155 nucleotide substitution, from the original 'TGC' to 'TAC', which consequently changed the
156 correspondent amino acid from a cysteine (C) to a tyrosine (Y) at the third position (C3Y).
157 Considering that cysteine is responsible for the divalent cation binding ability in MTs, it was
158 possible that the C3Y substitution would lead to a different Cd tolerance phenotype in yeast.
159 Therefore, these two versions of the same gene were used in yeast transformation, the original
160 (*PtMT2b* 'C') and the mutated (*PtMT2b* 'Y').

161

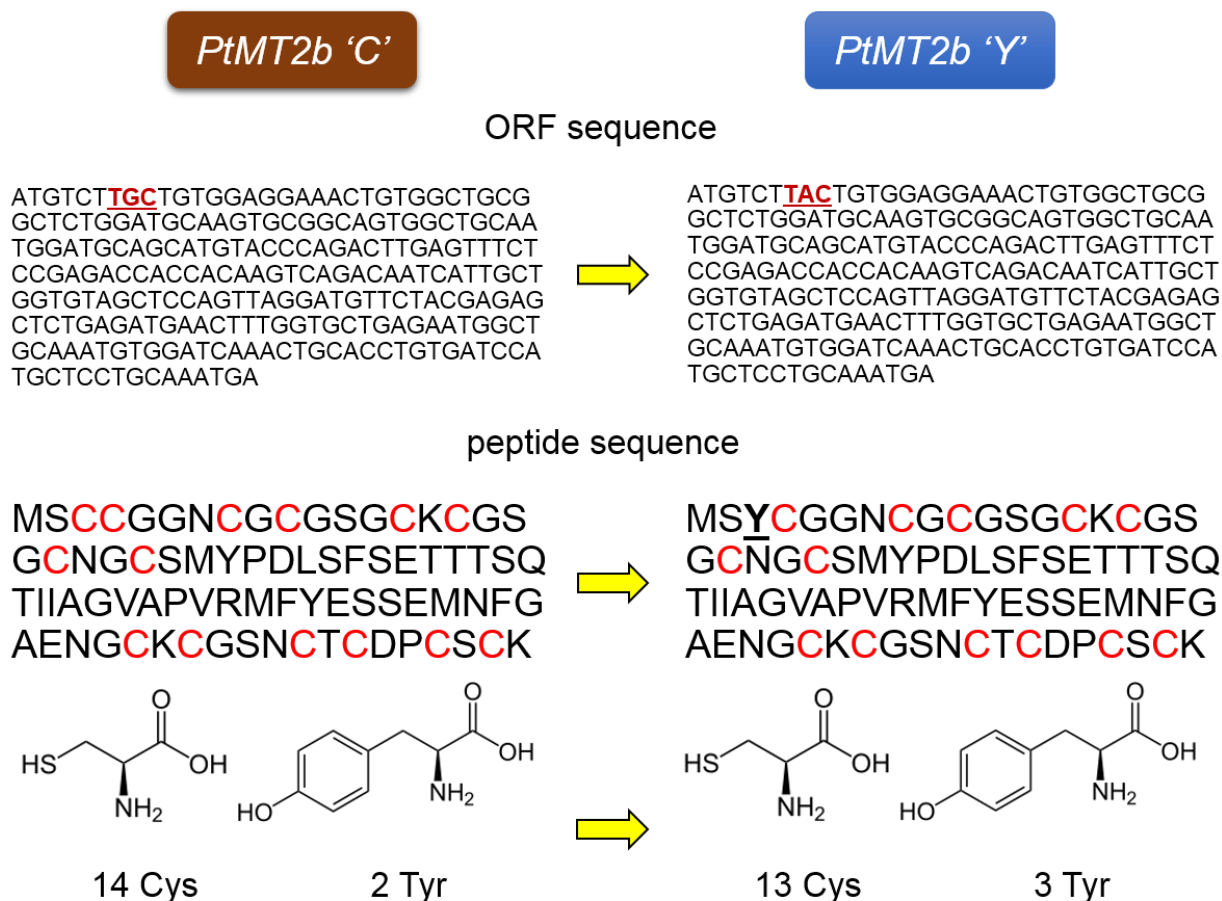


Fig. 1. Substitution of one single nucleotide in *Populus trichocarpa* MT2b gene during amplification (from TGC to TAC), leading to the cysteine in the third position being replaced by a tyrosine (C3Y). Left: original open reading frame (ORF) and peptide sequences. Right: altered sequences.

162

163 2.2 Yeast transformation

164 The wild-type *S. cerevisiae* strain DY1457 (WT) was used for transformations. The
165 genes were introduced into a Gateway® donor vector pDONR221 (containing the kanamycin
166 resistance gene – Fig. S1; Sup. Files) using Gateway® BP Clonase® II enzyme mix.
167 Chemically competent *Escherichia coli* cells (TOP10) were transformed with the entry clones
168 and grown overnight in LB agar + Kanamycin medium at 37°C. Plasmids were isolated from
169 transformed *E. coli* and introduced into destination vector pDR195 (Fig. S2; Sup. Files) using

170 the Gateway® LR Clonase® II enzyme mix. *E. coli* cells were transformed with the expression
171 vectors and grown in LB agar + Ampicillin, same parameters as before. WT yeast was
172 transformed with either the expression vector containing *PtMT2b* ‘C’, *PtMT2b* ‘Y’ or an empty
173 vector (pDR195) as control, the latter strain will be referred to as simply “WT” throughout the
174 manuscript. The transformants were selected on synthetic complete (SC) drop-out medium
175 without uracil [1 g/L drop out medium Y1501 Sigma® + 6.7 g/L yeast nitrogen base
176 Invitrogen™] + 2% dextrose (v/v). Plasmids were restricted (entry vector: *SacI* and *SspI*;
177 expression vector: *SacI* and *HindIII*) and sequenced at every stage to confirm ORF integrity
178 and direction.

179

180 **2.3 Expression of *PtMT2b* (C and Y) in yeast under Cd stress**

181 Yeast cells were grown overnight at 30°C (250 rpm) in SC liquid media (5 mL; pH:
182 5.5). Cells were then pelleted by centrifugation, and re-suspended in 5 mL of sterile water.
183 Optical density at 600 nm of wavelength (OD₆₀₀) was recorded using SpectraMax i3x
184 (Molecular Devices) microplate reader. Cultures were diluted in sterile water to reach OD₆₀₀
185 of 0.1, which were used for serial dilutions (1:10 v/v). All dilutions of transformed (*PtMT2b*
186 ‘C’ and ‘Y’) and empty vector yeast (‘WT’) were spotted (5 µL) into SC agar plates at 0; 10;
187 20; and 50 µM Cd (in the form of CdCl₂), then grown at 30°C for 72 hours in the dark (three
188 replicates). In order to quantify yeast growth under Cd stress, all strains were grown in liquid
189 SC media (initial OD₆₀₀: 0.01), containing either 0; 10 or 20 µM Cd (three replicates) for 48
190 hours (30°C, 250 rpm; dark), after which the OD₆₀₀ was recorded. The concentration of 50 µM
191 Cd was not used in any liquid media assays due to high toxicity.

192

193 **2.4 Cd accumulation and extraction in yeast containing *PtMT2b* ‘Y’**

194 The *PtMT2b* ‘Y’ and WT (empty vector) yeasts were grown in 5 mL of SC liquid media
 195 + 2% dextrose, containing 0; 10 and 30 μM Cd at 30°C in the dark with constant shaking (initial
 196 OD_{600} : 0.01; four replicates). After 72 h, OD_{600} was recorded and cells were pelleted by
 197 centrifugation (10 min, 4000 rpm). All contaminated media were transferred to new tubes
 198 without disturbing the pellet, these were denominated Left Over (LO) and were later analysed
 199 by ICP-MS to determine the remaining Cd concentration after yeast growth. Pelleted cells were
 200 re-suspended in 10 mL of EDTA (20 mM) and washed for 10 minutes (by inverting tubes) in
 201 order to remove adhering Cd ions from yeast surface (Ullah et al., 2018). Cells were pelleted
 202 again and washed twice with 10 mL of deionised water. Yeasts were oven-dried at 80°C for 48
 203 hours. Dried cells were digested in 5 mL of 69% nitric acid (TraceSELECT™ grade) in closed
 204 glass vessels for 8 h at 110°C (in duplicates). Pure acid was used as blank and 0.05 g of
 205 reference material (IAEA-359 cabbage leaves) was digested in the same manner for quality
 206 control. Cd accumulation in cells and the remaining Cd in Left Over media were determined
 207 via ICP-MS (Thermo Scientific™ iCAP™ Q). Cd extraction potential was calculated by the
 208 following equation:

$$209 \quad (1) \quad Cd \text{ extracted } (\%) = 100 - \frac{LO \text{ Cd} \times 100}{Initial \text{ Cd}}$$

210

211 In which “*LO Cd*” is the Cd concentration determined in the Left Over media solution
 212 after yeast growth (mg L^{-1}); and “*Initial Cd*” the concentration of Cd added in the growth media
 213 before yeast inoculation, also determined via ICP-MS (mg L^{-1}).

214

215 **2.5 Cell Dry Weight vs OD_{600}**

216 In order to estimate Cd concentration in terms of cell dry weight (CDW), transformed
 217 (*PtMT2b* ‘Y’) yeast was grown in conical flasks (three replicates), containing 60 mL of
 218 uncontaminated SC media, with OD_{600} starting at 0.01. Every 3 h an aliquot of 10 mL from

219 each flask had its OD₆₀₀ determined, cells were pelleted and washed with deionised water and
220 dried in previously weighed glass vials at 80°C. After 72 h, dry weight was recorded. The
221 relationship between CDW and OD₆₀₀ was determined by linear regression model ($\alpha = 0.05$;
222 15 samples).

223

224 **2.6 PtMT2b ‘Y’ expression in mutant yeast under nutrient deficiency**

225 In order to verify the specificity of this gene, transgenic mutant yeast were subjected to
226 nutrient deficient conditions (Fe, Mn and Zn). If MT2b ‘Y’ proteins also bind these nutrients,
227 these yeast strains would be able to grow under deficiency due to a higher nutrient storage
228 capacity in their cells. Strains used for transformation were the single mutant SMF1 (*smf1*),
229 and the double mutants DEY1453 (*fet3fet4*) and ZHY3 (*zrt1zrt2*), as well as the corresponding
230 parental wild type strain DY1457. All strains were transformed either with *PtMT2b* ‘Y’ or an
231 empty vector (e.v.) as control. Mutant yeasts were also transformed with *TcNramp5*, a metal
232 transporter gene from cocoa trees known to increase Cd²⁺ and Zn²⁺ uptake in yeast (Ullah et
233 al., 2018), and were used as a positive control. Transformations were carried out as described
234 previously.

235 Primary cultures were established from a single colony, and grown in 10 mL SC media
236 supplemented with either 0.4% (v/v) Fe, 0.2% Mn or 0.4% Zn; for DEY1453, SMF1 and ZHY3
237 strains, respectively (30°C, 72h, 250 rpm, dark). Initial growth in a rich media was carried out
238 to promote a nutrient stock in yeast cells before being transferred to deficient media (pre-
239 growth stage). Afterwards, cultures were serially diluted and spotted (5 µL) into SC + agar plates,
240 with or without chelating agents to decrease nutrient availability: 10 µM BPS
241 (Bathophenanthrolinedisulfonic acid) for creating iron deficient plates (- Fe); 12.5 mM EGTA
242 (Ethylene glycol-bis(2-aminoethylether)-N,N,N') for Mn deficiency (- Mn); and 100 µM
243 EDTA (Ethylenediamine tetraacetic acid) for Zn deficiency (- Zn).

244

245 **2.7 Statistical analyses**

246 ANOVA and Tukey test were performed for all datasets that met ANOVA's
247 assumptions. Some variables needed transformation (x^2) to attain normality and
248 homoscedasticity, i.e. OD₆₀₀ values for *SMF1* strains (with and without MT2b) grown under
249 Mn deficiency. After being unable to transform the data for Cd content ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$) to attain
250 normality, the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test was performed. Linear regression analysis
251 was used for obtaining the CDW (mg mL^{-1}) and OD₆₀₀ relationship, in which the Min/Max
252 accuracy and MAPE (mean absolute percent error) were used to assess the model accuracy. All
253 statistical analyses were performed using R software.

254

255 **3. Results**

256 **3.1 Amino acid substitution in MT2b increased Cd tolerance in yeast**

257 The spot assay clearly showed that the strains transformed with both versions of the
258 *PtMT2b* gene were able to cope with higher Cd concentrations than the strain transformed with
259 the empty vector only, especially at 50 μM , in which its growth was completely suppressed
260 (Fig. 2).

261 In liquid media contaminated by Cd, yeast strains had similar growth under 0 μM , but
262 differed under 10 and 20 μM Cd (ANOVA: $p < 0.001$). Under the highest Cd concentration the
263 order of tolerance was $\text{WT} < \textit{PtMT2b}$ 'C' $< \textit{PtMT2b}$ 'Y'; determined after Tukey test (variation
264 coefficient = 6.5%), in which the growth of yeasts carrying the tyrosine-replaced MT2b was
265 around 37% higher than strain expressing the original gene sequence (*PtMT2b* 'C') (Table 1).

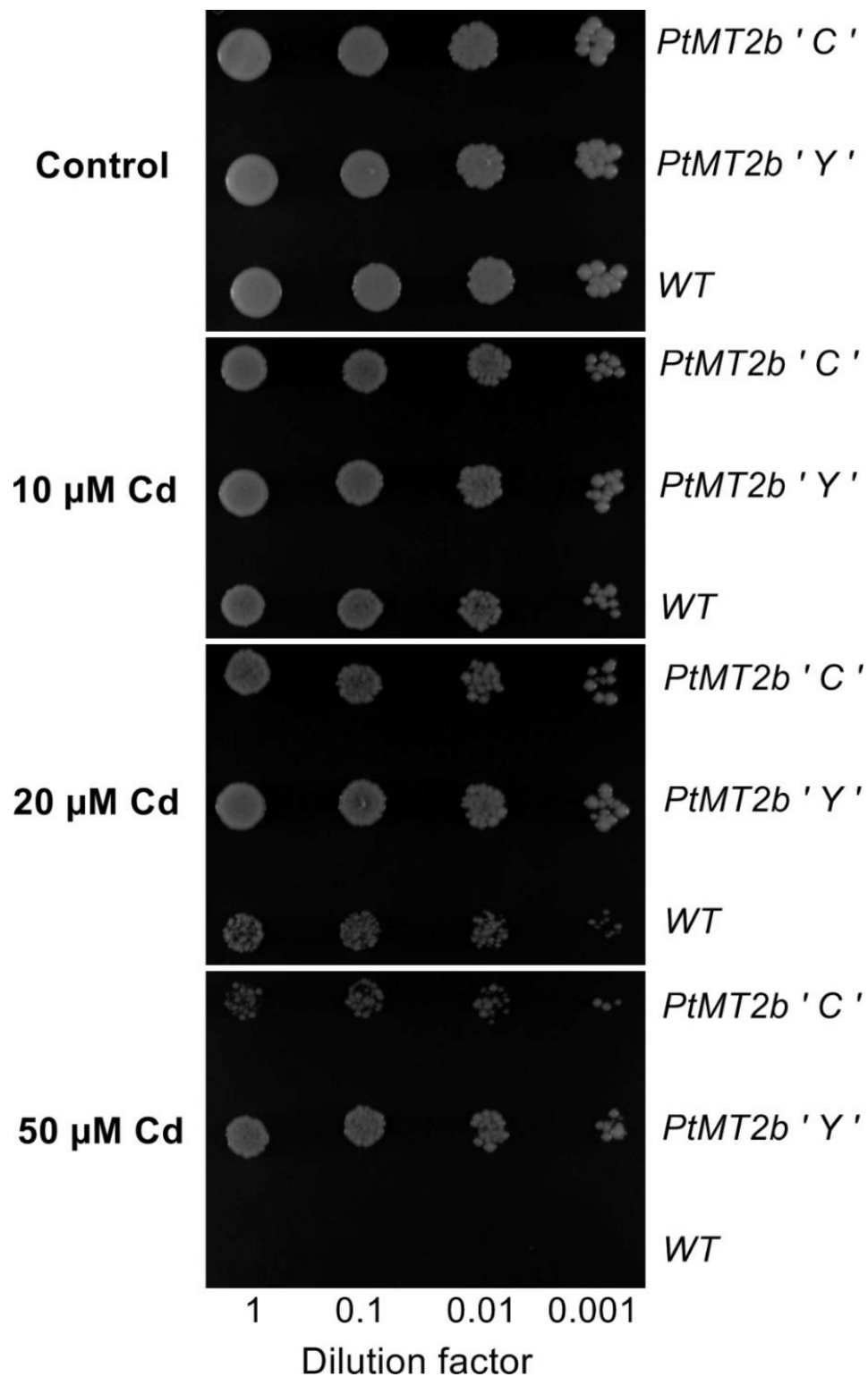


Fig. 2. Heterologous expression of *PtMT2b* in *S. cerevisiae* growing under increasing Cd concentrations. WT: Wild type (DY1457) strain with empty vector; PtMT2b 'C': wild type yeast transformed with the original *PtMT2b*; PtMT2b 'Y': transformed yeast expressing the modified *PtMT2b* gene, with cysteine to tyrosine replacement (C3Y).

266

Table 1 – Growth of transformed *S. cerevisiae* strains under Cd stress, determined by OD₆₀₀ after 48 hours (mean ± st. error)¹. WT: wild type with empty vector; *PtMT2b* ‘C’: gene with original sequence; and *PtMT2b* ‘Y’: gene with cysteine to tyrosine replacement (C3Y).

Strain	Media Cd concentration	
	10 μM	20 μM
WT	0.20 ± 0.009 a	0.15 ± 0.009 a
WT + <i>PtMT2b</i> ‘C’	0.31 ± 0.005 b	0.25 ± 0.003 b
WT + <i>PtMT2b</i> ‘Y’	0.29 ± 0.005 b	0.35 ± 0.012 c

¹- Different letters correspond to significant differences among strains within columns (same Cd concentrations), as determined by Tukey test after ANOVA ($p < 0.001$).

267

268 3.2 Mutated *PtMT2b* gene increased Cd accumulation and removal by yeast

269 Since yeast carrying the mutated gene sequence (*PtMT2b* ‘Y’) were more tolerant than
 270 the strains expressing the original gene, they were ultimately selected for Cd bioremediation
 271 trials. Results showed that WT strain (empty vector) was significantly affected by Cd toxicity,
 272 while growth of transformed strain was unaffected by Cd additions (Fig. 3).

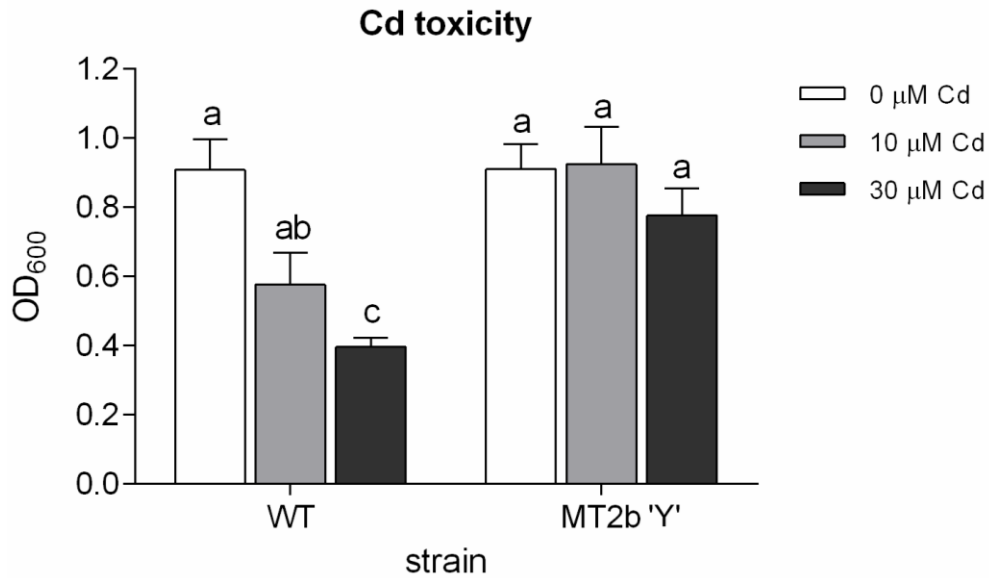


Fig. 3. *S. cerevisiae* growth under three Cd concentrations, as determined by OD₆₀₀ in liquid SC media after 72h. WT: Wild type (DY1457) with empty vector; MT2b 'Y': transformed yeast carrying mutated *PtMT2b* gene, with an amino acid substitution (C3Y). Different letters represent significant differences among treatments by Tukey test (ANOVA; $p = 0.00085$)

273

274 Transformed yeast accumulated high contents of Cd within cells, with concentrations

275 at least 30 times higher than the strains carrying empty vectors only (Fig. 4a). In the WT yeast,

276 internal Cd uptake was similar regardless of media concentration, but in transformed yeast,

277 accumulation significantly increased under the highest Cd dose (30 μM).

278

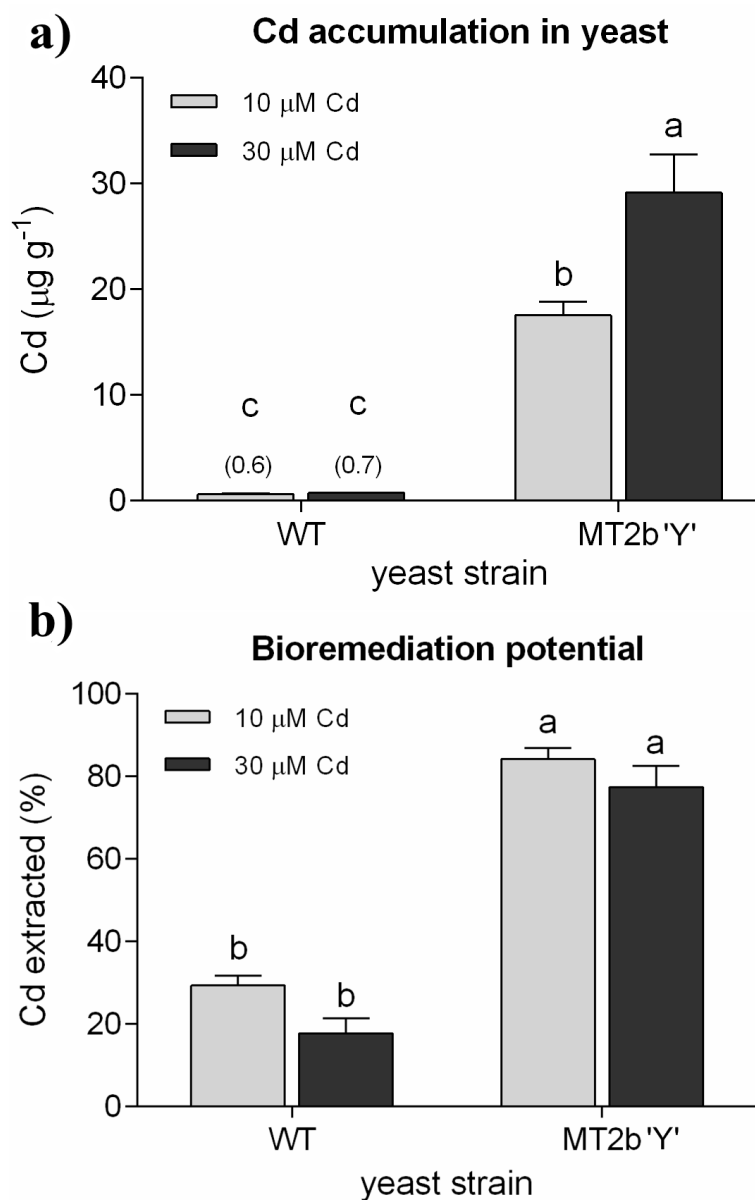


Fig. 4. Cd accumulation in *S. cerevisiae* strains after 72 hours of growth. WT: Wild type + empty vector (DY1457); MT2b 'Y': transformed yeast carrying mutated *PtMT2b* gene, with an amino acid substitution (C3Y). a) Amount of Cd in dried yeast cells ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$) after EDTA washing and acid digestion. b) Percentage of Cd removal from liquid media after yeast growth (72 h). Different letters represent significant differences among treatments by Kruskal-Wallis and Dunn test ($p = 0.004$) in a); and by Tukey test (ANOVA; $p < 0.001$) in b)

280 In order to convert the OD₆₀₀ values into CDW (cell dry weight) and express the results
281 in µg of Cd per g CDW, the following equation was used:

282

$$283 \quad CDW_{(mg/ml)} = 2.496 \times OD_{600} + 0.0303$$

284

285 This equation was obtained by a linear regression analysis between CDW (mg mL⁻¹)
286 and OD₆₀₀ values of 15 samples at different growth stages ($R^2 = 0.974$; $p < 0.001$); with 94.8%
287 of Min/Max accuracy and 5.6% of MAPE (mean absolute percent error) (Fig. S3; Sup. Files).

288 In terms of Cd removal from the media (%), which includes internal Cd accumulation,
289 cell wall binding and sorption processes; the transformed yeast removed around 84% and 77%
290 of the total Cd concentration initially added (10 µM and 30 µM, respectively) in a 72 h period,
291 while in WT strain those values were on average under 30% (Fig. 4b).

292

293 **3.3 Mutated PtMT2b gene slightly increases yeast growth under Fe and Mn deficiency**

294 Spot assay of transformed mutant yeasts under deficient conditions showed that
295 *PtMT2b* ‘Y’ could not recover the growth of double mutant *zrt1zrt2* under Zn deficiency, but
296 slightly promoted growth in *SMF1* and *fet3fet4* strains in Mn and Fe deficient plates,
297 respectively (Fig. 5). From those strains, the *PtMT2b* ‘Y’ effect appeared to be more
298 pronounced only in *SMF1* (Fig. 5b). For quantification purposes, this mutant strain was
299 cultivated in liquid media under Mn deficiency, under which conditions *SMF1* + *PtMT2b* ‘Y’
300 had on average 71% higher growth (OD₆₀₀: 0.90 ± 0.01) than when carrying an empty vector
301 (OD₆₀₀: 0.52 ± 0.13) (ANOVA; $p = 0.008$).

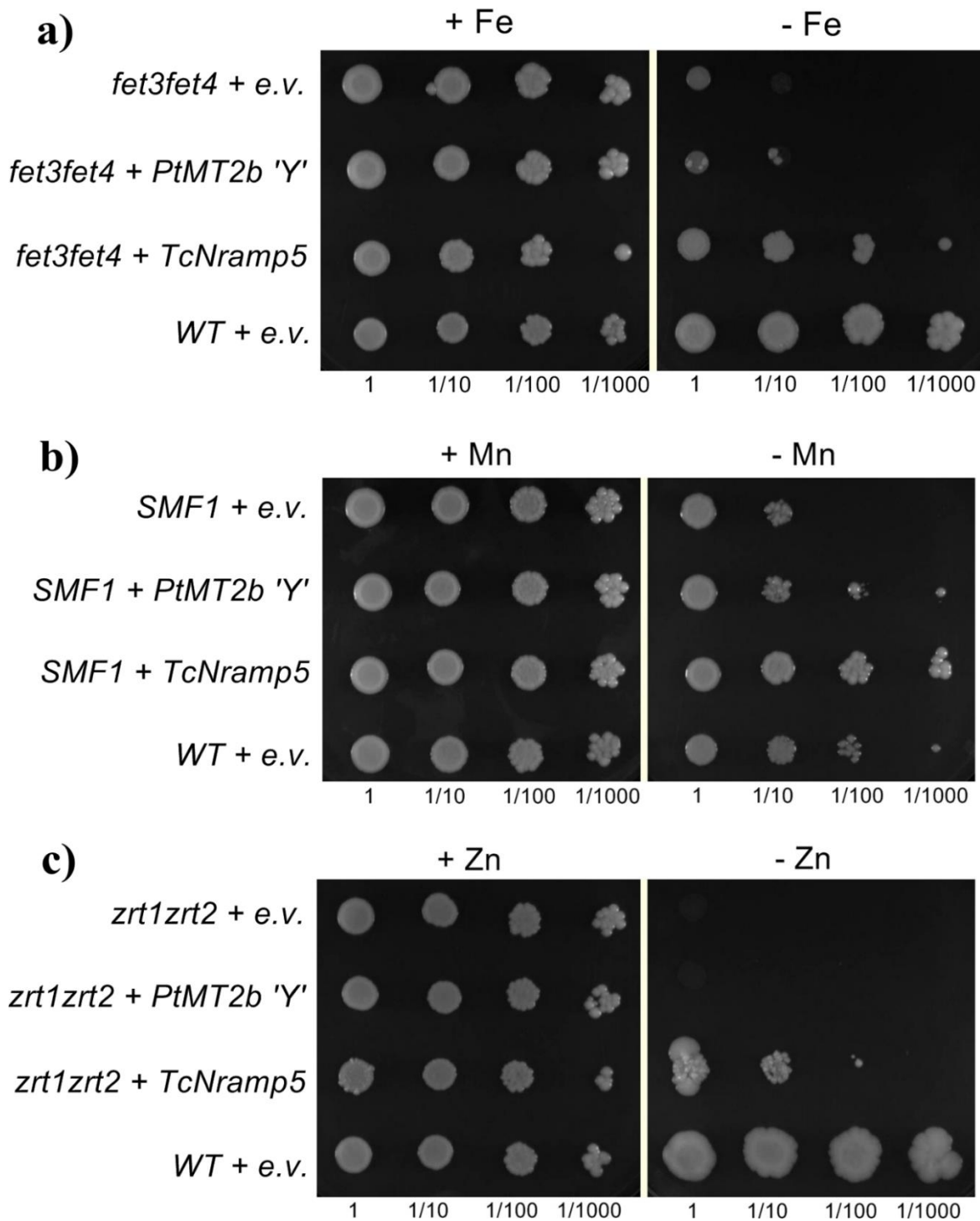


Fig. 5. Growth of mutant *S. cerevisiae* strains in nutrient sufficient (+ X) and nutrient deficient (- X) plates for 72 hours. Yeast strains were: *fet3fet4*, with double mutations for Fe uptake (a); *SMF1*, with single mutation for Mn uptake (b); and *zrt1zrt2*, with double mutations for Zn uptake (c). WT: wild type; e. v.: empty vector (DY1457); *PtMT2b* 'Y': poplar metallothionein with cysteine to tyrosine replacement (C3Y); and *TcNramp5*: cocoa tree metal transporter Nramp5. Dilution 1 = 0.1 OD₆₀₀

4. Discussion

4.1 Poplar's metallothionein confers Cd tolerance in yeast

As demonstrated previously (Fig. 2), *P. trichocarpa* metallothionein MT2b is indeed able to increase Cd tolerance in transformed *S. cerevisiae* (De Oliveira et al., 2020). Besides chelating and inactivating metals in their toxic forms, such as Cd²⁺, MTs have a role in scavenging reactive oxygen species (ROS) from cells under stress (Wong et al., 2004; Ruttkay-Nedecky et al., 2013). Genes for ROS tolerance are highly expressed in wild type *S. cerevisiae* exposed to Cd (Thorsen et al., 2009); therefore it is clear that the addition of *PtMT2b* would enhance Cd tolerance by producing even more ROS-scavenging proteins than a WT strain.

Heterologous expression of other plant metallothionein genes in yeast have been assessed under heavy metal stress, with similar results, but mostly from herbaceous plant species (Zhou and Goldsbrough, 1994; Guo et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2014a; Zhang et al., 2014b). For Cd, metallothioneins from sunflower, rice, *Arabidopsis*, *Noccaea caerulescens*, and even mycorrhizal fungi *Rhizophagus irregularis* and *Hebeloma cylindrosporum* were shown to complement Cd sensitivity in mutant yeast (Farcasanu and Ruta, 2017). In the present study, the non-transgenic strain (WT + empty vector) had a decrease in biomass of around 50% under 10 µM Cd in liquid media (Fig. 3), which is in accordance with the results from Hosiner et al., (2014), who reported an EC50 (half maximal effective concentration) of 10 µM CdCl₂ for *S. cerevisiae*. In the transgenic strain, however, growth was barely affected even at 30 µM Cd, confirming our initial hypothesis that *PtMT2b* increases Cd tolerance.

4.2 Amino acid substitution further enhanced Cd tolerance

Metallothioneins are characterised by their high content of Cys residues - generally 10 to 17 in plants – which are able to bind divalent metal cations in their sulfhydryl (R–SH) group, thus forming thiolate bonds (Hassinen et al., 2011; Nguyen et al., 2017) and, in the case of the

328 type II sub-family, their amino-terminal portion has a highly conserved domain, starting with
329 Cys-Cys arrangement (Bulgarelli et al., 2016). Because of this obvious role of the cysteine
330 content in providing metal binding sites in these proteins, it was interesting to observe that
331 *PtMT2b* 'Y', a gene encoding a MT with one fewer Cys residue (replaced by one tyrosine -
332 Tyr), not only did not lose its function as we hypothesised, but in fact enhanced Cd tolerance
333 in transformed yeast. We could speculate two main reasons for this: 1) the tyrosine aromatic
334 ring; 2) the position in which the substitution took place (C3Y).

335 Despite lacking the characteristic sulfhydryl group from Cys, Tyr has a phenolic
336 aromatic ring that can also effectively bind divalent cations such as Cd^{2+} in their aromatic
337 structure forming tyrosine-metal complexes (Hu et al., 1995), from which different
338 conformations have been proposed (Fig. S4; Sup. Files). In this sense, Vandebossche et al.,
339 (2015) developed a synthetic material enriched with tyrosine molecules that was able to
340 efficiently remove copper from contaminated waters.

341 Another reason for increased Cd tolerance is also related to the aromatic group in Tyr,
342 which can form a non-covalent bond with cationic metals, known as cation- π interactions. This
343 interaction is essentially electrostatic, in which a cation is attracted to the negatively charged
344 cloud of electrons from aromatic groups (π systems), and is considered one of the strongest
345 noncovalent interactions (Ma and Dougherty, 1997; Mahadevi and Sastry, 2013). Although
346 mostly reported for monovalent cations, cation- π can also happen with divalent metal ions,
347 such as seen with Mg^{2+} (Stewart et al., 2013).

348 The position in which the substitution took place may possibly have influenced the
349 results observed. Plant MTs have two short cysteine-rich terminal domains linked by a long
350 spacer, devoid of Cys, and of around 40 amino acids (Domenech et al., 2006). These Cys
351 domains in opposite ends can interact with each other and bind metals, forming a cluster,
352 conferring the *hairpin* structure model typical of MT2 proteins (Hassinen et al., 2011). In the

353 present work, *PtMT2b* 'Y' had only the third amino acid of the peptide chain (Cys) replaced
354 by a Tyr (C3Y; Fig. 1), which means that it is unlikely for it to have affected the overall protein
355 folding, considering that this domain had another seven Cys residues to interact with the six
356 Cys from the opposite domain. Moreover, the domain in which this substitution occurred may
357 also explain why there was no loss of protein function. For instance, Cismowski et al. (1991)
358 observed that yeast carrying a mutated mammalian MT gene (Cys to Tyr substitution) had a
359 markedly lower resistance to Cd when it occurred in one domain (C50Y), but no effects when
360 this mutation was present in another domain (C13Y). Nevertheless, our results have shown for
361 the first time that the Cys to Tyr (C3Y) substitution in a plant metallothionein gene can in fact
362 increase Cd tolerance and accumulation in yeast. This suggests that metallothionein
363 manipulation and editing could be further explored to enhance bioremediation capacity in
364 microorganisms.

365

366 **4.3 Bioaccumulation and removal of Cd by transgenic yeast**

367 Yeast can remove metals from solutions by mainly two mechanisms, one is passive and
368 requires no energy expenditure (e.g. cell wall binding and metal diffusion) and the other active,
369 metabolism-dependent and being carried out only by living cells, involving
370 compartmentalisation in subcellular organelles such as vacuole or mitochondria (Vijver et al.,
371 2004; Wang and Chen, 2009). Metal binding by metallothioneins is one of the most important
372 strategies for metal accumulation (or toxicity avoidance) in living cells, a process seen in
373 almost all eukaryotic organisms, such as animals, plants, yeast and ectomycorrhizal fungi
374 (Vijver et al., 2004; Nguyen et al., 2017). Although in *S. cerevisiae* the induction of MT
375 production seems to occur mainly through exposure to Cu (Wang and Chen, 2006) or Ag
376 (Hosiner et al., 2014).

377 Linear regression resulted in a good prediction model for converting OD₆₀₀
378 measurements into cell dry weight (CDW) and allowed converting Cd concentrations in yeast
379 to µg of Cd per gram of biomass. It should be noted, however, that those predictions should be
380 applied only under the experimental conditions of the present work (strain type, growth period,
381 temperature etc.), as well as the equipment use for OD₆₀₀ determination, since it can vary
382 according to the device used (Ude et al., 2014).

383 Transgenic strains carrying the mutated *PtMT2b* gene were not only highly tolerant but
384 also effectively accumulated more Cd (in µg g⁻¹) than wild type yeast, with Cd contents at least
385 10 times higher, which supports our hypothesis that Cd tolerance can lead to enhanced Cd
386 accumulation. Ruta et al., (2017) recently showed that *S. cerevisiae* transformed with *NctMT2a*
387 and *NcMT2b* (from *Noccaea caerulescens*) had a 5-fold and a 4-fold increase in Cd
388 accumulation, respectively, compared to the non-transformed strain. Yeast expressing *SaMT2*
389 from hyperaccumulator *Sedum alfredii* also had a 50% increase in Cd accumulation in relation
390 to the control (Zhang et al., 2014b). However enhanced Cd accumulation is not always
391 observed, such as the case of the *S. cerevisiae* strains transformed with a range of MTs from *A.*
392 *thaliana* (Guo et al., 2008). Bacteria may also display similar effects, such as the *E. coli*
393 expressing a metallothionein from mice (*mt-1*), in which the gene promoted higher tolerance
394 and accumulation of mercury from contaminated media (Ruiz et al., 2011), and the *CeMT2b*
395 gene from tolerant weed species *Colocasia esculenta*, that doubled Cd accumulation in *E. coli*
396 (Kim et al., 2011).

397 Due to their biosorption characteristics, yeast cell walls can remove heavy metals from
398 aqueous wastes even if the cells are no longer alive. Machado et al., (2008) verified that after
399 applying dead *S. cerevisiae* biomass (12 mg mL⁻¹) in nickel contaminated water, almost 80%
400 of the Ni²⁺ in solution was removed after only 30 minutes. By using the OD₆₀₀ to CDW (mg
401 mL⁻¹) conversion equation previously determined, we were able to estimate that despite

402 removing around 80% of Cd^{2+} from the growth media, this amount would represent a
403 biosorption capacity of 1.5 mg g^{-1} of dried yeast. Even though this assay ran for only 72 hours
404 and did not reach saturation, the result is quite low compared to other biosorbent materials,
405 such as dried chestnut burr, which is able to remove 16.2 mg of Cd per gram, pinecones (4.3
406 mg g^{-1}) or the breakthrough biosorbent known as MMBB (a mix of tea wastes, mandarin peels
407 and maple leaves), which can absorb 31.7 mg g^{-1} of Cd from solution (Kim et al., 2015;
408 Abdolali et al., 2016). However, those are dead materials, and are not susceptible to metal
409 toxicity effects. Living yeasts provide a constant source of biosorbent material, which is also
410 able to actively accumulate metals within cells, removing metals continuously through internal
411 detoxification mechanisms (Wang and Chen, 2006). In this sense, Amirnia et al., (2015)
412 developed a continuous bioreactor-biosorption system, which is efficient for simultaneous
413 production of *S. cerevisiae* and removal of Cu^{2+} and Pb^{2+} from liquid waste without requiring
414 much nutritional input for yeast growth. The authors also suggested that this process is
415 facilitated by using flocculant strains that are easily able to decant and separate from the growth
416 solution (Soares, 2011), a feature that was observed in the WT strains in the present work.

417

418 **4.4 *PtMT2b* ‘Y’ possible role in binding Mn and Fe in mutant yeast**

419 Considering the evidence that metals such as Zn and Cu can affect the expression of
420 *MT2b* in white poplar (Cicatelli et al., 2010), and that both Cd and Zn concentrations were
421 verified to be highly correlated to *MT2b* expression in leaves of *P. tremula* x *P. tremuloides*
422 (Hassinen et al., 2009), we hypothesised that the double mutant strain *zrt1zrt2*, lacking two Zn
423 transporters, would have increased growth if carrying the *PtMT2b* gene. This was based on the
424 concept that prior to yeast inoculation into the Zn-depleted media, during pre-growth stage,
425 transgenic yeast would have built up a larger nutrient storage capacity within their cells by
426 forming MT-Metal chelates, which could then be accessed under nutrient deficiency. The same

427 was tested for Fe and Mn, using their respective mutant strains, for it is known that MTs are
428 also able to bind these metals (Zhang et al., 2014a; Farcasanu and Ruta, 2017).

429 In our work, the spot assay showed that mutant strain *zrt1zrt2* had no effects from
430 *PtMT2b* ‘Y’ transformation under Zn deficiency, showing virtually no growth. One reason
431 could be that the double mutation did not allow enough Zn to penetrate the yeast cells during
432 pre-growth. *S. cerevisiae* acquires Zn via mainly three transporters: Zrt1 (high affinity), Zrt2
433 (low affinity) and Fet4 (non-specific), therefore, this mutation severely hinders Zn acquisition
434 pathways (Zhao and Eide, 1996; Schothorst et al., 2017). The *PtMT2b* gene was also shown to
435 have slightly higher expression in poplars under high Zn concentrations (De Oliveira et al.,
436 2020), so it is probably involved in Zn binding; however it is possible that the amino acid
437 substitution (C3Y) in this gene could have led to a protein with lower Zn affinity, resulting in
438 poor Zn storage.

439 However, yeasts carrying *PtMT2b* ‘Y’ were able to grow, to some extent, in Mn- and
440 Fe- agar deficient media, confirming in part our initial hypothesis, although only by verifying
441 metal contents intracellularly could we reach a more empirical conclusion. When grown in
442 liquid media, the transgenic *SMF1* strain had a 71% increase in growth under Mn deficiency,
443 suggesting that this gene is involved in Mn binding. The involvement of MTs in Mn
444 homeostasis has not been thoroughly explored in plants thus far, except for a few studies with
445 MTs from animals or plants (Kobayashi et al., 2007; Benatti et al., 2014).

446

447 **5. Conclusions**

448 Heterologous expression of the metallothionein gene (*PtMT2b*) from the Cd tolerant
449 tree *Populus trichocarpa* is able to confer tolerance to *S. cerevisiae* under Cd concentrations
450 up to 50 μ M. Contrary to our hypothesis, replacement of Cys by Tyr (C3Y) in the amino acid
451 sequence did not affect protein function, and, in fact, increased yeast growth under Cd stress.

452 The transgenic strains carrying the mutated gene were able to extract up to 80% of Cd from
453 contaminated media solution, mostly due to continuous growth and constant metal biosorption.
454 This specific strain offers great potential for bioremediation of Cd from waters or effluents,
455 possibly in a bioreactor system, and further studies should be carried out to assess its potential
456 use in a mixture of cationic metals, such as Zn, Mn or Cu, as well as tested on different
457 bioreactors.

458

459 **6. Acknowledgements**

460 This study was funded by CAPES (Coordination for the Improvement of Higher Education
461 Personnel - Brazil), project number: 13462-13-0. The authors would also like to thank Dr John
462 Hammond and Dr Jeanette Hartley-Whitaker for their valuable inputs in this work.

463

464 **7. Ethical approval**

465 This article does not contain any studies with human participants or animals performed by
466 any of the authors.

467

468 **8. References**

469 Abdolali A., Ngo H.H., Guo W., Lu S., Chen S.S., Nguyen N.C., Zhang X., Wang J., Wu Y.,
470 2016. A breakthrough biosorbent in removing heavy metals: Equilibrium, kinetic,
471 thermodynamic and mechanism analyses in a lab-scale study. *Sci. Total. Environ.* 542, 603–
472 611. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2015.10.095>

473

474 Alloway B.J., 2013. *Heavy metals in soils*, 3rd edn. Springer, Netherlands. 10.1007/978-94-
475 007-4470-7

476

- 477 Amirnia S., Ray M.B., Margaritis A., 2015. Heavy metals removal from aqueous solutions
478 using *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* in a novel continuous bioreactor–biosorption system. Chem.
479 Eng. J. 264, 863–872. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2014.12.016>
480
- 481 Benatti M.R., Yookongkaew N., Meetam M., Guo W.J., Punyasuk N., AbuQamar S.,
482 Goldsbrough P., 2014. Metallothionein deficiency impacts copper accumulation and
483 redistribution in leaves and seeds of Arabidopsis. New. Phytol. 202, 940–951.
484 <https://doi.org/10.1111/nph.12718>
485
- 486 Beni A.A., Esmaili A., 2020. Biosorption, an efficient method for removing heavy metals
487 from industrial effluents: A Review. Environ. Technol. Innov. 17, 100503.
488 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eti.2019.100503>
489
- 490 Brady D., Duncan JR., 1994. Bioaccumulation of metal cations by *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*.
491 Appl. Microbiol. Biot. 41, 149–154. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00166098>
492
- 493 Bulgarelli R.G., Araujo P., Tezotto T., Mazzafera P., Andrade S.A.L., 2016. Expression of
494 metallothionein genes in coffee leaves in response to the absence or excess of Cu and Zn. Theor
495 Exp. Plant. Phys. 28, 371–383. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40626-016-0075-5>
496
- 497 Bulgariu D., Bulgariu L., 2016. Potential use of alkaline treated algae waste biomass as
498 sustainable biosorbent for clean recovery of cadmium(II) from aqueous media: batch and
499 column studies. J. Clean. Prod. 112, 4525-4533. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2015.05.124>
500

- 501 Chen C., Wang J., 2008. Removal of Pb²⁺, Ag⁺, Cs⁺ and Sr²⁺ from aqueous solution by
502 brewery's waste biomass. J. Hazard. Mater. 151, 65–70.
503 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2007.05.046>
504
- 505 Cismowski M.J., Narula S.S., Armitage I.M., Chernaik M.L., Huang P.C., 1991. Mutation of
506 invariant cysteines in mammalian metallothionein alters metal binding capacity, cadmium
507 resistance and ¹¹³Cd NMR spectrum. J. Biol. Chem. 266, 24390–24397.
508
- 509 Cobbett C., Goldsbrough P., 2002. Phytochelatins and metallothioneins: roles in heavy metal
510 detoxification and homeostasis. Ann. R. Plant. Biol. 53, 159–182.
511 <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.arplant.53.100301.135154>
512
- 513 De Oliveira V.H., Tibbett M., 2018. Tolerance, toxicity and transport of Cd and Zn in *Populus*
514 *trichocarpa*. Environ. Exp. Bot. 155, 281–292.
515 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envexpbot.2018.07.011>
516
- 517 De Oliveira V.H., Ullah I., Dunwell J.M., Tibbett M., 2020. Mycorrhizal symbiosis induces
518 divergent patterns of transport and partitioning of Cd and Zn in *Populus trichocarpa*. Environ.
519 Exp. Bot. 171, 103925. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envexpbot.2019.103925>
520
- 521 Domènech J., Mir G., Huguet G., Capdevila M., Molinas M., Atrian S., 2006. Plant
522 metallothionein domains: functional insight into physiological metal binding and protein
523 folding. Biochimie 88, 583–593. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biochi.2005.11.002>
524
- 525 Farcasanu I.C., Ruta L.L., 2017. Metallothioneins, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, and heavy

526 metals: a biotechnology triad? In: Lucas C., Pais C. (Eds) *Old Yeasts - New Questions*. InTech
527 Open, pp 21–39. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.70340>

528

529 Goksungur Y., Uren S., Guvenc U., 2005. Biosorption of cadmium and lead ions by ethanol
530 treated waste baker's yeast biomass. *Bioresource Technol.* 96, 103–109.
531 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2003.04.002>

532

533 Gu C.S., Liu L.Q., Zhao Y.H., Deng Y.M., Zhu X.D., Huang S.Z., 2014. Overexpression of
534 *Iris lactea* var. *chinensis* metallothionein lIMT2a enhances cadmium tolerance in *Arabidopsis*
535 *thaliana*. *Ecotox. Environ. Safe.* 105, 22-28. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoenv.2014.04.002>

536

537 Guo W.J., Meenam M., Goldsbrough P.B., 2008. Examining the specific contributions of
538 individual *Arabidopsis* metallothioneins to copper distribution and metal tolerance. *Plant*
539 *Physiol.* 146, 1697–1706. <https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.108.115782>

540

541 Hassinen V., Vallinkoski V.M., Issakainen S., Tervahauta A., Karenlampi S., Servomaa K.,
542 2009. Correlation of foliar MT2b expression with Cd and Zn concentrations in hybrid aspen
543 (*Populus tremula* x *tremuloides*) grown in contaminated soil. *Environ. Pollut.* 157, 922–930.
544 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2008.10.023>

545

546 Hassinen V.H., Tervahauta A.I., Schat H., Karenlampi S.O., 2011. Plant metallothioneins –
547 metal chelators with ROS scavenging activity? *Plant Biol.* 13, 225–232.
548 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1438-8677.2010.00398.x>

549

- 550 He S., He Z., Yang X., Stoffella P.J., Baligar V.C., 2015. Soil biogeochemistry, plant
551 physiology, and phytoremediation of cadmium-contaminated soils. In: Sparks D.L. (Ed.)
552 Advances in Agronomy. Elsevier Inc, Oxford, pp 135–225.
553 <https://doi.org/10.1016/bs.agron.2015.06.005>
554
- 555 Hosiner D., Gerber S., Lichtenberg-Frate H., Glaser W., Schuller C., Klipp E., 2014. Impact of
556 acute metal stress in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Plos One. 9:e83330.
557 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0083330>
558
- 559 Hu P., Sorensen C., Gross M.L., 1995. Influences of peptide side chains on the metal ion
560 binding site in metal ion-cationized peptides: participation of aromatic rings in metal chelation.
561 J. Am. Soc. Mass. Spectr. 6, 1079–1085. [https://doi.org/10.1016/1044-0305\(95\)00549-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/1044-0305(95)00549-8)
562
- 563 Jaakola L., Pirtilla M., Halonen M., Hohtola A., 2001. Isolation of high quality RNA from
564 Bilberry (*Vaccinium myrtillus* L.) fruit. Mol. Biot. 19, 201–203.
565 <https://doi.org/10.1385/MB:19:2:201>
566
- 567 Jamali M., Kazi T.G., Arain M.B., Afridi H.I., Jalbani N., Kandhro G.A., Shah A.Q., Baig J.A.,
568 2009. Heavy metal accumulation in different varieties of wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) grown
569 in soil amended with domestic sewage sludge. J. Hazard. Mater. 164, 1386–1391.
570 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2008.09.056>
571
- 572 Janssen M.P.M., Ma W.C., Van Straalen N.M., 1993. Biomagnification of metals in terrestrial
573 ecosystems, Sci. Total. Environ. 134, 511–524. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0048-](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0048-9697(05)80053-1)
574 [9697\(05\)80053-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0048-9697(05)80053-1)

575

576 Jin S., Sun D., Wang J., Li Y., Wang X., Liu S., 2014. Expression of *rgMT* gene, encoding
577 for a rice metallothionein-like protein in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and *Arabidopsis thaliana*.
578 J. Genet. 93, 709–718.

579

580 Joutey N.T., Bahafid W., Sayel H., Ghachtouli N.E., 2013. Biodegradation: involved
581 microorganisms and genetically engineered microorganisms. In: Chamy R. (Ed.)
582 Biodegradation - Life of Science. InTech, Rijeka, pp 289–320. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/56194>

583

584 Karathia H., Vilaprinyo E., Sorribas A., Alves R., 2011. *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* as a model
585 organism: a comparative study. *Plos One* 6:e16015.
586 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0016015>

587

588 Khan M.A., Khan S., Khan A., Alam M., 2017. Soil contamination with cadmium,
589 consequences and remediation using organic amendments. *Sci. Total Environ.* 601–602, 1591–
590 1605. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.06.030>

591

592 Kim N., Park M., Park D., 2015. A new efficient forest biowaste as biosorbent for removal of
593 cationic heavy metals. *Bioresource Technol.* 175, 629–632.
594 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2014.10.092>

595

596 Kim Y.O., Patel D.H., Lee D.S., Song Y., Bae H.J., 2011. High cadmium-binding ability of a
597 novel *Colocasia esculenta* metallothionein increases cadmium tolerance in *Escherichia coli*
598 and tobacco. *Biosci. Biotech. Bioch.* 75, 1912–1920. <https://doi.org/10.1271/bbb.110289>

599

- 600 Kobayashi K., Kuroda J., Shibata N., Hasegawa T., Seko Y., Satoh M., Tohyama C., Takano
601 H., Imura N., Sakabe K., Fujishiro H., Himeno S., 2007. Induction of metallothionein by
602 manganese is completely dependent on interleukin-6 production. *J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther.* 320,
603 721–727. <https://doi.org/10.1124/jpet.106.112912>
604
- 605 Kohler A., Blaudez D., Chalot M., Martin F., 2004. Cloning and expression of multiple
606 metallothioneins from hybrid poplar. *New Phytol.* 164, 83–93. [https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-
607 8137.2004.01168.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-8137.2004.01168.x)
608
- 609 Kulshreshtha S., 2013. Genetically engineered microorganisms: a problem solving approach
610 for bioremediation. *J. Bioremediat. Biodegrad.* 4:e133.7. doi:10.4172/2155-6199.1000e133
611
- 612 Lei M., Zhang Y., Khan S., Qin P., Liao B., 2010. Pollution, fractionation, and mobility of Pb,
613 Cd, Cu, and Zn in garden and paddy soils from a Pb/Zn mining area. *Environ. Monit. Assess.*
614 168, 215–222. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10661-009-1105-4>
615
- 616 Ma J.C., Dougherty D., 1997. The Cation– π Interaction. *Chem. Rev.* 97, 1303–1324.
617 <https://doi.org/10.1021/cr9603744>
618
- 619 Machado M.D., Santos M.S.F., Gouveia C., Soares H.M.V.M., Soares E.V., 2008. Removal of
620 heavy metals using a brewer's yeast strain of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*: the flocculation as a
621 separation process. *Bioresource Technol.* 99, 2107–2115.
622 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2007.05.047>
623
- 624 Mahadevi A.S., Sastry G.N., 2013. Cation– π interaction: its role and relevance in chemistry,

- 625 biology, and material science. Chem. Rev. 113, 2100–2138. <https://doi.org/10.1021/cr300222d>
- 626
- 627 Marques P.A.S.S., Rosa M.F., Pinheiro H.M., 2000. pH effects on the removal of Cu²⁺, Cd²⁺
- 628 and Pb²⁺ from aqueous solution by waste brewery biomass. Bioprocess. Eng. 23, 135–141.
- 629 <https://doi.org/10.1007/PL00009118>
- 630
- 631 Mirlean N., Roisenberg A., 2006. The effect of emissions of fertilizer production on the
- 632 environment contamination by cadmium and arsenic in southern Brazil. Environ. Pollut. 143,
- 633 335–340. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2005.11.022>
- 634
- 635 Nguyen H., Rineau F., Vangronsveld J., Cuypers A., Colpaert J.V., Ruytinx J., 2017. A novel,
- 636 highly conserved metallothionein family in basidiomycete fungi and characterization of two
- 637 representative *SIMTa* and *SIMTb* genes in the ectomycorrhizal fungus *Suillus luteus*. Environ.
- 638 Microbiol. 19, 2577–2587. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1462-2920.13729>
- 639
- 640 Oliveira R.P.S., Basso L.C., Junior A.P., Penna T.C.V., Borghi M.D., Converti A., 2012.
- 641 Response of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* to cadmium and nickel stress: the use of the sugar cane
- 642 vinasse as a potential mitigator. Biol. Trace Elem. Res. 145, 71–80.
- 643 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12011-011-9156-0>
- 644
- 645 Pankiewicz U., Sujka M., Jamroz J., 2015. Bioaccumulation of the selected metal ions in
- 646 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* cells under treatment of the culture with Pulsed Electric Field (PEF).
- 647 J. Membrane Biol. 248, 943–949. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00232-015-9844-3>
- 648
- 649 Ruiz O.N., Alvarez D., Gonzalez-Ruiz G., Torres C., 2011. Characterization of mercury

650 bioremediation by transgenic bacteria expressing metallothionein and polyphosphate kinase.
651 BMC Biotechnol. 11, 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1472-6750-11-82>
652
653 Ruta .LL., Lin Y.F., Kissen R., Nicolau I., Neagoe A.D., Ghenea S., Bones A.M., Farcasanu
654 I.C., 2017. Anchoring plant metallothioneins to the inner face of the plasma membrane of
655 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* cells leads to heavy metal accumulation. *Plos One* 12:e0178393.
656 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0178393>
657
658 Ruttkay-Nedecky B., Nejd L., Gumulec J., Zitka O., Masarik M., Eckschlager T., Stiborova
659 M., Adam V., Kizek R., 2013. The role of metallothionein in oxidative stress. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.*
660 14, 6044–6066. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms14036044>
661
662 Schothorst J., Van Zeebroeck G., Thevelein J.M., 2017. Identification of Ftr1 and Zrt1 as iron
663 and zinc micronutrient transceptors for activation of the PKA pathway in *Saccharomyces*
664 *cerevisiae*. *Microb. Cell.* 4, 74–89. 10.15698/mic2017.03.561
665
666 Sheoran V., Sheoran A.S., Poonia P., 2011. Role of hyperaccumulators in phytoextraction of
667 metals from contaminated mining sites: a review. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 41, 168–214.
668 <https://doi.org/10.1080/10643380902718418>
669
670 Singh S., Kang S.H., Mulchandani A., Chen W., 2008. Bioremediation: environmental clean-
671 up through pathway engineering. *Curr. Opin. Biotech.* 19, 437–444.
672 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copbio.2008.07.012>
673
674 Smolders E., Mertens J., 2013. Cadmium. In: Alloway B.J. (Ed.) *Heavy metals in soils*, 3rd

- 675 edn. Springer, Netherlands, pp 283–311. 10.1007/978-94-007-4470-7
- 676
- 677 Soares E.V., 2011. Flocculation in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*: a review. J Appl Microbiol 110,
678 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2672.2010.04897.x>
- 679
- 680 Sriprang R., Hayashi M., Ono H., Takagi M., Hirata K., Murooka Y., 2003. Enhanced
681 accumulation of Cd²⁺ by a *Mesorhizobium* sp. transformed with a gene from *Arabidopsis*
682 *thaliana* coding for phytochelatin synthase. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 69, 1791–1796.
683 <https://dx.doi.org/10.1128%2FAEM.69.3.1791-1796.2003>
- 684
- 685 Stewart M., Dunlap T., Dourlain E., Grant B., McFail-Isom L., 2013. Cations form sequence
686 selective motifs within DNA grooves via a combination of cation-pi and ion-dipole/hydrogen
687 bond interactions. Plos One 8:e71420. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0071420>
- 688
- 689 Thorsen M., Perrone G.G., Kristiansson E., Traini M., Ye T., Dawes I.W., Nerman O., Tamas
690 M.H., 2009. Genetic basis of arsenite and cadmium tolerance in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*.
691 BMC Genomics 10, 105. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2164-10-105>
- 692
- 693 Ude C., Schmidt-Hager J., Findeis M., John GT., Scheper T., Beutel S., 2014. Application of
694 an online-biomass sensor in an optical multisensory platform prototype for growth monitoring
695 of biotechnical relevant microorganism and cell lines in single-use shake flasks. Sensors 14,
696 17390–17405. <https://doi.org/10.3390/s140917390>
- 697
- 698 Ullah I., Wang Y., Eide D.J., Dunwell J.M., 2018. Evolution, and functional analysis of Natural
699 Resistance-Associated Macrophage Proteins (NRAMPs) from *Theobroma cacao* and their role

- 700 in cadmium accumulation. *Sci. Rep.* 8:14412. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018-32819-y>
- 701
- 702 Vandebossche M., Dehaese A., Casetta M., Jimenez M., Traisnel M., 2015. Tyrosine: an
703 efficient natural molecule for copper remediation. *Green Mater.* 3, 1–9.
704 <https://doi.org/10.1680/gmat.14.00006>
- 705
- 706 Vijayaraghavan K., Balasubramanian R., 2015. Is biosorption suitable for decontamination of
707 metal-bearing wastewaters? A critical review on the state-of-the-art of biosorption processes
708 and future directions. *J. Environ. Manage.* 160, 283–296.
709 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2015.06.030>
- 710
- 711 Vijver M.G., Gestel C.A.M., Lanno R.P., Van Straalen N.M., Peijnenburg W.J.G.M., 2004.
712 Internal metal sequestration and its ecotoxicological relevance: a review, *Environ. Sci.*
713 *Technol.* 38, 4705–4712. <https://doi.org/10.1021/es040354g>
- 714
- 715 Wang J., Chen C., 2006. Biosorption of heavy metals by *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*: a review.
716 *Biotechnol. Adv.* 24, 427–451. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biotechadv.2006.03.001>
- 717
- 718 Wang J., Chen C., 2009. Biosorbents for heavy metals removal and their future. *Biotechnol.*
719 *Adv.* 27, 195–226. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biotechadv.2008.11.002>
- 720
- 721 Wong H.L., Sakamoto T., Kawasaki T., Umemura K., Shimamoto K., 2004. Down-regulation
722 of metallothionein, a reactive oxygen scavenger, by the small GTPase *OsRac1* in rice. *Plant*
723 *Physiol.* 135, 1447–1456. <https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.103.036384>
- 724

- 725 Zhang M., Takano T., Liu S., Zhang X., 2014a. Abiotic stress response in yeast and metal-
726 binding ability of a type 2 metallothionein-like protein (*PutMT2*) from *Puccinellia tenuiflora*.
727 Mol. Biol. Rep. 41, 5839–5849. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11033-014-3458-1>
728
- 729 Zhang J., Zhang M., Tian S., Lu L., Shohag M.J.I., Yang X., 2014b. Metallothionein 2 (*SaMT2*)
730 from *Sedum alfredii* Hance confers increased Cd tolerance and accumulation in yeast and
731 tobacco, Plos One 9:e102750. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0102750>
732
- 733 Zhao H., Eide D., 1996. The *ZRT2* gene encodes the low affinity zinc transporter in
734 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. J. Biol. Chem. 271, 23203–23210. 10.1074/jbc.271.38.23203
735
- 736 Zhou J., Goldsbrough P.B., 1994. Functional homologs of fungal metallothionein genes from
737 *Arabidopsis*. Plant Cell 6, 875–884. <https://doi.org/10.1105/tpc.6.6.875>