



Cronfa - Swansea University Open Access Repository

This is an author produced version of a paper published in: *Biocatalysis and Agricultural Biotechnology*

Cronfa URL for this paper: http://cronfa.swan.ac.uk/Record/cronfa48900

Paper:

Pérez-Grisales, M., Castrillón-Tobón, M., Copete-Pertuz, L., Plácido, J. & Mora-Martínez, A. (2019). Biotransformation of the antibiotic agent cephadroxyl and the synthetic dye Reactive Black 5 by Leptosphaerulina sp. immobilised on Luffa (Luffa cylindrica) sponge. *Biocatalysis and Agricultural Biotechnology, 18*, 101051 http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bcab.2019.101051

Released under the terms of a Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial No Derivatives License (CC-BY-NC-ND).

This item is brought to you by Swansea University. Any person downloading material is agreeing to abide by the terms of the repository licence. Copies of full text items may be used or reproduced in any format or medium, without prior permission for personal research or study, educational or non-commercial purposes only. The copyright for any work remains with the original author unless otherwise specified. The full-text must not be sold in any format or medium without the formal permission of the copyright holder.

Permission for multiple reproductions should be obtained from the original author.

Authors are personally responsible for adhering to copyright and publisher restrictions when uploading content to the repository.

Biotransformation of the antibiotic agent cephadroxyl and the synthetic dye Reactive Black 5 by *Leptosphaerulina* sp. immobilised on Luffa (*Luffa cylindrica*) sponge

Susana Pérez-Grisales^{1†}, Marian Castrillón-Tobón^{1†}, Ledys S. Copete-Pertuz^{1*}, Jersson
Plácido², Amanda L. Mora-Martínez^{1*}

6 1 Grupo de Investigación Producción Estructura y Aplicación de Biomoléculas (PROBIOM),

7 Escuela de Química, Facultad de Ciencias, Universidad Nacional de Colombia - Sede

- 8 Medellín, Calle 59A No 63-20, Medellín, Colombia.
- 9 2 Institute of Life Science, Medical School, Swansea University, Swansea, SA2 8PP, Wales,
 10 UK.
- 11

12 Abstract

In the present work, immobilisation of *Leptosphaerulina* sp., a Colombian native
fungus, improved the biotransformation of pollutants (Remazol black 5 (RB5) dye
and cephadroxyl (CPD) antibiotic) in aqueous systems. Four different natural
immobilisation matrices (charcoal, luffa sponge, wood chips and cork) were tested

^{*}Corresponding authors:

Tel.: +57(4)4309339;

E-mail address: lscopete@unal.edu.co; almora@unal.edu.co.

[†] These authors contributed equally to this work

17 in order to select the most suitable for *Leptosphaerulina* sp. biomass augmentation. 18 Luffa sponge was selected qualitatively as the most appropriate material for the 19 immobilisation of Leptosphaerulina sp. CPD and RB5 biotransformation was 20 performed with immobilised and suspended Leptosphaerulina sp. cultures on luffa 21 sponge. The luffa sponge-immobilised fungus exhibited a considerable removal of 22 CPD (~100%) and RB5 (91.9%). The luffa sponge-immobilised Leptosphaerulina sp. 23 achieved a higher CPD removal than the suspended cultures (~100% vs 94.4%, 24 respectively, on day 15). RB5 experiments revealed a higher removal (91.9% for 25 immobilised fungus vs 87% for suspended fungus, on day 15) and a faster 26 transformation of RB5 in luffa sponge-immobilised cultures than that of free cultures 27 (26.3 decolourisation % per day for immobilised cultures vs 18.2 decolourisation % 28 per day for suspended cultures). Additionally, luffa sponge immobilisation also 29 improved Leptosphaerulina sp. production of laccase (Lac) and manganese 30 peroxidase (MnP) (e.g. at day 3, Lac and MnP in immobilised culture were 84% and 31 76%, respectively, higher than suspended culture during CDP removal, and 83% 32 and 5% in bio-treament of RB5). These results evidenced the potential of Luffa 33 (Luffa cylindrica) sponge-immobilised Leptosphaerulina sp. as a strategy to enhance 34 the biodegradation process of recalcitrant compounds, to facilitate biomass recycling 35 and to be used in the process scale-up.

36

37 Keywords: White-rot fungi; Ligninolytic enzymes; Immobilisation; Antibiotics;
38 Decolourisation.

39 Capsule:

Luffa (*Luffa cylindrica*) sponge-immobilised *Leptosphaerulina* sp. efficiently removed
the antibiotic agent cephadroxyl and the synthetic dye Reactive Black 5.

42

43 1. INTRODUCTION

44 Synthetic dyes and antibiotics are chemicals, with inappropriate wastewaters 45 disposal, involved in water sources contamination (Khan et al., 2013). Synthetic dyes 46 are mainly used by the textile industry because their high chemical stability and 47 resistance to oxidising agents and microbial attacks (Bhatia et al., 2017). However, 48 these characteristics complicate their removal from textile industry wastewaters 49 (Wang et al., 2013). Synthetic dyes improper disposal is associated with ecological 50 and health issues. Antibiotics are xenobiotic compounds whose function is to inhibit 51 bacterial growth and are one of the most widely consumed pharmaceuticals in the 52 world (Čvančarová et al., 2015; Lucas et al., 2016). The incorrect disposal of 53 wastewaters with antibiotics alter the natural microbiota of the environment and 54 favour the appearance of increasingly resistant pathogenic bacterial strains (Copete-55 Pertuz et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2015).

56 Reactive Black 5 (RB5) and the antibiotic cephadroxyl (CPD) are recalcitrant 57 compounds frequently utilised as a relevant model to evaluate novel methods for 58 dyes and antibiotics degradation (Adnan et al., 2014; Enayatizamir et al., 2011; 59 Oliveira et al., 2018; Serna-Galvis et al., 2017). Additionally, these compounds are 60 relevant for Colombia's environment as they have been frequently reported in

61 Colombian water resources (Botero-Coy et al., 2018; Plácido et al., 2016). RB5 62 constitutes 50% of azo dyes employed in the textile industry (Copete-Pertuz et al., 63 2018; Nabil et al., 2014). RB5 ingestion through contaminated food and water is 64 associated with cancer development and allergic reactions in the respiratory tract 65 (Hussain et al., 2013; Usha et al., 2011). CPD belongs to the group of β-lactam 66 antibiotics and it is associated with toxicity and resistant bacteria proliferation in 67 natural waters (Etebu and Arikekpar, 2016). CPD is frequently distributed and 68 consumed in Colombia; however, its concentration in Colombian wastewater is 69 unknown (Pallares & Martínez, 2012; Serna-Galvis et al., 2017). Other antibiotics 70 such as azithromycin, ciprofloxacin and norfloxacin, can be found in Colombian 71 wastewater at levels above 1 µg L⁻¹ (Botero-Coy et al., 2018).

72 Antibiotics and dyes removal from wastewaters use conventional methods such as 73 chemical, physical and biological methods; however, they are not able to completely 74 eliminate or remove these compounds (Efligenir et al., 2014; Patel and Bhatt, 2013; 75 Rizzo et al., 2013; Verlicchi et al., 2012). Non-conventional methods such as 76 activated carbon, coagulation, membrane filtration and irradiation are used for dyes 77 and antibiotics removal; although, their use had major disadvantages as they have 78 high costs and utilise toxic oxidising reagents (Adnan et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2013). 79 Traditional activated sludge systems are not recommended for antibiotics removal 80 as they create a favourable environment for the development and propagation of 81 microbial resistance, due to the continuous exposure of bacteria to antibiotics at sub-82 inhibitory concentrations (Bouki et al., 2013; Rizzo et al., 2013). Therefore, it is 83 necessary to develop novel, economic and environmental friendly methodologies for

84 the removal and degradation of these recalcitrant compounds.

85 White-rot fungi (WRF) is a novel method for removing antibiotics and dyes from 86 aqueous streams (Adnan et al., 2014; Čvančarová et al., 2014; Daâssi et al., 2013; 87 Prieto et al., 2011). The ascomycete fungus Leptosphaerulina sp., isolated from 88 lignocellulosic material in the Valle de Aburrá (Medellin, Colombia) (Chanagá Vera 89 et al., 2012; Plácido et al., 2016), has efficiently degraded different synthetic organic 90 dyes and antibiotics including RB5 and CPD (Chanagá Vera et al., 2012; Copete-91 Pertuz et al., 2019; Copete-Pertuz et al., 2018; Copete et al., 2015; Plácido et al., 92 2016). The success obtained in the transformation of these pollutants opened the 93 opportunity for scaling up this wastewater treatment process. Therefore, it is 94 necessary to test strategies to increase enzymes production, biotransformation rates 95 and reduce production costs.

96 Fungal immobilisation is a methodology that facilitates the scale up of wastewater 97 treatments and improves the process efficiencies and removal rate (Couto, 2009; Li 98 et al., 2015). Immobilised fungal cultures had higher efficiencies than those in 99 suspension because immobilisation protects the fungal mycelia from shear damage, 100 decreases the viscosity of the culture broth, and recreates the conditions in which 101 the fungus naturally grows (Barry et al., 2009; Couto, 2009; Daássi et al., 2013; Li et 102 al., 2015). Funalia trogii immobilised on calcium alginate microspheres achieved a 103 higher decolourisation percentage (93.8%) of the acid dye black 5 than the fungus 104 in suspension (88%) (Park et al., 2006). Similarly, Calcium-alginate-immobilised Coriolopsis gallica, B. adusta, T. versicolour and T. trogii achieved high removal 105 106 levels (85%, 70.9%, 75.3% and 72.2%, respectively) of the Lanaset gray G dye

107 (Daâssi et al., 2013). The use of polymeric gels for fungal immobilisation has many
108 limitations associated with low mechanical resistance and lack of freedom for
109 biomass proliferation, which is why other materials have been considered to support
110 fungal growth (Couto, 2009).

111 The aim of this research was to select the optimum natural supporting material for 112 the immobilisation of the Colombian native fungus Leptosphaerulina sp. and to 113 assess the capability of immobilised *Leptosphaerulina* sp. for the biotransformation 114 of model pollutants (RB5 dye and CPD antibiotic) in aqueous systems. This article 115 sought to study for the first time the effect of Leptosphaerulina sp. immobilisation for 116 the transformation of pollutants and enzymes production, the effect of fungal 117 immobilisation for antibiotic transformation and the possible use of Colombia's 118 natural materials as support matrices for fungal immobilisation.

119

120 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

121 **2.1.** Chemicals

122 Reactive Black 5 (RB5) (azoic dye, λ_{max} = 598 nm) was donated by Fabricato-123 Tejicondor S.A. Cephadroxyl monohydrate 92.9% (CPD) was obtained from 124 syntofarma. Glucose, yeast extract, ammonium molybdate, monobasic potassium 125 phosphate, zinc sulphate heptahydrate, peptone, tetraborate sodium decahydrate, 126 sodium acetate and malt extract, bought from Carlo Erba. Ammonium L-(+)-tartrate 127 98% and 2,6-dimethoxyphenol 99% (DMP) was obtained from Alfa Aesar.

Manganese sulphate heptahydrate, iron sulphate heptahydrate, ammonium
sulphate, acetic acid, sodium chloride, formic acid, potassium chloride, tartaric acid,
hydrogen peroxide, acetonitrile, methanol and Mueller-Hinton agar were bought from
Merck. 2,2'-azino-bis-(3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulphonic acid) diammonium salt
98% (ABTS) from Sigma-Aldrich.

133 2.2. Microorganism and culture conditions

134 Leptosphaerulina sp. was obtained from PROBIOM research group's 135 microorganisms collection (CECT 20913) (Copete et al., 2015; Plácido et al., 2016). 136 The fungus was maintained in malt extract agar at 4 °C until use. Mycelium from a 137 10-days old culture was homogenised and employed as inoculum in the removal 138 process (Copete et al., 2015). Experiments were carried out in a culture medium (pH 139 5.6) containing 10 g L⁻¹ glucose, 5 g L⁻¹ peptone, 2 g L⁻¹ ammonium tartrate, 1 g L⁻¹ 140 yeast extract, 1 g L⁻¹ KH₂PO₄, 0.5 g L⁻¹ KCl and 0.5 g L⁻¹ MgSO₄. 7H₂O, and 1 mL 141 mineral solution [100 mg L⁻¹ B₄O₇Na₂. 10H₂O, 70 mg L⁻¹, ZnSO₄. 7H₂O, 50 mg L⁻¹ 142 FeSO₄. 7H₂O, 10 mg L⁻¹ (NH₄)₆Mo₇O₂₄. 4H₂O and 10 mg L⁻¹ MnSO₄. 7H₂O] (Copete-143 Pertuz, et al., 2018). This work was authorised by the Autoridad Nacional de 144 Licencias Ambientales (ANLA) under the research permit No. 8 de 2010 (Resolución 145 324 de 2014) and the Ministerio de Ambiente y Desarrollo Sostenible of Colombia 146 with the agreement No. 96 of 2014 to genetic resources access.

147

149 **2.3.** Evaluation of natural support materials for the immobilisation of 150 Leptosphaerulina sp.

151 Four different natural materials (charcoal, luffa sponge, wood chips and cork) were 152 obtained from a local store (Medellín, Colombia). They were evaluated in order to 153 select the most appropriate immobilisation material for Leptosphaerulina sp. The 154 supporting materials were placed in 250 mL Erlenmeyer flasks with 100 mL of culture 155 medium. The supporting materials initial load (charcoal, 5 g; luffa sponge, 1 g; wood 156 chips, 5 g; cork of 5 cm², 3 g) was selected based on each material characteristics. 157 The luffa sponge and wood chips initial load corresponded to the values reported by 158 El-Sherif et al., (2013) and Mahmoud (2007), respectively. After the support 159 materials were added into the Erlenmeyer flasks, these were inoculated with 5 mL 160 of Leptosphaerulina sp. homogenised and incubated at 160 rpm, 28 °C for 15 days 161 (Ehlers and Rose, 2005; Kasinath, 2003). The controls for this experiment were 162 Leptosphaerulina sp. cultures without supporting material and the supporting 163 material with culture medium and without fungal strain. All assays were performed 164 in triplicate. The experiment response variable was the amount of biomass retained 165 in each of the supports, which was determined qualitatively by observing the 166 biomass growth in the material during the days 3, 7, 12 and 15. The biomass growth 167 was classified in no growth (-), low growth (+), medium growth (++), and significant 168 growth (+++).

170 2.4. Biotransformation of CPD and RB5 by immobilised Leptosphaerulina 171 sp.

172 The biotransformation assays utilised 250 mL conical flasks containing 100 mL of 173 liquid medium (pH 5.6) (Section 2.2) supplemented with CPD (15256 µg L⁻¹) or RB5 174 (200 mg L^{-1}) and a luffa sponge disk (approximately 3 cm thick and 2 g weight). 175 Flasks were inoculated with 5 mL of mycelium previously homogenised (Copete-176 Pertuz et al., 2018), and later incubated at 28 °C and 160 rpm during 15 days. The cultures were sampled on days 3, 7, 12 and 15. As sampling volume, 4 mL were 177 178 withdrawn from the flasks at each time point. CPD removal, antimicrobial activity, 179 and RB5 decolourisation percentage were used as response variables. CPD and 180 RB5 removal were followed by high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) and 181 UV-VIS spectrophotometry, respectively. Additionally, ligninolytic enzymes activities, 182 protein concentration and the retained biomass dry weight were evaluated. All 183 experiments were carried out in triplicate. The *t*-test was utilised to establish the 184 differences between immobilised and suspended cultures with and alpha of 0.05. 185 The *t*-*t*est analyses were performed in the R software version 3.4.3.

Six assays were used as controls: 1) *Leptosphaerulina* sp. cultured with luffa sponge and without RB5 or CPD (LC). 2) *Leptosphaerulina* sp. cultured without luffa sponge and without RB5 or CPD (HM). 3) *Leptosphaerulina* sp. cultured with antibiotic and without luffa sponge (AC). 4) *Leptosphaerulina* sp. cultured with dye and without luffa sponge (CC). 5) Culture media with antibiotic and luffa sponge, without *Leptosphaerulina* sp. inoculum (AM). 6) Culture media with dye and luffa sponge, without *Leptosphaerulina* sp. inoculum (CM).

193 **2.5.** Determination of ligninolytic enzymatic activities

194 Lac activity was measured by monitoring the oxidation of ABTS (3 mM) in sodium 195 tartrate buffer (0.1 M, pH 3.0) (Ciullini et al., 2008; Zhou et al., 2014). Similarly, the 196 VP activity was determined from the oxidation of ABTS (3 mM) in buffer solution 197 sodium tartrate (pH 3.0, 0.1 M) and H₂O₂ (0.1 mM) (Camarero et al., 1999; Copete 198 et al., 2015). Lac and VP activities were monitored spectrophotometrically at a 199 wavelength of 420 nm and a molar extinction coefficient of (ϵ_{420} , 36000 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹). 200 MnP activity was measured based on the oxidation of 2,6-dimethoxyphenol (DMP, 201 1 mM), in sodium acetate (pH 4.5, 0.1 M) with H₂O₂ (0.1 mM) and MnSO₄ (1 mM) at 202 469 nm (ϵ_{469} , 27500 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹) (Mizuno et al., 2009). Enzymatic activity was 203 determined in triplicate and expressed in units (U) of enzyme per milligram of protein 204 $(U mq^{-1})$. U is defined as the amount of enzyme that catalyses 1 µmol of substrate 205 in 1 min (Ciullini et al., 2008; Enavatzamir, 2009).

206 **2.6.** Determination of protein concentration and dry weight

The protein concentration in the fungal extract was determined by the Bradford's method. A calibration curve was constructed from bovine serum albumin solutions (Bradford, 1976). The fungal biomass dry weight was determined by measuring the amount of biomass retained in the support material. The support material was dried before and after *Leptosphaerulina* sp. growth. The support material was dried until constant weight at 60 °C in a convection oven (Precisa®). This procedure was done in triplicate.

214

215 2.7. Chromatographic analysis of antibiotic

216 CPD removal was determined by reverse phase high performance liquid 217 chromatography (RP)-HPLC (Thermo Scientific DIONEX UltiMate 3000) equipped 218 with a Diode Array Detector (DAD) and a Thermo scientific Acclaim 120 column (C-219 18 5µm, 4.6x100mm). A homogeneous mixture of acetonitrile (C₂H₃N) and formic 220 acid buffer (CH₂O₂) (10 mM, pH 3), 20/80 (% v/v) was used as mobile phase (Serna-221 Galvis, et al., 2017). The chromatography utilised 20 µL of the samples, a mobile 222 phase flow of 1 mL min⁻¹ and a fixed wavelength of 225 nm for the DAD detector.

223 **2.8.** Residual antibacterial activity assays

224 As additional method to determine the degree of antibiotic elimination, the residual 225 antibacterial activity (AA) of CPD and its transformation products were evaluated 226 through the Kirby-Bauer test with the gram-positive bacteria Bacillus cereus as the 227 indicator bacterial strain. Petri dishes with Mueller-Hinton Agar were inoculated with 228 15 µL of the bacterial suspension (optical density of 0.6 at 580 nm). When the agar 229 solidified, 6 mm holes were made in its surface. 30 µL of sample (antibiotics or 230 transformation products) covered each hole and the petri dishes incubated at 37 °C 231 for 24 h. The AA was determined based on the measurement of the inhibition halos 232 of the samples (Copete-Pertuz et al., 2018; Čvančarová et al., 2015; Čvančarová et 233 al., 2013).

234

235

237 **2.9.** Evaluation of decolourisation of RB5 in aqueous solution

Decolourisation of RB5 was followed spectrophotometrically (Shimadzu UV-1800
spectrophotometer) at 598 nm and was expressed in terms of decolourisation
percentage (*D*%) (Equation 1) (Forootanfar et al., 2016; Shedbalkar et al., 2008):

241
$$D\% = \frac{A_0 - A_t}{A_0} \times 100$$
 Equation 1

242 Where A_0 corresponds to the initial absorbance and A_t to the absorbance after the 243 sampling time.

244

245 **3. RESULTS**

246 **3.1.** Evaluation of different materials for the immobilisation of 247 Leptosphaerulina sp.

248 Four natural materials (charcoal, luffa sponge, wood chips and cork) were evaluated 249 as immobilisation supports for *Leptosphaerulina* sp growth. The immobilisation 250 experiments did not have RB5 or CPD to avoid any external factor influencing the 251 fungal growth on the supporting material. **Table 1** displays the gualitative growth 252 measurements for the different supports. Charcoal was the only material without 253 visible *Leptosphaerulina* sp. growth; this lack of growth corresponded to an inhibition 254 produced by compounds in the charcoal surface or by compounds released from it 255 into the liquid media. Although visible growth was not observed, the fungus was still 256 active; this was identified by the presence of enzymatic activities in the samples 257 (data not shown). On wood chips and cork, *Leptosphaerulina* sp. had medium and 258 low proliferation, respectively. On wood chips, Leptosphaerulina sp. grew in specific 259 areas but its distribution did not follow any pattern. On cork, small bodies proliferated 260 on the material's corners and indentations; however, the fungal growth on cork was 261 lower than that of luffa sponge. In luffa sponge, Leptosphaerulina sp. exhibited a 262 significant proliferation. In this material, *Leptosphaerulina* sp. biomass distributed 263 principally inside the luffa porous matrix and slightly on the outer surface. As the 264 most significant *Leptosphaerulina* sp. biomass proliferation was observed in the luffa 265 sponge (**Table 1**), this material was selected as the immobilisation matrix for the 266 subsequent biotransformation assays.

267 **3.1.** Biotransformation of cephadroxyl using suspended and immobilised 268 Leptosphaerulina sp.

269 The CPD removal was compared between the immobilised fungus (AL) and the 270 suspended fungus (AC) during 15 days using as controls, assays with suspended 271 and immobilised fungus without CPD and with luffa and CPD and without fungus. 272 Figure 1 exhibits the CPD removal percentage and the antibacterial activity 273 percentage (AA %) vs time for the immobilised and suspended Leptosphaerulina sp. 274 cultures. The abiotic control achieved a 20% reduction of the CPD initial 275 concentration (15256 µg L⁻¹); indicating sorption of CPD into the luffa sponge. In the 276 immobilised and suspended cultures, the CPD concentration decreased 277 considerably (~77.7%) on the third day; after this day, the removal increased at a 278 constant rate (1.8%/day) until day 12. The CPD reduction was superior in the 279 immobilised experiment especially at day 15 when the immobilised culture reached

280 almost 100% removal (Figure 1A). In contrast, at day 15, the suspended cultures 281 removed 94.4% of CPD (Figure 1B). The immobilised experiment achieved the 282 largest CPD removal % using a mixture of removal mechanisms, including sorption 283 in the luffa sponge, enzymatic degradation in the liquid media and enzymatic 284 degradation of the sorbed antibiotic in the luffa sponge. The *t*-test performed to the 285 results from day 15 evidenced significant differences between the CPD removal 286 percentages of immobilised and suspended cultures (p-value < 0.001). In contrast, 287 the *t-test* performed to the results from day 3, 7 and 12, indicated that the two 288 treatments were not statistically different (p-value > 0.05) (Supplementary 289 material).

290 Antimicrobial activity (AA) of CPD and its degradation products against Bacillus 291 cereus was evaluated for the immobilised and suspended cultures (Figure 1). In 292 both experiments, the inhibition halo was observed only at day 0 (average diameter 293 of 10.33 ± 0.08 mm), which corresponds to the maximum CPD concentration in the 294 liquid medium (15496 µg L⁻¹). The samples from day 3, 7, 12 and 15 did not generate 295 an inhibition halo, indicating that the initial three days of biotransformation with 296 immobilised or suspended *Leptosphaerulina* sp. were enough to significantly reduce 297 CPD concentration and completely reduce the AA.

Lac, MnP and VP enzymatic activities were determined for the suspended and immobilised cultures and their results are described in **Figure 2**. In both cultures, the enzymatic activities increased during the first three days followed by a constant enzymatic activity reduction. The immobilised *Leptosphaerulina* sp. experiment achieved the highest expression of the three ligninolytic enzymes measured; Lac

303 (5.56 U mg⁻¹), VP (8.29 U mg⁻¹) and MnP (5.75 U mg⁻¹). During the initial three days, 304 the immobilised culture achieved an enzymatic production 6, 2.5 and 5.5-times 305 higher than the suspended culture's Lac, VP and MnP activities, respectively (Figure 306 2). The period of maximum enzymatic production correlates with the maximum CPD 307 removal velocity (26%/day). In suspended cultures, VP activity maximum expression 308 was detected at day 7 (3.13 U mg⁻¹); whereas, for Lac (0.92 U mg⁻¹) and MnP (1.03 309 U mg⁻¹) it was detected on the third day. The decreasing trend in the enzymatic 310 activity observed after the third or seventh day, in immobilised and suspended 311 cultures is correlated with the depletion of carbon or nitrogen sources (Copete-312 Pertuz et al., 2018).

The control experiments demonstrated the eliciting effect that the antibiotic produced to the suspended cultures' VP expression. This positive effect was greater during day 7, when the VP activity, in the suspended culture with CPD, was almost three times higher than the VP activity for the suspended control without antibiotic. The Lac activity was similar in both cases; whereas, the MnP production was higher in the control than that of the suspended culture with CPD.

Similar to the suspended cultures, the control experiments exhibited the influence of luffa immobilisation in the production of VP and Lac. The immobilised culture control achieved a greater expression of VP and Lac than the suspended culture control. In contrast, MnP activity was higher in the suspended control than that of the immobilised control. The differences in the enzymatic activities between the immobilised *Leptosphaerulina* sp. with CPD and the controls without CPD

325 demonstrated the elicitation of these enzymatic activities by the combination of luffa326 sponge immobilisation and CPD presence.

327 **Figure 3** describes the dry biomass obtained in the different experiments. These 328 results exhibited a difference between the controls biomass and the immobilised 329 biomass. The biomass immobilised on the luffa sponge control without pollutant 330 doubled the amount of biomass from the immobilised assay with antibiotic. The 331 coexistence of high enzymatic activity and low biomass concentration is associated 332 with the nutritional sources or with CPD inhibition. As CPD enhance the production 333 of enzymes the nutritional sources utilised for producing biomass were reduced, 334 whereas, in absence of CPD, the sources are used for biomass growing instead of 335 been used for enzymatic production. Additionally, if CPD produce growth inhibition, 336 the fungi can produce additional enzymes to attack the inhibitory compound.

337 3.2. RB5 Decolourisation

338 Similar to the procedure executed in the CPD biotransformation, the RB5 dye 339 decolourisation was evaluated with immobilised (CL) and suspended cultures (CC) 340 during 15 days, the experiment included the measurement of decolourisation 341 percentage (D%) and ligninolytic activities. Figure 4 presents the D% of RB5 in both 342 the Leptosphaerulina sp. suspended and immobilised cultures. During the first 3 343 days, the immobilised culture had a higher decolourisation rate (26.3 D%/day) than 344 the suspended culture (18.2 D%/day). At the third day, the immobilised culture's D% 345 was 86.8%; whereas, for the suspended culture was 59.2% (p-value < 0.01). For the 346 duration of the experiment, the immobilisation experiment's D% was higher than that 347 of the suspended culture. From **Figure 4**, the control without the fungus and without 348 luffa did not produced RB5 removal. Likewise, the control assay using the support 349 matrix without the fungus demonstrated that sorption on the luffa sponge has a small 350 participation (9%) in RB5 decolourisation. Therefore, the RB5 removal exhibited by 351 the immobilised and suspended cultures is due to biological and enzymatic 352 mechanisms and not to external factors such as light or sorption in the Erlenmever 353 flask or the immobilisation matrix. At days 3, 7, and 12, the immobilised and 354 suspended cultures were statistically different (p-value < 0.05). In contrast, at day 355 15, the immobilised experiment's D% (91.9%) was numerically higher than that of 356 the suspended culture (87%), but their difference was not statistically significant (p-357 value > 0.05) (Supplementary material). The greatest difference between 358 immobilised and suspended culture was the decolourisation rate; the immobilised 359 experiment reached the maximum D% at the 7 day, half of the time required by the 360 suspended culture. This rise in the decolourisation rate was an evidence of the 361 positive effect of luffa sponge immobilisation on *Leptosphaerulina* sp. decolourising 362 activity.

As well as for CPD, Lac, MnP and VP enzymatic activities were determined for all of the previously mentioned assays. **Figure 5** describes the three enzymatic profiles for the immobilised and suspended cultures and the control assays. On the third day, the luffa immobilised-fungus expressed the highest Lac activity (0.48 U mg⁻¹) (**Figure 5A**); whereas, the suspension culture reached its maximum activity (0.22 U mg⁻¹) on the seventh day. The VP activity profile for the immobilised and suspended experiments reached their maximum values on the seventh day with 0.76 U mg⁻¹

and 1.68 U mg⁻¹, respectively. For the MnP activity, the suspended culture exhibited
(1.02 U mg⁻¹) a slightly greater maximum activity than the immobilised fungus (0.89
U mg⁻¹); in both cases, the maximum activity was reached on the seventh day. The *Leptosphaerulina* sp. cultured without luffa sponge and without pollutant achieved
the highest MnP activity.

Finally, the dry biomass from the immobilised and suspended culture was measured at the end of the process. **Figure 3** shows the average biomass dry weight obtained for *Leptosphaerulina* sp. cultured on luffa sponge with (CL) and without (LC) dye. A considerable lower amount of biomass grew in the luffa sponge in the experiments with dye compared with the experiment without dye. RB5 generated a reduction in *Leptosphaerulina* sp. growth; however, it was lower than the growth reduction generated by CPD.

382

383 4. DISCUSSION

384 This article is the first report showing fungal immobilisation for antibiotics removal 385 and the first report about the effect of immobilisation in the biotransformation of RB5 386 by Leptosphaerulina sp. Additionally, this article is one of the first reports of 387 Colombia's natural materials used as support matrix for fungal immobilisation. The 388 natural matrices experiment demonstrated that the immobilisation of 389 Leptosphaerulina sp. required lignocellulosic materials with high porosity and large 390 porous size. This affirmation was supported by the absence of growth in charcoal 391 (non-lignocellulosic material) and the reduced growth in cork and wood chips.

392 Although charcoal, cork and wood chips have high porosity, the porous size is 393 smaller making them unsuitable to support fungal growth. Luffa sponge has a fibrous 394 network with high porosity, significant surface area and larger pore size making this 395 material ideal for fungal biomass immobilisation (Sriharsha et al., 2017). The 396 significant biomass in the luffa sponge suggests that this material could emulate the 397 conditions in which Leptosphaerulina sp. grows naturally. Luffa sponge has similar 398 composition (cellulose 50-60%, hemicellulose 25-28% and lignin 10-12%) (Saeed 399 and lqbal, 2013) as other lignocellulosic materials (turf grasses) utilised as substrate 400 by other Leptosphaerulina genus members (Mitkowski and Browning, 2004). 401 Previous studies have evaluated luffa sponge as a support for the immobilisation of 402 filamentous fungi such as P. chrysosporium, Trichoderma viride and Funalia trogii 403 (Table 2). The biocompatibility and biomass distribution between *Leptosphaerulina* 404 sp. and luffa sponge is similar to P. chrysosporium immobilisation in luffa sponge 405 (Iqbal and Edyvean, 2005). In that study, P. chrysosporium hyphae significantly grew 406 in the internal cavities of the fibrous network.

407 Leptosphaerulina sp. immobilised in luffa sponge increased the CPD removal % and 408 the D% compared with the suspended culture. However, CPD and RB5 removal 409 increases were different. On one hand, the immobilised CPD removal increased on 410 the final measurement point compared with the suspended culture, this improvement 411 was correlated with a significant production of ligninolytic enzymes and a 412 considerable reduction in the biomass proliferation on the luffa sponge. As no other 413 authors have evaluated fungal immobilisation for antibiotics removal, the comparison 414 with other research works included other pharmaceutical compounds (Table 2). The

415 CPD removal % obtained by the luffa immobilised culture reached higher removals 416 than other immobilised fungi treating other pharmaceutical compounds. P. 417 chrysosporium BKM-F-1767 immobilised in wood sawdust obtained 80% removal 418 and ~100% removal of carbamezepine and naproxen, respectively (Li et al., 2015). 419 On the other hand, RB5 removal (92%) improved during the initial days (3 to 7) 420 instead of the final measurement point (15 day). This decolourisation rate 421 improvement achieved a 50% reduction in the decolourisation time compared with 422 the suspension culture. The RB5 removal obtained by Leptosphaerulina sp. 423 immobilised in luffa sponge (92%) is higher than that of Trametes pubescens 424 immobilised in stainless steel sponges (74%) and lower than that of Trametes 425 versicolor immobilised in luffa sponges (98%). In both cases, the RB5 concentrations 426 were lower (30 and 150 mg L⁻¹) than the employed in this study (200 mg L⁻¹). The 427 positive effect of fungal immobilisation has also been demonstrated for removing 428 other dyes such as brilliant green, reactive blue 98, evans blue, and acid blue 74 429 (Table 2).

The different results obtained by the combination of immobilisation and pollutant can be associated with different *Leptosphaerulina* sp. morphologies. Fungal morphology can be influenced by different environmental factors such as reactor geometry, agitation speed, airflow and culture media which can generate variability in the enzymatic expression (Krull et al., 2013; Naghdi et al., 2018). RB5 removal by immobilised *Leptosphaerulina* sp. was associated with dye sorption by the solid matrix (9%), sorption by the fungal biomass and enzyme production by the fungus.

437 This combined mechanism explains the faster degradation observed on the first days438 of the immobilised *Leptosphaerulina* sp. assay.

439

440 The production of ligninolytic enzymes in cultures with antibiotics have been 441 dependent on the physicochemical characteristics of the antibiotic (Naghdi et al., 442 2018). In this case, CPD phenolic structure can act as an inducer for the enzymatic 443 activities or act as laccase mediator (Camarero et al., 2012; Jeon et al., 2012). In 444 contrast, the immobilised culture with RB5 did not produce high enzymatic activities, 445 however, this culture was able to significantly reduce the decolourisation time and 446 achieve higher decolourisation than the suspended culture. The high decolourising 447 activity associated with low enzymatic activities can be explained by the production 448 of iso-enzymes, which can have more affinity for RB5 (Copete et al., 2015). 449 Lignocellulosic materials as a support matrix can trig Iso-enzymes expression as this 450 type of material stimulates the production of ligninolytic enzymes and favours the 451 attachment of fungal biomass by simulating fungal growth in nature (Jeon et al., 452 2012; Masran et al., 2016). Additionally, as the biomass was in contact with the 453 supporting matrix, cell wall associated oxidases could participate in the degradation 454 of the pollutants, these enzymes can explain the high decolourising activity with low 455 suspended ligninolytic activities (García-Santamarina and Thiele, 2015; Zucca et al., 456 2016). The enzymes involved in the biotransformation process of the antibiotic are 457 not limited to those evaluated in this research, although, they are the most commonly 458 reported. The production and participation of other enzymes depends on the nature 459 and structure of the pollutants in the culture media.

460 As the CPD removal by immobilised and suspended cultures had similar values 461 during the majority of the process and the only statistical difference between them 462 was obtained during the final day. The selection of immobilised over suspended 463 cultures for CPD removal should be focused not only in the removal percentage but 464 also in the other advantages demonstrated by the immobilised Leptosphaerulina sp. 465 CPD treatment with immobilised cultures were able to produce higher amounts of all 466 the enzymatic activities. Additionally, this hyper production can include the 467 production of other iso-enzymes or other enzymes. Technically, immobilisation 468 allows biomass re-usage and facilitates the *in-situ* operation as it can be easily 469 transported. As the processing time for removing RB5 was significantly reduced by 470 immobilised Leptosphaerulina sp. this process is a better option for textile 471 wastewater treatment and future process scale-up. Fungal immobilisation can 472 improve the enzymes quality, activity, or type (Bertrand et al., 2017; Dubey et al., 473 2017). These differences can generate benefits such as greater affinities for 474 substrates, higher redox potentials and greater stability (Bertrand et al., 2017; Dubey 475 et al., 2017). Leptosphaerulina sp. immobilisation in luffa sponge is an alternative to 476 scale-up and reutilise *Leptosphaerulina* sp. biomass for different type of pollutants. 477 Future research will be focused on the evaluation of immobilised biomass recycling, 478 the simultaneous removal of pollutants and reactor configuration selection for 479 scaling-up the Leptosphaerulina sp. pollutants biotransformation process.

480

481 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

482 Luffa sponge was selected as the optimum supporting material for the immobilisation 483 of the Colombian native fungus Leptosphaerulina sp. Suspended and immobilised 484 Leptosphaerulina sp. cultures achieved significant removal of RB5 and CPD (>90%). 485 However, Leptosphaerulina sp. immobilised on Luffa sponge exhibited better 486 characteristics for removing CPD and RB5 from aqueous systems than suspended 487 cultures. RB5 removal time was reduced more than 50% by immobilised 488 Leptosphaerulina sp. Immobilised cultures for CPD biotransformation significantly 489 improved the production of ligninolytic enzymes, in contrast, immobilised cultures for 490 RB5 removal did not achieve high enzymes production. The removal of both 491 pollutants included a combined removal mechanism comprising sorption on the 492 immobilising matrix, biomass sorption and enzymatic degradation. These results 493 demonstrated the potential of Leptosphaerulina sp. immobilisation as a viable 494 strategy for enhancing pollutants removal and facilitating the industrial application of 495 Leptosphaerulina sp. bio-transformations.

496

497 6. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors would like to thank the research system of the Universidad Nacional de Colombia for the financial support provide by the grant No. 35945 "Biotransformación de antibióticos β-lactámicos por el aislado fúngico nativo *Leptosphaerulina* sp. y sus enzimas ligninolíticas". L.S. Copete-Pertuz would like to thank the Grupo de Investigación en Remediación Ambiental y Biocatálisis (GIRAB) at Universidad de

503 Antioquia (Medellin, Colombia) for suppling the cephadroxyl and the HPLC and, the 504 Chocó state Government and the Departamento Administrativo de Ciencia, 505 Tecnología e Innovación, Colombia (COLCIENCIAS) for the financial support via the 506 granting of "Formación de capital humano para el departamento del Chocó -507 Doctorado Nacional" (Convocatoria No 694 de 2014) for her PhD studies. Dr Jersson 508 Plácido would like to thank the support provided by the European Regional 509 Development Fund / Welsh Government funded BEACON+ research program 510 (Swansea University).

511

512 **7. REFERENCES**

- Adnan, L. A., Rahim, A., & Yusoff, M. (2014). Biodegradation of Bis-Azo Dye Reactive Black 5 by
 White-Rot Fungus Trametes gibbosa sp . WRF 3 and Its Metabolite Characterization.
 https://doi.org/10.1007/s11270-014-2119-2
- Adnan, L. A., Sathishkumar, P., Mohd Yusoff, A. R., & Hadibarata, T. (2015). Metabolites
 characterisation of laccase mediated Reactive Black 5 biodegradation by fast growing
 ascomycete fungus Trichoderma atroviride F03. *International Biodeterioration and Biodegradation*, 104, 274–282. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ibiod.2015.05.019
- Barry, D. J., Chan, C., & Williams, G. A. (2009). Morphological quantification of filamentous fungal development using membrane immobilization and automatic image analysis. *J Ind Microbiol Biotechnol*, 787–800. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10295-009-0552-9
- Bertrand, B., Martínez-Morales, F., & Trejo-Hernández, M. R. (2017). Upgrading Laccase Production
 and Biochemical Properties: Strategies and Challenges. *Biotechnology Progress*, 33(4), 1015–
 1034. https://doi.org/10.1002/btpr.2482
- Bhatia, D., Sharma, N. R., Singh, J., & Kanwar, R. S. (2017). Biological methods for textile dye
 removal from wastewater: A Review. *Critical Reviews in Environmental Science and Technology*, 3389(November), 0–0. https://doi.org/10.1080/10643389.2017.1393263
- Botero-Coy, A. M., Martínez-Pachón, D., Boix, C., Rincón, R. J., Castillo, N., Arias-Marín, L. P., ...
 Hernández, F. (2018). 'An investigation into the occurrence and removal of pharmaceuticals in
 Colombian wastewater.' *Science of the Total Environment*, 642, 842–853.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.06.088
- Bouki, C., Venieri, D., & Diamadopoulos, E. (2013). Detection and fate of antibiotic resistant bacteria
 in wastewater treatment plants: A review. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety*, *91*, 1–9.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoenv.2013.01.016

- Bradford, M. M. (1976). A rapid and sensitive method for the quantitation of microgram quantities of
 protein utilizing the principle of protein-dye binding. *Analytical Biochemistry*, 72(1–2), 248–254.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/0003-2697(76)90527-3
- Camarero, S., Ibarra, D., Martinez, M. J., & Martinez, A. T. (2005). Lignin-Derived Compounds as
 Efficient Laccase Mediators for decolorization of recalcitrant dye.pdf. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*,
 71(4), 1775–1784. https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.71.4.1775–1784.2005
- 542 Camarero, S., Martínez, M., & Martínez, A. T. (2012). Understanding lignin biodegradation for the
 543 improved utilization of plant biomass in modern biorefineries. *Biofuels, Bioproducts and*544 *Biorefining, 6*(3), 246–256. https://doi.org/10.1002/bbb
- 545 Camarero, S., Sarkar, S., Ruiz-Dueñas, F. J., Martínez, M. J., & Martínez, Á. T. (1999). Description
 546 of a versatile peroxidase involved in the natural degradation of lignin that has both manganese
 547 peroxidase and lignin peroxidase substrate interaction sites. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*,
 548 274(15), 10324–10330. https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.274.15.10324
- 549 Chanagá Vera, X., Plácido Escobar, J., Marín Montoya, M., & Yepes Pérez, M. D. S. (2012). Hongos
 550 Nativos con Potencial Degradador de Tintes Industriales en el Valle de Aburrá, Colombia.
 551 *Revista Facultad Nacional Agronomía de Medellín, 65*(2), 6811–6821.
- 552 Ciullini, I., Tilli, S., Scozzafava, A., & Briganti, F. (2008). Fungal laccase, cellobiose dehydrogenase,
 553 and chemical mediators: Combined actions for the decolorization of different classes of textile
 554 dyes. *Bioresource Technology*, 99(15), 7003–7010.
 555 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2008.01.019
- 556 Copete-Pertuz, L. S., Alandete-Novoa, F., Plácido, J., Correa-Londoño, G. A., & Mora-Martínez, A.
 557 L. (2019). Enhancement of ligninolytic enzymes production and decolourising activity in Leptosphaerulina sp. by co-cultivation with Trichoderma viride and Aspergillus terreus. *Science* of *The Total Environment*, 646, 1536–1545. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.07.387
- 560 Copete-Pertuz, L. S., Pérez-Grisales, M. S., Castrillón-Tobón, M., Guillermo, A., Londoño, C., García,
 561 G. T., & Martínez, A. L. M. (2018). Decolorization of Reactive Black 5 Dye by Heterogeneous
 562 Photocatalysis with TiO2 /UV. *Revista Colombiana de Química*, 47(63), 36–44.
 563 https://doi.org/doi.org/10.15446/rev.colomb.quim.v47n2.67922
- 564 Copete-Pertuz, L. S., Plácido, J., Serna-Galvis, E. A., Torres-Palma, R. A., & Mora, A. (2018). 565 Elimination of Isoxazolyl-Penicillins antibiotics in waters by the ligninolytic native Colombian 566 strain Leptosphaerulina sp. considerations on biodegradation process and antimicrobial activity 567 removal. Science of the Total Environment, 630, 1195-1204. 568 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.02.244
- 569 Copete, L. S., Chanagá, X., Barriuso, J., López-Lucendo, M. F., Martínez, M. J., & Camarero, S.
 570 (2015). Identification and characterization of laccase-type multicopper oxidases involved in dye571 decolorization by the fungus Leptosphaerulina sp. *BMC Biotechnology*, *15*(74), 1–13.
 572 https://doi.org/10.1186/s12896-015-0192-2
- 573 Couto, S. R. (2009). Dye removal by immobilised fungi. *Biotechnology Advances*, 27(3), 227–235. 574 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biotechadv.2008.12.001
- Čvančarová, M., Moeder, M., Filipová, A., & Cajthaml, T. (2015). Biotransformation of fluoroquinolone
 antibiotics by ligninolytic fungi Metabolites, enzymes and residual antibacterial activity.
 Chemosphere, *136*, 311–320. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2014.12.012
- 578 Čvančarová, M., Moeder, M., Filipova, A., Reemtsma, T., & Cajthaml, T. (2013). Biotransformation of 579 the antibiotic agent flumequine by ligninolytic fungi and residual antibacterial activity of the

- 580 transformation mixtures. *Environmental Science and Technology*, 47(24), 14128–14136. 581 https://doi.org/10.1021/es403470s
- 582 Daássi, D., Mechichi, T., Nasri, M., & Rodriguez-Couto, S. (2013). Decolorization of the metal textile
 583 dye Lanaset Grey G by immobilized white-rot fungi. *Journal of Environmental Management*,
 584 129, 324–332. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2013.07.026
- 585 Dubey, M. K., Zehra, A., Aamir, M., Meena, M., Ahirwal, L., Singh, S., ... Bajpai, V. K. (2017).
 586 Improvement strategies, cost effective production, and potential applications of fungal glucose oxidase (GOD): Current updates. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 8(JUN), 1–22.
 588 https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2017.01032
- 589 Efligenir, A., Déon, S., Fievet, P., Druart, C., Morin-Crini, N., & Crini, G. (2014). Decontamination of
 590 polluted discharge waters from surface treatment industries by pressure-driven membranes:
 591 Removal performances and environmental impact. *Chemical Engineering Journal*, 258, 309–
 592 319. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2014.07.080
- 593 Ehlers, G. A., & Rose, P. D. (2005). Immobilized white-rot fungal biodegradation of phenol and
 594 chlorinated phenol in trickling packed-bed reactors by employing sequencing batch operation.
 595 *Bioresource Technology*, 96(11), 1264–1275. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2004.10.015
- EI-Sherif, M. F., Youssef, A. S., Hassan, M. A., Hassan, H. M. G., & EI-Aassar, S. A. (2013).
 Immobilization and Solid-State Fermentation Methods for Chitinase Production from. *Life Science Journal*, *10*(4), 3036–3043.
- Enayatizamir, N., Tabandeh, F., Rodríguez-Couto, S., Yakhchali, B., Alikhani, H. A., & Mohammadi,
 L. (2011). Biodegradation pathway and detoxification of the diazo dye Reactive Black 5 by
 Phanerochaete chrysosporium. *Bioresource Technology*, *102*(22), 10359–10362.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2011.08.130
- Enayatzamir, K., Alikhani, H. A., & Rodríguez Couto, S. (2009). Simultaneous production of laccase
 and decolouration of the diazo dye Reactive Black 5 in a fixed-bed bioreactor. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, *164*(1), 296–300. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2008.08.032
- Etebu, E., & Arikekpar, I. (2016). Antibiotics: Classification and mechanisms of action with emphasis
 on molecular perspectives. *Ijambr*, *4*, 90–101.
- Fernández, J. A., Henao, L. M., Pedroza-Rodríguez, A. M., & Quevedo-Hidalgo, B. (2009).
 Inmovilización de hongos ligninolíticos para la remoción del colorante negro reactivo 5. *Revista Colombiana de Biotecnología*, *11*(1), 59–72.
- Forootanfar, H., Rezaei, S., Zeinvand-Lorestani, H., Tahmasbi, H., Mogharabi, M., Ameri, A., &
 Faramarzi, M. A. (2016). Studies on the laccase-mediated decolorization, kinetic, and
 microtoxicity of some synthetic azo dyes. *Journal of Environmental Health Science and Engineering*, 14(1), 7. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40201-016-0248-9
- 615 García-Santamarina, S., & Thiele, D. J. (2015). Copper at the fungal pathogen-host axis. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, 290(31), 18945–18953. https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.R115.649129
- Hussain, S., Maqbool, Z., Ali, S., Yasmeen, T., Imran, M., Mahmood, F., & Abbas, F. (2013).
 Biodecolorization of reactive black-5 by a metal and salt tolerant bacterial strain Pseudomonas
 sp. RA20 isolated from Paharang drain effluents in Pakistan. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety*, *98*, 331–338. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoenv.2013.09.018
- 621 Iqbal, M., & Edyvean, R. G. J. (2005). Loofa sponge immobilized fungal biosorbent: A robust system

- 622 for cadmium and other dissolved metal removal from aqueous solution. *Chemosphere*, *61*(4), 510–518. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2005.02.060
- Jeon, J. R., Baldrian, P., Murugesan, K., & Chang, Y. S. (2012). Laccase-catalysed oxidations of naturally occurring phenols: From in vivo biosynthetic pathways to green synthetic applications. *Microbial Biotechnology*, *5*(3), 318–332. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-7915.2011.00273.x
- José Pallares, C., & Martínez, E. (2012). Implementación de un programa de uso regulado de antibióticos en 2 unidades de cuidado intensivo medico-quirúrgico en un hospital universitario de tercer nivel en Colombia. *Infectio*, *16*(4), 192–198. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0123-9392(12)70013-9
- Kasinath, A., Novotný, Č., Svobodová, K., Patel, K. C., & Šašek, V. (2003). Decolorization of synthetic dyes by Irpex lacteus in liquid cultures and packed-bed bioreactor. *Enzyme and Microbial Technology*, *32*(1), 167–173. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0141-0229(02)00279-X
- Khan, R., Bhawana, P., & Fulekar, M. H. (2013). Microbial decolorization and degradation of synthetic dyes: A review. *Reviews in Environmental Science and Biotechnology*, *12*(1), 75–97.
 https://doi.org/10.1007/s11157-012-9287-6
- Krull, R., Wucherpfennig, T., Eslahpazir, M., Walisko, R., Melzer, G., Hempel, D. C., ... Wittmann, C.
 (2013). Characterization and control of fungal morphology for improved production performance
 in biotechnology. *Journal of Biotechnology*, *163*(2), 112–123.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbiotec.2012.06.024
- Li, X., Xu, J., Toledo, R. A. De, & Shim, H. (2015). Bioresource Technology Enhanced removal of naproxen and carbamazepine from wastewater using a novel countercurrent seepage bioreactor immobilized with Phanerochaete chrysosporium under non-sterile conditions. *BIORESOURCE TECHNOLOGY*, *197*, 465–474. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2015.08.118
- Lucas, D., Badia-Fabregat, M., Vicent, T., Caminal, G., Rodríguez-Mozaz, S., Balcázar, J. L., &
 Barceló, D. (2016). Fungal treatment for the removal of antibiotics and antibiotic resistance
 genes in veterinary hospital wastewater. *Chemosphere*, *152*, 301–308.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2016.02.113
- 649 Mahmoud, D. (2007). Immobilization of invertase by a new economical method using wood sawdust 650 waste. *Australian Journal of Applied Science*, *1*(4), 364–372.
- Masran, R., Zanirun, Z., Bahrin, E. K., Ibrahim, M. F., Lai Yee, P., & Abd-Aziz, S. (2016). Harnessing
 the potential of ligninolytic enzymes for lignocellulosic biomass pretreatment. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, *100*(12), 5231–5246. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-0167545-1
- Máximo, C., Amorim, M. T. P., & Costa-Ferreira, M. (2003). Biotransformation of industrial reactive
 azo dyes by Geotrichum sp. CCMI 1019. *Enzyme and Microbial Technology*, *32*(1), 145–151.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/S0141-0229(02)00281-8
- Mitkowski, N. A., & Browning, M. (2004). Leptosphaerulina australis associated with intensively
 managed stands of Poa annua and Agrostis palustris. *Canadian Journal of Plant Pathology*,
 26(2), 193–198. https://doi.org/10.1080/07060660409507131
- Mizuno, H., Hirai, H., Kawai, S., & Nishida, T. (2009). Removal of estrogenic activity of isobutylparaben and n-butylparaben by laccase in the presence of 1-hydroxybenzotriazole. *Biodegradation*, 20(4), 533–539. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10532-008-9242-y

- Nabil, G. M., El-Mallah, N. M., & Mahmoud, M. E. (2014). Enhanced decolorization of reactive black
 5 dye by active carbon sorbent-immobilized-cationic surfactant (AC-CS). *Journal of Industrial* and Engineering Chemistry, 20(3), 994–1002. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jiec.2013.06.034
- Naghdi, M., Taheran, M., Brar, S. K., Kermanshahi-pour, A., Verma, M., & Surampalli, R. Y. (2018).
 Removal of pharmaceutical compounds in water and wastewater using fungal oxidoreductase enzymes. *Environmental Pollution*, *234*, 190–213. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2017.11.060
- Oliveira, L. M. F., Nascimento, M. A., & Lopes, R. P. (2018). Removal of Beta-Lactams Antibiotics
 through Zero-Valent Copper Nanoparticles, 29(8), 1630–1637.
- Park, C., Lee, B., Han, E. J., Lee, J., & Kim, S. (2006). Decolorization of acid black 52 by fungal immobilization. *Enzyme and Microbial Technology*, 39(3), 371–374. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enzmictec.2005.11.045
- Patel, V. R., & Bhatt, N. S. (2013). Involvement of ligninolytic enzymes of Myceliophthora vellerea
 HQ871747 in decolorization and complete mineralization of Reactive Blue 220. *Chemical Engineering Journal, 233, 98–108.* https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2013.07.110
- Plácido, J., Chanagá, X., Ortiz-Monsalve, S., Yepes, M., & Mora, A. (2016). Degradation and detoxification of synthetic dyes and textile industry effluents by newly isolated Leptosphaerulina
 sp. from Colombia. *Bioresources and Bioprocessing*, 3(6), 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40643-016-0084-x
- Prieto, A., Möder, M., Rodil, R., Adrian, L., & Marco-Urrea, E. (2011). Degradation of the antibiotics norfloxacin and ciprofloxacin by a white-rot fungus and identification of degradation products. *Bioresource Technology*, *102*(23), 10987–10995.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2011.08.055
- Rizzo, L., Manaia, C., Merlin, C., Schwartz, T., Dagot, C., Ploy, M. C., ... Fatta-Kassinos, D. (2013).
 Urban wastewater treatment plants as hotspots for antibiotic resistant bacteria and genes
 spread into the environment: A review. *Science of the Total Environment*, *447*, 345–360.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2013.01.032
- Saeed, A., & Iqbal, M. (2013). Loofa (Luffa cylindrica) sponge: Review of development of the biomatrix
 as a tool for biotechnological applications. *Biotechnology Progress*, 29(3), 573–600.
 https://doi.org/10.1002/btpr.1702
- Serna-Galvis, E. A., Ferraro, F., Silva-Agredo, J., & Torres-Palma, R. A. (2017). Degradation of highly
 consumed fluoroquinolones, penicillins and cephalosporins in distilled water and simulated
 hospital wastewater by UV254 and UV254/persulfate processes. *Water Research*, *122*, 128–
 138. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2017.05.065
- 697 Shedbalkar, U., Dhanve, R., & Jadhav, J. (2008). Biodegradation of triphenylmethane dye cotton blue
 698 by Penicillium ochrochloron MTCC 517. J Hazard Mater, 157(2–3), 472–479.
 699 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2008.01.023
- Sriharsha, D. V., Kumar R., L., & Savitha, J. (2017). Immobilized fungi on Luffa cylindrica: An effective biosorbent for the removal of lead. *Journal of the Taiwan Institute of Chemical Engineers*, *80*, 589–595. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtice.2017.08.032
- Usha, S. M., Sasirekha, B., Bela, R. B., Devi, S., Kamalini, C., Manasa, G. A., & Neha, P. M. (2011).
 Optimization of Reactive Black 5 dye and Reactive Red 120 dye degradation. *Journal of Chemical and Pharmaceutical Research*, *3*(6), 1089–1096. https://doi.org/0975-7384

- Verlicchi, P., Al Aukidy, M., & Zambello, E. (2012). Occurrence of pharmaceutical compounds in urban wastewater: Removal, mass load and environmental risk after a secondary treatment-A review. Science of the Total Environment, 429, 123–155.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2012.04.028
- Wang, Z. W., Liang, J. S., & Liang, Y. (2013). Decolorization of Reactive Black 5 by a newly isolated
 bacterium Bacillus sp. YZU1. *International Biodeterioration and Biodegradation*, 76, 41–48.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ibiod.2012.06.023
- Xu, J., Xu, Y., Wang, H., Guo, C., Qiu, H., He, Y., ... Meng, W. (2015). Occurrence of antibiotics and antibiotic resistance genes in a sewage treatment plant and its effluent-receiving river. *Chemosphere*, *119*, 1379–1385. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2014.02.040
- Yildirim, S. C., & Yesilada, O. (2015). A comparative study on decolorization of reactive azo and indigoid dyes by free/immobilized pellets of Trametes versicolor and Funalia trogii. *Journal of Enviromental Biology*, *36*(November), 1393–1400.
- Zabłocka-godlewska, E., Przystas, W., & Grabinska-Sota, E. (2017). Efficiency of decolorization of different dyes using fungal biomass immobilized on different solid supports Grabi nska-Sota.
 Brazilian Journal of Microbiology, *9*, 285–295. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bjm.2017.06.010
- Zhou, P., Fu, C., Fu, S., & Zhan, H. (2014). Purification and characterization of white laccase from
 the white-rot fungus Panus conchatus. *BioResources*, 9(2), 1964–1976.
 https://doi.org/10.15376/biores.9.2.1964-1976
- Zucca, P., Cocco, G., Sollai, F., & Sanjust, E. (2016). Fungal laccases as tools for biodegradation of
 industrial dyes. *Biocatalysis*, 1(1), 82–108. https://doi.org/10.1515/boca-2015-0007

TABLE AND FIGURE CAPTIONS

Table 1. Growth of fungi on materials used for biomass immobilisation after fifteen

 days of the experiment. The experiment was carried out in the absence of antibiotic

 or dye.

Table 2. Comparative table of immobilised microorganisms used for removing pollutants from aqueous systems.

Figure 1. CPD removal % and AA % over time. **A)** AL *Leptosphaerulina* sp. immobilised, **B)** AC *Leptosphaerulina* sp. in suspension. Experimental conditions: 28 °C, 160 rpm, pH= 5.6, 15 days. Data points are means and standard deviations (n= 3). There were no significant differences between AL and AC results at any moment (p-value > 0.05) except at day 15 (p-value < 0.001).

Figure 2. Evaluation of the ligninolytic enzymatic activities. AL to the immobilisation experiments with CPD. AC are the fungus cultures in suspension with CPD. HM is the cultivation of the fungus in suspension free of CPD antibiotic. LC corresponds to the immobilisation experiments free of CPD. **A)** Specific activity Lac, **B)** Specific activity VP, **C)** Specific activity MnP. Experimental conditions: 28 °C, 160 rpm, pH= 5.6, 15 days.

Figure 3. Quantification of dry weight for immobilisation experiments. AL corresponds to immobilisation assays with antibiotic. CL are the dye-containing immobilisation experiments. LC corresponds to the antibiotic-free dye-free

immobilisation experiment. Experimental conditions: 28 °C, 160 rpm, pH= 5.6, 15 days.

Figure 4. Decolourisation percentage of RB5. CC corresponds to fungus cultures in suspension. CL are the immobilisation assays. Control 1: culture medium with RB5 dye [200 mg L⁻¹], without fungus and without luffa sponge. Control 2: culture medium with RB5 dye [200 mg L⁻¹], with luffa sponge and without fungus. Experimental conditions: 28 °C, 160 rpm, pH= 5.6, 15 days. Data points are means and standard deviations (n= 3). There is a significant difference between CL and CC results at every moment (p-value < 0.01) except at day 15 (p-value > 0.05).

Figure 5. Evaluation of the ligninolytic enzymatic activities. CL correspond to the immobilisation experiment with dye. CC is the fungus culture in suspension with dye. HM is the dye-free suspended fungus culture. LC corresponds to the dye-free immobilisation experiments. **A)** Specific activity Lac for dye containing cultures, **B)** Specific activity VP for dye containing cultures, **C)** Specific activity MnP for dye containing cultures. Experimental conditions: 28 °C, 160 rpm, pH= 5.6, 15 days.

Table 1. Growth of fungi on materials used for biomass immobilisation after fifteen

 days of the experiment. The experiment was carried out in the absence of antibiotic

 or dye.

Support material	Growth ¹		
Charcoal	-		
Luffa sponge	+++		
Wood chips	+		
Cork	+		

¹ No growth (-), low growth (+), medium growth (++), and significant growth (+++). Control: *Leptosphaerulina* sp. in suspension had significant (+++) growth.

Table 2. Comparative table of immobilised microorganisms used for removingpollutants from aqueous systems.

Microorganism	Support material	Pollutant	Initial concentration	Removal percentage	Ref.
Leptosphaerulina sp.	Luffa sponge	CPD	15256 µg L-1	~100%	This work
Leptosphaerulina sp.	Luffa sponge	RB5	200 mg L ⁻¹	91.9%	This work
Trametes versicolor	Luffa sponge	RB5	150 mg L ⁻¹	98%	(Fernández et al., 2009)
P. chrysosporium BKM-F-1767	Wood dust	Naproxen	1000 µg/leach	~100%	(Li et al., 2015)
		Carbamezepine	1000 µg/leach	80%	
Polyporus picipes (RWP17), Gleophylum odoratum (DCa)	Polypropylene Washer	Evans Blue	100 mg L ⁻¹	~100%	(Zabłocka- godlewska et al., 2017)
		Brilliant green	100 mg L ⁻¹	85%	
Trametes pubescens	Stainless steel sponges	RB5	30 mg L ⁻¹	74%	(Enayatzamir et al., 2009)
Trametes versicolor	Acid blue 74	50 mg L ⁻¹	96.8%	(Yildirim &	
	Free pellets	Reactive Blue 198	50 mg L ⁻¹	91.3%	Yesilada, 2015)
Funalia trogii	Free pellets	Acid blue 74	50 mg L ⁻¹	96.1%	(Yildirim & Yesilada,
-	-	Reactive Blue 198	50 mg L ⁻¹	87.8%	2015)

Figure 1. CPD removal % and AA % over time. **A)** AL *Leptosphaerulina* sp. immobilised, **B)** AC *Leptosphaerulina* sp. in suspension. Experimental conditions: 28 °C, 160 rpm, pH= 5.6, 15 days. Data points are means and standard deviations (n= 3). There were no significant differences between AL and AC results at any moment (p-value > 0.05) except at day 15 (p-value < 0.001)



Figure 2. Evaluation of the ligninolytic enzymatic activities. AL to the immobilisation experiments with CPD. AC are the fungus cultures in suspension with CPD. HM is the cultivation of the fungus in suspension free of CPD antibiotic. LC corresponds to the immobilisation experiments free of CPD. **A)** Specific activity Lac, **B)** Specific activity VP, **C)** Specific activity MnP. Experimental conditions: 28 °C, 160 rpm, pH= 5.6, 15 days



Figure 3. Quantification of dry weight for immobilisation experiments. AL corresponds to immobilisation assays with antibiotic. CL are the dye-containing immobilisation experiments. LC corresponds to the antibiotic-free dye-free immobilisation experiment. Experimental conditions: 28 °C, 160 rpm, pH= 5.6, 15 days.



Figure 4. Decolourisation percentage of RB5. CC corresponds to fungus cultures in suspension. CL are the immobilisation assays. Control 1: culture medium with RB5 dye [200 mg L⁻¹], without fungus and without luffa sponge. Control 2: culture medium with RB5 dye [200 mg L⁻¹], with luffa sponge and without fungus. Experimental conditions: 28 °C, 160 rpm, pH= 5.6, 15 days. Data points are means and standard deviations (n= 3). There is a significant difference between CL and CC results at every moment (p-value < 0.01) except at day 15 (p-value > 0.05).



Figure 5. Evaluation of the ligninolytic enzymatic activities. CL correspond to the immobilisation experiment with dye. CC is the fungus culture in suspension with dye. HM is the dye-free suspended fungus culture. LC corresponds to the dye-free immobilisation experiments. **A)** Specific activity Lac for dye containing cultures, **B)** Specific activity VP for dye containing cultures, **C)** Specific activity MnP for dye containing cultures. Experimental conditions: 28 °C, 160 rpm, pH= 5.6, 15 days.

