Pattern of cadmium accumulation and essential cations during growth of cadmium-tolerant fungi

Mohammed M. Gharieb

Botany Department, Faculty of Science, Menoufia University, Shebein El-Koom, Egypt

Received 25 October 2000; accepted 8 March 2001

Key words: cadmium accumulation, fungi, magnesium, potassium, sodium, toxicity

Abstract

The present study evaluates the growth response of two strains of filamentous fungi; a Fusarium sp. and Alternaria tenuis, grown on both solid and liquid Czapek Dox medium amended with different concentrations of CdCl₂. Colony extension and the mycelial dry weight of both fungi were significantly inhibited by high concentrations of cadmium. Extended lag phases and low growth rates resulted from cadmium administration. Cadmium drastically affected fungal morphogenesis by the production of stunted sterile thick mycelial filaments of the Fusarium sp. and chains of uncharacterized swellings instead of conidia in A. tenuis. Experiments showed that cadmium accumulation by the Fusarium sp. grown in liquid medium was a concentration dependent, and over the incubation time it displayed a plateau pattern. The cells grown on medium containing 0.25 mmol l⁻¹ CdCl₂ accumulated up to $89 \pm 12 \ \mu \text{mol Cd (gm dw)}^{-1}$ after two days, falling to $\sim 29 \pm 10 \ \mu \text{mol Cd (gm dw)}^{-1}$ after five days. At 0.5 mmol l^{-1} CdCl₂ treatment the maximum cellular cadmium content was $\sim 132 \pm 14 \ \mu \text{mol}$ (gm dw)⁻¹, attained after 3 days, and decreased to \sim 98 \pm 9 μ mol (gm dw)⁻¹ at the end of the incubation time. There was a simultaneous marked drop in cadmium content and pH of the growth medium during the first few days. The presence of cadmium markedly altered the cellular essential cations; K⁺ and Mg²⁺ being decreased while Na⁺ increased during the growth period. Such findings resulted a reverse pattern of cellular Na⁺/K⁺ ratio for cells grown on cadmium-containing medium in respect to the control treatment. The results are discussed in relation to a further dimension of cadmium effects that might reflect its toxicity, as well as the implication of cadmium extrusion for tolerance during fungal growth.

Introduction

Cadmium is a potentially toxic metal that has no essential biological functions. The toxicity of heavy metals include the blocking of functional groups of important molecules, e.g., enzymes, polynucleotides, transport systems for essential nutrients and ions and substitution of essential ions from cellular sites (Ochiai 1987). Cadmium induce free radicals toxicity as a result of their reactions with thiols or enzymes which normally protect against these reactive species (Splittgerber & Tappel 1979; Singhal *et al.* 1987). Cadmium toxicity is also believed to be caused by structural lesions in the plasma membrane possibly by binding to organic ligands such as sulphydryl groups (Gadd & Mowll 1983; Rayner & Sadler 1989). However, such a toxic

metal still may be tolerated and accumulated by certain living cells including fungi (Gelmi et al. 1994; Bender et al. 1995; Baldrian et al., 1996; Gabriel et al. 1996; Purchase et al. 1997). Metallothioneins, phytochelatin and glutathione peptides constitute the most widely used cadmium detoxification molecules in the cytosolic component of the fungal cells (Mehra & Winge 1991; Kneer et al. 1992; Wu et al. 1995; Inouhe et al. 1996; Rama Rao et al. 1997). Implication of the cell wall fraction in cadmium binding and detoxification using the yeast Saccharomyces exiguus was also reported (Inouhe et al. 1996).

Na⁺, K⁺, Mg²⁺ and Ca²⁺ are present in relatively high concentrations in biological systems and may be classified as bulk metals. These elements are essential for different cellular functions including formation of charge and concentration gradients across membranes which may be used in transport processes, osmotic responses, maintenance of cytoplasmic pH value, stabilizing the structures of ribosomes and nucleic acids, and activating enzymes concerned with synthesizing DNA, RNA and proteins (Hughes & Poole 1989). Little attention has been paid to changes in the physiologically important cellular cations; K⁺, Na⁺, Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ in response to cadmium administration during the growth period. The purpose of the present work is to elucidate the growth response of filamentous fungi to cadmium, and the relationship between cadmium accumulation, its toxicity, and the cellular content of the essential bulk metal elements during growth.

Materials and methods

Organism, media and growth conditions

Two filamentous fungi were employed in this study; a Fusarium sp. and Alternaria tenuis. They were isolated from a cultivated soil in Egypt, and identified according to Ellis (1971) and Domash et al. (1980). They were routinely maintained on Czapek-Dox medium of the following composition (g l^{-1} distilled water): sucrose, 30: NaNO₃, 2.0: KH₂PO₄, 1.0: MgSO₄.7H₂O, 0.5; KCl, 0.5; FeCl₃ .6H₂O, 0.001. 15.0 g l⁻¹ agar (Lab M no.2) was added to prepare solid medium. Stock solutions of the above salts and sucrose were prepared and sterilized separately by autoclaving while a stock solution of 1 M CdCl2 was prepared in distilled water and sterilized by membrane filtration (cellulose nitrate, pore size 0.45 μ m; Whatman, Maidstone, U.K.). For mycelial extension experiments, 9-mm disks taken from the margins of a culture growing on solid Czapek-Dox agar (8-day-old) were inoculated into the center of Czapek-Dox agar plates containing 0, 0.25, 0.5 and 1.0 mmol l^{-1} CdCl₂. Cadmium chloride (CdCl₂) was added to media at 50-55 °C under aseptic conditions. Plates were incubated at 27 °C for 8 days. Radial growth measurements were made daily during the incubation period.

Electron microscopy

Colonies were prepared for scanning electron microscopy (SEM) according to Gharieb *et al.* (1995). Small discs (9 mm diameter) were taken from the margins of 7 day-old colonies grown on cadmium-free and cadmium-containing solid Czapek-Dox medium.

These were fixed in 2% (v/v) glutaraldehyde (SEM grade) in 5 mmol 1^{-1} 1,4-piperazine diethanesulphonic acid (PIPES) buffer, adjusted to pH 6.5 using solid tetramethylammonium hydroxide, for 2 h at room temperature. Fixed colonies were washed four times in 5 mmol 1⁻¹ PIPES (15 min per a wash) prior to dehydration in an ethanol/distilled water series (25%, 50%, 75% and 100% (v/v)), samples being incubated overnight in each stage. Following dehydration, samples were taken through an acetone/ethanol series (20% , 40% , 60% , 80% and 100% acetone (v/v): three transfers were made in absolute acetone. The discs (submerged in acetone) were critical point dried using a Polaron E3000 series II critical point drying apparatus after exposure for 1 h in the transitional fluid (liquid CO₂). Dried samples were mounted on aluminum stubs and sputter-coated with palladiumgold alloy using a Polaron E1500 coating unit. Samples were finally examined using a Jeol JSM 35C scanning electron microscope with an accelerating voltage of 25 kv.

Determination of Cd^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , K^+ and Na^+ in the fungal mycelium

Initial inoculum was prepared by inoculating a 2ml aliquot of a spore suspension (Fusariumi sp. $\cong 1.5 \times 10^7 \text{ ml}^{-1}$; A. tenuis $\cong 0.8 \times 10^4 \text{ ml}^{-1}$) into 250 ml Erlenmeyer conical flask containing 100 ml sterile liquid medium and then incubating for 3 days at 27 °C on a rotary shaker (150 rpm). An appropriate volume from the sterile stock solution of CdCl2 was added aseptically to sterile 0.5 L Czapek-Dox medium in 1 L Erlenmeyer conical flasks to obtain final concentrations of 0.25 and 0.5 mmol 1^{-1} . A cadmium-free medium was also prepared as a control treatment. 3-ml aliquot of the initial inoculum was added aseptically to each treatment, and then the flasks were incubated at 27 °C on a rotary shaker (150 rpm). After inoculation, 20-ml samples were taken at time intervals and biomass separated using nylon mesh (100 μ m aperture size) and washed 2× with 10 ml dH₂O then dried overnight at 80 °C. The dried mycelia was digested in 0.5 ml 6 M HNO₃ by heating at 90 °C for 1 h. After cooling the digest was diluted with an appropriate volume of dH₂O. Cadmium and magnesium content of diluted extracts was determined using a Pye Unicam SP9 atomic absorption spectrophotometer (AAS; Thermo Unicam, Cambridge, U.K.), whileas K and Na were determined using Jenway PFP7 flame photometer with reference to appropriate standard solutions.

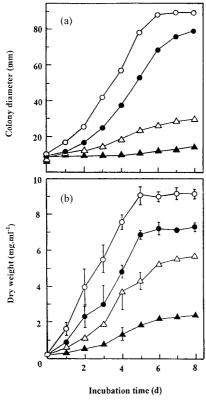


Fig. 1. Radial growth (a) and mycelial dry weight (b) of Fusarium sp. grown on solid and liquid Czapek-Dox medium, respectively, containing 0.0 (○); 0.25 (♠); 0.5 (△) or 1.0 (♠) mmol 1^{-1} cadmium chloride. Disks (9 mm diameter) taken from the margin of 7 days old culture were inoculated on the center of plates containing Czapek-Dox agar (a), whileas 2 ml aliquot from 3 days old culture were used as an inoculum for 0.5 1 liquid medium (b). Both media were incubated at 27 °C. Colony diameters and mycelial dry weights were measured daily during the incubation period. Bars indicate standard error of the mean (five measurements) and when not shown were smaller than the symbol dimensions.

Results

Figures 1 and 2 display the influence of cadmium on the fungal growth that was assessed in terms of colony diameter and mycelial dry weight over 7 days incubation. Both the fungal strains showed a marked growth reduction in the presence of cadmium compared to the control treatments. The growth inhibition significantly increased with increasing cadmium chloride concentration. Colony extension and the mycelial dry weight of both fungi were moderately affected by 0.25 mmol⁻¹ cadmium chloride while the higher concentrations (0.5 and 1.0 mmol l⁻¹) showed a significant growth inhibition. Additionally, there was a higher effect on the colony extension in relation to

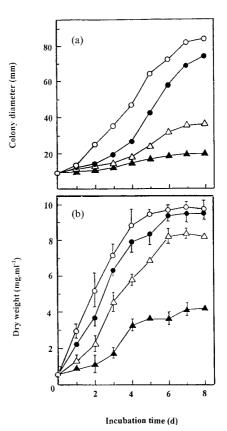


Fig. 2. Radial growth (a) and mycelial dry weight (b) of Alternaria tenuis grown on solid and liquid Czapek-Dox agar medium, respectively, containing 0.0 (\bigcirc); 0.25 (\blacksquare); 0.5 (\triangle) or 1.0 (\blacksquare) mmol 1^{-1} cadmium chloride. Other details as in Figure 1.

that on the mycelial dry weight. By the addition of $0.5 \text{ mmol } 1^{-1} \text{ CdCl}_2$ the obtained colony diameters after 7 days were 30 and 35% of controls for *Fusarium* sp. and *A. tenuis*, respectively. The presence of $1.0 \text{ mmol } 1^{-1}$ cadmium chloride resulted in an extended lag period for mycelial extension, to about 5 days for *Fusarium* sp. and about 3 days for *A. tenuis* followed by slight growth rate to manifest high growth inhibition at the end of the incubation time. Generally lag times in term of mycelial dry weight for both fungi were shorter than that of the mycelial extension at the same concentration of cadmium.

Supplementation of the growth medium with Cd²⁺ affected not only the fungal growth parameters but also caused significant changes in fungal morphology and reproductive ability. In cadmium-free medium both fungi were characterized by the appearance of normal aerial mycelia and abundant sporulation (Figures 3A-C). The presence of 1 mmol Cd²⁺ in the growth medium inhibited the production of character-

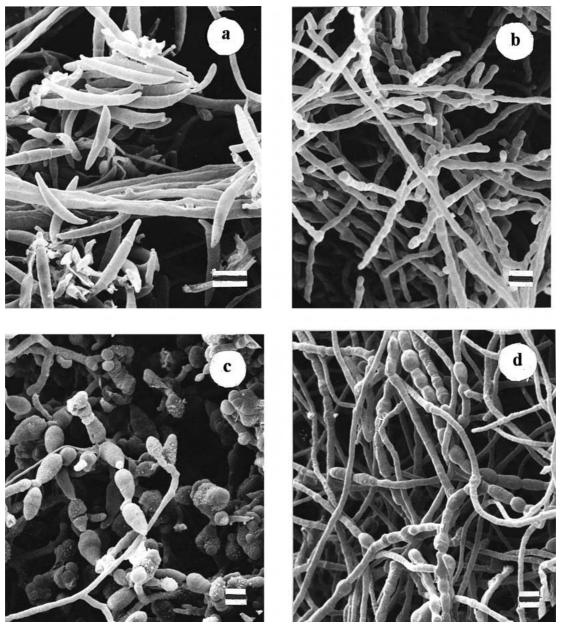


Fig. 3. Scanning electron micrographs (SEM) of Fusarium sp. (a, b) and Alternaria tenuis (c, d) grown on cadmium-free (a, c) and Czapek Dox agar medium-containing 1.0 mmol l^{-1} cadmium chloride (b, d) for 8 days at 27 °C. Other details as in Figure 1A. Bars = 10 μ m.

istic conidia of *Fusarium* sp. as well as the appearance of stunted side branches that are likely to be distorted conidiophores. Moreover, abundant swellings were noticed along such conidiophores-like structures (Figure 3B). The same influence of Cd²⁺ was also detected on the morphology of *A. tenuis*. This fungal species produces characteristic chains of loose ellipsoidal shaped conidia in cadmium-free treatment. However, the addition of cadmium to the growth

medium inhibited the formation of such conidia, and instead a chain of uncharacterized swellings were formed (Figure 3D). The growth of *Fusarium* sp. in cadmium-free medium also increased the medium pH to about pH 8.5 after 7 days incubation (Figure 4). However, the addition of cadmium chloride to the growth medium decreased the pH despite displaying the same pattern of pH changes over the incubation time. Figure 4 shows that the medium pH was signif-

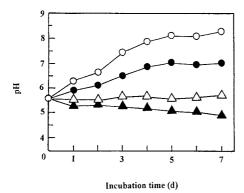


Fig. 4. Change in pH during growth of Fusarium sp. over 7 days incubation in 0.0 (\bigcirc); 0.25 (\bullet); 0.5 (\triangle) or 1.0 (\blacktriangle) mmol 1^{-1} cadmium chloride-containing Czapek-Dox medium. Other details as in Figure 1B.

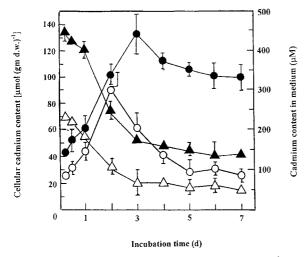


Fig. 5. Cadmium accumulation by mycelia $[\mu \text{mol (gm dw)}^{-1}]$ of Fusarium sp.during growth for 7 days at $27\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ on Czapek Dox liquid medium containing $0.25\,(\bigcirc)$ or $0.5\,(\blacksquare)$ mmol 1^{-1} cadmium chloride. Change in cadmium concentration in the growth medium containing initial concentrations of $0.25\,(\triangle)$ and $0.5\,(\blacktriangle)$ mmol 1^{-1} during the fungal growth was also shown. Bars indicate standard error of the mean (three measurements) and when not shown were smaller than the symbol dimensions. Other details are described in the Methods.

icantly decreased down to 4.9 after 7 days incubation in the presence of 0.5 mmol l^{-1} CdCl₂.

The cadmium content in mycelia of *Fusarium* sp. grown on Dox medium containing 0.25 and 0.5 mmol l⁻¹ CdCl₂ over 7 days incubation time is shown in Figure 5. The magnitude of Cd²⁺ accumulated into the fungal cells increased with increasing cadmium concentration in the culture medium, and significantly increased over the first few days of incubation. The accumulated cadmium in cells grown on medium containing 0.25 mmol CdCl₂ became a

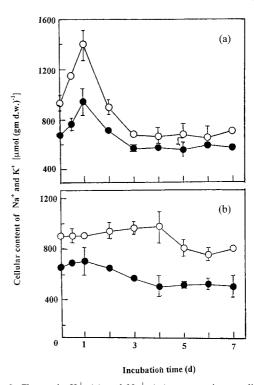


Fig. 6. Change in K^+ (\bullet) and Na^+ (\bigcirc) contents in mycelia of Fusarium sp. during growth for 7 days at 27 °C in liquid Czapek-Dox medium containing (a) 0.0 or (b) 0.5 mmol l^{-1} cadmium chlorid. Other details as in Figure 5.

maximum after 2 days incubation [89 \pm 12 μ mol Cd(gm dw)⁻¹]. Beyond this time the cellular content of cadmium was markedly reduced to 29 \pm 10 μ mol Cd(gm dw)⁻¹ on the fifth day of incubation. At 0.5 mmol l⁻¹ CdCl₂ treatment the maximum cellular cadmium content was 132 \pm 14 μ mol Cd(gm dw)⁻¹ attained after 3 days. After that there was a slight reduction in the cadmium content of cells to 98 \pm 9 μ mol Cd(gm dw)⁻¹ at the end of incubation time. Simultaneously there was a concomitant and significant decrease in the cadmium content in the growth medium over the first 3 days of incubation to the lowest levels attained after 4 days (50 and 130 μ mol l⁻¹ at 0.25 and 0.5 mmol l⁻¹ treatments, respectively).

Intracellular contents of Na⁺ and K⁺ of the growing cells on cadmium free medium during the incubation period revealed a similar pattern. There was a marked increase in both cations after the first 24 h followed by a sharp decrease becoming at their lowest values on the third day (Figure 6A). On the other hand Figure 6B shows that the presence of 0.5 mmol l⁻¹ cadmium chloride in the growth medium reduced the mycelial content of these monovalent cations during

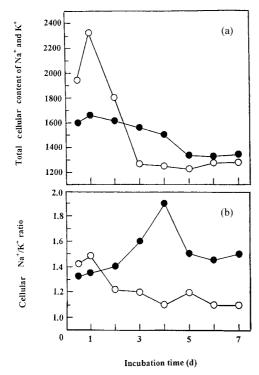


Fig. 7. Change in (a) total content of cellular K^+ and Na^+ and (b) cellular Na^+/K^+ ratio in mycelia of Fusarium sp. during growth for 7 days at 27 °C in liquid Czapek Dox medium containing $0.0\,(\bigcirc)$ or $0.5\,(\bullet)$ mmol 1^{-1} cadmium chloride.

the growth period compared to the control treatments. Additionally, the pattern of cellular Na⁺ content was more or less in reverse to that of K⁺ over the incubation period (Figure 6B). Total cellular Na⁺ and K⁺ as well as Na/K⁺ ratio are represented in Figure 7. While there was a great drop in the total monovalent cations during the first two days of growth on cadmium-free medium such a drop was lower and occurred gradually over 5 days (Figure 7A). Representation of Na⁺/K⁺ ratios displayed the presence of small peak after the first day of incubation in absence of cadmium (Figure 7B). However, the addition of cadmium to the growth medium caused a significant alteration and a reverse pattern of Na⁺/K⁺ ratio over the incubation period in relation to that of the control treatment, becoming maximum (1.9) on the fourth day of incubation.

Levels of cellular Mg^{2+} decreased significantly by the addition of cadmium despite displaying a similar pattern to the control treatment over the incubation period (Figure 8). About a 50% reduction in the cellular content of Mg^{2+} was resulted from the administration of 0.5 mmol l^{-1} cadmium chloride to the growth

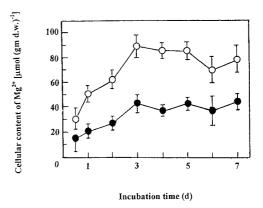


Fig. 8. Change in cellular content of Mg^{2+} in mycelia of Fusarium sp. during growth for 7 days at 27 °C in liquid Czapek-Dox medium containing 0.0 (○) or 0.5 (●) mmol 1^{-1} cadmium chlorid. Other details are described in the Methods.

medium. During the growth time there was an increase in cellular Mg^{2+} , and the maximum values were obtained after 3 days and they were 88 ± 8 and $43 \pm 7 \mu \text{mol Mg(gm dw)}^{-1}$, for the control and cadmium-containing treatment, respectively.

Discussion

Cadmium is an element with no known biological function and may be toxic even at low concentrations. It has been described as a potent inhibitor of several enzyme systems resulting from affinity towards sulphydryl groups, hydroxyl groups and ligands containing nitrogen (Singhal et al. 1987). In recent years, particular attention has been paid to heavy metal tolerance, and numerous strategies have been exhibited by fungi. Preventing metal entrance or reducing metal uptake and sequestration of the toxic metal inside microbial cells are the most important mechanisms of detoxification (Gadd 1994; Gharieb & Gadd 1998). The present results showed higher effect of cadmium on the mycelial extension than the dry weight. It might be due to a synthesis of macromolecules being implicated in detoxification inside the cells grown in cadmium-containing medium. The accumulation of Cd²⁺ into the cells has been linked with different mechanisms of detoxification such as formation of insoluble Cd sulphide around the cell wall/membrane or Cd phosphate inside the cell (Aiking et al. 1984; Kosman 1994). Tohoyama et al. (1996) reported that a Cd resistant strain of S. cerevisiae cells is protected against toxicity by the production of large amounts of Cd-binding metallothionein. Synthesis of glutathione

and short, cysteine-containing γ -glutamyl, peptides known as 'cadystins' or 'phytochelatins' by animal cells and some fungal strains such as Schizosaccharomyces pombe, Candida glabrata, S. cerevisiae and Neurospora crassa to counteract cadmium toxicity has also been shown (Singhal et al. 1987; Mutoh et al. 1991; Mehra & Winge 1991; Wu et al. 1995). Singhal et al. (1987) reported that mice intracellular glutathione functions in protection against Cd²⁺ toxicity, and this tripeptide provides a first line of defense against Cd²⁺ before induction of metallothionein synthesis occur. Additionally Ramadan et al. (1988) reported that the growth of Aspergillus carbonarius and a strain of Penicillium in the presence of cadmium resulted in an accumulation of extraordinary high contents of proteins, lipids and carbohydrates whereas the activities of certain enzymes, lipases, amylases and proteases were inhibited.

Cadmium accumulation by the fungal cells has been previously reported (Gelmi et al. 1994; Gabriel et al. 1996). The present investigation showed that the cellular cadmium content of the Fusarium sp. increased progressively during the fungal growth. It was also positively correlated with cadmium concentration in the growth medium, until reaching a plateau or a threshold concentration beyond which it decreased. This result suggested that some cadmium accumulated by the cells was expelled outside. Such a mechanism of cadmium efflux and extrusion outside the cell has been previously shown in Staphylococcus aureus (Chopra 1971; Rayner & Sadler 1989; Gelmi et al. 1994) and the fungi Aureobasidium pullulans and Candida albicans (Mowll & Gadd 1984; Gelmi et al. 1994). It was also reported that the efflux mechanism is probably not sufficient when cells are subjected to very high (millimolar) levels of cadmium (Rayner & Sadler 1989), that is in agreement with the present findings. Therefore the results suggest that cadmium efflux is an inductive mechanism being activated by the presence of a threshold concentration gradient of cadmium across the cell membrane. Such a mechanism is efficient in avoiding the dangerous accumulation of further cadmium ions inside the fungal cell. Generally, it could be suggested that cadmium entering the fungal cell is firstly detoxified by synthesis of chelating proteins, short peptides, sulphide or phosphate during early stages of growth. Additionally, an active mechanism of Cd²⁺ extrusion outside the cell also appears to be involved in cadmium tolerance.

Concomitant with cadmium accumulation, the cellular K^+ was decreased while Na^+ was increased

inside the cells. This might be an integration with cadmium transport since H⁺ and K⁺ are involved in ionic gradients and the membrane potential (Gadd 1990). In several bacteria, including Staphylococcus aureus and Bacillus subtilis, active transport of cadmium depends on the cross membrane electrical potential and this uptake system is highly specific for Cd²⁺ (Gadd 1990). Short term uptake experiments, reported by Brady and Duncan (1994), showed that copper and cadmium were accumulated by S. cerevisiae with a subsequent increase in the permeability of the plasma membrane to release K⁺, Mg²⁺ and Ca²⁺. Releasing of cellular K⁺ as an effect of cadmium uptake was also previously shown in Aureobasidium pullulans (Mowll & Gadd 1984) and suggested as a stoichiometric exchange of Cd2+ and K+ ions across the cell membranes. It was also reported that potassium release has been associated with membrane disruption and loss of viability (Gadd & Mowll 1983). This is not applied to the results found in this study, and the decreasing cellular potassium is suggested to maintain the ionic balance across the cell membrane. However, potassium is an essential element for living cells performing important functions including osmoregulation, activator of enzyme synthesis and is also involved in the stabilization of intracellular structures, e.g. ribosomes (Hughes & Poole 1989). On the other hand, increasing the cellular sodium and the reverse results of the cellular Na⁺/K⁺ ratio suggest a possible non-target effect of cadmium since sodium toxicity and the stability of the living cell highly depends on such a ratio.

Reducing the cellular content of Mg²⁺ by administration of cadmium reflects either the competitive action of cadmium in magnesium uptake or exchange of these divalent ions across the plasma membrane. Competition of the uptake of a toxic metal and an essential element has been documented since divalent cations may enter cells by a common mechanism (Gadd 1994). In S. cerevisiae it was evident that calcium competed for the cadmium transport sites and it is therefore likely that cadmium was transported via an existent calcium uptake system (Norris & Kelly 1977). Additionally Cu²⁺ accumulation by the same fungal strain resulted in a slower release of approximately 60% of cellular Mg²⁺ (Brady & Duncan 1994). Reduction in Mg²⁺ content in the root of seedlings of the plant Betula pendula by the presence of Cd²⁺ was also shown (Gussarsson 1994). The present work indicates a significant reduction in the cellular Mg² by Cd² during the growth phases that is in agreement with the previous findings. The essentiality of high amounts

of Mg²⁺ during the growth of microbial cells was established; its function including stabilization of the structure of ribosomes and nucleic acids and activation of many enzymatic processes involve hydrolysis and synthesizing DNA, RNA and proteins (Hughes & Poole 1989).

Abnormal cell morphology, particularly production of giant cells, in response to heavy metal toxicity has been documented. The morphological malformation of fungi grown in cadmium-containing medium was previously reported (Ramadan et al. 1988; Gabriel et al. 1996). Cadmium toxicity was attributed to the affinity of cadmium to sulphydryl groups which would alter the structural and functional components of the cell. Predominance of -SH groups in the walls of the tips phialides of *Penicillium notatum* was shown by Pitt (1969). He therefore suggested that these groups serve a function in maintaining plasticity in areas that proliferate cells rapidly during sporulation. Inhibition of the fungal sporulation and the appearance of swollen segments might therefore be resulted in part from binding of Cd²⁺ to -SH groups probably localized in the conidiation sites of the fungal mycelia. Generally, formation of enlarged globose cells in the fungal mycelia was previously reported as a response to one of several conditions unfavourable to growth such as low pH, potassium deficiency, oxygen deficiency, high osmotic pressure or the presence of inhibitors (Bent & Morton 1963). Therefore, declining medium pH which would be on the expense of cytosolic pH, and alteration the cellular contents of essential cations, K⁺, Na⁺ and Mg²⁺ resulting from cadmium uptake would explain a non-target effect of cadmium which possibly interfere with fungal morphogenisis.

References

- Aiking H, Stijinman A, van Garderen C, van Heerikhuizen H, van't Riet J. 1984 Inorganic phosphate accumulation and cadmium detoxification in *Klebsiella aerogenes* NCTC 418 growing in continuous culture. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 47, 374–377.
- Baldrian P, Gabriel J, Nerud F. 1996 Effect of cadmium on the ligninolytic activity of *Stereum hirsutum* and *Phanerochaete chrysosporium. Folia Microbiologica* **41**, 363–367.
- Bender J, Lee RF, Phillips P. 1995 Uptake and transformation of metals and metalloids by microbial mats and their use in bioremediation. *J Industr Microbiol* 14, 113–118.
- Bent KJ, Morton AG. 1963 Formation and nature of swollen hyphae in *Penicillium* and related fungi. *Transact Br Mycol Soc* **46**, 401– 408
- Brady D, Duncan JR. 1994 Cation loss during accumulation of heavy metal cations by *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Biotechnol Lett* 16, 543–548.

- Chopra I. 1971 Decreased uptake of cadmium by a resistant strain of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *J General Microbiol* **63**, 263–267.
- Domsch KH, Gams W, Anderson HT. 1980 Compendium of soil fungi. London, New York, Toronto, Sydney, San Franscisco; Academic Press, Vol. 1 & 2.
- Ellis NB. 1971 *Dematicaceous Hyphomycetes*. Kew, Surrey, England: Commonwealth Mycological Institute.
- Gabriel J, Kofronova O, Rychlovsky P, Kerenzelok M. 1996 Accumulation and effect of cadmium in the wood-rotting basidiomycete *Daedalea quercina*. Bull Environ Contamin Toxicol 57, 383–390.
- Gadd GM. 1990 Metal tolerance. In: Edwards C, ed. Microbiology of Extreme Environments. Mitton Keynes: Open University Press: 178–210.
- Gadd GM. 1994 Interactions of fungi with toxic metals. In: Powell KA, Renwick A, Peberdy JF, eds. The Genus Aspergillus from Taxonomy and Genetics to Industrial Application. New York: Plenum Press; 361–374.
- Gadd GM, Mowll JL. 1983 The relationship between cadmium uptake, potassium release and viability in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. FEMS Microbiol Lett 16, 45–48.
- Gelmi M, Apostoli P, Cabibbo E, Porru S, Alessio L, Turano A. 1994 Resistance to cadmium salts and metal absorption by different microbial species. *Curr Microbiol* 29, 335–341.
- Gharieb MM, Gadd GM. 1998 Evidence for the involvement of vacuolar activity in metal(loid) tolerance: vacuolar-lacking and -defective mutants of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* display higher sensitivity to chromate, tellurite and selenite. *Biometals* 11, 101–106.
- Gharieb MM, Wilkinson SC, Gadd GM. 1995 Reduction of selenium oxyanions by unicellular, polymorphic and filamentous fungi: cellular location of reduced selenium and implications for tolerance. *J Industr Microbiol* 14, 300–311.
- Guarsson M. 1994 Cadmium induced alterations in nutrient composition and growth of *Betula pendula* seedlings: the significance of fine roots as a primary target for cadmium toxicity. *J Plant Nutr* 17, 2151–2163.
- Hughes MN, Poole RK. 1989 The functions of metals in microorganisms. In: Metals and Micro-organisms. London, New York: Chapman and Hall, 1–37.
- Inouhe M, Sumiyoshi M, Tohoyama H, Joho M. 1996 resistance to cadmium ions and formation of a cadmium-binding complex in various wild-type yeasts. *Plant Cell Physiol* **37**, 341–346.
- Kneer R, Kutchman TM, Hochberger A, Zenk MH. 1992 Saccharomyces cerevisiae and Neurospora crassa contain heavy metal sequestering phytochelatin. Arch Microbiol, 157, 305–330.
- Kosman DJ. 1994 Transition metal ion uptake in yeasts and filamentous fungi. In: Winkelmann G. & Winge, DR, eds. Metal Ions in Fungi. New York: Marcel Dekker. 1–38.
- Mehra RK, Winge DR. 1991 Metal resistance in fungi: molecular mechanisms and their regulated expression. J Cell Biochem 45, 30–40
- Mowll JL, Gadd GM. 1984 Cadmium uptake by Aureobasidium pullulans. J General Microbiol 130, 279–284.
- Mutoh N, Kawabata M, Hayasgi Y. 1991 Tetramethylthiuram disulfide or dimethyldithiocarbamate induces the synthesis of cadystins, heavy metal chelating peptides, in *Schizosaccha*romyces pombe. Biochem Biophys Res Comm 176, 1068–1073.
- Norris PR, Kelly DP. 1977 Accumulation of cadmium and cobalt by Saccharomyces cerevisiae. J General Microbiol 99, 317–324.
- Ochiai EI. 1987 General Principles of Biochemistry of the Elements. New York: Plenum Press.
- Pitt D. 1969 Cytochemical observations on the localization of sulphydryl groups in budding yeast cells and in the phialides

- of *Penicillium notatum* wesling during conidiation. *J General Microbiol* **59**, 257–262.
- Purchase D, Miles RJ, Young TW. 1997 Cadmium uptake and nitrogen fixing ability in heavy metal-resistant laboratory and field strains of *Rhizobium leguminosarum* biovar *trifolii*. *FEMS Microbiol Ecol* **22**, 85–93.
- Rama Rao VSK, Wilson CH, Mohan PM. 1997 Zinc resistance in *Neurospora crassa. Biometals* **10**, 147–156.
- Ramadan S, Razak AA, Soliman HG. 1988 Influence of cadmium on certain biological activities in a cadmium tolerant fungi. *Biol Trace Element Res* **18**, 179–190.
- Rayner MH, Sadler PJ. 1989 Cadmium accumulation and resistance mechanisms in bacteria. In: Poole RK & Gadd GM eds. Metal-Microbe Interactions. Oxford: IRL Press; 39–47.

- Singhal RK, Anderson ME, Meister A. 1987 Glutathione, a first line of defense against cadmium toxicity. FASEB J 1, 220–223.
- Splittgerber AG, Tappel AlL. 1979 Inhibition of glutathione peroxidase by cadmium and other metal ions. *Arch Biochem and Biophys* 197, 534–542.
- Tohoyama H, Shiraishi E, Amano S, Inouhe M, Joho M, Murayama T. 1996 Amplifications of a gene for metallothionein by tandem repeat in a strain of cadmium resistant yeast cells. *FEMS Microbiol Lett* 136, 269–273.
- Wu JS, Sung HY, Juang RH. 1995 Transformation of cadmiumbinding complexes during cadmium sequestration in fission yeast. *Biochem Mole Biol* 36, 1169–1175.