

Mycoremediation of the Azo dye Acid Red 14 by *Wickerhamomyces Anomalus*: Physicochemical Characterization, Equilibrium, and Kinetics Studies

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Research Article

Keywords: *Wickerhamomyces anomalus*, Azo dye, Biosorption, Kinetic and Isotherms model, Biomass characterization, Optimization

Posted Date: September 20th, 2021

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-891092/v1>

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1 **Mycoremediation of the azo dye Acid Red 14 by *Wickerhamomyces anomalus*:**

2 **Physicochemical characterization, equilibrium, and kinetics studies**

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13 **Acknowledgements**

14 The authors gratefully acknowledge the Moroccan Foundation for Advanced Science, Innovation
15 and Research (MAScIR), and Regional University Centre of Interface (CURI), Sidi Mohamed Ben
16 Abdellah University for their financial and technical support.

17 **Authors contribution statement**

18 Danouche M. : Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Writing - original draft,
19 Visualization.

20 El Arroussi H. : Supervision, Writing - review & editing, Resources.

21 El Ghachtouli N. : Supervision, Conceptualization, Writing - review & editing, Validation, Funding
22 acquisition, Project leading.

23 **Abstract**

24 This study aimed to evaluate the potential application, and the involved mechanism in the
25 biosorption of Acid Red₁₄ (AR₁₄) by the biomass of *Wickerhamomyces anomalus*. Kinetics and
26 biosorption isotherms were first examined. Then, the physicochemical characterization of cells-
27 AR₁₄ interactions was determined using scanning electron microscopy coupled with energy
28 dispersive X-ray spectroscopy, Fourier transforms infrared spectroscopy, zeta potential, zero-point
29 charge, and contact angle measurements. Finally, the Plackett-Burman and the Box-Behnken
30 designs were used respectively to identify the most influential factors on the biosorption process
31 and their optimization. The pseudo-second-order and the intra-particle diffusion models best fit the
32 experimental data. Furthermore, the Langmuir model was the appropriate isotherm to explain the
33 biosorption system, suggesting the involvement of chemisorption on a monolayer of homogeneous
34 sites. Biomass characterizations supported these theoretical predictions. A change in the
35 transmittance of the functional groups present was noticed after AR₁₄-biosorption, the analysis of
36 the zeta potential confirms the presence of anionic groups, and the contact angle measurement
37 indicates a significant variation of the electron donor and acceptor character. Hence, it can be
38 concluded that both chemical and electrostatic interactions of AR₁₄ onto the macromolecular
39 structures composing the cell surface. The most influential factors on biosorption efficiency were
40 dye and biomass concentration, and the pH of the medium. Optimal biosorption was achieved at
41 pH 3-4, with AR₁₄ concentrations around 50 - 75 mg L⁻¹ and a biomass concentration at 1.25 g L⁻¹.
42 These results suggest that *W. anomalus* might be exploited as an effective, inexpensive, and
43 environmentally friendly biosorbent.

44 **Keywords:** *Wickerhamomyces anomalus*; Azo dye, Biosorption; Kinetic and Isotherms model;
45 Biomass characterization; Optimization.

46 **1. Introduction**

47 Worldwide, the textile industry is one of the leading fast-growing businesses. However, for the
48 production of 1 kg of finished textile products, this manufacturing requires between 200 to 500 L
49 of water, which makes this sector one of the largest producers of liquid effluents (Waghmode et al.
50 2012). It has also been estimated that approximately 10 000 tons per year of synthetic dyes are used
51 in this sector, of which 10-15% are rejected during the dyeing process as waste (Saratale et al.
52 2011). Unfortunately, the release of these effluents into the aquatic environment does not only
53 affect the color of the water, also it has adverse effects on exposed organisms, including humans
54 (Fu and Viraraghavan 2001). To deal with this issue, strict regulations have been implemented to
55 manage the release of such xenobiotics into the environment. Also, several approaches have been
56 proposed as solutions for their treatment, such as membrane, photochemical oxidation, and
57 electrochemical processes. Although these methods are effective, they require chemicals, energy-
58 intensive equipment, and require high maintenance costs. Which makes them expensive, thereby
59 limiting their large-scale applications (Arslan et al. 2016). Recently, there has been a particular
60 interest in new technologies that are environmentally friendly, efficient, and inexpensive such as
61 adsorption techniques. Activated carbon is the most commonly used adsorbent material (Yagub et
62 al. 2014). However, their thermal or chemical regeneration as well as the need for complexing
63 agents to improve their performance make the use of activated carbon-based processes an
64 expensive proposition (Crini et al. 2019). New economical, readily available and effective
65 adsorbents are in high demand today. Hence, the use of biological materials (biosorbents) such as
66 natural residues, industrial food wastes, agricultural wastes, and biomass of various
67 microorganisms has been reported as a cheap and effective alternative (Srinivasan and
68 Viraraghavan 2010). Several studies have been reported the potential application of microalgae,

69 cyanobacteria, and filamentous fungi in the biosorption of toxic dyes (Aksu and Tezer 2005; Jafari
70 et al. 2014; Rita de Cássia et al. 2013). However, only a few studies have focused on yeast cells,
71 despite their advantages over other taxa. Particularly their fast growth compared to filamentous
72 fungi or microalgae (Singh and Arora 2011), their ability to survive in harsh environments (Sen et
73 al. 2016), and the special flocculating characteristic that allows them to aggregate into multicellular
74 masses (flakes), facilitating, therefore, their recovery after the treatment process (Soares and Soares
75 2012). The purpose of this study was to evaluate the potential application of inactivated cells of
76 *Wickerhamomyces anomalus* (*W. anomalus*) in the biosorption of the dye Acid red 14 (AR14). The
77 specific objectives of this research were: (i) to study the kinetics and equilibrium isotherms of the
78 biosorption of the AR14 dye by yeast cells. (ii) to investigate the physicochemical interaction
79 between the yeast biomass and the dye, and (iii) to optimize the biosorption process using the
80 design of the experiments.

81 **2. Material and methods**

82 **2.1 Chemicals**

83 The monoazo dye AR14 (1-Naphthalenesulfonic acid, 4-hydroxy-3-((4-sulfo-1-naphthalenyl)
84 azo)-, disodium salt), commonly employed in many different industries such as textile, paper, food,
85 etc..., was used as a model pollutant. The dye solution was prepared at a concentration of 5 g L⁻¹ in
86 distilled water, then sterilized by filtration and store at 4 °C. All other chemicals used for this study
87 were of analytical grade reagents and were purchased from Sigma and Merck.

88 **2.2 Yeast source, culture medium, and biosorbent preparation**

89 This study was conducted with the heat-kill cells of *W. anomalus* yeast strain, previously isolated
90 from a contaminated site located in Fez (Morocco). Its pure culture was maintained on Yeast

91 Extract–Peptone–Glucose (YPG) medium (2% Difco peptone, 1% yeast extract, and 2% glucose)
92 (Bahafid et al. 2013). The biomass was recovered by centrifugation at 10,000xg. and inactivated
93 by autoclaving (121°C for 45 min). The regression equation of OD_{600nm} and the dry cell weight
94 (DCW) was calculated based on the standard curve according to eq (1).

$$95 \text{ DCW} = 0.2418 \times \text{OD}_{600\text{nm}} + 0.2609 \quad (R^2 = 0.989) \quad \text{eq (1).}$$

96 **2.3 Biosorption: kinetics and equilibrium study**

97 Kinetic studies were carried out in Erlenmeyer flasks containing 150 mL of the dye solution at a
98 concentration of 50 mg L⁻¹ and 0.5 g L⁻¹ of biomass. The flasks were placed on orbital shakers at a
99 constant speed (120 rpm) at 25 °C. Aliquots were collected at a regular time, centrifuged (10 000xg
100 for 10 min) to remove the biosorbent, and the dye concentration was measured using the
101 spectrophotometer Prim Light SECOMAM at $\lambda = 515 \text{ nm}$. The biosorption was reported as
102 decolorization rate (D%) (eq 2), and the biosorption capacity was calculated according to eq 3.

$$103 \text{ D\%} = (A(i) - A(t)) / A(i) \times 100 \quad \text{eq (2).}$$

$$104 \text{ Q}_t = ((C(i) - C(t)) V / W) \quad \text{eq (3).}$$

105 Where, (Q_t) is the biosorption capacity, A(i) and A(t) are the absorbance of dye dopped medium
106 at the start point (i) and at a regular time (t); C(i) and C(t) are the initial and the equilibrium dye
107 concentrations (mg L⁻¹); V is the volume of the solution (mL); W is the weight of the biomass (g
108 L⁻¹). To explain and predict the kinetics of the yeast-dye biosorption interaction, various
109 mathematical kinetic and isotherm models can be employed (Danouche et al. 2021). In this study,
110 Lagergren's Pseudo-first-order and pseudo-second-order were applied to define the type of
111 interactions (physisorption or chemisorption), while the intra-particle diffusion model was used to
112 describe the internal diffusion of dye in the cell wall. The isotherms were next employed to describe
113 the biosorption efficiency and to understand the relationship between the dye concentrations at its

114 equilibrium concentration in the biosorbent solution (Morosanu et al. 2016). The linear equations
115 of kinetic and isotherm models used in the present study are summarized in Table 1.

116 **2.4 Physicochemical characterization of *W. anomalus* / dye interaction**

117 **2.4.1 Scanning electron microscopy with energy dispersive X-Ray analysis**

118 SEM (JSM-IT500 InTouchScope™) was used to visualize the surface morphology of cells from
119 control and AR14 dopped medium, while EDX was used to analyze the elemental composition of
120 control and AR14-loaded cells in the imaged area. The SEM analytical settings were as follows:
121 Signal SED, magnification of x1 000-x55 000 landing voltage of 3.0 kV, operation distance of 10.1
122 mm, at high vacuum mode.

123 **2.4.2 Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy analysis**

124 In order to determine the functional groups on the surface of *W. anomalus* and their participation
125 in the biosorption of AR14. Control and AR14-loaded cells were analyzed by ABB Bomem FTLA
126 2000 spectrometer analyzer. Salt pellets were prepared using 1 mg of biomass and 149 mg of KBr.
127 Samples were dried at 85 °C for 24 h and compressed at 40 kN for 5 min to form pellets. Thirty-
128 two scans were performed at a range of 400 to 4000 cm⁻¹, with 4 cm⁻¹ of resolution for each sample.

129 **2.4.3 Zeta potential and Zero-point charge measurement**

130 The zeta potential measurement was performed to determine the zeta potentials of the yeast cell as
131 a function of pH from 3 to 10. Indeed, a volume of 100 mL of yeast suspension (0.05 g L⁻¹) was
132 harvested by centrifugation at 10 000xg for 10 min, then the biomass was resuspended in 10 mL
133 of 0.1 M NaCl. The initial pH of the suspensions was adjusted from 3 to 10 with 0.1 M of HCl or
134 NaOH solutions. Next, the zeta potential was evaluated in the electrophoresis cell at 25 °C with

135 Nanosizer Nano (Malvern). For each pH value, triplicate measurements were taken, and for each
136 data, approximately 30 readings were taken (Hadjoudja et al. 2010). The electrical state of the yeast
137 surface in the solution was also characterized using the zero-charge point (pH_{zc}). Indeed, NaCl
138 solutions (0.1 M) with pH ranging from 3 to 10 were prepared, before being mixed with 0.05 g of
139 the fungal biomass, and then were shaken for 24 h at 25 °C. Finally, the final pH values were
140 measured and the difference in ΔpH was plotted against the initial pH_i to determine the pH_{zc}
141 (Zehra, et al. 2016).

142 **2.4.4 Contact angle measurement**

143 Measurement of the contact angle was carried out at 25 °C as described by Asri et al. (2018), using
144 a digital optical contact angle (Data Physics OCA 40), via the sessile drop method, using water,
145 formamide, and diiodomethane (Table S1). Both the left and the right contact angles measurements
146 of algal biomasses were automatically calculated from the digitalized image using SCA 20
147 software. The degree of hydrophobicity of control and dye-leaded to cells of *W. anomalus* was then
148 estimated according to Vogler's and Van Oss approach (Van Oss, et al 1988; Vogler 1998).

149 **2.5 Statistical analysis**

150 Experiments were carried out in triplicate, and the results were recorded as the mean ± standard
151 deviation. The statistical analysis of obtained data was performed using GraphPad Prism software
152 version 8.0, with an unpaired T-test. P-value of < 0.05 was perceived as statistically.

153 **2.6 Optimization of biosorption using the design of experiments**

154 **2.6.1 Screening of factors using Plackett–Burman design (PBD)**

155 Factors screening was performed using PBD (Plackett and Burman 1946) via MINITAB 18.1
 156 software. The selection of the most influential factors on the biosorption process was based on
 157 previous research addressing biosorption optimization using a "one factor at a time" approach.
 158 Indeed, six variables were selected including temperature (°C), pH, yeast biomass (g L⁻¹), dye
 159 concentration (mg L⁻¹), shaking speed (rpm), and contact time (min) at two levels (max (+1) and
 160 min (-1)) (Table S2). According to the adopted method, it was presumed that there is no interaction
 161 between parameters. Therefore, the data were modeled using first-order multiple regression (eq 7).
 162
$$Y = \beta_0 + \sum \beta_i X_i \quad (i = 1, \dots, k) \quad \text{eq (7)}$$

 163 Where, (Y) is the biosorption response, (β_0) is the model intercept, and (β_i) is the variable estimates.
 164 Thus, ANOVA and lack of fit were used for statistical significance. While the Fisher variation ratio
 165 (F), and the P-value (P) were used to select the effective parameters.

166 **2.6.2 Optimization of biosorption parameters using Box-Behnken design (PBD)**

167 To optimize the biosorption of AR14 by the biomass of *W. anomalus*, the PBD model was applied
 168 (Box and Behnken 1960). The eq (8) was used to calculate the coded values of variables.

169
$$X_i = (x_i - x_0 / \Delta x), \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, k \quad \text{eq (8)}$$

170 Where, (X_i) is the dimensionless value of a process variable; (x_i) is the real value of an independent
 171 variable; (x₀) is the value of (x_i) at the center point; (Δx) is the step change. The second-order
 172 equation (eq (9)) was used to correlate the dependent and independent variables:

173
$$Y = b_0 + b_1A + b_2B + b_3C + b_{12}AB + b_{13}AC + b_{23}BC + b_{11}A^2 + b_{22}B^2 + b_{33}C^2 \quad \text{eq (9)}$$

174 Where, (Y) is the biosorption efficiency response; (b₀) is constant, (b₁, b₂, and b₃) are linear
 175 coefficients; (b₁₂, b₁₃, and b₂₃) are cross-product coefficients, and (b₁₁, b₂₂, and b₃₃) are quadratic
 176 coefficients; (A, B, and C) are coded experimental levels of the selected variables of the screening
 177 phase. It was represented in terms of three class levels (low (-1), central point (0), and high (+1))

178 (Table S3). The optimum values of each factor were calculated by solving the regression equation,
179 evaluating the contour map, and setting up constraints on the variable levels (Kousha et al. 2012).
180 The significance of the model is derived from the test of goodness-of-fit, mostly expressed as the
181 coefficient of determination (R^2). A P-value below 0.05 was considered statistically significant
182 (Papadopoulou et al. 2013).

183 **3. Results and discussion**

184 **3.1 *Biosorption: kinetics and equilibrium study***

185 The result of AR14 biosorption kinetics in *W. anomalous* biomass at four initial dye concentrations
186 (50, 100, 150, and 200 mg L⁻¹) indicates that the rate of biosorption increased with increasing the
187 contact time up to 10 min, after that, an equilibrium was reached (Fig. 1). Indeed, three phases were
188 recorded in this biosorption process. The initial phase (5 min), a rapid biosorption rate occurred.
189 Afterward, the dye is gradually biosorbed until the maximum biosorption capacity of the
190 biosorbents is reached. The initial phase can be attributed to the availability of a large surface area
191 and many vacant macropores for the dye uptake. Also, the fast dye biosorption at this phase
192 suggesting the involvement of a passive interaction like physical adsorption or ion exchange
193 interaction. The second stage (5 to 10 min), was characterized by a gradual and slow absorption,
194 explained by the saturation of active functions groups on the cell surface (Daneshvar et al. 2019).
195 As well as, by the repulsive forces among adsorbed dye molecules and those present in the solution
196 (Smaranda et al. 2009). At the third stage, the biosorption reached the equilibrium state. Similar
197 findings were reported previously on the biosorption of Strazone blue (Farah et al. 2007), Acid
198 blue 161 (Dilarri et al. 2016), and Direct red 23 (Morão et al. 2017) using various *S. cerevisiae*
199 biomass.

200 The pseudo-second-order model was more applicable for the AR14-yeast biosorption system fit.
201 Indeed, there was a linearization of the experimental data (Fig. 2A), and the R^2 of all studied
202 concentrations was relatively close to 1 (Table 2). Moreover, the calculated values of Q_e (cal) were
203 closer to the experimental values Q_e (exp), confirming the goodness-of-fit of the model. The
204 distinguishing features of this model are related to the biosorption capacity of the solid phase,
205 which is in agreement with chemisorption (Davranche et al. 2019). However, the pseudo-second-
206 order model did not identify the potential mechanism of diffusion into the pores. The kinetics were
207 then analyzed through the intraparticle diffusion model. It has been shown that if biosorption
208 follows an intraparticle diffusion model, the plot of (Q_t) versus (\sqrt{t}) should be linear, and if the plot
209 passes through the origin ($C = 0$). However, if ($C \neq 0$), this point to some degree of boundary layer
210 control. The intraparticle diffusion model is not the rate control step of the biosorption process, but
211 it can work simultaneously with other diffusion models (Wu et al. 2009). As shown in Fig. 2B, two
212 linear regions are representing the diffusion boundary layer, followed by intraparticle diffusion in
213 macropore (Ho and McKay 1998). This result highlights that the yeast biomass reaches biosorption
214 equilibrium when diffusion occurs in the macropore layer, and the resistance to mass transfer is not
215 involved in the dye uptake kinetics (Ka Yee et al. 2003). Also, Kismir and Aroguz (2011) reported
216 that the process of mass transfer of dye onto the biosorbents can take place in general through four
217 steps: (i) bulk diffusion (transfer from the bulk solution to the surface of the biosorbent), (ii) film
218 diffusion (transfer through the boundary layer to the biosorbent surface), (iii) intra-particle
219 diffusion (transfer from the surface to the interior pores of the particle), (iv) chemical reaction via
220 ion-exchange, complexation, chelation; the adsorption of dye at an active site on the biosorbent
221 surface. According to the graphical representation of Langmuir and Freundlich isotherms (Fig. 3),
222 and the corresponding models' constants listed in Table 3, the R^2 was respectively at 0.954 and

223 0.849. Which means that Langmuir isotherms provide an appropriate fit for AR14 biosorption onto
224 *W. anomalus* compared to Freundlich isotherms. Langmuir isotherms predict that the biosorption
225 is based on monolayer adsorption on a homogeneous site, without any interaction between
226 biosorbed dye molecules on neighboring sites, it also assumes that the energy is equal for all sites
227 and that there are multiple biosorption sites for a specific surface. When these sites are fully
228 saturated, no further biosorption can take place (de Castro et al. 2017; Daneshvar et al. 2019). Aksu
229 and Dönmez (2003) reported the applicability of both Langmuir and Freundlich models to the
230 biosorption system of Remazol Blue reactive dye into dried cells of *Candida* strains.

231 **3.2 Characterization of yeast biomass**

232 **3.2.1 SEM coupled with EDX analysis**

233 SEM and EDX analysis were used to establish the changes in morphology and the elemental
234 composition of the yeast biomass before AR14 biosorption, in order to establish the binding
235 mechanism of the dye to the cell wall. Fig. 4A shows the SEM images of colorless yeast cells, and
236 Fig. 4B shows *W. anomalus* after AR14 biosorption. There was a difference in cellular morphology
237 between the control and AR14-loaded cells. The yeast cells before biosorption of AR14 had a
238 normal shape and a transparent outer layer outside the cell surface. However, after dye biosorption,
239 the cell becomes smooth and presents hazy textures. Furthermore, the X-ray spectra showed a
240 difference in the intensity of elementary peaks of C, O, P, and K after dye biosorption.

241 **3.2.2 FTIR spectroscopy analysis**

242 The FTIR spectra (Fig. 5) of *W. anomalus* biomass before and after AR14 biosorption were used
243 to identify the involved functional groups of the cell wall in the dye-biosorption process
244 (Pugazhenthii 2009). The strong vibration around 3000–3500 cm^{-1} illustrates the existence of

245 stretching vibration of hydroxyl (-OH) and/or amino (-NH₂) groups, which are among the
246 functional groups of chitosan and amino acids on the cell wall of *W. anomalous* (Paula et al. 2016).
247 The peaks at 2854 – 2923 cm⁻¹ are in the region of the absorption of lipid acyl chains (3050-2800
248 cm⁻¹) that correspond to symmetric and asymmetric stretching of methylene and methyl groups in
249 the membrane phospholipids (Ami et al. 2014). The strong peaks at 1642 cm⁻¹ detected in the region
250 between 1700 and 1500 cm⁻¹ indicate the presence of amide (I and II) bands, mainly from protein
251 peptide bonds (C=O stretching and N-H bending), corresponding to several uronic acids and amino
252 acids present in the cell wall (Zhang et al. 2010). The infrared absorption in the spectral at 1406
253 cm⁻¹ may be caused by the sulfur (-SO-) and phosphorous (-PO-) groups, which range between
254 1500 and 1300 cm⁻¹ corresponding to vibrations of fatty acids and proteins (Paula et al. 2016). The
255 bands observed at 1073 cm⁻¹ are assigned to C-O stretching vibration of alcohols and carboxylic
256 acids which are mainly related to complex vibrations from carbohydrates (Naja and Volesky 2011).
257 Based on the comparison of the spectra before and after biosorption, a significant change was
258 noticed in the transmittance of these functional groups which may be attributed to its occupation
259 by dye molecule. There was also a shift in various bands, which represented the groups involved
260 in the biosorption corresponding to hydroxyl, carboxylic acid, amine, and amino groups. Some
261 previous studies indicated that the biosorption process is accomplished by chelation and formation
262 of ionic bridges between dye and functional groups. The binding mechanism of dye molecules to
263 the yeast cell is explained by the strong attractive forces of peptidomannan, peptidoglycan, lipids,
264 and heteropolysaccharides..., which contains several functional groups such as carboxyl, hydroxyl,
265 amino, phosphate, and other charged groups (Gadd 2009; Vitor and Corso 2008). In line with our
266 findings, it has been reported by Dilarri et al. (2016) that the biosorption of synthetic dyes by the
267 cell wall of *S. cerevisiae* involved some amide and amine groups, and demonstrated that the

268 vibration of (-C=O) and (-C-O) can be another linking group in the chitin structure. Moreover, it
269 can be predicted according to the FTIR analysis that Yoshida H-binding, dipole-dipole H-binding,
270 π - π , and n- π interactions play an indispensable role in the AR14 biosorption onto yeast cell (Tran
271 et al. 2017). The cell wall architecture and the proposed mechanisms of AR14 biosorption are
272 illustrated in Fig. 6. In fact, the major components of the *S. cerevisiae* cell wall are β -glucans
273 (formed by 1,3- β - and 1,6-linkages) and mannoproteins (proteins highly N- or O-glycosylated
274 mannose residues linked by 1,2-, 1,3-, 1,4- and 1,6- α -linkages), which represent about 50-60% and
275 40-50%, respectively of the cell wall mass, as well as 1-3% for the chitin, which is manufactured
276 by 1,4- β -N-acetylglucosamine (Stewart 2017). These complex macromolecular structures present
277 potential binding sites for diverse pollutants including toxic dye molecules (Fomina and Gadd
278 2014).

279 **3.2.3 Zeta potential and Zero-point charge measurement**

280 The electrical state of the cell surface is one of the critical parameters in biosorption studies. Thus,
281 the measurement of zeta potential can be one of the key parameters related to the external loads of
282 the adsorbent (Akar et al. 2009). As shown in Fig. 7A, the zeta potential of *W. anomalus* biomass
283 was maintained at a negative charge, regardless of the initial pH value, and it varied from -4.6 mV
284 at pH 3 to -9.28 at pH 10. This can testify to the anionic characteristics and the high concentration
285 of acid functional groups on the surface of *W. anomalus*. These results are consistent with previous
286 studies that evaluated the zeta potential of different yeast strains (Lin et al. 2003; Tazhibaeva et al.
287 2003). It is known that there was a close relationship between the zeta potential of biomaterials and
288 their biosorption capacity (Dundar et al. 2008). On the other hand, the value of pH_{Zc} at which Δ pH
289 = 0 was found at 5.25 (Fig. 7B) confirmed thus the presence of anionic groups on the cell surface
290 that dominate over the cationic groups. Zehra et al. (2016) reported that the acidic value of pH_{Zc}

291 of baker's yeast, was attributed to the presence of various biopolymers on the yeast cell wall,
292 mainly β -glucan and chitosan, that may have caused a substantial load on the external surface of
293 the cells and given a net charge on the surface that depending on the pH caused by deprotonation
294 of functional groups in the cell wall (Garcia-rubio et al. 2020; Klis et al. 2002). The number of
295 positively charged sites decreases when the pH of the solution increases. The decrease in the
296 biosorption of AR14 anions is a result of the electrostatic repulsion forces of the negatively charged
297 cell surface at acidic pH conditions (Akar et al. 2009).

298 **3.2.4 Contact angle measurements**

299 Based on both Vogler's and Van Oss approaches, *W. anomalus* exhibited a hydrophilic character,
300 the θ_w value ($34.9^\circ \pm 0.4$) was less than 65° , and the ΔG_{iwi} had a positive value (37.23 ± 1.13 mJ
301 m^{-2}). These findings agree with previous results reporting the hydrophilic character of various yeast
302 strains (Lucas et al. 2006; Guillemot et al. 2006). The hydrophobicity of the yeast surface has been
303 attributed to the proteins forming the cell wall (Suzzi et al. 1994; Vichi et al. 2010). In addition, *W.*
304 *anomalus* appear to behave predominantly as electron donors/Lewis bases with high values of $\gamma^- =$
305 52.57 ± 0.6 mJ m^{-2} (Table 4). These results also indicate that this strain exhibits weak electron
306 acceptor characters with $\gamma^+ = 0.24 \pm 0.07$ mJ m^{-2} . Some previous research reported also that the
307 microbial cell surfaces are mainly electron-donating, while electron-accepting cell surfaces are
308 rarely found (Mei et al. 1998), which may be due to the presence of phosphate groups in the cell
309 wall (Vichi et al. 2010). These findings are consistent with the FTIR analyses of *W. anomalus*,
310 which confirm the presence of phosphate groups on its cell surface. On the other hand, the θ_w of
311 *W. anomalus* significantly decreased from $34.9^\circ \pm 0.4$ to $31.6^\circ \pm 0.9$ after dye biosorption (Table
312 4). This may be attributed to an increase in the density of polar functional groups on the biomass
313 surfaces after the biosorption process (Legorreta-Castañeda et al. 2020). In addition, a significant

314 variation was noted in the electron donor and acceptor character after dye biosorption (γ^+ from 0.24
315 ± 0.07 to 0.08 ± 0.02 mJ m^{-2} ; and γ^- from 52.57 ± 0.6 to 59.79 ± 0.5 mJ m^{-2}) which can be attributed
316 to the interaction of cell surface functional groups with dye molecules.

317 **3.3 Optimization of the biosorption by using the design of experiments**

318 **3.3.1 Factor's screening using Plackett–Burman design**

319 Based on the positive or negative values of the factors modeled on the eq 10, both factors A and C
320 have positive values, indicating their synergistic effect on the biosorption, while the other negative
321 factors indicate an antagonistic effect.

$$322 \text{ D \%} = 11.0 + 0.933 \text{ A} - 3.64 \text{ B} + 12.89 \text{ C} - 0.003 \text{ D} - 0.207 \text{ E} + 0.774 \text{ F} \quad \text{eq (10).}$$

323 Table 5 represents the value of the regression coefficients, the t-tests, and the p-values of six
324 independent variables. The multiple correlation coefficient R^2 of the first-order model indicates
325 that 75.82% of the data variance could be estimated by this model. Moreover, the difference
326 between the predicted R^2 (51.80%) and the adjusted R^2 (67.28%), indicates that the relationship
327 between the independent variables and the response cannot be evaluated based on the first-order
328 model. As illustrated in Fig. 8A, the significant influence factors on biosorption capacity are the
329 biomass (89.06%), pH (26.57%), and the dye concentration (10.94%). Indeed, the increase in the
330 yeast dosage showed a positive influence, while increasing dye concentration and pH had a
331 negative influence on the efficiency of AR14 biosorption (Fig. 8B).

332 Several studies reported that an increase in biomass dosage significantly improves the biosorption
333 capacity, due to the increase of exchangeable sites present in the cell wall (Kousha et al. 2012). pH
334 is also one of the factors controlling the biosorption process. In fact it can affect the chemistry of
335 dye molecules, the physicochemical properties of the yeast surface, and the magnitude of

336 electrostatic charges imparted by the ionized dye molecules (Fu and Viraraghavan 2002). It has
337 been documented that the optimal biosorption pH of particular dyes depends closely on their
338 chemical properties. For instance, the biosorption of reactive dyes require acidic conditions,
339 whereas basic dyes biosorption require neutral or alkaline conditions (Farah et al. 2007). In
340 addition, the net charge of the biosorbent is also pH-dependent, at a low pH value, the functional
341 group on the cell surface becomes protonated and acquires a net positive charge increasing thereby
342 the binding of anionic dyes.

343 Regarding the effect of the initial dye concentration on the biosorption capacity, its closely
344 depending on the binding sites available on the biomass surface. Moreover, it has been reported
345 that a high dye solute uptake can be obtained at a high initial dye concentration, which is linked to
346 the high driving force for mass transfer (Binupriya et al. 2007; Bulut and Aydin 2006). However,
347 at lower initial dye concentrations, the biosorption becomes independent of the initial dye
348 concentration, because the ratio of the initial moles of the solute to the available area becomes low
349 (Vijayaraghavan and Yun 2008).

350 ***3.3.2 Optimization of process parameters using Box-Behnken model***

351 The eq (11) models the relationship between the predicted biosorption response and the process
352 parameters with the second-order polynomial equation. In fact, the negative values of both factors
353 (A) and (C) indicate that a high biosorption efficiency occurs at lower dye concentration and at
354 acidic pH solution.

$$355 \quad D\% = 70.8 - 0.243 A + 48.99 B - 23.18 C - 0.00015 A^*A - 10.50 B^*B + 1.625 C^*C + 0.0001 A^*B \\ 356 \quad + 0.0419 A^*C - 2.61 B^*C \qquad \qquad \qquad \text{eq (11).}$$

357 As illustrated in Table 6, the regression of the quadratic model was statistically significant
358 ($F=21.48$; $P=0.00$), at 95% confidence limits. The R^2 indicate that the model as fitted explains
359 90.62% of the variability, suggesting a significant correlation between the predicted and
360 experimental effects of the selected variables. Furthermore, the predicted R^2 value (76.27%) was
361 in line with the founded R^2 value (86.41%) of the adjusted, indicating that 10.14% of the variability
362 in the response was not explainable by this model. Also, the F value was significantly proportional
363 to the pure error, and the F values for the factors A, B and C were at 17.44, 42.69, and 79.62,
364 respectively, showing consequently that the pH of the solution was most significantly different
365 from zero at the 95.0% confidence level followed by the biomass dosage and dye concentration
366 (Fig. 9A). Consistent with the results of the factor selection step, the normalized effects indicate
367 that increasing the yeast dose had a positive influence, whereas a negative influence on biosorption
368 efficiency was observed when increasing the dye concentration or initial pH of the medium (Fig.
369 9B). As described in Fig. 10A, the contours illustrating the change in AR14 biosorption, relative
370 to the simultaneous change in two factors. while the third is included at the midpoint. When the
371 initial pH was maintained at 5, the biosorption rate was proportional to the increase in the biomass
372 dosage, but inversely proportional to the increase in the initial dye concentration. Meanwhile, when
373 the initial dye concentration was maintained at 125 mg L^{-1} (Fig. 10B), the rate of biosorption was
374 proportional to the increase in the biomass dosage, and the optimum biosorption was achieved at a
375 lower pH level. Similarly, when the biomass dosage was maintained at 1.125 mg L^{-1} (Fig. 10C),
376 the optimum biosorption level was proportional to the initial pH of the medium and the initial dye
377 concentration. Higher biosorption was achieved at acidic conditions with lower dye concentration.
378 El-Naggar and El-Malkey (2020) reported that the dye biosorption system depended on protonation
379 or deprotonation of the functional groups on the cell surface. At pH 3-4, the protonation of amino

380 groups on the yeast cell wall increases the net positive charge and enhances the biosorption of
381 negatively charged dye ions by electrostatic binding.

382 **4. Conclusion**

383 Based on the above considerations, it can be concluded that the biomass of *W. anomalus* could be
384 used as an effective, inexpensive and environmentally friendly biosorbent for the removal of toxic
385 dyes. The study of the kinetics of biosorption indicated that at the beginning of the biosorption
386 process, the bioremoval occurred rapidly, then proceeded gradually to reach the equilibrium state.
387 The studied isotherm model indicated a monolayer adsorption of AR14 molecules at homogeneous
388 sites on the cell wall surface of *W. anomalus*. Furthermore, biosorption kinetic modelling followed
389 both the pseudo-second-order as well as the intraparticle diffusion model. The characterization of
390 yeast biomass before and after dye biosorption indicated that the bioremoval was attributed to the
391 presence of various active groups on the cell surface, the zeta potential of *W. anomalus* was at a
392 negative charge, and the acidic value of pHzc confirmed the presence of anionic groups on the cell
393 surface that dominate over the cationic groups. The adsorbate concentration and the adsorbent
394 dosage ratio as well as the initial pH have significantly affected the biosorption efficiency. The
395 optimum condition for maximum dye biosorption was achieved at pH 3-4, with lower initial dye
396 concentrations (50 - 75 mg L⁻¹) and yeast biomass greater than 1.25 g L⁻¹. Until today, very few
397 studies have been conducted on the use of yeasts as biosorbent. To our knowledge, most of these
398 researches are limited to the laboratory scale. Hence the emergence of this new research topic
399 which may be part of the future solutions proposed for the treatment of colored effluents.

400 **Compliance with ethical standards**

401 **Conflict of interest**

402 The authors declare that they have no direct or indirect conflict of interest.

403 **Ethical approval**

404 This is the original work of the authors. The work described has not been submitted elsewhere for
405 publication, in whole or in part, and all authors listed carried out the data analysis and manuscript
406 writing. Moreover, all authors read and approved the final manuscript.

407 **Data Availability**

408 All data generated or analysed during this study are available from the corresponding author.

409 **Funding**

410 Not Applicable

411 **References**

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622 ***Figure captions***

623 Fig 1. Kinetics of AR14 uptake by *W. anomalous* biomass at various initial dye concentrations.

624 Fig 2. Plot of pseudo-second order model (A), and intra-particle diffusion model (B) of AR14
625 biosorption onto *W. anomalous* at various initial concentrations.

626 Fig 3. Langmuir (A) and Freundlich (B) isotherm plot and fitted models of AR14 biosorption by
627 *W. anomalous* biomass.

628 Fig 4. SEM of *W. anomalous* (x8000): (A) control yeast cells; (B) dye loaded, and the selected X-
629 ray spectra of control (C), and dye loaded cells (D).

630 Fig 5. FTIR spectra of *W. anomalous* cells before and after AR14 biosorption.

631 Fig 6. Architecture of yeast cell wall and proposed interaction mechanisms of AR14 biosorption

632 Fig 7. Zeta potential of (A) and pH zero charge (B) of *W. anomalous* yeast cells.

633 Fig 8. Main effect of variables on the biosorption capacity of AR14 using *W. anomalus*: Pareto
634 chart of standard effect (A), and normal plot of standardized effects (B).

635 Fig 9. Effect of variables and 2-way interaction on the biosorption capacity of AR14 using *W.*
636 *anomalus*: pareto-chart of standardized effects (A), and normal plot of standardized effects (B).

637 Fig 10. Effect of selected factors (pH, dye concentration, and yeast biomass) on the biosorption
638 capacity of AR14 onto *W. anomalus*

639

Figures

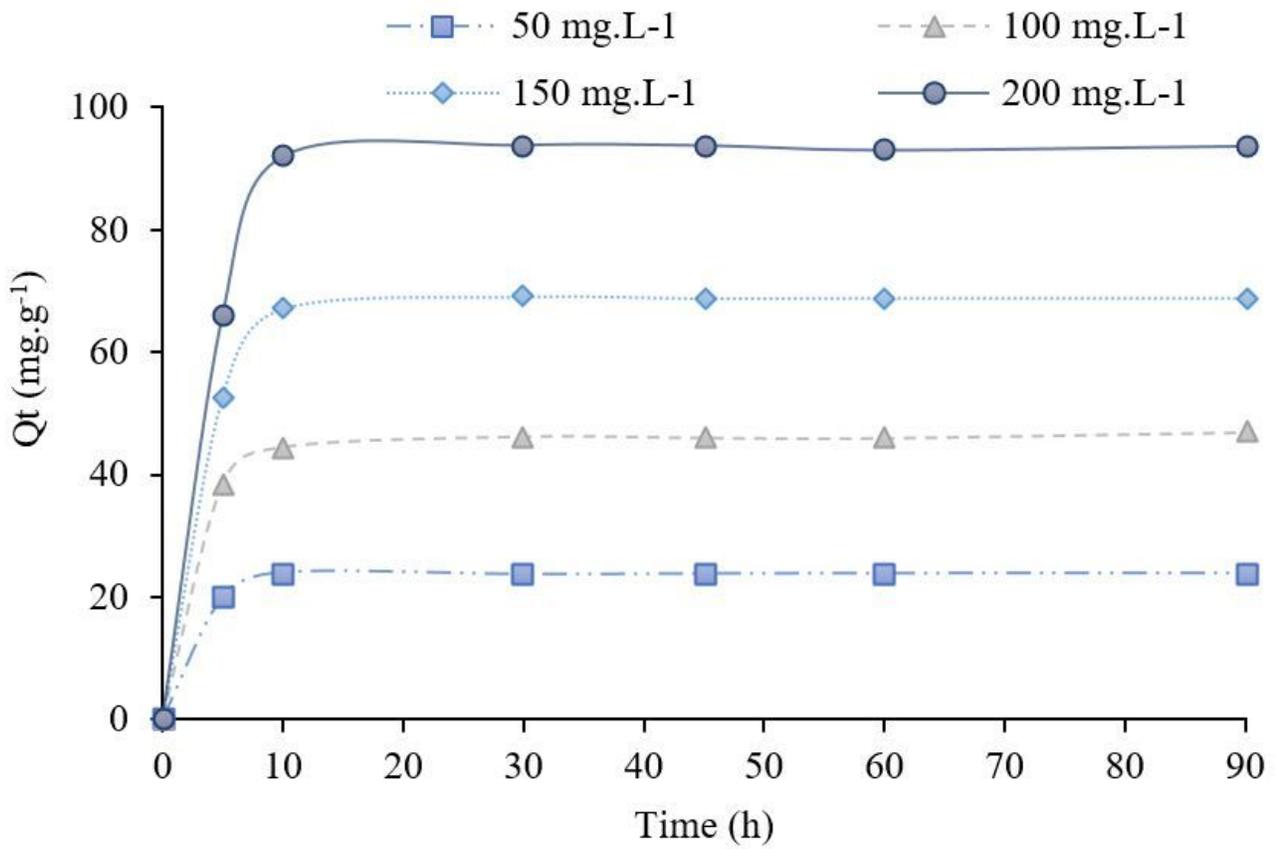


Figure 1

Kinetics of AR14 uptake by *W. anomalus* biomass at various initial dye concentrations.

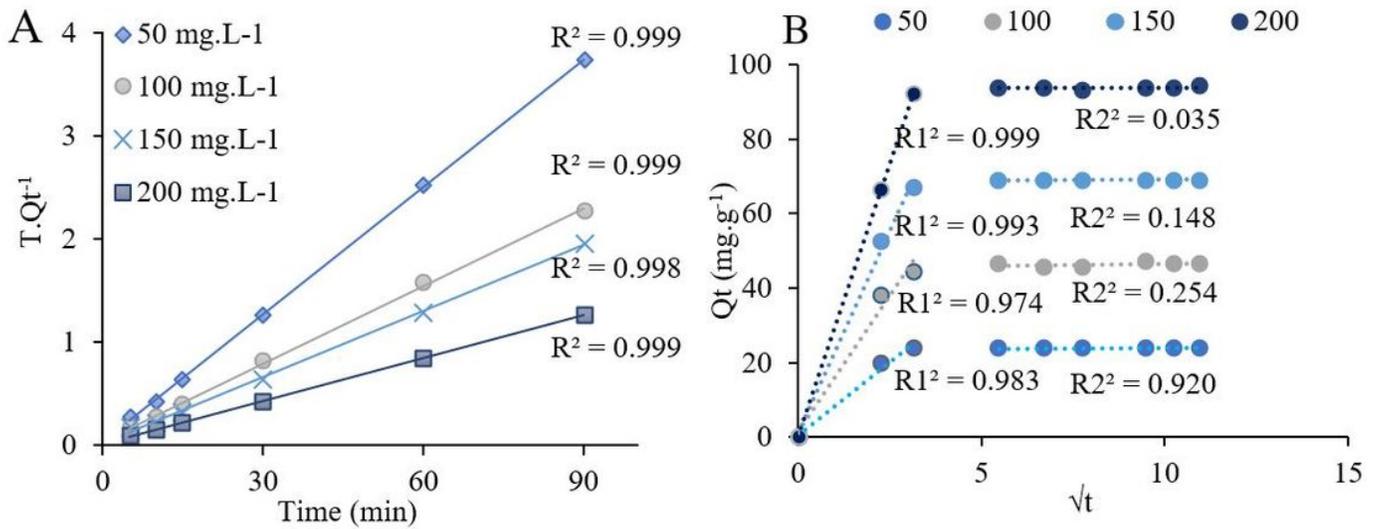


Figure 2

Plot of pseudo-second order model (A), and intra-particle diffusion model (B) of AR14 biosorption onto *W. anomalus* at various initial concentrations.

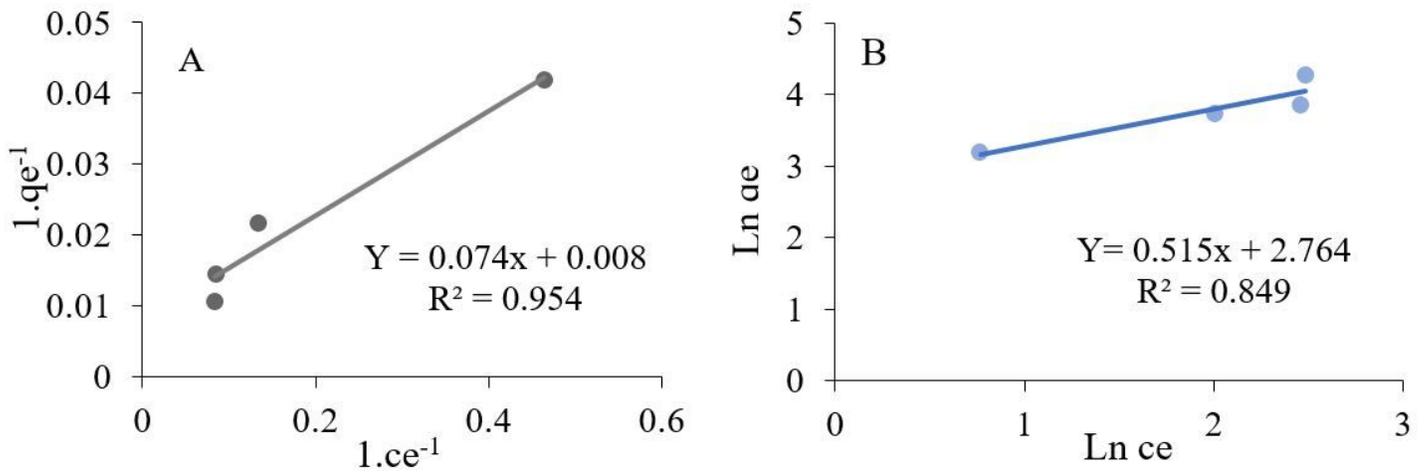


Figure 3

Langmuir (A) and Freundlich (B) isotherm plot and fitted models of AR14 biosorption by *W. anomalus* biomass.

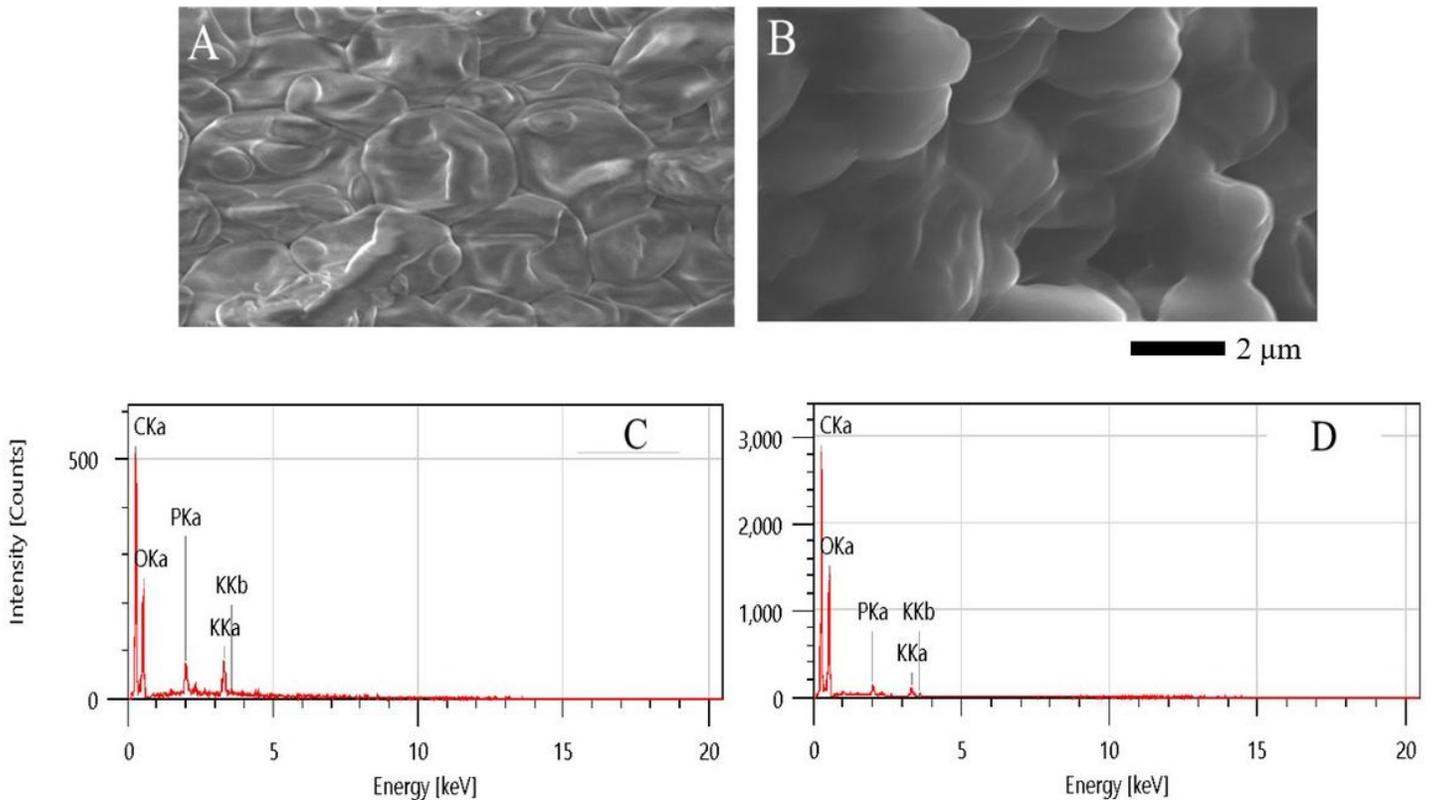


Figure 4

SEM of *W. anomalus* (x8000): (A) control yeast cells; (B) dye loaded, and the selected X-ray spectra of control (C) and dye loaded cells (D).

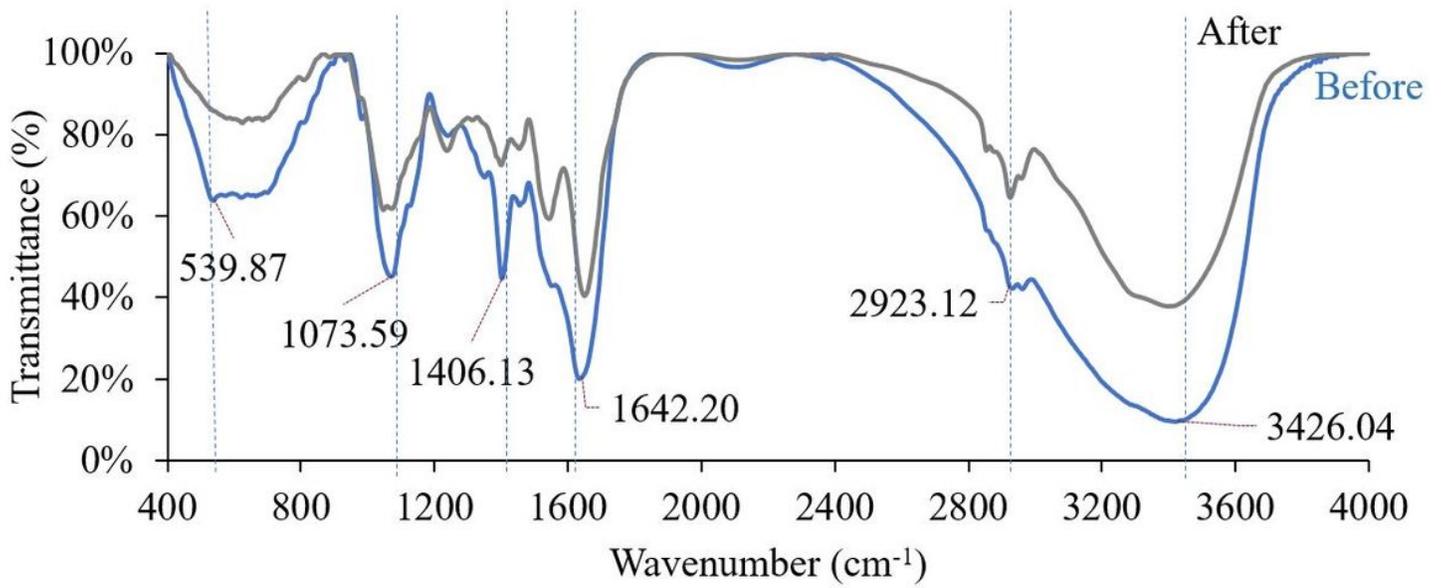


Figure 5

FTIR spectra of *W. anomalus* cells before and after AR14 biosorption.

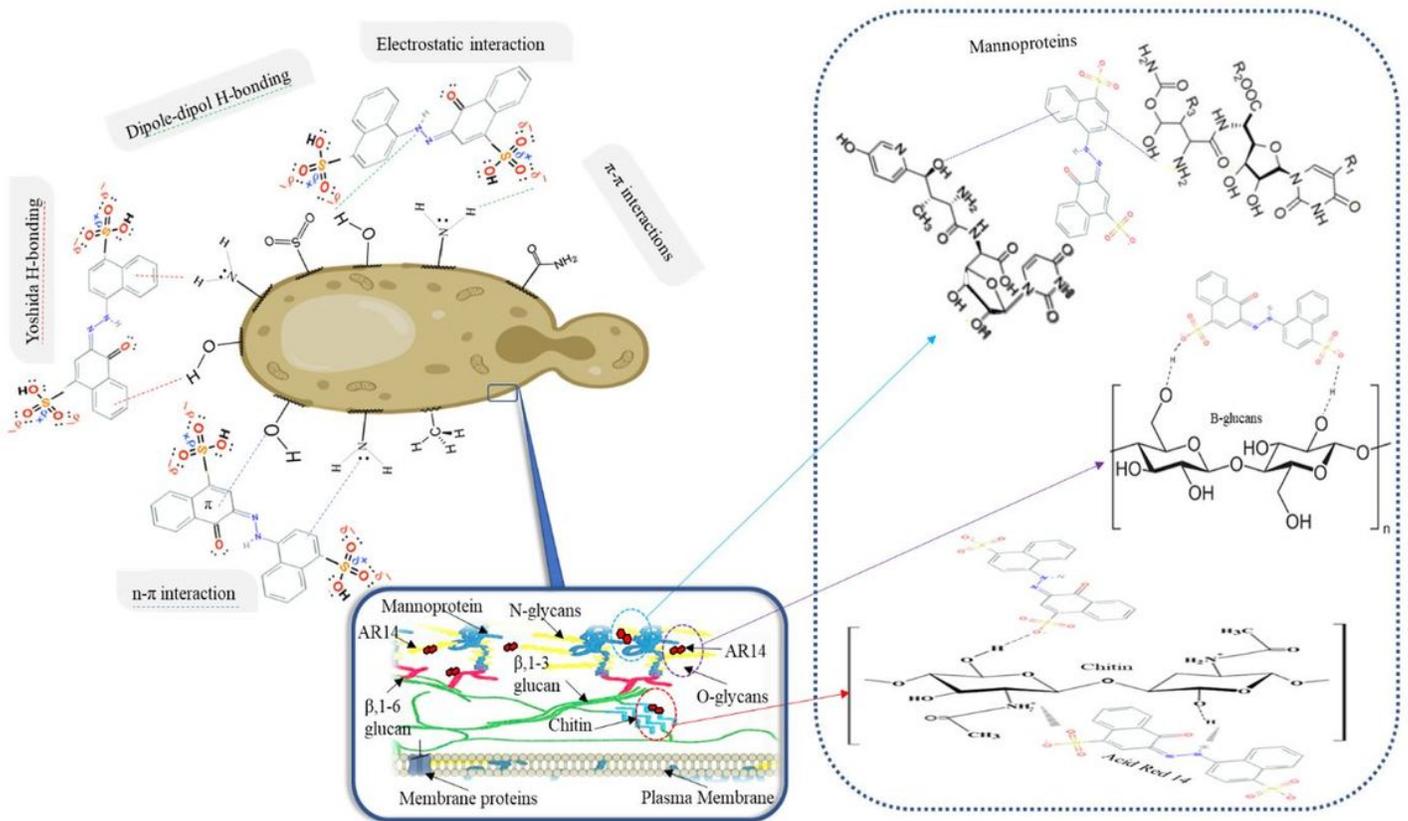


Figure 6

Architecture of yeast cell wall and proposed interaction mechanisms of AR14 biosorption.

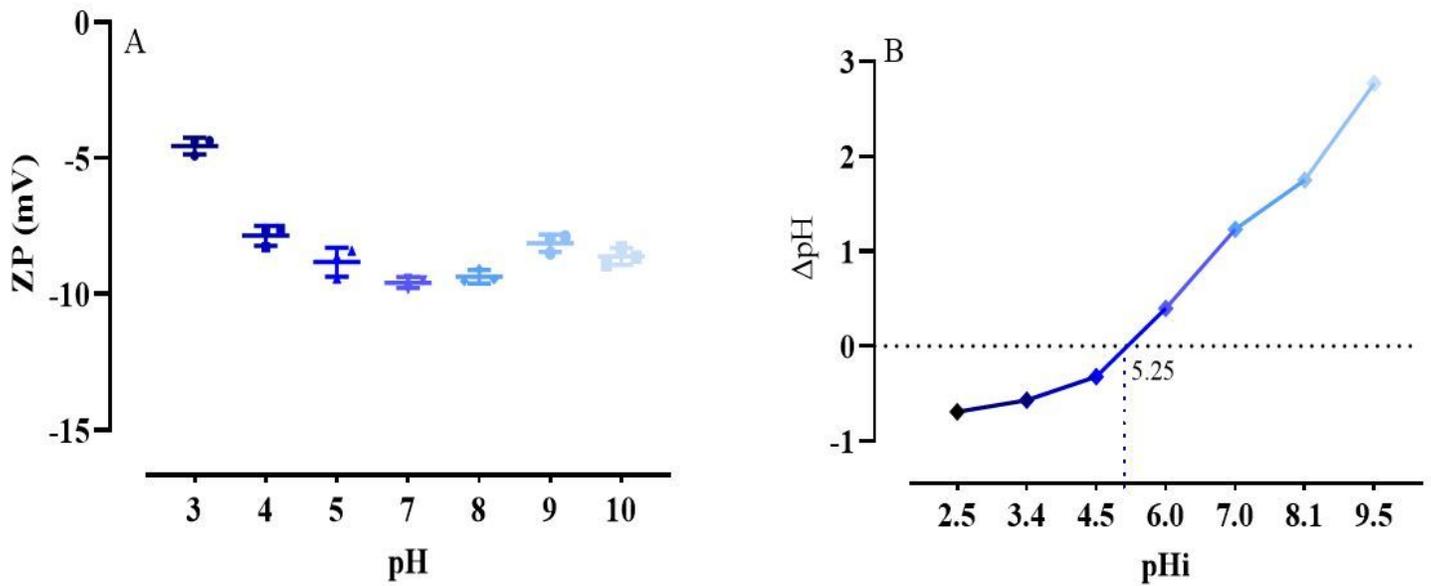


Figure 7

Zeta potential of (A) and pH zero charge (B) of *W. anomalus* yeast cells

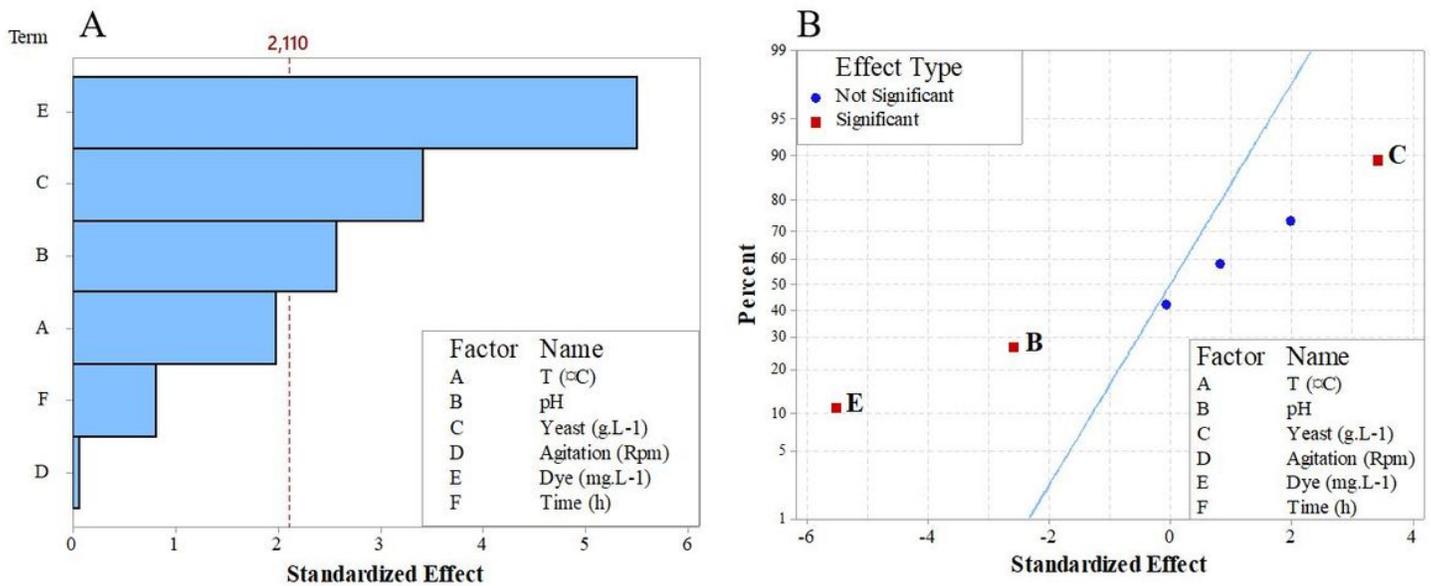


Figure 8

Main effect of variables on the biosorption capacity of AR14 using *W. anomalus*: Pareto chart of standard effect (A), and normal plot of standardized effects (B).

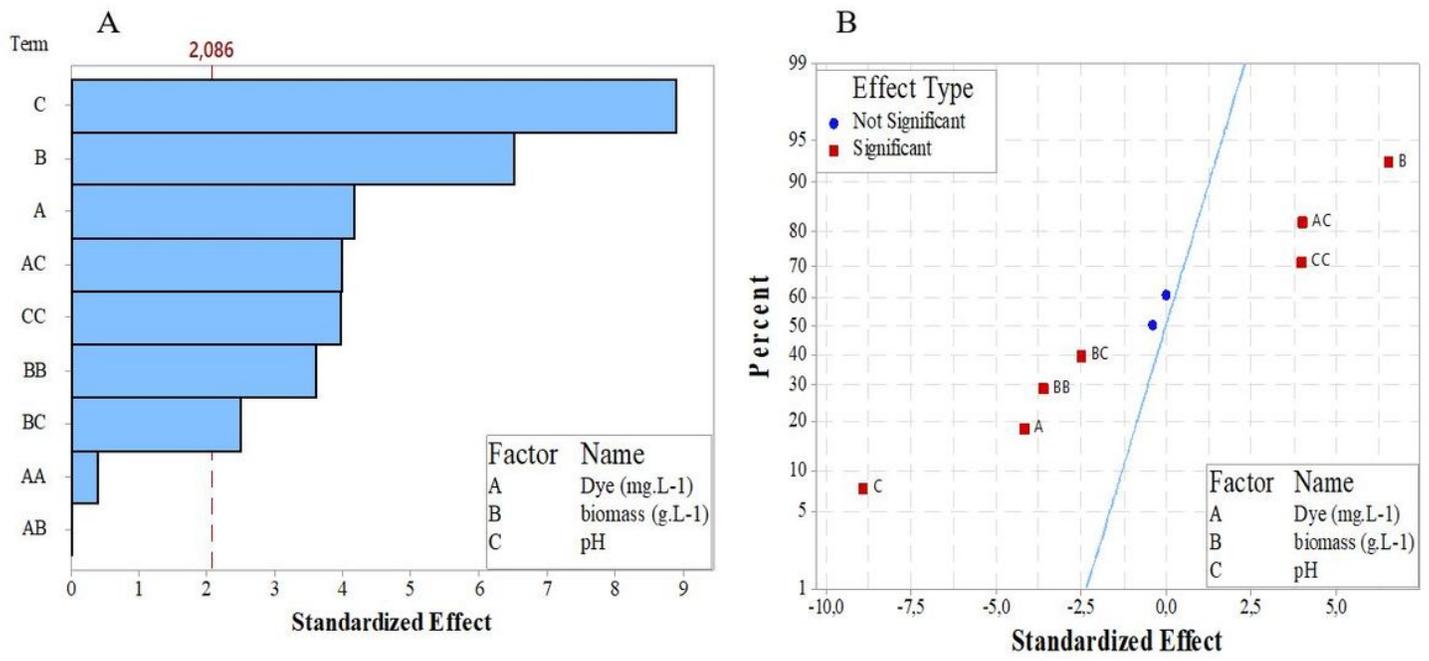


Figure 9

Effect of variables and 2-Way interaction on the biosorption capacity of AR14 using *W. anomalus*: pareto-chart of standardized effects (A), and normal plot of standardized effects (B).

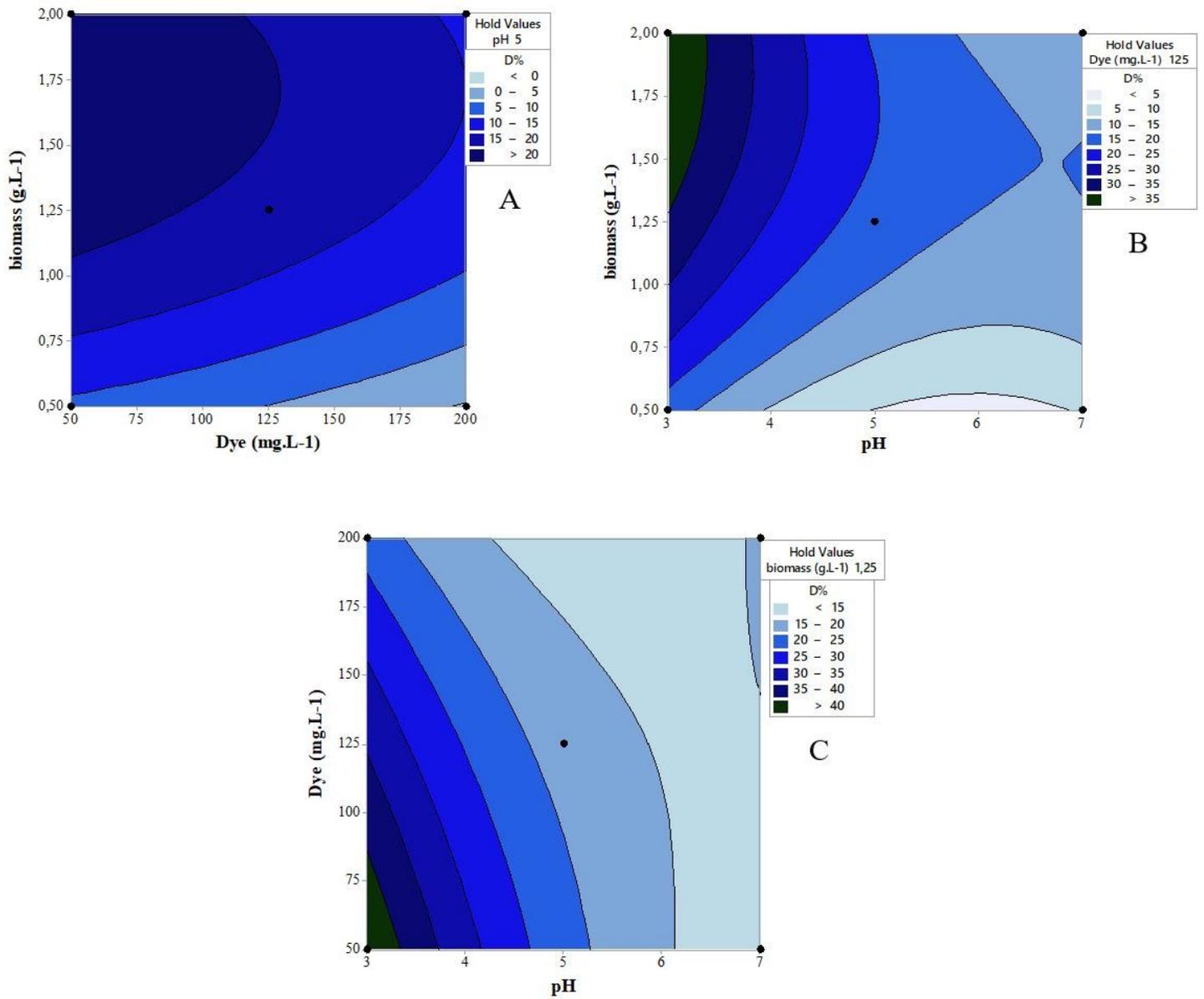


Figure 10

Effect of selected factors (pH, dye concentration and yeast biomass) on the biosorption capacity of AR14 onto *W. anomalus*.

Supplementary Files

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