

UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE SÃO CARLOS
CENTRO DE CIÊNCIAS BIOLÓGICAS E DA SAÚDE
PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM ECOLOGIA E RECURSOS
NATURAIS

**BIODEGRADATION OF THE PYRETHROID PESTICIDE GAMMA-
CYHALOTHRIN BY GRUTA DO CATAO FUNGI**

Fábio Rocha Rigolin

São Carlos - SP

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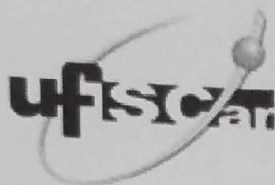
Fábio Rocha Rigolin

Dissertação apresentada ao Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ecologia e Recursos Naturais da Universidade Federal de São Carlos como parte dos requisitos para obtenção do título de Mestre em Ecologia e Recursos Naturais.

Orientadora: Prof^a Dr^a Mirna Helena Regali Seleglim

São Carlos - SP

2019



UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE SÃO CARLOS

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Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ecologia e Recursos Naturais

Folha de Aprovação

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AGRADECIMENTOS

A Deus pela minha vida e bênçãos concedidas;

À prof^a Dr^a Mirna Helena Regali Seleglim por ter me aceito como orientando e pelas colaborações frente ao projeto proposto;

Ao prof. Dr. André Luiz Meleiro Porto por toda receptividade, dedicação e prestação de ajuda sempre que preciso;

À técnica Dr^a Carla Andréa Leite pelas incansáveis e imensuráveis ajudas tanto na parte teórica quanto prática: meu muitíssimo obrigado;

Ao Dr. Willian G. Birolli pelos ensinamentos sobre química orgânica, extração, metodologia, manuseio de equipamentos e normas de laboratório: muito obrigado;

Ao Caio C. P. de Paula pelo isolamento das linhagens de fungos utilizadas nos experimentos e aos colegas do Laboratório de Estudos Subterrâneos da Universidade Federal de São Carlos, sob a supervisão de Dra. Maria Elina Bichuette, por coletar as amostras das quais os fungos foram isolados.

Ao Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico (CNPq) pela bolsa de estudos concedida.

Aos alunos do laboratório de Biocatálise do Instituto de Química de São Carlos (IQSC - USP Campus II): Juliana Galan, Lucas Zanin e Thayane Melo por terem me recebido e auxiliado no laboratório;

À técnica Marília Milanetto por toda ajuda prestada no laboratório do campus II da Usp;

À Dr^a Talita Rocha Rigolin pela ajuda com os programas de estatística;

A todos, meu profundo obrigado.

FORMATAÇÃO:

O presente trabalho segue as exigências do Regimento Interno do Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ecologia e Recursos Naturais (PPGERN) da Universidade Federal de São Carlos – UFSCAR campus São Carlos (<http://www.ppgern.ufscar.br/>). A dissertação foi regida no formato de artigo científico para submissão ao periódico Science of the Total Environment.

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RESUMO

A contaminação de áreas agriculturáveis por pesticidas, seu uso intensivo e toxicidade para muitos organismos não alvo causam sérios problemas ambientais. Portanto, o desenvolvimento de metodologias de biorremediação para ingredientes ativos distintos, tais como piretróides, é primordial. Nesse trabalho, a biodegradação de gama cialotrina (GCH) por fungos da Gruta do Catão foi investigada. Os experimentos foram realizados com três diferentes linhagens fúngicas (*Aspergillus ustus* CBMAI 1894, *Talaromyces brunneus* CBMAI 1895 e *Aspergillus* sp. CBMAI 1926) em meio líquido malte 2% com 300 mg L⁻¹ de GCH em experimentos em triplicata utilizando um método validado. Todas as linhagens biodegradaram esse inseticida e a espécie mais eficiente foi *Aspergillus ustus* com uma taxa de degradação de aproximadamente 50% da concentração inicial de GCH em 21 dias de experimento. Também conduzimos um planejamento experimental testando três variáveis: temperatura (25-35 graus), pH (5,5 - 8,5) e concentração de pesticida (50-550 mg L⁻¹), sendo que a temperatura e a concentração influenciaram no experimento. Concluímos que fungos de caverna biodegradaram GCH e podem ser empregados em estudos futuros para caracterização enzimática e biorremediação de ambientes contaminados.

Palavras-chave: *Aspergillus ustus*; Biorremediação; Cialotrina; Inseticida; Contaminação; *Talaromyces brunneus*.

1 **BIODEGRADATION OF THE PYRETHROID PESTICIDE GAMMA-**
2 **CYHALOTHRIN BY GRUTA DO CATAO FUNGI**

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22 **Abstract**

23 The contamination of agricultural lands by pesticides, their overuse and toxicity
24 to many non-target organisms cause serious environmental problems.
25 Therefore, the development of bioremediation methods for distinct active
26 ingredients, such as pyrethroids, is primordial. In this work, the biodegradation
27 of gamma-cyhalothrin (GCH) by fungi from the cave Gruta do Catão was
28 investigated. Experiments were conducted with different fungi strains
29 (*Aspergillus ustus* CBMAI 1894, *Talaromyces brunneus* CBMAI 1895 and
30 *Aspergillus* sp. CBMAI 1926) in 2% Malt liquid medium with 300 mg L⁻¹ of GCH
31 in triplicate employing a validated method. All strains biodegraded this
32 insecticide and the most efficient was *Aspergillus ustus* with a degradation rate
33 of approximately 50% of the initial GCH concentration in 21 days of experiment.
34 We also conducted an experimental design testing three variables: temperature
35 (25-35 degrees), pH (5,5– 8,5) and pesticide concentration (50-550 mg L⁻¹)
36 being the temperature and pesticide concentration were those that most
37 influenced the biodegradation. So, we concluded that cave fungi biodegraded
38 GCH and can be employed in future studies for enzymatic characterization and
39 bioremediation of contaminated environments.

40

41 **Keywords:** *Aspergillus ustus*; Bioremediation; Cyhalothrin; Insecticide;
42 Contamination; *Talaromyces brunneus*.

43

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49

50 **1. Introduction**

51 With population growth, one of the great challenges of society is
52 undoubtedly to generate food that can meet the human demand without
53 environment degradation by the use of chemical substances such as pesticides.
54 Despite the importance of this issue, the use of chemical substances is
55 considered fundamental for the increasing productivity of established
56 agricultural areas, especially considering the huge losses when they do not use
57 pesticides during the food production process (MESNAGE & SÉRALINI, 2018).

58 In 2008, Brazil used about 730 million tons of agrochemicals, which
59 made this country the world's largest consumer of pesticides, position that
60 maintain until today (ALBUQUERQUE et al., 2016; BRASIL, 2015; FAO, 2014;
61 SOUZA et al, 2019). Pesticides can be classified according to target organisms
62 (nematicides, insecticides, herbicides, fungicides, rodenticides, acaricides,
63 molluscicides, algicides, etc) and the chemical group to which they belong
64 (organochlorines, chloro-phosphors, pyrethroids, organophosphates,
65 carbamates, triazines) (CONWAY, 2003). Despite the benefits, literature data
66 showed that less than 0.1% of the applied pesticides actually reach their target
67 organisms. In this way, 99.9% of these substances have the potential to
68 translocate to undesirable regions, reaching different dimensions of the
69 environment (SABIK et al., 2000), affecting human, fauna and flora health
70 (RIBEIRO et al., 2008).

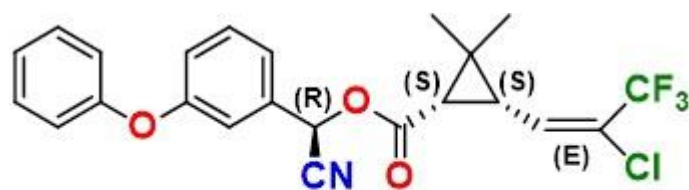
71 Throughout the history, the use in agriculture of some pesticides has
72 been banned because of their high toxicity and their persistence in the
73 environment after application. In this context, since 1985, organochlorines, the
74 pioneers among the synthetic pesticides, had their agricultural use banned in
75 Brazil. Currently the use of organochlorines is restricted to public health
76 campaigns (SANTOS et al., 2008). For this reason, there is a demand for
77 chemical substances that could replace them (MANNA et al., 2004) and
78 pyrethroids became the most widely used class of insecticide (SANTOS et al.,
79 2008).

80 Pyrethroids are derived from the natural pesticides pyrethrins produced
81 by the trituration of flowers of some plants belonging to the genus
82 *Chrysanthemum* as it is the case of *Chrysanthemum cinerariaefolium* (PIMPÃO
83 et al., 2007) and *Chrysanthemum cocineum* (TRAMUJAS et al., 2006).
84 Pyrethroid pesticides have low toxicity levels for mammals, reduced
85 environmental impacts, and smaller dosages are required to fulfill their role in
86 their target organisms. However, the use of some pyrethroids has increased risk
87 of contamination to birds (QUEIROZ et al., 2001), fish (SINGH & SINGH, 2008),
88 bees, lobsters and shrimps (GRISOLIA, 2005).

89 Cyhalothrin is a pyrethroid insecticide formed by four stereoisomers of
90 which gamma-cyhalothrin (1*R*,3*R*, α *S*-GCH) is the most active enantiomer. In
91 addition, GCH is one of the enantiomers present in the lambda-cyhalothrin,
92 pesticide composed of a racemic enantiomeric mixture. (GIDDINGS et al.,
93 2009) (Figure 1).

94

95 **Fig. 1.** Structural formula of the pesticide gamma cyhalothrin.



(1R,3R,αS) – Gamma-Cyhalothrin

96

97 Looking for more sustainable methodologies, extreme and unexplored
 98 environments such as deep oceans, caves and deserts are the target of studies
 99 to look for bioactive compounds and microorganisms (CHÁVEZ, 2015; JONES
 100 et al., 2015). Underground environments such as caves can be considered
 101 extreme environments (ENGEL, 2007) that stimulate unique survival strategies
 102 in organisms and can provide far-reaching improvements in secondary
 103 metabolism (ADAM et al., 2018) due to their great adaptive plasticity (SOARES
 104 et al, 2011). Thus, Moreover, according to Ghosh et al. (2017), antimicrobial
 105 and enzymatic activities of cave microorganisms are different from
 106 microorganisms elsewhere, constituting an opportunity for novel discoveries.

107 Efficient biodegraders of polymers from plant origin such as lignin and
 108 cellulose, the fungi also are able to degrade waxes, rubbers, phenol, benzene,
 109 toluene, xylene and xenobiotics in forest environments (BENEVIDES &
 110 MARINHO, 2015). Usually when bacterial strains are not successful in
 111 biodegradation, fungi are triggered for this role (PARTE, 2017). Barton & Jurado
 112 (2007) reported that little is known about the populations, distribution and
 113 biochemical processes of microorganisms that inhabit cave environments. This
 114 is not different, for the Brazilian scenario since studies related to the microbiota
 115 of caves are still incipient (VANDERWOLF et al., 2013).

116 In this context, few studies have shown the importance of biodegradation
 117 performed by fungi found in caves such as De Paula et al. (2016) that showed

118 the ability of these organisms for cellulolytic degradation. So, the aim of this
119 study was to evaluate fungi strains from the Gruta do Catão cave (São
120 Desidério, Bahia State, Brazil) for biodegradation of GCH focusing on the
121 identification of new catalysts for biotransformation of organic compounds and
122 biodegradation reactions for future bioremediation processes.

123 **2. Materials and methods**

124 **2.1 Pesticides, reagents, solvents, and culture media**

125 (±)-LCH (analytical standard, 97%) was obtained from Sigma-Aldrich and
126 employed for obtention of analytical curves. The insecticide NEXIDE (15% w/v
127 of GCH) was donated from FMC QUÍMICA (Brazil). Reagents and solvents
128 were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich and Synth (São Paulo, Brazil). Malt extract
129 and agar were obtained from Acumedia (São Paulo, Brazil). Formic acid,
130 methanol and acetonitrile (HPLC grade) were obtained from PANREAC and
131 TEDIA.

132 **2.2. Cave fungi**

133 Strains of cellulolytic fungi were isolated during the work of De Paula
134 (2016). We tested three strains (*Aspergillus ustus* CBMAI 1894, *Talaromyces*
135 *brunneus* CBMAI 1895 and *Aspergillus* sp. CBMAI 1926), which were deposited
136 at the *Brazilian Collection of Environmental and Industrial*
137 *Microorganisms* (CBMAI, WDCM823).

138 **2.3. Culture media**

139 The cave fungi were reactivated and cultivated in three different culture
140 media (Malt 2%, Sabouraud agar and Potato dextrose agar) in Petri dishes. The
141 culture medium with the best fungal growth (2% malt) was used for further
142 experiments. The composition of this culture medium was malt extract (20 g L⁻¹)

143 and Agar (20 g L⁻¹). After preparation, all culture media were sterilized in an
144 autoclave (AV-50, Phoenix) at 121 °C for 20 minutes and then the
145 microorganisms handled in an aseptic chamber previously disinfected with 70%
146 ethanol aqueous solution and UV light.

147 **2.4 Selection of resistant fungal strains to gamma cyhalothrin**

148 For each fungal strain, Petri dishes were prepared in triplicate containing
149 2% malt solid culture medium without gamma-cyhalothrin (controls) and with the
150 pesticide in 300 mg L⁻¹ concentration. The culture media autoclaved at 121°C
151 for 20 minutes, cooled to about 40-50°C, and then the stock solution of the
152 insecticide added. The mixture was homogenized and then poured into the
153 respective Petri dishes. Inoculations of the fungal strains on the plates were
154 done by transferring the mycelia from the pure cultures reactivated in 2% Malt
155 medium after 7 days of growth, with the aid of a platinum needle by an insertion
156 point in the centre of the plate. The plates were cultivated in an incubator at 25
157 °C (B.O.D. 411D, Nova Ética, Brazil) and the radial growths of the fungi were
158 observed for 21 days, determining the colony diameter on the surface of the
159 plates, at intervals of 7 days of cultivation.

160 **2.5 Assay in liquid culture medium containing gamma-cyhalothrin**

161 To prepare the spore solution, each strain was cultured in malt 2% solid
162 culture medium for 7 days at 25°C. The spores were collected from solid culture
163 medium by using 0.1% (v/v) Tween-80 solution that was then filtered through a
164 glass wool to remove mycelia and recover only the spores. All spores were
165 counted employing a Neubauer chamber to adjust the concentration to 1×10^7
166 spores/mL.

167 Erlenmeyers of 125 mL capacity containing 50 mL of liquid malt 2%
168 culture medium were used. The pH of the medium was adjusted to 5.6 and then
169 autoclave sterilized at 121 °C for 20 minutes. After cooling, an average of 10^7
170 spores per mL of the selected fungi strain was added to the media and
171 incubated in orbital shaker (25 °C, 130 rpm) for 3 days.

172 After 3 days, 300 mg L⁻¹ of a GCH solution (commercial emulsifiable
173 formulation –NEXIDE- diluted 20 times with distilled water) was added to the
174 culture medium after sterilization in autoclave. The reactions were conducted
175 under orbital stirring, maintaining the above conditions (25 °C, 130 rpm) for 14
176 days, in triplicate experiments. In addition, another experiment was done to test
177 the addition of the pesticide at the same time of the inoculation, evaluating the
178 use of primary or secondary fungal metabolism.

179 The biodegradation experiments were performed with 300 mg L⁻¹ of GCH
180 at 25 °C and 130 rpm for 14 days in the absence of light, employing 50 mL of
181 2% malt liquid medium.

182 **2.6 Control trials (fungal and abiotic) and growth curve**

183 Simultaneously, control experiments were carried out to verify the
184 production of natural metabolites of the fungus, which were cultivated under the
185 same conditions; however, in the absence of the pesticide. To verify the stability
186 of the pesticide (GCH) and the abiotic degradation during the incubation, abiotic
187 controls were performed containing only the culture medium and the pesticide.
188 After 14 days of reaction, the control media were extracted and the samples
189 analysed by high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC). Besides, in order
190 to study the growth of the most efficient species, a growth experiment was
191 carried out in which the fungus was cultivated for 14 days and its dry mass

192 measured daily after drying at 50°C for 24h. In addition, a growth curve was
193 obtained for the species and all tests employed in triplicate.

194 **2.7 Extraction of the pesticide gamma-cyhalothrin and their** 195 **metabolites**

196 The extraction and quantification of GCH was performed according to the
197 literature (BIROLLI et al., 2016). The fungal cells were filtered with a Buchner
198 apparatus and stirred vigorously in 100 mL of water and ethyl acetate (1:1) for
199 30 minutes for partitioning. Thereafter, the cells were subjected to a second
200 filtration in a Buchner apparatus and the mycelial extract was added to the
201 enzymatic broth. Then, the pH was adjusted to 5.0 and the final extract was
202 obtained by three-step liquid-liquid extraction with 30 mL of ethyl acetate (P.A.)
203 each. The aqueous phase was discarded and to the organic phase it was added
204 anhydrous sodium sulfate, than filtered and transferred to a 250 mL round
205 bottom flask for evaporation under reduced pressure. The sample was then
206 dissolved in methanol in a 5mL volumetric flask (BIROLLI et al., 2016).

207 **2.8 Quantification of gamma-cyhalothrin by HPLC-UV**

208 Standard methanol solutions of increasing concentrations of GCH were
209 prepared for the quantification of gamma-cyhalothrin, generating a linear
210 equation.

211 GCH and metabolites were quantitatively determined by a validated
212 method with a Shimadzu 2010 high pressure liquid chromatographic system
213 (LC-20AT pump, DGU-20A5 degasser, SIL-20AHT sampler, SPD-M20A UV-
214 VIS detector operating in 277 nm, CTO-20A column oven and CBM-20A
215 controller) with a 25 cm x 4.6 mm Phenomenex C18 column with 5 µm of
216 particle size. The analyses were carried out with 0.5% formic acid in water Milli-

217 Q (solvent A) and 0.5% formic acid in acetonitrile (solvent B) at 1.0 mL min⁻¹
218 and 40 °C. From 0 to 17 min 60% of B isocratic, from 17 to 18 min 50-90%
219 linear gradient, from 18 to 30 min 90% of B isocratic. The injection volume was
220 10 µL and the detection was performed at 277 nm (BIROLI et al., 2016).

221 Analytical curves were obtained using the external standard method for
222 the compound analysed. Note that the samples were re-suspended in 5 mL of
223 methanol after the liquid-liquid extraction, being concentrated 10 times
224 (BIROLI et al., 2016).

225 **2.9 Method validation**

226 The recovery and standard deviation of the method were determined
227 with five cultures of *Aspergillus ustus* CBMAI 1894 sterilized in autoclave after 7
228 days of cultivation at 25°C and 130 rpm. The commercial formulation of GCH
229 was employed in these experiments for an increased similarity with the samples
230 of the study.

231 **2.9 Metabolites identification**

232 The metabolites identification was performed by gas chromatography
233 coupled to mass spectrometry (GC-MS) in a Shimadzu GC2010plus coupled to
234 a mass selective detector (Shimadzu MS2010plus) in electron ionization (EI, 70
235 eV) mode. The GC-MS (employing a 30 m × 0.25 mm × 0.25 µm J&W Scientific
236 DB5 column) conditions were: 90°C for 4 min, increased to 280°C at 6 °C min⁻¹,
237 held for 6 min; injector and interface temperature was maintained at 250°C;
238 splitless 1-µL injection; helium was used as the carrier gas at a constant flow
239 0.75 mL min⁻¹. The run time was 40 min and the scan mode used was *m/z* 40–
240 500 (BIROLI et al., 2016).

241 **3. Results and discussion**

242 3.1 Testing the best culture media

243 First, we conducted a primary experiment for checking which culture
244 medium would have better fungal biodegrading performance of the insecticide.
245 The results of this test are shown in Table. 1.

246

247 **Table 1.** Percentage of fungal growth in three different culture media grown at
248 25°C in the absence of light containing 300 mg L⁻¹ of gamma-cyhalothrin
249 insecticide.

Species/culture medium	<i>Aspergillus ustus</i> CBMAI 1894 (%)	<i>Talaromyces brunneus</i> CBMAI 1895 (%)	<i>Aspergillus</i> sp. CBMAI 1926 (%)
Sabouraud Agar	29%	76%	76%
Potato Dextrose Agar	38%	66%	83%
2% Malt Agar	34%	64%	87%

250 Note: the efficiency calculation was conducted by the average of the values
251 (radius in centimeters) of the cultures in the presence of pesticide divided by
252 the average values in the absence of the same.

253

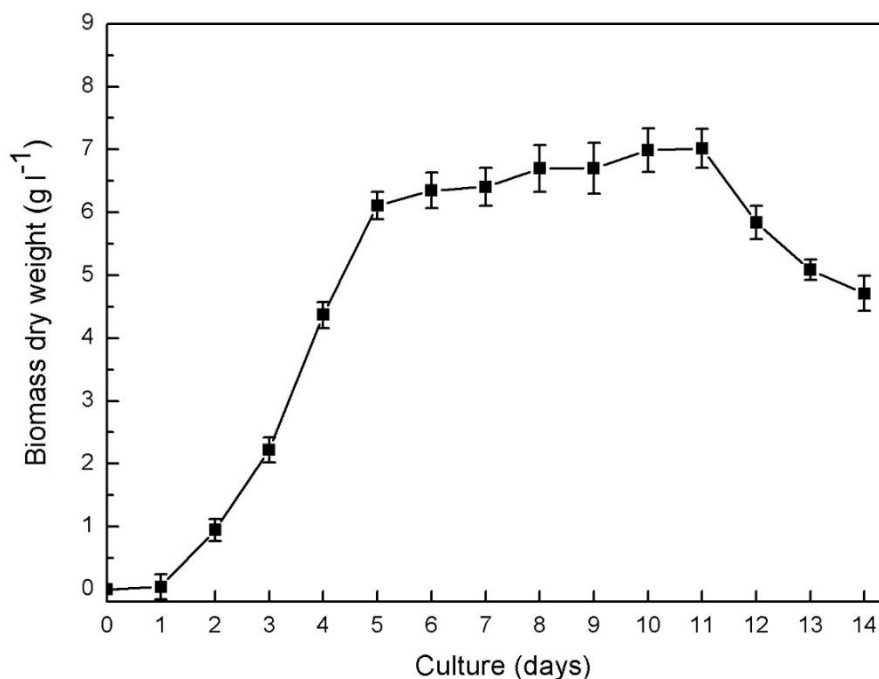
254 The fungi strains were able to grow in all the evaluated media. Since the
255 2% malt medium presented satisfactory values for all strains, and had been
256 isolated in previous work with it, the following experiments were conducted with
257 the same medium.

258 3.2. Growth curve

259 Analysing the growth curve of *Aspergillus ustus* CBMAI 1894 (Figure 2) it
260 was noted that the lag phase lasts until day one, followed by the exponential
261 phase (days 1-5), stationary phase (5-11 days) and logarithmic decline phase or
262 death (day 11 onwards). The curve showed that in the experiments, adding the
263 insecticide concomitantly to the fungal spores we were doing it at the lag phase
264 while in the three-day addition of the pesticide, the culture is already in the log
265 phase. According to Cycon and Piotrowska-Seget (2016), when the pesticide

266 concentration is higher, the degradation rates are usually lower with or without
267 lag phase.

268



269

270 **Figure 2.** Growth curve of *Aspergillus ustus* during 14 days of cultivation
271 (weight of the dry mass after drying at 50°C for 24h).

272

273 3.3. Quantification of gamma-cyhalothrin by HPLC-UV

274 The experiments were compared with the abiotic control and the
275 degradation was investigated by the recovery method. This method ensure that
276 the compound was not absorbed or adsorbed by the fungal cells or degraded
277 abiotically. Then, it was assessed the amount of pesticide that cave fungi
278 were able to biodegrade, showing absolute and relative values of GCH (Table
279 2).

280

281

282 **Table. 2.** Absolute and relative values of the gamma-cyhalothrin insecticide
 283 degradation by species isolated from cave fungi.

Sample	Degradation	
	(absolute values, mg.L ⁻¹)	Degradation (relative values, %)
Recovery	319.1±4.2	-6.4±4.2
Abiotic control	291.9±10.3	2.7±10.3
<i>Aspergillus ustus</i> CBMAI 1894 (Inoculation and GCH addition at day 0)	156.9±12.4	47.7±4.1
<i>Aspergillus ustus</i> CBMAI 1894 (Inoculation at day 0 and GCH addition at day 3)	211.4±9.0	29.5±3.0
<i>Talaromyces brunneus</i> CBMAI 1895 (Inoculation and GCH addition at day 0)	236.0±5.3	21.3±1.8
<i>Talaromyces brunneus</i> CBMAI 1895 (Inoculation at day 0 and GCH addition at day 3)	241.8±16.9	19.4±5.6
<i>Aspergillus</i> sp. CBMAI 1926 (Inoculation and GCH addition at day 0)	169.3±21.9	43.6±7.3
<i>Aspergillus</i> sp. CBMAI 1926 (Inoculation at day 0 and GCH addition at day 3)	187.6±24.5	37.5±21.5

284

285 The abiotic control and recovery tests are parameters to ensured that
 286 without the presence of microorganisms the amounts of the compound
 287 disappearing from the sample were very low, 2.7±10.3 and 6.4±4.2,
 288 respectively.

289 It is already known that microorganisms participate in various activities,
 290 including soil aggregation, formation of symbiotic relationships, decomposition
 291 of residues, control of pests and diseases, and mineralization of nutrients
 292 (MOREIRA and SIQUEIRA, 2006). However, little is known about cave
 293 microorganisms and its biotechnological contributions, such as bioremediators.

294 Microbial metabolism has been studied for many years and it executes
295 important roles in detoxification or degradation of pyrethroids residues, as it can
296 be seen, for example in bacteria (Akbar et al., 2015a; Chen et al., 2012a, 2014;
297 Lee et al., 2016) and fungi (Chen et al., 2011a, 2012d; Saikia and Gopal, 2004).
298 The study of novel species, as in this work, helps to understand how
299 microorganisms that inhabit extreme environments (SOARES, 2011), as caves,
300 may develop ways of optimize its energy obtaining.

301 **3.4. Experimental planning**

302 The strain that the experiments indicated that best biodegraded the GCH
303 insecticide (*Aspergillus ustus CBMAI 1894*) was tested using an experimental
304 design, carried out with three different variables at three levels during 21 days,
305 as shown in Table 3. The results were also summarized by an ANOVA table
306 (Table 4), the Pareto chart (Figure 3) and the Fitted surface figure (Figure 4),
307 respectively.

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319 **Table 3.** Box-Behnken experimental design and the response of
 320 dependent variable for GCH degradation using the *Aspergillus ustus* CBMAI
 321 1894 strain as bioremediator.

Runs	X1	X2	X3	Response	Concentration of degradation (%)
1	-1	-1	0	19.7	60.6
2	-1	1	0	480.8	12.6
3	1	-1	0	5.45	89.1
4	1	1	0	351.2	36.1
5	-1	0	-1	17.3	65.4
6	-1	0	1	471.4	14.3
7	1	0	-1	2.1	95.6
8	1	0	1	426.1	22.5
9	0	-1	-1	300.3	0.0
10	0	-1	1	123.6	58.8
11	0	1	-1	295.4	1.5
12	0	1	1	200.3	33.2

322 Note: X1: temperature, -1 (15°C), 0 (25°C), +1 (35°C); X2: medium pH, -1 (5.5),
 323 0 (7.0), +1 (8.5); X3: initial concentration, -1 (50 mg.L⁻¹), 0 (300 mg L⁻¹), +1 (550
 324 mg L⁻¹). The table is composed of two replicates at central point.
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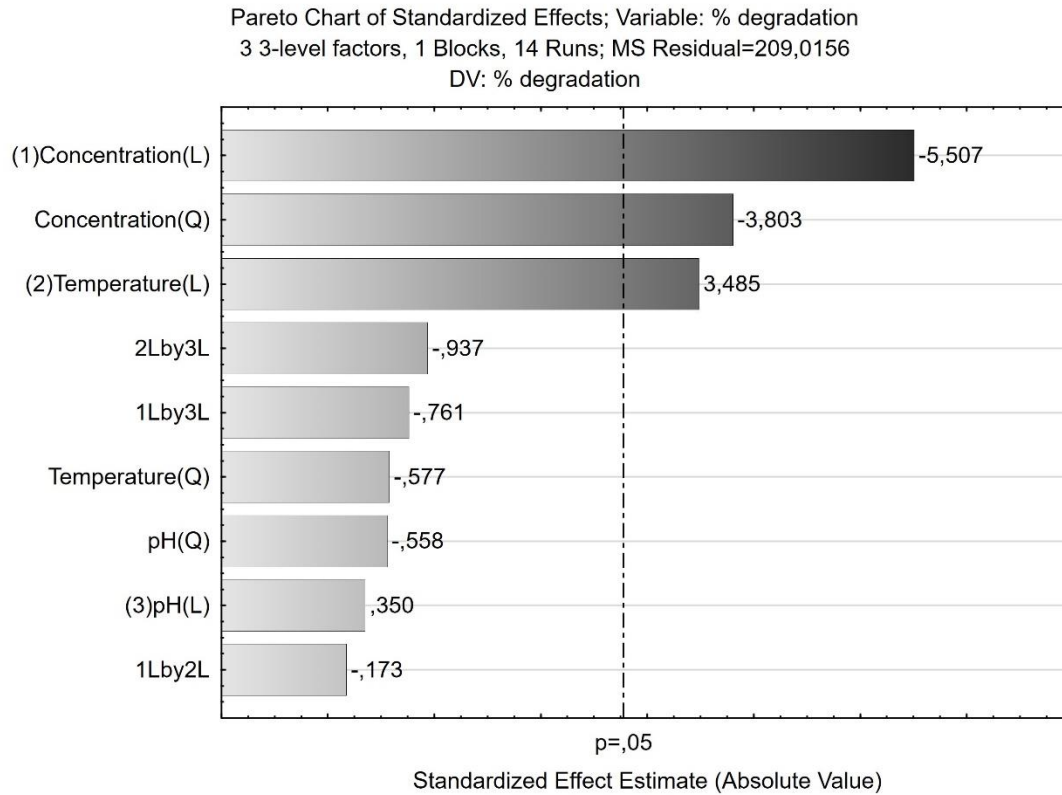
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Table 4. ANOVA analysis of experimental design.

Variation source	Quadratic sum	Degrees of freedom	Quadratic mean	F calculated	p (95%)
(1) Concentration (L)	6339,38	1	6339.3	38.69132	0.00043
			80		7
Concentration (Q)	3023,34	1	3023.3	18.45244	0.00358
			40		6
(2) Temperature (L)	2538,28	1	2538.2	15.49197	0.00563
			81		2
Temperature (Q)	69,56	1	69.564	0.42458	0.53546
					2
(3) pH (L)	25,56	1	25.561	0.15601	0.70461
					7
pH (Q)	65,16	1	65.161	0.39770	0.54830
					9
Error	1146,91	7	163.84		
			5		
Total SS	13087,4	13			
	3				

336

R-sqr =0.91237; Adj: 0.83725



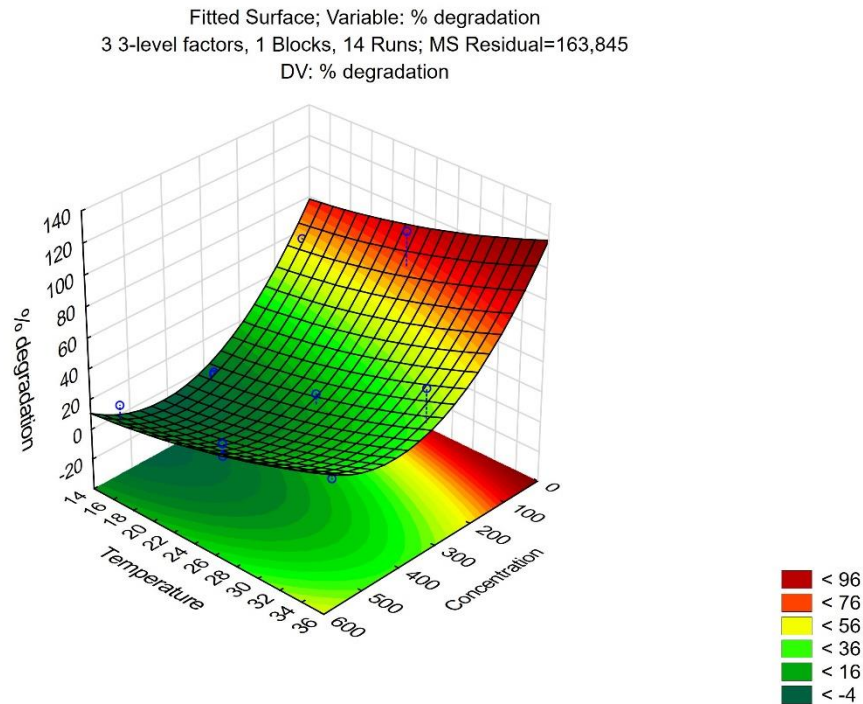
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338 **Figure 3.** Pareto chart of model planning showing the responses of the
 339 variables concentration, temperature and pH.

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343

344 **Figure 4.** Response surface plot showing the effects of temperature and
345 initial concentration on GCH for medium pH 7.0.

346

347 Note: $y = b_1 \cdot T^{\circ}\text{C} + b_3 \cdot [I] + b_{33} \cdot [I]^2$

348 $Y = b_0 + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3X_3 + b_{11}X_1^2 + b_{22}X_2^2 + b_{33}X_3^2 + b_{12} \cdot X_1X_2 + b_{13} \cdot X_1X_3 +$
349 $b_{23} \cdot X_2X_3$

350

351 Factors such as initial pesticide concentration, pH, nutrients, organic
352 matter content, carbon sources, temperature, microbial metabolism, and
353 moisture substantially influence pyrethroid biodegradation in both liquid medium
354 and soil (Saikia and Gopal, 2004; Zhang et al., 2010; Zhao et al., 2013; Cyco'n
355 et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2015; Song et al., 2015; Akbar et al., 2015). The pH did
356 not influenced the experimental model in any way in our work. In the literature it
357 is claimed that alkaline or neutral pH conditions increased the degradation of
358 pyrethroid insecticide. However, in acid conditions the degradation was reduced
359 probably because the acid pH increases the resistance of pyrethroids against
360 microorganisms and stability (Singh et al., 2006; Anwar et al., 2009; Cyco'n et
361 al., 2009; Zhao et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2015).

362 In our work temperature showed a positive correlation with the increasing
363 rates of GCH degradation. Although it is known that, at certain limits,
364 temperature influence positively microbial metabolism, it is stated that
365 conditions tending to high or low temperature are not ideal for pyrethroid
366 biodegradation (Chen et al., 2011b; Zhang et al., 2016).

367 At the theoretical maximum point, the values of X1 and X3 in terms of
368 code units were 28-30°C and [100 mg.L⁻¹], respectively.

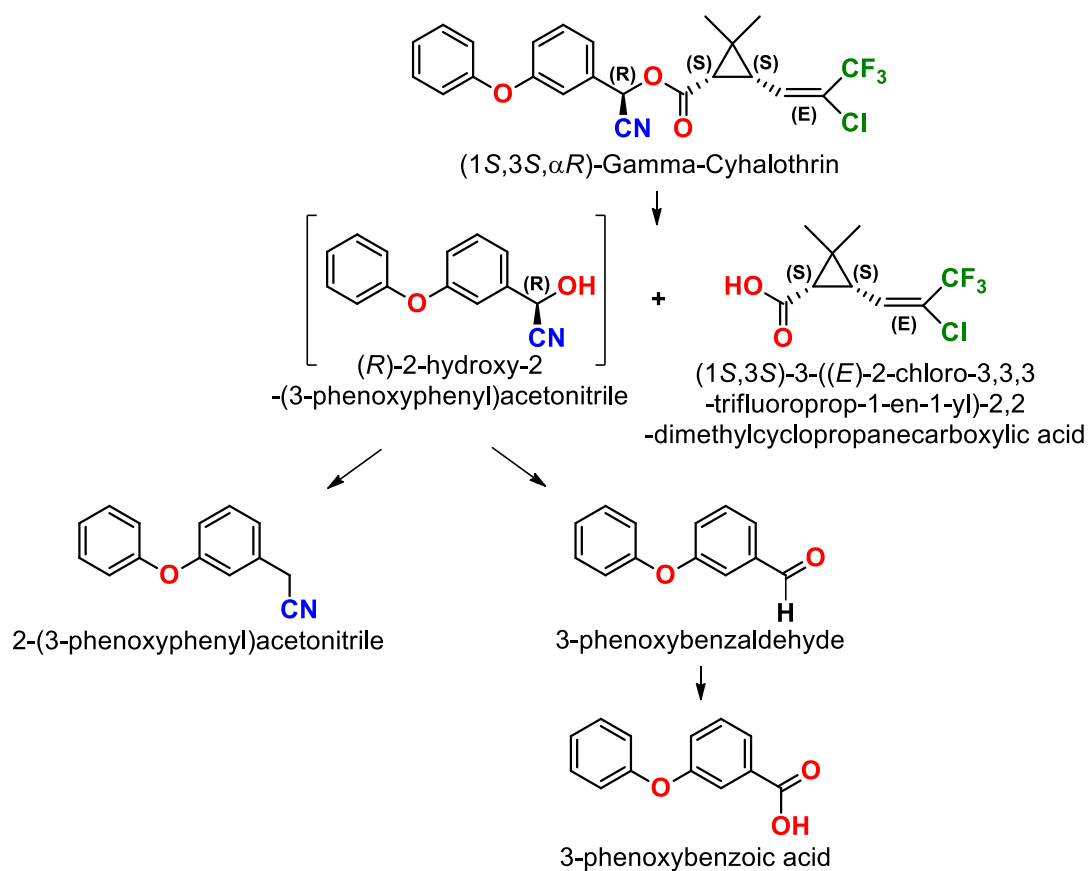
369 Differently from the other variables, GCH concentration showed negative
370 correlation with biodegradation rates for both analyses (linear and quadratic).
371 This response goes according to Cycon and Piotrowska-Seget (2016) which
372 stated that higher concentrations lower degradation rates regardless of having a
373 lag phase. Other authors ponder that higher concentrations would act as
374 inhibitors for microorganisms in two ways: slower growth and adaptation to the
375 environment; and increased lag phase as recruitment of more microorganisms
376 to begin biodegradation (Chen et al., 2012a, 2015; Zhao et al., 2013; Cyco'n et
377 al., 2014).

378 **3.5. Metabolites identification**

379 Products of the gamma-cyhalothrin metabolism by the cave fungi were
380 identified. The metabolite 2-(3-phenoxyphenyl)acetonitrile was identified for all
381 the evaluated strains in the biodegradation experiments with a retention time of
382 27.12 min and a 90% of similarity with the spectra library NIST08. This
383 substance was absent in the abiotic control and killed-cells control experiments,
384 showing that this compound resulted from the biodegradation process.

385 The 3-phenoxybenzaldehyde was also identified in the GC-MS analyses
386 for all strains with a retention time of 23.6 min and a similarity with the spectra

387 library NIST 8 of 89%. This compound was confirmed with an authentic
 388 standard. The metabolite 3-phenoxybenzoic acid was identified in HPLC-UV
 389 analyses of the experimental planning experiments employing a standard.
 390 Probably this compound was absent in the GC-MS analyses because of its low
 391 concentration and high detection limit. Considering the identified metabolites, a
 392 partial biodegradation pathway was proposed (Figure 5).



393

394 **Figure 5.** Proposed biodegradation pathway by cave fungi.

395 4. Conclusion

396 Among the fungi species of Gruta do Catão studied, *Aspergillus ustus*
 397 *CBMAI 1894* showed the highest efficiency in GCH biodegradation. However,
 398 the other two strains, *Talaromyces brunneus CBMAI 1895* and *Aspergillus sp.*
 399 *CBMAI 1926*, were also able to biodegrade this insecticide and showed

400 potential for bioremediation processes. The variable temperature affected
401 positively and concentration of insecticide affected negatively fungal
402 biodegradation while pH showed no effect according to experimental design.
403 For a better understanding of this biodegradation process, future studies on the
404 enzymatic apparatus of these fungi should be evaluated focusing on
405 understanding the physiology and genetics behind these microorganisms.

406 **Acknowledgements**

407 Fábio R. Rigolin thanks Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e
408 Tecnológico (CNPq) for his scholarship.

409 A. L. M. Porto and M. H. R. Selegim are grateful to CNPq and Fundação de
410 Amparo à Pesquisa do Estado de São Paulo (FAPESP) for financial support.

411 Willian G. Birolli thanks to FAPESP (grant nº 2017/19721-0) for his post-
412 doctoral researcher scholarship.

413 We are also grateful to Caio C. P. de Paula for the isolation of the fungal strains
414 used in the experiments and to the colleagues of Subterranean Studies
415 Laboratory of the Federal University of São Carlos, under the supervision of
416 Dra. Maria Elina Bichuette, for collecting the samples from which the fungi were
417 isolated.

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