**ORIGINAL ARTICLE**



# **Bioremediation potential of hexavalent chromium‑resistant**  *Arthrobacter globiformis* **151B: study of the uptake of cesium and other alkali ions**

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Received: 7 December 2021 / Revised: 4 May 2022 / Accepted: 7 June 2022 / Published online: 29 June 2022 © The Author(s), under exclusive licence to Springer Nature Switzerland AG 2022

# **Abstract**

Cesium  $(Cs<sup>+</sup>)$  enters environments largely because of global release into the environment from weapons testing and accidents such as Fukushima Daiichi and Chernobyl nuclear waste. Even at low concentrations,  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  is highly toxic to ecological receptors because of its physicochemical similarity to macronutrient potassium  $(K^+)$ . We investigated the uptake and accumulation of Cs+ by *Arthrobacter globiformis* strain 151B in reference to three similar alkali metal cations rubidium (Rb+), sodium (Na+), and potassium (K+). The impact of hexavalent chromium (Cr+6) as a co-contaminant was also evaluated. *A. globiformis* 151B accumulated  $Cs^+$  and  $Cr^{6+}$  in a time-dependent fashion. In contrast, the uptake and accumulation of  $Rb^+$  did not exhibit any trends. An exposure to  $Cs^+$ , Rb<sup>+</sup>, and  $Cr^{+6}$  triggered a drastic increase in  $K^+$  and  $Na^+$  uptake by the bacterial cells. That was followed by the efflux of  $K^+$  and  $Na^+$ , suggesting a  $Cs^+$  "substitution." Two-dimensional gel-electrophoresis of bacterial cell proteomes with the following mass-spectrometry of diferentially expressed bands revealed that incubation of bacterial cells with  $Cs^+$  induced changes in the expression of proteins involved in the maintenance of cellular homeostasis and reactive oxygen species removal. The ability of *A. globiformis* 151B to mediate the uptake and accumulation of cesium and hexavalent chromium suggests that it possesses wide-range bioremediation potential.

**Keywords** Bioremediation · Alkali ions · Metal toxicity and uptake · *Arthrobacter globiformis* 151B · Proteome changes · Cesium

# **Introduction**

Alkali metal element cesium  $(Cs<sup>+</sup>)$  is characterized by physicochemical similarity to macronutrient potassium  $(K<sup>+</sup>)$ . It has capacity to interact with many ecological receptors, exerts its deleterious outcome, and damages the cells (Sheahan et al. [1992](#page-13-0); Avery [1995a,](#page-11-0) [1995b;](#page-11-1) Kang et al. [2017](#page-12-0); Adams et al. [2019](#page-11-2)). There are more than 21 isotopes of

This work is dedicated to my (Olia Rcheulishvili) late supervisor and dear person Dr. Nelly Tsibakhashvili.

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cesium (Djedidi et al. [2014](#page-12-1)). The stable isotope cesium-133  $(133Cs<sup>+</sup>)$  cation occurs naturally in the environment mainly from erosion and weathering of rocks and minerals like the aluminosilicate and pollucite (Djedidi et al. [2014](#page-12-1)). It is also released into the air, water, and soil through the mining and milling of ores (White and Broadley [2000\)](#page-13-1).

The most hazardous radioactive isotopes: cesium-134  $(134Cs<sup>+</sup>)$  with half-life 2.06 y, cesium-135  $(135Cs<sup>+</sup>)$  with halflife  $2.3 \times 10^6$  y, and cesium-137 (<sup>137</sup>Cs<sup>+</sup>) with half-life 30.2 y were released and emitted β and γ radiations during their decay processes throughout nuclear-power plant accidents of Chernobyl and Fukushima Daiichi (Djedidi et al. [2014](#page-12-1); Burger and Lichtscheidl [2018](#page-11-3); Zok et al. [2021](#page-13-2)). Radiocesium isotope  $134Cs$ <sup>+</sup> is an activation product arising directly from the bombardment of stable cesium with neutrons, while  $135Cs<sup>+</sup>$  and  $137Cs<sup>+</sup>$  are fission products formed after thermal neutron fssion of spent fuel containing Uranium-235 isotope (Burger and Lichtscheidl  $2018$ ).  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  is highly mobile. Due to its volatility, it could travel long distances before settling in its aqueous form on earth, leading to widespread

contamination of miles of urban, agricultural, and forested areas, ponds, and rivers (Koarashi et al. [2016](#page-12-2); Linnik et al. [2013](#page-12-3); Shaw et al. [2003](#page-12-4); Yasunari et al. [2011\)](#page-13-3) After radioactive cesium fallout is deposited into the soil, it forms cesium compounds, mainly salts, which are highly water-soluble. Cesium binds to soil particles strongly and little is leached into the groundwater (Adams et al. [2015](#page-11-4)). It remains within the top layers of soils and is taken up slowly by plants, received by humans, and other ecological receptors.

The persistence of  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  in the bio-environments is of concern mostly because of its abundant fssion product with gamma emissions which lead to the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in cells via radiolysis of water, in addition to inducing mutations (Oh et al. [2018](#page-12-5); Yu et al. [2015](#page-13-4)). The removal of cesium is very challenging: conventional methods such as ion exchange, chemisorption-based soil-sorption techniques, or membrane fltration are limited by their complexities, high costs, and vulnerability to secondary pollution (Takei et al. [2014](#page-13-5); Wang and Zhuang [2019](#page-13-6); Yang et al. [2014\)](#page-13-7). Bioremediation methods based on the use of microorganisms, microalgae, or plants to sequester and remove  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  have long been considered a primary and sustainable solution (Djedidi et al. [2014;](#page-12-1) Burger and Lichtscheidl [2018](#page-11-3); Kim et al. [2019](#page-12-6); Zhang et al. [2014](#page-13-8)). The passive adsorption of  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  on the cell surface or in the extracellular matrix is expected not to be of signifcant efects. In contrast, active uptake and intracellular accumulation of  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  can be dangerous because of the similarity of hydration energy, atomic radius, and valence between  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  and the macronutrient  $K^+$ . Cs<sup>+</sup> has capacity to compete with  $K^+$  via the metabolic-dependent  $K^+$  transport systems. Bacteria use diferent transporters powered by electrochemical potential or ATP hydrolysis and protein phosphorylation-dephosphorylation cycle to uptake and maintain their intracellular  $K<sup>+</sup>$  concentration for essential cellular functions, including maintenance of cell turgor and homeostasis, adaptation to osmotic conditions, and activation of cytoplasmic enzymes (Bossemeyer et al. [1989](#page-11-5); Epstein [2003](#page-12-7); Grundling [2013\)](#page-12-8). The presence of intracellular  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$ , even at relatively low concentration, could disrupt the  $Na^{+}/K^{+}$  homeostasis in cells, leading to an uncontrolled formation of ROS via the Fenton reaction that produces hydroxyl radicals and reactive nitrogen species (RNS), causing oxidative damage to biological macromolecules such as DNA, proteins, and lipids (Valko et al. [2016](#page-13-9)).

The primary challenge of using microorganisms to remediate  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  is  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$ -induced ROS, which can impair or even eliminate the bioremediation potential of microorganisms. Following the Fukushima Daiichi nuclear power plant (FDNPP) accident that released large amounts of radioactive substances into the environment and contaminated the soil, some studies reported that terrestrial cyanobacteria collected from polluted soil, which include a *Nostoc commune* (Sasaki et al. [2013\)](#page-12-9) and a consortium of cyanobacteria biomats (Yamamoto et al. [2015](#page-13-10)) absorbed and accumulated the highest quantities of  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$ . The widely distributed cyanobacteria have developed through a long evolution history both enzymatic (such as superoxide dismutases -SODs) and nonenzymatic (such as the carotenoid antioxidants) defenses to prevent the accumulation of ROS produced during photosynthesis (Latif et al. [2009;](#page-12-10) Mironov et al. [2019\)](#page-12-11). It appears that these ROS adaptive outcomes promote the  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  sequestration in cyanobacteria. Several multi-stress resistant microorganismss isolated from environmental samples near sites of the nuclear reactor have also shown to be capable of  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$ uptake and accumulation, which include a couple of species of *Rhodococcus* (Ivshina et al. [2002;](#page-12-12) Takei et al. [2014\)](#page-13-5), and a bacterium *Exiguobacterium acetylicum* (Oh et al. [2018](#page-12-5)).

Analyses and the investigation of stable cesium  $133\text{Cs}$  and its behavior toward living things are a long-term indicator of radiocesium  $(^{137}Cs$ ,  $^{134}Cs$ ) management in ecosystems, its retention, and uptake (Yoshida et al. [2000](#page-13-11); Cook et al. [2007](#page-12-13); Burger and Lichtscheidl [2018\)](#page-11-3).

Arthrobacteria is ubiquitous in environments. It is evidenced that *Arthrobacter* sp. isolated from Cr or uranium (U) contaminated rocks, soil, and sediments tolerated ROS and accumulated Cr and U intracellularly as precipitates (Holman et al. [1999](#page-12-14); Suzuki et al. [2002;](#page-13-12) Tsibakhashvili et al. [2011](#page-13-13)). It is not clear whether these bacteria which have adapted to ROS stress and metal toxicity can be used to remediate  $Cs^+$ .

In this study, we investigated *Arthrobacter globiformis* 151B, an aerobic, basalt-dwelling, endolithic,  $Cr^{+6}$ -resistant bacteria, isolated from the Kazreti region in Georgia polluted with chromium, cadmium, copper, zinc, nickel, and vanadium (Tsibakhashvili et al. [2002,](#page-13-14) [2011](#page-13-14)). The detailed information about Kazreti region is provided in the supplementary fle "Kazreti".

The potential of *A. globiformis* 151B to uptake  $Cs^+$ , versus the other three similar Group I alkali metal cations  $Rb^{+}$ ,  $K^+$ , and Na<sup>+</sup>, was assessed. The impact of  $Cr^{6+}$  as a co-contaminant was also evaluated. To analyse how the exposure to Cs+ could modify the state of proteins in *A. globiformis* 151B, the proteomic analysis of *A. globiformis* 151B was performed to gain additional insights into the molecular mechanism associated with its response to  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$ . As an analog of radioactive  $^{137}Cs$ , stable isotope  $^{133}Cs$  was used.

# **Materials and methods**

### **Reagents and chemicals**

Tryptic Soy Broth (TSB), Tryptic Soy Agar (TSA),  $K_2CrO_4$ , CsCl, RbCl, and chemicals used in [sample preparation](#page-2-0) for 2-D electrophoresis or mass spectrometry (MS) experiments

were purchased from Sigma and Thermo Fisher (ACS reagent grade).

# **Bacterial culture and growth conditions**

*A. globiformis* 151B was isolated previously from basalts in the Kazreti region of Georgia polluted with a mixture of heavy metals (Tsibakhashvili et al. [2011](#page-13-13)). Cells of *A. globiformis* 151B were grown aerobically in 250-ml Erlenmeyer fasks as a 100-ml suspension in TSB broth at 21℃ with constant shaking at 100 rpm until the time:  $t = 1.5, 6, 12$ , 24, 48, 72, 96 h.

#### **Metal uptake experiments**

The metal uptake and accumulation experiments were carried out by subjecting cells to fve diferent experimental conditions for 96 h: (1) cells in a liquid culture free of  $Cr^{6+}$ ,  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$ , and  $Rb<sup>+</sup>$  (Controls); (2) cells with the addition of only  $Cs^+$ ; (3) cells with the addition of only  $Rb^+$ ; (4) cells with the addition of  $Cs^+$  and Rb<sup>+</sup>; and (5) cells with the addition of  $Cs^+$  and  $Cr^{+6}$ .  $Cr^{+6}$ ,  $Cs^+$ , and  $Rb^+$  were added simultaneously to the bacterial batch cultures as  $K_2CrO_4$ , CsCl, and RbCl respectively. To study the efect of coexisting action of  $Cr^{+6}$  and another toxic and potentially radioactive element ions like  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  and  $Rb<sup>+</sup>$  on the uptake of each other by *A. globiformis* 151B, we added 500 mg/L of  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  and  $Rb<sup>+</sup>$ and 50 mg/L  $Cr^{+6}$  to the bacterial cells. We chose a low concentration of  $Cr^{6+}$  (50 mg/L) to avoid the possible decrease of bacterial biomass. It is known that high concentrations of  $Cr^{6+}$  can lower the biomass of bacteria (Tsibakhashvili et al. [2011\)](#page-13-13). The experiment was performed in triple replicates and the samples from each condition were harvested at *t*=1.5, 6, 12, 24, 48, 72, 96 h (Figs. [1](#page-2-1)[–3](#page-8-0) and [5](#page-6-0)[–7](#page-8-0)). The media were not replenished during the experiment. Culture growth was observed by measuring optical density at 490 and 590 nm and by weighing bacterial biomass after washing and drying procedures (lyophilization) (Fig. [3](#page-5-0)). The wavelengths for the OD measurements were selected according to the approved methodology for *Arthrobacter globiformis* 151B growth measurements (Asatiani et al. [2004](#page-11-6); [2018](#page-11-7)). Bacterial viability and resistance against  $Cs^+$ ,  $Rb^+$ , and  $Cr^{+6}$ were measured by counting colony-forming units on metalcontaining agar plates.

### <span id="page-2-0"></span>**Sample preparation**

At defned times after the start of cultivation (see above), bacterial cells were harvested from the nutrient medium by centrifugation (3,000 g, 10 min, 4℃), rinsed three times in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), and prepared for the further analyses. For determination of the metal accumulation capacity by bacteria itself, the wet biomass of bacterial pellet



<span id="page-2-1"></span>**Fig. 1** Time course of chromium uptake by *Arthrobacter globiformis* 151B cells, grown in  $Cs^+ + Cr^{6+}$  containing medium (500 mg/L of  $Cs^+$  and 50 mg/L  $Cr^{6+}$ ). Bacterial exposure time with metals in growth media is indicated on x-axis. The mean values $\pm$ standard error of the means (SEM) of the total  $Cr^{6+}$  concentrations are indicated on the y-axis and represent uptaken  $Cr^{6+}$  in µg per gram of bacterial dry mass. The data are provided as mean values  $\pm$  standard error of the mean (SEM). The details of the statistical analysis are provided in supplementary table S1

after centrifugation and washing procedures were lyophilized according to the method described by Mosulishvili et al. [\(2002](#page-12-15)); Tsibakhashvili et al. [\(2009](#page-13-15)); and Kalabegishvili et al. [\(2013](#page-12-16)). Bacterial biomass (wet) samples were placed in the cylindrical chamber of the lyophilizer; at the same time, bottom part of the chamber is filled with  $SiO<sub>2</sub>$  new regenerated granules, which removes the moisture from the cells. Concurrently, liquid nitrogen fxes the biological samples in a short time by freezing them as the metal trunk of the adsorption-condensation lyophilizer chamber is immersed in a liquid nitrogen balloon. The pressure in the chamber is below 0.2 atm. The stationary temperature of the lyophilization process is−17℃; the fast, strong cooling of the  $SiO<sub>2</sub>$  from chamber trunk in liquid nitrogen determines strong evaporation of liquid from samples (Kalabegishvili et al. [2013](#page-12-16)). Dried cells were weighed, ashed in nitric acid, diluted with bi-distilled water, and analyzed by spectral analytical methods. Sample preparation for proteomic analyses is provided in the ["Proteomic study"](#page-3-0) section.

#### **Spectral analysis**

Atomic absorption (AA) and atomic emission (AE) spectrometry were carried out to measure the concentrations of Cr, Cs, Rb, Na, and K at each harvesting time point. The concentrations of Cr and Na were determined by the AA spectrometry method. AE spectrometry method was used to determine Cs, Rb, and K concentrations. The spectrum of the acetylene-air fame was used in the determination of the

metals by AA/AE spectrophotometry by Analyst 800 Perkin Elmer. The detection was carried out at the wavelength of 357.9 nm for chromium, 589.0 nm for sodium, 766.49 nm for potassium, 780.02 nm for rubidium, and 852.1 nm for Cs.

### <span id="page-3-0"></span>**Proteomic study**

Comparative 2-D gel-electrophoresis experiments were carried out at 72 h after the start of cultivation. This time point is toward the end of time-dependent studies and should reveal the stable changes of treatment efects. At 72 h after the start of cultivation, control cells and cells grown on Cs containing medium were harvested from the nutrient medium by centrifugation (3,000 g, 10 min, 4℃), rinsed three times in PBS solution, and prepared for 2-D electrophoresis.

#### **Preparation for 2‑D electrophoresis**

Bacterial pellets were resuspended in buffer (20 mM Tris–acetate, pH 7.8, 20 mM NaCl, 2 mM EDTA, 100 μg/ml lysozyme). Samples were incubated for 30 min at 37℃ with intermittent vortexing. 9 M urea, 4% Tween 40, 2% pharmalyte, 2% mercaptoethanol, and 2% protease inhibitor (bacterial) were added, and lysates were centrifuged at 15,000×*g* for 30 min at 4°C. The supernatant was collected and protein concentration was quantifed by a micro-BCA kit (Pierce, Thermo Scientifc) in quadruplicate for both samples with the appropriate buffer controls. The 2-D electrophoresis was carried out as described in the "2-D electrophoresis—principles and methods" [\(https://www.mcgill.ca/cian/fles/cian/](https://www.mcgill.ca/cian/files/cian/ge_2d_manual.pdf) ge 2d manual.pdf) with minor modifications according to Nozadze et al. [2015.](#page-12-17)

#### **Sample preparation and isoelectric focusing**

Isoelectric focusing (IEF) strips (linear pH 3–10 and pH 4–7) were rehydrated in 8 M urea, 0.5% Triton X-100, 0.5% Pharmalyte 3–10, and 30 mM Destreack reagent overnight. Protein samples (40 µg) were loaded onto rehydrated strips in bufer containing 7 M urea, 2 M thiourea, 2% Triton X-100, 0.1% ASB-14, 2*-*mercaptoethanol, 2% Pharmalyte 3–10, bromophenol blue, and 2% protease inhibitor. IEF was carried out at 500 V for 3 h and 3,500 V approximately for 18 h.

#### **Sample analysis**

Equilibration, SDS electrophoresis, staining, scanning, in gel-digestion (diferentially expressed spots were cut out and analyzed by MS for the protein identifcation), and MS analysis experiments were carried out essentially as described by Nozadze et al. [\(2015](#page-12-17)). MS experiments were performed using LTQ Fleet ion trap ftted with nanospray ion sources (Thermo Fisher). MS/MS spectra data were analyzed using SEQUEST (Proteome Discoverer 1.4, Thermo Fisher), searching against UniProt UniRef100 *Arthrobacter* species protein databases.

### **Statistical analysis**

The data of the accumulated metal concentrations in diferent experimental groups were analyzed using one-way and two-way Analysis of Variance ANOVA. The factors were growth condition and time of incubation. Planned comparisons were done by Student's *t*-test. All statistical tests were two-tailed and all significant differences ( $P < 0.05$ ) are reported. Each group from each time point consisted of 3 parallel samples. All of the calculations were done by software "Minitab 16" ([https://www.minitab.com/en-us/produ](https://www.minitab.com/en-us/products/minitab/) [cts/minitab/](https://www.minitab.com/en-us/products/minitab/)).

# **Results and discussion**

# *Uptake of Cr***<sup>+</sup>***<sup>6</sup>*

It is known that diferent metal ions can afect the uptake processes of any other metal by synergetic or antagonistic interactions (Chandrangsu et al. [2017;](#page-11-8) Tsibakhashvili et al. [2011](#page-13-13)). *Cyanobacteria* increased the uptake process of radioactive  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  under the influence of  $K<sup>+</sup>$  high concentrations (Yamamoto et al. [2015](#page-13-10)).

The time course of  $Cr^{6+}$  uptake by *A. globiformis* 151B cells with the existence of  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  is shown in Fig. [1](#page-2-1). The effect of the factor of time on  $Cr^{+6}$  uptake was significant:  $F(6,$ 20) = 43.39, *P* < 0.0001. The uptake of  $Cr^{+6}$  in the presence of Cs+ signifcantly increased in a time-dependent fashion starting at the 12 h time point and reached the maximum at the end-point of experiments. The data of detailed statistical analysis are provided in Supplementary Materials (Table S1). Cr loading became more efective in the presence of 500 mg/L  $Cs^+$  in the growth medium. Cr concentration in cells was increased with time and reached up to 7000 µg/g. It was reported in our previous studies that *A. globiformis* 151B reduced  $Cr^{6+}$  to  $Cr^{3+}$  and its reduction began after several hours from starting of their concomitant exposure (Tsibakhashvili et al. [2011](#page-13-13)). It is reasonable to consider that a high amount of total accumulated  $Cr^{6+}$ for 96 h of incubation in the presence of  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  was reduced to the  $Cr^{3+}$  form.

# *Cs***<sup>+</sup>** *uptake and proteomic changes induced by Cs***<sup>+</sup>** *exposure*

For microorganisms,  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  is the most toxic among the alkali metal ions (Wackett et al. [2004\)](#page-13-16). Bacterial normal growth does not require the existence of  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  or Rb<sup>+</sup> ions in the growth medium, but they can be used in case of lack of  $K^+$ to restore and maintain normal cellular development (Brown and Cummings [2001;](#page-11-9) Jasper [1978](#page-12-18); Wackett et al. [2004\)](#page-13-16). Cs +, Rb, or  $Cr^{6+}$  treated cells of *A. globiformis* 151B, effectively uptake  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  ions and its concentration is increasing according to the time. Two-way ANOVA analysis of  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  concentration data revealed that the efects of factors – growth condition and incubation time were significant:  $F(2, 62) = 171.76$ , *P*<0.0001 and *F* (6, 62)=30.4, *P*<0.0001 respectively. The interaction between these two factors was also signifcant *F*  $(12,62) = 4.76$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ . The data of detailed statistical analysis of planned comparisons are provided in Supplementary Materials (Tables S2-S4).

The data of  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  concentration changes in bacterial cells in a time-dependent fashion are shown in Fig. [2](#page-4-0). One and half hours (1.5 h) and six hours (6 h) after the start of incubation  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  concentration is significantly increased with the presence of  $Rb^{+}$  or  $Cr^{+6}$  ( $P < 0.05$ ). At the 1.5 h time point, the effect of  $Cr^{+6}$  is stronger compared to  $Rb^+$ , whereas at 6 h, the diference between these two conditions is not signifcant. At each of the following time points: 12 h, 24 h, 48 h, 72 h, and 96 h after the start of incubation  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  concentrations are significantly higher in  $Cs^+ + Cr^{+6}$  treated cells compared to only  $Cs^+$ -treated cells ( $P < 0.05$ ). At three time points: 24 h, 48 h, and 72 h  $\text{Cs}^+$  concentration are also significantly increased by  $Rb<sup>+</sup>$  compared to only  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$ -treated cells. Thus, the general tendency is the time-dependent increase in  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  uptake and accumulation.  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  transport is mostly associated with diferent specifc monovalent ion transporters and its toxicity is due to the reduction of  $K^+$ 



<span id="page-4-0"></span>**Fig. 2** Time course of Cs+ uptake by *A. globiformis* 151B cells, grown in different growth mediums:  $Cs$  containing medium,  $Cs + Rb$ containing medium, Cs+Cr containing medium. Corresponding media contain: 500 mg/L of  $Cs^+$ , 500 mg/L of  $Rb^+$  and 50 mg/L of  $Cr<sup>6+</sup>$ ; Bacterial exposure time with metals, in growth media is indicated on x-axis. The mean values $\pm$ standard error of the means  $(SEM)$  of  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  concentrations are indicated on the y-axis and represent uptaken Cs+ in μg per gram of bacterial dry mass. Two-way ANOVA analysis of  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  concentration data: factor-condition  $F(2,$ 62)=171.76,  $P < 0.0001$  and effect of factor-time:  $F (6, 62) = 30.4$ , *P*<0.0001

uptake capability by bacteria, or increase the efflux of  $K^+$ (Bossemeyer [1989](#page-11-5); Jung et al. [2001](#page-12-19); Wackett et al. [2004\)](#page-13-16). In these experiments, during the uptake process of  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  by A. *globiformis* 151B, the efflux of  $K^+$  or Na<sup>+</sup> is observed (see below; Figs. [6,](#page-7-0) [7](#page-8-0)). Zhang et al. ([2014](#page-13-8)) have indicated that the  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  uptake process by bacteria was mediated by the  $K<sup>+</sup>$ transport system and was characterized by a saturation phenomenon and the uptake process was inhibited dose-dependently by  $K^+$ . In our study, the intracellular concentrations of  $K^+$  and  $Na^+$  have decreased after time, when cells were treated with Cs, Rb, or  $Cr^{6+}$ . But the same heavy metals do not affect the  $Cs^+$  uptake process for cells, and  $Cs^+$  intracellular concentration has increased with time. It is known that at low concentration,  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  can stimulate bacterial growth in the absence of  $K^+$  (Jasper [1978](#page-12-18); Wackett et al. [2004\)](#page-13-16), but it can afect plant functioning and reduce its growth via activating the defense mechanism against oxidative stress (Atapaththu et al. [2016\)](#page-11-10). According to our experiments, we can suggest that the induced oxidative stress by  $Cs^+$  or  $Cr^{6+}$  with their single or concomitant  $(Cs^+ + Cr^{6+}, Cs^+ + Rb^+)$  action also afects the biomass of *A. globiformis* 151B at 96 h of its development for all types of growing conditions. Almost at every time point,  $Rb^+$  and  $(Rb^+ + Cs^+)$  even increase the biomass of cells compared to the control. The only exception is Cr6+, which reduces the biomass of *A. globiformis* 151B at every time point (Fig. [3](#page-5-0)).

 $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  is known to have a large hydrated ion radius. The free mobile single electron can react with water and oxygen to form reactive oxygen species, leading to the activation of the antioxidative defense system in plants or bacteria (Atapath-thu et al. [2016](#page-11-10)).  $Cs^+$  can easily replace  $K^+$  ion and, on the other hand, it activates certain enzymes, which are necessary for bacterial survival during increased ROSs (Andersson and Mowbray [2002](#page-11-11); Wackett et al. [2004\)](#page-13-16). *A. globiformis* 151B efectively survives under the strongest oxidative stress which is caused by  $Cr^{6+}$  and  $Zn^{2+}$  concomitant prolonged exposure with the help of the antioxidant enzyme (SOD and catalase) activity during 96 h (Asatiani et al. [2018\)](#page-11-7).

Comparative 2–D gel electrophoresis approach revealed the only 8 signifcantly upregulated proteins in *A. globiformis* 151B cells, grown on Cs<sup>+</sup> containing medium compared to control cells (Fig. [4](#page-5-1)). Comparative 2-D gel-electrophoresis experiments were carried out at 72 h after the start of treatment. The software used for the comparison of the images (see the "[Proteomic study"](#page-3-0) section) calculates the relative volumes of the protein spots. Some proteins spots were eventually decreased, but they were not identifed as signifcantly decreased proteins and "escaped" further MS analysis and identifcation. The protein identities of diferentially expressed spots revealed by MS analysis are pro-vided in Table [1](#page-6-1). A total of 500 mg/L  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  concentration increased the expression of proteins with diferent functions. We hypothesize that exposure of  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  causes oxidative stress,



<span id="page-5-0"></span>**Fig. 3** The infuence of metal ions and their exposure time on bacterial biomass: (a) influence of  $Cs^+$  ions, (b) influence of  $Rb^+$  ions, (c) influence of  $Cr^{6+}$  ions, (d) influence of  $Cs^+$  and  $Cr^{6+}$  joint action,

(**e**) influence of  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  and  $Rb<sup>+</sup>$  joint action on bacterial growth masses. Bacterial exposure time with metals in growth media is indicated on x axis, while y axis denotes the biomass of bacterial cells



<span id="page-5-1"></span>**Fig. 4** Representative images of silver-stained 2-D gel electrophoresis gels on strips with pH linear gradient 4.0–7.0 of *A. globiformis* 151B, protein extracts 72 h of growth. (**a)** Protein extracts from control cells grown without Cs containing medium. (**b)** Protein extracts of cells grown on Cs containing medium (500 mg/L). Light green

color points represent the marks done by the ImageMaster 2-D platinum 7.0 software. They indicate the matched starting identical points (ID similarities) for matching the rest of the protein ID-s (indicated in red), to fnd the signifcantly diferentially expressed protein bands (dots) between (a) or (b) gel fgures

formation of ROS, or other free radicals. It can also cause lipid peroxidation and further membrane damage. On the other hand, Cs + activates the bacterial antioxidant defense system. MS analyses revealed that  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  exposure induces the upregulation of several proteins which are mainly involved in oxidative stress response reactions and maintenance of the cellular ion homeostasis. Functions of the upregulated proteins are associated with oxidoreductase activity,

peroxiredoxin activity (peroxiredoxin has antioxidative property and reduces oxidation of lipids), metal-ion binding, ATP synthesis, and hydrolysis activity. The upregulation of these proteins could normalize transmembrane active transport of diferent ions or compounds, lipopolysaccharide, and peptidoglycan biosynthetic processes and in general to restore the "damaged shape" of bacterial cell wall/membrane and protect bacterial DNA from oxidative damage.

<span id="page-6-1"></span>**Table 1** The list of signifcantly diferentially expressed proteins in  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$ -treated bacteria compared to the control groups. The data for the spots coinciding by location (pI and molecular weight) from diferent experiments were analyzed by a two-tailed *t*-test for signifcant diferences between the two groups; the signifcance level was set at 5%. All signifcant changes are more than 1.5-fold. ↑ indicates the upregulation of expression. For each protein, the Uniprot identifer is also indicated



# *Rb***<sup>+</sup>** *uptake*

The effect of the factor "growth condition" on  $Rb<sup>+</sup>$  uptake is significant  $[F(1, 41) = 11.02, P = 0.003]$ . The effect of time is also significant  $F(6, 41) = 9.29, P < 0.0001$ , whereas the interaction between these factors is not signifcant. The general tendency for  $Rb<sup>+</sup>$  concentration is the time-dependent decrease (Fig. [5\)](#page-6-0). The data of detailed statistical analysis are provided in Supplementary Materials (Tables S5, S6). At 6 h after the start of incubation, the  $Rb<sup>+</sup>$  concentration is significantly higher with the presence of  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  in the medium compared to the cells incubated only with  $Rb^{+}$  ( $P < 0.05$ ). At the fnal time points of experiments (96 h) for both conditions, the Rb<sup>+</sup> concentrations are significantly less compared to initial corresponding values ( $P < 0.05$ ). For the Rb+Cs, the same tendency is also signifcant at 72 h after the start of incubation.

# *K***<sup>+</sup>** *and Na***. <sup>+</sup>** *uptake*

The time-course of  $K^+$  uptake by bacterial cells under the infuence of toxic metals and their combination in a timedependent fashion are shown in Fig. [6.](#page-7-0) Two-way ANOVA analysis of  $K<sup>+</sup>$  concentration data revealed that the effects of factor- "growth condition"  $[F (4, 104) = 15.46, P = 0.0001]$ and factor- "time" [*F* (6, 104) = 77.23, *P* < 0.0001] and the interaction between these factors are significant [*F*



<span id="page-6-0"></span>**Fig. 5** Time course of Rb+ uptake by *Arthrobacter globiformis* 151B cells, grown in different growth mediums: Rb<sup>+</sup> containing medium, Rb+Cs containing medium (corresponding media contain: 500 mg/L of  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  and 500 mg/L of  $Rb<sup>+</sup>$ ). Bacterial exposure time with metals in growth media is indicated on x-axis. The mean values  $\pm$  SEM of Rb<sup>+</sup> concentrations are indicated on the y-axis and represent uptaken Rb<sup>+</sup> in μg per gram of bacterial dry mass

 $(24,104) = 2.80, P = 0.0001$ . The data of detailed statistical analysis are provided in Supplementary Materials (Tables S7–S11).

One and half hours (1.5 h) after the start of incubation, all tested metals and their combinations  $(Cs^+, Rb^+, Rb^+ + Cs^+$ and,  $Cs^+ + Cr^{6+}$ ) significantly (for all comparisons  $P < 0.05$ ) increase  $K<sup>+</sup>$  levels compared to control cells. The increase is in the range of 30–40%.

Higher levels of  $K^+$  for 1.5 h are observed in  $Rb^+$  and  $(Cs^+ + Rb^+)$  groups. Six hours (6 h) after the start of incubation, the differences are exactly the same: the level of  $K^+$ is signifcantly higher in metal-treated cells compared to the control samples  $(P < 0.05$  for each comparison). Twelve hours after the start of incubation, the highest level of  $K^+$  is observed in Cs+-treated bacterial cells. Twenty-four hours, 48 h, and 72 h after the start of incubation, there are no signifcant diferences between the groups on a 2-tailed test. After 96 h of incubation, the lowest level of  $K^+$  is observed in the  $(Cs^+ + Cr^{6+})$  group, which is significantly lower compared to all the other groups. The level of  $K^+$  is also significantly lower in the  $(Cs^+ + Rb^+)$  group compared to the  $Rb$ <sup>+</sup> group.

Two-way ANOVA of Na<sup>+</sup> uptake data revealed that the effects of factor- " growth condition" factor "time"

and the interaction of these factors are signifcant [*F* (4, 104)=36.26, *P*=0.0001; *F* (6, 104)=219.1; *P*<0.0001, *F* (24, 104) = 18.40; *P* = 0.0001 respectively]. The data of Na+ uptake in a time-dependent fashion by *A. globiformis* 151B are presented in Fig. [7](#page-8-0). The data of detailed statistical analysis are provided in Supplementary Materials (Tables S12–S16F). One and half hours (1.5 h) after the start of incubation,  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  concentration is drastically high by the presence of individual metals or their combination in incubation medium compared to the control condition  $(P<0.01$  for all comparisons). Na<sup>+</sup> concentration in cells exposed to single metals  $(Cs<sup>+</sup>$  and  $Rb<sup>+</sup>$ ) do not differ. In the case of two metal combinations  $(Cs^+ + Rb^+$  and  $Cs^+ + Cr^{6+})$ ,  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  concentration is also significantly higher compared to single metal exposed cells  $(P < 0.005$  for each comparison). At 6 h after the start of incubation, the concentration of Na<sup>+</sup> is signifcantly less in control cells compared to all types of treated cells  $(P < 0.005$  for all comparisons). At 12 h after the start of incubation, the level of  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  is highest in  $(Cs^+ + Rb^+)$  treated cells which significantly exceeds the corresponding levels in  $Rb^+$  and  $(Cs^+ + Cr^{6+})$  treated cells  $(P<0.05)$ . At 24 h after the start of incubation, in Rb<sup>+</sup>- and  $(Cs^+ + Rb^+)$ -treated cells, the concentration of Na<sup>+</sup> is the highest and exceeds signifcantly the corresponding values

<span id="page-7-0"></span>**Fig. 6** Time course of K+ uptake by *A. globiformis* 151B cells, grown in diferent growth mediums; (**a)** control medium without the addition of metal salts, Cs containing medium, Rb containing medium; (**b)**  $Cs + Rb$  containing medium,  $Cs + Cr$  containing medium (corresponding media contain: 500 mg/L of  $Cs^+$ , 500 mg/L of  $Rb^+$  and 50 mg/L of  $Cr^{6+}$ ) TS broth contains 1000 mg/L of K+. Bacterial exposure time with metals, in growth media, is indicated on the x-axis. The mean values  $\pm$  SEM of K<sup>+</sup> concentrations are indicated on the y-axis and represent uptaken  $K^+$  in  $\mu$ g per gram of bacterial dry mass





<span id="page-8-0"></span>**Fig. 7** Time course of Na+ uptake by *A. globiformis* 151B cells, grown in diferent growth mediums; (**a)** control medium without the addition of metal salts, Cs containing medium, Rb containing medium; (**b**)  $Cs + Rb$  containing medium,  $Cs + Cr$  containing medium: (corresponding media contain:  $500 \text{ mg/L of Cs}^+$ ,  $500 \text{ mg/L}$ of  $Rb^+$ and 50 mg/L of  $Cr^{6+}$ ) TS broth contains 1900 mg/L of Na<sup>+</sup>. Bacterial exposure time with metals, in growth media, is indicated on the x-axis. The mean values $\pm$ SEM of Na<sup>+</sup> concentrations are indicated on the y-axis and represent uptaken  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  in µg per gram of bacterial dry mass

in the control,  $Cs^+$ , and  $(Cs^+ + Cr^{6+})$  cells ( $P < 0.05$ ). At 48 h after the start of incubation, the diferences are nearly the same; the highest level of  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  is detected in  $Rb<sup>+</sup>$ -treated cells which signifcantly exceeds the corresponding values in control,  $Cs^+$ , and  $(Cs^+ + Cr^{6+})$  treated cells (*P*<0.05). At 72 h after the start of incubation, the highest level of  $Na<sup>+</sup>$ is detected in Rb<sup>+</sup>-treated cells which significantly exceed the Na<sup>+</sup> levels in all other studied cells ( $P < 0.05$ ). At 96 h after the start of incubation, no signifcant diferences are observed between the groups.

 $K^+$  ion homeostasis is essential for bacterial survival, osmoregulation, pH homeostasis, protein synthesis regulation, membrane potential adjustment, and electrical signaling (Stautz et al. [2021\)](#page-13-17). There are two interaction phases between metal-treated *A. globiformis* 151B and Na<sup>+</sup> or K<sup>+</sup> ions: (a)  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  and  $K<sup>+</sup>$  rapid influx and (b) their slow efflux phases. As the concentration of  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  and  $Cr<sup>6+</sup>$  is increased inside bacteria,  $K^+$  and  $Na^+$  gradual efflux start. This may be explained by the activation of diferent transport systems reported according to diferent authors (Epstein [2003](#page-12-7); Jung et al. [2001](#page-12-19); Stautz et al. [2021;](#page-13-17) Zhang et al. [2014](#page-13-8); Stratford et al. [2019](#page-13-18)). Transport systems can be the passive channels that allow  $K^+$  and  $Na^+$  ions to flow down their electrochemical gradient or the active transporters that use ATP or the

proton motive force (pmf) to accumulate ions against their concentration gradient (Stautz et al. [2021](#page-13-17)). The electrical gradient, together with the chemical proton gradient, on the other hand, provides the pmf, which is necessary for ATP synthesis and various secondary active transport processes (Stautz et al.  $2021$ ). Na<sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup> influx systems are activated toward the increased extracellular osmolarity and cell turgor after exposure to toxic metals like  $Cr^{6+}$ ,  $Cs^+$ ,  $Rb^+$ . And the second,  $Na<sup>+</sup>$ ,  $K<sup>+</sup>$  efflux systems inside bacteria are activated by reduction intermediate by-products, antioxidant enzyme metabolites, glutathione metabolites, or electrophiles, which are released immediately as bacteria start  $Cr^{6+}$  reduction to its  $Cr^{3+}$  form and remediation of  $Cs^+$ . It is possible that  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  and  $K<sup>+</sup>$  initial high concentration and following gradual efflux process are the stress responses of the cells to the exposure to toxic metals. This phenomenon is very similar to the prokaryotic paradigm of electrical signal transduction in cellular communities (Prindle et al. [2015](#page-12-20); Ram and Lo [2018](#page-12-21); Stratford et al. [2019](#page-13-18)). Ram and Lo ([2018\)](#page-12-21) suggest that bacterial cells, their colonies, and bioflms can show similarities to the neuronal cells and networks, as forming graded or action potentials or ion-dependent signaling. Bacterial ionic membrane voltage regulation is seen in gram-positive *B. subtilis* (Aguilar et al. [2007\)](#page-11-12), According to Prindle et al. ([2015\)](#page-12-20), bacteria produce bioflms when they experience stress, forming colonies inside the bioflms, produce electrical oscillations; thus, bioflms gain voltage as a whole. Intracellular and extracellular  $K^+$  and  $Na^+$  ions create a gradient in the nutrient medium, in which the bacteria exist. It is known that the  $K^+$  ion has the main role in resting membrane potential formation. It is also known that the resting membrane potential of *E. coli* vesicles is−75 mV (Schuldiner and Kaback [1975\)](#page-12-22), which is very similar to the voltage of the nervous cell (−70 mV). According to Stautz et al. ([2021](#page-13-17)), the membrane potential for a metabolizing bacterium is on the order of –150 mV. Inside negative membrane potential is created by the unequal distribution of ions inside or outside the cell. This kind of distribution by one hand is provided by diferent active transport proteins and consumes 1/2 of the total cellular energy (Milo and Phillips [2015](#page-12-23)), and by the other hand, the high amount of impermeable negatively charged macromolecules like proteins, RNA, or DNA is present in the cytoplasm and participate in the Donnan potential or membrane resting potential formation (Eisenberg and Crothers [1979\)](#page-12-24). These fxed charges contribute to the membrane potential regardless of the metabolic activity of the bacterium (Stautz et al. [2021\)](#page-13-17). The electrical gradient *ψ* provided by the electron transport chain of respiring bacteria determines all membrane-permeable-ion distribution across the plasma membrane according to this potential. Cations and anions will fow through the membrane until their free chemical driving force (difusion free energy according to the concentration gradient) will not equalize to the electrical potential force according to the Nernst Equation. For  $K^+$ , the equilibrium distribution is established by the membrane potential:

$$
\Delta \psi = -\frac{RT}{zF} \ln \frac{[K]in}{[K]out} \tag{1}
$$

where  $R$  is the gas constant,  $T$  is the temperature,  $F$  is the Faraday constant, and  $\zeta$  is the charge of the ion (Glasser [1999;](#page-12-25) Stautz et al. [2021\)](#page-13-17). Ion difusion through plasma membrane requires special high permittivity channels for their permeation (Alberts et al. [2002;](#page-11-13) Cuello et al. [2010\)](#page-12-26). Most of the ionic channels are "gated" ones and are potential dependent: ion flow rate down the concentration gradient is very fast if there is a steep diference between membrane potential and specifc ion equilibrium potential (Alberts et al. [2002](#page-11-13)). There is no net difusion of ions through the plasma membrane, when there is a little diference between the membrane potential and ions equilibrium potential (Glasser [1999](#page-12-25)). Bacterial electrical signaling processes are recently studied and have shown that bacterial membrane potential mediates the intra and intercellular signaling, regulating such important physiological processes as bioflm dynamics, mechanosensation, or spore formation (Stratford et al. [2019\)](#page-13-18). Only a few recent discoveries indicate of bacterial membrane-potential excitation dynamics and a few is known about external electrical signals in the context of bacterial electrophysiology (Stratford et al. [2019](#page-13-18)). For any type of metabolically active cells, including bacteria, during the resting condition, there is a high  $K^+$  intracellular and  $Na^+$ extracellular concentration. An external electrical stimulus can alter the cellular membrane potential according to the Schwan equation:

$$
\Delta \psi \text{ max} = 1.5aE \big( 1 + (2\pi f \tau)^2 \big)^{-1/2} \tag{2}
$$

where *ΔΨ* max is the induced membrane potential, *a* is the cell radius, *E* is the applied feld strength, *f* is the alternating electric field frequency, and  $\tau$  is the relaxation time of the membrane (Marszalek et al. [1990;](#page-12-27) Stratford et al. [2019](#page-13-18)). Stratford et al. provide that, if the electrical stimulus is applied to proliferative bacterial cells, it should lead to the opening of voltage-gated  $K^+$  channels and consequent hyperpolarization due to  $K^+$  efflux. Replacing the typical values of bacterial resting potential –  $140 \sim$  – 75 mV (Feile et al. [1980;](#page-12-28) Ramos et al. [1977\)](#page-12-29) and threshold potential for Kv ∼−50 mV (Zheng and Trudeau 2015) to the equation can be expected that the depolarization by an electrical stimulus with the field strength of + 35  $\sim$  120 mV/µm should open voltage-gated  $K^+$  channels on bacteria (Stratford et al. [2019](#page-13-18)). It is considered, that toxic metals, like  $Cr^{6+}$ ,  $Cs^+$ ,  $Rb^+$  here play the role of excitation stimuli for *A. globiformis* 151B, and bacteria respond with rapid increased  $K^+$  and  $Na^+$ influx process. It is known that  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  intracellular concentration is increased during the membrane depolarization phase of graded or action potential when cellular excitation stimulus is provided. Prindle et al. [\(2015](#page-12-20)) show the change of membrane potential of *B. subtilis*, which was associated with  $K^+$  efflux when  $K^+$  intracellular concentration was 40 times greater than in extracellular side and suggested that  $K^+$  has a role in the synchronized oscillations in membrane potential. Bacteria release  $K^+$  or  $Na^+$  ions to communicate rapidly to neighboring cells about their metabolic state. Their initial high content can be compared to the depolarization phase of action potential and their following gradual efflux to the membrane repolarization and hyperpolarization phases. The simultaneous exposure to the combination of two toxic metals  $(Rb^+ + Cs^+$  and  $Cs^+ + Cr^{6+}$ ) has a different effect at later time points;  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  and  $K<sup>+</sup>$  levels are decreased below the controls. Stautz et al. [\(2021](#page-13-17)) describe several scenarios showing the relationship between bacterial metabolism,  $K^+$  chemical gradient, and membrane potential when intracellular  $K^+$  concentration is 300 mM and extracellular concentrations are 0.1 mM, 1 mM, or 100 mM: (a) in  $K^+$  deficient medium,  $K^+$ accumulation can occur against the electrochemical gradient by primary active transport via ATP hydrolysis or by the secondary active transport via  $H^+$  symport proteins. Or (b) via channels, facilitating the thermodynamically favorable movement of  $K<sup>+</sup>$  down its electrochemical gradient. In metabolically active bacteria, when Gibbs free energy of electron transport chain  $(g<sub>etc</sub>)$  is greater than Gibbs free energy for  $K^+$  diffusion  $(g_k^+)$ ,  $K^+$  can be accumulated in the cytoplasm even at low external concentrations. But, when the relative permeability of  $K^+(g_k^+)$  exceeds that of protons due to a decrease in metabolic activity or  $K^+$  channel opening, the degree of membrane depolarization is determined by the external K<sup>+</sup>concentration (Stautz et al. [2021](#page-13-17)).

Jung et al. [\(2001\)](#page-12-19) showed that exposure of *E.Coli* with CsCl leads to the decrease of intracellular  $K^+$ , which induces upregulation of the kdpFABC operon coding for highaffinity  $K^+$  uptake system. The components of the sensory kinase/response regulatory system proteins kdpD and kdpE are implicated for the operon expression upregulation. We speculate that despite the normal viability of the *A. globiformis* 151B cells, two-metal combination exposure has a profound efect on cell physiology over time and leads to the abovementioned changes in cell homeostasis. In general, bacterial samples tend to accumulate and increase the level of Cs+ inside bacterial cells during the whole time of cultivation. The  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  uptake is significantly augmented by the additional presence in the medium of  $Cr^{6+}$ , whereas Rb+ presence does not have any signifcant infuence on it (Fig. [2\)](#page-4-0).  $Cr^{6+}$  uptake is also gradually increased over time in the presence of  $Cs^+$ . Thus,  $Cr^{6+}$  and  $Cs^+$  have synergistic effects on their uptake processes. In difference to  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  and  $Cr<sup>6+</sup>$  uptake,  $Rb<sup>+</sup>$  intracellular initial level is high and nearly constant when bacterial cells are exposed only to  $Rb<sup>+</sup>$  or

together with  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$ . The different time dependence of studied toxic metals uptake and their diferent efects on each other convincingly demonstrate that diverse biochemical systems and various metal-resistant mechanisms are involved in their uptake/release.

 $K^+$ , Na<sup>+</sup>, Cs<sup>+</sup>, and Rb<sup>+</sup> differ according to their atomic radius. Alkali metal salts easily dissociate in water and biological fuids and are highly soluble. Their hydration energy, which is associated with the hydration radius, reduces with increasing ions atomic mass (Glasser [1999\)](#page-12-25), so for  $Na<sup>+</sup>$ , hydration radius (hydration energy) will be larger than for  $K^+$ . That is why dehydration of sodium requires more energy than potassium ions, during transportation through the selectivity flter of the potassium ionic channel of the biological cell membrane. Ions of  $K^+$ ,  $Rb^+$ , or  $Cs^+$  do not have the second hydration shell because of their relatively large crystal radius (Mähler and Persson [2012](#page-12-30); Smirnov and Trostin [2007](#page-13-19)). According to Glasser ([1999\)](#page-12-25) with a larger distance from the charged nucleus of the ion, the electric feld strength will become lower, that is why water dipoles' attractivity strength for large ions will be relatively weak. All of these ions will require separate transport systems, different ionic channels for their selection and transportation, according to their thermodynamically favorable dehydration systems. It is known that there are diferent transport mechanisms and uptake systems for separate ions, through the plasma membrane of bacterial cell wall (Gadd and Griffths [1978\)](#page-12-31). Many bacteria possess diferent uptake systems for  $K^+$  in the biological cell membranes.

Different transport systems for  $K^+$  ions are seen in different bacteria: YugO in *Bacillus subtilis* which can serve electrical signaling in bioflms (Prindle et al. [2015](#page-12-20)), HpKch from *Helicobacter pylori* (Stingl et al. [2007\)](#page-13-20), and CglK from *Corynebacterium glutamicum* (follmann et al. [2009](#page-12-32)) can mediate K+ uptake, and Kch from *Escherichia coli* is suggested to involve in membrane potential adjustment (Ungar et al. [2001\)](#page-13-21). Three types: Kdp, Trk, and Kup K transport systems are detected in *E. coli* (Zhang et al. [2014\)](#page-13-8). Kdp system is reported as a P-type ATPase with a high affinity toward  $K$ , with the requirement of ATP and a divalent cation. Mostly, it determines  $K^+$  uptake (Epstein [2003\)](#page-12-7). Second- the Trk system is responsible for  $K^+$  and  $Rb^+$  transport and the third Kup system has a high affinity toward  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  ion (Epstein [2003](#page-12-7); Bossemeyer et al. [1989\)](#page-11-5). KcsA is a voltage-dependent ionic channel highly selective for potassium, after activation, up to  $10^8$  ions per second flow through the channel for approximately 200 ms, until a slow inactivation takes place (Stautz et al. [2021\)](#page-13-17). It seems that *A. globiformis* 151B can possess similar transport systems for  $K^+$  ion. Why Na<sup>+</sup> or  $K^+$  initial concentration in both control and  $Cs^+$ ,  $Rb^+$ ,  $Rb^+$  +  $Cs^+$ , or  $Cs^{+} + Cr^{6+}$  groups is so high, or why  $K^{+}$  or Na<sup>+</sup> efflux starts immediately after the beginning of incubation? Potassium and sodium ions appear to be signaling ions, which help the cell for adaptation to elevated osmolarity by activation of some cytoplasmic enzymes (Epstein [2003\)](#page-12-7). Transport systems for  $K^+$  uptake are regulated by ion concentration, increased medium osmolarity, and increased cell turgor (Epstein [2003\)](#page-12-7). Tsibakhashvili et al. ([2011](#page-13-13)) showed that the cell homeostasis under the stress condition is reached by joint action of the resistance mechanism together with normal cellular metabolism, providing the cell to concentrate adequate metal to keep the metal-dependent activities (Bruins et al. [2000](#page-11-14); Choudhury and Srivastava [2001](#page-11-15); Tsibakhashvili et al. [2011\)](#page-13-13). Increased medium osmolarity and/or high turgor pressure of medium causes activation of the potassium uptake process (Epstein [2003\)](#page-12-7). Intracellular  $K^+$  concentration is determined mostly by the osmolarity of external medium for *E. coli*, *Salmonella*, or other genera of bacteria (Rhoads et al. [1976](#page-12-33)).

Microorganisms have specifc, selective transport systems for alkali ions, which are fast and driven by the chemiosmotic gradient or toxic electrophiles (in case of  $K^+$  efflux systems) (Bossemeyer et al. [1989](#page-11-5); Epstein [2003](#page-12-7)). Very often, Na<sup>+</sup> transportation through biological cell membranes is associated with  $Na<sup>+</sup>/H<sup>+</sup>$  antiporters, which regulate cytoplasmic pH under stress conditions (Booth et al. [2003](#page-11-16); Wackett 2004). According to Ferguson et al. ([1997\)](#page-12-34), electrophiles can activate KefB and KefC transport systems in  $E.$  *coli*, which leads to  $K^+$  efflux from the bacterial cell. The abovementioned efflux systems protect *E. coli* against the toxic efects of the electrophiles. In *A. globiformis* 151B during the neutralization of some toxic agents like  $Cs^+$ ,  $Cr^{6+}$ , or Rb+, diferent reduction by-products are generated, including glutathione metabolites, toxic agents, or other forms of electrophiles. Reduction by-products can activate similar transport efflux systems for  $K^+$  or  $Na^+$ . Na<sup>+</sup> and  $K^+$  efflux process can be considered part of the defensive mechanism of *A. globiformis* 151B, as ROS and metal resistant bacteria. Diferent transport systems are activated during diferent physiological states for *A. globiformis* 151B. The oxidized products of free radical attack have decreased biological activity of cell, leading to loss of energy metabolism, cell signaling or other major functions (Mahjoub and Roudsari [2012](#page-12-35); Juan et al. [2021\)](#page-12-36).

We have demonstrated the uptake process of  $K^+$ , Na<sup>+</sup>,  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$ , Rb<sup>+</sup>, and Cr<sup>6+</sup> with concomitant action of Cr<sup>6+</sup>, Cs<sup>+</sup>, and Rb+ by the cells of *A. globiformis* 151B. According to the obtained data, *A. globiformis* 151B effectively accumulated  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  and  $Cr<sup>+</sup>$  ions from the environment. Experiments with the exposure to toxic  $Cs^+$ ,  $Rb^+$ , and  $Cr^{+6}$  revealed that bacteria had two interaction phases toward  $K^+$  and  $Na^+$ : rapid influx and slow efflux phase. The concentrations of  $K^+$  and Na<sup>+</sup> ions in bacteria had the maximum levels in the frst hour of their development. As the intracellular concentrations of  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  and  $Cr<sup>6+</sup>$  ions increased (according to the time), the slow removal phase of  $K^+$  and Na<sup>+</sup> takes place.

The gradual efflux of  $K^+$  and  $Na^+$  ions could be considered one of the defensive mechanisms against the oxidative stress induced by  $Cs^+$  or  $Cr^{6+}$ . Before bacterial cells accumulated  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  and  $Cr<sup>6+</sup>$  ions, they are metabolically more active and  $K^+$  ions move inside bacteria either by thermodynamically favorable facilitated passive transport or by primary or secondary active transport. After  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  and  $Cr<sup>6+</sup>$  levels inside bacteria increase, oxidative stress takes place, cellular metabolic activity decreased ( $g_{\text{etc}}$  is less), and K<sup>+</sup> ions begin to move outside the cell down their electrochemical gradient: to adjust the membrane potential, or to cause the membrane depolarization.

# **Conclusions**

In conclusion:

- *A. globiformis* 151B possesses an efective ability to accumulate Cs + ions, even in the presence of other toxic metals such as  $Cr^{6+}$ .
- *A. globiformis* 151B displays time-dependent adaptive biochemical changes to cope with various combinations of dangerous metals and survives harsh conditions of growth medium: oxidative stress, caused by  $Cr^{6+}$  reduction and Cs + remediation, causes the decrease of metabolic activity of the cell, which is revealed by the  $K^+$  and  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  slow efflux process.
- A. globiformis 151B responds to  $Cs<sup>+</sup>$  treatment by remarkable changes in proteome compositions. Proteins implicated in osmolar homeostasis maintenance, redox activity, ATP, and DNA binding proteins are signifcantly upregulated.
- All the above listed indicate that *A. globiformis* 151B has a high potential for both  $Cs^+$  and  $Cr^{6+}$  contaminated soil bioremediation and we suggest that these species of bacteria could be successfully used for this process.

**Supplementary Information** The online version contains supplementary material available at<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10123-022-00258-5>.

**Acknowledgements** We acknowledge Dr. Aleksandre Rcheulishvili for helping to perform the spectral analyses.

**Author contributions** Material preparation, data collection, and analysis were performed by Olia Rcheulishvili. The frst draft of the manuscript was written by Olia Rcheulishvili and all authors commented on previous versions of the manuscript. All authors contributed to the study conception and design. All authors read and approved the fnal manuscript.

**Funding** Author Olia Rcheulishvili has received research support from Volkswagen Foundation, within the framework of the joint project "Structured Education- Quality Assurance- Freedom to Think"—#04/46 between Georg-August-University of Gottingen and Ilia State University. Other authors declare that no funds, grants, or other support were received during the preparation of this manuscript.

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