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Keywords

Palladium, Nanoparticles, Thermo-acidophilic archaeon, *Sulfolobus tokodaii*

Abstract

The thermo-acidophilic archaeon, *Sulfolobus tokodaii* was utilized for the production of Pd(0) bionanoparticles from acidic Pd(II) solution. Use of active cells was essential to form well-dispersed Pd(0) nanoparticles located on the cell surface. The particle size could be manipulated by modifying the concentration of formate (as electron donor; e-donor) and by addition of enzymatic inhibitor (Cu^{2+}) in the range of 14-63 nm mean size. Since robust Pd(II) reduction progressed in pre-grown *S. tokodaii* cells even in the presence of up to 500 mM Cl^- , it was possible to conversely utilize the effect of Cl^- to produce even finer and denser particles in the range of 8.7-15 nm mean size. This effect likely resulted from the increasing stability of anionic Pd(II)-chloride complex at elevated Cl^- concentrations, eventually allowing involvement of greater number of initial Pd(0) crystal nucleation sites (enzymatic sites). The catalytic activity (evaluated based on Cr(VI) reduction reaction) of Pd(0) bionanoparticles of varying particle size formed under different conditions were compared. The finest Pd(0) bionanoparticles obtained at 50 mM Cl^- (mean 8.7 nm; median 5.6 nm) exhibited the greatest specific Cr(VI) reduction rate, with 4-times higher catalytic activity compared to commercial Pd/C. The potential applicability of *S. tokodaii* cells in the recovery of highly catalytic Pd(0) nanoparticles from actual acidic chloride leachate was thus suggested.

Introduction

Palladium (Pd), one of the platinum-group metals (PGMs), is regarded as one of the most important industrial catalysts. To secure a stable world supply of PGMs and other precious metals, recycling of secondary metal resources (e.g., spent catalysts and e-wastes) is considered increasingly important. For Pd recycling from such secondary resources, strong leaching lixiviants such as aqua regia, HCl, HNO₃ and H₂SO₄ are used together with an oxidizing agent. To lower environmental impacts, cleaner alternatives, such as using diluted HCl with H₂O₂, are also investigated by different groups (e.g., Barakat et al. 2006). Since Pd catalysts today are mostly used as nanoparticles due to their greater specific surface area with higher reactivity (De Corte et al. 2012), developing recycling techniques of the metal in the nanoparticle form would be beneficial.

Microbiological production of precious metal nanoparticles is gaining increasing attention as a simple and clean technology which proceeds under ambient conditions without the use of hazardous chemicals (Zhang et al. 2011). Upon utilization of microbial cells, reduction of aqueous Pd(II) ions is triggered by enzymatic activity by an expense of externally added e-donor (or intracellular electron carriers such as NADH accumulated during pre-growth; Okibe et al. 2017). They are then deposited as solid Pd(0) nanoparticles at different cellular locations as a scaffold (on the cell wall, within the periplasmic space and inside cytoplasm), depending on the microbial species and conditions used (De Windt et al. 2005; Okibe et al. 2017). The enzymes proposed to be responsible for Pd(II) reduction include [NiFe]-hydrogenases in *D. fructosivorans* (Mikheenko et al. 2008) and *E. coli* (Deplanche et al. 2010), three [NiFe]-hydrogenases (Hyd-1, Hyd-2 and Hyd-3) and two formate dehydrogenase molybdoenzymes (FDH-N and FDH-H) in anaerobically grown *E. coli* (Foulkes et al. 2016), and molybdoenzyme (FDH-O) which is expressed both aerobically and anaerobically (Foulkes et al. 2016). These Pd(0) bionanoparticles have been effectively utilized as catalyst in reactions such as reduction of highly toxic Cr(VI) to Cr(III) (Humphries et al. 2007; Mabbett et al. 2004), dehalogenation of polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) (De Windt et al. 2006), and dechlorination of lindane (Mertens et al. 2007).

So far, the majority of Pd(0) bionanoparticles studies employed a variety of neutrophilic bacteria such as *Desulfovibrio* spp. (Mikheenko et al. 2008; Yong et al. 2002), *Shewanella oneidensis* (De Windt et al. 2006)), *Geobacter sulfurreducens* (Yates et al. 2013), *Bacillus*

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3 67 *sphaericus* (Creamer 2007), *Escherichia coli*, *Serratia* sp., *Micrococcus luteus*, *Arthrobacter*
4 68 *oxydans* (Deplanche 2014), *Cupriavidus necator*, *Pseudomonas putida* and *Paracoccus*
5 69 *denitrificans* (Bunge et al. 2010). Generally, these Pd(0) bionanoparticles were observed with the
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8 70 particle size of a few tens of nanometers.
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11 71 On the other hand, considering metallurgical processes for the metal extraction reaction
12 72 being often highly acidic, extremely acidophilic microorganisms are worth investigating for their
13 73 potential in precious metal bionanoparticles production. However, compared with the number of
14 74 Pd(0) bionanoparticles studies done on neutrophilic microorganisms, limited studies on extreme
15 75 acidophiles are so far available. Enzymatic activity of neutrophiles may be more susceptible to
16 76 acidic leachates. In fact, pre-palladized neutrophilic cells were prepared prior to exposure to highly
17 77 acidic leachates, in order to promote autocatalytic chemical Pd(II) reduction to Pd(0) (Creamer et
18 78 al. 2006; Mabbett et al. 2006). Also, H₂ gas (instead of formate) was used as e-donor to promote
19 79 Pd(II) reduction using neutrophilic *D. desulfuricans* at pH 2.0 (Yong et al. 2002).
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27 80 As for acidophilic bacteria, *Acidocella aromatica* PFBC and *Acidiphilium cryptum* SJH
28 81 were utilized to produce Pd(0) bionanoparticles from acidic Pd(II) solutions as well as from Pd(II)-
29 82 containing spent catalyst leachate (Okibe et al. 2017). The former strain was also utilized for size-
30 83 controlled production of Au(0) nanoparticles (Rizki and Okibe 2018). While, regarding acidophilic
31 84 archaea, Au(0) and Ag(0) nanoparticles were formed using *Sulfolobus islandicus* (Kalabegishvili
32 85 et al. 2014; Kalabegishvili et al. 2015). To our knowledge, studies on Pd(0) bionanoparticles
33 86 formation using extremely acidophilic archaea are not yet available.
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40 87 Hence, this study focused on the extremely acidophilic archaea to reveal the utility of this
41 88 third domain of life in the production of Pd(0) nanoparticles. From the genome sequence, the
42 89 presence of the putative formate dehydrogenase enzyme (FDH) (encoded by the ST0348 gene;
43 90 <http://www.uniprot.org/>) was indicated with the thermophilic, extremely acidophilic archaeon
44 91 *Sulfolobus tokodaii* (optimal growth conditions 80°C and pH 2.5-3; Suzuki et al. 2002). This
45 92 archaeon was also shown to have the Fe³⁺-reducing ability under both anaerobic and micro-aerobic
46 93 conditions (Masaki et al. 2018). The study, therefore, investigated the capability of *S. tokodaii* in
47 94 Pd(0) bionanoparticles production from acidic Pd(II) solutions. The effect of chloride ions (Cl⁻)
48 95 was also studied to gain fundamental knowledge on its potential utility in actual acidic industrial
49 96 leachates.
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Materials and methods

Microorganism

The thermo-acidophilic archaeon, *Sulfolobus tokodaii* 7^T (NBRC 100140) was routinely sub-cultured and pre-grown aerobically in 300 mL Erlenmeyer flasks containing 100 mL heterotrophic basal salts (HBS) medium (per L; 450 mg (NH₄)₂SO₄, 50 mg KCl, 50 mg KH₂PO₄, 500 mg MgSO₄ 7H₂O, 14 mg Ca(NO₃)₂ 4H₂O, 142 mg Na₂SO₄; pH 2.0 with H₂SO₄) with 10 mM glucose and 0.025 % (w/v) yeast extract. Flasks were incubated at 70°C, shaken at 120 rpm.

Pd(II) reduction test by *S. tokodaii* cell suspension

S. tokodaii cells were pre-grown aerobically, harvested at the late-exponential phase, washed and re-suspended in 50 mL HBS medium in 70 mL vials (1.0×10⁹ cells/mL; pH 2.0). Pd(II) was added (as Na₂PdCl₄) at 50 mg/L. As e-donor, sodium formate (HCOONa) was added at 0, 5 or 10 mM. It should be noted that HCOONa (pK_a = 3.75) added to the media hereafter was likely present predominantly as formic acid (HCOOH) under the acidic conditions used in this study. For comparison, active cells (± 5 mM Cu²⁺; as CuSO₄·7H₂O), heat-killed cells (autoclaved at 120°C for 20 min) and cell-free controls were prepared. All solutions were prepared aerobically, but vials were sealed with butyl-rubber stoppers and aluminum crimps to establish the micro-aerobic condition and incubated unshaken at 70°C. Liquid samples were regularly withdrawn using syringe needles and analyzed for Pd(II) concentration spectrophotometrically using the PAR method (Mizuno and Miyatani 1976). Following Pd(II) reduction, cells were harvested, washed and freeze-dried overnight for XRD analysis (Rigaku UltimaIV; CuKα 40 mA, 40 kV). All of the experiments were conducted in duplicate.

Ultra-thin section transmission electron microscopy (TEM) observation

After completion of Pd(II) reduction, *S. tokodaii* cells were fixed with 2% (v/v) paraformaldehyde/2.5% (v/v) glutaraldehyde mixture in 0.1 M phosphate buffer solution (PBS) (4°C, 30 min), washed twice with 0.1 M PBS (pH 7.2), post-fixed with 1% OsO₄ in 0.1 M PBS (4°C, 1-2 h) and washed twice again. Cells were then dehydrated using ascending series of ethanol

concentration (70, 80, 90, 99.5% for 5 min each, followed by 100% for 10 min twice), washed twice with propylene oxide (5 min each) and finally embedded in epoxy resin (polymerized at 70°C, 48 h). Ultra-thin sectioning (70 nm) was performed using an ultramicrotome (Leica EM UC7). Sections were placed onto copper grids, stained with EM stainer (Nisshin EM) and lead acetate and sputter-coated with carbon, prior to observation with TEM (Tecnai G-20; accelerating voltage 200 kV).

Particle size analysis using Image-J software

TEM images of *S. tokodaii* cells were analyzed using Image-J software (National Institute of Health, USA). Firstly the images were calibrated and thresholded by selecting the ROI (region of interest) and removing the background noise (based on the contrast between nanoparticles and cell components). Pd(0) bionanoparticles were then analyzed with the “Analyze Particles” function, which calculates the projected area of an individual particle. The diameter of each particle was calculated from its projected area, assuming that the particle is spherical. For each condition, 4-5 cells displaying a total of around 180-1400 particles were analyzed to calculate the mean and median particle sizes.

In the case of cell-free Pd(0) particles, scanning electron microscope (SEM; Keyence VE9800) images were adjusted with the "Bandpass filter" function to create a better contrast between each particle. The adjusted images were then thresholded and analyzed using the same protocol as described above.

Functional groups analysis

Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) analysis was performed to study the overtime change in the functional groups of *S. tokodaii* biomass upon exposure to Pd(II) ions. After addition of 50 mg/L Pd(II) and 5 mM formate to *S. tokodaii* active cell suspensions (at 10^9 cells/mL in 50 mL HBS medium; in 70 mL vials under microaerobic condition, 70°C, pH 2.0), the cells were collected at 0, 3, 5 or 10 hours (Pd(II) reduction profile corresponding to the active cells experiment shown in Fig. 1) by centrifugation, washed thoroughly using deionized water, freeze-

dried overnight and quantitatively mixed with KBr (FTIR grade). The infrared spectra were measured in the range of 400-4000 cm^{-1} at a resolution of 2 cm^{-1} with 128 scan times (JASCO FTIR-670 Plus).

Zeta-potential measurement

S. tokodaii cells were pre-grown as described above, harvested by centrifugation, washed twice and resuspended in 10 mL of 1 mM KCl (pH 3.0, 4.0 or, 5.0 with KOH or HCl) at 10^8 cells/mL. After addition of 50 mg/L Pd(II) (as Na_2PdCl_4), cells were left for 30 min prior to zeta-potential measurement (Malvern ZETASIZER Nano series). The measurement was conducted in duplicate.

Effect of Cl^- on Pd(0) bionanoparticles formation

As an alternative to highly corrosive aqua regia leaching, chloride-peroxide leaching was purposed for Pd extraction from spent catalysts (Barakat et al. 2006). In order to study fundamental aspects of the effect of Cl^- on Pd(0) bionanoparticles formation, Cl^- was added (as NaCl) at 10, 50, 100 and 1,000 mM to *S. tokodaii* active cell suspensions, based on the methodology described in the previous section. Formate was added as e-donor at 10 mM.

Thermogravimetry analysis

The Pd(0) load on Pd(0) bionanoparticles was estimated by thermogravimetry analysis (TG-DTA 2000SA, Bruker AXS), by heating 5 mg of a Pd(0) bionanoparticles sample in the Pt-sample-pan (from room temperature (25°C) to 1200°C at $10^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$) under N_2 atmosphere to prevent formation of PdO. Pd(0) bionanoparticles samples were regularly collected following the completion of reduction of 50 mg/L Pd(II) (in 10^9 cells/mL cell suspensions).

Evaluation of the catalytic activity of Pd(0) bionanoparticles

Catalytic activities of the Pd(0) bionanoparticles produced under different conditions as well as cell-free Pd(0) particles were compared with that of commercial palladium on carbon catalyst (Pd/C; 10% w/w Pd(0) loading; Sigma-Aldrich), based on Cr(VI) reduction reaction.

After completion of Pd(0) bionanoparticles formation by *S. tokodaii* from 50 mg/L Pd(II) using 5 or 10 mM formate (as described in previous sections), precipitates were collected by centrifugation and freeze-dried. An aliquot of the precipitate (equivalent to 0.5 mg net-Pd(0)) was used as a catalyst for the following Cr(VI) reduction reaction in 20 mL deionized water containing 10 mg/L Cr(VI) (as $\text{Na}_2\text{CrO}_4 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$) and 10 mM sodium formate as e-donor (pH 2.0 with H_2SO_4 ; 25 mL vials). Solutions used in the Cr(VI) reduction reaction were prepared aerobically, but vials were sealed with butyl-rubber stoppers and aluminum crimps to establish the micro-aerobic condition and incubated unshaken at 30°C. Samples were withdrawn with syringe needles to analyze the Cr(VI) concentration using the diphenylcarbazide method (Noroozifar and Khorasani-Motlagh 2003).

193 Result and discussion

194 Pd(II) reduction and Pd(0) bionanoparticles production by *S. tokodaii*

195 Without the addition of e-donor, an only negligible amount of Pd(II) (3-5 mg/L in 16 hours)
196 was reduced in all cases (data not shown). Use of 5 mM formate as e-donor resulted in complete
197 Pd(II) reduction (under micro-aerobic conditions) regardless of the presence/condition of the cells,
198 but with different speed; the first “induction phase” before the initiation of rapid Pd(II) reduction
199 was generally shortened by the presence of cell biomass, especially with active cells (without Cu²⁺)
200 (Fig. 1). This first “induction phase” corresponds to the period of Pd(0) crystal nucleation, which
201 takes place most effectively on the active cell surface due to the intact enzymatic activity. After
202 which, the auto-catalytic property of Pd(0) nuclei accelerates the speed of Pd(II) reduction (Pd(0)
203 crystal growth phase) (Okibe et al. 2017). Upon completion of Pd(II) reduction under each
204 condition, black cell-Pd(0) precipitates (confirmed by XRD; Fig. 2) were recovered for ultra-thin
205 section TEM observation and the following particle size analysis (Fig. 3). Pd(0) bionanoparticles
206 of relatively homogeneous size were found localized mostly on the cell surface when active cells
207 were used (Fig. 3a, b). In contrast, Pd(0) particles of diverse size were formed randomly
208 (extracellularly and intracellularly) with heat-killed cells (Fig. 3c). Partially deactivating the
209 enzymatic activity by Cu²⁺ decreased the number of Pd(0) nucleation sites, but instead increased
210 the size of individual Pd(0) bionanoparticle (Fig. 3c). Heat-kill treatment of the cells completely
211 disrupted enzymatic activities and selective cell permeability: Pd(II) ions were able to freely
212 diffuse into the cells and deformed cell components with enlarged surface area, as the scaffold for
213 Pd(0) nucleation. As a result, the Pd(II) reduction speed in heat-killed cells was even somewhat
214 higher than that in active cells with Cu²⁺ (Fig. 1). Nonetheless, the lack of intact cell functions
215 produced highly heterogeneous Pd(0) particles (Fig. 3c). In cell-free controls, the resultant Pd(0)
216 particles were highly aggregated as shown in Supplemental Fig. 1.

217 The presence of putative formate dehydrogenase enzyme (FDH) (encoded by the ST0348
218 gene; <http://www.uniprot.org/>) may be responsible for initial Pd(0) crystal nucleation in *S. tokodaii*,
219 by facilitating the production of H₂ from formate (Sinha et al. 2015) on the active cell surface. To
220 clarify the mechanism, however, further biochemistry studies are needed for the archaeal cells.

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222 **Contribution of functional groups on the *S. tokodaii* cell surface for Pd(II) biosorption and** 223 **the following Pd(0) bionanoparticles formation**

224 Overtime changes in FTIR spectra were analyzed during microbial Pd(II) reduction and
 225 Pd(0) bionanoparticles formation by *S. tokodaii* cells (Fig. 4). It was shown from zeta-potential
 226 measurement that the weakly positive cell surface charge shifted towards negative upon exposure
 227 to Pd(II) (from +3.3 to +2.4 mV at pH 2.0; Fig. 5). This implies that biosorption of negatively
 228 charged Pd(II) ions precede microbial Pd(II) reduction. Based on the spectrum of original cells (0
 229 h; Fig. 4a) the bands at 1650 and 1535 cm^{-1} resulted mainly from ν C=O and δ N-H, respectively,
 230 of amides from proteins (Goormaghtigh et al. 1994). The band at 1454 cm^{-1} is attributed to δ C-H
 231 of CH_3 and CH_2 groups, and those at 1398 and 1235 cm^{-1} are assigned to ν C-O from carboxylate
 232 groups and ν P=O of phosphodiester groups in nucleic acids and phospholipids, respectively
 233 (Giordano et al. 2001). The spectral region between 900-1200 cm^{-1} is assigned to ν C-O-C of
 234 diverse polysaccharides groups, which also derive from EPS (Extracellular Polymeric Substances)
 235 as well as surface layers (S-layers) from *Sulfolobus* spp. (Koerdts et al. 2011; Zhang et al. 2015).

236 Upon exposure to Pd(II) ions, relatively major shifts were observed with the bands at 1650,
 237 1535 and 1235 cm^{-1} towards lower energy (Fig. 4). Changes were also observed in the region
 238 between 900-1200 cm^{-1} (Fig. 4). This suggests that amide groups, which are positively charged at
 239 acidic pH, were responsible for sorption of major anionic Pd(II) species under this condition,
 240 PdCl_3^- (Colombo et al. 2008). Phosphate and polysaccharides groups may have electrically
 241 attracted minor PdCl^+ species (Colombo et al. 2008).

243 **Effect of Cl^- on Pd(0) bionanoparticles production**

244 Since the use of 5 mM formate as e-donor (as in the previous test) was shown insufficient
 245 in the presence of additional Cl^- , its concentration was increased to 10 mM this time (Fig. 6).
 246 Without extra Cl^- addition, increasing the formate concentration in active cells from 5 mM (Fig.
 247 3a) to 10 mM (Fig. 7a) upsized the Pd(0) bionanoparticles roughly by 2-fold, but instead decreased
 248 the particle density. Addition of elevating concentrations of Cl^- (0-1000 mM) increasingly
 249 prolonged the apparent “induction phase” before the initiation of rapid Pd(II) reduction (Fig. 6).
 250 This likely resulted from the form of major Pd(II) species increasingly shifting from PdCl_3^-

towards more stable PdCl_4^{2-} at higher Cl^- concentrations (Colombo et al. 2008), causing initiation of $\text{Pd}(0)$ crystal nucleation more time-consuming. Nonetheless, the following rapid $\text{Pd}(\text{II})$ reduction was triggered in all cases, except at the highest Cl^- concentration of 1000 mM (Fig. 6). TEM images revealed that this prolonged “induction phase” due to the presence of Cl^- likely allowed involvement of a sufficient number of crystal nucleation site (enzymatic sites), leading to the formation of finer and denser $\text{Pd}(0)$ bionanoparticles (Fig. 7). The smallest and densest particles (mean size = 8.7 nm; 354/cell) were recovered at 50 mM Cl^- (Fig. 8c), followed by those (mean size = 12 nm; 330/cell) at 100 mM Cl^- (Fig. 8d). The results suggest that the presence of Cl^- in the range of up to 50-100 mM do not deactivate enzymatic sites for $\text{Pd}(0)$ nucleation (Fig. 8c, d), unlike the case with Cu^{2+} (Fig. 3b). At 500-1000 mM formate, cells started to disintegrate, and no evidence of $\text{Pd}(0)$ deposition was found at 1000 mM. Overall, the enzymatic $\text{Pd}(0)$ nucleation activity of *S. tokodaii* at the expense of formate seems to be more robust than that of neutrophilic *Desulfovibrio desulfuricans* in the presence of high-concentration Cl^- (Yong et al. 2002). Therefore, by using *S. tokodaii* cells, $\text{Pd}(0)$ bionanoparticles could be recovered from acidic chloride leachates of secondary Pd sources (e.g., spent catalyst; Barakat et al. 2006) upon appropriate dilution. In abiotic studies by other groups, Cl^- was utilized to shape-control $\text{Pd}(0)$ nanoparticles (Nalajala et al. 2016) or size-control $\text{Au}(0)$ nanoparticles in the citrate reduction system (the particle size becomes larger at higher Cl^- concentrations due to the decrease of the surface charge; Zhao et al. 2012). The results in this study suggest that the effect of Cl^- can also be utilized in biological systems to size-control $\text{Pd}(0)$ nanoparticles by selecting favorable microbial strains.

Catalytic activity of $\text{Pd}(0)$ bionanoparticles

$\text{Pd}(0)$ bionanoparticles produced under different conditions were compared for their catalytic activity based on the $\text{Cr}(\text{VI})$ reduction reaction. Based on the thermogravimetric analysis (50% (w/w) $\text{Pd}(0)$ loaded on dry-cell weight; Supplemental Fig. 3), reaction mixtures were prepared to contain an equivalent amount of $\text{Pd}(0)$. Neither $\text{Pd}(0)$ bionanoparticles only nor formate only as e-donor reduced $\text{Cr}(\text{VI})$ to $\text{Cr}(\text{III})$ (data not shown). Therefore, formate decomposition via $\text{Pd}(0)$ catalyst to produce H_2 represents the effectiveness of $\text{Cr}(\text{VI})$ reduction (Okibe et al. 2017). The catalytic activity of $\text{Pd}(0)$ bionanoparticles highly depended on the particle size; those of smaller size exhibited higher specific $\text{Cr}(\text{VI})$ reduction rate (Fig. 8). The finest $\text{Pd}(0)$

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3 281 bionanoparticles produced by active cells at 50 mM Cl^- possessed the highest catalytic activity
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5 282 which was approximately 4 times greater compared to commercial Pd/C (Fig. 8; Supplemental
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7 283 Fig. 3). The results here suggested that the size of Pd(0) bionanoparticles can be manipulated by
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9 284 modifying the concentration of formate as e-donor and by use of Cu^{2+} as enzyme inhibitor (as was
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11 285 observed with Au(0) bionanoparticles; Rizki and Okibe 2018), as well as by taking advantage of
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13 286 the effect of Cl^- . This has the important implication that this approach using *S. tokodaii* cells could
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15 287 be effectively applied to actual Pd-chloride leachates even to produce Pd(0) nanoparticles of higher
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17 288 catalytic activity.

18 289 Most prokaryotes (bacteria and archaea) possess S-layers (a monomolecular planar array
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20 290 of proteinaceous subunits as the outermost component of the cell envelope). Gram-negative
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22 291 archaea including *Sulfolobus* spp. possess S-layers as the only cell-wall component external to the
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24 292 plasma membrane. While in Gram-positive bacteria and Gram-positive archaea, S-layers are found
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26 293 on the surface of the rigid wall matrix (mainly peptidoglycan and pseudopeptidoglycan,
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28 294 respectively). In Gram-negative bacteria, cell-envelope is composed of a thin peptidoglycan wall
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30 295 and an outer membrane which S-layer is attached to (Sleytr and Beveridge, 1999). In addition to
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32 296 the particle size, such differences in the cell envelope structure could affect the accessibility of the
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34 297 Pd(0) bionanoparticles catalyst to reaction substrates. Simpler and thinner archaeal cell surface
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36 298 structure may be advantageous in this regard. More studies on metal bionanoparticles using
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38 299 archaeal cells would further clarify the importance of the third domain of life in nanobiotechnology.
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Conclusion

Pd(0) bionanoparticles were effectively produced from acidic Pd(II) solution by using the thermophilic, extremely acidophilic archaeon, *S. tokodaii*. Use of enzymatically active *S. tokodaii* cells was essential to produce well-dispersed Pd(0) bionanoparticles deposited on the cell surface. The particle size could be manipulated (14-63 nm mean size) by means of modification of the formate concentration and addition of enzymatic inhibitor (Cu²⁺). The effect of additional Cl⁻ was conversely utilized to produce even finer and denser Pd(0) bionanoparticles (8.7-15 nm mean size). The finest Pd(0) bionanoparticles produced at 50 mM Cl⁻ (mean 8.7 nm; median 5.6 nm) exhibited the highest catalytic activity (4-times higher compared to commercial Pd/C). Therefore, the potential applicability of *S. tokodaii* cells in the recovery of highly-catalytic Pd(0) nanoparticles from actual acidic chloride leachate was suggested. Further studies on extreme archaea for metal bionanoparticles production may benefit the development of nanobiotechnology.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1

Pd(II) reduction to Pd(0) in *S. tokodaii* cell suspensions (● active cells, ▲ active cells + 5 mM Cu²⁺, ○ heat-killed cells; all at 1.0 x 10⁹ cell/mL) or in cell-free controls (×), under the micro-aerobic condition at 70°C, pH 2.0, in the presence of 5 mM formate as e-donor.

Figure 2

X-ray diffraction patterns of Pd(0) bionanoparticles produced by *S. tokodaii* active cells from 50 mg/L Pd(II) using 5 mM formate as e-donor. Peaks are assigned to metallic Pd(0) (JCPDS 01-087-0643).

Figure 3

TEM cross-section images of Pd(0) bionanoparticles formed on *S. tokodaii* cells at 5 mM formate, and their particle size distributions: (a) active cells (*n* = 750 in 5 cells), (b) active cells + 5 mM Cu²⁺ (*n* = 185 in 5 cells), (c) heat-killed cells (*n* = 370 in 4 cells). Arrows point extracellular Pd(0) particles (c).

Figure 4

Changes in FTIR transmission spectra of *S. tokodaii* active cells incubated with 50 mg/L Pd(II) for 0 h (a), 1 h (b), 5 h (c) or 10 h (d) at 70°C, pH 2.0.

Figure 5

Zeta-potential measurement of *S. tokodaii* cells at acidic pHs, with or without exposure to 50 mg/L Pd(II).

477

478 **Figure 6**

479 Pd(II) reduction to Pd(0) in *S. tokodaii* active cell suspensions (1.0×10^9 cell/mL), under the micro-
 480 aerobic condition at 70°C, pH 2.0, in the presence of 10 mM formate as e-donor. NaCl was added
 481 at 0 mM (●), 10 mM (■), 50 mM (▲), 100 mM (▼), 500 mM (◆) or 1000 mM (×).

482

483 **Figure 7**

484 TEM cross-section images of Pd(0) bionanoparticles formed on active *S. tokodaii* cells at 10 mM
 485 formate, and their particle size distributions: (a) 0 mM NaCl ($n = 404$ in 4 cells), (b) 10 mM NaCl
 486 ($n = 1212$ in 4 cells), (c) 50 mM NaCl ($n = 1416$ in 4 cells), (d) 100 mM NaCl ($n = 1320$ in 4 cells).

487

488 **Figure 8**

489 Comparison of the catalytic activity (based on the specific Cr(VI) reduction rate) of Pd(0)
 490 bionanoparticles (a-h) and commercial Pd/C catalyst (i). Pd(0) bionanoparticles were produced by
 491 *S. tokodaii* in the presence of either 5 mM formate (a-d) or 10 mM formate (e-h), under different
 492 conditions: (a) active cells, (b) active cells + Cu^{2+} , (c) heat-killed cells, (d) cell-free controls, (e)
 493 active cells, (f) active cells + 10 mM Cl^- , (g) active cells + 50 mM Cl^- , (h) active cells + 100 mM
 494 Cl^- . (a-h) Mean and median particle sizes of Pd(0) nanoparticles are indicated. (h) The mean
 495 particle size of Pd/C catalyst is cited from Yang et al. 2018. The specific Cr(IV) reduction rate was
 496 calculated for the time interval of 0-5 h (a), 0-30 h (b), 0-30 h (c), 0-48 h (d), 0-10 h (e), 0-9 h (f),
 497 0-1 h (g), 0-4 h (h) and 0-4 h (i) (Supplemental Fig. 3). As e-donor for Cr(VI) reduction, 10 mM
 498 formate was used in all cases.

500 Supplemental Figure 1

501 SEM image of Pd(0) precipitates formed in cell-free controls

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Supplemental Figure 2

Thermogravimetry analysis of Pd(0) bionanoparticles.

Supplemental Figure 3

Comparison of the catalytic activity (based on the specific Cr(VI) reduction rate) of Pd(0) bionanoparticles (a-h) and commercial Pd/C catalyst (i). Pd(0) bionanoparticles were produced by *S. tokodaii* in the presence of either 5 mM formate (a-d) or 10 mM formate (e-h), under different conditions: (a) active cells, (b) active cells + Cu²⁺, (c) heat-killed cells, (d) cell-free controls, (e) active cells, (f) active cells + 10 mM Cl⁻, (g) active cells + 50 mM Cl⁻, (h) active cells + 100 mM Cl⁻. The specific Cr(IV) reduction rates in Fig. 8 were calculated for the time interval of 0-5 h (a), 0-30 h (b), 0-30 h (c), 0-48 h (d), 0-10 h (e), 0-9 h (f), 0-1 h (g), 0-4 h (h) and 0-4 h (i). As e-donor for Cr(VI) reduction, 10 mM formate was used in all cases.

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