

19 **Abstract**

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21 Mineral-microbe interaction has been a key factor shaping the lithosphere of our planet since the
22 Precambrian. Detailed investigation has been mainly focused on the role of bioweathering in
23 biomining processes, leading to the selection of highly efficient microbial inoculants for the
24 recovery of metals. Here we expand this scenario, presenting additional applications of bacteria and
25 fungi in mineral dissolution, a process with novel biotechnological potential that has been poorly
26 investigated. The ability of microorganisms to trigger soil formation and to sustain plant
27 establishment and growth are suggested as invaluable tools to counteract the expansion of arid lands
28 and to increase crop productivity. Furthermore, interesting exploitations of mineral weathering
29 microbes are represented by bioremediation and bioremediation technologies, innovative and
30 competitive solutions characterized by economical and environmental advantages. Overall, in the
31 future the study and application of the metabolic properties of microbial communities capable of
32 weathering can represent a driving force in the expanding sector of environmental biotechnology.

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34 **Keyword:** mineral weathering, biomining, soil genesis, plant growth promotion, bioremediation,
35 bioremediation

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37 **1. Introduction**

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39 Bioweathering has been defined as the dissolution of rocks and mineral substrates carried out by
40 microorganisms and plants through mechanical and chemical processes (Gadd, 2007). Microbial
41 mineral weathering has been extensively studied on the role played by bacteria in biomining, a
42 biotechnological method for the extraction and recovery of metals from ores (Rawlings and
43 Johnson, 2007). Bioweathering is not only a key process that impacted the evolution of the Earth's
44 surface over geological time but it also affects human life through its influence on water quality,
45 soil development and agriculture, as well as monuments and statues preservation. Microbes interact
46 with minerals as a strategy to colonize and exploit habitats where the environmental parameters
47 disadvantage other microorganisms (Ehrlich, 1996) and they show the ability to scavenge essential
48 elements that have poor bioavailability, such as iron and phosphorus.

49 The need to increase soil fertility and crop productivity, especially in arid lands, to remediate
50 contaminated soils, to clean stone artworks and buildings exist. A deeper insight into the ecology of
51 mineral weathering processes mediated by the microbiome may represent a real opportunity for
52 researchers to design innovative solutions to emerging problems in agriculture, the environment and
53 the industry. By developing the so called "Microbial Resource Management" strategy (Vestraete,
54 2007) mainly based on the enhancement of the natural functional ability of the residing microbial
55 communities, scientists will promote an environmental-friendly use of biotechnology.

56 In this review we discuss the importance of bioweathering in different artificial and natural
57 ecosystems, evaluating its potential in soil fertility, plant growth promotion, bioremediation and
58 bioremediation of inorganic pollutants.

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61 **2. The ecology of microbial consortia involved in biomining processes**

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63 In the past the mobilization of metals from minerals in nature was thought to be an abiotic process
64 and only in the 1950's the first acidophilic iron and sulfur-oxidizing bacteria were isolated from
65 acid mine drainage (Colmer et al., 1950). Starting from the second half of the last century the
66 capability of microorganisms to promote the solubilization of various metals from minerals has
67 been studied in detail, and research has been economically sustained also in the light of the
68 commercial interests behind the mineral bioprocessing operations (Fig. 1a). Most of our knowledge
69 about ecological interactions and biodiversity of microbes involved in mineral weathering derives
70 thus from the study of biomining plants and acid mine effluents.

71 Compared to traditional methods, biomining allows to process deposits characterized by low metal
72 concentration and to decrease energy consumption and the amount of chemical waste (Johnson,
73 2008), which dramatic consequences on the environment are well known worldwide (Haferburg and
74 Kothe, 2010 and references therein). The low pH of bioleachate fluids, their elevated concentration
75 of metals and the high temperature achieved during mineral oxidation reactions (Okibe and
76 Johnson, 2004) make biomining reactors a highly selective habitat where only thermophilic and
77 thermotolerant acidophilic prokaryotes thrive. The biodiversity of microbial communities involved
78 in bioprocessing is strongly correlated with the selected industrial option. During biooxidation
79 processes conducted in stirred tanks, temperature, pH, oxygen concentration and other parameters
80 can be efficiently directed. The uniform conditions established in biooxidation tanks determine a
81 low degree of species richness. The continuous flow nature of the process indicated that cell
82 division time is a crucial factor for prokaryotes to dominate the microbial community (Rawlings
83 and Johnson, 2007). The most common microorganisms involved in the biomining processes are
84 bacterial species of the genera *Acidithiobacillus* and *Leptospirillum*, representatives of the Archaea
85 genus *Ferroplasma* and few bacterial species belonging to the order *Sulfolobales* (Johnson, 2008).
86 Combining culture dependent and independent analyses, Okibe and Johnson (2004) identified the
87 most efficient microbial consortium for pyrite oxidation in a mixed culture of moderately
88 thermophilic acidophiles. A consortium comprising *Acidithiobacillus ferrooxidans*,

89 *Acidithiobacillus caldus* and *Leptospirillum ferriphilum* enhanced pyrite dissolution compared to
90 pure bacterial cultures or mixed cultures comprising two of the three strains. Denaturing Gradient
91 Gel Electrophoresis (DGGE), a useful tool for the investigation of the microbiome composition and
92 its evolution over time and space, was applied to monitor changes of the bacterial community
93 structure during bioleaching operations (He et al., 2010). It is interesting to note that these data
94 confirmed *Acidithiobacillus* and *Leptospirillum* spp. as the prevailing microbes retrieved during the
95 final stages of pyrite bioleaching processes. Moreover, the study of ecological interactions within
96 acidophilic mineral-oxidizing consortia showed that iron- and sulfur-oxidizing bacteria belonging to
97 the genus *Sulfobacillus* likely play a secondary role in mineral oxidation but are extremely
98 important in the regulation of organic carbon compounds levels (Nanchuqueo and Johnson 2009).
99 Chemoautotrophic acidophiles such as *Leptospirillum* spp. are very sensitive to low-molecular
100 weight molecules, abundant products in the culture of actively growing acidophilic
101 chemolithotrophic bacteria (Borichewsky, 1967; Schnaitman and Lundgren, 1965). The ability of
102 *Sulfobacillus* spp. to scavenge glycolic acid through their metabolism emphasized the relevance of
103 ecological relationships established during bioleaching (Nanchuqueo and Johnson 2009). The
104 genetic approach as well was fundamental in the explanation of microbial adaptation to adverse
105 conditions occurring during the biooxidation of arsenic-containing ores. Genes encoding for
106 enzymes involved in arsenic resistance have been recently identified in the genome of *Sulfobacillus*
107 *thermosulfidooxidans* (van der Merwe et al., 2010). Furthermore a microbial consortium formed by
108 *Acidithiobacillus caldus* and *Leptospirillum ferriphilum* showed the presence of rare transposons
109 containing genes for resistance to high arsenic level that were absent in less resistant strains of the
110 same species (Tuffin et al., 2005; Tuffin et al., 2006). Biooxidation can be accomplished also in
111 heap leaching, and it is widely applied to low value minerals. In this kind of facilities only a partial
112 control on the operational parameters can be reached, determining changes of the irrigation
113 efficiency, nutrients and oxygen availability, pH, redox potential and temperature (Johnson, 2008;
114 Rawlings and Johnson, 2007). The high number of microhabitats in heap leaching results in a

115 greater biodiversity compared to the biooxidation ones and the microbiome composition can vary
116 according to the fluctuations of the physico-chemical parameters. Moreover, the fitness of
117 prokaryotes in heap leaching depends on their ability to adhere on the surface of the minerals and
118 form biofilms (Sand and Gehrke, 2006). The presence of quorum sensing-signaling molecules
119 involved in biofilm formation has been indeed reported in *Acidithiobacillus* and *Leptospirillum* spp.
120 (Rivas et al., 2007; Ruiz et al., 2008) whereas they could not be detected in the biofilm forming
121 acidophile archaeon *Ferroplasma acidarmus* (Baker-Austin et al., 2010). Many efforts have been
122 focused on the identification of the ideal microbial consortium in order to obtain the best
123 bioleaching performances. Some commercial artificial inocula are formulated by mesophilic,
124 moderately thermophilic and extremely thermophilic prokaryotes. A second opportunity consists in
125 the natural selection of the consortium inside the industrial plant and the use of the drainage fluids
126 as an inoculum for a new reactor (Rawlings and Johnson, 2007).

127 Due to its importance and ubiquity in biomining processes *Acidithiobacillus ferrooxidans* was the
128 first extreme acidophile which genome has been fully sequenced (Selkov et al., 2000) and available
129 genomic information about this species is constantly increasing. In the future bioinformatic tools
130 could unravel the unknown properties of acidophilic proteins codified by the key actors of
131 biomining processes, possibly resulting in their enhanced effectiveness and in the exploitation of
132 this huge biotechnological reservoir (Cardenas et al., 2010).

133 Besides biomining processes, bioweathering is nevertheless occurring in many natural
134 environments less extensively studied. The microbial communities implicated in such processes
135 have wider diversity, due to the heterogeneous physico-chemical conditions, and are still poorly
136 described (Balloi et al., 2010; Borin et al., 2009; Cappitelli et al., 2010).

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139 **3. Importance of microorganisms in mediating mineral weathering**

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141 The importance of bioweathering during vital ecological processes such as soil formation and plant
142 growth promotion has been recognised in different climates and geographical areas (Egamberdieva
143 et al., 2008; Gulati et al., 2008; Khan et al., 2009 and references therein; Mapelli et al., 2011;
144 Siddikee et al., 2010). Since the ongoing climate changes are leading to an increase of arid lands on
145 Earth, in the present review a special attention will be devoted to these type of ecosystems.
146 Especially, in cold deserts and lands subjected to desertification the processes of soil formation and
147 regression are primarily affected by mineral bioweathering, due to the lower extent of the organic
148 fraction in maintaining soil properties.

149

150 3.1 The role of bioweathering in soil development

151

152 Rocks are normally made by a combination of one or more minerals in different proportions.
153 Weathering is dependent on climate and may be increase due to acid rains and air pollution (Goudie
154 and Parker, 1999). Mineral particles also can be exploited by microbial metabolism as a source of
155 energy, e.g. as terminal electron acceptor or for microorganisms' nutrient requirements (Ehrlich,
156 1996). Soil is a biologically active mixture of weathered rock fragments and organic compounds
157 (Gadd, 2007). The stability and genesis of soil aggregates is directly linked to the clay mineralogy
158 and dissolution processes (Denef et al., 2005) and the presence of binding factors such as plant root
159 exudates, fungal hyphae (Rillig and Mummey, 2006) and extracellular polysaccharides produced by
160 the photosynthetic activity of cyanobacteria (Mager and Thomas, 2010). Fungi, which importance
161 has been demonstrated applying fungicide molecules, weather rocks both mechanically and through
162 the production of exopolysaccharides (Tang et al., 2011) and their contribution to sand particles
163 aggregation has been experimentally tested (Degens et al., 1995). Moreover glomalin and glomalin-
164 related proteins produced by fungal hyphae have been positively correlated with soil structure
165 (Rillig and Mummey, 2006). The factors influencing soil development and starting pedogenesis,
166 especially in arid regions, are still poorly understood. Cold and hot deserts indeed are key biomes

167 for the elucidation of soil genesis processes, comprising those sites where both the positive aspects
168 of pedogenesis and the negative effects of soil regression into desert landscapes take place. Mineral
169 dissolution occurs in hot and cold arid lands, where it enhances water and nutrients availability in
170 soils resulting in increased fertility (Fig. 1b) (Borin et al., 2009; Puente et al., 2004b). Lichens are
171 important players implicated in rock weathering and their occurrence has been extensively reported
172 in biological soil crusts present in hot and cold desert regions (Belnap and Lange, 2003; Jie and
173 Blume, 2002). As stated for fungi, lichen mediated mineral dissolution is performed through both
174 physical and chemical actions (Jie and Blume, 2002). Moreover, humic substances are among the
175 main constituents of soil organic matter, which decomposition is a prerequisite for pedogenesis, and
176 are divided in fulvic and humic acids and humin according to their level of recalcitrance
177 (Konhauser, 2007). The structure of humic substance aggregates in soil can influence their
178 accessibility to microbes, affecting in turn the level of organic matter degradation in different type
179 of soils (Myneni et al., 1999). The roles of plant roots (Angers and Caron, 1998; Bashan et al.,
180 2002; Bashan et al., 2006) and their associated microflora (Puente et al., 2004a; Uroz et al., 2007) in
181 soil genesis and the improvement of soil structure are well known. The ability to grow on rocky
182 soilless substrates and the occurrence of plant-microbe symbiosis have been described for several
183 cacti and desert plants. The first report about rock colonising trees regards the species *Pachycormus*
184 *discolor*, observed in the desertic area of Baja California, in Mexico (Bashan et al., 2006). The roots
185 of this pioneering plant, able to grow in an ecosystem characterized by poor water availability and
186 high temperature, penetrate into the volcanic rocks and are responsible for their weathering (Bashan
187 et al., 2006). The tight interplay between rhizospheric and endophytic bacteria and cacti has been
188 studied in detail in *Pachycereus pringlei* and *Mammillaria fraileana*, two endemic species of the
189 Baja California region (Puente et al., 2009a; Puente et al., 2009b; Lopez et al, 2011). The ability of
190 endophytic bacteria to colonize different portions of *Mammillaria fraileana* once re-inoculated in
191 the cactus was demonstrated (Lopez et al, 2011). Overall, the association occurring between

192 microbes and first colonizer plants plays a critical function in the recovery of essential elements
193 from barren rocks, triggering the natural succession process and counteracting land erosion.
194 Only few studies focused nevertheless on the microbially mediated mineral weathering before plant
195 establishment. Investigation of weathering process rates is important in measuring the release of
196 nutrients during primary succession (Mavris et al., 2010). The analysis of chronosequences on the
197 forefront of receding glaciers was proposed as a useful tool to calculate short- and long-term
198 weathering rates and to describe soil formation after glacier retreat (Egli et al., 2003). Glacier
199 moraines are ideal environments to assess the factors driving the first stages of soil genesis from
200 mineral proto-soil released by the ice, and different studies have been reported in alpine (Frey et al.,
201 2010) and arctic regions (Borin et al., 2009; Mapelli et al., 2010). Moreover, due to global warming,
202 additional areas will become uncovered by ice and subjected to weathering and soil formation.
203 Borin and co-workers (2009) recently described a new time-independent model for soil
204 development and plant biocoenosis establishment driven by iron weathering in the forefield of the
205 Midtre Lovénbreen glacier (Svalbard islands 78°53'N). In the site ML-RS1, estimated to be
206 released by ice about 27 years ago (Hodkinson et al., 2003), several spots densely colonized by
207 typical moraine mosses and vascular plants were detected at the border of a red weathering area
208 departing from a conglomerate rock rich in pyrite (Borin et al., 2009). The constant pyrite input
209 downstream the rock, led by its progressive disaggregation due to the winter freezing, permitted to a
210 chemolithoautotrophic bacterial community to flourish. The oxidation of ferrous iron released from
211 pyrite decreased soil pH and produced jarosite and ferric oxy-hydroxides which were responsible
212 for the higher soil crust specific area, water holding capacity and cation exchange capacity in
213 surrounding vegetated area, fundamental to support improved conditions for plant growth in the
214 desert ecosystem of Svalbard islands (Borin et al., 2009). The low pH occurring in the weathered
215 area represented a strong selective force that allowed only specific adapted populations to survive in
216 this ecological niche, as previously reported in artificial ecosystems like biomining plants. The
217 weathered area showed indeed the lowest bacterial diversity value in terms of operational

218 taxonomic unit (OTU, defined at the genus level), Shannon index and Evenness (Mapelli et al.,
219 2010). The metabolisms of *Acidithiobacillus ferrooxidans*, recently renamed *A. ferrivorans*
220 according to the classification proposed by Hallber et al. (2010), was suggested as the main
221 responsible for the high iron oxidation activity in the weathered area, since it was isolated from both
222 stone and weathered soil (Borin et al., 2009). In spite of the same range of biodiversity degree, the
223 phylogenetic composition of the microbiome clearly distinguished the vegetated area and the barren
224 moraine (Mapelli et al., 2010). The former showed lower pH (the pH of the barren moraine is above
225 8) and hosted taxa normally found in mature soils and typical of the rhizosphere.

226 A different process of soil development was described for the Clarens formation in South Africa,
227 affected by a strong desquamation of the upper stone parts, where the endolithic cyanobacterial
228 communities contributed to the silica dissolution through substratum alkalinization (Büdel et al.,
229 2004). Silicate minerals are major components of natural rocks, such as sandstone and granite, and
230 their chemical weathering has been suggested to be significantly enhanced under biotic conditions
231 (Schwartzman and Volk, 1989). In the Clarence sandstone formation, the increase of pH up to 11 in
232 the endolithic growth zone massively colonized by cyanobacteria, not only enhanced silica
233 weathering but also helped to reduce carbonate precipitation. As a result of this phototroph-
234 mediated bioweathering the upper portion of the stone was eroded away from wind and water flow
235 (Büdel et al., 2004). The world-wide diffusion of cyanobacterial soil crusts in hot and cold deserts
236 indicates the bioalkalinization activity as an important factor affecting the soil formation in these
237 biomes. Together with nitrogen fixation activity and production of exopolysaccharides,
238 cyanobacteria bioalkalinization contributes to maintain soil stability (Bashan et al.,2010).

239 Established and putative bacterial mineral dissolution mechanisms comprise nevertheless other
240 processes like oxidoreduction reactions, organic acid and chelating molecules production (Uroz et
241 al., 2009). *In vitro* functional experiments on the weathering potential of bacterial strains isolated
242 from previously glaciated areas were performed by Frey et al. (2010) to clarify the mechanisms
243 adopted during mineral dissolution. The weathering ability was tested on bacteria isolated from

244 granitic rocks collected in the forefront of the Damma glacier, in the Swiss Alps. The four most
245 efficient isolates in terms of granite dissolution were able to adhere to the surface of the mineral
246 particles, to produce both oxalic acid and cyanide, the latter a commonly used compound during
247 biooxidation, and to decrease the pH of the culture media during the first days of growth (Frey et
248 al., 2010). The isolates, identified as *Arthrobacter* sp., *Polaromonas* sp., *Leifsonia* sp. and
249 *Janthinobacterium* sp., belong to the Actinobacteria and Betaproteobacteria classes, previously
250 reported to enhance mineral dissolution (Abdulla et al., 2009; Uroz et al., 2009), and displayed an
251 accelerated mobilization from granite of key elements for soil fertility such as iron, magnesium and
252 potassium.

253 Mineral weathering abilities of bacteria that firstly colonize barren mineral substrates play a
254 fundamental role in soil genesis. Further ecological and quantitative studies will allow estimating
255 the impact of bioweathering on soil genesis and establishment of plant biocoenosis in extremely
256 arid ecosystems.

257

258 3.2 Effects of mineral dissolution on plant growth

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260 Minerals are the primary source of inorganic nutrients in soils, where the weathering activity of
261 both plant roots and microorganisms is crucial for plant establishment and growth, especially in
262 nutrient poor ecosystems (Fig. 1c). Fungi are involved in the degradation of organic matter and the
263 subsequent production of newly formed compounds released as dissolved organic carbon in soil
264 matrices, where the fungal activity enhance metal release from the immobilized forms (Wengel et
265 al., 2006). Mineral weathering is accelerated in the rhizosphere rather than in bulk soil far from
266 plant influence (Uroz et al., 2010). However, it is not easy to distinguish the relative contribution of
267 roots from their rhizosphere associated weathering microbes in the improvement of plant nutrition.
268 Pioneering plants can enhance soil structure by means of growing roots penetration and exudate
269 release (Bashan et al., 2002; Bashan et al., 2006). A further contribute is given by highly abundant

270 and diverse microbial communities inhabiting the rhizosphere of different plants that were
271 demonstrated to display the ability to increase nutrients availability by means of their bioweathering
272 activity (Calvaruso et al., 2006; Carrillo-Garcia et al., 1999; Puente et al., 2004a). Microorganisms
273 impact mineral dissolution through acidification and complexation processes, sometimes exploiting
274 both the strategies simultaneously. Microbes can alter the rhizosphere pH secreting low-molecular
275 weight organic compounds and can also produce chelating molecules, such as siderophores with a
276 very high affinity for iron. Both gram-positive and gram-negative bacteria, mycorrhizal and non-
277 mycorrhizal fungi are able to weather poorly soluble phosphorous compounds and to increase the
278 dissolution of silicates (Uroz et al., 2007). Phosphorous is an abundant element in many soil types,
279 nevertheless it often limits plant growth because it is generally present in organic and inorganic
280 insoluble forms that require bacterial and fungal solubilizing activity to become available for plant
281 nutrition (Altomare et al., 1999; Raddadi et al., 2007). The inoculation of chickpea plants with
282 phosphate-solubilizing fungi belonging to *Aspergillus awamori* and *Penicillium citrinum* species
283 showed positive effect on plant development and yield (Mittal et al., 2008). Phosphate
284 solubilization ability is a widespread plant growth promotion trait detected in bacterial isolates from
285 different plants such as maize and sunflower grown in arid land in India (Sandhya et al., 2010).
286 Several bacteria were isolated by Puente et al. (2004b) from the rhizoplane of the giant cactus
287 *Pachycereus pringlei* and the ability to solubilize powdered igneous rocks *in vitro* was investigated.
288 Four rhizobacteria, belonging to the genera *Bacillus* and *Citrobacter*, showed the ability to weather
289 igneous rocks supplying inorganic nutrients for cacti. This ability could be exploited to promote
290 plant growth in environments characterized by harsh conditions similar to those of Baja California
291 Sur, in Mexico (Bashan et al., 2002; Lopez et al., 2009). Recently, the presence of nitrogen fixing
292 endophytic bacteria able to solubilize phosphates and weather several nutrients from rocks has been
293 reported in roots of cacti growing without connection to soil in the same area of Mexico (Puente et
294 al., 2009b). The bacteria were also detected in cactus seeds where they positively influenced the
295 seedling in dry hot soils. It seems thus that bacteria capable of mineral weathering play a

296 fundamental role during the whole cacti life cycle, sustaining nutrition requirements of these
297 primary colonizer plants (Puentes et al., 2004a; Puentes et al., 2009b) and improving soil structure
298 that can also benefit other plant species.

299 In arid ecosystems many desert plants are known to be mycorrhizal (Carrillo-Garcia et al., 1999).
300 Mycorrhizae stimulate plant growth providing their hosts an increased uptake of water and essential
301 elements, and improve soil fertility through the penetration action of their hyphae. Moreover
302 mycorrhizal fungi are known to live associated to bacterial communities, exerting a selective
303 pressure on their associated microbiome with the described bioweathering potential (Calvaruso et
304 al., 2010). The importance of bioweathering in plant nutrition is not limited to arid lands and has a
305 great significance also in forest ecosystems, quite often located in acidic and nutrient poor soils. To
306 assess the relative contribution to mineral dissolution of plant roots and of bacteria associated to the
307 mycorrhizosphere of the fungus *Scleroderma citrinum*, Calvaruso and co-workers (2006) set up an
308 experiment using a growth chamber, associating pine seedling with different *Burkholderia glathei*
309 strains. They determined a strong increase of biotite weathering in presence of pine roots in
310 comparison to the abiotic control. Biotite is a widespread mineral in soils and its mobilization rate
311 changed using different strains, even if they showed the same degree of activity during *in vitro* tests,
312 highlighting the importance of multitrophic interactions between the key actors of plant nutrition:
313 plant roots, mycorrhizae and bacteria (Calvaruso et al., 2006). In addition, weathering mechanisms
314 in natural ecosystems are affected by the reactivity of the mineral surface area, that in turn depends
315 on microstructural parameters such as mineral grain sizes (Pollok et al., 2008). In a similar study
316 Uroz et al. (2007) measured the release of iron from biotite and showed that the most efficient
317 bacteria in terms of weathering activity belonged to the genera *Collimonas* and *Burkholderia* and
318 were more abundant in the oak and beech-associated mycorrhizospheres than in the bulk soil
319 (Calvaruso et al., 2010; Uroz et al., 2007). *Collimonas* spp. are widespread in oligotrophic habitats
320 and have been recently shown to mobilize iron from biotite both through acidification and the
321 production of hydroxamate- and catechol-type siderophores. The mineral weathering potential has

322 hence been proposed as a functional feature of this genus (Uroz et al., 2009), nonetheless the ability
323 of different bacterial genera to affect biotite dissolution has been determined experimentally (Hopf
324 et al., 2009). Siderophores are specifically produced in response of iron deficiency but can complex
325 a number of trivalent and divalent cations, fundamental for the dissolution of several soil minerals
326 such as goetite, hematite and hornblende (Konhauser, 2007). Iron bioavailability limits the primary
327 productivity in different ecosystems and it has been shown that natural iron fertilization positively
328 influences the carbon uptake of phototrophic microorganisms, sustaining the flourishing of
329 phytoplankton in the iron depleted waters of the Southern Ocean (Blain et al., 2007). Although soil
330 represents a totally different ecosystem, the role of bacteria in iron acquisition by plants is well
331 known (Borin et al., 2009; Raddadi et al., 2007). Iron assimilated by plants is often delivered to the
332 root as a chelating complex formed by ferrous iron and siderophores produced by bacteria. Dimkpa
333 and coauthors studied in detail the role of siderophores in plant growth promotion of different plant
334 species growing in soils characterized by high concentration of toxic metals. Their results showed
335 that siderophores containing crude culture filtrates supported cowpea growth in contaminated soil
336 by a simultaneous enhancement of iron solubilization and attenuation of nickel uptake (Dimkpa et
337 al, 2008a). Siderophores also play a crucial role in the regulation of auxin level in plant growing in
338 metal polluted soils: here, microbially produced siderophores were demonstrated to bind the toxic
339 metals, decreasing free metals concentration and thus attenuating their inhibition of auxin synthethis
340 (Dimkpa et al, 2008 a; Dimkpa et al, 2008 b). Efficient mineral weathering microorganisms, such as
341 those able to solubilize phosphorous and iron from their immobilized mineral reservoir, have been
342 utilized as inoculants during the restoration of arid lands (Bashan et al., 2009; Puente et al., 2004a;
343 Puente et al., 2009b) and mine tailings (de-Bashan et al., 2010) on different type of cacti and desert
344 shrub. In both cases weathering bacteria demonstrated to promote plant growth and showed
345 rhizosphere fitness, an essential trait for the positive result of the inoculation treatment (de-Bashan
346 et al., 2010).

347 Despite the great potential of transgenic plants, in many countries the public opinion is asking the
348 research community to develop sustainable practices in agriculture, setting up problem solving
349 strategies without the spread of genetically modified organisms (GMO) in the environment. In this
350 frame, the exploitation of mineral weathering microorganisms able to promote seedling
351 establishment and plant growth is a promising tool that in the future may lower the environmental
352 pollution reducing the intensive use of chemical pesticides in fields and water waste in agriculture,
353 thus contributing to maintain biodiversity and natural resources essential to food production
354 (www.fao.org).

355

356 3.3 Impacts of weathering on cultural heritage conservation

357

358 Weathering includes key processes for stone artworks conservation. Deterioration of cultural
359 heritage, especially outdoor, is the result of the combined actions of different abiotic and biotic
360 factors, such as the exposure to weather conditions and polluted environments as well as the
361 degrading activity of microorganisms. Microbial deterioration, defined as any undesirable change in
362 the properties of a material caused by the activities of microorganisms, plays a significant role in
363 the decay of a wide range of cultural heritage items: historic monuments, sculptures, photographs,
364 frescoes, paintings, paper and contemporary artworks (Cappitelli et al., 2006; Cappitelli et al., 2007;
365 Cappitelli et al., 2009; Cappitelli et al., 2010; Ioanid et al., 2010; Milanesi et al., 2009; Polo et al.,
366 2010). Stone is a widely employed material for monuments and sculptures. Stone decay, which
367 comprises both *in situ* degradation and the removal of weathering products, begins from the
368 moment in which the stone is incorporated into works of art, in the same way as, in nature, rocks are
369 weathered during soil formation process. Bacteria, fungi, algae and lichens contribute to stonework
370 damage through weathering processes, physical disruption through penetration into the material,
371 and aesthetic damage (Fernandes, 2006). Stone dissolution can be due to the nitric and nitrous acids
372 produced by *Nitromonas* and *Nitrobacter* spp. as well as to the sulfuric acid secreted by

373 *Acidithiobacillus* spp. Besides chemolithoautotrophs, other microorganisms are able to remove
374 cations like iron and manganese from the stone (Fernandes, 2006). Cyanobacteria can release
375 chelating organic molecules, favor calcite dissolution of calcareous stone, live and actively create
376 cavities inside the stone, and stain the substratum through the production of pigments (Crispim and
377 Gaylarde, 2005). Nowadays prevention is preferred to intervention actions and research has been
378 devoted to predict the microbial risk to stone cultural heritage. In this respect a new index of Lichen
379 Potential Biodeteriogenic Activity has been proposed to evaluate lichen overall impact on stone
380 cultural heritage (Gazzano et al., 2009). One of the most important drivers of biodeterioration is the
381 capacity of bacteria to grow as biofilm. The different biofilm pigmentation observed on the surface
382 of monuments around the world is partially due to the diverse climates and the time of exposure to
383 such climatic conditions. Indeed, even though at variable extents, these factors affect the
384 composition of the dominant microbial population (Gorbushina et al., 2009). Strategies to prevent
385 alteration may avoid microbial adhesion to the surface and repress intercellular communication
386 involved in biofilm formation (Cappitelli et al., 2006). In addition, it is important to avoid certain
387 synthetic materials applied on stone sculptures and monuments as preserving substances from
388 physico-chemical damage, since they might support microbial growth and consequently promote
389 further deterioration of the material (Cappitelli et al., 2007).

390 Although microorganisms are generally associated with detrimental effects on stone, it has been
391 recently seen that their weathering activity can be used for the removal of harmful compounds on
392 cultural heritage objects (Fig. 1d). An effective biocleaning treatment exploits the ability of sulfate-
393 reducing bacteria to reduce sulfate to gaseous hydrogen sulfide removing black crusts. These
394 pigmented crusts are a deteriorated surface layer of stone material spontaneously formed from the
395 interaction between a calcareous substratum and the polluted atmosphere in a humid environment,
396 resulting in the chemical transformation of the substrate (calcite) into gypsum. The activity of
397 bacteria such as *Desulfovibrio vulgaris* was recently tested on the Demetra and Cronos sculptures of
398 the Buonconsiglio castle in Trento resulting in the homogeneous dissolution and removal of black

399 crusts (Polo et al., 2010). With the same mechanism, denitrifying bacteria could be applied for the
400 removal of nitrate alterations (Alfano et al., 2011). The patent based on the use of microorganisms
401 for the biocleaning of cultural heritage has been acquired and commercially exploited by the Italian
402 spin-off company Micro4yoU. Microorganisms actively assist the formation of a variety of
403 minerals, including calcium carbonate (Verrechia et al., 2003). Many researchers have proposed
404 carbonate mineralization by calcifying bacteria as a method to protect monuments and sculptures
405 made of carbonate stone. The first was the team of Gauri and Atlas who, using *Desulfovibrio*
406 *desulfuricans* to remove black crusts from stone, also evidenced the effects of biocalcification
407 (Atlas et al., 1988; Gauri and Chowdhury, 1988). The same process, based on the use of *Bacillus*
408 *cereus*, led to the creation of the French enterprise Calcite (Le Metayer-Levrel et al., 1999).
409 Thanks to its powerful and non-invasive nature, bioremediation of weathered historic stoneworks is
410 of great interest in the ambit of cultural heritage conservation and a tight collaboration between
411 microbiologists and conservators is desirable. Along with this, efforts are being made to develop
412 and implement methodologies aimed at preventing bioweathering phenomena caused by
413 biodeteriogen agents.

414

415 3.4 Application of bioweathering in bioremediation procedures

416

417 The ability of microorganisms to grow using various molecules naturally occurring as pollutants is
418 the driving force of bioremediation. In different natural habitats, such as serpentine soils, microbes
419 are in contact with remarkable high concentration of metals, and they evolved resistance strategies
420 that permit them to flourish under harsh conditions (Haferburg and Kothe, 2007 and references
421 therein). In the phytoremediation of metal contaminated soils, it is possible to take advantage of the
422 positive interactions of plants and their associated rhizospheric microorganisms (Fig. 1e), the so-
423 called “rhizoremediation” (Gerhardt et al., 2009). Mycorrhizae, in particular those isolated from
424 metalliferous sites, boost phytoextraction directly or indirectly by increasing plant development

425 (Azcón et al., 2010), reducing metal induced toxicity (Meier et al., 2011) and enhancing plant
426 bioaccumulation of metals (Ma et al., 2009). The efficiency of pollutant uptake in plants is affected
427 by bioavailability, a parameter that can be greatly enhanced by the metabolic activity of bacteria
428 and fungi inhabiting the rhizosphere. Root associated microbiome adopts several mechanisms to
429 trigger metal mobilization and immobilization, respectively, in phytoextraction and
430 phytostabilization technologies (Ma et al., 2011 and references therein). The importance of
431 microbes in phytoremediation and restoration strategies has been widely investigated. The
432 inoculation of Glomeromycota fungi isolated from metal polluted soils mitigated oxidative stress
433 commonly occurring in plants during metal reclamation treatments (Meier et al., 2011). During
434 greenhouse experiments, the inoculation of *Trifolium repens* growing in a metal polluted soil with
435 pure or mixed microbial cultures of *Bacillus cereus*, *Candida parapsilosis* and mycorrhizal fungi
436 resulted in the increase of plant biomass and established symbiotic association (Azcón et al., 2010).
437 The tested bacterium and yeast, previously isolated in the same soil utilized in the above-mentioned
438 study, showed the best weathering activity for different heavy metals (Azcón et al., 2010).
439 Bacterially produced siderophores have been recently proposed as valuable substitute of not easily
440 degradable chelating molecules commonly used to improve phytoremediation of soil polluted by
441 toxic metals. Due to the dual role of siderophores, the increase of plant growth and biomass and the
442 enhanced solubilization of metals, siderophores treated sunflower plants showed the best cadmium
443 extraction levels compared to EDTA-treated plant (Dimkpa et al., 2009). Furthermore, a nitrogen
444 fixing rhizobacterium capable of rock weathering and isolated from cactus, promoted plant growth
445 of desert shrub in acidic soil with high metal concentration (de-Bashan et al., 2010).

446 Continuous industrial progresses have been often accomplished in the past without a careful risk
447 assessment for ecosystem and human health, and for this reason the relevance of microorganisms
448 mediated mineral weathering is not limited to soil matrices. Asbestos fibers were intensively used
449 during last century to reinforce cement and applied as a roofing material because of their chemical
450 and physical resistance (Favero-Longo et al., 2009). *In vitro* bioweathering experiments showed

451 that *Verticillium leptobactrum* isolated from the asbestos-rich soils of two abandoned chrysotile
452 mines in the Italian Western Alps efficiently removed iron from asbestos fibres (Daghino et al.,
453 2009). Iron is involved in the chrysotile toxicity and the ability to weather it determined a reduced
454 reactivity of asbestos fibres, making *V. Leptobactrum* a suitable candidate for asbestos
455 bioremediation (Daghino et al., 2009). The lichen effects on the durability of asbestos-cement
456 materials are currently under debate. Some studies indicated that lichens increase the dangerousness
457 of this material promoting the exposure of the fibres and the air dispersal of asbestos. However, the
458 combined application of chemical and image analyses recently demonstrated that lichen
459 biocovering of roofs can result in the limitation of the detachment of asbestos fibres, which
460 composition was chemically altered by the physical interaction with lichens (Favero-Longo et al.,
461 2009).

462 Though additional investigations are required, overall data indicate that mineral weathering
463 microorganisms are a valuable tool to maximize the efficacy of bioremediation methods. In
464 particular the application of rhizospheric microbes able to dissolve essential nutrients for plant
465 development and to influence metal speciation and mobilization represents a promising
466 biotechnological approach for in field phytoremediation.

467

468 **4. Conclusions and future perspectives**

469

470 The discovery of the interactions of microorganisms with minerals sustained the importance of
471 microbes in making the Earth a suitable environment for all forms of life. The value of
472 bioweathering mediated by microorganisms is known since tens of years and is widely exploited in
473 industrial processes aimed at the recovery of metals from ores. The study of mineral-microbe
474 interactions is nevertheless a crucial step for the development of promising strategies in other
475 biotechnological sectors, especially concerning environmental biotechnology:

476 (i) deeper insights on bioweathering involvement during soil formation could permit to set up
477 microbial consortia to promote these mechanisms, especially in arid regions which extension on
478 Earth is constantly rising; (ii) increased knowledge of beneficial association established by
479 weathering rhizospheric microbes and plants will contribute to develop specific microbial
480 inoculants to promote plant growth, boost crop yield and food production respecting global
481 biodiversity and ecosystem safety and reducing the constant need to expand agriculture dedicated
482 lands; (iii) the elucidation of the mechanisms adopted by microorganisms during metal speciation,
483 mobilization and uptake will lead to the implementation of bioremediation technologies; (iv) on one
484 hand, innovative bioremediation treatments will apply microbial resources to reduce chemical
485 weathering of stone and, on the other hand, further research will be devoted to counteract
486 bioweathering microflora and prevent microbial deterioration of stone objects and buildings of
487 historical value.

488 The literature data reported in the present review clearly indicate that some applications of the
489 bioweathering potential of microorganisms have been exploited since a long time but others are
490 emerging in different areas like for instance that of stone artworks and monument protection and
491 restoration. To obtain the best performance from the existing and the novel microbial weathering-
492 based technologies it is essential to consider the whole bioweathering network involved in applied
493 processes, that includes both bacteria and fungi, and to develop strategies for a sustainable
494 management of the involved microbial resource.

495

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503

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780 **Figure caption**

781 Figure 1. Microorganisms with weathering activities (represented by rod-shaped cells in the
782 different figure panels) can be exploited in industrial and environmental biotechnology. (a) The
783 ability of different prokaryotic acidophiles to dissolve minerals from ores is well known in the
784 biomining industry and it is exploited in the recovery of several elements such as copper and gold;
785 (b) weathering of rock minerals, utilized by microorganisms as energy, electron acceptors and
786 nutrients, is one of the driving forces of soil formation in different arid ecosystems; (c) mineral
787 weathering microbes sustain plant nutrition mobilizing essential nutrients, such as phosphate and
788 iron, from insoluble forms in soils, thus increasing bioavailability; (d) the idea behind biocleaning
789 treatment is the ability of microorganisms to dissolve elements present in stone alterations. With
790 this purpose specific microbial consortia can be successfully applied on monuments and statues to
791 remove detrimental compounds; (e) plant- microbes interaction play a crucial role in
792 phytoremediation. Weathering bacteria and fungi can promote plant growth, reduce stress levels in
793 presence of different kind of pollutants, and influence pollutants mobilization for example
794 favouring the plant uptake of pollutants during clean-up procedures.

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