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- 1 Biocorrosion of Copper Metal by Aspergillus niger
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15 ABSTRACT

Several geoactive fungi were investigated for their biocorrosion impact on metallic copper, to 16 17 further understanding of the potential roles that fungi may have in the biotransformation of such 18 substrate, and the mechanisms involved. Copper metal showed little toxicity and test fungi were able to grow in direct or indirect contact with copper and to colonize copper sheet. A. niger was 19 able to biodeteriorate copper metal through proton- and ligand-mediated dissolution 20 mechanisms, leading to significant mass loss and surface etching. The formation of a secondary 21 22 copper oxalate (moolooite) biomineral crust together with cuprite deposition lead to alteration 23 of surface topography and visual appearance, highlighting the significance of oxalate excretion in 24 effecting fungal metal biotransformations. The metal transforming influence of fungal 25 colonization may have some implications for biodeterioration, protection and preservation of 26 cultural relics and artefacts as well as certain components of the built environment.

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29 Keywords: Aspergillus niger; copper; biocorrosion; oxalate; biomineralization

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31 **1. Introduction**

Metal loss and damage in the built environment resulting from corrosion is one of the major 32 33 causes of structural deterioration, economic loss and cultural damage (Crispim and Gaylarde, 34 2005). It is estimated that damage caused by all forms of corrosion costs about 2 trillion pounds (UK £ sterling) annually, which is about 3% of the global gross domestic product (Bhandari et al., 35 2015). Microbial colonization can have a significant influence on the built environment, showing 36 37 all kinds of effects such as discolouration and staining, biocorrosion, and biodeterioration of metallic, organic and inorganic components (Warscheid and Braams, 2000; Scheerer et al., 2009; 38 39 Sterflinger and Piñar, 2013; Gadd, 2017b). This can pose serious concerns for built infrastructure, 40 including nuclear waste storage facilities, oil storage tanks and sewer systems, as well as human habitation and cultural artefacts (Nica et al., 2000; Gu, 2007; Herrera and Videla, 2009; Turick 41 and Berry, 2016). 42

The growth of diverse organisms, including bacteria, lichens, and fungi, can have significant 43 effects on structural materials derived from rocks, minerals and metals (Gadd, 2007; 2017a,b) 44 45 Several studies have concentrated on the involvement of bacteria, including sulfate-reducing, iron-reducing, sulfur-oxidizing, and iron-oxidizing genera, in metal biocorrosion and concrete 46 47 biodeterioration (Emde et al., 1992). However, relatively little attention has been paid to fungi despite them often being the most visible and destructive of microbiota in the built environment 48 because of their biodeterioration of a wide variety of substrates, including wood, plastics and 49 50 rock and mineral-based building components (Sterflinger, 2010; Onofri et al., 2014; Gadd, 2017a) Many fungal species are capable of solubilizing metals from metal-bearing minerals and 51 substrates (Gadd, 1993, 2017a,b; Fomina et al., 2005a,b; 2007). Some early work showed that 52

Penicillium spp. were able to solubilize and accumulate zinc, aluminum, copper, and lead (Siegel 53 54 et al., 1983), while *Cladosporium resinae* was involved in the biodeterioration of aluminium 55 (Iverson, 1987). The relative lack of information on copper biocorrosion by fungi contrasts with the extensive literature on responses of wood decay fungi to copper in connection with the 56 57 application of copper compounds as wood preservatives (Schilling and Jellison, 2006; Freeman 58 and McIntyre, 2008; Zelinka et al., 2019a,b). Many such fungi exhibit marked tolerance to copper with the formation of copper oxalate acting as a detoxification process and underpinning copper 59 60 tolerance (Clausen and Green, 2003; Green and Clausen, 2003; Hastrup et al., 2005; Kartal et al., 61 2015; Ohno et al., 2015; Karunasekera et al., 2019).

62 Copper and its alloys have important uses in interior and exterior environments (Elwell and Scholes, 1967) and has been used for centuries in architectural and cultural applications, e.g. 63 statues, ornaments and buildings (Frankfort, 1956; de la Fuente et al., 2008). Furthermore, 64 65 because of good machinability and conductivity, copper is extensively used in the electronics, 66 communications and digital industries, such as in circuit boards, connections and terminals, and also widely utilized in heat exchangers or conductors. To date, most attention has focussed on 67 atmospheric abiotic corrosion of copper and although fungal bioweathering of copper-containing 68 minerals has been studied (Fomina et al., 2005a,b, 2007, 2017) biocorrosion of copper metal by 69 fungi has received little attention. The objective of this research was therefore to investigate the 70 71 ability of fungi to mediate biocorrosion of copper metal. In this work, several fungi with known metal and mineral transformation abilities, i.e. Aspergillus niger (Sayer and Gadd, 1997; Horeh et 72 73 al., 2016; Fomina et al., 2017; Ferrier et al., 2019; Kang et al., 2019, 2020; Suyamud et al., 2020), 74 Beauveria caledonica (Fomina et al., 2005a) and Paecilomyces javanicus (Rhee et al., 2012, 2016),

- vere used to investigate interactions with copper metal to gain understanding of the roles that
- fungi may play in the biocorrosion or biotransformation of such a material, effects on the copper
- substrate and the mechanisms involved.

78 2. Materials and Methods

79 2.1 Organisms and media

Aspergillus niger (ATCC 1015), Beauveria caledonica (provided by G, Genney (CEH Merlewood
collection)) and Paecilomyces javanicus (Friedrichs & Bally; A.H.S. Brown & G. Smith) were
maintained on malt extract agar (MEA) plates, (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) at 25°C in the dark. *A. niger* was grown for 3 - 4 days prior to experimental subculture: *B. caledonica* and *P. javanicus*were grown for at least one week prior to experimentation.

AP1 media (in Milli-Q water) comprised 38 mM (NH₄)₂SO₄ (Alfa Aesar, Ward Hill, USA) or 59 mM 85 NaNO₃ (Acros, New Jersey, USA), 3.7 mM KH₂PO₄ (Acros, New Jersey, USA), 0.8 mM MgSO₄·7H₂O 86 87 (BDH, Poole, UK), 0.2 mM CaCl₂·6H₂O (BDH, Poole, UK), 1.7 mM NaCl (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA), 9×10^{-3} mM FeCl₃·6H₂O (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA), and trace metals 1.4×10^{-2} mM 88 ZnSO₄·7H₂O (BDH, Poole, UK), 1.8 × 10⁻² mM MnSO₄·4H₂O (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA), and 1.6 89 × 10⁻³ mM CuSO₄·5H₂O (BDH, Poole, UK), 111 mM D-glucose (VWR, Lutterworth, UK). Modified 90 91 Czapek-Dox agar (MCD) media was prepared of the following composition: 166 mM D-glucose 92 (VWR, Lutterworth, UK), 35 mM NaNO₃ (Acros, New Jersey, USA), 7 mM Na₂HPO₄ (Acros, New Jersey, USA), 2.0 mM MgSO4·7H2O (BDH, Poole, UK), 7 mM KCl (BDH, Poole, UK), 0.04 mM 93 FeSO₄·7H₂O (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA), 15 g L⁻¹ agar No.1 (Oxoid, Basingstoke, UK). All stock 94 95 solutions were sterilized separately by autoclaving at 121 °C for 15 min and subsequently mixed with sterile (115 °C, 15 min) D-glucose solution. The media were adjusted to pH 5.5 using 1 M HCl 96 before sterilization by autoclaving at 115 °C for 15 min. For solid media, 15 g L⁻¹ agar No.1 (Oxoid, 97 98 Basingstoke, UK) was used. Liquid media was inoculated using a spore suspension in sterile MilliQ water, taken from a freshly grown MEA slope, to an initial concentration of 5 × 10⁵ spores mL⁻¹
¹ (ME) and 1 × 10⁶ mL⁻¹ (AP1). Flasks were incubated in a shaking incubator (Infors Multitron II,
Infors HT, Bottmingen, Switzerland) at 125 rpm in the dark at 25 °C.

102 Waste computer power cables were used as a copper source for the experiments. After removal of plastic coatings, the bare copper wire was cut into 2-3 mm long pieces which were oven-103 sterilized at 105°C for 48 h. 10 cm of copper wire weighed ~800 mg: the purity of the copper was 104 105 not evaluated. Copper wire pieces were distributed over the agar surfaces either between the agar and a cellophane membrane placed on top, or on a cellophane membrane (Louth, Focus 106 107 Packaging and Design Ltd, Louth, UK; thickness 27.5 µm) placed on top of the agar (Sayer & Gadd, 108 1997). The membranes allow the transfer of diffusible nutrients or metabolites between the agar 109 and the fungus, provide a means of easily removing the biomass, and therefore providing information on direct and indirect interactions between the organism and substrate (Sayer and 110 111 Gadd, 1997; Suyamud et al., 2020). Distribution densities were ~15-20 pieces cm⁻² on MEA but, 112 because of enhanced toxicity, 8 copper wire pieces were evenly distributed on AP1 or MCD agar plates. For copper metal sheet colonization experiments, copper sheet pieces (~ 0.5 × 0.5 x 0.07 113 cm) (R.I.C.E. Metals Ltd, Truro, UK) were abraded with 100-grit aluminium oxide abrasive paper 114 to enhance fungal colonization, washed with 1% nitric acid and subsequently sterile Milli-Q water. 115 Four pieces of scratched copper sheet were placed above the cellophane membrane on agar 116 117 media in 9-cm diameter Petri dishes. Inoculation of test fungi, at the centre of the agar plates, 118 was achieved by using 6 mm diameter discs of mycelium cut from the periphery of growing 119 colonies on MEA plates (Sayer & Gadd, 1997). Four copper sheet pieces were distributed

symmetrically on the agar surface, and plates (at least three replicates) were incubated in the
dark at 25 °C .

122

123 **2.2** Metal tolerance and pH determination

124 Measurements were taken of colony diameter at regular time intervals in order to assess growth rates and possible inhibitory effects (Gadd et al., 1985; Sayer et al., 1995). Biomass was removed 125 126 from the membrane overlying the agar surface using a scalpel and dried to constant weight at 127 105 °C for at least 4 days. Metal tolerance was evaluated using a tolerance index (TI) based on the dry weight of fungal biomass as follows: TI = (dry weight of treated mycelium/ dry weight of 128 129 the control mycelium) ×100% (Sayer et al., 1995). The pH of the agar surface, after the fungal colony had covered the surface completely, was measured at 6 equidistant intervals across plate 130 axes using a flat probe pH electrode (VWR International, Lutterworth, UK) after removal of the 131 132 cellulose membrane and biomass.

133

134 **2.3 Organic acid measurements**

A. niger was incubated in malt extract (ME) or AP1 liquid media amended respectively with 1% and 0.05% (w/v) copper wire pieces at 25°C in the dark on an Infors II Multitron shaking incubator (125rpm). 1 mL aliquots of supernatant were collected at 0, 7, 14, and 21 days after fungal inoculation and filtered through a 0.2 μ m pore diameter cellulose acetate membrane filters (Whatman, Maidstone, UK). The acids were analysed using a BioRad Aminex HPX-87X-87H ion exclusion column (300 mm × 7.8 mm) fitted with a Micro-Guard Cation H Refill guard column
(BioRad, Richmond CA, USA) at 35 °C on a DIONEX UltiMate 3000 system (ThermoFischer
Scientifics, Germering, Germany) including a pump, degasser, autosampler, and variable
wavelength detector. The sample injection volume was 20 μL and flow rate (5 mM H₂SO₄) was
0.6 mL/min. Detection was carried out at 210 nm for 18 min. Acids were identified and quantified
by their specific retention times and peak areas of the following standards: oxalic, citric, fumaric,
gluconic, itaconic, malic and succinic acid.

147

148 **2.4 Elemental and mineralogical analysis**

149 The pieces of copper wire were separated from the agar after removal of fungal biomass by homogenizing the agar in Milli-Q water at 80°C, and repeating washing of the wire pieces in warm 150 151 Milli-Q water. The copper samples were dried in a desiccator at ambient temperature for at least 152 3 weeks prior to analysis. Copper sheet was cleaned by gently washing with 1% Triton (v/v_{aq}) and water for 24 h in 50 mL centrifuge tubes on a SB Tube Rotator (20 rpm), and kept in a desiccator 153 prior to further examination. Mineralogical and elemental analyses were carried out using energy 154 155 dispersive X-ray analysis (EDXA) coupled with scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and X-ray diffraction (XRD) (see Li & Gadd, 2017; Ferrier et al., 2019; Suyamud et al., 2020; Kang et al., 2020; 156 Yang et al., 2020). 157

158

159 **2.5 Statistical analysis**

160 Origin 9.1 was used, and at least three replicate determinations were used in experiments.

161 **3. Results**

162 **3.1 Effect of copper metal on fungal growth**

163 A. niger, B. caledonica, and P. javanicus were all able to grow on copper metal amended media. A. niger grew the fastest, while the growth of B. caledonica and P. javanicus was much slower. 164 165 The inclusion of copper metal in the medium had little significant effect on growth rates of the 166 test fungi (Table 1). The presence of copper metal slightly inhibited colony expansion of A. niger 167 on AP1 medium, while growth of *B. caledonica* was slower on copper metal-amended MEA and MCD medium than on the corresponding controls. While *P. javanicus* grew slowly, the presence 168 169 of copper metal had little effect. The type of contact of the test fungi with the copper metal 170 showed different effects on growth. The growth rate of A. niger when directly interacting with copper metal on the cellophane membrane surface on MEA and ammonium salt AP1 medium 171 appeared to be slightly inhibited, compared with the treatments where copper metal was 172 173 incorporated in the agar below the cellophane membrane, perhaps due to higher exposure to mobile copper species in proximity to the metal. Similar effects occurred with *B. caledonica* on 174 MCD and *P. javanicus* on nitrate salt AP1 medium (Table 1). Growth in the absence or presence 175 of copper wire metal pieces was also expressed as a tolerance index (TI) based on the yields of 176 fungal biomass, which confirmed that the effects of copper metal varied among the fungal 177 178 species. On MEA, the TIs for A. niger were all around 100% in the presence of copper metal both when below and above the cellophane membrane. The growth of *P. javanicus* on nitrate salt AP1 179 180 and MCD medium containing copper metal above or below membrane showed similar significant reductions (TI =70.3%-75.9%, Table 2). Compared with the TI values for *B. caledonica* on nitrate 181 salt AP1 medium (around 90%), the TI values for MCD revealed a remarkable reduction to about 182

183 60%. The contact mode with the copper showed little effect on the TI values except for *B.* 184 *caledonica* on MEA media: the TI for indirect contact was reduced by 16.5% compared to direct 185 contact. This showed that copper metal had a significant influence on growth of *B. caledonica*, 186 especially when in direct contact with the metal.

187

188 **3.2 pH changes in media after fungal growth**

The medium pH decreased during growth of *A. niger*, compared with abiotic controls, while the pH increased slightly in the presence of copper metal compared to the negative control (Table 3). This showed that some acids produced by the test fungus were consumed by the copper metal resulting in an increase in pH. Of the different media inoculated with *A. niger*, the pH of ammonium salt AP1 medium reached the lowest value. For *B. caledonica* and *P. javanicus*, the medium become alkaline during growth, and the pH markedly increased in the presence of copper metal compared with the abiotic controls (Table 3).

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197 **3.3 Determination of organic acids**

For ME liquid media, oxalic, malic and succinic acid were the main organic acids detected: citric, fumaric, gluconic and itaconic acid were not detected. Oxalic acid dominated, the highest amount (12.3 mM) appearing after *A. niger* was incubated with copper for 14 days. In the absence of copper metal, corresponding oxalic acid production was 7.8 mM (Fig.1a) indicating the presence of copper metal stimulated the production of oxalate. After 14 days, the concentration

of oxalic acid decreased, probably the result of oxalate consumption by the formation of copper 203 204 oxalate (see later). The secretion of malic acid reached a peak after 7 days when A. niger was grown in ME liquid media and then remained constant. The presence of 1% (w/v) copper 205 206 stimulated the generation of malic acid up to 2.2 mM (Fig.1b). Succinic acid occurred at similar 207 concentrations both in the control and 1% copper metal treatment and decreased over 208 incubation time (Fig. 1c). For copper-containing ammonium AP1 liquid media, only limited malic acid was detected during incubation of A. niger with 0.05% (w/v) copper metal, less than in the 209 control, and increased gradually reaching equilibrium at 0.025 mM (Fig. 1d). The contents of 210 other organic acids, including oxalic acid, were below the detection limits. 211

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213

214 **3.4 Biocorrosion and biomineral formation**

The capacity of A. niger to solubilize copper metal was manifest by the reduced diameter of 215 copper wire pieces in the ammonium salt AP1 medium. To examine whether there was any 216 217 medium influence on the copper metal, control copper wire pieces were collected from agar 218 plates containing the same amount of copper metal incubated in the absence of fungi. In this 219 comparison, the solubilization of copper metal by A. niger was clearly observed (Fig. 2). The 220 diameter of control copper wire pieces was $189.6 \pm 0.4 \mu m$, while the diameter of A. niger treated copper wire was 75.8 ± 1.6 μm, a significant decrease of 60.0%. Such a decrease in the diameter 221 222 of the wire as a result of fungal action clearly reflects significant loss of mass. In addition, the 223 surface appearance of fungal exposed copper metal was rougher than the control.

Compared with abiotic copper sheet samples, significant alteration of the copper sheet surfaces 224 225 was observed and a blue crust was evident on visual examination (result not shown). Microscopic examination showed that distinct biocorrosion patterns were observed on colonized copper 226 227 sheets, incubation with A. niger resulted in etching and disruption over the surface (Fig. 3a). Some 228 of the etched channels showed a similar pattern to fungal mycelium grown on the surface which 229 mirrored colonization and branching by the fungal hyphae. The dimensions of etching traces varied, their width being around $1 - 3.5 \,\mu$ m, while the width of fungal hyphae growing on a copper 230 231 sheet surface was $\sim 10 \,\mu m$ (Fig.3b).

232 For fungi grown in the presence of copper wire pieces, it was found that there was obvious 233 evidence of biomineral formation on the copper surfaces and different biocorrosion patterns 234 produced by A. niger. The varied contact modes resulted in different shapes of the secondary minerals produced probably reflecting differences in the secretion of geoactive metabolites. 235 236 Microscopic examination showed widespread corrosion of the copper wire pieces as well as the 237 formation of various crystalline structures. Different patterns of biominerals were produced by A. niger. The secondary minerals formed on copper pieces incorporated in agar below the 238 membrane showed a lamellar structure (Fig. 4a, b). The size of these biominerals was 239 approximately 3-4 μ m in diameter. The biominerals that formed on copper wire pieces which 240 241 were in direct interact with A. niger showed some different morphologies, the most distinctive 242 being layered structures similar to the crystals formed on the copper wire pieces that had indirect contact with A. niger. Some other structures showed flakiness, and some were amorphous. Apart 243 244 from these, some mycelial encrustations were observed on the surface of copper wire pieces (Fig. 245 4c, d). EDXA showed that the biominerals formed on copper pieces contained copper, carbon,

- and oxygen (Fig. 5a, c). As shown in Fig. 6, X-ray diffraction analyses of the biominerals produced
- by *A. niger* confirmed the presence of moolooite (CuC₂O₄·0.4H₂O) (ICPDS Card NO. 21 297) and
- 248 cuprite (Cu₂O) (ICPDS Card NO. 05 667).

Fungal colonization can have an extraordinary biodeteriorative influence on organic as well as 251 252 metallic and mineral constituents of the built infrastructure, and historical artefacts, such as 253 staining, biocorrosion, and biodeterioration (Miller et al., 2012; Gadd, 2017a; Gadd and Dyer, 254 2017). Although the tolerance and responses of fungi to soluble copper, especially for wood 255 decay fungi, has been widely reported, and investigations carried out on the corrosion of metals embedded in copper preservative-treated wood, such as aluminium and steel, (Zelinka and 256 257 Rammer, 2009; Zelinka and Stone, 2011), or copper fasteners in wood (Zelinka et al., 2019a,b), 258 the influence of fungi on metallic copper biocorrosion has received little attention. Copper is an essential element for fungal growth. It can act as an enzyme cofactor and is essential for 259 260 respiration, free radical detoxification, and iron acquisition (Antsotegi-Uskola et al., 2020). However, excess copper accumulation will result in toxicity, hence its historical and current use 261 262 as a fungicide and wood preservative in inorganic and organic forms (Freeman and McIntyre, 2008; Lamichhane et al., 2018). Copper ions can inactivate metalloenzymes by metal 263 displacement, bind to intracellular sulfur, oxygen, and nitrogen ligands, and also promote the 264 production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Fridovich, 1983; Macomber and Imlay, 2009; Smith 265 et al., 2017). However, many fungal species can show pronounced tolerance to copper, 266 267 particularly under acidic conditions (Gadd and Griffiths, 1980a; Gadd and White, 1985; Green and 268 Clausen, 2005; Humar et al., 2005; Ohno et al., 2015) or when in insoluble forms (Karamushka et al., 1996; Fomina et al., 2017), and the copper-tolerance of A. niger and B. caledonica have been 269 270 reported previously (Gharieb et al., 2004; Fomina et al., 2005a; Iskandar et al., 2011). In the built 271 environment, including cultural heritage, insoluble copper-containing substrates include metallic

copper and alloys, copper-containing minerals, preservatives and pigments. Biodeteriorative 272 273 effects therefore depend on direct and indirect interactions that result in release of Cu²⁺ which can interact with organisms, bind to environmental constituents, or form copper-containing 274 secondary minerals with organic and inorganic ligands, all further contributing to 275 276 biodeteriorative effects and alteration of appearance. In this work, the test fungi could all grow 277 in the presence of copper metal, whether in direct or indirect contact, and although there was some variation in response, little significant toxicity was manifest. For A. niger, inhibition of 278 growth rate was slightly greater with direct contact with the copper, although this was marginal 279 280 and not clear for the other test fungi. This is unsurprising since the cellophane membrane would not have acted as a barrier to mobile copper species. Tolerance indices (TIs) largely reflected 281 282 these results with little effect on A. niger, but some significant reduction for B. caledonica on MCD and *P. javanicus* on MCD and NO₃⁻-AP1 although, due to slower growth, TIs were derived 283 284 from a much longer incubation time than for A. niger. These data show that the test fungi could 285 grow successfully in the presence of metallic copper despite some limited toxicity.

Fungi can effect mineral solubilization through proton and ligand-mediation dissolution 286 287 mechanisms (acidolysis and complexolysis, respectively) as well as redox reactions (redoxolysis) (Burgstaller and Schinner, 1993; Gadd, 2007, 2010; Gadd et al., 2014) and such mechanisms will 288 289 also be involved for metallic substrates (Fomina et al., 2008; Rhee et al., 2012, 2014, 2016). It 290 seems that acidolysis and complexolysis were the main mechanisms operating in this study. Many examples of mineral solubilization by fungi are correlated with a pH decrease (Sayer and Gadd, 291 292 1997; Fomina et al., 2004, 2005b) that can result from proton excretion, nutrient-proton antiport, 293 ammonium utilization, organic acid secretion, and respiration (Burgstaller and Schinner, 1993)

The pH is a vital factor in mineral transformations by fungi because of its significant effects on 294 295 metal biosorption and transport processes, and the nucleation and precipitation of secondary mineral products (Burford et al., 2003, 2006; Parvathi et al., 2007; Wei et al., 2012) as well as 296 effects on fungal growth and nutrition, including organic acid excretion (Gadd, 1999; Fomina et 297 298 al., 2004; Gadd, 2010). An acidic pH can also lead to a marked reduction in the toxicity of soluble copper to fungi (Starkey, 1973; Gadd and Griffiths, 1980b) due to decreased sorption and 299 intracellular accumulation of copper at low pH (Gadd and White, 1985). In this work, the media 300 301 pH significantly decreased with A. niger, particularly with ammonium as nitrogen source, as noted in other studies (e.g. Fomina et al., 2017). In contrast, growth of *B. caledonica* and *P. javanicus* 302 resulted in increased alkalinity, especially when grown using nitrate as nitrogen source (Lapeyrie 303 304 et al., 1987; Gadd, 1999), and influence copper speciation as hydroxides and carbonates which will tend to reduce potential copper toxicity. In acidolysis, oxygen atoms on the metal surface are 305 protonated to water leading to Cu²⁺ release (Burgstaller and Schinner, 1993), as simplified in 306 equation 1: 307

308

 $309 \quad 2Cu + 4H^+ + O_2 \rightarrow 2Cu^{2+} + 2H_2O \quad (1)$

310

The secretion of low molecular weight organic acids is often pivotal to mineral and metal transformations, potentially contributing to acidolysis, complexation and redox interactions (Gadd, 1993; Fomina et al., 2005a; Gadd et al., 2014) and *A. niger* can generate several different organic acids, dependent on nutritional conditions, that are effective for metal complexation, e.g. 315 citric and oxalic acid (Gadd, 1999; Ruijter et al., 1999). The production of such acids by A. niger, 316 and other Aspergillus species, has been investigated for metal bioleaching and biorecovery from 317 electronic wastes (Kolenčík et al., 2013; Horeh et al., 2016), spent refinery catalysts (Santhiya and Ting, 2005), mine tailings, deposits and ores (Mulligan et al., 2004; Seh-Bardan et al., 2012; 318 319 Mohanty et al., 2017; Kang et al., 2019, 2020; Yang et al., 2019, 2020) . The reduction of metal 320 species in redoxolysis can be mediated by excreted metabolites, and oxalic acid is capable of Fe(III) 321 and Mn(IV) reduction to Fe(II) and Mn(II) respectively (Dutton and Evans, 1996; Gadd, 1999; Wei 322 et al., 2012). In this work, the main organic acids secreted by A. niger in ME medium were oxalic, 323 malic and succinic acid with oxalic acid dominating, the presence of copper appearing to enhance 324 oxalate production. This has been observed in wood decay fungi which can show high levels of 325 oxalate production (Hastrup et al., 2012) and an important mechanism of detoxifying copper in preservative-treated wood was overexcretion of oxalic acid (Clausen and Green, 2003; Green and 326 327 Clausen, 2005; Hastrup et al., 2012; Ohno et al., 2015). Beauveria caledonica also showed oxalate 328 overexcretion in the presence of toxic metal-containing minerals, including those of copper 329 (Fomina et al., 2005a).

In complexolysis, the metal is solubilized from the substrate due to the complexing capacity of the complexant molecule, and this can also promote the solubility of a metal ion which has been detached from metal via acidolysis (Burgstaller and Schinner, 1993). Oxalate will also precipitate with many metal species, apart from alkali metals, and the formation of copper oxalate has often been considered as a tolerance mechanism in fungi (Murphy and Levy, 1983; Dutton and Evans, 1996; Gadd, 1999; Clausen et al., 2000; Green and Clausen, 2003, 2005; Jarosz-Wilkołazka and Gadd, 2003; Hastrup et al., 2005; Ohno et al., 2015). The reactions between Cu²⁺and oxalic acid
can be summarized as follows (Horeh et al., 2016):

338

$$339 \quad C_2 H_2 O_4 \to C_2 H O_4^- + H^+ \tag{2}$$

 $340 \quad C_2 H O_4^- \to C_2 O_4^{2-} + H^+ \tag{3}$

341
$$2[C_2HO_4^-] + Cu^{2+} \rightarrow Cu[C_2HO_4]_2$$
 (4)

$$342 \quad C_2 O_4^- + C u^{2+} \to C u C_2 O_4 \tag{5}$$

343

The amount and variety of organic acids excreted by A. niger is highly dependent on medium 344 composition, especially carbon and nitrogen source, pH, and buffering capacity (Burgstaller and 345 Schinner, 1993; Dutton and Evans, 1996; Gadd, 1999; Palmieri et al., 2019). A relationship 346 between the nitrogen source and oxalate excretion has often been demonstrated (Dutton and 347 Evans, 1996; Gadd, 1999; Fomina et al., 2017). In ammonium salt AP1 medium, only limited malic 348 acid was detected in this work but the medium became strongly acidic because ammonium 349 350 assimilation leads to the production of protons which reduces the pH of the extracellular environment (Sazanova et al., 2015). In addition, a low external pH restricts fungal production of 351 352 oxalic acid (Roos and Luckner, 1984; Ruijter et al., 1999) since a key enzyme responsible for 353 oxalate formation, oxaloacetate acetylhydrolase (OAH), is inhibited at low pH values (Gadd, 1999; 354 Ruijter et al., 1999). It seems clear that acid dissolution and complexation were the main processes mediated by A. niger in this work, which could have dramatic effects on metallic copper 355

as evidenced by the marked solubilization of copper wire and the etching and disruption ofcopper sheet surfaces.

358 Besides the dissolution of metal-bearing substrates, fungal biodeterioration can also occur 359 through secondary mineral formation, and oxalates are frequently associated with the disruption and flaking of outer layers of building components, plaster, frescoes etc. (Fomina et al., 2010; 360 Gadd, 2017b; Gadd et al., 2014). Conversely, oxalate formation in other contexts can stabilize 361 external surfaces through involvement in stable patina formation emphasising that 362 363 biodeteriorative or surface effects are highly dependent on the substrate and physico-chemical 364 conditions (Gadd, 2017a, b; Gadd et al., 2014; Palmieri et al., 2019). In this work, a vivid blue crust 365 resulted on the surface of copper metal after growth of the selected fungi, and this was also 366 identified as the hydrated copper oxalate, moolooite, together with cuprite. Clearly, such interactions will change the appearance of the copper metal substrate and remove any metallic 367 368 lustre. Copper oxalates are frequently identified on surfaces of outdoor bronze structures 369 (Graedel et al., 1987) forming insoluble stable patinas even in an acidic atmosphere (Marabelli and Mazzeo, 1993). Innovative research has therefore explored the application of oxalate 370 formation for protection and conservation of historic and contemporary metal artefacts, with 371 372 copper oxalate appearing particularly applicable for such a purpose (Joseph et al., 2012a, b).

Several fungal species have previously been shown to be capable of copper-containing mineral
transformations, and copper oxalate is frequently associated with fungal interactions with both
soluble and insoluble copper-containing compounds and substrates (Murphy and Levy, 1983;
Dutton and Evans, 1996; Gadd, 1999; Clausen et al., 2000; Green and Clausen, 2003, 2005; JaroszWilkołazka and Gadd, 2003; Fomina et al., 2005a, 2017). It has also been reported that copper

salts can stimulate oxalate production (Green and Clausen, 2003). Extracellular copper oxalate (moolooite, $CuC_2O_4 \cdot nH_2O$ (n~0.4-0.7)) precipitation occurred on *Beauveria caledonica* hyphae and cords growing with copper phosphate (Fomina et al., 2005a, 2010).

381

382 **5. Conclusions**

In summary, this work has demonstrated that A. niger is capable of colonization and 383 384 biodeterioration of metallic copper through dissolution activities and the formation of secondary copper oxalate biominerals leading to alteration of surface topography and visual appearance. 385 Dissolution by A. niger can lead to significant loss in mass as evidenced by the dramatic size 386 387 reduction in copper wire exposed to fungal metabolite excretion and etching of sheet copper. Little toxicity was manifest to the test organisms, and acidolysis and complexation were the 388 significant biodeteriorative mechanisms that lead to copper oxalate crust formation. The findings 389 390 emphasize the importance of oxalate excretion in effecting metal and mineral transformations, as shown in several relevant studies (Fomina et al., 2008; Gadd et al., 2014; Ferrier et al., 2019; 391 392 Kang et al., 2019, 2020; Suyamud et al., 2020). It is clear that the transforming influence of fungal 393 colonization may have some implications for biodeterioration, protection and preservation of cultural relics and artefacts as well as certain components of the built environment. 394

395

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404

405 **Conflict of Interest Disclosure**

406 The authors declare no competing financial or non-financial conflicts of interest.

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641	Table 1. Growth rates (mm day ⁻¹) of test fungi on copper metal amended malt extract agar
642	(MEA), AP1 and MCD media. Results are shown as the growth rates on copper metal amended
643	or unamended medium calculated by linear regression. Test fungi were grown at 25°C in the
644	dark: values shown are averages from three measurements \pm standard deviation. NH ₄ ⁺ -AP1
645	and NO ₃ ⁻ -AP1 are AP1 medium containing ammonium or nitrate, respectively, as the N-source.

		Growth	Connortinoo	Copper wire	Copper wire
Organism	Media	period	Copper free	below	above
		(days)	control	membrane	membrane
A. niger	MEA	0-8	10.82 ± 0.73	10.99 ± 0.72	10.59 ± 0.61
	NH4 ⁺ -AP1	0-8	9.80 ± 0.84	9.70 ± 0.86	9.67 ± 0.77
	NO ₃ -AP1	0-8	11.45 ± 1.10	10.85 ± 0.80	11.31 ± 0.91
B. caledonica	MEA	0-30	2.90 ± 0.17	2.33 ± 0.09	2.51 ± 0.59
	NO ₃ -AP1	0-30	2.65 ± 0.11	2.67 ± 0.12	2.72 ± 0.15
	MCD	0-30	2.86 ± 0.13	2.79 ± 0.08	2.78 ± 0.12
P. javanicus	MEA	0-41	1.81 ± 0.02	1.88 ± 0.02	1.67 ± 0.02
	NO ₃ ⁻ -AP1	0-31	2.26 ± 0.09	2.53 ± 0.08	2.34 ± 0.09
	MCD	0-31	2.54 ± 0.06	2.43 ± 0.07	2.56 ± 0.04

Table 2. Tolerance indices (TI) for test fungi grown on copper metal amended medium (%). Values
are percentages derived from the dry biomass yield of organisms grown on media amended with
copper metal by comparison with the control. All test fungi were grown at 25°C in the dark.
Values shown are averages from three measurements with standard deviations.

			Tolerance index (%)		
Organism	Media	Growth period (days)	Copper wire below membrane	Copper wire on membrane	
A. niger	MEA	8	109.8 ± 0.1	97.7 ± 0.1	
	NH4 ⁺ -AP1	8	106.0 ± 5.0	100.3 ± 0.7	
	NO3 ⁻ -AP1	8	91.1 ± 7.0	98.2 ± 0.7	
B. caledonica	MEA	30	96.6 ± 3.2	80.1 ± 5.3	
	NO ₃ -AP1	30	94.6 ± 0.2	92.7 ± 3.9	
	MCD	30	63.9 ± 0.9	64.1 ± 0.6	
P. javanicus	MEA	41	158.5 ± 22.6	151.2 ± 15	
	NO ₃ ⁻ -AP1	31	71.2 ± 3.7	70.3 ± 5.0	
	MCD	31	71.9 ± 5.4	75.9 ± 2.6	

Table 3. Surface pH values of uninoculated agar and agar underneath fungal colonies on control and copper metal amended media. *A. niger* on MEA was grown for 21 days at 25°C in the dark. *A. niger* on AP1 medium was grown for 60 days at 25°C in the dark. Other fungi were grown for 90 days at 25°C in the dark. Test fungi were grown on unamended media as negative controls; copper-amended media without test fungi were used as abiotic controls. Values shown are averages ± standard deviations (n=6).

				pH values		
			Abiotic	Copper	Abiotic	
Organism	Media	Negative	control	below	control on	Copper on
- <u>B</u> -		Control	(below)	membrane	membrane	membrane
			membrane	inclusion	inclusion	
	MEA	2.84 ± 0.05	5.14 ± 0.01	3.00 ± 0.10	5.19 ± 0.01	3.09 ± 0.20
A. niger	NH4 ⁺ -AP1	1.96 ± 0.02	5.20 ± 0.01	2.90 ± 0.23	4.95 ± 0.07	2.18 ± 0.05
	NO ₃ -AP1	4.57 ± 0.12	5.20 ± 0.06	5.52 ± 0.31	5.26 ± 0.06	5.22 ± 0.16
	MEA	8.48 ± 0.05	5.34 ± 0.01	7.73 ± 0.01	5.28 ± 0.22	7.63 ± 0.09
B. caledonica	NO3 ⁻ -AP1	8.89 ± 0.06	6.73 ± 0.02	8.74 ± 0.10	7.03 ± 0.03	8.87 ± 0.07
	MCD	8.75 ± 0.08	6.20 ± 0.01	8.22 ± 0.01	6.45 ± 0.07	8.26 ± 0.07
	MEA	7.84 ± 0.01	5.33 ± 0.07	8.39 ± 0.10	5.22 ± 0.01	8.14 ± 0.32
P. javanicus	NO3 ⁻ -AP1	8.95 ± 0.04	6.73 ± 0.02	8.41 ± 0.91	7.03 ± 0.03	8.80 ± 0.07
	MCD	8.57 ± 0.04	6.20 ± 0.01	8.64 ± 0.04	6.45 ± 0.07	8.34 ± 0.08

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Fig. 5. Energy-dispersive X-ray analysis of copper metal wire after incubation with *A. niger* on MEA after 90 days at 25 °C in the dark. (a) copper metal placed between the cellophane membrane and agar (b) abiotic copper metal control (between membrane and agar). (c) copper metal placed ontop of the membrane. (d) abiotic copper metal control (on the membrane). Typical spectra are shown from one of at least three determinations.

Fig. 6. X-ray diffraction of minerals formed on copper metal in MEA media after incubation on
MEA with *A. niger* for 90 days at 25 °C in the dark. Typical patterns are shown from one of several
separate determinations.

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