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1 **Fungal biomineralization of manganese as a novel source of**  
2 **electrochemical materials**

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16

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21 **SUMMARY**

22 Electrical energy storage systems such as rechargeable lithium-ion batteries (LiB) and supercapacitors  
23 have shown great promise as sustainable energy storage systems [1-4]. However, LiB have high specific  
24 energy density (energy stored per unit mass) and act as slow, steady suppliers for large energy demands.  
25 In contrast, supercapacitors possess high specific power (energy transferred per unit mass per unit time)  
26 and can charge and discharge quickly for low energy demands. In LiB, graphite is the most common  
27 anode material, although high electrolyte sensitivity and low charge capacity can limit performance.  
28 Efforts have been made to improve LiB or supercapacitor performance using alternative electrode  
29 materials such as carbon nanotubes and manganese oxides ( $Mn_xO_y$ ) [3,5-14]. Microorganisms play  
30 significant roles in metal and mineral biotransformations [15-22]. Fungi possess various  
31 biomineralization properties as well as a filamentous mycelium which may provide mechanical support  
32 for mineral deposition. Although some research has been done on application of biomass as a carbon  
33 precursor [8,9,23], biomineralizing fungal systems have not been investigated. In this research, novel  
34 electrochemical materials have been synthesized using a fungal Mn biomineralization process based on  
35 urease-mediated carbonate bioprecipitation [24]. The carbonized fungal biomass-mineral composite  
36 ( $MycMnO_x/C$ ) showed a high specific capacitance ( $>350 \text{ F g}^{-1}$ ) in a supercapacitor and excellent cycling  
37 stability ( $>90\%$  capacity was retained after 200 cycles) in LiB. This is the first demonstration of the  
38 synthesis of electrode materials using a fungal biomineralization process therefore providing a novel  
39 method for the synthesis of sustainable electrochemical materials.

40

## 41 RESULTS

### 42 Mineral Precipitation by *N. crassa* Grown in Urea- and $\text{MnCl}_2$ -amended Media

43 After 12 days incubation in media amended with 330 mM urea and 5 mM  $\text{MnCl}_2$ , *N. crassa* biomass was  
44 examined by scanning electron microscopy (Fig. 1A-F). It was found that most of the hyphae became  
45 biomineralized and/or were enveloped by minerals in various formations. Fig. 1d shows a cross-section  
46 of a hypha which was completely wrapped by a biomineral sheath ( $\sim 2\text{-}3\ \mu\text{m}$ ) forming a hollow  
47 biomineralized column. Three main types of mineral formation could be observed: acicular (Fig. 1a, b)  
48 which clustered together with the hyphae (Fig. 1A), lamellar (Fig. 1D, E, F) which enveloped the hyphae  
49 as a biomineralized sheath (Fig. 1D, E) and granular (Fig. 1C, E, F) which were mainly associated with  
50 hyphal surfaces or the other lamellar minerals. EDXA showed that the main elements present in these  
51 minerals were Mn, P, O and C (Inset Fig. 1A). XRD analysis revealed that six different Mn-containing  
52 minerals were present: rhodochrosite ( $\text{MnCO}_3$ ), switzerite  $(\text{Mn, Fe})_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$ , bixbyite  $(\text{Mn, Fe})_2\text{O}_3$ ,  
53 hausmannite  $(\text{Mn}^{2+}\text{Mn}^{4+}_2\text{O}_4)$ , pyrolusite ( $\text{MnO}_2$ ) and manganosite ( $\text{MnO}$ ) (Fig. 2A).

54 After treatment at high temperature ( $300^\circ\text{C}$ ) for 4 h, the biomass was carbonized although the  
55 overall morphology did not show significant alteration (Fig. 1A, G). The carbonized hyphae were in a  
56 biomineralized form but appeared to be more fragile. Compared with the extensive mineral deposition  
57 shown in Fig. 1D, the heat-treated minerals around the hyphae became looser in their structure (Fig. 1I)  
58 which may be due to the carbonization of the biomass and also the decomposition of carbonate  
59 minerals at high temperature. Only lamellar minerals were observed (Fig. 1G, H, I) and the thickness of  
60 these nanoscale minerals was around 20 nm. The main elements detected were still Mn, P, O and C  
61 (inset Fig. 1G) but XRD showed that most minerals were amorphous which inhibited precise mineral  
62 identification. FTIR was therefore used in an attempt to characterize these amorphous precipitates (Fig.  
63 2B). According to FTIR, no carbonate-related peaks were detected in the sample with the peaks in the

64 regions of  $1025\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $588\text{ cm}^{-1}$  being due to the  $\nu_3$  and  $\nu_4$  vibrational modes of  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$ . Taken together,  
65 EDXA (Inset Fig. 1G) and FTIR results (Fig. 2B) therefore indicate that the amorphous minerals left after  
66 heat treatment comprised manganese phosphate and manganese oxides ( $\text{MnO}_x$ ), with the valency of  
67 Mn in the mineral necessitating identification by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) (Fig. 3).

68 XPS was employed to determine the surface chemical properties of the sample, and the fully  
69 scanned spectrum of the sample showed three main peaks, at 283.2 eV, 530.2 eV, and 640.5 eV,  
70 corresponding to C 1s, O 1s, and Mn 2p, respectively (Fig. 3). The minor peaks located at 132.0 and  
71 398.0 eV are assigned to P 2p, N 1s respectively, the phosphorus and nitrogen mainly arising from the  
72 phosphate and ammonium present in the medium (Fig. 3A). The asymmetric Mn  $2p_{3/2}$  main peak is  
73 found at 640.5 eV with a  $2p_{3/2}$  to  $2p_{1/2}$  splitting of 11.9 eV (Fig. 3B) which is in accordance with previous  
74 data for Mn  $2p_{3/2}$  and Mn  $2p_{1/2}$  in MnO and  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  [25-28]. The fitted multiplet structure of Mn  $2p_{3/2}$   
75 and Mn  $2p_{1/2}$  with binding energies of 644.6 eV and 656.8 eV (Fig. 3B), respectively, are related to the  
76 binding energy of  $\text{Mn}^{4+}$  in  $\text{MnO}_2$  [25]. After carbonization, some  $\text{MnO}_x$  was anchored to the surface of  
77 the carbonized mycelium. Due to the poor conductivity of the carbonized mycelium, the C-C peak  
78 shifted to 283.2 eV [29]. In addition C-O/C-O-C and O-C=O were observed at 286.7 eV and 290 eV  
79 respectively: partial thermal decomposition of the carbonized mycelium and manganese carbonate may  
80 contribute to these peaks. Fig. 3D shows the O1s photoemission spectra of the prepared Mn-containing  
81 sample. The spectrum was deconvoluted into three contributions with binding energies of 527.9 eV,  
82 530.1 eV and 532.6 eV (Fig. 3D). The first two lines can be attributed to oxygen atoms bound to  
83 manganese atoms in higher and lower oxidation states (527.9 eV, 530.2 eV) as represented by Mn-O-Mn  
84 and Mn-O-H bond configurations, which correspond to the Mn(IV) in  $\text{MnO}_2$ , Mn(II) in MnO and/or Mn(III)  
85 in  $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$ , respectively [25, 26, 30]. The latter peak is assigned to oxygen from water molecules (H-O-H  
86 bonds). These results indicate that manganese atoms in lower Mn(II) oxidation states occupy a large  
87 proportion of the sample.

88

### 89 **Electrochemical Properties of the MycMnO<sub>x</sub>/C Electrode in a Supercapacitor**

90 The electrochemical characteristics of MycMnO<sub>x</sub>/C were investigated using an asymmetrical hybrid  
91 supercapacitor. There were large differences in current densities between the two electrolytes at a scan  
92 rate of 10 mV s<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 4A), which were due to the electrode material (MycMnO<sub>x</sub>/C) being unstable in  
93 alkaline conditions and easily performing redox reactions. According to Fig. 4B, at a scan rate of 10 mV s<sup>-1</sup>,  
94 the specific capacitance of MycMnO<sub>x</sub>/C in KOH was 483 F g<sup>-1</sup>, while in Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> it was 119 F g<sup>-1</sup>. If the  
95 scan rate was increased to 500 mV s<sup>-1</sup>, the specific capacitance decreased to 244.5 F g<sup>-1</sup> and 38 F g<sup>-1</sup>,  
96 respectively. This may be because the hyphae could facilitate the dispersion of the electrolyte ions  
97 which could then better react with the active sites. When the MycMnO<sub>x</sub>/C electrode was charged at 1 A  
98 g<sup>-1</sup> current density in 5.4 M KOH, a voltage plateau was observed around 0.3 V which corresponded to  
99 the redox peak in the positive scanning cyclic voltammetry (CV) curve (Fig. 4C). Therefore, the  
100 MycMnO<sub>x</sub>/C electrode was tested at 1 A g<sup>-1</sup> for 200 cycles and the initial capacity of MycMnO<sub>x</sub>/C in 5.4  
101 M KOH was 362 F g<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 4d, see also Table S1). During the discharge cycling test, the capacitance  
102 retention of the electrode was 36.7% in 5.4 M KOH and 98.5% in 1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> after 200 cycles (Fig. 4D).

103

### 104 **Electrochemical Properties of the MycMnO<sub>x</sub>/C Electrode in a Lithium-ion Battery**

105 The electrochemical lithium storage capability of MycMnO<sub>x</sub> as an anode material in lithium-ion batteries  
106 was evaluated by assembling CR2025 coin-type cells. Figure 4E shows CV curves at a scan rate of 0.5 mV  
107 s<sup>-1</sup>. During the first cathode cycle, the sharp reduction peak close to 0.1 V corresponded to reduction of  
108 MnO<sub>x</sub> to Mn<sup>0</sup> and the formation of Li<sub>2</sub>O and the solid electrolyte interface (SEI) [31, 32]. It is worth  
109 noting that the pair of redox peaks for MnO<sub>x</sub>/C at 0.6 and 1.8 V stabilized after the first cycle. This  
110 phenomenon occurred in the amorphous MycMnO<sub>x</sub>/C electrode in the lithium-ion battery which means

111 that the Mn (II) in amorphous MycMnO<sub>x</sub>/C could be re-oxidized to a higher oxidation state. The  
112 conversion reaction may be written as follows:



114 The charge/discharge curves of the MycMnO<sub>x</sub>/C battery at a current density of 0.1 A g<sup>-1</sup>  
115 between 0.01 and 3 V are shown in Fig. 4F. During the first discharge process, a sustained voltage  
116 plateau at 0.5 V was observed which was attributed to the reduction of MnO<sub>x</sub> to Mn<sup>0</sup> [33], which then  
117 decreased gradually to 0.01 V delivering a discharge capacity of 911 mA h g<sup>-1</sup>. In the subsequent cycling  
118 process, the discharge plateau increased to about 1.0 V which could be partially related to the improved  
119 kinetics of the reactants which consume less energy to be activated after the first discharge process [33,  
120 34]. The initial columbic efficiency was 46.7 %. The irreversible capacity in the first few cycles could be  
121 mainly due to the large capacity loss in the first cycle, which was mainly attributed to the formation of a  
122 solid electrolyte interface (SEI) layer due to chemical reactions between electrolyte and the anode  
123 material.

124 To further investigate the electrochemical performance of the MycMnO<sub>x</sub>/C hybrid, the rate  
125 capability of the sample was tested (Fig. 4G). When the current density reached 0.5 A g<sup>-1</sup>, the specific  
126 capacity of the MycMnO<sub>x</sub>/C hybrid still remained about 200 mA h g<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 4g). Fig. 4H shows the  
127 discharge/charge cycling performance of the MycMnO<sub>x</sub>/C hybrid at a current density of 100 mA g<sup>-1</sup> for  
128 200 cycles. It is interesting to find that the reversible capacity dropped slowly over the first 50 cycles and  
129 then increased with cycling and remained at 92% of its initial specific capacity after 200 cycles (See also  
130 Table S2). It has been reported that electrolyte degradation will result in the formation of a polymeric  
131 gel-like film around MycMnO<sub>x</sub> particles, and growth of this polymeric layer will increase the capacity of  
132 the metal oxide with further cycling [35].

133

## 134 DISCUSSION

135 Much research has been carried out on the synthesis of advanced materials, using a biological template,  
136 with nano- or microscale structures and unique properties [11, 23]. Compared to conventional methods,  
137 minerals precipitated by a biomineralization process may contain an inorganic/organic hierarchical  
138 structure which can show excellent physico-chemical attributes as well as biological properties [36]. In  
139 this work, we have focussed on the synthesis of manganese oxide ( $\text{MnO}_x$ ) by a fungal biomineralization  
140 system, and have investigated its potential application as an electrode material in supercapacitors and  
141 lithium ion batteries.

142 Previous research has demonstrated that the urease-positive fungus *Neurospora crassa* is an  
143 excellent candidate for  $\text{CaCO}_3$  biomineralization, and more than 90% of supplied calcium (50 mM) could  
144 be precipitated as calcite [24]. Such performance of ureolytic fungi in urea-supplemented media  
145 suggested a useful method for the synthesis of calcite as well as other metal-containing carbonates. For  
146 example, ~50% of supplied  $\text{CdCl}_2$  (0.5 M) was precipitated as pure otavite ( $\text{CdCO}_3$ ) by the culture  
147 supernatant obtained after growth of *N. crassa* in urea-supplemented medium [24]. Other urease-  
148 positive fungi (*Pestalotiopsis* sp. and *Myrothecium gramineum*) isolated from calcareous soil were also  
149 found to be able to precipitate  $\text{CaCO}_3$  and  $\text{SrCO}_3$  as well as olekminskite ( $\text{Sr}(\text{Sr}, \text{Ca})(\text{CO}_3)_2$ ) and Sr-  
150 containing vaterite ( $(\text{Ca}_x\text{Sr}_{1-x})\text{CO}_3$ ) [21]. In this work, *N. crassa* was cultured in urea- and  $\text{MnCl}_2$ -modified  
151 media, and various mineral morphologies were observed to be accreted around the hyphae and  $\text{MnCO}_3$   
152 was identified by XRD. With thermal treatment of the biomass-mineral composite at 300°C for 4 h,  
153  $\text{MnO}_x$  containing different oxidation states of Mn resulted and the fungal biomass was carbonized to  
154 provide a coal-like material which was used as a carbon precursor. Biological material, such as biomass  
155 from fungi [8, 11, 12], microalgae [9, 14], or bacteria [23], has been used previously as sustainable  
156 carbon precursors for energy storage devices [36]. Long et al. [12] previously obtained a porous layered  
157 carbonaceous material from hydrothermally treated fungal biomass which possessed a high surface area,



158 bulk density and a multilayer cross-linked framework. When used as an electrode material in  
159 supercapacitors, it showed a high volumetric capacitance and excellent cycling stability. Due to rapid  
160 and reversible redox reactions between the different oxidation states, theoretical high energy storage  
161 capacity and low cost,  $\text{MnO}_x$  have been used as an electrode material in supercapacitors [29, 37],  
162 lithium ion batteries [38, 39] and lithium air batteries [39]. However, pure  $\text{MnO}_x$  has poor electronic  
163 conductivity, exhibits a rapid decrease in storage capacity of  $\text{Li}^+$ , and ion diffusion during the  
164 charge/discharge processes [38]. Many efforts have been made in an attempt to solve these problems  
165 such as using conductive additives and carbon coatings [38]. Reddy et al. [38] combined coaxial  $\text{MnO}_2$   
166 nanotubes with conducting carbon nanotubes (CNT) to improve the performance of lithium ion batteries  
167 and showed that such  $\text{MnO}_2/\text{CNT}$  hybrid nanotubes enhanced the electronic conductivity and reversible  
168 capacity of the electrode. To improve the energy and power density of a supercapacitor, bacterial  
169 cellulose derived carbon nanofibers loaded with  $\text{MnO}_2$  were used as the anode, and this cost-effective  
170 device delivered a high energy density ( $32.91 \text{ W h kg}^{-1}$ ) and excellent cycling stability after 2000 cycles  
171 [40]. Though much research has been carried out on the synthesis or capability enhancement of  
172 electrode materials, little attention has been paid to the construction of novel electrode materials using  
173 fungal biomineralization products. After thermal treatment, the  $\text{MycMnO}_x$  derived from thermal  
174 decomposition of the biomineralized  $\text{MnCO}_3$ , comprised an outer shell with the conducting carbonized  
175 fungal biomass in the inner core. Compared with conventional physico-chemical methods, our  
176 experiments illustrate a facile and novel procedure for preparation of  $\text{MycMnO}_x/\text{C}$  materials. The  
177 biomineralization process of  $\text{MnCO}_3$  by an ureolytic fungus not only provided the carbon precursor but  
178 also a source of manganese oxide which can be used directly as an electrode material after heat  
179 treatment. When used as an electrode material in a supercapacitor, compared with manganese oxide  
180 synthesized by other methods, the  $\text{MycMnO}_x/\text{C}$  exhibited a good specific capacitance of  $362 \text{ F g}^{-1}$  at a  
181 current density of  $1 \text{ A g}^{-1}$  (See also Table S1). The fungal mycelium provides a framework for the

182 deposition of minerals, and also evenly distributes the electrolyte ions which facilitates redox reactions  
183 in solution. Compared with other reported  $\text{MnO}_x$  materials in lithium ion batteries (See also Table S2),  
184 the  $\text{MycMnO}_x/\text{C}$  did not show a very good capacity ( $\sim 400 \text{ mA h g}^{-1}$ ) at a current density of  $100 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$   
185 which might be due to the low concentration of  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  added to the medium. However, it is worth noting  
186 that the  $\text{MycMnO}_x/\text{C}$  had an outstanding cycling stability and 91% of capacity was retained after 200  
187 cycles. According to XRD analysis, most of the decomposed minerals derived from fungal  
188 bioprecipitation were amorphous while some were present in nanoscale-sheets. Compared with  
189 crystalline  $\text{MnO}_x/\text{C}$ , the amorphous  $\text{MycMnO}_x/\text{C}$  nanosheets had a lower volume change during the  
190 redox reactions and this could also enhance the structural stability of the  $\text{MycMnO}_x/\text{C}$ . During the  
191 process of biomineralization, the hyphae provide a template for nucleation, growth and deposition of  
192 minerals, and the thermal decomposition of the biogenic  $\text{MnCO}_3$  and carbonization of fungal biomass  
193 results in a large specific surface area of the  $\text{MycMnO}_x/\text{C}$ . This is the first report of the application of  
194 fungal-derived  $\text{MnO}_x$  as an electrode material in supercapacitors and lithium ion batteries, with the  
195  $\text{MycMnO}_x/\text{C}$  showing good electrochemical properties, especially in cycling stability in lithium ion  
196 batteries. Fungal biomineralization methods for the synthesis of mycogenic  $\text{MnO}_x/\text{C}$  could therefore be  
197 a useful and **alternative** strategy for the preparation of novel electrochemical materials.

198

#### 199 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

200 Conceptualization, Q.L., D.L. and G.M.G.; Methodology, Q.L., D.L. and G.M.G.; Investigation, Q.L. and D.L.;  
201 Writing - Original Draft, Q.L. and D.L.; Writing - Review & Editing, Q.L. and G.M.G.; Funding Acquisition,  
202 G.M.G.; Resources, G.M.G., Z.J. and L.C.; Supervision, G.M.G.

203

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314 **Figure Legends**

315 Fig. 1. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) of *N. crassa* incubated in liquid media amended with 330  
316 mM urea and 5 mM MnCl<sub>2</sub>. (a-f) Before and (g-i) after heat treatment at 300°C for 4 h. Insets show  
317 energy dispersive X-ray analysis (EDXA) of the minerals precipitated by *N. crassa* (a) before and (g) after  
318 the heat treatment. Scale bars: (a) = 50 μm, (b, c) = 5 μm, (d, e, f, i) = 2 μm, (g) = 100 μm, (h) = 10 μm. All  
319 samples were incubated for 12 days at 25°C in the dark. Typical images are shown from many similar  
320 examples.

321 Fig. 2. Identification of minerals precipitated by *N. crassa* grown for 12 days at 25°C in the dark in liquid  
322 media amended with 330 mM urea and 5 mM MnCl<sub>2</sub>. (a) X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis; (b) Fourier  
323 transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) of minerals precipitated by *N. crassa* after heat treatment at  
324 300°C for 4 h. Typical spectra are shown from one of several determinations.

325 Fig. 3. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) of carbonized fungal biomass with Mn-containing  
326 minerals. (a) Total XPS spectra. Insets are the XPS spectra of N 1s and P 2p, respectively. The spectral  
327 peaks contributing to the spectrum are labeled and the near-horizontal line is the background. The  
328 jagged line is the raw spectra data, and the smooth curve is the best fit spectrum; (b) XPS Mn 2p spectra;  
329 (c) C 1s and (d) O 1s spectra. Symbols and curves are as in (a). Typical spectra are shown from one of  
330 several determinations.

331 Fig. 4. Electrochemical measurements of a MycMnO<sub>x</sub>/C electrode in a (a-d) supercapacitor (e-h) LiB: (a)  
332 Cyclic voltammetry (CV) curves; (b) specific capacitances at various scan rates in different electrolytes; (c)  
333 galvanostatic charge/discharge curves of the MycMnO<sub>x</sub>/C with 1 A g<sup>-1</sup> current density in an electrolyte of  
334 5.4 M KOH and 1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> after 20 cycles; (d) cycling performance of biomass material electrode at a  
335 current density of 1 A g<sup>-1</sup> for 200 cycles. Inset shows the first 10 charge/discharge cycles; (e) cyclic  
336 voltammetry (CV) curves at a scan rate of 0.5 mV/s; (f) charge/discharge curves at 0.1 A g<sup>-1</sup>; (g)  
337 charge/discharge capacity of MycMnO<sub>x</sub>/C at different current densities; (h) cycling performance and

338 coulombic efficiency at a  $0.5 \text{ A g}^{-1}$  current density. Typical patterns are shown from one of several  
339 determinations.

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