# 1 Selective metal extraction by biologically produced siderophores during

# 2 bioleaching from low-grade primary and secondary mineral resources

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- 18

## 19 Abstract

20 Siderophores are a class of biogenic macromolecules that have high affinities for metals in the 21 environment, thus could be exploited for alternate sustainable metal recovery technologies. Here, we 22 assess the role of siderophores in the extraction and complexation of metals from an iron oxide-rich 23 metallurgical processing residue and a low-grade primary Ni ore. Evaluation of the biological 24 siderophore bioproduction by three pseudomonads, P. fluorescens, P. azotoformans and P. putida 25 identified that *P. putida* could generate the highest siderophore yield, which was characterized as a 26 hydroxamate and catecholate mixed-type pyoverdine PyoPpC-3B. Key physiochemical parameters 27 involved in raw siderophore mediated metal extraction were identified using a fractional factorial 28 design of experiments (DOE) and subsequently employed in purified PyoPpC-3B leaching 29 experiments. Further targeted experiments with hydroxamate and catecholate functional analogues of 30 PyoPpC-3B confirmed their marked ability to competitively or selectively leach and chelate hard metal ions, including Al(OH) $_4^-$ , Mn<sup>2+</sup> and Zn<sup>2+</sup>. Interestingly, complexation of Mn and Zn ions 31 exceeded the natural affinity of pyoverdine for Fe<sup>3+</sup>, thus despite the low metal recoveries from the 32 33 materials tested in this study, this work provides important new insights in siderophore-metal 34 interactions.

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36 Keywords: Waste processing; Metal complexation; Pyoverdine; *Pseudomonas putida*; Resource

37 recovery

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40 **1.** Introduction. Siderophores are an important group of secondary metabolites produced by 41 microorganisms and plants to facilitate the uptake of iron, which is typically insoluble in most terrestrial environments <sup>1-3</sup>. Siderophore concentrations in the environment typically lie in the uM-42 43 mM range  $^{4}$  and are intrinsically involved in weathering soil minerals  $^{5,6}$ , thus can significantly 44 contribute to the mobility of metals in the environment. Siderophores also form complexes with a diverse range of other metals including Al, Cd, Cu, Ga, In, Pb, REE, Zr, Hf<sup>7,8</sup>, essential 45 macronutrients Mo, Mn, Co and Zn<sup>9</sup>, as well as radionuclides U, Np, Th and Pu<sup>10-12</sup>. Whilst the 46 47 evolutionary reasoning behind this remains unclear, it could represent the sequestration of essential 48 macronutrients, or detoxification of metals which would otherwise result in oxidative cellular stress 9,12 49

50 Over 500 siderophores have been characterized to date, and can be classified by their ligand 51 functionalities <sup>13</sup>: (i) catecholates (aryl caps) of which include phenolates, (ii) hydroxamates, (iii) carboxylates or hydroxycarboxylates <sup>14</sup>. It is widely documented that *Pseudomonas* sp. can produce 52 53 pyoverdine-type siderophores, and less complex siderophores ('secondary siderophores') such as 54 pyochelin, pseudomonine, thioquinolobactin and pyridine-2,6-bis(monothiocarboxylic acid), yet there 55 is a paucity of studies towards the characterisation of their metal binding properties in mixed element 56 systems. Pyoverdines have been shown to have high affinities for a range of metals including Zn, Cu and Mn ( $K_a 10^{17-22}$ ) yet with a clear preference for iron ( $K_a 10^{32}$ ) under their respective experimental 57 conditions 9,15,16. 58

59 Siderophores have received much attention in recent years because of their potential 60 application in various areas of environmental research, including medicine (e.g. anemia treatments), agriculture (plant-bacteria synergism and bio-pesticides)<sup>17,18</sup>, bio-sensors, chelating agents and bio-61 62 remediation <sup>14</sup> (Table 1). Siderophores can also offer perspectives for recovering raw materials from 63 sustainable metal reserves. The depletion of high-grade mineral resources at a reasonable accessibility 64 (<1 km depth) has forced the mining industry to search for alternative processes that exploit low-65 grade mineral deposits and avoid a high energy consumption. This is further exacerbated by the 66 predicted exhaustion of Zn, Ga, Ge, As, Rh, Ag, In, Sn, Sb, Hf, Pb, Mn and Au within 50 years, Ni, 67 Cu, Cd, Tl, Fe and U within 100 years and platinum group metals in 150 years, based on current 68 consumption rates <sup>19</sup>. Metal recovery from alternate low-grade primary and secondary sources

69 provides a great opportunity to meet the demand of raw materials. Zinc refining operations, for 70 instance, have been generating large amounts of iron oxide-rich jarosite and goethite wastes, posing serious environmental, social and economic difficulties <sup>20</sup>. Primary laterite ores are increasingly being 71 72 investigated due to their abundance and significant quantities of important metals Co and Ni<sup>21</sup>. Over 73 the last century, bioleaching is being increasingly investigated as a more sustainable mode of hydrometallurgical metal extraction <sup>22</sup>. Recent work has implicated the involvement of siderophores 74 in the leaching of metals from fayalite slags  $^{23,24}$  and chromite tailing  $^{25}$  by *P. aeruginosa* and *P.* 75 76 *putida*, however, no further siderophore characterisation or metal-siderophore interactions were

assessed.

Accordingly, this study aimed at evaluating the production of siderophores by strains of

79 Pseudomonas and their potential to extract metals, including Zn, Mn and Al, from two low-grade

80 mineral resources; the first, an iron oxide-rich residue from zinc processing, and secondly, a Ni-

81 bearing laterite ore. Whilst improving our mechanistic understanding of siderophore-metal

82 interactions in complex mineralogical environments, it contributes to the early development of

83 alternate bio-metallurgical technologies for sustainable metal extraction.

Siderophore	Microorganism	Metal targeted	References
Deferoxamine	Streptomyces pilosus	Fe, Al, Ga, In	26
		Mn	27
Micacocidin	Pseudomonas sp.	Zn	15
	1	Cu	28
		Ga, Ni	29
Protochelin	Azotobacter vinelandii	Mo, V	15
		Other non-iron	30
		metallophore	
Pvochelin	Pseudomonas	Cu	15
<b>)</b>	aeruginosa	Other non-Fe	31,32
		metallophore	11
		Actinides/REEs	33
		Ga	
Pvoverdines	Pseudomonas	Zn/Cu	15
- j 0 + 01 011100	aeruginosa	U/ REEs	11,34,35
	Pseudomanas	As	36
	fluorescens		

84 **Table 1.** Overview of studies towards the application of siderophores towards non-Fe metals

	Pseudomonas putida		
Pyridine-2,6-	Pseudomonas spp.	Zn	15
dithiocarboxylate		Cu	37
Yersiniabactin	Pseudomonas	Zn	15
	syringae pv.	Cu	38
		Ni, Pd	39
Azobactin	Azobacter vinelandii	Fe, V, Mo	15
		Mo, V	40

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## 87 2. Materials and Methods

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89 2.1 Cultivation of strains. The bacterial strains used in this study were *Pseudomonas putida* PpF1 90 (LMG 24210), Pseudomonas fluorescens (LMG 1794) and Pseudomonas azotoformans (DSMZ 91 18862). P. putida and P. fluorescens strains were obtained from the Belgian Coordinated Collection 92 of Micro-organisms and P. azotoformans was purchased from Leibniz Institute DSMZ-German 93 Collection of Microorganisms and Cell Culture. Bacterial strains where first plated on LB agar (Carl 94 Roth, Germany) from glycerol stocks and incubated at 28 °C for 24 h. Single colonies were further sub-cultured in 10 mL of LB broth (Carl Roth, Germany) and incubated at 28 °C for 24 h with 95 96 constant shaking at 120 rpm until an optical density at 600 nm, OD<sub>600</sub> (DR Lange ISIS 900 MPA 97 photometer) was approximately 1.5. All microbial cultivation and siderophore production experiments 98 were carried out under strictly sterile and aerobic conditions.

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100 2.2 Microbial siderophore purification and characterization. To stimulate the production of 101 siderophores, strains were first grown on LB growth media, centrifuged and washed twice with 0.9 % 102 NaCl before transferring at a starting OD<sub>600</sub> of 0.02 into a modified selective medium (MSM) previously applied for siderophore production (6 g  $L^{-1}$  K<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>, 3 g  $L^{-1}$  KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 5 g  $L^{-1}$  (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, 103 0.2 g L<sup>-1</sup> MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 4 g L<sup>-1</sup> Na-succinate and 4 g L<sup>-1</sup> casamino acids) <sup>41</sup>. The pH was set to 7 prior to 104 105 autoclaving and to avoid precipitation, the casamino acids solution was filter-sterilised and added 106 after autoclaving the medium. Strictly Fe-free conditions were established and maintained by pre-107 washing all glassware in 2 (v/v)% HCl, to prepare the medium in order to maximize the siderophore

production <sup>42</sup>. Before inoculation from LB sub-cultures to MSM, cells where centrifuged at 5000 rpm 108 109 for 2 min and washed twice with MSM. The growth of each strain was evaluated in triplicate serum 110 flasks by measuring the  $OD_{600}$  for a period of 5 days. The siderophore concentration was 111 approximated with a high throughput chrome azurol sulfonate (CAS) assay and measuring the UV-VIS absorbance at 620 nm<sup>43</sup>. The resulting pyoverdine siderophore was purified from 4 L of a 72 h 112 old culture by previously described methods <sup>44</sup>. Briefly, the filtered culture supernatant was loaded 113 114 onto a C-18 column that was activated with methanol and washed with distilled water. Elution was 115 performed with acetonitrile/  $H_2O$  (70/30 %). Preparative-scale purification of the pyoverdine was performed using a Prep 150 LC system (Waters). A SunFire Prep C18 column (C-18, 19 x 250 mm, 5 116 um particle size) was used with a flow rate of 20 mL min<sup>-1</sup> and a gradient from H<sub>2</sub>O/CH<sub>3</sub>CN 9:1 117 118 containing 0.1 % CF<sub>3</sub>COOH to H<sub>2</sub>O/CH<sub>3</sub>CN 6:4 containing 0.1 % CF<sub>3</sub>COOH in 20 min. CH<sub>3</sub>CN was 119 evaporated from the extract in vacuo and the sample was lyophilized. LC/MS analyses were 120 performed to identify the pyoverdine on a Kontron 325 system, coupled to the mass spectrometer and 121 equipped with a UV detector (model 322), an automatic injector (model 465) and LC-6A pumps. The column used was a Vydac 218TP54 RP column (C18, 5  $\mu$ m, d = 0.46 cm, l = 25 cm) and a flow rate 122 of 1 mL min<sup>-1</sup> was maintained. Mass spectral data (MS) were recorded on a VG Quattro II 123 124 spectrometer (ESP ionization, cone voltage 70 V, capillary voltage 3.5 kV, source temperature 80 °C). 125 Data collection was performed using Masslynx software. Structural information from the LC/MS 126 spectrum was visualized using ChemSketch (ACD Labs).

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2.3 Metal bioleaching. The elemental composition of the two materials used in this study, an iron oxide-rich processing residue from Zn production and a Polish laterite ore was determined via a pseudo total acid digest via aqua regia <sup>45</sup> (Table 2) after sieving through a 1000 μm mesh sieve and have been previously characterised <sup>46</sup>. Briefly, the iron oxide mineral residue primarily consisted of gypsum, quartz, calcite, hematite, willemite, jarosite and franklinite, whilst the laterite comprised of lizardite, forsterite, magnesioferrite, quartz and willemseite. All batch leaching experiments were performed in closed polypropylene tubes (Greiner, Germany) at 28 °C in a vertical shaker.

For the fractional factorial design of experiments (DOE), five parameters were evaluated:
sonication of the material prior to leaching (yes/no), pulp density (5%/20%), pH (2/9), particle size

137 fractions (0.2 mm/1 mm) and the presence or absence of microbial biomass, i.e. separation prior to 138 leaching via centrifugation (ves/no). All subsequent experiments were performed without sonication, 139 a pulp density of 5%, no pH buffering and on material sieved with a 0.2 mm steel wire mesh. After 24 140 h, the pH was measured and the suspensions were filtered using 0.2 µm syringe filters (Chromafil 141 Xtra, Germany). All experiments were performed in triplicates and control experiments were 142 conducted with demineralized H<sub>2</sub>O and uninoculated MSM (pH 7). The negative controls in 143 demineralized H<sub>2</sub>O and MSM had a pH value of either 2 or 9.5. Siderophores produced by the three 144 strains of *Pseudomonas* were harvested at the previously determined maximum siderophore unit (SU) 145 production time point of 48 h and verified for siderophore concentration using the CAS assay, prior to 146 bioleaching. The siderophore content was calculated according to Equation 1 where  $A_r$  and  $A_s$ 147 correspond to the absorbance at 630 nm of the reference (sterile growth media) and sample,

148 respectively <sup>18</sup>.

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(1) % siderophore units =  $(A_r - A_s)/A_r \times 100$ 

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Leaching experiments were also conducted with synthetic siderophore functionalities, using catechol (Sigma Aldrich, Germany), acetohydroxamic acid (Sigma Aldrich, Germany) and a commercial purified siderophore, 1.52 mmol L<sup>-1</sup> deferoxamine (DFO, Sigma Aldrich, Germany). The functional analogues catechol and acetohydroxamic acid (AHA) were added at both low (0.1 wt/v %) and higher 1 and 10 wt/v % in order to exaggerate differences in leaching and to develop insights into siderophore-metal interactions in these systems.

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**Table 2.** Elemental composition of the investigated materials, expressed as mg metal per g of
 material. Concentrations are mean values and standard deviations derived from chemical analysis in
 triplicate (N = 3).

Element	Iron oxide mineral residue (mg g <sup>-1</sup> )	Laterite (mg g <sup>-1</sup> )
Al	$6.03\pm0.09$	$1.44\pm0.11$

01	0.007	0.0002
Cd	$0.287 \pm 0.006$	< 0.0003
Co	$0.020\pm0.001$	$0.164 \pm 0.011$
Cr	$0.337\pm0.006$	$0.412\pm0.058$
Cu	$2.95\pm0.10$	$0.001 \pm 0.001$
Fe	$125.5 \pm 4.24$	$67.9 \pm 3.0$
Mn	$2.45\pm0.07$	$1.36\pm0.08$
Ni	$0.050\pm0.001$	$10.3\pm0.4$
Pb	$12.5 \pm 0.6$	< 0.015
Zn	$43 \pm 2$	$0.084\pm0.002$

#### 162

163 **2.4 Chemical analysis.** The metal concentrations in the filtrate were in-line diluted with a 1  $\mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup>

164 Rh internal standard and determined by Inductively Coupled Plasma – Optical Emission Spectroscopy

165 (ICP-OES, Varian Vista MPX, US), after appropriate dilution using 1 (v/v)% HNO<sub>3</sub>

166 . Quantification was performed using an external standard series and linearity criteria in the

167 calibration of  $R^2 > 0.9990$ . All reported concentrations exceeded the method detection limit. The pH

168 was measured using a Consort multiparameter analyzer C3020.

169

# 170 **3. Results**

171

172 **3.1 Microbial siderophore production and purification.** The siderophore production by *P*.

173 *fluorescens, P. azotoformans* and *P. putida* was compared under previously reported optimal

174 siderophore production conditions  $^{18,41}$ . Similar average growth rates of  $0.092 \pm 0.009 \text{ h}^{-1}$ ,  $0.080 \pm$ 

175 0.001 h<sup>-1</sup>, 0.095  $\pm$  0.008 h<sup>-1</sup> were observed for *P. putida*, *P. fluorescens* and *P. azotoformans*,

176 respectively (Figure 1A). Whilst *P. putida* and *P. fluorescens* had similar maximum SU production

177 rates  $(3.0 \pm 0.2 \text{ h}^{-1} \text{ and } 2.6 \pm 0.8 \text{ h}^{-1}, \text{ respectively})$  compared to *P. azotoformans*  $(1.6 \pm 0.7 \text{ h}^{-1})$ , near

- 178 maximal SU units were measured at an earlier time point with *P. putida* (21 h) with respect to the
- 179 other 2 strains (Figure 1B). No significant enhancement of siderophore production was observed by
- using a 10 fold higher inoculum concentration (starting  $OD_{600}$  0.2 vs 0.02), highlighting siderophore

production was an active process during the growth of these strains. The maximum yield of 75 % SU by *P. putida* in this study is slightly lower than the 83 % and 87 % reported by Sayyed and coworkers <sup>18</sup> and higher than the value of 69 % SU for *P. aeruginosa* reported by Shaikh and coworkers <sup>47</sup>. With its optimal siderophore production, *P. putida* was therefore chosen for further leaching experiments in this study.

186 To identify the pyoverdine produced by *P. putida* under the experimental conditions of this 187 study, siderophores were harvested from the growth media and analyzed by ESI-MS. Structural 188 analysis of semi-purified siderophores by ESI-MS (Figure S1) showed a predominant molecular mass at m/z 1370 and at its double ionization of m/z 685, corresponding to a previously identified a 189 pyoverdine-type siderophore, PyoPpC-3B  $^{48}$ , with the chromophore group linked to a 9 residues long 190 191 peptide chain consisting out of Asp-OHbutOHOrn-Dab-Thr-Gly-Ser-Ser-OHAsp-Thr. The abbreviations OHbutOHOrn, Dab and OHAsp represent N<sup> $\delta$ </sup>-hydroxybutyryl-N<sup> $\delta$ </sup>-hydroxy-Orn, 192 diamino-butanoic acid and threo- $\beta$ -hydroxy-aspartic acid, respectively. The peptide sequence suggests 193 194 a metal-binding pocket formed by three moieties; the catecholate of the chromophore, the hydroxamate of N<sup>5</sup>-hydroxy-Orn and  $\beta$ -hydroxybutyric acid, and the  $\alpha$ -OH-carboxylate from OHAsp. 195 196 PyoPpC-3B has been shown to be actively involved in iron acquisition by another closely related 197 strain, P. putida C<sup>49</sup>.

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199 3.2 Physiochemical impacts towards metal extraction by biogenic siderophores. To efficiently 200 identify biological (presence of cells) and physiochemical (pH, particle size, pulp density and 201 sonication of the material) parameters that may influence metal extraction from an iron oxide mineral 202 residue by siderophores, a fractional factorial DOE was employed (Figure 2). No metals were 203 extracted in the growth media control, indicating that metals leached were through a combination of 204 siderophore and/ or physiochemical modifications. Whilst sonochemical leaching has been 205 demonstrated to impact (bio)physiochemical parameters and improve (bio)leaching processes, no significant impact on metal extraction was observed in our experiments (p = 0.250)<sup>50</sup>. Aside from 206 207 copper, a slightly poorer bioleaching performance in the presence of residual *Pseudomonas* cells was 208 observed. Further production of siderophores may have been suppressed due to the initially extracted

209 metals in the pregnant leachate, and the overall metal extraction performance may have been 210 counteracted by their adverse sorption to cell surfaces. Nevertheless, the difference was not 211 significant (p = 0.851). The highest metal extracted over all conditions was Zn, with a marked 212 selectivity (900 fold average response Zn vs Fe) over the highest abundant metal in the starting 213 material, Fe (24 wt %). The most significant factor on metal extraction was lowering the pH to 2 ( $p < 10^{-10}$ 214 0.05 for Zn), highlighting the importance of proton attack towards metal solubilisation from this material. Lowering the pulp density from 200 g  $L^{-1}$  to 50 g  $L^{-1}$  generally improved the leaching of all 215 216 metals analyzed, which is typically reported from previous leaching studies with biogenic acids as it improves reactive processes at the surface interface  $^{51,52}$ . With the exception of iron, increasing the 217 total particle size fraction from 0.2 mm to 1 mm hindered leaching, which may represent more facile 218 219 surface reactions on smaller particle sizes for non Fe metals and has also been reported for inorganic 220 acid leaching <sup>53</sup>.

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## 222 **3.3 Bioleaching with pyoverdine produced by** *Pseudomonas putida*. To further explore

223 pyoverdine-metal extraction mechanisms and to support the initial physiochemical screen with raw 224 siderophore solutions, a series of leaching experiments were conducted with the purified PyoPpC-3B 225 in contact with the iron oxide mineral residue. To augment metal extraction, experiments were sieved 226 with a 200  $\mu$ m mesh at a pulp density of 50 g L<sup>-1</sup> without sonication and after removal the biomass of 227 *P. putida* via centrifugation. Whilst dramatically improving the leaching efficiency of Zn, the pH was 228 not changed in order to dissociate the effect of proton activity from pure siderophore activity.

229 To determine whether pyoverdine purity, concentration or material contact time influenced 230 metal extraction, materials were brought in contact with the lixiviant either directly in the liquid phase 231 after centrifugation of cells, or following a purification step by C18 chromatography and re-dissolving 232 the lyophilized siderophore sample in ultra-pure water at two concentrations over a contact time of 233 seven days (Figure 3A and 3B). The purification step had no effect on the leaching of Mn (p = 0.830) 234 or Zn (p = 0.900) from the iron oxide mineral residue, thus harvested pyoverdines can be applied 235 directly for bioleaching without the need for additional purification steps. Furthermore, expanding the 236 contact time from 1 to 7 days (Figure 3B) only moderately enhanced the leaching of Mn (p = 0.206) 237 and Zn (p = 0.804), showing limited kinetic dependence of bioleaching at neutral pH. The pyoverdine

concentration has a certain, although not significant, effect towards Mn (p = 0.173) and Zn (p = 0.346) extraction from iron oxide mineral residue (Figure 3C). Lower concentrations of Al ( $2.1 \pm 0.2$  µmol g<sup>-1</sup>) and Cu ( $1.1 \pm 0.1$  µmol g<sup>-1</sup>) were also observed after leaching with the higher pyoverdine concentration (Figure 3C). The maximal extraction of Mn ( $4.6 \pm 2.7$  µmol g<sup>-1</sup>) and Zn ( $6.0 \pm 2.1$  µmol g<sup>-1</sup>) was obtained at the longest contact time of 7 d and highest pyoverdine concentration of 3.6 mM, whereas Cu and Al concentrations dropped at later time points (data not shown), indicative of a reprecipitation event.

245 To explore pyoverdine interactions with other metals and varying mineral phases, leaching 246 experiments with the semi purified pyoverdine were performed on a Polish Ni laterite ore. Similar to 247 the iron oxide mineral residue, higher pyoverdine concentrations favored metal extraction, with  $1.3 \pm$ 0.1 µmol g<sup>-1</sup> Al extracted only at 3.6 mmol L<sup>-1</sup>, coupled to a pH drop from 8.3 to 7.8 (Figure 3D). Ni 248  $(0.42 \pm 0.03 \ \mu mol \ g^{-1})$  and Fe  $(5.2 \pm 0.5 \ \mu mol \ g^{-1})$  were also present after leaching with the higher 249 pyoverdine concentration, consistent with the Ni:Fe ratio of the primary Ni mineral in this material, 250 251 forsterite. One-way ANOVA with Holm-Šídák post-hoc testing showed an enhancement (p < 0.001) 252 at a pyoverdine concentration of 3.6 mM compared to the control group with only H<sub>2</sub>O. A marked increase of Co extraction was also observed from the laterite using 3.5 mmol L<sup>-1</sup> pyoverdine (12.5  $\pm$ 253 0.1 nmol  $g^{-1}$ ) compared to 0.4 mmol  $L^{-1}$ , where Co was below the detection limit (<1 nmol  $g^{-1}$ ). 254 255 However, these results represent a very low extraction yield and selectivity.

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**3.4 Leaching using synthetic chelating functionalities.** In order to gain a mechanistic understanding of the affinity in metal complexation reactions, metal extraction from the iron oxide mineral residue and the Ni laterite ore was evaluated using synthetic chelating functionalities that resemble the chromophore groups found in siderophores. An initial screening was carried out with catechol and acetohydroxamic acid, as representation of catecholate and hydroxamate functional analogues of PyoPpC-3B at 1 wt/v % (133  $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup> and 90.8  $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup> respectively) <sup>54</sup> (Figure 4).

In general, as predicted, more pronounced levels of metal extraction were observed using synthetic analogues that were poised at elevated concentrations in comparison to the biogenic pyoverdine. Amongst the different chelating molecules, AHA showed capable of extracting and complexing the largest amount of metals. This was apparent for Zn and Fe in iron oxide mineral

residue (Figure 4A) and Fe, Mn and Ni in laterite (Figure 4B). However, the selectivity towards Zn,
Mn or Ni over Fe was limited, with relatively high concentrations of Fe being extracted in solution:
170 µmol g<sup>-1</sup> from iron oxide mineral residue and 23 µmol g<sup>-1</sup> from laterite. Preferential extraction via
acidolysis and subsequent metal complexation by AHA functionalities would suggest that this

271 functional group may have the most pronounced influence towards quantitative bioleaching.

272 To further explore the impact of hydroxamate and catecholate concentrations on the leaching 273 of metals from the iron oxide mineral residue, leaching experiments were performed at two additional 274 concentrations, 0.1 wt/v % (13.3  $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup> and 9.08  $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup>) and 0.01 wt/v % (1.33  $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup> and 0.91 µmol L<sup>-1</sup>) (Figure 4A). Lower catechol concentrations showed a marked improvement of 275 selectivity and Mn extraction. Furthermore, no impact on Mn extraction was observed between two 276 higher concentrations (9.1 and 91  $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup>), where the biggest difference in the final pH was 277 observed (~pH5-6.5) (Figure 4C), highlighting that catechol-Mn interactions could not be explained 278 279 by the pH and could proceed at low stochiometric ratios. With respect to the hydroxamate 280 functionality, a significantly improved selectivity of Zn against Fe was observed at lower hydroxamate concentrations, from a 1:2 Zn:Fe ratio at 133 µmol L<sup>-1</sup> to 10:1 and 5:0 for 13.3 µmol L<sup>-1</sup> 281 and 1.33  $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup>. In this case, the pH shift from ~pH 5.9-6.8 between the two higher concentrations 282 283 had a greater role in Zn and Fe extraction (Figure 4A and 4C).

284 To benchmark PyoPpC-3B against other biogenic siderophores, leaching experiments with a 285 commercial hydroxamate-type siderophore DFO produced by *Streptomyces pilosus* at a concentration of 1 g  $L^{-1}$  (1.52 mmol  $L^{-1}$ ) was performed on the iron oxide residue (Figure 4). Whilst Zn leaching 286 was higher for DFO over PyoPpC-3B at 7.65  $\pm$  2,3 µmol g<sup>-1</sup>, a lower selectivity against iron was also 287 observed, with extracted iron at  $3.58 \pm 0.1 \,\mu$ mol g<sup>-1</sup>. The low mg L<sup>-1</sup> concentration range of metals 288 289 leached by PyoPpC-B3 and DFO are comparable with previous reported values from a study using 3 mmol  $L^{-1}$  DFO, particularly for Fe (5.2-12.2 µmol g<sup>-1</sup>) that was also present in hydroxide form and at 290 an elevated concentration  $(7.2-9.2 \text{ wt } \%)^{55}$ . 291

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4. Discussion. Bioleaching by heterotrophic microorganisms occurs by one or a combination of the
 following mechanisms: acidolysis, complexolysis or redoxolysis <sup>56,57</sup>. Upon contact of the 5 g L<sup>-1</sup>, pH
 7.7 PyoPpC-3B lixiviant with the iron oxide-rich mineral residue, the pH of the resulting solution

296 raised from  $5.72 \pm 0.01$  increased to  $6.88 \pm 0.01$  after 1 day. The subsequent pH transition from weak 297 acid to neutral conditions is consistent with the dissolution of  $Zn^{2+}$  from the Zn bearing mineral jarosite in the iron oxide mineral residue <sup>58</sup> (Figure 3), given according to reaction Equation 2. A 298 299 similar pH evolution was observed with demineralized water, yet resulted in a lower leaching yield, 300 clearly highlighting that PvoPpC-3B enhanced the metal extraction process. Indeed, results from DOE 301 screening demonstrated that reducing the initial pH (2) through inorganic acid addition could further 302 enhance metal extraction (Figure 2), however no significant difference was observed between the 303 siderophore solution and the acidified siderophore solution, indicating proton attack overrules the 304 siderophore chelating activity.

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(2) 
$$K(Fe^{III}, Zn)_3(OH)_8(SO_4)_2 \xrightarrow{H^+} KOH + FeO(OH) + ZnSO_4 + H_2O$$

306 In this study, acidification by acetohydroxamic acid, particularly at higher concentrations 307 highlighted that acidolysis may play a more direct role in metal extraction. Santos and coworkers also 308 showed through pH dependence studies that metal extraction by trihydroxamate is accelerated with increasing acidity of the medium <sup>59</sup>. Mechanistically, they inferred two parallel pathways: one is a 309 310 bimolecular process involving the direct attack of the acid on the siderophore analogue complex, the 311 other involves initially the protonation of the trihydroxamate group, followed by a rapid attack of the 312 competing ligand. Conversely, pure complexolysis by siderophores that contain hydroxamate groups 313 is expected to have a higher efficiency at neutral to alkaline conditions. Hence, dissolution and 314 complexation of Al from the laterite in this study is only occurring at neutral pH. The small decrease 315 in pH (from 8.3 to 7.8) during bioleaching can be explained by the release of hydroxonium ions in the 316 pregnant leachate solution (Equation 3).

317

(3) 
$$\alpha - Al_2O_3 + 7H_2O \longrightarrow 2Al(OH)_4^- + 2H_3O^+ \qquad \Delta G^\circ = -226.4 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

318

The balance of pH on the added effect of siderophore action is therefore a key parameter to consider towards the application of this technology. Kraemer and coworkers also found that a low pH

(< 2) indeed limits metal chelation with siderophores due to a change in the protonation <sup>55</sup>. Moreover, 321 322 high H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup> concentrations can even cause degradation of the pH-sensitive DFO molecule. Conversely, 323 at pH 2-7, the tertiary amine of hydroxamate moieties in DFO have a lone electron pair, allowing for 324 tris-hydroxamate to coordinate with Fe(III)  $^{60}$ . Slightly basic conditions of pH > 8 have also been shown to be preferable for chelation of Pt and Pd by DFO from PGM-rich ores <sup>55</sup>. In the same way, 325 Neubauer and coworkers showed that DFO could chelate  $Co^{3+}$  better than Fe<sup>3+</sup> at higher pH values <sup>61</sup>. 326 Whilst preliminary experiments in this study at pH 2 indicated no sign of pyoverdine degradation at 327 328 early time points and that functional groups were predominantly protonated (data not shown), further 329 work is needed to monitor siderophore stability under these experimental conditions over longer time frames. Identifying whether siderophore degradation (via e.g. ester/amide hydrolysis) or ion exchange 330 331 with other metals in the pregnant leachate could help to elucidate observations towards Cu and Al 332 reprecipitation from the iron oxide mineral residue over longer leaching time frames.

333 Redoxolysis can also contribute to the bioleaching process, considering catecholate has a comparable redox potential ( $\epsilon^0 = +0.795$  V) for e.g. Mn(IV) reduction ( $\epsilon^0 = +1.224$  V), thus can act as 334 a specific mediator and transform to *o*-benzoquinone <sup>62</sup>. The dissolution of metal ions from pyrolusite 335 336 (Equation 4) and manganite (Equation 5) is hereby accompanied by an electron transfer and reduction 337 of Mn(IV) or Mn(III). The relatively high yields of Mn solubilisation in comparison to the lower catecholate concentrations, non-shifted between  $16.9 \pm 0.34 \,\mu\text{mol}\ \text{g}^{-1}$  and  $15.2 \pm 0.03 \,\mu\text{mol}\ \text{g}^{-1}$  for 338 339 90.8 and 9.08  $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup> respectively (Figure 4), may also give support to an electron shuttling reductive solubilisation mechanism. 340

341

(4) 
$$MnO_2 + 2e^- + 4H^+ \longrightarrow Mn^{2+} + 2H_2O \qquad \varepsilon^0 = +1.224 \text{ V}$$

(5) 
$$MnO(OH) + e^- + 3H^+ \longrightarrow Mn^{2+} + 2H_2O$$

342

Figure 5 illustrates the central hexadentate metal coordination of the pyoverdine characterised in this
study that contains both catecholate and hydroxamate functional groups. A comparison of metal
extraction with synthetic functional analogues (Figure 4), pointed towards AHA being the main metal

chelating group and that catecholate groups may be involved in the reductive dissolution of Mn
oxides in the materials tested in this study. Nevertheless, other non-specific functional groups, as part
of the peptide chain attached to C1 of the chromophore group may collectively act as metal cation
chelators <sup>63</sup>, but further work is needed to clarify these observations.

350 The selectivity in metal complexation is greatly determined by their affinity with functional 351 groups. In mixed metals solutions, competition for siderophore complexation exists between different metal cations, typically  $Fe^{3+}$ ,  $Al^{3+}$ ,  $Ca^{2+}$ ,  $Cu^{2+}$  and  $Zn^{2+64}$ . Selectivity of siderophores towards hard 352 metal ions of coordination number 6 became clear from our results (Figure 3), thus in the absence of 353 significant labile  $Fe^{3+}$  concentrations,  $Mn^{2+}$  and  $Zn^{2+}$  may take over its role in complexation with 354 pyoverdine. Both  $Mn^{2+}$  and  $Zn^{2+}$  possess a similar charge to ionic radius ratio (2 : 0.07 nm) that it is 355 determinative for cationic metallophore complexation <sup>7</sup>. On the contrary, Al(OH)<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> follows another 356 357 geometric complexation as a result of its hydroxyanion speciation.

358 Pyoverdines are well documented to be selective towards Fe in aqueous mixed metal systems, but little work has looked at the extraction of metals from solid mineral residues. The selectivity of 359 360 pyoverdines towards Zn and Mn over Fe in this study likely represents a recalcitrance of the Fe 361 mineral phases and/or more labile Zn and Fe for siderophore extraction. Whilst hematite, a principal 362 iron mineral in the iron oxide-rich mineral residue has been previously demonstrated to be susceptible 363 to Fe extraction by siderophores, these studies were performed either through siderophore expression 364 during in situ contact with the material, using an alternate hydroxamate-type siderophore, DFO and/or with nanoparticle fractions <sup>4</sup>. The larger particle sizes in this study, in combination with its presence 365 366 within a mixed highly weathered sample may thus impede such processes. This may be compounded 367 by the limited metal binding siderophore substrate. This effect may be less apparent in the laterite system, with lower reported aluminum-hydroxamate formation constants (log K 21.5)<sup>65</sup>. The higher 368 observed Zn to Fe ratios at lower concentrations of acetohydroxamic acid, where a pH shift from 6 369 370 (133  $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup>) to 6.75 (13.3 and 1.33  $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup>) occurred may also favor metal complexolysis of Zn 371 over acidolysis, but should be validated with other materials in follow up studies.

372

**5.** Conclusions. This study demonstrates the selective extraction of  $Zn^{2+}$  and  $Mn^{2+}$  metal ions, and competitive extraction of Al(OH)<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> from a primary and secondary mineral residue, by a hydroxamate

375 and catecholate mixed-type pyoverdine PyoPpC-3B, produced by *Pseudomonas putida* PpF1. We 376 propose the following mode of action of this biogenic macromolecule and its functional analogues: 377 (1) (in)direct metal dissolution via acidolysis (e.g. for Zn from jarosite) (2) reductive mineral 378 dissolution via redoxolysis (e.g. for catecholate groups with Mn oxides) (3) subsequent complexolysis 379 via the chromophore that can further drive metal release from the substrate. Whilst relatively low 380 yields are reported for these materials, metal solubilisation could be further enhanced by increasing 381 siderophore or functional analogue concentrations, and to a lesser extent, the contact time. For further 382 follow up studies, combinations of siderophores and more established bio-hydrometallurgical 383 lixiviants such as biogenic organic acids under weakly acidic conditions could also be of interest to 384 identify synergy between higher leaching yields and selectivity. The separation of the metal-385 siderophore complex and subsequent metal recovery from the pregnant leachates should also be 386 investigated and recent work has demonstrated that this could be feasible <sup>66</sup>.

387 Whilst some work has reported concomitant or alternate metal complexation by siderophores 388 over iron, little work has shown a clear preference for Zn and Mn extraction over Fe. Whilst Al was 389 not selectively leached over Fe in the laterite, the co-leaching of these metals by this particular 390 siderophore has not been reported before and clearly warrants further follow up. Comparison with 391 synthetic functional analogues revealed that AHA has strong metal chelating properties. It is 392 suggested that these hydroxamate moieties in biogenic siderophores also represent the primary route 393 in the metal dissolution and complexation process, although advanced chemical characterization of 394 the metal complexes in the leachate are needed to support this working hypothesis. The stoichiometric 395 excess of Mn extracted against the lower catechol concentrations suggests that reductive dissolution 396 may play an additional role, but further work is also needed to clarify these observations. Finally, the 397 stability of siderophores during the metal extraction process should be evaluated to determine their 398 impact on metal release post extraction and their potential recovery for reuse.

This study has, for the first time, implicated the direct role of siderophores in metal extraction from low grade primary and secondary resources. Whilst currently providing low relative metal yields, it supplies important first steps towards sustainable metal extraction and recovery. Moreover, it provides important insights in siderophore-metal interactions in complex and refractory primary and

403	secondary mineral sources, that also have implications for the acquisition of metals by
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405	
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415 characterised the pyoverdine structure, assisted in data interpretation and reviewed the manuscript. JV

416 assisted in DOE design and analysis, GDL, NB and TH assisted in project conceptualisation, data

- 417 interpretation and reviewed the manuscript.
- 418

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**Figure 1.** Growth curve (A) and siderophore production (B) by *Pseudomonas putida*, *Pseudomonas fluorescens* and *Pseudomonas azotoformans* as a function of time. Error bars arise from n = 3 independent samples.



**Figure 2.** Effect of sonication, solid to liquid (S/L) ratio, pH, sieving mesh size of the substrate and presence of cells on the Zn, Mn, Cu, Cd, Fe and Co extraction from iron oxide mineral residue, presented as its calculated response ( $\log_{10} \mu mol g^{-1}$ ) to each treatment. The average response for each metal is given in the legend

![](_page_23_Figure_1.jpeg)

**Figure 3**. Metal equivalents extracted from low grade mineral residues by PyoPpC-3B. The effect of a purification step to enhance the pyoverdine purity (A), contact time (B) and pyoverdine concentration after a contact time of 1 day with iron oxide mineral residue (C) and laterite (D) on the extracted metal content is shown (n = 3).

![](_page_24_Figure_1.jpeg)

**Figure 4.** Metal leaching from iron oxide mineral residue (A) and laterite (B) by purified water (negative control), deferoxamine (DFO), acetohydroxamic acid (AHA) and catechol (CAT), with their respective final pH after a contact time of one day. Error bars arise from n = 3 independent samples.

![](_page_25_Figure_1.jpeg)

**Figure 5.** Chemical structure of PyoPpC-3B. The 6 circled functional groups are responsible for metal interaction and together form the metallophore complex