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Increased Mg release rates and related Mg isotopic signatures during

bacteria-phlogopite interactions

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ABSTRACT:

Phlogopite weathering experiments were carried out under aerobic conditions in a closed 15 system to study Mg isotopic fractionation during the dissolution and processes involved in the 16 17 presence of bacterial strains. Four different bacterial strains with different metabolisms were 18 chosen. Biotic experiments were performed in batch reactors at 24°C for 12 days. In parallel, 19 abiotic phlogopite weathering experiments were also performed using organic and nitric acids. Citric and gluconic acids were used to model the effects of chelating agents produced 20 21 by bacteria, and nitric acid was used to model the effects of acidifying agents. The results 22 indicate that both decreases in pH and the production of metabolites during heterotrophic 23 bacterial activities significantly accelerate the release of Mg and Si in solution. Also, at a 24 given pH, the fraction of elements released in solution is greater in the presence of bacteria or 25 citric acid compared to that released in the presence of nitric and gluconic acids. Magnesium 26 isotopic analyses indicate that the solutions obtained using nitric acid and acidifying bacterial strains display, on average, δ^{26} Mg values that are close to or slightly heavier (by 0.4%) than 27 28 those of fresh phlogopite (-1.2%o±0.08). In contrast, in experiments performed with citric 29 acid, the Mg leached into solution is slightly enriched in light isotopes by -0.3% relative to the initial phlogopite, while its binding to organics is expected to be related to its preferential enrichment in heavy isotopes. Despite its small range of variations, the δ^{26} Mg values of solutions vary inversely with pH, thus suggesting that secondary phases preferentially enriched in 26 Mg at the highest pH values may play a key role.

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35 Keywords: Phlogopite, Bacteria, Organic acids, Magnesium stable isotopes

1. Introduction

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Silicate minerals, which are a major component of the continental crust, represent the main reservoir of magnesium and calcium on the Earth's surface. The reaction of atmospheric CO₂ with silicate minerals releases divalent cations (Mg²⁺ and Ca²⁺) into rivers, which will ultimately form carbonates in the ocean. This process results in the net removal of CO₂ from the atmosphere (Berner, 1992). Thus, at the global scale, silicate mineral weathering is linked to the carbon cycle, and it therefore influences climate change on geological timescales. On shorter timescales, the silicate-weathering rate can vary significantly, which may potentially affect the carbon cycle (Bastian et al., 2017). At the soil scale, mineral weathering plays a key role in soil genesis and vegetation growth by releasing elements and nutrients from minerals. Silicate mineral weathering results from the combination of several steps, including physical disintegration and chemical dissolution. Both processes are more or less linked to biological processes induced by bacteria, which are rarely considered in geochemical or isotopic studies. Many studies that have been carried out under experimental conditions have demonstrated that bacteria can amplify silicate-weathering reactions (Barker and Banfield, 1998; Hutchens et al., 2003; Leyval et al., 1990; Robert and Berthelin, 1986; Welch and Ullman, 1999). Some bacteria from diverse genera are characterized by their ability to solubilize minerals, as reported in the review of Uroz et al., 2009. However, previous studies have not indicated whether silicate dissolution represents an indirect consequence of microbial metabolism (i.e., the release of protons, metabolites or specific ligands), or if it depends on a specific strategy (e.g., if dissolution serves some physiological function) that gives a competitive ecological advantage to colonizing bacteria (Bennett et al., 2001). Few studies have focused on the quantitative and qualitative impact of microbial diversity on silicate weathering in soils (Bennett et al., 2001, 1996; Rogers and Bennett, 2004). Most experimental studies have concluded that mineral chemistry strongly influences the colonization patterns of mineral and rocks by bacteria, as well as their metabolic activities. These experimental investigations have mainly been based on (1) analyses of cations released in solution by minerals and rocks, (2) analyses of the structural and chemical modification of minerals observed using microscopy or X-ray diffraction and (3) the bacterial colonization patterns of minerals. In these studies, the direct effects of bacteria can hardly be distinguished from the indirect effects of the metabolites produced by these bacteria.

Recently, the stable isotopic compositions of metals have been used as an innovative tool to trace biogeochemical processes, including bacteria-mineral interactions, silicate mineral weathering, and the sources and transportation of cations in rivers. For example, some studies have shown that bacteria-mineral interaction processes can induce the fractionation of the stable isotopes of transition metals (e.g., Zn, Fe, Cu) (Anbar, 2004; Beard, 1999; Beard et al., 2003; Brantley et al., 2004, 2001; Mathur et al., 2005). In particular, these shifts are observed during the bacteria- and ligand-promoted dissolution of Fe-containing minerals (i.e., hornblende or goethite): the Fe released into the solution by these phases is enriched in light isotopes, with greater fractionation observed in the presence of strong ligands (Brantley et al., 2004, 2001; Wiederhold et al., 2006). Redox reactions may also induce some isotope fractionation in these transition elements (Wiederhold et al., 2006).

In contrast to these cations, magnesium is an element that is much less sensitive to physicochemical conditions because it has an invariable oxidation state (+II). On the other hand, it has been demonstrated that magnesium is one of the most important cations for bacterial growth (Pelmont, 1993) because magnesium is essential for the normal cell division of bacteria, and it stimulates the growth of these organisms (Maloney and Valvano, 2006). Thus, Mg is the most abundant divalent metal in bacteria cells, and it is required for many structural and enzymatic functions. At least three families of proteins function as magnesium transporters for many strains of bacteria. In recent years, it has been shown that a subset of

these transport proteins in bacteria are regulated by magnesium-responsive genetic control elements (Maguire, 2006; Wakeman et al., 2014). Consequently, bacterial processes in soil can be traced using variations and applications of Mg stable isotope ratios. Indeed, recent environmental applications of stable magnesium isotopes have demonstrated that this tool represents a good tracer of weathering and some biological processes. In nature, Mg isotopic compositions (δ^{26} Mg) vary from +1.8 % (granite) to -6 % (carbonate) (Brenot et al., 2008; Galy et al., 2002; Huang et al., 2012; Li et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2011; Pogge von Strandmann et al., 2008). This indicates that the processes controlling the release of Mg from the continental crust to the formation of carbonate in the ocean are associated with Mg isotopic fractionation. Several studies have investigated the role of silicate weathering in both natural ecosystems (Bolou-Bi et al., 2012; Brenot et al., 2008; Mavromatis et al., 2012; Tipper et al., 2010, 2008, 2006) and using experimental leaching and clay synthesis analyses (Ryu et al., 2016; Wimpenny et al., 2014). Ryu et al., 2016 highlighted the dichotomy between the field studies and experimental investigations of low-temperature processes. The role of biological reactions in natural systems may partly explain this gap. A few studies have focused on the role of vegetation (Black et al., 2008; Bolou-Bi et al., 2016, 2012, 2010). These authors observed significant Mg isotopic fractionation between plants and their nutrient sources, in which the enrichment of heavy isotopes in plants is mainly controlled by biogeochemical processes at the root level. These results were obtained under both experimental conditions and in the field, but they did not estimate the potential roles of microorganisms. Indeed, a recent study (Fahad et al., 2016) has highlighted that fungi are able to fractionate Mg isotopes. In addition, it could help clarify the relationships between microorganisms and soil development.

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The aim of this study was to experimentally investigate the impact of bacterial activity on Mg isotope signatures during the weathering of phlogopite minerals in a closed system and

under aerobic conditions. Two types of leaching experiments were performed: (1) "biotic" experiments, which occurred in the presence of bacterial strains and Mg-free nutritive media, and (2) "abiotic" experiments, which were performed using nitric or organic acids in sterile mineral media. The two main strategies developed by bacteria were investigated, namely, proton-promoted dissolution and ligand-promoted dissolution.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

- Several phlogopite leaching experiments were performed using 4 different bacterial strains ("biotic" experiments), which were previously isolated from plant rhizospheres and acidic soils. To compare and distinguish the particular chemical processes linked to the weathering ability of each isolated bacterial strain, leaching experiments without bacteria were also performed using various acids:
- citric acid (10⁻³ M, pH adjusted at 3.5 to 6)
- gluconic acid (10⁻³ M, pH adjusted at 3.5 and 5)
- nitric acid (concentration adjusted to reach pH values of 2.5, 3.5, 4 and 5.5).
 - All the materials and chemicals were sterilized prior to use for the experiments. The abiotic experimental conditions were selected based on preliminary results yielded by biotic experiments in order to compare them as precisely as possible (Balland et al., 2010).

2.1. Minerals

The natural 2:1 phyllosilicate used in this study is phlogopite (from Madagascar-Vohitrosy). The chemical composition of this mineral is defined as follows (g/kg): SiO₂ 390; Al₂O₃ 150; Fe₂O₃ 52; MnO 0.9; CaO 2.5; MgO 294; K₂O 110; TiO₂ 11.3; Na₂O 1.3; P₂O₅ 1.1 (Leyval et al., 1990). After undergoing wet grinding and sieving, phlogopite minerals were rinsed under sonication with distilled water at an approximately

neutral pH to remove ultrafine particles. The 50-100 μ m size fractions of phlogopite were used to conduct experiments. A specific surface area of 0.5 (±0.3) m².g⁻¹ was determined using the Brunauer-Emmet-Teller N₂ adsorption method. Prior to starting experiments, mineral powders were sterilized at 170°C for 2 hours under dry atmosphere conditions.

Soil bacteria were preselected based on their contrasting weathering abilities, which

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2.2. Bacterial strains and cultivation

represent two main processes: (1) proton-promoted dissolution by "acidifying" bacteria by producing acids such as lactic or acetic acids that do not chelate metals and (2) ligandpromoted dissolution through the production of low molecular mass organic acids that also acidify the medium and chelate metals. Three heterotrophic strains of bacteria (PA1, AR1, RA1) were previously isolated from the rhizospheres of beech, pine and wheat. A complementary strain (PS2) was isolated from an acidic soil, i.e., a podzol (WRB) located in the Vosges Mountains in northeastern France (Balland et al., 2010; Djihad Oulkadi et al., 2014). AR1 and PS2 dissolve minerals by acidifying the medium, whereas RA1 and PA1 produce organic acids (Balland et al., 2010; Leyval and Berthelin, 1991; Djihad Oulkadi et al., 2014). The genus of each bacterial strain was determined by amplifying and sequencing 16S rRNA genes. Polymerase chain reactions were performed using a universal set of primers in a total reaction volume of 50 µl containing 1x PCR mastermix (Eppendorf ®), 0.1 µM of primers (966 F and 1401 F) and 1 µl of cell extract (Fleske 1998). Prior to being sequenced by the MWG Biotech Company (Courtaboeuf, France), the PCR products (PCR product size: 433 base pairs) were purified and concentrated using mini-columns (High PureTM PCR Product Purification Kit, Roche diagnostic). A blast program was then used to compare the

sequences with those of the GenBank databases (www.nbci.mlm.nih.gov.blast). The

following identifications were made, with a maximum identification of approximately 99 %: *Rhanella aquatilis* (RA1) and *Pantoae agglomerans* (PA1), which are both anaerobic facultative bacteria, and *Agrobacterium radiobacter* (AR1) and *Pseudomonas sp.* (PS2), which are both aerobic bacteria.

All bacterial strains were cryopreserved at -80°C in 30 % glycerol and then precultivated on Petri dishes containing Luna and Bertani agar (LB 20 g.l⁻¹ from Difco and 15 g.l⁻¹ agar). Strains were grown at 28°C. Biotic experiments were conducted using an actively growing culture of bacteria that was freshly rinsed and conditioned as described below. Prior to their deposition in the batch reactors, bacterial isolates were recovered and cultivated in 2 ml of LB liquid medium for 1 day. Cells in suspension were rinsed three times in deionized water and then suspended in 10 ml of BHm media in order to obtain 10⁷ cells per ml of suspension.

2.3. Experimental setup

All experiments (i.e., biotic, abiotic and chemical leaching (without bacteria) experiments) were performed in batch reactor closed systems. Each batch reactor was presterilized with culture media by autoclaving at 110°C for 30 min.

2.3.1. Culture media

In all experiments, the classical mineral medium for bacterial cultures (i.e., a Bushnell-Hass-like medium, BHm) was used as a source of essential mineral nutrients for bacteria in order to simulate the chemical composition of a soil solution. This medium was modified to lack iron and magnesium, and phlogopite particles represented the only source of these two bacterial nutrients. Thus, the composition of the Mg- and Fe-free medium was: 20 mg.l⁻¹ KCl; 20 mg.l⁻¹ NaH₂PO₄, 2H₂O; 22.5 mg.l⁻¹ Na₂HPO₄, 2H₂O; 65 mg.l⁻¹ (NH₄)₂SO₄; 100 mg.l⁻¹

low ionic strength (4.5 mM). During the microbial weathering of phyllosilicates, glucose is the sole source of carbon and energy. Glucose solutions (20 g.l⁻¹, 0.8 mM of carbon) were thus prepared using ultrapure deionized water (18 M Ω .cm-1, Elga Purelab), and sterilized by filtration at 0.2 μ m. All reactants were chosen according to their purity in order to minimize the contamination of Fe and Mg. Neither Fe nor Mg was detected in the medium or in the glucose solution using inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectroscopy analysis (ICP AES Jobin-Yvon 238 at LIMOS, France), which has a detection limit of 5 ppb.

KNO₃; 20 mg.l⁻¹ CaCl₂ (which was dissolved in distilled deionized water to obtain a relatively

2.3.2. Experimental procedure

In addition to the sterility precautions taken throughout all of the experiments, all laboratory materials were precleaned in diluted HNO₃. Biotic and abiotic experiments were run in batch reactors composed of glass flasks. Four leaching experiments (R1 to R4) were performed using RA1, which represents chelating bacteria. One experiment was performed in the presence of other chelating bacteria for comparison (PA1) (experiment #P1). Two phlogopite leaching experiments were performed using the acidifying strain PS2; these were stopped after either 6 days (B1) or 12 days (B2). Another experiment was performed in the presence of other acidifying bacteria, AR1, for comparison, which was stopped after 12 days (experiment #A1). Reactors were continuously agitated using an automatic shaker (Certomatu, Braun 120 rpm), except in experiments R1, R4, P1, A1, H3 and C2, in which flasks were manually agitated every day for approximatively 30 seconds. All experiments were conducted under aerobic conditions at a room temperature of 24°C. Each batch was "closed" with carded cotton and greaseproof paper to allow the circulation of ambient air but to protect against bacterial contamination.

For biotic experiments, each reactor was filled with 3 g of phlogopite powder, 10 ml of cell suspension, 80 ml of BHm and 10 ml of glucose solution (with a batch concentration of 2 g.l⁻¹). Cell suspensions were incubated in reactors for a duration of 6 to 12 days.

The number of bacterial cells in suspension (OD_{600nm}), the consumption of glucose, the nature and quantities of the metabolites that were released and the concentrations of some major elements measured in the leachates were observed as a function of time (Table 1).

Abiotic chemical weathering experiments were performed in the same types of glass flasks that were filled with the same amount of phlogopite (3 g) and the same mineral medium (100 ml). Specific acids were added in order to obtain the chosen pH value and concentrations: four experiments were performed using nitric acid (HNO₃) at various pH values (experiments #H1 to #H4) for 6 days for H1 and H2 and for 9 days for H3 and H4. Four experiments were performed using gluconic acid (experiments #G1 to #G4), which were stopped after 6 days for G1, G2 and G4 and after 9 days for G3. Six experiments were performed using citric acid (experiments #C1 to #C6), which were stopped after 6 days for C2 to C6 and after 12 days for C1. The leachates collected from both experiments were then filtered at 0.45 µm and stored at 4°C prior to undergoing chemical and isotopic analyses.

2.4. Elemental and physiological analyses

2.4.1. Determination of pH, glucose content and number of bacterial cells

The pH values of these solutions were determined by adding 10 μ l of bromocresol green to 200 μ l of filtrate. Bromocresol green (BG) is yellow (λ_{max} = 440 nm) in acidic solutions (pH < 3.8) and blue (λ_{max} = 620 nm) in more basic solutions (pH > 5.8). The pH of each leaching solution was then determined at two wavelengths that are close to both BG maxima (BESHIR et al., 2007). A microplate reader (SAFAS Xenius FLX) was used to measure the absorbance at these various wavelengths.

The consumption of glucose by bacteria was determined by measuring the glucose remaining in the 3 μ l of filtered solution after the addition of 300 μ l of GOD-PAP (enzymatic kit, BioLabo). After 20 min, the glucose concentration was measured at an absorbance of 520 nm. The detection limit for glucose concentration was 0.1 ppm.

The concentration of planktonic bacteria was typically determined by measuring the absorbance of the cell suspension at a wavelength of 600 nm. A correlation between the number of cells and the absorbance was realized by directly enumerating the number of cells with a Thoma cell under microscopic observation as a function of the optical density at 600 nm. For each bacterial strain, an equation was obtained to approximate the number of cells in suspension as a function of optical density (data not shown).

2.4.2. Metabolites analyses

The ten organic acids that are most commonly released by bacteria were realized and quantified only in experiments R1, B1 and B2 (Table 1). These organic acids are formic, gluconic, butyric, pyruvic, citric, oxalic, propionic, acetic, succinic, malic, lactic and malonic acids. Measurements of these acids were performed using ion chromatography with conductivity detection (ICS 3000, Dionex Corp.) and an analytical column (AS 11 HC, Dionex corp.). Each sample was eluted using a KOH solution of varying concentration (0.9 mM to 60 mM) over time (using a step gradient) with a flow of 1.3 ml/min. The synthetic reference materials used were sodium formate, D-gluconic acid, sodium butyrate, pyruvic acid sodium salt, sodium citrate (tribasic), sodium oxalate, sodium propionate, sodium acetate, succinic acid disodium salt, DL-malic acid disodium salt (from Sigma-Aldricht), sodium-L-lactate and malonic acid disodium salt (from Fluka). The uncertainties were better than 0.5 % for all measured organic acids.

2.4.3 Magnesium and Si concentrations

The concentrations of the cations (Mg and Si) released in the solution were analyzed using atomic absorption spectrometry (SAA Perkin Elmer 5000 at SARM-CRPG Nancy, CNRS National Facilities, France) and inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES Jobin-Yvon 238 at LIEC Nancy, France). All solution samples were acidified with HNO₃ prior to their analysis. The detection limit for Mg and Si was 0.05 ppm. The uncertainties obtained using our medium were better than 5 %. Accuracy and reproducibility were controlled by repeated analyses of Mg and Si synthetic reference materials (Spex-Certiprep).

2.4.4 Magnesium isotope analyses

Magnesium isotopic compositions were determined for solutions collected from all experiments and the initial phlogopite powder. Samples were purified prior to isotopic analysis to reduce interference and matrix effects (Galy et al., 2001). To purify samples, an aliquot of each experimental solution, containing 50 μg of Mg, was evaporated to dryness in a Teflon cup. The residue was then dissolved in a mixture of concentrated nitric acid (HNO₃) and hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂, 30 %) (4-2 ml) at 80°C overnight to eliminate glucose. The phlogopite sample was dissolved in a mixture of concentrated acid (HNO₃-HF, 3-1 ml) for 48 h at 80°C. The mixtures were then evaporated to dryness. All obtained residues were dissolved in 1 ml of 7M HCl, and a few grains of boric acid were added to the solution of phlogopite to avoid any Mg isotope fractionation during this step because the reaction between HF and silicate produces a milky suspension. This is composed of fluoride of calcium and magnesium, together with some mixed fluorides. Boric acid added to digested solution to allow obtaining clear solution and formed the water-soluble fluoroborates (Potts, 1987; Zeev and Chien, 1991). The method used to separate Mg from all other elements in this study is described in detail by Bolou-Bi et al., 2009. Purified Mg samples were obtained using

three steps of ion-exchange chromatography using a combination of AGMP1-X8 and AG50W-X12 resins.

The final purified Mg solutions were evaporated to dryness. The dry samples were diluted with 0.05N HNO₃ at 250 ppb before being introduced into the *Nu Instruments* MC ICP-MS, which is located at the "*Ecole Normale Supérieure*" (National Facilities, ENS-Lyon, France). Magnesium isotopic ratios were measured and normalized relative to the DSM3 standard solution (Galy et al., 2001), using a standard-sample bracketing technique to correct for instrumental mass bias. These data are expressed in δ notation to reflect their deviation from the DSM3 composition in parts per thousand (‰):

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$$\delta^{x} Mg(\%o) = \left(\frac{\left(\frac{x Mg}{2^{4} Mg}\right)_{Sample}}{\left(\frac{x Mg}{2^{4} Mg}\right)_{DSM 3}} - 1\right) \times 10^{3}$$

where x is either the mass of 26 or 25. The Cambridge-1 pure Mg standard was repeatedly measured during the analytical period and yielded a value of -2.62% \pm 0.13 (2SD, n = 3), which is similar to the overall value of the Cambridge Mg standard in the literature (-2.63% \pm 0.11, n=1425, compiled from the literature). Moreover, during Mg isotope purification, a seawater standard (BCR 403) was treated as a sample; it yielded a δ^{26} Mg value of -0.81% \pm 0.03 (2SD, n = 4), which is similar to the δ^{26} Mg values of seawater that have been reported in the literature (-0.83% \pm 0.11, n > 200; (Ling et al., 2011)).

3. RESULTS

3.1 Bacterial growth, glucose consumption and pH variations

The concentration of planktonic bacteria measured during these experiments is given by the optical density measured at 600 nm (OD_{600nm}) (Figure 1a, Table 1, 2). Immediately

after inoculation, all reactors with bacteria showed an initial OD_{600nm} value of 0.05, which corresponds to a cell number of $\approx 10^6$ bacteria.ml⁻¹. In experiments using the chelating RA1 bacterial strain, cell numbers increased regularly to maximum OD values ranging from 0.21 ($\sim 5.10^7$ bacteria.ml⁻¹) for experiment R1 to 0.1 ($\approx 10^7$ bacteria.ml⁻¹) for experiment R4. In experiment R3, the maximum OD value was reached at day 3, which then slightly decreased to 0.12 (1.10⁷ bacteria.ml⁻¹). In the presence of the PS2 bacterial strain, cell numbers increased only slightly over time, as the OD values of experiments B1 and B2 reached maximum variations of 0.06 ($\approx 10^6$ bacteria.ml⁻¹) and 0.08 (5.10⁶ bacteria.ml⁻¹), respectively, by the end of their experiments. The acidifying PS2 bacterial strain displayed a different behavior: its cell growth rate remained weak and relatively constant as a function of time (Fig 1a).

In all biotic reactors, the glucose concentrations strongly decreased after day 0. In the presence of the chelating RA1 bacterial strain, glucose concentrations decreased as a function of time, from 2 g.l⁻¹ to 1.02 g.l⁻¹ and 1.07 g.l⁻¹ for experiments R3 and R4, respectively, on the 6th day (Table 2, Figure 1b). In experiment R1, glucose disappeared after day 6.

In the presence of the acidifying PS2 strain, glucose concentrations also decreased as a function of time, reaching values of less than 1 g.l⁻¹ within the two first days, thus indicating that PS2 consumed more glucose than RA1 at the beginning of these experiments, despite its lower growth rates. The concentrations of glucose then decreased more slightly down to 0.42 g.l⁻¹ and 0.29 g.l⁻¹ for experiments B1 and B2, respectively, after the 6th day. For chelating bacteria, the consumption of glucose and the increase in the number of cells in the solution were interpreted to reflect bacterial growth followed by a prolonged stationary phase that was most likely sustained by the internal recycling of organic matter and nutrients.

In all biotic reactors, the pH rapidly decreased within the two first days from an initial value of 6.5 (Figure 1c). On the second day, the pH reached values of 5.2, 5.0, 4.6 and 4.2 for

experiments R1, R2, R3 and R4, respectively, in the presence of the chelating bacteria RA1. For experiments with the acidifying bacteria PS2, the pH decreased to lower values of 3.5 and 3.3 for experiments B1 and B2, respectively. In all biotic experiments, between days 2 and 12, the pH remained constant except in experiment R1, where the pH again increased on the third day and remained at a relatively constant value of 6.5-6.7. This is linked to the almost complete consumption of glucose by bacteria in this specific experiment. In experiments P1 and AR1, the pH values after 12 days were 3.9 and 4.5, respectively. These results are directly linked to glucose consumption and acidification, which are dependent on bacterial metabolism. In our experiments, bacteria used glucose as both an energy source (i.e., electron donor) and a carbon source for biomass synthesis. The decrease in pH observed at the onset of these experiments is likely due to the release of CO₂ by bacteria during respiration and/or the production of organic acids. Low pH values are then maintained by viable bacteria, which release protons, organic acids and CO₂ into solution (Vandevivere et al., 1994; Welch and Ullman, 1999). As shown in the R1 experiment, in the absence of glucose, the decreasing number of bacteria cannot maintain the production of protons and other organic acids. As a consequence, the pH increases due to the consumption of H⁺ that is produced by the chemical alteration of phlogopite. Thus, these data show that both the bacterial growth rate and the mineral alteration rate can affect the chemistry of leachate solutions, as the excretion rate of protons and organic acids is balanced by the release rate of soluble elements from the weathering of phlogopite grains.

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3.2 Organic acids released by bacteria

In all experiments, the abundances of propionic, malic and malonic acids were below detection limits. In the experiments performed with the chelating RA1 bacterial strain (#R1), the maximum concentrations were reached between the second and third days for lactic acid

(62 ppm), acetic acid (152 ppm), formic acid (16.8 ppm), succinic acid (23.5 ppm), oxalic acid (7.2 ppm) and citric acid (3.1 ppm). Between days 2 and 6, the concentrations of organic acids decreased slightly down to 37.1, 0, 8.3, 4.2 and 5.4 ppm for lactic, acetic, formic, succinic and oxalic acids, respectively. A few ppm of citric acid (3.1 ppm) were detected only on the first day. The bacterial strain PS2 (#B2) produced only gluconic and butyric acids. The concentrations of gluconic acid increased from 1600 ppm on day 2 to 2360 ppm on day 6 and 2486 ppm on day 12. The concentrations of butyric acid increased from 21 ppm on day 2 to reach 31 ppm on day 6 day and 54 ppm on day 12.

The production of organic acids depends on many factors, such as the nutritional, physiological and growth conditions of cultures. Previous studies have shown that the partial oxidation of glucose can lower the pH due to the production of gluconic acid by bacteria (Balland-Bolou-Bi and Poszwa, 2012; Vandevivere et al., 1994; Welch and Ullman, 1999; Wu et al., 2008). In the presence of RA1, the organic acids that were produced included citric and oxalic acids and especially lactic, formic and acetic acids. In contrast, the only major organic acid produced by the acidifying PS2 aerobic bacteria was gluconic acid, which is consistent with its known behavior in natural and laboratory settings (Grybos et al., 2011; Welch and Ullman, 1999). During experiment R1, which was performed with the RA1 strain, glucose was quickly and entirely consumed after 3 days. At the end of day 3, due to the lack of a carbon source, bacterial activity strongly decreased and then stopped. The pH of the solution quickly increased to 7 due to the consumption of protons by the buffering capacity of the phlogopite grains being weathered.

3.3 Mg and Si contents in the leachates

The fractions of Mg and Si (F_{Mg} and F_{Si}) leached from phlogopite during the biotic and abiotic experiments were determined and are presented in Table 1 and Fig. 3,

385 respectively. Overall, the Mg and Si fractions are very low for all experiments, both biotic and 386 abiotic, which primarily reflects low weathering rates at these temperatures (24°C). In all 387 cases, F_{Mg} progressively increased as a function of time (Fig. 3) and stabilized after 388 approximately 6 days. 389 Under abiotic conditions, in the experiments performed with HNO₃ (Figure 3B), the dissolved 390 fraction of Mg from phlogopite (F_{Mg}) increased as a function of time and acidity to reach the 391 following values by the end of these experiments: 1.20% (H1, day 6); 0.81% (H4, day 21) 392 and 0.20% (H2, day 6), which occurred at pH values of 2.5, 3.5 and 4.0, respectively. After 6 393 days, the experiments with the lowest pH caused more Mg to be released from phlogopite. In 394 the experiments performed with gluconic acid (Figure 3A), the fractions of dissolved Mg also 395 increased over time and reached values of 0.56% (G3, day 9) and 0.25% (G4, day 6) at pH 396 values of ≈ 3.5 and 4.5, respectively. In the experiments performed with citric acid, the 397 dissolved fraction of Mg from phlogopite (F_{Mg}) increased as a function of time and acidity to 398 reach the following values at the end of these experiments: 0.85% (C4, day 12); 0.23% (C3, 399 day 6) and 0.50% (C4, day 6) at pH values of 5.7, 5.7 and 3.6, respectively. (Fig. 3A). 400 Increases in F_{Mg} with decreases in pH were observed in the experiments performed using 401 HNO₃ and citric and gluconic acids. At an acidic pH (3.5) on day 6, the f(Mg) values of 402 solutions are very close for all experiments (HNO₃, gluconic and citric acids). These results 403 indicate that gluconic and citric acids act as strong acids at a pH of 3.5, similar to nitric acid. 404 Indeed, the pKa value of gluconic acid is 3.86, whereas those of citric acids are 3.13, 4.76, 405 and 6.4; this indicates that their carboxylic functions are completely dissociated. 406 At a neutral pH (5-6) on day 6, the solutions from the citric acid experiments displayed three 407 times more F_{Mg} than those observed in the HNO₃ experiments, thus reflecting the 408 "complexing effect" of citric acid. Similar to the dissolved Mg fractions in the leachates, the 409 dissolved Si fractions (Table 2) (1) increased over time, (2) increased with decreasing pH in Under biotic conditions (Fig. 3C), F_{Mg} increased slightly over time in all treatments. In the experiments performed using the RA1, PA1, AR1 strains, F_{Mg} reached 0.6% (R3, day 13), 0.75% (P1, day 12) and 0.56% (A1, day 12) with decreases in pH to values of 4.5, 3.9 and 4.6, respectively. In experiments performed using the PS2 strain (in which the pH decreased to 3.5), F_{Mg} reached 0.70% (B1, day 6) and 1.25% (B2, day 12). As observed in abiotic experiments, the dissolved Mg fractions increased when the pH of the leachates decreased. The dissolved Si fractions (F_{Si} ; Table 1) followed the same trend as F_{Mg} in the leachates. In addition, comparing bioleaching and chemical leaching experiments at similar pH values revealed that F_{Mg} was greater in the presence of bacteria or citric acid than in the presence of nitric and gluconic acids.

all experiments and (3) exhibited no variations in F_{Si} between treatments on day 6 in low-pH

3.5 Mg isotopic signatures

The magnesium measured in the leachates comes exclusively from the weathering of the phlogopite grains introduced in the reactors because all of the nutritive solutions used in the experiments were Mg-free. Magnesium isotopic compositions were measured for 10 aliquots of phlogopite grains and the solutions of all experiments (see Tables 1 and 2). The average δ^{26} Mg value obtained for the phlogopite grains is -1.22±0.08‰ (n = 10). The $\delta^{26}Mg$ values of the solutions range from -1.52±0.06‰ to +0.82±0.02‰. Overall, the Mg isotopic compositions of the leachates produced during the bio- and chemical experiments are very close to those of phlogopite. However, two different tendencies as a function of the dissolved Mg fraction can be highlighted. First, the acidifying bacterial strains release the highest Mg fractions to the solution, and their corresponding δ^{26} Mg values are slightly heavier than those of the initial phlogopite particles (with Δ^{26} Mgsolution-phlogopite = +0.13 to

+0.40%). In contrast, organic acids (except gluconic acid) and the chelating bacteria strains R1, P1 and A1 release lower amounts of Mg to the solution, and their corresponding δ^{26} Mg values are slightly lighter than those of the phlogopite grains (with Δ^{26} Mg = -0.01 to -0.30%). Interestingly, The measurement uncertainties (±0.10%) are similar to those of lixiviate solutions (with an average Δ^{26} Mg value of -0.16% for ryegrass and clover) produced during phlogopite weathering by plants (Bolou-Bi et al., 2010). Solutions derived from gluconic acid dissolution experiments contain very low Mg, but their δ^{26} Mg values are very slightly higher than those of the initial phlogopite particles (with Δ^{26} Mg values of up to 0.20%).

4. DISCUSSION

4.1 Assessing congruency and weathering rates

The ratios of the elements released (Mg and Si), together with the elemental ratios of the initial phlogopite as a function of time, are illustrated in Figure 4 and Table 1.

4.1.1. Abiotic experiments

At pH values of 2.5 and 3.5 for experiments H1 and H4 performed by nitric acid, respectively, Mg/Si decreased slightly with increasing pH (to 0.98, 0.92 and 0.92 at pH values of 2.5, 3.5 and 4, respectively, at 6 days). However, they are similar to the bulk initial ratio of the phlogopite (0.97). These values of Mg/Si are in good agreement with those obtained by Kalinowski and Schweda, 1996 during the dissolution of phlogopite by HNO₃. In our study, during abiotic leaching in the presence of citric acid (experiments C3 and C4), the Mg/Si ratios (0.95 and 0.7, respectively) were slightly lower than the Mg/Si ratio of the phlogopite (0.97), thus indicating that in contrast to the observation of Barman et al., 1992, Si was preferentially released. At a pH of 3.5, the preferential elemental release that occurred was Fe > Al > Mg = Si, with $F_{Fe} = 2.02$; $F_{Al} = 1.82$; $F_{Mg} = 0.53$ and $F_{Si} = 0.56\%$. The

difference between our results and those of Barman et al., 1992 can be explained by the fact that at a pH of 3.5, only two carboxylic groups of citric acid were dissociated (pKa= 3.13; 4.76; 6.4); it is known that citrates have a strong affinity for iron to the detriment of magnesium, in comparison to their experiments, where citric acid caused all of these carboxylic groups to dissociate. Nevertheless, the high concentrations of citric acid (1 mM) used in our chemical experiments do not reflect their concentrations in bioleaching experiments in the presence of RA1 (approximately 3 ppm or 0.02 mM). High concentrations of organic acids can enhance surface complexation processes, which can decrease the number of surface reactive sites and consequently lead to a saturation of rates (Golubev et al., 2006). These observations were confirmed by experiments C5 and C6, which were performed with high concentrations of citric acid (10 to 100 mM) that led to Mg/Si ratios in solution that were significantly lower (approximately 0.56) than those in experiment C3 (0.95), but with a similar Mg value of 1.5 ppm after 6 days.

4.1.2. Biotic experiments

All other experiments (bio- and chemical leaching) yielded Mg/Si values that were less than the bulk initial ratio of the phlogopite, except for the experiments performed with the chelating bacterial strain RA1 (which yielded a Mg/Si value of approximately 1.5). In the presence of RA1 (experiments R2 and R3), Mg was preferentially released compared to Si. This reflects the greater dissolution of octahedra compared with tetrahedra. Acker and Bricker, 1992 demonstrated that at a pH of greater than 3 (in the case of our experiments R1 to R4, which had pH values of close to 4.5), biotite octahedra were preferentially destroyed. Moreover, Barman et al., 1992 highlighted that biotite weathering in the presence of a strong chelating agent, such as citric or oxalic acid, preferentially released Mg into solution over Si; this was the case in our experiment R1, where low amounts of oxalic and citric acids were quantified (approximately 7 and 3 ppm for oxalic and citric acids, respectively). The results of

Barman et al. (1992) indicated that chemical leaching in the presence of citric acid preferentially releases Mg compared to Si due to the high solubility of Mg and that the localization of Mg in octahedra makes Mg easily accessible to the solution. At a pH of 1, the authors demonstrated that preferential elemental release occurred in the following order: Mg> Fe > Al > Si.

In the experiments performed with the bacterial strain PS2 (B2) and gluconic acid (G4), the Mg/Si ratios were very close to the bulk ratio of phlogopite (0.97) and those obtained in the experiment performed with HNO₃ (H4). This observation is consistent with the results of the Mg and Si release rates, which indicate that pH exerts a control on the leaching of Mg and Si from phlogopite, as well as the results of several works (Grybos et al., 2011; Oulkadi et al., 2014b), which showed that Pseudomonas sp. can weather clay from both octahedral and tetrahedral layers. As mentioned above, at this acidic pH, gluconic acid acts similar to a mineral acid, such as nitric acid.

These different types of bacteria may play different roles in the dissolution rate of phlogopite and can therefore have different influences on the chemical composition of the solutions. To remind, *AR1* and *PS2* dissolve minerals by acidifying the medium, whereas *RA1* and *PA1* produce organic acids (Balland et al., 2010; Leyval and Berthelin, 1991; Djihad Oulkadi et al., 2014). Thus, for the facultative anaerobic bacteria (RA1 and PA1), under conditions of stress, the glucose oxidation continued beyond the glucose intermediate. The lack of required enzymes caused some bacteria to accumulate or expel various intermediate acids as waste (Gottschalk, 1986), such as fumaric, citric, and oxalic acids and especially lactic, pyruvic and acetic acids resulting from fermentation. Thus, these strains have an anabolism that requires little energy. Consequently, their catabolism is not very efficient, as it uses a small fraction of the initial carbon in the solution (i.e., glucose). In contrast, the PS2 strain is an aerobic bacterial strain that has an anabolism that requires more energy and an

efficient catabolism that requires large amounts of carbon. Moreover, D. Oulkadi et al., 2014a showed that RA1 produces siderophores, whereas PS2 does not. Siderophores and oxalic and citric acids clearly displayed ligand-promoted dissolution in addition to proton-promoted dissolution.

4.1.3. Weathering rates

To more precisely assess the controls of Mg and Si release and compare them with published estimates, their concentrations were normalized to the specific surface area of phlogopite and time (r_{Mg} and r_{Si} are both expressed in mol.m⁻².s⁻¹). The influence of pH, organic acids and bacteria on the release rates of Mg and Si could therefore be evaluated using the linear rate law described by Malmström and Banwart, (1997) and Malmström et al., (1996), which is given by the following equation:

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$$r_{M} = k_{H} (a_{H+})^{n} + k_{O} + k_{OH} (a_{OH})^{m} + k_{L,M} (a_{L})^{l} (eq. 1)$$

where M is the released element (Mg or Si); k is the rate constant; a_{H+} , a_{OH} and a_L are the activities of protons, hydroxyls and ligands, respectively; and n, m, and l are the orders of reactions that are experimentally obtained with respect to protons, hydroxyls and ligands, respectively. This model assumes that (1) ligand-promoted processes operate in parallel with and independently of hydroxyl- or proton-promoted processes, and (2) ligand-promoted rates are additive. In this study, because phlogopite weathering occurs in an acidic environment, the terms k_O and k_{OH} (a_{OH})^m are negligible. Thus, experimental data can be fitted to the rate law to yield the following equation:

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$$r_{M} = k_{H} (a_{H+})^{n} + k_{L,M} (a_{L})^{l} (eq. 2)$$

The form of this empirical release rate equation is characteristic of dissolution rate laws in which proton adsorption or ligand complexation occurs at the mineral surface. For phlogopite, the apparent dissolution rate constant, which is normalized to the surface area, is $K_H = 4.7 \ 10^{-9} \ \text{mol.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$. The reaction order (n) with respect to hydrogen ion activity is 0.42, which is in

good agreement with the values provided in the literature (Balland et al., 2010; Kalinowski and Schweda, 1996; Rufe and Hochella, 1999; Taylor et al., 2000).

In both biotic and abiotic experiments, the apparent initial release rates of Mg and Si were calculated using equation 2. In all experiments, the release rates of Mg and Si decreased slightly with time. This has frequently been observed in dissolution experiments using fresh mineral samples, as in the works of Furrer and Stumm, (1986) and Malmström and Banwart (1997). This could be attributed to the initial rapid dissolution of ultrafine particles, which is then followed by a decrease in the dissolving surface area and the creation of more reactive surface sites.

Figure 4 represents the Mg (r_{Mg}) and Si (r_{Si}) release rates as functions of average pH. The observed correlations confirmed that this elemental release was largely pH-controlled. The highest elemental release rates occurred at low pH values, whereas the lowest rates occurred at nearly neutral pH values.

It can also be observed that biotic and abiotic experiments performed with citric acid or with produced citric acid have higher release rates relative to abiotic experiments performed with HNO₃ and gluconic acid. At a given pH, Mg release rates were ~ 2 to 3 times higher in the presence of bacteria compared to those observed during chemical leaching performed with HNO₃. Silicon release rates were also ~ 1.5 times higher in the presence of bacteria. The organic acids released by bacteria play an important role in the release of Si. Acidifying bacteria (PS2 and AR1) amplified Mg and Si release rates compared to HNO₃. As shown in the organic acid analyses, the PS2 strain produced approximately 1 mM of gluconic acid into solution, leading to a pH of 3.5. At this pH, Mg and Si release rates were lower and similar to those observed during chemical experiments performed only with gluconic acid (G1, G2 and G3 $\sim 1.43.10^{-10}$ mol.m⁻².s⁻¹) and HNO₃ (H4) (1.38.10⁻¹⁰ mol.m⁻².s⁻¹). Moreover, at this pH, gluconic acid (pKa = 3.86) acted as a strong acid. However, the enhanced elemental release

rates in the presence of PS2 and AR1 suggest that other processes must be taken into account to interpret such variations. Vandevivere et al., (1994) highlighted microreaction zones at the bacteria-mineral contact where the chemical compositions of the solution in these sites were strongly different compared to that of the bulk solution, with high concentrations of protons and organic acids. All of the bacterial strains used in this work, including both acidifying (PS2 and AR1) and chelating (PA1 and RA1) bacteria, principally accelerate the release of elements (Mg and Si) from phlogopite by decreasing the solution pH and/or producing chelating agents, such as organic acids. Similar conclusions have previously been reported (Barker et al., 1998; Vandevivere et al., 1994; Wu et al., 2008). Thus, it seems that the production of organic acids and siderophores plays a crucial role in the mechanism and efficiency of clay dissolution. Several studies (Cheah et al., 2003; D. Oulkadi et al., 2014b; Reichard et al., 2007) have demonstrated that the presence of siderophores could be strongly affected by the presence of oxalic acid inducing the high dissolution of minerals. The measured growth of bacteria was not correlated to the Mg and Si released into solution during the bioleaching of phlogopite. This suggests that the growth of bacteria was not a crucial factor in highlighting the effectiveness of bacteria to weather phlogopite, as indicated by the relationship between the cell numbers and the elemental release rate. Indeed, the cell number of PS2 was less important than that of RA1, while elemental release was more important in the presence of the PS2 bacterial strain (2.22.10⁻¹⁰ and 2.51.10⁻¹⁰ mol.m⁻².s⁻¹ for Mg and Si release rates, respectively) than in the presence of the RA1 bacterial strain (1.06.10⁻¹⁰ and 7.23.10⁻¹¹ mol.m⁻².s⁻¹). However, only planktonic bacteria were enumerated in our experiments, whereas adhering bacteria are known to play an important role in enhancing mineral weathering (Vandevivere et al., 1994). At this stage of our study, it is not possible to determine the number of bacteria cells that were adsorbed onto phlogopite particles.

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4.2 Magnesium isotope variations

The low dissolution rate associated with the low Mg fraction released during the dissolution experiment could be the reason of similar δ^{26} Mg values of the solution and initial phlogopite in the measurement uncertainties. This similarly δ^{26} Mg values suggests that no fractionation occurred during the acid congruent dissolution of phlogopite under these conditions in the measurement uncertainties. Although the δ^{26} Mg values of solutions are close to the δ^{26} Mg value of phlogopite, two tendencies can be distinguished (Fig. 6).

Results indicate that more Mg is released in solution; more δ^{26} Mg value of the

solution is heavier compared to initial phlogopite (Fig 6), and *vice versa*. These δ^{26} Mg values are strongly correlated to solution pH (Fig 7), which suggests at first approximation that the mode of medium acidification (i.e., proton-promoted vs ligand-promoted agent used to leach Mg from a mineral) could explain the various δ^{26} Mg values observed in solutions independently of the vital effect. During phlogopite leaching by ligand-promoted dissolution, the decrease in the solution pH is associated with a light δ^{26} Mg value compared to fresh phlogopite. In contrast, during phlogopite leaching by proton-promoted dissolution (i.e., nitric acid and Pseudomonas bacterial strain), the decrease in the solution pH is associated with a heavy δ^{26} Mg value compared to fresh phlogopite. These results are in agreement with results found during clay mineral formation (Wimpenny et al., 2014). In soil clay, some Mg can be bound to functional groups on the clay surface as exchangeable Mg in addition to existing as a structural part of the octahedral layer (Drever, 1988; Opfergelt et al., 2012; Wimpenny et al., 2014). According to the classification of trioctahedral mica, we could assume based on studies of cation exchange capacity that Mg in phlogopite derived from both structural site located in the octahedral layer and on exchangeable site at the mineral surface. Exchangeable Mg is

isotopically lighter than clay in soil and bulk soil (Bolou-Bi et al., 2012; Opfergelt et al., 2012; Uhlig et al., 2017). In addition, the leaching of the exchangeable Mg on clay with organic acids shown that this fraction is isotopically lighter than clay (Wimpenny et al., 2014), similarly to results found during the ligand-promoted experiment in this study (Table 1). The use of strong acid would induce the leaching of both exchangeable Mg and structural Mg during the experiment. During proton-promoted dissolution, the δ^{26} Mg value of Mg released into solution increased with the increasing mineral dissolution rate, in contrast to experiments with ligand-promoted dissolution (Fig. 6), except those performed with gluconic acid, which acts as a mineral acid under these conditions. Magnesium located in structural sites is contained in the brucitic layer. The leaching of this structural Mg is associated with the release of other ions located in this octahedral layer, such as Al. Moreover, in these minerals, Si is located in polymerized sheets of silica tetrahedral. The release of Si in solution reflects the dissolution of this structure in addition to the octahedral layer, as indicated by the correlation between Si and Mg (Fig. 4). Various Mg isotopic analyses during the synthesis of brucite demonstrate that it is enriched in heavy isotope in comparison with the solution (Li et al., 2014; Wimpenny et al., 2014). Therefore, we could conceive that Mg leaching in the structural sites using a strong acid (proton) would be the origin of heavy Mg isotopes enrichment in solutions.

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The fractionation of Mg isotopes by bacteria is a complex process especially since it is dependent on the bacterium studied. Our work has highlighted the non-negligible role of bacterial metabolism (through the production of organic acids) during silicate weathering at ambient temperature in batch reactor. Additional experiments are needed to increase the Mg leaching from phlogopite by increasing time reaction in order to measure Mg uptake by bacteria (and if there is some Mg isotopes fractionation during this process) and analyze the Mg isotopic ratio in the reacted phlogopite in order to see if there is a formation of secondary

phase. Future work should focus on linking Mg isotopic fractionation to these reactions. Mg isotopes appear to be well-suited tools for the discovery of biological markers on Earth. However, a variety of abiotic chemical reactions could play a complicated role.

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4. CONCLUSIONS

This study demonstrates that the decreases in pH and metabolites produced during heterotrophic bacterial activities could greatly accelerate the release of Mg and Si from phlogopite. Comparing bioleaching and chemical leaching experiments performed at similar pH values reveals that more elements were released into solution in the presence of bacteria or citric acid compared with those released in the presence of nitric and gluconic acids. Bacterial metabolism differs from one strain to another and induces substantial changes in solution pH; these changes had important effects on the rate of elemental release from phlogopite compared those observed under abiotic conditions. In our experiments, aerobic bacterial strains were more efficient than facultative anaerobe bacteria in leaching Mg during phlogopite weathering. In most experiments, little to no Mg isotopic fractionation linked to phlogopite leaching was highlighted. However, two tendencies could be distinguished, especially in the highest leached Mg fractions obtained: (1) for experiments performed with HNO₃ and the acidifying bacteria PS2, the Mg leached into solution was enriched in its heavy isotope compared to phlogopite; (2) for experiments performed with citric acid, the Mg leached into solution was enriched in its light isotope compared to phlogopite. However, the Mg isotopic fractionation factor was very low, thus indicating that little to no fractionation occurred during our experiments, which correspond to the first event of the bioleaching of phlogopite (in a closed system). Moreover, when high phlogopite dissolution rates are correlated with low pH values, the Mg isotopic composition of the leached solution is enriched in heavy isotopes, which

- 660 reflects the leaching of structural Mg contained in the octahedra of phlogopite. In experiments 661 performed with chelating bacteria and citric acid, high phlogopite dissolution rates were 662 enriched in light isotopes, especially at weak acid pH (4-6) values, due to the formation of 663 secondary minerals or the leaching of the Mg adsorbed on the minerals. 664 665 5. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS 666 Philippe Telouk for CNRS-INSU facilities and help with isotopic analyses at ENS-Lyon. We are grateful to Editor and Josh Wimpenny for comments to improve this manuscript. 667 668 669 6. REFERENCES CITED 670 Acker, J.G., Bricker, O.P., 1992. The influence of pH on biotite dissolution and alteration kinetics at low temperature. Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 56, 3073–3092. 671 672 doi:10.1016/0016-7037(92)90290-Y 673 Anbar, A.D., 2004. Iron stable isotopes: Beyond biosignatures. Earth Planet. Sci. Lett. 217, 674 223-236. doi:10.1016/S0012-821X(03)00572-7 675 Balland-Bolou-Bi, C., Poszwa, A., 2012. Effect of calco-magnesian amendment on the 676 mineral weathering abilities of bacterial communities in acidic and silicate-rich soils. 677 Soil Biol. Biochem. 50, 108–117. doi:10.1016/j.soilbio.2012.02.034 678 Balland, C., Poszwa, A., Leyval, C., Mustin, C., 2010. Dissolution rates of phyllosilicates as a 679 function of bacterial metabolic diversity. Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 74, 5478–5493. 680 doi:10.1016/j.gca.2010.06.022 681 Barker, W.W., Banfield, J.F., 1998. Zones of chemical and physical interaction at interfaces 682 between microbial communities and minerals: A model. Geomicrobiol. J. 15, 223–244. 683 doi:10.1080/01490459809378078 684 Barker, W.W., Welch, S.A., Chu, S., Banfield, J.F., 1998. Experimental observations of the effects of bacteria on aluminosilicate weathering. Am. Mineral. 83, 1551–1563. 685 686 doi:10.2138/am-1998-1116 687 Barman, A.K., Varadachari, C., Ghosh, K., 1992. Weathering of silicate minerals by organic 688 acids. I. Nature of cation solubilisation. Geoderma 53, 45-63. doi:10.1016/0016-689 7061(92)90020-8 690 Bastian, L., Revel, M., Bayon, G., Dufour, A., Vigier, N., 2017. Abrupt response of chemical 691 weathering to Late Quaternary hydroclimate changes in northeast Africa. Sci. Rep. 7. 692 doi:10.1038/srep44231 693 Beard, B.L., 1999. Iron Isotope Biosignatures. Science (80-.). 285, 1889–1892. 694 doi:10.1126/science.285.5435.1889
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FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1.

Optical densities at 600 nm (a), glucose concentrations (b) and pH values (C) versus time for biotic experiments performed in reactors.

Figure 2.

Concentrations of organic acids versus time for R1 experiments performed with chelating RA1 and in B1 experiments performed with the acidifying PS2 strain.

Figure 3.

Fraction of Mg leached into solution from phlogopite versus time for bio- and chemical leaching experiments, as described in section 2.3.2.

Figure 4.

Ratios of elements released (Mg and Si), together with the elemental ratios of the initial phlogopite, as functions of time

Figure 5.

Mg release rates versus pH for all experimental reactors.

Figure 6.

 $\delta^{26}Mg_{/DSM3}$ values versus pH for all experimental reactors.

Figure 1

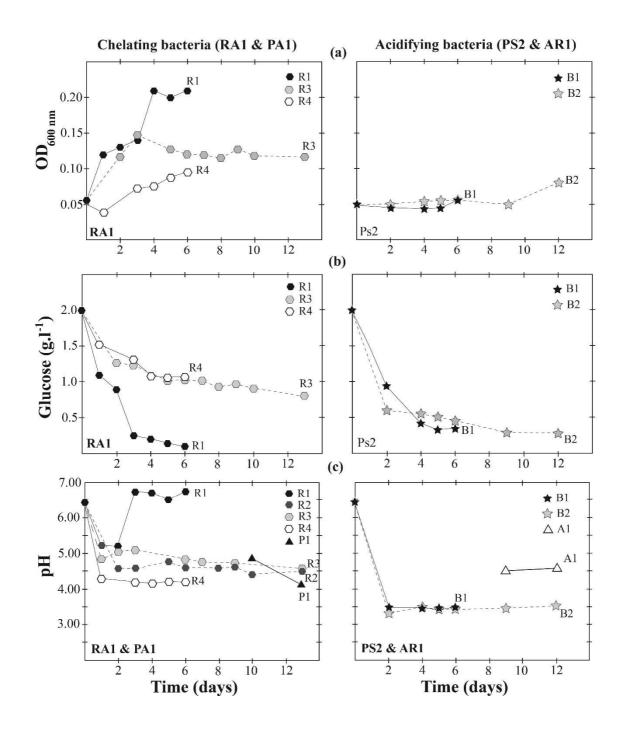


Figure 2.

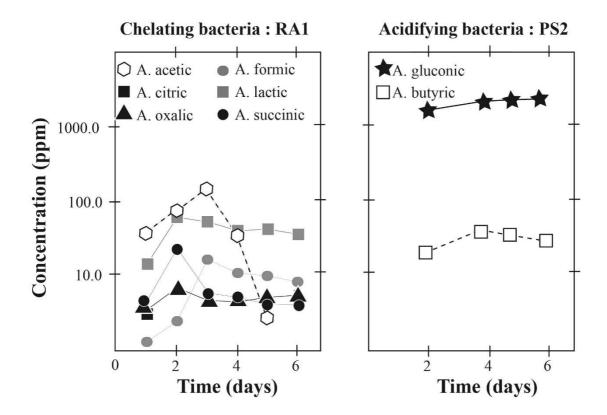


Figure 3.

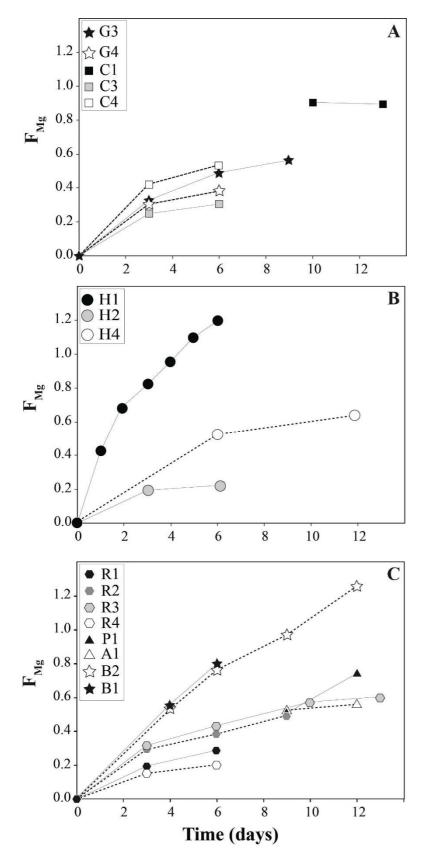
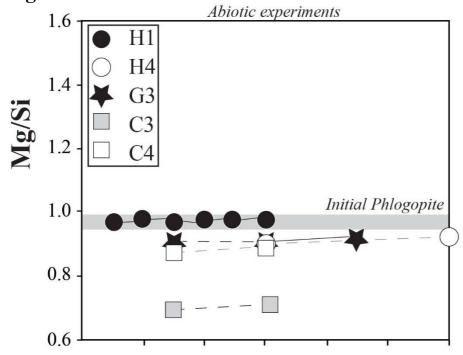


Figure 4.



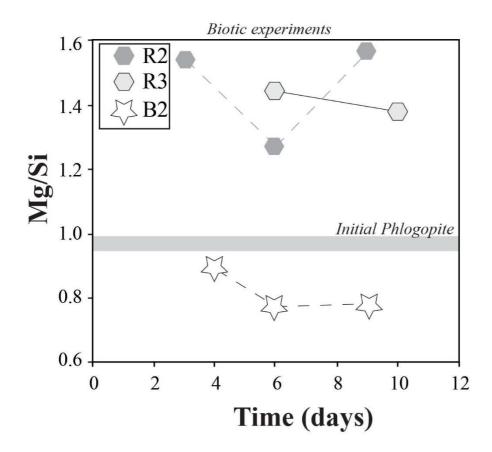


Figure 5.

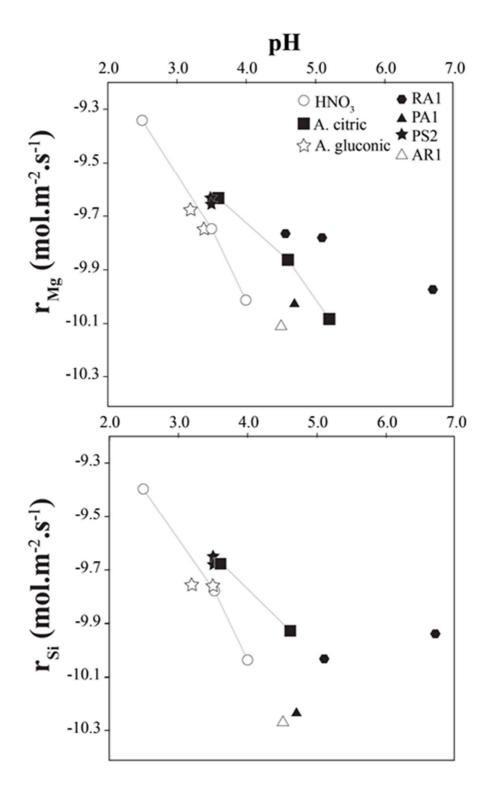


Figure 6.

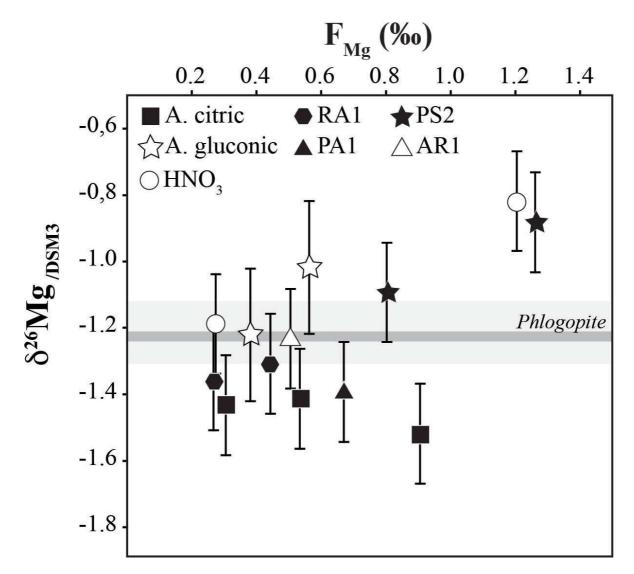


Figure 7.

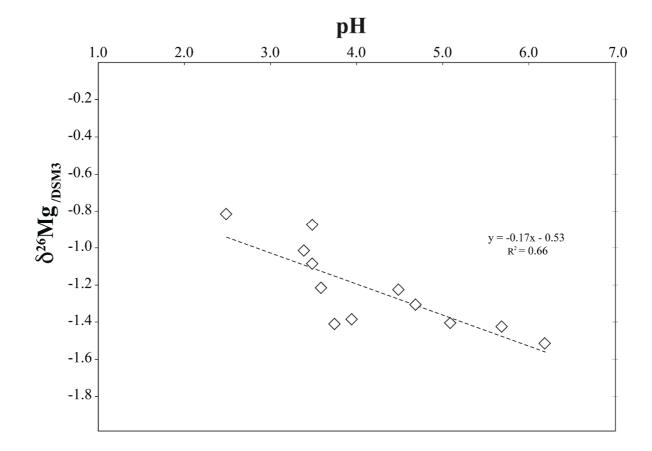


TABLE CAPTIONS

Table 1.

General characteristics of reactor solutions in biotic conditions and abiotic conditions.

* "ppm"; "-" below detection

\$ MC-ICP-MS data were obtained using the Nu instrument (ENS, Lyon, with a 2σ external precision of 0.15‰). Data in italics were obtained using the Isoprobe (CRPG, Nancy, with a 2σ external precision of 0.20‰). Reported values represent the means of two or more replicate analyses of each sample. "#": Organic acid concentration of 0.001 M; "##": organic acid concentration of 0.01 M; "###": organic acid concentration of 0.1 M

Table 2.

Composition of bioreactor medium with two bacterial strains (*Rhanella aquatilis* RA1 and *Pseudomonas sp.* PS2), including optical density at 600 nm, glucose remaining in solution and organic acids produced (i.e., gluconic, lactic, acetic, butyric, formic, succinic, oxalic and citric acids).

TABLE 1.

Weathering agent	Experiments names	Times (day)	pН	Mg *	Si *	Mg/Si	$\delta^{26}Mg_{/DSM3}^{\$}$	$\delta^{25}Mg_{/DSM3}{}^{\$}$	$\Delta^{26}~Mg_{(solution\text{-}solide)}$
	phlogopite						-1.22 +/- 0.08	-0.62 +/- 0.08	
HNO ₃	H1	6	2.5	6.30	6.41	0.98	-0.82 +/- 0.02	-0.42 +/- 0.06	0.40
HNO_3	H2	3	4.0	0.92	1.01	0.91			
		6	4.0	1.08	1.18	0.91			
HNO ₃	Н3	9	5.6	1.44					
HNO ₃	H4	6	3.6	2.70	3.01	0.89			
111,03		12	3.5	3.30	3.60	0.92			
gluconate ##	G1	3	3.2	2.00	1.93	1.04			
graconate	O1	6	3.5	2.35	2.25	1.04			
gluconate ##	G3	3	3.5	1.70	1.89	0.90			
Simeonate	00	6	3.4	2.55	2.81	0.91			
		9	3.4	2.95	3.23	0.91	-1.02+/- 0.25	-0.51+/- 0.09	0.20
gluconate #	G4	3	3.6	1.60	1.75	0.91			
		6	3.6	2	2.18	0.92	-1.22 +/- 0.05	-0.63 +/- 0.06	0.00
citrate #	C1	10	5.7	4.74	5.06	0.94			
		13	6.2	4.70	5.29	0.89	-1.52 +/- 0.06	-0.78 +/- 0.09	-0.30
citrate #	C3	3	4.6	1.30	1.28	1.01			
		6	5.7	1.60	1.68	0.95	-1.43 +/- 0.02	-0.74 +/- 0.02	-0.21
citrate #	C4	3	3.6	2.20	2.31	0.95			-0.20
		6	3.6	2.80	3.01	0.93	-1.42 +/- 0.07	-0.73 +/- 0.07	-0.21
citrate ##	C5	3	5.3	1.10	2.01	0.55			
		6	5.2	1.50	2.69	0.55			
citrate ###	C6	3	5.3	1.20	2.11	0.57			
		6	5.3	1.60	2.78	0.57			
RA1	R1	3	6.7	1.00	1.25	0.8			
		6	6.7	1.50	1.61	0.93			

RA1	R2	3	5.1	1.56	1.01	1.54	-1.41 +/- 0.07	-0.73 +/- 0.09	-0.19
		6	4.8	2.01	1.58	1.27			
		9	4.7	2.58	1.65	1.56	-1.31 +/- 0.03	-0.67 +/- 0.08	-0.09
RA1	R3	6	4.6	2.26	1.57	1.44			
		10	4.4	2.98	2.15	1.38			
RA1	R4	6	4.2	1.05	1.20	0.875			
PA1	P1	9	4.7	2.67	1.90	1.4			
		12	3.9	3.90	3.06	1.27	-1.39 +/- 0.09	-0.72 +/- 0.09	-0.17
AR1	A1	9	4.5	2.76	2.12	1.30			
		12	4.5	2.94	2.35	1.26	-1.23 +/- 0.03	-0.63 +/- 0.06	-0.01
PS2	B1	4	3.5	2.90	3.23	0.90			
		6	3.5	4.20	5.48	0.77	-1.09 +/- 0.03	-0.56 +/- 0.07	0.11
PS2	B2	4	3.5	2.80	3.12	0.89			
		6	3.5	4	5.16	0.77			
		9	3.5	5.1	6.56	0.77			
		12	3.5	6.60	8.49	0.78	-0.88 +/- 0.05	-0.45 +/- 0.08	0.36

TABLE 2

Bacterial strains	Experiments names	Times (day)	OD _{600 nm}	glc *	Gluconate *	Lactate *	Acetate *	Butyrate *	Formate *	Succinate *	Oxalate *	Citrate *
		1	0.120	1100	-	15.0	38.3	-	1.3	4.7	3.4	3.1
		2	0.125	900	_	62.0	77.1	-	2.5	23.5	7.2	-
RA1	R1	3	0.140	250	-	54.2	152.4	-	16.8	6.2	4.9	-
10/11	KI	4	0.210	200	-	41.0	36.8	-	11.0	5.3	4.7	-
		5	0.200	150	-	43.1	2.9	-	9.8	4.3	5.1	-
		6	0.210	100	-	37.1	0.0	-	8.3	4.2	5.4	-
		2	0.118	1261								
		3	0.147	1231								
	R3	5	0.127	1017								
RA1		6	0.120	1020								
		9	0.127	970								
		10	0.118	900								
		13	0.117	800								
RA1	R4	5	0.091	1080								
		6	0.096	1070								
		2	0.050	940	1400.8	-	-	2.4	-	-	-	-
PS2	B1	4	0.043	640	1635.3	_	-	4.4	-	-	-	-
		6	0.055	420	1675.2	_	-	4.7	-	-	-	-
		2	0.050	600	1607.8	-	-	2.1	-	-	-	-
	B2	4	0.054	450	2155.7	-	-	3.9	-	-	-	-
PS2		6	0.055	290	2360.1	-	-	3.1	-	-	-	-
		9	0.050	280	2257.5	-	-	2.6	-	-	-	-
		12	0.080	260	2486.4	-	-	5.4	-	-	-	-