



Influences of CO₂ and Fungus-Assisted Bioweathering on Fluoridated Apatite

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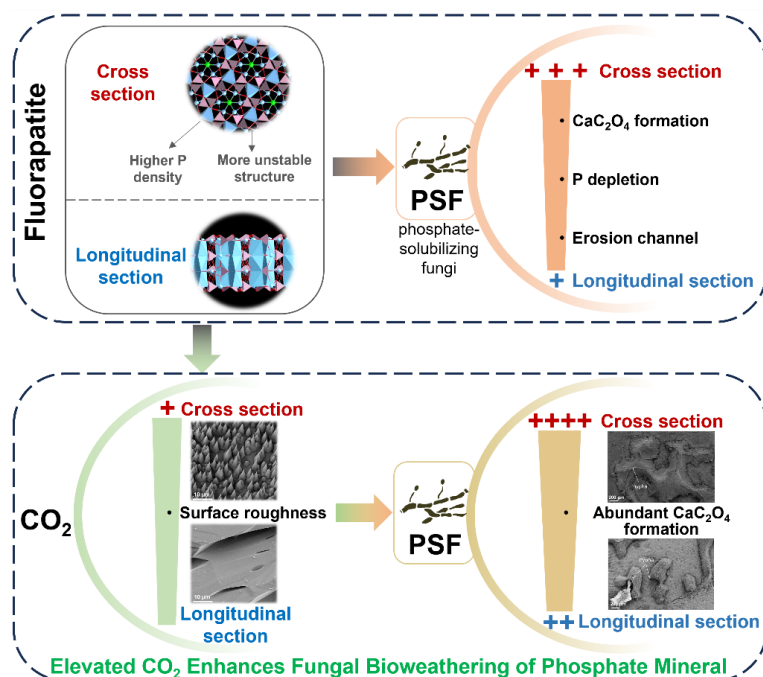
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Abstract

Fluoridated apatite (FAP) is the dominant P source for ecosystems. However, the bioweathering of FAP is still not fully elucidated. In this study, phosphate-solubilizing fungus (*Aspergillus niger*) was firstly incubated in soil to examine the weathering of FAP, on both cross and longitudinal sections. It showed that the fungus induced more pronounced erosion channels on the cross sections in a P-deficient soil. We therefore aimed to disentangle the relative contributions of biological (phosphate-solubilizing fungus) and abiotic factors (CO₂ and crystal face orientation) to the observed weathering contrasts. To further investigate the weathering contrasts on different sections of FAP, incubation was conducted in a culture medium. Fungal colonization on the cross section of FAP resulted in deeper P depletion zones and enriched secondary minerals (primarily calcium oxalate) than those on the longitudinal section. Additionally, elevated CO₂ (10%) significantly accelerated the weathering of FAP on the cross section, which was confirmed by its enhanced surface roughness, further promoted fungal colonization and subsequent bioweathering for FAP. Synergistic interactions between fungi and elevated CO₂ accelerate phosphate mineral weathering, providing a new insight on P cycling in soil microenvironments such as the rhizosphere.

Key words: Fungal bioweathering; Apatite; Elevated CO₂; Cross section; Hyphal-mineral interface





49 **1. Introduction**

50 Phosphorus is a key element in the replication, structural composition and metabolism of
51 biomolecules (Elser, 2012). However, organisms are generally limited by available P in natural
52 ecosystems (Elser et al., 2007; Meng et al., 2024). Therefore, P sets the pace of terrestrial and
53 marine biological productivity on geological timescales (Tyrrell, 1999). FAP provides primary P
54 for ecosystems via weathering (Chapin et al., 2011; Gadd, 2017). The delicate changes in apatite
55 (the largest P inventory on Earth) weathering may significantly affect P availability in ecosystems
56 on geological timescales.

57 Fungi can accelerate weathering of phosphate minerals through a series of growth and
58 metabolic strategies (Hoffland et al., 2004; Rawat et al., 2021). For instance, phosphate-
59 solubilizing fungi (PSF) can dissolve phosphate minerals via secreting proton and metabolic
60 products (i.e., organic acids and siderophores) (do Nascimento et al., 2021; Mendes et al., 2021;
61 Rawat et al., 2021). Filamentous fungi can also accelerate mineral destruction via hyphal osmotic
62 pressure (Bonneville et al., 2016; Bonneville et al., 2009). Complementary processes allow the
63 filamentous PSF to substantially erode phosphate minerals (Hoffland et al., 2004; Smits et al.,
64 2012).

65 CO₂ is a crucial abiotic factor influencing FAP weathering. Dissolved CO₂ can induce
66 formation of carbonic acid, which enhances the apatite dissolution by providing additional protons
67 (Filippelli, 2008). In some natural environments, CO₂ concentration can be very high. For example,
68 rhizosphere and similar microbial habitats often exhibit 10-100 times higher CO₂ than atmosphere
69 from root and microbial respiration (Drever, 1994). Similarly, confined microenvironments such



70 as soil pores, fungal mats, or decaying organic-rich sediments may accumulate elevated CO₂,
 71 leading to locally acidified conditions. Elevated CO₂ not only promotes chemical dissolution of
 72 apatite but also alters microbial activity and growth patterns (Bertoloni et al. 2006; Schulz et al.
 73 2012). The interplay between CO₂-driven geochemical reactions and CO₂-mediated microbial
 74 responses may strongly regulate apatite weathering in localized niches, yet this coupled
 75 mechanism remains poorly constrained.

76 Weathering of apatite is also regulated by mineralogical properties (Bogomolova et al.,
 77 2003). The weathering rates on different sections of a mineral could be distinct because of different
 78 bond values or hydration energies (Mkhonto and de Leeuw, 2002; Ruiz-Agudo and Putnis, 2012).
 79 Different sections of FAP crystals have distinct structures and atomic arrangements (Figs. S1a, b)
 80 (Elliott, 2002; Ichijo et al., 1992). In the FAP cross section (C_{FAP}), the Ca, P, F are arranged as the
 81 units of hexagons (Fig. S1a), while in the FAP longitudinal section (L_{FAP}), they form a unit of
 82 rectangle (Fig. S1b). The P densities in the C_{FAP} and L_{FAP} are 7.8 and 7.1 P atom exposed per nm⁻²
 83 (Ichijo et al., 1992). The difference in surface elemental distribution results in higher proportion
 84 of P atoms (40% of P atoms in the total number of atoms) in C_{FAP} compared to L_{FAP} (25%). In
 85 addition, orientation within mineral crystals may influence chemical stability and mechanical
 86 resistance (Giri et al., 2012). Different crystal planes of the mineral showed distinct elemental
 87 composition (Gleeson et al., 2005; Ichijo et al., 1992) and surface properties (e.g., porosity,
 88 microtopography, surface charge, hydrophobicity) (Bogomolova et al., 2003), which would
 89 influence microbial growth on mineral surfaces (Zhang et al., 2021). To maximize nutrient and
 90 minimize energy consumption, microorganisms selectively attach onto mineral surfaces



91 containing growth-limiting nutrients, (i.e., P, N) (Rogers et al., 1998). Cell adhesion to minerals
92 was usually correlated with particular element site density (Neal et al., 2005). In addition,
93 microorganisms have a strong tendency to grow along surface cracks and junctions between
94 crystals (Bogomolova et al., 2003). However, the contrasts of fungal bioweathering on the different
95 sections of FAP have not been elucidated.

96 The aim of this study was to investigate how elevated CO₂ and *A. niger* affect FAP
97 weathering. The effect of fungal colonization and CO₂ concentration on weathering C_{FAP} and L_{FAP}
98 was explored.

99 **2. Materials and Methods**

100 **2.1 Fungal Strain Preparation**

101 The *Aspergillus niger* (CCTCC No. M2023240) was applied in this study. *A. niger* was
102 cultured on potato dextrose agar (PDA) medium at 28 °C for 5 d to produce spores. The PDA
103 medium had 5 g/L potato infusion, 20.0 g/L glucose, and 14.0 g/L agar. The medium was drenched
104 with sterile water and the spores were carefully scraped from the plate surface with a fine artist's
105 brush. The suspension was then filtered through a three-layer sterile cheesecloth to eliminate
106 mycelial fragments.

107 **2.2 Preparation of FAP**

108 Durango fluorapatite (FAP) was considered as a standard geological apatite. The FAP was
109 sectioned into 200 μm thick, 0.5 cm × 0.5 cm slices with cross sections (Figs. S1A and S1C) and
110 longitudinal sections (Figs. S1B and S1C). The longitudinal section of an appetite slice was cut
111 along the edges of the unit cell. All FAP slices were stored in a desiccator prior to the following



112 experiments. A three-dimensional structure of the apatite cross and longitudinal sections is shown
 113 in Fig. S1A and Fig. S1B, respectively.

114 **2.3 Bioweathering of FAP in Soil**

115 Bioweathering of FAP by *A. niger* was first conducted using P-deficient soil. The P-
 116 deficient soil sample (0–20 cm) was collected from Chongzuo, Guangxi, China. The soil was
 117 acidic (pH 4.95) and contained only 0.53 mg Kg⁻¹ of available P. Soil sample was sieved (2 mm
 118 mesh) to remove roots and gravel. Then 20 g dry soil was placed in a 50 mL glass bottle. After
 119 sterilization at 121 °C for 1 h, each bottle content was evenly sprayed with 1 mL sterile solution
 120 (containing 0.7 g of C and 0.028 g of N per week per kg dry soil). Subsequently, 1 mL *A. niger*
 121 spore suspension (4.3×10⁷ spores mL⁻¹) was inoculated into the soil. Afterwards, two ultraviolet-
 122 sterilized glass sheets with attached FAP samples (cross and longitudinal sections) were inserted
 123 vertically into the soil. These two treatments were denoted as CPSF@Soil and LPSF@Soil. Each
 124 treatment was performed with two experimental replicates. The bottles were incubated in the dark
 125 at 25 °C (60% of maximum soil water-holding capacity). After 30 d incubation, two FAP slices
 126 were cleaned using sterile water and air dried at room temperature for SEM analysis.

127 **2.4 Weathering of FAP in Medium**

128 (i) Weathering of FAP by PSF: To further investigate the factors causing differences in the
 129 weathering rates of different apatite crystal facets, a set of experiments was conducted in PDA
 130 medium. Two ultraviolet-sterilized glass sheets with attached FAP samples were vertically inserted
 131 into the PDA medium. Then, 0.1 mL of *A. niger* spore suspension (4.3×10⁷ spores mL⁻¹) was
 132 inoculated. The FAP slices with *A. niger* inoculation were incubated at 28 °C under sterile ambient



air for 45 d, which were denoted as CPSF (cross section with *A. niger*) and LPSF (longitudinal section with *A. niger*) treatments (Fig. S1D). Each treatment was performed with two experimental replicates. Two FAP slices were then cleaned using sterile water and air dried at room temperature for SEM-EDS, Raman imaging and scanning electron microscopy (RISE) analysis. In addition, FAP with growing hyphae were protected by deposition of a platinum strap (~1 mm thick). Then, focused ion beam (FIB) was applied to prepare hypha-mineral interface profiles (~90 nm thick) for transmission electron microscopy-energy dispersive spectroscopy (TEM-EDS) analysis.

(ii) Weathering of FAP by elevated CO₂: FAP slices were also prepared without PSF addition and incubated at 10% CO₂ concentration (denoted as C_{FAP}@CO₂ and L_{FAP}@CO₂ treatments) to investigate the effects of sole CO₂ on apatite weathering. Each treatment was performed with two experimental replicates. After 45 d incubation, FAP slices were gently rinsed using sterile water and air dried at room temperature for scanning electron microscopy and atomic force microscopy (AFM).

(iii) Weathering of FAP by PSF and elevated CO₂: To examine the synergistic effect of fungal colonization and elevated CO₂ on apatite weathering, another two glass sheets attached FAP samples with PSF addition were incubated in an incubator containing 10% CO₂ (denoted as CPSF@CO₂ and LPSF@CO₂ treatments). Each treatment was performed with two experimental replicates. After 45 d incubation, two FAP slices were cleaned using sterile water and air dried at room temperature for SEM analysis.

2.5 Instrumentation

SEM image analysis was performed using a Carl Zeiss Supra 55 system (Carl Zeiss Inc.,



154 Germany) in secondary electron imaging mode with an acceleration voltage of 7-15 kV. To
155 enhance image quality and minimize charging, samples were sputter-coated with gold for SEM
156 analysis. To ensure representation, the regions scanned were selected randomly. Semi-quantitative
157 analysis (collecting time: 60 s) was performed using an Oxford Aztec X-Max 150 energy
158 dispersive spectrometer (EDS).

159 RISE system consisted of a Wissenschaftliche Instrumente und Technologie GmbH
160 (WITech, Germany) Alpha 300 confocal Raman microscope combined with an SEM (TESCAN-
161 VEGA3). The spectral region of 0–4500 cm^{-1} was recorded using a 532 nm laser (15 mW with
162 4×15 s scans). In addition, Raman spectra of P-O (for PO_4^{3-} in apatite slice) vibration were collected
163 using a Horiba Lab RAM HR Evolution instrument equipped with an Olympus microscope. The
164 instrument was calibrated using a silicon wafer at band position of 520.7 cm^{-1} . Then, the spectral
165 region of 400–1500 cm^{-1} was recorded using a 633 nm laser (4 mW with 2 ×60 s scans).

166 Hypha-apatite interface profiles were prepared and polished using Zeiss Crossbeam 550
167 FIB-SEM. Polished samples were then analyzed using TEM-EDS (deadtime: 90 s). TEM was
168 performed using FEI Tecnai G2 F20 system. Semi-quantitative analysis (collecting time: 40 s) was
169 performed using an Oxford Aztec X-Max 150 EDS.

170 AFM measurement was carried out using a Bruker Dimension Icon scanning probe
171 microscope at room temperature. The PeakForce Tapping mode was utilized for all AFM
172 measurements. The tip (Bruker, TAP150A) had a half cone angle of 10°, a radius of 10 nm, and a
173 resonance frequency of 150 kHz. The nominal force constant was 5 N/m and the actual spring
174 constant of the probe was calibrated before each test.



175 **2.6 Data Analysis**

176 Effects of elevated CO₂ on the surface roughness of FAP cross and longitudinal sections
 177 were evaluated by comparing C_{FAP}@CO₂ and L_{FAP}@CO₂ treatments. Data was tested for normality
 178 and homogeneity of variances and then analyzed by a One-way analysis of variance at a
 179 significance level of $P < 0.05$. All statistical analyses were conducted in R software (version 4.3.2;
 180 R Core Team, 2023). The 3D structural diagram of apatite sections was examined by CrystalMaker
 181 10.4.

182 **3. Results**

183 **3.1 Fungal-induced Surface Dissolution and Secondary Mineral Formation on FAP**

184 Hyphae extended to FAP surfaces in soil experiments, with deep channels forming along
 185 hyphae in CPSF@Soil (Figs. 1a, c) while none forming in LPSF@Soil (Figs. 1b, d). For the
 186 incubation in the medium, more fungal mycelia were observed in CPSF compared with LPSF (Figs.
 187 2a, b). Abundant secondary minerals formed around mycelium on both sections (Figs. 2c, e, d, f),
 188 with more bipyramid-shaped minerals on C_{FAP} (Fig. 2c). EDS analysis showed intense C, O, and
 189 Ca signals in these secondary minerals. Based on their morphology, these minerals resembled
 190 calcium oxalate (Mendes et al., 2022).

191 RISE analysis was applied to determine the phase of secondary minerals on the FAP surface.
 192 The peak at 968 cm⁻¹ corresponded to the ν_1 stretching vibration of P-O from PO₄³⁻ (Fig. S2). The
 193 1488 cm⁻¹ peak was assigned to ν (C-O) vibrations of oxalate (Su et al., 2023). In the spot analysis
 194 on initial C_{FAP} and L_{FAP}, only the characteristic peaks of phosphate were observed (Fig. S2). After
 195 incubation, the characteristic peaks of oxalates were detected on the rhomboid-shaped secondary



196 minerals on both sections (Fig. S2).

197 **3.2 Fungal Influence on Ca and P Migration on the FAP Surface**

198 Raman spectra showed the intense P-O signal on the FAP surfaces in both CPSF and LPSF
 199 treatments (Figs. 3a, b). The peaks at 429, 446 cm^{-1} were assigned to ν_2 P-O vibrations, those at
 200 582, 605 cm^{-1} to ν_4 , the peak at 963 cm^{-1} to ν_1 , and those at 1032, 1058, 1078 cm^{-1} to ν_3 P-O
 201 vibrations. The peaks at 446, 1032, 1058, 1078 cm^{-1} were only observed on the C_{FAP} (Fig. 3a),
 202 while the characteristic peak at 429 cm^{-1} was only observed on the L_{FAP} (Fig. 3b). Additionally, on
 203 the C_{FAP} , the P-O peaks (e.g., 582, 605, 1032, 1058, 1078 cm^{-1}) exhibited higher intensities 20 μm
 204 from the hypha (point a1) than at 2 μm (point a2) (Fig. 3a; Table S1). The characteristic peaks of
 205 P-O remained consistent on the L_{FAP} (Fig. 3b).

206 FIB-prepared hyphal-mineral interface profiles detected altered Ca and P atomic content
 207 (Figs. 3c, d, e). At 0.03 μm depth from the hyphal-mineral interface, Ca and P contents on C_{FAP}
 208 were only 3.5% and 2.3% (Fig. 3c), versus 4.9% and 6.4% on L_{FAP} (Fig. 3d). The atomic contents
 209 of Ca and P in both profiles increased rapidly from the hyphal-mineral interface to a depth of 0.1
 210 μm , where they reached 12.4% and 9.1% for the C_{FAP} , 15.7% and 13.0% for the L_{FAP} . Ca and P
 211 contents stabilized at 19.6% and 14.3% at 3.2 μm depth in C_{FAP} , versus 20.7% and 15.7% at 1.7
 212 μm in L_{FAP} . In contrast to L_{FAP} , the contents of Ca and P at the same depth in the C_{FAP} were lower
 213 (Figs. 3c, d). EDS analysis showed that the Ca/P ratios in the C_{FAP} profile was always higher than
 214 that in the L_{FAP} profile within a depth of 0.32 μm from the hyphal-mineral interface. Then, the
 215 Ca/P ratios tended to be constant (~ 1.3) in both the profiles (Fig. 3e).

216 **3.3 CO₂-induced Alteration of FAP Surface Roughness**



Both C_{FAP} and L_{FAP} exhibited relatively smooth surfaces before incubation (Figs. 4a, c). Elevated CO_2 exposure produced abundant sharp hexagonal columnar structures (2-3 μm diameter) on C_{FAP} (Fig. 4b), while produced trench-like structures on L_{FAP} (Fig. 4d). Initial C_{FAP} step height varied -2 to 3 nm (Fig. 4e), expanding to -9-9 nm after elevated CO_2 incubation (Fig. 4f). In contrast, the step height variation for the L_{FAP} ranged from -6 to 6 nm (Figs. 4g, h). Elevated CO_2 significantly increased the surface roughness of the C_{FAP} (from 2.8 to 5.4 nm), while had limited effect on the surface of L_{FAP} (Fig. 4i).

3.4 Synergistic Effects of CO_2 and Fungi on FAP Weathering

Abundant hexagonal columnar structures were formed on the surface of C_{FAP} in the CPSF@ CO_2 treatment (Fig. 5a). However, the sharpness of the columnar structures was reduced compare with that in the C_{FAP} @ CO_2 treatments (Fig. 4b). For the L_{FAP} , elevated CO_2 and PSF synergistically induced additional cracks in LPSF@ CO_2 (Fig. 5d). Compared with L_{FAP} , 40.2 mm^2 more secondary mineral areas were formed on the surface of C_{FAP} (Fig. S3). These secondary mineral areas were mainly composed of calcium oxalate particles (Figs. 5b, e). Calcium oxalate particles predominantly accumulated along hyphae on C_{FAP} (Fig. 5c), whereas on L_{FAP} they exhibited scattered low-density aggregation (Fig. 5f).

4. Discussion

The different sections of FAP are significantly different in elemental distribution (Figs. S1a, b) and structural stability. The Ca, P, and F are arranged as the units of hexagons in the C_{FAP} (Fig. S1a), while forming a unit of rectangle in the L_{FAP} . The difference in surface elemental distribution results in a higher proportion of P atoms (40% of P atoms in the total number of atoms) in C_{FAP}



238 compared to L_{FAP} (25%). In addition, the screw dislocation of atoms often causes surface defects
 239 of crystal, which further reduces the structural stability of mineral crystals. Since the screw
 240 dislocation of atoms often occurs in the cross section of the crystal (Cuisinier et al., 1992), C_{FAP}
 241 may have lower resistance to weathering than L_{FAP} . These differences in elemental distribution and
 242 structural stability between C_{FAP} and L_{FAP} may further influence weathering of FAP.

243 *A. niger* induced more P depletion zones on the C_{FAP} (Figs. 3a, c), suggesting that C_{FAP} is
 244 more vulnerable to fungal weathering than L_{FAP} . PSF usually grow and expand their hyphae on the
 245 surface of minerals to obtain nutrients (Gadd, 2010). The relatively high P density in C_{FAP} may
 246 lead to the preferential growth of fungal hyphae. The low P content and high Ca/P ratio (Fig. 3e)
 247 at the mycelia-FAP interface further suggest that the P acquisition by *A. niger* may cause stronger
 248 biological weathering in C_{FAP} . Fungal hyphae can accelerate the weathering of FAP via the
 249 following two pathways. First, organic acids released from the TCA cycle accelerate the
 250 solubilization of apatite mineral (Rawat et al., 2021; Su et al., 2021). Oxalic acid, the most
 251 abundant organic acid secreted by *A. niger* have higher acidity constants than many other organic
 252 acids (Zhang et al., 2021). Given the low structural stability of C_{FAP} , H^+ and organic acid ligands
 253 drive preferential bioweathering. Oxalic acid can react with Ca^{2+} dissolved from FAP, the
 254 formation of calcium oxalate therefore can be applied to evaluate such fungal bioweathering
 255 processes (Sturm et al., 2015; Su et al., 2021). The results that more calcium oxalate were formed
 256 near the mycelium on the C_{FAP} than L_{FAP} (Figs. 2c, d), further confirmed that the bioweathering of
 257 C_{FAP} is stronger than that of L_{FAP} . Second, *A. niger* can also accelerate the physical destruction of
 258 FAP through the biomechanical forces of mycelium growth. Fungal appressoria can produce



259 osmotic pressures of up to $10\text{--}20\ \mu\text{N}/\mu\text{m}^2$ during hyphal growth, which would substantially
 260 accelerate the physical weathering (Hoffland et al., 2004; Howard et al. 1991). Screw dislocations
 261 in crystal cross-sections destabilize C_{FAP} structure, enhancing its susceptibility to biomechanical
 262 destruction. Moreover, the released fluorine from FAP did not cause evident toxicity on the mineral
 263 surface.

264 CO_2 can form carbonic acid in humid environments, resulting in FAP weathering. In this
 265 study, elevated CO_2 induced the formation of hexagonal pyramids and trench-like structures (Figs.
 266 4a, b, c, d) on FAP surfaces and increased the roughness on C_{FAP} surface (Figs. 4e, f, i). This
 267 suggests that abiotic factors also preferably weather C_{FAP} . In addition, the decreased sharpness of
 268 the columnar structure on the C_{FAP} and more cracks on the L_{FAP} after fungal inoculation indicated
 269 that the PSF would survive and perform its solubilizing ability under elevated CO_2 (Figs. 5a, d).
 270 These observations highlight that elevated CO_2 not only accelerates chemical dissolution but also
 271 sustains fungal colonization and activity on mineral surfaces.

272 Elevated CO_2 can promote surface roughness of FAP, especially on C_{FAP} , which provides
 273 more favorable habitats for the spores and hyphae of PSF. Such roughened surfaces may facilitate
 274 adhesion, enhance hyphal penetration, and stimulate oxalic acid secretion by PSF, further
 275 promoting bio-weathering. The synergistic effect of fungal colonization and high CO_2
 276 concentration on FAP weathering has many important implications. In soils, rhizosphere serves as
 277 the crucial zone for P transfer from the lithosphere to the biosphere, which mediates crucial P
 278 transfer from lithosphere to biosphere. Rhizosphere zones often maintain CO_2 levels several-fold
 279 higher than the atmosphere due to intense root and microbial respiration, with values up to $\sim 4\%$



(Drever, 1994). Beyond bulk rhizosphere CO₂ enrichment, fungal hyphae themselves can locally elevate CO₂ concentrations and simultaneously reduce O₂, creating steep microscale gradients. These self-generated microenvironments may alter surface chemistry, increase mineral roughness, and promote stable colonization, thereby amplifying fungal bio-weathering at the µm scale. While traditional views hold that exudates (e.g., simple carbohydrates) in rhizosphere stimulate microbial growth—enhancing decomposer community nutrient cycling, our findings under controlled conditions are thus consistent with processes expected in natural soils, where abiotic and biotic drivers interact to regulate P release, which provides a new insight into rhizosphere P transformation processes. In addition, our results also consistently showed that both abiotic and biotic weathering processes predominately occurred in the cross section of FAP. Given that approximately ~90% of P is stored in the form of apatite on the earth (Chapin et al., 2011), the preferential weathering of CFAP observed in both abiotic and biotic contexts underscores the need to consider crystal face-specific processes in future studies. Linking microscale fungal–CO₂ interactions with larger-scale geochemical cycling will be essential for more accurate predictions of terrestrial and marine P dynamics.

5. Conclusions

Fungal colonization and high CO₂ concentration synergistically promoted FAP weathering. Fungal colonization boosted oxalic acid production and induced P depletion zones. Elevated CO₂ enhanced surface roughness which promoted fungal adhesion and growth, further accelerated bioweathering of FAP. These indicate that the P cycling in soil microenvironments with higher CO₂ concentrations (like in the rhizosphere) may be faster. In addition, the alterations of



301 morphology and elemental composition in the mycelial-mineral interfaces indicate that both
302 abiotic and biotic weathering processes preferentially occurred in C_{FAP} . Given that approximately
303 90% of P is stored in the form of apatite on the Earth, future studies should pay more attention to
304 weathering processes at the different faces of FAP crystals, for accurately predicting P cycling in
305 terrestrial and marine ecosystems.

306 **Data Availability Statement**

307 The data that support the findings of this study are openly available in Zenodo digital repository
308 (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.17382598>)

309 **Author contributions**

310 MS: Writing-original draft, Data curation, Visualization, Methodology, Investigation, Formal
311 analysis, Conceptualization, Funding acquisition. YC, LT and HW: Data curation, Visualization,
312 Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Conceptualization. XS and ZW: Methodology,
313 Investigation. LM and MX: Methodology. GM, KH, ZbL, ML and GG: Writing-review and editing,
314 Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Conceptualization. ZL: Writing-review and editing,
315 Resources, Methodology, Investigation, Funding acquisition, Formal analysis, Conceptualization.

316 **Competing Interest**

317 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
318 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

319 **Acknowledgements**

320 This study was supported by National Natural Science Foundation of China (42403075), National
321 Key R&D Program of China (2023YFC3707600), the Major Scientific and Technological Project



of CNPC (2023ZZ0203) and China Postdoctoral Science Foundation (2024M753324).

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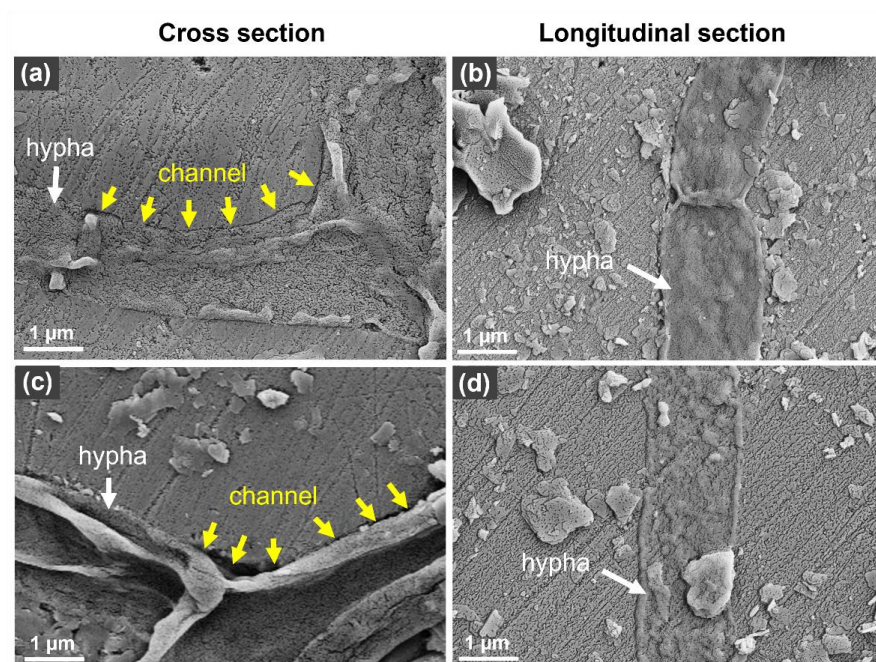
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- 416



417
 418 **Figure 1.** SEM imaging of *A. niger* hyphae on the FAP surface in the CPSF@Soil (a, c) and LPSF@Soil
 419 (b, d) treatments. The hyphae promote the formation of erosion channels (yellow arrow) on the FAP cross
 420 section (a and c).
 421

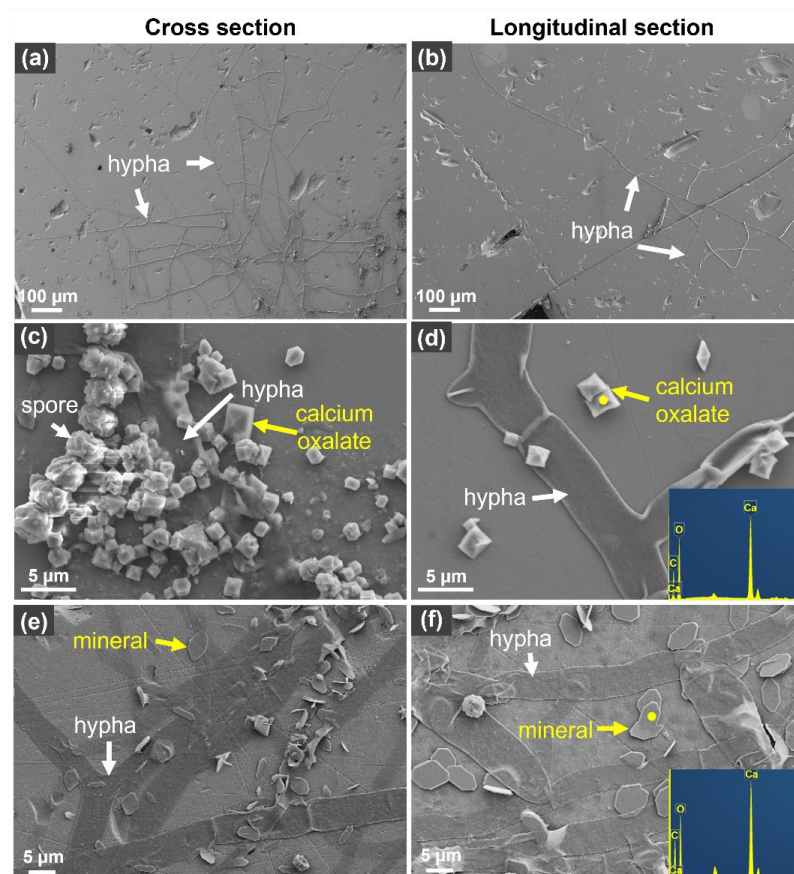


Figure 2. SEM imaging of *A. niger* hyphae and secondary minerals on the FAP surface in the CPSF (a, c, e) and LPSF (b, d, f) treatments.

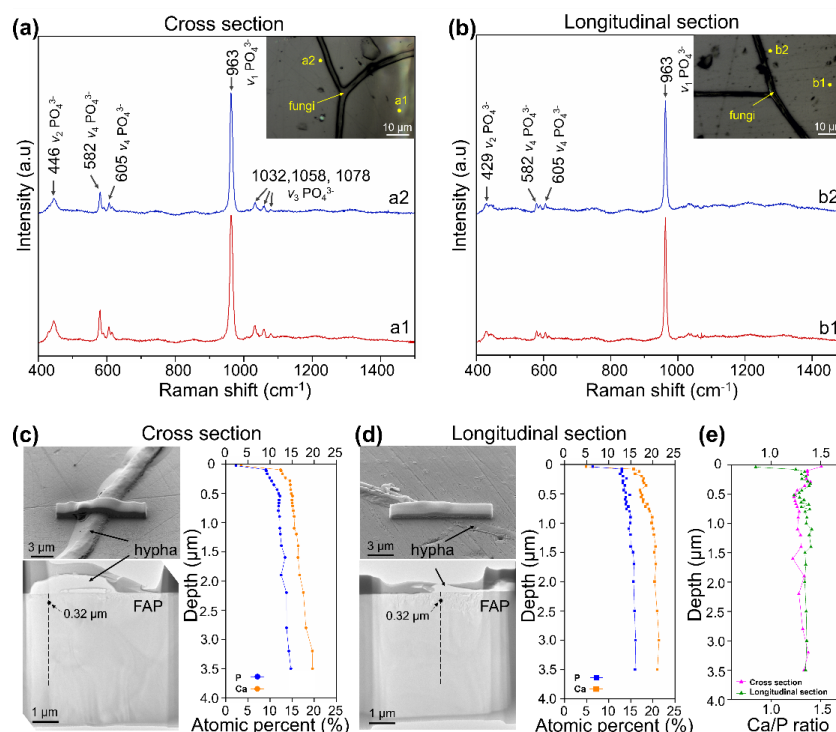
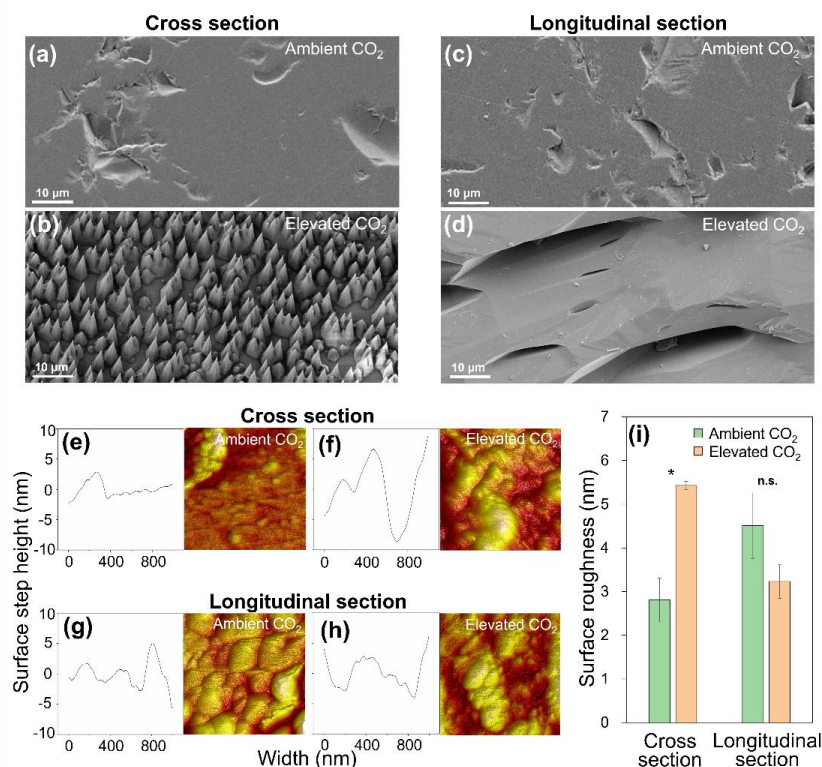


Figure 3. Raman spectra of P-O vibration on the FAP surface (a for CPSF and b for LPSF treatments) and normalized atomic percent of Ca and P in FIB-prepared hypha-mineral interface profiles (c for CPSF and d for LPSF treatments) and the corresponding Ca/P ratio in these profiles (e). a1, b1: ~20 μm away from the hypha; a2, b2: ~2 μm away from the hypha. The atomic percentage of Ca and P and Ca/P ratio are related to the points shown along the black dotted lines in Figure c and d. The contents of Ca and P showed obvious changes within 0.32 μm below the hypha-mineral interface.



433

434 **Figure 4.** FAP surface morphology (a, b, c, d), surface step height (e, f, g, h), and surface roughness (i) in
 435 the $C_{FAP}@CO_2$ and $L_{FAP}@CO_2$. a and b: SEM images of the C_{FAP} surface at ambient (a) and elevated (b)
 436 CO_2 condition. c and d: SEM images of the L_{FAP} surface at ambient (c) and elevated (d) CO_2 condition. e-
 437 h: Surface step height of the C_{FAP} (e and f) and L_{FAP} (g and h) at ambient and elevated CO_2 condition.

438 Images on the right are the atomic force microscope (AFM) height 3D image of FAP surface in the
 439 corresponding sites. i: The surface roughness (high sensor) of the FAP based on the AFM analysis. Values
 440 were presented as mean $\pm$ standard error ($n = 3$, three different sites on one FAP section were analyzed).

441 Asterisk (*) indicated significant difference ($P < 0.05$) of FAP surface roughness after etching by
 442 elevated CO_2 , while n.s. indicated no significant difference.

443

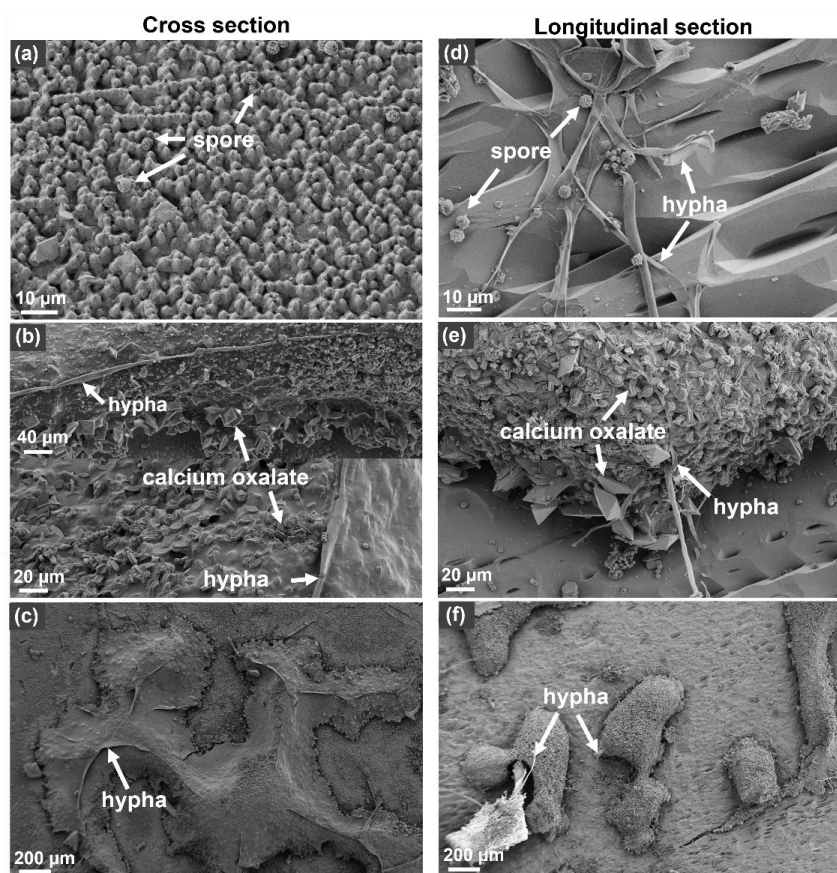


Figure 5. The morphology of the FAP surface and the calcium oxalate formed on it in the CPSF@CO₂ (a, b, c) and LPSF@CO₂ (d, e, f) treatments. a and d: abundant columnar structure with reduced sharpness were observed on the C_{FAP} surface (a) and induced additional cracks appeared on the L_{FAP} surface (d). b and e: two types of calcium oxalate on the FAP surface. c and f: Calcium oxalate accumulated along the hyphae on the C_{FAP} surface (c) and exhibited a scattered aggregation on the L_{FAP} surface (f).