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1 **SPECIES- AND SITE-SPECIFIC EFFICACY OF COMMERCIAL BIOCIDES AND**  
2 **APPLICATION SOLVENTS AGAINST LICHENS**

3

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35

36 **Abstract**

37 Control of lichens on stone cultural heritage is mostly achieved by a combination of mechanical  
38 removal with biocide applications. However, there is a lack of scientific evidence on the efficacy of  
39 different biocides on different species, and on the consistency of biocide effects on heritage sites in  
40 different environmental conditions. This results in some uncertainty when conservation  
41 interventions to control lichens are routinely defined on the basis of restoration tradition or  
42 empirical evaluation, without experimental measures of how lichens respond. In this work, we  
43 quantitatively evaluated (a) the efficacy of five commercially-available biocides, applied using a  
44 brush or with a cellulose poultice, against two species (*Protoparmeliopsis muralis*, *Verrucaria*  
45 *nigrescens*), and (b) whether the effects on the two species were consistent, per treatment, across  
46 three Italian heritage sites. Lichen vitality was quantified through analyses of chlorophyll *a*  
47 fluorescence (Chl<sub>a</sub>F) and ergosterol content. The results indicated that all the tested biocides, and  
48 their organic solvents, affected the vitality of both the species. However, most of treatments  
49 displayed different efficacy on each species, across the different sites and between brush and  
50 poultice applications. Accordingly, when a conservation intervention to control lichen growth is  
51 planned, biocide treatments need both species- and site-specific calibrations and lichen vitality  
52 should be properly ascertained *in situ* by monitoring Chl<sub>a</sub>F parameters ( $F_V/F_M$  and  $F_0$ ) twenty days  
53 after trial biocide applications.

54

55 **Keywords**

56 biocide; chlorophyll *a* fluorescence; ergosterol; lichen; organic solvents

57

58

## 59 1. Introduction

60 The effects of lichens on stone monuments are nowadays considered a matter of debate, as  
61 researchers are increasingly contributing, and counterposing, evidence for lichen-related  
62 biodeterioration and bioprotection processes (Salvadori and Casanova-Municchia 2016). The need  
63 to remove lichens in all cases may be reasonably questioned, as for example in cases where lichen  
64 colonization accounts for a negligible deterioration effect, shows some bioprotective attributes,  
65 contributes to the aesthetic of the monument and/or represents biodiversity value (Pinna 2014).  
66 Nevertheless, in cultural heritage management a direct relationship between lichens and weathering  
67 is still usually envisaged, and lichen removal is generally planned as component of restoration  
68 interventions (Caneva et al. 2008).

69 In any cleaning interventions, devitalization of lichens is necessary to avoid them being undesirably  
70 scattered, rather than controlled, by the cleaning actions (Caneva et al. 2008). So far, the application  
71 of biocides has been the most followed approach to kill lichens, although chemical treatments give  
72 rise to concerns about their impact on the environment (e.g. Gromaire et al. 2015) and have already  
73 showed technical limitations (Speranza et al. 2013 with refs therein). Biocide application has indeed  
74 yielded mixed results, including poor treatment response, changes in community dynamics,  
75 persistence of dead thalli, and damage to substrate surfaces (Seaward 2015). Accordingly, several  
76 innovative and promising approaches have been proposed in the last years to substitute for, or  
77 reduce, biocide application, including heat shock treatments (Tretiach et al. 2012), infrared and  
78 ultraviolet laser irradiation (Speranza et al. 2013; Sanz et al. 2015; Pozo et al. 2016), and others,  
79 which still need to be better calibrated on lichens, such as anatase photocatalysis (Fonseca et al.  
80 2010) or enzymatic treatments (Scarpa et al. 2016). Nevertheless, the adoption of these new  
81 techniques is generally limited by experimental time, extent of surfaces to be treated, and, in some  
82 cases, economic constraints, while the use of biocides persists as a routinely adopted approach, with  
83 protocols often based on traditions and empirical evaluations more than on experimental analyses of  
84 their efficacy in each case-study (Caneva et al. 2008).

85 Research on biocidal effects on lichens has been conducted since the 1970s and 1980s, with  
86 treatment success being mostly empirically defined *in situ* (Caneva et al. 1996, and references  
87 therein), while standardization of experimental techniques to assess lichen devitalization after  
88 biocide application (i.e. fluorescence microscopy) was established at the beginning of 1990s  
89 (Normal 1994). Conservators have claimed some difficulties in directly testing a range of biocide  
90 and cleaning agents (Schnabel 1991), and have noted the need for comprehensive reviews on  
91 commonly used biocidal materials (e.g. Caneva et al. 1996). However, as a response, lists of  
92 products rather than investigations into their efficacy have been produced, and some products have  
93 become outdated over the years, following the recognition of their toxicity-related environmental  
94 and health hazards (Nugari and Salvadori 2003; European-Commission-Regulation 2007;  
95 SCENIHR 2009). More recent research has considered the biocidal effect(s) of restricted sets of  
96 products (e.g. Tretiach et al. 2007; de los Ríos et al. 2012), in comparison with physical treatments  
97 (e.g. Fonseca et al. 2010; Tretiach et al. 2012) or in combination with other restoration products  
98 (e.g. Pinna et al. 2012). Different approaches to assess the effects of the treatments have been  
99 considered, including microscopical observation of chlorophyll epifluorescence in photobionts  
100 (Nugari et al. 1993), SEM evaluation of the integrity of anatomical structures of both lichen

101 partners (Speranza et al. 2012), fluorimetric analyses of biophotonic activity (Bajpai et al. 1992)  
102 and chlorophyll *a* fluorescence of photobionts (Chl<sub>a</sub>F) (Tretiach et al. 2008, 2010), electrical  
103 conductivity of thalli (Cuzman et al. 2013) and molecular assessments (e.g. DGGE; Cámara et al.  
104 2011). The diversity of methods used to assess lichen devitalization in these studies makes it hard to  
105 compare results. Moreover, although a species-specific lichen sensitivity to biocides has been  
106 suggested (Alstrup 1992; Nimis and Salvadori 1997), only few researchers have included a focus on  
107 this feature (Tretiach et al. 2007, 2010, 2012). More remarkably, researchers have neglected to  
108 evaluate the *in situ* reproducibility of devitalization results across different heritage sites, nor have  
109 they clarified if different biocidal approaches, in terms of active principle, preparation solvent  
110 and/or application method, may be more or less suitable against certain species, on certain stone  
111 substrates or under certain macro- and micro-climatic conditions. However, similar information, in  
112 parallel with research on alternative approaches for lichen control, would be of value to optimize  
113 routinely-adopted biocidal application, and, consequently, reduce related environmental  
114 contamination (Scheerer et al. 2009).

115 In this research, we compared the effects of five commercial biocides, nowadays widely used in  
116 Europe (BiotinR, BiotinT, DesNovo, Lichenicida 464, Preventol RI80), and their application  
117 solvents (water, acetone, White Spirit) on the vitality of two epilithic lichens [*Protoparmeliopsis*  
118 *muralis* (Schreb.) M. Choisy and *Verrucaria nigrescens* Pers.] commonly found on stone cultural  
119 heritage in Europe and beyond (Nimis et al. 1992). The effects of the herbicide glyphosate (Glifene  
120 SL) and of the lichen secondary metabolite usnic acid, having biocidal potential against other  
121 deteriorogenic lithobionts (Gazzano et al. 2013), were also assayed. All the products were applied *in*  
122 *situ*, with single brush and poultice applications at concentrations following the producers'  
123 recommended ranges, on lichen thalli growing on sedimentary rocks in three Italian heritage sites  
124 located in different (phyto-)climatic areas (as defined in Nimis and Martellos 2008). The research  
125 did not aim to rank the performance of the different products, as each product was not tested in all  
126 possible concentrations, application methods and treatment cycles. The aims of the study were to  
127 quantify, for a series of biocide treatments, (a) if each approach (i.e. biocide × application method)  
128 showed a similar efficacy against different lichen species, and (b) if efficacy results were consistent,  
129 per species per treatment, between different sites. To accomplish these aims, we examined in each  
130 study site the vitality of lichen thalli before and after the treatments in terms of chlorophyll *a*  
131 fluorescence (Chl<sub>a</sub>F) of the photobiont, recognized as an ideal tool for checking the vitality of  
132 photosynthetic organisms, including lichens (Tretiach et al. 2012; Malaspina et al. 2014).  
133 Additional analyses were also, in turn, performed to clarify the lichen response to biocide  
134 treatments, including microscopic assessment of chlorophyll epifluorescence in photobionts and the  
135 assessment of mycobiont vitality in terms of ergosterol content.

136

## 137 **2. Materials and methods**

### 138 *2.1 Sites and lichen species*

139 Biocide applications on lichens were performed, *in situ*, at three heritage sites distributed in  
140 different (phyto-)climatic areas of Italy: (A) the Roman Archaeological site of Industria [Monteu da  
141 Po, Torino; UTM ED50, N 5001078, E 422890; 170 m], in the dry sub-Mediterranean area; (B) the  
142 Roman Archaeological site of Luni [Ortonovo, La Spezia; UTM ED50, N 4879338, E 581882; 3

143 m], in the humid Mediterranean area; (C) the Boboli Gardens [Firenze; UTM ED50, N 4847851, E  
144 680788; 49 m], in the humid sub-Mediterranean area (Fig. S1). Treatments were performed on  
145 mature thalli of the epilithic crustose placodiomorph *Protoparmeliopsis muralis* (Schreb.) M.  
146 Choisy and the epilithic crustose areolate *Verrucaria nigrescens* Pers. (Fig. S1), which were  
147 identified following Smith (2009). These two subcosmopolitan species are extremely common both  
148 in urban and natural habitats (Nimis and Martellos 2008), and on stone cultural heritage (Nimis et  
149 al. 1992). In particular, 60 thalli per species for each site were selected and treated: (A) on local  
150 sandstone masonry blocks at Industria, (B) on sandstone (Macigno sandstone from Lunigiana)  
151 blocks, and the adjacent mortar, at the amphitheatre of Luni, and (C) on the sandstone (Pietra  
152 Serena) pavement slabs of the monumental Fontana dell'Isola in the Boboli Gardens, at approx. 50  
153 cm from the fountain water.

## 154 2.2 Biocide application

155 Biocides were applied by a professional restorer (site A) or under his supervision (sites B and C).  
156 Each biocide was prepared following the manufacturer's instructions (Table 1, including biocide  
157 abbreviations) and applied, (i) using a paint-brush and (ii) with a cellulose poultice, using similar  
158 quantities of biocide and after having moistened the thalli with sprayed water (Fig. S1). The applied  
159 cellulose poultice was kept covered with a cotton fabric for four hours and then gently removed  
160 with a small spatula. After the four hours, all brush- and poultice-treated thalli were gently washed  
161 with water. The solvents recommended for biocide dilution (water, acetone, White Spirit) were also  
162 separately tested. Bottled water with low salt contents was used for all experiments, to avoid any  
163 salt-induced reduction in biocide efficiency (Caneva et al. 1996). Three thallus replicates per  
164 species per biocide per application method were examined.  
165 Daily meteorological data (air temperature, relative humidity, rainfall) for the week preceding and  
166 the three weeks following the biocide application at the three sites (A, October 2015; B, April 2016;  
167 C, May 2016) were obtained from nearby monitoring stations: A, Verolengo station (ARPA  
168 Piemonte 2016), B, Luni station (ARPA Liguria 2016), C, Firenze-Lamma station (ARPA Toscana  
169 2016).

## 170 2.3 Lichen vitality measurements

171 Chlorophyll *a* fluorescence measurements ( $Chl_aF$ ) were carried out *in situ* one day before ( $T_0$ ), and  
172 one ( $T_1$ ) and 20 ( $T_{20}$ ) days after the biocide treatments, using a Handy-PEA fluorimeter (Plant  
173 Efficiency Analyser, Hansatech instruments Ltd., Norfolk, England). Analyses were performed  
174 early in the morning on dark-adapted moistened thalli, previously sprayed with bottled water and  
175 covered overnight with a black cotton fabric. Fifteen minutes before each measurement, thalli were  
176 again sprayed and covered. Five measurements were taken on each thallus, positioning the sensor  
177 head, equipped with three light emitting diodes (LED), at  $90^\circ$  over its surface and avoiding, in the  
178 case of *P. muralis*, areas covered by apothecia.  $Chl_a$  fluorescence was induced by a red light (peak  
179 at 650 nm) and data recorded after a saturating light pulse of 1 s (Malaspina et al. 2014).  $Chl_aF$   
180 increases from  $F_0$ , when all the reaction centres (RCs) of Photosystem II (PSII) are open, to  $F_M$ ,  
181 when all the RCs of PSII are closed. The maximum quantum efficiency of PSII, that is  $F_V/F_M$   
182 (where  $F_V = F_M - F_0$ ), a temperature-independent parameter of  $Chl_aF$  emission, was used to check the  
183 vitality of the thalli (Tretiach et al. 2012).

184 The analysis of  $F_V/F_M$  was combined with a wider evaluation of the OJIP transient, the polyphasic  
185 transient exhibited by  $Chl_aF$  when plotted on a logarithmic time scale, and of  $F_0$  values. The shape  
186 of the OJIP curves is informative on the structure and function of the photosynthetic apparatus  
187 (mostly related to PSII) (Malaspina et al. 2014), while  $F_0$  is related to the chlorophyll contents of  
188 the light harvesting complex (Baruffo and Tretiach 2007). In site B, additional parameters of the  
189 OJIP analysis, including the number of reaction centres (RC), the energy flux trapped by the  
190 reaction centres (TR) and the energy flux dissipated as heat (DI), were also considered as indirectly  
191 informative on the structure and function of the photosynthetic apparatus upon exposure to stress  
192 factors (Malaspina et al. 2014, 2015). All these data were referred to excited cross sections (CS) of  
193 the examined lichen, determined by the area of the thallus subjected to the light impulse emitted by  
194 PEA (Malaspina et al. 2014).

195 At site A,  $Chl_aF$  measurements were also performed 180 days after the biocide treatments (T180)  
196 and combined with epifluorescence observations of hand-made cross-sectioned thalli, carried out  
197 under a Nikon Eclipse 300 microscope. Quality and quantity of the fluorescence emitted by  
198 photobiont cells, spatially informative on the vitality of the photobiont layer (e.g. Pinna et al. 2012),  
199 were evaluated, and the data interpreted using an ordinal scale on the relative abundance of viable  
200 (red coloured) and devitalized (appearing white) cells.

201 At site C, the analysis of  $Chl_aF$  in the photobiont of *P. muralis* was combined with analysis of  
202 ergosterol content in the mycobiont. Ergosterol is indeed the main sterol of the mycobiont plasma  
203 membranes and its content is correlated with basal respiration rates and cell membrane integrity  
204 (Sundberg et al. 1999). Analyses were performed as previously described by Vannini et al. (2016).  
205 In brief, thallus fragments (100 mg) were homogenized for 10 min in 99% ethanol, and the extracts  
206 were shaken in the dark at 25 °C for 30 min, then vortexed and centrifuged at 10,000 g for 20 min.  
207 The resulting supernatant was immediately analyzed by HPLC (Hitachi 665A-12 with LC  
208 Controller L-5000) using a Phenomenex C18 column (150 x 4.6 mm<sup>2</sup>; particle size 5 µm) at a flow  
209 rate 0.8 mL/min and isocratic elution with methanol as mobile phase. Total analysis time was 15  
210 min. Absorbance at 280 nm was measured with a UV detector (Jasco 875/UV). A standard curve  
211 was prepared ranging 1–200 mg ergosterol from Sigma-Aldrich (USA) dissolved in 1 mL of  
212 ethanol. Two replicates were measured for each sample.

#### 213 2.4 Statistics

214 Generalized Linear Models (GLMs) were applied for each lichen species to describe the effects of  
215 the treatments on photobiont vitality ( $F_V/F_M$ ). For each model we set biocide (water vs. different  
216 biocides), time (T0 vs. T1, T20), application method (brush vs. poultice), and site (site C vs. sites A,  
217 B) as fixed factors. Second level interactions between biocide, time, application method and site  
218 were also considered. GLM analyses were carried out with R (R Development Core Team 2010),  
219 using glmer function of lme4 package (Bates et al. 2014). A factorial ANOVA analysis was  
220 performed to detect significant differences in  $F_V/F_M$  according to the different predictors (biocide,  
221 time, application method, site). Calculations were performed using the software package Statistica  
222 Version 8.0 (StatSoft, Tulsa, OK).

223 For each study case, significant differences in  $F_V/F_M$  related to time and respect to a threshold  
224 (arbitrarily fixed at  $F_V/F_M = 0.15$ , as discussed in section 4.2) were analyzed by means of ANOVA



225 with post-hoc Tukey's and t-test, respectively, using SYSTAT 10.2 ( $P < 0.05$  as significant). For  
226 each study case, decreases of  $F_0$  at T1 and T20, with respect to T0, significantly higher than 80%,  
227 were assessed by means of ANOVA with post-hoc t-test ( $P < 0.05$  as significant). Data on the other  
228 parameters of the OJIP analysis and ergosterol contents were analyzed by means of ANOVA with  
229 Tukey's post-hoc test.

230

### 231 3. Results

232 GLM tests (Table 2) indicated, for each species, rather uniform  $F_V/F_M$  values before the biocide  
233 treatments. Slightly higher values characterized *P. muralis* at site A, and lower values occasionally  
234 characterized individuals of *V. nigrescens* (in particular, the individuals used to assay BR and WS at  
235 site C): however, these values were still within the expected range of variability in viable thalli of  
236 this species (Speranza et al. 2012). When treated with water (control), both species did not show  
237 variations of  $F_V/F_M$  according to time (T0 vs. T1 and T20). Significant differences upon application  
238 of all biocides and organic solvents were evident at T1 and T20 (DN, PV, BT, BR, LI, WS, AC  $\times$   
239 T1, T20). UA did not affect  $F_V/F_M$ , while GL only affected *P. muralis* at T20. Biocide application  
240 with cellulose poultice was more effective than brushing in reducing  $F_V/F_M$ .

241 For each species, the range of variability observed in the predictor estimates calculated for the  
242 biocide and solvent treatments (at T20: from -0.51 to -0.24 in *P. muralis*, and from -0.38 to -0.15 in  
243 *V. nigrescens*) indicated some further differences in their effectiveness. Figures 1 and 2 show  $F_V/F_M$   
244 values for the two species at T1 and T20, and percentage decrease in  $F_0$  values with respect to T0,  
245 respectively. Only in a few cases did the significant decrease of  $F_V/F_M$  with respect to controls  
246 correspond to the complete zeroing of the parameter (i.e. 0.00). However, for both species, all  
247 biocides (DN, PV, BT, BR, LI) and the two organic solvents (WS, AC) were able to induce, at least  
248 in some study cases (application method  $\times$  site), a decrease in  $F_V/F_M$  below the threshold fixed at  
249 0.15, putatively indicative of the loss of vitality of the photobionts (as discussed in section 4.2).

250 In *P. muralis*, the decrease of  $F_V/F_M$  at T1, including some values below 0.15, was associated with a  
251 moderate decrease in  $F_0$ ; while at T20, most  $F_V/F_M$  values below 0.15 were associated with a strong  
252 decrease in  $F_0$  (>80% in 82% of cases). In other cases, similarly strong  $F_0$  decreases at T20 were  
253 associated with slight signals of  $F_V/F_M$  recovery from T1 to T20 (at site C), and, occasionally, with  
254 minor lowering of  $F_V/F_M$ .

255 In *V. nigrescens*, the relationship between  $F_V/F_M$  values below 0.15 and the strong decrease in  $F_0$   
256 (>80%) was restricted to a more limited set of cases (mostly the poultice treatments at site A). In  
257 some others, as described for *P. muralis*, strong decreases in  $F_0$  were related to a moderate lowering  
258 of  $F_V/F_M$  or, at site C, to slight signals of recovery. Differently, at site B, values of  $F_V/F_M$  below  
259 0.15 were associated with relatively poor decreases in  $F_0$  (30-60%).

260 OJIP transients (Fig. 3) clarified that in all cases the strong decreases of  $F_V/F_M$  (<0.15) and/or  $F_0$   
261 (>80%) reflected a substantial loss of vitality of the photobiont. At site C, those slight increases of  
262  $F_V/F_M$  from T1 to T20, simulating a partial recovery of both the species (e.g. for BR and LI),  
263 depended on ground noise of  $Chl_aF$  around zero (Fig. 3C, D). The low percentage decrease of  $F_0$  in  
264 *V. nigrescens* at site B was associated with lower initial (T0) values than in other sites (Fig. 3B).

265 In *P. muralis* thalli which displayed strong decreases of  $F_V/F_M$  ( $<0.15$ ) and/or  $F_0$  ( $>80\%$ )  
266 parameters, the number of reaction centres ( $RC_0/CS$ ) and the trapped excitons ( $TR_0/CS$ ) dropped  
267 already at T1 and did not recover at T20 (Table S3). The heat dispersion ( $DI_0/CS$ ) increased at T1,  
268 and then remarkably dropped at T20. Other thalli displayed a gradual and less pronounced decrease  
269 of  $RC_0/CS$  and  $TR_0/CS$ ; they also displayed a relative  $DI_0/CS$  increase, which, however, was not  
270 followed by dropping at T20.

271 Thalli of *V. nigrescens* strongly affected in  $F_V/F_M$  and  $F_0$  also showed a fast drop of  $RC_0/CS$  and  
272  $TR_0/CS$  (with the exception of DN samples, for which the parameters dropped at T20) and the  
273 increase of  $DI_0/CS$  at T1, which however mostly recovered initial low values at T20 (Table S4). In  
274 thalli displaying no or minor variations in  $F_V/F_M$  and  $F_0$ , parameters  $RC_0/CS$ ,  $TR_0/CS$  and  $DI_0/CS$   
275 were not significantly affected.

276 Epifluorescence observations run on thalli from site A at T180 also displayed some differences  
277 between the two species in the photobiont response to biocides (Table S5). Thalli of *P. muralis*  
278 which showed a decrease of  $F_V/F_M$  values below 0.15 did not exhibit any living photobiont cell. By  
279 contrast, in *V. nigrescens*, even the thalli with  $F_V/F_M$  below 0.15, and a decrease of  $F_0$  by 98-99%,  
280 still showed some residual viable cells in the lower part of the photobiont layer. In parallel, for both  
281 the species, analyses carried out at T180 showed that results evaluated at T20 were mostly reliable  
282 indicators of the long-term response of the thalli to the biocide treatments: only in one out of the 40  
283 treatments (AC applied to *P. muralis* by brush),  $F_V/F_M$  values at T20 and T180 displayed a different  
284 position with respect to the threshold fixed at 0.15.

285 To evaluate the consistency of treatment effects across the different sites, the strong decreases of  
286  $F_V/F_M$  ( $<0.15$ ) and/or  $F_0$  ( $>80\%$ ) were considered indicative of the loss of photobiont vitality (while  
287 residual vitality microscopically observed in *V. nigrescens* was disregarded). At least for some  
288 “biocide  $\times$  application method” cases, results obtained at the three sites showed differences (Table  
289 3), possibly due to contrasting environmental conditions. A potential influence of meteorological  
290 conditions preceding, during and following the biocide application (Table S6 in Supplementary  
291 Materials) was considered. Biocide application in site C was performed during a rainy day, and  
292 surfaces were provisionally protected with a plastic canopy and a tarpaulin. Precipitation rates in the  
293 weeks preceding and following the biocide application were rather comparable for the three sites,  
294 while air temperature (T) and humidity (RH) showed relatively slight, but significant (ANOVA,  
295  $P<0.05$ ) differences, with T in site  $A \leq B \leq C$  and RH in  $A \geq B \geq C$ .

296 Finally, ergosterol content (Fig. 4), although limited to *P. muralis* at site C, reflected the damage  
297 endured by the lichen mycobiont, and suggested further patterns of variability in the potential  
298 effectiveness of the different biocidal approaches (biocide  $\times$  application method). Significant  
299 decreases with respect to the water controls were detected for biocides PV, BR and LI and the  
300 organic solvent WS, their effect also depending on the application method. Moreover, a decrease in  
301 ergosterol content was observed for thalli treated with UA when applied with cellulose poultice.

302

#### 303 4. Discussion

304 Review of the literature suggested that the same active principle may have different levels of  
305 biocidal performance in relation to different intrinsic (concentrations, solvents, solution pH,  
306 duration of the application) and extrinsic (nature and conservation of the substrate, colonization  
307 extent, microclimate) parameters (Caneva et al. 1996, 2008). In the case of lichens, early empirical  
308 evaluations (see Caneva et al. 1996) have been poorly supported with quantitative comparative  
309 evaluations of intra- and interspecific variability through different case studies.

310 In this work, we showed the sensitivity of *P. muralis* and *V. nigrescens* to treatments with five  
311 widely used biocides, replicated on sandstone surfaces at three heritage sites. Analyses of Chl<sub>a</sub>F,  
312 quantified as vitality of the photobiont (Tretiach et al. 2010, 2012), demonstrated a significant  
313 efficacy of all products, including biocides and their organic solvents, against both species.  
314 However, the investigation also displayed for each treatment different levels of efficacy against the  
315 two species and/or across the different sites, exposed to slightly different meteorological conditions  
316 in days following the biocide applications, and specific patterns of residual vitality.

#### 317 4.1 Performance and timing of biocidal applications

318 The tested products are known to exert different biocidal mechanisms: quaternary ammonium  
319 compounds, including benzalkonium chloride (DN, PV), interfere with biological membranes by  
320 changing their structure and permeability; isothiazolinones (BT, BR, LI) oxidate thiol-containing  
321 cytoplasmic and membrane-bound compounds, yielding metabolic inhibition (Denyer and Stewart  
322 1998). Biocides rapidly (T1) reduced the functionality of the photosynthetic process in both tested  
323 species, while limited effects (T20) were observed for GL on *P. muralis*, and almost no effect for  
324 UA. In laboratory experiments, the same commercial glyphosate solution, at the same concentration  
325 (3 times higher than the highest suggested dose), determined a zeroing of  $F_v/F_M$  in *Xanthoria*  
326 *parietina* (Vannini et al. 2016), suggesting that different lichen species can differently tolerate this  
327 herbicide, which targets a key enzyme (5-enolpyruvyl-shikimate-3-phosphatesynthase, EPSPS)  
328 involved in the production of the aromatic aminoacids (phenylalanine, tyrosine and tryptophan), or  
329 that, alternatively, laboratory conditions may not properly mimic glyphosate applications on stone  
330 materials *in situ*. UA, which was effective to control the growth of other biodeteriogens, such as  
331 cyanobacteria and microcolonial fungi (Gazzano et al. 2013), did not affect the *Trebouxia*  
332 photobionts of *P. muralis*, a lichen which produces UA (Smith et al. 2009). No effects of UA were  
333 also observed on the photobiont partners of *V. nigrescens*, (e.g. *Diploshphaera* sp.; Thus et al.  
334 2011), which does not secrete lichen secondary metabolites. On the other hand, effects of UA on the  
335 mycobiont of *P. muralis* suggest a potential role of the secondary metabolite in autoallelopathic  
336 processes, poorly explored for lichens and certainly far from being exploitable to control lichens on  
337 stone cultural heritage.

338 Remarkably, we observed a significant effect of pure organic solvents (AC, WS) in the inhibition of  
339 photosynthetic processes of both the species. A different AC tolerance of different lichen species  
340 was already known (Solhaug and Gauslaa 2001): in laboratory experiments, the time of immersion  
341 in AC required to zero  $F_v/F_M$  in different lichen species ranged from few hours, compatible to our  
342 field treatments, to hundreds of hours (Solhaug and Gauslaa 2001). A higher level of tolerance was  
343 attributed to *Trebouxia*-bearing species displaying a high drought resistance, as AC may exert a  
344 negative effect by extracting residual water from the dried thalli (Solhaug and Gauslaa 2001).  
345 However, AC does not easily pass or destroy the membranes when cells are desiccated (Solhaug

346 and Gauslaa 2012), while AC was here applied to wet thalli. Accordingly, *P. muralis* and *V.*  
347 *nigrescens* appeared similarly affected by AC, and comparable effects were also observed upon WS  
348 treatments.

349 Biocides were applied after wetting thalli and during humid seasons (Autumn in site A, Spring in  
350 sites B and C), when significant rain events, as expected in (sub-)Mediterranean areas, similarly  
351 occurred in all the experimental sites, and high values of RH% were generally recorded (see Table  
352 S6). Although seasonal variations are known for  $F_V/F_M$  in lichens (Baruffo and Tretiach 2007),  
353 measurements at T0 generally indicated an overall healthy state of thalli before the biocide  
354 application. Effective biocidal effects were already recognizable at T1, in terms of  $F_V/F_M$ ,  $RC_0/CS$   
355 and  $TR_0/CS$  decreases, and only for some brush applications of biocides dissolved in water  
356 significant decreases were observed later, from T1 to T20. Increased  $DI_0/CS$  values at T1 also  
357 indicated a fast biocidal activity, as photobionts rapidly attempted to increase controlled de-  
358 excitation processes, as thermal energy dissipation, to avoid oxidative damage related to an affected  
359 electron flow in the photosynthetic apparatus, as reported under other stress condition (Malaspina et  
360 al. 2015).

361 Since early empirical observations, more noticeable effects of biocides have been recognized when  
362 they were applied to wet thalli or when rain events followed their application, while effects have  
363 also been observed after some months when biocides were applied in arid seasons (Nimis and  
364 Salvadori 1997). When poikilohydric organisms, like lichens, are dehydrated, their structures and  
365 macromolecules are protected by glass-like matrices and can tolerate extreme conditions (Tretiach  
366 et al. 2012; Fernandez-Marin et al. 2013), including biocide application (Alstrup 1992).  
367 Accordingly, the slow-rate effect observed in this study for water-dissolved biocides applied by  
368 brush likely depends on the fact that thalli were more rapidly air-dried than those treated with  
369 poultices and remained active for a shorter period after the treatment. Moreover, water retention by  
370 the porous sandstone lithologies may have contributed to absorb and dilute the brush-applied,  
371 water-dissolved biocides (Caneva et al, 1996), limiting a rapid effect.

372 The application method did not only influence the timing, but, in general, also the biocide  
373 performance, with the highest efficacy mostly detected for poultice applications being reasonably  
374 explained by an increased contact time between biocide, hydrated thalli, and sandstone substrates  
375 (Nugari and Salvadori 2008; Pinna et al. 2012). This may increase rapid effects (observed at T1),  
376 but also successive ones, by enhancing biocide retention within substrate, and possibly limiting its  
377 washing out under rainy conditions (Young et al. 1995; Caneva et al. 1996; Cameron et al. 1997). In  
378 our work, this was evident for the applications of biocides dissolved in water, while minor  
379 divergence between the effects of brush and poultice applications was detected for those prepared  
380 with organic solvents. Reduced efficacy and recovery were observed when solvents alone were  
381 applied by brushing, likely because of the rapid evaporation of the products.

382

#### 383 4.2 $Chl_aF$ measures and specific residual vitality

384 The effect of different biocides was associated with different persistence of thallus remnants on the  
385 stone surfaces or penetrating structures within the substrate after the mechanical cleaning (de los  
386 Ríos et al. 2012). However, scarce information exists to evaluate whether lichen recolonization

387 depends on the arrival of new propagules dispersed by external populations (Favero-Longo et al.  
388 2014; Morando et al. in press), or whether mechanical cleaning enhances the spreading of living  
389 remnants of partially killed thalli, as documented during attempts to remove thalli without previous  
390 devitalization (Seaward 2004, 2015). Cases of recolonization of restored surfaces by lichen  
391 communities different from those occurring before the treatments suggest external inputs  
392 (Nascimbene et al. 2009). Nevertheless, in other cases, the persistence of lichen remnants after  
393 cleaning was correlated with short-term re-increases of lichen cover (e.g. 16 months after the  
394 application of isothiazolones combined with benzalkonium chloride or other active principles, in  
395 Cámara et al. 2011).

396 In our investigation, the analysis of  $F_V/F_M$  was combined with OJIP transients and  $F_0$  variations  
397 with the aim of offering a straightforward information on the death of lichen thalli. A threshold of  
398  $F_V/F_M$  values reflecting dead photobionts has not been explicitly stated in literature, although dips  
399 below 0.100-0.200 often reflect dead material (e.g. Solhaug and Gauslaa 2001; Speranza et al.  
400 2012; Tretiach et al. 2012). Accordingly, we accounted for a threshold at  $F_V/F_M=0.150$ , strictly  
401 associated with a dropping of the number of reaction centres ( $RC_0/CS$ ) and trapped energy fluxes  
402 ( $TR_0/CS$ ).

403 An overview on the OJIP shapes at T20, with a focus on the starting base fluorescence of the curve  
404 ( $F_0$ ), combined with the quantification of the  $F_V/F_M$  parameter, helped to check for the residual  
405 vitality of the biocide treated thalli. In particular, a strong % decrease of  $F_0$  values (threshold  
406 tentatively fixed at -80%), associated with the flattening of curve and the dropping of  $RC_0/CS$  and  
407  $TR_0/CS$  parameters, appears an additional marker of death. Slight  $F_V/F_M$  recoveries, as those  
408 observed for both the species in site C, appear irrelevant (as related to measuring noises) when  
409 calculated on flat transients with zeroed  $F_0$  values.  $F_0$  variations are primarily related to chlorophyll  
410 contents of the light harvesting complex (Baruffo and Tretiach 2007), which are fatally or, at least,  
411 severely affected when flat and zeroed curves are calculated.

412 In the light of these discussed  $Chl_aF$  parameters, we can finally consider (at least for the poultice  
413 applications) that all biocides, and the organic solvents, were effective in killing both the species at  
414 least in one of the sites (see Table 4). However, *P. muralis* and *V. nigrescens* were not  
415 strongly/fatally affected in 14% and 24%, respectively, of poultice applications of biocides and  
416 organic solvents, and displayed different sensitivity to the same treatment (i.e. significant decrease  
417 of  $F_V/F_M$  and/or  $F_0$  below the thresholds, or not) in 29% of examined cases (biocide  $\times$  site; see  
418 Table 3). Moreover, epifluorescence observations carried out at T180 suggested some higher  
419 resistance for *V. nigrescens*, as some residual healthy photobiont cells were observed in the lower  
420 part of the photobiont layer, even in thalli for which both  $F_V/F_M$  and  $F_0$  decreased below the fixed  
421 thresholds. Accordingly, *V. nigrescens* already showed more resistance to cleaning treatments than  
422 another compared species [*Lecidella stigmatea* (Ach.) Hertel & Leuckert] after the application of  
423 Biotin R (de los Ríos et al. 2012). Thalli of *P. muralis* are thicker than those of *V. nigrescens*, and  
424 also display a thicker cortex. However, the very tightly packed, short-celled hyphae of the  
425 paraplectenchymatous cortex of *V. nigrescens*, with melanin in the uppermost layers, may  
426 determine a lower permeability with respect to the different cortex type of *P. muralis* (cone-cortex;  
427 see Büdel and Scheidegger 2008), covered by the hydrophobic, but organic solvent-soluble usnic  
428 acid (Smith 2009).

429 Differences across the three sites in the sandstone substrates, possibly related to different physical  
430 and chemical properties as suggested by the extreme variability between and within each sandstone  
431 type (e.g. Franzini et al. 2007; Fratini et al. 2015), may primary account for the efficacy variability  
432 observed for certain treatments. Different porosity, capillary water absorption capacity and mineral  
433 composition of different sandstones can indeed affect the quantity of biocide absorbed by the  
434 substrate **and its effective life span in a bioactive form (Young et al. 1995; Cameron et al. 1997).**  
435 The substrate chemical composition also influences the performance of some biocides, including  
436 the quaternary ammonium salts (Caneva et al. 1996). In parallel, different meteorological conditions  
437 of each site in the days following the biocide applications could also account for some variability  
438 (Nimis and Salvadori 1997). However, cases of poor efficacy were randomly distributed rather than  
439 clearly related to any of the heritage sites. Relevance of the variability in T, RH, and sandstone  
440 properties between sites on the biocidal mechanism of each product may be hypothesized (Caneva  
441 et al. 1996), but should be tested on a wider set of heritage sites, and is beyond the aim of this work.  
442 Influences of other environmental conditions, including microclimate differences (Caneva et al.  
443 2008), but also biocide-specific population resistances, should be also worth of investigation.

444 Accordingly, waiting for further research to address reliable models to predict the suitability of a  
445 biocide against certain species in certain environmental conditions, species- and site-specific  
446 calibration of biocidal strategies is necessary. Such calibration would likely exclude the usage of  
447 products, concentrations or application methods which may not show the desirable killing efficacy,  
448 and would strongly reduce the dispersal of fragments with residual vitality during the mechanical  
449 procedures which follow the chemical treatment. If biocides are applied to wet thalli, their efficacy  
450 can be confirmed within few weeks (T20) by Chl<sub>a</sub>F measurements. Pilot biocide assays appear thus  
451 compatible with the time pressure which often characterizes restoration interventions. On the other  
452 hand, our results highlighted how the different biocides may also differently affect the mycobiont  
453 (as shown by ergosterol content), suggesting the opportunity of conducting controlled experiments  
454 on the potential recovery trends on the medium and long term of both the symbiotic partners and  
455 their joined influence on the recolonization potential of the different lichen species.

456

## 457 **5. Conclusions**

458 On the basis of quantitative Chl<sub>a</sub>F measurements, our work showed that (a) different biocidal  
459 approaches (product × application method) may affect the vitality of lichens at a heritage site,  
460 however with different efficacy against each species. Moreover, our findings indicate that (b) the  
461 efficacy of a biocidal treatment against a lichen species cannot be assumed to be consistent across  
462 different heritage sites. Such complexity suggests that if a biocide approach is planned to manage  
463 lichens on a stone surface, *in situ* pilot assays to calibrate biocidal treatments on the particular study  
464 case (species × site) should be run.

465

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476

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- 625

626 **Tables**

627 Table 1 - Biocides and solvents applied in the experiments

Commercial product	Producer	Active principle	Solvent	Recommended concentration	Used concentration	
Water	W	-	-	-	-	
Glifene SL	GL	Chmiberg-Diachem (Caravaggio, Italy)	Glyphosate [i.e. N-(phosphonomethyl)glycine; 30-40%] in water	Water	0.003 - 0.011%	0.04%
DesNovo	DN	Bresciani S.r.l. (Milano, Italy)	Benzalkonium chloride (i.e. alkyl dimethyl benzyl ammonium chloride; 10%) in water	Water	0.5 - 10%	2.00%
Preventol® R180	PV	Lanxess (Köln, Germany)	Benzalkonium chloride (i.e. alkyl dimethyl benzyl ammonium chloride; approx. 80%) + isopropyl alcohol (2%) in water	Water	1 - 2%	2.00%
BiotinT	BT	C.T.S. S.r.l. (Altavilla Vicentina, Italy)	N-octyl-isothiazolinone (7.0-10.0%) + didecyl-dimethyl ammonium chloride (40.0-60.0%) + formic acid (2.0-2.5%) + isopropyl alcohol (15.0-20.0%)	Water	1 - 3%	2.00%
White Spirit	WS	Sinopia S.A.S. (Torino, Italy)	-	-	-	
BiotinR	BR	C.T.S. S.r.l.	N-octyl-isothiazolinone (3-5%) + 3-iodoprop-2-ynyl N-butylcarbamate (10-25%) in diethylene glycol butyl ether	White Spirit (100%)	3 - 5%	3.00%
Acetone (≥99.9% for HPLC)	AC	Sigma-Aldrich (St. Luis, MO, USA)	-	-	-	
Lichenicida 464	LI	Bresciani S.r.l.	4,5-Dichloro-2-octyl-4-isothiazolin-3-one (25.0-<40.0%) + 3-iodo-2-propynyl N-butylcarbamate (12.5-<15.0%) + 2-Octyl-4-isothiazolin-3-one (0.06-<0.10%) + benzyl alcohol (40.0-<60.0%)	Acetone (100%)	1 - 2%	2.00%
Usnic Acid	UA	Sigma-Aldrich	Usnic acid [i.e. 2,6-Diacetyl-7,9-dihydroxy-8,9b-dimethylbenzofuran-1,3(2H,9bH)-dione; powder]	Acetone (1%)	-	0.0005%

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630

631 Table 2 - Summary of the Generalized Linear Models examining the effects of predictors on  $F_V/F_M$ ,  
632 written as  $F_V/F_M \sim \text{Biocide} \times \text{Application method} \times \text{Site} \times \text{Time}$ . \*,  $P < 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $P < 0.01$ ; \*\*\*,  
633  $P < 0.001$ .

Predictor	<i>P. muralis</i>				<i>V. nigrescens</i>			
	Estimate	Standard error	t value	P value	Estimate	Standard error	t value	P value
(Intercept)	5.02E-01	2.58E-02	19.443	<2E-16 ***	5.91E-01	2.57E-02	22.987	<2E-16 ***
Biocide-AC	5.11E-02	3.53E-02	1.449	0.1481	-4.15E-02	3.54E-02	-1.171	0.24228
Biocide-BR	5.69E-02	3.53E-02	1.612	0.1076	<b>-6.97E-02</b>	<b>3.54E-02</b>	<b>-1.968</b>	<b>0.04958 *</b>
Biocide-BT	2.87E-02	3.53E-02	0.814	0.4159	-3.59E-02	3.54E-02	-1.012	0.31187
Biocide-DN	3.68E-02	3.48E-02	1.056	0.2914	-3.61E-02	3.54E-02	-1.018	0.30907
Biocide-GL	4.87E-02	3.53E-02	1.381	0.168	-4.53E-02	3.54E-02	-1.28	0.20108
Biocide-LI	5.01E-02	3.53E-02	1.419	0.1566	-5.82E-02	3.54E-02	-1.644	0.1007
Biocide-PV	-5.92E-05	3.53E-02	-0.002	0.9987	-4.72E-02	3.54E-02	-1.332	0.18346
Biocide-UA	3.57E-02	3.53E-02	1.011	0.3125	-3.65E-02	3.54E-02	-1.031	0.30322
Biocide-WS	3.65E-02	3.53E-02	1.033	0.3019	<b>-9.94E-02</b>	<b>3.54E-02</b>	<b>-2.806</b>	<b>0.00521 **</b>
Time T1	6.66E-02	3.48E-02	1.915	0.056	9.99E-03	3.45E-02	0.29	0.77214
Time T20	1.81E-02	3.48E-02	0.52	0.6035	-4.36E-02	3.54E-02	-1.23	0.21914
Application-Poultice	<b>-5.95E-02</b>	<b>9.18E-03</b>	<b>-6.487</b>	<b>2.07E-10 ***</b>	<b>-7.32E-02</b>	<b>9.35E-03</b>	<b>-7.834</b>	<b>2.76E-14 ***</b>
Site A (Industria)	<b>8.65E-02</b>	<b>1.12E-02</b>	<b>7.724</b>	<b>5.92E-14 ***</b>	7.57E-03	1.14E-02	0.662	0.50804
Site B (Luni)	-7.84E-03	1.13E-02	-0.694	0.4883	-1.77E-02	1.15E-02	-1.543	0.12355
Biocide AC : Time T1	<b>-4.61E-01</b>	<b>4.99E-02</b>	<b>-9.238</b>	<b>&lt;2E-16 ***</b>	<b>-4.41E-01</b>	<b>5.01E-02</b>	<b>-8.815</b>	<b>&lt;2E-16 ***</b>
Biocide BR : Time T1	<b>-5.99E-01</b>	<b>4.99E-02</b>	<b>-12.001</b>	<b>&lt;2E-16 ***</b>	<b>-4.19E-01</b>	<b>5.01E-02</b>	<b>-8.366</b>	<b>5.70E-16 ***</b>
Biocide BT : Time T1	<b>-2.76E-01</b>	<b>4.99E-02</b>	<b>-5.533</b>	<b>5.02E-08 ***</b>	<b>-2.76E-01</b>	<b>5.01E-02</b>	<b>-5.516</b>	<b>5.51E-08 ***</b>
Biocide DN : Time T1	<b>-1.97E-01</b>	<b>4.92E-02</b>	<b>-4.004</b>	<b>7.16E-05 ***</b>	<b>-1.36E-01</b>	<b>5.01E-02</b>	<b>-2.724</b>	<b>0.00666 **</b>
Biocide GL : Time T1	-9.75E-03	4.99E-02	-0.195	0.8451	-2.34E-02	5.01E-02	-0.467	0.64043
Biocide LI : Time T1	<b>-5.92E-01</b>	<b>4.99E-02</b>	<b>-11.863</b>	<b>&lt;2E-16 ***</b>	<b>-4.29E-01</b>	<b>5.01E-02</b>	<b>-8.557</b>	<b>&lt;2E-16 ***</b>
Biocide PV : Time T1	<b>-3.35E-01</b>	<b>4.99E-02</b>	<b>-6.715</b>	<b>4.98E-11 ***</b>	<b>-3.05E-01</b>	<b>5.01E-02</b>	<b>-6.091</b>	<b>2.21E-09 ***</b>
Biocide UA : Time T1	2.04E-02	4.99E-02	0.408	0.6831	1.28E-02	5.01E-02	0.256	0.79834
Biocide WS : Time T1	<b>-5.08E-01</b>	<b>4.99E-02</b>	<b>-10.186</b>	<b>&lt;2E-16 ***</b>	<b>-2.70E-01</b>	<b>5.01E-02</b>	<b>-5.4</b>	<b>1.03E-07 ***</b>
Biocide AC : Time T20	<b>-3.32E-01</b>	<b>4.99E-02</b>	<b>-6.66</b>	<b>7.07E-11 ***</b>	<b>-3.60E-01</b>	<b>5.07E-02</b>	<b>-7.093</b>	<b>4.39E-12 ***</b>
Biocide BR : Time T20	<b>-5.08E-01</b>	<b>4.99E-02</b>	<b>-10.195</b>	<b>&lt;2E-16 ***</b>	<b>-2.79E-01</b>	<b>5.07E-02</b>	<b>-5.496</b>	<b>6.14E-08 ***</b>
Biocide BT : Time T20	<b>-2.36E-01</b>	<b>4.99E-02</b>	<b>-4.741</b>	<b>2.76E-06 ***</b>	<b>-2.61E-01</b>	<b>5.07E-02</b>	<b>-5.141</b>	<b>3.89E-07 ***</b>
Biocide DN : Time T20	<b>-2.56E-01</b>	<b>4.89E-02</b>	<b>-5.238</b>	<b>2.38E-07 ***</b>	<b>-2.61E-01</b>	<b>5.07E-02</b>	<b>-5.137</b>	<b>3.98E-07 ***</b>
Biocide GL : Time T20	<b>-1.12E-01</b>	<b>4.99E-02</b>	<b>-2.239</b>	<b>0.0256 *</b>	2.28E-02	5.07E-02	0.449	0.65339
Biocide LI : Time T20	<b>-4.93E-01</b>	<b>4.99E-02</b>	<b>-9.893</b>	<b>&lt;2E-16 ***</b>	<b>-3.79E-01</b>	<b>5.07E-02</b>	<b>-7.466</b>	<b>3.59E-13 ***</b>
Biocide PV : Time T20	<b>-3.37E-01</b>	<b>4.99E-02</b>	<b>-6.748</b>	<b>4.06E-11 ***</b>	<b>-3.14E-01</b>	<b>5.07E-02</b>	<b>-6.181</b>	<b>1.30E-09 ***</b>
Biocide UA : Time T20	-3.59E-02	4.99E-02	-0.719	0.4724	4.52E-03	5.07E-02	0.089	0.929
Biocide WS : Time T20	<b>-2.77E-01</b>	<b>4.99E-02</b>	<b>-5.557</b>	<b>4.41E-08 ***</b>	<b>-1.54E-01</b>	<b>5.07E-02</b>	<b>-3.043</b>	<b>0.00246 **</b>

634

635

636 Table 3 - Synoptic comparison of biocide efficacy at T20 against the photobionts of *P. muralis* and  
 637 *V.nigrescens* at the three sites. For each species, biocide treatments which determined devitalization  
 638 (†, \*, or †\*) in all the heritage sites are marked in bold. Biocide abbreviations are reported in Table  
 639 1.

	Brush			Poultice		
	Site A (Industria)	Site B (Luni)	Site C (Boboli)	Site A (Industria)	Site B (Luni)	Site C (Boboli)
<b><i>P. muralis</i></b>						
W	=	=	=	=	=	=
GL	=	-	-	=	=	-
DN	=	-	=	*	†	-
PV	*	-	-	*	†	†*
BT	=	-	=	*	†*	*
WS	-	-	=	-	†*	*
BR	†*	†*	*	†*	†*	†*
AC	*	=	-	=	†*	*
LI	†*	†*	*	†*	†*	*
UA	=	-	=	-	-	-
<b><i>V. nigrescens</i></b>						
W	=	=	=	=	-	=
GL	=	=	-	=	=	-
DN	-	†	-	†*	-	-
PV	†	=	=	†*	†	*
BT	*	=	=	†*	†	-
WS	=	=	=	†*	†	*
BR	-	=	*	=	†	†*
AC	†*	†	=	†*	†	-
LI	†*	†	*	†	†	*
UA	=	=	-	=	=	=

640

641 =,  $F_V/F_M$  did not significantly decrease with respect to T0, and  $F_0$  decreased with respect to T0 < 80%

642 -,  $F_V/F_M$  significantly decreased with respect to T0, but it was not significantly lower than the threshold fixed at 0.15,  
 643 and  $F_0$  decreased < 80%

644 †,  $F_V/F_M$  significantly decreased with respect to T0 and it was significantly lower than 0.15, but  $F_0$  decrease < 80%

645 \*,  $F_0$  decreased > 80%, but  $F_V/F_M$  was not significantly lower than 0.15

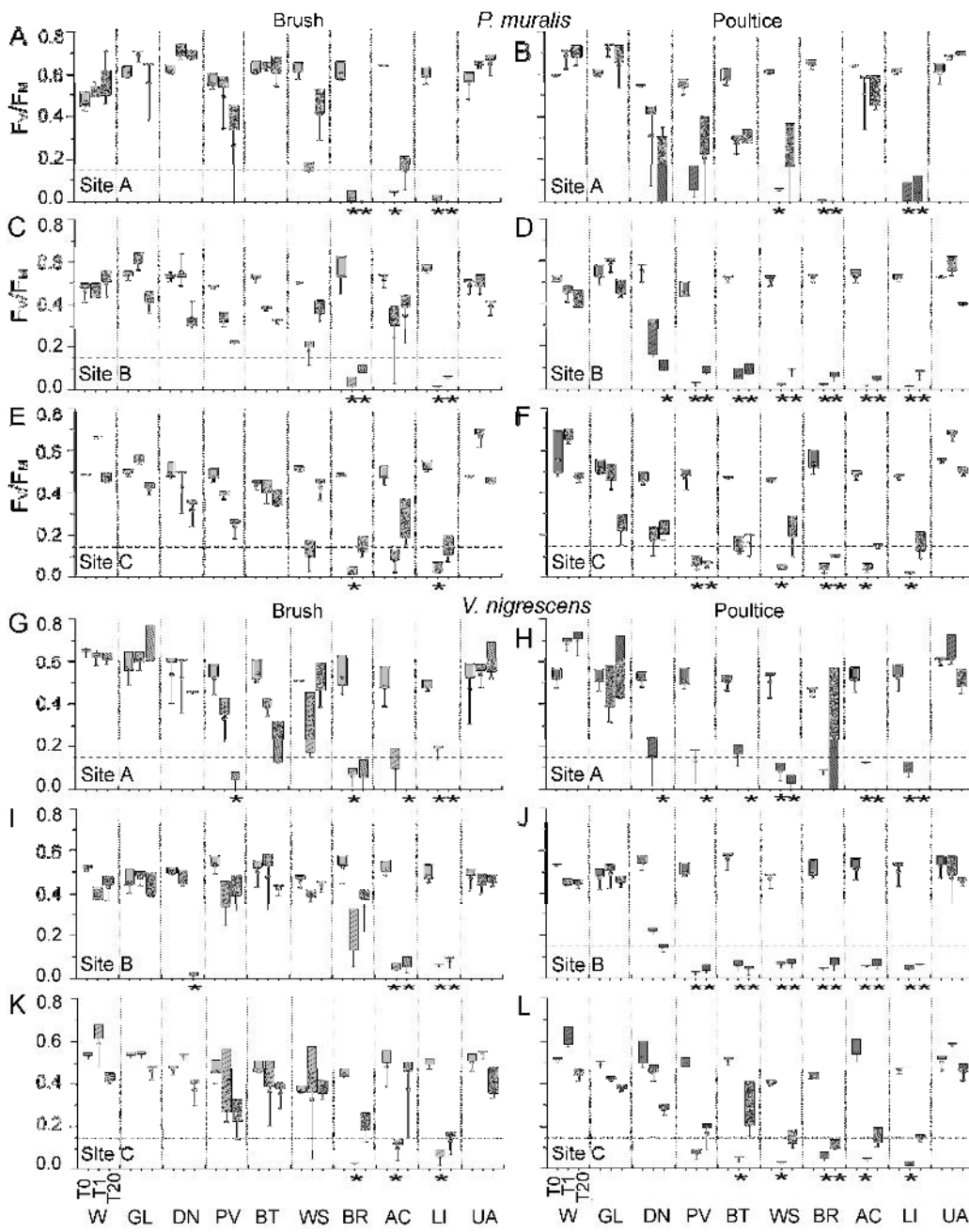
646 †\*,  $F_V/F_M$  was significantly lower than 0.15, and  $F_0$  decreased > 80%

647

648 **Figure captions**

649 Fig. 1 - Maximum quantum efficiency of Photosystem II photochemistry ( $F_v/F_M$ ) in thalli of  
650 *Protopermaliopsis muralis* (A-F) and *Verrucaria nigrescens* (G-L) measured *in situ* (Site A,  
651 Industria; site B, Luni; site C, Boboli) before (T0), and 1 (T1) and 20 (T20) days after the biocide  
652 application with brush or using a cellulose poultice. Biocide abbreviations are reported in Table 1.  
653 For each case study (biocide  $\times$  application method  $\times$  site),  $F_v/F_M$  values (mean  $\pm$ SD) which are  
654 significantly lower than a threshold fixed at 0.15 (horizontal dashed line) are marked (\*; ANOVA,  
655 t-test;  $P < 0.05$ ). Overview tables of measures on *P. muralis* and *V. nigrescens*, including a statistical  
656 comparison for each study case of  $F_v/F_M$  values at T0, T1 and T20, are reported in Supplementary  
657 Materials S1 and S2, respectively.

658

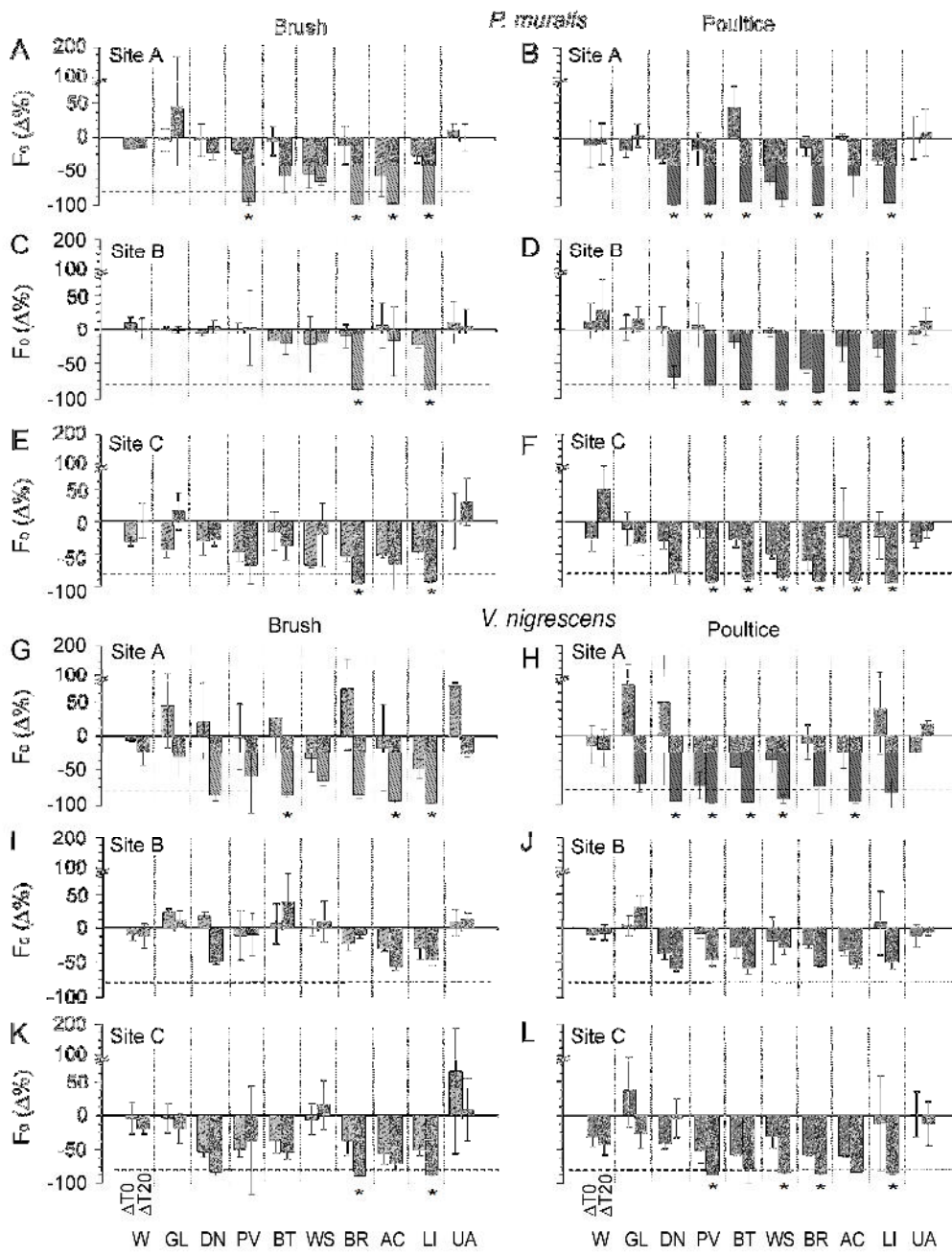


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660



661 Fig. 2 - Variation of  $F_0$  values ( $\Delta\%$  at T1 and T20 with respect to T0, i.e. 1 and 20 days after the  
662 biocide application with brush or using a cellulose poultice) in thalli of *P. muralis* (A-F) and *V.*  
663 *nigrescens* (G-L) examined in site A, Industria, site B, Luni, and site C, Boboli. Biocide  
664 abbreviations are reported in Table 1. For each case study (biocide  $\times$  application method  $\times$  site),  
665 variations of  $F_0$  (mean  $\pm$ SD) which are significantly lower than -80% (horizontal dashed line) are  
666 marked (\*; ANOVA, t-test;  $P < 0.05$ ).

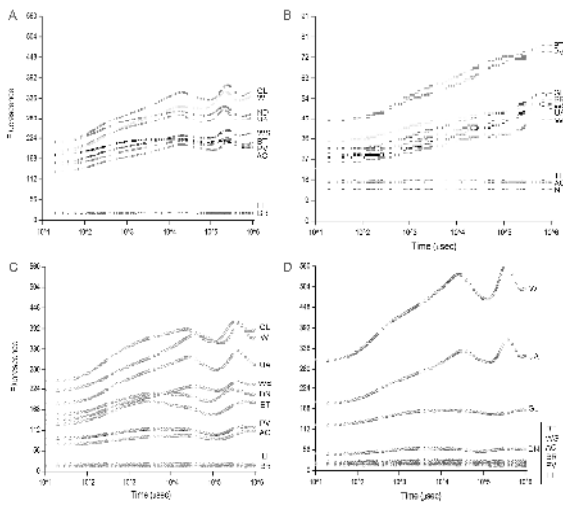


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668

669 Fig. 3 - OJIP fluorescence transients at T20 (exemplifying set) of *P. muralis* (A) and *V. nigrescens*  
670 (B) in site B (Luni) after the biocide application with brush, and of *P. muralis* in site C (Boboli)  
671 after the biocide application with brush (C) or using a cellulose poultice (D). Each transient is the  
672 average of the data obtained for the different replicates (5 measures for 3 thalli) of each case study.  
673 Biocide abbreviations are reported in Table 1.

674



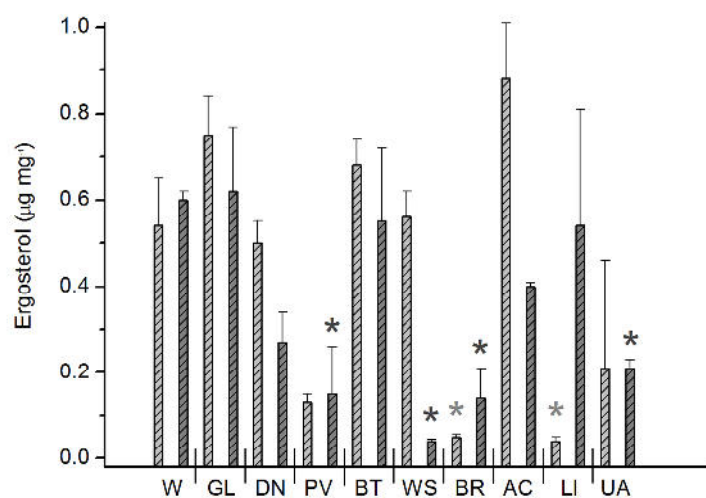
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677

678 Fig. 4 – Ergosterol content in thalli of *P. muralis* in site C (Boboli) 20 days after the biocide  
679 application (T20) by brush (light grey columns) or with cellulose poultice (dark grey columns).  
680 Data are expressed as mean value  $\pm$  SD. For each application method, significant decreases in  
681 ergosterol following the biocide treatments, with respect to contents in thalli sprayed with water  
682 only, are indicated (\*, ANOVA, Tukey's test;  $P < 0.05$ ). Biocide abbreviations are reported in Table  
683 1.

684



685