

# Temporal evolution of surface and sub-surface geochemistry and microbial communities of Pb-rich mine tailings during phytostabilization: A one-year pilot-scale study

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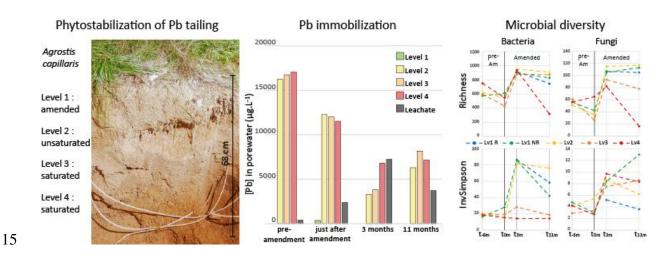
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- 1 Temporal evolution of surface and sub-surface
- 2 geochemistry and microbial communities of Pb-
- 3 rich mine tailings during phytostabilization: a one-
- 4 year pilot-scale study
- 5
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## 14 **Graphical abstract**



#### Abstract

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Old mine waste repositories can present health and/or environmental issues linked to their erosion, inducing dissemination of metals and metalloids in air and water that can be attenuated through phytostabilization. Here, the effect of this widespread phytomanagement option on the biogeochemistry of a Pb-rich mine waste was evaluated with a laboratory pilot-scale experiment giving access to the non-saturated and saturated zones below the rhizosphere compartment. Amendment of the tailings surface with biochar, manure and iron-oxide-rich ochre promoted growth of the seeded Agrostis capillaris plants. These events were accompanied by an increase of pH and a decrease of Pb concentration in pore water of the surface layer, and by a transient increase of Pb, Zn, and Ba concentrations in the deeper saturated levels. Macroscopic and microscopic observations (SEM) suggest that Pb was immobilized in A. capillaris rhizosphere through mechanical entrapment of tailing particles. Microbial taxonomic and metabolic diversities increased in the amended phytostabilized surface levels, with an increase of the proportion of heterotrophic micro-organisms. Below the surface, a transient modification of microbial communities was observed in the non-saturated and saturated levels, however 11 months after seeding, the prokaryotic community of the deepest saturated zone was close to that of the initial tailings. pH and water saturation seemed to be the main parameters driving prokaryotic communities' structures. Results obtained at pilot-scale will help to precisely evaluate the impacts of phytostabilization on the temporal evolution of reactions driving the fate of pollutants inside the tailings dumps.

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**Key words:** mine tailings, metals, assisted phytostabilization, laboratory pilot, microbial diversity.

## 1 Introduction

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Unrestored mine tailing sites are a worldwide problem since they generally remain bare for decades or even centuries. For abandoned mine tailing heaps, the establishment of a spontaneous vegetation cover is usually considered beneficial as it represents a sort of phytostabilization (Houben et al., 2013). Indeed, revegetation of these degraded sites appears as a suitable long-term solution: the plant cover limits eolian dispersion, while the roots prevent water erosion and leaching, and provide a rhizosphere wherein metals can precipitate and stabilize (Mendez and Maier, 2008). However, for lead (Pb)/zinc (Zn) mine sites, metal toxicity, especially available Pb, nutrient deficiency, and poor physical structure of the substrate are major constraints for plant establishment and colonization (Ye et al., 2002). Therefore, a suitable strategy consists of aided phytostabilization by using pioneer plants (Lago-Vila et al., 2019) coupled with efficient organic and inorganic amendments (Sikdar et al., 2020). In this context, numerous laboratory studies with pot experiments have recently been devoted to test the efficiency of plants and several amendments, alone or in combination, on Pb and Zn retention and plant growth in mine tailings (Ciarkowska et al., 2017; Al-Lami et al., 2019; Norini et al., 2019; Gao et al., 2020). Although different combinations may rapidly be tested, these pot experiments only focused on plant biomass and metal availability in the rhizosphere area, and are far from the field scale. Other small-scale experiments include laboratory percolation tests enabling to measure/assess the transfer of contaminants through mine residues and to evaluate the effect of amendments (Rodriguez et al., 2018; Thouin et al., 2019), whereas influence of water saturation can be studied in columns (Ouangrawa et al., 2010). These systems are well constrained and they give insight on small-scale processes but it is necessary to increase the scale in order to understand interactions between different compartments and reflect field conditions.

In this regard, field experiments have been conducted to optimize the combination of plants and amendments in phytostabilization of metal(loid)s pollutants in mine sites (Yang et al., 2016; Acosta et al., 2018; Li et al., 2019). However, some key parameters could not be precisely controlled and accounted for, such as soil water saturation and incoming water flow. Moreover, some types of samples, such as pore water at different depths are difficult to collect during onsite studies and spatial heterogeneities of mine tailings often represent an obstacle for the interpretation of results obtained on-site (Constantinescu et al., 2019). To overcome these limitations, lysimeters directly installed in the field give access to real conditions of watering, temperature and light, and allow the possibility to sample percolated water (Nicoara et al., 2014; Bilibio et al., 2017; Constantinescu et al., 2019). In such systems, some environmental factors cannot be controlled. Mesocosm scale laboratory pilot experiments, as an intermediary step between pot and field experiments, combine the advantage of controlled conditions of temperature, watering and water saturation with the possibility of simultaneously observing the amended and planted surface levels (Valentin-Vargas et al., 2014) and the underlying non saturated and saturated zones (Thouin et al., 2017; 2018). Among the multiple parameters evaluated during these multi-scale experiments, microbial communities can give indications on the biogeochemical processes. Phytostabilization always induces modifications of the microbial diversity and metabolic profiles in the mining wastes colonized by plants, amended or not (Asemaninejad et al., 2020). The ability of diverse bacterial and fungal species to thrive in mining residues improves soil functions and encourages sustainable plant growth (Harris et al., 2009). Common effects of phytostabilization on microbial diversity were observed in diverse conditions of amendments and plants species, both in greenhouse experiments (Mendez et al., 2007, You et al., 2018) or field conditions (Li et al., 2015; Asemaninejad et al., 2020). They include increases in microbial diversity, biomass and relative increase of heterotrophic/organotrophic genera versus litho-autotrophic organisms.

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These last organisms, mainly sulfur and iron oxidizers, are common hosts of mining wastes and contribute to environmental issues linked to production of sulfuric acid and mobilization of metals, thus a decrease of their abundance and activity in mine waste dumps, during phytostabilization, should be beneficial (Valentín-Vargas et al., 2018).

However, most of the previous studies provided data on the microbial communities of the surface environment, in the rhizosphere, and in the close non saturated zones. Thus, the influence of re-vegetation on the underlying microbial communities and on the main biogeochemical cycles driving the fate of pollutants in the depth of the heaps is not well documented.

A methodology to promote stabilization of metals and plant growth with amendments, in the surface of aged tailings from a former lead (Pb)-silver (Ag) mine tailing, was previously developed through microcosm scale experiments (Thouin et al., 2019). The objectives of the present laboratory pilot experiment were to evaluate in environmental compartments rarely studied, from the surface to the water saturated level, the influence of amendments and plants growth on temporal evolution of (1) pore water physico-chemistry, and (2) microbial diversity along the vertical profile of this tailing.

#### 2 Material and methods

## 2.1 Characteristics of the mine tailings, the amendments and the plants

Tailings from the site of the former Ag and Pb mine at Pontgibaud (Puy de Dôme, France) were used for the pilot-scale experiment. Mine tailings were sampled to a depth of 0–60 cm from a mine waste heap, using a power shovel (SM1a). Residues were taken in 7 discrete zones within a  $25 \text{ m}^2$  area. The material was homogenized and sieved at 2 cm; it presented the following particle size distribution: 7% (by weight) <  $60 \mu m$ , 15% in the  $60-315 \mu m$  range, and 78% > 315

μm. The detailed characteristics of this moderately acidic sandy material are given in Thouin et al. (2019) and Table 1. The pH of the tailings – consisting mainly of quartz, orthoclase and phyllosilicate – was 4.9 (measured in water according to ISO 10390). Tailings contain about 2.6% Pb and Pb bearing phases were detected by X-ray diffraction (XRD): anglesite (PbSO<sub>4</sub>) and beudantite ((PbFe<sub>3</sub>(AsO<sub>4</sub>)(SO<sub>4</sub>)(OH)<sub>6</sub>).

Table 1. Main chemical characteristic of the tailings, ochre, manure and biochar. (a) pH was measured in water according to ISO 10390. (b) Element concentrations in solids were analyzed by high resolution inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry and elemental flash pyrolyser. (c) Standard leaching test was performed with demineralized water according to ISO/TS 21268–2. Pb, Ba and As were analyzed by oven atomic absorption spectroscopy, and Fe and Zn by flame atomic absorption spectroscopy. DOC and DON were determined using a TOC elemental analyzer.

	Tailings	Ochre	Manure	Biochar
pH <sup>a</sup>	4.9	8.1	9.9	9.5
Solid chemical analyses <sup>b</sup>				
Pb (mg.kg <sup>-1</sup> )	26432	10.1	2.82	n.d.
Fe (%)	1.5	26.1	n.d.	n.d.
Zn (mg.kg <sup>-1</sup> )	265	14717	53.8	n.d.
Ba (mg.kg <sup>-1</sup> )	1063	69.8	78.9	n.d.
As (mg.kg <sup>-1</sup> )	1134	505.7	0.75	n.d.
C (%)	0.13	1.99	35.39	81.2
N (%)	<lq< td=""><td><lq< td=""><td>2.47</td><td>0.6</td></lq<></td></lq<>	<lq< td=""><td>2.47</td><td>0.6</td></lq<>	2.47	0.6
S (%)	1.58	0.69	0.18	<lq< td=""></lq<>
Standard leaching testing <sup>c</sup>				_
Pb (mg.L <sup>-1</sup> )	19.6	0.23	0.33	n.d.
Fe (mg.L <sup>-1</sup> )	<lq< td=""><td>0.4</td><td><lq< td=""><td>n.d.</td></lq<></td></lq<>	0.4	<lq< td=""><td>n.d.</td></lq<>	n.d.
Zn (mg.L <sup>-1</sup> )	0.17	<lq< td=""><td>0.33</td><td>n.d.</td></lq<>	0.33	n.d.
Ba (mg.L <sup>-1</sup> )	<lq< td=""><td><lq< td=""><td>0.27</td><td>n.d.</td></lq<></td></lq<>	<lq< td=""><td>0.27</td><td>n.d.</td></lq<>	0.27	n.d.
As (μg.L <sup>-1</sup> )	2.3	2.5	7.0	n.d.
DOC (mg.L <sup>-1</sup> )	63.5	44.1	1134.1	n.d.
DON (mg.L <sup>-1</sup> )	8.1	4.4	131.1	n.d.

DOC: dissolved organic carbon, DON: dissolved organic nitrogen, LQ: limit of quantification (SM2) and n.d.: not determined.

The first amendment used was an oxy-hydroxide sludge, called ochre, collected in a coal mine water treatment in the south of France, mainly composed of 2-6 µm particles. It contained 26.1 % Fe, and had a pH value in water of 8.1 (measured according to ISO 10390; Thouin et al., 2019). A poorly crystalline goethite (FeO(OH)) and aragonite (CaCO<sub>3</sub>) were identified, and the presence of zincite (ZnO) was suspected (Mertz et al., 2021). The second amendment was cow manure, collected from a farm near Orléans (France). Its pH in water was 9.9 (according to ISO 10390). The manure was dried at 30°C, ground in a mortar and sieved at 2 mm before using. The third amendment was biochar, produced from the slow pyrolysis at 500 °C of hardwood biomass (mixture of oak, beech, and hornbeam), followed by a sieving to obtain a particle size

133 between 0.5 and 1 mm (Norini et al., 2019). The pH in water was 9.5 measured (according to 134 ISO 10390) and the CEC of biochar (using the 0.05 N cobaltihexamine method) was 0.65 cmol.kg<sup>-1</sup>. Chemical composition of amendments are detailed in Table 1. 135 Agrostis capillaris naturally present on the site was selected for this study. Nandillon et al., 136 137 2019 showed that this indigenous A. capillaris is a metallicolous ecotype, more tolerant to the 138 stress condition of these mine tailings than a commercial non metallicolous ecotype. The seeds 139 of A. capillaris were directly sampled on the Pontgibaud mine site close to the tailings sampling 140 site.

## **2.2 Pilot experiment**

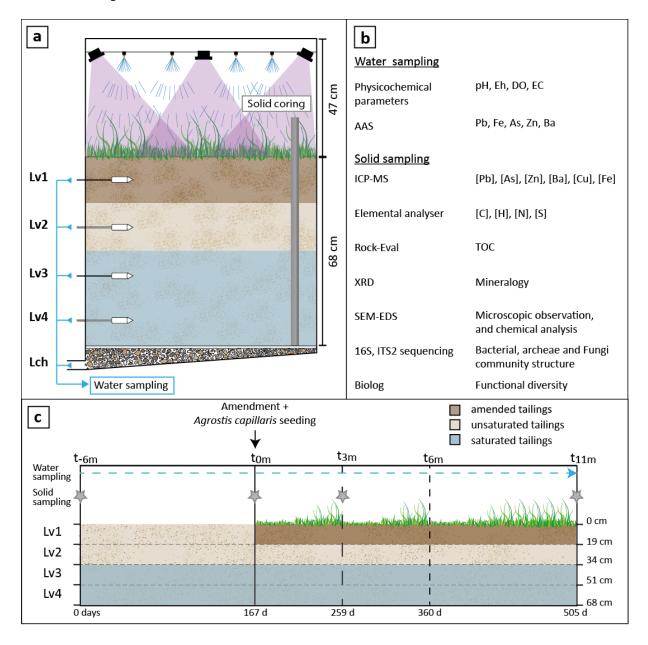


Figure 1. Design of the laboratory pilot experiment. (a); Analyses performed during the experiment (b) and experimental program presenting the chronology of the main events (c).

The instrumented laboratory pilot device consisted of a closed stainless-steel column (100 cm in diameter and 145 cm high), placed in a temperature-regulated room at  $23 \pm 1$ °C. The pilot design was previously described in Thouin et al. (2017). A layer of inert gravel (centimetric quartz) and a geotextile membrane were placed at the bottom of the column to facilitate outflow drainage without loss of tailing particles. This single metric pilot experiment (Fig. 1), represents

the up-scaling of the assisted phytostabilization method previously developed in multiple microcosms (Thouin et al., 2019).

The column was filled with 814 kg (equivalent to 670 kg of dry weight (dw.)) of the < 2 cm fraction of homogenized mine tailings (SM1b), and was equipped during the process at three levels (Lv2: 26.2 cm, Lv3: 43.7 cm, and Lv4: 61.2 cm measured from the surface and after solids settlement) with time domain reflectrometry probes (TDR) (TRIME-PICO32, IMKO) to measure moisture and temperature in tailings, and with inert Polytetrafluoroethylene/Quartz porous probes (pore size 2  $\mu$ m, three probes for each depth, regularly spaced) to sample pore water. These probes were inserted into mine tailings at 30 cm from the column wall (Fig. 1a). Five horticultural light-emitting diodes (LED) at the top of the column simulated 12-h day/night cycles. Rainfall was simulated by a sprinkler system connected to a water reservoir and fed by pumps, and consisted in the watering of 5.5 L of Mont Roucous® water each time and three times a week. This mineral water was used because of its chemical composition close to that of rainwater (pH = 6.38, electrical conductivity = 160  $\mu$ S.cm<sup>-1</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup> = 56  $\mu$ M, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> = 24  $\mu$ M, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup>- = 16  $\mu$ M, Na<sup>+</sup> = 109  $\mu$ M, K<sup>+</sup> = 7.7  $\mu$ M, Ca<sup>2+</sup> = 25  $\mu$ M, Mg<sup>2+</sup> = 21  $\mu$ M).

After three months of stabilization, the tailings settled by 12.5 % in height, and the thickness of the tailings in the column reached a constant value of 68 cm. The first experimental step corresponded to the control non-phytostabilized condition, which lasted 6 months (t-6m to t<sub>0m</sub>). Both levels Lv4 and Lv3 were always in the saturated part of the column all along the experiment, whereas the Lv2 level was located in the unsaturated zone. The leachate was collected in a steel tank at the bottom, noted Lch, and quantified using scales. This outflow weight as well as moisture and temperature at the three levels (Lv2, Lv3 and Lv4) were continuously monitored.

173 After 6 months (t<sub>0m</sub>, corresponding to 167 days after starting the monitoring of the experiment, 174 Fig. 1c), 19 cm of tailings surface were stripped (195 kg, equivalent to 173 kg of dw.), and amended with 1 wt% ochre, 1 wt% cow manure and 1 wt% biochar (i.e. 1.73 kg of each 175 176 amendment), homogenized, then replaced at the top of the column (SM1c). This tailing 177 amended level (Lv1) was instrumented with one TDR and three porous probes at 9.5 cm from 178 the surface, regularly spaced. The amendment was followed by the seeding of 4.1 g of A. 179 capillaris on all the tailings surface. 180 Sampling of pore water from levels Lv1, Lv2, Lv3, Lv4 and Lch was performed (before water 181 sprinkling) via fluorinated ethylene propylene (FEP) tubing connected to a peristaltic pump. 182 The 3 water samples from the 3 independent regularly spaced porous probes of each level (Lv1, 183 Lv2, Lv3 and Lv4) were pooled before determination of physicochemical and geochemical 184 parameters. In Lv1, water sampling was limited due to the low water contents and to the 185 competition with A. capillaris roots, this is why there were no water analyses after 231 days. 186 Solid sampling was performed in the column by coring at t-6m, t<sub>0m</sub>, t<sub>3m</sub> and t<sub>11m</sub> (at t<sub>0m</sub> sampling 187 was performed before amendment). Coring was performed with 5 cm diameter and 1m length 188 stainless steel pipes. Only one coring was carried out at each experimental step, in order to 189 minimize disruptive effects. After sampling, the pipes were clogged and put back in place in 190 the tailings to fill the empty space. Each core was separated into four samples, Lv1 at a depth 191 of 0-19 cm, Lv2 at 19-34 cm, Lv3 at 34-51 cm, and Lv4 at 51-68 cm, corresponding to the pore 192 water sampling levels (Fig. 1c). These samples were homogenized, sub-sampled in sterile tubes 193 stored at -20°C for DNA extractions then stored at 5°C in tightly closed sterile jars for the 194 determination of functional diversity of microbial communities. 195 The sampling of A. capillaris biomass and rhizospheric and non-rhizospheric materials were 196 performed at t<sub>3m</sub>, t<sub>6m</sub> and t<sub>11m</sub>, (respectively 92, 193 and 338 days after seeding). Five plastic

(polystyrene) tubes with an area of 19.6 cm<sup>2</sup> and a height of 7 cm were used to make small

cores of level Lv1. For each sampled *A. capillaris*, non-rhizospheric (Lv1 NR) tailings fraction was separated from rhizospheric (Lv1 R) materials by shaking, and rhizospheric-associated tailings particles were manually isolated from *A. capillaris* roots. The plants of *A. capillaris* were washed with 0.5 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub> and deionized water and plant biomass was measured after plant drying at 60°C during 48h (roots and leaves separately). The total plant cover of the tailings surface was estimated by eye in percentage and was used to extrapolate the total biomass of *A. capillaris* defined in gram of dry leaves and roots by m<sup>2</sup>. At t<sub>3m</sub> and t<sub>6m</sub>, the *A. capillaris* plants were cut at about 5 cm above the tailings' surface to simulate mowing and leaves were recovered.

## 2.3 Water analyses

Electrical conductivity (EC), redox potential (Eh), pH, dissolved oxygen (DO), and temperature of interstitial water were measured with a benchtop meter (multiparameter analyser C3040, Consort) connected to an ORP sensor (platinum electrode, with an Ag/AgCl reference electrode, 3M KCl, Eh value refers to the normal hydrogen electrode (NHE)), oxygen probes (Fisherbrand), pH electrode (Fisherbrand) and conductivity probe (Sentek) (Fig. 1b, SM2). As, Pb and Ba were analyzed by oven atomic absorption spectroscopy (AAS) (Varian AA220Z), and Zn and Fe by flame AAS (Varian AA22FS) (SM2).

## 2.4 Analyses of solids

#### 2.4.1 Mineralogy and chemical composition

Solid samples were dried and ground to 70 µm in an agate mortar for X-ray diffraction (XRD) and chemical analyses (SM2). XRD was performed using an INEL CPS120 diffractometer equipped with a Co anode. Measurements of total carbon (C), hydrogen (H), nitrogen (N), and sulfur (S) were obtained using an elemental flash pyrolyser analyzer (Flash 2000, Thermo Fisher Scientific) (SM2). Total organic carbon (TOC) contents were determined by Rock-Eval pyrolysis (Rock-Eval 6 Turbo, Vinci Technologies) (SM2). Elemental concentration

measurements of all solid samples were performed on high resolution inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (HR-ICP-MS; Thermo Element-XR, details in SM2) after complete dissolution by hydrofluoric acid attack (HNO<sub>3</sub> 65%, HCl 37% and HF 40%) using a pressurized closed-vessel microwave system (MARS 6, CEM).

#### 2.4.2 Optical and SEM-EDS observations

Fresh tailings material sampled in Lv1 at the end of the experiment was observed with a binocular magnifier Leica 2616 APO equipped with a photography and video device and connected to a computer equipped with Leica Mycrosystem software. Scanning electron microscopy coupled with energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (SEM-EDS) observations were performed on a TM 3000 (Hitachi) at 15 kV accelerating voltage. SEM was coupled to a SwiftED3000 X-Stream module (Hitachi). The acquisition time of EDS point analyses was 300 seconds and 15 minutes for maps with a resolution of 512 x 384 pixels.

#### 2.4.3 DNA extraction and next generation sequencing

Total nucleic acids were extracted in duplicate from 0.5 g (wet weight) of each solid sample with a FastDNA® SPIN Kit for soil (MP Biomedicals, Illkirch, France). DNA was quantified with the Promega Quantifluor®, using the Quantus<sup>TM</sup> fluorometer (Promega, France).

For next generation sequencing, a fragment of the gene coding 16S rRNA (bacteria and archaea) was amplified using the barcoded, universal primer set (515WF/918WR) (Wang et al., 2009). The primers used to amplify the specific fungal barcode ITS2 were w404 and w40 (Degois et al., 2019). PCR reactions were performed using AccuStart II PCR ToughMix kit and cleaned (HighPrep PCR beads, Mokascience). Pools were submitted for sequencing on Illumina MiSeq instrument at GeT-PlaGe (Auzeville, France). The raw datasets are available on the European Nucleotide Archive system under project accession number PRJEB52405 and PRJEB52412.

Sequences were processed using the FROGS (v.3.0) bioinformatics pipeline (Escudié et al., 2017), implemented into the Genotoul plateform of the Galaxy server of Toulouse. Fastq paired reads were merged with FLASH software, and clustering into OTU with Swarm and an aggregation distance clustering of 3. Chimera and operational taxonomic unit (OTU) with a proportion less than 0.005 % of all sequences were removed. Taxonomic affiliation was performed using BLASTn and the Silva 132 database for 16S rRNA sequences and the Unite Fungi 8.0 database for ITS2 sequences. Filtration on taxonomic affiliation was done at minimum identity of 100% and minimum coverage of 95%. The FROGS pipeline implemented Phyloseq R package was used for OTU structure visualization, rarefaction curves, and alpha diversity index calculations. Chao 1 index (non-parametric measurements) estimates the number of unobserved species from those observed 1 or 2 times while the Shannon and invSimpson diversity indexes give respectively a measure of heterogeneity of microbial community and the probability that two randomly picked individuals do not belong to the same species.

## 2.4.4 Functional diversity of heterotroph microorganisms

Biolog<sup>TM</sup> Ecoplates community-level substrate utilization assays were used to study the functional diversity of microbial communities(Garland, 1999). The Biolog<sup>TM</sup> Ecoplates were incubated at 25 °C and the absorbance values (optical density (OD) at 590 nm) were monitored using an Omega SPECTROstar (BMG Labtech) microplate spectrophotometer at t=0 and 168 h (7 days). The well absorbance values were adjusted by subtracting the average absorbance of the control well (water only) at t=0. After subtracting the control well, an OD590nm > 0.25 was considered as positive. Negative readings (OD < 0) were set to zero for all subsequent analyses.

#### 2.5 Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis were performed using R (<a href="http://www.r-project.org/">http://www.r-project.org/</a>; version 4.3.0) with the vegan package (version 2.5-7). To visualize differences in the OTUs-based community

composition, we performed an agglomerative hierarchical clustering (AHC) on the 100 most abundant OTUs of 16S rRNA and ITS 2 sequencing data, using Bray-Curtis dissimilarity metric, and Ward's minimum variance. Redundance analysis (RDA) was performed to identify the relationships among samples, environmental variables, and relative abundance of phyla. This analysis was calculated based on Hellinger - transformed phylum abundance basis of 16S rRNA and ITS 2 data (Borcard et al., 2011). Environmental explanatory tested variables were as follows: humidity, pH, TOC, [S], [N], [Fe], [Pb], [Zn], [As], [Cu], [Ba] (solid concentrations at t<sub>0m</sub>, t<sub>3m</sub>, t<sub>11m</sub>) and were standardized. The function ordistep in vegan package was used to identify the significant explanatory forward environmental variable. The significance of the RDA model was tested by ANOVA based on Monte Carlo test with 999 permutations. This analysis helps to determine the most influential factors and the extent that various environmental parameters affected microbial composition.

## 3 Results

#### 3.1 Percolated water composition

## **3.1.1 Physico-chemical parameters**

Pore-waters in the subsurface levels of the column (Lv2, Lv3, and Lv4) were characterized by constant pH values between 4 and 3, whether before or after the amendment (Fig. 2). In Lch, the pH was higher but decreased from 6 to 4 after amendment of the tailings. In Lv1, the pore water pH was higher than in Lv2, Lv3, and Lv4. Values of redox potential was positive (>300 mV NHE) before amendment, even in the saturated levels (Fig. 2). After amendment, Eh NHE increased in all sampling level and remained positive during the experiment.

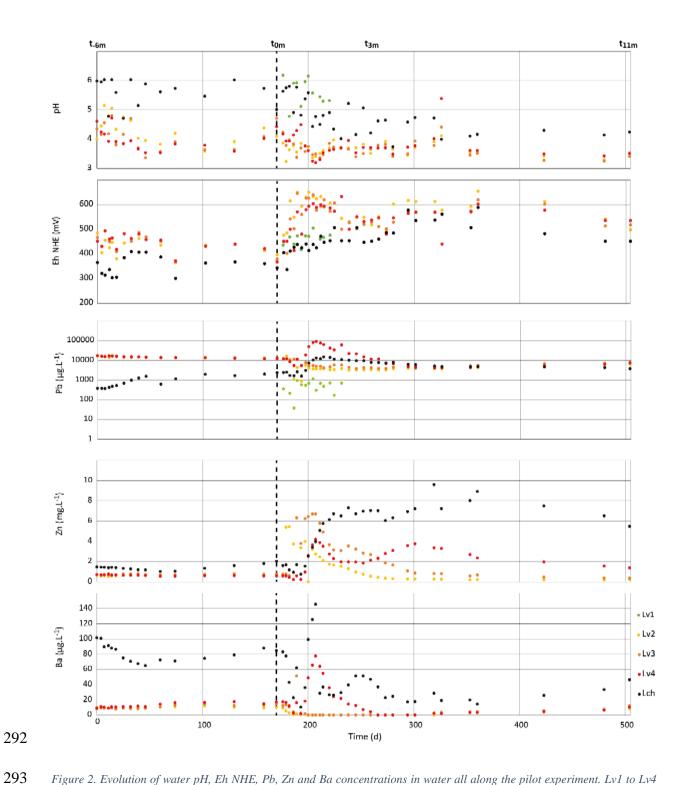


Figure 2. Evolution of water pH, Eh NHE, Pb, Zn and Ba concentrations in water all along the pilot experiment. Lv1 to Lv4 represent the sampling depths in the tailings. Lv1 was amended and seeded at tom. Lch was the outlet of the pilot.

#### 3.1.2 Metal(loid)s concentrations

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Pb was the metal with the highest concentration in tailings' water and leachate. Before t<sub>0m</sub>, Pb 298 concentrations were similar and constant in Lv2, Lv3, and Lv4 with values of 14.4 mg.L<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 299 2). In Lch, Pb concentrations were lower and increased to reach 2.3 mg.L<sup>-1</sup> just before the 300 amendment. In the amended level Lv1, mean Pb concentration was  $532 \pm 77 \,\mu g.L^{-1}$ . In Lv2 and 301 Lv3. Pb rapidly decreased after the amendment to values close to 3 300 and 4 000 µg.L<sup>-1</sup> 302 (respectively), then between  $t_{3m}$  and  $t_{11m}$ , Pb slightly increased to reach 8 160 and 7 150  $\mu$ g.L<sup>-1</sup> 303 304 at the end of the experiment. At the bottom of the column, in Lv4, Pb concentration rapidly increased after the amendment to reach a maximum of 88 900 µg.L<sup>-1</sup> on day (d) 207 then 305 decreased down to 4 100 µg.L<sup>-1</sup> on d 319. As for Lv4, Pb concentration in Lch increased after 306 the amendment to reach a maximum of 14 775 µg.L<sup>-1</sup> at d 214 and then decreased down to 3 307 700  $\mu$ g.L<sup>-1</sup> at  $t_{11m}$ . 308 During the period before the amendment, Ba concentrations were between 8.2 and 18 µg.L<sup>-1</sup> in 309 Lv2, Lv3 and Lv4, and between 101 and 65 µg.L<sup>-1</sup> in Lch (Fig. 2). After t<sub>0m</sub>, Ba concentration 310 rapidly decreased below 2 µg.L<sup>-1</sup> in Lv2 and Lv3, while in Lv4 it increased to a maximum of 311 77.6 µg.L<sup>-1</sup> on d 207 and decreased under 2 µg.L<sup>-1</sup> on d 300. Between d 300 and the end of the 312 experiment, Ba concentration in Lv2, Lv3 and Lv4 slowly increased to about 10 µg.L<sup>-1</sup>. In Lch, 313 two peaks were observed after the amendment, at 207 days (145.6 µg.L<sup>-1</sup>) and at 252 (51.4 314  $\mu g.L^{-1}$ ). 315 As concentrations in pore water in Lv2, Lv3 and Lv4 were less than 15 µg.L<sup>-1</sup> throughout the 316 experiment (SM3). In Lch, As concentration decreased from 233 to 13 µg.L<sup>-1</sup> between t<sub>-6m</sub> and 317  $t_{0m}$ . After the amendment As decreased below 5  $\mu g.L^{\text{-}1}$  and then increased at the end of 318 experiment to reach 26.7 µg.L<sup>-1</sup>. 319

#### 3.2 Evolution of the solids

The evolution of parameters related to organic matter and the main contaminants in solids is presented in Table 2. Amendment slightly increased the concentration in carbon (total C, TOC) in Lv1 and in Lv2, but not at all in the deeper levels Lv3 and Lv4. The other analysed elements did not vary according to experimental time and depth of layer in the column. In particular, Pb, the main contaminant, did not exhibit significant trends as a function of depth and time. One can only note slightly lower Pb contents in the rhizospheric area compared to the non-rhizospheric one. Zn contents slightly increased in the upper levels (Lv1 and Lv2) just after the addition of amendments (t<sub>3m</sub>), due to the presence of Zn in ochre, then returned to values close to that of the tailings.

X-ray diffractograms of the tailings sampled at different depths (Lv1, Lv2, Lv3, and Lv4) at the end of the pilot experiment revealed no change of the mineralogy (SM4): quartz, orthoclase, anglesite, beudantite and a phyllosilicate (presumably muscovite) were the main crystalline phases, as previously identified in the initial tailings (Mertz et al., 2021).

Table 2 Concentrations of the main interesting constituents in the solids sampled in four depths and at different periods of the pilot experiment, and analyzed by <sup>a</sup> Flash pyrolyzer analyzer, <sup>b</sup> Rock-Eval 6 and <sup>c</sup> HR-ICP-MS.

	Depth	C <sup>a</sup> (%)	N <sup>a</sup> (%)	S <sup>a</sup> (%)	TOC <sup>b</sup> (%)	Fe <sup>c</sup> (mg.kg <sup>-1</sup> )	Pb <sup>c</sup> (mg.kg <sup>-1</sup> )	Zn <sup>c</sup> (mg.kg <sup>-1</sup> )	As c (mg.kg <sup>-1</sup> )	Cu <sup>c</sup> (mg.kg <sup>-1</sup> )	Ba <sup>c</sup> (mg.kg <sup>-1</sup> )	
	Lv1	0.10	0.06	0.68	0.09	15 085	23 817	321	1 384	124	3 631	
t <sub>0m</sub>	Lv2	0.09	0.06	n.d.	0.08	19 450	24 166	327	1 398	74	3 444	
Um	Lv3	0.23	0.04	0.71	0.08	15 493	26 234	347	1 381	131	4 635	
	Lv4	0.04	0.02	0.72	n.d.	15 246	22 712	381	1319	128	4 133	
t <sub>3m</sub>	Lv1 R	1.00	0.05	1.12	0.96	14 166	19 722	521	1 127	119	3 452	
	Lv1 NR	1.04	0.04	1.05	1.02	12 793	27 594	419	969	107	7 706	

	Lv2	0.99	0.06	0.65	0.97	19 000	28 479	484	1 404	69	3 974
	Lv3	0.18	0.06	n.d.	0.11	17 304	27 857	371	1 598	71	4 535
	Lv4	0.09	0.05	0.77	n.d.	14 336	20 848	345	1 235	126	4955
	Lv1 R	1.28	0.07	1.04	0.98	13 280	21 644	360	988	101	2 503
	Lv1 NR	1.00	0.07	0.68	0.85	16912	29 835	308	1 083	52	3 340
t <sub>11m</sub>	Lv2	0.61	0.05	0.72	0.56	18 386	27 786	434	1 515	73	4 321
	Lv3	0.15	0.03	0.70	0.11	13 935	30 940	285	1 059	52	3 605
	Lv4	0.07	0.02	0.74	n.d.	12 766	27 696	368	1 054	91	3 051

Initial tailing composition is available in table 1. TOC: total organic carbon, Lv1 to Lv4 represent the sampling depths in the tailings. Lv1 R: solid sampled in the rhizospheric zone, Lv1 NR: solid sampled in the non rhizospheric zone,  $t_{0m}$ : 6 months after the beginning of the monitoring without amendments and plants,  $t_{3m}$ : 3 months after adding amendments and seeding Agrostis capillaris,  $t_{11m}$ : end of the experiment, 11 months after adding amendments and seeding A. capillaris, and n.d.: not determined.

#### 3.3 Agrostis capillaris development

Three months after seeding  $(t_{3m})$ , thin leaves of *Agrostis capillaris* have grown and a dense implantation with about 80% of surface cover was observed (Table 3). The biomass was about 190 g.m<sup>2</sup> for leaves and stems and 57 g.m<sup>2</sup> for roots. At  $t_{3m}$ , *A. capillaris* was cut, and 3 months later, a reduced plant cover (50%) was observed but with larger and better developed leaves. Root biomass has also increased between  $t_{3m}$  and  $t_{6m}$ . A second cut was made at  $t_{6m}$ . At the end of the pilot experiment, 11 months after seeding, the biomass of aerial parts was multiplied by four (SM1d). *A. capillaris* with stolon was observed and plant cover increased between  $t_{6m}$  and  $t_{11m}$ . Measured root biomass seemed to drastically decrease, but only roots in the first 7 centimeters were weighted whereas roots had colonized the entire thickness of the amended level and were observed up to 40 cm deep.

Table 3 Agrostis capillaris development. Plant cover was estimated visually and the biomass was measured for a determined surface where the A. capillaris plants were well developed. The extrapolated biomass was determined with biomass and plant cover. \* Root biomass was determined only in the first 7 cm.

		Biomass sa	mpling	Extrapolated biomass		
	Plant cover (%)	Aerial Parts (g)	Roots* (g)	Aerial Parts (g.m²)	Roots* (g.m²)	
t <sub>3m</sub>	80	2.4	0.7	191.5	57.0	
$t_{6m}$	50	2.4	1.2	119.7	73.3	
$t_{11m}$	70	9.8	0.2	700.9	11.4	

 $t_{3m}$ ,  $t_{6m}$ ,  $t_{11m}$ : respectively 3 months, 6 months and 11 months after adding amendments and seeding A. capillaris.

## 3.4 Tailings stabilization by *Agrostis capillaris* root system

The surface of the tailings at the end of the pilot experiment was visually invaded by the *Agrostis capillaris* root system. The binocular magnifier enabled to observe solid particles forming immobilized tailing aggregates associated with the roots (Fig. 3a). Some fragments of roots observed with SEM-EDS presented fibrous coverage (Fig. 3b) enriched in P and Pb (Fig. 3c point 1) compared with the simple solid particles present at the root surface (Fig. 3c point 2). Fine filaments of 3-4 µm diameter were observed in the rhizosphere (Fig. 3d, e and f). They might be fungal hyphae. EDS mapping revealed the presence of Fe and Pb on their surface and inside their membrane (Fig. 3e point 1, and f).

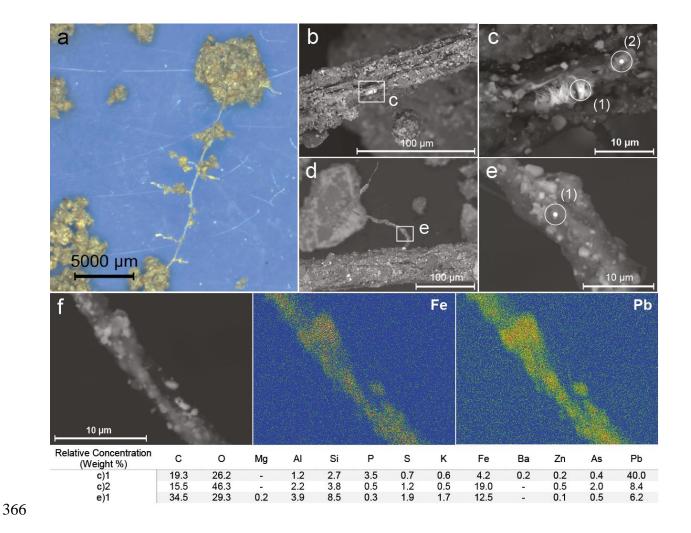


Figure 3. Observations of Agrostis capillaris root samples at the end of the pilot experiment (t11m): (a) aggregates of tailings associated with roots (binocular magnifier); (b) and (c) backscattered electron images of a root (SEM); (d) and (e) backscattered electron images and elemental mapping of Fe and Pb of presumed fungal hyphae; Table present the results of SEM-EDS semi-quantification of elements at the surface of the (c) observed root and (e)inside hyphae membrane.

## 3.5 Microbial diversity and structure

#### 3.5.1 Community species richness and diversity

After treatment steps, a total of 790 820 16S and 920 302 ITS 2 sequences were obtained from the 19 samples. The rarefaction curves reach a plateau for all samples showing that the diversity of communities was well sampled (SM5). The richness of 16S OTUs was homogeneous before amendment at  $t_{-6m}$  and  $t_{0m}$ , with values varying between 431 in Lv3  $t_{-6m}$  and 752 in Lv4  $t_{0m}$ . After amendment, an increase of richness was observed except in Lv4  $t_{11m}$ . Chao1 index shows

that the majority of OTUs was sequenced (Table 4). The richness of ITS2 sequences was lower than 16S sequences. As with bacteria, the number of OTUs increased after amendment in all levels except in the deepest level at the end of the experiment. The bacterial species diversity, based on the Shannon and InvSimpson indexes (Table 4) increased after amendment in the surface levels Lv1. In Lv2 and Lv3 an increase of diversity indexes was also observed at t<sub>3m</sub> and t<sub>11m</sub>. The lowest Shannon and InvSimpson indexes were observed in Lv4 at t<sub>11m</sub>. For the fungi, the evolution of Shannon and InvSimpson indexes were less obviously related to the experimental conditions.

Table 4: 16S and ITS 2 sequences diversities estimation of the solids sampled in four depths and at different periods of the pilot experiment.

16S		Richness	Chao1	Shannon	InvSimpson
	Lv1	576	612.7	4.2	16.4
4	Lv2	621	673.9	4.4	20.6
t <sub>-6m</sub>	Lv3	598	635.8	4.3	18.8
	Lv4	752	810.1	4.4	18.6
	Am	448	561.8	4.7	45.4
	Lv1	613	652.1	4.6	28.1
$t_{0m}$	Lv2	549	572.8	4.1	14.8
	Lv3	431	444.0	4.3	19.0
	Lv4	550	595.2	4.1	15.4
	Lv1 R	918	1022.2	5.4	86.6
	Lv1 NR	902	997.5	5.4	85.7
t <sub>3m</sub>	Lv2	953	1046.9	5.4	81.8
	Lv3	880	986.0	4.7	28.5
	Lv4	938	1022.5	4.1	14.3
t	Lv1 R	747	825.5	5.2	58.4
$t_{11m}$	Lv1 NR	829	927.3	4.9	42.1

Lv2	910	1031.9	5.4	76.2
Lv3	875	971.2	4.3	18.6
Lv4	318	366.4	3.4	14.3

ITS 2		Richness	Chao1	Shannon	InvSimpson
	Lv1	56	61.0	2.3	4.8
4	Lv2	51	58.5	1.9	4.2
t-6m	Lv3	61	61.5	1.8	2.9
	Lv4	56	63.0	2.1	4.2
	Am	91	91.1	2.3	6.4
	Lv1	42	48.0	1.7	3.0
$t_{0m}$	Lv2	35	45.0	2.2	5.4
	Lv3	26	35.3	1.8	3.4
	Lv4	65	70.3	1.8	2.7
	Lv1 R	107	116.2	2.2	5.2
	Lv1 NR	105	106.9	2.6	8.4
$t_{3m}$	Lv2	115	118.5	2.7	8.7
	Lv3	93	93.0	2.7	7.5
	Lv4	82	92.0	2.8	9.7
	Lv1 R	105	115.5	2.1	3.6
	Lv1 NR	113	117.2	3.0	13.0
$t_{11m}$	Lv2	117	119.5	2.5	6.2
	Lv3	78	81.0	2.9	8.6
	Lv4	16	22.0	2.3	8.3

Lv1 to Lv4 represent the sampling depths in the tailings. Am: tailings amended with 1 wt% ochre, 1 wt% cow manure and 1 wt% biochar, Lv1 R: solid sampled in the rhizospheric zone, Lv1 NR: solid sampled in the non rhizospheric zone, t-6m: start of the experiment, t<sub>0m</sub>: 6 months after the beginning of the monitoring without amendments and plants, t<sub>3m</sub>: 3 months after adding amendments and seeding Agrostis capillaris, t<sub>11m</sub>: end of the experiment, 11 months after adding amendments and seeding A. capillaris.

#### 3.5.2 Microbial community structure

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Samples of solids from the pilot experiment hosted bacterial and fungal communities presenting different spatial and temporal distributions (Fig. 4). The 100 most represented phyla of procaryotes (Fig. 4A) included Proteobacteria, Acidobacteria, Chloroflexi, Bacteroidetes, Gemmatimonadetes, Actinobacteriaceae, Planctomycetes, Cyanobacteria, Firmicutes, members of the Deinococcus-Thermus group for the bacteria, then Thaumarchaeota and Euryarchaeota for the archaea. The AHC analysis, that groups the OTUs according to similarities of occurrence in samples, shows a cluster of OTUs, gathered in the upper part of the Fig. 4A, that were mainly present in the tailings before amendment (t-6m and t<sub>0</sub>) and in the deepest levels of the column (Lv3 and Lv4) all along the experiment (OTUs n°9 to n°96). The ten most abundant procaryote OTUs (in bold) were present in this group that included Acidobacteria, Chloroflexi, Proteobacteria and Thaumarchaeota, however none of them was identified at the genus level (SM6). Procaryote OTUs more represented in surface levels from t<sub>3m</sub> to t<sub>11m</sub> and influenced by the amendment and plant growth, are grouped in three clusters in the bottom part of Fig. 4A. The cumulative list of the ten most represented known bacterial genera in each sample (SM7), included three sulfur-oxidizing bacteria, namely Sulfuriferula, Sulfurifustis and Thiomonas, and two autotrophic Fe-oxidizing bacteria, i.e. Gallionella (only in Lv4 at t<sub>3m</sub>) and Sideroxydans (only in Lv4 at t<sub>11m</sub>). All the 44 other major genera are heterotrophic organisms. A known nitrogen fixing genus, Mesorhizobium, was present in the list of the 10 most represented procaryote OTUs in Lv1, both in the rhizospheric and non rhizospheric samples. The contribution of the 3 sulfur-oxidizing bacteria, expressed as the sum of their relative abundance in the 10 most abundant identified genera (SM8 and SM9), shows their preponderance in the initial tailings. Their relative abundance strongly decreased in Lv1, Lv2 and Lv3 at t<sub>3m</sub>. At the end of experiment their contribution rose in Lv3 and Lv4.

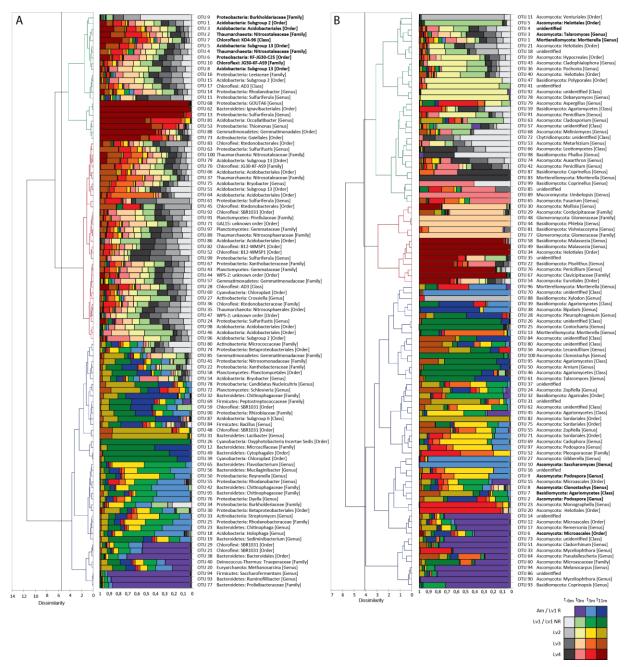


Figure 4. AHC analysis of the 100 most abundant OTUs (10 most abundant in bold) in solid samples from the pilot experiment. A: bacteria and archaea (based on 16S sequences), B: fungi (based on ITS sequences) (Lv1to Lv4 represent the sampling depths in the tailings, Am: tailings amended with 1 wt% ochre, 1 wt% cow manure and 1 wt% biochar, Lv1 R: solid sampled in the rhizospheric zone, Lv1 NR: solid sampled in the non rhizospheric zone, t-6m: start of the experiment, tom: 6 months after the beginning of the monitoring without amendments and plants, t3m: 3 months after adding amendments and seeding Agrostis capillaris, t11m: end of the experiment, 11 months after adding amendments and seeding A. capillaris).

The distribution of the 100 most abundant fungal OTUs (Fig. 4B) shows some tendencies already observed with bacterial OTUs, such as a group of fungal OTUs mainly found in the initial tailings, at t<sub>-6m</sub> in all levels, and t<sub>0m</sub> from Lv2 to Lv4 gathered at the top of Fig. 4B.

Another group of OTUs was mainly found in the surface levels after amendment (bottom of Fig. 4B). The 10 most abundant fungal OTUs were distributed between these two groups (Fig. 4B, SM10). A group of fungal OTUs (OTU 14 to OTU 93), probably resulting from the amendment, was found at  $t_{3m}$  and  $t_{11m}$  in deeper levels (up to Lv3 at  $t_{11m}$ ). The fungi present in the rhizospheric materials at  $t_{3m}$  and  $t_{11m}$  are different from those found in non rhizospheric Lv1 samples. The classification of the ten most represented known fungal genera (SM11) shows that the genera *Mortierella* and *Talaromyces* were strongly represented in the original tailings (t-6m) and detected in all samples. The genera Clonostachys, Coniochaeta and Pisolithus were found among the 12 dominant fungal genera at t<sub>-6m</sub>. The most represented genus in the freshly amended Am Lv1 was Remersonia. The genera Zopfiella and Mortierella were also found in this sample, in small proportions. At t<sub>3m</sub>, the genera Mortierella, Clonostachys and Zopfiella were still present. The genus *Podospora* was present in all levels at this sampling time, , together with Giberella, emerging t in Lv1 R and Lv4. The fungal diversity of the rhizospheric Lv1 at t<sub>3m</sub> differed from that of the other levels, in particular because it was the only level containing Saccharomyces as one of the 10 dominant fungal genera. At t<sub>11m</sub>, Podospora represented nearly 50% of the fungal genera present in Lv1 R andLv4 exclusively included Malassezia as a dominant fungal genera. A RDA was performed to identify the influence on microbial community structure of 12 physico-chemical characteristics of solid phases (Fig. 5). For Bacteria and Archaea (Fig. 5A) the results indicated that pH, humidity, Zn, and As were explanatory variables that significantly influenced the community structure, which explained 88.6 % (p = 0.001) of the total variance. In particular, the highest pH and lowest water content seemed to favour the presence of Bacteroidetes and Proteobacteria, whereas low pH and high water saturation seemed to induce higher proportions of Acidobacteria and Thaumarchaeota. Zn and As concentrations in the solids exerted antagonist influences. For Fungi (Fig. 5B), As and humidity were the only

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significant explanatory variables that influenced the community structure. These parameters significantly explain (p = 0.011) 37.7 % of the total variance of fungal community structure. High As concentrations seemed to favorise the development of Mortierellomycota while low water content favorised the presence of Ascomycota.

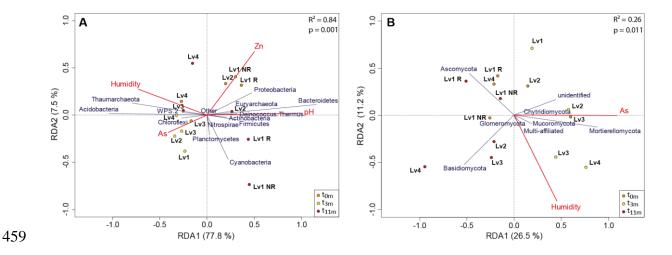


Figure 5. RDA of sequence abundance assigned at phylum level of microbial communities in the solids samples in relation to environmental variables. A: Bacteria and Archaea (based on 16S sequences), B: Fungi (based on ITS sequences). Red lines represent the significant environmental variable, blue lines represent the Phylum and circles represent the samples. (Lv1 to Lv4 represent the sampling depths in the tailings, Lv1 R: solid sampled in the rhizospheric zone, Lv1 NR: solid sampled in the non rhizospheric zone,  $t_{0m}$ : 6 months after the beginning of the monitoring without amendments and plants,  $t_{3m}$ : 3 months after adding amendments and seeding Agrostis capillaris,  $t_{11m}$ : end of the experiment, 11 months after adding amendments and seeding A. capillaris).

## 3.5.3 Functional diversity of heterotrophic microorganisms

The substrate spectrum of active cultivable heterotrophs was mainly driven by polymers and carbohydrate degradation in the initial tailings (Fig. 6). Amended surface level clearly displayed higher heterotrophic activities and a deployment of polymer and carboxylic acids degradation was observed at t<sub>0m</sub>. Increase of carboxylic acids biodegradation activities was shared by all levels at t<sub>3m</sub>. A large spectrum of heterotrophic activities was detectable in non-rhizospheric compartments Lv1, Lv2 and Lv3 at t<sub>11m</sub>, when heterotrophic activity was lower in the rhizospheric samples, and nearly inexistent in the deepest level Lv4.

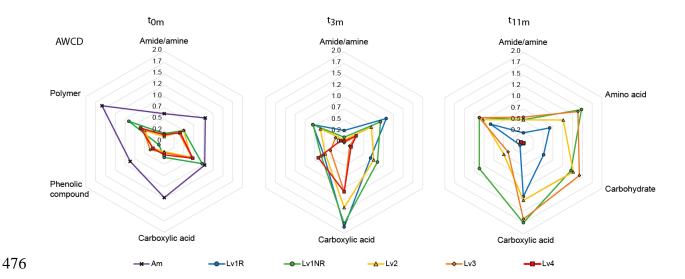


Figure 6. Functional diversity of cultivable heterotroph microorganisms in solid samples from the pilot experiment (Lv1to Lv4 represent the sampling depths in the tailings, Am: tailings amended with 1 wt% ochre, 1 wt% cow manure and 1 wt% biochar, Lv1 R: solid sampled in the rhizospheric zone, Lv1 NR: solid sampled in the non rhizospheric zone,  $t_{0m}$ : 6 months after the beginning of the monitoring without amendments and plants,  $t_{3m}$ : 3 months after adding amendments and seeding Agrostis capillaris,  $t_{11m}$ : end of the experiment, 11 months after adding amendments and seeding A. capillaris).

#### 4 Discussion

## 4.1 Stabilization of Pb linked to the development of Agrostis capillaris

The *Agrostis capillaris* plants grown for 11 months in the column developed an abundant root system that macroscopically retained tailing particles. *A. capillaris* was already reported as a good candidate for phytostabilization, often present as a pioneer plant of polluted sites, resistant to metals and metalloids including Pb and As (Bradshaw, 1952; Meharg and Macnair, 1991; Ernst, 2006; Nandillon et al., 2019). *A. capillaris* has been found to grow spontaneously on contaminated soils, and was recognized as an interesting candidate for the phytostabilization of As and Pb polluted sites (Austry et al., 2013; Rodriguez-Seijo et al., 2016). When using pioneer plants for phytostabilization purposes, preference should be given to pseudo-metallophyte over hyperaccumulator species to minimize the mobilization of metals (Houben et al., 2013). Leadrich minerals associated with roots of our *A. capillaris* plants were observed by SEM-EDS, cooccurring with high either iron or phosphate concentrations. Pyromorphite (Pb<sub>5</sub>(PO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub>(C1) or (OH)<sup>-</sup> grains have been observed in the outer roots' cell-walls of *A. capillaris* grown in a mine

waste contaminated soil (Cotter-Howells et al., 1999). The authors suggested that the precipitation of Pb phosphate might be related to a mechanism of resistance. As a fact, Nandillon et al. (2019) found higher Pb concentrations in roots of this metallicolous ecotype of *A. capillaris* than in a non-metallicolous one, grown on Pontgibaud tailings, suggesting that Pb immobilization in roots might increase the resistance of plants to this toxic element. Apoplastic sequestration of chloropyromorphite was observed by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) in roots of Pb-resistant *Brachiaria decumbens* (Kopittke et al., 2008).

## 4.2 Impact of phytostabilization on water and solids composition

Amendment of the tailings surface layer was performed to facilitate phytostabilization through the development of A. capillaris. This event induced a local increase of solids and pore water pH, accompanied with a decrease of Pb concentration in pore water. This phenomenon, in agreement with results of microcosm experiments (Thouin et al., 2019), was more pronounced in the planted layer, and its amplitude decreased with depth. In the water saturated deeper level Lv4, conversely, a sharp peak of Pb concentration in pore water was observed at the beginning of the phytostabilization process. This phenomenon might be linked to different processes. First, amendment brought several soluble salts releasing cations (Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>...) that could compete with Pb<sup>2+</sup> for adsorption on mineral surfaces (Li et al., 2012). This competition might have been compensated by the pH increase in the surface layers, but not in the deeper layer whose pH was not influenced. Another phenomenon that could explain Pb release in Lv4 might be a slight pH decrease linked with the production of CO<sub>2</sub> by the organic matter (manure) degradation. This phenomenon was observed at microcosm scale (Thouin et al., 2019) and the associated Pb mobilization was numerically simulated (Mertz et al., 2021). Again, this acidification might have been negligible in the upper levels because of the buffering effect of the amendment, that were not efficient in Lv4.

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The redox potential in sampled water never decreased significantly, suggesting that reducing processes, such as ferric iron or sulfate bio-reduction, did not establish at a macroscopic scale, whereas they might have occurred locally in micro-environments.

Interestingly, Ba behaved in the same way as Pb with a peak of concentration in Lv4 observed following the amendment and seeding. Yet, both Ba and Pb form low-solubility solid phases with sulfate (PbSO<sub>4</sub> and BaSO<sub>4</sub>). In a previous pot experiment (Norini et al., 2019) correlations between Ba and major ions concentrations were highlighted. This could suggest that soluble ions derived from amendment (and more precisely from biochar) induced an increase of Ba concentration in pore water. Zinc release was also observed in all levels except the surface. This might be related both with the transport of Zn-containing ochre in the underlying acidic layers, inducing release of Zn from this amendment, and/or with the release of Zn from the tailings due to competition for adsorption sites with the salts released by amendment (Voegelin et al., 2001).

#### 4.3 Impact of phytostabilization on microbial communities

The development of a plant cover during phytostabilization of mine tailings is generally associated with a diversification of microbial communities in the colonized surface material. This shift can be associated with the amendments provided to help plant growth (Valentin-Vargas et al., 2014), however survey of long-term phytostabilized mine tailings shows that plants alone can induce a complexification of the microbial communities' structure (Asemaninejad et al., 2020). The observed evolutions linked with phytostabilization of mine tailings include the increase of the proportion of heterotrophic bacteria linked to a decrease of the abundance of chemo-autotrophic or mixotrophic bacteria involved in iron and sulfur cycles (Mendez et al., 2007; Valentin-Vargas et al., 2014; Gil-Loaiza et al., 2016; Li et al., 2015), and the development of nitrogen-fixing and plant growth promoting bacteria (Honeker et al., 2019; Asemaninejad et al., 2020). Our moderately acid tailings hosted three main sulfur oxidizers, i.e. *Sulfuriferula*, *Sulfurifustis* and *Thiomonas*, and no FeII-oxidizing acidophiles, whereas many

previous studies reported the occurrence of the genera Leptospirillum, Acidithiobacillus, Alicyclobacillus, Sulfobacillus, or Ferrithrix (Li et al., 2016; Li et al., 2017; Honeker et al., 2019; Asemaninejad et al., 2020). Sufuriferula genus includes the species Sulfuriferula plumbophilus, formely Thiobacillus plumbophilus, a chemolithotrophic bacterium growing between pH 4.0 and pH 6.5 by oxidation of galena, producing anglesite (Drobner et al., 1992). Sulfurifustis genus (Kojima et al., 2015) gathers autotrophic species oxidizing reduced sulfur compounds (thiosulfate, tetrathionate, elemental sulfur) at near neutral pH conditions. Thiomonas species are acid-tolerant mixotrophic organisms presenting optimal growth in presence of both organic substrates and sulfur compounds or arsenite (Battaglia-Brunet et al., 2011). The main Pb minerals identified by XRD in Pontgibaud tailings were the oxidized forms anglesite and beudantite. However, a minor fraction of Pb probably remained in the form of the sulfide galena. As a fact, a darker zone that was sampled from the tailing was enriched in Pb, suggesting the presence of less oxidized materials. The absence of acidophilic iron-oxidizing bacteria, that distinguishes our system from many other described autotrophic microbial communities of tailings, may be explained by the low proportion of Fe-bearing sulfides (pyrite and arsenopyrite) compared with galena. Amendment with material providing organic substrates and neutralizing acidity had an immediate effect on microbial communities' composition in the surface level, as previously observed (Valentin-Vargas et al., 2014), with an increase of the proportion of heterotrophic phyla and an activation of the metabolism of organic substrates, in terms of activities and diversity. Moreover, our pilot experiment highlighted the effect of amendments in the underlying zones, with clear changes of global community composition in the non-saturated zone below roots. The two deeper saturated levels were less influenced in terms of global bacterial diversity, however the proportion of sulfur-oxidizers in the 10 most abundant OTUs declined both in Lv2 (non-saturated) and Lv3 (saturated just below) 3 months after the amendment and seeding event. Only the deepest level Lv4 always kept a

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significant proportion of sulfur-oxidizers. However, at  $t_{11m}$ , the proportion of sulfur-oxidizers was restored in Lv3, suggesting an attenuation of the organic substrates supply from the surface. Honeker et al. (2019) already observed re-acidification of phytostabilized mine tailings during phytostabilization, in the initially amended surface levels. Here, we showed a transient influence of surface amendments and plant growth on the underlying levels, however limited spatially as the deeper saturated zone retained the characteristics of initial tailings. From the perspective of Fe cycling, the typical acidophile FeII-oxidizers Leptospirillum were not represented in the 100 most abundant OTUs, neither in the 10 most abundant identified genera, however they were detected by the sequencing as minor OTUs typically present in the tailings signature (t<sub>-6m</sub> and Lv3-Lv4). Two other less acidophile chemolithotrophic FeII-oxidizers, Gallionella and Sideroxydans, emerged (list of 10 most abundant identified genera) in the deepest level Lv4 at t<sub>3m</sub> and t<sub>11m</sub>. In parallel, the presence of an acidophilic FeIII-reducer, Acidibacter, was noticed (list of 10 most abundant identified genera) in Lv3 at t<sub>3m</sub> and Lv1R at t<sub>11m</sub>. Acidibacter was previously mentioned as part of the acid-generating group in phytostabilized pyritic mine tailings (Honeker et al., 2019). Its presence in our column suggests that amendments and plant growth could induce activation of Fe cycling, including FeIIIreduction in the surface levels fueled by new organic electron donors, providing energy (FeII) for moderately acidophilic FeII-oxidizers in the deepest zones.

In the surface level colonized by plants, plant growth promoted bacteria of the genus *Mesorhizobium* which emerged in the 10 most abundant OTUs at  $t_{11m}$ , suggesting that conditions favorable to long-term plant maintenance were established, and that N<sub>2</sub>-fixing bacteria could take over from the manure as a source of nitrogen necessary for plant development. Asemaninejad et al. (2020) already observed groups of N<sub>2</sub>-fixing bacteria including *Mesorhizobium* in long-term vegetated tailings. Bacterial diversity of rhizospheric and non rhizospheric materials did not differ significantly, and evolved similarly from  $t_{3m}$  to

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t<sub>11m</sub>, both in terms of global diversity and representation of the major known bacteria. According to Honeker et al. (2019), the microbial diversity in a phytostabilized soil can be similar in the rhizospheric and bulk soils when pH is near neutral; differences appear when the pH is acidic (<4). In our case, amendment enabled to maintain pH >4 in Lv1 along the experiment. However, differences in the metabolism of organic compounds were observed at t<sub>11m</sub>, the metabolic activity being higher in the bulk than in the rhizospheric material. Whereas root exudates should feed the heterotrophic microbes (Navarro-Noya et al., 2010), here, not the organic substrate availability but other type of limitation of microbial activity might be linked to rhizospheric processes. In particular, phosphate might be depleted in the root vicinity, because of uptake by plants. In a context of low phosphate bioavailability linked to low solubility of Pb phosphate, competition between plants and microbes for this essential nutrient might occur.

Concerning fungi, about 90 species of *Mortierella* are known mainly from soil, the rhizosphere, and plant or animal remains in contact with soil (Domsch et al., 1980). Members of *Mortierella* (phylum Zygomycota) are rapidly growing organisms which have been suggested to be saprobes in forest ecosystems (Heitefuss, 2011) and that are important decomposers in soil. The genus *Mortierella* also comprises highly chitinolytic fungi. Due to their potentially endophytic trophic lifestyle, *Mortierella* may be tracking changes in nutrients driven by vegetation turnover (Veach et al., 2017). It is therefore not surprising that this fungal genus was found in the initial tailings that were surrounded by a forest. The adaptive capacities and oligotrophic lifestyle allowed these fungi to be present throughout the experiment. *Talaromyces* are saprotrophic Ascomyceta which contribute to the spoilage of dead or decaying organic material. They are notoriously tolerant to extreme conditions. *Talaromyces* species are commonly distributed in a wide range of substrates, mostly in soil. In an As-contaminated mine soil, Nam et al. (2019) showed that a fungal strain hyper-tolerant to arsenic of *Talaromyces* sp. efficiently removed As from aqueous medium (>70%) with significant improvement by the surface modification of the

fungi with Fe(III) (hydr)oxides. Thus, the hypothesis of a contribution of fungal biomass to the removal of As and/or metals from the pore water of our system cannot be excluded, as our SEM-EDS observations suggested the presence of Fe and Pb at the surface of fungal hyphae. *Pisolithus* is a genus of fungi within the family *Sclerodermataceae*. It is an ectomycorrhizal (ECM) *Gasteromycetes* able to realize symbiosis with various trees (Cairney et al., 2013). We found this genus in Lv1 t<sub>0m</sub>, in the amended level, but also in Lv4 at t<sub>0m</sub>, thus it was not exclusively present in the amendments. This genus was detected in different levels and at different times thereafter. The spores of this ectomycorrhizal fungus were probably initially present in the tailings and were maintained throughout the experiment thanks to their great resistance.

## 5 Conclusion

The first objective of phytostabilization is the decrease of pollutants spreading through surface water runoff and wind erosion. However, the modification of the transfer of metals and metalloids linked with infiltration processes may have important implications in terms of impact on downstream groundwater quality or mine drainage. Here, the phytostabilization technology was examined not only in the surface zones but also from the perspective of the evolution of underlying compartments. The metallicolous *A. capillaris* grew and efficiently trapped tailing particles in its root system. The most mobile pollutant, i.e. lead, was actually stabilized in the surface tailings layer. Beyond these phenomena previously reported for planted tailing systems, our pilot experiment revealed some phenomena occurring in the underlying zones, following the amendment/seeding event, such as a transient increase of the pore water concentrations in Pb, Zn, and Ba. Geochemical data acquired at this laboratory pilot scale will find application in the development of numerical model, helpful to foresee the future evolution of pollutant fluxes in the waste heap. Meanwhile, the phytomanagement process strongly influenced the microbial diversity and metabolic activity in the surface layer but less intensely in the deeper ones. The

main parameters influencing bacterial communities' structure, namely pH and water saturation could be easily related to amendment in the surface compartment, and to the experimental simulation of a groundwater zone. The evolution of fungal community and their potential influence on metalloids and metals dynamics would deserve deeper investigation. Thus, the overall influence of a phytomanagement strategy should be considered and evaluated not only in the surface compartments, but also considering the potential diffusion of phytostabilization-related substances that could influence both abiotic phenomena and microbial processes, toward underlying non-saturated and saturated zones of the mining site.

## **CRediT** author statement

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