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17 Abstract

A historic waste-rock stockpile (WRS) at the Detour Lake Mine (DLM), covered with a thin 18 layer (< 1 m) of local overburden, was studied to determine the potential for microbially-19 mediated generation of acid rock drainage (ARD). The sulfur content of the waste rock ranged 20 from 0 - 2.2 wt. %, with pyrite and pyrrhotite identified as the principal sulfide minerals. Acidity 21 released through sulfide oxidation in the WRS has been neutralized through carbonate mineral 22 dissolution, and has resulted in the generation of neutral mine drainage (pH 6-8). However, the 23 WRS is heterogeneous, and localized water samples collected from discrete zones within the 24 stockpile were more highly oxidized and acidic (*i.e.*, $pH \ge 2.5$). Enumerations of acidophilic 25 sulfur- (aSOM) and iron-oxidizing microorganisms (aIOM) were performed, yielding mean 26 abundances of 1.2×10^3 and 9.0×10^5 cells g⁻¹, respectively. The mean abundance of 27 neutrophilic sulfur-oxidizing microorganisms (nSOM) was 5.5×10^5 cells g⁻¹. Fungi and bacteria 28 present in the waste rock were identified using high-throughput amplicon sequencing of 18S and 29 16S rRNA genes, respectively. Sequencing confirmed the presence of *Thiobacillus* and 30 Acidithiobacillus species. Bacterial diversity was greatest in samples from the cover material. 31 Unoxidized waste rock samples were characterized by neutrophilic iron- or sulfur-oxidizing 32 33 genera (i.e., Thiobacillus), whereas samples collected from oxidized and acidic zones in the WRS showed greater abundances of acidophilic taxa (i.e., Acidithiobacillus). None of the fungal 34 genera identified in this study have been shown to oxidize sulfide minerals directly, other than 35 indirectly through creation of a suitable environment for the prokaryotes involved in the 36 37 processes. Although installation of a simple, non-engineered cover is anticipated to have slowed 38 the generation of ARD, evidence of ongoing sulfide oxidation within the covered WRS was observed. High abundances and activities of sulfur- and iron-oxidizing microorganisms indicate 39 40 that the soil cover has not prevented the growth of microorganisms that catalyze sulfide-mineral oxidation. 41

42

Keywords: waste rock, mine waste, soil cover, sulfur-oxidizing microorganisms, iron-oxidizing
microorganisms, cell enumerations, high-throughput sequencing.

45 **1. Introduction**

The environmental challenges associated with mining activities are well understood. The 46 production and storage of mine-waste materials (*i.e.*, mill tailings and waste rock) can result in 47 the release of contaminants to surface water and groundwater. Waste rock consists of host rock 48 or overburden material that is uneconomical to process, and comprises the primary waste stream 49 at most open-pit mining operations. Sulfide-bearing waste rock is retained on mine sites in 50 waste-rock stockpiles. After deposition, sulfide minerals present in the waste rock are often 51 subjected to oxidation via direct or indirect mechanisms, with the oxidant being atmospheric O_2 52 or Fe³⁺, respectively (Nordstrom and Alpers, 1999). Under circumneutral pH conditions, direct 53 oxidation of sulfide minerals generates acid and liberates metal(loid)s (Blowes et al., 2003). The 54 liberated Fe²⁺ is oxidized under acidic conditions, and the Fe³⁺ contributes to continued sulfide 55 oxidation. Under low pH conditions, Fe³⁺ likely overtakes dissolved O₂ as the primary oxidant 56 (Moses et al., 1987). 57

The rate of oxidative dissolution of sulfide minerals exposed to oxygen and water can be greatly
enhanced by microbial catalysis. A range of lithoautotrophic microorganisms impact the rate of

60 sulfide and iron oxidation. Among the many bacterial species capable of catalyzing dissimilatory

 Fe^{2+} oxidation, which is the rate limiting step in sulfide oxidation (Williamson and Rimstidt,

62 1994), the Acidithiobacillus, Acidimicrobium, Alicyclobacillus, Leptospirillum, and Sulfobacillus

63 spp. are most commonly found in mine-waste environments, such as waste-rock stockpiles or

tailings impoundments (Schippers *et al.*, 2010). Sulfur-oxidizing bacteria may oxidize sulfide

65 minerals directly (Nordstrom and Southam, 1997), or may contribute indirectly *via* the oxidation

of sulfur intermediates (such as H_2S , $S_2O_3^{2-}$, $S_3O_6^{2-}$ and $S_4O_6^{2-}$; Baker and Banfield, 2003).

67 Thiobacillus (T.) thioparus is a neutrophilic sulfur-oxidizing microorganism (nSOM; Kuenen et

al., 1992; Gould *et al.*, 1994). Many acidophilic iron oxidizers also facilitate sulfur oxidation

69 under low pH (Dopson and Johnson, 2012), such as *Sulfobacillus* and some of the

70 Acidithiobacillus spp. (e.g., Acidithiobacillus (At.) ferrooxidans, At. ferridurans); other species

oxidize sulfur but not iron (*e.g.*, *At. caldus*, *At. thiooxidans*). Common acidophilic iron-oxidizing

72 (aIOM) and sulfur-oxidizing microorganisms (aSOM) have been cultured in low numbers from

73 mine-waste environments characterized by neutral mine drainage (Southam and Beveridge,

74 1992; Blowes *et al.*, 1998; Lindsay *et al.*, 2009).

Although the role of prokaryotic catalysis in sulfide oxidation and ARD generation is well 75 76 established, there is a relative scarcity of studies which incorporates the eukaryotic ecology of 77 mine wastes. Eukaryotes are generally more sensitive to acidity and metals than prokaryotes, and are typically found in lower abundances in mine-waste environments. However, eukaryotic 78 microorganisms, including algae, amoeba, rotifers, fungi, and yeast, inhabit ARD-impacted sites. 79 The diversity and important role of eukaryotes in acidic environments have been reviewed by 80 Aguilera et al. (2016). Algae and protozoa have received more attention than fungi and yeast, 81 82 although acid-tolerant fungi have long been identified to play important roles in ARD-impacted environments by forming biofilms on the surface of lithic fragments; these biofilms provide a 83 suitable environment, or act as adsorption agents, for the prokaryotes involved in sulfide mineral 84 oxidation. Gross and Robbins (2000) reviewed morphological and chemical characteristics of 85 86 acidophilic and acid-tolerant fungi and yeast. Burford et al. (2003) reviewed the contribution of fungi to mineral weathering and contaminant sequestration through secondary mineral 87 88 precipitation and/or bioaccumulation. A number of fungal genera have been noted for their ability to solubilize silicates and liberate contaminants, including iron (Burford et al., 2003). 89

90 ARD derived from sulfide-bearing WRSs is typically characterized by low pH, elevated 91 concentrations of sulfate, and dissolved metal(loid)s (Akcil and Koldas, 2006; Blowes et al., 92 2014). The acidic pH can be neutralized via dissolution of carbonates, Al- and Fe(III)-hydroxide 93 phases, and aluminosilicate minerals, leading to neutral mine drainage. The large volumes of waste rock typically generated at open-pit mines, combined with the potential for ARD 94 95 generation, highlight the necessity for appropriate management strategies to minimize sulfide oxidation in waste rock. The environmental liability and economic cost associated with ARD and 96 waste-rock storage are significant. Recent integrated studies investigating the hydrogeological, 97 98 geochemical, mineralogical, microbiological, and physical controls of sulfide oxidation and metal leaching (e.g., Wilson et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2013; Beckie et al., 2011; Andrina et al., 99 2006) have evaluated field-scale and multi-scale investigations of WRS behaviour to provide a 100 101 framework for prediction, mitigation, and management of ARD.

102 Detour Lake Mine (DLM) is located approximately 185 kilometers northeast of Cochrane (ON,

103 Canada). DLM is situated on the Detour Lake property, which occupies an area of approximately

104 646 km². Reports on local geology and lithology at the Detour Lake deposit have been published

- previously (AMEC Earth & Environmental, 2010a,b; Robertson *et al.*, 2012; Oliver *et al.*, 2012).
- 106 The overburden consists of glacial tills and glaciofluvial materials (depth 0 to 40 m; AMEC
- 107 Earth & Environmental, 2010a). The bedrock is part of the Abitibi Greenstone Belt (the Superior
- 108 Province of the Canadian Shield), and consists of volcanic massive and pillow basalts with shear
- 109 zones associating hydrothermal alteration with mineralization (AMEC Earth & Environmental,
- 110 2010b; Robertson *et al.*, 2012). The waste rock is comprised predominantly of plagioclase and
- 111 horneblende, with lesser amounts of clinochlore, vermiculite, biotite, and quartz. Variable
- 112 quantities of sulfides (*i.e.*, primarily pyrrhotite, with accessory pyrite and chalcopyrite) and
- 113 carbonates (*i.e.*, calcite, dolomite) are present throughout the piles (Oliver *et al.*, 2012; Robertson
- *et al.*, 2012; McNeill, 2016). The Detour Lake deposit contains 17.3 million ounces of Au,
- hosted within 445.9 million tonnes (Mt) of rock (Oliver *et al.*, 2012).
- 116 The original mine DLM was operated by Placer Dome Inc. from 1983 to 1999, and generated
- several Mt of waste rock which was placed in five stockpiles (WRS1-5; Fig. 1), each covering
- several hectares at a thickness of 15-20 m. Previous operations also generated approximately 10
- 119 Mt of tailings, which are contained in a tailings storage facility. Mine reclamation activities
- 120 conducted by the former operator in 2000 included covering the WRSs with ~1 m of locally-
- 121 derived soil. The covers are, however, thinner in most areas, and often discontinuous. Lower
- permeability (*i.e.*, fine grained) material is often used to cover waste dumps to reduce air
- permeability and O₂ fluxes into the waste dumps (Yanful *et al.*, 1993; Swanson *et al.*, 2003). In
- 124 2006, the site was reassessed and has subsequently been redeveloped by Detour Gold
- 125 Corporation. Production for the new open pit at DLM resumed in early 2013.



Fig. 1. Site diagram of the Detour Lake Gold Mine showing the location of historic waste-rock
stockpiles (WRSs) and future mine-rock stockpiles (MRSs), the extent of planned excavations,
production facilities and tailings storage facilities (TSFs). Site image current as of 2015.

130 Two of the waste-rock stockpiles from the previous operations (WRS1 and WRS2; Fig. 1) were relocated into a mine-rock stockpile (MRS), which contains waste rock from current operations. 131 Excavation and relocation of waste rock from WRS1 occurred from late 2011 to mid-2012. The 132 133 WRS relocation provided a rare opportunity to sample the interior of a weathered WRS through a joint research program involving personnel from the University of Waterloo and University of 134 Alberta (Steinepreis et al., 2018; Steinepreis, 2017; McNeill, 2016; Cash, 2014, Cash et al., 135 2014). The objective of the research initiative was to assess the extent and controls of sulfide 136 oxidation by describing the physical structure of the weathered WRS, and the waste-rock 137 hydrogeology, geochemistry, mineralogy, and microbiology. Microbiological data can be used to 138 139 inform rates of sulfide oxidation and predictions of water quality, and to evaluate the efficacy of remediation efforts. Consolidated findings of the research program will assist in developing 140 long-term predictions of drainage-water quality, and can be used to inform mine-waste 141 management scenarios, including closure-cover designs. 142

Although generally low seepage volumes and low concentrations of metals have been observed 143 at DLM (Robertson et al., 2012), zones of highly-weathered waste rock were observed 144 throughout the WRSs, indicating that sulfide oxidation had occurred prior to placement of the 145 soil cover, or beneath the cover following installation (McNeill, 2016; Cash, 2014; Cash et al., 146 2014). The current study focuses on the microbiology of a historic waste-rock stockpile (WRS1 147 in Fig. 1), and the role of microorganisms in the release, transport, and attenuation of acidity and 148 dissolved metals at the DLM. Detailed geological and mineralogical characterization was outside 149 150 of the scope of this study; however, concise description of the DLM waste rock is included. Detailed compositional and structural characteristics of the stockpiles at DLM have been 151 reported previously (Steinepreis et al., 2018; Steinepreis, 2017; McNeill, 2016; Cash, 2014, Cash 152 et al., 2014; Oliver, 2012). This study is part of a broader initiative, the overall objective of 153 154 which is to improve waste-rock management practices by providing a better understanding of the physical, chemical, and microbiological processes which govern pore-water geochemistry in 155 156 sulfide-bearing waste rock.

157 **2.** Materials and methods

158 **2.1.** Microbiological analyses

Microbiological analyses were performed on waste rock and overburden samples recovered fromtwo depths at 12 separate sample sites in WRS1 in July of 2013 (Fig. 2, Table 1).



Fig. 2. Approximate locations of samples used for microbiological analysis at WRS1. Photo
taken in July, 2013 (inset modified from Google Maps, 2015).

164 An excavator was used to dig approximately 1.0 m into the exposed flank of the stockpile to access 165 waste rock. Waste-rock material was retrieved from the upper flank of the 25 m tall stockpile at sites 1 to 6 at the base of the stockpile (samples D, Table 1) and 10 m below the crest of the pile 166 167 (samples M, Table 1) at each site. Samples were collected at sites 7 and 8 from the edge of the stockpile approximately 10 m above the base of the pile (samples M), and were comprised of more 168 fine-grained material. At sites 7 and 8, samples were collected from adjacent zones of oxidized, 169 orange material (denoted by an asterisk in Table 1) and light grey, unoxidized material. Sites 9 to 170 171 12 were located in a covered section of the WRS, beneath an intact soil cover; samples of the cover material (< 1 m depth; samples C) and of the underlying waste rock (1 - 2 m depth, samples S)172 173 were collected.

174**Table 1.** Qualitative depth designation of WRS1 samples used for microbiological analyses. Due175to spatial variations within the stockpile, stated depths are indicative. Legend: S = shallow, M =176mid, D = deep depths, and C = cover. Oxidized or partially oxidized samples are denoted by an177asterisk.

Group	Depth (m)	Sample ID
Cover	< 1	9C, 10C, 11C, 12C
Shallow	1 - 2	9S*, 10S*, 11S*, 12S*
Mid	~ 10	1M, 2M*, 3M, 4M, 5M, 6M, 7M-1, 7M-2*, 8M-1, 8M-2*
Deep	~ 20 - 25	1D, 2D, 3D, 4D, 5D, 6D

178

Fine-grained waste rock (< 2 mm) and soil were retained in sterile 250 mL glass containers. The
samples were kept at 4 °C for enumerations of aIOM, aSOM, and nSOM, and were frozen at -20
°C for subsequent DNA extraction. The most probable number enumeration technique (MPN;
Cochran, 1950; Garthright and Blodgett, 2003) was used to enumerate metabolically-active
microorganisms, following the methods described by Blowes *et al.* (1995), and modified by
Hulshof *et al.* (2006). Briefly, aIOM were incubated at laboratory temperature (~23 °C) for 4
weeks in a pH 2.3 medium (containing 33.4 g L⁻¹ FeSO4·7H2O) described by Tuovinen and Kelly

186 (1973); the development of a rusty color in the medium indicated a positive result. A second

187 medium containing 5 g L⁻¹ Na₂S₂O₃·5H₂O, (ATCC medium 23; Gherna *et al.*, 1989) was used to

grow nSOM and aSOM, adjusted to final pH values of 7.0 and 4.2, respectively; positive results

189 were indicated by a decrease of 0.2 pH units at the end of the 4-week incubation period at

190 laboratory temperature.

191 DNA for high-throughput amplicon sequencing was isolated using a PowerSoil DNA Extraction 192 Kit (Qiagen, formerly MoBio Laboratories, Carlsbad, California). DNA yields were determined 193 by nano-drop spectrophotometer, and ranged from 2.2 to 15 ng μ L⁻¹. PCR amplification (using 194 515F/806R primers for 18S rRNA, and 530F/1100R for 16S rRNA genes) and pyrosequencing 195 (using a proprietary barcoded amplicon sequencing process under the trademark bTEFAP; Dowd 196 *et al.*, 2008) were performed by MR DNA (Shallowater, Texas).

197

2.2. Solid-phase geochemistry and mineralogy

Waste-rock samples for mineralogical and geochemical analyses were recovered from test pits
excavated from the surface of WRS1 in July and August of 2011 (Cash *et al.*, 2014; Cash, 2014).
The locations of 13 test pits were spaced to ensure that representative areas of WRS1 were
sampled. A total of 38 samples (Table 2) were collected, and stored at 4 °C before analysis.

202 Vertical profile samples were also collected from the excavated face of the stockpile (Cash *et al.*,

203 2014; Cash, 2014); 21 samples (depths not recorded) from 11 locations on WRS1 were

recovered in June 2012.

Table 2. Samples recovered from test pits excavated from the surface of WRS1 used for

206 geochemical and mineralogical characterization. Legend: C = cover, WR = waste rock, S = sand.

Sample	Material	Mean depth (m)	Sample	Material	Mean depth (m)
S1-S3	С	0.25	S8-S3	WR	2.775
S1-S2	WR	1.5	S9-S1	WR	1.35
S1-S1	WR	3.625	S9-S2	WR	1.35
S2-S3	WR	0.65	S9-S3	WR	2.85
S2-S2	WR	2.6	S10-S1	С	0.15
S2-S1	WR	2.6	S10-S2	S	1.425
S3-S2	WR	2.2	S10-S3	WR	0.975
S3-S1	WR	2.2	S11-S1	С	0.15

S4-S1	С	0.175	S11-S2	WR	1.2
S4-S2	WR	1.5	S11-S3	WR	1.2
S4-S3	WR	3.35	S11-S4	WR	2.725
S5-S1	С	0.15	S14-S1	С	0.25
S5-S2	WR	1.275	S14-S2	WR	1.2
S5-S3	WR	3.125	S14-S3	WR	2.725
S6-S1	С	0.15	S15-S1	WR	1.375
S6-S2	WR	2	S15-S2	WR	2.75
S6-S3	WR	3.5	S17-S1	WR	1.65
S8-S1	С	0.275	S17-S2	WR	1.65
S8-S2	WR	0.85	S17-S3	WR	3.4

207

Test pit and vertical profile samples were analyzed for total carbon and total sulfur content using 208 209 an ELTRA CS-2000 carbon/sulfur analyzer, and paste-pH determinations were conducted according to ASTM standard D4972 (2007). The elemental composition of the samples was 210 determined by energy dispersive X-ray fluorescence (ED-XRF) using a Panalytical Minipal 4 211 desktop ED-XRF analyzer. Mineral composition was studied using X-ray diffraction (XRD; 212 using a PAN analytical Model Empyrean II diffractometer with a copper anode ($\lambda = 1.543$ Å)), 213 optical microscopy (Nikon Eclipse LV100N-POL polarizing microscope with epi-illumination 214 215 attachment), and scanning electron microscopy with energy dispersive spectroscopy (SEM-EDS). Acid-base accounting (ABA) was performed using a modified Sobek method, which 216 217 determined acid-producing potential (APP) using the total-S content and neutralizing potential 218 (NP) using the total-C carbonate mineral content (Skousen et al., 2002; Brady and Cravotta, 219 1992). The total-S in the samples was assumed to be sulfide minerals, and total-C was assumed 220 to be carbonate minerals. Previously-established, site specific criteria were used to classify any 221 waste material with neutralization potential ratio (NPR) < 1.5 as potentially acid generating 222 (PAG) material. Waste rock with NRP > 1.5 was considered non-acid generating.

3. Results

3.1. Mineralogical and geochemical characterization of a deconstructed historic WRS

The whole-rock composition of WRS1 samples (Table 3) was consistent with the local host rock

227 composition. Silica was the single largest component in the waste rock (average mass fraction =

56 %), with SiO₂ and various metal oxides (*i.e.*, Al₂O₃, CaO, Fe₂O₃, K₂O, MgO, MnO, Na₂O)

- accounting for > 99 wt. % of the samples. Trace metals cumulatively accounted for < 1 wt. % of
- the sample in most cases. The cover material, which was analyzed only at WRS3 by McNeill
- 231 (2016), contained elevated concentrations of K and Na, slightly higher concentrations of SiO₂

(63 wt. %), and was generally deficient in Fe, S, and trace metals. The principal sulfide minerals

identified at WRS1 were pyrite and pyrrhotite, with lesser amounts of chalcopyrite and covellite.

Variable quantities (mostly < 5%) of sulfides (*i.e.*, pyrite, pyrrhotite) and carbonates (*i.e.*, calcite,

235 dolomite) were present throughout the pile.

Table 3. Solid-phase mineralogy and concentrations of trace elements for WRS1 samples.

237 Minimum, maximum, and (mean) values are shown for each parameter.

Parameter	Test pits	Profile excavation
SiO ₂ (wt. %)	33 - 65 (56)	49 - 60 (55)
MgO (wt. %)	2 - 25 (9)	7 – 25 (17)
Fe_2O_3 (wt. %)	2-16 (10)	9 – 13 (11)
Al ₂ O ₃ (wt. %)	2 – 11 (9)	7 – 11 (9)
CaO (wt. %)	3 – 11 (6)	4 – 8 (6)
Na ₂ O (wt. %)	0 - 3.1 (1.5)	0 - 2.1 (1)
K ₂ O (wt. %)	0.3 - 2.1 (1.1)	0.2 - 1.1 (0.7)
MnO (wt. %)	0 - 0.2 (0.1)	0.1 - 0.1 (0.1)
Cr (ppm)	112 – 1780 (592)	280 – 1977 (1143)
Cu (ppm)	52 - 1642 (480)	141 – 782 (391)
Ni (ppm)	23 - 504 (144)	104 - 688 (372)
Zn (ppm)	21 – 125 (71)	54 - 99 (80)
Pb (ppm)	1 – 13 (9)	7 – 10 (9)

Characterization of the stockpile material (Table 4) indicated that the S content ranged from 0.05 239 -2.2 wt. % (*i.e.*, acid production potential (APP) of 1.4 - 69.3 kg CaCO₃ tonne⁻¹) with an 240 average of 0.9 wt. % (*i.e.*, APP = $30.4 \text{ kg CaCO}_3 \text{ tonne}^{-1}$). Total carbon content, assumed to be 241 present as carbonate, ranged from 0.03 - 1.3 wt. %, with a mean of 0.4 wt. %. Neutralization 242 potential (NP), assuming all carbon was present as carbonate, ranged from 0.3 – 111 kg CaCO₃ 243 tonne⁻¹ and averaged 39.1 kg CaCO₃ tonne⁻¹. The NPR of samples ranged from 0.04 - 42. Test-244 pit samples were largely comprised of the cover material; greater NPR values were measured in 245 246 the test-pit samples relative to profile excavation samples. Mean test pit NPR values were 8.1, whereas the mean of the profile excavation samples were lower with a value of 1.6 (Table 4). 247 The NPR values indicated that approximately 62% of samples were considered PAG based on 248 the NPR cut off value of 1.5. Acid-base accounting results were consistent with the results of 249 250 paste-pH analyses that were conducted on the samples. The paste pH measurements were generally circum-neutral (i.e., 6 to 8), with oxidized or partially oxidized samples (as indicated 251 252 by red colouration) typically characterized by lower paste pH (*i.e.*, ≥ 2.5).

Table 4. Sulfur and carbon concentrations, and ABA results for WRS1 samples. Minimum,
maximum, and (mean) values are shown for each parameter. Legend: APP = acid production
potential; NNP = net neutralization potential; NP = neutralization potential; NPR = neutralization
potential ratio.

Parameter	Test pits	Profile excavation
C (wt. %)	0.03 - 1.3 (0.4)	0.005 - 1.3 (0.4)
S (wt. %)	0.05 - 2.2 (0.8)	0.5 - 1.6 (1)
NP (kg CaCO ₃ tonne ⁻¹)	2.4 - 108 (34)	0.3 - 111 (39.1)
APP (kg CaCO ₃ tonne ⁻¹)	1.4 - 69 (26.6)	16.1 - 51 (31.5)
NNP (NNP=NP-APP)	-49.9 - 105 (7.3)	-37.5 - 94 (7.5)
NPR (NPR=NP/APP)	0.04 - 42 (8.1)	0 - 6.8 (1.6)

257

258

3.2. Microbiological characterization of a deconstructed historic WRS

Measurements of carbon and sulfur were conducted on samples for microbiological characterization to ensure that the samples contained carbon and sulfur contents that were representative of the bulk sample set. Carbon and sulfur contents of the microbiological samples ranged from 0.1 to 1.3 wt. % (mean = 0.6 wt. %) and 0.1 to 2.4 wt. % (mean = 1.0 wt. %),





Fig. 3. Most probable number (MPN) counts of (••) neutrophilic sulfur-oxidizing (nSOM), (••)
acidophilic sulfur-oxidizing (aSOM), and (••) acidophilic iron-oxidizing microorganisms
(aIOM), compared to (••) pH, (••) solid-phase carbon and (••) sulfur contents. Legend:

- unfilled symbols indicate samples recovered from highly oxidized zones (based on sample
 colour). Stated depths are indicative, due to spatial variations within WRS1.
- 283 The microbiology samples from WRS1 were characterized by a high diversity of species. 23
- genera (Supplementary Table S1) accounted for a significant (>1%) contribution of genetic
- material in at least one sample. Only two genera, both of which are sulfur oxidizers, accounted
- for > 5% of genetic material cumulatively across the data set. *Thiobacillus* was the most
- significant genus, providing 12% of the total reads among all samples. *Acidithiobacillus*
- contributed to 7% of the total bacterial amplicons. Several of the most represented genera were
- common soil microbes regularly found in waste-rock stockpiles (e.g., Arthrobacter,
- 290 Sphingomonas or Dokdonella; Eschbach et al., 2003, Schippers et al., 2010). The acidophilic
- iron oxidizer *Leptospirillum* and heterotrophic *Pseudomonas*, which also catalyzes Fe^{2+}
- oxidation, are often encountered in waste-rock environments (Schippers et al., 2010), and
- accounted for ~ 3% of total reads in the WRS1 samples. The remaining main genera were
- assorted soil microorganisms, and accounted for < 3% of the total reads.



295

Fig. 4. Bacterial ecology of pH 2-3, pH 3-5, pH 5-6, pH > 6 waste-rock samples, and samples of
the cover materials, collected from WRS1 at the Detour Lake Mine, determined by high-

throughput amplicon sequencing of the 16S rRNA gene. Legend: aSOM/aIOM = acidophilic

sulfur and iron oxidizers (plotted in red); aIOM = acidophilic iron oxidizers (in brown); aSOM =
acidophilic sulfur oxidizers (in yellow); nSOM = neutrophilic sulfur oxidizers (in blue); nIOM =
neutrophilic iron oxidizers (in dark blue); SRM = sulfur and sulfate reducers, and IRM = iron
reducers (both in pink); nitrogen oxidizers (in black); common soil bacteria (in green). The
genera which do not belong in the previous categories have been grouped together, and are
plotted in grey. Genera with highest relative abundances within aSOM/aIOM, aIOM, aSOM, and
nSOM are highlighted. Labels are shown only for relative abundances > 1%.

306 The bacterial taxonomy of the samples (Fig. 4) fell into three general categories correlated to the spatial origin and paste pH of the samples. The first category was comprised of the soil samples 307 308 recovered from the cover material. The bacterial taxonomy of the cover samples was typical of most soils, and consisted of a large diversity of non-dominant organisms (*i.e.*, comprising < 10% 309 310 of total amplicons), with very little relative contribution of iron- and sulfur-oxidizing genera. The 311 second category was comprised of waste-rock samples collected from unoxidized zones in the 312 stockpile; samples collected from these locations were characterized by a high diversity of organisms, including significant populations of both acidophilic and neutrophilic SOM and IOM. 313 314 The third category was comprised of waste-rock samples collected from oxidized zones in the stockpile; these samples were distinguishable from the cover samples by higher proportions of 315 316 Thiobacillus and Acidithiobacillus. The microbial communities in the unoxidized zones were 317 dominated by Acidithiobacillus, compared to Thiobacillus in oxidized zones. Figure 3 illustrates these trends by showing the bacterial taxonomy of the samples recovered from WRS1 based on 318 the pH levels. 319

320 The majority of fungal DNA amplicons in each sample was contributed by genera which

accounted for < 1% of total reads. The second largest contributor of DNA was from fungal

species which have yet to be classified into appropriate genera (10% of total reads). *Pycnopeziza*

323 (9.2%), *Leptosphaeria* (6.1%), *Tetracladium* (5.8%), *Cucurbitaria* (5.3%), *Sclerotinia* (4.7%),

324 *Chaetomium* (4.4%), *Chytridiomycota* (3.6%), and *Anguillospora* (3.2%) were among the most

dominant genera at WRS1; each of these genera accounted for > 10% of total amplicons in

326 several samples.

327 **4. Discussion**

Zones of highly weathered waste rock were detected throughout the WRSs at DLM (Cash, 2014;

329 McNeill, 2016). The degree of oxidation of the waste rock within test pits and profiles

investigated at the WRSs was highly variable, and oxidation was observed more frequently and

to a greater extent on WRS1 compared to WRS2 (Cash, 2014). A majority of waste-rock samples

recovered from the historic WRSs had a circum-neutral paste pH of 6-8, and approximately 20%

of the samples had a paste pH 2.5-4. Cover samples were of neutral pH (Cash, 2014; Cash *et al.*,

334 2014).

335 Waste-rock stockpiles are generally highly heterogeneous and anisotropic, and samples collected

from the historic WRSs at DLM were heterogeneous with respect to grain size, texture, extent of

oxidation, and abundance of sulfide minerals (Cash, 2014). In contrast, the overall microbial

diversity in WRS1 (investigated on the family level; data not shown) was relatively

homogeneous across the samples analyzed, although a clear division was observed between

samples of waste rock versus samples of cover material. The major difference between the two

sample groups was a significantly greater abundance (P > 0.05) of the family

342 Hydrogenophilaceae, which contains solely thermophilic species, in the waste-rock samples. The

sums of relative abundances of sulfur and iron oxidizers, determined by high-throughput

amplicon sequencing, negatively correlated with paste pH, and accounted for 38.7%, 33.2%,

22.5%, and 21.8% in samples with paste pH values of 2-3, 3-5, 5-6, and > 6, respectively.

346 Abundances of acidophilic sulfur- and iron-oxidizing genera increased with decreasing paste pH,

except in samples with paste pH values of 2-3, wherein the ratio of neutrophilic and acidophilic

348 genera was approximately 1:1, due to a great abundance of the neutrophilic *Thiobacillus* spp.).

As expected, generally low IOM/SOM abundance (*i.e.*, 2.5% of total amplicons) was detected in the cover.

351 High-throughput amplicon sequencing has been used in other studies to investigate microbial

352 communities in mine-waste environments; however, most reports focused on mill tailings (e.g.,

Liu *et al.*, 2014; Bruneel *et al.*, 2017), rather than on waste rock (Blackmore *et al.*, 2018). Many

354 reports which describe microbial populations in mill tailings identified the predominance of

355 typical leaching bacteria, such as Acidithiobacillus, Leptospirillum, Sulfobacillus, or

Ferroplasma, at abundances reaching tens of percent (*e.g.*, Liu *et al.*, 2014; Diaby *et al.*, 2015;

Kwon et al., 2015; Xiao et al., 2016; Bruneel et al., 2017); these findings are consistent with the 357 observations made through this study. The overall viable counts of IOM and SOM at WRS1 358 359 were within the range reported at similar sites. Schippers et al. (2010) reviewed microbiological studies of mine wastes from eight different countries, and reported maximum nSOM density 360 ranging from $< 10^2$ to $1.2 \ge 10^7$ bacteria g⁻¹, maximum IOM density ranging from 2.8 $\ge 10^2$ to 3.1 361 x 10^8 bacteria g⁻¹, and maximum aSOM densities ranging from 5.2 x 10^3 to 1.2 x 10^7 bacteria g⁻¹. 362 The maximum recorded abundance of both nSOM and IOM at WRS1 fell within the range 363 reported by Schippers *et al.* (2010), whereas the maximum counts of aSOM at WRS1 (4.0×10^3) 364 bacteria g⁻¹) was slightly lower than the range reported for other sites. The relative abundances of 365 nSOM, aSOM, and IOM at WRS1 were similar to the distribution of these bacteria at other 366 neutral-pH waste-rock sites. Dockrey (2014) evaluated the distribution of iron- and sulfur-367 368 oxidizing bacteria within waste-rock test piles at the Antamina Mine, Peru, and reported that T. *thioparus* (nSOM) was the dominant organism, with an abundance $> 10^6$ bacteria g⁻¹ throughout 369 the test piles. The low overall abundances of At. thiooxidans (aSOM; usually undetected, one 370 sample > 10^7 bacteria g⁻¹) and At. ferrooxidans (aSOM/aIOM; usually undetected, one sample > 371 10^6 bacteria g⁻¹) at the Antamina Mine was possibly due to the recent (*i.e.*, < 5 years) deposition 372 373 of the waste rock; extensive acidic microenvironments, in which the aSOM and aIOM may 374 thrive, had not yet been established due to the recent deposition of waste rock (Dockrey, 2014). The microbiology of WRS1 was also very similar to several neutral-pH tailings ponds in North 375 376 America. For example, greater relative DNA contribution of nSOM over aSOM observed in WRS1 was similar to the distribution and range of abundance for these species in tailings at the 377 378 Agnico Eagle Joutel Mine, QC, Canada (Blowes et al., 1998) and the Greens Creek Mine, AK, USA (Lindsay et al., 2009), where nSOM abundances were six and two orders of magnitude 379 380 larger than aSOM, respectively. IOM were overall more abundant at WRS1 than at most neutral-381 pH sites, although several studies have shown that aIOM are capable of living in neutral-pH conditions. IOM populations were generally larger in acidic samples at WRS1, as with other sites 382 (e.g., Southam and Beveridge, 1992; Dockrey, 2014; Blowes et al., 1998). 383

In agreement with the sequence data, MPN enumerations arranged in order of increasing paste

385 pH indicate a negative correlation between the densities of each of the three enumerated

386 microbial groups and paste pH. All of the enumerated species had higher population densities in

387 oxidized samples with paste pH < 5.5. Large variations in IOM (*i.e.*, 2-5 orders of magnitude),

and nSOM and aSOM (both groups 1-2 orders of magnitude) densities between samples with
similar paste pH values indicated that, although paste pH was not an absolute indicator for the
abundance of these species, a weak correlation with bacterial diversity was present.

391 Several genera of fungi were identified in the waste rock in WRS1, including Pycnopeziza, Leptosphaeria, Tetracladium, and Cucurbitaria. None of the fungal genera encountered were 392 393 ubiquitous or have been shown to impact pore-water geochemistry through sulfide oxidation. A member of the genus *Tetracladium* was observed as an early colonizer in a surface-water system 394 395 impacted by the catastrophic release of high-pH and metal-rich bauxite residue (Vass et al., 2013), indicating potential resistance within this genus to extremes in pH and metal 396 397 concentrations. Members of the genus Leptosphaeria are known to detoxify cyanide compounds to formamide using a cyanide hydratase enzyme (e.g., Sexton and Howlett, 2000). The use of 398 399 cyanide for gold extraction at the DLM may explain the presence of Leptosphaeria in the mine-400 waste environment at this site. Minimal information regarding the genera Pycnopeziza and Cucurbitaria in the context of sites impacted by extreme pH or metal concentrations exists in the 401 literature; the occurrence of these genera in mine-waste systems is not believed to have been 402 403 reported previously.

The presence and abundance of bacterial species involved in dissimilatory sulfur and iron 404 oxidation support the ongoing occurrence of microbially-catalyzed sulfide oxidation within the 405 406 covered WRS1. Previous studies have identified the establishment of acidic microenvironments and sulfide-mineral surfaces under bulk circum-neutral pH (e.g., Mielke et al., 2003; Dockrey et 407 408 al., 2014). Acidophilic iron- and sulfur-metabolizing species thrive in these low-pH microniches 409 and catalyze the biogeochemical redox cycling of iron and sulfur, with potential impacts on ARD 410 generation. Detection of sulfide minerals with varying levels of oxidation by McNeill (2016) are consistent with the microbiological observations presented in this study. Observations made by 411 412 McNeill (2016) emphasized the importance of a more comprehensive and intact cover system to 413 restrict air flow into WRS to minimize recharge of atmospheric O₂ and the generation of ARD.

Two additional WRS at the DLM were investigated, including one with an intact cover (WRS3),
and one with an incomplete cover (WRS4). WRS3 was characterized by decreasing pore-gas O₂
concentrations at depth below the cover material, whereas atmospheric O₂ concentrations were

- observed throughout the WRS4 (McNeill, 2016). Elevated sulfate concentrations in excess of 417 1,000 mg L⁻¹ were observed in WRS4 (Cash, 2016), indicating that substantial sulfide oxidation 418 419 has occurred. Numerical simulations, consistent with measurements of pore gas and pore pressure, indicated that the advective flux of O_2 through the intact cover and into the interior of 420 WRS3 was approximately 100 times higher than diffusive fluxes (Steinepreis et al., 2018; 421 422 Steinepreis, 2017). It is evident that the thin soil covers applied to WRS1 and WRS3 were not sufficient to completely mitigate sulfide oxidation, and may be explained by the existence of 423 424 defects (*i.e.*, cracks or thin areas) in the cover. Use of a thicker cover system comprised of lowpermeability material (*i.e.*, a clay-rich material) is anticipated to reduce the recharge of 425
- 426 atmospheric O₂, and the oxidation of sulfide minerals, within WRS1.

427 **5.** Conclusion

The biogeochemical evolution of waste-rock piles and the long-term potential for ARD 428 429 generation has received limited attention in the literature to date. The characterization of waste rock that was emplaced more than two decades prior to sampling activities conducted through 430 the present study indicate that sulfide oxidation is ongoing, as evidenced through the 431 development of zones characterized by acidic paste-pH values and increased abundance of 432 acidophilic taxa. Microbiological analyses indicated abundances of iron and sulfur oxidizers, and 433 confirmed the dominance of nSOB within the WRS. Oxidized and acidic waste-rock samples 434 were characterized by a community shift toward dominance of acidophilic taxa. The broader 435 research program, which integrated hydrogeological, geochemical, microbiological, and physical 436 characterization, demonstrated that the thin and/or discontinuous, monolayer soil covers used for 437 the WRS were not sufficient to completely inhibit sulfide oxidation, but limited the advective 438 439 transport of atmospheric oxygen into the WRS, thereby slowed acid generation. It is important to 440 note that, despite the presence of localized acid-generating conditions, WRS drainage was neutral overall. 441

442 Abbreviations

- 443 ABA acid-base accounting
- 444 aIOM acidophilic iron-oxidizing microorganisms
- 445 ARD acid rock drainage
- 446 APP acid production potential

447	a/nSOM	acidophilic/neutrophilic sulfur-oxidizing microorganisms
448	At.	Acidithiobacillus
449	bTEFAP	bacterial tag-encoded FLX amplicon pyrosequencing
450	DLM	Detour Lake Mine
451	ED-XRF	energy dispersive X-ray fluorescence
452	MPN	most probable number
453	MRS	mine-rock stockpile
454	NNP	net neutralization potential
455	NP	neutralization potential
456	NPR	neutralization potential ratio
457	PAG	potentially acid generating
458	SEM-EDS	scanning electron microscopy with energy dispersive spectroscopy
459	Т.	Thiobacillus
460	WRS	waste-rock stockpile
461	XRD	X-ray diffraction

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