

Microbial communities from weathered outcrops of a sulfide-rich ultramafic intrusion, and implications for mine waste management

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Abstract

The Duluth Complex (DC) contains sulfide-rich magmatic intrusions that represent one of the largest known economic deposits of copper, nickel, and platinum group elements. Previous work showed that microbial communities associated with experimentally-weathered DC waste rock and tailings were dominated by uncultivated taxa and organisms not typically associated with mine waste. However, those experiments were designed for kinetic testing and do not necessarily represent the conditions expected for long-term environmental weathering. We used 16S rRNA gene methods to characterize the microbial communities present on the surfaces of naturally-weathered and historically disturbed outcrops of DC material. Rock surfaces were dominated by diverse uncultured *Ktedonobacteria*, *Acetobacteria*, and *Actinobacteria*, with abundant algae and other phototrophs. These communities were distinct from microbial assemblages from experimentally-weathered DC rocks, suggesting different energy and nutrient resources in environmental samples. Sulfide mineral incubations performed with and without algae showed that photosynthetic microorganisms could have an inhibitory effect on autotrophic populations, resulting in slightly lower sulfate release and differences in dominant microorganisms. The microbial assemblages from these weathered outcrops show how communities develop during weathering of sulfide-rich DC rocks and represent baseline data that could evaluate the effectiveness of future reclamation of waste produced by large-scale mining operations.

INTRODUCTION

Microorganisms are important catalysts for sulfide mineral oxidation and dissolution in natural and engineered settings. Their role in generating acid rock drainage is frequently taken into account when examining the risks of proposed, current, and legacy mining activities (Baker & Banfield, 2003; Edwards et al., 1999; Nancuchoe & Johnson, 2011; Schippers et al., 1996; Schippers & Sand, 1999). Under extremely acidic

conditions (pH <4), iron- and sulfur-oxidizing microorganisms regenerate the oxidant Fe(III) and produce acids that accelerate the oxidation of metal sulfide minerals and intensify the production of acidic and metal-rich waste streams (Nordstrom et al., 2015; Schippers et al., 1996; Schippers & Sand, 1999). Understanding the importance of microbial processes in acidic, sulfide mineral-impacted systems has led to new strategies for mineral extraction, mine waste remediation, and prevention of acid rock drainage (Brune & Bayer, 2012;

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Dugan & Apel, 1983; Johnson, 2018; Onysko et al., 1984; Rawlings & Johnson, 2007; Rohwerder et al., 2003; Schippers & Sand, 1999; Vera et al., 2013).

The Duluth Complex, located in Northern Minnesota, USA, is a layered mafic intrusion that hosts some of the largest undeveloped Cu–Ni–PGE deposits in the world (Miller Jr. et al., 2002; Severson et al., 2002; Thériault et al., 2000). The relatively low total sulfide mineral content of these deposits and the buffering capacity of the host silicate minerals means that weathering of these rocks is not expected to produce extremely acidic conditions (Lapakko, 1988, 2015; Seal et al., 2015). Decades-long field and laboratory experiments that evaluated the acid-generation potential of experimentally-generated tailings and waste rock from Duluth Complex orebodies showed that only moderately acidic leachate was produced during weathering (pH 4–7), rarely reaching pH values below pH 4 (Lapakko & Antonson, 2012). Unlike highly acidic systems, the microbial role in sulfide mineral oxidation under mildly acidic to circumneutral conditions is not well understood, and until recently (Napieralski et al., 2022; Percak-Dennett et al., 2017), microorganisms were not thought to significantly accelerate the oxidation of the acid-insoluble sulfide pyrite (FeS_2) above pH 4 (Arkesteijn, 1980; Korehi et al., 2014; Nordstrom, 1982; Schippers, 2004; Schippers & Jørgensen, 2002). The microbial communities found in circumneutral sulfidic mine waste are not as well understood as those found in extremely acidic environments, and are often characterized by the abundance of sulfur-oxidizing rather than iron-oxidizing bacteria (Chen et al., 2013; Lindsay et al., 2009; Schippers et al., 1996), and frequently contain uncultivated taxa (Chen et al., 2013; Korehi et al., 2014; Mendez et al., 2008). Furthermore, the most abundant primary sulfide mineral in Duluth Complex deposits is pyrrhotite (Fe_{1-x}S , where $0 \leq x \leq 0.125$), for which biological oxidation rates have not been established as extensively as for pyrite, especially at high pH (e.g., Belzile et al., 2004).

Recent work on the microbiology of long-term laboratory and field-leaching experiments using waste rock and tailings from Duluth Complex materials showed that these experiments contained diverse microbial communities populated by organisms not typically associated with mine waste (Jones, Lapakko, et al., 2017). Microbial communities from these experiments included numerous 16S rRNA gene and transcript sequences from groups that are only known from environmental samples. Furthermore, the microbial communities sampled from these experiments were primarily composed of taxa associated with organoheterotrophic or sulfur-oxidizing metabolisms and had a conspicuous absence of known iron-oxidizing taxa that are typically implicated in sulfide mineral dissolution in

acidic environments. Specifically, operational taxonomic units (OTUs) belonging to unnamed clades in the *Chloroflexi* dominated the field rock piles, and an unclassified *Betaproteobacteria* OTU was abundant in most humidity cells. OTUs from known sulfur-oxidizing genera were common in both the field weathering and humidity cell tests, although different rock types and experimental treatments had different groups of abundant sulfur-oxidizing OTUs. In particular, an OTU classified as *Sulfuriferula* spp. was associated with pyrrhotite-rich waste (Jones, Lapakko, et al., 2017), and subsequently, a strain of *Sulfuriferula* was isolated from a humidity cell on autotrophic thiosulfate media that had genes for oxidizing diverse inorganic sulfur compounds (Jones, Roepke, et al., 2017).

However, these weathering experiments were performed in a controlled setting that is appropriate for kinetic testing but which might not necessarily completely simulate the conditions encountered in large-scale tailings and waste rock piles or leach pads (Lapakko, 2015; Maest & Nordstrom, 2017). Furthermore, once mine waste is stabilized by planting or reclaimed following mine closure, sulfide mineral-associated microbial communities are subjected to very different redox conditions and nutrient inputs through plant colonization and soil development. Therefore, we characterized microbial communities associated with naturally weathered and disturbed sulfide-bearing Duluth Complex rocks that are exposed in Northern Minnesota, including from a former blast pit where rocks were extracted in 1974 and that has since been reclaimed. We compare the microbial communities that developed on rock surfaces and in seeps and associated waters from these areas to communities described in earlier field and laboratory weathering experiments. We also observed abundant algae at the sites. In light of previous studies that show that organic inputs by algae can limit sulfide mineral oxidation (Bwapwa et al., 2017; Das et al., 2009; Gruzdev et al., 2020; Johnson, 2014; Rambabu et al., 2020), we compared how algal growth affected sulfide mineral oxidation in laboratory incubations with communities from the site.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Field samples

We collected weathered rock, sediment, and water samples from four locations in the South Kawishiwi Intrusion of the Duluth Complex (Severson, 1994): (i) roadside outcrops from the ‘Hammer Breaker’ site along Forest Rte. 429 (HB samples, 47.7839849° , -91.792356°); (ii) a roadside outcrop off St. Louis Co. Road 623 (DO samples, 47.6892822° , -91.892129°); (iii) outcrops from a heavily weathered Duluth Complex surface that had been covered with

glacial till until the 1940s (GG samples, 47.8311172°, –91.6779923°); and (iv) the reclaimed INCO pit (IB samples, 47.832392°, –91.67822°).

The 'INCO Pit' site contains a small seep directly discharging from the reclaimed test pit. Following reclamation in 1975, discharge was intermittently monitored by the Minnesota Environmental Quality Board and the US Forest Service for water chemistry to evaluate specific risks from this site and understand the weathering of Duluth Complex material more broadly (e.g., Minnesota Environmental Quality Board, 1977). Seep discharge was sampled and analysed for specific conductivity, alkalinity, turbidity, colour, sulfate concentration, and dissolved cations (Fe, Ca, Mg, K, Na, Ni, Cu, Cd, Pb, Zn, and Si) three times in 1975 and the spring of 1976 and was found to have a pH of 6.8–7.0, with conductivities between 628 and 711 µS/cm and sulfate concentrations between 250 and 270 mg/L (see Minnesota Environmental Quality Board, 1977, for complete data). Similarly, pH, specific conductivity, alkalinity, and the concentration of aqueous metals (Fe, Ni, Cu, Cd, Pb, and Zn) was measured in nearby Filson Creek both upstream and downstream of the bulk sample site six times in the spring and summer of 1976. In those years, pH did not change significantly between the two sample sites (the upstream site had an average pH of 5.8, while the downstream site had an average pH of 5.7), and a statistically significant increase in aqueous copper and nickel concentration was found downstream of the bulk sample site (Minnesota Environmental Quality Board, 1977). Water from the site was sampled again in 2010 by the US Forest Service, which found that the seep made a negligible contribution to sulfate and metal loading in Filson Creek (Butcher, 2010).

We collected weathered rock from all sites, and seep sediment and water samples from sites IB and GG. Sample sites are summarized in Table 1 and Figure 1, and in Figures S1, S2 in the supplementary information. Field sampling was performed on 6 January 2016 (DO samples) and 28 June 2018 (IB, GG, and HB samples). Weathered rock samples were collected using sterile metal spatulas to scrape 1–2 g of material from the rock surface into sterile Whirl-Pac sample bags and sterile 50 mL centrifuge tubes. Unconsolidated samples (sediment, biofilm, and gravel-sized or smaller rocks) were scooped with sterile spatulas into 15 or 50 mL centrifuge tubes. For all sites, samples for DNA extraction were immediately frozen on dry ice after collection, and subsequently stored at –80°C until analysis. Samples for water chemistry were filtered through a 0.2 µm polyethersulfone (PES) filter, and either preserved with 4 M HCl and frozen or immediately frozen. Water samples for sulfide concentration were filtered into 15 mL tubes containing pre-weighed 4 mL aliquots of 5% w/v zinc chloride. No dissolved sulfide was detectable using the Cline assay using Hach reagents (Cline, 1969) (#2244500, Hach, Loveland,

TABLE 1 Samples collected for this study.

Name	Site	Description
IB-2	INCO Pit	Sediment from a pH 6.42 seep
IB-4	INCO Pit	Algal biomass from stream below reclaimed test pit area
IB-5	INCO Pit	Weathered, poorly-consolidated Duluth Complex rock
IB-6	INCO Pit	Weathered, poorly-consolidated Duluth Complex rock
GG-1	Gravel Pit	Weathered, poorly-consolidated Duluth Complex rock
GG-2	Gravel Pit	Water and algal biomass from inside a drill hole in weathered (but consolidated) Duluth Complex rock
HB-1	Hammer Breaker	Weathered Duluth Complex rock
HB-2	Hammer Breaker	Weathered Duluth Complex rock
DO-1	Duluth Outcrop	Weathered Duluth Complex rock
DO-2	Duluth Outcrop	Weathered Duluth Complex rock
DO-3	Duluth Outcrop	Weathered Duluth Complex rock
DO-4	Duluth Outcrop	Weathered Duluth Complex rock

CO, USA). Anion concentrations (chloride, fluoride, bromide, nitrate, sulfate) in water samples collected simultaneous with biological samples were analysed using a Metrohm 930 Compact IC Flex ion chromatograph with a A Supp 5 column, 20 µL sample loop, and an eluent carbonate buffer (3.2 mM Na₂CO₃ and 1.0 mM NaHCO₃).

DNA extraction and amplicon library preparation

Total DNA from field samples and laboratory experiments was extracted using the PowerSoil DNA isolation kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). To reduce DNA extraction bias, the vortexing step was modified, with aliquots removed after vortexing for 5, 10, and 15 min, and then recombined. No additional crushing was performed between collection of samples and DNA extraction, although beadbeating during DNA extraction appeared to pulverize some material. Libraries were then prepared following the 'in house' method of Jones, Lapakko, et al. (2017). Briefly, the V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene was first amplified with primers '515f modified' (GTGYCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA) and '806r modified' (GGACTACNVGGGTWTCTAAT; Walters et al., 2015) that were amended with Nextera adaptors to allow barcoding (Jones, Lapakko, et al., 2017). PCR was performed as in Jones, Lapakko, et al. (2017):



FIGURE 1 Field images of the (A) IB, (B) GG, (C) HB, and (D) DO sampling sites.

5 min initial denaturation at 94°C, either 25 or 30 cycles of 45 s denaturation at 94°C, 60 s annealing at 50°C, and 90 s elongation at 72°C, and final elongation at 72°C for 10 min. Blank controls were included with all DNA extractions, and no product was visible in the blanks. PCR products were then submitted to the University of Minnesota Genomics Center for barcoding (10 cycles after 1:100 dilution) and sequencing on an Illumina MiSeq (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA), 250 paired end cycles. Raw libraries are available in the Sequence Read Archive at the National Center for Biotechnology Information (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra>) under accession PRJNA885421.

Bioinformatic analyses

OTU calling was performed as in Jones et al. (2021). Raw sequences were filtered and trimmed with Sickle (<https://github.com/najoshi/sickle>) to average quality above 28 (5' trimming only) and ≥ 100 bp; any residual adapters reverse complemented on the 3' end were removed with cutadapt (Martin, 2011); R1 and R2 reads were assembled with PEAR (Zhang et al., 2014); and primers removed by trimming the assembled reads with prinseq v.0.20.4 (Schmieder & Edwards, 2011). OTUs were defined at 97% similarity with a modified version of the UPARSE pipeline (USEARCH v.10.0; Edgar, 2013), in which the 'derep_fulllength' script from VSEARCH v.1.9.5 (Rognes et al., 2016) was used. OTUs were classified with mothur v.1.36.1 (Schloss, 2020) to the Silva database v.132 (Quast et al., 2013) with a confidence score cutoff of 50.

Libraries were organized into a matrix of samples versus OTUs. Raw counts (i.e., the number of sequences of each OTU per sample) were first converted to proportional values to account for uneven library sizes by dividing by the total number of sequences in each library. OTUs that occurred at less than 0.01% were removed from the dataset. Prior to statistical analyses, the data were transformed using an arcsine square root transformation (Jones, Lapakko,

et al., 2017). NMS ordinations were performed using three-dimensions, with rotation to principal components, using the metaMDS() function in the Vegan package v2.5-7 (Dixon, 2003) in R v4.1.0 (R Core Team, 2021) in RStudio (RStudio Team, 2021). Hierarchical agglomerative cluster analyses were performed with Bray–Curtis dissimilarity and unweighted pair-group method using arithmetic averages clustering. Q-mode cluster analyses (clustering of samples) were calculated using all OTUS in the transformed dataset, while R-mode cluster analysis (clustering of OTUs) only included the top 30 most abundant OTUs. Plots were created using ggplot2 (Wickham, 2016).

Laboratory experiments

Laboratory weathering experiments to test the effect of algal growth were conducted with crushed pyrrhotite as a substrate. Pyrrhotite used in these experiments was a mixture of 4C and 6C pyrrhotite with trace sphalerite, chalcopyrite, and galena from Ward's Scientific, crushed to a grain size of between 75 and 150 μm . This corresponds to sample Po2 from (Hobart et al., 2021); see that work for a more complete mineralogical description.

Five experimental treatments were conducted in triplicate in 50 mL glass serum bottles: enrichment, enrichment + algae, isolate, isolate + algae, and algae only. 50 mL of sterile growth media was added to each bottle, containing: 6 mM NH_4Cl , 3 mM KH_2PO_4 , 1 mM Na_2HPO_4 , 1.5 mM $\text{MgCl}_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 0.3 mM $\text{CaCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$, trace element solution (Flood et al., 2015), and 20 mM MES buffer titrated to pH 6.0 with 4 M NaOH. The isolate organism used in these experiments is *Sulfuriferula* sp. strain AH1 (Jones, Roepke, et al., 2017), an autotrophic sulfur-oxidizing β -proteobacteria isolated from humidity cell experiments described in Jones, Lapakko, et al. (2017). The enrichment inoculum was a homogenized microbial community collected from weathered Duluth Complex rock and previous incubation experiments, maintained in the laboratory in mixed culture

with solid, crushed pyrrhotite as the growth substrate. The microbial communities identified through 16S rRNA libraries at the termination of the 19-day experiment are presented in Figure 4A in the main text, and sulfate release (as a proxy for sulfide mineral dissolution) is reported in Figure 4B. Experiments were placed on an orbital oscillating shaker exposed to a grow light on a 12 h diel cycle. Those without the algae inoculum were covered to ensure continuous darkness.

Experiments were sampled every four to 5 days. At each sampling point, 6 mL of leachate removed for chemical analysis and then replaced with 6 mL of sterile growth media to maintain constant volume. 0.5 mL of the leachate was analysed for pH with a LAQUAtwin pH - 22 handheld pH meter (HORIBA, Kyoto, Japan); 1.5 mL of the leachate was acidified with 20 μ M of 4 M HCl and stored at -4°C for ferrous iron analysis; 2 mL of the leachate was stored at -20°C for measurement of anion concentrations. Ferrous iron concentration was measured using the ferrozine assay (Stookey, 1970) using the method described in (Viollier et al., 2000). Anion concentrations (chloride, fluoride, bromide, nitrate, sulfate) were measured using a Metrohm 930 Compact IC Flex ion chromatograph with a A Supp 5 column, 20 μ L sample loop, and an eluent carbonate buffer (3.2 mM Na₂CO₃ and 1.0 mM NaHCO₃). Sulfate release was calculated based on the measured concentration of sulfate at each time point and subsequently correcting for the leachate replaced with sulfate-free media at each sampling interval. Statistical significance was assessed with Welch's *t*-test using the R function *t-test()*.

RESULTS

Samples, field observations, and geochemistry

Weathered rock, sediment, and water samples were collected from four sites in Northern Minnesota. All sites are located in the South Kawishiwi Intrusion of the Duluth Complex (Severson, 1994). The 'INCO Pit' site (IB samples) is a surface outcrop of ore-bearing Duluth Complex material. In 1974, the International Nickel Company (INCO) removed roughly 10,000 tons of ore-grade material as part of an application to mine in this area; the site was reclaimed when the application was withdrawn in 1975. We collected water and sediment from a seep flowing out of the reclaimed material (sample IB-2), and water and algal biomass from a stream approximately 10 m from the seep (sample IB-4). Effluent from the seep was pH 6.42 at the time of sampling. We also collected exposed, weathered rock from the northeast edges of the reclaimed bulk sample site (samples IB-5, IB-6). Samples collected from this area also include naturally-weathered Duluth Complex

material approximately a quarter kilometre from the reclaimed test pit, at the 'Gravel Pit' site (GG samples). Here, glacial till deposits were extracted for gravel as part of road-building operations in the 1940s, exposing the glaciated Duluth Complex surface to weathering. We sampled the exposed, crumbly weathered rock at this site, as well as water and biomass from algae-filled drill holes in exposed but consolidated weathered rock. Samples are summarized in Table 1, and concentration of dissolved anions from the three aqueous samples collected at this site are reported in Table S1 in the supplementary information. At the time of sampling, major anion concentrations in the seep, stream, and boreholes ranged from 360 to 582 μM sulfate, 304 to 729 μM chloride, and 31 to 52 μM fluoride (Table 1). Other major anions below detection, except that 65 μM nitrate was measured in the seep.

Selected historic pH, cation, and anion measurements from 2010 and 1975–1976 are also included in Table S1 for comparison. At the time of sampling, the pH of the water from the seep is consistent with the pH measured in 2010 (6.4) and is only slightly lower than the pH measured in 1976 (7.0). Aqueous sulfate concentrations appear to have been decreasing in the seep since 1976, with concentrations of 2600 μM measured in 1975, 1170 μM measured in 2010, and 477.3 μM measured at the time of sample collection in 2017, suggesting decreased availability of sulfide minerals available for oxidation (or reduced activity of sulfide-oxidizing lithotrophs) over time. However, sulfate levels in the nearby stream (IB-4) have increased since 1975, from 166 μM to our measured value of 581.6 μM , suggesting other sulfate inputs (Table S1).

We also collected samples of weathered Duluth Complex material from the surfaces of two additional roadside outcrops: the 'Hammer Breaker' outcrop of the Duluth Complex along Forest Rte. 429 (HB samples), and from an outcrop of Duluth Complex material off St. Louis Co. Road 623 (DO samples), which was exposed when the road was re-routed to allow for the expansion of the Cliffs Natural Resources Northshore mine. Samples from this site are listed in Table 1. See Figure 1 for field images of sampling sites, and Figures S1, S2 in the supplementary information for spatial relationship between sampling sites, geographic locations, and additional field images.

16S rRNA gene libraries from field samples

We generated 20 rRNA gene amplicon libraries from 12 samples of weathered, sulfide-bearing Duluth Complex material collected from four sites (Table 1). The libraries had between 18,504 and 158,184 sequences per sample, with an average library size of 52,703 sequences (standard deviation 37,929). Replicate libraries produced with 25 and 30 PCR cycles for the

first amplification step were similar (Figure S3), so we only report results from the 25-cycle libraries. Libraries are available in the Sequence Read Archive (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra>) under accession PRJNA885421.

Hierarchical agglomerative cluster analysis and nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMS) analyses were conducted to evaluate the similarities and differences between libraries from different sample sites. Several OTUs were abundant across libraries, with chloroplasts representing many of the most abundant OTUs. To evaluate how the presence of algae and other eukaryotes affected sample clustering and to more closely investigate the non-photosynthetic microbial community, hierarchical agglomerative cluster analysis was performed with and without OTUs identified as chloroplasts, mitochondria, eukaryotes, and an abundant *Gammaproteobacteria* OTU that represents a protist symbiont (OTU 2, discussed below; Figures 2, S4). Data for the cluster analyses on the sample libraries presented below are with the chloroplast OTUs removed; equivalent analyses including all OTUs are presented in the supplemental information.

Without chloroplasts and other eukaryote-affiliated OTUs (Figure 2), all weathered rock samples clustered together. The seep sediment and green mat samples from the INCO reclaimed pit site (IB-2 and IB-4) cluster separately from the weathered rock libraries (Figure 2). Similarly, GG-2, the library generated from the algal biomass collected from drill holes in the glaciated surface site (Figures 1B, S2), clusters separately from other libraries, and is more similar to the seep sediment and green seep mat libraries than the weathered rock libraries. The seep sediment and algal biomass samples from both the IB and GG sites contain unique non-chloroplast OTUs in addition to small numbers of the OTUs that are most abundant in the weathered rock samples. When chloroplasts, mitochondria, and eukaryotes are included (Figure S4), the weathered rock samples continue to cluster separately from the seep sediment and algal mat samples, indicating that these samples are separated by distinct groups of both photosynthetic and non-photosynthetic taxa.

IB-2 and IB-4 share two abundant OTUs (OTU 95, chloroplast, and OTU 102, *Leptothrix* spp.) that separate these samples from the weathered rock samples taken from the same site (IB-5 and IB-6, Figure 2). Similarly, GG-2, the library generated from the algal biomass collected from the drill hole at glaciated DC outcrop (Figure 1B), clusters separately from weathered rock collected at the same site (GG-1). GG-2 is dominated by an OTU (OTU 5) that is most closely related (99.2% similarity) to a chloroplast from *Euglena granulata* (strain UTEX 2345, Kosmala et al., 2009), and an OTU (OTU 2) initially classified only as a gammaproteobacterium. By placing OTU 2 into an ARB (Ludwig et al., 2004) database (SILVA version 138.1, Quast et al., 2013) showed that this OTU is a member

of an ‘*incertae sedis*’ group in the *Gammaproteobacteria* and clusters in a sister clade to *candidatus Ovatusbacter* (Dirren & Posch, 2016). A similar environmental sequence, as determined by BLASTN search of the nt database at the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI Resource Coordinators, 2016), is associated with the euglenid algae *Trachelomonas scabra*. This suggests OTU 2 is a proteobacterial symbiont of the euglenid algae in the green mat. Similar gammaproteobacterial symbionts of *Trachelomonas scabra* have been associated with euglenid biofilms in ARD environments (e.g., Jones et al., 2015). Because the abundance of OTU 2 matches the abundance of the euglenid algae in this sample (OTU 5), and given its likely role as a symbiont of that algae, we removed OTU 2 along with the chloroplast, mitochondria, and eukaryote OTUs in the multivariate statistical analyses shown in Figures 2, 3.

All other IB, GG, and HB libraries were generated from weathered rock samples, and clustered together (Figures 2, S5). In addition to the most abundant chloroplast OTUs in this cluster (OTUs 3, 9, and 52), these samples contained abundant uncultured representatives of the family *Ktedonobacteraceae* (OTUs 6, 38, 49, 88, and 105), genus *Acidiphilum* (OTU 44), and uncultured representatives of the *Solirubrobacteraceae*, (OTU 178), *Beijerinckiaceae* (OTU 60), and *Verucomicrobia* (*candidatus* *Udaeobacter*, OTU 57; Figure 2).

The libraries generated from weathered rock samples DO-3 and DO-4 cluster separately from the IB, GG, and HB samples (Figure 2). These libraries contain abundant OTUs that are only minor components of the IB and HB libraries (<1%). Two of the most abundant OTUs in this group (OTU 13 and 70) are most closely related to mitochondrial rRNA genes of the ascomycetous fungi *Leotiomycetes* (92% similar to *Leotiomycetes* sp. A910, Muggia et al., 2016) and *Chaetothyriales* (86% similar to *Chaetothyriales* sp. KhNk32 str. CBS 129052, Vasse et al., 2017). Other abundant OTUs in these samples are classified as uncultured *Acetobacteraceae* (OTUs 26, 63, and 6325), *Acidobacteria* (*Bryocella*, OTU 104, and *Granulicella*, OTU 156), *Actinobacteria* (*Jartrophihabitans*, OTU 174, *Amnibacterium*, OTU 71, and *Curtobacterium*, OTU 7059), *Endobacter* (OTU 83), and *Sulfurifervula* (OTU 111). DO-1 and DO-2 cluster more closely with the IB and HB weathered rock samples than DO-3 and DO-4 (Figure 2), and share a mixture of the OTUs abundant in both clusters.

Comparison to laboratory and field leaching experiments

We compared the microbial communities sampled here to rRNA gene libraries from weathering experiments

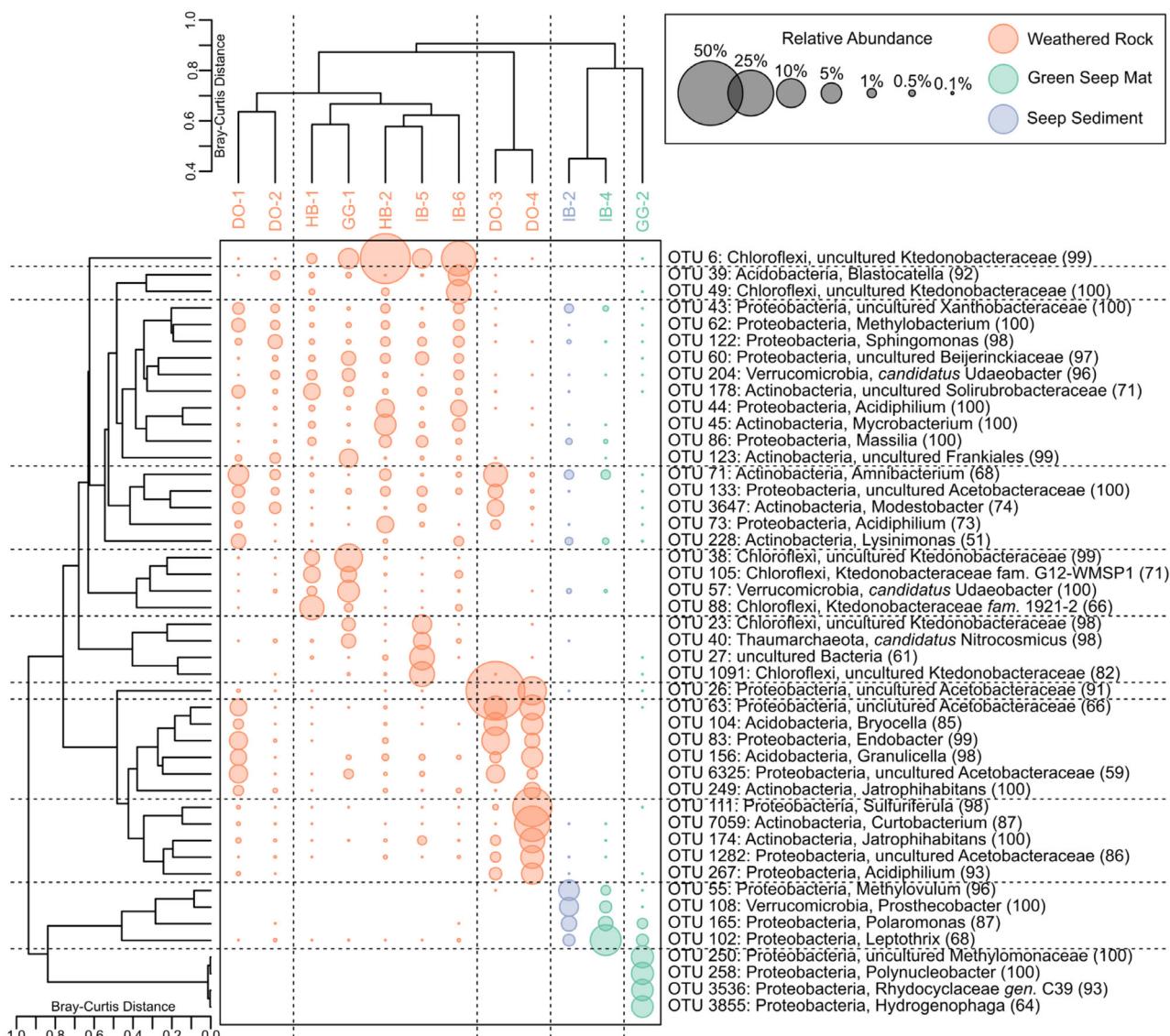


FIGURE 2 Hierarchical agglomerative cluster analyses of libraries collected for this study, with OTUs identified as chloroplasts, mitochondria, and eukaryotes removed. Sizes of the points scale with the relative abundance of the OTUs. The Q-mode cluster analysis was calculated with all OTUs, while the R-mode cluster analysis only included OTUs abundant in at least one sample at 5% or greater abundance. The taxonomic affiliation of each OTU includes its phylum- and genus-level classification, with confidence scores provided in parentheses. OTUs that are unclassified at the genus level are identified with the highest available taxonomic classification. An equivalent analysis including all OTUs is presented in Figure S4.

described by Jones et al. (2017). These authors examined the microbial communities present in Duluth Complex waste rock and tailings from long-running laboratory and field leaching experiments (Lapakko, 2015; Lapakko & Antonson, 1994), including amplicon libraries from samples of laboratory humidity cell experiments (referred to here as ‘Lab’ samples) and field weathering piles of simulated waste rock from pyrrhotite-containing Duluth Complex (‘Field DC’) and pyrite-containing Ely Greenstone (‘Field GS’) sources. For this comparison, we refer to the libraries from naturally weathered rock, seep sediment, and algal biomass for the present study as ‘outcrop’ libraries to clearly separate them from libraries from the laboratory and field leaching experiments

from the earlier work (Jones, Lapakko, et al., 2017). Information on all the libraries used in this comparison is summarized in Table S2.

In NMS analyses, libraries from outcrop samples (this study) separate from laboratory and field experiments (from Jones, Lapakko, et al., 2017) along the first ordination axis (Figure 3). Outcrop libraries are more similar to those from field experiments, with libraries from laboratory experiments plotting to the extreme of the first axis (Figure 3A). Some outcrop libraries overlapped with libraries from weathered Ely Greenstone. When laboratory experiments were excluded (Figure 3B), libraries from the Duluth Complex field leaching experiment still separated from the outcrop samples along the first

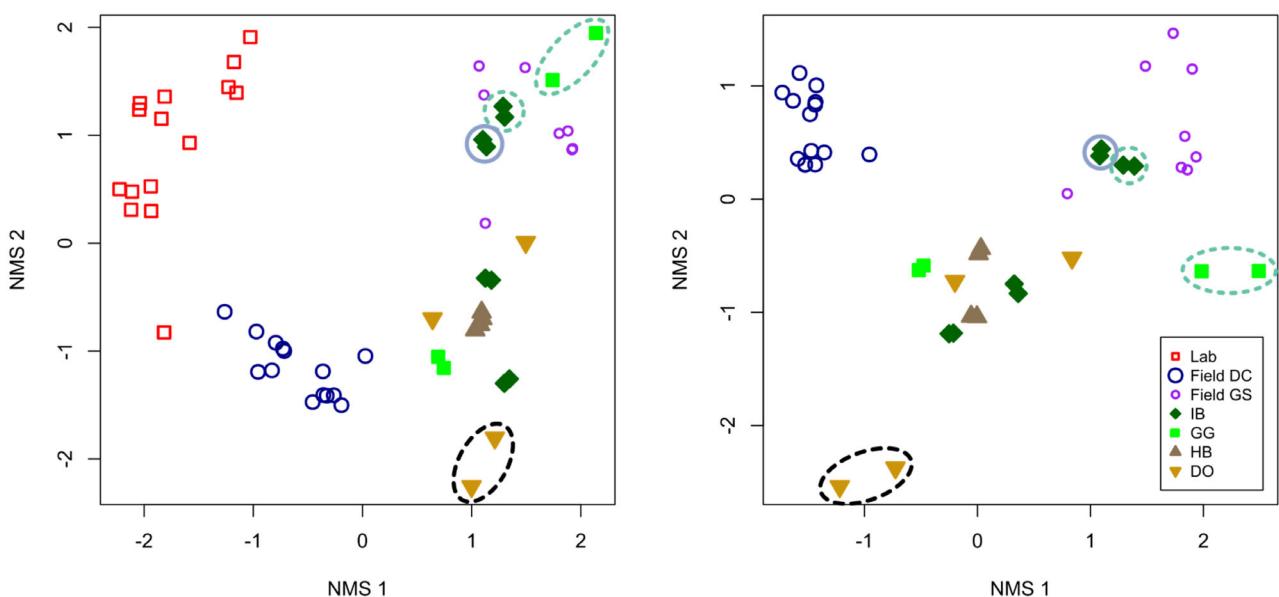


FIGURE 3 (A) NMS ordinations of rRNA amplicon libraries from naturally-weathered Duluth Complex outcrops (libraries IB, GG, HB, and DO this study), laboratory humidity cells, and experimental field rock piles, with OTUs identified as chloroplasts, mitochondria, and eukaryotes removed. Libraries from laboratory experiments ('lab', red open squares), and experimental field rock piles ('Field DC', Duluth Complex material, dark blue larger circles, and 'Field GS', Ely Greenstone material, purple smaller circles) are from (Jones, Lapakko, et al., 2017). (B) NMS ordinations of rRNA amplicon libraries from the experimental field rock piles and naturally weathered outcrops only. Stress for (A) is 7.5, and stress for (B) is 5.8. Sky blue solid circled points indicate seep sediment samples (IB-2), and teal green dotted circled points indicate water and algal biomass samples (IB-4, GG-2). All other IB, GG, HB, and DO samples were collected from weathered rock. The black dashed circle indicates DO samples that are separated from the other weathered rock samples in the hierarchical agglomerative cluster analysis (Figure 2).

ordination axis, but outcrop libraries also separated along both ordination axes, with libraries from the green seep mat (teal dotted circle) and seep sediment (blue solid circle) overlapping with the libraries generated from the Ely Greenstone field weathering experiments (purple open circles). Like in the hierarchical agglomerative cluster analysis (Figure 2), libraries from samples DO-3 and DO-4 (points enclosed by the black dashed line) cluster separately from the other outcrop samples as well as the laboratory and field experiments. Removal of OTUs classified as chloroplasts, as well as all chloroplast, mitochondria, and other eukaryote OTUs, did not affect the overall structure of the ordination (Figure S5).

Many OTUs co-occur in both the field weathering experiments and naturally-weathered outcrop samples. However, their abundances differ substantially. The OTUs that make up the most abundant communities in the naturally-weathered outcrop samples are present only at low abundances in the field weathering experiments. Accordingly, the OTUs that are most abundant in the field weathering experiments are present only at low abundances in the outcrop samples (Figure S6).

Laboratory incubations

Because of the ubiquity of algae in the weathered outcrop samples, laboratory incubations were used to evaluate the effect of photosynthetic

microorganisms on sulfide mineral weathering. Under acidic conditions, algae and heterotrophic organisms have been shown to diminish pyrite oxidation (see e.g., Johnson et al., 2008; Nancuchoe & Johnson, 2011), so incubations with isolate and enrichment cultures were conducted with and without algae to assess whether a similar decrease in pyrrhotite oxidation occurs under circumneutral conditions and how the presence of algae affects the bacterial community. Crushed pyrrhotite (sample Po2, Hobart et al., 2021) was incubated for 19 days with either an isolate or a mixed microbial community, with and without an algal inoculum. The isolate used in these experiments was *Sulfuriferula* sp. strain AH1, an autotrophic sulfur-oxidizing proteobacterium isolated from humidity cell experiments (Jones, Roepke, et al., 2017). The enrichment was a microbial community from weathered Duluth Complex rock samples IB-5 and GG-1 and mixed with a microbial community from lab and field experiments (Jones, Lapakko, et al., 2017). The algae inoculum was a mixture of material from samples IB-4, GG-2, and algae from a sulfate-reducing bioreactor described by Anderson (2018). The following treatments were performed, each in triplicate: (1) isolate only, (2) environmental inoculum only, (3) isolate plus algae, (4) environmental inoculum plus algae, and (5) algae alone. Samples with algae were incubated in the light on a diel cycle, and samples without

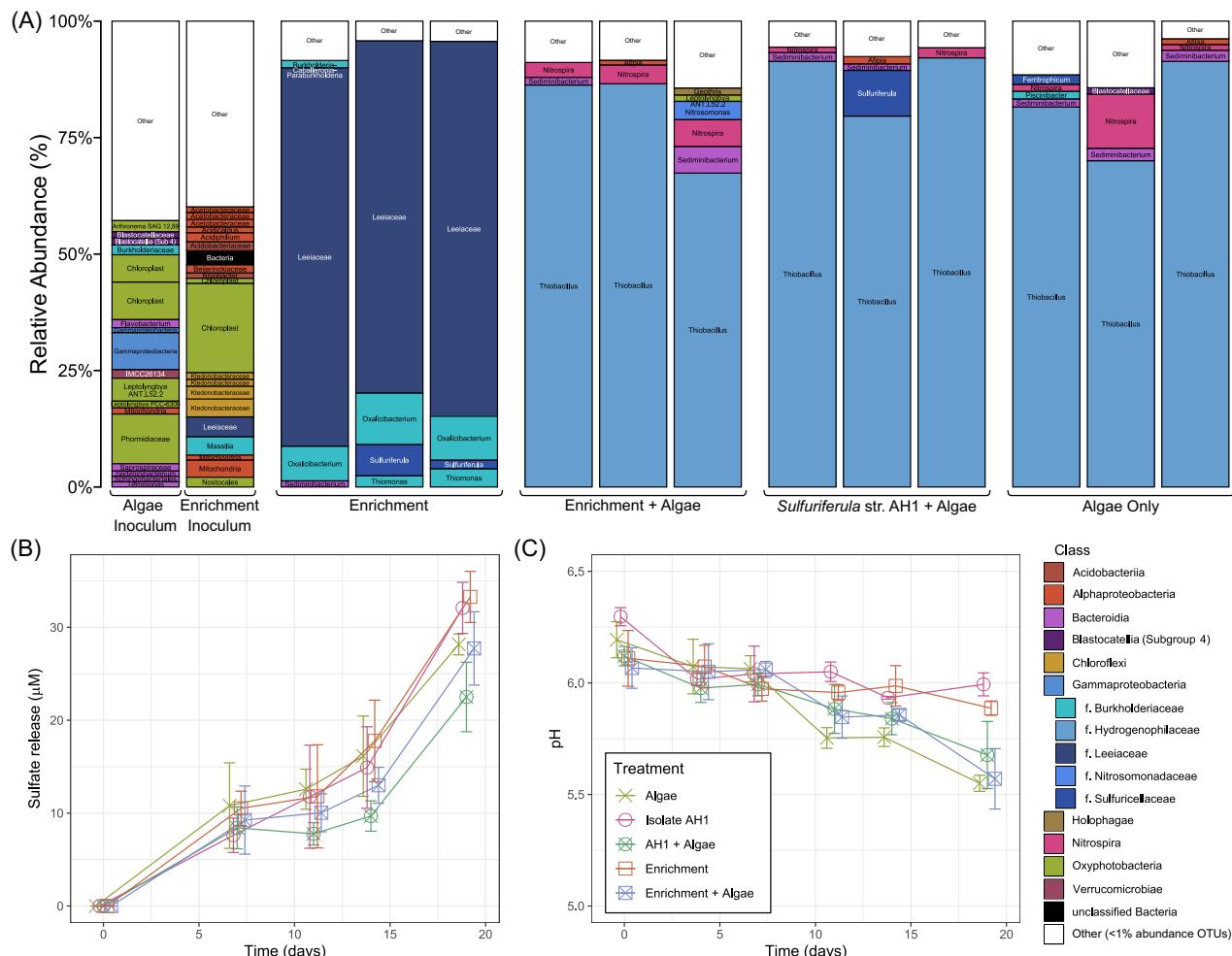


FIGURE 4 (A) Stacked bar chart showing taxonomic assignments of OTUs >1% relative abundance for the incubation experiments. ‘Other’ represents those OTUs <1% abundance in each sample. Bars are coloured by OTU taxonomic identification at the class level, with the exception of the *Gammaproteobacteria*, which are coloured at the family level in varying shades of blue. Each bar is labelled with the OTU taxonomic classification at the genus level, or, at the highest available taxonomic classification. (B) Average sulfate release and (C) pH over the 19-day lifetime of the incubation experiments. Error bars represent standard deviations in sulfate concentrations or pH measured for the three treatment replicates. The x-axis position was shifted slightly in these plots to allow visualization of overlapping points.

were covered. At the termination of the experiment, 16S rRNA gene amplicon libraries were generated from the solids in order to evaluate which organisms were enriched, and how the presence of algae affected the community.

Libraries generated from the enrichment incubations were dominated by OTUs classified as members of the *Leesiaceae* family, with smaller amounts of *Sulfuriferula* spp., *Thiomonas* spp., and *Oxalicibacterium* spp. (Figure 4A). At the end of the experiment, all incubations inoculated with the algal biomass were dominated by OTUs classified as *Thiobacillus* (68%–90%; Figure 4B), regardless of whether they started with the isolate, enrichment, or algal inoculum alone. OTUs identified as *Nitrospira*, *Nitrosomonas*, and *Sediminibacterium* were also abundant in these experiments. The algae inoculum was not a pure culture of algae strains but also included lithotrophic organisms, of

which *Thiobacillus* was initially a minor component (0.04%) and was evidently enriched in the incubations (Figure 4A).

Sulfate release was observed in all experiments, with slightly more sulfate release in the experiments without algae. By the end of the experiment, 18% less sulfate was released from environmental enrichments with algae than without, and 33% less sulfate was released from incubations with isolate AH1 with algae than without; however these differences are not statistically significant (Welch’s *t*-test, $p > 0.05$). In each incubation, pH dropped slightly over the course of the experiment, with those inoculated with algae measuring approximately 0.3 pH units lower than the incubations without algae at the termination. Only small concentrations of aqueous iron (II) were released over the course of the experiment (Figure S7), with the AH1 + algae incubation showing the most variability in Fe^{2+} .

DISCUSSION

Weathered rock-associated microbial communities

The microbial communities present on naturally-weathered outcrops of Duluth Complex material contain a diverse population of photosynthesizers, organotrophs, and lithotrophs. All libraries, even those collected from samples of seemingly bare weathered rock, contain substantial photosynthetic populations, with 6 OTUs representing chloroplasts among the top 30 most abundant OTUs. The DO samples, which were collected in early January, contain fewer OTUs classified as chloroplasts compared to the IB and HB samples that were collected in late June. Although the primers we used do not directly amplify the 18S rRNA genes of eukaryotes, they have good coverage for 16S rRNA genes of photosynthetic bacteria and chloroplasts (McNichol et al., 2021). These primers (Walters et al., 2015) have been found to effectively reproduce relative abundances of sequences in mock communities as well as clearly distinguish seasonal community changes, although they overrepresented some archaeal groups (Wear et al., 2018). Similarly, Zoss et al. (2019) found that these primers were able to resolve higher taxonomic diversity than primers designed to amplify the V1–V2–V3 or V5–V6 regions.

Microbial communities from the seep sediment (IB-2) and green algal mats (IB-4, GG-2) were distinct from weathered rock samples collected at the same site (IB-5, IB-6, GG-1). These libraries contain OTUs classified as the microaerophilic iron oxidizers *Leptothrix* and *Gallionella*, indicating that iron oxidation is a possible source of metabolic energy in the circumneutral seep environment. This is consistent with the reddish colour of the seep sediment, which is indicative of the presence of iron oxides.

The microbial community from water-filled drill holes in consolidated rock at the gravel extraction site (sample GG-2) were dominated by OTUs representing euglenid algal chloroplasts and associated symbiotic organisms. *Euglena* spp. can be tolerant of high aqueous concentrations of metals and low pH and are frequently found in AMD and other contaminated water systems (Brake et al., 2001; Casiot et al., 2004; Das et al., 2009; Freitas et al., 2011; Jones et al., 2015; Valente & Gomes, 2007). Their dominance in this sample, and their absence in other samples, is consistent with the higher metal content of waters that are in direct contact with the sulfide-rich rocks at site GG.

Microbial communities from the naturally-weathered outcrops and associated seeps are distinct from the communities that developed in laboratory and field weathering experiments described in earlier work (Jones, Lapakko, et al., 2017). The outcrop samples were most similar to experimentally-weathered Ely

Greenstone (Figure 3). The most abundant sulfide in the Ely Greenstone is pyrite, while the sulfide mineral assemblage in the Duluth Complex is dominated by pyrrhotite and other acid-soluble sulfides. However, the experimentally-weathered Duluth Complex field experiment had an average leachate pH of 4.7, while the pH of the Ely Greenstone field rock pile ranged from 7.2 to 7.3 (Jones, Lapakko, et al., 2017), closer to the pH 6.42 water measured in the effluent from the seep at the INCO site. This suggests that pH rather than the specific sulfide mineral assemblage is more important for determining microbial community composition in this setting. Furthermore, we suspect that the distance between humidity cell experiments and the field piles and outcrop samples in multivariate statistical analyses ('Lab' in Figure 3) is due to differences in organic material input and the corresponding effect on nitrogen and carbon cycling. The 'Lab' humidity cell experiments were performed (by design) in an indoor environment with no or little low organic input, while both the field experiments and the naturally-weathered outcrops were from outdoor environments that would have had much higher organic input. Humidity cell experiments are designed to evaluate acid generation potential and mimic the weathering that would occur in the well-drained surface of a waste rock or tailings pile (Lapakko, 1988, 2015; Lapakko & Antonson, 2012), rather than weathering of reclaimed mine waste or in a natural forested setting.

Members of the class *Ktedonobacter* are abundant in the naturally-weathered outcrop samples and in the weathering field experiments (Field DC and Field GS in Figures 3 and S6). While numerous *Ktedonobacter* OTUs are present in either the outcrop samples or the field weathering experiments, three OTUs (23, 38, and 1091) are similar across all samples (Figure S4). OTU 1091 is most closely related (99.2% similarity) to an uncultured bacterium identified as part of a population of organisms that are early colonizers of volcanic rock deposits in Hawaii (Gomez-Alvarez et al., 2007), OTU 23 is most closely related (97.2% similarity) to a bacterial sequence from Antarctic soil (NCBI accession FR749799), and OTU 38 is most closely related (97.6% similarity) to an organism whose 16S rRNA gene was found in a chromium(IV) contaminated soil in China (NCBI accession KT016028). *Ktedonobacteria* appears to be ubiquitous in terrestrial environments, especially in organic-poor environments and during the early stages of soil formation (Delmont et al., 2015). The type strain for the genus *Ktedonobacter*, *Kt. racemifer* (SOSP1-21T), is an aerobic, filamentous, gram-positive heterotroph isolated from the soil of a black locust wood in northern Italy (Chang et al., 2011). Organisms classified as *Ktedonobacter* have been identified in metagenome-assembled genomes in northern California grasslands (Butterfield et al., 2016), in Antarctic desert soils (Mezzasoma et al., 2022; Ortiz

et al., 2021), and in hydrothermal sediments at an active deep-sea black smoker in the South Atlantic Ocean (Zhou et al., 2020). Related organisms in the same class have been isolated from a soil-like granular mass (Tengu-no-mugimeshi) collected from an alpine area in Gunma Prefecture, Japan (Wang et al., 2019), an ant nest collected in Honduras, soil from a pine wood in Spain, and soil 'collected under a bush' in Corsica, France (Cavaletti et al., 2006). Yabe et al. (2021) describe the metabolic capabilities of seven *Ktedonobacter* isolates, all of which are mesophiles, heterotrophic, and form aerial mycelia, with an optimal growth pH of 5–7. Other members of this class, genus *Thermogemmatispora*, have been isolated from geothermally heated environments and can oxidize carbon monoxide in addition to a diversity of carbon sources (King & King, 2014; Yabe et al., 2011). In the weathered rock environment sampled here, the *Ktedonobacteria* OTUs likely occupy a similar niche as part of the heterotrophic microbial community that forms early in the process of soil formation.

There were two OTUs identified as *Sulfuriferula* spp., a genus of sulfur-oxidizing Proteobacteria in the family *Sulfuricellaceae* that was abundant in weathered Duluth Complex rock from humidity cells and field experiments (Jones, Lapakko, et al., 2017). A *Sulfuriferula* strain isolated from the humidity cell experiments is an obligate autotroph that oxidizes inorganic sulfur compounds (Jones, Roepke, et al., 2017). The *Sulfuriferula* OTU that is most abundant in libraries from the field experiments ('Field DC', Figure S6) (OTU 8) makes up only a small fraction (less than 0.1%) of the OTUs found in the naturally-weathered 'outcrop' libraries, while the *Sulfuriferula* OTU that is most abundant in libraries from the naturally-weathered outcrops (OTU 111) is less than 1% of the Field DC libraries (Figure S6). The genus *Sulfuriferula* contains multiple species that have different growth requirements, including both obligate autotrophs and mixotrophs, some of which can grow both aerobically and anaerobically (Jones, Roepke, et al., 2017; Kojima et al., 2020; Watanabe et al., 2015, 2016). Because of the diversity of metabolic capabilities in this genus, it would not be surprising if certain *Sulfuriferula* spp. have an advantage in the natural weathering environment, while different *Sulfuriferula* spp. are more competitive in the lower organic input humidity cell experiments.

Impact of algae on microbial communities and sulfide weathering

Algae and other photosynthetic organisms have been explored as a tool for mitigating microbial breakdown of reactive sulfide minerals in a process broadly known as 'bioshrouding' (Bwapwa et al., 2017; Johnson, 2014; Johnson et al., 2008; Rawlings & Johnson, 2007).

Sulfide mineral oxidation by iron and sulfur-oxidizing bacteria can be mitigated by growing algae on the surface of reactive sulfide-rich tailings because certain algae excrete organic compounds that are toxic to acidophilic autotrophs and also form an organic surface layer that limits oxygen penetration (Johnson, 2014; Johnson et al., 2008). Furthermore, the addition of algae and other photosynthetic organisms can have additional benefits for mitigating the impacts of acidic rock drainage: algae can accumulate and adsorb heavy metals, increase the alkalinity of the system, and produce organic acids such as lactic and acetic acid that mitigate the growth of acid-tolerant lithoautotrophs while providing food for heterotrophs (Peppas et al., 2000; Rambabu et al., 2020). However, these bioshrouding experiments have been performed on highly acidic materials, where mineral-oxidizing autotrophs are especially sensitive to the presence of organic acids that act as decouplers (Baker-Austin & Dopson, 2007). Here, we saw that incubation experiments with pyrrhotite at circumneutral pH did have slightly less sulfate release (and presumably less sulfide mineral dissolution) when a diverse algal culture was added to the experiments. However, the effects were relatively minor, as substantial sulfate release still occurred in the amended incubations.

One of the major effects of algal growth on the lithotrophic microbial community was the absence of *Sulfuriferula* OTUs and the dominance of *Thiobacillus* OTUs in the algae-amended incubations. The initial enrichment inoculum lacked OTUs identified as *Thiobacillus*, while the algal inoculum had 0.04% *Thiobacillus*. Conditions in the algae-amended incubations are evidently more favourable to *Thiobacillus*, perhaps because *Sulfuriferula* is more sensitive to organic compounds. Although the differences between sulfate release in each incubation were small, there was less sulfate released in the incubations inoculated with the *Sulfuriferula* strain AH1 and algae than in the experiment inoculated with *Sulfuriferula* alone, suggesting that the presence of algae and the algae-associated lithotrophs were able to outcompete the *Sulfuriferula* strain and result in less sulfide mineral dissolution. We also note that, interestingly, the 'enrichment-only' incubations came to be dominated by an OTU classified as an unknown member of the *Leeiaceae* family. As this OTU was only classified to the family level, little can be said about its potential role in the weathering community. However, a member of this family was also abundant in laboratory humidity cells sampled by Jones et al. (2017), so this may be another population that was selected for in the low organic humidity cell environment but did not survive in algae-amended experiments. Future work will explore whether algal growth can be applied to limit sulfide mineral oxidation in mildly acidic or circumneutral waste like that anticipated from mining activities in the Duluth Complex.

Implications for weathering of Duluth Complex materials and other mixed sulfide ores

This study shows that the microbial communities that develop on naturally weathered Duluth Complex surfaces and in reclaimed rocks are distinct from those in leaching experiments (Figure 3). Microbial communities are sensitive indicators of environmental conditions, and so community composition can be used to compare how preexisting microbial communities change with varying levels of human disturbance. In this case, the microbial communities that are present before mining occurs could be used as a baseline to evaluate the successful reclamation of mine sites by the re-establishment of similar communities. The clear distinction between experimental and outcrop communities we observed here highlights the difference between the natural microbial communities and those that thrive in a disturbed environment. Conversely, the similarities between the microbial communities at the IB, GG, HB, and DO sites (Figure 3A) suggests that environmental conditions at the historically disturbed IB and GG sites have converged with the more natural conditions at the HB and DO sites, and may be one indication of the effectiveness of the reclamation process at IB. However, more extensive sampling would be needed to fully characterize the existing microbial communities associated with the diverse ecosystems that have developed on natural and disturbed Duluth Complex material.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Kathryn Hobart: Conceptualization (equal); data curation (equal); investigation (equal); writing – original draft (lead); writing – review and editing (equal). **Zhaazhaawaanong Greensky:** Investigation (equal); writing – review and editing (equal). **Kimberly Hernandez:** Investigation (equal); writing – review and editing (equal). **Joshua M. Feinberg:** Funding acquisition (equal); supervision (equal); writing – review and editing (equal). **Jake Bailey:** Resources (equal); supervision (equal); writing – review and editing (equal). **Dan Jones:** Conceptualization (equal); funding acquisition (equal); investigation (equal); methodology (equal); project administration (equal); resources (equal); supervision (equal); writing – review and editing (equal).

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The raw data that support the findings of this study are available in the Sequence Read Archive at the National Center for Biotechnology Information (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra>) under accession PRJNA885421, and in the supplementary material of this article.

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of this article.

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