

University of Huddersfield Repository

Bray, Andrew W., Stewart, Douglas I., Courtney, Ronan, Rout, Simon P., Humphreys, Paul, Mayes, William M. and Burke, Ian T.

Sustained Bauxite Residue Rehabilitation with Gypsum and Organic Matter 16 years after Initial Treatment

Original Citation

Bray, Andrew W., Stewart, Douglas I., Courtney, Ronan, Rout, Simon P., Humphreys, Paul, Mayes, William M. and Burke, Ian T. (2018) Sustained Bauxite Residue Rehabilitation with Gypsum and Organic Matter 16 years after Initial Treatment. Environmental Science and Technology, 52 (1). pp. 152-161. ISSN 0013-936X

This version is available at http://eprints.hud.ac.uk/id/eprint/34178/

The University Repository is a digital collection of the research output of the University, available on Open Access. Copyright and Moral Rights for the items on this site are retained by the individual author and/or other copyright owners. Users may access full items free of charge; copies of full text items generally can be reproduced, displayed or performed and given to third parties in any format or medium for personal research or study, educational or not-for-profit purposes without prior permission or charge, provided:

- The authors, title and full bibliographic details is credited in any copy;
- A hyperlink and/or URL is included for the original metadata page; and
- The content is not changed in any way.

For more information, including our policy and submission procedure, please contact the Repository Team at: E.mailbox@hud.ac.uk.

http://eprints.hud.ac.uk/

1	Sustained Bauxite Residue Rehabilitation with Gypsum and Organic						
2	Matter 16 years after Initial Treatment						
3 4	Andrew W. Bray ^{a*} , Douglas I. Stewart ^b , Ronan Courtney ^c , Simon P. Rout ^d , Paul N. Humphreys ^d , William M. Mayes ^e , Ian T. Burke ^a						
5	^a School of Earth and Environment, University of Leeds, Leeds LS2 9JT, UK						
6	^b School of Civil Engineering, University of Leeds, Leeds LS2 9JT, UK						
7 8	Department of Biological Sciences & The Bernal Institute, University of Limerick, Limerick, Ireland						
9 10	^d Department of Chemical and Biological Sciences, University of Huddersfield, Huddersfield HD1 3DH, UK						
11	e School of Environmental Sciences, University of Hull, Hull HU6 7RX, UK						
12	* Email for correspondence: a.w.bray@leeds.ac.uk						
13							
14							
15							
16							
17							
18	Prepared for Environmental Science and Technology						
19	Word Count: 5796 (+ 1200 in tables and figures)						
20							

21 Graphical Abstract



24 Abstract

25 Bauxite residue is a high volume by-product of alumina manufacture which is 26 commonly disposed of in purpose-built bauxite residue disposal areas (BRDAs). Natural 27 waters interacting with bauxite residue are characteristically highly alkaline, and have 28 elevated concentrations of Na, Al, and other trace metals. Rehabilitation of BRDAs is 29 therefore often costly and resource/infrastructure intensive. Data is presented from 30 three neighbouring plots of bauxite residue that was deposited twenty years ago. One 31 plot was amended 16 years ago with process sand, organic matter, gypsum, and seeded 32 (fully treated), another plot was amended 16 years ago with process sand, organic matter, 33 and seeded (partially treated), and a third plot was left untreated. These surface 34 treatments lower alkalinity and salinity, and thus produce a substrate more suitable for biological colonisation from seeding. The reduction of pH leads to much lower Al, V and 35 As mobility in the actively treated residue and the beneficial effects of treatment extend 36 passively 20-30 cm below the depth of the original amendment. These positive 37 38 rehabilitation effects are maintained after 2 decades due to the presence of an active and 39 resilient biological community. This treatment may provide a lower cost solution to BRDA 40 end of use closure plans and orphaned BRDA rehabilitation.

41 Introduction

42 Globally, >100 million tonnes of alumina is produced annually.¹ Producing 1 tonne 43 of alumina generates 1-2 tonnes of bauxite residue (known as "red mud"). The residue 44 varies with ore type, but all are alkaline, sodic, and contain similar minerals. In the Bayer 45 process bauxite ore is digested with NaOH at high temperature and pressure which 46 results in recrystallization of iron oxides present. Silica is a common impurity, which is 47 removed from solution by precipitation of a range of characteristic Na- and Ca-48 aluminosillicate phases (e.g. sodalite and cancrinite).^{2,3} These "desilication products" 49 reside predominantly in the fine fraction. Residual aluminium (oxy)hydroxide phases, quartz, zircon and titanium oxides (e.g. rutile and perovskite) also occur in the residues.^{2,3} 50

51 Bauxite residue has few uses (cement, iron and steel production, construction 52 materials) and most is sent to bauxite residue disposal areas (BDRAs).⁴ The liquid from bauxite residue is very alkaline (pH 11-13) and contains abundant sodium.⁵⁻⁷ Subsequent 53 54 dissolution of desilication products such as sodalite (Eqn 1.) and cancrinite (Eqn 2), along 55 with associated amorphous secondary phases, generates further alkalinity and releases sodium in the long term.⁸⁻¹⁰ Trace elements in bauxite, such as V and As, become 56 57 concentrated in the residue, and are often hosted in surface complexes and secondary 58 phases.^{10–14} This can be environmentally problematic as Al, V, and As form aqueous 59 oxyanions in alkaline conditions which sorb poorly to sediments ^{15,16}.

60
$$Na_6(Al_6Si_6O_{24})$$
. $2NaOH + 24H_2O \leftrightarrow 8Na^+ + 8OH^- + 6Al(OH)_3 + 6H_4SiO_4$ (Eqn. 1)

61
$$Na_6(Al_6Si_6O_{24})$$
. $2CaCO_3 + 26H_2O \leftrightarrow 6Na^+ + 2Ca^{+2} + 80H^- + 2HCO_3^- + 6Al(OH)_3 + 6H_4SiO_4$ (Eqn. 2)

When left untreated, bauxite residue is infiltrated by CO₂ and the formation of
aqueous and solid carbonate consumes OH-, lowering pH.¹⁷⁻¹⁹ The depth to which this

64 process can act within bauxite residue is controlled by the rate of in-gassing and diffusion of CO₂. These process can be enhanced by gypsum addition, providing excess Ca²⁺ for 65 precipitation of carbonate.²⁰ These reactions occur rapidly at high pH and can eventually 66 buffer the pH to 7.5-8.5.^{17,21} Previous work has shown that gypsum addition can also 67 68 decrease the mobility of trace metals and Al in bauxite residue effected soils.^{17,21}. Other approaches to decrease bauxite residue salinity and alkalinity, such as treatment with 69 70 acid²² and seawater,²³ tend to only neutralise the aqueous, not the solid alkalinity 71 generating phases. Ion exchange resins,²⁴ and bipolar-membranes electrodialysis²⁵ have 72 been used to increase the longevity of treatment, yet these approaches rely on continued 73 management and the utilisation of products by an active refinery. As such, common end-74 of-use practice is to cap BRDAs with an impermeable layer, cover with topsoil, and revegetate. The costs "cap and cover" approaches are high (e.g. 100k €/ha has been 75 76 estimated for the BRDA in this study). However abandoning BRDAs without surface cover 77 may lead to problems with long term water infiltration and dust formation.

78 Over the last 15 years Courtney and others have examined the effect of coarse fraction bauxite residue (process sand), gypsum, and organic matter on the revegetation 79 of bauxite residue at Aughinish Alumina Refinery BRDA, Ireland.^{26–36} These studies have 80 assessed site rehabilitation by investigating macro- and microbiology, nutrient 81 82 availability, and the chemical nature of the substrate. Beneficial effects from bio-83 rehabilitation have also been reported elsewhere.^{37,38} Yet, little is known of the longevity and reliability of such surface treatments. Lack of long term data, and poorly constrained 84 85 audit trails regarding treatment and planting histories, can limit their viability in BRDA 86 closure plans. The objective of this study was to assess the long term effects of a surface 87 treatment to bauxite residue. Here we report the chemical and mineralogical data

- 88 sampled from depth profiles of bauxite residue nearly two decades after initial treatment,
- 89 and evaluate the ability of these treatments to provide sustained rehabilitation of the
- 90 substrate and associated fluid.

91 Methods

92 In September 2015 trial pits were dug to \sim 60 cm in a BRDA located in a European Union member state with a temperate oceanic climate (average annual rainfall \sim 1m). At 93 94 this site bauxite residue was deposited into a 3m deep disposal cell in 1995, and subsequently treated to encourage revegetation in 1999. Therefore, sampling was 95 undertaken 20 years after deposition and 16 years after treatment. ³¹ Three plots within 96 97 the BRDA were investigated. The fully treated plot was amended with gypsum (3% w/w 98 rotavated-in to a depth 30 cm), process sand (10% w/w rotavated-in to a depth of 30cm), 99 spent mushroom compost (80t Ha⁻¹ rotavated-in to a depth of 20cm), and seeded with a 100 grassland mix (Agrostis stolonifera, Holcus lanatus, Lolium perenne, Trifolium repens, and 101 *Trifolium pratense*; 100 kg/ha).³¹ The partially treated plot was amended only with 102 process sand, spent mushroom compost, and then seeded. The third plot was left 103 untreated. Samples of bauxite residue were collected to a depth of 50 cm from the trial 104 pits in each of three different treatment zones. Duplicate sample profiles in each plot were 105 taken from two separate clean vertical surfaces of trial pits and stored in polypropylene 106 tubes. The dual depth profiles were sampled to observe and account for heterogeneity in 107 the residue.

Field moist samples were stored at 5 °C before aqueous extraction for major and
trace metals. 10 gram subsamples were mixed with 10 mL of ultrapure water (18.5 MΩ)
and shaken at room temperature for seven days. The solution pH was measured using a
Thermo Scientific Orion ROSS Ultra electrode calibrated with 4.00, 7.00, and 10.00
buffers (Fisher Scientific). 1 gram field moist subsamples were mixed with 10 mL of a 0.1
M Na₂HPO₄ in 0.01 M NaOH and shaken at room temperature for 7 days for phosphate
extraction of metal oxyanions. Supernatant solutions from both the water and phosphate

extractions were filtered through 0.2 µm disposable polyethersulfone filters (Sartorius)
and acidified in 5% HNO₃ for subsequent aqueous analysis by ICP-OES (Thermo Fisher
iCAP 7400 Radial ICP-OES) (see SI section S1 for further details).

118 Further 10 g field moist subsamples were also dried at 105 °C for 24 hours to 119 determine residue water content and for subsequent analysis by X-ray ray diffraction (XRD; Bruker D8 Advance diffractometer, 12 min. scans, 2 to $70^{\circ} 2\theta$), X-ray fluorescence 120 121 (XRF, Olympus Innovex X-5000 XRF analyser) and total carbon analysis (TC; LECO SC-122 144DR carbon analyser). The crystalline phases present were determined from XRD 123 patterns by peak fitting using EVA (version 3.0, Bruker), and semi-quantitative relative 124 proportions were calculated by Rietveld refinement using Topas (version 4.2, Bruker). 125 Total organic carbon (TOC) were measured after a 24 hour digestion in 10% HCl at room 126 temperature. Total inorganic carbon (TIC) was calculated from TC and TOC 127 measurements.

Acid soluble inorganic and organic substances (AIC and AOC) were determined in 129 12 samples after extraction with 2 M HCl (1 g soil in 5 mL of 2 M HCl for 3 days at 4 °C). 130 The extractant was then separated by centrifugation at 8000 *g* for 10 min, pH neutralised 131 by drop-wise addition of 2 M NaOH, evaporated to dryness; and finally the resulting solid 132 dissolved in ultra-pure water at 1 g·L⁻¹.³⁹ Total carbon and total inorganic carbon in the 133 extractant was determined using a Shimadzu total organic carbon analyser 5050A (LOD 134 4 μ g kg⁻¹).

Separate samples of bauxite residue were collected from beneath the exposed vertical surface of each trial pit using a clean spatula, and sealed in sterile polypropylene centrifuge tubes. These samples for DNA analysis were refrigerated within 4 hours and frozen within 48hrs. DNA was isolated from 0.5 g of each sample using the MPBio 139 FastDNA SPIN Kit for Soil. Isolated DNA mass from each sample was determined by Qubit 140 dsDNA High Sensitivity assay on a Qubit Fluorometer (Life Technologies; further details 141 of quantification are in SI Section S3). DNA samples were sent to the Centre for Genomic 142 Research, University of Liverpool, where Illumina TruSeq adapters and indices were 143 attached to DNA fragments in a two-step PCR amplification that targets the V4 hyper-144 variable region of the 16s rRNA gene,⁴⁰ and the result was sequenced on the MiSeq 145 platform. Reads were processed using the UPARSE pipeline⁴¹ within the USEARCH 146 software package (version 10, SI Section S3).⁴² Sequence reads were allocated to 147 operationally taxonomic units (OTUs) based on a minimum sequence identity of 97% 148 between the putative OTU members, and then classified using the SILVA Living Tree 149 Project 16s database, version 123.43

Difference in average element concentration between plot treatments (untreated, fully treated, and partially treated) was tested by ANCOVA (Analysis of Co-Variance) using a general linear model to assess difference in average concentrations across the treatments, with depth of sample as a co-variate. Pairwise comparisons were tested by post-hoc Tukey test using a significance level of p = 0.05. Statistical significance was expressed at p < 0.05 and p < 0.001 and the degrees of freedom for all tests varied between 19 and 64.

157 **Results**

158 Sampling observations

159 Both the fully treated and partially treated sites were vegetated with a variety of 160 perennial grasses (Holcus lanatus), trifoliate clovers (Trifolium pratense), and occasional 161 small shrubs (*Salix* spp.; Fig. S1), as has been described previously.³¹ The untreated plot 162 was largely unvegetated with one or two areas of stunted grasses (Fig. S1). The root zone 163 of the fully treated and partially treated sites extended approximately 15 cm beneath the 164 surface, and below 20cm the substrate had the appearance of dewatered bauxite residue 165 with little change in appearance to 50 cm depth. The untreated profile had no root zone 166 and at all depths had a very similar appearance to the residue in the other profiles at 167 depths below 20 cm. The bottom of the untreated pit filled with leachate to a depth of about 10 cm after 2 hours. 168

169 Substrate characteristics

The pH of the untreated residue was 10.2 at the surface and steadily increased to 12.0 at a depth of 50 cm (Fig. 1; SI Table S2). The pH of the treated plots were notably and significantly lower (p < 0.001; Table S3). The fully treated residue was pH 7.6 at the surface, and increased steadily to a value of 9.6 at a depth of 50 cm. The pH value of the partially treated residue was 7.6 at the surface, increased steadily to a value of 10.8 at a depth of 50 cm, and was not significantly different from the fully treated residue (p > 0.05; Fig 2; Table S2-3).

177 The amount of sodium available to aqueous extraction of the untreated bauxite 178 residue was ~900 mg kg⁻¹ of bauxite residue, and with exception of concentrations at the 179 surface and at 50 cm there was little variation with depth (Fig. 1, Table S2). The amount 180 of Na that could be extracted from the fully treated and partially treated samples 181 demonstrated no trend with depth and were not significantly different from each other 182 (p > 0.05; Table S3). Fully and partially treated residue contained concentrations 183 approximately 10-15 % of those extracted from the untreated residue at the same depth 184 (p < 0.001; Fig. 1; Table S2-3). The concentration of silicon available to aqueous extraction 185 in the untreated bauxite residue was 5 mg kg⁻¹, and apart from the measured 186 concentration from 50 cm there was minimal variation with depth (Fig. 1, Table S2). Si 187 concentrations extracted from fully treated and partially treated bauxite residue were ~4 188 mg kg⁻¹ below 5 cm, and \sim 13 mg kg⁻¹ above 5cm, there was no significant difference 189 between fully, partially, or untreated residue (p > 0.05; Fig. 1; Table S2-3). Calcium 190 concentrations from the aqueous extraction of untreated bauxite residue ranged from 3 191 mg kg⁻¹ at the surface to below the limit of detection at 50 cm (0.11 mg kg⁻¹) (Fig. 1, Table 192 S2). In contrast Ca concentrations from fully treated and partially treated samples were 193 significantly different to the untreated residue (p < 0.001; Table S3), 143 mg kg⁻¹ at the 194 surface decreasing to $\sim 10 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ at 20 cm, with further slight concentration decrease to 195 \sim 2 mg kg⁻¹ at 50 cm with no significant difference between treatments (p > 0.005; Fig. 1; 196 Table S2-3).

197 The aluminium concentration available to aqueous extraction in untreated bauxite 198 residue was ~10 mg kg⁻¹ at the surface which increases steadily with depth to ~65 mg 199 kg⁻¹ at 50 cm (Fig 2. Table S2). Conversely, Al concentrations available in fully and 200 partially treated samples were significantly different (p < 0.001, Table S3) and near the 201 detection limit (0.09 mg kg⁻¹) at all depths, apart from at 30-50 cm where Al 202 concentrations were 1-10 mg kg⁻¹ (Fig 2. Table S2). There was no significant difference 203 between treatments (p > 0.05, Table S3). The amount of vanadium available to aqueous 204 extraction from untreated bauxite residue was $\sim 5 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ and did not vary greatly with 205 depth (Fig 2. Table S2). Aqueous extractable V in fully treated and partially treated 206 samples were near detection limit at the surface (0.03 mg kg⁻¹) and increased gradually 207 with depth to maximum concentrations of 3.9 mg kg⁻¹ at 50 cm, significantly different 208 from untreated residue (p < 0.001, Table S3) but not significantly different between fully 209 and partially treated residue (p > 0.05; Fig 2; Table S2-3). Aqueous available arsenic 210 concentrations from untreated bauxite residue were highest at the surface (0.3 mg kg⁻¹) 211 and decrease with depth to 0.9 mg kg⁻¹ at 50 cm depth (Fig 2. Table S2). With the 212 exception of one sample, all measurements of aqueous extractable As from fully treated 213 and partially treated bauxite residue were below detection limit (0.045 mg kg⁻¹) and 214 significantly different from the untreated residue (p < 0.001; Fig 2; Table S2-3). 215 Extraction at high pH using disodium phosphate demonstrated substantial 216 concentrations of Al, V, and As were available in all bauxite residue treatments. Phosphate 217 extractable Al concentrations from all treatments are generally all 25-50 mg kg⁻¹ at all 218 depths (no significant differences between treatments; p > 0.05; Table S2-3). V 219 concentrations from the phosphate extraction of untreated bauxite residue range from 220 30-75 mg kg⁻¹ at the surface to 30 mg kg⁻¹ at 50 cm depth (Fig 2. Table S2). Phosphate 221 available V from fully treated and partially treated samples was lowest at the surface 222 $(\sim 15 \text{ mg kg}^{-1})$ and increases with depth to $\sim 75 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ at 50 cm, but with no significant 223 differences between untreated, fully treated, or partially treated residue (p > 0.05; Fig 2. 224 Table S2-3). Arsenic concentrations extracted from untreated bauxite residue at high pH 225 with phosphate are ~ 2.5 mg kg⁻¹ at the surface and decrease to < 1 mg kg⁻¹ at 50 cm (Fig. 226 2. Table S2). Phosphate extractable As from fully treated and partially treated samples 227 increase with depth from $\sim 1 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ at the surface to $\sim 2.5 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ at 50 cm (Fig 2. Table 228 S2). Phosphate extractable As from fully treated and partially treated residue were

significantly different (p < 0.05), though neither were significantly different from the
untreated residue (p > 0.05; Table S3).

231 The water content of the residue (weight of water as % of dry weight) at both the 232 fully and partially treated sites was over 50% near the surface, exhibited a minimum of 233 \sim 30 % at approximately 10 cm, and then increased to between 35 and 45 % at depths 234 below 20 cm (Table S2). In contrast the water content in the untreated profile was 35% 235 near to the surface, exhibited a maximum value of ~ 50 % at 10cm, and then decreased 236 slightly to 40 % at depths below 30 cm. Water in the untreated residue was significantly 237 different to fully treated residue (p < 0.001), but not significantly different from partially 238 treated residue (p > 0.05; Table S3)

239 The bulk mineralogy of bauxite residue from all plots were largely similar and 240 consist of 40-45% iron oxy-hydroxides, 20-30% aluminium oxy-hydroxides, 20-30% titanium oxides, and 10-15% feldspathoids (Table 1, Table S4). At the untreated bauxite 241 242 residue plot there were no differences in the relative proportions of each phase with depth. Variations in the relative proportions of phases within the residue as a function of 243 244 depth and treatment were within the range of uncertainty of Rietveld refinement (5%). 245 The alkali generating feldspathoid and desilication product cancrinite was present at all 246 depths in all treatment sites (Table 1, Table S4). There was little difference in the bulk 247 elemental composition measured by XRF with either depth or treatment (Table S5). Fe, 248 Al, Ca, Si and Ti were the most abundant oxides in present each site $(36 \pm 3, 10 \pm 2, 15 \pm 2$ 249 5 ± 1 and 4 ± 1 wt. % respectively). Carbon was most concentrated in the top 10 cm of the 250 fully treated profile (Fig. 3), where TOC was approximately 2.5% and TIC was 1.5%. 251 Below 10 cm there was no discernible difference in carbon content between the fully 252 treated and untreated profiles. Samples of untreated bauxite had less than 0.5% TOC and TIC at all depths. Acid extractable inorganic carbon (AIC) and organic carbon (AOC) was only detectable in the top 10 cm of the fully treated and untreated bauxite residue, and was below or at the limit of detection ($<4 \mu g kg^{-1}$) in all other samples (Table S2).

256 DNA mass isolated per gram of sample demonstrated a strong vertical gradient 257 and significant difference between the treated (fully treated and partially treated) and 258 untreated sites (Fig. 3, Table S6). DNA was concentrated in the top 12 cm of the fully 259 treated and partially treated sites where maximum concentrations were up to 14.3 µg g⁻¹ 260 ¹. The highest concentration of DNA in the untreated samples was 2.3 µg g⁻¹ in the near 261 surface. Below 12 cm the DNA concentrations in the fully treated, partially treated and 262 untreated residue were negligible.

263 Sufficient bacterial DNA was recovered from the fully treated substrate (2 cm), 264 and partially treated substrate (2 and 5 cm) for Next Generation Sequencing (DNA 265 recovery from the untreated substrate was insufficient). Nine phyla individually 266 represented more the 1% of the population of each sample (Fig. S2, Table S7). At this 267 taxonomic level, there was little difference between bacterial communities of the fully 268 treated and partially treated substrate, with the most abundant phyla being 269 Acidobacteria (37 % of reads), Actinobacteria (19 %), Proteobacteria (18 %), and 270 Planctomycetes (14 %). The most abundant class within the Acidobacteria phylum was 271 Acidobacteria Gp6 (48 % of Acidobacteria). Actinomycetales (74 %) was the most 272 abundant order within the Actinobacteria phylum. Alphaproteobacteria (67 %) was the 273 most abundant class within the Proteobacteria. 100 % of the Planctomycetes phylum 274 mapped onto the Planctomycetaceae family.

275 The alpha diversity indices for each sample are shown in Table S8. Here we use
276 Hill numbers^{44,45} as robust bacterial diversity measures which account for the distortions

of rare taxa.^{44–47} D_0^{α} , the operational taxonomic unit (OTU) richness, ranges from ~1250 to 3850, however this diversity index is very sensitive to rare taxa, and takes no account of OTU relative abundance. Indices that give a measure of the number of common (D_1^{α}) and dominant OTUs (D_2^{α} ; Table S8), converge across the samples, demonstrating similar diversity in the OTU populations. Common OTUs represent >79 % of total sequence reads in each sample, and dominant OTUs accounted for 51-62 % of total reads in each sample.

284 Discussion

285 The geochemistry of 20 year old untreated bauxite residue

286 Fresh bauxite residue is highly alkaline (pH 10–13), highly sodic (abundant mobile 287 Na), contains abundant solid phase alkalinity (e.g. desalination products; 2-51%) and can 288 also can contain trace metals above threshold intervention levels. ^{10,12,26,27,48-52} The 289 desilication products in fresh residue tend to have higher proportion of sodalite to 290 cancrinite¹⁰ however, with age sodalite can transform into cancrinite.⁵³ Initially the high 291 pH and sodium contents are due to remnant NaOH from the Bayer Process. Previous work 292 has shown that repeated replacement of pore water decreases the mass of fresh bauxite 293 residue but does not alter final pH, Na⁺, Al(OH)₄⁻, CO₃²⁻, or OH⁻ concentrations ⁸ due to the 294 dissolution desilication products, and associated amorphous phases (Eqn 1, 2). When left 295 untreated, the pH of bauxite residue is controlled by the balance between CO₂ infiltration 296 from the atmosphere, and OH⁻ production through desilication product dissolution.

297 20 years after deposition the measured pH of the untreated bauxite residue ranges 298 from pH 10 at the surface to pH 12 at 50 cm. XRD analysis indicates that cancrinite was 299 the primary desilication product present (Table S4). At the surface, CO₂ in-gassing, in 300 combination with cancrinite dissolution, and associated amorphous Fe, Al, and Si phase 301 solubility, buffers the pore fluids to approximately pH 10. Atmospheric CO₂ in-gassing 302 appears to extend ~ 20 cm from the surface (Fig. 1). Below 20 cm the bauxite residue 303 appears to be isolated from the atmosphere and dissolution of cancrinite results in higher 304 pH (\geq 11.5; Fig. 1). Cancrinite dissolution also controls long term Na availability (Eqn. 2), 305 and results in aqueous available Na concentrations of ~900 mg kg⁻¹ in untreated bauxite 306 residue after 20 years. However, dissolution of cancrinite appears to be incongruent at 307 high pH. Cancrinite dissolution should produce equimolar concentrations of Na, Si, and

Al, (Eqn. 2) but the measured concentrations are far from stoichiometric (Fig. S3).
Aqueous extractable Na concentrations from untreated samples are 100 to 400 times
higher in concentration than extractable Si and 10 to 150 times the Al concentration,
indicating a preferential retention of Si and Al in the solid phase.

312 This preferential retention of Al and Si in the solid phase is probably controlled by 313 the precipitation of amorphous and crystalline secondary phases. At the highest pH 314 measured, Al concentrations are close to equilibrium with gibbsite (Al(OH)₃) (Fig S2). 315 The measured Al concentrations decrease as the pH decreases from 12 to 10, but exceeds 316 concentrations in equilibrium with gibbsite. Over this pH range, Si concentrations are 317 much lower than those expected for $SiO_{2(am)}$ equilibrium, suggesting an alternative 318 solubility limiting phase. At high pH, with high Na concentrations, Al and Si can co-319 precipitate in amorphous cation-bridged alumino-silicate gels,⁵⁴ which may explain the 320 low concentrations observed.

321 Sustained alkalinity generation throughout untreated bauxite residue is a concern 322 because it may be associated with increased mobility of potentially toxic metal(oid) 323 oxyanions such as Al, V, and As. Both V and As are reported to be present in bauxite 324 residues primarily in the 5+ oxidation state as vanadate and arsenate species ^{10,12}, and 325 are found as surface adsorbed species (V can also be associated with neoformed hydrogarnet phases such as Katoite).¹² Conversely, Al availability is usually controlled by 326 327 the solubility of Al (oxy)hydroxide phases, which typically have much higher solubility at 328 high pH (see discussion above).⁵⁵ In alkaline phosphate extractions both OH- and 329 phosphate ions compete strongly for available sorption sites and promote the mobility of 330 metal oxyanions.^{14,20} The results of these extractions, therefore, demonstrate that there 331 is abundant V and As adsorbed to bauxite residue (Fig. 2). In the untreated samples,

where pH > 10, As and V sorb poorly to mineral surfaces,^{14-16,21,56-58} which is why only 10
and 15 % of the phosphate extractable As and V respectively were extractable water this
fraction will be mobile in residue pore waters.

In summary, the bauxite residue from the untreated plot retains many of the characteristics of the fresh bauxite residue 20 years after deposition: high pH, a sizeable quantity of desilication products (particularly cancrinite), abundant available Na, high Al, V, and As concentrations, low organic carbon concentrations. Thus, untreated, it is an environment that is not conducive to spontaneous macro- or microorganism colonization through translocation.

341

342 Treated bauxite residue

343 16 years after bauxite residue treatment with process sand, organic matter and 344 gypsum significant pH reduction (2 units) was observed over a depth that extends at least 345 30 cm below the actively treated surface layer (Fig. 1; Table S2). Aqueous sodium 346 concentrations were an order of magnitude lower in the treated plots than untreated plot 347 at all depths (Fig. 1; Table S2), and the availability of aluminium, vanadium, and arsenic 348 were all lower in treated than untreated bauxite residue (Fig. 2; Table S2). These 349 observations demonstrate that positive treatment effects observed in the short term are 350 sustained, such as: improved permeability, particle aggregation, and drainage; pH 351 neutralisation; decreased Na, Al, and Fe availability. ^{28,29} In natural soils, organic matter 352 plays a key role in controlling particle aggregation,⁵⁹⁻⁶¹ and the application of spent 353 mushroom compost may have improved residue structure. In highly alkaline conditions, 354 organic matter dissolves and hydrolyses to form humic substances and lower molecular weight organic anions.⁶²⁻⁶⁴ This process lowers pH and releases organic bound nutrients
to the local environment. Other studies have reported significant reduction in pH
following organic matter application to bauxite residue.^{28,29,65,66} Gypsum application
enhances pH neutralisation by CO₂ in-gassing via the precipitation of CaCO₃.^{20,21} The net
reaction for this mechanism is:

360
$$CaSO_4. 2H_2O + 2OH^- + CO_2 \rightleftharpoons CaCO_3 + SO_4^{2-} + 3H_2O$$
 (Eqn. 3)

361 Increased CO₂ in-gassing and formation of dissolved carbonate species (supplementary 362 information Eqns S2-7) can buffer the pH to 7.5-8, similar to natural alkaline soils, thus 363 producing an environment less hostile to biological colonisation. At this site bauxite 364 residue treatment with gypsum (in addition to process sand and organic matter) resulted in greater plant biomass in the first two years of growth,²⁶⁻²⁸ and a more diverse and 365 366 developed vegetation succession after 6 years (i.e. partial replacement of clover by more 367 extensive grass cover and the establishment of small shrubs).³¹ However, 16 years after 368 treatment, there is no significant chemical or microbiological difference between the fully 369 and partially treated substrate.

370 Long term alkalinity generation and sodium release in the 20 year old bauxite 371 residue is controlled by cancrinite dissolution. Cancrinite dissolution kinetics as a 372 function of pH is unreported in the literature, but the feldspathoids leucite and nepheline 373 exhibit dissolution kinetics that decrease by an order of magnitude as pH decreases from 374 12 to 7.67-70 The dissolution kinetics of multioxide silicates, including aluminosilicates, 375 are controlled by the solubilities of secondary phases,⁷¹ thus it is inferred that these 376 decreases in feldspathoid dissolution rate are linked to the solubilities of secondary 377 aluminium and silicon phases. It is reasonable to expect cancrinite dissolution kinetics to 378 vary with pH in a similar manner to other feldspathoids, decreasing by an order of magnitude between pH 12 and 7. This suggests pH conditions established in treated
bauxite residue from organic matter and gypsum addition decrease the rate of OH⁻ and
Na⁺ production from the dissolution of cancrinite and associated secondary phases (Fig.
1).

383 Aqueous extracted aluminium concentrations from partially and fully treated 384 bauxite residue plotted as a function of pH (Fig. S3) fall on a line parallel to, but in 385 between, the solubility lines of gibbsite and Al(OH)_{3 (am)}. This is different to the trend 386 observed for the untreated samples at higher pH, suggesting a different solubility 387 controlling phase. Between pH 8 and 10 formation of dawsonite (NaAlCO₃(OH)₂) and an 388 amorphous precursor to boehmite have been observed in bauxite residue treatment.^{12,72} 389 and may be the solubility controlling phases at this site. The phosphate extraction shows 390 that there is abundant extractable Al, V, and As in both the partially and fully treated 391 bauxite residue (Fig. 2; Table S2). However the aqueous extractions showed that nearer 392 to neutral pH Al is secured in secondary phases, and the majority of V and As is sorbed to 393 mineral surfaces^{14–16,21,56–58} making Al, V, and As, much less available to aqueous solution 394 (Fig. 2).

395

396 Long term maintenance of beneficial conditions

Rehabilitation of bauxite residue disposal areas by vegetation using the treatments described here is a pH dependant processes with benefits extending 20-30 cm beyond the initial treatment depth. After 20 years of rainwater infiltration the alkalinity generating phases have not been exhausted, thus other processes must be controlling residue neutralisation. 16 years after treatment, the original additives are 402 largely unobservable, with little chemical difference remaining from the application of 403 gypsum. This suggests that the development of resilient vegetation on bauxite residue, 404 along with associated rhizosphere microorganisms, may drive long term stability and 405 chemical safety of treated bauxite residue. The organic matter applied to the surface 406 layers is only detected in small quantities (Fig. 3) and has likely been degraded and 407 recycled into plants and microorganisms. The products of gypsum addition are minimal; 408 calcite was undetectable by XRD, and there is only a slight accumulation of Ca and TIC 409 towards the surface of both treated zones. Process sand was present in the surface layer 410 when sampling but heterogeneously distributed and undetectable mineralogically by 411 XRD and chemically by XRF.

412 The supply of H⁺ ions to depth that is driving pH neutralisation in treated bauxite 413 residue may be photosynthetic in origin. This can occur via a combination of three 414 mechanisms: (a) enhanced CO₂ flux from plant roots and associated microorganism 415 respiration; (b) organic matter degradation in the biologically active surface layer, 416 producing low molecular weight organic acids; and (c) secretion of low molecular weight 417 organic acids by plant roots and rhizospheric microorganisms. The carbon flux from 418 atmosphere to rhizosphere is well documented in both the short (i.e. respiration), and 419 medium terms (organic matter production).⁷³ Quantification of extracted DNA from both 420 the treated plots suggests a zone of greater biological activity in the top 12 cm of treated 421 bauxite residue (Fig. 3). DNA recovery is media dependent, with particle size and pH 422 potentially affecting the efficiency of extraction. This uncertainty may over emphasise the 423 gradient of biological activity with depth, and between treated and untreated samples. 424 The extracted DNA concentrations from the top 12 cm of treated bauxite residue are 425 within the range of extracted DNA concentrations from natural soils (very approximate

soil DNA concentrations range from 2.5 to 26.9 µg g⁻¹).⁷⁴ DNA recovery from this site's 426 427 untreated bauxite residue was insufficient for Next-Generation Sequencing, however 428 other workers have shown bauxite residue to contain alkali tolerant bacteria.75 429 Sequenced DNA recovered from the root zone substrate of the fully and partially treated 430 bauxite residue was dominated by the phyla Acidobacteria, Actinobacteria, 431 Proteobacteria, and Planctomycetes. Natural soil root zone or rhizosphere bacterial 432 communities frequently contain Actinobacteria, Bacteroidetes, Firmicutes, and 433 Proteobacteria taxa,⁷⁶⁻⁷⁸ which, with the exception of Firmicutes, are present in our 434 treated bauxite residue (Figure S2, Table S7). Many taxa of Acidobacteria are known to 435 be tolerant to high pH, and show increasing relative abundance with increasing pH from 436 5.5 pH.⁷⁹⁻⁸² Many Planctomycetes taxa are halotolerant,⁸³⁻⁸⁷ existing in freshwater, 437 marine, and brackish environments. The presence of these phyla suggests the microbial 438 communities in the fully and partially treated bauxite residue are in transition between a 439 highly alkaline and saline residue microbiome, and a plant supported subsurface 440 microbiome.

441 Surface treatment with process sand, gypsum, and organic matter is a stable, reliable, and safe solution to bauxite residue rehabilitation. Bauxite residue pH is 442 443 neutralised, Na⁺ is less available, and metal oxyanions (Al, V, and As) are less mobile. The 444 beneficial effects of treatment are long term and extend 20-30 cm beyond the depth of 445 application. The formation a passively treated zone, which is $\geq 20\%$ of the total disposal 446 cell depth, is sufficient to separate the surface environments from the potentially highly 447 alkaline, sodium rich, and trace metal containing residue at depth. The presence of alkalinity generating phases in both treated plots highlights the importance of 448 maintaining a strong biologically active surface layer. Were this layer to be removed or 449

substantially disrupted, and its supply of acid neutralising molecules lost, the system
would likely return to a high pH steady state, with high Na, Al, V, and As concentrations,
similar to those observed in the untreated bauxite residue.

453 This is the first observation of a shallow surface layer of actively treated and 454 vegetated residue producing passive positive rehabilitation effects into deeper layers. 455 This rehabilitation is likely driven by biology activity at the surface and continues long 456 after the original treatment constitutes (gypsum, organic matter) have been depleted. 457 Rehabilitation has resulted in a physical separation between deeper zones within the 458 residue (potentially containing high alkalinity, sodium, and trace metals) and the bottom 459 of the rooted zone at around 20 cm. Rehabilitation decreases the likelihood of plants 460 being exposed to the negative characteristics of bauxite residue, and lowers the 461 possibility of trace metal transfer into foliage and the wider ecosystem. The benefits of 462 this surface treatment extend beyond the environmental; the cost of application is 463 approximately $10k \in /ha$, whereas the cap and cover estimate for this BDRA is $100k \in /ha$. 464 Gypsum application accounts for approximately 50-70 % of the total treatment cost, and 465 assessment of its value for long term rehabilitation is important. Our results suggest the 466 development of a healthy vegetation cover is key to long term stability of residue 467 rehabilitation and previous work has demonstrated the role of gypsum in rapidly, and 468 successfully establishing a resilient vegetation layer.^{26–28,31,32,35} Gypsum application may, 469 therefore, offer additional security in vegetation establishment, and the ultimate success 470 and longevity of rehabilitation. However, 16 years after application there are no 471 significant chemical benefits from gypsum addition. Our study demonstrates surface 472 amendment of this nature is a viable closure option for active BRDAs and a particularly 473 good choice for rehabilitation of orphan sites where there is an acute need to protect the474 public and environment at the lowest possible costs.

475 Supporting Information

476 Detailed aqueous analysis, DNA extraction, quantification, and post sequence processing 477 methods. Stepwise reactions of gypsum promoted CaCO₃ precipitation and pH 478 neutralisation. On site photographs of the trial pits. Additional figures of bacterial 479 community composition and elemental ratios and solubility. Additional tables with full 480 analytical results. Sequence reads have been uploaded to the National Center for 481 Biotechnology Information (NCBI) under the Sequence Read Archive (SRA) accession 482 number TBC. Collectively, the paper and these sources provide all the relevant data for 483 this study.

484 Acknowledgements

This research was funded by grant NE/L01405X/1 as part of the Resource
Recovery from Waste programme administered by the Natural Environment Research
Council (NERC), UK. The authors would like to thank Andy Connelly, Lesley Neve, Stephen
Reid, Sheena Bennett, and David Elliott at the University of Leeds for technical support.

490 References

- World Aluminium. World Aluminium Alumina Production. (2017). Available at: http://www.world-aluminium.org/statistics/alumina-production/. (Accessed: 26th May 2017)
- 494 2. Snars, K. & Gilkes, R. J. Evaluation of bauxite residues (red muds) of different
 495 origins for environmental applications. *Appl. Clay Sci.* 46, 13–20 (2009).
- 496 3. International Aluminium Institute. *Bauxite Residue Management: Best Practice*497 *www.european-aluminium.* (2015).
- 498 4. Power, G., Gräfe, M. & Klauber, C. Bauxite residue issues: I. Current management,
 499 disposal and storage practices. *Hydrometallurgy* 108, 33–45 (2011).
- 5. Hind, A. R., Bhargava, S. K. & Grocott, S. C. The surface chemistry of Bayer process
 solids: a review. *Colloids Surfaces A Physicochem. Eng. Asp.* 146, 359–374 (1999).
- 502 6. Czop, M., Motyka, J., Sracek, O. & Szuwarzyński, M. Geochemistry of the
 503 Hyperalkaline Gorka Pit Lake (pH > 13) in the Chrzanow Region, Southern
 504 Poland. *Water, Air, Soil Pollut.* 214, 423–434 (2011).
- 505 7. Mayes, W. M. *et al.* Dispersal and Attenuation of Trace Contaminants Downstream
 506 of the Ajka Bauxite Residue (Red Mud) Depository Failure, Hungary. *Environ. Sci.*507 *Technol.* 45, 5147–5155 (2011).
- 508 8. Thornber, M. & Binet, D. Caustic Soda Adsorption on Bayer Residues. in *5th*509 *International Alumina Quality Workshop* (ed. Alumina Worsley) 498–507 (1999).
- Menzies, N. W., Fulton, I. M., Kopittke, R. A. & Kopittke, P. M. Fresh Water Leaching
 of Alkaline Bauxite Residue after Sea Water Neutralization. *J. Environ. Qual.* 38,
 2050 (2009).
- 51310.Gräfe, M., Power, G. & Klauber, C. Bauxite residue issues: III. Alkalinity and514associated chemistry. *Hydrometallurgy* **108**, 60–79 (2011).
- 515 11. Brunori, C., Cremisini, C., Massanisso, P., Pinto, V. & Torricelli, L. Reuse of a treated
 516 red mud bauxite waste: studies on environmental compatibility. *J. Hazard. Mater.*517 117, 55–63 (2005).
- 518 12. Burke, I. T. *et al.* Speciation of arsenic, chromium, and vanadium in red mud
 519 samples from the Ajka spill site, Hungary. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 46, 3085–3092
 520 (2012).
- 521 13. Klebercz, O. *et al.* Ecotoxicity of fluvial sediments downstream of the Ajka red mud spill, Hungary. *J. Environ. Monit.* 14, 2063 (2012).
- Lockwood, C. L. *et al.* Mobilisation of arsenic from bauxite residue (red mud)
 affected soils: Effect of pH and redox conditions. *Appl. Geochemistry* 51, 268–277
 (2014).
- 526 15. Peacock, C. L. & Sherman, D. M. Vanadium(V) adsorption onto goethite (α-FeOOH)
 527 at pH 1.5 to 12: a surface complexation model based on ab initio molecular
 528 geometries and EXAFS spectroscopy. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta* 68, 1723–1733
 529 (2004).
- 530 16. Mamindy-Pajany, Y., Hurel, C., Marmier, N. & Roméo, M. Arsenic adsorption onto 531 hematite and goethite. *Comptes Rendus Chim.* **12**, 876–881 (2009).
- 532 17. Renforth, P. *et al.* Contaminant mobility and carbon sequestration downstream of
 533 the Ajka (Hungary) red mud spill: The effects of gypsum dosing. *Sci. Total Environ.*534 421, 253–259 (2012).
- 535 18. Alcoa. Pinjarra Refinery Long Term Residue Management Strategy. (2011).
- 536 19. Alcoa. Kwinana Refinery Long Term Residue Management Strategy. (2012).

- 537 20. Burke, I. T. *et al.* Behavior of Aluminum, Arsenic, and Vanadium during the
 538 Neutralization of Red Mud Leachate by HCl, Gypsum, or Seawater. *Environ. Sci.*539 *Technol.* 47, 6527–6535 (2013).
- 540 21. Lehoux, A. P. *et al.* Gypsum addition to soils contaminated by red mud:
 541 implications for aluminium, arsenic, molybdenum and vanadium solubility.
 542 *Environ. Geochem. Health* 35, 643–656 (2013).
- 543 22. Kirwan, L. J., Hartshorn, A., McMonagle, J. B., Fleming, L. & Funnell, D. Chemistry of
 544 bauxite residue neutralisation and aspects to implementation. *Int. J. Miner.*545 *Process.* 119, 40–50 (2013).
- 546 23. Hanahan, C. *et al.* Chemistry of Seawater Neutralization of Bauxite Refinery
 547 Residues (Red Mud). *Environ. Eng. Sci.* 21, 125–138 (2004).
- 548 24. Wightman, G. & Davy Mckee Limited. Process for the removal of sodium values549 from sodium contaminated solids. (1994).
- 550 25. Kishida, M., Harato, T., Tokoro, C. & Owada, S. In situ remediation of bauxite
 551 residue by sulfuric acid leaching and bipolar-membrane electrodialysis.
 552 *Hydrometallurgy* **170**, 58–67 (2017).
- 553 26. Courtney, R., Timpson, J. P. & Grennan, E. Growth of Trifolium pratense in Red
 554 Mud Amended With Process Sand, Gypsum and Thermally Dried Sewage Sludge.
 555 Int. J. Surf. Mining, Reclam. Environ. 17, 227–233 (2003).
- 556 27. Courtney, R. G. & Timpson, J. P. Nutrient status of vegetation grown in alkaline
 557 bauxite processing residue amended with gypsum and thermally dried sewage
 558 sludge A two year field study. *Plant Soil* 266, 187–194 (2004).
- 28. Courtney, R. G. & Timpson, J. P. Reclamation of Fine Fraction Bauxite Processing
 Residue (Red Mud) Amended with Coarse Fraction Residue and Gypsum. *Water. Air. Soil Pollut.* 164, 91–102 (2005).
- 562 29. Courtney, R. G., Jordan, S. N. & Harrington, T. Physico-chemical changes in bauxite
 563 residue following application of spent mushroom compost and gypsum. *L. Degrad.*564 *Dev.* 20, 572–581 (2009).
- 565 30. Courtney, R. & Mullen, G. Use of Germination and Seedling Performance Bioassays
 566 for Assessing Revegetation Strategies on Bauxite Residue. *Water. Air. Soil Pollut.*567 197, 15–22 (2009).
- 568 31. Courtney, R., Mullen, G. & Harrington, T. An evaluation of revegetation success on bauxite residue. *Restor. Ecol.* 17, 350–358 (2009).
- 570 32. Courtney, R. & Harrington, T. Growth and nutrition of Holcus lanatus in bauxite
 571 residue amended with combinations of spent mushroom compost and gypsum. *L.*572 *Degrad. Dev.* 23, 144–149 (2012).
- 573 33. Courtney, R. & Kirwan, L. Gypsum amendment of alkaline bauxite residue Plant
 574 available aluminium and implications for grassland restoration ScienceDirect.
 575 *Ecol. Eng.* 42, 279–282 (2012).
- 576 34. Schmalenberger, A., O'Sullivan, O., Gahan, J., Cotter, P. D. & Courtney, R. Bacterial
 577 Communities Established in Bauxite Residues with Different Restoration
 578 Histories. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 47, 7110–7119 (2013).
- 579 35. Courtney, R., Feeney, E. & O'Grady, A. An ecological assessment of rehabilitated bauxite residue. *Ecol. Eng.* 73, 373–379 (2014).
- 581 36. Courtney, R., Harris, J. A. & Pawlett, M. Microbial Community Composition in a
 582 Rehabilitated Bauxite Residue Disposal Area: A Case Study for Improving
 592 Minubial Community Composition in a
- 583 Microbial Community Composition. *Restor. Ecol.* **22**, 798–805 (2014). 584 37. Santini, T. C., Kerr, J. L. & Warren, L. A. Microbially-driven strategies fo
- 584 37. Santini, T. C., Kerr, J. L. & Warren, L. A. Microbially-driven strategies for
 585 bioremediation of bauxite residue. *J. Hazard. Mater.* 293, 131–157 (2015).

586	38.	Zhu, F. <i>et al.</i> Natural plant colonization improves the physical condition of bauxite
587		residue over time. <i>Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res.</i> 23, 22897–22905 (2016).
588	39.	Eaton, A. D., Clesceri, L. S., Rice, E. W. & Greenberg, A. E. Standard Methods for the
589		Examination of Water & amp; Wastewater. (American Public Health Association,
590		2005).
591	40.	Caporaso, J. G. et al. Global patterns of 16S rRNA diversity at a depth of millions of
592		sequences per sample. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 108 Suppl 1, 4516–22 (2011).
593	41.	Edgar, R. C. UPARSE: highly accurate OTU sequences from microbial amplicon
594		reads. <i>Nat. Methods</i> 10, 996–998 (2013).
595	42.	Edgar, R. C. Search and clustering orders of magnitude faster than BLAST.
596		Bioinformatics 26, 2460–2461 (2010).
597	43.	Yarza, P. <i>et al.</i> The All-Species Living Tree project: A 16S rRNA-based
598		phylogenetic tree of all sequenced type strains. <i>Syst. Appl. Microbiol.</i> 31 , 241–250
599		(2008).
600	44.	Hill, M. O. Diversity and Evenness: A Unifying Notation and Its Consequences.
601		<i>Ecology</i> 54 , 427–432 (1973).
602	45.	Jost, L. Entropy and Diversity. <i>Oikos</i> 113, 363–375 (2006).
603	46.	Jost, L. PARTITIONING DIVERSITY INTO INDEPENDENT ALPHA AND BETA
604		COMPONENTS. <i>Ecology</i> 88, 2427–2439 (2007).
605	47.	Kang, S., Rodrigues, J. L. M., Ng, J. P. & Gentry, T. J. Hill number as a bacterial
606		diversity measure framework with high-throughput sequence data. Sci. Rep. 6,
607		38263 (2016).
608	48.	Santini, T. C. Application of the Rietveld refinement method for quantification of
609		mineral concentrations in bauxite residues (alumina refining tailings). Int. J.
610		Miner. Process. 139, 1–10 (2015).
611	49.	Hertel, T., Blanpain, B. & Pontikes, Y. A Proposal for a 100?% Use of Bauxite
612		Residue Towards Inorganic Polymer Mortar. J. Sustain. Metall. 2, 394–404 (2016).
613	50.	Xue, S. <i>et al.</i> A review of the characterization and revegetation of bauxite residues
614		(Red mud). <i>Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res.</i> 23, 1120–1132 (2016).
615	51.	Ruyters, S. et al. The Red Mud Accident in Ajka (Hungary): Plant Toxicity and
616		Trace Metal Bioavailability in Red Mud Contaminated Soil. Environ. Sci. Technol.
617		45, 1616–1622 (2011).
618	52.	Buchman, M. F. NOAA Screening Quick Reference Tables. NOAA OR&R Report 8–1,
619		(2008).
620	53.	Barnes, M. C., Addai-Mensah, J. & Gerson, A. R. The mechanism of the sodalite-to-
621		cancrinite phase transformation in synthetic spent Bayer liquor. <i>Microporous</i>
622		Mesoporous Mater. 31, 287–302 (1999).
623	54.	Xu, H. & Van Deventer, J. S. J. The geopolymerisation of alumino-silicate minerals.
624		Int. J. Miner. Process. 59, 247–266 (2000).
625	55.	Langmuir, D. Aqueous environmental geochemistry. (Prentice Hall, 1997).
626	56.	Wehrli, B. & Stumm, W. Vanadyl in natural waters: Adsorption and hydrolysis
627		promote oxygenation. <i>Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta</i> 53, 69–77 (1989).
628	57.	Genç, H., Tjell, J. C., McConchie, D. & Schuiling, O. Adsorption of arsenate from
629		water using neutralized red mud. J. Colloid Interface Sci. 264, 327–334 (2003).
630	58.	Sherman, D. M. & Randall, S. R. Surface complexation of arsenic(V) to iron(III)
631		(hydr)oxides: structural mechanism from ab initio molecular geometries and
632		EXAFS spectroscopy. Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 67, 4223-4230 (2003).
633	59.	TISDALL, J. M. & OADES, J. M. Organic matter and water-stable aggregates in soils.
634		J. Soil Sci. 33, 141–163 (1982).

- 635 60. Six, J., Paustian, K., Elliott, E. T. & Combrink, C. Soil Structure and Organic Matter.
 636 Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 64, 681 (2000).
- 637 61. Six, J., Elliott, E. T. & Paustian, K. Soil Structure and Soil Organic Matter. *Soil Sci.*638 *Soc. Am. J.* 64, 1042 (2000).
- 639 62. Knill, C. J. & Kennedy, J. F. Degradation of cellulose under alkaline conditions.
 640 *Carbohydr. Polym.* 51, 281–300 (2003).
- 641 63. Humphreys, P. N., Laws, A. P. & Dawson, J. A Review of Cellulose Degradation and
 642 the Fate of Degradation Products Under Repository Conditions. (Nuclear
 643 Decommissioning Authority (NDA), 2010).
- 644 64. Rout, S. P. *et al.* Biodegradation of the alkaline cellulose degradation products
 645 generated during radioactive waste disposal. *PLoS One* **9**, e107433 (2014).
- 646 65. Fuller, R. D., Nelson, E. D. P. & Richardson, C. J. Reclamation of Red Mud (Bauxite
 647 Residues) Using Alkaline-Tolerant Grasses with Organic Amendments1. *J. Environ.*648 *Qual.* 11, 533 (1982).
- 649 66. Wong, J. W. C. & Ho, G. Sewage sludge as organic ameliorant for revegetation of 650 fine bauxite refining residue. *Resour. Conserv. Recycl.* **11**, 297–309 (1994).
- 651 67. Krüger, G. Verwitterungsversuche an Leuzit. *Chemie der Erde Geochemistry1* 12, 236–264 (1939).
- 653 68. Brady, P. V. & Walther, J. V. Controls on silicate dissolution rates in neutral and 654 basic pH solutions at 25°C. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta* **53**, 2823–2830 (1989).
- 655 69. Hamilton, J. P., Brantley, S. L., Pantano, C. G., Criscenti, L. J. & Kubicki, J. D.
 656 Dissolution of nepheline, jadeite and albite glasses: toward better models for aluminosilicate dissolution. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta* 65, 3683–3702 (2001).
- 65870.Tole, M. P., Lasaga, A. C., Pantano, C. & White, W. B. The kinetics of dissolution of659nepheline (NaAlSiO4). *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta* **50**, 379–392 (1986).
- 660 71. Oelkers, E. H. General kinetic description of multioxide silicate mineral and glass
 661 dissolution. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta* 65, 3703–3719 (2001).
- Alvarez-Ayuso, E. & Nugteren, H. W. Synthesis of dawsonite: A method to treat the
 etching waste streams of the aluminium anodising industry. *Water Res.* 39, 2096–
 2104 (2005).
- 665 73. Schlesinger, W. H. & Andrews, J. A. Soil respiration and the global carbon cycle.
 666 *Biogeochemistry* 48, 7–20 (2000).
- 667 74. Zhou, J., Bruns, M. A. & Tiedje, J. M. DNA recovery from soils of diverse
 668 composition. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 62, 316–322 (1996).
- Krishna, P., Babu, A. G. & Reddy, M. S. Bacterial diversity of extremely alkaline
 bauxite residue site of alumina industrial plant using culturable bacteria and
 residue 16S rRNA gene clones. *Extremophiles* 18, 665–676 (2014).
- 672 76. Müller, D. B., Vogel, C., Bai, Y. & Vorholt, J. A. The Plant Microbiota: Systems-Level
 673 Insights and Perspectives. *Annu. Rev. Genet.* 50, 211–234 (2016).
- 674 77. Bulgarelli, D. *et al.* Revealing structure and assembly cues for Arabidopsis root-675 inhabiting bacterial microbiota. *Nature* **488**, 91–95 (2012).
- 676 78. Lundberg, D. S. *et al.* Defining the core Arabidopsis thaliana root microbiome.
 677 *Nature* 488, 86–90 (2012).
- 678 79. Jones, R. T. *et al.* A comprehensive survey of soil acidobacterial diversity using pyrosequencing and clone library analyses. *ISME J.* 3, 442–53 (2009).
- 80. Liu, W., Zhang, W., Liu, G., Zhang, Y. & Zhang, G. Microbial diversity in the salinealkali soil of a coastal Tamarix chinensis woodland at Bohai Bay, China. *J. Arid Land* 8, 284–292 (2016).
- 683 81. Huber, K. J. *et al.* The first representative of the globally widespread subdivision 6

684		Acidobacteria,Vicinamibacter silvestris gen. nov., sp. nov., isolated from
685		subtropical savannah soil. Int. J. Syst. Evol. Microbiol. 66, 2971–2979 (2016).
686	82.	Li, X., Sun, M., Zhang, H., Xu, N. & Sun, G. Use of mulberry–soybean intercropping
687		in salt–alkali soil impacts the diversity of the soil bacterial community. <i>Microb.</i>
688		Biotechnol. 9, 293–304 (2016).
689	83.	Lage, O. M. & Bondoso, J. Bringing Planctomycetes into pure culture. <i>Front.</i>
690		Microbiol. 3, 405 (2012).
691	84.	Chistoserdova, L. et al. The Enigmatic Planctomycetes May Hold a Key to the
692		Origins of Methanogenesis and Methylotrophy. Mol. Biol. Evol. 21, 1234–1241
693		(2004).
694	85.	Scheuner, C. <i>et al.</i> Complete genome sequence of Planctomyces brasiliensis type
695		strain (DSM 5305T), phylogenomic analysis and reclassification of
696		Planctomycetes including the descriptions of Gimesia gen. nov., Planctopirus gen.
697		nov. and Rubinisphaera gen. nov. and emended descriptions of the order
698		Planctomycetales and the family Planctomycetaceae. Stand. Genomic Sci. 9, 10
699		(2014).
700	86.	Ferreira, C., Soares, A. R., Lamosa, P., Santos, M. A. & da Costa, M. S. Comparison of
701		the compatible solute pool of two slightly halophilic planctomycetes species,
702		Gimesia maris and Rubinisphaera brasiliensis. <i>Extremophiles</i> 20 , 811–820 (2016).
703	87.	Elshahed, M. S. et al. Phylogenetic and metabolic diversity of Planctomycetes from
704		anaerobic, sulfide- and sulfur-rich Zodletone Spring, Oklahoma. Appl. Environ.
705		Microbiol. 73, 4707–16 (2007).
706		
707		





709 710

- 711 pH, Na, Si, and Ca aqueously extracted from fully treated, partially treated, and untreated
- 712 bauxite residue as a function of depth. The dotted line represents the limit of detection
- 713 for element.



715 716

716 Figure 2.

717 Concentrations of Al, V, and As in solution following aqueous and phosphate (PO4)
718 extractions from fully treated, partially treated, and untreated bauxite residue as a
719 function of depth. Note the change in x-axis scale for aqueous and phosphate extracted V
720 and As. The dotted line represents the limit of detection for each element.



722 723 **Figure 3**.

- 724 DNA, total inorganic carbon (TIC), and total organic carbon (TOC) concentrations in fully
- treated, partially treated, and untreated bauxite residue as a function of depth.

Table 1.

Semi-quantitative percentage of crystalline phases present in bauxite residue as a function of treatment and average across depth, fitted
using Rietveld refinement. Uncertainty on the Rietveld refinement is approximately 5 %. Full details are available in Table S2.

	Fe Oxyhyd	lroxides	Al oxyhydroxides			Desilication Products		Ti Oxides	0.1
Treatment	Goethite	Hematite	Gibbsite	Boehmite	Katoite	Cancrinite	Sodalite	Perovskite	Other minerals
Site	α-re0(0H) %	Fe ₂ O ₃ %	AI(OH)3 %	γ-ΑΙΟ(ΟΗ) %	Ca ₃ Al ₂ (OH) ₁₂ %	Na6Ca2Al6S16O24(CO3J2 %	Na8AI6S16U24(UHJ2 %	Calio ₃ %	%
Untreated	21	16	8	10	2	14	1	20	9
Fully Treated	24	19	8	7	3	10	< 0.5	20	9
Partially Treated	19	16	11	10	10	10	< 0.5	15	8