

1 **Assessing the effects of metal mining effluents on freshwater ecosystems using**
2 **biofilm as an ecological indicator: comparison between nanofiltration and**
3 **nanofiltration with electrocoagulation treatment technologies.**

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15 **Abstract**

16 Abandoned mines cause serious environmental damage to their surroundings with
17 considerable impacts on freshwater ecosystems. These impacts occur mainly due to the
18 uncontrolled discharge of polluted effluents, which may contain high concentrations of
19 heavy metals. Currently, no real solution exists for this important environmental problem,
20 leaving a legacy of global pollution. This study aimed to assess the impact of a metal
21 mining effluent from an abandoned mine on freshwater ecosystems, using aquatic
22 biofilms as an ecological indicator. At the same time, the efficiency of different innovative
23 treatment technologies in reducing the ecological impacts caused by mining effluents
24 was evaluated, consisting of nanofiltration and nanofiltration combined with
25 electrocoagulation. To do that, aquatic biofilms obtained from a pristine stream, were
26 exposed, under microcosms conditions, to a metal mining effluent, untreated or treated
27 by the innovative treatment technologies and responses were compared with unexposed
28 biofilm which served as control. The structural and functional responses of the biofilm
29 were measured with throughout time. Biofilms that were exposed to the untreated mining
30 effluent showed significant differences respect to the rest of treatments and the control,
31 particularly exhibiting inhibitory effects on photosynthetic efficiency just after 24 hours of
32 exposure and a progressive shift of the photosynthetic community composition
33 throughout the exposure period. The treatment technologies significantly reduced the
34 ecological impact caused by the metal mining effluent. However, metal bioaccumulation
35 in biofilm revealed a potential long-term impact. These observations evidenced the
36 biofilm as a useful ecological indicator to assess the ecological impact caused by metal

37 mining effluents on freshwaters and the efficiency of different treatment technologies to
38 reduce it.

39 *Keywords:* Aquatic biofilm, Ecological indicator, Metal mining effluents, Treatment
40 technology.

41 **1. Introduction**

42 Mining activities generate large amounts of highly concentrated wastewater due to the
43 contact between water and various types of minerals. The origin of these effluents can
44 be found in the distinct processes undertaken in mining, in addition to drainage from
45 rainfall. Mining effluents can be caused by wash waters, flow process acids, water
46 leaching, flotation and concentrations and from the refining and gas scrubbers (European
47 Commission, 2010). All these processes can generate highly polluted effluents, by
48 carrying soluble substances (as heavy metals) or small particles through soil or rock to
49 the rivers (Kumar, P. 2015).

50 In some cases, even long after the mining activities have ceased, the emitted metals
51 throughout these effluents continue to persist in the environment (Jain et al., 2016), such
52 as Acid Mine Drainage that occurs when sulphide-bearing material is exposed to oxygen
53 and water (Azapagic, 2004; Johnson and Hallberg, 2005). The environmental problem
54 caused by mining activities is especially critical for abandoned mines, due to the fact that
55 there are no actors in charge of treating these mining effluents. Historically, mine sites
56 were often abandoned without any concerns regarding the potential risks to humans and
57 the surrounding environment, nor with regard to visual impacts, land-scape integration
58 or land-use (European Commission, 2012). Abandoned mines are certain to be of
59 appreciable concern to nearby citizens, as they can affect regional water supplies,
60 contaminate water resources and damage sensitive aquatic habitats (Jain et al., 2016).

61 Heavy metals may be stored in aquatic ecosystems or seep into the water table, which
62 leads to contamination of underground water courses (Johnson and Hallberg, 2005;
63 Younger et al., 2003). The specific hazards posed by heavy metals harboured in mining
64 effluents to the aquatic environment are highly dependent on the long-term life of the
65 metal, i.e. the metal remains dissolved in water or is adsorbed on suspended solids or
66 sediment, which determines its bioavailability. Bioavailability controls the toxicity of the
67 metal to aquatic communities, which leads to bioaccumulation behaviour and
68 consequently the biomagnification of the metal throughout the trophic web (Younger et
69 al., 2003). Heavy metals dissolved in water are easily absorbed by fish and other aquatic
70 organisms, such as aquatic biofilms which are the primary producers of the aquatic

71 ecosystems (Solomon, 2008). Metal pollution could lead to a variety of biofilm responses
72 including structural and functional changes with different ecological implications. For
73 example, kinetics of algal growth, photosynthetic activity, chlorophyll-a concentration,
74 nutrient uptake capacity and community composition may be altered in response to
75 chemical stressors harboured in mine effluents (Corcoll et al., 2011). Specifically, metal
76 exposure can produce metabolic and functional alterations on the biofilm and, after long-
77 term exposures, when the accumulation of metals becomes higher, it causes structural
78 changes (Wu, Y., 2016); which indicates the relevance of using a multi-biomarker
79 approach including functional and structural biomarkers (Bonnineau et al., 2010). Within
80 biofilm processes, photosynthesis is critical for algal groups and metal toxicity has been
81 shown to promote its inhibition (Guasch et al., 2002; Serra et al., 2009; Corcoll et al.,
82 2011). The evaluation of ecological impacts caused by metal mining effluents is not trivial
83 (Wu, Y., 2016). The use of biofilm communities as bioindicators can be considered as a
84 good approach of the community ecotoxicology (Sabater et al., 2007). In fact, biofilms
85 are microbial communities made up of bacteria, algae, fungi, and microfauna, located in
86 close physical contact, embedded in a mucopolysaccharide matrix and adhered on any
87 surface in aquatic environments. Biofilms provide a community ecotoxicology approach
88 with higher ecological relevance than using single species and they are a convenient tool
89 to monitor, among others, metal contamination in streams (Leguay et al., 2016; Morin et
90 al., 2012). For these reasons, biofilms are identified within the Water Framework
91 Directive as a biological compartment in European water bodies that should be targeted
92 when aiming to implement optimum ecological integrity (Sabater et al., 2007).

93 Currently, some technologies exist to treat metal mining effluents in order to minimise
94 the high environmental and ecological impacts that they are causing to water bodies.
95 The conventional active methods for heavy metal removal from wastewaters include
96 chemical precipitation, chemical oxidation, ion exchange, nanofiltration, reverse
97 osmosis, electrocoagulation and electrodialysis (Tripathi and Rawat Ranjan, 2015).
98 Despite the existence of these technologies, the treatment of metal effluents coming from
99 abandoned mines continues to be a major environmental problem, due to the high
100 treatment costs and the lack of establishment actors, responsible to deal with the
101 treatment. In this context, LIFE DEMINE (LIFE16 ENV/ES/000218) is a demonstration
102 project funded by the European Commission that puts in practice, tests and evaluates at
103 pre-industrial scale an innovative treatment process that combines membrane
104 technologies (mainly nanofiltration) and electrocoagulation. Nanofiltration is a relatively
105 new membrane technology and has been in use since the early 1980s. The technology
106 uses the combination of small pore size (nanometre range, MWCO < 2000Da) and

107 charge to selectively remove divalent cations from solution while allowing monovalent
108 ions to permeate (Mohammad et al., 2015). As a result, this technology has found
109 industrial application in food and beverages, wastewater treatment and drinking water
110 production (Oatley-Radcliffe et al., 2017). Electrocoagulation is essentially chemical
111 precipitation of the metal species by formation of the metal hydroxide, in this case the
112 hydroxyl ions are formed by splitting water at an electrode (Moussa et al., 2017). Any
113 metal that is insoluble in hydroxyl form will then precipitate, thus removing heavy metals
114 but allowing common salts to remain.

115 Mining effluents are very complex and are composed of several metals. As a result, there
116 are very limited studies available that include representative effects of metal mine
117 effluents on complex biofilm communities. In this study, the efficiency of nanofiltration
118 technology and the combination of nanofiltration + electrocoagulation was evaluated by
119 exposing aquatic biofilms to a metal mining effluent, treated by these technologies or
120 untreated, and structural and functional responses were measured throughout time. It is
121 expected the untreated mine effluent will impact on both the biofilm structure and
122 function, while the treated effluents would have reduced metal content with a consequent
123 lower biological impact for each of the technologies. The maximum reduction should
124 occur when the technologies are combined (Nanofiltration + Electrocoagulation) since
125 this combined treatment was expected to achieve the maximum reduction of the metal
126 content in water.

127 **2. Material and methods**

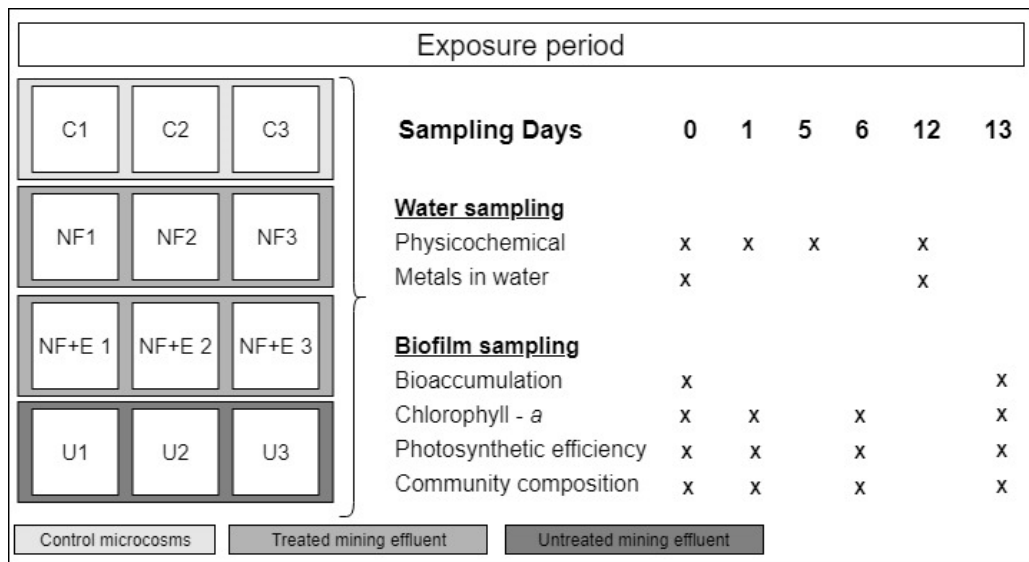
128 **2.1. Mining effluent**

129 This study was conducted in laboratory microcosms using the mining effluent from
130 Frongoch abandoned mine. Frongoch mine is located near the village of Pont-rhyd-y-
131 groes, Ceredigion, and covers approximately 11 hectares. The mine was exploited for
132 lead (Pb) and zinc (Zn) extraction for almost 200 years until the early 1900s. The
133 Frongoch mining effluent discharges into the Afon Ysywyth catchment. The specific
134 metal and nutrient composition of the mining effluent off Frongoch mine used in this
135 study was 6.91 mg L⁻¹ of Pb, 0.55 mg L⁻¹ cadmium (Cd) and 76.07 mg L⁻¹ Zn, 0.79 mg L⁻¹
136 of dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN), 0.03 mg L⁻¹ of phosphate (PO₄³⁻), 13.56 mg L⁻¹ of
137 sulphate (SO₄²⁻), pH of 6.91 and alkalinity of 12.13 mg L⁻¹. The average annual rainfall in
138 the Afon Ysywyth catchment is almost 2000 mm per year (1961-1990 average)
139 (Bearcock et al., 2010), and the flow rate of the river which receive the mining effluent
140 has been measured on average at 100 m³h⁻¹ (Edwards and Williams, 2016).

141 The Frongoch mining effluent has been treated at bench scale using the treatment
 142 technologies developed in LIFE DEMINE. This study has been performed using: an
 143 unpolluted stream water as control (C), (ii) the treated effluent using only the
 144 nanofiltration step (NF), (iii) the treated effluent using nanofiltration combined with
 145 electrocoagulation (NF+E) and (iv) the untreated (U) effluent from Frongoch mine.

146 **2.2. Experimental design**

147 Twelve microcosms consisting of glass aquariums (length × width × height
 148 26 × 15 × 17 cm) were used to assess the biofilm response under untreated and treated
 149 mining effluents (Figure 1). Each microcosm contained 15 previously scraped and
 150 autoclaved stream cobbles that were used as substrata for natural biofilm colonization,
 151 and each microcosm was filled with 3-L of artificial water. Artificial water was prepared
 152 to mimic a pristine stream as described in Ylla et al. (2009). The artificial water was
 153 obtained by dissolving pure salts in distilled water creating a chemical composition of
 154 0.75 mg L⁻¹ N, 0.10 mg L⁻¹ P, 15.83 mg L⁻¹ Na⁺, 8.17 mg L⁻¹ Ca²⁺, 0.52 mg L⁻¹ K⁺, 0.19
 155 mg L⁻¹ Mg⁺², 8.89 mg L⁻¹ SO₄²⁻, 10.71 mg L⁻¹ SiO₃²⁻, 14.94 mg L⁻¹ Cl²⁻ and 14.52 mg L⁻¹
 156 HCO₃⁻. Water was recirculated in each aquarium by a submersible pump (EDEN 105,
 157 Eden Water Paradise, Italy). The water in the aquaria was completely renewed every 3-
 158 4 days to avoid nutrient depletion. The temperature and the photoperiod were set at 18°C
 159 and 12 h light: 12 h dark using LEDs (LENB 135-lm, LENB/14.97/11.98). During the
 160 experiment, the irradiance reaching the substrata was 12 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹.



161
 162 *Figure 1. Experimental design and sampling strategy during the exposure period. C = control, U =*
 163 *untreated mining effluent, NF = nanofiltration and NF+E = combined treatments.*

164 To promote biofilm colonisation, 15 ml of natural biofilm suspension obtained by scraping
 165 cobbles collected from Viladrau pristine and forested stream (Natural Park of Montseny,

166 Spain) were inoculated in each microcosm. This inoculum was added at the beginning
167 of the experiment to favour biofilm settlement, as well as after each water renewal during
168 the colonization period, which lasted for three weeks.

169 After the colonization, the exposure period started with the addition of water from the
170 mining effluents. Four different treatments were tested to compare biofilm responses with
171 means of a control (C) in which the conditions remained unvaried. As previously
172 explained (in section 2.1), the evaluated treatments were: untreated mining effluent (U)
173 and mining effluent treated by: nanofiltration (NF) and nanofiltration combined with
174 electrocoagulation (NF+E). The exposure was set to mimic the real dilution conditions in
175 Afon Ysywyth river where a mining effluent of $4.3 \text{ m}^3 \text{ h}^{-1}$ reaches the Afon Ysywyth river
176 of $100 \text{ m}^3 \text{ h}^{-1}$ (Edwards and Williams, 2016). To achieve these conditions, 0.2 L of each
177 effluent was added to 2.8 L of artificial water in the respective microcosms and each
178 experiment was performed in triplicate. During the exposure period, which lasted for 13
179 days, each effluent was added to the respective microcosms at each water renewal every
180 3 to 4 days.

181 **3. Sample analysis**

182 **3.1. Physico-chemical water conditions**

183 During the experiment, light intensity and water temperature were continuously
184 monitored with HOBO Pendant (Onset Computer Corporation, Bourne, USA) on five
185 randomly selected microcosms, including one per each treatment. At each water
186 renewal, the position of the HOBO was changed (within replicates of the same treatment)
187 in order to ensure the collection of data from all the microcosms at the end of the
188 experiment.

189 Dissolved oxygen concentration and saturation (YSI professional plus, YSI Incorporated,
190 USA), pH (G-PH7-2 portable pH meter XS PH7 + DHS) and conductivity (G-COND7-2
191 conductivity-meter portable XS COND 7+) were measured directly in the microcosms
192 with sensor probes. Triplicate water samples for each treatment were collected and
193 filtered through a $1.2 \mu\text{m}$ pore diameter glass microfiber filter (Prat Dumas Filter Paper,
194 Couze-St-Front, France) to analyse NO_2^- (APHA et al., 1992a), NO_3^- (APHA et al.,
195 1992b), NH_4^+ (Reardon et al., 1966) and PO_4^{3-} (Murphy and Riley, 1962). In addition, a
196 water samples for each microcosm was collected and filtered through a $1.2 \mu\text{m}$ pore
197 diameter glass microfiber filter (Prat Dumas Filter Paper, Couze-St-Front, France) to
198 analyse metal concentrations in water before (t_0) and at the end of the exposure period
199 (t_{12}), using a Microwave Plasma Atomic Emission Spectroscopy (MP-AES model 4200,

200 Agilent technologies, UK). All water samples were frozen at -20°C after sampling until
201 the analysis.

202 **3.2. Biofilm sampling**

203 Biofilms were sampled before (t₀) and after 1, 6 and 13 days of the effluent's addition,
204 always during the day following the water renewal (Figure 1). At each sampling day,
205 three random cobbles from each microcosm were scrapped using a toothbrush and were
206 suspended in 10 mL of the corresponding microcosm water. The area of stones was
207 measured placing silver paper on the top of the stone and delineating its surface. Biofilm
208 photosynthetic activity and the phototrophic community composition were measured
209 immediately after collection, whereas samples for AFDM and chlorophyll-a concentration
210 on the biofilm were stored at -20°C until analysis. Samples for the determination of metal
211 bioaccumulation in biofilm were taken before the exposure (t₀) and at the end of this
212 period (t₁₃).

213 **3.2.1. Metal bioaccumulation in biofilm**

214 In order to measure the metal bioaccumulation in biofilm, dried biofilm samples were
215 lyophilized and weighed (g) to determine the dry weight (DW) (Corcoll et al., 2012). Then,
216 200mg of DW were digested with 4mL of concentrated HNO₃ (65%, suprapure) and 1mL
217 of H₂O₂ (31%, suprapure). After dilution with MiliQ water, water samples were acidified
218 (1% nitric acid suprapure) and stored at 4 °C. Dissolved metals of the digested samples
219 were analysed by ICP-MS (7500c Agilent Technologies, Inc. Wilmington, DE). Metal
220 bioaccumulation was expressed as dissolved metal contents per biofilm dry weight (µg
221 g⁻¹ DW).

222 **3.2.2. Chlorophyll-a concentration**

223 Chlorophyll-a concentration on the biofilm was measured after extraction with 90%
224 acetone for 24 hours in the dark at 4 °C. Extracts were filtered through 47 mm diameter
225 and 1.2 µm pore filter (A0258855 Prat Dumas), and chlorophyll-a concentration was
226 further determined by spectrophotometric measurements (A3-50S17R-U
227 R01101900571) following the method described in Jeffrey and Humphrey (1975). The
228 chlorophyll-a physiological state was determined by calculating the Margalef index
229 (Margalef, 1983).

230 **3.2.3. Photosynthetic activity and community composition**

231 The chlorophyll-a fluorescence emission of the biofilms was measured with a Mini PAM
232 (Pulse Amplitude Modulated) chlorophyll fluorometer (Heinz Walz GmbH, Effeltrich,

233 Germany), which uses light-emitting diodes that excite chlorophyll. The measurements
234 of the photosynthetic activity were carried out by placing the sensor directly on three
235 different zones of each colonized cobbles. BenthosTorch (bbe Moldaenke,
236 Schwentineta, DK) was used for a real-time measuring of the main photosynthetic
237 groups' densities (diatoms, cyanobacteria and green algae) of biofilm communities.
238 Measurements were done covering the colonized cobble with the probe, which uses the
239 in vivo fluorescence of algal cells to determine the concentration of the main groups
240 (Echenique-Subiabre et al., 2016).

241 **4. Data Analysis**

242 Physico-chemical data, photosynthetic efficiency, metal concentration in water, metal
243 bioaccumulation and chlorophyll-*a* concentration in biofilm were evaluated using one-
244 way repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) in SPSS Statistics version 21,
245 with treatment (C, NF, NF+E and U) as factor and sampling date (time) as repeated
246 measure. For physico-chemical data, a separate ANOVA was done for the colonisation
247 and exposure period. Effects were analysed *post hoc* with a Tukey-b test when one-way
248 ANOVA revealed significant differences among treatments. One-way ANOSIM tests
249 (using Bray-Curtis similarity coefficients) were performed on relative abundances of the
250 biofilm community composition at each sampling time with Bonferroni correction in Past3
251 version 3.23. Pearson correlation analysis was performed to explore the relationship
252 between the community composition and the bioaccumulated metals in biofilm. A
253 principal component analysis (PCA) using R Studio software (version 3.6.0) was
254 performed to visualize the differences among treatments at the end of the exposure
255 period (t13) based on the photosynthetic efficiency, metal bioaccumulation and the
256 relative abundance of algal groups (cyanobacteria, green algae and diatoms) of the
257 biofilm.. Statistical significance was set at $p < 0.05$ for all the performed tests.

258 **5. Results**

259 **5.1. Physico-chemical water parameters**

260 During the colonisation period, the physico-chemical conditions did not show significant
261 differences among microcosms. During the exposure period, dissolved oxygen, water
262 temperature and pH remained stable with no significant deviations (Table 1). Nutrient
263 concentrations showed similar behaviour in all microcosms and decreased between
264 water renewals: PO_4^{3-} from 134 (± 12) to 62 (± 11) $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ and NO_3^- from 810 (± 20) to
265 450 (± 18) $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, the N/P ratio range during the whole experiment was between 14 and
266 18. The dissolved metal concentrations analysis showed that Zn was the most abundant
267 metal during the exposure period in all the microcosms exposed to the effluents, with the

268 highest concentration found in the microcosms exposed to the U compared to the treated
 269 ones and the C (one-way ANOVA $F=23.06$ $p<0.05$; Tukey test, $p<0.05$) (Table 1). By
 270 contrast, Pb and Cd concentrations in water were below the detection limit in all
 271 microcosms during the experiment (detection limit 0.01 mg L^{-1}).

272 *Table 1. Physico-chemical conditions of the microcosms water during the colonisation (n=9) and exposure*
 273 *period (n=4) (mean \pm SD). Zinc (Zn) concentration is expressed as the average between t0 and t12 (n=2).*
 274 *C= control, U=mining effluent, NF=nanofiltration and NF+E=combined treatments. n.a = data not available,*
 275 *n.d =not detected.*

	Colonisation period (n=9)	Exposure period (n=4)			
		C	NF	NF+E	U
Temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	21.85 (± 0.44)	22.23 (± 0.03)	21.79 (± 0.03)	20.10 (± 0.04)	21.53 (± 0.03)
pH	7.93 (± 0.10)	7.88 (± 0.15)	8.01 (± 0.06)	8.05 (± 0.07)	7.76 (± 0.06)
O_2 (mg L^{-1})	7.76 (± 0.14)	7.26 (± 0.15)	7.66 (± 0.09)	6.97 (± 0.12)	7.34 (± 0.10)
Conductivity ($\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$)	147.01 (± 2.21)	173.57 (± 9.15)	151.68 (± 3.26)	149.49 (± 3.78)	174.96 (± 2.72)
Zn (mg L^{-1})	n.a	n.d	0.36 (± 0.03)	0.15 (± 0.04)	4.25 (± 1.15)

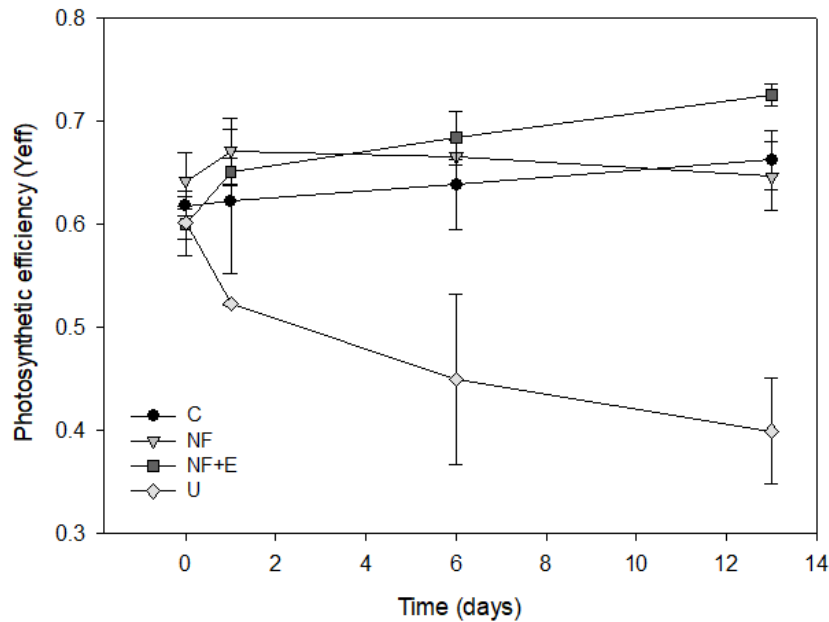
276 **5.2. Biofilm parameters**

277 **5.2.1. Chlorophyll-a concentration**

278 Chlorophyll-a concentration in the biofilm decreased progressively during the exposure
 279 period in all treatments without significant differences among them in any of the sampling
 280 dates. Just before the starting of the exposure period (t0), the chlorophyll-a in all
 281 treatments was on average $3.5 (\pm 1.9) \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$ (n=36) while at the end of the exposure
 282 period (t13) it was $1.5 (\pm 0.8) \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$ (n=36).

283 **5.2.2. Photosynthetic efficiency (Yeff)**

284 The biofilm photosynthetic efficiency (Yeff) during the exposure period tended to
 285 increase over time in all treatments except for the case of U-exposed biofilms (Figure 2)
 286 which presented some significantly lower Yeff values than the rest of the treatments and
 287 C (ANOVA repeated measures $F=48.88$, $p<0.05$; Tukey test, $p<0.05$). In particular, the
 288 Yeff decreased drastically for the U effluent, since the first day of exposure (t1), when
 289 significant differences appeared between this treatment and the others (one-way
 290 ANOVA $F=4.89$, $p<0.05$; Tukey test, $p<0.05$). On the other hand, NF+E treatment
 291 showed higher Yeff values than C and NF at the end of the exposure period (t13) (one-
 292 way ANOVA $F=30.65$, $p<0.05$; Tukey test, $p<0.05$).

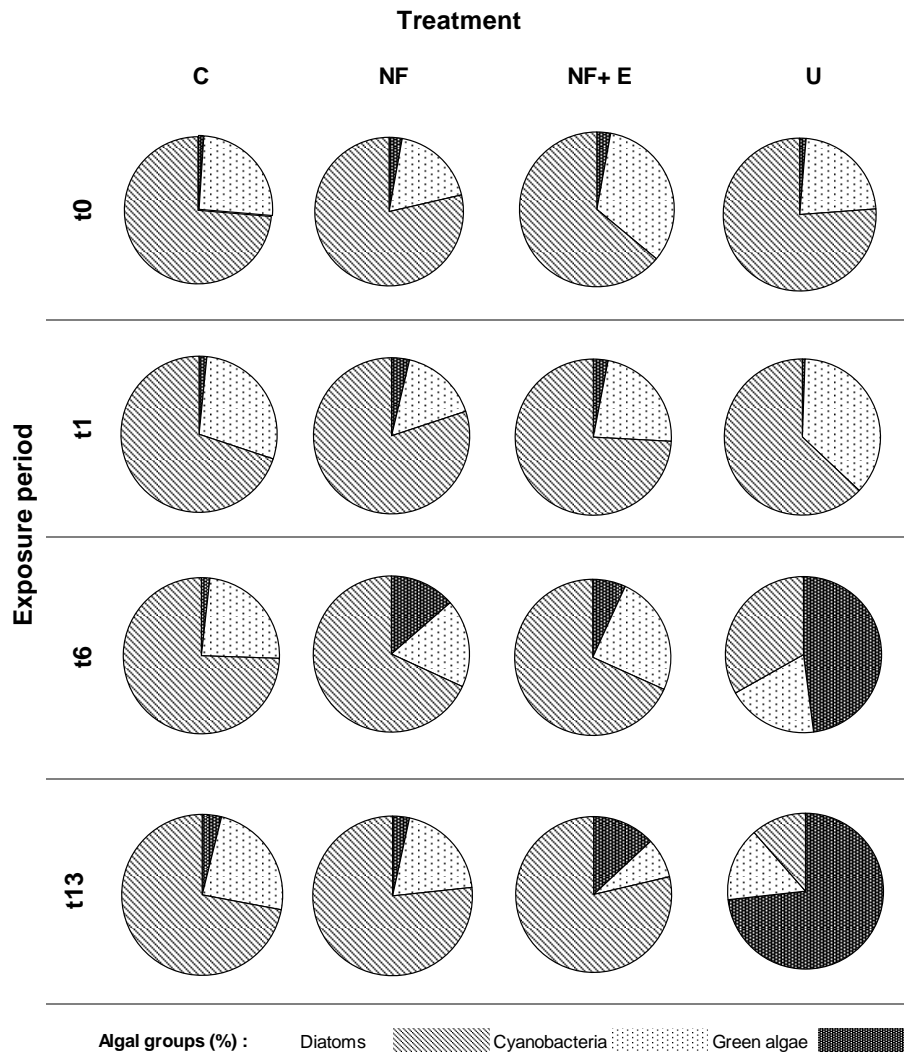


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294 *Figure 2: Photosynthetic efficiency (Y_{eff}) of the biofilm on each treatment during the exposure period,*
 295 *mean ± SD (n=3). C= control, U= untreated mining effluent, NF= nanofiltration and NF+E= combined*
 296 *treatments.*

297 **5.2.3. Photosynthetic community composition**

298 Just before the beginning of the exposure period (t₀), all microcosms showed similar
 299 photosynthetic community composition (Figure 3), dominated by diatoms (73±4%)
 300 followed by cyanobacteria (25±4%) and a negligible presence of green algae (1±1%)
 301 (ANOSIM, R=0.02, p=0.27). By contrast, a clear shift of the community composition was
 302 observed for the U effluent samples, just after 6 days of exposure (t₆) (Figure 3),
 303 characterized by a significant increase of the relative abundance of green algae in the
 304 biofilm community compared to the other treatments (one-way ANOSIM, R=0.04,
 305 p<0.05). This trend continued until the end of the exposure period (t₁₃) when green algae
 306 dominated (73±3%) the biofilm community in the U system, significantly differing from
 307 the other treatments (ANOSIM, R=0.08, p<0.05;) (Figure 3). The rest of treatments (NF
 308 and NF+E) did not present changes in the biofilm photosynthetic community composition
 309 from t₀ until t₁₃, following the same trend as C (Figure 3).



310

311 *Figure 3: Relative abundance (%) of each algal group conforming the photosynthetic community*
 312 *composition of the biofilm on each treatment along the exposure period. C= control, U= untreated mining*
 313 *effluent, NF= nanofiltration and NF+E= combined treatments. The results present the mean values of*
 314 *three replicates of each microcosm at each sampling date.*

315 **5.2.4. Metal bioaccumulation**

316 Just before the exposure (t0), the metal concentrations in the biofilms were similar
 317 among the microcosms. At the end of the exposure period (t13), significant differences
 318 were found in the Zn (one-way ANOVA, $F=23.5$, $p<0.05$), Pb (one-way ANOVA, $F=152.7$,
 319 $p<0.05$) and Cd (one-way ANOVA, $F=50.7$, $p<0.05$) metal content accumulated in the
 320 biofilms depending on the treatment. These differences were especially evident between
 321 the biofilm exposed to the U effluent and the C (Figure 4). Biofilms that were exposed to
 322 the U effluent contained 18-fold more Zn, 46-fold more Pb and 25-fold more Cd than C
 323 biofilms. On the other hand, the biofilm that was exposed to the effluent treated by NF+E
 324 presented 3-fold more Zn bioaccumulation with respect to the C. In contrast, biofilms

325 exposed to NF treated effluent did not present significant differences with the C for any
 326 of the metals measured (Figure 4).

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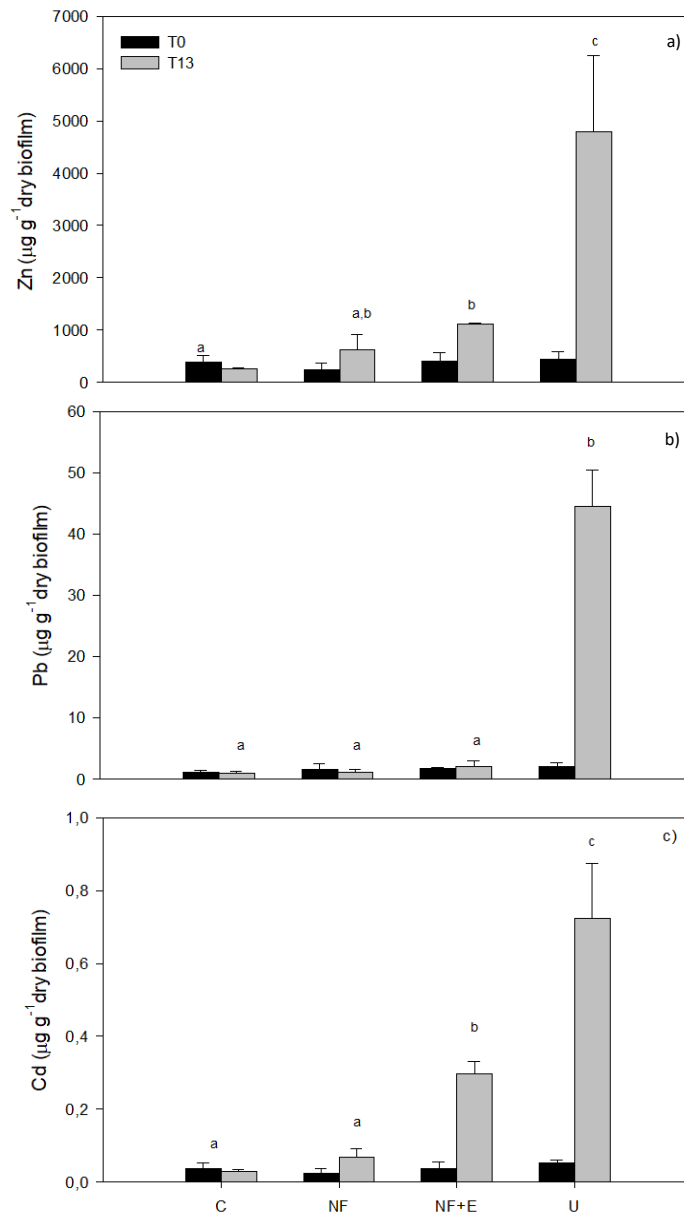
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Figure 4. Metal bioaccumulation in biofilms just before the exposure period (t0) and after 13 days of exposure (t13) to the different treatments. C= control, U= untreated mining effluent, NF= nanofiltration and NF+E= combined treatment. Mean \pm SD (n = 3). The letters indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between treatments after one-way ANOVA and Tukey's HSD test. a) indicates the Zn bioaccumulation. b) is for Pb bioaccumulation and c) Cd bioaccumulation in biofilm.

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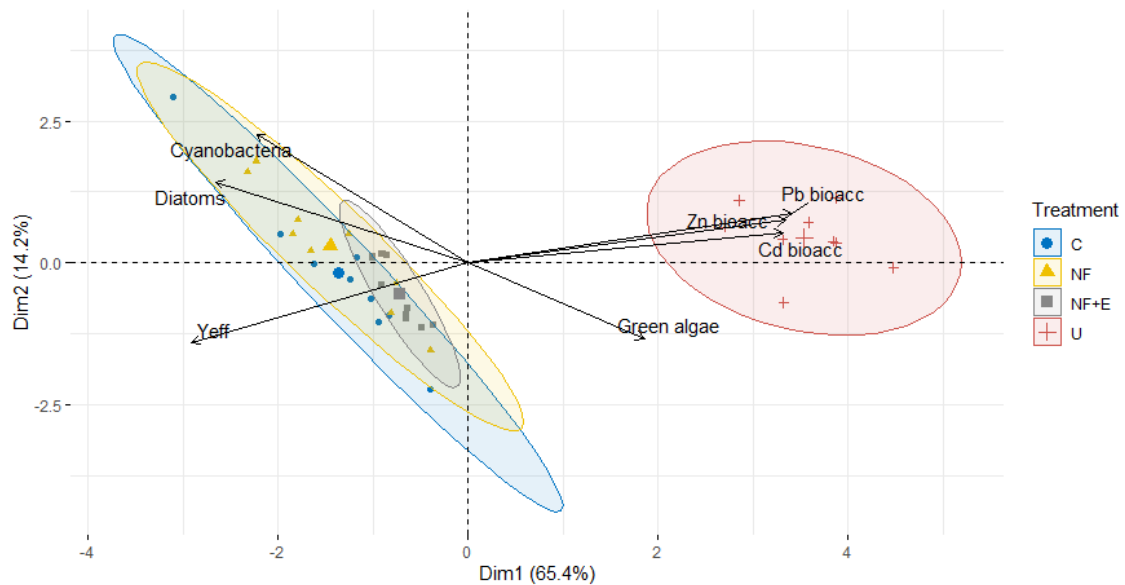
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A significant positive correlation was found between green algal biomass, based on the main photosynthetic groups densities, and Zn bioaccumulation (Pearson's correlation $r=0.83$, $p<0.01$) on the biofilm at the end of the exposure period (t13), which increased in a significant linear relationship (linear regression, $R^2=0.69$, $p<0.01$). By contrast, a negative correlation between diatoms biomass and Zn bioaccumulation was found

357 (Pearson's correlation, $r=-0.81$, $p<0.01$), which decreased in a significant linear
358 relationship (linear regression, $R^2=0.66$, $p<0.01$).



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361 *Figure 5: Biplot of the principal component analysis (PCA), with data points identified by treatment. Vectors*
362 *plotted indicate the correlation scores between the community composition, metals bioaccumulation and*
363 *photosynthetic efficiency at the end of the experiment (t13). The ellipses indicate 95% confidence around*
364 *their centroids for treatment.*

365 A principal component analysis (PCA) was used to visualize the difference among
366 treatments at the end of the exposure period based on the community composition metal
367 bioaccumulation and photosynthetic efficiency of the biofilm. The first axis of the PCA
368 (explaining 65.4% of the variance) was linked to the pollution gradient, with higher values
369 of metals bioaccumulated and the dominance of green algae in the U treatment. By
370 contrast, C and treatments (NF and NF + E) appeared at the opposite side of this axis,
371 indicating similar characteristics under a less impacted scenario. The data were plotted
372 within the correlation circles and differentiated two main trends, the U treatment from the
373 C, NF and NF+E.

374 6. Discussion

375 The primary aim of this work was to investigate the impacts of an abandoned metal mine
376 effluent on freshwater ecosystems and the efficiency of different treatment technologies
377 in reducing these impacts, using the aquatic biofilm as ecological indicator. The
378 experimental setup allowed to simulate the chemical conditions generated by the
379 entrance of a real metal mining effluent to a stream in order to assess the impact caused

380 on natural aquatic biofilm, before and after the effluent treatment with two different
381 technologies. The metal mining effluent used in this study was characterised by a high
382 Zn concentration, thus the U effluent presented the highest Zn concentration in water
383 ($4.25 \pm 1.15 \text{ mg Zn L}^{-1}$), which exceeded both European and US legislation limits,
384 according to the Water Framework Directive (WFD) (Directive 2000/60/EC, 2000) and
385 US Environmental Protection Agency (US EPA, 2014) respectively.

386 In this study, a variety of biofilm community alterations has been observed, including
387 changes in the photosynthetic efficiency, community composition and metal
388 bioaccumulation mainly caused by the exposure to U mine effluent waters.
389 Photosynthetic efficiency, expressed as quantum yield is a sensitive indicator of metal
390 toxicity to biofilms (Miller et al., 2017). In this study, as Tlili et al.(2011) and Bonet et al.
391 (2014) demonstrated in similar studies, a drastical decrease in the photosynthetic
392 efficiency was observed in biofilms under the untreated mining (U) effluent compared to
393 the C just after 24h of exposure. The observed decrease of the photosynthetic efficiency
394 indicated the damage produced by the metal exposure on the photosynthetic apparatus
395 (Leal-Alvarado et al., 2016; Miller et al., 2017). In this regard, other studies evidenced
396 that Zn concentrations of $450 \mu\text{g Zn L}^{-1}$ to 40 mg Zn L^{-1} in water, similar to those
397 generated by the exposure to U mining effluent in our study, are enough to affect biofilm
398 photosynthesis after short-term exposure (Bonet et al., 2013; Blanck et al., 2003). This
399 decrease of the photosynthetic efficiency could be explained by the mode of action of Zn
400 potentially targeting several photosynthetic processes of algae and cyanobacteria
401 (Corcoll et al., 2012). For example, the in vivo substitution of magnesium, which is the
402 central atom of chlorophyll-*a*, by heavy metals (such as Zn), could lead to a breakdown
403 in photosynthesis (Corcoll et al., 2011).

404 In addition to the observed decrease in the photosynthetic efficiency, biofilms exposed
405 to the U mining effluent also experimented a marked shift in the photosynthetic
406 community composition after longer-term exposure (t13). Indeed, the relative abundance
407 of green algae in these biofilms increased throughout the exposure period compared to
408 the control, where diatoms dominated during the whole experiment. Similar results were
409 reported by Corcoll et al. (2011) and Ivorra et al. (2000) that found that green algae were
410 favoured after several weeks of exposure to Zn in microcosms compared to diatoms. In
411 this sense, significant higher abundances of green algae have been reported at different
412 confluences of mining effluents with stream waters in natural environments (Das and
413 Ramanujam, 2011). Different mechanisms could enable green algae to tolerate chemical
414 stress caused by heavy metal concentrations such as a decrease in the number of

415 binding sites at the cell surface, internal detoxifying mechanisms (Gold et al., 2003) or
416 additional enzymatic activity provided by metals (Pawlik-Skowronska 2003). These
417 mechanisms were described by Corcoll et al. (2012) and are related to Zn toxicity that
418 may enhance the synthesis of antioxidants causing the activation of the xanthophyll cycle
419 of green algae as protective mechanisms to avoid Zn toxicity. By contrast, we observed
420 a clear decrease in the relative abundance of diatoms in the biofilm under the effect of
421 the U mining effluent at the end of the exposure period. Higher abundances of deformed
422 diatoms have been reported in zinc polluted sites, which are indicative of toxic stress
423 (Morin et al., 2014).

424 The functions of biofilms can be recovered after long term of exposure because the
425 tolerant species ensure these functions by species replacement (Guasch et al. 2010,
426 Corcoll et al. 2012, Tlili et al. 2010 and Barranguet et al. 2000). However, in the present
427 study the biofilm functioning has not been recovered at the end of the exposure period.
428 It is well known that high concentrations of Zn can inhibit the photosynthetic activity by
429 blocking electron transfer at PSI and PSII levels, which stops oxygen production and
430 CO₂ fixation (Ivorra et al. 1999).

431 Biofilms exposed to the U effluent indicated an ecological impact by showing inhibitory
432 effects on photosynthetic efficiency just after 24 hours of exposure and a progressive
433 shift of the photosynthetic community composition throughout the exposure period. This
434 shift coincided with an increase of Zn, Pb and Cd bioaccumulation in these biofilms
435 exposed to the U effluent compared to the C communities. Significant relationships
436 between metal bioaccumulation in biofilms and dissolved metal concentration in water
437 column have been found (Leguay et al., 2016), suggesting that the metal concentration
438 in water explains a large amount of the variability in metal concentration inside biofilms.
439 Biofilms have a large number of metal binding sites located in either mucopolysaccharide
440 at the surface of cells or in the organic particles trapped by the biofilm. These substances
441 can play an important role in the sorption of dissolved metals from water column on
442 biofilms (Bere et al., 2012; Duong et al., 2008, 2010). The bioaccumulation of trace
443 metals by algal cells is well known and generally increase with exposure time (Collard
444 and Matagne, 1994). Green algae have the capacity to concentrate inorganic ions to
445 amounts several thousand folds greater than in external dilute solutions by a variety of
446 biological, chemical and physical mechanisms involving adsorption, precipitation and
447 metabolism-dependent processes that operate simultaneously or in sequence (Bere et
448 al., 2012). Metals become toxic for algae when intracellular metal is present at high
449 concentrations and exerts a negative influence on the biochemical mechanisms
450 occurring within the cells (Corcoll et al., 2012). The presence of metal ions can affect

451 many aspects of biofilm communities including biomass, metabolic activity (e.g., enzyme
452 activity, photosynthesis), and extracellular polymeric substances (EPS) productivity
453 (Tang et al., 2017). In this regard, Zhu et al (2019) demonstrated that EPS productivity
454 play the most important role in the community composition shift due to metal ion
455 presence. EPS have many functional groups including carboxylates, hydroxyls,
456 phosphates and sulphates (Sheng et al., 2010), which can change the size, distribution
457 and surface properties of nanoparticles and thereby stabilize its dispersion or induce
458 their aggregation (Quigg et al., 2013). As a result, EPS can be considered a protective
459 barrier of microbial cells in periphytic biofilms from the exposure of nanoparticles (Joshi
460 et al., 2012). However, the EPS production and composition changes of periphytic
461 biofilms under nanoparticles exposure have been rarely reported (Liu et al., 2019).

462 Regarding the treatment technologies, biofilms exposed to the treated mining effluents
463 showed similar responses than C biofilm, indicating the reduction of the ecological impact
464 caused by the U, and therefore, the efficiency of the treatment technologies tested. In
465 this regard, biofilms exposed to NF and NF+E did not show any significant decrease in
466 the photosynthetic efficiency compared to the control during the exposure period.
467 However, the biofilms exposed to NF+E treated effluent presented an increase of the
468 photosynthetic efficiency above the control at the end of the experiment (t13). Ivorra et
469 al. (2002) suggested that another adaptive response of individual algal species is the
470 maintenance of a high photosynthetic efficiency under Zn stress. Indeed, the biofilm
471 exposed to NF+E treatment presented 3-fold more Zn bioaccumulation with respect to
472 the C. It should be noted that the Zn content of the effluent obtained by both treatments
473 were still exceed the EU standards (0.12 mg L^{-1} , EC 2000). The main reason for that is
474 because NF and E technologies were combined with the final aim to increase the water
475 recovery rather than improving the NF permeate quality. In that sense, the E step was
476 treating the NF concentrate. After the E step, a sludge with a high metal concentration
477 and a clean water effluent was obtained. The clean water effluent after the E was mixed
478 with the NF permeate, but the results obtained showed that the E process was not very
479 efficient and due to the high amount of metals present in the NF concentrate, the mixture
480 of the two clean water effluents (NF+E) resulted in a more polluted effluent than the NF.

481 The results obtained in this study contribute to a better understanding in the evaluation
482 of the efficiency of treatment technologies that permit to reduce the ecological impact to
483 the natural stream of a metal effluent, and additionally to the greater understanding of
484 the response of fluvial biofilms to a metal mining effluent exposure. The technologies
485 proposed to treat the metal mining effluents has proved to be a viable and valid option
486 since the technology significantly reduced the amounts of metals present in the mine

487 effluent. Due to this reduction, the biofilm functioning (photosynthetic efficiency) and
488 structure (community composition) in biofilms exposed to the treated effluents did not
489 show substantial differences respect to the C. At the same time, metal bioaccumulation
490 in biofilm decreased drastically in biofilms exposed to these treated effluents compared
491 to the U one, being equal to the C, in the case of NF. However, metal bioaccumulation
492 on biofilm under the NF + E treatment was higher than the C, indicating that the mining
493 effluent treated by these this technology could still cause certain environmental impact
494 on the ecosystem, being evident only in the long-term.

495 **7. Conclusions**

496 Aquatic biofilms revealed that the tested treatment technologies offer an effective and
497 viable solution to treat these metal effluents from abandoned mines. These technologies
498 have the potential to significantly reduce the global environmental and ecological impact
499 of mining operations and highlights the need to treat these highly polluting effluents. This
500 study also evidences the ecological impact caused by the high concentrations of metals
501 such as Zn, Cd and Pb in aquatic biofilms and the overall ecosystem as a result of
502 abandoned metal mines. The work demonstrates the ability of biofilms to act as biological
503 indicators of metal pollution due to their sensitivity and ability to accumulate metals from
504 low concentrations in water, even below detection limits. In this regard, an effect in both
505 functional and structural capacities as a shift of the phototrophic community composition
506 and the decrease on the photosynthetic efficiency was observed. Therefore, the need to
507 treat this metal effluent was highlighted, since the negative impact they generate on
508 aquatic ecosystems was demonstrated. The development of this study has not only been
509 useful to properly evaluate the negative ecological impacts caused by the metal mining
510 effluents, but it has also been highly important to help in the improvement of the treatment
511 system. Thanks to the results obtained, it has been seen that the combination of the NF
512 and E technologies in the way initially planned (NF + E) was not as efficient as expected,
513 indicating that combining the two technologies in a different way could be tested as an
514 alternative to improve the efficiency of the technology in reducing the environmental and
515 ecological impacts.

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