

1 **Initiating pedogenesis of magnetite tailings using *Lupinus angustifolius***
2 **(narrow-leaf lupin) as an ecological engineer to promote native plant**
3 **establishment**

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34 **1 ABSTRACT**

35 Mine tailings pose physical and chemical challenges for plant establishment. Our aim was to
36 learn from natural processes in long-term soil and ecosystem development to use tailings as
37 novel parent materials and pioneer ecological-engineering plant species to ameliorate extreme
38 conditions of tailings, and facilitate the establishment of subsequent native plants. A glasshouse
39 trial was conducted using magnetite tailings containing various amendments, investigating the
40 potential of the nitrogen (N)-fixing, non-native pioneer species *Lupinus angustifolius*
41 (Fabaceae), narrow-leaf lupin, as a potential eco-engineer to promote soil formation processes,
42 and whether amendment type or the presence of pioneer vegetation improved the subsequent
43 establishment and growth of 40 species of native plants. We found that *L. angustifolius* eco-
44 engineered the mine tailings, by enhancing the N status of tailings and mobilising primary
45 mineral P into organic P via a carboxylate-exudation strategy, thereby enabling subsequent
46 growth of native species. The substantial increases of the soil organic P (from ca. 10 to 150 mg
47 kg⁻¹) pool and organo-bound Al minerals (from 0 to 2 mg kg⁻¹) were particularly evident,
48 indicating the initiation of pedogenesis in mine tailings. Our findings suggest that the annual
49 legume *L. angustifolius* has eco-engineering potential on mine tailings through N-fixation and
50 P-mobilisation, promoting the subsequent growth of native plants. We proposed *Daviesia*
51 (Fabaceae) species as native species alternatives for the non-native *L. angustifolius* in the
52 Western Australian context. Our findings are important for restoration practitioners tasked with
53 mine site restoration in terms of screening pioneer eco-engineering plant species, where native
54 plants are required to restore after mine operations.

55 **2 Introduction**

56 Globally, large quantities of fine-particulate mined materials, generally referred to as mine
57 tailings, continue to be produced as a result of increasing demands for mineral resources
58 worldwide (Aznar-Sánchez et al., 2018). Australia is one of the largest global producers and

59 exporter of Fe ores, accounting for 36% of world production in 2019 (Senior et al., 2020).
60 However, Fe-ore mining activities in Western Australia occur in areas harbouring high plant
61 diversity with high rates of localised endemism (Gibson et al., 2012). It is generally a legislated
62 requirement in regions such as Western Australia that post-mining landscapes must be restored
63 as part of mine closure by reinstating locally-native vegetation communities (Stevens and
64 Dixon, 2017).

65 Tailings are among the most hostile and challenging mined substrates for plant re-colonisation,
66 both physically and chemically (Cross et al., 2017). Various strategies have been explored to
67 facilitate the revegetation of tailings *in situ*. These strategies include collection and
68 broadcasting of native seeds, seed-based enablement technologies (Erickson et al., 2017;
69 Madsen et al., 2016), precision stripping, storage and return of natural topsoil (Merino-Martín
70 et al., 2017), fertilising amendments and engineering such as slope stabilisation and contouring
71 (Koch, 2007), and amendment with organic waste material or application of plant growth-
72 promoting microbes (Ottenhof et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2017). However, no single
73 rehabilitation or ecological restoration technique thus far has successfully achieved the full
74 recovery of a reference ecosystem on a tailings landform often due to hostile substrate
75 conditions (Cross and Lambers, 2017).

76 To establish vegetation on tailings landforms, it is often necessary to alleviate or ameliorate
77 extreme edaphic conditions. Mine tailings have potential to be a novel soil-forming parent
78 material (Santini and Banning, 2016; Wu et al., 2019c) if capable of being ‘re-engineered’ to
79 be effective growth substrates. Bradshaw (1997) suggested that facilitating the return of natural
80 processes to post-mining landscapes (i.e. ecological engineering) might represent the most
81 effective way to restore these areas and establish self-sustaining ecosystems in the long-term.
82 Monitoring soil development must therefore be considered in any effort to undertake restoration
83 of mined lands, because soil and ecosystems co-evolve over long periods in response to
84 environmental and edaphic factors (Bradshaw and Chadwick, 1980; Hotchkiss et al., 2000).
85 Soil phosphorus (P) dynamics have long been used as a key indicator of soil and ecosystem

86 development along natural soil chronosequences in different climatic zones (Eger et al., 2011;
87 Turner and Lalibert é 2015; Zhou et al., 2013). However, changes in soil P dynamics, such as
88 inorganic and organic P fractions, have only recently been used as a tool to evaluate soil
89 development in the rehabilitation and restoration of mine tailings (Wang et al., 2018; Zhong et
90 al., 2020).

91 At the early stage of soil development, soil P dynamics are highly influenced by pioneer plants
92 that have the potential to ‘kick-start’ pedogenic processes (Lambers et al., 2012). Some pioneer
93 plants that symbiotically fix nitrogen (N), such as legume species (Fabaceae), may have
94 potential as eco-engineers and facilitate ecological succession in young ecosystems (Cross and
95 Lambers, 2017). Some Fabaceae are capable of mobilising P, for example *Lupinus* species with
96 their carboxylate-exudation capacity (with or without cluster roots), nitrogen fixation and fast
97 growth rates are potential eco-engineering pioneer species (Pearse et al., 2007). If changes in
98 soil N and P dynamics can be accelerated in unweathered mine tailings, it may facilitate the
99 establishment of other native plants. In the present study we investigated the potential of
100 *Lupinus angustifolius* (narrow-leaf lupin) as an ecosystem engineer on magnetite tailings by
101 conducting a 20-month glasshouse experiment. We assessed whether *L. angustifolius* can eco-
102 engineer the magnetite tailings by improving the growth medium because of its specific traits
103 and development (N fixation and P mobilisation) and potentially enhance the growth of
104 subsequent native plants.

105 **3 Material and Methods**

106 **3.1 Study area**

107 Growth substrates and native plant species were sourced from a magnetite mining operation in
108 the Mid-west region of Western Australia, located 400 km northeast of Perth. This area
109 experiences a semi-arid Mediterranean climate with mild wet winters (mean monthly maximum
110 19 °C) and hot dry summers (mean monthly maximum 37 °C). The study area receives 311 mm

111 annual rainfall, about 65% of which falls between May and September (winter; Australian
112 Bureau of Meteorology, <http://www.bom.gov.au/climate/data/>, Station 10195).

113 The mining area is located in the Yalgoo Bioregion according to the Interim Biogeographic
114 Regionalisation for Australia (version 7;
115 <http://www.environment.gov.au/land/nrs/science/ibra>), and the local plant communities are
116 typical Eremaean sclerophyll shrublands (Beard, 1990). Plant communities are generally low
117 to open woodlands, predominantly comprising shrubs or trees of *Acacia* spp., *Eucalyptus* spp.,
118 *Melaleuca leiocarpa*, *Allocasuarina acutivalvis*, *Callitris columellaris*, and *Hakea recurva*
119 subsp. *recurva*, with an understorey of shrubs, grasses and herbaceous annuals (Markey and
120 Dillon, 2008).

121 Dry-stacked magnetite tailings (hereafter referred to as tailings) are generated as fine-textured
122 (processed by high-pressure grinding to <4 mm) waste materials at the end of magnetite-ore
123 processing. Three substrate amendments were sourced from the mine site, including crushed
124 overburden rock (a heterogeneous mix of rocks and stones, hereafter referred to as wasterock),
125 stockpiled (ca. 4–5 years) natural topsoil (hereafter referred to as topsoil), and leaf litter
126 collected from beneath native vegetation including *Acacia ramulosa*, *Eucalyptus loxophleba*
127 and *Allocasuarina acutivalvis* (pooled to provide one composite litter).

128 Natural topsoils at the study site comprise highly-weathered red earth, from stony red loamy
129 sand to loamy clay soil (Leptic Rudosol, Orthic Tenosol or Red Kandosol according to
130 Australian Soil Classification; Ferrasols or Fluvisols according to FAO Soil Units; Aridisols,
131 Entisols or Fluvisols according to Soil Survey Staff 2014). These soils usually contain abundant
132 fragments (usually 2–20 mm) of ironstone gravel (Payne et al., 1998). All rocky material (>40
133 mm) and all large woody debris (branches and twigs) were removed prior to experimental use.
134 Selected physical and chemical profiles for tailings, topsoil and waste rock are presented in
135 Cross et al. (2018), with mineralogy presented in Wu et al. (2019b).

136 **3.2 Suitability of tailings as a growth medium for pioneer and native**
137 **plants**

138 Experiments were established in rectangular polycarbonate boxes (400 mm in depth × 400 mm
139 in width × 1000 mm in length) filled with tailings to a depth of 350 mm and the tailings overlain
140 by an additional 50 mm of growth media treatment mimicking standard industry practice at the
141 study site. Growth media treatments included (1) tailings only, resulting in 400 mm depth of
142 tailings (TAL), (2) tailings mixed with 10% (w/w) native vegetation litter (VEG), (3) tailings
143 mixed with 10% (w/w) waste rock (ROC), and (4) tailings mixed with 10% (w/w) topsoil (TOP).
144 Three replicate boxes were established for each treatment, with each box divided transversely
145 into two sub-treatments by insertion of a central impermeable plastic plate yielding 24 sub-
146 treatments in total.

147 The potential of *Lupinus angustifolius* (narrow-leaf lupin) as an ecological engineer to promote
148 the accumulation of organic matter and to enhance N cycling in the tailings was tested by
149 sowing 20 seeds of this species into each of half of the sub-treatments, leaving the other half
150 unplanted (yielding a +/- *L. angustifolius* sub-treatment for each growth media treatment). An
151 unplanted and un-amended tailings treatment was used as control. This was undertaken to
152 address the lack of organic matter and available N as major constraints for plant growth in
153 magnetite tailings in previous studies (Cross et al., 2019). Seeds were inoculated with
154 commercial rhizobium (EasyRhiz Soluble Legume Inoculant ‘Serradella Lupin’, Alosca
155 Technologies, Australia) to promote nodulation and N₂ fixation. Seeds of *L. angustifolius* were
156 sown in late March 2016, with plants harvested in September 2016 to determine aboveground
157 biomass. Following weighing, harvested *L. angustifolius* were returned to respective sub-
158 treatments and left to decompose on the substrate surface prior to seeding with native species.
159 A small amount of *L. angustifolius* leaves (ca. 10 g) was sampled from each sub-treatment for
160 nutrient analysis.

161 The suitability of tailings as a growth medium for native plants was investigated by
162 broadcasting seeds of 40 local native species into all sub-treatments (Appendix S1). Selected
163 species provided a representative sample of growth forms, life histories and nutrient-acquisition
164 strategies desired in restoration based on the local native reference communities (Cross et al.,
165 2019; Cross and Lambers, 2020). Seeds of all native species were collected during 2014 and
166 2015, cleaned to pure seed, and stored in a controlled-environment room prior to experimental
167 use. Filled seeds of all species were broadcast onto the soil surface of all boxes in March 2017
168 (seeding rate ranging from 12.5–75 seeds m⁻² for each species; Appendix S1), after the
169 harvested *L. angustifolius* had been left to decompose. Physical seed dormancy in species of
170 *Acacia* and *Senna* was broken prior to seeding by immersion in boiling water for one minute
171 (Erickson et al., 2016; Kildisheva et al., 2020). All aboveground parts of established native
172 seedlings in each treatment were harvested and weighed in November 2017. We attempted to
173 harvest roots for each individual, but compaction of the tailings rendered this unsuccessful.

174 The trial ran from March 2016 to November 2017. Descriptions of activities at the four
175 sampling times are provided in Figure 1. The experimental setup is shown in Figure S1. The
176 experiment was conducted in a temperature-controlled glasshouse (20–25 °C) at the Shenton
177 Park Field Station, University of Western Australia. All boxes were watered weekly during the
178 annual growing season (April to September), and remained un-watered from October to March
179 each year to simulate the semi-arid climate of the study site. The pH of tap water in Perth region
180 is about 7.8 (Drinking water quality, www.watercorporation.com.au).

181 **3.3 Soil analyses**

182 Soil samples were collected at four times over the course of the experiment: immediately after
183 growth media treatments were established (prior to the sowing of *L. angustifolius* seeds) in
184 March 2016, immediately prior to the harvesting of *L. angustifolius* plants in September 2016,
185 immediately prior to broadcasting the seeds of native species in March 2017, and finally in
186 November 2017 immediately prior to the harvesting of native plants.

187 Soil samples were collected using an auger (35 mm diameter, 150 mm depth), with
188 approximately 200 g of soil collected from each sub-treatment at each sampling point. All
189 samples were sieved to remove large organic debris, roots and small gravel (<2 mm stainless
190 steel sieve) and stored in zip-lock polyethylene bags at 4 °C for up to one week prior to analysis,
191 with 150 g subsamples air-dried (35 °C for up to one week) and stored in zip-lock polyethylene
192 bags at 27 °C until analysis.

193 Soil microbial biomass carbon (MBC) was measured by CHCl_3 fumigation and 0.5 M K_2SO_4
194 extraction of fresh soil as described in Vance et al. (1987). Soluble organic carbon (C) in
195 extracts was analysed using an Aurora O.I 1030W wet oxidation Total Organic Carbon analyser
196 (College Station, TX, USA). A conversion factor (K_c) of 0.45 was applied to the MBC results
197 as described in Wu et al. (1990). Soil microbial biomass P (MBP) was measured by CHCl_3
198 fumigation and 0.5 M NaHCO_3 extraction of fresh soil, as described in Brookes et al. (1982).
199 Phosphorus concentrations were determined spectrophotometrically using a UV160A
200 spectrophotometer at 880 nm (Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan) after reaction with molybdate blue
201 (Blakemore et al., 1987; Murphy and Riley, 1962). A conversion factor (K_p) of 0.4 was applied
202 to the MBP results as described in Brookes et al. (1982). Soil mineral N ($\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ and $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$)
203 was extracted with 2 M KCl from fresh soil, and determined by LACHAT FIA QuikChem 8500
204 Series 2 (Loveland, CO, USA).

205 Soil pH (both in deionised water and in 0.01 M CaCl_2) and electrical conductivity (EC)
206 (deionised water) were measured for each sample using soil pH and EC probes calibrated with
207 pH 4 and 7 buffer solutions (Orion 720a, Beverly, MA, USA). Soil total organic matter content
208 was determined by the loss on ignition (LOI) method. Soil organic C concentration was
209 estimated by dividing the total organic matter (measured as LOI) with a conversion factor of
210 1.72 (Blakemore et al., 1987). Total N was measured by the combustion method via a Leco
211 analyser (FP628, St. Joseph, MI, USA).

212 Exchangeable cations were determined by extraction in 0.1 M BaCl_2 (2 h, 1:30 soil-to-solution
213 ratio), with detection by an ICP-OES (Thermo iCAP 6000 series ICP-OES, Fremont, CA,

214 USA) following the methods of Blakemore et al. (1987). Effective cation exchange capacity
215 (ECEC) was calculated as the sum of [Al], [Ca], [K], [Mg], and [Na]. Colwell-P and -potassium
216 (K) were extracted with 0.5 M NaHCO₃ (adjusted to pH = 8.5) from air-dried soil (16 h, 1:40
217 soil-to-solution ratio). Phosphorus and K concentrations in the extracts were determined
218 colorimetrically (Rayment and Lyons, 2010), using a UV160A spectrophotometer at 880 nm
219 (Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan) and atomic absorption spectroscopy (Varian SpectrAA55AAAS,
220 Palo Alto, CA, USA), respectively.

221 Total P concentration was determined by ignition (550 °C, 1 h) and extraction in 1 M HCl (16
222 h, 1:50 soil to solution ratio) modified after Saunders and Williams (1955). Organic [P] was
223 calculated by subtracting 1 M HCl-extracted P without ignition from 1 M HCl-extracted P after
224 ignition. While this procedure may underestimate true total P in strongly weathered soil
225 compared with the NaOH fusion method, and overestimate organic P due to potential increase
226 in acid extractability of P in ignited soil (Condrón et al., 1990), this ignition procedure was
227 appropriate in this instance, because the tailings used in this study were not heavily weathered
228 (Wu et al., 2019b). Soil extracts were filtered through Whatman No. 42 filter paper, and filtrates
229 were stored at 4 °C until analysis. Phosphorus concentrations in all extracts were determined by
230 an ICP-OES Model 5300DV (Perkin Elmer, Shelton, CT, USA). Results are expressed on a dry
231 soil mass basis.

232 Soil metal-organic Fe and Al complexes (Fe_p and Al_p) were extracted with 0.1 M sodium
233 pyrophosphate (Blakemore et al., 1987). Soil extracts were filtered through Whatman No. 42
234 filter paper and filtrates were stored at -20 °C until analysis. Fe and Al concentrations in all
235 extracts were determined using an ICP-OES Model 5300DV (Perkin Elmer, Shelton, CT, USA).

236 **3.4 Leaf analyses**

237 Leaf samples of *L. angustifolius* were oven-dried at 70 °C for two days, followed by ball-mill
238 grinding (Geno/Grinder 2010, SpexSamplePrep, NJ, USA) using zirconium beads. Ground leaf
239 samples were digested with hot concentrated HNO₃:HClO₄ (3:1). Leaf elemental concentrations

240 (i.e. P) were determined by an ICP-OES Model 5300DV (Perkin Elmer, Shelton, CT, USA).
241 Leaf N concentration was determined by an Elementar Vario-Max CN Elementary Analyser
242 (Elementar, Langenselbold, Germany).

243 **3.5 Statistical analyses**

244 Data and statistical analyses were performed using JMP® 15 (SAS Institute Inc.). The fit model
245 (standard least squares function) was used to analyse the interactions between *L. angustifolius*
246 (with or without), treatments (TAL, VEG, ROC, and TOP) and time (T0: Mar-2016, T1: Sep-
247 2016, T2: Mar-2017, and T3: Nov-2017), with *L. angustifolius*, treatments and time as fixed
248 effects and Pot ID as random factor, on selected soil chemical properties. Model results are
249 presented in Supporting Information (Table S2). Selected soil chemical properties, MBC, MBP,
250 NH₄-N and NO₃-N concentrations, at T3: Nov 2017 were analysed to determine the differences
251 amongst experimental conditions using a Kruskal-Wallis test with a Games-Howell post-hoc
252 test. Differences between native plant total biomass and leaf area amongst treatment groups
253 were determined by Welch's Test followed by Games-Howell post-hoc testing. All data were
254 square-root or log transformed to normalise distribution before analysis.

255 **4 Results**

256 **4.1 Growth of *Lupinus angustifolius* and native plants**

257 ROC and TOP showed the greatest *L. angustifolius* aboveground biomass at the September
258 2016 harvest (Table 1), followed by TAL and VEG treatments. There was no significant
259 difference in leaf [N] among substrates, while VEG and TAL showed the greatest leaf [P].

260 In the TAL (-) treatment the greatest number of native species survived at the end of the trial.
261 Aboveground biomasses of native plants were greatest in TAL (both with and without prior *L.*
262 *angustifolius*) and TOP (+), which were about twice that in VEG (+) and 10 times that in VEG
263 (-), respectively (Table 2).

264 **4.2 Substrate pH, organic C, total N, organic P and metal-organic** 265 **complexes**

266 Substrate pH decreased gradually in all treatments over the two years of the glasshouse trial
267 (Figure 2). The main effect of sampling time on substrate pH was highly significant ($p=0.0004$,
268 $F=13.77$), but there was no difference between treatments with and without *L. angustifolius*
269 ($p=0.2879$, $F=1.15$) and among substrate treatments ($p=0.2147$, $F=1.59$). However, soil organic
270 C concentration did not increase significantly (mainly about 2 mg C g^{-1}) over the course of the
271 trial in any treatment, except in TOP (Figure 3). The main effect of different substrates on
272 organic C was significant ($p=0.0104$, $F=4.5093$), but not between with and without *L.*
273 *angustifolius* ($p=0.7071$, $F=0.1428$) and sampling time ($p=0.5230$, $F=0.4123$). There were
274 interactive effects between sampling time and substrate types on soil organic C concentration
275 ($p=0.0319$, $F=3.1196$).

276 Total N concentrations did not increase significantly in TAL and VEG (stabilised around 0.3
277 mg N g^{-1}), while total N concentration reached 0.4 mg N g^{-1} soil in both ROC and TOP at the
278 end of the trial (Figure 4). The main effects of sampling time ($p=0.0019$, $F=10.4298$) and
279 different substrates ($p=0.015$, $F=4.01$) on total N concentrations were significant, but there was
280 no difference between with and without *L. angustifolius* ($p=0.8097$, $F=0.0587$).

281 Organic P concentration increased almost 10-fold over the first 12 month of *L. angustifolius*
282 growth and decomposition in three substrate types, and then decreased towards the end of the
283 experiment (to about 50 mg P kg^{-1}), with the exception of ROC (Figure 5). The magnitude of
284 the increasing trend (from below 10 mg kg^{-1} in March 2016 to almost 150 mg kg^{-1} in March
285 2017) and differences between with and without *L. angustifolius* were most pronounced in
286 March 2017. The main effect of sampling time on organic P concentration was significant
287 ($p=0.0029$, $F=9.5917$), but there was no effect of *L. angustifolius* ($p=0.7061$, $F=0.1439$) and
288 substrate ($p=0.4202$, $F=0.9692$).

289 The concentrations of pyrophosphate-extractable Al (Al_p), mainly Al-organic complexes,
290 increased significantly in all four types of substrates towards the end of the experiment (Figure
291 6). This pattern was not observed for Fe_p concentrations (Figure S2). Notably, organic-bound
292 [Al] showed the greatest increase during the growth of native plants (from March 2017 to
293 November 2017) in TAL (both with and without *L. angustifolius*). The main effects of sampling
294 time ($p=0.0001$, $F=17.0262$) and different substrates ($p<0.0001$, $F=23.8289$) on Al_p were highly
295 significant, but there was no effect of *L. angustifolius* ($p=0.1130$; $F=2.6058$).

296 Overall, the interactions among substrates, with and without *L. angustifolius*, and sampling
297 times had no significant effect on selected soil properties, with the exception of soil organic P
298 concentration (Table S2, S3).

299 **5 Discussion**

300 **5.1 Effectiveness of *Lupinus angustifolius* as an ecological engineer**

301 This study found that use of the legume, *L. angustifolius*, significantly enhanced the subsequent
302 growth of native species (more than 6 months) in magnetite tailings with a clear improvement
303 compared to previous studies of the same tailings material (Cross et al., 2019). We used a
304 similar assemblage of native plant species as Cross et al. (2019), who observed high mortality
305 rates in seedlings of nine out of 40 tested species two months after germination without prior
306 growth of *L. angustifolius*. This suggests the potential of *L. angustifolius* as an ecosystem
307 engineering species to promote the subsequent growth and survival of native species (Table 2).

308 The eco-engineering effect of *L. angustifolius* may, in part, be attributed to the accumulation of
309 N as a result of biological N fixation during the growth of *L. angustifolius*, because N is a major
310 limiting nutrient for plant growth in tailings used in this study as it is in young substrates along
311 chronosequences (Turner & Condron, 2013). However, the increase of the N concentration in
312 the tailings was relatively small (Figure 4), probably due to the inhibition of biological N
313 fixation by the high pH (Tang et al., 1995). Furthermore, the sharp increase of substrate total N

314 concentration in the ROC treatment suggests that the decomposition of *L. angustifolius* biomass
315 (high in N) facilitated the growth of native plants. This agrees with Nyenda et al. (2020) that
316 an N-fixing species (*Senegalia polyacantha*) produced fertility islands and facilitated the
317 establishment of understory vegetation on nickel-mine tailings. However, there are also
318 studies that raised concerns of N-fixing plants becoming ‘weedy’ and hampering the return of
319 other plant species during rehabilitation of post-mining landscapes (e.g., Frouz et al., 2015;
320 Woodbury et al., 2020).

321 The role of *Lupinus lepidus* in ecosystem engineering and facilitating the primary succession
322 at Mount St Helens (Washington, USA) has been investigated thoroughly following an eruption
323 in 1980 (del Moral et al., 1995), but mainly focused on the contribution of N building up.
324 However, the contribution of soil P mobilization in the young pumice-based soils by *L. lepidus*
325 through carboxylate exudation was initially overlooked (Bishop et al., 2010). Like pumice
326 material, magnetite tailings used in the present study had a high [total P] (about 1200 mg kg⁻¹),
327 but only a minor fraction was available for plant growth (about 10 mg kg⁻¹ of Colwell P) (Cross
328 et al., 2018), suggesting a possible P limitation for early plant establishment and growth of
329 plants lacking a P-acquisition mechanism based on carboxylate release. Our results indicate
330 that *L. angustifolius* may have functioned as an ecosystem engineer, mobilising P for
331 subsequent plants during succession, which was evident in high leaf [P] in TAL (Table 1).

332 *Lupinus angustifolius* releases large quantities of carboxylates into the rhizosphere mobilising
333 P, although it does not form specialised cluster roots, as does other species such as *L. albus*
334 (Hocking and Jeffery, 2004; Pearse et al., 2006). The substrate organic P concentration first
335 increased during the growing phase of *L. angustifolius*, as a result of *L. angustifolius* mobilising
336 the primary mineral P in the tailings, followed by incorporation of inorganic P into organic P
337 in biomass, which then ended up in the litter. The organic P pool subsequently declined during
338 the growth of native plants in the tailings, because the organic P would have been hydrolysed
339 by plant and microbial phosphatases, converting organic P into inorganic P available for uptake.
340 These observations suggest that *L. angustifolius* roots mobilised the primary form of P from the

341 P-rich tailings, and made this available to the subsequently grown native plants, either by
342 directly releasing inorganic P from the tailings, or indirectly from decomposing biomass
343 following hydrolysis of organic P (Lambers et al., 2012). At the very early stages of soil
344 development, monoester P, a relatively labile P form, tends to be the most important fraction
345 of soil organic P (Zhou et al., 2019). Some native Western Australia plants are able to utilise
346 relatively labile forms of soil organic P through release of root phosphatases (Png et al., 2017;
347 Zhong et al., 2021). Therefore, we suggest that *L. angustifolius* promoted the growth of
348 subsequent native plants through eco-engineering the P availability in the magnetite tailings.

349 **5.2 Initial pedogenesis in magnetite tailings**

350 The build-up of soil organic C and alleviation of extreme acidity or alkalinity are often used as
351 important indicators for initial soil formation in mined tailing materials (Arocena et al., 2010;
352 You et al., 2018). The organic C concentration in tailings remained relatively unchanged over
353 the 20-month duration of the present glasshouse trial, probably due to the overestimation of
354 organic C concentration in the tailings (2 mg g^{-1}) by use of the $500 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ dry-combustion method
355 for the Mar-2016 harvest (You et al., 2015). However, soil microbial biomass C (approx. 160
356 mg kg^{-1}) in the tailings at the end of the present trial showed a major increase (Figure S4),
357 compared with a 2.5-year field trial of wood-chip-amended and planted Cu-Pb-Zn tailings
358 (about 80 mg kg^{-1}) under subtropical and semi-arid climatic conditions (You et al., 2018).

359 The decrease of the soil pH was most evident during the decomposition of *L. angustifolius*
360 biomass, although pH was still much higher than that of natural topsoil in the study site, which
361 generally ranged from 4–6 (Cross et al., 2018). Amending tailings with organic material (i.e.
362 sugarcane mulch, C to N ratio about 80) has been proposed as a method to achieve more
363 significant pH neutralisation in tailings (from >9 to about 7.5) (Wu et al., 2019a). This
364 emphasises the importance of using organic amendments with a low C to N ratio that are more
365 accessible to soil decomposers and promote a reduction in soil pH; the sclerophyllous plant
366 material utilised in the VEG treatment in the present study (mainly *Eucalyptus loxophleba* and
367 *Allocasuarina acutivalvis* leaf litter) had a much higher C to N ratio of >150 (unpublished data,

368 H. Zhong). We observed a slight pH increase during the growth of native plants (Figure 2),
369 similar to that reported in tailings colonised by *Maireana brevifolia* (Wu et al., 2019a). The
370 plants in low-N tailings likely acquired more anions (i.e. NO_3^-) than cations, balancing this by
371 net H^+ uptake (or release of HCO_3^- or OH^-) from their roots to achieve charge balance (De Wit
372 et al., 1963; Dijkshoorn et al., 1968). This is partially supported by the low nitrate
373 concentrations in the tailings at the end of the glasshouse trial (Figure S5).

374 In addition, soil P dynamics plays an important role during pedogenesis (Turner and Condon,
375 2013; Walker and Syers, 1976; Zhou et al., 2020). The accumulation of soil organic P is due to
376 the transformation of weathered primary mineral inorganic P into organic forms in microbial
377 or plant biomass which then becomes accessible for soil microbes and plants (Turner et al.,
378 2007). Soil P dynamics are rarely used as an indicator to assess soil formation in the context of
379 mine tailings rehabilitation. However, the increase of organic P concentration indicated the
380 commencement of pedogenesis by *L. angustifolius* P-mobilisation with subsequent biomass
381 decomposition enabling growth of native plant plants. Similar eco-engineering and promotion
382 of primary mineral weathering by a carboxylate-exuding P-mobilising strategy has been
383 reported for *Hippophae rhamnoides* (Elaeagnaceae) in very early stages of soil and ecosystem
384 development in a glacial retreat soil chronosequence, with organic P progressively
385 accumulating in the surface soil (Zhou et al., 2013).

386 Pyrophosphate-extractable Al and Fe fractions are good estimates of soil organo-bound Fe and
387 Al minerals, respectively (Parfitt and Childs, 1988). In the present study, these fractions
388 provided a good indication of soil-forming processes in terms of weathered primary Al or Fe
389 minerals, mainly magnetite and biotite-like mica (Wu et al., 2019b), being bound by organic
390 matter. However, Wu et al. (2019b) did not include pyrophosphate-extractable Al and Fe
391 fractions in their study. In the fresh tailings, there were no organo-bound Al minerals. This soil-
392 forming process was particularly evident by the sharp increase of the Al_p concentrations during
393 the native plant growth phase but did not increase during *L. angustifolius* growth (Figure 6).
394 This was contrary to the changes in soil organic P concentration in this trial. The underlying

395 mechanisms of such differences are not clear and worthy of further study. Organo-mineral
396 associations are important, because they contribute to the formation of soil aggregates, which
397 are abundant in natural soils near mine sites (Wu et al., 2019c). Therefore, our study confirmed
398 that soil formation processes were initiated in the magnetite tailings and that the restoration of
399 some subsequent native species was facilitated through eco-engineering effects of *L.*
400 *angustifolius*. This was achieved mainly via carboxylate-releasing mobilisation of primary
401 mineral P and transforming it into organic P, while the formation of organo-bound Al mineral
402 was most evident during the growth of tested native plants.

403 **6 Concluding remarks**

404 This study demonstrated soil formation in magnetite tailings as a result of using a fast-growing,
405 annual legume *L. angustifolius* as an ecological engineer that promoted growth of native plants
406 in a 20-month glasshouse trial. Apart from relatively small changes in soil organic C and pH,
407 transformation of P (from primary mineral P to organic P) was evidently promoted by the
408 carboxylate-releasing *L. angustifolius*. The formation of organo-bound Al minerals was largely
409 promoted by growth of native plants. We suggest that the substrate P dynamics is a useful
410 indicator of soil formation investigating restoration capacity of substrates when mine tailings
411 are used as soil-forming parent material. We recommend the use of plant species with N₂-fixing
412 and P-mobilising traits as eco-engineering plants to initiate soil formation and N cycling, as
413 well as improving pioneer plant community establishment by facilitating the return of other
414 plants, in ecological restoration of mined land. Finally, rather than using exotic pioneer plants
415 such as species of *Lupinus*, future studies should examine whether perennial native legumes
416 such as the cluster-rooting species in the genus *Daviesia* would provide more ecologically
417 appropriate natural analogues in a Western Australian context (Nge et al., 2020).

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621

622 **Table 1**

623 Aboveground biomass and selected foliar nutrient concentrations of *Lupinus angustifolius*
 624 harvested in Sep 2016. Data in columns are means (n=3) with standard errors in parenthesis.
 625 The same letters indicate no significant difference ($p < 0.05$). TAL: tailings, VEG: tailings
 626 mixed with 10% (w/w) native plant litter, ROC: tailings mixed with 10% (w/w) waste rock;
 627 and TOP: tailings mixed with 10% (w/w) stockpiled soil.

| Substrate | Fresh aboveground biomass (g) | Total N (mg g ⁻¹) | Total P (mg g ⁻¹) |
|-----------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| TAL | 3.3 (0.4) ^{ab} | 23.7 (2.8) ^a | 1.1 (0.1) ^{ab} |
| VEG | 2.9 (0.1) ^b | 23.1 (0.9) ^a | 1.2 (0.1) ^a |
| ROC | 4.3 (0.1) ^a | 27.4 (0.5) ^a | 0.9 (<0.1) ^b |
| TOP | 4.3 (0.2) ^a | 28.0 (2.2) ^a | 0.9 (0.1) ^b |

628

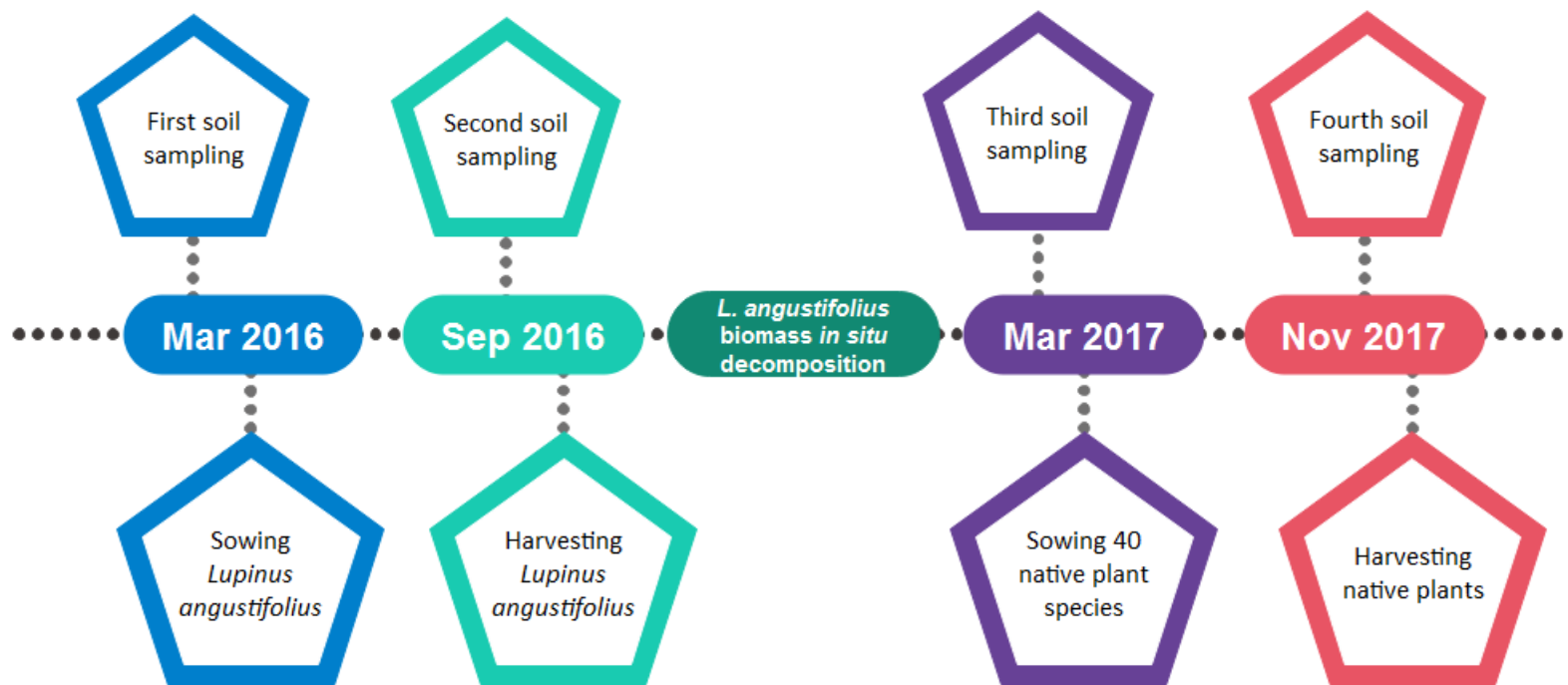
629 **Table 2**

630 Total aboveground biomass and leaf area of native plants harvested in Nov 2017. Data in
 631 columns are means (n=3) with standard errors in parenthesis. The same letters indicate no
 632 significant difference ($p < 0.05$). Symbols of '+' and '-' indicate with and without *Lupinus*
 633 *angustifolius*, respectively; TAL: tailings, VEG: tailings mixed with 10% (w/w) native plant
 634 litter, ROC: tailings mixed with 10% (w/w) waste rock; and TOP: tailings mixed with 10%
 635 (w/w) stockpiled soil.

| Substrate | <i>L. angustifolius</i> | Number of native species survived | Fresh aboveground biomass (g) |
|-----------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| TAL | + | 20 (2) ^{ab} | 11.8 (0.8) ^a |
| | - | 22 (2) ^a | 10.2 (1.6) ^a |
| VEG | + | 16 (3) ^{ab} | 5.0 (1.8) ^{ab} |
| | - | 13 (2) ^b | 1.7 (0.2) ^b |
| ROC | + | 20 (3) ^{ab} | 9.0 (2.5) ^{ab} |
| | - | 18 (1) ^{ab} | 6.9 (2.3) ^{ab} |
| TOP | + | 17 (4) ^{ab} | 5.4 (2.5) ^{ab} |
| | - | 20 (3) ^{ab} | 12.8 (6.1) ^{ab} |

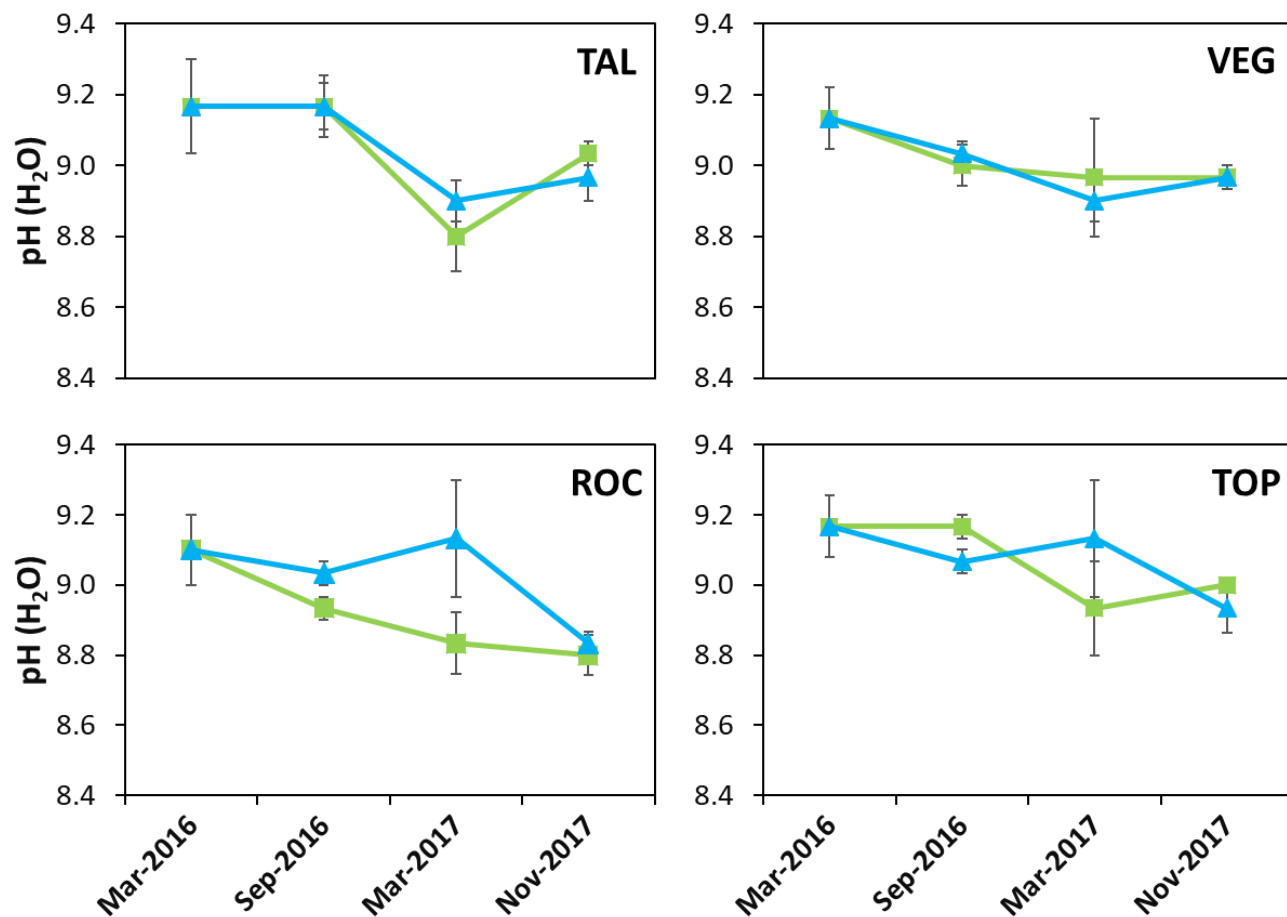
636

637 **Figure 1.** Schematic illustration of times of soil samplings and plant biomass harvestings during a 21-months glasshouse trial from March 2016 to November
638 2017.



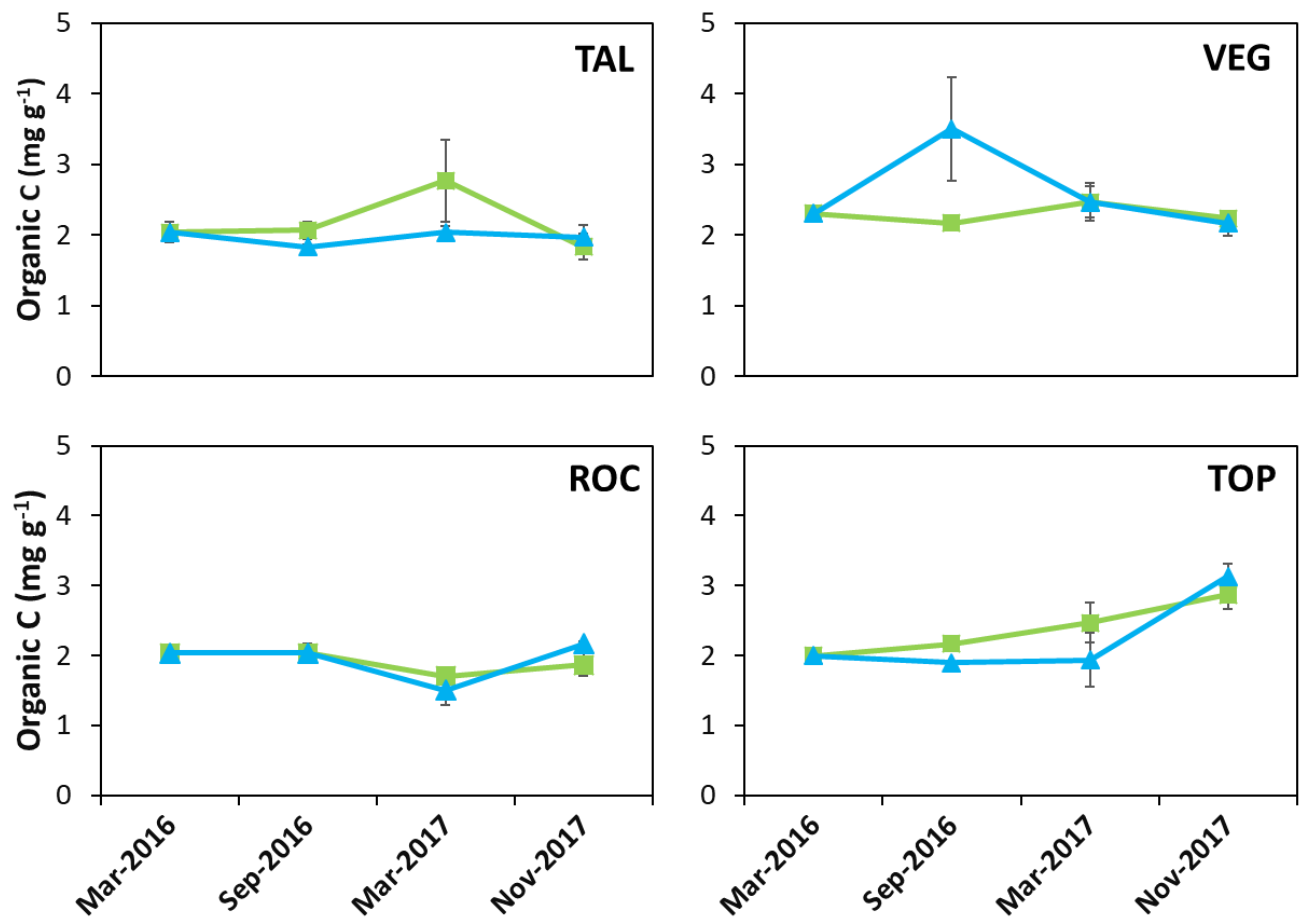
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640

641 **Figure 2.** Changes of soil pH during a 21-months glasshouse trial using different substrates. Values are means \pm standard errors (n=3). Symbols of ■ and ▲
 642 indicate with and without *Lupinus angustifolius*, respectively; TAL: tailings, VEG: tailings mixed with 10% (w/w) native plant litter, ROC: tailings mixed
 643 with 10% (w/w) waste rock; and TOP: tailings mixed with 10% (w/w) stockpiled soil.



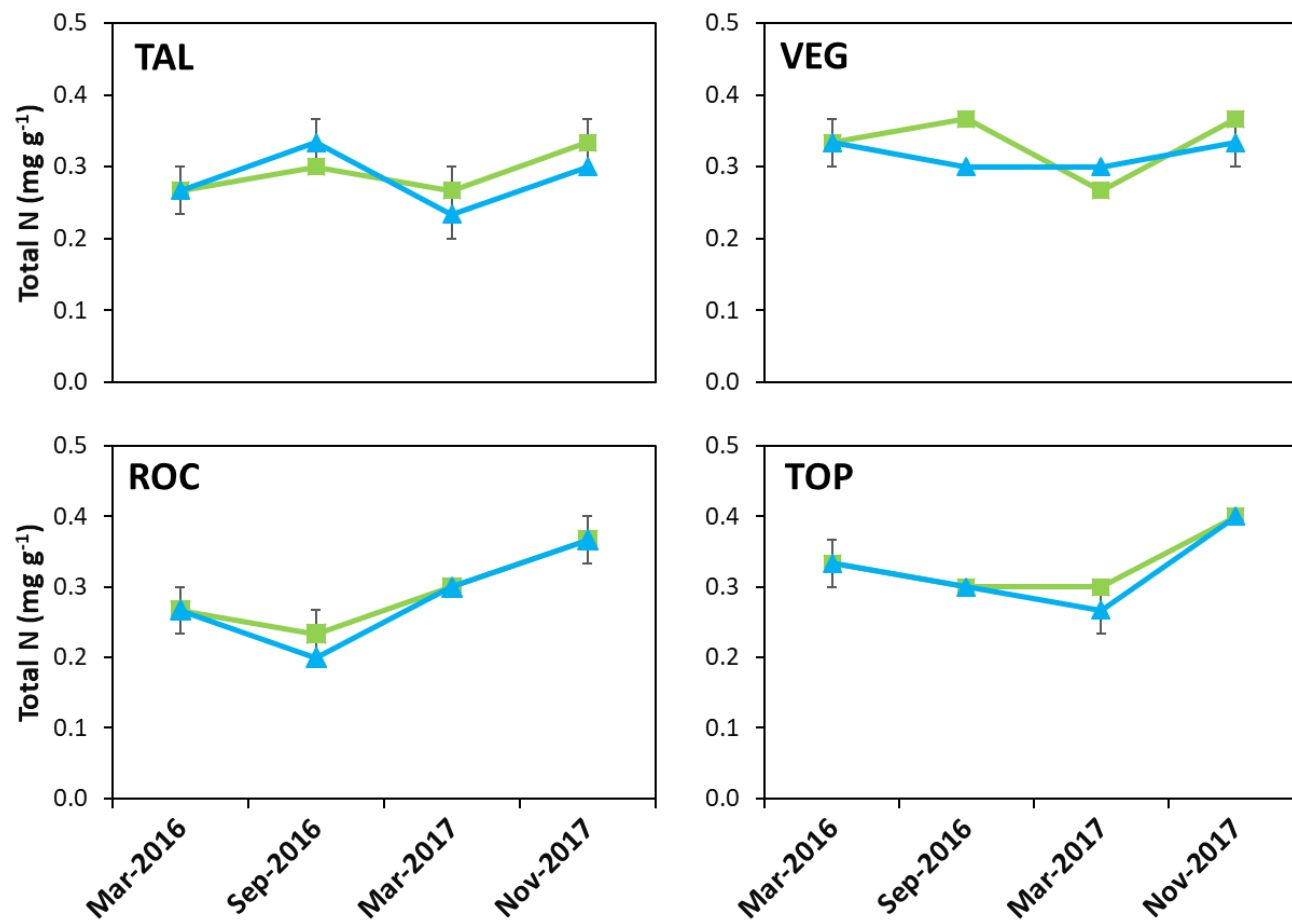
644

646 **Figure 3.** Changes of soil organic carbon (C) during a 21-months glasshouse trial using different substrates. Values are means \pm standard errors (n=3).
 647 Symbols of \blacksquare and \blacktriangle indicate with and without *Lupinus angustifolius*, respectively; TAL: tailings, VEG: tailings mixed with 10% (w/w) native plant litter,
 648 ROC: tailings mixed with 10% (w/w) waste rock; and TOP: tailings mixed with 10% (w/w) stockpiled soil.



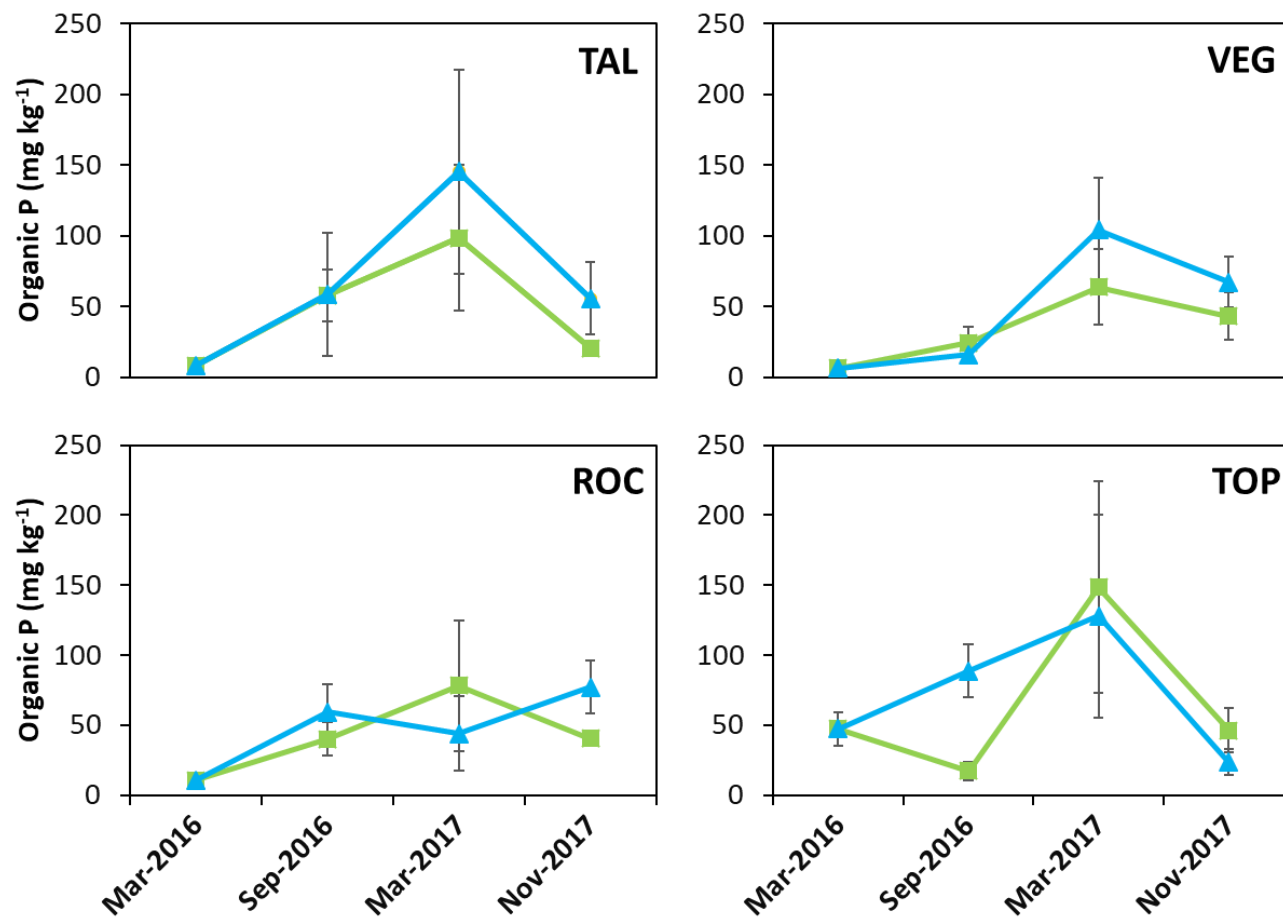
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651 **Figure 4.** Changes of soil total nitrogen (N) during a 21-months glasshouse trial using different substrates. Values are means \pm standard errors (n=3). Symbols
 652 of \blacksquare and \blacktriangle indicate with and without *Lupinus angustifolius*, respectively; TAL: tailings, VEG: tailings mixed with 10% (w/w) native plant litter, ROC:
 653 tailings mixed with 10% (w/w) waste rock; and TOP: tailings mixed with 10% (w/w) stockpiled soil.



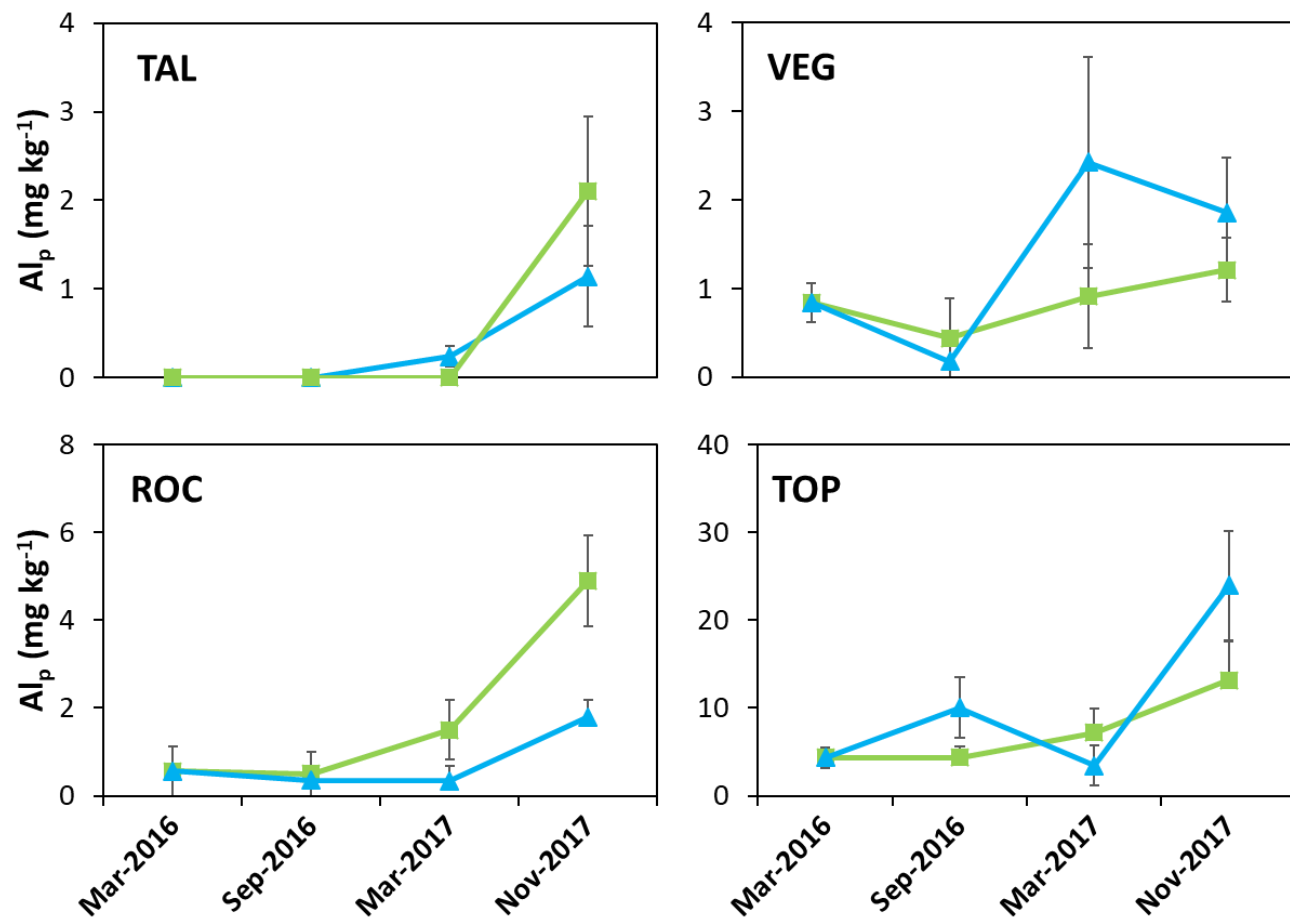
654

656 **Figure 5.** Change of soil organic phosphorus (P) during a 21-months glasshouse trial using different substrates. Values are means \pm standard errors (n=3).
 657 Symbols of \blacksquare and \blacktriangle indicate with and without *Lupinus angustifolius*, respectively; TAL: tailings, VEG: tailings mixed with 10% (w/w) native plant litter,
 658 ROC: tailings mixed with 10% (w/w) waste rock; and TOP: tailings mixed with 10% (w/w) stockpiled soil.



659

661 **Figure 6.** Change of soil pyrophosphate-extractable Al concentrations (Al_p) during a 21-months glasshouse trial using different substrates. Values are means
 662 \pm standard errors (n=3). Symbols of \blacksquare and \blacktriangle indicate with and without *Lupinus angustifolius*, respectively; TAL: tailings, VEG: tailings mixed with 10%
 663 (w/w) native plant litter, ROC: tailings mixed with 10% (w/w) waste rock; and TOP: tailings mixed with 10% (w/w) stockpiled soil.



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