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12 **Rapid recovery of benthic invertebrates downstream of hyperalkaline steel slag**
13 **discharges**

14

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16

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21

22 **Abstract**

23 This study assesses the physical and chemical characteristics of hyperalkaline steel slag
24 leachate from a former steelworks on two streams in England and their impacts on
25 benthic invertebrate communities. Using multivariate methods (CCA), we related
26 invertebrate richness and diversity with chemical parameters along the environmental
27 gradient from point sources to less impacted sites downstream. Point discharges are
28 characterised by high pH (10.6-11.5), high ionic strength (dominated by Ca-CO₃-OH
29 waters), elevated trace elements (notably Li, Sr and V) and high rates of calcium
30 carbonate precipitation. This combination of stressors gives rise to an impoverished
31 benthic invertebrate community in source areas. The total abundance, taxonomic
32 richness and densities of most observed organisms were strongly negatively correlated
33 with water pH. Analysis using biological pollution monitoring indices (e.g. BMWP
34 and Functional Feeding Groups) shows the system to be highly impacted at source but
35 when pH approaches values close to aquatic life standards, some 500m downstream,
36 complex biological communities become established. In addition to showing the rapid

37 recovery of invertebrate communities downstream of the discharges, this study also
38 provides a baseline characterisation of invertebrate communities at the extreme alkaline
39 range of the pH spectrum.

40

41

42 **Keywords:** invertebrates; hyperalkaline; steel slag; leachate; community analysis;

43 monitoring

44

45

46 **INTRODUCTION**

47 Natural systems with very high alkalinity are rare and usually associated with thermal
48 springs (e.g. Khoury et al., 1985). However, numerous globally important industrial
49 processes can give rise to extremely alkaline drainage waters that can create an enduring
50 pollution legacy around residue disposal sites (Mayes et al., 2008). These residues
51 include steel slags (Roadcap et al., 2005), coal combustion residues (Dellantonio et al.,
52 2010), chromite ore processing sites (Stewart et al., 2007), Solvay Process residues
53 from the manufacture of soda ash (Effler et al., 2001), lime spoil (e.g. Burke et al.,
54 2012) and bauxite processing residue (e.g. Mayes et al., 2011). Many of these wastes
55 and by-products are being produced in increasing quantities globally, so an
56 understanding of their broader environmental impact, either in disposal sites or during
57 afteruse (e.g. as aggregates for road fill: Chaurand et al., 2007), is much-needed to
58 facilitate their effective management.

59

60 The weathering products of alkaline residues often have high pH due to the dissolution
61 of oxide and hydroxide minerals which gives rise to high alkalinity and pH beyond the

62 range routinely encountered in natural systems. Some studies have suggested that the
63 hydroxyl ion (OH^-) can be directly toxic to some fish in high concentrations (Wilkie
64 and Wood, 1996). Furthermore, increased bioavailability of some metals or metalloids,
65 particularly those that form oxyanions at high pH (e.g. aluminate, arsenate, chromate,
66 vanadate) can pose additional threats to aquatic organisms (e.g. Cornelis et al., 2007).
67 Beyond these chemical stressors, there can also be physical stressors in hyperalkaline
68 environments. Many calcium-rich highly alkaline waters are characterised by rapid
69 rates of carbonate precipitation, as waters take in atmospheric carbon dioxide to regain
70 equilibrium (Roadcap et al., 2005). The physical smothering of benthic habitats and
71 hardpan formation can impose additional impacts on benthic environments (Mayes et
72 al., 2008), and case studies monitoring the benthic recovery of limed rivers suggested
73 that powdered limestone may clog substrates and be detrimental to filter feeders
74 (Fjellheim and Raddum, 1995). While extensive research efforts have characterised
75 toxicological thresholds and both species and ecosystem response under the acidic
76 range of the pH spectrum (e.g. Monteith et al., 2005), given the far greater number of
77 acid-affected freshwater environments, comparatively few studies have addressed the
78 impacts of hyperalkaline industrial waters on freshwater communities.

79

80 The most comprehensive ecosystem assessments to date of alkaline industrial pollution
81 have been made at the Solvay waste-impacted Onondaga Lake (NY, USA) and
82 associated streams. Discharges during plant operation and residual leachate from soda
83 ash beds were of high pH (>10), moderately saline and rich in Ca^{2+} as well as some
84 other metals including mercury (Effler, 1987; Effler et al. 1991; 2001; Auer et al.
85 1996). The excess Ca^{2+} in highly alkaline waters leads to rapid precipitation of
86 carbonate crusts as atmospheric CO_2 in-gasses into the waters as they regain

87 equilibrium (Roadcap et al., 2005). Since the closure of a soda ash plant at Onondaga
88 Lake, marked increases in the diversity of the lake zooplankton assemblage were
89 reported (Auer et al., 1996; Effler et al., 2001) as a consequence of decreased calcite
90 loadings, which fell from 23.2 g/m²/d before plant closure to 12.8 g/m²/d eight years
91 after plant closure (Effler and Brooks, 1998). Increases in the abundance of large-
92 bodied cladocera (*Daphnia* spp.), were cited as an indication of improvements in the
93 state of the zooplankton community in the lake as the impact of the soda ash leachate
94 was gradually attenuated (Effler and Brooks, 1998). Preliminary studies on a steel slag
95 impacted stream in Pennsylvania, USA, cited a similar combination of stressors
96 including high pH and carbonate smothering of benthic zones as a control on
97 invertebrates and fish populations in a stream which had a pH in excess of 10 (Koryak
98 et al., 2002). The formation of calcareous hardpans on the stream-bed has also been
99 observed to be detrimental to aquatic macrophyte diversity and abundance at sites
100 receiving Solvay bed leachate (Madsen et al., 1996) and lime spoil leachates (Mayes et
101 al., 2005).

102

103 Evidence from sudden, extreme releases of highly alkaline residues also highlight
104 demonstrable short-term impacts of hyperalkalinity on instream biota (Cairns et al.,
105 1972; Klebercz et al. 2012). However in all cases there are multiple synchronous
106 potential stressors impacting on the stream (e.g. extreme pH, high metal(loid)
107 concentrations, physical effects of a flood wave and scouring) and it is therefore
108 difficult to isolate the individual variables most important in affecting invertebrate
109 abundance and diversity. For example, after the accidental release of 1 million m³ of
110 highly alkaline bauxite processing residue liquor in Ajka, Hungary in 2010, studies
111 showed a short term decline in planktonic rotifer diversity and abundance some 250 km

112 downstream in the Danube (Schöll and Szövényi, 2011), while studies focussing on
113 source areas showed adverse effects on sediment-dwelling ostracods such as
114 *Heterocypris incongruens* in bioassays when exposed to the alkaline substrates
115 (Klebercz et al., 2012). However, the combination of high pH, salinity, mineral
116 precipitation and high metal mobility (notably vanadium: Burke et al., 2012) were
117 encountered at all impacted sites.

118

119 Through integrating biological, physical and chemical monitoring, this study aims to
120 assess the impacts of industrial drainage on benthic invertebrate communities at two
121 streams in northern England subject to long-term leaching of hyperalkaline waters from
122 steel slag disposal sites. This study provides (1) a detailed assessment of the physical
123 and chemical environment of hyperalkaline streams, (2) an assessment of the ecological
124 impacts of hyperalkaline waters using standard biometric indices routinely used to
125 monitor freshwater systems, and (3) scarce information on the controls on aquatic biota
126 in streams affected by this enduring form of post-industrial pollution.

127

128

129 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

130 *Study site*

131 Two watercourses draining extensive slag mounds associated with the former Consett
132 Iron and Steel works in northern England (54°50'32.9386"N, 001°51'32.5752"W and
133 54°51'11.7661"N, 001°51'38.0473"W) were sampled in July 2011, November 2012
134 and May 2013 under baseflow conditions. The sites have been previously characterised
135 by elevated pH (9.0-12.5) both during workings operation (when the waters were dosed
136 with sulphuric acid) and in the three decades since the closure of the steel mill in 1980

137 (Mayes et al., 2008). Under baseflow conditions, the Dene Burn (sample prefix DB)
138 receives around half of its flow from a subterranean drainage network beneath the
139 Grove Heaps area of the site. These heaps were tipped up until the closure of the
140 workings in 1980 and consist of blast furnace bottom and steel slag (Mayes et al., 2008).
141 The slag is deposited with other site wastes (e.g. ashes and site demolition waste) over
142 superficial alluvium and glacial till in the valley floors above Lower Coal Measures of
143 Carboniferous (Westphalian) age. Sample DB7 lies on a tributary of the Dene Burn
144 unaffected by slag leachate and is therefore considered a reference site. The Howden
145 Burn (sample prefix HB) drains an area north of the Dene Burn previously occupied by
146 the workings blast furnaces, power station and steel plant, again emerging from a large
147 subterranean drainage system (Figure 1). A series of monitoring stations were sampled
148 along the Howden Burn and Dene Burn to allow characterisation of invertebrate
149 communities along the pH gradient from source to their respective confluences with the
150 River Derwent, a major tributary of the River Tyne. Both the Howden Burn (width:
151 0.6-2.2m) and Dene Burn (width: 0.6-1.9m) follow steep longitudinal profiles (average
152 slopes 0.09 and 0.05 respectively) following incised valleys with minimal or no
153 floodplain (Figure 1).

154

155 *Water analyses*

156 Major physical and chemical parameters (pH, Oxygen Reduction Potential(ORP),
157 electrical conductivity (at 25°C), temperature) were measured in-situ at all sample
158 stations using a Myron L Ultrameter® calibrated using pH 4, 7, 10 and 12.4 standards,
159 while dissolved oxygen was measured using a YSI850 meter. Sample alkalinity was
160 assessed in the field using a two-stage titration of filtered (0.45-µm) sample with a Hach
161 digital titrator. The field alkalinity titration follows the fixed endpoint method (Hach

162 reference 8203) against 1.6N H₂SO₄ with phenolphthalein (to pH 8.3, where required)
163 and bromocresol green-methyl red indicators (to pH 4.6) to facilitate estimation of the
164 constituents of sample alkalinity (i.e. hydroxyl, carbonate and bicarbonate alkalinity)
165 using the USGS Alkalinity Calculator (<http://or.water.usgs.gov/alk/>). Physical and
166 chemical samples were taken at the same time as all invertebrate samples.

167

168 Stream flow rate was measured at each sample site to compute chemical mass loadings
169 (which facilitate precipitation rate estimates through assessing Ca²⁺ loss between
170 consecutive sample stations). A Valeport 801 velocity meter with a flat electromagnetic
171 sensor was deployed during base-flow sampling at all sites. This device was
172 particularly suited to measuring velocity in the streams studied given the typically
173 shallow depth of water (generally <0.05m). The velocity measurements (which ranged
174 between 5-8 per site cross-section) were also coupled with stream dimension
175 measurements and a visual assessment of the substrate composition (in terms of %
176 cover of clay-silt, gravel, pebbles and boulders within an area defined horizontally by
177 the stream width and vertically by a distance of 3m upstream of the station). This
178 describes the stream bed from which the invertebrates were sampled. Three water
179 samples were taken at each sample station in acid-washed 50mL polyethylene sample
180 bottles. One of these was left unamended for anion analysis, one was filtered (0.45µm)
181 and acidified to pH 2, and the final sample acidified to pH 2 for total elemental analyses.
182 Total metal and metalloid concentrations were analysed using a Perkin Elmer Elan
183 DRCII Inductively Coupled Plasma-Mass Spectrometer (ICP-MS; for As, Cr, Li, Mo,
184 Sb and V: detection limits: 1-5 ppb) and an Optima 5300 DV ICP-OES (all other
185 elements: detection limits: 10-100 ppb). Anions (sulphate and chloride) were
186 measured using a Dionex 100 Ion Chromatograph . Saturation indices for calcite were

187 determined using the geochemical code PHREEQC v.1.5.10 (Parkhurst and Apello,
188 1999) with the WATEQ4F (Ball and Nordstrom, 1991) database based on filtered
189 samples.

190

191

192 *Ecological sampling*

193 In order to determine if invertebrate community composition varied with both site and
194 season, five sample stations from the source of input (which were well defined by pipe
195 drainage from subterranean drainage systems) to the main river were sampled at HB
196 and DB in July 2011 (summer samples). Invertebrates were sampled in triplicate across
197 both riffles and pools at each station through kick sampling (3 minute duration) using
198 a 25cm wide and 22cm deep 1mm mesh net in accordance with the macro-invertebrate
199 sampling methods outlined in WFD UK TAG (SNIFFER, 2008). Large macrophytes
200 and edge vegetation were absent from both streams although small patches of blue-
201 green algae were evident on the precipitated material in the upper reaches of the
202 streams. Both streams flowed through wooded areas which were the source of the
203 organic detritus found throughout. No aquatic invertebrates were found at HB, so both
204 autumn (November 2012) and spring (May 2013) samples were only collected from
205 DB using the methods outlined above. The number of stations sampled during autumn
206 was increased to incorporate an additional downstream site (DB10) to determine the
207 extent of the effects of the hyperalkaline water on invertebrate communities. Samples
208 were preserved in 4% formalin and all taxa, apart from Oligochaeta, were identified to
209 family level and counted in the laboratory (Pawley et al., 2011), with further
210 identification of Ephemeroptera, Plecoptera and Trichoptera to genus/species using the
211 relevant keys. The invertebrate taxa were then assigned to one of five functional feeding

212 groups (Gathering Collectors, Filtering Collectors, Predators, Shredders and Scrapers;
213 Cummings and Klug, 1979) using the appropriate information for each taxon residing
214 in the freshwaterecology.info data base (Schmidt-Kloiber and Hering, 2012) in order to
215 examine the trophic organisation of stream communities.

216

217 *Statistical analyses*

218 Canonical Correspondence Analysis (CCA) was used to model the response of the
219 invertebrate taxa to the environmental variables and was chosen as there was a high
220 turnover of taxa along the gradient (Zuur et al., 2010). As the invertebrate data set
221 contained double zeros a Chord transform was applied to the invertebrate abundance
222 data prior to analysis. Cleveland dotplots were used to check for outliers and multi-
223 panel scatterplots were used to determine if there was any collinearity (Zuur et al.
224 2010). As alkalinity was highly correlated with conductivity and the % cover of
225 boulders was highly correlated with the other stream bed variables (% cover sand, clay
226 and pebbles), the variables alkalinity and % boulders were removed from the analysis.
227 The following reduced set of environmental variables were used to constrain the
228 ordination; pH (code: PH), electrical conductivity (COND), oxygen reducing potential
229 (ORP), dissolved oxygen (O2), and the percentage cover of sand (SAND), clay/silt
230 (CLAY) and pebbles (PEBB) on the stream bed; season (SEA) was included as a factor
231 in the model (three levels spring (Sp), summer (Su), autumn (A)). A forward selection
232 procedure was used to determine the significant environmental variables using a
233 permutation test (10000 permutations) to compare the significance of the ratio of the
234 constrained and unconstrained total inertia (F) for each variable (as outlined in Zuur et
235 al., 2010), and a table wide Bonferroni test was applied to the results in order to reduce
236 Type I errors.

237 In order to determine if ecological impacts due to hyperalkaline conditions
238 could be detected using biological indices routinely used for monitoring purposes we
239 applied the following to the dataset. Firstly, the Biological Monitoring Working Party
240 index (BMWP), average score per taxon (ASPT) and number of taxa (NTAXA) were
241 calculated according to SNIFFER (2008). As we were also interested in the functional
242 ecology of the communities we assigned each taxon to a functional feeding group (FFG)
243 by applying the following indices; ratio of Shredders to Total Collectors (Sh:C), the
244 percentage of Ephemeroptera, Trichoptera and Plecoptera (% EPT), ratio of filtering
245 collectors to gathering collectors (FC:GC) as these have been applied to a variety of
246 stream systems (e.g. Ross et al., 2008; Rawer-Jost et al., 2000). The relationship
247 between environmental variables and biological indices was examined using Spearman
248 Rank correlations as much of the data was discontinuous or did not conform to a normal
249 distribution even after log transformation (Kolmogorov-Smirnov: $p < 0.05$). All
250 statistical analyses were undertaken in the software package R version 2.15.0 (R
251 Development Core Team, 2012)

252

253

254 **RESULTS**

255

256 *Physical and chemical characterisation of the streams*

257 Both streams were characterised by Ca-CO₃-OH-dominated waters at source with pH
258 well above ambient aquatic life limits (pH 9). The Howden Burn had far greater ionic
259 enrichment than the Dene Burn, with major ions dominated by Ca²⁺, OH⁻ and SO₄²⁻
260 (Table 1). This difference between the streams is due to relative dilution of the Dene
261 Burn slag drainage with uncontaminated surface waters, while the sulphate enrichment

262 reflects the dumping of sulphur-rich wastes (such as fly ash, flue gas waste and coke
263 works waste) over what were the headwaters of the Howden Burn. Source samples
264 showed the slag leachate to be slightly anoxic on occasion (Table 1), however the
265 streams are characterised by consistently high dissolved oxygen (range 82 to >100%
266 saturation) facilitated by the cascading, high gradient longitudinal profiles of both
267 streams (Table 1). This buffering was pronounced in the Dene Burn, with a fall in pH
268 from 10.5 to less than 8 (Figure 2). These precipitation processes were apparent in the
269 conductivity data for the Howden Burn, but pH showed only a modest fall from source
270 to the confluence with the River Derwent (from 11.5 to 11.0) due to the excess OH⁻ in
271 this system. Macronutrient concentrations in the waters were modest and reflect the
272 groundwater-dominated sources for both streams, which themselves rise from
273 predominantly made-ground (i.e. waste heaps associated with the former steelworks)
274 with only a sparse cover of low-intensity grazing throughout the catchments (Table 1).
275

276 *Trace elements*

277 Of the trace elements surveyed, none exceeded prescribed aquatic life standards in the
278 European Union at the hardness of the waters sampled (Table 1). Aluminium, which
279 is a determinand of potential concern given mobility (as aluminate) at pH > 8 in surface
280 waters, did not exceed prescribed Environmental Quality Standard (EQS) values. Fe,
281 while present, was also not at concentrations that would warrant regulatory concern
282 (Table 1). Chromium, copper, nickel and zinc were either below prescribed EQS or
283 detection limits in all samples. However, steel slag drainage can be characterised by
284 enrichment in elements that are (a) not typically encountered in polluted wastewaters,
285 and (b) not routinely monitored by regulatory agencies. These include steel additives
286 and/or elements that are mobile under high pH conditions such as antimony, barium,

287 lithium, molybdenum, strontium and vanadium, for which no formal European water
288 quality standards are currently set. Table 1 shows the aggregated aquatic life standards
289 of Buchman (2006) alongside the sample data which serves as an initial screening tool
290 for the potential toxicity of some of these elements. However, it must also be stressed
291 that standard toxicological tests rarely assess the broader chemical matrix of Ca-OH-
292 rich, highly alkaline waters. It is apparent that strontium (Sr) and lithium (Li) exceeded
293 provisional acute EQS, while vanadium (V) was present at source in modest
294 concentrations ($< 52 \mu\text{g/L}$) in both discharges (Table 1). While no formal ambient
295 aquatic life standards are prescribed for V, concern has been raised for V in drinking
296 waters with a suggested DWS of $15 \mu\text{g/L}$ (Gerke et al., 2010). Correlations between
297 major parameters and many trace elements showed strong positive relationships (Table
298 2), which (a) suggests that most of the potential stressors in the streams are sourced
299 from the steel slag (for example, the strong positive relationships between Ca, V and
300 Sr), and (b) highlights how concentrations of many elements decline concomitantly
301 with distance from the sources (Figure 2). Previous studies at the site have shown
302 through mass balance estimates that some of the potentially important trace elements
303 (e.g. Sr and V) are attenuated in the secondary precipitates that are a characteristic
304 feature of the sites (Mayes et al., 2008).

305

306 *Secondary precipitates*

307 The secondary precipitates themselves were dominated by calcite, but in source areas
308 contain polymorphs of calcite such as vaterite (Mayes et al., 2008) which is indicative
309 of the very rapid mineral precipitation rates. Calcium carbonate precipitation rates, as
310 estimated from mass balance between sequential sample stations and areal estimates of
311 the stream bed from site surveys, generally decreased with distance from the sources

312 and is reflected in the downstream falls in conductivity (as ionic species are lost from
313 solution) across the two streams (Figure 2). In lower reaches of the Dene Burn instream
314 Ca^{2+} load gains were observed (Figure 2) which is most likely ascribable to inputs of
315 Ca^{2+} -rich waters from tributaries draining springs from Coal Measures strata, and is
316 consistent with field observations in showing minimal, if any carbonate precipitation in
317 these lower reaches (from 270m from the source). Although the reach-scale
318 precipitation rate estimates are likely to obscure small scale variations in precipitation
319 rate that will arise with hydrodynamics (for example, between a thin film of water
320 flowing over a carbonate barrage and that in a slow flowing pool), the aggregated
321 estimates highlight the dominant broader significant positive relationship between pH
322 and precipitation rate in these systems (Table 2).

323

324 *Invertebrate data*

325 No invertebrates were found in the samples from Howden Burn, so analysis is restricted
326 to those collected from Dene Burn. As noted above, the Howden Burn has far higher
327 conductivity ($>1563 \mu\text{S}/\text{cm}^2$) and pH in excess of 11.3; a feature of receiving slag
328 leachate without surface drainage (Table 1). Both of these factors are thought to be
329 highly detrimental to aquatic communities. The drainage from Dene Burn slag is joined
330 by additional tributaries containing uncontaminated surface waters improving the
331 overall water quality, hence invertebrate abundance and diversity increased
332 downstream. Figure 3 is the site conditional CCA plot (i.e. species are plotted close to
333 the stations where they occur) for the Dene Burn with stations plotted at the centroids
334 of the species scores. Overall, 61% of the total inertia (1.62) was explained by the nine
335 environmental variables, with 52% explained by the first two canonical axes. Out of
336 the original nine variables, only two were highlighted as being statistically significant

337 by the forward selection process (Table 3). Season (SEA) was the most important factor
338 separating stations, spring samples were markedly different to summer and autumn
339 samples (Table 3; Figure 3). The other significant variable was pH, which separated
340 stations along the first CCA axis and, whilst not significant after Bonferroni adjustment
341 (Table 3), ORP clearly influenced the distribution of the sites along CCA2. There was
342 a significant negative correlation between taxon richness and % clay-silt content of the
343 stream bed (Spearman Rank Correlation, $r_s = -0.423$, $df = 20$, $P < 0.05$; Table 4) and
344 taxon Shannon Weiner diversity and pH (Spearman Rank Correlation, $r_s = -0.474$, $df =$
345 20 , $P < 0.05$; Table 4). Samples near the source had low invertebrate abundance and
346 richness and contained mainly Chironomidae, Simuliidae and Gammaridae (Figure 4;
347 Appendix 1 for more information). The stream bed at stations 1 – 3 mainly comprised
348 of clays, and precipitated CaCO_3 which declined rapidly in proportion downstream
349 (Figure 2). As the buffering effects of carbonate precipitation reduced pH levels further
350 downstream, more complex invertebrate communities become established approaching
351 that of the reference site (station DB7), with more sensitive taxa such as Heptageniidae
352 and Philopotamidae occurring at $\text{pH} < 8.7$, along with an increased taxon diversity and
353 richness downstream of the source (Figure 4; Table 4 and Appendix 1).

354

355 In terms of the FFG composition, samples from stations 1-3 of Dene Burn were
356 dominated by gathering collectors in spring and summer, whilst filtering collectors and
357 shredders were more abundant during the autumn (Figure 5). As pH decreased below
358 8.5 scrapers became more abundant as did predators in the lower reaches of the system,
359 and a more diverse community became established (Table 3; Figure 5). The only FFG
360 metric correlated with environmental variables was % EPT that has a significant
361 negative relationship with pH (Spearman rank, $r_s = -0.462$, $P < 0.05$). BMWP, ASPT

362 and NTAXA all showed a negative correlation with pH (Spearman Rank Correlation,
363 $P < 0.01$ in all cases) indicating hyperalkaline waters had a severe impact on invertebrate
364 communities.

365

366 **DISCUSSION**

367 The composition of the waters draining from the slag mounds is consistent with
368 previous studies at the site (Mayes et al. 2006; 2008) and studies of slag leachate
369 elsewhere in the world (e.g. Roadcap et al., 2005). The waters showed several unusual
370 features such as (a) hyperalkaline pH, (b) enrichment of metals not routinely monitored
371 by regulatory authorities and (c) very high mineral precipitation rates. The high pH,
372 derived from dissolution of oxide and hydroxide phases in the slag (Roadcap et al.,
373 2005), had both streams exceeding regulatory pH guidelines for large distances and is
374 consistent with high ionic strength of source waters, notably in the Howden Burn
375 (Figure 2). Li, Sr and V were present in concentrations higher than typically
376 encountered in natural surface waters (e.g. Hem, 1985), and were at concentrations
377 similar to those documented due to mineralisation or mining-related enrichment (Kszos
378 and Stewart, 2003; Jones et al., 2013). V should be a particular focus for toxicity studies
379 in hyperalkaline waters, given it is usually observed in its pentavalent, and most toxic,
380 form under high pH conditions (Chaurand et al. 2007; Burke et al., 2012) and retains
381 mobility under circum-neutral pH (Takeno, 2006). Precipitation rates at the source of
382 the Howden Burn (up to $284 \text{ g CaCO}_3/\text{m}^2/\text{day}$) were an order of magnitude above the
383 highest rates documented for natural tufa-precipitating streams, which are typically
384 quoted in the range $0.2\text{-}10 \text{ g CaCO}_3/\text{m}^2/\text{day}$ (Zaihua et al., 1995; Miliša et al., 2006).
385 The steep gradient stream morphology also lends itself to buffering of the waters with
386 distance downstream (Figure 2), with thin films of leachate cascading over carbonate-

387 crust barriers enhancing CO₂ in-gassing to the waters and subsequent calcite
388 precipitation (Roadcap et al., 2005). Precipitation rates in the Dene Burn were towards
389 the upper range of those found in natural karstic streams only in source areas (Figure
390 2). The precipitation rate data were also consistent with calculated calcite saturation
391 indices (Figure 2), with values above +0.3 usually considered the threshold for
392 heterogeneous calcium carbonate precipitation (Ford and Williams, 1998). The
393 Howden Burn retained a high $SI_{calcite}$ throughout its course at values above thresholds
394 where homogeneous calcite precipitation would be anticipated from solution (quoted at
395 +1.5: Ford and Williams, 1998). The high rates of carbonate deposition in source areas
396 of both streams compare with those documented at other Ca-rich alkaline waters (Effler
397 and Brooks, 1998) and are similar to mineral precipitation rates at analogous sites
398 affected by other forms of inorganic post-industrial pollution, notably circum-neutral
399 pH coal mine drainage (Edwards and Maidens, 1995; Jarvis and Younger, 1997).

400 As such, there are a range of potential physical and chemical variables that could
401 impact on the biological communities of the streams. The absence of any invertebrate
402 populations in the Howden Burn, characterised by higher precipitation rates, greater
403 ionic strength and higher pH waters reinforces this (Table 1). Whilst high conductivity
404 may have severe toxic effect on invertebrates depending on the composition of the ions
405 within solution (Cormier et al., 2013), apart from the ions associated with increased
406 alkalinity (carbonate and hydroxide), trace elements and major ions remained generally
407 below EQS levels where prescribed (Table 1). There has been a suggestion of V
408 toxicity to juvenile benthic invertebrates in marine settings at concentrations of a
409 similar order to those documented here (e.g. Chiffolleau et al., 2004; Fichet and
410 Miramand, 1998), however, there have been few studies on invertebrate response to V
411 pollution in freshwaters and this remains a research need.

412 ORP and the proportion of pebbles on the stream bed appear to be highly
413 positively correlated as does the proportion of clay-silt and pH levels, suggesting the
414 physical influence of the leachate on the substrate as an important control on the stream
415 bed (Figures 2 and 3). High levels of suspended inorganic material are thought to create
416 unfavourable conditions for filter feeders and cause benthic smothering (Fjellheim and
417 Raddum, 1995). However, the pH values at these stations typically exceeded pH 9.5,
418 far greater than that found in natural headwater stream systems (Cormier et al., 2013;
419 Ross et al., 2008) or even in impacted sites which have undergone alkali-dosing
420 remediation to reduce the impacts of acid mine drainage (AMD: e.g. Bradley and
421 Ormerod, 2002). Some invertebrate taxa can tolerate hyperalkaline environments, and
422 Chironomidae have been recorded in pH 11 waters derived from NaOH exposure
423 (Berezina, 2001). The taxon Chironomidae contains many different species which have
424 differing abilities to tolerate adverse conditions or recolonize areas rapidly (Pires et al.,
425 2000). A series of mesocosm studies by Berezina (2001) indicated that, besides certain
426 species of Chironomidae, few invertebrate taxa tolerated exposure to hyperalkaline
427 conditions (pH 11) with most suffering mortality within 48hrs. The larvae of certain
428 species of Chironomidae are thought to be more tolerant of short term exposure to high
429 pH than pupae which lose osmoregulation organs during metamorphosis and suffer
430 higher mortality (Berezina, 2001).

431 The multivariate analysis (Figure 3) also highlighted the importance of seasonal
432 variations in the observed communities. Summer samples were associated with
433 occurrence of Heptageniidae (Hep), Hydrophilidae (Hydrop) and Empididae (Emp)
434 whereas low numbers of Limoniidae (Lim) and Chironomidae (Chir) with spring.
435 Previous studies have suggested that intolerant taxa emerging in spring will suffer high
436 mortality leaving a low diversity community with only the most tolerant taxa present

437 later in the year (Garcia-Criado et al., 1999). However, the Dene Burn spring samples
438 had a far lower abundance and diversity than those of summer and autumn and probably
439 due to the scouring of the stream bed by high water flow during a period of heavy
440 rainfall earlier in the year. Howden Burn was only sampled during summer and was
441 devoid of macro-invertebrates, however it is possible that this could also be colonised
442 at different times of the year. As such, repeated seasonal assessments of additional
443 hyperalkaline sites would be beneficial to assess such patterns.

444 While the most common species encountered in the high pH sites of the Dene
445 Burn were of the families Chironomidae, Gammaridae and Simuliidae, these stations
446 in source areas had low diversity and abundance (Figure 5, Table 4). Surprisingly, small
447 numbers of individuals of both Baetidae (*Baetis rhodani*) and Leuctridae (*Leuctra*
448 *moselyi*) were found at station 3 during autumn at a pH of 9.68. *Baetis rhodani* appears
449 to be quite tolerant of higher pH and has been recorded in abundance post-liming
450 treatment of acidic streams (Bradley and Ormerod, 2003). Both Heptageniidae and
451 Leuctridae have been recorded from both non-polluted and polluted sites in Spanish
452 riverine systems impacted by coalfield and mining run off, albeit at pH values lower
453 than recorded here (Garcia-Criado et al., 1999). While these taxa also have higher
454 BMWP scores due to their sensitivity to organic pollution, they may not be as sensitive
455 to mining discharges (Garcia-Criado et al., 1999) or to hyperalkaline conditions.

456 Assessment of the invertebrate functional feeding groups offers a good
457 indication of broader community function (Figure 5). In boreal stream systems
458 functional group richness and diversity was shown to increase with increasing pH, but
459 the pH levels did not exceed 8.4 during that study on natural streams (Heino, 2005). As
460 seen in streams impacted by AMD (Ross et al., 2008), herbivores (scrapers) were absent
461 from the most severely impacted sites and gathering collectors predominated (Short et

462 al., 1990). Previous studies on acidic streams have highlighted that acid tolerant taxa
463 may adopt a generalist feeding strategy deriving allochthonous carbon from detritus
464 and autochthonous carbon from biofilms (Layer et al., 2013). At more neutral pH
465 levels, a range of acid sensitive specialist grazers fed on aquatic vegetation but were
466 absent from acidic sites (Layer et al., 2013). This may be the case in this study; the
467 hyperalkaline areas had few taxa, usually classified as detritivores (Figure 5), but these
468 too may be able to adopt a generalist feeding strategy, using biofilms on the clays as a
469 source of autochthonous carbon.

470 The ratios of key functional feeding groups can also be used as metrics of
471 benthic community health. According to Rawer-Jost et al., (2000) when values of the
472 FC:GC and Sh:C indices are less than 0.5 and 0.25 respectively, this indicates an
473 impacted system. Whilst neither of these indices was correlated with environmental
474 variables they still indicate that the upper reaches of the stream was severely impacted
475 by the physical and chemical conditions of the slag drainage (Table 4). Other indices
476 have been widely applied for biological indicators of pollution (Mason, 2002). The
477 BMWP scoring system primarily reflects the sensitivity of invertebrates to organic
478 enrichment (Czerniawska-Kusza, 2005). However such metrics also reflect the changes
479 in water quality with both AMD (Bradley and Ormerod, 2002) and coalfield run-off
480 (Garcia-Criado et al., 1999). The results obtained from the WFD-TAG (SNIFFER,
481 2008) approach suggest that the Dene Burn was severely impacted close to the source
482 and water quality improved downstream from the slag leachate discharges (Table 4).
483 The distance over which such improvements were tangible was in the region of 500m
484 from source suggesting relatively rapid recovery (compared with AMD impacts for
485 example: Kruse et al. 2013) due to instream chemical buffering processes. Irrespective
486 of the metric used to measure the structure of the invertebrate community, the overall

487 picture is that the prevailing physical and chemical conditions driven by the
488 hyperalkalinity of the slag drainage have a major impact on the biota of the system near
489 the source.

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491

492 **CONCLUSIONS**

493 While strict limits are set for the upper limit of ambient water pH in river systems
494 (typically 8.5 or 9), there is a paucity of studies assessing the distribution of
495 invertebrates under highly alkaline conditions. This study highlights that at extreme
496 alkaline pH there are a number of potential physical and chemical stressors that give
497 rise to highly impacted biological communities. High pH at source is coincident with
498 very high rates of mineral precipitation, and increased dissolved metal concentrations
499 (notably Sr, Li and V). The high precipitation rates give rise to a benthic environment
500 dominated by very fine-grained amorphous calcium carbonate smothering at rates far
501 above natural tufa-precipitating streams in source areas. Similar to other sites impacted
502 by inorganic pollution such as coal mine drainage, the benthic smothering may be as
503 important a constraint on invertebrate communities as any chemical variable (Jarvis and
504 Younger, 1997). Once pH falls below 10.5, which is accompanied by falling
505 precipitation rates, the abundance and diversity of invertebrate taxa increases in the
506 impacted streams. These initially include collectors such as members of the families
507 Chironomidae, Gammaridae and Simuliidae. Various biological monitoring indicators
508 and measures of community composition all show the system to be highly impacted.
509 Only in lower reaches of the Dene Burn (>500m downstream) does a diverse
510 invertebrate community become established. These data provide a useful foundation
511 for further studies on what is an increasingly documented pollution problem. With

512 increasing volumes of caustic by-products and wastes arising from industrial processes
513 and being disposed of in landfill sites, there is an increasing need for both accurate
514 impact assessments of alkaline drainage, but also management strategies for addressing
515 such leachates (e.g. Mayes et al., 2009). Future directions should include surveys at
516 other, similar hyperalkaline sites, as well as laboratory studies to isolate the key controls
517 on invertebrate tolerance to highly alkaline waters. The importance of trace elements
518 such as vanadium, for which there are scant toxicological information for freshwaters
519 of this matrix, needs to be assessed alongside other chemical stressors (ionic strength
520 and pH) and the dominating physical factors (elevated carbonate precipitation rate)
521 apparent in these systems.

522

523

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528

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669 **Figures and Tables**

670

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672 Table 1. Baseflow major physical and chemical parameters and major and minor
 673 elemental constituent of filtered (0.45 μ m) samples. Source samples (HB1 and DB1)
 674 and those furthest from source (HB8 and DB8) on each drainage stream are presented
 675 alongside Environmental Quality Standards (EQS), where prescribed.

676

Determinand	HB1	HB8	DB1	DB8	EQS
pH	11.64	11.32	10.72	9.06	6-9
Temperature (°C)	13.0	12.8	12.5	13.4	
Electrical conductivity (μ S/cm ²)	3193	1563	452	438	
p.e. (V)	0.037	0.042	-0.018	0.075	
Dissolved oxygen (% sat.)	92.5	96.5	88.0	99.4	50
Distance downstream of source (m)	5	460	5	1660	
Major ions (mg/L)					
Ca	239	110	15	11	
Mg	<1	2	2	1	
K	293	172	18	19	
Na	83	56	25	24	
Cl	42	41	18	18	
SO ₄	852	546	36	36	
NO ₃	3	4	3	3	
Total P	0.05	0.09	0.03	0.04	
Total Alkalinity (as CaCO ₃)	332	84	59	66	
OH	29	13	3	<1	
CO ₃	139	20	18	2	
HCO ₃	9	3	9	37	
Trace elements (μg/L)					
Al	556	13	15	40	750
Ba	42.5	32.8	26.0	4.6	110 [^]
Cd	<2	<2	<2	<2	5
Cr	8.4	6.7	2.5	<1	50 ^{**}
Cu	<1	<1	<1	<1	28 ^{**}
Fe	980.7	690.4	137.6	88.3	1000 ⁺
Li	822.0	703.6	14.2	4.4	260 [^]
Mn	32.2	1.1	17.4	5.4	
Mo	23.4	13.3	10.9	2.8	1600 [^]
Ni	8.9	4.8	10.9	0.3	200 ^{**}
Pb	<5	<5	<5	<5	20 ^{**}
Sb	1.6	1.1	1.0	0.1	
Si	1290	1160	222	203	
Sr	2610	1140	213	279	15 [^]
V	51.8	34.2	13.9	1.6	60 ^{**}
Zn	9	2	4	3	10.9 [*]

677 * = hardness related, value quoted for hardness values encountered here; + = as dissolved
678 fraction which can pass through a 0.45µm filter. EQS taken from EU WFD with exception of
679 ‘^’ which are from Buchman (2008).

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683 Table 2. Spearman's rank correlation matrix for selected major physical and chemical
 684 parameters and metals across the Dene and Howden Burns. $n = 57$ for all except those
 685 including CaCO_3 precipitation rate ($n = 16$). ** = $P < 0.001$. E.C.: Electrical Conductivity.
 686

	<i>pH</i>	<i>E.C.</i>	<i>CaCO₃</i> <i>precipitation rate</i>	<i>Ca</i>	<i>Sr</i>
E.C.	0.778**				
CaCO ₃ rate	0.965**	0.850**			
Ca	0.877**	0.896**	0.885**		
Sr	0.628**	0.781**	0.937**	0.743**	
V	0.761**	0.782**	0.920**	0.788**	0.761**

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697 Table 3. Summary of the results from the CCA showing the contribution of the
 698 environmental variables to the first two canonical coefficients. Numbers in bold denote
 699 significant p values after table-wide Bonferroni correction of the permutation tests (ns
 700 denotes not significant).

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	<i>Axis 1</i>	<i>Axis 2</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p value</i>
Eigen values	0.331	0.185	-	-
% Variation explained	20.4	11.4	-	-
Constrained environmental variable scores				
% Sand (SAND)	-0.133	0.664	1.09	ns
% Pebbles (PEBB)	-0.365	0.265	1.09	ns
% Clay (CLAY)	0.418	-0.349	1.21	ns
Conductivity ($\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}^2$) (COND)	-0.439	-0.174	1.76	ns
pH (PH)	0.469	-0.549	2.04	0.023
Oxygen reducing potential (ORP)	-0.574	0.379	2.11	0.026
Dissolved oxygen (% sat.) (O2)	-0.265	-0.626	1.52	ns
Distance from source (km) (DIST)	-0.086	0.072	0.39	ns
Season (SEA)			2.83	<0.001

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704 Table 4. Summary of the biological indices across seasons (mean (sd)) for stations along
 705 Dene Burn (abbreviations as in text). Note: DB7 is a reference site.
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<i>Station</i>	<i>Distance from source (km)</i>	<i>Shannon Weiner Diversity, H'</i>	<i>Taxon richness, S</i>	<i>BMWP score</i>	<i>ASPT</i>	<i>NTAXA</i>	<i>%EPT</i>	<i>FC:GC</i>	<i>Sh:C</i>	<i>%P</i>
DB1	0.38	0.97 (0.35)	3.33 (1.53)	11.4 (10.6)	4.2 (1.46)	1.7 (0.6)	1.8 (3.0)	0.33(0.56)	0.03 (0.02)	0 (0)
DB2	0.46	1.41 (0.39)	5.00 (1.0)	34.6 (9.1)	5.77 (0.2)	6.0 (2.1)	57.7 (23.1)	0 (0)	0.09 (0.11)	0 (0)
DB3	0.59	1.81 (0.46)	11.0 (4.1)	23.6 (19.3)	6.0 (1.31)	8.0 (3.1)	36.9 (14.6)	0.51 (0.29)	0.05 (0.1)	2.0 (0.74)
DB4	0.67	1.24 (0.59)	7.0 (4.6)	48.3 (10.6)	4.83 (1.31)	4.3 (3.0)	6.6 (8.1)	0.34 (0.59)	0.04 (0.03)	0.85 (0.72)
DB5	0.70	0.99 (0.22)	8.7 (4.9)	24.6 (18.0)	5.01 (0.71)	4.7 (3.1)	2.9 (4.6)	1.01 (1.0)	0.02 (0.02)	0.63 (0.87)
DB6	0.75	1.16 (0.31)	5.0 (2.8)	14.6 (8.8)	4.18 (0.03)	3.5 (2.1)	5.6 (7.9)	0.09 (0.15)	0.01 (0.01)	1.0 (1.4)
DB7	0.2	1.54 (0.08)	9.0 (4.2)	67.8 (19.4)	6.13 (0.24)	11.0 (3.1)	56.0 (22.9)	0.46 (0.66)	0.49 (0.16)	9.0 (12.8)
DB8	0.97	1.68 (0.11)	14.0 (3.1)	40.7 (7.6)	5.83 (0.9)	7.0 (1.4)	22.6 (23.4)	1.58 (0.76)	0.09 (0.04)	3.1 (1.6)
DB9	1.46	1.27 (0.52)	10.0 (7.0)	51.5 (32.2)	6.06 (0.22)	8.3 (5.0)	17.0 (14.9)	0.44 (0.73)	0.47 (0.22)	1.39 (1.62)
DB10	1.66	1.59 (0.19)	11.0 (3.4)	51.1 (22.1)	5.68 (0.61)	9.0 (3.6)	13.7 (4.1)	0.94 (0.73)	0.46 (0.39)	3.6 (2.2)

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711 FIGURE CAPTIONS

712 Figure 1. Location map for the former Consett Steelworks and associated drainage streams
713 (colour ramp indicates topography: from brown (low elevation) to green (high elevation))

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715 Figure 2. Baseflow patterns in selected major physical and chemical parameters and elemental
716 concentrations along the Howden Burn and Dene Burn.

717 Figure 3. CCA site conditional scaling plot for the Dene Burn samples with sites (A) and taxa
718 (B) plotted separately.

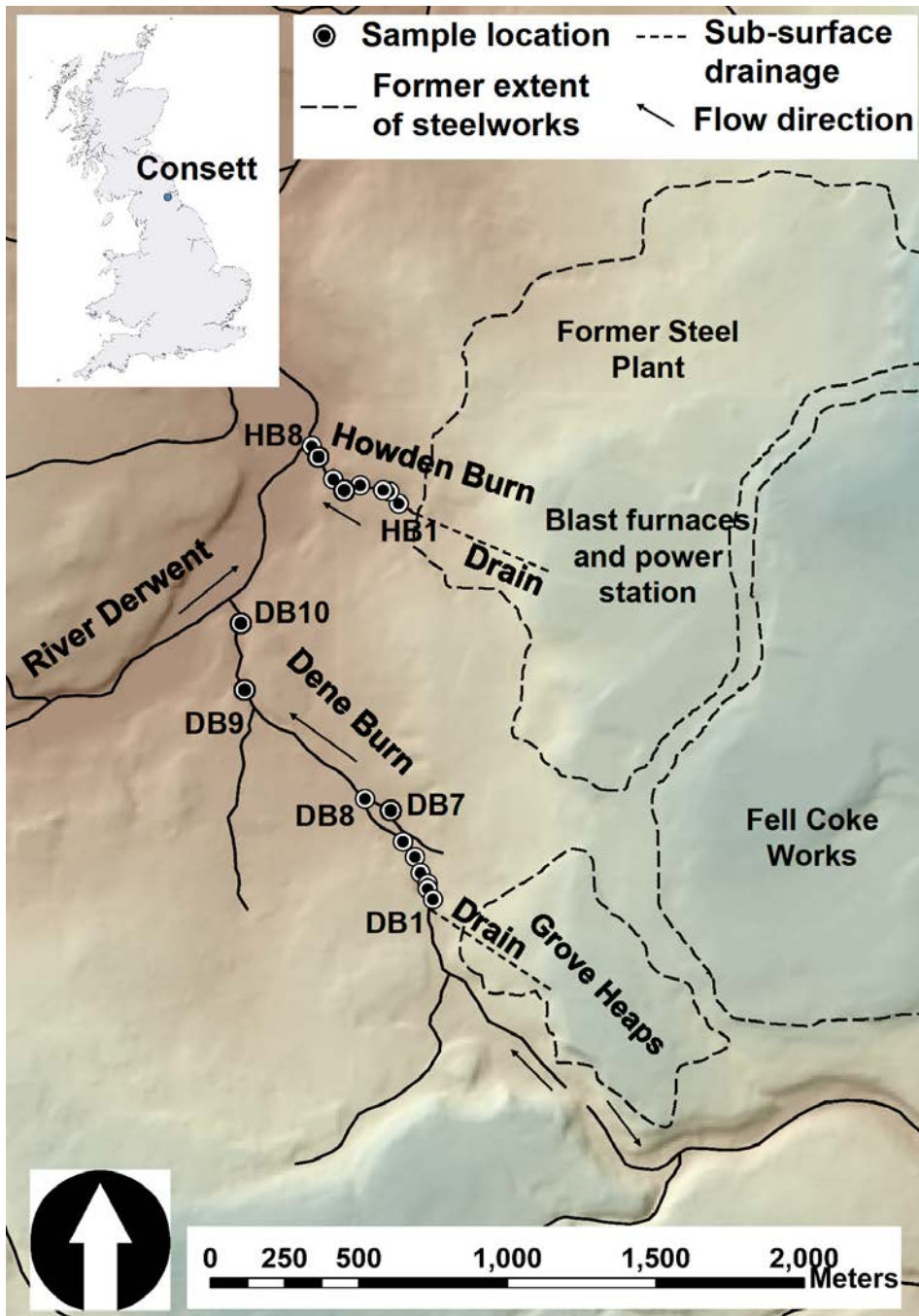
719 Figure 4. Overall abundance of key taxa (number per 3 minute kick sample plotted on a log
720 scale) along Dene Burn transect showing change in overall abundance and dominant taxa.

721 Figure 5. Abundance and structure of invertebrate communities with season. Data shown for
722 Dene Burn only as no invertebrates were present in the Howden Burn. Symbol size is
723 proportional to the log of the total invertebrate abundance (the raw values of which displayed
724 adjacent to symbols).

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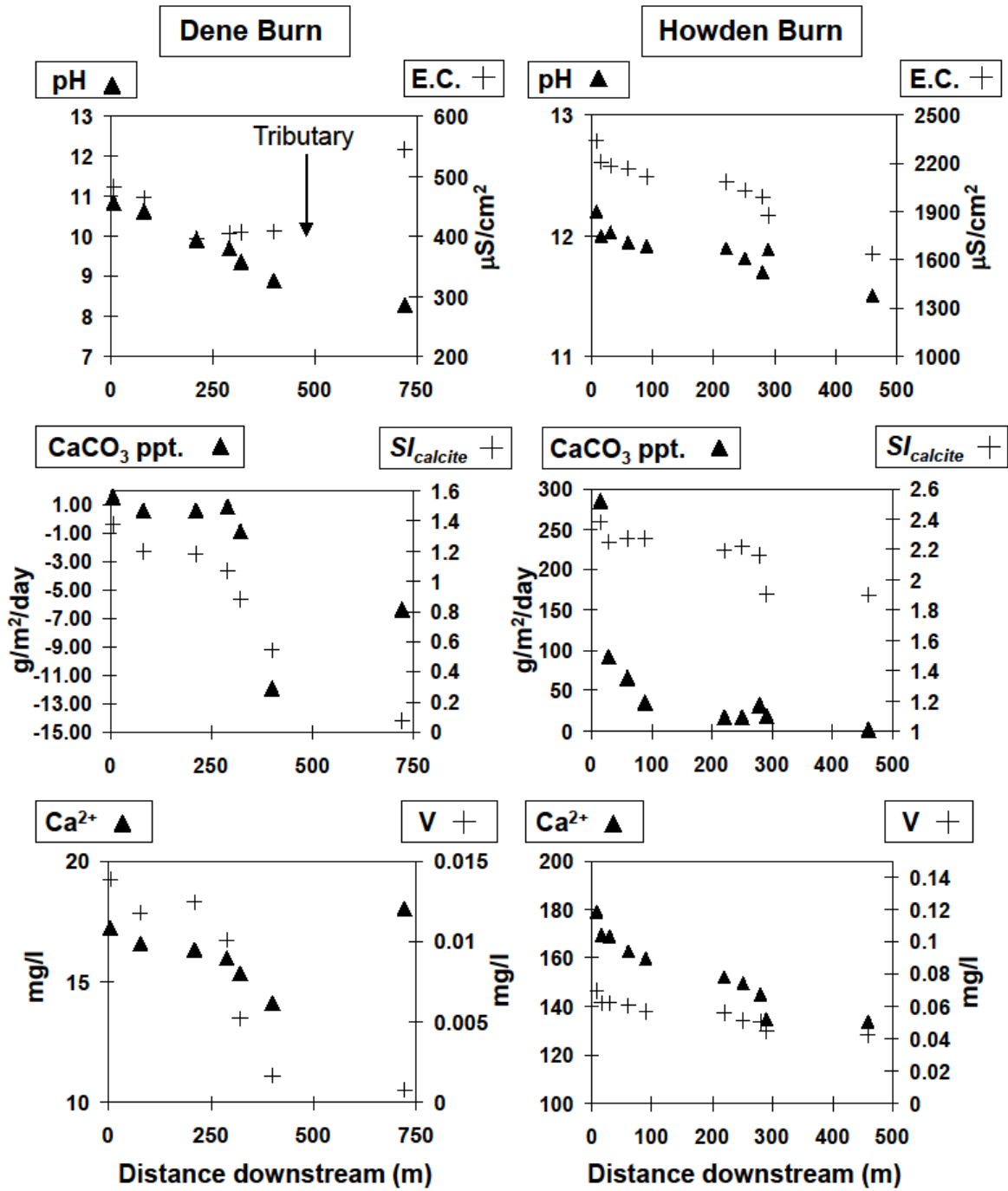
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Fig 1



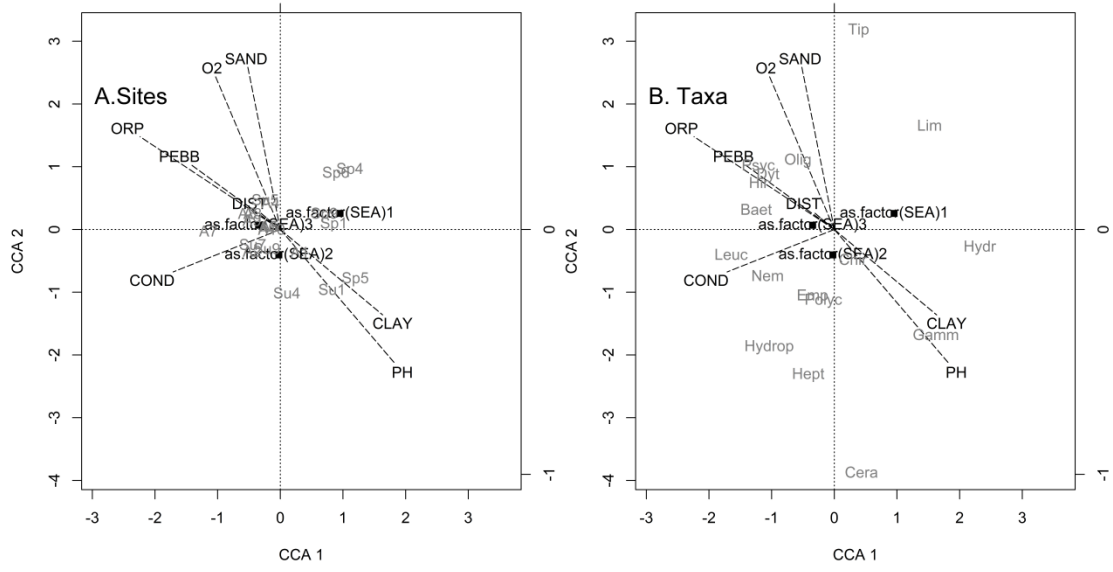
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735 Fig 2

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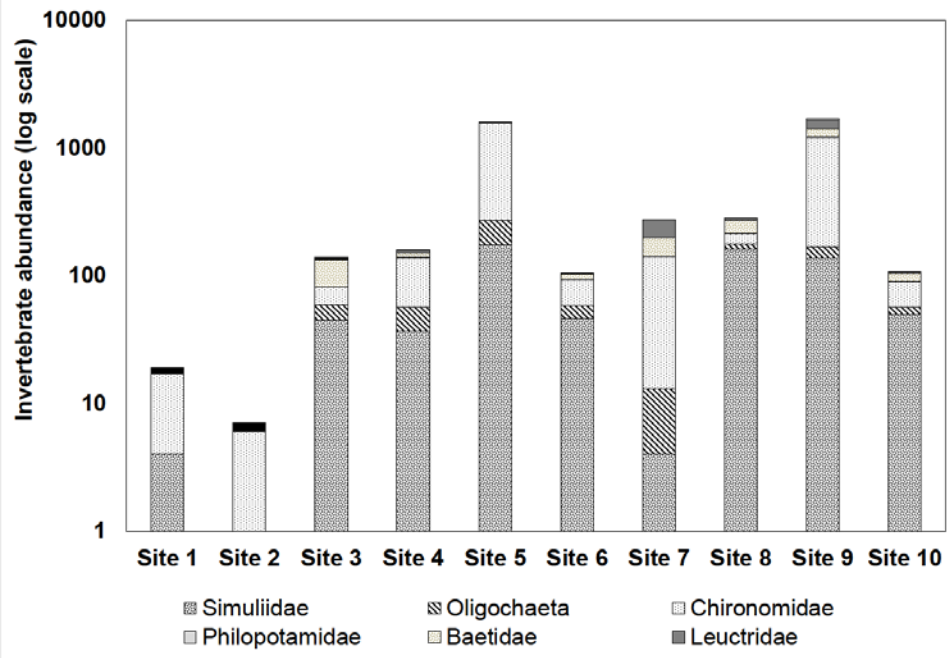
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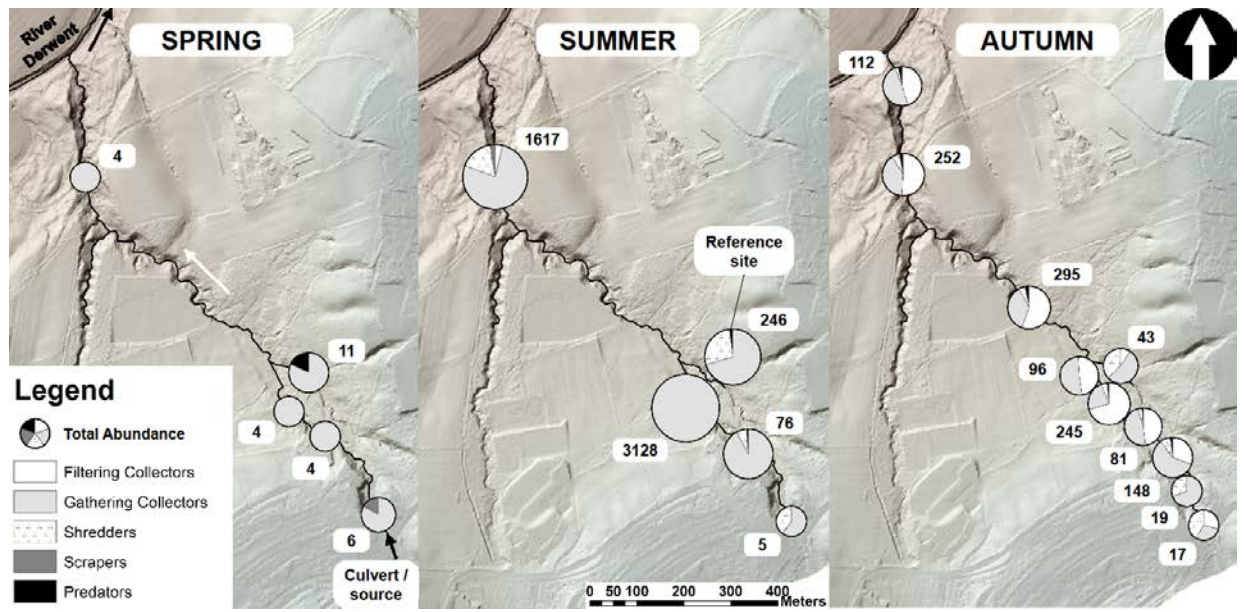
740 Fig 3

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Fig 4



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Fig 5

751 Appendix 1. Total invertebrate taxon abundance (pooled from three 3-minute kick samples) for each station and season (Sp=spring, Su=summer, A=autumn)
 752 and the pH conductivity ($\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}^2$) recorded during sampling.

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<i>Station</i>	DB1			DB2	DB3	DB4			DB5			DB6		DB7		DB8	DB9			DB10
<i>Season</i>	Sp	Su	A	A	A	Sp	Su	A	Sp	Su	A	Sp	A	Su	A	A	Sp	Su	A	A
pH	10.1	11.9	10.6	9.9	9.7	9.6	10.2	9.5	9.9	10.3	9.3	8.3	8.9	8.5	8.1	8.3	8.9	8.7	8.0	7.8
Conductivity ($\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}^2$)	445	561	463	397	399	443	445	404	441	427	406	443	409	1404	1125	576	450	669	545	543
Hydrobiidae <i>Potamopyrgus</i> sp.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	10	2	0
Planorbidae	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0
Oligochaeta	0	0	0	0	14	0	5	15	0	89	9	0	12	6	3	15	0	19	11	7
<i>Gammarus pulex</i>	0	2	2	2	4	0	0	1	0	4	5	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	2
Baetidae (<i>Baetis rhodani</i>)	0	0	0	7	51	0	0	11	0	6	15	0	11	42	15	55	0	116	43	14
Heptageniidae (<i>Ecdyonurus</i> sp.)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	16	0	0
Heptageniidae (<i>Rhithrogena</i> sp.)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	12	0	0
Nemouridae (<i>Amphinemoura</i> sp.)	0	0	0	3	6	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	6	1	3	0	24	9	0
Leuctridae (<i>Leuctra moselyi</i>)	0	0	0	1	2	0	5	2	0	5	5	0	0	60	15	11	0	244	5	1
Dytiscidae	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	2	0	4	0	0	3	1
Noteridae	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1
Rhyacophilidae	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	11	2	0
Philopotamidae	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	37	1	1
Hydropsychidae	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	12	0	0
Tipulidae	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	3	0	4	2	1
Chironomidae	5	3	5	6	23	4	65	12	4	1245	33	9	26	124	5	37	4	985	46	33
Simuliidae	0	0	4	0	45	0	0	37	0	2	173	0	46	0	4	161	0	10	127	50
Empididae	0	0	1	0	3	0	12	3	0	0	0	0	2	8	0	7	0	2	0	2

Limoniidae	2	0	1	0	12	8	1	10	2	3	6	10	1	11	0	11	2	16	6	3
Psychodidae	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	19	2	0	0	4	0	9	0	0	5	0
Chaoboridae	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0
Ceratopogonidae	0	0	0	0	0	0	19	0	0	3	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ostracoda	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	3	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	23	0	0
Copepoda	0	1	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

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