




Regionalized Life Cycle Inventories of Global Sulfidic Copper Tailings

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1 **Regionalized life cycle inventories of global sulfidic copper**

2 **tailings**

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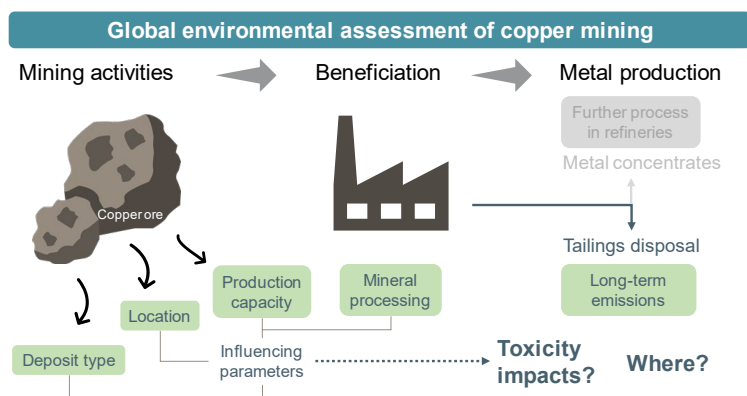
6 **Abstract**

7 Worldwide, an issue of copper production is the generation of mine waste with
8 varying characteristics. This waste can pollute natural environments, and in particular the
9 heavy metal emissions of the tailings may pose long-term consequences. Currently, life cycle
10 assessments of mine tailings are hampered by both limited data availability in the metal
11 production value chain and lack of appropriate methodologies. We collect data from 431
12 active copper mine sites using a combination of information available from the market
13 research and technical handbooks to develop site-specific life cycle inventories for tailings
14 disposal. The approach considers the influences of copper ore composition and local
15 hydrology for dynamically estimating leached metals of tailings at each site. The analysis
16 reveals that together, copper tailings from the large (i.e., porphyry) and medium-size copper
17 deposits (i.e., volcanogenic massive sulfide and sediment-hosted) contribute to more than
18 three-quarters of the total global freshwater ecotoxicity impacts of copper tailings. This
19 strongly correlates with hydrological conditions leading to high infiltration rates. The
20 generated inventories vary locally, even within single countries, showcasing the importance of
21 site-specific models. Our study provides site-specific, dynamic emission models and thus
22 improves the accuracy of tailing's inventories and toxicity-related impacts.

23 **Keywords:** site-specific inventory models, ore mining, mine tailings, ecotoxicity impacts,
24 tailings geochemistry, metal production, mineral processing, life cycle assessment

25 **Synopsis:** This research combines state-of-the-art environmental and mineral processing
26 frameworks, indicating highly variable impacts caused by sulfidic copper tailings deposited
27 worldwide.

28 Graphical Abstract



29

30 Introduction

31 According to the UNEP-IRP Global Resources Outlook 2019, the use of natural
32 resources has tripled in the last four decades¹, and if business as usual is maintained² in the
33 production processes, the expected future environmental impacts will be exacerbated. Thus, it
34 is imperative to more sustainably produce materials that support our modern lives. One key
35 metal to respond to these challenges is copper. Notable examples are the use of copper as
36 essential components in renewable energy systems, i.e., solar panels and wind turbines. With
37 various possible use cases and incentives to transition to a low carbon economy, it is
38 estimated that copper demand will grow up to four-fold in less than half of a century³.
39 However, the environmental implications of this transition depend on the technological routes
40 to satisfy future copper demands⁴⁻⁶.

41 Various types of copper sulfide ore deposits are the primary source of metallic copper,
42 accounting for 80% of copper resource⁷. The production of copper from ore deposits requires
43 the separation of unwanted impurities such as silicates, carbonates, and sulfides. This
44 comprises several activities that generate considerable wastes, such as waste rocks from
45 mining and residues/slugs from metallurgical processing and refining⁸⁻¹⁰ (Figure S29). In
46 between these processes, there is beneficiation: a technology prominently used to extract
47 metals from ores. This requires the usage of chemicals and also produces mineral processing
48 waste. These waste slurries, otherwise called tailings, are then discharged to legally operated
49 storage facilities. Due to an inherently low concentration of copper in ores, tailings are
50 generated at an enormous amount, accounting for more than 90% of the input ore^{10,11}.
51 Declining copper grades in deposits might worsen this situation, as it implies more tailings
52 will have to be managed per kg of copper produced¹².

53 Environmental disruption related to the tailings generation and deposition is
54 inevitable. Over time, poorly managed tailings can interact with the surroundings such as
55 rainwater and oxygen, and subsequently initiate acid mine drainage⁸, which leads to elevated
56 heavy metals concentration in the environment. The composition of tailings can vary among
57 copper mines due to different geological properties and processing schemes^{13,14}, the
58 differences of which are important when considering leaching behaviors due to presence of
59 acid-/ base producing minerals^{15,16}.

60 Several tools and databases are available to assess environmental performances of
61 metal production value chains. In a broader context, the criticality assessment concepts by
62 Graedel^{17,18}, Cimprich et al.¹⁹, and Bach et al.²⁰ translate qualitative criteria into criticality
63 scores by assessing environmental implications, supply risk, vulnerability to supply
64 restriction, and socio-economic dimensions. Official public databases, such as pollutant
65 release and transfer registers (PRTR)²¹, record pollutants released to the environment, but

66 with varying level of detail depending on the specific requirements of local environmental
67 authorities²²⁻²⁵. Life cycle assessment (LCA) is a standardized approach to assess the
68 processes' impacts throughout the entire metal value chain^{26,27}. However, with respect to
69 tailing emissions, many LCA studies fail to report the inventories due to lack of methods, data
70 limitations, and unrealistic data collection efforts^{28,29}. This persisting issue has been
71 discussed³⁰ and worked around by other researchers in the LCA field by applying a waste-
72 specific transfer coefficients model³¹ that was initially developed for landfill emissions³².
73 When specific mine data are available, one could also build the inventories for the current
74 conditions as demonstrated by others³³⁻³⁵. While this might provide tailings details for sites
75 operating under similar conditions, the major shortcoming is that the inventories are based on
76 averaged data in multiple locations to represent specific mining production. Other drawbacks
77 are the neglect of influential site-specific input parameters and, more importantly, the
78 dynamics of leaching in the long term. Therefore, the results of LCA studies that include
79 toxicity impacts from tailings may differ significantly or be completely underreported/
80 overreported^{5,6,29,36,37}.

81 The goal of this study is 1) to provide a global assessment of sulfidic copper tailings
82 using state-of-the-art frameworks in minerals processing, hydrological modelling, and
83 environmental assessment; and 2) to identify the environmental hotspots by a dynamic
84 assessment at mine-site level, which provides a better understanding of the overall impacts of
85 current and future copper production.

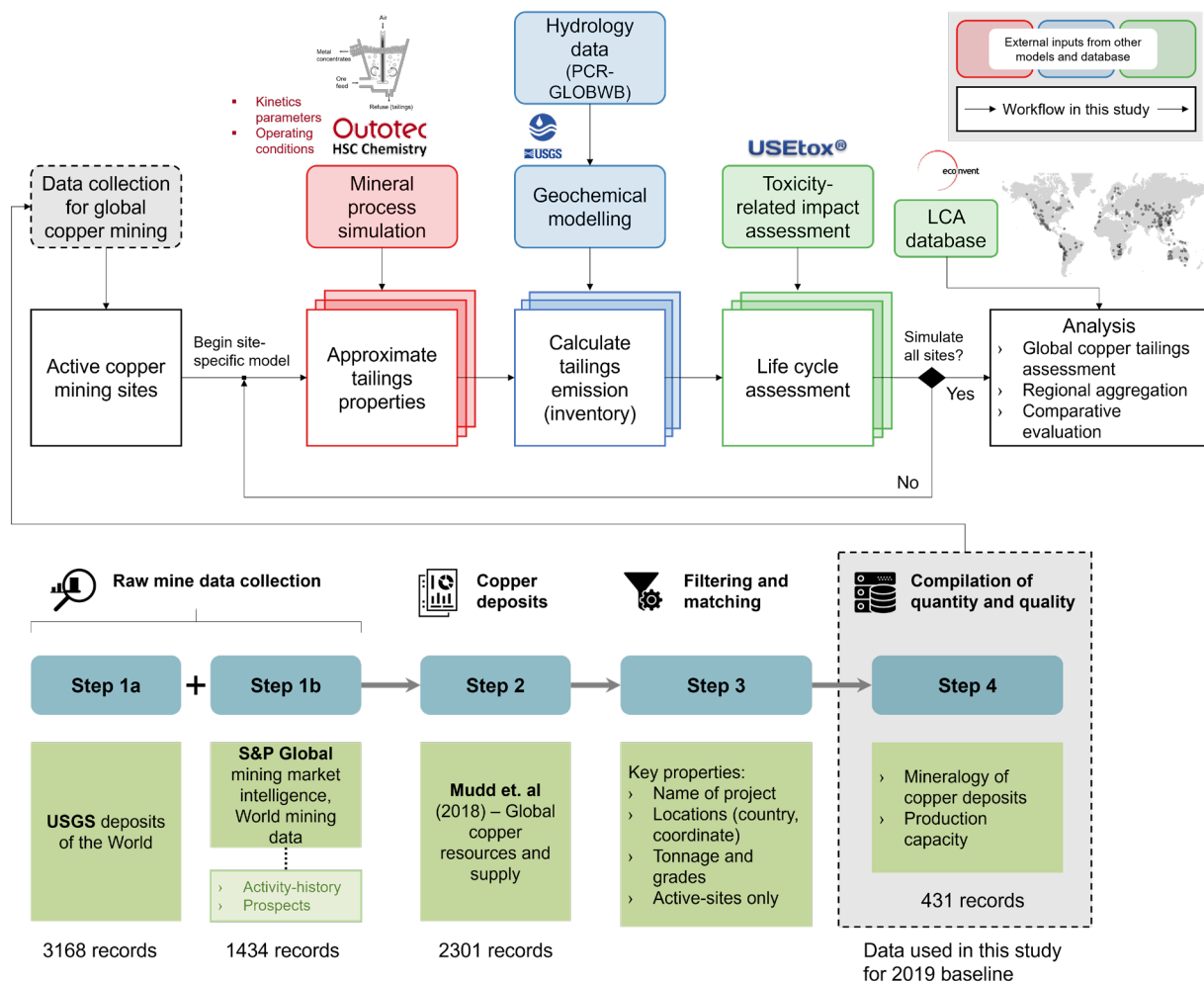
86 **Materials and Methods**

87 **Methodology overview**

88 Our main methodology built upon previous work in the advancement of mineral
89 processing^{26,38}, subsurface environmental simulation³⁹, and the environmental impacts of

90 mine tailings in the LCA of metal production^{33,34,40}. The methodology integrated several key
 91 frameworks that link the workflows for estimating the environmental impacts of mine tailings
 92 (Figure 1 top). Because copper has the most comprehensive mineral and production database
 93 available⁴¹ and is of high production volume with an increasing trend, we have chosen to
 94 apply these methods to sulfidic copper tailings.

95 Our approach was divided into four main parts: 1) compilation of copper-active
 96 production and ore mineralogy for each production site, 2) process-based approximation of
 97 tailings composition, 3) site- and time-dependent life cycle inventory modeling of mine
 98 tailings emission, and 4) global impact assessment of sulfidic copper tailings over different
 99 time horizons.



100

101 Figure 1. Schematic illustration of the methodology employed (top) and sources of copper production data (bottom)

102 **Copper production data**

103 The database compiled in this study combined extensive resources from 1) *U.S.*
104 *Geological Survey Mineral Database*⁴², 2) *S&P Market Intelligence Metals and Mining*
105 *Report*⁴³, 3) *World Mining data 2020*⁴⁴, and 4) a rigorous copper deposit study⁴¹. Together
106 they represented more than 75% of annual global sulfidic copper production in 2019, along
107 with ore deposit characteristics, which indicate the mineralogy of each mine deposit for
108 specific production sites. Of total production data, we specifically focus on the copper
109 production process via pyrometallurgical pathway since it represents the dominant technology
110 to produce copper (see SI-1 Section S2). If the data for ore deposits were unavailable in the
111 previously mentioned databases, we linked them with the closest deposit sources based on its
112 geographical coordinates. The workflow to obtain the baseline data for the global assessment
113 is presented in Figure 1 bottom.

114 **Beneficiation process modelling and simulation**

115 Beneficiation of sulfidic deposits comprises a combination of physical and chemical
116 processes to transform raw copper ore into metal concentrates and tailings as waste. In this
117 study, we developed a systematic method to build a tailings composition database based on
118 processing steps and as a function of ore characteristics. This is critical, as the mineralogy of
119 each deposit defines the necessary separation process of valuable metals from non-valuable
120 gangue materials, which can act both as buffering minerals and/or acid-accelerating agents in
121 the tailings. The chosen separation process ultimately dictates the tailings properties of the
122 tailings for every site. To complete this task, we classified the copper ore deposits based on
123 the formation grouping of Heinrich and Candela⁴⁵, with additional sub-classification based on
124 copper grades, buffering minerals, and other impurities^{41,46}. Their approaches provide
125 necessary classification guidelines, and all compiled active copper-sites are presented in Table
126 S1.

127 To link the data from the previous step with a beneficiation process, we constructed
128 simplified flowsheets (illustrated in Figure S1) with industrial process parameters in the
129 software Outotec HSC Chemistry 10 “Flowsheet Simulation” feature⁴⁷. This approach is
130 similar to what others have done^{48,49}.

131 Our approach simulated the behavior of flotation schemes in the beneficiation process
132 through a ‘three-component’ minerals floatability process. It parameterizes the minerals
133 flotation as a first-order kinetic equation^{50,51}. This model yields the recovery of a mineral R_m
134 to the flotation time t as follows:

$$R_m = m_f(1 - e^{-k_f t}) + m_s(1 - e^{-k_s t}) + 0 \cdot m_n \quad (1)$$

135 Where

136 m_f and m_s represent the proportion of fast and slow particles, respectively;

137 k_f and k_s represent the flotation rate constant of fast and slow floating particles,
138 respectively;

139 m_n represents the proportion of non-floating particles such that $m_f + m_s +$
140 $m_n = 1$

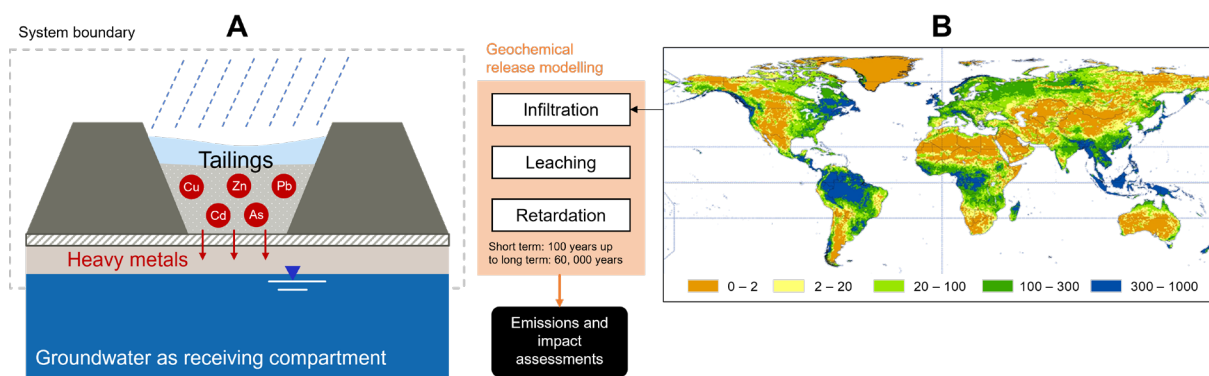
141 Using equation (1), we approximated the characteristics of the tailings of each mine
142 production site as a function of its ore deposits inputs and flotation process parameters. The
143 flotation parameter details (kinetics data, recovery, minerals, and reagents) for each
144 beneficiation process were primarily obtained from the *Handbook of Flotation Reagents*⁵² and
145 *Will’s Mineral Processing Technology*⁵³. Other sources, such as a collection of flotation
146 studies and patent literatures^{54,55}, were also used, specifically for the flotation of chalcopyrite-
147 containing ore deposits. We then used the HSC 10’s “Geo Module” feature to extract mineral
148 characteristics from the database. Since we aimed to approximate tailings composition based
149 on publicly available data, the mineralogy input for different deposits were assumed to

150 contain generic chemical compositions. The list of parameters used in building up the mineral
151 processing simulations are exemplified in Figure S2 and tabulated in Table S2-S3.

152 **Life cycle assessment of copper tailings disposal**

153 Our study focuses on the end-of-life phase of waste, in this case, tailings from the
154 production of copper. In accordance with the ecoinvent database⁵⁶, we first relate all
155 emissions and impact to the waste-treatment service “disposal of 1 tonne of tailings from
156 copper ore concentration at a specific mine site”. We then extend the functional unit to “kg
157 copper produced” by analyzing the entire production value chain, as this is the final purpose
158 of copper mining (i.e., providing copper to the society). Finally, we also quantified total
159 emissions and impacts of tailings for the entire mining sites, referring to one year of total
160 copper production and the resulting tailings treatment.

161 To model tailing emissions at site-specific locations, we considered tailing
162 characteristics, as a function of mine composition and processing technology (previous
163 sections) and hydrological conditions. All heavy metal emissions in the study were allocated
164 to copper production, representing the worst-case situation without allocation of part of the
165 emissions and impacts to by-products. This represents a conservative approach, as the impacts
166 allocated to copper will be overestimated. As all the inventory data is transparently presented
167 in this paper, future research may apply other allocation techniques, such as by mass or
168 economic value⁵⁷. The remaining copper processing inventories were taken directly from the
169 Life Cycle Inventory (LCI) database ecoinvent 3.6⁵⁶. The illustration of the studied system is
170 depicted in Figure 2.



171

172 Figure 2. The schematic illustration of tailings emission model. Part A describes the tailings characteristics and metal species
 173 considered in this study. Part B shows the annual groundwater recharge, taken from the results of PCR-GLOBWB⁵⁸, in mm
 174 per year.

175

176 This study focuses on toxicity-related environmental impacts by using the latest
 177 midpoint impact categories recommended for life cycle impact assessment^{59,60}. This includes
 178 freshwater ecotoxicity, for which impacts were quantified by applying global characterization
 179 factors (CFs) (defined in USEtox 2.12⁶¹) to leaching emissions. We assumed that all leached
 180 heavy metals would be transported to freshwater. The main reason for this simplifying
 181 assumption was the lack of groundwater CFs in USEtox 2.12. In the impact assessment, no
 182 spatial differentiation was considered. Furthermore, no emissions to air via dust were assessed
 183 in this study, assuming their contribution is small in the overall system³³ (see SI-1 section
 184 S16). This may be different at very arid sites.

185 We calculated the heavy metal emissions for short-term (100 years) up to a long-term
 186 period (60,000 years) for comparative purposes with the ecoinvent database. While this is an
 187 explicit (somewhat arbitrary) value-choice, our continuous long-term model allows future
 188 researchers to also define different time frames⁶².

189 To predict emissions for a long time horizon, we applied geochemical modeling using
 190 the PHREEQC simulation⁶³. This model allows the prediction of heavy metals concentration
 191 in the tailings, which are controlled by mineralogy and pH development^{64,65}. We assumed that

192 the technical lifetime of the storage basin integrity is limited, so that the technical barriers
193 were neglected for the long-term assessment. All minerals in the tailings were assumed to
194 come in contact with the leaching water (no enclosures) and could eventually seep into
195 groundwater (controlled by solubility). We quantified the dissolved concentrations of Cu, Cd,
196 Pb, Zn, and As in the leachate at equilibrium with a set of solid phases. These substances
197 represent the most toxic and mobile heavy metals present in the leachate of copper tailings⁶⁶.
198 For As, the surface complexation reactions were obtained from the Dzombak model⁶⁷, which
199 assumes that arsenic attaches on hydrous ferric oxide (HFO) surfaces. Parameters and
200 thermodynamic reactions, which we included in PHREEQC speciation-solubility modeling,
201 are provided in Table S4 and S13, following the approach of Hansen et al.¹⁶ and Dijkstra et
202 al.⁶⁸, based on the PHREEQC and WATEQ4F databases. This approach allows for consistent
203 geochemical modelling for generation and mobility of leachate from mine waste. Another
204 input parameter was a matrix infiltration rate for each site, which was taken from the global
205 hydrology model PCR-GLOBWB 2⁵⁸. We used the net groundwater recharge as the site-
206 specific infiltration parameter in our calculation (see part B of Figure 2). This rate represents
207 infiltration due to climate into the natural soil. We disregarded any alteration (typically
208 reduction) of the infiltration rate by rehabilitation measures, as our assumption is that active
209 rehabilitation will not be continued in the long term⁶⁹.

210 We ran the geochemical models for tailing of each sulfidic deposit type (i.e., porphyry,
211 volcanogenic massive sulfide, skarn, sediment-hosted, magmatic sulfide, iron oxide,
212 intrusion-related, and epithermal copper deposit in Table S5-S12 and Figure S6-S13) to obtain
213 the concentration of heavy metal emissions over time for each site. Other minerals were
214 normalized following the composition of copper in the deposit (Figure S5 and SI-1 section
215 S4). The accumulated leached metals over the pre-defined time frames were then calculated
216 following equation 2. This is similar to what was done in other contaminant release

217 studies^{70,71}, but is adapted to the specific mine tailings composition, deposit dimensions and
218 site-specific climatic conditions.

$$M_{x, total} = \sum_{t=t_0}^{t_n} PR \cdot A \cdot t_{timestep} \cdot (C_x(t)) \quad (2)$$

219 Where, M_x (mg) is the product of total emissions for metal x in the defined t_n time
220 horizons, PR (l/m².a) represents the net matrix infiltration rate from the global hydrology
221 model, $t_{timestep}$ the time step (a) for every simulation within geochemical modeling, and
222 $C_x(t)$ the concentration of metal x in the leachate (mg/l) at time t as the results from the
223 geochemical simulation. A (m²) is the surface area related to 1 tonne of tailings material and
224 was calculated from the following equation (3).

$$A = \frac{1 \text{ t tailings material}}{\rho_{tailings} \cdot d} \quad (3)$$

225 Where $\rho_{tailings}$ (kg tailings/m³) and d (m) are the density and the thickness of the
226 tailings, respectively (see parameters used in Table S4).

227 **Baseline scenario: Analyzing the environmental hotspots**

228 The life cycle impact assessment (LCIA) results under different time horizons were
229 analyzed and mapped for each site to identify global hotspots. The environmental impacts
230 were quantified per kg of copper production and as total impacts per mine for one year of
231 mine operation. The latter were calculated by multiplying the mass of copper produced for
232 each site in 2019 with the results per tonne of copper. As copper mining activity only
233 represents a part of the life cycle of copper production, we embedded our generated tailings
234 inventory into the available primary copper production inventory ofecoinvent 3.6⁵⁶ (based on
235 the LCA report of copper supply chain analysis⁷²). The overall procedure is illustrated in
236 Figure S15.

237 Afterwards, we analyzed these spatially- and time-resolved mine tailings inventory
238 data in three ways. First, we analyzed the influences of ore deposits and metallurgical
239 processing configurations on the overall tailings' emissions. To further study the interaction
240 between ore deposit and infiltration rates, a sub-analysis was performed for a specific ore
241 deposit type with broad ranges of composition (Table S5-12). Second, the LCIA results of one
242 year of operation of all mines within any country were aggregated. Last, we compared the
243 results of this study with the eleven country specific sulfidic tailings inventory datasets in
244 ecoinvent 3.6⁵⁶. We matched our modeled inventory in this study following the country
245 classifications that ecoinvent implements (Figure S16). In all these steps, we chose a long-
246 term time horizon (i.e., 60,000 years) to conservatively account for heavy metal emissions
247 being leached out from the system and to be consistent with the assumptions taken in
248 ecoinvent. For the evaluation of the effect of various choices concerning time horizons, we
249 also present results for a 100 year time horizon.

250 **Modeling future global copper tailings emissions**

251 The primary supply of copper until 2050 provided by Elshkaki et al.⁴ and Northey et
252 al.⁷³ have been used to derive future projections of copper provision. In this study, we
253 prepared three scenarios, namely copper supply in year 2030, 2040, and 2050 from the above-
254 mentioned data sources. A data reconciliation, however, was necessary as the forecasted data
255 from previous studies do not contain the location of expanded or newly established sites.
256 Therefore, the data gaps for new mine and expansion projects were based on an undiscovered
257 copper resources study⁴⁶, S&P feasibility study⁴³, and other reports^{74,75} (see Figure S17).

258 Two approaches were taken for the development of site-specific copper supply:

- 259 1. Case of sites expansion (sites in the base scenario)

260 We estimated the copper grade decline until the year 2050 following Crowson¹², as
261 described in equation (4) and applied the global decline rate to the specific grade of each
262 mine, assuming continuous production with the same ore extraction rates over time.

$$G = 4 \cdot 10^{82} \cdot y^{-25.05} \quad (4)$$

263 Where G is the copper ore grade (%) in year y .

264 The production of the mine sites in the current scenario is the starting point for this
265 base case. We assumed the production remains constant until all the resources are depleted
266 and replaced by the second case (see below). Thus, if time until depletion (resources/annual
267 production capacity) is < 30 years, the mine is considered no longer operational by 2050.

268 2. Case of new sites (sites under pre-production in the base scenario)

269 According to ICMM⁷⁶, the life cycle of a mine prior to operation can be distinguished
270 into two stages: exploration and construction (Figure S17). The discovery phase of copper
271 production was excluded in this analysis, as it takes an average 20 years before a mine can
272 finally operate⁷⁷.

273 Using these approaches (see SI-1, section S8), the newly opened sites will have initial
274 copper grades according to the latest exploration data whenever information is available.
275 Otherwise, we defined the grade as the highest achievable according to the USGS⁴² deposit
276 characteristics database. Finally, we combined the merged forecasted data with our method to
277 estimate the environmental impacts of tailings until 2050.

278 **Results and discussion**

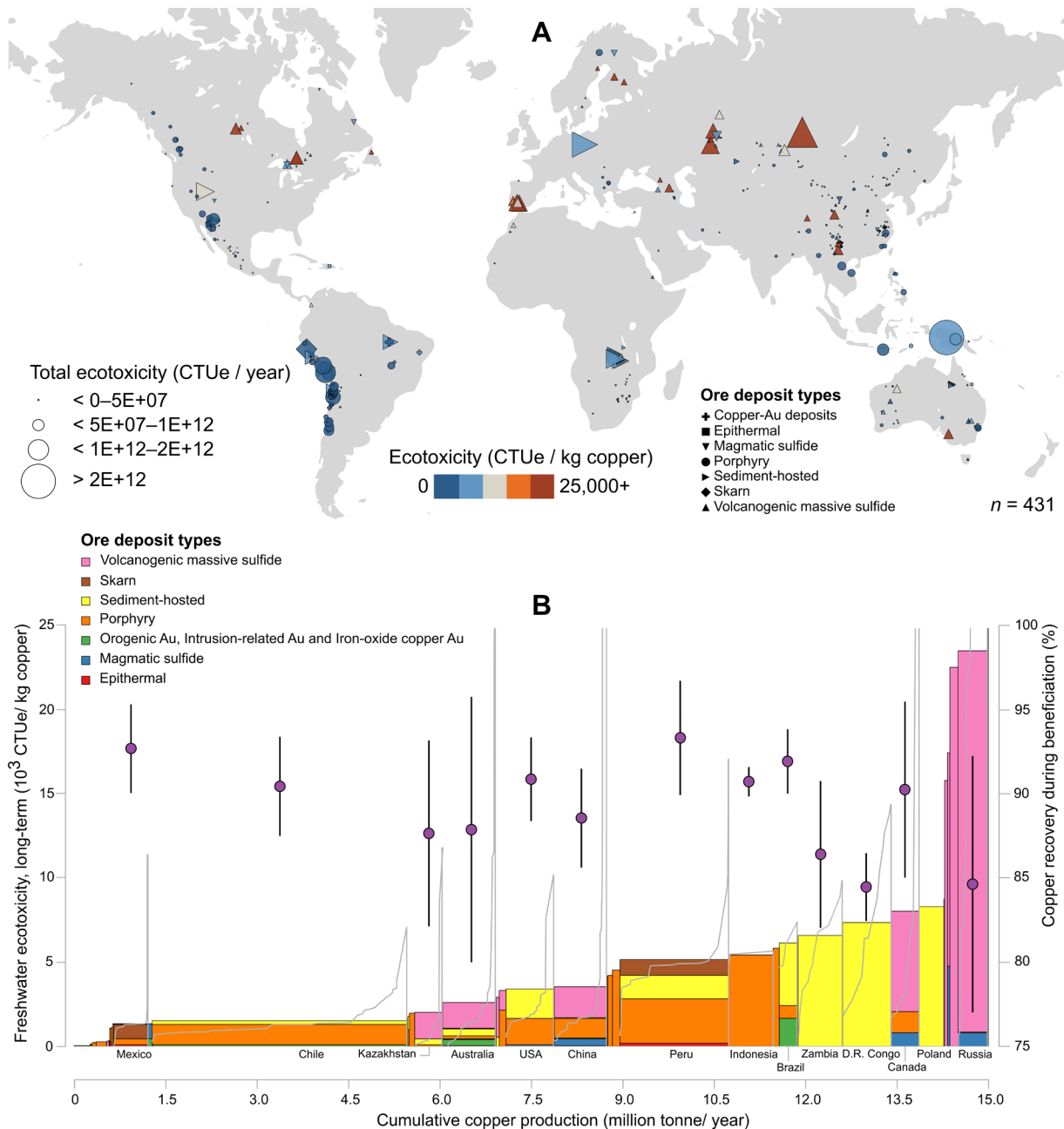
279 **Global assessment of copper mine tailings**

280 The toxicity impacts of all 431 assessed active copper sites in 2019 are shown in
281 Figure 3A. The detailed results are available in the digital SI. These sites capture $>75\%$ ⁴¹⁻⁴³ of
282 global sulfidic copper tailings disposal. Most copper is mined from porphyry copper deposit

283 type, which accounts for almost half of the total number of sites and is distributed across
284 continents. The toxicity impacts per tonne of tailings due to porphyry copper tailings disposal
285 are generally lower than from other deposit types. However, each mine has its own ore
286 composition that directly influences the beneficiation scheme and respective tailings
287 compositions. Our results (Figure 3 and SI-2 Table S2.3) show that the highest total annual
288 toxicities per mine site are found in:

- 289 - Large-size, porphyry copper mining sites in the Americas (i.e., Chile, Peru, USA) and
290 Asia (Indonesia, Papua New Guinea)
- 291 - Medium-size, sediment-hosted and volcanogenic massive sulfide-deposit sites in
292 Canada, Africa (i.e., DR Congo, Zambia) and a few in Europe (Russia, Poland)

293



295 Figure 3. Part A shows the freshwater ecotoxicity (long-term) of copper production for each mine site (LCIA method:
 296 USETox). Three features are displayed: 1) total ecotoxicity (indicated by bubble size), 2) ecotoxicity per copper mass
 297 produced (indicated by color), and 3) the type of ore deposits (indicated by shape). Part B displays copper mine tailings
 298 freshwater ecotoxicity for each country and the distributions. 1) Stacked bars represent ore deposit types, 2) width is
 299 equivalent to annual production capacity, 3) left y-axis represents the toxicity impacts, both weighted average per country and
 300 spread per country shown in gray line, 4) right y-axis shows the ranges of copper beneficiation recovery with production-
 301 amount weighted average (purple circles) and error bars as weighted standard deviation.

302

303 Region-specific and country-aggregated assessment

304 For background LCI databases, country-level data is required and Figure 3B shows the
 305 variabilities that can exist in particular countries and how deposit types and beneficiation

306 contribute to the results. The weighted global average for long-term freshwater ecotoxicity is
307 4.6×10^3 Comparative Toxic Units for Ecotoxicity (CTUe)/kg copper produced, while the
308 median value is 2.0×10^3 CTUe/ kg copper produced. While Chile mainly sources from
309 porphyry, with rather low impacts, countries like Australia, China, Peru, and Canada have
310 more varying deposit types and therefore higher impacts. Since various deposit types require
311 different beneficiation processes, the level of heavy metals in the tailings can change. In
312 particular, for volcanogenic massive sulfide and sediment-hosted deposits found in Russia and
313 DR Congo, the beneficiation performs particularly subpar^{52,53}.

314 Results show that nearly 70% of our worldwide ecotoxicity impacts are occurring in
315 seven countries: Russia (17%), Peru (14%), Chile (10%), DR Congo (8%), Zambia (7%),
316 Indonesia (6%), and Canada (5%). Details for all countries are shown in Figure S21 and Table
317 S16.

318 **Influences of climate conditions and ore deposit types**

319 Higher net positive infiltration generally leads to larger amounts of heavy metals being
320 carried to the soil and groundwater compartment (Figure S22). Ecotoxicity per kg of copper
321 decreases with an increasing copper grade, but correlations are very weak (Figure S24).
322 Volcanogenic massive sulfides and sediment-hosted deposits have relatively higher emissions
323 in the same climatic conditions (i.e., infiltration rates between 40 – 140 mm/ year) due to
324 higher amounts of pyrite but smaller buffering capacities (i.e., calcite and dolomite).
325 However, several high-grade copper sites are situated in regions with low infiltration and thus
326 relatively have low emissions (Figure S25).

327 **Comparison of leaching and toxicity results to other studies**

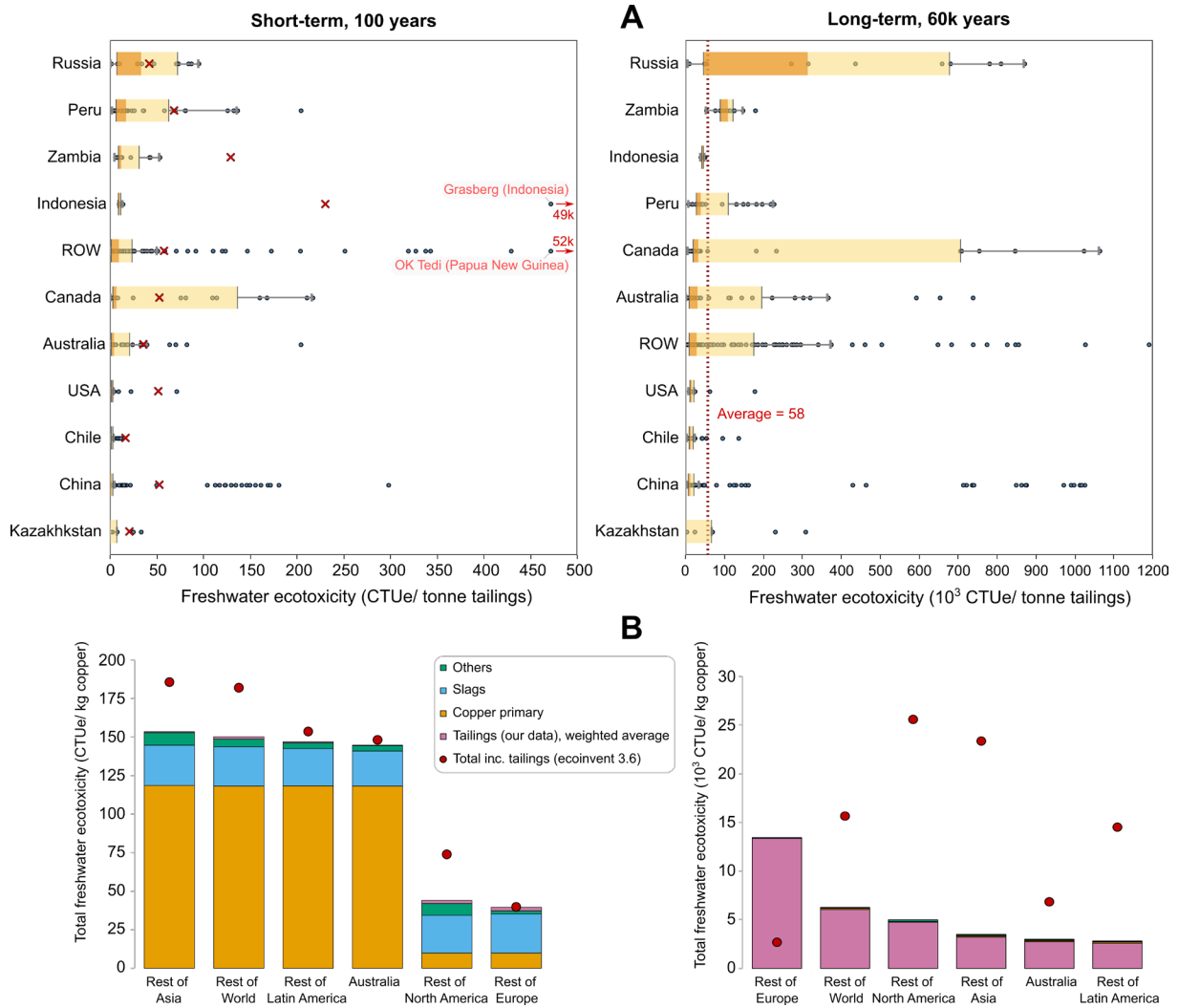
328 The comparison of our toxicity results with country-specific datasets in theecoinvent
329 3.6^{56} per tonne of tailings is presented in the top part of Figure 4A for short-term (100 years)
330 and long-term (60,000 years) time horizons. For a short-term horizon, our study generally

331 depicts lower toxicity impacts compared toecoinvent. There is, however, high variability
332 within countries and short-term emissions is of low importance for ecotoxicity in copper
333 production (Figure 4B).

334 Ecoinvent’s representation of the Rest of World (RoW) category may be especially
335 sensitive to regional details, as it aggregates data from several large copper producing
336 countries with varying deposit types and climate conditions (e.g., DR Congo, Poland, and
337 Brazil). Our analysis found a very wide range of ecotoxicity impacts for countries considered
338 in this category (from as low as 0.03 up to 440 CTUe/ tonne of tailings). We therefore suggest
339 that future RoW data includes the variabilities in uncertainties to indicate where large
340 differences in toxicities exist, and detailed assessments should be used to improve the data. In
341 addition to tailings composition, tailings management has a significant impact on toxicity. For
342 instance, direct tailings discharge into the environment, such as practiced in notorious mine
343 sites in Indonesia and Papua New Guinea, i.e., OK Tedi and Grasberg^{78,79} pollute fresh water
344 immediately, highlighting the need for alternative disposal methods⁸⁰.

345

346



347

348 Figure 4. Part A: Freshwater ecotoxicity impacts quantified per tonne of tailings deposited for countries covered in ecoinvent.
 349 The red cross symbols indicate values from ecoinvent for the short-term horizon. Long-term variability from ecoinvent is not
 350 shown due to negligible differences between countries (hence, only a single average value as red dashed line). The width of
 351 each box represents 25th percentile Q1 (dark orange) and 75th percentile Q3 (yellow), while the whiskers represent
 352 1.5*interquartile range from the Q1 and Q3. Any points outside the whiskers are outliers. The log-scale chart is presented in
 353 Figure S27. Part B: Freshwater ecotoxicity impacts per kg of copper for short-term (left) and long-term (right) perspectives in
 354 different world regions. Data to generate this chart is available in SI-2, Table S2.10-S2.11.

355

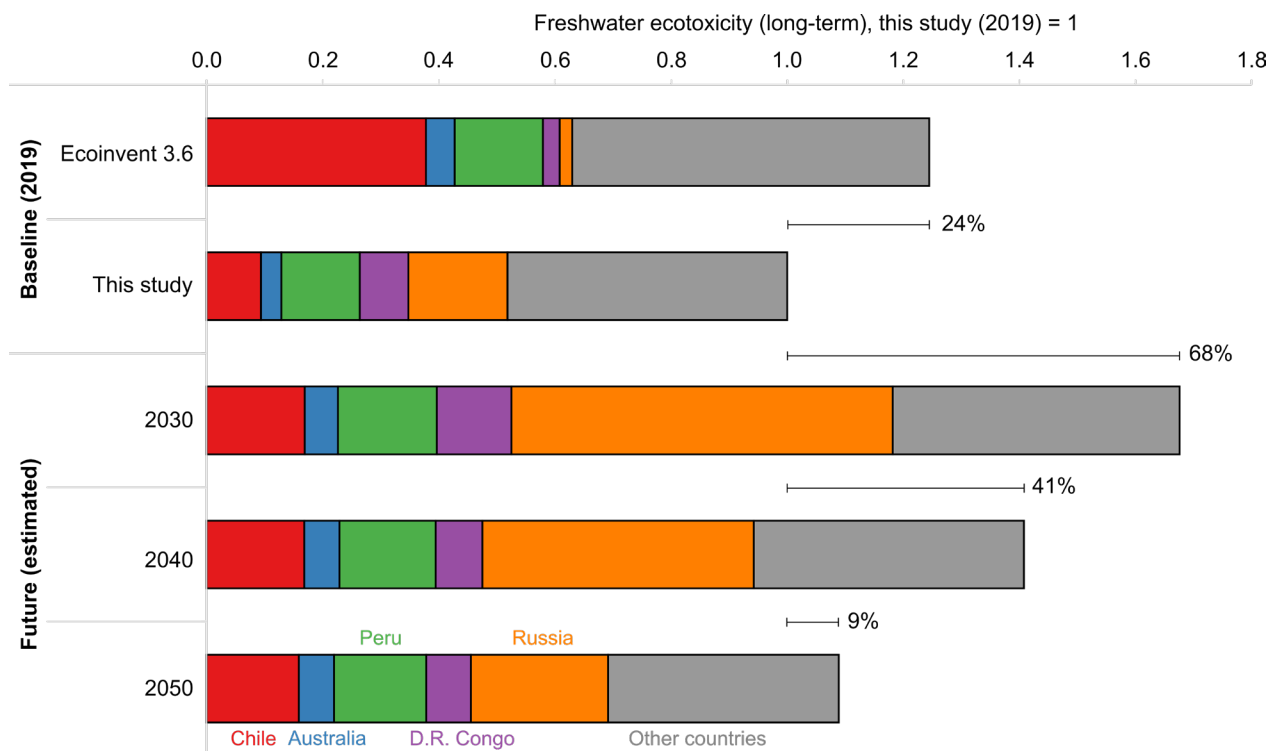
356 In the long-term time horizon, our analysis shows that toxicity results (median) are
 357 mostly lower than in ecoinvent due to differing tailings property modelling approaches.
 358 Ecoinvent's approaches, first, lacked differentiation between copper deposit composition on
 359 the individual mine level and, second, assumed almost complete leaching of all tailing's
 360 components in the long-term contemplations. Instead, in our study, we applied a set of

361 systematic procedures and models to quantify tailings compositions and leaching at mine-
362 level resolution.

363 To evaluate the ecotoxicity impacts of tailings in the life-cycle perspective of copper
364 production, we performed an LCA study at a continent-level of ecoinvent (Figure 4B). In the
365 short-term time horizon, the primary copper production process including smelting, refining,
366 and slag deposition contribute more than 90% of the total ecotoxicity impacts for all
367 continents. The findings are also supported by analyses done at higher granularity (Table
368 S18), where there are generally negligible differences in ecotoxicity values between
369 continents. In the long-term perspective, tailings dominate (>95%) the freshwater ecotoxicity
370 impacts of copper production for all regions. It is therefore of utmost importance to properly
371 assess toxicity impacts of tailings (see SI-1 section S14) and one should avoid ignoring
372 differences between sites when performing comparative LCA studies.

373 **Impacts of future primary copper production**

374 Freshwater toxicity impacts in the upcoming decades based on projected future
375 production are shown in Figure 5. Globally, copper tailings were responsible for 6.8E+13
376 CTUe/year in 2019, which represents the baseline for the following analysis. According to the
377 projection of primary copper mining from other studies^{4,73,77}, the production will reach a peak
378 level at 2030 and flatten after 2050 thanks to direct reuse from stocks and availability from
379 recycling streams.



380

381 Figure 5. Freshwater ecotoxicity impacts from one year of operation of all global sulfidic tailings (long-term time horizon of
 382 60'000 years), including future projection of copper-extraction amounts from other studies^{4,73}

383

384 The increase in copper production for both site expansions and new discoveries will
 385 influence the environmental implications caused by tailings deposition. It is anticipated that
 386 Chile will continue to be the top copper producer for the next three decades. However, strong
 387 production increases are predicted for Russia, Australia, and DR Congo, with the discovery of
 388 high-rank copper deposits of volcanogenic massive sulfide and sediment-hosted deposit
 389 types^{11,12,41} in high infiltrating regions, which have tendencies towards higher toxicity levels
 390 in the tailings.

391 Once society shifts steadily towards secondary copper resources (after 2030), a
 392 decrease in toxicity impacts is anticipated, from a ratio of 1.68 in 2030 and 1.41 in 2040 to
 393 1.09 in 2050 (compared to the baseline year 2019, Figure 5 and Table S14). The primary
 394 copper demand in 2030 largely affects the increase of ecotoxicity impacts more than
 395 degrading ore grades quality. The impacts caused by ore grade decline start to appear after

396 2030, where lower quality ore grades in 2050 show 32% contribution at the highest (Table
397 S14). Although much of the copper is provided through recycling in the scenario for 2050,
398 primary copper extraction and impacts from sulfidic copper tailings are still expected to
399 increase.

400 In addition to the freshwater ecotoxicity-related impacts completed in this study, we
401 also conducted environmental impacts for human-toxicity and other LCIA impact categories
402 using the ReCiPe 2016, endpoint, Hierarchist version⁸¹ and the Environmental footprint (EF)
403 method⁸², which also provide an aggregated single-score impact result. Other processes (i.e.,
404 copper refinery) in the value chain show a higher contribution in the total results, namely due
405 to particulate matter and gaseous emissions from smelters. Results are sensitive to the
406 methods chosen, but metal emissions from tailings are still responsible for ecotoxicity and
407 human toxicity-related to tailings impacts (contributing to around 27–45% of overall
408 processes, see SI-1 section S15 and SI-2 Table S2.14).

409 **Discussions of modelling approaches and data**

410 While the results allow for a more detailed assessment of copper tailings' impacts and
411 thus also better representation of averaged impacts, the following key sources of uncertainties
412 and limitations in this study need to be noted:

413 *Flotation and tailings approximation approach.* In our analysis, the copper extraction
414 efficiency spans from 75 – 90%, which is high considering today's industry standards⁷. Main
415 parameters that were used in the mineral process simulations were taken from aggregated
416 plant data in technical handbooks and based on approximations from computer simulations
417 and steady-state plant operations. In reality, copper grades in the feed stream might fluctuate
418 and plant variability (e.g., shutdown, market demand, etc.) should be dynamically captured in
419 future research. Dynamic simulation models for 431 beneficiation processes were not
420 possible, as the accurate operating conditions and detailed flowsheets for each facility are

421 generally confidential. In the future, this might become feasible, since mining companies are
422 increasingly encouraged to open their asset's performance through several global
423 standards/frameworks as obligatory key indicators⁸³. Additionally, we only modeled the
424 beneficiation process as a single-stage circuit (Figure S1), while advanced grinding and
425 flotation techniques⁸⁴ could optimize particle liberation from the ore and thus reduce toxicity
426 of tailings (see SI-1 section S12). It might become economically attractive to do so and should
427 then be investigated in the future assessment.

428 *Modeling of the infiltration rate.* In this study, a simplified hydrologic model from the
429 output of PCR-GLOBWB2⁵⁸ was used as the core approach. The annual net infiltration data
430 as output of the model provides key inputs for the geochemical modelling, assuming that the
431 values remain constant for the duration of the simulation. Since tailings add an additional soil
432 layer, infiltration rates may be limited due to low hydrological conductivity as a result of
433 small grain size. Additionally, covers might limit short term infiltration. However, previous
434 assumptions on relatively constant infiltration rates are justified, as precipitation and regional
435 changes remain stable in the short term (in a span of 50 years^{58,85,86}), but for a projection that
436 involves centuries to thousands of years as time-steps, climate change effects should be
437 considered in future research.

438 Further research could consider the role of tailings rehabilitation for quantifying
439 leachate emissions based on infiltration rates. This could examine the actual field operation in
440 different regions of the world, like collection and treatment of leachate. To estimate the
441 effects on long-term leaching, scenarios of rehabilitation efforts would need to be set up.
442 While in our analysis we assumed that such activities would not be continued during the
443 leaching period of many thousands of years, other assumptions could lead to diminished
444 leaching. However, in such scenarios the ongoing effects of the rehabilitation efforts would
445 also need to be considered, including additional energy consumption and resources.

446 *Geochemical modelling in PHREEQC.* We applied the 1D geochemical reactive-
447 transport model using PHREEQC⁶³ and took default equilibrium reactions available from
448 PHREEQC and WATEQ4F databases (Table S13). We also added arsenic speciation into
449 these databases, which leaches depending on ferrihydrite concentration^{87,88}. More complicated
450 models would require a concerted data-intensive computational effort due to a high level of
451 parameterizations. Additionally, microbial activities might also contribute to changing
452 conditions, but due to the long-term duration of the models, a quasi-equilibrium state is
453 assumed to dominate instead of kinetically-controlled mechanisms^{15,89}. Both Cu and Zn in this
454 study have been generally leached out (~60%) after a period of 60,000 years. Besides that, we
455 neglected emissions from other trace metals such as silver, gold, molybdenum, and others in
456 the tailings due to lack of established geochemical reactions in the database.

457 *Choice of time horizon.* Tailings or landfill impacts in LCA generally apply an
458 arbitrary time-horizon choice, which is a subjective decision. LCA practitioners should clearly
459 communicate the time-horizon choice in their study. We followed what has been used in the
460 ecoinvent database, differentiating short-term and long-term time horizons. However, one of
461 the advantages of this study is the ability to model emission inventory for any time frame,
462 using the temporally differentiated concentration curves displayed in Figures S6 – S13
463 together with location specific infiltration rates and the tailings' composition. This also allows
464 for comparing leachate concentrations to toxicological thresholds and, hence, for an
465 assessment of risks.

466 *LCA and uncertainties.* Since ore deposits geochemistry varies across sites and within
467 sites, the generated inventories (i.e., emissions) can vary even within a single ore deposit at
468 the same location. Although we did not consider for within-site variation in this paper, we
469 validated some results of our model with the currently operating copper site from our project
470 partner⁹⁰ and Chilean field sampling data⁹¹, including sensitivity cases for the modeled sites

471 (Figure S19 and S20). Deviations of model results against sampled data were within a
472 reasonable range.

473 The model developed in this study can be used to generate dynamic LCIs, and
474 therefore allows dynamic LCIA of metal emissions from tailings. This could become
475 relevant if, in the future, groundwater emissions are explicitly modeled, as environmental
476 processes in the soil and groundwater can be slow. In the absence of characterization factors
477 for groundwater, we used here characterization factors for freshwater as surrogates, where the
478 temporal dimension is less of an issue. Once characterization factors for the groundwater
479 become available, a dynamic LCIA could be performed, complementing the dynamic
480 inventory analysis presented in this paper.

481 *Future primary copper mining.* We combined primary copper production data from
482 other studies^{12,73,92} with forecasted mining projects from the mining database⁴³. The studies
483 have different underlying assumptions than the database, and it is possible that technology
484 might change in future. Thus, our study is only applicable for the business-as-usual scenario
485 of mining technology. In the context of resource discovery and availability, above studies
486 assumed generally declining ore quality. However, future technologies may allow production
487 with better efficiency, and hence there is a chance to improve overall copper extraction rate.
488 Additionally, the appearance of low-cost and advanced mine exploration technologies might
489 enable access to currently undiscovered copper deposits, as estimated from several
490 studies^{46,77,93}. Moreover, different ore deposit types may have different rates of decline. These
491 factors, however, are beyond the scope of this study.

492 **Application of results**

493 We conclude that this study is representative of active copper sites (75 – 80% of total
494 production). The results for copper tailings display how dramatically site-specific parameters
495 can influence the LCA results of metal production. Our model can be modified and replicated

496 for other metals and is directly usable for metals co-mined with copper such as lead, arsenic,
497 or zinc. Additionally, the assessment for abandoned mine sites remains necessary but was not
498 performed in this study due to a lack of structured data. The GRID-ARENDAL⁹⁴ UNEP
499 Program recently developed a portal (Global Tailings Portal) to standardize tailings storage
500 facility risk evaluations. Unfortunately, the portal does not document the data for closed mine
501 sites that might cause long-term environmental burdens.

502 We also are able to identify regions with high environmental concerns due to tailings
503 deposition. It answers previous calls on the concerted effort to predict impacts and thus,
504 enable prioritization for mitigating impacts of uncontrolled disposal of mine waste⁹⁵. Country
505 and region level results can be used to improve a country's tailings management quality –
506 thereby minimizing the risk of any dam's spillover or breakdowns. Results in Figure 3 also
507 provide broad information for mine operators to continuously improve the recovery efficiency
508 of their flotation plants if there is a huge loss of materials to the tailings.

509 The generated inventory datasets can be applied for future studies whenever the need
510 arises to compare the LCA studies that involve tailings (i.e., in the background data). Together
511 with an allocation approach, they can also be used to quantify impacts for by-products of
512 copper production. The results presented here contribute to the set of publicly available LCI
513 datasets for mine tailings and can supplement or get integrated into existing databases (i.e.,
514 ecoinvent) that currently have limited area-/technology-coverage and are based on simpler
515 modeling techniques. The data can also help to complement the information provided by
516 official pollutant databases like PRTR, which can be applied both at mine-site and regional,
517 specifically when long-term assessments are needed.

518 **Outlook**

519 Our results can be connected to the LCA of copper production value chains and
520 provide additional insight on upstream environmental impacts, and thus contribute to

521 understand the importance of improving resource efficiency in metal supply chains⁹⁶. It can
522 also serve as a screening tool to help decision-makers to prioritize tailings/mine sites
523 remediation. This might include reprocessing for manufacturing other products⁹⁷ as a basis for
524 the long-term environmental remediation and valorization⁹⁸⁻¹⁰⁰ of mine tailings. The
525 appearances of novel technologies under active development such as solvo-metallurgy¹⁰¹ or
526 bio-hydrometallurgy¹⁰² are promising options for tailings reprocessing schemes, which might
527 be implemented in tailing remediation models in future research.

528 **Associated Content**

529 **(S) Supporting Information**

530 Details and further results. These materials are available free of charge via the internet at:
531 <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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