

Stochastic multicomponent reactive transport analysis of  
low quality drainage release from waste rock piles:  
controls of the spatial distribution of acid generating and  
neutralizing minerals

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## Abstract

In mining environmental applications, it is important to assess water quality from waste rock piles (WRPs) and estimate the likelihood of acid rock drainage (ARD) over time. The mineralogical heterogeneity of WRPs is a source of uncertainty in this assessment, undermining the reliability of traditional bulk indicators used in the industry. We focused in this work on the bulk neutralizing potential ratio ( $NPR$ ), which is defined as the ratio of the content of non-acid-generating minerals (typically reactive carbonates such as calcite) to the content of potentially acid-generating minerals (typically sulfides such as pyrite). We used a streamtube-based Monte-Carlo method to show why and to what extent bulk  $NPR$  can be a poor indicator of ARD occurrence. We simulated ensembles of WRPs identical in their geometry and bulk  $NPR$ , which only differed in their initial distribution of the acid generating and acid neutralizing minerals that control  $NPR$ . All models simulated the same principal acid-producing, acid-neutralizing and secondary mineral forming processes. We show that small differences in the distribution of local  $NPR$  values or the number of flow paths that generate acidity strongly influence drainage pH. The results indicate that

the likelihood of ARD (epitomized by the probability of occurrence of  $\text{pH} < 4$  in a mixing boundary) within the first 100 years can be as high as 75% for a  $NPR=2$  and 40% for  $NPR=4$ . The latter is traditionally considered as a "universally safe" threshold to ensure non-acidic waters in practical applications. Our results suggest that new methods that explicitly account for mineralogical heterogeneity must be sought when computing effective (upscaled)  $NPR$  values at the scale of the piles.

*Keywords:* multicomponent reactive transport, mineralogical heterogeneity, stochastic analysis, acid rock drainage, waste rock piles, neutralizing potential ratio

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## 1. Introduction

In environmental mining assessments, one critical aspect to control is whether a waste rock pile (WRP) has a high or low effective neutralizing capacity, which reflects its overall (bulk) ability to buffer the acidity produced within the pile. Low effective neutralizing capacity can imply deleterious properties characteristic of acid rock drainage (ARD), e.g.  $\text{pH} < 4$  and high sulfate and metal concentrations in the pile's outflow. (e.g. INAP-GARD, 2014; Morin and Hutt, 1997; Parbhakar-Fox and Lottermoser, 2015; Price, 2009).

Bulk indicators are typically used in the industry to predict whether a WRP will possess a high or low effective neutralizing capacity. A widely-adopted and well-known indicator is the bulk neutralizing potential ratio ( $NPR$ ), which is based on the acid-base accounting originally developed by Sobek et al. (1978).  $NPR$  is obtained from laboratory-based analysis of  $n_l$

15 rock samples obtained from the site as

$$NPR = \frac{1}{n_l} \sum_{i=1}^{n_l} \frac{NP_i}{AP_i} \quad (1)$$

16 where  $NP$  is a measure of the total mass of minerals available in the sample  
17 to neutralize the acidity, typically carbonates, and is expressed as equiv-  
18 alent kg  $\text{CaCO}_3$ , and  $AP$  is a measure of total mass of acid producing  
19 minerals, typically sulfides, also expressed in equivalents kg of  $\text{CaCO}_3$  (to  
20 be directly comparable with  $NP$ ). Theoretically,  $NPR > 1$  indicates that  
21 after complete reaction of the sample minerals the resulting solution will not  
22 be acidic, while  $NPR < 1$  indicates that after complete reaction of the sam-  
23 ple minerals the resulting solution will be acidic. Unfortunately, measuring  
24  $NPR > 1$  does not necessarily translate into a WRP with high effective neu-  
25 tralizing capacity. Indeed, ARD guidelines (e.g. Price, 2009) suggest that  
26  $NPR > 2$  would ensure a limited occurrence of acidic drainage from a pile,  
27 while  $NPR > 4$  seems a well-established *universal* threshold to ensure no  
28 occurrence of acidic drainage. A value between  $NPR = 1$  and  $NPR = 4$   
29 falls in the so-called "gray" or uncertain zone.

30 We highlight here some reasons to explain why laboratory-based bulk  
31 indicators such as the  $NPR$  are not always useful criteria to determine if  
32 drainage may become acidic at some point in the future. First, it shall be  
33 considered that WRPs are unsaturated and usually highly heterogeneous  
34 deposits (Eriksson and Destouni, 1997; Eriksson et al., 1997; Fala et al.,  
35 2013; Amos et al., 2014; Lahmira and Lefebvre, 2014; Lahmira et al., 2016)  
36 in which the formation and control of ARD depends on a large number of

nonlinear, coupled physical, chemical and biological processes (e.g. Amos et al., 2009; Blowes et al., 2003; Lefebvre et al., 2001; Nicholson et al., 1990; Nordstrom, 2011; Pedretti et al., 2015; Lorca et al., 2016). Static chemical tests, such as the Sobek test, and small-scale kinetic tests, such as kinetic or humidity cells, do not properly account for all processes occurring under field conditions, and have been seen to significantly overestimate the reaction rates of weathering processes (e.g. Malmström et al., 2000).

As defined in (1), the bulk  $NPR$  can be seen as a crude homogenization based on a simple arithmetic averaging of  $NP$  and  $AP$  from samples collected from the site and analyzed in the laboratory. The bulk  $NPR$  does not account for the spatial variability of minerals within the WRPs, while the neutralizing capacity of WRPs may be controlled not only by the bulk amount of  $AP$  and  $NP$  minerals in the system, but also by their specific sequence along a flow path, as discussed for instance by Morin and Hutt (2000). Indeed, in geochemically heterogeneous systems, the water quality at the end of a flow path depends in part on the sequence of minerals encountered along the flow path (e.g. Palmer and Cherry, 1984). Thus, the spatial distribution of minerals in the piles, which are ubiquitously heterogeneous, may have an important control on pile drainage.

Since the exact distribution of the phases that contribute to  $NP$  and  $AP$  within WRPs is never known in practice, the prediction of ARD from WRPs becomes uncertain. Stochastic models handling this type of *epistemic* uncertainty (e.g. Tartakovsky and Winter, 2008) are not yet common for studies on WRPs. One reason is due to the intense computational burden required to solve for multidimensional multicomponent Eulerian-based

62 reactive transport in heterogeneous WRPs (e.g. Demers et al., 2013; Fala  
 63 et al., 2013; Lahmira and Lefebvre, 2014; Lahmira et al., 2016). Alternative  
 64 computationally efficient methods, such as streamtube-based or Lagrangian  
 65 models (e.g. Bellin et al., 1994; Finkel et al., 2002; Simmons et al., 1995;  
 66 Thiele et al., 1996; Yabusaki et al., 1998), can be however adopted. For  
 67 instance, Eriksson and Destouni (1997) used a Lagrangian approach to in-  
 68 vestigate the impact of preferential flow on a WRP in Sweden, previously  
 69 analyzed by Strömberg and Banwart (1994). Malmström et al. (2004) used  
 70 Lagrangian models for ARD formation and evolution in the context of mine  
 71 tailings.

72 In this work we use a streamtube-based approach to develop a full Monte-  
 73 Carlo analysis and quantify the role of the spatial distribution of minerals  
 74 for a fixed bulk  $NPR$  on the formation of ARD in WRPs through time.  
 75 Each streamtube is modeled using the multicomponent reactive transport  
 76 code MIN3P (Mayer et al., 2002), which simulates the main acid-producing,  
 77 acid-neutralizing and secondary mineral forming processes in unsaturated  
 78 systems. The stochastic modeling allows explaining how, under the same  
 79 bulk  $NPR$ , the spatial distribution of  $NP$  and  $AP$  phases affects the likeli-  
 80 hood of water acidification in WRPs. We focus on those bulk  $NPR$  values  
 81 that are traditionally considered in the gray zone (e.g.  $NPR = 2$ ), as well as  
 82 larger values ( $NPR = 4, 10$ ) which are traditionally considered safe thresh-  
 83 olds according to mine water guidelines (e.g. Price, 2009). Our purpose is  
 84 to highlight and study the key difference between "local" and "bulk"  $NPR$   
 85 values, the first defined as the ratio of  $NP$  and  $AP$  in a lab-scale sample  
 86 collected at a specific location of the pile, the second defined as the ratio of

87 *NP* and *AP* of all the minerals in the entire pile.

## 88 **2. Problem statement**

89 We create stochastic realizations of WRPs within which we simulate  
90 unsaturated flow and reactive transport. We use a simplified conceptual  
91 model (Figure 1) to study in detail the effects of the spatial distribution of  
92 *NP* and *AP* minerals in WRPs. The model is an idealization that contains  
93 the essential features that allow us to isolate the effects of the variability in  
94 local *NPR* values on the resulting drainage composition.

95 Each pile realization is conceptualized as a 2D profile 100 m long and 10  
96 m high. One batter is located on the right side of the pile with a  $\theta = 37^\circ$   
97 angle of repose, similar to the tipping phases (TP) and batters of real-  
98 world WRPs (e.g. Azam et al., 2007). Conceptually, a TP is similar to  
99 a geological depositional facies. Within each TP, the waste rock can be  
100 either characterized by similar mineralogical composition and abundance,  
101 assuming all rock in a TP is extracted from the same geological formation  
102 of the mine, or a more heterogeneous composition, due to natural geological  
103 heterogeneity of the rock formation, as well as internal segregation, layering  
104 and blending during pile construction (e.g. INAP-GARD, 2014).

105 We assume that the piles initially contain two reactive primary min-  
106 eral phases, pyrite and calcite. Pyrite represents the most common sulfide  
107 mineral undergoing oxidation and generating acidity and provides a major  
108 source of *AP*. Calcite represents a carbonate mineral that buffers acidity  
109 and provides a major source of *NP*. Weathering of these two minerals can  
110 give rise to the formation of secondary mineral phases such as gypsum and

111 ferrihydrite, providing solubility controls for Ca,  $\text{SO}_4$  and Fe. Secondary  
112 minerals can form at any point and moment within the pile. Oxygen and  
113 carbon dioxide partial pressures remain in constant equilibrium with atmo-  
114 spheric conditions throughout the pile and for the entire simulation time,  
115 representing a well-ventilated system (e.g. Amos et al., 2009; Lefebvre et al.,  
116 2001). Sulfide oxidation is therefore not limited by the amount of oxygen,  
117 and similarly calcite dissolution is not affected by the accumulation of car-  
118 bon dioxide within the pile (e.g. Lorca et al., 2016). Non-reactive minerals  
119 make up the bulk of the pile such that physical properties like porosity and  
120 permeability do not change in time as reactions occur. All these processes  
121 are accounted for in our simulations. The equations defining the geochemical  
122 system are reported as Supplementary Information (SI).

123 To isolate the effect of heterogeneous mineral distribution without the  
124 potentially complicated and non-trivial effects associated with different trans-  
125 port rates within the pile (e.g. Eriksson and Destouni, 1997), we assume  
126 hydraulic homogeneity in the WRPs. Unsaturated flow is driven by a wet-  
127 dry seasonal recharge rate which is applied uniformly across the crown and  
128 batter of the pile. The base of the pile is assumed to be impermeable, where  
129 pile drainage is collected to form a composite mixed drainage, as shown  
130 in Figure 1. Multiple observations made on WRPs suggest that the pile  
131 drainage is made up of well-defined sub-vertical flow paths, in some cases  
132 resulting in a preferential-like flow regime (e.g. Amos et al., 2014; Blackmore  
133 et al., 2014; Nichol et al., 2005; Peterson, 2014; Smith and Beckie, 2003). It  
134 is reasonable to expect that mixing of the multiple flow paths composing the  
135 system’s drainage at the control plane dominates compared to local mixing

136 occurring inside the piles along the flow paths or across the flow paths by  
137 transverse dispersion, as observed in saturated porous systems (e.g. Rahman  
138 et al., 2005).

139 Under these conditions, a stochastic streamtube (ST) modeling approach  
140 is a reasonable and computationally-efficient approximation for the simula-  
141 tion of multidimensional multicomponent reactive transport within hetero-  
142 geneous WRPs under uncertainty. The stochastic analysis is based on the  
143 solution of Monte-Carlo simulations of ensembles of correlated random spa-  
144 tial fields or realizations and analysis of the statistics of the model outputs.  
145 Within each realization, the ST approach is used to solve for reactive trans-  
146 port, as conceptualized in Figure 1. Without lack of generality, it is assumed  
147 that flow occurs along vertical one-dimensional (1D) STs, whose hydraulic  
148 properties are fixed, as reported in the SI. While mixing occurs exclusively  
149 at the base of the pile, we note that in the ST approach the mixing layer  
150 does not necessarily need to be located at the base of the pile. It could also  
151 be located, for example, on top of a continuous capillary barrier within the  
152 piles, such as a traffic surface, giving rise to localized mixing of water and/or  
153 a lateral spring from the WRPs (e.g. Fala et al 2013).

### 154 **3. Methodology**

#### 155 *3.1. Generation of mineralogical random fields*

156 We start by generating independent identically distributed (i.i.d.) ran-  
157 dom fields of volumetric fractions ( $\phi$ ) of pyrite and calcite. Each field has the  
158 same spatial statistics, including the same spatially averaged or bulk  $NPR$ ,  
159 and represents a possible spatial map of  $NP$  and  $AP$  minerals within the

160 pile. The volume fractions are adopted by MIN3P to define the amount of  
 161 minerals in the model (SI) and can be related to wt% by simple conversion  
 162 based on mineral densities and porosities.

163 To build random realizations of mineralogical assemblage, we utilize the  
 164 Sequential Indicator Simulation (SIS) geostatistical algorithm (Emery, 2004;  
 165 Goovaerts, 2000; Journel and Alabert, 1990; Soares, 1998) coded in SGEMS  
 166 (Remy et al., 2009). For a specific mineral, each SIS simulation requires  
 167 three variables: the spatially-averaged mineral volume fraction ( $\bar{\phi}$ ), the vari-  
 168 ance ( $\sigma_\phi^2$ ) and the correlation function ( $C_\phi$ ). In all realizations we use an  
 169 exponential covariance of the form

$$C_\phi(\theta_C) = \sigma_\phi^2 \exp \left( -\frac{d}{a(\theta_C)} \right) \quad (2)$$

170 where  $d$  is the distance between two points,  $\theta_C$  is an angle oriented along  
 171 one of the axes of the anisotropic covariance ellipsoid, and  $a$  is the range  
 172 of the correlation along that direction. The ratio between  $a(\theta_C)$  and the  
 173 dimension of the domain along  $\theta_C$  provides a measure of the continuity of  
 174 the mineralogical content the direction  $\theta_C$ .

175 We generate unconditioned 2D random fields of size 100 m  $\times$  10 m and  
 176 a discretization of 1 m  $\times$  1 m (for a total number of cells  $n_c=1000$  per  
 177 field) replicating heterogeneous distributions of pyrite and calcite content in  
 178 mineralogically heterogeneous WRPs. The grid resolution is assumed to be  
 179 sufficient to capture the variability of the heterogeneity in the waste rock,  
 180 and is similar to the one adopted in other studies involving numerical models  
 181 of heterogeneous waste rocks (e.g. Lahmira and Lefebvre, 2014; Lahmira

182 et al., 2016).

183 We formulate four different ensembles of simulations, each of which is  
184 characterized by a different bulk  $NPR$  value (0.5, 2, 4, 10) but identical  
185 coefficient of variance ( $CV = \sqrt{\sigma_\phi^2 / \bar{\phi}}$ ). We set  $CV=0.6$ , a value that maxi-  
186 mizes the variability of mineral content in each realization without generat-  
187 ing physically unrealistic negative  $\phi$  values. We set ranges  $a_1=10$  m along  
188 the major axis, parallel with the orientation of the waste rock tipping phases  
189 at an angle of  $\theta_C = \theta = 37^\circ$ , and  $a_2=5$  m along the perpendicular minor  
190 axis at an angle of  $\theta_C = 127^\circ$ . At the scale of individual waste rock particles  
191 (grid blocks), we postulate an inverse correlation between the sulfide con-  
192 tent and the carbonate content with an intermediate correlation coefficient  
193  $\rho = 0.5$ . This selection is made to account for the expected lower sulfide  
194 content in carbonate-rich rocks (and vice-versa) with statistical uncertainty  
195 or noise.

196 An example of the random fields generated using this methodology and  
197 parameters is shown in Figure 2. It can be observed that the resulting  
198 spatial distributions are heterogeneous, with discrete zones having similar  
199  $NPR$  values along the vertical direction. The vertical homogeneity is the  
200 result of using  $a_1 = 10$  m, which generates a relatively continuity of the same  
201 mineral amount (i.e. same  $\phi$ ) along the TP dipping angle. This approach  
202 is representative for a single tip from haul trucks, where the load comes  
203 from one location in the mine. The lateral variability is the result of using  
204  $a_2 = 5$  m, which is lower than the lateral extension of the pile (100m).

205 Using the same approach, we generate an ensemble of 100 random fields  
206 of pyrite and 100 for calcite for each bulk  $NPR$  value, each with a distinct

spatial distribution of  $NP$  and  $AP$  minerals but same statistical distributions. The arbitrary number of simulations serves us to obtain a representative ensemble of results to evaluate the likelihood of low-quality drainage, as described in Section 4.2.

### 3.2. Reactive transport along each ST

For each realization of the ensemble, we simulate drainage chemistry over 1000 years along all individual STs in the pile. A succinct description of the flow and reactive transport model is provided here. Additional details about the model setup, boundary conditions as well as flow and transport parameters used in the analysis can be found in the SI.

Each realization consists of  $N_{ST}=100$  STs, each of which was subdivided into cells of 1 m length, 1 m width, a cross sectional area  $A=1\text{ m}^2$  and a volume of  $1\text{ m}^3$ . The total pile discharge area at the pile base is  $100\text{ m}^2$ . Below the crown the ST contains 10 cells, while below the batter the number of cells decreases as the pile thins towards the toe (as conceptualized in Figure 1). The number of STs is deemed adequate to evaluate the impact of geochemical heterogeneity on the long-term outflow geochemistry, while maximizing the efficiency of the model calculations. A sensitivity analysis reported in the SI confirms the adequacy of the selected vertical grid resolution against numerical dispersion, leaving the mineralogical distribution unchanged.

The saturated hydraulic conductivity and Van Genuchten unsaturated properties are homogeneous and isotropic at each point of the domain. The selected hydraulic parameters (SI) ensure that there is no surface ponding

231 and that the outflow discharge rate from each ST ( $Q$ ) is controlled by the  
 232 recharge rates assigned at the top of each ST ( $q_r$ ) and  $A$ . To simulate a  
 233 wet-dry seasonality, each year a uniform daily recharge rate equivalent to  
 234  $q_r=1000$  mm/y is applied for six months, followed by six months of  $q_r=0$ .  
 235 Because  $q_r$  and  $A$  are constant in all STs, the maximum flow rate per ST  
 236 is  $Q = 3.17 \times 10^{-8}$  m<sup>3</sup>/s during the wet season, while the minimum flow  
 237 rates approach zero during the dry season. A prescribed concentration flux  
 238 is defined at the surface, while a free-exit concentration boundary is set at  
 239 the base. The recharge and initial pore-water composition within the pile  
 240 have low solute concentrations, as reported in the SI.

241 To focus exclusively on the effect of the distribution of  $NP$  and  $AP$   
 242 minerals, we set homogeneous pyrite oxidation rates described by a simple  
 243 zero-order kinetic model. This is a simplification of the actual nature of the  
 244 process, which is actually better described by surface-area and pH-controlled  
 245 mineral weathering rates (e.g. Park and Levenspiel, 1975), but not accounted  
 246 for in this work for computational reasons. We set a representative effective  
 247 rate coefficient of  $k = 10^{-9}$  mol L<sup>-1</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>, which is in range of values found by  
 248 Nicholson et al. (1990) using a shrinking core model. A sensitivity analysis  
 249 (not reported) showed however that a different  $k$  does not substantially  
 250 affect our conclusions. Geochemical calculations utilize a thermodynamic  
 251 database derived from WATEQ4F (Ball and Nordstrom, 1991). We refer  
 252 to Mayer et al. (2002) for details on the thermodynamic constants. The  
 253 geochemical model accounts for all dissolved species associated with the  
 254 components forming calcite, pyrite, water, oxygen and carbon dioxide. The  
 255 principal secondary mineral phases defined by these elements are allowed

256 to precipitate within a grid block when saturated. Calcite, gypsum and  
 257 ferrihydrite are treated as in quasi-equilibrium conditions and allowed to  
 258 precipitate and (re)dissolve.

### 259 3.3. *Mixing*

260 Mixing of waters at the base of the pile from the multiple STs is com-  
 261 puted in two steps. The first step consists in the algebraic calculation of  
 262 concentration of components ( $j$ ) exfiltrating from each streamtube ( $i$ ) at the  
 263 last day of each wet season ( $\tau_l$ , where  $l = 1, \dots, 1000$  corresponds to each  
 264 simulated year). A flux-averaged component concentration  $T_F(j, \tau_l)$  is cal-  
 265 culated as

$$T_F(j, \tau_l) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{ST}} w(i) T_j(i, j, \tau_l) \quad w(i) = \frac{Q_i(\tau_l)}{Q(\tau_l)} \quad (3)$$

266 For instance,  $T_F(SO_4, \tau_1)$  is the mixed concentration of sulfate at the base  
 267 of the pile at the last day of the first wet season;  $T_F(SO_4, \tau_2)$  is the concen-  
 268 tration at last day of the second wet season; and so on.

269 The second step uses MIN3P to calculate the geochemistry of the mixed  
 270 basal drainage. Mixing calculations are performed under the assumption of  
 271 equilibrium with atmospheric  $O_2$  and  $CO_2$  and no precipitating secondary  
 272 minerals in the mixing boundary. The concentrations of the components,  
 273 pH and alkalinity in the mixed waters are quantified and it is assumed that  
 274 the resulting water discharged from from underneath the pile immediately  
 275 after mixing. Alkalinity is calculated following the formulation of MINTEQ  
 276 (Felmy et al., 1984).

277 The assumptions of no precipitating secondary minerals and a once-per-  
 278 year mixing are made to increase the computational efficiency in light of the  
 279 large number of simulations generated within the Monte Carlo framework.  
 280 A sensitivity analysis, reported in the SI, reveals that mixing calculations  
 281 performed on a daily basis and/or allowing secondary minerals (gypsum and  
 282 ferrihydrite) to precipitate do not qualitatively affect the resulting model  
 283 outputs and the conclusions of this work. It is noted that while mixing of  
 284 components is computed once annually, flow and reactive transport along  
 285 the STs are still computed continuously over the 1000 simulated years, with  
 286 variable time steps spanning from  $10^{-10}$  day to 1 day , utilizing the adaptive  
 287 time stepping algorithm of MIN3P (Mayer and MacQuarrie, 2010).

## 288 **4. Results & Analysis**

### 289 *4.1. Analysis of individual realizations*

290 The results from two selected realizations (Figure 2) chosen from the  
 291 ensemble with bulk  $NPR=2$  are shown in Figure 3 .

292 The first key element to observe is that, in both realizations, the ma-  
 293 jority of the STs (gray lines) do not generate ARD. In realization 1 about  
 294 80% of the STs show low sulfate concentrations, with  $pH \approx 6.5$  and elevated  
 295 alkalinity. The remaining 20% of STs, however, display typical ARD-like  
 296 conditions, with high sulfate concentrations and low pH, with minimum  
 297 pH-values 2-3. Consistently, in these STs the alkalinity drops below zero  
 298 (i.e. representing acidity) during the low pH stages. In realization 2, the  
 299 number of ARD-like STs is about 10% of the total. This number is slightly  
 300 lower than in realization 1 and graphically distinguishable in Figure 3 by

301 the lower density of STs characterized by sulfate concentration peaks and  
302 low pH values.

303 The number of acidic STs in the realization strongly affects the compo-  
304 sition of the basal mixed drainage in each simulation. In realization 1, the  
305 mixed drainage shows  $\text{pH} < 4$  over extended periods of time (about 100-150  
306 years since the beginning of the simulations), dropping to lows of  $\text{pH} \approx 4$ ,  
307 which corresponds to lows in alkalinity and a peak in sulfate concentrations.  
308 After 150-200 years, the pile rapidly recovers to circumneutral values, while  
309 sulfate concentrations tend to gradually decrease towards a stable value. In  
310 realization 2, at the initial stages the composite drainage is characterized by  
311 generally higher alkalinity (i.e. less acidity) than in realization 1, with less  
312 pronounced peaks of sulfate and  $\text{pH} > 4$  for most of the simulation time.

313 Over short and intermediate time scales ( $< 300$  years), the spatial config-  
314 uration of mineral abundances seems to have an important control on basal  
315 drainage chemistry. Indeed, there are pronounced differences in the com-  
316 posite drainage of the two realizations which can be uniquely related to the  
317 different number of acidic STs, and are thus ascribable exclusively to min-  
318 eralogical heterogeneity. While the majority of ST drainage waters show  
319 circumneutral pH in the simulations, some STs can reach acidities much  
320 higher than the maximum alkalinities in neutral STs. The solubility of car-  
321 bonates limits the alkalinity of carbonate-saturated water to hundreds of  
322 mg/L, whereas sulfide oxidation has no mineral solubility control and acidi-  
323 ties can reach thousands of mg/L. Thus, the higher acidities of the acidic  
324 STs dominate the basal drainage chemistry despite being a minority of the  
325 total STs.

326 These first observations explain why it can be difficult to predict the  
327 actual neutralizing capacity of WRPs in presence of mineralogical hetero-  
328 geneity. Just a small subset of STs releasing ARD was seen to be responsible  
329 for the acidification of the entire drainage collected from the base. More-  
330 over, the fact that the majority of STs is circumneutral is not a sufficient  
331 condition to ensure that the resulting mixed drainage will be circumneutral.

332 For upscaling purposes, it is possible that the same results would equally  
333 hold if mixing accounts only for those streamtubes that more actively con-  
334 tribute to basal discharge and solute loadings. Here, we can find some  
335 analogies between the effect of the spatial distribution of minerals on the  
336 resulting mixed drainage and the effect of flow heterogeneity documented by  
337 Eriksson et al. (1997). They concluded that because of flow by-passing and  
338 preferential flow, only 55%-70% of the pile's rock effectively contributed to  
339 the loadings from the WRP. Thus, the effect of flow channeling by Eriksson  
340 et al. (1997) results in a fraction of the waste rocks that actually contribute  
341 to the pile's overall behavior observed at a control section. We note however  
342 that the combined effect of mineral and flow heterogeneities is not yet well  
343 understood and requires further investigation.

344 Over the long term ( $>300$  years), the total sulfate concentrations become  
345 comparable in the two piles and the pH tends to approach circumneutral  
346 values. This occurs because at long time scales the pyrite is almost en-  
347 tirely oxidized in the two piles and sulfate release is only associated with  
348 gypsum dissolution. Gypsum precipitates and accumulates in most stream-  
349 tubes in both realizations during the active phase of sulfide oxidation and  
350 redissolves later on, therefore yielding a relatively homogeneous release of

351  $\text{SO}_4$ . In real WRPs, several more minerals can exist in the piles, including  
 352 slower-reacting aluminosilicates, which can provide pH buffering over time  
 353 scales longer than carbonates. While the behavior of real WRPs will thus  
 354 differ somewhat from our results, our conclusions about the effect of mineral  
 355 distribution on composite outflow chemistry at short and intermediate time  
 356 scales ( $<300$  years) will not. Indeed, the variability in outflow chemistry be-  
 357 tween realizations here is fundamentally driven by the different distribution  
 358 of minerals, and any changes in geochemical assumptions should affect all  
 359 realizations in approximately the same way.

#### 360 4.2. Monte-Carlo simulations

361 From each realization, a unique mixed drainage chemistry time series is  
 362 produced using MIN3P and the approach described in Section 3.3. One time  
 363 series reflects only possible random outcome from the ensemble of results be-  
 364 longing to a specific  $NPR$  value. In the following, we examine the likelihood  
 365 or probability of occurrence of a particular value of mixed-drainage pH at  
 366 given times by analyzing the statistics from the ensemble of results from  
 367 each bulk  $NPR$ .

368 We first analyze the ensemble results for the case with bulk  $NPR=2$ . In  
 369 Figure 4, the histograms represent the frequency of the mixed-drainage pH  
 370 from the individual realizations. In the plots the y-axis scale is limited to a  
 371 density of 0.25 in all panels to emphasize the difference among the different  
 372 cases. The red lines represent the empirical cumulative density function,  
 373 which can be interpreted as the probability ( $P$ ) that the mixed drainage pH  
 374 falls below a certain value. Using  $P$ , we can define a likelihood of occurrence

375 ( $L$ ) as

$$L = P(\text{pH} < \text{pH}^*) \quad (4)$$

376 which is the proportion of scenarios in which the mixed-drainage pH is below  
377 a threshold of compliance  $\text{pH}^*$ . As a working assumption, we describe the  
378 results based on  $\text{pH}^* < 4$ .

379 Figure 4 shows that as the piles evolve geochemically over time, the  
380 relative frequency of specific pH values in the composite drainage changes.  
381 The results highlight that bulk  $NPR = 2$  is rarely a sufficient condition  
382 to expect neutralized drainage from WRPs within short and intermediate  
383 time scales. For instance, after 25 years in the majority of simulations the  
384 composite drainage shows  $\text{pH} \approx 3-4$ , while it only remains circumneutral in a  
385 limited subset of the simulations. At 25 years, the probability curve suggests  
386 that the likelihood of  $\text{pH} < 4$  is  $L \approx 90\%$ , i.e. 90 out of 100 realizations with  
387 bulk  $NPR = 2$  yield a composite drainage with  $\text{pH} < 4$ . The likelihood of  
388 not exceeding the selected  $\text{pH}^* = 4$  is still 75% after one century since the  
389 placement of the WRPs. The likelihood drops to lower values after 150 years,  
390 where it stabilizes around  $L = 30\%$ , and remains almost identical, even after  
391 300 years. Results not plotted here suggest that likelihood drops to very  
392 low values ( $L < 5\%$ ) for very large time scales (1000 years).

393 The histograms and cumulative distributions for bulk  $NPR$  scenarios are  
394 shown in Figure 5, including the guidelines-recommended  $NPR = 4$  (Price,  
395 2009). In addition to the line representing the selected threshold  $\text{pH}^* = 4$ ,  
396 we plot the lines corresponding to  $L = 50\%$  and  $L = 5\%$ . For  $NPR = 0.5$ , the

397 likelihood of water acidification increases compared with the case  $NPR=2$ .  
398 This result is not surprising and in line with the expected behavior of a  
399 WRP with a lower calcite-to-pyrite ratio and thus with a lower probability  
400 of pH buffering.

401 Surprisingly, for  $NPR=4$  we found that the likelihood is still  $L \approx 70\%$  at  
402 50 years and  $L \approx 40\%$  at 100 years. After 150 years the number of simula-  
403 tions with  $pH < 4$  drops, with  $L \approx 15\%$ . We thus found that  $NPR=4$  is not a  
404 reliable threshold to ensure good quality drainage water from a WRP with  
405 similar characteristics as those simulated in this work, questioning the valid-  
406 ity of  $NPR=4$  as a *universal* indicator to predict poorly acidified drainage  
407 exfiltrating waste rock piles.

408 A higher  $NPR$  than 4 is needed to ensure low likelihood of water not  
409 exceeding the threshold  $pH^*$ . For instance, the results for  $NPR=10$  show it  
410 to be a much safer criterion than  $NPR=4$ , although we did not carry out  
411 simulations for intermediate  $NPR$  values that may provide similar results.

## 412 **Summary & Conclusion**

413 We present and discuss the results from a stochastic modeling approach  
414 where we study the effects of heterogeneous mineral distributions on the  
415 likelihood of acid drainage from WRPs for different bulk  $NPR$  values. To  
416 allow a more direct interpretation of our results, we adopt some simplifi-  
417 cations compared to real sites, such as homogeneous flow conditions and  
418 no control of silicate weathering on the long term. Gas transport is not  
419 rate-limited in our simulations.

420 We account for the mineral content (volumetric fractions) as the effective

property controlling the variability of drainage quality exfiltrating the piles. We do not explicitly correlate mineralogical reactivity and particle size, for instance assigning a higher reaction rates to smaller size. Instead, we assume that a high-content mineral zone means both higher amount of  $NP$  or  $AP$  mineral and a higher reactivity for the minerals present in the zones. For instance, it can be seen as a zone enriched in minerals with high surface areas. Vice-versa, a low content mineral zone contains with a lower fraction of  $NP$  or  $AP$  minerals with a lower reactivity.

We show that, for the conceptual model developed in this analysis, WRPs with bulk  $NPR=2$  generate drainage  $pH<4$  after 100 years with a probability of about 75%. Unexpectedly, after 100 years this probability is still about 40% when bulk  $NPR=4$ . In other terms, two out of five WRPs with bulk  $NPR=4$  are expected to generate poor-quality  $pH<4$  drainage after 100 years. This aspect should be taken into account by decision makers, as  $NPR=4$  is generally considered a safe criterion when operating WRPs (Price, 2009).

The Monte-Carlo result is explained considering the results from individual realizations from the ensemble. In two geostatistical simulations having bulk  $NPR \approx 2$  we observe that the composite drainage can give rise to either acidic or circumneutral drainage because of a limited subset of streamtubes (flow paths) discharging at a mixing plane and undergoing acidic conditions. For upscaling purposes, the impact of mineralogical heterogeneity can be seen as qualitative similar to the behavior of hydraulic heterogeneity and preferential flow described by Eriksson and Destouni (1997). Only a subset of streamtubes effectively contribute to the pile-average composition of

446 the exfiltrating drainage, depending on concentration loadings and acid-  
447 ity/alkalinity. These results suggest one possible way towards a correct  
448 upscaling of the effective neutralizing capacity of mineralogically heteroge-  
449 neous waste rock piles.

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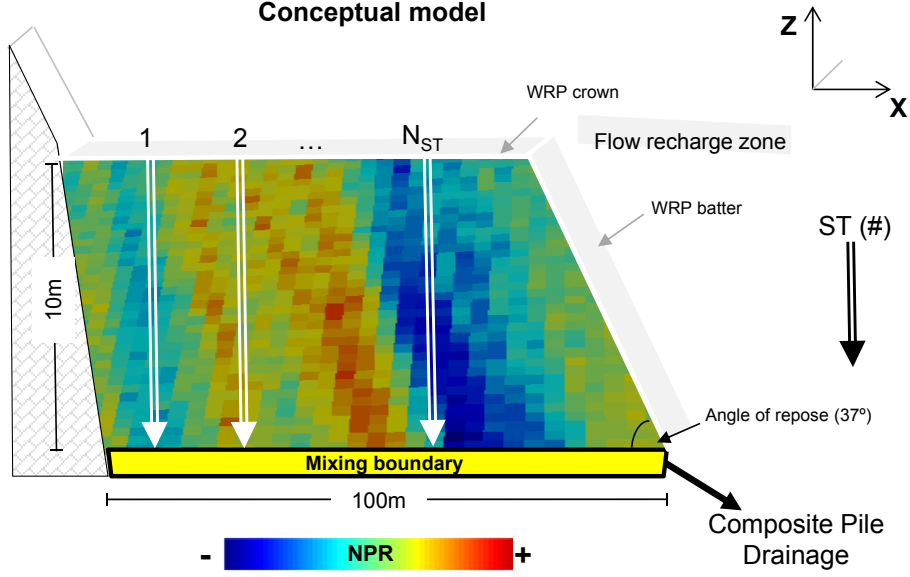


Figure 1: Conceptual model of the problem analyzed in this work. From the recharge zones (crown and batter), water infiltrates into the pile forming multiple hydraulically-homogeneous streamtubes (STs). Each ST intercepts a random sequence of minerals, and in turn a random sequence of  $NPR$  zones. For a specific realization, the composition of the resulting WRP drainage depends on the flux-averaged concentration of each ST being collected at the control plane (mixing boundary at base of the pile). The composition of each ST at the control plane, and in turn of the composite drainage, depends on the specific sequence of minerals encountered in each realization.

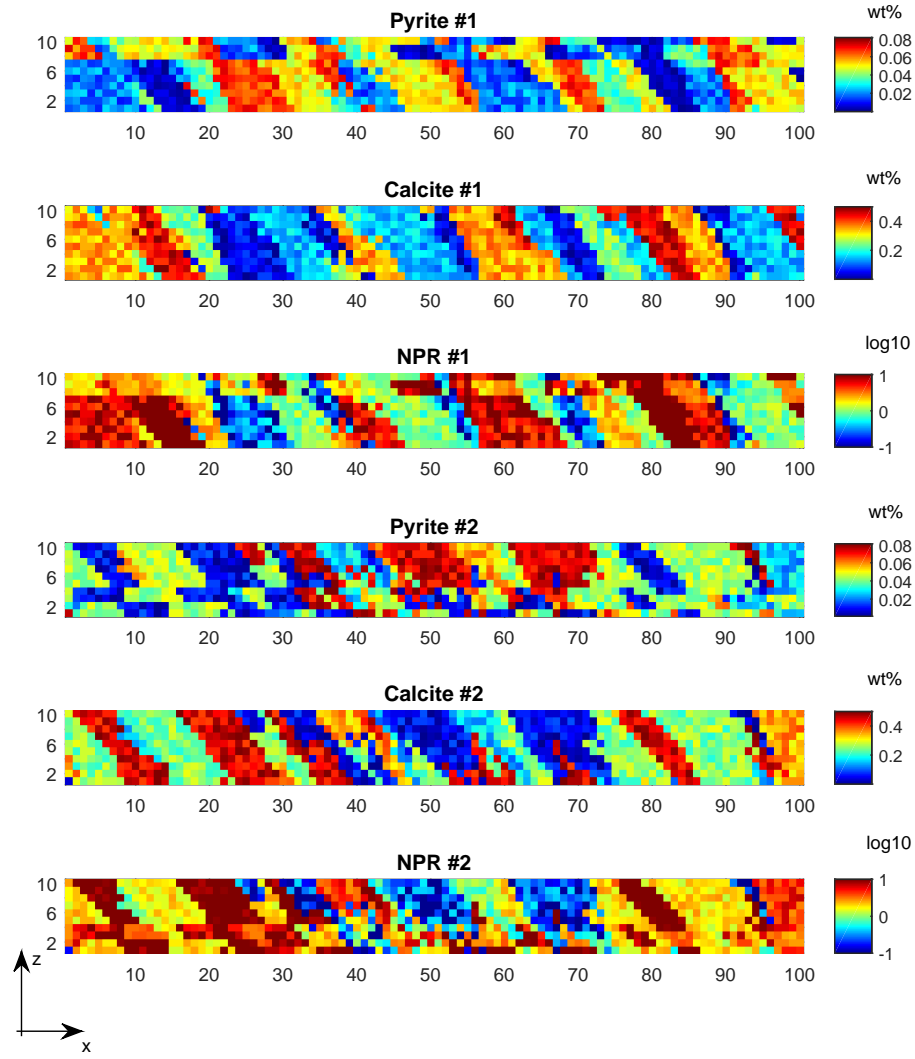


Figure 2: Two example realizations or maps of initial mineral distributions. The average dip along the major axis is parallel with the angle of repose of the waste rock ( $\theta = 37^\circ$ ).

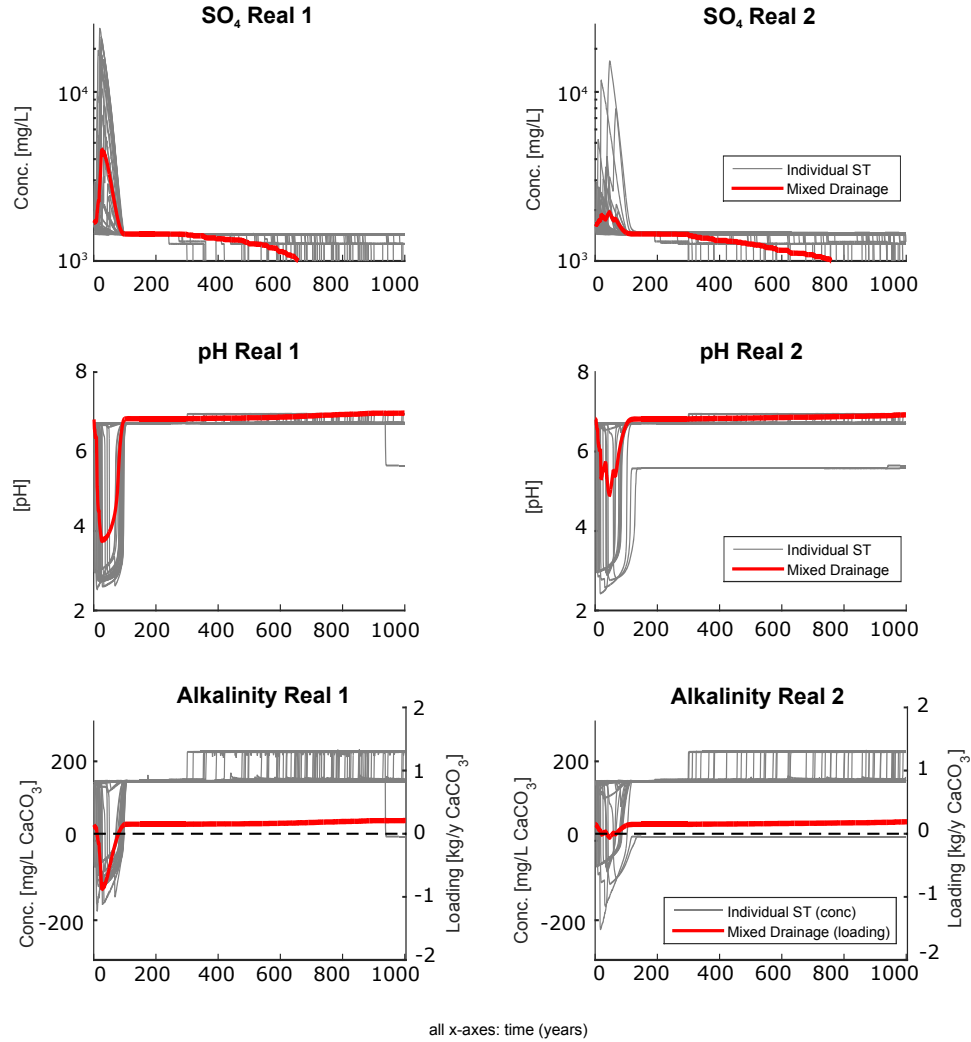


Figure 3: Analysis of two individual realizations with bulk  $NPR=2$ . The geometry, flow field, bulk properties and boundary conditions are identical in both realizations. They differ only in the organization of primary minerals (calcite and pyrite) within the piles, which generates a heterogeneous distribution of local  $NPR$  values. The dotted lines highlights zero alkalinity. The red line indicated the mixing values calculated using MIN3P (see Section 3.3).

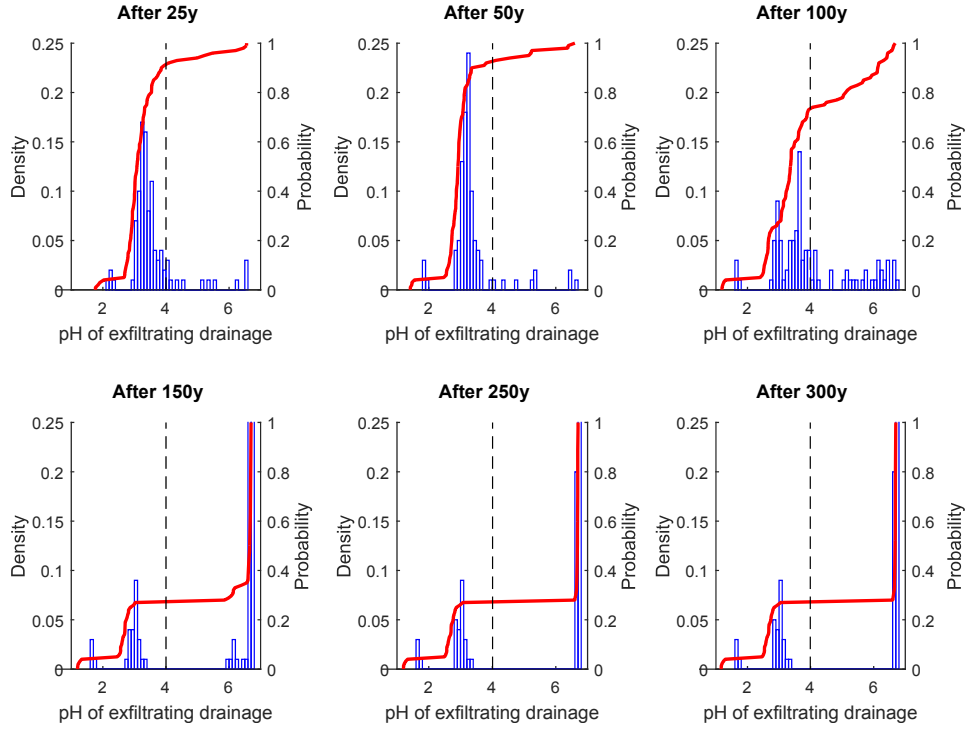


Figure 4: Ensemble results of the mixed-drainage pH from the scenarios with bulk  $NPR = 2$  at different times. The vertical dotted line emphasizes  $pH=4$ , an arbitrary value selected to estimate the likelihood ( $L$ ) of the piles to generate low-quality drainage.

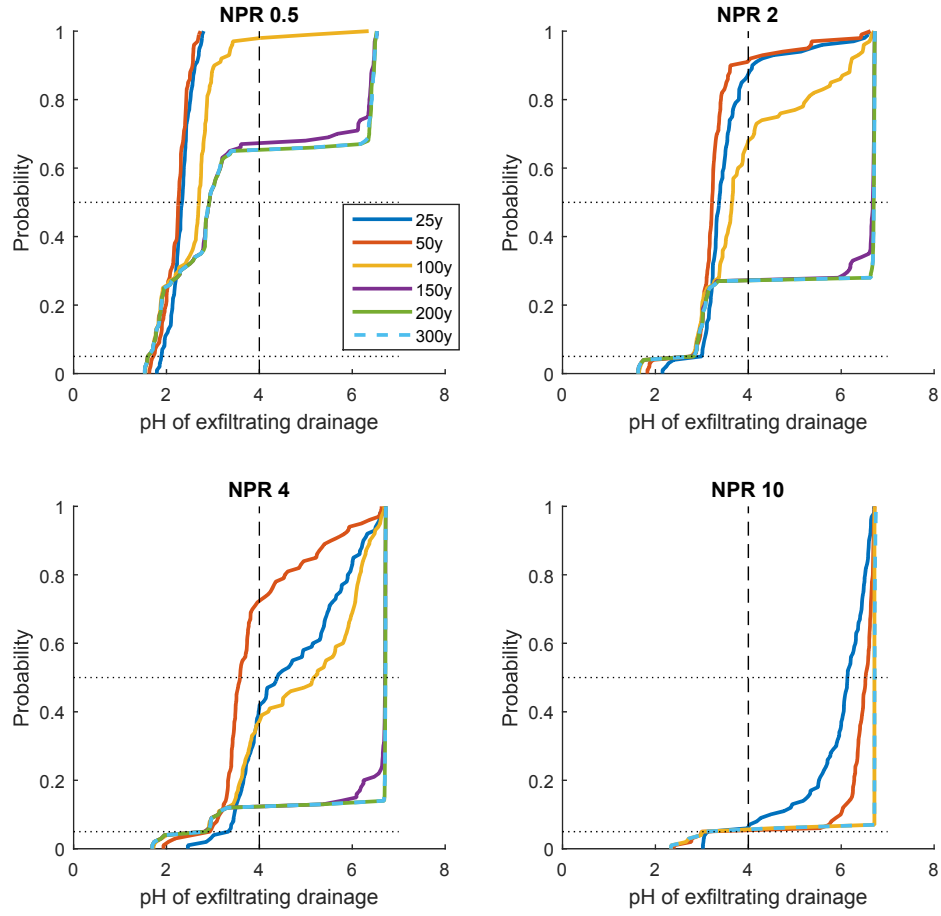


Figure 5: Comparison of ensemble results from different bulk  $NPR$  values, at different times. All panels show the pH of the mixed drainage from 100 random simulations. In each individual simulation, pH is calculated using the mixing approach described in Section 3.3.

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