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1 Water quality impacts and river system recovery

² following the 2014 Mount Polley mine tailings dam

3 spill, British Columbia, Canada

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23 ABSTRACT

The Mount Polley mine tailings embankment breach on August 4th 2014, in British Columbia, 24 25 Canada, is the second largest mine waste spill on record. The mine operator responded swiftly by 26 removing significant quantities of tailings from the primary receiving watercourse, stabilizing the river corridor and beginning construction of a new river channel. This presented a unique 27 28 opportunity to study spatial patterns of element cycling in a partially-restored and alkaline river 29 system. Overall, water quality impacts are considered low with Cu, and to a lesser extent V, being 30 the only elements of concern. However, the spatial pattern of stream Cu loading suggested 31 chemical (dominant at low flow) and physical (dominant at high flow) mobilization processes 32 operating in different parts of the watershed. Chemical mobilization was hypothesized to be due 33 to Cu sulfide (chalcopyrite) oxidation in riparian tailings and reductive dissolution of Cu-bearing 34 Fe oxides in tailings and streambed sediments whereas physical mobilization was due to erosion 35 and suspension of Cu-rich stream sediments further downstream. Although elevated aqueous Cu 36 was evident in Hazeltine Creek, this is considered a relatively minor perturbation to a watershed 37 with naturally elevated stream Cu concentrations. The alkaline nature of the tailings and the 38 receiving watercourse ensures most aqueous Cu is rapidly complexed with dissolved organic 39 matter or precipitates as secondary mineral phases. Our data highlights how swift removal of 40 spilled tailings and river corridor stabilization can limit chemical impacts in affected watersheds

41 but also how chemical mobilization (of Cu) can still occur when the spilled tailings and the

42 receiving environment are alkaline. We present a conceptual model of Cu cycling in the Hazeltine

43 Creek watershed.

44 **1. Introduction**

On August 4th 2014, a partial embankment breach of the Mount Polley tailings storage 45 46 facility (TSF) in British Columbia, Canada, led to the release of approximately 25 Mm³ of mine 47 tailings and supernatant water into the Quesnel River Watershed (WISE, 2016; Petticrew et al., 48 2015). The embankment breached due to a geotechnical failure of a layer of glacio-lacustrine clay 49 in the foundation materials below the dam (Independent Expert Engineering Investigation and Review Panel, 2015). The Mount Polley event was significant for four reasons. First, at the time 50 51 of the accident it was the largest ever documented spill of mine tailings into the environment 52 (WISE, 2016). Second, among tailings spills, the Mount Polley accident was unusual in that the 53 tailings are not acid-generating and contain generally low levels of trace metals and metalloids 54 when compared to typical tailings (Golder Associates Ltd, 2015; Kossoff et al., 2014). Third, the 55 environmental clean-up operations were swift; within one year of the event a significant volume 56 of the spilled tailings had been removed from the major receiving watercourse and an extensive 57 river restoration scheme was under construction (Independent Expert Engineering Investigation 58 and Review Panel, 2015). Fourth, the Mount Polley spill highlighted the increasing global 59 environmental risk of such events, due to the growing number of mining operations and higher 60 waste to ore ratios, and due to the growing vulnerability of these types of environments to extreme 61 hydro-meteorological events (Hudson-Edwards, 2016).

62 Following the embankment breach, tailings material initially discharged north into Polley 63 Lake before forming a 'plug' (area known as Polley Flats in Fig.1) that blocked water flowing 64 from Polley Lake. The tailings material subsequently flowed south-east into Hazeltine Creek and 65 then discharged into the West Basin of Quesnel Lake. The tailings material initially eroded the existing valley, both vertically and laterally (SNC-Lavalin Inc, 2015). Subsequently, thick deposits 66 67 of tailings (up to 3.5 m thick) occurred primarily near Polley Lake and in Lower Hazeltine Creek with thinner layers occurring in other parts of the creek. Tailings were deposited within the riparian 68 69 zone up to 100 m from Hazeltine Creek.

The ore body at Mount Polley is a typical alkalic porphyry Cu-Au deposit with supergene 70 71 enrichment (McMillan, 1996). The dominant ore mineral is chalcopyrite (CuFeS₂), but Cu also 72 occurs as other sulfide (bornite – Cu₅FeS₄, covellite – Cu₅, digenite – Cu₉S₅), silicate (chrysocolla 73 - (Cu,Al)₂H₂Si₂O₅(OH)₄.nH₂O) and carbonate hydroxide minerals (malachite - Cu₂CO₃(OH)₂) 74 (Henry, 2009). Importantly, the ore has a low sulfide (0.1 - 0.3 wt. %) and high calcite (5 - 10 wt.)75 %) content giving it a high neutralization potential. Tailings generated from the processing of 76 Mount Polley ore also have generally low metal concentrations (mg kg⁻¹: As, 8 - 13; Cd, 0.1 - 0.3; 77 Cr, 8 – 55; Cu, 65 – 1475; Pb, 4 – 12; Hg, <0.1 – 0.3; Ni, 6 – 36.4; Se, 0.3 – 1.9; V, 86 – 295; Zn, 78 40 – 82) (SRK Consulting (Canada) Inc, 2015c) when compared to other spilled tailings (Bird et 79 al., 2008; Hudson-Edwards et al., 2003).

80 Evidence from water sampling surveys carried out in Hazeltine Creek shortly after the 81 breach revealed elevated (above British Columbia Water Quality Guidelines – BCWQG (British 82 Columbia Ministry of Environment (BCMoE), 2017)) filtered concentrations of several metals 83 (including Cu (maximum: 86 μ g L⁻¹) and Se (maximum 33 μ g L⁻¹) that have decreased 84 substantially since the event (Golder Associates Ltd, 2015). Following the breach, Mount Polley 85 Mining Corporation implemented an on-going rehabilitation and remediation strategy that has 86 involved removing tailings from Lower and Upper Hazeltine Creek and construction of a new 87 rock-lined channel and fish habitat (MPMC, 2015). Early evidence from geochemical 88 investigations (humidity cell and column tests) suggests Cu has limited environmental mobility (predicted maximum Cu concentration of 20 μ g L⁻¹) due to the low acid generating potential of the 89 tailings (SRK Consulting (Canada) Inc, 2015c). Overall, this result suggests the tailings may be 90 91 relatively non-reactive, thereby limiting the potential long-term chemical impacts of the spill. 92 However, column tests, while very useful, cannot entirely replicate environmental conditions in 93 complex field sites, especially at the interface between deposited tailings and the river corridor, where temperature, daylight, microbial activity, redox potential, pH and hydrology are constantly 94 95 changing. Watershed-scale investigations of trace metal dynamics are therefore required to 96 supplement existing laboratory-based microcosm data and to determine the environmental risk of 97 residual tailings in the stream corridor.

98 The Mount Polley tailings spill presents a unique opportunity to study water quality 99 impacts and water-sediment interactions in a receiving watercourse whose valley morphology was 100 re-set by the spill event and whose channel has subsequently been modified and realigned. Since 101 the event, there have been several environmental impact studies conducted by consultants on 102 behalf of Mount Polley Mining Corporation (Golder Associates Ltd, 2015; Minnow 103 Environmental Inc, 2015; SNC-Lavalin Inc, 2015; SRK Consulting (Canada) Inc, 2015a, b). The 104 initial impacts of the spill on Quesnel Lake have also been documented (Petticrew et al., 2015). 105 However, this work represents the first peer-reviewed study of the chemical impacts of the tailings 106 spill on the primary receiving watercourse. Our specific objectives were to: (1) establish the spatial pattern and sources of element loading (specifically Cu) in Hazeltine Creek and (2) assess the 107 108 potential for residual alkaline tailings in a partially-restored river corridor to influence short- to 109 long-term aqueous chemistry.

110

111 **2. Methods**

112 **2.1. Study site**

113 Mount Polley Cu and Au mine is located approximately 275 km south-east of Prince 114 George, British Columbia, Canada (Fig. 1). Hazeltine Creek is the main outlet of Polley Lake, 115 draining an area of 112 km², and flowing approximately 9.5 km into Quesnel Lake. Bedrock 116 geology in the catchment is dominated by Mesozoic (252 - 66 Ma) basaltic and andesitic volcanic 117 assemblages. The upper watershed sits partially within Late Triassic (235 - 201 Ma) alkalic 118 intrusions that host the porphyry mineralization (McMillan, 1996).

119 Prior to the spill, the Hazeltine Creek corridor was well forested with an average bank full 120 width of 5 m and consisted of riffle-pool sequences and a bedload of predominantly cobbles and 121 gravel (SNC-Lavalin Inc, 2015). Following the spill, a thick deposit of tailings (typically 1 m deep, 122 but in some locations > 3.5 m) was deposited near the dam and in parts of upper Hazeltine Creek. 123 Most of Upper Hazeltine Creek experienced rapid and steep erosion and eventually a thin layer of 124 tailings deposition (10 to 20 cm deep). At approximately 4800 - 4900 m and 5600 - 6600 m 125 downstream of the TSF, the spilled tailings were funneled through narrow canyons resulting in incision to bedrock and the removal of fine-grained sediments from within the channel zone. 126 Within Lower Hazeltine Creek, the floodplain was eroded, and tailings and native material were 127 128 deposited to depths from 0.15 to 1.5 m. Average bank full channel width after the breach was 18

129 m.

131 **2.2 Water analyses and modelling**

132 A synoptic sampling mass balance approach was utilized to identify the spatial pattern of 133 constituent concentrations and loads in the Hazeltine Creek watershed and to study the main 134 hydrological and geochemical processes driving the observed patterns. The synoptic mass balance 135 methodology for management of mine pollution was developed by the U.S. Geological Survey 136 (USGS) as part of the Abandoned Mine Lands Initiative and is based on synchronous water quality 137 and flow measurements made at multiple locations across a catchment that provide detailed spatial assessments of pollutant sources (Kimball et al., 2002). Water sampling and discharge 138 139 measurements were acquired under low flow conditions in 2015 and high flow conditions in 2016. 140 Low flow sampling was performed using the velocity-area method at 10 stream sites on August 2^{nd} 2015 (denoted as 'stream site' in Fig. 1; flow range was 140 - 250 L s⁻¹ and typical of long-141 term values for August (based on 91 measurements taken over spring, summer and autumn from 142 143 1995 to 2014) (Knight Piesold Ltd, 2014)). At the time of sampling, much of the tailings had been 144 removed in Lower Hazeltine Creek and two sedimentation ponds were operating to settle out 145 suspended particles prior to entry to Quesnel Lake (Fig. 1). Samples were also collected at 12 146 locations where water was flowing from riparian tailings into the creek from seeps or drainage 147 ditches (denoted as 'inflow site' in Fig. 1). In-situ pore water samples were collected (from 10 cm 148 and 20 cm depth) at three locations in Hazeltine Creek using a stainless steel piezometer and 149 peristaltic pump. Four additional water chemistry and flow measurements (using the tracer dilution 150 technique) were collected in Hazeltine Creek under high flow conditions (flow range was 600 -151 680 L s⁻¹ and typical of long-term spring freshet values (Knight Piesold Ltd, 2014)) in July 2016 in order to investigate potential water quality impacts during fall storm events or spring snowmelt. 152 153 Measurements from four creeks in the Quesnel River Watershed that were unaffected by the 154 tailings spill were also collected in July 2016 in order to establish the magnitude of impact in 155 Hazeltine Creek compared to the regional baseline.

156 Total and filtered (0.45 µm) cation (Al, Ca, K, Mg, Na, Si) and trace element concentrations (As, Cd, Cu, Cr, Fe, Mo, Mn, Ni, Pb, Se, V, Zn) were determined by inductively coupled plasma 157 158 - optical emission spectroscopy (Thermo Scientific iCAP 6500 Duo) and - mass spectroscopy 159 (Thermo X-series 1), respectively. Filtered anion concentrations (Cl, F, SO₄) were determined by 160 ion chromatography (Dionex ICS-2500). Speciation-solubility calculations, using the measured 161 aqueous concentrations of the Hazeltine Creek water and inflow samples, were carried out using 162 the PHREEQC code and the wateq4f.dat. thermodynamic database distributed with the code (Ball 163 and Nordstrom, 1991; Parkhurst and Appelo, 1999). Additional information on the quality control 164 and sampling and analytical protocols can be found in the electronic Supplementary Information. 165 As a result of the physical impacts of the tailings spill in Hazeltine Creek, the stream was not considered to be fish habitat at the time of this study. However, even though the stream is currently 166 167 not significantly utilized by aquatic organisms, aquatic habitat is an intended future use in the 168 longer term. Therefore, water quality was assessed based on comparisons to British Columbia 169 Water Quality Guidelines (BCWQG) (British Columbia Ministry of Environment (BCMoE), 170 2017). The 0.45 µm fraction is defined as 'filtered' in this study and is not intended to be 171 representative of the truly dissolved fraction.

172

173 **2.3 Sediment analyses**

The concentration of Cu in within-channel sediments, deposited at the channel margin along Hazeltine Creek, were measured in the field by portable X-ray fluorescence (pXRF) (Niton 176 XLp 300) with an analysis time of 60 seconds. Polished blocks of selected samples of tailings

deposited soon after the 2014 spill, and of sediments and ochres remaining in the floodplain in 2016 (denoted as 'tailings site' in Fig. 1), were examined under low vacuum with the BSE detector

179 on the Mineral Liberation Analysis (MLA) 650 FEG ESEM at Queen's University, Canada. SEM-

- 177 on the Mineral Elociation Analysis (MLA) 050 FEG ESEM at Queen's University, Canada. SEM-180 MLA has previously been used in environmental mineralogical studies to characterize and quantify
- 181 mine waste metal- and metalloid-bearing phases (Bromstad et al., 2017; DeSisto et al., 2016). A
- 182 Cu-bearing Fe oxide phase was added to the library of minerals included in the SEM-MLA
- software, for which Fe oxides with c. > 0.1 wt% Cu could be detected and mapped.
- 184

185 **3. Results and discussion**

186 **3.1 Water quality impacts**

187 Stream pH values were generally greater than 8.5 throughout the entire reach but ranged 188 between a high of 9.3 in Upper Hazeltine Creek (HC-5) and a low of 7.5 in Lower Hazeltine Creek 189 just upstream of the sedimentation pond (HC-9) (Supplementary Table S1). Prior to the dam spill, 190 the mean pH of Hazeltine Creek was reported as 8.2 (Minnow Environmental Inc, 2009). Diel variation in stream pH (Supplementary Fig. S1) recorded opposite the TSF over a 4-day period 191 $(30^{\text{th}} \text{ July to } 2^{\text{nd}} \text{ August } 2015)$ showed a range from 7.0 – 8.7 before and on the day of the synoptic 192 sampling (2nd August). Some variation on the day of synoptic sampling may reflect enhanced 193 photosynthesis due to clear skies (Gammons et al., 2015) and lower water levels due to the 194 195 operation of a streamflow control device (a weir was installed to control flow during stream 196 reconstruction). The pH values of sampled inflows (range: 7.8 - 8.7) were generally lower than 197 stream samples (range: 7.5 - 9.3) (Supplementary Table S1), particularly at sites in Upper 198 Hazeltine Creek, suggesting that the inflow waters pHs were buffered by mixing with the stream 199 water. The pH values of inflow and stream waters were more similar in Lower Hazeltine Creek 200 suggesting mixing of subsurface water and stream water in this reach. This result may explain the 201 spatial variation of stream pH with more buffering capacity existing in Upper Hazeltine Creek. 202 The high buffering capacity of stream water (range: $139 - 178 \text{ mg } \text{L}^{-1} \text{ CaCO}_3$) in Hazeltine Creek, 203 combined with the high calcite and low sulfur content of the spilled tailings (SRK Consulting 204 (Canada) Inc, 2015b), explains the alkaline pH of the stream water. Concentrations of most major 205 ions (filtered, mg L⁻¹: Ca, 44 – 357; K, 19 – 117; Mg, 8 – 77; Na, 8 – 120; Si, 3 – 11) were highest 206 in inflows in Upper Hazeltine Creek, and gradually decreased in the downstream direction 207 (Supplementary Table S1 and Supplementary Table S2).

208 Total and filtered (0.45 µm) concentrations of Cd, Mo, Ni, Pb, Se and Zn in Hazeltine 209 Creek stream water were found to be less than British Columbia Water Quality Guidelines 210 (BCWQGs – filtered concentrations, µg L⁻¹: Cd, 1; Mo, 500; Ni, 150; Pb, 170; Se, 2; Zn, 97). Filtered As (range: $7 - 8 \mu g L^{-1}$) and Cr (range: $2 - 5 \mu g L^{-1}$) concentrations were slightly above 211 environmental standards (BCWQGs – μ g L⁻¹: As, 5; Cr, 1) but Cr concentrations were comparable 212 with pre-event concentrations (range: $<1 - 4 \mu g L^{-1}$) (Golder Associates Ltd, 2015). Fe and Mn 213 214 (and Al) concentrations were within aquatic environmental standards and similar to pre-event 215 concentrations (Golder Associates Ltd, 2015). Filtered V concentrations (range: $7 - 12 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$) were elevated compared to pre-event concentrations (median: 1 µg L⁻¹) (Golder Associates Ltd, 216 2015) suggesting further investigation into the fate and behaviour of this element is warranted. 217 218 However, the main element with elevated concentrations was found to be Cu; total (range: 7 - 28 $\mu g L^{-1}$) and filtered (range: 7 – 23 $\mu g L^{-1}$) concentrations were above environmental guidelines 219 220 (BCWQGs – μ g L⁻¹: Cu, 6) throughout Hazeltine Creek and increased with distance downstream

(Supplementary Table S1 and Fig. 2a). In Upper Hazeltine Creek, around the area known as the
Polley Flats (0 – 3000 m below Polley Lake weir), Cu was higher in inflows than in the stream
water (Fig. 2b). This result suggests that the inflows were receiving Cu from residual tailings and
caused an increase in stream Cu in this part of the watershed. However, inflow Cu concentrations
farther downstream (3000 – 8500 m below Polley Lake weir) were more similar to, or lower than,
stream water concentrations in Lower Hazeltine Creek, suggesting surface inflow waters were not
the only source of Cu in the watershed.

228

229 3.2 Sediment quality impacts

230 pXRF survey of within channel sediments along the entire length of Hazeltine Creek 231 revealed elevated Cu concentrations throughout the river corridor at the time of our sampling in 232 2015 (Fig. 3). Copper concentrations in material present on the floodplain surface up to 50 m distance from the channel ranged from 88 to 1020 mg kg⁻¹. These values exceeded both the 233 threshold effect level (TEL: 37.5 mg kg⁻¹) and predicted effect level (PEL: 197 mg kg⁻¹) for Cu 234 (British Columbia Ministry of Environment (BCMoE), 2015), and also the mean Cu 235 236 concentrations of Hazeltine Creek sediments before the breach (Minnow Environmental Inc, 237 2015). The Cu concentrations reported were comparable to other rivers affected by tailings spills 238 (Bird et al., 2008; Hudson-Edwards et al., 2003; Kossoff et al., 2014) and historical mining 239 operations (Gilchrist et al., 2009; Macklin et al., 2006). Cu concentrations were elevated in both 240 silt-sized material, believed to reflect tailings-dominated material (range $89 - 419 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$) and sand-sized material, believed to reflect magnetite-rich sands (range $72 - 800 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$). The highest 241 242 concentrations occurred in the magnetite sands in the second canyon between 5700 and 6700 m 243 (Fig. 3).

244

245 **3.3 Stream copper loading and source areas**

246 Synoptic sampling of streamflow and stream Cu concentrations is used here to identify and 247 quantify sources of Cu to Hazeltine Creek under low flow conditions. Flow measurements are 248 presented in Supplementary Fig. S2. Spatial profiles of filtered and total Cu loading show a general 249 increase downstream of the Polley Lake weir (Fig. 2c); the maximum filtered (453 g day⁻¹) and 250 total (549 g day⁻¹) loads were recorded at HC-8. The primary source of total (67%) and filtered (68%) Cu loading in Hazeltine Creek was the reach from HC-1 to HC-6 (0 - 4000 m) which 251 252 comprised residual tailings in Upper Hazeltine Creek (Fig. 2c; source area #1). In this reach, 253 filtered Cu loads increased consistently and there was no difference between cumulative (the sum 254 of all loadings in the reaches where a positive change in loading was measured) and measured 255 filtered Cu loads (Supplementary Fig. S3), suggesting there was no chemical attenuation 256 (precipitation or adsorption) of Cu here. Total loads exhibit a similar profile to filtered loads in this reach aside from a slight decrease in load between HC-3 and HC-4. The general increase in 257 258 Cu loading through this reach is most likely due to inflow waters with elevated filtered and 259 particulate Cu concentrations that are draining the residual tailings (Fig. 2b). The increase in 260 filtered and total loads between HC-5 and HC-6 was probably due to surface and/or subsurface inflows that were not sampled. The secondary source of total (33%) and filtered (32%) Cu loading 261 262 was the reach from HC-6 to HC-10 which comprised the two bedrock canyons and Upper Hazeltine Creek (Fig. 2c; source area #2). Copper loading through this reach was more variable 263 264 than further upstream but a notable increase in total and filtered loads occurred through Canvon 2 265 (HC-8) followed by similar magnitude decreases downstream of the canyon in Lower Hazeltine 266 Creek (HC-9). A slight increase in loads downstream of the sedimentation pond (HC-10) prior to

267 discharge into Quesnel Lake was probably due to elevated Cu concentrations in the sedimentation 268 pond (Fig. 2b). Considering stream Cu loading in the entire watershed, the differences between 269 cumulative and measured Cu loads suggests 18% and 39% of the total and filtered Cu, respectively, 270 added to Hazeltine Creek along its course was attenuated prior to discharge into Quesnel Lake 271 (Supplementary Fig. S3). The alkaline stream water and high calcite and low sulfur content of the 272 Mount Polley tailings undoubtedly limits mobilization and transport of Cu and other trace metals 273 in Hazeltine Creek (Nordstrom, 2011). Nevertheless, the gradual increase in Cu concentrations 274 and loads in the stream suggests aqueous and total Cu phases were influencing stream chemistry 275 (Fig. 2). The following sections present results and discussion aimed at elucidating the mechanisms 276 that may be responsible for the observed spatial pattern of Cu loading.

277

278 **3.4 Copper mobilization and transport**

279 The primary source of stream Cu loading identified in 2015 was the residual tailings (0 -280 4000 m) in Upper Hazeltine Creek. Whilst on-going remediation activities in Hazeltine Creek have 281 removed much of the spilled tailings, substantial volumes remain in the river corridor (most 282 notably in the Polley Flats area opposite the TSF in Upper Hazeltine Creek) intermixed with 283 natural materials. Groundwater seeps and drainage ditches in Upper Hazeltine Creek that were 284 connected to Hazeltine Creek in 2015 contained elevated concentrations of filtered (up to 37 µg L⁻ ¹) and total Cu (up to 148 μ g L⁻¹) (Fig. 2b, 4a). At the water pH values measured in these inflows, 285 286 Cu is predicted to have been present principally as Cu(II) hydroxide (Cu(OH)₂), with Cu(II) 287 carbonate (CuCO₃) also present in some samples. Speciation modelling of inflow waters indicates 288 cuprite was saturated (SI = -2 to +2) (Supplementary Table S3), and minor amounts of cuprite and chrysocolla were identified in SEM-MLA, suggesting these minerals exerted a solubility control 289 290 over Cu in these waters. The presence of elevated filtered Fe (up to 194 μ g L⁻¹), Cu (up to 38 μ g 291 L⁻¹) and SO₄ (up to 966 mg L⁻¹) in these inflows (Fig. 4a, b, d) suggests weathering of chalcopyrite 292 (CuFeS₂) was occurring in the tailings in source area #1 (Fig. 2c). In addition, SEM-MLA 293 investigations provide evidence of chalcopyrite altering directly to Cu-bearing Fe oxides, possibly 294 ferrihvdrite, in the tailings (Fig. 5a, b; Supplementary Figure S4). Such Cu-bearing Fe oxide is a 295 commonly-observed product for alkaline oxidation of chalcopyrite (Vaughan and Coker, 2017; 296 Yin et al., 2000). Weathering of Mn oxides was also indicated with elevated Mn (up to 7343 μ g L⁻ 297 ¹) and saturation of rhodocrosite in inflow waters (Supplementary Table S3). Oxidation of 298 chalcopyrite in near-surface tailings followed by rainfall and infiltration of rainwater into the 299 tailings will dissolve the oxidation products and produce leachate with elevated dissolved Cu, Fe 300 and SO₄. This leachate could be transported through the tailings to groundwater seeps and drainage 301 ditches through surface run-off and via subsurface flow paths along the tailings / glacial till 302 interface. The hydraulic residence time of mobilized Cu leachate within the tailings will play an 303 important role in Cu transport to groundwater seeps and drainage ditches and, ultimately, to stream 304 water (Fuller and Harvey, 2000; Gandy et al., 2007). Fine-grained material (such as the clay and 305 silt-sized 'grey' tailings) will increase residence time and limit the rate of oxygen diffusion, 306 thereby maintaining Cu in relatively insoluble forms (Gandy et al., 2007). Evidence from column 307 and humidity cell tests suggests mineral solubility controls (e.g. ferrihydrite) will limit Cu leaching 308 in fine-grained tailings where flow paths are longer than half a meter (SRK Consulting (Canada) 309 Inc, 2015a). Shorter flow paths, such as those that characterize sediments in the riparian zone, are 310 more likely to remain oxic which could explain the elevated Cu measured in riparian groundwater 311 seeps and drainage ditches during this study.

312 The impact of Cu weathering in the tailings is clearly evident in the increase in total and 313 filtered Cu concentrations in drainage ditches and inflows, and in the increase in stream Cu loads 314 between HC-1 and HC-6. Filtered Cu increased through this reach and the relative contribution of 315 filtered Cu to the overall Cu load increased from 0.5 (at HC-3) to 0.9 (at HC-6). There are three 316 potential explanations for this. First, the increase could have been due to high filtered 317 concentrations in subsurface inflows that were not sampled in this study. The valley morphology 318 in Upper Hazeltine Creek was modified through erosion of natural materials and deposition of a 319 mixture of tailings and natural materials which buried many smaller tributary inflows to the main 320 river channel. Inflows from some of these inundated tributaries were evident as seeps in Upper 321 Hazeltine Creek in 2015 and 2016. Second, complexation with dissolved organic carbon (DOC) 322 could have increased the solubility of Cu in this reach. Copper is well known to bind strongly with 323 DOC in aquatic environments, in the form of fulvic and humic acids, and Cu speciation is often 324 dominated by Cu-organic complexes (Stumm and Morgan, 1996; Tipping et al., 2002). Whilst 325 DOC concentrations were not measured in the present study (and therefore, not modelled using 326 PHREEQC in this study), a previous study found that elevated Cu concentrations in drainage 327 ditches and stream water in Upper Hazeltine Creek, believed to be due to drainage from a cedar 328 swamp, coincided with elevated concentrations of DOC (SRK Consulting (Canada) Inc, 2016). In 329 addition, speciation modelling suggested that >93% of dissolved Cu was complexed with organic 330 ligands (SRK Consulting (Canada) Inc, 2016). Third, kinetic constraints on mineral solubility 331 could have prevented Cu from precipitating between HC-1 and HC-6. Speciation modelling 332 suggests stream water from HC-1 to HC-6 was less saturated with respect to cuprite than inflow 333 waters (Supplementary Table S3). In reality, it is probably a combination of these three processes 334 that accounts for the behavior of Cu through this reach. Weathering of chalcopyrite in residual 335 tailings, and erosion / suspension of particulate Cu phases in the stream corridor, caused elevated 336 total and filtered Cu concentrations in drainage ditches and surface and subsurface inflow waters. 337 Kinetic constraints in the stream water from HC-1 to HC-6 could then have prevented Cu from 338 precipitating; in this scenario Cu was most likely complexed with DOC.

339 Whilst chalcopyrite weathering in riparian tailings may have been the primary source of 340 Cu loading in Hazeltine Creek, evidence from this study suggests another potential source of 341 aqueous Cu throughout the stream corridor at the time of sampling. Filtered concentrations of Cu were found to be elevated (range: $43 - 1017 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$) in sediment pore waters (relative to stream 342 343 waters) recovered through in-situ sampling (Fig. 4a and Fig. 6a), suggesting a mechanism of Cu 344 release was operating in the stream sediments. Release of Cu in the streambed could be related to 345 either oxidation of chalcopyrite or reductive dissolution of Cu-bearing oxides. Whilst Cu sulfides 346 can be oxidized in subaqueous environments if the waters contain sufficient oxygen (Todd et al., 347 2003), an increase in SO₄ in pore waters would have been expected to accompany the increase in 348 filtered Cu as evidence of Cu sulfide weathering, and this was not evident in Hazeltine Creek pore 349 waters (Fig. 4d and Fig. 6d). A more plausible mechanism for Cu release in the streambed is 350 reductive dissolution of Cu-bearing Fe oxides given the elevated filtered concentrations of Fe (range: $63 - 3510 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$) and Mn ($18 - 1468 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$) found in sediment pore waters (relative to 351 352 stream waters) (Fig. 4b,c and Fig. 6b,c). Filtered Fe and Mn was strongly and significantly 353 correlated with filtered Cu in the streambed pore waters (Supplementary Figure S4). In addition, 354 sequential extraction tests conducted on Hazeltine Creek sediment indicates that the reducible 355 geochemical phase is an important host for Cu (Minnow Environmental Inc, 2015; SRK 356 Consulting (Canada) Inc, 2015c) and several investigations have highlighted reductive dissolution as an important mechanism driving aqueous Cu release in the streambed (Calmano et al., 1993). 357

358 Although positive ORP values were recorded in pore waters in this study (Fig. 4f), potentially 359 suggesting an oxic system, in the absence of low pH (acidic) streambed pore waters, the only 360 mechanism capable of producing the high filtered Fe and Mn concentrations found in Hazeltine 361 Creek pore waters was reductive dissolution (Kimball et al., 2016). The highest pore water Cu and 362 Fe concentrations were generally recorded at 10 cm depth but then declined at 0 cm depth (surface 363 water) suggesting that diffusion of the released Cu to stream water was mediated by 364 (co)precipitation and / or sorption reactions (Fig. 6). Cuprite was saturated at the sediment-water 365 interface (0 - 10 cm) (Supplementary Table S3), however ferrihydrite was supersaturated and sorption of Cu(II) to Fe oxides is well documented in neutral and alkaline systems (Kimball et al., 366 2016; Koski et al., 2008). Furthermore, evidence from SEM-MLA analysis indicates the presence 367 of Cu-bearing Fe oxides in the stream sediments (Fig. 5c, d; Supplementary Figure S4). Oxidation 368 369 of the tailings chalcopyrite to Cu-bearing Fe oxide could have occurred either before (in the TSF) 370 or after the 2014 tailings spill (in Hazeltine Creek). However, textural evidence strongly suggests 371 that some of the Cu-bearing Fe oxides formed as discrete phases following deposition in Hazeltine 372 Creek; this pattern is particularly evident in the Fe ochre sample collected from a seep mid-way 373 down Hazeltine Creek (Fig. 5c, d). Also, the chalcopyrite: Cu-bearing Fe oxide ratio decreases 374 from 0.36 - 0.57 in the 2014 deposited tailings, to 0.19 - 0.24 in the upper part of the Polley Flats, 375 and to 0.00 - 0.06 in the lower part of the Polley Flats and further down Hazeltine Creek 376 (Supplementary Table S4). This suggests that chalcopyrite oxidation and/or formation of discrete 377 Cu-bearing Fe oxides increased in Hazeltine Creek between 2014 and 2016 and with distance 378 downstream of the TSF.

379 The secondary source of Cu loading in Hazeltine Creek occurred from HC-6 to HC-10. The highest loading within this reach appeared to be Canvon 2 (5700 - 6700 m) in Upper Hazeltine 380 381 Creek, most likely as a consequence of high water velocities and turbulence that eroded and 382 suspended streamside and streambed sediments with high Cu concentrations (Fig. 3). Through this 383 reach, there was a decrease in the relative contribution of filtered Cu to the overall Cu load from 384 0.9 (at HC-6) to 0.6 (at HC-10), suggesting (co)precipitation and / or sorption of filtered Cu species 385 may have occurred. It appears that although Cu precipitation from HC-1 to HC-6 was limited by 386 kinetic constraints, an approach towards thermodynamic equilibrium occurred from HC-6 to HC-387 10. Evidence for this can be seen in the shift from under saturation (HC-1 to HC-6) to saturation 388 (HC-6 to HC-10) for cuprite (Supplementary Table S3) and could reflect the reduced number of 389 inflows in the lower reach that could alter stream chemistry. As well as precipitation of secondary 390 Cu minerals, Cu sorption to particulate Fe phases (ferrihydrite) could also have been important for 391 removing filtered Cu (Fig. 5; Supplementary Table S4) (Kimball et al., 2016). Elevated Cu 392 concentrations in the sedimentation pond at the time of sampling probably caused the slight 393 increase in Cu loads between HC-9 and HC-10.

394 Consideration of the evidence presented in this study allows us to derive a conceptual 395 model of Cu cycling in the Hazeltine Creek watershed (Fig. 7). Oxygen diffusion in streamside 396 tailings in Upper Hazeltine Creek could drive oxidation of chalcopyrite in near-surface tailings 397 with reductive dissolution of Cu-bearing Fe oxides potentially occurring in deeper, anoxic tailings 398 (Fig. 7a). Rainfall and infiltration in the tailings could dissolve the oxidation by-products which 399 could be transported to drainage ditches and Hazeltine Creek water through surface runoff and / 400 or subsurface flow. Any free ionic Cu present would probably form aqueous organic complexes 401 and / or sorb to particulate Fe oxides. Copper mobilization in stream sediments could occur by 402 reductive dissolution of Cu-bearing Fe oxides (Fig. 7b). The released Cu could form insoluble Cu sulfides in the stream sediment or diffuse through the sediment-water interface where it would be 403

404 complexed with organic matter and / or sorb to particulate Fe oxides. Finally, physical mobilization
 405 of particulate Cu through Canyon 2 could occur through erosion / suspension of Cu-rich sediments
 406 and streamside tailings in this high-gradient, turbulent and constrained reach.

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408 **3.5 Long-term implications**

409 Following the accident, Mount Polley Mining Corporation acted swiftly and removed most 410 of the spilled tailings in Lower Hazeltine Creek within a few months of the accident. This strategy 411 has undoubtedly reduced the short- to long-term chemical impacts in the watershed. Since this study, further tailings have been removed in Upper Hazeltine Creek, though some tailings still 412 413 remain intermixed with natural soil and sediment along parts of the stream corridor. Removal of 414 spilled tailings is the most common remedial measure taken for tailings dam spills (Kossoff et al., 415 2014) and has been shown to considerably reduce long-term impacts on ecosystems (Hudson-416 Edwards et al., 2003). However, despite the relatively low chemical impacts of the Mount Polley 417 spill, mobilization of particulate and aqueous Cu phases was evident in Hazeltine Creek at the time 418 of this study and could influence stream chemistry into the future. The processes driving Cu 419 mobilization are hypothesized to be (in order of decreasing importance): (i) chemical mobilization 420 in streamside tailings through primary sulfide oxidation, (ii) physical erosion / suspension of 421 particulate and colloidal phases in residual streamside and streambed tailings, and (iii) chemical 422 mobilization in streambed sediments through reductive dissolution of Cu-bearing Fe oxides. The 423 following sections discuss how these processes may evolve in the future and how the chemical 424 perturbation in Hazeltine Creek compares to pre-event conditions and other mine waste-impacted 425 watersheds around the world.

426 Restoration of the Hazeltine Creek river corridor was aimed at limiting further erosion of 427 tailings and turbidity in the stream. As a result, significant reductions in element concentrations 428 and turbidity were achieved in the weeks and months after the spill (Golder Associates Ltd, 2015; 429 MPMC, 2015). However, increases in particulate loading observed in this study suggests physical 430 erosion and suspension is a mechanism for Cu mobilization even at low flows. This was most 431 evident in the reach comprising the two canvons, possibly due to higher stream turbulence in this 432 constricted reach and greater connectivity between the stream and deposited tailings. In the future, 433 as river flow and water levels rise in response to rainfall or snowmelt, it will come into contact 434 with, and possibly erode, streamside tailings (intermixed with native materials) that remain dry during lower flow conditions. This process has been shown to result in order of magnitude 435 436 increases in both filtered and total metal loads in mining-affected watersheds (Byrne et al., 2013; 437 Canovas et al., 2008; Gozzard et al., 2011; Nordstrom, 2011; Runkel et al., 2016) and is evident 438 in the water samples taken in July 2016 under high flow conditions (Fig. 8 and Supplementary 439 Figure S2). While transport of Cu was predominantly as filtered load at low flow (64% at HC-9), 440 particulate-bound load was clearly dominant at high flow (85% at HC-9), probably due to the 441 erosion of streamside tailings. Construction of fish habitat was underway during the high flow 442 sampling in 2016 which may also partially explain the observed increases in particulate 443 concentrations and loads. However, it is not unrealistic to hypothesize that construction activities 444 in the stream could have a similar effect on particulate transport as high flow events in the future. 445 Streams in the Quesnel River Basin follow a nival hydrological regime driven by spring snowmelt. 446 The high flow data for Hazeltine Creek, although based on a limited number of samples, and 447 collected during construction of fish habitat, suggest that elevated Cu loads due to physical mobilization of residual tailings could be problematic during the spring months due to snowmelt. 448

449 Chemical mobilization of Cu in streamside tailings should be expected to decrease in the 450 future due to the gradual exhaustion of reactive materials. This decrease may be superimposed on 451 by short periods of increased mobilization driven by seasonal oxidation of chalcopyrite under 452 snow/ice cover and during prolonged dry periods. Subsequent flushing of accumulated weathering 453 products by snow melt (in spring) and precipitation events (in fall) may drive temporary increases 454 in Cu concentrations in Hazeltine Creek during these times (Canovas et al., 2008; SRK Consulting 455 (Canada) Inc, 2016). The important role of reductive dissolution in metal mobilization in 456 streambed environments has been known for some time (Fuller and Bargar, 2014; Fuller and 457 Harvey, 2000; Gandy et al., 2007), although it has never been studied in a river system whose 458 channel morphology was re-set by a tailings spill and subsequent river restoration. Tailings 459 material is now intermixed with natural sediment in the restored river channel and elevated Cu 460 concentrations are present in the sediment and pore waters. It is unknown how the actively 461 evolving hydrogeomorphic environment may affect hyporheic exchange and biogeochemical 462 processing in the streambed. The future evolution of the geomorphic environment, in response to high magnitude flow events, will control the functioning of hyporheic processes, including those 463 464 that affect Cu cycling (Krause et al., 2011). For example, changes in stream gradient, morphology 465 and suspended sediment transport, could modify patterns of hyporheic exchange leading to oxic environments favorable for the oxidation of Cu sulfides (chalcopyrite) (Heppell et al., 2013), 466 467 which are the primary host for Cu in Hazeltine Creek sediments (SRK Consulting (Canada) Inc, 468 2016). Based on the findings of this study, it is recommended that pore water chemistry in 469 Hazeltine Creek is monitored to chart changes in response to the changing hydrogeomorphic 470 environment. More widely, hyporheic processes should be included in conceptual models of element cycling in watersheds affected by mine tailings spills. 471

472 There have been a number of recent high-profile mine tailings and mine waste spills (Minas 473 Gerais, Brazil, 2015; Gold Creek Mine, 2015, USA; Ajka, Hungary, 2010) that highlight the 474 increasing global environmental risk of such events (Hudson-Edwards, 2016; Mayes et al., 2011). 475 Many, but not all, examples of mine tailings spills are characterized by acid-generating and 476 metalliferous materials that can produce severe and long-lasting chemical impacts in receiving 477 watercourses (Kossoff et al., 2014; Kraus and Wiegand, 2006). This is because acid generating 478 tailings increase the solubility of metals leading to high stream metal concentrations and loads and, 479 frequently, negative biological impacts (Taggart et al., 2006). The data reported here suggest the Mount Polley tailings spill has left a chemical footprint in Hazeltine Creek. However, water and 480 481 sediment quality impacts are primarily limited to Cu due to the relatively low metal and metalloid 482 content of the spilled tailings. It is important to stress that though chemical mobilization of Cu was 483 apparent in Hazeltine Creek at the time of this study, natural attenuation mechanisms of sorption, 484 precipitation and complexation in the alkaline stream water limit stream Cu concentrations to 485 levels only marginally above BCWQGs. Equilibrium modelling of Cu concentration in Hazeltine Creek suggest an upper limit of 20 μ g L⁻¹ (SRK Consulting (Canada) Inc. 2015a) and this figure 486 487 is consistent with stream water concentrations (filtered) found in this study (range: $7 - 23 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$). 488 It is also possible that further removal of tailings since this study may have reduced stream Cu 489 loading and concentrations below what was recorded in this study. A useful exercise to 490 contextualize the effects of the tailings spill on water quality and Cu transport is to compare computed flux (kg yr⁻¹) and yield (kg km² yr⁻¹) values for Hazeltine Creek (low and high flow 491 492 data) with values from unaffected regional watersheds and other mining-affected watercourses around the world (low flow data only) (Fig. 8). Data for Hazeltine Creek are from sample point 493 494 HC-9 to consider watershed flux without the influence of the sedimentation pond that will not

495 operate in the long-term. Considering the low flow data, watershed Cu flux is elevated when 496 compared with the regional background values. However, the Cu yield (volume of Cu weighted 497 by watershed area) in Hazeltine Creek is only slightly higher than values from Edney Creek 498 (unaffected tributary of Hazeltine Creek) and similar to Cub Creek (unaffected smaller regional 499 watershed) which suggests a relatively minor departure from background Cu yield. Comparison 500 of low flow data with some mining-affected watersheds around the world reveals Cu loads and 501 yields are generally several orders of magnitude greater than in Hazeltine Creek.

502

503 4. Conclusions

504 The Mount Polley mine tailings spill in August 2014 was one of the largest on record 505 (estimated 25 Mm³ of tailings and supernatant water). Valley morphology was significantly altered 506 in the main receiving watercourse, Hazeltine Creek, through erosion of natural materials and then 507 deposition of tailings intermixed with natural materials. Although physical disturbance of 508 Hazeltine Creek was significant, this study has found the chemical impact of the spill to be 509 relatively low and restricted primarily to particulate and aqueous Cu, which was found to be 510 marginally above BCWQGs. Although the high calcite and low sulfur content of the mine tailings, 511 and the alkaline stream water of Hazeltine Creek, limit the potentially mobility of Cu in this 512 watershed, evidence from this study suggests chemical and physical Cu mobilization were 513 occurring throughout the watershed at the time of our sampling in 2015 and 2016. Copper sulfide 514 weathering in streamside tailings was hypothesized to cause elevated stream Cu loads in Upper 515 Hazeltine Creek. In addition, reductive dissolution of Cu-bearing Fe oxides is thought to have 516 caused elevated filtered Cu in streambed pore waters, though diffusion of this Cu to surface water was probably mediated by sorption to Fe oxides at the sediment-water interface. Physical 517 518 mobilization was apparently associated with high water velocities and turbulences encountered in 519 a high gradient, bedrock canyon with elevated stream sediment Cu concentrations. River 520 restoration focused on the removal of most deposited tailings, re-introduction of riparian 521 vegetation and the construction of a new stream corridor should, in time, reduce the physical and 522 chemical mobilization of Cu from residual tailings in Hazeltine Creek. However, this long-term 523 decrease in Cu transport will be superimposed on by variability driven by: (i) seasonal oxidation 524 of tailings and flushing of Cu and (ii) high flow events associated with snowmelt and precipitation 525 in spring and fall, respectively. In the meantime, transport of Cu from Hazeltine Creek to Quesnel Lake may be slightly higher than before the tailings dam spill. However, given the size of Quesnel 526 527 Lake, and the relatively low Cu flux from Hazeltine Creek, this additional Cu load should have a 528 negligible impact on lake water quality and ecosystem processes. Our data highlights how swift 529 removal of spilled tailings and river corridor stabilization can limit chemical impacts in affected 530 watersheds but also how chemical mobilization (of Cu) can still occur when the spilled tailings 531 and the receiving environment are alkaline. This data can be utilized to help design and implement 532 future post-spill restoration schemes.

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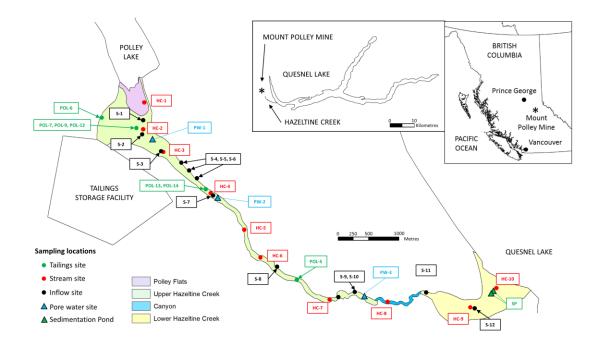


Figure 1. Location of study area showing tailings, stream (streamflow and water quality) andinflow (water quality only) sample sites.

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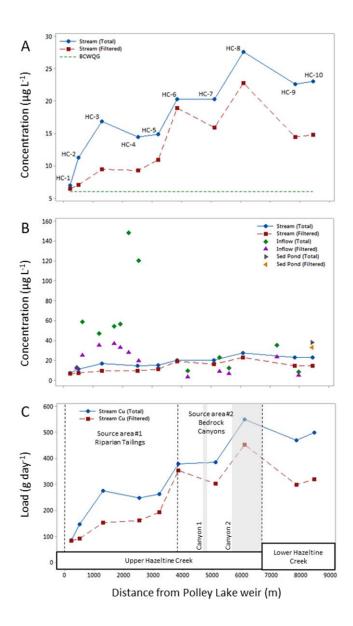




Figure 2. (A) Spatial profiles of stream total and filtered Cu concentrations with British Columbia
Water Quality Guideline (BCWQG). (B) Spatial profile of stream filtered Cu concentration and
inflow (total and filtered) Cu concentrations. (C) Spatial profiles of total and filtered Cu loads.
Samples were collected in August 2015.

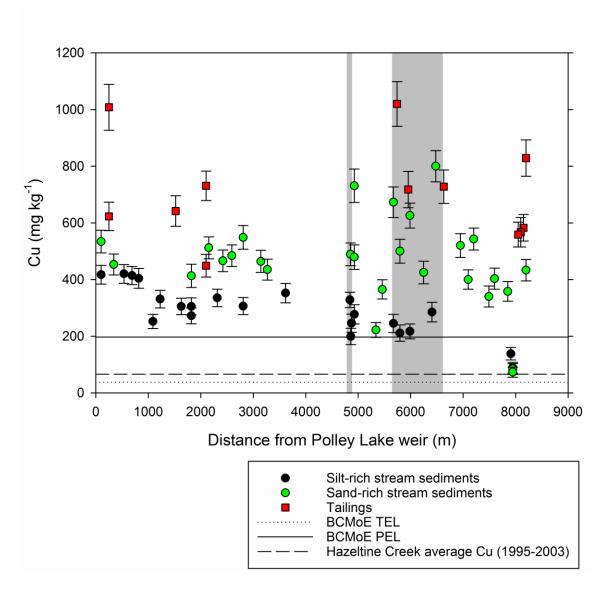


Figure 3. pXRF-derived Cu concentrations of sediments in Hazeltine Creek sampled on August
 1st 2014. Dotted line and solid line represent British Columbia Ministry of Environment (BCMoE)
 Threshold Effect Limits (TEL) and Predicted Effect Limits (PEL), respectively (British Columbia
 Ministry of Environment (BCMoE), 2015). The dashed line represents the Hazeltine Creek
 average Cu concentration from 1995 – 2003 (Golder Associates Ltd, 2015). Grey vertical bars
 represent the locations of two bedrock canyons at 4800 – 4900 m and 5600 – 6600 m below Polley
 Lake weir.

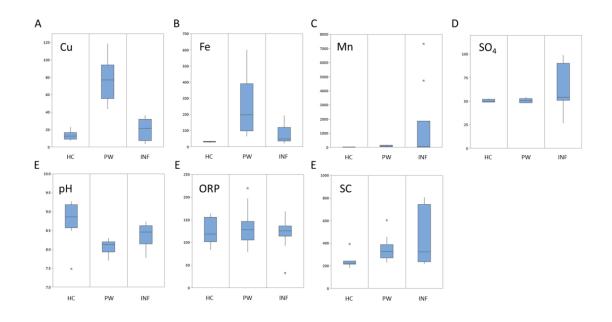
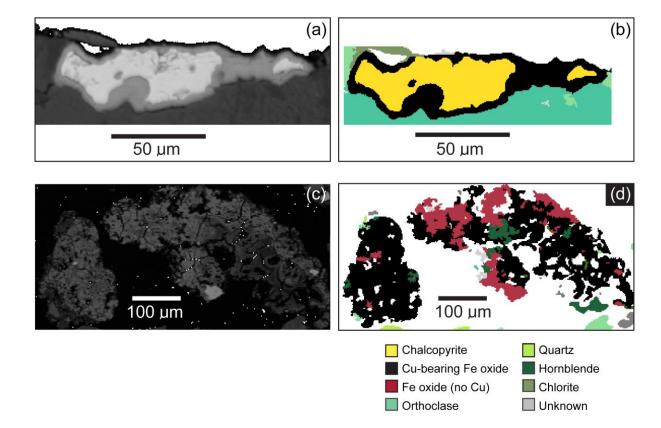


Figure 4. Summary of (A - C) filtered Cu, Fe, and Mn concentrations (μ g L⁻¹), (D) sulfate (mg L⁻¹)

741 ¹), (E) pH, (F) ORP (mV) and (G) specific conductivity (μ S cm⁻¹) in Hazeltine Creek stream water

742 (HC), streambed pore waters (PW) and watershed inflows (INF).



- 756 Figure 5. (a) Backscatter SEM image showing chalcopyrite (white) altered to Cu-bearing Fe oxide
- 757 (medium gray) in sample POL5; (b) MLA mineral apportionment of (a); (c) backscatter SEM
- image of Fe ochre sample POL13; (d) MLA mineral apportionment of (c) showing abundance of
- 759 Cu-bearing Fe oxide.

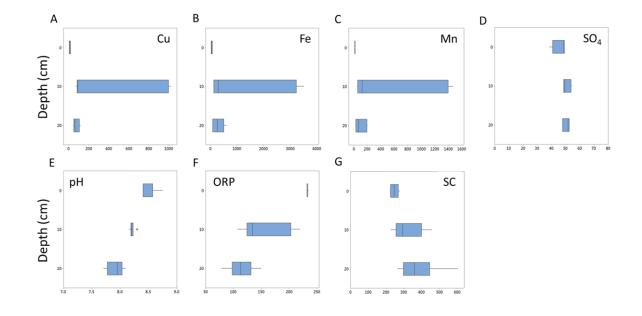


Figure 6. Summary of (A - C) filtered Cu, Fe, and Mn concentrations $(\mu g L^{-1})$, (D) sulfate $(mg L^{-1})$, (E) pH, (F) ORP (mV) and (G) specific conductivity $(\mu S cm^{-1})$ in Hazeltine Creek streambed pore waters (0 cm = surface water).

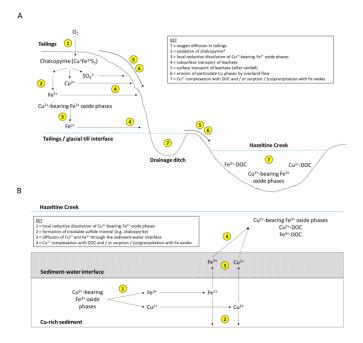
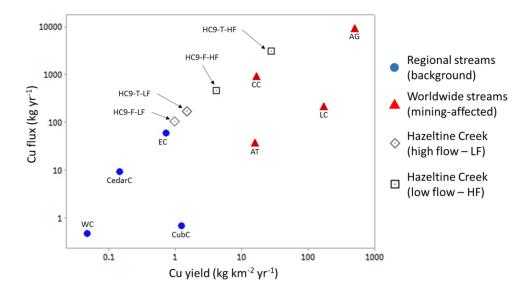


Figure 7. Conceptual model of Cu transport and cycling in the Hazeltine Creek watershed following the mine tailings spill. A = Polley Flats; B = streambed sediments. *Recent evidence suggests oxidation of chalcopyrite may directly yield Fe3⁺ (Pearce et al., 2006).



801 Figure 8. Cu flux and yield for Hazeltine Creek, regional streams (background) and worldwide

802 streams (mining-affected). Note the logarithmic axes. Hazeltine Creek: HF = high flow; LF = low

803 flow; T = total load; F = filtered load. Regional streams: WC = Winkley Creek; CedarC = Cedar

804 Creek; CubC = Cub Creek; EC = Edney Creek. Worldwide streams: AT = Afon Twymyn (Wales)

805 (Byrne et al., 2013); LC = Lion Creek (USA) (Byrne et al., in press); CC = Cement Creek (USA)

806 (Runkel et al., 2016); AG = Afon Goch (Wales) (Mayes et al., 2010).