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# Water quality impacts and river system recovery following the 2014 Mount Polley mine tailings dam spill, British Columbia, Canada

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## ABSTRACT

The Mount Polley mine tailings embankment breach on August 4<sup>th</sup> 2014, in British Columbia, Canada, is the second largest mine waste spill on record. The mine operator responded swiftly by 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 opportunity to study spatial patterns of element cycling in a partially-restored and alkaline river system. Overall, water quality impacts are considered low with Cu, and to a lesser extent V, being the only elements of concern. However, the spatial pattern of stream Cu loading suggested chemical (dominant at low flow) and physical (dominant at high flow) mobilization processes operating in different parts of the watershed. Chemical mobilization was hypothesized to be due to Cu sulfide (chalcopyrite) oxidation in riparian tailings and reductive dissolution of Cu-bearing Fe oxides in tailings and streambed sediments whereas physical mobilization was due to erosion and suspension of Cu-rich stream sediments further downstream. Although elevated aqueous Cu was evident in Hazeltine Creek, this is considered a relatively minor perturbation to a watershed with naturally elevated stream Cu concentrations. The alkaline nature of the tailings and the receiving watercourse ensures most aqueous Cu is rapidly complexed with dissolved organic matter or precipitates as secondary mineral phases. Our data highlights how swift removal of 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

45 On August 4<sup>th</sup> 2014, a partial embankment breach of the Mount Polley tailings storage  
46 facility (TSF) in British Columbia, Canada, led to the release of approximately 25 Mm<sup>3</sup> 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  
50 Review Panel, 2015). The Mount Polley event was significant for four reasons. First, at the time  
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  
66 existing valley, both vertically and laterally (SNC-Lavalin Inc, 2015). Subsequently, thick deposits  
67 of tailings (up to 3.5 m thick) occurred primarily near Polley Lake and in Lower Hazeltine Creek  
68 with thinner layers occurring in other parts of the creek. Tailings were deposited within the riparian  
69 zone up to 100 m from Hazeltine Creek.

70 The ore body at Mount Polley is a typical alkalic porphyry Cu-Au deposit with supergene  
71 enrichment (McMillan, 1996). The dominant ore mineral is chalcopyrite (CuFeS<sub>2</sub>), but Cu also  
72 occurs as other sulfide (bornite – Cu<sub>5</sub>FeS<sub>4</sub>, covellite – CuS, digenite – Cu<sub>9</sub>S<sub>5</sub>), silicate (chrysocolla  
73 – (Cu,Al)<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>Si<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>(OH)<sub>4</sub>.nH<sub>2</sub>O) and carbonate hydroxide minerals (malachite – Cu<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>(OH)<sub>2</sub>)  
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<sup>-1</sup>: 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 µg L<sup>-1</sup>) and Se (maximum 33 µg L<sup>-1</sup>) 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  
89 (predicted maximum Cu concentration of  $20 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) due to the low acid generating potential of the  
90 tailings (SRK Consulting (Canada) Inc, 2015c). Overall, this result suggests the tailings may be  
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,  
94 where temperature, daylight, microbial activity, redox potential, pH and hydrology are constantly  
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  
107 pattern and sources of element loading (specifically Cu) in Hazeltine Creek and (2) assess the  
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  $112 \text{ km}^2$ , 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  $> 3.5 \text{ m}$ ) 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  
126 incision to bedrock and the removal of fine-grained sediments from within the channel zone.  
127 Within Lower Hazeltine Creek, the floodplain was eroded, and tailings and native material were  
128 deposited to depths from 0.15 to 1.5 m. Average bank full channel width after the breach was 18  
129 m.

130

## 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  
138 assessments of pollutant sources (Kimball et al., 2002). Water sampling and discharge  
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  
141 2<sup>nd</sup> 2015 (denoted as ‘stream site’ in Fig. 1; flow range was 140 – 250 L s<sup>-1</sup> and typical of long-  
142 term values for August (based on 91 measurements taken over spring, summer and autumn from  
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<sup>-1</sup> and typical of long-term spring freshet values (Knight Piesold Ltd, 2014)) in July 2016  
152 in order to investigate potential water quality impacts during fall storm events or spring snowmelt.  
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  
157 (As, Cd, Cu, Cr, Fe, Mo, Mn, Ni, Pb, Se, V, Zn) were determined by inductively coupled plasma  
158 – optical emission spectroscopy (Thermo Scientific iCAP 6500 Duo) and – mass spectroscopy  
159 (Thermo X-series 1), respectively. Filtered anion concentrations (Cl, F, SO<sub>4</sub>) 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  
166 considered to be fish habitat at the time of this study. However, even though the stream is currently  
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**

174 The concentration of Cu in within-channel sediments, deposited at the channel margin  
175 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  
177 deposited soon after the 2014 spill, and of sediments and ochres remaining in the floodplain in  
178 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-  
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  
183 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  
191 variation in stream pH (Supplementary Fig. S1) recorded opposite the TSF over a 4-day period  
192 (30<sup>th</sup> July to 2<sup>nd</sup> August 2015) showed a range from 7.0 – 8.7 before and on the day of the synoptic  
193 sampling (2<sup>nd</sup> August). Some variation on the day of synoptic sampling may reflect enhanced  
194 photosynthesis due to clear skies (Gammons et al., 2015) and lower water levels due to the  
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 mg L<sup>-1</sup> CaCO<sub>3</sub>) 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<sup>-1</sup>: 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<sup>-1</sup>: Cd, 1; Mo, 500; Ni, 150; Pb, 170; Se, 2; Zn, 97).  
211 Filtered As (range: 7 – 8 µg L<sup>-1</sup>) and Cr (range: 2 – 5 µg L<sup>-1</sup>) concentrations were slightly above  
212 environmental standards (BCWQGs – µg L<sup>-1</sup>: As, 5; Cr, 1) but Cr concentrations were comparable  
213 with pre-event concentrations (range: <1 – 4 µg L<sup>-1</sup>) (Golder Associates Ltd, 2015). Fe and Mn  
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 µg L<sup>-1</sup>)  
216 were elevated compared to pre-event concentrations (median: 1 µg L<sup>-1</sup>) (Golder Associates Ltd,  
217 2015) suggesting further investigation into the fate and behaviour of this element is warranted.  
218 However, the main element with elevated concentrations was found to be Cu; total (range: 7 – 28  
219 µg L<sup>-1</sup>) and filtered (range: 7 – 23 µg L<sup>-1</sup>) concentrations were above environmental guidelines  
220 (BCWQGs – µg L<sup>-1</sup>: Cu, 6) throughout Hazeltine Creek and increased with distance downstream

221 (Supplementary Table S1 and Fig. 2a). In Upper Hazeltine Creek, around the area known as the  
222 Polley Flats (0 – 3000 m below Polley Lake weir), Cu was higher in inflows than in the stream  
223 water (Fig. 2b). This result suggests that the inflows were receiving Cu from residual tailings and  
224 caused an increase in stream Cu in this part of the watershed. However, inflow Cu concentrations  
225 farther downstream (3000 – 8500 m below Polley Lake weir) were more similar to, or lower than,  
226 stream water concentrations in Lower Hazeltine Creek, suggesting surface inflow waters were not  
227 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  
233 distance from the channel ranged from 88 to 1020 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>. These values exceeded both the  
234 threshold effect level (TEL: 37.5 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) and predicted effect level (PEL: 197 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) for Cu  
235 (British Columbia Ministry of Environment (BCMoE), 2015), and also the mean Cu  
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 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) and  
241 sand-sized material, believed to reflect magnetite-rich sands (range 72 – 800 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>). The highest  
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<sup>-1</sup>) and  
250 total (549 g day<sup>-1</sup>) loads were recorded at HC-8. The primary source of total (67%) and filtered  
251 (68%) Cu loading in Hazeltine Creek was the reach from HC-1 to HC-6 (0 – 4000 m) which  
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  
257 this reach aside from a slight decrease in load between HC-3 and HC-4. The general increase in  
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  
261 inflows that were not sampled. The secondary source of total (33%) and filtered (32%) Cu loading  
262 was the reach from HC-6 to HC-10 which comprised the two bedrock canyons and Upper  
263 Hazeltine Creek (Fig. 2c; source area #2). Copper loading through this reach was more variable  
264 than further upstream but a notable increase in total and filtered loads occurred through Canyon 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  $37 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$   
285  $^1$ ) and total Cu (up to  $148 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) (Fig. 2b, 4a). At the water pH values measured in these inflows,  
286 Cu is predicted to have been present principally as Cu(II) hydroxide ( $\text{Cu}(\text{OH})_2$ ), with Cu(II)  
287 carbonate ( $\text{CuCO}_3$ ) also present in some samples. Speciation modelling of inflow waters indicates  
288 cuprite was saturated ( $\text{SI} = -2$  to  $+2$ ) (Supplementary Table S3), and minor amounts of cuprite and  
289 chrysocolla were identified in SEM-MLA, suggesting these minerals exerted a solubility control  
290 over Cu in these waters. The presence of elevated filtered Fe (up to  $194 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ), Cu (up to  $38 \mu\text{g}$   
291  $\text{L}^{-1}$ ) and  $\text{SO}_4$  (up to  $966 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) in these inflows (Fig. 4a, b, d) suggests weathering of chalcopyrite  
292 ( $\text{CuFeS}_2$ ) 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 ferrihydrite, 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  $7343 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$   
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  $\text{SO}_4$ . 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  
342 were found to be elevated (range: 43 – 1017  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) in sediment pore waters (relative to stream  
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  $\text{SO}_4$  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  
351 (range: 63 – 3510  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) and Mn (18 – 1468  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) found in sediment pore waters (relative to  
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  
357 as an important mechanism driving aqueous Cu release in the streambed (Calmano et al., 1993).

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  
366 sorption of Cu(II) to Fe oxides is well documented in neutral and alkaline systems (Kimball et al.,  
367 2016; Koski et al., 2008). Furthermore, evidence from SEM-MLA analysis indicates the presence  
368 of Cu-bearing Fe oxides in the stream sediments (Fig. 5c, d; Supplementary Figure S4). Oxidation  
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.  
380 The highest loading within this reach appeared to be Canyon 2 (5700 – 6700 m) in Upper Hazeltine  
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  
403 sulfides in the stream sediment or diffuse through the sediment-water interface where it would be

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.  
407

### 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  
412 study, further tailings have been removed in Upper Hazeltine Creek, though some tailings still  
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 canyons, 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  
435 during lower flow conditions. This process has been shown to result in order of magnitude  
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  
448 mobilization of residual tailings could be problematic during the spring months due to snowmelt.

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  
463 high magnitude flow events, will control the functioning of hyporheic processes, including those  
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  
466 environments favorable for the oxidation of Cu sulfides (chalcopyrite) (Heppell et al., 2013),  
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  
471 element cycling in watersheds affected by mine tailings spills.

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  
480 Mount Polley tailings spill has left a chemical footprint in Hazeltine Creek. However, water and  
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  
486 Creek suggest an upper limit of  $20 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  (SRK Consulting (Canada) Inc, 2015a) and this figure  
487 is consistent with stream water concentrations (filtered) found in this study (range:  $7 - 23 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ).  
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  
491 computed flux ( $\text{kg yr}^{-1}$ ) and yield ( $\text{kg km}^2 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) values for Hazeltine Creek (low and high flow  
492 data) with values from unaffected regional watersheds and other mining-affected watercourses  
493 around the world (low flow data only) (Fig. 8). Data for Hazeltine Creek are from sample point  
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 Mm<sup>3</sup> 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  
517 was probably mediated by sorption to Fe oxides at the sediment-water interface. Physical  
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  
526 Lake may be slightly higher than before the tailings dam spill. However, given the size of Quesnel  
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.  
533

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672

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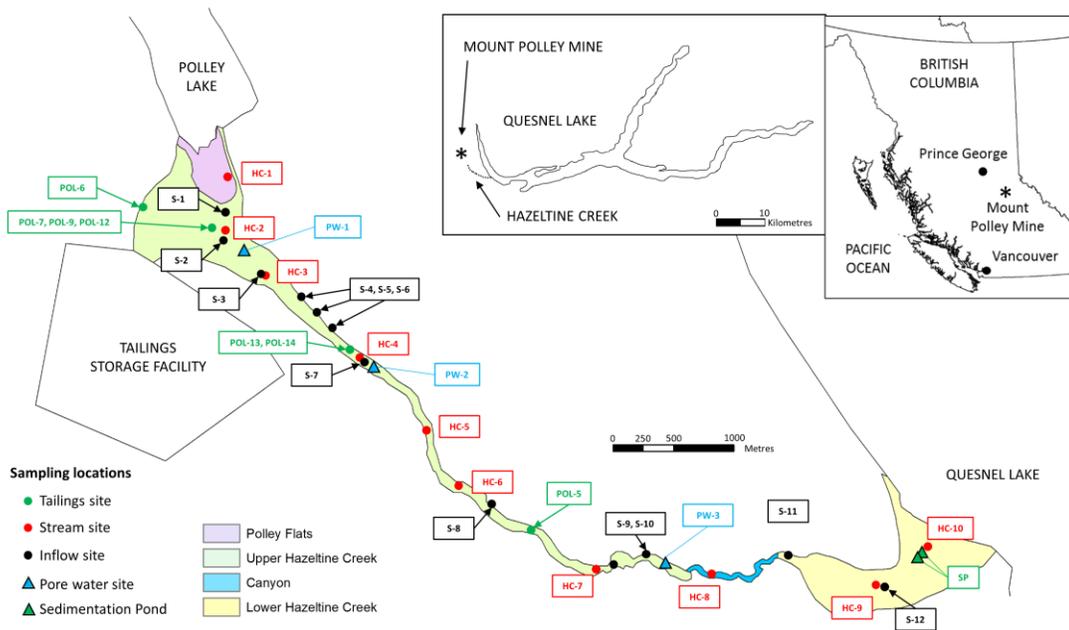
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 692 **Figure 1.** Location of study area showing tailings, stream (streamflow and water quality) and  
 693 inflow (water quality only) sample sites.

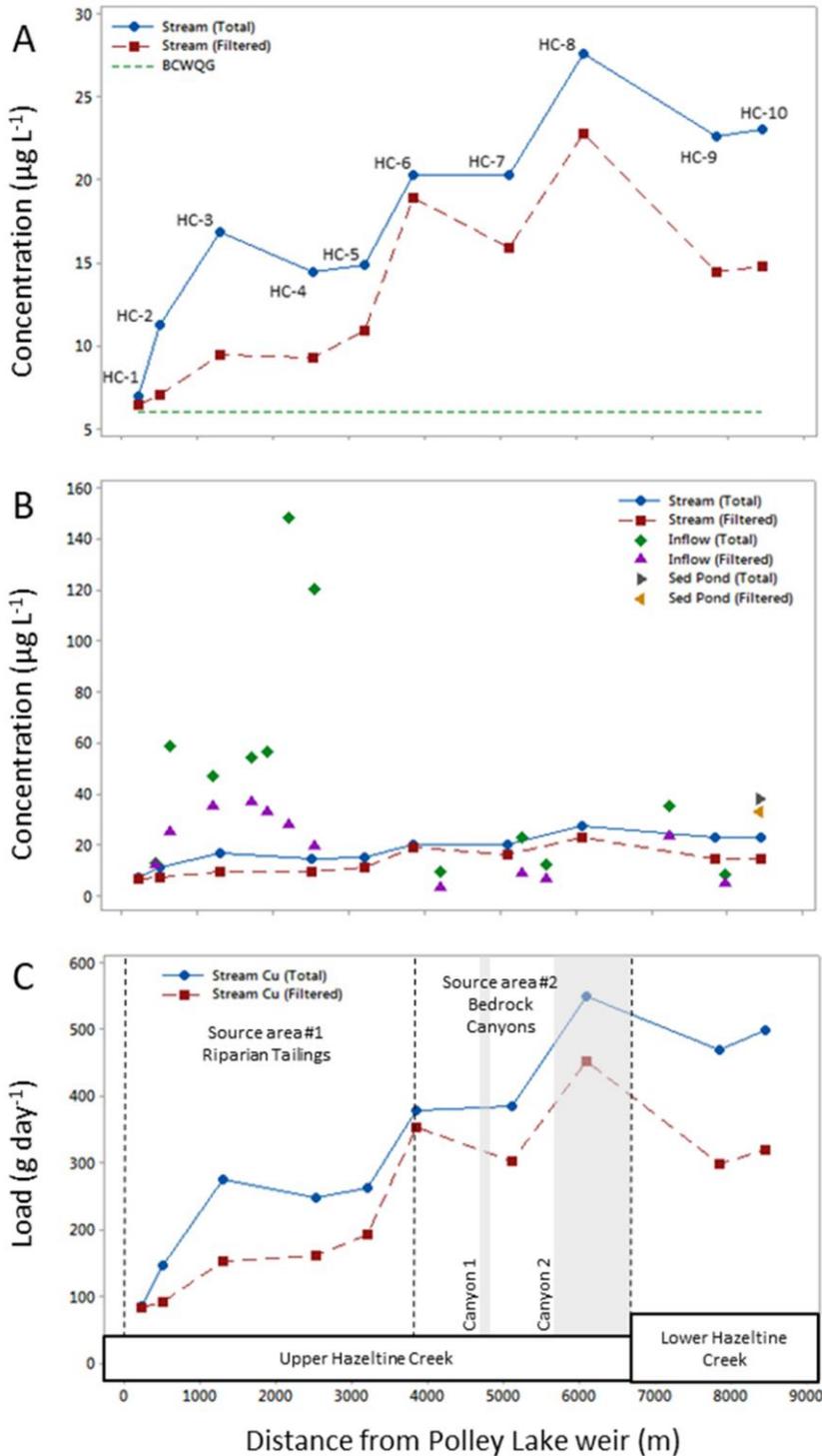
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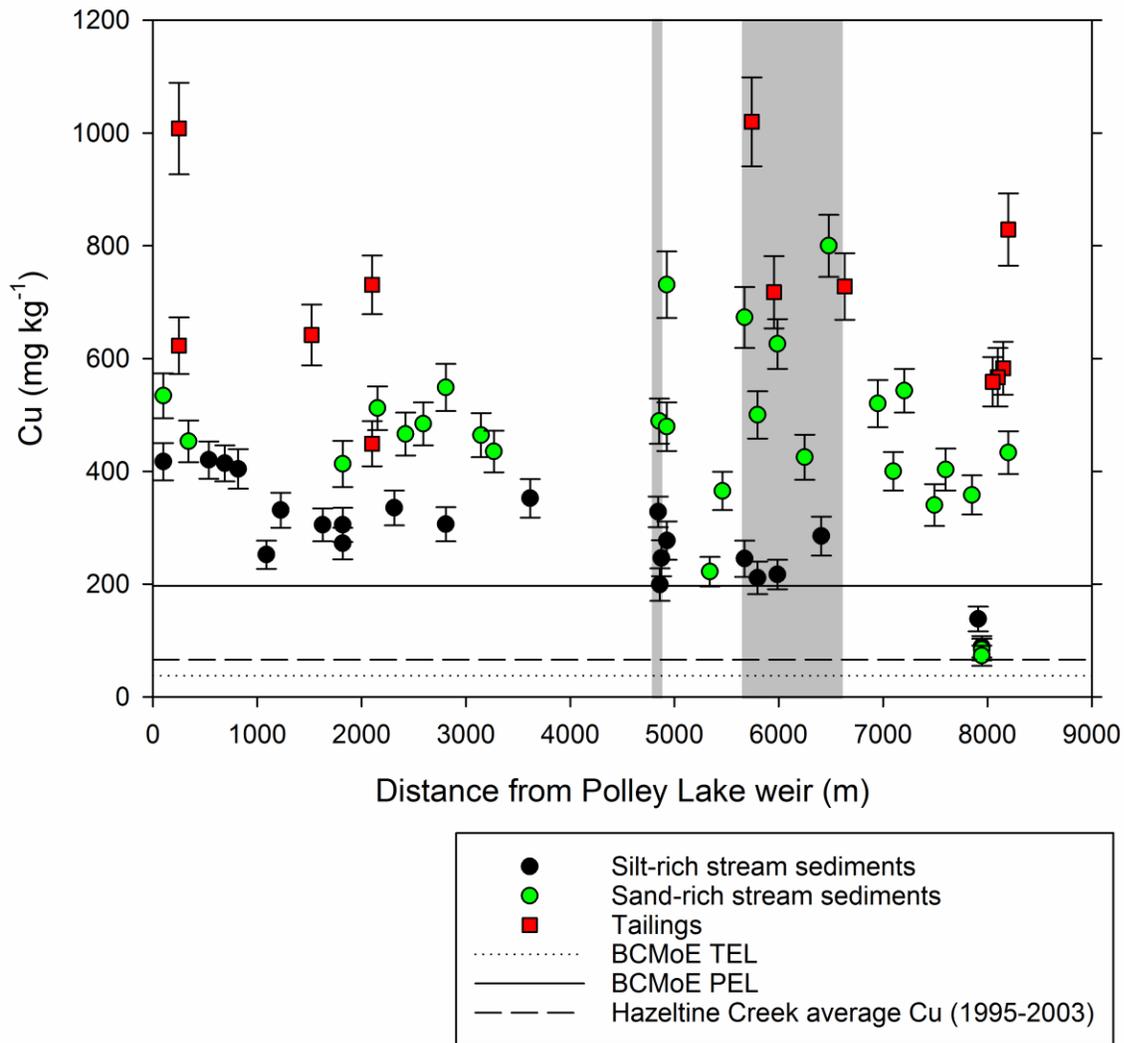
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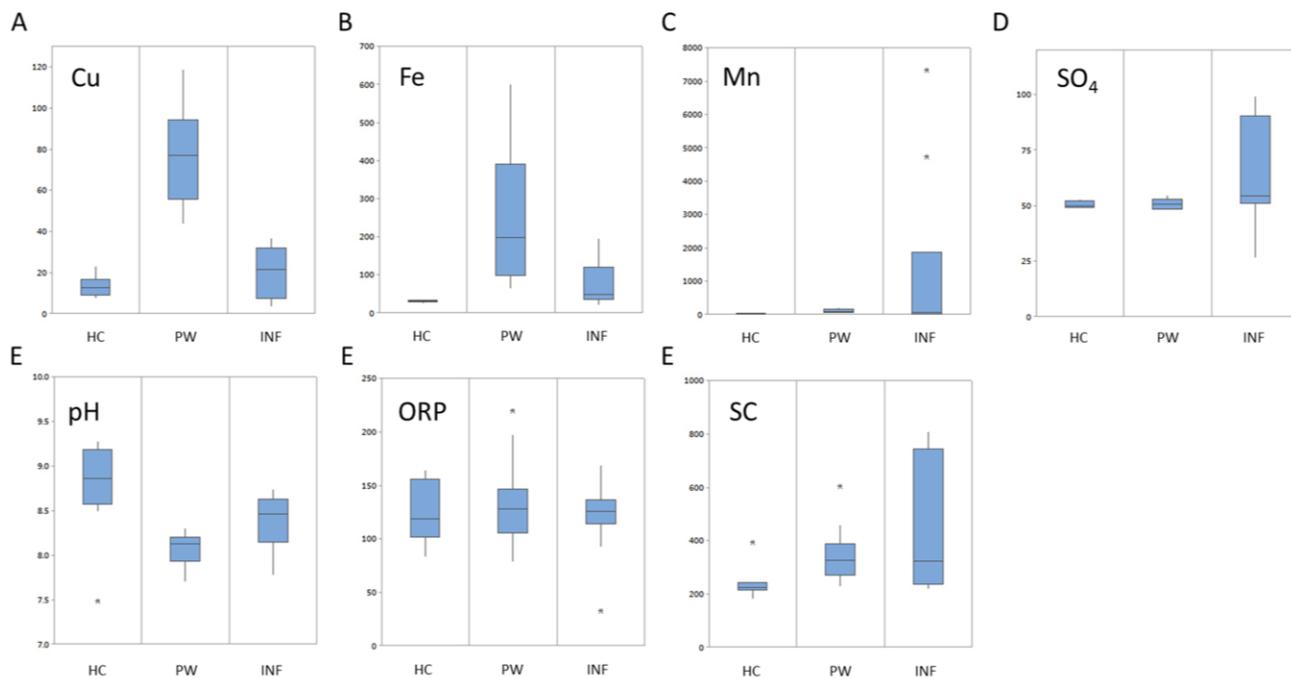
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700 **Figure 2.** (A) Spatial profiles of stream total and filtered Cu concentrations with British Columbia  
 701 Water Quality Guideline (BCWQG). (B) Spatial profile of stream filtered Cu concentration and  
 702 inflow (total and filtered) Cu concentrations.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



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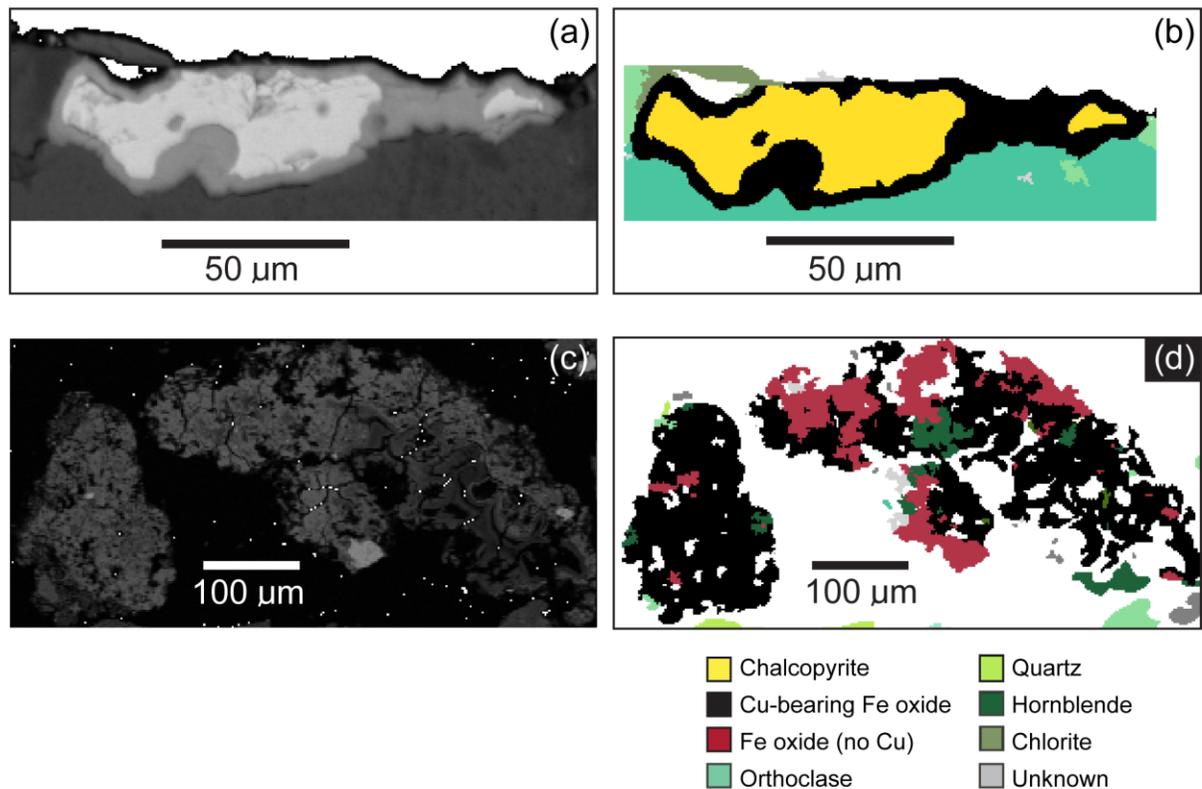
705 **Figure 3.** pXRF-derived Cu concentrations of sediments in Hazeltine Creek sampled on August  
 706 1<sup>st</sup> 2014. Dotted line and solid line represent British Columbia Ministry of Environment (BCMoE)  
 707 Threshold Effect Limits (TEL) and Predicted Effect Limits (PEL), respectively (British Columbia  
 708 Ministry of Environment (BCMoE), 2015). The dashed line represents the Hazeltine Creek  
 709 average Cu concentration from 1995 – 2003 (Golder Associates Ltd, 2015). Grey vertical bars  
 710 represent the locations of two bedrock canyons at 4800 – 4900 m and 5600 – 6600 m below Polley  
 711 Lake weir.



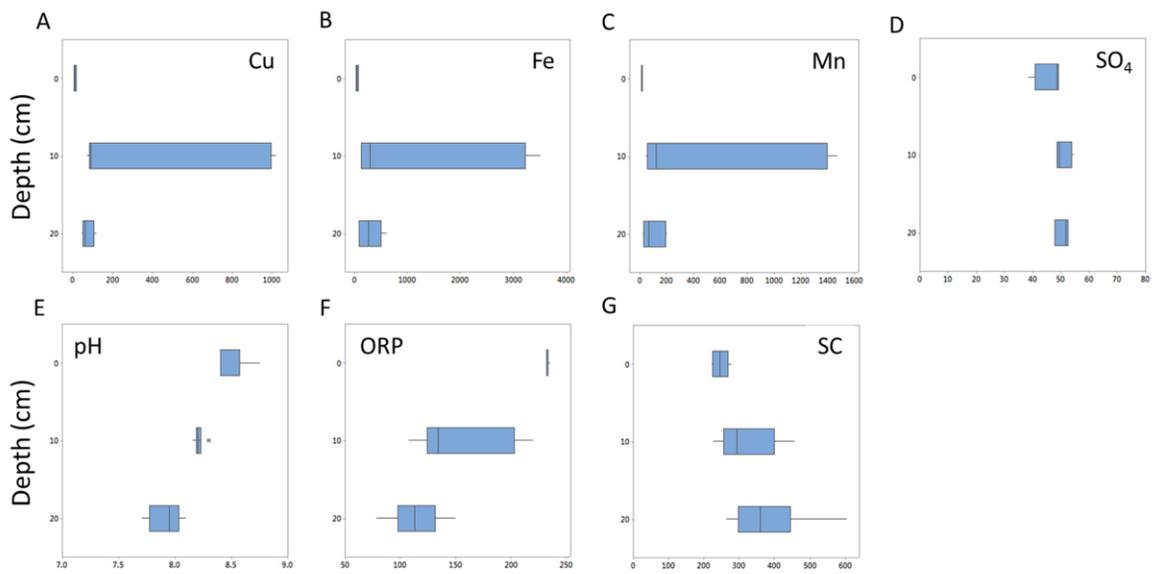
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713 **Figure 4.** Summary of (A – C) filtered Cu, Fe, and Mn concentrations ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ), (D) sulfate ( $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ ), (E) pH, (F) ORP (mV) and (G) specific conductivity ( $\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$ ) in Hazelatine Creek stream water  
 714  
 715 (HC), streambed pore waters (PW) and watershed inflows (INF).

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



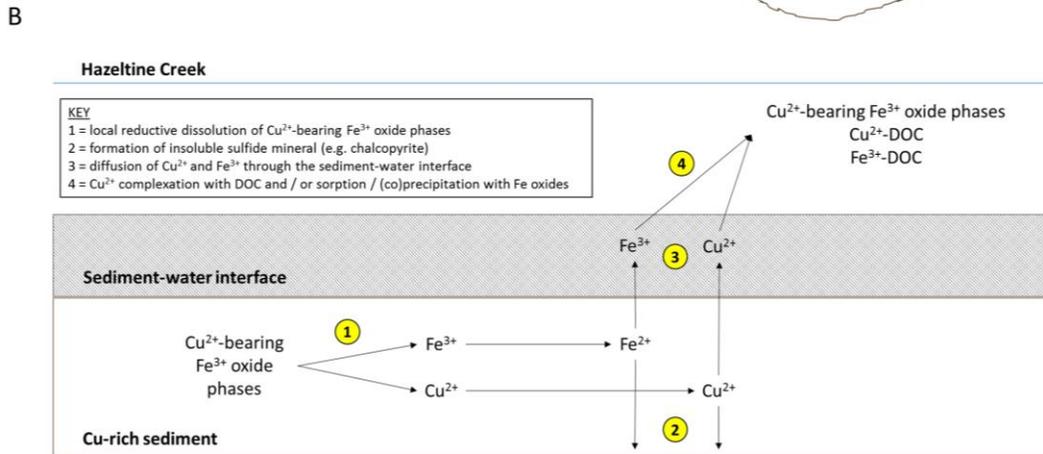
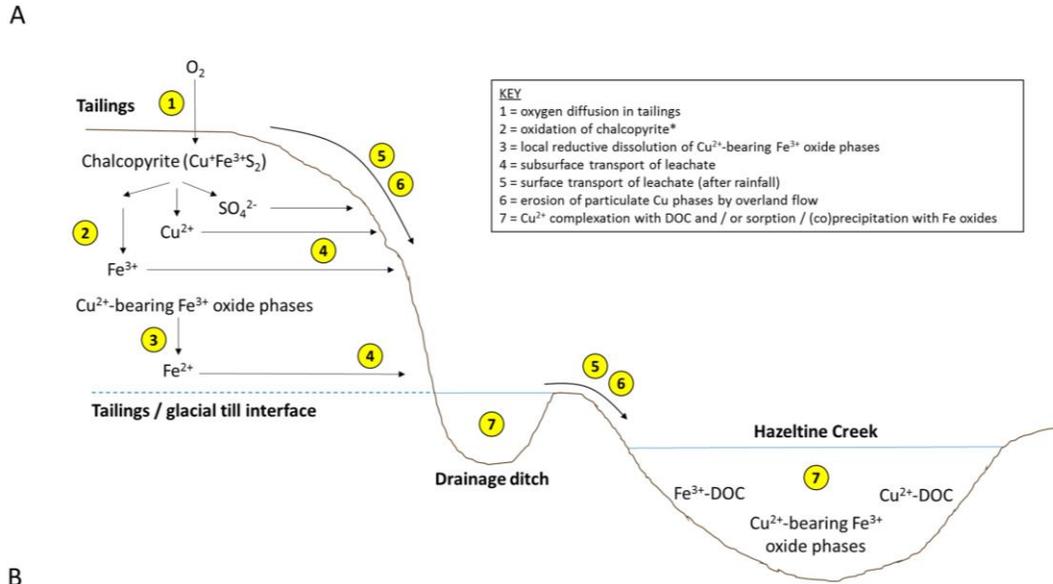
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723 **Figure 6.** Summary of (A – C) filtered Cu, Fe, and Mn concentrations ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ), (D) sulfate ( $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ ), (E) pH, (F) ORP (mV) and (G) specific conductivity ( $\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$ ) in Hazeltine Creek streambed  
 724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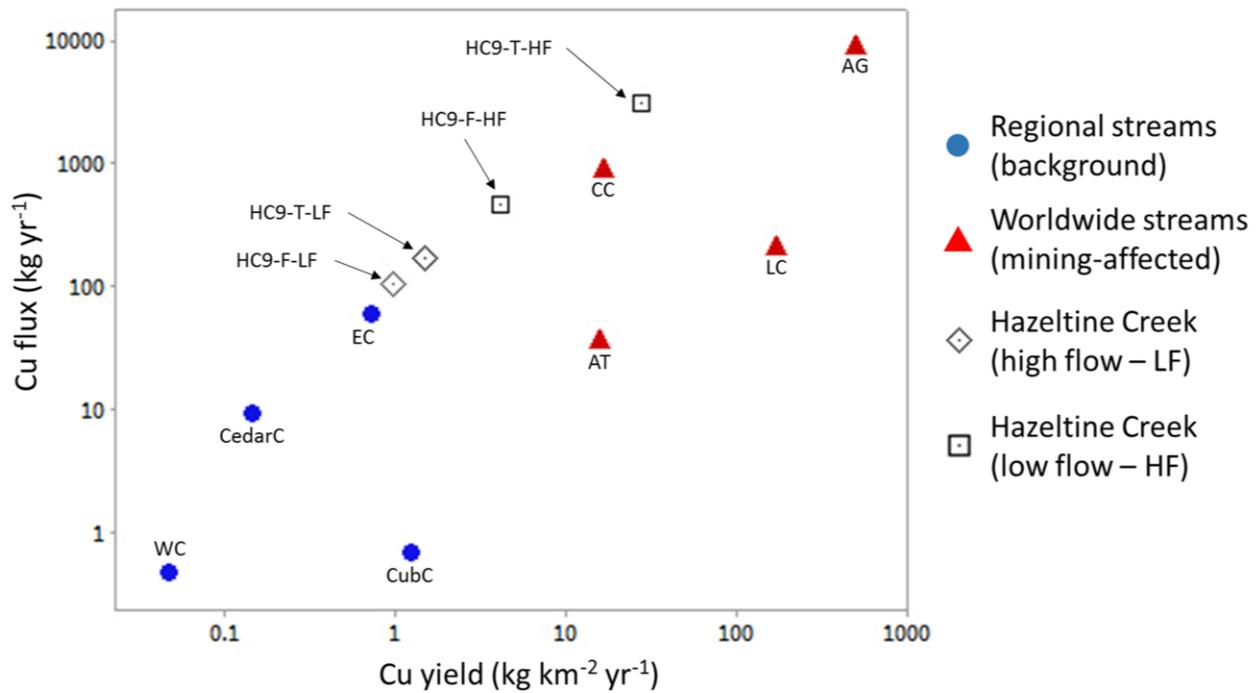


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730 **Figure 7.** Conceptual model of Cu transport and cycling in the Hazeltine Creek watershed  
 731 following the mine tailings spill. A = Polley Flats; B = streambed sediments. \*Recent evidence  
 732 suggests oxidation of chalcopyrite may directly yield Fe<sup>3+</sup> (Pearce et al., 2006).

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 736 **Figure 8.** Cu flux and yield for Hazeltine Creek, regional streams (background) and worldwide  
 737 streams (mining-affected). Note the logarithmic axes. Hazeltine Creek: HF = high flow; LF = low  
 738 flow; T = total load; F = filtered load. Regional streams: WC = Winkley Creek; CedarC = Cedar  
 739 Creek; CubC = Cub Creek; EC = Edney Creek. Worldwide streams: AT = Afon Twymyn (Wales)  
 740 (Byrne et al., 2013); LC = Lion Creek (USA) (Byrne et al., in press); CC = Cement Creek (USA)  
 741 (Runkel et al., 2016); AG = Afon Goch (Wales) (Mayes et al., 2010).