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## Mine closure of pit lakes as terminal sinks: best available practice when options are limited?

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Abstract	In an arid climate, pit lake evaporation rates can exceed influx rates, causing the lake to function as a hydraulic terminal sink, with water levels in the pit remaining below surrounding groundwater levels. We present case studies from Western Australia for two mines nearing closure. At the first site, modelling indicates that waste dump covers for the potentially acid forming (PAF) material would not be successful over the long term	

(1,000 years or more). The second site is a case study where PAF management is limited by the current waste rock dump location and suitable cover materials. Pit lake water balance modelling using Goldsim software indicated that both pit lakes would function as hydraulic terminal sinks if not backfilled above long-term equilibrium water levels. Poor water quality will likely develop as evapoconcentration increases contaminant concentrations, providing a potential threat to local wildlife. Even so, the best current opportunity to limit the risk of contaminant migration and protect regional groundwater environments may be to limit backfill and intentionally produce a terminal sink pit lake.

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Zusammenfassung

In aridem Klima ist die Evaporation von Tagebauseen oft höher als die Zuflüsse. In solchen Fällen wirkt der See als endgültige hydraulische Senke, indem der Wasserstand im Tagebau dauerhaft unter dem umgebenden Grundwasserspiegel bleibt. Wir beschreiben zwei Beispiele von Minen in Westaustralien, welche bald geschlossen werden. Im ersten Fall lassen Modelle vermuten, daß die Abdeckung von möglicherweise säurebildenden Halden keine ausreichende Langzeitstabilität (minimal 1000 Jahre) ergäbe. An der zweiten Lokalität ist die Sicherung der möglicherweise säurebildenden Berge durch eine ungünstige Lage der Halde und geeigneten Abdeckmaterials eingeschränkt. Die Modellierung des Wasserhaushaltes der Tagebauseen mit dem Goldsim Programm indiziert, daß beide Seen als endgültige hydraulische Senken fungieren können, wenn die Füllung mit Bergen unter dem Wasserstand langfristiger Gleichgewichtsbedingungen bleibt. Die Wasserqualität wird allerdings durch Evapokonzentration abnehmen, mit möglichen Gefahren für die lokale Tierwelt. Trotzdem ist zur Zeit die Begrenzung der Wiederverfüllung und die bewußte Herstellung eines terminalen Restsees die beste Möglichkeit, das Risiko eines Schadstoffaustrages zu begrenzen und das regionale Grundwasser zu schützen.

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Resumen

En un clima árido, las velocidades de evaporación del lago del pozo de la mina pueden superar las velocidades de entrada de agua, causando que el lago funcione como el sector terminal del flujo hidráulico con sus niveles de agua por debajo de los niveles del agua subterránea de los alrededores. Presentamos el estudio de casos en el oeste de Australia para dos minas cercanas al cierre. Para el primer caso, los modelos indican que la cobertura del material de las colas mineras para evitar la posible formación de ácido (PAF) no sería exitosa en el largo plazo (1000 años o más). En el segundo caso, el manejo del PAF está limitado por la actual localización de las colas y los materiales adecuados para su cobertura. El balance de agua modelado usando el software Goldsim indicó que ambos lagos de pozos de minas actuarían como terminales hidráulicos si no se rellena por encima de los niveles de equilibrio de largo plazo del agua. La evaporación incrementa las concentraciones de los contaminantes siendo la pobre calidad del agua una potencial amenaza para la vida silvestre local. Aún así, la mejor oportunidad que se posee actualmente para limitar el riesgo de migración de contaminantes y proteger el agua subterránea circundante puede ser limitar el relleno e intencionalmente producir un lago en el pozo que sea el terminal hídrico.

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Keywords (separated by '-') AMD - Backfill - Closure - Evaporative - Groundwater sink - Through-flow

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Footnote Information

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抽象

在干旱地区,当坑湖水蒸量超水量,坑湖水位将低于周地下水水位,而成地下水排泄的点。本文研究了西澳大利两个即将的井。第一个井的模拟表明,防止潜在酸(PAF)的排土盖材料将在 1000 年或更的之后失效。第二个井的潜在酸能力(PAF)受目前排土位置和盖材料的影响。坑湖的 Goldsim 水均衡算果表明,如果两个坑不被回填至期水均衡水位之上,它将最展成地下水排泄点。蒸作用会提高染物度、化水,当地野生物生存构成潜在威。即便如此,目前限制染物迁移、保区域地下水境的最佳却是限制回填和有意形成一定的坑湖

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## 2 Mine Closure of Pit Lakes as Terminal Sinks: Best Available 3 Practice When Options are Limited?

6 Clint D. McCullough · Geneviève Marchand ·  
7 Jörg Unseld

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10 **Abstract** In an arid climate, pit lake evaporation rates  
11 can exceed influx rates, causing the lake to function as a  
12 hydraulic terminal sink, with water levels in the pit  
13 remaining below surrounding groundwater levels. We  
14 present case studies from Western Australia for two mines  
15 nearing closure. At the first site, modelling indicates that  
16 waste dump covers for the potentially acid forming (PAF)  
17 material would not be successful over the long term  
18 (1,000 years or more). The second site is a case study  
19 where PAF management is limited by the current waste  
20 rock dump location and suitable cover materials. Pit lake  
21 water balance modelling using Goldsim software indicated  
22 that both pit lakes would function as hydraulic terminal  
23 sinks if not backfilled above long-term equilibrium water  
24 levels. Poor water quality will likely develop as evapo-  
25 concentration increases contaminant concentrations, pro-  
26 viding a potential threat to local wildlife. Even so, the best  
27 current opportunity to limit the risk of contaminant  
28 migration and protect regional groundwater environments  
29 may be to limit backfill and intentionally produce a ter-  
30 minal sink pit lake.  
31

**Keywords** AMD · Backfill · Closure · Evaporative · 32  
Groundwater sink · Through-flow 33

**Introduction** 34

Due to operational and regulatory practicalities, pit lakes 35  
will continue to be common legacies of many mine lease 36  
relinquishments. Weathering of potentially acid forming 37  
(PAF) waste materials in pit lake catchments, such as pit 38  
wall rock, waste rock dumps, and tailings storage facili- 39  
ties, may produce acid and metalliferous drainage (AMD) 40  
that reports to nearby rivers and lakes (Younger 2002). 41  
Although material geochemical characterisation and 42  
placement/storage strategies are often available to miti- 43  
gate or contain AMD production, many currently operat- 44  
ing or planned mines do not have these considerations in 45  
place for a variety of historical and contemporary socio- 46  
economic and regulatory reasons (Hilson and Haselip 47  
2004; Botha 2012). 48

AMD-degraded water quality in pit lakes may reduce 49  
regional environmental values and may present risks to 50  
surrounding communities and environmental values 51  
(McCullough and Lund 2006; Hinwood et al. 2012). Mine 52  
closure guidelines and standards increasingly require 53  
chemical safety and long-term low risk to surrounding 54  
ecosystems for closure practices to be acceptable 55  
(ANZMEC/MCA 2000; ICM 2008; DMP/EPA 2011). 56  
Unplanned or inappropriate management of pit lakes can 57  
lead to both short- and long-term liability to mining com- 58  
panies, local communities, the government, and the nearby 59  
environment during mining operations or after lease relin- 60  
quishment (McCullough and Van Etten 2011). 61

As a consequence, most developed jurisdictions are 62  
consistent in their requirement for mining companies to 63

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64 plan and/or rehabilitate to minimise or prevent any  
65 potential deleterious effects of the pit lake water body on  
66 regional ground and surface water resources (Jones and  
67 McCullough 2011). The focus of most general or ad hoc pit  
68 lake regulation is to protect human and ecological com-  
69 munities from adverse effects of the pit lake. For example,  
70 in Australasia, closure guidelines are generally oriented to  
71 aquatic ecosystem protection, based on ANZECC/ARM-  
72 CANZ (2000) criteria. Such guidelines generally empha-  
73 size either a demonstration of null-negative effects of the  
74 lake or require management to achieve the required level  
75 for compliance (Kuipers 2002). However, AMD treatment  
76 may be very costly and difficult to achieve in remote  
77 mining regions (Kumar et al. 2011). As a result, sustainable  
78 pit lake management aims to minimise short- and long-  
79 term pit lake liabilities and maximise short- and long-term  
80 pit lake opportunities (McCullough et al. 2009).

81 In an arid climate, pit lake evaporation rates can exceed  
82 water influx rates, causing the pit lake to function as a  
83 hydraulic 'terminal sink'. Mean water levels in these pit  
84 lake can remain below surrounding groundwater levels.  
85 This paper describes how a terminal lake approach was  
86 applied to meet regulatory concerns for mine closure  
87 planning to achieve better environmental outcomes for two  
88 mines in different highly active mining regions of Western  
89 Australia. Our study used simple but robust pit lake water  
90 balance modelling, incorporating both hydrogeological and  
91 meteorological variables to determine equilibrium pit lake  
92 heights relative to local groundwater levels. The resulting  
93 models indicated that the case study pit lakes would likely  
94 remain as mean terminal sinks long (at least hundreds of  
95 years) after closure.

## 96 Study Sites

97 There are many examples of successful dumping of mine  
98 waste under wet covers or at the bottom of pit lakes  
99 (Schultze et al. 2011). We present two case studies from  
100 semi-arid and arid Western Australia that are relevant to  
101 other arid regions with active mines, e.g. southwest US and  
102 South Africa. Both open-cut mining operations are remo-  
103 tely located hundreds to thousands of miles from popula-  
104 tion centres and regional services. Both are currently  
105 developing detailed mine closure plans and face difficulties  
106 with PAF materials management in above-ground waste  
107 landforms where potential cover materials in the regional  
108 environments primarily consist of highly dispersive clays  
109 and sand. Geochemical testing indicates both pit lake  
110 catchments are likely to develop AMD-degraded water  
111 quality over time (unpublished data).

112 We assumed that AMD runoff would be allowed to flow  
113 into the pit after closure, even though a safety bund (known

in the US as a berm) might be constructed around the  
perimeter of the pit (DMP 2010). We assessed three post-  
closure scenarios for each of the open pits: pit not back-  
filled and a pit lake forming, pit partially backfilled to  
below pre-mining groundwater levels with pit lake form-  
ing; and pit fully backfilled.

## Nifty Copper Operation, Aditya Birla

Nifty Copper Operation (Nifty) is located in the Pilbara  
region of Western Australia, approximately 1,200 km  
north-northeast of Perth (Carver 2004) (Fig. 1). The Nifty  
copper deposit is the most significant ore deposit in the  
Neoproterozoic Paterson region of Western Australia  
(Huston et al. 2005). The Pilbara has an arid climate with  
two distinct rainfall patterns: in summer, rainfall occurs  
from either tropical cyclones or thunderstorms, while  
winter rainfall is typically from low pressure trough sys-  
tems. Average annual rainfall in this highly active mining  
region is low, ranging from 200 to 420 mm/year, while  
evaporation averages around 4,000 mm/year (Kumar et al.  
2012). Monthly evaporation significantly exceeds rainfall  
throughout the year and seasonally ranges from around 150  
to 200 mm per month from May to August (the dry sea-  
son), up to 450 mm in December and January (the wet  
season; BOM 2012).

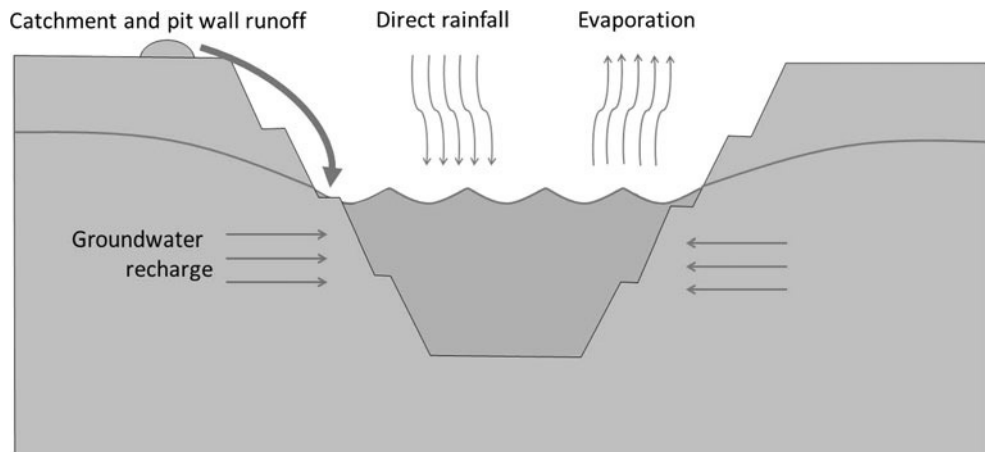
On a regional scale, the Nifty Copper Operation lies  
within the Paterson orogeny of the Paleoproterozoic to  
Neoproterozoic era. The Nifty deposit itself is a structur-  
ally-controlled, chalcopyrite-quartz-dolomite placement of  
carbonaceous and dolomitic shale (Anderson et al. 2001).  
The Nifty mine pit lies in a syncline within shales of the  
upper Broadhurst Formation, which forms part of the  
Yeneena Supergroup. The folded shale of the Broadhurst  
Formation hosts the main copper ore body at Nifty Copper  
Operation and is strongly PAF. The mine stratigraphy  
consists of four units, the Foot Wall beds, the Nifty  
member, the Pyrite Marker bed and the Hanging Wall beds  
(Anderson et al. 2001).

## Tallering Peak Iron Ore Mine, Mount Gibson Mining

Tallering Peak iron ore mine (Tallering Peak), which is  
owned and operated by Mount Gibson Mining (MGM), is  
located in the semi-arid midwest mining region of  
Western Australia (Kumar et al. 2012), approximately  
300 km north of Perth (Fig. 1). Tallering Peak com-  
menced production in 2004 and is predicted to continue  
operations until late 2013. Final landforms consist of  
mine pits T3, T4, T5, and T6A, and associated waste  
rock dumps. After closure, the partially backfilled mine  
void at T5, which is the largest pit, is expected to fill,  
mostly through groundwater inflow.



**Fig. 1** Conceptual pit lake key water balance processes



163 Arid Climate Conceptual Modelling of Pit Lake Water  
 164 Balance and Water Quality

165 Climate is the most important factor of the hydrologic  
 166 processes associated with a pit lake (Castendyk 2009).  
 167 Changes in climate (e.g. temperature, rainfall, wind, pre-  
 168 cipitation amount, and distribution) affect individual  
 169 hydrologic components differently. In general, surface  
 170 hydrologic processes (e.g. direct precipitation, evaporation,  
 171 and surface water runoff, including occasional stream or  
 172 river inflows) are defined by regional climate to form a  
 173 simple water balance budget for the pit lake (Fig. 2).  
 174 Groundwater inflows are generated from precipitation  
 175 recharge and tend to buffer short-term climatic changes,  
 176 but long-term climatic changes will be reflected in  
 177 groundwater inflows. Modelling of such groundwater and  
 178 climate processes is often used to predict final water bal-  
 179 ances in pit lakes (Vandenberg 2011).

180 Post-closure pit lakes in an arid environment are typi-  
 181 cally classified as either ‘through-flow’ lakes or terminal  
 182 sinks (Johnson and Wright 2003). Terminal sinks may  
 183 occur in arid climates where the evaporation potential is  
 184 higher than average rainfall runoff (Niccoli 2009). During  
 185 groundwater level rebound at the end of mining and pit  
 186 void filling, the pit lake water level rises to a level where  
 187 inflows (direct rainfall, catchment and pit wall runoff, and  
 188 groundwater inflow) are in equilibrium with evaporation  
 189 losses. Hence, pit lake water level does not rise to levels  
 190 higher than adjacent groundwater levels and water does not  
 191 seep into the groundwater system (Fig. 3a). The water  
 192 quality of terminal sink lakes is expected to show increased  
 193 acidity, metals, and salt concentrations over time as solutes  
 194 introduced through groundwater inflow and pit wall runoff  
 195 is concentrated by evaporation (Fig. 3b) (Miller et al.  
 196 1996).

197 Following groundwater rebound and dissolution of the  
 198 cone of depression the pit lake begins to fill with water and  
 199 groundwater influx into the pit initially increases as the

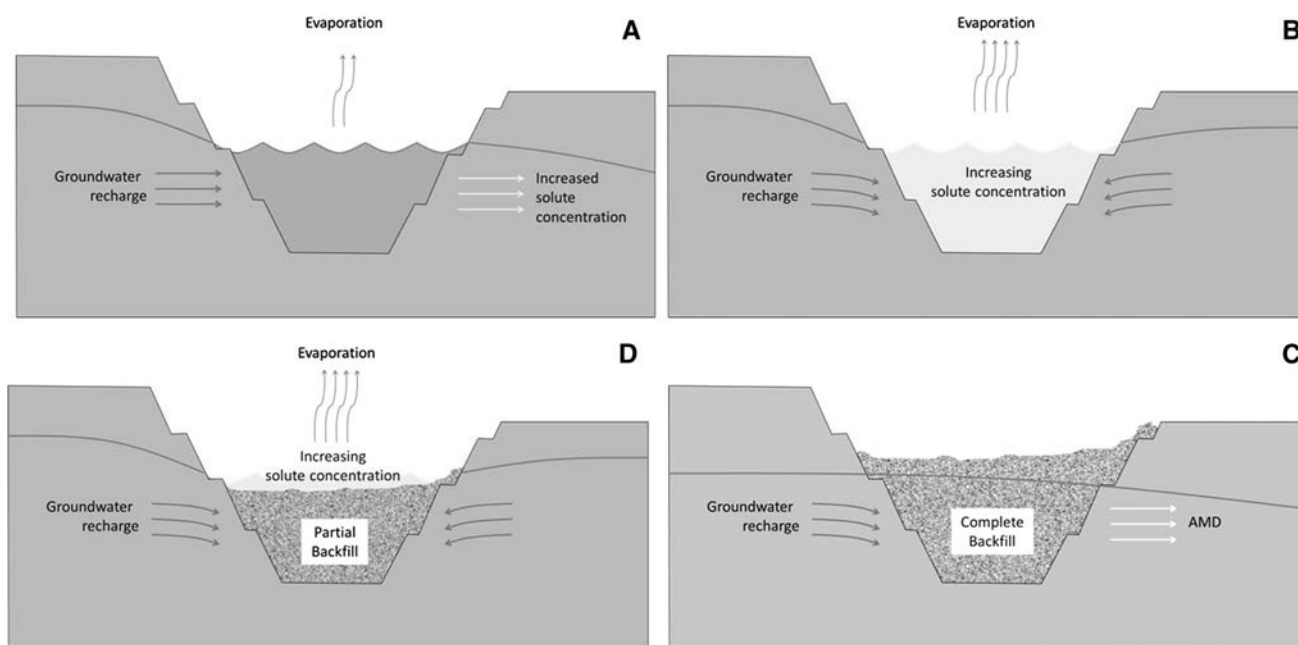
influx area increases. Later, discharge slows as the change  
 in head decreases (Gammons et al. 2009). As a result, total  
 inflow into the pit lakes is expected to gradually decrease  
 as the open pits fill, while total outflow is expected to  
 increase due to increased evaporation from the greater lake  
 area. At some stage, total inflow approximates total outflow  
 and the water level in an open pit will reach equilibrium,  
 albeit responding dynamically to changes in seasonal pre-  
 cipitation and evaporation rates. Water level fluctuations of  
 course, occur, e.g. due to occasional cyclones.

If the steady-state pit lake elevation stabilizes below  
 the surrounding pre-mining groundwater level, the pit  
 lake becomes a terminal sink, with no water released  
 into the environment through seepage into the ground-  
 water system. However, if the final pit lake elevation  
 reaches the surrounding pre-mining groundwater level,  
 the pit lake becomes a through-flow system with water  
 being released to the environment through groundwater  
 seepage, potentially spreading AMD plumes to envi-  
 ronmental receptors.

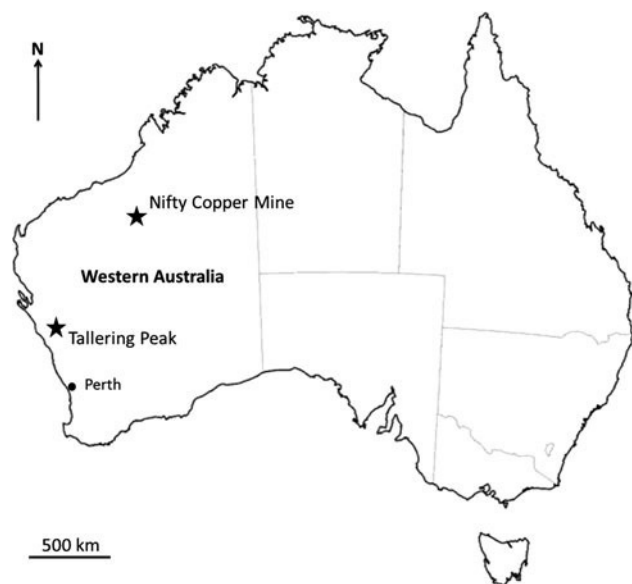
Complete backfill is often recommended to avoid many  
 issues associated with poor pit lake water quality devel-  
 oping from weathering of PAF material in the pit void and  
 pit walls (Puhlovich and Coghil 2011) (Fig. 3c). If  
 backfill volumes and distributions are small enough to  
 permit accumulation of water above the backfill (Fig. 3d),  
 then this use of the pit void will remove the mine waste  
 from the typically higher rates of weathering and transport  
 encountered when placed above ground. However, the pit  
 backfill volumes and/or placement may also cause pit lake  
 surface area reductions as waste is typically placed in the  
 pit by tipping over the high wall. This change in surface  
 area can thus alter the pit lake hydrological balance by  
 decreasing net evaporation, which can change the pit lake  
 from a terminal sink lake to a through-flow type. If the  
 water quality in the pit lake is poor, this contaminated  
 water may be released into the regional groundwater  
 system.

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Author Proof



**Fig. 2** Conceptual equilibrium hydrogeological regimes for an arid region pit lake. *Clockwise from top left* through-flow system, terminal sink, completely backfill through-flow system, partially backfill terminal sink



**Fig. 3** Case study locations

238 Empirical Modelling

239 A water balance model for each of the closure scenarios  
 240 was modelled using GoldSim software (Goldsim 2011).  
 241 GoldSim is a Monte Carlo simulation software package for  
 242 dynamically modelling complex systems. Monte Carlo  
 243 simulations are a class of computational algorithms that  
 244 rely on repeated random sampling of those components of  
 245 the model with inherent uncertainty in their estimation  
 246 when undertaking the simulations. Monte Carlo methods

are especially useful for simulating systems with many  
 247 coupled degrees of freedom, such as fluids. Pit lake  
 248 hydrological inflows were defined as direct rainfall, runoff  
 249 (catchment and pit wall), and groundwater inflow. Out-  
 250 flows were defined as evaporation from the lake surface,  
 251 groundwater seepage (if any), and overflow (if any).  
 252

A GoldSim variation of a multi-state Markov chain  
 253 model first developed by Srikanthan and McMahon  
 254 (1985) was used to generate stochastic rainfall data from  
 255 rainfall data from each mine site, with data gaps  
 256 amended by correlation with publically available data  
 257 from the nearest Bureau of Meteorology (BOM) weather  
 258 station. In basic terms, the model generated a synthetic  
 259 sequence of daily precipitation based on the probability  
 260 of rainfall in one 'state' (states are essentially ranges in  
 261 daily rainfall and are subject to user-defined limitations  
 262 in terms of both their quantity and internal boundaries)  
 263 being succeeded (on the following day) by rainfall in  
 264 the same or another state. These probabilities were  
 265 collated in a transition probability matrix (TPM). Sea-  
 266 sonality was modelled by using 12 separate TPMs, one  
 267 for each calendar month. The inputs required by Gold-  
 268 Sim to generate stochastic data are the TPMs for each  
 269 calendar month, the number of states and their bound-  
 270 aries, and distribution parameters derived for those days  
 271 that exceed the adopted upper range of rainfall used to  
 272 define the monthly TPMs.  
 273

The model was calibrated using the daily, monthly, and  
 274 annual statistics of the observed data (which was the pri-  
 275 mary input). This was achieved by iteratively (and  
 276

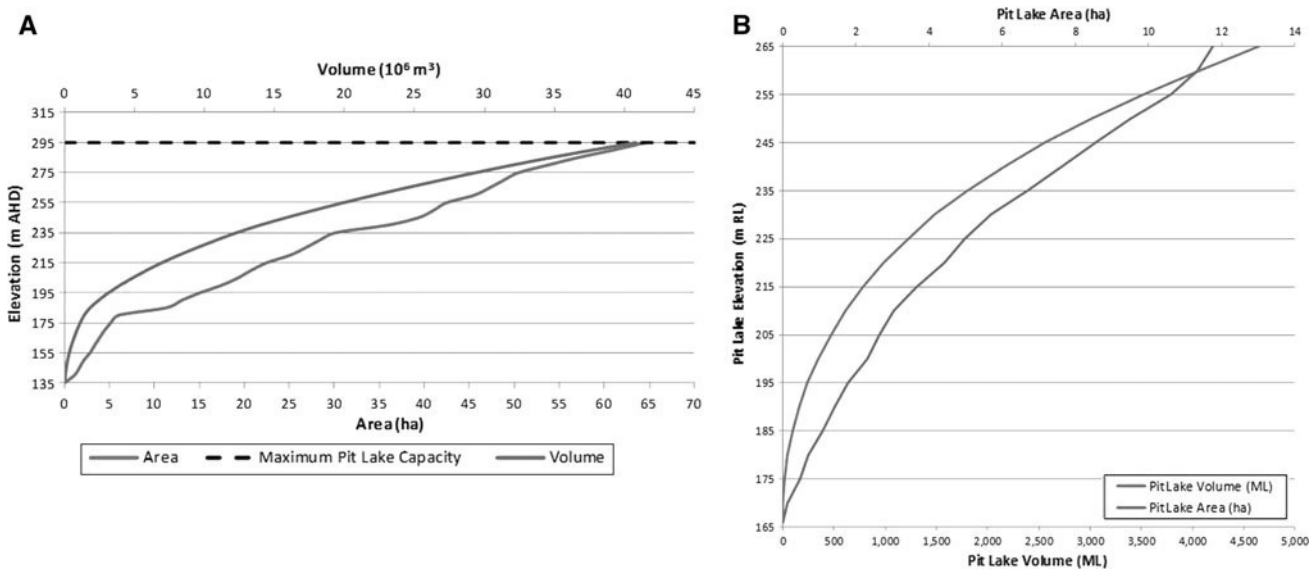


Fig. 4 Elevation-volume-area curve for (a) current Nifty Copper Operation and (b) current Tallering Peak open pits

277 manually) varying the limits of each state as well as the  
 278 number of states to be considered in certain months. Fol-  
 279 lowing the calibration, 100 stochastic rainfall sequences  
 280 were generated every 200 years in length to simulate the  
 281 pit closure scenario models.

282 The volumes of rainfall onto the pit lakes were pro-  
 283 portional to their associated surface areas (Fig. 4a, b). As  
 284 the non-backfilled open pit filled with water, the lake sur-  
 285 face increased and therefore, the volume of rainfall enter-  
 286 ing the lake increased. An elevation-volume-area curve  
 287 developed for each pit design at closure was used to esti-  
 288 mate the area of the pit lake as the water level rises. The  
 289 curve was modified for the partially backfilled scenario  
 290 based on the level of backfill, with 100 % of the direct  
 291 rainfall first filling up the backfill void, based on the  
 292 assumption that there was no pit outlet and that there was  
 293 no evaporation during rainfall events. When the water level  
 294 reached the backfilled elevation, the direct rainfall volume  
 295 was based on the pit lake area above the backfill. In the  
 296 case of the backfilled pit scenario, 50 % of the direct  
 297 rainfall on the pit surface was expected to infiltrate directly  
 298 into the footprint of the backfilled pit to fill backfill voids  
 299 (Williams 2012).

300 Based upon site visits, pit wall rainfall runoff was  
 301 assumed to mostly collect on mine benches or to evaporate  
 302 before reaching the pit lake. However, for high rainfall  
 303 periods, the runoff may then overflow the benches and flow  
 304 into the pit lake; thus, a greater proportion of the runoff  
 305 reaches the lake as rainfall increases. Also, if rainfall  
 306 occurred on the previous day, ponds of water may still be  
 307 present on the mine benches, coupled with higher ante-  
 308 cedent moisture conditions; additional rainfall is therefore

likely to overflow into the pit lake. Pit wall runoff coeffi- 309  
 cients were therefore applied to the rainfall to estimate 310  
 runoff from the pit walls, based on the following empirical 311  
 relationship: 312

$$\text{Runoff}_{\text{Pitwall}} = \text{Rainfall} \times \text{Runoff coefficient}_{\text{Pitwall}} \times (\text{Area}_{\text{Pitwall}} - \text{Area}_{\text{Pitlake}}) \quad (1)$$

314 The runoff coefficient was varied depending on the 314  
 amount of rainfall and whether rainfall occurred on the 315  
 previous day, based on regional site experience (Table 1). 316  
 As the open pit fills with water, a portion of the pit walls 317  
 are covered by water and the area of exposed pit wall is 318  
 reduced, reducing the volume of pit wall runoff. In the 319  
 partially backfilled scenario, the portion of the pit walls 320  
 exposed stays constant until the pit lake water level rises 321  
 above the backfilled level. In the fully backfilled scenario, 322  
 the pit wall was not exposed and therefore there was no pit 323  
 wall runoff. 324

325 The catchment area around each pit was estimated and it 325  
 was assumed that up to 60 % of the runoff would occur 326  
 during high rainfall events during cyclonic activity (BOM 327  
 2012) and that no runoff takes place during rainfall events 328  
 less than 5 mm/day. Catchment runoff coefficients were 329  
 applied to the rainfall to estimate runoff from catchments 330  
 adjacent to the pit, based on empirical relationship (2). 331  
 Runoff coefficients were assumed from calibrated values 332  
 used in previous project experiences in the region which 333  
 were within the range given published studies from Wes- 334  
 tern Australia (Williams 2012). The catchment runoff 335  
 coefficient for Nifty Copper Operation was assumed to 336  
 vary depending on the amount of rainfall as shown in 337  
 (Table 1). 338

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**Table 1** Talling Peak pit wall runoff coefficients for pit void walls and catchment (after Williams 2012)

Daily rainfall (mm)	Previous day rainfall (mm)	Walls	Catchment
<5	N/A	0	0
<40	<20	0.30	0.15
<40	>20	0.65	0.40
≥40	N/A	0.65	0.40

Runoff coefficient is the rainfall fraction incident on the surface that does not infiltrate; N/A not applicable

$$\text{Runoff}_{\text{catchment}} = \text{Rainfall} \times \text{Runoff coefficient}_{\text{Catchment}} \times \text{Area}_{\text{Catchment}} \quad (2)$$

340 Nifty Copper Operation groundwater inflows (Q) were  
 341 estimated using the Dupuit Equation for horizontal flow  
 342 conditions as the main aquifer through the pit is an  
 343 unconfined channel aquifer that the lake excises:

$$Q = K \left( \frac{h_1^2 - h_2^2}{L} \right) \quad (3)$$

345 where *K* is the average hydraulic conductivity of the rock  
 346 mass, *h*<sub>1</sub> is the pre-mining groundwater elevation, *h*<sub>2</sub>  
 347 is the pit lake elevation (which increases as the pit fills up  
 348 with water), and *L* is the horizontal flow length from pre-  
 349 mining water level to the pit lake surface (*h*<sub>1</sub> to *h*<sub>2</sub>) (Fetter  
 350 1994).

351 Talling Peak Iron Ore groundwater inflows were  
 352 estimated using the Dupuit-Forchheimer equation for radial  
 353 flow conditions for an unconfined aquifer:

$$Q = \pi K \frac{h_0^2 - h_w^2}{\ln \frac{R}{r_w}} \quad (4)$$

355 where *K* is the average hydraulic conductivity of the rock  
 356 mass, *h*<sub>0</sub> is the pre-mining groundwater level, *h*<sub>w</sub> is the pit  
 357 lake level (which increases as the pit fills up with water), *r*<sub>w</sub>  
 358 is the pit diameter at the base, and *R* is the radius of  
 359 Influence that can be expressed using the Cooper-Jacob  
 360 equation (Cooper and Jacob 1946) as:

$$R = 1.5 \sqrt{\frac{Kbt}{S_y}} \quad (5)$$

362 where *b* is the thickness of the aquifer, *t* is the time since  
 363 the start of mining operations, and *S*<sub>y</sub> is the specific yield of  
 364 the aquifer. The equation indicates that groundwater  
 365 inflows will decrease as the pits fill up with water and the  
 366 radius of influence increases with time.

367 A partially backfilled option for the T5 pit was assessed  
 368 on a proposed volume of backfilled PAF material. Based on  
 369 the slope of the pit wall (32°), we assumed that the

backfilled material would be disposed of in the bottom of  
 the pit and not by end dumping from the edge of the pit.

MGM supplied Golder with the open pit shells for T5 at  
 the end of mining, from which we created the elevation-  
 volume-area relationship (Fig. 4b). Rainfall from the last  
 30 years was assumed to be representative of the current  
 rainfall conditions on-site and was used to generate a sto-  
 chastic rainfall distribution. The runoff coefficient for the  
 pit wall was assumed to be 80 % from calibrated values  
 used in previous project experiences in the region. The  
 evaporation data applied in the model were obtained from  
 the SILO Data Drill (<http://www.nrm.qld.gov.au/silo>). The  
 Data Drill accesses grids of data interpolated from point  
 observations by the Bureau of Meteorology. Interpolations  
 are calculated by splining and kriging techniques. The data  
 in the Data Drill were all estimated as there are no original  
 meteorological station data available in the calculated grid  
 fields. A monthly “Class A” lake to pan coefficient (BOM  
 2012) was used to estimate evaporation from the pit lake  
 surface (Hoy 1977; Hoy and Stephens 1979).

Evaporation loss was not considered in the fully back-  
 filled pit scenario; however, when the water level exceeded  
 the backfilled elevation in the partially backfilled scenario,  
 evaporation was simulated in the models. A reduction in  
 evaporation rates was assumed as the depth of the lake  
 surface below the adjacent ground level increased to reflect  
 the influence of reduced wind across the lake surface.

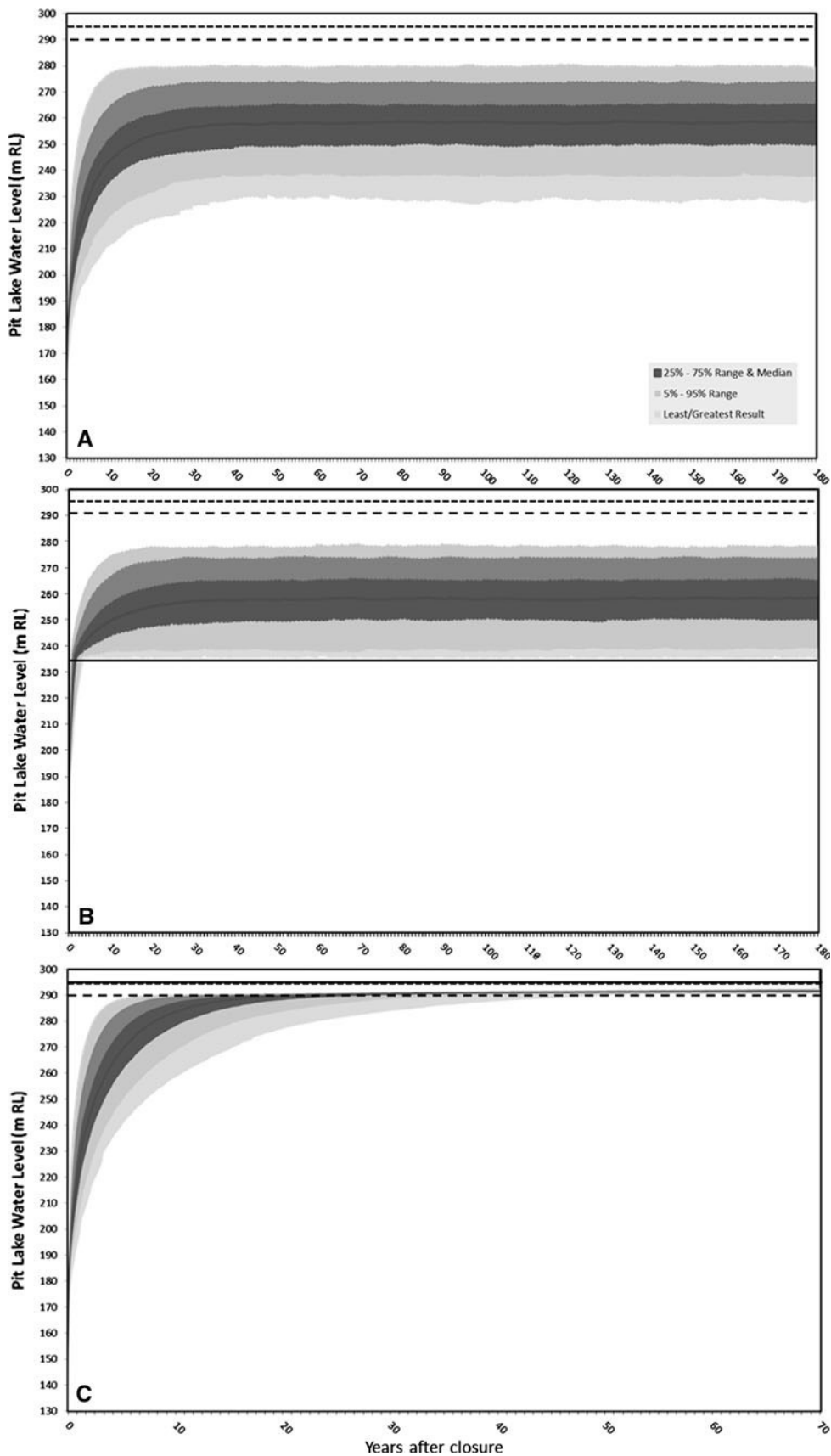
Groundwater seepage from the pit lake into the  
 groundwater system will occur when the water level within  
 the pit reaches a level greater than the surrounding  
 groundwater level. Thus, groundwater seepage was esti-  
 mated using Eq. (4) for radial flow conditions and an  
 unconfined aquifer when *h*<sub>w</sub> was greater than *h*<sub>0</sub>.

## Results

### Nifty Copper Operation

The open pit scenario with no backfill was identified by  
 modelling as an evaporative sink (Fig. 5a). Modelling of  
 the partially backfilled scenario showed that the equilib-  
 rium pit lake water level would be more than 10 m above  
 the elevation of the backfill, and was identified as a ter-  
 minal sink due to the equilibrium pit lake water level being  
 lower than the surrounding groundwater level (Fig. 5b).  
 The fully backfilled scenario indicated that the pit would  
 become a through-flow system with water contained in the  
 backfilled pit seeping into the groundwater system  
 (Fig. 5c). If the PAF material already contained in the pit  
 leached chemicals harmful to the environment, this closure  
 option may present a significant risk at mine closure.

**Fig. 5** Nifty Copper Operation predicted pit lake levels for: **a** No backfill; **b** Most reactive waste partially backfilled, and: **c** Complete backfill. *Dotted black line* indicates pit lake overflow level, *dashed line* baseline groundwater level, *solid line* backfill level



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418 A partially backfilled option model was developed based  
 419 on the proposed volume of backfilled material provided by  
 420 the mining company at the time. The model results indicate  
 421 that the pit lake water level would stabilise after about 40  
 422 years to a median level of 259 m AHD (Australian  
 423 hydraulic datum level that corresponds approximately to  
 424 mean sea level). The results also show that there is a 95 %  
 425 probability that the lake level will not exceed 275 m AHD  
 426 and a 5 % probability that it will not exceed 239 m AHD.  
 427 The latter would cover the deposited waste material with  
 428 4 m of water. A pit lake level of 275 m AHD is equivalent  
 429 to 20 m of freeboard and an additional pit lake capacity  
 430 (e.g. for buffering volume during heavy rain events) of  
 431 approximately 11.5 million m<sup>3</sup>.

432 The hydrogeological system is expected to remain a  
 433 sink, with equilibrium groundwater levels below the pre-  
 434 mining groundwater level of 290 m AHD. Furthermore, pit  
 435 lake levels are expected to stay below the static ground-  
 436 water levels of 285 m AHD in the adjacent Nifty Palaeo-  
 437 channel, indicating that there is little risk of pit lake water  
 438 flowing into the palaeochannel system.

439 This model showed two main consequences to long-  
 440 term AMD management at mine closure if the pit was  
 441 backfilled above the surrounding groundwater level:

- 442 1. Reduction in evaporative losses would likely lead to a  
 443 through-flow scenario. As the proposed material was  
 444 predominantly PAF, it is therefore likely that water  
 445 quality would be impacted by AMD as it flows through  
 446 the pit waste backfill. Due to the through-flow nature  
 447 of the backfilled pit, the water would then be released  
 448 to the environment as seepage from the lake to  
 449 groundwater (Fig. 6), leading to an increased risk of  
 450 negative effects on local and possibly regional ground-  
 451 waters, and any dependent ecosystems.
- 452 2. Waste landforms without effective cover systems to  
 453 reduce infiltration may generate and transport AMD if

454 the partially backfilled pit lake did not function as a  
 455 terminal sink. In this scenario, AMD leachate from  
 456 waste rock dumps containing PAF would enter the  
 457 vadose zone (the area of unsaturated ground above the  
 458 groundwater level), but would not be transported in the  
 459 local groundwater plume toward the pit lake, since it  
 460 would not be acting as a terminal sink. Instead the  
 461 AMD plume would be transported by the regional  
 462 groundwater system and potential surface water recep-  
 463 tors, such as groundwater-dependant ecosystems of  
 464 seasonal lakes, creeks, and wetlands.

Tallering Peak 465

466 In the no-backfill scenario, model results indicated that the  
 467 open pit would fill gradually and eventually reach equi-  
 468 librium seven years after closure (Fig. 7a). The equilibrium  
 469 water level would then be around 231 m RL (project area  
 470 relative level); lower than the pre-mining groundwater  
 471 level (estimated at 238 m RL).

472 The partially backfilled option was based on the pro-  
 473 posed volume of backfilled material provided by MGM. In  
 474 this scenario, the model results indicate that the open pit  
 475 would gradually fill with water and eventually reach  
 476 equilibrium five years after closure (Fig. 7b) at around  
 477 236 m RL, i.e. below the pre-mining groundwater level.  
 478 The final pit lake would be above the backfill level, cov-  
 479 ering the PAF material. Oxidation rates of the PAF mate-  
 480 rial might then be significantly reduced because of the  
 481 much lower oxygen diffusion rates through water. A final  
 482 terminal sink would also entrain AMD contaminated  
 483 waters away from sensitive environmental receptors such  
 484 as a nearby ephemeral creek that flows into the Greenough  
 485 River.

486 In the fully backfilled scenario, the model results  
 487 indicate that the backfilled material voids would fill

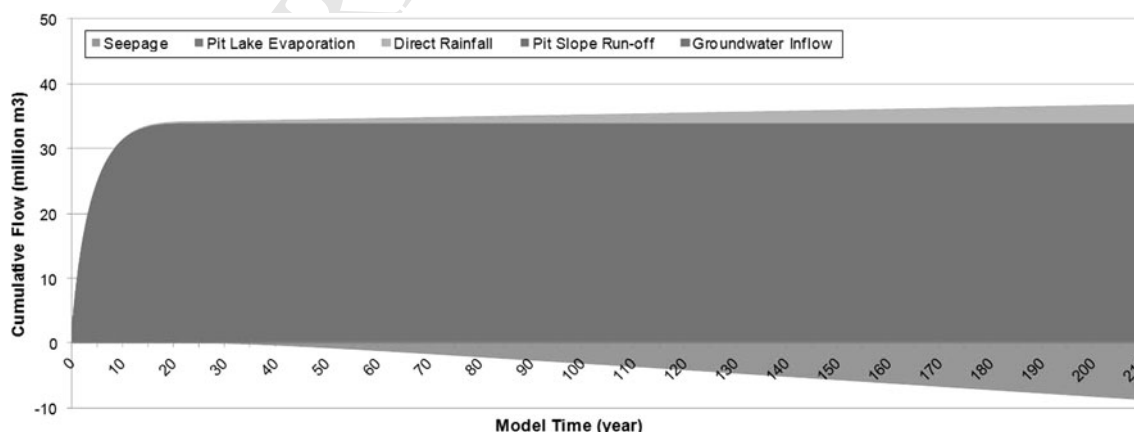
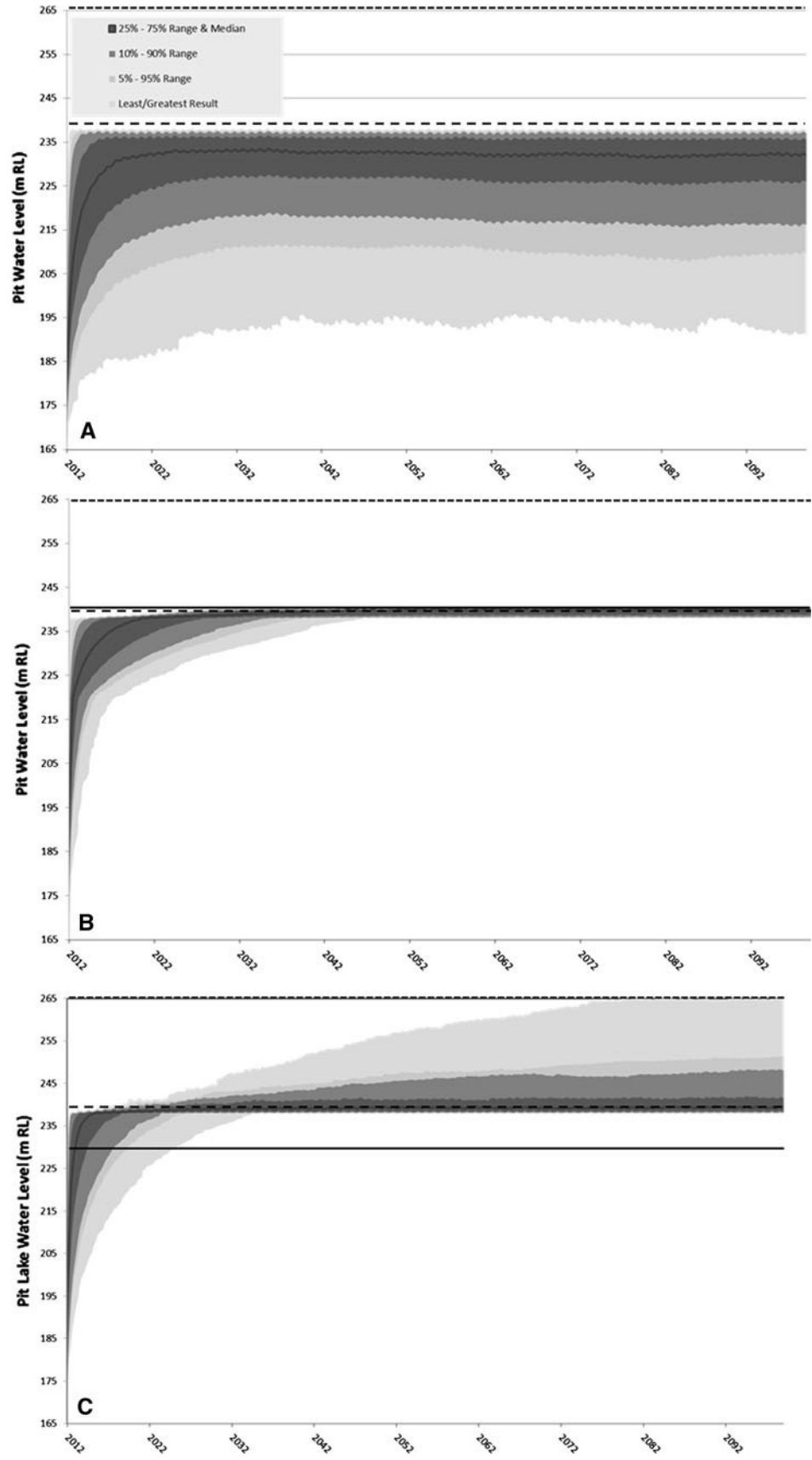


Fig. 6 Predicted cumulative flow for Nifty Copper Operation

**Fig. 7** Talling Peak T5 predicted pit lake levels for **a** no backfill, **b** most reactive waste partially backfilled and **c** complete backfill. *Dotted black line* indicates pit lake overflow level, *dashed line* baseline groundwater level, *solid line* backfill level



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488 with water (Fig. 7c). The water level within the back-  
489 filled pit would reach equilibrium three years after  
490 closure at around 238 m RL, about the same as the  
491 groundwater level in the area.

492 While a terminal sink is unlikely to introduce leachable  
493 compounds into the local groundwater system, a through-  
494 flow system toward a seasonal creek line in the southwest  
495 will most likely affect the groundwater system. Based on  
496 our analyses, the open pit with no backfill and the partially  
497 backfilled scenarios were identified as likely terminal sinks.  
498 In contrast, the fully backfilled scenario was predicted to be  
499 a through-flow system and likely to introduce AMD into  
500 the groundwater system. Furthermore, there was a 5 %  
501 probability that after 35 years, the fully backfilled pit water  
502 level would rise high enough to decant to nearby surface  
503 waters.

## 504 Discussion

505 Mine closure is increasingly recognised as a whole-land-  
506 scape development exercise that must take into account all  
507 closure landform elements and how they will interact over  
508 time (Younger and Wolkersdorfer 2004; McCullough and  
509 Van Etten 2011). The catchment provides an ideal scale at  
510 which to holistically consider performance and interaction  
511 of these closure elements; often, the catchment will be  
512 artificially constrained such that the lowest part where  
513 water reports in the open pit becomes a pit lake.

514 Both of these case studies indicate that a partial back-  
515 filled pit and the formation of a terminal sink pit lake may  
516 pose less environmental risk than a completely backfilled  
517 pit where contaminants could be transported by seepage to  
518 the groundwater (MCA 1997).

519 Nevertheless, the water quality of terminal sink lakes is  
520 expected to deteriorate over time due to evaporation (Eary  
521 1998), particularly in highly alkaline or acidic lakes (Eary  
522 1999). Since such lakes are essentially abiotic, with little or  
523 no attenuation of contaminants occurring, this poor water  
524 quality is unlikely to be resolved naturally, even over long  
525 time scales (McCullough 2008). Poor water quality in such  
526 lakes may pose a threat to local wildlife and migratory  
527 waterfowl and will have limited options for post-mining  
528 use. Although not desirable in itself, this water quality  
529 deterioration indicates that the pit lake is functioning as a  
530 terminal sink and protecting the greater undisturbed  
531 regional environment off the project footprint from seepage  
532 of AMD-contaminated water resulting from exposed pit  
533 wall or in-pit disposal of waste rock.

534 In the long term, increasing solute concentrations in the  
535 terminal sink pit lake would increase water density. This  
536 concentration change may cause density-driven flow into  
537 the surrounding groundwater under certain hydrogeological

538 conditions (Gvirtzman 2006) and should be investigated as  
539 part of a complete risk assessment process for development  
540 of a definitive phase mine closure plan strategy.

541 Stability of physical and chemical conditions inside the  
542 deposited waste and at its interface with the lake environ-  
543 ment is the main prerequisite for successful long term  
544 storage of waste in a pit lake (Schultze et al. 2011). As  
545 such, climate change should also be a key consideration in  
546 the development of pit lakes used as terminal sinks for  
547 mine closure. For example, an increasingly wet climate  
548 may lead terminal sink pit lakes to become through-flow  
549 through seepage or even decant, i.e. overflow. Similarly,  
550 even though mean net precipitation may not change, an  
551 increase in intense rainfall events such as cyclone fre-  
552 quencies may still lead to similar mobilisation of degraded  
553 pit lake waters. Such inappropriate application of an ter-  
554 minal sink conceptual model to sites that fail, even infre-  
555 quently, to behave as terminal sinks may present risk to  
556 downstream water resources (Bredehoft 2005). Conse-  
557 quently, although pit lakes as terminal sinks may greatly  
558 reduce risk of off-site water quality problems, conditions  
559 such as decanting (through high/seasonal rainfall events or  
560 filling to higher level than expected) (Commander et al.  
561 1994), density- driven seepage caused by increased salin-  
562 ity, or the pit lake rising to heights above surrounding  
563 groundwater levels during high/seasonal rainfall events,  
564 should be explicitly considered as part of the conceptual  
565 model driving a closure plan incorporating terminal sinks  
566 as key design elements. Further important considerations  
567 will be the potential for resource sterilisation through any  
568 backfill activity and health and safety considerations for  
569 both human and wildlife populations associated with  
570 retaining an open pit as a final landform. The latter may  
571 require a formal environmental risk assessment of the  
572 effects of a terminal pit lake in the closure landscape.

## 573 Conclusions

574 Although often prescriptively proposed as best practice by  
575 a number of regulatory and sustainability organisations,  
576 fully or partially backfilled pit may sometimes lead to  
577 poorer regional closure outcomes than retaining a pit lake  
578 of some form, especially in arid and semi-arid regions. This  
579 demonstrates the need to consider mine closure planning  
580 on a case-by-case basis as well as for closure strategies to  
581 be founded on good empirical evidence, with water balance  
582 and geochemical modelling results frequently being key  
583 considerations. Furthermore, a good knowledge of pre-  
584 mining conditions and groundwater system will almost  
585 always be mandatory to develop a reliable water balance  
586 model and predictive simulations of any pit closure  
587 scenarios.



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