

# Toward sustainable reprocessing and valorization of sulfidic copper tailings: scenarios and prospective LCA

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## Abstract

There has been increasing attention recently to reprocessing of mining waste, which aims to recover potentially valuable materials such as metals and other byproducts from untapped resources. Mining waste valorization may offer environmental advantages over traditional make-waste-dispose approaches. However, a quantitative environmental assessment for large-scale reprocessing, accounting for future trends and a broad set of environmental indicators, is still lacking. This article assesses the life cycle impacts and resource recovery potential associated with alternative waste management through mine tailings reprocessing at a regional scale. Sulfidic copper tailings in the EU were selected as a case study. We perform prospective life cycle assessments of future reprocessing scenarios by considering emerging resource recovery technologies, market supply & demand forecasts, and energy system changes. We find that some reprocessing and valorization technologies in future scenarios may have reduction potentials for multiple impact indicators. However, results for indicators such as climate change and energy-related impacts suggest that specific scenarios perform sub-optimally due to energy/resource-intensive processes. The environmental performance of reprocessing of tailings is influenced by technology routes, secondary material market penetration, and choices of displaced products. The trade-off between climate change and energy related impacts, on the one hand, and toxicity impacts, on the other hand, requires

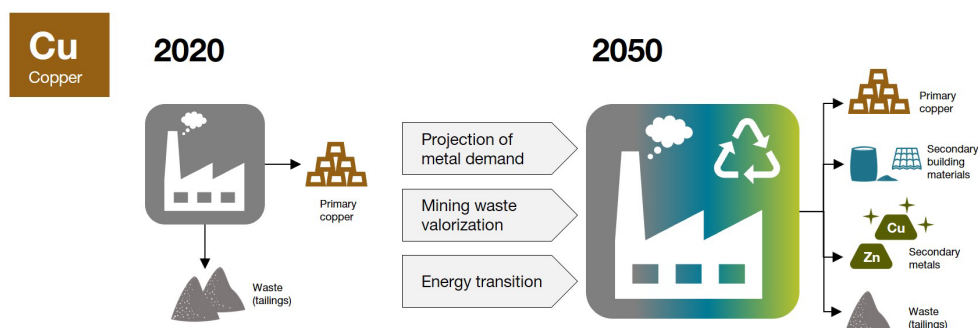
25 critical appraisal by decision makers when promoting alternative tailings reprocessing.  
26 Implementing value recovery strategies for building material production, can save up to 3 Mt  
27 CO<sub>2</sub>-eq in 2050 compared to business as usual, helping the copper sector mitigate climate  
28 impacts. Additional climate mitigation efforts in demand-side management are needed though  
29 to achieve the 1.5 °C climate target. This work provides a scientific basis for decision-making  
30 toward more sustainable reprocessing and valorization of sulfidic tailings.

31 **Keywords:** Mine waste, resource recovery, circular economy, life cycle assessment, scenario  
32 analysis

### 33 Highlights

- 34 • Environmental impacts of copper tailings reprocessing in the EU are quantified.
- 35 • Future scenario narratives are leveraged to create prospective life cycle assessment models.
- 36 • Copper tailings reprocessing can mitigate GHG emissions and toxicity impacts in 2050.
- 37 • Tailings reprocessing can supply up to 2% of future European copper demand.
- 38 • Tradeoffs exist between climate change and ecotoxicity impacts for different reprocessing  
39 scenarios.

### 40 Graphical abstract



41

## 42 **1 Introduction**

43 The demand to solve waste accumulation problems and to supply resources sustainably have  
44 accelerated progress in emerging value recovery technologies (Rankin, 2017; Shaw et al.,  
45 2013). The mining sector is no exception. Among the most environmentally threatening waste  
46 problems is the disposal of mine tailings. When handled poorly, tailings can be the precursor  
47 of acid mine drainage, posing toxic contamination to the surroundings, even long after mines  
48 have ceased operations (Lottermoser, 2010). Currently, management options rely mostly on  
49 engineered storage through landfilling or backfilling (Kalisz et al., 2022). In the case of storage  
50 facilities, there are structural risks associated with long-term durability. Failures to manage  
51 such integrity-related risks may lead to dam collapses and environmental catastrophes  
52 (Schoenberger, 2016). Approximately 8 billion tonnes of tailings are generated annually, 46%  
53 of which comes from copper production, according to the latest estimates in the Global Tailings  
54 Review (Mudd and Boger, 2013; Oberle et al., 2020). These figures are supposed to grow as  
55 more minerals are consumed worldwide to support growth trends in emerging regions  
56 (Elshkaki et al., 2018; Herrington, 2021). Moreover, low-carbon power production such as  
57 solar, wind, and tidal, requires metals – a large fraction of which is fulfilled with primary  
58 mining (Lee et al., 2020; Valero et al., 2018; Vidal et al., 2013). Consequently, safe and  
59 sustainable solutions must be found for large quantities of mine tailings.

60 Many researchers and practitioners have been looking for improved management options with  
61 better environmental, social, and economic outcomes. With the advantages of gaining access  
62 to secondary materials and reducing waste volume, Edraki et al. (2014) and Whitworth et al.  
63 (2022) highlight value-adding opportunities in tailings reprocessing to recover metals and  
64 minerals. According to Spooren et al. (2020), extractive waste residues, such as tailings, may  
65 contain metal concentrations that can be higher than what can be found in the range of current

66 economic ore grades of primary ores. Recent advancements in pyro-, hydro-, bio-, and solvo-  
67 metallurgical processing for metal extraction/recovery may capitalize on these undervalued  
68 stocks and make mine waste a resource. In addition to stranded valuable metals, the leftover  
69 residues can also be processed through valorization steps. Such steps add value by transforming  
70 residues into industrial materials, avoiding landfilling (Binnemans et al., 2015). In recent years,  
71 many studies have demonstrated viable production of alternative cement and ceramics derived  
72 from tailings (Ahmed et al., 2021; Martins et al., 2021; Niu et al., 2020; Pyo et al., 2018; Veiga  
73 Simão et al., 2021). Through valorization, tailings can also be used as raw materials in the  
74 secondary production of alkali-activated polymers: low-carbon substitutes for today's  
75 emission-intensive products such as ordinary Portland cement (Bernal et al., 2016; Mabroum  
76 et al., 2020). These opportunities generate growing interest among stakeholders and  
77 manufacturers to identify technically promising resource-recovery technologies with market  
78 and sustainability potential.

79 In the EU, recent years have witnessed a surge in innovations and research developments that  
80 aim to secure metals with high economic importance and avoid supply disruptions (Løvik et  
81 al., 2018). Policymakers have increasingly linked the contribution of emerging mine waste  
82 management technologies to overarching initiatives such as the European Green Deal  
83 (European Commission, 2019) and the Circular Economy Action Plan (European Commission,  
84 2020). To translate plans into tangible findings for policy support, Blengini et al. (2019)  
85 provide various estimates of the potential recovery of several minerals compared to the current  
86 demand. Based on their simplified analysis, the authors concluded that the co-production of  
87 low-volume materials of high values and high-volume bulk minerals must be performed  
88 together to make the process environmentally viable and resource efficient. This is especially  
89 the case when specific metals are found at low concentrations in the mining waste heaps or

90 landfills. In the EU, an innovative and integrated resource recovery research project SULTAN  
91 (<https://etn-sultan.eu/>) investigated the valorization of sulfidic mine waste from primary  
92 mining activities. SULTAN's core technologies include metal extraction/recovery via, e.g.,  
93 microwave/chemical assisted leaching and mineral residue valorization, aiming to convert  
94 waste into various industrial materials and create environmental benefits. While the idea seems  
95 initially favorable, collecting waste materials and processing them to useful products require  
96 energy inputs and resources. This may lead to unintended consequences and failures to reduce  
97 the net environmental impacts. Therefore, the environmental benefits and impacts need to be  
98 assessed.

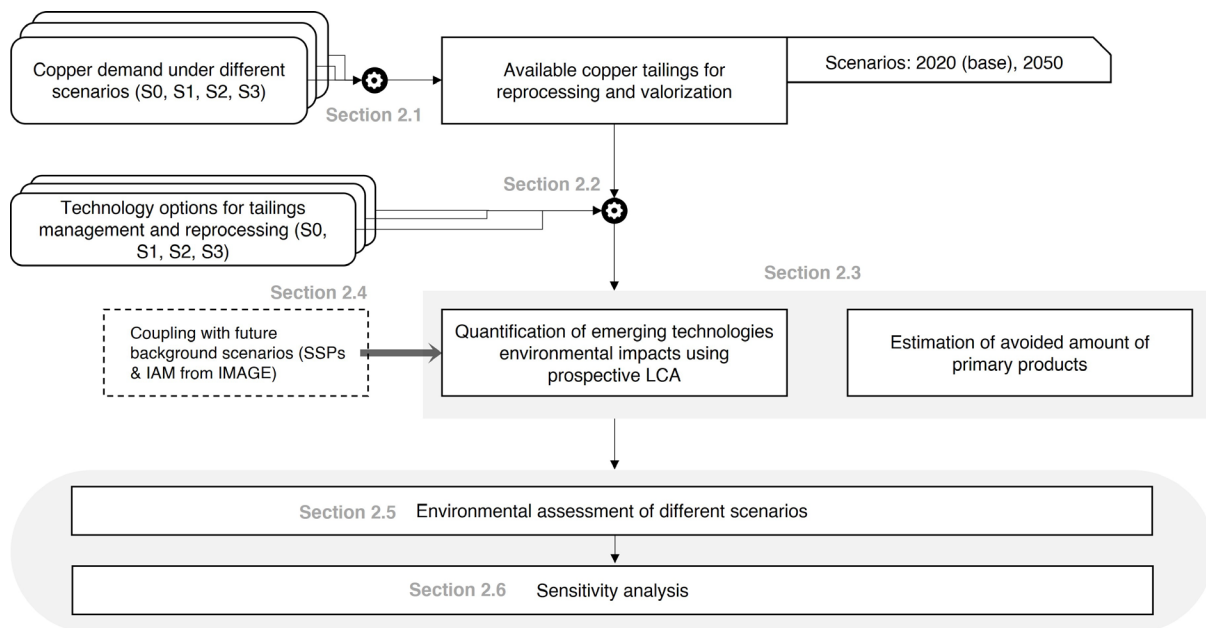
99 Life cycle assessment (LCA) is a standardized method to assess the environmental impact  
100 throughout the life cycle stages of a product/service, including raw material extraction to the  
101 disposal process (ISO, 2006). Known for its ability to identify environmental hotspots, LCA is  
102 also increasingly applied in the minerals industry (Segura-Salazar et al., 2019). LCA studies of  
103 mine tailings treatment generally find that waste reprocessing and valorization strategies tend  
104 to reduce environmental impacts in comparison to conventional tailings management, but not  
105 always (Adiansyah et al., 2017; Adrianto and Pfister, 2022; Grzesik et al., 2019; Song et al.,  
106 2017; Vargas et al., 2020). Variability in feedstock characteristics, treatment pathways, and  
107 potential secondary products will determine the net environmental performance as well as  
108 technical and economic applicability of these reprocessing and valorization options (Beylot et  
109 al., 2022). Some studies incorporate scenario modeling to build forward-looking analysis or  
110 prospective LCA. Those studies have analyzed that parameters like metal supply, technology  
111 efficiency, production routes, and background energy system may significantly influence the  
112 resulting environmental impacts (Ciacci et al., 2020; Elshkaki et al., 2018; Harpprecht et al.,  
113 2021; Kuipers et al., 2018; Rötzer and Schmidt, 2020; Van der Voet et al., 2019). No analysis

114 has so far evaluated large-scale reprocessing of tailings through prospective LCA, accounting  
115 for the combined effects of various future scenarios.

116 This study aims to quantify the environmental benefits, impacts, and tradeoffs of large-scale  
117 deployments of copper tailings reprocessing and mineral valorization technologies in the EU.  
118 The prospective nature of this assessment requires scenario modeling. To assess secondary  
119 production potential in future scenarios, we estimate the available volume of secondary  
120 products and compare them with the primary demand in 2050 based on market forecasts. The  
121 anticipated environmental footprints are assessed for a multitude of indicators to detect  
122 potential environmental burden shifting. Environmental performances for different scenarios  
123 are explored by incorporating projections in the energy transition, technological improvements  
124 for the primary copper sector, and resource-recovery technologies for copper tailings.

## 125 **2 Method**

126 In this study, we develop a framework to quantify the environmental performance of tailings  
127 reprocessing and the potential replacement from the recovered products. Figure 1 gives an  
128 overview of framework elements. This covers several steps, which are explained in the  
129 following sections: (2.1) goal and scope, (2.2) scenario development, (2.3) modeling approach  
130 and data, (2.4) background inventories, (2.5) assessment of environmental benefits and impacts  
131 of the investigated scenarios, and (2.6) sensitivity analysis.



132

133 Figure 1. Workflow of the study. SSP: shared socioeconomic pathways, IAM: integrated assessment  
 134 model.

## 135 2.1 Life cycle assessment: goal and scope

136 The goal of this study is (1) to evaluate the environmental benefits and tradeoffs between the  
 137 secondary resources potential and energy/materials needed to perform the resource-recovery  
 138 systems and (2) to estimate the large-scale impacts of copper tailings reprocessing in the EU.  
 139 System-wide environmental analyses are performed to simulate the environmental implications  
 140 of recycling/reprocessing sulfidic copper tailings. The zero-burden assumption is applied, i.e.,  
 141 the environmental burdens of copper tailings generation are excluded (Ekvall et al., 2007). The  
 142 functional unit (FU) of this study is defined as “the treatment and management of sulfidic  
 143 copper tailings arising in the EU in the year 2020/2050”. The system expansion approach is  
 144 applied to assign the credits for the avoided primary productions. The substitution effects of  
 145 secondary products from these alternative processes are considered in the modeling, potentially  
 146 substituting the primary production of materials (Ekvall, 2020; Schrijvers et al., 2020).  
 147 Specifically for offsetting products/services, a systematic selection procedure is applied based  
 148 on current and future production trends (Section 2.3.4). In addition, the nature of this study

149 involves prospective elements such as emerging recovery technologies and future energy  
150 scenarios, which encompasses changes in foreground and background systems.

## 151 **2.2 Scenario development**

152 Initially, a baseline scenario in 2020 is developed based on historical production data of copper  
153 in the EU from a combination of sources: statistics from international copper study group and  
154 commodity market intelligence platform (ICSG, 2021; S&P, 2020). Whenever available, site-  
155 specific data (i.e., volume and feedstock characteristics) for each mine site and the country is  
156 retrieved from the global sulfidic copper tailings assessment of Adrianto et al. (2022).

157 Future copper needs and hence, mining activities will determine the future availability of  
158 copper tailings and reprocessing potential. Three scenarios for 2050 are explored based on  
159 projected, prospective dynamic material flow analysis linked with resource scenarios of the  
160 previous studies by Ciacci et al. (2020) and Elshkaki et al. (2018). These are then coupled with  
161 the climate scenarios and future projections taken from the shared socioeconomic pathways  
162 (SSPs) with varying climate protection measures (Riahi et al., 2017).

163 The SSP2 "middle of the road" scenarios are selected in this study, which forecast  
164 developments similar to current trends without considerable changes in the development  
165 trajectories (O'Neill et al., 2017; van Vuuren et al., 2017). In addition to the baseline SSP2  
166 scenario, restrictive climate policy scenarios are combined with the representative  
167 concentration pathways (RCPs) to reach stringent radiative forcing targets (Fricko et al., 2017).  
168 Projection of energy use/supply inventories and socio-economic information in the SSP2  
169 scenarios are derived from the widely used integrated assessment models (IAMs) IMAGE  
170 (Stehfest et al., 2014). All of the SSP2 scenarios in this study assume climate mitigation in the  
171 background energy systems leading to a radiative forcing of  $1.9 \text{ W/m}^2$  in 2100, which



172 corresponds to 1.5°C maximum global temperature increase in 2100 relative to pre-industrial  
 173 levels. For scenario 1, only conventional tailings management is applied, in line with the  
 174 business-as-usual scenario. Scenario 2 relies on resource-recovery technologies with higher  
 175 maturity levels and less product novelty/complexity than scenario 3, i.e., the production of  
 176 industrial waste-based ceramics in scenario 2 (see section 2.3.3 for detailed comparison). These  
 177 two scenarios are specifically designed to model technological innovations already described  
 178 in the previous study (Adrianto and Pfister, 2022). The linking of scenarios and reconciliations  
 179 of narratives result in three future scenarios, as summarized in Table 1.

180 Table 1. Scenario definitions.

	<b>Tailings management options – Metal demand scenarios</b>	<b>Background energy systems and equivalent SSP-RCP narratives*</b>
Baseline scenario	S0: Business as usual (BAU) route	Current energy systems
Future scenarios	S1: BAU route – Toward equitability 2050	Climate mitigation (1.5°C scenario), in line with SSP2-RCP 1.9 W/m <sup>2</sup>
	S2: Mineral valorization route – Toward equitability 2050	
	S3: Metal and mineral recovery route – Toward equitability 2050	

181 Note: \*Scenarios are chosen to be as consistent as possible among each other, following the IPCC special report guidelines  
 182 (IPCC, 2018). Metal demand scenarios were taken from the study of Ciacci et al. (2020).

183 The storylines developed for each management scenario are explained as follows:

- 184 • Business-as-usual scenario in 2020 and scenario 1 in 2050  
 185 Copper tailings are either stored in the dam and/or backfilled. The volume of backfilled  
 186 materials depends on the mine site's configuration and site information (section 2.3.2).  
 187 Backfills also require additional materials and energy consumption, such as cement binder,  
 188 slags, diesel, and electricity in the operational phase. In the year 2050, it is assumed that all

189 land mining operations will install backfilling operations to manage their tailings as one of  
190 the current best practice approaches.

191 • Mineral valorization route, scenario 2 in 2050

192 Technology improvement and successful commercialization allow building materials such  
193 as ceramics and alternative cement to be partly produced through tailings valorization. By  
194 2050, there will be a trend toward cleaner energy mixes with less fossil resource  
195 dependence. Industry and consumers steadily accept tailings-based products in standard  
196 applications, which help substitute primary products.

197 • Metal and mineral recovery route, scenario 3 in 2050

198 Further technology efficiency improvements and renewable energy systems are anticipated  
199 in this scenario. A notable advancement in the recycling technologies has enabled high  
200 purity metal recycling to be feasible. Emerging products such as alkali-activated binders  
201 (i.e., geopolymer as binder alternative to ordinary Portland cement) are assumed to enter  
202 the market. There is also a possibility to generate additional byproducts, such as sulfuric  
203 acid, thanks to the downstream processing of SO<sub>2</sub> gases.

## 204 **2.3 Modeling approach and data**

### 205 *2.3.1 Demand projection and prospective tailings flows*

206 Ciacci et al. (2020) estimated the potential demands for copper in the EU in 2050 using scenario  
207 analysis. These include demands for standard applications, i.e., construction, infrastructure,  
208 industry, transport & mobility, and consumer goods. To estimate total demands, copper  
209 demands for standard applications are added together with the transition demand of 1.5 Mt/year  
210 for clean energy technologies (section 1.1 of the SI). Despite this additional increase, Europe's  
211 copper mine production is expected to stay at the current level of 0.8 Mt/year, according to the  
212 metal outlook report (Gregoir and Van Acker, 2022). This domestic copper supply is used to

213 estimate the potential volume of copper tailings. To account for copper grade declines, it is  
214 assumed that the degradation of copper ore grades follows the power regression relationship  
215 according to Crowson (2012). Copper tailings are produced from different mines, and thus it  
216 is important to fully characterize the quality and quantity of copper tailings at each site. This  
217 was performed by considering site-specific data of the generated copper tailings in the  
218 baseline/future scenarios using market data from the S&P market intelligence platform (S&P,  
219 2020) and regionalized environmental assessment of sulfidic copper tailings (Adrianto et al.,  
220 2022). Therefore, this study only focuses on tailings assessment for active copper sites, as the  
221 site-specific tailings data from abandoned mines or closed operations are not completely  
222 available.

### 223 *2.3.2 Existing copper tailings management life cycle inventory*

224 The following section concerns the BAU and future scenario 1, as defined in section 2.2.  
225 Tailings management in Europe mainly involves two options: 1) tailings disposal/landfilling in  
226 the storage facility and 2) backfill for underground operation support (JRC, 2018). The share  
227 of landfilling to backfilling is dependent upon site configuration. This ratio for landfilling and  
228 backfilling at each site is reported in the EU best available technologies document for tailings  
229 and waste rock management. The backfilling share is approximately 10% of total tailings in  
230 2020 (European Commission, 2009). For the year 2050, it is assumed that a higher ratio of 30%  
231 for backfilling will be applied (Garbarino et al., 2020).

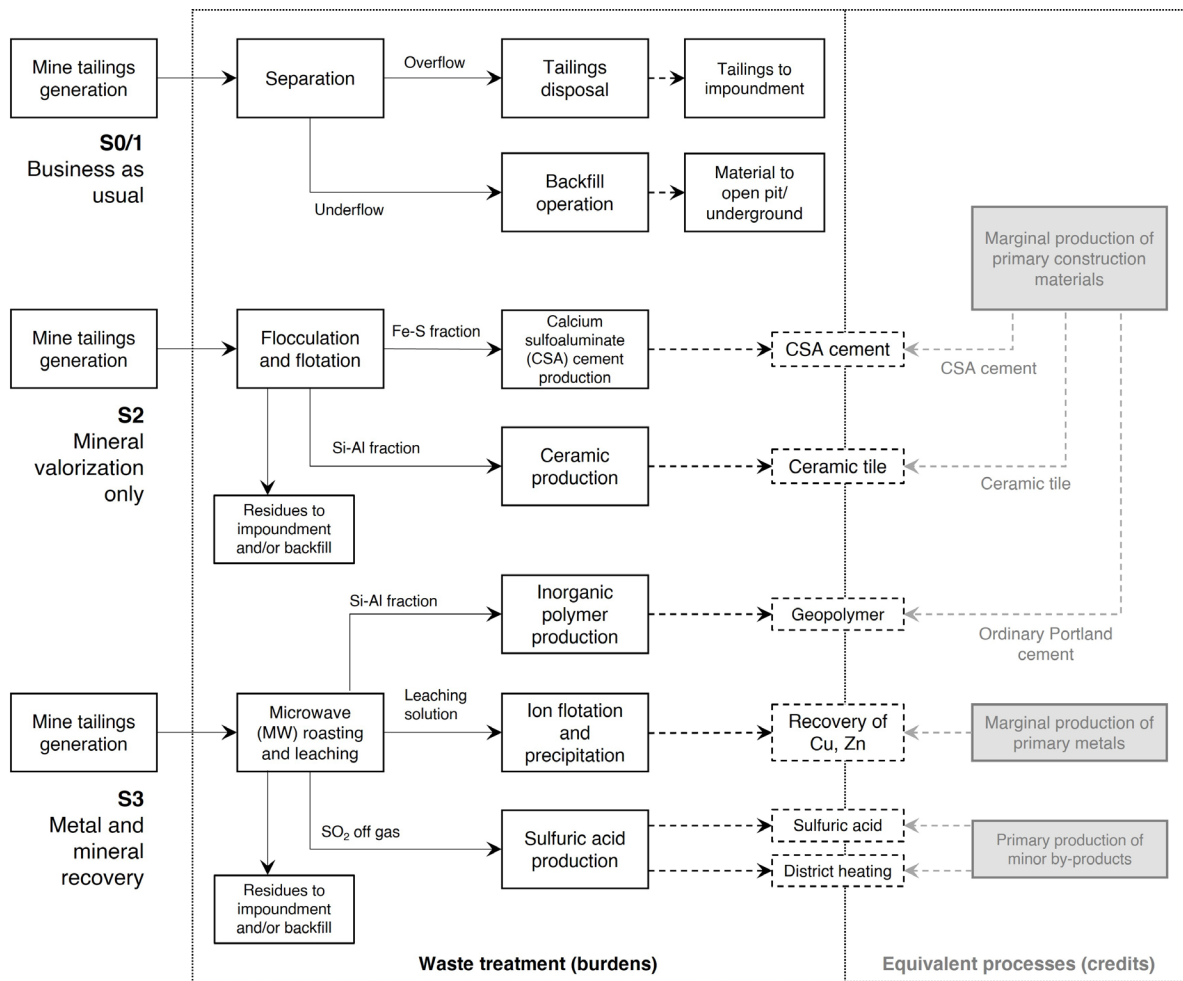
232 For the first method via landfilling, tailings may contain heavy metals and interact with the  
233 environment, which may generate long-term emissions to the freshwater bodies. Landfilling of  
234 copper tailings is modeled using the site-specific end-of-life inventories from the study of  
235 Adrianto et al. (2022). Meanwhile, the backfilling operation datasets are derived from the  
236 primary LCA data of the actual backfill plants (Reid et al., 2009). The latter is assumed to

237 represent copper tailings' backfilling plant unit processes. However, the resource consumption  
238 (i.e., cement, diesel, quicklime, etc.) and emissions during operation from the original study  
239 are adjusted to the capacity of copper sites under the current research. Cement stabilization of  
240 the backfilled residues was assumed to prevent any leaching emissions.

### 241 *2.3.3 Emerging copper tailings valorization life cycle inventory*

242 For the two future scenarios (scenarios 2 and 3), it is assumed that tailings management options  
243 are a function of combined technologies in the reprocessing routes. Figure 2 shows the  
244 developed process flowsheet for large-scale resource recovery efforts for copper tailings.

245 We employ prospective LCA for foreground and background systems (Arvidsson et al., 2018).  
246 Adrianto et al. (2022) modeled large-scale production of emerging resource recovery systems  
247 for copper tailings in foreground systems. They provided life cycle inventories based on  
248 suitable technology upscaling methods for respective technologies (section 1.2 of the SI). The  
249 background systems, such as future energy (i.e., power generation and heat) mixes, are based  
250 on the IAM IMAGE SSP2-RCP 1.9, which forecasts energy scenarios up to 2050, aligning  
251 with the SSP narratives (van Vuuren et al., 2012). The datasets for other materials and  
252 background datasets pertinent to the system in this analysis are explained in the following  
253 sections.



254

255 Figure 2. Management options for copper tailings applying standard disposal practices S0/S1 (Years  
 256 2020 and 2050) and two alternative resource recovery scenarios, S2 and S3 (Year 2050).

257 **2.3.4 Marginal technologies for substituted products**

258 As mentioned previously, this work applies a system expansion or substitution approach.  
 259 Consequently, selecting the appropriate displaced products/processes is a key part of LCA  
 260 studies (Vadenbo et al., 2017). We follow the identification approach of marginal data  
 261 developed by Ekvall and Weidema (2004) and Weidema et al. (2009) for determining affected  
 262 market processes. The approach has the advantage of determining possible marginal production  
 263 without economic models and price information. Here, the long-term physical changes in  
 264 supply, i.e., production quantities and growth trends of materials in different regions were taken  
 265 into account (see section 5.1 in SI). There are two sub-scenarios in the environmental

266 assessment of this study. For S0 and S1, no substitution approach is applied since the systems  
267 do not produce substituting secondary products.

268 Meanwhile, for the year 2050 (S2 and S3), capital investment and technological breakthroughs  
269 may play roles and are considered to reflect progress for both existing and new technologies.  
270 We made performance estimations based on forecast and material outlook for specific products,  
271 considering future-oriented environmental assessments of the construction materials (Alig et  
272 al., 2021). In the base cases, it is assumed that all secondary production routes are based in  
273 Europe, i.e., secondary production replaces primary European production (Table S9). The  
274 assumptions made and details for the marginal production technologies (referring to sensitivity  
275 in section 2.6) for each relevant process are the following:

276 • **Calcium sulfoaluminate (CSA) cement.** CSA cement is commercially produced for many  
277 applications where high early strength and rapid setting developments are necessary, such  
278 as patching roadways, bridge decks, airport runways, tunneling, and others. EU cement  
279 research statistics reported that small quantities are made in Europe, which can be applied  
280 according to technical approvals (ECRA and CSI, 2017). It is assumed that in 2020, 0.1%  
281 of the traditional cement market will be taken by CSA cement, and this number will grow  
282 to 15% in 2050. These values follow market penetration rates for alternative cement from  
283 holistic cement review studies (Favier et al., 2018; Habert et al., 2020).

284 • **Ceramic.** Most European ceramics are produced domestically in Italy, Germany, and Spain  
285 (Cerame-Unie, 2021). These internal ceramic producers are identified as the marginal  
286 production process. It is assumed that theoretical efficiency upgrades will materialize in the  
287 future, as described in the best available technology document (European Commission, 2007;  
288 Ros-Dosdá et al., 2018). Besides that, aggressive emission reduction strategies for the year  
289 2050 are also taken from the EU ceramic association roadmaps (Cerame-Unie, 2021).

- 290 • **Ordinary Portland cement.** We rely on IEA cement technology roadmaps to define future  
291 cement production's environmental performance (IEA, 2018). If not stated in the roadmaps,  
292 technological upgrades are taken from the best available technology document (JRC, 2013)  
293 and European efficient cement manufacturing (Croezen and Korteland, 2010).  
294 Monoethanolamine (MEA) based CO<sub>2</sub> capture technologies with 90% absorption  
295 efficiency are considered in future cement production routes. We assume this technology  
296 is the marginal production for the European cement market in 2050, while those imported  
297 from major players in India and China are defined as alternative marginal suppliers in the  
298 sensitivity analysis.
- 299 • **Copper and zinc.** According to the IEA critical minerals special report (2021), refined  
300 copper would be globally sourced from a mix of countries. As alternative sourcing  
301 strategies, the EU imports copper mainly from Latin America, i.e., Chile and Peru (Gregoir  
302 and Van Acker, 2022). Copper production via pyrometallurgical smelting technologies  
303 remains the major production pathway worldwide. Aside from domestic production, copper  
304 produced via pyrometallurgical smelters from Chile and Peru is assumed to be the next  
305 marginal technology. For future production, energy savings potential was taken into  
306 account, assuming a reduction in electricity and fuel demand by 20% and 55%, respectively  
307 (Kuipers et al., 2018; Kulczycka et al., 2016). Zinc would be produced from mines and  
308 refineries using electrometallurgical smelting technologies (Van Genderen et al., 2016).  
309 From a recent zinc commodity report (USGS, 2022), China would remain the largest  
310 producer and is hypothetically assumed to be the marginal supplier. For future zinc  
311 production, energy demand (i.e., electricity and natural gas) are reduced by 12% according  
312 to the optimized energy consumption capacity (Qi et al., 2017).
- 313 • **Sulfuric acid and heat.** Over the last decades, a steady increase in sulfuric acid use for  
314 phosphate and sulfate fertilizers has driven its global demand (King et al., 2013a). Since

315 the market is distributed widely across regions, sulfuric acid production from elemental  
316 sulfur burning and heat generation (natural gas) is assumed to occur in Europe. The  
317 parameters for future sulfuric acid plants are taken from the best available technology  
318 document (European Commission, 2007).

## 319 **2.4 Environmental background inventories**

320 To facilitate the creation of prospective life cycle inventories covering future background  
321 systems, the software 'premise' is used to integrate future scenarios (Sacchi et al., 2022). This  
322 generates a systematic, complete set of prospective LCA databases containing results from the  
323 IAM IMAGE for SSP2 RCP 1.9 scenarios. The background data related to energy and material  
324 consumption in LCA are taken from Ecoinvent 3.8 database (Ecoinvent, 2022), which comply  
325 with the material types and grades applied for the study context whenever possible.

## 326 **2.5 Environmental impact modeling**

327 All scenarios are evaluated by LCA using various environmental indicators: climate change  
328 (IPCC, 2014), USEtox toxicity-related impacts (Rosenbaum et al., 2008), cumulative energy  
329 demand (Frischknecht et al., 2015), abiotic depletion potential (van Oers et al., 2002), and  
330 ReCiPe 2016 endpoint categories (Huijbregts et al., 2017). This selection of impact indicators  
331 aims to capture the most relevant impact categories when dealing with waste management and  
332 metal/mineral processing and supports comparability with other LCA studies. The  
333 environmental impact assessment is performed using the Activity Browser software (Steubing  
334 et al., 2020).

## 335 **2.6 Sensitivity analysis**

336 Sensitivity analyses are performed to test the robustness of the results and the influence of  
337 modeling choices. First, the market penetration rates of secondary products are varied from the



338 default case, resulting in two cases: high market penetration (HM case) and worst-case  
339 assumptions (Table S7 in SI). Second, the substitution ratio of secondary materials made from  
340 tailings relative to primary materials is varied from 0.5 to the assumed default ratio 1. Ratios  
341 of substitutability might change due to differences in technical performance, perceived  
342 functionality, and market response factors, according to Vadenbo et al. (2017). This includes  
343 the effect of impurities in the products that may prevent product acceptance in the market.  
344 Third, the identified marginal productions may influence the substitution benefits for each  
345 secondary product and thus ultimately change the net environmental impacts of tailings  
346 management scenarios. In the coming decades, market shifts are expected. They might deviate  
347 from the current predicted industry trends, i.e., declining material production in the domestic  
348 market while increasing dependence on global imports of finished goods or vice versa. These  
349 would lead to changes in marginal technologies for such products and thereby define  
350 corresponding marginal suppliers outside the EU (Table S9).

### 351 **3 Results and discussion**

#### 352 **3.1 Secondary production from the reprocessing of copper tailings**

353 Table 2 depicts how much secondary material can be produced from tailings in the EU and the  
354 volume of materials that can substitute their primary counterparts. For construction materials  
355 (i.e., ceramic and cement) across all scenarios, around 10-15% of market penetration was  
356 assumed due to market demand/supply constraints. This substantially limits the maximum  
357 scale-up potential of tailings valorization in industrial products. These effects are pronounced  
358 for ordinary Portland cement products. For illustration, less than 5% of OPC market share is  
359 assumed to be substituted by tailings-based geopolymers in 2050.

360 Table 2. Secondary production potential vs. material demand in EU. Volume unit in million tonnes.

Scenario	Secondary Material	Maximum possible secondary supply	Primary material substituted	Total demand forecast in 2050	Adjusted secondary demand	Fraction of secondary material uptaken in the market	Data source (for demand)
2	Ceramic tile	539	Ceramic tile	72 <sup>a</sup>	61 <sup>i</sup>	11%	(Cerame-Unie, 2021; Ceramic World Web, 2021)
	CSA cement	127	CSA cement	25 <sup>b</sup>	19 <sup>ii</sup>	15%	(Habert et al., 2020; Kelly et al., 2018)
3	Geopolymer	64	OPC cement	167 <sup>c</sup>	6 <sup>ii</sup>	10%	(Cembureau, 2022; IEA, 2018)
	Copper	0.1	Primary copper	4.6	0.1	Could be 100%	(Gregoir and Van Acker, 2022)
	Zinc	0.08	Primary zinc	2.9	0.08	Could be 100%	(Gregoir and Van Acker, 2022)
	Sulfuric acid	12	Sulfuric acid	25 <sup>d</sup>	12	Could be 100%	(ChemIntel360, 2022; King et al., 2013a)

361 Note: a = annual growth rate of 4.1% from 2020 to 2050

362 b = CSA cement takes 15% of OPC demand share due to alumina availability

363 c = assumed stable consumption in Europe throughout the century

364 d = future demand is forecast through the current Europe consumption trajectory

365 i = assumed to be 85% of the primary demand according to the green procurement projection (European Commission, 2016; Sapir et al., 2022)

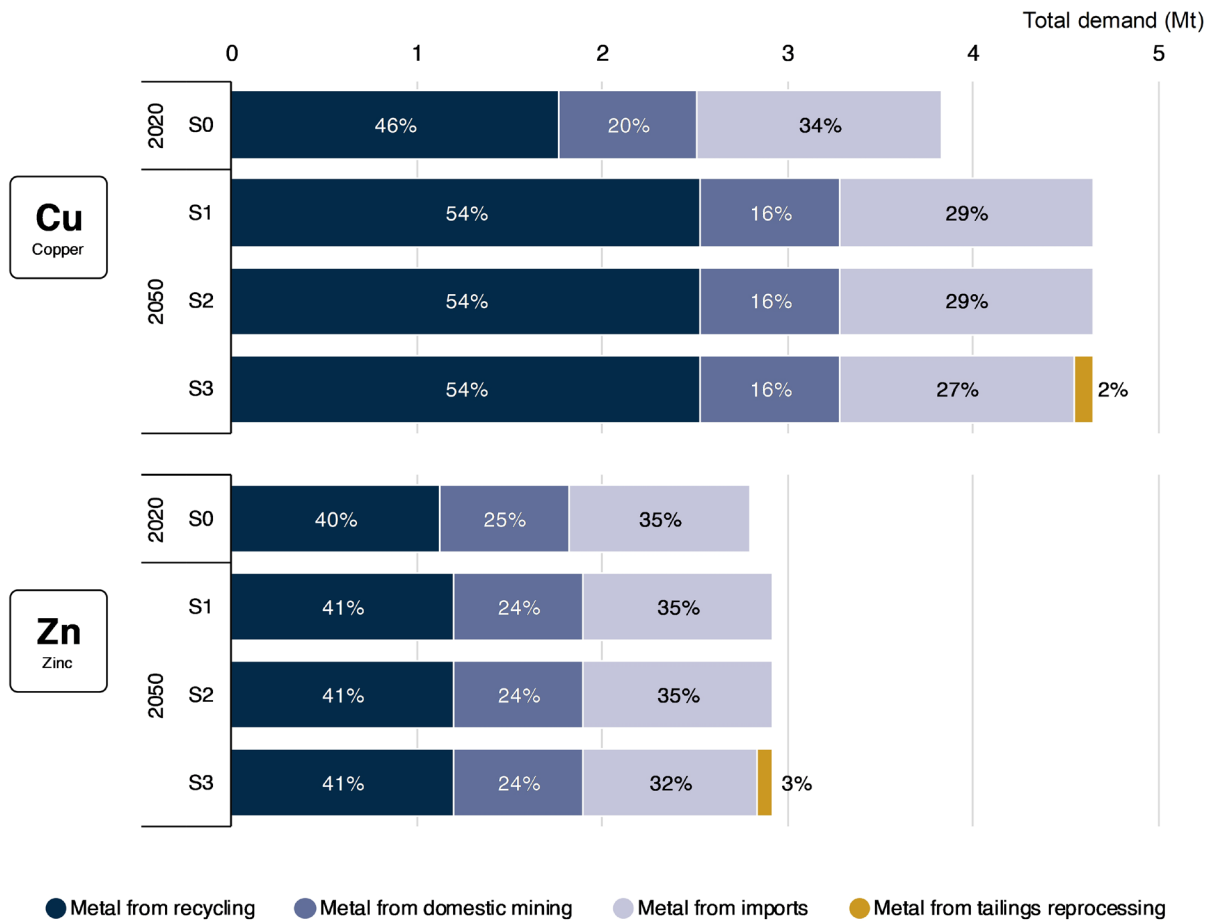
366 ii = market penetration and raw ingredient availability are taken from the study of Habert et al. (2020)

368 Secondary cement products will likely face production constraints due to the scarcity of raw  
 369 ingredients (Habert et al., 2020; Scrivener et al., 2018). The limited availability of raw materials  
 370 is widely recognized as the main hindrance to the rapid scale-up potentials of CSA cement  
 371 (Gartner and Sui, 2018) and geopolymer (Provis, 2018). CSA cement production chain requires  
 372 alumina sources such as bauxite, which competes directly with aluminum metal production.  
 373 To overcome this issue, high alumina or clay substitutes suitable for CSA cement  
 374 manufacturing are under investigation (Galluccio et al., 2019; Negrão et al., 2022). For a  
 375 similar reason, the scale-up rates of geopolymer are also limited by the conventional alkali  
 376 activators like sodium silicate in the value chain. Untapped resources of raw materials such as  
 377 glass waste and red mud (Joyce et al., 2018; Mendes et al., 2021) can be exploited to produce  
 378 geopolymers with similar mechanical strength to conventional ones. Therefore, large-scale

379 production of these two types of cement depends on the availability of abundant, technically  
380 feasible, and cost-competitive alternative raw materials.

381 In contrast, market demand can absorb the entire volume of recovered metals in scenario 3,  
382 except for geopolymers. Increased reprocessing and recycling rates of copper tailings in the EU  
383 can mitigate dependence on imported materials or domestic virgin production and help retain  
384 the value of recovered materials within the regional economy (Figure 3). Recovering base  
385 metal from copper tailings could satisfy 2% and 3% copper and zinc total demand, equivalent  
386 to a 12% and 11% increase in domestic European copper and zinc production, respectively.  
387 Note that our study only considers on the residual minerals present in tailings produced by  
388 operational mines. The actual recovery and economic potential might be larger than estimated  
389 in this study, if copper tailings storage facilities from closed operations are included (Araya et  
390 al., 2021). The advent of novel technologies and a rising appetite for metals sourced within the  
391 EU might become a driver to develop advanced reprocessing projects for mine waste  
392 repositories (Lèbre et al., 2017; Suppes and Heuss-Abichler, 2021; Tunsu et al., 2019).

393 In addition to secondary metals and construction materials, scenario 3 has the potential to  
394 produce other byproducts, such as sulfuric acid. While sulfuric acid is not a primary purpose  
395 of reprocessing, operating pyrite roasting plants might offer additional revenue streams in the  
396 future, especially when the petroleum and natural gas industry declines due to decarbonization  
397 efforts and thus, limit the supply of elemental sulfur from sour gas (King et al., 2013b). To this  
398 end, pyrite roasting could become a promising pathway for producing sulfuric acid (Ober,  
399 2002; Runkel and Sturm, 2009).



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Figure 3. The share of metal supply (copper and zinc) from various sources, including domestic extraction, recycling, import, and copper tailings reprocessing. Bars' length denotes the total metal demand in current and future scenarios, adapted from other studies (Ciacci et al., 2020; Gregoir and Van Acker, 2022). Numerical details in Tables S1-S3 in the SI.

405

### 3.2 Life cycle environmental impacts: baseline and future

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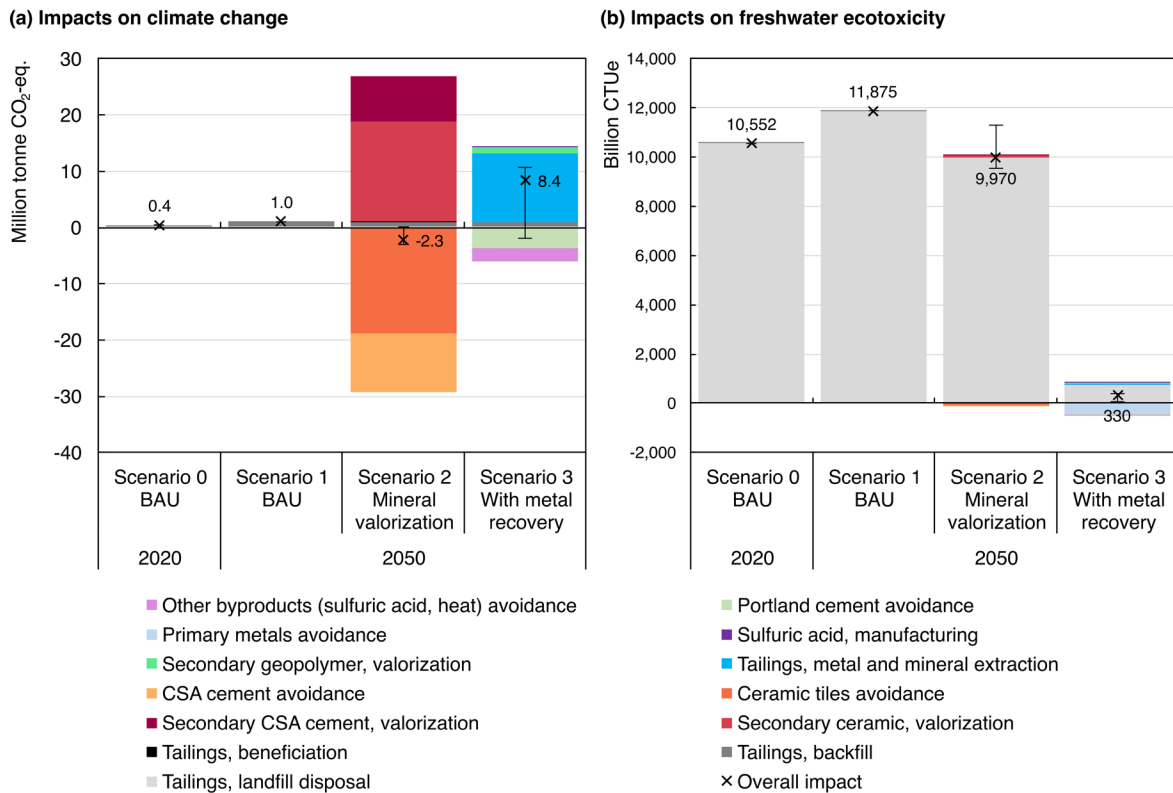
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Figure 4 shows the environmental performances of copper tailings management in the baseline year (Scenario 0) and the future scenarios with different treatment options (Scenario 1, 2, and 3). Positive values represent the environmental burden caused by managing tailings in the facility storage and performing backfill operations. The negative values represent the environmental credits of replacing and thus avoiding impacts of manufacturing primary metals and building products. Negative overall values (black crosses) mean that the management of copper tailings has net environmental benefits and is favorable for the selected indicators.



413

414 Figure 4. Prospective environmental impact from the management of copper tailings in EU under  
 415 different treatment options. Two midpoint impact categories are shown: a) IPCC 2013 Climate change,  
 416 b) USEtox freshwater ecotoxicity (see SI for further indicators). The high and low whiskers indicate the  
 417 possible variation in product market penetration (worst case and HM case, Table S7 in SI).

418 We found that implementing current tailings management options (scenarios 0 and 1) would  
 419 always generate net impacts across indicators. Moreover, the total impacts of scenario 1 are  
 420 always higher than scenario 0, as both scenarios implement the same combination of disposal  
 421 and backfill operation, but scenario 1 has higher demand of copper. Declining ore grades would  
 422 contribute to the growing volume of waste from metal processing in 2050 (Calvo et al., 2016),  
 423 despite relatively stable domestic copper production in Europe throughout the mid-century  
 424 (Gregoir and Van Acker, 2022). In scenarios 0 and 1, freshwater ecotoxicity impacts are higher  
 425 than in the other scenarios due to long-term freshwater contamination by heavy metal leaching,  
 426 potentially leading to acid mine drainage. Even if European countries were not found to be an  
 427 individual global hotspot for toxicity impacts caused by tailings landfilling, the sum of all  
 428 impacts in the region should not be underestimated in the aggregate (Adrianto et al., 2022).

429 Scenario 2 offers net benefits on climate change, cumulative energy demand, and resource  
430 depletion environmental indicators. Producing secondary ceramic tiles and CSA cement (with  
431 the amount specified in Table 2) can save up to around 2 Mt CO<sub>2</sub> eq. in 2050. If a lower quantity  
432 of secondary materials is available in 2050 (Table S7 in SI), the resulting net benefits for all  
433 three indicators would instead turn into net impacts. Furthermore, although a reduction of  
434 ecotoxicity impacts can be expected (16% decrease from scenario 1), there are still substantial  
435 tailings disposal environmental risks that must be managed safely in the future.

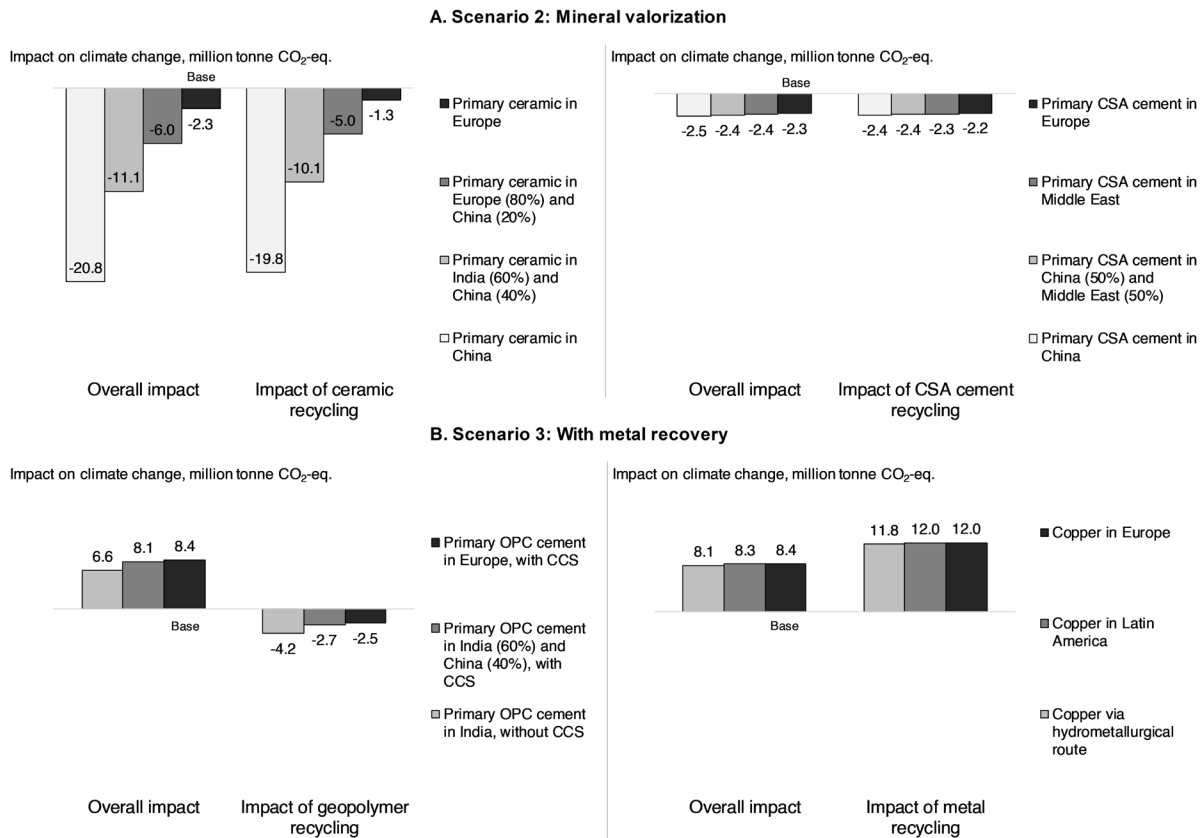
436 One way to minimize ecotoxicity impact potentials is by extracting the acid-generating  
437 compounds and metals from copper tailings, as applied in scenario 3. Converting pyritic  
438 compounds into other byproducts such as sulfuric acid and recovering companion metals, can  
439 significantly reduce ecotoxicity impacts. Besides the lower potential of leaching from the  
440 disposal of residues, supplemental material from tailings reprocessing may also substitute  
441 primary production, that otherwise would generate voluminous toxic waste such as tailings in  
442 the upstream metal ore processing. Gleaning metals from low-quality ores/deposits, as  
443 analyzed by Norgate and Jahanshahi (2010), comes at high resource expense, leading to burden  
444 shifts to energy-related impact indicators. In contrast to the previous study by Adrianto and  
445 Pfister (2022) that assumes unlimited demand for secondary products, this study shows that  
446 after credits from all secondary products are accounted for, a net environmental impact  
447 remains. Still, scenario 3 offers drastic reductions in ecotoxicity impacts compared to other  
448 scenarios. This advantage becomes crucial given the significant contribution of copper  
449 production to the global ecotoxicity impacts of metal resources (IRP, 2019).

450 The net impacts turn to net benefits under best-case assumptions for geopolymers market  
451 penetration (Figure 4, low whiskers). Therefore, GHG emissions of scenario 3 may be lowered  
452 by: 1) exploration of other metal/mineral extraction techniques to further reduce energy and

453 resource (i.e., ceramic/cement ingredients and leaching agents) consumption during  
454 reprocessing, since the proposed processing methods in the future are close to the theoretical  
455 limits; and 2) the capability to substitute ordinary Portland cement at larger volumes  
456 domestically, or to partially sell in international markets beyond the EU boundaries.

### 457 **3.3 Sensitivity analysis**

458 The effects of modifying variables in LCA—such as the origin of substituted products and the  
459 definition of substitutability for product displacement—deserve further investigation. Our  
460 results were reproduced using different assumptions (section 5.1 of the SI). Overall net GHG  
461 footprints for scenario 2 range from -2 to -21 MtCO<sub>2</sub>-eq (Figure 5A). If ceramic tiles production  
462 in China were displaced instead of Europe (base case), the overall net environmental benefits  
463 of scenario 2 would increase by almost one order of magnitude. The reason is the energy-  
464 intensive process of primary ceramics production, which in China is supplied mainly by coal-  
465 based electricity (Wang et al., 2020), while in Europe, it is electricity- and natural gas-based.  
466 While there is also potential to lower GHG emissions when displacing OPC cement without  
467 CCS in scenario 3 (Figure 5B), these measures are insufficient to entirely compensate for the  
468 high GHG emissions caused by secondary metal recovery. Primary copper production via pyro-  
469 and hydro-metallurgical routes is projected to only make a slight difference in performance as  
470 the background energy system moves toward carbon neutrality and foreground technology  
471 efficiency improves (Kuipers et al., 2018). Furthermore, with the small volume of secondary  
472 metals recovered in scenario 3, changing marginal suppliers has negligible effects on overall  
473 GHG performance.



474

475 Figure 5. Change of marginal technologies for primary material production: effect on climate change  
 476 impacts for scenarios 2 (top) and 3 (bottom). Overall impact refers to the total impact of all processes.  
 477 In contrast, impact of recycling shows the net impact of recycling secondary products, i.e., reprocessing  
 478 burdens minus credits from selected marginal production separately.

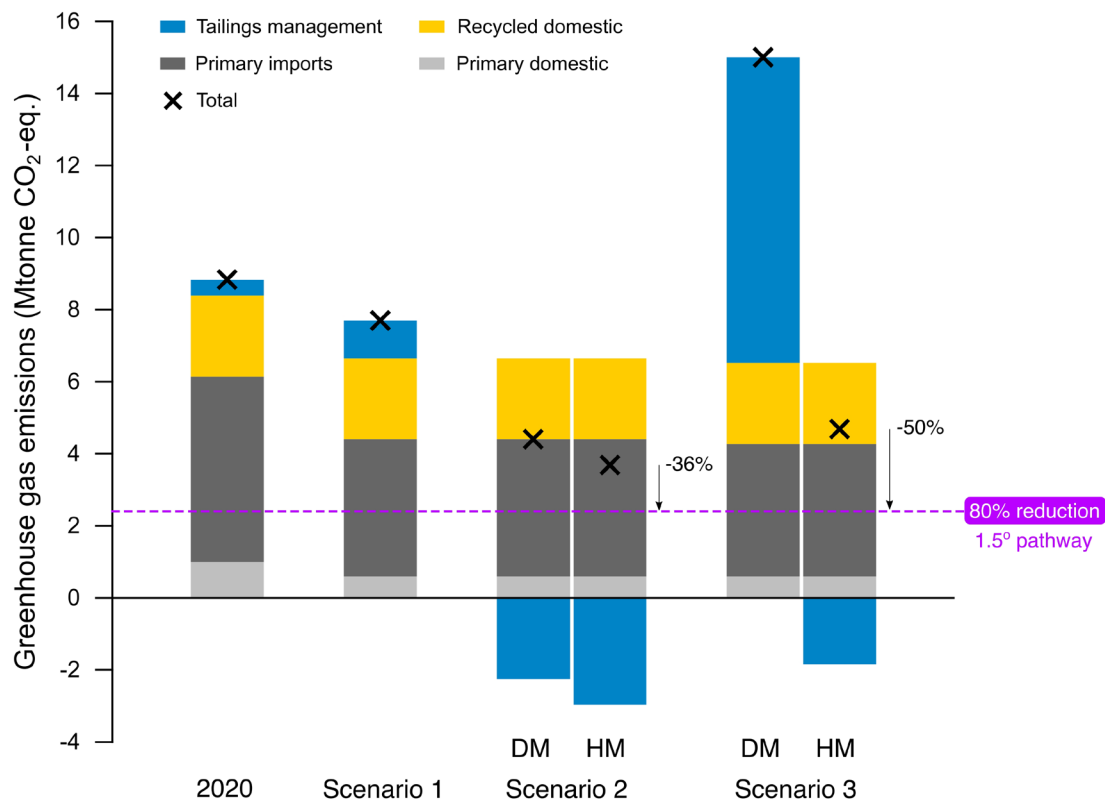
479 Regarding varying substitution rates for both scenarios, Figure S5 shows how sensitive the net  
 480 GHG impacts are when the substitution factors for secondary products are changed  
 481 simultaneously (section 5.2 of the SI). For scenario 2, having secondary ceramic and CSA  
 482 cement with substitution ratios above 0.8 is crucial to keep the net GHG balance negative. For  
 483 SRs < 0.5, scenario 2 would perform even worse than scenario 3, which has no GHG mitigating  
 484 effects in the default case.

### 485 3.4 Contextualizing the impact of copper tailings management

486 One of the eminent challenges in the copper sector is to satisfy growing copper demand while  
 487 meeting climate goals. As the energy system decarbonization progresses, copper production  
 488 can also benefit from such a transition (Figure 6). Moreover, the trajectories of future demand



489 under different scenarios dictate how much copper should be supplied (Ciacci et al., 2020).  
 490 When alternative tailings reprocessing strategies are applied as in scenario 2, GHG emissions  
 491 can be mitigated with the expected future secondary market demand. By contrast, scenario 3  
 492 does not lead to net GHG savings due to the high energy consumption for the metal extraction,  
 493 as discussed in section 3.2. Yet, this is different for high market penetration rates of secondary  
 494 cement (Table S7 in SI). However, even with energy efficiency improvements, decarbonization  
 495 of the power sector, and improved tailings management, additional collective measures are  
 496 needed to achieve the total GHG emission targets for the EU copper sector. To meet the 1.5°C  
 497 decarbonization goals, additional reductions of approximately 36% (scenario 2) and 50%  
 498 (scenario 3) are required to close these emissions gaps (Figure 6).



499  
 500 Figure 6. Estimation of greenhouse gas emissions embodied in copper demand in the EU according to  
 501 different scenarios. GHG emissions with alternative tailings management and different secondary  
 502 product market penetration are compared for each scenario. The dotted lines indicate the reduction of  
 503 GHG emissions as required in the industry roadmaps (European Copper Institute, 2014). Consumption-  
 504 based accounting is applied. Numerical details are presented in SI section 8. DM: Default market  
 505 penetration rates (base case), HM: High market penetration rates (HM case).

506 It is crucial to note that Europe's copper emission occurs mainly outside the territorial boundary  
507 according to the consumption based GHG accounting. Consumption-based accounting for the  
508 sector, which sums both emissions occurring in the domestic economy and embedded in  
509 imports from other countries, indicates that copper imported from abroad is responsible for  
510 more than 50% of the sectoral emissions induced by EU metal consumption (Table S13). A  
511 similar finding was discussed for countries with few or no mining activities in other European  
512 countries (Mayer et al., 2019; Muller et al., 2020), calling for the roles of additional climate  
513 change mitigation measures in reducing carbon footprints beyond territorial boundaries.

514 For deep decarbonization in the copper sector by 2050, Watari et al. (2022) discuss the  
515 importance of multiple measures on both, production side innovations and demand side  
516 management. Given that no silver bullet exists, a diffusion of different strategies is essential to  
517 meet the emissions reduction target. Central to today's context, this includes GHG-saving  
518 copper production, electrification, and aggressive recycling. While waiting for the core  
519 technological innovations to scale on time, other key levers, such as more efficient use of  
520 copper for the same services and product lifetime extension, could narrow or even bridge the  
521 emission gaps.

522 Based on the scenario modeling, reprocessing copper tailings in the EU could avoid  
523 approximately 2 – 3 Mt CO<sub>2</sub>-eq. in 2050. The emission targets set by the European  
524 Commission (2018) imply a reduction of 128 Mt CO<sub>2</sub>-eq. in 2050 for the “2.C metal industry”  
525 category (European Environment Agency, 2022). Thus, implementing system-wide  
526 reprocessing of tailings (HM case) in Europe would result in the avoidance of 1.5% for scenario  
527 3 to 2.3% for scenario 2 of the total reduction measures in the category “2.C metal industry”  
528 (Table 3).

529 While these estimated GHG reduction values are uncertain, the magnitude indicates how many  
530 benefits or tradeoffs alternative waste management can generate. Most importantly, due to the  
531 transboundary nature of product displacement, the impact reduction for the two sub-scenarios  
532 in Table 3 that also account for GHG savings outside the EU, should be interpreted with  
533 caution. Although the global industry may benefit from implementing this approach regardless  
534 of location, the GHG reporting and inventory assessment for such cross-sectoral cooperation  
535 between entities must be carefully resolved to avoid double counting of GHG savings.

536 Table 3. Contribution of the copper tailings reprocessing to Europe's GHG reduction targets in 2050.

Years	1990	2020	2050		2050, only EU production		2050, displacement outside EU borders	
			S0	S1	S2	S3	S2	S3
Total GHG emissions, all categories <sup>a</sup> , Mt CO <sub>2</sub> -eq.	4,633	3,068	232	232	232	232	232	232
Net GHG emissions, metal industry <sup>a</sup> , Mt CO <sub>2</sub> -eq.	135	64	7	7	7	7	7	7
% reduction from 1990 levels, metal industry <sup>b</sup>	-	53%	95%	95%	95%	95%	95%	95%
Reduction targets relative to 1990, all categories, Mt CO <sub>2</sub> -eq.	-	1,565	4,401	4,401	4,401	4,401	4,401	4,401
Reduction targets relative to 1990, metal industry, Mt CO <sub>2</sub> -eq.	-	71	128	128	128	128	128	128
Tailings management impacts <sup>c</sup> , Mt CO <sub>2</sub> -eq.	-	+0.4	+1.0	-2.3	+8.4	-21.1	+6.3	
Tailings management impacts <sup>c</sup> , Mt CO <sub>2</sub> -eq. (HM case)	-	-	-	(-3.0)	(-2.0)	(-21.9)	(-11.2)	
% tailings management impacts/reduction targets of all categories	-	+0.0%	+0.0%	-0.05%	+0.2%	-0.5%	+0.1%	
% tailings management impacts/reduction targets of all categories (HM case)	-	-	-	(-0.1%)	(-0.04%)	(-0.5%)	(-0.3%)	
% tailings management impacts/reduction targets of the metal industry	-	+0.6%	+0.8%	-1.8%	+6.5%	-16.4%	+4.9%	
% tailings management impacts/reduction targets of the metal industry (HM case)	-	-	-	(-2.3%)	(-1.5%)	(-17.1%)	(-8.7%)	

537 Note: For material displacement outside the EU in 2050, high-impact production from marginal sensitivity tests was chosen. HM  
538 case represents the scenario with high market penetration for secondary products. Positive (red) and negative (green) values are  
539 color-coded. More discussions can be found in the SI section 9.

540 <sup>a</sup> GHG inventory data for 1990 and 2020 from EEA (2022), covering six source and sink categories: 1. energy, 2. industrial  
541 processes, and product use, 3. agriculture, 4. land use, land use change and forestry, 5. waste, and 6. Other;

542 <sup>b</sup> Defined GHG emission targets for both business as usual and decarbonization vision from EU commission (2018), assuming  
543 percentages apply equally across categories. The targets are used to estimate GHG inventory data in 2050;

544 <sup>c</sup> Own calculation (Figure 4 and Figure 5).

545 The evaluated case represents one example of climate mitigation solutions through waste  
546 management. Other breakthrough technologies beyond our analysis might penetrate the market  
547 and become commercialized, amplifying the GHG reduction potential through improved  
548 energy and resource intensity. For example, various types of tailings have been regarded as  
549 promising storage for the carbonation process, enabling CO<sub>2</sub> capture for emissions offset  
550 (Bullock et al., 2021; Wilson et al., 2014). Such solutions should also be assessed with LCA to  
551 complement the present study.

### 552 **3.5 Implications for practice**

553 This study has implications for business activities in the copper and materials industry. Today,  
554 business opportunities and sustainability standards in the copper sector have been focusing on  
555 technological upgrades and decarbonization of the production system. One area that lacks  
556 investigation is understanding the role of waste management through a life cycle assessment  
557 combined with a metal scenario outlook. Our research shows secondary production potential  
558 by reprocessing copper tailings in the EU.

559 Implementation barriers include heterogeneity of material properties, economic uncertainty,  
560 fragmented legislation, and conflicting corporate cultures/values (Almeida et al., 2020;  
561 Sibanda and Broadhurst, 2018). Additionally, in the context of EU mine tailings valorization,  
562 the lack of relevant regulatory standards for waste-based materials and financial incentives  
563 represent key bottlenecks in accelerating the use of industrial byproducts over virgin building  
564 materials (Kinnunen and Kaksonen, 2019). Beyond that, additional work is critical to  
565 demonstrate the applicability of new products at the desired scale. Tight regulations might  
566 sometimes prevent scalability even when the technologies are proven. The industry must be  
567 willing to go through national approval processes with often differing political and regulatory  
568 conditions before such products can successfully enter the market (Material Economics, 2022).

569 Our analysis reveals tradeoffs between climate change and ecotoxicity impacts for scenarios 2  
570 and 3. Although small GHG reductions are possible by 2050, exploring additional strategies  
571 to meet future climate ambitions is imperative to meet the Paris climate agreement. Reijnders  
572 (2021) proposed the idea of near-zero waste production of copper, making use of the  
573 geochemically scarce elements and mineral matrix considerably lost in tailings, slags, and dust  
574 during the mining and refining stages. Assessing novel metallurgical processes and improving  
575 the recoverability of these elements/minerals may open doors for additional ecological benefits.

### 576 **3.6 Opportunities for future work**

577 The material demand projection and forecast based on established scenarios and integrated  
578 assessment models are uncertain. Our results should be understood as exploratory projections  
579 rather than the prognosis. Furthermore, the marginal processes in the substitution modeling  
580 were selected based on semi-quantitative methods using industry technological roadmaps.  
581 They did not consider dynamic market interaction, i.e., price elasticities, economic equilibrium,  
582 or trade barriers resulting from conflicts (e.g., sanctions). Lastly, while this study makes a  
583 compelling case for unveiling the impacts and benefits of reprocessing scenarios, subsequent  
584 stages in the LCA are missing, such as use- and end-of-life phases. Rigorous testing, such as  
585 leaching, aging, tearing, and recycling under different use and disposal conditions, is necessary  
586 for products using secondary materials. Providing these results can enable a comprehensive  
587 environmental comparison between secondary products from tailings and their primary  
588 equivalences. The ultimate goal is an extensive assessment that can strengthen decision-making  
589 and policy designs to support concrete system-wide solutions. Integrated analyses like Golev  
590 et al. (2022), combined with the presented framework, may enhance information on the  
591 sustainable management of mine tailings.

## 592 **4 Conclusion**

593 This study was set out to answer whether environmental benefits from secondary production  
594 through the reprocessing of tailings outweigh the associated environmental burdens. Built upon  
595 a previous site-specific assessment of mine tailings and future scenarios, a prospective LCA  
596 approach was employed here to assess the large-scale environmental impacts of reprocessing.  
597 Overall, the main conclusions of this analysis are as follows:

- 598 • Reprocessing copper tailings in the EU decreased freshwater ecotoxicity impacts compared  
599 to traditional waste management options. Other environmental benefits included GHG  
600 performance for scenario 2 with mineral valorization due to the large displacement of  
601 primary building materials such as cement and ceramic. However, scenario 3 with metal  
602 recovery showed an increase in climate change impacts compared to all other scenarios due  
603 to the energy-intensive metal recovery process for extracting metals at low concentrations.
- 604 • Secondary metal recovery from tailings, valorization of the mineral matrix as substitutes  
605 for building materials, and sulfuric acid production from pyrites could help meet the  
606 growing demand for these products in the EU. For building material production, the  
607 constrained availability of raw materials in the current supply of alumina sources and alkali  
608 activators could hamper efforts to scale production. This might limit the market penetration  
609 rates of these products to 10 – 15% of the total secondary supply.
- 610 • Regarding contribution to EU climate targets by 2050, around 2 – 3 Mt CO<sub>2</sub>-eq. of savings  
611 can be generated by implementing alternative copper tailings management, equivalent to a  
612 1.5 – 2.3% reduction in the metal industry category. Looking at the EU copper sector alone,  
613 this GHG performance is still insufficient to curb climate change compatible with the 1.5°C  
614 pathway. Additional strategies on top of what has been presented, such as demand-side

615 management, material efficiencies, and breakthrough metallurgical innovations, must be  
616 explored altogether to close the emission mitigation gaps meaningfully.

617 In summary, our findings confirm the potential opportunities for tailings reprocessing and  
618 valorization at a large scale. There are still potential pitfalls, such as the net GHG impacts of  
619 reprocessing scenarios with metal recovery, missing market demand for recovered minerals,  
620 and potential use-phase or end-of-life emissions (not studied so far). Future research shall  
621 extend the scope of the prospective LCA (use- and end-of-life) and realization of other climate  
622 mitigation strategies in the copper sector for more holistic environmental considerations.  
623 Further progress in this direction can help improve assessment quality and increase  
624 transparency in tailings-derived product evaluation.

## 625 **CRedit author statement**

626 **Lugas Raka Adrianto:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Formal analysis,  
627 Investigation, Visualization, Writing – Original Draft. **Luca Ciacci:** Validation, Resources,  
628 Data curation. **Stephan Pfister:** Methodology, Validation, Writing – Review & Editing,  
629 Supervision. **Stefanie Hellweg:** Methodology, Writing – Review & Editing, Supervision,  
630 Funding acquisition.

## 631 **Declaration of competing interest**

632 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal  
633 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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## 643 **Supplementary materials**

644 Supplementary material associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at DOI:  
645 [www.ww.com](http://www.ww.com)

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