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The environmental performance of mining operations: comparison of alternative mining solutions in a life cycle perspective

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1 Abstract

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3 Mining represents the first step to the access to mineral resources. The impacts induced by such 4 operations now contribute to the impacts of a wide range of goods and services, given the 5 widespread use of these raw materials in the worldwide economy. In this context, this study aims at assessing the environmental performance of mining operations in a life cycle perspective, 6 7 considering two currently operating mine sites: the Erzberg iron open-pit mine (Austria) and the Lujar 8 fluorspar underground mine (Spain). In particular, this study aims at i) identifying the main 9 environmental hotspots along the cradle-to-gate exploitation of mineral deposits in these two mines 10 ("reference scenarios"), ii) assessing the environmental performance of two alternative mining 11 solutions ("alternative scenarios"), respectively the use of alternative explosive compositions 12 (including their associated air emissions) and the implementation of a new blast design method. This 13 assessment relies on representative sets of data primarily drawn from on-site operations and 14 experimental results, completed with other data sources to fill the gaps. The environmental impacts 15 are characterized based on the European EF (Environmental Footprint) life cycle impact assessment 16 method. Firstly, among the 16 impact categories considered, the production of 1 ton of iron 17 concentrate (33.5% Fe) in the Erzberg mine in particular potentially induces a total of 8.75 kg CO₂-eq. 18 The consumption of ferrosilicon in the concentration step (main contributor to 8 impact categories 19 out of 16), of steel in the comminution step (main contributor to 2 impact categories), and of diesel 20 by the machinery necessary for loading/hauling the ore (main contributor to 3 impact categories) 21 stand for the main environmental hotspots in the Erzberg case. Secondly, the production of 1 ton of 22 fluorspar concentrate (79.2% CaF₂) in the Lujar mine potentially induces a total of 174 kg CO₂-eq. The 23 consumption of diesel by the machinery and the on-site generators in the mining and loading/hauling 24 steps (main contributor to 11 impact categories out of 16), along with the mine 25 infrastructure/equipment (main contributor to 4 impact categories) are identified as the main 26 environmental hotspots in the Lujar case. The implementation of both alternative mining solutions 27 results in relatively limited environmental effects on the overall life cycle environmental performance 28 of the Erzberg mining operations (less than 3% difference in terms of impacts). Finally, this study 29 highlights that some challenges still remain to be addressed in order to better secure the use of life cycle assessment in the mining context, in particular in terms of data monitoring/measurement or 30 31 impact assessment methods.

- 32
- 33
- 34 Keywords
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36 Life cycle assessment; Mining; Environmental impacts; Iron; Fluorspar

37 Abbreviations and nomenclature

ANFO	Ammonium Nitrate Fuel Oil
CaF ₂	Fluorspar
СО	Carbon monoxide
CO2	Carbon dioxide
E682	Reference of a pure emulsion-based explosive
Fe	Iron
FeSi	Ferrosilicon
GWP	Global Warming Potential
LCA	Life Cycle Assessment
NH₃	Ammonia
NOx	Nitrogen oxides
SOx	Sulfur oxides

- 41 **1. Introduction**
- 42

43 In 2008, the Raw Materials Initiative set out a strategy for a more reliable and secure access to raw 44 materials in Europe, crucial to the competitiveness and growth of the European Union (EU) economy 45 (EC, 2008). The access to resources is considered a strategic security question by the European 46 Commission (EC), which requires ensuring the supply of sustainable raw materials (EC, 2019). In 47 particular, mineral resources and metals are now key components of many final or intermediate 48 products used in society. Mining and mineral processing are the cradle of their production, the 49 impacts of these activities accordingly contribute to the impacts of many products. More generally, 50 raw materials both hinder and contribute to the 17 Sustainable Development Goals established by 51 the UN 2030 Agenda (Mancini et al., 2019).

52 The environmental impacts of mining and mineral processing may be considered with different 53 views. One of these views is the "mining project" view, under which the impacts are generally 54 considered in light of risk mitigation actions according to territorial legislations in force. Basically, a 55 mining project is submitted to a regulatory-driven impact assessment (IA) covering many aspects of 56 potential pollution releases across the entire process chain, i.e. from the ore extraction to its 57 concentration. Among the main impacts to manage on a mine site, those related to mining (in particular blasting) operations include: ground vibrations (Folchi, 2003; Kuzu and Ergin, 2005; 58 59 Bhandari, 2016; Jahed Armaghani et al., 2015), air blast overpressure (Kuzu and Ergin, 2005; 60 Bhandari, 2016; Jahed Armaghani et al., 2015), dust (Folchi, 2003; Bhandari, 2016), fly rocks (Folchi, 61 2003; Bhandari, 2016; Jahed Armaghani et al., 2015), noise (Folchi, 2003; Monjezi et al., 2009; 62 Saviour, 2012), nitrates leaching into water or soil (Forsyth et al., 1995).

63 On another note, for more than 20 years, life cycle assessment (LCA) has continuously gained interest 64 for comparing potential environmental impacts of products and services, to the point that its use has 65 become widespread as a support to both policy and company decision-making. LCA has been integrated into several EU environmental policies over the last two decades, e.g. to help define 66 emerging problems (especially related to products and their supply chains, and new technologies) 67 68 and to help identify policy options (Sala et al., 2016; Sonnemann et al., 2018). By definition, LCA 69 enables undertaking a life cycle perspective, accordingly enlarging the scope of the IA by including 70 upstream and downstream impacts associated with metals production. In particular, given sufficient 71 data, it can enable assessing the contributions of each operation of production to the whole cradle-72 to-gate impacts of a concentrate or metal production. It enables accounting for both the impacts 73 directly generated by the mine and indirectly generated along the supply-chains the mine is 74 interlinked with. LCA accordingly enables identifying any potential burden-shifting (from one impact 75 category to the other, or from one life-cycle phase to the other) in the comparison of different scenarios. However, it may be noted that, while the IA in the mining project view is spatially and temporally explicit, the life cycle approach generally aggregates emissions across space and time. For example, such a distinction may be relevant regarding dust and pollutants emissions, which are aggregated in space and time in LCA, thus resulting in impacts not representative of actual health risks.

81 The implementation of LCA highlights that mining and concentration stages may have relatively large 82 contributions to the cradle-to-gate environmental impacts of metals production (Nuss and Eckelman, 83 2014), depending on the metal and the impact categories considered. For example, the production of iron (Fe) ore generates relatively low environmental impacts on a per kilogram basis among the 63 84 85 metals considered by Nuss and Eckelman; however, in the meantime, iron is among the most 86 impactful metals due to its significant global production volume. Among the main environmental 87 hotspots of the iron mining industry, Ferreira and Leite (2015) identify the consumption of electricity 88 as well as grinding media in the iron ore treatment stage as two of the main contributors to the 89 global warming potential (GWP) impacts of iron concentrate production in Brazil; while Norgate and 90 Haque (2010) identify the loading/hauling and crushing/blending steps as the main sources of GWP 91 impacts in the case of iron mining in Australia. Despite these examples of LCA application in the 92 mining industry, assessing the environmental impacts of this sector remains relatively challenging, in 93 particular due to a certain lack of interactions between LCA practitioners and the mining industry 94 (Awuah-Offei and Adekpedjou, 2011). This, in turn, may be partly attributed to the hitherto weak 95 business case for mining companies to undertake LCAs or generate data suitable for input into LCA 96 (Alvarenga et al., 2019).

In this context, this study aims at assessing the environmental performance of mining operations in a 97 98 life cycle perspective, respectively considering the production of an iron concentrate in the Erzberg 99 (Austria) open-pit mine, and the production of a fluorspar (CaF₂) concentrate in the Lujar (Spain) 100 underground mine. The objective is twofold: i) to identify the main environmental hotspots along the 101 cradle-to-gate exploitation of mineral deposits in these two mines and ii) to analyze the 102 environmental performance of alternative mining solutions to identify potential perspectives for 103 improving the environmental performance of the Erzberg mine. This study is based on representative 104 sets of data, primarily drawn both from currently operating plants ("reference cases studies") and 105 experimental tests ("alternative scenarios").

2. Material and method

- 108 2.1. Case studies description
- 109 2.1.1. Erzberg mine

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Erzberg is an open-pit iron ore mine located in Eisenerz (Austria). It is considered as the biggest deposit of siderite (FeCO₃) in the world, the iron content within this mineral amounting to about 40%. Other iron minerals found in this deposit are primarily ankerites (Ca(Fe,Mg,Mn)(CO₃)₂), with an iron content varying from 10 to 17%. Currently, the mine annually blasts 12 million tons of ore and waste rock to produce 3 million tons of concentrate (also referred to as fine ore) as final product. Depending on the iron content within the material, different ore fractions are considered:

117

< 22% Fe: cut-off grade below which the material is considered as waste;

22 – 30% Fe: low quality ore also called "middlings";

• > 30% Fe: high quality ore (in the following referred to as "rich fraction").

120 The waste rock, with an iron content below 22%, is discharged to a waste dump; while the ore is 121 loaded and hauled to a primary gyratory crusher (see Figure 1). Depending on its iron content, the 122 crushed ore is separated into middlings and rich fraction. These two ore fractions are then sent to 123 the beneficiation plant in which they go through two different processing routes: on the one hand, 124 middlings are processed through dense media separation, magnetic separation, optical sorting and 125 finally screening/secondary crushing; on the other hand, the rich fraction is only processed through 126 screening/secondary crushing. This results in a concentrate with an average iron content of 33.5%. 127 The beneficiation stage also generates tailings which are either disposed of to a waste dump (coarse 128 tailings) or in dams (fine tailings).

Figure 1

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2.1.2. Lujar mine

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The Lujar mine is a small underground mine located in Orgiva (Spain). The deposit is mainly comprised of fluorspar with an average content of 35% in the ore and, in a lower extent, galena (PbS) with an average content of 2% in the ore. The latter mineral is however not exploited for now. Annually, the mine produces about 10 kilotons of fluorspar concentrates with different grades intended to different industries: metallurgical (% CaF₂ > 70%) and cement (% CaF₂: 35% - 50%) grades. Regarding the processing of the ore, a cut-off grade is set around 35% CaF₂:

- 142 • The ore is processed when its fluorspar content exceeds 35%;
- 143 • The ore whose fluorspar content ranges from 10 to 35% is stored in chambers for potential 144 future reuse;
- 145

• The ore with a fluorspar grade inferior to 10% is placed back into excavation voids for 146 rehabilitation and construction purposes (backfilling).

147 Once mined, the high grade ore is loaded and hauled to the underground treatment plant in which it goes through a comminution stage (jaw crushing, screening) followed by a beneficiation stage 148 149 including dense media separation, screening and gravity concentration in spirals (see Figure 2). This 150 leads to the production of different concentrates with different grades in terms of fluorspar. The final 151 products are obtained after a final drying stage in order to remove the residual water. The 152 beneficiation stage also leads to the generation of tailings which are subsequently placed back into 153 excavation voids for backfilling. Tailings with a fluorspar grade above 10% are stored for future 154 processing. It is to be noted that the values (production flow rates and fluorspar grades) shown in 155 Figure 2 are average values based on the total outputs of the mine.

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- 158 159

Figure 2

- 160 161
- 2.1.3. Alternative mining solutions and associated scenarios
- 162

163 In parallel to the current mining operations implemented in the Erzberg and Lujar mines, two 164 alternative solutions relative to blasting operations are considered, based on available data drawn 165 from experimental tests: on the one hand, the use of alternative explosive compositions; and on the 166 other hand, the implementation of a new blast design method, through the use of electronic 167 detonators for initiating the explosive charges. The development of these alternative solutions 168 targets two main objectives: i) to reduce the actual (i.e. direct) on-site environmental impacts 169 induced by blasting operations, in particular airborne emissions and ground vibrations; ii) to improve 170 the overall mining performance, especially regarding downstream operations such as crushing. In the 171 following, two "alternative mining scenarios" are derived from these solutions:

The first scenario aims at comparing different explosive compositions. In this respect, three 172 alternative compositions are considered in this scenario: i) a pure emulsion (referred to as E682), 173 ii) a blended emulsion composed of E682 and 30% ANFO (Ammonium Nitrate Fuel Oil), and iii) a 174 175 blended emulsion composed of E682 and 5% aluminum. Tests on these compositions were 176 carried out at laboratory scale, through blasting trials in chambers, with the aim of measuring air emissions resulting from the blasting of the explosives. For comparison purposes, each explosive
composition is assumed to be applied in the Erzberg mine, where blasting operations currently
use ANFO as well as pure emulsions.

180 The second scenario focuses on the implementation of a new blast design method, which 181 primarily consists in a change of delay times (blasting in mining operations generally works by 182 detonating loads of explosive charges placed in different blastholes with delays in milliseconds in 183 the firing sequence). To proceed to these changes, electronic detonation systems were used thus 184 allowing individual control of delay times for every single drillhole and a negligible time 185 dispersion, as opposed to non-electric detonators used in traditional mining schemes, which 186 apply fixed delay intervals and dispersion about the nominal delay, hence reducing the capacity 187 of implementing changes. In this context, series of blasting trials were carried out on the Erzberg 188 site, set with different delay times, firstly in order to observe whether this new blast design 189 method can result in reduced ground vibrations (which may represent important local 190 nuisances). Subsequently, potential improvements in the mining performance were investigated (e.g. regarding crushing operations), i.e. which influence vibration optimized blasting patterns 191 192 have on rock fragmentation, therefore with potential influence of the environmental 193 performance of the plant.

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195 2.2. Goal and scope definition

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197 This LCA study aims at assessing the cradle-to-gate environmental impacts of the exploitation of the198 two mineral deposits in a life cycle perspective. The objective is twofold:

i) The assessment of the environmental impacts of iron and fluorspar mining, respectively in
 the Erzberg and Lujar mines, so as to identify the main environmental hotspots associated to
 these operations in a business-as-usual functioning. In the following, these operations are
 reflected through two "reference scenarios".

ii) The assessment of the environmental impacts of iron ore mining, in the Erzberg mine,
 resulting from the implementation of alternative mining solutions (i.e. alternative explosive
 compositions and new blast design method), reflected through the two previously defined
 "alternative scenarios", so as to assess potential environmental benefits or burden-shifts
 associated to these solutions.

Two functional units (FU) are distinguished, as a function of each site under study; respectively, "the production of one ton of iron concentrate, with a Fe-content of 33.5%", and "the production of one ton of fluorspar concentrate, with an average CaF₂ content of 79.2%". These FU, with different degrees of purity for each concentrate, imply different levels of efforts (e.g. in terms of electricity 212 consumption) in the ore processing stages (e.g. concentration) but also subsequently in the 213 downstream refining stages (out of the scope of this cradle-to-gate study, which focuses on the 214 mining processes).

The system boundaries include i) the direct emissions to environment generated by the mining operations from ore to concentrate; ii) the direct resource extractions and uses from the mining and concentration operations; iii) the production and supply of ancillary materials and energy; and iv) the infrastructure and equipment associated to each mine site.

The environmental impacts are calculated by use of the Simapro LCA software (version 9.0), considering the European EF (Environmental Footprint) life cycle impact assessment method (EF method 2.0; Fazio et al., 2018) as implemented in the software. The EF method encompasses a total of 16 impact categories whose models are recommended by the Joint Research Center (JRC) of the EC in the context of the European Product and Organization Environmental Footprint, which seeks to establish a common method to measure and communicate the life cycle environmental performance of products and organizations at the EU level.

- 226
- 227 2.3. Data inventories associated to the scenarios
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The foreground system stands for all the processes for which specific data have been obtained and used in the modelling. The background system, i.e. all the processes upstream and downstream the process chains under study, e.g. electricity generation or ancillary materials production, is modelled by use of data drawn from the ecoinvent v3.5 database (Weidema et al., 2013; Ecoinvent centre, 2019).

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2.3.1. Data relative to the Erzberg reference scenario

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The data relative to the "Erzberg reference scenario", from the mining of the iron ore to the final production of a concentrate (fine ore product) with an iron content of 33.5% (see Figure 1) are essentially primary on-site data provided by VA Erzberg GmbH, completed with data from other sources in the case of data gaps. For confidentiality reasons, the data inventory is provided as elementary flows only (see Supporting Information document 1) derived from the data provided by VA Erzberg GmbH by use of the Simapro software and ecoinvent v3.5 as the background database. The primary data encompass:

• <u>Electricity consumption</u>

Electricity, supplied from the grid (Austrian mix), is consumed by the equipment in the primarycrushing, beneficiation and thickening stages.

Diesel consumption

248

Diesel is used to fuel the machinery necessary for drilling, and loading/hauling the extracted ore.

e Ancillary materials

250 Include the explosives used for blasting, the steel consumed due to abrasion of the crusher wear 251 parts, and the use of ferrosilicon in the beneficiation stage. Regarding the explosives (primarily 252 emulsions and ANFOs), data about their consumption are provided by VA Erzberg GmbH, while data 253 about their manufacture partly come from the manufacturer MAXAM (ANFO composition, electricity 254 consumption for explosives manufacture), completed with data drawn from Ferreira et al. (2015; 255 emulsion composition). In terms of steel consumption, no estimation was available at Erzberg; 256 therefore a proxy was considered based on the steel consumption relative to the crusher used in the 257 Lujar mine (which may, however, imply some uncertainties due to the different characteristics of the 258 run-of-mine in terms of abrasiveness and strength, and the different sizes of operations of each 259 mine).

260 • <u>Water balance</u>

Includes, on the one hand, the water consumed in the beneficiation stage (drawn from a natural lake
located near the mine), and on the other hand, the water released (to the same lake) after
dewatering both produced concentrate and tailings.

264

Emissions to water

265 Include the chemical substances (e.g. chloride, nitrate, sulfate, etc.) as well as the metallic elements 266 (e.g. aluminium, copper, etc.) in the water discharged to the lake in compliance with the local 267 regulations. This water composition is based on laboratory analysis of the water carried out by VA 268 Erzberg GmbH. Moreover, nitrates are also considered to be emitted to groundwater, as these 269 compounds are leached from the explosives used for blasting. Given that no on-site measurements 270 of nitrates leaching were available, a 1% value of the nitrogen contained in the explosives was 271 assumed to be leached to groundwater as nitrates in this study, based on an expert judgement from 272 the explosive manufacturer, supported by estimates drawn from literature (estimates ranging from 273 0.2% (Ferguson and Leask, 1988) up to 28% (Morin and Hutt, 2008) of the nitrogen content within 274 the explosives). Finally, regarding the tailings management in dams, it is assumed in this case that no 275 emissions of metals or other pollutants to water systems occur given the ore mineralogy which is 276 essentially composed of carbonates (i.e. non-sulfidic) and considering that protective measures 277 prevent leaching to the environment. In particular, this assumption is in line with the modelling of 278 non-sulfidic tailings disposal in the ecoinvent database, which considers no emissions to the 279 environment.

280 • Emissions to air

Include detonation fumes, resulting from blasting (in particular from the explosives), and dust
 emitted in the mining, crushing and waste disposal steps. The detonation fumes are primarily
 composed of CO₂, NH₃, CO, SOx and NOx, according to calculations from the explosive manufacturer.

284

Infrastructure and equipment

Include all the infrastructure (buildings, etc.) and equipment/machinery (excavators, drills, crushers,
etc.) used on the mine site, adapted from data drawn from ecoinvent v3.5.

287 • Land occupation

288 Covers the information relative to land occupation and transformation by the mine site and the
289 waste (tailings + waste rock) disposal facility.

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2.3.2. Data relative to the Lujar reference scenario

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The data relative to the "Lujar reference scenario", which includes all the unit operations from the mining of the fluorspar ore to the final production of a concentrate with an average fluorspar content of 79.2% (see Figure 2), are essentially primary on-site data provided by the Minera de Orgiva, S.L. company. These data are completed with data from other sources in the case of data gaps. The data encompass (see Table 1 for an overview of the data inventory and Supporting Information document 2 for the full inventory):

299

Diesel and electricity consumption

Diesel is used to fuel the machinery necessary for drilling and loading/hauling the extracted ore as well as for producing all the electricity necessary to power the mine site through on-site diesel generators. In particular, electricity is consumed to power the plant and the equipment used in the mining, comminution, beneficiation and drying steps. Regarding this last step, it is noteworthy that the dryers are only used in specific moments (during production peaks or raining periods), as part of the material is either dried with the heat generated by the power generators or naturally dried.

306 • Ancillary materials

Include the explosives used for blasting (primarily ANFO and dynamite), the steel consumed due to abrasion of the equipment (mainly in crushers, hoppers and mining machinery) and the use of ferrosilicon in the beneficiation stage. Regarding the explosives, data about their consumption is provided by the Minera de Orgiva company, while data about their composition and manufacture come from the manufacturer Maxam.

312 • <u>Water balance</u>

Includes all the water inputs from different sources (e.g. precipitations, tank supply truck) in the mining and beneficiation steps, as well as the water evaporation in the drying step. It is to be noted 315 that these values express actual water inputs and outputs, and do not include the internal water 316 recirculation.

317 Emissions to air and water • 318 Given the ore treatment goes through a wet process in an underground plant (in a chamber inside 319 the mine), it is assumed that the dust and the detonation fumes generated throughout the ore 320 mining and processing operations remain in the underground galleries (the dust is actually retrieved 321 through a ventilation system and stored in silos). Accordingly, no emissions to air are considered in 322 this case. Similarly, nitrates emissions to water are not considered either in this case, as it is observed 323 there is no water system in the immediate surroundings of the mine (the aquifer is about 700 meters 324 beneath the mine, therefore it is assumed out of reach from any nitrates leakage). Regarding tailings 325 management, it is assumed in this case that no emissions to water systems occur as these tailings are 326 placed back into excavation voids (backfilling). 327 • Emissions to soil 328 Consider the diesel losses resulting from the machinery used for loading and hauling the extracted 329 ore. 330 • Infrastructure and equipment Include all the infrastructure (buildings, etc.) and equipment/machinery (excavators, drills, crushers, 331 332 etc.) used on the mine site, adapted from data drawn from ecoinvent v3.5. 333 • Land occupation 334 Covers the information relative to the superficial land occupation and transformation by the mine 335 site (mostly offices, garages, storage, etc.).

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Table 1: Overview of the data inventory relative to the Lujar mining operations

Data	Value for 1 ton concentrate (FU)	Unit	Corresponding unit operation(s)
	Inpu	ts	
Diesel for machinery	338	MJ	Mining
	448	MJ	Loading/hauling
	116	kWh	Mining
Electricity	57.2	kWh	Comminution
consumption	53.4	kWh	Beneficiation
-	16.6	kWh	Drying
Explosives (ANFO)	0.6	kg	Mining
Explosives (Dynamite)	0.2	kg	Mining

Ferrosilicon (FeSi)	1.4	kg	Beneficiation
	0.08	kg	Mining
Steel	0.6	kg	Comminution
	0.2	kg	Beneficiation
Water	123	L	Mining
	113	L	Beneficiation
Outputs			
Diesel losses (to soil)	0.06	kg	Loading/hauling

339

340

2.3.3. Data relative to the alternative scenario 1

341 The alternative scenario 1 refers to the hypothetical implementation of alternative explosive 342 compositions in the context of the Erzberg mine, i.e. pure emulsion (E682) and blended emulsions, 343 including the air emissions associated to these compositions. These alternative compositions are 344 provided in Supporting Information document 3. In the absence of specific data relative to energy 345 consumption, the energy necessary for the production of these emulsions is assumed to be 346 equivalent to that necessary for the production of emulsion in the Erzberg reference scenario. In 347 each composition, the alternative emulsions are considered to be implemented as a substitute for 348 the pure emulsion currently used in Erzberg.

Moreover, the emissions of CO and NOx resulting from the blasting of the explosives have been measured at laboratory scale, through blasting trials in chambers (Table 2). These alternative emission factors are considered with respect to the different alternative explosive compositions, as substitutes for the corresponding emission factors used in the Erzberg reference scenario.

353

et an (2020) and		
	СО	NOx
Explosives	kg/kg explosive	kg/kg explosive
ANFO	0.025	0.018
Pure emulsion (E682)	0.0096	0.0018
Blended emulsion: E682 with 30% ANFO	0.018	0.0092
E682 with 5% aluminium	0.0075	0.0092

2.3.4. Data relative to the alternative scenario 2

359 The alternative scenario 2 refers to the implementation of a new blast design method, primarily 360 through the change of delay times in the blasting step, by use of electronic detonation systems 361 instead of non-electric ones. On-site blasting trials were carried out in the Erzberg mine, considering different delay times (four in total). To assess how this new blast design method may influence the 362 363 mining performance, in particular the primary crushing operation, data about the electricity consumption of the crusher were measured so as to derive values in kWh of electricity consumed per 364 365 ton of ore crushed (personal communication with Philipp Hartlieb, 2020). The electricity 366 consumption values, measured as functions of the four delay times used in the blasting trials, are 367 provided in Supporting Information document 3 (here expressed with respect to the value 368 considered in the Erzberg reference scenario; while the delay times are not expressed for 369 confidentiality reasons). For the comparison of environmental impacts between the Erzberg reference scenario and this alternative scenario, four averaged values of electricity consumption at 370 371 primary crushing, as a function of each delay time, are considered.

3. Results and discussion

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- 374 3.1. Environmental impacts of the reference mining scenarios and contribution analysis
- 375 3.1.1. Erzberg mine
- 376

In a life cycle perspective, the production of 1 ton of iron concentrate with an iron content of 33.5%
at Erzberg potentially induces a total of 8.75 kg CO₂-eq (climate change) and 0.0191 kg N-eq
(eutrophication marine). The complete list of impacts, considering the 16 categories of the EF
method 2.0, is provided in Table 3.

381

382	Table 3: Environmental impacts induced by the production of 1 ton of iron concentrate (33.5% Fe) at Erzberg, considering 16
383	impact categories from the EF method 2.0

Impact categories	Unit	Values
Climate change	kg CO₂ eq	8.75
Ozone depletion	kg CFC11 eq	9.43E-07
Ionizing radiation	kBq U-235 eq	0.61
Photochemical ozone formation	kg NMVOC eq	0.068
Respiratory inorganics	disease inc.	1.40E-06
Non-cancer human health effects	CTUh	1.42E-06
Cancer human health effects	CTUh	3.34E-07
Acidification terrestrial and	mol H⁺ ea	0.063
freshwater		0.000
Eutrophication freshwater	kg P eq	7.71E-03
Eutrophication marine	kg N eq	0.0191
Eutrophication terrestrial	mol N eq	0.218
Ecotoxicity freshwater	CTUe	5.96
Land use	Pt	266
Water scarcity	m ³ depriv.	1.91
Resource use, energy carriers	MJ	180
Resource use, mineral and metals	kg Sb eq	4.98E-05

³⁸⁴

Overall, the concentration step stands out as the main contributor to most of the impact categories considered (9 out of 16): climate change, ionizing radiation, photochemical ozone formation, respiratory inorganics, non-cancer human health effects, acidification terrestrial and freshwater, eutrophication freshwater, water scarcity and resource use - energy carriers (Figure 3). Regarding these nine impact categories, the concentration step accounts for 40 to 78% of the impacts. Moreover, it also appears as a major contributor to impacts on ozone depletion, cancer human health effects, eutrophication marine, eutrophication terrestrial, and ecotoxicity freshwater (second contributor, with 30 to 42% of the impacts). The concentration step is overall a hotspot for 14 impact categories out of the 16 under study.

394 Furthermore, regarding 7 impact categories, namely ozone depletion, eutrophication marine, 395 eutrophication terrestrial, cancer human health effects, ecotoxicity freshwater, land use and 396 resource use - mineral and metals, the main contributions are shared among different process steps. 397 Firstly, the loading and hauling step represents the main contribution to the ozone depletion, 398 eutrophication marine and eutrophication terrestrial impact categories (46 – 49% of the impacts). 399 Loading and hauling is also the second contributor in terms of climate change, photochemical ozone 400 formation, respiratory inorganics, acidification terrestrial and freshwater, and resource use - energy 401 carriers (16 to 41% of the impacts).

Secondly, the primary crushing step accounts for the largest share of the impacts in terms of cancer human health effects and ecotoxicity freshwater with respectively 62 and 43% of the impacts. It also appears as the second contributor to the non-cancer human health effects and resource use mineral and metals impact categories (respectively 34 and 18% of the impacts).

Finally, the mining step significantly contributes to the land use and resource use - mineral and metals impact categories but has limited contributions regarding the other categories (less than 10%); while the waste/tailings disposal step solely contributes to the land use impact category. Similarly, the dewatering step is the second contributor to the ionizing radiation impact category but only represents a slight share of the impacts regarding all the other categories (less than 11%).

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Figure 3

416 Over the entire Erzberg process chain, the use of chemicals and ancillary materials stands for the 417 main environmental hotspot as their use induces the largest share of the impacts regarding 10 out of 418 the 16 impact categories considered in this study (39 to 90% of the impacts; Figure 4), encompassing 419 the impact categories respectively dominated by the concentration (8 categories excepting ionizing 420 radiation) and the primary crushing (2 categories) steps. In particular, these impacts are primarily 421 driven by the use of ferrosilicon (FeSi) in the concentration step, except for the toxicity-related impact categories (human health effects and ecotoxicity) for which the impacts are primarily driven 422 423 by the use of steel as grinding media in the primary crushing step, and to a lower extent, in the 424 concentration step. It is however to be noted that the steel consumption value considered in this

425 case is drawn from the Lujar data, in the absence of specific data relative to the Erzberg situation,426 which may therefore imply some uncertainties.

Diesel combustion in machinery is also responsible for significant environmental impacts regarding 9 impacts categories: ozone depletion, eutrophication marine and eutrophication terrestrial, for which diesel accounts for the largest share of the impacts (48 – 50%, essentially due to NOx emissions to air); climate change, ionizing radiation, photochemical ozone formation, respiratory inorganics, acidification terrestrial and freshwater, and resource use - energy carriers, for which it represents a major contributor to the impacts (17 to 42%). In particular, diesel appears as the main driver of the environmental impacts induced by the loading and hauling step.

Direct exchanges from/to the environment (in the foreground system) also stand out for some impact categories: land use, due to the transformation and occupation of the land both by the mine and waste disposal sites; water scarcity, due to water inputs from the lake; and resource use mineral and metals, due to the extraction of the iron resource from the ground.

438 On the contrary, electricity consumption only accounts for a slight share (less than 10%) of the 439 impacts with respect to all categories excepting ionizing radiation (main contributor with 45% of the 440 impacts), eutrophication freshwater and climate change (respectively 18 and 13% of the impacts). 441 The use of explosives for blasting as well as the mine infrastructure/equipment only account for 442 limited environmental impacts considering all impacts categories. Finally the direct emissions to 443 environment other than those from diesel combustion (e.g. nitrates to groundwater and NOx 444 emissions to air from blasting) only contribute to a very slight extent (3 to 8%) to a few impact 445 categories (eutrophication and acidification).

Figure 4

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451 3.1.2. Lujar mine

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In a life cycle perspective, the production of 1 ton of fluorspar concentrate with a fluorspar content
of 79.2% at Lujar potentially induces a total of 174 kg CO₂-eq (climate change), 0.56 kg N-eq
(eutrophication marine). The complete list of impacts, considering the 16 categories of the EF
method 2.0, is provided in Table 4.

Impact categories	Unit	Values
Climate change	kg CO ₂ eq	174
Ozone depletion	kg CFC11 eq	3.64E-05
Ionizing radiation	kBq U-235 eq	11.7
Photochemical ozone formation	kg NMVOC eq	1.69
Respiratory inorganics	disease inc.	2.9E-05
Non-cancer human health effects	CTUh	1.58E-05
Cancer human health effects	CTUh	2.27E-06
Acidification terrestrial and		1.40
freshwater	moi H° eq	1.48
Eutrophication freshwater	kg P eq	0.041
Eutrophication marine	kg N eq	0.56
Eutrophication terrestrial	mol N eq	6.10
Ecotoxicity freshwater	CTUe	65.0
Land use	Pt	1132
Water scarcity	m ³ depriv.	21.3
Resource use, energy carriers	MJ	2516
Resource use, mineral and metals	kg Sb eq	0.00075

458 Table 4: Environmental impacts induced by the production of 1 ton of fluorspar concentrate (79.2% CaF₂) at Lujar, **459** considering 16 impact categories from the EF method 2.0

461 Overall, the mining step stands out as the main environmental hotspot with respect to all impact 462 categories considered in this study except for the eutrophication freshwater category for which mining represents the second largest contribution (Figure 5). In particular, the mining step accounts 463 464 for 41 to 44% of the impacts with respect to 10 categories: climate change, ozone depletion, ionizing radiation, photochemical ozone formation, respiratory inorganics, acidification terrestrial and 465 466 freshwater, eutrophication marine, eutrophication terrestrial, water scarcity and resource use -467 energy carriers. Regarding the other impact categories, it contributes to 21 to 32% of the total 468 impacts.

Furthermore, the loading and hauling step also represents a major contributor to the environmental impacts as it contributes to more than 17% of the impacts with respect to all categories. In particular, it accounts for more than 25% (up to 41%) of the impacts in terms of climate change, ozone depletion, ionizing radiation, photochemical ozone formation, respiratory inorganics, acidification terrestrial and freshwater, eutrophication marine, eutrophication terrestrial and resource use energy carriers. 475 Moreover, the concentration step accounts for 9 to 32% of the impacts regarding all categories, with 476 more significant contributions in terms of non-cancer human health effects, eutrophication 477 freshwater, land use and water scarcity (more than 20% of the total impacts). Similarly, the 478 comminution step also accounts for 9 to 26% of the impacts regarding all categories excepting the 479 respiratory inorganics category, with more important contributions to the non-cancer and cancer 480 human health effects and resource use - mineral and metals impact categories.

As for the drying step, the latter accounts for relatively limited impacts with respect to most impact
categories excepting non-cancer human health effects, eutrophication freshwater, land use and
resource use - mineral and metals for which it accounts for more than 10% of the impacts.

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Figure 5

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489 Over the entire Lujar process chain, two major environmental hotspots are identified: the use of 490 diesel and the mine infrastructure/equipment. In these operations, diesel is consumed to fuel the 491 machinery (e.g. loaders, dumpers), and also to produce electricity through on-site generators (Figure 492 6). The total use of diesel dominates the impacts of 11 categories out of 16. In particular, the use of 493 diesel in the machinery, respectively in the loading/hauling as well as the mining steps, is responsible 494 for the largest share of the impacts in terms of photochemical ozone formation, respiratory organics, 495 acidification terrestrial and freshwater, eutrophication marine/terrestrial with contributions varying 496 from 51 to 79%; while the use of diesel for electricity production, primarily in the mining step and in 497 a lower extent in the comminution, concentration and drying steps, accounts for the main 498 contributions to the climate change, ozone depletion, ionizing radiation, cancer human health 499 effects, water scarcity, and resource use - energy carriers impact categories (28 to 49% of the 500 impacts).

501 Regarding the mine infrastructure/equipment, the latter represents the largest share of the impacts 502 in terms of non-cancer human health effects, eutrophication freshwater, land use and resource use -503 mineral and metals. It is however to be noted that, as mentioned in the data inventory section 504 (2.3.2), the modelling of this infrastructure/equipment relies on data drawn from ecoinvent v3.5, 505 which may not be totally representative of the actual infrastructure/equipment of the Lujar mine. 506 Moreover, while the mining operator may control its on-site diesel consumption and accordingly its 507 associated impacts, the impacts associated with the infrastructure and equipment are rather 508 generated upstream along supply chains (e.g. in the production of materials composing the 509 equipment), where the mining operator hardly has any influence.

510	Finally, the use of chemicals and ancillary materials (in particular, steel in the comminution step and
511	ferrosilicon in the concentration step) contributes to some extent to the non-cancer and cancer
512	human health effects as well as the eutrophication and ecotoxicity freshwater impacts (up to 23% of
513	the impacts), but have relatively limited impacts considering the other categories. The exchanges
514	with the environment (i.e. in the Lujar case, emissions to soil and resources from the environment)
515	have a relatively important contribution to the water scarcity impacts (due to water inputs) but have
516	nearly no contributions to the other impact categories. Similarly, the environmental impacts induced
517	by the use of explosives also appear very limited.
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520	Figure 6
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523	3.2. Scenarios comparison: reference vs alternative scenarios
524	3.2.1. Change of explosives composition and associated emissions
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526	The three alternative compositions of explosives considered in scenario 1, combined with
527	measurements of emissions to air resulting from their blasting (CO and NOx), overall induce larger
528	environmental impacts than those calculated for the Erzberg reference scenario, but in a very limited
529	extent (less than 3%).
530	However, the use of the three alternative explosives induces a relatively important increase in
531	impacts when only focusing on the mining step, excepting for the ozone depletion impact category
532	for which a significant decrease in impacts (29% to 32%) is observed (Figure 7). Regarding the use of
533	pure E682 and E682 blended with 30% ANFO, the increase in impacts is below 10% for 12 impact
534	categories, but in the meantime ranges from 10% to 21% for the three remaining impact categories:
535	eutrophication terrestrial, acidification terrestrial and freshwater, eutrophication marine (E682 only)
536	and photochemical ozone formation (E682 + 30% ANFO). The increase in impacts is larger regarding
537	the use of E682 with 5% aluminium, ranging from 14% to 114% with respect to 9 impact categories:
538	the 4 previously mentioned along with ionizing radiation, cancer and non-cancer human health
539	effects, ecotoxicity freshwater and eutrophication freshwater.
540	In three cases of impact categories (eutrophication terrestrial, acidification terrestrial and
541	freshwater, and photochemical ozone formation), the larger impact is mainly driven by the larger
542	emission factors considered for CO and NOx from blasting. For example, the larger emission factor
543	associated with NOx induces approximately 90% of the increase in impacts with respect to

544	eutrophication terrestrial. On the contrary, regarding most other impact categories, the larger
545	impacts of the alternative explosives are essentially driven by their more impacting manufacture.
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548 549	Figure 7
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551	3.2.2. New blast design method implementation
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553	The implementation of the new blast design method, through the change of delay times in the
554	blasting step, overall does not significantly affect the environmental impacts of the Erzberg mining
555	operations (less than 1% decrease in impacts in comparison with the reference scenario).
556	When exclusively focusing on the primary crushing step, the change of delays only marginally affects
557	the impacts (less than 0.5% reduction in impacts) regarding five impact categories: respiratory
558	inorganics, non-cancer and cancer human health effects, ecotoxicity freshwater and resource use -
559	mineral and metals. As for the other impact categories considered in this study (Figure 8), the
560	decrease in impacts varies from 2% (photochemical ozone formation) up to 8% (resource use –
561	energy carriers) with respect to the reference Erzberg scenario, excepting in terms of ionizing
562	radiation and land use, for which the reduction in impacts appears to be larger, respectively reaching
563	20% and 14% (considering delay 1).
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566	Figure 8
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569	3.3. Environmental performance of the Erzberg and Lujar mining operations: sensitivity analysis
570	3.3.1. Sensitivity to nitrates leaching from explosives
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572	Nitrates leaching from ammonium nitrates-based explosives (e.g. ANFO, emulsion, etc.) is a well-
573	known phenomenon in the mining industry. Such leaching may affect and contaminate surrounding
574	water systems, in particular groundwater. As described in the inventory section relative to Erzberg
575	(2.3.1), 1% of the nitrogen content within the explosives was assumed to be leached to groundwater
576	in the form of nitrates, based on an expert judgement supported by literature data. However, this 1%
577	value may be considered as a conservative value in comparison with the estimates drawn from
578	literature (0.2 up to 28%). Indeed, while emissions of nitrates to groundwater do not appear to

579 significantly contribute to the overall life cycle environmental impacts of the Erzberg process chain 580 when considering a 1% value (Figure 4); when considering the upper bound of nitrates leaching value 581 provided by the literature, i.e. 28%, the impacts over the entire Erzberg process chain show a 77% 582 increase in terms of eutrophication marine (while other impact categories are not affected by a 583 change of nitrates emissions value given the absence of characterization factors associated to 584 nitrates emissions to groundwater). In that case, such a discrepancy highlights that the 585 environmental performance of mining operations may be very sensitive to the amount of nitrates 586 emitted to groundwater from the explosives, and emphasizes the need for accurate on-site 587 measurements of these leakages.

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3.3.2. Sensitivity to electricity supply

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591 While electricity does not significantly contribute to the environmental impacts in the Erzberg case, it 592 stands for an environmental hotspot in the Lujar case. Figure 9 compares the environmental impacts 593 of the Lujar mining operations as functions of different sources of electricity supply, namely 594 electricity from the Spanish grid mix and electricity from the grid entirely supplied from renewable 595 sources (on the one hand, photovoltaic power station and on the other hand, wind turbine), with the 596 reference scenario. Data regarding the electricity production from these different sources are drawn 597 from the ecoinvent v3.5 database. Depending on the sources of electricity supply, important 598 discrepancies can be observed in terms of life cycle environmental impacts. Indeed, on the one hand, 599 the consumption of electricity from the Spanish mix increases the impacts with respect to 11 600 categories out of 16, primarily driven by the share of fossil (hard coal and oil in a lower extent) and 601 nuclear sources in the mix: climate change (+ 2%), ionizing radiation (+ 407%), non-cancer and cancer human health effects (respectively + 51% and + 8%), acidification terrestrial and freshwater (+ 20%), 602 603 eutrophication freshwater (+ 79%), ecotoxicity freshwater (+ 20%), land use (+ 49%), water scarcity (+ 604 186%) and resource use – energy carriers and mineral/metals use (respectively + 27% and + 4%). 605 Regarding the five remaining impact categories, the Spanish mix leads to a decrease in impacts 606 ranging from 13% to 25%. On the other hand, the consumption of electricity from renewable sources 607 overall enables a reduction in impacts regarding most impact categories considered (respectively 12 608 and 14 categories for the photovoltaic power station and the wind turbine scenarios, with 4 up to 609 49% of reduction in impacts), except for a few categories: cancer human health effects (+ 0.2% 610 impacts for wind turbine), eutrophication freshwater, ecotoxicity freshwater, land use (1 to 28% 611 increase in impacts for the photovoltaic power station) and resource use - mineral and metals (8 -612 9% increase in impacts for both renewable sources). These results highlight that the environmental 613 performance of mining operations may be very sensitive to the source of electricity supply, and that renewable energies overall appear as promising alternatives towards mitigating their associatedenvironmental impacts.

Figure 9

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3.4.1. Positioning with respect to ecoinvent

3.4. Positioning of this study with respect to the state-of-the-art

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624 In comparison with the data relative to iron (Classen et al., 2009) and fluorspar (Jungbluth et al., 625 2009) concentrates production available in the widely used ecoinvent database (in its 3.5 version), 626 the two mining case studies considered in this study offer relatively different insights. Firstly, the 627 products considered in econvent differ from those of the Erzberg and Lujar mines in terms of purity, 628 as ecoinvent respectively considers an iron concentrate with a 65% Fe content (33.5% Fe in the 629 Erzberg concentrate) and a fluorspar concentrate with a 97% CaF₂ content (79.2% CaF₂ in the Lujar 630 concentrate). These different degrees of purity in the concentrates therefore imply different functional units between the ecoinvent database and this study. Moreover, the ore grades 631 632 considered in ecoinvent also differ from those of this study: 46% Fe in the ecoinvent iron ore (from 633 22% up to more than 30% Fe in Erzberg) and 92% CaF_2 in the ecoinvent fluorspar ore (45.5% CaF_2 in 634 Lujar). Consequently, these different grades and purities imply different processing requirements, 635 which translate in the data inventories, e.g. in terms of electricity, diesel, heat consumptions or 636 emissions to the environment. It may be noted that these discrepancies in terms of purity imply 637 different requirements, on the one hand, in the ore processing stages (e.g. concentration) in which a 638 higher purity in the concentrate may require more processing efforts, on the other hand, in the 639 downstream refining stages in which a higher purity in the concentrate may require less processing 640 efforts. Therefore, one possibility for ensuring a fair comparison between concentrates with different 641 degrees of purity could be to expand the system boundaries by including the downstream stages 642 until the production of a refined product (which however are out of the scope of this study).

543 Secondly, in the case of fluorspar, significant differences can be observed between the process 544 chains considered in ecoinvent and the Lujar mine (while for iron the process chains are relatively 545 similar). Indeed, the Lujar mine exploits fluorspar through underground mining operations 546 subsequently followed by gravity concentration, whereas ecoinvent only considers open-pit mining 547 operations subsequently followed by flotation.

648	These important differences in the modelling of iron and fluorspar concentrates production result in
649	significant discrepancies in terms of impacts assessment results, with differentials amounting to
650	several orders of magnitude between ecoinvent and this study (respectively 3 to 35 and 0.5 to 6
651	orders of magnitude for iron and fluorspar productions; Figure 10).
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654 655	Figure 10
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657	3.4.2. Positioning with respect to scientific literature
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659	The number of LCA studies specifically addressing the environmental impacts of iron and fluorspar
660	mining overall appears relatively limited in the scientific literature. No studies were found to address
661	fluorspar mining, while regarding iron ore mining only two studies were found (Table 5): on the one
662	hand, Ferreira and Leite (2015) focused on the exploitation of iron ore (with an average Fe content of
663	43%) in an open-pit mine in Brazil, producing an iron concentrate as final product; on the other hand,
664	Norgate and Haque (2010) considered the production of an iron ore (with an average Fe content of
665	60%) in an open-pit mine in Australia.
666	In terms of impact assessment, the climate change (GWP) impacts calculated from the Erzberg case
667	study appear to be slightly lower than those calculated in these two studies. Other impact categories
668	were not considered, as they were different from one study to the other. These discrepancies in
669	impacts may in particular be explained by several differences in the respective product systems: i) in
670	terms of ore/concentrate grade; ii) in terms of process chains (flotation is implemented in the
671	Brazilian case; stacking/reclaiming, rail transport and port operations are considered in the Australian
672	case); iii) electricity supply mix. These different product systems accordingly imply different
673	processing requirements which ultimately result in various environmental hotspots that differ from
674	those identified in the Erzberg case: electricity and grinding media in the Brazilian process (Ferreira
675	and Leite, 2015), diesel for loading/hauling and electricity for crushing/screening in the Australian
676	process (Norgate and Haque, 2010).
677	

Table 5: Overview of studies addressing the environmental impacts of iron ore mining, including this study

Study	Functional unit	Ore/concentrate grade	Climate change (GWP) impacts (kg CO ₂ eq)
 Ourstudy	"the production of one ton	> 22% Fe (in ore)	0 75
Our study	of iron concentrate, with a	33.5% Fe (in concentrate)	0.75

		Fe-content of 33.5%"			
	(Ferreira and Leite,	"one ton of iron ore	420/ Fo (in oro)	12.2	
	2015)	concentrate at the gate"	43% Fe (in ore)	13.3	
	(Norgato and Haque	"1 ton of ore or			
		concentrate ready for ship	60% Fe (in ore)	11.9	
	2010)	loading"			
9					
0					
1	3.5. Limitations				
2	3.5.1. Limitatio	ns relative to the impact assessm	nent in this study		
3					
4	Different limits, to be considered when interpreting the impact assessment results, may be identified				
5	in this study. Firstly, the modelling of the background system is based on the ecoinvent database,				
6	which includes some uncertainties and approximations which may be more or less important				
7	depending on the considered dataset. Moreover, the correspondence between the foreground and				
8	the background data is sometimes relatively approximate, which ultimately contributes to the				
9	uncertainty of the results. For example, regarding the first alternative scenario (i.e. alternative				
0	explosive compositions), the modelling of the upstream manufacturing phase of the diverse				
1	explosives considered i	is based on specific composition	n data; while the inventorie	es associated with	
2	the production of the	compounds, and of the subseq	uent production of explosiv	ves, rely on rough	
3	proxies (drawn from ec	oinvent and literature).			
4	Secondly, the larger CO and NOx emissions considered for the three alternative explosives were				
5	obtained from a diffe	rent procedure (measurements	at laboratory scale) than	in the reference	

696 scenario (calculations). Therefore, the larger emissions in this scenario may result from different 697 estimation approaches rather than from actually lower emissions for the reference explosive 698 compared to the alternative ones.

699 Finally, results regarding some impact categories should be considered with caution, as the 700 underlying characterization models associated to several categories may show some limits e.g. 701 regarding resource depletion or toxicity to humans and ecosystems (Santero and Hendry, 2016). For 702 example, the impacts associated with resource use - mineral and metals are calculated based on the 703 abiotic depletion potential (ADP) approach, which considers the depletion of a resource once it is 704 extracted from the Earth's crust by accounting for the reduction of its geological stock. Accordingly, 705 such an approach attributes most of the impacts in terms of resource depletion to the mining step, 706 as it is responsible for the extraction of the resource (as e.g. observed in the Erzberg reference

707 scenario). However, such a perspective may be seen rather limited, as the resource is not necessarily 708 depleted right after its extraction, but rather remains in an "anthropogenic stock" (Berger et al., 709 2020). In this context, approaches are currently under development to account for resource 710 dissipation in LCA, focusing on the actual losses of resources along process and more generally life-711 cycle chains, rather than resource extraction, in order to support more resource-efficient solutions 712 (Beylot et al., 2020a; Beylot et al., 2020b). On another note, while most environmental impacts may 713 be considered permanent, impacts in terms of land use may rather be considered temporary, as they 714 reflect the use and occupation of the land over the period of activity of the mine. Once the activity 715 ceases, these land use impacts may potentially be mitigated through mine closure practices (e.g. 716 restoration, reclamation or rehabilitation; Limpitlaw and Briel, 2014).

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3.5.2. Limitations relative to the impact assessment in the overall mining context

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Mining operations, and in particular blasting operations, may be responsible for diverse impacts to the surrounding environment, e.g. ground vibrations, noise or dust. While some of these impacts are accounted for in the currently existing LCA characterization methods, others are not covered despite the important nuisances to the environment they may represent.

Regarding ground vibrations, to our knowledge, no characterization method nor LCA study accounts for such impacts, excepting one LCA study relative to the construction sector mentioning vibration effects, but without further quantification (Li et al., 2010). Outside the LCA field, Mirmohammadi et al. (2009) and Monjezi et al. (2009) assessed the effect of vibrations due to blasting operations on the environment through a semi-quantitative indicator called "impacting factor" based on the Folchi method (Folchi, 2003), by scoring the intensity of the underground vibrations. However, no attempts to implement such an indicator into the LCA framework were found to be made.

731 In terms of noise generation, different attempts to integrate this aspect into the LCA framework 732 were made (Guinée et al., 1993; Lafleche and Sacchetto, 1997; Müller-Wenk, 2004). In this respect, 733 one approach was to consider noise as an environmental externality in the assessment of a wind 734 farm so as to monetize the impact and compare it to other environmental impacts (Schleisner, 2000). 735 Considering another approach, Müller-Wenk (2004) proposed a method to assess the impacts on 736 human health of traffic noise by measuring the impacts of noise on communication and sleep 737 disturbances. However, despite these attempts, no approach to consider noise is currently 738 implemented in LCAs of mining operations.

- 740 4. Conclusions
- 741

742 This study enabled the assessment of the environmental performance of mining operations through 743 two case studies respectively considering the cradle-to-gate exploitation of iron ore deposits in the 744 Erzberg open-pit mine, and of fluorspar deposits in the Lujar underground mine. In a life cycle 745 perspective, the consumption of chemicals and ancillary materials, in the concentration (ferrosilicon) and comminution (steel) steps, as well as the consumption of diesel by the machinery necessary for 746 747 loading/hauling the ore represent the main environmental hotspots regarding the Erzberg mining 748 operations; while the consumption of diesel by the machinery and the on-site generators, especially 749 in the mining and loading/hauling steps, along with the mine infrastructure/equipment stand for the 750 main environmental hotspots regarding the Lujar mining operations.

751 The implementation of alternative mining solutions in the blasting step, consisting respectively in a 752 change of explosive compositions (including their associated air emissions) and a change of 753 detonation systems allowing a control of delay times, were shown to induce limited environmental 754 effects to the Erzberg operations. However, when focusing on the mining step, the impacts relative 755 to the blasting of the alternative explosives showed an increase regarding several impact categories. 756 These differences in impacts between the reference and the alternative scenarios may nevertheless 757 also result from inconsistencies in terms of LCA modelling and emissions measurements rather than 758 from different environmental performances of the alternative scenarios (which may however exist). 759 Similarly, the change of delay times only appears to have very limited effects on the overall 760 environmental impacts of the Erzberg process chain, given the limited contribution to these impacts 761 from the electricity consumed by the primary crushing step. However, in this study, the change of 762 detonation systems was only implemented in the Erzberg mine site. This mining solution is yet to be 763 tested in other energy-intensive mining contexts, where electricity consumption stands out as an 764 environmental hotspot (e.g. as in the Lujar case), before concluding about any potential 765 environmental benefits or burden-shifts. Beyond the life cycle environmental impacts, other benefits 766 may also be expected from controlling delay times, such as reductions in terms of vibrations to the 767 surrounding environment which could, for example, foster the exploitation of mineral deposits 768 located in the vicinity of populated areas.

This study was carried out primarily by use of site-specific data representative of the actual on-site operations in both mines (the data used in this study are partly made available). However, despite the willingness of the mining companies to provide accurate data, some gaps remained and were filled with data from other sources (e.g. literature, LCA databases, etc.). Some aspects indeed remain relatively challenging to account for, in particular regarding emissions to the environment, which may accordingly affect the LCA results. For instance, measuring nitrates emissions from explosives to groundwater is a procedure not always undertaken in mining monitoring, which could ultimately result in under- or overestimations of life cycle environmental impacts, as nitrates emissions to groundwater may have significant impacts in terms of marine eutrophication. Furthermore, emissions of detonation fumes (e.g. CO, NOx, etc.) in the blasting step may be relatively dependent on the measurement procedure implemented, as different methods may yield significantly distinct results.

781 Other challenges still remain in order to better secure the use of LCA in the mining industry, in 782 particular in terms of impact assessment. Indeed, some of the existing LCA characterization methods 783 are currently subject to debates in the LCA community and may not accurately depict the impacts 784 associated to mining operations, e.g. regarding mineral resource depletion. Moreover, the current 785 methods fail to capture some potential environmental impacts relative to mining operations, and in 786 particular to the blasting step, such as ground vibrations and noise, which may represent important 787 nuisances to the surrounding environment and at the same time significant rooms for improvements 788 thanks to mining solutions as those assessed in this study.

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- 977 considering 1 ton of concentrate (with different degrees of purity) and 16 impact categories from the
- 978 EF method 2.0 (Ei = ecoinvent)







■ Mining ■ Loading and hauling ■ Primary Crushing ■ Concentration ■ Dewatering ■ Waste & tailings disposal















Contribution (%)

CaF2 concentrate - Ei v3.5 CaF2 concentrate - Lujar Se concentrate - Ei v3.5 Fe concentrate - Erzberg

