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Science of the Total Environment



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Assessing the fate of explosives derived nitrate in mine waste rock dumps using the stable isotopes of oxygen and nitrogen



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HIGHLIGHTS

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT

- NH₄NO₃ used in blasting is an important source of NO₃ contamination.
- Blasted waste rock dump samples were analyzed for NO₃ and its stable isotopes.
- Isotopes showed the extent of nitrification of NH₄NO₃ in oxic zones in dumps.
- Isotopes showed the extent of denitrification in anoxic zones in dumps.
- Isotopes provided estimates of the NO₃ concentrations prior to denitrification.



ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 18 January 2018 Received in revised form 21 May 2018 Accepted 22 May 2018 Available online xxxx

Editor: Mae Mae Sexauer Gustin

Keywords: Ammonium nitrate Blasting Coal Denitrification Nitrification

ABSTRACT

Ammonium nitrate (NH₄NO₃) mixed with fuel oil is a common blasting agent used to fragment rock into workable size fractions at mines throughout the world. The decomposition and oxidation of undetonated explosives can result in high NO₃ concentrations in waters emanating from waste rock dumps. We used the stable isotopic composition of NO₃ (δ^{15} N- and δ^{18} O-NO₃) to define and quantify the controls on NO₃ composition in waste rock dumps by studying water-unsaturated and saturated conditions at nine coal waste rock dumps located in the Elk Valley, British Columbia, Canada. Estimates of the extent of nitrification of NH₄NO₃ in oxic zones in the dumps, initial NO₃ concentrations prior to denitrification, and the extent of NO₃ removal by denitrification in sub-oxic to anoxic zones are provided. δ^{15} N data from unsaturated waste rock dumps confirm NO₃ is derived from blasting. δ^{15} N- and δ^{18} O-NO₃ data show extensive denitrification can occur in saturated waste rock and in localized zones of elevated water saturation and low oxygen concentrations in unsaturated waste rock. At the mine dump scale, the extent of denitrification in the unsaturated waste rock was inferred from water samples collected from underlying rock drains.

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1. Introduction

^{*} Corresponding author. E-mail address: jim.hendry@usask.ca (M.J. Hendry). Nitrate (NO_3) contamination of surface and groundwater is a global environmental problem. Loading of nitrogen (N) to surface and

groundwater is generally attributed to the use of fertilizers, release of biological waste from agriculture or municipal sources, landfill effluent, and elevated levels of atmospheric N deposition (*c.f.*, Benkovitz et al., 1996; Hallberg, 1989; Power and Schepers, 1989; Seiler et al., 1999; Wakida and Lerner, 2005). These anthropogenic N inputs can result in NO_3 concentrations that exceed the drinking water limit of 10 mg NO_3 -N L⁻¹ (WHO, 2004; Health Canada, 2014; U.S. EPA, 2009) and contribute to the eutrophication of water bodies (Deutsch et al., 2006; Kaushal et al., 2011).

Worldwide, approximately 65% of NH₄NO₃ is used in agricultural fertilizer applications, with the remainder used for explosives (Chemical Economics Handbook, 2016). In the mining industry, NH₄NO₃ is often mixed with fuel oil to create explosives (referred to as ANFO). The NH₄NO₃ in ANFO is soluble in water and dissociates into dissolved NO₃ and NH₄⁺. The release of NO₃ and NH₄⁺ to the environment from explosives during mining is generally attributed to NH₄NO₃ spillage or incomplete detonation and subsequent dissolution (Cameron et al., 2007; Pommen, 1983). Under oxic conditions, NH₄⁺ can undergo nitrification to NO₃ as described by:

$$NH_4^+ + 2O_2 \leftrightarrow NO_3^- + 2H^+ + H_2O.$$
 (1)

Although nitrification is a multi-step oxidation process facilitated by autotrophic microorganisms (e.g., Nitrosomonas and Nitrobacter), the evolution of dissolved N species during and after blasting is poorly understood. Under oxygen-depleted conditions, dissolved NO₃ can be irreversibly reduced to N₂ via bacterial denitrification (*c.f.*, Appelo and Postma, 2005; Kendall, 1998). The electron transfer processes for complete denitrification from dissolved NO₃ to gaseous N₂ can be described by:

$$2NO_3^- + 10e^- + 12H^+ \rightarrow N_2 + 6H_2O.$$
 (2)

Denitrification is carried out by several different enzymes, leading to different intermediates:

$$NO_3^{-} \rightarrow NO_2^{-} \rightarrow NO \rightarrow N_2O \rightarrow N_2. \tag{3}$$

Sub-oxic to anoxic conditions can exist in unsaturated mine waste rock dumps (Mahmood et al., 2017) and in saturated waste rock (Dockrey et al., 2015). Denitrification is a potential NO₃⁻ removal mechanism in both of these environments.

Soluble NO₃ is transported through and out of the waste rock by recharging percolating waters. Bailey et al. (2013), Mahmood et al. (2017), and Villeneuve et al. (2017) interpret NO_3^- transport through waste rock as conservative (i.e., non-reactive) due to typically welloxygenated conditions in unsaturated rock dumps. The concentrations of NO₃ in freshly blasted waste rock can be great and highly variable. Mahmood et al. (2017) report mean measured porewater NO₃-N concentrations of 497 \pm 854 mg L⁻¹ in a fresh coal waste rock dump. Dockrey et al. (2015) report NO₃-N concentrations in coal waste rock seepages from 5 to over 100 mg L^{-1} depending on the size and age of the waste rock dump. Measured dissolved concentrations from seepage outflow at a diamond mine were 2000 mg $NO_3^-NL^{-1}$ and 410 mg NH_3^- N L⁻¹ (Bailey et al., 2013). Concentrations of dissolved NO₃⁻ and NH₃-N in mine effluent from uranium mines ranged from 60 to 80 and 53 to 350 mg L⁻¹, respectively (Schmidt and Moffett, 1979), many times higher than the drinking water exceedance limits.

The NO₃ inputs resulting from mining can affect surface waters. For example, the Elk River watershed drains 4450 km² of the Rocky Mountains to the Kootenay River and Koocanusa Reservoir (Fig. 1). This valley is a major steelmaking coal production region in Canada (Goodarzi et al., 2008). During the 1960s and 1970s, mean N (NO₃-N + NO₂-N) concentrations in the Elk River south of Sparwood (Fig. 1) were <0.01 mg L⁻¹ (Clark and Peppin, 1984; McDonald, 1987). Rising trends in riverine NO₃ concentrations were observed in the early 1980s (Ferguson and Leask, 1988; McDonald, 1987; Pommen, 1983), and data from 2009 indicated continued increases in NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻N concentration in the Elk River south of Sparwood (Fig. 1) to 0.5–1.4 mg L⁻¹, varying seasonally (Dessouki and Ryan, 2010). In smaller order streams in mine subcatchments, the NO₃⁻N concentrations were greater. For example, Villeneuve et al. (2017) show mean yearly NO₃ concentrations in West Line Creek (Fig. 1) increasing from 6.5 mg L⁻¹ in 1994 to 38.5 mg L⁻¹ in 2006 and then decreasing slightly to 26.7 mg L⁻¹ in 2014. The increasing concentrations of NO₃ in the Elk River were correlated to the volume of waste rock produced in the Elk Valley (Strategic Advisory Panel on Selenium Management, 2010). Ferguson and Leask (1988), Mahmood et al. (2017), and Villeneuve et al. (2017) attribute the source of this riverine NO₃ to N-based explosives used in rock blasting.

The dual-isotope approach (δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O in NO₃) has been successfully used to fingerprint distinctive NO₃ sources, define NO₃ transport pathways, and identify N biotransformation processes (e.g., nitrification and denitrification) in groundwaters, lakes, and marine environments (*c.f.*, Aravena and Robertson, 1998; Böhlke et al., 2002; Brandes et al., 1998; Einsiedl et al., 2005; Lehmann et al., 2003; Voss et al., 2001; Wassenaar, 1995). The stable isotopes of N and O (and H and C) have also been used to discriminate between types of explosives (Widory et al., 2009) and to characterize the fate of NO₃ from blast rock used as fill to build roadways (Degnan et al., 2015). The dual-isotope approach has not, however, been applied to characterize the NO₃ source term or the N transformation processes that might be occurring in mine waste rock.

A multi-disciplinary research and development program was initiated by Teck Resources in 2012 to investigate the influence of mining on the fate and transport of solutes (specifically Se, NO_3^- , SO_4^{2-} , Cd) from low sulfide-high carbonate mine dumps in the Elk Valley, British Columbia, Canada. As part of this study, Mahmood et al. (2017) report NO_3^- in the dumps in the Elk Valley is derived from blasting practices. They used nitrate isotope analyses at one dump to show that nitrification of the ANFO contributes to NO3 loading within the waste rock dump. They did not, however, study the post-blasting evolution of dissolved N species as it relates to the nitrification process or address potential denitrification. The current study greatly extends the findings of Mahmood et al. (2017) by conducting additional geochemical investigations at nine coal waste rock dumps located in the Elk Valley to generate an improved (i.e., water-saturated and unsaturated environments) interpretation of the N system in saturated and unsaturated waste rock dumps. Determining the source(s) and evolution of NO₃ in contaminated systems is generally difficult due to the common presence of multiple N sources, overlapping isotopic source values, and complex biologically mediated reactions (Aravena et al., 1993; Granger et al., 2008; Mengis et al., 2001; Vavilin and Rytov, 2015; Xu et al., 2015). In the case of mine waste rock, however, one source of NO₃ dominates: ANFO. This simplicity in source provides an opportunity to examine the isotope fractionation of both N and O during and after blasting (e.g., the NO₃ source term) and any post hoc denitrification. In the latter case, the observed degree of isotopic fractionation can also be used, with the measured NO_3 concentration, to estimate the NO₃ source concentration prior to the onset of denitrification. We hypothesized the application of the stable isotopes of NO_3^- could be used to define the NO3 source term, determine under which mine environments denitrification occurs, as well as quantify the extent of denitrification and the original NO₃ source concentrations.

2. Study sites and methods

2.1. Study sites and sampling

Mining of high- to low-volatile bituminous coal from the Mist Mountain Formation of the Jurassic-Cretaceous Kootenay Group, has been ongoing in the Elk Valley, southeastern British Columbia, Canada since the Download English Version:

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