

1 **Layering in tailings deposits: Characterization and implications for CPT interpretation**

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7
8 **ABSTRACT**

9 The cone penetration test (CPT) is widely used for tailings characterization. Often, the CPT is used to infer
10 the state parameter (ψ) using methods based on uniform soil specimens. This paper addresses a crucial
11 question: To what extent do tailings deposits resemble uniform specimens? We quantitatively
12 characterized layering in tube samples from three active gold tailings storage facilities (TSFs) and visually
13 appraised a 3 m profile at a fourth TSF. Results reveal pronounced thin layering in all samples and in the
14 exposed profile. Our analysis suggests that the thickness of the uniform layers documented herein is less
15 than 15 cm. This is significantly less than the >0.6 m thickness recommended for CPT interpretation. The
16 PSD variability within a single 25 cm sample often matched or exceeded that observed across entire TSFs,
17 highlighting the significance of the variability. Thin layering constitutes a significant deviation from the
18 uniformity assumption that underpins widely used CPT interpretation methods and is likely to
19 compromise the accuracy of CPT-based ψ estimates. Thin layering also raises fundamental questions
20 about validating ψ estimates. We propose that tailings engineering would benefit from allowing more
21 space for the approximate laboratory characterization of layered specimens rather than focusing on the
22 precise characterization of uniform specimens that do not resemble in situ conditions.

24 1 INTRODUCTION

25 The cone penetration test (CPT) is likely the most widely used in situ geotechnical test to
26 characterize tailings (Ayala et al., 2022; Fourie et al., 2022). Several CPT interpretation methods aim at
27 inferring the state parameter (ψ) which is the void ratio (e) difference between a soil and its critical state
28 line (CSL) at the current mean effective stress (p') (Been & Jefferies, 1985). The state parameter ψ is
29 indicative of a soil's volume change tendencies at large strains and therefore of several aspects of
30 engineering behavior. The first efforts to infer ψ from the CPT were based on data from calibration
31 chamber (CC) testing supplemented by soil properties measured through triaxial testing (Been et al. 1986;
32 1987). CCs have a height and diameter of ~ 1 m and essentially allow a full-scale CPT to be performed in a
33 laboratory environment in which soil characteristics, density, and stress levels can be controlled or
34 measured.

35 CC tests and the supplementary laboratory testing use soil specimens that are as uniform as
36 possible in terms of ψ as this is necessary to develop correlations with cone tip resistance. This translates
37 to CC specimens with a uniform e and a constant particle size distribution (PSD), particle shape, and
38 mineralogy to ensure a unique CSL. Techniques such as dry pluviation through sieves (Huntsman, 1985)
39 or moist tamping after homogenization (Been et al., 1987) have been used to achieve the desired CC
40 specimen uniformity. Similar approaches are used to achieve uniform triaxial specimens (Ayala et al.,
41 2022; Been & Olivera, 2016; da Fonseca et al., 2021).

42 The framework proposed by Been et al. (1986; 1987) has been modified and expanded by
43 numerous authors. Numerical simulations of cavity expansion, used as a CPT proxy, imply that the
44 framework can now be implemented without having to perform CC tests (Shuttle & Jefferies, 1998).
45 However, the newer methods are calibrated with CC results and retain the dependency on soil properties
46 measured on uniform laboratory specimens (e.g., Shuttle & Cunning, 2007; Shuttle & Jefferies, 2016;
47 Jefferies et al., 2019; Shuttle et al., 2022; Mozaffari & Ghafghazi, 2024) or estimated from CPT readings

48 (e.g., Plewes et al., 1992; Jung et al., 2025).

49 The widespread use in tailings engineering of the family of CPT interpretation methods that adopt
50 the Been et al. (1986; 1987) framework is reflected in the investigations of some of the most prominent
51 tailings storage facility (TSF) failures. For example, the investigations of TSF failures such as Samarco
52 (Morgenstern et al., 2016), Cadia Valley (Jefferies et al., 2019), and Brumadinho (Robertson et al., 2019;
53 CIMNE, 2021), collectively used the CPT interpretation methods described in Plewes et al. (1992), Shuttle
54 and Cuning (2007), and Shuttle and Jefferies (2016). The heavy reliance on this family of methods
55 prompts the question of the extent to which tailings deposits resemble the uniform CC and triaxial
56 specimens that underpin the framework. Layered deposits complicate CPT interpretation for at least two
57 reasons. Firstly, they constitute an important deviation from the conditions used to develop the Been et
58 al. (1986; 1987) framework. And secondly, in layered deposits multiple soils simultaneously affect cone
59 response (Boulanger & DeJong, 2018; Tehrani et al., 2017). Therefore, if a CPT interpretation method
60 requires soil properties, it is not clear which of the layered soils should be tested in the laboratory.
61 Furthermore, to the authors' knowledge, no studies have validated the use of homogenized sample
62 properties for CPT interpretation in layered tailings. Accordingly, it has been recommended that, to avoid
63 interference from adjacent layers, CPT interpretation should focus on layers that are >0.6 m thick and
64 have a stiffness ratio <5 between adjacent materials (Jefferies & Been, 2016). For instance, Shuttle and
65 Cuning (2007) reported CPT-based ψ estimates in a silt layer that was ~8 m thick and which exhibited
66 approximately constant values of a soil behavior type index derived from CPT readings. A unique set of
67 soil properties was assigned to this layer, implying that it was believed to be uniform.

68 Multiple works have incidentally or qualitatively reported tailings layering (Blight, 2010; da
69 Fonseca et al., 2020; Høeg et al., 2000; Jacobsz & Narainsamy, 2022; Vick, 1990). However, there is limited
70 literature focusing on quantitative characterization of such layering. For instance, Vermeulen (2001)
71 reported vertical profiles at a gold TSF that, based on color changes, exhibited layers that in some cases

72 were only a few centimeters thick. Reid et al. (2018a) reported gradation results of subaqueously
73 deposited iron ore tailings and, based on the percentage passing the 38 and 75 μm sieves, found negligible
74 signs of layering. Conversely, Reid et al. (2018c) sampled a surficial block of gold tailings and, based on the
75 percentage passing the 75 μm sieve, identified layers that were smaller than ~ 30 mm. Reid et al. (2018c)
76 noted that such layering poses a challenge to the application of critical state soil mechanics (CSSM). Reid
77 and Fanni (2022) reported results from two block samples of iron ore tailings from which they extracted
78 PSD specimens at ~ 2 cm intervals. Based on the percentages passing the 38 μm sieve, they reported
79 modest PSD variations. However, it is inferred from Reid and Fanni (2022) that they made an effort to
80 sample blocks that did not exhibit layering to enable comparisons between intact and reconstituted
81 samples. Reid et al. (2022) examined block samples of gold, platinum and copper tailings. By considering
82 the percentages passing the 38 and 75 μm sieves, they concluded that the blocks were layered and
83 exhibited a wide range of gradations.

84 The reviewed literature suggests that while thick uniform tailings layers may exist in some TSFs,
85 thinly layered structures can also develop. However, it is not clear how prevalent such layering is.
86 Furthermore, investigations into tailings layering have described PSD curves with only one or two points.
87 The importance of layering on CPT interpretation suggests that detailed PSD descriptions are warranted
88 and are thus adopted herein. The authors were also unable to find any works that discuss the implications
89 of tailings layering on CPT interpretation. Accordingly, this investigation characterized the layering in high-
90 quality samples, sometimes referred to in the literature as undisturbed samples, from three active South
91 African TSFs with varied hydraulic deposition methods. Additionally, a 3 m deep vertical profile at a TSF
92 undergoing reclamation was visually appraised. The results are discussed within the context of CPT
93 interpretation and alternative approaches to the mechanical characterization of tailings are suggested.

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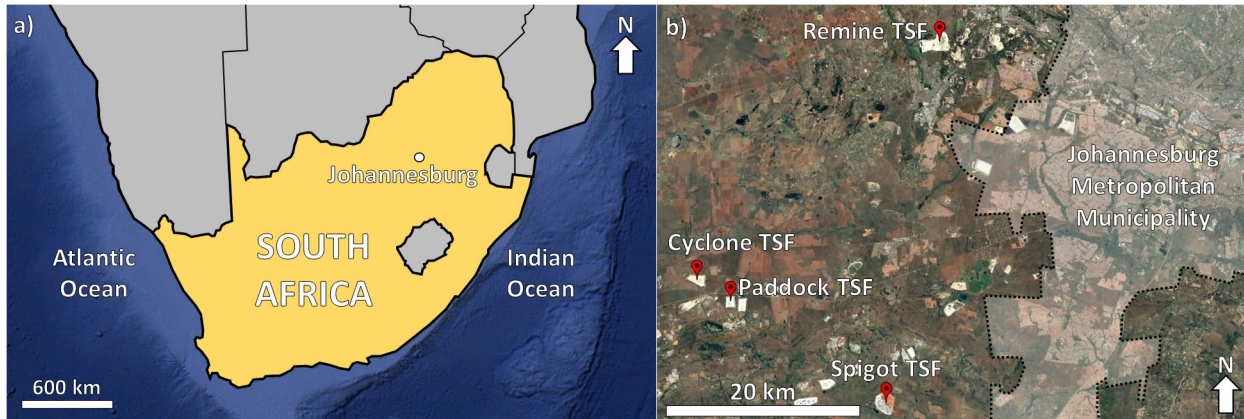
95 **2 METHODOLOGY**

96 **2.1 Sites investigated**

97 The fieldwork focused on gold tailings from the Witwatersrand Basin near Johannesburg, South Africa.
98 Four upstream TSFs were investigated. Surficial high-quality samples that preserved the in situ layering
99 were taken from three active TSFs, while visual inspections were performed at the fourth TSF. The three
100 sampled TSFs were chosen to represent different depositional methods: cycloning, paddocking, and
101 spigotting. Cycloning uses hydrocyclones to separate the tailings feed into a coarse fraction (underflow)
102 and a fine fraction (overflow) deposited on the outer and internal part of the TSF, respectively. Paddocking
103 involves depositing tailings in enclosed areas (the paddocks) on the crest of the dam during the day and
104 depositing in the internal part of the TSF at night. Spigotting uses outlets or spigots connected to a main
105 delivery pipe that runs along the perimeter of the outer wall of the TSF. Detailed descriptions of these
106 methods have been previously reported (Blight, 2010; McPhail & Wagner, 1987). Hereafter, the three
107 sampled TSFs will be referred to simply as the Cyclone TSF, Paddock TSF, and Spigot TSF. The fourth
108 investigated TSF was undergoing reclamation to enable tailings reprocessing and this allowed inspection
109 of layering patterns along profiles that were several meters long. This TSF also adopted paddocking
110 deposition and will be referred to as the Remine TSF. Figure 1 shows the locations of the TSFs and Figure
111 2 shows their overall layout.

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114

115 **Fig. 1.** Location of the TSFs: a) Location of Johannesburg within South Africa and b) Location of the TSFs
116 with respect to Johannesburg. Source: Google Earth Pro.

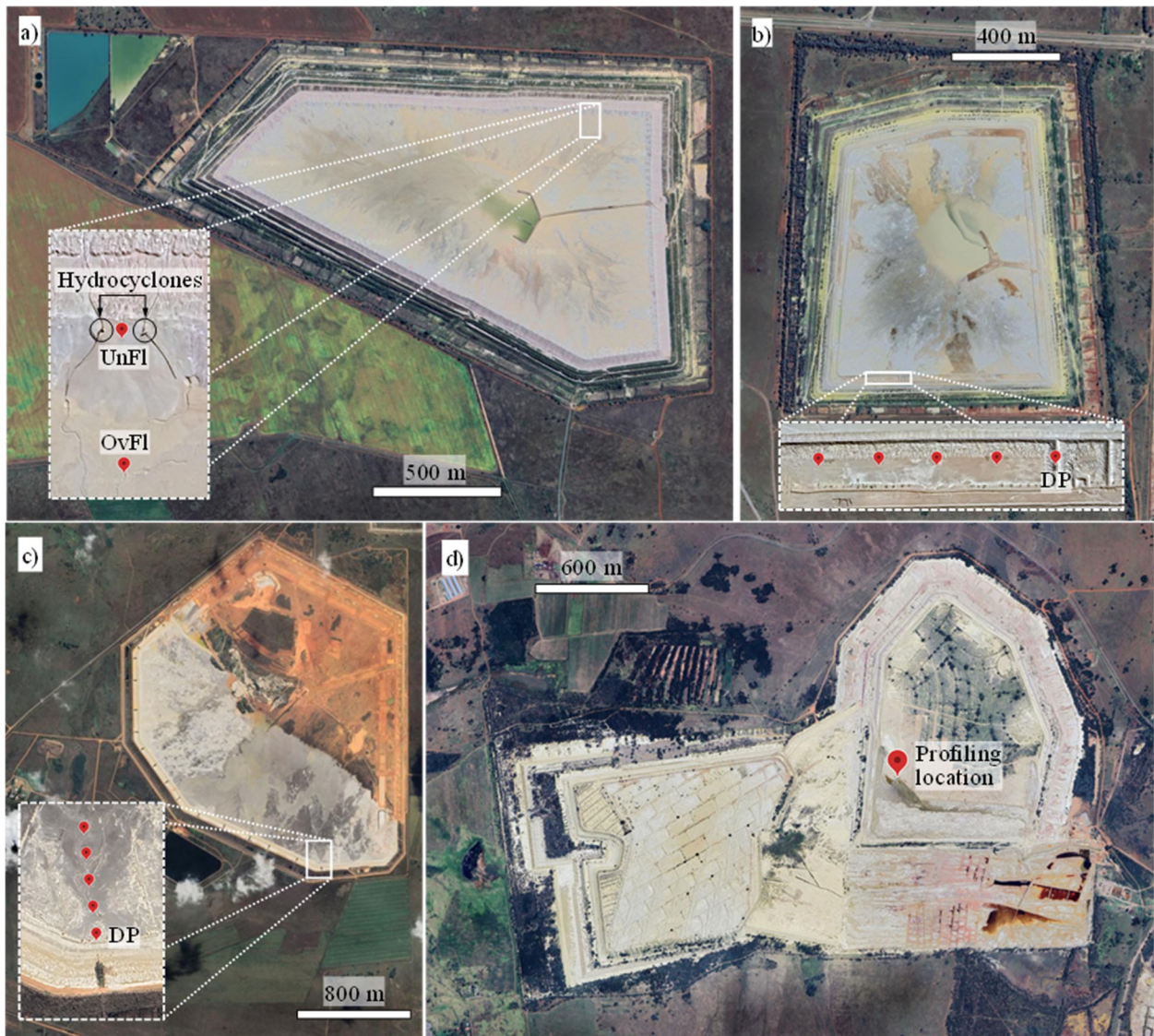
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118 2.2 Sampling and characterization of tailings

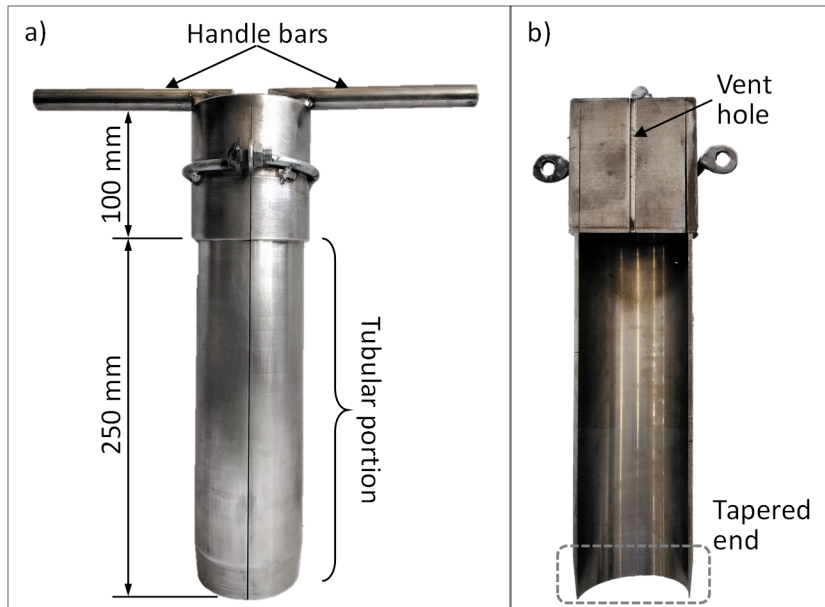
119 A stainless-steel split tube sampler (Figure 3) was manufactured to extract surficial samples that preserved
120 any potential layering. The sampler meets the requirements of ASTM D1587-15 (ASTM, 2015) and is
121 similar to a sampler previously used for gold tailings (Vermeulen, 2001). The upper portion of the sampler
122 consists of a split solid cylinder that has a 1 mm diameter vent hole through its center. The hole also
123 enabled the insertion of a 0.75 mm rod used to check that the sampler was full. The sampling tube is 250
124 mm long with inner and outer diameters of 75 and 80 mm. The lowest 25 mm of the sampling tube are
125 tapered at 5° to facilitate sampling. The tube was polished inside and out to minimize friction.

126 The entire length of the sampling tube was pushed into the tailings from surface level. To minimize
127 disturbance, the sampler was then dug out rather than pulled out. Subsequently, the sampler was opened
128 and the sample marked at 1 cm intervals to obtain 25 slices (Figure 4). A cutting plate was then used to
129 slice the sample and each slice was stored in a labelled, air-tight bag for transportation to the laboratory.
130 For each sample, the slices were numbered from 1 to 25 from top to bottom. To achieve a uniform slicing
131 frequency, the slices were always cut at 1 cm intervals regardless of the layer boundaries suggested by
132 color changes. However, assuming that color changes reflect alterations in PSD and mineralogy, some

133 layers could have been thinner than 1 cm (e.g., the lowest three centimeters of the sample in Figure 4).
134



135
136 **Fig. 2.** Satellite images of the investigated TSFs: a) Cyclone TSF; b) Paddock TSF; c) Spigot TSF; and d)
137 Remine TSF. Notes: Insets in parts a) to c) show sampling locations. OvFl = overflow; UnFl = underflow, DP
138 = Discharge point (not sampled). Source: Google Earth Pro.



139

140 **Fig. 3.** Tailings sampler: a) assembled and b) internal lateral view.

141



142

143 **Fig. 4.** Sample 'Spigot @100' with marks at 1 cm intervals prior to being sliced.

144

145 Ten samples, resulting in 250 slices, were collected from the locations shown in Figure 2. At the
 146 Cyclone TSF, both the underflow and the overflow were sampled. And for the Paddock and Spigot TSFs
 147 samples were collected at different distances from the discharge point. Table 1 provides additional details
 148 regarding the sampling locations and the code used to identify each sample. The code is composed of the

149 name of the TSF and an indication of the distance from the discharge point or, in the case of the Cyclone
 150 TSF, of whether the sample was of the underflow or overflow. Individual slices will be identified herein by
 151 adding the slice number to the code of the sample. For instance, slice *Cyclone UnFI (7)* is the seventh slice
 152 from top to bottom of the underflow sample at the Cyclone TSF.

153 The particle shape of the tailings from the three sampled TSFs was examined using scanning
 154 electron microscopy (SEM) on three tailings size fractions isolated by sieving (>150 µm, 75 to 150 µm, and
 155 <75 µm). The particles were highly angular regardless of particle size (Figure 5), which is characteristic of
 156 tailings generated from ore crushing (e.g., Torres-Cruz & Santamarina, 2020; Vermeulen, 2001).

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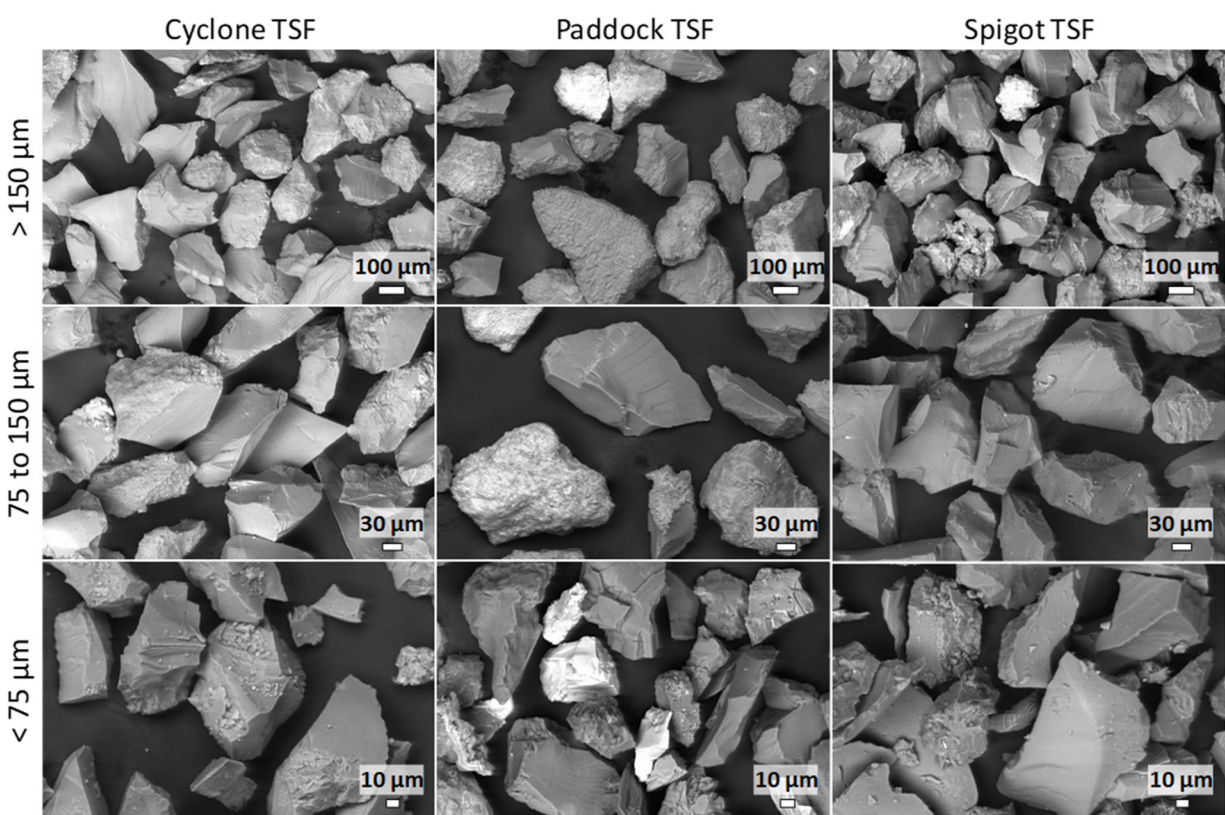
158 **Table 1.** Location and code of the ten samples recovered with the tube sampler.

TSF	Location	Code
Cyclone	9 m along outer wall from underflow discharge (Figure 2a).	Cyclone UnFI
	35 m towards the decant pond from overflow discharge (Figure 2a).	Cyclone OvFI
Paddock	25, 50, 75, and 100 m from discharge within the paddock (Figure 2b).	Paddock @25, Paddock @50, Paddock @75, Paddock @100
Spigot	25, 50, 75, and 100 m from discharge towards the decant pond (Figure 2c).	Spigot @25, Spigot @50, Spigot @75, Spigot @100

159

160 The mineralogy of one slice from each sampled TSF was analyzed using X-ray diffraction. The
 161 analyzed slices exhibited a PSD that was deemed representative of the respective TSF. Table 2 summarizes
 162 the mineralogy and shows that the tailings from all three TSFs are dominated (>55%) by quartz. This agrees

163 with previous reports of the mineralogy of gold tailings from the Witwatersrand Basin (Chang, 2009;
164 Vermeulen, 2001). The tailings also contained significant amounts (> 8%) of chlorite. Additionally, the
165 Paddock TSF exhibits significant amounts (> 8%) of plagioclase, muscovite, and actinolite.
166



167
168 **Fig. 5.** Scanning electron microscopy images of the sampled tailings.

169
170 The specific gravity (G_s) was measured following BS 1377:2 (BSI, 1990) for the finest and coarsest
171 slice encountered at each TSF. For the Cyclone TSF and the Paddock TSF the G_s was 2.70 and 2.72,
172 respectively, for both slices. For the Spigot TSF the fine slice yielded 2.59 and the coarsest 2.67. These
173 results are consistent with the quartz-dominated mineralogy (Table 2) and previous G_s values reported
174 for gold tailings (Chang, 2009; Vermeulen, 2001).

175

176 **Table 2.** Mineralogy of the three sampled TSFs.

Mineral	Cyclone OvFI (2)	Paddock @25 (17)	Spigot @100 (8)
Quartz	77.5	56.4	74.6
Plagioclase	0	8.9	0
Chlorite	8.4	8.5	8.6
Microcline	0	1.6	0
Muscovite	4.6	8.1	3.2
Pyrophyllite	2.9	4.5	5.8
Talc	0	0	5.3
Hematite	0.6	0	0
Chloritoid	4.0	0	0
Pyrite	0	0	0.7
Dolomite	0	2.9	0
Gypsum	2.0	0	0
Actinolite	0	9.1	0
Calcite	0	0	1.8

177

178 In order to assess variability along the length of the samples, the PSD and plastic limit (PL) of each
 179 slice were determined. PSDs were measured with a laser diffraction spectroscopy device (Anton Paar PSA
 180 1090) which operates on particle sizes ranging from 0.04 to 500 μm . The specimen mass required for the
 181 PSD determinations ranged between 0.9 and 1.4 g. Each PSD specimen was extracted from the central
 182 portion of the top surface of each slice. The dispersing agent was sodium hexametaphosphate (5 g/liter)
 183 as per ASTM D7928-21 (ASTM, 2021). The specimens and the dispersing solution were placed in a covered
 184 container and left overnight in the temperature-controlled room that housed the laser diffraction device

185 to ensure temperature equilibrium and promote deflocculation. PL determinations followed the thread
186 rolling method of BSI 1377:2 (BSI, 1990). Additional index properties, such as the liquid limit or the
187 minimum and maximum void ratio were not determined due to the limited mass of each slice.

188

189 **2.3 Profiling at the Remine TSF**

190 The reclamation activities at the Remine TSF allowed us to expose a 3 m deep profile for visual
191 appraisal at the location shown in Figure 2d. To this end, we adopted an approach similar to that described
192 in Vermeulen (2001). Six 0.5 m tall benches were created by cutting into the tailings with the flat blade of
193 a spade. The vertical faces were then individually photographed.

194

195 **3 RESULTS**

196 **3.1 Layering characteristics in the sampled tailings**

197 Figures 6 to 8 show the 25 PSDs measured on each sample collected at the Cyclone, Paddock, and Spigot
198 TSFs. At the Cyclone TSF, the range of gradations is broader for the underflow sample than for the
199 overflow sample (Figure 6). At the Paddock TSF, the samples collected 25 and 50 m away from the
200 discharge point exhibited the broadest range of gradations. Whereas the samples collected 75 and 100 m
201 away from the discharge point exhibited narrower and finer gradations. This is consistent with the general
202 trend of coarser particles settling out of the slurry closer to the discharge point (Blight, 2010). As for the
203 Spigot TSF, the sample collected at 100 m from the discharge point exhibited the broadest range of
204 gradations. The four Spigot TSF samples do not reveal a clear trend of PSDs becoming finer as the distance
205 from the discharge point increases. This is not entirely surprising, as data from Blight (2010) suggests that
206 in some cases it is necessary to collect samples over longer distances along the beach for clear PSD trends
207 to emerge.

208 To provide context, Figures 6 to 8 include the PSD envelopes of two TSFs that failed in Brazil: The

209 Samarco TSF (Rezende, 2013) and the Córrego do Feijão TSF (Robertson et al., 2019). The Samarco TSF
210 failure is also widely referred to by the name of the containment structure that failed which was the
211 Fundão Dam. And the Córrego do Feijão TSF failure is better known by the name of the nearby town,
212 Brumadinho. PSD data representative of the tailings contained by the Fundão Dam were obtained from
213 Rezende (2013) because this source was relied upon during the post-failure investigation (see Appendix
214 D in Morgenstern et al. 2016). The PSD envelope for Fundão is based on 26 samples of which 18
215 correspond to the tailings slurry as it leaves the concentration plant, and 8 correspond to samples taken
216 over a 110 m distance that stretched from the dam crest into the tailings beach (Rezende, 2013). The PSD
217 range for the Brumadinho TSF is based on 20 samples described as coarse, fine, or berm fill tailings in
218 Robertson et al. (2019). The samples from both TSFs aimed at characterizing the different types of
219 impounded tailings.

220 The PSD envelopes of the Fundão and Brumadinho PSDs are generally coarser than the PSDs
221 measured in our ten samples. Accordingly, to facilitate the comparison of the spread of the PSDs, the
222 reference envelopes were shifted to the left by dividing all the particle sizes of the envelopes by a number
223 which varies across plots and is indicated in the legends of Figures 6 to 8. Because the horizontal axis is
224 logarithmic, this division does not alter the shape of the envelopes.

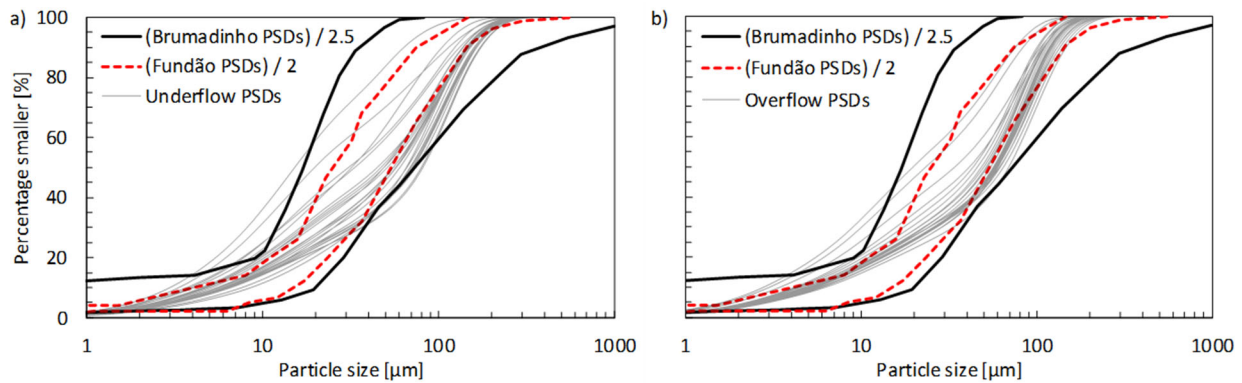
225 Figures 6 to 8 show that the range of PSDs in a single 25 cm sample is often comparable, and
226 sometimes even larger, than the PSD envelopes. This is particularly true when comparing the sample PSDs
227 to the Fundão PSD envelope which is narrower than that at Brumadinho. However, even the wider range
228 of the Brumadinho PSD envelope is similar to the PSD variability of some samples (Figure 7a, b and Figure
229 8d). It seems likely that if the PSD samples at Brumadinho and Fundão had been subjected to the detailed
230 slicing adopted herein, their PSD envelopes would have been wider. Notwithstanding, Figures 6 to 8 show
231 that the PSD variability that occurs along a small 25 cm sample is not merely a minor deviation from a
232 central trend, but rather a variability that is comparable to that observed across an entire tailings

233 impoundment.

234 Figure 9 shows profiles of D_{10} , D_{50} , and D_{90} along the height of the ten samples. The plots further
235 highlight how changes in gradation occur over centimeters. The profiles suggest that the thickest uniform
236 layer in all ten samples corresponds to the upper ~15 cm of the Cyclone OvFI sample (Figure 9b). This is
237 consistent with the narrower band of PSDs observed in Figure 6b.

238 Plastic limits (PL) could not be measured for the large majority of the slices because the nonplastic
239 nature of the tailings prevented them from being rolled into threads. Table 3 summarizes the limited PL
240 results obtained. All values fall within a relatively low and narrow range of 23% and 33%. This suggests
241 that while PSD varied significantly within the samples, plasticity did not.

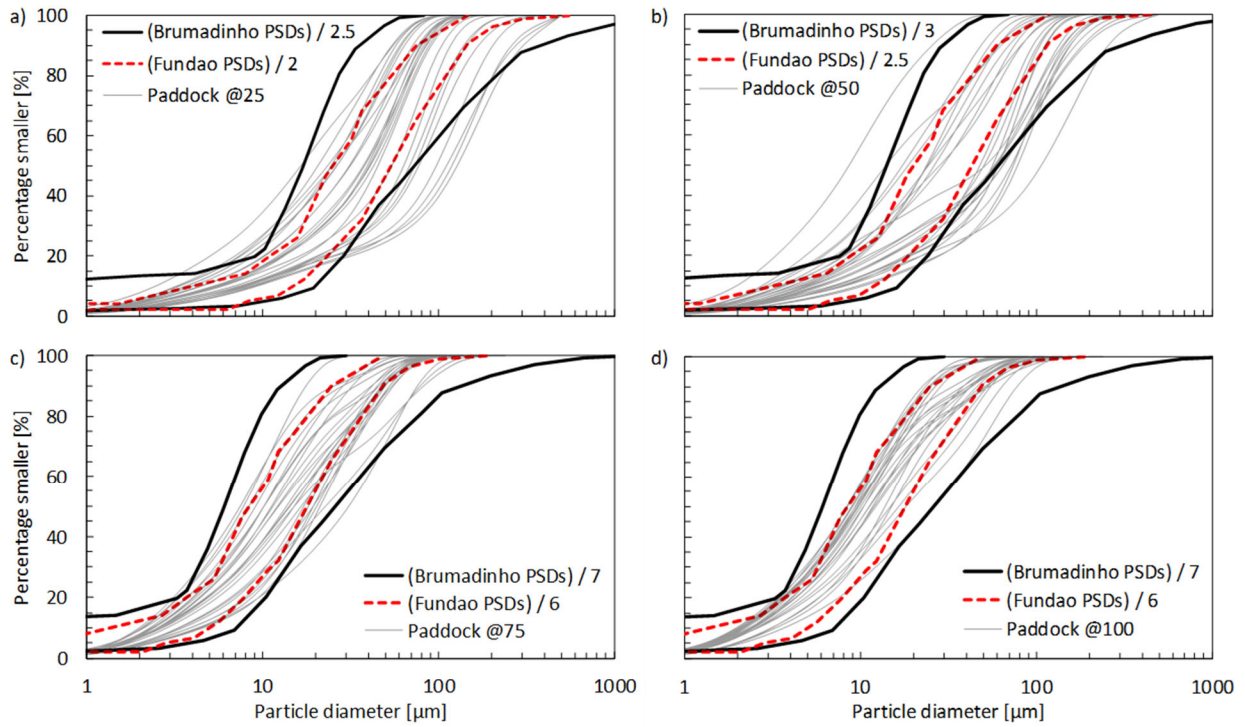
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243

244 **Fig. 6.** Range of PSDs in the samples: a) Cyclone UnFI and b) Cyclone OvFI. Note: Laterally shifted PSD
245 envelopes shown for Fundão (Rezende, 2013) and Brumadinho (Robertson et al., 2019).

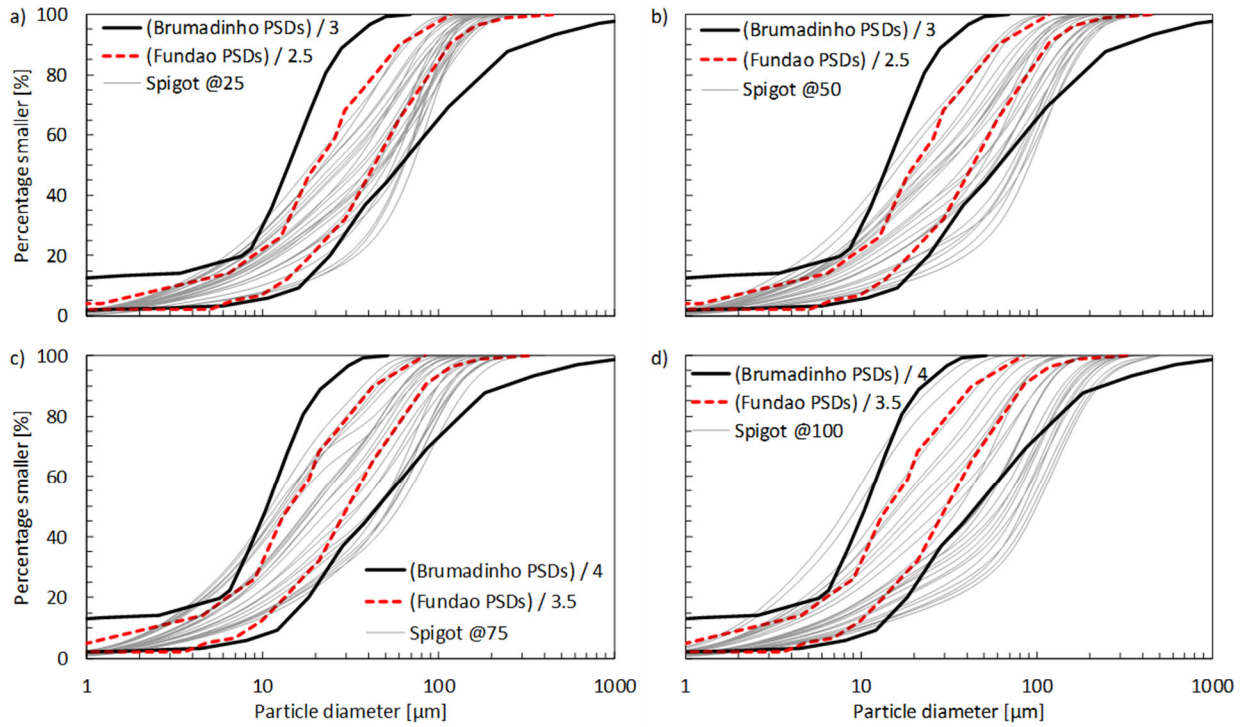
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247

248 **Fig. 7.** Range of PSDs in the samples: a) Paddock @25, b) Paddock @50, c) Paddock @75, and d) Paddock
 249 @100. Note: Laterally shifted PSD envelopes shown for Fundão (Rezende, 2013) and Brumadinho
 250 (Robertson et al., 2019).

251



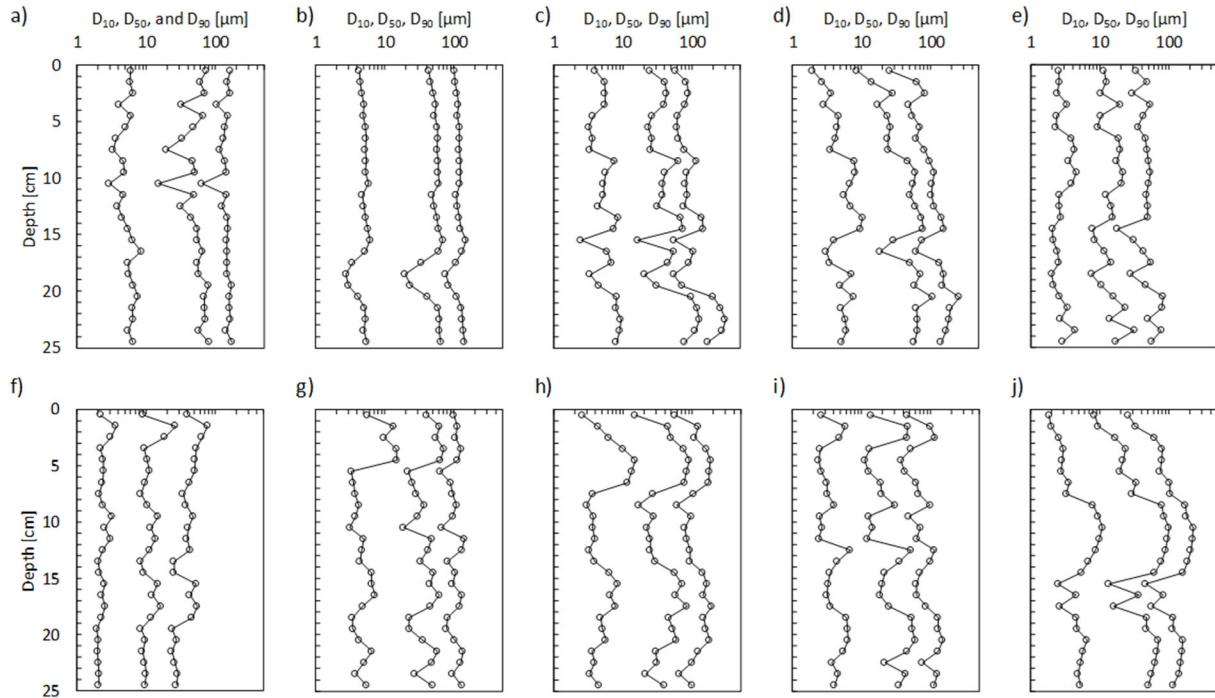
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253 **Fig. 8.** Range of PSDs in the samples: a) Spigot @25, b) Spigot @50, c) Spigot @75, and d) Spigot @100.

254 Note: Laterally shifted PSD envelopes shown for Fundão (Rezende, 2013) and Brumadinho (Robertson et

255 al., 2019).

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Fig. 9. Profiles of D_{10} , D_{50} , and D_{90} of samples a) Cyclone UnFl, b) Cyclone OvFl, c) Paddock @25, d) Paddock @50, e) Paddock @75, f) Paddock @100, g) Spigot @25, h) Spigot @50, i) Spigot @75, and j) Spigot @100.

Table 3. Plastic limit results.

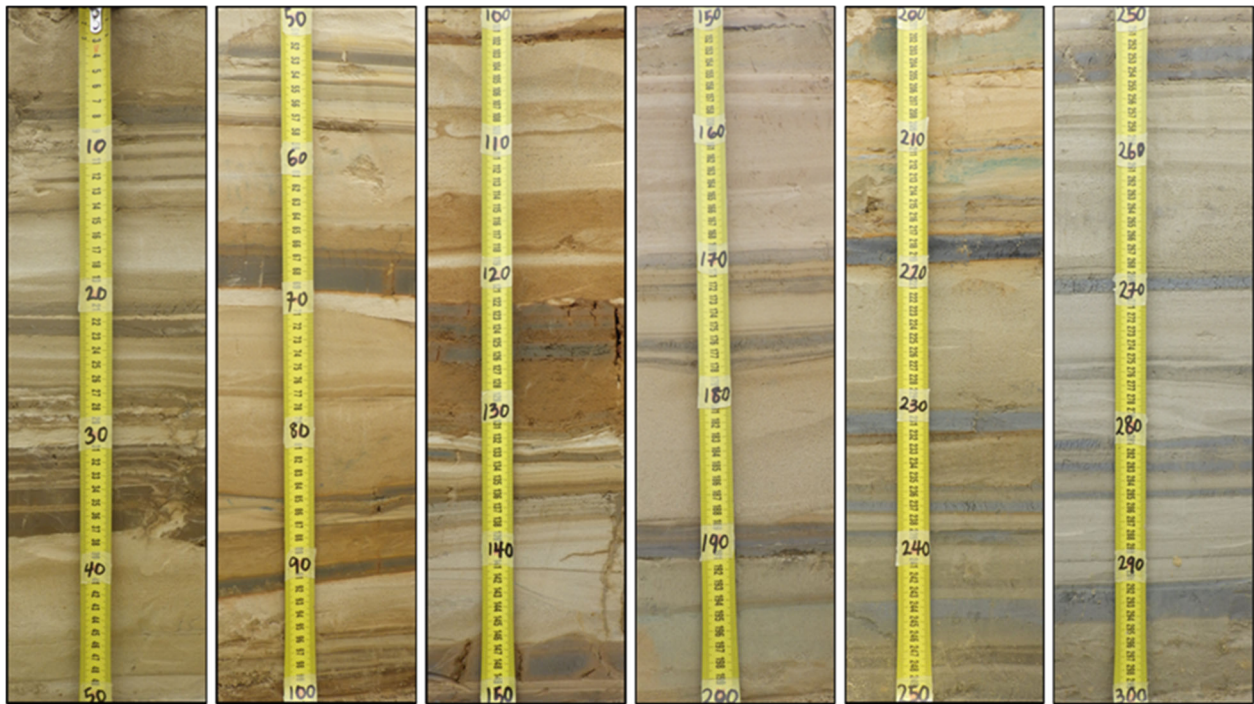
TSF	Sample	Slice numbers	PL Range (%)
Paddock	Paddock @ 50m	1 – 2	23 – 27
	Paddock @ 75m	2 – 4 and 13 – 20	24 – 32
	Paddock @ 100m	3 – 15	24 – 33
Spigot	Spigot @ 75m	5 – 7	27 – 32
	Spigot @ 100m	1 – 2	30 – 33

262

263 **3.2 Layering in the exposed profile of the Remine TSF**

264 Figure 10 shows the 3 m profile exposed at the Remine TSF. Assuming that changes in color reflect changes
265 in mineralogy or PSD, the thinly layered nature of the tailings deposit is evident. Several portions exhibit
266 layers that are only a few millimeters thick (e.g., between 20 and 40 cm, 130 and 140 cm, and 170 and
267 180 cm). Overall, Figure 10 suggests that uniform layers are unlikely to exceed thicknesses of ~10 cm.

268



269

270 **Fig. 10.** The 3 m deep profile at the Remine TSF. Note: The measuring tape shows centimeters.

271

272 **4 DISCUSSION**

273 **4.1 Implications for CPT interpretation**

274 The thin layering of the four tailings deposits constitutes a significant deviation from the uniform CC and
275 triaxial testing specimens that underpin the CPT interpretation methods based on the Been et al. (1986;
276 1987) framework and which include some of the most widely-used methods in TSFs (e.g., Jefferies et al.,
277 2019; Jefferies & Been, 2016; Jung et al., 2025; Plewes et al., 1992; Mozaffari & Ghafghazi, 2024; Shuttle

278 & Cuning, 2007; Shuttle & Jefferies, 1998; Shuttle & Jefferies, 2016; Shuttle et al., 2022). Our findings are
279 consistent with thin layering reported in hydraulically deposited tailings from gold (Vermeulen, 2001) and
280 other commodities (Reid et al., 2018c, 2022). This thin layering, often underexplored quantitatively, raises
281 questions about the suitability of the Been et al. (1986; 1987) framework to characterize hydraulically
282 deposited tailings.

283 Furthermore, some of the methods based on this framework require soil properties that have to
284 be measured through laboratory testing such as the slope of the CSL in $e\text{-log}p'$ space (λ), dilation
285 properties, plastic parameters, and elastic parameters (e.g., Ayala et al., 2022; Robertson et al., 2019;
286 Shuttle et al., 2022). While PSD may not significantly affect soil properties in some cases (Robertson et al.,
287 2019), it generally affects at least the CSL slope λ and the state-dilatancy property X_{tc} (Jefferies & Been,
288 2016; Torres-Cruz, 2021). Accordingly, the standing recommendation is to assume that different PSDs
289 yield different properties that have to be characterized independently (Jefferies & Been, 2016).
290 Characterizing multiple PSDs, as done in the Cadia Valley and Brumadinho investigations (Jefferies et al.,
291 2019; Robertson et al., 2019), is consistent with the presence of varied gradations within a single TSF.
292 However, this does not address the challenge posed by thinly layered deposits in which several soils
293 simultaneously affect the CPT response, making it unclear which soil properties should be used for CPT
294 interpretation. That is, the practicing engineer is left unsure about which tailings gradation should be sent
295 to the laboratory for detailed testing or if a homogenized sample will yield adequate results. And although
296 ψ variations were not explored herein, it is also possible for ψ to vary across layers, constituting a further
297 deviation from the uniform CC and triaxial specimens.

298 Considering the potentially catastrophic consequences of TSF failures, the validation of any
299 approach aimed at making in situ estimates of ψ should ideally be based on blind predictions compared
300 against high-quality specimens from sites at which the vertical and horizontal effective stresses have been
301 measured. This latter requirement arises from the need to compute p' in order to calculate ψ . To test the

302 robustness of the method, the validation should cover a wide range of ψ values and involve multiple teams
303 working independently from each other. However, thin layering poses a fundamental challenge to this
304 hypothetical validation scheme because changes in PSD can affect the height of the CSL in e - $\log p'$ space
305 (Thevanayagam et al., 2002; Torres-Cruz, 2019). Accordingly, if a high-quality layered sample is obtained
306 to confirm a CPT-based ψ estimate, it is not clear which is the CSL that should be used to compare against
307 the overall void ratio of the sample (e.g., Jefferies et al., 2019).

308 Of the multiple CPT interpretation methods based on the Been et al. (1986; 1987) framework, the
309 "widget" method, which is anchored on CSSM and was developed by Shuttle and Cuning (2007), Shuttle
310 and Jefferies (2016), Jefferies et al. (2019), and Shuttle et al. (2022), appears to be the most highly
311 regarded in the tailings industry. For instance, the method was used to investigate the failures at
312 Brumadinho and Cadia Valley (CIMNE, 2021; Jefferies et al., 2019; Robertson et al., 2019).
313 Notwithstanding, using data from three TSFs, comparisons between ψ as measured in "undisturbed"
314 samples and ψ as inferred from the widget method show a lack of overall agreement (Fourie et al., 2022).
315 It should be noted that the ψ comparisons reported by Fourie et al. (2022) do not meet the standards of
316 the ideal validation scheme described above but appear to be the only data available to make this type of
317 comparison. The results reported herein suggest that thin layering of tailings may be contributing to the
318 lack of agreement. It has also been suggested that the discrepancy could be due to the fact that the CC
319 testing that underpins the widget method includes predominantly dilatant sands unlike the contractive
320 soils that are of greatest geotechnical interest (Ayala et al., 2022).

321 Our results challenge what appears to be a widely held view that the Been et al. (1986; 1987)
322 framework is currently the most promising approach for tailings characterization. For instance, recent
323 guidelines on tailings dam safety issued by the International Commission on Large Dams (ICOLD, 2025)
324 note that high-quality specimens provide the most reliable method of directly measuring in situ void ratio
325 "but may be extremely costly", "impossible" and "are often unreliable" due to disturbance. Accordingly,

326 the ICOLD guidelines go on to say that the "CPTu currently provides the most practical means to infer the
327 in situ state of many soils, especially tailings" and note that Jefferies and Been (2016), which adopts the
328 Been et al. (1986; 1987) framework, describes correlations to estimate ψ . It seems reasonable to expect
329 that upon reading this guidance most engineers will be discouraged from attempting to pursue testing on
330 high-quality specimens and will rather rely on the Jefferies & Been (2016) approach. A decision which, as
331 discussed below, precludes the possibility of gaining useful insights from testing high-quality specimens
332 or may lead to an unwarranted discarding of results from more empirical CPT interpretation methods.

333

334 **4.2 Suggestions for the path forward**

335 The search of alternatives to the Been et al. (1986; 1987) framework leads to more empirical CPT
336 interpretation methods that are directly based on the back analysis of TSF failure case histories. Such
337 methods include those proposed by Olson and Stark (2001, 2002), Robertson (2016, 2022) and
338 Sadrekarimi (2014). While these methods also have their limitations (Fourie et al., 2022), their empiricism
339 appears to be consistent with our current limited ability to characterize thinly layered deposits. Of note,
340 empirical CPT interpretation methods are also recommended in the abovementioned ICOLD (2025)
341 guidelines. The guidelines correctly note that implementation of the Jefferies and Been (2016) approach
342 requires a significantly higher effort than the empirical methods and that this higher effort is generally
343 justified for TSFs with potentially catastrophic consequences of failure. The implication is that the Jefferies
344 and Been (2016) approach yields more accurate results than the empirical methods. A claim which, to our
345 knowledge, lacks supporting experimental data. We hypothesize that the theoretical grounding provided
346 by CSSM, combined with its complex numerical implementation and extensive laboratory testing
347 requirements may lead to an overestimation of the accuracy of the Jefferies and Been (2016) approach.
348 This concern may also apply more broadly to other approaches that adopt the Been et al. (1986; 1987)
349 framework. Furthermore, while the CPT remains the most widely used test for the mechanical

350 characterization of tailings, alternative geotechnical and geophysical in situ tests can also play an
351 important role in helping the profession find the answers it seeks (e.g., Fourie et al., 2022; Schnaid, 2020).

352 It was noted above that several soil properties used in methods that adopt the Been et al. (1986;
353 1987) framework depend on PSD. However, there is at least one soil property that does not have a strong
354 PSD dependence and which may be useful in finding a path forward. The critical state friction ratio
355 measured under triaxial compression conditions (M_{tc}) remains virtually constant across different PSDs
356 from the same TSF (Bandini and Coop, 2011; Carrera et al., 2011; Torres-Cruz & Santamarina, 2020). This
357 appears to be due to the strong dependence of M_{tc} on particle shape (Sadrekarimi and Olson, 2011) which
358 in crushed-ore tailings remains highly angular over most particle sizes (Figure 5; Torres-Cruz &
359 Santamarina, 2020; Vermeulen, 2001). It seems likely that properties that show limited PSD dependence
360 are good candidates to aid the robust characterization of layered tailings.

361 Considering the significant laboratory testing effort involved in obtaining precise CSSM
362 parameters of uniform specimens that may not be representative of in situ conditions, the tailings
363 profession should consider whether more value could be gained from characterizing high-quality
364 specimens that try to preserve the in situ thin layering and fabric. Testing high-quality specimens is likely
365 to result in a more approximate characterization because differences among such specimens will be more
366 pronounced than differences between reconstituted specimens and this introduces scatter.
367 Notwithstanding, the literature shows that, despite current limitations in obtaining high-quality
368 specimens, they can play an important role in understanding tailings behavior. For instance, Høeg et al.
369 (2000) reported comparisons of the triaxial compression behavior of undisturbed and reconstituted
370 specimens of copper tailings from the Zelazny Most TSF. The undisturbed specimens were dilatant
371 whereas denser reconstituted specimens were contractive. Høeg et al. (2000) suggested that this was
372 predominantly due to differences in fabric although they indicated that the pronounced layering of the
373 undisturbed tailings may have also played a role. Consequently, Høeg et al. (2000) concluded that the

374 results of the reconstituted specimens should not be used in the analyses of the Zelazny Most TSF.
375 Additional comparisons between undisturbed and reconstituted specimens from the Zelazny Most TSF
376 presented by Jamiolkowski (2014) yielded similar results: at the same void ratio the large strain behavior
377 of undisturbed specimens was dilative while that of reconstituted specimens was contractive. Accordingly,
378 Jamiolkowsky (2014) concluded that the Zelazny Most tailings were barely susceptible to flow failure. In
379 an unrelated investigation, Fourie et al. (2001) used ground freezing to recover undisturbed specimens of
380 oil sand tailings from below the phreatic surface and found, via physical measurements, gas
381 chromatography and microscopy analyses, that the specimens were not fully saturated. Fourie et al.
382 (2001) noted that this partial saturation may reduce the liquefaction potential of tailings sand under
383 undrained loading and that, while it was premature to modify engineering practice on the basis of their
384 observations, this was an issue that required further investigation. In two different examples, high-quality
385 surficial tailings specimens were used in monotonic direct simple shear testing to characterize the peak
386 undrained strength ratio induced by desiccation (Reid et al. 2018b, c). The tests enabled the estimation of
387 the preconsolidation pressures induced by sun drying. Similarly, an investigation into the Brumadinho TSF
388 failure used high-quality specimens to estimate in situ physical, hydraulic, and geomechanical parameters
389 (da Fonseca et al., 2020). It is clear that although the testing of high-quality tailings specimens currently
390 appears to only play a modest role in geotechnical characterization, there are useful insights that can be
391 gained from it.

392 The prospect of testing undisturbed specimens brings to the fore concerns about the fact that
393 such specimens are not truly undisturbed, as some disturbance is expected during the extraction,
394 transportation and mounting processes. This is particularly true for nonplastic granular media such as
395 many types of tailings. The authors hope that greater awareness of the stark differences between the
396 thinly layered structure of hydraulically deposited tailings and the uniform specimens that underpin some
397 of the most widely used CPT-interpretation methods will prompt greater interest in developing and

398 validating high-quality sampling techniques. It is worth noting that a recent survey about the expectations
399 of tailings engineers for the year 2030 found that one of the points of interest was the development of
400 better undisturbed sampling methods for fine and coarse tailings (Small et al., 2024). An interesting
401 development aimed at enabling the laboratory testing of high-quality specimens, but not directly related
402 to the improvement of sampling techniques, is an industrial-academic collaboration in South Africa to
403 develop a state-of-the-art mobile (truck-mounted) geotechnical laboratory (UP, 2023). By taking the
404 laboratory to the TSF, the specimen disturbance due to transportation is significantly reduced. The
405 authors are not aware of mobile tailings laboratories elsewhere and posit that there could be significant
406 advantages in further exploring this approach.

407

408 **5 CONCLUSIONS**

409 Current tailings engineering practice emphasizes the inference of the state parameter ψ from CPT results
410 which are often supplemented by laboratory testing. The quest for ψ is understandable as it helps predict
411 the drained and undrained large-strain behavior of saturated tailings (Been & Jefferies, 1985). However,
412 several widely used CPT interpretation methods are based on CC and triaxial testing of uniform specimens.
413 This raises the question of whether tailings deposits resemble these uniform specimens.

414 This work documented the layering characteristics of four hydraulically deposited gold TSFs. Ten
415 tube samples that were 25 cm long were extracted from three of the TSFs for laboratory index testing.
416 Additionally, a 3 m deep profile at the fourth TSF was visually appraised for color changes hypothesized
417 to correspond with changes in PSD or mineralogy. Thin layering, albeit with consistently low plasticity,
418 was observed in all ten tube samples and in the 3 m deep profile, with PSD variability in some samples
419 matching or exceeding the variability observed at entire TSFs. This layered structure, which appears to be
420 common in hydraulically deposited tailings from other commodities (Reid et al., 2022), contrasts starkly
421 with the uniform specimens used in the CC and triaxial testing that underpin several widely used CPT

422 interpretation methods.

423 The thin layering documented herein is also at odds with a published recommendation to focus
424 CPT interpretation on layers exceeding 0.6 m (Jefferies & Been, 2016). In contrast, the samples and profile
425 examined herein suggest that the thickest uniform layer did not exceed ~0.15 m. These observations raise
426 questions about the fundamental compatibility between CPT interpretation methods based on uniform
427 specimens, and thinly layered deposits. This potential incompatibility may be contributing to known
428 limitations in CPT-based ψ estimates, such as those reported for the widget method (Fourie et al., 2022).

429 Considering that current practice is strongly dominated by the laboratory testing of reconstituted
430 uniform specimens to obtain precise CSSM parameters, we propose that there should be more space for
431 the approximate characterization of high-quality specimens that preserve their in situ layered structure.
432 This would be in line with the principle that "it is better to be vaguely right than exactly wrong" (Read,
433 1920).

434

435 **6 DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

436 All data, models, and code generated or used during the study appear in the submitted article.

437

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442

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