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2 Layering in tailings deposits:

3 Characterization and implications for CPT

4 interpretation

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16 Abstract

17 The cone penetration test (CPT) is widely used for tailings characterisation. Often, the CPT is
18 used to infer the state parameter (ψ) using methods based on uniform soil specimens. This paper
19 addresses a crucial question: To what extent do tailings deposits resemble uniform specimens?
20 We quantitatively characterised layering in tube samples from three active gold tailings storage
21 facilities (TSFs) and visually appraised a 3 m profile at a fourth TSF. Results reveal pronounced
22 thin layering in all samples and the exposed profile. Our analysis suggests that the uniform layers
23 documented herein are unlikely to exceed 10 cm. This is significantly less than the >0.6 m
24 recommended for CPT interpretation. The PSD variability within a single 25 cm sample often
25 matched or exceeded that observed across entire TSFs, highlighting the significance of the
26 variability. Thin layering constitutes a significant deviation from the uniformity assumption
27 underpinning widely used CPT interpretation methods and is likely to compromise the accuracy
28 of CPT-based ψ estimates. Thin layering also raises fundamental questions about validating ψ
29 estimates. We propose shifting research to include the approximate laboratory characterisation of
30 layered specimens rather than focusing on the precise characterisation of uniform specimens that
31 do not resemble in situ conditions.

32 List of notations

33 λ	Slope of the CSL in e - $\log_{10} p'$ space
34 ψ	State parameter
35 CC	Calibration chamber
36 CPT	Cone penetration test

37	CSL	Critical state line
38	CSSM	Critical state soil mechanics
39	D_n	Particle size that corresponds to $n\%$ of the PSD curve
40	DP	Tailings discharge point
41	e	Void ratio
42	G_s	Specific gravity of the particles
43	M_{tc}	Critical state friction ratio measured in triaxial compression
44	OvFI	Overflow from hydrocyclone
45	p'	Mean effective stress
46	PL	Plastic limit
47	PSD	Particle size distribution
48	SEM	Scanning electron microscopy
49	TSF	Tailings storage facility
50	UnFI	Underflow from hydrocyclone
51	X_{tc}	Stress-dilatancy property measured in triaxial compression

52 Keywords

53 Tailings, CPT interpretation, layering, CSSM

54 1 Introduction

55 The cone penetration test (CPT) is likely the most widely used in situ geotechnical test to
 56 characterize tailings (Ayala et al., 2022; Fourie et al., 2022). Several CPT interpretation methods

57 aim at inferring the state parameter (ψ) which is the void ratio (e) difference between a soil and
58 its critical state line (CSL) at the current mean effective stress (p') (Been & Jefferies, 1985). The
59 state parameter ψ is indicative of a soil's volume change tendencies at large strains and therefore
60 of several aspects of engineering behaviour. The first efforts to infer ψ from the CPT were based
61 on data from calibration chamber (CC) testing supplemented by soil properties measured through
62 triaxial testing (Been et al. 1986; 1987). CCs have a height and diameter of ~ 1 m and essentially
63 allow a full-scale CPT to be performed in a laboratory environment in which soil characteristics,
64 density, and stress levels can be controlled or measured.

65

66 CC tests and the supplementary laboratory testing use soil specimens that are as uniform as
67 possible in terms of ψ as this is necessary to develop correlations with cone tip resistance. This
68 translates to CC specimens with a uniform e and a constant particle size distribution (PSD),
69 particle shape, and mineralogy to ensure a unique CSL. Techniques such as dry pluviation
70 through sieves (Huntsman, 1985) or moist tamping after homogenization (Been et al., 1987) have
71 been used to achieve the desired CC specimen uniformity. Similar approaches are used to
72 achieve uniform triaxial specimens (Ayala et al., 2022; Been & Olivera, 2016; da Fonseca et al.,
73 2021).

74

75 The framework proposed by Been et al. (1986; 1987) has been modified and expanded by
76 numerous authors. Numerical simulations of cavity expansion, used as a CPT proxy, imply that
77 the framework can be implemented without having to perform CC tests (Shuttle & Jefferies,
78 1998). However, the newer methods retain the link to CC results and the dependency on soil
79 properties measured in the laboratory e.g. (Shuttle & Cunning, 2007; Shuttle & Jefferies, 2016;

80 Jefferies et al., 2019; Shuttle et al., 2022; Mozaffari & Ghafghazi, 2024) or estimated from CPT
81 readings e.g. (Plewes et al., 1992; Jung et al., 2025).

82

83 The widespread use in tailings engineering of CPT interpretation methods that are based on the
84 Been et al. (1986; 1987) framework is reflected in the investigations of some of the most
85 prominent tailings storage facility (TSF) failures. For example, the investigations of TSF failures
86 such as Samarco (Morgenstern et al., 2016), Cadia Valley (Jefferies et al., 2019), and
87 Brumadinho (Robertson et al., 2019; CIMNE, 2021), collectively used the CPT interpretation
88 methods described in Plewes et al. (1992), Shuttle and Cuning (2007), and Shuttle and Jefferies
89 (2016). The heavy reliance on this family of methods prompts the question of the extent to which
90 tailings deposits resemble the uniform CC and triaxial specimens that underpin the methods.
91 Layered deposits complicate CPT interpretation for at least two reasons. Firstly, they constitute
92 an important deviation from the conditions used to develop the Been et al. (1986; 1987)
93 framework. And secondly, in layered deposits multiple soils simultaneously affect cone response
94 (Boulanger & DeJong, 2018; Tehrani et al., 2017). Therefore, if a CPT interpretation method
95 requires soil properties, it is not clear which of the layered soils should be tested in the
96 laboratory. No studies, to the authors' knowledge, have validated the use of homogenized sample
97 properties for CPT interpretation in layered tailings. Accordingly, it has been recommended that,
98 to avoid interference from adjacent layers, CPT interpretation should focus on layers that are
99 >0.6 m thick and have a stiffness ratio <5 between adjacent materials (Jefferies & Been, 2016).
100 For instance, Shuttle and Cuning (2007) reported CPT-based ψ estimates in a silt layer that was
101 ~8 m thick and which exhibited approximately constant values of a soil behaviour type index

102 derived from CPT readings. A unique set of soil properties was assigned to this layer, implying
103 that it was believed to be uniform.

104

105 Multiple works have incidentally or qualitatively reported tailings layering (Blight, 2010; da
106 Fonseca et al., 2020; Jacobsz & Narainsamy, 2022; Vick, 1990). However, there is limited
107 literature focusing on quantitative characterisation of such layering. For instance, Vermeulen
108 (2001) reported vertical profiles at a gold TSF that, based on colour changes, exhibited layers
109 that in some cases were only a few centimetres thick. Reid et al. (2018a) reported gradation
110 results of subaqueously deposited iron ore tailings and, based on the percentage passing the 38
111 and 75 μm sieves, found negligible signs of layering. Reid and Fanni (2022) reported results
112 from two block samples of iron ore tailings from which they extracted PSD specimens at ~ 2 cm
113 intervals. Based on the percentages passing the 38 μm sieve, they reported modest PSD
114 variations. However, it is inferred from Reid and Fanni (2022) that they made an effort to sample
115 blocks that did not exhibit layering to enable comparisons between intact and reconstituted
116 samples. Reid et al. (2022) examined block samples of gold, platinum and copper tailings. By
117 considering the percentages passing the 38 and 75 μm sieves, they concluded that the blocks
118 were layered and exhibited a wide range of gradations.

119

120 The reviewed literature suggests that while thick uniform tailings layers may exist in some TSFs,
121 thinly layered structures can also develop. However, it is not clear how prevalent such layering
122 is. Furthermore, investigations into tailings layering have described PSD curves with only one or
123 two points. The importance of layering on CPT interpretation suggests that more detailed PSD
124 descriptions are warranted. The authors were also unable to find any works that explicitly discuss

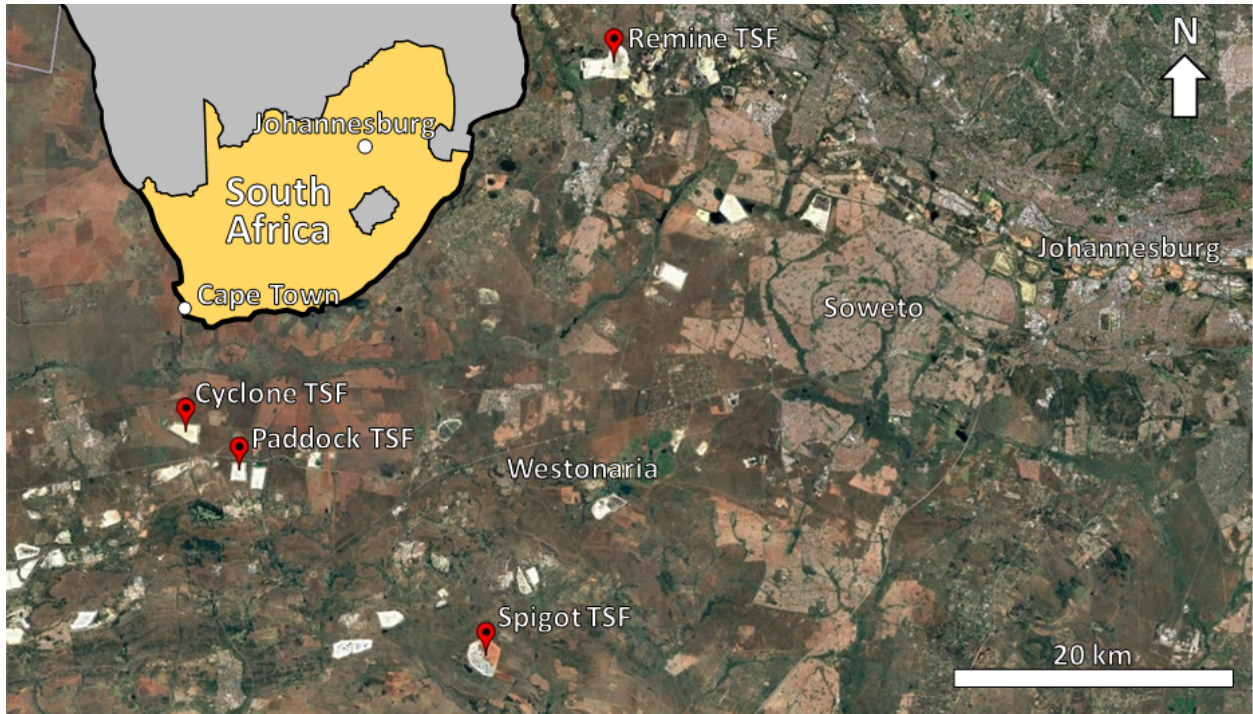
125 the implications of tailings layering on CPT interpretation. Herein, we characterise the layering
126 in high-quality samples, sometimes referred to as undisturbed samples, from three active South
127 African TSFs with varied hydraulic deposition methods. Additionally, we appraise a 3 m deep
128 vertical profile at a TSF undergoing reclamation. We discuss the implications of our results on
129 CPT interpretation.

130 2 Methodology

131 2.1 Sites investigated

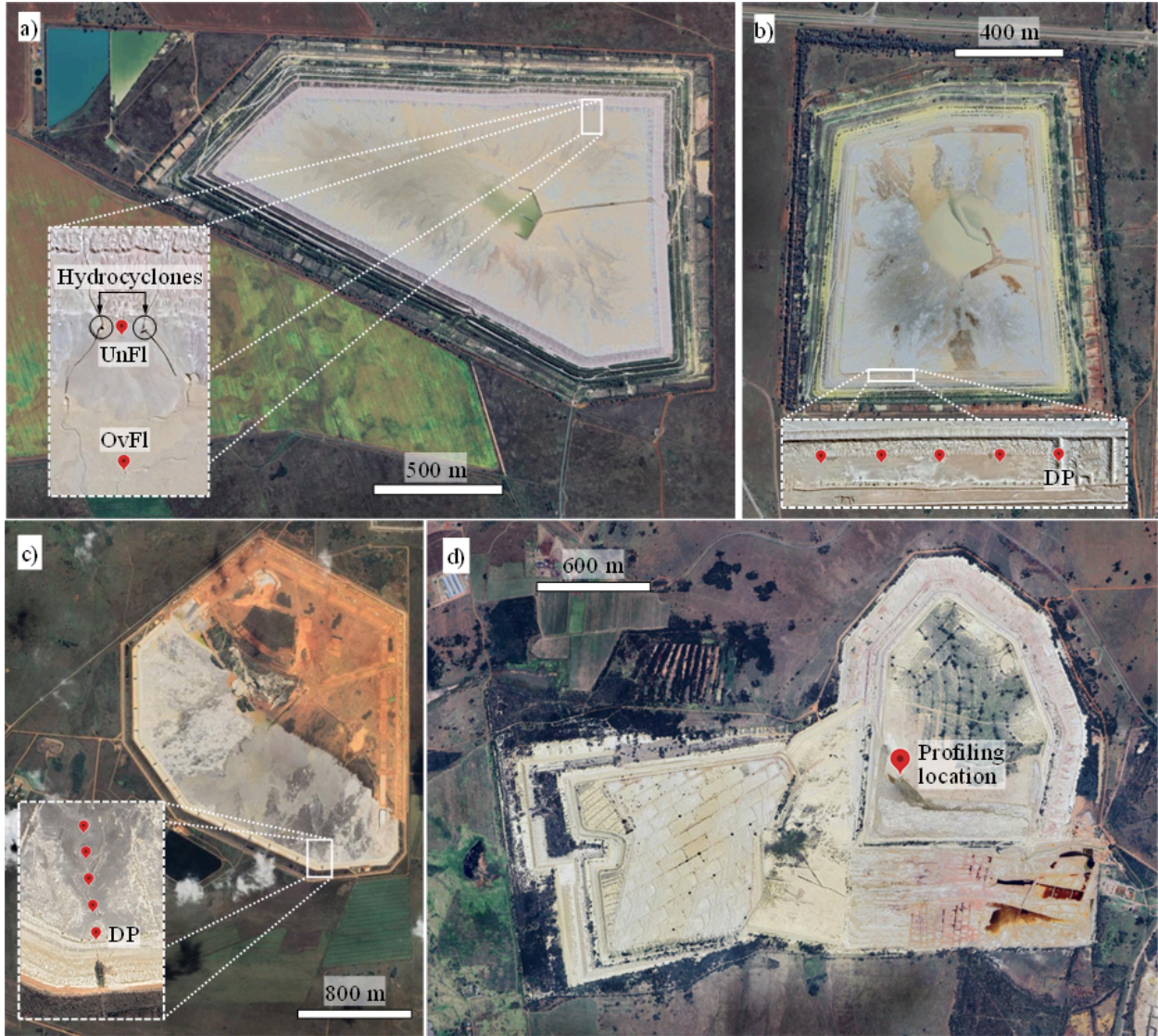
132 The fieldwork focused on gold tailings from the Witwatersrand Basin near Johannesburg, South
133 Africa. Four upstream TSFs were investigated. Surface high-quality samples that preserved the
134 in situ layering were taken from three active TSFs, while visual inspections were performed at
135 the fourth TSF. To account for different deposition methods, the three sampled TSFs were chosen
136 to represent different depositional methods: cycloning, paddocking, and spigotting. Cycloning
137 uses hydrocyclones to separate the tailings feed into a coarse fraction (underflow) and a fine
138 fraction (overflow) deposited on the outer and internal part of the TSF, respectively. Paddocking
139 involves depositing tailings in enclosed areas (the paddocks) on the outer wall of the dam during
140 the day and depositing in the internal part of the TSF at night. Spigotting uses outlets or spigots
141 connected to a main delivery pipe that runs along the perimeter of the outer wall of the TSF.
142 Detailed descriptions of these methods have been previously reported (Blight, 2010; McPhail &
143 Wagner, 1987). Hereafter, the three sampled TSFs will be referred to simply as the Cyclone TSF,
144 Paddock TSF, and Spigot TSF. The fourth investigated TSF was undergoing tailings reprocessing
145 and this allowed inspection of layering patterns along profiles that were several metres long. This

146 TSF also adopted paddocking deposition and will be referred to as the Remine TSF. Figure 1
147 shows the locations of the TSFs and Figure 2 shows their overall layout.



148

149 **Figure 1.** Location of the Cyclone, Paddock, Spigot, and Remine TSFs with respect to
150 Johannesburg, South Africa. (Source: Google Earth Pro).



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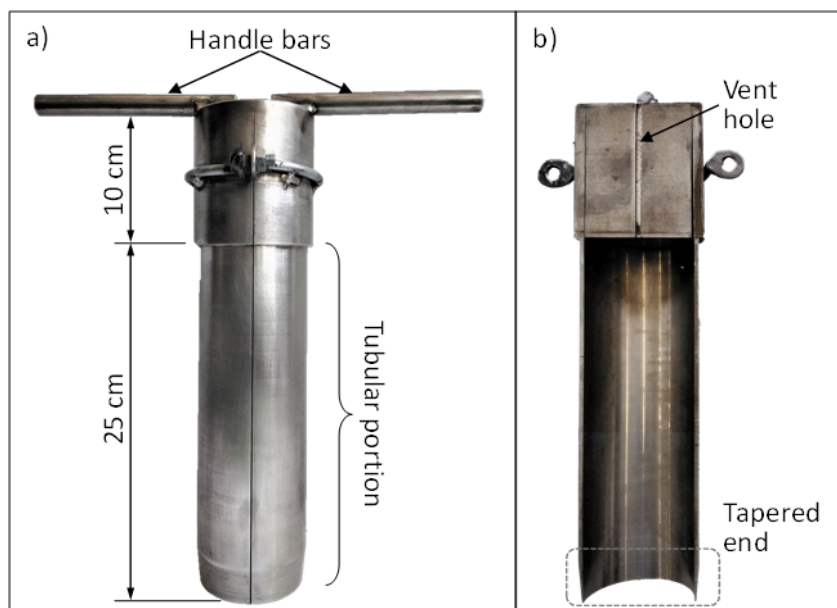
152 **Figure 2.** Satellite images of the investigated TSFs: a) Cyclone TSF; b) Paddock TSF; c) Spigot
 153 TSF; and d) Remine TSF. Notes: Insets in parts a) to c) show sampling locations. OvFl =
 154 overflow; UnFl = underflow, DP = Discharge point (not sampled). Source: Google Earth Pro.

155 2.2 Sampling and characterization of tailings

156 A stainless-steel split tube sampler (Figure 3) was manufactured to extract shallow samples that
 157 preserved any potential layering. The sampler meets the requirements of ASTM D1587-15

158 (ASTM, 2015) and is similar to a sampler previously used for gold tailings (Vermeulen, 2001).
159 The upper portion of the sampler consists of a split solid cylinder that has a 1 mm diameter vent
160 hole through its centre. The hole also enabled the insertion of a 0.75 mm rod used to check that
161 the sampler was full. The sampling tube is 250 mm long with inner and outer diameters of 75
162 and 80 mm. The lowest 25 mm of the sampling tube are tapered at 5° to facilitate sampling. The
163 tube was polished inside and out to minimise friction.

164



165

166 **Figure 3.** Tailings sampler: a) assembled and b) internal lateral view of one half.

167

168 During sampling, the entire length of the sampling tube was pushed into the tailings from surface
169 level. To minimise disturbance, the sampler was then dug out rather than pulled out.
170 Subsequently, the sampler was opened and the sample marked at 1 cm intervals to obtain 25
171 slices (Figure 4). A cutting plate was then used to slice the sample and each slice was stored in a
172 labelled, air-tight bag for transportation to the laboratory. For each sample, the slices were
173 numbered from 1 to 25 from top to bottom. To achieve a uniform slicing frequency, the slices

174 were always cut at 1 cm intervals regardless of the layer boundaries suggested by colour
175 changes. However, assuming that colour changes reflect alterations in PSD and mineralogy,
176 some layers could have been thinner than 1 cm (e.g. the lowest three centimetres of the sample in
177 Figure 4).

178

179 Ten samples, resulting in 250 slices, were collected from the locations shown in Figure 2. At the
180 Cyclone TSF, both the underflow and the overflow were sampled. And for the Paddock and
181 Spigot TSFs samples were collected at different distances from the discharge point. Table 1
182 provides additional details regarding the sampling locations and the code used to identify each
183 sample. The code is composed of the name of the TSF and an indication of the distance from the
184 discharge point or, in the case of the Cyclone TSF, of whether the sample was of the underflow
185 or overflow. Individual slices will be identified herein by adding the slice number to the code of
186 the sample. For example, slice *Cyclone UnFl (7)* is the seventh slice from top to bottom of the
187 underflow sample at the Cyclone TSF.



188

189 **Figure 4.** Sample Spigot @100 with marks at 1 cm intervals prior to being sliced.

190

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

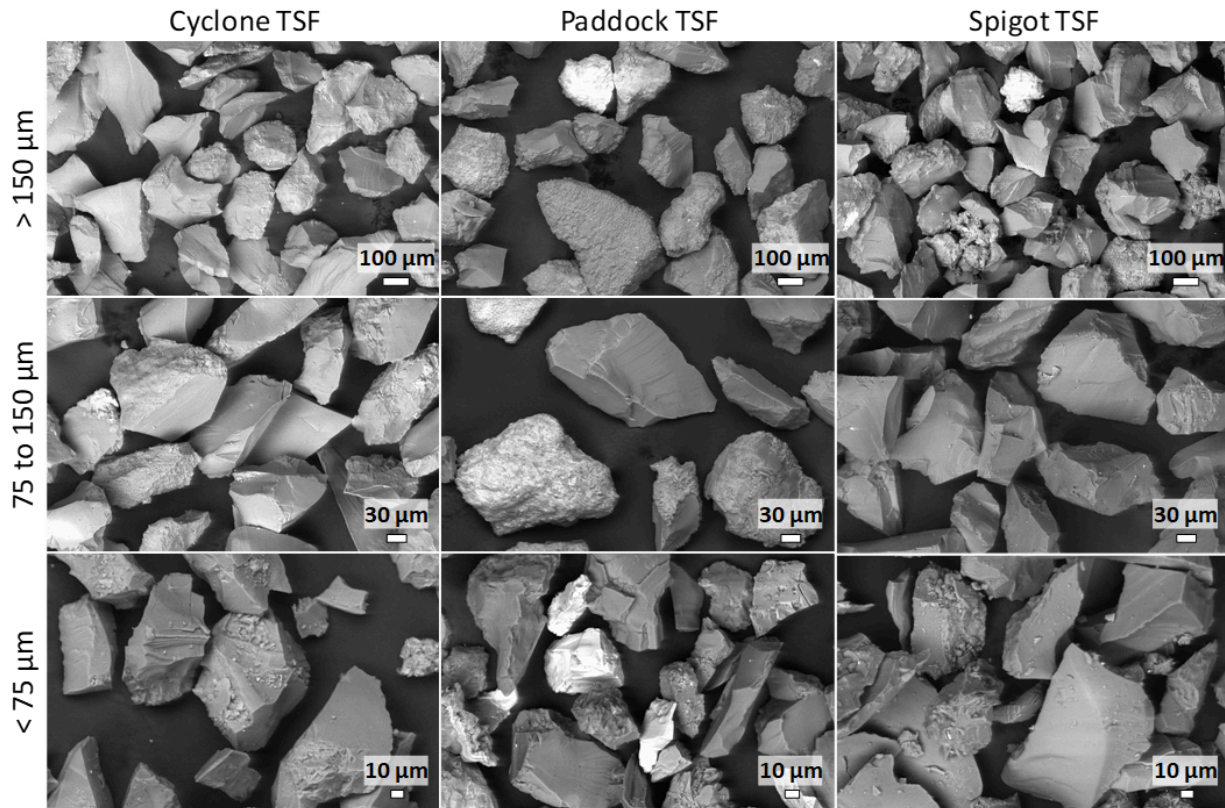
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TSF	Location	Code
Cyclone	9 m along outer wall from underflow discharge (Figure 2a).	Cyclone UnFl
	35 m towards the decant pond from overflow discharge (Figure 2a).	Cyclone OvFl
Paddock	25, 50, 75, and 100 m from discharge within the paddock (Figure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

193

194 The particle shape of the tailings from the three sampled TSFs was examined using scanning
 195 electron microscopy (SEM) on three tailings size fractions isolated by sieving (>150 µm, 75 to
 196 150 µm, and <75 µm). The particles were highly angular regardless of particle size (Figure 5),
 197 which is characteristic of tailings generated from ore crushing e.g. (Torres-Cruz & Santamarina,
 198 2020; Vermeulen, 2001).

199



200

201 **Figure 5.** Scanning electron microscopy images of the sampled tailings.

202

203 The mineralogy of one slice from each sampled TSF was analysed using X-ray diffraction. The
 204 analysed slices exhibited a PSD that was deemed representative of the respective TSF. Table 2
 205 summarises the mineralogy and shows that the tailings from all three TSFs are dominated
 206 (>55%) by quartz. This agrees with previous reports of the mineralogy of gold tailings from the
 207 Witwatersrand Basin (Chang, 2009; Vermeulen, 2001). The tailings also contained significant
 208 amounts (> 8%) of chlorite. Additionally, the Paddock TSF exhibits significant amounts (> 8%)
 209 of plagioclase, muscovite, and actinolite.

210

211 **Table 2.** Mineralogy of three sampled TSFs.

212

Mineral	Cyclone OvFl (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

213

214 The specific gravity (G_s) was measured following BS 1377:2 (BSI, 1990) for the finest and
215 coarsest slice encountered at each TSF. For the Cyclone TSF and the Paddock TSF the G_s was
216 2.70 and 2.72, respectively, for both slices. For the Spigot TSF the fine slice yielded 2.59 and the
217 coarsest 2.67. These results are consistent with the quartz-dominated mineralogy (Table 2) and
218 previous G_s values reported for gold tailings (Chang, 2009; Vermeulen, 2001).

219

220 In order to assess variability along the length of the samples, the PSD and plastic limit (PL) of
221 each slice were determined. PSD determinations were done in a laser diffraction spectroscopy
222 device (Anton Paar PSA 1090) which operates on particle sizes ranging from 0.04 to 500 μm .
223 The specimen mass required for the PSD determinations ranged between 0.9 and 1.4 g. Each
224 PSD specimen was extracted from the central portion of the top surface of each slice. The
225 dispersing agent was sodium hexametaphosphate (5 g/litre) as per ASTM D7928-21 (ASTM,
226 2021). The specimens and the dispersing solution were placed in a covered container and left
227 overnight in the temperature-controlled room that housed the laser diffraction device to ensure
228 temperature equilibrium and promote deflocculation. PL determinations followed the thread
229 rolling method of BSI 1377:2 (BSI, 1990). Additional index properties, such as the liquid limit or
230 the minimum and maximum void ratio were not determined due to the limited mass of each slice.

231 2.3 Profiling at the Remine TSF

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

236 3 Results

237 3.1 Layering characteristics in the sampled tailings

238 Figures 6 to 8 show the 25 PSDs measured on each sample collected at the Cyclone, Paddock,
239 and Spigot TSFs. At the Cyclone TSF, the range of gradations is broader for the underflow

240 sample than for the overflow sample (Figure 6). At the Paddock TSF, the samples collected 25
241 and 50 m away from the discharge point exhibited the broadest range of gradations. Whereas the
242 samples collected 75 and 100 m away from the discharge point exhibited narrower and finer
243 gradations. This is consistent with the general trend of coarser particles settling out of the slurry
244 closer to the discharge point (Blight, 2010). As for the Spigot TSF, the sample collected at 100 m
245 from the discharge point exhibited the broadest range of gradations. The four Spigot TSF
246 samples do not reveal a clear trend of PSDs getting finer as the distance from the discharge point
247 increases. This is not entirely surprising, as data from Blight (2010) suggests that in some cases it
248 is necessary to collect samples over longer distances along the beach for clear PSD trends to
249 emerge.

250

251 To contextualise our results Figures 6 to 8 include the PSD envelopes of two TSFs that failed in
252 Brazil: The Samarco TSF (Rezende, 2013) and the Córrego do Feijão TSF (Robertson et al.,
253 2019). The Samarco TSF failure is sometimes referred to by the name of the failed containment
254 structure which was the Fundão Dam. And the Córrego do Feijão TSF failure is better known by
255 the name of the nearby town, Brumadinho. The PSD envelope for Fundão is based on 26 samples
256 of which 18 correspond to the tailings slurry as it leaves the concentration plant, and 8
257 correspond to samples taken over a 110 m distance that stretched from the dam crest into the
258 tailings beach (Rezende, 2013). The PSD range for the Brumadinho TSF is based on 20 samples
259 described as coarse, fine, or berm fill tailings in Robertson et al. (2019). The samples from both
260 TSFs aimed at characterizing the different types of impounded tailings.

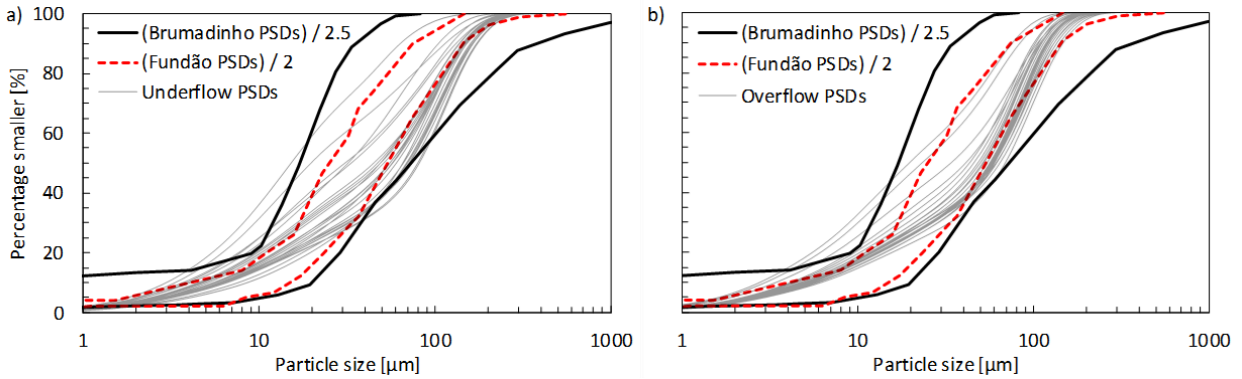
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262 The PSD envelopes of the Fundão and Brumadinho PSDs are generally coarser than the PSDs
263 measured in our ten samples. Accordingly, to facilitate comparison, the reference envelopes were
264 shifted to the left by dividing all the particle sizes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

267

268 Figures 6 to 8 show that the range of PSDs in a single 25 cm sample is often comparable, and
269 sometimes even larger, than the PSD envelopes inferred from samples collected from different
270 parts of a TSF. This is particularly true when comparing the sample PSDs to the Fundão PSD
271 envelopes which are narrower than those at Brumadinho. However, even the wider range of the
272 Brumadinho PSDs is similar to the PSD variability of some samples (Figure 7a, b and Figure
273 8d). It seems likely that if the PSD samples at Brumadinho and Fundão had been subjected to the
274 detailed slicing adopted herein, their PSD envelopes would have been wider. Notwithstanding,
275 Figures 6 to 8 suggest that the PSD variability that occurs along a small 25 cm sample is not
276 merely a minor deviation from a central trend, but rather a variability that is comparable to that
277 observed across an entire TSF.

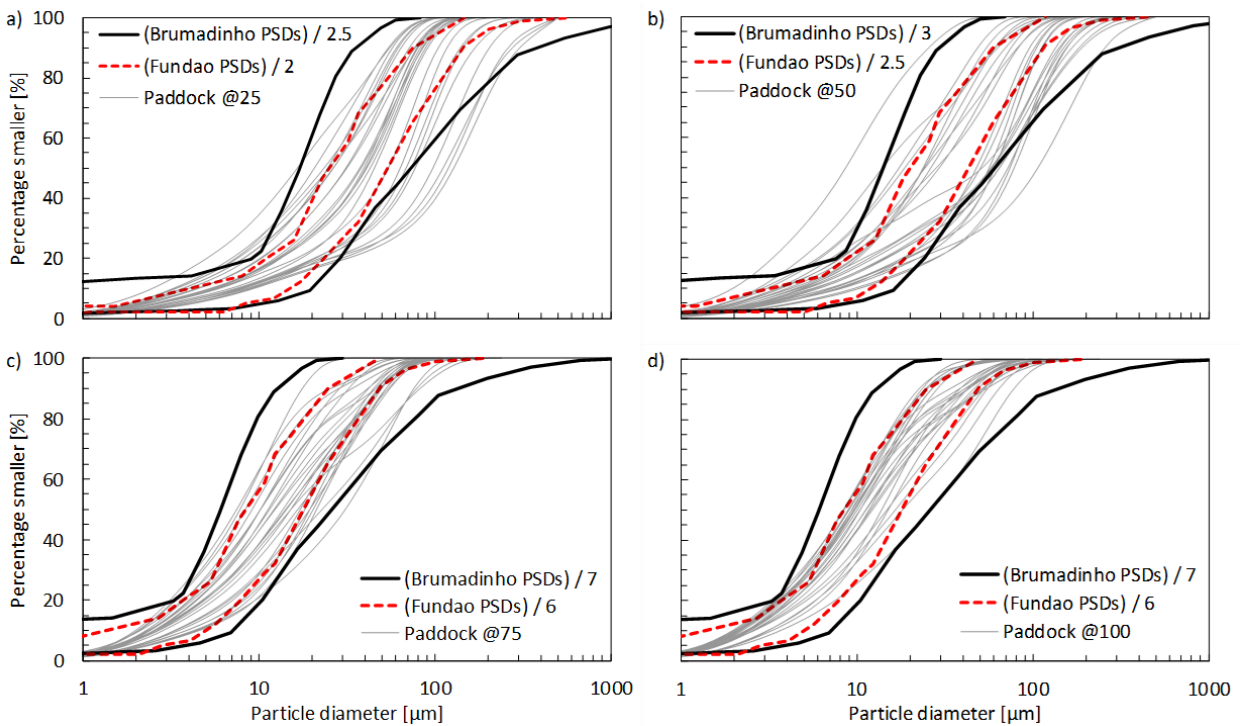
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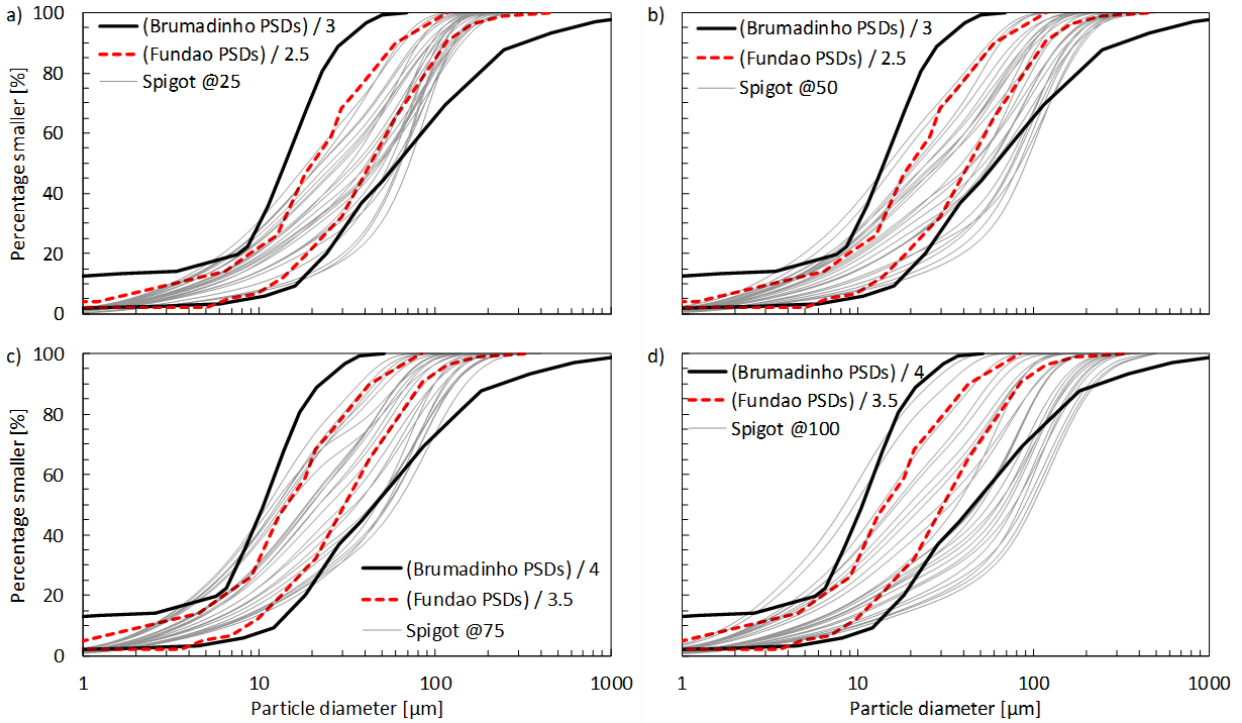
280 **Figure 6.** Range of PSDs in the samples a) Cyclone UnFl and b) Cyclone OvFl. Note: Laterally
 281 shifted PSD envelopes shown for Fundão (Rezende, 2013) and Brumadinho (Robertson et al.,
 282 2019).

283



284

285 **Figure 7.** Range of PSDs in the samples a) Paddock @25, b) Paddock @50, c) Paddock @75,
 286 and d) Paddock @100. Note: Laterally shifted PSD envelopes shown for Fundão (Rezende,
 287 2013) and Brumadinho (Robertson et al., 2019).



288

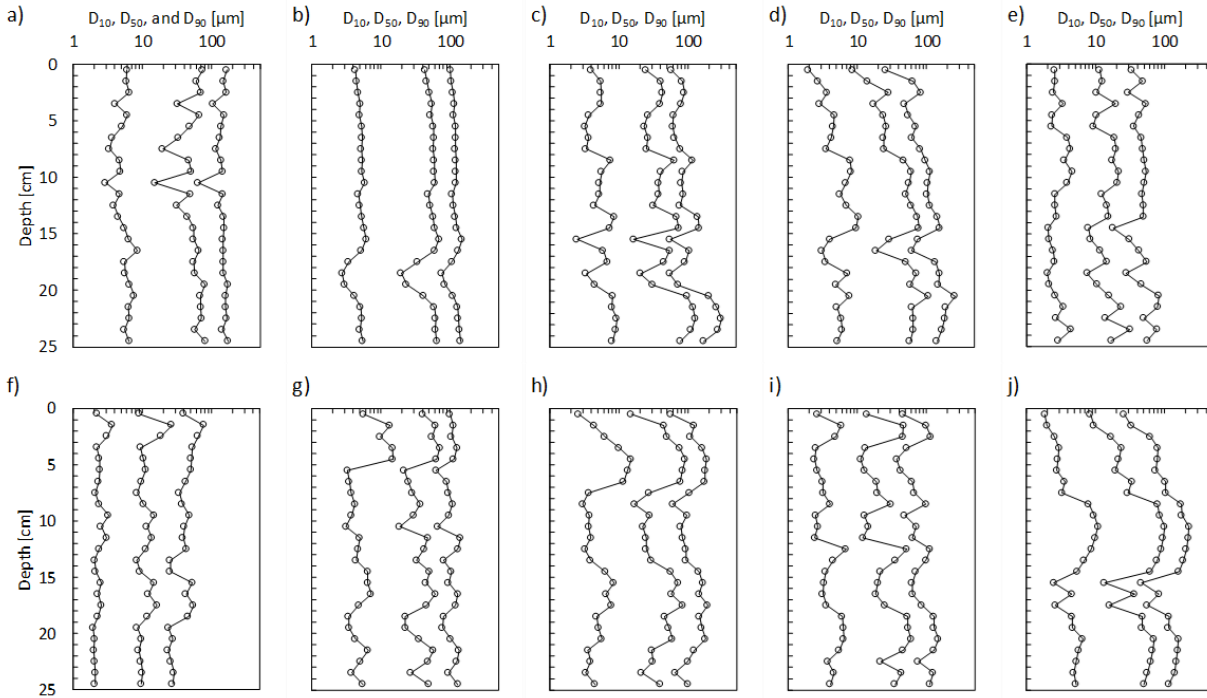
289 **Figure 8.** Range of PSDs in the samples a) Spigot @25, b) Spigot @50, c) Spigot @75, and d)
 290 Spigot @100. Note: Laterally shifted PSD envelopes shown for Fundão (Rezende, 2013) and
 291 Brumadinho (Robertson et al., 2019).

292

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

297

298



299

300 **Figure 9.** Profiles of D_{10} , D_{50} , and D_{90} of samples a) Cyclone UnFl, b) Cyclone OvFl, c) Paddock
 301 @25, d) Paddock @50, e) Paddock @75, f) Paddock @100, g) Spigot @25, h) Spigot @50, i)
 302 Spigot @75, and j) Spigot @100.

303

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

309

310 **Table 3.** Plastic limit results.

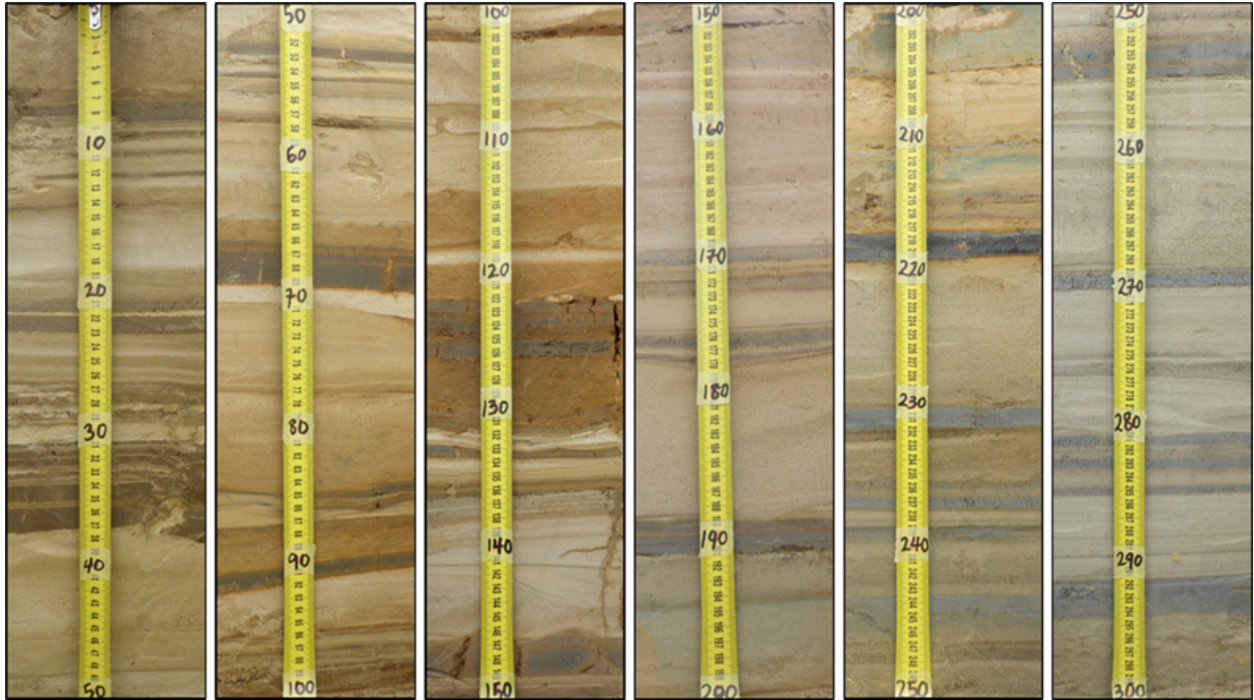
311

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

312 3.2 Layering in the exposed profile of the Remine TSF

313 Figure 10 shows photographs of the 3 m profile exposed at the Remine TSF. Assuming that
314 changes in colour reflect changes in mineralogy or PSD, the thinly layered nature of the tailings
315 deposit is evident. Several portions exhibit layers that are only a few millimetres thick (e.g.,
316 between 20 and 40 cm, 130 and 140 cm, and 170 and 180 cm). Overall, the figure suggests that
317 uniform layers at the Remine TSF are unlikely to exceed thicknesses of 10 cm.

318



319

320 **Figure 10.** Photographs of the 3 m deep profile at the Remine TSF. Note: Measuring tape shows
321 centimetres.

322 4 Discussion

323 PSD analyses of ten 25 cm tube samples and colour changes in a 3 m profile at Remine TSF
324 reveal the thinly layered nature of hydraulically deposited gold tailings, consistent with other
325 gold TSFs (Vermeulen, 2001) and tailings from other commodities (Reid et al., 2022). This PSD
326 variability, often underexplored quantitatively, constitutes a significant deviation from the
327 uniform CC and triaxial specimens that underpin the CPT interpretation methods based on the
328 Been et al. (1986; 1987) framework and which include some of the most widely-used methods in
329 TSFs e.g.(Jefferies et al., 2019; Jung et al., 2025; Plewes et al., 1992; Mozaffari & Ghafghazi,
330 2024; Shuttle & Cunning, 2007; Shuttle & Jefferies, 1998; Shuttle & Jefferies, 2016; Shuttle et
331 al., 2022).

332

333 Furthermore, some of these methods require soil properties such as the slope of the CSL in
334 $e\text{-log}p'$ space (λ), dilation properties, plastic parameters, and elastic parameters e.g. (Ayala et al.,
335 2022; Robertson et al., 2019; Shuttle et al., 2022). While PSD may not significantly affect soil
336 properties in some cases (Robertson et al., 2019), it generally affects at least the CSL slope λ and
337 the state-dilatancy property X_c (Jefferies & Been, 2016; Torres-Cruz, 2021). Accordingly, current
338 best practice is to assume that different PSDs yield different properties that have to be
339 determined by laboratory testing (Jefferies & Been, 2016). Characterizing multiple PSDs, as
340 done in the Cadia Valley and Brumadinho investigations (Jefferies et al., 2019; Robertson et al.,
341 2019), is consistent with the presence of varied soils within a single TSF. However, this does not
342 solve the challenge posed by thinly layered deposits in which several soils simultaneously affect
343 the CPT response, making it unclear which soil properties should be used for CPT interpretation.
344 That is, the practicing engineer is left unsure about which tailings gradation should be sent to the
345 laboratory for detailed laboratory testing or if a homogenized sample will yield adequate results.
346 And although ψ variations were not explored herein, it is also possible for ψ to vary across
347 layers, constituting a further deviation from the uniform CC and triaxial specimens.

348

349 Thin layering also raises a fundamental question regarding how to validate CPT-based ψ
350 estimates because changes in PSD can affect the height of the CSL in $e\text{-log}p'$ space
351 (Thevanayagam et al., 2002; Torres-Cruz, 2019). Accordingly, if an undisturbed layered sample
352 is obtained to confirm a CPT-based ψ estimate, it is not clear which is the CSL that should be
353 used to compare against the overall void ratio of the sample (e.g. Jefferies et al., 2019). Given the

354 catastrophic consequences of TSF failures, the geotechnical community has to carefully consider
355 how to validate estimates of ψ or of any other engineering-related parameter.

356

357 Of the multiple CPT interpretation methods based on the Been et al. (1986; 1987) framework,
358 the "widget" method developed by Shuttle and Cunning (2007), Shuttle and Jefferies (2016),
359 Jefferies et al. (2019), and Shuttle et al. (2022) appears to be the most highly regarded one in the
360 tailings industry. The method is anchored on critical state soil mechanics (CSSM) and was used
361 to investigate the failures at Brumadinho and Cadia Valley (CIMNE, 2021; Jefferies et al., 2019;
362 Robertson et al., 2019). Notwithstanding, a recent comparison between ψ as measured in
363 high-quality samples and ψ as inferred from the widget method concluded that the validation of
364 the method remains unresolved (Fourie et al., 2022). To the authors' knowledge, there is still no
365 evidence that the widget method consistently yields correct ψ values in tailings deposits. It has
366 been suggested that the discrepancy could be due to the fact that the CC testing that underpins
367 the widget method includes predominantly dilatant sands unlike the contractive soils that are of
368 greatest geotechnical interest (Ayala et al., 2022). Our results suggest that thin layering of
369 tailings could also contribute to the discrepancy.

370

371 The stark differences between the thin layering of TSFs and the uniform specimens that support
372 the CPT interpretation methods based on Been et al. (1986; 1987) raise questions about the
373 applicability of these methods to TSFs. At the very least, awareness of these differences should
374 lead to caution when interpreting the results of these methods. However, this issue has been
375 largely unaddressed in the literature. It seems possible that the theoretical framework of CSSM
376 coupled with the often-complex nature of the numerical methods used in its implementation may

377 lead to overestimations of the accuracy of these methods despite the strong mismatch between
378 their assumptions and reality.

379

380 Considering the significant laboratory testing effort involved in obtaining precise CSSM
381 parameters of uniform specimens that may only be common in soil laboratories, tailings
382 engineers should consider whether more value could be gained from characterizing high-quality
383 specimens that preserve the in situ thin layering. The latter approach also has limitations because
384 sampling, especially of nonplastic soils, is likely to result in disturbance. Additionally, TSF
385 heterogeneity implies that differences between undisturbed specimens are likely to be larger than
386 differences between reconstituted specimens, making it impossible to precisely characterize a
387 specific “type” of tailings. Notwithstanding, the literature shows that high-quality specimens can
388 play an important role in understanding tailings behaviour. For instance, the investigation of the
389 1998 Aznalcóllar TSF failure relied on high-quality tailings specimens to characterise strength
390 and deformation properties (Alonso & Gens, 2006). High-quality tailings specimens have also
391 been used in monotonic direct simple shear testing to characterise the peak undrained strength
392 ratio induced by desiccation (Reid et al. 2018b, c). Similarly, an investigation into the
393 Brumadinho TSF failure used high-quality specimens to estimate in situ physical, hydraulic, and
394 geomechanical parameters (da Fonseca et al., 2020).

395

396 While it was noted above that several soil properties depend on PSD and are therefore likely to
397 vary within a layered specimen, this is not the case with all properties. For instance, the critical
398 state friction ratio measured under triaxial compression conditions (M_{tc}) remains virtually
399 constant despite strong changes in PSD. This appears to be due to the strong dependence of M_{tc}

400 on particle shape (Sadrekarimi and Olson, 2011) which in crushed-ore tailings remains highly
401 angular over most particle sizes (Figure 5; Torres-Cruz & Santamarina, 2020; Vermeulen, 2001).
402 We hypothesise that properties that show limited dependence on PSD constitute good candidates
403 to aid the robust characterisation of layered tailings specimens.

404 5 Conclusions

405 Current tailings engineering practice emphasises the inference of the state parameter ψ from CPT
406 results which are often supplemented by laboratory testing. The quest for ψ is understandable as
407 it informs whether tailings are contractive or dilative (Been & Jefferies, 1985). However, several
408 widely used CPT interpretation methods are based on CC and triaxial testing of uniform
409 specimens. This raises the question of whether tailings deposits resemble these uniform
410 specimens.

411

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

421

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

429

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

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