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## Appendix A Mineral Chemistry of the Elements of Interest

### A.1 Chemical Properties of Reference Materials of the Elements of Interest

Table A1 Chemical properties of eight As reference materials used in this work, including solubility constants ( $K_{sp}$ ) at 25 °C.

Formula	Name	Crystal system	$E_0$ (eV)*	Oxidation State	Coordination	$K_{sp}$
As	arsenic	na	11866.0	0	NA	na
As <sub>4</sub> S <sub>4</sub>	realgar	monoclinic [4]	11866.3	+3	T [4]	na
As <sub>2</sub> S <sub>3</sub>	orpiment	monoclinic [11]	11867.9	+3	TPM [11]	$1.4 \times 10^{-28}$ [22]
NaAsO <sub>2</sub>	sodium arsenite	na	11869.7	+3	TP	na
As <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	claudetite	cubic [28]	11869.8	+3	TP [28]	$7.4 \times 10^{-3}$ (17 g/100 ml) [16]
Ca <sub>3</sub> (AsO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>	calcium arsenate	monoclinic [40]	11873.7	+5	T [40]	$1.0 \times 10^{-5.56}$ [50]
Zn <sub>2</sub> AsO <sub>4</sub> (OH)	adamite	orthorhombic [1]	11873.7	+5	T [1]	$2.8 \times 10^{-28.00}$ [59]
As <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	arsenic (V) oxide	orthorhombic [60]	11873.8	+5	T&O [60]	8.2 (65.8 g/100 ml) [16]

\*:  $E_0$  is the energy value of the first peak of the first derivative of the experimental As K-edge XAS spectra;

$K_{sp}$  and molar solubility (with a unit of M or mol/L) are under air pressure and room temperature;

'TPM' represents trigonal pyramidal; 'TP' represents trigonal planar; 'T' refers to tetrahedron; 'O' stands for octahedron;

'Cal' means that the value was calculated using  $K_{sp}$ ;

'NA': not available.

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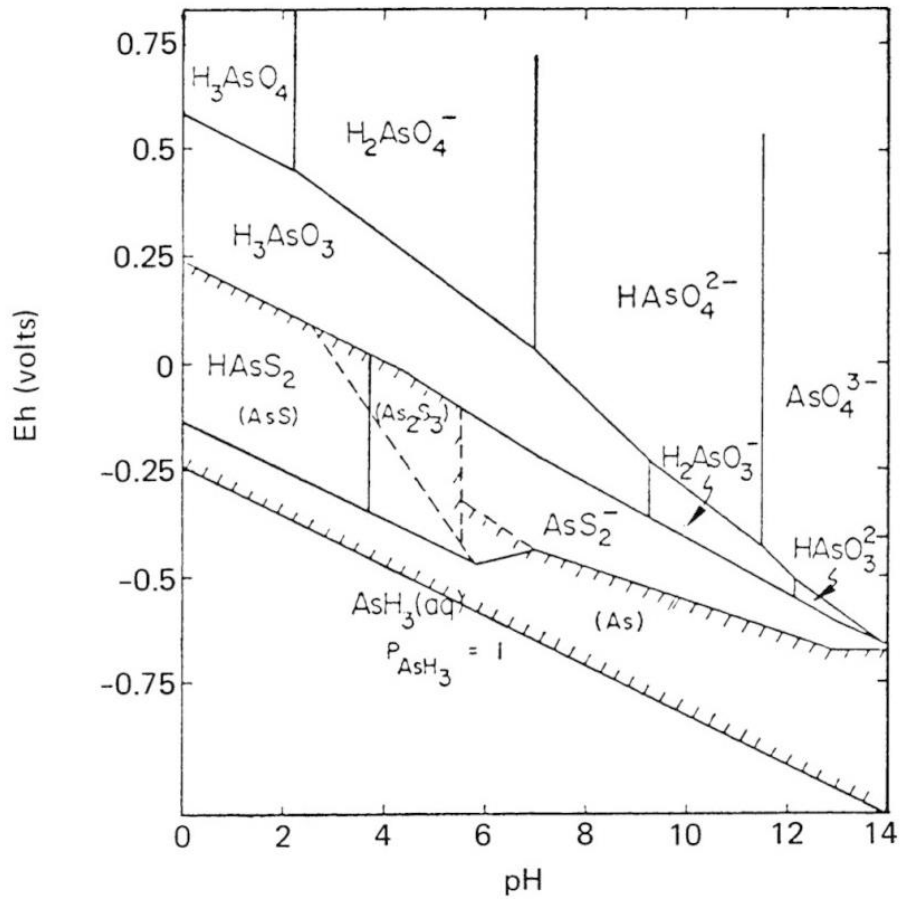


Figure A1 The Eh-pH diagram for arsenic at 25° C and 1 atm [16].

Table A4 Chemical properties of ten Cr reference materials used in this work, including solubility constants ( $K_{sp}$ ) at 25 °C.

Formula	Name	Crystal System	$E_0$ (eV)*	Oxidation State	Coordination type	$K_{sp}$
Cr	chromium	na	5989.0	0	NA	na
Cr <sub>2</sub> S <sub>3</sub>	chromium (III) sulfide	rhombohedral [5]	5995.8	3	O [5]	na
Cr <sub>2</sub> (SO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> ·xH <sub>2</sub> O	chromium (III) sulfate hydrates	rhombohedral [12]	6002.0	3	O [12]	na
Cr(OH) <sub>3</sub>	chromium (III) hydroxide	na	6002.0	3	O	$6.3 \times 10^{-31}$ [17]
FeCr <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	Iron chromite	cubic [29]	6002.0	3	O [29]	na
Cr <sub>0.3</sub> Fe <sub>0.7</sub>	na	na	6003.0	3	O	na
Cr <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	chromium (III) oxide	trigonal [36]	6003.4	3	O [36]	na
Cr(NO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>3</sub>	chromium (III) nitrate	na	6003.6	3	O	na
Na <sub>2</sub> CrO <sub>4</sub>	sodium chromate	orthorhombic [49]	6005.5	6	T [49]	$1.0 \times 10^{-3.26}$ [8]
CrO <sub>3</sub>	chromium (VI) trioxide	orthorhombic [57]	6005.6	6	T[57]	na

\*:  $E_0$  is the energy value of the first peak of the first derivative of the experimental Cr K-edge XAS spectra;  $K_{sp}$  and molar solubility (with a unit of M or mol/L) are under air pressure and room temperature. 'T' refers to tetrahedron; 'O' stands for octahedron; 'Cal' means that the value was calculated using  $K_{sp}$ ;

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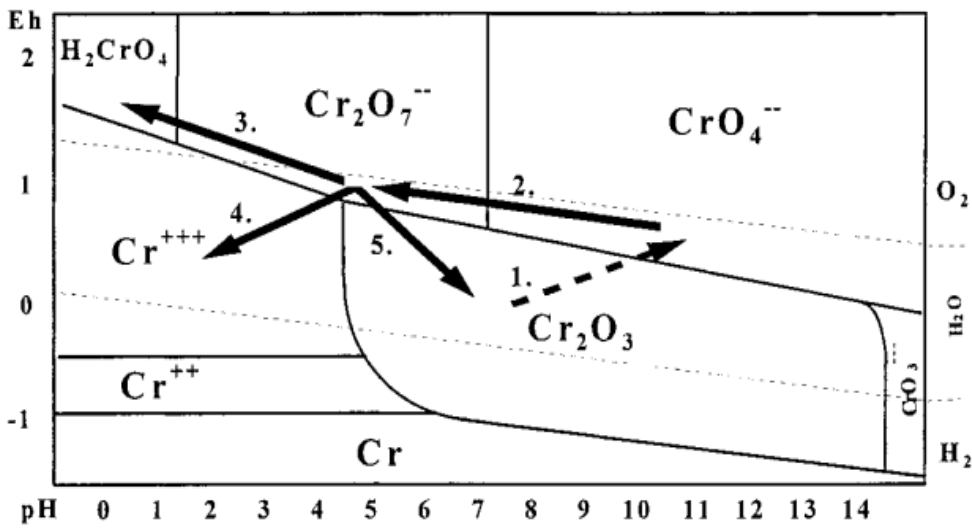
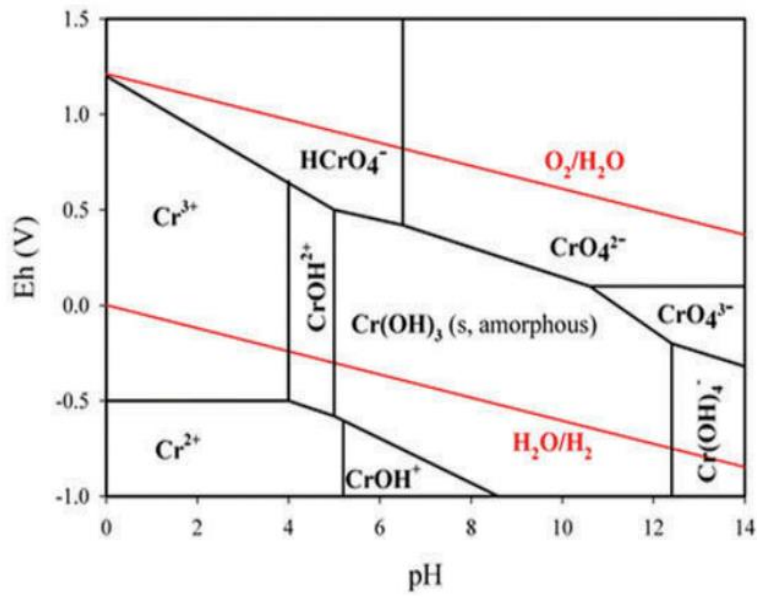


Figure A2 The Eh–pH diagram of chromium at 25° C and 1 atm [17, 18].

Table A5 Chemical properties of thirteen Cu reference materials used in this work, including solubility constants ( $K_{sp}$ ) at 25 °C.

Formula	Name	Crystal system	$E_0$ (eV)*	Oxidation State	Coordination type	$K_{sp}$
Cu	copper	na	8979.0	0	na	na
Cu <sub>2</sub> S	chalcocite	monoclinic [6]	8981.1	+1	TP [6]	$2.5 \times 10^{-49}$ [8]
CuS	covellite	hexagonal [15]	8981.6	+1&2	TP&T (1:2) [15]	$5.4 \times 10^{-37}$ [8]
na	Corning glass B	na	8981.6	+1&2	na	na
CuFeS <sub>2</sub>	chalcopyrite	na	8982.1	+2	na	na
CuO	tenorite	monoclinic [27]	8983.6	+2	SP4 [27]	$1.6 \times 10^{-20}$ [8]
CuO/SiO <sub>2</sub>	na	na	8985.0	+2	T	na
Cu(OH) <sub>2</sub>	spertiniite	orthorhombic [37]	8985.6	+2	SP5 [37]	$4.6 \times 10^{-20}$ [8]
CuCO <sub>3</sub> ·Cu(OH) <sub>2</sub>	malachite	monoclinic [51]	8986.2	+2	SP4&O (1:1) [51]	$6.9 \times 10^{-34}$ [8]
Cu <sub>3</sub> (PO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>	copper phosphate	triclinic [58]	8986.2	+2	SP4&TB (1:1) [58]	$1.4 \times 10^{-37}$ [8]
Cu <sub>2</sub> Cl(OH) <sub>3</sub>	atacamite	orthorhombic [62]	8986.2	+2	SP4&O (1:1) [62]	$2.3 \times 10^{-35}$ [8]
Cu <sub>2</sub> Al <sub>2</sub> H <sub>2</sub> Si <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub> (OH) <sub>4</sub> ·nH <sub>2</sub> O	chrysocolla	na	8986.2	+2	SP5	na
CuSO <sub>4</sub> ·5H <sub>2</sub> O	chalcantite	triclinic [64]	8987.8	+2	O [64]	$2.3 \times 10^{-3}$ [8]

\*:  $E_0$  is the energy value of the first peak of the first derivative of the experimental Cu K-edge XAS spectra;  $K_{sp}$  and molar solubility (with a unit of M or mol/L) are under air pressure and room temperature; 'TP' represents trigonal planar (3 bonds); 'SP4' stands for 'square planar' (4 bonds); 'T' refers to tetrahedron (4 bonds); 'SP5' refers to square pyramidal (5 bonds); 'TB' refers to trigonal bipyramidal (5 bonds); 'O' stands for octahedron (6 bonds); 'Cal' means that the value was calculated using  $K_{sp}$ ; 'na': not available.

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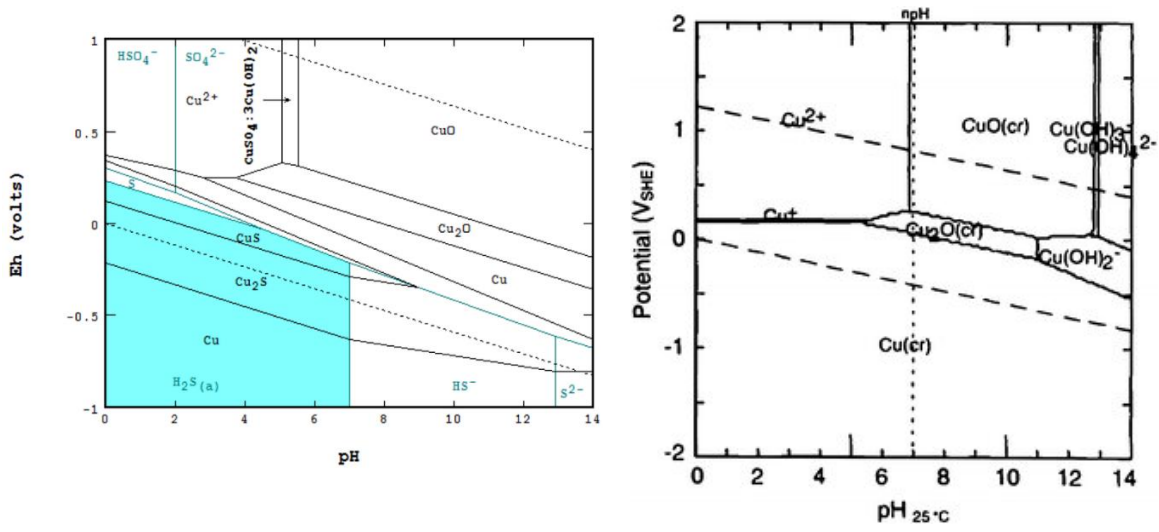


Figure A3 The Eh-PH diagram for Cu(main)-S (ligand) (left) at 25°C and 1 atm [21]; Cu-H<sub>2</sub>O system (right) at 25°C and 1 atm [25].

Table A6 Chemical properties of nine Ni reference materials used in this work, including solubility constants ( $K_{sp}$ ) at 25 °C.

Formula	Name	Crystal system	$E_0$ (eV)*	$K_{sp}$
NiS	Millerite	Trigonal [2]	8336.6	$9.3 \times 10^{-23}$ [8]
NiO	Bunsenite	cubic [9]	8345.2	na
NiCl <sub>2</sub>	Nickel chloride	na	8345.3	na
Ni <sub>3</sub> (PO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>	Nickel phosphate	monoclinic [20]	8345.7	$4.74 \times 10^{-32}$ [17]
Ni <sub>3</sub> (PO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> ·nH <sub>2</sub> O	Nickel phosphate	monoclinic [20]	8345.7	$4.74 \times 10^{-32}$ [17]
NiCO <sub>3</sub> ·3Ni(OH) <sub>2</sub> ·4H <sub>2</sub> O	Basic nickel carbonate	na	8345.8	$1.6 \times 10^{-46}$ [39]
NiSO <sub>4</sub> ·6H <sub>2</sub> O	Retgersite	Tetragonal [43]	8346.8	na
NiSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O	Nickel sulfate heptahydrate	Orthorhombic [45]	8346.9	na
Ni(OH) <sub>2</sub>	Nickel hydroxides	Hexagonal [52]	8347.3	$6.6 \times 10^{-18}$ [8]

All Ni compounds listed above have a coordination number of six except for NiS with a coordination number of five, and they all have an oxidation state of +2.

\*:  $E_0$  is the energy value of the first peak of the first derivative of the experimental Ni K-edge XAS spectra.

\*\*: the concentration of Ni for basic nickel carbonate was calculated based on the formula of NiCO<sub>3</sub>·2Ni(OH)<sub>2</sub>·3H<sub>2</sub>O rather than NiCO<sub>3</sub>·3Ni(OH)<sub>2</sub>·4H<sub>2</sub>O;

$K_{sp}$  and molar solubility (with a unit of M or mol/L) are under air pressure and room temperature;

'Cal' means that the value was calculated using  $K_{sp}$ ;

'na': not available;

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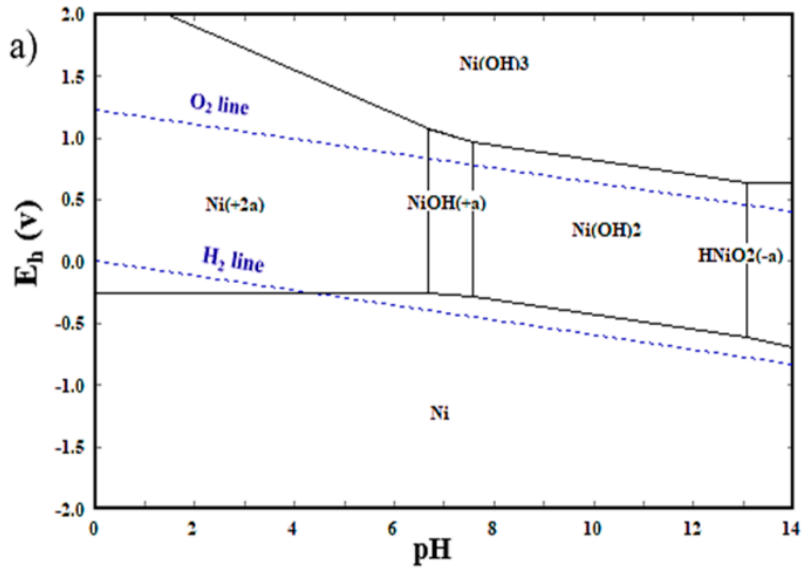


Figure A4 The Eh-PH diagram for Ni at 25°C and 1 atm [30].



Table A7 Chemical properties of twelve Pb reference materials used in this work, including solubility constants ( $K_{sp}$ ) at 25 °C.

Formula	Name	Crystal system	$E_0$ (eV)*	Coordination type	$K_{sp}$
Pb	lead	na	13035.0	na	na
PbS	galena	na	13036.0	na	na
PbCl <sub>2</sub>	lead chlorides	na	13036.0	na	na
na	Corning glass B	na	13036.0	na	na
na	Corning glass C	na	13036.0	na	na
PbO	litharge	tetragonal [7]	13036.9	Square pyramid [7]	na
PbO/SiO <sub>2</sub>	Pb adsorbed on SiO <sub>2</sub>	na	13036.9	4	na
Pb <sub>5</sub> (AsO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> Cl	mimetite	hexagonal [14]	13036.9	8&9 [14]	4.3 x 10 <sup>-84</sup> [23]
Pb <sub>5</sub> (PO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> Cl	pyromorphite	hexagonal	13036.9	8&9	2.5 x 10 <sup>-84</sup> [23]
Pb <sub>5</sub> (PO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> OH	hydroxypyromorphite	hexagonal	NA	8&9	1.0 x 10 <sup>-73</sup> -1.0 x 10 <sup>-70</sup> [23]
PbCO <sub>3</sub>	cerussite	orthorhombic [33]	13037.8	9 [33]	7.4 x 10 <sup>-14</sup> [8]
PbSO <sub>4</sub>	anglesite	orthorhombic [46]	13037.8	12 [46]	1.6 x 10 <sup>-8</sup> [8]
PbCO <sub>3</sub> ·Pb(OH) <sub>2</sub>	lead basic carbonate	trigonal [55]	13037.9	3&7 (1:2) [55]	na

All Ni compounds listed above have an oxidation state of +2 except for metallic lead (0);

\*NA: not available;

\*:  $E_0$  is the energy value of the first peak of the first derivative of the experimental Pb K-edge XAS spectra; NA refers to not available.

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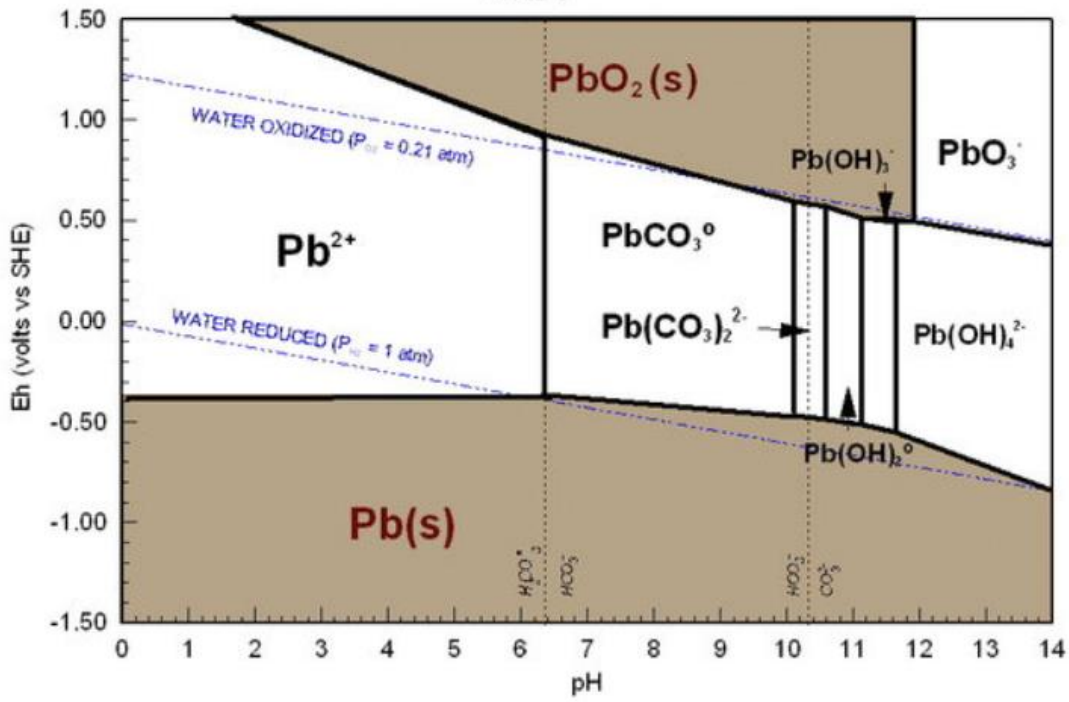


Figure A5 The Eh-pH diagram for Pb species activities of 0.015 mg/L and DIC = 10 mg/L as C, at 25° C and 1 atm lead [34].

Table A8 Chemical properties of twenty-three Zn reference materials used in this work, including solubility constants (K<sub>sp</sub>) at 25 °C

Formula	Name	Crystal system	E <sub>0</sub> (eV)*	Coordination type	K <sub>sp</sub>
Zn	zinc	fcc	9659.00	NA	NA
ZnO/SiO <sub>2</sub>	NA	NA	9661.31	NA	NA
ZnS	sphalerite	cubic[3]	9661.63	T [3]	1.0×10 <sup>-23</sup>
ZnO	zincite	hexagonal[13]	9661.96	T [13]	1.0×10 <sup>-16.4</sup> [24]
ε-Zn(OH) <sub>2</sub>	wulfingite	NA	9662.29	T	1.0×10 <sup>-16.9</sup> [26, 32]
ZnAl <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	gahnite	cubic[35]	9662.94	T [35]	NA
Zn <sub>4</sub> Si <sub>2</sub> O <sub>7</sub> (OH) <sub>2</sub> ·H <sub>2</sub> O	hemimorphite	orthorhombic <sup>[47]</sup>	9662.94	T <sup>[47]</sup>	1.0×10 <sup>-30.6</sup> [53]
NA	IR-Xglass	NA	9662.94	NA	NA
NA	Glass 2.6	NA	9662.94	T	NA
α-Zn <sub>2</sub> SiO <sub>4</sub>	willemite	trigonal	9662.95	T	NA
ZnCl <sub>2</sub>	NA	NA	9662.94	NA	NA
Zn <sub>2</sub> AsO <sub>4</sub> OH·H <sub>2</sub> O	legrandite	orthorhombic <sup>[1]</sup>	9663.23	TB&O [1]	NA
2ZnCO <sub>3</sub> ·3Zn(OH) <sub>2</sub>	hydrozincite	monoclinic <sup>[61]</sup>	9663.27	T&O (2:3) [61]	1.0×10 <sup>-14.9</sup> [26]
ZnFe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	franklinite	cubic[63]	9663.31	T [63]	NA
Nano ZnFe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	nano franklinite	cubic[65]	9663.44 [65]	T&O [65]	NA
α-Zn <sub>3</sub> (PO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>	α-Zinc orthophosphate	monoclinic[67]	9663.60	T [67]	NA

Continued to previous page

Zn <sub>2</sub> AsO <sub>4</sub> OH	adamite	orthorhombic <sup>[1]</sup>	9663.60	TB&O [1]	NA
Ca <sub>2</sub> ZnSi <sub>2</sub> O <sub>7</sub>	hardystonite	tetragonal[10]	9663.70[19]	T [10]	NA
ZnSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O	goslarite	orthorhombic	9664.26	O	1.0×10 <sup>2.3</sup> [26]
ZnSO <sub>4</sub> ·H <sub>2</sub> O	gunningite	monoclinic[31]	9664.59	O [31]	1.0×10 <sup>2.3</sup>
ZnCO <sub>3</sub>	smithsonite	trigonal	9665.26	O	1.5×10 <sup>-10.0</sup> [41]
β-Zn <sub>3</sub> (PO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>	β-Zinc orthophosphate	monoclinic[42]	NA	T&TB (1:2) [42]	NA
γ-Zn <sub>3</sub> (PO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>	γ-Zinc orthophosphate	monoclinic[48]	NA	T&O (2:1) [48]	1.0×10 <sup>-34.0</sup> [54]

All Zn compounds listed above have an oxidation state of +2 except for metallic Zn (0);

\*: E<sub>0</sub> is the energy value of the first peak of the first derivative of the experimental Zn K-edge XAS spectra;

K<sub>sp</sub> and molar solubility (with a unit of M or mol/L) are under air pressure and room temperature;

'T' refers to tetrahedron; 'O' stands for octahedron; 'TB' means trigonal bipyramid;

'Cal' means that the value was calculated using K<sub>sp</sub>;

9662.94

'NA': not available.

Appendix A

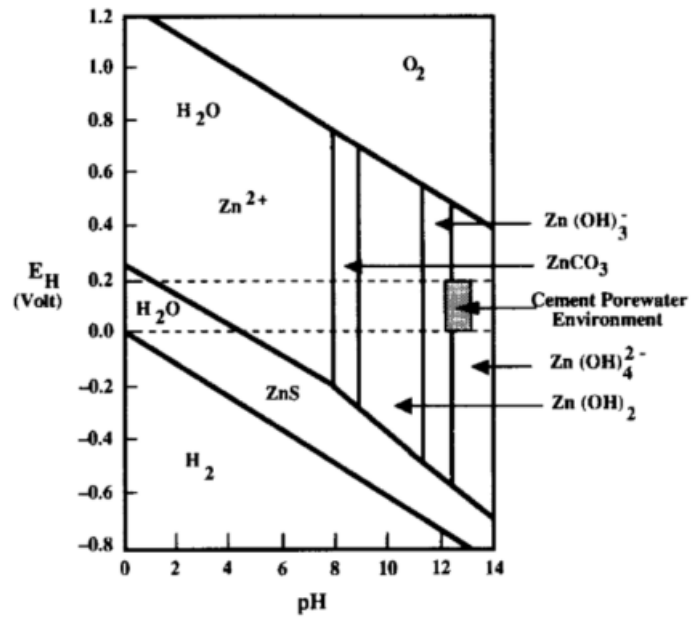


Figure A6 The Eh-pH diagram for the Zn-O-H-S-C system at 25°C and 1 atm [38].

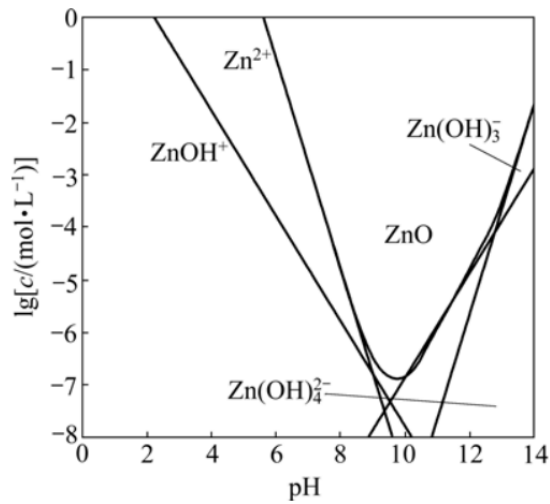


Figure A7 Solubility of ZnO as function of pH at 25 °C and 1 atm [44].

## A.2 Structure and Formation of Minerals of Elements of Interest

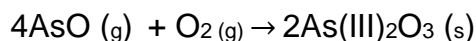
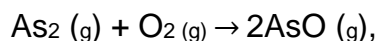
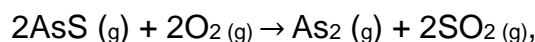
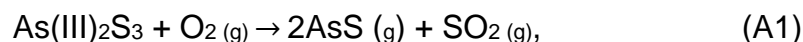
### A.2.1 Arsenic Minerals

Realgar ( $\text{As}_4\text{S}_4$ ) and orpiment ( $\text{As}_2\text{S}_3$ ) are arsenic sulfides and commonly found in the same deposit, e.g., ore. Both minerals belong to the monoclinic crystal system, in which arsenic is tetrahedrally bonded with sulfur atoms as  $\text{AsS}_4$  in  $\text{As}_4\text{S}_4$  [4] and arsenic is trigonal pyramidal coordinated with sulfur atoms as  $\text{AsS}_3$  in  $\text{As}_2\text{S}_3$  [11].

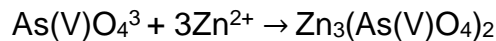
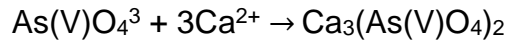
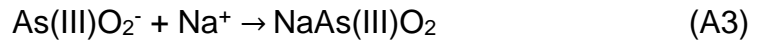
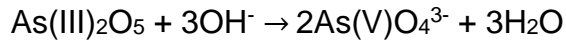
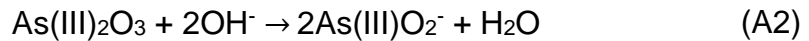
The claudetite ( $\text{As}_2\text{O}_3$ ) is an arsenic trioxide, which typically forms as an oxidation product of arsenic sulfide, at high temperatures above 900 °C. As shown in Eq.(A1), arsenic sulfide can react with oxygen to form gas arsenic, and the gas arsenic transfers into slag phase in form of  $\text{As}_2\text{O}_3$  (s) by oxidation reaction [56]. Wang [56] reported that the reactions can remain spontaneous when temperature is at 1200 °C. It has a cubic crystal system, and each arsenic atom is surrounded by three oxygen atoms, and each oxygen has two close arsenic neighbors [28].

Arsenic oxyanion, e.g.,  $\text{As(III)O}_2^-$  and  $\text{As(V)O}_4^{3-}$ , can form by the reaction of arsenic oxide and hydroxide (Eq.(A2)). These oxyanions can precipitate with metals to form metal arsenic oxyanions, such as  $\text{NaAsO}_2$ ,  $\text{Ca}_3(\text{AsO}_4)_2$  and  $\text{Zn}_2\text{AsO}_4(\text{OH})$  (Eq.(A3)). The sodium polymetaarsenite ( $\text{NaAsO}_2$ ) has each arsenic atom at the center and three oxygen atoms at the corners of an equilateral triangle. Similar as  $\text{Ca}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$  [40],  $\text{Ca}_3(\text{AsO}_4)_2$  has a monoclinic crystal system, and each arsenic atom is tetrahedrally surrounded by four oxygen atoms. The adamite,  $\text{Zn}_2\text{AsO}_4(\text{OH})$ , has a orthorhombic structure, and the tetrahedral  $\text{AsO}_4$  groups connect with the two Zn polyhedron types, i.e.,  $\text{ZnO}_4(\text{OH})_2$  octahedra and  $\text{ZnO}_4(\text{OH})$  trigonal bipyramids [1].

Equations for formation



## Appendix A



### A.2.2 Chromium Minerals

Chromium(III) sulfides are usually nonstoichiometric compounds, with formulas ranging from CrS to CrS<sub>1.5</sub> (corresponding to Cr<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>). Cr<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> has trigonal and rhombohedral crystal systems [5], in which Cr has a octahedral coordination.

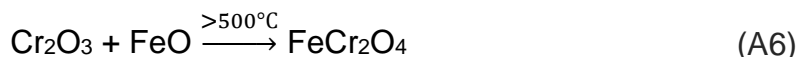
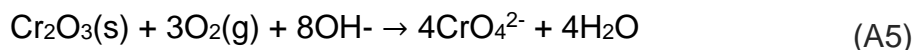
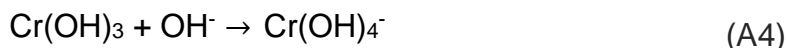
Chromium forms strong complexes with hydroxides. Cr(OH)<sub>3</sub> dominates the system when pH is 6.3 to 11.5, while CrOH<sup>2+</sup> dominates at pH 3.8-6.3 and Cr(OH)<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> dominates at pH over 11.5 (Eq.(A4)) [66]. This is close to the observation from the Eh-pH diagram reported in Huang [17], Barnhart [18]. With the presence of Fe<sup>3+</sup>, co-precipitated Cr<sub>x</sub>Fe<sub>1-x</sub>-(oxy)hydroxide intermediate compositions tend to form before the Cr-(oxy)hydroxide end member composition since it has a lower solubility [68].

At strong alkaline environment, Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> is likely oxidised to form CrO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> (Eq.(A5)). Sodium chromate, Na<sub>2</sub>CrO<sub>4</sub>, has an orthorhombic crystal system, in which each chromium atom is bonded with four oxygen atoms, and each sodium atom is surrounded by six oxygen atoms [49].

Iron chromite, FeCr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, belongs to spinel group, with general formula AB<sub>2</sub>X<sub>4</sub>, in which the divalent A cation can be Cd, Cu, Co, Cr, Fe, Mg, Mn, Ni, Sn, and Zn and trivalent B can be Al, Cr, Co, Fe, In, Mn, Ni, Ti, and V, while X can be O, S, Se, etc. [69, 70]. FeCr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> can form at a annealing temperature of over 500°C from their metal oxides (Eq.(A6)). FeCr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> has a cubic crystal system, in which each chromium atom is octahedrally coordinated with six oxygen atoms [29].

## Appendix A

Equations for formation



### A.2.3 Copper Minerals

Copper sulfides, e.g., chalcocite,  $\text{Cu}_2\text{S}$  and covellite,  $\text{CuS}$ , can naturally occur in the deposit, e.g., ore.  $\text{Cu}_2\text{S}$  is monoclinic, and the copper atom is present as trigonal planar with three sulfur atoms [6].  $\text{CuS}$  contains tetrahedral Cu and triangular Cu with a ratio of 2:1 [15].

Copper ion and hydroxide can precipitate as spertiniite,  $\text{Cu(OH)}_2$  (Eq.(A7)).  $\text{Cu(OH)}_2$  is orthorhombic and the coordination of copper atom is square pyramidal with five hydroxyl ( $\text{OH}^-$ ) [51].  $\text{Cu(OH)}_2$  can absorb  $\text{CO}_2$  from the air to generate  $\text{CuCO}_3$  (Eq.(A8)). With the increase of alkalinity,  $\text{CuCO}_3$  reacts with  $\text{OH}^-$  to form malachite,  $\text{CuCO}_3 \cdot \text{Cu(OH)}_2$  (Eq.(A9)).

Copper ion and phosphate can precipitate as  $\text{Cu}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$ .  $\text{Cu}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$  is triclinic, and half of the Cu atoms are in distorted square planar coordination, and half of Cu atoms are in irregular trigonal bipyramidal coordination [58].

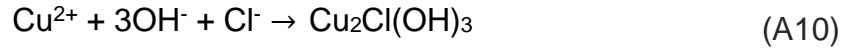
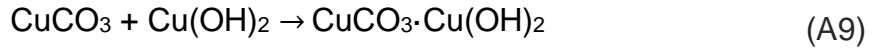
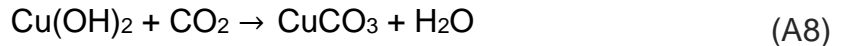
Copper ion and hydroxide can precipitate as atacamite,  $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cl(OH)}_3$ , with the presence of chloride (Eq.(A10)).  $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cl(OH)}_3$  is rapidly dissolved or replaced by other copper minerals when it is exposed to low-salinity waters [71].  $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cl(OH)}_3$  is orthorhombic, and the half of Cu atoms are in distorted octahedral with five hydroxyl groups and one Cl atom and half of Cu atoms are in square planar with four oxygen atoms [62].

Chalcanthite,  $\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$  is triclinic, in which the Cu atom is octahedral coordination [64]. Tenorite,  $\text{CuO}$  is monoclinic, and the copper atom is coordinated by four coplanar oxygen atoms [27].

Equations for formation



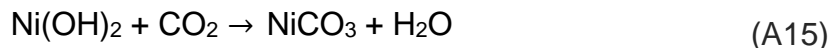
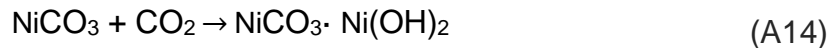
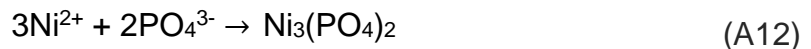
## Appendix A



### A.2.4 Nickel Minerals

Nickel ions can precipitate with hydroxyl, phosphate, sulfate ions to form  $\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$  (Eq.(A11)),  $\text{Ni}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$  (Eq.(A12)), and  $\text{NiSO}_4$  (Eq.(A13)).  $\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$  can absorb  $\text{CO}_2$  from the air to generate  $\text{NiCO}_3 \cdot \text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$  (Eq.(A14)) and then  $\text{NiCO}_3$  (Eq.(A15)). Ni in those compounds is octahedrally coordinated with six oxygen atoms.

Equations for formation



### A.2.5 Lead Minerals

Galena,  $\text{PbS}$ , can naturally form in the deposit. It has a cubic crystal structure, in which Pb atoms are octahedrally bonded with six oxygen atoms [72]. Litharge,  $\text{PbO}$ , is tetragonal, and each Pb atom is bound to four oxygen atoms forming a square pyramid with a lead atom at the apex [7].

Mimetite ( $\text{Pb}_5(\text{AsO}_4)_3\text{Cl}$ ), pyromorphite ( $\text{Pb}_5(\text{PO}_4)_3\text{Cl}$ ) and hydroxypyromorphite ( $\text{Pb}_5(\text{PO}_4)_3\text{OH}$ ) are apatite group minerals with general formula  $\text{A}_5(\text{XO}_4)_3\text{Z}$ , where  $\text{A}=\text{Ba}, \text{Ca}, \text{Ce}, \text{K}, \text{Na}, \text{Pb}, \text{Sr}, \text{Y}$ ;  $\text{X}=\text{As}, \text{P}, \text{Si}, \text{V}$  and  $\text{Z}=\text{F}, \text{Cl}, \text{O}, \text{OH}, \text{H}_2\text{O}$  [23]. Solid-solution between end-members is extensive. All three apatite minerals are hexagonal, and contain two types of Pb. One Pb has nine-fold coordination to six oxygen atoms and three oxygen atoms of neighbouring  $\text{AsO}_4$  or  $\text{PO}_4$  groups;

## Appendix A

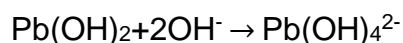
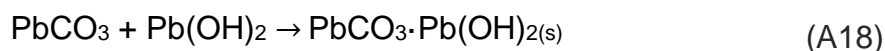
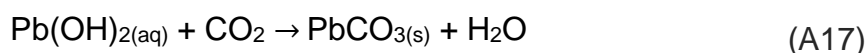
another Pb forms seven-fold coordination with six oxygen atoms and one chloride atom or hydroxyl ions.

Lead ions and hydroxyl ions can precipitate as lead hydroxide ( $\text{Pb(OH)}_2$ ) (Eq.(A16)). At ambient temperature and open to the atmosphere,  $\text{Pb(OH)}_2$  can absorb  $\text{CO}_2$  from the air to generate cerussite,  $\text{PbCO}_3$  (Eq.(A17)).  $\text{PbCO}_3$  is orthorhombic, and each Pb atom is coordinated with six oxygen atoms with neighbouring  $\text{PbO}_9$  polyhedra, and three oxygen atoms with  $\text{CO}_3$  groups [33].

With the increase of alkalinity,  $\text{PbCO}_3$  reacts with  $\text{OH}^-$  to form lead basic carbonate,  $\text{PbCO}_3 \cdot \text{Pb(OH)}_2$  (Eq.(A18)). Precipitation of  $\text{PbCO}_3 \cdot \text{Pb(OH)}_2$  dominates over  $\text{PbCO}_3$  or  $\text{Pb(OH)}_2$  between pH 10.0 and 10.6 while precipitation of  $\text{PbCO}_3$  and  $\text{Pb(OH)}_2$  predominates below pH 10.0 and over pH 10.6, respectively [34]. When the pH continues to increase (pH=11.2-14.0),  $\text{PbCO}_3 \cdot \text{Pb(OH)}_2$  or  $\text{Pb(OH)}_2$  will react with  $\text{OH}^-$  to form more soluble  $\text{Pb(OH)}_3^-$  and then  $\text{Pb(OH)}_4^{2-}$  at pH>11.8 (Eq.(A19)) [73, 74]. As a trigonal crystal,  $\text{PbCO}_3 \cdot \text{Pb(OH)}_2$  has a  $\text{Pb(OH)}_2$  sheet sandwiched between two  $\text{PbCO}_3$  sheets [55]. For  $\text{PbCO}_3$  sheet, each Pb atom is bound with six oxygen atoms, belonging to three  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  groups, and one single oxygen atom. For  $\text{Pb(OH)}_2$  sheet, each Pb atom is connected with three  $\text{OH}^-$  ions [55].

Anglesite ( $\text{PbSO}_4$ ) is orthorhombic crystal system, and each Pb atom is bonded with ten oxygen atoms with neighbouring  $\text{PbO}_{12}$  polyhedra, and two oxygen atoms with neighbouring  $\text{SO}_4$  groups [46].

Equations for formation



### A.2.6 Zinc Minerals

Zinc ions and hydroxy can precipitate as  $\text{Zn}(\text{OH})_2$  (Eq.(A20)). At ambient temperature and open to the atmosphere,  $\text{Zn}(\text{OH})_2$  can absorb  $\text{CO}_2$  from the air to generate  $\text{ZnCO}_3$  (Eq.(A21)). With the increase of alkalinity,  $\text{ZnCO}_3$  reacts with  $\text{OH}^-$  to form hydrozincite,  $2\text{ZnCO}_3 \cdot 3\text{Zn}(\text{OH})_2$  (Eq.(A22)). Precipitation of  $2\text{ZnCO}_3 \cdot 3\text{Zn}(\text{OH})_2$  dominates over  $\text{ZnCO}_3$  or  $\text{Zn}(\text{OH})_2$  between pH 6.8 and 10 while precipitation of  $\text{ZnCO}_3$  and  $\text{Zn}(\text{OH})_2$  predominate below pH 6.8 and over pH10, respectively [75, 76]. When the pH continues to increase (pH=11.5-12.5),  $2\text{ZnCO}_3 \cdot 3\text{Zn}(\text{OH})_2$  or  $\text{Zn}(\text{OH})_2$  will react with  $\text{OH}^-$  to form more soluble  $\text{Zn}(\text{OH})_3^-$  and then  $\text{Zn}(\text{OH})_4^{2-}$  at pH>12.5 (Eq.(A23)) [73, 74].  $2\text{ZnCO}_3 \cdot 3\text{Zn}(\text{OH})_2$  is monoclinic, in which Zn has a tetrahedrally and octahedrally combined coordination with a ratio of 2:3 [61].  $2\text{ZnCO}_3 \cdot 3\text{Zn}(\text{OH})_2$  can be decomposed between 155-340 °C [77, 78].

Hemimorphite ( $\text{Zn}_4\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7(\text{OH})_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ ), also called hydrous zinc silicate, is a weathering product, which can occur naturally with  $\gamma\text{-Zn}(\text{OH})_2$  and/or  $\text{Zn}_2\text{SiO}_4$  at a relatively low temperature (Eq.(A24)) [79, 80]. Specifically, zinc silicate (e.g.,  $\text{Zn}_2\text{SiO}_4$ ) adsorbs onto the precipitated  $\text{Zn}(\text{OH})_2$ , breaking its structure, to form amorphous  $\text{Zn}_4\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7(\text{OH})_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$  which is then transferred to bulk crystal over a long period of 30 days.  $\text{Zn}_4\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7(\text{OH})_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$  is orthorhombic, in which Zn is tetrahedrally coordinated with three oxygen atoms and one OH [47]. It belongs to sorosilicate minerals with two silicate tetrahedra ( $\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7^{2-}$ ) linked together by sharing one oxygen atom [47].  $\text{Zn}_4\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7(\text{OH})_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$  is easily dehydrated over 270°C and decomposed at temperatures over 550 °C [81].

Adamite ( $\text{Zn}_2\text{As}(\text{V})\text{O}_4\text{OH}$ ) and legrandite ( $\text{Zn}_2\text{As}(\text{V})\text{O}_4\text{OH} \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ ), also called zinc arsenate hydroxide, are also weathering products. It can occur naturally in the oxidized zone of zinc- and arsenic-bearing hydrothermal mineral deposits. It belongs to the olivenite group with general formula of  $\text{AB}(\text{CO}_4)\text{D}$ , where A refers to  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ ,  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$ ; B can be  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$ ; C refers to P, As and Sb; D can be OH and O. Both are orthorhombic, in which Zn has a mixed trigonal bipyramid and octahedral coordination.

Zinc sulfate is a family of inorganic compounds with the formula  $\text{ZnSO}_4(\text{H}_2\text{O})_x$ , in which goslarite,  $\text{ZnSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$  is the most common form. Zinc sulfates are soluble

## Appendix A

in water at room temperature [26].  $\text{ZnSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$  has an orthorhombic crystal system, while gunningite,  $\text{ZnSO}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$  has a monoclinic system, in which Zn is octahedrally bonded with six oxygen atoms for both [31].

Zinc and phosphate ions can precipitate as  $\text{Zn}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$  (Eq.(A25)), even at low pH.  $\text{Zn}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$  has three common forms, i.e.,  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$ . All three forms of  $\text{Zn}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$  have a monoclinic crystal system but  $\beta$ - $\text{Zn}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$  consists of  $\text{ZnO}_4$  tetrahedron (1/3) and  $\text{ZnO}_4$  trigonal bipyramid (1/3) [42], and  $\alpha$  and  $\gamma$ - $\text{Zn}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$  consists of  $\text{ZnO}_4$  tetrahedron (2/3) and  $\text{ZnO}_2(\text{H}_2\text{O})_4$  octahedron (1/3) [48, 67].

The bulk spinels  $\text{ZnFe}_2\text{O}_4$  and  $\text{ZnAl}_2\text{O}_4$  can be formed by Zn oxide in conjunction with a variety of other elements at a high temperature. Gibbs free energies for the formation reaction demonstrate that the ease of formation for Zn spinels follows the order:  $\text{ZnAl}_2\text{O}_4$  (Eq.(A26)) and  $\text{ZnFe}_2\text{O}_4$  (Eq.(A27)) [82].  $\text{ZnFe}_2\text{O}_4$  and  $\text{ZnAl}_2\text{O}_4$  have a cubic crystal system, in which Zn is tetrahedrally bonded with four oxygen atoms and Fe or Al is octahedrally bonded with six oxygen atoms [35]. Nano spinels can form at a lower temperature and different methods. For example, nano  $\text{ZnFe}_2\text{O}_4$  can be produced at a high temperature (900-1000°C) by sol-gel method [83] with a crystalline size range from 11-20 nm, or at a low temperature by coprecipitation (20-80°C) [84-86] and solvothermal synthesis (160-200°C) [83], with a crystalline size range from 3-19 nm and 5-10 nm. Compared to the bulk  $\text{ZnFe}_2\text{O}_4$ , partial tetrahedral Zn would transfer to octahedral Zn and the inversion degree varies due to different methods, negatively related to the crystallite size. The distortion crystal structure was also revealed by the Fourier Transform spectra of Zn K-edge XAS that the second peak was very weak and broad, and the peak location moved forward from 3.1 Å to 2.8 Å for coprecipitated nano  $\text{ZnFe}_2\text{O}_4$  [84]. The similar pattern was shown in the co-precipitated nano  $\text{ZnFe}_2\text{O}_4$  prepared using urea as a precursor [85, 86].

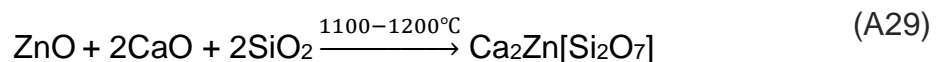
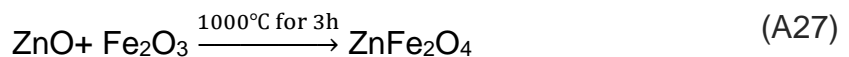
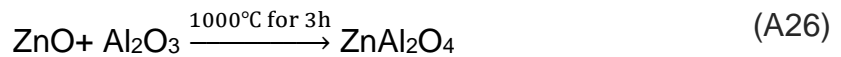
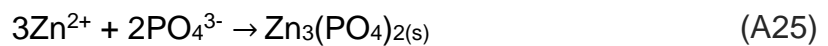
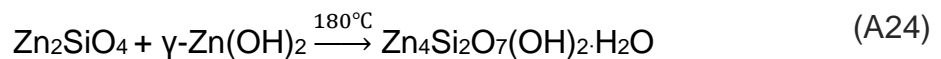
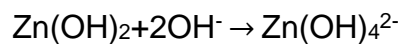
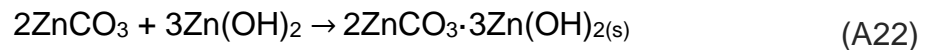
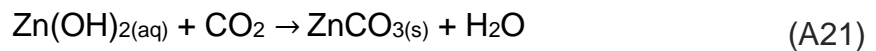
Willemite ( $\alpha$ - $\text{Zn}_2\text{SiO}_4$ ) can be synthesised by direct reaction of ZnO-SiO<sub>2</sub> between 800-1000 °C [87]. Condition for the hydrothermal formation of  $\text{Zn}_2\text{SiO}_4$  has been suggested to be 1300°C for 3 hours (Eq.(A28)) [88]. It is less preferably formed than those two spinels,  $\text{ZnFe}_2\text{O}_4$ , and  $\text{ZnAl}_2\text{O}_4$ , at a high annealing temperature according to the higher Gibb free energy for  $\text{Zn}_2\text{SiO}_4$  [82].  $\alpha$ - $\text{Zn}_2\text{SiO}_4$  is a zinc nesosilicate, belonging to olivine group with a general formula of  $\text{X}_2\text{SiO}_4$ , where X

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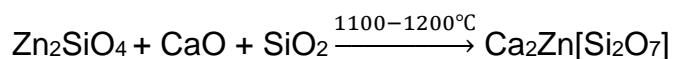
refers to Fe, Mg, Ca, Mn, Ni and Zn, etc. and can substitute for each other. Zn is in two disordered tetrahedral sites, and each is linked to four SiO<sub>4</sub> tetrahedra [89].

Hardystonite (Ca<sub>2</sub>ZnSi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>) can be synthesized by reaction of CaO-ZnO-SiO<sub>2</sub> at 1175.7 °C for 1h (Eq.(A29)) [90]. Nano Ca<sub>2</sub>Zn(Si<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>) can form in the CaCO<sub>3</sub>-ZnO-SiO<sub>2</sub> the system with 20h milling and subsequent sintering at 900°C for 3h but the product is a mix of Ca<sub>2</sub>Zn(Si<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>) and α-Zn<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub> [91]. Then nano Ca<sub>2</sub>Zn(Si<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>) can transfer to bulk Ca<sub>2</sub>Zn(Si<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>) by milling longer and sintering at a higher temperature of 1100°C [91] or 1200°C [92], in which all α-Zn<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub> transfers to Ca<sub>2</sub>Zn(Si<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>) (Eq.(A29)). Ca<sub>2</sub>ZnSi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> is a calcium zinc sorosilicate, similar as Zn<sub>4</sub>Si<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>(OH)<sub>2</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O, in which zinc atoms are tetrahedrally bonded with four oxygen atoms, while the tetrahedral oxygen atoms are shared by adjacent silicon tetrahedra [10].

Equations for formation



## Appendix A



### A.3 Coordination Information of Minerals of the Elements of Interest

The neighbouring species, coordination numbers and distances of minerals of the elements of interest that were used for curve fitting have been collected from the literature and summarised in Tables A9-A12.

Table A9 The coordination numbers (CN), distances (R), and neighbouring species of Cr minerals from the literatures.

Cr minerals	NS	CN <sub>ran</sub>	CN <sub>ave</sub>	R (Å) <sub>ran</sub>	R (Å) <sub>ave</sub>	Ref.
Cr <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	Cr-O	6.0- 6.0	6.0	1.980-2.010	1.990	[93, 94]
	Cr-Cr	3.0- 4.0	3.7	2.800-2.900	2.800	[93, 94]
	Cr-O	3.0- 3.0	3.0	3.350-3.370	3.360	[93, 94]
	Cr-O	4.0- 9.0	6.3	3.570-3.660	3.610	[93, 94]
	Cr-Cr	3.0- 9.0	6.3	3.550-3.660	3.620	[93, 94]

NS: neighbouring species; CN<sub>ran</sub>: the range of coordination number; CN<sub>ave</sub>: the average value of coordination number;  
 R (Å)<sub>ran</sub>: the range of distance; R (Å)<sub>ave</sub>: the average value of distance; Ref.: reference.

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Table A10 The coordination numbers (CN), distances (R), and neighbouring species of Cu minerals from the literatures.

Cu minerals	NS	CN <sub>ran</sub>	CN <sub>ave</sub>	R (Å) <sub>ran</sub>	R (Å) <sub>ave</sub>	Ref.
Cu	Cu-Cu	/	12.0	/	2.548	[95]
	Cu-Cu	/	6.0	/	3.571	[95]
	Cu-Cu	/	24.0	/	4.466	[95]
CuS	Cu-S	3.0-3.5	3.1	2.190-2.280	2.242	[15, 96-98]
	Cu-S	6.0-6.0	6.0	3.199-3.240	3.220	[15, 96]
	Cu-S	6.0-6.0	6.0	3.755-3.800	3.778	[15, 96]
	Cu-Cu	6.0-6.0	6.0	3.794-3.830	3.812	[15, 96]

NS: neighbouring species; CN<sub>ran</sub>: the range of coordination number; CN<sub>ave</sub>: the average value of coordination number;

R (Å)<sub>ran</sub>: the range of distance; R (Å)<sub>ave</sub>: the average value of distance; Ref.: reference.

Table A11 The coordination numbers (CN), distances (R), and neighbouring species of Ni minerals from the literatures.

Ni minerals	NS	CN <sub>ran</sub>	CN <sub>ave</sub>	R (Å) <sub>ran</sub>	R (Å) <sub>ave</sub>	Ref.
Ni(OH) <sub>2</sub>	Ni-O	6.0-6.0	6.0	2.060-2.135	2.094	[99, 100]
	Ni-Ni	6.0-6.0	6.0	3.117-3.120	3.119	[99, 100]
	Ni-Ni	5.5-6.0	5.8	6.210-6.234	6.225	[99, 100]

NS: neighbouring species; CN<sub>ran</sub>: the range of coordination number; CN<sub>ave</sub>: the average value of coordination number;

R (Å)<sub>ran</sub>: the range of distance; R (Å)<sub>ave</sub>: the average value of distance. Ref.: reference;

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Table A12 The coordination numbers (CN), distances (R), and neighbouring species of Zn minerals from the literatures.

Zn minerals	NS	CN <sub>ran</sub>	CN <sub>ave</sub>	R (Å) <sub>ran</sub>	R (Å) <sub>ave</sub>	Ref.
ZnO	Zn-O	3.3-4.0	3.9	1.950-1.980	1.960	[101-111]
	Zn-Zn	11.7-12.4	12.0	3.190-3.230	3.210	[79, 103, 105, 107-112]
Zn <sub>5</sub> (CO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> (OH) <sub>6</sub>	Zn-O	4.1-5.7	4.8	2.000-2.050	2.020	[104-106, 108-111]
	Zn-O	2.3-7.7	3.8	3.220-3.550	3.400	[105, 108-111]
β-Zn <sub>3</sub> (PO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>	Zn-O	4.0-5.0	4.7	1.980-2.090	2.050	[104]
	Zn-Zn	/	2.0	/	3.440	[103]
	Zn-Ca	2.0-2.0	2.0	3.780-3.780	3.780	[79, 103]
ZnS	Zn-S	4.0-4.3	4.2	2.330-2.350	2.340	[106, 108]
	Zn-Zn	/	5.4	/	3.800	[108]
	Zn-S	/	7.9	/	4.460	[108]
ZnFe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	Zn-O	3.7-4.0	3.9	1.980-1.990	1.990	[104-111]
	Zn-Fe	12.0-17.3	14.6	3.500-3.500	3.500	[107, 108]
	Zn-Zn	4.0-5.9	4.9	3.700-3.800	3.800	[107, 108]
Zn <sub>4</sub> Si <sub>2</sub> O <sub>7</sub> (OH) <sub>2</sub> .H <sub>2</sub> O	Zn-O	4.0-4.0	4.0	1.940-1.950	1.95	[79, 105, 106, 108, 113, 114]
	Zn-Si	3.0-3.0	3.0	2.960-3.050	3.01	[79, 108, 113, 114]
	Zn-Zn	4.0-4.4	4.1	3.280-3.330	3.30	[79, 105, 108, 113, 114]

NS: neighbouring species; CN<sub>ran</sub>: the range of coordination number; CN<sub>ave</sub>: the average value of coordination number;  
R (Å)<sub>ran</sub>: the range of distance; CN<sub>ave</sub>: the average value of distance. Ref.: reference;  
/ refers to not available.



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## **Appendix B      Techniques for Waste Characterisation**

### **B.1 Techniques for Elemental Analysis**

#### **B.1.1 Atomic Absorption Spectrometry**

The basic principle of AAS is to vaporise ground-state analyte atoms into gas and the free atoms in the gas state absorb light at a specific, unique wavelength, in which the light intensity before and after passing through the sample is measured by a detector. F-AAS and GF-AAS are the two main types of atomisers. GF-AAS, which operates at higher temperature with a longer residence time of the atomised analyte, has several orders of magnitude higher sensitivity than F-AAS [115].

AAS requires liquid samples; therefore, solid samples must undergo a wet chemical preparation procedure to dissolve analytes. Total acid digestion (TAD) procedures involve heating samples with mixtures of HNO<sub>3</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, HClO<sub>4</sub>, HF and HCl [116]. The type of digestion should be chosen depending on the sample matrix. Aqua regia [117], a mixture of HNO<sub>3</sub> and HCl, is often used because of laboratory safety concern with use of HF, but cannot digest some aluminosilicate minerals, so elements present in these minerals will not be included in the measurement.

#### **B.1.2 Inductively Coupled Plasma**

The basic principle of ICP is to ionise the sample by an extremely hot plasma, usually made from argon (Ar) gas. The ICP can be combined with an OES for major and minor element analysis, or with MS for trace element analysis. The main difference between ICP-OES and ICP-MS is how the ions are generated and detected. When ICP is combined with an optical emission spectrometer, the ionised elements emit electromagnetic radiation at characteristic wavelengths, which are measured by a detector. When ICP is combined with a mass spectrometer, the ionised elements are separated based on their mass-to-charge ratio, and converted into an electrical signal by an ion detector, which is multiplied and read by computer software [118]. ICP also requires liquid samples; therefore, solid samples must also undergo TAD or aqua regia (B.1.1). The advanced LA-ICP-MS begins with a laser beam focused on the sample surface to generate fine particles—a process known as Laser Ablation. The ablated particles are then transported to the secondary excitation source of the ICP-MS instrument for

digestion and ionisation of the sampled mass. The excited ions in the plasma torch are subsequently introduced to a mass spectrometer detector for both elemental and isotopic analysis [119].

### B.1.3 X-ray Fluorescence Spectroscopy

XRF measures emission of characteristic fluorescent light by analytes in response to bombardment by X-rays (Figure B1). When X-rays pass through an atom, an electron can be ejected from its atomic orbital (Figure B1b) at a lower level after the atom absorbs a certain amount of X-ray wave (photon) (Figure B1a). The electron from a higher-energy-level orbital can be transferred to the lower-energy-level orbital. A photon (fluorescent light) may be emitted during the transition (Figure B1c), which equals to the energy difference between the two orbitals. XRF is suitable for solids, liquids and powders. By convention, element concentrations are reported as oxides, though they usually have a more complex speciation.

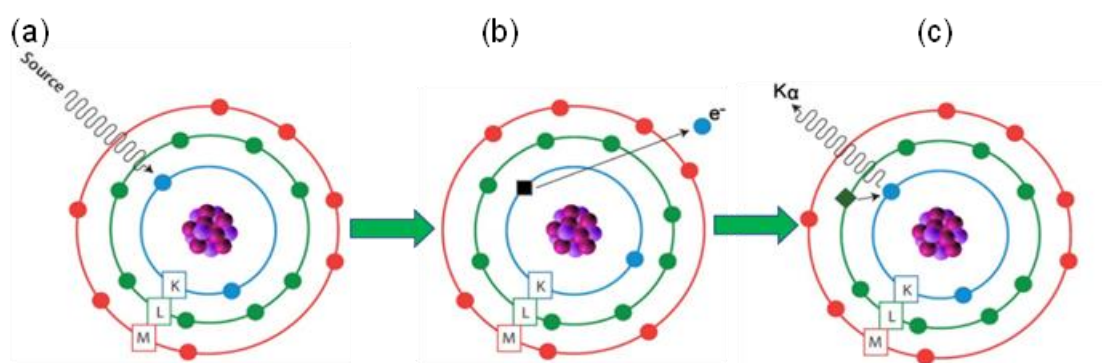


Figure B1 Schematic diagram of X-ray fluorescence.

## B.2 Techniques for Phase Identification and Quantification

### B.2.1 Sequential Chemical Extraction

Sequential chemical extraction uses progressively more aggressive reagents to digest the solid phases in a sample. The results of spectrometric analysis, such as AAS, of the digestates are used to speculate about the 'operational speciation' of elements based on their partitioning in the different fractions. The Tessier and Community Bureau of Reference (BCR) schemes are the most widely applied [120-122]. The basic method has been adapted by many different authors, but the fractions are generally, in order of decreasing mobility: water soluble, ion-exchangeable, carbonates, associated with Fe-Mn oxides, bound to organic matter,

and residuals. Apart from the difficulty of assigning element speciation on the basis of such broad reactivity bands, the technique has also been shown to have poor reproducibility [123].

### B.2.2 X-ray Diffraction

XRD is based on the constructive interference of monochromatic X-rays and a crystalline sample [124]. When an incident X-ray beam pass through a sample, the X-rays get diffracted. Most of the diffracted X-rays destructively interfere with each other and cancel each other out. The diffracted X-ray beams interfere constructively and reinforced one another, shown in

Figure B2, when the wavelength of X-rays is similar to the inter-atomic spacing in the crystals of the sample. The conditions for constructive diffraction should satisfy the Bragg's equation (Eq.(B1)). Those reinforced diffracted X-rays produce the diffraction pattern that is compared with reference patterns to identify the crystal structure.

$$N\lambda = 2d \sin\theta \quad (\text{B1})$$

Where N is an integer number,  $\lambda$  is the wavelength of the radiation, d is the distance of the lattice planes for which the peak occurs, and  $\theta$  is the angle between the lattice planes and the incident beam.

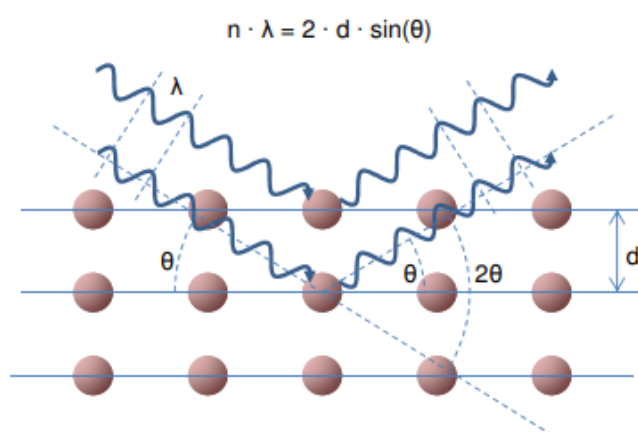


Figure B2 Schematic diagram of constructive interference in X-ray diffraction [124].

Rietveld refinement, as the most common XRD refinement, uses a least square approach to refine a theoretical diffraction pattern to a measured diffraction pattern of a sample [125]. This refinement method is used to semi-quantify the crystal

phases. The least square differences between the simulated diffraction pattern and the experimental one is expressed as Bragg's  $R_{wp}$ .

### **B.2.3 Optical Microscopy**

OM uses visible light and a system of lenses to enable magnified observation of small samples. Light may be reflected from the surface of a sample, or transmitted through a thin-section. Images of magnified samples can be captured by normal light-sensitive cameras. This technique is applicable for solids, and non-destructive. However, the resolution of the optical microscope is limited to 0.2 micrometers with a practical magnification limit of 1000x. Also, it requires considerable experience and expertise to identify crystalline and amorphous features [126].

### **B.2.4 Scanning Electron Microscopy**

SEM can produce highly magnified images by using electrons instead of light to form an image. SEM can be used to identify the physical form (morphology of crystalline and amorphous phases), size and distribution of phases. EDS is used to identify elements; it has a similar basis as XRF, but is not usually quantitative, since it is not calibrated against a standard. Together, information about morphology and elemental composition may be used to postulate phases. Automated image analysis of SEM photomicrographs informed by EDS, can then be used to quantify the postulated phases (i.e., automated mineralogy, e.g., QEMSCAN). However, they cannot discriminate between minerals with similar EDS spectra (e.g., hemimorphite/willemite) [127] and the detection limit for bulk mineralogy is about 3% [128]. Since the areas examined are very small, numerous analyses are necessary to ensure that they are representative of the whole material.

### **B.2.5 Mössbauer Spectroscopy**

Mössbauer spectroscopy is a spectroscopic technique based on the Mössbauer effect, namely, it probes the recoilless emission and resonant absorption of gamma rays by nuclei [129]. The energy levels of the nuclei are sensitive to the electrostatic and magnetic fields present at the nuclei and thus to changes in chemical bonding, valence (i.e., the oxidation state of an atom), and magnetic ordering. Therefore, Mössbauer spectroscopy is used to detect oxidation state and the magnetic state

of the sample. Basically, a beam of gamma radiation goes through the solid sample, and a detector measures the intensity of the beam transmitted through the sample. The atoms in the source emitting the gamma rays must be of the same isotope as the atoms in the sample absorbing them. However, only a few nuclei exhibit the Mössbauer effect, e.g.,  $^{57}\text{Fe}$ ,  $^{119}\text{Sn}$ ,  $^{121}\text{Sb}$ ,  $^{153}\text{Eu}$ , and  $^{197}\text{Au}$ , and the great majority of applications in Earth science (and in general) are with  $^{57}\text{Fe}$  [130].

### **B.2.6 X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy**

XPS is the simultaneous measurement of kinetic energy and number of electrons escaping when the sample is irradiated with a beam of X-ray radiation under high vacuum. It is a spectroscopic method capable of examining the surface (5 nm) of a material with detection limits of 0.1-1.0% [131]. It quantifies elemental compositions and identifies their oxidation state, nearest neighbour chemical bonding, density of the electronic state, and the overall electronic structure.

### **B.2.7 Fourier-transform Infrared Spectroscopy**

Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) uses infrared light to measure the chemical bonds in a molecule by producing an infrared absorption spectrum. This technique is applicable for a solid, liquid or gas, and used to identify organic, polymeric, and, in some cases, inorganic materials, and. Only specific inorganic species exhibit an FTIR spectrum, e.g., silicates, carbonates, nitrates and sulfate [132].

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## Appendix C Data Reduction for X-ray Absorption Spectroscopy

### C.1 Calibration/Alignment/Merging/Choosing $E_0$

Data reduction is applied before fitting. The standard processes mainly compose of alignment, merging, calibration, normalisation, background removal, converting  $E$  to  $k$ , and Fourier transform.

Data calibration is to choose the first peak of the first derivative spectra of references as the edge energy  $E_0$  and then assign it to a tabulated value, e.g., 9659.0 eV for Zn. After calibration, scans on a sample measured under identical conditions are merged. This reduces the systematic errors, including sample inhomogeneity, beam damage, thickness and particle size effects, harmonics, nonlinear detectors, glitches, sample alignment issues, and errors in normalisation. The edge energy  $E_0$  of each sample spectrum is selected as the first peak of its first derivative spectrum in this study.

### C.2 Data Normalisation and Background Removal

(1) Normalisation process enables the data to be independent from sample thickness, sample preparation, absorber concentration, detector, and amplifier settings. Normalisation of a ZnO standard sample is shown in Figure C1. An edge step normalised spectrum: normalised by dividing all the y-values by the edge step ( $\Delta\mu_0$ ) to get the absorption from 1 X-ray and then subtracting a regressed line determined by the pre-edge region. The  $\Delta\mu_0$  is the change in the spectrum without fine structures at the edge energy  $E_0$ . Therefore, it is decided by designing a pre-edge (green line in Figure C1), a post-edge range (purple line Figure C1), and edge energy ( $E_0$ ) [133].

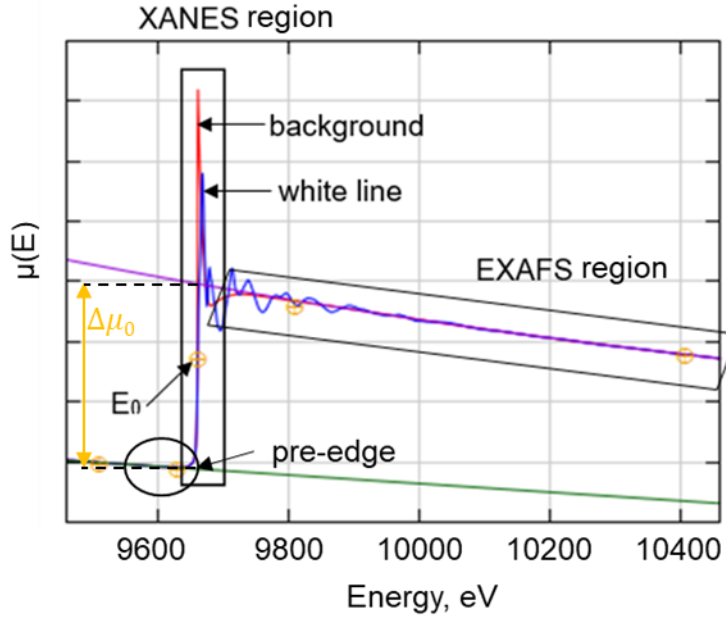


Figure C1 Zn K-edge X-ray absorption spectrum of ZnO with X-ray Absorption Near Edge Structure region and Extended X-ray Absorption Fine Structure region.

(2) Removing a smooth post-edge background to approximate  $\mu_0(E)$  to isolate the XAFS ( $\chi(E)$ ) by designing  $R_{\text{bkg}}$  and spline range in  $E$ .

(A1)

$$\chi(E) = \frac{\mu(E) - \mu_0(E)}{\Delta\mu(E)}$$

Where  $\mu_0(E)$  refers to absorption from an isolated atom of interest. It is approximated with a smooth spline, representing only very-low-frequency components.

### C.3 Converting from E to k

(1) Then use wavevector  $k = \frac{\sqrt{2m(E-E_0)}}{\hbar}$  to convert  $\chi(E)$  to  $\chi(k)$ ,

$$\chi(k) = \sum_j \frac{N_j S_0^2 f_j(k) \cdot e^{-2R_j/\lambda(k)} e^{-2k^2 \sigma_j^2}}{k R_j^2} \sin [2kR_j + \delta_j(k)] \quad (\text{A2})$$

Where scattering amplitude  $f(k)$  and phase-shift  $\delta(k)$  means photo-electron scattering properties of the neighbour atom, depending on atomic number  $Z$  of the scattering atom;  $\delta(k)$  is an element-specific phase shift that causes the Fourier Transform distance to be smaller by 0.2-0.5 Å from the true value.  $R$  is the distance to neighboring atom;  $N$  is the coordination number of a neighbour atom;  $\sigma^2$  refers



to mean-square disorders of neighbour distance;  $\lambda$  is mean-free-path, depending on  $k$  ( $\lambda < 25 \text{ \AA}$  for EXAFS  $k$ -range).

(2) Since EXAFS is decaying quickly with  $k$ ,  $\chi(k)$  is multiplied by a power of  $k$ , such as  $k^2$  or  $k^3$ , to emphasise the oscillation. The phenomenon of decay is attributed to the collision of the wave path with an intermediate atom, or even more, losing energy, before the wave is reverted to the absorbing atoms. An example of EXAFS ( $k$ -space) of ZnO is shown with  $k^2$  weight in top right of Figure C2.

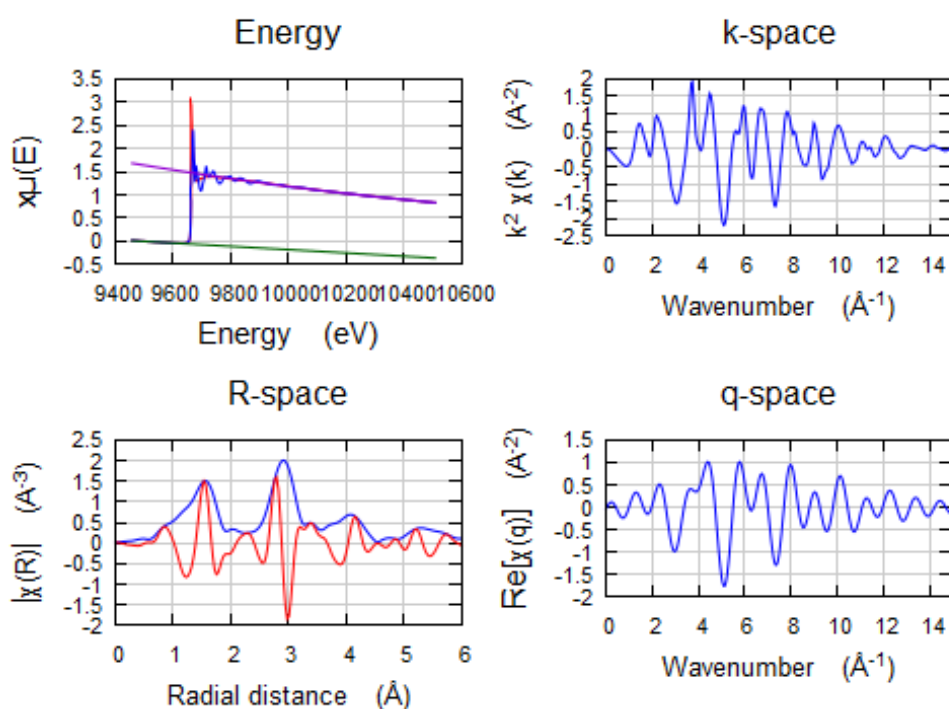


Figure C2 XAS spectrum of ZnO. (top left) Normalised XAS spectrum; (top right) EXAFS spectrum; (bottom left) Fourier Transform; (bottom right) Back Fourier Transform.

#### C.4 Fourier Transform Spectra

Different near-neighbour coordination spheres lead to various frequencies in the oscillation. The  $\chi(k)$  functions are Fourier transformed to Fourier transform spectrum which reflects the different oscillation patterns in  $\chi(k)$  via selecting  $k$ -range and  $R_{\text{bkg}}$ . An example of Fourier Transform of ZnO is shown in bottom left of Figure C2.  $R_{\text{bkg}}$  should be about half the  $R$  value for the first peak. Data in Fourier Transform should be smooth, not pinched. If not,  $R_{\text{bkg}}$  may be too large. Small values for  $R_{\text{bkg}}$  result in significant signals at low  $R$  values, where no neighboring atoms are present. Large values cause the removal of signals from the first shell signal. The choice of  $k$  range can be modified by this criterion. That is, small

## Appendix C

changes in  $R_{\text{bkg}}$  can be used to determine the minimum  $k$ -value ( $k_{\text{min}}$ ) to use in the Fourier transform since EXAFS signal should not depend on  $R_{\text{bkg}}$ .

As the scattering atom becomes heavier, scattering amplitude increases, and scattering envelope peaks at higher  $k$ . Thus, heavy atoms are easier to observe, especially at longer distances (top left of Figure C3). As the number of scattering atoms increases, scattering amplitude increases, but frequency is unchanged, and so is Fourier transform (top right of Figure C3). For the same scattering atom, scattering amplitude decreases and frequency increases when the scattering atom moves farther away from the absorber (bottom left of Figure C3). As temperature increases, the Debye-Waller factor ( $\sigma_j^2$ ) goes up, leading to the decrease of EXAFS intensity and Fourier transform intensity (bottom right of Figure C3).

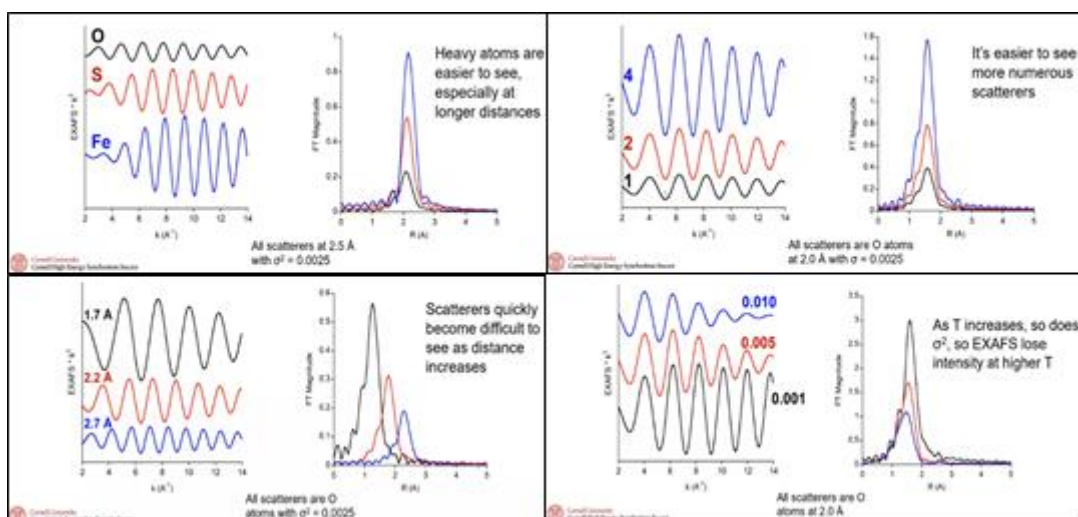


Figure C3 Relationship of fitting parameters and EXAFS and Fourier transform [134].

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2. Pollock, C. *Introduction to Extended X-Ray Absorption Fine Structure (EXAFS)*. [Youtube] 2020 27 05 2020 [cited 2020 25 12]; Available from: [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gh\\_1vGVluLA](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gh_1vGVluLA).

## Appendix C

## **Appendix D      Chemical Compositions in the Three Wastes from Literature**

See excel document for Appendix D.

## Appendix D

## **Appendix E      Methods      and      Results      of      Standard Characterisation for the Three Wastes**

### **E.1    Methods of Standard Characterisation for the Three Wastes**

#### **E.1.1    Elemental Concentrations of the Waste by X-ray Fluorescence**

The subsamples were ground for analysis using a micronizing mill. Total element compositions of the waste was determined by powder X-ray fluorescence (XRF) spectrometry using the Spectro X-LAB Pro 2000. Loose powder method was undertaken because of limited sample and being recoverable [135]. A small portion of sample was pulverized by grinding it in a mortar agate with a mortar pestle using to reduce voids and increase the homogeneity, before passing through a 63 $\mu$ m sieve. The prepared sample was then collected in the sample cell (Figure E1a) where the loose powder sample is above the sample film attached to the bottom of the sample cell. The sample should be adequate to reach the infinite thickness that allows all primary X-ray beam emitted from an XRF instrument. After the sample was loaded in the sample cell, a lid (Figure E1b) was used to cover the sample to prevent contamination of sample chamber by the sample. Great attention should also be paid not to break the film during transferring and measurement to prevent contamination. The prepared sample was set up in XRF spectrometer, and ran for the tests. Each of sample took approximately 30 minutes. Compared to pressed powder method, two major disadvantages are present in loose powder method. One is the lower reproducibility of sample preparation. Another is the poor sensitivities for light elements (e.g., B-F) due to the decrease of the X-ray intensity caused by the sample film covering analysis surface. The XRF is a reliable analysis for bulk elements, but less reliable for trace elements. The result should be treated as semi-quantitative.

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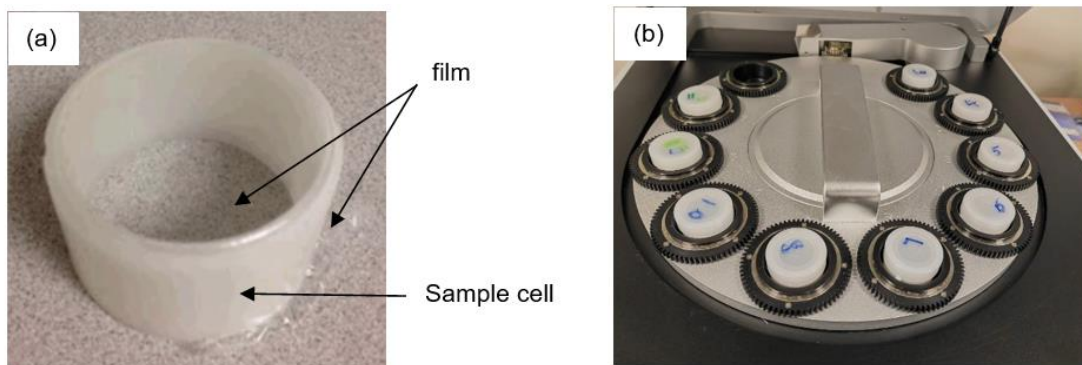


Figure E1 Sample preparation for X-ray Fluorescence using loose powder method.

### E.1.2 Mineralogy of the Three Wastes by X-ray Powder Diffraction

X-ray powder diffraction (XRD) analysis was used to characterize the crystalline phases present in the waste. Powdered XRD samples were prepared by grinding using a mortar agate and mortar pestle, before passing a 63 $\mu\text{m}$  sieve. The sample ideally should be between 1-44 $\mu\text{m}$  [136]. Undergrinding sample could cause a decrease in intensity of peaks, while overgrinding may result in misidentified phases and/or inaccurate crystallite size [136].

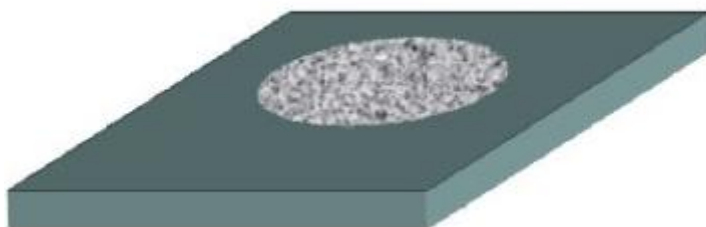


Figure E2 Sample preparation for X-ray Diffraction [137].

Each sample was side-loaded against a ground-glass surface into a glass-backed aluminium-framed sample holder (Figure E2). Diffraction patterns were measured in Bragg–Brentano reflection geometry using a Bruker D8 advance. This diffractometer is equipped with a Cu anode X-ray tube (run at 40 kV, 250 mA) and an incident beam Ni monochromator, which produces a single CuK $\alpha$ 1 line, leading to very sharp diffraction maxima. All patterns were scanned with step length 0.02 $^\circ$  and scan speed 8 $^\circ$ /min. Phase identification was made by search matching to the International Centre for Diffraction Data (ICDD) database using the PAN analytical proprietary software (“X’Pert HighScore Plus”). Phases were identified on the basis of a minimum of 3 diffraction lines. However, the sample is not recoverable.



### **E.1.3 Morphology of the Three Wastes by Scanning Electron Microscopy**

The morphology of the particles from the waste was investigated by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) at different magnifications on a JEOL JSM-6480LV high-performance, variable pressure analytical scanning electron microscope with secondary electron imaging (SEI) and backscattered electron imaging (BEI) detectors, and energy dispersive x-ray spectroscopy (EDS) with an accelerating voltage of 20 keV. Individual particles from the waste, compacted and polished samples were mounted rigidly on a specimen stub and coated with an ultrathin layer of carbon (graphite). The size of areas and their relevant spot numbers are shown in Table E1,

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Table E2 and Figure E3. Certified standards were used for calibration. Element detection limits were reduced to about 0.1-0.05 mass % by using long counting times. Element peaks were automatically identified in the EDS spectrum using AutoID, which also provided tools for manual validation of the elements detected. Summation of the determined elemental compositions to 100% was verified. The EDS analysis should be considered to be semi-quantitative.

Table E1 Summarised size of images and spots for each image for scanning electron microscopy - energy dispersive spectroscopy of filter cakes TX and ST

Number	Size of area	spots	Number	Size of area	spots
TX1	900um	6	ST1	2mm	5
TX2	60um	5	ST2	900um	10
TX3	10um	9	ST3	300um	8
TX4	2mm	4	ST4	40um	9
TX5	300um	6	ST5	300mm	3
TX6	10um	6	ST6	60um	10
			ST7	60um	10
			ST8	400um	5

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Table E2 Summarised size of images and spots for each image for scanning electron microscopy - energy dispersive spectroscopy of the Pb/Zn smelter slag

Number	Size of area	spots
SS1	2mm	8
SS2	100um	3
SS3	20um	5
SS4	10um	5
SS5	2mm	14
SS6	40um	8
SS7	80um	10
SS8	2mm	8
SS9	30um	9
SS10	2mm	18
SS11	100um	18

Table E3 Summarised size of images and spots for each image for scanning electron microscopy - energy dispersive spectroscopy of the APCR

Number	Size of area	spots
APCR1	60um	9
APCR2	100um	10
APCR3	40um	5
APCR4	40um	9
APCR5	80um	17
APCR6	10um	6
APCR7	40um	11
APCR8	30um	3
APCR9	60um	8
APCR10	80um	10
APCR11	100um	16
APCR12	30um	6
APCR13	40um	3

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### E.2 Results of Standard Characterisation for the Three Wastes

#### E.2.1 Elemental Concentrations of the Three Wastes by X-ray Fluorescence

Elemental concentrations of the three wastes, i.e., metal treatment filter cake, Pb/Zn smelter slag, raw and washed air pollution control residue (APCR and WAPCR), were measured previously by XRF, and are presented in Table E4.

Table E4 Total element composition of wastes using X-ray fluorescence (mg/kg dry mass)

Element	TX	ST	SS	APCR	WAPCR
Al, %	0.469	2.42	3.09	2.18	2.66
Ag	64.1	1190	43.1	<1.3	13.6
As	1.7	<8.9	4500	5.5	11
Ba	170	1880	8830	448	830
Br	6.1	5.8	<4.1	532	90.2
Ca, %	34.1	4.2	10.1	33.6	32.8
Cd	2550	84.6	12.9	29.7	44.1
Ce	11	<8.1	11.8	10.9	12.7
Cl, %	0.049	0.335	<0.00087	6.69	0.514
Co	39.7	1770	163	15.8	43.8
Cr, %	1.43	12.6	0.068	0.037	0.045
Cu	1950	13100	4770	261	392
Fe, %	2.44	5.43	30.6	0.757	1.19
K, %	<0.0041	0.043	0.307	1.04	0.370
Mg, %	0.609	1.14	1.50	0.784	1.01
Mn, %	0.041	0.68	1.18	0.060	0.086
Mo	20	350	223	<4.0	21
Na, %	<0.037	<0.069	<0.078	<0.13	<0.048
Ni	26600	48100	123	36.4	54.2
P, %	0.296	2.96	0.127	0.366	0340
Pb	128	2070	16200	545	692
S, %	0.416	0.994	1.56	1.20	2.28
513	14.3	13.2	543	198	306
Se	4.8	3.0	8.4	1.9	3.5
Si, %	1.01	0.926	8.83	3.68	5.01
Sn	111	6200	391	163	251
Sr	1640	228	313	477	455
Ti, %	0.086	0.042	0.185	0.673	0.99
Zn	1810	33400	83900	2920	3790
Zr	44.6	108	194	114	173

NA indicates that a parameter was not available.

ST: Filter Cake (Metal treatment sludge from Robert Stuart Ltd, Harlow Essex)

TX: Filter Cake (Metal treatment sludge from South West Metal Finishing, Exeter)

SS — Pb/Zn Smelter slag (St. Modwen Properties PLC, Avonmouth, Bristol)

APCR: Air Pollution Control Residue (SELCHIP, 09/2011)

WAPCR: washed Air Pollution Control Residue (SELCHIP, 09/2011)

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Table E5 Concentration of target elements in glasses used in current study and its measurement mode.

	IR-Xglass	Corning glass B	Corning glass C	Darwin glass	GGBFS
Reference	[138]	[139]	[139]	[140]	[141]
Cu		2.13 T			
Fe				1.7 F	
Pb		0.57 F	34.1 T		
S					1.4 F
Zn	0.63 F				

F: refers to fluorescence mode; T refers to transmission mode

### E.2.2 Mineralogical Compositions of the Three Wastes by X-ray Diffraction

#### (a) Metal Treatment Filter Cakes

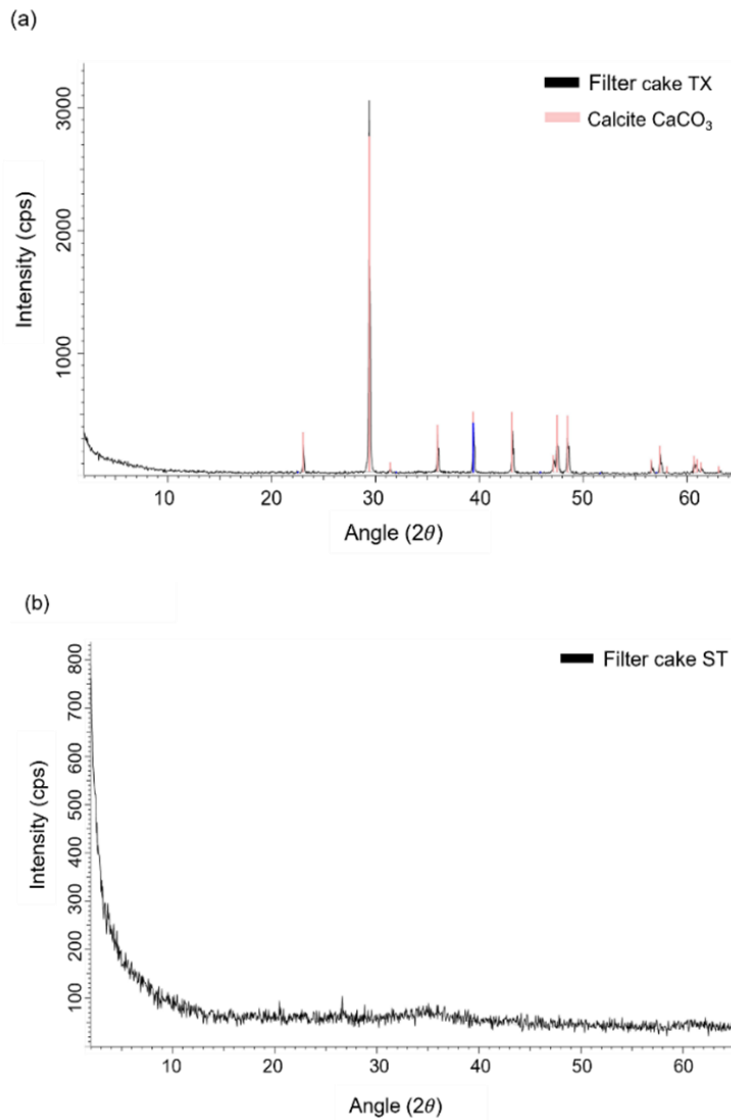


Figure E3 X-ray diffraction (XRD) of the filter cakes TX (a) and ST (b) [142].

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In Figure E3, the powder XRD analysis showed that the filter cake ST is complete amorphous material. TX is mainly amorphous material and only calcite ( $\text{CaCO}_3$ ) was identified as crystalline phase. The dominant calcite corresponds well to the high content of Ca in filter cake TX. No Cr, Zn, Cu or Pb-bearing compounds were detected by XRD because of the relatively low element concentrations and/or the low crystallinity of both filter cakes [142].

### (b) Pb/Zn Smelter Slag

The mineralogical composition of our smelter slag sample determined by XRD is shown in Figure E4. The XRD pattern of the smelter slag shows one major crystalline phase: wüstite ( $\text{Fe}_{0.925}\text{O}$ , Crystallographic Open Database 96-900-9772). The peaks are broad and of low intensities, with an average crystallite size for wüstite of 250 Å. A broad hump is observed in the pattern centred at  $31.4^\circ 2\theta$  due to the glassy matrix [143]. A few unidentified peaks remain. No Ca or Si-bearing compounds were identified by XRD, indicating that those elements are more likely present in the amorphous matrix of this slag.

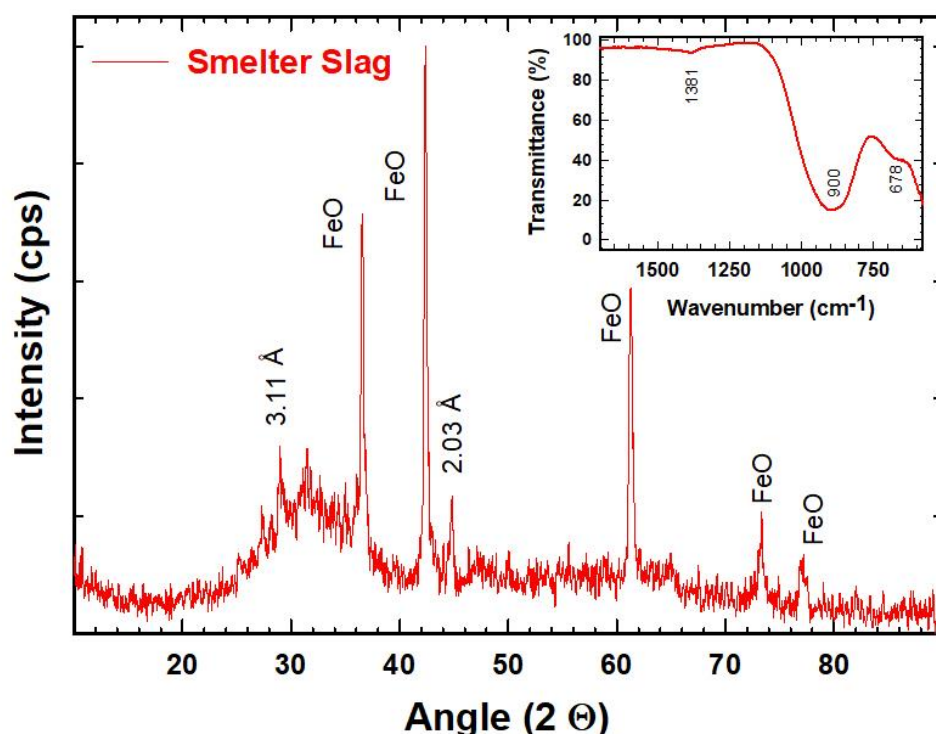


Figure E4 The powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) of the Pb/Zn smelter slag sample with inset Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) spectrum [144].

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### (c) Air Pollution Control Residues

The APCR and w-APCR were previously characterised in detail [145, 146]. The main phases identified in the APCR were Ca-bearing phases (i.e., CaClOH, CaCO<sub>3</sub>, CaO, and CaSO<sub>4</sub>), SiO<sub>2</sub>, Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, and soluble salts (i.e., NaCl and KCl). Ca-bearing phases (CaCO<sub>3</sub>, CaSO<sub>4</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O, Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub>), SiO<sub>2</sub>, Al-bearing phases (Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>), and ettringite were identified in w-APCR (Figure E5).

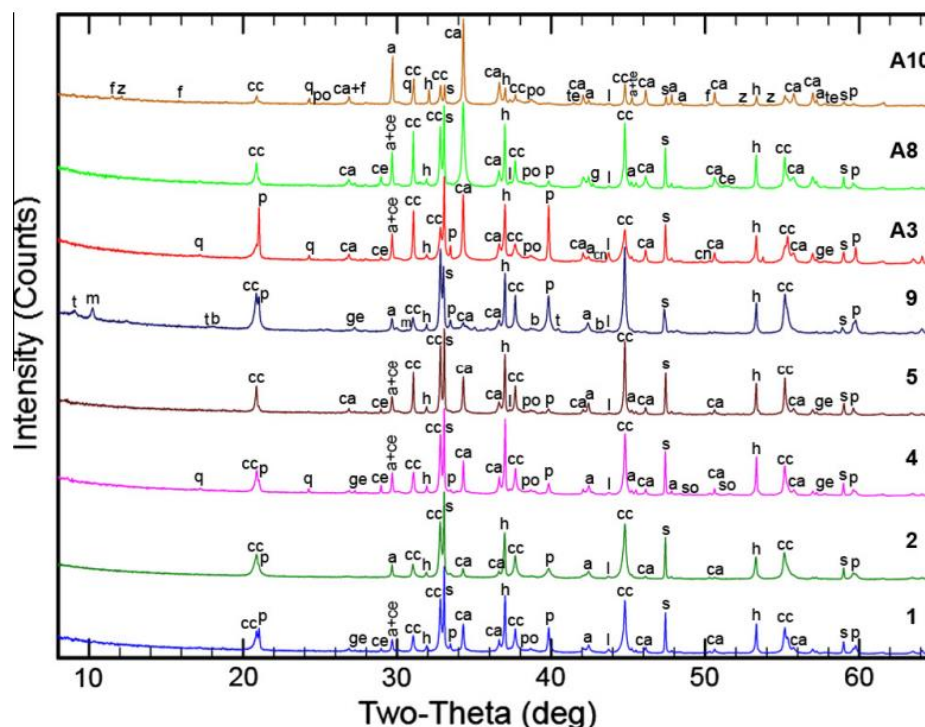


Figure E5 The powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) spectrum of the APCR sample (see A10 for current APCR sample) [145].

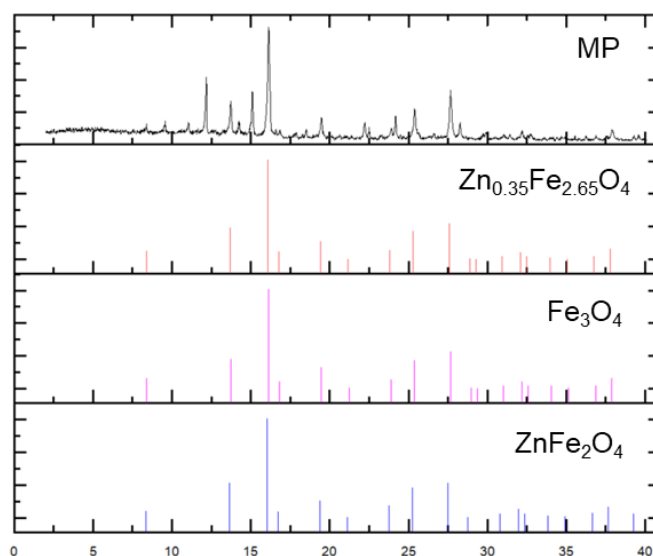
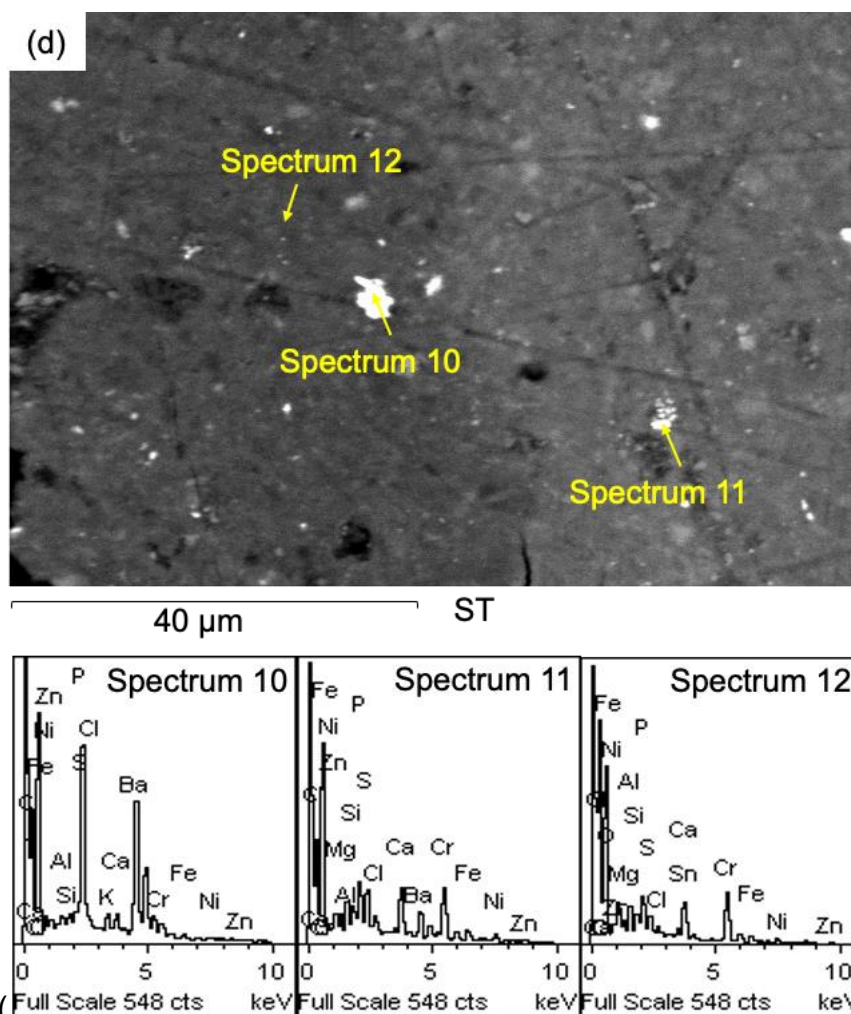


Figure E6 The powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) spectrum of the magnetic fraction sample, compared with Zn<sub>0.35</sub>Fe<sub>2.65</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and ZnFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>.

### E.2.3 Morphology of the Three Wastes by Scanning Electron Microscopy and Energy Dispersive Spectroscopy

#### (a) Metal Treatment Filter Cakes

The local composition and micromorphology of the investigated filter cakes are quite complex. The dried filter cake easily disintegrated into irregular-shaped agglomerates. For TX, an abundance of calcite crystals (Spectra 1-3) cemented by fine particles that consist of Cr, Fe, Ni, Zn, Cu, Ca, Si, Al, P, S, and Cl (Spectra 4-



6) were observed (

Figure E7a and b) by SEM-EDS. Mainly irregular-shaped particles containing Cr, Fe, Zn, Cu, Ca, and P with impurities of Mg, Na, Al, Si, S, and Cl (Spectra 7-8 and 10-12), and some Ca carbonate with impurities of some elements, e.g., Zn



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(spectrum 9), were observed in ST

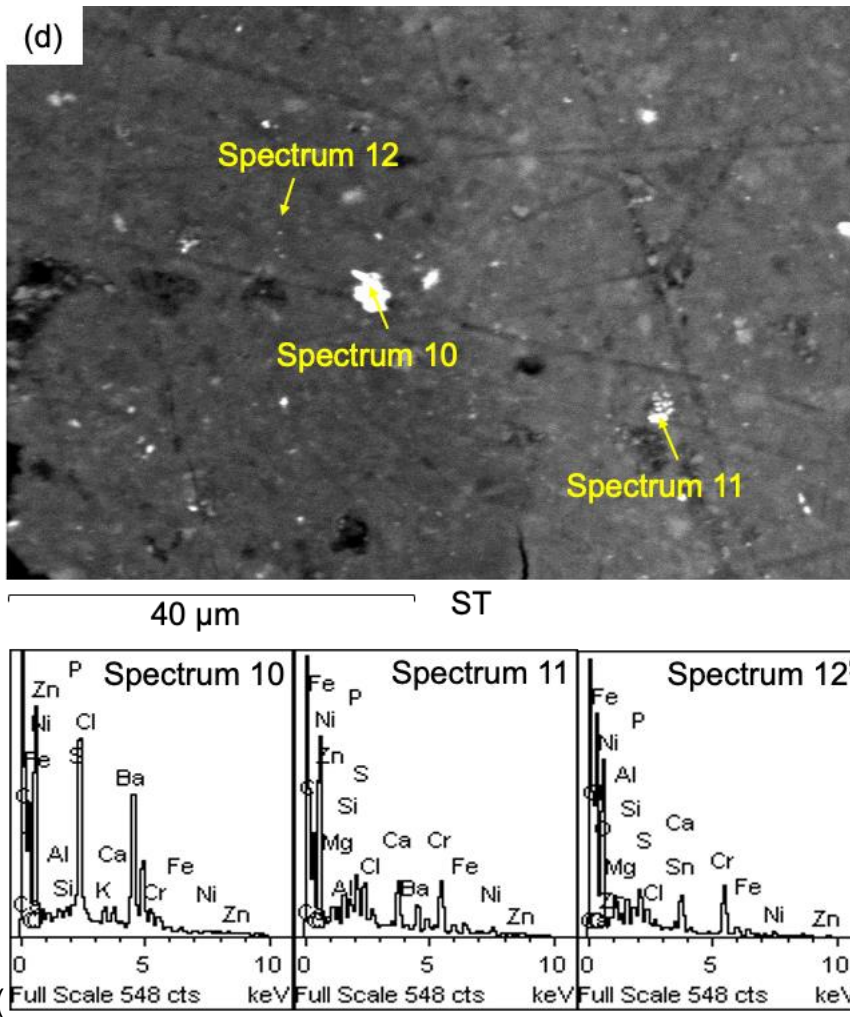
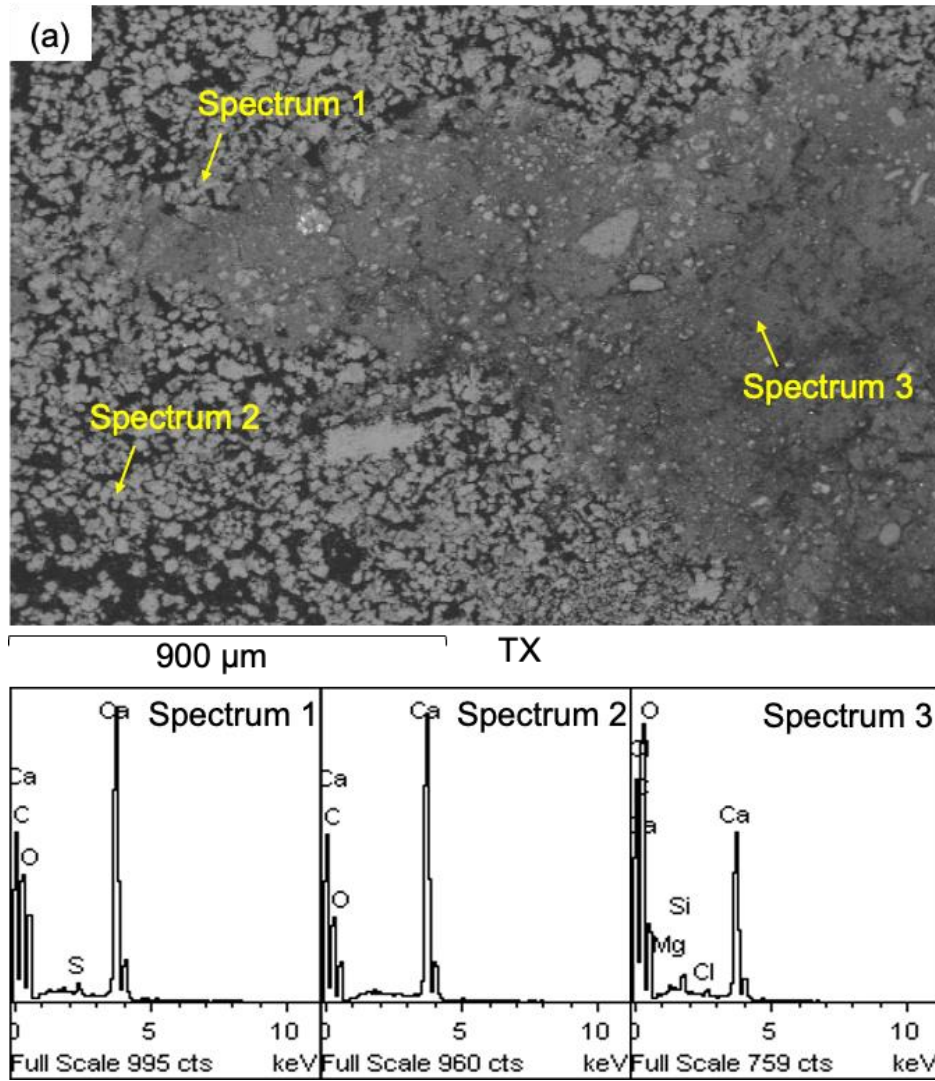


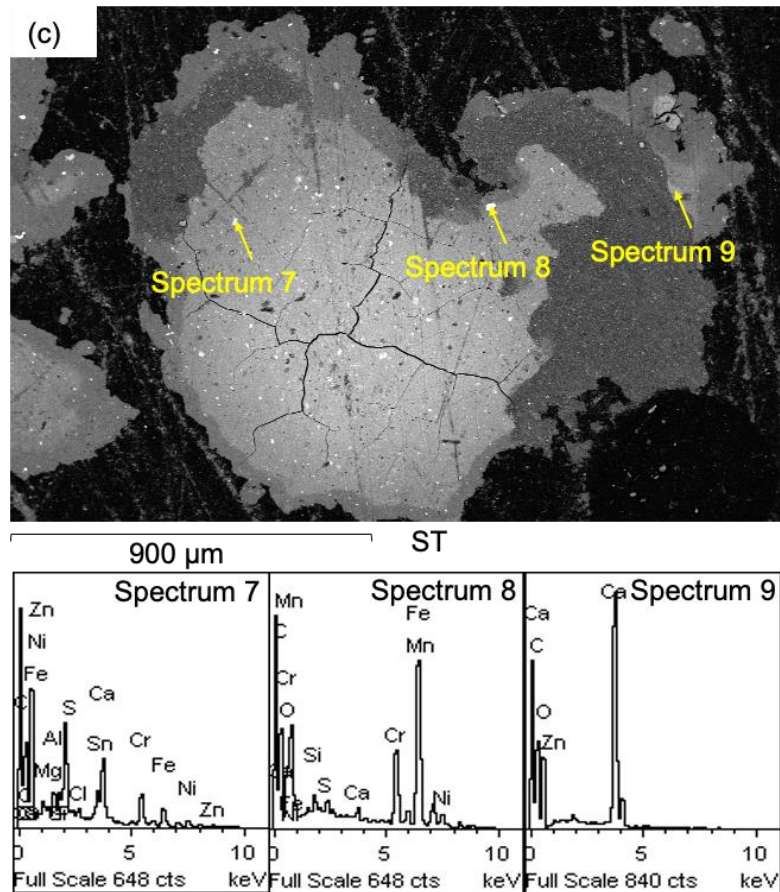
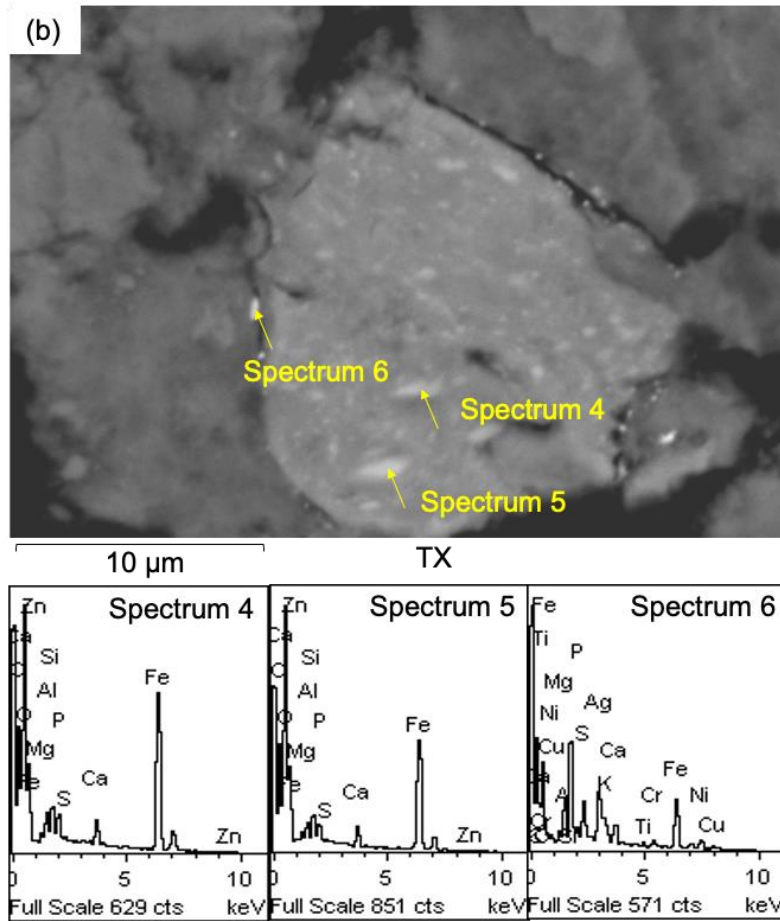
Figure E7c and d).

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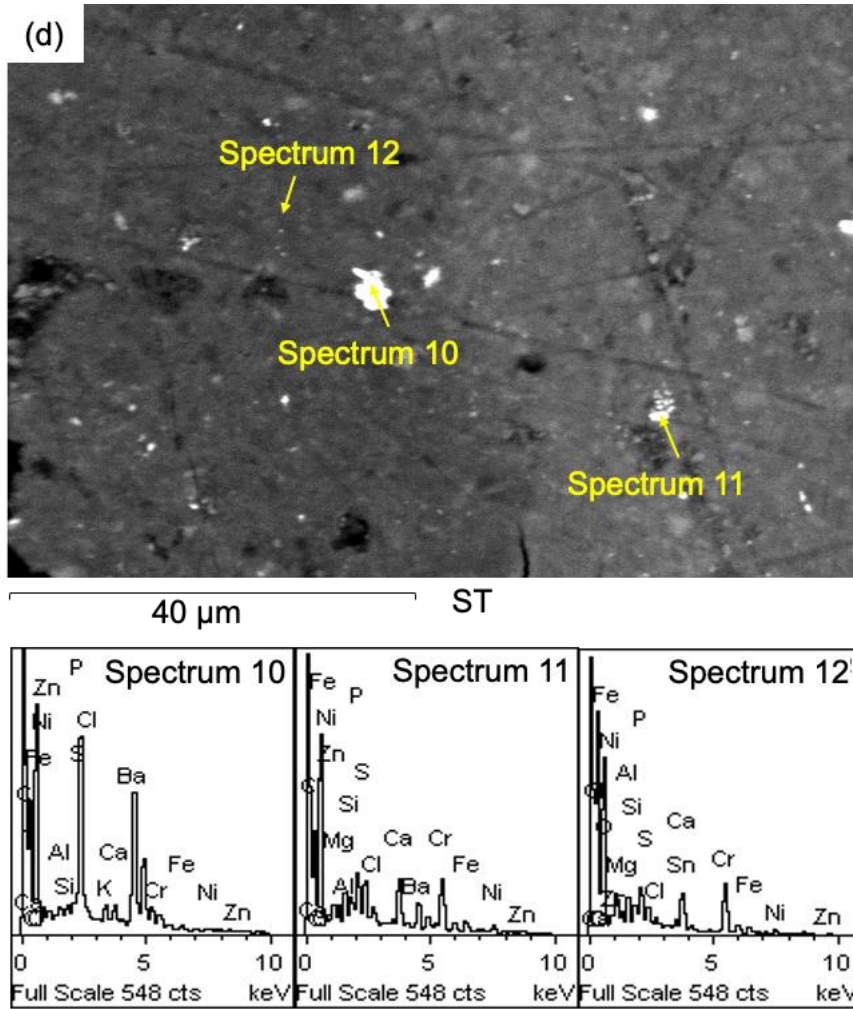


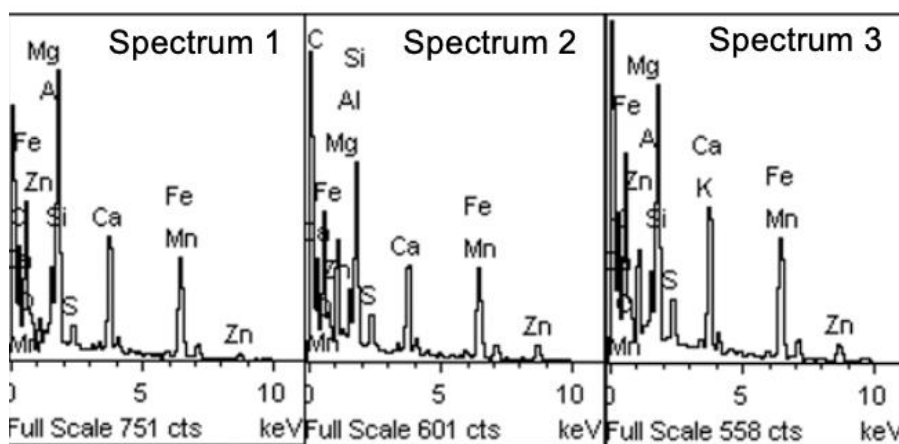
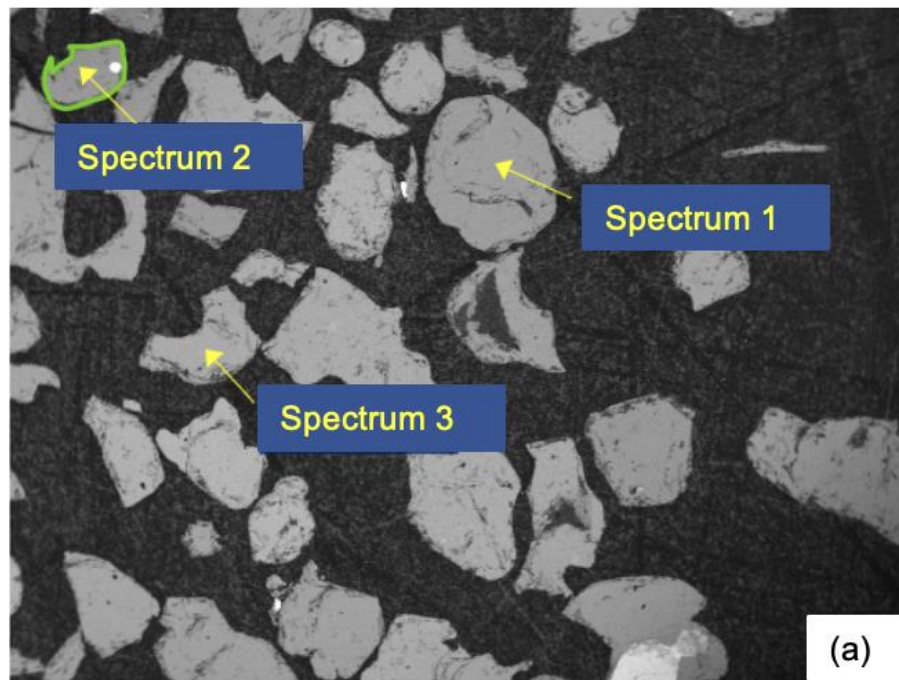
Figure E7 Representative examples of Scanning Electron Microscopy images with Energy Dispersive Spectroscopy analysis of the polished TX (a and b) and ST (c and d)



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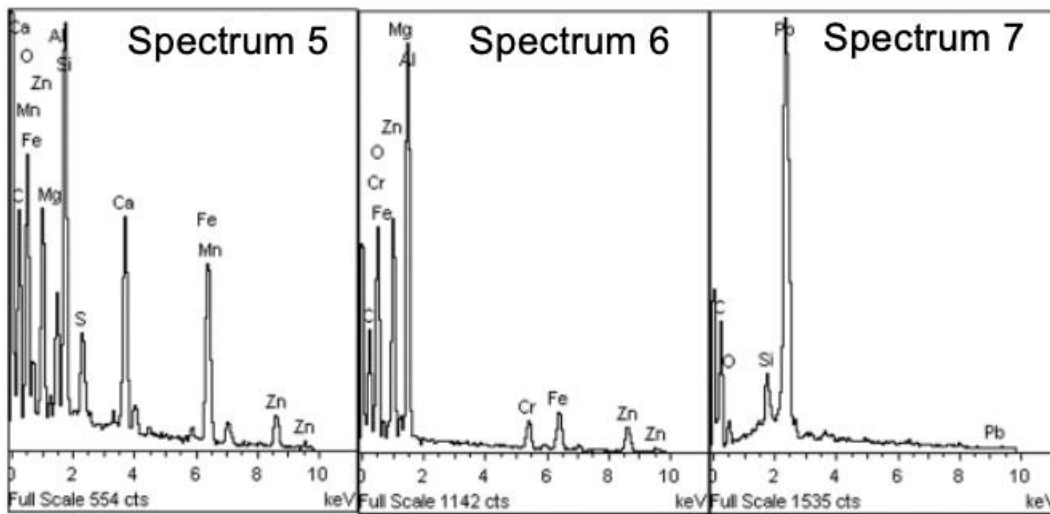
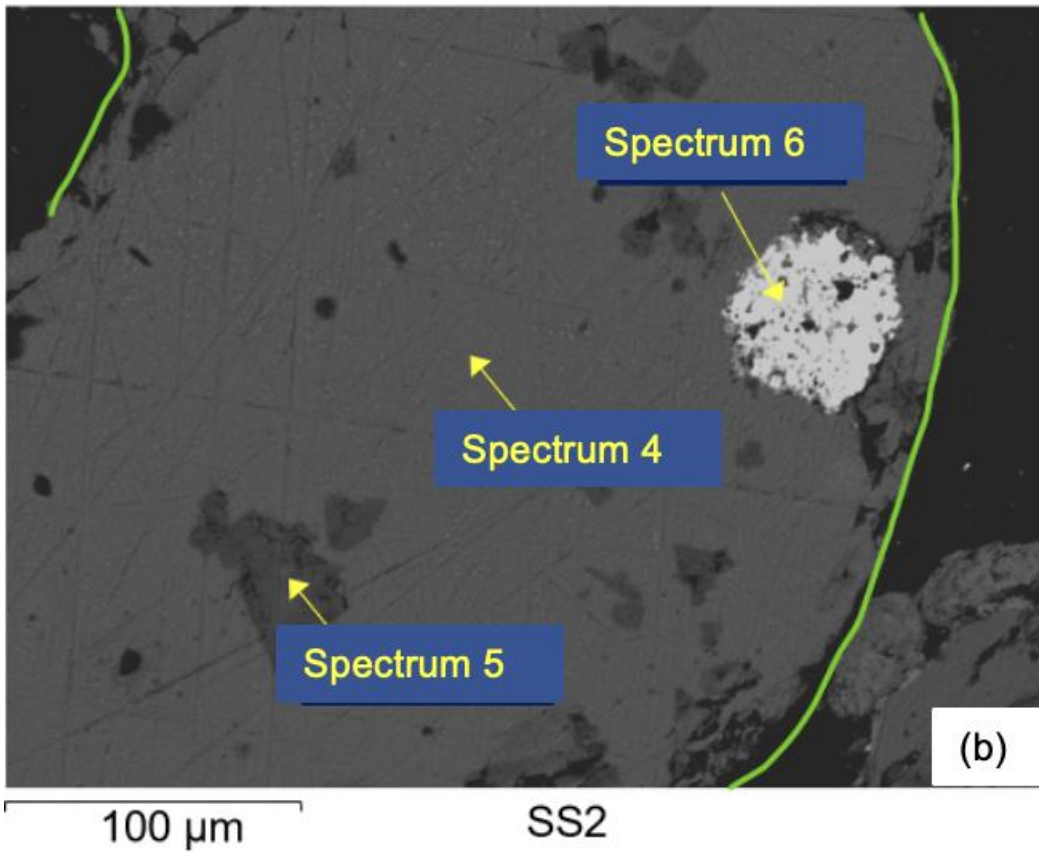
### (b) Pb/Zn Smelter Slag

The SEM/EDS results indicated that our smelter slag sample mainly contains glassy particles consisting of Ca, Fe, Zn, Si, Al, and O with impurities of other elements (e.g., Mg and S) (Spectra 1-4 and 7-10), and inclusions of Pb oxide, carbon, Pb (Spectra 6), Cu oxide with impurities of sulfides with impurities of As, Cu and Sb (Spectra 11-12) (Figure E8). Tiny crystals (about 1 $\mu$ m) of mainly Fe and Zn were also observed in the glassy particles (Spectrum 5).

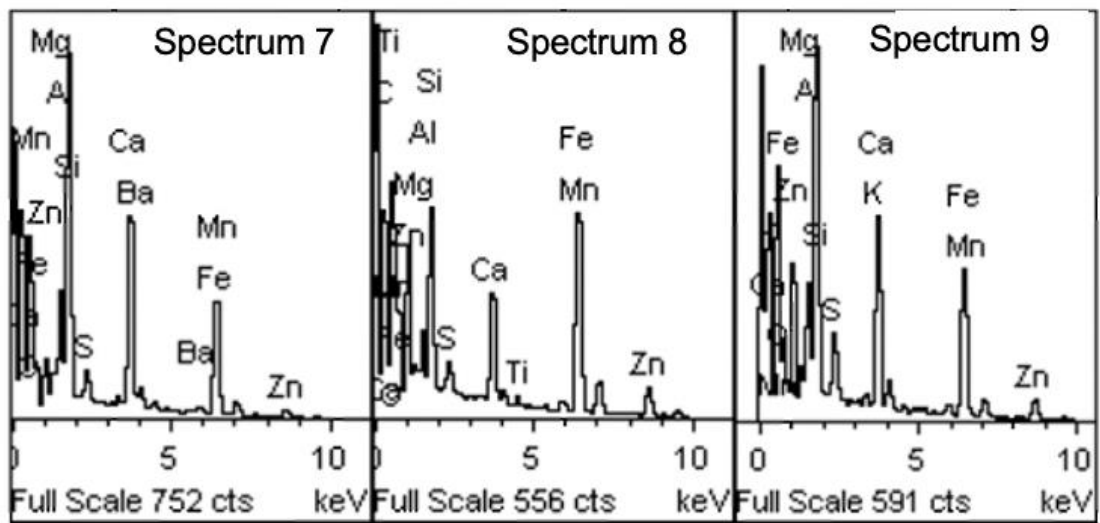
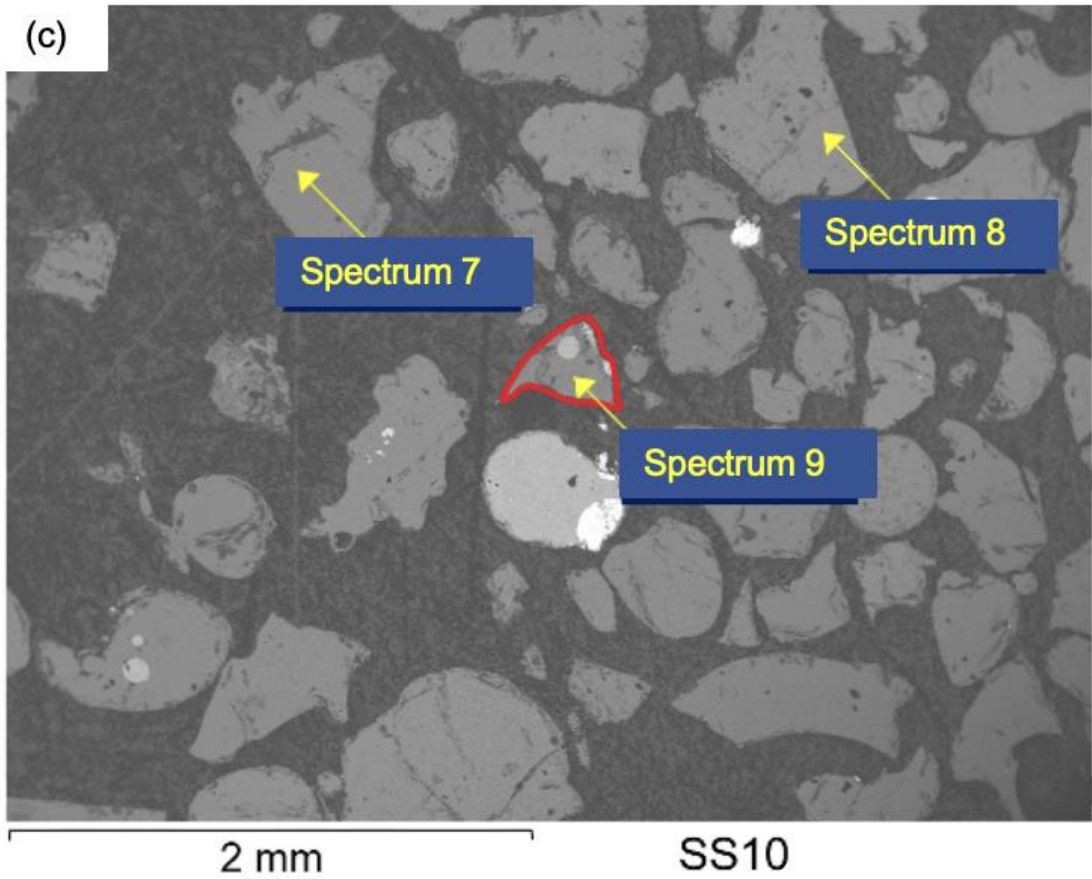


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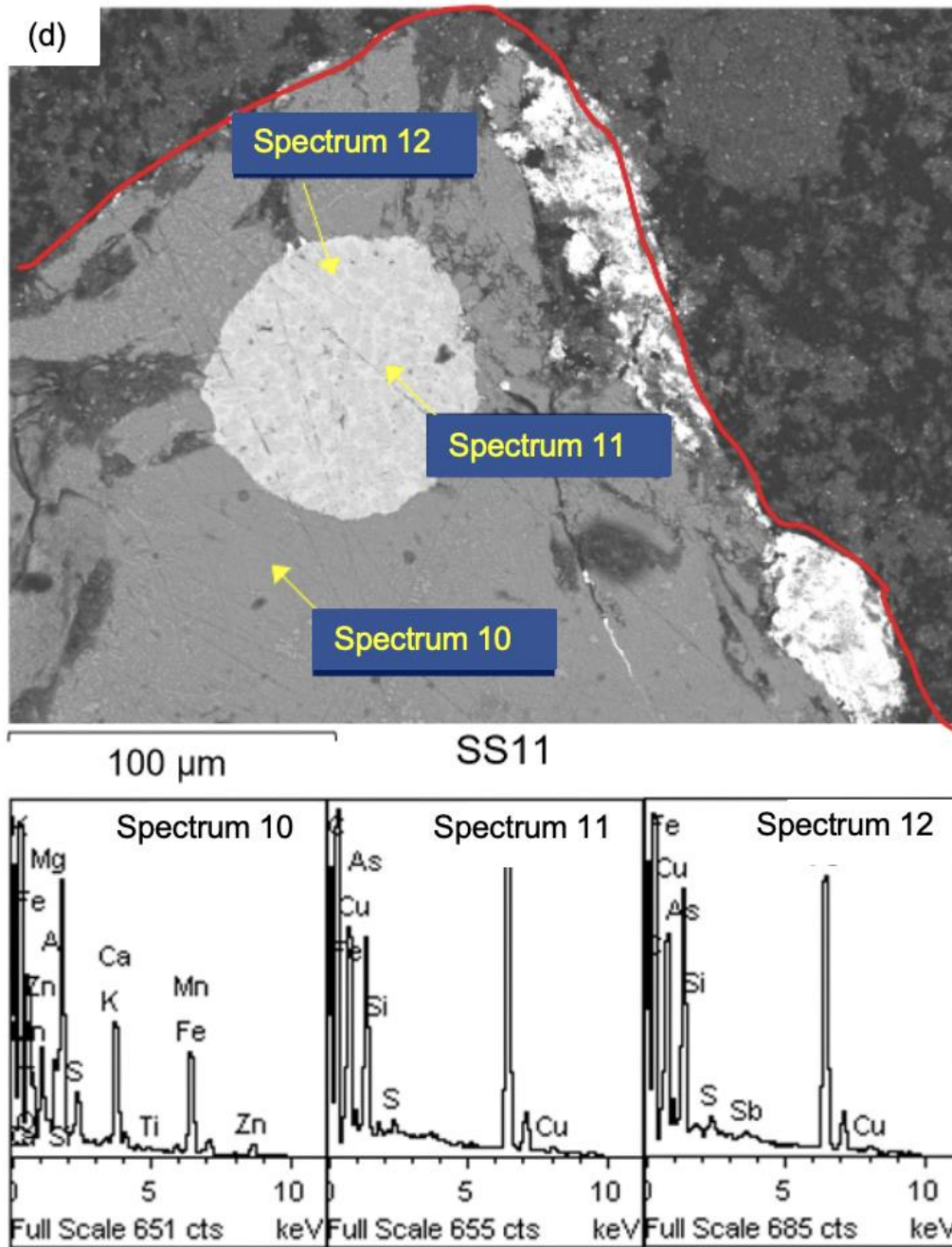


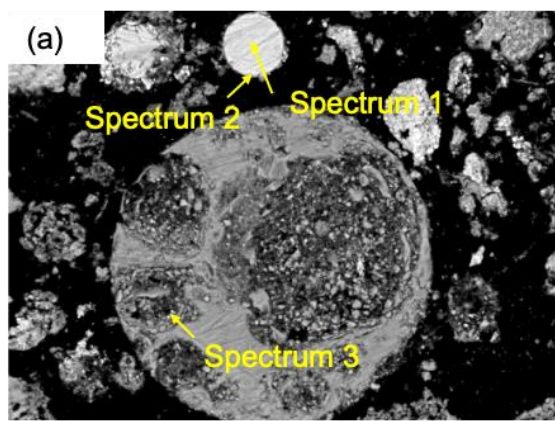
Figure E8 Scanning Electron Microscopy with Energy Dispersive Spectroscopy (SEM-EDS) of the Pb/Zn smelter slag sample.



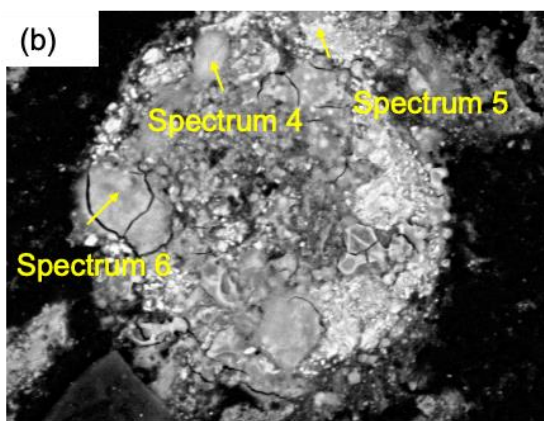
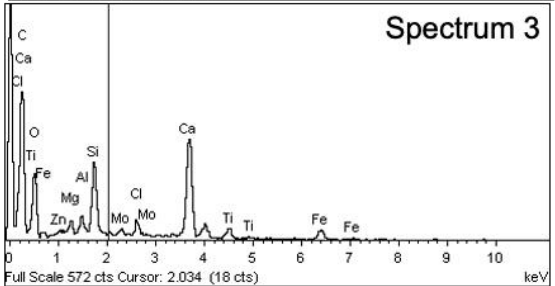
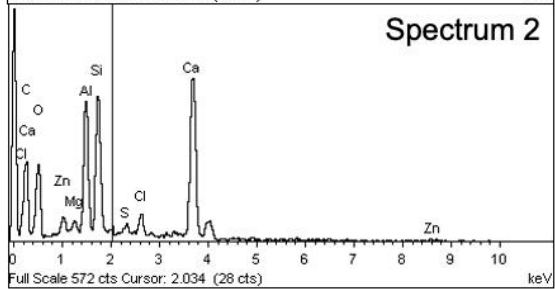
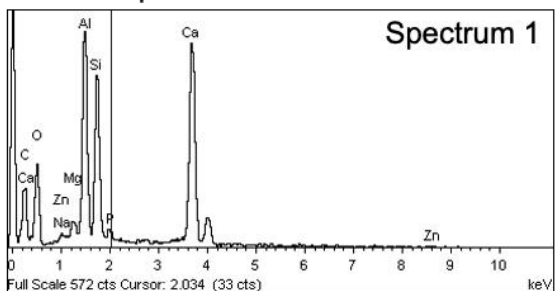
### (c) Air Pollution Control Residues

Both raw and washed APCRs contain aggregates, spherical particles, glassy and fine phases. These samples have plenty of spherical particles of different sizes (10–150  $\mu\text{m}$ ). The spherical particles are aluminosilicates with impurities of some elements. A calcium aluminosilicate spherical particle contains impurities of Cl, Fe, Mg, Na, S, Ti, and Zn (spectra 1-3 in Figure E9a), while a spherical particle of calcium silicate containing K, Na and Zn (spectra 4 in Figure E9b). In Figure E9c, cenosphere particles contains high Ca carbonates with impurities of some elements (e.g., Cl, Cu and Zn), with a small portion of aluminosilicates with impurities of some elements (e.g., Cl, Cu and Zn) (see spectra 7-9). The area of APCR, highlighted by green curve in Figure E9c, is zooming in and further investigated in Figure E9d. In Figure E9d, APCR sample also contains unshaped particles, mainly consists of Ca silicates glass and Ca carbonates with impurities of Cl, K, Na, P, S, and Zn (spectra 10-12).

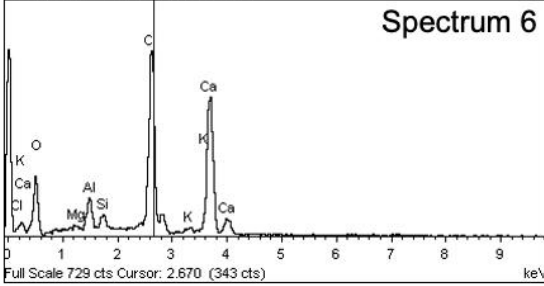
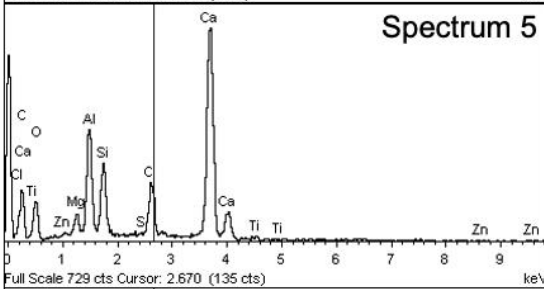
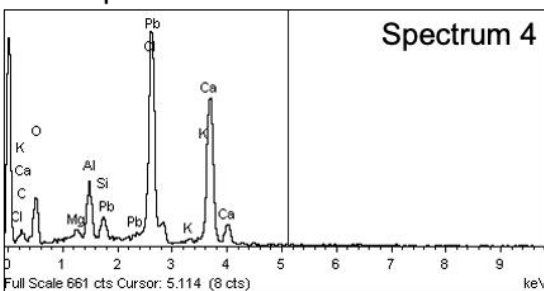
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80  $\mu$ m APCR



60  $\mu$ m APCR



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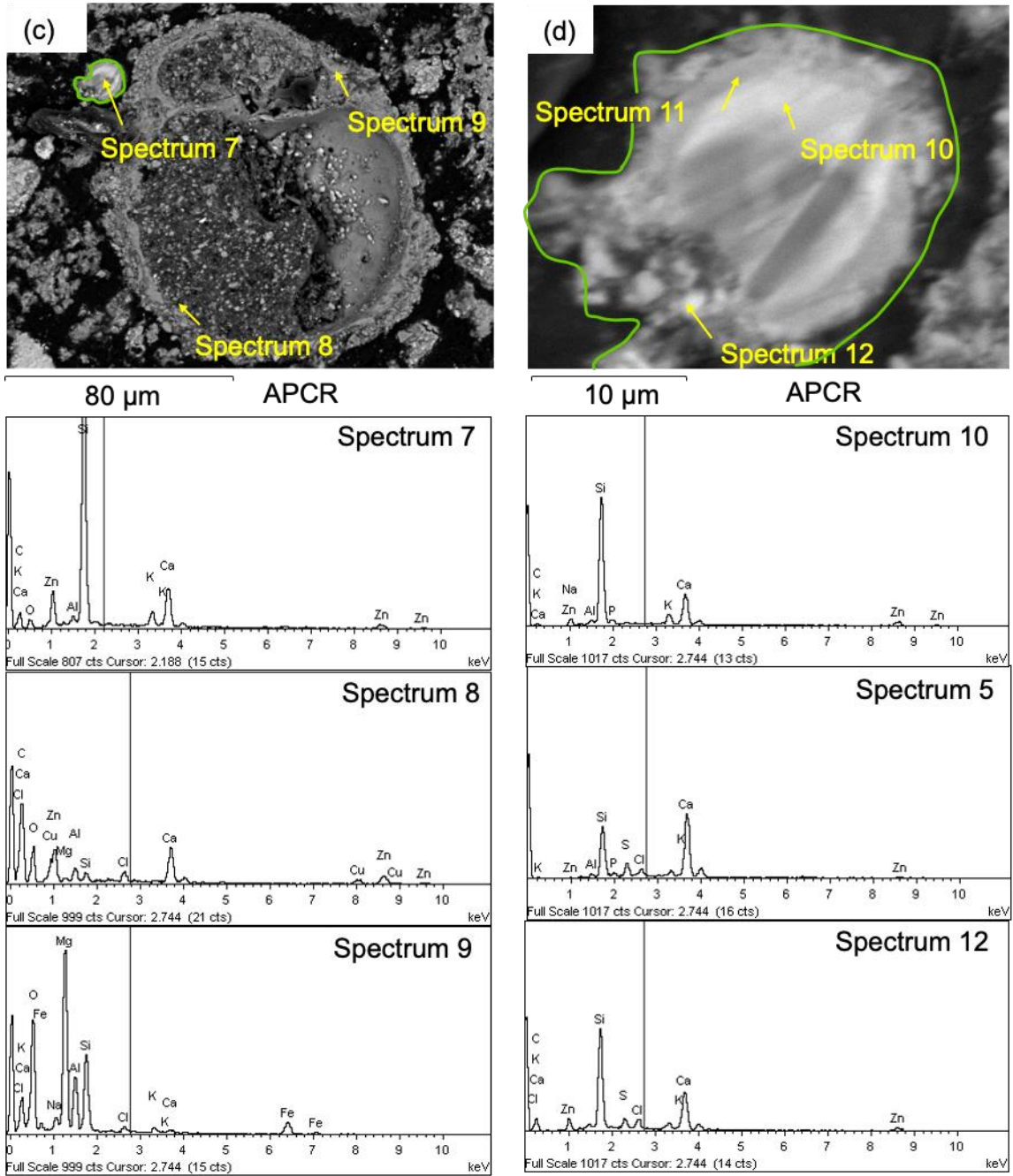


Figure E9 Scanning Electron Microscopy with Energy Dispersive Spectroscopy (SEM-EDS) of the APCR sample (a-d).

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## Appendix E

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## Appendix F Curve Fitting to Theoretical Standards

### F.1 Curve Fitting of Cr Reference Materials to Theoretical Standards

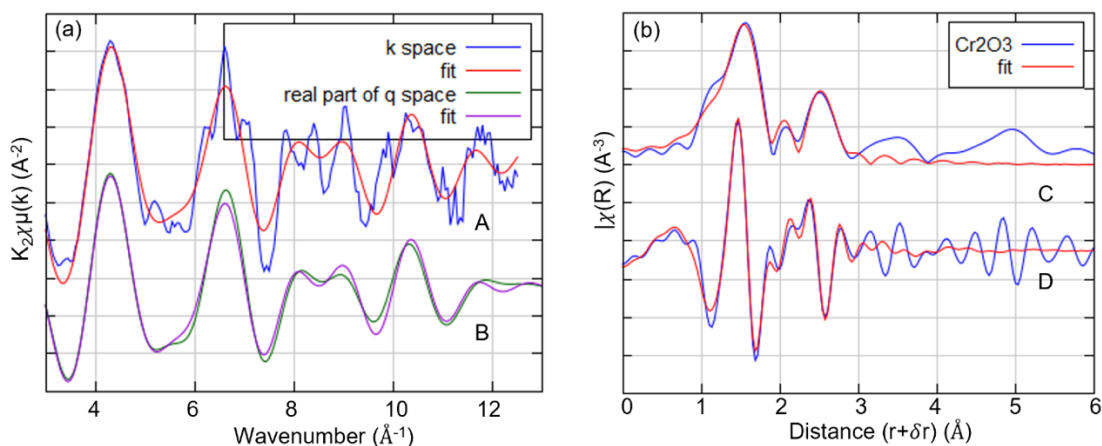


Figure F1 The  $\chi(k)$  spectra of  $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3$  as measured (A) and fitted and filtered from the corresponding Fourier Transform spectrum (FT) by back Fourier Transformation (B) (a). Spectrum B has been filtered from the 1.0-3.0 Å region; FT spectra of  $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3$  as measured and fitted in magnitude (C) and in real part (D) (b). FT spectrum is uncorrected for phase shift. k-range is 3-11.5 Å<sup>-1</sup>.

Table F1 Structural parameters derived from curve fitting to theoretical standards for Cr reference materials.

Cr reference materials	Filter (Å)	shell	CN	CN <sub>ref</sub>	R (Å)	R <sub>ref</sub>	ΔR	σ <sup>2</sup> (Å)	ΔE <sub>0</sub> (eV)	R-factor
$\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3$	1.0-2.0	Cr-O	3.0*	6.0	1.953	1.989	-0.013	0.003	1.19	0.026
		Cr-O	3.0*		1.999		-0.013	0.003		
	2.0-3.0	Cr-Cr	1.0*	3.7	2.673	2.849	0.023	0.003		
		Cr-Cr	3.0*		2.912		0.023	0.003		

Amplitude reduction factor  $SO^2$  is set as 0.70 by fitting  $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3$  standard;

\* fixed value;

The reference for CN<sub>ref</sub> and R<sub>ref</sub> are summarised in Table A7, Appendix A.

## F.2 Curve Fitting of Cu Reference Materials to Theoretical Standards

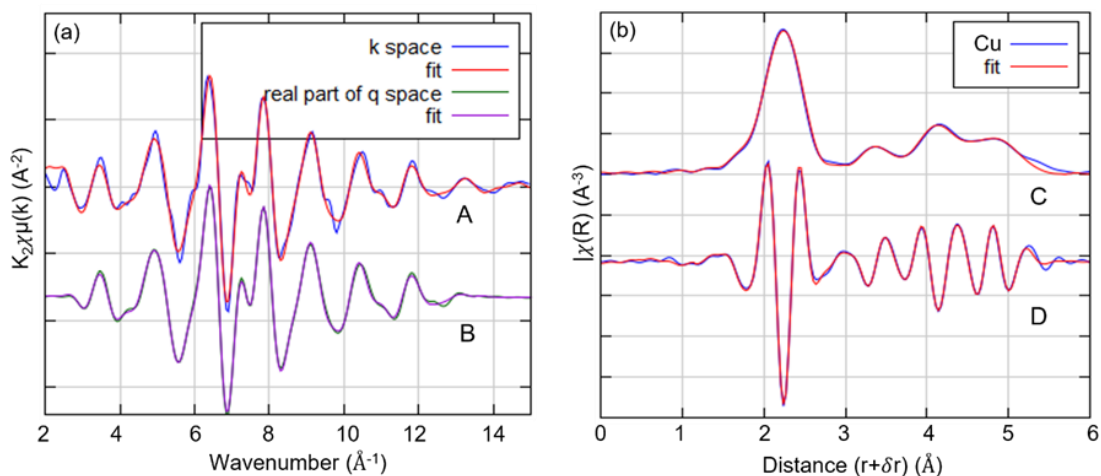


Figure F2 The  $\chi(k)$  spectra of Cu as measured and fitted (A) and filtered from the corresponding Fourier Transformation (FT) spectrum by back Fourier Transformation(B) (a). Spectrum B has been filtered from the 1.0-5.7  $\text{\AA}$  region; FT spectrum for Cu as measured and fitted in magnitude (C) and in real part (D) (b). FT spectrum is uncorrected for phase shift. k-range is 3.0-13.0  $\text{\AA}^{-1}$ .

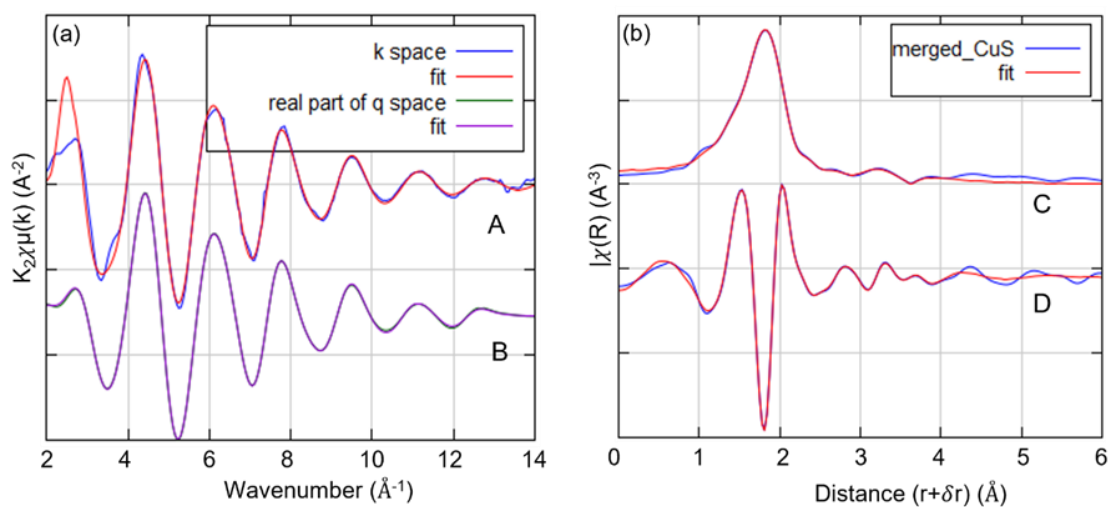


Figure F3 The  $\chi(k)$  spectra of CuS as measured and fitted (A) and filtered from the corresponding Fourier Transformation (FT) spectrum by back Fourier Transformation(B) (a). Spectrum B has been filtered from the 1.0-4.0  $\text{\AA}$  region; FT spectrum for CuS as measured and fitted in magnitude (C) and in real part (D) (b). FT spectrum is uncorrected for phase shift. k-range is 3.0-13.0  $\text{\AA}^{-1}$ .

Table F2 Structural parameters derived from curve fitting to theoretical standard for Cu reference materials

Cu reference materials	Filter (Å)	shell	CN	CN <sub>ref</sub>	R (Å)	R <sub>ref</sub>	ΔR	σ <sup>2</sup> (Å)	ΔE <sub>0</sub> (eV)	R-factor
Cu	1.0-2.8	Cu-Cu1.1	12.0*	12	2.546	2.548	0.005	0.009	5.21	0.0039
		Cu-Cu1.2	6.0*	6	3.609	3.571	0.015	0.013		
	2.8-5.7	Cu-Cu1.1 Cu1.1	48.0*	/	3.820	/	0.007	0.014		
		Cu-Cu1.1 Cu1.2	48.0*	/	4.351	/	0.013	0.016		
		Cu-Cu1.3	24.0*	24	4.435	4.466	0.033	0.011		
CuS	1.0-2.8	Cu-S1.1	3.0*	3.1	2.234	2.242	0.044	0.006	4.65	0.0007
		Cu-S2.1	6.0*	6.0	3.469	3.220	0.004	0.010		
	2.8-4.0	Cu-S2.1	6.0*	6.0	3.505	3.778	-0.250	0.039		
		Cu-Cu1.1	6.0*	6.0	3.747	3.812	-0.047	0.028		

Amplitude reduction factor  $SO^2$  is set as 0.93 by fitting Cu standard;

\* fixed value;

The reference for CN<sub>ref</sub> and R<sub>ref</sub> are summarised in Table A8, Appendix A.

## F.3 Curve Fitting of Ni Reference Materials to Theoretical Standards

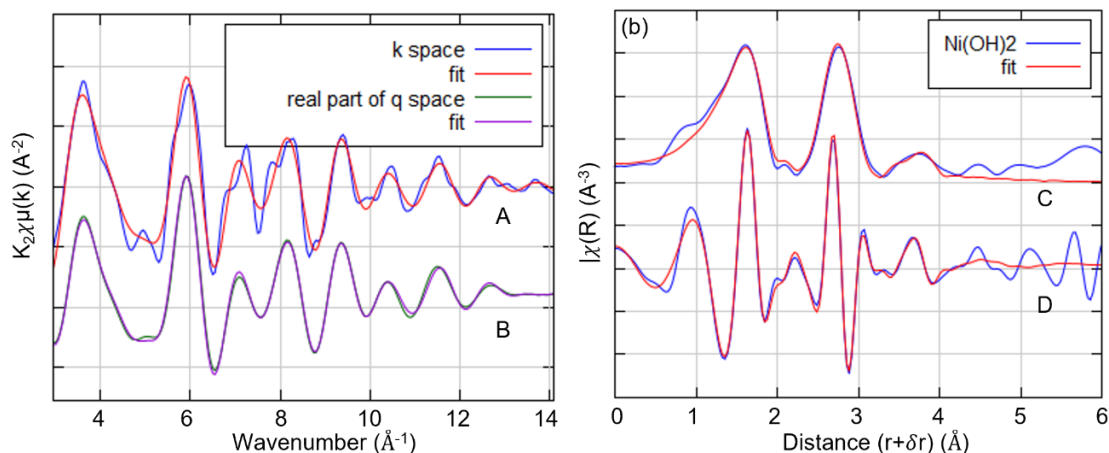


Figure F4 The  $\chi(k)$  spectra of  $\beta$ -Ni(OH)<sub>2</sub> as measured (A) and fitted and filtered from the corresponding Fourier Transform spectrum (FT) by back Fourier Transformation (B) (a). Spectrum B has been filtered from the 1.0-3.3 Å region; FT spectra of Ni(OH)<sub>2</sub> as measured and fitted in magnitude (C) and in real part (D) (b). FT spectrum is uncorrected for phase shift. k-range is 3-13.0 Å<sup>-1</sup>

Table F3 Structural parameters derived from curve fitting to theoretical standards for Ni reference materials

Ni reference materials	Filter (Å)	shell	CN	CN <sub>ref</sub>	R (Å)	R <sub>ref</sub>	ΔR	σ <sup>2</sup> (Å)	ΔE <sub>0</sub> (eV)	R-factor
β-Ni(OH) <sub>2</sub>	1.0-2.0	Ni-O	6.0*	6.0	2.064	2.094	-0.004	0.007	-5.362	0.007
	2.0-3.3	Ni-O	6.0*	6.0	3.124	3.119	-0.026	0.007	-5.362	
	3.3-4.2	Ni-O	5.9	/	4.178	/	0.060	0.007	7.218	
		Ni-O	0.8	/	3.759	/	-0.009	0.007	7.218	

Amplitude reduction factor  $SO^2$  is set as 0.96 by fitting Ni(OH)<sub>2</sub> standard;

\* fixed value;

/ unknown;

The reference for CN<sub>ref</sub> and R<sub>ref</sub> are summarised in Table A9, Appendix A.

## F.4 Curve fitting of Zn Reference Materials to Theoretical Standards

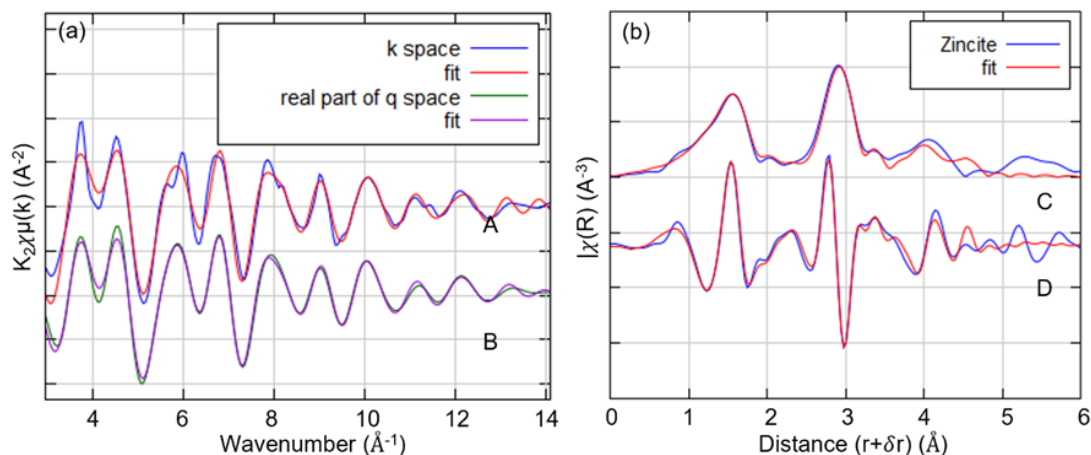


Figure F5 The  $\chi(k)$  spectra of zincite (ZnO) as measured (A) and fitted and filtered from the corresponding Fourier Transform spectrum (FT) by back Fourier Transformation(B) (a). Spectrum B has been filtered from the 1.0-3.5 Å region; FT spectra of zincite as measured and fitted in magnitude (C) and in real part (D) (b). FT spectrum is uncorrected for phase shift. k-range is 3-13.5 Å<sup>-1</sup>.

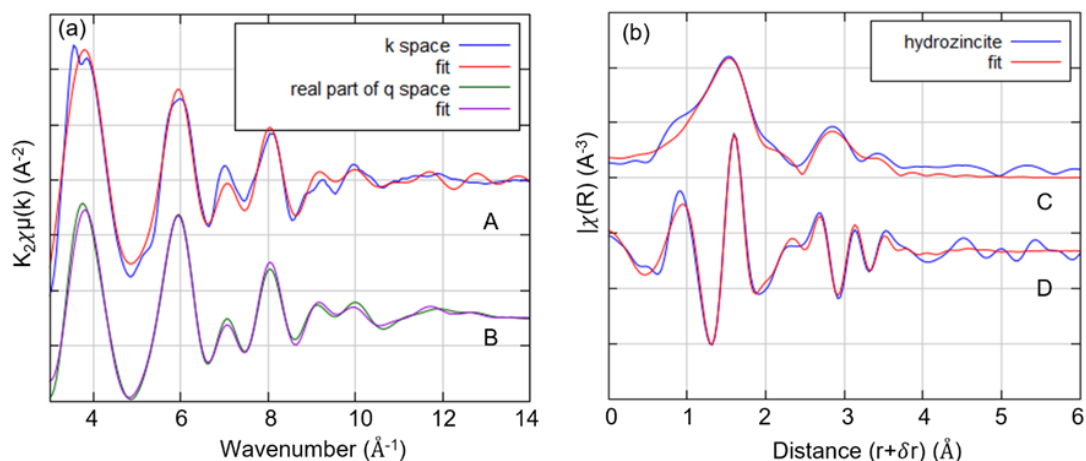


Figure F6 The  $\chi(k)$  spectra of hydrozincite ( $2ZnCO_3 \cdot 3Zn(OH)_2$ ) as measured (A) and fitted and filtered from the corresponding Fourier Transform spectrum (FT) by back Fourier Transformation(B) (a). Spectrum B has been filtered from the 1.0-3.8 Å region; FT spectra of hydrozincite as measured and fitted in magnitude (C) and in real part (D) (b). FT spectrum is uncorrected for phase shift. k-range is 3-12.0 Å<sup>-1</sup>.



## Appendix F

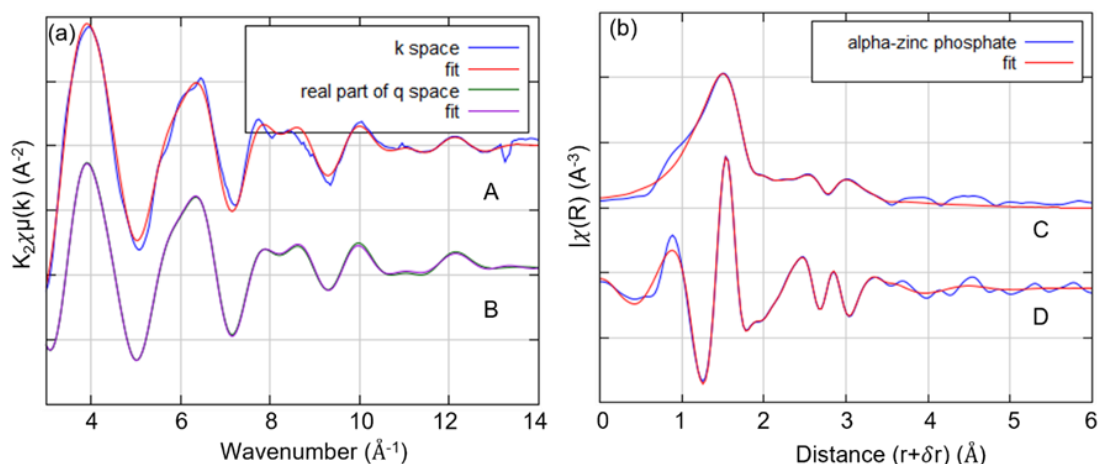


Figure F7 The  $\chi(k)$  spectra of alpha-zinc phosphate ( $\text{Zn}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$ ) as measured (A) and fitted and filtered from the corresponding Fourier Transform spectrum (FT) by back Fourier Transformation (B) (a). Spectrum B has been filtered from the 1.0-3.6  $\text{\AA}$  region; FT spectra of alpha-zinc phosphate as measured and fitted in magnitude (C) and in real part (D) (b). FT spectrum is uncorrected for phase shift. k-range is 3-13.5  $\text{\AA}^{-1}$ .

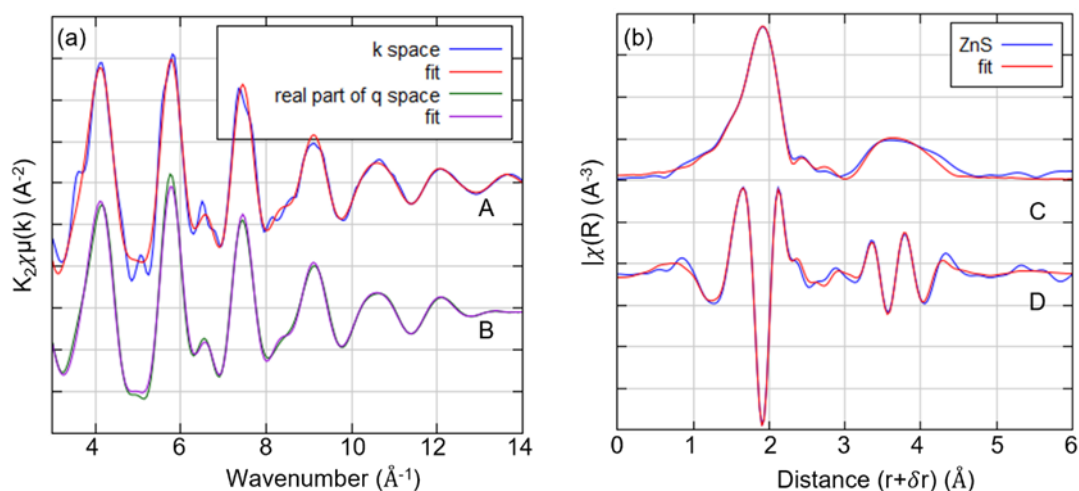


Figure F8 The  $\chi(k)$  spectra of zinc sulfide ( $\text{ZnS}$ ) as measured (A) and fitted and filtered from the corresponding Fourier Transform spectrum (FT) by back Fourier Transformation (B) (a). Spectrum B has been filtered from the 1.0-4.8  $\text{\AA}$  region; FT spectra of zinc sulfide as measured and fitted in magnitude (C) and in real part (D) (b). FT spectrum is uncorrected for phase shift. k-range is 3-12.9  $\text{\AA}^{-1}$ .



## Appendix F

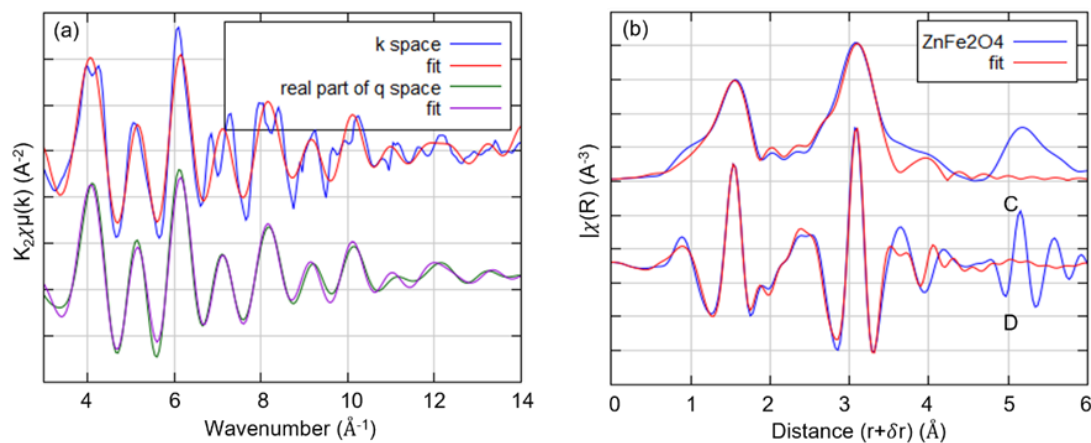


Figure F9 The  $\chi(k)$  spectra of zinc ferrite ( $\text{ZnFe}_2\text{O}_4$ ) as measured (A) and fitted and filtered from the corresponding Fourier Transform spectrum (FT) by back Fourier Transformation (B) (a). Spectrum B has been filtered from the 1.0-4  $\text{\AA}$  region; FT spectra of zinc ferrite as measured and fitted in magnitude (C) and in real part (D) (b). FT spectrum is uncorrected for phase shift. k-range is 3-13.5  $\text{\AA}^{-1}$

Table F4 Structural parameters derived from curve fitting to theoretical standards for Zn reference materials.

Zn reference materials	Filter (Å)	shell	CN	CN <sub>ref</sub>	R (Å)	R <sub>ref</sub>	ΔR	σ <sup>2</sup> (Å)	ΔE <sub>0</sub> (eV)	R-factor			
ZnO	1.0-2.0	Zn-O	4*	4	1.965	1.81-1.98	0.011	0.006	4.584	0.025			
		Zn-Zn	12*	11.7-12.4	3.208	3.21-3.23	0.028	0.010					
	2.0-3.4	Zn-O	12*	/	3.569	/	0.017	0.009					
		Zn-O/Zn	24*	/	3.569	/	0.025	0.020					
		Zn-O	9*	/	3.768	/	0.001	0.006					
		Zn-O	36*	/	4.471	/	0.017	0.009					
	3.4-4.5 Å	Zn-Zn	36*	/	4.471	/	0.033	0.015					
		Zn-Zn	6*	/	4.537	/	0.091	0.005					
		Zn-O	6*	/	4.575	/	-0.100	-0.001					
		Zn-O	4*	4	1.980	1.95	-0.069	0.007			-1.13		
	2ZnCO <sub>3</sub> ·3Zn(OH) <sub>2</sub>	1.0-2.0	Zn-O	6*	6	2.040	2.05-2.10	-0.069			0.007	-1.13	0.015
			Zn-Zn	1.2	1.7-6.3	3.110	3.14-3.22	-0.066			0.007		
2.0-3.8		Zn-O	1.8	2.3-7.7	3.550	3.22-3.55	-0.053	0.007					
		Zn-O	1.8	2.3-7.7	3.550	3.22-3.55	-0.053	0.007					

Continued to previous page

$\alpha$ -Zn <sub>3</sub> (PO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>	1.0-2.0	Zn-O	4*	4.0	1.959	1.95-1.98	0.029	0.008	0.769	0.0022
	2.0-3.6	Zn-P	4*	1.1-4.0	3.058	3.03-3.10	-0.015	0.019		
		Zn-O	2*	/	2.943	/	-0.151	0.005		
		Zn-Zn	2*	0.9-3.0	3.251	3.3-3.4	-0.132	0.014		
		Zn-O	2*	/	3.687	/	0.183	0.012		
		Zn-O	6*	/	3.677	/	-0.103	0.051		
ZnS	1.0-3.0	Zn-S	4*	4.0-4.3	2.340	2.33-2.35	-0.0019	0.0058	3.804	0.0087
	3.0-4.8	Zn-Zn	12*	/	3.840	/	0.015	0.015	3.804	
		Zn-S / Zn	24*	/	4.260	/	0.005	0.014	3.804	
		Zn-S	12*	/	4.252	/	-0.003	0.009	3.804	
		Zn-S	12*	7.91	4.456	4.46	-0.029	0.016	3.804	

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ZnFe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	1.0-2.0	Zn-O	4*	3.7-4.0	1.808	1.98-1.99	0.147	0.004	-0.085
		Zn-O	12*	/	3.610	/	0.149	0.007	9.973
		Zn-Fe	12*	12-17.3	3.547	3.5	0.085	0.007	7.688
		Zn-Zn	4*	4.0-5.9	3.705	3.7-3.8	0.089	0.007	7.688
		Zn-O	48*	/	4.287	/	0.176	-0.005	9.973
		Zn-O	24*	/	3.978	/	0.299	0.007	-0.085

0.039

Amplitude reduction factor SO<sup>2-</sup> is set as 0.93 by fitting ZnO standard;

\* fixed value;

The fixed ratio for ZnO<sub>4</sub> and ZnO<sub>6</sub> in 2ZnCO<sub>3</sub>:3Zn(OH)<sub>2</sub> is 2:3.

/ unknown;

The reference for CN<sub>ref</sub> and R<sub>ref</sub> are summarised in Table A10, Appendix A.

