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Time-resolved laser-induced fluorescence spectroscopy and chemometrics for 1 fast identification of U(VI)-bearing minerals in a mining context 2 Jean-Baptiste Sirven^{a,*}, Stéphanie Szenknect^b, Evelyne Vors^a, Eddie Anzalone^b, Sofian 3 4 Benarib^b, Papa-Masserigne Sarr^a, Pascal E. Reiller^a, Adel Mesbah^c, Nicolas Dacheux^b, Thomas Vercouter^{a,1}, Michaël Descostes^{d,e} 5 6 ^a Université Paris-Saclay, CEA, Service d'Etudes Analytiques et de Réactivité des Surfaces 7 (SEARS), F-91191 Gif-sur-Yvette, France. 8 ^b ICSM, Univ Montpellier, CEA, CNRS, ENSCM, Site de Marcoule, Bagnols-sur-Cèze, France. 9 ^c IRCELYON, CNRS – UCBL, 2 avenue Albert Einstein, 69626 Villeurbanne Cedex, France. 10 ^d ORANO Mining, Environmental R&D Dpt., 125 avenue de Paris, 92320 Chatillon, France. ^e Centre de Géosciences, MINES Paris, PSL Research University, Paris, France. 11 12 ¹ present address: Université Paris-Saclay, CEA, Service d'Etudes des Matériaux Irradiés 13 14 (SEMI), F-91191 Gif-sur-Yvette, France 15 * Corresponding author: jean-baptiste.sirven@cea.fr 16 17 18 Abstract 19

We evaluated the potential of time-resolved laser-induced fluorescence spectroscopy (TRLFS) 20 21 combined with chemometric methods for fast identification of U(VI)-bearing minerals in a mining context. We analyzed a sample set which was representative of several environmental 22 23 conditions. The set consisted of 80 uranium-bearing samples related to mining operations, 24 including natural minerals, minerals with uranium sorbed on the surface, and synthetic phases 25 prepared and characterized specifically for this study. The TRLF spectra were processed using 26 the Ward algorithm and the K-nearest neighbors (KNN) method to reveal similarities between 27 samples and to rapidly identify the uranium-bearing phase and the associated mineralogical 28 family. The predictive models were validated on an independent dataset, and then applied to 29 test samples mostly taken from U mill tailings. Identification results were found to be in 30 accordance with the available characterization data from X-ray diffraction (XRD) and scanning 31 electron microscopy-energy dispersive X-ray spectrometry (SEM-EDX). This work shows that 32 TRLFS can be an effective decision-making tool for environmental investigations or geological 33 prospection, considering the large diversity of uranium-bearing mineral phases and their low concentration in environmental samples. 34

36 Keywords

37 TRLFS; chemometrics; uranium; speciation; environment; identification

38

39 Highlights

- 40 A set of 80 natural and synthetic uranium-bearing samples is analyzed by TRLFS
- A KNN model is built to identify the mineralogical family and the sample
- 42 Predictions of samples from mining sites are consistent with characterization data
- Enables fast characterization of uranium-bearing phases in environmental samples
- TRLFS has a strong potential as a decision-making tool for environmental studies
- 45

46 Graphical Abstract



49 **1. Introduction**

50 Uranium is a trace element on Earth with a mobility strongly constrained by its chemical 51 properties and water-rock interactions. In reducing conditions, uranium occurs mostly in its 52 +IV redox state and is known to precipitate mainly in the form of poorly soluble minerals, such 53 as uraninite (UO_2) and/or coffinite $(USiO_4)$, which are the sources of many deposits [1]-[5]. In 54 oxidizing conditions, uranium in its +VI redox state is considered to be more mobile. It can 55 precipitate in neutral to alkaline conditions (e.g. schoepite, meta-schoepite), and in the 56 presence of inorganic ligands (e.g. phosphate, vanadate, carbonate, sulfate, silicate). It can 57 also be immobilized by retention processes on the surface of natural minerals (clays, metallic 58 oxides) and organic matter – see references [6]-[11]. To date, more than 250 U-bearing 59 minerals have been described in the literature [12]. The coexistence of several uranium phases 60 within real samples, sometimes at the micrometer scale, is often observed [12]. The mineral 61 assemblage provides information on the evolution of the in situ physico-chemical conditions. 62 It is therefore of prime importance to identify the different U-bearing minerals in order to 63 better understand uranium's mobility, so that appropriate measures to limit their 64 environmental impact can be taken. This is particularly true in the case of studies on the 65 formation of uranium deposits, but it is also relevant in order to assess and predict the 66 environmental footprint of mining sites through the long-term stability of waste rocks and mill tailings [13]-[16]. 67

Several techniques were used to identify the uranium-bearing minerals in natural samples, 68 69 these being X-ray diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscopy – energy dispersive X-ray 70 spectrometry (SEM-EDX), X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS), X-ray photoelectron 71 spectroscopy (XPS), near-infrared spectroscopy and Raman spectroscopy [17]-[20]. These 72 techniques can be combined with elemental analysis and/or imaging in order to characterize 73 uranium minerals and uranium-sorbed phases, but their identification can sometimes be 74 ambiguous. Although useful, these methods require careful sample preparation and take a 75 long time to localize traces of uranium in the samples. Consequently, systematic analyses are 76 very difficult to carry out, and interpretations are usually based on the collection of a few 77 indications of the presence of uranium-bearing solids. This is the main motivation for 78 developing an innovative method that would allow faster and systematic detection of uranium 79 in samples, as well as an identification of the nature of the solids.

The luminescence of uranium minerals, which includes both fluorescence and 80 phosphorescence, has been thoroughly studied since the 1870's [21] [22]. Several emission 81 82 bands have been reported above 20 000 cm⁻¹. It is well established that the fluorescence of 83 uranyl originates from its low-lying excited state, and transitions involve molecular orbitals of 84 the uranyl moiety [23]. The positions of the different emission bands, the spacing between 85 the bands and their intensities mainly result from the coupling of the electronic transitions 86 with the vibronic modes of uranyl, i.e. stretching and bending vibrations. Consequently, the 87 luminescence features are closely related to the coordination chemistry of uranyl in the 88 compounds, which makes luminescence spectroscopy a very good tool for speciation analysis [24]-[27]. Although luminescence includes both fluorescence and phosphorescence
phenomena, fluorescence is a more widely employed term in the field of spectroscopy and for
that reason it was selected for this study.

92 Time-resolved laser-induced fluorescence spectroscopy (TRLFS) has been particularly used for 93 the detection and characterization of uranium(VI) compounds taking advantage of its very 94 high sensitivity and selectivity towards U(VI) [24]-[28], and of the possibility to easily measure 95 liquid, solid and powdered samples. In TRLFS, a species of interest can be selectively excited 96 using a laser pulse, in order to measure its fluorescence lifetime, or its fluorescence emission 97 integrated within a given temporal window after the laser pulse. It is rapid, non-invasive, and 98 non-destructive, which makes it suitable for investigating natural samples in conjunction with 99 different techniques. TRLFS has been applied to both synthetic and natural solid compounds. 100 Many uranium minerals have been characterized by TRLFS, including phosphates, vanadates, 101 oxides and oxy-hydroxides, carbonates, sulfates, silicates, molybdates, and selenates. In an 102 early work, deNeufville et al. studied absorption and fluorescence spectra of the uranyl ion in 103 a collection of rocks, minerals and soils, and measured the fluorescence lifetime [29]. Geipel 104 et al. characterized about 120 uranium minerals with the aim of building a spectral data bank, 105 and reported the fluorescence features for a number of phosphates and arsenates [26]. 106 Amayri et al. continued these characterizations on other minerals like becquerelite and 107 schwartzite [30], as well as phases from the liebigite family [31] [32]. Among the applications 108 of the technique, Morris et al. investigated uranium-contaminated soils from a former 109 uranium-processing site in the USA using several spectroscopic techniques like X-ray 110 absorption spectroscopy, Raman spectroscopy, and TRLFS [33]. Fluorescence spectra were 111 obtained and compared with those from autunite- and schoepite-like minerals from different 112 collections. Following a similar methodology, uranium precipitates such as meta-autunite, 113 phosphuranylite, and uranium(VI) hydroxides were identified in sediments from 114 contaminated USA sites by combining experimental techniques, including micro-fluorescence 115 analysis with a 5 µm spot size [34]. Wang et al. also characterized several uranium silicates for 116 comparison with U(VI)-contaminated sediments in the Hanford site (USA) [35]. As the 117 fluorescence of some U(VI) compounds may be too low or insufficiently resolved to allow a 118 correct detection and identification, detection with a higher spectral resolution and a 119 reduction of the fluorescence quenching effect was achieved using cryogenic TRLFS at Liquid 120 He Temperature (LHeT) [27]. Although such analyses required a more sophisticated 121 experimental apparatus, using low-temperature measurements was helpful for identifying 122 these uranium-bearing phases. TRLFS has been also successfully employed to detect and 123 characterize uranium(VI) sorbed on mineral phases. Using prepared samples of U(VI) sorbed 124 on minerals taken as references, Wang et al. concluded that guartz and phyllosilicates were 125 the main sorbents in sediments responsible for U(VI) uptake [36]. Othmane et al. 126 characterized uranium-bearing opal from the Nopal deposit in Mexico by TRLFS and other 127 techniques [37]. They compared the luminescence features with reference uranium samples, 128 and concluded that uranium may be adsorbed on the mineral as phosphates or polynuclear

hydroxide phases. More recently, Mei et al. used TRLFS to study sorption of U(VI) on illite atdifferent concentrations of dissolved inorganic carbon and variable pH [38].

131 Thus, the effectiveness of TRLFS for detecting uranyl fluorescence even at trace level has 132 already been shown. However, the assignment of recorded spectra to specific mineral phases 133 and uranyl-bearing compounds is still challenging. Similarities in the emission features 134 between mineralogical families and between the phases within a mineralogical family make it 135 a hard task to unambiguously identify a specific compound. A visual comparison of 136 experimental spectra to a reference database is rather limited in speed and accuracy [39], 137 whereas multivariate methods for spectra processing can be very helpful in order to improve 138 both detection and assignment. These methods have been proven to be efficient in several 139 applications of laser-induced fluorescence, particularly in biomedical [40] and environmental 140 [41] fields, and in food science [42]. A few papers have addressed the characterization of 141 uranium(VI) compounds. Wang et al. were able to draw some of their conclusions using 142 multivariate curve resolution-alternating least squares (MCR-ALS) to resolve the time-143 dependent profiles and the pure spectral components of their samples [36]. The authors 144 found that TRLF spectra of U(VI) adsorbed on quartz-chlorite mixtures could be matched by a 145 linear combination of three pure species spectra. Drobot et al. used parallel factor analysis 146 (PARAFAC) to process 3D data, namely time-resolved spectra at different pH values of uranyl 147 solutions. Their approach aimed to extract not only the stability constants of mononuclear 148 uranyl(VI) hydrolysis species, but also the individual emission spectra and fluorescence decays 149 [43]. Yet, those different studies on uranium(VI) were limited to the analysis of a few uranium-150 bearing phases and uranyl complexes in solution. In a natural environment, many different 151 minerals associated with uranium can be expected. It is therefore relevant to explore how 152 TRLFS, combined with multivariate methods, can deal with this variability and can be used to 153 identify a larger range of compounds.

154

155 In this study, a set of TRLF spectra was obtained from 80 uranium-bearing samples representative of environmental contexts [44] and especially related to uranium mining 156 157 operations, including natural minerals, minerals with uranium sorbed on the surface, and 158 synthetic phases. Initially, Ward clustering was first performed to reveal similarities between 159 the samples. Then, a predictive K-nearest neighbors (KNN) model was built to identify the 160 uranium-bearing phase and the associated mineralogical family. The models were validated 161 on an independent dataset, and then applied to the TRLF spectra of other samples, particularly 162 those from mining sites. The obtained identification performances demonstrate the feasibility 163 of fast and sensitive speciation analysis of environmental uranium compounds.

164

166 **2. Materials and methods**

167 **2.1. Samples**

168 80 samples were assembled for this study. They are listed in Table 1, with the dominant 169 uranium phase previously determined by different characterization techniques when 170 available. About 58% (46 samples) were synthetic samples prepared specifically in order to 171 have well-controlled reference samples for the chemometric identification model. These 172 samples were in powder form. Clay samples were prepared using adsorption of uranyl on the 173 surface of clay minerals, with a concentration ranging from 10 to 900 ppm, except for the MX 174 003 sample which had 3834 ppm of uranium. Other uranium phases were prepared by specific 175 synthesis protocols. The samples were characterized by X-ray Diffraction (XRD), 176 Thermogravimetric Analysis (TGA), Raman and Infrared Spectrometry, and Scanning Electron 177 Microscopy (SEM). Details of the synthesis and characterization of most synthetic training 178 samples are given in the Supplementary Materials, as well as for two samples from the 179 validation set.

The remaining samples were natural, either taken from the Orano Mining mineralogical 180 collection (17 samples), or sourced from three U mill tailings storage facilities located in France 181 (17 samples): Bellezane (Haute-Vienne), Cellier (Lozère), and Ribière (Creuse). Those samples 182 183 were in the form of small solid fragments. The samples from the mineralogical collection had previously been characterized by XRD and SEM. A few of them were not homogeneous, with 184 the presence of two dominant uranium phases, sometimes not clearly identified. They were 185 subsequently treated as distinct samples, labelled A and B. As for the mining sites samples, 186 some of them were characterized independently with the techniques cited above. 187

189 Table 1 Samples used in this study. The training, validation, and test sets refer to the chemometric model. MC: mineralogical

collection. For the Torbernite samples the brackets refer to the sampling site. Question marks mean that the dominant
 mineralogical family and/or the main uranium phase were not clearly identified by characterization techniques.

Synthetic Dominant mineralogical family Reference Sample name / natural Main uranium phase Acetate Other $UO_2(CH_3COO)_2 \cdot 2H_2O$ ICSM21-01 synt Andersonite Carbonates LANIE15-01 synt $Na_2Ca(UO_2)(CO_3)_3 \cdot 6H_2O$ Ankoleite synt Phosphates $K_2(UO_2)_2(PO_4)_2 \cdot 6H_2O$ ICSM15-01 Autunite Phosphates $Ca(UO_2)_2(PO_4)_2 \cdot 10-12H_2O$ (MC) nat ICSM15-02 Autunite (synthetic) synt Phosphates $Ca(UO_2)_2(PO_4)_2 \cdot 10-12H_2O$ Becquerelite 055 Oxy-hydroxides $Ca(UO_2)_6O_4(OH)_6 \cdot nH_2O$ EA21-055 synt Billietite 049 Oxy-hydroxides $Ba(UO_2)_6O_4(OH)_6 \cdot nH_2O$ EA21-049 synt Ca and U silicate SBb-020 Silicates $Ca(UO_2)_2(Si_2O_5)_3 \cdot 10 H_2O_5)_3 \cdot 10 H_2O_5$ synt Carnotite Vanadates $K_2(UO_2)_2(VO_4)_2 \cdot 3 H_2O$ ICSM15-03 synt Chernikovite ICSM15-04 Phosphates $(H_3O)_2(UO_2)_2(PO_4)_2 \cdot 6 H_2O$ synt EA21-050 Compreignacite 050 Oxy-hydroxides $K_2(UO_2)_6O_4(OH)_6 \cdot 8H_2O$ synt Francevillite Vanadates $Ba(UO_2)_2(VO_4)_2 \cdot 5H_2O$ nat (MC) Illite 005 synt Clays U sorbed on Na-illite EA21-005 Kaolinite 008 synt Clays U sorbed on Na-kaolinite EA21-008 **Fraining set** Kaolinite 029 synt Clays U sorbed on Na-kaolinite EA21-029 Liebigite synt Carbonates Ca₂(UO₂)(CO₃)₃ · 11 H₂O LANIE15-02 EA20-008 Metaschoepite synt Oxides $UO_3 \cdot 2H_2O$ Metazeunerite nat Arsenates $Cu(UO_2)_2(AsO_4)_2 \cdot 8 H_2O$ (MC) Na Zippeite synt Sulfates Na₅(UO₂)₈(SO₄)₄O₅(OH)₃ · 12H₂O SBb-015 Other $UO_2(NO_3) \cdot 6H_2O$ ICSM21-02 Nitrate synt Paraschoepite synt Oxides $UO_3 \cdot 0.8H_2O$ EA21-016 EA21-035 Smectite 035 Clays U sorbed on Na-smectite synt Smectite 036 Clays U sorbed on Na-smectite EA21-036 synt Soddyite Silicates $(UO_2)_2SiO_4 \cdot 2H_2O$ SBb-004 synt Sulfate Sulfates $UO_2(SO_4)$ ICSM21-03 synt Torbernite (BN42) Phosphates $Cu(UO_2)_2(PO_4)_2 \cdot 12H_2O$ (MC) nat Torbernite (synthetic) Phosphates (H₃O)_{0.4}Cu_{0.8}(UO₂)₂(PO₄)₂·7.6H₂O ICSM15-05 synt ICSM21-04 UO3 Oxides UO₃ synt Uranophane 064 EA21-064 synt Silicates $Ca(UO_2)_2(SiO_3OH)_2 \cdot 5H_2O$ SBb-019 Weeksite synt Silicates $K_2(UO_2)_2(Si_5O_{13}) \cdot 4H_2O$ Zippeite Sulfates $K_3(UO_2)_4(SO_4)_2O_3(OH) \cdot 3H_2O$ SBb-005 synt Autunite + oxide Phosphates/Oxides $Ca(UO_2)_2(PO_4)_2 \cdot 10-12H_2O$? (MC) nat Becquerelite 048 Oxy-hydroxides EA21-048 $Ca(UO_2)_6O_4(OH)_6 \cdot nH_2O$ synt Validation set Boltwoodite synt Silicates $K(UO_2)(SiO_3OH) \cdot 1.5H_2O$ SBb-006 Illite 004 synt Clays U sorbed on Na-illite EA21-004 Illite 021 U sorbed on Na-illite EA21-021 Clays synt Illite 025 Clays U sorbed on Na-illite EA21-025 synt Kaolinite 007 Clays U sorbed on Na-kaolinite EA21-007 synt

	Kaolinite 027	synt	Clays	U sorbed on Na-kaolinite	EA21-027
	Kaolinite 030	synt	Clays	U sorbed on Na-kaolinite	EA21-030
	Kaolinite 032	synt	Clays	U sorbed on Na-kaolinite	EA21-032
	MX 001	synt	Clays	U sorbed on MX80 bentonite	EA21-001
	MX 002	synt	Clays	U sorbed on MX80 bentonite	EA21-002
	MX 018	synt	Clays	U sorbed on MX80 bentonite	EA21-018
	Na and U silicate	synt	Silicates	$Na_2(UO_2)_2(Si_2O_5)_3 \cdot 10H_2O$	SBb-014
	Smectite 010	synt	Clays	U sorbed on Na-smectite	EA21-010
	Smectite 011	synt	Clays	U sorbed on Na-smectite	EA21-011
	Smectite 038	synt	Clays	U sorbed on Na-smectite	EA21-038
	Torbernite (BNL)	nat	Phosphates	$Cu(UO_2)_2(PO_4)_2 \cdot 12H_2O$	(MC)
	Torbernite (Margabal)	nat	Phosphates	$Cu(UO_2)_2(PO_4)_2 \cdot 12H_2O$	(MC)
	Uranocircite	nat	Phosphates	$Ba(UO_2)_2(PO_4)_2 \cdot 12H_2O$	(MC)
	Gummite_A	nat	Silicates / Oxides	$Mg(UO_2)_2(SiO_3OH)_2 \cdot 6H_2O + PbO-UO_3 \cdot H_2O$	(MC)
	Gummite_B	nat	Silicates / Oxides	$Mg(UO_2)_2(SiO_3OH)_2 \cdot 6H_2O + PbO-UO_3 \cdot H_2O$	(MC)
	MX 003	synt	Clays	U sorbed on MX80 bentonite	EA21-003
	Parsonsite	nat	Phosphates	$Pb_2UO_2(PO_4)_2 \cdot 2H_2O$	(MC)
	Phosphuranylite	nat	Phosphates	KCa(H ₃ O) ₃ (UO ₂) ₇ (PO ₄) ₄ O ₄ · 8H ₂ O	(MC)
	Smectite U1	synt	Clays	U sorbed on smectite	LANIE15-03
	Smectite U4	synt	Clays	U sorbed on smectite	LANIE15-04
	Torbernite (Lachaux A)	nat	Phosphates ?	Cu(UO ₂) ₂ (PO ₄) ₂ · 8H ₂ O ?	(MC)
	Torbernite (Lachaux B)	nat	unknown	?	(MC)
	Unknown_1	nat	Vanadates ?	?	(MC)
	Unknown_2	nat	Silicates or Oxides ?	U sorbed on quartz ?	(MC)
	Unknown_3	nat	Silicates or Oxides ?	U sorbed on quartz ?	(MC)
	Bellezane 11	nat			BZN11
set	Bellezane 4	nat			BZN4
est	Bellezane 5	nat			BZN5
F	Bellezane 6	nat			BZN6
	Bellezane 7	nat			BZN7
	Cellier 1	nat			CE221222T
	Cellier 2	nat			CE230312T
	Cellier 3	nat			CEL11521T
	Cellier 4	nat			CEL161651T
	Cellier 5	nat			CEL21521T
	Cellier 6	nat			CEL232T
	Cellier 7	nat			CEL342T
	Cellier 8	nat			CEL672T
	Ribière 1	nat			Ri0151T
	Ribière 2	nat			Ri1241393T
	Ribière 3	nat			Ri1851992TB
	Ribière 4	nat			Ri1992041TBS

194 2.2. Experimental apparatus

195 The experimental apparatus is shown in Figure 1, along with an example of a TRLF spectrum 196 of a uranium-bearing phase. The apparatus included a quadrupled Nd:YAG laser at 266 nm 197 and 10 Hz repetition rate (Minilite I, Continuum). This excitation wavelength is not the most 198 selective, but it is within the uranium(VI) charge-transfer bands and it is a good compromise 199 to induce fluorescence in solid samples of various mineralogical phases. The laser delivered a 200 5 ns pulse. The laser beam was shaped by a 50-µm aperture linked to an optical system and 201 directed into an Olympus BX51TRF fluorescence microscope equipped with a 15X microscope 202 objective lens (Thorlabs LMU-15X-UVB). The sample surface was placed beyond the focal point 203 so that the sample was illuminated by a 1 mm diameter laser spot without ablating the sample. 204 The pulse energy on the sample was ca. 25 μ J. The fluorescence emission was collected using 205 a 1 mm diameter optical fiber positioned at 45° at about 3 mm from the sample surface. It 206 was connected to an SR303i spectrometer (Andor) equipped with a 150 µm slit, a 300 207 grooves/mm grating and an intensified CCD camera (iStar, Andor) with 2048 × 512 pixels of 208 13.5 µm cooled to -20°C. The spectrometer was centered at 540 nm and the spectra were 209 recorded between 445 and 635 nm with a linear dispersion of 0.15 nm/pixel.



211

210

- 212 Figure 1 Experimental apparatus and example of a TRLF spectrum of a torbernite sample.
- 213

214 For the powders, the TRLFS measurements were made on mg-sized samples manually 215 positioned on an adhesive tape inside a fume hood for safety reasons: to limit the dispersion 216 of uranium powder and the risk of inhalation. Each spectrum was recorded from 300 laser 217 shots on the same sample location, with a gate delay of 1 μ s after the laser pulse, and an 218 integration time of 200 µs. For most of the samples, 25 spectra were acquired from different 219 zones on the sample surface. For some of them, fewer spectra were acquired due to 220 limitations of the available mass and the sample or powder deposit homogeneity. In total, 221 about 1 800 spectra were recorded.

- 222 Before any data treatment, the electronic background, estimated from the blind zones of the
- ICCD, was subtracted from the spectra, and their spectral range was reduced to a span of 460-
- 224 615 nm. In addition, the diffusion of the second diffraction order at around 532 nm of the laser
- 225 wavelength was sometimes visible. Therefore, the spectral band between 529 and 535 nm
- 226 was also removed. In the end, the processed spectra consisted of 1041 pixels. Some spectra
- are shown on Figure 2 for autunite, soddyite and illite samples.
- 228

229 2.3. Chemometric approach

230 For chemometric data processing, the samples were allocated to the training, validation, and 231 test sets (see Table 1). For the training set, we mostly kept synthetic, homogeneous, well 232 characterized, and sufficiently pure uranium phases that were representative of what could 233 be found on mining sites. In the particular case of clays, only samples with 300 to 1000 ppm 234 uranium were included in the training set, because lower concentrations led to a very low 235 TRLFS signal, while higher concentrations may have induced precipitation issues during the 236 adsorption process. A few natural samples were particularly homogeneous and showed clean 237 and intense spectra. Therefore, they were retained as reference samples and were included 238 in the training set. The same strategy was applied to build the validation set: its samples had 239 to be well characterized, since this dataset is used to evaluate the model's predictive ability. The main difference between the training and validation sets lies in the presence of samples 240 241 representative of all classes. Whereas all classes are included in the training set, some of them, 242 for availability reasons, are missing from the validation set, which mainly contains clays – with 243 a wider uranium concentration range than in the training set – and phosphates. Finally, the 244 test set contained all the other samples, i.e. three synthetic clay samples, natural samples 245 from the mineralogical collection whose identification was incomplete or doubtful, and 246 samples from the mining sites.

247 The spectra from each sample were pre-processed. Firstly, a second-order Savitzky-Golay 248 smoothing filter over a 31 pixel moving rectangular window [45] was applied. Then, a linear 249 baseline taken between the minimum and maximum wavelengths was subtracted. Finally, the 250 spectra were normalized by Multiplicative Signal Correction, a common approach in analytical 251 spectroscopy [46]. This methodology was optimized through different trials so as to give the 252 best classification performances. Figure 2 shows the effect of this pre-processing for three 253 samples: a natural autunite, and two synthetic ones (soddyite SBb-004 and illite 05). It can be 254 seen that the pre-processing rescales the intensity range of the spectra: the non-processed 255 spectra of autunite are two orders of magnitude more intense than those of illite 05, while 256 the pre-processed ones are on the same scale. Another effect is to reduce the variance: it is 257 clear that pre-processed spectra fluctuate much less than non-processed ones. It is also 258 helpful in reducing background fluctuations, as observed in the case of illite 05. Finally, it can 259 reveal the presence of outliers, as shown by the abnormal spectrum visible after pre-260 processing the illite 05 spectra.



262

263 Figure 2 (a) non-processed and (b) pre-processed spectra of autunite, soddyite and illite samples. Since the second diffraction 264 order of the laser wavelength was sometimes visible around 532 nm, the spectral band between 529 and 535 nm was removed.

The spectral processing was done in two steps. Firstly, an unsupervised analysis was 266 267 performed in order to explore the similarities between samples. For that purpose, we used 268 Ward clustering [47]-[49]. This method enables agglomerative clustering to be performed, 269 based on the Euclidean distance between the spectra. Clusters are formed such that the intra-270 cluster variance is minimized. In a second step, the K-nearest neighbors (KNN) method was 271 implemented to build a predictive model of the uranium-bearing phase present in the sample. 272 This supervised algorithm has been shown to be efficient for sample classification in several 273 papers on fluorescence spectroscopy, see e.g. the recent works [50]-[52]. It also uses the 274 Euclidean distance between spectra and allocates an unknown spectrum to class *i* if samples 275 of this class are in the majority within its K-nearest neighbors. The value of K was optimized 276 by a bootstrap method applied to the training set. For each class, the available spectra were 277 randomly split into a training (70%) and a validation set (30%). A KNN model was calculated 278 for each value of K between 1 and 10. The model sensitivity and specificity were determined from the confusion matrix obtained from the validation spectra. Sensitivity is equal to the true 279 280 positive rate, whereas specificity is equal to the true negative rate. The average value of these 281 two indicators over 30 bootstrap iterations enabled us to define the optimum K value, which 282 was found to be equal to 1.

The final predictive model was then calculated for K = 1 based on the whole training set, which 283 284 included 31 samples and 886 spectra. Classes were defined in two different ways, either based 285 on the mineralogical family (see Table 1) (Model 1), or based on the samples, i.e. each sample 286 was considered as a single class (Model 2). As a result, the training set had 10 and 31 classes, 287 respectively. Both models were applied to the validation dataset (20 samples, 549 spectra) to discuss the models' predictability on known samples, and finally to the test dataset (32
samples, 443 spectra) to make predictions on (supposedly) unknown or ill-defined samples.

290 **3. Results and discussion**

291 **3.1. Samples clustering**

292 Figure 3 shows the results of the sample clustering performed on the training set using the 293 Ward algorithm. The whole set was used to determine a first classification tree. Then, clusters 294 identified by pruning the tree were used as the inputs for secondary trees. The procedure was 295 repeated until, ideally, the spectra of all individual samples were isolated in a single tree. The 296 number of classification trees required to separate each sample is shown in Figure 3. One can 297 see that this is the case for 29 samples out of 31. Only natural autunite and meta-zeunerite 298 could not be separated. These two minerals are based upon the same autunite-type sheets of 299 general formula $[(UO_2)(TO_4)]^-$ (with T = P or As). These sheets are made of uranyl square 300 bipyramids sharing vertices with TO₄ tetrahedra. Electroneutrality is maintained thanks to 301 various cations located in the interlayer space between the sheets [53]. Thus, it could be argued that the coordination polyhedron of UO_2^{2+} is equivalent in the two phases, which 302 303 would explain the similarity of the TRLF spectra. Surprisingly, the natural autunite spectra are 304 less similar to those of synthetic autunite, which exhibit the same pattern with fluorescence 305 bands slightly blue-shifted.

306 One also notes that carbonates from the liebigite family – due to their strong blue-shifted 307 spectra relative to uranyl [27] [29] [54] -, sulfates, and the group formed by uranyl acetate 308 and uranyl nitrate, can be isolated in three or four steps. The phosphate, vanadate, and 309 arsenate samples form a well-defined group, from which each sample can be subsequently 310 identified in four to six steps, except for natural autunite and meta-zeunerite as previously 311 mentioned. Four clay samples are found to be close to each other, two smectites and two 312 kaolinites, while the illite sample seems to be closer to the last group of samples, which 313 contains the oxides, oxy-hydroxides, and silicates. Nevertheless, each individual sample can 314 be isolated. The most similar samples require up to 10 to 11 trees for separation to be 315 achieved.

The exploration of the training dataset shows that, as expected, the samples cluster according to their mineralogical family, or to a consistent group of mineralogical families: it is acceptable that e.g. phosphates, arsenates, and vanadates are found to be relatively close. The same applies to e.g. oxides and oxy-hydroxides. This indicates that TRLF spectra measured under our experimental conditions, and pre-processed as presented above, can be used to build a predictive model to identify either their mineralogical families, or their uranium-bearing phases.



325 Figure 3 Number of classification trees required to separate spectra of each sample using the Ward algorithm.

324

327 **3.2. Identification of uranium-bearing phases**

We showed in the previous section that unsupervised analysis of TRLF spectra enabled samples to be clustered in a consistent way with regard to their mineralogical family. Then, in a first step, a KNN predictive model was built, aiming to identify the mineralogical families of the training and validation samples (model 1). The second step consisted of building a second model to identify the sample, i.e. to obtain a more accurate classification (model 2).

333 The mineralogical family predicted by model 1 on the training set is shown in the 334 Supplementary Material. The rate of correct classification is very high in all cases. Only 4 out 335 of 886 spectra were not correctly identified. This indicates that the learning process encountered no particular problem, and was able to identify all the training samples. Beyond 336 337 that, it is necessary to look at the validation results in order to estimate the model's predictive ability. Table 2 shows that three phosphate samples (uranocircite and the two torbernite 338 339 samples) were correctly identified. One can note some confusion (16 %) for one torbernite sample with the arsenate phase (meta-zeunerite) represented by a single training sample, for 340 341 which we mentioned in the previous section its similarity with natural autunite, one of the samples from the phosphate class. A fourth sample of the mineralogical collection was labeled 342

343 as a mixture of a phosphate and an oxide phase. The oxide phase was not detected by TRLFS, 344 so that this sample was attributed mainly to phosphates (80 %), and to a lesser extent to 345 vanadates (20 %), their spectra being quite similar (see Figure 3). It can be emphasized that 346 those four samples are natural, the only ones from the validation set, and that the predictions 347 made by the model are quite consistent with the prior knowledge about them.

348 The validation set included 13 clay samples, including illite, kaolinite, and smectite samples 349 that are represented in the training set, and three MX80 bentonite samples. The kaolinite 350 samples were almost perfectly identified, including the kaolinite 032 sample, with the lowest 351 concentration of adsorbed uranium (11 ppm). The predictions for illite were also very good. 352 Nevertheless, 15 % of the illite 004 spectra were attributed to the oxy-hydroxide family and 353 3 % to the oxide family. For the smectites, 76 to 80 % of the spectra were attributed to clays. 354 The rest were attributed to silicates for two samples. The smectite 038 sample is the least 355 concentrated in uranium with only 12 ppm. In this case, about a guarter of the spectra were 356 identified as oxides. The same situation occurred with the bentonite samples, for which the 357 majority of spectra were identified as clays, while a varying minor fraction (4 to 16 %) was 358 attributed to silicates or oxides.

359 The last samples of the validation dataset were becquerelite, boltwoodite, and Na and U 360 silicate (Na₂(UO₂)₂(Si₂O₅)₃·nH₂O). The latter was perfectly identified as a Ca and U silicate 361 (Ca₂(UO₂)₂(Si₂O₅)₃·nH₂O), clearly the most similar sample of the training set, while the 362 becquerelite 048 sample was identified as a mixture of oxide and oxy-hydroxide phases. This 363 is fully consistent with the powder XRD and SEM-EDS characterizations of this synthetic 364 sample (EA21-048), which revealed that it contained about 61 % becquerelite and 39 % 365 UO₃·nH₂O, the latter being used as a synthesis precursor. Finally, boltwoodite was attributed 366 mainly to clays, with a minority to silicates (18% of spectra). As shown by the powder XRD and 367 SEM (see Figures S1 and S2 of the Supporting Information), quartz was the main phase in this 368 sample due to its use in large excess as an Si precursor in the synthesis protocol of 369 boltwoodite. Thus, the boltwoodite phase was found as a minor one in this sample. Moreover, 370 the sorption of uranyl on the surface of quartz or silica grains is not fully excluded [37][55][56]. 371 Even if the amount of adsorbed uranyl is assumed to be low, this could explain the confusion 372 with the clay family for a fraction of the spectra if the probed area was mainly composed of 373 quartz or silica grains. This could also explain a confusion with the clay family. Another 374 hypothesis could be that uranyl adsorbed on clays exhibits a similar environment to 375 boltwoodite, which might explain a possible similarity of the TRLF spectra. Boltwoodite is 376 based on a layered structure comprising sheets of silica tetrahedra and UO₂²⁺ polyhedra 377 [57][58]. Within these sheets, the almost linear uranyl cation is coordinated to five oxygen 378 atoms in the equatorial plane, which leads to the formation of (UO₇) pentagonal bipyramids, 379 one of the most common U⁶⁺ coordinations in solids [59][60]. The UO₇ bipyramids form edge-380 sharing chains connected by (SiO₃OH) tetrahedra. Three of the vertices of the Si tetrahedron are occupied by O atoms bonded to one or two UO_2^{2+} . The last vertex is occupied by one OH 381 382 group weakly bound to a K⁺ cation in the interlayer space. The interlayer also contains water 383 molecules. Kremleva et al. [61] used DFT calculations to simulate uranyl adsorption on two 384 common-edge surfaces of smectite clay minerals. They showed that uranyl is adsorbed as 385 inner-sphere complexes in a bidentate way on aluminol, silanol or mixed adsorption sites. The 386 resulting coordination number of uranium is 7 or 6 at mixed-sites (including the two oxygen 387 of the uranyl group). The structural parameters of uranyl surface complexes are determined 388 by the nature of these surface sites but are mostly independent of the type of clay minerals. 389 Spectroscopic studies also supported this conclusion [18]. This observation could explain the 390 confusion between the spectra of uranyl adsorbed on the surface of different clay minerals, 391 and potentially with boltwoodite where U-O-Si bonds are also present.

Overall, except for the boltwoodite sample, we note that the predictions for the mineralogical family of the validation samples were correct for the majority of the spectra, and/or consistent with the characterization data. We conclude that this predictive model can be reliably used

- on unknown samples to identify the mineralogical family of uranium-bearing phases.
- 396

Table 2 Mineralogical family predicted by model 1 on the validation set, expressed as a rate over the total number of spectra
 for each sample.

SAMPLE :	007 027 030 010 011 011												elite 048	+ oxide	te (BNL)	te (Margabal)	cite	dite	J silicate	
MINERALO- GICAL FAMILY :	Illite 004	Illite 021	Illite 025	Kaolinite	Kaolinite	Kaolinite	Kaolinite	MX 001	MX 002	MX 018	Smectite	Smectite	Smectite	Becquer	Autunite	Torberni	Torberni	Uranocir	Boltwoo	Na and L
Reference : Predicted :				.(S		Clays							Oxy-hydroxides			Pnospnates		C11:00400	Silicates
Arsenates																	0.16			
Carbonates							0.04													
Clays	0.82	0.96	1.00	0.98	1.00	1.00	0.96	0.84	0.88	0.96	0.80	0.76	0.76						0.82	
Other						-				-										
Oxides	0.03								0.12	0.04			0.24	0.40						
Oxy-hydroxides	0.15													0.56						
Phosphates				-	_	-		-		-		-			0.80	1.00	0.84	1.00		
Silicates				0.02				0.16			0.20	0.24		0.04					0.18	1.00
Sulfates		0.04																		
Vanadates															0.20					
200																				

399

401 The same approach was applied to identify the samples (model 2). The Supplementary 402 Material shows the results for the training set, for which the predictions are perfect for most 403 of the samples. A few confusions are noticeable, e.g. between becquerelite and 404 compreignacite. The structure of these two uranium phases is based on sheets of edge-sharing 405 uranyl pentagonal bipyramids, also called α -U₃O₈-type sheets [53][62]. The interlayer 406 between these sheets allows the presence of various cations including monovalent K⁺ or Na⁺ 407 for compreignacite, and divalent Ca²⁺ for becquerelite (or Ba²⁺ for billietite). Then, the net 408 charge of the sheet is balanced by hydroxyl ions. The distribution of hydroxyl ions is similar for 409 the three uranyl oxide hydrates used in this work. This similarity in the topology of uranyl-410 containing sheets of becquerelite, compreignacite, and billietite can explain the confusion 411 between their TRLF spectra. We also note an acceptable confusion between two kaolinite 412 samples. Other confusions can be considered as random errors or due to outliers. This is 413 particularly true for the illite sample due to the low signal-to-noise ratio of its spectra and to 414 the presence of a visible outlier (see Figure 2). Yet, these confusions remain a minority: only 415 12 training spectra out of 886 were incorrectly classified.

416 Looking now at the validation set results (Table 3), we can see that the predictions for most of 417 the samples are relatively dispersed. Confusion between very similar TRLF spectra of samples 418 within the same mineralogical family, as well as the heterogeneity of the natural samples, may explain this observation. Thus, the four natural samples of the validation set are uranium 419 420 phosphates, and were identified as phosphates, arsenates, and vanadates in variable 421 proportion. Uranocircite was identified as autunite, which is acceptable since both minerals 422 belong to the autunite group [62], exhibiting the same uranyl phosphate sheets of general formula [(UO₂)(PO₄)]⁻. The interlayer space contains water molecules and Ba²⁺ in uranocircite 423 instead of Ca²⁺ in autunite. In addition, as mentioned previously, the spectra of the 424 425 autunite/oxide sample are slightly shifted towards shorter wavelengths compared to the 426 natural autunite of the training set, and were mostly predicted as torbernite, another mineral 427 of the autunite group containing Cu²⁺. Similarly, torbernite (BNL) was identified as 428 chernikovite at 76%, the protonated form of this mineralogical family, and as torbernite at 429 24%: the spectra of these three samples are very similar to each other. Torbernite (Margabal) 430 has 52% of its spectra attributed to torbernite and 32% to autunite, which is again an 431 acceptable confusion relating to the important similarity between both phases.

432 The synthetic kaolinite samples were well identified. The illite samples were also attributed to 433 kaolinite for 45 to 96% of spectra, while illite was found in a lower proportion. The three 434 smectite samples were attributed primarily to smectite (60 to 80 %), and to a lower extent to 435 α -uranophane, Ca[(UO₂)(SiO₃OH)]₂·5(H₂O), which is based on a layered structure with sheets 436 of UO₇ pentagonal bipyramids and (SiO₃OH) tetrahedra. The boltwoodite structure is built 437 with the same uranophane sheets and a confusion was also observed with uranyl adsorbed 438 on the surface of clay minerals. The confusion between TRLF spectra could arise from the 439 similarity in the local environment of uranyl in the uranophane sheets to uranyl adsorbed on 440 silanol surfaces, but experimental and simulation data which could support this hypothesis

441 are lacking. Finally, the MX80 bentonite samples were identified mostly as kaolinite and 442 smectite, which is consistent, with a minor proportion of oxides and uranophane. The Na and 443 U silicate (Na₂(UO₂)₂(Si₂O₅)₃·nH₂O) sample was attributed at 100% to the Ca and U silicate 444 (Ca₂(UO₂)₂(Si₂O₅)₃·nH₂O), the most similar sample within the training set [58]. The 445 becquerelite sample was mostly identified as a mixture of becquerelite (48%) and 446 paraschoepite (40%), which is fully consistent with the observations made for model 1 for this 447 sample. Finally, the boltwoodite sample was here attributed to smectite at 82% and to 448 soddyite at 18%, which is also in line with what we mentioned for model 1.

In conclusion, the predictions given by model 2 are fully consistent with the available knowledge on the validation samples. Beyond the identification of the sample mineralogical family, this model gives a more accurate insight of possible uranium-bearing phases in the samples. Therefore, the model can be used to make predictions on samples that were used neither for model training nor validation, particularly samples from former French mining sites.

455

 Table 3 Sample predicted by model 2 on the validation dataset, expressed as a rate over the total number of spectra for each sample. For better readability, training samples that were never predicted have been removed from the table.

Reference : Predicted :	Autunite + oxide	Becquerelite 048	Boltwoodite	Illite 004	Illite 021	Illite 025	Kaolinite 007	Kaolinite 027	Kaolinite 030	Kaolinite 032	MX 001	MX 002	MX 018	Na and U silicate	Smectite 010	Smectite 011	Smectite 038	Torbernite (BNL)	Torbernite (Margabal)	Uranocircite
Autunite	0.07																			0.04
Autunite (synthetic)																			0.32	0.88
Becquerelite 055		0.48															\bigtriangledown			
Billietite 049		•••••		0.15																
Ca and U silicate			-		-		0.02	-						1.00						
Carnotite	0.20																			
Chernikovite																		0.76		0.08
Compreignacite 050		0.08																		
Illite 005				0.36		0.44	0.08										0.16			
Kaolinite 008			_	0.27	0.84	0.52	0.70	0.46	0.64	0.84										
Kaolinite 029		_	_	0.18	0.12	0.04	0.12	0.54	0.36	0.08		0.68			_		_		-	
Liebigite										0.04										
Metazeunerite																			0.16	
Paraschoepite		0.40		0.03									0.04				0.24			
Smectite 035											0.12		0.32							
Smectite 036			0.82				0.08			0.04	0.72	0.20	0.64		0.80	0.76	0.60			
Soddyite			0.18								-				0.12					
Torbernite (BN42)	0.73																		0.52	
Torbernite (synthetic)																		0.24		
UO3												0.12								
Uranophane 064		0.04									0.16				0.08	0.24				
Zippeite					0.04															

461 **3.3. Analysis of test samples**

- 462 Both prediction models were used to make predictions on the test set, which consisted mostly 463 of natural samples. Only the results of model 2 are given here, since the identification of the 464 uranium-bearing phase a fortiori enables the identification of the mineralogical family. Table 465 4 shows the obtained predictions, i.e. the most similar samples of the training set, whose 466 mineralogical family is also noted in the table. Most of the test samples originate from three 467 U mill tailings storage facilities located in France: Bellezane (samples BZNxx), Cellier (samples 468 CExx), and Ribière (samples Rixx). Three synthetic clay samples are also part of the test set. 469 Finally, nine natural samples were also predicted, among which most of them were also partly 470 characterized by reference techniques, mainly SEM-EDS and XRD (see Table 1).
- 471 Regarding the synthetic samples, the two smectites (U1 and U4) and the bentonite (MX 003)
 472 were clearly attributed to smectite, consistent with what we observed for the validation
- 473 samples. For the natural samples collected from the Bellezane former mining site,
- 474 Table 4 shows that two samples were mostly identified as oxides, one as silicate, one as 475 carbonate, and the last one as clay. Previous characterization of those samples showed that 476 they contained mostly uraninite, uranium adsorbed on smectite, phosphate, and carbonate 477 phases associated to traces of calcite [15]. The identification of UO₃ and paraschoepite 478 UO₃·0.8H₂O in samples BZN7 and BZN11 is consistent with a possible oxidation of uraninite. 479 Sample BZN5 was clearly identified as a carbonate, while sample BZN6 is attributed to 480 kaolinite. Confusion between smectite and kaolinite was not observed for predictions of the 481 validation set (Table 3). Yet, the sorption efficiency of uranium is much higher on smectite 482 compared to kaolinite due to a significantly higher cation exchange capacity, therefore the 483 presence of smectite is more plausible here. The mineralogical family remains consistent 484 anyway. Sample BZN4 was attributed mostly to soddyite, a silicate, and to clay minerals to a 485 lesser extent. Composition similarities between silicates and clays could explain this 486 identification.
- 487 Previous characterization of the samples from the Cellier mining site gave the same results as 488 for the Bellezane ones, except that no carbonates were found at the latter. One can see that 489 paraschoepite was again identified by model 2 as a primary constituent of two samples 490 (CE230312T, CEL21521T), with a fraction of clay minerals in the latter. Clays were also 491 identified in four samples. Three of them were mostly attributed to kaolinite (70 % to 90 % of 492 spectra) with a lower fraction of smectite and illite (CE221222T, CEL11521T, CEL342T). The 493 fourth one seems to be more balanced between kaolinite and smectite (CEL232T). Predictions 494 for the last Cellier sample (CEL161651T) were more scattered. Silicate minerals were identified 495 in half of the spectra, also compreignacite (30 %), paraschoepite (10 %), and illite (10 %).
- For the Ribière samples, previous characterizations showed a significant presence of phosphate phases, with also uraninite and U adsorbed on smectite. Predictions show that two samples were identified as mainly smectite (Ri0151T, Ri1241393T), with also paraschoepite in the latter. A third one was found as a balanced mixture between those two phases

500 (Ri1851992TB), while the last one (Ri1992041TBS) is mostly attributed to the silicate 501 uranophane.

502 In addition to these observations, it is interesting to note that the minerals that control the 503 retention of uranium in the three different mill tailings are the same. This is consistent with a 504 similar uranium mineralogy in the ore, namely uraninite and coffinite. This is also in line with 505 a similar ore treatment with sulfuric acid, leading to oxidative dissolution of the uranium(IV) 506 phases. Alternatively, adsorption on surfaces (e.g. clays) can happen, particularly if the 507 solubility limit of schoepite has not been reached.

- The remaining samples of the test set were all natural, with a variable heterogeneity. Prior characterization by XRD of the two gummite samples (A and B) showed the presence of silicates and oxides, most probably Mg(UO₂)₂(SiO₃OH)₂·6H₂O and PbO-UO₃·nH₂O, respectively. These samples were found to be relatively similar. TRLFS analysis showed that sample B indeed seems to be a silicate, while sample A appears to be a mixture of clay minerals (69%), with a phosphate and/or an arsenate phase.
- 514 Three other natural samples were supposed to be predominantly phosphate phases: 515 parsonsite, phosphuranylite, and torbernite (Lachaux A). One can see that parsonsite was 516 mostly attributed to meta-zeunerite, an arsenate phase (43%), with fractions of phosphates 517 (29% autunite and 14% torbernite) and clay minerals (14%). As shown in section 3.1, 518 meta-zeunerite and autunite spectra are among the most similar of the training set and confusion between those two phases is therefore possible. Phosphuranylite was predicted as 519 520 an equal mixture of autunite and francevillite. The torbernite sample (Lachaux A) was mostly 521 attributed to torbernite, but also to francevillite. This is in line with previous analyses of this 522 sample that revealed the presence of metatorbernite $Cu(UO_2)_2(PO_4)_2 \cdot 8H_2O$ and of two 523 unidentified uranium-bearing phases in lower concentrations. The other torbernite sample 524 (Lachaux B), for which no prior information was available, was associated with clay minerals.
- The last three unknown samples were mostly identified as clay minerals as well (1 and 3), with also 50% paraschoepite for sample Unknown_2. This is consistent with the available data on those samples, except for sample Unknown_1 for which several vanadate phases were found by SEM and XRD. Although the training set included two vanadate minerals (francevillite and carnotite), such phases were not detected by TRLFS. The possible coexistence of three or four mineral phases within the same sample might lead to a complex spectrum resulting from this particular mixture, and making the identification difficult.
- 532 Overall, as with the validation samples, predictions of the test samples were found reasonably 533 consistent with previous characterizations obtained by reference techniques. In the case of 534 the environmental samples addressed here, three limitations can be mentioned. Firstly, laser-535 induced fluorescence of uranium compounds is efficient for uranium (VI) but not for uranium 536 (IV). Secondly, some elements like iron are known to be quenchers of uranium fluorescence 537 [63]. Iron concentration can be significant in mining and natural sites, which may reduce the

538 detection efficiency. Thirdly, identification performance obviously depends on the 539 representativity and balance of the training set. The confusion observed between meta-540 zeunerite, the only arsenate sample, and autunite, might be resolved if more samples from 541 this mineralogical family were available. This would enable its variability to be better 542 represented, and confidence in predictions of arsenates to be improved.

543 Despite these limitations, it is worth noting that chemometric analysis of TRLF spectra is a 544 relevant tool to rapidly identify the uranium-bearing phase in a sample, or at least its 545 mineralogical family, with a sensitivity consistent with the expected low concentration of 546 uranium in environmental samples. It has a strong potential as an identification technique for 547 speciation analysis of uranium samples, in combination with techniques like SEM-EDS, XRD 548 and Raman spectroscopy, which enable other physical and chemical properties to be 549 determined, and have different detection limits. Finally, the possibility of making several 550 localized measurements on the sample also enables the sample homogeneity to be evaluated.

Table 4 Predictions of model 2 on the test set, expressed as a rate over the total number of spectra for each sample, with the maximum rate shown in bold for each test sample. For better readability, training samples that were never predicted have been removed from the table. The associated mineralogical family is noted in the first column.

Mineralo- gical family :	Test sample : Predicted sample :	BZN11	BZN4	BZN5	BZNG	BZN7	CE221222T	CE230312T	CEL11521T	CEL161651T	CEL21521T	CEL232T	CEL342T	CEL672T	Gummite_A	Gummite_B	MX 003	Parsonsite	Phosphuranylite	Ri0151T	Ri1241393T	Ri1851992TB	Ri1992041TBS	Smectite U1	Smectite U4	Torbernite (Lachaux A)	Torbernite (Lachaux B)	Unknown_1	Unknown_2	Unknown_3
Arsenates	Metazeunerite														0.08			0.43	0.04											
Carbonatos	Andersonite			0.5																										
Carbonates	Liebigite		-	0.5																										
	Illite 005						0.1			0.1			0.1	0.1	0.23			0.14									0.1	0.54	0.2	
	Kaolinite 008						0.5						0.4	0.3											0.12					
Clays	Kaolinite 029		0.2		1.0		0.4		0.7		0.1	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.23					0.1			-		0.04		0.6	0.15		0.11
	Smectite 035		0.1			-			0.2		0.1	0.5		0.1	0.15		0.96			0.4	0.7	0.1		1.0	0.28		0.1		0.2	0.56
	Smectite 036		-			-			-		0.1				0.08		0.04			0.5	0.1	0.4	0.1		0.56		0.2	0.31	0.1	0.28
Ovideo	Paraschoepite		-			1.0		1.0		0.1	0.7										0.2	0.4	0.2						0.5	
Oxides	UO3	0.8															-													
Oxy-hydroxides	Compreignacite 050	0.2								0.3													-							
	Autunite												0.1		0.23			0.29	0.48											
Phosphates	Chernikovite																-									0.07				
	Torbernite		-															0.14								0.60				
	Ca and U silicate									0.4						0.92														
Silicates	Soddyite		0.7						0.1			0.1																		
	Uranophane 064									0.1												0.1	0.7							0.06
Vanadataa	Carnotite															0.08														
vanadates	Francevillite																		0.48							0.33				
554																														

555 4. Conclusion

556 Improving scientific knowledge about uranium-bearing phases can improve the assessment of 557 the mobility of uranium. The objective of this study was to evaluate the potential of time-558 resolved laser-induced fluorescence spectroscopy (TRLFS) combined with chemometric methods to rapidly identify uranium-bearing phases in complex samples, particularly 559 560 environmental samples with a variable heterogeneity. We analyzed 80 uranium samples, of 561 which 34 were natural and 46 synthetic, these having been prepared specifically for this study. 562 About 1800 spectra were recorded, and the samples were split into three independent sets: 563 training, validation, and test. First, analysis of the training set by the Ward algorithm revealed 564 that reference samples clustered according to their mineralogical family, or to a consistent 565 group of mineralogical families. Therefore, in a second step, we used the K-nearest neighbors 566 (KNN) technique to build predictive models of the mineralogical family and of the uraniumbearing phase. In both cases, predictions obtained on the validation set were found to be fully 567 568 consistent with the available knowledge on the samples, mostly obtained by SEM-EDS and 569 XRD. Then, the model predicting the uranium-bearing phase was used to analyze the test 570 samples, mostly taken from former French mining sites. Overall, results were found to be in 571 accordance with such characterization data that was available. This confirms that TRLFS 572 enables fast and sensitive characterization of uranium-bearing phases in environmental samples, with the potential to easily analyze solid or powder samples. Although laser-induced 573 574 fluorescence of uranium compounds is limited to uranium(VI) phases, and may be significantly quenched by the iron present in many sites, it can be a useful decision-making tool for 575 576 environmental investigations, or even possibly for geological prospection, in addition to other 577 reference laboratory techniques which can take longer and be more cumbersome to operate.

578

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