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R.H. V. Dagnelie, S. Rasamimanana, V. Blin, J. Radwan, E. Thory, J-C.

Robinet, G. Lefevre

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1	Diffusion of organic anions in clay-rich media:
2	effect of porosity exclusion on retardation
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4	R.V.H. Dagnelie ^(a,*) , S. Rasamimanana ^(a) , V. Blin ^(a) , J. Radwan ^(a) ,
5	E. Thory ^(a) , JC. Robinet ^(b) , G. Lefèvre ^(c)
6	
7	^(a) DEN-Service d'Etude du Comportement des Radionucléides (SECR),
8	CEA, Université Paris-Saclay, F-91191 Gif-sur-Yvette, France
9	^(b) Andra, R&D Division, parc de la Croix Blanche, 92298, Châtenay-Malabry, France
10	^(c) PSL Research University, Chimie ParisTech-CNRS, Institut de Recherche de Chimie Paris,
11	11 rue Pierre et Marie Curie, F-75005 Paris, France
12	
13	
14	
15	
16	
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18	
19	* Corresponding author: R.V.H. Dagnelie, romain.dagnelie@cea.fr, Tel: +33 (0)1 69 08 50 41

Highlights

- 1 Retarded diffusion of organic anions was studied in Callovo-Oxfordian claystone
- 2 Charge and or steric effects lead to strongly reduced apparent porosity for carboxylic acids
- 3 This exclusion lowers simultaneously porosity, effective diffusion and retardation
- 4 A correction factor is proposed with a retardation collapse below a threshold: $\varepsilon_a/\varepsilon < b$
- 5 A methodology is proposed to evaluate retardation of organic anions in claystones

20 Abstract

21 The adsorption of solutes in porous rocks and soils is known to induce retardation 22 during transport. We studied the case of diffusion of organic anions in a clay rich media, for 23 which a discrepancy was previously observed between adsorption measured by batch and diffusion experiments. Organic anions display an affinity with clay and oxides surfaces 24 leading to adsorption. However, they are subject to a partial exclusion from porosity ($\varepsilon_a < \varepsilon$), 25 because of steric and charge effects. We evaluated the possible correlation between the 26 decrease of accessible porosity and a decrease of diffusive retardation. An empirical 27 28 correction factor was proposed to explain the difference between maximum and apparent 29 adsorption, respectively measured by batch and diffusion experiments. This correction was evaluated for Callovo-Oxfordian clay rock and used to interpret 15 diffusion experiments. A 30 31 reasonable agreement was observed between adsorption isotherms from batch and corrected 32 values from diffusion experiments. A low diffusivity of organic species in Callovo-Oxfordian was confirmed, with D_e values ranging between 0.5 and 7 10^{-12} m² s⁻¹, indicating anion 33 34 exclusion. Still a significant retardation was observed for species such as oxalate, citrate or α -35 isosaccharinate. This retardation factor decreases with accessible porosity, with a threshold 36 value observed when $\varepsilon_a/\varepsilon < 0.65$. This feature has strong implications for estimation of 37 migration parameters of solutes in the environment. The proposed methodology would be 38 suitable for other media with charged surfaces such as cementitious materials or oxisoils.

40 Organic molecules are widely studied in environmental sciences such as pedology, 41 geology or marine chemistry. Among them, organic pollutants such as anthropogenic organic 42 matter (AOM) can be potentially released from hazardous waste and migrate through 43 geological rock formation or soils (Duarte et al., 2018). AOM refers to a wide range of compounds, including polar and apolar molecules, ionic and neutral molecules. The ionic 44 polar molecules are highly soluble in water and more mobile in soils and rocks (Schaffer and 45 46 Licha, 2015). The neutral (poly)aromatic compounds are less soluble, often absorbed by soil 47 organic matter (Borisover and Graber, 1997), but also more resistant against (bio)degradation (Ren et al., 2018). For all these compounds, sorption processes slow down their migration in 48 environmental conditions (Curtis et al., 1986; Weber et al., 1991). Consequently, 49 50 understanding retardation phenomena of soluble organic matter is crucial for bioavailability of 51 solutes, remediation of soils, extraction of ore, or hazardous waste management. Several scientific communities have investigated such issues for specific media (soils, sand, 52 53 sedimentary rocks, cement based materials...) or site specific conditions (acidic, neutral or alkaline, oxidant or reducting media...). For example, the migration of organic ligands was 54 55 largely investigated in many oxide-rich soils and model materials (Liu et al., 2014). In this 56 field, a good agreement is usually observed between adsorption measured by batch 57 experiments, results from flow-through methods and field observations (Liu et al., 2013; Banzhaf and Hebig, 2016). Such approach requires determining and studying the relevant 58 59 factors controlling site-specific transport, for example adsorption-dissociation processes (Zachara et al., 1995; Szecsody et al., 1998), slow kinetics-driven transport (Brusseau, 1991), 60 colloidal effects (Roy and Dzomback, 1998), etc. Similar issue was recently raised for 61 62 diffusion of organic anions in clay-rich rocks (Durce et al., 2014; Dagnelie et al., 2014).

In the past decade, a tremendous effort was made to study solutes migration 63 phenomena in geological media in the context of deep underground radioactive wastes 64 65 repository (Altman et al., 2012; Tournassat et al., 2015). Sedimentary clay rich rocks, such as the Callovo-Oxfordian mudstone (France), Boom clays (Belgium), Opalinus clays 66 (Switzerland) were intensively studied in this context (Delage et al., 2010). They are 67 characterized by low hydraulic conductivities and diffusion coefficients due to their narrow 68 pore network and by high retention properties of cations due their affinity with the 69 70 constituting clay minerals. In such rocks, the migration of cations is mainly driven by their 71 adsorption on clay minerals (Melkior et al., 2007; Savoye et al., 2012; 2015). On the contrary, inorganic anions display a poor affinity for clay surfaces and they are repelled from the pore 72 73 surface leading to the well-established "anion exclusion" phenomena (Bazer-Bachi et al., 2007; Descostes et al., 2008; Frasca et al., 2012; Montavon et al., 2014). The behaviour of 74 75 small organic anions was found to be intermediate between those of cations and inorganic anions (Dagnelie et al., 2014). Small carboxylates are affected by "anion exclusion" as 76 77 inorganic anions and displays retention properties as inorganic cations (Descostes et al., 78 2017). These compounds are studied for various safety assessments, including metal and 79 radionuclides transport (Nowack et al., 1997; Read et al., 1998; Hummel, 2008; Charlet et al., 2017). Rasamimanana et al. (2017a) recently quantified and summarized the adsorption of 80 81 various carboxylic anions (acetate, phthalate, citrate), deduced from batch experiments on 82 Callovo-Oxfordian mudstone. Solid to liquid distribution coefficient (R_d) are ranged from 0.1 to several tens of L.kg⁻¹ demonstrating the significant affinity of the rock for these anions. 83 84 Similar trends were recently confirmed by percolation experiments on compacted illite with hydrophilic hydroxyl-acids (Chen et al., 2018). Yet a key point remains unclear for organic 85 anions, which is the discrepancy between high R_d values measured by batch experiments and 86 87 low retardation factors measured by migration experiments (Dagnelie et al, 2014). The origin

of this discrepancy has to be cleared in order to predict the reactive transport of organics, as
correctly achieved for other solutes.

The objective of this work was to evaluate the diffusive behaviour of various organic anions in a clay-rich sedimentary rock and compare diffusive retardation factors with adsorption data. This was performed in Callovo-Oxfordian clay rock, for which a clear picture of anion adsorption was available in the literature. A possible explanation is provided for the discrepancies previously observed between batch and diffusion experiments.

95

96 2. Material and methods

97 **2.1 Rock samples**

98 Experiments were carried out on samples originated from the Callovo-Oxfordian 99 sedimentary formation (Meuse/Haute-Marne France). The rock cores, EST40471 and 100 EST207 16517 and EST 16520, were drilled from a borehole in the underground laboratory 101 at -501 m and -498 m in depth from the surface respectively. The claystone comes from the 102 clayey unit constituted of clayey unit constituted by 50-55% of clay minerals (illite, 103 interlayered illite-smectite, kaolinite, chlorite), 18 -20% of tectosilicates (mainly quartz), 22-104 35 % of carbonates (mainly calcite) and less than 5 % of accessory minerals (pyrite, iron oxide...). Organics matter is estimated to < 1% (COT $\sim 0.6\%$) (Gaucher et al., 2004; Lerouge 105 106 et al., 2011; Pellenard et al., 2014). The core sample was protected from O₂ after drilling 107 using container under N_{2(g)}. Thanks to a wire saw inside a glovebox, the rock core were sliced 108 into ~10 mm thick samples and then adjusted to 35 - 40 mm of diameter. The dimension of 109 the samples is listed in supplementary data (Table S1). The weighting of solid samples led to an average hydrated density $\rho_{\rm H} \sim 2.34 \pm 0.06$ g cm⁻³ leading to a total porosity of 21 % 110 assuming a grain densisty, $\rho_g \sim 2.7 \text{ g cm}^{-3} (\epsilon \sim [\rho_H - \rho_g]/[1 - \rho_g])$. 111

112

113 **2.2 Diffusion experiments**

114 Two main setups were used in this study and displayed a good repeatability (Table 115 S1). The static setup includes a PEEK cell, a sample pasted with epoxy resin between two filterplates in contact with upstream / downstream solutions (see Descostes et al., 2008 for 116 117 detailed setup). The dynamic setup includes a stainless steel cell, a sample swelled inside the 118 cell without filterplates or resin, and in contact with solutions circulating in upstream / 119 downstream reservoirs (see Savoye et al., 2011 for detailed setup). The list of diffusion 120 experiments is detailed in Table 1, including each organic tracer monitored. Table 1 mostly 121 gathers experimental results, including the diffusion data of organic tracers and when available, the diffusion data of inert tracers (HTO, HDO) used prior to experiments with 122 organics. Complementary information is available in supplementary data (Table S1): size, 123 activities, concentration, ionic strength. Experiments n°8 and 10 were performed in presence 124 of competing solute, respectively $[Na_2Phthalate] = 10^{-1} M$ and $[NaISA] = 10^{-2} M$. The effect 125 126 of these competing anions and of ionic strength will also be discussed furtherly.

127

128 2.3 Modelling

129 The solid to solution distribution ratio is noted $R_d (L.kg^{-1})$. It is defined and modelled by

130
$$R_d = \frac{C_{ads}}{C_e} \qquad \qquad R_d(C_e) = \frac{K_L \times Q}{(1 + K_L \times C_e)} \tag{1}$$

where C_{ads} (mol kg⁻¹) is the concentration of adsorbed species per mass of adsorbent, and C_e(mol L⁻¹) the concentration in solution at equilibrium with the solid. The adsorption isotherms, R_d(C_e), displayed a Langmuir-Type shape (Eq. 1) and parameters (K_L, Q) were quantified by Rasamimanana et al. (2017). The analysis of the through-diffusion results, which is based on Fick's second law:

136
$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = \frac{D_e}{\varepsilon_a + \rho_g (1 - \varepsilon) R_d^{APP}} \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial x^2} = \frac{D_e}{\alpha} \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial x^2}$$
(2)

with C representing the tracer concentration (mol m⁻³), t the time (s), D_e the effective diffusion coefficient (m² s⁻¹), ε_a the diffusion-accessible porosity, ρ_g the grain density (~2.7 kg L⁻¹), R_d^{APP} the apparent adsorption coefficient, and α the rock capacity factor. R = α/ε_a is usually called the retardation factor. The initial conditions were C(x=0) = C₀, C(x≠0) = 0. Fully analytical solutions were performed to fit the results with a constant R_d^{APP} value. The resolution was performed by numerical resolution in the Laplace space (Crank, 1975; Moridis, 1998). The downstream flux of tracer, J (moles m⁻² s⁻¹) was defined by equation (3):

145
$$J_{down}(t) = \frac{dn_{down}(t)}{S \times dt} = \frac{V_{down}}{S} \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{C_{down}(t + \Delta t) - C_{down}(t - \Delta t)}{2 \times \Delta t}$$
(3)

146

where dn_{down} is the quantity of tracer reaching the downstream compartment in (moles or Bq), per unit of time, dt (s), and sample surface S (m²). V_{down} (m³) is the downstream volume and Δt the duration between two successive measurements. In the case of experimental data, C_{down} (mol L⁻¹) was corrected from radioactive decay and sampling, and named cumulative concentration. All results are discussed on the basis of a normalised flux of tracer:

152
$$^{NORM}J_{down}(t) = \frac{L}{C_0}J_{down}(t)$$
(4)

with L (m) being the sample width and C₀ (moles m⁻³) the initial concentration of tracer in upstream reservoir. By using ^{NORM}J_{down} (m² s⁻¹), the direct comparison of the different experiments was possible, regardless of C₀ or L. Experiments tend to move towards a stationary state where the flux is close to the effective diffusion coefficient ^{NORM}J_{DOWN}(t→∞) \sim D_e, as long as upstream and downstream concentrations evolve slowly, (C_{up}-C_{down})(t→∞) ~ 158 C₀.

159 The two parameters D_e and α were adjusted by least-square fitting of experimental 160 normalized downstream flux with a weighting inversely proportional to the experimental precision. The upstream concentration was not used at all for adjustment. This choice was made because specific effects (perturbation of speciation, non-reversible adsorption, slow kinetics) might lead to uncomplete mass balance between upstream and downstream measurements (Roberts et al., 1986). A good agreement between upstream experimental data and the modelling (adjusted on downstream data) only strengthens the reliability of the results. This was especially the case for exp. n°2, 3, 5, 7, 8, 12, 13, 14, 15.

167

168 **3. Results**

169 **3.1 Diffusion of organic acids in Callovo-Oxfordian clay rock**

A comparison between solutes is made in Figure 1 on the normalized fluxes and 170 171 downstream cumulative concentration. For more details, the raw experimental data 172 (downstream flux with precision, downstream cumulative concentration and upstream 173 cconcentration) are given in supplementary data and compared with modelling (Fig. S1-S5). The normalized downstream fluxes (Fig. 1) rise to a plateau, which is representative of the 174 effective diffusion coefficient of the solute, D_e . The corresponding values $D_e^{ORGA} \sim 10^{-12} \text{ m}^2$ 175 s⁻¹ value (eq. 4), are much lower than effective diffusion coefficient of water ($D_e^{HTO} > 10^{-11}$ 176 m^2 s⁻¹). Similar behaviours were evidenced on inorganic anions in sedimentary rocks 177 178 (Descostes et al., 2008; Van Loon and Mibus, 2015) as well as for organic acids in Callovo-179 Oxfordian clay rock (Dagnelie et al., 2014). The transitory state display various duration, 180 from almost no retardation (for HTO, Acetate or Adipate), to a significant retardation 181 observed for EDTA or Oxalate (up to 100 days).

182 The D_e and α values adjusted from experimental results (best fit) are gathered in Table 183 1. When available, the data of reference tracers (HDO, HTO), allow an estimation of 184 variability from one sample to the other. A variability of a factor 3 is observed on 185 diffusivities: D_e^{HTO} ranging from 1.5 to 4.5 10^{-11} m² s⁻¹. It is then much more reliable to 186 compare results normalized by the value of the reference tracer (HDO, HTO). This is 187 performed by calculation of the factor \prod given by the following equation:

188

189
$$\Pi = \frac{[D_e^{ANION}/D_0^{ANION}]}{[D_e^{REF}/D_0^{REF}]}$$
(5)

190 Where D_e is the effective diffusion coefficient in the porous solid and D_0 the diffusion 191 coefficient in water. D_0 values are corrected form the effect of salinity (I.S. ~ 0.105 eq. in Callovo-Oxfordian porewater and from Temperature, $T^{EXP.} \sim 22 \pm 2$ °C). Superscripts refer to 192 193 the solutes, which are either anions (Cl⁻, Organic) or neutral references (HTO or HDO). The 194 ratio: \prod isolates the effect of clay on the diffusion pathway of anions (i.e. tortuosity and 195 constrictivity as discussed by Van Brakel and Heertjes, 1974). For example, a reduced 196 accessible porosity for anions, ε_a , induces a lower diffusivity than that of water, $\prod < 1$. Several 197 empirical observations evidenced this correlation between \prod measured in sedimentary rocks and $\varepsilon_a/\varepsilon_a$, which is a quantification of the anion exclusion. The most common model is the 198 199 empirical Archie's law (Eq. (6), Archie (1942), with $m \sim 2.4$), and further adaptations in 200 various media, such as m-Archie's law (Eq. (7), Jacquier et al. (2013) with $\alpha = 0.17$ and m = 1.6) developed for Callovo-Oxfordian clay samples of variable mineralogy, or also e-Archie's 201 law (Eq. (8), Van Loon et al. (2015), with $B=10^{-11} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$, $m_1 = 2.4$ and $m_2 = 1$) adjusted on 202 low porosity materials ($\varepsilon < 2.10^{-2}$). 203

204

205
$$\frac{D_e}{D_0} = \varepsilon^m \tag{6}$$

206
$$\frac{D_e}{D_0} = \alpha \times \varepsilon^m$$
 (7)

207 $D_e = D_0 \times \varepsilon^{m1} + B \times \varepsilon^{m2}$ (8)

208

209 **3.2 Effect of Ionic Strength and anion exclusion**

210 Two important features arise from the previous results. First, the low \prod ratios for organic anions in Callovo-Oxfordian clay rock, $0.1 < \prod < 0.5$, traduce a strong but variable 211 212 exclusion for these compounds probably originating from charge and or steric effects. Nevertheless, adsorption occurs for these compounds, and the apparent porosity $\alpha(\text{orga})$ 213 214 differs from accessible porosity ε_a (orga), which remains hardly measurable by direct methods. 215 Thus the parameter \prod seems the most reliable and accurate data to quantify an accessible 216 porosity for organic anions: $\varepsilon_a(\text{orga})$. Still, this requires to choose carefully one of the above the empirical laws, i.e. the most suitable for the studied material. 217

218 The figure 2 illustrates the diffusivity of chloride, taken as a non sorbing anion in clay-219 rich media. It was measured by through-diffusion through Callovo-Oxfordian samples (Blin et al., 2013) and percolation through compacted illite samples (Chen et al., 2018). The 220 221 variability was induced by experimental setup, performed several times under various ionic 222 strengths. The increase of ionic strength is known to reduce the size of the diffuse layer at the 223 surface of charged minerals, thus decreasing anion exclusion. This is indeed observed on both 224 D_e and ε_a values and allows a verification of Archie's law as performed in Fig. 2. A 225 comparison is made with other data from literature on clay rich media (various contents of illite, smectite and kaolinite minerals). It ensures that the correlation $\prod = f(\varepsilon_a/\varepsilon)$ follows 226 227 similar trends for all the discussed media. This legitimates further comparison of these 228 systems and the use of m-Archie law following Eq. (7) (Jacquier et al., 2013) for these results. 229 This law was used to calculate the $\varepsilon_a/\varepsilon$ values for organic solutes, and data are reported in both 230 table 1 and Figure 3.

231

232 **3.2 Variability of retardation factor**

233 Only a few studies assess the effect of porosity exclusion on retardation factors in clay-rich media. Usually in such media, the Eq. (2) is admitted assuming the following 234 235 hypotheses: i) Adsorption only occurs for cations for which all the porosity is accessible, i.e. ε (cations) = ε , ii) Anions, for which ε_a (anions) < ε , display a negligible adsorption i.e. R_d^{APP} = 236 237 0. This is true for most of the inorganic anions in Callovo-Oxfordian clay rock, but is not true 238 for oxoanions or organic anions (Frasca et al., 2014; Rasamimanana et al., 2017). Indeed, the organic anions display both properties of adsorption ($R_d^{APP} > 0$) and of anion exclusion 239 $\varepsilon_a(\text{orga}) < \varepsilon$. This latter property possibly induces a modification of the retardation factor. The 240 241 exclusion of solutes from a part of porosity may reduce the accessibility to surfaces and eventually lengthen the diffusion pathway (tortuosity). Such effect would decrease the 242 apparent adsorption R_d^{APP} during transport. A similar effect was demonstrated by diffusion of 243 solutes in unsaturated samples by Savoye et al. (2012c and 2017). The authors showed that 244 245 the decrease of water-filled porosity was leading to a decrease of Cesium diffusivity and 246 adsorption. To quantify such effects on organic anions, we gathered results performed at various ionic strengths with ¹⁴C-oxalate and other small carboxylates (data from Chen et al., 247 2018). In this latter case, the R_d^{MAX} values were calculated by extrapolation of percolation 248 249 results at infinite ionic strength (Fig. S6, table S3). The Fig. 2 illustrates the correlation between anion exclusion (ϵ_a/ϵ) and adsorption during transport (R_d/R_d^{MAX}). A trend is 250 observed and could be adjusted by an exponential law of the following form: 251

252
$$\frac{R_d^{APP}}{R_d^{MAX}} = f^{CORR} = \frac{1}{\left[1 + \exp\left(a \times \left(b - \frac{\varepsilon_a}{\varepsilon}\right)\right]\right]}$$
(9)

This empirical law traduces a decrease of R_d^{APP} with exclusion ($\varepsilon_a/\varepsilon < 1$). The law starts from a maximum value, $R_d^{APP} = R_d^{MAX}$, in absence of exclusion ($\varepsilon_a = \varepsilon$, all surfaces accessible). A threshold appears at a value $\varepsilon_a/\varepsilon = b$, with a collapse of R_d^{APP} when $\varepsilon_a/\varepsilon < b$. In our case, the best fit parameters were a = 12.95 and b = 0.60. This adjustment remains empirical and such 257 law should be studied in detail for each porous media. However, such behaviour shows 258 potential implications which are discussed furtherly. To that aim, the Eq. (7) provides a 259 correction factor, f^{CORR} , leading to a generalized diffusion law:

260
$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = \frac{D_e}{\alpha} \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial x^2} = \frac{D_e}{\varepsilon_a + \rho_g (1 - \varepsilon) f^{CORR} R_d^{CELL}} \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial x^2}$$
(10)

261

262 **4. Discussion**

The following discussion assesses the generalized law, Eq. (10), by comparison between data from batch and diffusion experiments. The validity of such approach is discussed with emphasis on retardation variability and environmental implications.

266

267 4.1 Comparison between batch and diffusion experiments

The table 1 gathers adsorption data on 15 diffusion experiments, using 8 different organic anions of various polarities. Batch data were compare to diffusion data, using the following equations:

271
$$R_d^{BATCH} = \frac{1}{L} \int_{x=0}^{L} R_d(\frac{c_0 x}{L}) dx = \frac{Q}{c_0} \times \ln(1 + K_L \times C_0)$$
(11)

272
$$R_d^{APP} = \frac{(\alpha - \varepsilon_a)}{\rho_g(1 - \varepsilon)} \qquad R_d^{CELL} = \frac{(\alpha - \varepsilon_a)}{\rho_g(1 - \varepsilon)f_{\left(\frac{\varepsilon_a}{\varepsilon}\right)}^{CORR}}$$
(12)

The Eq. (11) traduces the adsorption expected in diffusion experiment, calculated thanks to batch data. A linear concentration profile along the diffusion cell is assumed, $C(x) = C_0 \times [x/L]$, and averaged using the Langmuir law, defined in Eq.1: $R_d(C)=f(Q,K_L,C)$.

276 The Eq. (12) traduces the adsorption directly extrapolated from diffusion data, using 277 the adjusted apparent porosity, α , with (eq. 2) or without (eq. 10) the correction factor defined 278 above. 279 The Figure 4 illustrates the comparison between batch and diffusion data. The red triangles show R_d^{APP} as a function of R_d^{BATCH} . Using raw batch data may lead to a significant 280 overestimation of apparent porosity and retardation factor. The green triangles show R_d^{CELL} as 281 a function of R_d^{BATCH}. A fairly good agreement is observed between batch data and diffusion 282 283 data corrected from exclusion effects. The proposed correction factor is only a rough 284 empirical adjustment, and no tool for accurate prediction of retardation factors. However, it strengthens the hypothesis of porosity exclusion as the key parameter affecting diffusive 285 286 retardation. This feature would explain various effects observed on several species. For 287 example, ionic strength effects are observed in the case of oxalate with the decrease of α and R_d^{APP} by a factor 2 when ionic strength increases between Exp. n°7 and 8. Also a large 288 289 difference of retardation was observed between Eu-EDTA and EDTA species. This would be explained by a higher exclusion of the latter, as quantified by De values. This specific case 290 291 leads to the following discussion on the origin of exclusion.

292

4.2 Origin of exclusion from the porosity

294 An interesting feature is the origin of the exclusion of adsorbates. Two specific effects 295 are viewed in this study: i.e. steric and charge effects. It seems clear that formal charge is not 296 a good indicator of electrostatic effects, as observed with inorganic anions (Descostes et al., 297 2008; Wigger and Van Loon, 2017). Still, charge effects are expected in clav rich media, and 298 most probably linked to charge density, polarizability, or even hardness of anionic Lewis 299 bases. Such assumption can be made in view of experimental results. For example, the 300 diffusion of small anion NO₃⁻ in Callovo-Oxfordian clay rock, displayed a much lower exclusion than for Cl⁻, $\prod(NO_3^-) \sim 0.7 \gg \prod(Cl^-) \sim 0.4$ (Dagnelie et al., 2017). This result 301 agrees with a lower exclusion of NO_3^- , of which charge is distributed between 3 atoms 302 303 compared to Cl⁻. In the present study also, the values $\prod (\text{oxalate}) \sim 0.25 \cdot 0.36$ were lower than 304 \prod (o-phthalate)~0.1-0.25, despite a larger size for the latter. This also indicates possible charge effects in addition to steric effects. Yet, it is not clear for organic anions, which parts 305 306 of exclusion are due to charge effect and steric effect. In addition to charge exclusion, larger 307 molecule may be more excluded from porosity, due to the presence of small porosity in clay 308 rich media (Gaboreau et al., 2016; Wigger and Van Loon, 2018). Such hypothesis seems 309 confirmed by the correlation between \prod and molecule size (Fig. S7). Obviously, such 310 relationship remains a trend rather than a well-defined correlation, given that two factors are 311 simultaneously involved, i.e. charge and size. Further studies would be interesting to decorrelate both effects using molecules of well-known properties. To that aim, D_e and \prod 312 values should be measured more accurately and preferentially on the same sample. Also 313 314 molecular size should take into account speciation in solution and hydration shell of species. 315 Finally, additional modelling seem mandatory to quantify relevant electric properties of 316 adsorbates (charge density, shape and energy of the highest occupied molecular orbital, etc..).

317

318 **4.3 Methodology and environmental implications**

319 The easiest method to quantify adsorption involves usually batch experiments on 320 crushed samples. Such approach is commonly preferred to diffusion experiments, much more 321 time consuming, or percolation experiments involving other processes and possible bias 322 (advection, dispersion, minerals leaching). The previous findings highlight the difficulty to 323 predict retardation factors in clay-rich media only based on adsorption data, especially for 324 organic anions. A generalized law is proposed for adsorption-diffusion with equation (10). It is in agreement with classical laws for cations and non-sorbing anions. In the case of 325 adsorbing anions, it includes an additional effect due to porosity exclusion. This effect should 326 be studied first, in order to assess the shape of $f^{CORR}(\varepsilon_a/\varepsilon)$ curve. This empirical factor does 327 328 not exempt from performing diffusion experiments, as they provide the most accurate

estimation α parameter. In addition, the quantification of D_e/D_0 also seems mandatory to get an estimation of the exclusion of sorbing anions, $\varepsilon_a/\varepsilon$. To that aim, the use of an inert tracer (HTO, HDO) as reference is highly recommended, since D_e values display a variability of a factor 2 to 3 among similar samples. Also the extrapolation of $\varepsilon_a/\varepsilon$ using D_e/D_0 value requires the choice an Archie's-type law suitable for the material.

334 In the case of clay rocks, a low diffusivity for organic anions is evidenced with D_e values ranging between 0.8 and 7 10^{-12} m² s⁻¹. The adsorption properties might lead to high 335 apparent porosity as observed for oxalate or ISA. However, the species with lowest 336 diffusivities, $D_e < 2 \ 10^{-12} \ m^2 \ s^{-1}$ may present an important anion exclusion leading to a 337 strongly reduced retardation. Similar methodologies should be suitable in other material but 338 339 taking account of the media specificity. Depending on the materials, sorbing or non-sorbing 340 species differs leading to various reference solutes (Schaffer et al., 2017). It would be 341 interesting to perform such comparative studies on various media such as oxisoils, sediments 342 or cementitious materials.

343

344 **5.** Conclusions

In this study we evaluated diffusive data of eight organic anions through Callovo-345 346 Oxfordian clay rock, a clay-rich sedimentary rock. The affinities of organic anions for rock 347 surfaces induced various retardation factors. However, a significant discrepancy was observed between maximum adsorption data measured by batch experiments and apparent adsorption 348 349 extrapolated from diffusive retardation. A qualitative explanation is proposed based on 350 porosity exclusion, probably due to both steric and charge effects. The decrease of accessible porosity for a solute may modify accessible surface or tortuosity, thus leading to a reduced 351 352 retardation. This was observed on both compacted clay minerals and Callovo-Oxfordian clay 353 rock. A threshold value of $\varepsilon_a/\varepsilon$ is eventually observed under which the retardation of sorbing species collapses. This feature should be assessed and valuate for each specific solute/media
couple. This may be achieved in the case sorbing anions in clay-rich media, using various
ionic strengths, which impact both accessible porosity and retardation factor.

In a first approximation, an empirical correction factor $\left[1/(1+a\times\exp(b-\varepsilon_a/\varepsilon))\right]$ was 357 proposed. This factor estimates the ratio between apparent and maximum adsorption during 358 359 migration in a porous media. It was evaluated for Callovo-Oxfordian clay rock thanks to diffusion data and percolation through compacted illite. The parameters a = 12.95 and b = 0.60360 were adjusted and used to estimate adsorption from 15 diffusion experiments. A reasonable 361 362 agreement was observed between adsorption experiments in batches and diffusion experiments in cell. The low diffusivity of organic species is confirmed, with De values 363 ranging between 0.5 and 7 10⁻¹² m² s⁻¹. These values traduce anion exclusion from porosity 364 365 probably due to charge and possibly with additional steric effects. The effective diffusion was 366 necessary to evaluate the accessible porosity (anion exclusion), following m-Archie law. 367 Finally, a significant retardation was observed for several species, such as oxalate of ISA. Still, this retardation factor strongly decreased for the most excluded species, i.e. with values 368 $\epsilon_a/\epsilon \ll b = 0.60$, or $D_e \le 2 \ 10^{-12} \ m^2 \ s^{-1}$. 369

The proposed methodology should be applicable to other media with charged surfaces such as cementitious materials or oxisoils. It would be interesting to compare such results, since the solutes affinity or exclusion will differ from one media to the other. Such approach could help assessing the transport of organic solutes in the environment.

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Figure 1: Illustration of diffusion experimental results.

Signs represent experimental data and solid curve represent best fit modelling. (Top) Downstream concentration as a function of time. Values normalized by initial upstream concentration.

(Bottom) Normalized downstream flux used for parametric adjustment.

 D_w indicates the minimum D_e value measured for water: $D_e^{MIN}(HTO) = 15 \ 10^{-11} \ m^2 \ s^{-1}$.



Figure 2: Effect of anion exclusion on diffusion parameters of chloride (Cl⁻). [1] Cl diffusion in COx at various Ionic strengths. (Unpublished, CEA/Andra, internal report) [2] Percolation experiments in compacted illite (Chen et al., 2018). [3] Diffusion experiments in Opalnius Clay (OPA) and Helvetic Marl (HM) (Wigger and van Loon, 2017). [4] Crosses represent ∏ values of organics measured in this study. Values were used to extrapolate ε_a/ε according to an m-Archie law (Jacquier et al., 2013).



Figure 3: Effect of anion exclusion on adsorption of carboxylic acids in clay rich media.
[1] Percolation in compacted illite (Chen et al., 2018; R_d^{MAX} extrapolated at high ionic strength).
[2] Diffusion in Callovo-Oxfordian clay rock (This study, R_d^{MAX} measured by batch experiments). Solid curve, best fit performed with all experimental data.

Dashed line represents the maximum ϵ_a/ϵ values reached at high ionic strength.



Figure 4: Comparison between R_d values calculated from diffusion experiments (Y axis) and R_d values measured by batch experiments (X axis). Superscripts indicate number of the diffusion experiment. Diffusion results are calculated using Eq. (12), leading to $R_d^{APPARENT}$ (red empty triangles) or $R_d^{CORRECTED}$ (green triangles) calculated with a correction factor (Eq. (9), Fig. 3).

n°/ref	Tracer	D _e ^{HTO}	ε ^{HTO}	D _e ^{ORGA}	α^{ORGA}		ea ORGA	R _d ^{APP}		R _d ^{BATCH}
		$(m^2 s^{-1})$	(%)	$(m^2 s^{-1})$	0		0	$(L kg^{-1})$	$(L kg^{-1})$	$(L kg^{-1})$
1 [a]	¹⁴ C-EDTA	3.60E-11	18.0%	8.90E-13	0.25	1.16E-01	0.047	0.1	6.5	8.3
2 [a]	¹⁴ C-α-ISA	3.60E-11	18.0%	2.97E-12	2.60	2.33E-01	0.072	1.1	15.1	13.2
3 [a]	¹⁴ C-Phthalate	3.60E-11	18.0%	2.50E-12	0.86	2.46E-01	0.075	0.4	4.0	1.4
4 [a]	¹⁴ C-Oxalate	3.60E-11	18.0%	3.80E-12	1.37	2.61E-01	0.078	0.6	5.5	7.9
5 [b]	Eu-EDTA	3.60E-11	18.0%	1.36E-12	3.57	1.78E-01	0.061	1.6	43.6	12.5
6 [b]	¹⁵² Eu-EDTA	3.60E-11	18.0%	4.50E-13	1.10	5.88E-02	0.031	0.5	104.3	12.5
7 [c]	¹⁴ C-Oxalate	4.42E-11	22.7%	6.60E-12	2.74	3.69E-01	0.122	1.3	4.2	8.4
8 [c]	¹⁴ C-Oxalate	3.73E-11	22.9%	6.02E-12	4.97	3.99E-01	0.129	2.3	6.2	8.4
9 [c]	³ H-Phthtalate	2.67E-11	17.9%	9.30E-13	0.07	1.23E-01	0.048	0.01	0.6	1.5
10 [c]	³ H-Phthalate	4.51E-11	19.5%	1.28E-12	0.07	1.00E-01	0.046	0.01	1.0	1.5
11[c]	³ H-Phthalate	2.50E-11	13.0%	8.40E-13	0.24	1.19E-01	0.034	0.1	6.0	1.0
12 [c]	¹⁴ C-Citrate	1.80E-11	15.0%	1.19E-12	0.66	2.60E-01	0.065	0.3	2.5	2.1
13 [c]	¹⁴ C-Citrate	2.20E-11	18.0%	1.80E-12	2.80	3.22E-01	0.089	1.2	6.1	2.3
14 [c]	³ H-Acetate	1.50E-11	15.0%	3.20E-12	0.07	4.82E-01	0.095	0.01	0.01	<0.1
15 [c]	³ H-Adipate	1.50E-11	15.0%	9.80E-13	0.09	2.15E-01	0.057	0.01	0.2	<0.1

Table 1. Diffusion parameters adjusted from experiments. Taken from [a] Dagnelie et al., 2014 [b] Descostes et al., 2017, [c] this work. Data in italic were not available and taken from average on similar samples. Data in bold are calculated using eq. 6, 7, 9 & 10.