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A robust and parsimonious model for caesium sorption on clay minerals and natural clay materials

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12 ABSTRACT

Caesium (Cs) is one of the most studied radionuclides in the fields of nuclear waste disposal and environmental sciences. The overall objective of this work is to improve the tools designed to describe and predict migration, retention, and bioaccumulation processes in the geosphere and the biosphere, particularly in the soil / solution soil / plant roots systems. Cs sorption on clay minerals has been extensively measured and modelled because these minerals control Cs mobility and (bio)availability in the environment.

A critical analysis of published experimental data on Cs sorption by clay minerals and natural clay materials along with the different models was performed in an attempt to elaborate and evaluate a generic model for Cs sorption. This work enabled us to propose a robust and parsimonious model for Cs sorption, which combines the surface complexation and cation exchange approaches invoking only two types of surface sites: frayed edge and exchange sites. Our model, referred to as the "1-pK DL/IE model", takes into account the competition between Cs and 25 other cations as well as the influence of the ionic strength and pH of the solution.

26 This model was successfully calibrated for Cs sorption on three reference clay minerals 27 (illite, montmorillonite and kaolinite), in a wide range of Cs concentrations and physicochemical conditions. Using the same parameters, we tested our model on several natural clayey materials 28 29 containing a single to several clay minerals. The goodness-of-fit obtained with natural materials 30 containing a single clay mineral demonstrates the robustness of the model. The results obtained 31 with natural mixed clay materials confirm the predictive capability of the model and also allowed 32 us to test the sensitivity to the mineral composition of these materials (uncertainties). We found 33 that illite is usually the most reactive clay mineral with respect to Cs sorption and that component 34 additivity is applicable when the contribution of other clay minerals becomes non negligible. The 35 whole set of model-measurement comparisons performed in this study provides a high level of 36 confidence in the capabilities of the 1-pK DL/IE model as an interesting predictive tool.

37

38 1 Introduction

39

40 Since decades the pollution of natural ecosystems by radionuclides has become a major 41 concern for society. In particular, caesium (Cs) is widely studied by environmental scientists using 42 different analytic and experimental techniques (Benedicto et al., 2014; Bostick et al., 2002; 43 Chorover et al., 2003; Missana et al., 2014a; Savoye et al., 2012; Wendling et al., 2005). One of the Cs radio-isotopes, ¹³⁷Cs, is an important fission product from the irradiation of uranium-based 44 fuels, has a relatively long life ($t_{1/2} = 30$ years), and constitutes a significant radioecological hazard 45 46 due to its hard gamma emission. After release of radioactivity into the environment, this 47 radioelement is considered as the main source of contamination of soils (Avery, 1996; Strebl et al., 48 1999) and the principal source of radioactivity of nuclear waste in the timeframe of the first one 49 hundred years. Moreover, radiocaesium always exists as the monovalent cation Cs⁺, with chemical

properties similar to potassium (K^+) (Kamei-Ishikawa et al., 2011; Roca and Vallejo, 1995), having very high solubility (Benedicto et al., 2014; Fuller et al., 2014; Missana et al., 2014b; NDA, 2010). Cs mobility in soils environment is also known to be significantly influenced by retention capacity for Cs⁺ (Avery, 1996; Strebl et al., 1999).

Understanding the processes that control the bioavailability and mobility of Cs in the biosphere and geosphere constitutes a major challenge that has to be tackled in order to provide a good estimate of its health and ecological hazard. Geochemical reactions, particularly those occurring at mineral/water interfaces, closely control the fate and behavior of the major elements or trace in these systems (Koretsky, 2000). The adsorption/desorption process (i.e. sorption) generally dominates the interactions between Cs and soil as this element hardly forms solid species in natural environments (Dzene et al., 2015).

61 Clay minerals are often invoked as the most important minerals that control the 62 bioavailability and mobility (migration-retention) of Cs in subsurface (e.g. soils and sediments) 63 and groundwater environments (Bostick et al., 2002; Chorover et al., 2003; Missana et al., 2014a; Savoye et al., 2012; Shenber and Eriksson, 1993; Wendling et al., 2005). In soils, the most 64 efficient carrier phases of Cs⁺ are clay minerals, especially 2:1 layer clays, with a permanent 65 charge arising from isomorphic substitution (Bostick et al., 2002; Comans et al., 1991; Comans 66 67 and Hockley, 1992; Cornell, 1993; Maes and Cremers, 1986; Nakano et al., 2003; Sawhney, 1972; Watanabe et al., 2012); firstly because of their ubiquity and secondly because they have large 68 specific surface areas with a high density of (negatively and positively) charged surface sites 69 70 (Kraepiel et al., 1999; Langmuir, 1997).

Among the different properties of Cs/clay mineral interactions, the non-linear Cs sorption isotherms on phyllosilicate clays, such as illite (Bradbury and Baeyens, 2000; Cornell, 1993; Eliason, 1966; Missana et al., 2004; Poinssot et al., 1999; Staunton and Roubaud, 1997; Wahlberg and Fishman, 1962), is considered to be the result of the heterogeneity of the surface adsorption sites. (i) High affinity sites, which adsorb strongly and specifically Cs, are located on the edges of 76 clay minerals and are therefore usually termed as « Frayed Edge Sites » (FES) (Brouwer et al., 77 1983; Eberl, 1980; Francis and Brinkley, 1976; Jackson, 1963; Maes and Cremers, 1986; Poinssot et al., 1999; Rich and Black, 1964; Sawhney, 1972; Zachara et al., 2002). (ii.) The remaining sites, 78 79 which have a lower, non-specific, affinity for Cs, are present in large quantities and located on 80 planar surface and mainly constitute the cation exchange capacity (CEC). On these sites, the 81 adsorption of Cs strongly depends on the composition of the cationic exchangeable population, 82 since the adsorption reaction partly proceeds as cation exchange (Cornell, 1993; Rigol et al., 2002; 83 Staunton and Roubaud, 1997; Zachara et al., 2002). Cs can also be selectively fixed on interlayer 84 sites of phyllosilicate clays (Rigol et al., 2002; Salles et al., 2013). Adsorption therefore depends 85 on the relative affinities of Cs, the nature of the competitive exchanging cations, pH and the ionic strength. 86

87 Caesium adsorption mechanisms on illite has received a lot of attention for several decades 88 and different studies were produced that inferred the prevailing mechanism (Sawhney, 1972) and, 89 more recently, gave spectroscopic evidence that Cs initially sorbs on illite FES and can eventually 90 enter into the interlayer and be incorporated into the mineral structure (Fuller et al., 2015; Lee et 91 al., 2017). Cesium adsorption on vermiculite and montmorillonite was described by Bostick et al. 92 (2002) as a function of surface coverage using EXAFS. These authors also found that inner-sphere 93 surface complexes may form within the interlayer or at frayed edge sites and were less accessible 94 than outer-sphere complexes. None of these studies exclude the possibility of having Cs adsorbed 95 onto amphoteric sites, at least in the early stage of sorption which would account for the pH-96 dependency of Cs sorption as opposed to ion exchange in the interlayer. This aspect has received 97 much less attention and experimental data is still lacking, especially for illite. Furthermore, the 98 partial reversibility of Cs is difficult to reconciliate with the "collapsed" interlayer resulting from 99 Cs incorporation into the structure of illite (Comans et al., 1991; Comans et al., 1992; De Koning 100 and Comans, 2004; Durant et al., 2018).

101

Several models have been developed in the last two decades in order to interpret and model

102 non-linear Cs sorption onto mineral phases under specific conditions (homoionized mineral phases, 103 many fixed experimental parameters such as pH and ionic strength) (Baeyens and Bradbury, 1997; 104 Benedicto et al., 2014; Bradbury and Baeyens, 2000; Brouwer et al., 1983; Chen et al., 2014; 105 Gutierrez and Fuentes, 1996; Liu et al., 2004; Marques Fernandes et al., 2015; Missana et al., 106 2014a; Missana et al., 2014b; Montavon et al., 2006; Poinssot et al., 1999; Savoye et al., 2012; 107 Silva, 1979; Zachara et al., 2002). However, no compilation or comparison study of these models 108 has ever been proposed. Moreover, these models, whose parameters are obtained in a semi-109 empirical manner, do not take into account the effect of pH on the mineral surface charge: this 110 implies that their transferability to heterogeneous environments is limited (Koretsky, 2000; 111 Missana et al., 2008). Another important point is that these models were calibrated for specific 112 physicochemical conditions proper to each study without considering the transferability to other 113 conditions. This constitutes the major limitation of cation exchange models found in literature, 114 which appear to be unsatisfactory to predict Cs sorption a wide range of conditions in natural 115 systems without any modification of the thermodynamic parameters.

116 The objective of this work was (i) to establish a compilation of the current models describing 117 Cs sorption on natural clayey materials and (ii) to perform a cross-comparison of all these models 118 with all the data available in the literature for pure clay minerals and for clay materials. (iii) An 119 alternative model was finally developed in order to improve the performance, the robustness and 120 the predictability of the existing models, based on the combining approach (i.e. cation exchange 121 and surface complexation models) described above, and requiring fewer parameters (i.e. 122 parsimonious) than most of the others modelling approaches. It is designed to be capable of modelling Cs adsorption without any parameter changes over a larger range of chemical conditions 123 124 (i.e. robustness). We calibrated this model with all the data available in the literature for pure clay 125 minerals (illite, montmorillonite, and kaolinite) and we assessed its validity for clay materials of 126 increasing complexity, ranging for relatively simple materials containing only a single clay mineral 127 to materials such as bentonite and claystones containing several types of clay minerals.

128

129 2 Material and methods

130

131 2.1 Available data on clay minerals and clay materials

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133 A compilation of existing experimental and modeled data found in the literature was performed in order to evaluate the existing models for Cs sorption on clay minerals and the one 134 135 developed here. These data are mostly constituted by Cs sorption isotherms on the most common clay minerals, i.e. illite, montmorillonite, and kaolinite (243 observations), and on a variety of clay 136 137 materials (378 observations) (Table 2 and 4). The adsorption data usually presented in the form of 138 a distribution coefficient (K_d) for the adsorbed Cs as a function of Cs concentration in solution at equilibrium or as a function of pH. The distribution coefficient between the solid and the liquid 139 phase, K_d (L kg⁻¹), is calculated using the following relationship: 140

141
$$K_d = \frac{[Cs_{tot}] - [Cs_{eq}]}{[Cs_{eq}]} \frac{V}{m}$$
(1)

where $[Cs]_{tot}$ is the total Cs concentration of the suspension (mol L⁻¹), $[Cs]_{eq}$ is the Cs concentration in solution at equilibrium (mol L⁻¹), m/V is the solid: liquid ratio with m the mass of the clay (kg), and V is the volume of the liquid (L).

Table 1 shows the different clay minerals considered in the present investigation, together with their mineralogical properties and the experimental conditions used in the studies. The most abundant set of experimental data concerns illite with a total 191 observations. Fewer experimental data were found for montmorillonite (51 observations) and kaolinite (67 observations). All the clay minerals had been purified and homoionized in Na, K, Ca or NH₄ before performing Cs sorption. The different types of illite considered in this investigation have different origins (Le Puy, Rojo Carbonero and Morris), but exhibit consistent values for the cationic exchange capacities (CEC) and Specific Surface Area (SSA) (Table 1). Note that the illite from Le Puy-en-Velay is usually
considered as the "reference" illite and its parameters are preferentially used in several studies
(Bradbury and Baeyens, 2000; Chen et al., 2014; Maes et al., 2008; Marques Fernandes et al.,
2015).

The experimental conditions (i.e. ionic strength and major cation concentration) used in Cs sorption experiments performed on simple clay materials (Rojo Carbonero clay, MX-80 bentonite, Boda claystone and Hanford sediments) are listed in **Tables 2** and **3**, along with their mineralogical properties, the type and content of clay mineral. The experimental data obtained with clay materials containing different clay minerals (FEBEX clay, San Juan clay, Callovo–Oxfordian samples, Opalinus clay and Boom clay) and the corresponding experimental conditions are summarized in **Tables 4** and **5**.

- 163
- 164 2.2 Sorption models
- 165

Ion Exchange

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The theory of ion exchange is a macroscopic approach developed by Bolt (1982). This exchange involves the structural negative charge of mineral clays, which is compensated by cations adsorption within the interlayer space. In general, several exchange sites can be used to calibrate the exchange data. For the model developed here, we chose to start with a model containing only a single site with a capacity equal to the cationic exchange capacity (CEC).

The exchange of ions at the solid-water interface is usually described by reactions in which an equivalent amount of counter-ion charge is conserved. For a single negatively charged site $\equiv X^-$ (e.g. cationic exchange sites of the clays), the ionic exchange reaction involving ions Nⁿ⁺ et M^{m+} is expressed as follows:

177
$$m\{(X^{-})_{n}N^{n+}\} + nM^{m+} \leftrightarrow n\{(X^{-})_{m}M^{m+}\} + mN^{n+}$$
 (2)

Being reversible, the thermodynamic constant of cation exchange reactions is expressed by:

179
$${}^{M}_{N}K = \frac{[(X^{-})_{m}M^{m+}]^{n} \cdot [N^{n+}]^{m}}{[(X^{-})_{n}N^{n+}]^{m} \cdot [M^{m+}]^{n}} \frac{(f^{n}_{(X^{-})_{m}M^{m+}})}{(f^{m}_{(X^{-})_{n}N^{n+}})} \frac{(\gamma^{n}_{M^{m+}})}{(\gamma^{m}_{N^{n+}})}$$
(3)

180 where [] is the concentration of species in solution (mol L^{-1}) or adsorbed to the solid surface (mol kg⁻¹), and f and γ are the activities of the adsorbed and aqueous species, respectively.

In solutions of constant total molality, frequently, the ratio of the activity coefficients of the adsorbed species is nearly constant (the ratio is set to 1) (Gaines and Thomas, 1953), and the selectivity coefficient K_c is defined as follows (Jacquier et al., 2004; Savoye et al., 2012) :

185
$${}^{M}_{N}K_{c} = \frac{[(X^{-})_{m}M^{m+}]^{n} \cdot [N^{n+}]^{m}}{[(X^{-})_{n}N^{n+}]^{m} \cdot [M^{m+}]^{n}} \frac{\gamma^{m}_{M}}{\gamma^{m}_{N^{n+}}}$$
(4)

186

187 2.2.2 Surface Complexation

188

189 Analogous to ion complexation in solution, 'Surface Complexation Models' (SCM) (Avena 190 and De Pauli, 1998; Bradbury and Baeyens, 2002; Davis et al., 1978; Davis and Kent, 1990; 191 Ikhsan et al., 2005; Sposito, 1984) provide a molecular description of ion adsorption using an 192 equilibrium approach that defines surface species, chemicals reactions, equilibrium constants, mass 193 balances, and charge balances (Goldberg, 2013). This molecular approach was developed by 194 Schindler et al. (1976) who have demonstrated that the adsorption of a cation on a positively 195 charged surface is possible. These conceptual models take into account both the intrinsic affinity of 196 surface sites for solutes and the coulombic interaction between the charged surface and the 197 dissolved ions (Davis et al., 1978; Hayes and Leckie, 1987; Schindler et al., 1976).

198 Several chemical SCM have been developed during the last three decades to describe 199 potentiometric titration and metal adsorption data at the oxide-metal solution interface and have

200	been very successful in describing adsorption processes (Goldberg and Criscenti, 2007). These
201	models are distinguished by differences in their respective molecular hypotheses: each model
202	assumes a particular interfacial structure, resulting in the consideration of various kinds of surface
203	reactions and electrostatic correction factors to mass law equations (Davis and Kent, 1990). The
204	description of the most common models is supplied in the Appendix.

205

206 **3 Modelling approaches**

207 3.1 Overview of existing models for Cs sorption on clay minerals

208

209 A wide range of multi-site ion exchange models were proposed in the literature to simulate 210 experimental data and understand the non-linear Cs sorption behavior on clay minerals. For illite, 211 cation exchange (CE) models with three exchange sites are usually considered (Benedicto et al., 212 2014; Bradbury and Baeyens, 2000; Brouwer et al., 1983; Cornell, 1993; Fuller et al., 2014; 213 Marques Fernandes et al., 2015; Missana et al., 2014b; Steefel et al., 2003). Such models have also 214 been reported for Cs sorption onto smectites and kaolinite (Missana et al., 2014b). Furthermore, 215 one-site CE models (Bradbury and Baeyens, 2010; Chen et al., 2014) and two-site models can also 216 be found for smectites (Liu et al., 2004; Missana et al., 2014b; Poinssot et al., 1999; Zachara et al., 217 2002).

Poinssot et al. (1999) proposed a two-site CE model for illite, but they only considered the exchange reactions between Na⁺, or K⁺ and H⁺. Savoye et al. (2012) have developed a 5-sites CE model for which selectivity coefficient values were calculated from Poinssot et al. (1999). Selectivity coefficients of CE models are usually obtained from batch-type experiments, measured with pure mineral phases in dispersed state at specific physicochemical conditions (nature of exchange cations, ionic strength, pH, contact time, concentration of some ion). The major differences between these models are the number of Cs sorption sites and the capacities of each site. These semi-empirical parameters calculated for each study fall in a relatively close range, considering that the uncertainty is up to ± 0.2 L kg⁻¹ (log unit) due to measurement uncertainty. Missana et al. (2014a) also note that selectivity coefficients vary with ionic strength for different clays.

The analysis of these models shows that only the "generalized caesium sorption" (GCS) model of Bradbury and Baeyens (2000) has been applied to different experimental data (Brouwer et al. (1983), Comans et al. (1991), Staunton and Roubaud (1997), and Poinssot et al. (1999)). No other data compilation and/or model comparison on experimental sorption data has been performed, leaving a wide range of choices for cation exchange modelling of Cs sorption onto illite without clear selection criteria. Note that the model proposed by Poinssot et al. (1999) corresponds to the GCS model without the planar site.

A large number of studies suggest that Cs adsorption depends on pH for various clay 236 237 minerals (Akiba et al., 1989; Cornell, 1993; Torstenfelt et al., 1982). For instance, Poinssot et al. (1999) observed a small decrease in Cs sorption on illite, at pH lower than 4 and at low Cs 238 concentration (<10⁻⁸ M), where sorption onto the FES dominates (Fuller et al., 2014). This pH-239 dependent adsorption of trace elements, such as Cs⁺ can easily be explained by analogy with the 240 sorption properties of oxides (Kraepiel et al., 1999). The FES result from broken bonds at the 241 242 edges of clay crystals and hydroxyl groups, and contribute to the development of negative and 243 positive charge (Cornell, 1993). They can potentially react with ions in solution to yield surface complexes (Koretsky, 2000) like pure oxides phases (Angove et al., 1997; Ikhsan et al., 1999; 244 245 Kraepiel et al., 1999; Lackovic et al., 2003; Zachara and McKinley, 1993). These surface reactions 246 may be described with a SCM, in which the FES are commonly called 'variable charge sites' and noted =SOH (Davis and Kent, 1990; Davis and Leckie, 1978; Sposito, 1984). 247

Metal and radionuclide (Ni²⁺, Zn²⁺, Eu³⁺, Al³⁺, Cu²⁺, Cd²⁺, Pb²⁺, Sr²⁺, Co²⁺, Cs⁺, Ca²⁺, Na⁺,
Se²⁻, F⁻, Br⁻ and Γ) adsorption on clay minerals was successfully modeled in many studies using an approach combining cation exchange and surface complexation (Baeyens and Bradbury, 1997;

251 Bruggeman et al., 2010; Charlet et al., 1993; Du et al., 1997; Gu and Evans, 2007, 2008; Gutierrez 252 and Fuentes, 1996; Lund et al., 2008; Mahoney and Langmuir, 1991; Missana et al., 2009; Missana 253 and Garcia-Gutiérrez, 2007; Stadler and Schindler, 1993; Tertre et al., 2006; Weerasooriya et al., 1998; Zachara and McKinley, 1993). This approach usually involves two distinct types of surface 254 255 sites at the interface between the solid and the solution: (i) $\equiv X^{-}$ groups bearing a permanent negative charge which account for the cation exchange part of sorption. Cations (e.g., Na^+ , K^+ 256 Ca^{2+}) binding at this type of surface sites occurs through electrostatic interactions ; (ii) amphoteric 257 258 ≡SOH groups on FES with high affinity for metals and radionuclides but low site density which 259 control protonation/deprotonation (i.e., pH-dependent) which account explicitly for the adsorption 260 of background electrolyte.

261 Several authors have proposed sorption on amphoteric surface hydroxyl as a suitable 262 mechanism for pH-dependent sorption, as opposed to mineral dissolution or H+ exchange 263 (Baeyens and Bradbury, 1997). Studies therefore considered the surface complexation mechanism 264 for the description of trace Cs sorption on amphoteric hydroxyl groups of montmorillonite (on 265 ≡SOH edge sites). For instance, Gutierrez and Fuentes (1996) used the triple layer model (TLM) to simulate the adsorption of Cs⁺ onto Ca-montmorillonite. Two types of adsorption sites were 266 267 considered to be responsible for Cs adsorption: interlayer and (frayed) edge sites. The dominant 268 mechanism of adsorption was identified as specific adsorption in the edge sites which, although 269 composing only 5% of the total adsorption sites, accounted for as much as 94% of Cs adsorption. 270 Silva (1979) proposed a combined approach for montmorillonite: (i.) a two-site (\equiv SOH and \equiv TOH 271 groups) with a 1-pK Double Layer Model (DLM) and (ii.) a one-site cation exchange model. The authors have considered the complexation of Cs^+ and the Na⁺ on \equiv SOH and \equiv TOH edges groups. 272 273 This approach requires the fitting of 12 parameters which represents a major drawback. Hurel et al. (2002) have used another surface complexation model for the adsorption of cations (Cs^+ , Na^+ , K^+ , 274 Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+}) on bentonite. Cs sorption was modeled on the silanol edge sites as well as cation 275 276 exchange. Wang et al. (2005), also found that at high pH Cs⁺ sorption onto bentonite was 277 dominated by surface complexation.

278 To model Cs sorption on MX-80 bentonite, Montavon et al. (2006) used the simplified two-279 pK non-electrostatic model (NEM) from Bradbury and Baevens (1997) to describe the pHdependent interactions with clay edge surfaces in combination with a cation exchange in the 280 interlayer and on the basal plane surfaces. This model is also very "expensive" in terms of number 281 of adjustable parameters (four SCM and two cation exchange sites). The authors noted that the 282 283 parameters were only applicable for the conditions of their study. Bradbury and Baeyens (2010) proposed a unique selectivity coefficient (K_c=15) for all the Cs concentration range, which does 284 285 not allow to account for the non-linearity of Cs sorption isotherm on MX-80 bentonite.

In summary, existing models are usually successful in reproducing a specific set of experiments but are often complex in terms of the number of adjustable parameters and implementation (2-pK TLM, 2-pK DLM...). Moreover, the applicability of these models is restricted to the data on which they were calibrated and their ability to predict Cs sorption in heterogeneous environments or natural systems appears therefore limited.

291

292 3.2 Building a new, robust and parsimonious model for caesium sorption

293

To model Cs sorption onto illite, montmorillonite and kaolinite, we tried to minimize the number of adjustable parameters to fit the largest number of sorption data sets by combining:

a surface complexation model which is used to describe the adsorption of cations (protons,
 Cs, and cations from the background electrolyte) on a single FES site (=SO^{-0.5}) with a high
 affinity for Cs but with very low site density,

and an Ion Exchange model (IE), which is used to simulate the adsorption of cations on
 permanent negatively charged sites of planar surfaces of clay minerals, including outer-

301 basal and interlayers sites ($\equiv X^-$), which have a low affinity for Cs but a high site density 302 (i.e. large contribution to the global CEC). These sites will be called in this study 303 "exchange sites".

Our modelling methodology is similar to that introduced by Tournassat et al. (2013) as a "minimalist" modelling approach for sorption on high energy sites of montmorillonite edge surfaces, which attempts to minimize the number of adjustable parameters for modeling the largest number of sorption data and by using a 1-pK approach. This is an advantage over multi-site models available in the literature for Cs sorption on illite and montmorillonite, which have more than two sorption sites, with the exception of the model used by Poinssot et al. (1999).

310 As in many other studies (Baeyens and Bradbury, 1997; Bruggeman et al., 2010; Charlet et 311 al., 1993; Gu and Evans, 2007; Gutierrez and Fuentes, 1996; Lund et al., 2008; Mahoney and 312 Langmuir, 1991; Missana and Garcia-Gutiérrez, 2007; Stadler and Schindler, 1993; Tertre et al., 313 2006; Zachara and McKinley, 1993), we used a SCM to model the adsorption of cations on surface hydroxyl groups (=SOH) localized in FES for two reasons : (i) these models allow a mechanistic 314 315 description based on the chemical nature of the adsorption process, and (ii) they take into account 316 both the intrinsic affinity of surface sites for solutes and the coulombic interaction between the surface charge and the dissolved cations (Davis et al., 1978; Hayes and Leckie, 1987; Schindler et 317 318 al., 1976). We have chosen the Double Layer Model (DLM) (Dzombak and Morel, 1990; Huang 319 and Stumm, 1973; Stumm et al., 1970), as several previous authors (Bradbury and Baeyens, 1997; Hoch and Weerasooriva, 2005; Silva, 1979; Sverjensky and Sahai, 1996; Tertre et al., 2006; 320 321 Tombácz and Szekeres, 2004; Wanner et al., 1996), because it is one of the simplest model 322 available with fewer fitting parameters than other surface complexation models. Moreover, the values of reaction constants depend only on the nature of the solid and the adsorbing solute (not on 323 324 pH, adsorbate concentration, ionic strength and solution composition; (Koretsky, 2000). For more details, see the DLM description in the Appendix. 325

326

We selected the 1-pK approach (Van Riemsdijk (1979); Bolt and Van Riemsdijk (1982))

327 combined with the DLM, using only one charge reaction, as opposed to the classical 2-pK-DLM 328 approach (adsorbing protons in two consecutive steps, each having its own affinity and charge 329 properties). Hiemstra et al. (1989) and Koopal (1993) suggested that the 1-pK model may be used 330 as a physically most realistic simplified model to describe the protonation/deprotonation reactions 331 of (hydr)oxides, when the structure of a surface is not well known (Avena and De Pauli, 1996).

332 Surface roughness was not explicitly treated in this paper. We consider that roughness is 333 embedded into the surface area value that we take from the literature.

334 3.3 Geochemical software and statistical analysis

335

The modelling of the adsorption of Cs and co-ions using our 1-pK DL/IE model was performed with PHREEQC v2.18 (Parkhurst and Appelo, 1999). The goodness of fit of the simulations was optimized with the adjusted determination coefficient (R^2_{adj} , Appendix, A.2) and by minimizing the difference between predicted and measured values, using the Root Mean Square Deviation (RMSD). Further details are supplied in the Appendix.

341

342 **4 Results and discussion**

343 4.1 Calibration of the 1-pK DL/IE model for Cs sorption

344

The mineralogical properties and parameters values used in the 1-pK DL/IE model to simulate sorption data for Cs under the conditions defined in **Table 1** onto the three pure clay minerals (illite, montmorillonite and kaolinite) are shown in **Table 6**.

348 The logK_H value for illite was calculated using Eqn. A.7 with the logK_{a1} and logK_{a2} (logK_{SC} 349 reported by Liu et al. (1999). Note that the calculated value is comparable to the pH of zero point 350 charge (pH_{ZPC}) of other types of illite (Du et al., 1997; Liu et al., 1999). Similarly, the logK_H value used for kaolinite was derived from the 2-pK DLM developed by Hoch and Weerasooriya (2005) for the KGa kaolinite. Again, the calculated value is close to the pH_{ZPC} (4.9) determined by the same authors. In the case of montmorillonite, the $logK_{H}$ value was assumed to be equal to pH_{ZPC} reported by Ijagbemi et al. (2009).

The equilibrium constants used to simulate cation adsorption on FES ($\log K_{SOM}$) are shown in Table 6. Some values are taken directly from the literature while others were determined by fitting the experimental data listed in Table 1.

358 Firstly, the logK_{SONa} values for illite and montmorillonite were assumed to be equal to the 359 values reported by Mahoney and Langmuir (1991) (2.2 and -2, respectively for ≡SOH site). 360 Secondly, the logK_{SOCs} values for both clay minerals were determined by concurrently fitting the 361 1-pK DL/IE model to the experimental data (5.2 and 4.3, respectively), and the logK_{SONa} values 362 were revised to -1.8 and -1.3, respectively. Note that revised logK_{SONa} values are close to the 363 values proposed by Duputel et al. (2014) for illite (-1.6) and Lumsdon (2012) for both minerals (-1). Similarly, the logK_{SOK} value for both clay minerals, and logK_{SONH₄} value for illite were 364 365 determined using the same method.

The values of Ca, Mg and Sr surface complexation constants for illite, montmorillonite and kaolinite have been taken directly from literature: Bradbury and Baeyens (2005) for \equiv S^{w2}OH sites, Mahoney and Langmuir (1991) for \equiv SOH sites and Riese (1982) for \equiv SiOH sites, respectively. The logK_{SONa} and logK_{SOK} values for kaolinite, were taken directly from Mahoney and Langmuir (1991) for \equiv SOH sites and Jung et al. (1998) for \equiv SiOH sites. The logK_{SONH4} value for kaolinite was assumed to be equal to logK_{SOK} value.

The selectivity coefficients (K_c) values for the cation exchange model were generated by starting from literature values and fitting the 1-pK DL/IE model to published Cs sorption data from **Table 1**. Note that the values obtained are close to selectivity coefficients of existing cation exchange models.

The values for the site capacity of the permanent negatively charged sites ($\equiv X^{-}$), i.e. mainly 376 377 the CEC, and the specific surface area (SSA) for the three studied clay minerals are within the literature range. The \equiv SOH^{0.5} site density value used for illite was $2.7 \cdot 10^{-3}$ sites nm⁻² ≈ 0.43 meg 378 kg^{-1} , assumed to be equal to the mean FES site density values reported by Missana et al. (2014b) 379 and Benedicto et al. (2014) (0.58 and 0.29 meg kg⁻¹, respectively). For montmorillonite and 380 kaolinite, the values of \equiv SOH^{0.5} site density were obtained by fitting the experimental data. 381 Furthermore, \equiv SOH^{0.5} site density value for montmorillonite (3.6·10⁻⁵ sites nm⁻² \approx 4·10⁻² meq kg⁻¹ 382 with $SSA = 800 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$) was in the same order of magnitude than the value proposed by Montavon 383 et al. (2006) for exchangeable interlayer cations site in MX-80 montmorillonite ($2 \cdot 10^{-2} \text{ meq kg}^{-1}$). 384 For kaolinite, the value of \equiv SOH^{0.5} site density (1.5 \cdot 10^{-4} sites nm⁻² $\approx 2.4 \cdot 10^{-3}$ meg kg⁻¹) is close to 385 the value suggested by Missana and al. (2014b) for the FES $(5 \cdot 10^{-3} \text{ meq kg}^{-1})$. 386

387

388 4.1.1 Cs sorption on illite

389 Results obtained with the 1-pK DL/IE model (continuous red lines) for illite are shown in Figure 1. The dotted lines represent results calculated by the different sorption models proposed in 390 the literature. It can be seen that the models globally reproduced well the decrease of K_d with 391 increasing dissolved Cs concentration, as well as the difference between Na and Ca-illite (Figure 392 1a, b, g, h) versus K and NH₄-illite (Figure 1c-f and i) and ionic strength of the solution. These 393 394 well-known differences reflect the selectively of illite (especially on FES) for cations according to the following order of affinity: $Cs^+ > NH_4^+ > K^+ > Na^+ > Sr^{2+} > Ca^{2+}$ and Mg^{2+} , (Appelo and 395 396 Postma, 1993; Brouwer et al., 1983; Dyer et al., 2000; Staunton and Roubaud, 1997). The model results show, in particular, that K⁺ competes most effectively with Cs⁺ adsorption (Eberl, 1980; 397 Sawhney, 1972). Concerning the effect of ionic strength (I), the modelling also confirms that the 398 K_d increases as the ionic strength of the solution decreases, which is more marked for Na and K-399 400 illite than for Ca-illite.

401 The contribution of each type of sorption site is illustrated for the 1pK DL/IE model in 402 **Figure A.4** for Na-illite at pH= 7 and I = 0.1 mol L⁻¹. At low total Cs concentrations ([Cs]_{tot} = 10^{-9} 403 - 10^{-7} mol L⁻¹), sorption is dominated by FES (=SOCs^{0.5}) which have a high affinity for Cs (logK_d 404 values are higher), a very small concentration (0.43 meq kg⁻¹), and are therefore quickly saturated. 405 At medium and high total Cs concentrations ([Cs]_{tot} = $10^{-7} - 10^{-4}$ mol L⁻¹), sorption occurs on the 406 remaining sites on planar surfaces (exchange sites) which have a higher capacity (190-225 meq kg⁻¹) 407 ¹) and a lower selectivity (i.e. lower logK_d values).

408 Results also show that the goodness of fit of the 1pK DL/IE model is globally better than the 409 other models (dotted lines). These performances were obtained using of a unique set of parameters to simulate all the experimental data. For example, in the case of Na-illite at $I = 0.01 \text{ mol } L^{-1}$ 410 411 (Figure 1a, data from Benedicto et al. (2014)), the 1pK DL/IE model and the 3-sites cation 412 exchange model developed by Benedicto et al. (2014), which was specifically calibrated for these 413 experimental data, adequately reproduce the measured $\log K_d$ (see **Table 7**). However, their model 414 is out-performed by the 1pK DL/IE model when simulating experimental data from other authors. 415 The same behavior is observed in the case of K-illite (Figure 1c and 1e, data from Brouwer et al. 416 (1983)): the calculated logK_d values from the 1-pK DL/IE model and the 3-sites cation exchange 417 model proposed by Brouwer et al. (1983) both fall within the experimental errors in the whole 418 range of Cs concentrations, and have the best goodness of fit (RMSD values of 0.21 and 0.11 L kg⁻ ¹, and R^2_{adj} of 1.07 and 1.11, respectively). Globally, the cation exchange models provide a 419 420 satisfactory fit only for a limited Cs concentration range: some underestimate and other overestimate strongly Cs sorption as suggested by RMSD values $\geq 0.65 \text{ L kg}^{-1}$. 421

Further all the models underestimate Cs sorption on K-illite for high ionic strength and high Cs concentrations ($[Cs]_{eq} > 10^{-4} \text{ mol } L^{-1}$) (**Figure 1.f**). This may be explained by the expansion of the illite layers and the increase of the CEC (de-collapse) which facilitate Cs uptake, as postulated by Benedicto et al. (2014) (CEC_{decollapsed} = 900 meq kg⁻¹), or by the existence of a low amount of another clay mineral, which becomes relevant at high Cs concentrations when saturation of sorbed 427 Cs is reached for illite.

The global RMSD and R_{adi}^2 index, i.e. the average values of RMSD and R_{adi}^2 corresponding to 428 429 all the Cs sorption isotherms simulated for illite (n = 95 observations) are shown in **Table 7**. The model proposed in this study performs well for all the conditions (smallest global RMSD index 430 value of 0.25 L kg⁻¹ and $R^2_{adi} = 0.83$), which confirms its accuracy and robustness. The model 431 proposed by Benedicto et al. (2014) also reproduces reasonably well the experimental sorption 432 isotherms (RMSD = 0.27 L kg⁻¹ and $R^2_{adi} = 0.8$) but does not account for the effect of NH₄⁺ 433 concentrations and pH, and requires small adjustments of the parameters in order to improve the fit 434 in each condition. The global performance of the other models is lower. 435

436 The simulations of Cs sorption on illite as function of pH using the 1-pK DL/IE model and 437 the model from Poinssot et al. (1999) are shown in Figure 2. Our model reproduced the experimental data of Poinssot et al. (1999) with a better global accuracy (global RMSD index of 438 0.13 L kg⁻¹ vs. 0.25 L kg⁻¹ for Poinssot et al., 1999) for the range of ionic strength from 1 to 0.01 439 mol L⁻¹ (and particularly at the lower value). At low total Cs concentrations ([Cs]_{tot} $< 10^{-8}$ mol L⁻¹), 440 the simulations indicate that sorption on illite weakly depends on pH (sorption decreases only at 441 pH lower than 4) and is dominated by the \equiv SO^{-0.5} site, as it is also suggested by Poinssot et al. 442 443 (1999).

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445 4.1.2 Cs sorption on montmorillonite

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447 Only a few Cs sorption experimental data and models have been published for 448 montmorillonite. Moreover, these models have a large number of adjustable parameters. Note that 449 the data from experiments with MX-80 bentonite have not been used for the calibration of the 450 model but are considered hereafter for its evaluation (cf. section.4.2).

451 The CEC of purified SWy-montmorillonite (838 meq kg⁻¹) measured by Gorgeon (1994) was

452 similar to that reported by Staunton and Roubaud (1997) (940 meq kg⁻¹). In our model we assumed 453 that the CEC for montmorillonite is equal to value proposed by Baeyens and Bradbury (1997) for 454 conditioned Na-montmorillonite, i.e., 870 meq kg⁻¹.

Figure 3a represents the sorption isotherms of montmorillonite initially saturated with Na, K 455 456 and Ca, reported by (Staunton and Roubaud, 1997) and Figure 3b shows the effect of pH on Cs sorption for montmorillonite. Figure 3 shows that Cs sorption behavior for montmorillonite is 457 458 similar to that of illite. The sorption isotherms are non-linear especially for Ca-montmorillonite: little changes in logK_d values for Na- and K-montmorillonite were observed, whereas the value of 459 logK_d for Ca-montmorillonite decreases progressively with increasing Cs concentration, which 460 suggests some heterogeneity of the montmorillonite exchange sites and confirms the order of 461 affinity for cations according to the sequence $Cs^+ > K^+ > Na^+ > Ca^{2+}$ (Appelo and Postma, 1993; 462 Brouwer et al., 1983; Dyer et al., 2000; Staunton and Roubaud, 1997). 463

The analysis of the sorption distribution shows that Cs is adsorbed predominantly on exchange sites for Na- and K-kaolinite. In the case of Ca-illite the distribution of adsorbed Cs follows the same behaviors of illite (**Figure A.5**). Measured $\log K_d$ were appropriately reproduced using the 1-pK DL/IE model (**Table 6**) with the global RMSD index of 0.09 L kg⁻¹ for the sorption isotherms and 0.06 L kg⁻¹ for the sorption on FES.

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470 4.1.3 Cs sorption on kaolinite

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Only a few experimental data have been found in literature for the kaolinite, and only the two-sitecation exchange model of Missana et al. (2014b) was compared to the model developed here.

474 Gorgeon (1994) used a synthetic kaolinite (Sigma) which has similar properties than KGa-1-475 b. The CEC values of KGa-1-b and Sigma kaolinite are equal to 20 and 28 meq kg⁻¹ respectively 476 and their total specific surface area (SSA) are equal to 10 and $13.2 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$, respectively. Figure 4 shows that Cs sorption on kaolinite also follows the same pattern as illite, and was appropriately simulated using the 1-pK DL/IE model with a global RMSD index of 0.09 for sorption isotherms (Figure 4a) and 0.15 L kg⁻¹ for the sorption edge (Figure 4b). Cs sorption was slightly underestimated at pH 2-3 in the case of Na-kaolinite at high ionic strength I = 1 mol L⁻¹ and $[Cs]_{tot} = 10^{-7}$ mol L⁻¹. Our model (Figure 4a, solid lines) and the cation exchange model proposed by Missana et al. (2014b) (Figure 4a, dotted lines) show a similar goodness of fit for sorption isotherms.

The sorption isotherms are sensitive to [Cs] except for kaolinite initially saturated with K and NH₄, for which sorption was constant in a very wide range of Cs concentrations. A non-linear change in $\log K_d$ values was observed on a small range (0.5 log unit) for Na and Ca-kaolinite. Note that both models failed to reproduce the high K_d value at high Cs concentration (Cs = 10^{-3} mol/L).

Simulations predict that sorption is dominated by exchange site ($\equiv X^{-}$) for all Cs concentrations range, especially for K-kaolinite (95%). The model could therefore be reduced to a single sorption site, as proposed by Shahwan and Erten (2002). However Missana et al. (2014b) suggested that the existence of high affinity sites (FES) on kaolinite and smectite is most probably due to the existence of traces of micaceous or interstratified minerals.

Figure A.6 shows (a) the distribution of sorbed Cs on sorption sites (\equiv SO^{-0.5} and \equiv X⁻) and 493 (b) the evolution of species distribution on \equiv SO^{-0.5} site (%) as function of pH as calculated by the 494 1-pK DL/IE model, for Na-kaolinite at I = 1 mol L^{-1} and $[Cs]_{tot} = 10^{-7}$ mol L^{-1} . At lower pH, the Cs 495 is totally adsorbed by surface planar sites (exchange sites) because \equiv SO^{-0.5} sites are initially 496 saturated by H^+ (=SOH^{0.5}). These sites progressively deprotonated in favor of the adsorption of Na 497 and Cs when pH increases from 2 to 5, resulting in an increase of the contribution of FES sites to 498 total Cs sorption. Above pH 5 ($\log K_{\rm H} = 5$), the =SOH^{0.5} species is negligible and the occupancy of 499 \equiv SO^{-0.5}, \equiv SOCs^{0.5}, \equiv SONa^{0.5} species represent 3%, 25% and 71%, respectively. 500

503 The effect of the electrostatic component was also estimated by applying the model without the electrostatic correction factor. The contribution of electrostatic term in Cs sorption on the 504 studied clay minerals was negligible, and the mean difference between K_d values calculated with 505 506 and without electrostatic term is in order of 0.01%. The maximum of this difference represented only 5% of the mean error of K_d values (\pm 0.2 L kg⁻¹) in very isolated cases, which means that the 507 508 electrostatic correction always remains within the uncertainty range. This ascertainments is in 509 agreement with the observation of Bradbury and Baeyens (1997) who showed that the contribution 510 of the electrostatic term was lower than the range of error. In this study Cs surface complexation at 511 edge sites is treated with very larger stability constants, frequently higher than those for proton 512 adsorption. So as a consequence the chemical contribution is in most cases so strong that it 513 overcomes competition with protons and repulsive electrostatics. So the double layer model can be 514 to reduce to a non-electrostatic model. This would also be numerically more easily included into a 515 transport code. Tournassat et al. (2013) have also demonstrated, by testing surface complexation 516 models available in the literature, that a non-electrostatic model is the most efficient model, in terms of simplicity and accuracy, to represent correctly the physical nature of the metal/clay 517 518 surface interactions.

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520 4.1.5 Performance of the model calibration

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Figure 5 represents the values of $\log K_d$ simulated by 1-pK DL/IE model as function of logK_d measured for illite, montmorillonite and kaolinite. This figure confirms that the model proposed in this study (1-pK DL/IE model) successfully reproduces the experimental data available in the literature for Cs sorption on these three clay minerals in a wide range of physicochemical conditions (ionic strength, pH, and solid/liquid ratio). Moreover, these results were 527 obtained with a unique set of parameters for each mineral whereas the selectivity coefficients are 528 often adjusted, for each curve, within a range of $\log K_c \pm 0.2 \text{ L kg}^{-1}$ by authors who want to 529 optimize the fit on their own data (McBride, 1979; Missana et al., 2014a; Staunton and Roubaud, 530 1997; Wahlberg and Fishman, 1962). The few points further from the 1:1 line correspond mostly 531 to the K_d values obtained for the highest Cs concentrations where all the models have difficulties to 532 simulate the experimental data.

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534 4.2 Model evaluation in natural material made of a single type of clay mineral

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The 1-pK DL/IE model was first tested in simple cases with other experimental data obtained on clay materials (Rojo Carbonero clay, MX-80 bentonite, Boda claystone and Hanford sediment) containing only one type clay mineral (illite or montmorillonite). The mineralogical properties of these clay materials, the content and type of clay mineral are listed in **Table 2**. The experimental conditions (i.e. ionic strength and major cationic environments) used in these experiments are listed in **Tables 2** and **3**. The 1-pK DL/IE model was applied directly without changing the parameters adjusted previously (**Table 6**).

For the Rojo Carbonero (RC) clay, the illite content considered was 57%, which result in a 543 capacity of exchange site $\equiv X^{-}$ of the 1-pK DL/E model equal to 127.9 meg Kg⁻¹. This hypothesis 544 slightly overestimates the CEC measured by Missana et al. (2014b) (110 meq Kg⁻¹). In the case of 545 MX-80 bentonite, the content of montmorillonite was assumed to be 81.4% (Karnland, 2010), and 546 the CEC equal to 870 meq kg⁻¹. The resulting capacity of the exchange site $\equiv X^{-1}$ of the 1-pK DL/E 547 model was equal to 705 meq kg⁻¹ in agreement with the CEC suggested by Bradbury and Baeyens 548 (2011) (787±48 meq kg⁻¹) and the exchangeable interlayer cations site ($\equiv X$) for the model 549 proposed by Montavon et al. (2006) (640 meg kg⁻¹). For the content and type clay mineral in the 550 Hanford sediment (precise data not available), we assumed that only illite was present with a 551

552 capacity of exchange site $\equiv X^{-}$ equal to the measured CEC as proposed by Zachara et al. (2002). 553 These authors performed sorption experiments with different ranges of particle size (63 µm and 554 125–250 µm) to demonstrate that the fraction of high affinity sites was independent of size fraction 555 and mineralogical composition. They noted that the concentration of high-affinity sites was very low, making it difficult to identify their location. The edge site density (\equiv SOH) used in modelling 556 was calculated from the fine fraction of sediment (<63 μ m), which was 9.2% (i.e. 2.5 $\cdot 10^{-4}$ sites nm⁻ 557 ²). Our modelling results for Hanford sediments confirmed the dependence of the caesium sorption 558 (K_d) on Cs and competing cation $(Na^+, K^+, and Ca^{2+})$ concentration. 559

560 Concerning the Boda clay sample (Breitner et al., 2014), (Marques Fernandes et al., 2015) 561 measured a CEC of 113 meq kg⁻¹. This value is consistent with the measured illite fraction of 50% 562 (considering the reference CEC value of 225 meq kg⁻¹ for illite).

563 The experimental data were successfully predicted with the 1-pK DL/IE model according to 564 the global RMSD= 0.21 L kg⁻¹ and R^2_{adj} = 0.90. The logK_d values simulated are highly correlated 565 (95%) to the logK_d values measured for the studied simple clay materials (**Figure 6**).

Table 8 summarizes the RMSD and R^2_{adj} index calculated for each material. These results show the good performance of the 1-pK DL/IE model to predict Cs sorption on natural simple clayey materials when complex natural solutions are used (i.e. presence of several competitive cations). Cs sorption isotherms for Rojo Carbonero clay, MX-80 bentonite, Boda claystone and Hanford sediment are supplied in the Appendix (**Figures A.7** to **A.10**).

For the RC clay, the results obtained with the 1-pK DL/IE model are a little better than those obtained with the three-site cation exchange model proposed by Missana et al. (2014b) (RMSD = 0.18 L kg^{-1} and R^2_{adj} =0.70). Also, for the Hanford sediment a similar goodness of fit is obtained for the two-cation exchange model proposed by Zachara et al. (2002) (data not shown, RMSD= 0.22 L kg⁻¹ and R²_{adj}= 0.44). In the case of Boda clay, the modelling results show that the 1-pK DL/IE model yields a better estimation for Cs sorption than the GCS model (Bradbury and Baeyens, 577 2000), in terms of accuracy (RMSD= 0.64 L kg^{-1}).

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579 4.3 Cs sorption model evaluation for mixed-clays natural materials

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Cs sorption was simulated for five clay materials in "prediction mode" by considering only illite as the main reactive clay or using a component additivity approach (CA) to represent the different clay minerals (illite, montmorillonite and kaolinite). Again, the 1-pK DL/IE model was used with the parameters obtained previously for each clay mineral (**Table 6**). In all simulations, only the clay mineral fractions and pore water compositions were used as input parameters (**Table 4** and **5**). The content and the type of clay mineral for each mixed-clay material are shown in **Table 9**.

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589 4.3.1 FEBEX clay

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Figure 7 shows that Cs sorption isotherms for Na, Ca and K-FEBEX clay were satisfactorily simulated with the 1-pK DL/IE model using the CA approach considering 93% of montmorillonite - illite mixed layers with 15% of interstratified illite and 78% of montmorillonite (global RMSD of 0.18 L kg⁻¹ and R²_{adj} index of 0.89, calculated from 12 sorption curves and 201 measured points). Insignificant differences were calculated between the global RMSD for the 3-site IE model proposed by Missana et al. (2014a) (\approx 10%).

In the case of Na-FEBEX clay at I = 0.001 mol L⁻¹, to obtain a good agreement with experimental data, we followed Missana et al. (2014a) and assumed that the concentration of exchange site (\equiv X⁻) was reduced by 30% considering that illite affected only the FES (RMSD = 0.18 L kg⁻¹). For the modelling of Cs sorption on Na, Ca and K-FEBEX as function of pH (**Figure** 601 **A.11**), a good fit was also obtained (RMSD = 0.19 L kg^{-1}).

The K_d values predicted by the model are slightly overestimated for Na-, Ca- and K-FEBEX clay at 0.01 mol L⁻¹, 0.3 mol L⁻¹ (only for lower Cs equilibrium concentrations) and 0.1 mol L⁻¹ (only for Cs equilibrium concentrations between 10^{-7} and 10^{-5} mol L⁻¹) (**Figure 7**). Similar results were observed in pH-edge simulations (**Figure A.11**).

For the Na-FEBEX clay, with $I = 0.01 \text{ mol } L^{-1}$, at low Cs concentration, sorption mostly 606 occurs onto illite, especially on FES (82%, Figure 8, doted red line). At higher Cs loading, 607 sorption on montmorillonite exchange sites becomes dominant (solid blue line). At intermediate Cs 608 concentration, sorption is nearly equivalent between illite and montmorillonite. The contribution of 609 610 montmorillonite FES is always very low and can be neglected. Although the illite fraction in 611 FEBEX clay does not exceed 15%, it has a very important contribution to Cs sorption, particularly 612 at low Cs concentration where sorption on FES dominates (Brouwer et al., 1983; Eberl, 1980; 613 Francis and Brinkley, 1976; Jackson, 1963; Maes and Cremers, 1986; Poinssot et al., 1999; Rich and Black, 1964; Sawhney, 1972; Zachara et al., 2002). It also has a critical role in the non-linear 614 615 character of the Cs sorption (Missana et al., 2014a; Missana et al., 2014b).

The model reproduces the main features of the experimental data: (i) Cs sorption increases by decreasing the ionic strength of the electrolyte from 0.1 to 0.001 mol L^{-1} , (ii) Cs sorption is nonlinear resulting from the existence of two different types of sorption site, as observed by different authors (Eliason, 1966; Missana et al., 2004; Staunton and Roubaud, 1997; Wahlberg and Fishman, 1962). Missana et al. (2014a) explain this behavior by the existence of interstratified illite-montmorillonite mixed-layers (with 10-15% of illite layers).

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623 4.3.2 San Juan clay

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625 Interestingly, the natural San Juan clay material contains a mixture of the three "reference"

clay minerals: illite (30 - 50%), kaolinite (10 - 15%) and montmorillonite (5 -10%) (Missana et al.,
2014b). Missana et al. (2014b) have simulated Cs sorption using the CA approach with multi-sites
cations exchange models assuming contributions from illite, kaolinite and montmorillonite of 40%,
12% and 10%, respectively.

630 Cs sorption isotherms were obtained in different conditions: (case A) several simple 631 electrolyte solutions (0.5 mol L⁻¹ NaCl, with addition of 0.02 mol L⁻¹ KCl and 0.02 mol L⁻¹ NH₄Cl) 632 and (case B) the Natural Saline Water (NSW, **Table 5**). The curves obtained using the CA 633 approach with the 1-pK DL/IE model for illite, montmorillonite and kaolinite (**Table 6**) are 634 superimposed to the experimental points for all conditions (**Figure 9**). A RMSD value of 0.10 L 635 kg⁻¹ was obtained (calculated on all the modeled data including those not shown here), *vs.* 0.19 L 636 kg⁻¹ for the model of Missana et al. (2014b).

The relative contribution of the different sorption sites to Cs sorption, for the experiment with NSW is presented in **Figure A.12a** showing that Cs sorption is dominated by illite, over the whole range of Cs loading. The contribution of kaolinite and montmorillonite FES can be neglected (confirming the hypothesis of Missana et al., 2014b), and montmorillonite (exchange sites) only contributes significantly at high Cs concentration.

The underestimation of the K_d value (1.53 L kg⁻¹) at high Cs equilibrium concentration (\approx 642 $[Cs]_{eq} = 2 \cdot 10^{-2} \text{ mol } L^{-1}$) after the saturation of exchange sites of illite and montmorillonite, can be 643 due to the existence of a low amount of another clay mineral which was not taken into account. In 644 645 Figure A.12b, the sorption curves are plotted for three different clay mineral fractions in SJ clay: a 646 minimum (30% illite, 5% montmorillonite and 10% kaolinite), medium (40% illite, 10% 647 montmorillonite and 12% kaolinite) and maximum value (50% illite, 20% montmorillonite and 648 15% kaolinite). These simulations show that the uncertainty on the clay mineral fraction results in 649 envelope curves bracketing the experimental error. The average clay minerals content proposed by 650 Missana et al. (2014b) results in the best fit (solid curve).

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652 4.3.3 Callovo-Oxfordian samples (COx)

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Cs sorption data for five samples of Callovo-Oxfordian claystone from Chen et al. (2014) and Savoye et al. (2012) are considered here (**Table 6**). These samples contain pure and interstratified illite and montmorillonite. The sorption isotherms were obtained in synthetic pore waters (SPW) and in a reference pore water (RPW) (**Table 5**) containing the following cations: Na⁺, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, and K⁺ (and also Sr²⁺ in SPW-1).

659 The mineral fractions used in the calculations correspond to the lower and upper limit, and to the mean values proposed by Chen et al. (2014) (Table 9). We considered also that the 660 contribution of the \equiv SO^{-0.5} site exclusively from the pure illite (as confirmed by the previous 661 662 results). The experiment results are successfully simulated with 1-pK DL/IE model with the 663 different mineralogical compositions (Figure A.13): Cs sorption is dominated by illite over the whole Cs concentration range and the contribution of montmorillonite (exchange sites) is 664 665 significant only at high Cs loading. Results obtained with sample EST27861-B show that when the FES from the I/S illite fraction are considered (solid lines), Cs sorption increases by about 10% 666 (Figure A.13B). The EST27862 sample was modeled alternatively with interstratified illite and 667 montmorillonite only (dotted red line strongly underestimating measured data), and by adding 668 1.5% of illite (solid line) which greatly improved the fit (Figure A.13D). Note that the model of 669 670 Chen et al. (2014) underestimates Cs sorption at medium to high Cs concentration (Figure A.13A 671 & D).

Cs sorption on another COx sample (EST27337) was also modelled by Savoye et al. (2012).
The total clay fraction is 32–65% of clay minerals (Gaucher (1998) with 62% of illite/smectite
mixed-layer mineral (with 65% of illite, 25% of montmorillonite, and 10% of vermiculite),
smectite (9%), illite (26%), kaolinite (2%), and chlorite (1%) (Claret et al. (2004). We assumed

that this sample is composed by 65% of clay minerals and we used the mineralogy proposed 676 677 byClaret et al. (2004) (Table 9). Figure A.14 shows Cs sorption isotherm onto EST27337 sample in RPW (Table 5), with red lines representing the results the 1-pK DL/IE model using CA 678 approach considering clay minerals fraction given in Tables 6, and the green line those of the 679 680 model proposed by Savoye et al. (2012). These authors modeled Cs sorption using multi-site cation exchange model considering four sorption sites for illite and three sites for montmorillonite 681 (for a total of 7 sites). The two models show the same goodness fit of the experimental curves with 682 $RMSD = 0.4 L kg^{-1}$, but the 1-pK DL/IE model required much less sorption sites and fitting 683 parameters than the one used by Savoye et al. (2012). 684

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686 4.3.4 Opalinus clay

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The Opalinus clay (OPA) sample used in the calculations, referenced as SLA-938, contains 30% of illite/smectite mixed layer, 17% of pure illite and 21% of kaolinite, with a CEC value of 183 meq kg⁻¹ (Marques Fernandes et al., 2015).

The modelling results are obtained considering that I/S mixed layers (30%) are exclusively constituted by illite (for a total fraction of illite of 47%, as proposed by Marques Fernandes et al. (2015) using the 1-pK DL/IE and the GCS model (green and red lines, respectively) (**Figure A.15**). In addition, our model also integrates the kaolinite fraction. The Cs sorption data are very well reproduced by both models (RMSD = 0.23 L kg^{-1}). The results obtained with our model show that the contribution of kaolinite is negligible.

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698 4.3.5 Boom clay

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Mineralogical studies of the Boom clay Formation show a variable clay mineral composition with a total fraction in the interval between 30 and 60% and the main components as follows: illite (10-45%), illite/smectite mixed layer (10-30%), kaolinite (5-20%) (Aertsens et al., 2004; De-Craen et al., 2004).

The Cs adsorption isotherm on Boom clay in equilibrium with the Reference Boom Clay Water (RBCW; **Table 5**) was first modelled using the 1-pK DL/IE and the GCS model considering only illite (20, 30 and 45%), as tested by Maes et al. (2008). The best agreement with experimental data is obtained using 30% illite with both models (RMSD = 0.32 L kg^{-1} for the 1-pK DL/IE and 0.51 L kg⁻¹ for the GCS model) (**Figure 10**). With this simplified mineral composition, the GCS model and the 1-pK DL/IE model both underestimates measured K_d values for Cs equilibrium concentrations higher than 10⁻⁴ mol L⁻¹.

To obtain a better fit, we have added a montmorillonite and kaolinite fraction: 20% illite, 20% montmorillonite and 10% kaolinite (**Figure 10**, dotted red line). This change significantly improved the sorption at high Cs concentrations and the RMSD value (0.11 L kg⁻¹) (Cs sorption decomposition is shown in **Figure A.16**). Note that the contribution of kaolinite is less than 1% of Cs total sorption.

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717 **5** Conclusion

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We propose a new model for Cs sorption that combines a one-site 1-pK double layer model and a one-site ion exchange model to account for varying levels of Cs concentrations $(10^{-9}-10^{-4}$ mol L⁻¹) and physicochemical conditions (pH, ionic strength, and competing ions). A single set of parameters was adjusted for each clay mineral: illite, montmorillonite, and kaolinite. Since only 2 types of sorption site are considered and the same formalism is used for the three clay minerals, this approach reduces the number of parameters compared to existing multi-site model for these 725 clay minerals. The application of this parsimonious model to simple clayey material, even with 726 complex natural pore-water compositions, shows the robustness of our model. The use of the 727 component additivity approach for complex mixed-clay materials, considering the clay mineral 728 fractions, was also successful without any adjustment of parameters.

729 The simulations performed with the 1-pK DL/IE model on claystones show that the 730 uncertainty concerning the clay mineral fraction can be taken into account and results in envelope 731 curves bracketing the experimental measurement error. To this regard, our model outperforms the 732 "generalized Cs sorption" (GCS) model (Bradbury and Baeyens, 2000) which is largely used in the 733 context of radioactive waste management. The GCS model is quite reliable with clay materials that 734 are comparatively rich in illite (e.g. Opalinus clay and Palfris marl) but underestimates Cs sorption 735 when the illite-montmorillonite mixed layer content is comparable or higher than illite (e.g. Boom 736 clay) (as also note by Chen et al. (2014). Our model, as well as the other models from the literature, tends to underestimate the K_d values for very high Cs concentrations $[10^{\text{-4}}\ to\ 10^{\text{-3}}$ 737 738 mol/L].

Another interesting result is that the effect of the electrostatic component in Cs sorption on the clay minerals and naturel clayey materials can be neglected. In a next step, the 1-pK DL/IE model will be used to simulate the behavior of Cs in natural soils.

742

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