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## **Optimal remediation design and simulation groundwater flow coupled to contaminant transport using genetic algorithm and radial point collocation method (RPCM)**

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Abstract: The simulation-optimization models of groundwater and contaminant transport can be a powerful tool in the management of groundwater resources and remediation design.

In this study, using Multiquadratic Radial Basis Function (MRBF) a coupled groundwater flow and reactive transport of contaminant and oxidant was developed in the framework of the Meshfree method. The parameter analysis has determined the optimum shape parameter (0.97), the results of the model were compared with a physical sandbox model which were in good agreement. The Genetic Algorithm approach was used to find the optimum design of the remediation using permanganate as an oxidant. To find the optimum design we considered two objectives and two constraints. The results revealed that the breakthrough of contaminant to the downstream area of interest and the concentration of the contaminant in this area is reduced significantly with optimisation.

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**Cover Letter**

Dear editor

I am enclosing herewith a manuscript entitled “Optimal remediation design and simulation of coupled groundwater flow and contaminant transport using genetic algorithm and radial point collocation method (RPCM)” submitted to “Science of the Total Environment” as an original article for possible evaluation.

In paper study, using Multiquadratic Radial Basis Function (MRBF) a coupled groundwater flow and reactive transport of contaminant and oxidant was developed in the framework of the Meshfree method. The parameter analysis has determined the optimum shape parameter (0.97), the results of the model were compared with a physical sandbox model which were in good agreement. The Genetic Algorithm approach was used to find the optimum design of the remediation using permanganate as an oxidant. To find the optimum design we considered two objectives and two constraints. The results revealed that the breakthrough of contaminant to the downstream area of interest and the concentration of the contaminant in this area is reduced significantly with optimisation.

With the submission of this manuscript, I would like to undertake that the above the mentioned manuscript has not been published elsewhere, accepted for publication elsewhere or under editorial review for publication elsewhere; and that all contributors are fully aware of this submission.

All authors were fully involved in the study and preparation of the manuscript, and there is no conflict of interest.

Thank you for time and consideration

Tim Ricken

Head of Institute of Statics and Dynamics of Aerospace Structures

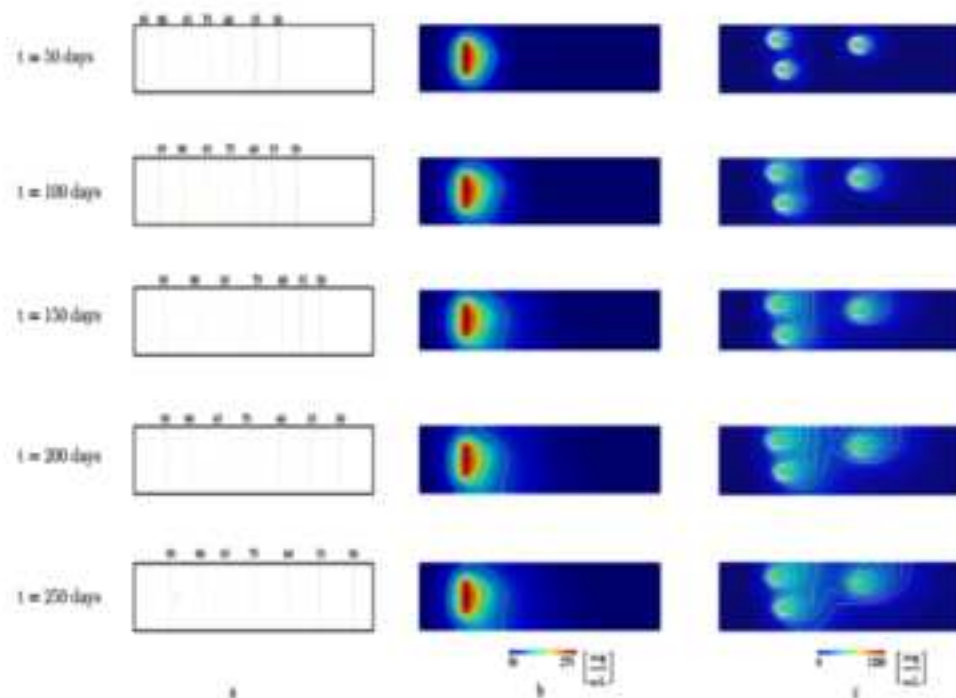
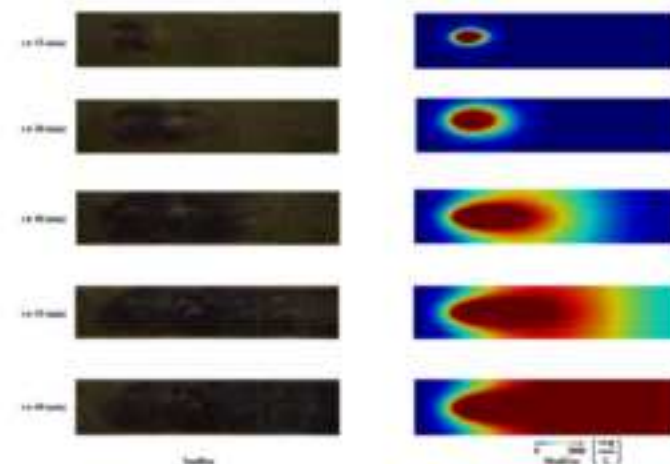
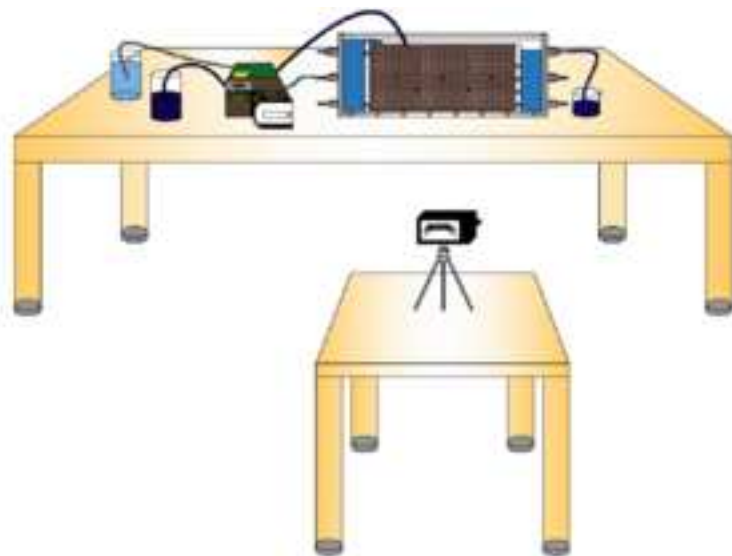
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Optimal remediation design and simulation groundwater flow coupled to contaminant transport  
using genetic algorithm and radial point collocation method (RPCM)

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1 Optimal remediation design and simulation groundwater  
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11 **Abstract**

The simulation-optimization models of groundwater and contaminant transport can be a powerful tool in the management of groundwater resources and remediation design. In this study, using Multiquadratic Radial Basis Function (MRBF) a coupled groundwater flow and reactive transport of contaminant and oxidant was developed in the framework of the Meshfree method. The parameter analysis has determined the optimum shape parameter (0.97), the results of the model were compared with a physical sandbox model which were in good agreement. The Genetic Algorithm approach was used to find the optimum design of the remediation using permanganate as an oxidant. To find the optimum design we considered two objectives and two constraints. The results revealed that the breakthrough of contaminant to the downstream area of interest and the concentration of the contaminant in this area is reduced significantly with optimisation.

12 *Keywords:* Groundwater flow, Reactive contaminant transport, Radial basis function,  
13 Point collocation method, Genetic Algorithm

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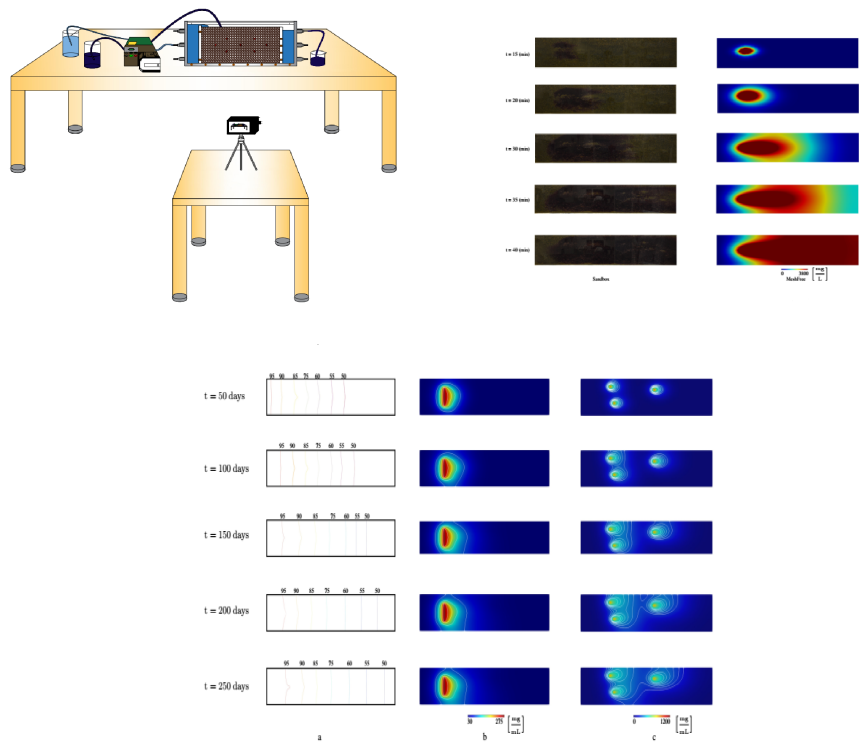


Figure 1: Graphical abstract

## 14 1. Introduction

15 Groundwater is a primary resource for drinking water, agriculture and industry (An  
16 et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2017), and its contamination can have long-term negative  
17 influences on the environment causing severe disasters (Chen et al., 2017; Elimelech  
18 and Phillip, 2011). Aside from pollution issues, the water scarcity in freshwater lakes,  
19 rivers and aquifers, namely blue water, due to droughts (?) and greater demand be-  
20 cause of intensive industrial and economic growth (?), namely water stress, have in-  
21 creased the importance of proactively protecting uncontaminated groundwater sources  
22 and reactively remediating contaminated sources. Thus, the selection of a remediation  
23 technology among different remedial strategies and optimising remediation design, are  
24 challenging issues with which decision-makers currently struggle (Hadley and Newell,  
25 2012; Stroo et al., 2012). Numerical modeling of groundwater flow and contaminant  
26 transport can play a crucial role in groundwater management (Wang and Anderson,  
27 1982). The results of simulations can not only reveal the behaviour of contaminant  
28 migration through the porous media with respect to space and time but also can be  
29 used to optimise the remediation process. Furthermore, coupled simulation-optimiza-  
30 tion approaches for groundwater flow, contaminant fate and remediation technologies  
31 can address uncertainties in remediation design and reduce expenses (Tam and Byer,  
32 2002; Ba and Mayer, 2007; He et al., 2009). The groundwater flow and contaminant  
33 transport, mathematically, can be expressed by differential equations considering dis-  
34 persion, advection, sorption, reaction, degradation, etc (Sun and Sun, 2013; Sharma  
35 and Reddy, 2004). In general, there are two different approaches to solve these equa-  
36 tions, analytical and numerical methods. The analytical approaches are applicable only  
37 when the boundary conditions and the geometries are simplified (Zheng and Bennett,  
38 2002), while the numerical strategies can be applied to many sophisticated problems.  
39 There are different numerical approaches, including finite difference method (FDM)  
40 (Tatalovich et al., 2000), finite volume method (FVM) (Bertolazzi and Manzini, 2004),  
41 finite element method (FEM) (Robeck et al., 2011; Ricken et al., 2014; SCHMUCK  
42 et al., 2016; Seyedpour and Ricken, 2016), and boundary element method (BEM) (Leo  
43 and Booker, 1998) which can be used to solve the governing equation of groundwa-  
44 ter flow and contaminant transport. Although their success in dealing with geometry  
45 complexity and heterogeneity they encounter some difficulties in a simulation of high  
46 advection velocities and the low diffusion resulting in high Peclet number and also low  
47 dispersivities.

48 Recently, Meshfree methods, in addition to other numerical techniques, have be-  
49 come popular in groundwater modelling. In contrast to the grid or mesh-based ap-  
50 proaches, Meshfree methods, do not suffer from shortcomings such as numerical dis-  
51 persion, meshing, remeshing in FDM and FEM which often lead to substantial cost  
52 and time in the adaptive analysis, and limitation in some problems such as large defor-  
53 mation and the breakage of material (Liu and Gu, 2005). Meshless techniques include  
54 the smooth-particle hydrodynamics, kernel method, moving least squares method, the  
55 element-free Galerkin method, partition of unity method, local Petrov-Galerkin method  
56 and point collocation method. Each method has its own merits and disadvantages in  
57 particular problems. The solution procedure in the Meshfree methods departs from  
58 FEM in the geometry representation and shape function construction. In the Meshfree

59 methods, instead of meshes, the geometry and its boundary are represented by nodes.  
60 Polynomial basis functions and radial basis functions (RBF) have often been used to  
61 construct shape functions to approximate the unknown field parameters in the point col-  
62 location method. These functions have also been utilized for groundwater modelling  
63 in many studies. Kumar et al. investigated a Meshfree simulation for contaminant  
64 transport through saturated porous media using thin plate spline radial basis functions  
65 to construct shape functions. The authors validated their simulation with experimental  
66 results. Their results were in good agreement with FEM simulation (Praveen Kumar  
67 and Dodagoudar, 2008). Meenal and Eldho developed a meshfree model using multi-  
68 quadric radial basis functions based on collocation method to simulate groundwater  
69 flow in an unconfined aquifer (Meenal and Eldho, 2011). They have extended their  
70 model for the two-dimensional coupled groundwater flow and transport simulation in  
71 an unconfined aquifer and verified the accuracy of their model with analytical solu-  
72 tions (Meenal and Eldho, 2012). Singh et al. developed the RPCM method for coupled  
73 groundwater flow and contaminant transport simulation in a confined aquifer in steady  
74 state and compared their results with experimental results (Guneshwor Singh et al.,  
75 2016). Yao et al. presented RBF mesh free description for reactive transport of dioxin  
76 as a contaminant and slow release of permanganate as an oxidant to better understand  
77 the design for large scale contaminated sites (Yao et al., 2016).

78 Traditional mathematical methods, used to optimize the problems in different areas  
79 of engineering practices, have lost their effectiveness as problems have become more  
80 complex; hence other optimization algorithms such as natural computing are investi-  
81 gated. Natural computing methods are one class of biomimicry optimisation methods  
82 such as genetic algorithm (GA), particle swarm optimisation (PSO), differential evo-  
83 lution and artificial bee colony are effective methods to optimise complicated environ-  
84 mental problems such as groundwater remediation process. Genetic Algorithms, intro-  
85 duced by Holland (Holland, 1992), is one of the functional natural computing meth-  
86 ods belongs to the evolutionary computing algorithms. Genetic Algorithms, which is  
87 based on the theory of evolution, mimic natural evolution or information handling with  
88 respect to problems in other scientific areas such as environmental engineering (So-  
89 tomayor et al., 2018; Varghese et al., 2015). By utilizing genetic principles including  
90 selection, population, crossover and mutation, this method finds optimum solutions to  
91 problems, and in our study, this solution discovers the optimal number and design for  
92 oxidant resources. The genetic algorithm begins the solution process by selecting a  
93 relatively small population in which every individual represents a possible solution in  
94 the parameter space, and the efficiency of each individual is determined using objec-  
95 tive functions. The new generation is reproduced by utilising probability rules in the  
96 combination of the concept of selection, crossover and mutation leading to decrease  
97 the survival chance of the less fit individuals.

98 Sinha et al. developed a multiscale island injection genetic algorithm (IIGA) and  
99 tested it using a field-scale pump-and-treat design problem at the Umatilla Army Depot  
100 in Oregon, USA (Sinha and Minsker, 2007). He et al. investigated their one previous  
101 works (Huang, 1992; He et al., 2008b,a) to optimise the design of field-scale pump and  
102 treat system (PAT). The authors simulated the transport of petroleum as a contaminant  
103 and assumed the porosity of the soil to be stochastic variables with normal distribution  
104 (He et al., 2009). They found that the remediation cost might increase because of

105 the effects of uncertainty. With the aid of the knowledge of forensic observations,  
106 Tian et al. used quantum-behaved particle swarm optimization to solve an inverse  
107 advection-dispersion problem of estimating the strength of time-varying groundwater  
108 contaminant source. They concluded that the proposed method can be used efficiently  
109 to reconstruct the contaminant source history. (Tian et al., 2011).  
110 It is natural for decision makers to want assurance that the numerical models are valid.  
111 To validate the numerical approaches, analytical solution, real field data and a physical  
112 model such as sandbox experiment can be used. The Sandbox experiment can be used  
113 not only as an experimental method for validating simulations but also visualising,  
114 predicting (Illman et al., 2012) a solute transport.  
115 The outline of this paper is as follows. The governing equations of the coupled  
116 groundwater flow and reactive transport are introduced in section 2. In section 3 the  
117 RPCM discretization of these equations is described. The sandbox experiment which  
118 is used to validate the results is presented in section 4. The genetic algorithm approach  
119 used to find the optimum location of the oxidant sources is illustrated in section 5.  
120 Finally, the results and discussions are presented in section 6, and conclusions are  
121 given in section 7.

## 122 2. Governing equations and boundary conditions

### 123 2.1. Groundwater flow

124 The transient flow of groundwater through a saturated, anisotropic, inhomoge-  
125 neous, porous aquifer in 2D can be written as (Bear, 1979, 2007)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ k_x \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} \right] + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left[ k_y \frac{\partial h}{\partial y} \right] = S \frac{\partial h}{\partial t} + Q_w (x - x_i) (y - y_i) - q. \quad (1)$$

126 where  $h(x, y, t)$  is the piezometric head [L],  $k_x$  and  $k_y$  are hydraulic conductivity in  
127 x and y direction [ $LT^{-1}$ ],  $S$  is the storage coefficient,  $Q_w$  is the source or sink term  
128 [ $L^3T^{-1}L^{-2}$ ] and  $q$  denotes the recharge rate [ $LT^{-1}$ ].

129 Where  $\Omega$  and  $\partial\Omega$  are the aquifer domain and its Lipschitz continuous boundary re-  
130 spectively.  $\partial\Omega$  comprises of  $\partial\Omega = \Gamma_D \oplus \Gamma_N$ , where  $\Gamma_D$  and  $\Gamma_N$  interpret the portions  
131 of  $\Gamma$  in which Dirichlet and Neumann boundary conditions on groundwater flow and  
132 contaminant transport equations are imposed (Fig. 2) :

$$h(x, y, 0) = h_0(x, y), \quad (x, y) \in \Omega. \quad (2)$$

$$133 \quad h(x, y, t) = h_1(x, y), \quad (x, y) \in \Gamma_D. \quad (3)$$

$$134 \quad k_y \frac{\partial h}{\partial y} = 0, \quad (x, y) \in \Gamma_N. \quad (4)$$

135

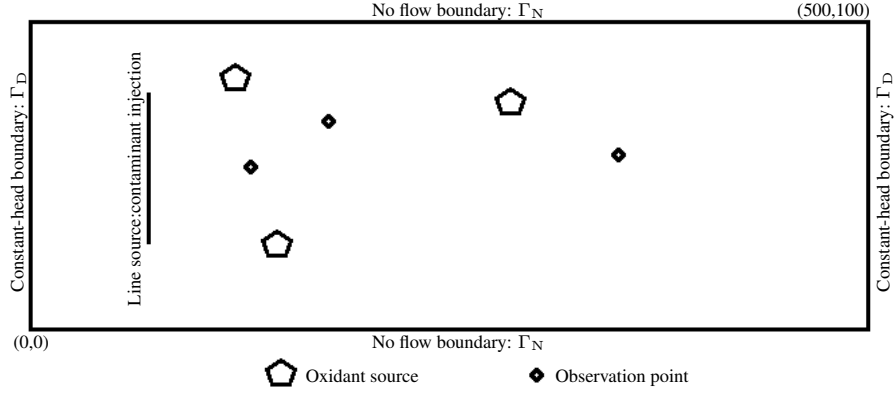


Figure 2: The aquifer domain and physical setting of the model

136 *2.2. Reactive transport*

137 Reactive transport of the contaminant and oxidant in groundwater is given by the  
 138 following coupled advection–dispersion equations (Freeze and Cherry, 1979; Wang  
 139 and Anderson, 1982) :

140

$$\begin{aligned}
 R \frac{n^F}{n^S} \frac{\partial C^1}{\partial t} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ D_{xx} \frac{\partial C^1}{\partial x} \right] + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left[ D_{yy} \frac{\partial C^1}{\partial y} \right] - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} [v_x C^1] \\
 &\quad - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} [v_y C^1] - KC^1 C^2.
 \end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

141

$$\begin{aligned}
 R \frac{n^F}{n^S} \frac{\partial C^2}{\partial t} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ D_{xx} \frac{\partial C^2}{\partial x} \right] + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left[ D_{yy} \frac{\partial C^2}{\partial y} \right] - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} [v_x C^2] \\
 &\quad - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} [v_y C^2] - KC^1 C^2 + F_{\text{release}} \delta(x - x_i)(y - y_i).
 \end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

142 where  $R$  is retardation factor and describes sorption,  $n^F$  and  $n^S$  are volume fractions  
 143 of groundwater and soil respectively, and their fraction  $\frac{n^F}{n^S}$  denotes the porosity of the  
 144 aquifer,  $D_x$  and  $D_y$  are components of dispersion coefficient tensor in  $x$  and  $y$  direc-  
 145 tions respectively.  $[L^2T^{-1}]$ ,  $C^1$  and  $C^2$  are concentration of 1,4-Dioxacyclohexane  
 146 ( $C_4H_8O_2$ ) as a contaminant and permanganate as an oxidant respectively  $[ML^{-3}]$ ,  $k$   
 147 is second order reaction constant  $[T^{-1}]$  and  $F_{\text{Release}}$  is the release function of per-  
 148 manganate (Wolf, 2013).  $v_x$  and  $v_y$  are seepage velocity vectors in  $x$  and  $y$  direc-  
 149 tions respectively  $[LT^{-1}]$  evaluated from the solutions of the flow equations using the fol-  
 150 lowing relations (Bear, 1979, 2007):

$$v_x = -k_x \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} \quad ; \quad v_y = -k_y \frac{\partial h}{\partial y}. \tag{7}$$

151 where  $k_x$  and  $k_y$  are the hydraulic conductivities in  $x$  and  $y$  directions respectively. The  
 152 components of the dispersion coefficient tensor,  $\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{D}(x)$ , are evaluated using the

153 following relations:

$$D_{xx} = \frac{\alpha_L v_x^2 + \alpha_T v_y^2}{\sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2}} + D^* ; D_{yy} = \frac{\alpha_L v_y^2 + \alpha_T v_x^2}{\sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2}} + D^*. \quad (8)$$

154

155 where  $\alpha_L$  and  $\alpha_T$  are longitudinal and transverse dispersivity and  $D^*$  is the effective  
 156 molecular diffusion coefficient.  $v_x$  and  $v_y$  in Eqs.(7) and (8) are evaluated from the  
 157 flow equation and these two equations couple the groundwater flow and reactive trans-  
 158 port.

159 For transient analysis of reactive transport, the following initial and boundary condi-  
 160 tions are specified:

$$C^1(x, y, 0) = 0 ; C^2(x, y, 0) = 0, \quad (x, y) \in \Omega. \quad (9)$$

161

$$C^1(4, y, t) |_{1 < y < 3} = \hat{C}^1. \quad (10)$$

162

$$C^2(x, y, t) = \begin{cases} f(t)_{\text{release}} & (x, y) \text{ in Oxidan source} \\ 0 & \end{cases} \quad (11)$$

163

$$\frac{\partial C^1}{\partial y} = 0 ; \frac{\partial C^2}{\partial y} = 0, \quad (x, y) \in \Gamma_N. \quad (12)$$

164

### 165 3. RPCM formulation

#### 166 3.1. Radial basis function interpolation

167 In the Meshfree method, the problem domain and its boundaries are represented by  
 168 a set of nodes, namely field nodes, scattered within the problem domain and its bound-  
 169 aries. The initial step to solve PDEs through the Meshfree method is the approximation  
 170 of unknown field variables using trial or shape function. To approximate the function  
 171 values at node  $x$ , a set of neighbourhood nodes called local support domains are used  
 172 to construct shape functions but the shape functions outside of the local support do-  
 173 mains are regarded as zero. In contrast to the finite element method in which the shape  
 174 function is the same for the entire elements, in the Meshfree method, the shape func-  
 175 tions and the local support domains can change for a different point of interest. Fig. 2.  
 176 illustrates various types of local support domains used in the Meshfree method.

177 Among these support domains, circular and rectangular support domains are more  
 178 common. To construct Meshfree shape functions used in the point interpolation method,  
 179 two different types of basis functions, namely Radial basis function (JG Wang, 2002)  
 180 and polynomial basis, (GR, 1999) have been investigated. To approximate the piezo-  
 181 metric head, the following linear combination of the radial and polynomial basis func-  
 182 tions can be used (Liu and Gu, 2005):

$$h(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i R_i(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{j=1}^n P_j(\mathbf{x} b_j) = \mathbf{R}^T(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{P}^T(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{b}. \quad (13)$$

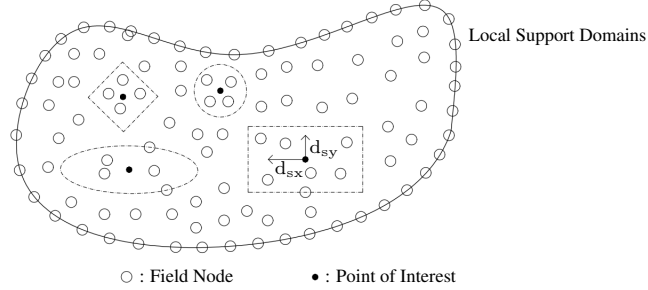


Figure 3: Different local support domains used in Meshfree methods.

183 where  $R(\mathbf{x})$  and  $P(\mathbf{x})$  denote radial basis and polynomial basis functions respectively,  
 184  $n$  is the number of RBFs,  $m$  is the number of polynomials where  $m$  is usually smaller  
 185 than  $n$  and when  $m = 0$ , the interpolation is dominated only by pure RBFs. Coefficients  
 186  $a_i$  and  $b_i$  are constants which can be determined by enforcing the interpolation function  
 187 passing through all nodes within the support domain.

188 There are four common types of RBFs whose characteristics have been investigated  
 189 in many studies (Kansa, 1990; Schaback and Wendland, 2000; Hardy, 1971) including  
 190 the multi-quadrics (MQ) function, the exponential or Gaussian (Exp) function, the thin  
 191 plate spline (TPS) function, and the Logarithmic radial basis function. In all RBFs, the  
 192 only variable is the distance between the point of interest  $\mathbf{x}$  and a node located at  $\mathbf{x}_i$   
 193 that can be expressed as:

$$r = \sqrt{(x - x_i)^2 + (y - y_i)^2}, \quad \text{for 2D Problems.} \quad (14)$$

194 In our study, among different radial basis functions, we have chosen multi-quadrics  
 195 which is defined as below:

$$R_i(x, y) = \left( r_i^2 + (\alpha_c d_c)^2 \right)^q. \quad (15)$$

196 where  $\alpha_c$ ,  $d_c$  and  $q$  are the shape parameters.  $\alpha_c$  controls the size of support domain,  
 197 and  $d_c$  is the average nodal spacing in the support domain near the point of interest,  
 198 and it is defined using the following equation:

$$d_c = \frac{\sqrt{A_s}}{\sqrt{n_{A_s}} - 1}. \quad (16)$$

199 where  $A_s$  is the area of the estimated support domain and  $n_{A_s}$  is the number of nodes  
 200 embraced by the estimated area of  $A_s$ . Among different support domains used to con-  
 201 struct shape functions, we have chosen the rectangular domain which is easy to build  
 202 and implement. The dimension of the rectangular support domain is determined by the  
 203 following relations:

$$\begin{aligned} d_{sx} &= \alpha_{Cx} d_{cx}. \\ d_{sy} &= \alpha_{Cy} d_{cy}. \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

204 where  $d_{cx}$  and  $d_{cy}$  are nodal spacing in x and y directions (Fig.2). Shape parameters  
 205 play a crucial role in the accuracy of numerical solutions while RBFs are used in Mesh-  
 206 free methods. Although there is no established method to choose the optimum value for  
 207 shape parameter, some studies have been conducted to find the optimum shape param-  
 208 eter for specific types of problems (Rippa, 1999; Wang and Liu, 2002; Wright, 2003).  
 209 The unknown coefficients  $a_i$  and  $b_j$  in Eq.(13) are established by enforcing the interpo-  
 210 lation function passing through all n scattered nodes within the support domain leading  
 211 to n algebraic equations expressed in matrix form as:

$$\mathbf{h}^T = \mathbf{R}_Q \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{P}_m \mathbf{b}. \quad (18)$$

212 The moment matrices corresponding to the radial basis function  $\mathbf{R}_Q$  and the polyno-  
 213 mial basis function  $\mathbf{P}_Q$  are expressed by the following relations:

$$\mathbf{R}_Q = \begin{bmatrix} R_1(x_1, y_1) & R_2(x_1, y_1) & \cdot & R_n(x_1, y_1) \\ R_1(x_2, y_2) & R_2(x_2, y_2) & \cdot & R_n(x_2, y_2) \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ R_1(x_n, y_n) & R_2(x_n, y_n) & \cdot & R_n(x_n, y_n) \end{bmatrix}_{n \times n}, \quad (19)$$

$$\mathbf{P}_m = \begin{bmatrix} P_1(x_1, y_1) & P_2(x_1, y_1) & \cdot & P_m(x_1, y_1) \\ P_1(x_2, y_2) & P_2(x_2, y_2) & \cdot & P_m(x_2, y_2) \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ P_1(x_n, y_n) & P_2(x_n, y_n) & \cdot & P_m(x_n, y_n) \end{bmatrix}_{n \times m}.$$

214 There is  $n + m$  unknowns in Eq.(18) and in order to determine all the unknowns, the  
 215 following  $m$  additional equations need to be added to the system equations:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n P_j(x_i) a_i = \mathbf{P}_m^T \mathbf{a} = 0, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m. \quad (20)$$

216 Eq.(17) and Eq.(20) together can be written as below:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{R}_Q & \mathbf{P}_m \\ \mathbf{P}_m^T & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} \mathbf{a} \\ \mathbf{b} \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} \mathbf{h}^T \\ 0 \end{Bmatrix}. \quad (21)$$

217 substituting unknown coefficients into Eq.(13), the interpolation can be written as:

$$\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{\Xi}^T(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{h}_s. \quad (22)$$

218 where  $\mathbf{\Xi}(\mathbf{x})$ , are the shape functions and expressed as:

$$\mathbf{\Xi}(\mathbf{x}) = \{\Xi_1(x, y) \ \Xi_2(x, y) \ \dots \ \Xi_n(x, y)\}. \quad (23)$$

219 and,  $\mathbf{h}_s = \{h_1 h_2 \dots h_n\}$  is the nodal head values vector at the support domain nodes.

220 The first and second derivatives of piezometric head in x and y directions at any point  
 221 can be expressed by the following equations:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}_1}{\partial x} &= \frac{\partial \mathbf{\Xi}^T}{\partial x} \mathbf{h}_s = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial \Xi_i}{\partial x} h_i & ; & \quad \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{h}_1}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{\Xi}^T}{\partial x^2} \mathbf{h}_s = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 \Xi_i}{\partial x^2} h_i. \\ \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}_1}{\partial y} &= \frac{\partial \mathbf{\Xi}^T}{\partial y} \mathbf{h}_s = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial \Xi_i}{\partial y} h_i & ; & \quad \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{h}_1}{\partial y^2} = \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{\Xi}^T}{\partial y^2} \mathbf{h}_s = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 \Xi_i}{\partial y^2} h_i. \end{aligned} \quad (24)$$



222 3.2. Discretisation of governing equations

223 3.2.1. Time discretisation

224 The time discretisation has been executed using the widely known Crank-Nichol-  
225 son time stepping method in which the time derivative is replaced with a simple for-  
226 ward difference while the solution is replaced with a weighted value of the previous  
227 time-step solution, and the current solution expressed by the following equations:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{h}{\partial t} &= \frac{h^{t+\Delta t} - h^t}{\Delta t}, \\ h &= \frac{h^{t+\Delta t} - h^t}{2}.\end{aligned}\quad (25)$$

228 3.2.2. RPCM approximation

229 By the collocation of groundwater flow equation at all internal nodes using Eq.(22),  
230 the following discretised form of the piezometric head can be written:

$$k(\mathbf{x}_r) \left[ \frac{\partial^2 \Xi^T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Xi^T}{\partial y^2} \right] \mathbf{h}_s(t) = S(\mathbf{x}_r) \left( \frac{\partial h}{\partial t} \right) + Q_w \delta(\mathbf{x}_r - \mathbf{x}_i) - q(\mathbf{x}_r). \quad (26)$$

231 Substituting Eq.(25), the following equation is achieved:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{2} k(\mathbf{x}_r) \left[ \frac{\partial^2 \Xi^T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Xi^T}{\partial y^2} \right] \mathbf{h}_s^{t+\Delta t} + \frac{1}{2} k(\mathbf{x}_r) \left[ \frac{\partial^2 \Xi^T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Xi^T}{\partial y^2} \right] \mathbf{h}_s^t \\ = S_r \left( \frac{\Xi^T \mathbf{h}_s^{t+\Delta t} - h_r^t}{\Delta t} \right) + Q_w \delta(\mathbf{x}_r - \mathbf{x}_i) - q_r.\end{aligned}\quad (27)$$

232 A similar approach is performed to discretise reactive transport equations, and the equa-  
233 tions below are achieved:

$$C^j(x, t) = \sum_{i=1}^n \Xi_i(\mathbf{x}) C_i^j(t) = \Xi^T \mathbf{C}_s^j, \quad j = 1, 2. \quad (28)$$

234

$$\begin{aligned}R_{n^s} \frac{\Xi^T \mathbf{C}_s^1 - C_r^{1t}}{\Delta t} &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ D_{xx_r} \frac{\partial^2 \Xi^T}{\partial x^2} + D_{yy_r} \frac{\partial^2 \Xi^T}{\partial y^2} \right] \mathbf{C}_s^{1\ t+\Delta t} + \\ \frac{1}{2} \left[ D_{xx_r} \frac{\partial^2 \Xi^T}{\partial x^2} + D_{yy_r} \frac{\partial^2 \Xi^T}{\partial y^2} \right] \mathbf{C}_s^{1\ t} &- \frac{1}{2} \left[ v_{x_r} \frac{\partial \Xi^T}{\partial x} + v_{y_r} \frac{\partial \Xi^T}{\partial y} \right] \mathbf{C}_s^{1\ t+\Delta t} - \\ \frac{1}{2} \left[ v_{x_r} \frac{\partial \Xi^T}{\partial x} + v_{y_r} \frac{\partial \Xi^T}{\partial y} \right] \mathbf{C}_s^{1\ t} &- -K \Xi^T C^{1t} \Xi^T C^{2t}.\end{aligned}\quad (29)$$

235

$$\begin{aligned}
R \frac{n^f}{n^s} \frac{\Xi^T C_s^2 - C_r^{2t}}{\Delta t} &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ D_{xx_r} \frac{\partial^2 \Xi^T}{\partial X^2} + D_{yy_r} \frac{\partial^2 \Xi^T}{\partial y^2} \right] C_s^{2t+\Delta t} + \\
\frac{1}{2} \left[ D_{xx_r} \frac{\partial^2 \Xi^T}{\partial X^2} + D_{yy_r} \frac{\partial^2 \Xi^T}{\partial y^2} \right] C_s^{2t} &\frac{1}{2} \left[ v_{x_r} \frac{\partial \Xi^T}{\partial X} + v_{y_r} \frac{\partial \Xi^T}{\partial y} \right] C_s^{2t+\Delta t} - \\
\frac{1}{2} \left[ v_{x_r} \frac{\partial \Xi^T}{\partial X} + v_{y_r} \frac{\partial \Xi^T}{\partial y} \right] C_s^{2t} &- -K \Xi^T C^{1t} \Xi^T C^{2t} + F_{\text{release}}(t) \delta(\mathbf{x}_r - \mathbf{x}_i).
\end{aligned} \tag{30}$$

236 where the seepage velocity,  $v_x$  and  $v_y$ , and dispersion coefficients are determined by  
237 substituting Eq.(24) in Eq.(7) and Eq.(8) resulting in the following equations:

$$v_{x_r} = -k_{x_r} \frac{\partial \Xi^T}{\partial X} \mathbf{h}_s \quad ; \quad v_{y_r} = -k_{y_r} \frac{\partial \Xi^T}{\partial y} \mathbf{h}_s. \tag{31}$$

238

$$\begin{aligned}
D_{xx_r} &= \frac{\left( -\alpha_L k_{x_r} \frac{\partial \Xi^T}{\partial X} \mathbf{h}_s \right)^2 + \left( -\alpha_T k_{y_r} \frac{\partial \Xi^T}{\partial y} \mathbf{h}_s \right)^2}{\sqrt{\left( -k_{x_r} \frac{\partial \Xi^T}{\partial X} \mathbf{h}_s \right)^2 + \left( -k_{x_r} \frac{\partial \Xi^T}{\partial y} \mathbf{h}_s \right)^2}} + D^*, \\
D_{yy_r} &= \frac{\left( -\alpha_T k_{x_r} \frac{\partial \Xi^T}{\partial X} \mathbf{h}_s \right)^2 + \left( -\alpha_L k_{y_r} \frac{\partial \Xi^T}{\partial y} \mathbf{h}_s \right)^2}{\sqrt{\left( -k_{x_r} \frac{\partial \Xi^T}{\partial X} \mathbf{h}_s \right)^2 + \left( -k_{x_r} \frac{\partial \Xi^T}{\partial y} \mathbf{h}_s \right)^2}} + D^*.
\end{aligned} \tag{32}$$

239 The accuracy and stability of the solution using the collocation method depend on  
240 imposing and implementing the boundary conditions at boundary nodes, in particu-  
241 lar, Neumann boundary conditions. There are different methods to impose derivatives  
242 boundary conditions which have been discussed in studies (Liu and Gu, 2005). In this  
243 study, we have used the direct collocation method to implement the Neumann bound-  
244 ary condition. The following examples denote the implementation of the Dirichlet and  
245 Neuman boundary condition on groundwater flow equations.

$$\begin{aligned}
h(x_1, y_1) &= h_0 = \Xi^T \mathbf{h}_s, \\
\Xi^T &= \{\Xi_1 \ \Xi_2 \ \dots \ \Xi_n\}.
\end{aligned} \tag{33}$$

246

$$\begin{aligned}
k_y \frac{\partial h}{\partial y} \Big|_{(x_n, y_n)} &= 0 = k_{y_r} \frac{\partial \Xi^T}{\partial y} \mathbf{h}_s, \\
\frac{\partial \Xi^T}{\partial y} &= \left\{ \frac{\partial \Xi_1}{\partial y} \ \frac{\partial \Xi_2}{\partial y} \ \dots \ \frac{\partial \Xi_n}{\partial y} \right\}.
\end{aligned} \tag{34}$$

247

248

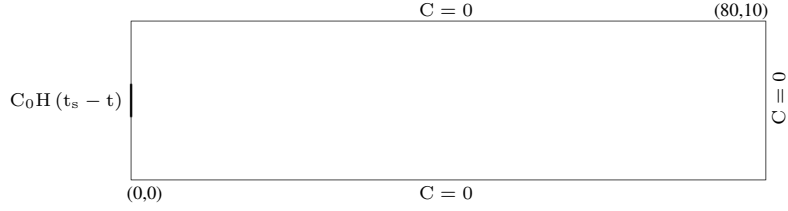


Figure 4: The aquifer domain for the analytical solution

#### 249 4. Optimal shape parameter and model verification

250 To evaluate the performance of our simulation and find the optimum shape parameter,  
 251 based on the introduced RPCM formulations, a coupled flow and reactive transport  
 252 model was developed in MATLAB and the results are verified with two-dimensional  
 253 contaminant transport benchmark equation. Furthermore, the results of the verified  
 254 model are compared with the sandbox experiments results.

##### 255 4.1. Optimal shape parameters

256 The following advection-diffusion transport equation with first-order decay rate  
 257 constant is considered to find the optimum shape parameter

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial C}{\partial t} + \frac{\rho_b}{\theta} \frac{\partial S}{\partial t} &= D_x \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial x^2} - v \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} + D_y \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial y^2} - \lambda C, \\ \frac{\partial S}{\partial t} &= \alpha (K_d C - S). \end{aligned} \quad (35)$$

258 where  $C$  is the contaminant concentration  $[\text{ML}^3]$ ,  $\rho_b$  is the Bulk density of soil  $[\text{ML}^3]$ ,  
 259  $\theta$  is soil porosity,  $S$  is Sorbed concentration  $[\text{MM}^{-1}]$ ,  $D_x$  and  $D_y$  are diffusion coefficients  
 260 in  $x$  and  $y$  directions  $[\text{L}^2\text{T}^{-1}]$ ,  $\lambda$  is first-order decay rate constant  $[\text{T}^{-1}]$ ,  $\alpha$  is  
 261 first-order decay rate constant  $[\text{T}^{-1}]$  and  $K_d$  is sorption distribution coefficient.  
 262 The initial and boundary conditions are (Fig. 4),  
 263

$$\begin{aligned} C(x, y, 0) &= 0 \quad ; \quad S(x, y, 0) = 0, \quad (x, y) \in \Omega, \\ C(0, y, t) &= \begin{cases} C_0 H(t_s - t) & y_b \leq y \leq y_t \\ 0 & \end{cases}, \\ \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} &= 0 \quad ; \quad \frac{\partial C}{\partial y} = 0 \quad (x, y) \in \Gamma_N. \end{aligned} \quad (36)$$

265 The analytical solution to this problem in laplace domain been given by (Goltz and  
 266 Huang, 2017)

$$\bar{C}(x, y, s) = \frac{1 - \exp(-t_s s)}{b} \left[ \hat{C}(0) + 2 \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{C}(n) \sin\left(\frac{n\pi y}{b}\right) \right]. \quad (37)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\hat{C}(n) &= \gamma \exp(rx), \\
\gamma &= \frac{C_0 b}{sn\pi} \left[ \sin\left(\frac{n\pi y_t}{b}\right) - \sin\left(\frac{n\pi y_b}{b}\right) \right], \\
r &= \frac{1}{2D_x} \left( v - \sqrt{v^2 + 4D_x \beta} \right), \\
\beta &= D_y \left( \frac{n\pi}{b} \right)^2 + \Theta, \\
\Theta &= (s + \lambda) + \frac{\rho_b \alpha k_d s}{\theta [s + \alpha]}.
\end{aligned} \tag{38}$$

where  $x$  and  $y$  are the coordinates in  $x$  and  $y$  directions respectively,  $s$  is Laplace complex variable,  $C_0$  is the concentration at contaminant source,  $b$  is the aquifer width. The physical constants and parameters for the corresponding analytical solution are summarized in table 2. To find the optimum value for  $\alpha_c$  and  $q$  in the Eq.(15), the

Parameters	Value
Porosity, $\theta$	0.25
Bulk density of soil, $\rho_b$	1.5 kg/L
Diffusion coefficient in $x$ direction, $D_x$	0.2 m <sup>2</sup> /min
Diffusion coefficient in $y$ direction $D_y$	0.02 m <sup>2</sup> /min
Seepage velocity $v$	1 m/min <sup>-1</sup>
Contaminant concentration at source	3500 mg/L
Sorption distribution coefficient $k_d$	1
First-order decay rate constant $\lambda$	0.001 m <sup>2</sup> /min
First-order desorption rate constant $\alpha$	1 min <sup>-1</sup>

Table 1: the parameters values for analytical solution

sensitive analysis was done. In the analysis, first, the parameter  $q$  was varied from 0.8 to 1.2 for different  $\alpha_c$  and a relative error of concentration was defined as follows:

$$RE = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^n | C_i^{\text{exact}} - C_i^{\text{RPCM}} |}{\sum_{i=0}^n | C_i^{\text{exact}} |}. \tag{39}$$

where  $C_i^{\text{exact}}$  and  $C_i^{\text{RPCM}}$  are contaminant concentration computed by the MQ-RBF and analytical solution, respectively. Fig. 5 Fig. 4 demonstrates the variation of relative errors of concentration with shape parameters. It can be seen, the optimal shape parameter  $q$  occurred around 1, and the minimum error is for  $q=0.97$ . Fig. 5a shows the effect of the shape parameter  $\alpha_c$  on the contaminant concentration profile at point (30,7) for  $q=0.97$  and compares with the exact solution. It is found that for the MQ-RBF, the values of the shape the range of 3-5 gave very good accuracy. Among different shape parameters  $\alpha_c$ ,  $\alpha_c = 4$  is the optimum value. Fig. 5 b compares contaminant concentration profile for the point located at (30,7) for different shape parameters  $q$  for  $\alpha_c = 4$ . Fig. 6 compares contaminant concentration contours the MQ-RBF and analytical solutions for two-dimensional transport from a continuous line source in a confined aquifer.

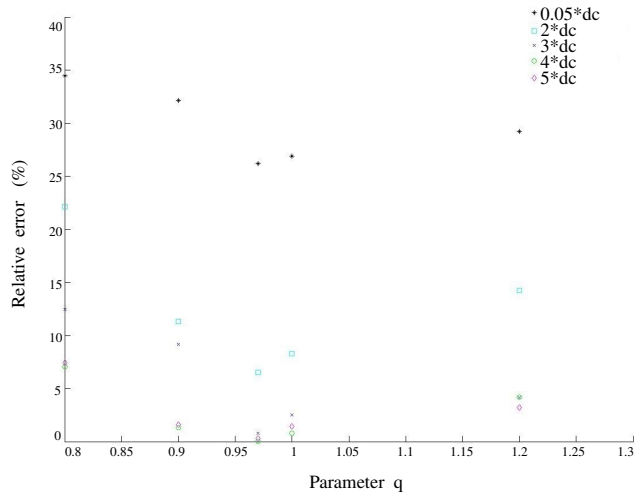


Figure 5: The relative error of concentration for different shape parameter q

286 The simulation has done for  $t = 200$  min. Fig. 6 compares contaminant concentration  
 287 contours of the MQ-RBF and analytical solutions for two-dimensional transport from  
 288 a continuous line source. The simulation has done for  $t = 200$  min, and the results are  
 289 in good agreement.

290 *4.2. Model verification with the sandbox experiment*

291 A point source of 0.5% w/v potassium permanganate solution was constructed in a  
 292 sandbox to map the change groundwater plume distribution over time. The sandbox is  
 293 150 cm in length, 38 cm in height, and has a thickness of 10 cm and was constructed  
 294 with Plexiglass. The sandbox is 150 cm in length, 38 cm in height, and has a thickness  
 295 of 10 cm and was constructed with Plexiglass. The sandbox has no-flow boundaries  
 296 on top and bottom and the ends of the tanks consist of constant head tanks which are  
 297 separated from the rest of the box by one impermeable wall and one perforated steel  
 298 mesh filter to separate the sand from the head tanks. A peristaltic pump (Watson Mar-  
 299 low), which is capable of delivering a maximum of 42 L/h, was used to circulate water  
 300 through the system. The characteristics of the used sand including hydraulic conductiv-  
 301 ity were measured and given in Table 1 (Nijp et al., 2017; Sarki et al., 2014). To  
 302 mitigate the creation of preferential pathways and air bubbles, the tank was filled with  
 303 a layer of a few centimeters dry sand, after which tap water was added to saturate and  
 304 cover the sand. More dry sand was layered over this now saturated sand, and itself covered  
 with tap water. This process was repeated until the tank was full. The injection rate

	Size	Hydraulic conductivity	Porosity
Sand	5.00-2.36 mm	2.754 $10^{-4}$ m/sec	43.3

Table 2: The characteristics of sand

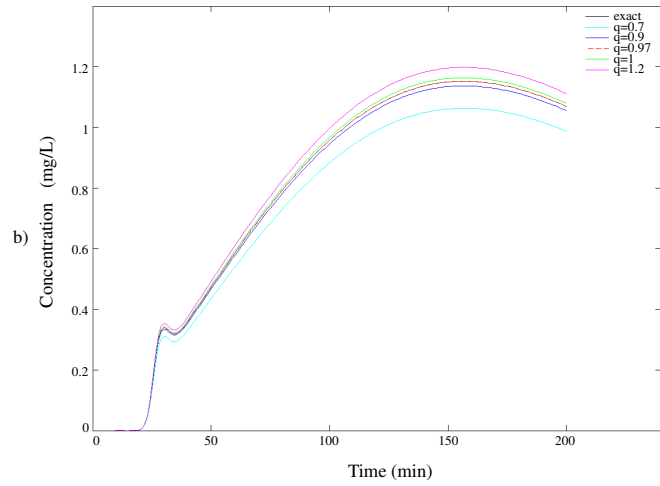
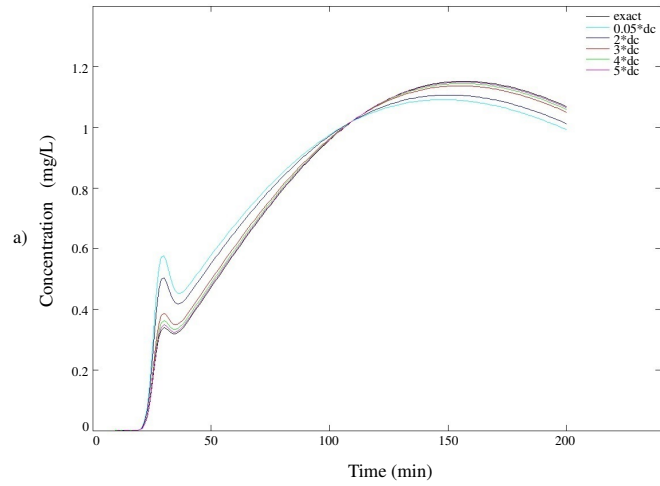


Figure 6: Shape parameter effect on the contaminant concentration profile at point (30,7) a) shape parameter  $\alpha_c$  b) shape parameter  $q$ .

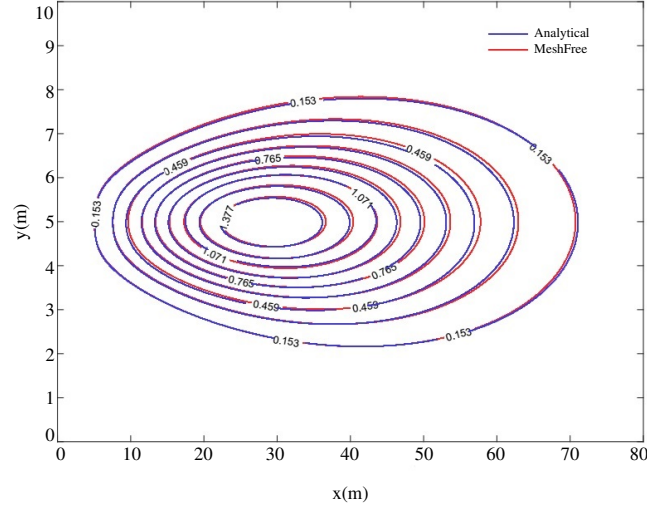


Figure 7: Comparison of the MFree and Analytical solutions for two-dimensional transport

305 was 16 L/h ; and 9 L total volume injected. The experiment was repeated three times,  
 306 and presented results are the average results. Fig. 8 compares the observed permanganate  
 307 plume in the tank and predicted plume at the same time after injection. Table  
 308 3 compares measured permanganate concentration at two different sampling points located  
 309 at (36,18.5) cm and (56,18.5) cm, with respect to the origin which is located at  
 310 the bottom Corner of input end of tank, with Meshfree predicted concentration.

### 311 5. Remediation design optimization using Genetic Algorithm

312 Multi-objective optimisation (MOO) including multi-objective genetic algorithm  
 313 can be utilised to address optimization problems related to groundwater. In this study,  
 314 the multi-objective genetic algorithm is employed to seek the global optimisation of  
 315 remediation design. The cost of remediation and the concentration of the contaminant  
 316 are competitive functions which are considered as two objective functions. To find  
 317 optimal design, GA simultaneously minimises the cost of the remediation process by  
 318 the minimising the number of oxidant sources and contaminant concentration by max-  
 319 imising the region where contaminant concentration is equal-less than the desired final  
 320 concentration. To achieve this goal, we have defined the following functions:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{GA1} &= \text{TC} = n_{\text{OS}} * \text{COS}, \\
 \text{GA2} &= \Omega_{C_{\text{ARCC}}^1} = \{(x, y) \in \Omega : C^1 \leq C_{\text{ARCC}}^1\}.
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{40}$$

321 where  $C_{\text{ARCC}}^1$  is the aimed remediation contaminant concentration, TC is the total  
 322 cost of the remediation process,  $n_{\text{OS}}$  is the number of the oxidant sources and COS

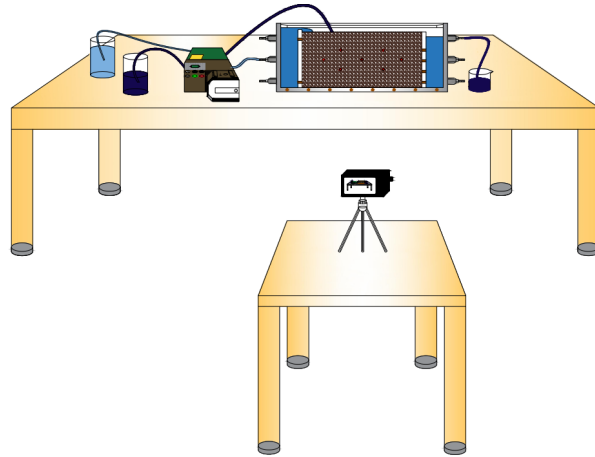


Figure 8: Schematic representation of sandbox experimental setup

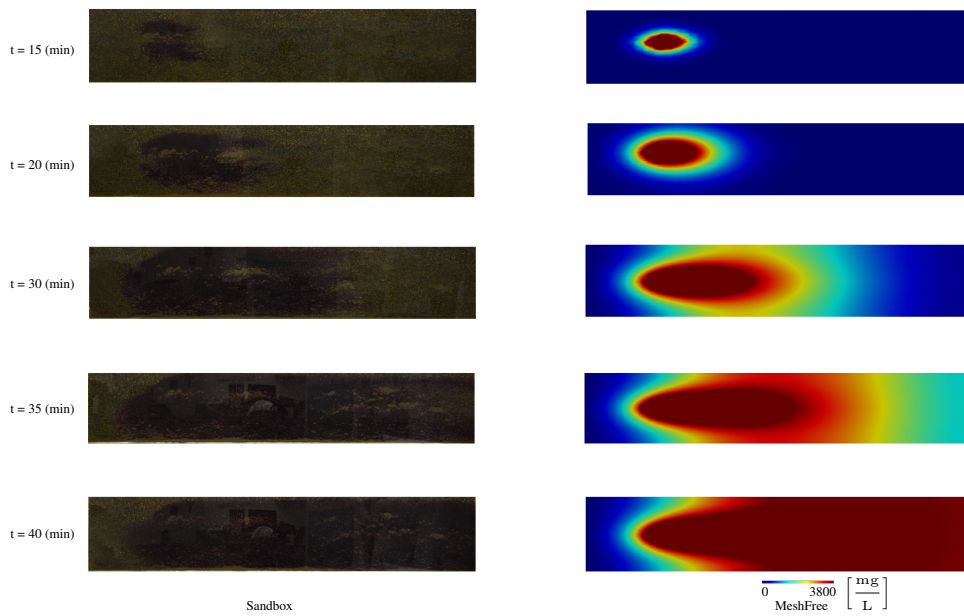


Figure 9: The comparison between observed and MFree predicted plume



Time (min)	sample point number	measured concentration (mg/L)	MFree predicted concentration (mg/L)	RMSE
5	1	3050	3040	0.32
	2	2060	2050	0.48
10	1	3080	3070	0.32
	2	2540	2530	0.39
15	1	3200	3190	0.31
	2	2850	2839	0.38
20	1	3630	3619	0.30
	2	3300	3289	0.33
25	1	3730	3719	0.29
	2	3630	3618	0.33
30	1	3720	3709	0.29
	2	3690	3679	0.29
35	1	3760	3749	0.29
	2	3710	3699	0.29
40	1	3790	3779	0.29
	2	3750	3729	0.29

Table 3: Comparison of permanganate measured concentration at sampling points to Meshfree predicted concentration.

323 denotes the cost of each oxidant source. To achieve the objective of the study, we wish  
324 to minimise GA1 and maximise GA2.

$$\begin{aligned} & \min \text{GA1,} \\ & \max \text{GA2.} \end{aligned} \quad (41)$$

325 by considering the following constraints:

326 1. the distance between oxidant sources

$$d \geq d_c. \quad (42)$$

327 where  $d = \sqrt{(x_i - x_j)^2 + (y_i - y_j)^2}$  is actual distance between oxidant source  $i$  and  
328  $j$  and  $d_c$  is the critical distance between oxidant sources. The critical distance is the  
329 distance between two oxidant sources which their influence domain overlap more than  
330 %75. The influence domain is defined as a region in where the oxidant concentration  
331 reaches 15% of its initial concentration at the source after 50 days if it implements  
332 alone. The following function defines the influence domain which is used to define  
333 critical distance.

$$\Omega_{C_{20\%}^2}^{t = 50 \text{ days}} = \{(x, y) \in \Omega : C^2 \geq 15\% C_0^2\}. \quad (43)$$

335 regarding our prior simulation, if a distance between sources is less than the critical  
336 distance then the contaminant concentration in the whole geometry is in many designs

337 more than aimed remediation contaminant concentration.

338 2. the number of oxidant sources

$$n_{OS} \leq 5. \quad (44)$$

339 where  $n_{OS}$  is actual the number of oxidant sources.

340

## 341 6. Results and Discussions

342 The purpose of our numerical study is to find the optimum remediation design util-  
343 ising permanganate. The aquifer domain is 500 m by 100 m with a relatively homoge-  
344 nous hydraulic conductivity. The oxidant sources have been considered to remediate  
345 the continuous line contaminant source and GA approach is used to find the optimum  
346 location and number of them concerning criteria presented in Section 5. The optimum  
347 shape parameter  $q = 0.97$  and  $4.dc$  with 12 nodes in every support domain were used  
348 in numerical approach. The same nodes distribution used for both flow model and the  
349 transport model. The longitudinal dispersivity  $\alpha_L$  for this problem is considered 15  
350 m and the transverse dispersivity  $\alpha_T$  is taken as 10% of the longitudinal dispersivity.  
351 The functions presented by (Wolf, 2013; Yao et al., 2016) are modified for our study to  
352 simulate the oxidant release. The contaminant concentration at line source located at  
353  $x = 60$  m,  $20$  m  $\leq y \leq 80$  m is  $C^1 = 275 \frac{mg}{L}$ . Fig. 9a demonstrates the piezometric  
354 head iso head contours. Fig. 9b and 9c show the contaminant and oxidant concentra-  
355 tion at different times. The simulations have been performed for 250 days with a time  
356 step of 0.004 day. Overall, the water head contours decreased from left to right, with  
357 mounding around the contaminant and the oxidant injection sources. As expected, the  
358 concentration of the contaminant in the regions closer to the oxidant sources is less  
359 than the farther regions, but with the increase the distances from the oxidant sources  
360 it changes rapidly. The performance of the optimized design was compared with two  
361 different arbitrary design. In both designs, three oxidant sources were considered lo-  
362 cating at (90, 30) m, (90, 70) and (150, 50) in the first design and (110, 50) m, (110, 30)  
363 and (250, 70) in the second design. Fig. 10 compares the contaminant concentration at  
364 three different observation points located at the (100,50) m, (150,65) m and (300,55) m  
365 at the downside of the stream for optimised design and arbitrary designs. The optimi-  
366 sation of remediation not only decrease the contaminant concentration at observation  
367 points but also it postpone the time in when the concentration begins to increase from  
368 zero in the observation points expects the second arbitrary design at the third observa-  
369 tion point. The delay time was almost 12, 37 and 34 days in the first arbitrary design  
370 and 17, 48 and -4 days in the second arbitrary design for first, second and third obser-  
371 vation points respectively. Furthermore, it can be translated that optimisation design  
372 reduces the remediation cost. Because to reach the same level of the contaminant con-  
373 centration in the arbitrary designs, either the initial oxidant concentration at sources  
374 must be 8% and 11%, in the first and second arbitrary design respectively, higher than  
375 the optimized design or with the same initial oxidant concentration higher number of  
376 oxidant sources is needed, for example, to reach almost same contaminant concentra-  
377 tion four oxidant sources which are located at (90,30),(90,70),(100,40) and (100,60) is

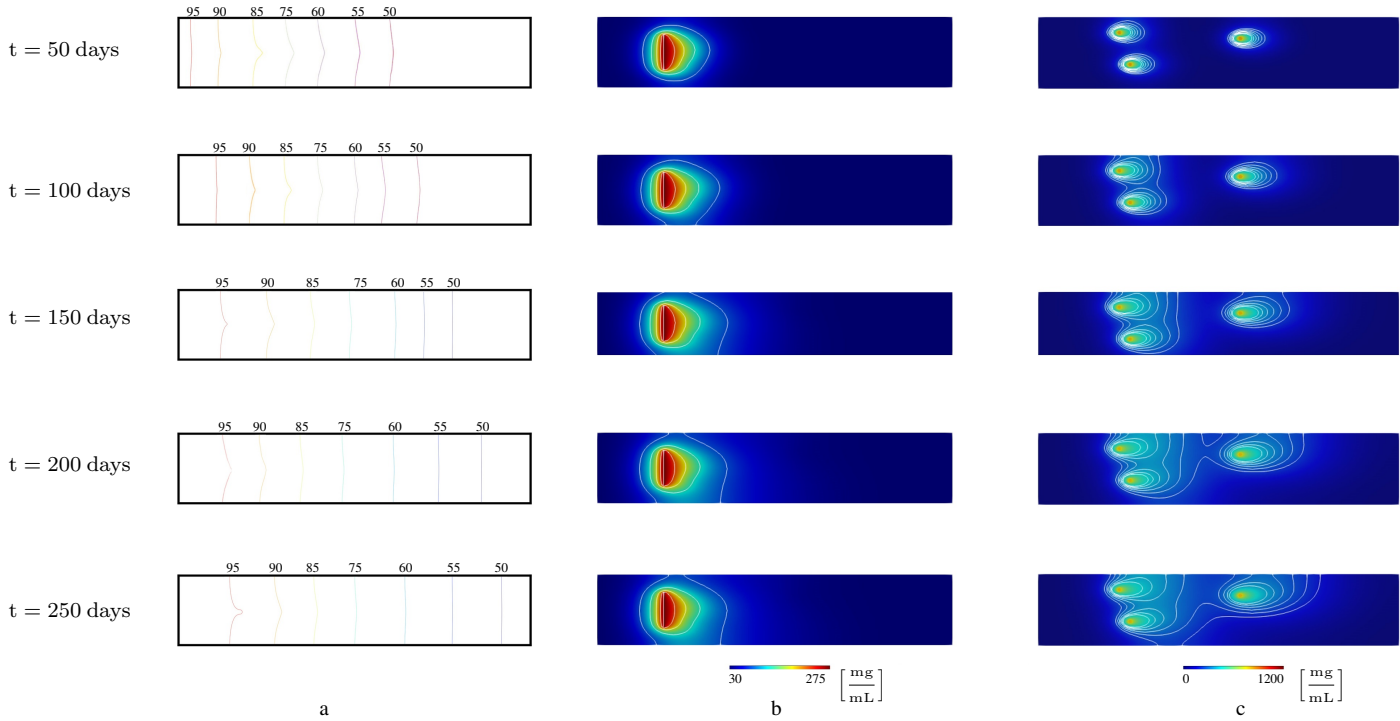


Figure 10: a: piezometric head profile and contours, b: contaminant concentration profile, c: oxidant concentration profile.

378 necessary. In addition, it can be concluded that the far further from the centre line of  
 379 the geometry the higher delay. In all observation points, the effect of optimization on  
 380 the contaminant concentration is decreased with increasing the time. The contaminant  
 381 concentration after 250 days was 17.1 %, 21.8 % and 22.4 % in the first arbitrary design  
 382 48.8 %, 57.8 % and -28.7 % in the second arbitrary design for first, second and third  
 383 observation points respectively, less than it values in the optimised design.

### 384 7. Conclusion

385 In this study, a multi quadratic radial basis function was used to simulate cou-  
 386 pled groundwater flow and reactive transport of contaminant and oxidant in a porous  
 387 aquifer. The sensitive analysis was done to find the optimum used shape parameter  
 388 in MQ-RBFs with comparing the results with two-dimensional solute transport bench-  
 389 mark. The output from the model is compared to the results of sandbox experiment.

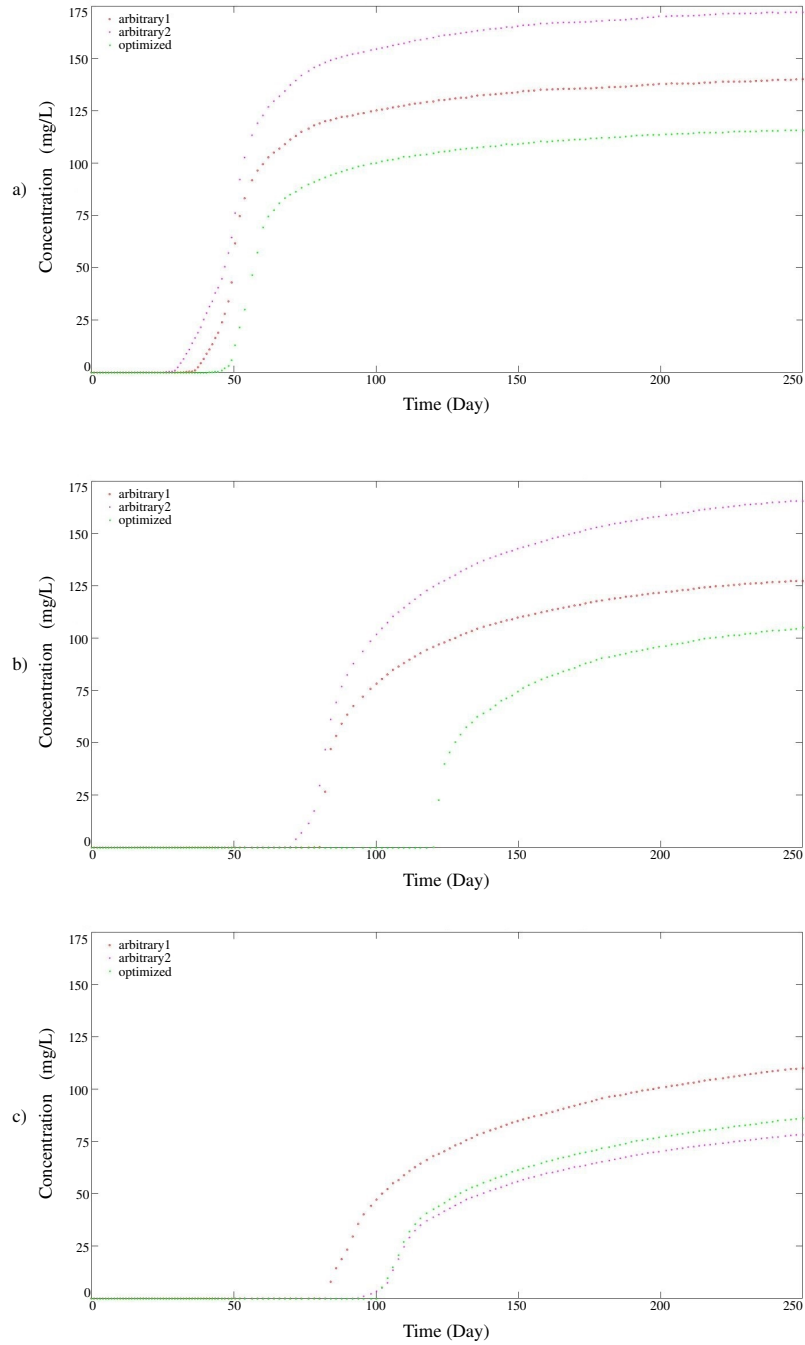


Figure 11: the contaminant concentration profile at observation point located at a) (100,50) m, b) (150,65) m, c) (300,55) m.

390 The RSME error between measured and predicted permanganate concentration at two  
391 sample points for different times was less than 0.5, and it shows that the measured  
392 and predicted concentration are in good agreement. It was observed that the predicted  
393 permanganate concentration by the meshfree method shows good agreement with the  
394 measured values of the permanganate concentration in physical sandbox model. The  
395 genetic algorithm was used to find the optimum number and the optimum design of the  
396 oxidant sources regarding introduced criteria in section 5. The optimization has two  
397 different effects on the remediation process. It not only delays the reaching time of the  
398 contaminant to the downstream region but also it decreases the contaminant concentra-  
399 tion in this area.

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407

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