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Title: Non-Fickian dispersive transport of strontium in laboratory-scale columns:Modelling and evaluation

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Abstract: In the context of environmental remediation of contaminated sites and safety assessment of nuclear waste disposal in the near-surface zone, we investigate the leaching and non-Fickian dispersive migration with sorption of strontium (mocking strontium-90) through columns packed with sand and clay. Analysis is based on breakthrough curves (BTCs) from column experiments, which simulated rainfall infiltration and source term release scenario, rather than applying constant tracer solution at the inlet as commonly used. BTCs are re-evaluated and transport parameters are estimated by inverse modelling using two approaches: (1) equilibrium advection-dispersion equation (ADE); and (2) continuous time random walk (CTRW). Firstly, based on a method for calculating leach concentration, the inlet condition with an exponential decay input is identified. Secondly, the results show that approximately 39%~58% of bromine and 16%~49% of strontium are eluted from the columns at the end of the breakthrough experiments. This suggests that trapping mechanisms, including diffusion into immobile zones and attachment of tracer on mineral surfaces, are more pronounced for strontium than for bromine. Thirdly, we demonstrate robustness of CTRW-based truncated power-law (TPL) model in capturing non-Fickian reactive transport with  $0 < \beta < 2$ , and Fickian transport with  $\beta > 2$ . The non-Fickian dispersion observed experimentally is explained by variations of local flow field from preferential flow paths due to physical heterogeneities. Particularly, the additional sorption process of strontium on clay minerals contributes to the delay of the peak concentration and the tailing features, which leads to enhanced non-Fickian transport for strontium. Finally, the ADE and CTRW approaches to environmental modelling are evaluated. It is shown that CTRW with a sorption term can describe non-Fickian dispersive transport of strontium at laboratory scale by identifying appropriate parameters, while the traditional ADE with a retardation factor fails to reproduce the complex non-Fickian transport of strontium with remarkable sorption on clay surface.

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Dear Editor,

Please, consider the attached manuscript “*Non-Fickian dispersive transport of strontium in laboratory-scale columns: Modelling and evaluation*” for publication in the Journal of Hydrology.

It contains original research that has not been published elsewhere. We propose the integration of non-Fickian transport modelling and laboratory dynamic column experiments mocking rainfall infiltration scenarios, and analyze non-Fickian dispersive transport for strontium due to variation of flow fields and sorption retardation processes, which is significant to advance the understanding and prediction of radionuclide transport through hydrologic paths and heterogeneous systems.

We believe that the methodology and the findings of this work will be of interest to the readership of your Journal.

Respectfully yours,

Dongxu Liu  
Andrey P Jivkov  
Lichun Wang  
Gaohua Si  
Jing Yu

- Integrated methodology for coupling release and transport of strontium
- Experimental data with Fickian and non-Fickian transport re-evaluated
- Advection-Dispersion Equation and Continuous Time Random Walk examined
- ADE suitable for Fickian transport only; CTRW captures both regimes
- Effects of chemical and physical heterogeneities on transport analysed

# 1 Non-Fickian dispersive transport of strontium in laboratory-scale columns:

## 2 Modelling and evaluation

3  
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### 9 10 Abstract

11 In the context of environmental remediation of contaminated sites and safety assessment of  
12 nuclear waste disposal in the near-surface zone, we investigate the leaching and non-Fickian  
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24 truncated power-law (TPL) model in capturing non-Fickian reactive transport with  $0 < \beta < 2$ , and  
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26 variations of local flow field from preferential flow paths due to physical heterogeneities.  
27 Particularly, the additional sorption process of strontium on clay minerals contributes to the delay of  
28 the peak concentration and the tailing features, which leads to enhanced non-Fickian transport for  
29 strontium. Finally, the ADE and CTRW approaches to environmental modelling are evaluated. It is  
30 shown that CTRW with a sorption term can describe non-Fickian dispersive transport of strontium at  
31 laboratory scale by identifying appropriate parameters, while the traditional ADE with a retardation  
32 factor fails to reproduce the complex non-Fickian transport of strontium with remarkable sorption on  
33 clay surface.

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36

## 37 **1. Introduction**

38 Radioactive strontium (Sr-90), a by-product of the fission of uranium and plutonium, is found in  
39 waste from nuclear activities. Since atmospheric nuclear tests conducted in the 1950s and 1960s and  
40 the accident occurred at the Chernobyl nuclear power plant, it is well known that, like many other  
41 radioactive species, large amounts of strontium-90 were produced and dispersed worldwide in fallout  
42 into the environment (EPA, 2015). Strontium-90 is considered as one of the hazardous constituents  
43 of nuclear wastes, due to its environmental mobility, radiation exposure and biologic toxicity.  
44 Specifically, strontium-90 has chemical properties similar to calcium and therefore it tends to  
45 concentrate in the bones and teeth, and can form many chemical compounds, including halides,  
46 oxides, and sulphide. This increases the risk of bone cancer, cancer of the soft tissue near the bone,  
47 and leukaemia from internal exposure (EPA, 2015). Environmental behaviour of radioactive

48 strontium has therefore attracted increasing attention over the last three decades, focused on  
49 understanding migration of Sr-90 and strontium isotopes through field in situ tests, laboratory  
50 experiment analysis, natural analogue studies and computer modelling. However, accurate  
51 assessment and prediction of Sr-90 transport in complex environments remains unresolved, with  
52 limited number of investigations devoted to leaching, non-Fickian migration and sorption processes  
53 (Bencala, 1984; Bruno et al., 2002; Bugai et al., 2012; Eagling et al., 2013; Hull and Schafer, 2008;  
54 Kosakowski and Smith, 2005; Maderich et al., 2014; Miller et al., 1994; Qian et al., 2009; Rumynin,  
55 2011; Volkova, 2009; Yin et al., 2014). Combining laboratory dynamic column experiments and  
56 theoretical modelling would contribute significantly to fundamental understanding and physically  
57 realistic description of strontium transport in porous media.

58 Understanding species (contaminants, tracers, solutes, nuclides or particles) fate and transport in  
59 the subsurface environment is of central importance in the frame of remediation schemes for  
60 contaminated sites and nuclear waste disposal (Bijeljic et al., 2004; Levchuk et al., 2012). The  
61 problem is challenging due to perennial complexities and strong heterogeneities in geological mass.  
62 From systematic viewpoint, a persistent issue is how to explore appropriate predictive models in the  
63 absence of sufficient information on heterogeneous hydraulic-physical-chemical properties.  
64 Traditionally, species migration in geological systems from the pore scale upwards is described by  
65 Fickian-based advection-dispersion equation (ADE) models, adopting deterministic and/or stochastic  
66 approaches (Bear and Cheng, 2010; Berkowitz et al., 2001; Rumynin, 2011). However, the ADE-  
67 based approaches often fail to capture and predict non-Fickian (or anomalous) transport of species in  
68 the subsurface. This is commonly observed both in the laboratory and in the field (Berkowitz et al.,  
69 2001; Bijeljic et al., 2013; Neuman and Tartakovsky, 2009), and now recognized as ubiquitous in the  
70 transport in fractured porous media.

71 Non-Fickian transport behaviour presents different forms and traits, commonly referred to as  
72 scale-dependent dispersion, but manifests through "unusual" early breakthrough times and long late

73 time tails in measured breakthrough curves (BTCs), which deviate from the Gaussian distributions of  
74 species concentration (Bakshvaskaia and Pozdniakov, 2015; Berkowitz et al., 2006; Edery et al.,  
75 2014). The continuous time random walk (CTRW) has been shown to be a successful framework to  
76 quantify non-Fickian transport with capacity to capture the transport transition from non-Fickian to  
77 Fickian (Berkowitz et al., 2006; Hansen and Berkowitz, 2015). The CTRW approach describes the  
78 random movement of solute particles in an Eulerian–Lagrangian framework (Neuman and  
79 Tartakovsky, 2009). The use of CTRW for species transport in porous and fractured media across  
80 different scales have been presented elsewhere (e.g. Berkowitz et al., 2006; Berkowitz and Scher,  
81 2009; Blunt et al., 2013; Cortis and Berkowitz, 2004; Edery et al., 2013; Rhodes et al., 2008; Wang  
82 and Cardenas, 2014).

83 In the CTRW framework, the conservative tracer (e.g. bromide) parameters, including mean fluid  
84 velocity and dispersion coefficient, are inappropriate to describe transport of reactive or sorbing  
85 tracers (e.g. atrazine, TBNPA) through laboratory columns (Li and Ren, 2009; Rubin et al., 2012).  
86 Although models for describing non-Fickian transport, including mobile-immobile, fractional  
87 derivative, and multi-rate mass transport, have been applied to simulate certain pollutants transport  
88 process (e.g. pesticides), few studies focused on the application of those models to the fate of  
89 reactive nuclides (e.g. strontium) (Dentz et al., 2011; Kapetas et al., 2014; Neuman and Tartakovsky,  
90 2009). With respect to reactive transport it should be mentioned, that separation of migration and  
91 sorption into independent sets of measured/fitted parameters is not justifiable, although such  
92 separation has been used in the traditional ADE formulation (Rubin et al., 2012). This makes the  
93 prediction of reactive nuclide transport with pervasive non-Fickian phenomenon even more  
94 challenging. Thus, for a special reactive species, strontium in this study, there is a continuing need to  
95 advance the understanding and prediction of transport phenomena involving natural tracer release,  
96 non-Fickian migration and sorption.



97 The objectives of this paper are: (1) to re-analyse BTCs from column experiments simulating  
98 rainfall infiltration scenarios and transport behaviour of strontium (Gaohua et al., 2013); (2) to apply  
99 the ADE and CTRW models to characterize coupled effects of release, transport and sorption  
100 processes; (3) to identify transport parameters by inverse modelling against experimental data; (4) to  
101 evaluate the applicability of ADE and CTRW models in capturing reactive species transport with  
102 pervasive non-Fickian transport. This study advances the understanding and prediction of  
103 radionuclide transport through heterogeneous systems, which is critical for environmental  
104 remediation of contaminated sites and the safety assessment of nuclear waste subsurface disposal.

105

## 106 **2. Methodology**

### 107 2.1. Column experiments

108 Safety assessment of near-surface zone and planning remedial options for contaminated sites  
109 require detailed studies of release and transport processes. Of particular interest for near-surface  
110 nuclear waste storage is the radioactive fallout dispersed to surface in a rainfall scenario. The column  
111 experiments described here served this purpose. These were mocking rainfall infiltration with a  
112 contaminant (source) located at the inlet and slowly released to the environment, rather than the  
113 traditional supply of a tracer concentration through columns over time. Firstly, examining the tracer  
114 concentrations leaching from the source layer is essential for identifying and then modelling the inlet  
115 condition. Secondly, measuring the tracer mass eluted from the columns is necessary for the  
116 quantitative analysis of mass transport and models validation.

117 Column experiments, with setup shown in Fig. 1, were performed to investigate strontium (Sr)  
118 transport with varying sprinkling volumetric flow rates, and different packed materials, including  
119 sand and clay. Bromine (Br) was used as a conservative tracer for water flow. Full details of the  
120 experimental setup and primary results are described by Gaohua et al. (2013); only information  
121 relevant to this work is given below.

122 The tracer experiments were conducted in a set of cylindrical organic glass columns (3cm  
123 diameter and 20cm length) packed with sand and/or clay. Eight different columns were prepared:  
124 columns a, b, c, d were 18-cm long packed by medium sand of 0.25~0.50mm diameter; columns e, f,  
125 g, h were packed by a mixture of clay and the same sand with 25%, 50%, 75% and 100% clay  
126 content, respectively. The packing materials were taken from the sediments in northwest China. Neat  
127 tracer sources were prepared by the following the steps: (1) Sr stock solution was made by dissolving  
128 100g  $\text{SrCl}_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$  into 250mL distilled water; Br stock solution was made by dissolving 66g NaBr  
129 in 1000mL distilled water; and (2) 250g pure quartz sand was placed in 1000mL beaker, to which  
130 105mL Sr solution and 50mL Br solution were added, respectively; Beaker was stirred well and  
131 dried until moisture content reduced to 3%.

132 Columns a-d were sprinkled with distilled water under different volumetric flow rates: 100mL/d,  
133 50mL/d, 20mL/d and 2mL/d, respectively. We note that although a-d were packed with sand with the  
134 same particle size distribution, the packing structure might have varied due to preparation uncertainty.  
135 Columns e-h were sprinkled with the same flow rate 2mL/d of distilled water. To prevent water and  
136 soil loss, a polyester fibre membrane with an aperture 0.45 $\mu\text{m}$  was placed at the bottom of column.  
137 Sprinkling volumetric flow rate was controlled by injection pump and peristaltic pump as a water  
138 supply device.

139 During experiments, columns were saturated slowly by leaching with distilled water until steady-  
140 state fluid velocity was achieved. The first inlet section was occupied by a 0.8-cm thick tracer source  
141 layer (Br 135.5mg and Sr 718mg, approximately), which was overlain by a 0.5cm thick sand. At the  
142 column outlet, effluent water was collected automatically over experimental duration. The  
143 concentration of Br and Sr was determined by ion chromatography and inductively coupled plasma-  
144 atomic emission spectrometry (ICP-AES), respectively. Thus, the breakthrough curves (temporal  
145 profile of concentration) of Br and Sr were obtained.

146

147 2.2. Transport model with Advection-Dispersion Equation (ADE)

148 Assuming steady-state flow in homogeneous porous media, the classical ADE for one-dimensional  
149 transport of species, subject to equilibrium isotherm adsorption and radioactive decay, can be written  
150 as (Šimůnek et al., 1999; Toride et al., 1995)

151 
$$R \frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = D \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial x^2} - v \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} - \lambda C, \quad (1)$$

152 where  $C$  is species concentration in the liquid ( $\text{ML}^{-3}$ ),  $R$  is dimensionless retardation factor,  $D$  is  
153 dispersion coefficient ( $\text{L}^2\text{T}^{-1}$ ),  $v$  is average pore water velocity ( $\text{LT}^{-1}$ ),  $\lambda$  is the first-order decay  
154 coefficient ( $\text{T}^{-1}$ ),  $t$  is time (T), and  $x$  is transport distance (L).  $R$  depends on the relative transport  
155 velocity,  $v_s$ , such that  $R = v / v_s$ , and reflects the strength of sorption,  $R = 1$  when no sorption occurs.  
156  $D$  can be represented by  $D = v\alpha + \tau D_w$  (Bear, 1972), where  $D_w$  is molecular diffusion coefficient in  
157 free water ( $\text{L}^2\text{T}^{-1}$ ),  $\alpha$  is dispersivity (L),  $\tau$  is a dimensionless tortuosity factor. For stable species  $\lambda = 0$ .

158 For an initially species-free and semi-finite column, where tracer is placed in a fixed layer at the  
159 inlet of column and is eluted with free water, the leach concentration of effluent will decrease over  
160 time as the tracer mass in the source layer reduces due to mass loss through leaching. The leach  
161 concentration can be estimated via an exponential function using the leaching rate coefficient (Chen  
162 et al., 2007)

163 
$$C(t,0) = \frac{\lambda_L m_0}{Q} e^{-(\lambda_L + \lambda)t} \quad (2)$$

164 where  $C(t,0)$  is the leach concentration ( $\text{ML}^{-3}$ ),  $m_0$  is the total mass of tracer (M),  $Q$  is the sprinkling  
165 volumetric flow rate ( $\text{L}^3\text{T}^{-1}$ ),  $\lambda_L$  is a leaching rate coefficient ( $\text{T}^{-1}$ ). A first-order decay rate of the  
166 source term, similar to radioactive decay, was given by (Baes and Sharp, 1983; Chen et al., 2007)

167 
$$\lambda_L = \frac{Q}{\varepsilon R V_t} = \frac{I}{\varepsilon R d} \quad (3)$$

168 where  $\varepsilon$ ,  $V_t$ ,  $d$  are effective porosity ( $L^3L^{-3}$ ), volume ( $L^3$ ), and depth (L) of the tracer source layer,  
169 respectively,  $I$  is infiltration rate of water ( $LT^{-1}$ ),  $R$  is the retardation factor of tracer in the source  
170 layer (-).

171 The model of leach concentration represented by Eqs.(2)~(3) is a relatively simple approximation  
172 of the complex transport mechanism involving physical and chemical processes. This model assumes  
173 that equilibrium adsorption is achieved instantaneously between the passing water and the source  
174 layer when the percolating water comes into contact with the tracer source layer. The equilibrium is  
175 generally described by a linear adsorption relationship using a distribution coefficient ( $K_d$ ) estimated  
176 from batch experiments (Baes and Sharp, 1983; Chen et al., 2007).  $R$  can be thus calculated based on  
177  $K_d$ , such that  $R=1+\rho_b \cdot K_d/n_e$ , where  $\rho_b$  is bulk density,  $n_e$  is effective porosity. Moreover, combining  
178 with the inverse modelling,  $R$  can be obtained directly from column experiments (Rod et al., 2010).

179 The simulated BTCs can be solved with given boundary conditions. Here, Dirichlet boundary with  
180 prescribed concentration, which is determined by the leach concentration curve as described by  
181 Eq.(2), is set for the inlet boundary of the column. Further, Neuman boundary condition with  
182 prescribed flux is set for the outlet boundary.

### 183 184 2.3. Transport model with Continuous Time Random Walk (CTRW)

185 The concept and the formulation of the CTRW method can be found in various references (e.g.  
186 Berkowitz et al., 2006; Cortis et al., 2004; Dentz et al., 2004; Edery et al., 2015; Edery et al., 2013;  
187 Neuman and Tartakovsky, 2009; Scher and Lax, 1973). Here, we sketch the key features of CTRW  
188 for the purpose of this study.

189 In the CTRW framework, transport processes are conceptualized as a series of particle transitions  
190 by statistically characterizing tracer motion. The main feature of CTRW lies in quantifying temporal  
191 transition probability of particle transport induced by spatial heterogeneities via a memory function  
192 (Berkowitz et al., 2006).

193 The one-dimensional (1D) CTRW for macroscopic transport through a uniform domain is given in  
 194 Laplace space by Eqs. (4)-(7) (Cortis and Berkowitz, 2005; Ederly et al., 2014)

$$195 \quad u\tilde{c}(x,u) - c_0(x) = -\tilde{M}(u) \left[ v_\psi \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \tilde{c}(x,u) - D_\psi \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \tilde{c}(x,u) \right] \quad (4)$$

$$196 \quad \tilde{M}(u) \equiv \bar{t}u \frac{\tilde{\psi}(u)}{1 - \tilde{\psi}(u)} \quad (5)$$

$$197 \quad v_\psi = \frac{1}{n\bar{t}} \sum_s p(s)s \quad (6)$$

$$198 \quad D_\psi = \frac{1}{n\bar{t}} \sum_s \frac{1}{2} p(s)ss \quad (7)$$

199 where  $u$  is the Laplace variable and the tilde represents the Laplace transformed variable;  $c_0$  is the  
 200 initial concentration and  $\tilde{c}(x,u)$  is the Laplace-transformed normalized concentration;  $\tilde{M}(u)$  is a  
 201 memory function;  $\psi(t)$  is a probability density function (PDF), defined as the probability rate for a  
 202 transition time  $t$  between transport sites and  $\tilde{\psi}(u)$  is the Laplace-transformed form of  $\psi(t)$ ;  $v_\psi$  and  $D_\psi$   
 203 are the tracer transport velocity and dispersion coefficient, respectively;  $\bar{t}$  is a characteristic time;  $n$  is  
 204 porosity, and  $p(s)$  is the probability distribution of the length of transitions. Note that both  $v_\psi$  and  $D_\psi$   
 205 depend on  $\psi(t)$ , which is fundamentally different from the average pore water velocity ( $v$ ) and  
 206 dispersion coefficient ( $D$ ) in the classical ADE (Berkowitz et al., 2006).

207 The PDF,  $\psi(t)$ , is the core of the CTRW formulation as it depicts the nature of solute plume  
 208 migration patterns (Berkowitz et al., 2001). Depending on the choice of  $\psi(t)$ , the CTRW can capture  
 209 a broad range of transport regimes, including the transition from non-Fickian to Fickian transport.  
 210 There are several compelling forms of  $\psi(t)$  that have been proposed in the literature (Berkowitz et al.,  
 211 2006; Cortis and Berkowitz, 2005; Cortis et al., 2004; Margolin et al., 2003). Here, we present one  
 212 specific form for conservative tracer transport, which is widely used to interpret transport phenomena  
 213 at different scales: the truncated power law (TPL) model

$$214 \quad \tilde{\psi}(u) \equiv (1 + \tau_2 u t_1)^\beta \exp(t_1 u) \Gamma(-\beta, \tau_2^{-1} + t_1 u) / \Gamma(-\beta, \tau_2^{-1}), 0 < \beta < 2 \quad (8)$$

215 where  $\beta$  is a critical parameter characterizing the regimes of the dispersive transport,  $t_1$  is a  
216 characteristic transition time for the onset of the power law region,  $t_2$  is a “cut-off” time,  $\tau_2 = t_2 / t_1$ .  
217 The memory function is determined by setting  $\bar{t} = t_1$ .

218 The TPL model allows for a systematic investigation of non-Fickian transport observed for  
219 transition times  $t_1 < t < t_2$ , and for analysing the transition from non-Fickian to Fickian transport for  
220  $t > t_2$  (Dentz et al., 2004). The  $t_1$  sets the lower limit from which the power law behaviour begins, so  
221 that the time range of interest is  $t > t_1$ . The time  $t_2$  governs the crossover from power law to a  
222 decreasing exponential function (Edery et al., 2014; Gao et al., 2009). Overall, the  $\psi(t)$  exhibits a  
223 wide change in behaviour as a function of  $\beta$  that largely determines  $\psi(t)$  (Edery et al., 2014). That is,  
224  $\beta$  controls the particle transport and thus functionally captures the dispersion regimes (i.e. Fickian or  
225 non-Fickian) (Cortis et al., 2004). The relative shapes of the anomalous transport regimes are  
226 strongly dependent on  $\beta$ , as shown in Table 1.

227 In this study, the TPL model is used to interpret the measured BTCs of strontium, since the TPL  
228 model has been proved to be effective in describing non-Fickian transport for numerous laboratory  
229 and field observations (Edery et al., 2014). Specifically, the Laplace transformed analytical solution  
230 to the CTRW equations is obtained for a set of given boundary conditions: Dirichlet boundary  
231 condition (prescribed concentration) with an exponential decay function of concentration is specified  
232 at the inlet of the columns according to the Eq.(2); Neumann (prescribed flux) boundary condition is  
233 specified at the outlet boundary.

234

#### 235 2.4. Inverse modelling with ADE and CTRW-TPL methods

236 The experimental BTCs are analyzed using the equilibrium ADE and CTRW-TPL methods  
237 described above. Inverse modelling for parameters identification is implemented by fitting analytical  
238 solutions with the models to the observed BTCs. The inversion processes are conducted through the  
239 non-linear least squares inversion program, CXTFIT (Šimůnek et al., 1999; Toride et al., 1995), and

240 the CTRW MATLAB toolbox which is available from the website  
241 <http://www.weizmann.ac.il/ESER/People/Brian/CTRW>.

242 From the measured effluent concentration  $C_f$  at the outlet boundary, and the concentration at the  
243 onset of leaching process  $C_0$  (both in  $\text{ML}^{-3}$ ), a normalized concentration is defined by

$$244 \quad c = \frac{C_f}{C_0}, \quad (9)$$

245 Further, the ratio of eluted tracer mass to the total tracer mass  $m_0$ , i.e. the cumulative mass fraction  
246 eluted from columns is calculated by

$$247 \quad f = \frac{Q \int_0^t C_f dt}{m_0}. \quad (10)$$

248 The two parameters,  $c$  and  $f$ , are used to constrain the inversion process.

249 The inverse modelling with the equilibrium ADE for bromide (Br) and strontium (Sr) is performed  
250 with CXTFIT. The inverse problem is solved by minimizing an objective function of root mean  
251 square error between observed and fitted concentrations (Šimůnek et al., 1999). For bromide, the  
252 retardation coefficient  $R$  is set to 1, because it is assumed that bromide ions have minimal sorption  
253 onto sand and clay (Srinivasan and Sarmah, 2014). The parameters identified for Br,  $\nu$  and  $D$ , are  
254 then used as input values for the measured strontium BTCs, so that  $R$  for strontium can be estimated.

255 Further, the inversion of 1D TPL model for strontium is implemented by comparing the predicted  
256 BTCs from the CTRW to the normalized BTCs from tracer experiment. The inverse modelling  
257 requires initial guesses of seven fitted parameters, including  $\nu_\psi$ ,  $D_\psi$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $t_1$ ,  $t_2$ ,  $\Lambda$  and  $\alpha$ . Depending on  
258 how close the initial values of the parameters are to the optimized ones, the inverse estimation of  
259 parameters can be time-consuming. Here the values of  $\nu$  and  $D$  from CXTFIT are used as initial  
260 guesses of  $\nu_\psi$  and  $D_\psi$ . Considering that the TPL model is sensitive to the exponent  $\beta$  while relatively  
261 insensitive to  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  (Cortis and Berkowitz, 2005), a broad range for  $\beta$  is tested, from 0.8 to 1.8,  
262 while  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  are estimated from global error minimisation. Further,  $\Lambda$  and  $\alpha$ , which influence the

263 degree of retardation and the power law slope of the BTC tailing (Cortis et al., 2006; Margolin et al.,  
264 2003), are initially set to 0.01~0.3 and 0.01~0.2, respectively. The approach to estimate initial values  
265 and to perform adjustments using trial and error method corresponds to the successful sensitivity  
266 analysis by Cortis et al.(2006). This allowed for achieving good agreement between experimental  
267 and modelling results with the CTRW toolbox.

268

### 269 **3. Results and Discussion**

#### 270 3.1. Tracer leach concentration and eluted mass fraction

271 Leach concentration of bromine and strontium in the experiments are estimated by Eqs. (2) and (3),  
272 and presented in Fig. 2. Assuming that there is no strontium sorption to quartz in the source layer  
273 (Rod et al., 2010), strontium concentration demonstrates an exponential decay over the experimental  
274 duration, similar to bromine. Because the leaching rate,  $\lambda_L$ , is proportional to the volumetric flow rate,  
275  $Q$ , the leach concentration is inversely exponentially dependent on  $Q$ , i.e. very strongly. The higher  
276 the flow rate is, the more easily the tracer particles transfer to aqueous phase and are subjected to  
277 stronger hydrodynamic dispersion with time. This eventually leads to faster falloff of leach  
278 concentration with shorter residence time, and vice versa (Fig. 2). Moreover, as more mass of  
279 strontium than bromine is located at the source layer, the strontium concentration is greater than that  
280 of bromine at the onset of leaching. The release of source term is characterized as a continuous and  
281 decreasing process rather than an instantaneous process. This is due to mass loss through leaching  
282 over time. As a result, the inlet condition of the leaching release process should be treated as an  
283 exponential decay function, instead of a simple instantaneous pulse or Dirac delta function, which is  
284 commonly employed for experimental and numerical simplicity. This treatment of tracer release is  
285 closer to the natural condition in simulating rainfall infiltration, and is critical for dynamic simulation  
286 of tracer transport, e.g. in the CTRW modelling.



287 The cumulative eluted mass fraction for bromine is approximately 39%~58% for the observed  
288 columns, as given in Fig. 3. The results show that around half of the mass remains in the source  
289 layers and soil columns. This indicates that a fraction of pore water is immobile due to the presence  
290 of “dead pore” in relation to fluid flow. For strontium, the cumulative eluted mass fraction is  
291 approximately 16%~49% (Fig. 3), which is much less than that of bromine. This demonstrates that,  
292 in addition to the effect of immobile water on mass transport (i.e. diffusion into immobile zones), the  
293 sorption of strontium on clay minerals is significant and results in extra mass loss as it is transported  
294 through packed columns. Expectedly, more clay content results in larger sorption of strontium and  
295 less aqueous strontium, as seen for columns e-h. The effect of volumetric flow rate on transport is  
296 excluded in the study since the packing structures for columns a-d may vary from one to another due  
297 to uncertainty in the experimental design. It is worth noting, however, that larger eluted mass fraction  
298 is observed for bromide and strontium in column d, which can be attributed to relatively larger  
299 heterogeneity in this packing resulting in local preferential flows and non-Fickian transport, as  
300 discussed in the next sub-section.

301

### 302 3.2. Observations of non-Fickian transport

303 The typical non-Fickian features, asymmetric BTCs with early breakthrough and late tailings, are  
304 observed in varying degrees in our study. Particularly pronounced is the experiment with column d.  
305 This is illustrated by the concentration results shown in Fig. 4, which are also used to show the  
306 predictions of the two methods after parameter estimation, i.e. best fits. Although column d is packed  
307 with “homogeneous” sand and sprinkled with a relatively slow flow rate, 2mL/d, the “anomalous”  
308 transport phenomenon is remarkable. This might be due to the occurrence of preferential flow path  
309 caused by the heterogeneous packing structure. Nevertheless, non-Fickian transport of strontium is  
310 observed in all BTCs, which implies that physical-chemical heterogeneities contribute strongly via  
311 preferential flow, diffusion in/out of immobile zones and complex sorption.

312 The estimated parameters of the two tested models are given in Table 2. Estimated  $0 < \beta < 1$  for  
313 columns d, g, and h, indicates highly dispersive transport leading to longer tailing. The early  
314 breakthrough time observed for column d (Fig. 4d) is not expected in view of the lower flow rate  
315 compared to columns a-c. This suggests the existence of stronger preferential flow path as well as  
316 larger immobile zones. Potentially, a fraction of strontium is trapped or diffuses into low  
317 permeability lenses and remains there for long times. The strontium particles that firstly reach the  
318 outlet with short residence time are those that propagate through the faster moving regions along  
319 preferential flow paths. Thus, the “homogeneous” column d with a much smaller  $\beta$ , larger transport  
320 velocity and dispersion coefficient, fails to comply with the Fick transport theory and exhibits  
321 significant non-Fickian dispersion.

322 For columns g and h (Fig. 4g and h), in addition to diffusion into immobile zones, sorption is a  
323 reasonable explanation for the non-Fickian migration based on the conclusion of Rubin et al. (2012).  
324 The reduction and delay of the peak concentration and the tailing features are affected by the  
325 additional processes of adsorption/desorption of strontium onto/from the mineral surface. This  
326 partitioning mechanism between aqueous and mineral phases enhances the non-Fickian transport and  
327 causes the failure of Fickian-based equilibrium ADE model.

328 Comparatively, columns a, e and f with  $1 < \beta < 2$ , present moderate non-Fickian processes at  
329 different water flow fields and particles residence time. Note that in Fig. 4a, the BTCs demonstrate  
330 early arrival and late tail, corresponding to the larger transport velocity and dispersion coefficient,  
331 which are similar to the phenomenon of column d and distinct from columns e and f. This can be  
332 explained by the higher pore water velocities enhancing the preferential flow in the presence of  
333 immobile water (Gaber et al., 1995; Li and Ren, 2009). For columns e and f, sorption retardation  
334 process (e.g. strontium cations exchange with inorganic cations in clay), serves as an additional  
335 factor contributing weakly to the non-Fickian dispersive transport. The contribution of sorption to the  
336 non-Fickian features depends on the amount of clay as seen in Fig. 4e-h.

337 Unlike column a with high volumetric flow rate, Fickian transport at medium volumetric flow rate  
338 is predicted fairly well for column b and c with values of  $\beta$  slightly larger than 2 (Fig. 4b and c). This  
339 suggests that the assumption of equilibrium mass transfer between spectrums of different mobility is  
340 adequate for moderate flow rates within relatively homogeneous structures. The results also supports  
341 our assumption that little sorption/desorption occurs for sand-packed columns.

342 Our results strengthen the understanding that both physical and chemical heterogeneities may  
343 influence strongly species transport (Mohamed et al., 2010). For laboratory scale disturbed and  
344 undisturbed soil columns, the role of physical non-equilibrium transport stemming from physical  
345 heterogeneities, i.e. different pore scale structures, is critical for inducing non-Fickian phenomena:  
346 macro-pores commonly control the preferential flow process, while some pore spaces serve as tracer  
347 sinks at early times, and then release tracer slowly. This drives non-Fickian transport with late tailing  
348 feature (Dousset et al., 2007; Swanson et al., 2015). It is known that preferential flow and transport  
349 may exist in unconsolidated sandy soils. This applies to soils with available structural voids as a  
350 result of textural shift horizontally, funneling effect, or fluid instabilities due to viscosity or density  
351 differences between the invading and resident water (Kamra et al., 2001). Further, chemical  
352 heterogeneities across various scales, which control chemical equilibrium (instantaneous sorption) or  
353 non-equilibrium (kinetic sorption) transport processes, apparently contribute the non-Fickian  
354 mechanisms.

355

### 356 3.3. Physical heterogeneity effects on non-Fickian transport

357 Due to minimal sorption in the sand-packed columns, column experiments a-d allow for  
358 evaluating transport behaviour quantitatively due to physical aspects alone – advection and  
359 dispersion. The main parameters influencing advective-dispersive transport are the fluid velocity and  
360 dispersion coefficient. Although a correlation between the tracer transport velocities and the  
361 volumetric flow rates is found by the ADE model (Table 2), the resultant fitting parameters do not

362 follow the expected Fickian trend, because the ADE is insufficient to capture the highly non-Fickian  
363 transport in column d. In contrast, transport velocity and dispersion coefficient for column d  
364 estimated by the CTRW-TPL are greater than those for columns b and c. This implies that columns b  
365 and c are likely forming more homogeneous packed structures, while column d is likely to have a  
366 relatively heterogeneous one. That is, the presence of macro-pores in column d may lead to overall  
367 faster transport and high dynamic dispersion.

368 Similar to fracture-matrix systems, where fracture leads to fast breakthrough and matrix  
369 contributes to the long tailing of BTCs (Kosakowski and Smith, 2005), the eluted mass fraction and  
370 inverse modelling for the BTCs indicate that the presence of interconnected open channels, e.g.  
371 macro-pores or preferential flow paths, in conjunction with low velocity regions, e.g. in dead-end  
372 channels or immobile zones, is responsible for the non-Fickian dispersion transport in heterogeneous  
373 columns. Specifically, local flow velocity variations, i.e. low-velocity fluid near channel walls and  
374 higher-velocity fluid near the centre of the channel, as well as the matrix diffusion, result in a skewed  
375 breakthrough curve with an earlier peak and longer tail.

376 Pore-scale heterogeneity and variations of fluids velocity in the pore space are known to yield  
377 enhanced dispersive transport, associated with the Peclet number ( $Pe$ ) (Dentz et al., 2011).  
378 Depending on the selected length scale,  $Pe$  is presented in different forms (Bear and Cheng, 2010).  
379 At the macroscopic level,  $Pe = v L / D = L / \alpha$ , where  $L$  is a characteristic length, represents the ratio  
380 between the advective and dispersive transport terms. It increases when the advection dominates over  
381 dispersion (Šimůnek et al., 2008). For  $Pe \ll 1$ , the advective mass flux may be neglected as much  
382 smaller than the dispersive one, and vice versa (Bear and Cheng, 2010). In this study, based on the  
383 fitted parameters (Table 2) and the column length,  $L = 18\text{cm}$ ,  $Pe$  is calculated for the experimental  
384 columns with results presented in Table 3. The results,  $1 < Pe < 200$ , show that both dispersion and  
385 advection are operating, e.g. there is a transition region to a power-law regime (Dentz et al., 2011).

386 In this case, the CTRW-based TPL model is valid for transport regimes. The possible effects of  $Pe$   
387 on dispersive transport are not analysed here, but are subject of further investigations.

388

#### 389 3.4. Chemical heterogeneity effects on non-Fickian transport

390 The column experiments e-h are designed to evaluate the effect of sorption on strontium transport.  
391 Expectedly, the tracer transport velocities decrease with increased clay content (Table 2), as  
392 strontium transport is significantly retarded. The emergent behaviour is non-Fickian dispersive  
393 transport, i.e. reduction and delay of the peak concentration and elongation of tailing. The larger the  
394 clay content, the greater the retardation and the reduction of strontium (Fig. 4e-h, Table 2). Inversely,  
395 the degree of non-Fickian transport is negatively associated with clay content (see Tables 1 and 2).  
396 Those phenomena are fundamentally due to the sorption/desorption of strontium on clay surface.

397 Sorption coefficients, represented in the form of  $R$  or  $K_d$ , are commonly used to approximate the  
398 extent of species sorption on various minerals, where typical sorption reactions are surface  
399 complexation and ion exchange (Altmann et al., 2001). As sorption is commonly a complex function  
400 of chemical properties, e.g. pH, ionic strength, mineral surface area, etc., the integral (constant)  
401 coefficient  $R$  or  $K_d$  used in ADE model often fail to capture such complexities. This is demonstrated  
402 by our results that the equilibrium ADE is insufficient to fully capture measured BTCs. Moreover,  
403 for spatially heterogeneous retardation properties, which can give rise to distinct non-Fickian  
404 transport behaviours, the sorption coefficient  $R$  may not exist at relevant time and length scales  
405 (Dentz and Castro, 2009). Consequently, the prediction of increasing  $R$  with increasing clay content  
406 by the ADE model (Table 2) is not sufficient to describe strontium transport in clayed media using  
407 the equilibrium sorption model (Fig. 4e-h), because  $R$  reflects the simplified kinetic sorption process  
408 to some degree but fails to capture the chemical heterogeneities, e.g. spatially varying sorption  
409 properties and specific reactive surface areas (Dentz et al., 2011).

410 In contrast, the CTRW framework with a sticking rate term is found capable of representing  
411 strontium transport (Fig. 4e-h), where slow and fast species transport is manipulated by the random  
412 spatial and time increment as a stochastic process, and heterogeneity is mapped on the joint  
413 distribution of transition length and times (Dentz et al., 2011). As expected, the average “sticking”  
414 rate  $\Lambda$  increases with increasing clay content (Table 2). This demonstrates that  $\Lambda$  represents  
415 physically the degree of sorption of strontium on clay minerals, and shows that our CTRW-TPL  
416 model is robust in capturing non-Fickian transport when sorption is operating (Fig. 4e-h). Overall,  
417 the CTRW model is of the greater flexibility to describe the local scale transport with spatially  
418 varying equilibrium mass transfer and sorption-desorption reactions (Bromly and Hinz, 2004; Dentz  
419 and Castro, 2009), and thus can capture observed non-Fickian transport features, e.g. highly non-  
420 Gaussian BTCs.

421

### 422 3.5. Performance of ADE and CTRW methods in environmental modelling

423 Environmental modelling uses mathematics and computers to simulate physical and chemical  
424 phenomena across different environmental scales (Holzbecher, 2012). For nuclide transport related  
425 to contaminated sites remediation and safety assessments of a nuclear waste disposal, a number of  
426 macroscopic models based on ADE have been proposed, e.g. dual-porosity model, dual permeability  
427 model, two-phase model (Kapetas et al., 2014; Šimůnek and van Genuchten, 2008). The CTRW  
428 framework has mainly been applied for reactive transport, e.g. chemical sorption on minerals (Deng  
429 et al., 2013; Dentz et al., 2011; Edery et al., 2015).

430 In this work, inverse modelling by CXTFIT and CTRW toolbox have been used to obtain the  
431 relevant model parameters (Table 2). Overall, the CTRW performs better than the ADE, specifically  
432 in capturing measured BTCs, even though there should be little difference between them for column  
433 d, due to negligible sorption (Fig. 4). The equilibrium ADE modelling leads to broad range of  
434 parameters in capturing asymmetric BTCs by CXTFIT (Table 2), as the simple average deterministic

435 values may be insufficient to capture pervasive non-Fickian transport and estimate the randomness of  
436 tracer transference. The CTRW-TPL model appears to be the preferred method to describe this non-  
437 Fickian transport. Further, the CTRW-TPL is found insensitive to the magnitude of the Peclet  
438 number and offers an efficient alternative for modelling species transport in convection-dominant  
439 flows (COMSOL, 2013). It is noted that some BTCs fitted with the ADE through CXTFIT are  
440 similar to ones with TPL through CTRW toolbox (Fig. 4). This can be explained by the relative  
441 flexibility of CXTFIT to fit certain BTCs. However, this flexibility appears to have limited validity,  
442 excluding strongly preferential flow conditions (Kamra et al., 2001).

443 Both ADE and CTRW methods have been widely credited as effective tools to simulate species  
444 transport in heterogeneous conditions, utilising Lagrangian (particle tracing) and Eulerian (integral-  
445 differential equation) frameworks (Bakshvaskaia and Pozdniakov, 2015; Hansen and Berkowitz,  
446 2015; Rumynin, 2011). In fact, CTRW offers a general formalism which encompasses the ADE  
447 models, and thus has comprehensive ability in treating non-Fickian dispersion transport (Berkowitz  
448 et al., 2006; Gao et al., 2009). Moreover, the probabilistic base of CTRW provides a more realistic  
449 mathematical framework to model the advection-dispersion in porous media than the deterministic  
450 base of ADE (Kulasiri, 2013). However, there are unresolved issues with respect to the non-  
451 uniqueness of fitted parameters and inverse solution because of internal correlations between CTRW  
452 parameters. This results in the existence of many local minima in the parameter estimation method  
453 (Kulasiri, 2013). To surmount the problem, apart from collecting supplementary information which  
454 is independent of the fitted parameter and reflects the actual migration processes, it is suggested to  
455 integrate the ADE and CTRW approaches to find optimal parameters to improve inversion problem.  
456 For example, in this work we set admissible limits to the effective transport velocity and dispersion  
457 coefficient found by ADE model as constraints to the CTRW. Then, in the CTRW framework,  $\beta$  can  
458 be estimated through analysis of the velocity field (Gao et al., 2009). Finally, the optimization  
459 scheme allows for calculating reliable parameter values, which provide robust model prediction.

460 From a practical perspective, however, a disadvantage of CTRW is the lack of well-established  
461 public domain or commercial package; only CTRW MATLAB toolbox is available as mentioned in  
462 the section 2. In contrast, there are widely available user-friendly software packages for ADE, such  
463 as CTXFIT, HYDRUS (Šimůnek et al., 2008), MODFLOW (Chiang and Kinzelbach, 2005), upon  
464 which customized models can be built without sophisticated programming and coding.

465

#### 466 **4. Conclusions**

467 Understanding release and transport of radioactive strontium is important in the context of  
468 remedial options for contaminated sites and safety assessment of disposal in near-surface zone. Few  
469 investigations have focused on strontium non-Fickian transport with coupled advection, dispersion  
470 and sorption processes, through an integrated approach of laboratory dynamic column experiments  
471 and computer modelling. By re-analyzing BTCs from realistic column experiments of strontium  
472 transport behaviour, comprehensive analysis for release and non-Fickian dispersive migration of  
473 strontium was carried out using the ADE-based CTXFIT and TPL-based CTRW toolbox. The results  
474 allow for the following conclusions:

475 (1) Tracer release is found to be exponentially decaying from experimentally-informed  
476 understanding that it is a continuous and decreasing process (Fig. 2); this is essential for defining  
477 appropriate inlet conditions in future modelling.

478 (2) Observed reduction of eluted tracer mass (Fig. 3), 39%~58% of bromine and 16%~49% of  
479 strontium, results from heterogeneities in the physical and chemical properties and processes:  
480 molecular diffusion into/out immobile zone, strong preferential flow paths, sorption on the clay  
481 surface, etc; this leads to non-Fickian behaviour with variable strength shown by early breakthroughs  
482 and late tails.



483 (3) The CTRW-TPL model can capture non-Fickian transport with  $0 < \beta < 2$  and Fickian transport  
484 with  $\beta > 2$  (Table 2, Fig. 4). The non-Fickian dispersive transport is due to variation of flow fields  
485 and sorption retardation processes.

486 (4) The CTRW-TPL performs better than the ADE model in terms of capturing pervasive non-  
487 Fickian transport, however, both ADE and CTRW models have positive and negative aspects for  
488 practical use: integration of ADE and CTRW is suggested to obtain reliable parameters and provide  
489 robust model prediction for both conservative and reactive transport.

490

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496

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646 **Tables**

647 **Table 1** Relationship between  $\beta$  and transport regimes<sup>1</sup>

Value	Characteristics of parameters	Transport feature
$0 < \beta < 1$	The first and the second moment of the $\psi(t)$ is inexistence; both transport velocity and dispersion coefficient vary with time as power laws.	Indicates a highly non-Fickian dispersion transport.
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648 <sup>1</sup> Summarized from Li and Ren (2009), Wang and Cardenas (2014).

649

650

651 **Table 2** Fitted values of parameters for ADE and CTRW

	ADE (CXTFIT)			CTRW (MATLAB toolbox)						
	$v^I$ (cm/d)	$D^I$ (cm <sup>2</sup> /d)	$R^I$	$v_\psi$ (cm/d)	$D_\psi$ (cm <sup>2</sup> /d)	$\beta$	$t_1$ (d)	$t_2$ (d)	$\Lambda$	$\mu$
a	79.78±5.78	286.56±1.44	0.997±0.111	55.34	178.56	1.80	1.48E-2	1.09	0.05	0.01
b	46.30±3.22	67.25±15.50	1.017±0.069	11.23	30.65	2.16	4.32E-2	5.93	0.04	0.01
c	22.50±0.59	11.10±2.20	1.039±0.027	10.8	3.44	2.27	4.25E-2	4.60	0.03	0.03
d	9.21±9.20	22.37 ±4.79	0.999±0.111	20.25	215.94	0.31	2.05E-2	4.06E3	0.09	0.08
e	1.05±0.01	0.57 ±0.03	1.053±0.027	0.52	0.12	1.43	2.53 E-1	3.62E3	0.12	0.12



f	0.83±0.01	0.55±0.04	1.076±0.048	0.47	0.10	1.26	3.69 E-1	6.59E3	0.13	0.09
g	0.67±0.01	0.47±0.04	1.093±0.029	0.38	0.12	0.62	6.24E-1	6.89E3	0.15	0.15
h	0.58±0.01	0.43±0.06	1.194±0.017	0.31	0.03	0.87	9.11E-1	1.07E4	0.18	0.16

652 Columns a-d: packed by sand, with sprinkling volumetric flow rate  $Q = 100, 50, 20, 2$  mL/d,  
653 respectively; Columns e-h:  $Q=2$  mL/d, packed by sand+clay (3:1), sand+clay (1:1), sand+clay (1:3) ,  
654 clay, respectively.

655 <sup>l</sup>: The parameters values with 95% confidence limits.

656

657

658 **Table 3** Estimated values of Peclet number for the columns

column	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h
$Pe^l$	4.6~5.6	9.4~17.2	29.6~56.1	0.01~18.8	31.2~78	25.1~84.6	23.3~57	20.9~186

659 <sup>l</sup>: The values were estimated using the inverse modelling results listed in Table 2.

660

661 **Figure captions**

662

663 **Fig. 1.** Schematic illustration of the experimental setup

664

665 **Fig. 2.** Simulated leach concentrations of bromine (a) and strontium (b) over column experimental  
666 duration under different sprinkling volumetric flow rate ( $Q$ ) conditions according to equations (2~3).

667

668 **Fig. 3.** Observed cumulative mass fraction of bromine (a) and strontium (b) eluted from  
669 corresponding columns, calculated by Equation (13). Columns a-d: packed by sand, sprinkling  
670 volume flow rate  $Q = 100, 50, 20, 2$  mL/d, respectively; Columns e-h:  $Q = 2$  mL/d, packed by sand  
671 and clay (3:1), sand and clay (1:1), sand and clay (1:3), clay, respectively.

672

673 **Fig. 4.** Measured and best fitted BTCs of strontium using ADE/CTRW for column experiments. The  
674 corresponding fitted values of parameters for the columns are shown in Table 2. The first four  
675 columns (a-d) are packed with sand, with sprinkling volume flow rate  $Q = 100, 50, 20, 2$  mL/d,  
676 respectively; the next three columns (e-h) are packed with different ratios of sand to clay: e 3:1, f 1:1,  
677 g 1:3, respectively. The column-h was packed with clay. Note that columns e-h are used by applying  
678 the same volumetric flow rate 2 mL/d. Dashed line is the equilibrium ADE model fit and solid line is  
679 the CTRW-based TPL model fit.

680

681

Fig. 1

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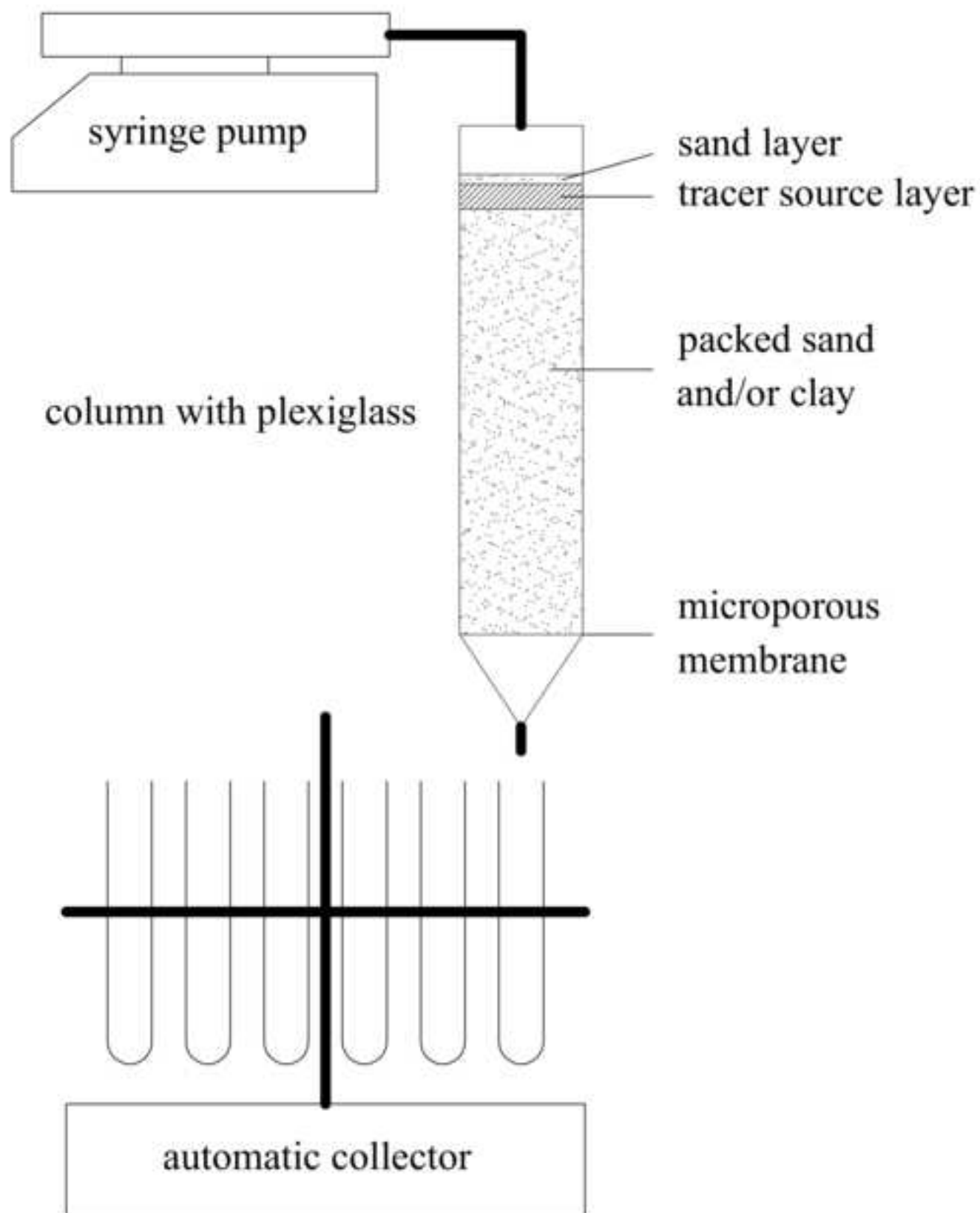


Fig. 2a

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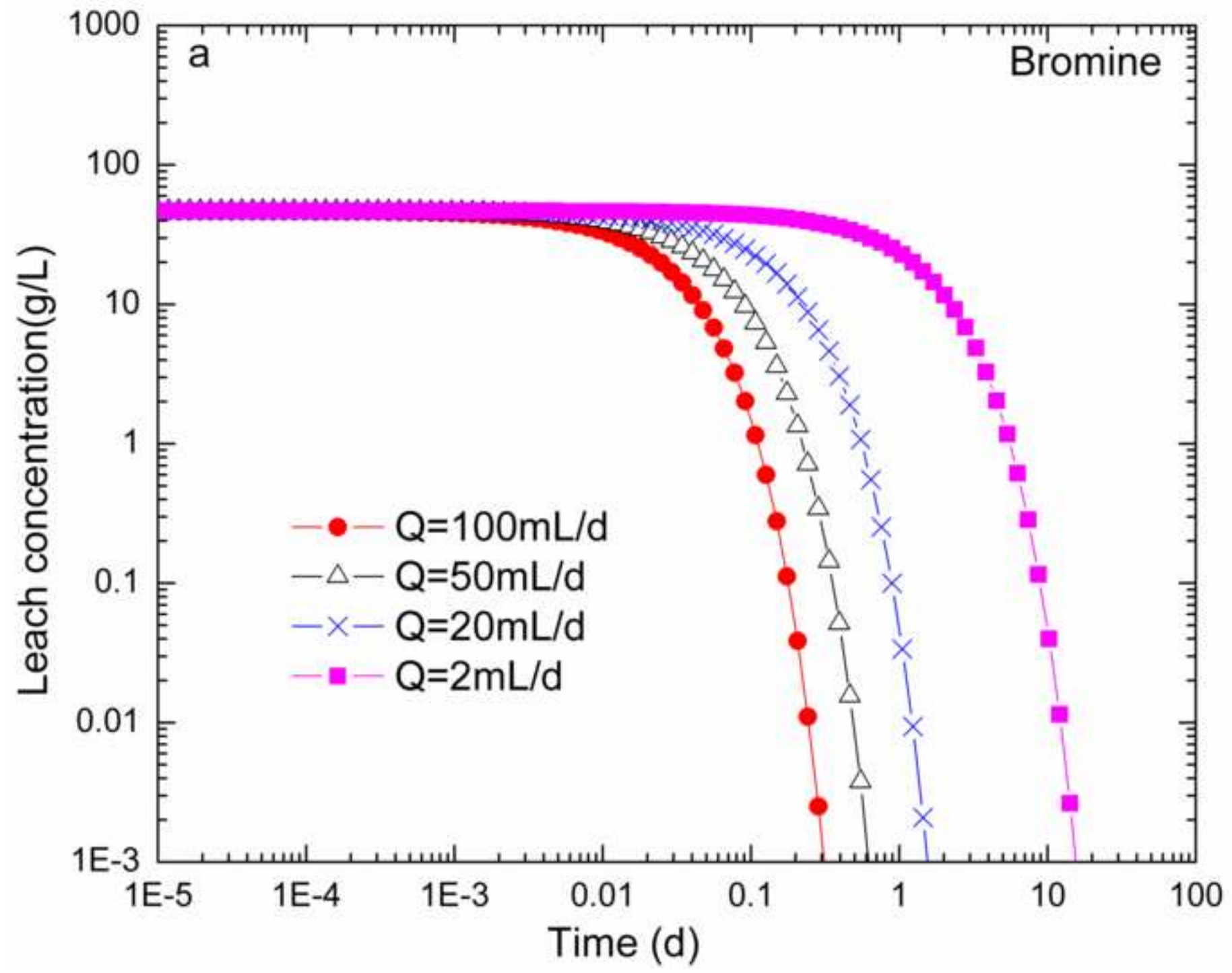


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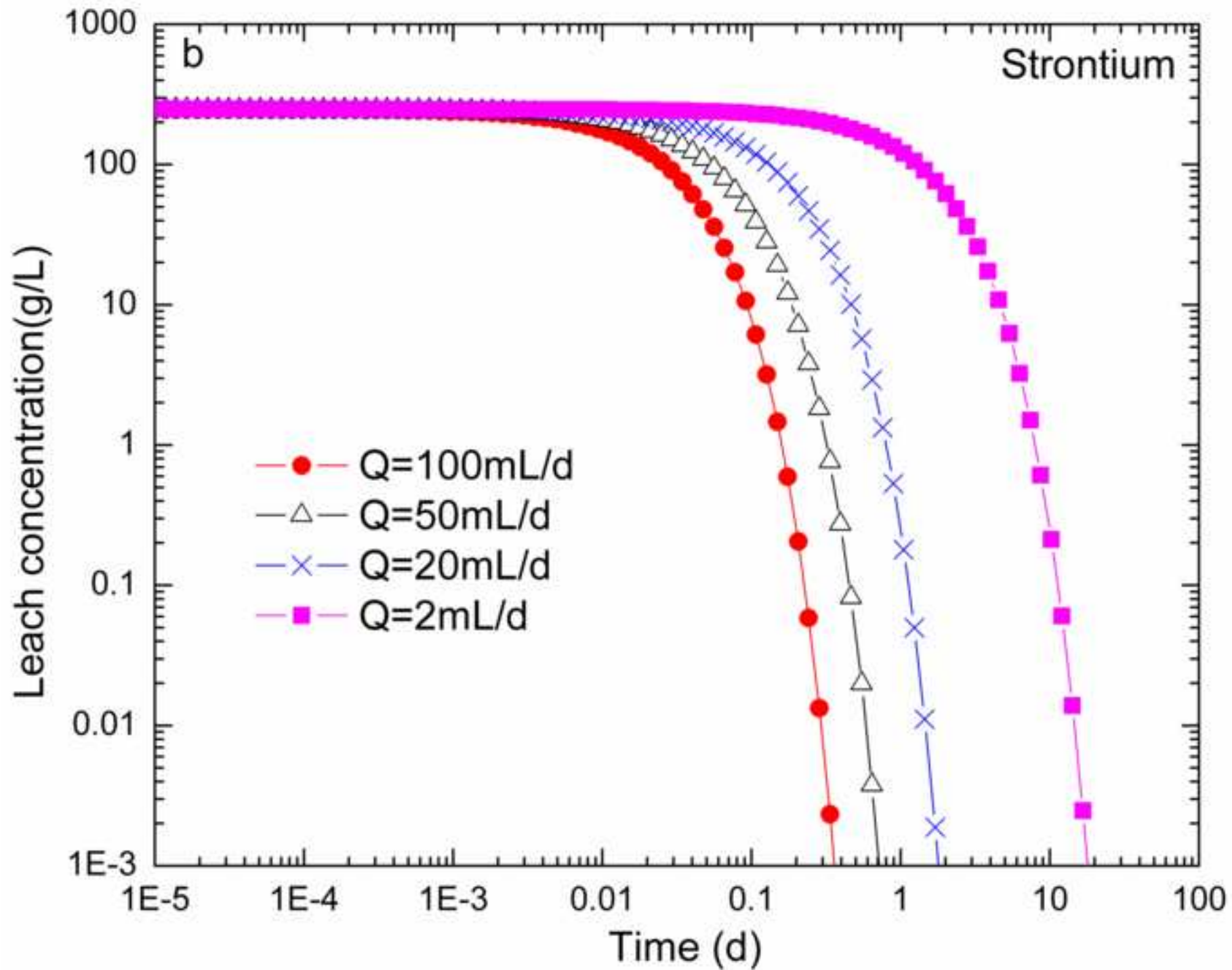




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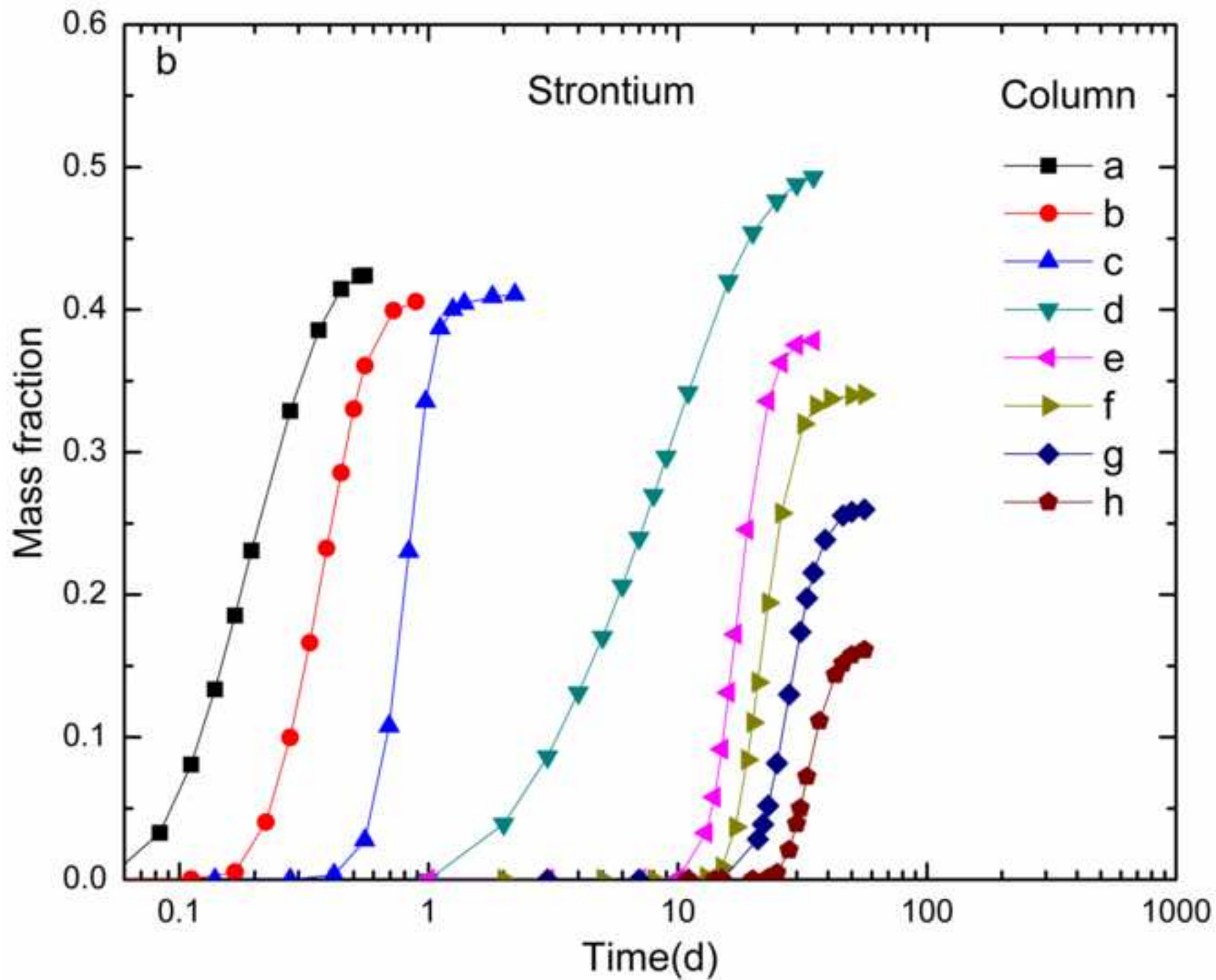


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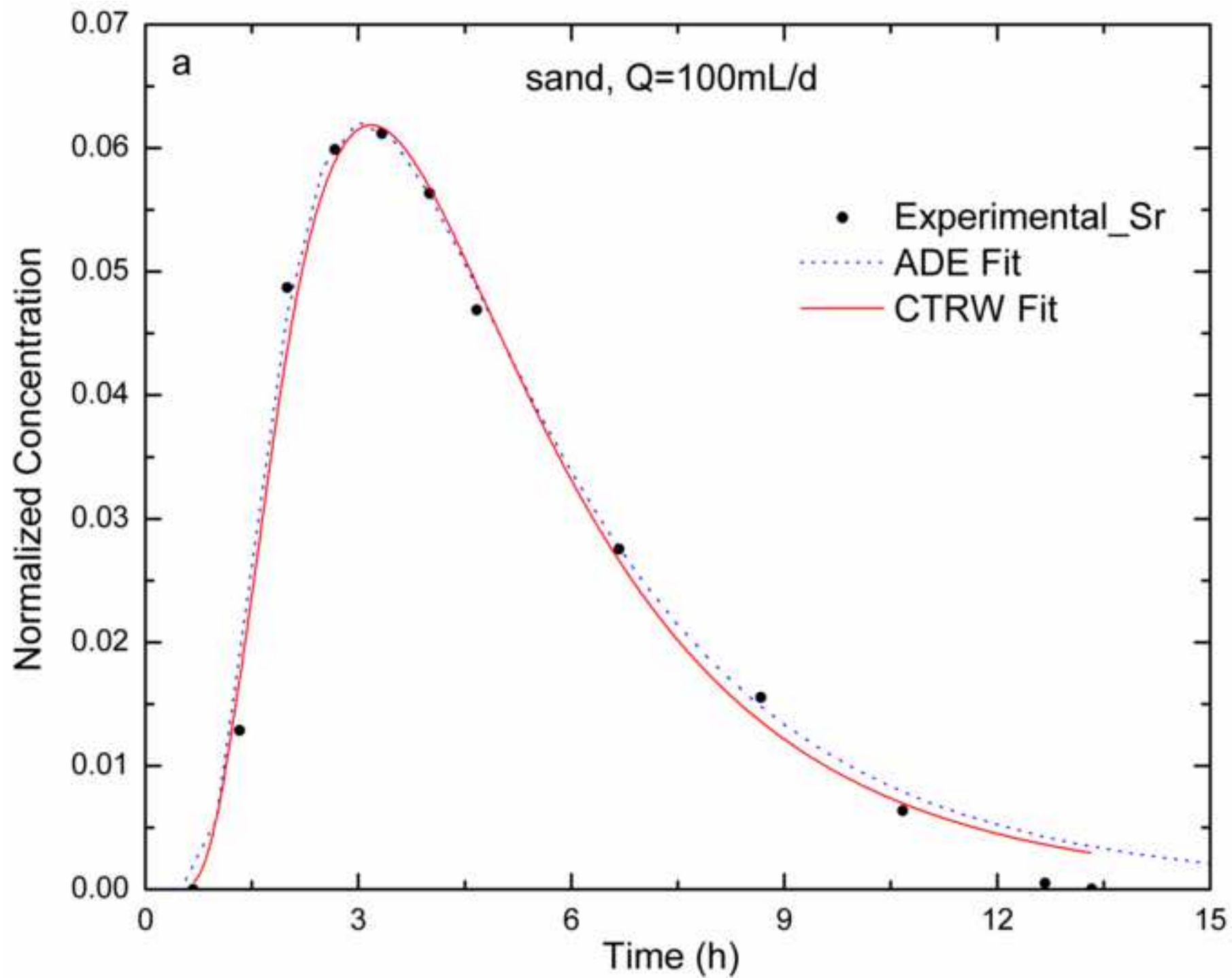




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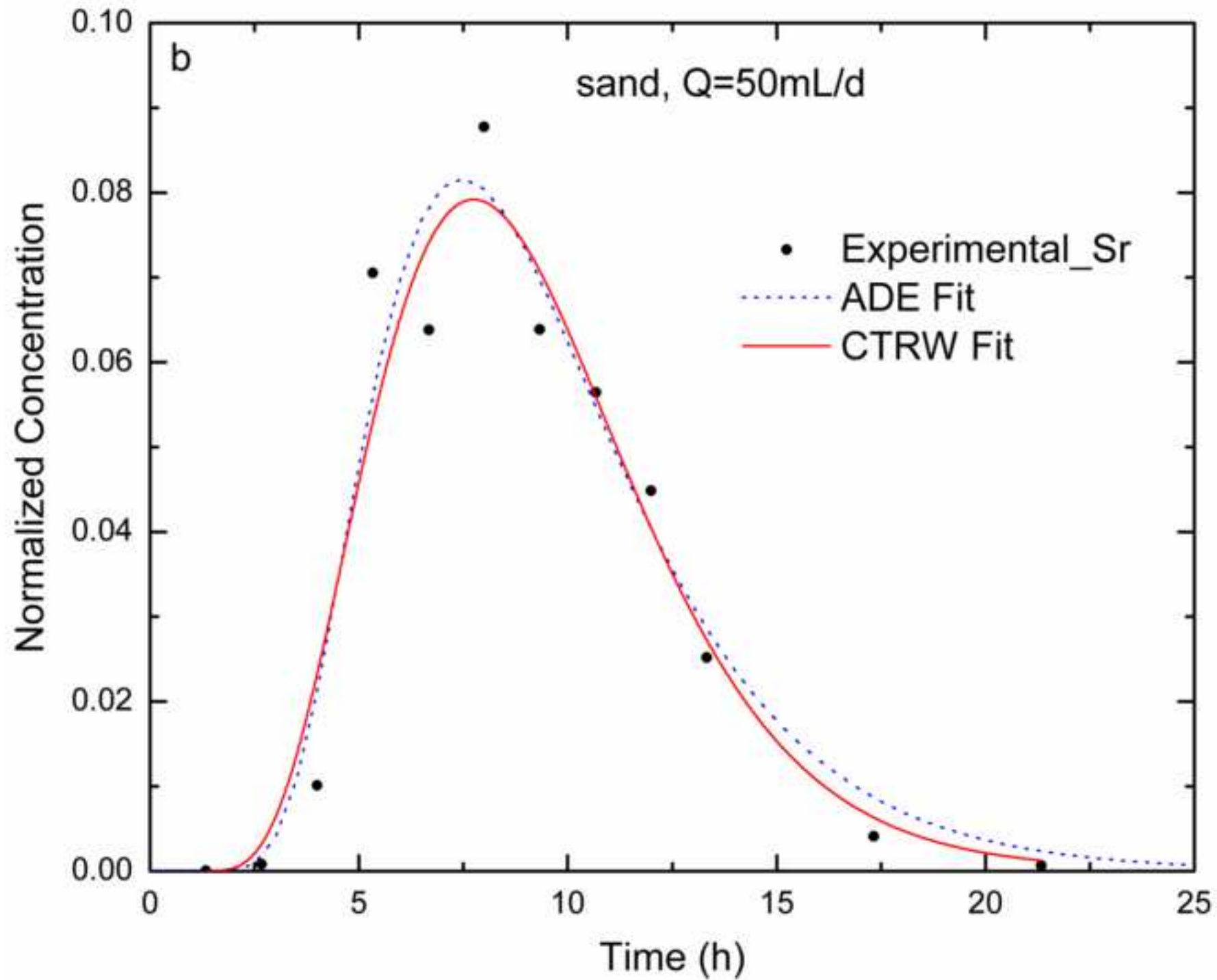


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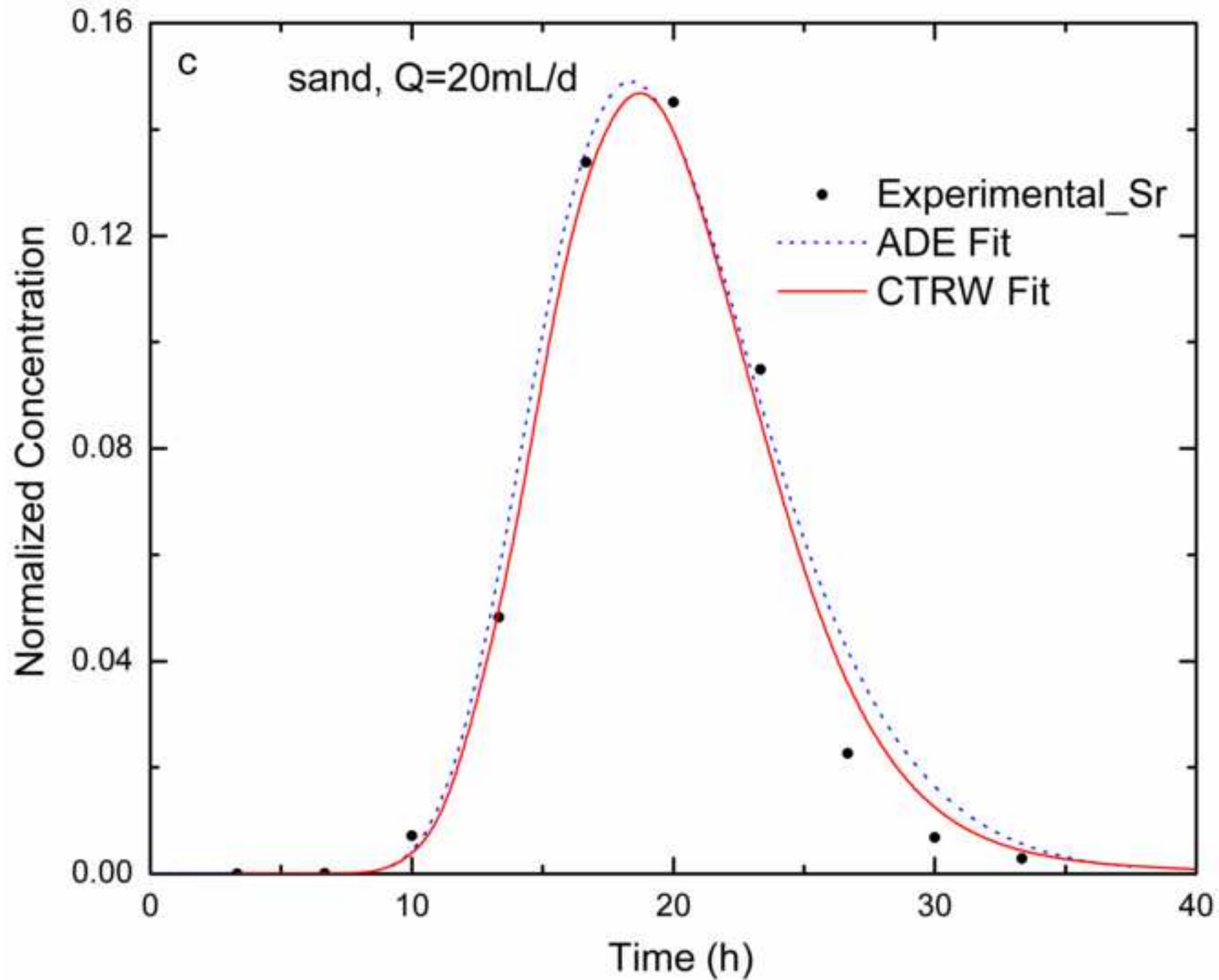


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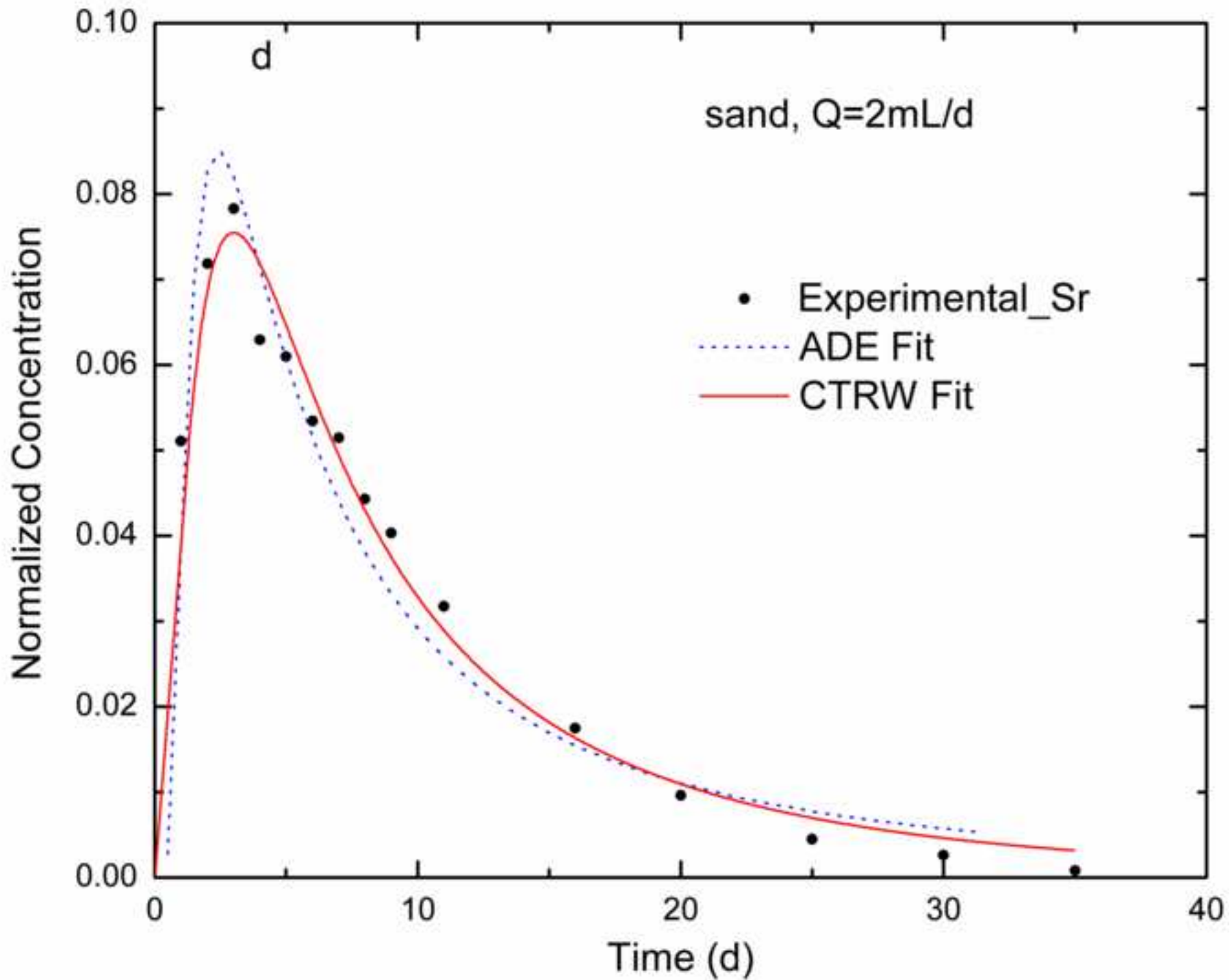


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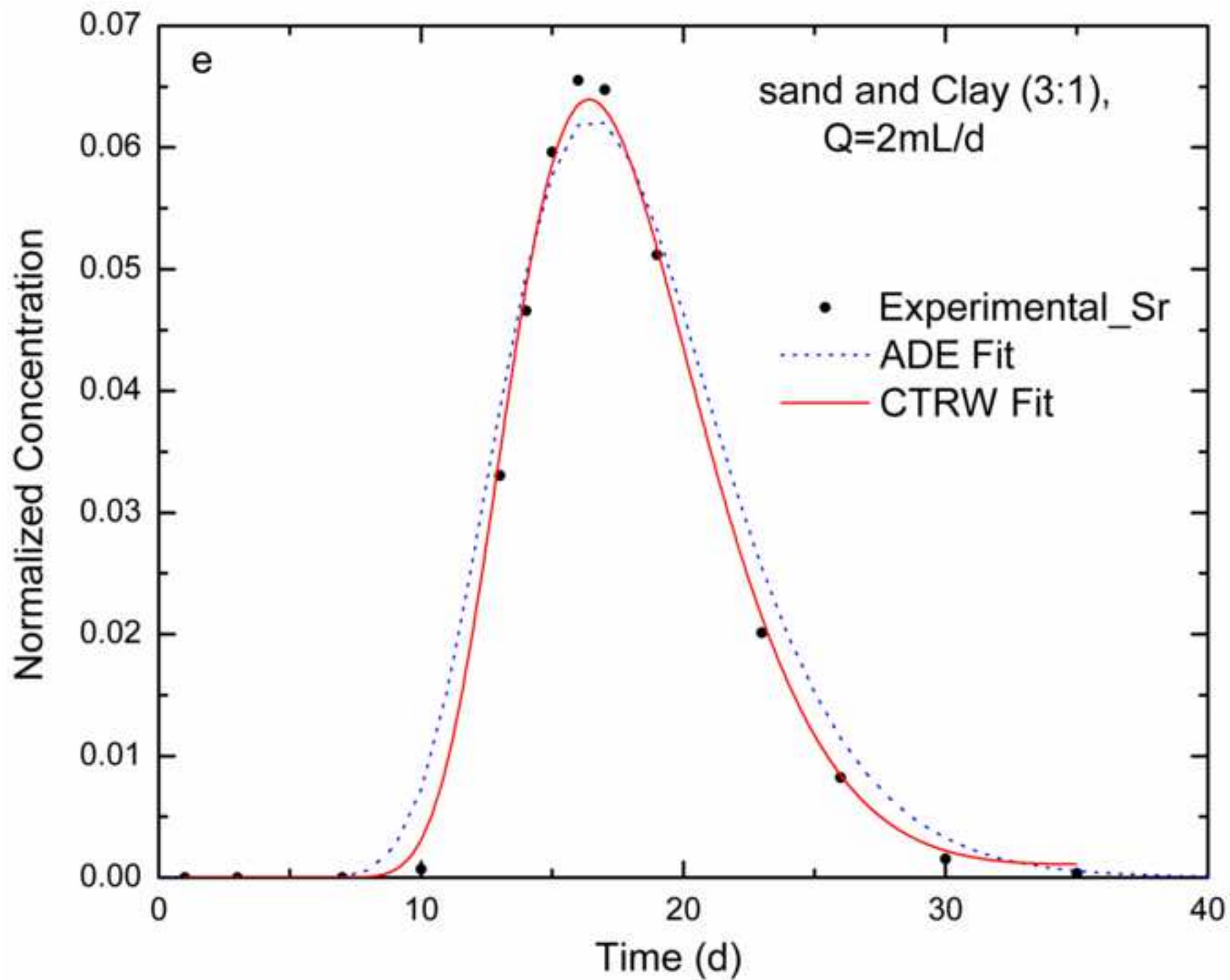


Fig. 4f

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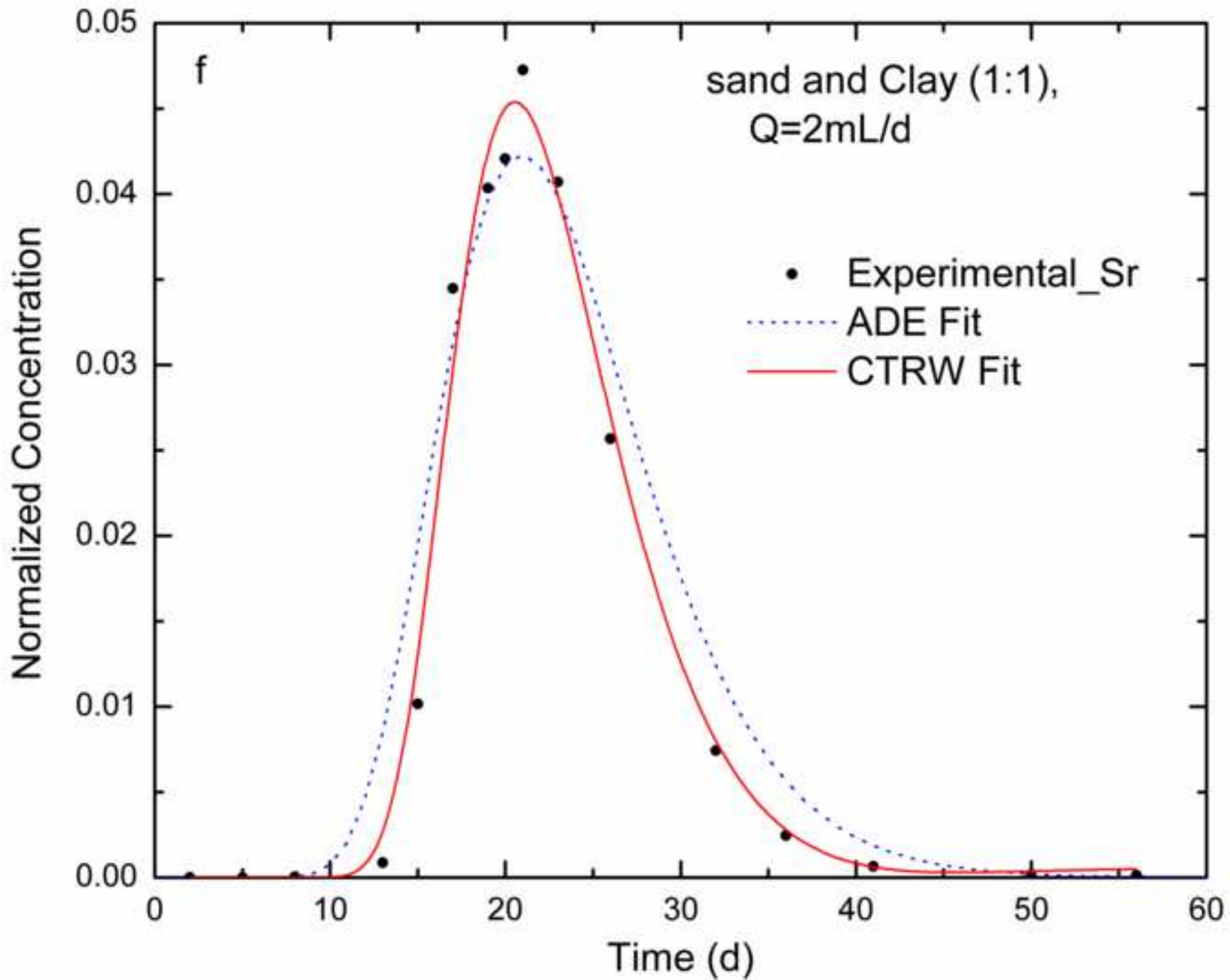


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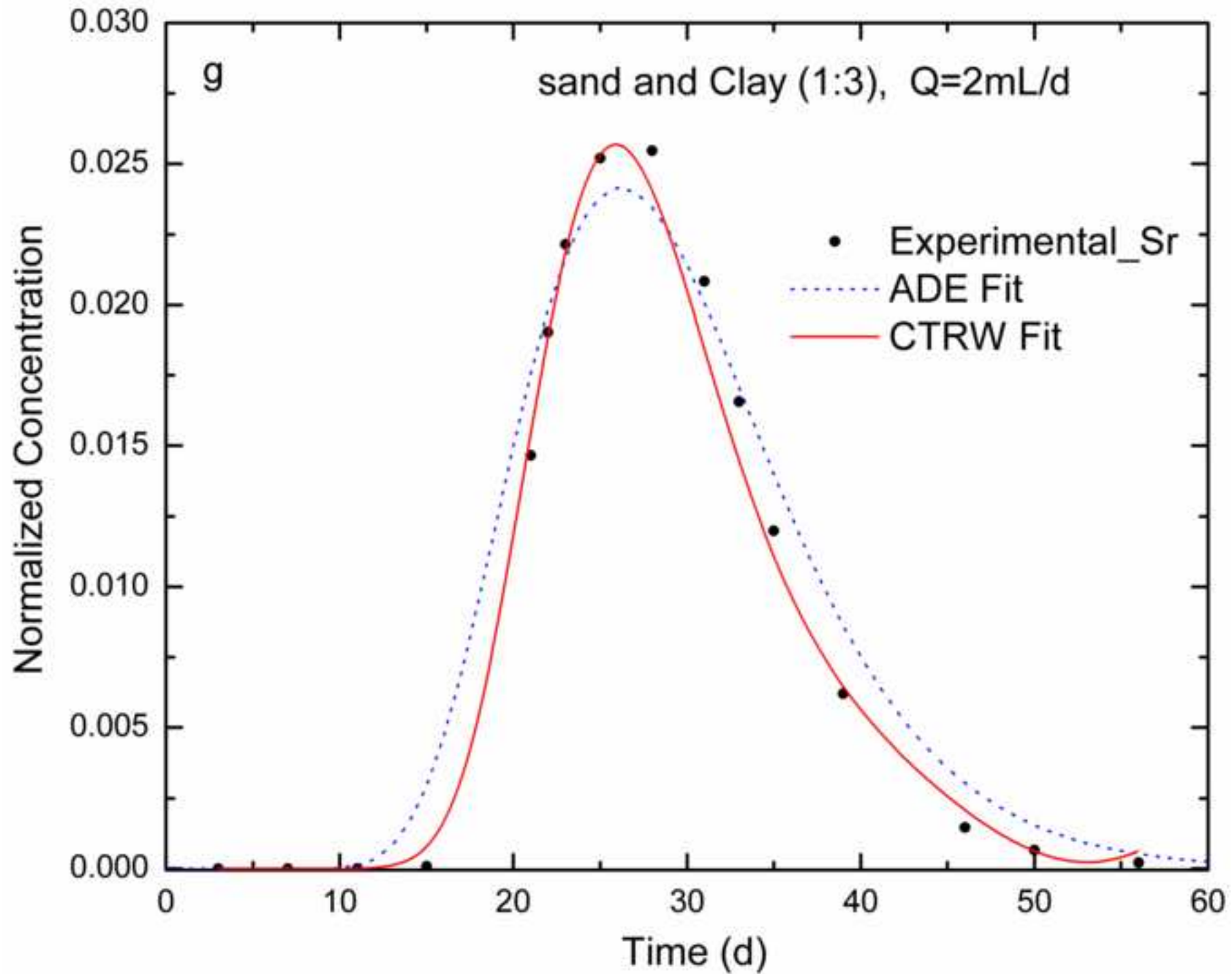
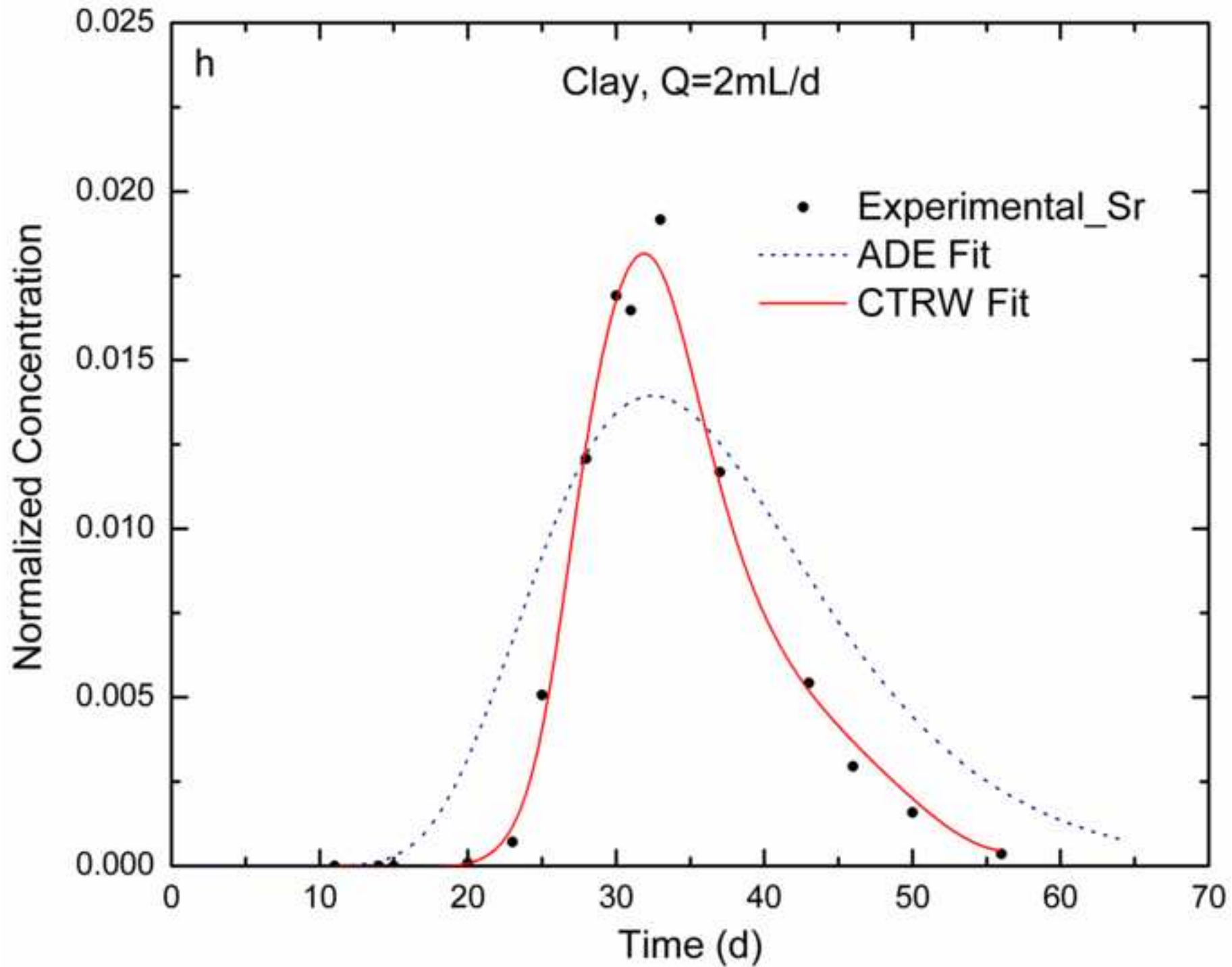


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