# **Final Report**

# Colloid-Facilitated Transport of Radioactive Cations in the Vadose Zone

## 1. Introduction

### **1.1.** Objectives and Scope of the Research

The overarching goal of this study was to improve understanding of colloid-facilitated transport of radioactive cations through unsaturated soils and sediments. We conducted a suite of laboratory experiments and field experiments on the vadose-zone transport of colloids, organic matter, and associated contaminants of interest to the U.S. Department of Energy (DOE). The laboratory and field experiments, together with transport modeling, were designed to accomplish the following detailed objectives:

- 1. Evaluation of the relative importance of inorganic colloids and organic matter to the facilitation of radioactive cation transport in the vadose zone.
- 2. Assessment of the role of adsorption and desorption kinetics in the facilitated transport of radioactive cations in the vadose zone.
- 3. Examination of the effects of rainfall and infiltration dynamics and in the facilitated transport of radioactive cations through the vadose zone.
- 4. Exploration of the role of soil heterogeneity and preferential flow paths (e.g., macropores) on the facilitated transport of radioactive cations in the vadose zone.
- 5. Development of a mathematical model of facilitated transport of contaminants in the vadose zone that accurately incorporates pore-scale and column-scale processes with the practicality of predicting transport with readily available parameters.

This collaborative research project brought together scientists and engineers from Yale University, the University of Colorado, and Oak Ridge National Lab. This report focuses exclusively on findings based on laboratory experiments and model simulations carried out at Yale University. Findings from the field-scale transport experiment will be described separately in a final report submitted by the University of Colorado.

#### 1.2. Relevance of Project to DOE Mission

The focus of this proposal on facilitated transport in the vadose zone directly addresses needs addressed by the U.S. Department of Energy for risk assessment and remediation of some of their contaminated sites (*DOE-ERSD*, 2006). In response to DOE needs outlined in the solicitation, the research described in this proposal will "investigate a key process affecting the mobility of subsurface contaminants found at DOE sites." Because of the prevalence of radioactive cations and anions that strongly bind to mineral and organic matter phases at DOE sites, colloid- and organic matter-facilitated transport contaminants has been examined and observed at DOE sites in both the vadose zone (*Ryan et al.*, 1998; *Litaor et al.*, 1998; *McCarthy*, 1998) and in saturated media (*Buddemeier and Hunt*, 1988; *Kersting et al.*, 1999; *Santschi et al.*, 2002; *Dai et al.*, 2005) and in laboratory experiments using partially saturated and saturated media from DOE sites (*Coles and Ramspott*, 1982; *Um and Papelis*, 2002; *Flury et al.*, 2002; *Zhuang et al.*, 2003; *Chen et al.*, 2005; *Jackson et al.*, 2005). Recent reviews also address the subject of the potential importance of colloids in the transport of contaminants at DOE sites (*Triay et al.*, 1995; *Honeyman*, 1999; *Levi*, 1999; *Clark et al.*, 2006), and efforts to model contaminant transport at DOE

sites also take facilitated transport into account (*Contardi et al.,* 2001; *Moridis et al.,* 2003; *Cvetkovic et al.,* 2004).

As requested by the DOE in the solicitation for this proposal, the objectives of this research are to "develop fundamental and quantitative understanding of the physical and chemical processes affecting contaminant transport in subsurface environments." We expect that the results of this research will, as desired by the DOE, "provide scientific understanding that will allow DOE sites to incorporate coupled physical and chemical processes into decision-making for environmental remediation and long-term stewardship." Improved understanding of facilitated transport of radioactive cations in the vadose zone will lead to more realistic assessments of the risks posed by contamination in surface soils at DOE sites. A major unknown in this assessment is the degree to which the vadose zone acts as a conduit for surface contaminants to reach groundwater. In groundwater, contaminants have the potential to move off DOE sites, and groundwater is a pathway of exposure leading to potential ingestion of contaminants in drinking water.

The research described in this proposal will allow us to meet another important DOE goal – to examine contaminant transport over a range of scales with the "ultimate goal of providing DOE with field-scale descriptions of subsurface processes affecting contaminant transport." By following a progression from the pore scale to the column scale to the field scale, we will gain understanding of the fundamental processes and be able to evaluate the degree to which these fundamental processes should be incorporated in models of field-scale transport.

Our proposed research also focuses on key DOE contaminants – cesium-137 and strontium-90 – and their co-transport with colloids and organic matter. The choice of these contaminants is both responsive to DOE needs and valuable in testing a hypothesis concerning the importance of desorption kinetics in facilitated transport (*Turner et al.*, 2006). As requested by DOE, the research described in this proposal will focus on field experiments at a DOE facility, the Oak Ridge National Laboratory.

## 2. Background

#### 2.1. Role of Mineral Colloids and Organic Matter in Contaminant Mobility

For nearly four decades, we have known that the transport of contaminants in saturated media is accelerated by the presence of mineral colloids and organic matter (OM) (*Champlin and Eichholz*, 1968; *Ballard*, 1971; *Vinten et al.*, 1983; *Champ et al.*, 1984; *Killey et al.*, 1984). These early experiments and field observations reported "facilitated" or "enhanced" contaminant transport in cases in which the contaminants were bound strongly by mobile colloids and OM (*McCarthy and Zachara*, 1989). Since McCarthy and Zachara's review, further laboratory work has improved our understanding of the mechanisms and potential importance of colloid- and OM-facilitated transport in saturated porous media (*McCarthy and Zachara*, 1989; *Torok et al.*, 1990; *Dunnivant et al.*, 1992; *Puls and Powell*, 1992; *Saiers and Hornberger*, 1996a; *Sätmark et al.*, 1996; *Roy and Dzombak*, 1997; *Noell et al.*, 1998; *Saiers and Hornberger*, 1999; *Warwick et al.*, 2000; *Sen et al.*, 2002). In addition, further field investigations have shown that colloid- and OM-facilitated transport in the vadose zone and in groundwater is occurring at DOE sites (*Buddemeier and Hunt*, 1988; *Ryan et al.*, 1998; *McCarthy*, 1998; *McCarthy et al.*, 1998; *Kersting et al.*, 1999; *Roberts et al.*, 2004; *Dai*, 2005).

For colloid- and OM-facilitated transport to be important, contaminant binding to colloids and OM must be strong (i.e., high *K*<sub>d</sub>) and slowly reversible relative to the time scale of transport (*McCarthy and Zachara*, 1989; *Vilks et al.*, 1993; *Roy and Dzombak*, 1998; *Bold et al.*, 2003; *Schmitt et al.*, 2003). The strength of contaminant binding by OM and adsorption by minerals

has been extensively investigated, but the kinetics of desorption has not always been emphasized. For evaluating the importance of facilitated transport, understanding the kinetics of desorption is essential. In addition, the effect of contaminant concentration on the strength of binding is only recently being investigated in detail (Dzombak and Morel, 1990; Brown et al., 1999; Tipping, 2002.). Because binding sites on colloids and in OM are typically heterogeneous, binding strength often decreases as the contaminant/sorbent ratio increases. For metal binding to OM, this is especially true – soft metals like mercury and silver bind very strongly to sulfurand nitrogen-containing functional groups, and less strongly to the more abundant oxygencontaining functional groups (Frenkel et al., 2000; Haitzer et al., 2002; Saada et al., 2003). Finally, the presence of OM will affect the adsorption of contaminants to mineral colloids, resulting in the formation of ternary complexes. OM will generally enhance cation adsorption to minerals at lower pH values (Dalang et al., 1984; Davis, 1984; Ho and Miller, 1985; Allard et al., 1989; Righetto et al., 1991; Düker et al., 1995; Murphy et al., 1999; Christl and Kretzschmar, 2001). As pH increases, the adsorption of OM to minerals decreases and some cations, like uranyl and Pu(III,IV), may form anionic complexes; the result is that the presence of OM will decrease the adsorption of some metals and anions (Nelson et al., 1985; Payne et al., 1996; Lenhart and Honeyman, 1999; Simeoni et al., 2003).

The movement of contaminants that are bound to soil-water colloids and OM depends on the transport properties of these carriers. Colloids suspended within vadose-zone porewaters are susceptible to immobilization by depositional reactions that take place near solid-water and air-water interfaces. Studies on colloid deposition within unsaturated porous media have been conducted primarily in model systems, consisting of columns packed homogeneously with sand or soil (DeNovio et al., 2004). The results of these experiments reveal the general trend of increasing colloid deposition rates with decreasing volumetric moisture content (Wan and Wilson, 1994a; Schäfer et al., 1998; Chu et al., 2001; Lenhart and Saiers, 2002; Cherrey et al., 2003) and increasing porewater ionic strength (Gamerdinger and Kaplan, 2001; Saiers and Lenhart, 2003a). Results of visualization experiments with porous-medium micromodels indicate that this behavior reflects, in part, colloid adhesion at air-water interfaces (Wan and Wilson, 1994b; Sirivithayapakorn and Keller, 2003; Keller and Sirivithayapakorn, 2004). Colloid adhesion at airwater interfaces is sensitive to porewater chemistry and colloid surface composition and is governed by hydrophobic, capillary, and electrostatic forces (Wan and Wilson, 1994b; Wan and Tokunaga, 1997; Sirivithayapakorn and Keller, 2003). In addition to capture by air-water interfaces, colloids may be immobilized by straining, which occurs in pore throats that are too narrow to permit the colloids to pass (Bradford et al., 2003), within films of water that surround the mineral grains (Wan and Tokunaga, 1997), or at the air-water-solid contact within pendular rings of unsaturated pores (Crist et al., 2004). Colloid deposition also takes place at solid-water interfaces, and there is some evidence to suggest that the presence of the air phase increases the rate of this mass-transfer reaction (Chu et al., 2001).

The mobilization of deposited colloids is slow under steady flow, but transient-flow conditions that are typical of infiltration events drive rapid colloid release (*Kaplan et al.*, 1993; *Ryan and Elimelech*, 1996; *Jacobsen et al.*, 1998; *Saiers et al.*, 2003). In the vadose zone, chemical perturbations (e.g., ionic strength reductions, pH increases) often occur concomitantly with flow transients and can promote mobilization by increasing repulsive forces between attached colloids and mineral grains (*Gamerdinger and Kaplan*, 2001; *Gao et al.*, 2004). Chemical perturbations are not requisite to mobilization; however, as observations made under steady chemical conditions, but transient-flow conditions, suggest that changes in flow alone can drive rapid colloid release (*Saiers and Lenhart*, 2003b). Colloid mobilization during transient flow likely reflects interactions between multiple mechanisms. The increase in shear stress on attached colloids that arises from flow-rate increases during infiltration may induce

mobilization (*Kaplan et al.*, 1993; *Lægdsmand et al.*, 1999; *Weisbrod et al.*, 2002). Moving air-water interfaces, in addition to high flow rates, are a characteristic feature of transient-flow regimes. Some researchers have proposed that mobile interfaces may scour colloids from the surfaces of mineral grains and facilitate their downward transport through the soil (*El-Farhan et al.*, 2000; *Saiers et al.*, 2003). Changes in air-water configuration that take place during porous-medium imbibition also contribute to mobilization. For example, colloids strained by thin-water films that line partially saturated pores are mobilized as these films expand upon porous-medium imbibition (*Gao et al.*, 2006).

Compared to the number of studies that have explored deposition and mobilization of mineral colloids, fewer studies have examined OM transport (*Dunnivant et al.*, 1992; *Jardine et al.*, 1992; *Johnson and Amy*, 1995; *Johnson et al.*, 2002; *Lenhart and Saiers*, 2004), and only one of these has been conducted in unsaturated porous media (*Lenhart and Saiers*, 2004). Results of this study demonstrated that sorptive reactions at air-water interfaces reduced OM mobility and that the affinity of OM for the air phase increased as the porewater pH declined. Desorption of OM from the air-water interfaces was found to be negligible for conditions of steady porewater flow and chemistry, but substantial release of bound OM occurred in response to pH perturbations (*Lenhart and Saiers*, 2004).

Mathematical models that account for the co-transport of contaminants by colloids and OM have been developed (Corapcioglu and Jiang, 1993; Saiers and Hornberger, 1996b; Roy and Dzombak, 1998). These models solve equations that describe contaminant partitioning between the aqueous, colloidal, and stationary phases in coordination with equations that describe contaminant transport in the aqueous and colloidal phases (Figure 1). Comparisons of calculations from these models to data collected from laboratory column experiments conducted



Figure 1. Transport processes and mass-transfer reactions (denoted by R<sub>1</sub>, R<sub>2</sub>, and R<sub>3</sub>) considered in published models for the co-transport of radionuclides (Rad) by organic matter or mineral-colloid carriers.

with clean quartz sand and under water-saturated conditions suggest that these models are appropriate for approximating facilitated transport under idealized conditions (*Saiers and Hornberger*, 1996a; *Saiers and Hornberger*, 1999; *Turner et al.*, 2006). No attempts, however, have been made to evaluate models against data collected from experiments conducted with real soils under variably saturated conditions.

## **3. Project Findings** *3.1 Colloid-Facilitated Transport of Cesium during Transient Flow*

## 3.1.1 Overview Experimental Methods

We measured the mobilization of *in situ* (not injected) colloids and <sup>137</sup>Cs from <sup>137</sup>Cscontaminated sediments during porous-medium drainage and imbibition. Hanford Coarse Sand (HCS) was selected as the porous medium for these experiments because it has been previously characterized and used in published experiments on colloid transport. Separate sets of duplicate experiments were conducted at pore water ionic strengths that spanned from 0.16 mM to 50 mM and that fall within the range of ionic strengths reported for natural soil waters. Although the experiments were characterized by periods of transient pore water flow, pore water ionic strength was held constant throughout the duration of each experiment. Experiments at an ionic strength of 2 mM were conducted in columns of two different lengths (20.8 and 10.4 cm) to evaluate the effects of colloid re-deposition on the quantities of colloids and <sup>137</sup>Cs delivered through the sand packs.

All experiments were conducted in an acrylic column measuring 5 cm in diameter (Figure 2). A 20 µm pore-size nylon membrane was used at the bottom of the column to maintain capillary pressure in the column. Peristaltic pumps, connected to the top and bottom of the column, regulated the downward flow of water through the sand-pack. The effluent was collected with a fraction collector, located beyond the column outlet. Pressure head in the column was measured by tensiometers installed at 5.2, 10.4, and 15.6 cm from the top of the column. The tensiometers were connected to a data-logger to provide a continuous record of pressure head throughout the experiments.

For each experiment, a column



Figure 2. Laboratory column used in transport

was packed by pouring the water-saturated, <sup>137</sup>Cs pre-equilibrated (contaminated) HCS in ~35 g increments into the column. After each increment of sand, the contents of the column were stirred using a stainless-steel rod and the sides of the column were tapped to mix the sand and remove air bubbles. The column was packed to a bulk density of 1.59 g cm<sup>-3</sup>, which, assuming an average particle density of 2.65 g cm<sup>-3</sup> for the quartz-dominated sediment, corresponds to porosity of 0.40. Most columns were packed to a height of 20.8 cm with 650 g of HCS; one set of columns was packed to a height of 10.4 cm with 325 g of HCS.

Mobilization of *in situ* (not injected) colloids and <sup>137</sup>Cs was measured during both drainage and imbibition of the sand columns. In the first phase of the experiments, a column containing Cs-contaminated HCS was flushed for three pore volumes under water-saturated conditions with colloid- and Cs-free artificial pore water by setting the specific discharge at the top ( $q_{top}$ ) and bottom ( $q_{bot}$ ) of the column equal to 0.23 cm min<sup>-1</sup>. Sand-pack drainage was initiated after the column flush by a step-change reduction in  $q_{top}$  from 0.23 to 0.08 cm min<sup>-1</sup>. The downward propagating drying front promoted the release of *in situ* colloids from the HCS, which were detected by continuous sampling of the column effluent. Once the drying front reached the column bottom,  $q_{bot}$  and  $q_{top}$  were set equal to 0.08 cm min<sup>-1</sup>, which led to the reestablishment of steady flow within the sand pack and a decline in effluent colloid concentrations. After the colloid concentrations stabilized at low levels, sand-pack imbibition was initiated by increasing  $q_{top}$  from 0.08 to 0.25 cm min<sup>-1</sup>, while holding  $q_{bot}$  constant at 0.08 cm min<sup>-1</sup>. Once the wetting front reached the column bottom,  $q_{bot}$  and  $q_{top}$  from 0.25 cm min<sup>-1</sup> and steady flow was re-established within the sand pack.

#### 3.1.2 Results and Discussion

*Transient pore water flow.* Sand-pack drainage was initiated by lowering the specific discharge at the top of the column by a factor of three, while holding the specific discharge at the base of the column constant (Figure 3A, 3B). The pressure head ( $\Psi$ ), measured at three locations (one location for the 10.4 cm column) along the column, declined from positive values to -32 cm as the drying front moved downward through the column (Figure 3C, 3D). Calculations based on the water-retention characteristics of the HCS indicate that the measured decrease in  $\Psi$  corresponded to a decline in volumetric moisture content ( $\Theta$ ) from 0.4 to 0.22 (Figure 3E, 3F). The drying front reached the base of the column in 25 and 12 minutes for the 20.8 and 10.4 cm columns, respectively, whereupon  $q_{top}$  and  $q_{bot}$  were set equal to 0.08 cm min<sup>-1</sup> to establish steady flow ( $\partial \Theta / \partial t = \partial \Psi / \partial t = 0$ ) and nearly uniform  $\Psi$  and  $\Theta$ .

Sand-pack imbibition was initiated following the steady-flow period by increasing  $q_{top}$  to 0.25 cm min<sup>-1</sup> (Figure 3A, 3B). The wetting front moved rapidly through the column, as indicated by the step-like increases in  $\Psi$  (Figure 3C, 3D), and reached the column bottom in 4-8 minutes (depending upon column length). Once the wetting front reached the column base, inflow and outflow rates were equalized, leading to a period of steady flow in which  $\Psi$  exhibited small spatial variability and had a depth-averaged value of -18 cm. The volumetric moisture content ( $\Theta$ ) increased from 0.22 to 0.29 during the imbibition event.

*Colloid mobilization and transport.* During each drainage/imbibition event, effluent colloid concentrations increased from near-zero to peak values shortly after the passage of the drying/wetting front, then rapidly decreased to near-zero after the re-establishment of steady flow in the column (Figure 4). This pulse-type colloid release demonstrates that changes in volumetric moisture content and associated changes in pore scale, air-water interface configuration result in rapid colloid mobilization. Scouring by moving air-water interfaces presumably controls colloid mobilization during drainage, while thin-film expansion, reconnection of stagnant-water zones with bulk-water flow, and, perhaps, increases in shear forces contribute to colloid mobilization during imbibition. At least under the experimental conditions examined in this study, porous-medium drainage mobilized a greater mass of colloids than porous-medium imbibition; however, this relationship may depend on the sequence of wetting and drying events. Our analysis of SEM images of colloids eluted from a HCS column and retained on a 0.2 µm filter membrane indicated that roughly 36%, 27%, 18%, and 18% of the colloids ranged from 0.2 to 0.5, 0.5 to 1.0, 1.0 to 1.5, and 1.5 to 2.0 µm, respectively.

Release of *in situ* colloids during transient flow was influenced by pore water ionic strength (Figure 4). As ionic strength increased from 0.16 to 50 mM, the peak effluent colloid concentrations during drainage and imbibition decreased 24-fold (from 1608 to 66 mg/L) and 34-fold (from 341 to 10 mg/L), respectively, and the total mass of colloids eluted during drainage and imbibition decreased 51-fold from 77 to 1.5 mg. These relationships may reflect that repulsive double-layer forces between colloids and the porous media are lower at high ionic strength and hence sand-bound colloids are less susceptible to detachment. Although colloid mobilization declined precipitously with increasing ionic strength in the transient flow experiments, peak colloid concentrations exceeded 60 mg/L, even at the highest ionic strength tested (50 mM).



**Figure 3.** Measurements and calculations of (A) – (B) specific discharge at the top ( $q_{top}$ ) and bottom ( $q_{bot}$ ) of the sand column; (C) – (D) pressure head ( $\Psi$ ) at three locations (one location for the 10.4 cm column) measured from the top of the column; and (E) – (F) volumetric moisture content ( $\Theta$ ) at three locations (one location for the 10.4 cm column) measured from the top of the column. (A), (C), and (E) are representative data sets for treatments 1-3 (L = 20.8 cm); (B), (D), and (F) are representative data sets for treatment 4 (L = 10.4 cm).

*Cs mobilization and transport.* Transient-flow conditions associated with sand-pack drainage and imbibition promoted Cs release from the HCS (Figure 4). During drainage and imbibition, Cs breakthrough characteristics mimicked those of the *in situ* colloids that were mobilized from the HCS. That is, effluent Cs concentrations peaked nearly synchronously with the passage of the wetting/drying front and declined towards zero as flow stabilized. In each treatment, effluent Cs concentrations were correlated with colloid concentrations, suggesting a strong linkage between Cs and colloid transport.

Measurements of the total, dissolved, and colloid-associated Cs concentrations reveal that Cs occurred predominantly in the dissolved phase when effluent colloid concentrations were low, and the proportion of Cs present in the colloidal phase increased with colloid concentrations. At I = 2 mM, for example, 94% of effluent Cs was present in the dissolved phase during the steady-flow period between drainage and imbibition events when effluent colloid concentrations were less than 2 mg/L, but more than 94% and 86% of Cs was colloid bound when colloid concentrations peaked at 1050 and 120 mg/L during drainage and imbibition, respectively. Similarly, greater than 99% of Cs existed in the dissolved form when effluent colloid concentrations were below 0.6 mg/L in the 50 mM experiments during the steady-flow period that separated the drainage and imbibition events. However, the colloidal form accounted for more than half the mobile Cs when effluent colloid concentrations peaked during drainage and imbibition. These observations demonstrate the colloid effect on Cs mobility can be substantial during transient flow, when high concentrations of colloids are mobilized.

Like colloid release, Cs mobilization during transient flow was sensitive to changes in pore water ionic strength. As ionic strength increased from 0.16 to 50 mM, peak Cs concentrations during drainage and imbibition decreased 15-fold and 4.5-fold, respectively, and the total mass of Cs eluted during drainage and imbibition decreased 3-fold (Figure 4). The decline in Cs transport with increasing ionic strength reflects the influences of ionic strength on colloid mobility and on the partitioning of Cs between the colloidal and aqueous phases. At ionic strength of 0.16 mM, colloid concentrations exceeded 1.5 g/L in some effluent samples (Figure 2), and these colloids carried substantial quantities of Cs, thereby shielding the contaminant from adsorption to the HCS. Much lower concentrations of colloids were mobilized in experiments at an ionic strength of 50 mM, where peak effluent concentrations associated with drainage and imbibition were an order of magnitude less than those at I = 0.16 mM. Furthermore,  $K_{ave}$  was five-fold less at I = 50 mM (relative to 0.16 mM) owing to increased competition from Na ions for ion-exchange sites on the colloids. Thus, decreases in the suspended load combined with decreases in the affinity of Cs for the colloidal phase accounted for the observed decline in Cs mobilization with increasing ionic strength.

The total mass of colloid-associated Cs eluted in the transient-flow experiments did not exceed 0.3% of the initial mass of Cs present with the HCS columns. Although the fraction of Cs mobilized was small, it is not trivial considering that our experiments mimicked only a single infiltration (wetting/drying) event. Based on an initial concentration of colloids available for mobilization from the HCS of  $0.54 \pm 0.02$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> (obtained from batch-extraction measurements), and a HCS mass of 650 g, we estimate that repeated imbibition and drainage events could mobilize  $0.54 \times 650 = 350$  mg of colloids from our 20-cm HCS column. Using this



**Figure 4.** *In situ* colloid and Cs release from Cs-contaminated HCS during drainage and imbibition. The symbols represent experimentally measured effluent concentrations of colloids ( $\Delta$ ), total Cs ( $\bullet$ ), and dissolved Cs ( $\circ$ ). A and B: treatment 1 (I = 0.16 mM); C and D: treatment 2 (I = 2 mM); E and F: treatment 3 (I = 50 mM); G and H: treatment 4 (I = 0.16 mM, L = 10.4 cm).

value in coordination with the average concentration of Cs adsorbed to the colloids at *I* = 0.16 mM, we estimate that 1.2% of the Cs present within the HCS column was associated with colloids and could be mobilized through repeated drainage and imbibition events. This estimate, however, may be conservative because it is based on the assumption that the colloid supply is finite and will become depleted. Over environmentally relevant time scales that exceed those evaluated in our experiments, soil-weathering processes, as well as secondary-mineral formation, generate new colloid-sized particles that become eligible for mobilization. Colloid-facilitated transport could thus be a persistent phenomenon as colloids are continuously formed by physical, chemical and biological processes and mobilized by flow transients.

Effects of colloid re-deposition on transport. During drainage, the quantities of colloids and Cs released increased as the column length increased from 10.4 cm to 20.8 cm. Because the mass of in situ colloids available for mobilization varies proportionately with column length, a two-fold increase in column length should have doubled the mass of colloids eluted from the columns, provided that the mobilized colloids traveled conservatively. In our experiments, an increase in column length from 10.4 to 20.8 cm led to a 45% increase in colloid mass eluted and a 55% increase in Cs mass eluted during drainage, which is approximately half the amount expected if the mobilized colloids traveled conservatively. These results, then, reveal that colloids mobilized by porous-medium drainage are susceptible to re-deposition even while pore water flow continues. The opposite trend was observed during porous-medium imbibition. That is, for the same increase in column length (10.4 to 20.8 cm), the quantity of colloid eluted decreased 14% from 8.0 to 6.9 mg, and the quantity of colloid-associated Cs eluted decreased 24% from 51×10<sup>-13</sup> to 39×10<sup>-13</sup> mol. We cannot definitively account for this imbibition response, but the relationship is consistent with the notion that colloids mobilized by downward propagating wetting fronts traveled only a short distance before re-depositing and that re-distribution of the colloids and Cs during the preceding drainage event led to a greater accumulation of colloids and Cs at the base of the shorter (10.4 cm) columns that were eligible for mobilization once porous-medium imbibition was initiated. In water-unsaturated porous media, colloid deposition is influenced by processes associated with the air phase (e.g., film straining, airwater interface capture), in addition to attachment to solid-water interfaces. These air-phase associated mechanisms may explain the significance of colloid re-deposition in our partially water-saturated experiments and in other partially saturated systems even at low ionic strengths.

*Environmental implications*. This study demonstrates that porous-medium drainage and imbibition promote the release of *in situ* colloids and colloid-associated contaminants. Therefore, it is expected that colloid-facilitated transport in the vadose zone will be especially important during periods of transient flow that are induced, for example, by rainfall, snowmelt, and irrigation. The importance of *in situ* colloids as agents of Cs transport was influenced strongly by ionic strength of the infiltrating water. Our results suggest that high salt concentrations suppress colloid mobilization, increase colloid deposition, and lower Cs adsorption to colloids and thus diminish the colloid effect on Cs mobility. This is consistent with observations made at the Hanford site, where Cs movement through the vadose zone is controlled by dissolved-phase transport following the leakage of liquid wastes from storage tanks that contain high concentrations of salt and Cs. Nevertheless, our findings do suggest that in less saline vadose-zone environments or for contaminants with sorptive affinities that are less sensitive to ionic strength, the role of colloids in regulating contaminant fluxes through unsaturated soils should be considered.

#### 3.2 Influence of Dissolved Natural Organic Matter on Colloid-Facilitated Transport of Cs-137

Another aspect of our laboratory-based research involved elucidating the effects of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) on the colloid-facilitated transport of radionuclides through porous media. DOC is ubiquitous is soil waters and groundwaters, and it binds to mineral colloids, as well as to soils and sediments. Moreover, DOC is capable of influencing the mobility of mineral colloids, as well as the manner in which these colloids adsorb and co-transport dissolved contaminants.

To improve understanding of the role of DOC in governing radionuclide mobility within geologic environments, we conducted a suite of column experiments on the migration of Cs through a porous medium. The experiments were distinguished on the basis of water-saturation, porous-medium composition, and composition of the influent suspension, which contained Cs only or Cs plus some combination of DOC, illite colloids, and kaolinite colloids (Table 1).

Experiment	Water	Porous	Injected species	Colloid	Colloid	DOC
ID	saturation	medium		type	conc.	conc.
					(mg/L)	(mg/L)
C1	unsaturated	quartz sand	Cs			
C2	unsaturated	quartz sand	Cs +DOC			5
C3	unsaturated	HCS	Cs			
C4	unsaturated	HCS	Cs +DOC			5
C5	unsaturated	quartz sand	Cs + illite	illite	100	
C6	unsaturated	quartz sand	Cs + illite +DOC	illite	100	5
C7	unsaturated	HCS	Cs + illite	illite	100	
C8	unsaturated	HCS	Cs + illite + DOC	illite	100	5
C9	unsaturated	HCS	Cs + kaolinite	kaolinite	100	
C10	unsaturated	HCS	Cs + kaolinite +DOC	kaolinite	100	5
C11	saturated	HCS	Cs + illite	illite	100	
C12	saturated	HCS	Cs + illite + DOC	illite	100	5

Table 1. Experimental treatments

Results of the experiments demonstrate that Cs mobility was negligible in experiments conducted in the absence of illite and kaolinite colloids, even in experiments in which DOC was co-injected with the Cs. These results suggest that dissolved Cs had a strong affinity for the porous medium and that the DOC used in this study had little capacity to bind Cs. The addition of kaolinite colloids and illite colloids increased the mobility of Cs, and Cs detected in the column effluent in these experiments was almost entirely in the colloid-associated form. In experiments in which DOC was added to the column influent, the mobility of both mineral colloids and Cs substantially increased (Figures 5 and 6). Comparison of Figures 5 and 6 demonstrate that Cs transport was enhanced to a greater degree by illite colloids than by kaolinite colloids, regardless of the presence or absence of DOC.



**Figure 5.** Measured (symbols) and modeled (lines) breakthrough curves for illite colloids and Cs. Panels A and B depict effluent illite concentrations for treatments without DOC and with DOC, respectively, and panels C and D reflect corresponding effluent Cs concentrations. The alphanumeric sub-titles that appear in parentheses refer to the treatment descriptions given in Table 1.

A mathematical model was applied to the column data to quantify the manner in which DOC affects colloid-sand, Cs-sand, and Cs-colloid interactions. This model accounted for several mass transport and rate-limited mass transfer processes, including the advective-dispersive transport of colloids, dissolved, Cs, and colloid-bound Cs; (ii) rate-limited colloid deposition onto the sand grains, and (iii) rate-limited Cs adsorption to suspended mineral colloids and the sand grains. This model successfully reproduced the breakthrough curves of Cs and mineral colloids (see Figure 5 and 6). Analysis of the modeling results demonstrates that DOC reduced deposition rates of illite and kaolinite by more than an order of magnitude, but had more moderate effects on the kinetics of Cs interactions with the mineral colloids and sand grains.

The findings from this research reveal the importance of DOC in influencing the movement of radionculides in geologic environments that contain mobile colloids. Our research also advances a modeling approach that can serve as a framework for quantitative descriptions of this phenomenon.



**Figure 6.** Measured (symbols) and modeled (lines) breakthrough curves for kaolinite colloids and Cs. Panels A and B depict effluent kaolinite concentrations for treatments without DOC and with DOC, respectively, and panels C and D reflect corresponding effluent Cs concentrations. The alphanumeric sub-titles that appear in parentheses refer to the treatment descriptions given in Table 1.

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