

1 **Acid/base front propagation in saturated porous media: 2D laboratory**  
2 **experiments and modeling.**

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14 **Abstract**

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16 We perform laboratory scale reactive transport experiments involving acid-basic reactions  
17 between nitric acid and sodium hydroxide. A two-dimensional experimental set-up is  
18 designed to provide continuous on-line measurements of physico-chemical parameters such as  
19 pH, redox potential (Eh) and electrical conductivity (EC) inside the system under saturated  
20 flow through conditions. The electrodes provide reliable values of pH and EC, while sharp  
21 fronts associated with redox potential dynamics could not be captured. Care should be taken  
22 to properly incorporate within a numerical model the mixing processes occurring inside the  
23 electrodes. The available observations are modeled through a numerical code based on the  
24 advection-dispersion equation. In this framework, EC is considered as a variable behaving as  
25 a conservative tracer and pH and Eh requires solving the advection dispersion equation only

1 once. The agreement between the computed and measured pH and EC is good even without  
2 recurring to parameters calibration on the basis of the experiments. Our findings suggest that  
3 the classical advection-dispersion equation can be used to interpret these kinds of experiments  
4 if mixing inside the electrodes is adequately considered.  
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## 1 **1. Introduction**

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3 Modeling reactive transport of dissolved species in porous media is considered essential in  
4 Earth sciences and has been the subject of several investigations (e.g., Steefel *et al.*, 2005 and  
5 references therein). Prediction of migrating reactive chemicals (including, e.g., heavy metals,  
6 organic species from industrial solvents, products from mining, agrochemicals,  
7 petrochemicals) is also of paramount concern for the protection, management and remediation  
8 of groundwater resources.

9 Several numerical techniques and codes have been developed to simulate reactive transport  
10 processes in natural groundwater systems (Kinzelbach *et al.*, 1991; Yeh, & Tripathi, 1991;  
11 Walter *et al.*, 1994; Saaltink *et al.*, 2001; Van der Lee *et al.*, 2003; Fahs *et al.*, 2009 among  
12 others). The mechanisms involved in reactive transport processes are often strongly non-linear  
13 and occur on a multiplicity of time scales, thus rendering the solution of a mathematical  
14 model very challenging. Verifying and assessing the robustness of numerical models can be  
15 performed by benchmarking. However, recent results have shown that different numerical  
16 schemes and codes can produce different results for the same benchmark problem even under  
17 apparently simple one-dimensional scenarios (Carrayrou *et al.*, 2010).

18 Assessment of the reliability of conceptual schemes and associated computational models can  
19 also be performed through controlled experimental investigations at the laboratory scale.  
20 There is a vast literature devoted to analyzing experiments performed within seemingly one-  
21 dimensional porous systems, obtained by packing granular material within columns of  
22 different length scales (Burris *et al.*, 1996; André *et al.*, 1998; Gandhi *et al.*, 2002; Gramling  
23 *et al.*, 2002; Su & Puls, 2004; Grolimund & Borkovec, 2006, among many others). Two-  
24 dimensional set-ups have been used only recently to observe key features of reactive transport  
25 experiments, with special emphasis on transverse mixing processes in the presence of fluids

1 with different water compositions. Experiments have documented the precipitation pattern of  
2 a calcium carbonate solid phase (Katz *et al.*, 2010), concentration distributions in  
3 heterogeneous density-driven flow systems (Konz *et al.*, 2009a), biodegradation of toluene  
4 (Bauer *et al.*, 2008), and transverse mixing in heterogeneous porous media (Rolle *et al.*,  
5 2009).

6 Detailed reactive transport experiments are also required to improve our understanding of the  
7 main features of spreading and mixing processes affecting solutes migration at different  
8 scales. Characterization of conservative or reactive transport via Fickian or non-Fickian  
9 models is still an open debate. For example, the reactive transport experiments of Gramling *et*  
10 *al.* (2002) involving an irreversible bimolecular reaction could be interpreted by particle  
11 tracking methods relying on non-Fickian solute behavior (Edery *et al.*, 2009, 2010) or by  
12 solving a continuum model based on the standard advection-dispersion-reaction equation  
13 (ADRE) with a time-dependent macro-scale kinetic term describing mixing of solutes at the  
14 small scales (Sanchez-Vila *et al.*, 2010). A review of the role of small scale concentration  
15 fluctuations in the interpretation of laboratory scale experiments is presented by Edery *et al.*  
16 (2012).

17 Solutes concentrations and/or physico-chemical variables (e.g., pH, electrical conductivity)  
18 are typically measured at the outlet of the flow cell (Chiogna *et al.*, 2010), by sampling small  
19 volumes of water inside the porous material (Katz *et al.*, 2010), or indirectly by image  
20 analysis of colorimetric reactions (Zinn *et al.*, 2004; Jones & Smith, 2005; Konz *et al.*,  
21 2009b). Monitoring at the outlet usually provides only information which is representative of  
22 some cross-sectionally averaged behavior. Direct sampling within the flow cell cannot be  
23 repeated too frequently without significantly perturbing the flow and transport conditions, and  
24 indirect measurements based on imaging techniques are limited to some specific solutes and  
25 reactions.

1 To our knowledge, protocols for extensive direct measurements of concentrations and/or  
2 physico-chemical parameters inside a porous medium have not been implemented, with the  
3 exception of applications related to measurements of dissolved oxygen (Chiogna *et al.*, 2010).  
4 Although such measurements are not easy to accomplish, they are required to firmly ground  
5 modeling interpretations on space distributed observation dynamics.

6 A key aim of this study is to present a set of laboratory-scale experimental tools and a  
7 methodological approach conducive to an improved characterization of flow and transport  
8 patterns within natural systems through continuous on-line measurements of parameters such  
9 as pH, redox potential (Eh) and electrical conductivity (EC). These local measurements are  
10 performed inside the porous medium under imposed flow-through conditions. A user-defined  
11 time resolution allows (a) obtaining detailed records of point breakthrough curve, and (b)  
12 exploring a wide range of experimental time scales.

13 The two-dimensional (2D) experimental set-up, the mathematical model and the associated  
14 numerical solution scheme employed to interpret the experimental evidences are presented in  
15 Section 2. The main features of the three experiments performed are described in Section 3.  
16 Section 4 is devoted to illustrating the modeling results.

17

## 18 **2. Materials, Methods and Modeling**

19

### 20 2.1. Experimental set-up

21

22 An Altuglas<sup>®</sup> flow cell (external dimensions: length 167-cm, width 68-cm, and thickness 4-  
23 cm) was divided into two compartments consisting of a 5-cm long inflow reservoir and a 152-  
24 cm long compartment containing the porous medium (hereafter termed the ‘tank’) as depicted  
25 in Fig. 1. The two compartments were separated by an Altuglas<sup>®</sup> plate with porosity 0.37

1 resulting from regularly spaced 8-mm diameter holes. A 50- $\mu\text{m}$  nylon filter was used to  
2 prevent the porous medium from invading the inflow reservoir. This inflow reservoir was  
3 divided into two identical and independent sub-reservoirs to allow the simultaneous injection  
4 of two different solutions in parallel. The injection into each sub-reservoir was performed by  
5 3 tubes to optimize mixing inside the sub-reservoir and a Masterflex<sup>®</sup> L/S 2-channel  
6 peristaltic pump to prevent flow rate differences between the sub-reservoirs. Six tubes  
7 connect the outlet side of the tank to an outflow reservoir. The flow rate was regularly  
8 controlled by on-line weighing of the solutions collected at the outflow.

9

10 The tank was filled up with glass beads (SiLibeads<sup>®</sup>, Sigmund Lindner, GmbH), which had a  
11 narrow size distribution and a diameter ranging from 0.5 to 0.75 mm. Glass beads were used  
12 rather than natural materials because natural materials are rarely pure and the occurrence of  
13 other minerals (e.g. micas, clays and iron oxy-hydroxides) even in small amounts may have a  
14 high reactivity with the injected chemical elements. The glass beads are completely composed  
15 of amorphous silica and have a low reactivity. The glass beads used for electrodes calibration  
16 and during the experiments have been previously washed with nitric acid (0.1 mol/L) and  
17 rinsed five times with demineralized water.

18 The upper plate of the tank contains seventeen holes to allocate single electrodes to provide  
19 on-line measurements of pH, or Eh or EC inside the porous medium during the experiment  
20 (Fig. 1). These electrodes (Schott Instruments<sup>®</sup>) have a diameter of 5 mm and are usually  
21 employed for measurements in laboratory test tubes. The electrodes are placed at the middle  
22 of the porous medium layer after their calibration, and their impact on the flow is assumed to  
23 be negligible during data interpretation. The position of the electrodes in the tank is presented  
24 in Fig. 1. The pH electrodes were calibrated using glass beads (the same as those in the tank)  
25 saturated with a pH 4 or pH 7 buffer solutions. The redox potential electrodes were calibrated

1 using glass beads saturated with 220 mV standard solution and the conductivity electrodes  
2 with KCl 0.01 mol/L solution. The conductivity electrodes were composed of two plates of  
3 platinum located inside a glass cylinder containing a small volume of solution. The EC  
4 measured is directly correlated with the ability of the solution to conduct the current, which  
5 depends on the ion concentration inside the volume of liquid between the two plates of  
6 platinum.

7 Data acquisition is performed by a computer via 2 multi-parameter analyzers (Consort NV<sup>®</sup>).  
8 The recording rate for each electrode is one measurement per minute.

9  
10 The glass beads were placed in the tank under fully saturated conditions to avoid air trapping.  
11 The filling was performed according to the following three steps: (i) a layer of a few  
12 centimeters of water was placed at the bottom of the tank, which was placed in a vertical  
13 position, (ii) wet glass beads were poured in the water until the level of the glass beads  
14 reached a level close to the free surface (about 1-2 cm below), and (iii) the tank walls were  
15 gently tapped with a rubber hammer to achieve tight packing of the porous medium without  
16 size segregation (Lewis & Sjöström, 2010). The three steps are repeated until complete filling  
17 of the tank. A Neoprene sheet was placed on the porous medium before closing the tank with  
18 its cap to prevent preferential flow paths close to the cap.

19  
20 The demineralized water, used for all experiments, was stored during 24 h in a 60-L reservoir  
21 before its injection into the tank. This prevents degassing due to temperature changes and  
22 allows maintaining stable pH and Eh.

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24 2.2. Experimental procedure

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A constant temperature of 22°C was maintained in the room during the experiments. The flow rate was maintained as constant as possible to provide a Darcy velocity around  $7.7 \times 10^{-6}$  m/s (1.8 m/d, which can be considered as representative of natural conditions).

The following experiments were performed (Table 1):

1. Experiment 1, to test the electrical conductivity electrodes for a single fluid injection.  
A non-reactive solution of potassium chloride (0.63 g/L or  $8.46 \times 10^{-3}$  mol/L) was injected into the tank initially saturated with demineralized water at EC = 0.04 mS/cm.
2. Experiment 2, to check the ability of the pH electrodes to respond to a wide variation in pH (between 10 and 1). A nitric acid solution at pH = 1 was injected while the porous medium was saturated by a sodium hydroxide solution at a concentration of  $10^{-4}$  mol/L.
3. Experiment 3, with the injection of two fluids with different pH and Eh: a nitric acid solution colored in red by a food coloring agent (E 124) with pH = 2 and Eh = 730 mV/NHE and a sodium hydroxide solution ( $10^{-2}$  mol/L) colored in blue by a food coloring agent (E 131) with a pH equal to 12 and Eh = 260 mV/NHE. The solutions had the same mass concentration of 0.63 g/L to avoid density effects. It was necessary to add KCl to the sodium hydroxide solution to obtain the required mass concentration and maintain a concentration of  $10^{-2}$  mol/L in NaOH. It was verified that both food coloring agents acted as conservative tracers. The porous medium was initially saturated by a solution of potassium chloride (0.63 g/L or  $8.46 \times 10^{-3}$  mol/L) at pH 7 and Eh = 595 mV/NHE.

2.3. Mathematical and numerical model

1 The computer code TRACES (Transport of RadioActive Elements in Subsurface; Hoteit &  
 2 Ackerer, 2004) was employed for the simulation of the experiments. TRACES is designed to  
 3 calculate flow and reactive transport in saturated porous media. It handles transient or steady  
 4 state computation in 2D or 3D heterogeneous domains and is based on mixed and  
 5 discontinuous finite element methods (Younes *et al.*, 2010; Siegel *et al.*, 1997).

6 The flow in the porous medium is described by the mass conservation equation and Darcy's  
 7 law and is assumed to be confined in 2D and at steady state.

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9 It was assumed that transport at the tank scale could be modeled by the classical advection  
 10 diffusion/dispersion reaction equation (ADRE)

$$11 \quad \phi \frac{\partial C_i}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot \left( -\overline{\overline{D}} \cdot \nabla C_i + q C_i \right) = r$$

12 where  $\phi$  is the effective porosity (-), and  $\overline{\overline{D}}$  is the diffusion/dispersion tensor ( $L^2/T$ ) defined by

$$13 \quad \overline{\overline{D}} = \phi \overline{\overline{D}}_m + \alpha_T \|q\| \cdot \delta_{ij} + \frac{(\alpha_L - \alpha_T) \cdot q_x \cdot q_y}{\|q\|}$$

14 where  $\alpha_L$  is the longitudinal dispersivity (L),  $\alpha_T$  is the transverse dispersivity (L),  $D_m$  is the  
 15 molecular diffusion ( $L^2/T$ ),  $\delta_{ij}$  is the Kroenecker delta,  $q_x$  and  $q_y$  ( $L/T$ ) are the components  
 16 of the average Darcy's velocity along the x and y directions, respectively,  $r$  ( $mol/T$ ) is the  
 17 reaction rate and  $C_i$  is the solute concentration ( $mol/L^3$ ) of species i.

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19 Following the pioneering work of Sanford and Konikow (1989) or more recent work on  
 20 reactive transport modeling (De Simoni *et al.*, 2007, Hoffmann *et al.*, 2010 among others), the  
 21 number of transport equations to solve can be reduced to avoiding excessive computer time.

22 The electrical conductivity is given by a linear combination of species concentrations

$$23 \quad EC = \sum_i \lambda_i C_i |z_i|$$

1 where  $\lambda_i$  is the ionic molar conductivity ( $S L^2/mol$ ) and  $z_i$  is the charge on the ion  $i$ .

2 If the species which constitute the solution are non-reactive, the EC can be used as state  
3 variable in the ADE to simulate the changes of EC in the porous medium, *i.e.*,

4 
$$\phi \frac{\partial [EC]}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot \left( -\overline{\overline{D}} \cdot \nabla [EC] + q [EC] \right) = 0$$
 which is rewritten as,

5 
$$\phi \frac{\partial \sum_i (\lambda_i C_i |z_i|)}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot \left( -\overline{\overline{D}} \cdot \nabla \sum_i (\lambda_i C_i |z_i|) + q \sum_i (\lambda_i C_i |z_i|) \right) = 0.$$
 Since the transport equation is

6 linear in terms of concentration, we can write: 
$$\sum_i \lambda_i |z_i| \left[ \phi \frac{\partial C_i}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot \left( -\overline{\overline{D}} \cdot \nabla C_i + q C_i \right) \right] = 0$$

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8 Considering pH and Eh as state variables is an over simplification since they are log-scaled

9 values of concentrations. The solutions used (nitric acid and sodium hydroxide) are strong

10 acid and base and are considered as fully dissociated. The pH variations are computed by

11 writing the mass balance for  $H^+$  and  $OH^-$  as

12 
$$\begin{cases} \phi \frac{\partial [H^+]}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot \left( -\overline{\overline{D}} \cdot \nabla [H^+] + q [H^+] \right) = r \\ \phi \frac{\partial [OH^-]}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot \left( -\overline{\overline{D}} \cdot \nabla [OH^-] + q [OH^-] \right) = r \\ [H^+] \cdot [OH^-] = K_e \end{cases}$$

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where  $r$  is the rate of the reaction which is assumed to take place at equilibrium and  $K_e$  is the

14

equilibrium constant, which is the same for both ions. Following De Simoni *et al.* (2007), one

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can write

16 
$$\begin{cases} \phi \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot \left( -\overline{\overline{D}} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{u} + q \mathbf{u} \right) = 0 \\ \mathbf{u} = [H^+] - [OH^-] \\ [H^+] \cdot [OH^-] = K_e \end{cases}$$

1 Therefore, the ADE is solved only once (for the state variable  $u$ ) and the concentrations of  $H^+$   
2 and  $OH^-$  are computed by

$$3 \begin{cases} [H^+] = \frac{u + \sqrt{u^2 + 4K_e}}{2} \\ [OH^-] = K_e / [H^+] \end{cases}$$

4 A similar approach is employed to compute Eh.

5

6 The domain considered for the simulation is a 1.52 m  $\times$  0.58 m rectangle. The same grid of  
7 10020 nodes and 20555 triangular elements is used for all the simulations. The characteristic  
8 length of the grid elements is one centimeter. Some triangular elements were centered at the  
9 observation points, and their surfaces can be considered as representative of the support  
10 surface of the measures. Boundary and initial conditions are described in Table 1.

11 Values of effective porosity and longitudinal and transverse dispersivities were taken from  
12 Konz *et al.* (2009a), who performed experiments at the same scale and with the same porous  
13 material. The longitudinal dispersivity  $\alpha_L$  was fixed to the average size of the glass beads,  
14 and the transverse dispersivity was ten times lower. The value of the hydraulic conductivity  
15 has no influence on the velocity field because the flow rate was prescribed for all the  
16 experiments.

17 The parameters required for the simulations are summarized in Table 1. All simulations were  
18 run without any further parameter calibration.

19

### 20 **3. Experimental results, simulations and discussion**

21 For experiment 1, electrical conductivities (EC) were measured by electrodes located at P6,  
22 P8, P12, P13, P15, and P17 (see Fig. 1) at distances of 30, 50, 70, 70, 90 and 120 cm,  
23 respectively, from the inlet.

1 The temporal evolution of the EC at electrodes P6, P12, P13, and P17, which are  
2 representative of the EC changes in the tank, is depicted in Fig. 2. The fronts are not as sharp  
3 as expected and display some tailings before reaching a constant value. The breakthrough  
4 curves for the two electrodes located at the same distance (P12 and P13) from the inlet are  
5 very similar, showing that the packing of the porous material was quite homogeneous. At  
6 steady state conditions for all electrodes, the measured values of the EC range between 0.54  
7 to 0.56 mS/cm, which is below the EC of the solution measured in the inlet reservoir (1.38  
8 mS/cm). These underestimates are due to the presence of the porous medium. A linear  
9 relationship between the EC in a solution with or without the presence of a given porous  
10 medium was found for this kind of electrode by additional experiments. The coefficient of  
11 proportionality can be estimated by comparing the EC of the injected solution and the value  
12 reached in the porous material at steady state.

13 The numerical simulations were run using the parameters and initial and boundary conditions  
14 described in Table 1. The arrival times were well reproduced, and the computed values  
15 display a sharp front as expected (Fig. 2). However, the agreement between the measured and  
16 computed EC remains quite poor. These discrepancies are assumed to be due to mixing  
17 between the entering fluid and the fluid located inside the glass cylinder of the electrode. The  
18 simulations also assume that mixing in this small reservoir can be considered instantaneous.

19 The solute mass balance in this reservoir is given by

20 
$$v \frac{\partial C_r}{\partial t} = Q(C - C_r)$$

21 where  $v$  is the volume of water in the cylinder,  $Q$  is the flow rate through the reservoir and  $C_r$   
22 is the solute concentration in the reservoir. As previously noted, since the model is linear in  
23 concentration, EC can be used as a state variable and  $C_r$  represents the measured EC.

1 The flow rate  $Q$  was estimated by multiplying the flow velocity in the porous medium by the  
2 cross sectional area of the capture zone due to the device entrance hole. Since the glass beads  
3 were filling the electrode reservoir, we assumed that the area of the capture zone coincides  
4 with the hole's area. The electrode characteristics were measured for several tested electrodes.  
5 The volume of the cylinder was equal to  $0.188 \text{ cm}^3$  and the diameters of the holes ranges  
6 between 0.10 and 0.12 cm.

7 The EC inside the reservoir is computed by convolution with the EC simulated by TRACES  
8 as input signal, i.e.

$$9 \quad EC_r(t) = \int_0^t EC_s(\tau) e^{-Q(t-\tau)/v} d\tau$$

10 The simulations were run with a diameter of the hole of 0.10 cm and porosity inside the  
11 reservoir equal to the porosity in the porous medium. Considering mixing dynamics inside the  
12 reservoir highly improves significantly the quality of the simulation results (Fig. 2).

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14 Fig. 3 shows the pH evolution during experiment 2 at the four electrodes P7, P9, P14 and P16,  
15 located at 40, 60, 90 and 110 cm, respectively, from the injection (Fig. 1). Modeling of the pH  
16 fronts inside the tank leads to good results without any parameter calibration (Fig. 3).

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18 The measurements at the Eh and pH electrodes can be relevant to study the transport of  
19 different solutes in porous media. Experiment 3 was aimed at studying the mixing of two  
20 different fluids. Two solutions with different pH and Eh were injected in the system (see  
21 Table 1). We focus on the pH values measured at 10 cm from the injection and following  
22 three locations (Fig 1.):

23 - P1, located on the side in which the basic solution was injected;

1 - P2, at the middle of the tank, at the interface of both solutions;

2 - P3, positioned on the side where the acid solution was injected.

3 The changes of pH were observed simultaneously for the electrodes P1 and P3 (Fig. 4). The  
4 electrode located at the interface (P2) reached a value close to neutrality, as expected. The  
5 interface zone, colored in violet, is clearly visible in Fig. 5. Interestingly, the fronts do not  
6 appear as sharp as those observed in experiment 2, and the pH value at the interface is not as  
7 stable as the values observed at the two other electrodes. Despite the small thickness of the  
8 interface, the pH electrodes we employed were able to record a pH around 7, revealing the  
9 acid-base reaction between nitric acid and sodium hydroxide.

10 The simulation is in good agreement with the observed transport dynamics of the acid. The  
11 tailing observed in the basic part of the tank and the pH value at the interface could not be  
12 reproduced with the ADRE model. This could be due to some uncertainties in the  
13 experimental conditions, such as small differences in the in-fluxes between the two inlet  
14 reservoirs and/or the position of the electrode. The impact of such differences on inlet fluxes  
15 on the modeling of laboratory scale scenarios has been described by Fajraoui *et al.* (2011)  
16 through global sensitivity analyses techniques.

17

18 Electrodes of redox potential were also inserted into the porous medium during the same  
19 experiment. Although the experimental conditions are not optimal for the electrodes (no redox  
20 reactions), the electrodes were tested with the same solutions employed in experiment 3  
21 (nitric acid and sodium hydroxide solutions), which display redox potential differences (260  
22 mV/NHE for the acid solution and 730 mV/NHE for the basic solution). The results at four  
23 selected electrodes are presented in Fig. 6. Electrodes at P5 and P11 (resp. at P4 and P10)  
24 were positioned on the side of the tank where the injection of HNO<sub>3</sub> (resp. NaOH) at 10<sup>-2</sup>  
25 mol/L was performed, at 20 and 65 cm, respectively, from the injection.

1 The changes in the Eh started approximately at the same time for the electrodes located at the  
2 same distance from the inlet (P4 and P5, P10 and P11). Asymptotic values obtained in the  
3 sodium hydroxide solution were close for both electrodes (258 and 264 mV/NHE) and in  
4 good agreement with the value measured in the solution within the injection tank. Similar  
5 results were obtained for the acid solution, and similar Eh were measured for both electrodes  
6 (748 and 751 mV/NHE), which are close to the injection region. The Eh front displays  
7 significant tailing effects when compared to the pH fronts. Moreover, for both pH and Eh, the  
8 tailing was more significant at  $0 < y < 29$  than within other regions in the tank.

9 As expected, the simulations did not succeed in reproducing these tailings (Fig. 6). If the  
10 previously mentioned uncertainties still have an effect on the results, the tailing is  
11 significantly more important for the Eh than it is for pH for the same experimental conditions.  
12 Two additional points can be considered to explain the behavior of Eh: (i) the design of the  
13 electrodes, which did not allow the on-line measurements of the redox potential in the  
14 presence of abrupt changes in time, and (ii) some additional processes, which remain  
15 unknown. However, the observations were made at a considerable distance from the interface,  
16 suggesting that the first assumption is the most likely.

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#### 18 **4. Conclusions**

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20 Improved understanding of reactive transport in saturated media is a necessary step to assess  
21 mathematical and numerical models. Experiments at the laboratory scale may avoid model  
22 calibration, allow a good control of initial and boundary conditions and therefore provide  
23 observations which are well suited for model verification.

24 New experiments in a 2D saturated porous material were presented. It was shown that

- 1 - 2D experimental set-ups can be used with on-line measurements of the electrical  
2 conductivity and pH inside a saturated porous media.
- 3 - Electrodes with an internal reservoir can considerably change the apparent  
4 concentration evolution due to mixing inside this reservoir, which can lead to  
5 erroneous interpretation of the transport phenomena.
- 6 - EC can be considered as a state variable obeying the conservative transport equation.  
7 Simulating evolution of pH requires solving a classical ADE, as detailed in section  
8 2.3.
- 9 - The evolution of the redox potential displayed some tailing, probably due to the  
10 characteristic time required by the electrode to obtain a stable value. Therefore, with  
11 the electrodes used in this set-up, it was not possible to characterize the sharp redox  
12 fronts.

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20 The described data set can be obtained by simple request.

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1 **Figure Captions**

2

3 Fig. 1: (a) Experimental set-up and (b) top-view of the set-up with the potential position of the  
4 different electrodes (open circle).

5

6 Fig. 2. Experiment 1: Measured (dots) and computed (lines) EC versus time during injection  
7 of KCl solution, without “mixing” effects (dashed lines) and with “mixing” effects  
8 (continuous lines).

9

10 Fig. 3. Experiment 2: Measured (dots) and computed (lines) pH versus time during injection  
11 of nitric acid solution.

12

13 Fig. 4. Experiment 3: Measured (dots) and computed (lines) pH versus time during an acido-  
14 basic reactive transport.

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16 Fig. 5. Experiment 3: Electrodes monitoring during reactive transport: photograph showing  
17 the interface zone between red acid solution and blue sodium hydroxide solution.

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19 Fig. 6. Experiment 3: Measured (dots) and computed (lines) Eh versus time during a  
20 simultaneously injection of nitric acid and sodium hydroxide solutions.

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22

1 **Table 1:** Parameters for the simulations

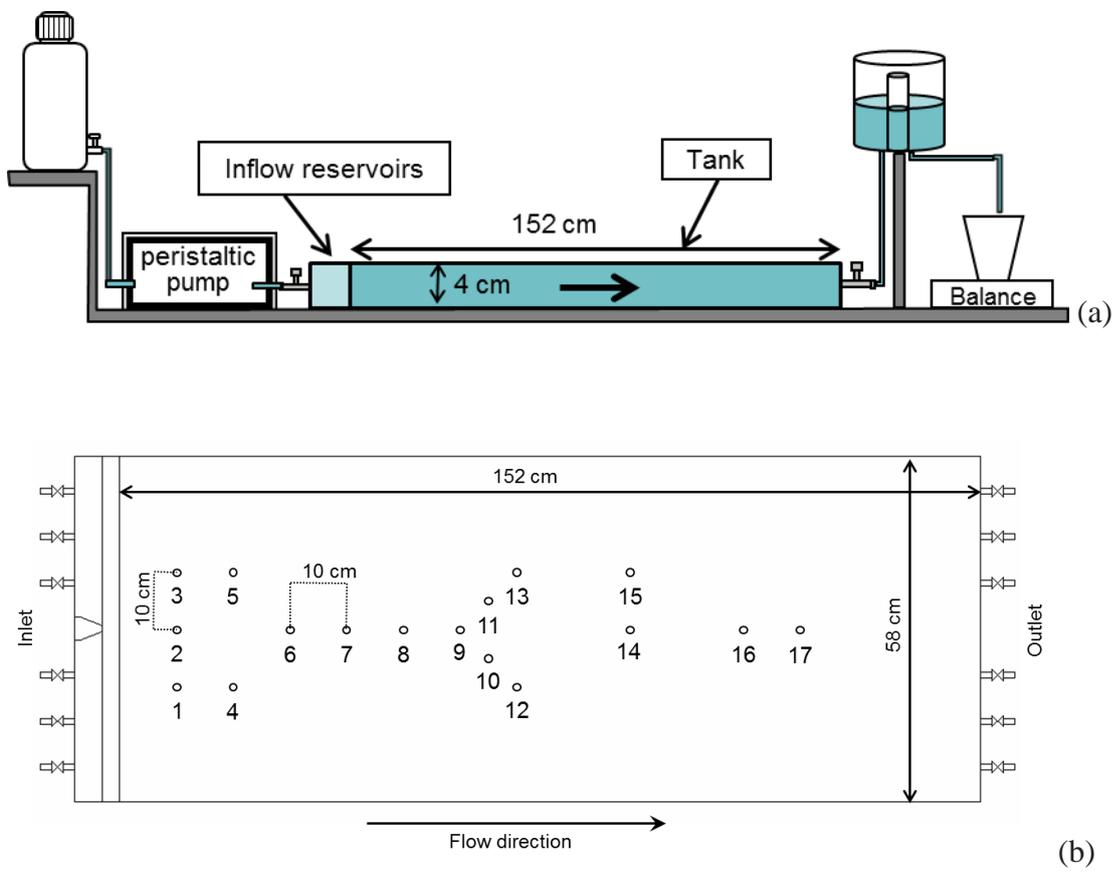
Domain size	1.52 x 0.58 m
Hydraulic conductivity: K	$3.34 \times 10^{-3}$ m/s
Effective porosity: $\phi$	0.375
Longitudinal dispersivity: $\alpha_L$	0.0008 m
Transverse dispersivity: $\alpha_T$	0.00008 m
Molecular diffusion $D_m$ :	$1.0 \times 10^{-09}$ m <sup>2</sup> /s
<b>Experiment 1.</b>	
Inflow boundary condition	H = 0.25 m
Outflow boundary condition	$q_L = 7.60 \times 10^{-6}$ m/s
Initial condition	$C_0 = 0.04$ mS/cm(Cond)
Upstream boundary condition	$C_L = 0.5546$ mS/cm(Cond)
<b>Experiment 2.</b>	
Inflow boundary condition	H = 0.25 m
Outflow boundary condition	$q_L = 7.33 \times 10^{-6}$ m/s
Initial condition	$C_0 = 10$ (pH)
Upstream boundary condition	$C_L = 1$ (pH)
<b>Experiment 3.</b>	
Inflow boundary condition	H = 0.25 m
Outflow boundary condition	$q_L = 7.63 \times 10^{-6}$ m/s
Initial condition	$C_0 = 7$ (pH)
Upstream boundary condition	$C_L (0.0 \leq y < 0.29) = 12$ (pH) $C_L (0.29 \leq y \leq 0.58) = 2$ (pH)
Initial condition	$C_0 = 595$ mV (Eh)
Upstream boundary condition	$C_L (0.0 \leq y < 0.29) = 730$ mV (Eh / NHE) $C_L (0.29 \leq y \leq 0.58) = 260$ mV (Eh / NHE)

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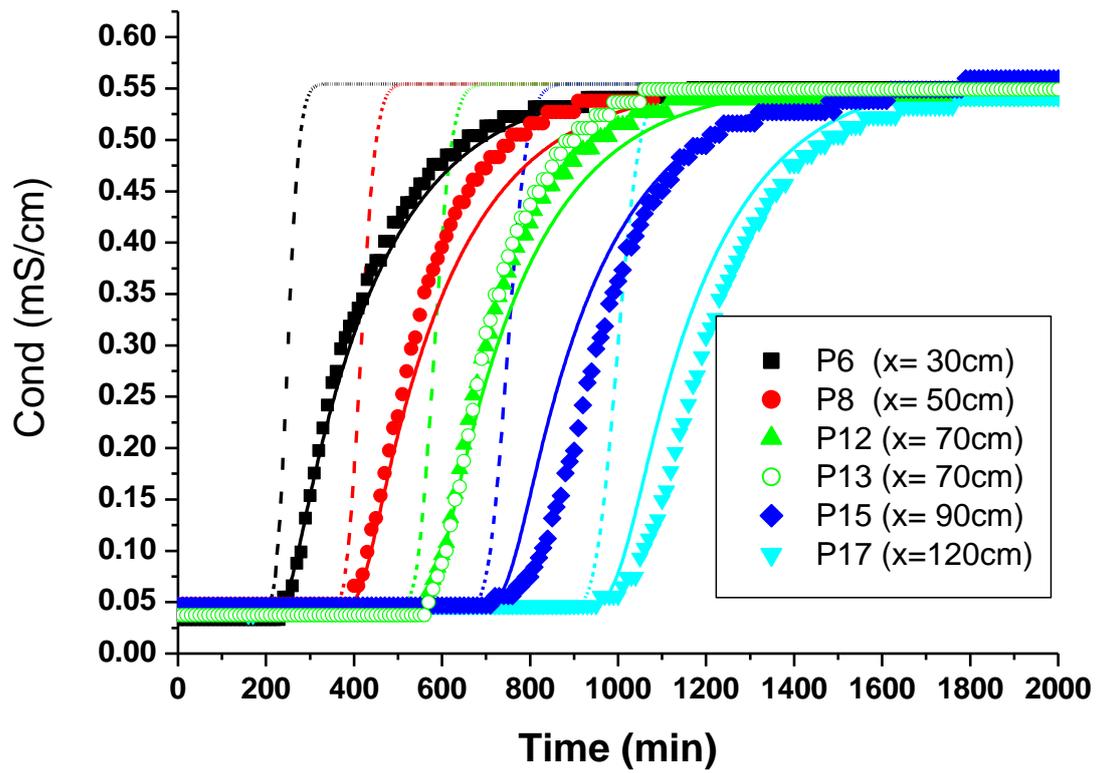
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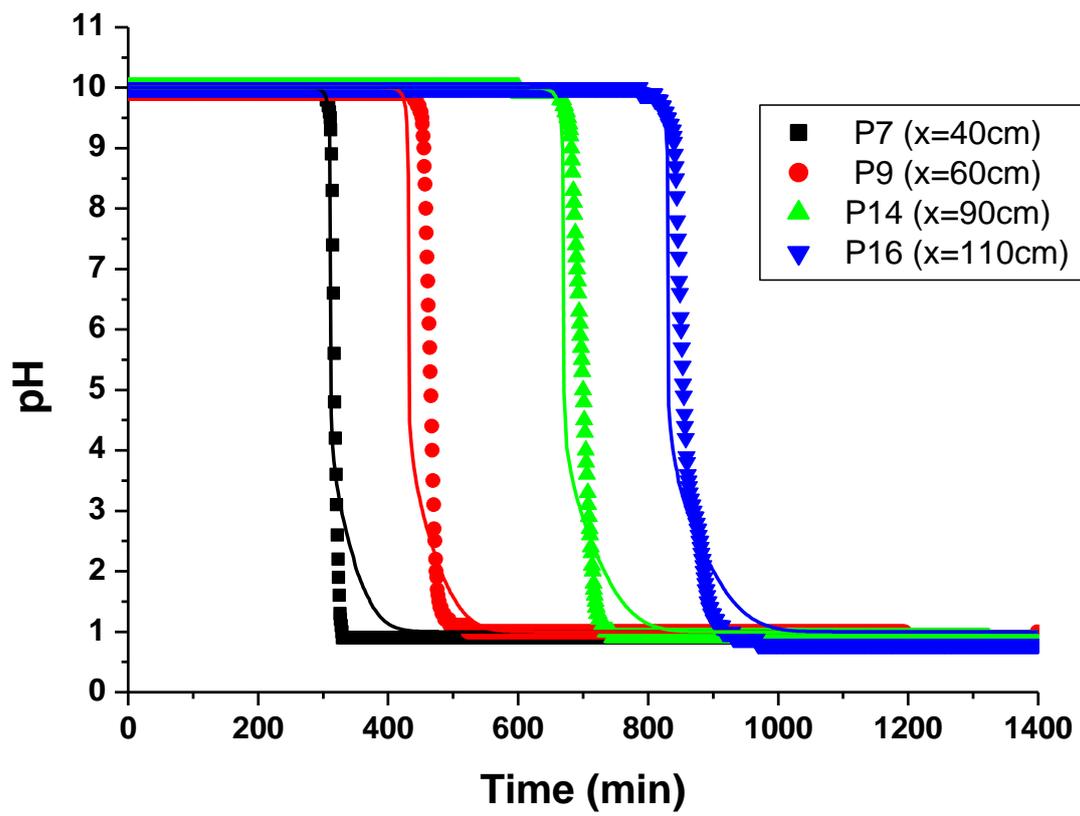
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**Fig. 1:** (a) Experimental set-up and (b) top-view of the set-up with the potential position of the different electrodes (open circle).



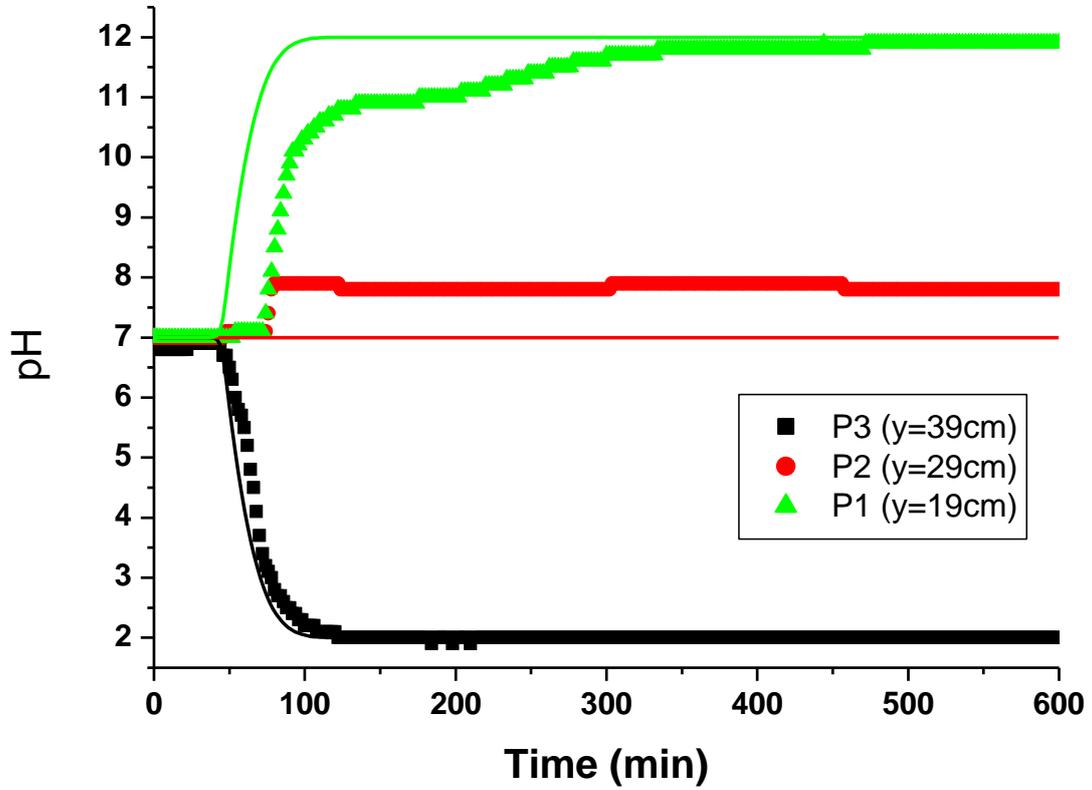
1  
 2 Fig. 2. Experiment 1: Measured (dots) and computed (lines) EC versus time during injection  
 3 of KCl solution, without “mixing” effects (dashed lines) and with “mixing” effects  
 4 (continuous lines).



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 2 Fig. 3. Experiment 2: Measured (dots) and computed (lines) pH versus time during injection  
 3 of nitric acid solution.

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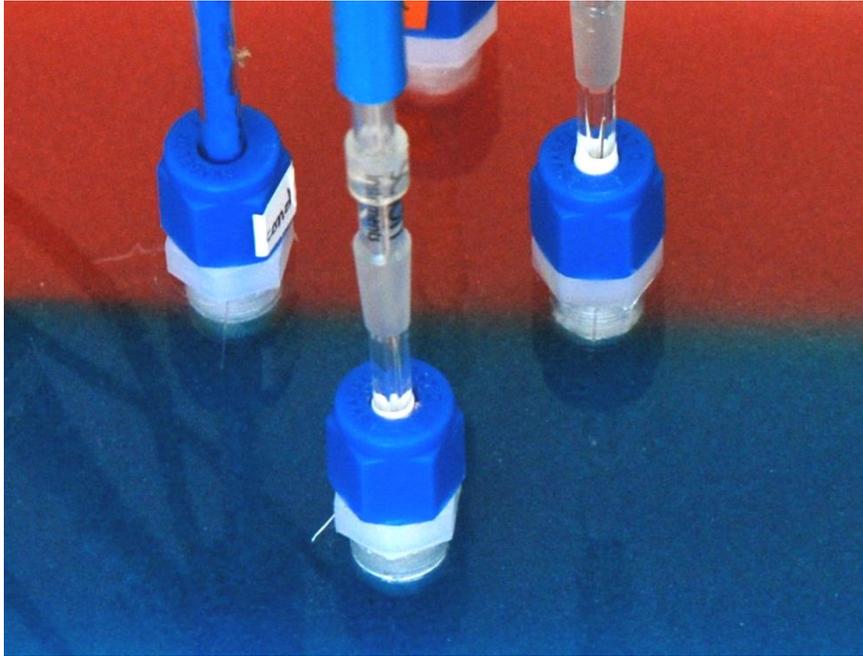


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3 Fig. 4. Experiment 3: Measured (dots) and computed (lines) pH versus time during an acido-  
4 basic reactive transport.

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1 Fig. 5. Experiment 3: Electrodes monitoring during reactive transport: photograph showing  
2 the interface zone between red acid solution and blue sodium hydroxide solution.

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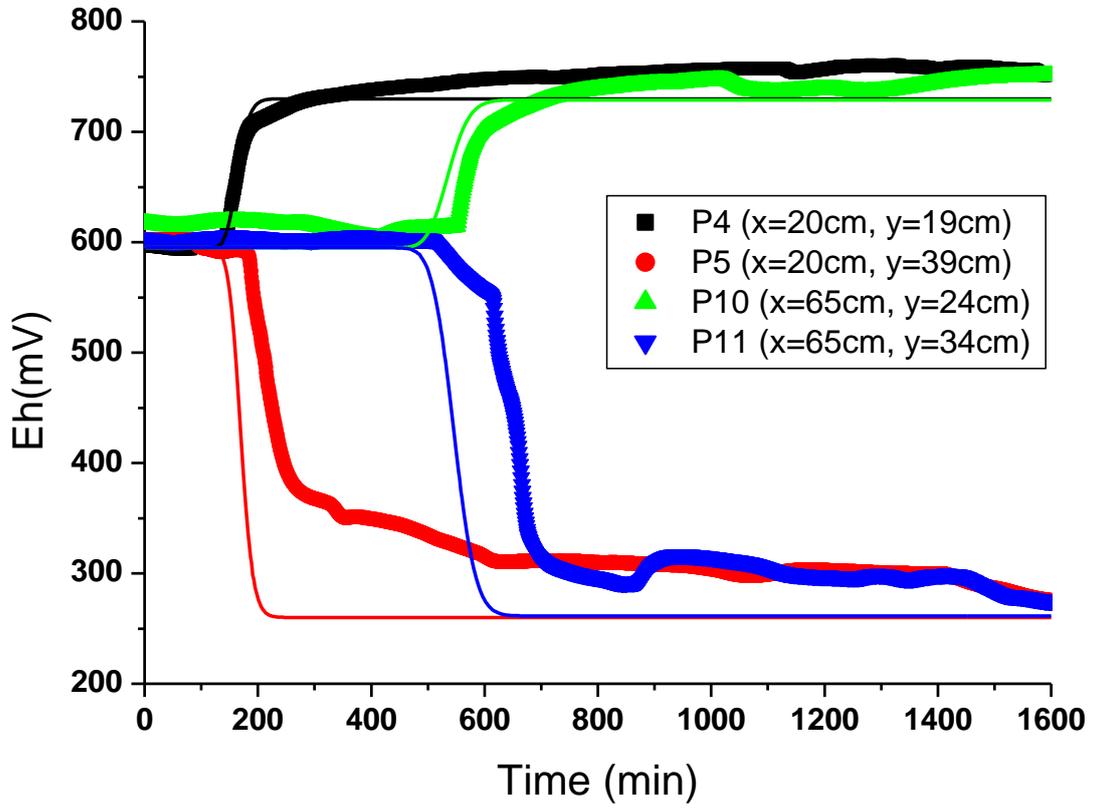
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4 Fig. 6. Experiment 3: Measured (dots) and computed (lines) Eh versus time during a  
5 simultaneously injection of nitric acid and sodium hydroxide solutions.

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