

**Evaluating Solute Transport in Dutch Paleogene Clays at Borssele: Evidence for Diffusion
or Advection**

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Abstract

The long-term safe storage of radioactive waste is currently considered a temporary solution in the Netherlands, while deep geological disposal in clay formations is being considered as a permanent solution. This study investigates solute transport mechanisms in two Paleogene clay formations obtained from a 100m core from Borssele: Boom Clay and Watervliet Clay. Determining whether chloride movement in these clays occur through diffusion or advection, is vital for assessing their suitability as hosts for radioactive waste. Chloride and sulfate concentrations were measured at ~1m intervals using Ion Chromatography along with Electric Conductivity and pH measurements to determine the dominant transport mechanism. The chloride profiles in both clay formations showed smooth gradients and isolated asymmetrical peaks which are characteristic of diffusion-dominated transport. High formation factor values with moderate variations between soil layers also supported this interpretation, as a strong ionic retardation due to capillary porosity and small grain size typical of clays, are suggested. These results demonstrate that both Boom Clay and Watervliet Clay in Borssele provide suitable conditions for the long-term containment of radionuclides. The findings provide site-specific empirical evidence to reduce uncertainties in Dutch safety assessments and support the development of predictive transport models for evaluating multibarrier systems with clay host rock as a natural barrier.

Keywords: Radioactive waste disposal, Formation Factor, Diffusion, Boom and Watervliet Clay, Netherlands

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1 Introduction

In the Netherlands, the storage of radioactive waste in facilities that must be continuously maintained and secured serves as a temporary isolation solution. Radioisotopes are used in medicine, industry, energy production, and research. Since the 1970s, Dutch policy has emphasized the long-term isolation of radioactive waste which has resulted in the consensus that deep geological disposal is the safest option for ultimate waste management, as it provides passive safety on a long geological time scale. Radioactive waste is removed from the immediate dynamic surface environment to a stable geological environment deep underground. A multibarrier system of engineered and natural barriers isolates the waste and contains radionuclides from the waste. Over decades of research, clay formations, especially Boom Clay, have emerged as the leading candidates to host underground disposal facilities, supported by national programs and even international programs such as those in Belgium, Switzerland and France. Clay formations are often considered for disposal of radioactive waste because of their low-permeability, strong adsorption capacities, and chemical properties such as chemical buffering, slowing down the movement of contaminants such as radionuclides. Physical properties such as self-healing and plastic behavior, although dependent on depth, may also contribute to passive safety.

However, due to their physical properties, it's hard to directly measure radionuclide movement, especially over long geological timescales. Therefore, instead of measuring the movement of contaminants directly, this study aims to measure the chloride transport in Paleogene clays, with an intermittence of sandy and peat layers, taken from Borssele to observe whether they move dominantly by diffusion or advection.

Diffusion is the movement of molecules from an area of high concentration to an area of lower concentration (Allard et al., 2009), while advection refers to the transport of a substance by

bulk motions of a fluid (Sun & Zhang, 2020). It is crucial to be aware of the dominant transport mechanism as it controls the rate and extent of contaminant transport. Clays are most often diffusion dominated, meaning ion transport is slow, while advection transports solutes at a much faster rate, affecting the safety and predictability of long-term waste isolation (Jobmann et al., 2017).

The two clays of interest are Boom Clay (formally known as Rupel clay) and Watervliet Clay. The Boom Clay in the Netherlands is regionally extensive, geologically stable and extends to several hundred meters horizontally across the region, this provides a favorable and predictable environment for long-term containment. Determining which transport mechanism method is dominant for chloride ions is key to assessing the long-term safety of nuclear waste disposal in clay formations (G.-J. Vis & J.M. Verweij, 2014).

The data analysis procedure involved obtaining clay samples at 1-meter intervals of a 100m soil core (with a diameter of 95.6 mm) from the Borssele site, drying the samples, diluting them with water, centrifuging them, and finally using Ion Chromatography (IC) to determine the chloride and sulfate concentrations in the clay. The data obtained will help explore correlations with its electrical conductivity (EC), pH, and effective diffusion coefficients to determine whether the profiles support diffusion-dominated transport.

The findings from this report will support the evaluation of whether the clay at Borssele has suitable transport properties for the long-term containment of radionuclides. By providing empirical, site-specific data with direct comparison with known benchmarks, this study will inform the Dutch safety cases, reduce uncertainty in performance assessment, and contribute to decision-making regarding the final disposal of radioactive waste in the Netherlands.

This report is divided into 8 sections including the introduction. The 2nd section provides a literature review for comparing results obtained. The 3rd section describes the methodology used: including sampling, measurement techniques, assumptions, and limitations. The 4th section presents the results obtained in graphs and describes the trends seen. In the 5th section, the results are interpreted and compared with those found in the literature review. The 6th section will summarize key findings. The 7th section is the reference list, while the 8th and final section is the Appendix.

1.1 Research Question

What is the dominant transport mechanism in two Dutch Paleogene clays in the Borssele site: Advection or Diffusion?

1.2 Sub-Questions

- 1) Can the proxy formation factor be derived from the EC of extracted porewater and the whole soil (pore water and solids) samples?
- 2) Can the concentration of chloride in these two clays and the surrounding sand formations be used to assess which transport mechanism is dominant?
- 3) How does pH vary over the 100 m core?
- 4) Does the pore water of the 100m core reflect the $\text{Cl}:\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ratio of sea water?
- 5) Is it possible to use the measured data from these soils at the Borssele Site for quantitative transport modelling?

2 Literature Review

2.1 Use of natural barriers to isolate radionuclides

Investigating the long-term safety of a potential host rock for radioactive waste disposal, first requires identifying its baseline solute transport mechanism (Rumynin & Nikulenkov, 2016), (Charlet et al., 2017). This understanding is foundational as it helps answer a key question: *how fast do radionuclides move through the geological medium*, without yet layering in any site-specific attributes or complex chemical reactions which also affect radionuclide migration. Understanding the main transport pathways for radionuclides in a host rock - in this case diffusion and advection - allows predictions on the long-term solute migration rate to be made, which is necessary in order to efficiently make use of the resources which are imparted to us by these formations (Charlet et al., 2017).

Attributes which make a host rock suitable for long-term safety for a radioactive repository are determined by “depth, thickness and permeability/hydraulic conductivity.” In terms of low permeability, the host rock should be “a homogeneous fine-grained sediment with a high clay content” (G.-J. Vis & J.M. Verweij, 2014). As the extent of solute transport (permeability) is one of many attributes which is necessary for long-term safety, this will be the focus in this study.

Clay rock is characterized by very low permeability despite high total porosity, compared to sand or loamy soils. This results in minimal to stagnant porewater flow, in other words a very low hydraulic conductivity (around the order of 10^{-12} m/s). This is due to the small size of the pores and the lack of connectivity between voids, essentially limiting fluid flow through the clay rock and acting as an aquitard. When fluid flow is mostly stagnant, the baseline transport mechanism is diffusion dominated and thus limits advective migration which is based on

significant fluid flow. (Jobmann et al., 2017). This explains the attractiveness of clay-rich (argillaceous) rocks for radioactive waste disposal, as radionuclide migration would be governed by slow rates (Charlet et al., 2017).

Gradual radionuclide migration allows further isolation alongside the buffer engineered barriers offer, as seen in Figure 1, further promoting its suitability (COPERA - CLAY, 2024). Isolation should last until the radioactivity has decayed to natural levels, according to (G.-J. Vis & J.M. Verweij, 2014), to prevent radioactive impact to accessible environments (Rumynin & Nikulenkova, 2016). Mediums that are most susceptible to the impact of radioactivity are elements of the biosphere, including soil, surface water, and groundwater (Bollermann et al., 2022).

2.2 Introduction to Boom Clay

Various studies including research programs coordinated by TNO, have pointed to the potential of underground Dutch rock salts and clay layers to contain radioactive waste. Both OPLA (OPLAnd, On Land, 1974-1993) and CORA (Commissie Opberging Radioactief Afval, Committee on Disposal of Radioactive Waste, 1996-2001) research programmes were involved in such discovery. The Boom Clay layer was specified as an effective option amongst other potentially appropriate clay layers such as Asse and Ieper Members, as an alternative to rock salts to dispose of radioactive waste (G.-J. Vis & J.M. Verweij, 2014). The mineralogy of Boom Clay is almost as it was at the time of deposition, which was 23 to 34 million years ago, although some differences in microbial carbonate and pyrite are expected over time. However, the clays which are candidates for radioactive waste disposal in France and Switzerland i.e. Opalinus clay, do possess diagenetic features such as cementation.

2.2.1 Brief Geology of Boom Clay

Rupel Clay Member, informally known as Boom Clay, is part of the Rupel Formation (Van Adrichem Boogaert and Kouwe, 1993). This subsurface clay layer is found in nearly all the onshore part of the Netherlands and in the shallow subsurface of Belgium as seen in Figure 1. It is a Paleogene marine clay layer deposited 23 to 34 million years ago and since then, has been buried by other geological processes and consolidated through compaction and diagenesis into what was once a soft marine mud into the impermeable clay we have analyzed nowadays. Paleogene clays have been deposited on the sea floor over the period 23 to 66 million years ago. Most Paleogene clays are deeper than 250 meters and although some layers are found at shallower depths, this is mainly due to erosion. The thickness of these layers is largely over 200 meters, making this an attractive host rock for radioactive waste disposal. Extensive research on this clay layer has been undertaken in Belgium, specifically near the town Mol, where an underground test facility was built to further facilitate their research.



Figure 1: Visual representation of the extent of Boom Clay Member throughout nearly all of the onshore Netherlands as well as northern Belgium and specifically in the Campine Basin. Produced by TNO and published in a desk –study report studying the geohydrological properties of Boom Clay specifically in the Dutch subsurface, hence the borehole locations denoted as crosses (G.-J. Vis & J.M. Verweij, 2014).

2.2.2 Attributes for Radioactive Waste Containment

Boom Clay offers long-term safety related characteristics including lateral homogeneity, low hydraulic conductivity (10^{-7}m/d), thickness (varies), high sorption capacity, high fixation capacity and high plasticity which aids in its self-sealing capacity. This limits the risk of radionuclides and other contaminants to be exposed towards the reachable environment from the repository (Gedeon et al., 2007).

Additionally, most Boom Clay layers have a thickness that is sufficient to offer the capacity of isolation and are deep enough to avoid future disturbances from geological progressions including glaciations, groundwater flow etc. However, all Paleogene clay formations are soft which makes them more susceptible to erosion by wind and water. Therefore, in an example of future ice ages, where it is projected that glaciers may expand up to several hundred meters, it is integral that the Paleogene clay layer where high level waste disposal would be contained should be deep enough as a result of a thick layer of other rock formations above it, to maintain isolation (G.-J. Vis & J.M. Verweij, 2014).

2.3 Introduction to Watervliet Clay

The Watervliet Member is a lithostratigraphic unit of the Zelzate formation which is a part of the Tongeren Group of the late Eocene to early Oligocene (Paleogene). It is characterized by intercalations of fat dark grey-green clay and sandy/silty soil with abundant glauconite and periodic pyrite concretions. As argillaceous rocks are candidates for radioactive waste disposal and 95,12 to 100,23 meters of the soil core (KB105) contains Watervliet Clay, its origin and potential for radioactive waste disposal is relevant (Hoving et al., 2024, Jacobs & De Coninck, 1992).

2.3.1 Brief Geology of Watervliet

In the early Oligocene, sea levels were particularly high in the southern North Sea Basin and gave way for the deposition of the top layers of the Bassevelde Sand Member and the Watervliet Clay Member. The Watervliet Clay Member is found in the north part of East-Flanders and Antwerp province as well as in south of the Netherlands in areas including, Zeeuws-Vlaanderen and Noord-Brabant and Noord-Limburg and Winterswijk. The depth of the

Watervliet Member varies along the South of the Netherlands and North Belgium as seen in Figure 2.

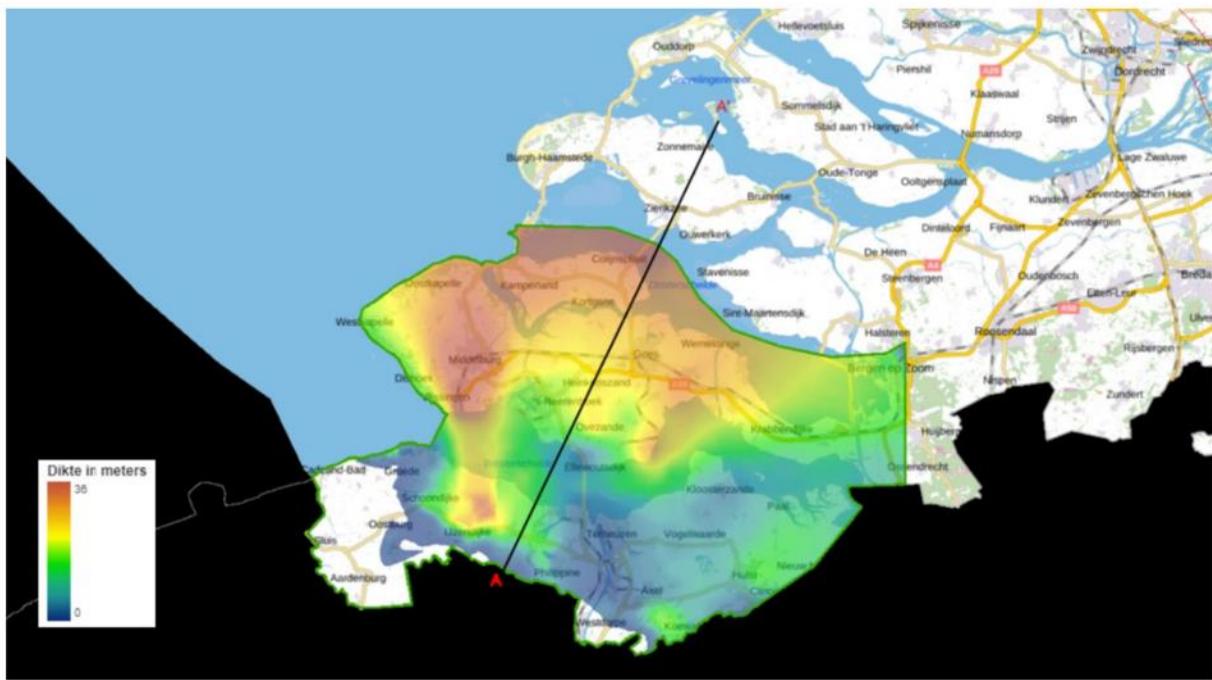


Figure 2: The depth of the Watervliet Clay Member in the indicated area inputted into the REGIS II model v2.2.2 model (www.dinoloket.nl) by COVRA (Hoving et al., 2024)

2.3.2 Attributes for Radioactive Waste Containment

The suitability for Watervliet Clay Member as a barrier for eventual radionuclide exposure from radioactive waste has been far less studied, compared to the suitability of Boom Clay. However, a technical report published by TNO with their practical projects coordinated by COVRA in late 2024 has undergone extensive research on the geochemical properties of the Watervliet Member. They focused on the concentration of natural analogue elements such as Uranium (U), Thorium (Th), Cesium (Cs), Selenium (Se) and Rare Earth Elements (REE) in the clay minerals of Borehole KB-101 also from the Borssele Site in Zeeland, Netherlands. The top layer was comprised of a combination of sandy/silty and clayey layers rich in carbonates in the

first 25 meters followed by non-calcareous in the next 15 meters. Calcite, feldspar, and quartz dominated the mineralogy of this clay.

It was found that this Watervliet Clay had high retention of such radionuclides as these were found to be concentrated or correlated within the clay minerals. Specifically, Uranium and Selenium showed a correlation with pyrite, suggesting that these elements are related to sulfide phases. However, the presence of clay minerals has a natural ability for binding and immobilizing radioactive elements which consequently retards their migration. This is similar to the functionality of Boom Clay; however, it is to be noted that the concentration of radionuclides was slightly lower in the Watervliet Clays. Meaning the ability for conservation and immobilization of these radioactive elements was slightly less than Boom Clay. This was attributed to the heterogeneity of the Member as alterations between sand or silt and clayey layers make up this unit. Specifically, having less clay overall in this lithological unit decreases the attractive properties such as binding and reacting with radioactive elements to mitigate and immobilize their exposure. As Watervliet Clay has more sand than Boom Clay, the degree of quartz minerals increases and with it, therefore, clay and its characteristics as a reactive barrier are subject to an overall dilution (Hoving et al., 2024)

2.4 Radioactive waste barriers

There are several options for radioactive disposal facilities, each designed in terms of varying degrees of waste. Including high-level (HLW), intermediate-level (ILW), and low-level (LLW) waste. Each has a different extent of isolation and containment related to the type of radioactive waste that is received. According to IAEA (2011), a geological disposal facility “constructed in tunnels, vaults or silos in a particular geological formation” is where HLW could be contained. This facility must be at least a couple hundred meters underground. As mentioned,

according to the degree and classification of radioactive waste, different disposal facilities such as near surface disposal for LLW and caverns, vaults or silos at least a couple tens to hundreds of meters underground for ILW (IAEA, 2011).

Multibarrier systems have been the base of geological disposal internationally established for the past 45 years. Essentially, this system encompasses both the natural and engineered barrier to isolate and contain radionuclides in the waste as seen in Figure 1 (COPERA, 2024).

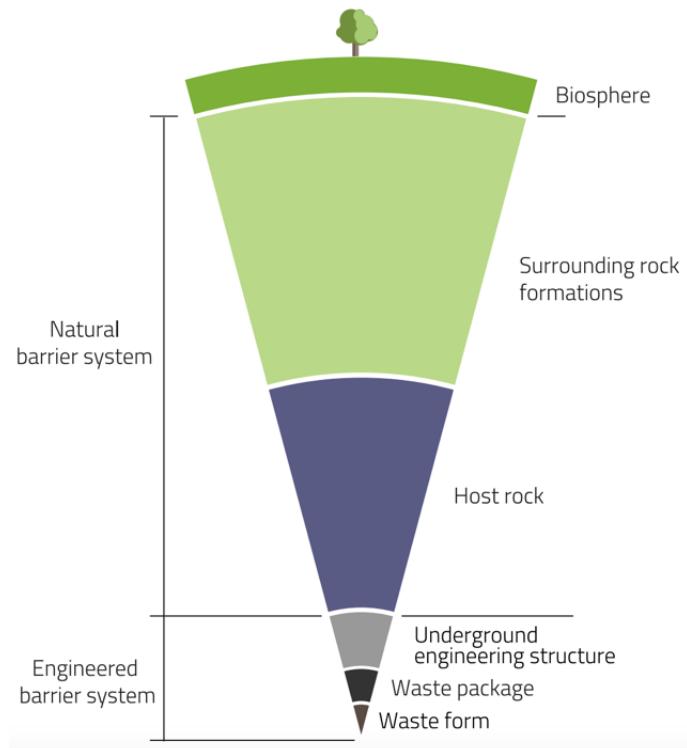


Figure 3: Visualization of the host rock location in a radioactive waste disposal system (COPERA, 2024)

2.5 Expected chloride profiles

Transport of solutes like chloride in clay-rich formations is governed primarily by two mechanisms: diffusion and advection. Each has distinct and diagnostic shapes to concentration profiles over time, which is how they can be differentiated. Diffusion is typically slow in low-

permeability clays, whereas advection can transport solutes more rapidly, having asymmetry and curvature in its profiles.

The chloride profiles obtained in the present study can be compared with those compiled by the CLAYTRAC Project (NEA), which includes European clay-rich formations such as Opalinus Clay (Mont Terri, Switzerland) and Boom Clay (Mol, Belgium). These settings are hydrogeologically similar to Borssele as they have marine origin, low-permeability clay boundaries, and histories of meteoric flushing, making them suitable benchmarks for interpreting observed profiles and assessing transport mechanisms.

It was found that the shape of diffusion-controlled profiles depends primarily on clay layer thickness, diffusivity, and duration since the boundary conditions change. For example, the relatively flat chloride profile in the Boom Clay in Mol supports nearly complete out-diffusion of marine chloride and demonstrates how profile shapes reflect past hydrogeological processes (NEA, 2019). When advection is significant, profiles deviate from these patterns and show asymmetry and curvature, especially at higher velocities or when flow directions vary.

Few reports have studied the expected chloride profile and transport mechanism of Watervliet Clay. A report by Hoving et al. (2024) found valuable insights. Their geochemical tracer data showed direct evidence for diffusion-controlled chloride transport certain locations: two samples from the Tongeren aquifer show distinctly negative $\delta^{37}\text{Cl}$ values ($-1,63\text{\textperthousand}$ and $-2,08\text{\textperthousand}$). The authors interpret these signatures as resulting from diffusive exchange with surrounding clays or diffusion within stagnant groundwater. However, groundwater chemistry indicates clear advective influences in some areas. Shallow screens and multi-level wells reveal evidence of seawater infiltration and freshening, reflected in elevated chloride concentrations and

electrical conductivity within the upper ~50 m. This demonstrates that advection and mixing dominate the shallow, more connected domains.

Therefore, for Watervliet Clay, diffusion may dominate long-term solute exchange in the deeper, low-permeability Watervliet Clay, while advection and mixing are locally important in shallower, more connected zones, reflecting the heterogeneous sand–clay structure of the site.

3 Methodology

3.1 Location and extraction

The 100m core sample was extracted from the Borssele 2 Power Plant (KCB2) Site near Middelburg, the Netherlands, by drilling boreholes in the ground. The site is located along the Rijn-Maas-Schelde delta. This was originally done to conduct a geological investigation to assess the suitability and safety of the site for nuclear technology. The study aimed to investigate the site's subsurface conditions, establish engineering properties of the soils, and evaluate ground risks. Four 100 m borings titled KB-102, KB-103, KB-104, and KB-105 were extracted using two sampling methods: SPT sampling coupled with side-discharge wash boring in accordance with the depths 0-30 m, and the SMET® push sampling method for the remaining depth. The core being analyzed in this experiment is KB-105 (Coordinates: N 384,398.32 m; E 38,812.79 m; Rijksdriehoekscoördinaten, Amersfoort datum, RD New projection).

The SMET® push sampler coring system was used because it provides a high yield in challenging soil conditions, allowing the geologic profile to be better understood for up to a 200m depth. After drilling to the termination depth, the coring head removed soil around the sample tube using mud circulation and rotation, the inner tube with the soil sample was then brought to the surface, and the PVC tube with the core was taken out. The PVC tube was cut open downwards with a powered cutting wheel, leaving the tube and sample split into two

halves. The tube was divided further into multiple intervals, with each interval containing ~1m of soil. The divided halves were then put back together with three wraps of PVC adhesive tape and placed inside of another PVC storage tube with sealed endcaps (Paul C. Rizzo Associates, Inc., 2013).

3.2 Storage and sample collection

The samples were sealed in the PVC pipes and stored in the VOG 1 (Verarmd uranium Opslaggebouw) at the COVRA NV site. VOG 1 is the same structure which stores depleted uranium at COVRA, providing ideal conditions to ensure the samples are not subjected to high temperatures.

The collection procedure of samples from the KB-105 pipes are as follows: the pipes had to be unwrapped and split open at the seam, 100g were weighed from each sample twice using a digital mass balance, the 2 measurements were divided into labelled plastic containers “.1” and “.2” to distinguish between replicates (Figure 4). Stainless steel spoons and an aluminum soil borer were used to remove soil from the pipes (Figure 5). After the soil was collected and the resistivity was measured (see Section 3.3.3), the halves of the pipes were then put together and resealed with duct tape. The samples were then transported back to the Anne lab at University College Roosevelt (UCR) for testing.



Figure 4: Sample 2 split open. The soil borer and plastic containers can be seen placed above the sample.



Figure 5: Soil was taken from sample 58 using the soil borer.

The two halves could only be removed for sandier samples; they could not be removed from their outer PVC tube for samples with high clay content. The loss in underground compaction pressure allowed swelling of the core sample by which the two halves could not be removed (see Section 3.4).

3.2 Preparation

From each plastic container, 40g of each sample was placed in a beaker and placed in an oven to be dried for 24 hours at 100° C in order to remove all moisture from the samples (Figure

6). The samples were then weighed after drying to find the true mass of the clay without moisture.



Figure 6: All the weighed samples in the oven before drying

From the dried samples, 5g of each sample was placed in centrifuge tubes and leached with 50ml of distilled water. The samples were then transported to the Joint Research Center in Zeeland (JRCZ) and were placed in a shaker at 2,25 Mot 1/min (movements per minute) for 2 days. This process helps to extract ions from the clay by mixing it thoroughly with the water and

facilitates the movement of salts from the solid to liquid phase (Figure 7).



Figure 7: Samples placed in shaker prior to centrifugation

After the shaking, the samples were placed in a centrifuge at 4500RPM for 10 minutes. Then, the resulting supernatant in each sample was filtered with a 0,45 μ m filter and placed into labeled IC vials. This process ensures that any remaining solid particles are removed from the sample, allowing only a clear liquid to enter the IC.

Two sets of 20mL standards for chloride and sulfate were prepared for the IC to generate calibration curves which were necessary to derive the concentration of the unknown samples. For chloride, a 1000ppm chloride stock solution was made by dissolving 1,650g of sodium chloride (NaCl) in 1L of distilled water. Using this stock, lower concentrations of 125ppm, 250ppm, 500ppm, and 750ppm were made by diluting the stock in distilled water (Table 1). The sulfate stock solution was made by dissolving 0,123g of sodium sulfate (Na₂SO₄) in 1L of distilled water. The standards of 3,125ppm, 6,25ppm, 12,5ppm, and 25ppm were then made through serial dilution with distilled water (Table 2).

Table 1: Dilution series for chloride standards

Concentration (ppm)	Volume of Stock (mL)	Distilled water (mL)
125	2,50	17,50
250	5,00	15,00
500	10,00	10,00
750	15,00	5,00
1000	20,00	0,00

Table 2: Dilution series for sulfate standards

Concentration (ppm)	Volume of Stock (mL)	Distilled water (mL)
3,125	2,50	17,50
6,25	5,00	15,00
12,5	10,00	10,00
25	20,00	5,00

3.3 Testing

3.3.1 Ion Chromatography (IC)

The IC vials were placed in the Ion Chromatographer along with blanks (distilled water) and the standard solutions of NaCl and sulfate (Figure 8). The results provided the area under the curve, height, and concentration (see Ion Chromatography results in Appendix). However, the concentration provided by the IC is not the actual concentration in the sample, but rather the concentration in the supernatant. To find the actual concentration in the sample, a calibration curve was first created using the standard solutions of known chloride concentrations. The relationship between peak area and concentration is assumed to be linear:

$$C = \text{Area} - b / a \quad (1)$$

The result in ppm (mg/L) was then multiplied by the extraction volume (0,05 L) to calculate the total chloride mass in mg for each sample. Finally, this value was divided by 0,005 to find the

chloride concentration per kg of dry clay (mg/kg). The porewater content of the sample was determined by multiplying the dry mass of the clay, and then dividing the mass of water lost during drying (See Table B3 in Appendix).



Figure 8: IC vials in chromatographer tray before running the chromatogram.

3.3.2 Electrical Conductivity (EC)

With the extracted porewater that remained after filtration and IC measurements, the electrical conductivity (EC) was measured. This was done using an EC probe and meter with a set up that included a retort stand and clamp to hold the probe for ease of measuring the 1:10 solid to liquid ion extraction (5 grams dried clay with 50 mL distilled water). The probe was fully submerged into the extracted porewater, and measurements were taken after the number on the meter settled. EC and temperature were each measured three times, and the average measurement for each was used for further calculations. After each submersion the probe was rinsed using distilled water to start at 0 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ for each sample.

However, as both EC measurements proved to be uncharacteristically dominated by sulfate, most likely because of sulfide oxidation after the exposure of oxygen during coring processes, new EC values were calculated using Geochemist Workbench for all 73 samples. These were calculated solely using chloride concentrations as EC depends on ionic concentrations, making these values comparable across depths and samples. Sodium was made equal to chloride for ion balancing, and pH values were inputted as well, as seen in Figure 7. The proxy formation factor was then calculated using Equation 2.

Sample ID	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ca ⁺⁺	mmol/l						
Mg ⁺⁺	mmol/l						
Na ⁺	mmol/l	609.8	501.8	579.8	460.1	460.5	596
K ⁺	mmol/l						
HCO ₃ ⁻	mmol/l						
SO ₄ ²⁻	mmol/l						
Cl ⁻	mmol/l	609.8	501.8	579.8	460.1	460.5	596
pH		7.36	7.34	6.6	7.2	8.21	7.75
Electrical conductivity uS/cm		54800.1	45888.6	52339.8	42403.3	42437.2	53669.8
							36809.0

Figure 7: Snapshot of the new estimated EC values calculated using pH, chloride concentrations in mg/L (ppm) of the extracted porewater of all samples, and the same value of chloride for sodium for an electrically neutral system. All the EC values and pH values can be seen in Table B3 in the Appendix.

3.3.3 Resistivity

The bulk electrical resistivity was measured for 42 out 73 samples using a makeshift resistivity cell at COVRA premises. This cell was made up of two electrodes where the thicker (around 1cm) steel circular plate acted as the base electrode. Its thickness was useful for holding up the rest of the cell, ensuring stability. These circular stainless-steel plates acted as a conductive contact surface for electric current to pass through the sample evenly. A cloth saturated with de-mineralized water was placed between the base plate and a thinner (around 0,5cm) circular steel plate acting as a conductive bridge between plates. This was followed by a

short PVC tube where the soil was placed. The same arrangement as the lower electrode was placed on top of the PVC tube and on top of that a heavy object (filled spray bottle) was placed as well to compress the cell and avoid any gaps where air may interrupt the current flow as it can act as an insulator. This setup can be seen in Figure 9. The base plate was connected to a resistivity meter where measurements were displayed and recorded in $k\Omega\text{ cm}$.



Figure 9: Make-shift resistivity cell at COVRA premises. (Image by author)

Each soil sample was taken from the PVC pipes with a soil sampler or spoon and placed into the tubular compartment of the cell. This short tube helped keep the soil sample intact as it was made up of PVC, which is a non-conductive material. From the bulk resistivity it is possible to calculate the proxy formation factor for each sample, however, due to time constraints and the

unavailability of the resistivity cell on the first day of soil sampling, only 42 out of 73 samples had their resistivity measured.

In this respect, the formation resistivity factor indicates the degree of connectivity in the pore matrix through calculating the ratio between the soil's bulk resistivity (R_o) and extract resistivity (R_w) as seen in Equation (2). It should be noted that as the porewater resistivity is the inverse of the conductivity of the porewater, which is not what was measured but rather the extracted leachate (1:10 soil to water ratio), it is not the true porewater resistivity. The calculation of extracted porewater is illustrated in Equation (3), where ρ is resistivity and σ is conductivity.

Therefore, the formation factors are a proxy to the true values which would be calculated with original porewater resistivity. The formation factor is dimensionless and always greater than one. Calculating the proxy formation factor aids the evaluation of the solute transport mechanism in the two Dutch Paleogene clays. However, as bulk resistivity measurements could not be made for Watervliet clay, proxy formation factors were only calculated for Boom clay although values were assumed to be similar or greater due to its deeper location in the core (~15m) resulting in a greater compaction affecting pore channels and size.

$$F^* = \frac{R_o}{R_w} \quad (2)$$

$$\rho = \frac{1}{\sigma} \quad (3)$$

A greater formation factor tends to indicate a more tortuous pore matrix which may inhibit or limit the flow of ionic species such as NaCl, thus an electric current is limited as well. Similarly, if the proxy formation factor is lower, then it can be concluded that the pore matrix is well-connected or has wider pores. As mentioned, impermeable layers are characteristic of diffusion-dominated systems as advection is negligible in low permeability environments. Therefore, if both Paleogene clays have a large formation factor, it can be concluded that diffusion is the dominant transport mechanism (Gimmi & Churakov, 2019).

3.3.4 pH

The pH of each sample was measured in the Anne lab using a pH probe. Before measurements, the probe was calibrated with a buffer solution of pH 7. The probe was fully submerged for about 5 minutes in the centrifuge tubes containing the distilled water leachate. As some samples had replicated, a few of the samples have a pH as an average between the replicates instead of a measurement directly read from the pH meter as seen in the Appendix in Table B3. This gives greater reliability to measurements. Similarly, the probe was rinsed with distilled water with every submersion to remove the porewater from the previous sample which may have had a different pH, ensuring accurate readings.

3.3.5 Effective Diffusion Coefficients

The effective diffusion coefficient (D_{eff}) indicates the rate of solute transport in porous media, correcting the molecular diffusion coefficient for pore structure effects, mainly tortuosity using resistivity derived formation factors. In this manner, determining the rate of solute transport is an effective tool for understanding the type of solute mechanism apparent

within these sandy to clayey layers. To calculate the D_{eff} , the molecular diffusion coefficient (D_0) for chloride in free water, at 25 degrees ($2.0 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$) was divided by the proxy formation factors as seen in equation 6 (Boudreau, 1997). The use of the formation factor indirectly corresponds to tortuosity and porosity for these layers, which are essential and most common elements for calculating the D_{eff} , as seen in equation 4 (Meeussen et al., 2017; Busch et al., 2018)

$$D_{\text{eff}} = \eta D_{\text{pore}} = \eta \frac{\delta}{\theta^2} D_0 \quad (4)$$

where:

D_{pore} - pore water coefficient (or bulk diffusion coefficient) accounting for the effects of tortuosity (m^2/s)

D_0 - molecular diffusion coefficient in free water (m^2/s),

θ^2 - tortuosity factor (-) and equal to $(L_a/L)^2$ where L_a represents the longer path through the solid grains the molecules can flow through and L is the distance in a straight line.

δ - constrictivity factor (-),

η - total porosity (-)

In many cases it is difficult to distinguish the θ^2 from the δ , therefore they are often combined into a geometrical factor.

$$\frac{\delta}{\theta^2} = \frac{1}{G} \quad (5)$$

$$D_{\text{eff}} = \frac{D_0}{F} \quad (6)$$

D_{eff} coefficient values could only be calculated for samples 11 to 41 for the Breda Formation, samples 59 to 68 for the Ruisbroek Sand layer and samples 69 and 70 of the Watervliet Clay layer due to the lack of bulk resistivity measurements for the remainder of the samples. Therefore, a conservative literature-based formation factor (143) was used to estimate D_{eff} coefficients in Boom clay and the remaining Watervliet Clay samples of which were also compared with published D_{eff} coefficients for such marine clays. Hence, these values should not be interpreted as direct measurements but rather approximations. D_{eff} coefficient values for all layers can be found in Table B4 in the appendix, and a snapshot of it is also found in the results section. A deeper overview of the differences in D_{eff} coefficient values between layers is found in the discussion.

Two Watervliet Clay samples (69 and 70) had their bulk resistivity measurements; these were the only samples that had direct D_{eff} coefficient calculations made. Therefore, taking into account the formation factor range (143 to 181) for Mont Terri Opalinus Clay samples found in a study conducted focusing on the diffusion rate for Cl^- , HTO , I^- , Na^+ . This study chose the conservative formation factor of 143 for Boom Clay and the remaining 3 samples for Watervliet clay. This value was chosen due to Opalinus Clay having By choosing a lower-bound estimate, the pore matrix is assumed to be less tortuous in these layers, resulting in upper-bound (overestimated) effective diffusion coefficients (Van Loon et al., 2003).

D_{eff} coefficient values for HTO (liquid electrolyte) in Boom clay was found using a Fractal Model and with experimental plug samples with values ranging from 10^{-10} to $10^{-11} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ (Busch et al., 2018). However, the anionic tracer Cl^- is assumed to have a slightly slower diffusion rate due to anionic exclusion due to surface electrostatic repulsion, size and dead-end pores and the Donnan effect which “limits the movement of anions through interlayer narrow

pores in clay" (Meeussen et al., 2017). On the same note, Opalinus Clay (a marine argillaceous clay similar to Boom Clay) in Mont Terri and Benken had D_{eff} coefficient values (perpendicular to bedding) in the range of 10^{-11} to $10^{-12} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$.

The directly calculated diffusion values from this study were interpreted as vertical (perpendicular to bedding) rather than horizontal (parallel to bedding) values, which can alter the diffusion rate by a factor of approximately 2 to 3, as seen in laboratory diffusion experiments for the neutral tracer HTO (Weetjens et al., 2012, Bruggeman et al., 2013). This anisotropy factor is affected by compaction and consolidation pressure; therefore, an increase of these parameters will likely result in an increase of the anisotropy factor (Bruggeman et al., 2013). An example of an anionic tracer i.e. Iodide also shows direction dependent diffusion values of which can be assumed similar to the 2 to 3 anisotropy factor previously mentioned for HTO (Durce et al., 2024). Vertical transport is slower due to the layered structure and tortuosity of the pore network reducing the overall space for transport; therefore, all samples overall serve as a conservative estimate for diffusion.

3.4 Assumptions and limitations

Due to capacity limitations (oven space and limited beakers) and limited opportunities to use the Ion Chromatographer, only a few samples could have both their "0,1" and "0,2" measurements analyzed to find an average value for the IC. Samples with average values are colored orange in Table B3 in the Appendix.

Due to time constraints, the samples were collected from COVRA on two separate days. The resistivity cell was unavailable for use on the first day. Therefore, only samples that were collected on the second day (samples 11-40 and 58-70) could have their bulk resistivity

measured. It was assumed that all NaCl was extracted from the soil samples and present in its porewater after leaching.

For a few samples (Samples 42-52, which are samples consisting of Boom Clay), it was found that the clay stored in the PVC pipes had expanded and hardened over time which made it difficult to collect samples in the standard way. For these samples, one of the two caps of the pipe was cracked and broken open using a hammer (Figure 10). Upon reaching the clay sample by this method, the clay was sprayed with distilled water and allowed to sit for about an hour to loosen up so the samples could be collected with ease. The pipes were resealed using parafilm and duct tape upon completion of sample collection.



Figure 10: Sample 42 was cracked open with a hammer, sampled with a borer, and then later sealed with parafilm and duct tape.

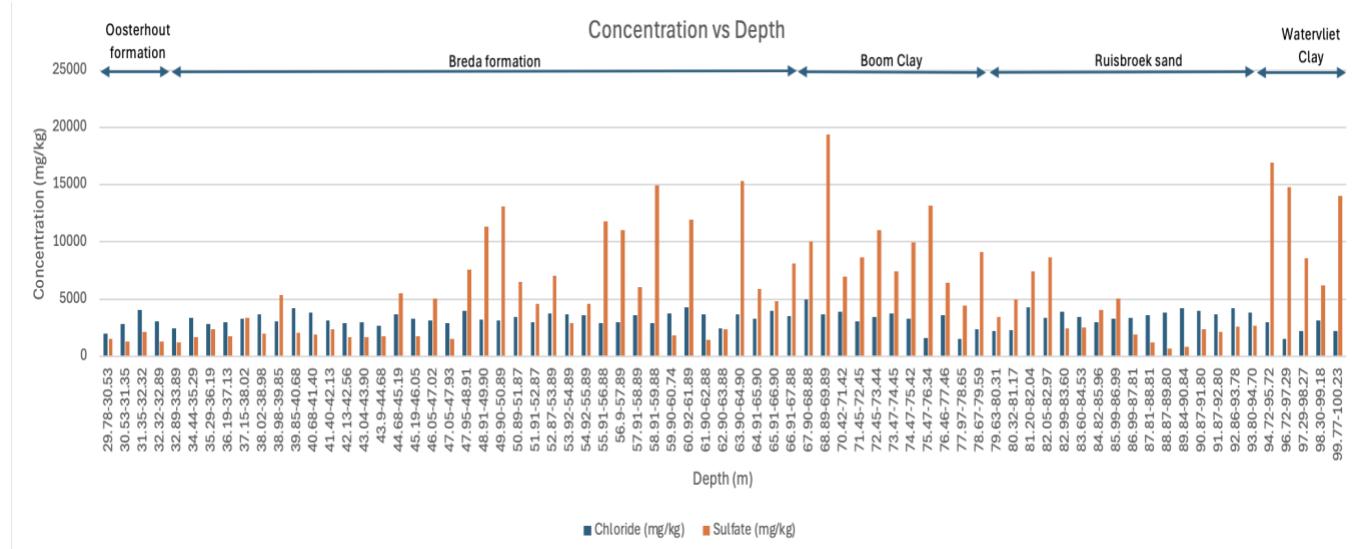
Additionally, it was found that sulfate was present in the blanks used for the IC, which led to the conclusion that the distilled water in the Anne lab had sulfate in it. This same distilled water was used for the dilution of the IC samples. The sulfate concentration in the blank, which was found to be 0,197 mol/L, was subtracted from all sample concentrations to ensure the values derived from the IC were only from sulfate in the samples, and not the distilled water.

It was also assumed that all extracted chloride originally came from porewater or exchangeable pools.

4 Results

4.1 IC results

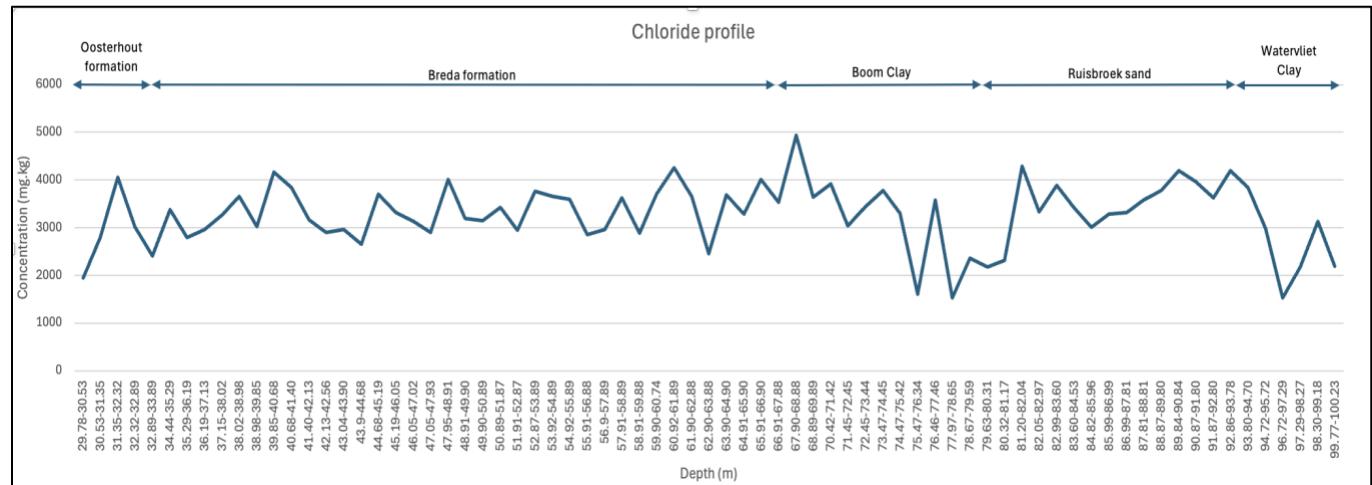
Upon completing the IC, the calculated concentrations of chloride and sulfate (mg/kg of dry rock) were graphed and displayed below in Graph 1.



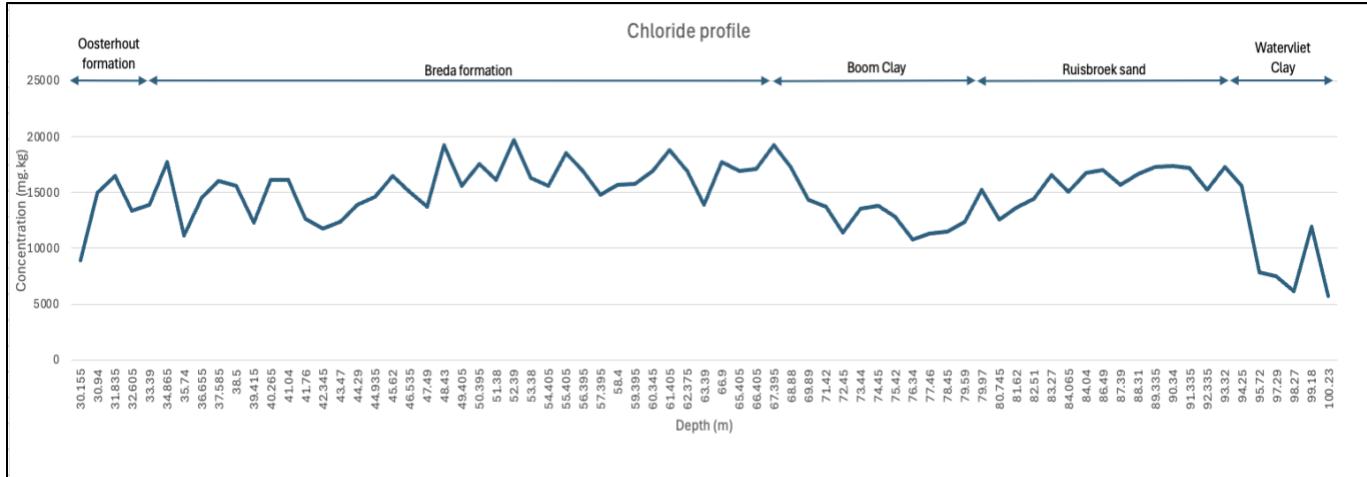
Graph 1: Chloride and Sulfate profile over depth. The type of formations are indicated at the top of the graph.

Graph 2 shows that chloride experiences gradual variations with depth, with no extreme changes over small depth intervals except for a few small spikes and drops. The highest peak of chloride is at a depth of 67,90-68,88m where Boom Clay is present. Outside of this peak, it is relatively constant throughout the core. Graph 3 shows a higher concentration of chloride in the porewater content of the clay, while also maintaining a similar pattern as the chloride concentration in the dry sample.

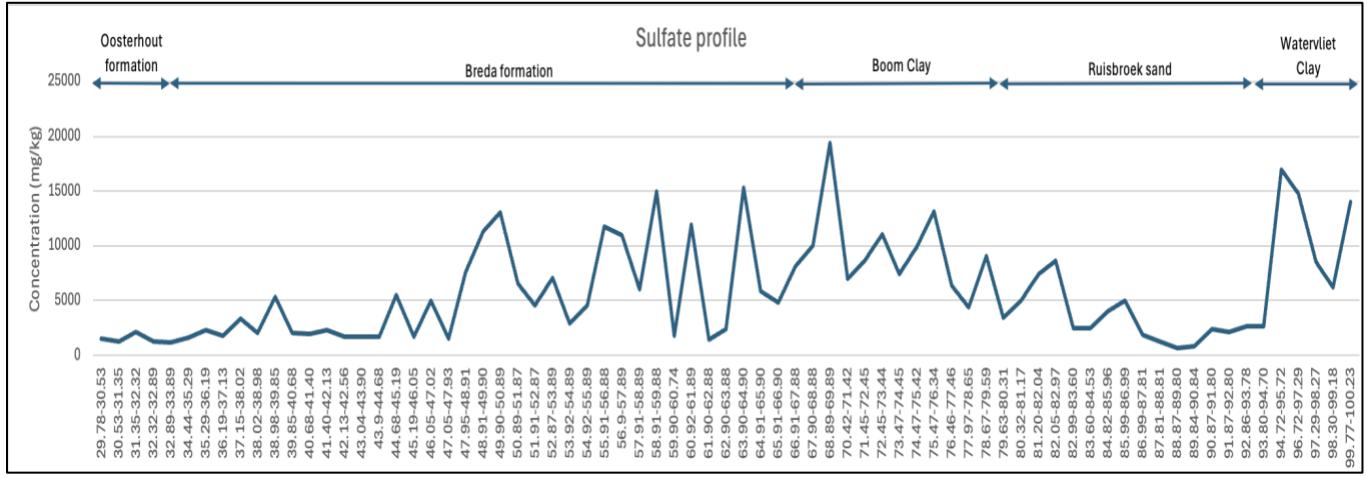
For sulfate (Graph 4), there are much larger spikes in concentration than chloride, with this highest peak at 68,89-69,89m. It can also be noticed that there is a separate region of high sulfate concentration from depth 94,72m onwards, which is where the formation of Watervliet Clay begins. The sulfate levels in the Boom Clay region vary but are regularly higher than chloride.



Graph 2: Chloride profile (mg/kg of dry sample) for all samples with the formation type at the top of the graph.



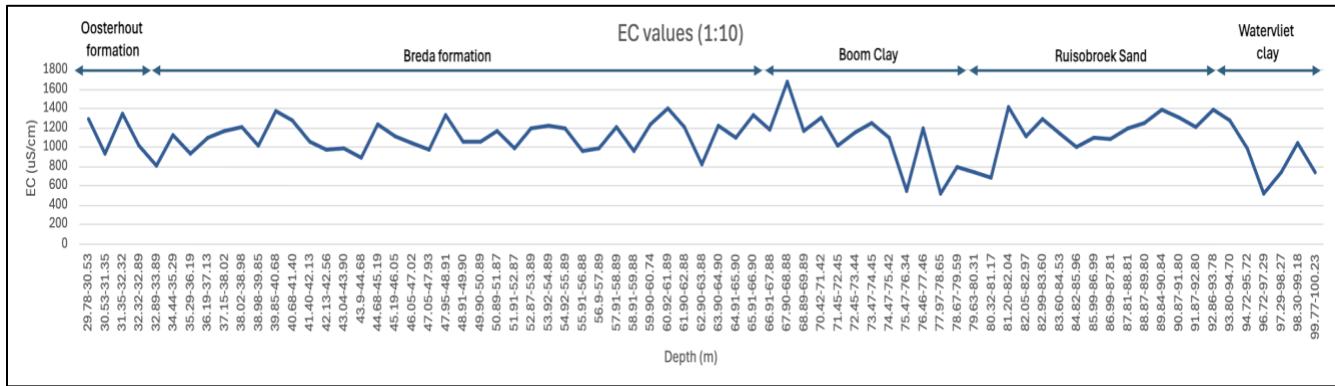
Graph 3: Chloride profile (mg/kg of porewater) for all samples with the formation type at the top of the graph.



Graph 4: Sulfate profile with depth for the soil samples with the 1:10 solid to liquid ratio.

In these soil samples, sulfate seems to dominate as its concentration is much higher than chloride, most probably due to pyrite oxidation. The exact values can be seen in Graph 2 and Table B3 in the Appendix.

4.2 EC results

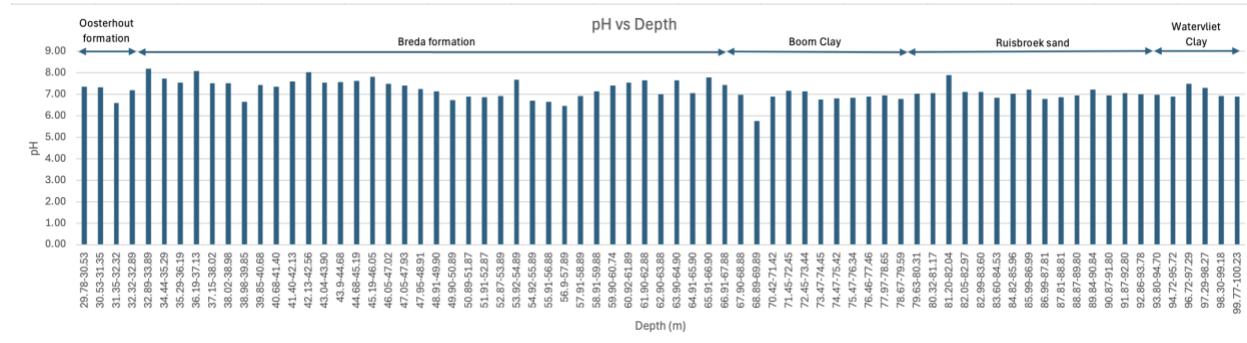


Graph 5: The electrical conductivity with depth for the extracted porewater (mg/L) with a 1:10 solid to liquid ratio. These EC values were calculated using Geochemist Workbench Professional, using the chloride concentrations derived from the IC, sodium values which were made equal to the values of chloride and pH measurements for all 73 samples.

Boom Clay and Watervliet Clay extract-based EC values are lower than in the surrounding sandy formations, which is indicative of a fresh to slightly saline extract porewater and partial deviation from original marine composition (Ning et al., 2020). Focusing solely on the porewater inevitably resulted in lower EC values mainly due to the exclusion of mineral surface conduction (K_s), which is the main mechanism to facilitate electrical current in clayey soils at low salinity pore water environments. (Choo et al., 2022). Moreover, anions such as Cl⁻ experience anion exclusion, meaning the accessibility of these ions to move in the pore matrix decreases, which is reflective of the poor ability for these clayey soils to transmit an electrical current (low EC). Nevertheless, these low EC values suggest low ion mobility which points to the retardation of Cl⁻ through adsorption and low permeability, reflective of the low Cl⁻ content at these clay layers.

4.3 pH

The pH of the 50 mL distilled water leachate was measured with a pH probe and recorded; Graph 6 shows the results of the pH measurements.



Graph 6: pH profile across depth

As seen in Graph 6, the pH stays relatively constant around 7. The most acidic pH was recorded at 68.89-69.89m, which is also the depth with the highest amount of sulfate. This may be due to pyrite oxidation, as pyrite oxidation leads to more acidic conditions if insufficient carbonate minerals are available to buffer the produced acids by pyrite oxidation.

4.4 Effective Diffusion Coefficients Results

Table 3: Five representative and direct Deff coefficient values for samples 15 to 20 for the Breda Formation, samples 63 to 68 for the Ruisbroek Sand layer and samples 69 and 70 of the Watervliet Clay layer. Opalinus Clay based formation factors were used to calculate the Deff coefficient values for Boom Clay and the remainder of Watervliet Clay samples of which are colored red.

Samples	Proxy Formation Factor	D0 Molecular Diffusion Coefficient m/s	Effective Diffusion Coefficient
Breda			
16	122,65	$2,3 \times 10^{-9}$	$1,9 \times 10^{-11}$
17	150,68	$2,3 \times 10^{-9}$	$1,5 \times 10^{-11}$
18	206,70	$2,3 \times 10^{-9}$	$1,1 \times 10^{-11}$
19	142,76	$2,3 \times 10^{-9}$	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$
20	169,47	$2,3 \times 10^{-9}$	$1,4 \times 10^{-11}$
Boom Clay			
All samples	143	$2,3 \times 10^{-9}$	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$

Ruisbroek Sand				
64	221,35	2,3 x 10 ⁻⁹	1,0 x 10 ⁻¹¹	
65	230,30	2,3 x 10 ⁻⁹	1,0 x 10 ⁻¹¹	
66	207,64	2,3 x 10 ⁻⁹	1,1 x 10 ⁻¹¹	
67	282,17	2,3 x 10 ⁻⁹	8,2 x 10 ⁻¹²	
68	266,68	2,3 x 10 ⁻⁹	8,6 x 10 ⁻¹²	
Watervliet Clay				
69	137,55	2,3 x 10 ⁻⁹	1,7 x 10 ⁻¹¹	
70	76,11	2,3 x 10 ⁻⁹	3,0 x 10 ⁻¹¹	
71	143	2,3 x 10 ⁻⁹	4,6 x 10 ⁻¹¹	
72	143	2,3 x 10 ⁻⁹	4,6 x 10 ⁻¹¹	
73	143	2,3 x 10 ⁻⁹	4,6 x 10 ⁻¹¹	

5 Discussion

5.1 Determining Diffusion or Advection via ion profiles

The chloride in Graphs 2 and 3 align with the diffusion-dominated shapes described by Mazurek et. al (2011), which explains that diffusion-controlled chloride profiles in clay can appear asymmetric or peaked. The smooth gradients and isolated spikes observed in Graphs 1 and 2 are consistent with the expected patterns for a diffusion-dominated process. Additionally, the smooth curves between 66-72 m, containing a portion of the Boom Clay, and between 94m and 99 m, containing most of the Watervliet Clay, indicate that diffusion is the dominant transport mechanism in both formations.

Additionally, some of the high peaks in sulfate concentration, such as at depths 68,89m-69,89m, 72,45-73,44m, and 75,47-76,34m showed clear signs of pyrite upon sample collection (Figures 11-15). This indicates that the reason for a higher sulfate to chloride ratio, as well as the sudden spikes of sulfate, can be explained by pyrite oxidation.



Figure 11: Sample 43 (depth 68,89m-69,89m) showing red-brown patches of iron. It has the highest sulfate level of all the samples (19388,9 mg/kg). It has a chloride concentration of 3644,2mg/kg.



Figure 12: Sample 46 (depth 72,45-73,44m) showing patches of iron. Sulfate concentration of 11061,1 mg/kg. It has a chloride concentration of 3446,6mg/kg.



Figure 13: Sample 49 (depth 75,47-76,34m) bears an orange-ish color and sulfate concentration of 13167,9mg/kg. It has a chloride concentration of 1606,4mg/kg.

However, there are some exceptions. Samples with low sulfate but higher chloride levels (such as sample 3 in Figure 14) appear considerably redder than those with the highest sulfate concentrations, as shown by comparing Figures 12 and 15. Conversely, a few samples with high sulfate content show little to no redness (Figure 15).



Figure 14: Sample 3 (depth 31,35-32,32m) with a sulfate concentration of 2130,1 mg/kg and a chloride concentration of 2800,0 mg/kg. It has a chloride concentration of 4059,9mg/kg.



Figure 15: Sample 38 (depth 63,90-68,88m) appears to have no signs of pyrite despite having a relatively high sulfate concentration (15311,3 mg/kg). It has a chloride concentration of 3691,9mg/kg.

5.2 Determining Diffusion or Advection via the proxy formation factors and effective diffusion coefficients

5.2.1 Comparison of proxy/formation factors and D_{eff} coefficient values between formations

Table 4: Average Formation Factor and D_{eff} coefficient values separated by the chosen lower-bound formation factor for Boom Clay and Watervliet Clay from Opalinus Clay and calculated values.

Formation	Formation Factor		D_{eff} coefficient values (m ² /s)	
	Conservative literature based	Avg. calculated (proxy)	Literature based	Avg. calculated
Breda	No need for lit. formation factor	164,8	No need for a lit. D_{eff} coefficient value	$1,3 \times 10^{-11}$
Boom Clay	143	No bulk resistivity measurement; no proxy formation factor	Based on lit. F: $1,6 \times 10^{-11}$ Based on lit. D_{eff} : $5.70 \pm 0,34 \times 10^{-12}$	No calculated D_{eff} coefficient value
Ruisbroek Sand	No need for lit. formation factor	238,2	No need for a lit. D_{eff} coefficient value	$1,2 \times 10^{-11}$
Watervliet Clay	143	106,8	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	$2,3 \times 10^{-11}$

The tortuosity and porosity differences are apparent between formations simply by considering their (literature-based/proxy) formation factors and (literature-based/average) D_{eff} coefficient values. Boom Clay has the slowest literature based D_{eff} coefficient value ($5.70 \pm 0.34 \times 10^{-12}$ m²/s) which infers greatest solute resistance by the soil and pore matrix compared to the other formations, which is reasonable due to its dominance in fine-grained swelling clays such as

illite and smectite which results in much more dead end and narrower pore channels (Beaucaire et al., 2000). On the other hand, another diffusion coefficient of $1,6 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ is proposed for Boom clay. This value assumes faster diffusion by using the formation factor of 143, which is the lower end of the 143 to 181 range for the Mont Terri opalinus clay in the study by Bruggeman et al. (2013). As Opalinus clay is considered as or has even faster effective diffusion rates due to greater clay content i.e. 40 to 80% depending on the depth and area and is a more rigid claystone, while Boom clay has a clay content of around 60% (at the Mol site) and is a more plastic and indurated claystone, allowing for greater solute transport when compared (Wemaere et al., 2008; De Craen et al., 2004). Both diffusion rates are consistent with the study conducted by Busch et al (2018), where D_{eff} coefficient values for HTO in Boom Clay ranged from 10^{-10} to $10^{-11} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ pointing towards a diffusion dominated solute system.

The chosen literature-based formation factor for Watervliet clay was also 143 for simplicity, as the main requirement for the resulting estimated D_{eff} was not accuracy but rather for it to be a close approximation to literature-based D_{eff} coefficient values for Watervliet clay. As Watervliet clay and Boom Clay share a high illite/smectite content, similar depositional environment and sediment structure, the use of this formation factor for both layers can be justified. The resulting D_{eff} coefficient value by use of this formation factor 143 was $1,6 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$, like Boom clay. However, in theory diffusion rates should be faster in Watervliet clay layers due to its larger content of sand and silt, yet both are still considered for radioactive nuclear waste due to their low hydraulic conductivity, high sorption capacity and reducing conditions Hoving et al. (2024). In terms of samples 69 and 70, the average formation factor was 106,8 resulting in a D_{eff} coefficient value of $2,3 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$, which is the fastest diffusion rate compared to all formations. This reflects the limited sample availability of this layer where it is

possible locally less tortuous pathways may have been captured, reducing the overall D_{eff} coefficient value. According to Bruggeman et al. (2013), heterogeneity within a unit can be as large as differences between units. Additionally, although clay has a high total porosity, it is possible that not all those voids are accessible for anions like Cl^- due to the electrical double layer and Donnan effects, reducing the overall D_{eff} coefficient value (Van Loon et al., 2003; Meeussen et al., 2017).

The Breda formation has an average D_{eff} coefficient value of $1,3 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ based on the average proxy formation factor of 164,8. This diffusion value is slower than Watervliet clay and the D_{eff} coefficient derived from the literature based formation factor for Boom clay ($1,6 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$) and slightly faster than Ruisbroek sand, possibly also due to a greater sample density with bulk resistivity measurements made, unlike Watervliet and Boom clay. Additionally, as this formation mainly consists of fine to medium grained glauconitic sand followed by silt and clay although the exact makeup depends on the area at hand, i.e. the northwest of the Netherlands contains more clay compared to the south, which has a sandier texture and of which these samples come from. This relates to larger more connected pores characteristic of sandy layers and corresponds to the similarity in diffusion rates with Ruisbroek sand. Similarly, well-sorted sand promotes diffusion as pathways would be relatively straight which leads to less heterogeneity, a lower tortuosity and hence a faster D_{eff} coefficient value (Boudreau, 1997).

Ruisbroek sand has the average highest formation factor and lowest calculated D_{eff} coefficient (238,2 and $1.2 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$). This high proxy formation factor could be a reflection of its fine grained, clayey, and glauconitic composition which can result in the development of microporosity and tortuous diffusion pathways (Beaucaire et al., 2000). The presence of clay coatings and glauconite grains can increase surface conduction and reduce pore connectivity,

resulting in high proxy formation factors and low D_{eff} coefficients, despite the dominance in sand (Boudreau, 1997).

5.3 pH variation over the 100m core

The relatively constant pH (± 7) observed in Graph 5 demonstrates that the core is well-buffered, most likely due to carbonate or other minerals within the core (Bruggeman & De Craen, 2012; Wang et al., 2023). The localized decrease in pH at 68.89-69.89m, which is where the highest sulfate concentration was, suggests the occurrence of localized redox reactions. This interpretation is supported by Figure 10, which shows discrete patches of pyrite formation. Additionally, the relatively neutral pH across the core provides optimal conditions (pH 6-8) for sulfate reducing bacteria to form the observed pyrite (Tran et al., 2021).

Overall, the stable pH supports the conclusion that chemical conditions are relatively uniform across the 100m core, which is consistent with diffusion-dominated solute movement.

5.4 Ratio of Ions in the Core Compared to Sea Water

The overall $Cl^- : SO_4^{2-}$ for the entire core was calculated using the sum of chloride and sulfate concentrations in the sediment at all depths, resulting in a ratio of 0.564 (total chloride = 238209mg/kg, total sulfate = 422363mg/kg). As the obtained ratio is less than 1, sulfate is the more abundant ion in the core porewater. The ratio of $Cl^- : SO_4^{2-}$ at each depth can be seen in the Appendix, Table B2. As Table B2 shows, most samples between 29-43m have a ratio greater than 1, meaning chloride was higher in the shallower layers.

For comparison, the typical $Cl^- : SO_4^{2-}$ ratio in seawater is ~ 7.06 (Sudaryanto & Nailly, 2018), indicating that chloride is higher than sulfate in seawater. The significantly lower ratio observed in the core suggests that geochemical processes, such as limited chloride transport

within the clay and redox reactions leading to pyrite formation, may have influenced porewater chemistry. Although, chloride and sulfate concentrations were found for the chemically altered extract after leaching, these findings still highlight the fact that porewater composition changes over time, and the core is no longer reflective of the original marine conditions.

5.5 Possibility of Quantitative Transport Modelling

Quantitative transport modelling is the use of acquired data for predicting the concentrations, fluxes and transport of radionuclides in the future, based on the pre-determined dominant transport mechanism found for the specific soil profile at hand. There is data missing to build a quantitative transport model in this study, yet a summarized table of the elemental parameters needed to construct a quantitative transport model has been put forth. It is important to note that the specific data required can differ based on the baseline transport mechanism that has been determined for the specific soil formation.

For diffusion dominated transport, which is most prominent in low permeable layers such as Boom Clay and Watervliet Clay, the minimum data required is the effective diffusion coefficient, effective porosity (n_e), distribution coefficient (K_d), retardation factor and geochemical process such as pH and redox etc. Advection dominated transport includes parameters such as hydraulic conductivity and gradient, Darcy velocity, the dispersion coefficient, porosity and the retardation factor.

Additionally, although these parameters are classified as the minimum data needed to build a quantitative transport model, it is also encouraged to add as much unique details on the chosen soil formation to make it as specific as possible and avoid important data to be neglected. For example, disregarding the incorporation of the ‘Darcy velocity’ would risk the over or under estimation of the velocity of the radionuclide in the soil pore channels. However, as collecting

and processing data can be time-consuming, the minimum number of parameters according to literature cannot be disregarded for a quantitative transport model as shown in Table (5). The corresponding formulas and classification depending on the transport system are made clear.

Table 5: Necessary parameters for quantitative transport modelling according to Vandersteen et al. (2013)

Parameters for Quantitative Transport Modelling			
Diffusion dominated systems		Advection dominated systems	
Parameter	Formula	Parameter	Formula
Effective Diffusion Coefficient (De)	$De = D0 \times ne/\tau$ or $De = D0 / F^*$	Hydraulic Conductivity	No direct formula
Effective Porosity (ne)	$n_e = \frac{V_{p,\text{effective}}}{V_t}$	Hydraulic Gradient	$i = \Delta h / L$
Distribution Coefficient (Kd)	$Kd = \frac{Cs}{Cm}$	Darcy Velocity	$q = -K * i$
Retardation Factor	$R = 1 + \frac{\rho b \cdot Kd}{\theta}$	Dispersion Coefficient	$D = \alpha * v + De$
Geochemical Parameters (pH, redox etc.)	No direct formula	Effective Porosity (ne)	$n_e = \frac{V_{p,\text{effective}}}{V_t}$
		Retardation Factor	$R = 1 + \frac{\rho b \cdot Kd}{\theta}$

6 Conclusion

There were three direct methods employed to determine the dominant transport mechanism for boom Clay and Watervliet Clay within the 100m soil core, focusing on the depth were first evaluated (Graph 1 and 2), where the smooth concentration gradients observed within both clay formations indicate diffusion-dominated transport. The overall asymmetric patterns and isolated concentration peaks are also consistent with diffusion-controlled systems, as described by Mazurek et al. (2011). In Graph 3, most sulfate concentration peaks coincide with

zones of pyrite formation (Figures 11-124), although some exceptions are present, reflecting localized geochemical processes superimposed on the general diffusive background.

The observation that sulfate concentrations exceed chloride concentrations in the 1:10 soil-water extracts further supports a diffusion-dominated system, as does the vertically variable chloride profile, which is inconsistent with advective flushing and instead suggest slow, gradient-controlled transport. A relatively constant pH of approximately 7 throughout most of the core indicates a well-buffered geochemical system, likely controlled by carbonate equilibrium and clay mineral buffering. Localized pH decreases and elevated sulfate concentrations at depths of 69.89 to 69.89 m suggest redox controlled processes, such as pyrite formation, but these occur only locally and do not dominate the overall transport regime. The general absence of significant pH shifts is consistent with diffusion-dominated transport rather than advective recharge or discharge.

Chloride – sulfate ratios further support this interpretation. Most samples exhibit Cl^- : SO_4^{2-} ratios below 1, indicating sulfate dominance, whereas shallow depths (29 to 43m) show ratios above 1, reflecting higher chloride contents closer to the surface. Geochemical processes such as redox reactions and limited chloride transport were attributed reasons for an overall shift from the seawater Cl^- : SO_4^{2-} ratio of ~ 7.06 which indicates Cl^- being the dominant ion to lower Cl^- concentrations. Therefore, this exemplifies the fact that although both Boom Clay and Watervliet Clay are marine originated, over geological time periods these porewater compositions change due to alterations in structure through compaction and diagenesis. Therefore, they are not reflective of the original marine conditions they are derived from.

Proxy formation factors and effective diffusion coefficients derived from extract-based EC values provide quantitative support for the interpreted diffusion-dominated transport

mechanism in the core. The calculated effective diffusion coefficients for Boom clay and Watervliet clay are in the magnitude of 10^{-11} to 10^{-12} m²/s, which is consistent with the values reported in literature for compacted marine clays i.e. Opalinus clay, reflecting a diffusion-dominated transport system. Although the values used in this study represent proxy estimates as extract resistivity was used in place of true porewater resistivity, literature formation factors and D_{eff} coefficients were used for Boom clay and partially for Watervliet to 'fill in the gaps' and for comparison purposes. These estimates were still useful to quantitatively demonstrate that the rate of diffusive transport is slow in these clay layers and thus advective transport is negligible.

Through analysis of the above methods, the overall conclusion is that the two Dutch Paleogene clays, Boom Clay and Watervliet Clay, show consistent diffusion dominated transport patterns. These clays are thus strong candidates for long-term radioactive waste disposal due to their slow migration pathways, thickness, and depth. To further solidify these findings, a quantitative transport model is advised to predict the long-term fluxes, concentration, and transport of the radioactive elements specific to the soil core at hand. In Table (4) the essential characteristics required to build such a model are made clear.

7 References

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8 Appendix

Table B1: Post-drying weight of 40 g samples and the corresponding water content loss.

The water content from the 40g soil samples were calculated on a wet basis in the fourth column and the standard gravimetric water content in the fifth column.

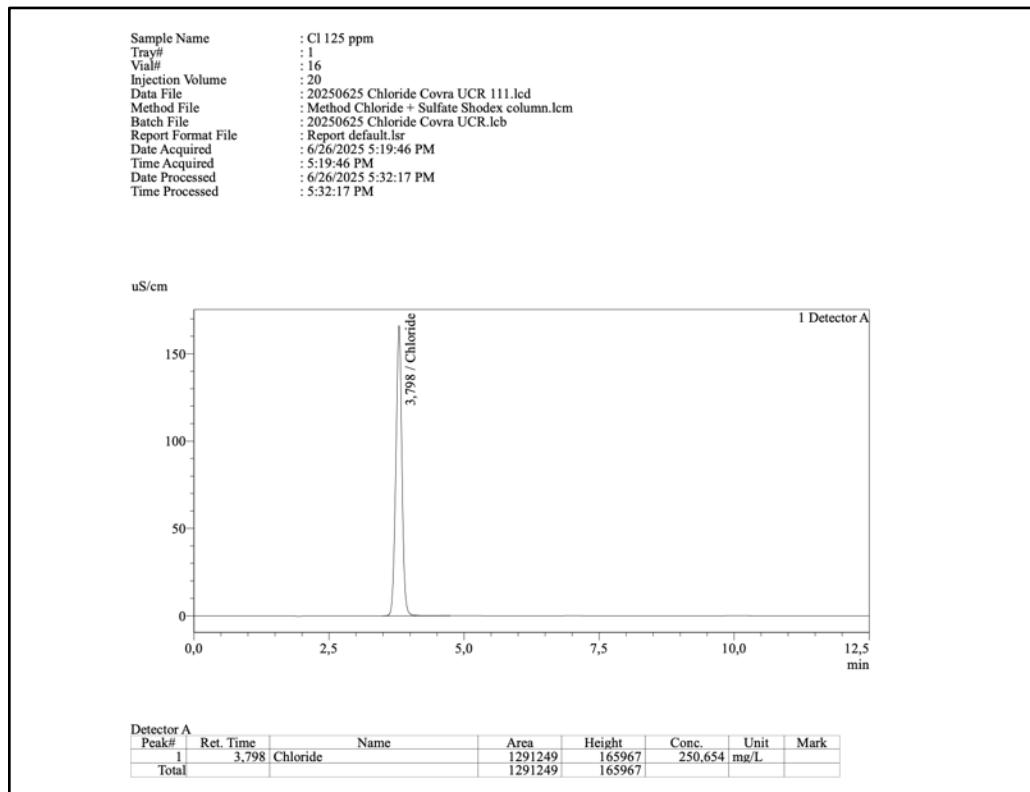
Sample	Depth (m)	Weight after drying 40g (g)	Wet - basis water content (g)	Gravimetric water content (g)	Percentage of Water lost (%)
1	29,78-30,53	32,80	7,20	0,22	21,95
2	30,53-31,35	33,70	6,30	0,19	18,69
3	31,35-32,32	32,10	7,90	0,25	24,61
4	32,32-32,89	32,60	7,40	0,23	22,70
5	32,89-33,89	34,10	5,90	0,17	17,30
6	34,44-35,29	33,60	6,40	0,19	19,05
7	35,29-36,19	32,00	8,00	0,25	25,00
8	36,19-37,13	33,20	6,80	0,20	20,48
9	37,15-38,02	33,20	6,80	0,20	20,48
10	38,02-38,98	32,40	7,60	0,23	23,46
11	38,98-39,85	32,10	7,90	0,25	24,61
12	39,85-40,68	31,80	8,20	0,26	25,79
13	40,68-41,40	32,30	7,70	0,24	23,84
14	41,40-42,13	32,00	8,00	0,25	25,00
15	42,13-42,56	32,10	7,90	0,25	24,61
16	43,04-43,90	32,30	7,70	0,24	23,84
17	43,9-44,68	33,60	6,40	0,19	19,05
18	44,68-45,19	31,90	8,10	0,25	25,39
19	45,19-46,05	33,30	6,70	0,20	20,12
20	46,05-47,02	33,10	6,90	0,21	20,85
21	47,05-47,93	33,00	7,00	0,21	21,21
22	47,95-48,91	33,10	6,90	0,21	20,85
23	48,91-49,90	33,20	6,80	0,20	20,48
24	49,90-50,89	33,90	6,10	0,18	17,99
25	50,89-51,87	33,00	7,00	0,21	21,21
26	51,91-52,87	34,80	5,20	0,15	14,94
27	52,87-53,89	32,50	7,50	0,23	23,08

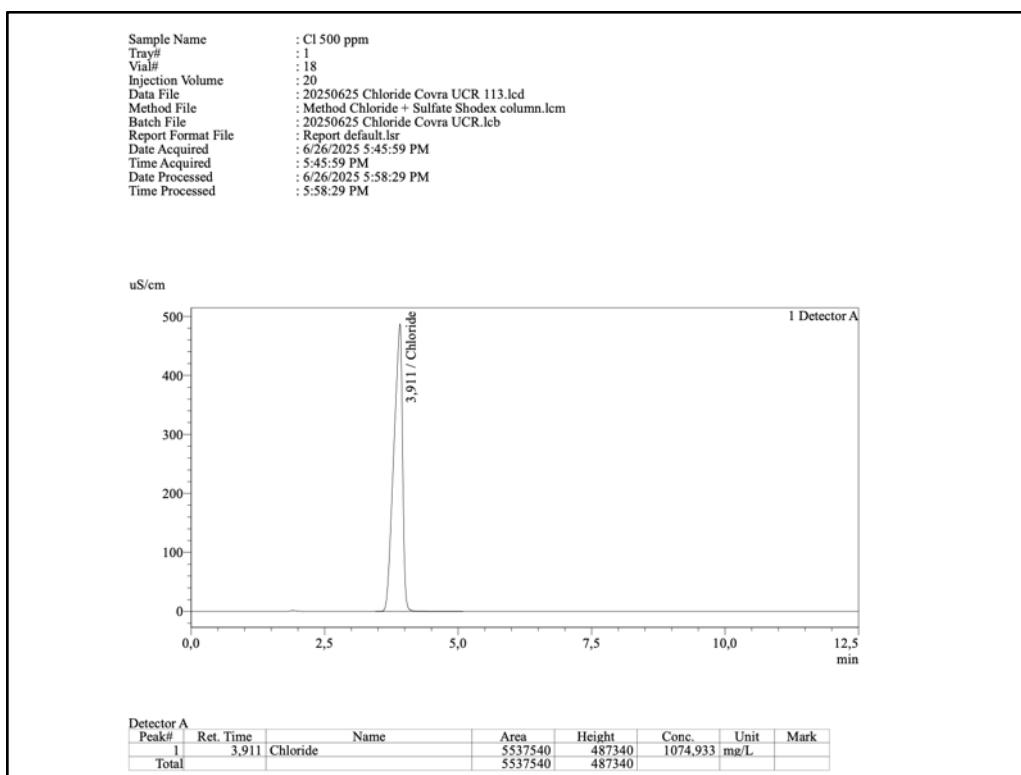
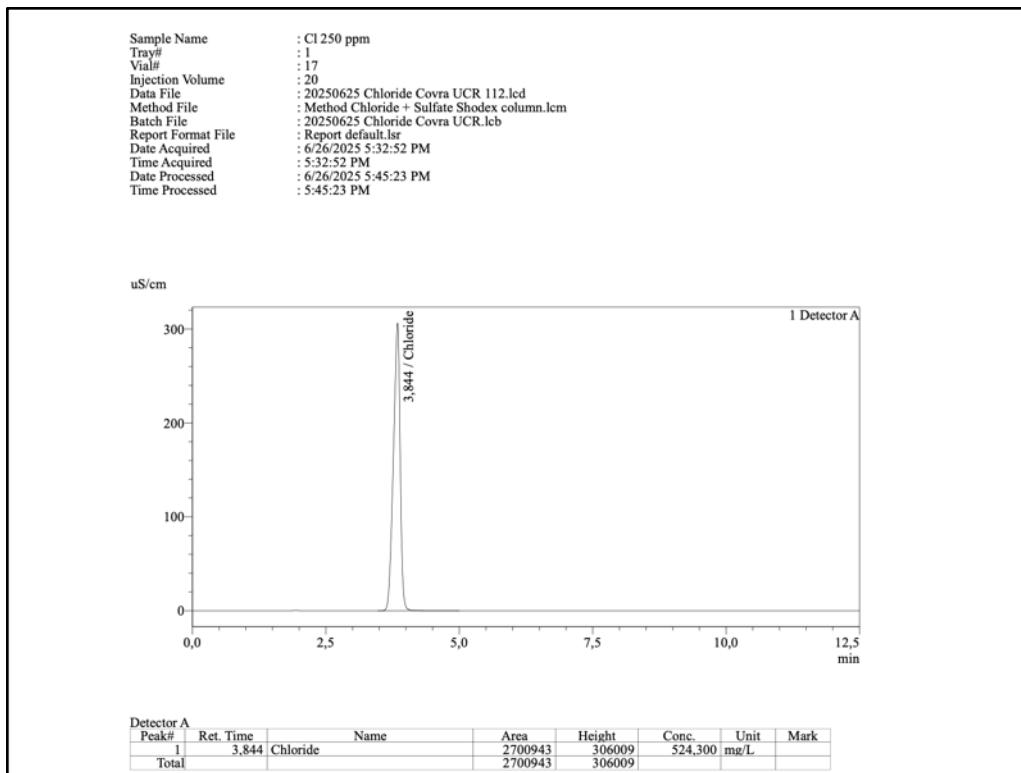
28	53,92-54,89	32,40	7,60	0,23	23,46
29	54,92-55,89	33,50	6,50	0,19	19,40
30	55,91-56,88	34,20	5,80	0,17	16,96
31	56,9-57,89	33,30	6,70	0,20	20,12
32	57,91-58,89	32,50	7,50	0,23	23,08
33	58,91-59,88	33,80	6,20	0,18	18,34
34	59,90-60,74	32,80	7,20	0,22	21,95
35	60,92-61,89	32,60	7,40	0,23	22,70
36	61,90-62,88	32,90	7,10	0,22	21,58
37	62,90-63,88	34,00	6,00	0,18	17,65
38	63,90-64,90	33,10	6,90	0,21	20,85
39	64,91-65,90	33,50	6,50	0,19	19,40
40	65,91-66,90	32,40	7,60	0,23	23,46
41	66,91-67,88	33,80	6,20	0,18	18,34
42	67,90-68,88	31,10	8,90	0,29	28,62
43	68,89-69,89	31,90	8,10	0,25	25,39
44	70,42-71,42	31,10	8,90	0,29	28,62
45	71,45-72,45	31,60	8,40	0,27	26,58
46	72,45-73,44	31,90	8,10	0,25	25,39
47	73,47-74,45	31,40	8,60	0,27	27,39
48	74,47-75,42	31,80	8,20	0,26	25,79
49	75,47-76,34	34,80	5,20	0,15	14,94
50	76,46-77,46	30,40	9,60	0,32	31,58
51	77,97-78,65	35,30	4,70	0,13	13,31
52	78,67-79,59	33,60	6,40	0,19	19,05
53	79,63-80,31	35,00	5,00	0,14	14,29
54	80,32-81,17	33,80	6,20	0,18	18,34
55	81,20-82,04	30,40	9,60	0,32	31,58
56	82,05-82,97	32,50	7,50	0,23	23,08
57	82,99-83,60	32,40	7,60	0,23	23,46
58	83,60-84,53	32,60	7,40	0,23	22,70
59	84,82-85,96	33,90	6,10	0,18	17,99
60	85,99-86,99	33,50	6,50	0,19	19,40
61	86,99-87,81	33,00	7,00	0,21	21,21
62	87,81-88,81	32,90	7,10	0,22	21,58
63	88,87-89,80	32,80	7,20	0,22	21,95
64	89,84-90,84	32,20	7,80	0,24	24,22
65	90,87-91,80	32,50	7,50	0,23	23,08
66	91,87-92,80	32,30	7,70	0,24	23,84

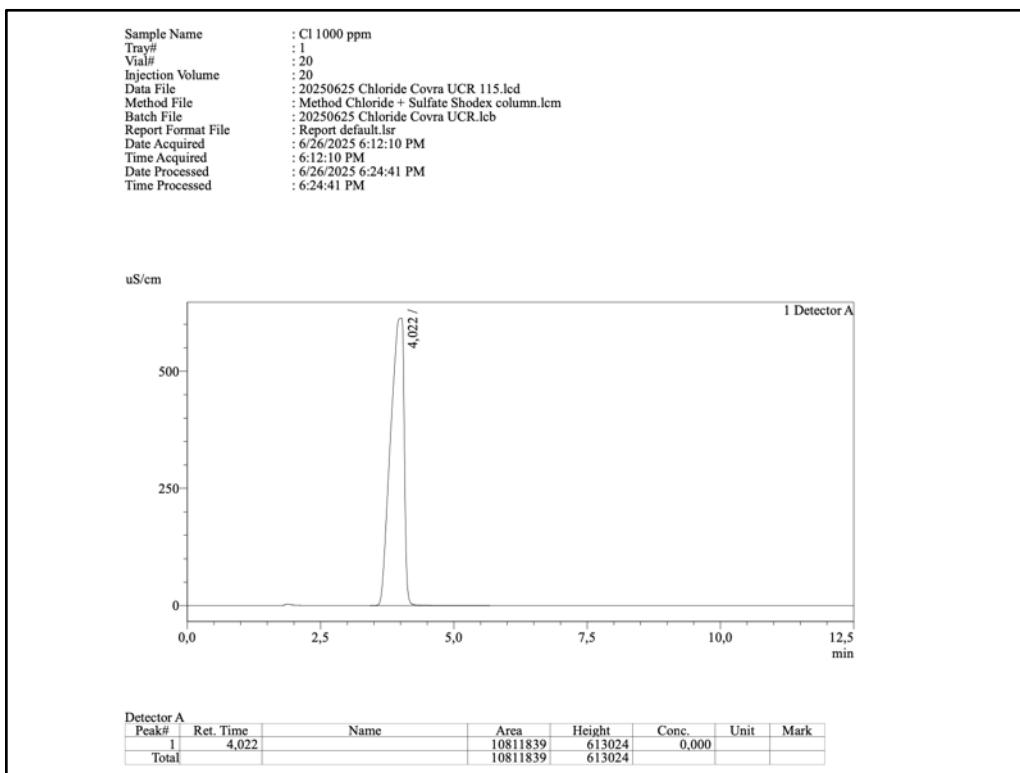
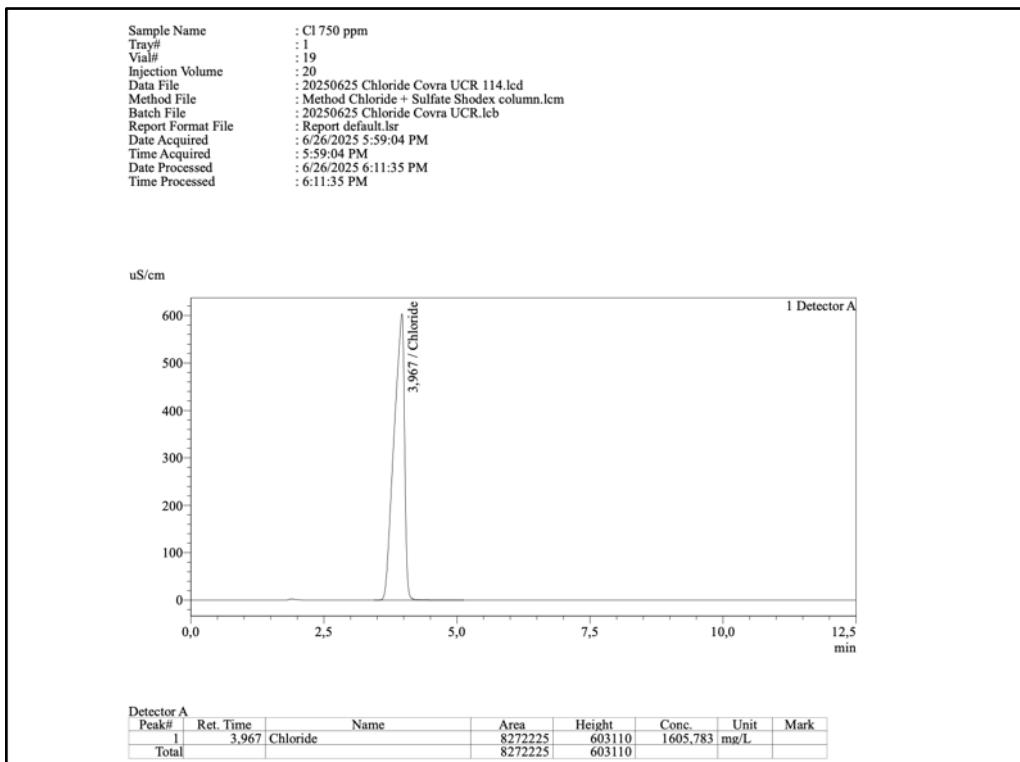
67	92,86-93,78	32,20	7,80	0,24	24,22
68	93,80-94,70	32,10	7,90	0,25	24,61
69	94,72-95,72	29,00	11,00	0,38	37,93
70	96,72-97,29	33,20	6,80	0,20	20,48
71	97,29-98,27	29,50	10,50	0,36	35,59
72	98,30-99,18	31,70	8,30	0,26	26,18
73	99,77-100,23	28,90	11,10	0,38	38,41

Ion Chromatography results

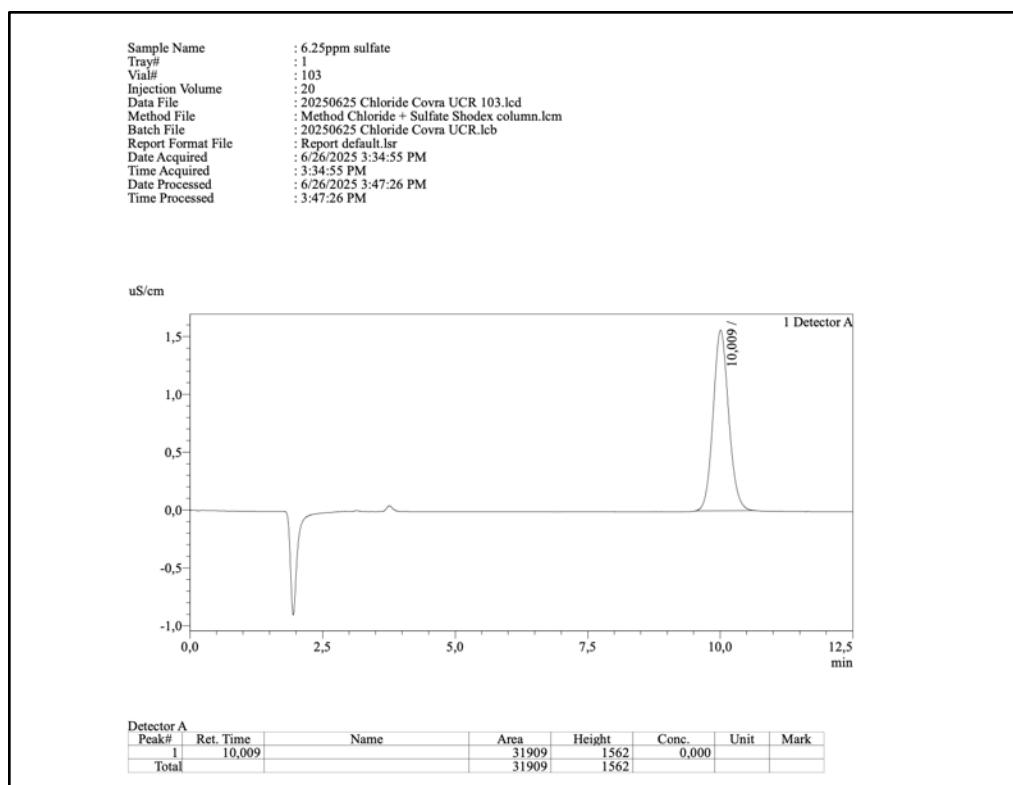
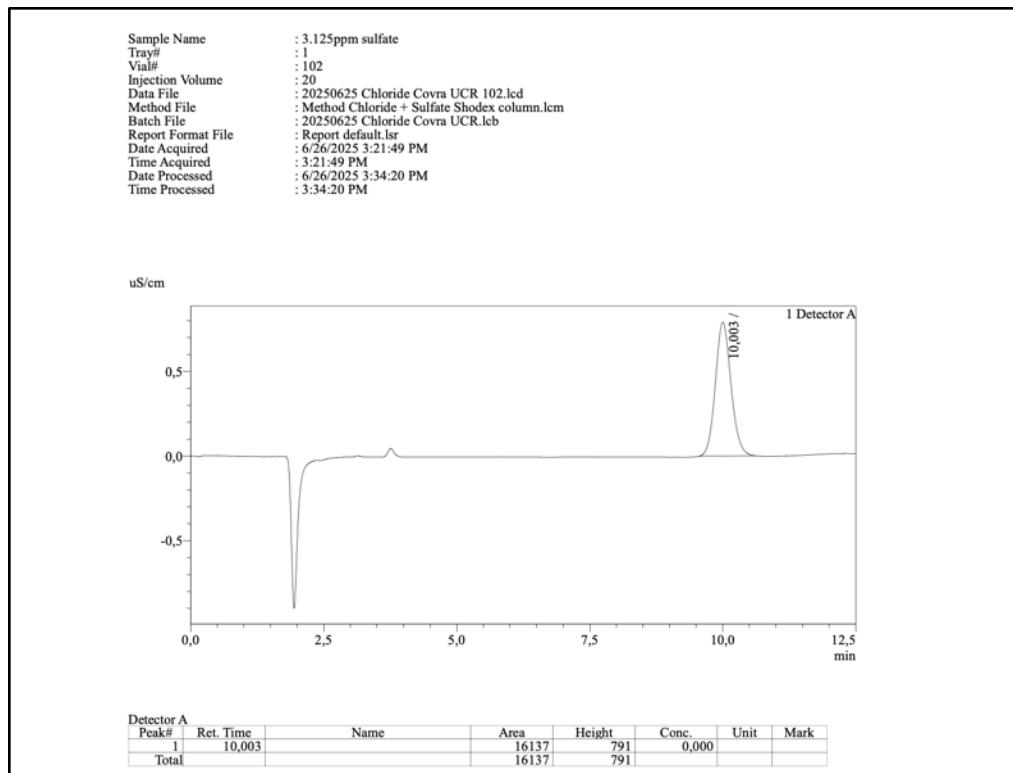
Below are the IC results of the chloride standards:

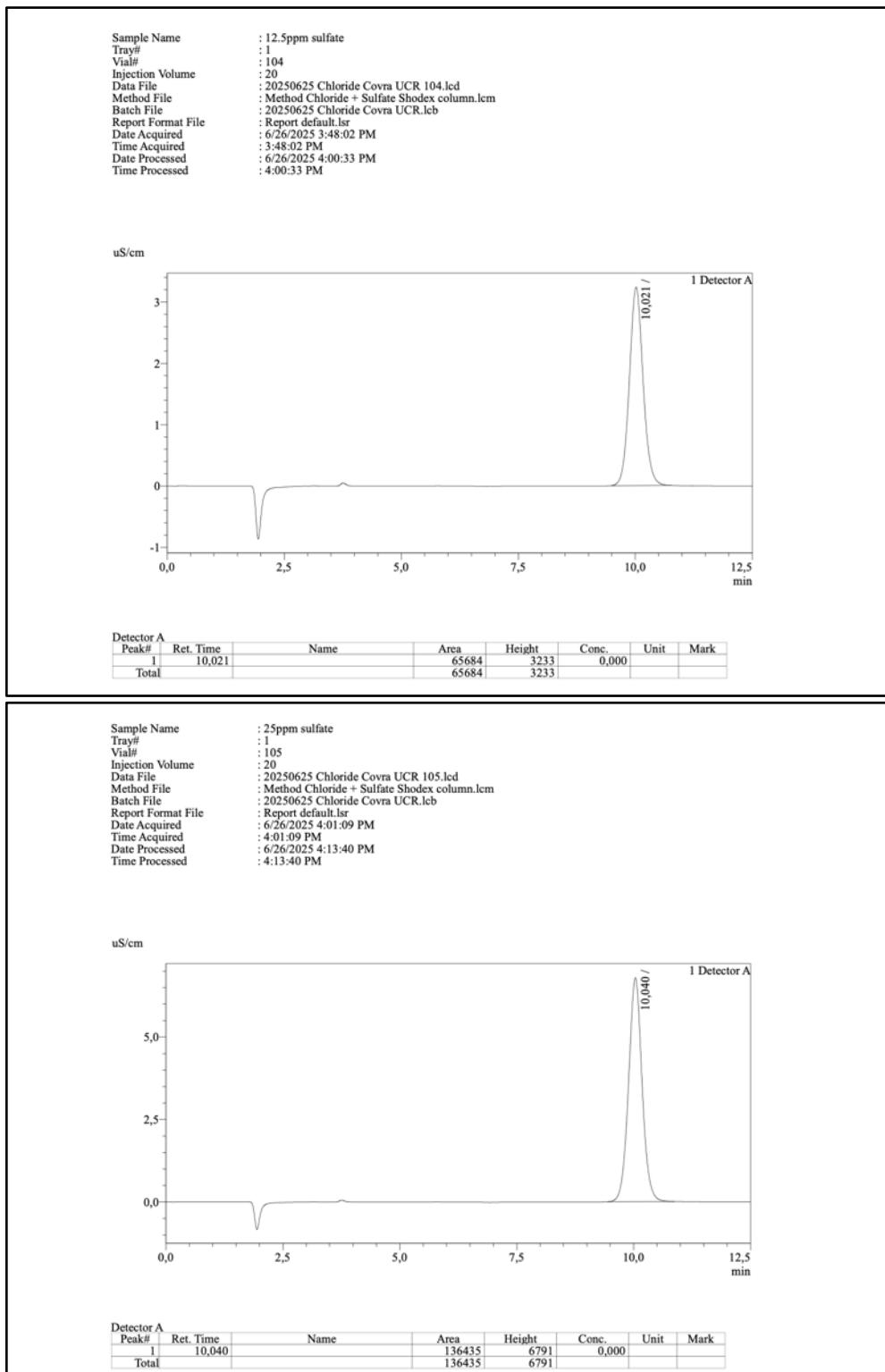




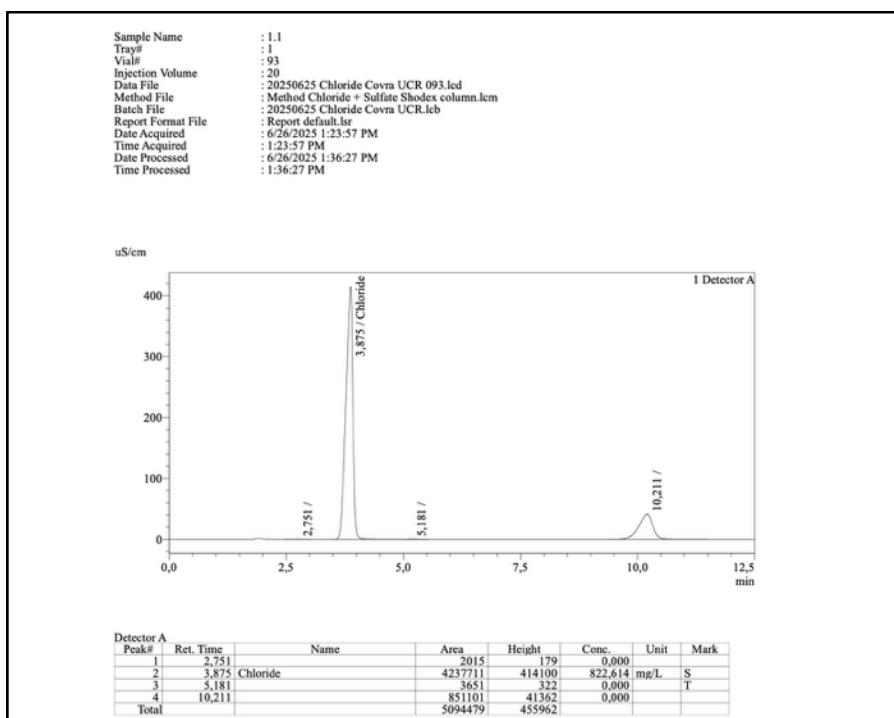
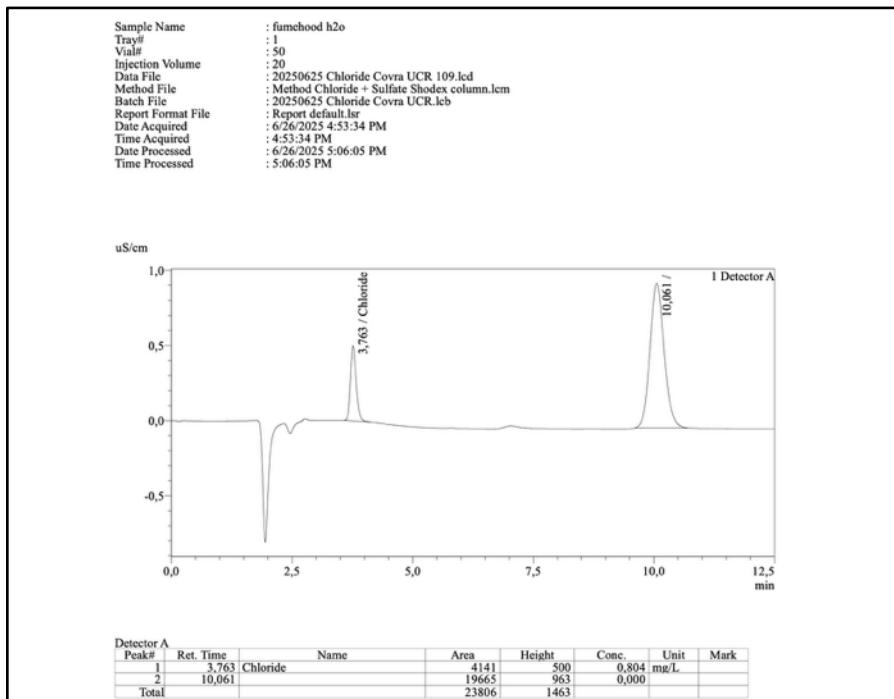


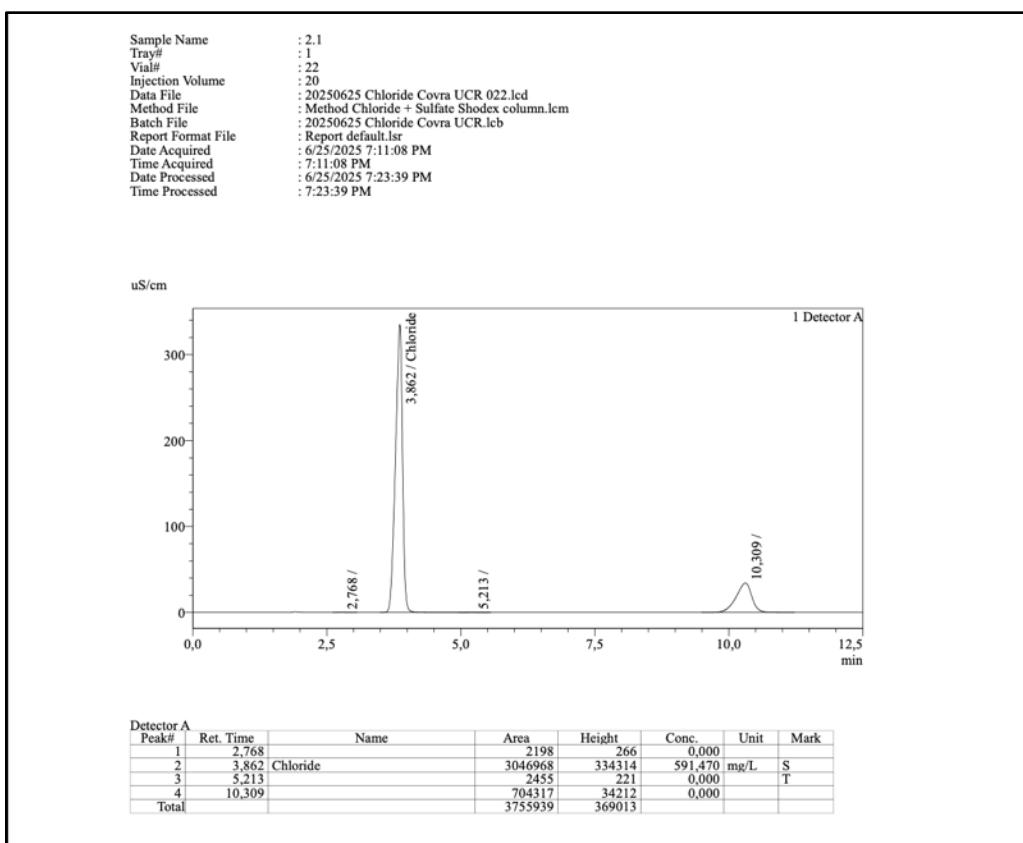
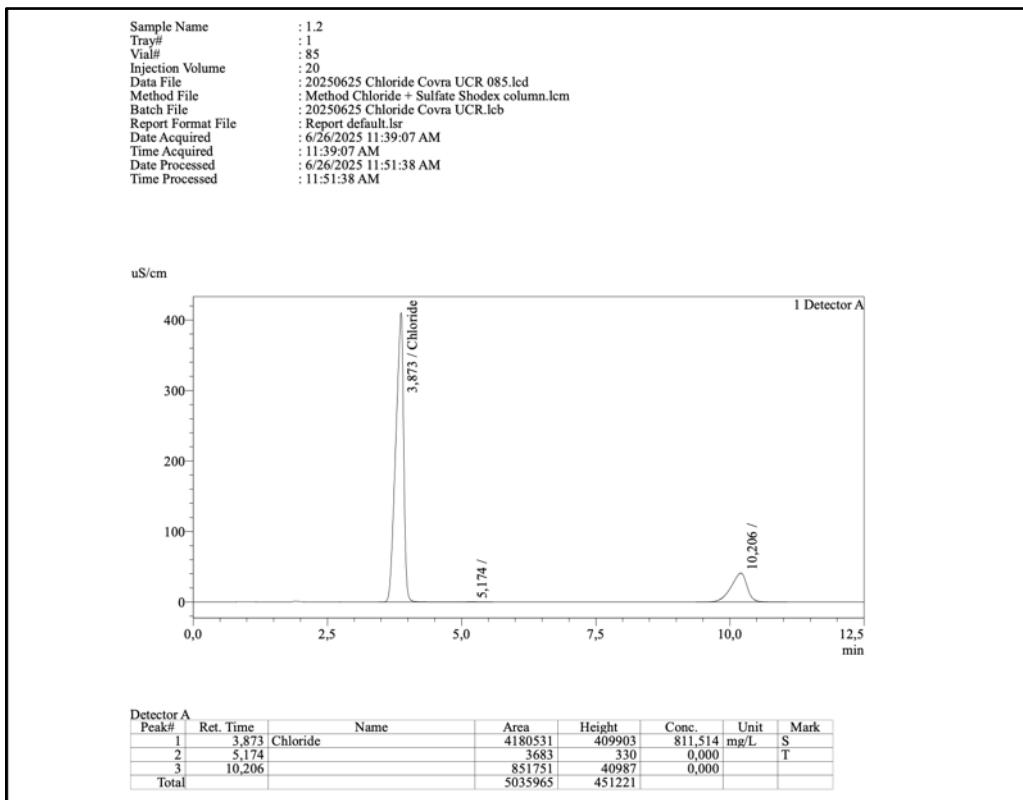
Below are the IC results of the sulfate standards:

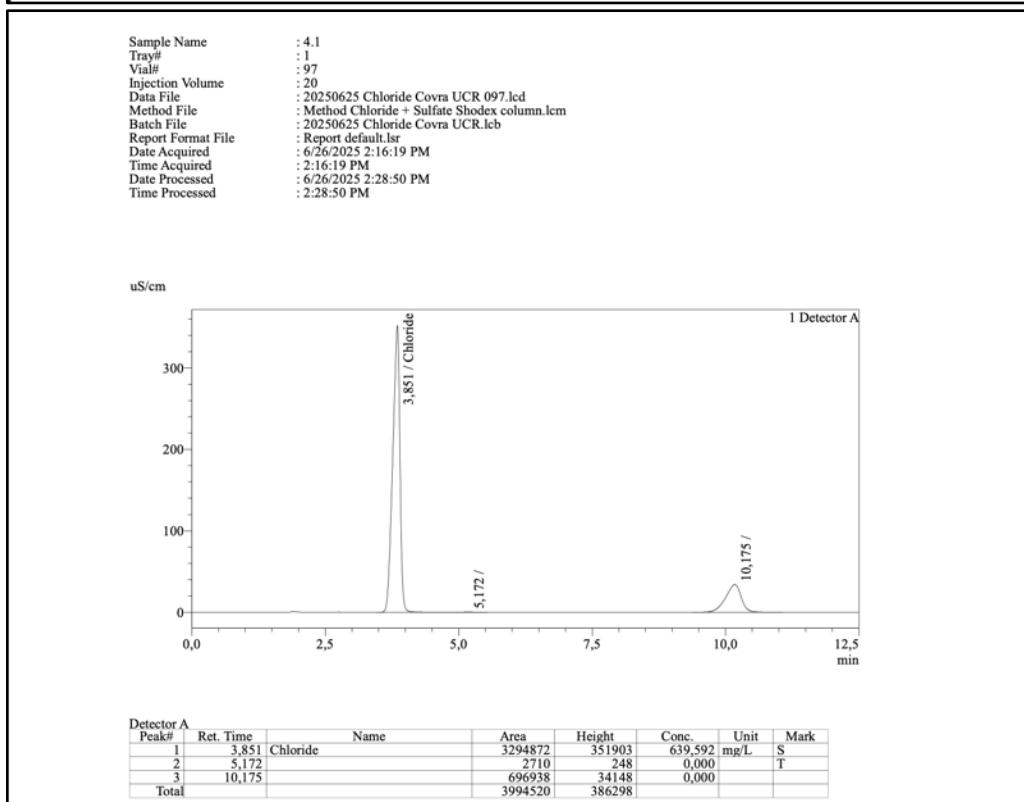
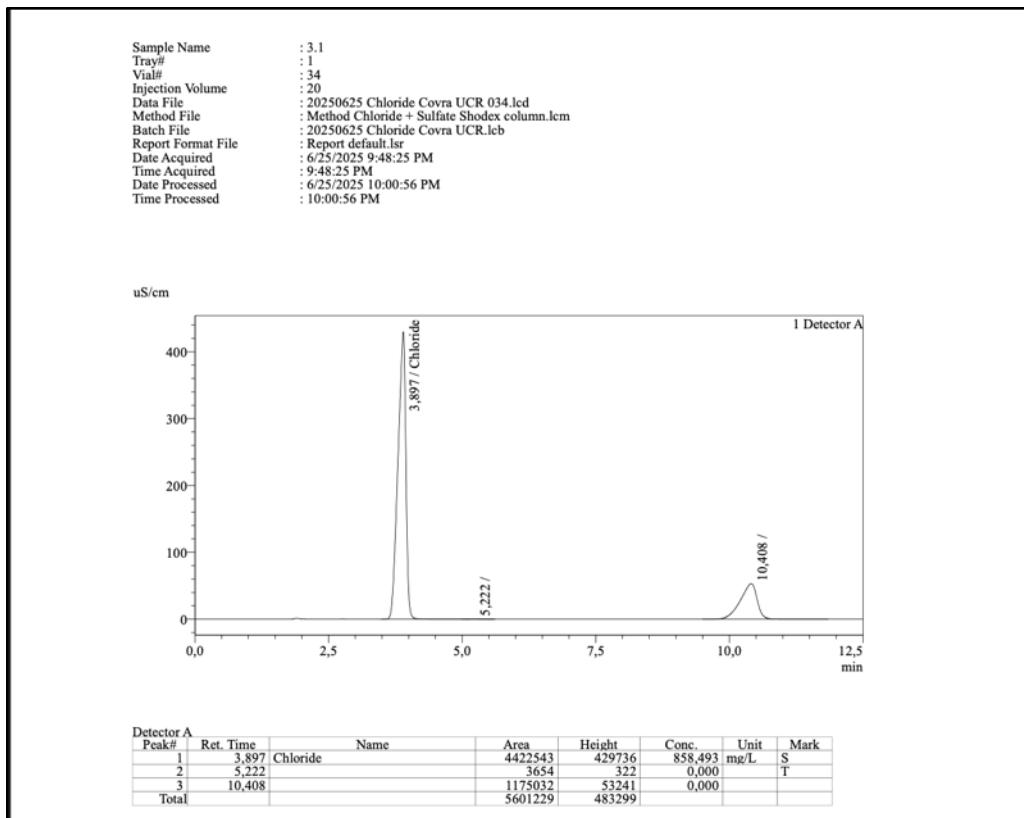


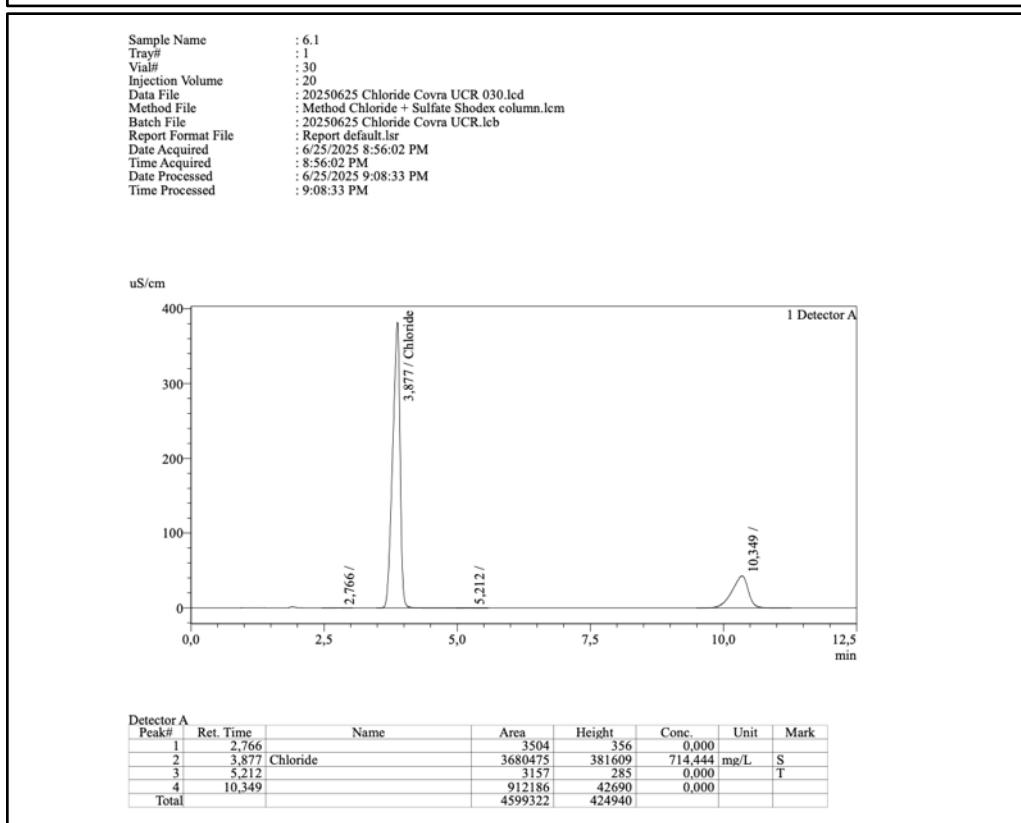
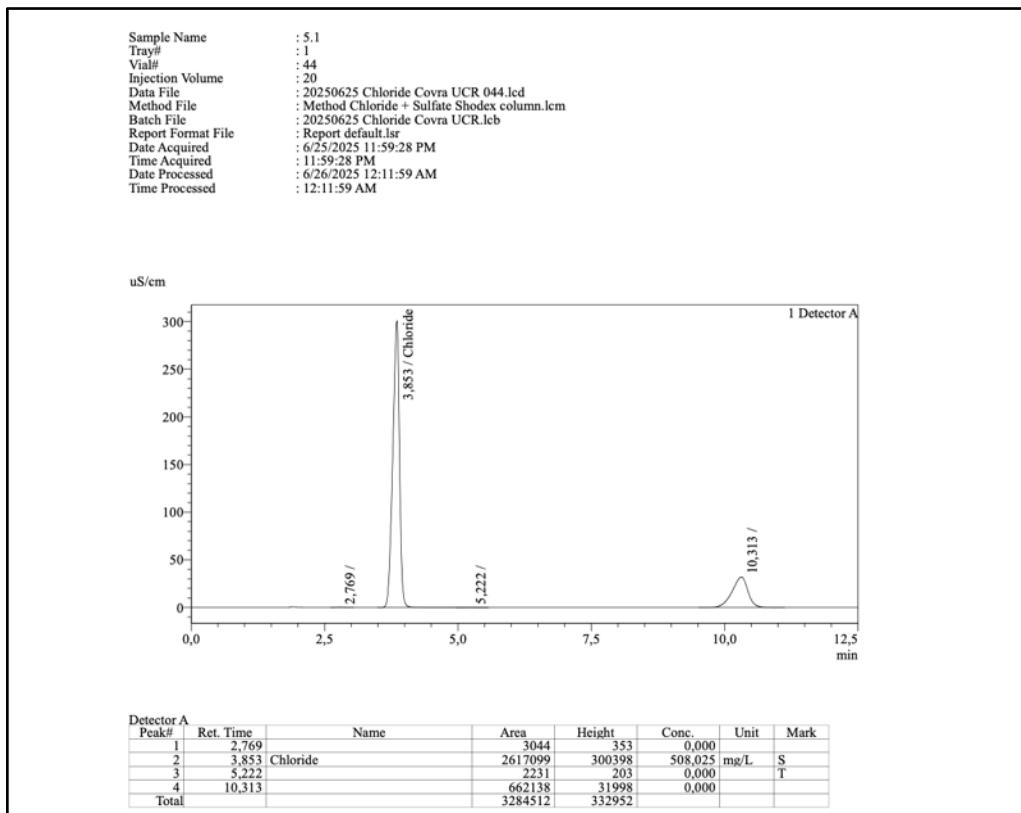


Below is the IC result of the blank, followed by the results of the samples. The samples are labeled with either “.1” or “.2” to indicate replicates, allowing for the calculation of an average when both are present. However, the presence of a “.2” sample does not necessarily mean that the corresponding “.1” sample exists and vice versa.

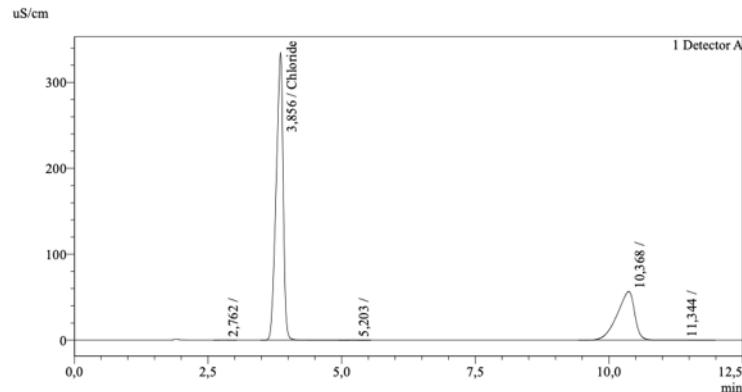






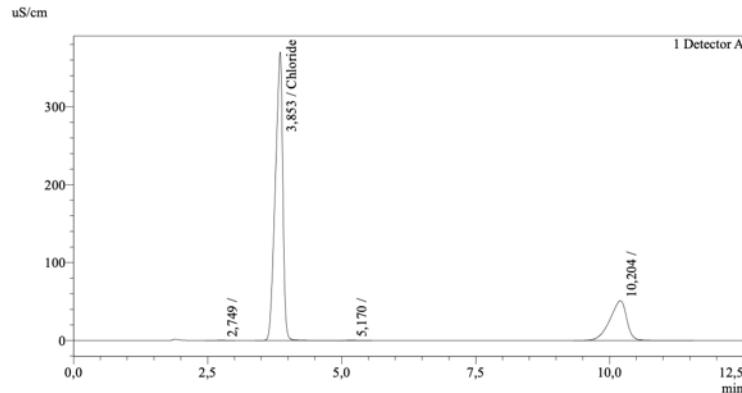


Sample Name : 7.1
 Tray# : 1
 Vial# : 21
 Injection Volume : 20
 Data File : 20250625 Chloride Covra UCR 021.lcd
 Method File : Method Chloride + Sulfate Shodex column.lcm
 Batch File : 20250625 Chloride Covra UCR.lcb
 Report Format File : Report default.lsr
 Date Acquired : 6/25/2025 6:58:03 PM
 Time Acquired : 6:58:03 PM
 Date Processed : 6/25/2025 7:10:33 PM
 Time Processed : 7:10:33 PM

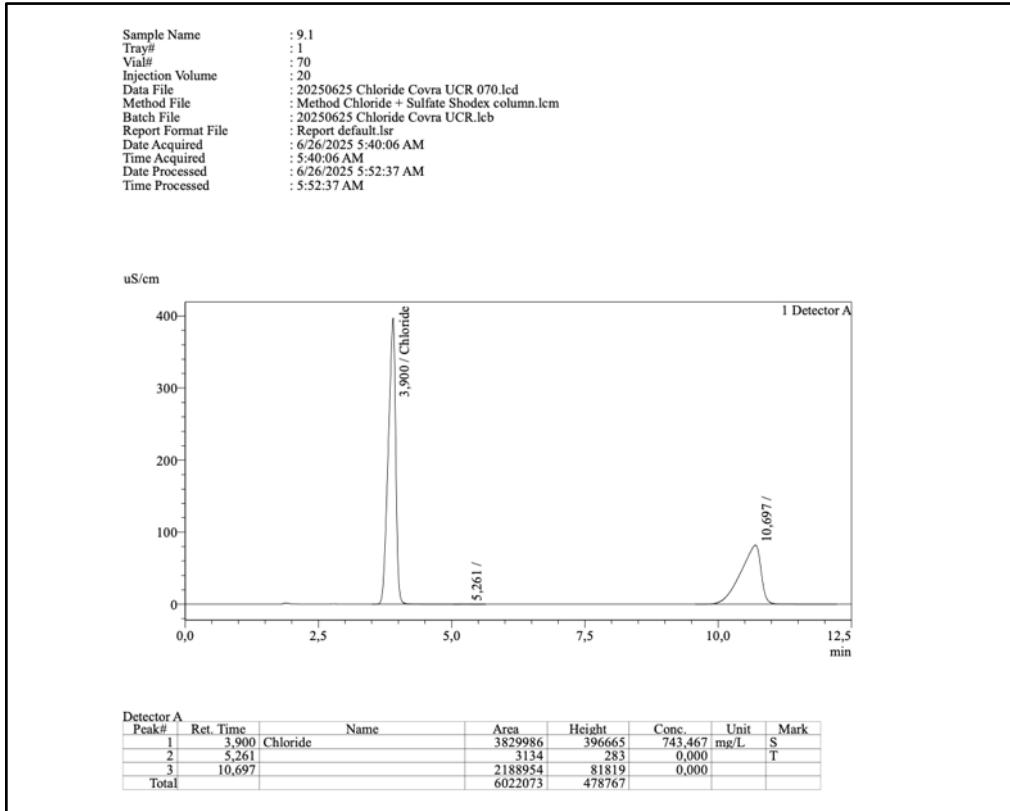
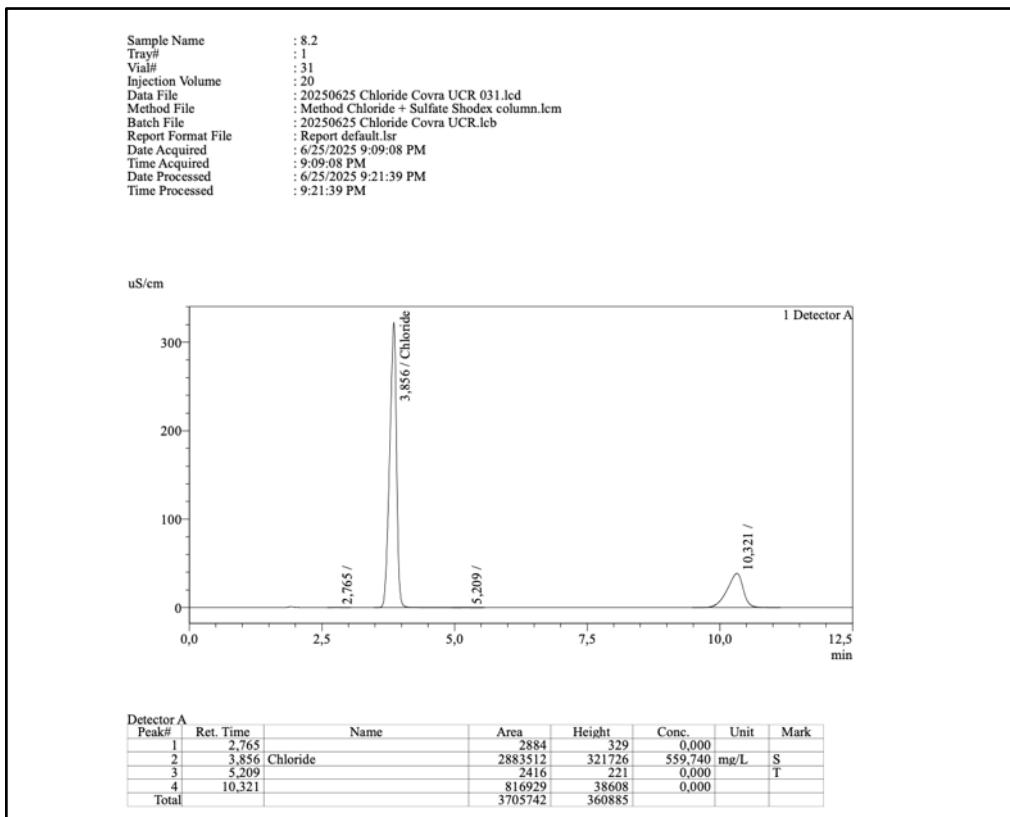


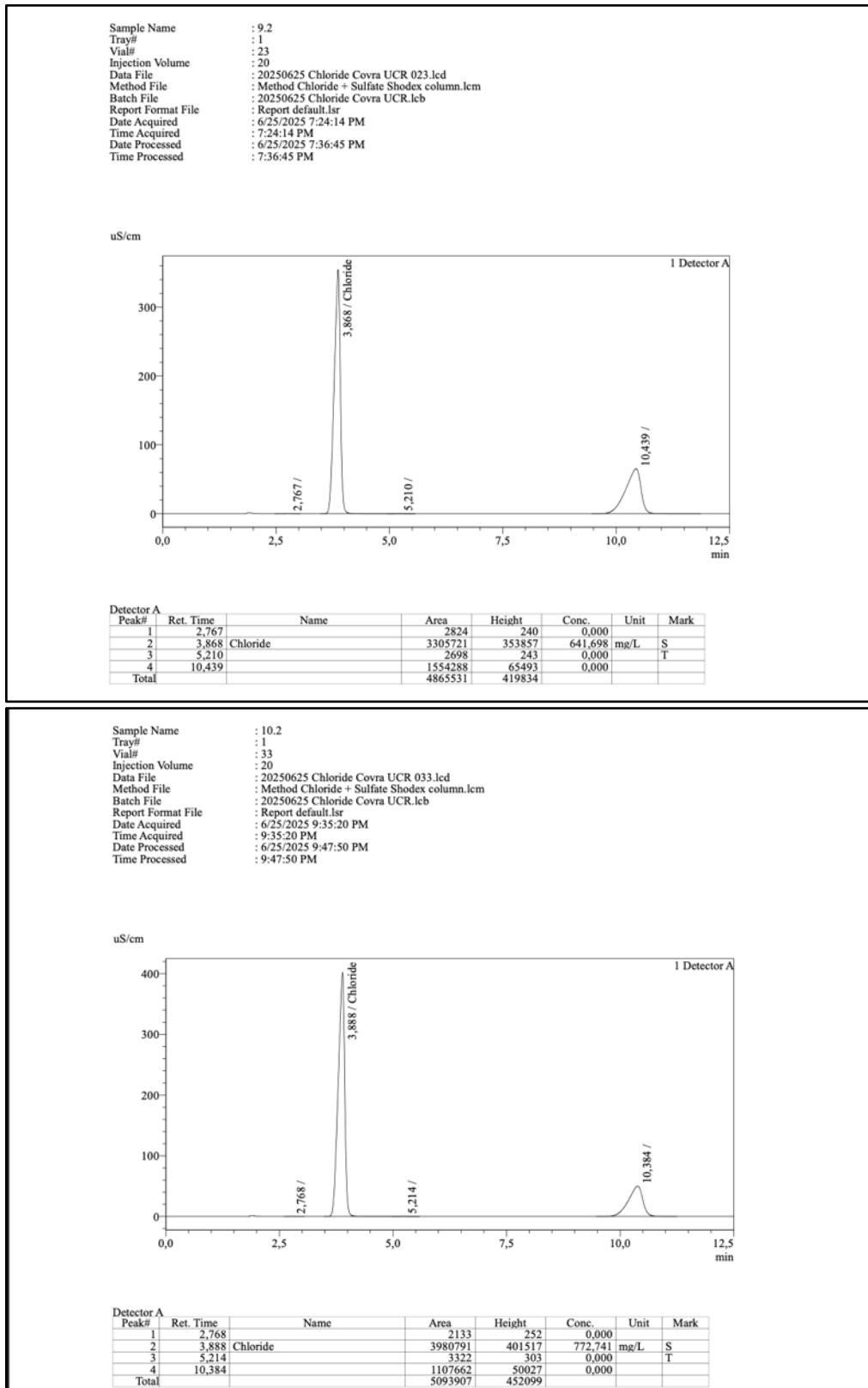
Detector A	Peak#	Ret. Time	Name	Area	Height	Conc.	Unit	Mark
	1	2,762		2882	330	0,000		
	2	3,856	Chloride	3039179	333987	589,958	mg/L	S
	3	5,203		2507	230	0,000		T
	4	10,368		1296149	56543	0,000		
	5	11,344		2987	113	0,000		V
	Total			4343705	391203			

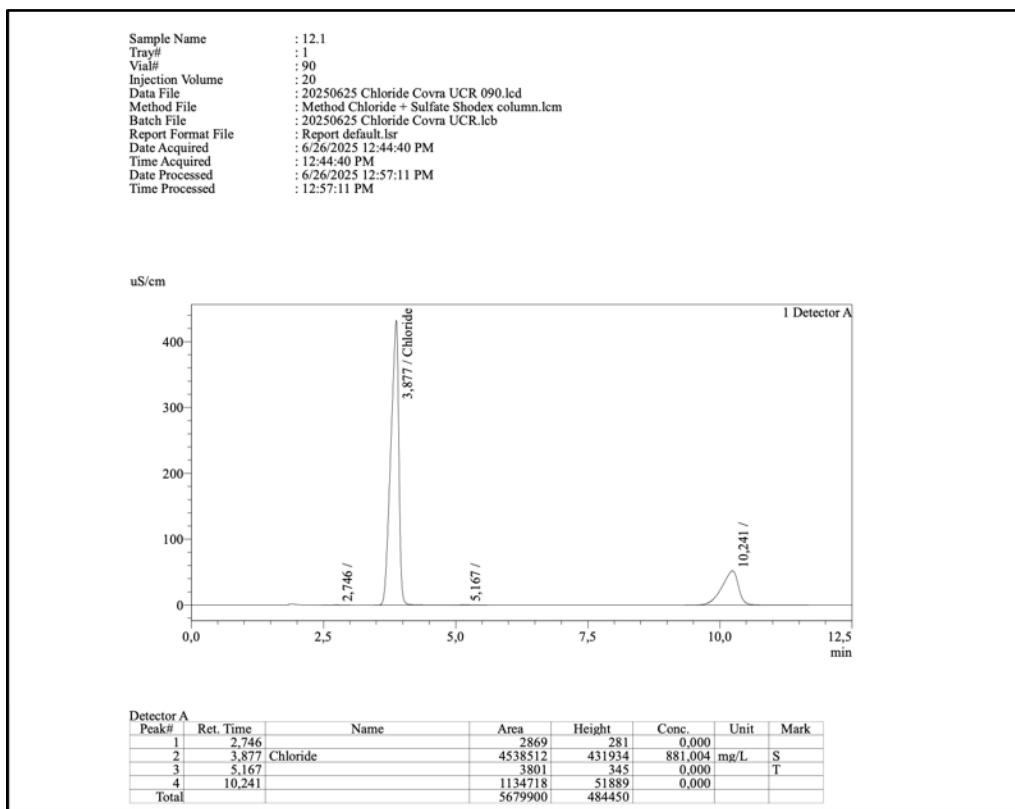
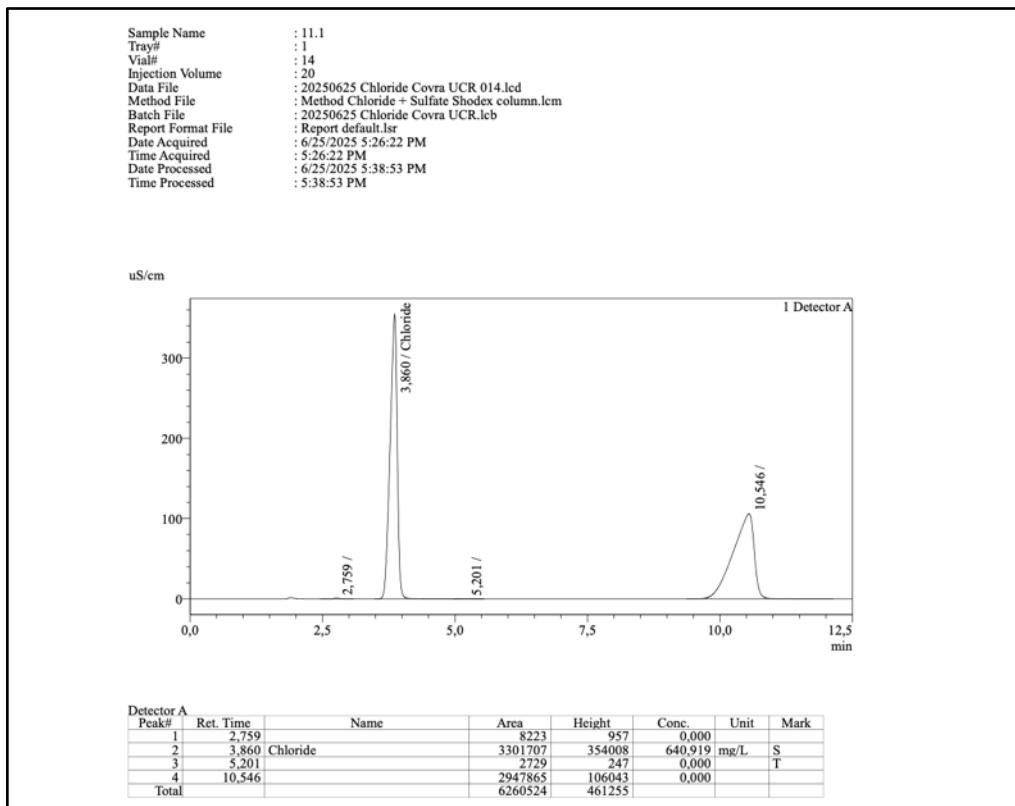
Sample Name : 8.1
 Tray# : 1
 Vial# : 82
 Injection Volume : 20
 Data File : 20250625 Chloride Covra UCR 082.lcd
 Method File : Method Chloride + Sulfate Shodex column.lcm
 Batch File : 20250625 Chloride Covra UCR.lcb
 Report Format File : Report default.lsr
 Date Acquired : 6/26/2025 10:59:50 AM
 Time Acquired : 10:59:50 AM
 Date Processed : 6/26/2025 11:12:20 AM
 Time Processed : 11:12:20 AM

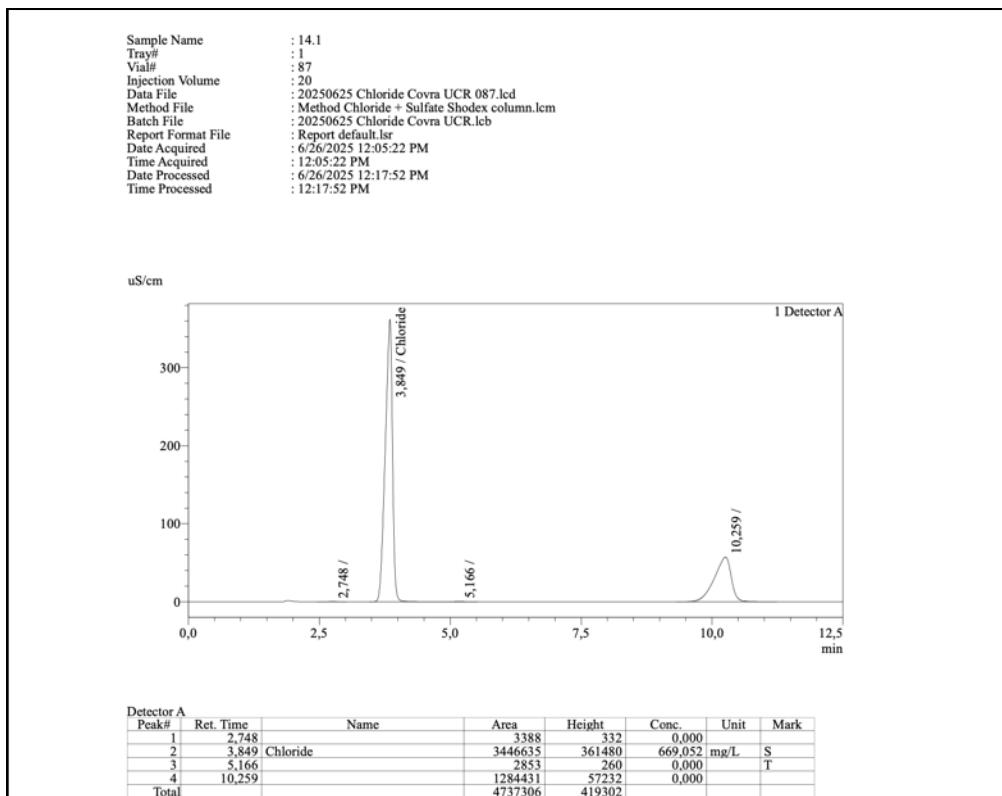
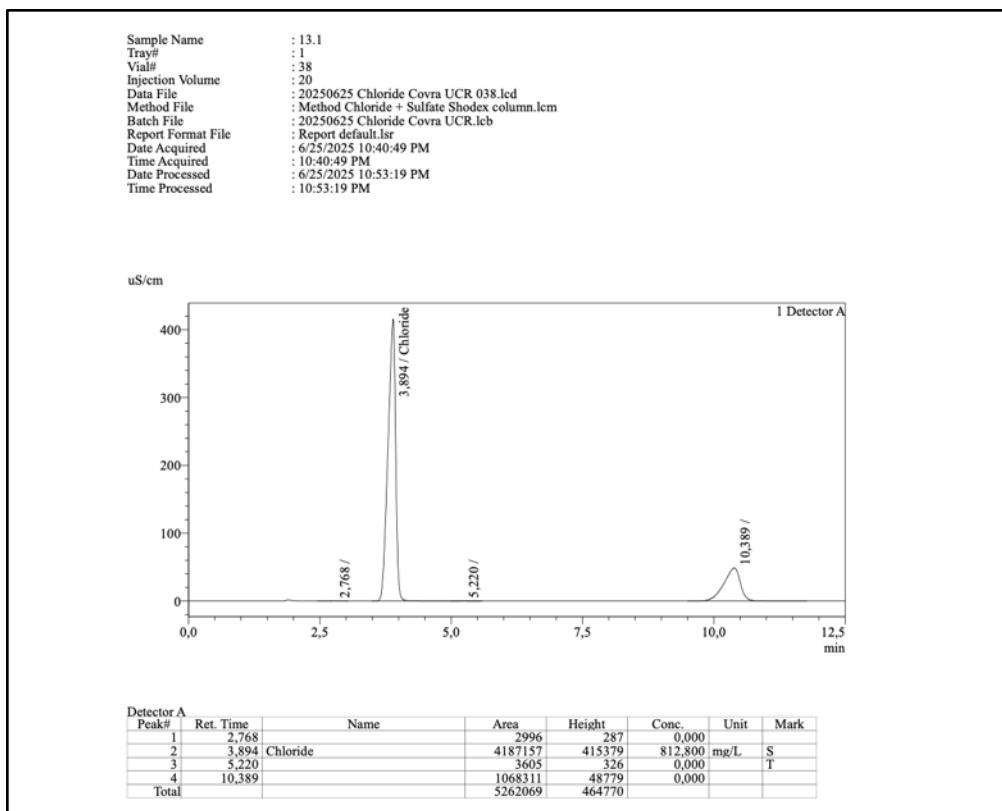


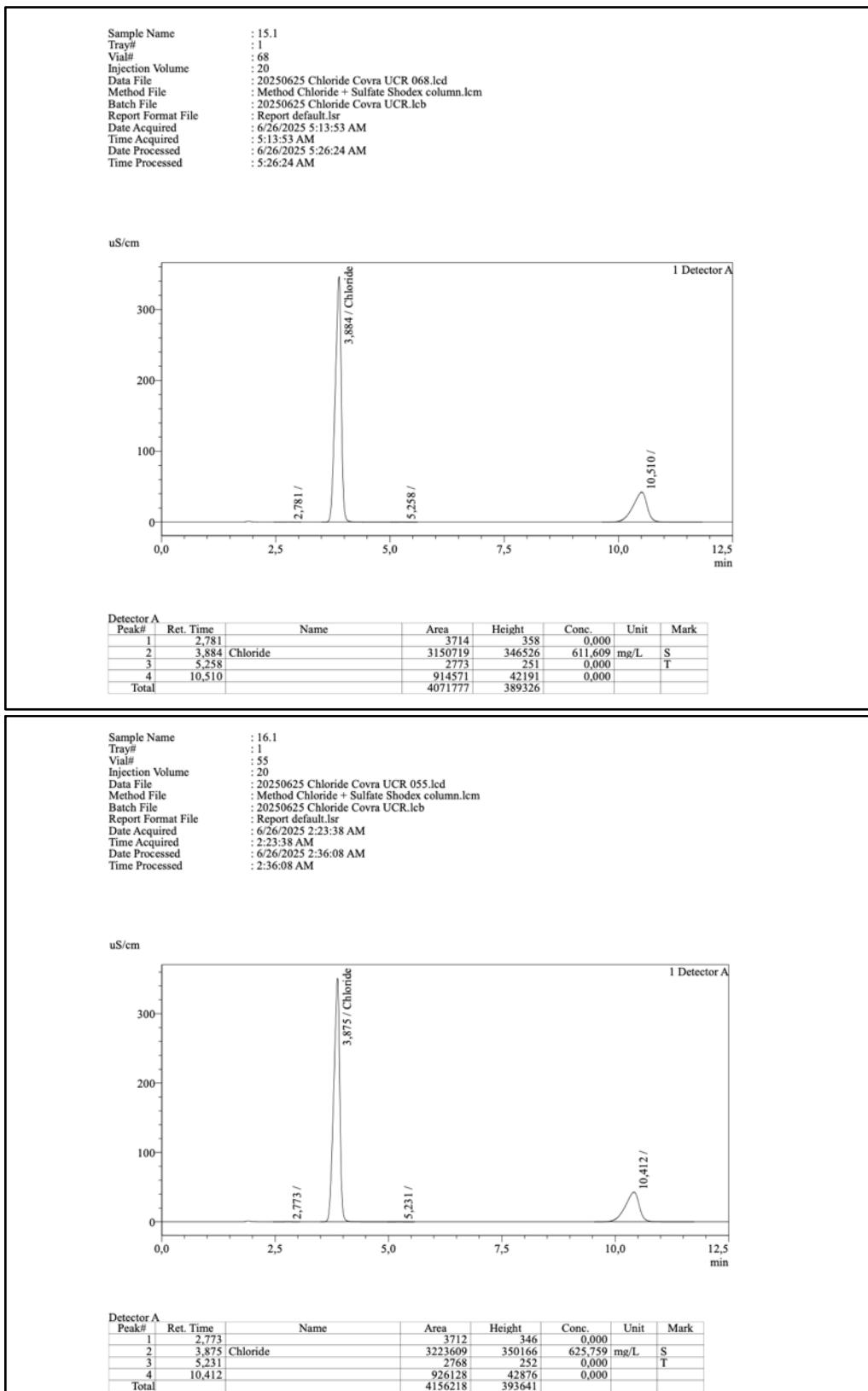
Detector A	Peak#	Ret. Time	Name	Area	Height	Conc.	Unit	Mark
	1	2,749		3508	329	0,000		
	2	3,853	Chloride	3578504	369848	694,650	mg/L	SV
	3	5,170		2987	269	0,000		T
	4	10,204		1113593	51182	0,000		
	Total			4698592	421628			

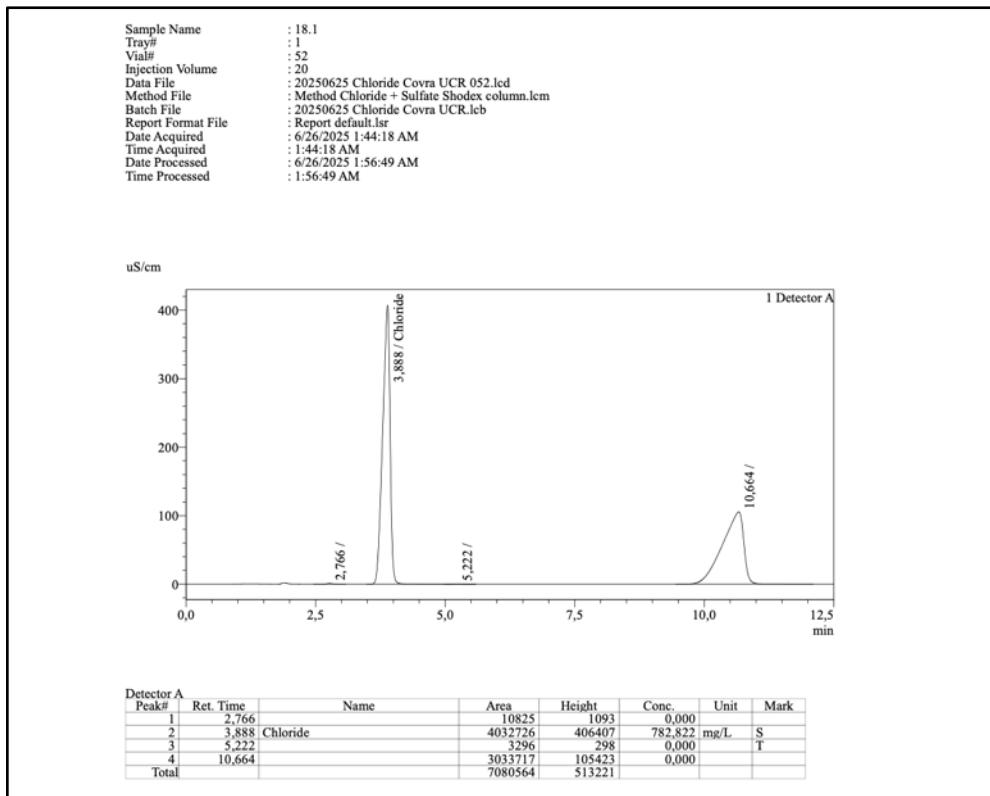
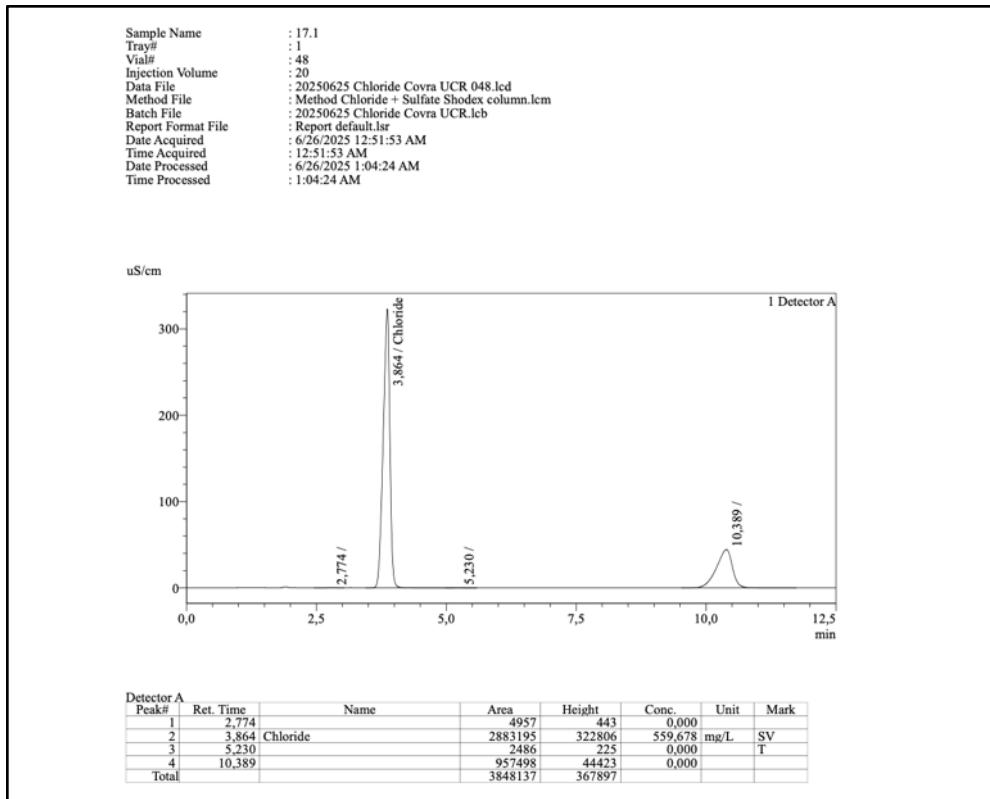


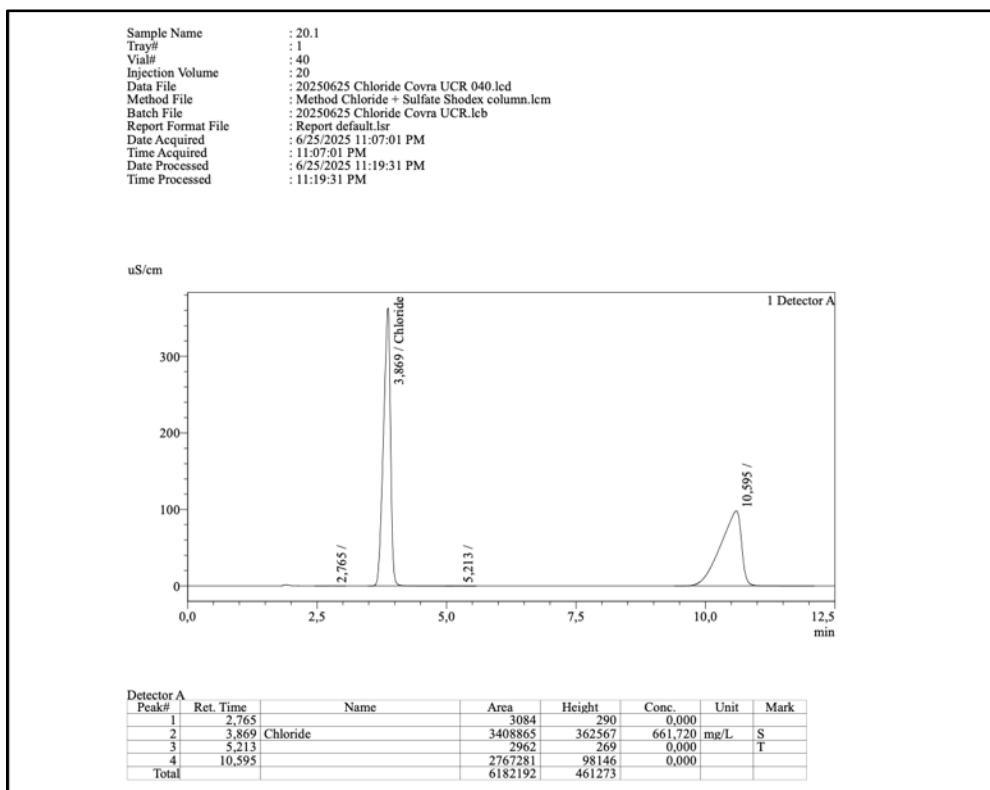
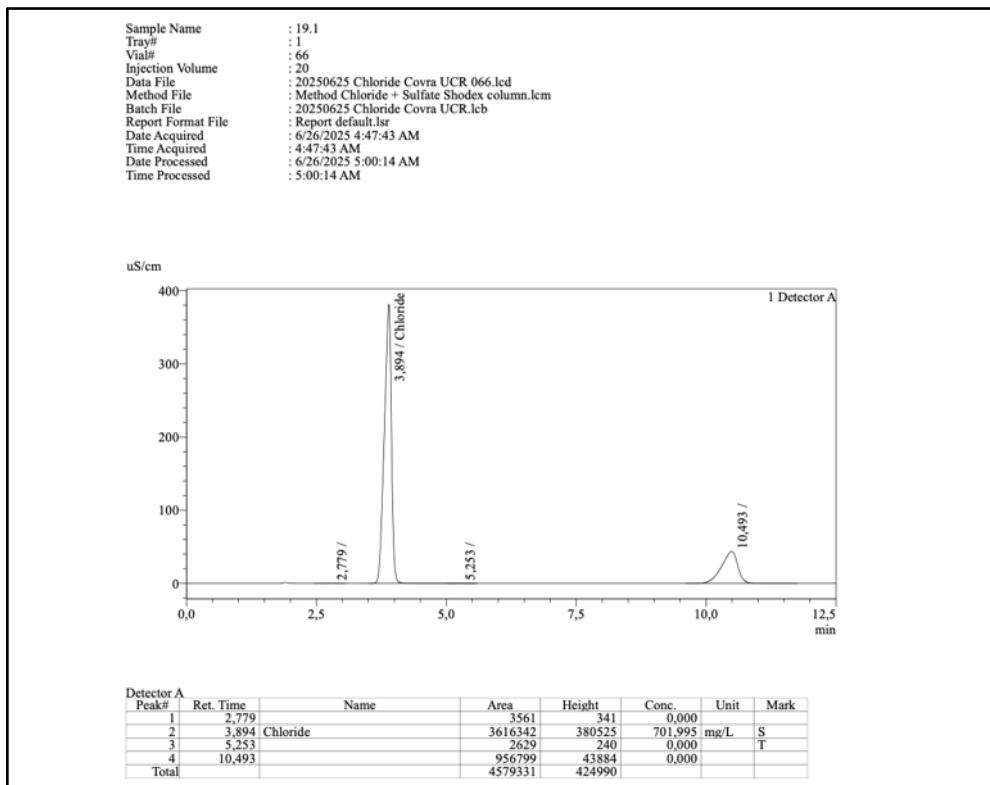


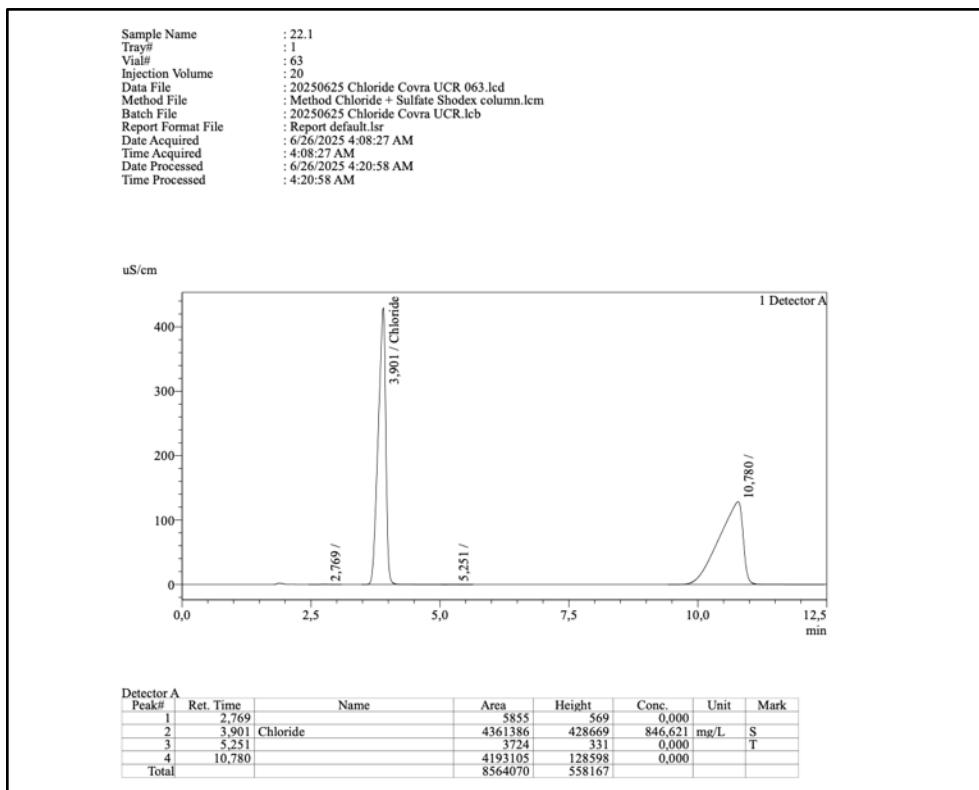
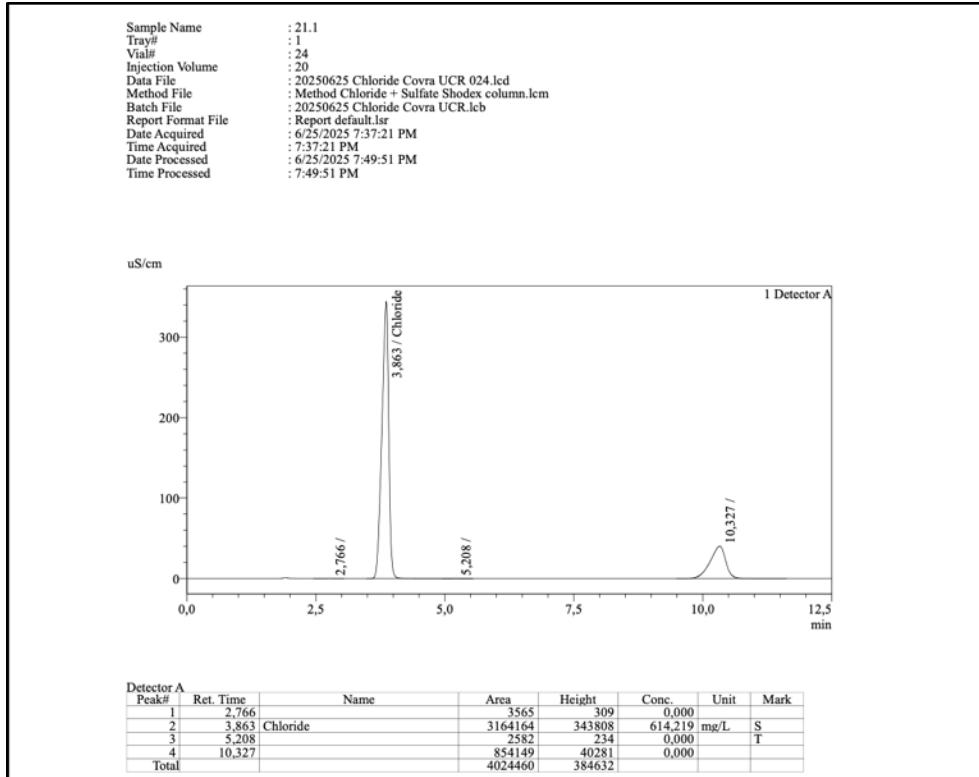


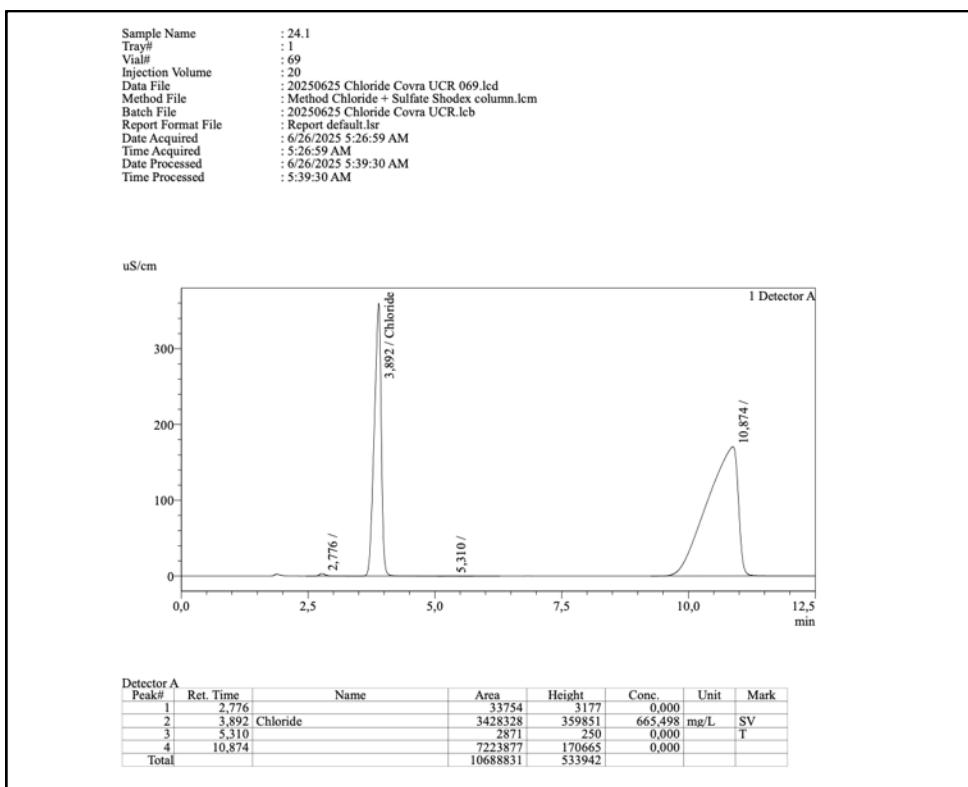
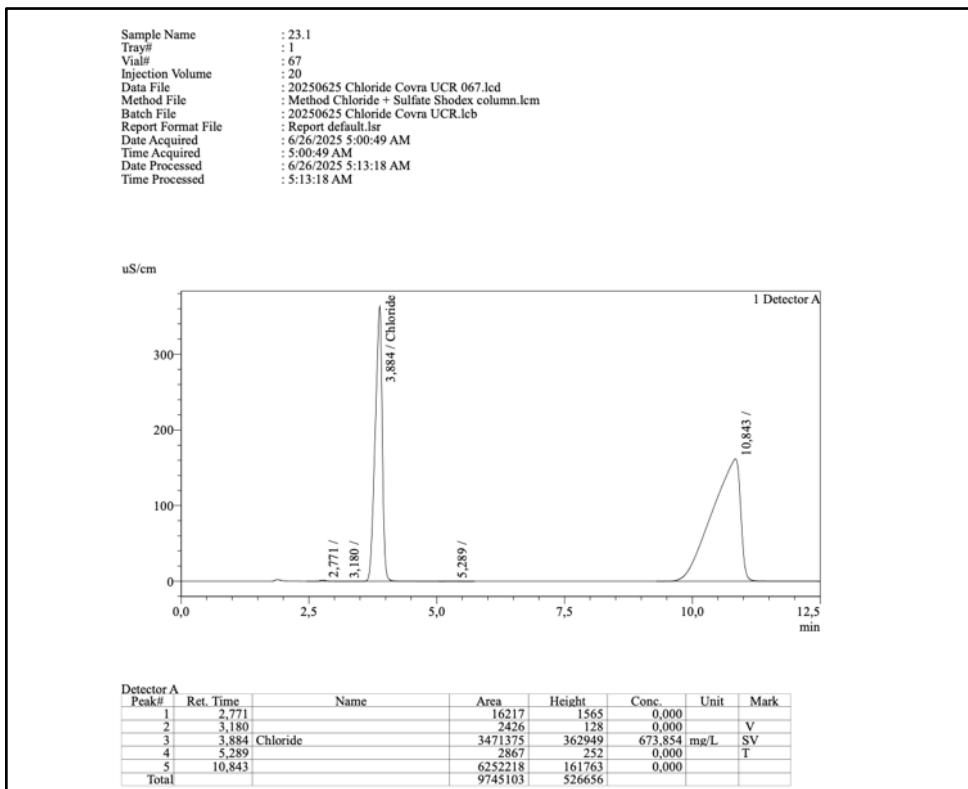


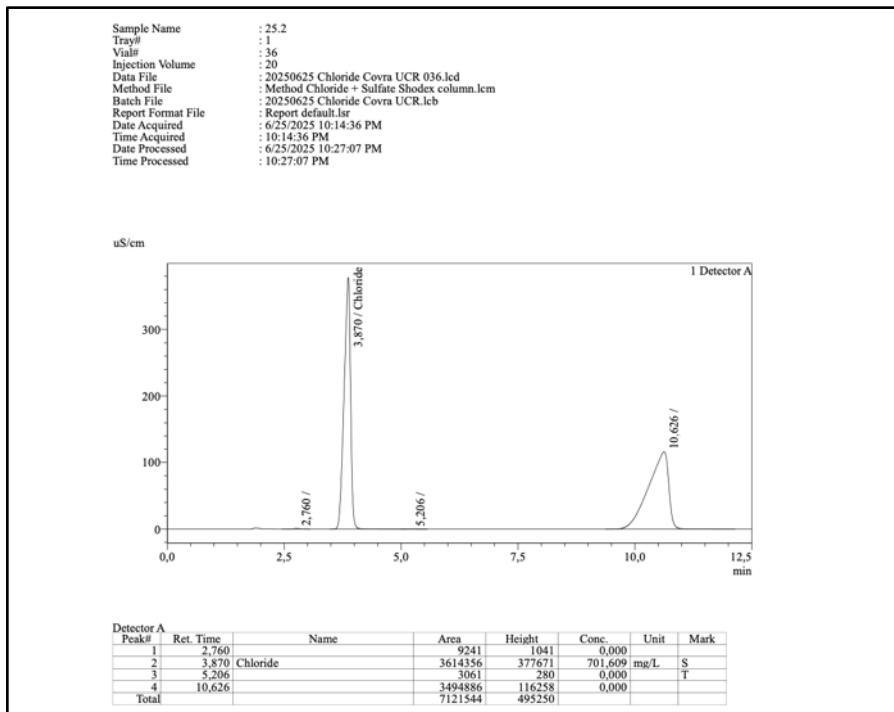
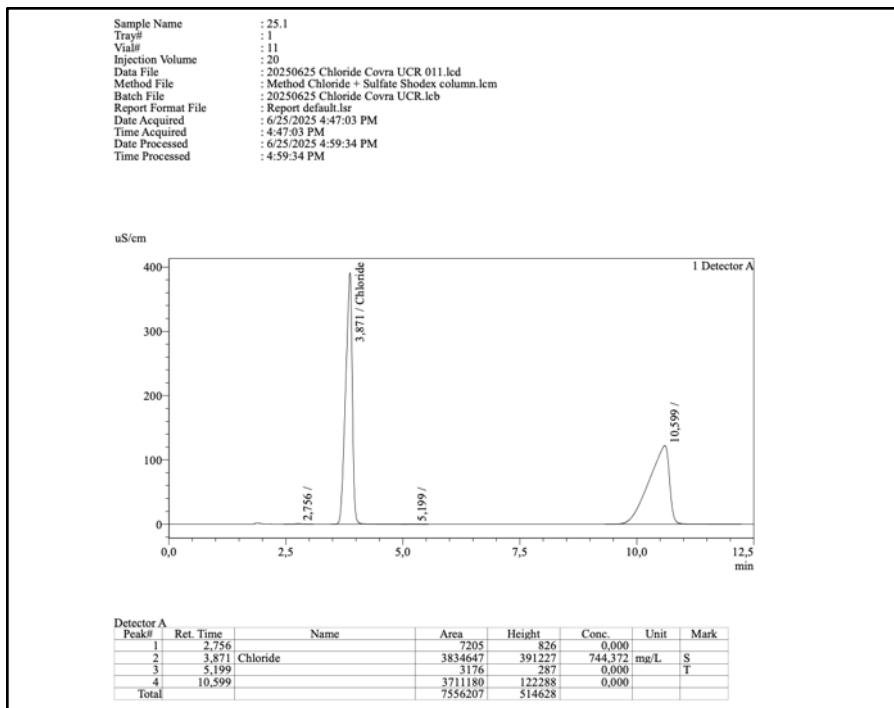


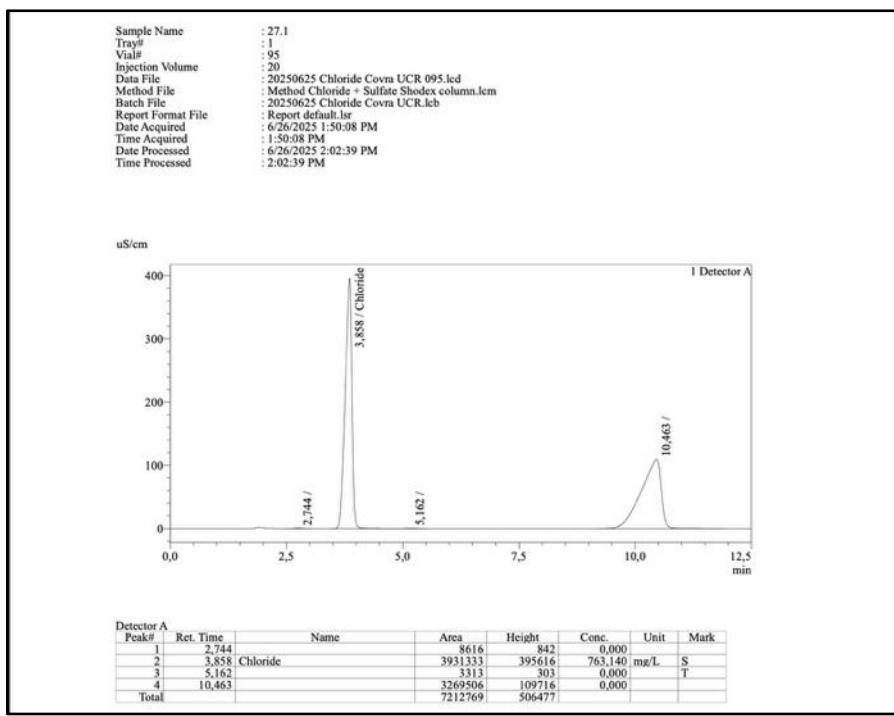
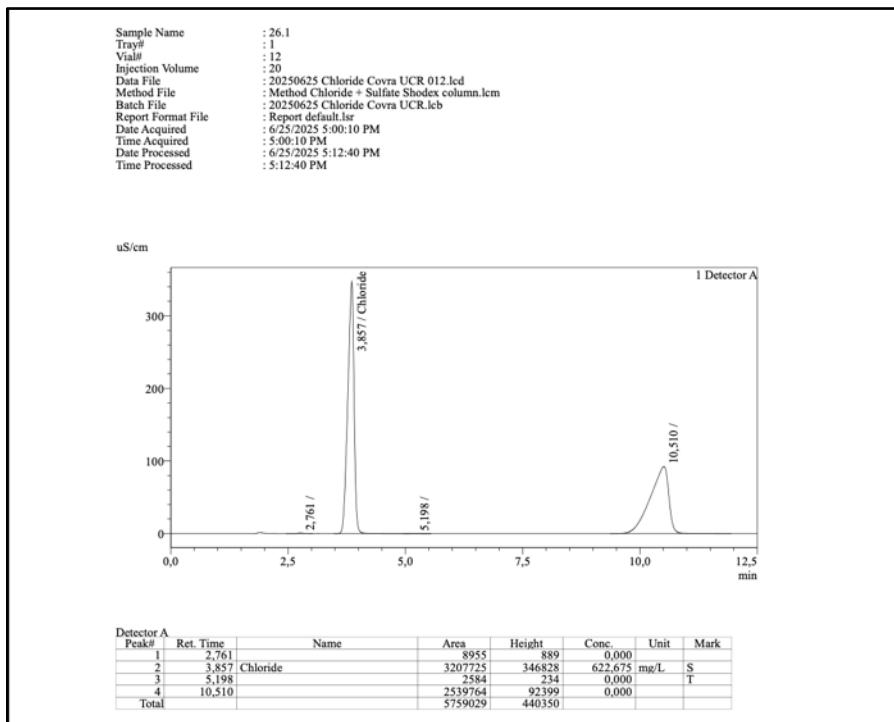


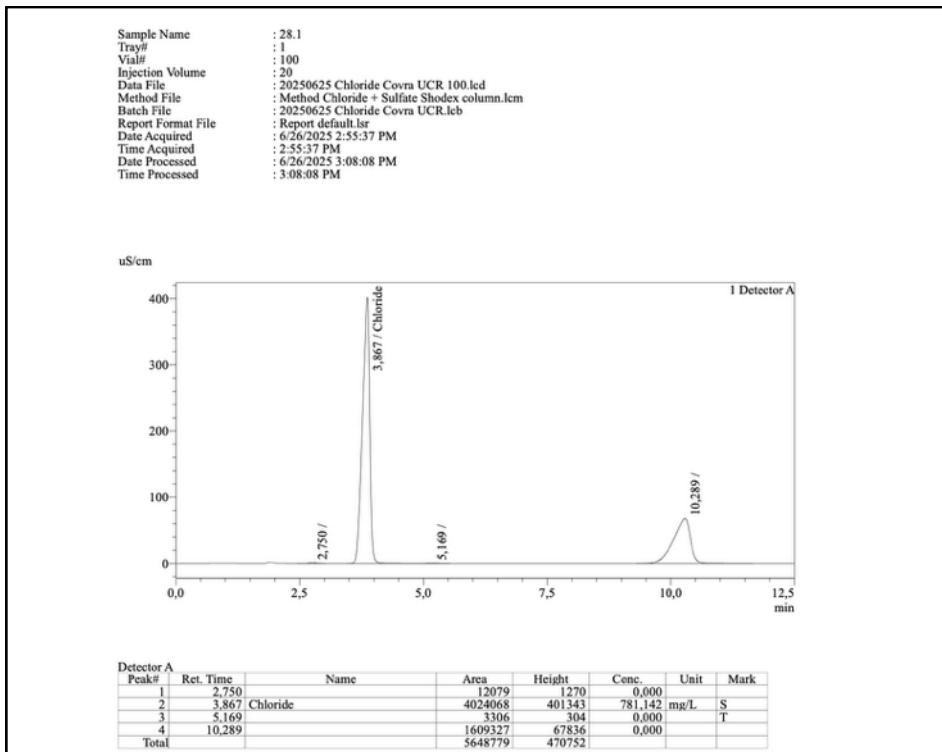
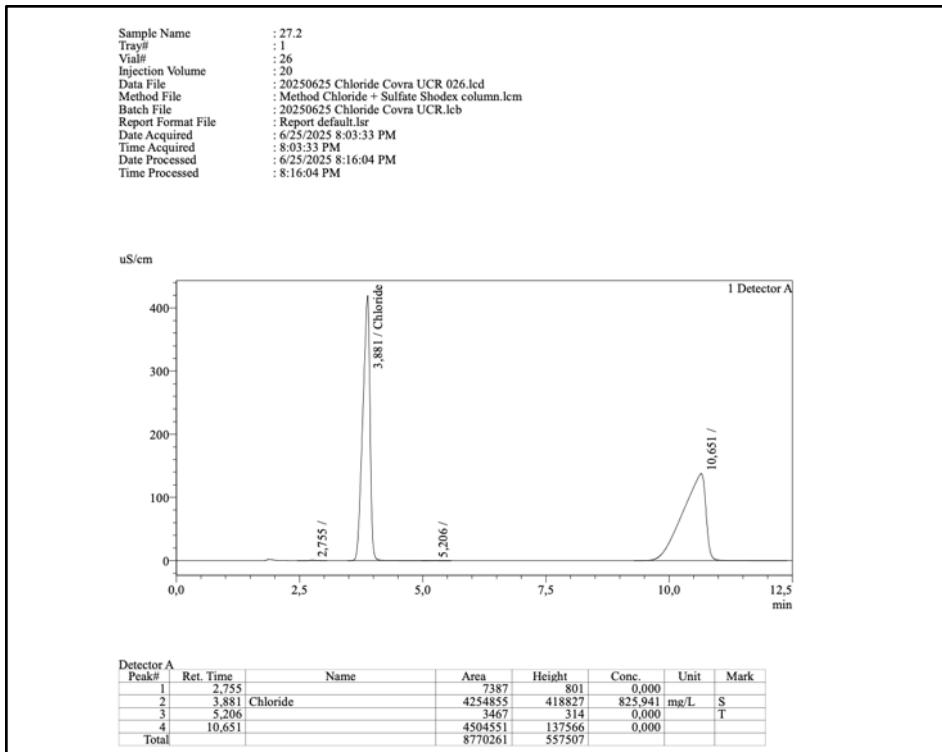


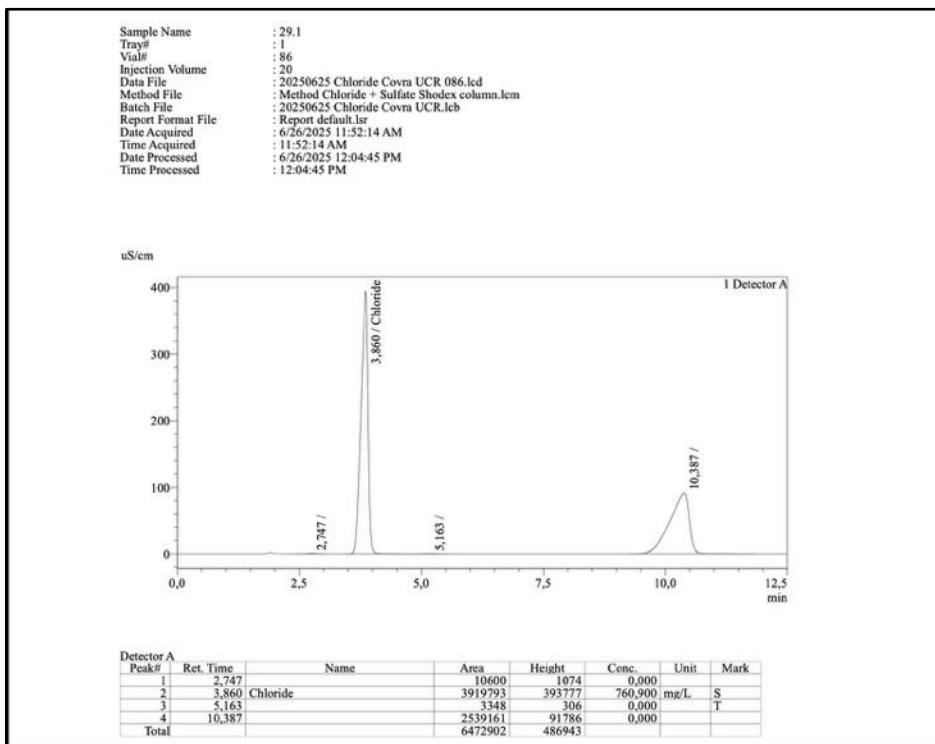
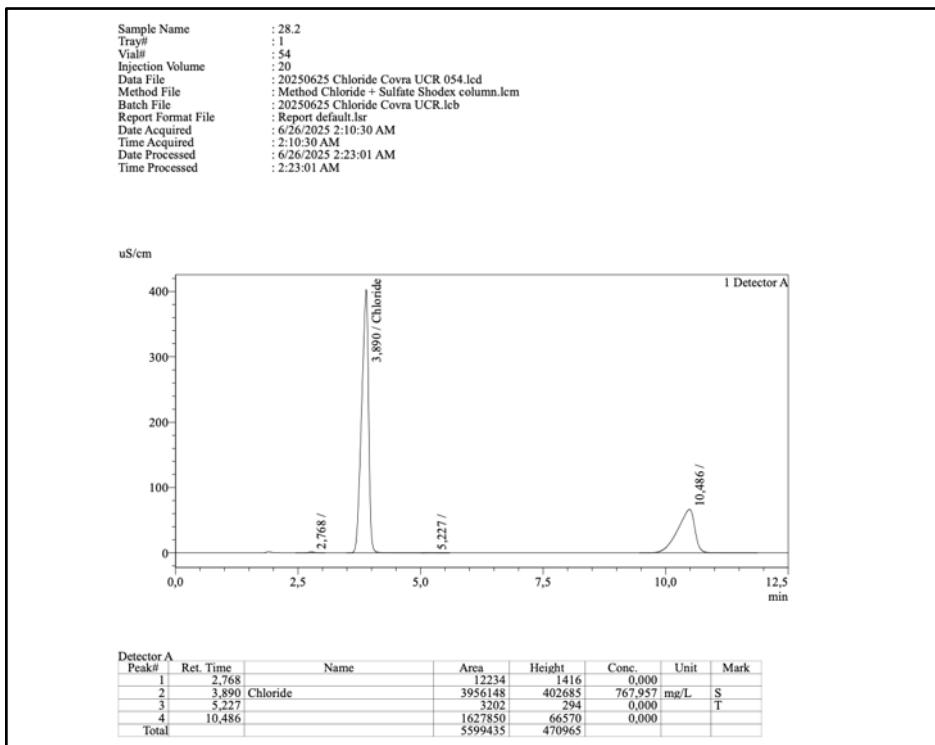


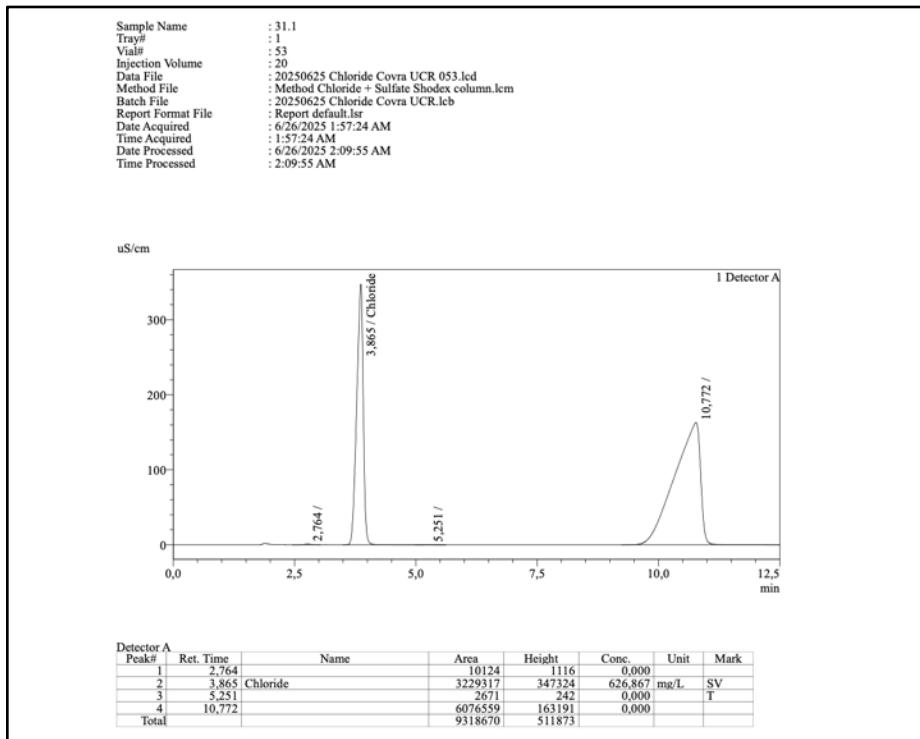
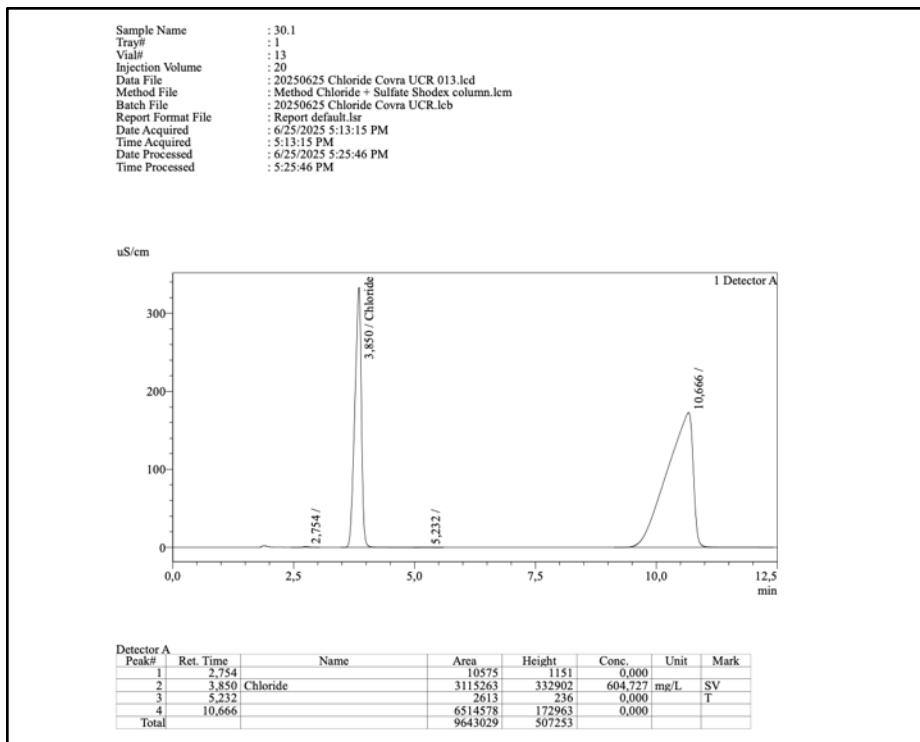


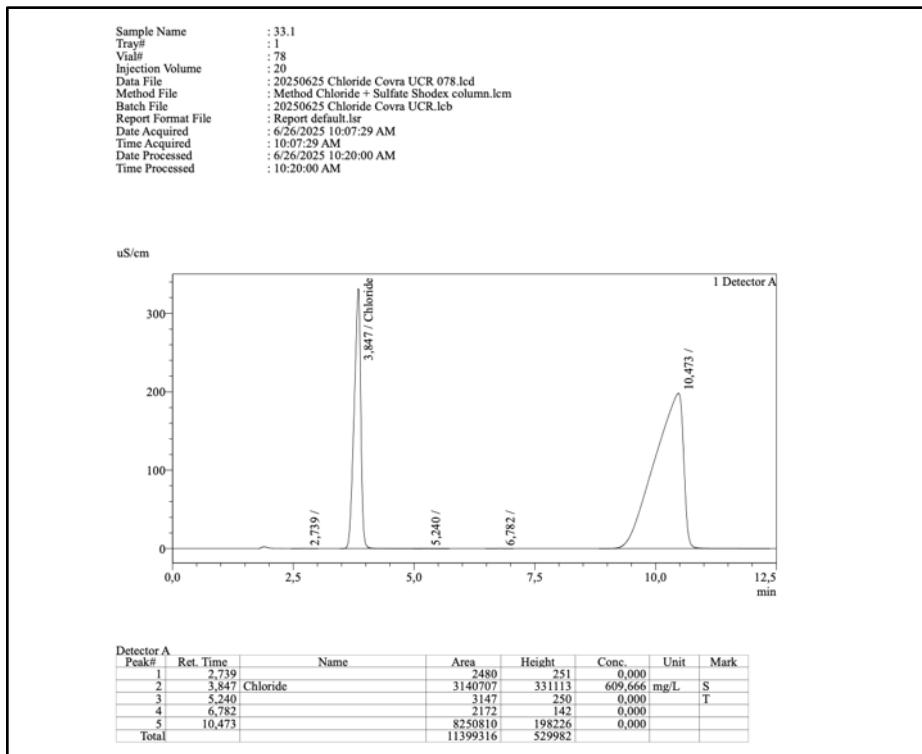
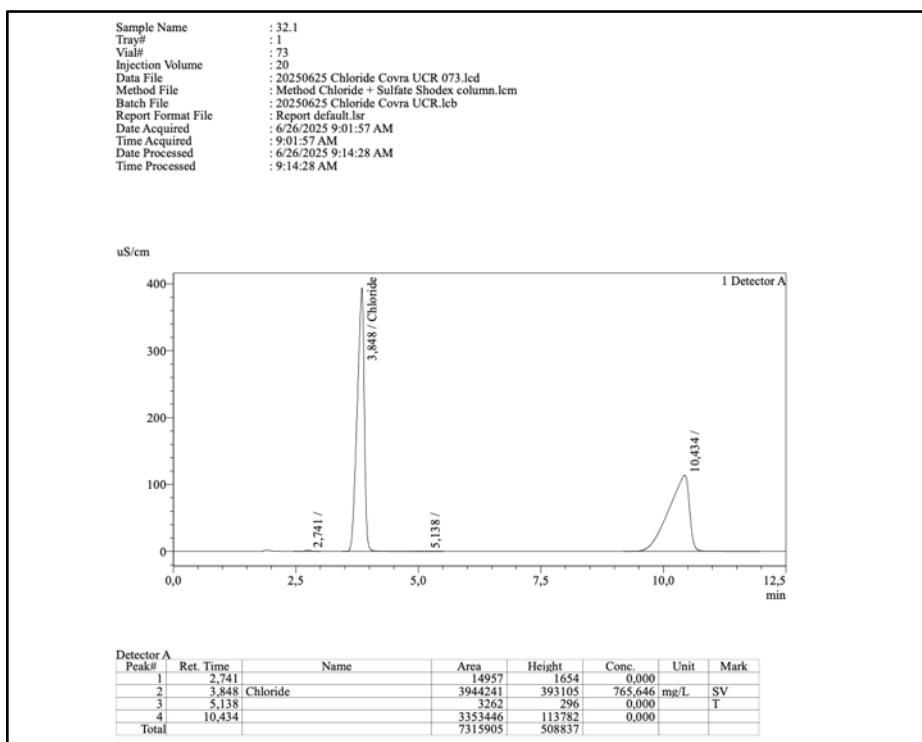


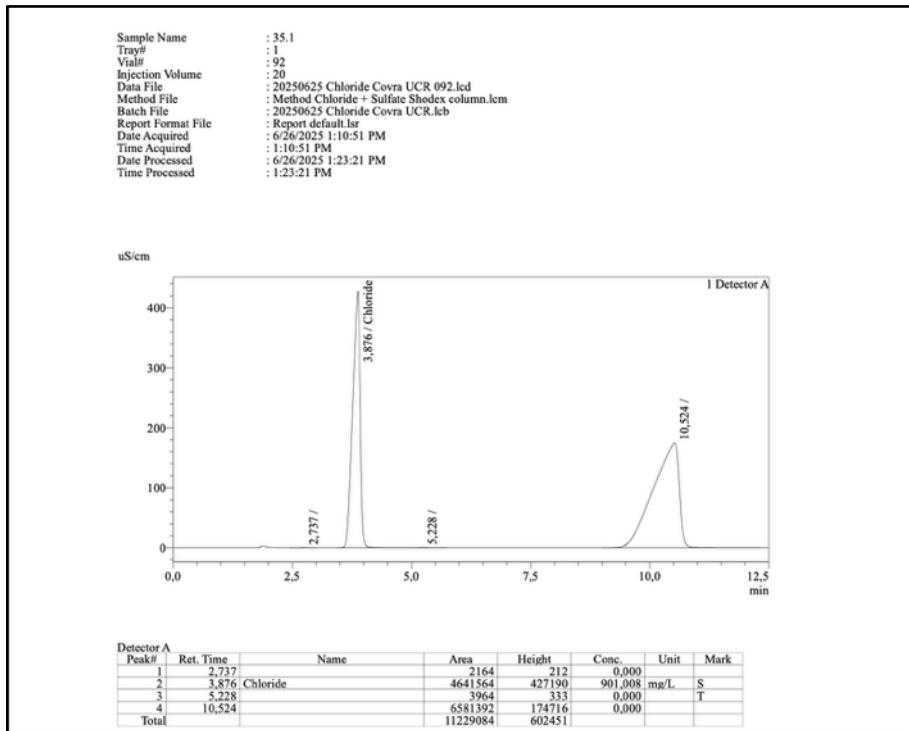
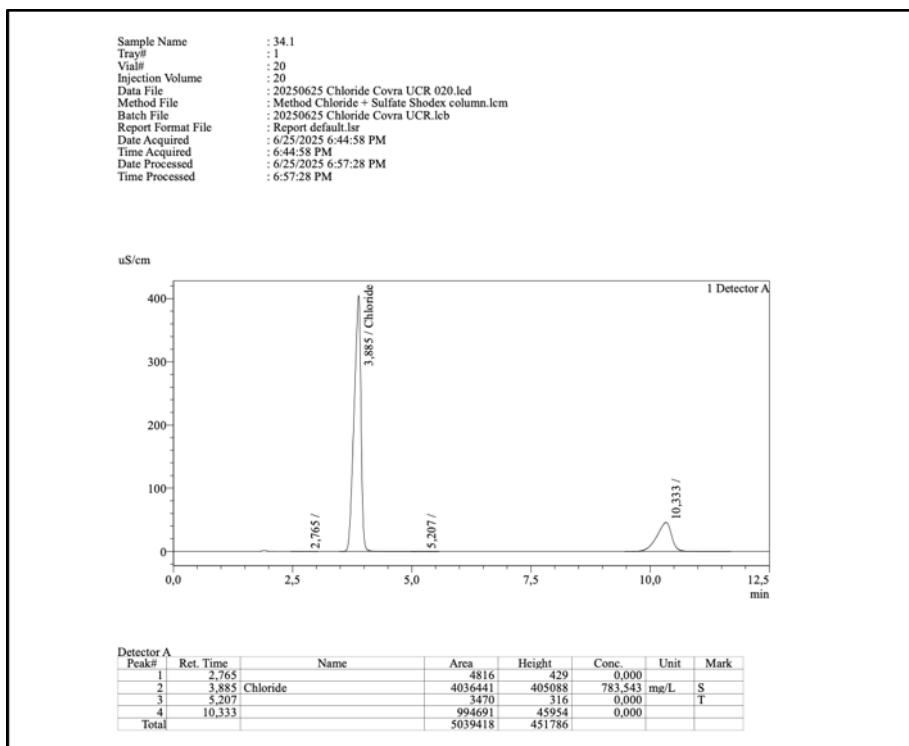


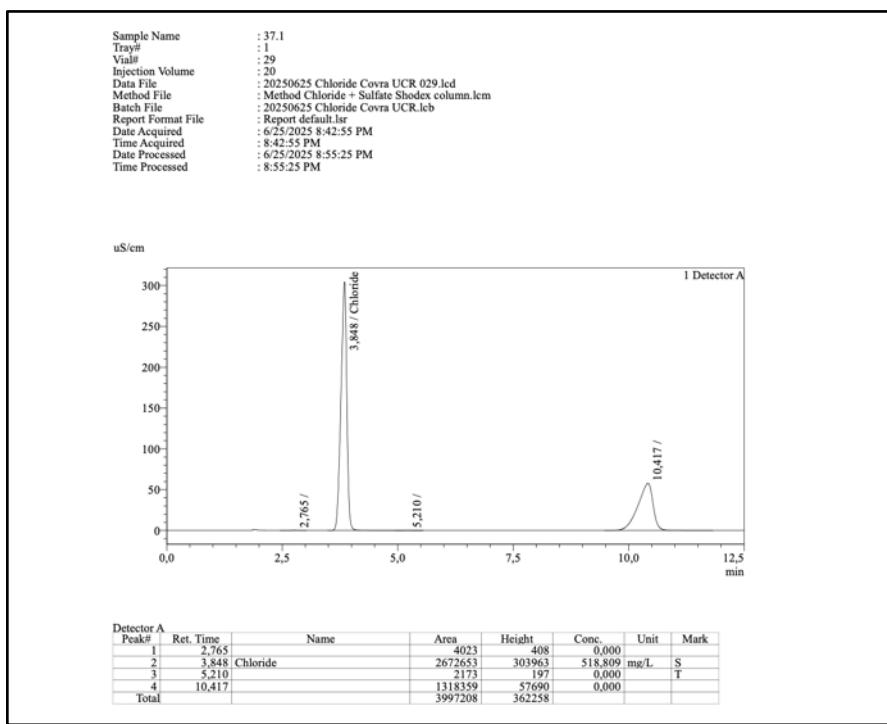
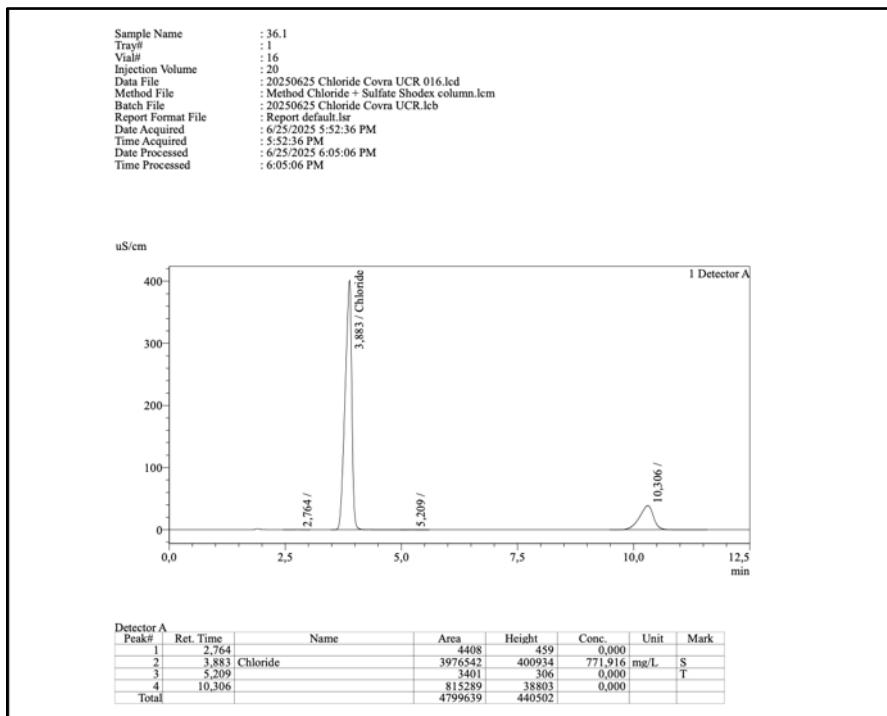


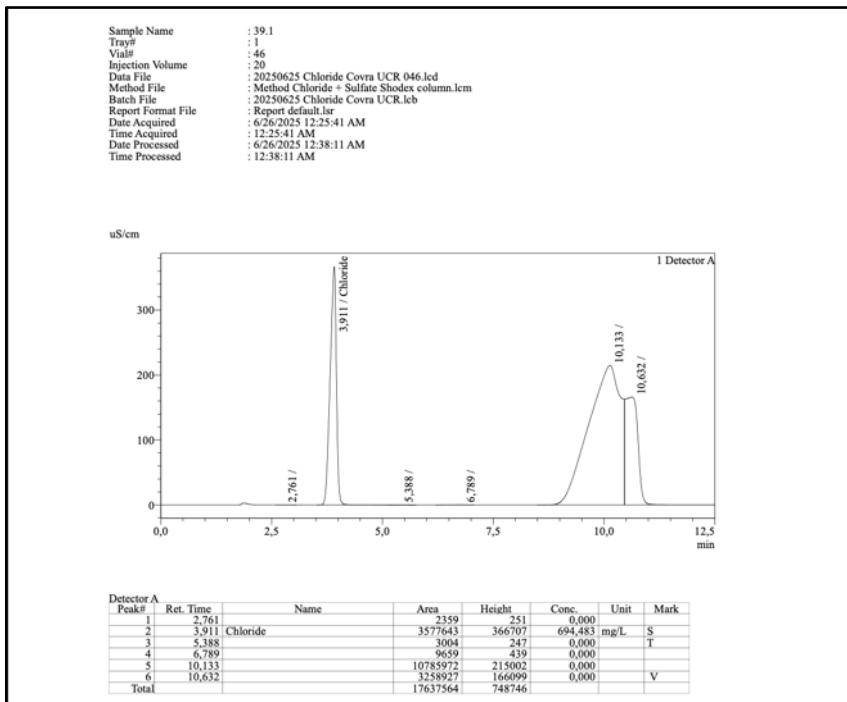
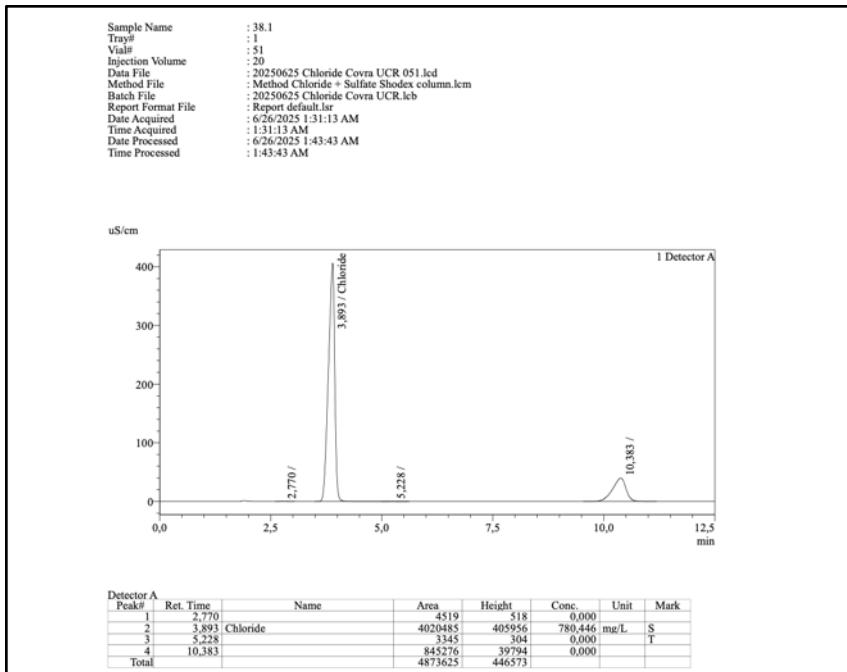


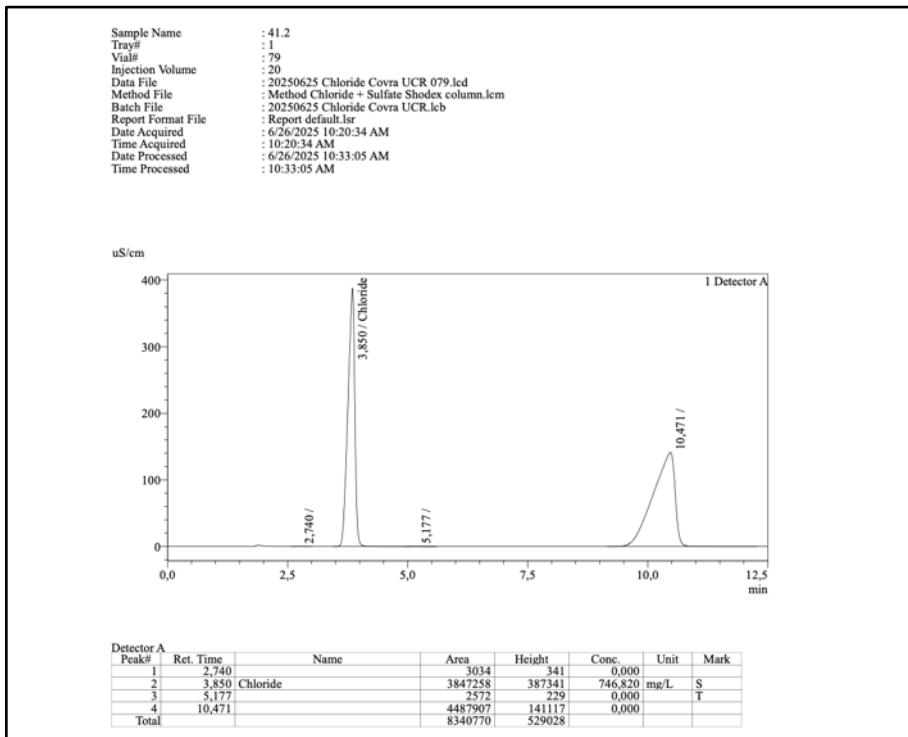
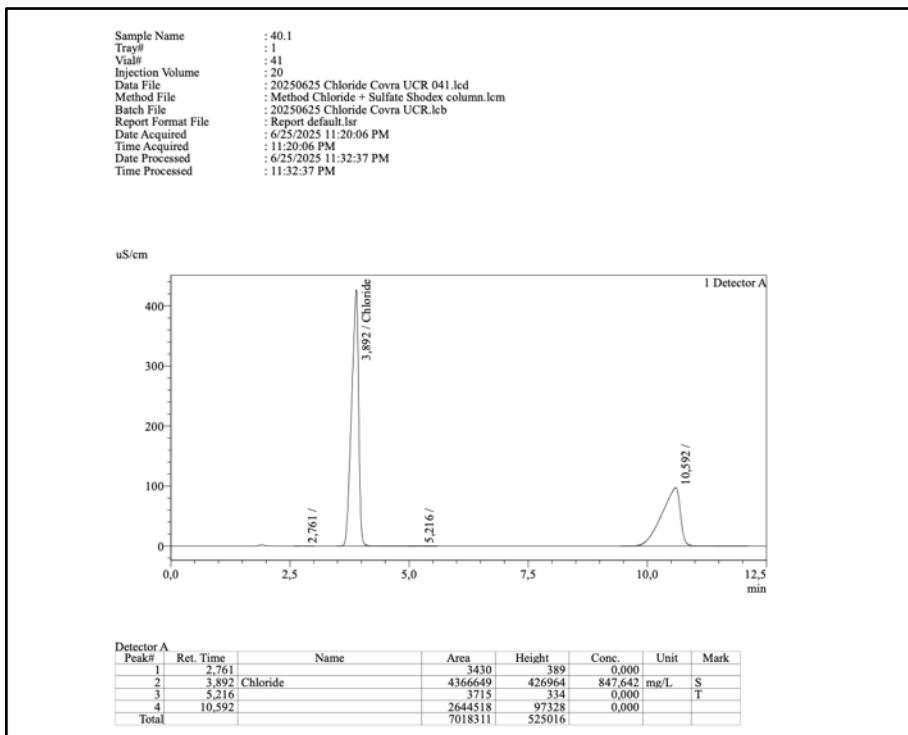


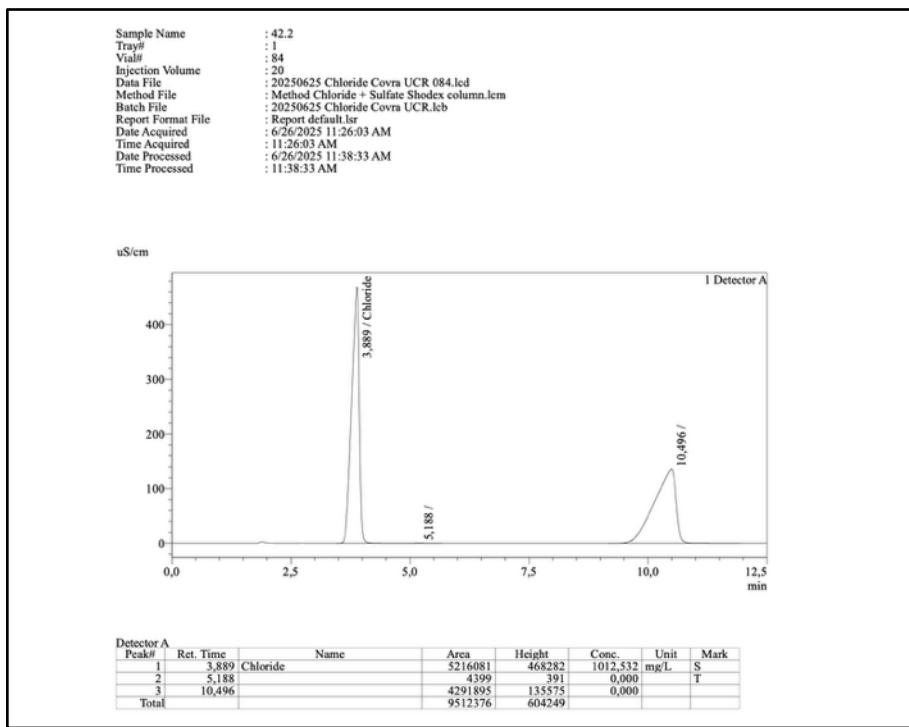
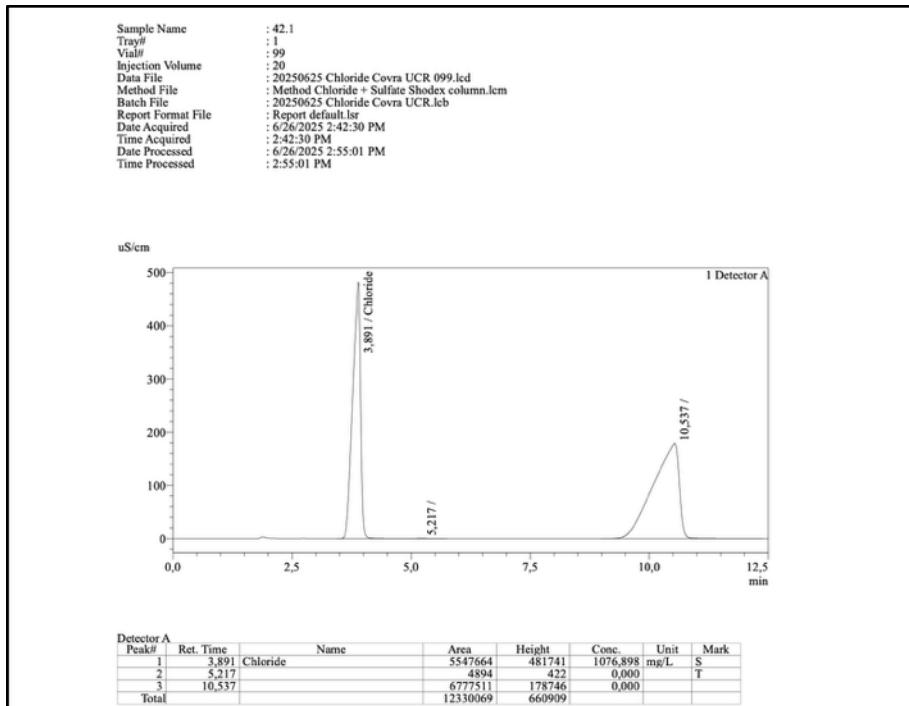


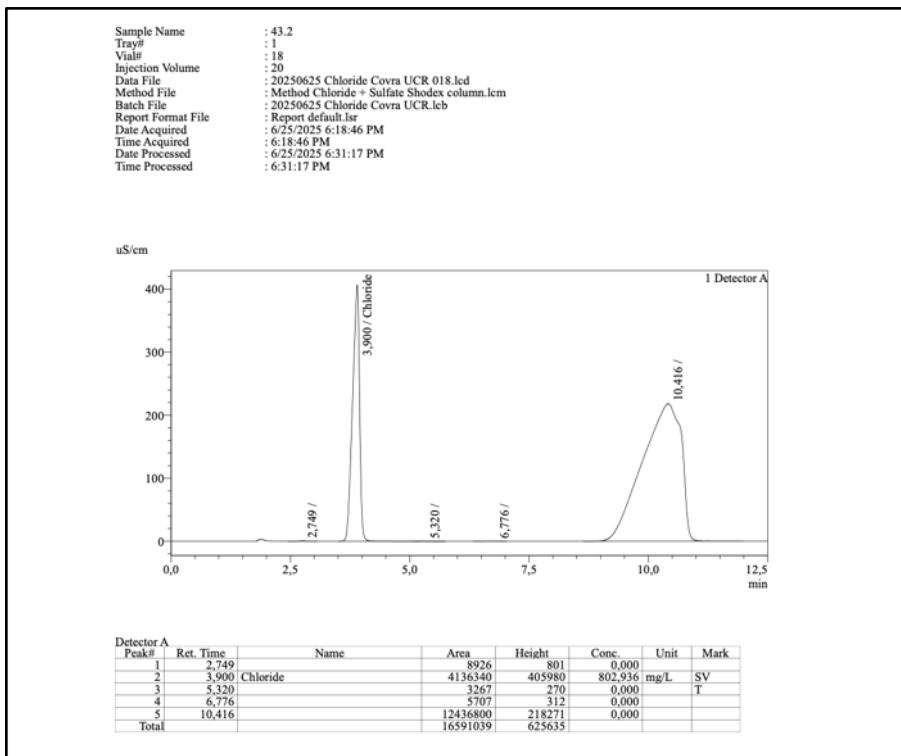
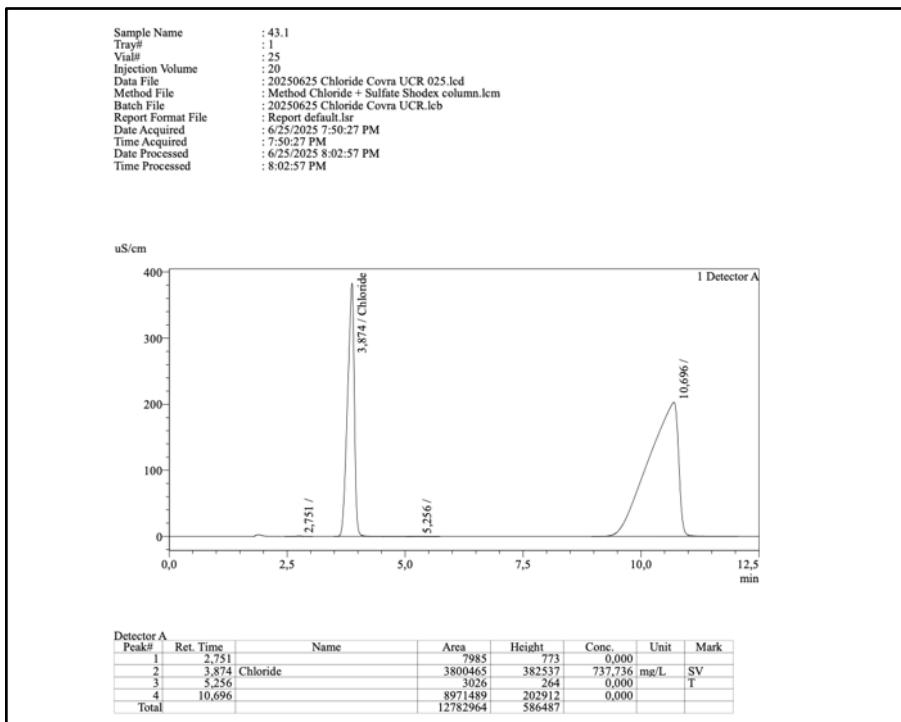


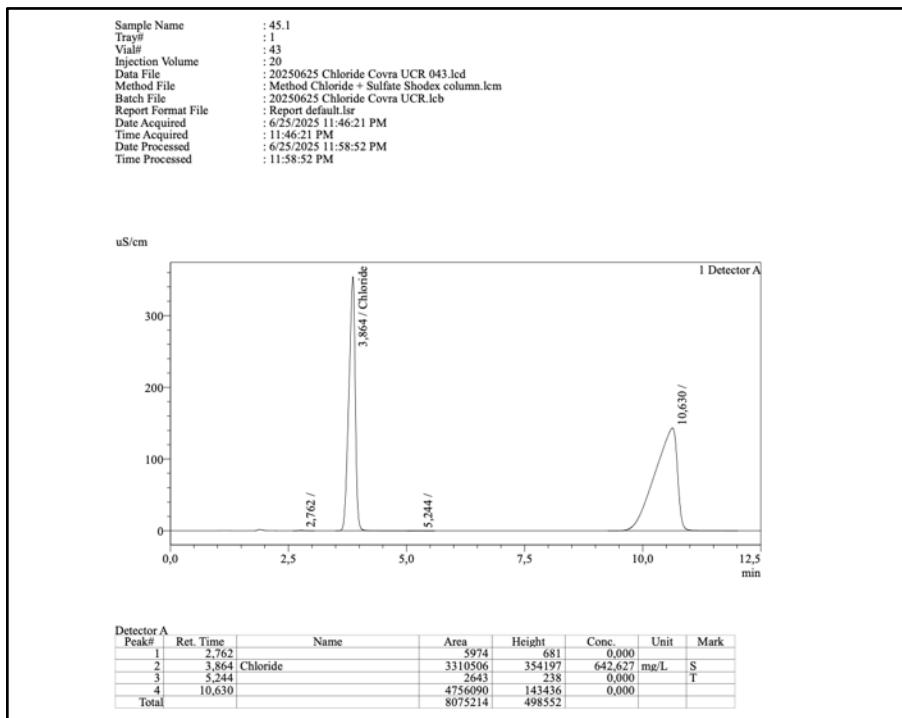
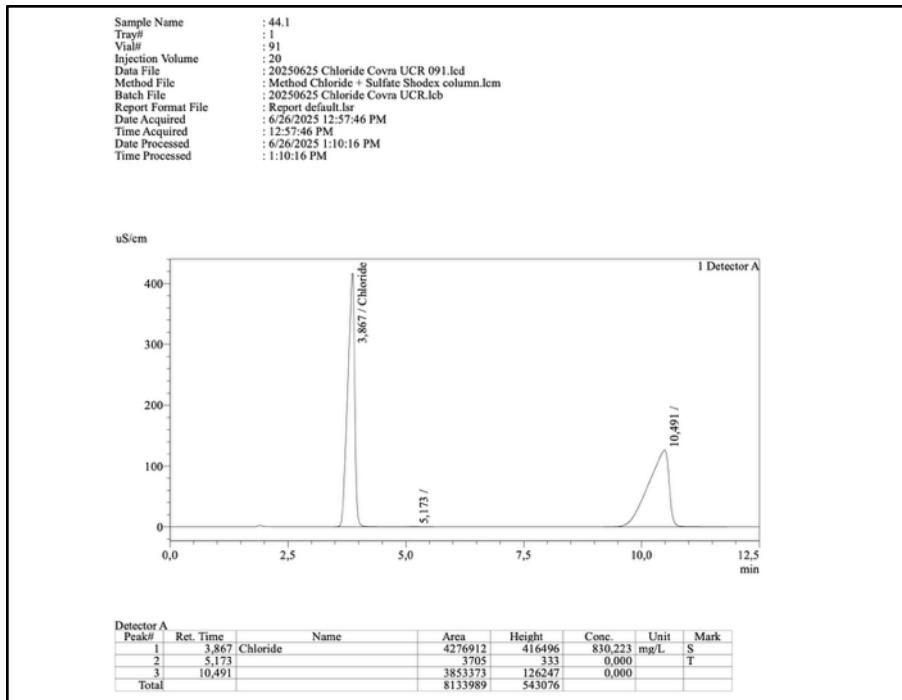


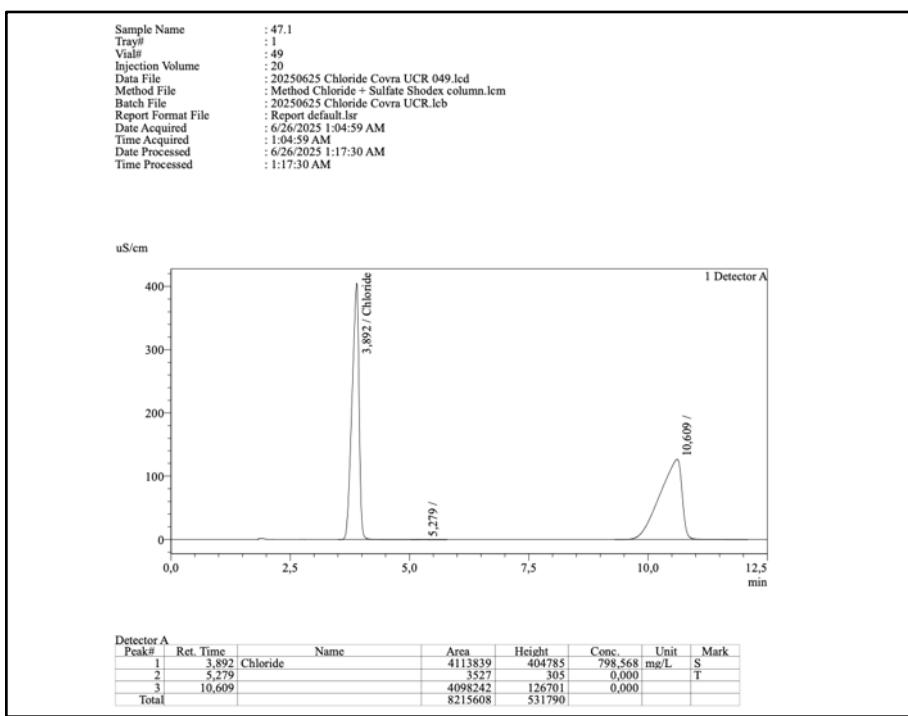
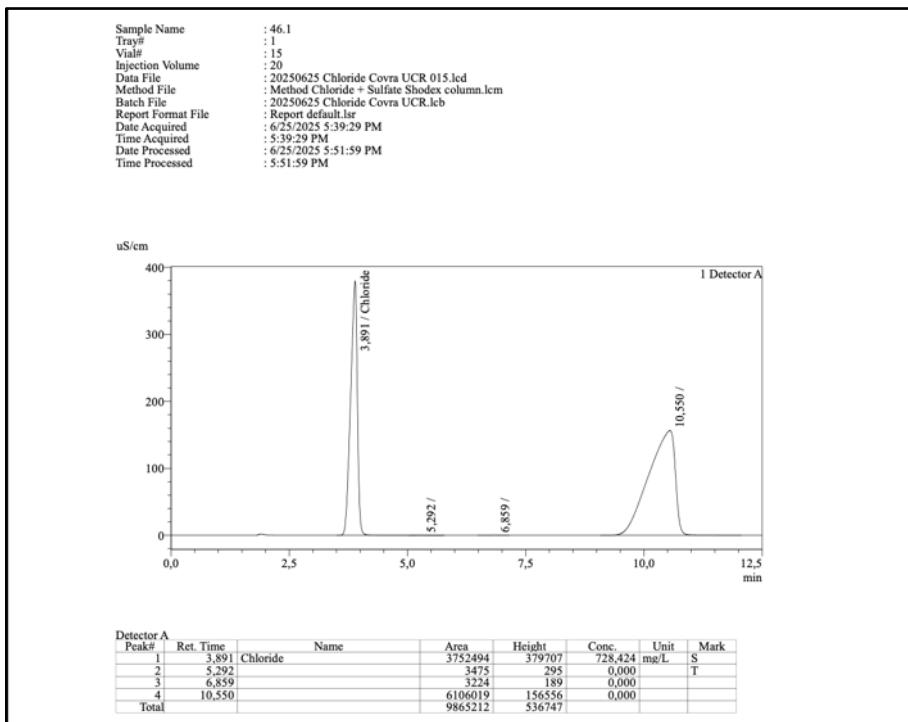


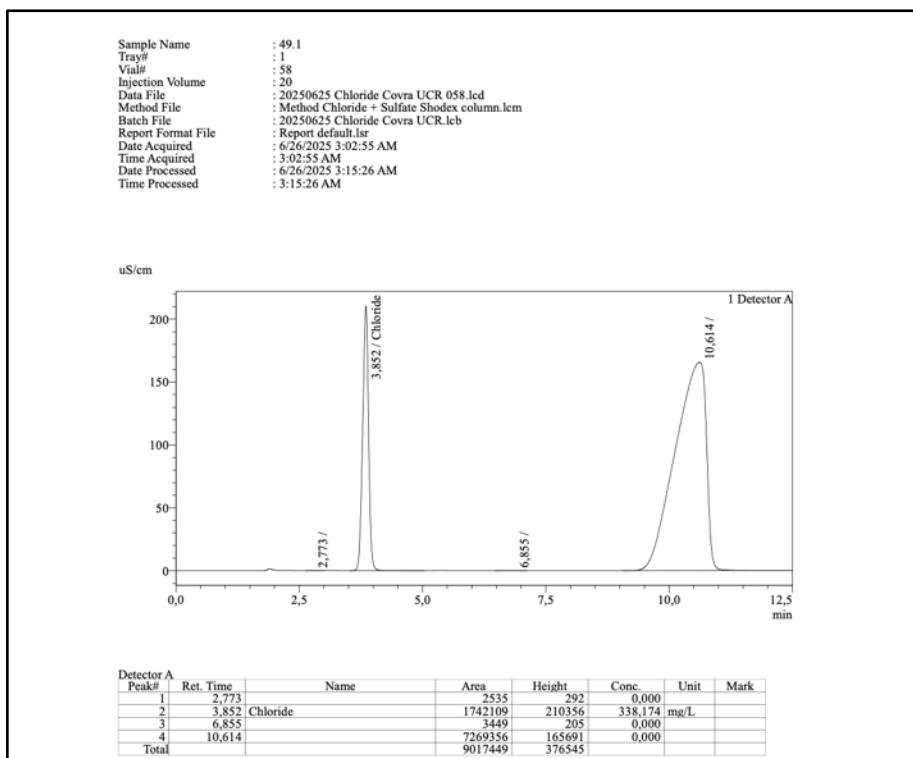
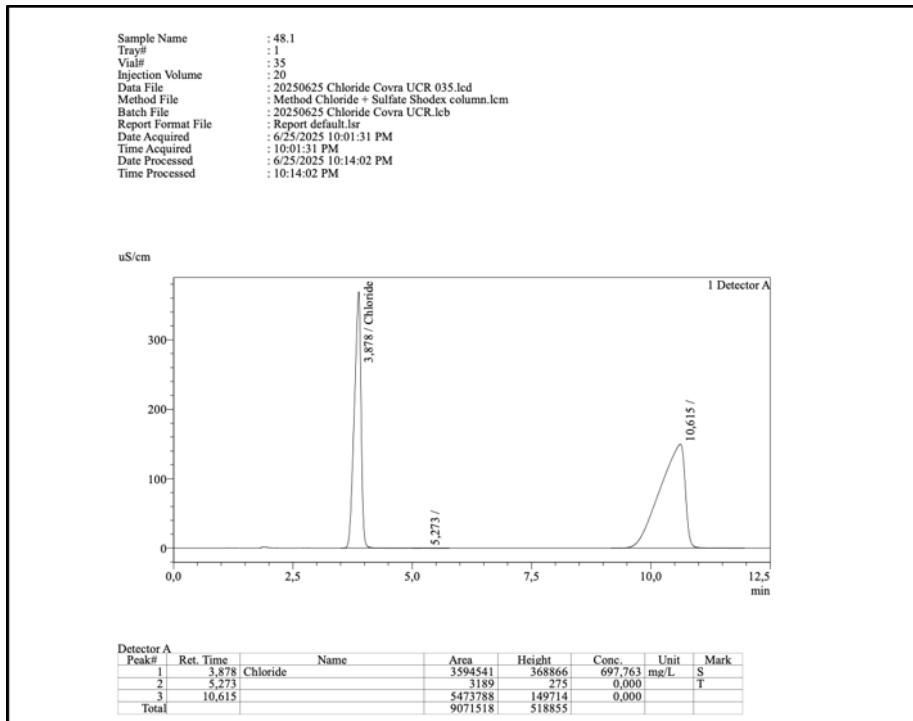


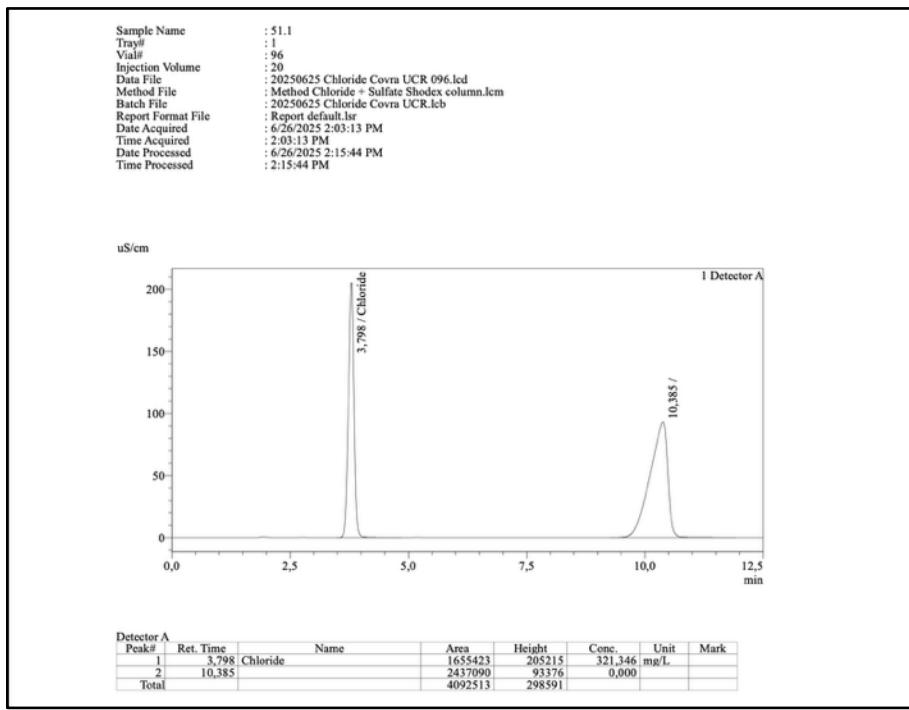
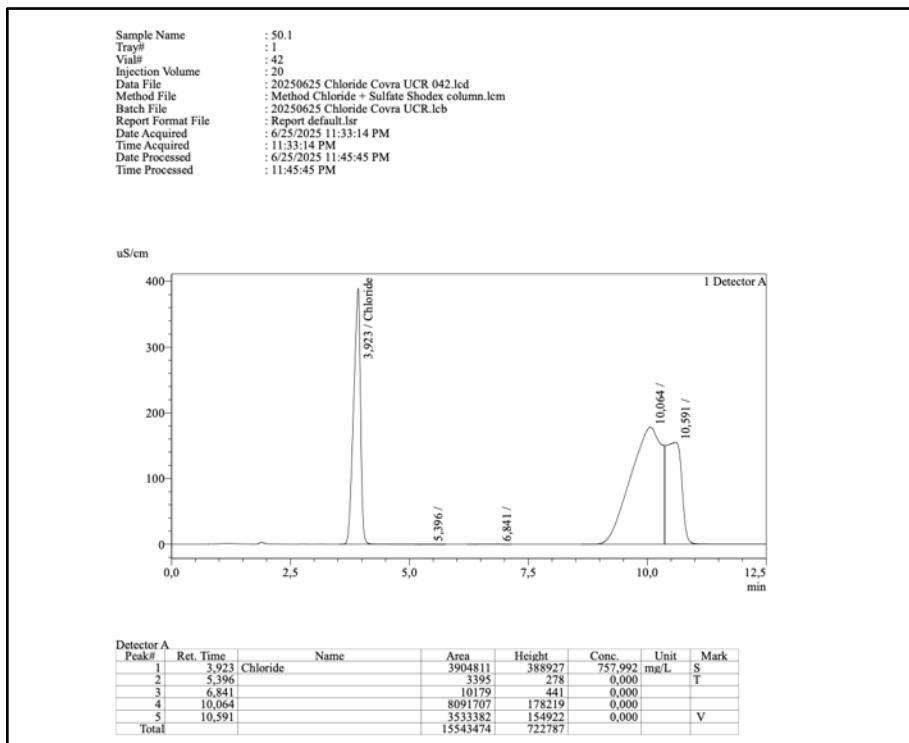


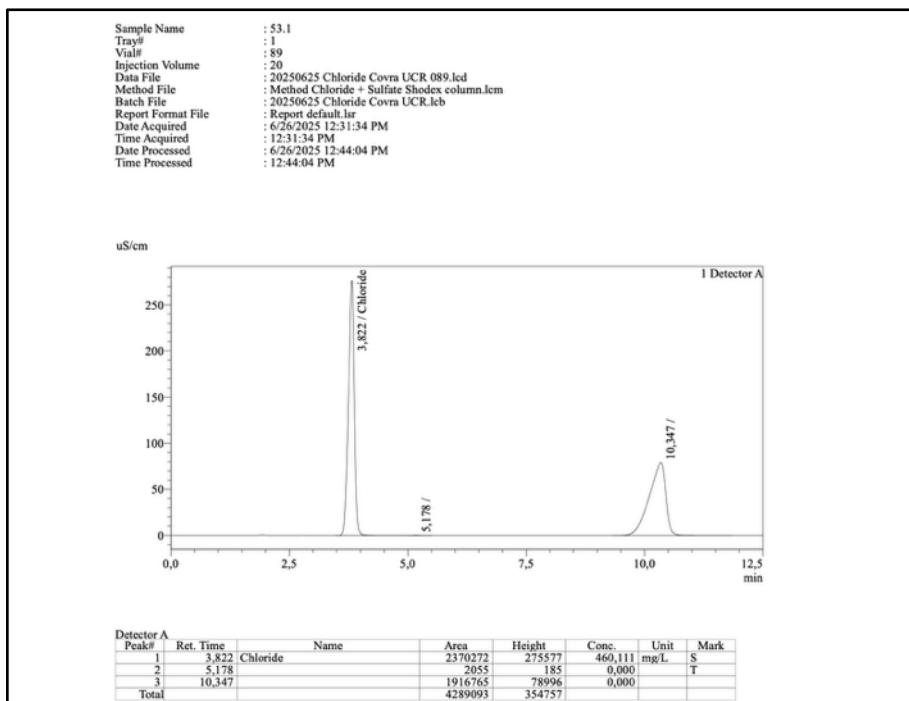
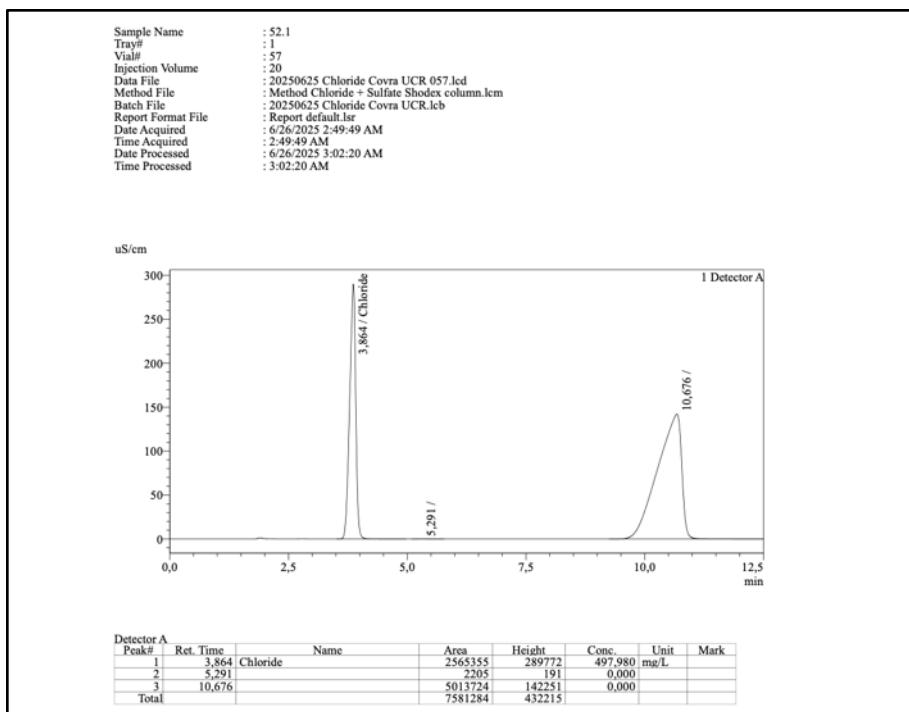


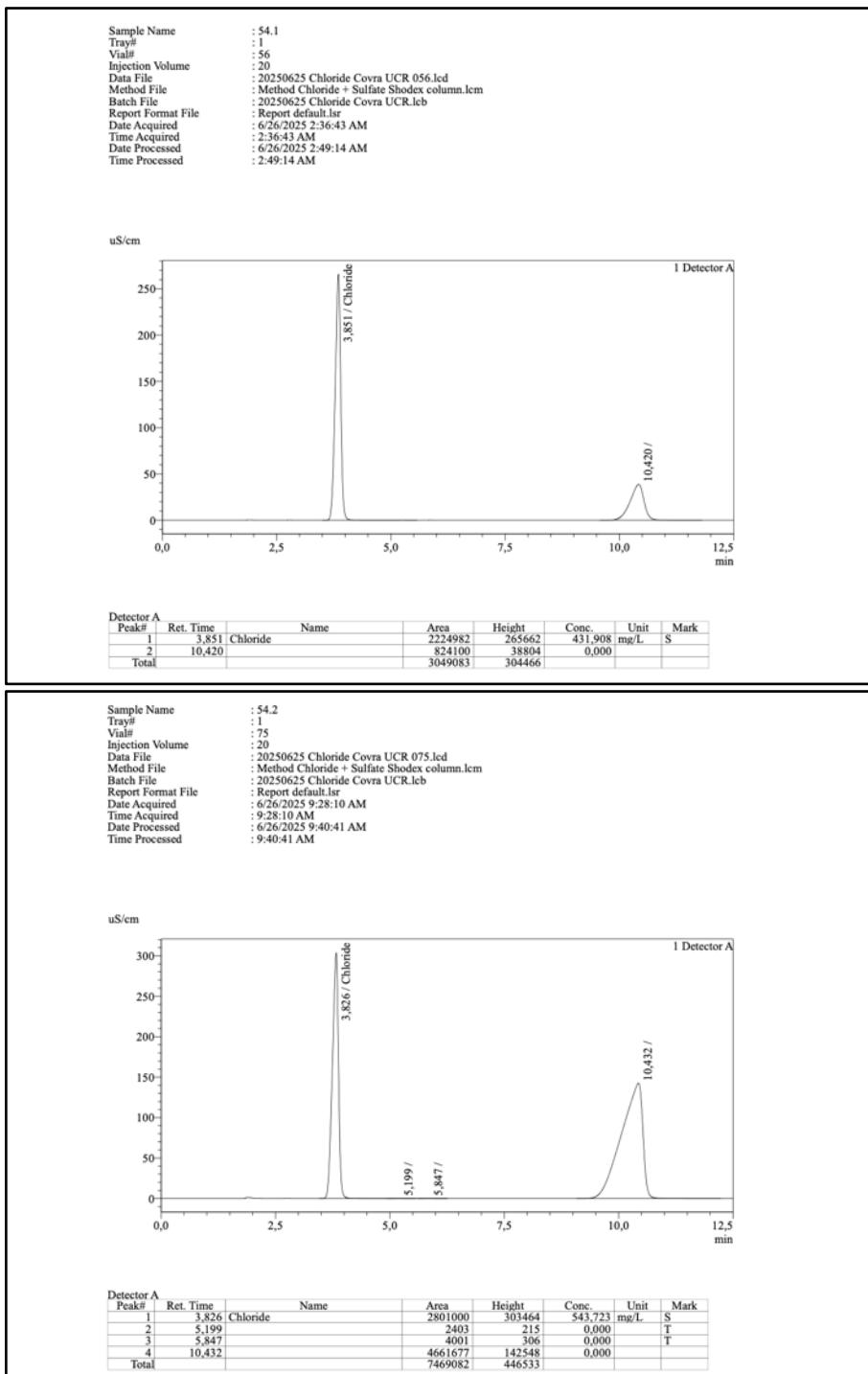


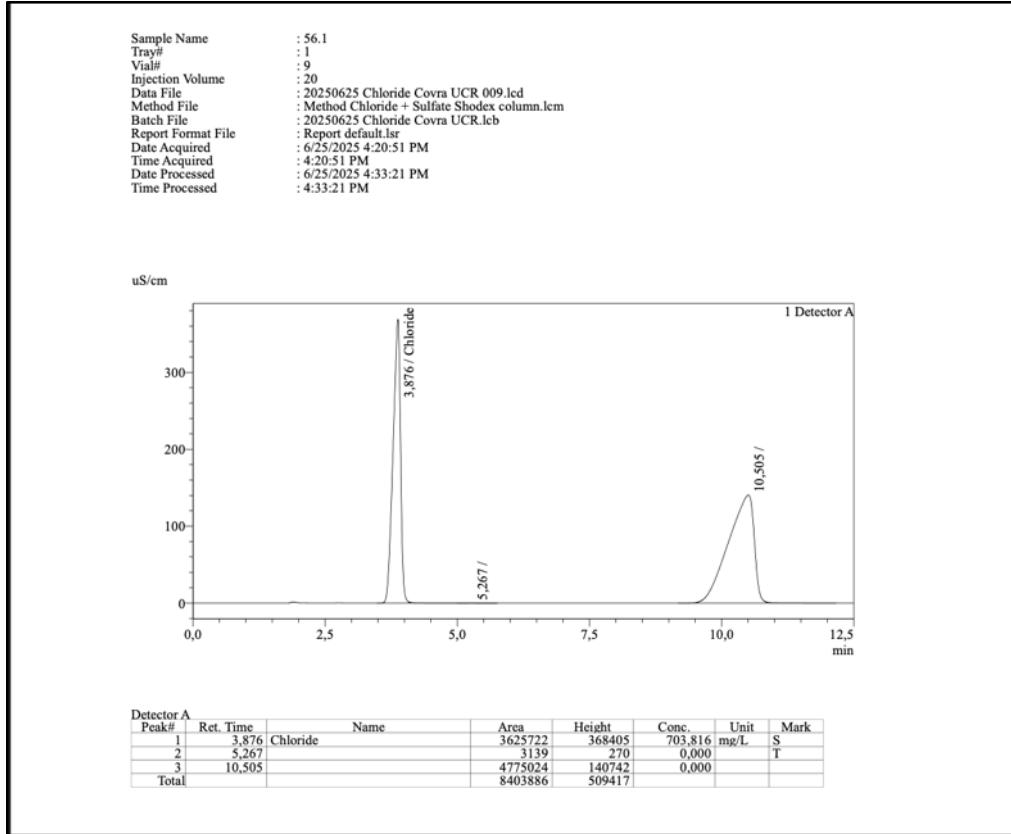
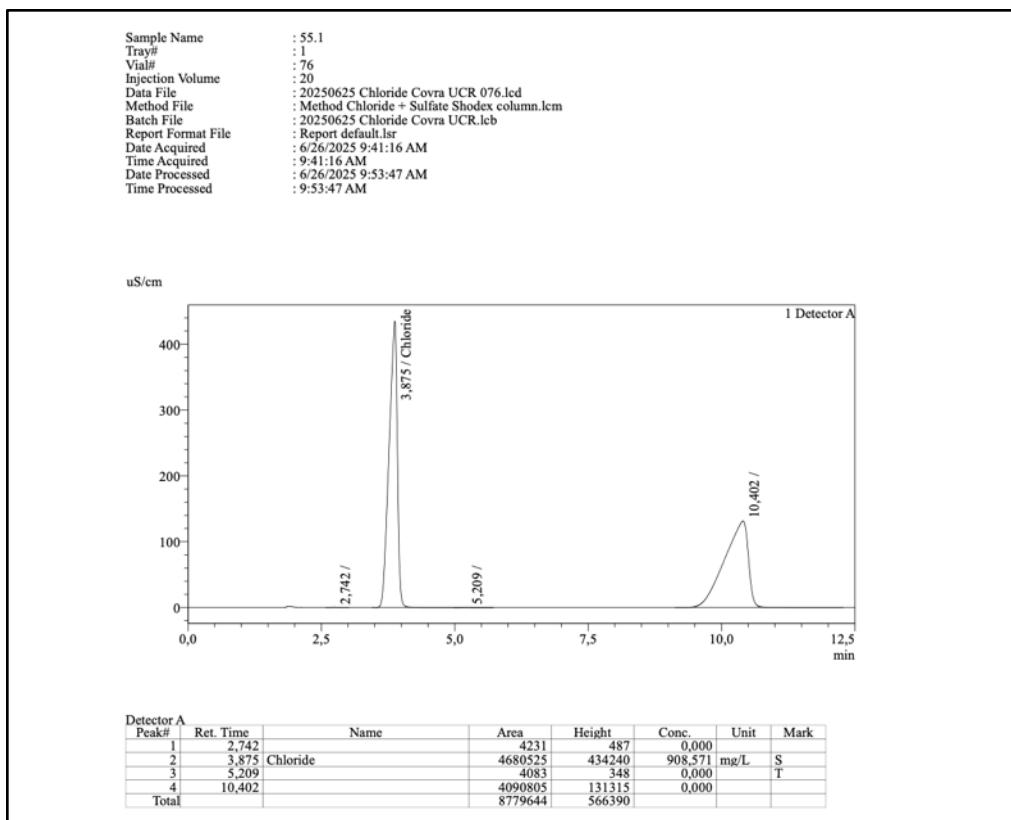


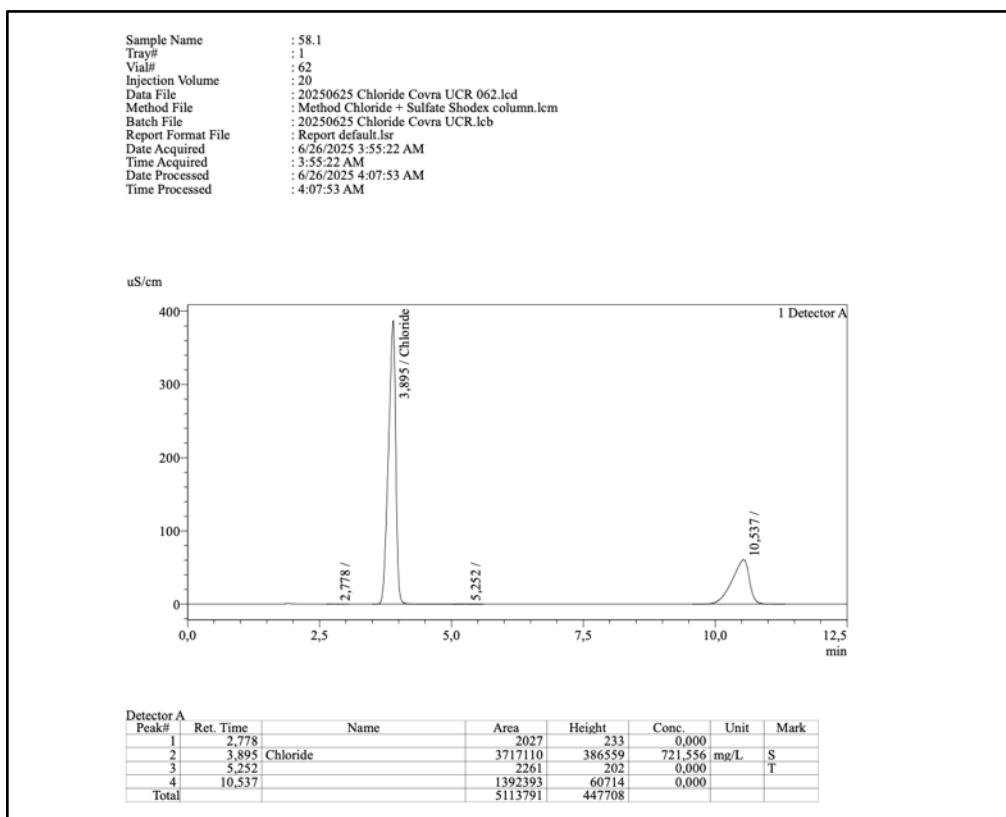
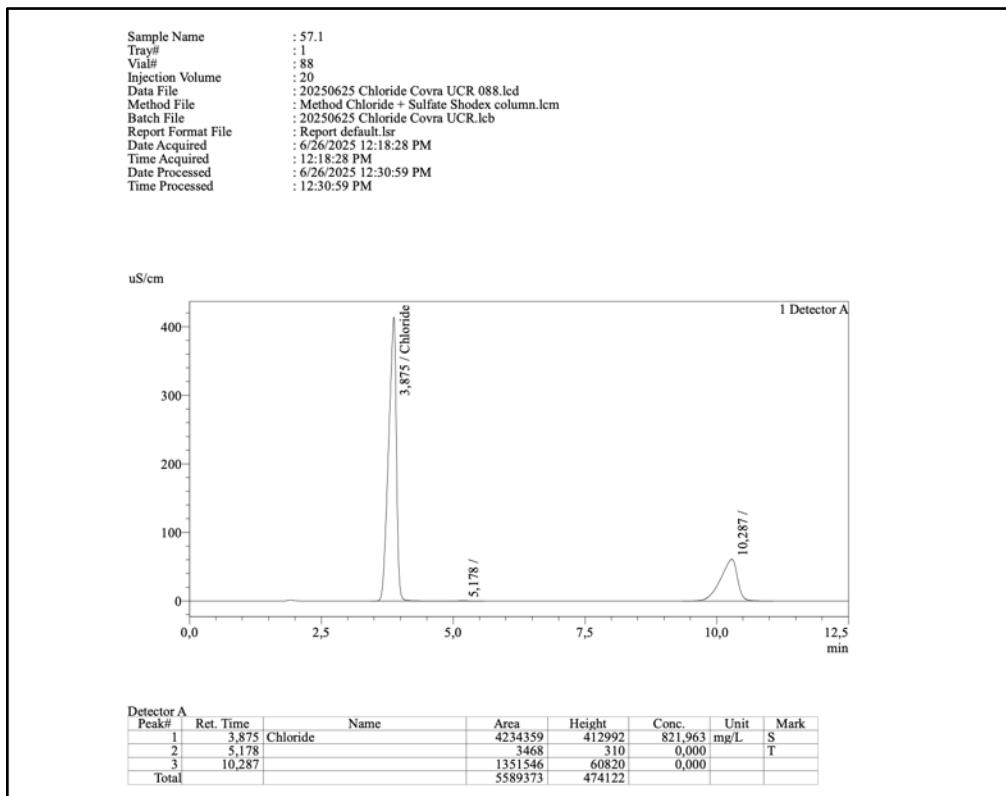


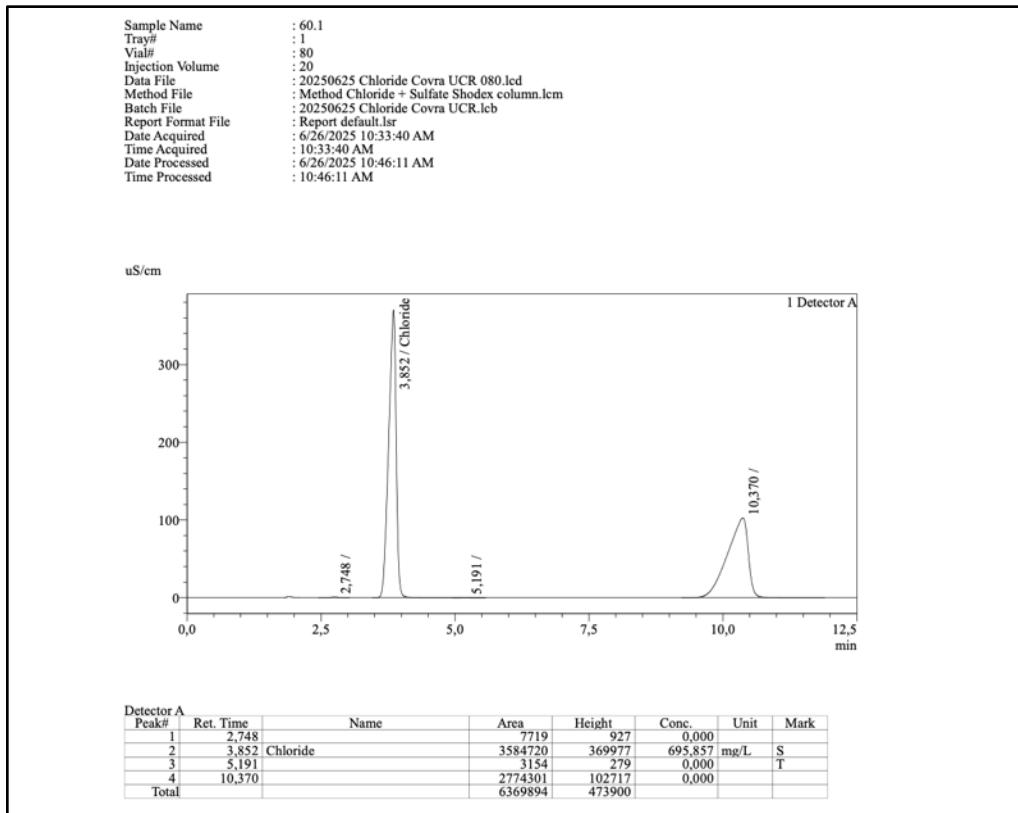
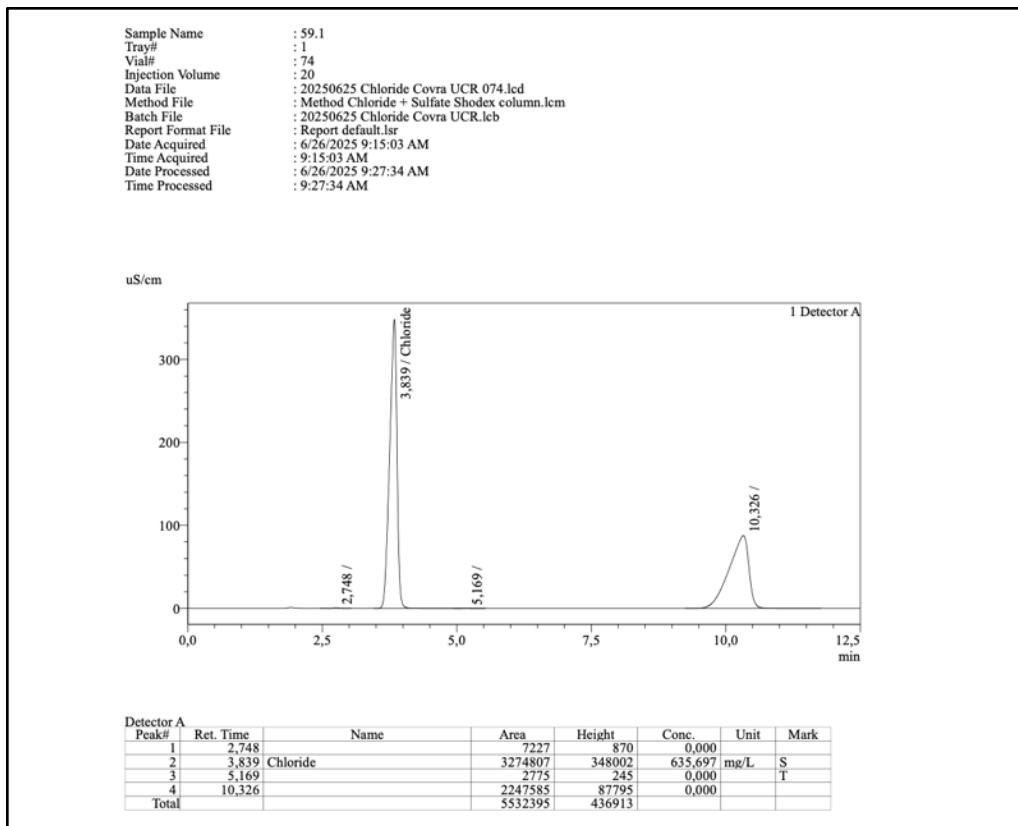


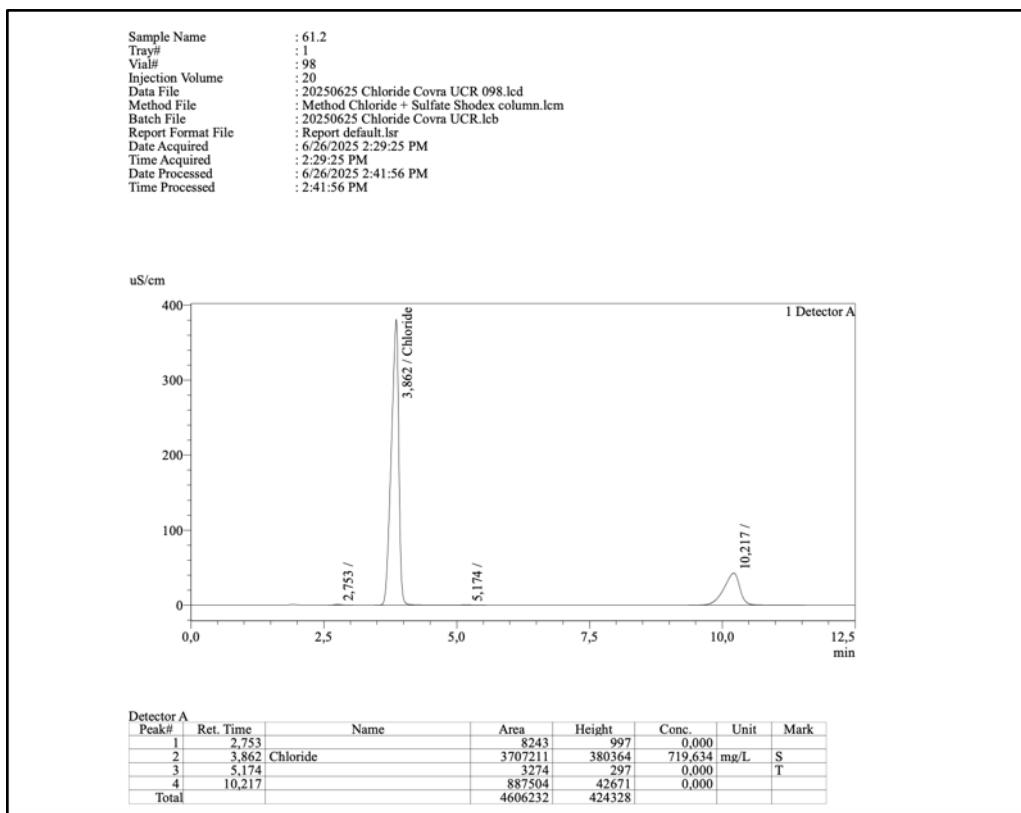
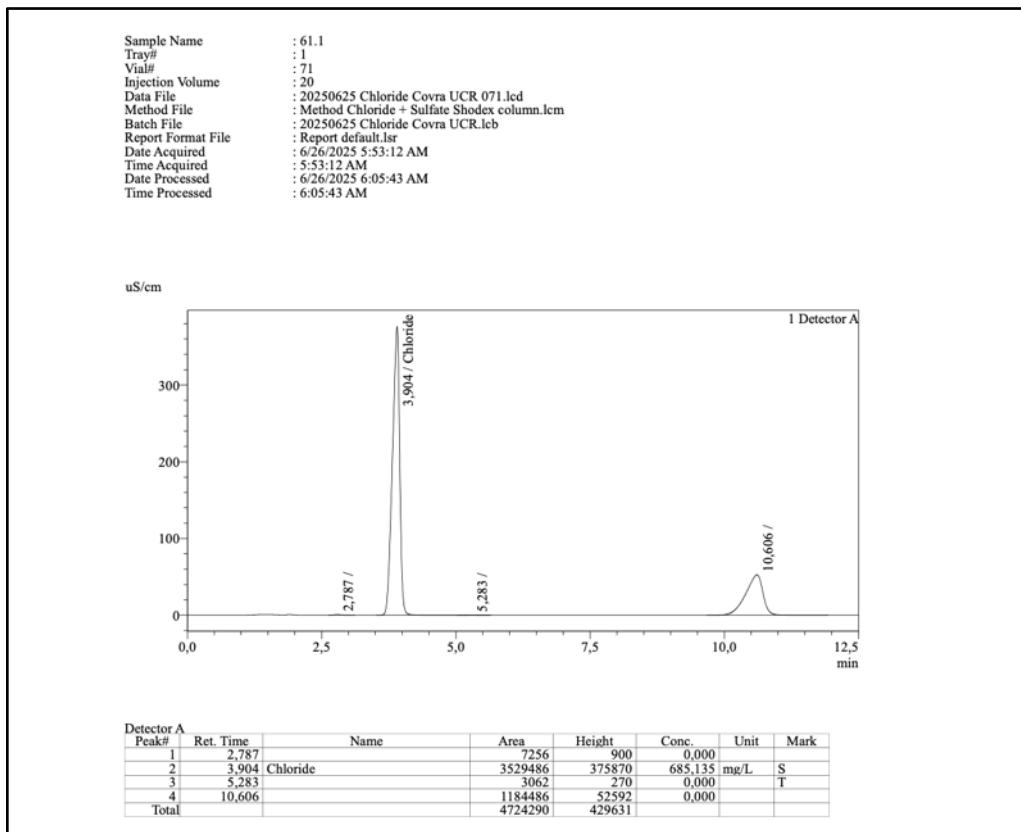


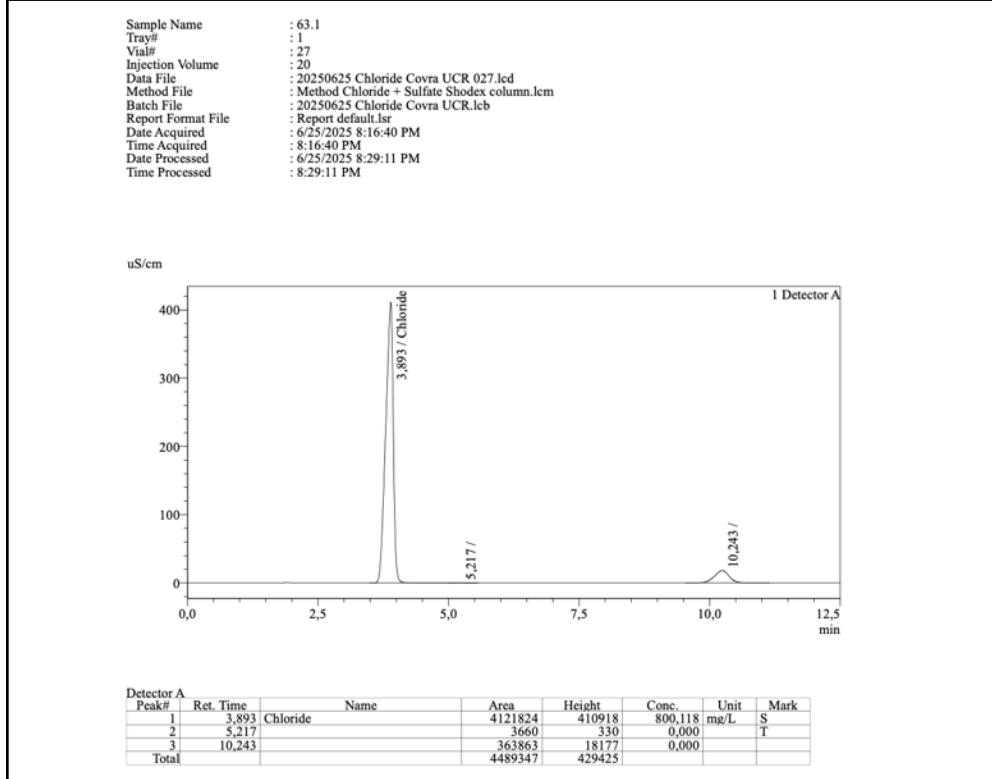
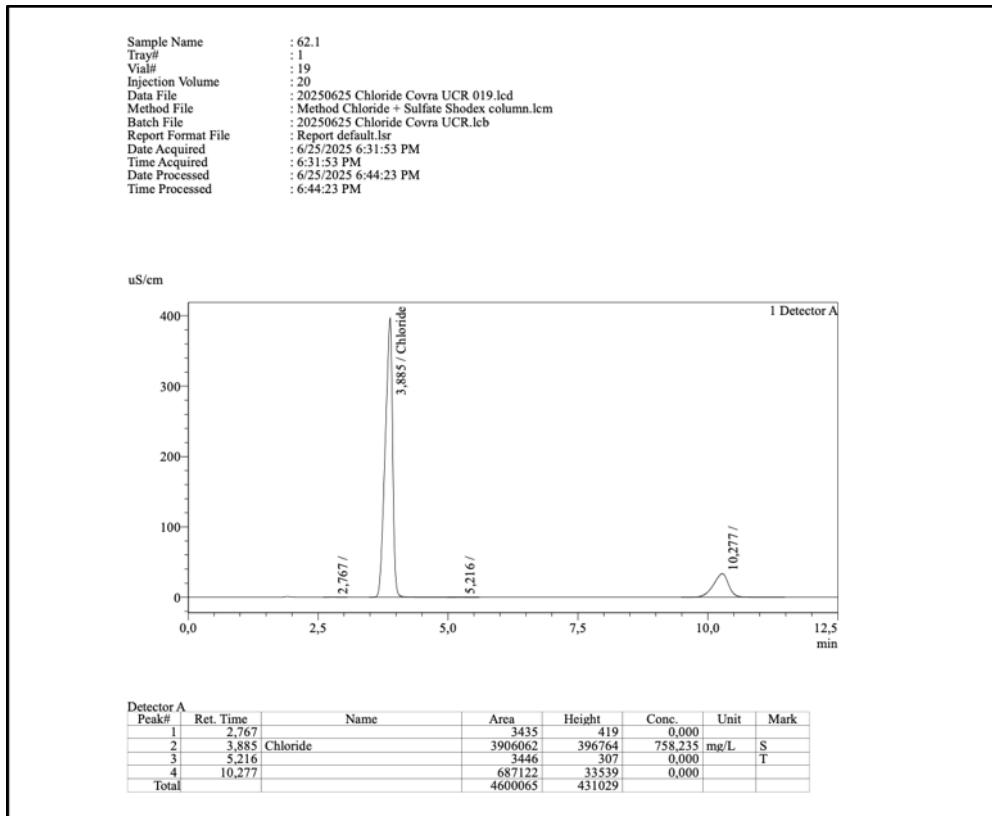


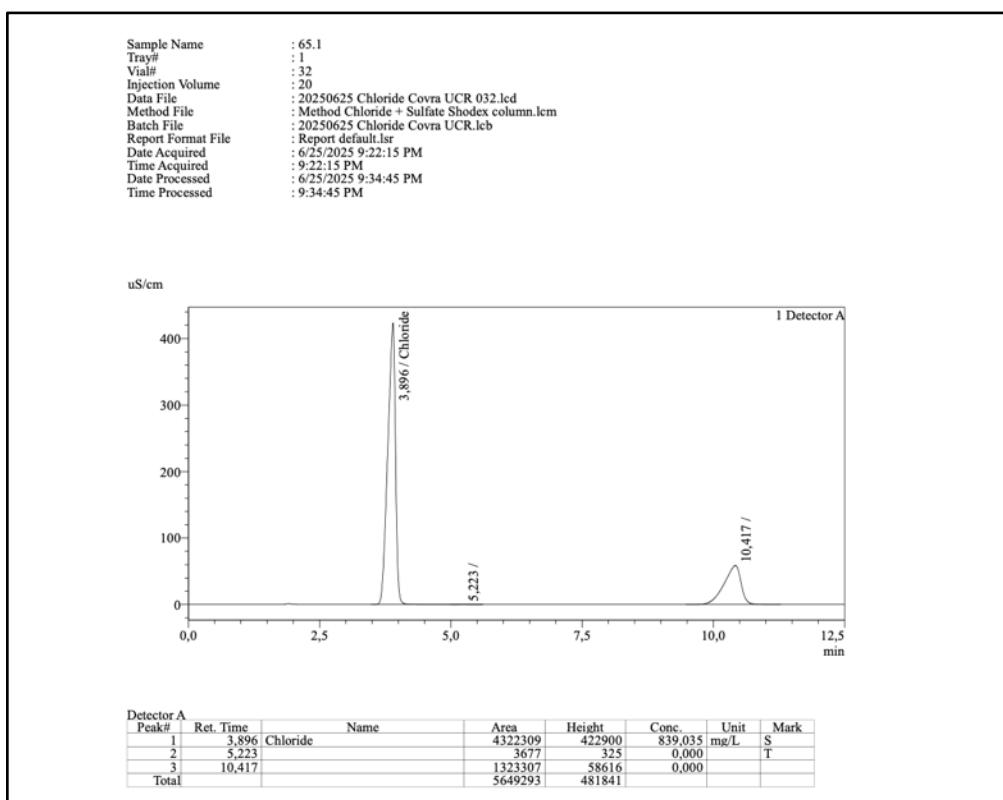
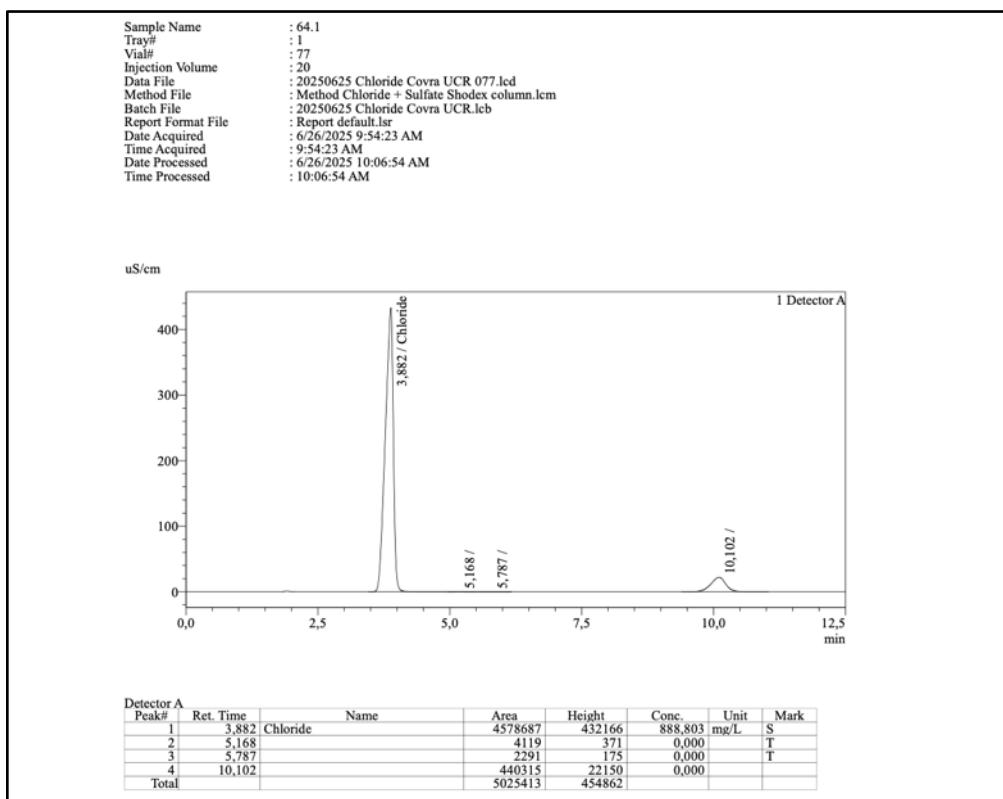


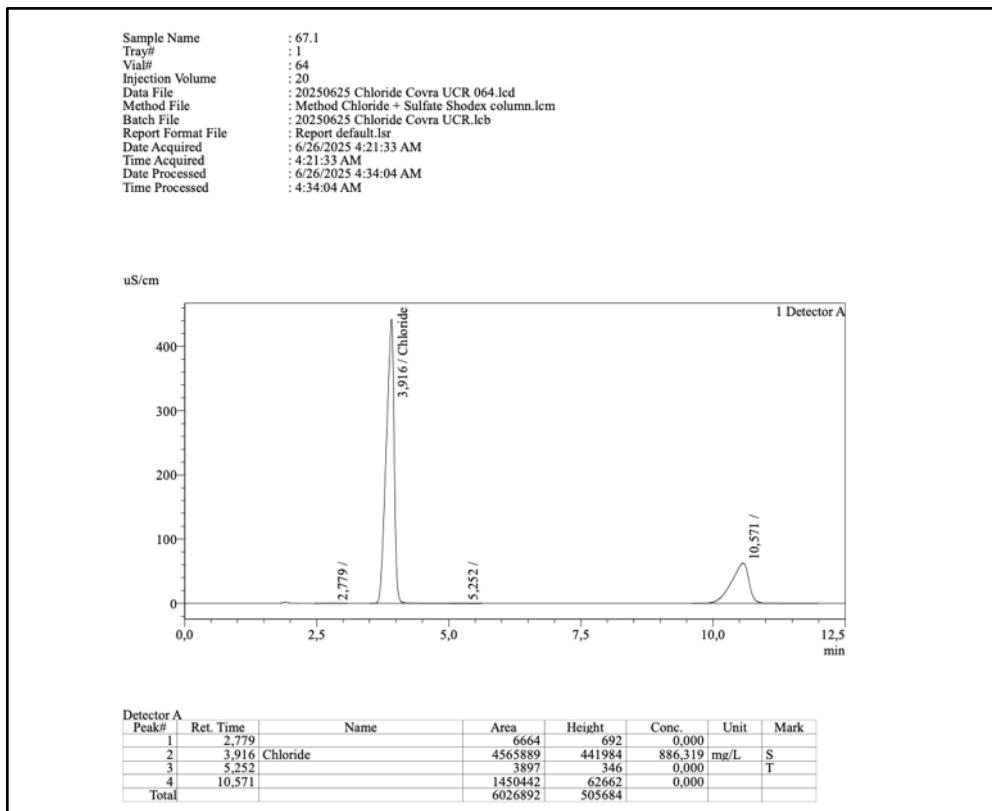
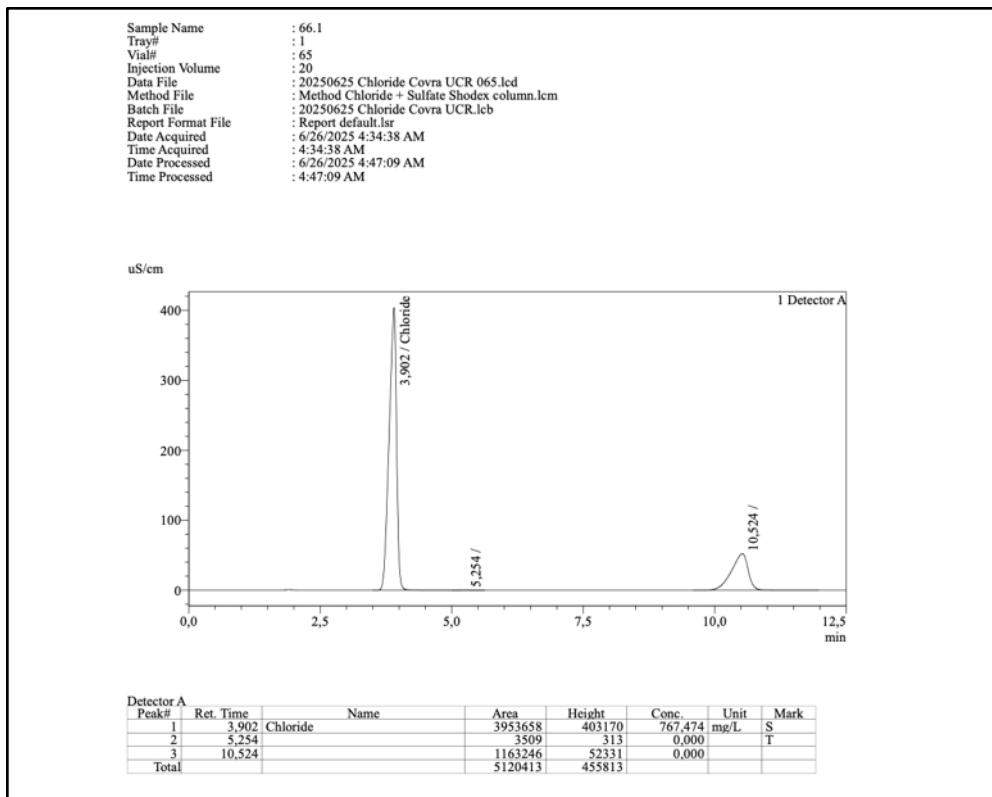


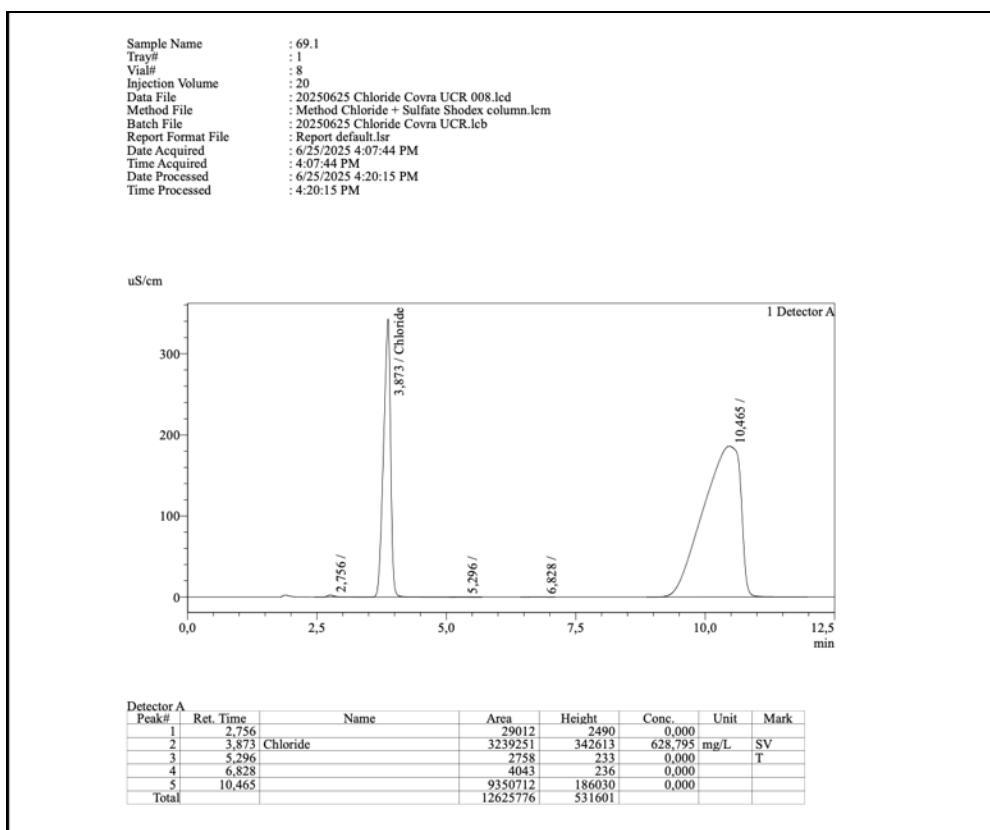
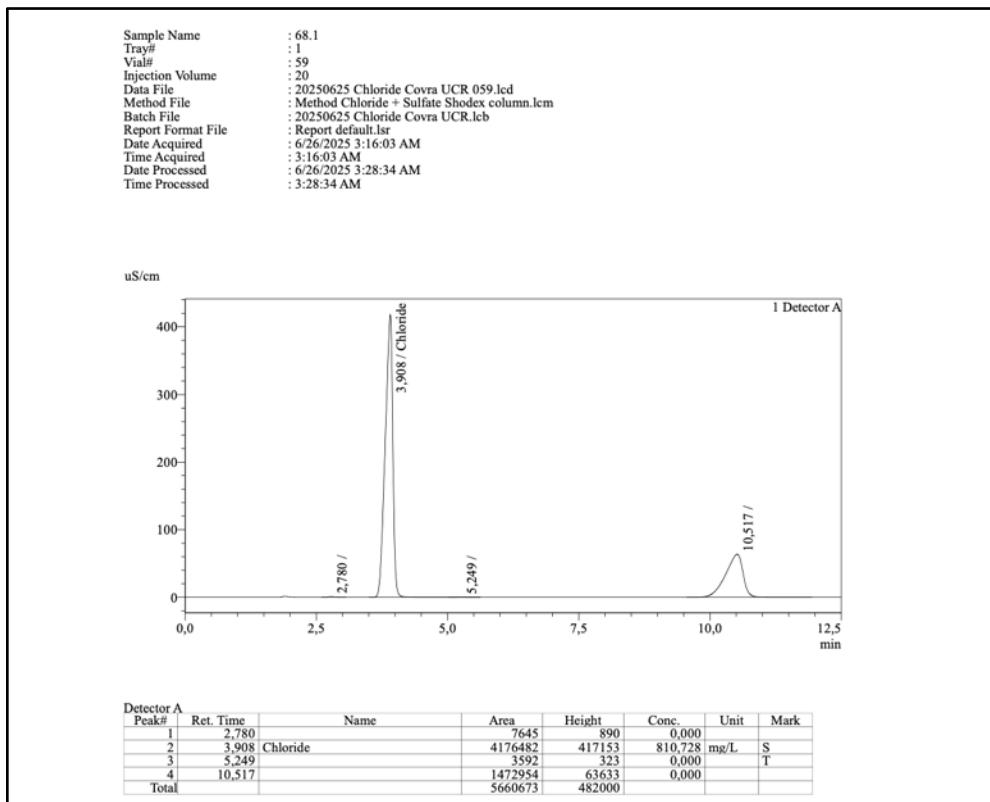


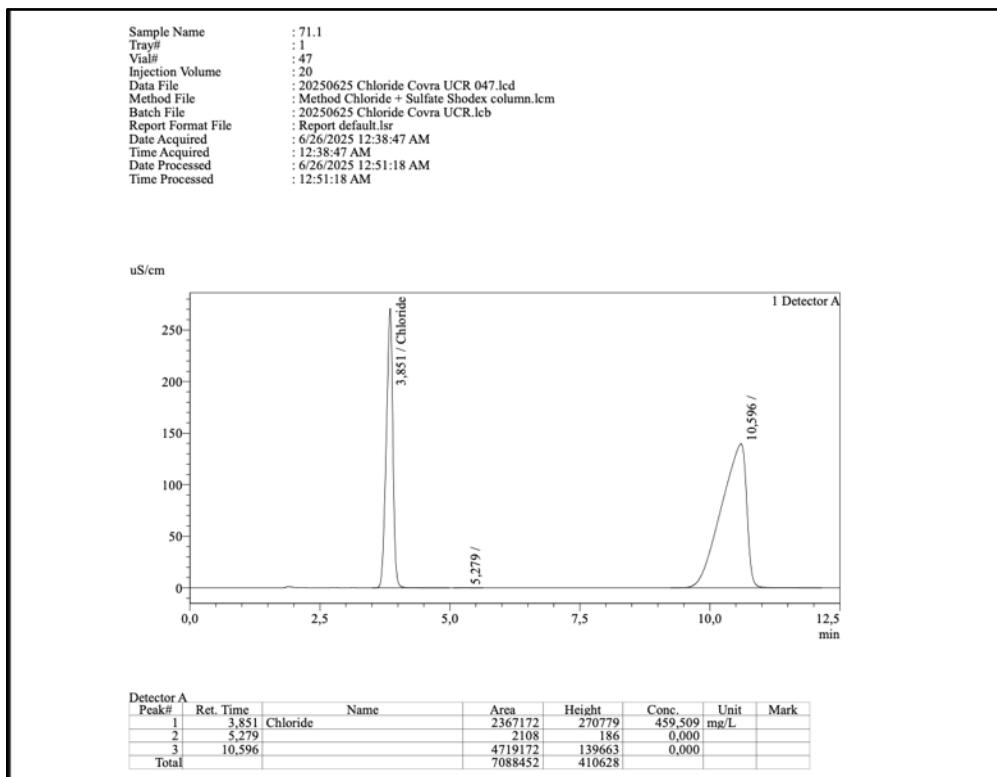
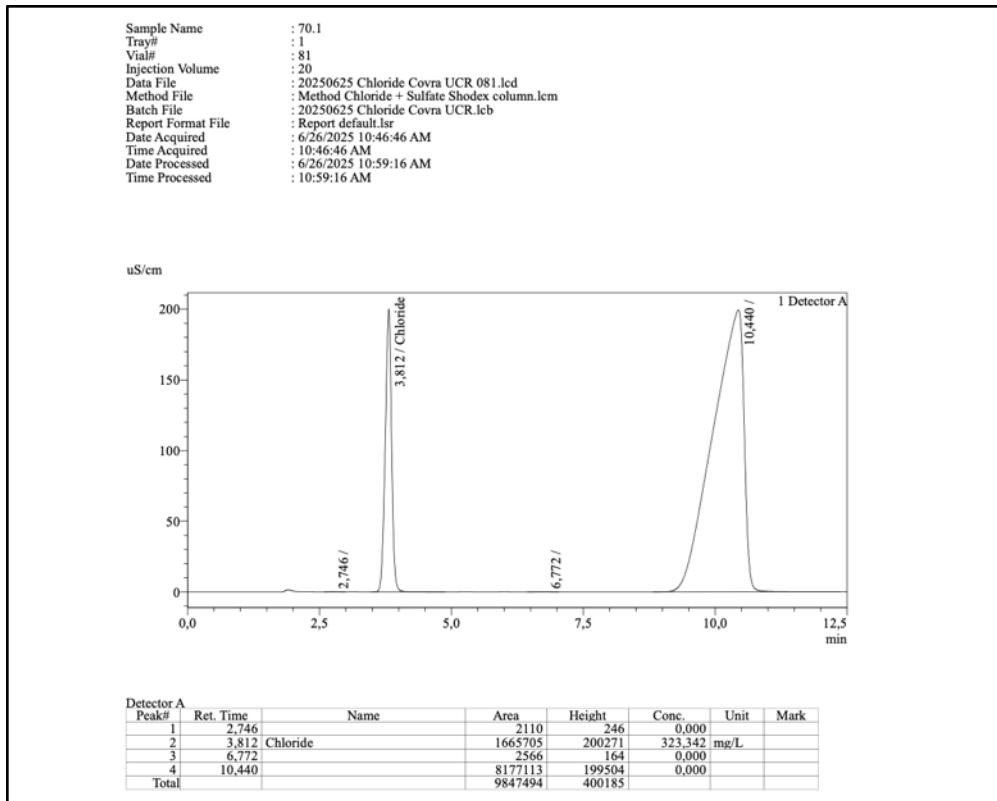


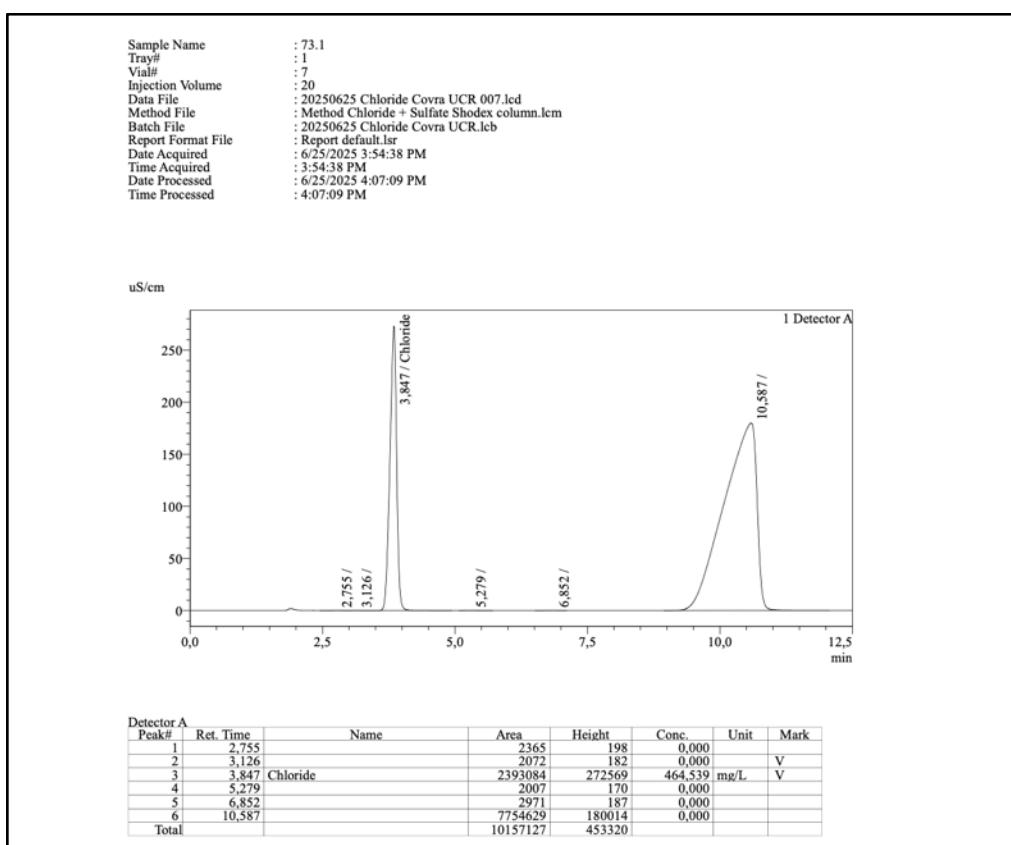
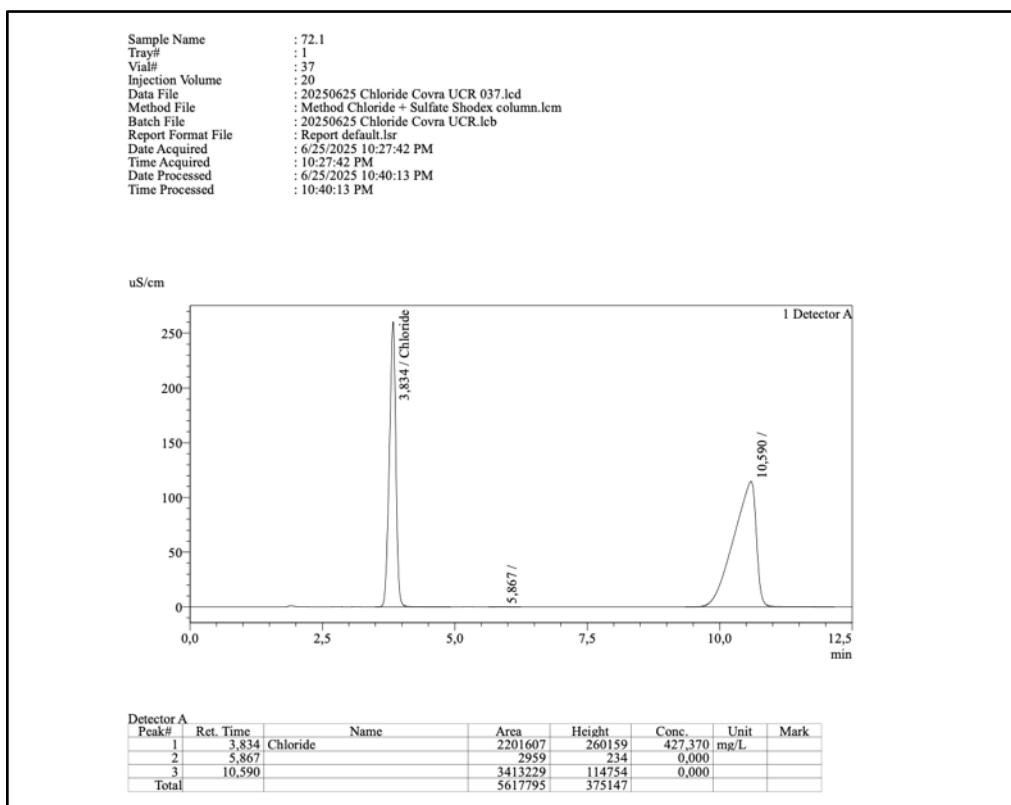






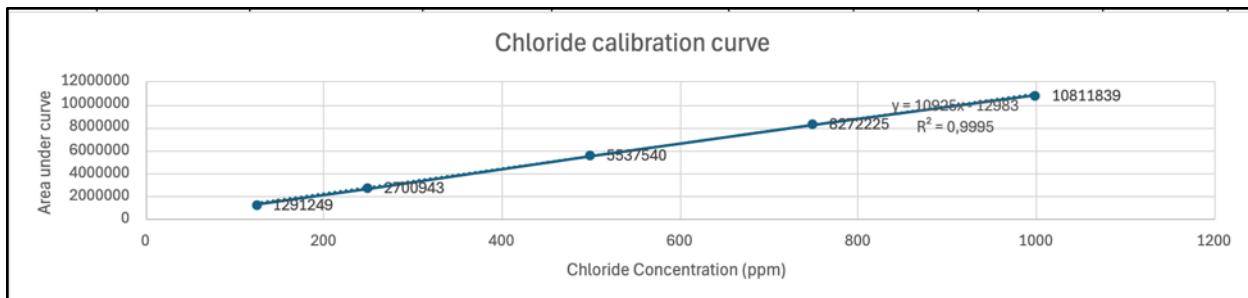




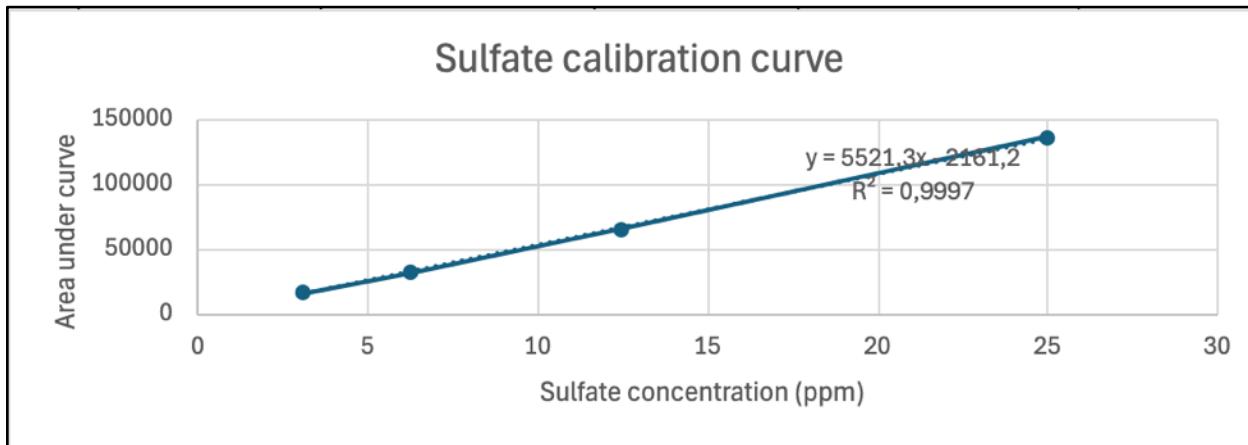


IC Calibration curves

Below are the calibration curves obtained from the Chloride and Sulfate standards.



Graph B1 – Chloride calibration curve.



Graph B2 – Sulfate calibration curve.

Table B2: Chloride : Sulfate ratio of each soil sample

This table provides the relative mass abundance of chloride to sulfate in each soil sample at depth.

Sample	Depth (m)	Chloride : Sulfate ratio
1	29,78-30,53	1,263925676
2	30,53-31,35	2,192335356
3	31,35-32,32	1,905987644
4	32,32-32,89	2,395002834
5	32,89-33,89	2,004192831
6	34,44-35,29	2,043904419
7	35,29-36,19	1,189088602
8	36,19-37,13	1,6965774
9	37,15-38,02	0,96635855
10	38,02-38,98	1,820441995
11	38,98-39,85	0,568064479
12	39,85-40,68	2,025241115
13	40,68-41,40	1,984957659
14	41,40-42,13	1,360115111
15	42,13-42,56	1,746185147
16	43,04-43,90	1,764149643
17	43,9-44,68	1,526941057
18	44,68-45,19	0,673730707
19	45,19-46,05	1,914871747
20	46,05-47,02	0,624682698
21	47,05-47,93	1,883446107
22	47,95-48,91	0,526931226
23	48,91-49,90	0,281601035
24	49,90-50,89	0,240718331
25	50,89-51,87	0,52408547
26	51,91-52,87	0,640611865
27	52,87-53,89	0,53371541
28	5392-54,89	1,24908484
29	54,92-55,89	0,782430764
30	55,91-56,88	0,242640443
31	56,9-57,89	0,269611814
32	57,91-58,89	0,5961845
33	58,91-59,88	0,193146126
34	59,90-60,74	2,05521891
35	60,92-61,89	0,35736249
36	61,90-62,88	2,469789637
37	62,90-63,88	1,02868181

38	63,90-64,90	0,241126652
39	64,91-65,90	0,556638044
40	65,91-66,90	0,836633646
41	66,91-67,88	0,434597225
42	67,90-68,88	0,492517257
43	68,89-69,89	0,187957111
44	70,42-71,42	0,562477231
45	71,45-72,45	0,353074536
46	72,45-73,44	0,311601297
47	73,47-74,45	0,508773725
48	74,47-75,42	0,333009235
49	75,47-76,34	0,122000029
50	76,46-77,46	0,56019525
51	77,97-78,65	0,345827448
52	78,67-79,59	0,259840391
53	79,63-80,31	0,628028275
54	80,32-81,17	0,465233794
55	81,20-82,04	0,579689075
56	82,05-82,97	0,385029399
57	82,99-83,60	1,586947819
58	83,60-84,53	1,352832887
59	84,82-85,96	0,738926364
60	85,99-86,99	0,65512501
61	86,99-87,81	1,769619377
62	87,81-88,81	2,87799874
63	88,87-89,80	5,726142293
64	89,84-90,84	5,257425241
65	90,87-91,80	1,650010464
66	91,87-92,80	1,721757452
67	92,86-93,78	1,594255064
68	93,80-94,70	1,436558257
69	94,72-95,72	0,175754849
70	96,72-97,29	0,103736853
71	97,29-98,27	0,254836062
72	98,30-99,18	0,507135124
73	99,77-100,23	0,156134155

Table B3: Interpreted measurements

This table provides the calculated chloride and sulfate concentrations in mg/kg and mg/L, the pH, and EC values (mS/cm). The values colored in orange indicate that they are average values.

Sample	Depth (m)	Estimated Chloride (mg/kg) in dry soil	Estimated Sulfate (mg/kg) in dry soil	Estimated Chloride (mg/L) in porewater	pH	EC uS/cm
1	29,78- 30,53	1951,517657	1544,012986	17724,73	7,36	1293
2	30,53- 31,35	2800,870481	1277,573923	14982,43	7,34	941,7
3	31,35- 32,32	4059,978032	2130,117708	16496,87	6,60	1348
4	32,32- 32,89	3027,784897	1264,209317	13338,62	7,20	1015
5	32,89- 33,89	2407,397712	1201,180682	13913,94	8,21	813,4
6	34,44- 35,29	3380,739588	1654,059533	17748,88	7,75	1130
7	35,29- 36,19	2793,740961	2349,480901	11174,96	7,56	939,4
8	36,19- 37,13	2969,328146	1750,187257	16050,26	8,10	1099
9	37,15- 38,02	3277,653547	3391,757177	17174,12	7,53	1174
10	38,02- 38,98	3655,628375	2008,099343	15584,52	7,53	1218
11	38,98- 39,85	3034,04119	5341,015504	12328,19	6,65	1017
12	39,85- 40,68	4166,128146	2057,102295	16156,45	7,44	1382
13	40,68- 41,40	3844,521739	1936,828084	16127,02	7,35	1278
14	41,40- 42,13	3166,698398	2328,257639	12666,79	7,60	1056
15	42,13- 42,56	2895,837071	1658,379168	11766,63	8,05	973
16	43,04- 43,90	2962,555606	1679,310833	12427,34	7,56	994,7
17	43,9-44,68	2650,963844	1736,127162	13917,56	7,59	893,2

18	44,68- 45,19	3703,166133	5496,50787	14584,07	7,62	1234
19	45,19- 46,05	3322,036613	1734,861156	16511,02	7,82	1111
20	46,05- 47,02	3132,126316	5013,947603	15025,13	7,49	1050
21	47,05- 47,93	2908,143707	1544,054643	13709,82	7,41	976,3
22	47,95- 48,91	4006,907551	7604,2325	19235,49	7,24	1332
23	48,91- 49,90	3189,343707	11325,75279	15571,50	7,15	1067
24	49,90- 50,89	3149,941419	13085,59015	17505,41	6,73	1056
25	50,89- 51,87	3421,038444	6527,634597	16603,05	6,90	1176
26	51,91- 52,87	2948,016476	4601,87617	19729,03	6,87	988,9
27	52,87- 53,89	3758,422883	7041,998062	15644,88	6,93	1201
28	53,92- 54,89	3664,156522	2933,472896	15753,40	7,69	1232
29	54,92- 55,89	3599,794966	4600,784036	18552,79	6,71	1201
30	55,91- 56,88	2863,383066	11800,93074	16884,09	6,66	961,3
31	56,9-57,89	2967,78032	11007,60489	14750,31	6,47	995,9
32	57,91- 58,89	3622,172998	6075,590694	15696,08	6,92	1208
33	58,91- 59,88	2886,672769	14945,53799	15737,02	7,15	969,4
34	59,90- 60,74	3706,56659	1803,489921	16885,47	7,42	1235
35	60,92- 61,89	4260,45492	11921,9421	18769,03	7,56	1412
36	61,90- 62,88	3651,73913	1478,56282	16921,44	7,65	1217
37	62,90- 63,88	2458,248055	2389,706935	13930,07	7,01	829,4
38	63,90- 64,90	3691,961556	15311,29605	17710,71	7,66	1231

39	64,91- 65,90	3286,614188	5904,400938	16938,70	7,06	1099
40	65,91- 66,90	4008,816476	4791,603227	17090,22	7,80	1331
41	66,91- 67,88	3533,401373	8130,289769	19262,74	7,43	1179
42	67,90- 68,88	4938,082838	10026,21283	17785,84	6,97	1676
43	68,89- 69,89	3644,288787	19388,93809	13746,81	5,76	1165
44	70,42- 71,42	3926,677346	6981,042309	13721,31	6,91	1306
45	71,45- 72,45	3042,095195	8616,014145	11444,07	7,18	1020
46	72,45- 73,44	3446,66087	11061,1249	13573,89	7,15	1151
47	73,47- 74,45	3777,411442	7424,541123	13791,94	6,76	1257
48	74,47- 75,42	3302,081465	9915,885552	12805,63	6,81	1105
49	75,47- 76,34	1606,491533	13167,96024	10751,14	6,86	548,6
50	76,46- 77,46	3586,081465	6401,484958	11355,92	6,9	1195
51	77,97- 78,65	1527,14508	4415,916342	11469,83	6,96	522,6
52	78,67- 79,59	2360,034783	9082,632514	12390,18	6,78	798
53	79,63- 80,31	2181,469108	3473,52053	15270,28	7,03	739,8
54	80,32- 81,17	2312,104348	4969,768696	11167,52	7,05	695,4
55	81,20- 82,04	4296,117162	7411,071469	13604,37	7,9	1422
56	82,05- 82,97	3330,622426	8650,306794	14432,70	7,13	1113
57	82,99- 83,60	3887,727231	2449,814156	16574,00	7,11	1292
58	83,60- 84,53	3414,272769	2523,794921	15041,26	6,84	1140
59	84,82- 85,96	3009,418764	4072,691015	16724,47	7,04	1009

60	85,99- 86,99	3293,091991	5026,662	16972,09	7,22	1101
61	86,99- 87,81	3323,873227	1878,29839	15286,23	6,78	1084
62	87,81- 88,81	3587,226545	1246,430895	16622,50	6,87	1196
63	88,87- 89,80	3784,720366	660,9546484	17241,50	6,95	1260
64	89,84- 90,84	4202,901602	799,4220383	17350,44	7,22	1393
65	90,87- 91,80	3963,549657	2402,136073	17155,10	6,95	1316
66	91,87- 92,80	3630,792677	2108,771286	15230,47	7,06	1210
67	92,86- 93,78	4191,187185	2628,931393	17302,08	7,02	1390
68	93,80- 94,70	3835,583982	2669,981508	15588,48	6,97	1276
69	94,72- 95,72	2976,873227	16937,64492	7848,12	6,9	998,2
70	96,72- 97,29	1536,556522	14812,06037	7502,01	7,5	524,9
71	97,29- 98,27	2178,631579	8549,149458	6120,92	7,31	738,6
72	98,30- 99,18	3136,120824	6183,994512	11977,71	6,92	1051
73	99,77- 100,23	2193,196339	14046,87101	5710,21	6,91	743,3

Table B4: Bulk Resistivity measurements, Formation Factor and Effective Diffusion Coefficients with corresponding formation

Values colored in red are the conservative literature-based formation factors (143) and corresponding upper-bound D_{eff} coefficients which are not to be interpreted as direct measurements. The molecular diffusion coefficient (D_0) being 2.3×10^{-9} .

Samples	Avg. Depth (m)	Extract Resistivity ($\Omega \cdot \text{m}$)	Bulk Resistivity ($\Omega \cdot \text{m}$)	(Proxy) / Formation Factors ($F^*/\text{lit. } F$)	Effective Diffusion Coefficients (D_{eff})	Formation
1	30,155	7,7				Oosterhout formation
2	30,94	10,6				Oosterhout formation
3	31,835	7,4				Oosterhout formation
4	32,605	9,9				Oosterhout formation
5	33,39	12,3		143	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
6	34,865	8,8		143	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
7	35,74	10,6		143	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
8	36,66	9,1		143	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
9	37,585	8,5		143	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
10	38,5	8,2		143	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
11	39,415	9,8	2080	211,54	$1,1 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
12	40,265	7,2	1812	250,42	$9,2 \times 10^{-12}$	Breda formation
13	41,04	7,8	1843	235,54	$9,8 \times 10^{-12}$	Breda formation
14	41,765	9,5	2600	274,56	$8,4 \times 10^{-12}$	Breda formation
15	42,345	10,3	1231	119,78	$1,9 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
16	43,47	10,1	1233	122,65	$1,9 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
17	44,29	11,2	1687	150,68	$1,5 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
18	44,936	8,1	1675	206,70	$1,1 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation

19	45,62	9,0	1285	142,76	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
20	46,535	9,5	1614	169,47	$1,4 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
21	47,49	10,2	1730	168,90	$1,4 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
22	48,43	7,5	1646	219,25	$1,0 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
23	49,405	9,4	1732	184,80	$1,2 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
24	50,395	9,5	1264	133,48	$1,7 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
25	51,38	8,5	1858	218,50	$1,1 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
26	52,39	10,1	2400	237,34	$9,7 \times 10^{-12}$	Breda formation
27	53,38	8,3	1178	141,48	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
28	54,405	8,1	1799	221,64	$1,0 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
29	55,405	8,3	1736	208,49	$1,1 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
30	56,395	10,4	1278	122,85	$1,9 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
31	57,395	10,0	1390	138,43	$1,7 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
32	58,4	8,3	1182	142,79	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
33	59,395	10,3	1172	113,61	$2,0 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
34	60,32	8,1	1171	144,62	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
35	61,405	7,1	1216	171,70	$1,3 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
36	62,39	8,2	1329	161,74	$1,4 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
37	63,39	12,1	1196	99,20	$2,3 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
38	64,4	8,1	1177	144,89	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
39	65,405	9,1	1349	148,26	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
40	66,405	7,5	1168	155,46	$1,5 \times 10^{-11}$	Breda formation
41	67,395	8,5	2360	278,24	$8,3 \times 10^{-12}$	Breda formation
42	68,39	6,0		143	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Boom clay formation

43	69,39	8,6		143	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Boom clay formation
44	70,92	7,7		143	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Boom clay formation
45	71,95	9,8		143	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Boom clay formation
46	72,945	8,7		143	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Boom clay formation
47	73,96	8,0		143	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Boom clay formation
48	74,945	9,0		143	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Boom clay formation
49	75,905	18,2		143	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Boom clay formation
50	76,96	8,4		143	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Boom clay formation
51	78,31	19,1		143	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Boom clay formation
52	79,13	12,5		143	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Boom clay formation
53	79,97	13,5		143	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Ruisbroek sand
54	80,745	14,4		143	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Ruisbroek sand
55	81,62	7,0		143	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Ruisbroek sand
56	82,51	9,0		143	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Ruisbroek sand
57	83,295	7,7		143	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Ruisbroek sand
58	84,065	8,8		143	$1,6 \times 10^{-11}$	Ruisbroek sand
59	85,39	9,9	1735	175,0615	$1,3 \times 10^{-11}$	Ruisbroek sand
60	86,49	9,1	1774	195,3174	$1,2 \times 10^{-11}$	Ruisbroek sand
61	87,4	9,2	1662	180,1608	$1,3 \times 10^{-11}$	Ruisbroek sand
62	88,31	8,4	1562	186,8152	$1,2 \times 10^{-11}$	Ruisbroek sand
63	89,335	7,9	1572	198,072	$1,2 \times 10^{-11}$	Ruisbroek sand
64	90,34	7,2	1589	221,3477	$1,0 \times 10^{-11}$	Ruisbroek sand
65	91,335	7,6	1750	230,3	$1,0 \times 10^{-11}$	Ruisbroek sand
66	92,335	8,3	1716	207,636	$1,1 \times 10^{-11}$	Ruisbroek sand

67	93,32	7,2	2030	282,17	8,2 x 10 ⁻¹²	Ruisbroek sand
68	94,25	7,8	2090	266,684	8,6 x 10 ⁻¹²	Ruisbroek sand
69	95,22	10,0	1378	137,55196	1,7X 10-11	Watervliet clay
70	97,005	19,1	1450	76,1105	3,0X 10-11	Watervliet clay
71	97,78	13,5		143	4,6X 10-11	Watervliet clay
72	98,74	9,5		143	4,6X 10-11	Watervliet clay
73	100	13,5		143	4,6X 10-11	Watervliet clay