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HTO and Selenate Diffusion Through Compacted Na-, Na-

Ca-, and Ca-Montmorillonite

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Abstract

13	Radionuclide transport in smectite clay barrier systems used for nuclear waste disposal is controlled by
14	diffusion, with adsorption significantly retarding transport rates. While a relatively minor component of
15	spent nuclear fuel, ⁷⁹ Se is a major driver of the safety case for spent fuel disposal due to its long half-life
16	$(3.3 \times 10^5~\text{yr})$ and its low adsorption to clay (K _D <10 L/kg), thus a thorough understanding of Se diffusion
17	through clay is critical for understanding the long-term safety of spent fuel disposal systems. Through-
18	diffusion experiments with tritiated water (HTO, conservative tracer) and Se(VI) were conducted with a
19	$well\text{-}characterized, purified montmorillonite source clay (SWy-2) under a constant ionic strength (0.1\ M)$
20	and three different electrolyte compositions: Na+, Ca2+, and a Na+-Ca2+ mixture at pH 6.5 in order to
21	probe the effects of electrolyte composition and interlayer cation composition on clay microstructure,
22	Se(VI) aqueous speciation, and ultimately diffusion. The results were modeled using a reactive transport
23	modeling approach to determine values of porosity (ε), D_e (effective diffusion coefficient), and K_D
24	(distribution coefficient for adsorption). HTO diffusive flux was higher in Ca-montmorillonite (D_e =1.68 \times
25	10^{-10} m ² s ⁻¹) compared to Na-montmorillonite (D_e =7.83 × 10^{-11} m ² s ⁻¹). This increase in flux is likely due
26	to a greater degree of clay layer stacking in the presence of Ca ²⁺ compared to Na ⁺ , which leads to larger
27	inter-particle pores. Overall, the Se(VI) flux was much lower than the HTO flux due to anion exclusion,
28	$with \ Se(VI) \ flux \ following \ the \ order \ Ca \ (D_e=1.03\times 10^{\text{-}11} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}1}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}12}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}12}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}12}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}12}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}12}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}12}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}12}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}12}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}12}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}12}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}12}) > Na-Ca \ (D_e=2.12\times 10^{\text{-}12} \ m^2 \ s^{\text{-}12}) > Na-Ca \ (D$
29	$(D_e = 1.28 \times 10^{\text{-}12} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{\text{-}1}). \text{ These differences in Se(VI) flux are due to a combination of factors, including}$
30	(1) larger accessible porosity in Ca-montmorillonite due to clay layer stacking and smaller electrostatic
31	effects compared to Na-montmorillonite, (2) larger accessible porosity for neutral-charge CaSeO4 species
32	which makes up 32% of aqueous Se(VI) in the pure Ca system, and (3) possibly higher Se(VI) adsorption
33	for Ca-montmorillonite. Through a combination of experimental and modeling work, this study highlights
34	the compounding effects that electrolyte and counterion compositions can have on radionuclide transport
35	through clay. Diffusion models that neglect these effects are not transferable from laboratory
36	experimental conditions to in situ repository conditions.

Keywords

Selenium diffusion; radioactive waste; interlayer cation; engineered barriers; anion exclusion

1. Introduction

43	Smectite clays, 2:1 layer-type phyllosilicate minerals, are the primary clay minerals found in
44	bentonite and an important component of engineered barrier systems used for geologic storage of
45	radioactive waste. Long-term nuclear waste disposal repositories must be capable of isolating
46	radioactive waste over the time scales necessary for the decay of long-lived radioactive isotopes
47	$(> 10^6 \text{ years})$. Smectite clays are good barriers for radioactive waste due to their swelling
48	capacity, ability to seal cracks, low hydraulic conductivity, and their high adsorption capacity for
49	radionuclides. Montmorillonite is a common smectite mineral which has been widely studied. It
50	has a large specific surface area (~750 m²/g), cation exchange capacity (~1 molc/kg), and
51	strongly-sorbing surface complexation sites on clay edge surfaces.
52	Natural smectites contain interlayer cations, including primarily Na ⁺ , Ca ²⁺ , and Mg ²⁺ , which
53	balance the negative permanent charge arising from isomorphic substitution in the phyllosilicate
54	structure. The interlayer cation composition of smectite clays, including montmorillonite, affects
55	the hydration and swelling properties of the clays (Bleam, 1990; Honorio et al., 2017; Laird and
56	Shang, 1997; Salles et al., 2013; Subramanian and Nielsen Lammers, 2022; Teich-McGoldrick et
57	al., 2015). For example, the presence of Na^+ in the interlayer leads to a higher degree of swelling
58	compared to Ca ²⁺ due to differences in the sizes and hydration energies of the cations. Natural
59	smectites can have a wide range of interlayer cation compositions; Missana et al. (2018) studied
60	bentonites currently under investigation for use in nuclear waste repositories and found Na ⁺
61	comprised <1 to 90% of the interlayer cation composition, with and Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} making up
62	the bulk of the remainder. Groundwater intrusion into bentonite barriers can also alter the
63	interlayer cation composition through cation exchange.
64	In compacted clay, solute transport is controlled by diffusion, and adsorption of solutes to the
65	clay can significantly retard transport. While uranium is the primary constituent of radioactive
66	waste, selenium (⁷⁹ Se) is a major driver of the safety case for nuclear waste disposal due to its
67	long half-life (3.3 \times 10 ⁵ yr) and presence as relatively mobile anionic species under a range of
68	chemical conditions (<i>e.g.</i> , HSe ⁻ , SeO ₃ ²⁻ , SeO ₄ ²⁻). Se redox chemistry is complex, with oxidation
69	states ranging from -II to $+VI$ over environmentally relevant conditions. While Se(-II) and Se(0)
70	are relatively immobile due to the formation of low solubility precipitates, $Se(IV)$ and $Se(VI)$
71	exist as the oxyanions selenite (SeO ₃ ²⁻) and selenate (SeO ₄ ²⁻) and are highly mobile in water due

72	to their high solubility. During deep geologic disposal of nuclear waste, the near field
73	environment is characterized by a relatively short oxic period, followed by anoxic conditions.
74	However, there is significant uncertainty and range in the Eh values expected, which will depend
75	on numerous factors including the host rock type, bentonite composition, and waste canister
76	corrosion. This makes it difficult to predict the speciation of Se in engineered barriers, however
77	selenite and selenate are considered to be the dominant Se aqueous species released during
78	oxidation of spent nuclear fuel (Ma et al, 2019; Chen et al., 1999). Se adsorption to clay minerals
79	is quite low compared to other important radionuclides such as U. K _D values for selenite
80	adsorption to smectite are in the range of 1-10 L/kg (Missana et al., 2009; Montavon et al., 2009)
81	compared to values up to 10 ⁴ for U(VI) (Tournassat et al., 2018). Selenite and selenate
82	adsorption to the clay minerals kaolinite and Ca-montmorillonite were studied by Bar-Yosef and
83	Meek (1987) over the pH range 4-8. Both selenite and selenate adsorption decreased with
84	increasing pH, with very low or negligible adsorption above pH 8. Selenate adsorption to
85	kaolinite was lower than selenite adsorption (Bar-Yosef and Meek, 1987).
86	Selenite diffusion through bentonite has been investigated in several studies (García-Gutiérrez et
87	al., 2001; Idemitsu et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2017). Idemitsu et al. (2016)
88	measured apparent diffusion coefficient (Da) values of 2.5×10^{-11} to 1.9×10^{-13} m ² /s over a range
89	of dry bulk densities (0.8-1.6 kg/L), ionic strengths (0.01-1.0 M NaCl), and temperatures (10-
90	55°C) for purified bentonite consisting of 99% montmorillonite. Measured Da values for bulk
91	bentonite (i.e., with lower smectite content) under similar conditions are 1-2 orders of magnitude
92	higher (Sato et al., 1995; Wu et al., 2014). Due to the lower adsorption of selenate compared to
93	selenite, selenate Da values are expected to be even higher than observed for selenite, although
94	we could find no studies on selenate diffusion through bentonite in the literature.
95	In this paper, we present experimental and modeling results from tritiated water (HTO) and
96	Se(VI) through-diffusion experiments using a well-characterized, purified montmorillonite
97	source clay (SWy-2) with different interlayer cation compositions (Na ⁺ and Ca ²⁺). Previous
98	studies have observed higher diffusive flux of HTO (González Sánchez et al., 2008) and ReO4
99	(Wu et al., 2018) through Ca-montmorillonite compared to Na-montmorillonite. Selenate, with a
100	charge of -2 and minimal adsorption, provides an opportunity to further probe anion diffusion
101	(i.e., for divalent species) in Na and Ca-montmorillonite systems and provide direct information

on ⁷⁹Se transport through clay barriers. Experiments were conducted under a single ionic strength (0.1 M) and three different electrolyte compositions representing pure Na⁺, pure Ca²⁺, and a Na⁺- Ca²⁺ mixture in order to probe the effects of electrolyte composition and interlayer cation composition on clay microstructure, Se(VI) aqueous speciation, and ultimately diffusion.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Clay Samples

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108	Selenium diffusion experiments were conducted using a well-characterized montmorillonite
109	source clay (SWy-2) obtained from the Clay Minerals Society. The montmorillonite was purified
110	in order to remove minor impurities (quartz, feldspars, and calcite). The purification procedure
111	was adapted from Tinnacher et al. (2016). The procedure included the following major steps: (1)
112	dialysis against sodium acetate at pH 5 for carbonate mineral dissolution, (2) dialysis against
113	NaCl to remove acetate and complete Na-saturation, (3) dialysis against water to remove excess
114	salts, and (4) centrifugation to remove quartz and feldspar particles greater than 2 μm .
115	Montmorillonite (50 g) was suspended in 1 L of 1 M sodium acetate solution buffered at pH 5
116	with acetic acid, placed into pre-rinsed dialysis tubing (SpectraPor7, 8 kDa), and dialyzed against
117	acetate buffer for 1 week, changing dialysis solution daily. The acetate buffer dialysis solution
118	was then replaced with 1 M NaCl (dialyzed for 3 days), then with MilliQ water (dialyzed for two
119	weeks), again changing dialysis solution daily. The clay suspensions were then transferred into
120	plastic bottles and diluted and dispersed in MilliQ water to reach a clay concentration of
121	approximately 15 g/L, and centrifuged at $1000 \times g$ for 7 minutes. This centrifugation speed and
122	time was deemed sufficient to remove all particles $> 2\ \mu m$ as calculated from Stoke's Law. The
123	replicate $<2~\mu m$ clay fractions were then combined into a glass beaker, dried at $60^{\circ} C$ and ground
124	in ball mill with tungsten carbide balls.
125	In order to maintain constant aqueous porewater chemical conditions and interlayer cation
126	composition during the diffusion experiments, purified montmorillonite was pre-equilibrated
127	with the appropriate background electrolyte prior to packing in diffusion cells. 2 g of purified
128	clay was suspended in 100 mL of electrolyte solution and the clay suspension was transferred to
129	pre-rinsed dialysis tubing (SpectrPor7, 8 kDa). Clay samples were dialyzed against 1 L of
130	background electrolyte for 1.5 weeks, changing dialysis solution at least 3 times and manually

131 adjusting pH daily. Once the pH remained between 6.45-6.55 within 24 hours, the background 132 electrolyte solution was replaced with MilliQ water, and dialysis was continued for 5 days, 133 changing the MilliQ water daily. After dialysis was complete, the clay suspension was 134 transferred to 40 mL polycarbonate centrifuge tubes and centrifuged at 39 $000 \times g$ for 20 135 minutes. The supernatant was removed and the clay was dried at 60°C and ground in ball mill 136 with tungsten carbide balls and stored at room temperature prior to packing the cells. At the time 137 of packing, a subsample of each clay was dried at 150°C to determine the moisture content. 138 The cation exchange capacity (CEC) and exchangeable cation composition was measured using 139 the hexamine cobalt(III) chloride method (Hadi et al., 2013). Triplicate samples of 50 mg dry 140 clay were weighed into centrifuge tubes and 10 mL of 15 mM hexamine cobalt(III) chloride 141 solution was added. Samples were mixed on an end-over-end sample rotator for 2 hours, then 142 centrifuged at 39,000 x g. Solution samples were analyzed for major cations (Ca, Mg, K, and Na) 143 by ICP-MS and the cation exchange capacity was calculated from the sum of cations released 144 from the hexamine cobalt solution corrected for any soluble salts released during the water 145 extracts. CEC is expressed as mmole/g (mmol of charge per gram dry clay) and cation 146 composition is expressed as the charge fraction for each cation. 147 2.2 Characterization of Filters 148 In order to accurately model diffusion through clay, the diffusion properties of the filters used in 149 the diffusion cell must be explicitly considered. Therefore, diffusive properties of the filters were 150 measured using custom-built filter diffusion cells based on a modified design of Aldaba et al. 151 (2014). The cells consisted of two polycarbonate reservoirs with a filter connecting the two 152 reservoirs. The filter is held in place with O-rings on each side and the two reservoirs are held 153 together in a base plate. A one-hole silicone stopper was fitted in the top of each reservoir with a 154 conductivity probe inserted through the hole to monitor solute diffusion. In addition, a small 155 needle (22 G) was inserted through each stopper to allow venting and pressure equalization with 156 the atmosphere. Without this venting needle, a small pressure differential can develop between 157 the two cells due to slight differences in stopper insertion, causing water to flow between the two 158 cells. Filters were made of PEEK with a PCTFE ring (IDEX # OC-815). The filters had an

overall diameter of 0.95 cm, filter diameter of 0.74 cm, thickness of 0.16 cm, 5 µm pore size, and

porosity of 0.26 according to the manufacturer.

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161 The diffusion of sodium chloride was measured using this experimental setup in five replicate 162 experiments. The filter was soaked in MilliO water to remove air bubbles. 45 mL of MilliO 163 water was then added to each reservoir and allowed to equilibrate for at least 3 h. The low- and 164 high-concentration reservoirs were then spiked with 5 mL MilliQ water or 1 M NaCl, 165 respectively to start the experiment. This resulted in a concentration of 0.1 M NaCl in the high-166 concentration reservoir. Both reservoirs were stirred constantly throughout the experiment. The 167 electrical conductivity of each reservoir was monitored with a conductivity probe and 168 automatically logged every 30 min. The conductivity probes were calibrated with known 169 concentrations of NaCl. During one experiment, 0.125 mL subsamples from each reservoir were 170 collected and analyzed for Na by ICP-MS in order to verify that the conductivity measurements 171 were accurately representing Na concentration. The measured Na concentrations agreed within 172 3% for the two methods.

2.3 Diffusion coefficient of filters

- 174 The cumulative mass (mol) of NaCl in the low-concentration reservoir was plotted over time (s).
- 175 This results in a pseudo-linear breakthrough curve for the first ~100 h during which the
- 176 concentration of NaCl in the high-concentration reservoir did not change significantly. The curve
- was fit with a linear regression and the effective diffusion coefficient (D_e) was determined using
- the slope (a) from the equation given by

$$D_e = \frac{a L}{A C_0}$$
 Equation 1

- where L is the thickness of the filter, A is the cross-sectional area of the filter, and C_0 is the initial
- 180 concentration in the high-concentration reservoir.
- 181 Effective diffusion coefficients measured for filters depend on the characteristics of both the
- 182 filter and the solute, according to:

$$D_e = \frac{\varepsilon}{G} D_0 = \tau \varepsilon D_0$$
 Equation 2

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where D_0 is the bulk diffusion coefficient of a solute in water, while G (or $1/\tau$) is a geometric

factor that accounts for the geometry of the filter pore network. τ is often referred to as the

tortuosity although it lumps together the true tortuosity and the constrictivity of the material. In this filter diffusion experiment D_0 refers to the co-diffusion of Na⁺ and Cl⁻ (1.61 × 10⁻⁹ m²s⁻¹), which is calculated from the diffusion coefficients of Na⁺ and Cl⁻, (1.33 × 10⁻⁹ and 2.03 × 10⁻⁹, respectively at 25°C; Li and Gregory (1974) according to Cussler (2009) (see details in the SI). Diffusion coefficients of aqueous species were calculated using the filter parameters and the known D_0 values for those aqueous species. D_0 values at 25°C for HTO and SeO₄²⁻ were taken at 2.30 × 10⁻⁹ m² s⁻¹ and 9.46 × 10⁻¹⁰ m² s⁻¹ respectively.

2.4 Diffusion Experiments

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Through-diffusion experiments were conducted with purified, pre-equilibrated montmorillonite at a dry bulk density (ρ_d) of approximately 1.3 kg L⁻¹ corresponding to a total porosity (ε) of approximately 0.5 according to:

$$\varepsilon = 1 - \frac{\rho_d}{\rho_g}$$
 Equation 3

where ρ_g is the crystal density of clay mineral layers (*i.e.*, grain density). For montmorillonite, ρ_g is approximately 2.84 kg L⁻¹ (Bourg et al., 2006; Tournassat and Appelo, 2011). The dry bulk density (ρ_d) is expressed in terms of the 150 °C oven dry weight of clay. There were some small differences in the calculated bulk density and porosity for the three diffusion cells because of differences in the moisture content of the clay at the time of packing (Table 2.).

The diffusion cells used for experiments are based on the design of (Van Loon et al., 2003), with dimensions adjusted to accommodate smaller samples (Figure S1). The clay plug inside the diffusion cells had a diameter of 9.5 mm and a length of 5 mm. Cells were machined in-house using PEEK (polyether ether ketone) plastic at Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory.

Experiments were conducted under a single ionic strength (0.1 M) and three different electrolyte compositions: 0.1 M NaCl, 0.033 M CaCl₂, and 0.085 M NaCl + 0.005 M CaCl₂, representing pure Na⁺, pure Ca²⁺, and a Na⁺-Ca²⁺ mixture, respectively. All experiments were performed at

room temperature (23°C) at pH 6.5. The pre-equilibrated dry clay samples were weighed into

PEEK diffusion cells and compacted using a custom PEEK packing rod.

212	The diffusion experiments were conducted in three phases: (1) saturation, (2) tritiated water
213	(HTO) diffusion, and (3) Se(VI) diffusion. The clay was saturated by circulating 200 mL of
214	background electrolyte at both ends of the cell at approximately 1 mL/min using a peristaltic
215	pump for 40-42 days. After the saturation period, the HTO through-diffusion phase was started
216	by replacing the background electrolyte solutions with a high HTO reservoir containing
217	background electrolyte spiked with 1110 Bq mL ⁻¹ HTO (200 mL) at one end and a low HTO
218	reservoir containing only background electrolyte (20 mL) at the other end. The high-
219	concentration reservoir was sampled at the beginning and the end of the HTO diffusion
220	experiment and did not change significantly over that time period. The low HTO reservoir was
221	changed at time intervals of 3-36 h, and the HTO concentration was measured in the low
222	reservoir samples by liquid scintillation counting. An in-house-built autosampler using a 3D
223	printer (Creality Ender 3Pro) as the base was used to change the low reservoir samples at regular
224	time intervals. The HTO concentration in the low reservoir never exceeded 0.5% of the
225	concentration in the high reservoir. The HTO diffusion was continued for 16 days. After this
226	period, the high-concentration reservoir was replaced with a Se(VI)-spiked solution containing
227	1.0 mM sodium selenate in the background electrolyte with a total volume of 190 mL, marking
228	the start of the Se(VI) diffusion experiment. The low-concentration reservoirs containing only
229	background electrolyte (5-10 mL) were changed at time intervals of 12-48 h for the first 44 days,
230	then 48-170 h for the remaining 33 days, and Se concentrations were measured by ICP-MS. Se
231	concentrations in the low reservoir never exceeded 1% of the concentration in the high reservoir.
232	Subsamples of the high-concentration Se(VI) reservoir were collected at the beginning and end
233	of the experiment and did not change significantly over the experiment.
234	At the end of the Se(VI) diffusion period, the diffusion cells were disassembled and the clay plug
235	was extruded using the PEEK packing rod and sliced into thin slices. The thickness of the clay
236	slices was measured using a digital caliper with a precision of 0.1 mm. Clay slices ranged in
237	thickness from 0.3 to 0.9 mm. The clay slices were placed into 20 mL glass scintillation vials and
238	dried at 150°C for 24 hours. The dried clay was extracted with 5 mL of 0.5 M trace metal grade
239	hydrochloric acid for 3 days, then centrifuged at 39 $000 \times g$ for 20 min and filtered through a
240	0.45 µm PVDF syringe filter. Selenium concentrations were measured in the acid extracts by
241	ICP-MS. Se concentrations in the clay profiles are expressed in mmol Se per liter of total
242	porosity (Cse_pore), calculated using the following equation:

$$C_{Se_pore} = \frac{1000 \times C_{Se_solid} \times \rho_d}{\varepsilon}$$
 Equation 4

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Where C_{Se_solid} is the concentration of Se extracted per gram of dry clay (in mmol g⁻¹).

2.5 Analytical Techniques

- 246 Samples were analyzed for Se by ICP-MS (Perkin-Elmer Elan DRC II) after acidification and
- 247 dilution with ultrapure (ultrex grade) 0.15 M nitric acid and internal standard addition. Selenium
- 248 was measured using oxygen as the cell gas in DRC mode and using Rh as an internal standard.
- 249 Spike recoveries with known concentrations of Se were run every 5 samples, and recoveries
- ranged from 0.80-1.25. Independent QC samples were run every 10 samples, with recoveries
- ranging from 0.9-1.1. HTO samples were analyzed using liquid scintillation counting (Perkin-
- 252 Elmer Liquid Scintillation Analyzer Tri-Carb 2900TR) by mixing 4 mL of sample with 18 mL of
- 253 Ultima Gold XR liquid scintillation cocktail and counting until the relative standard deviation
- was 2% or for a maximum of 90 minutes.

2.6 Modeling Approach

- Normalized mass flux $(J_N, \text{ in m day}^{-1})$ reaching the low-concentration reservoir is most
- 257 frequently calculated in the literature using:

$$J_N = \frac{C_{low}V_{low}}{C_{high}A \cdot \Delta t}$$
 Equation 5

- where C_{low} is the concentration in the low-concentration reservoir, C_{high} is the concentration in
- 259 the high-concentration reservoir, *V_{low}* is the volume of the low-concentration reservoir (from ~5
- 260 to ~20 mL depending on the sampling event), A is the cross-sectional area of the diffusion cell
- 261 (0.709 cm²), and Δt is the time interval since the previous sampling event. This approximation is
- applicable for cases in which tracer concentration in the high reservoir does not change
- significantly over the course of the experiment (i.e., tracer source is considered infinite) and the
- tracer concentration in the low reservoir remains near zero (Yaroshchuk et al., 2008). However,
- for modeling purposes, this representation presents some problems (discussed in detail in
- Tournassat et al. (2023)), which include differences in time-integrated fluxes, J_N , compared to
- instantaneous fluxes calculated with the analytical solution of the diffusion equations. J_N values

268 may also oscillate with time because of the irregular pattern of sampling events during the 269 experiment. A reactive transport modeling approach makes it possible to consider all 270 experimental features such as the above-mentioned problems, as well as varying boundary 271 conditions, the presence of filters, the presence of an O-ring in the filters, the replacement of the 272 low-concentration reservoir with time, etc. (Tournassat et al., 2023). In addition, a reactive 273 transport modeling approach allows comparison of the modeling results directly to the raw 274 experimental data, i.e. the tracer concentrations measured in each of the collected vials at all 275 sampling times. For these reasons, all clay sample diffusion experiments were modeled using the 276 reactive transport model CrunchClay (Steefel and Tournassat, 2021; Tournassat and Steefel, 277 2021; Tournassat et al., 2020). The consideration of an O-ring in the filters necessitated carrying 278 out the calculations with a 2D-axisymmetric geometry (Tournassat et al., 2023). 279 CrunchClay was used in combination with the CrunchEase interface (Tournassat et al., 2023) to 280 estimate clay diffusive properties within the framework of a classical $\varepsilon - D_e - K_D$ modeling approach, where ε is the diffusion porosity (-), D_e is the effective diffusion coefficient (m² s⁻¹, 281 see Equation 2) and K_D (L kg⁻¹) is the distribution coefficient that accounts for reversible and 282 283 linear adsorption processes. We assumed that HTO was present only in solution and that Se was present in solution (with c = aqueous concentration) and on surfaces (with C_{surf} in mol kg_{solid}-1) so 284 285 that C_{tot} (in mol m_{medium}⁻³) can be expressed as:

$$C_{tot} = c\varepsilon + C_{surf}\rho_d$$
 Equation 6

We assumed that the Se surface concentration C_{surf} was linearly related to the aqueous concentration through $C_{surf} = cK_D$ (with K_D in m³water kg_{solid}-1) and that the adsorption process was instantaneous and reversible. Based on this assumption,

$$C_{tot} = c\varepsilon + cK_D\rho_d.$$
 Equation 7

It was further assumed that the media were homogeneous. Hence D_e , ε , ρ_d and K_D are independent of x, and Fick's second law of diffusion reduces to:

$$\frac{\partial c}{\partial t} = \frac{\tau \varepsilon D_0}{\varepsilon + \rho_d K_D} \frac{\partial^2 c}{\partial x^2} = \frac{D_e}{\alpha} \frac{\partial^2 c}{\partial x^2}$$
 Equation 8

292 where α is the rock capacity factor. 293 The dimensions of the diffusion cells are available in the Supporting Information (Figure S1). 294 The exact same dimensions were considered in our reactive transport simulations, which can be 295 reproduced by the readers using the CrunchEase GUI made freely available on Github 296 (https://github.com/Tournassat/CrunchEaseForAll). 297 In the following, the agreement of the model with the experimental data is shown on the raw data 298 (concentration measurements in vials) and the experimental time-averaged flux J_N as a function 299 of experimental conditions is only shown for comparison. 3. Results and Discussion 300 3.1 Filter Diffusion Properties 301 302 In order to characterize the baseline performance of the reaction cell, diffusion of NaCl through 303 PEEK filters was measured in five replicate experiments. An example plot of cumulative NaCl 304 mass in the low reservoir over time is shown in Figure S2. There was an initial lag period, 305 followed by a linear increase in NaCl in the low reservoir. This linear portion of the 306 breakthrough curve was used to calculate the effective diffusion coefficient of Na⁺ and Cl⁻ through the filter according to Equation 1, resulting in a measured D_e of $6.1 \times 10^{-11} \pm 0.29 \times 10^{-11}$ 307 308 $m^2 s^{-1}$. 309 Given the known values for ε and D_0 (Table S1), we calculated G to be 6.82 ± 0.33 ($\tau = 0.147 \pm$ 310 0.007). The measured D_e value was lower than for stainless steel filters with a similar pore size $(1.6\times10^{-10} \text{ m}^2\text{ s}^{-1})$ (Aldaba et al., 2014). G and ε were slightly lower for the PEEK filters used in 311 this experiment compared to those used by Aldaba et al. (2014), which had a smaller nominal 312 pore size of 1 µm. 313 3.2 Clay Cation Composition 314 315 The total cation exchange capacity of the clay after purification was 0.833 ± 0.04 mmol_c/g. The 316 cation composition for the Na, Na-Ca, and Ca exchanged clays is shown in Table 1. The cation 317 composition is expressed as a % of charge (100×mmol_c cation per gram/CEC in mmolc/g). The

Na-Ca clay contained 72% (by charge) Ca. A very small amount (1%) of exchangeable Mg was present in all three clays and no K was detected.

Table 1. Exchangeable cation composition of clays expressed as a charge % of the CEC.

Clay	Na (% charge)	Ca (% charge)	Mg (% charge)
Na	98.3 ± 0.6	0.5 ± 0.6	1.2 ± 0.0
Na-Ca	26.8 ± 0.2	72.2 ± 0.2	1.0 ± 0.0
Ca	1.6 ± 0.3	97.5 ± 0.2	0.9 ± 0.1

3.3 Tritiated water (HTO) diffusion

HTO diffusion reached a steady state after approximately 100 h, with steady-state fluxes increasing in the order Na, Na-Ca, and Ca (Figure 1). A precise estimation of the τ and D_e values of HTO was achieved by modeling the data with the assumption that the total porosity was accessible to HTO (Figure 1 and Table 2). The influence of the variations in sampling time intervals and sample vial volumes during the experiment is almost perfectly captured by our modeling approach (raw data available in the SI), thus giving confidence in the modeled τ and D_e values.

The small difference between the Na ($\tau_{HTO} = 0.065$) and Na-Ca ($\tau_{HTO} = 0.070$) cells might be attributed to small differences in cell packing ($\rho_d = 1.35$ vs. $\rho_d = 1.28$ kg L⁻¹ for Na and Na-Ca cells respectively). Differences in bulk density will affect not only the total porosity, but also the sample microstructure responsible for the geometrical factor affecting diffusion processes. Archie's law relates the effective diffusion coefficient to the porosity and an empirical cementation factor, m, that captures the change of the geometrical factor as a function of porosity changes:

$$D_e = D_0 \varepsilon^m$$
 Equation 9

Despite its empirical nature, Archie's law or its extended version (Van Loon and Mibus, 2015) is often able to quantitatively describe the evolution of the effective diffusion coefficient of HTO in clayey materials. The difference between the Na ($\tau_{\rm HTO} = 0.065$) and Na-Ca ($\tau_{\rm HTO} = 0.070$) cells

can be described by considering a cementation factor of $m \sim 3$, which is compatible with the
cementation factors commonly reported for bentonite samples (Van Loon and Mibus, 2015).
However, the difference between the Na-Ca (τ_{HTO} = 0.070) and Ca (τ_{HTO} = 0.13) cells cannot be
attributed to the small difference in cell packing only. A cementation factor of $m \sim 10$ would be
necessary, which does not fall in the range of values reported for montmorillonite. A reasonable
explanation of the observed difference lies in the difference of microstructure of Na- and Ca-
exchanged montmorillonite samples: the presence of exchangeable Ca promotes the formation of
thicker layer stacks ("tactoids") compared to Na (Segad et al., 2012), which in turn promotes the
presence of larger interparticle pores (Holmboe et al., 2012; Ohkubo et al., 2021), hence
increasing the diffusivity of the material (Melkior et al., 2009; Tournassat et al., 2011;
Tournassat et al., 2016).

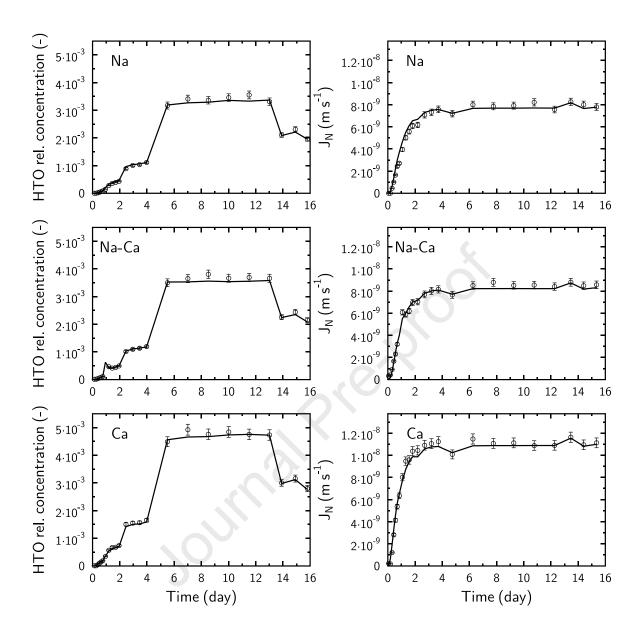


Figure 1. Left: HTO normalized concentrations in the low-concentration reservoir as a function of time. Right: HTO normalized flux as a function of time. Na, Na-Ca, and Ca refers to the three different salt background and clay conditioning conditions. Circles: experimental data; lines: results of the ε – D_e models (Table 2.). Error bars are representative of the analytical error on the HTO measurements (2 standard deviations).

Table 2. Summary of measured diffusion cell parameters, including bulk density (ρ_d), total porosity (ϵ_{tot} , calculated from Equation 3), along with reference model fitted parameters (τ ,

 D_e , α_{Se}), assuming $K_D = 0$ L kg⁻¹ for both HTO and Se(VI). Note that α_{HTO} is equivalent to ε_{HTO} and ε_{tot} . Uncertainties on the D_e value were estimated from model envelop curves and experimental error bars.

	$ ho_{ m d}$	$\varepsilon_{\text{tot}} = \varepsilon_{\text{HTO}} = \alpha$	T vvmo	$D_{e, m HTO}$	$\alpha_{\mathrm{Se}} =$	<i>T</i> a :	$D_{e,\mathrm{Se}}$
Cell	(kg L	нто	тнто	$(10^{-12} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^-)$	€Se,max	τ _{Se,min}	$(10^{-12} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^-)$
	1)	(-)	(-)	1)	(-)	(-)	1)
Na	1.35	0.524	0.065	78 ± 4	0.0983	0.0138	1.3 ± 0.3
Na-	1.28	0.551	0.070	89 ± 4	0.140	0.0160	2.1 ± 0.5
Ca	1.20	0.551	0.070	09 ± 4	0.140	0.0100	2.1 ± 0.3
Ca	1.24	0.562	0.13	168 ± 8	0.450	0.0250	10.6 ± 2.3

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3.4 Selenate diffusion

The normalized flux for Se(VI) reached steady state after approximately 300 h, with the Camontmorillonite showing the highest normalized flux (Figure 2). The steady-state flux of Se was much lower than that of HTO in all three cells. Total Se concentrations in clay slices also followed the trend Na<Na-Ca<Ca (Figure 3). Se concentrations in the clay slice closest to the high-concentration reservoir (at ~4.5-5.0 mm) were 0.18, 0.25, and 0.77 mM for the Na, Na-Ca, and Ca cells, respectively. The observed variations in Se concentration/flux may result from both differences in effective porosity for Se and from changes in Se adsorption in the presence of increasing Ca concentrations. The profiles in all three cells were linear with depth as expected for steady-state conditions. Through-diffusion data makes it possible to extract a single set of α , D_e values for each tracer in one experiment (Crank, 1975; Van Loon et al., 2003). However, it does not provide enough constraints to extract a single set of ε , K_D , and τ values and additional data and/or hypotheses are necessary to derive these three quantities independently. In the first attempt, the K_D values for Se(VI) were set to zero. In this condition, the fitted porosity and tortuosity values take their maximum and minimum value respectively ($\varepsilon_{\text{max}} = \alpha$ and τ_{min} ; Table 2). The corresponding fitted parameters made it possible to almost perfectly reproduce the diffusion data (Figure 2 and Figure

384	In Na-montmorillonite, clay layers are negatively charged and part or all of the porosity is
385	influenced by the presence of an electrical double layer (EDL) that forms at the surface, and in
386	which the solution is not electroneutral (Tournassat and Steefel, 2019). Negatively charged
387	species, including SeO_4^{2-} , are depleted in the EDL-influenced portion of the porosity because of
388	their interaction with the negative electrostatic potential field created by the surfaces of
389	montmorillonite. This process, often called anion-exclusion, is also responsible for a higher
390	geometrical factor, G (or $1/\tau$), for anions compared to neutral tracers such as HTO, because pore
391	throats, which are responsible for the pore network connectivity, may partially or totally exclude
392	anions, thus ascribing longer diffusion pathways to anions compared to neutral species.
393	Consequently, $\tau_{Se} \leq \tau_{HTO}$ and it is possible to define a minimum accessible porosity value for Se
394	corresponding to $D_{\rm e,Se} = au_{ m HTO} imes arepsilon_{ m Se,min} imes D_{ m 0,Se}$. This minimum porosity corresponds itself to a
395	maximum K_D value according to $\alpha_{Se} = \varepsilon_{Se,min} + \rho_d K_{D,max}$ (Table 3). We note that the very low
396	$K_{\rm D,max}$ values (<<1) in Table 3 are nearly impossible to measure in batch experiments.
397	The calculated minimum value of SeO ₄ ²⁻ accessible porosity ($\varepsilon_{Se,min} = 0.021$) was similar to the
398	values reported for Cl ⁻ in similar compacted Na-montmorillonite materials (Tournassat and
399	Appelo, 2011). Cl ⁻ does not adsorb on clay mineral surfaces, and thus, the difference between
400	total porosity values and Cl ⁻ accessible porosity values reported in the literature are truly
401	representative of the excluded volume for monovalent anions. However, one would expect an
402	increased exclusion for SeO ₄ ²⁻ compared to Cl ⁻ because of their difference in charge. This
403	surprisingly high Se(VI) accessible porosity in the Na-montmorillonite sample may be partly
404	explained by the presence of aqueous and exchanged Mg2+ which originates from a limited
405	dissolution of the clay layers (Orucoglu et al., 2018). The formation of MgSeO4 ion pairs, which
406	are neutral and, thus not excluded from the EDL, would then explain the lower value of Se(VI)
407	exclusion than expected. Mg ²⁺ was a minor component (1%) of exchangeable cations at the
408	beginning of the experiment (Table 1). However, we did not measure exchangeable cations on
409	the clay at the end of the experiment or aqueous Mg^{2+} during the diffusion experiment, therefore
410	are unable to confirm the formation of MgSeO4 ion pairs. The lowering of Se exclusion from the
411	EDL could also be related to an increased ion pairing in the EDL compared to bulk water
412	conditions (Appelo et al., 2010), which in turn would increase the apparent accessible porosity of
413	Se.

Table 3. Summary of constraints on Se diffusion parameters in Na-, Na-Ca-, and Camontmorillonite. $K_{D,max}$ values are given in L kg⁻¹.

			$\varepsilon_{Se,min}$ considering	$K_{D,max}$ considering
Cell	ESe,min	$K_{\mathrm{D,max}}$	CaSeO ₄ ion pair	CaSeO4 ion pair
			formation	formation
Na	0.021	0.057	-	-
Na-Ca	0.032	0.084	0.036	0.081
Ca	0.086	0.29	0.18	0.22

In the Ca-montmorillonite sample, the minimum accessible porosity was found to be 0.086. This higher accessible porosity for Ca-montmorillonite compared to the Na-montmorillonite sample can be explained by a combination of the following effects: the presence of wider interparticular pores, which increases the average anion accessible porosity (Tournassat et al. 2016) and a decrease of the magnitude of the negative electrostatic potential field in the presence of divalent cations (Ca²⁺). However, the presence of CaSeO4 aqueous complexes which are neutral and thus not repelled from clay mineral surfaces will also affect the minimum accessible porosity, which is not accounted for in the above estimate ($\epsilon_{Se,min}$ of 0.086 for Ca). Aqueous speciation calculation carried out with the Thermochimie database (Giffaut et al., 2014; https://www.thermochimie-tdb.com/) indicates that 32% of the total Se concentration is present in the form of CaSeO4 in a 0.033 M CaCl₂ background solution. Equivalently, at least 32% of the total porosity is accessible to Se in this neutral form, *i.e.* a revised minimum accessible porosity of $0.32 \times 0.56 = 0.18$, giving in turn a revised $K_{D,max}$ value of 0.22 L kg⁻¹ (Table 3.). Assuming that the D_0 value for CaSeO4 is similar to that of CaSO4 ($D_0 = 4.71 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ available from the PHREEQC.dat database), a $\tau_{Se,max}$ value of 0.115 can be deduced.

In the Na-Ca cell, with 0.005 M CaCl₂ + 0.085 M NaCl background solution, 6.6% of the total aqueous Se(VI) is in the form of CaSeO₄, leading to a minimum accessible porosity of $\varepsilon_{Se,min}$ = 0.066 × 0.55 = 0.036. The corresponding $\tau_{Se,max}$ value is 0.123, which is very similar to the value

found for the Ca-montmorillonite sample.

The above analysis highlights the importance of a good knowledge of the aqueous speciation to understand and predict the diffusion properties of Se and provides realistic constraints for the ranges of ε_{Se} , K_{DSe} , and τ_{Se} .

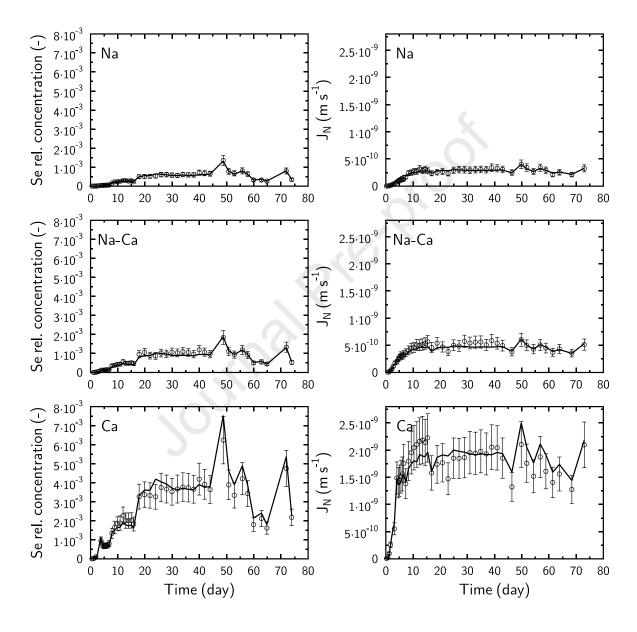


Figure 2. Left: Se normalized concentrations in the low-concentration reservoir as a function of time. Right: Se normalized flux as a function of time. Na, Na-Ca, and Ca refers to the three different salt background and clay conditioning conditions. Circles: experimental data; lines: results of the ϵ – D_e – K_D models (Table 2.) where K_D is assumed

to be 0. Error bars are representative of the analytical error on the Se measurements. The y-axis scale is the same for all conditions to ease a direct comparison.

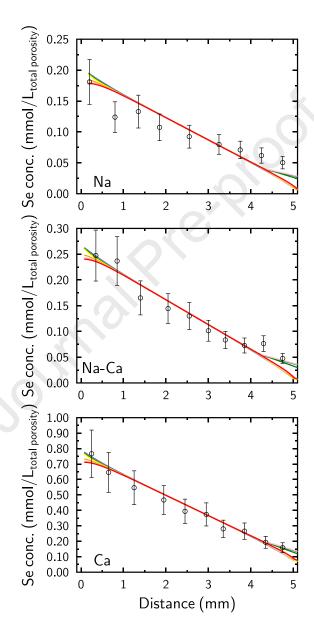


Figure 3. Total Se profiles in clay at the end of diffusion experiments. Se concentrations are expressed as a concentration in the total porewater volume. Circles: experimental data; lines: simulated profiles using the same a_{Se} and $D_{e,Se}$ as in Figure 2. The different colors are

indicative of the different profile positions in the radial direction (the red color is for the
central grid-cells on the symmetry axis). Error bars represent the analytical error (2
standard deviations). Note that the concentrations at the downstream boundary do not
tend to zero because of the O-ring and the presence of tubings (i.e., 'dead volumes') in
which the tracers are accumulating between sampling events.

4. Conclusions

An increase of Ca/Na ratio in solution and on clay surfaces is responsible for an increase in HTO
and selenate diffusivity in montmorillonite samples. The increase of HTO diffusivity can be
explained by a change of microstructure leading to an increase of the $ au_{\text{HTO}}$ value. These changes
will affect the transport of all radionuclides through clay barriers, including Se. In addition, the
aqueous speciation of Se(VI) has a large effect on Se transport. Se(VI) diffusion is limited by
anion exclusion due to the formation of the negatively charged species SeO ₄ ²⁻ . However, in the
presence of Ca^{2+} , the formation of $CaSeO_4$ neutral ion pairs, which can access a larger portion of
the total porosity, increases selenate diffusivity. While additional insights about the exact
distribution of the interlayer and interparticle porosities and the influence of the diffuse layer on
selenate ion pair formation would be necessary to build a comprehensive mechanistic model for
selenate diffusion in montmorillonite samples, we provide constraints on model parameters that
can be used to predict a range of Se(VI) transport in engineered barrier systems. Our analysis
highlights that Se(VI) diffusion parameters (e.g., effective diffusion coefficients) obtained with
simplified laboratory systems cannot be transferred to the simulation of a repository if in situ
geochemical conditions, especially ionic strength and major element concentrations (e.g., Ca),
are different from the laboratory conditions. Furthermore, these results have similarly important
implications for the diffusion of other radionuclides which are present as anions or mixed-
species in waste repositories, including Se(IV) (HSeO ₃ -, SeO ₃ ² -), U(VI) (e.g., UO ₂ (OH) ₃ -,
$UO_2(OH)_4^{2-}$), $Mo(VI)$ (MoO_4^{2-}) and others. Radionuclide aqueous speciation together with the
presence of an EDL must be explicitly taken into account in the model in order to accurately
predict their transport. The results also emphasize the need to understand the overall chemical
evolution of repository conditions as changes in aqueous speciation due to many factors (e.g.,

- 483 mineral dissolution/precipitation or groundwater penetration) can change the mobility of 484 important species. **Supplementary Material** 485 486 Supplementary information, including diffusion cell schematics and additional information about 487 measuring diffusive properties of the filters is provided in a separate file and is available free of 488 charge online. **Data Availability** 489 490 Raw experimental data used in this manuscript is available on Mendeley Data (Fox et al., 2024). **Acknowledgements** 491 492 This work was supported by the Spent Fuel and Waste Science and Technology Program, Office
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Highlights

- Selenate diffusion through clay is limited by anion exclusion
- Clay layer stacking in Ca-montmorillonite promotes higher HTO and Se diffusion
- Formation of neutral aqueous CaSeO₄ species increases Se(VI) flux
- Models must consider aqueous speciation to be applied repository conditions

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\Box The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: