

1 **Linking pore network characteristics extracted from CT images**
2 **to the transport of solute and colloid tracers in soils under**
3 **different tillage managements**

4 **Diego Soto-Gómez^{1,2}, Paula Pérez-Rodríguez^{1,2,3}, Laura Vázquez Juárez^{1,2}, J. Eugenio*
5 *López-Periago^{1,2}, and Marcos Paradelo^{1,2,4}*

6 *¹Soil Science and Agricultural Chemistry Group, Department of Plant Biology and*
7 *Soil Science, Faculty of Sciences, University of Vigo, E-32004 Ourense, Spain.*

8 *²Hydraulics Laboratory, Campus da Auga, Facultade de Ciencias, Campus da Auga,*
9 *University of Vigo.*

10 *³Laboratory of Hydrology and Geochemistry of Strasbourg (LHyGeS)*

11 *Université de Strasbourg, Strasbourg, France.*

12 *⁴Department of Agroecology, Faculty of Sciences and Technology, Aarhus University,*
13 *Blichers Allé 20, P.O. Box 50, DK-8830 Tjele, Denmark*

14
15 **Corresponding author Phone: +34 988 387 070; fax: +34 988 387 001, mail:*

16 *disoto@uvigo.es*

17 **ABSTRACT**

18 Understanding relations between quantitative information of soil structure from X-ray computed
19 tomography (CT) and soil functions is a hot topic in agronomy and soil science. The influence
20 of tillage on macroporosity (i.e., pores measured by CT > 240 µm in all directions) could be
21 linked with their effects on solute and colloid transport properties. The tillage will also have a

22 crucial importance in the preferential flow, i.e., a direct flow through roots and earthworm
23 pores. Increasing knowledge on the relationships between soil tillage, structure, and transport
24 may contribute to a deep understanding of the key factors of soil management influencing
25 productivity and crop health.

26 In this work, we used CT to characterize the macropore network (>0.24 mm) of sixteen columns
27 (100 height \times 84 diameter, mm) of adjacent plots with different soil managements: conventional
28 with shallow tillage after sowing (4 samples), conventional with no tillage after sowing (4
29 samples), and organic (8 samples). The soil samples were installed in columns under a dripper,
30 and the transport behavior was examined during a breakthrough of Br and 1- μ m latex
31 microspheres, in samples near saturation trying to reach an irrigation rate of ~ 10 mL h^{-1} (5.1
32 mm h^{-1}).

33 Transport of Br and latex microspheres was modeled using the two-region physical non-
34 equilibrium model (dual porosity). The preferential flow was higher under organic management,
35 although the pore water velocities were, in general, lower. The preferential flow of Br was
36 correlated with the total volume of CT-macropores and the local increase in the Hounsfield
37 value (i.e. CT matrix density, CT_{Matrix}) surrounding the macropores. The denser lining, produced
38 by the earthworms in the inner walls of the pores, was inversely correlated with the kinetic
39 exchange coefficient between mobile and immobile zones of the dual-porosity model. The
40 macropore roughness indicated by the CT-macropore surface area was correlated with the solute
41 dispersion coefficient and with the solute travel time. Finally, we found that the overall CT_{Matrix}
42 density is inversely related to the preferential flow. The importance of the work lies in the
43 improvement of the accuracy of predictions related to soil flow transport, especially the ones
44 that include particles traveling across the soil.

45

46 **KEYWORDS:** colloid transport; macroporosity; modeling; organic farming; soil
47 structure; soil management; soil tomography.

48

49 **1 Introduction**

50 Tillage modifies the natural soil structure by changing the bulk density, the size of the
51 aggregates, the soil penetration resistance and the water holding capacity. The objective of
52 tillage is to eliminate weeds and mix the soil increasing temporarily the oxygenation and the soil
53 water holding capacity ¹. However, repeated tillage activities for several years lead to less
54 structured and easily erodible soils ². No-tillage and other soil conservation methods try to
55 decrease the biopore disruption and to preserve the natural soil pore network.

56 The pore network has strong effects on the ability of soil to allow the movement of water
57 downwards and the transport soluble and particulate substances. Furthermore, the water
58 availability and flow have a great importance in the crops: in the seedling emergence, in the size
59 and number of roots, and in plant density ³.

60 Conventional and conservation tillage may produce differences in the number, shape, size, and
61 continuity of the soil pores. No-tillage and minimum tillage techniques allow the soil to develop
62 a complex and well-connected pore network because they do not disrupt earthworm activity,
63 root channels and cracks ⁴. The macropores and cracks represent only a small percentage of the
64 soil pores, but they have a huge influence on the transport of water, solutes and suspended
65 colloids. These pores can be used by the water to bypass the upper layers of the soil. Moreover,
66 colloidal particles with attached substances (facilitated transport) can travel faster through these
67 channels, increasing the nutrient loss by leaching ⁵. Particulate organic matter, labile colloidal
68 nutrients, virus, bacteria, and protozoa have limited mobility through the soil matrix but can
69 travel several meters in the soil by using preferential pathways (macropores) as earthworm and
70 root pores ⁶.

71 Usually, the role of macropores in solute and colloidal transport is studied by tracer experiments
72 in soil columns or in the field, using soluble substances or colloids ^{7,8}, or measuring some of the
73 macroscopic soil characteristics like the hydraulic conductivity and the air permeability ⁹.

74 However, in the last years, X-ray CT has proved to offer important information on structural
75 parameters of the soil pore network system, such as pore topology and morphology, without
76 altering the sample ¹⁰. This method has been successfully used to study the effects of soil
77 management (conventional tillage and no-tillage) on the soil pore structure, analyze the changes
78 in the macroporosity with depth, and the pore size distributions ¹¹. Other works used CT images
79 to analyze the compaction consequences and their effects on the soil atmosphere and to
80 determine the bulk density without altering the sample ¹². CT can be used for visualization and
81 description of the roots ¹³. In this case, there are some discrepancies between this method and a
82 destructive one: the CT underestimates the length of the roots due to the spatial resolution of the
83 scan.

84 Furthermore, CT techniques have been used successfully to estimate solute transport
85 parameters^{14,15}. Solute breakthrough studies with a continuous CT monitoring showed that the
86 most of the solute transport occurred throughout the highly continuous biogenetic pores¹⁶.
87 Naveed et al. (2013)¹⁷ found good correlations between soil air permeability and the equivalent
88 pore diameter divided by the tortuosity (both calculated from CT images).

89 In this work, we hypothesized that differences in soil structure created by different soil tillage
90 managements, inferred from the X-ray CT derived characteristics, would influence the transport
91 of solutes and colloids.

92 The objectives are: (i) to characterize the structure of a soil under different tillage managements
93 and with different degrees of earthworm activity (deducted from the signs of surface alterations
94 observed) ; (ii) to model the transport of Br and fluorescent microspheres; and (iii) to relate
95 transport characteristics to CT derived characteristics in order to estimate the dynamic
96 behaviour of colloidal particles in the soil.

97

98 **2 Material & Methods**

99 *2.1 Soil Sampling*

100 Sixteen undisturbed columns (100 height × 84 diameter, mm) were collected using PVC cases
101 in January 2013 from two adjacent experimental parcels (Centro de Desenvolvimento
102 Agrogandeiro, Ourense, northwestern Spain, coordinates 42.099N -7.726W WGS84). Eight
103 undisturbed soil columns were sampled from a plot under organic management (Org) with a
104 long historical use devoted to root crops and vegetables, with the removal of the stubble. Two
105 subzones with different earthworm activity were identified namely high (Org. A) and low (Org.
106 B) activity (we took 4 samples of each subzone). We consider that in these two subzones the
107 type of pores is similar whereas the difference lies in their number and shape. This was
108 deduced in the field from the signs of surface alteration. In a conventional zone, four columns
109 were taken from a plot devoted to spring cereal with no-till (Conv. NT) after sowing, so the
110 roots were preserved, and other four columns from a plot that was shallow-tilled (Conv. ST)
111 after sowing.

112 The columns were extracted vertically (2-12 cm depth). They were sealed immediately and
113 refrigerated at 4° C to prevent structure alteration before CT scanning and transport
114 experiments. Chemical properties and texture were almost identical in bulk samples adjacent to
115 each soil column with a pH, in 1:10 soil:water ratio, of 5.9 ±0.05. Soil texture class is sandy
116 loam according to the USDA soil classification (Table 1).

117 The soil columns were also saturated from the bottom in order to get the saturated water content
118 (θ_s). After saturation, we let the columns drain for one hour (θ), to determine the range of
119 moistures expected during the transport experiments.

120

121 2.2 *Macropore characterization with CT*

122 The CT images were acquired with a dental 3D Cone-beam i-CAT scanner (Imaging Sciences
123 International LLC, PA, Hatfield, USA), using 120 kV, 5 mA current and a voxel size of 0.24
124 mm.

125 The raw data were processed with the free software Image-J version 1.52a ¹⁸. Images were
126 cropped to fit the soil enclosed into the column, and then were converted to binary using
127 Sauvola's auto local thresholding analysis ¹⁹, to segment soil matrix and macropores (samples of
128 this segmentation appear in Figure 1). In order to apply this method, the following settings were
129 used: radius of 50 pixels, parameter 1 (k value) of 0.3 and parameter 2 (r value) of 128 (default
130 value). The value of each pixel is:

$$131 \quad \text{Pixel} = (\text{pixel} > \text{mean} * (1 + k + (\text{standard deviation} / r - 1))) \quad (\text{eq. 1})$$

132 The CT-macroporosity was defined as the soil volume fraction occupied by macropores larger
133 than 0.24 mm in any dimension, it was calculated by dividing the sum of pore voxels by the
134 number of all voxels. The number of pores, the surface area of pore walls and their volume were
135 calculated using the Bone-J Particle Analyzer plugin in Image-J ²⁰. The binary images were
136 purified by discarding the noise (using the Despeckle noise plugin), and the connectivity was
137 also calculated with Bone-J. The skeleton of the pore network was analyzed, obtaining the
138 number of paths and branches, slab voxels, end-point voxels (dangling ends), and the real length
139 (L_R) and Euclidean length (L_E) of each one. With these two parameters, we calculated the
140 tortuosity (τ) ²¹

$$141 \quad \tau = L_R/L_E \quad (\text{eq. 2})$$

142 Note that this tortuosity corresponds to macropores identified by image analysis. Henceforth,
143 we will refer to this parameter as CT-tortuosity. We are going to use the average value of all the
144 pores, and the tortuosity of the pores larger than 10 mm.

145 The circularity of each pore (for each slice of the stack) was calculated using the following
146 formula

$$147 \quad \text{Circularity} = 4\pi \left(\frac{\text{Area}}{\text{Perimeter}^2} \right) \quad (\text{eq. 3})$$

148 The average CT number of the matrix (CT_{Matrix}) represents the density of the matrix measured
149 by the X-ray absorbance using the Hounsfield scale (HU). CT_{Matrix} was calculated by excluding

150 the macropores and the stones and considering the gray shade of each voxel using the criteria of
151 Katuwal et al. (2015) ²². We also separated the CT_{Matrix} values of the layer of voxels
152 corresponding to the pore walls. In this layer, the HU was used to examine the density of the
153 pore walls.

154

155 *2.3 Breakthrough experiments*

156 Red fluorescent polystyrene latex microspheres (Magsphere Inc., Pasadena, California) were
157 used as colloidal tracers. The particles have a diameter of $1 \pm 0.11 \mu\text{m}$ with a density of 1.05 g
158 cm^{-3} . The excitation and emission wavelengths of the fluorochrome are 505-545 and 560-630
159 nm, respectively.

160 The stock suspension, which contains 4.55×10^{10} microspheres mL^{-1} , was diluted 1:200 in a
161 solution of 0.025 M of Br^- (KBr) to obtain a suspension 2.28×10^8 microspheres mL^{-1} . Bromide
162 was used as an unreactive solute tracer for comparison with the colloid tracer.

163 The microspheres were kept in suspension during the experiment by the application of 100 ms
164 duration ultrasound pulses at the colloid reservoir at 1 s intervals, using an ultrasonic
165 homogenizer (Sonopuls HD 2200, Bandelin GmbH & Co. KG, Berlin, Germany).

166 Each soil sample was mounted in a column on a stainless steel mesh No.18 (sieve opening = 1
167 mm) attached to a polypropylene funnel that conducted the outflow from the bottom to an
168 automated fraction collector. Water and microsphere suspensions were distributed dropwise at
169 random points on the top soil surface by a robotic arm attached to the dripper. Flow boundary
170 conditions in all breakthrough experiments were: constant flux at the upper boundary with flow
171 rates of approximately $\sim 10 \text{ mL h}^{-1}$ (5.1 mm h^{-1}) (when it was possible considering the
172 permeability of the soil) and seepage face at the bottom. Infiltration rate varied in some
173 columns, so the flow rate was occasionally reduced to avoid surface ponding. The fall height of
174 drops was less than 3 mm to prevent the disruption of the soil structure.

175 Before the breakthrough curve (BTC) experiments, flow was stabilized with deionized water
176 DW, and when steady state flow was reached, a pulse of microspheres suspended in the KBr
177 solution was applied ($\approx 2\text{-}3$ PV). Pulses were followed by washing with DW ($\approx 6\text{-}10$ PV). The
178 effluent fraction volume ($\approx 4\text{-}6$ mL per tube) was determined by weighing, Br concentration
179 was measured by automated colorimetry ²³, and the microsphere concentration was determined
180 by fluorescence (Jasco Fluorescence Spectrometer, Jasco FP-750). Photometric readings were
181 calibrated with the counting of microspheres trapped in 0.45-micron filters using fluorescence
182 microscopy and image analysis. Correlation between the two methods was linear ($R > 0.997$).
183 After the transport experiments, the columns were carefully sliced in sections ≈ 5 mm using a
184 nylon string and a spatula. A piston jack and a precision Vernier caliper were used to extract the
185 soil from the ring in 5 mm steps. The slices were placed in Petri dishes to identify microsphere
186 spots under a fluorescence laboratory magnifier. Then, soil pore walls stained with microsphere
187 aggregates were removed from the slices with perforating punches and saved in Eppendorf
188 tubes. The rest of the soil slices were stored apart in a bottle. So, the microspheres retained in
189 the contour of the macropores were quantified separately from the soil matrix as follows. The
190 content of the tubes and bottles was weighed and suspended in 10 mL (pore walls) and 20 mL
191 (matrix) of a non-ionic surfactant solution (Tween 20 in distilled water, 0.02%). Suspensions
192 were shaken and homogenized for 10 s with an ultrasonic homogenizer. Aliquots (0.5 mL each,
193 3 replicates) were immediately pipetted and diluted in appropriate volumes of 0.02% Tween 20
194 and filtered through nitrocellulose membranes (pore size 0.45 μm , diam. 47 mm). Particle
195 counting in the membranes was made using digital images obtained with a fluorescence
196 laboratory magnifier and a digital camera. Bulk density ρ_b and the volumetric water content θ
197 were determined at the end, after drying each slice at 105 °C.

198 The average pore-water velocity v (Table 2) was calculated from the irrigation rate q and the
199 average soil water content θ_{avg} :

$$200 \quad v = q/\theta_{\text{avg}} \quad (\text{eq. 4})$$

201 The two-region physical non-equilibrium model was fitted to the experimental BTCs using the
202 software STANMOD (CXTFIT Code). The optimal inverse solution was used to calculate the

203 transport parameters. This model assumes that the soil porosity can be divided into two different
 204 regions: mobile and immobile ²⁴. The transport model is given by:

205

$$206 \quad \theta_m \frac{\partial c_m}{\partial t} = \theta_m D \frac{\partial^2 c_m}{\partial x^2} - J_w \frac{\partial c_m}{\partial x} - \alpha(c_m - c_{im}) \quad (\text{eq. 5})$$

207

$$208 \quad \theta_{im} \frac{\partial c_{im}}{\partial t} = \alpha(c_m - c_{im}) - \theta_{im} \mu_{im} c_{im} \quad (\text{eq. 6})$$

209 Where: θ is the volumetric water content [$L^3 L^{-3}$]; c is the concentration [ML^{-3}]; D is the
 210 dispersion coefficient [$L^2 T^{-1}$]; x and t are the distance [L] and time [T]; J_w is the volumetric
 211 water flux density [LT^{-1}]; α is the first-order kinetic coefficient between mobile and immobile
 212 zones [T^{-1}]; and μ is the first-order decay coefficient [T^{-1}]. The subscripts m and im indicate the
 213 mobile and immobile liquid regions. The dispersivity for the Br and MS (d and d_{MS}) was
 214 calculated by dividing the dispersion coefficient by the pore-water velocity.

215 We adjusted the following parameters: β , a dimensionless parameter for the partitioning in two-
 216 region transport model

$$217 \quad \beta = \frac{\theta_m}{\theta} \quad (\text{eq. 7})$$

218 ; ω , the dimensionless mass transfer coefficient

$$219 \quad \omega = \frac{\alpha L}{\theta v} \quad (\text{eq. 8})$$

220 ; and μ , the dimensionless first order decay coefficient for the immobile region

$$222 \quad \mu = \frac{L \theta_{im} \mu_{im}}{\theta v}$$

221 (eq. 9)

223 The μ was adjusted only for the microspheres to model irreversible trapping in the immobile
 224 regions; μ was set to zero (no irreversible trapping) for the transport of Br.

225 The dimensionless 5%-arrival time of Br ($T_{5\%}$) was used to estimate the degree of preferential
 226 transport in the BTC. $T_{5\%}$ was calculated by considering the period of time (in pore volumes) it
 227 took for 5% of bromide to reach the bottom of column (see details in Koestel et al. (2013) ²⁵).

228

229 **3 Results & Discussion**

230 *3.1 Soil structure differences from image analysis*

231 The CT parameters were analyzed with the Shapiro-Wilk test in order to check that the data
232 of each variable were normally distributed, and there was one exception: the branch length
233 average (cm). Consequently, to examine the differences among the soil managements, we used a
234 single factor ANOVA with all the variables but with the average branch length. With this one,
235 the test employed was the Kruskal-Wallis. Through these tests, we observed and corroborated
236 significant differences between the CT features of the plots studied (Table 3).

237 The CT-macropores in the ST plot presented the shortest averaged length branches and the
238 most tortuous branches, while NT presented large and straight branches mostly generated by
239 undisturbed decaying roots from the past crop. Bramorski et al. (2012)²⁶ proved that tortuosity
240 increases a 56% after tillage, improving the water and sediment storage. The pores of the NT
241 zone had, in general, the largest wall surface area, but they were not statistically different from
242 the ST plot. The CT-macropores in the Org. plot and NT had similar average branch length and
243 tortuosity, but the Org. A subzone had the largest CT-macropores because of the higher number
244 of earthworm burrows. The lower values of the wall surface area in the two Org. zones, A and
245 B, could be due to the type of pores: the walls of this pores were lined by earthworm cast,
246 making the pores smooth and reducing their surface²⁷. Root pores are responsible for the high
247 circularity in the NT columns. The ST plot showed a slightly lower circularity than the organic
248 plots, and that is because the Org. samples had, in some degree, earthworm pores, that are more
249 circular than the pores produced by the shallow tillage, a feature already noted by Gantzer &
250 Anderson²⁸. Nevertheless, the organic plots (A and B) can not reach the level of circularity of
251 the NT plot, and this can be explained by the type of vegetation: cultures have more circularity
252 than grass and permanent vegetation^{29,30}. It is important to note that the values showed in Table
253 3 are average values of all pores bigger than 0.24 mm, not only root or earthworm pores.

254 In the CT images, the tone of the pore walls of the plots with root and earthworm pores was
255 slightly clearer than pore walls of the ST plot (HU values were as follows, Conv. ST, $136.4 \pm$
256 7.21 ; Conv. NT, 143.55 ± 3.69 ; Org. A, 142.65 ± 2.62 ; Org. B, 146.74 ± 6.2), but there were no
257 significant differences between the plots. However, this increase in the density of the soil in the
258 areas surrounding the earthworm burrows was already pointed by Rogasik et al. (2014)³¹.

259

260 3.2 Solute and colloid transport and modeling

261 Pulses of a suspension of microspheres in KBr (500 mL, ≈ 2.5 pore volumes, PV) were applied
262 in the NT and ST columns. For the Org. columns we used shorter pulses (350 mL ≈ 1.5 PV) to
263 avoid the surface ponding observed in the first experiments. Mass balance of Br⁻ in the transport
264 experiments indicates that $15 \pm 5\%$ was not eluted after 10 PV. This imbalance is commonly
265 found in tracer experiments in structured soil, and is typically ascribed to solute transfer
266 between mobile and immobile water regions of soil³², and suggests physical retention of
267 bromide in immobile zones. High organic matter content may also contribute to increasing
268 retention³³. The similarity in the mass balance between treatment plots indicates that the soil
269 management had no influence on the unreactive transport. Poor relationships between soil
270 macropore features and tracer transport were already reported for cracked paddy soils³⁴.

271 The transport models fitted fairly well for most of the Br⁻ in the columns ($R^2 > 0.95$, $P < 0.001$;
272 between observed and predicted BTC data), as can be seen in Figure 2. The poorest fittings were
273 obtained for three columns of the Org. plot considering the R^2 : columns n# 10, 15 and 20, with
274 R of 0.948, 0.943 and 0.946, respectively.

275 Table 2 summarizes the parameters of unreactive transport. The zones had similar transport
276 parameters for Br⁻, and only the solute dispersion coefficient (D) and the 5%-solute arrival time
277 showed significant differences between zones.

278 The ST columns presented the largest D , $40.3 \pm 22.8 \text{ cm}^2\text{h}^{-1}$, but also had the largest deviations.
279 Transport in ST may be influenced by the sharp density increase with depth and the associated

280 pore network, namely a massive structure at the bottom crossed by few cracks. This pore
281 network feature may expand the range of the pore water velocities, which can explain the large
282 dispersion of Br⁻. The NT also has a large D , $38.8 \pm 6.2 \text{ cm}^2\text{h}^{-1}$, and this can be due to the large
283 wall surface area of the pores, i.e., many root channels with different lengths and geometries
284 that also increase the span of pore water velocities. On the other hand, organic soil columns had
285 smaller mean D than the NT (Student t -test, $P < 0.05$); with $12.2 \pm 6.8 \text{ cm}^2\text{h}^{-1}$ for the Org. A,
286 and $15.0 \pm 10.1 \text{ cm}^2\text{h}^{-1}$ for the Org. B.

287 The $T_{5\%}$ presented very small variation inside the groups. Values of this parameter were
288 identical for the NT and ST soils, with $0.322 \pm 0.001 \text{ PV}$ and $0.325 \pm 0.007 \text{ PV}$ respectively.
289 Means of this data showed significant differences between organic and conventional (t -test, $P <$
290 0.001). For the Org. A and Org. B the values were smaller 0.235 ± 0.003 and $0.207 \pm 0.002 \text{ PV}$
291 respectively (Figure 3). The values obtained are very similar to the ones reported by Koestel et
292 al. (2012)³⁵, with a $T_{5\%}$ for the arable soils between 0.35 and 0.1. In this work, they also found a
293 reduction of the $T_{5\%}$ in the arable soils with minimum tillage in the same way as in our work.

294 There is a good correlation between D and 5%-arrival time (Figure 4B) ($R = 0.545$, $P < 0.02$).
295 That positive relation differs from the general negative relationship found by Koestel et al.
296 (2012)³⁵. However, there has to consider that the scale of our 5%-arrival time-dispersion
297 parameter defines a small subset of the region shown in Koestel et al. (2012)³⁵. Our data covers
298 a rounded-shaped point cloud in the above reference that does not present a neat negative slope.
299 The positive correlation may suggest that the larger the dispersion, the weaker preferential flow.
300 Furthermore, these soils have a big amount of organic matter that has a strong influence over the
301 dispersion and the 5%-solute arrival. Besides, the 5%-arrival is also related with the pore-water
302 velocity ($R = 0.620$, $P < 0.02$), and has no significant correlation with the dispersivity ($R =$
303 0.057). These relationships indicate that the correlation between D and 5%-arrival time in our
304 experiments can be spurious and the variation in the pore water velocity is the factor that
305 determines the preferential flow.

306 The Smaller dispersion and the shorter $T_{5\%}$ in the organic plots can be explained by the bypass

307 flow which in turn is favored by the earthworm pores. The effect of this type pores over the
308 increasing of preferential flow, nutrient losses and tracer leachate was already demonstrated by
309 many authors³⁶⁻³⁸, and is responsible for the shorter time that the Br needed for traveling along
310 the soil. The preferential flow can also explain the lower dispersion. However, in this case, we
311 consider that the earthworm lining that covers the walls is the main factor. The lined walls seem
312 to increase the pore water velocities and decrease their range of variation²⁷.

313 Inverse modeling of the microsphere BTCs (Figure 5) was carried out starting with the optimal
314 set of parameters obtained for the Br dual porosity model. In this case, the addition of the
315 coefficient of decay, μ , accounts for the irreversible retention of MS in the immobile zone. The
316 BTCs of two columns (n# 10 and 19) presented a complex shape that could not be used to fit the
317 model (Figure 5E). Transport parameters of MS were not different between zones, but the
318 extreme values of the dispersion coefficient appear in the non-organic management: highest
319 values were between 88 to 100 $\text{cm}^2 \text{h}^{-1}$ in ST and the lowest 5 $\text{cm}^2 \text{h}^{-1}$ in NT. The largest
320 dispersion of MS in the ST was the same as in the Br case, suggesting that the underlying
321 factors we conjectured for the large dispersion of Br can be valid for the MS. On the contrary, in
322 the NT soil, straight root pores that contribute to a large dispersion of Br had not the same
323 influence on the MS transport. And this happens even considering that these two zones have
324 similar pore-water velocities.

325

326 *3.3 Structure-transport relationships*

327 When comparing the best fitting transport parameters and the data obtained from the X-ray CT
328 images, we observed some significant correlations. For example, the dispersion coefficient for
329 Br and the average pore surface were linearly correlated ($R = 0.803$, $P < 0.001$) (Figure 4C). In
330 general, this trend is preserved for each zone. The non-organic soils had the pores with the
331 largest wall surface area ($217 \pm 72 \text{ mm}^2$), and dispersion coefficient ($39.5 \pm 15.5 \text{ cm}^2 \text{h}^{-1}$). Note
332 the smaller averages for the organic field ($133 \pm 45 \text{ mm}^2$ and $13.6 \pm 8.1 \text{ cm}^2 \text{h}^{-1}$). The dispersion

333 of Br is also correlated with the average number of slab voxels per branch ($R = 0.728$, $P <$
334 0.001), this means that the pores with larger branches presented a larger dispersion coefficient.
335 On the other hand, the walls of the earthworm burrows in the organic field appear to be lined by
336 a dense matrix. Lining tends to reduce the exchange of solute between mobile and immobile
337 regions ³⁹, that hinders the transport across the pore walls and decreases the spatial variation of
338 distribution of transport velocities in the soil column. In consequence, in the plots with more
339 earthworm pores we obtained smaller dispersion coefficients.

340 Best fitting model parameters can help to identify the dominant mechanisms of the transport of
341 MS. We observed several good correlations between dual porosity model parameters and
342 percentages of retention of MS and Br in the columns (Table 4). These correlations indicate that
343 the model is consistent across most of the BTC experiments and soil management types. For
344 example, the retention of microspheres is well described by the dimensionless MS transfer
345 coefficient between matrix and macropores (ω_{MS}). Therefore, the high values of ω_{MS} the more
346 particles may enter into the matrix in which a first order kinetic coefficient of particle removal,
347 μ_{MS} , accounts for the trapping of the MS in the immobile region. Recall that the transport of Br
348 was also well explained by the transfer between matrix and macropores. The significance of
349 fitting the two-region model supports the hypothesis that the dual-porosity model describes the
350 variability in the unsaturated transport of solutes and colloids reasonably well.

351

352 The $T_{5\%}$ in the overall columns is slightly correlated with the average pore surface area of the
353 walls (is more a trend than a correlation since the significance is quite lower), suggesting a
354 relation between preferential solute transport and the average pore surface (Figure 4A). That
355 relation can be interpreted as the pores with larger wall surface area (i.e., more roughness and
356 no lining) produce a physical retention in the transport of the Br. The greater preferential flow
357 velocity in lined pores agrees with the well-known role of the earthworms in the fast transport
358 along preferential pathways ⁴⁰. However, the relationship between $T_{5\%}$ and pore wall surface
359 area in the ST columns is inverse to the rest of the zones (see Figure 4A). The reason for that

360 inverse correlation is that the scale of arrival times in ST is compressed in a narrow interval
361 (0.29 to 0.37 PV) and we cannot conclude with certainty anything with only four similar
362 samples. However, if we discard these columns, the correlation is still valid.

363 The total end-point voxels and the size of the tails of the bromide BTC are also correlated ($R =$
364 0.54). End-point voxels represent dangling paths that end in the matrix; their presence could
365 enhance solute transport between the mobile and immobile regions of the soil. The reversible
366 mobile-immobile transfer is typically associated to solute tailing in the BTC. The interesting
367 point here is that the macroscopic behavior of the dual-porosity transport is related to the
368 description of the structure. The CT_{Matrix} shows a negative correlation with $T_{5\%}$ ($R = -0.56$; $P <$
369 0.02), which indicates that the denser the matrix, the faster the Br^- transport across macropores.
370 This relation suggests that a dense matrix difficult the solute transfer into immobile regions,
371 channeling the solute flux through the macropores.

372 The data found by Safadoust et al. (2014)⁴¹ support the results obtained in this section. The
373 bromide transport parameters are related to the porosity: the larger the percentage of macropores
374 the larger the dispersion and the mass exchange rate between the mobile and immobile zones.

375 The CT_{Matrix} of the entire column presents a negative correlation with the % of MS retained in
376 the upper half, i.e., from 0 to 5 cm depth, with $R = -0.498$; $P < 0.05$. There is a similar
377 correlation ($R = -0.439$, $P < 0.08$) between the CT_{Matrix} and the % of MS retained in the matrix
378 regarding the total MS retention in the column (matrix and pore walls). We suggest that in
379 columns with a lighter CT_{Matrix} MS enter easily into the matrix, where are retained, and, on the
380 contrary, denser matrix favors the transport of the MS into macropores and decreases their
381 capture into the matrix. Is noteworthy that this correlation becomes statistically significant
382 (Figure 6) after discarding the column number 19 ($R = -0.643$; $P < 0.02$). The column no. 19 of
383 the Org. B plot presented huge macropores ending in the PVC ring (i.e., walls of the column)
384 (Figure 1D); that configuration would enhance the transfer of MS into the matrix. Similarly, the
385 correlation between the Br^- recovery and CT_{Matrix} increases after removing the column no. 19

386 (i.e., from $R = 0.367$ to $R = 0.687$; $P < 0.02$). We concluded that dead-end macropores and
387 lighter matrix favor the retention of solute and colloids into the matrix.

388

389 **4 Conclusion**

390 The influence of soil management on the soil structure and on the solute and colloid transport
391 properties was studied by analysis of CT images of intact soil columns, followed by
392 breakthrough experiments of Br and microspheres. On the one hand, the CT characterization
393 allowed us to find significant differences between the studied managements. On the other hand,
394 the two-region physical non-equilibrium transport model fitted well the breakthrough of
395 bromide and polystyrene latex microspheres. Organic management showed the highest
396 preferential transport, which was related to the type of macropores: earthworm burrows with
397 lined walls. The presence of lined walls and preferential transport were related with the small
398 mass transfer coefficient between matrix and macropores in the dual-porosity model.

399 Indicators of the macropore network and matrix density obtained from CT and image analysis
400 explained solute and colloid transport. Results showed a clear influence of the soil management
401 on the morphological descriptors of the soil structure and transport properties. Correlations
402 found in this work provide some experimental evidence of links between the geometry of the
403 soil pore network and the transport.

404

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414 scanner.

415

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- 519

520 **7 Figures**

521

522 Figure 1. 3D representation of columns from each plot. A) ST (column number 6); B) NT
523 (column number 7); C) Org. A (column number 8); and D) Org. B (column number 19).

524 Figure 2. Br modeling for one column of each zone. The two-region physical non-equilibrium
525 model (dual porosity) was used.

526 Figure 3. $T_{5\%}$ (in pore volumes) results for the column averages of each zone. ^{a, b, c} Factors with
527 same superscript in the key labels were not different (< 0.05) using a single factor ANOVA.

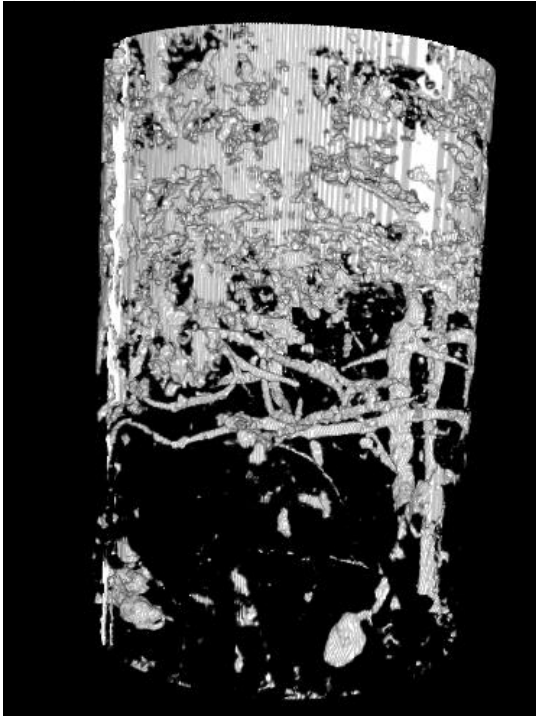
528 Figure 4. Relation between: A) the average pore surface and the $T_{5\%}$ (in pore volumes); B) the
529 dispersion of Br and the $T_{5\%}$ (in pore volumes); and C) the average pore surface and the
530 dispersion of Br.

531 Figure 5. Microsphere modelling for: A), B), C) and D) One column of each zone; and E) Two
532 columns that we could not model: n° 10 (Org. A) and n° 19 (Org. B). C/C_0 is the relative
533 concentration.

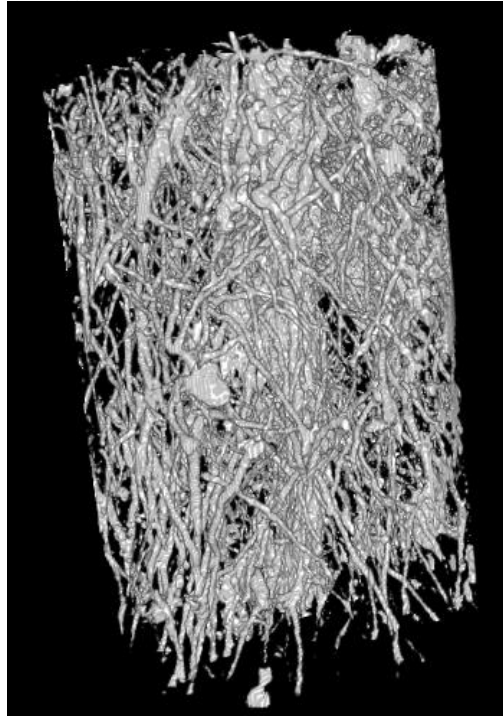
534 Figure 6. Relation between the % of particles retained in the matrix and the CT_{Matrix} .

535

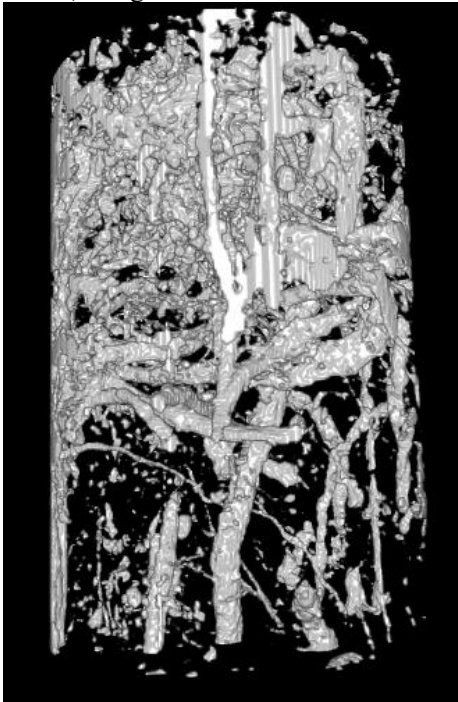
A) ST, N° 6



B) NT, N° 7



C) Org. A, N° 8



D) Org. B, N° 19

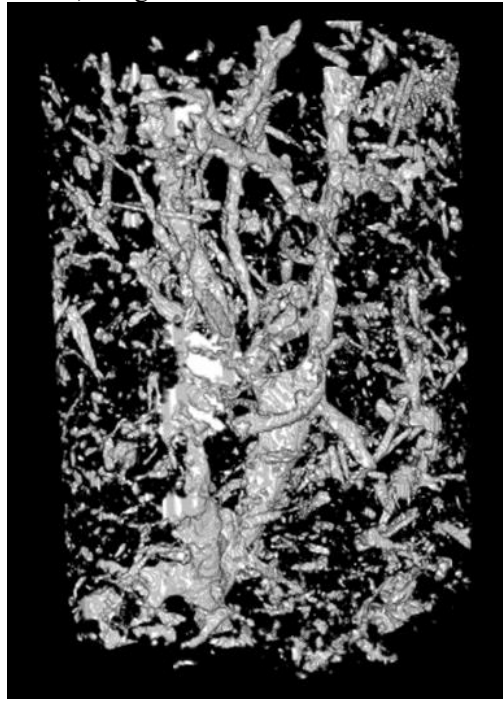
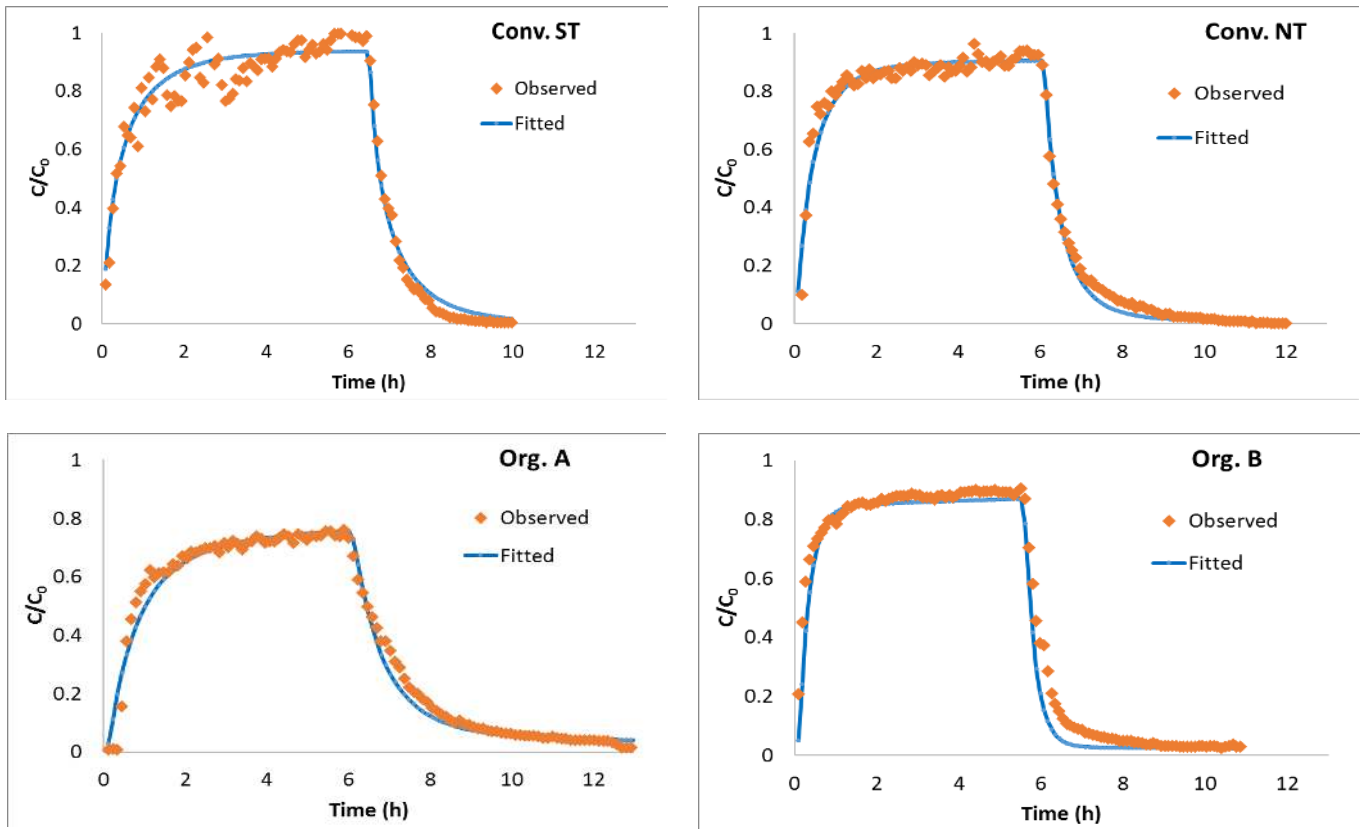


Figure 1.

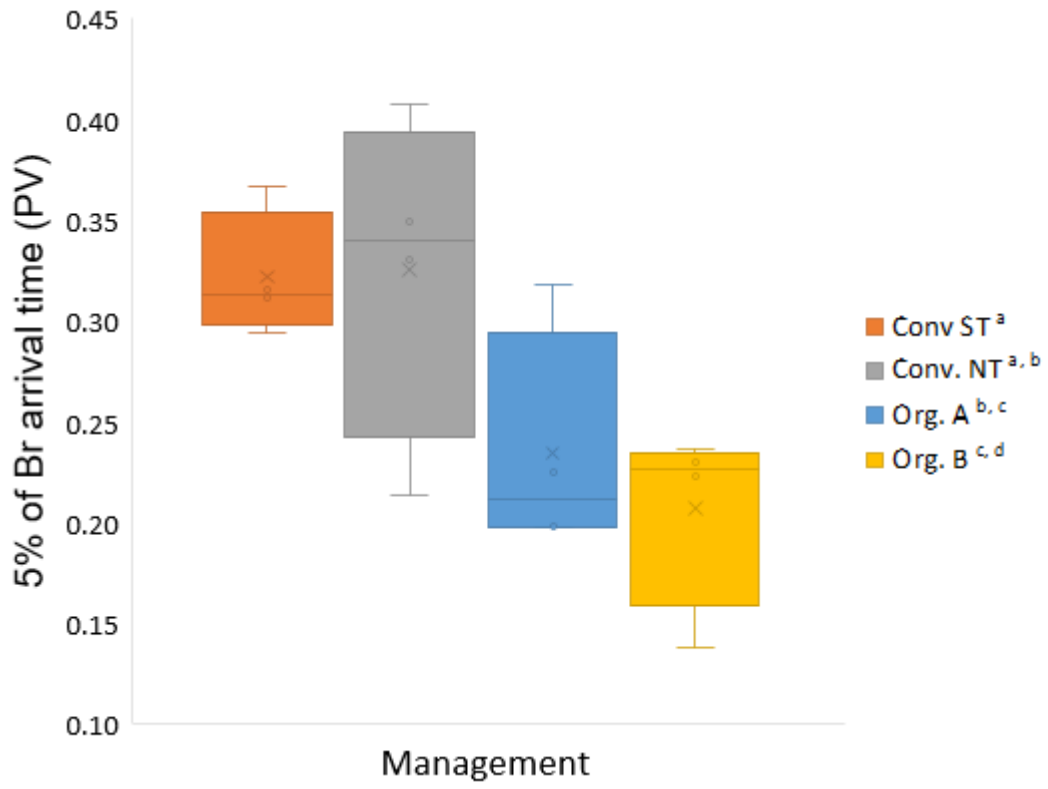
537



538 Figure 2.

539

540

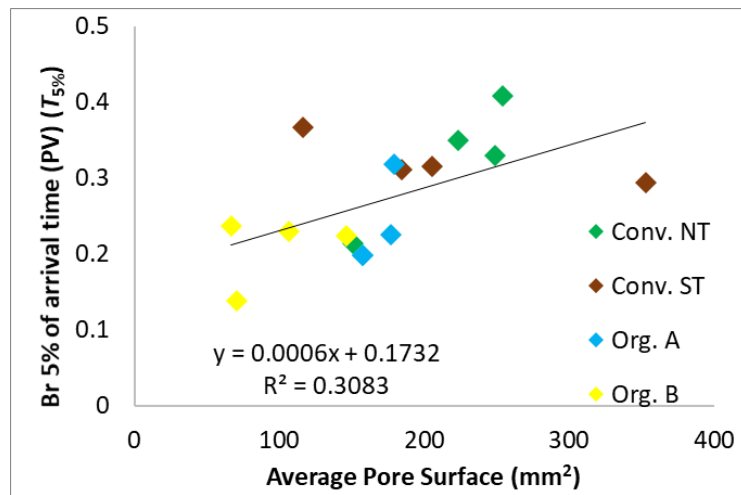


541

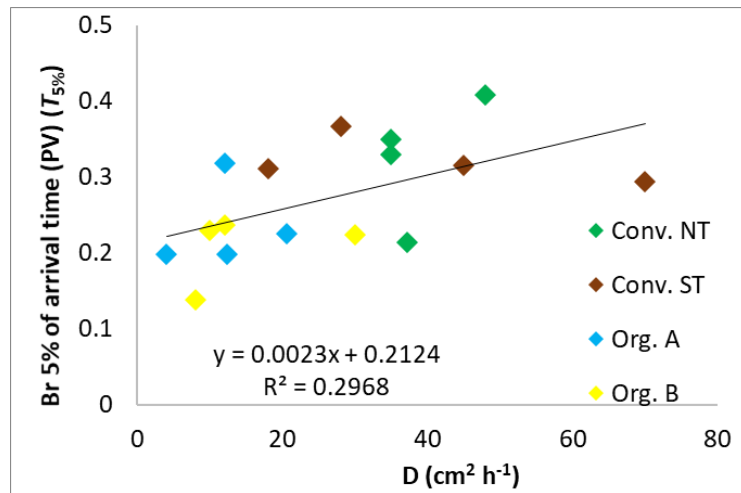
542 Figure 3.

543

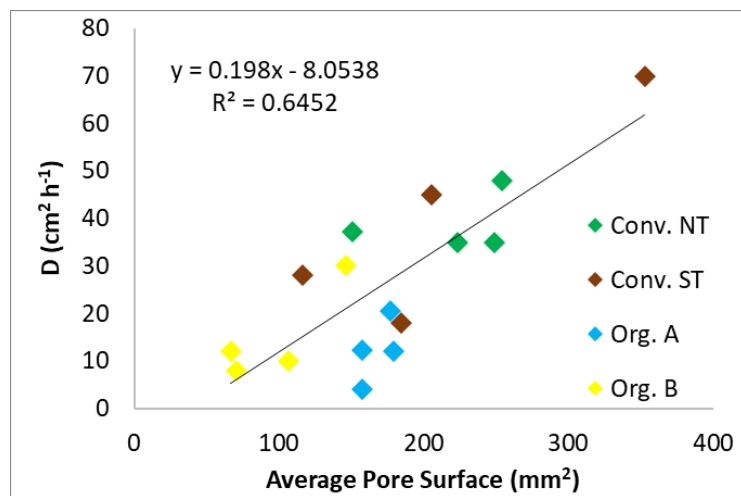
A)



B)

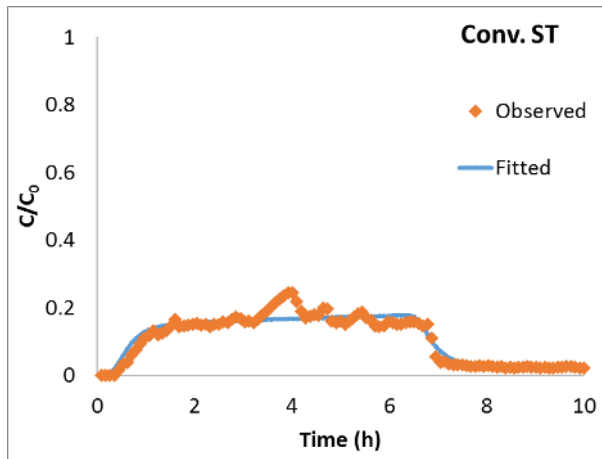


C)

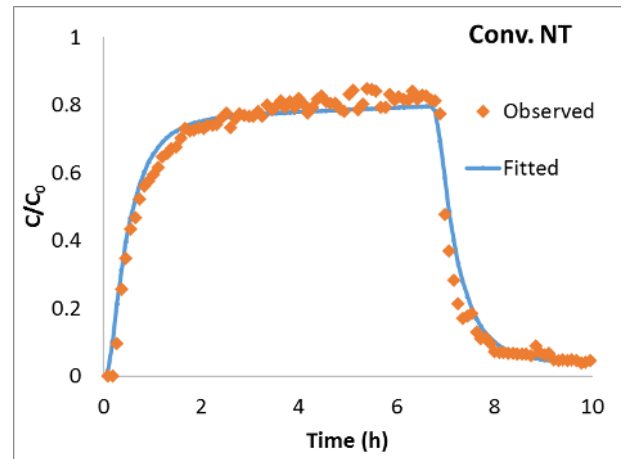


544 Figure 4.

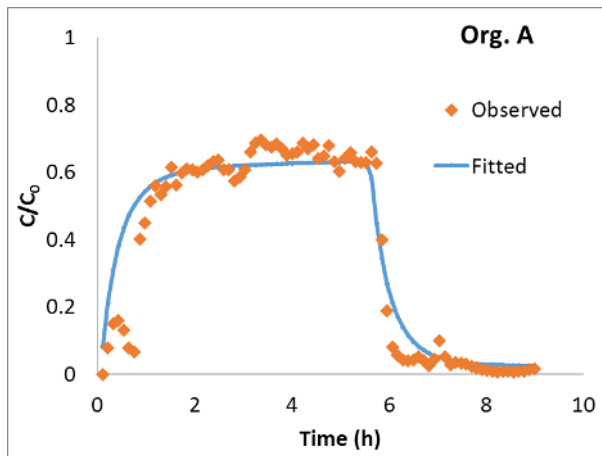
A)



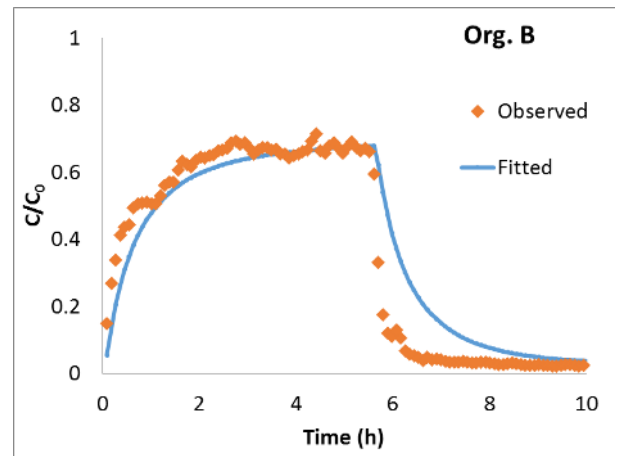
B)



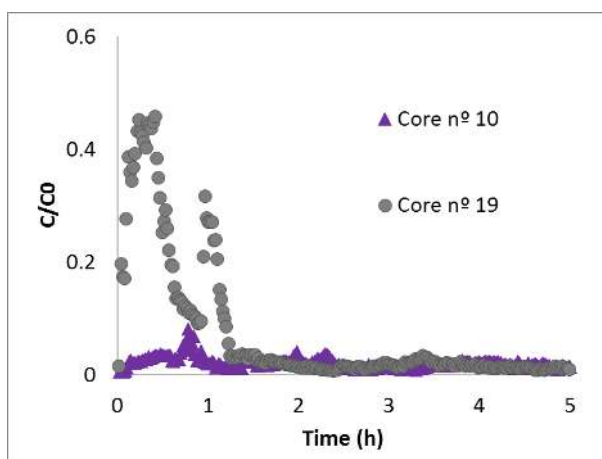
C)



D)

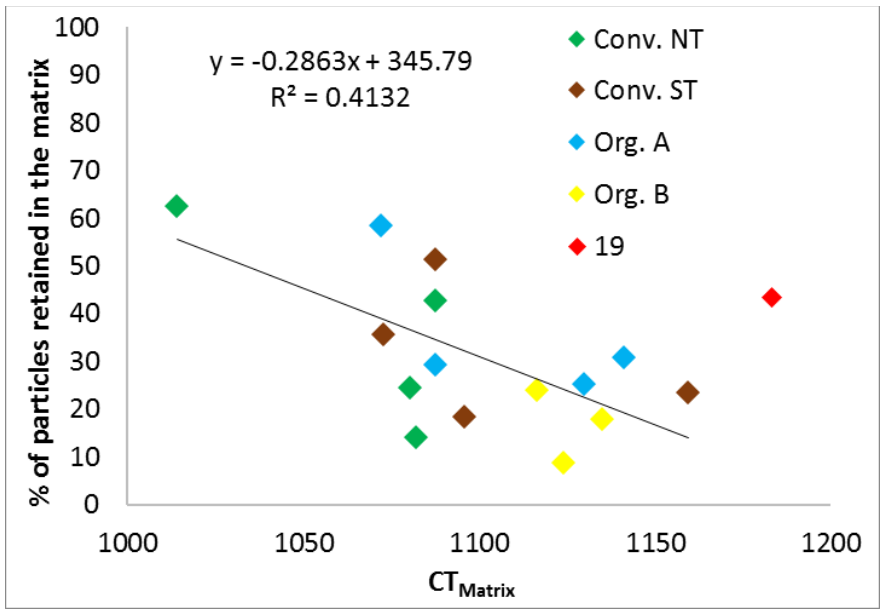


E)



545 Figure 5.

546



547

548 Figure 6.

549

551 Table 1. Soil texture results for the three plots with standard deviations.

<i>Management</i>	<i>% Coarse Sand</i> (> 0.5mm)	<i>% Fine Sand</i> (0.5 – 0.05 mm)	<i>% Silt</i> (0.05 – 0.002mm)	<i>% Clay</i> (< 0.002mm)	<i>% Organic Matter</i>
<i>Conv. NT</i> (n =4)	46.2 ± 0.5	26.1 ± 0.9	5.7 ± 2.9	10.9 ± 1.2	11.1 ± 2.6
<i>Conv. ST</i> (n =4)	42.9 ± 2.4	28.3 ± 1.7	5.3 ± 4.1	11 ± 0.6	12.5 ± 4.6
<i>Org.</i> (n =8)	44.5 ± 0.2	29 ± 0.4	8.1 ± 0.3	9.2 ± 0.7	8.5 ± 0.5

552

Table 2. Parameters of the moisture of each column and obtained from the Br⁻ modelling.

<i>Zone</i>	<i>Column number</i>	v ($cm\ h^{-1}$)	θ_s	θ	D ($cm^2\ h^{-1}$)	d (cm)	β	ω
<i>Conv. ST</i>	6	2.71	0.51	0.47	45	16.62	0.15	0.180
	12	3.48	0.43	0.40	28	8.05	0.09	0.270
	14	2.60	0.49	0.44	70	26.94	0.05	0.019
	16	2.67	0.43	0.37	18	6.75	0.23	0.150
<i>Average</i>		2.86 ± 0.41	0.46 ± 0.04	0.42 ± 0.04	40.25 ± 22.75	14.59 ± 9.32	0.13 ± 0.08	0.15 ± 0.10
<i>Conv. NT</i>	2	3.41	0.41	0.4	37.2	10.91	0.10	0.056
	4	2.67	0.45	0.4	35	13.11	0.05	0.083
	5	2.51	0.42	0.4	35	13.94	0.08	0.077
	7	2.6	0.47	0.45	48	18.46	0.19	0.170
<i>Average</i>		2.80 ± 0.41	0.44 ± 0.03	0.41 ± 0.03	38.80 ± 6.22	14.11 ± 3.17	0.11 ± 0.06	0.10 ± 0.05
<i>Org. A</i>	3	2.01	0.50	0.47	20.55	10.20	0.14	0.191
	8	2.81	0.47	0.43	12	4.26	0.15	0.130
	9	0.36	0.51	0.47	12.3	34.39	0.02	0.004
	10	0.36	0.57	0.52	4	11.2	0.05	0.300
<i>Average</i>		1.39 ± 1.23	0.51 ± 0.04	0.47 ± 0.04	12.21 ± 6.76	15.01 ± 13.27	0.09 ± 0.06	0.16 ± 0.12
<i>Org. B</i>	13	2.83	0.48	0.46	10	3.54	0.08	0.130
	15	1.27	0.50	0.48	30	23.59	0.10	0.100
	19	0.73	0.47	0.44	8	10.89	0.06	0.001
	20	3.03	0.45	0.42	12	3.96	0.15	0.100
<i>Average</i>		1.97 ± 1.14	0.47 ± 0.02	0.45 ± 0.03	15.00 ± 10.13	10.49 ± 9.36	0.10 ± 0.04	0.08 ± 0.06

554 v [$L\ T^{-1}$] is the pore water velocity; θ_s is the saturated water content; θ is the volumetric water
555 content after saturation and a drainage of 1 hour; D is the dispersion coefficient for the bromide
556 [$L^2\ T^{-1}$]; d is the dispersivity [L]; β , is a dimensionless parameter for the partitioning of bromide
557 in two-region transport model; and ω is the dimensionless mass transfer coefficient of bromide.

558 Table 3. CT macroporosity descriptors (with standard deviation) influenced by management
 559 type, after a single factor ANOVA or a Kruskal-Wallis test (for the Average Branch length).

	<i>Conv. ST</i>	<i>Conv. NT</i>	<i>Org. A</i>	<i>Org. B</i>
<i>CT Macroporosity (%)</i>	7.56 ± 3.38 ^{ab}	4.65 ± 1.4 ^b	9.52 ± 2.55 ^a	4.34 ± 2.36 ^b
<i>Total Volume (cm³)</i>	39.71 ± 13.98 ^{ab}	26.57 ± 8.98 ^b	55.73 ± 11.71 ^a	25.62 ± 15.67 ^b
<i>Average Pore Surface (cm²)</i>	2.15 ± 1.00 ^{ab}	2.19 ± 0.48 ^a	1.68 ± 0.12 ^a	0.98 ± 0.37 ^b
<i>Total Slab Voxels</i>	65669 ± 18217 ^{ab}	89604 ± 13468 ^b	88333 ± 23452 ^a	45467 ± 25580 ^b
<i>Total Branch Length (m)</i>	20.7 ± 5.99 ^{ab}	26.35 ± 4.1 ^a	27.52 ± 7.53 ^a	13.95 ± 8.13 ^b
<i>Average Branch Length (cm)</i>	0.29 ± 0.009 ^a	0.45 ± 0.063 ^b	0.3 ± 0.022 ^a	0.3 ± 0.019 ^a
<i>Circularity</i>	0.51 ± 0.015 ^a	0.65 ± 0.045 ^b	0.55 ± 0.027 ^a	0.62 ± 0.019 ^b
<i>Average Tortuosity</i>	1.291 ± 0.008 ^b	1.252 ± 0.017 ^a	1.287 ± 0.009 ^{ab}	1.279 ± 0.013 ^{ab}
<i>Average Tortuosity (pores larger than 10 mm)</i>	1.48 ± 0.16 ^b	1.24 ± 0.061 ^a	1.65 ± 0.24 ^b	1.37 ± 0.09 ^{ab}

560 ^{a, b} different superscript showed significant differences between groups with different

561 management at a probability value P < 0.05.

562 Table 4. Pearson's R coefficient for the correlation between some parameters of microsphere
 563 modeling and the retention.

	DM_S ($cm^2 h^{-1}$)	β_{MS}	ω_{MS}	μ_{MS}
% MS Recovered	0.054	-0.553*	-0.673**	-0.796**
% MS Retained	-0.488	0.505	0.797**	0.803 ^a
Up_Retention (Retention in the upper half of the column)	-0.470	0.514	0.816**	0.839 ^a
Matrix_Retention	-0.410	0.637*	0.832*	0.847 ^a
Pore_Retention	-0.560*	-0.535	-0.073	-0.093
Br (%)	0.290	-0.540*	-0.628*	-

564 ^a High correlation results of the leverage influence from one single observation.

565 D_{MS} is the dispersion coefficient for the MS [L]; β_{MS} is a dimensionless parameter for
 566 the partitioning of MS in two-region transport model; ω_{MS} is the dimensionless mass
 567 transfer coefficient of MS; and μ_{MS} is the first-order decay coefficient [T⁻¹] for the MS.