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1 [Geotextiles and Geomembranes](#) **Examining metal migration through geotextiles during**
2 **dewatering**

3
4 **H.A. Tackley, C.B. Lake, M. Alimohammadi**

5 *Department of Civil and Resource Engineering, Dalhousie University, Halifax, Nova*
6 *Scotia, Canada*

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8
9 **Abstract**

10 This paper presents a study conducted to assess the influence that a filter cake deposited on
11 the surface of the geotextile has on the mobility of three metals (Cu, Pb, Zn) during
12 filtration of a contaminated sediment. Two chemical additives (cationic coagulant and
13 cationic polymer) were introduced to the sediment to increase the particle size and improve
14 the filtration efficiency. Bench scale experimentation was conducted to identify
15 contaminant reduction using a small volume of sediment. A field test was applied to
16 observe what effect three-dimensional filtration and a larger filter cake had on metal
17 mobility. Analysis of the effluent was conducted to determine total and dissolved metal
18 contaminants, as well as particulate matter. Effluent chemical properties (pH, E_H , E_h , and
19 zeta potential) were analyzed to identify a possible rationale for variations in concentration
20 during filtration. The results of the study show that as ~~t~~-with-an increasing buildup of filter
21 cake on the surface of a geotextile ce developed, the effluent quality continued to improve,
22 relative to the unfiltered material filtrate quality was improved with respect to the metal and
23 particulate contaminants considered. In addition, the metals detected in the effluent were

24 primarily in the solid state, suggesting further reduction could be achieved through
25 subsequent filtration (if desired).

26 **Keywords:** Geotextile, Filtration, Metal, Filter cake, Effluent, Contaminated sediment

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29 **1. Introduction**

30

31 Geotextile tubes (i.e. geotubes®) have previously been implemented during remediation
32 efforts that involve large volumes of contaminated sediments and slurries (Fowler et al.,
33 1997; Bhatia, 2004; Stephens et al., 2011). The application of this approach has been
34 proven to be an effective method of managing high water content contaminated sediments
35 by both retaining, and dewatering the material (Watts and Trainer, 2010). During the
36 dewatering process, the liquid effluent by-product (produced from the separation of solid
37 particulate and the associated water) may contain both dissolved contaminants as well as
38 contaminants associated with any particulate matter that has migrated through the
39 geotextile. If these contaminants are found in high enough concentrations (i.e. based on
40 effluent criteria), the need for further effluent treatment may be required (Muthukumaran
41 and Ilamparuthi, 2006).

42 The efficiency to which sediments are dewatered during this remediation technique has
43 been well documented in the literature (e.g., Mastin et al., 2008; Muthukumaran and
44 Ilamparuthi, 2006; Satyamurthy and Bhatia, 2009). Fowler et al. (1997) conducted research
45 pertaining to the quality of the effluent with respect to particulate matter. Lassabatere et al.
46 (2004) have examined effluent quality following dewatering with respect to metal

47 contaminants. Jahan et al. (2018) described the potential application of geotextile fabric in
48 combination with chemical conditioning (i.e. polymers) used for the removal of a single
49 metal (aluminum) by retaining particulate matter during wastewater treatment. Gaps in the
50 literature exist, however, concerning the effect of a build-up of sediment on the surface of
51 the geotextile (known as a filter cake) which may further aid in the retention of particulate
52 matter and in turn, any associated contaminants (Muthukumaran and Ilamparuthi, 2006). In
53 addition to literature describing the effect of an established filter cake on contaminant
54 transport (i.e. metals in this paper), little information can be found describing the
55 mechanisms for migration of metal transport through geotextiles during dewatering.
56 Information regarding the processes affecting migration, such as solubility, particle
57 speciation, and the association of metals with particulate matter being retained during
58 dewatering are all areas which comprehensive studies are lacking. Factors such as
59 oxidation-reduction potential (E_H , E_h), pH (Chuan et al., 1996; Gambrell et al., 1991;
60 Hermann and Neumann-Mahlkau, 1985; Lange et al., 2004; Lassabatere et al., 2004) and
61 surface charge (zeta potential) of particles (Larsson et al., 2012) have all been shown to
62 impact the fate and transport of metals. Understanding the mechanisms responsible for
63 metal transport (if any) during geotextile dewatering of contaminated sediments is
64 important to ensure the effectiveness of the technique with respect to metal retention.

65 The primary aim of this research is to identify how an established sediment filter cake
66 deposit on the surface of a geotextile can influence the migration of copper, lead, and zinc
67 (Cu, Pb, and Zn) during dewatering. These metals were selected as the focus of this paper
68 due to their varying solubility in natural environments (Hermann and Neumann-Mahlkau,
69 1985). A brief summary of the sediment characteristics, along with the conditioning regime

70 utilized to improve filtration efficiency is included. Secondly, methodology and results
71 (chemical and physical characteristics of the effluent) describing two scales of testing are
72 presented. A vertical cell bench-scale test (filter positioned horizontally) was performed to
73 identify the influence of an increasing filter cake in a controlled environment on metal
74 migration during dewatering. Field-site experimentation was then conducted to observe the
75 impact of a larger volume of material (cake) and the three-dimensional effect of a geotextile
76 bag on metal transport, which is more representative of full-scale conditions due to the
77 added influence of pressure (Stoltz et al., 2019). Finally, a discussion of the effect of the
78 filter cake on metal retention, as well as a rationale for potential contaminant migration is
79 explored.

80

81

82 2. Sediment and Geotextile Characterization

83

84 The woven polypropylene geotextile used in this study (i.e. GT500, henceforth referred
85 to as “the geotextile”) has an apparent opening size (AOS) of 430 μm with an average
86 thickness of 1.8 mm. The pore size values for O_{50} and O_{95} are 80 μm and 195 μm ,
87 respectively (TenCate Corporation, 2015). This geotextile has been used in field dewatering
88 applications and also formed the basis for research conducted by the authors in previous
89 studies (e.g., Alimohammadi et al. (2019)). The latter consideration allowed comparison
90 with these previous studies.

91 The sediment used for this study originated from Boat Harbour, Nova Scotia, Canada.

92 At the time of this paper, the Boat Harbour facility consists of several stages for the

93 treatment of wastewater primarily originating from a nearby bleached kraft pulp and paper
94 mill. During wastewater treatment, effluent is directed into a stabilization lagoon, where the
95 low energy environment allows for the settling of fine particulate matter over a residence
96 period of approximately 30 days (Hoffman et al., 2017). An estimated 577,000 m³ of
97 unconsolidated sediment has been deposited in this lagoon over the industrial lifespan of
98 the facility (50+ years) and is the primary focus of a scheduled remediation effort at this
99 location (GHD Limited, 2018). The sediment selected for this research was sampled from
100 the stabilization lagoon which was actively treating wastewater at the time of this study.

101 Several studies have documented the characteristics of the sediment in question.
102 Preliminary characterization of the contaminated sediment, as well as the overlying water
103 was conducted by Alimohammadi et al. (2020~~19~~^a). The authors reported the in situ
104 sediment to be unconsolidated (< 10 % solid content; > 1000 % moisture content), and
105 contain approximately 30 percent organic content by dry mass. Hoffman et al. (2017)
106 identified seven metals (As, Cd, Cr, Cu, Pb, Hg, and Zn) in the sediment, which were found
107 to be frequently elevated above the Canadian Council of Ministers of the Environment
108 interim sediment quality guidelines for both marine and freshwater (CCME, 2020). These
109 metal contaminants were in addition to the presence of organic contaminants in the
110 sediment (Hoffman et al., 2019).

111 Geotextile filtration of this sediment has been previously assessed by Alimohammadi et
112 al. (2019~~b~~) for small volumes (i.e. 200 mL). Evaluation of both dewatering potential and
113 filtrate quality (total suspended solids [TSS]) was completed following treatment with an
114 optimum dosage of polymer and filtration through the geotextile. Following filtration, the
115 authors reported a TSS of 31 mg L⁻¹ in the effluent, a reduction of 98.8% from the original

116 input. A study conducted by Tackley et al. (2020) measured the effect of various
117 conditioning treatments on the migration potential of Cu, Pb, and Zn during bench-scale
118 filtration using the geotextile. Similar to the study conducted by Alimohammadi et al.
119 (2019^b), analysis was conducted on 200 mL samples of 1 % solid content (SC) slurry. The
120 geotextile was shown to effectively filter the conditioned material and yield a relatively
121 clean effluent when compared to the untreated sample. TSS, particle concentration, particle
122 size, and metal concentrations (Cu, Pb, Zn) were measured in the untreated sample (Table
123 1), and an optimal conditioning dosage (which yielded the highest quality filtrate as per the
124 parameters listed above) was identified. The optimal dosage consisted of a two-stage
125 conditioning regime which was capable of increasing the particle from the initial 6 μm
126 reported by Alimohammadi et al. (2019^b), to greater than 610 μm on average. The polymer
127 conditioning applied was shown to significantly influence TSS and metal levels in the
128 resulting effluent, with greater than 99 % reduction for each when compared to an untreated
129 sample. This work did not evaluate the influence of a developed filter cake on the results.
130 The optimal dosage identified by Tackley et al. (2020) was implemented during this study
131 and will be discussed in further detail later in this paper.

132

133

134 **3. Methods: Polymer Conditioning and Experimentation**

135

136 *3.1 Bench-scale test*

137 A bench-scale rapid dewatering test (RDT) described by Tackley et al. (2020) was
138 modified to further examine the influence that a filter cake had on the quality of filtrate

139 produced during the sediment dewatering procedure (with respect to concentrations of Cu,
140 Pb, Zn, and particulate matter). Tackley et al. (2020) used 200 mL volume samples to
141 assess filtrate quality and hence did not examine the role of the filter cake on metal
142 migration. The filtration of a total volume of 4000 mL of conditioned sediment slurry was
143 completed during this ~~test~~study to allow for the accumulation of a filter cake and assess its
144 role on metal migration. A modification from Tackley et al. (2020) consisted of the addition
145 of an acrylic collar (Figure 1) to accommodate the increased volume (4000 mL) of
146 sediment to be passed through the geotextile. The methods described below expand on
147 those outlined by Tackley et al. (2020), however are specific to this study.

148 Twenty 200 mL sediment slurry samples (diluted to 1 % SC with water sampled from
149 the stabilization basin) were prepared as described by Tackley et al. (2020). Each 200 mL
150 sample will be henceforth referred to as a “trial”. The polymer conditioning was performed
151 to aggregate the sediment particles. A cationic flocculating agent (Solve 7118) was
152 introduced to each sample (10 mL or 5 % of the sample volume), followed by an equal
153 volume of cationic polymer (Solve 9244). Upon flocculation, the first 200 mL trial was
154 poured into the RDT apparatus, ~~with the effluent being collected in a flask placed below the~~
155 ~~funnel.~~ The RDT apparatus consisted of a funnel placed in a Erlenmeyer flask and fitted
156 with a sample of geotextile fabric. This apparatus allowed for the controlled filtration of
157 sediment and collection of the filtrate. Following a collection period of 600 seconds, the
158 flask was removed, and the filtrate extracted for analysis. The funnel was then placed in a
159 clean flask, and a subsequent 200 mL sample of optimal dosage conditioned slurry was
160 poured on the geotextile and accumulated filter cake from the previous 200 mL trial. The
161 effluent was allowed to percolate through the previously established filter cake and

162 geotextile for a further 600 seconds before again being removed for analysis. The time
163 allowed for filtration prior to the replacement of the flask was increased at the 5th, 10th,
164 and 15th trials (to 1200, 1800, 2400 seconds respectively) to allow for the effluent to pass
165 through the accumulating filter cake ~~of sediment~~ on the geotextile. This procedure was
166 repeated for twenty trials (for a total slurry volume of 4000 mL) during each of three
167 repeated tests. Metal and particle analysis were carried out on the effluent generated from
168 each 200 mL sample.

169

170 3.2 Geotextile bag field test

171 Field testing was performed using a specially prepared geotextile bag to assess the
172 performance of the geotextile and additive dosage with respect to metal migration when
173 subject to increased volume, as well as to examine the three-dimensional effect of the
174 geotextile bag on filtration efficiency.

175 The geotextile bags for the field test were acquired from Bishop Water Technologies
176 (Renfrew, Ontario, Canada) for field analysis and ~~consisted of~~ were fabricated from the
177 same geotextile material used during the bench-scale testing. The bags had an average side
178 length of 55 cm (± 5 cm) and were stitched together along three of the sides (folded along
179 the remaining side). A 7.6 cm diameter acrylonitrile-butadiene-styrene (ABS) plastic
180 adapter was fitted to one side (the de facto top) of the bag (i.e. in the centre), by the
181 manufacturer. A frame device used during the field-scale dewatering trial was designed and
182 constructed at Dalhousie University. The field-scale apparatus (Figure 2) consisted of a
183 cylindrical plastic drum (140 L) used to mix and hold the slurry prior to geotextile
184 filtration. A 3.8 cm diameter ABS drainage pipe and flow ~~release-control~~ release-control valve were

185 fastened to the bottom of the drum, and stepped up to match the diameter of the bag
186 adapter. The pipe was stepped up to 5 cm and connected to the bag via a quick release
187 threading system, allowing for easy replacement between tests. The geotextile bag was
188 placed on a geonet suspended below the drum for support and to allow the sampling of
189 effluent as it percolated through the textile. Prior to the commencement of the test, a
190 geotextile bag was connected-fastened to the drum via the connecting pipe, and the release
191 valve was set to the closed position.

192 The procedure implemented during the field scale dewatering test was a three-stage
193 process designed to be repeatable for each trial. The first stage involved the preparation of
194 100 L of 1% SC slurry. Both water and sediment were added to the holding drum and
195 homogenized via an electric drill fitted with a stainless-steel mixing rod. The slurry was
196 continually mixed at approximately 50 rpm to keep the particulate matter in suspension
197 prior to the addition of the optimum additive dosage. The second stage of each trial
198 involved the conditioning of the slurry with the optimal dosage of the flocculating agent.
199 The additive was integrated into the slurry by the mixing rod which rotated at a rate of
200 approximately 300 rpm for 2-3 minutes. The cationic polymer was then added and stirred at
201 a rate of 300 rpm for 1-2 minutes, or until flocs became visible, followed by 5 minutes of
202 stirring at approximately 50 rpm to ensure sufficient flocculation occurred. Stage three of
203 the field test began following the formation of visible flocs in the holding drum. The flow
204 control valve on the drainage pipe was set to the open position and the slurry was allowed
205 to drain into the geotextile bag. Gentle mixing (approximately 50 rpm) of the flocculated
206 material was continuous during this phase stage to ensure the flocs remained in suspension

207 ~~(as to not clog the connecting pipe). The flow control valve on the connecting duct was~~
208 ~~then set to the open position and the slurry was allowed to drain into the geotextile bag.~~

209 The filtrate was recovered at predetermined time intervals during the field experiment.
210 At each desired interval, plastic centrifuge tubes were placed below a corner of the bag to
211 collect approximately 50 mL of effluent. Excess effluent was returned to the stabilization
212 basin. Triplicate analysis of each effluent sample was then conducted following the same
213 methodology used during the bench-scale test. After the contents of the drum were
214 expelled, the flow control valve was closed. The drum was subsequently ~~refilled~~refilled
215 and the procedure was repeated until the bag was deemed to be full. During the field scale
216 RDT experiment, a total of 200 L of slurry (two 100 L trials) was filtered through a single
217 geotextile bag prior to termination of the test. ~~filtered through a single geotextile bag.~~

218

219 3.3 Effluent analyses test methods

220 Physical and chemical analysis of the effluent collected during both experimentation
221 methods was completed to determine the effect of the geotextile and filter cake on filtrate
222 quality, as well as on an unconditioned slurry sample to identify a baseline to which the
223 effluent could be compared. A Brightwell Technologies Inc. DPA-4100 flow microscope
224 was used to determine both particle size and particle concentration. The microscope was
225 capable of measuring particles within the range of 2 μm – 300 μm up to a concentration of
226 175,000 particles per millilitre (Brightwell Technologies Inc., 2009). For each trial, 1 mL of
227 effluent was pumped through an imaging field at a rate of 0.22 mL min⁻¹ with images being
228 analyzed via software. A HACH DR 5000 benchtop spectrophotometer was used to
229 measure total TSS in the effluent. Each TSS measurement consisted of 10 mL of effluent

230 being analyzed three times with the average value being calculated. The effective
231 measurement range of the unit was between 5 - 750 mg L⁻¹ of TSS (HACH Company,
232 2014).

233 Metal concentrations in each effluent sample were determined via a Thermo Scientific X
234 Series 2 ICP-MS instrument in accordance with ASTM method D5673 – 16 (ASTM
235 International, 2016b). Total metals were measured to determine the effect of the geotextile
236 and filter cake on metals which were thought to be associated with any particulate matter
237 which had transitioned the geotextile. During this analysis, 10 mL samples of effluent were
238 treated with 0.5 mL of concentrated NaOH and digested using a Perkin Elmer SPB 50-24
239 block digester for 120 minutes at 105 °C. Following digestion, ASTM type 1 (ASTM
240 International, 1999) water was added to each sample to return the volume to 10 mL, in
241 accordance with the method outlined by APHA et al. (2005). Dissolved metal concentration
242 measurements were conducted to identify the effect that filtration and sediment retention
243 had on dissolved metals in the filtrate. A 45 µm Whatman cellulose nitrate membrane filter
244 (25 mm diameter) was used to filter each 10 mL sample. Two drops of 0.2 M NaOH were
245 then added to each sample for stabilization in accordance with APHA et al. (2005).

246 Zeta potential (ZP) was measured to identify the potential charge between particles
247 present in the effluent. A Malvern Panalytical Zetasizer Nano ZS, which was capable of
248 measuring particles ranging from 3.8 nm – 100 nm in diameter, was used for analysis. The
249 instrument required 1.5 mL of effluent and used electrophoretic light scattering to
250 determine ZP, accurate to within 0.12 um.cm/V.s (Malvern Instruments Ltd., 2019).

251 Oxidation-reduction potential (E_H) was measured in accordance with APHA method
252 2850 (APHA et al. 2005). A Fisher Scientific Accumet Excel – XL60 millivolt meter in

253 combination with a platinum pin Ag/AgCl combination electrode was used for the
254 procedure. Effluent pH was measured in accordance with ASTM method D5464 (ASTM
255 International, 2016a). The pH meter (Fisher Scientific Accumet Excel – XL50) was
256 standardized (calibrated) using three pH buffer solutions (4.0, 7.0, and 10.0).

257

258

259 **4. Bench and Field Test Results**

260

261 *4.1 Bench test results*

262 Figure 32a presents the mean total suspended solids measured in each trial's filtrate
263 versus the total (cumulative) volume that previously passed through the geotextile. As
264 shown on Figure 32, the mean value of the repeated tests are presented, as well as the
265 maximum and minimum values as identified by the error bars. As previously noted, the
266 filtrate was collected for analysis following each 200 mL trial. The initial three 200 mL
267 trials which were passed through the geotextile showed considerable variation between the
268 tests. As the experiment proceeded, TSS values in the filtrate generally became more
269 consistent. As one would expect, the results show an overall decrease in suspended solids
270 as the effluent passed through the growing filter cake. The final 200 mL sample (trial 20),
271 which was subject to filtration by both the geotextile and the filter cake established during
272 the preceding 19 trials, produced an average TSS value of 15.8 mg L⁻¹. This value
273 represents a 67.5 % reduction from the first trial (mean), and an over 99.9 % reduction
274 when compared to the untreated 1 % SC slurry (13,120 mg L⁻¹).

275 Particle concentrations in the effluent (Figure 32b) showed a similar trend to that of
276 TSS. Filtration of the first 5 trials (1000 mL) yielded a reduction from the initial average of
277 1.8×10^8 particles per mL in the untreated control sample to below 500,000 particles per
278 mL. The concentration was further reduced to an average of under 102,000 particles per mL
279 in the effluent collected following the final (20th) trial. The average diameter of the particles
280 found in the filtrate generally remained consistent throughout the 4000 mL RDT, ranging
281 between 2.5 μm and 3.5 μm . Although TSS appeared to change over the course of the test,
282 the mean particle size likely didn't change much compared to the initial value ($\sim 6 \mu\text{m}$) due
283 to the presence of the filter cake, which when built up, reduced the opening size available
284 for particles to migrate through the filter cake and geotextile. These smaller openings
285 prevented the material that had flocculated from passing through; however, material which
286 was yet to aggregate or collect on the cake was likely able to transition the geotextile along
287 with the filtrate.

288 Total and dissolved metals measured in the bench scale effluent are presented in Figure
289 43. The figure presents statistical data acquired through triplicate analysis of samples taken
290 from three individual tests in the form of a box and whisker plot for each 200 mL trial.
291 Copper values ranged from a mean concentration of $18 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ in the first trial to $4 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ by
292 the twentieth trial. The dissolved fraction of copper was consistent throughout the duration
293 of the 4000 mL RDT, maintaining a concentration of between 4 and $1 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ for all tests.
294 Total lead remained generally constant in the effluent, with mean concentrations ranging
295 between 16 and $5 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$. Similar to copper, the average concentration of dissolved lead
296 generally remained consistent, fluctuating between 0.9 and $0.7 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ over the course of the
297 experiment. The range of total zinc seen throughout the experiment was generally greater

298 than that seen for both copper and lead, with early trial (i.e the first cumulative 1000 mL)
299 mean concentrations reaching $85 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, before decreasing to between 55 and $30 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$
300 near the end of each test. The dissolved zinc concentration found in the filtrate averaged 22
301 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ over the course of the bench-scale RDT. The dissolved fraction of this metal
302 remained generally consistent throughout the duration of the test, however, was found to
303 represent a relatively higher fraction of the total concentration detected when compared to
304 the other two metals. Table 2 presents the mean metal concentration for the initial three and
305 20th trials as well as mean reduction percentage for the initial and final trials (compared to
306 1 % SC slurry sample) seen for the three metals over the course of the 4000 mL RDT.

307 Upon conditioning and filtration, the zeta potential found in the effluent collected during
308 the 4000 mL RDT had an average absolute value of + 6.3 mV. The E_H-E_H (oxidation-
309 reduction potential) and pH values generally remained constant throughout the treatment
310 and bench-scale filtration test, with no identifiable trend visible as the experiment
311 progressed. The bench scale effluent yielded an average E_H-E_H value of + 358 mV and a pH
312 range of between 7.4 and 7.9.

313

314 4.2 Field test results

315 ~~As previously discussed, the field test consisted of two 100 L trials, which were drawn~~
316 ~~into a single geotextile bag.~~ TSS measured for both trials can be seen in Figure 54a. Initial
317 TSS in the untreated control sample ($13,120 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$) was reduced to 333 mg L^{-1} in the
318 effluent sampled following 15 seconds of filtration during trial 1 and showed further
319 reduction to approximately 43 mg L^{-1} after 30 seconds. The TSS values continued to trend
320 downward for the duration of the trial, with a TSS concentration of 18 mg L^{-1} being

321 achieved following 600 seconds of filtration. The second trial showed an initial spike,
322 which peaked at 7 mg L⁻¹ after 780 seconds of filtration (3 minutes – trial 2). All values
323 recorded during the second trial were found to be lower than the final value recorded during
324 the initial trial, with a decreasing trend (which was less evident than that identified in the
325 first trial) found following the initial spike. The duration of the second trial was
326 significantly longer than that of the first, culminating after over two hours of filtration. The
327 final TSS recorded value, taken at the 2 hour mark of the second trial (or 7800 s of total
328 filtration time) was approximately 2 mg L⁻¹, which was equal to 0.6 % of that identified in
329 the earliest sampled filtrate from the initial trial (15 seconds – trial 1).

330 Figure 54b presents the particle concentration data for both trials. Similar to TSS, an
331 overall decrease in concentration can be observed with respect to time. The particle
332 concentration found in the 15-second filtrate from trial 1 was found to be 2.3 million per
333 mL. This value was quickly reduced, reaching less than 300,000 per mL in the 45-second
334 sample, and continued to reduce further as the test proceeded. In the later samples taken
335 from the second trial (t = 6000 s and 7800 s), this concentration was reduced to between
336 9,000 and 14,000 particles per mL. Over a 99.9 % decrease in particulate concentration was
337 seen in the filtrate sampled at the end of the test when compared to the untreated sample
338 (1.8×10^8 particles per mL in the untreated sample). The size of the particulate matter
339 generally remained constant throughout both the individual trials, as well as the overall
340 duration of the experiment. Particles were found to maintain a consistent range of between
341 2.5 μm and 4.5 μm (average of 3.3 μm).

342 Figure 65 presents the total and dissolved metal data for the field test. Error bars on the
343 graph denote the highest and lowest concentration determined for each respective data point

344 via triplicate analysis. The initial sample (15 seconds - trial 1) showed the highest
345 concentration level for all three metals. Following an additional 15 seconds (30 seconds -
346 trial 1), an immediate reduction in concentration for all metals was observed. This reduced
347 concentration was maintained for the remainder of the experiment for all three metals of
348 concern. Similar to TSS and particulate concentration, a minor spike in total metals
349 occurred immediately following the beginning of the second trial. However, some variation
350 was seen, as several measurements taken both before and after this point showed values
351 which exceeded this spike for all three metals.

352 When considering only the first trial, levels of copper were present ranging from a mean
353 high of $40.6 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ in the filtrate sampled from trial 1 (15 seconds) to $2.6 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ after 10
354 minutes (600 s) of filtration. Concentrations of lead showed less of a reduction, ranging
355 from a mean high of $36.2 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ to a low of $14.8 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, while mean zinc ranged from
356 $410.1 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ to $82.0 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, over the same period. Similar to the bench scale tests, the
357 dissolved fraction of copper and lead remained consistent throughout the duration of the
358 trial. Concentrations of dissolved metals ranged from a high of $0.9 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ down to $0.4 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$
359 for copper, and $0.3 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ to $0.1 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ for lead. A range of $92.4 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ to $9.5 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ was
360 determined for dissolved zinc, with the highest value occurring in the filtrate sample at the
361 1-minute mark.

362 Less variation with respect to total zinc and copper was seen in the filtrate collected
363 during the second trial, with values for copper ranging from a mean high of $3.2 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ (i.e.
364 45 seconds into trial 2) to a mean low of $0.7 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ (i.e. 7200 s into trial 2). Total lead
365 showed a further reduction when compared to the first trial, however, it was considerably
366 more variable than the other two metals. Lead maintained a range of concentrations

367 between 22.7 and 3.9 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ over the course of the second trial, with maximum values seen
368 in the filtrate sampled between 1 and 1.5 hours. Levels of zinc continued to show an overall
369 decrease during the second trial, with a mean range of between 92.3 and 19.1 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$,
370 however, similar to lead, some variation was observed. Dissolved metals generally
371 maintained similar concentrations to the first trial, averaging 0.7 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ and 0.1 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ for
372 copper and lead respectively, while dissolved zinc averaged 9.0 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$.

373 Filtrate sampled during the field-scale test yielded ZP measurements ranging between +
374 4.7 and + 7.7 mV, and E_H-E_b ranging between + 327 mV and + 365 mV. The pH measured
375 during the field trial was found to have an average value of 7.5. Similar to the bench scale
376 analysis, no trend was observed throughout the field scale trial for the three aforementioned
377 parameters.

378

379

380 5. Discussion of effluent quality results

381

382 A reduction in total concentration was seen for all metals over the duration of the 4000
383 mL RDT, when compared to the initial 1 % SC slurry. The filtrate quality continued to
384 show improvement as each subsequent trial was required to pass through an increased
385 amount of sediment deposited on the geotextile, with the majority (~ 98 %) of the reduction
386 occurring within the first trial. As was shown in Figure 43, it is possible to achieve an over
387 98.9 % reduction in metal concentrations (for Cu, Pb, and Zn) with the initial 200 mL
388 passage of influent through the geotextile (i.e. without an established filter cake). This

389 performance improved to a 99.6 % reduction upon the passage of only 4000 mL of
390 sediment through the geotextile.

391 Concentrations of copper and zinc measured in the effluent collected during the field-
392 scale test ~~did trend~~appeared in lower concentrations than those observed during the bench-
393 scale analysis. Total lead occurred in lower concentrations during the field trial than were
394 identified in the bench-scale effluent; however, due to the somewhat irregular
395 concentrations produced (i.e. a less evident trend), it cannot be said that a definitive
396 reduction has occurred over the field-scale~~is~~ test.

397 The field-scale testing was limited to two trials. As previously noted, Trial 1 took
398 approximately 10 minutes to complete, and the filtrate quality changed continually over the
399 course of the trial. Trial 2 took approximately 2 hours to complete and the filtrate quality
400 was largely stable throughout the trial. It was expected that a third trial would show similar
401 effluent quality results to trial 2, but that the time required to complete any subsequent
402 filtration would be impractical based on access to the field site provided to the authors. As a
403 result it was deemed that two trials was sufficient for this experiment.

404 The concentration of dissolved metals maintained a consistent range over the course of
405 both ~~types of~~ experiments. Some variation was seen in the absolute concentration of each
406 metal between the two scales. Early trial samples which experienced a relatively low
407 volume of established filter cake (as evident by the values for total metals, TSS, particle
408 concentration), as well as the consistency seen through the duration of the test suggest the
409 discrepancy in dissolved metal levels found between the two experiments may be attributed
410 to the chemical conditions present in the slurry (pH, E_HE_h, ZP), rather than the presence of
411 the filter cake. The results yielded through this experiment indicate that the development of

412 a filter cake has little influence on the dissolved fraction of the metals; however, can
413 significantly affect the total concentration in the effluent as these metals (with this
414 particular sediment) are likely bound to the solid particulate being retained by the
415 geotextile.

416 Although there appears to be an overall reduction in TSS, particle concentration, total
417 copper, and total zinc as an increased volume of slurry is filtered during the field test, there
418 existed some variation. The three-dimensional effect of the geotextile filtration procedure
419 may have resulted in a section of filter cake where filtrate was more readily able to
420 transition (due to micro-scale changes in density, variations in pore opening, etc.), which
421 may have momentarily increased the flow rate of filtrate, and with it, increased the amount
422 of particulate which was able to pass through. Additionally, the location at which the
423 filtrate permeated through the geotextile was unknown, as samples were collected as the
424 material drained off the corner of the bag. Sediment movement within the bag during
425 filtration may, therefore, impart minor effects on effluent quality (and may serve as some
426 explanation for the variability in lead concentrations seen during the test).

427 The correlation between filtrate quality and the presence of the filter cake can likely be
428 attributed to the propensity for the particulate matter to aggregate, as it did during the initial
429 formation of the flocs in the treated slurry. As the mass of the filter cake is increased, the
430 pore size is reduced relative to the AOS of the geotextile encouraging the entrapment and
431 binding of particles to the already established cake.

432 As a result of the association between these constituents (metals and particles), the
433 reduction found in the concentration of metals can be attributed to the physical retention of
434 the sediment. The concentration of TSS found in the effluent suggests that the flocs (and

435 additional accumulated material which remained un-flocculated) were almost entirely
436 retained by the geotextile. This result is likely due to both the attractive qualities of the
437 sediment, as well as the fact that the average apparent opening size of the geotextile fabric
438 (430 μm) was smaller than that of the average diameter of the flocs (610 μm).

439 The initial zeta potential determined for both the water and sediment was reasonably
440 consistent, ranging from around -21 mV to -25 mV for both mediums. The negative charge
441 associated with the material is likely the primary factor influencing the degree of repulsion
442 between particles prior to treatment (Larsson et al., 2012), contributing to the materials
443 resistance to aggregation without the aid of the chemical conditioning. Upon filtration, the
444 zeta potential identified during both test scales was found to have an average absolute
445 positive value (ranging between + 4.7 and + 7.7). The addition of the cationic polymer (ZP
446 $\approx + 100$ mV) has served to change the charge of the system and resulted in the much lower
447 value (closer to zero). The effect of the low zeta potential seen in the filtrate is a reduction
448 in the repulsive force between the individual particles, therefore improving the flocculation
449 potential (Larsson et al., 2012). The majority of metal contaminants which were present in
450 suspension (associated with the particulate matter) were likely bound to the flocs during
451 treatment or amassed on the filter cake as additional contact between particles increased.
452 Metals which were bound to particles failing to coalesce into flocs larger than the AOS (or
453 be retained by the established filter cake) were able to permeate through the filter cake and
454 geotextile. These metals may have then accumulated in the effluent (along with those not
455 associated with particulate matter [dissolved]), and contributed to the higher total metal
456 concentrations found in early trial samples.

457 Throughout the chemical conditioning and dewatering trials (both scales), pH values
458 remained generally consistent, ranging between 7.4 and 7.9, indicating a neutral
459 environment. The E_H-E_h (oxidation-reduction potential) generally remained constant
460 throughout the treatment and dewatering procedures for all mediums. An initial average
461 value of + 380 mV (oxidizing) was determined for the untreated 1 % SC slurry prior to
462 conditioning. This value was determined following the dilution from the initial raw
463 sediment in the laboratory and was therefore subject to atmospheric influence through
464 disturbance. This disturbance may have introduced oxygen to the system and had an effect
465 on the measurement (Tack et al., 1996). However, these results mimic those conditions that
466 might occur during the sediment extraction (dredging), during the geotextile filtration, and
467 conditioning of the sediment, and therefore this result may be considered representative of
468 the environmental conditions during remediation (Gambrell et al., 1991). The addition of
469 the chemical additives had little effect on the E_H-E_h of the system, which yielded values
470 ranging between + 327 mV and + 365 mV. Following filtration, both the pH and reduction
471 potential of the filtrate remained generally consistent, with no apparent trends identified
472 over either test.

473 The average pH and E_H-E_h conditions identified in the effluent (pH \approx 7.5, $E_H-E_h \approx$ + 350
474 mV) can be compared to known stability field diagrams (Hermann and Neumann-Mahlkau,
475 1985) to gain a qualitative rationale as to the occurrence of the dissolved and suspended
476 metal fractions identified in the filtrate. When considering copper, the pH range spans the
477 fields of both Cu^{2+} (dissolved) and $Cu_2(OH)_2CO_3$ (solid), however, primarily in the latter.
478 The conditions present would suggest lead should occur entirely in the solid fraction, which
479 reflect the experimental results (~99 % in the solid phase). Effluent conditions (pH and

480 ~~E₄E_h~~) straddle the zinc stability fields of both the charged ion Zn²⁺ (dissolved) as well as
481 the uncharged molecule ZnCO₃ (solid), with close proximity to the (Zn(OH)₂ (solid) field.
482 Indeed, when comparing the effluent results produced during both scales of
483 experimentation, a relatively large proportion of zinc exists in both the solid and dissolved
484 state. This finding is in agreement with the experimental results presented in Figure ~~43~~ and
485 Figure ~~65~~, which show the majority (> 70 %) of the metals in the filtrate occur in the solid
486 phase for all three elements. This highlights the need to have a good-proficient
487 understanding of sediment and water chemistry before embarking on dewatering of
488 contaminated sediments, to ~~ensure that identify if the ability to ensure~~ dissolved
489 ~~concentrations of~~ metals will remain below ~~any~~ target concentrations.

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492 6. Summary and Conclusions

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494 This study was conducted to assess how a filter cake established on the surface of a
495 geotextile may influence the migration of copper, lead, and zinc during filtration
496 operations. Chemical and physical analysis of the effluent by-product produced during two
497 scales of experimentation examined the mechanism of transport and fate of the three
498 metals.

499 Bench-scale analysis showed that geotextile filtration in combination with optimal
500 polymer conditioning was able to prevent over 99 % of the three metal contaminants and
501 total suspended solids from transitioning the filter. Metal concentrations in the effluent
502 were reduced from the untreated levels immediately upon treatment and filtration. The

503 establishment of only a small amount of filter cake further reduced metal concentrations in
504 effluent sampled over 4000 mL of filtration. The result of the field dewatering test
505 suggested that an even greater reduction in both total metal contaminants and TSS was
506 achievable upon the filtration of a larger volume of conditioned sediment. Dissolved metal
507 concentrations remained consistent throughout each test, suggesting the reduction in total
508 metals seen is owed to the reduction in particulate matter in the effluent. The primary
509 mechanism responsible for the metal reduction is therefore the physical retention of the
510 associated particulate matter, which increases as the filter cake grows on the geotextile.

511 The behavior of the three metals under the chemical conditions (pH, E_H , ZP) present
512 in the effluent provide an explanation for the high degree of retention seen during the
513 experimentation. Understanding the propensity for a given metal to exist in a dissolved
514 versus solid state for a given water/sediment geochemistry regime will improve the
515 reliability in ensuring metals will be retained in sediment dewatering projects.

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518 7. Acknowledgements

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521 and Acadia University's Department of Earth and Environmental Science for assisting in
522 the sampling and analysis conducted during this study. Funding was provided by NS Lands
523 Inc. and NSERC.

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526 **8. References**

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619
620 **Figure and table captions:**

621

622 Figure 1: Bench-scale RDT apparatus as outlined by Tackley et al. (2020), modified via the
623 addition of an acrylic collar.

624

625 [Figure 2: Geotextile bag field testing apparatus.](#)

626

627 Figure ~~32~~: Average TSS (a) and particle concentration (b) in filtrate collected during the
628 4000 mL RDT.

629

630 Figure ~~43~~: Metal concentrations in filtrate collected during the 4000 mL RDT. Statistical
631 data shown for minimum, first quartile, median, third quartile, maximum, and mean values.

632

633 Figure ~~54~~: TSS (a) and particle concentration (b) in field trial effluent (200 L).

634

635 Figure ~~65~~: Total and dissolved metal concentrations found in field trial filtrate (vertical
636 dotted grey line denotes beginning of second trial).

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638 Table 1: Influent properties prior to conditioning and filtration (modified from Tackley et
639 al., 2020).

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641 Table 2: Average metals and reduction in filtrate collected during the 4000 mL RDT.

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661 Figure 1

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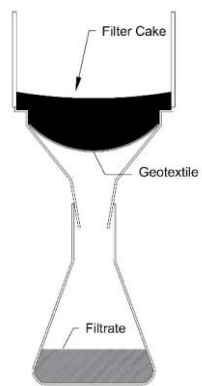
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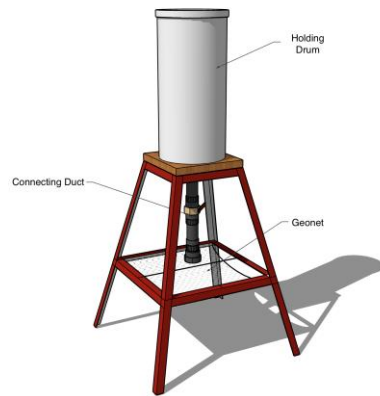
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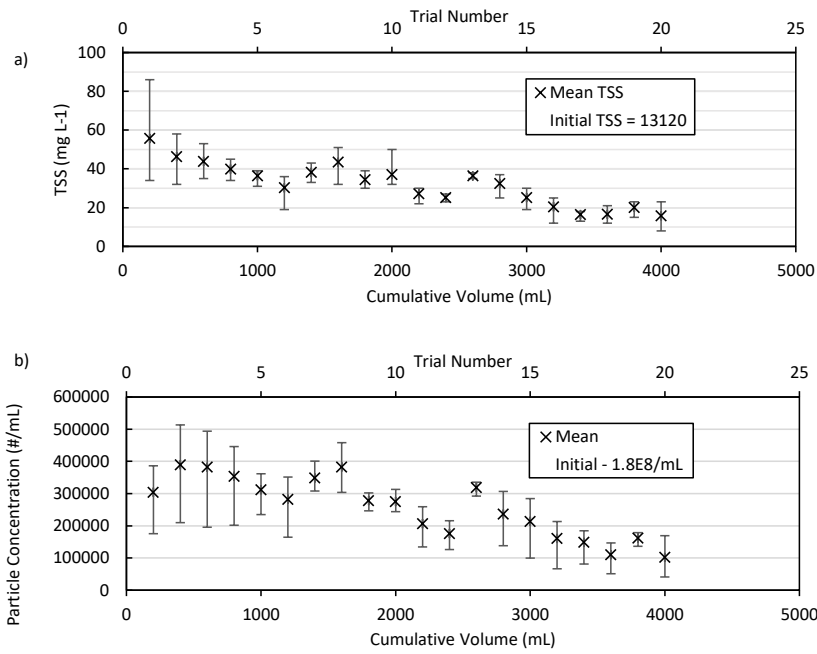


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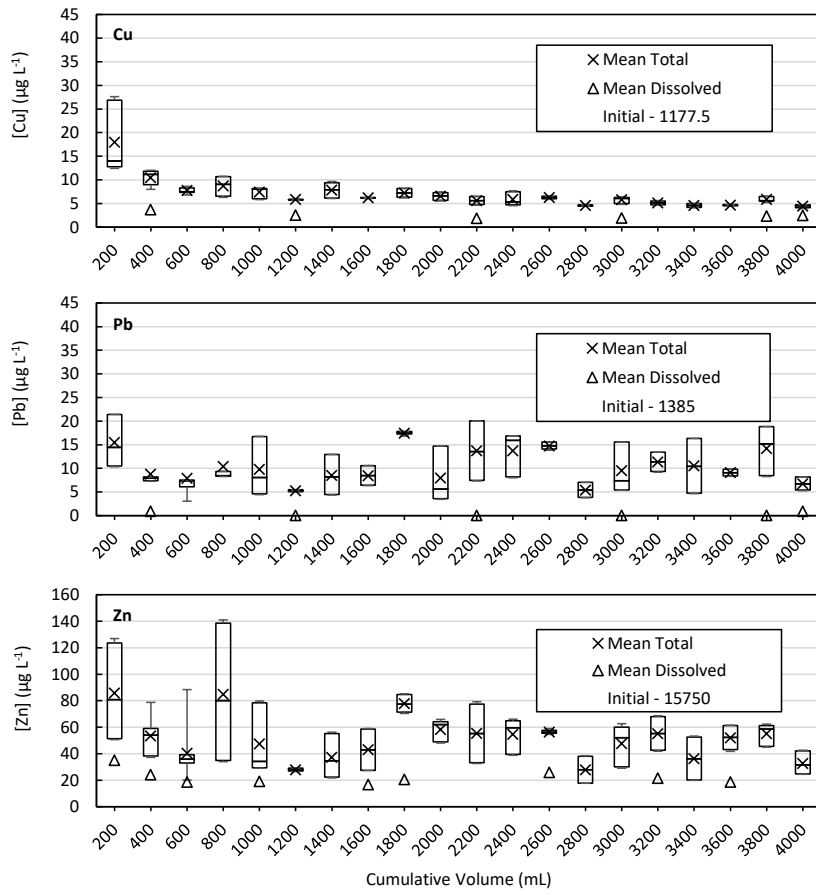
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Figure 2



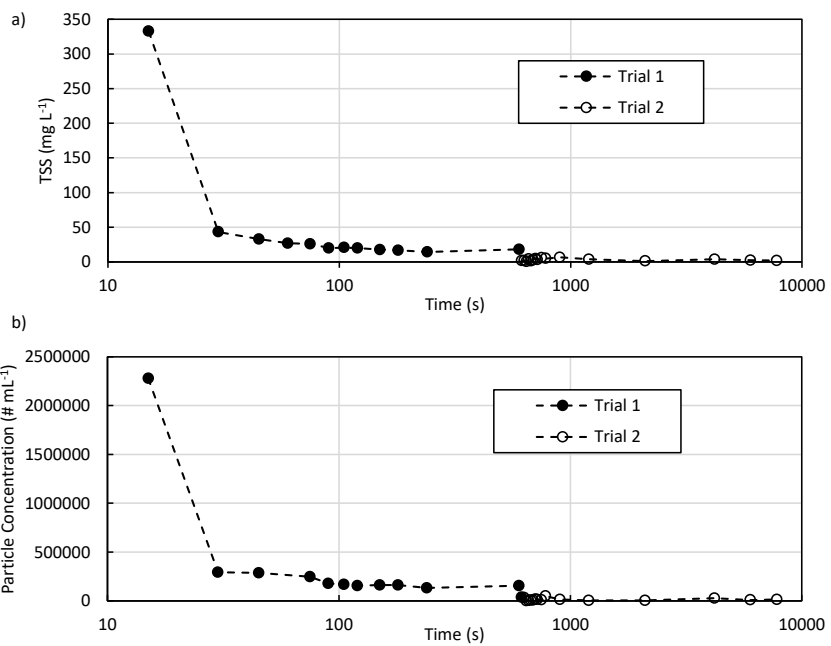
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Figure 32



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736 Figure 43

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746 Figure 54

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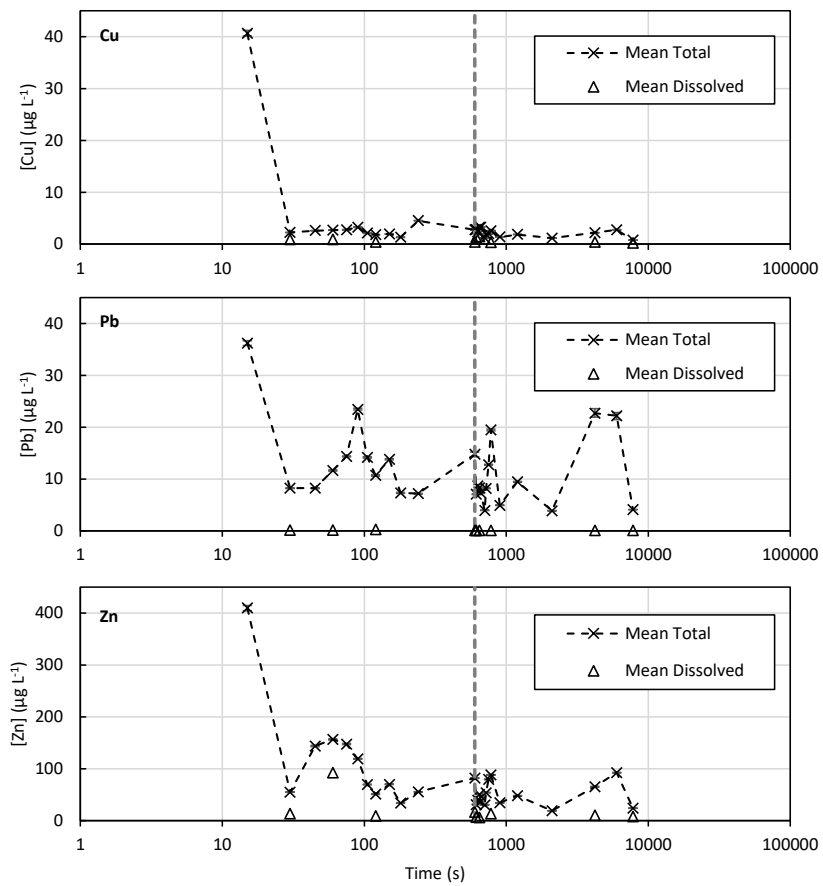
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Figure 65

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1 % SC Slurry Properties	
Average Particle Size (μm)	5.8
Particle Concentration ($\# \text{ mL}^{-1}$)	1.8×10^8
TSS (mg L^{-1})	13,120
Copper ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	1178
Lead ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	1385
Zinc ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	15750

Table 1

	Initial average concentration prior to filtration ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	Total metals in 1 st trial ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	Total metals in 2 nd trial ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	Total metals in 3 rd trial ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	Total metals in 20 th trial ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	Average immediate reduction	Average final reduction
Cu	1177.5	17.9	11.5	7.9	4.4	98.5 %	99.6 %
Pb	1385.0	15.5	7.7	6.8	6.8	98.8 %	99.5 %
Zn	15750.0	85.9	46.1	36.0	33.8	99.5 %	99.8 %

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823 Table 2
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