A mathematical solution and analysis of contaminant transport in a radial two-zone confined aquifer

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1. Introduction

A skin zone that occurs around a well due to drilling practices or well completion may have properties that are different from the aquifer formation. This situation can be considered as a radial two-zone aquifer system with a finite-thickness skin adjacent to the aquifer region. Numerous studies have considered the influence of a skin zone on groundwater flow induced by various aquifer tests (e.g., Wen et al., 2011; Yang and Yeh, 2005, 2006), as well as on the estimation of hydrogeological properties (e.g., Chen and Yeh, 2009; Kabala, 2001; Yeh and Chen, 2007). It has been widely acknowledged that the existence of a skin zone affects the early-time head data near the well. However, little is known about the influence of a skin zone on contaminant transport in a radial two-zone aquifer system.

The radial contaminant transport problem represents the injection of a dissolved contaminant (e.g., waste water or treated water) into an aquifer, and several articles have examined this radial dispersion problem. Ogata (1958) first presented an analytical solution for the radial advection–dispersion equation (RADE) based on the Laplace transform and complex integral methods, though that study did not evaluate the integral solution. Hoopes and Harleman (1967) used a finite difference method to simulate solute transport in radial flow induced by a line source injection. Subsequently, both Dagan (1971) and Gelhar and Collins (1971) used perturbation methods to obtain approximate solutions for radial dispersion due to injection in a finite-radius well. For the radial dispersion problem, Tang and Babu (1979) developed an analytical solution expressed in terms of three integrals, including the combination of Bessel functions and/or modified Bessel functions, and an approximate solution in terms of the complementary error function. In addition, they also presented small-time and large-time solutions for the radial dispersion problem. Moench and Ogata (1981) solved the RADE by the Laplace transform technique. Their Laplace-domain solution was expressed in terms of Airy functions and inverted numerically to the time domain by the Stehfest (1970), Hsieh (1986) presented an analytical solution in terms of Airy
functions for the radial dispersion problem, which was simpler than that of Tang and Babu (1979). These analytical solutions and approximate solutions serve as useful and efficient tools to predict solute concentration distributions in homogeneous aquifer systems. Recently, Zhan et al. (2009a, 2009b) dealt with solute transport in a layered system with two-dimensional transport in the aquifer and one-dimensional transport in the aquitard. The concentration distributions in the aquifer and aquitard were solved based on the Laplace transform technique along with the continuity requirements at the aquifer–aquitard interface. The Stehfest numerical inversion algorithm (1970) was used to obtain time-domain results. Though the presence of a wellbore skin is expected to affect the concentration distributions in the aquifer system, the dispersion problem in a radial two-zone aquifer, which accounts for the finite-thickness wellbore skin, has rarely been considered in the field of groundwater transport.

The purpose of this study is to develop a new mathematical solution for solute transport in a radial two-zone confined aquifer system. The case considered is of an injection well of finite radius that fully penetrates the aquifer. The Laplace-domain solution of the model is developed by the Laplace transform technique. Due to its complicated form, the time-domain solution is obtained by applying a numerical inversion. This solution is then used to investigate the effect of wellbore skin properties on the temporal and spatial concentration distribution in the aquifer system. In addition, the influence of dispersivities in the skin and formation zones as well as the skin thickness on predicted concentration values is assessed through a sensitivity analysis.

2. Methodology

2.1. Mathematical model and Laplace-domain solution

Fig. 1 shows the configuration considered; a well in a radial two-zone aquifer system. The injection well is located at the origin of the cylindrical coordinate system, which has a finite radius, $r_w$, and a screen that fully penetrates the aquifer. The contaminant is considered to be nonreactive and continuously released from the injection well with a constant concentration $C_0$. The confined aquifer has a finite thickness $b$ and consists of two zones in the radial direction. The first zone, known as the wellbore-skin zone, is located around the injection well and has a thickness of $r_1-r_w$. The longitudinal dispersivity in the first zone is denoted by $\alpha_1$. As indicated in Fig. 1, $r_1$ is the radial distance from the central line of the well to the outer radius of the wellboreskin. The second zone is known as the aquifer formation zone, which is homogeneous, isotropic, and of infinite lateral extent with a longitudinal dispersivity denoted by $\alpha_2$. The contaminant concentrations in the first and second zones are denoted as $C_1$ and $C_2$, respectively.

For convenience, the mathematical model is expressed in dimensionless form. The contaminant transport is dominated by radial advection and longitudinal dispersion in the two-zone system. The molecular diffusion coefficient is assumed to be negligible. The dimensionless concentration distribution in the skin zone is written as

$$\kappa \frac{\partial^2 G_1}{\partial \rho^2} - \frac{\partial G_1}{\partial \rho} = \rho \frac{\partial G_1}{\partial \tau}, \quad \rho_w < \rho \leq \rho_1, \quad \tau > 0$$

and in the aquifer formation zone as

$$\frac{\partial^2 G_2}{\partial \rho^2} - \frac{\partial G_2}{\partial \rho} = \rho \frac{\partial G_2}{\partial \tau}, \quad \rho_1 < \rho < \infty, \quad \tau > 0$$

where $G_1 = C_1/C_0$ and $G_2 = C_2/C_0$ are the dimensionless concentrations in the skin and aquifer formation zones, respectively; $\kappa = \alpha_1/\alpha_2$ represents the ratio of longitudinal dispersivities in the skin and formation zones; $\rho = r/r_2$ represents the dimensionless radial distance from the well; $\rho_w = r_w/r_2$ and $\rho_1 = r_1/r_2$ are the dimensionless well radius and outer radius of the skin zone, respectively; $\tau = Qt/(2nbm\alpha_2^2)$ is the dimensionless time since injection of contaminant, and $Q$ is the constant well injection rate, and $n$ is the aquifer porosity. Both the skin and aquifer formation zones are initially free from contamination, expressed as

$$G_1(\rho, 0) = G_2(\rho, 0) = 0, \quad \rho \geq \rho_w.$$  (3)

The boundary condition at the injection well is a constant concentration denoted as

$$G_1(\rho_w, \tau) = 1, \quad \tau > 0.$$  (4)

The aquifer formation is assumed to be free from contamination far from the well, where the concentration is written as

$$G_2(\infty, \tau) = 0, \quad \tau > 0.$$  (5)

The concentration and the flux at the interface between the skin and aquifer formation zones are continuous, expressed as

$$G_1(\rho_1, \tau) = G_2(\rho_1, \tau), \quad \tau > 0$$

and

$$\kappa \frac{\partial G_1(\rho_1, \tau)}{\partial \rho} = \frac{\partial G_2(\rho_1, \tau)}{\partial \rho}, \quad \tau > 0.$$  (7)

Taking the Laplace transform with respect to the dimensionless time $\tau$ of Eqs. (1) to (7) gives

$$\kappa \frac{d^2 \hat{G}_1}{dp^2} - \frac{d\hat{G}_1}{dp} - \rho s \hat{G}_1 = 0, \quad \rho_w < \rho \leq \rho_1$$

Fig. 1. Schematic diagram of an injection well in a radial two-zone aquifer system.
\[
\frac{d^2 G_2}{dp^2} - \frac{dG_2}{dp} - \rho s G_2 = 0, \quad 0 < \rho < \infty
\]  
(9)

\[
\bar{G}_1(\rho_w, s) = \frac{1}{s}
\]  
(10)

\[
\bar{G}_2(\infty, s) = 0
\]  
(11)

\[
\bar{G}_1(\rho_1, s) = \bar{G}_2(\rho_1, s)
\]  
(12)

and

\[
\kappa \frac{d\bar{G}_1(\rho_1, s)}{dp} = \frac{dG_2(\rho_1, s)}{dp}
\]  
(13)

where \( \bar{G}_1 \) and \( \bar{G}_2 \) are the dimensionless Laplace-domain concentrations in the skin and formation zones, respectively, and \( s \) is the Laplace variable. The development of Eqs. (8) to (13) is given in Appendix A. The results for \( \bar{G}_1 \) and \( \bar{G}_2 \) are, respectively, given by

\[
\bar{G}_1(\rho, s) = \frac{1}{s} \exp\left(-\frac{\rho - \rho_w}{2\kappa}\right) \left\{ \frac{Ai\left(Z_{1,\rho}\right)}{Ai\left(Z_{1,\rho_w}\right)} \left[ 1 - Bi\left(Z_{1,\rho_w}\right) \right] \right\}
\]

\[
+ Bi\left(Z_{1,\rho}\right) \]  
(14)

and

\[
\bar{G}_2(\rho, s) = \frac{1}{s} \exp\left(\frac{\rho_1 - \rho - \rho_w}{2\kappa}\right) \frac{Ai\left(Z_{2,\rho}\right)}{Ai\left(Z_{2,\rho_1}\right)}
\]

\[
\times \left\{ \frac{Ai\left(Z_{1,\rho}\right)}{Ai\left(Z_{1,\rho_w}\right)} \left[ 1 - Bi\left(Z_{1,\rho_w}\right) \right] + Bi\left(Z_{1,\rho}\right) \right\}
\]  
(15)

where \( Ai(\cdot) \) and \( Bi(\cdot) \) are Airy functions. Other associated functions and variables are defined in Appendix A. The argument \( Z_{1,\rho} \) is the abbreviation for the function \( Z_1(\rho, s) \), as defined in Eq. (A.5). In addition, \( Z_{1,\rho_1} \) and \( Z_{1,\rho_2} \) are referred to as the function \( Z_1 \) by replacing \( \rho \) with their second indexes \( \rho_1 \) and \( \rho_w \), respectively. Similarly, \( Z_{2,\rho} \) and \( Z_{2,\rho_1} \) are the abbreviations for the functions \( Z_2(\rho, s) \) and \( Z_2(\rho_1, s) \), respectively, defined in Eq. (A.6).

2.2. Numerical evaluation

Numerical inversion and evaluation were carried out using a FORTRAN code with double precision accuracy. The Airy functions with argument \( x \) can be expressed in terms of the modified Bessel functions as (Abramovitz and Stegun, 1972)

\[
Ai(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \sqrt{\frac{x}{3}} K_{1/3}(x)
\]  
(16)

and

\[
Bi(x) = \sqrt{\frac{x}{3}} \left( I_{-1/3}(x) + I_{1/3}(x) \right)
\]  
(17)

where \( I(\cdot) \) and \( K(\cdot) \) are the modified Bessel functions of the first and second kinds, respectively, with the argument \( \xi = 2\sqrt{3} \cdot x^{3/2} \). The derivatives of the Airy functions, which appear in Eqs. (A.13) and (A.14), are expressed by

\[
\dot{Ai}(x) = -\frac{1}{\pi \sqrt{3}} K_{2/3}(\xi)
\]  
(18)

and

\[
\dot{Bi}(x) = \frac{x}{\sqrt{3}} \left[ I_{-2/3}(x) + I_{2/3}(x) \right].
\]  
(19)

The functions \( K(\cdot) \) and \( \dot{K}(\cdot) \) are calculated by the subroutines DCBIS and DCBKS of IMSL (2003a), respectively. The numerical inversion of Eqs. (14) and (15) to the time domain is achieved by the subroutine DINLAP of IMSL (2003b) which was developed based on the Crump algorithm (Chen et al., 1996).

2.3. Reduction to Moench and Ogata’s solution

Moench and Ogata (1981) provided a Laplace-domain solution for the problem of radial dispersion with the contaminant injected into a well in an aquifer without the presence of wellbore skin. Their Laplace-domain solution is expressed as

\[
\bar{G}(\rho, s) = \frac{1}{s} \exp\left(-\frac{\rho - \rho_w}{2\kappa}\right) \frac{Ai\left(Y_{\rho}\right)}{Ai\left(Y_{\rho_w}\right)}
\]

(20)

where

\[
Y_{\rho} = \frac{4\rho s + 1}{4s^{3/2}}
\]

(21)

and

\[
Y_{w} = \frac{4\rho_w s + 1}{4s^{3/2}}
\]

(22)

Note that the present solution, i.e., Eqs. (14) and (15), can be reduced to Eq. (20) by setting \( \rho_1 = \rho_w \) and \( \kappa = 1 \), i.e., \( Z_1 = Z_2 = Y_{\rho}, Z_{1,\rho_1} = Z_{2,\rho_1} = Z_{1,\rho_w} = Y_{\rho}, \) and \( \nabla_1 = 0 \).

2.4. Sensitivity analysis

Sensitivity analysis can be performed to examine the effect of changing the input parameters for model output, i.e., the concentration. The normalized sensitivity coefficients of \( U_{\alpha_1}, U_{\alpha_2}, \) and \( U_{r_1} \) with respect to each of the parameters \( \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \) and \( r_1 \) indicate the relative importance of model parameters, which are expressed as (Liou and Yeh, 1997)

\[
U_{\alpha_1} = \alpha_1 \frac{\partial C}{\partial \alpha_1}, \quad U_{\alpha_2} = \alpha_2 \frac{\partial C}{\partial \alpha_2}, \quad \text{and} \quad U_{r_1} = r_1 \frac{\partial C}{\partial r_1}
\]

(23)

Note that these three coefficients have the same dimensions as concentration. Three new sensitivity coefficients are further introduced as

\[
U_{\alpha_1} = \kappa \frac{\partial G}{\partial \kappa} = U_{\alpha_1}/C_0
\]

(24)

\[
U_{\alpha_2} = \frac{1}{\rho_w} \frac{\partial G}{\partial \rho_w} = U_{\alpha_2}/C_0
\]

(25)
and

\[ u_{\alpha_0} = \rho_1 \frac{\partial G_{\kappa}}{\partial \kappa} = \frac{U_{\alpha_0}}{C_0} \]

where \( u_{\alpha_0}, u_{\alpha_1} \) and \( u_{\alpha_2} \) represent the dimensionless normalized sensitivity coefficients of the dimensionless concentration with respect to the dimensionless parameters \( \kappa, 1/\rho_w \) and \( \rho_1 \), respectively. They are approximated by the finite-difference formulas as

\[ u_{\alpha_1} \approx \kappa \left( \frac{G(\kappa + \Delta \kappa) - G(\kappa)}{\Delta \kappa} \right) \]

\[ u_{\alpha_2} \approx \frac{G(\rho_w/\kappa + \Delta \alpha_2, \rho_1/\kappa + \Delta \alpha_2, \tau(\alpha_2 + \Delta \alpha_2)) - G(\rho_w/\kappa, \rho_1/\kappa, \tau)}{\Delta \alpha_2} \]

and

\[ u_{\alpha_3} \approx \rho_1 \left( \frac{G(\rho_1/\kappa + \Delta \rho_1) - G(\rho_1/\kappa)}{\Delta \rho_1} \right) \]

where \( \Delta \kappa, \Delta \alpha_2 \) and \( \Delta \rho_1 \) denote small changes in the parameters, which are usually chosen as the parameter values multiplied by a factor of \( 10^{-3} \). Thus, the following formulas are applied to calculate Eq. (28): i.e., \( \rho_w(\alpha_2 + \Delta \alpha_2) = \rho_w/1.001, \rho_1(\alpha_2 + \Delta \alpha_2) = \rho_1/1.001, \alpha(\alpha_2 + \Delta \alpha_2) = \alpha_2/1.001, \) and \( \tau(\alpha_2 + \Delta \alpha_2) = \tau/1.001. \)

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Effect of dispersivities in the formation zone

**Fig. 2** displays the curves of dimensionless concentration versus dimensionless distance for \( \rho_w = 1, \rho_1 = 2 \), and \( \kappa = 0.5, 1 \) and 2 when \( \tau = 0.5, 4.5 \) and 18. The case of \( \kappa = 1 \) represents the absence of the skin zone. Furthermore, the cases of \( \kappa = 0.5 \) and 2 represent the situations for \( \alpha_1 < \alpha_2 \) and \( \alpha_1 > \alpha_2 \), respectively. At the same distance, the highest dimensionless concentration is produced in the case of greatest \( \kappa \) at a specific time. Overall, the differences in dimensionless concentrations for \( \kappa = 0.5, 1 \) and 2 decrease with time. The slopes of the dimensionless concentration curve are markedly different at the interface between the skin zone and formation zone (\( \rho = 2 \)) in the cases of \( \kappa = 0.5 \) and 2 when \( \tau = 0.5 \) and 4.5. The variations in the slope of the concentration curve may provide a diagnostic indication for the presence of the skin zone in the aquifer system, although it is recognized that such detailed data on concentration versus distance may rarely be available in the field.

**Fig. 3** displays the curves of dimensionless concentration for \( \rho_w = 10, \rho_1 = 20 \), and \( \kappa = 0.5, 1 \) and 2 when \( \tau = 50, 450 \) and 1800.

2 represent the situations for \( \alpha_1 < \alpha_2 \) and \( \alpha_1 > \alpha_2 \), respectively. At the same distance, the highest dimensionless concentration is produced in the case of greatest \( \kappa \) at a specific time. Overall, the differences in dimensionless concentrations for \( \kappa = 0.5, 1 \) and 2 decrease with time. The slopes of the dimensionless concentration curve are markedly different at the interface between the skin zone and formation zone (\( \rho = 2 \)) in the cases of \( \kappa = 0.5 \) and 2 when \( \tau = 0.5 \) and 4.5. The variations in the slope of the concentration curve may provide a diagnostic indication for the presence of the skin zone in the aquifer system, although it is recognized that such detailed data on concentration versus distance may rarely be available in the field.

**Fig. 4** displays the curves of dimensionless concentration for \( \rho_w = 1, \rho_1 = 4 \), and \( \kappa = 0.5, 1 \) and 2 when \( \tau = 0.5, 4.5 \) and 18.
Fig. 3 shows the curves of dimensionless concentration versus dimensionless distance for $\rho_w = 10$, $\rho_1 = 20$, and $\kappa = 0.5$, 1 and 2 when $\tau = 0.5$, 450 and 1800, which is comparable with the corresponding curves in Fig. 2 to represent the case of smaller $\alpha_2$ under the same well radius condition. Additionally, the dimensionless distance and time adopted in Fig. 3 are 10 and 100 times, respectively, those used in Fig. 2 for the same dimensional values. In Fig. 3, the differences in dimensionless concentrations for $\kappa = 0.5$, 1 and 2 are less significant than those in Fig. 2. The dimensionless concentration distributions for $\kappa = 0.5$, 1 and 2 closely coincide when the time is large ($\tau = 1800$). In contrast to Fig. 2, the highest dimensionless concentration does not always occur in the case of greatest $\kappa$ at a specific time. Fig. 3 shows that these dimensionless concentration curves cross near $\rho = 14$ when $\tau = 50$, near $\rho = 30$ when $\tau = 450$, and near $\rho = 50$ when $\tau = 1800$. Fig. 3 also indicates that the plumes migrate shorter distances at corresponding times than those in Fig. 2.

3.2. Effect of skin thickness

Fig. 4 illustrates the dimensionless spatial concentration distributions for $\rho_w = 1$, $\rho_1 = 4$, and $\kappa = 0.5$, 1 and 2 when $\tau = 0.5$, 4.5 and 18 for the case of thicker skin. This figure indicates that the differences in dimensionless concentration for $\kappa = 0.5$, 1 and 2 are much more significant at larger distances from the well than those in Fig. 2. For the case of $\kappa = 0.5$, the dimensionless concentration does not change significantly at the early time ($\tau = 0.5$) as the skin thickness increases. In the case of $\kappa = 0.5$, the dimensionless concentration for $\rho_1 = 4$ (Fig. 4) is, however, much higher at short distances and lower at long distances for $\tau = 4.5$ and 18 than

Fig. 5. Dimensionless concentration distributions for $\rho_w = 10$, $\rho_1 = 40$, and $\kappa = 0.5$, 1 and 2 when $\tau = 50$, 450 and 1800.

Fig. 6. Dimensionless concentration distributions and dimensionless normalized sensitivities (normalized sensitivities per $C_0$) of dimensionless concentration in response to the change in the parameters $\alpha_1$, $\alpha_2$ and $r_1$ for (a) $\kappa = 0.5$, (b) $\kappa = 1$, and (c) $\kappa = 2$ as well as $\rho_w = 1$ and $\rho_1 = 4$ when $\tau = 0.5$, 4.5 and 18.
the case of \( \rho_1 = 2 \) (Fig. 2). In contrast, the dimensionless concentration is lower at short distances but higher at long distances in the case of \( \kappa = 2 \) (thicker-skin) than those in Fig. 2. Moreover, the spatial dimensionless concentration distributions for the case of \( \kappa = 2 \) have distinct changes of slope at the interface between the skin and formation zones (\( \rho = 4 \)) when \( \tau = 4.5 \) and 18.

Fig. 5 shows the dimensionless spatial concentration distributions for the case that the skin thickness is twice that in Fig. 3. The parameters used in Fig. 5 are \( \rho_w = 10 \) and \( \rho_1 = 40 \) for \( \kappa = 0.5 \), 1 and 2 when \( \tau = 50 \), 450 and 1800. The increase in skin thickness did not distinctly affect the dimensionless concentration distribution at the early time (\( \tau = 50 \)). The differences in dimensionless concentration for \( \kappa = 0.5 \), 1 and 2 are much more significant at \( \tau = 450 \) and 1800 than those in Fig. 3. In comparison with Fig. 3, the same observation, as discussed in Fig. 4, applies to the case of \( \kappa = 0.5 \), where the dimensionless concentration is much higher at short distances and lower at long distances for \( \tau = 450 \) and 1800. In addition, a lower dimensionless concentration is predicted at short distances but a higher concentration is predicted at long distances in the case of \( \kappa = 2 \) as the skin thickness increases. Figs. 4 and 5 show that the spatial concentration distributions change more sharply in the case of \( \kappa = 0.5 \).

#### 3.3. Sensitivity analysis

Fig. 6 illustrates the spatial dimensionless concentration distributions and the dimensionless normalized sensitivities of dimensionless concentration with respect to each of the parameters \( \alpha_1 \), \( \alpha_2 \) and \( r_1 \) for \( \kappa = 0.5 \), 1 and 2 when \( \rho_w = 1 \) and \( \rho_1 = 4 \). Generally, the values of dimensionless normalized sensitivity curves deviate from zero when the dimensionless concentration is between zero and one. The dimensionless concentration in response to the change in \( \alpha_2 \) is more sensitive than those in \( \alpha_1 \) and \( r_1 \). As shown in Fig. 6, positive perturbations in \( \alpha_2 \) produce a negative concentration change. Fig. 6b indicates that the dimensionless concentration is insensitive to a change in \( r_1 \) when the skin is absent (\( \kappa = 1 \)). In other words, the change of skin thickness in such a case (\( \kappa = 1 \)) does not affect the dimensionless concentration since the dispersivities of the skin zones and formation zones are the same. In addition, the dimensionless concentration seems insensitive to the change in \( r_1 \) when the plume has not reached the formation zone, i.e., \( \tau = 0.5 \), for \( \kappa = 0.5 \) and 2, as displayed in Fig. 6a and c. These two figures also show that significant decreases or increases of the sensitivity curves occur at the interface of skin zone and formation zone, i.e., \( \rho_1 = 4 \). Fig. 6a shows that a positive perturbation in \( r_1 \) produces a positive concentration change within the skin zone and a negative change beyond the skin zone when \( \tau = 4.5 \) and 18. In contrast, for the case of \( \kappa = 2 \) shown in Fig. 6c, a positive perturbation in \( r_1 \) produces a negative change in the concentration within the skin zone and a positive change beyond the skin zone when \( \tau = 4.5 \) and 18.

#### 4. Conclusions

A mathematical model has been developed to describe the temporal and spatial dimensionless concentration distributions due to the continuous injection of a solute in a radial two-zone confined aquifer system. The Laplace-domain solution of the model equations was obtained in terms of Airy functions. A numerical Laplace inversion, called DINLAP of IMSL (2003b), was applied to evaluate the dimensionless concentration in the time domain. The present Laplace-domain solution for contaminant transport in a radial two-zone system can be reduced to Moench and Ogata (1981) if the wellbore skin is absent.

The present solution was applied to investigate the skin effect on the temporal and spatial concentration distributions. The differences in concentrations between the skin-affected cases and non-skin case become less significant at longer time but are much more notable when the dispersivity in the aquifer formation zone is large. In addition, there may be a sudden change in the slope of the concentration distribution at the interface between the skin zone and formation zone. An aquifer with a smaller dispersivity in the aquifer formation zone was shown to produce a shorter travel distance of the plume. Results from the sensitivity analysis indicated that the dimensionless concentration was more sensitive to the change of dispersivity in the formation zone than those of two other parameters, i.e., skin thickness and dispersivity in the skin zone.

### Notation

The following symbols are used in this paper:

- \( \text{Ai}(\cdot) \) Airy function
- \( b \) aquifer thickness
- \( b_1 \) coefficient in Eq. (A.7), which is defined in Eq. (A.9)
- \( b_2 \) coefficient in Eq. (A.7), which is defined in Eq. (A.10)
- \( \text{Bi}(\cdot) \) Airy function
- \( C_0 \) initial constant concentration injected into the well
- \( C_1 \) contaminant concentration in the skin zone
- \( C_2 \) contaminant concentration in the formation zone
- \( d_1 \) coefficient in Eq. (A.8), which is defined in Eq. (A.11)
- \( d_2 \) coefficient in Eq. (A.8), which is defined in Eq. (A.12)
- \( G_1 \) dimensionless concentration in the skin zone, which is defined as \( G_1 = C_1 / C_0 \)
- \( G_2 \) dimensionless concentration in the formation zone, which is defined as \( G_2 = C_2 / C_0 \)
- \( \tilde{G}_1 \) dimensionless Laplace-domain concentration in the skin zone
- \( \tilde{G}_2 \) dimensionless Laplace-domain concentration in the formation zone
- \( I(\cdot) \) modified Bessel function of the first kind
- \( K(\cdot) \) modified Bessel function of the second kind
- \( n \) aquifer porosity
- \( Q \) constant injection rate at the well
- \( r_1 \) outer radius of the skin zone
- \( r_w \) radius of injection well
- \( s \) Laplace variable
- \( u_{\alpha_1} \) normalized sensitivity coefficient of dimensionless concentration to \( \kappa \), which is defined in Eq. (24)
- \( u_{\alpha_2} \) normalized sensitivity coefficient of dimensionless concentration to \( \rho_w \), which is defined in Eq. (25)
- \( u_{r_1} \) normalized sensitivity coefficient of dimensionless concentration to \( \rho_1 \), which is defined in Eq. (26)
- \( U_{\alpha_1} \) normalized sensitivity coefficient of concentration to \( \alpha_1 \), which is defined in Eq. (23)
- \( U_{\alpha_2} \) normalized sensitivity coefficient of concentration to \( \alpha_2 \), which is defined in Eq. (23)
Appendix A. Development of Eqs. (14) and (15)

Eqs. (8) and (9) can be rearranged as the Airy differential equations:

\[
\frac{d^2 \bar{U}_1}{d\zeta^2} - \zeta \bar{U}_1 = 0, \quad \rho_w < \rho \leq \rho_1
\]  
(A.1)

and

\[
\frac{d^2 \bar{U}_2}{d\zeta^2} - \zeta \bar{U}_2 = 0, \quad \rho_1 < \rho < \infty
\]  
(A.2)

where the new functions \( \bar{U}_1 \) and \( \bar{U}_2 \) are respectively related to \( G_1 \) and \( G_2 \) by

\[
\bar{U}_1(\rho, s) = \exp\left(-\frac{\rho}{2\kappa}\right) G_1(\rho, s)
\]  
(A.3)

and

\[
\bar{U}_2(\rho, s) = \exp\left(-\frac{\rho}{2}\right) G_2(\rho, s).
\]  
(A.4)

In addition, \( Z_1 \) and \( Z_2 \) are defined as

\[
Z_1(\rho, s) = \left(\frac{s}{\kappa}\right)^{1/3} \left(\rho + \frac{1}{4\kappa^2}\right)
\]  
(A.5)

and

\[
Z_2(\rho, s) = \frac{4ho s + 1}{4s^{3/2}}.
\]  
(A.6)

The general solutions to Eqs. (A.1) and (A.2) can be respectively expressed as

\[
\bar{U}_1(\rho, s) = b_1 Ai(Z_1) + b_2 Bi(Z_1)
\]  
(A.7)

and

\[
\bar{U}_2(\rho, s) = d_1 Ai(Z_2) + d_2 Bi(Z_2)
\]  
(A.8)

where the coefficients \( b_1, b_2, d_1, \) and \( d_2 \) are the constants determined by the associated boundary conditions (10) to (13). The coefficients are then obtained as

\[
b_1 = \frac{1}{5} \exp\left(-\frac{\rho_w}{2\kappa}\right) \left[ \frac{1}{Ai(Z_1)} \nabla_1 Bi(Z_1) \nabla_1 \right]
\]  
(A.9)

\[
b_2 = \frac{1}{5} \exp\left(-\frac{\rho_w}{2\kappa}\right) \nabla_1
\]  
(A.10)

\[
d_1 = \frac{1}{5} \exp\left(P_1 - P_w - P_1 \right) \left[ \frac{1}{Ai(Z_1)} Ai(Z_2) \nabla_1 Bi(Z_1) \right]
\]  
(A.11)

and

\[
d_2 = 0
\]  
(A.12)

where

\[
\nabla_1 = \kappa^{2/3} Ai(Z_1) Ai(Z_2) - Ai(Z_1) Ai(Z_2)
\]  
(A.13)

and

\[
\nabla = \kappa^{2/3} Ai(Z_2) [Ai(Z_1) Bi(Z_1) - Ai(Z_1) Bi(Z_1)]
\]  
(A.14)

The notations \( Z_1, Z_2, \) and \( G_1, G_2 \) are the abbreviations for the functions \( Z_1(\rho, s), Z_2(\rho, s) \) and \( G_1(\rho, s), G_2(\rho, s) \), respectively, which can be calculated from Eqs. (A.5) and (A.6). The Laplace-domain solutions of dimensionless concentrations in skin and formation zones, Eqs. (14) and (15), are then obtained by substituting Eqs. (A.7) and (A.8) into Eqs. (A.3) and (A.4), respectively.
References


