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# 1 Phase-specific stable isotope fractionation effects 2 during combined gas-liquid phase exchange and 3 biodegradation

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## 13 14 15 **ABSTRACT**

16 Stable isotope fractionation of toluene under dynamic phase exchange was studied aiming  
17 at ascertaining the effects of gas-liquid partitioning and biodegradation of toluene stable  
18 isotope composition in liquid-air phase exchange reactors (Laper). The liquid phase  
19 consisted of a mixture of aqueous minimal media, a known amount of a mixture of  
20 deuterated (toluene-d) and non-deuterated toluene (toluene-h), and bacteria of toluene  
21 degrading strain *Pseudomonas putida* KT2442. During biodegradation experiments, the  
22 liquid and air-phase concentrations of both toluene isotopologues were monitored to  
23 determine the observable stable isotope fractionation in each phase. The results show a  
24 strong fractionation in both phases with apparent enrichment factors beyond -800‰. An  
25 offset was observed between enrichment factors in the liquid and the gas phase with gas-  
26 phase values showing a stronger fractionation in the gas than in the liquid phase.  
27 Numerical simulation and parameter fitting routine was used to challenge hypotheses to

28 explain the unexpected experimental data. The numerical results showed that either a very  
29 strong, yet unlikely, fractionation of the phase exchange process or a – so far unreported  
30 – direct consumption of gas phase compounds by aqueous phase microorganisms could  
31 explain the observed fractionation effects. The observed effect can be of relevance for the  
32 analysis of volatile contaminant biodegradation using stable isotope analysis in  
33 unsaturated subsurface compartments or other environmental compartment containing a  
34 gas and an liquid phase.

35

36 **Keywords:** VOC, toluene phase exchange, stable isotope fractionation, bioavailability,  
37 biodegradation, CSIA.

38

39

## 40 INTRODUCTION

41 Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) such as BTEX (i.e., benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene,  
42 and xylene) are frequently found contaminants in soils and aquatic environments and  
43 continue to be the major source of air pollution. These aromatic hydrocarbons are of  
44 particular concern due to their relatively high water solubility, toxicity and environmental  
45 mobility ([Rolle and Jin, 2017](#); [Wiedemeier et al., 1999](#)). Compound specific isotope  
46 analysis (CSIA) is a powerful tool to trace the fate of organic contaminants in the  
47 environment. It is based on the shift in isotope composition of the target compounds due  
48 to chemical reactions or biodegradation ([Blum et al., 2009](#); [Elsner, 2010](#); [Elsner et al.,  
49 2012](#); [Kopinke et al., 2018](#); [Thullner et al., 2012](#)). To understand and quantify  
50 contaminant transport and (bio-)transformation mechanisms, labelled and non-labelled  
51 organic compound mixtures have often been applied as a diagnostic tool ([Horst et al.,  
52 2016](#)). In two-phase (air-water) systems, many VOCs show inverse isotope effects for  
53 elements such as hydrogen and carbon, which means that the liquid phase becomes more  
54 depleted in the heavier isotopes during volatilization; approaches to explain these inverse  
55 effects were presented by [Baertschi and Kuhn \(1957\)](#), [Bigeleisen \(1961\)](#), [Wolfsberg  
56 \(1963\)](#) and [Horst et al. \(2016\)](#): usually, the obtained fractionation data are explained and

57 quantitatively interpreted in terms of the established two-film theory ([Schwarzenbach et](#)  
58 [al., 2003](#)) resulting in diffusion-controlled and equilibrium-controlled fractionation  
59 coefficients ([Kopinke et al., 2018](#)).

60 Although many studies reported on vapor pressure isotope effects of pure organic  
61 compounds ([Horst et al., 2016](#)), only few described isotope effects for organics dissolved  
62 in water and under equilibrium conditions ([Horst et al., 2016](#); [Hunkeler and Aravena,](#)  
63 [2000](#); [Slater et al., 1999](#)). However, in the environment, organic compounds such as  
64 toluene are often water-dissolved and phase transfer may occur under non-equilibrium or  
65 kinetic conditions ([Horst et al., 2016](#)). Observed fractionation effects thereby were found  
66 to be different for the ‘forward’ and the ‘reverse’ partitioning, i.e. from the aqueous into  
67 an organic solvent phase and *vice versa* ([Kopinke et al., 2018](#)).

68 Motivated by this shortage of available data and lack of basic understanding, we measured  
69 relative phase exchange between gas phase and aqueous phase of isotopologues (non-  
70 labelled and fully deuterated) of toluene by means of a two-phase partitioning approach  
71 under dynamic conditions that were driven by the biodegradation of toluene in the  
72 aqueous phase. To our knowledge, no study has reported a comparison of stable isotope  
73 fractionation in the aqueous phase and the gas phase simultaneously.

74 Hence, we here report and discuss the unexpected fractionation behavior of toluene in the  
75 gas phase and liquid phase. We present isotope effects associated with non-equilibrium  
76 volatilization of toluene dissolved in water in liquid-air phase exchange reactors (Laper)  
77 and test hypotheses for the effects observed using a numerical modeling approach.

78

## 79 **MATERIALS & METHODS**

### 80 ***Liquid-Air Phase Exchange Reactors (Laper)***

81 Gastight chromoflax glass bottles with a total volume of 1150 mL (**series A**) and 2375  
82 mL (**series B**) were used as Laper. Each of these neck bottles had a main opening at the  
83 top and sampling ports on the top right and bottom left side (**Fig. 1**). Laper reactors  
84 contained magnetic stirrer bars (25 x 6 mm) and were kept on magnetic shakers (250  
85 rpm). The reactors were filled with liquid minimal medium, i.e., 200 mL in series A and

86 400 mL in series B. One abiotic “control” and duplicate bioreactive Laper (cf. Laper 1  
87 and Laper 2) were run in parallel in each series at 22-23 °C. Series A also includes a third  
88 experimental run (Laper 3) operated under the above-mentioned conditions at an earlier  
89 date. The remaining volumes of 950 mL and 1975 mL in series A and series B,  
90 respectively, were categorized as headspace. Reactors were operated under closed  
91 conditions and had sufficient amount of oxygen in the headspace for complete aerobic  
92 biodegradation of the known amounts of VOCs toluene-h and toluene-d (20 µL pure  
93 phase of a 1:1 mixture of toluene-h and toluene-d for series A and 40 µL for series B).  
94 The VOCs were spiked to the liquid media and then the media were stirred by the help of  
95 a magnetic stirrer bar. The Lapers were kept on magnetic shakers for 12 hours to  
96 equilibrate prior to the start of the sampling. Calculated equilibrium concentrations of  
97 total toluene (toluene-h and toluene-d) were between 9 and 11 mg L<sup>-1</sup> in the gas phase  
98 and between 32 and 45.8 mg L<sup>-1</sup> in the liquid phase (assuming a Henry volatility constant  
99 between 0.2 and 0.35 ([Sander, 2015](#))). Additionally, methyl tert-butyl ether (MTBE) (20  
100 µL pure phase) was added as tracer. MTBE was found to be non-reactive, i.e., non-  
101 biodegradable at given conditions. Note that the resulting liquid concentrations were far  
102 below the maximum solubility of the compounds which ensures complete dissolution  
103 of the pure phase spiked to the liquid media.

104 *Pseudomonas putida* KT2442 DsRed pWW0 gfp ([Nancharaiyah et al., 2003](#)), was cultured  
105 following the protocol mentioned in [Kampara et al. \(2008\)](#) and [Khan et al. \(2016\)](#). The  
106 cells were added to the Laper just before the start of the experiments with OD<sub>578nm</sub> = 0.1  
107 (equivalent to  $\approx 2 \times 10^7$  cfu mL<sup>-1</sup>) in the reactors at the start of the experiments. Laper  
108 allowed for gas-tight sampling of liquid and gas-phase VOCs (Supplementary Material,  
109 **Fig. 1**). First samples were taken immediately after the addition of bacteria denoted as t<sub>0</sub>  
110 (0 hours). Subsequent samples were taken hourly until t<sub>8</sub> (8 hours). Gas-phase and liquid  
111 samples (500 µL each) were analyzed by headspace GC as detailed in [Khan et al. \(2016\)](#).  
112 These closed systems can suitably be analyzed by the Rayleigh model approach. An  
113 observation period between t<sub>0</sub> and t<sub>8</sub> was selected for the isotope analysis and data were

114 analyzed by plotting the logarithmic form of the Rayleigh equation for deuterated  
 115 compounds ([Hunkeler, 2002](#)) to determine stable isotope enrichment factors.

116

### 117 *Tested hypotheses using a numerical routine*

118 Two hypotheses on possible processes taking place in the batch systems were tested for  
 119 explaining the observed changes stable hydrogen isotope signatures of toluene:

120 *Hypothesis 1* assumes an exchange of toluene between the liquid and gas phase in addition  
 121 to the microbial toluene degradation in the liquid phase. Both processes were considered  
 122 to cause a stable hydrogen isotope fractionation of toluene and a computational reaction  
 123 scheme was set up for their description. For this, the two isotopologues were considered  
 124 as independent reactive species with concentrations:  ${}^l c_d$ ,  ${}^h c_d$ ,  ${}^l c_g$  and  ${}^h c_g$ ; the indices  $h$  and  
 125  $l$  are indicating the heavy (deuterated) and light (non-deuterated) isotopologue, and the  
 126 indices  $g$  and  $d$  are indicating the gas phase and the liquid (dissolved) phase. The phase  
 127 exchange between the liquid and the gas phase was described by a linear exchange term  
 128 and the microbial degradation in the liquid phase by Michaelis-Menten kinetics in an  
 129 isotope-specific version ([Khan et al., 2018](#); [Thullner et al., 2008](#)). This results in a set of  
 130 rate expressions:

$$131 \quad {}^{l,h}r_1 = {}^{l,h}k_{ex} \cdot ({}^{l,h}c_g - {}^{l,h}c_d \cdot {}^{l,h}H) \quad (\text{phase exchange liquid-gas}) \quad (\text{eq. 1})$$

$$132 \quad {}^l r_2 = k_{max} \cdot \frac{{}^l c_d}{K_s + {}^l c_d + {}^h c_d \cdot \alpha_b} \quad (\text{degradation of toluene-h}) \quad (\text{eq.2})$$

$$133 \quad {}^h r_2 = k_{max} \cdot \alpha_b \cdot \frac{{}^h c_d}{K_s + {}^l c_d + {}^h c_d \cdot \alpha_b} \quad (\text{degradation of toluene-d}) \quad (\text{eq. 3})$$

134  ${}^{h,l}H$  is the dimensionless Henry volatility,  $k_{max}$  is the maximum degradation rate,  $K_s$  is the  
 135 Michaelis-Menten constant and  $\alpha_b$  the stable isotope fractionation factor of the  
 136 degradation reaction. The rate parameters  ${}^{l,h}k_{ex}$  of the phase exchange are linked via the  
 137 stable isotope fractionation factor  $\alpha_{ex}$  of the phase exchange ( ${}^h k_{ex} = \alpha_{ex} \cdot {}^l k_{ex}$ ). Note that  
 138 fractionation factors and the associated enrichment factors are linked via  $\varepsilon_{b,ex}[\text{‰}] =$   
 139  $(\alpha_{b,ex} - 1)/1000$ .

140 *Hypothesis 2* considers in addition to the processes described in *Hypothesis 1* another  
 141 biodegradation processes which acts directly on the gas phase concentration. This is

142 motivated by the observation that microorganisms located directly at the liquid-gas  
 143 interface can have direct access to the vapor phase substrate ([Hanzel et al., 2011](#)).  
 144 Analogous to the liquid-phase degradation an isotope-specific version of Michaelis-  
 145 Menten kinetics is used to describe this additional process:

$$146 \quad {}^l r_3 = k_{max,g} \cdot \frac{{}^l c_g}{K_s / {}^l c_H + {}^l c_g + {}^h c_g \cdot \alpha_{b,g}}$$

147 (gas-phase degradation of toluene-h) (eq. 4)

$$149 \quad {}^h r_3 = k_{max,g} \cdot \alpha_{b,g} \cdot \frac{{}^h c_g}{K_s / {}^h c_H + {}^l c_g + {}^h c_g \cdot \alpha_{b,g}}$$

150 (gas-phase degradation toluene-d) (eq. 5)

151  
 152 with  $k_{max,g}$  as the maximum degradation rate and  $\alpha_{b,g}$  ( $\epsilon_{b,ex}[\text{‰}] = (\alpha_{b,g} - 1)/1000$ ) as the  
 153 stable isotope fractionation factor of this additional degradation reaction.

154 The two different schemes were implemented into the numerical modeling and fitting  
 155 framework ReKinSim ([Gharasoo et al., 2017](#)) which allows to determine parameter  
 156 values best suited to describe the measured data even for such a kinetically complex  
 157 reaction system. For each reactive Laper system best-fit parameters were determined  
 158 using different constraints on their values.

159

## 160 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

### 161 *Measured toluene stable isotope fractionation in Laper*

162 Initial liquid and gas-phase concentrations of total toluene ranged from ca. 30 -50 mg L<sup>-1</sup>  
 163 and 10.5 to 11 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, resp. While there were experimental variations in the liquid  
 164 concentrations, the gas phase concentrations exhibited only very minor experimental  
 165 errors. See Supplementary Material, **Figs. S1 and S2** for a complete overview of all  
 166 measured concentrations.

167 Toluene concentrations from the abiotic control experiments and MTBE-tracer  
 168 concentrations showed no major changes during the experiment and indicate that there  
 169 were no underlying processes beside biodegradation that may have led to toluene removal

170 (Supplementary Material, **Figs. S1 and S2**). Stable isotope enrichment factors in the  
171 controls of  $\varepsilon_v = -5$  to  $-29\text{‰}$  in the vapor phase and  $\varepsilon_l = 0$  to  $-2\text{‰}$  in the liquid phase very  
172 small (**Fig. 2A and 2E**) and further confirmed the absence of microbial activity that would  
173 account for  $\varepsilon$  of up to  $-920\text{‰}$  ([Khan et al., 2018](#)). Such low values may be attributed to  
174 the combined physical processes such as sorption ([Fischer et al., 2006](#)), isotopic mass  
175 differences, but might just also reflect the noise level of the measurements.

176 In contrast to the control experiments, toluene concentrations declined by approximately  
177 50% within 8 h in all bioreactive Lapers (cf. Lapers 1-3) due to biodegradation. In Laper  
178 3 changes of the bacterial optical density ( $\text{OD}_{578\text{nm}}$ ) was further measured showing an  
179 increase from 0.1 to 0.22 within 8 hours as observed previously ([Kampara et al., 2009](#);  
180 [Kampara et al., 2008](#)). The associated hydrogen isotope enrichment factors in the Lapers  
181 varied between  $\varepsilon = -810\text{‰}$  and  $-837\text{‰}$  for the liquid phase (with one outlier of  $-706\text{‰}$ ),  
182 and  $\varepsilon = -873\text{‰}$  and  $-923\text{‰}$  for the gas phase (**Fig. 2**) confirming biodegradation as  
183 predominant removal process. Observed gas phase enrichment factors hence are in good  
184 agreement with earlier reports ( $\varepsilon = -920\text{‰} \pm 50\text{‰}$ , [Khan et al. \(2018\)](#)) and with studies  
185 on toluene degradation in liquid batch systems by a similar strain ( $\varepsilon = -905\text{‰} \pm 71\text{‰}$ ,  
186 [Morasch et al. \(2001\)](#);  $\varepsilon = -934\text{‰} \pm 21\text{‰}$ , [Kampara et al. \(2008\)](#)). However, less  
187 fractionation in the liquid than in the gas phase was observed in all Lapers leading to an  
188 offset of  $91\text{‰} \pm 50\text{‰}$  between  $\varepsilon$  values of the two phases. With this standard deviation  
189 the confidence for the fractionation in the gas phase being stronger than in the liquid phase  
190 is larger than 95% which indicates significance ([Ross, 2017](#)). Following [Scott et al.](#)  
191 [\(2004\)](#) regression lines were not forced through the origin, however forcing the regression  
192 lines through the origin would have led to even larger differences between the enrichment  
193 factors observed in the two phases.

194 Given that degradation is likely to take place in the liquid phase only, the weaker  
195 fractionation in the liquid phase hence can not be explained by masking effects due to  
196 mass transfer limitations ([Thullner et al., 2013](#)) that would have led to less fractionation  
197 in the gas phase than in the liquid phase. Results for series A and series B obtained for



198 similar yet different experimental systems were highly comparable which indicates that  
199 the observed effects are not linked to any specific reactor setup.

200

### 201 ***Hypothesis testing***

202 Numerical results for *Hypothesis 1* (i.e. toluene degradation in the liquid phase and a  
203 phase exchange between liquid and gas phase contribute to stable hydrogen isotope  
204 signatures; cf. eqs. 1-3) allowed for an adequate fitting of the observed concentrations in  
205 the liquid and the vapor phase for both, series A and the series B systems (Supplementary  
206 Material, **Figs. S3 and S4**). Also the magnitude of the observed fractionation effects and,  
207 in particular, the stronger fractionation in the gas than in the liquid phase could be fitted  
208 well (**Fig. 3**). The obtained values of the fitting parameters are comparable to previous  
209 studies yet show some variability between the different batch systems (cf. **Table 1** for all  
210 obtained fitting parameters values). For a detailed sensitivity analysis of model results  
211 using a similar set equations see e.g., [Gharasoo et al. \(2019\)](#).

212 For matching the observed gap between the isotope enrichment factors in the liquid and  
213 the vapor phase, however, extremely high kinetic enrichment factor for the phase  
214 exchange process ( $\epsilon_{ex}$ ) of  $\epsilon_{ex} \approx -900\%$  to  $-500\%$  (**Table 1**) had to be inserted.  
215 Constraining  $\epsilon_{ex}$  to an arbitrary range of  $-100\%$  to  $0\%$  (i.e., a significant yet probably  
216 more reasonable fractionation due to the phase exchange) did not allow to reproduce the  
217 observed stronger fractionation in the vapor phase as compared to the liquid phase  
218 (Supplementary Material, **Figs. S3 and S4**). For the above described results no  
219 equilibrium fractionation effect for the phase exchange was considered (i.e.  $^hH = ^lH$  with  
220 no difference in gas phase and liquid phase isotope signatures at steady state) as the  
221 abiotic control experiments showed no such fractionation effects. However, allowing  $^hH$   
222 to differ from  $^lH$  in the numerical simulations did not improve the fitting results. Also  
223 including microbial growth into the reaction scheme (cf. doubling of biomass in Laper 3)  
224 would not improve the ability to reproduce the gap between vapor phase and liquid phase  
225 fractionation effects without considering the very high fractionation associated with the  
226 phase exchange.

227 Fitting results suggest that the only remaining technical explanation of the observed  
228 fractionation effects would be a very strong kinetic fractionation by the phase exchange  
229 between the vapor and the liquid phase. To the best of our knowledge however, no  
230 hydrogen fractionation data for deuterated toluene for water-air partitioning exist, and we  
231 are not aware of such low phase exchange enrichment factors (i.e., high negative value)  
232 for other compounds. For instance, [Bouchard et al. \(2018\)](#) report for the later hydrogen  
233 enrichment factor a value of -5‰ for toluene with a single deuterium atom and [Kuder et  
234 al. \(2009\)](#) report for values in the order of -10‰ for aromatic compounds with a single  
235 deuterium atom. Scaling the later value linearly with the number of deuterated atoms  
236 would lead to values in the order of -100‰ for fully deuterated compounds, which did  
237 not allow reproducing the measured data and is still much lower than the phase-exchange  
238 enrichment factors values needed to fit the measured data. The low phase exchange  
239 enrichment factors needed to fit the data would imply a difference in molecular mobility  
240 of approximately one order of magnitude. The fact that the mass difference between  
241 toluene-h and toluene-d is approximately 8% and published differences between the  
242 aqueous molecular diffusion coefficients of toluene-h and toluene-d do not exceed 0.38%  
243 ([Sun et al., 2021b](#)) further implies against such differences in mobility. However, the low  
244 fitted values of gas-liquid phase exchange fractionation factors might be due to the  
245 increasing presence of the microorganisms which has been shown to increase the  
246 contaminant mass-transfer coefficient by factor of 10 to 15 compared to the abiotic  
247 conditions ([Aeppli et al., 2009](#); [Marozava et al., 2019](#)). The fitted rate parameters for the  
248 gas-liquid phase exchange are one order of magnitude higher than values estimated by  
249 [Khan et al. \(2018\)](#) for similar systems assuming a diffusive boundary layer. Whether such  
250 accelerated phase exchange has been taken place in the investigated batch systems can  
251 not be verified based on the measured data. Furthermore, it remains to be clarified if  
252 microbially induced acceleration would really enable the extreme phase-exchange  
253 enrichment factor needed to explain the observed fractionation effects.

254 Accumulating microorganisms at the liquid-gas interface are also considered in  
255 *Hypothesis 2*, which additionally considers them to take up and degrade toluene directly

256 from the gas phase. Such assumption leads to two independent degradation processes (one  
257 acting on the liquid-phase concentration, one acting on the gas-phase concentration); each  
258 with its own fractionation factor. When assuming the absence of any phase exchange  
259 processes both phases would be decoupled and act as independent system and the  
260 experimentally determined fractionation factors can be directly assigned to the  
261 degradation process for each phase. However, for the liquid phase, this would require  
262 enrichment factors  $\epsilon$  between -840‰ and -710‰ which clearly differs from the value of  
263  $-920‰ \pm 50‰$  determined by [Khan et al. \(2018\)](#). Furthermore, there would be no  
264 justification for neglecting a phase exchange in the system. Fitting the entire set of  
265 reactions for *Hypothesis 2* (phase exchange, biodegradation acting on liquid-phase  
266 concentration and biodegradation acting on gas-phase concentration; cf. eqs. 1-5) to the  
267 measured data (cf. **Table 2** for an overview of all fitting parameters) allowed for an  
268 adequate reproduction of measured concentrations (Supplementary Material, **Fig. S5 and**  
269 **S6**). Also the fractionation effects for the series B systems could be fitted without  
270 imposing any constraints on the value of the phase exchange rate parameter (**Fig. 4G to**  
271 **4J**). To obtain a stronger fractionation in the gas than in the liquid phase in the series A  
272 systems (**Fig. 4A to 4F**), it was however necessary to limit the value of the phase  
273 exchange parameter to values similar to the best fit values for the series B systems. With  
274 this additional constraint the experimentally determined effect could be reproduced for  
275 two of the three series A systems. The range of the fitted/constrained values for the phase  
276 exchange rate parameter are now similar to the values presented by [Khan et al. \(2018\)](#)  
277 indicating that the magnitude of the phase exchange can be explained by a diffusive  
278 boundary layer at the liquid-gas interface. The enrichment factor assigned to this phase  
279 exchange was constrained approximately by range of reported aqueous molecular  
280 diffusion induced fractionation ([Sun et al., 2021b](#)). While for some systems this fitted  
281 valued of the phase-exchange enrichment factors suggest this process to contribute to the  
282 fractionation observed in the system, best fits for other systems do not suggest this  
283 fractionation effect to take place (i.e.  $\epsilon_{ex} = 0‰$ ).

284

285 *Dynamic phase exchange implications*

286 Our reactors showed that the phase exchange between liquid phase and gas phase has an  
287 unexpected, strong influence on the observed stable isotope fractionation. So far, only the  
288 masking of isotope signatures due to phase exchanges have been reported for two-phase  
289 systems, where a compound get degraded in the liquid phase after transfer from an organic  
290 phase ([Aeppli et al., 2009](#); [Marozava et al., 2019](#)). Such systems behave analogously to  
291 single phase systems where the substrate concentrations are so low that mass-transfer to  
292 the cell or across the cell membrane acts as an effective rate-limiting step ([Ehrl et al.,  
293 2018](#); [Ehrl et al., 2019](#); [Gharasoo et al., 2019](#); [Kampara et al., 2009](#); [Kampara et al., 2008](#);  
294 [Sun et al., 2021a](#)). Our results consistently show stronger fractionation (i.e. less negative  
295 hydrogen isotope enrichment factors) in the gas phase with differences being in the order  
296 of 50-100‰ and being independent of the concentrations measured. This trend is opposite  
297 to expectations for liquid phase biodegradation and phase-exchange between gas phase  
298 and liquid phase as rate limiting step masking toluene fractionation in the gas phase.  
299 Equilibrium fractionation effects may also be excluded as the control experiments and the  
300 fitting results did not show any indications for this. Observed effects could rather be  
301 explained by the phase transition itself causing a fractionation. While such effects have  
302 been observed before ([Jeannotat and Hunkeler, 2012](#); [2013](#)), they would have to be  
303 extremely strong to explain the high differences of  $\epsilon$  observed in the gas- and liquid phase  
304 given the fast (i.e. not strongly rate limiting) phase exchange. For non-deuterated toluene  
305 hydrogen enrichment factors values of -5‰ reported for the liquid-gas phase exchange  
306 have a similar magnitude than values of -2‰ to -10‰ reported for aerobic biodegradation  
307 of non-deuterated toluene ([Bouchard et al., 2018](#)). The results of this study would suggest  
308 that also for deuterated toluene enrichment factor values for the liquid-gas phase  
309 exchange are similar to enrichment factor values for aerobic biodegradation, but it must  
310 be doubted if such strong phase-exchange fractionation is indeed the case. This suggests  
311 that additional processes not known at this stage may have influenced the stable isotope  
312 fractionation observed in the experiments. We tested one of these assumptions (i.e. direct  
313 uptake of volatile compounds from the gas phase by aqueous phase microorganisms at

314 the gas-liquid interface) and showed that this additional process would explain the  
315 observed fractionation phenomena. A direct uptake has not been shown so far and thus  
316 any mechanistic explanation would be highly speculative. However, it has been shown  
317 that microorganisms can respond to gas phase concentration gradients ([Hanzel et al.,  
318 2010](#); [Hanzel et al., 2011](#)).

319 Regardless of their eventual explanation, the observed effects appeared consistently and  
320 reproducibly in a series of experiments with each single experiment showing the  
321 discussed effects – although not at a significant level. However, the observed effects are  
322 statistically significant considering the entire set of five Laper systems. This indicates that  
323 our observations are not a simple statistical variation but represent an existing  
324 phenomenon.

325

### 326 **Environmental implication**

327 In the recent years, stable isotope fractionation effects associated with the aqueous-gas  
328 phase transition of volatile contaminants received a growing interest ([Horst and  
329 Lacrampe-Couloume, 2020](#); [Horst et al., 2016](#); [Rostkowski et al., 2021](#)), as phase-transfer  
330 processes are considered to be of potential relevance for the fate of VOCs in the gas phase  
331 ([Bouchard et al., 2008](#); [Khan et al., 2018](#))) as well as in the aqueous phase of subsurface  
332 environments ([Horst and Lacrampe-Couloume, 2020](#)). Up to know, the magnitude of such  
333 phase-transition related fractionation effects are either linked to differences in the  
334 diffusion coefficients of the different isotopologues ([Kopinke et al., 2018](#)), to molecular  
335 interactions in the aqueous phase ([Julien et al., 2017](#); [Rostkowski et al., 2021](#)) or  
336 considered to mask fractionation effects of the contaminant degradation ([Aeppli et al.,  
337 2009](#); [Thullner et al., 2013](#)). Our results show that additional stable isotope fractionation  
338 effects – not expected from the above processes – may have to be considered when using  
339 CSIA for assessing the fate of volatile contaminants in the subsurface compartments  
340 allowing for an aqueous-gas phase transition of the contaminants. Furthermore, the  
341 occurrence and magnitude of these additional processes might be triggered by the  
342 contaminant degradation process, which challenges their prediction in complex

343 biodegradation settings based on the isolated investigation of the individual processes.  
344 Any additional processes affecting observed stable isotope fractionation are considered  
345 as problematic for a CSIA-based assessment of contaminant fate ([Druhan et al., 2019](#);  
346 [Halloran et al., 2021](#); [Rolle et al., 2010](#); [Thullner et al., 2012](#)), and our results thus indicate  
347 that phase-transition processes might be more relevant than considered so far and that  
348 they might generate a bias in the interpretation of CSIA data opposite to most of the  
349 phase-transition fractionation effects discussed in the literature to date.

350

## 351 **CONCLUSIONS**

352 The presented results suggest that the possibility of additional processes affecting stable  
353 isotope fractionation may need to be considered when interpreting stable isotope  
354 fractionation results for VOCs in systems containing a gas and a liquid phase. Given the  
355 widespread occurrence of such systems in the environment (e.g., all partially water-  
356 saturated subsurface compartments of the Critical Zone) a large number of environmental  
357 stable isotope analyses might be affected by such additional processes. We used a  
358 numerical approach to determine for two hypothesis (i.e. a very strong fractionation by  
359 the phase exchange, or degrading microorganisms located at the air-water interface taking  
360 up volatile substrate directly from the gas phase) their ability to explain the observed  
361 fractionation effects, but a detailed verification of these hypotheses was beyond the scope  
362 of our study and requires further investigations. Further research is thus needed to test the  
363 hypotheses discussed in this study or further hypotheses for explaining the presented  
364 observations and to eventually identify the processes responsible for the effects reported  
365 in this study.

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## 368 **SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL**

369 Experimental results for Laper series A and B, and additional results of fitting the Laper  
370 results by the numerical simulations.

371

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378

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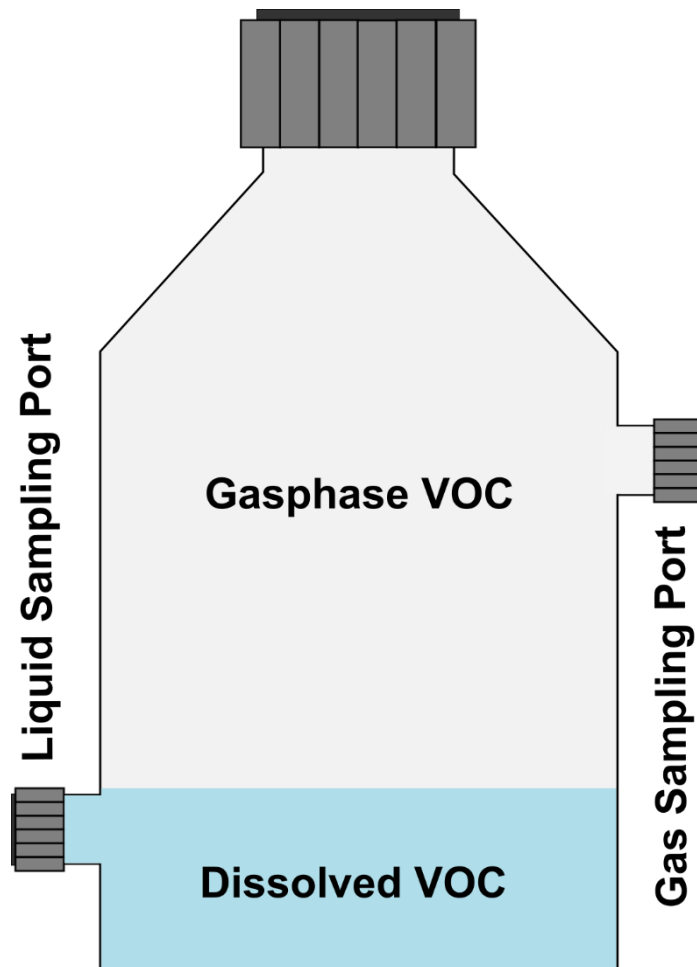


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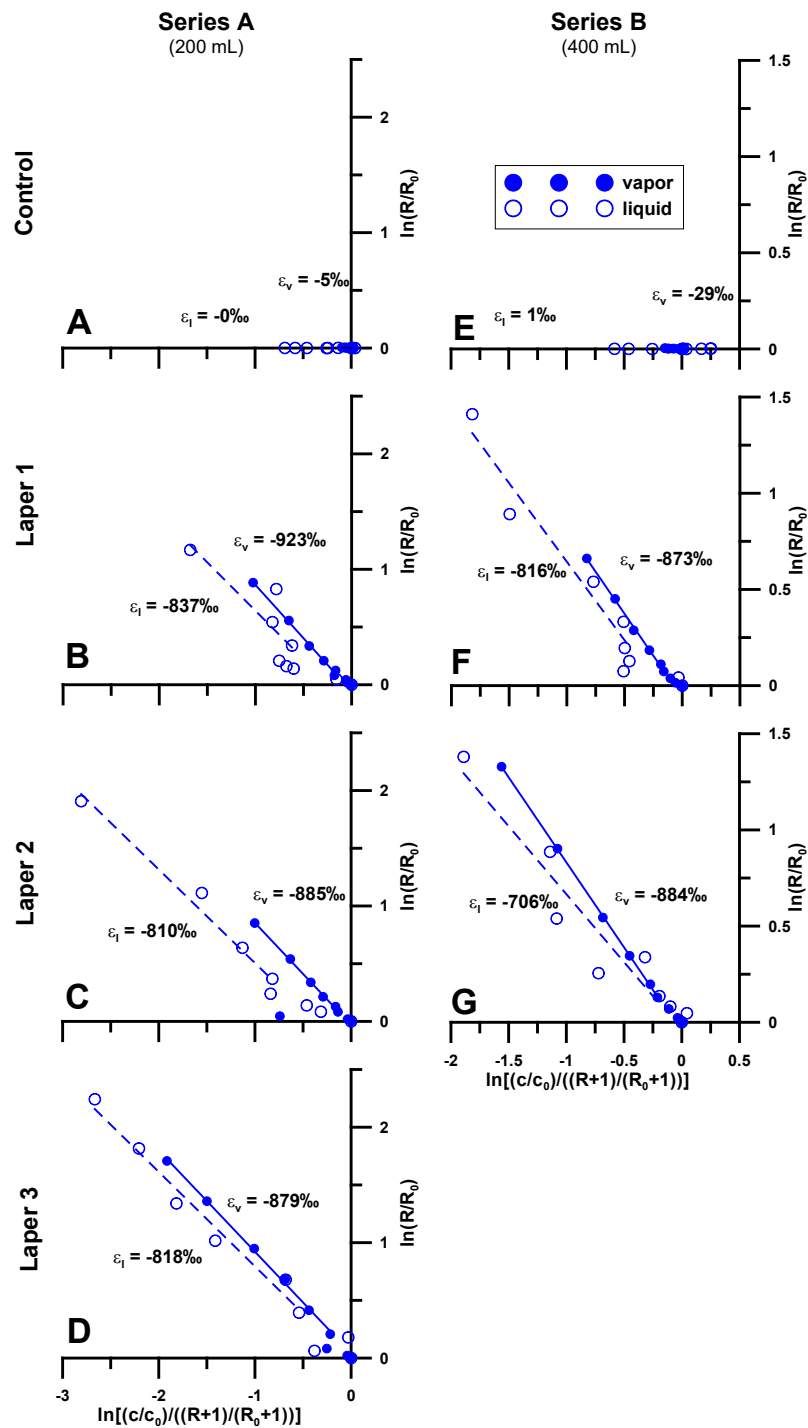
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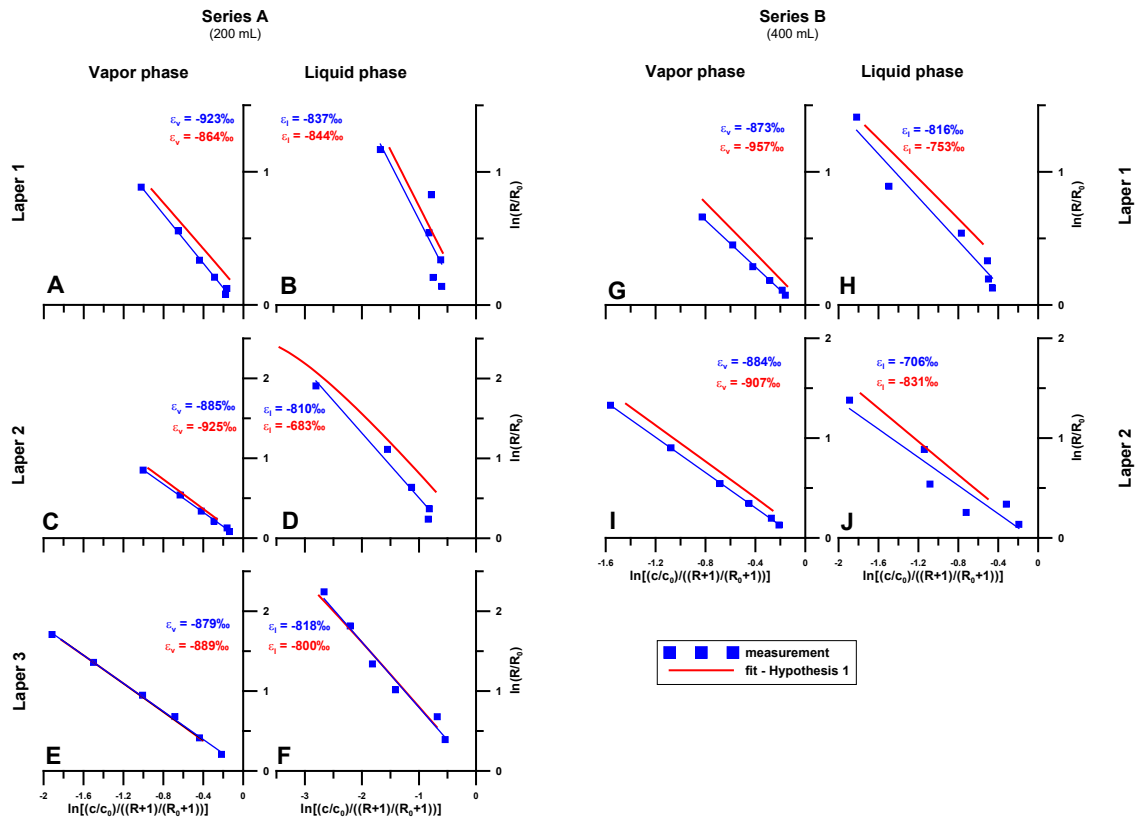
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532 **Figure 1:** Sketch of a liquid-air phase exchange reactors (Laper). Gastight chromoflex  
533 glass bottles with total volume of 1150 mL (series A) and 2375 mL (series B), filled with  
534 200 mL (series A) and 400 mL (series B) minimal media (amended with the VOCs  
535 (toluene and MTBE) and toluene degrading bacteria) leaving 950 mL (series A) and 1875  
536 mL (series B) headspace.



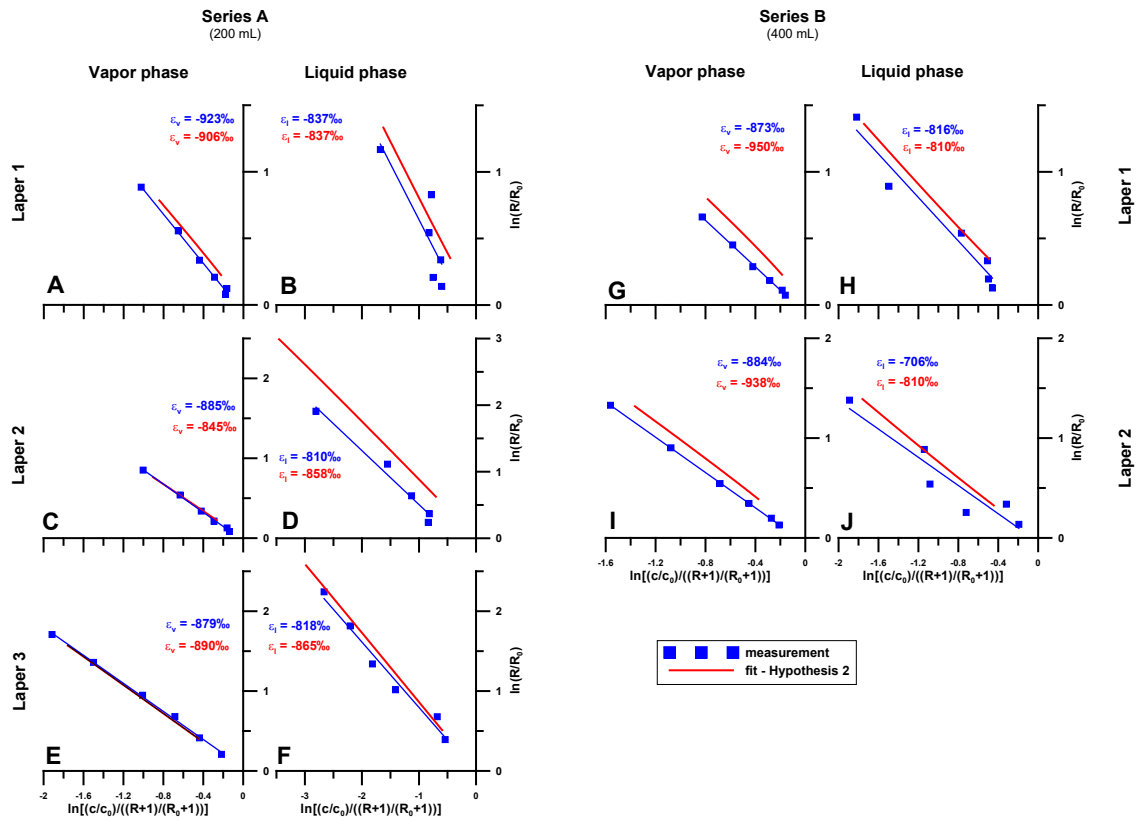
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539 **Figure 2:** Rayleigh plots showing measured stable isotope fractionation in the gas and  
 540 liquid phase of Laper series A (200 mL; left column, panels A to D) and B (400 mL; right  
 541 columns, panels E to G). To avoid possible effects from initial disturbances, shown linear  
 542 fits considered only data from 3 to 8 hours. The first row (panels A and E) represents  
 543 abiotic control, second row (panels B and E) shows Laper 1 and third row (panels C and  
 544 G) Laper 2, the last row (panel D) shows Laper 3.



545

546 **Figure 3:** *Hypothesis 1*: Rayleigh plots showing comparison of measured and fitted data  
 547 for Laper series A (panels A to F) and Laper series B (panels G to H). Blue symbols  
 548 represent experimental data, blue lines are linear regression of measured data, and red  
 549 solid lines are fitted values allowing for a high fractionation due to the phase exchange.  
 550 Rayleigh plots show only results for the observation time between 3 and 8 hours.



551

552 **Figure 4:** *Hypothesis 2*: Rayleigh plots showing comparison of measured and fitted data  
 553 for Laper series A (panels A to F) and Laper series B (panels G to H). Blue symbols  
 554 represent experimental data, blue lines are linear regression of measured data, and red  
 555 solid lines are fitted values (for series A with constrained phase exchange rate parameter).  
 556 Rayleigh plots show only results for the observation time between 3 and 8 hours.

557

558 **Table1:** *Hypothesis 1:* Parameter values obtained by fitting. Value constraints are <sup>1)</sup>  
 559 assumed, <sup>2)</sup> taken from [Sander \(2015\)](#), <sup>3)</sup> taken from [Khan et al. \(2018\)](#). Errors for the  
 560 measured enrichment factors are standard deviations determined from the slopes of the  
 561 Rayleigh plots.

			Series A (200 mL)			Series B (400 mL)		
unit			Laper 1	Laper 2	Laper 3	Laper 1	Laper 2	Constraints
<b>Fitted parameters</b>	$k_{max}$	mg L <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup>	4.98	5.06	6.68	5.66	4.39	
	$K_s$	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	0.1	0.122	0.813	0.1	0.1	0.1-10 <sup>1)</sup>
	$k_{ex}$	h <sup>-1</sup>	3.92	0.814	3.08	1.61	12.9	
	$^1H, ^2H$	-	0.35	0.225	0.35	0.23	0.2	0.2-0.35 <sup>2)</sup>
	$\epsilon_b$	‰	-870	-870	-886	-870	-870	-(870-970) <sup>3)</sup>
	$\epsilon_{ex}$	‰	-454	-900	-727	-900	-900	-(0-900) <sup>1)</sup>
<b>Fitting results</b>	$\epsilon_v$	‰	-864	-925	-889	-957	-907	
	$\epsilon_l$	‰	-844	-683	-800	-753	-831	
<b>Measured results</b>	$\epsilon_v$	‰	-923 ± 28	-885 ± 18	-879 ± 19	-873 ± 19	-884 ± 6	
	$\epsilon_l$	‰	-837 ± 261	-810 ± 77	-818 ± 65	-816 ± 90	-706 ± 128	

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564



565 **Table2: Hypothesis 2:** Parameter values obtained by fitting. Value constraints are <sup>1)</sup>  
 566 taken from [Khan et al. \(2018\)](#), <sup>2)</sup> values for series A systems constrained to approx.  
 567 value range fitted for series B systems <sup>3)</sup> taken from [Sander \(2015\)](#), <sup>4)</sup> taken from [Sun et](#)  
 568 [al. \(2021b\)](#). Errors for the measured enrichment factors are standard deviations  
 569 determined from the slopes of the Rayleigh plots.

570

			Series A (200 mL)			Series B (400 mL)		
unit			Laper 1	Laper 2	Laper 3	Laper 1	Laper 2	Constraints
Fitted parameters	$k_{max}$	mg L <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup>	2.66	2.98	2.89	3.07	2.17	
	$k_{max,g}$	mg L <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup>	0.626	0.568	0.912	0.645	0.731	
	$K_s$	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5 <sup>1)</sup>
	$k_{ex}$	h <sup>-1</sup>	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.321	0.166	0.1-0.3 <sup>2)</sup>
	$^1H, ^hH$	-	0.35	0.35	0.35	0.35	0.35	0.2-0.35 <sup>3)</sup>
	$\epsilon_b$	‰	-870	-870	-870	-870	-870	-(870-970) <sup>1)</sup>
	$\epsilon_{b,g}$	‰	-870	-870	-898	-870	-870	-(870-970) <sup>1)</sup>
	$\epsilon_{ex}$	‰	0	-50	-50	0	-50	-(0-50) <sup>4)</sup>
Fitting results	$\epsilon_v$	‰	-906	-845	-891	-950	-938	
	$\epsilon_l$	‰	-837	-858	-865	-810	-810	
Measured results	$\epsilon_v$	‰	-923 ± 28	-885 ± 18	-879 ± 19	-873 ± 19	-884 ± 6	
	$\epsilon_l$	‰	-837 ± 261	-810 ± 77	-818 ± 65	-816 ± 90	-706 ± 128	

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572