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1	Evaluation of the hydrological flow paths in a gravel bed filter modelling a horizontal
2	subsurface flow wetland by using a multi-tracer experiment
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4	Jan Birkigt ¹ , Christine Stumpp ² , Piotr Małoszewski ^{2, 3, †} , and Ivonne Nijenhuis ^{1*}
5	¹ Helmholtz Centre for Environmental Research - UFZ – Department of Isotope
6	Biogeochemistry, Permoserstraße 15, D-04318 Leipzig, Germany
7	
8	² Helmholtz Zentrum München, German Research Center for Environmental Health – Institute
9	of Groundwater Ecology, Ingolstädter Landstraße 1, D-85764 Neuherberg, Germany
10	
11	³ AGH University of Science and Technology Kraków, Department of Hydrogeology and
12	Engineering Geology, Al. Mickiewicza 30, 30-059 Kraków, Poland
13	[†] Deceased 21 March 2017
14	*Corresponding author:
15	Ivonne Nijenhuis
16	Tel: +49 341 235 13 56
17	E-mail: <u>ivonne.nijenhuis@ufz.de</u>
18	
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21 <u>Abstract</u>

22 In recent years, constructed wetland systems have become into focus as means of cost-23 efficient organic contaminant management. Wetland systems provide a highly reactive 24 environment in which several removal pathways of organic chemicals may be present at the same time; however, specific elimination processes and hydraulic conditions are usually 25 26 separately investigated and thus not fully understood. The flow system in a three dimensional 27 pilot-scale horizontal subsurface constructed wetland was investigated applying a multi-tracer 28 test combined with a mathematical model to evaluate the flow and transport processes. The 29 results indicate the existence of a multiple flow system with two distinct flow paths through 30 the gravel bed and a preferential flow at the bottom transporting 68% of tracer mass resulting from the inflow design of the model wetland system. There the removal of main contaminant 31 32 chlorobenzene was up to 52% based on different calculation approaches. Determined 33 retention times in the range of 22 d to 32.5 d the wetland has a heterogeneous flow pattern. 34 Differences between simulated and measured concentrations in the upper sediment indicate 35 diffusion dominated processes due to stagnant water zones. The tracer study combining experimental evaluation with mathematical modeling demonstrated the complexity of flow 36 37 and transport processes in the constructed wetlands which need to be taken into account during interpretation of the determining attenuation processes. 38

40 <u>1. Introduction</u>

41 Constructed wetlands have become of increasing interest in recent years as an economical 42 solution for treating wastewater. Subsurface flow constructed wetlands provide a heterogeneous filter and buffer system where abiotic and biotic processes, e.g. sorption, 43 hydrolysis, photolysis, evaporation and biodegradation, may take place simultaneously, 44 resulting in contaminant removal (Imfeld et al., 2009). Wetlands have been shown efficient in 45 the removal of organic contaminants such as the chlorinated solvents, pharmaceuticals, 46 personal health care products, pesticides as well as the immobilization of metals (Gambrell, 47 48 1994; Imfeld et al., 2009; Kidmose et al., 2010; Li et al., 2014; Onesios et al., 2009; Schmidt et al., 2014; Verlicchi and Zambello, 2014). However, the processes contributing to the 49 50 removal are not fully understood and of high interest for future wetland applications. The currently developed applications for industrial and urban scale water treatment, however, 51 require a detailed understanding of the intertwined processes occurring in the highly 52 heterogeneous environment of wetland systems (Imfeld et al., 2009). In particular, a thorough 53 54 understanding of the water flow characteristics determining the retention time and flow paths 55 will be a requisite to run such systems efficiently (Zahraeifard and Deng, 2011) and before 56 up-scaling of these approaches can be successful. Then the implementation can be considered as feasible alternative or supplement for conventional wastewater treatment or contaminated 57 58 site management (Gearheart et al., 1989).

To date, several studies were published addressing constructed wetland processes in more detail. For example, the contributing processes to chloroethene (Imfeld et al., 2010), monochlorobenzene (Braeckevelt et al., 2007; Schmidt et al., 2014) as well as MTBE (Jechalke et al., 2010; Rakoczy et al., 2011), pharmaceuticals (Matamoros and Bayona, 2006) or metals (Weis and Weis, 2004) removal and immobilization and related microbial biomass (Tietz et al., 2007; Truu et al., 2009) was described (Imfeld et al., 2009). However, these processes also need an insight into the hydrology and the flow characteristics of such wetland

systems (King et al., 1997; Machate et al., 1997; Małoszewski et al., 2006a; Małoszewski et 66 67 al., 2006b; Ranieri et al., 2011). Indeed, the understanding of the flow characteristics in a 68 wetland is of utmost importance for determining the overall residence time of the water in the system and thus the contact time between the reactive surfaces and contaminant of interest 69 70 (Małoszewski et al., 2006b). Overall, the residence time of a contaminant in a treatment system needs to be longer to the time required for its degradation to reach a complete 71 removal. Often, only the average residence time is determined as only samples at a single 72 73 point without depth distinction within the gravel bed or at the outlet are considered in 74 constructed wetlands (Guo et al., 2017; Małoszewski et al., 2006b; Ranieri et al., 2011). The 75 theoretical retention time can be approximated as the ratio between pore water volume within 76 the bed and the applied volumetric flow rate assuming homogeneous and plug flow conditions 77 and that all water in the wetland is mobile. In reality, no such homogeneous systems exist and 78 not only average residence times are of importance but the residence time distributions (RTD) covering the entire range of potential reaction times. Particularly heterogeneities like 79 80 preferential flow or stagnant water zones are of importance as they decrease or increase the residence time, respectively. In surface water dominated wetlands (Holland et al., 2004; 81 82 Lange et al., 2011) as well as in subsurface flow systems (Kidmose et al., 2010; Langergraber, 2008; Małoszewski et al., 2006b), the combined use of tracers and mathematical modeling 83 have been adequate tools to identify and quantify heterogeneous flow paths and residence 84 85 times which can be different from theoretical calculations. Most of these tracer applications 86 measure the tracer breakthrough curves (BTCs) only at the outlet. The contribution of 87 different process towards removal, e.g. aerobic, anaerobic or abiotic, are not clear as such 88 systems are from high complexity in their flow path due to changes in flow, evapotranspiration, rain gains, heterogeneous distribution of plants, of load and so on which 89 make each system almost unique (Imfeld et al., 2009). Therefore, the objective of this study 90 was to identify complex horizontal and vertical transport processes in a constructed wetland. 91

Specifically, we aimed to use a combined multiple tracer and mathematical modelling 92 93 approach to quantify different flow paths, transport processes and residence times within the 94 constructed wetland. The outcome of this study will contribute to a general understanding of heterogeneous hydrological conditions in similar systems which are crucial to understand 95 observed removal of contaminants. As a model system, a constructed wetland fed with 96 monochlorobenzene (MCB) contaminated groundwater was used, consisting of a planted and 97 98 unplanted segment (Schmidt et al., 2014). For this study, only the unplanted segment was 99 investigated. In the unplanted gravel bed filter of this horizontal subsurface-flow constructed 100 wetland system, about 40% of the MCB was removed in the gravel bed while over the 101 transition zone into the pond another 50% was eliminated leading to an overall reduction of 102 MCB of 90% compared to the inflow. The removal was apparently linked to iron reduction, however, due to the uncertainties in flow paths and actual residence time, the rate of removal 103 104 and active regions could not be assessed.

105

106 **2. Material and methods**

107 **2.1 Model constructed wetland system**

108 The horizontal subsurface flow wetland system within the SAFIRA project located directly at 109 the contaminated field site in Bitterfeld, Germany consisted of a stainless steel basin with the dimension of 6 m (length) x 1 m (width) x 0.7 m (depth) (Figure 1) with a gravel bed (5 m x 1 110 m x 0.6 m) and a free water pond (1 m x 1 m x 0.5 m) at the outflow side (Figure S1 – S3) 111 112 (Kaschl et al., 2005; Schmidt et al., 2014). The grain size grading of the filter material was assessed following standard test DIN 18123 resulting in Gaussian distribution of the granular 113 size between 0.63 mm and 6.3 mm. Total measured porosity was 41% ($\varepsilon = 0.41$). The water 114 115 flow was generated through external pumps at the inflow and outflow. Inflow was continuous using a rotary piston pump from Ismatec (Wertheim, Germany) with a flow rate (q) held at 1 116

L h⁻¹ representative for the conditions in the aquifer corresponding to a hydraulic loading rate (HLR) of the subsurface flow gravel bed and free water pond of 4.8 mm d⁻¹ and 24 mm d⁻¹, respectively (Kadlec and Wallace, 2008). The water level at the outflow was held constant at 50 cm (10 cm under gravel bed surface) using a tubing pump from Ismatec (Wertheim, Germany) controlled by a float sensor from Kobold Messring (Hofheim, Germany). Water flow mass balances during the tracer test were calculated from the pump rates.

123

124 **2.2 Tracer test**

125 A multi tracer test was performed from April to May 2011 (16.3°C mean air temperature). The gravel bed was covered with polyethylene foil to minimize processes like evaporation, 126 127 dilution through rain or photodegradation of the tracer chemicals. A mixture of bromide (as KBr; 550 mg L⁻¹), uranine (120 μ g L⁻¹) and deuterium oxide (0.14 at%; δ D = 8050%) in 128 contaminated groundwater from the regional aquifer was injected. Three tracers were chosen 129 which had different diffusion coefficients, thus allowing identifying stagnant water zones and 130 131 diffusion dominated transport processes (Knorr et al., 2016). The tracers were added as a pulse injection over 20 hours at the flux of 1 L h⁻¹ from a separate tank which was connected 132 to the inflow of the wetland. Afterwards, the inflow was reconnected directly to the 133 groundwater feed keeping the same flow conditions. Samples were taken at 4 m and, as 134 indicated, at 4.5 m from the inflow central in the gravel bed at three different depths (-27.5 135 cm; -37.5 cm; -47.5 cm from water surface level) simultaneously with a peristaltic pump from 136 Ismatec (Wertheim, Germany) at a relatively low flow rate of 4 mL min⁻¹ to minimize 137 138 artificial influences to the flow. Polyethylene scintillation vials from VWR (Darmstadt, 139 Germany) were filled with 20 mL pore water for each sampling point and time and were stored in 8 °C temperature in the dark prior to analysis. The sampling regime is listed in 140 details in SI. 141

143 **2.3 Analysis of the tracer chemicals**

144 Bromide concentrations were determined using an ion chromatography from Dionex-Thermo 145 Scientific (Bremen, Germany) set up with Ion Pac pre-column and analytical column Ion Pac AS 11-HC (4 x 50 mm; 4 x 250 mm) from Dionex-Thermo Scientific (Bremen, Germany) 146 with an analytical uncertainty of 0.05 mg L⁻¹. Uranine concentrations were measured using a 147 fluorescence photometer from Taurus Instruments (Weimar, Germany) in a daylight-darkened 148 149 laboratory using a non-UV lamp, to avoid errors caused by photodegradation processes during 150 analysis. Deuterium analyses were done using a high temperature pyrolysis from HEKAtech 151 (Wegeberg, Germany) coupled to an isotope ratio mass spectrometry from Thermo Scientific 152 (Bremen, Germany) (HTP-IRMS) with an analytical uncertainty of 0.44‰ (Gehre and 153 Strauch, 2003).

154 Concentration corrections of the applied tracers were done based on background analyses of 155 the groundwater. Bromide was below detection limit ($c_{Br} < 0.5 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$), deuterium present at 156 natural abundance $\delta D = -69 \pm 1\%$ and uranine was corrected considering natural fluorescence 157 of the groundwater (equal to $c_{Uranine} = 0.176 \pm 0.002 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$).

158

159 2.4 Mathematical model

160 In the present pilot system, the tracer migration can be considered as dispersive-convective 161 transport within several flow-paths, which meet in the observation port, when considering that 162 (1) injection takes place in several inflow pipes equally distributed horizontally, resulting in 163 the transversal line injection close to the bottom of the wetland; (2) transversal vertical 164 dispersion is small and can be neglected; and (3) the flow conditions are in steady state. 165 Depending on the results of the tracer breakthrough curves, an appropriate model approach has to be chosen. Due to similarities in BTCs compared to the previous study by Małoszewski 166 et al., 2006 (Małoszewski et al., 2006b), investigating the flow paths in artificial wetlands, the 167

Multi-Flow Dispersion Model (MFDM) was chosen. The MFDM model assumes that the 168 tracer transport between the inlet to the wetland (injection site) and the observation site (flow 169 distance x) can be estimated by a combination of singular 1-D dispersion-convection 170 equations. Each flow-path is characterized by a specific volumetric flow rate (q_i) , mean transit 171 time of water $(t_{oi} = v_i/x)$ or velocity (v_i) , and longitudinal dispersivity (α_{Li}) or dispersion 172 173 parameter ($P_{Di} = \alpha_{Li}/x$). It is assumed that there is no interaction between the flow paths and that the whole injected mass of tracer is divided into several flow-paths proportionally to the 174 respective volumetric flow rates (q_i) . The transport of an ideal tracer along ith flow-path is 175 described by the following equation: 176

177
$$\alpha_{Li} v_i \frac{\partial^2 C_i}{\partial x^2} + v_i \frac{\partial C_i}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial C_i}{\partial t}$$
(1)

where $C_i(t)$ is the concentration of tracer in the effluent from the ith flow-path. The solution to (1) for a pulse injection was given e.g. in (Hendry et al., 1999; Stumpp et al., 2009) and has the following form:

$$C_{i}(t) = C_{0} \int_{0}^{t} g_{i}(\tau) d\tau \quad for \quad t \leq t_{pulse}$$

$$C_{i}(t) = C_{0} \int_{t-t_{pulse}}^{t} g_{i}(\tau) d\tau \quad for \quad t > t_{pulse}$$
(2)

181

where C_0 is the concentration of tracer in the pulse injection, t_{pulse} is duration of the pulse and the function $g_i(\tau)$ is equal to:

184
$$g_{i}(\tau) = \frac{1}{t_{oi}\sqrt{4\pi (P_{D})_{i}(\tau/t_{oi})^{3}}} \cdot \exp\left[-\frac{(1-\tau/t_{oi})^{2}}{4(P_{D})_{i}(\tau/t_{oi})}\right]$$
(3)

Mean transit time for the flow-system between injection site and detection port (being in
different depths "j") is the flux weighted mean described by the following equation:

188
$$(t_o)_{j \text{ mean}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} p_i \cdot (t_o)_i = \frac{V_j}{q_j}$$
 (4)

Where V_j is the active volume of water between injection and detection port and q_j is the water flux through the volume V_j observed in different depths ("j"), and N is the number of flow-paths, which has to be found in modeling procedure applied for each depth "j", and

192
$$p_i = \frac{\int_{0}^{\infty} C_i(t)_{port} dt}{\int_{0}^{\infty} C(t)_{port} dt}$$
 (5)

where $C(t)_{port}$ is the whole concentration curve measured in the water at the observation port and $C_i(t)_{port}$ is the partial measured concentration curve, resulting at the port from the tracer transport within the *i*-the flow-path, which must be found by modelling procedure.

When the flow rate at the observation port (q_j) is known or can be estimated, the volume of water in the wetland layer between injection site and observation port (V_j) can be calculated as:

$$V_j = \sum_{i=1}^{N} V_i$$
(6)

200 where

$$201 V_i = p_i \cdot t_{oi} \cdot q_j (7)$$

and j corresponds to upper, middle and lower port. The fluxes q_j was finally found from the
surfaces under the whole tracer curve modelled for each depth by adopting equation 5.

205 <u>3. Results</u>

3.1 Tracer experiment

All three tracers, bromide, deuterium oxide and uranine, were detected at all three sampling depths at the sampling point at 4 m (Figure 2). The highest concentrations of all tracers were observed at the lowest level (Figure 2c). Here, two main partial breakthrough curves were detected for all tracers, after approximately 300 and 510 hours, respectively. Interestingly, the observed second peak with up to 18.4% of the initial concentration was relatively higher compared to the first peak with up to 9.7%. A third, minor, breakthrough curve was observed after approx. 800 hours.

At the upper levels, bromine and deuterium behaved similarly, different from uranine. Bromine and deuterium had one main breakthrough peak at approximately 550 hours at the middle level (Figure 2b) and two peaks at approximately 400 and 720 hours at the upper level (Figure 2a). Surprisingly, uranine did not have a clear breakthrough curve at the middle and upper level. Following an increase after approximately 600 and 750 hours at the middle and upper level, respectively, uranine remained at a low but relatively constant concentration over the time frame of the experiment.

While the maximum concentration was up to 18.4% in the lower level, maximum concentrations in the middle and upper level were only 3.7% and 3.2%, respectively, of the initial concentration (Figure 2). Even though the two tracer breakthrough curves in the upper level arrived around 100 and 200 hours later than in the lower level, respectively, they followed the same trend transporting more tracer mass in the second curve as compared to the first curve. However, contrastingly, the only main BTC in the middle level arrived 250 hours later than in the lower level. Comparing the tracers, D₂O generally had the highest relative concentrations in the breakthrough curves, followed by bromine. Uranine generally behaved similar, although with lower relatively concentrations, in the lower level, however behaved quite differently from D₂O and bromine in the middle and upper level, likely due to higher interactions with the sediment (Davis et al., 1980).

233

234 3.2 Mathematical Modeling

The mathematical multi-flow dispersion model was used to model the breakthrough curves of 235 236 the different levels. Exemplary bromide was chosen to discuss the results of the modeling (Figure 3). The fitted model curves using the MFDM for the other two tracers are shown in SI 237 (Figure S4, S5). Resulting modeling parameters are summarized in Table 1. The measured 238 239 data were well reproduced by the chosen MFDM indicating the presence of complex, multiple 240 flow paths in the system. The modeling confirmed the preferred flow along the bottom 241 (lower) layer with 65-70% of mass flowing along the bottom and 14-18% and 16-17% of 242 mass at the middle and upper level, respectively (Table 2). Highest flow fractions were found 243 for the second partial BTC in the lower and upper levels, respectively, and for the first partial 244 BTC in the middle layer. Fitting parameters were similar for deuterium and bromide for all 245 BTCs in all levels (Table 1). BTCs of uranine resulted in similar transport parameters in the 246 main flow paths (lower layer), but transport in the middle and upper level were different indicating a retardation and non-conservative transport behavior of uranine in these layers; 247 248 therefore, no results are presented in Table 2 for uranine. Due to a larger mass fraction of uranine in the third partial BTC at the upper level, also retardation of uranine was found here 249 despite similarities of individual transit times. Weighted mean transit times were shortest in 250 251 the lower level ranging between 21.4 and 22.6 d (see Table 1). Transit times were longer for 252 the middle and upper level resulting in weighted mean transit times of 28.9 and 31.1 d, and

32.3 and 33.9 d for deuterium and bromide, respectively. Dispersivities varied within one 253 254 order of magnitude (0.5-8.3 cm). Dispersivities for bromide and deuterium were similar 255 except for the last BTC in all levels; here, bromide resulted in larger dispersivities compared to deuterium (see Table 1). Mean transit times found as an average for deuterium and bromide 256 varied between 22.0 to 32.5 d for lower and upper layer, respectively (see Table 2). Table 2 257 258 also shows resulting mean calculated water flux q_i assuming that the tracer distribution observed in each level is representative for the horizontal plain in that level. It was the largest 259 260 in the lower level (0.68q) while in middle and upper levels it was similar and equal to 0.16q (see Table 2). Taking into account that $q = 1 L h^{-1}$ and a total pore water volume of 0.82 m³ it 261 yields to an active pore water volume of 0.61 m³ in the lower part of the wetland which 262 263 corresponds to effective porosity being approximately 40%.

264

265 **<u>4. Discussion</u>**

4.1 Flowpath and residence times

267 The resulting BTCs and transport parameters showed, in contrast to findings of Headley and colleagues (Headley et al., 2005), that flow and transport in our pilot constructed wetland was 268 complex and heterogeneous, both in vertical and horizontal direction. The highest 269 270 concentrations of all tracers were observed at the lowest level (Figure 2c) suggesting a main 271 flow path along the bottom of the wetland. Here, two main and one minor, partial 272 breakthrough curves were detected for all tracers, indicating multiple flow paths at the lower 273 level. All three tracers showed similar BTC distributions without any pronounced differences 274 in the tailing of the concentration curves. Consequently, diffusion in this lower level seems to 275 be negligible. Interestingly, the observations implied the higher mass of tracer transported 276 through the second main flow path. On the one hand, the heterogeneity can results from not

fully mixed conditions between injection and sampling ports along the main flow direction. 277 Hence, the first BTC at the lower level likely represented water flowing from the middle 278 279 injection port to the sampling point and the second peak with higher mass recovery then 280 resulted from water originating from the two outer injection points. The third BTC could have been the consequence of water mixed with less mobile water between injection ports (Kadlec 281 282 and Wallace, 2008). On the other hand, the different flow paths in the lower level can result from multiple porous sediment developed from settled organic material resulting in multiple 283 284 BTCs like found for heterogeneous aquifers (Vanderborght and Vereecken, 2002).

285 A non-uniform flow through the wetland is obvious when looking at the vertical distribution 286 of BTCs. First, the mass of the tracer is not equally distributed within the wetland (Tab. 2). 287 Second, transit times and distributions of BTCs at the middle and upper level were similar but 288 rather different from the lower level. The sampling procedure itself -due to pumping- is expected to not substantially influence the tracer migration because the pump rate $(0.24 \text{ L} \text{ h}^{-1})$ 289 290 was only one fourth of the total flux (1 L h⁻¹) through the wetland. From total flux and assuming uniform flow, a mean flow velocity and transit time of 0.16 m d⁻¹ and 25 d could be 291 292 estimated, respectively.

293

294 **4.2 Differences between tracers**

295 Comparing the used tracers, deuterium can be considered as an ideal tracer of water sources 296 and movements (Kendall and McDonnell, 1999). Minor difference in relative concentrations 297 (Fig. 2) between deuterium and bromide can be explained either by analytical uncertainties, 298 which are relatively higher for bromide compared to deuterium, or by anion properties of 299 bromide. Bromide has been reported to be affected by sorption or anion exclusion under 300 specific conditions (Gilley et al., 1990; Korom, 2000; Levy and Chambers, 1987) and on plant uptake especially in wetlands (Whitmer et al., 2000). The latter is irrelevant because thewetland was unplanted.

303 Substantial differences were found for uranine compared to the other two tracers. Most 304 notable was the different transport behavior of uranine with the initial absence and delayed 305 occurrence of uranine in the upper levels compared to bromide and deuterium. There the 306 modelling results clearly indicated retardation of uranine (Tab. 1). Even though uranine is generally considered to be a non-sorbing conservative tracer (Käss et al., 1998), as it does not 307 308 sorb to negatively charged media such as silica and sandstone, it was found to sorb to 309 positively charged media such as alumina and carbonate (Kasnavia et al., 1999; Sabatini, 2000). Since the gravel material consisted primarily of silica sand, sorption onto the aquifer 310 material was not expected. Additionally, uranine is not an ideal tracer in presence of high 311 312 organic content (Kasnavia et al., 1999; Smart and Laidlaw, 1977) or salt concentrations (Magal et al., 2008) which were identified to enhance sorption. Particularly the first may 313 314 apply to the investigation site due to presence of brown coal particles in the contaminated 315 groundwater which were transported and deposited over the years in the gravel bed (Weiss et 316 al., 1998). This effect was strongest in the middle and upper level of the pilot system where 317 flow velocities were lowest. In the lower level with high flow velocities, uranine appeared slightly later and tailing was observed of the BTCs compared to deuterium. This tailing is 318 likely a consequence of sorption effects, which has also been previously observed in other 319 320 wetland systems (Holcová et al., 2013).

321

322 4.3 Evaluation of the wetland performance

The actual residence time in the system is a key factor for evaluating the performance of a constructed wetland for contaminant removal. Our study shows that tracer studies were

necessary to revise results from water balance approaches based on in- and outflow. Unlike 325 326 initially assumed, the overall residence time of the groundwater and conservative tracers in 327 the wetland system (22.0-32.5 d, see Table 2) was lower compared to the theoretical one (34.2 d) resulting in a lower contact and reaction time than previously assumed (Schmidt et al., 328 329 2014). In addition, a preferential flow along the bottom of the wetland system can be 330 concluded, which is likely due to the constructional design of the inflow resulting in lower water and contaminant infiltration in the middle and upper levels. Considering mass fluxes in 331 332 the wetland, different reactive compartments have to be considered. From a hydrological 333 point of view the middle and upper layer had 8.6 d and 10.5 d, respectively, longer residence 334 times compared to the lower level and therefore more potential for reaction and thus, the 335 removal of contaminants should be higher here. However, lower contaminant mass will be transported through these regions. 336

To assess the MCB removal efficiency of the model wetland system, MCB concentration 337 changes during passage in the gravel bed were investigated for the different depths (Figure 338 339 S7). There, MCB removal was estimated (see SI) to be 34% in the upper level and 20% in the 340 middle and lower level, respectively, based on analyzed concentrations only (Table S1). 341 Highest removal rate and most active zones therefore would supposedly be located in the 342 upper parts of the wetland. By including the observations from the tracer study our approximation resulted in similar relative MCB mass removal than estimated above for the 343 344 upper and middle layers with 31% and 17%, respectively, while the lower part contributed to 345 a higher extent with 52% (see Table S1).

Based on average oxygen concentrations and redox potentials of the gravel bed (0.09 ± 0.03) mg L⁻¹, 147 ± 45 mV) and especially in the lower level of 0.08 ± 0.01 mg L⁻¹ (Figure S6) and 108 ± 22 mV, respectively, the overall wetland can be considered as anoxic in contrast to the apparent system analogy and the measured values from Schmidt et al. 2014 (Schmidt et al., 2014). Combining the results, major biological processes driving the MCB removal were likely anaerobic. The underestimation of MCB degradation in the anoxic zone at the bottom of the wetland could be only revealed by applying a tracer test combined with the modelling approach.

354

4.4 Implications for the investigation and implementation of constructed wetlands

356 Our study stresses the importance of hydrological investigations of constructed wetland as it can provide valuable insights into water flow, transport and residence times of contaminants 357 358 in these systems. The combination of a multi-tracer test with sampling at multiple depths in the wetland filter, and a mathematical modelling allowed identifying main water flow paths, 359 360 variable flow conditions and precise definition of residence times. In our case, the overall water flow and thus contaminant transport was much faster than expected. Furthermore, the 361 362 tracer approach connected with a depth resolved sampling allowed to locate the preferential 363 flow paths and transport processes. This will help to design and optimize nature-like model 364 wetland systems for future treatment purposes. The horizontal subsurface flow wetland 365 system was designed to simulate aquifer-like conditions and to provide as system for 366 investigation of microbial processes at geochemical gradients. However, in reality the system 367 turned out to consist of rather heterogeneous flow paths with strongly different transit times between levels. Consequently, contaminant removal rates were overestimated when only 368 based on concentration values. Especially, previous assumption of evenly distributed fluxes 369 370 and over-estimation of residence times resulted in underestimation of degradation in the lower level. The contaminant removal efficiency may be improved by altering the wetland design 371 providing either a more homogeneous flow of groundwater through all parts of the system 372 373 with higher reaction times or in an even more heterogeneous flow pattern through different 374 geochemical zones in the system enhancing gradient based degradation processes. Therefore,

for implementation of constructed wetlands as treatment systems, the effect of design parameters, causing the hydraulic behavior and thus their effect on physical-chemical parameters, can strongly influence the removal efficiencies of contaminants of the interest (Kidmose et al., 2010; Onesios et al., 2009). By combining results of multiple conservative tracers additional information on characteristics such as sorption and flow paths could be obtained. Overall, even a simple appearing model subsurface flow constructed wetland was shown to be a complex and heterogeneous system.

382 The HLR in our system was only 4.8 mm d^{-1} , which is in the lower range for horizontal subsurface flow constructed wetlands treating polluted water (2-30 mm d⁻¹) (Kadlec and 383 384 Wallace, 2008; Wood, 1995). For feasible, commercial, treatment, however, HLR should be higher, with 50-80 mm d⁻¹ (Morel, 2006). Implemented by increasing the inflow rate, an 385 386 improved vertical mixing of the treated water and a decrease of the zones of stagnant water 387 may be accomplished (Headley et al., 2005). Further tests, however, are needed to determine the limits of the system and maximum loading rates, in concurrence with tracer and 388 389 mathematical modeling experiments, to provide a full understanding of the three dimensional 390 flow and reactive zones within constructed wetland systems.

391

392 <u>5. Conclusions</u>

This work presents the investigation of hydrological flow paths for understanding of the 393 394 interactions of biodegradation and transport processes important for remediation approaches and wetland process based technologies. The design of the constructed wetland basin 395 396 determined the flow path, resulting in different zones of stagnant and moving water and 397 retention times. As a result, contaminants will have different contact times to undergo biotic 398 or abiotic processes in these zones. In zones of stagnant water the transport of nutrients as well as electron acceptor and donor, respectively, essential for biotic processes is limited due 399 to restricted diffusion into these zones. Therefore, degradation reactions might be slower 400

401 compared to high mobility zones such as at the bottom of the wetland. Especially the 402 transitions zones between stagnant and mobile water, with related biogeochemical gradients, 403 are of high interest for an understanding and controlling wetland processes. Overall, this 404 tracer study combining experimental evaluation with mathematical modeling demonstrated 405 the complexity of flow and transport processes in the constructed wetlands. This complexity 406 needs to be taken into account during interpretation of the determining attenuation processes 407 during treatment of contaminated waters in these engineered systems.

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420 **<u>References:</u>**

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Figures:



Figure 1. Schematic model of the constructed wetland system in Bitterfeld with the dimension of 6 m (length) x 1 m (width) x 0.6 m (depth) consisted of a gravel bed (5 m x 1 m x 0.6 m) and a free water pond (1 m x 1 m x 0.5 m) at the outflow side. Green dots represent the sampling points in 4 m after the inflow in direction of flow in three different depths (-27.5)

- 552 cm; -37.5 cm; -47.5 cm from water surface level). Injection of tracer solution was done at
- 553 decoupled inflow pump via a 40 L stainless steel tank.



555	Figure 2. Results of breakthrough curves of the tracers deuterium (\blacktriangle), bromide (\Box) and
556	uranine (\blacklozenge) at 4 m from inflow in the sampled depths. Response of tracer concentrations
557	normalized to the initial concentrations (c/c_0) over time after pulse injection in the upper level
558	(a), middle level (b) and lower level (c), respectively.



Figure 3. Calibration the MFDM to bromide concentration over time after pulse injection in the different levels at z = -27.5 cm (a), z = -37.5 cm (b) and z = -47.5 cm (c), respectively at x = 4 m. Observed sampled bromide concentrations (\Box) and fitted RTD curves obtained with the MFDM of each breakthrough curve (black lines) and complete tracer regime (grey line).

- 569 Table 1. Overview of parameters derived from the MFDM of all tracers and different sampled levels at 4 m horizontal distance from inflow where
- 570 T represents the transit time, v the velocity, α_L the longitudinal dispersivity and p the portion of tracer mass.

		Lower level		Middle level			Upper level			
		Depth $z = -47.5$ cm			Depth $z = -37.5$ cm			Depth $z = -27.5$ cm		
		Deuterium	Bromide	Uranine	Deuterium	Bromide	Uranine	Deuterium	Bromide	Uranine
Curve 1										
	T [d]	12.7	12.6	12.6	24.1	23.8	32.0	18.0	18.2	40.8
	v [m d ⁻¹]	0.32	0.32	0.32	0.17	0.17	0.13	0.22	0.22	0.10
	α_L [cm]	4.6	4.6	3.8	3.6	2.9	7.0	1.5	1.4	4.0
	p [-]	0.30	0.29	0.31	0.78	0.59	0.49	0.22	0.18	0.47
Curve 2										
	T [d]	21.4	21.4	20.1	46.0	44.5	46.0	30.4	28.6	59.7
	v [m d ⁻¹]	0.19	0.19	0.20	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.13	0.14	0.07
	α_L [cm]	1.6	1.6	2.2	0.5	8.3	3.5	1.0	1.5	3.0
	p [-]	0.57	0.54	0.49	0.22	0.41	0.28	0.48	0.42	0.53
Curve 3										
	T [d]	41.2	43.5	40.0	-	-	61.5	41.7	46.5	-
	v [m d ⁻¹]	0.10	0.09	0.10	-	-	0.07	0.10	0.09	-
	α_L [cm]	4.0	6.4	4.3	-	-	2.0	2.8	5.0	-
	p [-]	0.13	0.17	0.20	-	-	0.23	0.30	0.40	-

Weighted mean transit time	T [d]	21.4	22.6	21.8	28.9	32.3	42.7	31.1	33.9	50.8
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Table 2. Calculated relative portions of tracer mass of two ideal tracers (deuterium, bromide)
and mean values of flux portion, transit time and volume of active water in the different levels
derived from the MFDM.

	Portion of v ma pj	vhole tracer ass [-]	Mean portion of tracer mass	Mean transit time	Mean volume of active water
Level	Deuterium	Bromide	pj mean [-]	Tj mean [d]	Vj mean [m ³]
Lower (-47.5 cm)	0.70	0.65	0.68	22.0	0.36
Middle (-37.5 cm)	0.14	0.18	0.16	30.6	0.12
Upper (-27.5 cm)	0.16	0.17	0.16	32.5	0.13