1	Assessment of LNAPL in Subsurface under Fluctuating Groundwater
2	Table using 2D Sand Tank Experiments
3	
4	Pankaj Kumar Gupta <sup>1</sup> , Basant Yadav <sup>2</sup> , Brijesh Kumar Yadav <sup>3</sup>
5	
6	<sup>1</sup> Research Scholar, Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee
7	Postal Address: Department of Hydrology, IIT Roorkee-247667, Uttarakhand (India)
8	Email ID: pgupta@hy.iitr.ac.in
9	
10	<sup>2</sup> Post-Doctoral Fellow, Rural Water Supply, Cranfield University, UK
11	Email ID: <u>Basant.Yadav@cranfield.ac.uk</u>
12	
13	<sup>3</sup> Associate Professor, Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee
14	Postal Address: Department of Hydrology, IIT Roorkee-247667, Uttarakhand (India).
15	Email ID: <u>brijkfhy@iitr.ac.in/ brijeshy@gmail.com</u>
16	
17	Abstract
18	
19	The focus of this study was to investigate fate and transport of toluene, a light non-aqueous
20	phase liquids (LNAPL), in subsurface under dynamic groundwater table conditions. A series
21	of experiments were conducted using two-dimensional (2-D) sand tank setup having the
22	dimension of 125cm L×90cm H×10cm W and integrated with an auxiliary column of inner
23	diameter 14 cm and height 120 cm. In the beginning a steady state flow and LNAPL transport
24	experiment was conducted under stable groundwater table condition. Thereafter, three
25	groundwater table fluctuation experiments were conducted by rising and falling
26	groundwater table in 2, 4 and 8 hours to maintain a rapid, general, and slow fluctuation
27	conditions respectively. Pure phase of toluene was injected at the rate of 1mL/minute for

a total duration of 5 minutes. The soil-water and soil vapor samples were periodically

collected and analyzed for toluene concentrations. Later, the representation of 2-D sand

tank setup was numerically simulated to get the response of flow and the LNAPL transport

under varying groundwater table conditions. The analysis of the results show that a large

LNAPL pool area (250 cm<sup>2</sup>) gets developed under rapid fluctuating groundwater condition

which significantly enhances the dissolution rate and contributes for a high concentration of

28

29

30

31

32

34 dissolved LNAPL to the receiving receptors. The mass transfer coefficient value of 9.50E-02; 35 5.80E-03; 3.50E-03; 1.20E-04 m/s was estimated for rapid, general, slow and stable groundwater table conditions, respectively. Furthermore, the estimated Sherwood numbers ( 36 Sh) were found 0.95, 16.20, 16.95 and 19.30 while Peclet numbers (P<sub>e</sub>) were 1.80, 75.47, 37 38 80.14, and 95.06 for rapid, general, slow and stable cases respectively. This shows that the 39 dissolution is highly affected by groundwater table which may cause loss of pollutant mass as 40 a dissolved phase. However, the transport of dissolved LNAPL plume is comparatively fast in 41 case of rapid fluctuating groundwater, resulting in closely space concentration isolines of 42 toluene containing plume. A high biodegradation rate is observed in plume regions having 43 concentration ranges from 140-160 ppm, while it decreases in the plume regions having high 44 concentrations (>160 ppm) and low concentrations (<140ppm) in these cases. In sand tank, 45 the microbial growth was found to be increasing as plume moves away from the LNAPL pool 46 towards low-gradient, which fortifies detrimental impact of toluene on survival of indigenous 47 microorganisms near the LNAPL pool. The results of this study may help in implementing 48 effective remediation technique to decontaminate LNAPL polluted sites under fluctuating 49 groundwater table conditions, especially in (semi)-arid coastal aquifers.

50

51 Keywords: LNAPL, Groundwater fluctuation, Dissolution, Biodegradation, 2D tank
52 experiments, Numerical modeling

53

# 54 **1. Introduction**

The subsurface contamination by LNAPL is widespread and challenging environmental 55 56 problem, especially in coastal regions having dynamic groundwater table condition due to tidal 57 effects. Most of the petroleum industries and refineries are located in coastal regions. The leakage of LNAPL from subsurface storage tanks and disposal sites of effluents (Nema and 58 59 Gupta, 1999; Kumar et al. 2016) on surface are major source of hydrocarbons pollution of the receiving environment, especially under varying subsurface conditions. When LNAPL is 60 61 released into (sub)-surface, it starts moving downward through the partially saturated zone, in 62 response to gravitational force, until it reaches to the capillary fringe (Das and Mirzaei, 2012; 63 Power et al. 1992a, b; 1994a, b; Illangasekare et al. 1995). A fraction of LNAPL mass is being 64 retained in partially saturated zone and LNAPL-air mass partition (i.e. volatilization process) contributes as vapor phase contamination (Nambi and Powers, 2000; Brusseau et al. 2002, 65 66 Nambi and Powers, 2003, Patterson and Davis, 2009). The remaining pool of LNAPL provides 67 sufficient dissolving area to the underlying groundwater in smear zone which starts dissolving with flowing groundwater and create a dissolved phase plume (Lee and Chrysikopoulos, 1998; 68 Kim and Chrysikopoulos, 1999; Nema and Gupta, 2003; Oostrom et al. 2006; 2007). Molecular 69 70 diffusion and mechanical dispersion along with advective flux cause spreading of dissolved 71 plume to downgradient receiving locations (Das, 2002; Yadav and Hassanizadeh, 2011; Picone 72 et al. 2013). On the other hand, native potential microbes play significant role to degrade the 73 dissolved LNAPL from polluted zone (Yadav et al. 2013; Basu et al. 2015, Mustapha et al. 74 2018).

75 Groundwater flow regimes play a significant role in the dissolution of pure phase 76 LNAPL pool and its movement to the surrounding locations (Das and Nassehi, 2003; Dobson 77 et al. 2007; Sulaymon and Gzar, 2011, Kamaruddin et al. 2011; Yadav et al. 2012). Dynamic 78 nature of groundwater table causes significant spreading of pooled LNAPL in smear zone, 79 which considerably increases the LNAPL-water interphase area and resulted in accelerated 80 dissolution (Mobile et al. 2012; Vasudevan et al. 2014). Variations in groundwater table not 81 only causes changes in the soil-water system, but also impacts the LNAPL pool behavior, if it 82 is present on the water table and in the underlying saturated zone. The LNAPL lying on the top 83 of the groundwater table moves down with it when the water table lowers and leave a trail of 84 LNAPL in the unsaturated zone in the form of isolated ganglia. Subsequently when the groundwater table rises, the LNAPL pool also moves upward leaving behind a trapped amount 85 86 of LNAPL in the form of disconnected blobs in the saturated zone (Lenhard et al. 2004; 87 Kechavarzi et al. 2005). A part of the residual LNAPL in unsaturated zone gets mobilized again 88 when the groundwater table rises. Thus, a dynamic groundwater table accelerates the 89 dissolution of pure phase LNAPL resulting in high concentration of LNAPL plume (Legout et 90 al. 2009). The dissolved LNAPL plume then moves along with groundwater and forms a 91 polluted zone which features with varying concentration levels (Neale et al. 2000; Rolle et al. 92 2009; Zhang et al. 2014; Zhou et al. 2015; Sarikurt et al. 2017).

There is a paucity of knowledge on the impact of dynamic groundwater table conditions 93 94 on LNAPL behaviors in subsurface. Groundwater fluctuation is significantly affected by heavy pumping rates to irrigate agricultural land and concurrent recharge due to return flow. Typically 95 96 for shallow aquifers, a high pumping rates and return flow/recharge may cause rapid fluctuation of groundwater table. While, a slow pumping and less return flow/recharge may lead to 97 98 general/slow groundwater table fluctuation. Different nature of rainfall events is also 99 responsible for such a rapid and slow fluctuation of groundwater table. Fluctuations in the 100 groundwater table due to various reasons including tidal effects have a profound influence on 101 the spatial distribution, dissolution and biodegradation of LNAPL in the subsurface 102 environment. This phenomenon is predominantly observed in shallow aquifer regions where 103 most of the petrochemical industries and refineries are located and potentially at high risk of 104 LNAPL release from the subsurface storage tanks. Thus, an extensive study was conducted to 105 investigate LNAPL fate and transport under fluctuating groundwater table conditions using a series of 2-D sand tank experiments. A better understanding of fate and transport of LNAPL 106 107 under varying subsurface water table condition is required which in turn can help in designing effectively remediation technologies and to accurately predict their clean-up times and the 108 109 associated cost.

110

## 111 2. Materials and Methods

112 In this study, the behavior of pooled pure phase LNAPL and its dissolved plume in subsurface 113 under stable and fluctuating groundwater table conditions is investigated using a series of twodimensional laboratory experiments and numerical modelling. The preliminary experiments 114 115 were conducted to characterize the flow and transport parameters of the developed subsurface soil-water system. Mechanical sieve analysis was performed to find the 116 117 particle size distribution of the sand which is listed in Table 1 along with other physical 118 parameters. The porosity of sand packing was determined using oven dry and volumetric methods. Further, the hydraulic conductivity of the system was estimated using a constant 119 120 head permeameter. To see the behavior of the pooled LNAPL and dissolved phase plume, a 121 series of two dimensional sand tank experiments were performed by considering varying 122 groundwater table conditions. A two dimensional sand tank setup filled with homogenous sand 123 was used to conduct the laboratory experiment under (1) steady-state groundwater condition 124 and (2) three different dynamic groundwater table fluctuation conditions, separately. Lastly, 125 the soil-water system was numerically simulated using HYDRUS 2D model considering the 126 laboratory investigated soil-water and solute transport parameters.

- 127
- 128
- 129
- 130
- 131
- 132
- 133
- 134

Characteristic	Values
Туре	Medium Sand
Grain Size	0.5-1 mm
Particle Size > 1 mm	1.71±0.5%
Particle Size 0.5mm-1mm	98.27±0.5%
Particle Size < 0.5 mm	$0.02 \pm 0.01\%$
Effective Porosity	0.33±0.02%
Bulk Density	$1.52 \pm 0.1 g/cm^3$
Grain Density	2.31±0.1 g/cm <sup>3</sup>

Table 1. Properties of the sand used in the laboratory experiments.

#### 137 2.1 Two Dimensional Sand Tank Setup

138 Two dimensional sand tank setup used in the study was specially designed using 2.5 mm thick 139 stainless steel formed box with inner dimensions of 150 cm-long  $\times$  120 cm-high  $\times$ 10 cm-deep 140 (Figure 1). Two wells were installed at each side of tank and front cover of the tank was made-141 up of a thick glass sheet for enabling observations. Indian standard clean sand (650 grade-II) of particle size 0.5-1mm free from organic matter was packed in the central chamber between 142 both the wells up to a height of 90 cm. The top 30 cm thick sand pack was kept as head-space 143 144 to maintain aerobic condition. The porous media was oversaturated before pouring it into the 145 column setup to create a homogenous packing. During this filling, a comb-like metallic tool 146 was used to smooth the sand surface for avoiding a layered structure of the porous media. The 147 extra water was then gravitationally drained out from the bottom of tank setup. The system was then flushed at maximum velocity until the effluent water was free of suspended fine material. 148 149 After each of the experiments, the used sand was replaced with fresh sand pack the new set of 150 the experiments following the packing procedure as describes earlier. The wells were used as 151 upstream (high pressure) and downstream (low pressure) reservoir to maintain the water table. 152 An auxiliary column containing the collected groundwater was connected to the inlet port of 153 upstream well with viton tubes of a peristaltic pump. This peristaltic pump refers as "upstream pump" was used to supply the groundwater to the sand tank through the upstream well. The 154 155 objective of this auxiliary column was to provide sufficient groundwater storage required to 156 maintain the dynamic groundwater table conditions (Figure 1a). Similarly, the outlet of the

157 downstream well was connected to another peristaltic pump (refer herein as downstream pump) 158 to extract the groundwater and recirculate to the auxiliary column. The flow rate of the pumps 159 was adjustable so that the desired pressure difference in the two reservoirs can be maintained 160 and thereby controlling the groundwater flow within the tank setup. A LNAPL release port was 161 installed just below the top surface of sand packing about 20 cm from the upstream well. The 162 sampling ports having equal horizontal spacing of 15.5 cm are situated at 30 and 60 cm height 163 from the bottom of the tank setup in two horizontal layers (figure 1b). Piezometers were attached to the tank to measure the positions of the groundwater table during experiments. 164 165 Filtration screens were fixed around the inlet and outlet valves to prevent the entrance of the 166 sand particles in the connecting viton tubes.

167 A series of tracer transport experiments were performed to determine the longitudinal 168 and vertical dispersivity of sand under fast, base and slow groundwater velocities. A solution 169 of tap water and sodium chloride with an initial concentration of 1000 mg/l was continuously 170 injected to the tank for the selected groundwater fluctuation cases. The water samples were 171 routinely collected from the sampling port located at 50 cm away (at X:45; Y:50 cm) in the 172 lower-gradient side from the injection port of the top sampling layer and the tracer 173 concentrations were measured using portable conductivity meter. The longitudinal dispersivity  $(D_1)$  resulted from the dispersivity flux were estimated using the breakthrough curves (BTCs) 174 obtained from the tracer experiments. Time values corresponding to relative concentration 175 ratios of 84%, 50%, and 16% were used in calculating the dispersion coefficient  $(D_L)$  and 176 longitudinal dispersivity ( $\alpha_L$ ) as proposed by Sulaymon and Gzar (2011). In the equation, 177  $D_{ii} = \tau D_* + D_x$ , the first term resulted from diffusive flux was estimated by multiplying the 178 diffusion coefficient of toluene i.e.  $6.3 \times 10^{-6}$  [cm<sup>2</sup>/sec] and tortuosity of sand i.e. 1.43 179 180 (Sulaymon and Gzar, 2011). The vertical dispersivity ( $D_v$ ) were considered 0.1 times of the obtained longitudinal dispersivity (Dobson et al. 2007). 181

A series of LNAPL transport experiments were performed using 2D sand tank setup for stable/steady and three different groundwater table level conditions. Under steady-state condition, a constant groundwater flux was applied as inflow (using the upstream pump) and the same was extracted as outflow (using the down-stream pump) to maintain a constant flow velocity in the horizontal direction and, hence, keeping the water table location at a constant height. However, in rapid, general and slow groundwater level fluctuation experiments the inflow/outflow flux were controlled by peristaltic pump to maintain a raising of the water table by 5cm in 1, 2, and 4 hours respectively. The groundwater table was then lowered
in the same manner; a drop of 5 cm was achieved in subsequent 1, 2 and 4 hours for rapid,
general and slow fluctuation conditions, respectively. It may be noted herein that "one
fluctuation cycle" refers to a complete high-low-high cycle of groundwater table levels.

- 193
- 194



195

196 197

- Figure 1. Schematic diagram of 2D sand tank setup integrated with an auxiliary column used to investigate fate and transport of LNAPL in subsurface under dynamic groundwater table conditions.
- 199

198

Rising of groundwater table was maintained by pumping the water from the 200 201 auxiliary column to the upstream well and closing the outflow from the downstream well 202 for a target duration of respective fluctuation conditions. Likewise, groundwater falling 203 was maintained by extracting water from the downstream well and closing the inflow to the sand tank from the auxiliary column for the same duration. Such switching of the 204 peristaltic pump was adjustable and calibrated for a target duration of respective 205 206 fluctuation conditions. A brief pumping details of different considered cases are listed in 207 Table 2. To maintain a rise and fall of 5 cm,  $(150 \text{ cm-long} \times 05 \text{ cm-magnitude of fluctuation})$  $\times 10$  cm-deep  $\times 33\%$  porosity) 0.002475 m<sup>3</sup> or 2.475 liters of groundwater was required as 208 209 inflow and outflow. Pure phase toluene was released from the top surface of the tank set up to create a pool of the LNAPL above the groundwater table which was varied in the range of
55-60 cm level from the tank bottom. The toluene (Merck with 99.9 % purity) was injected
at a constant rate of 02 ml/min for a duration of 5 minutes using an air-tight syringe.
Periodically, a small amount of soil water samples from both the layers and the soil vapor
samples from head-space were collected carefully for the analysis.

215 216

Inflow Outflow Pumping Rate Conditions Pumping pumping Total Rise Fall Rise Fall Duration Rapid fluctuation 1 hour 1 hour 2 hours 2475.0 mL/hr Х Х General fluctuation 1237.5 mL/hr 2 hours 2 hours 4 hours Х Х Slow fluctuation 4 hours 4 hours 8 hours 618.7 mL/hr Х Х

Table 2. Inflow and outflow pumping strategies of groundwater table fluctuation cases.

217 218

# 219 2.2 Sample Analysis

220 Soil water samples were collected periodically using needles attached with syringes 221 (Hamilton gold) from the sampling ports embedded in the sampling layers in saturated zone 222 (Figure 1). The samples were transferred into vials (Agilent vials: Agilent Product No. 223 5190/1599) having air tight red septa caps without any air contacts. Similarly, soil vapor 224 samples were collected from sampling ports installed in the headspace. The collected 225 samples were analyzed using Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) (Agilent 226 7890B) in triplicates. A chrompack capillary column (30m×0.25mm, Silicone coating of 227  $0.25\mu$ m) was used for toluene analysis. Helium was employed as the carrier gas at a flow rate 228 of 25 mL/min. Similarly, air and nitrogen were used with a flow rate of 20 mL/min during GC-229 MS analysis. During the measurements, temperature of injection port, oven, and detector port 230 was kept at 150°C, 120°C, and 150°C, respectively. One set of collected samples were also 231 chromatography/combustion/isotope ratio analyzed using gas mass spectrometry 232 (GC/C/IRMS) technique to capture pure phase LNAPL (Dempster et al. 1997).

- 233
- 234

## 235 2.3 Microbiological Analysis

236 The microbial population in the soil water zone was counted using heterotrophic or 237 standard plate count methods (No. 9215C). In this method, colony forming units (CFU) 238 for live heterotrophic bacteria was estimated from the collected soil-water samples during 239 laboratory experiments. The soil water samples for microbial population count were 240 collected from M1 and M7 ports of top layer and M8 and M14 ports of bottom layer (Fig 241 2). After the sample collection, all the collected samples were diluted with a factor of  $10^1$ to  $10^{-5}$  and mechanically shaken for 15 seconds. Growth media was prepared using a 242 combination of 20g protease peptone; 1.5g of K<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>; 1.5 g of MgSO<sub>4</sub>.7H<sub>2</sub>O; and 20g of 243 244 Agar. Final pH of media was adjusted to 7.2 by adding 1N NaOH, before autoclaving at 121°C 245 for 15 minutes. The laminar air flow setup was wiped with the 70% ethanol and UV light for 246 the 15 minutes to avoid any background microbial contaminations. Well marked (sample number, dilution, and date) plates were poured with 30mL prepared growth media and kept 247 still for few minutes to solidify agar surface. Thereafter, diluted samples were inoculated with 248 the help of spreader on agar surface of respective plates. Successively, all the plates were 249 250 incubated for 48 hours at 36±1°C for. After the incubation, colony was counted manually using 251 the quadrate method. Plates having an un-countable number (or too numerous) was considered 252 as overgrowth. In this study, microbial populations were counted with the 12 hours' 253 interval to see the impact of LNAPL transport on microbial growth under fluctuating 254 groundwater table conditions. Thus, above mentioned microbial counting procedures 255 were performed for each experiments separately. A comparative account of such bacterial count during groundwater table fluctuation experiments gives a clear idea on how 256 257 groundwater fluctuating conditions affects the LNAPL fate and transport in the 258 subsurface.

259

## 260 **3**. Numerical Modeling

To solve the dissolved phase LNAPL transport in saturated zone 2D form of mass balance equation used as:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(nS_fC_{if}) = -\nabla (q_fC_{if}) + \nabla (nS_fD_{if} \cdot \nabla C_{if}) + K_{if} - S$$
(1)

Where  $C_{if}$  is NAPL compound in *f* phase [ML<sup>-3</sup>],  $q_f$  is discharge through soil profile [LT<sup>-1</sup>], *n* is porosity of soil [L<sup>3</sup>L<sup>-3</sup>], *t* is time [T],  $K_{if}$  is the dissolution rate of LNAPL [ML<sup>-3</sup>T<sup>-1</sup>] was observed using characteristic length of LNAPL pool and equilibrium concentration in dissolved

phase. Likewise, S is biodegradation rate  $[ML^{-3}T^{-1}]$  (as sink term) was obtained using (control 267 and live) microcosms experiments.  $D_{if}$  is hydrodynamic dispersion [L<sup>2</sup>T<sup>-1</sup>] which was obtained 268 269 using breakthrough curves (BTCs) of tracer transport experiment. The HYDRUS 2D model 270 was used to solve governing equation for water flow and solute transport (Simunek et al. 1996). 271 A two dimensional numerical domain having similar dimension of sand tank was created to simulate soil water flow and LNAPL transport through saturated zones. Thus, in this case  $S_{f}$ 272 i.e. fluid saturation in pore space  $[L^{3}L^{-3}]$  was taken as 1 as the media fully saturated. The 273 simulation domain was discretised in small grids of size 1 mm in a hexahedral geometry for 274 275 solving the governing equation numerically. The Galerkin finite elements method integrated 276 with Crank-Nicholson iterative scheme was used for the solution. The soil water flow and 277 solute transport parameters listed in table 1 were used as model input parameters. The hydraulic 278 behavior or parameters were obtained by inverse solution in HYDRUS 2D (Simunek et al., 279 2012).

280

## 281 **3.1 Initial and boundary conditions**

282 The simulation domain was assigned no background concentration (zero) as initial solute 283 condition. The saturated moisture content was taken as the initial moisture level of the domain 284 and the top boundary was considered as the water table. Right side boundary (was taken as 285 continuous flux by incorporating respective pulse of influx for 1, 2, and 4 hours to maintain groundwater table fluctuation along with base groundwater velocity. Similarly, left side 286 287 boundary was taken as a pulse out-flux for the respective cases. In case of stable groundwater table condition, constant influx and out-flux was taken without pulse condition. No flux 288 289 condition was considered as the lower boundary condition. A LNAPL releasing point was 290 incorporated at same location as of two dimensional laboratory sand tank setup.

291

# 292 4. Results and Discussion

293

The breakthrough curves (BTCs) of tracer experiments under stable and different groundwater fluctuation cases are presented in Figure 2 for rapid, general and slow groundwater table fluctuation conditions represented as GWTF-C1, GWTF-C2, GWTF-C3, respectively. The slope of the BTCs shown in Figure 2 are of similar trend, suggesting that the sand was packed uniformly in each set of experiments without any significant preferential flow paths. The best fit values of dispersion coefficient values are 0.000246, 0.0000171, 0.0000108, 0.0000073 m<sup>2</sup>/s for rapid, general, slow, and stable groundwater table fluctuation conditions respectively.
 Similarly, estimated longitudinal dispersivity values are 1.23, 0.72, 0.28, 0.12m for rapid,
 general, slow, and stable groundwater table fluctuation conditions respectively. The observed
 values of dispersivity was used to simulate dissolved LNAPL plume in identified domain under
 corresponding groundwater table case.



Figure 2: BTCs obtained from tracer test analysis for (a) rapid, (b) general, (c) slow and (d) stable groundwater fluctuation conditions.



312 313

- . .

- 314 315
- 316 4.1 Pure phase LNAPL coverage and dissolution

An effort has been made to capture LNAPL pool area in two dimensional sand tank experiments under stable and fluctuating groundwater cases. For this purpose, periodically soilwater samples were analyzed by GC-MS/IRMS technique (Dempster et al. 1997). The interpreted boundary of pure phase LNAPL pool is presented in Figure 3 which shows a total area of 250, 200, 160 and 70 cm<sup>2</sup> covered under rapid, general, slow and stable groundwater fluctuation cases, respectively.

fluctuation conditions.

Experimentally observed area of pure phase LNAPL pool was used to determine the characteristic length of the pool and for the estimation of dissolution rate. It can be observed from the results that the rapid groundwater fluctuation causes the pure phase LNAPL pool to spread over more area then the stable groundwater case. A high groundwater velocity 327 due to rapid fluctuation in groundwater governs the excess spreading of LNAPL in flow 328 directions. Spreading of pure phase LNAPL over a large area provides more dissolving surface 329 as LNAPL-water interphase to underlying flowing groundwater resulting into more dissolution 330 rates. Similarly, the large LNAPL pool contributes more LNAPL vapour to the overlying 331 unsaturated zone. Further, the volume of water contacting the LNAPL pool surface increases 332 as it spread in large area which also leads to high dissolution rates. This in turn significantly 333 increases dissolved phase concentration load to receiving groundwater and vapor 334 contamination to unsaturated pore air (Dobson et al. 2007; Vasudevan et al. 2014). On the other 335 hand, large coverage of pool contributes more LNAPL mass to capillary ganglia as smaller 336 blobs/fingering, which also play significant role in dissolution under rapid groundwater table 337 conditions. As noted by Sarikurt et al. (2017), the contact time and area of LNAPL-water 338 interphase is significant for dissolution rate and subsequent transport of dissolved LNAPL in 339 subsurface. Similarly, Sulaymon and Gzar (2011) highlighted that length of LNAPL-water 340 interphase plays important role to control the equilibrium concentration of dissolved LNAPL plume. Results of this study confirm that the groundwater table fluctuation causes more 341 spreading of pure phase LNAPL pool itself which ultimately provide more LNAPL-water 342 343 dissolving area in smear zone. High dissolution rate from large LNAPL pool contributes high 344 concentration of dissolved LNAPL to the downgradient ports. The estimated LNAPL pool coverage area under different cases can be used to forecast dissolved LNAPL plume under 345 346 dynamic groundwater flow conditions.

347

#### 348 **4.2 Vapor phase concentrations**

349 The vapor phase LNAPL concentrations are plotted as BTC in Figure 4. The BTC shows a high 350 LNAPL concentration in case of rapid fluctuating groundwater table followed by general, slow 351 and stable groundwater table case. The vapor equilibrium concentration was observed as 210-352 230 ppm in fluctuating condition while 180-185 ppm was observed in stable groundwater case. This means a raising groundwater table carries pure phase LNAPL mass upward and a falling 353 354 groundwater allows LNAPL to move downward. During dynamics of groundwater level, the 355 trapped LNAPL remain behind in smear zone which creates a large interphase area of air-356 LNAPL/water (Powers et al. 1992). Therefore, more vapor phase concentration was observed 357 from the residual LNAPL. These results are in line with the findings of study conducted by 358 Oostrom et al. (2006) with 2D experiments under water table dynamic conditions. The study 359 found a considerable residual LNAPL saturation in smear zone. The high vapor concentration 360 can also be attributed to the partition of LNAPL from large dissolved phase plume having high 361 concentration. Further, lowering of groundwater table increases air-filled porosity in smear 362 zone, which eventually affects vapor phase LNAPL partition. The BTC of different 363 groundwater table fluctuation experiments confirms that the vapor intrusion is highly 364 dependent on the nature of groundwater table conditions (Patterson and Davis, 2009). High 365 vapor LNAPL in unsaturated pores may become toxic for the indigenous microorganisms.

366 367



368 369

372

Figure 4: BTC representing LNAPL concentration in soil air in 2D sand tank under stable and
fluctuation groundwater table conditions.

373 The measured pure phase LNAPL pool area was used to estimate its characteristic length of 374 LNAPL pool  $(l_{(c)})$  under stable and fluctuating groundwater conditions. The observed values 375 of  $l_{(c)}$  was found 15.81, 14.15, 12.64, and 8.36 cm under rapid, general, slow and stable groundwater fluctuation conditions, respectively. The estimated value of mass transfer 376 377 coefficient ( $k^*$ ) are listed in Table 3. The estimated Sherwood numbers (*Sh*) were found 0.95, 378 16.20, 16.95 and 19.30 while Peclet numbers (P<sub>e</sub>) were 1.80, 75.47, 80.14, and 95.06 for rapid, 379 general, slow and stable cases respectively. A high value of Sh indicates that dissolution was 380 a dominating process under fluctuating groundwater conditions. The reason for high Sh can be attributed to the large pool spreading, which provides more LNAPL-water interphase under fluctuating groundwater condition. Further, more contact time of underlying groundwater with the large dissolving LNAPL pool also accelerate the dissolution rate. Likewise, high  $P_{e}$ indicates that the advective flow was dominant than the diffusive flow under fluctuating groundwater conditions. However, one cannot ignore the importance of diffusive flux under stable groundwater flow regimes. The correlation Sh with  $P_e$  is presented in Figure 5 with the coefficient of determination ( $\mathbb{R}^2$ ) value of 0.998. This kind of high correlation between Sh and  $P_e$  was also reported in a recent study by Sarikurt et al. (2017). 







Figure 5: Correlation between *Sh* and  $P_e$ . Red, yellow, blue and green circle represent stable, slow, general and rapid groundwater fluctuation conditions respectively.

Table 3: Estimated values of  $k^*$  and corresponding values of Sh and  $P_e$  under dynamic

groundwater table conditions								
Conditions	Mass transfer coefficient k <sup>*</sup>	Sherwood Number Sh (-)	Peclet Number $P_e$ (-)					
	(m/s)							
GWTF-C1	9.50E-02	19.30	95.06					
GWTF-C2	5.80E-03	16.95	80.14					
GWTF-C3	3.50E-03	16.20	75.47					
GWTF-Stable	1.20E-04	0.95	1.80					

#### 400

#### 401 **4.3 Dissolved phase concentrations**

402 Dissolved LNAPL concentrations as a function of time for all four cases are presented in 403 figures 6-7. In figure 6a, BTC is presented for port 1 (top sampling layer: X:25cm; Y:60 cm) 404 which was situated just below the water table and nearby LNAPL pool. It shows that toluene 405 concentration starts rising after few hours and increases rapidly and then starts attenuating 406 before reaching to a concentration of 200-230 ppm for rapid fluctuating groundwater case. 407 Similar trends were observed for the remaining fluctuating groundwater cases. The higher 408 concentration in the rapid fluctuation case was due to more dissolving LNAPL pool area than 409 general, followed by slow and stable fluctuation conditions. Likewise, BTCs of port 4 and port 410 7 of upper layer are presented in figure 6b and 6c respectively. LNAPL concentration takes 10-411 12 hours and 20-26 hours to reach port 4 and port 7, which was 55 cm and 115 cm away from pool respectively. However, a significant difference in the final equilibrium concentration 412 413 (plateau) was observed amongst different groundwater table fluctuation cases. At this stage the 414 supply from the source and the out flux at the observed down-gradient port (port 7) was 415 reaching to an equilibrium condition. A decreasing trend in the equilibrium concentration was 416 observed as plume moves from up gradient location (port 1) to down-gradient locations (Port 417 4/7) which represents the dependency of biodegradation rate on dissolved LNAPL 418 concentration. In general, the equilibrium concentration of toluene in earlier studies was found 419 quite nearby to its dissolution limit. In this study, the observed concentration of toluene was 420 not able to reach the maximum solubility value of toluene because of (a) limited contact (water-421 toluene) time of opportunity, (b) the concurrent biodegradation of the dissolved LNAPL in 422 sand tank setup. The study shows that more than 150 ppm dissolved LNAPL concentration was 423 found to start inhibiting metabolic actions of microbes causing lower degradation rates then its

424 potential rate. Similarly, a concentration less than 100 ppm provides insufficient carbon sources 425 to microbes resulting in comparatively low biodegradation rate of toluene. The optimal 426 biodegradation rate was found in plume area having concentrations ranges from 120-150 ppm, 427 especially under general groundwater condition. While biodegradation rate become quite slow 428 at port 1 due to high dissolved LNAPL concentration (>150 ppm) and causes toxicity to 429 potential microbes. The biodegradation rate in upper layer was accelerated by high diffusion 430 of oxygen from head space by fluctuating groundwater table.

Likewise, the dissolved LNAPL concentrations are presented in figures 7a-c for ports 431 432 8, 11 and 14 situated in bottom layer. Figure 7a shows that the dissolved LNAPL plume takes 433 10-12 hours to reach at port 8, which is at 30 cm downward from the pool. At port 8, there is 434 very less difference in equilibrium concentrations as compared to port 1. Whereas, a large 435 difference was found in equilibrium concentration of port 11 (Figure 7b) and port 14 (Figure 436 7c) in comparison to port 8 (Figure 7a). This seems due to high biodegradation rates at port 11 437 as compared to port 8, even the port 11 is situated in bottom layers where background oxygen 438 level is low.





(a)	Port	1:	X:25;	<b>Y60</b>
( <del>-</del> -)				







Figure 7: BTCs of (a) port 8, (b) port 11 and (c) port 14 under stable and fluctuating groundwater table conditions.

454 455

456

457 458

The experimentally observed dissolved LNAPL concentrations isolines are plotted as a 460 461 function of space in figures 8a-d. These concentration isolines were plotted using 462 experimentally measured data from all sampling ports (port1-14) including ports situated opposite to flow directions (port RP1-RP2). The objective of these isolines plot is to present 463 464 different concentration zone originated from LNAPL pool under different selected groundwater table conditions. Figure 8a represents concentration isolines originated from large 465 466 LNAPL pool having 15.81 cm under rapid groundwater table fluctuation condition. Thus, large 467 dissolved plume was created with a concentration ranges from 120-160 ppm in initial 12 hours 468 and later reaches up to 200 ppm nearby the pool location. A large area covered by high 469 concentration i.e. greater than 150 ppm causes toxicity to potential microbes and thus low 470 biodegradation rate was observed in this case. Thus, a closely spaced isolines were observed 471 in rapid fluctuating groundwater conditions. Whereas, figure 8b represented isolines of 472 dissolved plume originated from a pure phase LNAPL pool of characteristic length of 14.15 473 cm under general groundwater table fluctuation condition. In this case, the dissolved plume

474 concentration ranges 110 ppm-140 ppm in initial 12 hours and continuously increases upto 160 475 ppm. Less concentration (20ppm) of dissolved plume under general groundwater table 476 fluctuation condition was due to smaller LNAPL pool length then the rapid case. Thus, in 477 general groundwater table fluctuation case, a large area covered by 130-150ppm concentration 478 LNAPL plume become carbon source to potential microbes and causes enhanced 479 biodegradation rates. Similar trends were observed in case of slow groundwater table 480 fluctuation condition as presented in figure 8c. While, comparatively small dissolved LNAPL plume (figure 8d) having less concentration (i.e. range of 70 ppm-100 ppm in initial 12 hours 481 482 and 80-120 ppm in 56 hours) was observed in case of stable groundwater case.

483 In this study, the concentration isolines clearly show the fast transport of dissolved 484 plume in horizontal direction than its transverse movement under stable and fluctuating 485 groundwater conditions. The horizontal spreading of plume was due to advection dominated 486 flow of the dissolved toluene originating from large contact area between LNAPL pool and water. Dissolved LNAPL plume movement in opposite direction of groundwater flow driven 487 488 by diffusive flux is comparative very slow. Whereas, the expansion of dissolved LNAPL plume 489 in the vertical direction under fluctuating groundwater shows the crucial role of dispersive flux. 490 The diffusive flux of the dissolved LNAPL can play a crucial role in LNAPL movement under 491 stable groundwater regimes.











- Figure 8: Concentration isolines presenting the extension of dissolved LNAPL plume
  originated from pure phase source under a) rapid, b) general, c) slow and d) stable
  groundwater table fluctuation cases.
- 504

## 505 4.4 Biodegradation under different groundwater table fluctuation conditions

506 Biodegradation rate of dissolved LNAPL plume originated from pooled LNAPL under stable 507 and fluctuating groundwater conditions was also investigated. For this purpose, spatial 508 biodegradation rates were estimated for port 1 and port 4 of upper sampling layer and port 8 509 and 14 of lower sampling layer. In Figure 9, the biodegradation rates were estimated using 510 corresponding values of equilibrium concentration of upward port and subsequent downward 511 port. Figure 9a presents biodegradation rate of port 4 situated 55 cm away from LNAPL pool. 512 At this location, biodegradation rates of 0.5 ppm/hour, 0.55 ppm/hour, 0.26 ppm/hour, and 0.13 513 ppm/hour were observed for dissolved LNAPL zone with the concentration of 180 ppm, 150 514 ppm, 120 ppm, and 100 ppm under rapid, general, slow and stable groundwater table condition, 515 respectively.

The biodegradation rate was found comparatively low in case of rapid fluctuation than general 516 517 fluctuation because of large high concentration (>150 ppm) region which causes toxic effects 518 on potential microbes lies in this region. While, the high biodegradation rate in case of general than slow and stable groundwater fluctuation conditions proves the dependency of microbes 519 520 on dissolved LNAPL concentrations. Figure 9b represents biodegradation rates for port 7 of 521 upper layer having dissolved LNAPL concentration in the range of 100 ppm-150 ppm. 522 Similarly, Figure 9c and 9d shows the biodegradation rates for port 8 and port 14 of lower layer 523 respectively. Comparatively low biodegradation rates were observed in lower layer ports under 524 stable groundwater conditions, even if the dissolved LNAPL concentration was in the optimum 525 range of 100 ppm-150 ppm. These low biodegradation rate at lower ports was due to 526 comparatively less populated potential microbes due to low oxygen level. While, the 527 biodegradation rates were also increases at lower port in case of fluctuating groundwater 528 conditions. These accelerated biodegradation rate can attribute to the fact that the additional 529 oxygen to background level was added due to fluctuation in water table, which enhance the 530 microbial growth.

531 Microbial population was also counted using standard plate count method for periodically 532 collected soil-water samples from port 1 and port 7 of upper layer and port 8 and port 14 of 533 lower layer. The estimated CFU of collected soil-water samples were listed in table 4. 534 Initially, microbial count of  $216.2-258 \times 10^4$  CFU/mL and  $142.5-147.2 \times 10^4$  CFU/mL was 535 observed at upper and lower layer respectively. In GWTF-C1 case, the microbial count at port 1 increases up to  $305 \times 10^4$  CFU/mL in 24 hours and then decreases to  $78 \times 10^4$  CFU/mL in 56 536 537 hours. Similarly, at port 7, overgrowth was recorded after 24 hours thereafter decreases to  $224 \times 10^4$  CFU/mL in 56 hours. 538

539 The enhanced microbial growth was observed as dissolved LNAPL concentration reached around 140-150 ppm at this location which provides sufficient carbon source to 540 541 microbes. However, when the dissolved LNAPL concentration reaches higher than 150 ppm, 542 it become toxic to microbial community. Increasing microbial count was recorded at both port 543 of top layer due to optimum dissolved LNAPL concentration and sufficient oxygen level in 544 general and slow groundwater fluctuation. Microbial count was recorded very low at port 14 545 of lower layer due to low concentration of dissolved LNAPL and insufficient oxygen level 546 under all groundwater table conditions. Growing population of the microbial community at 547 petroleum hydrocarbon-contaminated groundwater observed due to seasonal groundwater level fluctuations by Zhou et al. (2015). Such microbial analysis may help to implement nutrient and 548 549 or electron acceptor plan to enhance petrochemical degrading microbes.







- 568 different groundwater table conditions.

Condition	Port 1		Port 7		Port 8			Port 14				
	10 <sup>4</sup> CFU/mL		10 <sup>4</sup> CFU/mL		10 <sup>4</sup> CFU/mL			10 <sup>4</sup> CFU/mL				
	Ohr	24hr	48hr	0hr	24hr	48hr	0hr	24hr	48hr	0hr	24hr	48hr
GWFT-C1	254.5	305	78	258.0	0	224.5	147.2	165	135.4	142.5	145.8	165
GWFT-C2	232.1	294.8	304.6	-	285.0	0	145	174.2	235.0	-	164.5	218
GWTF-C3	216.2	285.4	277.5	224.5	288.0	0	144.5	210.5	270.6	-	164.2	235.6
0 0												

*O*= *Overgrowth* 

#### 574 5. Conclusion

In this study, a series of laboratory experiments and numerical modelling was performed to 575 576 investigate fate and transport of LNAPL originated from pure phase LNAPL pool under stable and fluctuating groundwater conditions. Three different groundwater fluctuating 577 578 experiments representing rapid, general and slow groundwater table fluctuation scenarios were conducted by raising/falling water table by 5cm of magnitude in 1, 2, and 4 hours 579 580 respectively. Estimated pool area shows a large pure phase LNAPL pool in smear zone 581 under fluctuating groundwater conditions, resulting in accelerating dissolution rate from 582 large LNAPL-water interphase area. Simulated and observed BTCs show high dissolved 583 LNAPL concentration and large plume originated from large LNAPL-water interphase area under rapid groundwater fluctuation condition. The time of arrival of plume shows that 584 585 transport of dissolved LNAPL was comparatively more in case of rapid fluctuating groundwater condition. A high biodegradation rate was observed in regions having 586 587 concentration ranges from 140-160 ppm of dissolved LNAPL. While, low biodegradation rates were observed for low dissolved LNAPL concentrations (<140 ppm) and also high 588 589 concentrations (>160ppm) which fortifies the dependency on initial dissolved LNAPL 590 concentrations. Further, microbial growth was found to be increasing as plume moves away 591 from the LNAPL pool, which shows detrimental impact of high concentration of toluene on 592 survival of indigenous microorganisms. Overall, this study suggest that groundwater table 593 fluctuations significantly affects the distribution, transport, and biodegradation of the LNAPL 594 contaminants in subsurface. The results of this study may be improved by considering 595 subsurface heterogeneity and fractures. This study may help in design, establishment and 596 implementation of bioremediation techniques to decontaminate LNAPL polluted sites, 597 especially under varying subsurface conditions.

598

# 599 Acknowledgment

600

The authors are thankful to the Department of Science and Technology (DST), India for
funding this research under the scheme of Ramanujan fellowship. Authors are also thankful to
University Grant Commission, New Delhi to provide JRF/SRF for this study.

- 604
- 605 References

- Basu, S., Yadav, B. K., and Mathur, S. 2015. Enhanced bioremediation of BTEX contaminated
  groundwater in pot-scale wetlands. Environmental science and pollution Research.
  22(24), 20041-20049.
- Brusseau, M. L., Zhang, Z., Nelson, N. T., Cain, R. B., Tick, G. R., and Oostrom, M. 2002.
  Dissolution of non-uniformly distributed immiscible liquid: intermediate-scale
  experiments and mathematical modeling. Environmental science and technology. 36(5),
  1033-1041.
- Cherry J.A; Parker B.L; Bradbury K.R; Eaton T.T; Gotkowitz M.G; Hart; Borchardt M.A.,
  2004. Role of Aquitards in the Protection of Aquifers from Contamination: A "State of
  the Science" Report, Published by the Awwa Research Foundation, Denver, CO 802353098.
- 617 Chrysikopoulos, C.V., 1995. Three-dimensional analytical models of contaminant transport
  618 from nonaqueous phase liquid pool dissolution in saturated subsurface formations. Water
  619 resource research. 31, 1137–1145.
- 620 Chrysikopoulos, C.V., Voudrias, E.A., Fyrillas, M.M., 1994. Modeling of contaminant
  621 transport resulting from dissolution of nonaqueous phase liquid pools in saturated porous
  622 media. Transport in Porous Media 16, 125–145.
- Das, D. B. 2002. Hydrodynamic modelling for groundwater flow through permeable reactive
  barriers. Hydrological Processes, *16*(17), 3393-3418.
- Das, D. B., and Mirzaei, M. 2012. Dynamic effects in capillary pressure relationships for twophase flow in porous media: Experiments and numerical analyses. AIChE
  Journal, 58(12), 3891-3903.
- Das, D. B., and Nassehi, V. 2003. Modeling of contaminants mobility in underground domains
  with multiple free/porous interfaces. Water Resources Research, *39*(3).
- Dempster, H.S., Sherwood-Lollar, B., Feenstra, S., 1997. Tracing organic contaminants in
  groundwater: a new methodology using compound-specific isotopic analysis.
  Environmental science and technology. 31, 3193–3197.
- Dobson, R., M.H. Schroth, and J. Zeyer. 2007. Effect of water-table fluctuation on dissolution
  on and biodegradation of a multi-component, light nonaqueous-phase liquid. Journal of
  contaminant hydrology. 94, 235–248.
- Herzyk, A., Fillinger, L., Larentis, M., Qiu, S., Maloszewski, P., Hünniger, M., Schmidt, S.I.,
  Stumpp, C., Marozava, S., Knappett, P.S. and Elsner, M., 2017. Response and recovery

- of a pristine groundwater ecosystem impacted by toluene contamination–A meso-scale
  indoor aquifer experiment. Journal of contaminant hydrology. 207, 17-30.
- 640 Illangasekare, T.H., E. J. Armbruster, D. N. Yates, 1995. Non-aqueous-phase fluids in
  641 heterogeneous aquifers Experimental study. Journal of environmental engineering. 121,
  642 571-579.
- Kamaruddin SA, Sulaiman WNA, Rahman NA, Zakaria MP, Mustaffar M, Sa'ari R., 2011. A
  review of laboratory and numerical simulations of hydrocarbons migration in subsurface
  environments. Journal of environmental science and technology. 4(3), 191–214.
  doi:10.3923/jest.2011.191.214.
- Kechavarzi C., Soga K., Illangasekare T. H., 2005. Two-dimensional laboratory simulation of
  LNAPL infiltration and redistribution in the Vadose zone. Journal contaminant
  hydrology. 76(3–4):211–233.
- Kim, T. J., and C. V. Chrysikopoulos, 1999. Mass transfer correlations for nonaqueous phase
  liquid pool dissolution in saturated porous media, Water resource research. 35(2), 449–
  459.
- Kumar, A., Datta, M., Nema, A. K., and Singh, R. K. 2016. An improved rating system for
  assessing surface water contamination potential from MSW landfills. Environmental
  Modeling and Assessment, 21(4), 489-505.
- Lee, K. Y., and C. V. Chrysikopoulos, 1998. NAPL pool dissolution in stratified and
  anisotropic porous formations, J. Environmental engineering. 124(9), 851–862.
- Legout C, Molenat J, Hamon Y., 2009. Experimental and modeling investigation of unsaturated
  solute transport with water-table fluctuation. Vadose zone journal. 8:21–31.
- Lenhard R. J., Oostrom M, Dane J.H., 2004. A constitutive model for air- NAPL-water flow in
  the vadose zone accounting for immobile, non-occluded (residual) NAPL in strongly
  water-wet porous media. Journal contaminant hydrology. 71(1–4):261–282.
- Mobile, M. A., Widdowson, M. A., and Gallagher, D. L. 2012. Multicomponent NAPL source
  dissolution: Evaluation of mass-transfer coefficients. Environmental science and
  technology. 46(18), 10047-10054.
- Mustapha, H. I., Gupta, P. K., Yadav, B. K., van Bruggen, J. J. A., and Lens, P. N. L. 2018.
  Performance evaluation of duplex constructed wetlands for the treatment of diesel
  contaminated wastewater. Chemosphere, 205, 166-177.

- Nambi, I.M., and Powers, S.E., 2000. NAPL dissolution in heterogeneous systems: an
  experimental investigation in a simple heterogeneous system. Journal contaminant
  hydrology. 44, 161–184.
- Nambi, I.M., and Powers, S.E., 2003. Mass transfer correlations for nonaqueous phase liquid
  dissolution from regions with high initial saturations. Water resource research. 39 (2).
- Neale, C. N., Hughes, J. B., and Ward, C. H., 2000. Impacts of unsaturated zone properties on
  oxygen transport and aquifer reaeration. Groundwater. 38(5), 784-794.
- Nema, A. K., and Gupta, S. K. 1999. Optimization of regional hazardous waste management
  systems: an improved formulation. Waste Management, *19*(7-8), 441-451.
- Nema, A. K., and Gupta, S. K. 2003. Multiobjective risk analysis and optimization of regional
  hazardous waste management system. Practice Periodical of Hazardous, Toxic, and
  Radioactive Waste Management, 7(2), 69-77.
- Oostrom, M., Dane, J. H., and Wietsma, T. W., 2007. A review of multidimensional, multifluid,
  intermediate-scale experiments: Flow behavior, saturation imaging, and tracer detection
  and quantification. Vadose zone journal. 6(3), 610-637.
- Oostrom, M., Hofstee, C., and Wietsma, T. W. 2006. LNAPLs do not always float: an example
  case of a viscous LNAPL under variable water table conditions (No. PNNL-SA-48870).
  Pacific Northwest National Laboratory (PNNL), Richland, WA (US), Environmental
  Molecular Sciences Laboratory (EMSL).
- Patterson B. M. and Davis G. B., 2009. Quantification of vapor intrusion pathways into a slabon-ground building under varying environ- mental conditions. Environ Science and
  Technology. 43(3):650–656.
- Picone, S., Grotenhuis, T., van Gaans, P., Valstar, J., Langenhoff, A., and Rijnaarts, H., 2013.
  Toluene biodegradation rates in unsaturated soil systems versus liquid batches and their
  relevance to field conditions. Applied microbiology and biotechnology. 97(17), 78877898.
- Power S.E. and Heermann S.E., 1999. Potential ground and surface water impacts, appendix
  B: Modeling interface mass-transfer processes" presented in "A critical review: the effect
  of ethanol in gasoline on the fate and transport of BTEX in the subsurface", Editors
  Cannon G. and Rice D., UCRL-AR-135949 Vol.4, chapter 2.

- Powers, S.E., Abriola, L.M., Dunkin, J.S., Weber, W.J., 1994a. Phenomenological model for
  transient NAPL-water mass transfer processes. Journal contaminant hydrology. 16, 1–
  33.
- Powers, S.E., Abriola, L.M., Weber Jr., W.J., 1992a. An experimental investigation of
  nonaqueous phase liquid dissolution in saturated subsurface systems: steady state mass
  transfer rates. Water resource research. 28 (10), 2691 2705.
- Powers, S.E., Abriola, L.M., Weber, W., 1994b. An experimental investigation of NAPL
  dissolution in saturated subsurface systems: transient mass transfer rates. Water resource
  research. 30, 321–332.
- Powers, S.E., Abriola, L.M., Weber, W.J., 1992b. An experimental investigation of
  nonaqueous phase liquid dissolution in saturated subsurface systems: steady state mass
  transfer rates. Water resource research. 28 (10), 2691–2705.
- Rivett, M.O., Wealthall, G.P., Dearden, R.A., McAlary, T.A., 2011. Review of unsaturatedzone transport and attenuation of volatile organic compound (VOC) plumes leached from
  shallow source zones. Journal of contaminant hydrology 123, 130-156.
- Rolle, M., Eberhardt, C., Chiogna, G., Cirpka, O. A., and Grathwohl, P., 2009. Enhancement
  of dilution and transverse reactive mixing in porous media: Experiments and modelbased interpretation. Journal of contaminant hydrology, 110(3-4), 130-142.
- Saba, T.A., Illangasekare, T.H., 2000. Effect of ground-water flow dimensionality on mass
  transfer from entrapped nonaqueous phase liquid contaminants. Water resource research.
  36 (4), 971 979.
- Sarikurt, D. A., Gokdemir, C., and Copty, N. K., 2017. Sherwood correlation for dissolution of
  pooled NAPL in porous media. Journal of contaminant hydrology. 206, 67-74.
- Simunek, J., T. Vogel, and M.Th. van Genuchten., 1996. HYDRUS-2D code for simulating
  water flow and solute transport in two-dimensional variably saturated media. Version
  1.0. USDA/ARS, U.S. Salinity Lab., Riverside, CA.
- Šimunek, J., Van Genuchten, M. T., and Šejna, M. (2012). HYDRUS: Model use, calibration,
  and validation. Transactions of the ASABE, 55(4), 1263-1274.
- Sulaymon, A., and H.A. Gzar., 2011. Experimental investigation and numerical modelling of
  light non-aqueous phase liquid dissolution and transport in a saturated zone of the soil.
  Journal of Hazardous Materials. (186), 1601–1614.

- Vasudevan, M., G. Suresh Kumar, N. Indumathi M., 2014. Numerical study on
  kinetic/equilibrium behaviour of dissolution of toluene under variable subsurface
  conditions. European journal of environmental and civil Engineering. 18(9), pp.1070–
  1093.
- Yadav B.K., and Hassanizadeh S.M., 2011. An overview of biodegradation of LNAPLs in
  coastal (semi)-arid environment. Water air soil pollution. 220, 225-239.
- Yadav B.K., Ansari FA, Basu S, Mathur A., 2013. Remediation of LNAPL contaminated
  groundwater using plant-assisted biostimulation and bioaugmentation Methods". Water
  air soil pollution. 225, 1793.
- Yadav, B.K., Shrestha, S.R. and Hassanizadeh, S.M., 2012. Biodegradation of toluene under
  seasonal and diurnal fluctuations of soil-water temperature. Water, air, and soil pollution,
  223(7), pp.3579–3588.
- Zhang Q, Wang G.C., Sugiura N, Utsumi M, Zhang ZY, Yang YN., 2014. Distribution of
  petroleum hydrocarbons in soils and the underlying unsaturated subsurface at an
  abandoned petrochemical site, North China. Hydrological process. 28, 2185–2191.
- Zhou, A. X., Zhang, Y. L., Dong, T. Z., Lin, X. Y., and Su, X. S., 2015. Response of the
  microbial community to seasonal groundwater level fluctuations in petroleum
  hydrocarbon-contaminated groundwater. Environmental science and pollution
  research. 22(13), 10094-10106.

**CERES** Research Repository

School of Water, Energy and Environment (SWEE)

https://dspace.lib.cranfield.ac.uk/

Staff publications (SWEE)

# Assessment of LNAPL in subsurface under fluctuating groundwater table using 2D sand tank experiments

Gupta, Pankaj Kumar

2019-06-24 Attribution-NonCommercial 4.0 International

Gupta PK, Yadav B, Yadav BK. Assessment of LNAPL in subsurface under fluctuating groundwater table using 2D sand tank experiments. Journal of Environmental Engineering, Volume 145, Issue 9, September 2019 https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)EE.1943-7870.0001560 Downloaded from CERES Research Repository, Cranfield University