1	Contrasting physical controls on subsurface phosphorus transport to
2	shallow groundwater <u>at different<del>at the</del> hillslope <mark>locations</mark>scale</u>
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# 12 Abstract

13	In well-drained agricultural catchments water flow through the unsaturated zone (USZ) to
14	shallow groundwater (GW), and subsequentlimiting soil phosphorus (P) attenuation, transport
15	of phosphorus (P) to groundwater (GW) can be controlled by static and dynamic factors and
16	and where surface water is GW fed this can contributelead to elevated stream P
17	concentrations at the catchment outlet In order to better control P transport to GW at
18	different hillslope locations, along hillslopes a spatial and temporal conceptual view of P
19	transport through the USZ loss to GW must be developed. Initially in the present study,
20	hillslope GW quality and rainfall data were examined for 2017 utilising a transect of
21	piezometers at upslope (US), midslope (MS) and downslope (DS) locations. Two dominant
22	scenarios emerged where GW P concentrations at DS were variable and MS remained low or
23	at other times DS remained elevated and MS remained low. Two dominant scenarios emerged
24	where GW P concentrations at DS and MS were simultaneously low or at other times DS
25	became elevated and MS remained low. To examine the the potential physical reasons for
26	such scenarios, potential reasons for such scenarios, a one-dimensional dual-porosity water
27	flow hydrological transport model was developed for the USZ unsaturated zone at DS and MS
28	using rainfall and depthspecific soil physical and hydraulic data determined from soil water
29	retention curve modelling from undisturbed soil cores. Results indicated that the DS zone was
30	29 % less compacted, had a higher total porosity of 28 % (macroporosity of 13 %), a higher
31	saturated water content of 25 % but a lower soil saturated hydraulic conductivity ( $K_s$ ) of 62 %
32	than the MS zone. This led to lower modelled cumulative water flow (74-78 % of total
33	rainfall) compared to MS (76-80 %) and facilitated transport (higher sand content, soil
34	saturated hydraulic conductivity ( $K_s$ ) and lower soil compaction) with higher flow peaks
35	during higher total rainfall events (4.1-5.2 mm h <sup>-1</sup> at DS, 3.5-4.9 mm h <sup>-1</sup> at MS). This
36	suggested that water flow in the USZ is facilitated and P attenuation processes are more

37	limited at DS during larger rainfall events contributing to higher GW P concentrations at DS,
38	and is exacerbated with shallower GW mobilisinged soil Phigher modelled concentration
39	peaks towards higher GW P concentrations whereas the MS zone had more potential to
40	attenuate transport (lower soil $K_{s}$ and higher soil compaction). Hence, mitigation strategies
41	should particularly focus on reducing P sources in the DS zone but this also indicates a need
42	to identify "hotspots" of facilitated water flow and P transport to shallow GW using finer
43	scale soil properties surveys.
44	Moreover, inter-annual variations of GW P concentrations at DS were related to rainfall and
45	GW level. Hence, mitigation strategies should particularly (but not exclusively) focus on
46	reducing P sources in the DS zone. This also indicates a need to identify "hotspots" of
47	facilitated transport to shallow GW using finer scale soil properties surveys. Here, this is
48	defined by low soil compaction, high sand content and soil $K_s$ . However, challenges arise as
49	soil properties can vary in time with soil management and with the difficulty of assessing the
50	transport potential of deeper soil.
51	

# 53 **1. Introduction**

Phosphorus (P) is a key nutrient for plant growth and food security (Cordell and White, 2014) 54 but it can also be lost from agricultural land thereby contributing to the eutrophication of 55 surface waters (Withers et al., 2014) which is a continuing global problem (Sinha et al., 56 2017). Within agricultural catchments, static (e.g. soil, subsoil and geology (Fenton et al., 57 2017)) and dynamic (e.g. climate (Mellander et al., 2018)) controls on P in groundwater (GW) 58 and surface water are complex. Such controlling factors determine the timing, load, 59 concentration and form of P delivered to a water body (Lintern et al., 2018). Concentrations 60 of P in GW can be influenced by soil properties such as pH and clay % (Mabilde et al., 2017) 61 as well as the presence of macropores or preferential flow paths (Bol et al., 2016; Julich et al., 62 2017; Fuchs et al., 2009). Bedrock P (sediments) and dissolution of P-rich minerals 63 (McGinley et al., 2016) are also known as internal sources of P in GW. Temporal variations 64 65 have been related to GW depth (Mabilde et al., 2017) influencing soil redox conditions and P release from Fe-oxides (Neidhardt et al., 2018; Dupas et al., 2015). Hydrological dynamics of 66 hillslopes shallow subsurface flows are highly variable in space and time (Bachmair et al., 67 2012b) and controlling factors include rainfall (Lehmann et al., 2007; Duan et al., 2017), 68 bedrock topography and permeability (Tromp-van Meerveld and Weiler, 2008; Graham et al., 69 2010) as well as soil properties (Bachmair and Weiler, 2012a): topography (Bachmair and 70 Weiler, 2012a), infiltration capacity, hydraulic conductivity, drainable porosity, moisture 71 content and vertical and lateral preferential flowpaths (Guo et al., 2019; Anderson et al., 2009; 72 73 Wilson et al., 1990, 2017).

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To complement field studies on P transport, numerous models are available and conveniently
 cover a wide range of spatial (from soil profile (e.g., HGS, HYDRUS, PHREEQC) to
 catchment scale (e.g., SWAT)) and temporal scales (from days (e.g., ADAPT) to years)

(Pferdmanges et al., 2020). Water flow models first needs to be developed and validated to 78 model P transport through the unsaturated zone (USZ). HYDRUS 1D is of particular interest 79 for water transport to GW as it is one of the few models explicitly set up for simulations on 80 short periods such as single rainfall events and focuses on vertical flux. Moreover, it offers a 81 wide range of options to simulate preferential (macropores) flow (dual-porosity, dual-82 permeability models), important for P transport, and can be adapted to P using complex and 83 84 numerous specific parameters values and transformation rates (Radcliffe et al., 2015). This model has been used to investigate the vertical distribution and transport processes of P (Elmi 85 et al., 2012) or predict P leaching (Agah et al., 2016), for example. 86

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Despite GW P being subject to microbial cycling, subsurface transport, and immobilization 88 (Neidhardt et al., 2018), processes possibly attenuating belowground P, GW contribution to 89 90 stream P is a concern (Mellander et al., 2016). This can be indicated by a higher contribution of bioavailable P (to total P) associated with a greater proportion of baseflow in rivers 91 92 (Schilling et al., 2017). Therefore, any interpretation of contrasting P concentrations in GW at 93 different monitoring points within a hillslope must include a variety of these factors. Increased characterisation and knowledge of contrasting scenarios is vital if best management 94 95 practices on hillslopes are to be implemented correctly (i.e. right measure, right place) to safeguard water quality (Sharpley, 2016). Catchment scale studies with river and GW data, 96 combined with physical data (meteorological and soil data, GW level), have the best 97 opportunity to reveal transport processes from soils to GW and also subsequent delivery to 98 surface water (Melland et al., 2012; Mellander et al., 2016; Mellander et al., 2014). 99

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101 Combined field and laboratory techniques have used undisturbed (Bacher et al., 2019) or 102 disturbed (Pang et al., 2016) soil, subsoil and bedrock <u>samples</u> that develop datasets to run

model scenarios that best explain the transport of P to GW (Schoumans and Groenendijk, 103 2000; Schoumans et al., 2009). Different levels of data complexity (from simple to complex) 104 affect transport model outcomes and it is therefore preferable where possible to collect 105 106 undisturbed soil cores and develop soil physical and hydraulic parameters (Bünemann et al., 2018). Soil physical data such as porosity, saturated hydraulic conductivity ( $K_s$ ) or bulk 107 density  $(\rho_{\rm b})$ , in combination with soil texture and water storage, can be used in models to 108 assess water and solute transport dynamics through the unsaturated zoneUSZ to GW (Fenton 109 et al., 2015; Vero et al., 2014), in combination with site specific meteorological data 110 (Gladnyeva and Saifadeen, 2013; Vero et al., 2014) and boundary conditions (Jacques et al., 111 112 2008; Vereecken et al., 2010). Combining high quality soil data with high resolution surface water, GW and meteorological data is an important approach towards a greater understanding 113 of the major controls on P transport to shallow GW and thus provide important knowledge for 114 115 GW P risk assessments. However, underground storage and release of P to GW and subsequent transit of P to surface water remains poorly understood (Gao et al., 2010). 116

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118 The aim of this study was to address this knowledge gap and was undertaken in a meso-scale catchment observatory in Ireland with stream P dominantly delivered through below-ground 119 pathwayspressures assumed to be from GW P pathways. Mellander et al. (2016) had 120 previously showed that long-term dissolved reactive P (DRP) concentrations at the stream 121 outlet were consistently above the Environmental Quality Standard (EQS) of 0.035 mg P  $L^{-1}$ . 122 Initial testing of a multi-level borehole network in a connected hillslope revealed spatial and 123 temporal fluctuations in P concentrations. Therefore, the present study examined the 124 connected hillslope in greater detail with theree objectives to: 125

126	1) investigatedetermine the effect of soil hydraulic properties oneontrolling water flow
127	and subsequent P transport through the USZ at different hillslope
128	locationshydrological P transport to GW along the hillslope;
129	1) investigate the effect of dynamic physical controls (rainfall, GWL) on temporal
130	variations in water flow and shallow GW P concentrations.
131	<u>2)</u>
132	examine variations in GW P concentrations in relation to dynamic physical controls;
133	reveal contrasting physical controls on P transport to GW at the hillslope scale.
134	
135	2. Materials and methods
136	2.1. Site description
137	The meso-scale agricultural catchment (7.58 km <sup>2</sup> ) (Fealy et al., 2010) is located in the south-
138	west of Ireland (Co. Cork). A summary of catchment characteristics and long-term outlet
139	concentrations of total dissolved P (TDP), DRP, dissolved unreactive P ( $DUP = TDP - DRP$ ),
140	iron (Fe) and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) are presented in Table 1. The catchment is

141 dominated by well-drained well-drained soils (based on diagnostic features of the soil profile
142 to 1 m and a soil survey at 1:25 000) and permeable bedrock, which results in high levels of
143 infiltration and a groundwater-GW fed main river (Dupas et al., 2017a; Mellander et al.,
144 2016).

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Table 1: Summary of dominant catchment characteristics.

Average annual rainfall <sup>a</sup>	1 1 <u>06</u> 25 mm
Average effective rainfall <sup>a</sup>	<u>582</u> 600 mm
Soil type <sup><u>b</u></sup>	Typical Brown Earth (Cambisol) and Typical Brown
Son type	Podzols <u>(Podzol)</u> (84 %)

Dominant Soil Drainage class <sup>2</sup>	Well drained Well-drained							
Geology <sup><u>d</u></sup>	Highly permeable sandstone, mudstone and siltstone							
Land use	Grassland (84 %), Arable (6 %)							
e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e	$0.119 \text{ mg TDP } L^{-1}$ , 0.078 mg DRP $L^{-1}$ , 0.029 mg DUP							
Outlet water chemistry <sup>£b</sup>	L <sup>-1</sup> , 0.41 mg Fe L <sup>-1</sup> , 1.08 mg DOC L <sup>-1</sup>							
<sup>a</sup> Meteorological station located within the catchment see Figure 1, 2010-2016								
<sup>b</sup> Irish classification system (World Reference Base classification system)								
<sup>c</sup> Irish classification system (well-drained soil: no obvious sign of impeded drainage (mottling)								

150 throughout the solum. Exception where under pasture, sparse mottling may occur in topsoil)

151 delogical Survey Ireland

152 <sup>eb</sup>Monthly grab samples taken within the catchment see Figure 1, 2010-2016 (DOC 2012153 2016)

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155 The hillslope study site consists of a transect of multi-level piezometers screeneding in shallow bedrock and installed to monitor GW level, gradients and water quality (Fig. 1). For 156 the purpose of the present study only the shallow piezometers were used at the downslope 157 (DS) and, midslope (MS) and upslope (US) locations (Fig. 1, Fig. 2). Piezometer screen 158 depths were 4-7 m at DS and, 10.5-13.5 m at MS and 13-16 m at US. Monthly grab samples 159 were taken within the screen depth for chemical analysis using a 200 ml double valve bailer 160 (Solinst, Canada). Samples were filtered (0.45 µm Sartorius) and TDP and DRP were 161 analysed by spectrophotometry after alkaline persulphate oxidation (for TDP) (Askew, 2005) 162 163 and after ascorbic acid reduction (for TDP and DRP) (method detection limit (MDL): 0.005 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) (Askew and Smith, 2005), respectively. Dissolved unreactive P (DUP) was noted as 164 the difference between TDP and DRP. Iron and manganese (Mn) were analysed on a Varian 165 Vista-MPX CCD-Simultaneous ICP-OES, DOC was analysed by a non-Diffractive Infra-Red 166

(NDIR) detector after acidification and combustion and nitrate (N-NO<sub>3</sub>) was calculated as 167 the difference between total oxidized nitrogen (TON) and nitrite (N-NO2) analysed on an 168 Aquakem 600A (Thermo Scientific, Finland) after hydrazine reduction (MDL: 0.1 mg L<sup>-+</sup>) 169 and phosphoric acid diazotization (MDL: 0.006 mg L<sup>-1</sup>), respectively (Kamphake et al., 170 1967). At time of sampling in the field the oxidation reduction potential (ORP) of GW was 171 measured using an Aquaread AP-700 multiparameter probe. Water level and gradients 172 between multi-level piezometers was recorded at high resolution using a Solinst water level 173 174 logger to ascertain direction of recharge <u>infiltration versus up welling</u>. Average (2010-2016) depths to GW level (DGWL) were  $0.30 \pm 0.01$  m at DS and,  $7.20 \pm 0.28$  m at MS and  $11.9 \pm$ 175 0.23 m at US. 176

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Figure 1-(in color): Location of the hillslope piezometers (DS, MS and US) within the context of the catchment, stream channel and outlet. The schematic on the lower right indicates soil types and intact coring location and depth of sampling around DS and MS.



Figure 2: (in color): Geological cross section of the study hillslope showing the location of
the piezometers (McAleer et al., 2017; Mellander et al., 2014). Also illustrated are the stream
and the groundwater chemistry at the study sites (based on monthly grab samples, 2010-2016
DOC 2013-2016).

Using long terms datasets average concentrations of dissolved P and related parameters are shown in **Figure 2**. Site DS had higher P concentrations than at MS and in terms of DRP the stream data indicated long-term (2010-2016) average concentrations above or close to the EQS. It should be noted that there are soil type (based on 1 m depth only) differences at DS and MS/US with Humic-Alluvial Gley\_/Gleyic Brown-Alluvial soil-(Gleysol) and Typical Brown Earth/Podzols (Cambisol/Podzol), respectively.

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### 196 2.2. Field methods - meteorological and soil data

For the purposes of the present study meteorological data taken from a Campbell Scientific
BWS-200 weather station (Fig. 1) from January 2017 to December 2017 were examined.
Absence of rainfall for at least 12 hours was used to separate one rainfall event from another

(Ibrahim et al., 2013; Kurz et al., 2005) and only events having at least 5 mm rainfall were 200 201 included in this process. These data were further sub-divided into 5 rainfall event types (A-E) depending on the total rainfall amount (A = 5.0-9.9 mm, B = 10.0-19.9 mm, C = 20.0-29.9202 mm, D = 30.0-39.9 mm, E = >40 mm). Using the hybrid soil moisture deficit (SMD) model of 203 Schulte et al. (2005) infiltration [mm] was estimated. Both rainfallRainfall, infiltration and 204 SMD data were used during the interpretation of GW TDP concentrations data and to develop 205 modelling scenarios to investigate explain differences in hydrological transport dynamics P 206 207 concentrations over time in the USZ at DS and MS locations.-

208

Undisturbed soil cores (8 cm diameter, 5 cm height) were extracted at two depths (5 to 10 cm,
30 to 35 cm, 4 replicates) within a sampling grid close to DS and MS (Fig. 1). One additional
soil core was taken at each site and depth. Using this strategy, <u>2016</u> soil cores were collected
between January and March 2018 before organic fertiliser (i.e. cattle slurry) was applied.

213

### 214 **2.3. Laboratory methods**

# 215 2.3.1. Undisturbed soil physical and hydraulic data

Soil  $\rho_{\rm b}$  [g cm<sup>-3</sup>] was initially measured using the destructed additional soil cores and 216 subsequently using the destructed undisturbed soil cores following soil physics hydraulic 217 analysis. This was preferred to the direct determination via soil water retention curve (SWRC) 218 analysis as results were distorted by the presence of stones in the undisturbed soil cores. 219 Samples were oven-dried at 105 °C for 48 h and then weighed. Stones above 2 mm were 220 extracted, weighed and their volume was determined. Soil  $\rho_{\rm b}$  was calculated by dividing the 221 soil dry weight by the soil volume. Soil particle size distribution (PSD - sand, silt and clay 222 content [%] (Brady and Weil, 2008)), using the pipette method (Avery and Bascomb, 1974), 223 and soil texture wereas -later determined using the 2 mm sieved soil from the additional soil 224

cores. using disturbed soil samples taken at both locations and depths which were used to 225 ascertain particle size distribution (PSD, sand, silt and clay content [%] (Brady and Weil, 226 2008)) using the pipette method (Avery and Bascomb, 1974). Soil  $\rho_{\rm b}$  [g cm<sup>-3</sup>] was measured 227 using the disturbed soil samples and subsequently using the destructed undisturbed soil cores 228 following soil physics hydraulic analysis. This was preferred to the direct determination via 229 soil water retention curve (SWRC) analysis as results were distorted by the presence of stones 230 in the undisturbed soil cores. Samples were oven-dried at 105 °C for 48 h and then weighed. 231 Stones were extracted, weighed and their volume was determined. The p<sub>b</sub> was calculated by 232 dividing the soil dry weight by the soil volume. 233

234

The undisturbed cores were transferred to the laboratory for the continuous hydraulic 235 measurement of a SWRC in terms of volumetric water content  $\theta_v$  using an evaporation 236 237 method. The Hyprop apparatus (UMS GmbH, Munich, Germany) (Bezerra-Coelho et al., 2018) was used for this purpose and a detailed procedure has been is described in Bacher et al. 238 239 (2019). In summary, the raw Hyprop data from the direct SWRC approach were then-fitted to 240 the bimodal van Genuchten model of Durner (Durner, 1994) - for the retention fitting - with the Mualem-constraint (Mualem, 1976) - for the K<sub>s</sub> fitting - which predicts the shape of the 241 conductivity function from the shape of the retention function, to obtain the hydraulic 242 parameters needed for the subsequent flow modelling modelling phase. This dual-porosity 243 model is a weighted superposition of two van Genuchten functions and is more suitable than 244 the unimodal models to describe the retention functions of structured soils with bimodal pore-245 246 size characteristics. It also fitted better to the data than the unimodal constrained model of van Genuchten (1980). The detailed SWRC modelling steps and procedures are described in S1 in 247 the Supplement. 248

Hydraulic retention and conductivity parameters were then generated for each soil core: soil residual  $\theta_r$  and saturated  $\theta_s$  water contents [cm<sup>3</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup>], soil  $K_s$  [cm d<sup>-1</sup>], SWRC shape parameters  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  [undimensional<u>undimensional</u>; -],  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$  [cm<sup>-1</sup>] and  $\omega_2$  [-]. A statistical analysis ( $E_{RMS}$ ) quantified the quality of the fits for both retention and conductivity.

254

To further interpret varied conditions at DS and MS additional parameters that could control transport to GW were calculated including total porosity  $\phi$  [%], air capacity  $\varepsilon$  [%], macro-, meso- and microporosity [%]. Detailed calculation steps are presented in S2. <u>A list of</u> <u>abbreviations of soil physical and hydraulic parameters is presented in Table 2.</u>

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Table 21: List of abbreviations of soil physical and hydraulic parameters

<u>Symbol</u>	Abbreviation
<u>_b</u>	Bulk density
<u> </u>	Residual water content
$\underline{\theta}_{s}$	Saturated water content
<u>a</u>	SWRC shape parameter: controls the air-entry pressure
	SWRC shape parameter: controls the bending of the retention curve around the
<u>n</u>	air-entry region and the curvature towards the residual water content
<u>K</u> s	Saturated hydraulic conductivity
<u>l</u>	Pore connectivity
<u></u>	Weight of each van Genuchten sub-function
<u>¢</u>	Total porosity
<u>3</u>	Air capacity

261

262 2.3.2. Modelling scenarios of phosphorus water flowhydrological transport to
 263 groundwater

264 Simulations were conducted using Hydrus 1D (Šimůnek et al., 2008; Šimůnek et al., 2013),

265 coupled with appropriate meteorological and soil physical data, boundary conditions, and





270

Figure 3: Conceptual diagram indicating input parameters, boundary conditions,

soil horizon characteristics and model outputs.

272 273

Examination of soil profiles at both sites resulted in the delineation of soil horizons and the 274 determination of the soil profiles depthss (55 cm for both sites). To build a soil profile for the 275 276 dual-porosity model the physical and hydraulic data taken from the undisturbed soil cores were used for both DS and MS locations. Specifically  $\theta_r$  and  $\theta_s$  [cm<sup>3</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup>],  $K_s$  [cm h<sup>-1</sup>], 277 SWRC shape parameters  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$  [cm<sup>-1</sup>],  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  [-], and  $\omega_2$  [-] and soil  $\rho_{\rm b}$  [g cm<sup>-3</sup>] were 278 279 used as input parameters. Median values of soil physical and hydraulic parameters (Table 3) were used to choose the replicate which was the most representative of the site and depth. 280 281 Choice was first based on the  $K_s$  value which was deemed to be the most critical for water transport, then on  $\theta_s$  when two replicates were similarly close to the median value. For each 282

depth the replicate which showed the best fit  $(E_{RMS})$  to the retention and conductivity models 283 was chosen. Hydraulic data of the selected soil core were applied to the soil horizon including 284 this soil core sampling depth and, when no hydraulic data were available for a horizon, the 285 data from the upper horizon were applied. Soil pore connectivity parameter l was set at 0.5 [-] 286 following the original study by Mualem (1976). To determine initial soil moisture conditions 287 along the soil profiles for the subsequent transient flow modelling, steady-state flow was first 288 modelled. A constant water flux of 0.0068 cm h<sup>-1</sup> (average annual infiltration (precipitation – 289 290 potential evaporation) over the period 2010-2017 in the study catchment) with free drainage was applied on both soil profiles at DS and MS. 291 292 To investigate the effect of variable rainfall conditions on water flow through the USZ, 293 transient flow was later modelled at the bottom of the soil profiles at For each location DS and 294 295 MS with o, one model run was carried out for each contrasting (in terms of total rainfall and duration) rainfall event (R1, R2 and R3) leading to six model scenarios in total. The model 296 297 was started at the beginning of the rainfall event and was ended the hour preceding the 298 beginning of the following rainfall event. 299 300 Atmospheric upper boundary conditions with surface runoff were assigned to the model in order to examine the role of soil hydraulic properties and rainfall patterns on water transport. 301 The contrasting rainfall events were expected to affect differently-water transport dynamics 302 differently (and subsequently chemical P attenuation processes).- Hourly (Vero et al., 2014) 303 total precipitation (cm), maximum and minimum temperatures [°C], average wind speed [km 304  $d^{-1}$ ], average solar radiation [MJ cm<sup>-2</sup>] and average air humidity [%] data from 2017 were 305 used as input parameters.- Solute dispersivity was set at 10 % of soil profile depth (Fetter, 306 2008; Šimůnek et al., 2013). A conservative solute was used in order to examine the role of 307

soil hydraulic properties on the potential for P transport to GW. Thus, no soil chemical input
data were used in the models and chemical P attenuation processes in soil are not considered
here. Conservative solute initial concentration at the soil surface was set at 10 mmol cm<sup>=31</sup>
and 1 cm precipitation was applied with no evaporation, in order to initiate vertical solute
movement into the soil profile. Free drainage was specified as the lower boundary condition
(Jacques et al., 2008).

314

# 315 **2.4. Data and statistical analysis**

For objective 1, descriptive statistics of soil parameters were carried out for each depth and 316 site. Soil  $K_s$  values with  $E_{RMS} > 0.90$  were removed for this purpose as they were deemed to be 317 not representative of the soil core. Aanalysis of variance (ANOVAs) was later used to 318 investigate significant (P < 0.05) differences of soil properties between depths within each site 319 320 and between sites for each depth. Residuals plots were used to assess the normal distribution of the residuals and the equal variance of the data; data were log transformed before statistical 321 322 analyses when those conditions were not met. Trends were studied when the variation 323 between replicates was very high (e.g.  $K_s$ ). Pearson R<sub>F</sub> correlations were used to measure the degree of relationship between soil parameters. Statistical analysis was carried out using R 324 Studio 3.5.2. 325

326

#### 327 **3. Results**

#### 328 **3.1. Soil hydraulic properties**

Detailed soil physical and hydraulic data for all undisturbed soil cores replicates of sites DS and MS are shown in Tables\_-S3 and Table-S4, respectively. Descriptive statistics of soil physical and hydraulic parameters for each depth and site are shown in Table 32. Below is a description of the overall (at the scale of the sampling area, including the four replicates)

333	variations observed between sites and depths. The SWRC shape parameters $\alpha_1$ and $\alpha_2$ , $n_1$ and
334	$n_2$ , $\omega_2$ , as well as $\theta_s$ and $\theta_r$ are not presented as they are not considered to be the main
335	parameters controlling hydrological transport to GW. A detailed description of hydraulic
336	parameters is presented in \$5. Soil at DS is a Sandy Loam whereas MS soil has a Loamy
337	texture.
338	
339	Median soil $\rho_{\rm b}$ was higher (not significantly) at MS than DS for both shallow and deeper soil
340	cores. Soil $\rho_{\rm b}$ increased with depth (not significantly) in each site: from 0.85 to 0.95 g cm <sup>-3</sup> at
341	DS, and from 1.22 to 1.28 g cm <sup>-3</sup> at MS. Soil organic matter content (OM %) was higher at
342	<u>DS (8.3 %) than at MS (4.6 %).</u>
343	
344	Median soil $\theta_r$ was equal to 0 cm <sup>3</sup> cm <sup>-3</sup> for shallow soil at DS and at MS while it was equal to
345	<u>0.06 cm<sup>3</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup> in deeper soil at DS. Median soil <math>\theta_s</math> was higher (not significantly) at DS than</u>
346	MS for both shallow and deeper soil cores. Soil $\theta_s$ decreased with depth (not significantly) in
347	each site: from 0.64 to 0.59 cm <sup>3</sup> cm <sup>-3</sup> at DS, and from 0.54 to 0.47 cm <sup>3</sup> cm <sup>-3</sup> at MS.
348	
349	At both sites and for both depths, soil $K_8$ was variable. Median $K_8$ was higher (not
350	significantly) at DS than MS for shallow soil cores and higher at MS than DS for deeper soil
351	cores. Soil $K_{s}$ decreased with depth (not significantly) at each site: from 1-914 to 209 cm d <sup>-1</sup> at
352	DS, and from 1-866 to 1-468 cm $d^{-1}$ at MS.
353	
354	Median $\phi$ was higher (not significantly) at DS than MS for both shallow and deeper soil cores.
355	Soil $\phi$ decreased with depth (not significantly) at each site: from 68 to 64 % at DS, and from
356	54 to 51 % at MS. Median $\varepsilon$ was higher (not significantly) at DS than MS for both shallow
357	and deeper soil cores. Soil $\varepsilon$ increased with depth (not significantly) at each site: from 21 to
358	26 % at DS, and from 14 to 19 % at MS.

359	
360	Median soil macroporosity was higher (not significantly) at DS than MS for both shallow and
361	deeper soil cores. Soil macroporosity significantly decreased with depth at MS - from 43 to 39
362	<u>% - but not significantly at DS - from 50 to 41 %. Median soil mesoporosity and</u>
363	microporosity were comparable between DS and MS for both shallow and deeper soil cores,
364	and both decreased with depth.
365	
366	Soil $\rho_b$ was strongly and significantly correlated to sand (R = -0.828), silt (R = 0.792) and
367	<u>clay % (R = 0.833) as was soil <math>\phi</math> (R = 0.828, R = - 0.794, R = - 0.829, respectively). Soil air</u>
368	capacity $\varepsilon$ was correlated to clay % (R = -0.503).

Site	Depth		$ ho_{ m b}$	$\alpha_1$	<i>n</i> <sub>1</sub>	$\alpha_2$	$n_2$	$\omega_2$	$\theta_{\rm r}$	$\theta_{\rm s}$	Ks	φ	macro	meso	micro	3
			g cm <sup>-3</sup>	cm <sup>-1</sup>	-	cm <sup>-1</sup>	-	-	cm <sup>3</sup> cm <sup>-3</sup>	cm <sup>3</sup> cm <sup>-3</sup>	cm d <sup>-1</sup>	%	%	%	%	%
		AVERAGE	0.89	0.292	2.743	0.103	1.313	0.630	0.03	0.63	2197 <sup>a</sup>	66	49	6	2	22
	5-10	MEDIAN	0.85	0.334	1.643	0.010	1.259	0.638	0.00	0.64	1914 <sup>a</sup>	68	50	6	2	21
		MAX	1.05	0.500	6.267	0.391	1.486	0.822	0.13	0.69	4110 <sup>a</sup>	69	53	9	3	28
	cm	MIN	0.80	0.002	1.418	0.002	1.248	0.423	0.00	0.55	567 <sup>a</sup>	60	43	5	1	18
DS		SD	0.10	0.216	2.040	0.166	0.100	0.142	0.06	0.05	1460 <sup>a</sup>	4	4	2	1	4
03		AVERAGE	0.95	0.365	1.460	0.149	1.353	0.687	0.10	0.58	829	64	40	4	1	24
	30-35	MEDIAN	0.95	0.392	1.336	0.047	1.342	0.674	0.06	0.59	209	64	41	4	1	26
	50-55 cm	MAX	1.04	0.500	2.159	0.500	1.591	0.943	0.27	0.63	2892	67	50	6	3	36
	CIII	MIN	0.86	0.177	1.010	0.001	1.135	0.459	0.00	0.51	7	60	28	1	0	9
		SD	0.06	0.140	0.440	0.206	0.164	0.177	0.11	0.04	1201	2	8	2	1	10
		AVERAGE	1.20	0.139	1.376	0.174	1.438	0.490	0.00	0.55	2981	54	45	6	2	14
	5-10	MEDIAN	1.22	0.118	1.376	0.097	1.408	0.503	0.00	0.54	1866	53	43	7	2	14
	cm	MAX	1.31	0.320	1.522	0.500	1.738	0.630	0.00	0.67	7762	59	53	8	3	17
	CIII	MIN	1.07	0.001	1.231	0.001	1.198	0.326	0.00	0.47	431	50	40	4	1	9
MS		SD	0.10	0.140	0.115	0.203	0.237	0.109	0.00	0.08	2835	4	5	2	1	3
NIG		AVERAGE	1.27	0.250	1.239	0.012	1.545	0.525	0.07	0.48	$2990^{b}$	51	35	4	1	19
	30-35	MEDIAN	1.28	0.250	1.274	0.001	1.564	0.463	0.00	0.47	1468 <sup>b</sup>	51	39	4	1	19
	cm	MAX	1.40	0.500	1.400	0.047	1.753	0.904	0.27	0.52	6464 <sup>b</sup>	57	43	6	2	22
	CIII	MIN	1.12	0.000	1.010	0.000	1.298	0.269	0.00	0.44	1038 <sup>b</sup>	46	18	0	0	15
		SD	0.10	0.181	0.145	0.020	0.168	0.236	0.12	0.03	2463 <sup>b</sup>	4	10	2	1	2

Table  $\underline{32}$ : Descriptive statistics of soil hydraulic parameters for DS and MS

**a**Without replicate 3 for which  $E_{RMS} K_s = 0.9046$ 

371 <sup>b</sup>Without replicate 2 for which  $E_{RMS} K_s = 0.9291$ 

decreased with depth.

Average soil  $\rho_{\rm b}$  was higher (not significantly) at MS than DS for both shallow and deeper soil 372 cores. Soil  $\rho_{\rm b}$  increased with depth (not significantly) in each site: from 0.85 to 0.95 g cm<sup>-3</sup> at DS, and from 1.22 to 1.28 g cm<sup>-3</sup> at MS. Soil organic matter content (OM %) was higher at DS (8.3 %) than at MS (4.6 %). Median soil  $\theta_{\rm E}$  was equal to 0 for shallow soil at DS and at MS while it was equal to 0.06 in deeper soil at DS. Median soil  $\theta_s$  was higher (not significantly) at MS than DS for both shallow and deeper soil cores. Soil  $\theta_s$  decreased with depth (not significantly) in each site: from 0.64 to 0.59 cm<sup>3</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup> at DS, and from 0.54 to 0.47 cm<sup>3</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup> at MS. At both sites and for both depths, soil  $K_s$  were variable. Median  $K_s$  was higher (not significantly) at DS than MS for shallow soil cores and higher at MS than DS for deeper soil cores. Soil  $K_s$  decreased with depth (not significantly) at each site: from 1 914 to 209 cm d<sup>-1</sup> at DS, and from 1 866 to 1 468 cm d<sup>-1</sup> at MS. Median  $\phi$  was higher (not significantly) at DS than MS for both shallow and deeper soil cores. Soil  $\phi$  decreased with depth (not significantly) at each site: from 68 to 64<sup>-</sup>%-at DS, and from 54 to 51 % at MS. Median  $\varepsilon$  was higher (not significantly) at DS than MS for both shallow and deeper soil cores. Soil c increased with depth (not significantly) at each site: from 21 to 26 % at DS, and from 14 to 19 % at MS. Median soil macroporosity was higher (not significantly) at DS than MS for both shallow and deeper soil cores. Soil macroporosity significantly decreased with depth at MS; from 43 to 39 % but not significantly at DS; from 50 to 41 %. Median soil mesoporosity and microporosity were comparable between DS and MS for both shallow and deeper soil cores, and both

398	
399	Soil $\rho_{\rm b}$ was strongly and significantly correlated to sand (r = -0.828), silt (r = 0.792) and clay
400	% (r = 0.833) as was soil $\phi$ (r = 0.828, r = -0.794, r = -0.829, respectively). Air capacity was
401	correlated to clay % (r = $-0.503$ ).
402	
403	Soil physical and hydraulic data used as input parameters in Hydrus 1D are presented in
404	Table <u>42</u> . Spatial variations (between depths and sites) in soil parameters used as input
405	variables, only the replicate showing the best fit $(E_{RMS})$ to the retention and conductivity
406	models was chosen. Values were in accordance with the overall tendencies observed
407	between/within depths and sites and describedexplained previously. An exception exists for
408	the $K_s$ values due to the variability between replicates.
409	

410 Table <u>42</u>: Summary of soil <del>physical and</del> hydraulic data used as input parameters in Hydrus

1D.

# 411

Site	Horizon depth	$ heta_{ m r}$	$ heta_{ m s}$	$\theta_{\rm s}$ $\alpha_1$		Ks	l	$\omega_2$	α2	<i>n</i> <sub>2</sub>
		cm <sup>3</sup> cm <sup>-3</sup>	cm <sup>3</sup> cm <sup>-3</sup>	cm <sup>-1</sup>	-	cm h <sup>-1</sup>	-	-	cm <sup>-1</sup>	-
	0-23 cm	0.00	0.63	0.500	1.816	80	0.5	0.618	0.004	1.256
	02.42	<u>0.00</u> 0	<u>0.60</u> 0	<u>0.284</u> 0.	<u>1.174</u>	<u>17</u> 120	<u>0.5</u>	<u>0.610</u>	<u>0.001</u> 0.	<u>1.591</u>
DS	23-43 cm	<del>.00.</del>	<del>.51</del>	177	<del>2.159</del>		<del>0.5</del>	<del>0.737</del>	<del>090</del>	<del>1.135</del>
	43-55 cm	<u>0.00</u> 0	<u>0.60</u> 0	<u>0.284</u> 0.	<u>1.174</u>	<u>17</u> 120	<u>0.5</u>	<u>0.610</u>	<u>0.001</u> <del>0.</del>	<u>1.591</u>
	45-55 CIII	<del>.00.</del>	<del>.51</del>	<del>177</del>	<del>2.159</del>		<del>0.5</del>	<del>0.737</del>	<del>090</del>	<del>1.135</del>
	0.25	<u>0.00</u>	<u>0.57</u> <del>0</del>	<u>0.320</u> 0.	<u>1.522</u>		<u>0.5</u>	0.630	<u>0.004</u> 0.	<u>1.214</u>
MC	0-25 cm	<del>.00.</del>	<del>.51</del>	<del>001</del>	<del>1.449</del>	<u>94</u> 18	<del>0.5</del>	<del>0.483</del>	<del>191</del>	<del>1.198</del>
MS	05 55 out	<u>0.00</u> 0	<u>0.48</u> 0	<u>0.500</u> 0.	<u>1.400</u>		<u>0.5</u>	<u>0.516</u>	<u>0.001</u> <del>0.</del>	<u>1.298</u>
	25-55 cm	<del>.00.</del>	<del>.44</del>	<del>306</del>	<del>1.311</del>	<u>61</u> 4 <del>3</del>	<del>0.5</del>	<del>0.410</del>	001	<del>1.629</del>

412

# 413 **3.2.** Rainfall events, soil moisture deficit, water table depth and groundwater quality

414 Rainfall during 2017 is presented in **Figure 4a**. During <u>this-that</u> year 56 rainfall events were 415 categorised as follows: 18 events A, 21 events B, 6 events C, 9 events D and 2 events E 416 (Table S56, A = 5.0-9.9 mm, B = 10.0-19.9 mm, C = 20.0-29.9 mm, D = 30.0-39.9 mm, E = 417  $\geq$ 40 mm).



Figure 4: Evolution of (a) monthly groundwater TDP concentrations at sites DS (circle) and
MS (square) and daily rainfall, (b) daily infiltration and soil moisture deficit and (c) depth to
GWL over the study year 2017. Locations of the three study rainfall events (R1, R2 and R3)
are also shown.

Rainfall event R1 [B; long duration with low total rainfall] occurred from the  $6^{th}$  to  $7^{th}$  of February, R2 [D; short duration with high total rainfall] from the  $9^{th}$  to  $10^{th}$  of June and R3 [E; long duration with high total rainfall] from the  $18^{th}$  to  $19^{th}$  of October. Event and pre-event characteristics are shown in **Figure 5**. Total rainfall was the highest for R3 and the smallest for R1 (50.6 and 19 mm, respectively), while maximum rainfall <u>intensity</u> was the smallest for R1 (3.2 mm h<sup>-1</sup>) and comparable between R2 and R3 (6.2 and 6.4 mm h<sup>-1</sup>, respectively).

Rainfall event R3 was the longest (40 h) while R2 was the shortest (15 h). Infiltration during
the event was the highest for R3 and the lowest for R1 (47.1 and 16.8 mm, respectively). Preevent total rainfall (previous 7 days) was the lowest for R1 (25.4 mm) and was comparable
between R2 and R3 (55.8 and 57.2 mm, respectively).

435



436

437

Figure 5: Summary of events and pre-events characteristics.

438

Daily SMD and infiltration for sites DS and MS (well-drained well-drained) over the year 439 2017 are shown in Figure 4b. Frequent rainfall from January to March and from September 440 to December led to SMD less than 10 mm and frequent infiltration with an infiltration -peak 441 of 47 mm occurring in mid-October. From April to July, less rainfall led to increasing SMD 442 with two SMD peaks in mid-May and mid-July above 50 mm. However, rainfall in late May -443 444 early June decreased SMD and led to infiltration in early June. Rainfall of during July-August also decreased SMD but did not lead to infiltrationED, which occured occurred ring later in 445 September. In total, 95 days of infitration infiltration occurred during the year 2017, mainly 446 between January and March (42 days), September and December (46 days) but also-very 447 briefly in June (5 days) and August (2 days). Depth to GWL (DGWL) for both sites is shown 448 in Figure 4c. At MS, DGWL was between 2 and 10 m with variations through the year. 449 Depth to GWL increased in April (to reach 8-10 m) due to low rainfall and high SMD and 450

remained high until September-October. At this time of the year and until December, DGWL
was lower due to low SMD and high rainfall leading to infiltration and GW recharge. At DS,
DGWL was lower than at MS (up to 40 cm in April-September) with GWL sometimes above
the ground level (September-December).

455

Over the year 2017, concentrations in TDP were higher at DS than at MS with a higher
variabileity in concentrations at DS (Fig. 4a). In particular, TDP concentrations at DS were
variable and on some occasions comparable to concentrations at MS on some occasions
between (January and , February, April, June) whereas they remained elevated and were were
higher than at MScontrasted from on other occasions (March, May, July to -December).

461

# 462 **3.3. Modelled <u>water flow</u>hydrological transport to groundwater**

463 Modelled water flow tracer breakthrough curves at the bottom of the DS and MS soil profiles are shown in Figure 6 for each rainfall event R1 [B; long duration with low total rainfall] 464 465 (Fig. 6a), R2 [D; short duration with high total rainfall] (Fig. 6b) and R3 [E; long duration 466 with high total rainfall] (Fig. 6c). It should be noted that the upper boundary condition (atmospheric) was violated 63 % of the time for R3 at DS when the GWL was above ground 467 level. The lower boundary condition (free drainage) was also violated at DS as the depth to 468 GWL was less than 55 cm. Cumulative flow, flow first occurrence and flow peak timing and 469 intensity are shown in Table 5. Tracer first and last occurrences, concentration peak and total 470 transport duration-Modelledls water mass balance was equal to 0.0 % indicating the good 471 472 performance of the modelsare shown in Table 3.





475 Figure 6: Water flow Tracer breakthrough curves at the bottom of the soil profiles DS and MS
476 for rainfall events (a) R1 [B; long duration with low total rainfall], (b) R2 [D; short duration
477 with high total rainfall] and (c) R3 [E; long duration with high total rainfall].

Table <u>5</u>3: <u>Water flow Tracer</u> breakthrough characteristics at sites DS and MS

<u>Site</u>	<u>Rainfall</u> <u>event</u>	<u>Cumulative</u> <u>water flow</u> [cm - % total <u>rainfall]</u>	<u>Water</u> <u>flow first</u> <u>occurrence</u> [ <u>h]</u>	<u>Water</u> <u>flow peak</u> <u>[h]</u>	<u>Water flow</u> <u>peak</u> [cm h <sup>-1</sup> ]
	<u>R1</u>	<u>1.4 – 74 %</u>	<u>17</u>	<u>22.5</u>	<u>0.05</u>
<u>DS</u>	<u>R2</u>	<u>2.5 – 76 %</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>11.7</u>	<u>0.41</u>
	<u>R3</u>	<u>4.0 – 78 %</u>	<u>33</u>	<u>35.4</u>	<u>0.52</u>
	<u>R1</u>	<u>1.5 – 79 %</u>	<u>15</u>	<u>20.5</u>	0.05
<u>MS</u>	<u>R2</u>	<u>2.5 – 76 %</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>12.2</u>	<u>0.35</u>
	<u>R3</u>	<u>4.1 – 80 %</u>	<u>33</u>	<u>35.4</u>	<u>0.49</u>

for rainfall events R1, R2 and R3.

482	Cumulative water flow at the bottom of the soil profiles ranged from 74 to 80 % of total
483	rainfall input and was similar between DS and MS during R2 and higher at MS than at DS
484	during R1 and R3. Cumulative water flow was equal to 1.4, 2.5 and 4.0 cm at DS after
485	rainfall events R1, R2 and R3, respectively. It was equal to 1.5, 2.5 and 4.1 cm at MS after
486	these same events. First occurrence of water flow, resulting from the rainfall event, at the
487	bottom of the soil profiles occurred at the same time for both sites DS and MS (during R2 and
488	R3: after 11 and 33 h, respectively) or earlier at MS than at DS (during R1: after 17 and 15 h
489	at DS and MS, respectively). Water flow peak occurred earlier at DS (11.7 h) than at MS
490	(12.2 h) during R2 and earlier at MS (20.5 h) than at DS (22.5 h) during R1. Its intensity was
491	similar between DS and MS during R1 and higher at DS $(0.41 - 0.52 \text{ cm h}^{-1})$ than at MS
492	$(0.35 - 0.49 \text{ cm h}^{-1})$ during R2 and R3.
493	
494	For both sites DS and MS, cumulative water flow was the lowest during R1 [B; long duration

496 Water flow first occurrence and flow peak occurred earlier during R2 [D; short duration with
497 high total rainfall] and later during R3 where flow peak intensity was also the highest. Water
498 flow peak intensity was the lowest during R1.

499

# 500 **4. Discussion**

This study investigathighlighted the spatial variability in water flow dynamics the spatial 501 variability of P in soil profiles hydrological transport through the soil profile of two locations 502 to GW along within a hillslope of contrasting GW P concentrations, and examined the inter-503 annual variability in water flow dynamicsvariability o and GW P concentrationsf GW P 504 concentrations. A range of modelled soil hydraulic properties and subsurface water flow 505 506 dynamics transport capacities were identified to 1) determine static soil properties controlling 507 water flow at different hillslope locations and 2) determine dynamic physical controls on temporal variations in water flow and shallow GW P concentrations to suggest potential 508 mitigation strategies to reduce P transport to GW. 1) determine static soil hydraulic properties 509 controlling hydrological transport to GW along the hillslope, 2) examine variations in GW P 510 concentrations in relation to dynamic physical controls and 3) reveal contrasting physical 511 controls on the potential for P transport to GW at the hillslope scale. The combined analysis 512 of high resolution meteorological data, high resolution soil physical/hydraulic data and GW 513 chemical data revealed contrasting contrasting spatial (soil) and temporal (rainfall, GWL) 514 515 water flow dynamics, and subsequent P transport and attenuation potential, at different hillslope locations. 516

517 P hydrological transport potential to GW along the hillslope in relation to the existence of a
518 static system (soil) and a dynamic system (rainfall, GWL, soil moisture), respectively. The
519 DS zone showed a higher hydrological transport potential with favourable soil properties and

520 geochemical processes towards high and variable GW P concentrations. The MS zone was
521 characterised by limited hydrological transport potential.

522

# 523 4.1. <u>Spatial variability in subsurface water flow</u> <u>Spatial variability in hydrological</u> 524 transport to groundwater

The potential for hydrological transport to GW varies within the same hillslope and is 525 determinedis determined by soil physical and hydraulic properties, which also influence P 526 sorption in the USZ and P transport to GW. - The undisturbed soil cores study-studied 527 528 suggested that the DS zone had there was a lowerhigher potential for hydrological P transport than the MS zone to GW in the DS zone (Fig. 7) due to a lower soil  $K_s$ , critical for water 529 <u>flow, despite its lower soil compaction</u> (bulk density  $\rho_b$ ) and higher soil  $\phi$  and macroporosity. 530 531 In contrast, the higher soil  $K_s$  in the MS zone, and despite its higher soil  $\rho_b$ , lower soil  $\phi$  and macroporosity, suggested a higher potential for vertical water flow in this zone (Fig. 7). 532 However, water flow modelled at the bottom of the soil profiles using Hydrus 1D (Fig. 6) did 533 not clearly reflected the differences in soil  $K_s$  between DS and MS. Higher water flow peaks 534 at DS (Table 4, Fig. 6) during high total rainfall events indicated the higher potential for 535 water flow though the USZ at this site, even though water flow first occurrence did not 536 appear earlier than at MS. In contrast, lower water flow peaks at MS (Table 4, Fig. 6) during 537 high total rainfall events indicated the lower potential for water flow though the USZ at this 538 539 site. Cumulative flow at the bottom of the soil profiles, lower at DS than at MS, and independently of the rainfall event (**Table 4**), reflected the differences in soil  $\theta_s$  and soil 540 water storage capacity which were higher at DS. However, as the depth to GWL was less 541 542 than 55 cm at DS and was higher than 55 cm at MS, stronger differences in the timing and intensity of water flow reaching GW should be expected. High temporal resolution 543 monitoring of GWL (Fig. 4c) also revealed a quick recharge of the aquifer at DS (although 544

545	GWL is higher at this location) after rainfall events with a slow recovery to original water
546	table positions whereas at MS response action to rainfall was slower. soil $K_s$ . This was
547	supported by the Hydrus 1D scenario modelling, where flashier tracer transport and higher
548	concentration peaks were evident (Table 3, Fig. 6), and which was independent of the type of
549	rainfall event (duration, total rainfall). In contrast, the MS zone was more compacted (higher
550	soil $\rho_{\rm b}$ ) with lower soil $K_{\rm s}$ , suggesting an attenuation of hydrological P transport to GW ( <b>Fig.</b>
551	7). This was supported by the modelling indicating longer total tracer transport duration with
552	lower concentration peaks, independent of the type of rainfall event, even though the tracer
553	first occurrence appeared earlier in the MS zone (Table 3, Fig. 6). Higher $\phi$ , $\varepsilon$ and
554	macroporosity measured from undisturbed soil cores were also characteristics of the DS zone
555	supporting the higher potential for hydrological P transport in this zone. High temporal
556	resolution monitoring of GWL (Fig. 4c) also revealed a quick recharge of the aquifer at DS
557	(although GWL is higher at this location) after rainfall events with a slow recovery to original
558	water table position whereas at MS reaction to rainfall was slower.



Figure 7-(in color): Schematic of contrasting groundwater P concentrations scenarios: (a)
 <u>High GWL:</u> contrasting concentrations between the DS and MS zones with higher\_P

concentrations <u>at in the DS zone</u> due to the hydrological connection with soil P and (b) <u>Low</u> <u>GWL: lower concentrations at DS and similar to concentrations between the DS and MS</u> zones with lower P concentrations in the DS zone due to the hydrological disconnection with soil P. In both scenarios the DS-zone <u>soil properties facilitate evidence a higher potential for</u> <u>subsurface P-water flow to shallow GW.hydrological transport to groundwater: shorter</u> transport duration through the soil profile and transport distance to groundwater.

Observed spatial-variability of soil hydraulic properties and water flow is supported to some extent by DeFauw et al. (2014) who observed no significant differences in infiltration dynamics between evaluated hydraulic properties of surface soils at varying microtopographic positions and found that the infiltration rates were approximately twofold higher at the micro-topographic low position (thicker soil) and than at the high position (thinner soil). However, -Hendrayanto et al. (1999) observed smaller soil  $K_s$  at upper slope locations compared to mid-slope or down-slope locations, which has not been observed in this study and may be related to the high variability between replicates. Differences in soil texture and PSD, related to the slope position, may explain the differences of soil hydraulic properties between DS and MS, since hydraulic conductivities are coupled to the grain size distribution of soils (Mahmoodlu et al., 2016; Pachepsky and Rawls, 2003; Pachepsky et al., 2006). However, other studies found that saturated hydraulic properties at the position with a thinner soil were higher than at the position with a thicker soil (Dai et al., 2019). In this study, there was no significant difference in soil thickness at DS and MS (**Table 2**). However, there was a difference in soil texture. In this study, soil  $\rho_b$  and  $\phi$  were linked to soil

PSD percentage of sand, silt and clay and indicated that sandy soils enhance water flow
 whereas have more potential for hydrological transport to GW whereas clay soils can
 attenuate- it. Moreover, and even though both sites are under grassland with large root

systems, the higher soil OM % at DS was reflected in the higher soil porosity which can be related due to greater formation and hierarchy of aggregates (Daynes et al.,  $2013_{i_7}$  Hirmas et al., 2013). Annual cropping activities with heavy machinery, more frequent in the MS zone (fertilization, grass harvesting, grazing) than in the DS zone (grazing, fertilization), can also contribute to the higher soil  $\rho_{\rm b}$  compaction, lower soil macroporosity (Pagliai et al., 2004) and soil OM % (Franzluebbers et al., 2014; Gimenez et al., 2002) observed at MS and influence water infiltration.

596 transport

597 However, this study focused only on the first 55 cm of soil and incorporated some uncertainties regarding the vertical variations of soil hydraulic properties at DS where two 598 consecutive horizons were assumed to be similar to model water flow. It is also difficult to 599 600 estimate water flow reaching GW in the MS zone where the GW table is deeper. Further 601 work is needed to have a better understanding of the vertical physical heterogeneity of the deeper soil, especially where the GW table is deeper. Despite these limitations, the results 602 indicate that there is less time for P sorption to occur in the DS zone as water flow is a 603 quicker process. Interaction between soil solution P and the soil matrix is also likely reduced 604 due to more water flowing via macropores and bypassing the sorption sites at DS. These 605 hypotheses should be further investigated by incorporating soil chemical data in the models 606 607 to account for P transport including colloidal P. Mitigation strategies to reduce GW P 608 concentrations should prioritize the DS zone even though deeper GW flowpaths from the MS zone or upslope could be a potential source of P to the DS zone. 609 as soil  $\varepsilon$  was negatively correlated to the percentage clay. Even if soil  $\rho_{b}$  increased with depth 610 at both sites and may thus attenuate hydrological transport along the soil profile, the 611

612 shallower GWL at DS may reach the upper soil layers exhibiting higher hydrological

613 transport potential and lead to shorter P transport distances (**Fig. 7**).

614

However, the present study focused only on the topsoil (first 40 cm) and further work is needed to have a more complete understanding of the vertical physical variability/heterogeneity of the deeper soil, especially where the GW table is deeper as it is the case at the MS location. Soil chemical properties have also to be considered, especially in soils rich in P-binding materials (Fe, Al, Ca, clay, OM), to take into account possible attenuation processes (sorption/desorption, precipation/dissolution) occurring along the soil profiles and controlling P transport to GW (timing, concentration). For this transect in particular, the DS zone showed evidence of higher soil OM %, labile inorganic P and degree of P saturation (DPS) (measured in composite soil samples — not presented here) that could enhance the amount of P transport.

# 4.2. <u>Inter-annual variability in subsurface water flow</u><u>Inter-annual variability in</u> hydrological transport to groundwater

The potential for hydrological transport to GW, and subsequent P transport, also varied within the same hillslope zone and appeared to be linked to the inter-annual dynamic of other physical controls <u>such as (GWL, soil moisture, rainfall and GWL)</u>, as observed over the year 2017. Modelling of water flow at the bottom of the soil profiles during contrastinged rainfall events using Hydrus 1D showed that rainfall pattern influenced water flow. It was flashier with higher flow peaks during the high total rainfall events than during the low total rainfall event which suggested less time for P attenuation processes to occur when water flows during short and intense rainfall events and during longer rainfall events of autumn-winter leading to higher GWP concentrations.

639	
640	Moreover, seasonal variations in GW P concentrations revealed at the DS zone by monthly
641	monitoring appeared to be controlled by GWL fluctuations. Seasonal variations in GW P
642	concentrations revealed at the DS zone by monthly monitoring appeared to be, in part,
643	controlled by GWL fluctuations. Shallower GW, especially after rainfall events or (August
644	- December) during wet periods (August December) (Fig. 4c, Fig. 7a), may lead to lower
645	water flow travel time through the USZ, compared to dry periods where the GWL is deeper,
646	and further reduce P attenuation processes. It may also ledlead to reductive dissolution of soil
647	Fe hydroxides being solubilised as Fe <sup>2+</sup> and releasing P previously adsorbed (Vidon et al.,
648	2010)., a mechanism observed under anoxic conditions. This can be important in the DSthis
649	zone where where shallow GW can connect with and mobilise a higher soil P source as
650	chemical tests on composite soil samples revealed a higher soil labile inorganic P content (90
651	mg kg <sup>-1</sup> ) and DPS (-8.3 %) at DS than at the MS zone (45 mg kg <sup>-1</sup> and 4.0 %, respectively)
652	(Fresne et al., 2020)not presented here), where GWL is also deeper Previous GW
653	monitoring-of the GW-also showed low N-NO3 <sup>-</sup> concentration (mean annual concentrations
654	of 0.03 $\pm$ 0.01 mg L <sup>-1</sup> ) due to denitrifying conditions (mean annual ORP of 6.0 $\pm$ 1.8 mV)
655	(McAleer et al., 2017) and higher Fe (4-712 $\pm$ 1-526 $\mu g$ $L^{\text{-1}})$ and Mn (2-928 $\pm$ 197 mg $L^{\text{-1}})$
656	concentrations at DS than compared to at the MS zone; this supports the hypothesis of Fe
657	oxyhydroxide reduction. Organic riparian soils are known as internal sources of soluble
658	reactive P (Dupas et al., 2017b; Gu et al., 2017; Records et al., 2016) due to poor retention
659	capacities (Daly et al., 2001; Roberts et al., 2017) and where soil solution P concentrations
660	have been strongly linked to GWL dynamics (Dupas et al., -(2015). In contrastry, -showed
661	that soil solution P concentrations in riparian wetlands were strongly linked to GWL
662	dynamics. Shallow GWL may connect with and mobilise more soil P as the pool and/or
663	mobility of soil P decreases with depth, this is especially important as a higher soil labile

664	inorganic P content has been measured at DS compared to MSOrganic riparian soils are
665	known as internal sources of soluble reactive P (Dupas et al., 2017b; Gu et al., 2017; Records
666	et al., 2016) due to poor retention capacities (Daly et al., 2001; Roberts et al., 2017) and their
667	high proportion in a catchment has been strongly related to higher stream soluble reactive P
668	concentrations (Dupas et al., 2018). At the MS zone, the soil showed lower soil labile
669	inorganic P, DPS and higher total Fe contents than at DS possibly attenuating P in GW, also
670	deeper at this location. Moreover, hydrochemical GW data rat MS revealed nitrification
671	processes (mean annual ORP of $162.5 \pm 3.5$ mV) occurring (McAleer et al., 2017). This site
672	had higher annual mean N-NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> concentration (7.21 $\pm$ 0.38 mg L <sup>-1</sup> ) but lower Fe (3.85 $\pm$ 0.87
673	$\mu$ g L <sup>-1</sup> ) and Mn concentrations (2.87 ± 0.74 mg L <sup>-1</sup> ) than at-the DS-zone. This suggests that
674	reduction of Fe hydroxides is limited and may support lower GW P concentrations measured
675	at this site. However, as the GW table sinks during dry periods in the DS zone in April, or
676	later in the year in the MS zone (Fig. 7b), it may leave the higher P sources in the topsoil
677	disconnected and increase water flow travel time enhancing P attenuation processes.
678	
679	However, P concentrations measured in GW can result from a combination of vertical P
680	leaching from soil and lateral flows within the aquifer transporting P from the upper hillslope
681	which are not considered here. Further work is needed including acquisition of higher
682	resolution GW chemical data to get a better understanding of the main processes explaining
683	
	inter-annual P dynamics, especially in the near stream zone DS. Inclusion of the different P
684	inter-annual P dynamics, especially in the near stream zone DS. Inclusion of the different P species and fractions, including colloidal P (1-1000 nm), would be an important improvement
684 685	
	species and fractions, including colloidal P (1-1000 nm), would be an important improvement
685	species and fractions, including colloidal P (1-1000 nm), would be an important improvement into understanding such processes. Remediation measures should prioritise reducing-the

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applications (as synthetic or organic fertilizers) on the MS zone and the upslope should also be considered. -

Soil moisture conditions also appeared to be important as soil rewetting after dry periods could explain peaks in GW P concentrations in May (Fig. 4a, 4b), revealed by monthly GW monitoring, through release of microbial P by osmotic shock (Blackwell et al., 2010; Turner and Haygarth, 2001) or loss of colloidal P (1-1000 nm) via preferential flowpaths in macropores (Poulsen et al., 2006; Vendelboe et al., 2011). Morover, monthly monitoring of GW also revealed contrasting P concentrations between February (DS lower and comparable to MS) and October (DS higher, MS lower) where soil moisture conditions were comparable (Fig. 4a, 4b). This could be related to rainfall patterns as the Hydrus 1D scenario modelling showed that tracer first occurrence and peak appeared earlier during rainfall event R3 [October; long duration with high total rainfall] than during rainfall event R1 [February; long duration with low total rainfall]. Tracer total transport duration was also lower during rainfall event R3 than R1 (Table 3) suggesting that P reaction time with the soil matrix is lower and attenuation processes are more limited during this type of rainfall event, thus potentially explaining higher GW P concentrations.

However, P concentrations measured in GW can result from a combination of vertical P 707 leaching from soil and lateral flows within the aquifer transporting P from the upper hillslope which are not considered here. Further work is needed including acquisition of higher 708 resolution GW chemical data to get a better understanding of the main processes explaining 709 inter annual P dynamics, especially in the near stream zone DS. Inclusion of the different P 710 species and fractions, including colloidal P, would be an important improvement into 711 understanding such processes. Monitoring of stream P fractions and species and 712
713 determination of hydrological pathways would also be important to determine the contribution of the different hillslope zones. Indeed, previous research in catchments with 714 similar shallow GW systems and presence of riparian wetlands have shown that seasonal 715 716 variability of stream soluble reactive P was linked to the contribution of different hillslope compartments (Dupas et al., 2017a). 717

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#### 5. Conclusion 719

Both static and dynamic factors influence water flow through the USZ hillslope P transport to 720 721 shallow GW,- controlling soil P attenuation processes, and therefore can therefore contribute to spatial and temporal variations in GW P concentrations can vary both spatially and 722 723 temporally over short distances. HereinIn this study, two conceptual views of the hillslope 724 emerged. The first corresponds to variable concentration at DS, on some occasions low and similar and low to concentrations between the DS and at -MS, zones due to less connection 725 726 between GW and soil P (lower GWL),and slower water flow and also-longer water-P travel 727 time to GWwithin the soil profile where P attenuation processes can occur, even though the DS zone has more potential for hydrological transport than the MS zone due to its soil 728 729 physical physical and hydraulic properties.— The second corresponds to contrasting concentrations between the DS and MS zones with the DS zone becoming temporally 730 elevated due to the hydrological connection (high GWL) with soil P (higher GWL), flashier 731 732 water flow and and shorter water travel time\_-to GW within the soil profile. Hence,- soil physical and hydraulic properties control are important for water flow and travel time 733 hydrological transport to GW, and subsequent P transport to GW, and should be considered 734 to better target cost-effective mitigation measures. R-by prioritising reduction of P sources 735 (from grazing or fertilization limitation, reduction of P applications on the connected 736 hillslope) should be prioritized in zones of higher potential for hydrological transport or r38 <u>shallow GWL</u> as <u>the near-stream</u> the DS zones. Here they are characterised by a lower soil
r39 compaction, higher K<sub>s</sub> and a sandy soil texture.

740

# 741 Author contribution

MF: Conceptualization, Methodology, Validation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Data
curation, Writing – original draft, Writing – reviewing and editing, Visualization. OF:
Conceptualization, Methodology, Validation, Resources, Writing – reviewing and editing,
Supervision. PEM: Conceptualization, Methodology, Resources, Writing – reviewing and
editing, Funding acquisition. PJ and KD: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing –
reviewing and editing.

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## 749 **Competing interests**

750 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

751

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