



1 **Continuous Monitoring of a Soil Aquifer Treatment System’s Physico-Chemical**
2 **Conditions to Optimize Operational Performance**

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13 **Highlights**

- 14 • *Long wetting stages reduce soil percolation capabilities during winter.*
15 • *E_h and gaseous O_2 display intensive dynamics in the top 25 cm of the SAT vadose zone.*
16 • *Optimal wetting and drying stages are defined according to E_h and gaseous O_2*
17 *observations.*
18 • *The length of wetting and drying stages should be defined separately rather than by*
19 *adhering to their ratio.*

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22



23 **Abstract**

24 Soil aquifer treatment (SAT) is a tertiary process for wastewater treatment where the wastewater
25 infiltrates through a thick vadose zone for purification and storage in the underneath aquifer.
26 SAT infiltration basins are typically flooded intermittently, while maintaining a fixed ratio
27 between the wetting and the drying stages. However, infiltration basins exhibit different physical
28 and chemical properties, limiting the generalization of SAT operation to attain optimal
29 efficiency. Since frequent sampling of the soil pore water to verify the SAT's biodegradation
30 efficiency can be arduous, continuous monitoring of the SAT vadose zone's physico-chemical
31 conditions is required. In this study, redox potential (E_h) was continuously monitored, together
32 with other variables such as water content (θ), soil temperature, and gaseous oxygen (O_2), at
33 multiple depths of a SAT vadose zone throughout the year and while the system was constrained
34 to different operational modes. Hydrological models were calibrated and validated to water
35 content observations, and they illustrated the seasonal changes in water infiltration. Furthermore,
36 it was shown that under long wetting stages during winter, there was a reduction in the SAT's
37 drainage capabilities. The E_h observations, under long wetting stages, demonstrated larger
38 variability and very negative values as ambient temperature increased. Assembling the daily E_h
39 observations illustrated that a wetting stage should cease after about 30 hours, once suboxic
40 conditions are established. A drying stage's optimal duration should be 36 hours, according to
41 the E_h and O_2 observations during summer and winter. Ultimately, the study shows that the
42 length of wetting and drying stages should be defined separately, rather than by adhering to the
43 wetting/drying ratio.

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46 **1 Introduction**

47 Worldwide water scarcity has motivated the development of alternative water resources such as
48 the reuse of treated wastewater. Soil aquifer treatment (SAT) is commonly implemented to
49 further improve the recovered water's quality and remove the majority of suspended matter,
50 microorganisms, viruses, and organic and inorganic constituents (Dillon, 2005; Goren et al.,
51 2014; Massmann et al., 2006; Schmidt et al., 2011; Tsangaratos et al., 2017). In SAT systems,
52 the treated wastewater is recharged to the underlying aquifer by surface spreading over
53 infiltration basins. The wastewater is purified mainly through the physical and biochemical
54 processes that occur during water passage through the vadose zone (Dillon, 2005; Elkayam et al.,
55 2015). Although SAT systems have been used for decades (Grinshpan et al., 2021; Bouwer,
56 2002), the ability to estimate and predict a SAT system's performance is still challenging, and
57 the optimal SAT operation is still under investigation (Ben Moshe et al., 2020; Sharma and
58 Kennedy, 2017).

59 A major uncertainty in SAT systems concerns the vadose zone processes that play a central role
60 in determining the quality of the water that recharges the aquifer (Elkayam et al., 2015). The
61 chemistry of the percolating wastewater changes due to a combination of several biogeochemical
62 processes, such as organic matter biodegradation, nitrification, sorption, cation exchange, etc.
63 (Amy and Drewes, 2007; Díaz-Cruz and Barceló, 2008; Goren et al., 2014; Miller et al., 2006;
64 Tufenkji et al., 2003). Most of the organic matter is removed by biodegradation (i.e. microbial
65 activity) within the upper two meters of the vadose zone (Drewes, 2009). Nevertheless, the
66 microbial activity is greatly affected by the soil water content, which frequently changes in SAT.
67 Generally, a major challenge in SAT systems is to facilitate the intrusion of O₂, primarily in the
68 gaseous phase, and to enrich the active subsurface with O₂ (Ben Moshe et al., 2020; Massmann
69 et al., 2006).

70 A consequence of the perturbation in the O₂ supply to SAT is expressed in changes in the redox
71 conditions (Mächler et al., 2013; Rezanezhad et al., 2014). Redox potential or oxidation-
72 reduction potential is a quantitative measure of electron availability, i.e., the tendency of the
73 system to receive or donate electrons (Hinchey and Schaffner, 2005). Substantial changes in
74 SAT systems' redox conditions might lead to the release of undesirable metals, such Fe²⁺ and



75 Mn^{2+} (Goren et al., 2012), and affect the degradation rates of pesticides and pharmaceutical
76 substances (Massmann et al., 2006). Additionally, previous studies have illustrated the possible
77 degradation of groundwater quality due to the emergence of contaminants that leach from the
78 SAT vadose zone under reducing conditions (Asano and Cotruvo, 2004; Massmann et al., 2006;
79 Oren et al., 2007; Sharma and Kennedy, 2017). Redox processes are associated with the
80 degradation of organic matter by terminal electron acceptors or redox couples, such as O_2/H_2O ,
81 NO_3/N_2 , MnO_2/Mn^{2+} , Fe^{3+}/Fe^{2+} , and SO_4/H_2S , in sequential order from the highest energy yield
82 downwards (Berner, 1981; Froelich et al., 1979; Christensen et al., 2000). The transition between
83 redox conditions is determined by the presence and availability of these electron
84 acceptors/donors. Once the strongest oxidizing species (O_2) is depleted, the next strongest
85 oxidizing species is used (NO_3) and so on. The alternation between oxic (> 400 mV), suboxic
86 (between 400 and -100 mV), and anoxic (-100 mV $>$) conditions in the vadose zone depends on
87 the availability of the oxidized species (Reedy et al., 2000). In addition, studies have reported on the
88 seasonal (temperature changes) effects on redox conditions, which were attributed to the increase
89 in dissolved oxygen concentrations at low temperatures (Massmann et al., 2006) and the greater
90 microbial activity (i.e., higher O_2 consumption) at higher temperatures (Greskowiak et al., 2006;
91 Kirschbaum, 1995).

92 An important operational aspect of a SAT system is the intermittent application of the effluents
93 (Sattar, 2016; Sallwey et al., 2020). After the infiltration basin is flooded with wastewater, a
94 drying period is implemented to sustain the SAT's infiltration capacity and biochemical
95 capabilities (Sharma and Kennedy, 2017). The wetting and drying stages, which can be
96 expressed by the wet/dry ratio parameter, have a critical impact on the removal rates of dissolved
97 organic carbon, total nitrogen, and pathogens (Ben Moshe et al., 2020; Morrison et al., 2020;
98 Sharma and Kennedy, 2017). Although the wet/dry ratio can vary depending on location and
99 wastewater quality, it is well accepted that it should be below 1.0 (Sattar, 2016; Sharma and
100 Kennedy, 2017). Nevertheless, infiltration basins behave differently with regard to infiltration
101 rates and clogging. Thus, in many cases, the SAT operational efficiency is limited to the personal
102 experience of the operators and their knowledge of the specific infiltration basin (Sharma and
103 Kennedy, 2017). Note, however, that several studies (e.g., Ben Moshe et al., 2021b) suggest that
104 it is not the wet/dry ratio that should be considered, but specific times for wetting and drying.



105 The oxidation-reduction potential (E_h), together with chemical and physical parameters such as
106 water content, soil temperature, O_2 concentration, etc., can be continuously monitored by
107 installing the relevant sensors. Previous studies have implemented the E_h sensor and successfully
108 described, with high temporal resolution, the subsurface chemical conditions in various
109 environments, such as wetlands, the water table (or the capillary fringe), aquifers, etc. (Wallace
110 et al., 2019; McMahon and Chapelle, 2008; Shenker et al., 2005; Silver et al., 2018; Rezanezhad
111 et al., 2014). To improve SAT system performances, the link between the wetting and drying
112 stages and the subsequent redox conditions developed in the subsurface should be established.
113 Thus, in situ monitoring can improve SAT management performance and reduce the subjectivity
114 of the operator. The objective of this study was to examine redox's temporal variability and the
115 way it is affected by changes in volumetric water content, gaseous O_2 , and temperature imposed
116 by different operational modes of wetting and drying stages. Furthermore, calibrated and
117 validated hydrological models were used to explore the behavior of water fluxes under different
118 operational modes and seasonal temperature changes. Finally, the optimal lengths of a drying
119 stage and a wetting stage were determined, following the in situ observations.

120

121 **2 Methods**

122 | **Study sites**

123 The Dan region reclamation project (Shafdan) reclaims about 125 million m^3 of effluent
124 annually, from the Tel Aviv metropolitan area in Israel. The treatment of effluents occurs in two
125 stages. The first stage involves mechanical-biological treatment, which is based on activated
126 sludge, while in the second stage, the treated water (a secondary effluent) is delivered to
127 infiltration basins, as part of the SAT system, to further improve water quality. Six infiltration
128 basin sites, covering a total area of 1.053 Km^2 , are located in central Israel, overlying the coastal
129 aquifer (Figure 1). Each basin is divided into several spreading ponds, about 1500 m^2 each,
130 which are alternately flooded. The vadose zone that underlies the basins is mostly composed of
131 sand, sandy loam soil, and calcareous sandstone layers. Typically, the ponds are flooded for one
132 to two days (max hydraulic head of about 50 cm), followed by two to six days of drainage and
133 soil surface drying. The wetting and drying stages are controlled by the ponds' flooding order,

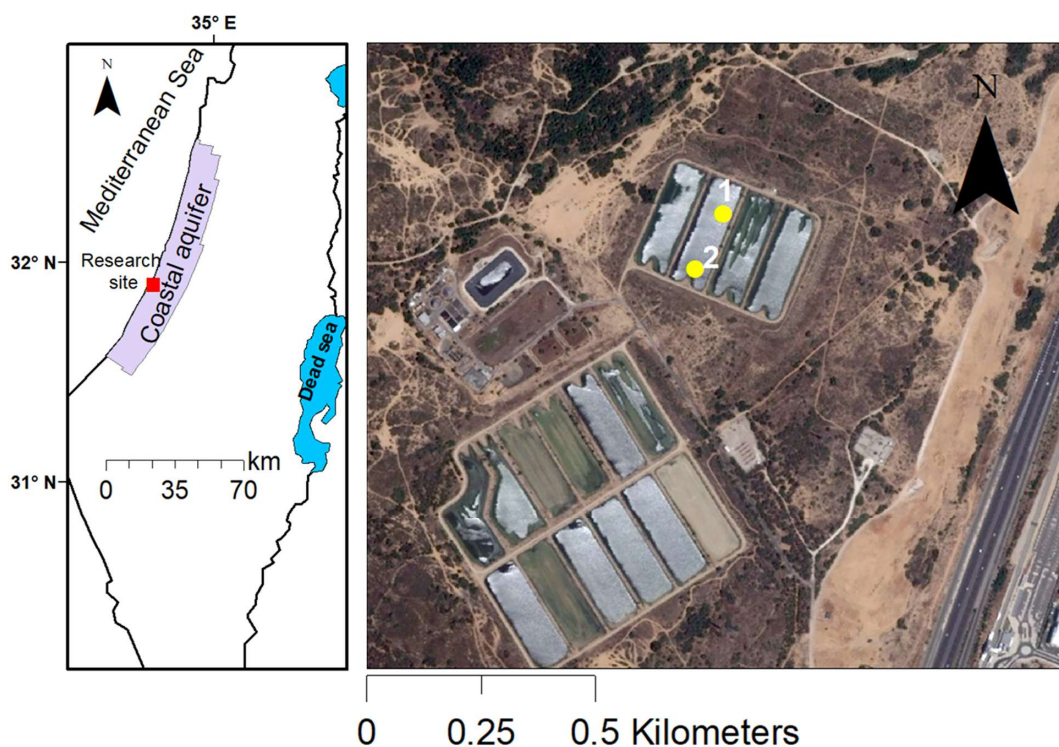


134 the availability of effluent, and the drying period, which is suggested to be at least 24 h (Icekson-
135 Tal et al., 2003). The basin surface is plowed on a regular basis to break up the developed
136 biocrust and to prevent clogging (see Negev et al. (2020) for details).

137 | **Study operation**

138 In this research, two in situ measurement stations were installed in an infiltration pond during
139 2018 (pond 4103 in the Yavne 1 cluster, Figure 1). Each station was equipped with several sets
140 of sensors at various depths, including time domain transmittance (TDT) probes (Acclima Inc.,
141 Idaho, USA), copper-constantan thermocouples (OMEGA Engineering, Inc., Connecticut, USA),
142 oxidation-reduction potential (ORP) electrodes (ELH016 van London Co, Houston, TX, USA),
143 and O₂ percentage probes (ICT02 sensor, ICT Int., Australia). Data were collected at prescribed
144 intervals and logged on a CR1000 data logger (Campbell Scientific, Inc., Logan, UT, USA). In
145 addition, suction cups were installed. In station 1 (Figure 1), the data consisted of volumetric
146 water content (VWC) (θ), soil temperature (T), and ORP (E_h) time series, which were
147 continuously measured every 20 minutes between 28/07/2020 and 10/02/2021 (total of 14,185
148 values, 197 days, for each variable). The data were obtained at 25, 50, and 100 cm depths. In
149 station 2 (Figure 1), VWC, T, gaseous oxygen (O₂), and E_h were measured every 20 minutes
150 between 08/05/2019 and 20/07/2020. There were about 60 days in which data were not collected
151 in station 2 due to technical issues. The data from station 2 contained 27,222 points of VWC,
152 29,394 points of O₂, 30,414 points of E_h , and 26,730 points of T measurements. In station 2, the
153 data were collected at 25, 50, 75 and 100 cm depths.

154 The water quality characteristics of the secondary effluent that flooded the Yavne 1 basin are
155 presented in the *Supporting Information (Figure S1)*. Note that the quality parameter
156 concentrations conform to the updated “Inbar” regulations and the findings of a previous study
157 that surveyed numerous wastewater storage and treatment reservoirs across the country (Kfir et
158 al., 2012). To determine the soil physical properties, undisturbed soil cores were sampled at
159 different depths. Subsequently, flow experiments were carried out to calculate the saturated
160 hydraulic conductivity (K_s) based on Darcy's Law (*Supporting Information, Figure S2*).



161

162 Figure 1: The location of the investigated site, the Yavne 1 infiltration basin of the Shafdan.
163 In the close up of the investigated pond, the yellow circles represent the locations of the
164 measurement stations (©Google Earth).

165

166 | Hydrological model and gaseous oxygen dynamics

167 The calculations for water and oxygen fluxes in the SAT vadose zone are calculated differently
168 for the ponding stage and for the stage where there is no ponding (water) on the soil surface. For
169 the ponding stage, Ganot et al. (2017) showed that the infiltration rates in managed aquifer
170 recharge systems can be predicted reasonably well by simple analytical models. In this study, a
171 simple model was implemented to calculate the water flux (Bouwer, 2002):

172

$$q = Ks \times \frac{(L + d - \psi^*)}{L} \quad (1)$$



173 where q (L/T) is the water flux, d (L) is the ponding depth, L (L) is the thickness of the saturated
174 vadose zone, and ψ^* (L) is the negative pressure head at the wetting front. Once the water
175 ponding ceases, the water drainage is set equal to the unsaturated hydraulic conductivity,
176 described with an exponential form (Guswa et al., 2002):

$$177 \quad D(\theta) = Ks \frac{e^{\beta(\theta - \theta_{fc})} - 1}{e^{\beta(\theta_s - \theta_{fc})} - 1} \quad (2)$$

178 where Ks (L/T) is the saturated hydraulic conductivity, β is a parameter of the soil, θ (L^3/L^3) is
179 the VWC, θ_{fc} (L^3/L^3) is the field capacity, and θ_s (L^3/L^3) is the saturated water content (also
180 effective porosity). Furthermore, the effect of temperature changes on the soil hydraulic
181 conductivity is implemented through the change in viscosity (Lin et al., 2003):

$$182 \quad K_{sT} = K_{s25} \frac{\mu_{25}}{\mu_T} \quad (3)$$

183 where K_{sT} and K_{s25} are soil hydraulic conductivity values at $T^\circ\text{C}$ and 25°C , respectively, and μ_T
184 and μ_{25} are the dynamic viscosity of water (M/LT) values at $T^\circ\text{C}$ and 25°C , respectively.

185 An inverse problem was set to find an optimal combination of Ks and β parameters that
186 minimizes the following objective function:

$$187 \quad \Phi(b) = \sum_{i=1}^N [\theta(t_i) - \theta(t, b)]^2 \quad (4)$$

188 where N is the number of the VWC observations, $\theta(t_i)$ are the observations at a specific time, and
189 $\theta(t, b)$ are the corresponding models' (equations 1-3) predictions for the vector of optimized
190 parameters (b (Ks and β)). The inverse problem was solved using the *fminsearch* function in
191 MATLAB. To evaluate the prediction quality, the root mean squared error (RMSE), the Nash
192 Sutcliffe efficiency (NSE), and the Pearson correlation (r) were calculated following Ritter &
193 Muñoz-Carpena (2013).

194



195 3 Results and Discussion

196 The presented data were collected under short and long cycles. The characteristics of the drying
197 and wetting stages are summarized in Table 1. Throughout the analysis described below, we
198 define the winter period as the months between November and April and the summer period as
199 the months between May and October, corresponding to the Mediterranean climate.

200 Table 1. *Technical information of the recorded long and*
201 *short wetting and drying cycles*

	Long cycles	Short cycles
Wetting stage (days)	9 ± 2.4	1.5 ± 0.4
Drying stage (days)	3.3 ± 2.4	1.8 ± 1
Number of recorded cycles	33	37
Length of cycle (days)	12.7 ± 3	3.2 ± 1.3
Wet/dry ratio	3 ± 1.8	0.9 ± 0.3

202

203 | Hydrological conditions

204 A representative set of VWC (θ) time series measured in the SAT's vadose zone is presented to
205 describe the variability in hydrological conditions measured throughout different seasons and
206 operational modes (Figure 2). The VWC measurements were obtained during long (Figure 2a, b,
207 c) and short (Figure 2d) cycles at three different depths. Note that the water content
208 measurements presented in Figure 2 (a, b) were recorded at station 2 (Figure 1), during summer
209 (Figure 2a) and winter (Figure 2b). The water content variations under short cycles were
210 measured at station 1 (Figure 2c, d). Differences in the absolute values between the water content
211 observations at different depths are mainly related to the vertical texture variability (*Figure S2,*
212 *Supporting Information*). Under the long cycles, VWC measurements were obtained throughout
213 19 cycles during summer (May–October) and 14 cycles during winter (November–April). Under
214 short cycles, there were 12 cycles during summer and 25 during winter.

215 Every recorded wetting event prompted an intensive infiltration that was expressed by a rapid
216 and almost instantaneous increase in water content at all depths and under the two operational



217 modes (Figure 2). Furthermore, the soil remained at high saturation values throughout each
218 wetting stage. Similarly, once the drying process started, it occurred virtually simultaneously at
219 all depths. There were noticeable differences in the drainage rates between summer and winter,
220 where the soil dried faster in summer. To elaborate the drainage process, the drying stages were
221 assembled and averaged at an hourly interval and separated into short (Figure 3a) and long
222 (Figure 3b) cycles. Additionally, equations 1, 2, and 3 (the hydrological model) were
223 implemented to describe the water flow in the SAT's vadose zone under long and short cycles.
224 The hydrological models were calibrated and validated against water content observations at 25
225 cm depth by adjusting the K_s and β (Figure S3 and Figure S4, Supporting Information, Table 2).
226 Throughout the calibration, the K_s and β parameters attained different values for the long cycle
227 periods and the short cycle periods (Table 2). There are differences in soil physical properties
228 between stations 1 and 2, which explains the need for calibrating different parameter sets. In
229 addition, the calibrated K_s values for both models were substantially lower than the measured K_s
230 values (Figure S2, Supporting Information, Table 2). It has been shown that K_s measurements in
231 the field are commonly lower than lab K_s measurements (Nimmo et al., 2009). This is related to
232 a reduction in soil conductivity due to air trapping in the soil pores during the wetting process
233 when water is applied at the land surface (Mizrahi et al., 2016; Nimmo et al., 2009).

234 Under the short cycles, the soil drainage process occurred mostly within the first 15 hours of the
235 drying stage (Figure 3a). The soil drainage rate was slightly higher in summer than in winter.
236 Under the short cycles, the model successfully followed the observed trends, where the
237 validation period showed similar performances (Figure S3 and Figure 3a). The model results for
238 the short cycles confirm that the differences in drainage between summer and winter are mainly
239 due to temperature changes that affect water viscosity (Lin et al., 2003). During the long cycle
240 application, the drainage rates in summer showed a moderate VWC decline compared to the
241 observed VWC under short cycles (Figure 3b). This might be due to the differences in soil
242 physical parameters between stations 1 and 2, as highlighted by the calibrated models'
243 parameters (Table 2).

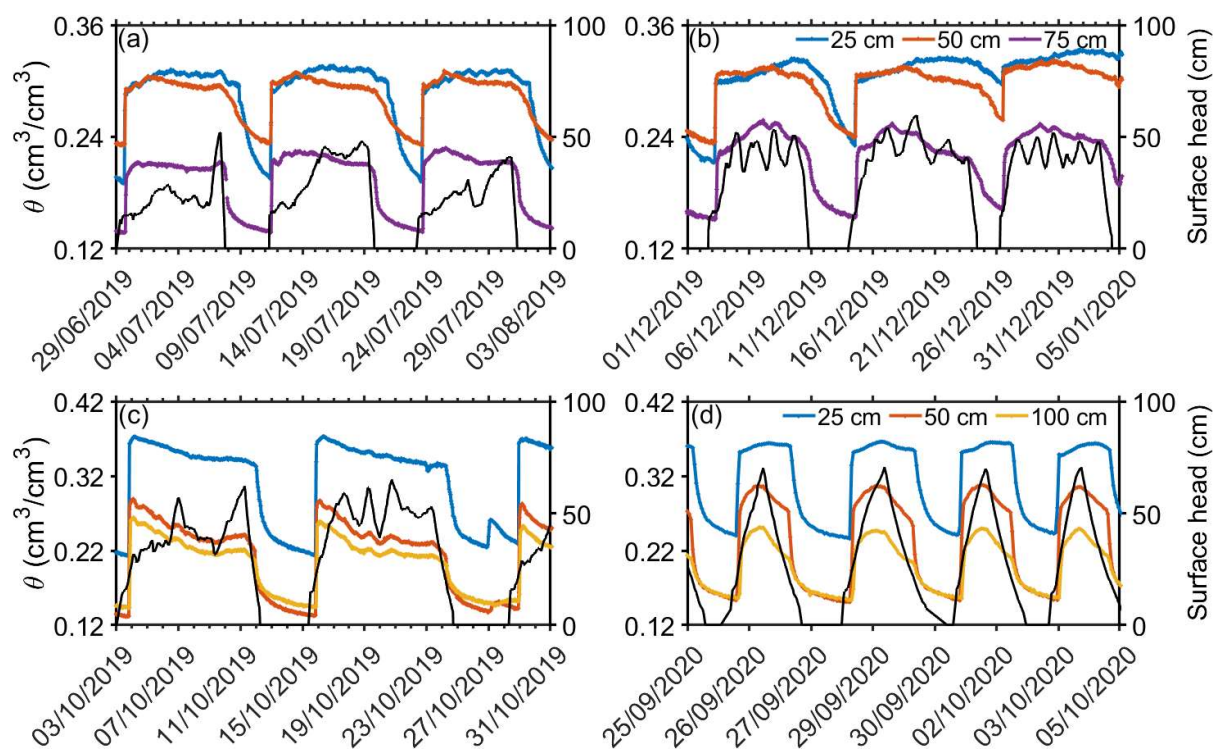
244 While the model under long cycles successfully followed the drainage trend during summer, the
245 model showed poor performance during winter under long cycles. This is mainly due to the
246 observable changes in VWC measurements, which displayed a shift towards higher values from



247 November 2019 (*Figure S4 and Figure 2b*). To elaborate the changes in the SAT's physical
248 properties, an additional parameter set was calibrated against the winter data only during the long
249 cycles (*Figure 3b, green line*). Both the K_s and β parameters attained lower values, and the θ_s
250 increased (*Figure S5 and Table 2*). Previous studies related the accumulation of organic matter in
251 SAT to lower rates of organic matter decomposition during winter (Nadav et al., 2012a). The
252 enrichment in the organic matter in the top layer reduced the soil permeability (Nadav et al.,
253 2012b). It appears that long wetting and drying cycles in SAT during winter can alter the
254 physical soil properties, which eventually affect the infiltration capabilities.

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258 Figure 2: Representative time series of VWC measurements obtained at station 2 (*Figure 1*) during (a)
259 summer and (b) winter under long wetting and drying cycles at three different depths. Black line represents



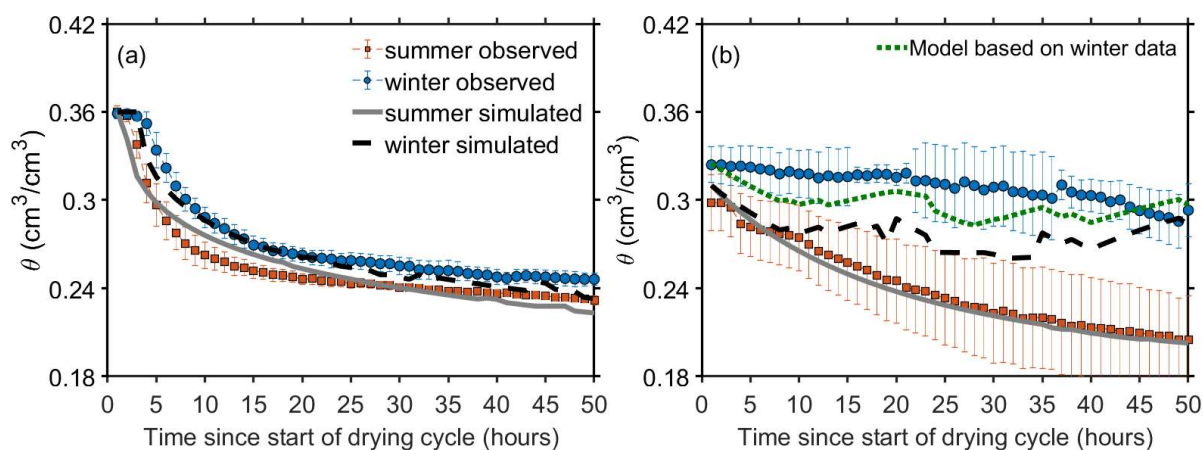
260 the surface water hydraulic head. The bottom plots display VWC measurements obtained at station 1 under
 261 (c) long and (d) short wetting and drying cycles during the summer.

262

263 Table 2. Estimated parameters of the hydrological models

	Station 1	Station 2	Station 2 (winter only)
Ks (cm/h)	5	0.9	0.72
θ_s	0.36	0.32	0.33
β	30	6.75	6.48
θ_{fc}	0.19	0.19	0.19
ψ^* (cm)	-15	-15	-15
θ_h	0.05	0.05	0.05

264



265

266 Figure 3: The average and standard deviation values of measured VWC at 25 cm depth
 267 throughout the drying stages at an hourly time scale: (a) short cycles (station 1) and (b) long
 268 cycles (station 2). The blue and red circles represent the average VWC values collected during
 269 winter (November–April) and summer (May–October), respectively. The statistics of measured
 270 VWC under long cycles are based on 19 drying stages during summer and 14 drying stages
 271 during winter. For the short cycles, the statistics are based on 12 drying stages during summer



272 *and 24 drying stages during winter. The dashed black and solid gray lines represent the average*
273 *values of simulated VWC throughout the drying stage during winter (November–April) and*
274 *summer (May–October), respectively. Note that for the long cycle periods, an additional model*
275 *was established based only on winter data (green line).*

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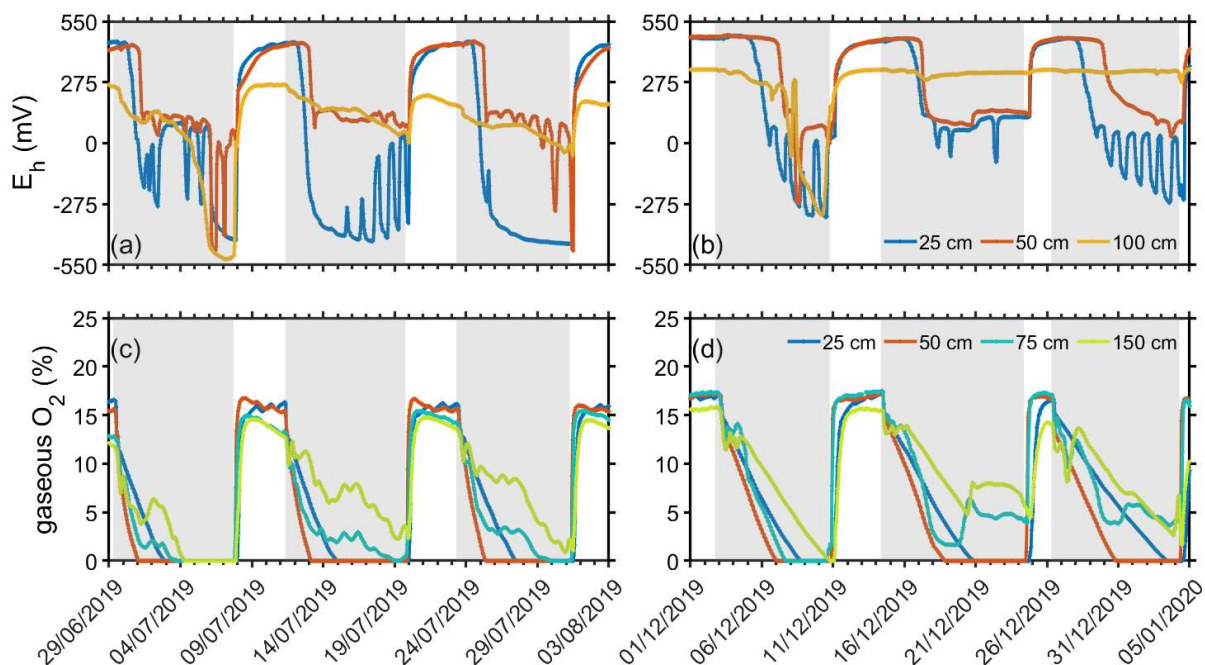
277 | **Seasonal differences in SAT redox (E_h) conditions under long wetting cycles**

278 E_h conditions were monitored at four depths (Figure 4a, b). The behavior of the E_h dynamic
279 following a wetting event was similar for the summer and the winter periods. At 25, 50, and 75
280 cm depths, a gradual decline in E_h started only after a time lag from the beginning of a wetting
281 event (Figure 4a, b). This time lag can be explained by the presence of dissolved oxygen (DO) in
282 the percolating solution. Once DO is depleted, suboxic and anoxic conditions begin to develop
283 (Dutta et al., 2015; Ben Moshe et al., 2021, 2020). The E_h conditions at 25 cm were the most
284 highly responsive to the wetting events, while the E_h conditions were the most negative at this
285 depth (Figure 4a, b). At 100 cm depth, only minor changes were observed, and in some cases
286 (during winter), no changes were observed (Figure 4a, b). According to the gaseous O_2
287 measurements (Figure 4c, d), there were partially aerated conditions during some of the flooding
288 events at 100 cm depth. Therefore, the small changes of E_h at 100 cm depth could either have
289 been the outcome of only minor biochemical activity, or they could have been due to the
290 sufficient oxygen supply. Furthermore, the monitored E_h conditions illustrate that most of the
291 activity in SAT systems occurs at the topsoil, as illustrated in previous studies (e.g., Quanrud et
292 al., 1996, 2003; Sopilniak et al., 2017). Note that the E_h recovery time, i.e., an increase towards
293 positive values, was virtually instantaneous once the drying process initiated (Figure 4a, b). The
294 increase in E_h conditions occurred concurrently with the observed rapid increase of the gaseous
295 oxygen (O_2) in the vadose zone (Figure 4c, d).

296 A distinct difference in E_h conditions between winter and summer at 25 cm depth is expressed by
297 a more negative range of values during summer (Figure 4a, b). Since similar wastewater quality
298 and hydraulic loads were fed to the pond during summer and winter (*Supporting Information*),
299 the E_h conditions were mainly affected by the SAT's aeration state and seasonal temperature
300 changes. In Figure 5, the monthly E_h conditions at 25 cm depth are presented in the form of a
301 boxplot, together with the monthly average ambient temperature (dashed black line) and monthly



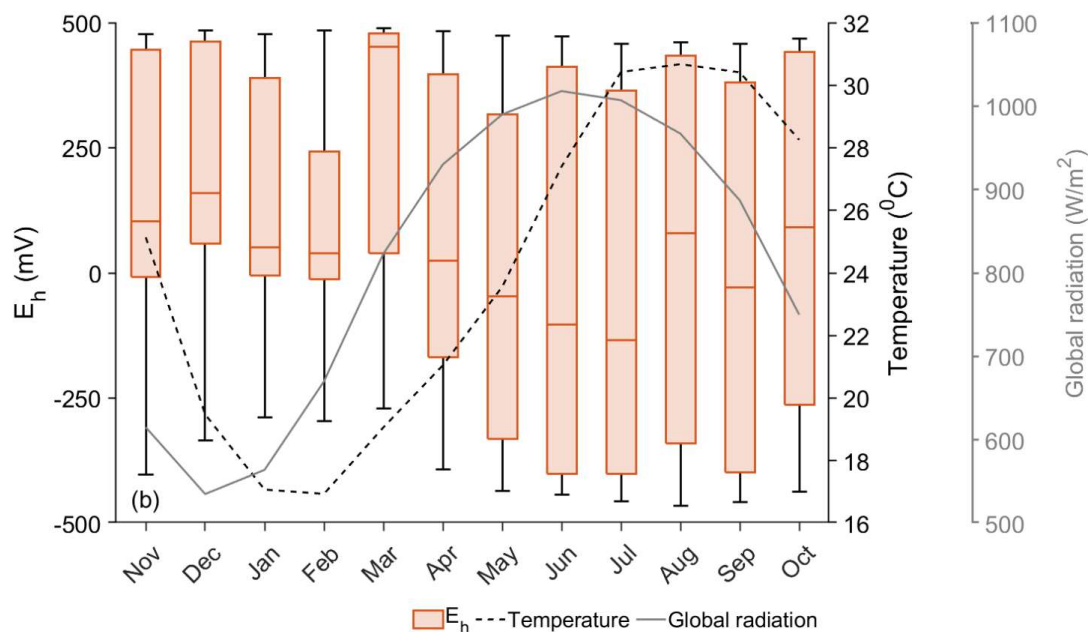
302 average global radiation (gray line). The E_h conditions showed a wider range of values with the
303 increase in temperature (Figure 5). Between November and March, the E_h conditions mostly
304 remained above zero or were slightly negative (Figure 5). Once the temperature increased above
305 24°C between May and October, E_h conditions showed substantial fluctuation between negative
306 and positive values (Figure 5). Note that the average monthly ambient temperatures during
307 November and May were similar in value, but during November, the E_h conditions mostly
308 remained above zero (Figure 5). This difference is connected to the daylight duration, as
309 indicated by the global radiation, which is substantially greater in May than in November (Figure
310 5, gray line). A typical characteristic of aquatic systems is the large fluctuations in dissolved
311 oxygen (DO) concentrations due to intense photosynthesis and respiration (Stumm, W., &
312 Morgan, 1996). Goren et al. (2014) illustrated that following the effluent spreading in the
313 infiltration ponds, photosynthesis enriches the water with DO. Furthermore, chemical analysis of
314 porewater samples that were obtained at 0.5 m depth in the SAT vadose zone indicated DO's
315 substantial influence on the biochemical conditions of the percolating water (Goren et al., 2014).
316 Thus, the photosynthesis process enriches the effluent with DO, which encourages further
317 microbial activity (Goren et al., 2014; Hargreaves, 2006; Rodríguez-Escales et al., 2020).
318 However, between July and September, there was a decrease in global radiation that did not
319 affect the E_h variability (Figure 5). Thus, it appears that under long wetting stages, the seasonal
320 temperature changes dominate the E_h conditions but show some trade-off with the global
321 radiation.



322

323 Figure 4: Representative time series of redox-potential (E_h) and gaseous O_2 measurements
324 obtained at station 2 (Figure 1) at depths of 25, 50, and 100 cm: (a, c) summer and (b, d) winter.
325 Note that the gray and white areas indicate wetting and drying periods, respectively.

326



327

328 Figure 5: Seasonal changes in E_h conditions as were observed at 25 cm depth at station 2 under
 329 long (seven days) wetting periods. The dashed black line represents the monthly mean ambient
 330 temperature, and the solid gray line represents the monthly mean global radiation obtained from
 331 the Israeli Meteorological Service (IMS, 2021).

332

333 **A comparison between SAT redox (E_h) conditions under long and short cycles**

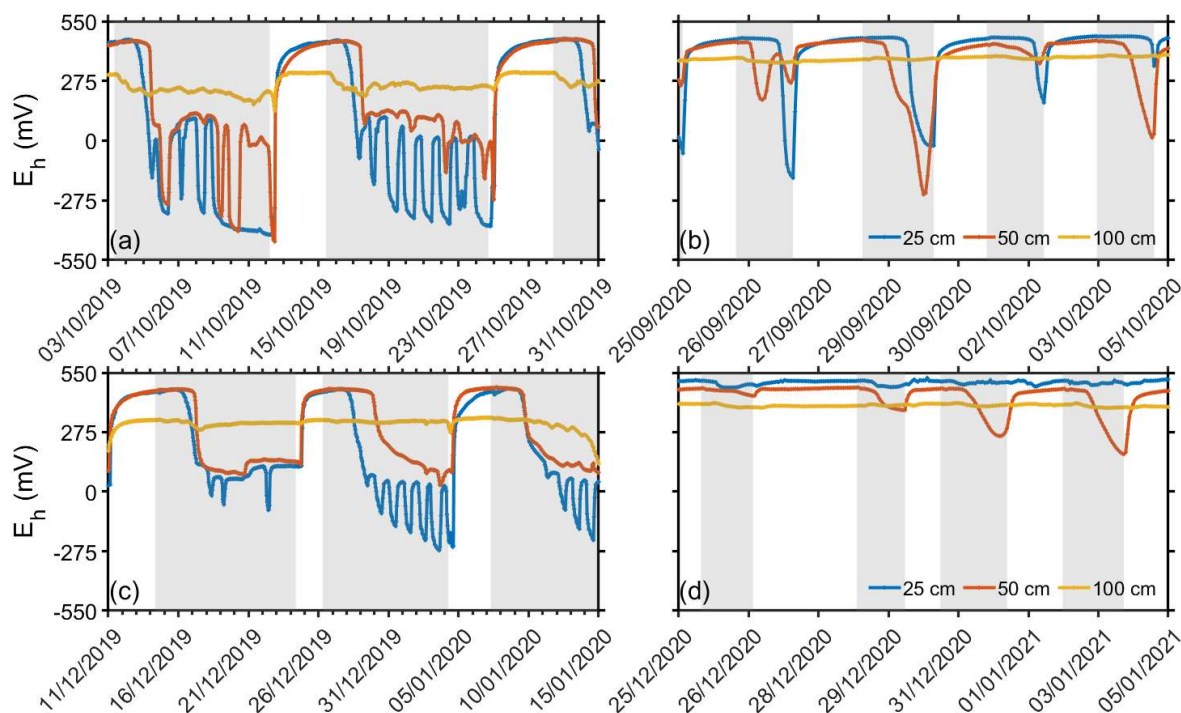
334 It has been shown that the operational mode affects the aeration conditions of the upper vadose
 335 zone, which consequently might alter the infiltration rates and the intensity of the
 336 biogeochemical processes (Goren et al., 2014). Throughout the measurement period, the
 337 intervals of wetting and drying stages were modified (Table 1). The wetting and drying stages
 338 were substantially shortened during September 2020, which enabled examining the differences in
 339 E_h conditions under short and long cycles. The variations in E_h conditions under long cycles
 340 during October 2019, December 2019, and January 2020 are presented in Figure 6a, c. In
 341 addition, the changes in E_h conditions under short cycles during September–October 2020,
 342 December 2020, and January 2021 are presented in Figure 6b, d.



343 As was shown above, under long cycles, the E_h conditions declined towards slightly negative
344 values during winter and attained markedly negative values during the summer months at 25 and
345 50 cm depths, where only minor variations were observed at 100 cm depth (Figure 6a, c). The E_h
346 conditions, under short cycles during the summer, showed a decline towards slightly negative
347 values for a brief time compared to long cycles (Figure 6a, b). During the winter, only minor
348 variations in E_h conditions were recorded under short cycles (Figure 6d). Note that at 100 cm
349 depth, there was almost no change in E_h conditions for either season under short cycles (Figure
350 6b, d). As was illustrated previously (Figure 4a, b), once the drying stage initiated, the recovery
351 of E_h towards positive values (oxic conditions) was almost instant under both short and long
352 cycles. It appears that the re-establishment of oxic conditions occurs independently of the length
353 of the wetting stage.

354 The observations of E_h and gaseous O_2 under long and short cycles indicate a weak relationship
355 between the wetting and the drying stages. These results call into question the advantage of
356 implementing the wet/dry ratio for optimizing SAT performance. It appears that the length of a
357 wetting stage and a drying stage should be defined separately (Ben Moshe et al., 2020, 2021).
358 Thus, the necessary further investigation is described below to examine the optimal lengths of
359 the wetting and drying stages.

360



361

362 Figure 6: Representative time series of redox-potential (E_h) measurements at 25, 50 and 100 cm depths in
363 station 1 (Figure 1): (a, c) long wetting periods and (b, d) short wetting periods. Note that the gray and
364 white areas indicate wetting and drying periods, respectively.

365

366 | The length of the wetting stage according to E_h measurements

367 During wetting stages, the main limiting factor of the biodegradation process is the availability
368 of dissolved oxygen (Skopp et al., 1990; Cook and Knight, 2003). Once the soil pores are fully
369 saturated, only the dissolved oxygen (DO) of the percolating water is available. However, studies
370 have illustrated that the DO of the percolating water rapidly depletes (Dutta et al., 2015; Ben
371 Moshe et al., 2021, 2020). Thus, the wetting stage should cease when the DO no longer has an
372 effect on the degradation process, i.e., when suboxic and anoxic conditions begin to develop. E_h
373 measurements can provide a good indication for the time when such conditions begin to be
374 established. For this purpose, the hourly measured E_h conditions during the wetting stage of 33
375 recorded cycles (19 cycles during summer and 14 cycles during winter) were averaged (Figure
376 7). The data were separated between winter (November–April) and summer (May–October),



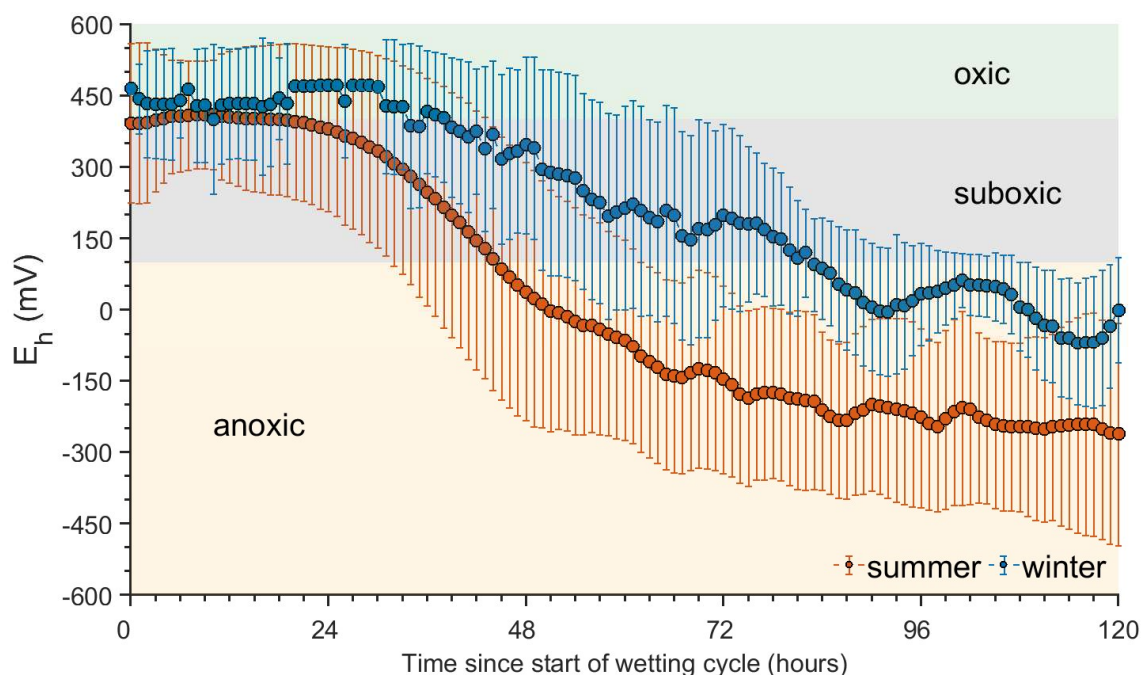
377 according to the trends presented in Figure 5. Since the data showed large variability for both
378 seasons (Figure 7), a two-sample t-test (ttest2 function of Matlab) was used to test whether the E_h
379 measurements during winter and summer came from distributions with equal means at the 95%
380 significance level for each hour interval. The test indicated that after 28 hours of wetting, the E_h
381 averages during winter became significantly different than the summer E_h averages.

382 During summer, the decline in E_h conditions was steeper compared to the trend exhibited in
383 winter (Figure 7). Following 40 hours of wetting, the E_h conditions during the summer dropped
384 below 100 mV, which indicates the establishment of considerable suboxic conditions (Figure 7).
385 After 48 hours, the E_h observations suggested that anoxic conditions prevailed in the vadose zone
386 (Figure 7). Thus, during the summer months, the optimal length of a wetting stage, in terms of
387 biodegradation, would be no more than about 30 hours (1.25 day^{-1}). At this length of time, there
388 is a minor risk that anoxic conditions would develop. This is in agreement with Dutta et al.
389 (2015), who suggested a relatively wide distribution of de-oxygenation times, between 0.36 and
390 1.5 day^{-1} .

391 In winter, the E_h measurements indicated that the wetting stage should cease only after 80 hours
392 (establishment of anoxic conditions, Figure 7). However, this inference might be misleading
393 since there is a trade-off between nutrient transport rates and reaction rates (Greskowiak et al.,
394 2006). Although the low temperatures enable higher DO, the microbial activity is slower
395 (Kirschbaum, 1995). That is, the delay in E_h drop (compared to summer) is due to lower oxygen
396 demand. Assuming that the nutrient transport is mainly advective, at intensive infiltration rates
397 during winter, the supply of the percolated effluent's substrate might be faster than the SAT's
398 degradation capability. Therefore, determining the length of a wetting stage during winter, using
399 solely the E_h measurements, may be challenging. As indicated by the two-sample t-test results,
400 the differences between summer and winter E_h values in the first 28 hours of wetting are
401 insignificant. Therefore, for practical purposes, the length of a wetting stage during winter should
402 be no more than 30 hours, as in the summer period.

403

404



405

406 Figure 7: Plot of hourly means of E_h measurements from the beginning of the wetting stages. The
407 statistics are based on 19 cycles during summer (May–October) and 14 cycles during winter
408 (November–April) that were observed at 25 cm depth in station 2. Note that the data are
409 separated between summer and winter according to the trends presented in Figure 5. The green,
410 grey, and yellow areas represent the oxic ($400\text{mV} <$), suboxic ($400\text{mV} > E_h > 100\text{mV}$), and
411 anoxic $E_h < 100\text{mV}$) conditions, respectively.

412

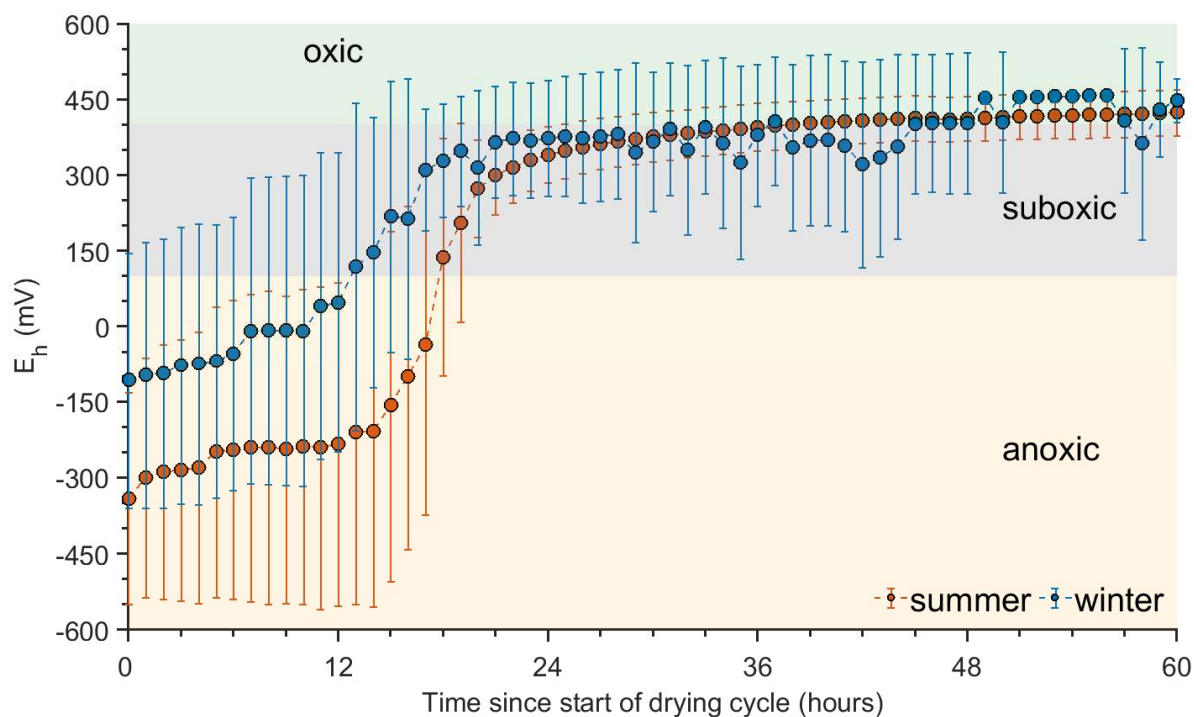
413 | The length of the drying stage using E_h and gaseous O_2 measurements

414 The drying stage in SAT systems is implemented to restore the infiltration, biological, and
415 chemical capabilities of the pond, mainly by aerating the soil (Sharma and Kennedy, 2017). A
416 drying stage is defined as the stage in which there is no water at the soil surface, and the
417 observed VWCs begin to decrease (Figure 2). To determine the optimal time for a drying stage,
418 both the measured E_h and gaseous O_2 observations that were obtained at 25 cm depth during the
419 drying stages were averaged (Figure 8 and Figure 9).



420 Following the analysis presented in Figure 7, the E_h data during the drying stages were also
421 separated between winter (November–April) and summer (May–October), according to the
422 trends presented in Figure 5. A two-sample t-test at the 95% significance level was conducted for
423 the E_h measurements during winter and summer for each hourly interval. The test indicated that
424 for the first 20 hours of the drying stage, the E_h averages during winter were significantly
425 different than the E_h averages during summer. These results verify that the E_h conditions at the
426 beginning of the drying stage during the summer period were much more negative than during
427 winter (Figure 8). Thus, the recovery of the E_h conditions towards suboxic conditions occurred at
428 faster rate (~12 hours) than the recovery during summer, i.e., about 18 hours (Figure 8).
429 Nevertheless, the E_h observations illustrate that the re-establishment of oxic conditions in the
430 SAT vadose zone is similar during the winter and summer periods (Figure 8). Once the drying
431 stage started, it required about 36 hours for the E_h conditions to reach values in the range of oxic
432 conditions, regardless of the initial value of the E_h conditions (Figure 8).

433



434

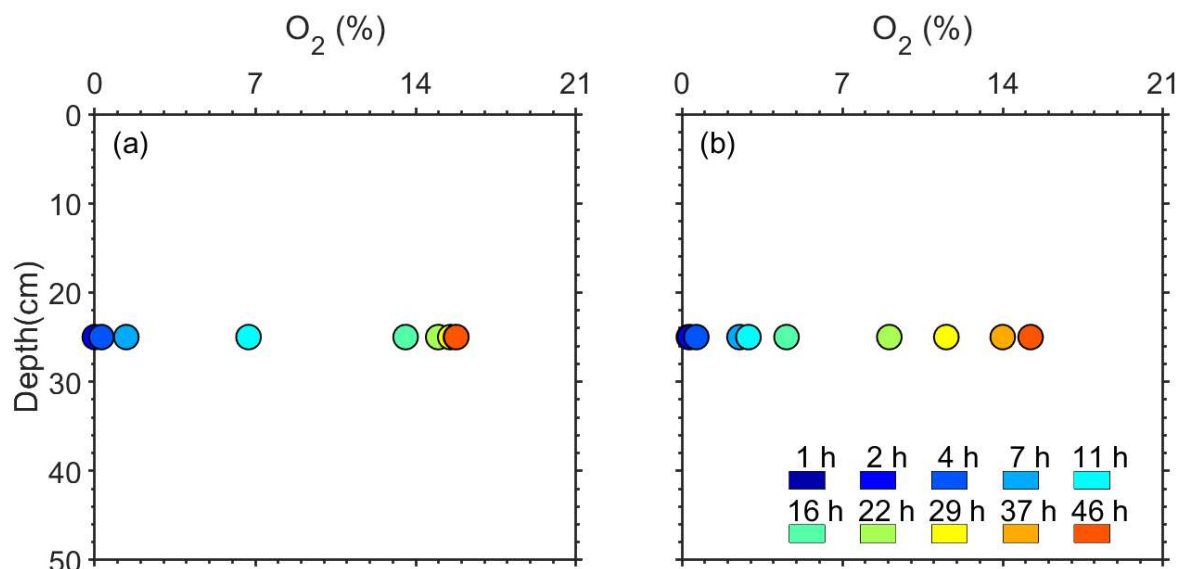


435 Figure 8: *Plot of hourly means of E_h measurements from the beginning of the drying stages. The statistics*
436 *are based on 19 cycles during summer (May–October) and 14 cycles during winter (November–April)*
437 *that were observed at 25 cm depth in station 2. Note that the data are separated between summer and*
438 *winter according to the trends presented in Figure 5. The green, grey, and yellow areas represent the oxic*
439 *($400mV <$), suboxic ($400mV > E_h > 100mV$), and anoxic ($E_h < 100mV$) conditions, respectively.*

440 Figure 9 presents the average gaseous O_2 concentrations at different times from the beginning of
441 the drying stage during summer (Figure 9a) and winter (Figure 9b). The different colors indicate
442 the times from the beginning of drying (Figure 9). Rapid aeration rates were observed during
443 summer compared to winter. For example, after 16 hours of drying, the gaseous O_2
444 concentrations during summer reached 13% (Figure 9a), while during winter, the concentrations
445 were about 4.5% (Figure 9b). Note that after 22 hours of drying during summer, the aeration rate
446 declined substantially, and only a minor increase in gaseous O_2 concentrations was observable
447 (Figure 9a). During winter, the gaseous O_2 concentrations reached 14% only after 37 hours
448 (Figure 9b). Thus, the aeration of the SAT vadose zone requires almost double the time during
449 winter than during summer.

450 The results presented in Figure 9 call into question the E_h observations during the drying stage
451 (Figure 8), which indicate that the drying cycle should be about 36 hours for both winter and
452 summer. One would expect that intensive aeration rates of the vadose zone during summer
453 would result in a faster recovery of the E_h conditions. However, a recent study has indicated that
454 using solely the gaseous O_2 concentration to quantify soil aeration status might be inaccurate for
455 some conditions (Ben-Noah et al., 2021). Instead, the authors suggested using the Damkholer
456 number, which is the ratio between characteristic diffusion (i.e., oxygen supply) and soil
457 respiration times. A small Damkholer number would be calculated when the O_2 consumption rate
458 is lower than the O_2 supply. Thus, although during summer, the oxygen supply rate is relatively
459 high compared to winter (Figure 9), the oxygen consumption rate for soil respiration is expected
460 to be substantially higher during summer than during winter (Kirschbaum, 1995).

461



462

463 Figure 9: Temporal distribution of the measured (dots at 25 cm depth) of gaseous O₂
464 concentrations in the SAT vadose zone during the drying stage (note that the colors indicate
465 different times from the initiation of drying stage) for: (a) summer and (b) winter.

466

467 4 Summary and Conclusions

468 Continuous monitoring of redox conditions (E_h), VWC (θ), temperature (T), and gaseous O₂ in
469 the vadose zones of SAT infiltration ponds was carried out for about 600 days. SAT operation
470 was subjected to long and short wetting and drying cycles and seasonal changes. The datasets
471 enabled the examination of factors that control the hydrological and geochemical conditions in
472 SAT. Calibrated and validated hydrological models were applied to investigate the water flow
473 dynamics in the SAT vadose zone. E_h and gaseous O₂ observations were averaged to determine
474 seasonal changes and deduce the optimal length of wetting and drying stages.

475 The examination of the measured E_h conditions illustrated a noticeable decline to markedly
476 negative values ($-450\text{mV} >$) during summer and to values between 0 and -50mV during winter.
477 These E_h conditions were established following 30 hours of wetting, and no considerable
478 changes in E_h conditions were noticeable until the wetting stages ceased. A monthly statistic of



479 the E_h measurements illustrated the relationship between the size of the E_h amplitude and the
480 seasonal T changes. Furthermore, it is speculated that the limited decrease in E_h conditions
481 during winter were due to lower microbial activity. An additional support for this claim is the
482 reduction in infiltration capabilities following long wetting and drying cycles during winter, as
483 was indicated by the hydrological models. To define the optimal length of a wetting stage, the E_h
484 data were averaged and separated between the winter and summer periods. During the summer
485 period, the optimal time length of a wetting stage, according to E_h observations, is about 30
486 hours. Determining the optimal length of a wetting stage during winter is challenging.
487 Practically, there are no significant differences between E_h conditions during winter and summer
488 for the first 28 hours of wetting. Thus, the length of a wetting stage during winter should be 30
489 hours, as in the summer period.

490 The length of a drying stage, following the E_h observations, should be about 36 hours, regardless
491 of the initial values of the E_h conditions and the season. Note that during summer, a longer drying
492 time is required for the E_h conditions to attain suboxic conditions. Nevertheless, the gaseous O_2
493 observations indicated faster aeration rates during summer, which compensate for the very
494 negative E_h conditions and allow fast recovery. Following our analysis, we suggest that under the
495 tested conditions, the length of a drying stage should be 36 hours for winter and summer. Shorter
496 drying stages would affect SAT efficiency, while applying longer drying stages would reduce the
497 total hydraulic loads that can be fed to the infiltration basin.

498 Implementing in situ E_h , VWC, T and gaseous O_2 sensors provided continuous high-resolution
499 observations. These datasets revealed the hydrological and biochemical dynamics in SAT as
500 imposed by seasonal and operational changes. Analysis of the E_h and O_2 measurements enabled
501 the identification of the optimal time lengths of wetting and drying stages. The results indicated
502 that there is no direct relationship between the length of a wetting stage and a drying stage. Thus,
503 the operational use of a wetting/drying ratio in SAT management should be reconsidered.

504

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