

## **Iron-based subsurface arsenic removal (SAR): Results of a long-term pilot-scale test in Vietnam**

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Title: Iron-based subsurface arsenic removal (SAR): Results of a long-term pilot-scale test in Vietnam

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Keywords: Subsurface arsenic mitigation; Mekong Delta; oxidation/adsorption; zero-waste; low-cost; groundwater contamination

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Abstract: The principle of subsurface arsenic removal (SAR) from groundwater is based on oxidation and adsorption reactions by infiltrating oxygen into the anoxic aquifer and the immobilization of arsenic (As) onto freshly formed iron (Fe) oxides. In this study, a pilot-scale plant for SAR has been subject to long term testing in the Mekong Delta, Vietnam. Initial concentrations of Fe ( $8.4 \pm 1.3 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) and As ( $81 \pm 8 \text{ } \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) in the exploited groundwater were successfully lowered to below the WHO guideline value limits for drinking water of  $0.3 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  and  $10 \text{ } \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  respectively. Adsorption and co-precipitation of As with iron oxides could be identified as the principal mechanism responsible for the As removal from groundwater, demonstrating the feasibility of SAR as a low-cost and zero-waste solution over a period of two years. However, naturally occurring geochemical reducing conditions and high ammonium levels in the groundwater delayed the removal of manganese (Mn). An additional post-treatment filtration for Mn-removal was temporarily used to comply with the Vietnamese drinking water standard until a Mn-mitigation was achieved by the SAR process. In contrast to most As-remediation technologies, SAR appears to be a long-term, sustainable treatment option with the salient advantage of negligible production of toxic waste, which with ex-situ processes require additionally management costs.

**Declaration of interests**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

**Highlights:**

- A pilot plant for subsurface arsenic removal -SAR was operated for over 2 years
- Arsenic was successfully lowered to below WHO drinking water guideline
- No remobilization of As was observed for 28 months operation
- SAR is a low-cost sustainable method with no toxic waste produced

Groundwater contamination An Giang



Subsurface Arsenic Removal (SAR) – Pilot plant



As and Fe removal

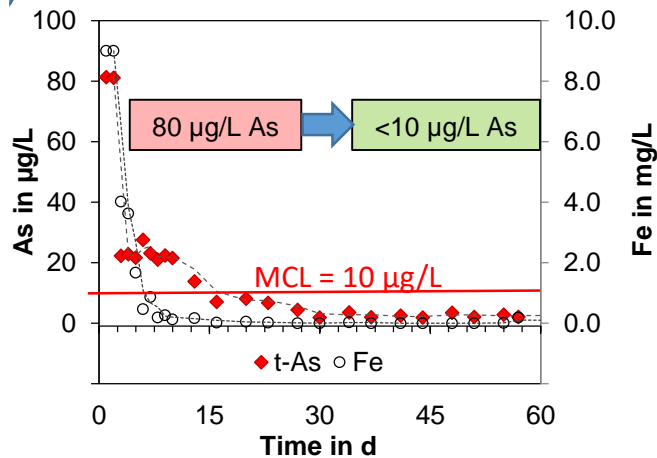
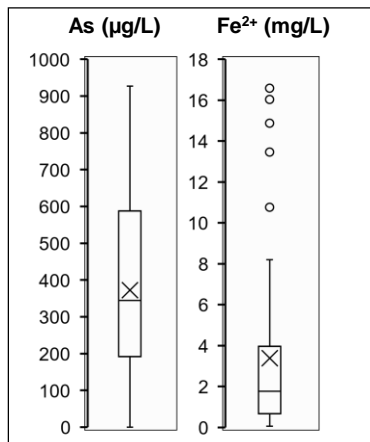


Figure 1



Storage tank

Controller

Mn filter

Pressure tank

Feed pump

Injector

Aeration tank

UV lamp

Extra tank

Figure 2

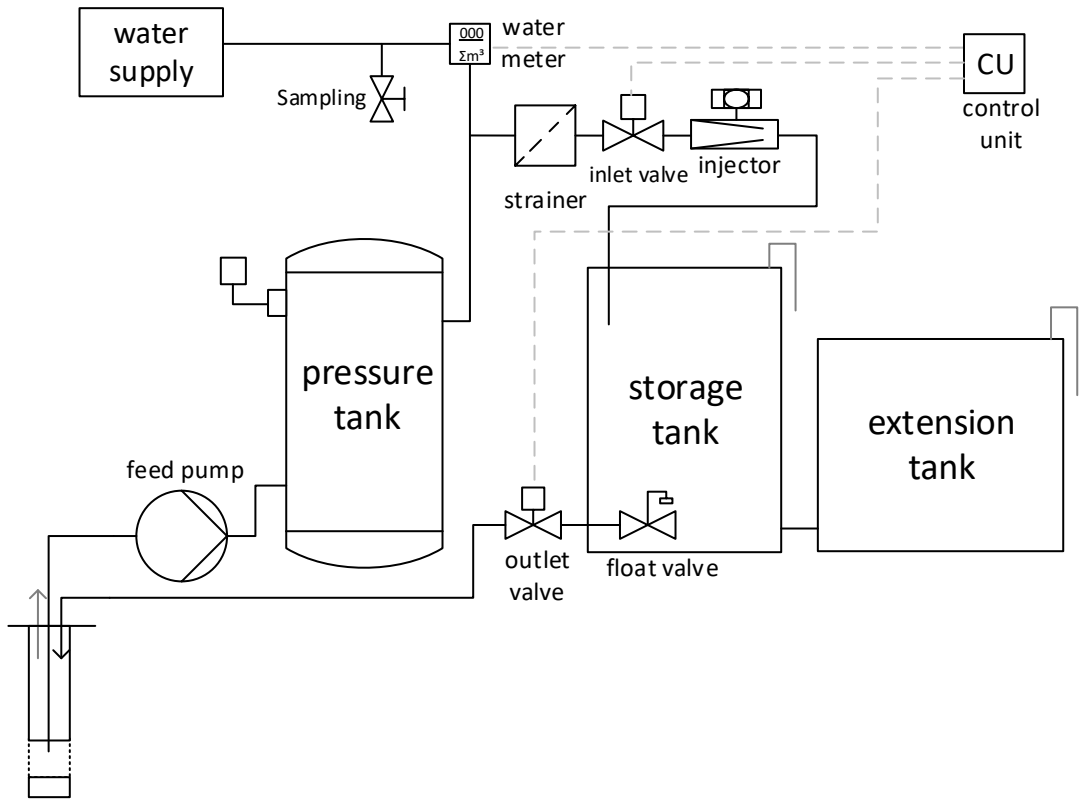


Figure 3

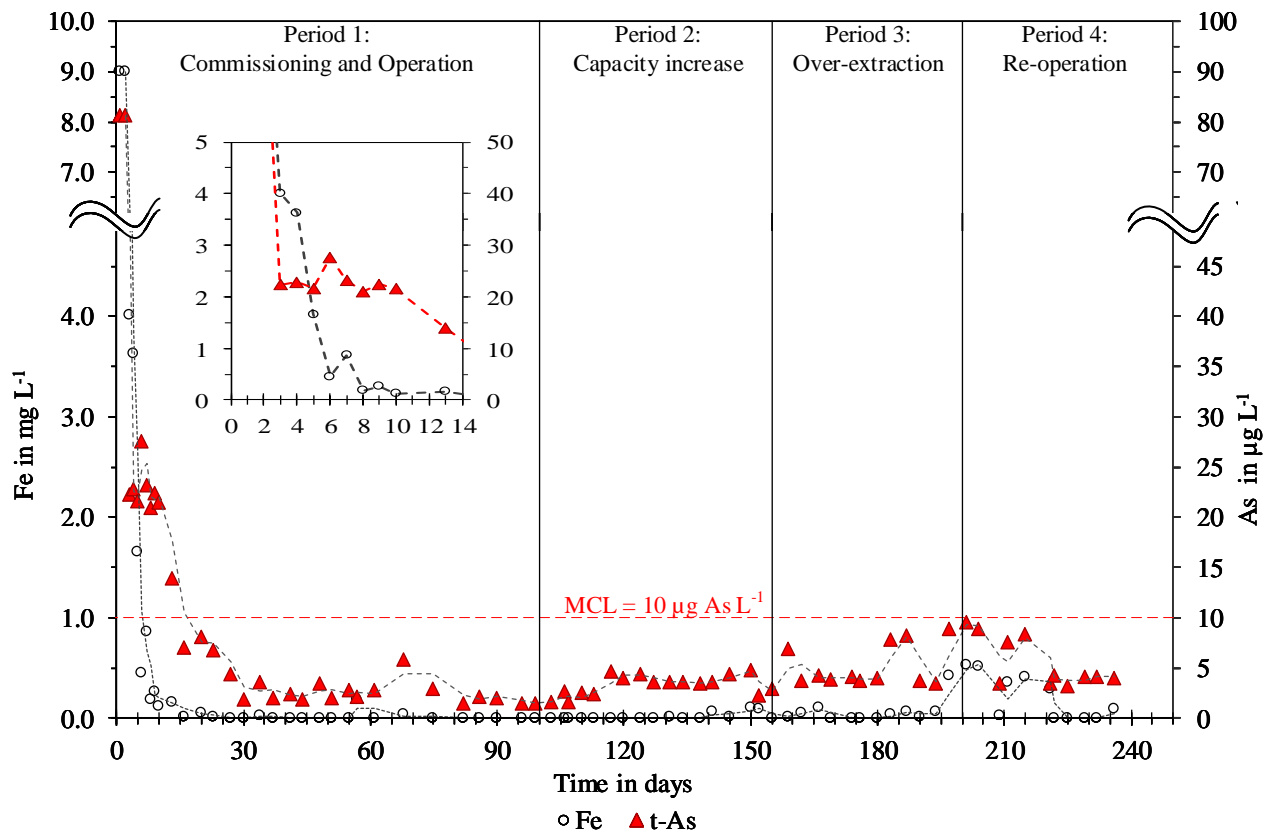




Figure 4

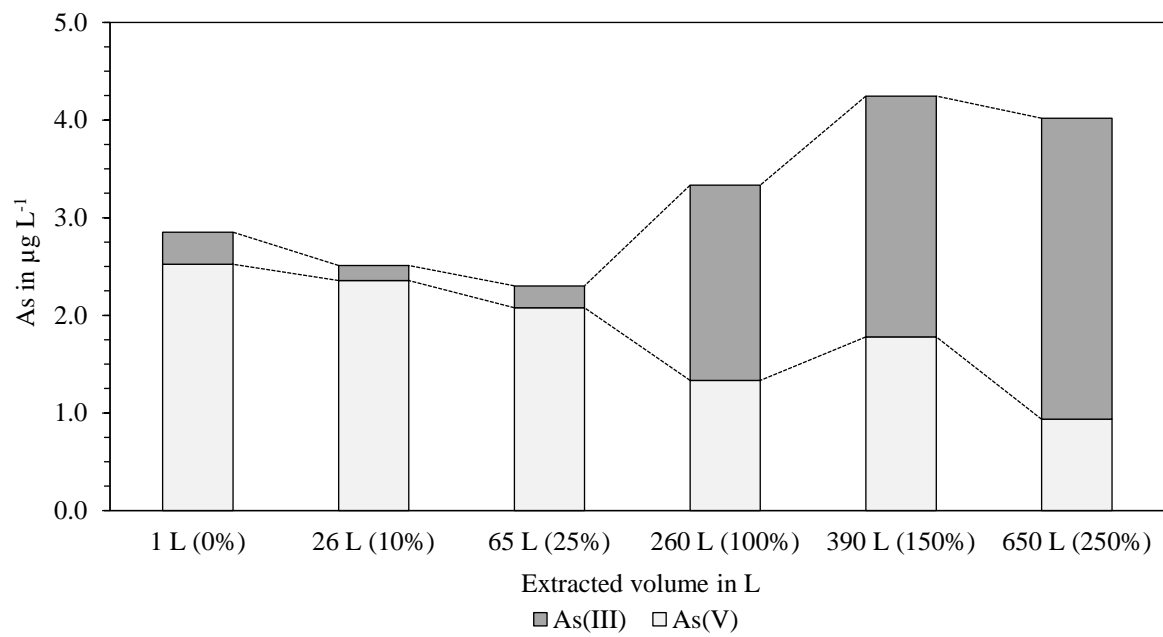


Figure 6

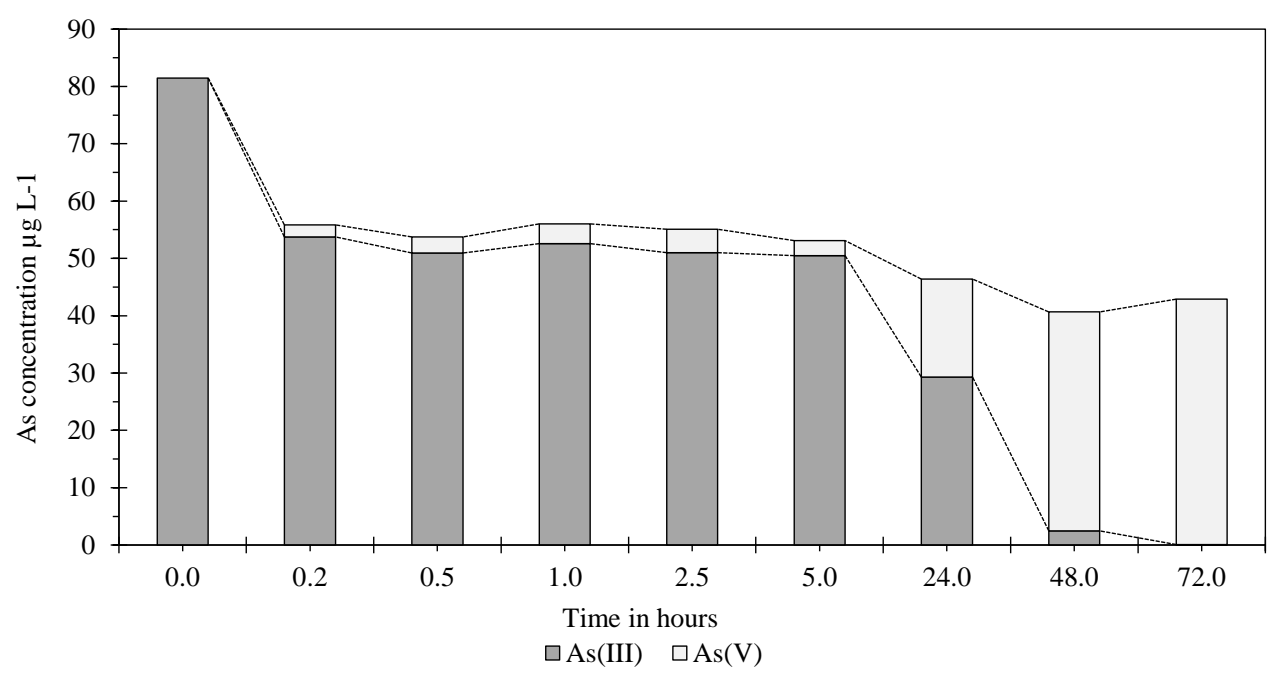
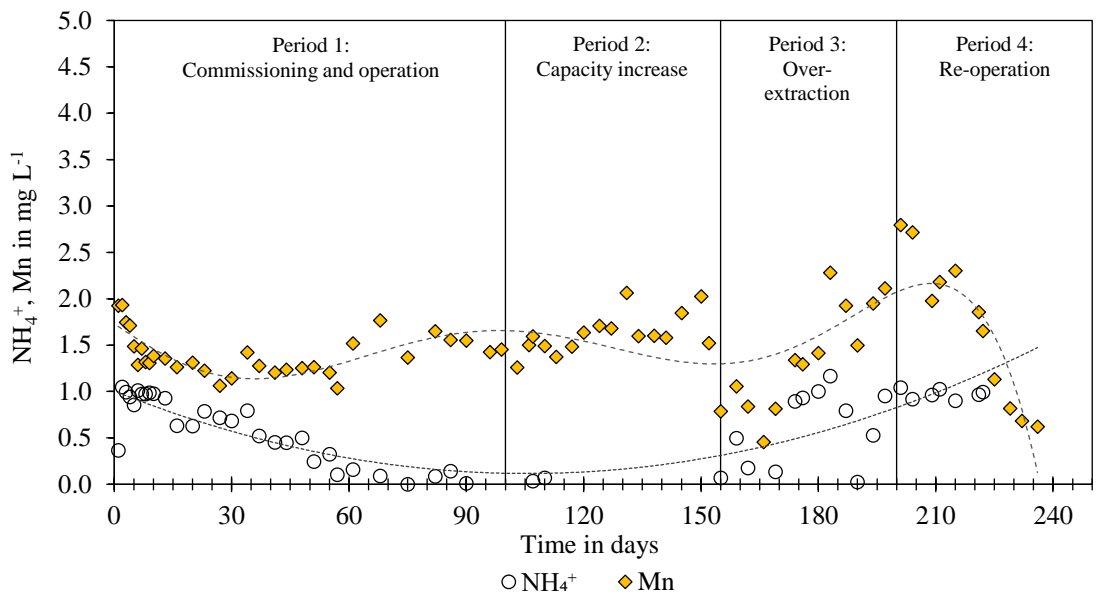


Figure 7



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Reply to Editor:

The authors thank the Editor for the consideration to publish this article. Authors have carefully revised and corrected the manuscript following the reviewers' comments. Moreover, some authors have changed the working position, therefore the authors would like to update their affiliation in the revised version. Authors hope to get an acceptance to these minor changes.

A supplementary material has been attached at the end of the manuscript (and additionally uploaded as electronic supplementary material), following reviewers recommendation.

Kind regards

Prof. Dr. Jan Hoinkis

**Electronic Supplementary Material (for online publication only)**

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# Iron-based subsurface arsenic removal (SAR): Results of a long-term pilot-scale test in Vietnam

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## 16 Abstract

17 The principle of subsurface arsenic removal (SAR) from groundwater is based on oxidation and ad-  
18 sorption reactions by infiltrating oxygen into the anoxic aquifer and the immobilization of arsenic (As)  
19 onto freshly formed iron (Fe) oxides. In this study, a pilot-scale plant for SAR has been subject to long  
20 term testing in the Mekong Delta, Vietnam. Initial concentrations of Fe ( $8.4 \pm 1.3 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) and As ( $81 \pm$   
21  $8 \text{ } \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) in the exploited groundwater were successfully lowered to below the WHO guideline value  
22 limits for drinking water of  $0.3 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  and  $10 \text{ } \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  respectively. Adsorption and co-precipitation of  
23 As with iron oxides could be identified as the principal mechanism responsible for the As removal  
24 from groundwater, demonstrating the feasibility of SAR as a low-cost and zero-waste solution over a  
25 period of two years. However, naturally occurring geochemical reducing conditions and high ammo-  
26 nium levels in the groundwater delayed the removal of manganese (Mn). An additional post-treatment  
27 filtration for Mn-removal was temporarily used to comply with the Vietnamese drinking water stan-  
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29 nologies, SAR appears to be a long-term, sustainable treatment option with the salient advantage of  
30 negligible production of toxic waste, which with ex-situ processes require additionally management  
31 costs.

32 **Keywords:** Subsurface arsenic mitigation; Mekong Delta; oxidation/adsorption; zero-waste, low-cost;  
33 groundwater contamination

## 34 1. Introduction

### 35 1.1. Arsenic in groundwater

36 Arsenic (As) is considered to be one of the most serious, naturally occurring, inorganic contaminants  
37 in groundwater on a global scale (Amini et al., 2008; Sarkar and Paul, 2016; Srivastava, 2020) and it  
38 has been recognized as a significant environmental cause of cancer mortality (Khan et al., 2020; WHO,  
39 2012). Arsenic occurrence in natural groundwater varies depending on the local geology, the hydro-  
40 chemical characteristics of the aquifer and the pH and redox-dependent mechanisms for its mobiliza-  
41 tion from the solid phase into the groundwater. Arsenic is found mainly as arsenate (As(V)) and ar-

42 senite (As(III)) species in reducing and oxidizing milieus, respectively (Campbell and Nordstrom,  
43 2014; Kumar et al., 2020; D. Zhang et al., 2017a). High concentrations of geogenic As are found in the  
44 groundwater of many world regions including Southeast Asia (Palit et al., 2019; Uppal et al., 2019),  
45 Bangladesh (Chakraborti et al., 2015; Huq et al., 2020), India (Bhowmick et al., 2018; Sankar et al.,  
46 2014), China (Li et al., 2020; L. Zhang et al., 2017), North (Janković, 2020) and Latin America  
47 (Bundschuh et al., 2012; Litter et al., 2020) as well as Australia and Europe (Medunić et al., 2020).  
48 Geogenic As in oxidizing aquifers is mostly associated to bedrock lithology and originates typically  
49 from leaching of geological materials (e.g. hard rock and sediments) (Huq et al., 2020; D. Zhang et al.,  
50 2017b), in some areas from geothermal fluids and volcanic ashes (Morales-Simfors et al., 2020a) and  
51 products from mining (e.g. tailings) and related activities (Ciminelli, 2014). Additionally, important ar-  
52 tificial As sources can result from agricultural activities (e.g. pesticides). These sources can impact  
53 groundwater in regions as described from Latin America with its mostly oxidizing aquifers  
54 (Bundschuh et al., 2012; Litter et al., 2020; Morales-Simfors et al., 2020b). The mobilisation and re-  
55 lease of geogenic As into the groundwater in reducing aquifers, such as in most of Southeast Asia, is a  
56 result of the reductive dissolution of both iron (Fe) and manganese (Mn) oxi(hydr)oxides from As-  
57 bearing sediments (Berg et al., 2007; Norrman et al., 2008; D. Zhang et al., 2017a). In addition, some  
58 of these regions with predominantly high levels of As also show particularly high levels of ammonium  
59 ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) (Jia et al., 2018; Norrman et al., 2015) and  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  (Berg et al., 2008; Datta et al., 2014).

## 60 *1.2. Arsenic remediation*

61 There are many established methods for treating As contaminated water. The most common include  
62 oxidation and filtration, adsorption, ion exchange and separation by membrane technologies, each dis-  
63 playing different advantages and disadvantages (Ghosh N. et al., 2019; Jadhav et al., 2015; Litter et al.,  
64 2019; Nicomel et al., 2015; Singh et al., 2015). Other emerging technologies comprise electrochemical  
65 and coagulation processes, phytoremediation and alternative adsorptive materials (Kumar et al., 2019).  
66 The main disadvantage of these “*ex-situ*” technologies is the generation of As-laden waste in the form  
67 of solids or concentrate streams, which have to be disposed of safely (Clancy et al., 2013). As a conse-

68 quence, the safety and disposal costs of As-bearing wastes become an issue and alternative techniques  
69 with an economical and environmental sustainable concept approach are needed.

70 The *in-situ* As treatment by aeration is a technique based on subsurface iron removal (SIR), which has  
71 proven to be a technically feasible practise in Europe and the United States for decades in a variety of  
72 hydrogeochemical settings for the *in-situ* treatment of Fe, Mn and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  in groundwater (Ahmad, 2012;  
73 Grischek et al., 2015; Hallberg and Martinell, 1976; Henning and Rott, 2003; Karakish, 2005; Rott and  
74 Friedle, 2000; Rott and Kauffmann, 2008). However, subsurface As removal (SAR) is not yet an es-  
75 tablished solution and has only been tested in a very limited number of laboratory tests and pilot trials  
76 (Kundu et al., 2018; Rahman et al., 2014; Rott et al., 1996; Sarkar and Rahman, 2001; Sen Gupta et al.,  
77 2009; van Halem et al., 2010, 2009).

78 The majority of studies on SAR have focused on the vulnerability of the process to diverse geochemi-  
79 cal conditions such as pH, redox potential (Eh) and the presence of co-ions such as phosphates, sul-  
80 phates, carbonates and ammonium (Luong et al., 2018) that are competing with As for adsorption sites  
81 and can have a negative influence on the As removal. In some cases, this can make it difficult to com-  
82 ply with the stringent guideline value for drinking water recommended by the WHO of  $10 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$   
83 (WHO, 2017). However, the salient advantage of SAR is its low operating and maintenance costs,  
84 combined with its negligible waste production, with no waste streams containing toxic As. The major  
85 questions that arise regarding SAR are the stability of the subsurface adsorption, the possible remobili-  
86 zation of As and its accumulation in the aquifer (Grischek et al., 2015; Rahman et al., 2014; van Halem  
87 et al., 2011).

### 88 *1.3. Principle of SAR*

89 The basic principle of SAR is based on the adsorption and co-precipitation of As onto Fe-(hydr)oxides  
90 by periodically extracting anoxic groundwater, aerating it and infiltrating the oxygen-rich water back  
91 into the aquifer. Oxygen reacts with dissolved iron ( $\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ) to form HFOs, which are poorly crystalline  
92 oxides with high porosity and large surface areas (oxidation). When water is abstracted, dissolved As  
93 adsorbs onto the freshly formed HFOs (adsorption) and groundwater with lower As concentrations can  
94 be extracted.



95 A given amount of groundwater with low-arsenic can be extracted after each infiltration cycle. This  
96 volume depends on the amount of oxygen that is available for the oxidation reactions (Kundu et al.,  
97 2018; Luong et al., 2018; Rott and Friedle, 2000). In order to estimate the treatment capacity of each  
98 plant and the amount of water that can be extracted after each infiltration, an important parameter of a  
99 SAR system is the injection-to-extraction ratio  $Q_E = V_I/V_E$ , which is the ratio of the volume of infil-  
100 trated oxygenated water ( $V_I$ ) to the amount of extracted treated water ( $V_E$ ). This volume-specific pa-  
101 rameter is a design parameter principally given by the quality of the raw water and can be calculated  
102 from the stoichiometric oxygen amount required for the chemical oxidation process (Luong et al.,  
103 2018).

104 With a ratio of, for example,  $Q_E = 0.5$ , the infiltration of 1 m<sup>3</sup> allows the extraction of 2 m<sup>3</sup> of fresh wa-  
105 ter. However, in anoxic groundwater with high oxygen demand, for example due to high Mn<sup>2+</sup> and  
106 NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> concentrations,  $Q_E$  may be higher than 1, meaning more volume must be infiltrated than the  
107 amount that can be extracted.

108 Since the abstracted groundwater is always infiltrated back into the aquifer, no water is lost and no  
109 waste stream is produced, which is another important feature of the process. However, the treated wa-  
110 ter quality can, in some exceptional cases (e.g. technical failure infiltration or over-extraction in daily  
111 operation), gradually decrease. This is also discussed later as a breakthrough experiment (see Section  
112 3.2). As oxidation reactions in the aquifer are also coupled with microbial oxidation, the sorption and  
113 co-precipitation processes in the aquifer can be also influenced by given natural hydrogeological con-  
114 ditions and microbial activity of the aquifer. In order to ensure a safe water supply and avoid over-  
115 extraction, a maximum daily limit  $V_{E,max}$  is set for each individual SAR plant (Luong et al., 2018,  
116 2019).

#### 117 *1.4. Objectives*

118 The main objective of this study is to prove the feasibility of the SAR process as a sustainable treat-  
119 ment option for simultaneous Fe and As removal and to evaluate the technology on a pilot-scale. For  
120 the first time, its long-term stability in terms of removal efficiency, operation stability and energy de-

121 mand has been evaluated in the course of 2 years. The pilot SAR plant was installed in the Mekong  
122 Delta, Vietnam, as part of the joint research project WaKap from 2016 to 2019 (Hoinkis et al., 2016).

## 123 2. Method

### 124 2.1. SAR pilot plant and location

125 The SAR pilot plant (*FERMANOX®-Wasseraufbereitung type BV 45*; Figure 1) was installed in the  
126 village of Cho Vam in the Province of An Giang in the Mekong-Delta, Vietnam, next to the Cambo-  
127 dian border (coordinates: N 10.719308, E 105.331354). This province has previously been identified  
128 as one of the most affected by high As concentrations in the country with more than 75% of wells ana-  
129 lysed presenting concentrations higher than  $10 \mu\text{g As L}^{-1}$  (Kỳ, 2009; Thur et al., 2011).

130 The plant was setup for the treatment of As-laden groundwater and the water supply of a small group  
131 of people from a religious community. The existing shallow tube well ( $\text{Ø} = 42 \text{ cm}$ ) had a depth of  
132 17 m and was connected to an existing storage tank used for water storage and supply for irrigation,  
133 toilet flushing and washing. Figure 1 shows the installation of the SAR pilot plant with the available  
134 storage tank and an extra aeration tank.

135



136  
137  
138

Figure 1: SAR pilot plant (*FERMANOX®-Wasseraufbereitung type BV 45*) in An Giang, Vietnam, incl. delivery pump, pressure tank, Mn-filter and UV-lamp for post-treatment

140 Before the trial tests started, 52 possible pilot sites were analysed in the province of An Giang from  
 141 which the pilot test site was selected (detailed results: see Supplement 1 and Supplement 2). The pres-  
 142 ence of preferably high concentrations  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  was important for the site selection, since a successful As-  
 143 mitigation is based on the adsorption onto and the co-precipitation with the HFOs. Other important cri-  
 144 teria considered were low  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  as well as the total water demand of the well.

145 Full analysis results of the groundwater at the selected well in Cho Vam are presented in Table 1.  
 146 Analyses were carried out at different times of the year in order to assess seasonal fluctuations in the  
 147 groundwater quality prior to the beginning of the pilot. The high Fe:As ratio of the selected site of  
 148  $106 \pm 24$  (w/w) was favourable for the arsenic adsorption (average ratio of study area: Fe:As =  $22 \pm 48$   
 149 (w/w) (see Supplement 2). However, the presence of ions such as phosphate ( $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$ ) and silicate (Si)  
 150 competing with As for adsorption sites due to their similar adsorption mechanisms can hinder the ef-  
 151 fective removal of As. Furthermore,  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations above the drinking water stan-  
 152 dards in the groundwater may challenge the complete treatment. For this reason, these parameters were  
 153 carefully monitored during the pilot tests.

154 Table 1: Analysis of raw groundwater at SAR test site before trial tests (2016-2017)

Parameter	Unit	Nov 16 <sup>a</sup>	Feb 17 <sup>b</sup>	Jun 17 <sup>c</sup>	Jul 17 <sup>c*</sup>	Average
T	°C	29.0	26.4	N/A	29.5	28.3 ±1.4
pH	-	7.1	7.2	N/A	6.8	7.0 ±0.2
E.C.	$\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$	482	440	N/A	489	470 ±22
<i>t</i> -As	$\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$	92	78	71	82	81 ±8
$\text{Fe}^{2+}$	$\text{mg L}^{-1}$	7.0	7.4	10	9.0	8.4 ±1.3
Fe:As	-	76	95	141	111	106 ±24
$\text{Mn}^{2+}$	$\text{mg L}^{-1}$	2.3	1.4	2.1	1.9	1.9 ±0.3
Si	$\text{mg L}^{-1}$	16	15	11	19	15 ±3
$\text{Na}^+$	$\text{mg L}^{-1}$	28	16	18	22	21 ±5
$\text{NH}_4^+$	$\text{mg L}^{-1}$	1.1	0.89	1.2	1.1	1.1 ±0.1
$\text{K}^+$	$\text{mg L}^{-1}$	N/A	2.1	2.1	2.4	1.9 ±0.4
$\text{Ca}^{2+}$	$\text{mg L}^{-1}$	18	19	28	N/A	22 ±5
$\text{Mg}^{2+}$	$\text{mg L}^{-1}$	10	9.3	12	13	11 ±1
Cl	$\text{mg L}^{-1}$	15	8.3	N/A	22	15 ±5
$\text{PO}_4^{3-}$	$\text{mg L}^{-1}$	1.0	1.0	N/A	1.9	1.3 ±0
$\text{SO}_4^{2-}$	$\text{mg L}^{-1}$	1.2	1.0	2.7	N/A	1.6 ±0.7
TOC	$\text{mg L}^{-1}$	N/A	N/A	8.3	7.2	5.9 ±3

<sup>a</sup> end of rainy season in 2016; <sup>b</sup> dry season in 2017; <sup>c</sup> rainy season in 2017; \*start of operation  
 E.C.: electrical conductivity; TOC: total organic carbon; N/A: not available/not measured

### 2.3. Plant operation

The pilot plant scheme is displayed in Figure 2 showing the SAR storage tank (390 L) with an air injection nozzle and air filter, the feed pump (Speck PM 15) with pressure vessel (200 L) and an automatic control unit (CU) to monitor and regulate the infiltration and extraction processes depending on the actual water demand. An extension tank (1000 L) was added in a later stage to increase the treatment capacity of the plant.

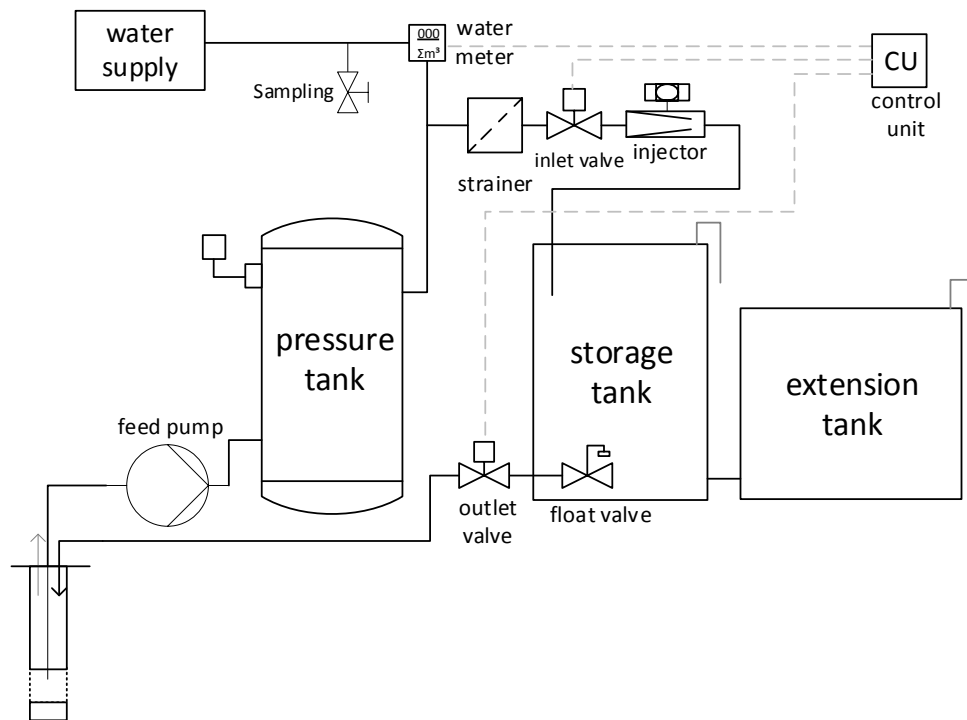


Figure 2: Scheme of SAR pilot plant for subsurface arsenic removal (SAR)

The SAR system was operated in intermittent daily cycles as manufacturer's recommendation using the following basic steps:

1. *Aeration*: Anoxic groundwater is extracted from the aquifer using the feed pump and aerated with an air injector at a pressure of  $p_{\min} > 0.28$  MPa. Here, a pressure tank is used which is regulated by a pressure switch ( $0.28 < p < 0.35$  MPa). Each aeration cycle is controlled automatically by the CU of the system which is programmed to carry out a maximum of two cycles daily.
2. *Infiltration/adsorption*: After the groundwater is aerated, the oxygen-rich water (DO: saturation  $> 99\%$ ) is re-injected through the tube well into the aquifer via gravity, lifting the redox potential of the anoxic aquifer and inducing the formation of oxidation and adsorption zones around

173 the well. Here,  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  is oxidized to Fe(III)-(hydr)oxides or HFOs. Then, As adsorbs onto the  
174 freshly formed HFOs and is co-precipitated within the Fe-(hydr)oxide-matrix.

175 3. *Abstraction*: When water is abstracted, raw groundwater flows through the oxida-  
176 tion/adsorption zone where As is adsorbed and more Fe(III)-(hydroxides) are formed, creating  
177 more adsorption places for the next cycle.

178 4. Treated water can be abstracted from the well in line with the maximum daily capacity  $V_{E,\max}$ .

179 The number of *infiltration* cycles ( $n$ ) was regulated with a control unit based on the water consump-  
180 tion. The maximum infiltration cycles was set to  $n_{\max} = 2$ . If no water consumption occurred, no infil-  
181 tration was needed ( $n = 0$ ), however, an infiltration cycle was carried out every 2 days even without  
182 consumption in order to assure the process stability.

183 The pilot trials were carried out in four operational periods: during the first three months (Period 1),  
184 the plant had an infiltration capacity of  $V_{I,1} = 390$  L (size of SAR tank) which corresponded to an ex-  
185 traction volume of  $V_{E,1,\max} = 470$  L with two infiltration cycles per day ( $2 \cdot V_{I,1} = 780$  L) and an infiltra-  
186 tion-to-abstraction ratio of  $Q_E = 1.66$ .

187 For the second period (Period 2), the infiltration volume was increased to  $V_{I,2} = 1390$  L (SAR tank +  
188 extension tank with a capacity of 1000 L). With two infiltrations cycles per day ( $2 \cdot V_{I,2} = 2780$  L), a to-  
189 tal volume  $V_{E,2,\max} = 1900$  L could be extracted daily. This corresponds to an infiltration-to-abstraction  
190 ratio of  $Q_E = 1.46$ .

191 In the third and fourth period, the process stability was evaluated during over-extraction (Period 3) and  
192 after re-operation (Period 4).

193 In order to ensure a safe operation, an alarm was triggered when  $V_{E,\max}$  was exceeded. This not only  
194 prevented the breakthrough of contaminants, but also prolonged the well life by protecting the extrac-  
195 tion area surrounding the tube well from incrustations. Furthermore, no water was extracted from the  
196 well during each infiltration cycle plus at least 15 min of subsequent rest time. This was done to avoid  
197 re-abstraction of oxygenated water after infiltration.

#### 2.4. Sampling and analysis

Water samples were taken daily from the sample valve during the first ten days of commissioning and twice a week thereafter. Every time a sample was taken, groundwater was firstly abstracted and stored in the water supply tank until it reached the maximum extracted capacity  $V_{E,max}$ . The samples were acidified with nitric or hydrochloric acid for conservation before transporting them to the laboratory. Values for pH and electrical conductivity (E.C.) were measured on-site or at the laboratory (raw samples) using a portable sensor (WTW Multi-Parameter 3430). An atomic adsorption spectrometer (Analytik Jena con-trAA® 300) was used with flame technique (50 mm burner with air/acetylene gases) for the determination of  $Mn^{2+}$  and  $Fe^{2+}$ , while, hydride generation (HS 55 batch system) was used for total arsenic (t-As) determination (Analytik Jena AG, 2019). Moreover, special cartridges (Meng-cartridges, METALSOFT) were used for As(III)/As(V) separation to conduct As-speciation (Meng et al., 2001). Ion chromatography (Metrohm 883 Basic IC plus) was used to analyse cations (Metrosep C4-150/4.0 column) according to ISO 14911 and anions (Metrosep A Supp 5-150/4.0 column). The TOC was analysed with a Shimadzu TOC-L Analyzer. Measurements were repeated at least twice and samples were stored in line with the ISO 5667 3 standard.

#### 2.5. Data gathering

This study shows the results of two years of operation including installation and commissioning of the SAR plant. Data on water samples (chemical and physical parameters), water withdrawal and energy consumption were recorded continuously for the first 8 months to evaluate the process operation and efficiency. Afterwards, the well data were periodically monitored for the complete 28 months to show the long-term stability and monitor the energy consumption.

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Iron and arsenic removal

Results in Figure 3 show how the initial Fe concentration of  $9.0 \pm 1 \text{ mg Fe L}^{-1}$  dropped to below the Vietnamese drinking water standard value of  $0.3 \text{ mg Fe L}^{-1}$  within the first week of operation. This demonstrates that the oxidation of dissolved  $Fe^{2+}$  to particulate  $Fe^{3+}$  (HFO) occurs rapidly after the first

225 infiltration cycles as it occurs in the SIR process (Braester and Martinell, 1988; Rott, 1985; Rott and  
 226 Lamberth, 1993; Van Beek, 1983).

227 The As elimination process was evaluated by monitoring the As immobilisation onto the Fe(III)-  
 228 surfaces during each of the four operational periods (see Section 2.3 Plant operation). Arsenic mitiga-  
 229 tion only started after the first infiltration cycles occurred with As concentrations decreasing from day  
 230 2 to concentrations around  $20 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ , remaining constant for the first ten days. Compliance for As  
 231 standard of  $10 \mu\text{g As L}^{-1}$  was achieved after 14 days, removing more than 95% of the initial As con-  
 232 centration ( $82 \pm 10 \mu\text{g As L}^{-1}$ ) and with As levels dropping continuously to concentration below  
 233  $2 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ . This shows the complete adsorption of As requires the formation of enough HFO after sev-  
 234 eral cycles.

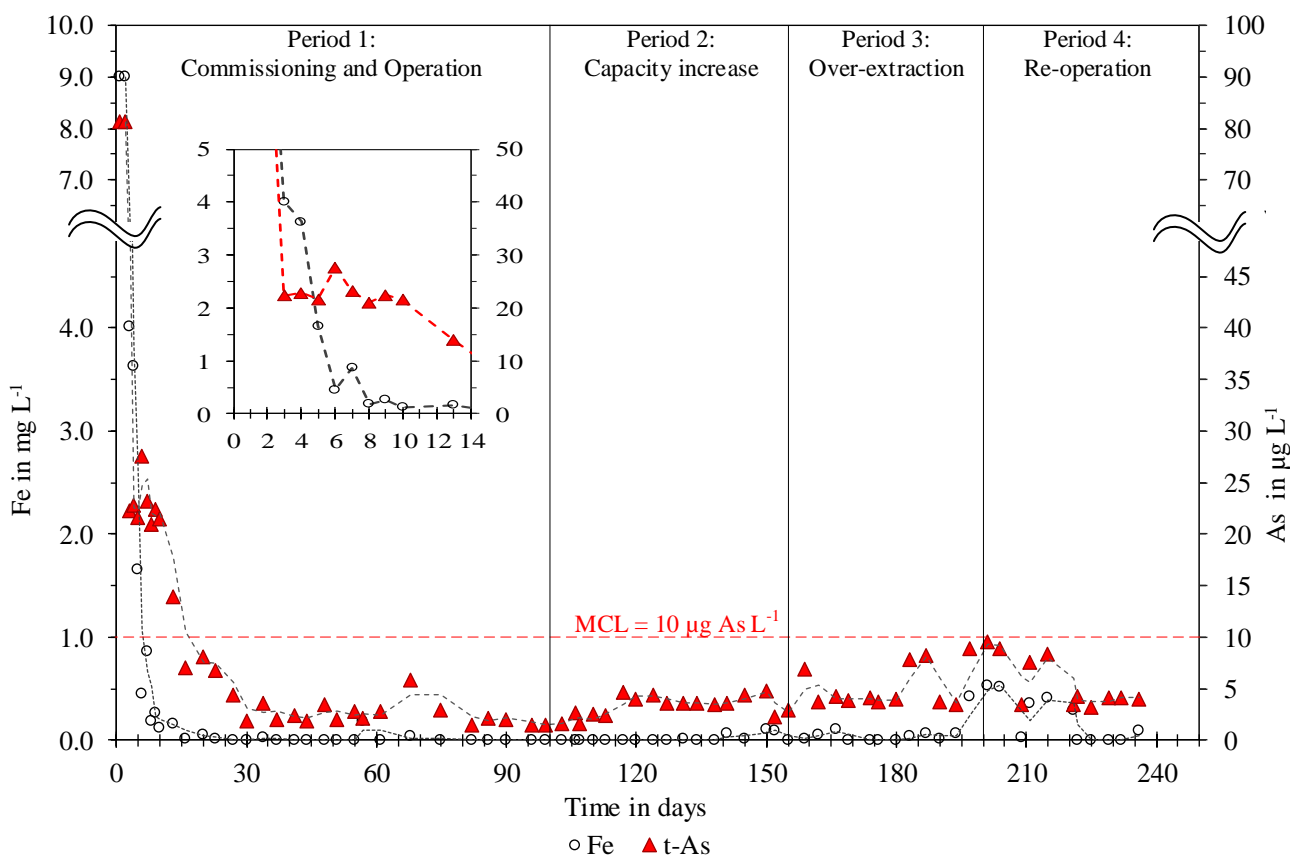
235 The mass balance for As and HFO (in the form of FeOOH) of the first 14 days including the extracted  
 236 volumes are listed in Table 2. Results show a significant increase in the As and Fe removal from day 8  
 237 to day 9, and indicate the adsorption reaches an equilibrium with an As adsorption capacity of  
 238  $q_m = 8.0 \pm 1 \mu\text{g As mg FeOOH}^{-1}$ .

239 Table 2: Iron and As mass balances during SAR adsorption for the first 14 days of operation with a daily injection volume  
 240  $V_I = 780 \text{ L}$  (two infiltration cycles).

Day	$V_E$ (L)	$\dot{m}_{As}$ ( $\text{mg day}^{-1}$ )	$\dot{m}_{FeOOH}$ ( $\text{mg day}^{-1}$ )	$q_m^*$ ( $\text{mg As g FeOOH}^{-1}$ )
1	250	14.7	1247	11.8
2	260	14.6	1342	10.9
3	260	15.5	1907	8.1
4	260	13.9	2220	6.3
5	260	15.1	2115	7.1
6	260	15.6	2292	6.8
7	260	15.3	2271	6.7
8	260	15.5	2307	6.7
9	510	34.3	4506	7.6
10	660	48.9	5926	8.3
11	465	34.0	4160	8.2
12	400	29.7	3595	8.3
13	520	39.9	4680	8.5
14	570	45.2	5130	8.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>5.2 m<sup>3</sup></b>	<b>0.35 g As</b>	<b>43.7 g FeOOH</b>	<b>8.0 ± 1 mg g<sup>-1</sup></b>

\*Average adsorption capacity calculated from daily As and Fe loads.

241 In period 2, after the increase of the total plant capacity (day 100), concentrations of dissolved Fe and  
 242 As continued to remain stable well below the drinking water standard with only small fluctuations in  
 243 the concentrations being observed, which can be attributed to natural fluctuations in groundwater con-  
 244 centrations and increased water withdrawal depending on consumer behaviour. In period 3 (day 155)  
 245 water was extracted for 12 days while no infiltration was carried out due to a technical problem with  
 246 the motor of the feed pump, which led to an over-extraction ( $V_E > V_{E,max}$ ). The over-extraction contin-  
 247 ued during period 3 for a total of 51 days due to electrical failure of the water meter and the CU. Al-  
 248 though more water was extracted than the allowed daily limit  $V_E > V_{E,max} = 1900$  L, no As break-  
 249 through above the drinking water limit was observed and Fe remained close to the standard of  
 250  $0.3 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  with only a small increment to a maximum of  $0.51 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ .



251 Figure 3: Iron and total arsenic concentrations after SAR treatment at pilot site location for a total of 8 months including  
 252 four operational periods. Horizontal line: Arsenic drinking water guideline WHO (2017); MCL: Max. contaminant level.  
 253  
 254 Increases in As concentrations during periods 3 and 4 as well as the concentration spikes seen during  
 255 early operation days (day 6, day 74) indicate a strong correlation to the increases in Fe concentrations,  
 256 showing that As breakthrough may occur from desorption from HFO. These results also suggest that



257 the removal of As correlated to the oxidation rate of iron, since even small fluctuations in Fe removal  
258 show change in As concentration, thus validating the proposed adsorption mechanisms of As onto the  
259 Fe(III)-(hydr)oxides. In total, As concentrations remained below the  $10 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  limit for a total of 51  
260 days, reaching a maximum value of  $9.6 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ .

261 After regular infiltration was resumed and operation continued normally, Fe concentrations started to  
262 slowly drop to values below the drinking water limit. This shows the feasibility of the process for As  
263 removal in the long-run and its stability despite technical complications or over-extraction. However,  
264 some difficulties were observed for the elimination of Mn and  $\text{NH}_4^+$ . The detailed results are shown in  
265 Section 3.3.

266 By assuming a monolayer adsorption theory, the adsorption behaviour can be described with the lin-  
267 earized mathematical form of Langmuir isotherm:

$$\frac{C_e}{q_e} = \frac{C_e}{q_m} + \frac{1}{q_m \cdot b} \quad (\text{Eq.1})$$

268  
269 with  $q_e$  (in  $\text{mg g}^{-1}$ ) being the amount of adsorbate (in mg As) removed per weight adsorbent (in  
270 g FeOOH),  $C_e$  the As concentration at equilibrium (in  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ ), the maximum adsorption capacity  $q_m$   
271 (in  $\text{mg g}^{-1}$ ) and  $b$  the Langmuir constant (in  $\text{L mg}^{-1}$ ). The isotherm parameters  $q_m$  and  $b$  can be deter-  
272 mined from the slope and intercept of the linear regression of the isotherm by plotting  $C_e/q_e$  versus  $C_e$ .  
273 The values of  $q_m = 7.9 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$  and  $b = 0.67 \text{ L mg}^{-1}$  obtained are in line with the  $q_m$  value calculated  
274 from the As uptake in Table 2; however, showing lower adsorption to those found in literature for As-  
275 batch experiments (Li et al., 2015) ( $q_m = 28.6 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$  and  $b = 2.14 \text{ L mg}^{-1}$ ). The larger the  $q_m$  value, the  
276 larger the adsorption capacity whereas  $b$  indicates a stronger adsorption bond. The low adsorption ca-  
277 pacity calculated can be explained by the differences in real and laboratory conditions, and can be an  
278 indication of a limited adsorption due to the presence of competing ions in the raw groundwater.

### 3.2. Arsenic breakthrough experiments

After one month of operation, As breakthrough tests were carried out on site to evaluate the quality of the treated water over the course of one infiltration-extraction cycle. The tests were done by measuring the total arsenic (t-As) concentration and the As species distribution (arsenite As(III) and arsenate As(V)). When the SAR completed an infiltration cycle (volume  $V_{I,1} = 390$  L during period 1), treated water was pumped and samples were taken at different intervals (first sample at point ZERO) until reaching the 100% treatment target ( $V_{E,max} = 260$  L). Additionally, two more samples were examined at 150% of  $V_{E,max}$  (360 L) and 250% of  $V_{E,max}$  (650 L) for evaluating if any As breakthrough occurred during over-extraction. The results are presented in Figure 4.

Analyses show a slight rise in both t-As and As(III) concentrations with increasing extraction volume. It is important for the successful SAR process that sufficient HFO-surface area is provided for the effective As-adsorption. Some previous studies on the correlation of As adsorption in Fe oxidation show that Fe oxidation is influenced by the dissolved oxygen content in the infiltrated water (van Halem et al., 2010, 2009; Visoottiviseth and Ahmed, 2008). The more water is abstracted, the more Fe and As enter the treatment zone (oxidation area) and, correspondingly, the more oxygen is used for the oxidation reactions. This leads to the depletion of the oxidation zone and the decrease in the available area for further As-adsorption. Moreover, the increase of the As(III):As(V) ratio indicates both the decrease in As(III) oxidation to As(V) and the breakthrough of raw anoxic groundwater containing As(III) from the outer oxidation zone into the extraction area closer to the well. However, the increase in t-As is not substantial, indicating that the As removal persists even after 2.5 times more water is extracted than the given maximum  $V_{E,max}$ .

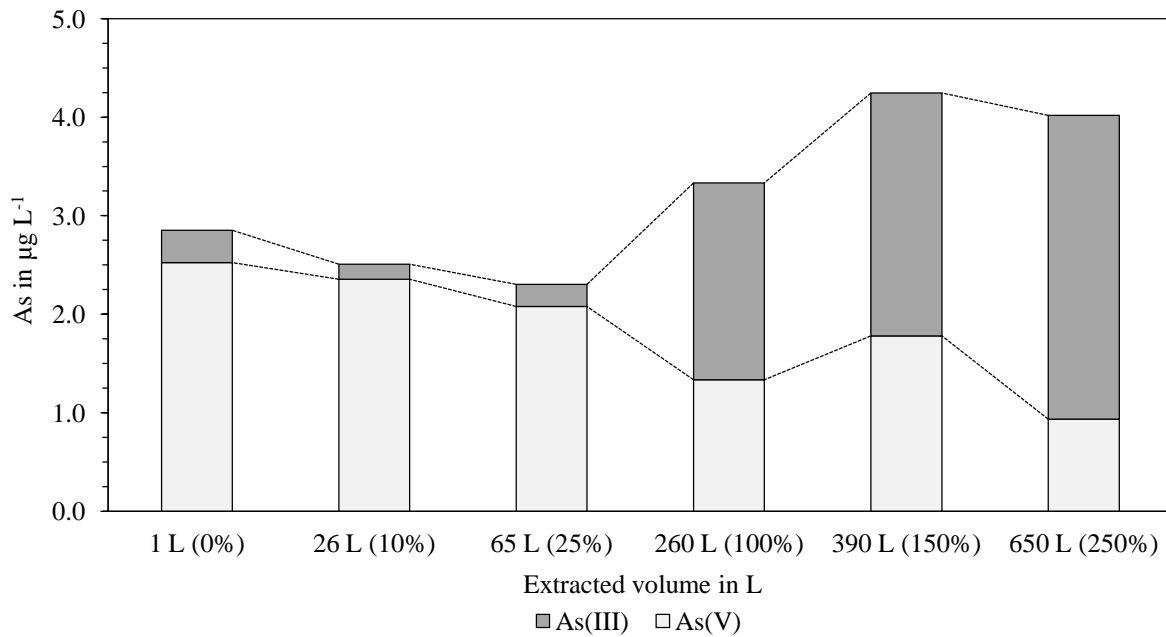
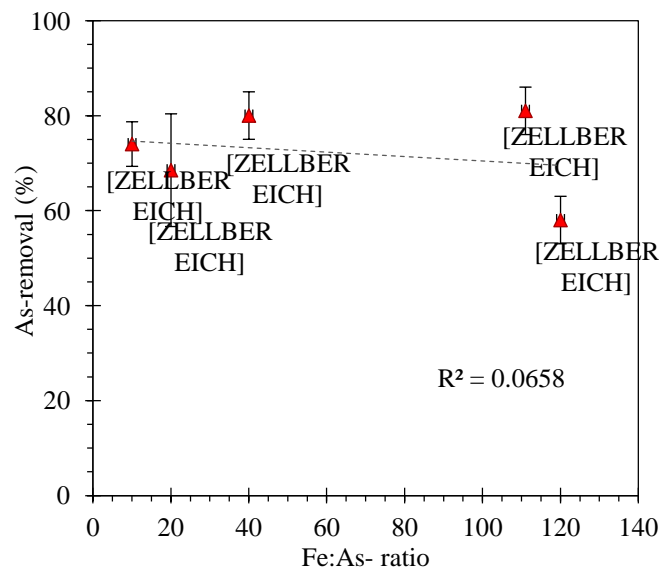


Figure 4: Total As concentration and As distribution in treated water (SAR) with increasing extracted volume at test site. Values in brackets correspond to the share of extracted volume to  $V_E$  ( $V_E = 260\text{L}$ ); values above 100% correspond to over-extraction.

301  
302  
303  
304

305 For the effective removal of As by use of oxidation/filtration processes, a minimum Fe:As ratio of 20  
306 (w/w) is recommended in the literature (EPA, 2012). On the contrary, the experimental results show no  
307 significant correlation between the Fe:As ratio and the overall As mitigation. To evaluate this and the  
308 dependence of the adsorption to the oxygen demand and the Fe:As ratio, twelve small-scale aeration  
309 experiments were carried out with model water ( $N = 12$ ) and real water on-site ( $N = 1$ ). Model water  
310 containing  $5 \text{ mg Fe L}^{-1}$  and increasing As-concentrations (from 125 to  $500 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) was aerated using  
311 2 L glass beakers and an air pump with stone bubbler. Additionally, two experiments with higher iron  
312 ( $7.2$  and  $9.0 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) and concentrations of 60 and  $81 \mu\text{g As L}^{-1}$  were carried out to also simulate higher  
313 Fe:As ratios as found in the groundwater at the pilot location. First, DI-water in the beaker glass was  
314 purged with nitrogen gas until dissolved oxygen  $\text{DO} < 0.5 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ . DO was measured using a WTW  
315 portable sensor (OXI 3210). Samples were taken at different time intervals (0, 2.5, 5, 10, 30, 60, 120  
316 min, etc.) and filtrated immediately with a  $0.45 \mu\text{m}$  syringe filter before analysing. All experiments  
317 showed a general decrease in the t-As concentration within the initial minutes until before reaching a  
318 plateau-phase. Depending on the length of each experiment (0.5 - 120 h), the As-removal was aver-  
319 aged from the total measurements and varied between 58% and 81%. Beyond the individual adsorption  
320 behaviour of each experiment, the average removal versus the corresponding Fe:As ratios is also of in-

321 terest. The results in Figure 5 show there is no correlation between the Fe:As ratio within range 20 –  
322 120 and a higher removal efficiency.



323  
324 Figure 5: Arsenic removal efficiency versus Fe:As ratio of laboratory aeration experiments showing there is no correlation  
325 between both ( $R^2=0.0658$ ). Number of experiments:  $N = 12$ ; experimental conditions:  $\text{pH} = 8.4 \pm 0.3$ ; tempera-  
326 ture =  $24 \pm 3^\circ\text{C}$ ; length  $t = 0.5\text{-}120$  h.

327 In contrast to the tests with model water, the experiment in the beaker glass with real water (Figure 6)  
328 resulted in an overall lower As mitigation with a maximum removal efficiency of 49% in a 72 h aera-  
329 tion experiment. This may be due to the presence of competing ions such as  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  and Si that are natu-  
330 rally present in the raw water in higher concentrations than in the model water. The As(III) and As(V)  
331 ratio throughout the experiment shows an interesting trend. Initially, 100% of t-As was present as  
332 As(III), as it is in the raw groundwater. This ratio does not significantly change within the first 5 h,  
333 even though a representative part of the As-adsorption is already finalised ( $t\text{-As} = 53.1 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ). This  
334 can be explained mainly by the oxidation of As(III) to As(V) and its respective adsorption and removal  
335 from the water, however, a removal of t-As by direct adsorption of As(III) onto the Fe oxides cannot  
336 be excluded. After 72 h, the remaining amount of  $42.8 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  of t-As in the water was present as  
337 As(V). The total mitigation of only 49% indicates an unsuccessful adsorption due to limited availabil-  
338 ity of adsorption sites as seen in the jar tests with model water.

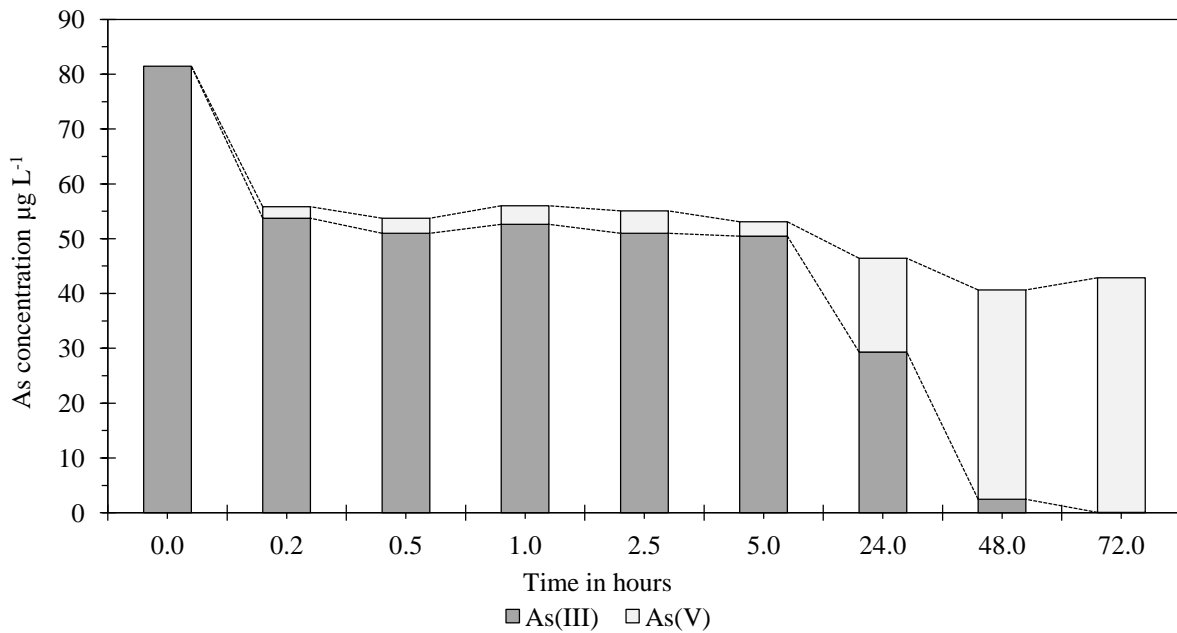


Figure 6: Total As concentration and As speciation during laboratory aeration experiment with raw water at pilot site

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340

341 Other studies with column and batch experiments also demonstrated that neither the Fe:As ratio nor  
 342 the amount of Fe present in the groundwater have a direct effect on the As removal capacity in SAR;  
 343 they indicated, rather, that the As removal is limited by the co-adsorption of competitive ions (van  
 344 Halem et al., 2009).

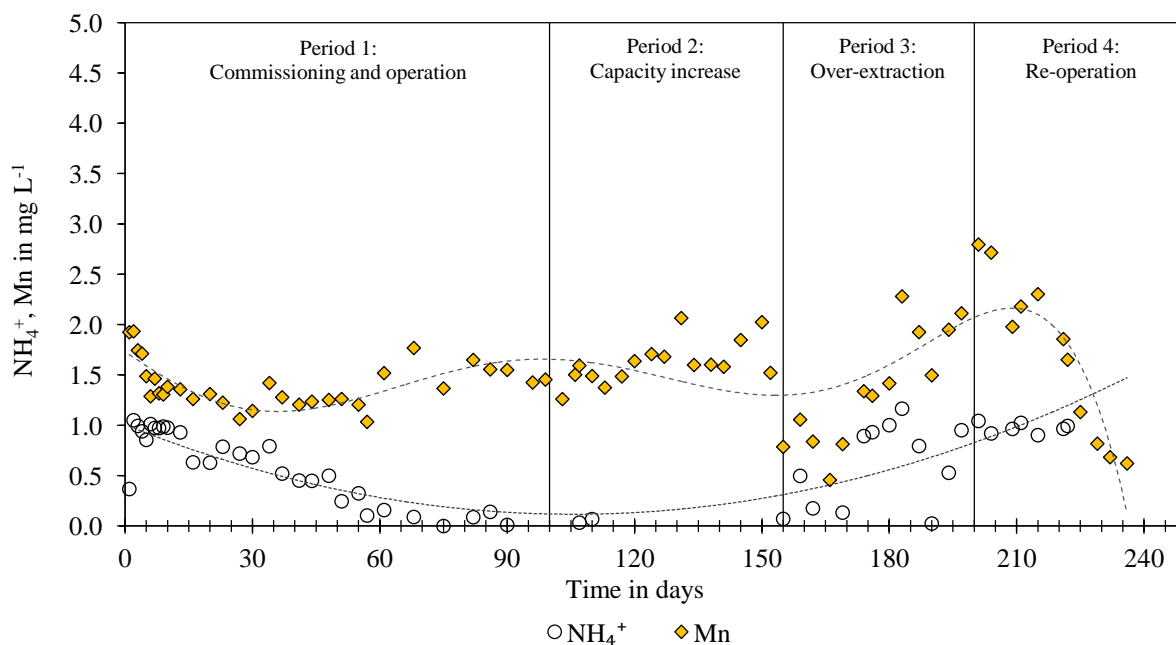
345 The results suggest that a successful SAR plant must provide both an effective oxidation zone and a  
 346 sufficient adsorption volume area. This was achieved by setting a tolerance margin for the infiltration  
 347 to abstraction ratio  $Q_E$  and fixing a daily target limit  $V_{E,max}$ . By setting this extraction limit, concentra-  
 348 tions of As remained well below the drinking water limit at  $4.25 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ . It could be possible to increase  
 349 the margin limit for improving the capacity of the plant. However, this should be only attempted after  
 350 sufficient tests have been performed.

### 351 3.3. Manganese and ammonium removal

352 The presence of ammonium nitrogen in groundwater is linked to reduced groundwater conditions that  
 353 in general promote As release (Kurosawa et al., 2013). Ammonium mitigation through SAR is based  
 354 on its oxidation to nitrate ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ ), which occurs in the subsurface through both microbial and chemical  
 355 oxidation processes. Results show that the  $\text{NH}_4^+$  removal was considerably slower than the removal  
 356 of As and Fe. The initial concentrations of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  in the raw groundwater of  $1.1 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  were below the

357 Vietnamese drinking water standard of  $3 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ . These values were gradually lowered until reaching  
 358 concentrations of around zero within the first 60 days of operation (see Figure 7). However, during pe-  
 359 riod 3 and 4, the  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations rose back to initial raw water concentrations (max. concentra-  
 360 tion day 183:  $c = 1.17 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) due to over-extraction.

361 In addition,  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  in the groundwater remained relatively stable during period 1 and 2 following natu-  
 362 ral fluctuations (average  $1.5 \pm 0.2 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) after a slight decrease from its initial value within the first  
 363 15 days. The effective Mn-removal only started on day 152, approx. 3 months after a  $\text{NH}_4^+$  mitigation  
 364 was achieved. The lowest Mn concentration was observed after 2 weeks linear decrease reaching a  
 365 concentration of  $0.46 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  (day 166). However, both Mn and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations increased fol-  
 366 lowing the excessive extraction in period 3. While the  $\text{NH}_4^+$  content rose to initial concentrations ( $c \approx$   
 367  $1.1 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ), Mn level reached a maximum of  $2.74 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  which was higher than the initial values.  
 368 This behaviour could be linked to the microbial-mediated reductive release of Mn which causes the  
 369 temporary increase in its concentration (Swain et al., 2018).



370  
 371 Figure 7: Ammonium and manganese removal at site location for the 4 operational periods.

372 Long-time experience with SIR in Europe shows that a complete removal of Mn can take long time  
 373 and a mitigation of Mn with SAR is feasible (FERMANOX, 2017). In general, the biological Mn re-  
 374 moval occurs usually simultaneous to the catalytic  $\text{MnO}_2$  oxidation, and the required start-up period of

375 biological filters can take several months (Farnsworth et al., 2012; Gouzinis et al., 1998a; Nitzsche et  
376 al., 2015).

377 The slow Mn mitigation can be associated in general to the unfavourable Eh-pH conditions given by  
378 the natural anoxic hydro-geological setting and to the high initial  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations ( $1.1 \pm$   
379  $0.1 \text{ mg NH}_4^+ \text{ L}^{-1}$ ) of the groundwater. When  $\text{NH}_4^+$  is present, the oxidation of  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  can only take  
380 place after complete nitrification due to the necessary evolution of the redox potential (Gouzinis et al.,  
381 1998b; Luong et al., 2018).

382 Nevertheless, Mn levels were lowered significantly faster after normal operation was restarted in pe-  
383 riod 4. This indicates that once the removal of Mn has been established, the microorganisms responsi-  
384 ble for the oxidation remain active and will drive the mitigation process after re-operation. In contrast  
385 to As and Fe, the rise of both Mn and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  in period 3 was observed several days delayed to the start  
386 of the over-extraction period. This can be an indication that the oxidation mechanisms are linked to  
387 microbial activity, which will respond slower than a chemical oxidation after the oxygen feeding.  
388 Ammonium concentrations remained, thus, constant throughout the measured days in period 4 (day  
389 240). Although  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations below the detection limit were reached again in later analyses  
390 (see Section 3.5), further research on the behaviour of the microorganisms involved is needed to criti-  
391 cally evaluate the role of microbial oxidation during SAR.

#### 392 *3.4. Post-treatment for Mn-removal*

393 As a result of the limitations on Mn removal, achieving Vietnamese drinking standard ( $0.3 \text{ mg Mn L}^{-1}$ )  
394 could not be accomplished within the first 240 days of operation (Figure 7). An additional post-  
395 treatment filter (with  $\text{MnO}_2$ ) for Mn-removal was temporarily used to comply with the Vietnamese  
396 drinking water standard until a Mn-mitigation was achieved by the SAR process. Concentrations of  
397 Mn before and after the oxidative granulate filter were monitored occasionally, showing that Mn con-  
398 centrations below  $0.3 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  were first achieved by use of only the SAR process (without the filter) af-  
399 ter operation day 420. However, the lack of continuous parameter monitoring after the first 8 months  
400 of study mean a Mn mitigation could have happened earlier.

### 3.5. Overall SAR efficiency

After more than two years of operation, analyses show that drinking water standard was achieved for all parameters reaching stable concentrations throughout the process. The relevant results are summarized in Table 3. All parameters including coliforms and *E. coli* were analysed additionally by different certified commercial laboratories in Ho Chi Minh City.

Table 3: Chemical analysis of raw and treated groundwater.

Parameter	Unit	Concentration raw water*	Concentration treated water <sup>†</sup>	VN drinking water limit <sup>§</sup>	Removal in %
pH	-	7.0	7.5 ± 0.4	6.5-8.5	-
Total-As	µg L <sup>-1</sup>	81	5.7 ± 2.4	10	93.0%
Total-Fe	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	8.4	0.042 ± 0.03	0.3	99.5%
Mn <sup>2+</sup>	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	1.9	0.040 ± 0.7	0.3	98.0%
NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup>	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	1.1	BDL (0.1) -	3.0	>90.5%
Coliforms	cfu/100 mL	-	BDL (1) -	0	-
<i>E. coli</i>	cfu/100 mL	-	BDL (1) -	0	-

\* see Table 1: Analysis of raw groundwater at SAR test site before trial tests (2016-2017)

<sup>†</sup> Values are averaged from different samples analysed by certified commercial lab analyses

<sup>§</sup> QCVN01: Vietnamese National technical regulation on drinking water quality, VIET NAM, 2009 (QCVN:01, 2009)

BDL = below detection limit (detection limit of method)

### 3.6. Energy demand

The energy consumption of the system including the controlling unit and monitoring devices as well as the pump for both delivery and treatment, were monitored throughout the pilot. Water demand was recorded with a water meter and water consumption was logged to the controller system. An energy meter was used to measure the total energy consumption of the plant. The specific energy consumption (SEC) of the SAR plant for both treated and supplied water ranged between 0.87 and 1.07 kWh m<sup>-3</sup> which leads to specific costs of 0.06 – 0.07 USD per cubic metre with average electricity prices of 0.07 – 0.12 USD kWh<sup>-1</sup> (retail price for household electricity: 1678 - 2927 VND/kWh (VIETNAM ELECTRICITY, 2019)). These specific costs are remarkably below the values reported in literature, with results from different field tests varying from 0.11 to 1.11 USD m<sup>-3</sup> (Shan et al., 2018) and other similar subterranean groundwater treatments reporting specific costs of about 0.5 USD m<sup>-3</sup> (Sen Gupta et al., 2009).



## 419 **Conclusion and recommendations**

- 420     ▪ Results show that subsurface arsenic removal (SAR) is a feasible mitigation technique for  
421         achieving safe drinking water from groundwater in regions like Vietnam and Southeast Asia,  
422         characterised by reducing aquifer conditions.
- 423     ▪ Arsenic concentrations were lowered well below the limit of  $10 \mu\text{g As L}^{-1}$  during the pilot  
424         phase of 2 years and remained stable throughout the process, even when temporary operational  
425         failures occurred causing the breakthrough of Fe.
- 426     ▪ The salient advantages of this technique are the negligible toxic waste production, ease-of use,  
427         and the low operational and capital costs that also make the technology suitable for low-income  
428         countries such as Vietnam.
- 429     ▪ The success of the As removal through SAR strongly depends on the infiltration to abstraction  
430         ratio of the groundwater from the aquifer. The injection - extraction dynamics should be con-  
431         trolled to ensure the complete and effective Fe oxidation with enough time allowed for the oxi-  
432         dation reactions and a sufficient adsorption area.
- 433     ▪ In contrast to other studies and pilot plants, an appropriate aeration system must ensure oxygen  
434         saturation and the extraction to infiltration ratio  $Q_E$  must be determined to avoid over-  
435         extraction.
- 436     ▪ Studying the SAR process under different hydrogeological settings is still needed to evaluate  
437         the feasibility and the range of applications of the technology, including the negative effect of  
438         co-ion adsorption and the removal efficiency when higher As levels (e.g.  $> 500 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) are pre-  
439         sent.
- 440     ▪ Hydrogeochemical conditions may affect the efficiency in obtaining drinking water standard  
441         when high  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and Mn concentrations are present. Furthermore, the construction of informal  
442         wells in unsecured surroundings and vulnerable zones increase the risk of anthropogenic  $\text{NH}_4^+$   
443         contamination and should be taken into consideration when applying SAR.

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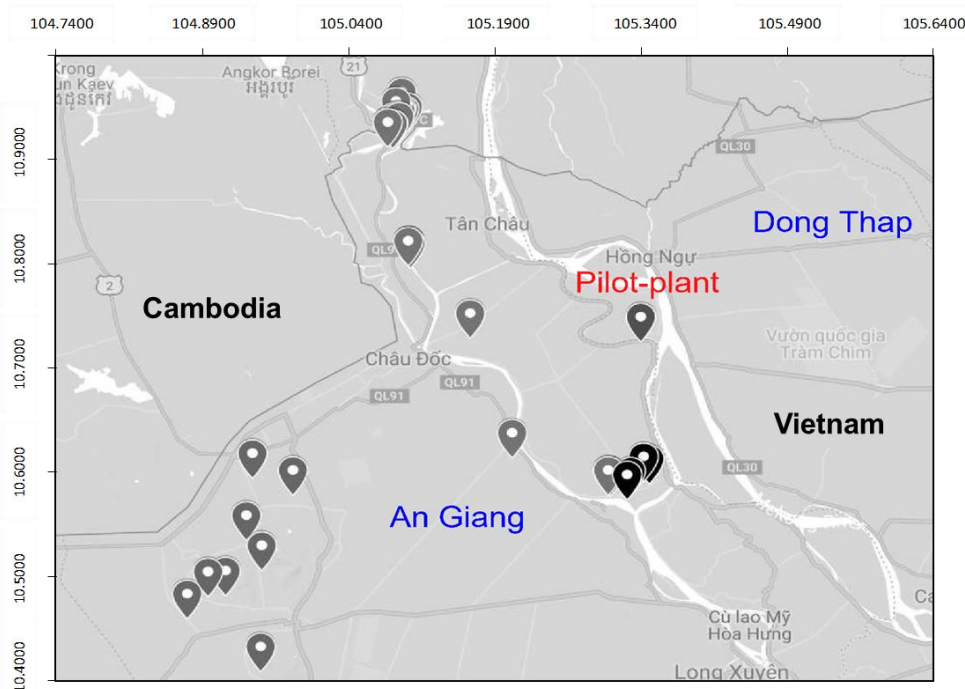
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689  
 690 **I. Supplement**

691 **i) Statistical evaluation of study area**

692 To assess the As contamination in the study area, a statistical evaluation of the physico-chemical com-  
 693 position and related quality of the groundwater was carried out as part of the site selection for the  
 694 planned pilot trials. For this, groundwater from 52 shallow tube wells in the district of An Giang  
 695 (Supplement 1) was analysed for Fe, Mn,  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , t-As and other relevant parameters. The majority of the  
 696 tube wells were located in private households or were privately owned by small farmers for agriculture  
 697 or aquaculture (eel farms, shrimp farms). Because of poor well management and documentation, well  
 698 owners normally do not know much about the well design, which depends on local drilling practices.  
 699 However, typical well design data in this province ranged between 15 – 36 m (Tran et al., 2011).

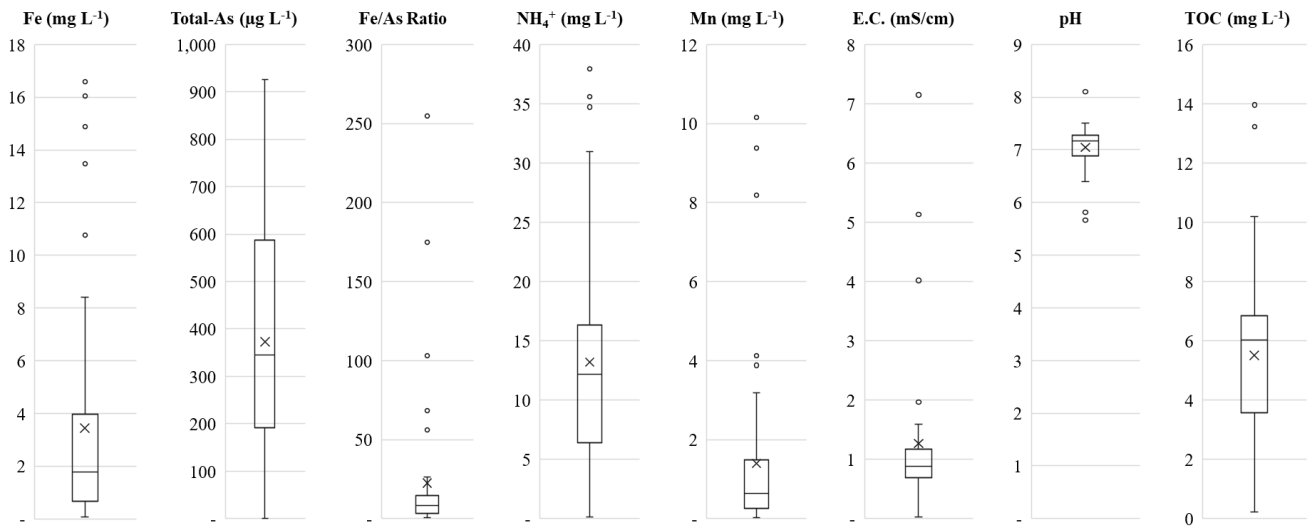


700  
 701 Supplement 1: Map of groundwater sampling sites in An Giang

702 **ii) Analysis results of groundwater analyses**

703 Results of the sampling study are summarized in the whisker-plot diagrams in showing the results of  
 704 the water analysis (Supplement 2). Total Fe concentration averaged at  $3.4 \pm 4 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  with maximum

705 values exceeding  $16 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ . The concentration of t-As averaged at  $373 \pm 254 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ , with 41 out of the  
 706 47 tube wells tested for As exceeding the  $10 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  limit. These results are in line with previous re-  
 707 search on the Mekong Delta which has shown the magnitude of the As contamination in the region  
 708 ( $c_{(\text{As})} = 207.8 - 1,522 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) (Kỳ, 2009; Thur et al., 2011; Vũ, 2014). Furthermore, 75% of the tube  
 709 wells ( $n = 47$ ;  $\text{NA} = 5$ ) showed As levels higher than  $200 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  with the maximum value detected of  
 710  $926 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ , exceeding the WHO guideline value by almost 100 times.



712 Supplement 2: Distribution of groundwater analysis of study area in An Giang. Whiskers give the highest and lowest con-  
 713 centrations, box the upper and lower quartiles; the horizontal line in each box marks the median.

714 Besides As contamination, groundwater in the region was also found to contain high  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentra-  
 715 tions ( $13.2 \pm 10 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ ) with more than 87% of the wells exceeding the Vietnamese standard for drink-  
 716 ing water of  $3.0 \text{ mg NH}_4^+ \text{ L}^{-1}$  (QCVN:01, 2009) and maximum measured values higher than  
 717  $30 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ . This can be attributed to the reducing environment of the aquifer and various sources of ni-  
 718 trogen including septic effluents from household and industrial waste discharges, leaching from agri-  
 719 cultural systems and animal manure infiltrating the groundwater due to poor well construction and area  
 720 protection (Du et al., 2017; Le Luu, 2019; Lindenbaum, n.d.). The mean concentration of Mn ( $1.39 \pm$   
 721  $2.2 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) was about 4.5 times greater than the Vietnamese drinking water standard of  $0.3 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ,  
 722 whereas water from some wells presented concentrations above  $8 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ , which is more than 25 times  
 723 higher (QCVN:01, 2009).

**Comments to Manuscript Number: WR53078**

**Title:** Iron-based subsurface arsenic removal (SAR): 2 Results of a long-term pilot-scale testing in Vietnam

**Authors:** Edgardo E. Cañas Kurz, Vu T. Luong, Ulrich Hellriegel, Felix Leidinger, Tran L. Luu, Jochen Bundschuh, Jan Hoinkis\*

**Reply to Editor:** The authors thank the Editor again for the consideration of our article. We have carefully revised the reviewers' comments and the final version of the manuscript.

COMMENTS FROM THE EDITOR AND/OR REVIEWERS

**Reviewer #3:**

the comments of the reviewers were addressed.

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**Reviewer #4:**

We thank this reviewer for their valuable evaluation of this manuscript. We have carefully revised their comments and the manuscript. Small additional modifications have been addressed below.

1. Fig 7 does not support the inference (line 357) that on day 190 the ammonium ion concentration fell back to the near-zero levels reached in Periods 1 and 2. The data point for day 190 appears to be an outlier, with all other results between days 185 and 225 falling in the 0.5-1.0 mg/L range.

Many thanks for this comment. We agree with the remark and we have therefore revised Section 3.3 thoroughly. In order to improve the evaluation of the results, this section has been modified including information on Mn and  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , removing some lines 354 - 359 and adding Section 3.4 for better structure. This includes comment 5 of this reviewer (lines 405-406).

2. Lines 109-110 need to be reworded. More water cannot be extracted than the volume given by QE if QE is defined as in line 99.

Lines 106 - 108 have been modified accordingly.

3. In eq 1 both terms in the denominator must have the same unit (mg/L). (b appears to be the reciprocal of the Langmuir equilibrium constant, which has units of L/mg.)

We thank this reviewer for their comment and agree there was a mistake in the definition of Langmuir equilibrium constant (as reciprocal of b). We have modified Eq. 1 to show the linearization of the isotherm (line 262 - 264) and changed the text accordingly.

4. The Fe and As concentrations given in line 308 represent a Fe:As mass ratio ranging from 10 to 40. Why does Fig 5 show points at ratios > 100?



Many thanks to the reviewer for highlighting this. Indeed, two experiments with higher Fe:As ratio were included in Figure 5. We have changed the text in lines 306 - 308 to fit this. Additionally, Fig. 5 (line 318) has been corrected (N values inversed).

5. When were Mn concentrations below 0.05 mg/L reached (line 384)?

Concentrations below detection limit of 0.05 mg/L were reached after day 240 (not shown in Figure 7). We have modified Section 3.3, therefore, this line has been removed, since it doesn't add any information to the modified text (see comment No. 1)

# Iron-based subsurface arsenic removal (SAR): Results of a long-term pilot-scale test in Vietnam

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## Abstract

The principle of subsurface arsenic removal (SAR) from groundwater is based on oxidation and adsorption reactions by infiltrating oxygen into the anoxic aquifer and the immobilization of arsenic (As) onto freshly formed iron (Fe) oxides. In this study, a pilot-scale plant for SAR has been subject to long term testing in the Mekong Delta, Vietnam. Initial concentrations of Fe ( $8.4 \pm 1.3 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) and As ( $81 \pm 8 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) in the exploited groundwater were successfully lowered to below the WHO guideline value limits for drinking water of  $0.3 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  and  $10 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  respectively. Adsorption and co-precipitation of As with iron oxides could be identified as the principal mechanism responsible for the As removal from groundwater, demonstrating the feasibility of SAR as a low-cost and zero-waste solution over a period of two years. However, naturally occurring geochemical reducing conditions and high ammonium levels in the groundwater delayed the removal of manganese (Mn). An additional post-treatment filtration for Mn-removal was temporarily used to comply with the Vietnamese drinking water standard until a Mn-mitigation was achieved by the SAR process. In contrast to most As-remediation technologies, SAR appears to be a long-term, sustainable treatment option with the salient advantage of negligible production of toxic waste, which with ex-situ processes require additionally management costs.

**Keywords:** Subsurface arsenic mitigation; Mekong Delta; oxidation/adsorption; zero-waste, low-cost; groundwater contamination

## 1. Introduction

### 1.1. Arsenic in groundwater

Arsenic (As) is considered to be one of the most serious, naturally occurring, inorganic contaminants in groundwater on a global scale (Amini et al., 2008; Sarkar and Paul, 2016; Srivastava, 2020) and it has been recognized as a significant environmental cause of cancer mortality (Khan et al., 2020; WHO, 2012). Arsenic occurrence in natural groundwater varies depending on the local geology, the hydrochemical characteristics of the aquifer and the pH and redox-dependent mechanisms for its mobilization from the solid phase into the groundwater. Arsenic is found mainly as arsenate (As(V)) and arsenite (As(III)) species in reducing and oxidizing milieus, respectively (Campbell and Nordstrom, 2014;

42 Kumar et al., 2020; D. Zhang et al., 2017a). High concentrations of geogenic As are found in the ground-  
43 water of many world regions including Southeast Asia (Palit et al., 2019; Uppal et al., 2019), Bangladesh  
44 (Chakraborti et al., 2015; Huq et al., 2020), India (Bhowmick et al., 2018; Sankar et al., 2014), China  
45 (Li et al., 2020; L. Zhang et al., 2017), North (Janković, 2020) and Latin America (Bundschuh et al.,  
46 2012; Litter et al., 2020) as well as Australia and Europe (Medunić et al., 2020).

47 Geogenic As in oxidizing aquifers is mostly associated to bedrock lithology and originates typically  
48 from leaching of geological materials (e.g. hard rock and sediments) (Huq et al., 2020; D. Zhang et al.,  
49 2017b), in some areas from geothermal fluids and volcanic ashes (Morales-Simfors et al., 2020a) and  
50 products from mining (e.g. tailings) and related activities (Ciminelli, 2014). Additionally, important ar-  
51 tificial As sources can result from agricultural activities (e.g. pesticides). These sources can impact  
52 groundwater in regions as described from Latin America with its mostly oxidizing aquifers (Bundschuh  
53 et al., 2012; Litter et al., 2020; Morales-Simfors et al., 2020b). The mobilisation and release of geogenic  
54 As into the groundwater in reducing aquifers, such as in most of Southeast Asia, is a result of the reduc-  
55 tive dissolution of both iron (Fe) and manganese (Mn) oxi(hydr)oxides from As-bearing sediments (Berg  
56 et al., 2007; Norrman et al., 2008; D. Zhang et al., 2017a). In addition, some of these regions with pre-  
57 dominantly high levels of As also show particularly high levels of ammonium ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) (Jia et al., 2018;  
58 Norrman et al., 2015) and  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  (Berg et al., 2008; Datta et al., 2014).

### 59 1.2. Arsenic remediation

60 There are many established methods for treating As contaminated water. The most common include  
61 oxidation and filtration, adsorption, ion exchange and separation by membrane technologies, each dis-  
62 playing different advantages and disadvantages (Ghosh N. et al., 2019; Jadhav et al., 2015; Litter et al.,  
63 2019; Nicomel et al., 2015; Singh et al., 2015). Other emerging technologies comprise electrochemical  
64 and coagulation processes, phytoremediation and alternative adsorptive materials (Kumar et al., 2019).  
65 The main disadvantage of these “*ex-situ*” technologies is the generation of As-laden waste in the form  
66 of solids or concentrate streams, which have to be disposed of safely (Clancy et al., 2013). As a conse-  
67 quence, the safety and disposal costs of As-bearing wastes become an issue and alternative techniques  
68 with an economical and environmental sustainable concept approach are needed.

69 The *in-situ* As treatment by aeration is a technique based on subsurface iron removal (SIR), which has  
70 proven to be a technically feasible practise in Europe and the United States for decades in a variety of  
71 hydrogeochemical settings for the *in-situ* treatment of Fe, Mn and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  in groundwater (Ahmad, 2012;  
72 Grischek et al., 2015; Hallberg and Martinell, 1976; Henning and Rott, 2003; Karakish, 2005; Rott and  
73 Friedle, 2000; Rott and Kauffmann, 2008). However, subsurface As removal (SAR) is not yet an estab-  
74 lished solution and has only been tested in a very limited number of laboratory tests and pilot trials  
75 (Kundu et al., 2018; Rahman et al., 2014; Rott et al., 1996; Sarkar and Rahman, 2001; Sen Gupta et al.,  
76 2009; van Halem et al., 2010, 2009).

77 The majority of studies on SAR have focused on the vulnerability of the process to diverse geochemical  
78 conditions such as pH, redox potential (Eh) and the presence of co-ions such as phosphates, sulphates,  
79 carbonates and ammonium (Luong et al., 2018) that are competing with As for adsorption sites and can  
80 have a negative influence on the As removal. In some cases, this can make it difficult to comply with  
81 the stringent guideline value for drinking water recommended by the WHO of  $10 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  (WHO, 2017).  
82 However, the salient advantage of SAR is its low operating and maintenance costs, combined with its  
83 negligible waste production, with no waste streams containing toxic As. The major questions that arise  
84 regarding SAR are the stability of the subsurface adsorption, the possible remobilization of As and its  
85 accumulation in the aquifer (Grischek et al., 2015; Rahman et al., 2014; van Halem et al., 2011).

### 86 *1.3. Principle of SAR*

87 The basic principle of SAR is based on the adsorption and co-precipitation of As onto Fe-(hydr)oxides  
88 by periodically extracting anoxic groundwater, aerating it and infiltrating the oxygen-rich water back  
89 into the aquifer. Oxygen reacts with dissolved iron ( $\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ) to form HFOs, which are poorly crystalline  
90 oxides with high porosity and large surface areas (oxidation). When water is abstracted, dissolved As  
91 adsorbs onto the freshly formed HFOs (adsorption) and groundwater with lower As concentrations can  
92 be extracted.

93 A given amount of groundwater with low-arsenic can be extracted after each infiltration cycle. This  
94 volume depends on the amount of oxygen that is available for the oxidation reactions (Kundu et al.,  
95 2018; Luong et al., 2018; Rott and Friedle, 2000). In order to estimate the treatment capacity of each

96 plant and the amount of water that can be extracted after each infiltration, an important parameter of a  
97 SAR system is the injection-to-extraction ratio  $Q_E = V_I/V_E$ , which is the ratio of the volume of infiltrated  
98 oxygenated water ( $V_I$ ) to the amount of extracted treated water ( $V_E$ ). This volume-specific parameter is  
99 a design parameter principally given by the quality of the raw water and can be calculated from the  
100 stoichiometric oxygen amount required for the chemical oxidation process (Luong et al., 2018).

101 With a ratio of, for example,  $Q_E = 0.5$ , the infiltration of 1 m<sup>3</sup> allows the extraction of 2 m<sup>3</sup> of fresh water.  
102 However, in anoxic groundwater with high oxygen demand, for example due to high Mn<sup>2+</sup> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>  
103 concentrations,  $Q_E$  may be higher than 1, meaning more volume must be infiltrated than the amount that  
104 can be extracted.

105 Since the abstracted groundwater is always infiltrated back into the aquifer, no water is lost and no waste  
106 stream is produced, which is another important feature of the process. However, the treated water quality  
107 can, in some exceptional cases (e.g. technical failure infiltration or over-extraction in daily operation),  
108 gradually decrease. This is also discussed later as a breakthrough experiment (see Section 3.2).~~However,~~  
109 ~~if more water is extracted than the volume given by  $Q_E$  and the plant capacity is exceeded (over-extrac-~~  
110 ~~tion), the quality of the treated water will gradually decrease the more water is extracted.~~ As oxidation  
111 reactions in the aquifer are also coupled with microbial oxidation, the sorption and co-precipitation pro-  
112 cesses in the aquifer can be also influenced by given natural hydrogeological conditions and microbial  
113 activity of the aquifer. In order to ensure a safe water supply and avoid over-extraction, a maximum  
114 daily limit  $V_{E,max}$  is set for each individual SAR plant (Luong et al., 2018, 2019).

#### 115 *1.4. Objectives*

116 The main objective of this study is to prove the feasibility of the SAR process as a sustainable treatment  
117 option for simultaneous Fe and As removal and to evaluate the technology on a pilot-scale. For the first  
118 time, its long-term stability in terms of removal efficiency, operation stability and energy demand has  
119 been evaluated in the course of 2 years. The pilot SAR plant was installed in the Mekong Delta, Vietnam,  
120 as part of the joint research project WaKap from 2016 to 2019 (Hoinkis et al., 2016).

121 **2. Method**

122 *2.1. SAR pilot plant and location*

123 The SAR pilot plant (*FERMANOX®-Wasseraufbereitung type BV 45*; Figure 1) was installed in the  
124 village of Cho Vam in the Province of An Giang in the Mekong-Delta, Vietnam, next to the Cambodian  
125 border (coordinates: N 10.719308, E 105.331354). This province has previously been identified as one  
126 of the most affected by high As concentrations in the country with more than 75% of wells analysed  
127 presenting concentrations higher than  $10 \mu\text{g As L}^{-1}$  (Kỳ, 2009; Thu et al., 2011).

128 The plant was setup for the treatment of As-laden groundwater and the water supply of a small group of  
129 people from a religious community. The existing shallow tube well ( $\text{Ø} = 42 \text{ cm}$ ) had a depth of 17 m  
130 and was connected to an existing storage tank used for water storage and supply for irrigation, toilet  
131 flushing and washing. Figure 1 shows the installation of the SAR pilot plant with the available storage  
132 tank and an extra aeration tank.

133



134

135

136

Figure 1: SAR pilot plant (*FERMANOX®-Wasseraufbereitung type BV 45*) in An Giang, Vietnam, incl. delivery pump, pressure tank, Mn-filter and UV-lamp for post-treatment

138 Before the trial tests started, 52 possible pilot sites were analysed in the province of An Giang from  
 139 which the pilot test site was selected (detailed results: see Supplement 1 and Supplement 2). The pres-  
 140 ence of preferably high concentrations  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  was important for the site selection, since a successful As-  
 141 mitigation is based on the adsorption onto and the co-precipitation with the HFOs. Other important cri-  
 142 teria considered were low  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  as well as the total water demand of the well.

143 Full analysis results of the groundwater at the selected well in Cho Vam are presented in Table 1. Anal-  
 144 yses were carried out at different times of the year in order to assess seasonal fluctuations in the ground-  
 145 water quality prior to the beginning of the pilot. The high Fe:As ratio of the selected site of  $106 \pm 24$   
 146 (w/w) was favourable for the arsenic adsorption (average ratio of study area: Fe:As =  $22 \pm 48$  (w/w) (see  
 147 Supplement 2). However, the presence of ions such as phosphate ( $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$ ) and silicate (Si) competing  
 148 with As for adsorption sites due to their similar adsorption mechanisms can hinder the effective removal  
 149 of As. Furthermore,  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations above the drinking water standards in the ground-  
 150 water may challenge the complete treatment. For this reason, these parameters were carefully monitored  
 151 during the pilot tests.

152 Table 1: Analysis of raw groundwater at SAR test site before trial tests (2016-2017)

Parameter	Unit	Nov 16 <sup>a</sup>	Feb 17 <sup>b</sup>	Jun 17 <sup>c</sup>	Jul 17 <sup>c*</sup>	Average
T	°C	29.0	26.4	N/A	29.5	28.3 ±1.4
pH	-	7.1	7.2	N/A	6.8	7.0 ±0.2
E.C.	μS cm <sup>-1</sup>	482	440	N/A	489	470 ±22
<i>t</i> -As	μg L <sup>-1</sup>	92	78	71	82	81 ±8
Fe <sup>2+</sup>	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	7.0	7.4	10	9.0	8.4 ±1.3
Fe:As	-	76	95	141	111	106 ±24
Mn <sup>2+</sup>	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	2.3	1.4	2.1	1.9	1.9 ±0.3
Si	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	16	15	11	19	15 ±3
Na <sup>+</sup>	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	28	16	18	22	21 ±5
NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup>	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	1.1	0.89	1.2	1.1	1.1 ±0.1
K <sup>+</sup>	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	N/A	2.1	2.1	2.4	1.9 ±0.4
Ca <sup>2+</sup>	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	18	19	28	N/A	22 ±5
Mg <sup>2+</sup>	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	10	9.3	12	13	11 ±1
Cl <sup>-</sup>	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	15	8.3	N/A	22	15 ±5
PO <sub>4</sub> <sup>3-</sup>	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	1.0	1.0	N/A	1.9	1.3 ±0
SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup>	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	1.2	1.0	2.7	N/A	1.6 ±0.7
TOC	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	N/A	N/A	8.3	7.2	5.9 ±3

<sup>a</sup> end of rainy season in 2016; <sup>b</sup> dry season in 2017; <sup>c</sup> rainy season in 2017; \*start of operation  
 E.C.: electrical conductivity; TOC: total organic carbon; N/A: not available/not measured

### 2.3. Plant operation

The pilot plant scheme is displayed in Figure 2 showing the SAR storage tank (390 L) with an air injection nozzle and air filter, the feed pump (Speck PM 15) with pressure vessel (200 L) and an automatic control unit (CU) to monitor and regulate the infiltration and extraction processes depending on the actual water demand. An extension tank (1000 L) was added in a later stage to increase the treatment capacity of the plant.

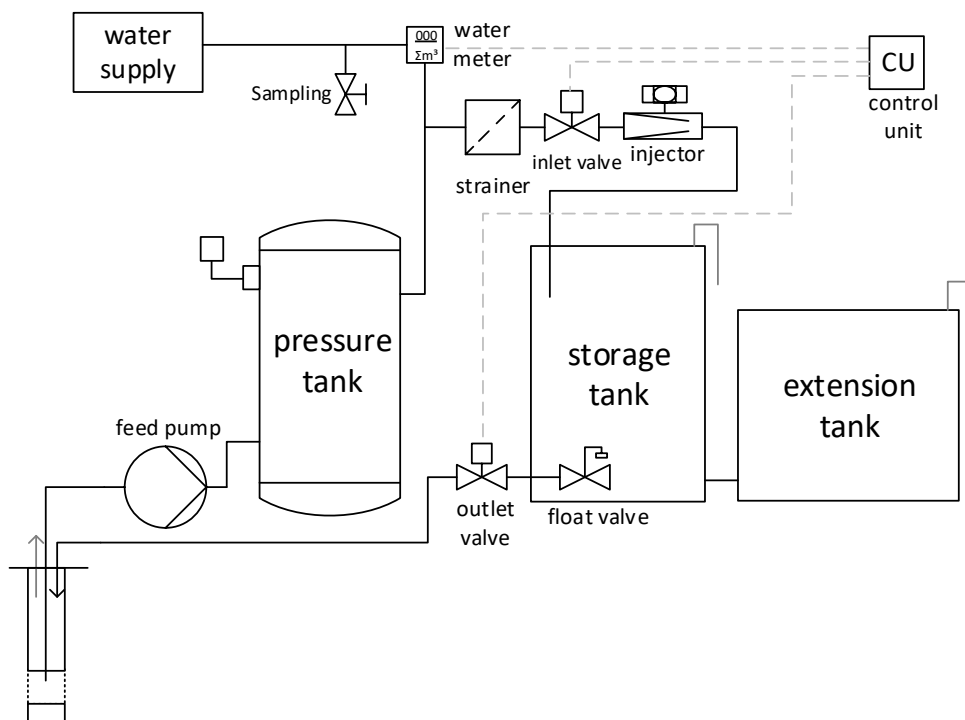


Figure 2: Scheme of SAR pilot plant for subsurface arsenic removal (SAR)

The SAR system was operated in intermittent daily cycles as manufacturer's recommendation using the following basic steps:

1. *Aeration*: Anoxic groundwater is extracted from the aquifer using the feed pump and aerated with an air injector at a pressure of  $p_{\min} > 0.28$  MPa. Here, a pressure tank is used which is regulated by a pressure switch ( $0.28 < p < 0.35$  MPa). Each aeration cycle is controlled automatically by the CU of the system which is programmed to carry out a maximum of two cycles daily.
2. *Infiltration/adsorption*: After the groundwater is aerated, the oxygen-rich water (DO: saturation  $> 99\%$ ) is re-injected through the tube well into the aquifer via gravity, lifting the redox potential of the anoxic aquifer and inducing the formation of oxidation and adsorption zones around the



well. Here,  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  is oxidized to Fe(III)-(hydr)oxides or HFOs. Then, As adsorbs onto the freshly formed HFOs and is co-precipitated within the Fe-(hydr)oxide-matrix.

3. *Abstraction*: When water is abstracted, raw groundwater flows through the oxidation/adsorption zone where As is adsorbed and more Fe(III)-(hydroxides) are formed, creating more adsorption places for the next cycle.

4. Treated water can be abstracted from the well in line with the maximum daily capacity  $V_{E,\max}$ .

The number of *infiltration* cycles ( $n$ ) was regulated with a control unit based on the water consumption. The maximum infiltration cycles was set to  $n_{\max} = 2$ . If no water consumption occurred, no infiltration was needed ( $n = 0$ ), however, an infiltration cycle was carried out every 2 days even without consumption in order to assure the process stability.

The pilot trials were carried out in four operational periods: during the first three months (Period 1), the plant had an infiltration capacity of  $V_{I,1} = 390$  L (size of SAR tank) which corresponded to an extraction volume of  $V_{E,1,\max} = 470$  L with two infiltration cycles per day ( $2 \cdot V_{I,1} = 780$  L) and an infiltration-to-abstraction ratio of  $Q_E = 1.66$ .

For the second period (Period 2), the infiltration volume was increased to  $V_{I,2} = 1390$  L (SAR tank + extension tank with a capacity of 1000 L). With two infiltrations cycles per day ( $2 \cdot V_{I,2} = 2780$  L), a total volume  $V_{E,2,\max} = 1900$  L could be extracted daily. This corresponds to an infiltration-to-abstraction ratio of  $Q_E = 1.46$ .

In the third and fourth period, the process stability was evaluated during over-extraction (Period 3) and after re-operation (Period 4).

In order to ensure a safe operation, an alarm was triggered when  $V_{E,\max}$  was exceeded. This not only prevented the breakthrough of contaminants, but also prolonged the well life by protecting the extraction area surrounding the tube well from incrustations. Furthermore, no water was extracted from the well during each infiltration cycle plus at least 15 min of subsequent rest time. This was done to avoid re-abstraction of oxygenated water after infiltration.

#### 2.4. Sampling and analysis

Water samples were taken daily from the sample valve during the first ten days of commissioning and twice a week thereafter. Every time a sample was taken, groundwater was firstly abstracted and stored in the water supply tank until it reached the maximum extracted capacity  $V_{E,max}$ . The samples were acidified with nitric or hydrochloric acid for conservation before transporting them to the laboratory. Values for pH and electrical conductivity (E.C.) were measured on-site or at the laboratory (raw samples) using a portable sensor (WTW Multi-Parameter 3430). An atomic adsorption spectrometer (Analytik Jena con-trAA® 300) was used with flame technique (50 mm burner with air/acetylene gases) for the determination of  $Mn^{2+}$  and  $Fe^{2+}$ , while, hydride generation (HS 55 batch system) was used for total arsenic (t-As) determination (Analytik Jena AG, 2019). Moreover, special cartridges (Meng-cartridges, METALSOFT) were used for As(III)/As(V) separation to conduct As-speciation (Meng et al., 2001). Ion chromatography (Metrohm 883 Basic IC plus) was used to analyse cations (Metrosep C4-150/4.0 column) according to ISO 14911 and anions (Metrosep A Supp 5-150/4.0 column). The TOC was analysed with a Shimadzu TOC-L Analyzer. Measurements were repeated at least twice and samples were stored in line with the ISO 5667 3 standard.

#### 2.5. Data gathering

This study shows the results of two years of operation including installation and commissioning of the SAR plant. Data on water samples (chemical and physical parameters), water withdrawal and energy consumption were recorded continuously for the first 8 months to evaluate the process operation and efficiency. Afterwards, the well data were periodically monitored for the complete 28 months to show the long-term stability and monitor the energy consumption.

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Iron and arsenic removal

Results in Figure 3 show how the initial Fe concentration of  $9.0 \pm 1 \text{ mg Fe L}^{-1}$  dropped to below the Vietnamese drinking water standard value of  $0.3 \text{ mg Fe L}^{-1}$  within the first week of operation. This demonstrates that the oxidation of dissolved  $Fe^{2+}$  to particulate  $Fe^{3+}$  (HFO) occurs rapidly after the first

222 infiltration cycles as it occurs in the SIR process (Braester and Martinell, 1988; Rott, 1985; Rott and  
 223 Lamberth, 1993; Van Beek, 1983).

224 The As elimination process was evaluated by monitoring the As immobilisation onto the Fe(III)-surfaces  
 225 during each of the four operational periods (see Section 2.3 Plant operation). Arsenic mitigation only  
 226 started after the first infiltration cycles occurred with As concentrations decreasing from day 2 to con-  
 227 centrations around  $20 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ , remaining constant for the first ten days. Compliance for As standard of  
 228  $10 \mu\text{g As L}^{-1}$  was achieved after 14 days, removing more than 95% of the initial As concentration ( $82 \pm$   
 229  $10 \mu\text{g As L}^{-1}$ ) and with As levels dropping continuously to concentration below  $2 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ . This shows the  
 230 complete adsorption of As requires the formation of enough HFO after several cycles.

231 The mass balance for As and HFO (in the form of FeOOH) of the first 14 days including the extracted  
 232 volumes are listed in Table 2. Results show a significant increase in the As and Fe removal from day 8  
 233 to day 9, and indicate the adsorption reaches an equilibrium with an As adsorption capacity of  
 234  $q_m = 8.0 \pm 1 \mu\text{g As mg FeOOH}^{-1}$ .

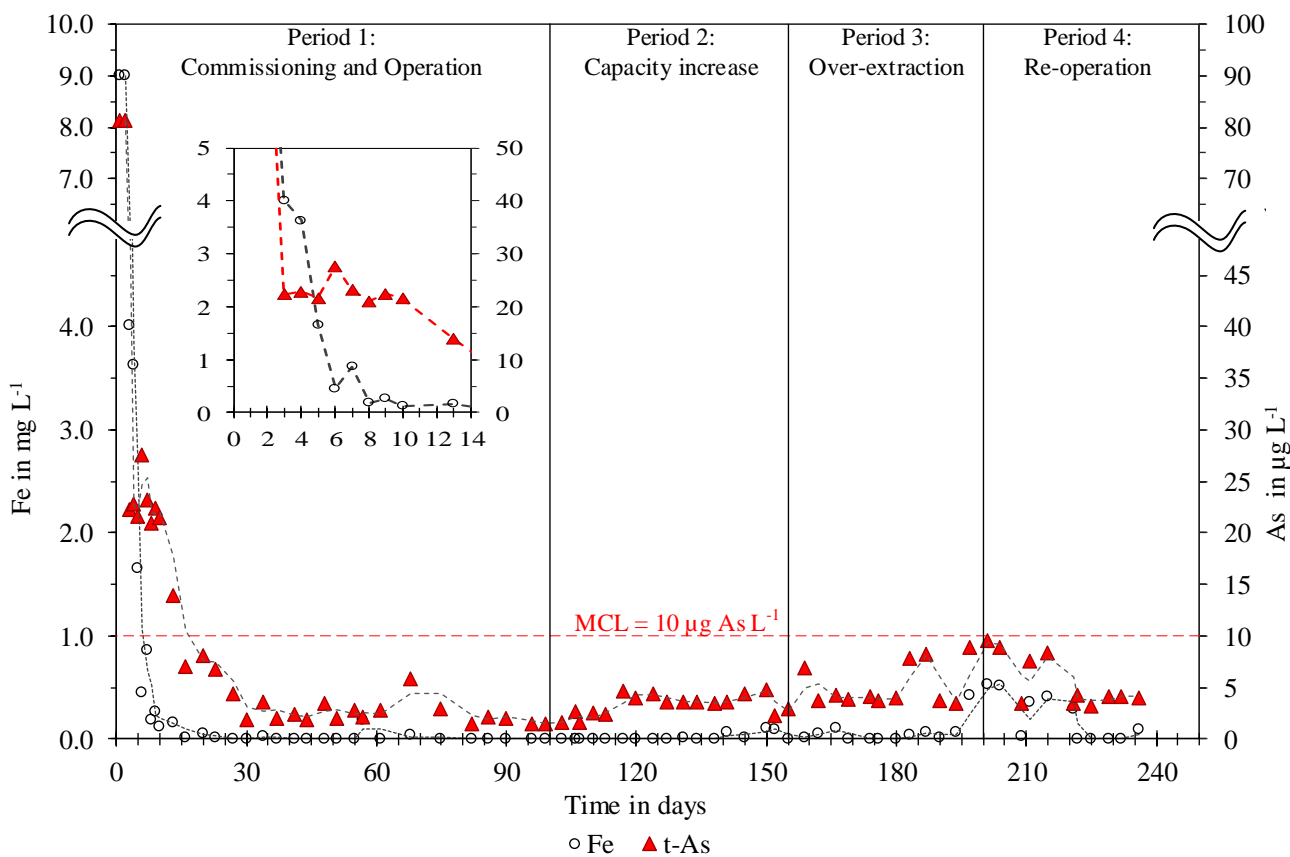
235 Table 2: Iron and As mass balances during SAR adsorption for the first 14 days of operation with a daily injection volume  
 236  $V_I = 780 \text{ L}$  (two infiltration cycles).

Day	$V_E$ (L)	$\dot{m}_{As}$ ( $\text{mg day}^{-1}$ )	$\dot{m}_{FeOOH}$ ( $\text{mg day}^{-1}$ )	$q_m^*$ ( $\text{mg As g FeOOH}^{-1}$ )
1	250	14.7	1247	11.8
2	260	14.6	1342	10.9
3	260	15.5	1907	8.1
4	260	13.9	2220	6.3
5	260	15.1	2115	7.1
6	260	15.6	2292	6.8
7	260	15.3	2271	6.7
8	260	15.5	2307	6.7
9	510	34.3	4506	7.6
10	660	48.9	5926	8.3
11	465	34.0	4160	8.2
12	400	29.7	3595	8.3
13	520	39.9	4680	8.5
14	570	45.2	5130	8.8
<b>Total</b>	<b><math>5.2 \text{ m}^3</math></b>	<b><math>0.35 \text{ g As}</math></b>	<b><math>43.7 \text{ g FeOOH}</math></b>	<b><math>8.0 \pm 1 \text{ mg g}^{-1}</math></b>

\*Average adsorption capacity calculated from daily As and Fe loads.

237 In period 2, after the increase of the total plant capacity (day 100), concentrations of dissolved Fe and  
 238 As continued to remain stable well below the drinking water standard with only small fluctuations in the

239 concentrations being observed, which can be attributed to natural fluctuations in groundwater concen-  
 240 trations and increased water withdrawal depending on consumer behaviour. In period 3 (day 155) water  
 241 was extracted for 12 days while no infiltration was carried out due to a technical problem with the motor  
 242 of the feed pump, which led to an over-extraction ( $V_E > V_{E,max}$ ). The over-extraction continued during  
 243 period 3 for a total of 51 days due to electrical failure of the water meter and the CU. Although more  
 244 water was extracted than the allowed daily limit  $V_E > V_{E,max} = 1900$  L, no As breakthrough above the  
 245 drinking water limit was observed and Fe remained close to the standard of  $0.3 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  with only a small  
 246 increment to a maximum of  $0.51 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ .



247  
 248 Figure 3: Iron and total arsenic concentrations after SAR treatment at pilot site location for a total of 8 months including  
 249 four operational periods. Horizontal line: Arsenic drinking water guideline WHO (2017); MCL: Max. contaminant level.

250 Increases in As concentrations during periods 3 and 4 as well as the concentration spikes seen during  
 251 early operation days (day 6, day 74) indicate a strong correlation to the increases in Fe concentrations,  
 252 showing that As breakthrough may occur from desorption from HFO. These results also suggest that the  
 253 removal of As correlated to the oxidation rate of iron, since even small fluctuations in Fe removal show  
 254 change in As concentration, thus validating the proposed adsorption mechanisms of As onto the Fe(III)-

255 (hydr)oxides. In total, As concentrations remained below the 10 µg L<sup>-1</sup> limit for a total of 51 days, reach-  
256 ing a maximum value of 9.6 µg L<sup>-1</sup>.

257 After regular infiltration was resumed and operation continued normally, Fe concentrations started to  
258 slowly drop to values below the drinking water limit. This shows the feasibility of the process for As  
259 removal in the long-run and its stability despite technical complications or over-extraction. However,  
260 some difficulties were observed for the elimination of Mn and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>. The detailed results are shown in  
261 Section 3.3.

262 By assuming a monolayer adsorption theory, the adsorption behaviour can be described with the linear-  
263 ized mathematical form of Langmuir isotherm:

$$\frac{C_e}{q_e} = \frac{C_e}{q_m} + \frac{1}{q_m \cdot b} \quad (\text{Eq.1})$$

264  
265 with  $q_e$  (in mg g<sup>-1</sup>) being the amount of adsorbate (in mg As) removed per weight adsorbent (in  
266 g FeOOH),  $C_e$  the As concentration at equilibrium (in mg L<sup>-1</sup>), the maximum adsorption capacity  $q_m$  (in  
267 mg g<sup>-1</sup>) and  $b$  the Langmuir constant (in L mg<sup>-1</sup>). The isotherm parameters  $q_m$  and  $b$  can be determined  
268 from the slope and intercept of the linear regression of the isotherm by plotting  $C_e/q_e$  versus  $C_e$ . The  
269 values of  $q_m = 7.9$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> and  $b = 0.67$  L mg<sup>-1</sup> obtained are similar-in line with the  $q_m$  value calculated  
270 from the As uptake in Table 2; however, showing lower adsorption to those found in literature for As-  
271 batch experiments (Li et al., 2015) ( $q_m = 28.6$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> and  $b = 2.14$  L mg<sup>-1</sup>). The larger the  $q_m$  value, the  
272 larger the adsorption capacity whereas small-values-of  $b$  indicates a stronger adsorption bond. The low  
273 adsorption capacity calculated can be explained by the differences in real and laboratory conditions, and  
274 can be an indication of a limited adsorption due to the presence of competing ions in the raw groundwa-  
275 ter.

### 276 3.2. Arsenic breakthrough experiments

277 After one month of operation, As breakthrough tests were carried out on site to evaluate the quality of  
278 the treated water over the course of one infiltration-extraction cycle. The tests were done by measuring

279 the total arsenic (t-As) concentration and the As species distribution (arsenite As(III) and arsenate  
280 As(V)). When the SAR completed an infiltration cycle (volume  $V_{I,1} = 390$  L during period 1), treated  
281 water was pumped and samples were taken at different intervals (first sample at point ZERO) until  
282 reaching the 100% treatment target ( $V_{E,max} = 260$  L). Additionally, two more samples were examined at  
283 150% of  $V_{E,max}$  (360 L) and 250% of  $V_{E,max}$  (650 L) for evaluating if any As breakthrough occurred  
284 during over-extraction. The results are presented in Figure 4.

285 Analyses show a slight rise in both t-As and As(III) concentrations with increasing extraction volume.  
286 It is important for the successful SAR process that sufficient HFO-surface area is provided for the effec-  
287 tive As-adsorption. Some previous studies on the correlation of As adsorption in Fe oxidation show that  
288 Fe oxidation is influenced by the dissolved oxygen content in the infiltrated water (van Halem et al.,  
289 2010, 2009; Visoottiviseth and Ahmed, 2008). The more water is abstracted, the more Fe and As enter  
290 the treatment zone (oxidation area) and, correspondingly, the more oxygen is used for the oxidation  
291 reactions. This leads to the depletion of the oxidation zone and the decrease in the available area for  
292 further As-adsorption. Moreover, the increase of the As(III):As(V) ratio indicates both the decrease in  
293 As(III) oxidation to As(V) and the breakthrough of raw anoxic groundwater containing As(III) from the  
294 outer oxidation zone into the extraction area closer to the well. However, the increase in t-As is not  
295 substantial, indicating that the As removal persists even after 2.5 times more water is extracted than the  
296 given maximum  $V_{E,max}$ .

297

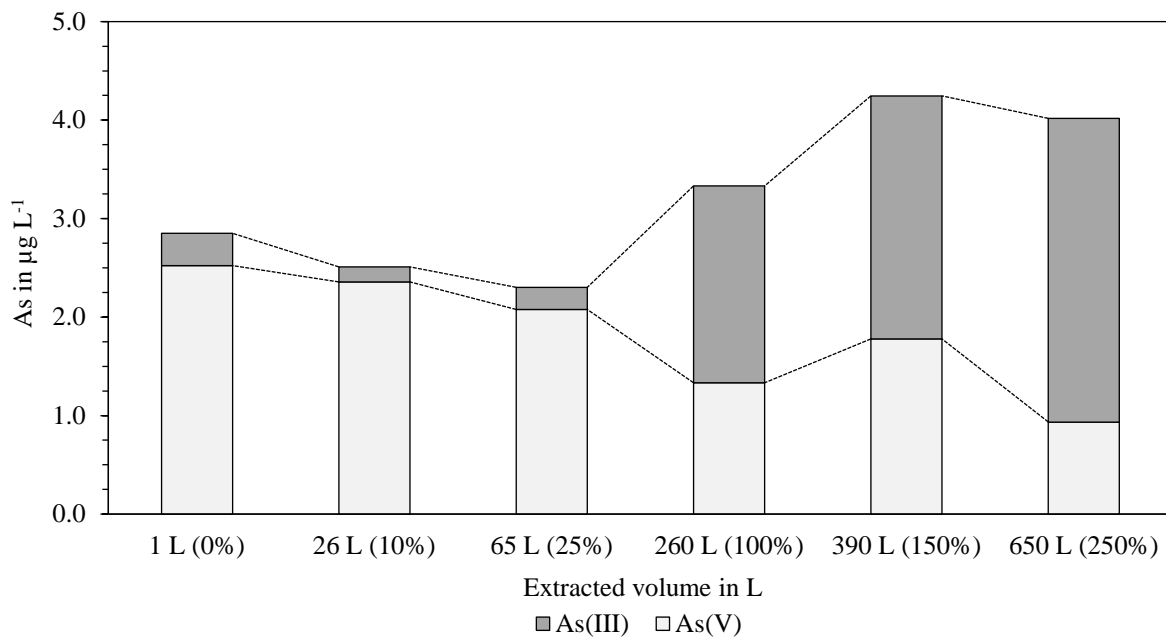
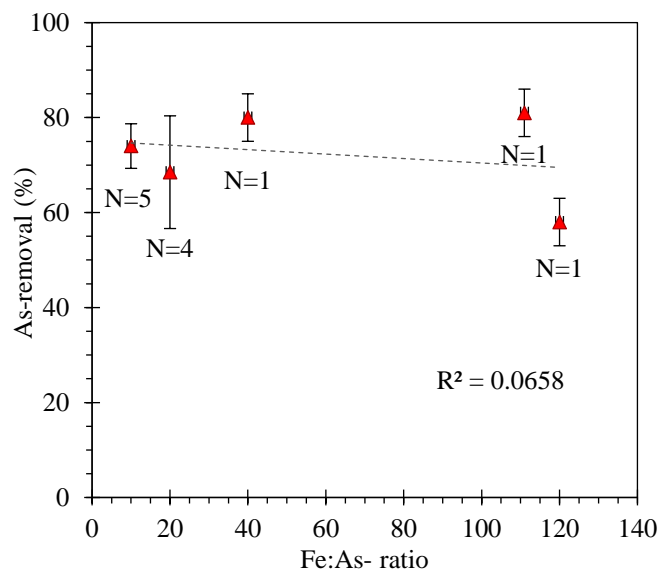


Figure 4: Total As concentration and As distribution in treated water (SAR) with increasing extracted volume at test site. Values in brackets correspond to the share of extracted volume to  $V_E$  ( $V_E = 260\text{L}$ ); values above 100% correspond to over-extraction.

For the effective removal of As by use of oxidation/filtration processes, a minimum Fe:As ratio of 20 (w/w) is recommended in the literature (EPA, 2012). On the contrary, the experimental results show no significant correlation between the Fe:As ratio and the overall As mitigation. To evaluate this and the dependence of the adsorption to the oxygen demand and the Fe:As ratio, twelve small-scale aeration experiments were carried out with model water ( $N = 12$ ) and real water on-site ( $N = 1$ ). Model water containing  $5 \text{ mg Fe L}^{-1}$  and increasing As-concentrations (from  $125$  to  $500 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) was aerated using  $2 \text{ L}$  glass beakers and an air pump with stone bubbler. Additionally, two experiments with higher iron ( $7.2$  and  $9.0 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) and concentrations of  $60$  and  $81 \mu\text{g As L}^{-1}$  were carried out to also simulate higher Fe:As ratios as found in the groundwater at the pilot location. First, DI-water in the beaker glass was purged with nitrogen gas until dissolved oxygen  $\text{DO} < 0.5 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ . DO was measured using a WTW portable sensor (OXI 3210). Samples were taken at different time intervals ( $0, 2.5, 5, 10, 30, 60, 120 \text{ min}$ , etc.) and filtrated immediately with a  $0.45 \mu\text{m}$  syringe filter before analysing. All experiments showed a general decrease in the t-As concentration within the initial minutes until before reaching a plateau-phase. Depending on the length of each experiment ( $0.5 - 120 \text{ h}$ ), the As-removal was averaged from the total measurements and varied between  $58\%$  and  $81\%$ . Beyond the individual adsorption behaviour of each experiment, the average removal versus the corresponding Fe:As ratios is also of interest. The results in

318 Figure 5 show there is no correlation between the Fe:As ratio [within range 20 – 120](#) and a higher removal  
319 efficiency.



320  
321 Figure 5: Arsenic removal efficiency versus Fe:As ratio of laboratory aeration experiments showing there is no correlation  
322 between both ( $R^2=0.0658$ ). Number of experiments:  $N = 12$ ; experimental conditions:  $\text{pH} = 8.4 \pm 0.3$ ; tempera-  
323 ture =  $24 \pm 3^\circ\text{C}$ ; length  $t = 0.5\text{-}120$  h.

324 In contrast to the tests with model water, the experiment in the beaker glass with real water (Figure 6)  
325 resulted in an overall lower As mitigation with a maximum removal efficiency of 49% in a 72 h aeration  
326 experiment. This may be due to the presence of competing ions such as  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  and Si that are naturally  
327 present in the raw water in higher concentrations than in the model water. The As(III) and As(V) ratio  
328 throughout the experiment shows an interesting trend. Initially, 100% of t-As was present as As(III), as  
329 it is in the raw groundwater. This ratio does not significantly change within the first 5 h, even though a  
330 representative part of the As-adsorption is already finalised ( $t\text{-As} = 53.1 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ). This can be explained  
331 mainly by the oxidation of As(III) to As(V) and its respective adsorption and removal from the water,  
332 however, a removal of t-As by direct adsorption of As(III) onto the Fe oxides cannot be excluded. After  
333 72 h, the remaining amount of  $42.8 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  of t-As in the water was present as As(V). The total mitigation  
334 of only 49% indicates an unsuccessful adsorption due to limited availability of adsorption sites as seen  
335 in the jar tests with model water.



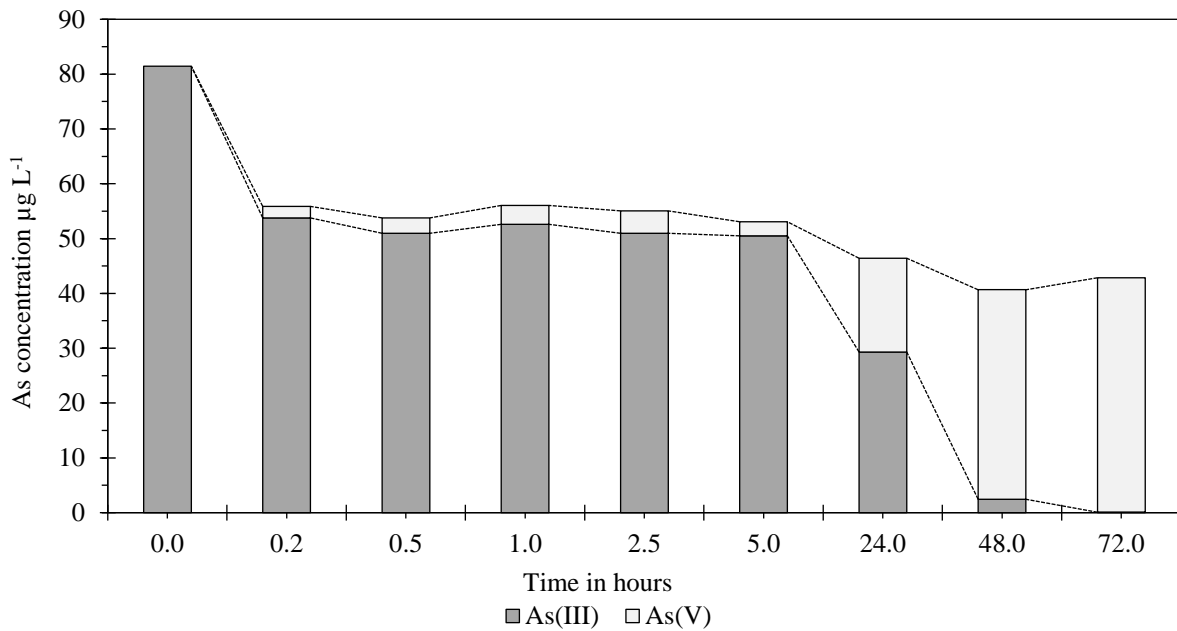


Figure 6: Total As concentration and As speciation during laboratory aeration experiment with raw water at pilot site

336  
337

338 Other studies with column and batch experiments also demonstrated that neither the Fe:As ratio nor the  
 339 amount of Fe present in the groundwater have a direct effect on the As removal capacity in SAR; they  
 340 indicated, rather, that the As removal is limited by the co-adsorption of competitive ions (van Halem et  
 341 al., 2009).

342 The results suggest that a successful SAR plant must provide both an effective oxidation zone and a  
 343 sufficient adsorption volume area. This was achieved by setting a tolerance margin for the infiltration to  
 344 abstraction ratio  $Q_E$  and fixing a daily target limit  $V_{E,max}$ . By setting this extraction limit, concentrations  
 345 of As remained well below the drinking water limit at  $4.25 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ . It could be possible to increase the  
 346 margin limit for improving the capacity of the plant. However, this should be only attempted after suf-  
 347 ficient tests have been performed.

### 348 3.3. Manganese and ammonium removal

349 The presence of ammonium nitrogen in groundwater is linked to reduced groundwater conditions that  
 350 in general promote As release (Kurosawa et al., 2013). Ammonium mitigation ~~with the~~ through SAR  
 351 ~~process~~ is based on its oxidation to nitrate ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ ), which occurs in the subsurface through both microbial  
 352 and chemical oxidation processes. Results show that the  $\text{NH}_4^+$  removal was considerably slower than  
 353 the removal of As and Fe. The initial concentrations of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  in the raw groundwater of  $1.1 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$

354 were below the Vietnamese drinking water standard of 3 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. These values were steadily gradually  
355 lowered until reaching concentrations of around zero within the first 60 days of operation (see Figure 7).  
356 However, during period 3 and 4, the NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> concentrations rose back to initial raw water concentrations  
357 (max. concentration day 183: c = 1.17 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) due to over-extraction. ~~Nevertheless, the concentrations~~  
358 ~~of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> were lowered significantly faster than in the initial phase after normal operation was restarted,~~  
359 ~~taking less than 7 days to reach zero again (day 190). This indicates that once the removal of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> has~~  
360 ~~been established, the microorganisms responsible for the oxidation remain active and will accelerate the~~  
361 ~~mitigation process after re-operation.~~  
362 In addition, Mn<sup>2+</sup> in the groundwater remained relatively stable during period 1 and 2 following natural  
363 fluctuations (average 1.5 ± 0.2 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) after a slight decrease from its initial value within ~~during~~ the first  
364 15 days. The effective Mn-removal only started on day 152, approx. 3 months after a NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> mitigation  
365 was achieved. The lowest Mn concentration was observed after 2 weeks linear decrease reaching a con-  
366 centration of 0.46 mg L<sup>-1</sup> (day 166) ~~during period 3~~. However, both Mn and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> concentrations in-  
367 creased following the excessive extraction in period 3. While the NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> content rose to initial concen-  
368 trations (c ≈ 1.1 mg L<sup>-1</sup>), Mn level reached a steady to maximum of 2.74 mg L<sup>-1</sup> during the over-  
369 extraction period which was higher than the initial values. This behaviour could be linked to the micro-  
370 bial-mediated reductive release of Mn which causes the temporary increase in its concentration (Swain  
371 et al., 2018). ~~until normal operation was resumed in period 4.~~

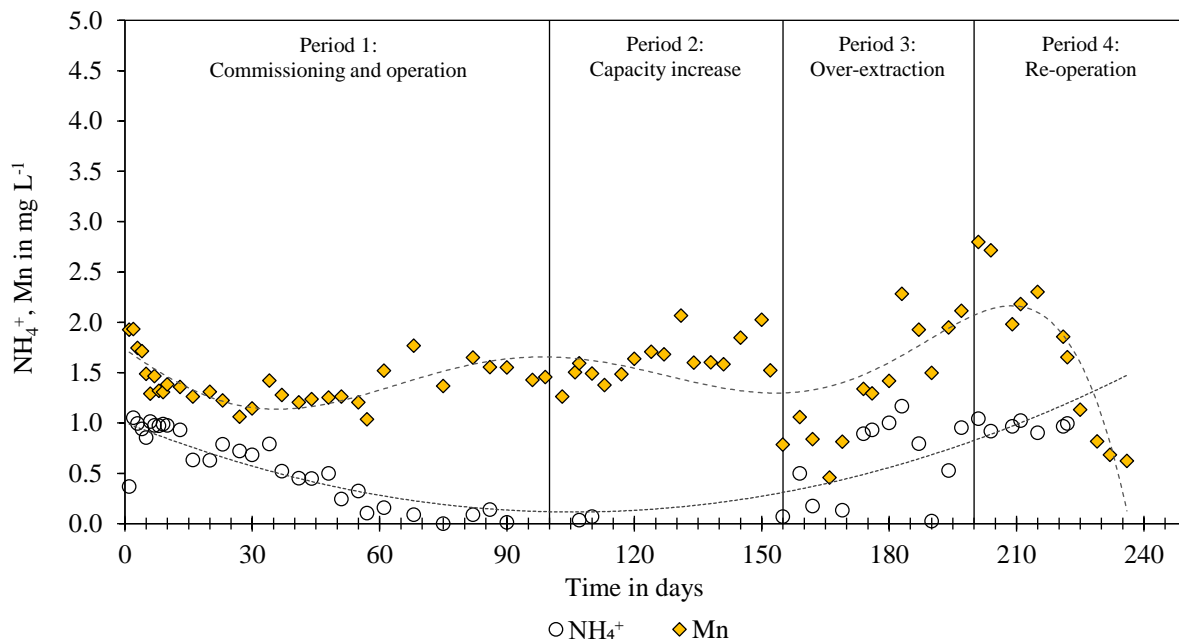


Figure 7: Ammonium and manganese removal at site location for the 4 operational periods.

372  
373

374 Long-time experience with SIR in Europe shows that a complete removal of Mn can take ~~several long months time~~ and a mitigation of Mn with SAR ~~is feasible should not be excluded~~  
 375 ~~(FERMANOX, 2017). In general, the biological Mn removal occurs usually simultaneous to the catalytic~~  
 376 ~~MnO<sub>2</sub> oxidation, and the required start-up period of biological filters can take several months~~  
 377 ~~(Farnsworth et al., 2012; Gouzinis et al., 1998a; Nitzsche et al., 2015).~~

379 The ~~initial results showing a~~ slow Mn mitigation can be associated ~~in general to the unfavourable Eh-~~  
 380 ~~pH conditions given by the natural anoxic to both the~~ hydro-geological ~~setting~~ and to the high initial  
 381 NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> concentrations (1.1 ± 0.1 mg NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> L<sup>-1</sup>) of the groundwater. ~~When NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> is present, as~~ the oxi-  
 382 dation of Mn<sup>2+</sup> ~~will can only take place after complete nitrification due to the necessary evolution of the~~  
 383 ~~redox potential~~ (Gouzinis et al., 1998b; Luong et al., 2018).

384 ~~Nevertheless, Mn levels were lowered significantly faster after normal operation was restarted~~ in period  
 385 4. ~~This indicates that once the removal of Mn has been established, the microorganisms responsible for~~  
 386 ~~the oxidation remain active and will drive the mitigation process after re-operation. In contrast to As and~~  
 387 ~~Fe, the rise of both Mn and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> in period 3 was observed several days delayed to the start of the over-~~  
 388 ~~extraction period. This can be an indication that the oxidation mechanisms are linked to microbial activ-~~

ity, which will respond slower than a chemical oxidation after the oxygen feeding. Ammonium concentrations remained, thus, constant throughout the measured days in period 4 (day 240). Although  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations below the detection limit were reached again in later analyses (see Section 3.5), further research on the behaviour of the microorganisms involved is needed to critically evaluate the role of microbial oxidation during SAR.

#### 3.4. Post-treatment for Mn-removal

As a result of the limitations on Mn removal can also be related to the lack of microbial activity and the unfavourable natural low redox potential, which makes the already slow Mn oxidation challenging. As a result, achieving Vietnamese drinking standard ( $0.3 \text{ mg Mn L}^{-1}$ ) could not be accomplished within the first 240 days of operation (Figure 7). An additional post-treatment filter media (with  $\text{MnO}_2$ ) for Mn-removal was temporarily used to comply with the Vietnamese drinking water standard until a Mn-mitigation was achieved by the SAR process. An oxidative granulate for removal of Mn was installed as post-treatment for achieving drinking water quality while the Mn mitigation through the SAR process was evaluated. Concentrations of Mn before and after the oxidative granulate filter were monitored occasionally, showing that until values below the drinking water standard were reached. Manganese concentrations below  $0.3 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  were first achieved by use of only the SAR process (without the filter) after operation day 420. However, the lack of continuous parameter monitoring after the first 8 months of study mean a Mn mitigation could have happened sooner earlier. A complete Mn removal was possible by use of SAR reaching stable concentrations below the detection limit of  $0.05 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ .

#### 3.4.3.5. Overall SAR efficiency

After more than two years of operation, analyses show that drinking water standard was achieved for all parameters reaching stable concentrations throughout the process. The relevant results are summarized in Table 3. All parameters including coliforms and *E. coli* were analysed additionally by different certified commercial laboratories in Ho Chi Minh City.

Table 3: Chemical analysis of raw and treated groundwater.

Parameter	Unit	Concentration raw water*	Concentration treated water†	VN drinking water limit§	Removal in %
-----------	------	--------------------------	------------------------------	--------------------------	--------------

pH	-	7.0	7.5 ± 0.4	6.5-8.5	-
Total-As	µg L <sup>-1</sup>	81	5.7 ± 2.4	10	93.0%
Total-Fe	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	8.4	0.042 ± 0.03	0.3	99.5%
Mn <sup>2+</sup>	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	1.9	0.040 ± 0.7	0.3	98.0%
NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup>	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	1.1	BDL (0.1)	3.0	>90.5%
Coliforms	cfu/100 mL	-	BDL (1)	0	-
<i>E. coli</i>	cfu/100 mL	-	BDL (1)	0	-

\* see Table 1: Analysis of raw groundwater at SAR test site before trial tests (2016-2017)

† Values are averaged from different samples analysed by certified commercial lab analyses

§ QCVN01: Vietnamese National technical regulation on drinking water quality, VIỆT NAM, 2009 (QCVN:01, 2009)

BDL = below detection limit (detection limit of method)

### 414 3.5.3.6. Energy demand

415 The energy consumption of the system including the controlling unit and monitoring devices as well as  
416 the pump for both delivery and treatment, were monitored throughout the pilot. Water demand was rec-  
417 orded with a water meter and water consumption was logged to the controller system. An energy meter  
418 was used to measure the total energy consumption of the plant. The specific energy consumption (SEC)  
419 of the SAR plant for both treated and supplied water ranged between 0.87 and 1.07 kWh m<sup>-3</sup> which leads  
420 to specific costs of 0.06 – 0.07 USD per cubic metre with average electricity prices of 0.07 –  
421 0.12 USD kWh<sup>-1</sup> (retail price for household electricity: 1678 - 2927 VND/kWh (VIETNAM  
422 ELECTRICITY, 2019)). These specific costs are remarkably below the values reported in literature,  
423 with results from different field tests varying from 0.11 to 1.11 USD m<sup>-3</sup> (Shan et al., 2018) and other  
424 similar subterranean groundwater treatments reporting specific costs of about 0.5 USD m<sup>-3</sup> (Sen Gupta  
425 et al., 2009).

### 426 **Conclusion and recommendations**

- 427     ▪ Results show that subsurface arsenic removal (SAR) is a feasible mitigation technique for achiev-  
428         ing safe drinking water from groundwater in regions like Vietnam and Southeast Asia, charac-  
429         terised by reducing aquifer conditions.
- 430     ▪ Arsenic concentrations were lowered well below the limit of 10 µg As L<sup>-1</sup> during the pilot phase  
431         of 2 years and remained stable throughout the process, even when temporary operational failures  
432         occurred causing the breakthrough of Fe.

- 433       ▪ The salient advantages of this technique are the negligible toxic waste production, ease-of use,  
 434           and the low operational and capital costs that also make the technology suitable for low-income  
 435           countries such as Vietnam.
- 436       ▪ The success of the As removal through SAR strongly depends on the infiltration to abstraction  
 437           ratio of the groundwater from the aquifer. The injection - extraction dynamics should be con-  
 438           trolled to ensure the complete and effective Fe oxidation with enough time allowed for the oxi-  
 439           dation reactions and a sufficient adsorption area.
- 440       ▪ In contrast to other studies and pilot plants, an appropriate aeration system must ensure oxygen  
 441           saturation and the extraction to infiltration ratio  $Q_E$  must be determined to avoid over-extraction.
- 442       ▪ Studying the SAR process under different hydrogeological settings is still needed to evaluate the  
 443           feasibility and the range of applications of the technology, including the negative effect of co-  
 444           ion adsorption and the removal efficiency when higher As levels (e.g.  $> 500 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) are present.
- 445       ▪ Hydrogeochemical conditions may affect the efficiency in obtaining drinking water standard  
 446           when high  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and Mn concentrations are present. Furthermore, the construction of informal  
 447           wells in unsecured surroundings and vulnerable zones increase the risk of anthropogenic  $\text{NH}_4^+$   
 448           contamination and should be taken into consideration when applying SAR.

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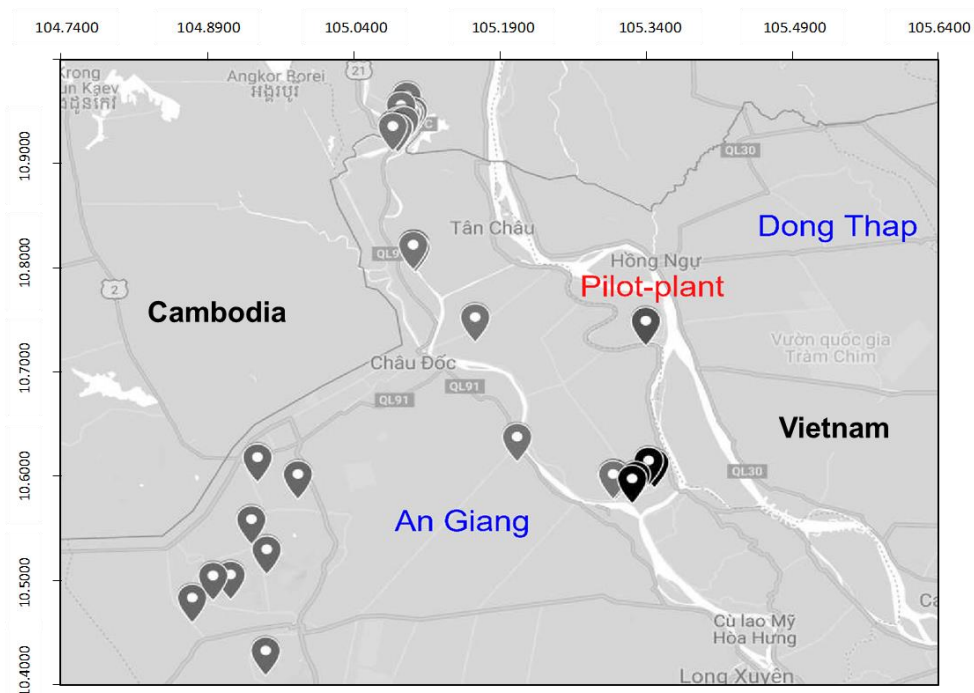
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## 691 692 **I. Supplement**

### 693 **i) Statistical evaluation of study area**

694 To assess the As contamination in the study area, a statistical evaluation of the physico-chemical com-  
695 position and related quality of the groundwater was carried out as part of the site selection for the planned  
696 pilot trials. For this, groundwater from 52 shallow tube wells in the district of An Giang (Supplement 1)  
697 was analysed for Fe, Mn, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, t-As and other relevant parameters. The majority of the tube wells were  
698 located in private households or were privately owned by small farmers for agriculture or aquaculture  
699 (eel farms, shrimp farms). Because of poor well management and documentation, well owners normally

700 do not know much about the well design, which depends on local drilling practices. However, typical  
701 well design data in this province ranged between 15 – 36 m (Tran et al., 2011).

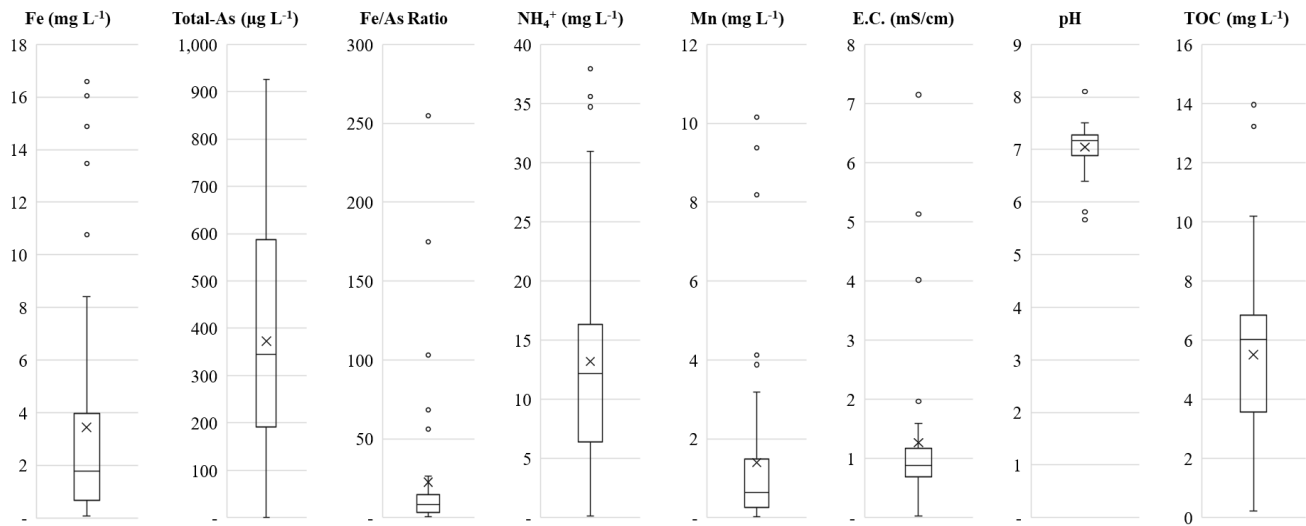


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Supplement 1: Map of groundwater sampling sites in An Giang

704 **ii) Analysis results of groundwater analyses**

705 Results of the sampling study are summarized in the whisker-plot diagrams in showing the results of the  
706 water analysis (Supplement 2). Total Fe concentration averaged at  $3.4 \pm 4 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  with maximum values  
707 exceeding  $16 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ . The concentration of t-As averaged at  $373 \pm 254 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ , with 41 out of the 47 tube  
708 wells tested for As exceeding the  $10 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  limit. These results are in line with previous research on the  
709 Mekong Delta which has shown the magnitude of the As contamination in the region ( $C_{(As)} = 207.8 -$   
710  $1,522 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) (Kỳ, 2009; Thu et al., 2011; Vũ, 2014). Furthermore, 75% of the tube wells ( $n = 47$ ;  $NA$   
711  $= 5$ ) showed As levels higher than  $200 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  with the maximum value detected of  $926 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ , exceeding  
712 the WHO guideline value by almost 100 times.



713

714

Supplement 2: Distribution of groundwater analysis of study area in An Giang. Whiskers give the highest and lowest concentrations, box the upper and lower quartiles; the horizontal line in each box marks the median.

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716

Besides As contamination, groundwater in the region was also found to contain high NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> concentra-

717

tions ( $13.2 \pm 10 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ ) with more than 87% of the wells exceeding the Vietnamese standard for drinking

718

water of  $3.0 \text{ mg NH}_4^+ \text{ L}^{-1}$  (QCVN:01, 2009) and maximum measured values higher than  $30 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ . This

719

can be attributed to the reducing environment of the aquifer and various sources of nitrogen including

720

septic effluents from household and industrial waste discharges, leaching from agricultural systems and

721

animal manure infiltrating the groundwater due to poor well construction and area protection (Du et al.,

722

2017; Le Luu, 2019; Lindenbaum, n.d.). The mean concentration of Mn ( $1.39 \pm 2.2 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) was about

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4.5 times greater than the Vietnamese drinking water standard of  $0.3 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ , whereas water from some

724

wells presented concentrations above  $8 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ , which is more than 25 times higher (QCVN:01, 2009).

Figure

