

1 **The variation of particle size of colloids in the overlying water due to** 2 **hyporheic exchange**

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Abstract

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38 Colloids are often in forms of inorganic and organic particles whose particle sizes (d_p) are ranging
39 from 1.0 nm to 10.0 μm . On the one hand, their transport processes in the hyporheic zone such as
40 deposition, resuspension, clogging and release are substantially affected by hyporheic exchange. On
41 the other hand, the existence of colloids can modify the hydraulic structure of the hyporheic zone
42 due to clogging. Despite the general acknowledgement that particle size plays an important role in
43 contaminant adsorption and clogging, it remains unclear how the particle size of colloids changes
44 during their transport processes in the hyporheic zone. This study aims to investigate the variation of
45 the particle size of colloids in the overlying water and the effects of settlement and convection-
46 diffusion via laboratory experiment and numerical simulation. The results show that both settlement
47 and convection-diffusion play roles in the exchange of colloids between the stream and the
48 streambed. More specifically, settlement is the dominant factor affecting the exchange process of
49 large-sized particles ($d_p > 3.06 \mu\text{m}$) in the hyporheic zone as the high settling velocity dominates the
50 outflux of colloids in the overlying water; the exchange process of small-sized particles ($d_p < 1.10$
51 μm) is more affected by convection-diffusion and some of them can be released from the streambed
52 to the overlying water; while the exchange process of middle-sized particles ($1.10 \mu\text{m} < d_p < 3.06$
53 μm) is affected by both convection-diffusion and settlement. Thus, this study may provide important
54 insights into the variation of the particle size of colloids in the overlying water and the effects of
55 settlement and convection-diffusion.

56 **Keywords:** Hyporheic exchange; Particle size distribution; Settlement; Colloids

57

58 1 Introduction

59 The hyporheic zone is broadly defined as a saturated area beneath the streambed where the
60 overlying water and groundwater exchange in a river system [Boulton *et al.*, 1998; Triska *et al.*,
61 1989a; Triska *et al.*, 1989b], and it is an area where myriad hydrological processes are coupled in a
62 complex manner [Cardenas, 2015] and thus provides an excellent habitat for benthic and interstitial
63 organisms [Brunke, 1997; Baxter, 2000; Besemer, 2015]. Hyporheic exchange induced by hydraulic
64 gradient and local morphology of the streambed plays a critical role in maintaining the biological
65 conditions of the hyporheic habitat and even the whole river ecosystem [Fraser & Williams, 1996;
66 Boano *et al.*, 2014; Fox *et al.*, 2014]. Hyporheic exchange enhances the flux of mass (such as water,
67 solutes, colloids and nutrients) and energy between the stream and the subsurface [Packman *et al.*,
68 2000; Cardenas, 2006; Jin *et al.*, 2015] and thus has a direct impact on a wide variety of aquatic
69 organisms from benthic microorganisms to invertebrates, aquatic plants and fish [Findlay, 1995;
70 Wagner *et al.*, 2014; Stubbington, 2012].

71 Colloids are microscopically dispersed insoluble particles ranging from 1.0 nm to 10.0 μm in
72 particle size and exist widely in natural rivers in forms of inorganic and organic particles [Huettel *et*
73 *al.*, 1996]. The inorganic colloids include metal oxide, clay minerals, silicate and carbonate, while
74 the organic ones include corrosive materials, viruses, bacteria and synthetic organic macromolecules
75 [Pretty *et al.*, 2006]. Colloids can significantly affect the aquatic environment and ecosystem in the
76 hyporheic zone. The sedimentation of colloids in the hyporheic zone may affect the diversity and
77 metabolism of streams [Mathers *et al.*, 2014; Partington *et al.*, 2017; Wharton *et al.*, 2017], because
78 colloids are more likely to be retained in the porous media due to filtration, which can clog the
79 streambed and thus reduce the bed permeability and porosity [Rehg *et al.*, 2005; Jin *et al.*, 2019a].

80 This may reduce the connectivity between streams and aquifers [Fox *et al.*, 2018] and consequently
81 have an impact on the hyporheic ecosystem functioning and river resilience [Boano *et al.*, 2007;
82 Benjankar *et al.*, 2016; Stubbington, 2012]. Colloids can also act as important carriers of
83 contaminants in the hyporheic zone [Jin *et al.*, 2019a; McCarthy & Zachara, 1989], as their large
84 specific surface area makes it possible to adsorb more heavy metals, radioactive substances and
85 organic pollutants [Bradl, 2004]. Many studies have demonstrated that colloidal particles in the solid
86 phase can move in subsurface environments and thus carry contaminants to the groundwater [e.g.
87 Ryan & Elimelech, 1996; Guo & Chorover, 2003, Zhang *et al.*, 2005].

88 Due to the important roles of colloids in the hyporheic zone, many studies have been done to
89 investigate their transport and retention in the stream and streambed. There is some evidence that the
90 presence of colloids facilitated the transport of hazardous chemicals such as radiative materials and
91 even viruses in porous media [e.g. Zhuang *et al.*, 2003; Syngouna & Chrysikopoulos, 2013]. Kan &
92 Tomson [1990] found that dissolved organics and colloids could increase the transport distance of
93 some hazardous chemicals, such as DDT, by a thousand times or more in groundwater. Karathanasis
94 *et al.* [1999; 2000] found that colloids accelerated the transport speed of heavy metals in porous
95 media by one to two orders of magnitude. O'Carroll *et al.* [2012] found that colloids affected by
96 natural organic matter could be more mobile in the hyporheic zone and thus enhanced the transport
97 process of arsenic. Many researches have also investigated the function and distribution of colloids
98 in river systems via field investigation. Zhang *et al.* [2016] found that most colloids in the overlying
99 flow were fine particles of 1-10 μm , while those in the fracture flow (deeper underground) were 1 or
100 2 orders of magnitude larger. Chupakova *et al.* [2018] found that the transformation of dissolved
101 organic matter was mainly affected by organo-mineral colloids in boreal and subarctic rivers.

102 *Drummond et al.* [2014, 2017] conducted injection experiments at different reaches and found that
103 sediments and macrophytes on the streambed were important reservoirs for fine particles. In terms
104 of laboratory experiments, *Packman et al.* [2000] investigated the exchange flux of kaolinite
105 colloids at the surface of stream-streambed, and they proposed a tentative model to describe colloid
106 and solute exchange and verified that colloids were extensively trapped in the streambed compared
107 with that of conservative solute. *Ren & Packman* [2004] found that the immobility of metal ions was
108 significantly enhanced in the presence of colloids in the hyporheic zone via flume experiments. *Fox*
109 *et al.* [2018] investigated the effects of the deposition of kaolinite colloids on hyporheic exchange
110 under losing and gaining flow conditions through flume experiments. *Jin et al.* [2018] found that the
111 transport of nano-sized colloids in the hyporheic zone was affected by gravity. *Jin et al.* [2019a]
112 investigated the transport and distribution of colloids in the hyporheic zone via laboratory
113 experiment and found that most of colloids were retained near the shallow layer (less than 5 cm) of
114 streambed. Furthermore, numerical simulations and modified models were built previously. *Karwan*
115 *& Saiers* [2012] conducted simulations to examine hyporheic exchange and streambed filtration of
116 suspended particles but without considering particle settling. *Camarena et al.*, [2016] modified a
117 process-based multiphase exchange model for the p,p-DDE kinetic adsorption to and desorption
118 from the bed colloids and verified it by experiments. *Jin et al.* [2019b] modified the transport model
119 of colloids by taking into consideration the settlement and pore clogging in the hyporheic zone.
120 *Preziosi-Ribero et al.* [2020] developed a stochastic process deposition numerical particle tracking
121 model in the hyporheic zone verified by previous colloids deposition experiments in flumes, and
122 found that the spatial pattern of particle deposition was mainly affected by pore water velocity and
123 the particle concentration was mainly affected by the filtration dynamics.

124 However, it is important to note that the particle size is often assumed to be uniform in most
125 previous studies. It remains unclear how the particle size of colloids changes during their transport
126 processes in the hyporheic zone. In order to investigate the variation of colloidal particle size in the
127 overlying water, we conducted flume experiments and simulations to analyze the effects of settling
128 velocity and mass transfer coefficient on the exchange process of colloids. This study may elucidate
129 1) the mechanisms of the variation of the particle size during the transport process of colloids in the
130 overlying water; and 2) how different-sized particles are affected by settlement and convection-
131 diffusion in the overlying water.

132 **2 Laboratory experiment**

133 In order to investigate the transport process of colloids in the hyporheic zone and the variation
134 of colloidal particle size induced by hyporheic exchange, a flume experiment was conducted in this
135 study [Elliott and Brooks, 1997; Packman et al., 2000; Ren and Packman, 2004; Jin et al., 2019a].

136 A recirculating flume was used to model the 2D longitudinal section of a river with uniform
137 triangular bedforms (Fig. 1a). The wall of the flume is made of toughened transparent glass for easy
138 observation. A transducer is installed at the tail end of the sink to monitor the temperature,
139 conductivity, pH and salinity of the overlying water.

140 The bed sand used in this study was silica sand collected from the Yangtze River and sieved to
141 0.25 - 0.60 mm with a median of $d_s = 0.387$ mm. The bed sediment was required to be clean with no
142 impurities, metals and organic matters, and bed sand was washed before the experiment as follows:
143 1) deionized water for four times, 45 mins each time; 2) an acidic solution at pH 3.5 for 8-9 h; 3)
144 repeat step 1 three more times; 4) repeat step 2 with a solution at pH 10.5; and 5) repeat step 1 three
145 times. In the experiment, the pH of the flume effluent was 6.8-7.1. After washing, the bulk porosity

146 ($\theta = 0.33$) and hydraulic conductivity ($K = 8.84 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m s}^{-1}$) were tested by the water evaporation
147 method and the constant-head method with a Darcy column, respectively. These coefficients were
148 assumed to be constant throughout the experiment and simulation [Jin *et al.*, 2019].

149 Kaolinite colloids (Jihong Factory, Nanjing, China) were pretreated with 2M NaCl solution
150 prior to experiment to avoid coagulation during the experiment [Jin *et al.*, 2019a]. Kaolinite was
151 converted to homoionic sodium kaolinite by stirring for a day in NaCl solution [Packman *et al.*,
152 1996], and then rinsed several times with deionized water until the NaCl concentration was 20 mM
153 in the rinse solution. The particle size distribution was measured after pretreatment. No significant
154 change was observed over time, indicating no coagulation of colloids [Packman *et al.*, 1996].

155 Clean sand was packed in the flume and triangular bedforms were made to enhance the
156 hyporheic exchange flux. The effective length of the sand bed is about 10 m; the length of a single
157 bedform is 15.5 cm; and the thickness varied from 12.0 cm at the trough to 14.0 cm at the crest
158 (Table 1). Before the experiment, the stability of the bedforms was tested at different flow velocities
159 and water depths of the overlying water. The velocity of the overlying flow was set to 13.3 cm s^{-1} ,
160 and the average depth was set to 10.75 cm (Table 1). Subsequently, NaCl was mixed with the
161 overlying water to reach an initial ionic strength of 5 mM based on the previous work [Packman *et*
162 *al.*, 2000; Jin *et al.*, 2019a]. Similarly, kaolinite was added to obtain an initial colloid concentration
163 of 0.2 kg m^{-3} in the overlying water. Note that both NaCl and colloids were initially absent in the
164 bed. NaCl and colloid concentrations were determined from samples collected at different times
165 during the experiment. The experiment would continue until (quasi-) stable NaCl and colloid
166 concentrations were obtained in the overlying water.

167 In order to monitor colloid concentration in the overlying water, samples were collected more

frequently at the beginning of the experiment, at which the concentration would change more rapidly [Packman *et al.*, 2000; Jin *et al.*, 2019a]. The samples were collected from three different positions (5 cm to the two tail ends of the flume and the very middle of the flume) in the overlying water within 30 min (Fig. 1a), and after 30 min as the concentration of colloids was basically the same in the flume. The concentration of colloids was measured using an ultraviolet spectrophotometer. The light absorbance was determined for each sample at 20°C, which was then converted to the colloid concentration based on the calibrated linear relationship between them [Jin *et al.*, 2019a].

Samples were selected at 0, 2.0, 7.8, 17.6, 26.0 and 39.2 h for measurement of particle size distribution using an automatic laser particle size analyzer (LS13320). To validate the accuracy of the analyzer, the same colloid samples were measured three times, and the maximum mean variance of the three measurements was only 0.113%.

3 Colloid exchange theory

The transient storage model, which is widely use in the hyporheic exchange [eg. Bencala and Walters, 1983; Marion *et al.*, 2003; Marion *et al.*, 2008; Briggs *et al.*, 2009; Zaramella *et al.*, 2006] is used to simulate the transport of colloids in the hyporheic zone. The model is described as follows:

$$\frac{dC}{dt} = \alpha(S - C) \quad (1)$$

where C (kg m^{-3}) is the concentration of colloids in the overlying water, S (kg m^{-3}) is the colloids in the pore water, t (s) is the time, and α (s^{-1}) is the mass transfer coefficient, which takes into the concentration convection-diffusion induced exchange consideration (Fig. 1b).

3.1 Modified control equation with settlement

The original model focuses on only one coefficient, the mass transfer coefficient (α). However, the settlement of colloids is also an important factor for the hyporheic exchange [Jin *et al.* 2019a]:

$$\frac{dC}{dt} = \alpha(S - C) - \frac{v_s}{H} C \quad (2)$$

where v_s (m s^{-1}) is the settling velocity of colloids, and H (m) is the depth of the overlying water. According to Eq. 2, the hyporheic exchange of colloidal particles is affected mainly by 1) particle characteristics (settling velocity) and 2) hydraulic characteristics (mass transfer coefficient).

The mathematical derivation steps of Eq. 2 are shown below: 1) Consider only settlement, and the overlying water is divided into several vertical columns (blue dashed boxes in Fig. 1c.) and the bottom area of each column is A , and its height (water depth) is H . 2) Assuming that the column is filled with particles, and the concentration is C_1 at time t_1 and C_2 at t_2 after Δt , respectively. If only settlement is considered, the mass of particles settled on the top of the streambed or penetrated into

the streambed during Δt is $\Delta t v_s A C_1$. Therefore, the mass in the overlying water is $(H - \Delta t v_s) A C_1$.

3) As shown in the right blue dashed box, the mass in the overlying water can be represented as

$H A C_2$. Then, $(H - \Delta t v_s) A C_1 = H A C_2$, which can be converted into $\frac{C_2 - C_1}{\Delta t} = -\frac{v_s}{H} C_1$ and written

as a differential form $\frac{dC}{dt} = -\frac{v_s}{H} C$. 4) Consider both settlement and convection-diffusion by linear

205 additivity, and then Eq. 2 is obtained.

206 The relationship between the concentrations of particles in the overlying water and pore water
207 can be described as follows:

$$208 \quad SA_s + CA_c = M_0 \quad (3)$$

209 where A_s (m^2) is the cross-sectional area of the storage zone, A_c (m^2) is the cross-sectional area of the
210 overlying water, and M_0 ($kg\ m^{-1}$) is the total mass of particles per length of the stream-streambed
211 system. If we focus on the concentration in the overlying water (C), a new equation can be obtained
212 by combining Eq. 2 and Eq. 3:

$$213 \quad \frac{dC}{dt} = \alpha \frac{M_0}{A_s} - \left[\alpha \left(\frac{A_c}{A_s} + 1 \right) + \frac{v_s}{H} \right] C \quad (4)$$

214 Thus, The control equation for the transport of colloids in the overlying water can be obtained
215 (Eq. 4).

216 3.2 Analytical solutions and characteristic parameters

217 Assuming that:

$$218 \quad \begin{cases} K_1 = \alpha \left(\frac{A_c}{A_s} + 1 \right) + \frac{v_s}{H} \\ K_2 = \alpha \frac{M_0}{A_s} \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

219 Eq. 4 can be simplified into:

$$220 \quad \frac{dC}{dt} = K_2 - K_1 C \quad (6)$$

221 Under the initial conditions, $C(t=0) = C_0$ (where C_0 is the initial concentration of particles in

the overlying water), the final analytical solution for the concentration in the overlying water is

$$C = \frac{K_1 C_0 - K_2}{K_1} \exp(-K_1 t) + \frac{K_2}{K_1} \quad (7)$$

Several parameters are defined here to characterize the transport process of particles in the hyporheic zone. The final stable concentration (equilibrium concentration) C_f (kg m^{-3}) is defined as

the final stable concentration in the overlying water ($C_f = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} C$). Thus,

$$C_f = \frac{K_2}{K_1} = \frac{M_0}{(A_c + A_s) + A_s \left(\frac{v_s}{\alpha H} \right)} \quad (8)$$

A dimensionless number (settlement-transfer number) N_s ($N_s = \frac{v_s}{\alpha H}$) is defined to characterize

the effects of settlement and convection-diffusion on the transport process of particles. Thus,

$$C_f = \frac{K_2}{K_1} = \frac{M_0}{(A_c + A_s) + A_s N_s} \quad (9)$$

The arrival time of half equilibrium concentration t_h (s) is defined as the time when $C(t_h) = \frac{C_0 + C_f}{2}$

, which can be obtained:

$$t_h = \frac{\ln 2}{\alpha \left(\frac{A_c}{A_s} + 1 \right) + \frac{v_s}{H}} \quad (10)$$

235 3.3 Modified control equations with release

236 For small-sized ($d_p < 1.10 \mu\text{m}$) colloids, an obvious “time-lapse release” phenomenon is seen
 237 during the transport process, as these particles would be retained instantly by the sand bed and later
 238 released over a long period. The release process is assumed to be a Poisson process [Anderson &
 239 Kurtz, 2011]. The probability of the release at τ is:

$$240 \quad P(\tau) = \frac{e^{-\lambda\tau} (\lambda\tau)^k}{k!} \quad (11)$$

241 where τ (s) is the duration, k is the time for the release of particles, and λ (s⁻¹) is the Poisson
 242 process parameter. A new function $\varphi(t)$ is defined from Eq. 11 to represent the probability density
 243 of released colloidal particles.

$$244 \quad \varphi(t) = \lambda t e^{-\lambda t} \quad (12)$$

245 Combining Eq. 4, the control equation for small-sized colloidal particles is:

$$246 \quad \frac{dC_s}{dt} = \alpha_s \frac{M_{0s}}{A_s} - \left[\alpha_s \left(\frac{A_c}{A_s} + 1 \right) + \frac{v_{ss}}{H} \right] C_s + k_s \int_0^t \frac{\partial S_s}{\partial t_*} \cdot \varphi(t - t_*) dt_* \quad (13)$$

247 where α_s (s⁻¹) is the mass transfer coefficient of small-sized particles induced by convection-
 248 diffusion, v_{ss} (m s⁻¹) is the settling velocity, C_s (kg m⁻³) is the concentration in the overlying water, S_s
 249 (kg m⁻³) is the concentration in the pore water, t (s) is the time, k_s (s⁻¹) is the release coefficient, t_* is
 250 the time between 0 and t , and M_{0s} (kg m⁻¹) is the initial mass of small-sized particles per length.

251 The release term $k_s \int_0^t \frac{\partial S_s}{\partial t_s} \cdot \varphi(t - t_s) dt_s$ can be obtained according to Fig. 2. First, we assume

252 that the retained small-sized colloids S_s would be released, and the released concentration is

253 positively related to $\frac{\partial S_s}{\partial t_s}$ (the retained concentration at a given time between 0 to t). The probability
 254 density to initial time is $\varphi(t - 0)$ for the initial time (black line in Fig. 2). Similarly, it is $\varphi(t - t_{*1})$, $\varphi(t -$
 255 $t_{*2})$ and $\varphi(t - t_{*3})$ for t_{*1} , t_{*2} , and t_{*3} , respectively. Note that the probability density to time t is $\varphi(t - t) =$

256 $\varphi(0) = 0$ for the present time (t). Then $\frac{\partial S_s}{\partial t_s}$ is multiplied by probability densities. The product is

257 taken by integral of t_s from 0 to t , and $\int_0^t \frac{\partial S_s}{\partial t_s} \cdot \varphi(t - t_s) dt_s$ is obtained. Finally, we time a coefficient

258 k_s which is between 0 to 1 to balance the total released mass and dimension.

259 4 Results and discussion

260 4.1 Variation of concentration and particle size in the overlying water

261 The transport of colloids was examined by experiment and simulation in this study. The results
 262 of this study (Fig. 3) and previous ones [Packman *et al.*, 2000; Jin *et al.*, 2019a] show that the
 263 colloid concentration in the overlying water decreases quickly at first and then more slowly, and the
 264 final stable concentration is around zero, which verifies the reliability of the flume experiment.

265 Fig. 3 shows the variation of colloid concentration in the overlying water, where the blue stars
 266 indicate measured colloid concentrations and the green line is fitted by Eq. 7 by varying α and v_s .
 267 The other two lines will be discussed in Section 5.2. The colloid concentration in the overlying

water decreases very rapidly within the first 20 h but more slowly from 20 h to 80 h, after which it remains stable (Fig. 3). Within the first 20 h, there is a large difference in the colloid concentration between the overlying water and the streambed, and as a result colloids can be transported to the streambed easily and rapidly. From 20 h to 80 h, the streambed is clogged with colloids and thus the colloid concentration in the overlying water becomes lower, resulting in a decrease in the exchange rate of colloids [Packman *et al.* 2000; Jin *et al.* 2019a; 2019b]. After 80 h, the exchange of colloids between stream and streambed reaches a dynamic equilibrium. This trend can also be deduced from the exponential function described in Eq. 7.

Six samples were collected at 0, 2.0, 7.8, 17.6, 26.0 and 39.2 h in the overlying water for the measurement of particle size distribution (red squares in Fig. 3). Fig. 4a & b show the particle size distribution, where the mass percentage is multiplied by the relative concentration (the sum of mass percentages for all-sized particles is $C/C_0 \times 100\%$). A unimodal skewed distribution is observed at 0 h (initial distribution), 2.0 h, and 7.8 h; while a bimodal distribution is observed at $t = 17.6, 26.0$ and 39.2 h, respectively. As a large amount of overlying water is needed in the measurement of particle size distribution, the sampling time is designed before experiment to avoid systematic errors. Thus, the transitional samples between unimodal and bimodal distribution could not be obtained and we simulated the transitional distribution, as shown in Fig. S1. However, it is important to note that the total mass of small-sized particles is increased from 7.8 h to 17.6 h (Fig. 4c).

In order to better understand the particle size distribution, particles are divided into small-sized ($d_p < 1.10 \mu\text{m}$), middle-sized ($d_p = 1.10\text{-}3.06 \mu\text{m}$), and large-sized ($d_p > 3.06 \mu\text{m}$), as shown in Fig. 4c. The dividing value between small-sized and middle-sized particles ($d_p = 1.10 \mu\text{m}$) corresponds to

the trough of the bimodal distribution (Fig. 4b & c), while that between large-sized and middle-sized particles ($d_p = 3.06 \mu\text{m}$) corresponds to the zero value in the bimodal distribution (Fig. 4b & c). In the following three sections, we will discuss small-, middle- and large-sized particles, respectively.

4.2 Concentration of large-sized particles in the overlying water

The initial mass proportion of large-sized colloidal particles is around 36% (Table 2, Fig. 5a). The concentration in the overlying water drops very rapidly within the first 10 h, and it is close to zero after 30 h (Fig. 5a). Given the high settling velocity, the function of convection-diffusion is not obvious for the large-sized colloidal particles, and it is difficult for retained particles to resuspend (Table 2).

4.3 Concentration of middle-sized particles in the overlying water

The initial mass proportion of middle-sized colloidal particles is around 39% (Table 2, Fig. 5a). The concentration in the overlying water decreases rapidly within the first 20 h and more slowly from 20 h to 80 h, after which a stable concentration higher than 0 is seen. The influx of colloidal particles is induced by both convection-diffusion and settlement, while the outflux is induced by only convection-diffusion. However, a stable concentration would be reached in the overlying water when there is a dynamic equilibrium between convection-diffusion and settlement. It is important to note that convection-diffusion induced exchange has a more significant effect on the transport of middle-sized colloids compared with the large-sized ones.

Note that a special crest is observed from the particle size distribution at around $d_p = 1.8 \mu\text{m}$ (Fig. 4b & c, $t = 1055 \text{ min}$), which means that colloids are weakly attached to the sand bed around

309 $d_p = 1.8 \mu\text{m}$. The attachment coefficient k_{att} (s^{-1}) is defined to quantify the removal rate of fine
 310 particles due to deposition, which can be calculated by the traditional filtration theory [Bradford *et*
 311 *al.*, 2003; Yao *et al.*, 1971]:

$$312 \quad k_{att} = \frac{3(1 - \bar{\epsilon})}{2d} c_e \eta u_c \quad (14)$$

313 where d (m) is the mean diameter of streambed sediments; $\bar{\epsilon}$ is the average porosity of streambed
 314 surface; u_c (m s^{-1}) is the characteristic pore water velocity defined as $Kh_m / (L\bar{\epsilon})$ [Jin *et al.*, 2010],
 315 in which h_m (m) is the variation of hydraulic head along the sand-water interface, L is the length of a
 316 single bedform; c_e is the collision efficiency; η is the collector efficiency which is related to the
 317 particle size d_p and can be calculated following the method of Rajagopalan and Tien [1976].

318 The larger the k_{att} value is, the larger the removal rate of colloids in the overlying water will
 319 be. The relationship between k_{att} and particle size (d_p) for middle-sized colloids is shown in Fig. 6.
 320 For the middle-sized particles, the bottom of attachment coefficient and the crest of mass percentage
 321 ($t = 17.6 \text{ h}$) are almost overlapped around $d_p = 1.7 \sim 1.8 \mu\text{m}$ (Fig. 4b & 6). This confirms that a
 322 smaller attachment coefficient k_{att} makes it difficult for colloids to be retained in the streambed, and
 323 thus the mass in the overlying water is relatively higher.

324 4.4 Concentration of small-sized particles in the overlying water

325 The initial mass proportion of small-sized colloidal particles is around 25% (Table 2, Fig. 5a).

326 The concentration in the overlying water drops from 0 to 7 h and then increases slightly. After 15 h,

327 it decreases again and finally the C/C_0 is kept at around 0.05 (Fig. 5a). Different from the

328 continuous dropping trend of the concentration of middle- and large-sized colloids in the overlying

329 water, the concentration of small-sized colloids is increased at 7-15 h (Fig. 5a). Based on the

330 assumption in Section 3, the variation trend of small-sized colloids can be well explained (Fig. 5a).

331 The simulated concentrations of small-sized colloids in Fig. 5a (green line) are obtained from

332 Eq. 13, and all coefficients are shown in Table 2. The reason for the decrease of the colloid

333 concentration within the first 7 h is that most colloids are present in the overlying water, and few

334 colloids retained in the streambed could be released back to the overlying water. The increase in the

335 colloid concentration from 7 h to 15 h is attributed to the release of small-sized particles retained in

336 the streambed due to “time-lapse release”. The peak of “time-lapse release” is reached at 15 h, after

337 which the concentration of small-sized colloids in the overlying water decreases. Finally, the

338 exchange induced by convection-diffusion and settlement reaches a dynamic equilibrium.

339 The “time-lapse release” results in an increase in the mass of colloids in the overlying water. If

340 “time-lapse release” is not considered ($k_s = 0$), the results are indicated by the black dashed line in

341 Fig. 5a, which is significantly lower than that when the release is considered. In order to analyze the

342 effect of increment of colloids in the overlying water, the incremental ratio of small-sized colloids (

343 $R_s = \frac{C_s - C_{s0}}{C_{s0}}$, where C_s is the concentration of small-sized colloids considering release, C_{s0} is the

344 concentration of small-sized colloids without considering release) and to all colloids ($R_a = \frac{C_a - C_{a0}}{C_{a0}}$,

345 where C_a is the concentration of all colloids considering release, C_{a0} is the concentration of all
 346 colloids without considering release) are calculated and presented in Fig. 5b. It is obvious that the
 347 incremental ratio of the released mass to small-sized and all colloids in the overlying water show
 348 similar trends. The ratio increases at first until a peak is reached at 30 h, after which it decreases and
 349 then becomes stable after 100 h. The ratio to small-sized colloids is close to 1.0 at its peak, which
 350 indicates that the maximum proportion of released mass reaches nearly half of all small-sized mass.
 351 In addition, the peak ratio to all colloids is around 0.4, which also indicates that there is considerable
 352 proportion of released mass. However, the correlation coefficient between measured and fitted data
 353 is not significantly increased when the “time-lapse release” is considered, because after 30 h (when
 354 the incremental ratio of release is close to peak) the total concentration is not very high and thus less
 355 effects on the correlation coefficient (Fig. 5a & b, Section S1).

356 4.5 Effects of settling velocity v_s and mass transfer coefficient α

357 According to Eq. 8, assuming that A_s , A_c and M_0 are constant, and the final stable concentration

358 C_f (kg m⁻³) is determined by the settlement-transfer number N_s ($N_s = \frac{v_s}{\alpha H}$). Fig. 7a shows that the
 359 final stable concentration C_f differs substantially depending on N_s . The green line (labeled “Fitted

curve”) in Fig. 7a is fitted with measured data (blue stars) by Eq. 9, and the parameters are shown in

Table 2. When $N_s = 0$ ($v_s = 0$ and $\alpha > 0$), the transport of colloids is driven only by convection-

diffusion induced exchange, and the final stable concentration in the overlying water ($C_{f\alpha}$) reaches

a maximum (blue line in Fig. 7a). When $N_s = \infty$ ($v_s > 0$ and $\alpha = 0$), the transport of colloids is

driven only by settlement induced exchange, and the final stable concentration in the overlying

water (C_{fv}) reaches a minimum of 0 (red line in Fig. 7a). Another dimensionless number N_{se} (equal

settlement-transfer number) is defined, which can be considered a special case of N_s when settlement

and convection-diffusion play an equal role in the exchange of colloids. Assuming that

$C_f = \frac{C_{f\alpha} + C_{fv}}{2}$, and combining Eq. 9, the equal settlement-transfer number is $N_{se} = \frac{A_c + A_s}{A_s}$, which

only relates to A_s and A_c . The blue dashed line in Fig. 7a shows the case when $N_s = N_{se}$. It shows

that the larger the N_s value is, the lower the C_f value will be. If N_s is a constant, the final stable

concentration C_f will remain the same regardless of the mass transfer coefficient α (Fig. 7b).

The arrival times (t_h) of the half equilibrium concentration are different for different mass

transfer coefficients (α) (Fig. 7b). This is because t_h is related to both mass transfer coefficient (α)

374 and settling velocity (v_s), as shown in Eq. 10. If $N_s = \frac{v_s}{\alpha H}$ is considered, t_h can be described as:

$$t_h = \frac{\ln 2}{\alpha \left[\left(\frac{A_c}{A_s} + 1 \right) + N_s \right]} \quad (15)$$

$$\text{or } t_h = \frac{\ln 2}{v_s \left[\frac{1}{HN_s} \left(\frac{A_c}{A_s} + 1 \right) + \frac{1}{H} \right]} \quad (16)$$

377 Assuming that N_s is a constant, the sensitivity curves of parameters α and v_s to t_h can be described
 378 by an inverse proportional function, as shown in Fig. 8a. This is because the curve in Fig. 8a is
 379 obtained from Eq. 15 and Eq. 16, where α is inversely proportional to t_h if N_s , A_s and A_c are
 380 constants, and a similar relationship is obtained between v_s and t_h . Assuming that α and v_s are
 381 constants, the sensitivity curve of parameter N_s to t_h is shown in Fig. 8b. The red line in Fig. 8b is
 382 plotted by Eq. 15, and α is assumed to be a constant α_0 (the α in an authentic case), which can be
 383 approximately described by an inverse proportional function. The blue line is plotted by Eq. 16, and
 384 v_s is assumed to be a constant v_{s0} (the v_s in an authentic case). It shows a slightly increasing trend,
 385 because N_s and t_h are positively correlated if v_s remains unchanged. It is also noted that v_{s0} has a
 386 significant effect on t_h , because the sensitivity of N_s to t_h is weak (Fig. 8b, Eq. 16). Fig. 8c is plotted
 387 according to Eq. 10. The red line represents the sensitivity of α to t_h when v_s equals v_{s0} , while the red

line represents the sensitivity of v_s to t_h when α equals α_0 . The blue curve is approximately described by the inverse proportional function, while the trend of the red curve is very moderate. Thus, α_0 is relatively small and has little effect on t_h , while v_{s0} is relatively large and has a more significant effect on t_h (Fig. 8c, Eq. 10).

5 Conclusions

In this study, both experiment and simulation were conducted to better understand the particle size variation of colloids in the overlying water due to hyporheic exchange between the stream and the streambed. The main conclusions are:

1) The particle size of colloids varies during the hyporheic exchange processes, and colloids with different sizes follow different patterns. The concentration of large-sized colloids decreases rapidly and finally gets close to zero in the overlying water, while the concentration of small-sized ones drops more slowly and a considerable amount of them are remained in overlying water.

2) The effects of convection-diffusion and settlement are distinct for different particles. Overall, the larger the particle size is, the stronger the effect of settlement will be; while the smaller the particle size is, the stronger the effect of convection-diffusion will be. For large-sized ($d_p > 3.06 \mu\text{m}$) and middle-sized ($1.10 \mu\text{m} < d_p < 3.06 \mu\text{m}$) particles, the effect of settlement is relatively stronger; while for small-sized ($d_p < 1.10 \mu\text{m}$) particles, both settlement and convection-diffusion have obvious effects, and some of colloids can be released from the streambed to the stream.

3) The exchange process of colloids is affected by both settling velocity (v_s) and mass transfer coefficient (α). The final stable concentration (C_f) is determined by the settlement-transfer number

408 $N_s (= \frac{v_s}{\alpha H})$, and the arrival time of half equilibrium concentration (t_h) is negatively correlated with
409 v_s and α .

410 This study provides some insights in the particle size variation of colloids in the overlying
411 water during the exchange between the stream and the streambed and the effects of settlement and
412 convection-diffusion. More studies are needed to elucidate how the particle size of colloids vary in the
413 streambed, and how the porosity and hydraulic conductivity of the streambed change when it is
414 clogged with different sized colloids.

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