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Application of native plants in constructed floating wetlands as a passive remediation approach for PFAS-impacted surface water

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Keywords: Floating treatment wetland; Artificial floating island; PFAS uptake; Urban
stormwater treatment; *Phragmites australis*.

33 1. Introduction

34 Water treatment through constructed wetlands (CWs) is a common practice in many 35 countries [1, 2] and offers a potentially cost-effective treatment system for a range of water 36 effluent types [3, 4]. CWs use a combination of planted vegetation, soil and microorganisms 37 to remove pollutants from contaminated waters. These systems are mainly used for reducing 38 nutrient concentrations in stormwater or wastewater effluent and for inhibiting eutrophication 39 which results in oxygen depletion, odour generation and fish mortality [5]. However, CW 40 treatment systems also reduce the concentration of many organic contaminants [6, 7], 41 including pesticides, pharmaceuticals, personal care products and per-and polyfluoroalkyl 42 substances (PFAS).

43 Recently, there has been significant interest in PFAS due to the potential health 44 impacts on children and reproductive health [8]. In addition, contamination-impacted 45 community residents may face many stressors, including pervasive uncertainty, future health 46 worries, long-term impacts on day-to-day activities, financial uncertainty, and complex 47 chronic social stressors [9, 10]. PFAS are a group of synthetic chemicals with broad 48 commercial applications worldwide, including manufacturing and fire-fighting foams. PFAS 49 substances, such as perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) and perfluorooctane sulfonic acid (PFOS) 50 which are predominant in fire-fighting foams, are soluble in water with low adsorption 51 potential and negligible volatility (e.g., PFOA has a low $LogK_{oc}$ of ~ 2 and high solubility in 52 water of ~ 9.5 g/L at 25 °C) [11]. The presence of PFAS in the environment has emerged as a significant environmental and human health issue. Upon release to the environment, PFAS 53 54 such as PFOA and PFOS (compounds with strong and highly stable carbon-fluorine bonds) 55 are extremely persistent [12] and can accumulate in organisms, causing adverse health effects 56 in humans and animals including immune system impairment [13].

57 Yi et al. [7] reported that CW treatment systems have the potential to remove PFAS 58 (e.g. 60% of PFOA and 63% of PFOS) from surface waters (median concentrations in the 59 inflow: 0.815 µg/L of PFOA and 0.142 µg/L of PFOS) due to a combination of sorption to 60 soils and sediments and plant uptake (plant species: Typha angustifolia L., Chrysopogon 61 *zizanioides* L., Roberty and *Cyperus papyrus* L.; plant density: 4 plants per m²). In pilot-scale 62 CWs, Chen et al. [14] reported that both PFOA and PFOS were phytoextracted (11.6 - 5.6)63 $\mu g/g$ and 0.046 – 0.026 $\mu g/g$, respectively) by aquatic plant species including Hygrophila pogonocalyx Hayata, Ipomoea aquatica Forssk, Ludwigia (x) taiwanensis Peng and 64 65 Eleocharis dulcis (Burm.f.) Trin. ex Hensch. Chen et al. [14] also reported that plants with 66 large root surface areas and fast root growth had higher PFOA and PFOS uptake rates. In 67 mesocosm experiments, Pi et al. [15] found that PFOA and PFOS accumulated in the roots in 68 preference to the shoots/leaves of aquatic plants (Echinodorus horemanii Rataj and 69 Eichhornia crassipes (Mart.) Solms). Bioaccumulation factors (BAFs), which represent the 70 ratio between PFAS concentrations in the roots or shoots to that in the aqueous solution at the 71 beginning of the experiment (20 μ g/L), were higher in the roots (40 – 50 L/kg and 202 – 236 72 L/kg, for PFOA and PFOS, respectively) than in the corresponding leaves (23 – 41 L/kg and 73 17 – 55 L/kg, for PFOA and PFOS, respectively) [15].

74 Mudumbi et al. [16] collected random samples from eleven commonly found riparian 75 wetland plants and reeds [e.g. Xanthium strumarium, Phragmites australis, Schoenoplectus 76 *corymbosus*]. Among these species, bioaccumulation of PFOA was typically higher in plants 77 that grew closer to the water's edge. Bioaccumulation and translocation rates may also be 78 influenced by the microstructure of the roots [17, 18] with thicker taproots allowing more 79 bioaccumulation of PFAS compared to the finely branched root systems [19]. These previous 80 studies indicate that selection of plants with higher PFAS affinity can enhance uptake and 81 removal of PFAS. Further, to avoid breakthrough of PFAS contaminants, plants should be 82 harvested and replanted regularly to have a sustainable plant uptake of PFAS [7].

83 The concept of CWs can be extended through the development of constructed floating 84 wetlands (CFWs), which are a more recent innovation for both stormwater and wastewater 85 treatment [20, 21]. CFWs promote the growth of plant species in buoyant structures, where pollutants are assimilated into the plant biomass. CFWs offer an alternative treatment 86 87 approach to CWs [22] in that they can be readily retrofitted into existing water environments 88 such as lakes (natural and urban), ponds, dams and retention basins for the treatment of urban 89 surface runoff. The ability to retrofit within existing areas can often be problematic for 90 conventional CW systems [22] (i.e., where plant root masses are anchored within underlying 91 soils). In contrast, CFWs use a buoyant structure onto which vegetation is planted. Similar to 92 hydroponic systems, the vegetation is not rooted in soil and this allows roots to grow freely 93 in the water column. The large surface area of plant roots also provides a habitat for 94 microorganisms (biofilms) which facilitates nutrient removal through phytodepuration [23] 95 and the capture of suspended particles within the water [21, 24]. However, plant selection is a key factor influencing CFW design [5, 25, 26] and the ability of plants to thrive in the water 96 97 and remove nutrients, minerals and other pollutants from the water source needs to be 98 carefully considered.

99 While numerous studies have shown that PFAS may accumulate in riparian wetland 100 plants [16], aquatic plants [15] and edible crops [27], to date there have been limited studies 101 assessing the potential application in CFWs as a passive, low-cost remediation strategy. 102 Therefore further research is required to investigate the PFAS removal efficiency by various 103 wetland plant species [28]. This research study investigated the potential of three Australian 104 native plant species, namely Juncus krausii Hochst., Baumea articulata (R.Br.) S.T. Blake 105 and Phragmites australis (Cav.) Trin. ex Steud., for their ability to bioaccumulate and 106 translocate PFOA and PFOS from stormwater. These species were chosen because they are 107 adaptable to CFWs [29, 30] and have demonstrated ability to successfully remove nutrients 108 and pollutants [31, 32].

109 2. Materials and Methods

110 **2.1.** Chemicals

111 PFOA (95% purity), PFOS-K salt (\geq 98% purity), analytical grade HCl (37%) and 112 NaOH (\geq 97.0%, pellets) were sourced from Sigma-Aldrich (Australia) while methanol 113 (Optima[®] LC/MS grade) was sourced from Fisher Chemical (Australia). Isotopically labelled 114 ¹³C₄-PFOA, ¹³C₈-PFOS and ¹³C₈-PFOA were sourced from Wellington Laboratories 115 (Canada).

116 **2.2. Experiment design**

117 Approximately 200 L of water was collected from a South Australian urban 118 stormwater detention basin that had previously been reported to be impacted by runoff from 119 a PFAS contaminated site. This water was used as the medium in all PFAS-plant uptake 120 studies. Following collection, water quality parameters (pH, organic concentration measured 121 as DOC, conductivity, dissolved oxygen (DO) and PFAS concentration) were assessed as 122 detailed in the Supplementary Information (SI). Plants within this catchment include 123 Phragmites australis, Eleocharis sphacelata R.Br., Schoenoplectus validus (Vahl) A. & 124 D.Löve, Baumea articulata (R.Br.) S.T.Blake and Typha orientalis C. Presl.

Wetland species from the genus *Juncus*, such as *Juncus effusus* L., are among the most commonly used macrophytes selected for their demonstrated capacity of nutrient removal from both stormwater [33] and wastewater [34]. These monocotyledonous plants are typically found in wetland systems and are easily adaptable to CFWs, as are other dominant macrophytes such as *Phragmites* [29, 30]. Species from both these genera have demonstrated the ability to successfully remove nutrients and pollutants [31]. For these reasons, in this study, three native species (*Juncus krausii*, *Baumea articulata* and *Phragmites australis*) were
selected for an assessment of PFOA and PFOS accumulation from PFAS-impacted
stormwater.

Juncus krausii, Baumea articulata and *Phraghmites australis* plants were sourced from State Flora (Belair National Park, South Australia, Australia). Soil attached to root surfaces was gently removed by rinsing plants with tap water followed by deionised water, with excess moisture removed by absorbent towel. The wet mass of plants was measured, with mean values of 20.6 ± 3.4 g, 28.3 ± 8.5 g and 33.3 ± 8.6 g for *Juncus krausii, Baumea articulata* and *Phragmites australis*, respectively.

140 The plants were transferred to 250-mL polypropylene (PP) bottles initially filled with 141 200 mL of 0.2 µm filtered stormwater. During the study period (up to 28 days), the PP bottles 142 were topped up weekly with filtered stormwater to maintain the initial volume (200 mL). The 143 PP bottles were covered with aluminium foil for adequate light blocking and air was supplied 144 via an air bubbler (using 4 mm polypropylene tubing) for aeration and positive pressure to 145 prevent contamination from airborne spores. Experiments were conducted in a plant growth 146 control room maintained at 20 \pm 0.5 °C during day-time and 15 \pm 0.5 °C during night-time 147 with a 12 h light photoperiod. The plants were acclimatised for two weeks to allow their root 148 systems to recover from potential damage prior to the introduction of PFOA or PFOS. The 149 plants were self-sustained in the bottles given their well-developed roots systems so floating 150 accessories were not added in the bottles.

151 Initially, Juncus krausii was utilised to examine the effect of PFAS concentration on 152 plant uptake and distribution with Juncus krausii exposed to PFAS for up to 14 days. 153 Immediately before the beginning of the experiment, which is denoted *Trial 1 (T1)*, stock 154 solutions of PFOA and PFOS were prepared by dissolving the pure chemicals with sterile 155 ultrapure water (Merck Millipore) in methanol-washed volumetric glassware and then 156 opportune aliquots of PFOA or PFOS solutions were spiked into filtered stormwater to 157 achieve concentrations ranging from 0.2 μ g/L to 30 μ g/L (n = 3 per concentration) (see SI, 158 Table S2). At days 1, 7 and 14, plants were harvested, rinsed with ultrapure water and divided 159 into roots and shoots. Wet mass was recorded prior to sample freezing (-20 °C) and freeze 160 drying using a Modulyo freeze dryer (ThermoFisher, Australia). Freeze dried material was 161 used for the determination of PFOA and PFOS concentrations in roots and shoots. In addition, 162 the PFOA and PFOS concentrations in the stormwater at the time of plant harvest were 163 determined for mass balance purposes.

164 Following T1, which provided an assessment of timeframes associated with PFOA 165 and PFOS accumulation in Juncus krausii, two other plant species (Baumea articulata and 166 Phragmites australis) were assessed for their ability to remove PFAS from stormwater in 167 comparison to Juncus krausii. In Trial 2 (T2), experimental parameters were refined from the 168 initial Juncus krausii assessment whereby PFOA or PFOS was supplied at 10 µg/L and the 169 exposure time was extended to 28 days (see SI, Table S3). Further assessment (Trial T3) 170 investigated the effect of co-contaminants at elevated concentrations (30 µg/L of PFOA and 171 PFOS) on PFAS accumulation and translocation in Baumea articulata and Phragmites australis. A concentration of 30 µg/L of PFOA and PFOS was chosen based on reported 172 173 values in contaminated surface waters within Australia [35-38].

For all plant species, PFAS concentrations and exposure time points, three replicates were prepared and analyzed. In addition, control bottles were prepared consisting of plants grown in non-spiked filtered stormwater. All bottles were arranged in the growth chamber according to a complete randomised plot design.

178 **2.3.** Sample preparation

179 Freeze-dried plant material was finely ground using a sample grinder (IKA A11 basic, 180 Australia) prior to PFAS extraction. The plant material (0.1 g) was spiked with 4 ng of isotopically labelled ¹³C₄-PFOA and ¹³C₈-PFOS before extraction according to Braeunig et 181 182 al. [39]. Briefly, 1.5 mL of 200 mM NaOH (Sigma Aldrich, Australia) and 3.5 mL of methanol Optima[®] LC/MS grade (Fisher Chemical, Australia) were added to samples after 183 184 which they were vortexed and left overnight in the dark at 4°C in closed containers. Samples 185 were then sonicated for 20 minutes in a benchtop ultrasonic water bath (Soniclean, Australia) 186 with 120 W pulse swept power operating at 43 ± 2 kHz sweep bandwidth with 20 Hz pulses. 187 Sonication was followed by neutralisation with 4 M HCl (~ 75μ L) and centrifugation for 20 188 minutes at 4000 RCF, at room temperature. Supernatants were transferred to PP tubes and a 189 second extraction step was performed using methanol (1 mL). Extracts were pooled and 190 reduced in volume at 40 °C on a Multivap solvent evaporator (Organomation, U.S.A.) using a gentle flow of nitrogen gas until samples reached approximately 1 mL. To remove 191 192 interferences, extracts were cleaned up using 250 mg Bond Elut Carbon cartridges (Agilent, 193 Australia) that were pre-conditioned with methanol; the filtrates from the cartridges were 194 collected directly in PP HPLC vials. The empty supernatant tubes were also rinsed with 300 µL of methanol followed by another filtration with the carbon cartridges used for the same 195 196 sample in order to minimise potential losses in both tubes and cartridges and maximise 197 recovery. All volumes of samples collected in the HPLC PP vials were finally reduced to 1 198 mL on the solvent evaporator. The overall average recoveries using this procedure were 89% 199 and 114% for ${}^{13}C_4$ -PFOA and ${}^{13}C_8$ -PFOS, respectively. The recoveries for each tested batch 200 are reported in the SI (**Table S4**). Waters samples collected at the start and end of the 201 experiments were diluted with methanol (50:50) and spiked with 4 ng of isotopically labelled 202 ${}^{13}C_4$ -PFOA and ${}^{13}C_8$ -PFOS before analysis.

203 2.4. Analytical determination of PFOA and PFOS

204 PFAS analysis was conducted using high performance liquid chromatography 205 (Thermo Scientific UltiMate 3000 HPLC system) coupled to a tandem mass spectrometer 206 (Thermo Altis Triple Quadrupole Mass Spectrometer) operating in negative electrospray 207 ionisation mode and using multiple reaction monitoring (MRM).

208 Briefly, a 10 µL sample was introduced onto a Hypersil GOLD PFP column (100 x 209 2.1mm, 3 µm particle size; Thermo Scientific, Australia) held at a constant temperature of 210 40°C, with a flow rate of 0.25 mL/min. Separation was achieved by gradient elution from the 211 column. LC-MS grade methanol and 5 mM ammonium formate (prepared in ultrapure water) 212 were used as mobile phases. Identification and confirmation of peaks were performed using 213 retention times and comparing the ratios of MRM transitions between samples and calibration 214 standards. Details on separation and detection conditions are described in the SI (Tables S5 215 and S6).

Concentrations of PFOA and PFOS in samples were quantified by isotope dilution. Eight calibration standards with PFOA and PFOS concentrations ranging from 0.1 to 100 μ g/L were prepared in the same matrix as the samples, i.e. methanol for plant extracts, and 50:50 methanol:water for the stormwater samples which were diluted with methanol (50:50). Each standard also had 4 ng of isotopically labelled ¹³C₄-PFOA and ¹³C₈-PFOS – the same amount introduced to plants during extraction and preparation of the stormwater samples.

222

2 **2.5.** Analytical quality assurance and quality control

To prevent cross-contamination, all reusable labware and glassware were acid washed and methanol rinsed prior to use. For each batch of extractions, blanks, duplicates and fortified samples were included and treated in the same way as real samples. For each analytical batch, continuing calibration verification standards (CCV) and continuing calibration blanks (CCB) were included multiple times (approximately every 15 samples injected) to verify if the calibration was still suitable; results for the CCV within $\pm 2.5\%$ of its expected concentration were considered acceptable. Samples with concentrations outside the range of the calibration standards were diluted in methanol then reanalyzed. Instrumental limits of detection (LOD) and limits of quantitation (LOQ) were estimated to be 0.10 and 0.40 μ g/L for PFOA and 0.25 and 0.75 μ g/L for PFOS based on 3x and 10x the signal to noise.

234 **2.6.** Data and statistical analysis

Translocation factors (TF) at different harvest days (1, 4, 7, 14 and 28) were calculated according to Eq. 1. Bioaccumulation factors (BAF) for roots (BAF_{root}, Eq. 2), i.e. the ratio between PFAS concentration in the roots at time points throughout the exposure period and stormwater at the beginning of the experiment was calculated for each treatment. BAF values were also calculated for shoots (BAF_{shoot}, Eq. 2) and for whole plants (BAF_{whole plant}, Eq. 3) following the method previously reported by Zhang et al. [40].

241
$$TF = \frac{PFAS \text{ concentration in the shoots } (\mu g/g)}{PFAS \text{ concentration in the roots } (\mu g/g)}$$
(1)

242
$$BAF_{roots \, or \, shoots} = \frac{PFAS \, concentration \, in \, the \, roots \, or \, shoots \, (\mu g/kg)}{PFAS \, concentration \, in \, the \, stormwater \, (\mu g/L)}$$
(2)

243
$$BAF_{whole \ plant} = \frac{1}{m_{roots} + m_{shoots}} (BAF_{roots} \times m_{roots} + BAF_{shoots} \times m_{shoots}) \quad (3)$$

where, m_{roots} is the dry mass (g) of plant roots and m_{shoots} is the dry mass (g) of plant
 shoots.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to evaluate the effect of PFAS concentration on plant uptake and total PFAS removal. When a specific concentration was found to influence uptake or total PFAS removal, statistical differences within treatments were determined using the "Two-Sample Student's t test" comparison. Further, the same approach was used to assess changes in TF and BAF values over the study period among treatments. Calculations were performed using Minitab Software (Version 18.1.0) with *p*-values < 0.05 being considered as significant.

253 2.7. ¹³

7. ¹³C-PFOA and ¹³C-PFOS labelling

In order to demonstrate that PFOA and PFOS is taken up by plant tissues (both root and shoot) and not just surface bound, high resolution mass spectrometry (NanoSIMS) analysis was conducted for labelled *J. krausii* plants. For this, after 7 days under simulated control conditions, aliquots of ¹³C-PFOA or ¹³C-PFOS were spiked into filtered stormwater to achieve 10 μ g/L (n = 3 per concentration). *J. krausii* plants were then added to the PP bottles and grown in a plant growth control room maintained at 20 ± 0.5 °C during day-time and 15 ± 0.5 °C during night-time with a 12 h light photoperiod for 28 days to allow ¹³C-PFOA or ¹³C-PFOS uptake. Further control bottles were prepared consisting of *J. krausii* grown in non-spiked filtered stormwater. At the end of the exposure period, plants were harvest with shoots, roots and water separated. Half of the shoot and root samples were ovendried and weighed, and the other half chemically fixed with 2.5% glutaraldehyde and stored at -80 °C before further sample preparation for NanoSIMS analysis.

266 Plant tissue, individual root portions and shoots (both 5-10 mm) were rinsed in milli 267 Q water. Samples were stored at 4°C for ~ one week before being dehydrated in a graded 268 series of 30 min ethanol (20, 50, 70, 100 %) incubations. Dehydrated plant tissue was cut into 269 smaller pieces (~2 mm) and resin embedded in a graded series of 'ultra-low viscosity 270 embedding media (Polysciences, Pensylvania USA) as per manufacturers protocol for a 'hard' 271 mix. Plant tissue was incubated in each solution (25, 50, 75, 100% resin in Ethanol) overnight 272 before a final overnight incubation in 100% resin under low vacuum. Resin was then cured 273 at 70°C for 24 hours. 350 nm sections were cut from resin impregnated tissue samples (Leica 274 EM UC6 Ultramicrotome; Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany) using a 45-degree diamond knife (Diatom, Switzerland). Sections were mounted onto 5 mm² silicon wafers, 275 276 dried and coated with 10nm Au.

277 **2.8.** NanoSIMS analysis

278 High resolution mass spectrometry analysis was performed on a NanoSIMS-50 ion 279 microprobe (CAMECA, France) at The University of Western Australia using a 16 keV Cs⁺ 280 primary ion beam. The nanoSIMS was operated in multi-collection mode with 281 trolleys/detectors positioned to simultaneously detect the negative secondary ions ¹⁷F-, ${}^{12}C_2^{-}, {}^{13}C_2^{-}C_2^{-}, {}^{12}C_2^{-}$ The mass spectrometer was tuned to high mass resolution of c. 282 283 10000 (CAMECA definition) to separate the ${}^{12}C{}^{13}C$ from the ${}^{12}C_{2}H$ peak on mass 25 allowing determination of ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$ ratios as well as ${}^{14}N^{12}C$ and ${}^{31}P$ and secondary electron imaging (for 284 285 identification of cellular and sub-cellular structures). Prior to analysis, selected areas of 286 interest were sputtered (Cs⁺ implanted) by rastering a defocused primary ion beam (current density 7.8×10^{16} ions cm⁻²) over a slightly larger area to allow samples to reach sputtering 287 288 equilibrium. Generally, analysis was performed in a chained method to allow 'stitching 289 together' of many smaller images (30 um2; 256 x 256 pixels) to create a single larger image 290 of root or shoot sections. Images were processed and analysed using the OpenMIMS data 291 analysis software plugin in ImageJ (http://www.nrims.hms.harvard.edu/software.php). Single images were stitched together using nrrd mosaics script (available and described at
 https://github.com/BWHCNI/OpenMIMS/wiki/nrrd-Mosaics).

294 **3.** Results and Discussion

295 Stormwater used for PFAS experiments was collected from an urban stormwater 296 detention basin which had the following water quality characteristics: DOC 4.35 ± 0.05 mg/L; 297 pH 8.2 ± 0.1 ; TDS $248 \pm 18 \mu$ S/cm; DO 9.1 ± 0.1 mg/L. The background PFAS concentration 298 in the stormwater was low (below the drinking water trigger level of 0.07 μ g/L) with only 299 PFOS being detected above the level of reporting (see Table S1). This concentration was 300 approximately 3-430 times lower than the PFOS exposure concentrations used in the plant 301 uptake studies. The PFOS and PFOA concentrations in the roots and shoots of plants grown 302 in non-spiked water (used as a control) were below the limit of reporting indicating that 303 potential PFAS cross-contamination from the environment, chemical reagents, bottles and / 304 or aeration systems did not occur.

305 **3**

3.1. PFOA and PFOS accumulation in Juncus krausii

306 To examine the effect of PFAS concentration on PFAS-plant accumulation, Juncus 307 krausii was selected as the test species and was grown in stormwater spiked with PFOA or 308 PFOS at concentrations ranging from 0.2 µg/L to 30 µg/L. PFOA and PFOS accumulation in 309 roots and shoots was determined after 1, 7 and 14 days (Figure 1). For both PFOA and PFOS, 310 root and shoot PFAS concentration increased with increasing source concentration in 311 stormwater (p = 0.02; Figure 1). A positive correlation between PFOA and PFOS 312 accumulation in plant tissue (root + shoot) and the initial stormwater concentrations was also 313 observed in this study (Figure 2a). PFOA accumulation in shoots was significantly higher 314 compared to PFOS at the same exposure concentrations (at $C_0 = 30 \ \mu g/L$: 0.55 ± 0.03 $\mu g/g$) 315 vs $0.10 \pm 0.08 \ \mu g/g$; at C₀ = 10 $\mu g/L$: 0.24 ± 0.03 $\mu g/g$ vs $0.03 \pm 0.01 \ \mu g/g$; at C₀ = 2 $\mu g/L$: 316 $0.03 \pm 0.01 \,\mu\text{g/g vs} \, 0.03 \pm 0.02 \,\mu\text{g/g}$; at C₀ = 2 μ g/L: 0.004 ± 0.0 μ g/g vs 0.01 ± 0.01 μ g/g; p 317 = 0.03). In contrast, PFOA accumulated in Juncus krausii roots at significantly lower 318 concentrations compared to PFOS for the same corresponding treatment (at $C_0 = 30 \ \mu g/L$: 319 $0.16 \pm 0.08 \ \mu g/g \ vs \ 0.56 \pm 0.07 \ \mu g/g;$ at $C_0 = 10 \ \mu g/L$: $0.11 \pm 0.11 \ \mu g/g \ vs \ 0.19 \pm 0.08 \ \mu g/g;$ 320 at $C_0 = 2 \mu g/L$: 0.01 ± 0.01 $\mu g/g$ vs 0.02 ± 0.01 $\mu g/g$; at $C_0 = 2 \mu g/L$: 0.006 ± 0.002 $\mu g/g$ vs 321 $0.008 \pm 0.004 \,\mu g/g; p = 0.04).$

322 At the end of the exposure time, at exposure concentrations of 0.2 μ g/L and 2 μ g/L, 323 the overall plant tissue accumulations of PFOA (0.004 and 0.025 μ g PFOA/g, respectively)

were lower than those of PFOS (0.01 and 0.032 µg PFOS/g, respectively) for corresponding 324 325 treatments. However, in water spiked with PFAS concentrations of $10 \mu g/L$ and $30 \mu g/L$, the 326 overall plant tissue accumulations of PFOA (0.24 and 0.55 µg PFOA/g, respectively) were 327 larger than those of PFOS (0.03 and 0.1 µg PFOS/g, respectively) for corresponding 328 treatments, Figure 2a. A linear correlation between PFOA and PFOS accumulation in plant 329 tissue and the exposure time was observed and uptake rates $(\mu g/g-d)$ were also found to be 330 higher (but not significantly, p = 0.27) for PFOA compounds compared to those of PFOS at 331 exposure concentrations of 30 μ g/L (0.051 vs 0.046) and 10 μ g/L (0.026 vs 0.016).

332 TF ratios at the end of the exposure time of 14 days were calculated and the values are 333 presented in Figure 2b. At exposure concentrations of 0.2 µg/L and 2 µg/L, no significant 334 differences were found for the TF values for PFOA and PFOS (at $C_0 = 0.2 \,\mu g/L$: 0.64 vs 1.16; 335 at $C_0 = 2 \mu g/L$: 1.74 vs 1.65; p = 0.72). In contrast, at exposure concentrations of 10 $\mu g/L$ and 336 30 μ g/L, the TF values for PFOA were significantly higher than those for PFOS (at C₀ = 10 337 μ g/L: 2.11 vs 0.14; at C₀ = 30 μ g/L: 3.47 vs 0.23; p = 0.06). Furthermore, for PFOA-spiked 338 waters, the TF values increased with increasing initial contaminant levels (p = 0.02) while for 339 PFOS-spiked waters, no such correlation was found (p = 0.73), as shown in **Figure 2b**. Zhang 340 et al. [28] and Pi et al. [15] also reported that PFOS was largely accumulated in the roots with 341 limited upward translocation. Zhang et al. [28] reported similar TF values (TF: < 0.4 for PFOS 342 and ~2 for PFOA after 21 days from exposure) for Juncus effusus grown hydroponically in 343 nutrient solution spiked with 250 µg/L and 4,300 µg/L of PFOA and PFOS, respectively. 344 Zhang et al. [40] also reported similar TF values for PFOS (TF: < 0.5) but lower TF values 345 for PFOA (TF: < 0.5) for *Juncus effusus* grown in soil using nutrient solution spiked with 50 346 μ g/L and 4,300 μ g/L of PFOA and PFOS, respectively. It has been reported previously that 347 relatively higher hydrophobicity and lipophilicity compounds (such as PFOS) might have 348 greater interactions with biological macromolecules in plant roots, resulting in their limited 349 upward translocation during transpiration processes [28, 41]. These TF values indicate an 350 effectiveness in translocating PFOA from Juncus krausii roots to shoots, which may suggest 351 a potential phytoremediation ability for this compound in this plant species. Although these 352 data indicate limited upward translocation of PFOS, the entire plant can be harvested and 353 replanted regularly in a CFW system, which provides a mechanism for sustainable plant 354 uptake of PFOS, without breakthrough should uptake capacity be exhausted.

Calculated BAF_{shoot} and BAF_{root} values are reported in the SI (**Table S7**), while whole
 plant values (BAF_{whole plant}) are shown in **Figure S1**. A decreasing trend of BAFs for roots,

357 shoots and whole plants with increasing PFAS concentrations was observed (BAF_{root}: from 30.7 to 5.3 L/kg for PFOA and from 41.5 to 14.0 L/kg for PFOS at exposure concentrations 358 359 of 0.2 to 30 µg/L; BAF_{shoot}: 19.5 – 12.2 L/kg (PFOA) and 48.1 – 3.2 L/kg (PFOS); BAF_{whole} plant: 24.2 – 9.6 L/kg (PFOA) and 45.5 – 7.5 L/kg (PFOS), as shown in Table S7. These 360 361 observations agree with previously reported findings [40] where a decreasing trend of BAFs 362 with increasing PFAS concentration was also observed for Juncus effusus growth in soil at 363 three different PFAS concentrations (PFOS: 4.2, 4,300 and 43,000 µg/L; PFOA: 0.405, 250 364 and 2,500 µg/L).

365 In this study, BAF values increased over the experimental period for both PFOA and PFOS spiked at all four concentrations (BAF_{whole plant} rate, L/kg.d: +0.93 and +0.60 at $C_0 =$ 366 $0.2 \ \mu g/L$; +0.67 and +0.93 at C₀ = 2.0 $\mu g/L$; +1.47 and +0.65 at C₀ = 10.0 $\mu g/L$; +0.67 and 367 368 +0.52 at $C_0 = 2.0 \,\mu g/L$). BAF_{root} values were significantly lower for PFOA (5.3 – 30.7 L/kg) 369 than corresponding values for PFOS (9.8 - 41.5 L/kg, p = 0.04). Similar to TF values, for 370 stormwater spiked with 10 µg/L and 30 µg/L of PFOA, BAF_{shoot} values were significantly 371 higher compared to stormwater spiked with PFOS (ratio: 8.89 and 3.77, p = 0.09). However, 372 for stormwater spiked with 0.2 μ g/L and 2 μ g/L, no significant difference was observed for 373 PFOA and PFOS BAF_{shoot} values (p = 0.77).

374 **3.2.** Comparison of PFOS and PFOA plant uptake for different native species

375 The initial Juncus krausii experiments determined that both PFOA and PFOS may 376 accumulate in the plant when exposed to a range of PFAS concentrations. However, 377 differences in TF and BAF were observed depending on the functional group. A concentration 378 of 10 µg/L was chosen for the assessment of other plant species (Baumea articulata and 379 *Phragmites australis*) as the differentiation between plant behaviour to translocate and 380 accumulate PFOA and PFOS was more significant at this concentration. Furthermore, 10 381 μ g/L represents the average PFOS concentration detected in contaminated surface waters 382 within Australia [35-38].

PFOA and PFOS accumulation in roots and shoots was determined over a 28-day exposure period, as shown in the SI (**Figure S2**). A trend was observed where increasing shoot uptake of both PFOA and PFOS was associated with increasing exposure time for all species, which is similar to the findings reported by Zhang et al. [28] for *Juncus effusus* and by Zhang et al. [42] for *Carex comosa* where exposure time also positively affected plant uptake of PFAS compounds.

389 For all three plant species, PFOA accumulated in plant roots at significantly lower 390 concentrations than PFOS, while PFOA accumulated in plant shoots at significantly higher 391 concentrations than PFOS. At the end of the exposure (D28) and for all plants under 392 consideration, PFOA accumulated in shoot tissue (µg PFOA/g shoot) was high compared to 393 corresponding values in the root tissue (*Baumea articulata*: 0.08 ± 0.01 vs 0.04 ± 0.02 ; 394 *Phragmites australis*: 0.16 ± 0.03 vs 0.05 ± 0.02 ; *Juncus krausii*: 0.06 ± 0.01 vs 0.02 ± 0.01 , 395 Figure 3a). In contrast, PFOS accumulated in shoot tissue (µg PFOS/g shoot) was generally 396 low compared to corresponding values in the root tissue (*Baumea articulata*: 0.07 ± 0.01 vs 397 0.11 ± 0.03 ; *Phragmites australis*: 0.07 ± 0.04 vs 0.27 ± 0.06 ; *Juncus krausii*: 0.05 ± 0.02 vs 398 0.06 ± 0.00 , Figure 3a).

Furthermore, to demonstrate that PFOA and PFOS was taken up by plant tissues (both root and shoot) and not just surface bound, NanoSIMS analysis was conducted using ¹³C labelled PFOS and PFOA and *Juncus krausii*. Images from the NanoSIMS clearly demonstrates the presence of added ¹³C (derived from PFOA or PFOS) within plant tissue, both root and shoot, albeit at low enrichment ($^{13}C/^{12}C$: 0.013, **Figure 4**) while data from unlabeled tissue (**Figure S3, SI**) indicates homogenous $^{13}C/^{12}C$ across all tissue types and natural abundance values (0.011).

Isotope ratio images enabled visualization of the in-situ flow of ¹³C -PFOA and ¹³C-406 407 PFOS through Juncus krausii root and shoots (Figure 4). After 7 days of the initial labelling, 408 the apoplastic pathway of the epidermidis, cortex and phloem root cells were significantly enriched in ¹³C -PFOA and ¹³C-PFOS compared to the symplastic pathway (**Figure 4**). Higher 409 ¹³C -PFOA and ¹³C-PFOS enrichment was visible in the apoplastic pathway of the shoot and 410 to a lesser extent in the cytoplasm. Higher ¹³C -PFOA and ¹³C-PFOS was commonly located 411 412 at intersections of more than two cells (Figure 4), and to a lesser extent in the symplastic 413 areas of the cortex. The ¹³C-PFOS taken up from the water solution was detected in both cells 414 and cell walls of the shoot (symplast and apoplast) and was observed in the epidermidis and cortex (apoplast only) (Figure 4). There was a quantitative difference in the ¹³C -PFOS and 415 416 accumulation in the leaves and roots, with the roots being less enriched in the cortex symplast. 417 ¹³C-PFAS enrichment was higher in the apoplast than in the symplast of the shoot and was observed in the root epidermidis and cortex at higher concentration than the ¹³C-PFAS 418 419 (Figure 4).

420 The highest overall plant tissue accumulation of PFOA and PFOS was found for 421 *Phragmites australis* species $(0.21 \pm 0.02 \ \mu g/g)$ and $0.33 \pm 0.04 \ \mu g/g)$ followed by *Baumea* 422 articulata $(0.13 \pm 0.00 \,\mu\text{g/g})$ and $0.18 \pm 0.01 \,\mu\text{g/g})$ and then Juncus krausii $(0.09 \pm 0.01 \,\mu\text{g/g})$ 423 and $0.11 \pm 0.01 \,\mu g/g$). PFOA and PFOS uptake ($\mu g/g$) was significantly lower than values 424 reported by Chen et al. [14] for (between 5.6 to 11.6 for PFOA and between 26 to 46 for 425 PFOS) for four aquatic plants i.e. Hygrophila pogonocalyx Hayata, Ipomoea aquatic Forssk, 426 Ludwigia (x) taiwanensis and Eleocharis dulcis species. This may be attributed to the high 427 concentrations ($C_0 = 5,000 \mu g/L$) that were used in their study. García-Valcárcel et al. [43] 428 also reported higher overall accumulation of PFOA (~ 2 - $3.2 \mu g/g$) and PFOS (~ 2 - $3 \mu g/g$) 429 in grass (Bromus diandrus) tissues grown in nutrient solution but at higher contaminant 430 concentrations (500 and 1,000 μ g/L).

431 For all species under consideration and similar to the outcomes from Trial 1, PFOA 432 TF values were also found to be significantly higher compared to PFOS TF values (mean at 433 D28: 1.93 vs 0.63 for Baumea articulata; 3.29 vs 0.26 for Phragmites australis; 2.65 vs 0.84 434 for Juncus krausii p = 0.001), Figure 5. The TF values also increased with increasing 435 exposure times ($\Delta TF/\Delta time$ for PFOA: +0.059, +0.116 and +0.087; $\Delta TF/\Delta time$ for PFOS: 436 +0.012, +0.006 and +0.031 for Baumea articulata, Phragmites australis and Juncus krausii, 437 respectively, as shown in **Figure 5b**) and a plateau was only observed for PFOS TF values 438 for Juncus krausii at the end of the exposure time. For PFOA, the highest TF value was for 439 Phragmites australis (mean at D28: 3.29) followed by Juncus krausii (2.65) then Baumea 440 articulata (1.93) while for PFOS, the highest TF value was for Juncus krausii (0.84) followed 441 by Baumea articulata (0.63) and Phragmites australis (0.26). Poor translocation of PFOS can 442 be attributed to the fact that these plants have hollow stems (helophytes), or that they have 443 large aerenchyma with piths evolved into pith cavities. As a result, the cross-sectional area of 444 the stem is reduced and this results in fewer acropetal translocation routes following 445 aboveground uptake of large chain compounds [17]. However, the plant roots can be readily 446 harvested from a CFW system and this provides a potential mechanism for sustainable plant 447 uptake of PFOS.

Values for BAF_{shoot}, BAF_{root} and BAF_{whole plant} were calculated over a 28-day exposure period and are presented in the SI (**Table S8**). BAF_{whole plant} values at the end of the exposure time (D28) are shown in **Figure 3c**. The highest BAF_{root} values were for *Phragmites australis* species (5.0 L/kg for PFOA and 26.5 L/kg for PFOS) followed by *Baumea articulata* (4.4 L/kg and 11.3 L/kg) and then *Juncus krausii* (2.4 L/kg and 5.8 L/kg). A similar trend was found for BAF_{shoot} and BAF_{whole plant} for both PFOA and PFOS, where higher values were observed for *Phragmites australis* (BAF_{shoot}: 16.4 and 6.9; BAF_{whole plant}: 11.8 and 14.8)

455 compared to Baumea articulata (BAF_{shoot}: 8.5 and 7.2; BAF_{whole plant}: 7.2 and 8.5) and Juncus 456 krausii (BAF_{shoot}: 6.3 and 4.8; BAF_{whole plant}: 4.6 L/kg and 5.2 L/kg). For all three plant species, 457 BAF_{whole plant} values for PFOA were lower compared to corresponding values for PFOS (mean 458 values for *Phragmites australis*: 11.8 vs 14.8 (p = 0.02); for *Baumea articulata*: 7.2 vs 8.5 (p459 = 0.04); for *Juncus krausii*: 4.6 vs 5.2 L/kg, (p = 0.04)), **Figure 3c**. A similar finding was also 460 reported by Pi et al. [15] with PFOA BAF_{whole plant} values were lower compared to values for 461 PFOS for both Echinodorus horemanii (43 vs 86) and Eichhornia crassipes (27 vs 90) grown 462 in nutrient solution spiked with 20 µg/L of PFOA and PFOS after 14 days from exposure.

The overall percentage removal values for both PFOA and PFOS by the three species under consideration at the end of the exposure time are presented in **Figure 3b**. The highest overall PFOA and PFOS removal efficacy was found for *Phragmites australis* species (mean: 53% and 42%) followed by *Baumea articulata* (29% and 24%) and then *Juncus krausii* (5% and 5%).

468 3.3. Assessment of PFOA and PFOS accumulation in plant tissues when exposed to 469 high initial concentrations

470 The two plant species exhibiting the highest overall PFOA and PFOS removal efficacy 471 (i.e. *Phragmites australis* and *Baumea articulata*, as shown in **Section 3.2**) were tested further 472 under extreme conditions (Trial 3) where plants were grown hydroponically in water spiked 473 with 30 μ g/L of PFOA and 30 μ g/L of PFOS. The 30 μ g/L is equivalent to the sum of PFAS 474 compounds that have been detected in surface waters [35-38].

475 The concentrations of PFOA and PFOS accumulated in root and shoot tissues were 476 measured and the results are shown in Figure 6. The TF values over a 28-day exposure period 477 are shown in **Figure 7a.** BAF_{shoot}, BAF_{root} and BAF_{whole plant} at the end of the exposure time 478 (D28) are also shown in Figure 7b while these values over a 28-day exposure period are 479 presented in the SI (Table S10). As observed in Trial 2 (experiment conducted at an exposure 480 concentration of $10 \mu g/L$), the increasing trend of shoot uptake with increasing exposure time 481 (p = 0.01) was also found for both plant species. PFOA was found to be accumulated in both 482 *Phragmites australis* and *Baumea articulata* roots at significantly lower concentrations than 483 PFOS (*Baumea articulata*: p = 0.004; *Phragmites australis*: p = 0.001). Consistent with data 484 obtained at an exposure concentration of 10 µg/L, the overall plant tissue accumulation of 485 PFOS was found to be higher for *Phragmites australis* species $(0.62 \pm 0.12 \,\mu\text{g/g})$ compared 486 to Baumea articulata (0.24 \pm 0.05 μ g/g), p = 0.001. In contrast, no significant difference was

- observed for PFOA values ($0.38 \pm 0.15 \ \mu g/g \ vs \ 0.32 \pm 0.1$, p = 0.72). Similar to the findings for *Juncus krausii* (Trial 1), a positive correlation between PFOA and PFOS accumulation in plant tissue and the initial exposure concentrations was also observed (*Baumea articulata*: 0.32 vs 0.13 $\mu g/g$ for PFOA and 0.24 vs 0.18 $\mu g/g$ for PFOS at C₀ = 10 and 30 $\mu g/L$, respectively; *Phragmites australis*: 0.38 vs 0.21 $\mu g/g$ and 0.62 vs 0.33 $\mu g/g$), as shown in
- 492 **Figure 3** and **Figure 6**.

493 As for the previous trials (Trials 1 and 2), TF values increased with increasing 494 exposure time (Δ TF/ Δ time for PFOA: +0.11 and +0.09; Δ TF/ Δ time for PFOS: +0.016 and 495 +0.01 for *Baumea articulata* and *Phragmites australis*, respectively) and a plateau was also 496 not observed at the end of the exposure time, as shown in **Figure 7a**. In addition, PFOA TF 497 values were significantly (p = 0.001) higher than those of PFOS (mean at D28: 3.38 vs 0.68) 498 for Baumea articulata; 2.76 vs 0.40 for Phragmites australis). At the end of the exposure 499 time, TF values were found to be higher for Baumea articulata species compared to the 500 corresponding values for *Phragmites australis* (PFOA: 3.38 vs 2.76; PFOS: 0.68 vs 0.40).

501 Similar to Trial 2 (i.e. $C_0 = 10 \mu g/L$), PFOS BAF values were higher for *Phragmites* 502 australis compared to the corresponding values for Baumea articulata (BAFroot: 15.4 vs 4.8 503 L/kg; BAF_{shoot}: 5.4 vs 3.3 L/kg; BAF_{whole plant}: 10.7 vs 3.8 L/kg). PFOS BAF values were 504 found to be lower at $C_0 = 30 \,\mu g/L$ compared to the corresponding treatment at $C_0 = 10 \,\mu g/L$ 505 (BAFroot: 4.8 vs 11.3 L/kg for Baumea articulata and 15.4 vs 26.5 L/kg for Phragmites 506 australis; BAF_{shoot}: 3.3 vs 7.2 L/kg for Baumea articulata and 5.4 vs 6.9 L/kg for Phragmites 507 australis; BAFwhole plant: 3.8 vs 8.5 L/kg for Baumea articulata and 10.7 vs 14.8 L/kg for 508 Phragmites australis), as shown in Figure 7b and Figure 3c. PFOA BAF values followed 509 the same trend with values being lower at $C_0 = 30 \ \mu g/L$ compared to the corresponding 510 treatment at $C_0 = 10 \,\mu g/L$ (BAF_{root}: 2.4 vs 4.4 L/kg for *Baumea articulata* and 4.5 vs 5.0 L/kg 511 for Phragmites australis; BAF_{shoot}: 8.2 vs 8.5 L/kg for Baumea articulata and 8.3 vs 16.4 512 L/kg for *Phragmites australis*; BAF_{whole plant}: 6.1 vs 7.2 L/kg for *Baumea articulata* and 5.9 513 vs 11.8 L/kg for *Phragmites australis*), as shown in Figure 7a and Figure 3c. These data 514 indicate that the BAFs for roots, shoots and whole plants decrease with increasing PFAS 515 concentrations, which is similar to the findings for *Juncus krausii* (Trial 1, Figure S1).

As observed in Trial 2, the overall PFOS removal efficacies were also found to be higher for *Phragmites australis* (mean: 27%) compared to *Baumea articulata* (9.5%). In contrast, no such distinction was apparent for the PFOA removal efficacies (15.2% vs 16%). The overall removal efficacy was found to decrease with increases in PFAS concentration in 520 stormwater (*Baumea articulata*: 24.3%, 16.0%, 28.7% and 9.5%; *Phragmites australis*: 521 42.3%, 15.2%, 53.2% and 26.9% for water spiked with 10 μ g/L of PFOA, 30 μ g/L of PFOA, 522 10 μ g/L of PFOS and 30 μ g/L of PFOS, respectively), which is similar to the findings for 523 *Juncus krausii* (Trial 1).

524 It has been reported that the uptake process of PFAS is initiated with adsorption onto 525 the root surface followed by transportation to the root epidermal cells and then radial 526 transportation to the cortex where vascular bundles are present in diverse forms [17]. The 527 plants differentially allow the bioaccumulation of PFAS mass in their tissues and this role is 528 crucial for PFAS remediation of contaminated waters [27]. Several wetland species have 529 previously been studied and their efficiency for PFAS removal has been reported [15, 28, 40, 530 42]. However, a direct comparison between the efficiency for PFAS removal observed in the 531 present study to those values reported previously is difficult because the experimental 532 conditions are different. These differences include plant media and water (soil, nutrient 533 solution, wastewater vs stormwater) as well as different initial contaminant types and 534 concentrations.

535 Although long-chain PFAS compounds can accumulate in the roots and shoots of 536 plants, as described above, it has been reported that long-chain PFAS compounds are removed 537 largely by sorption processes [17]. Consequently, additional measures such as the inclusion 538 of removable sorptive materials could be an additional means of removing PFAS from 539 solution [7] i.e. PFOA will be taking up in the plant while PFOS could be adsorbed by the 540 bedding layer. Some CFWs include interchangeable plant baskets which can be pre-541 established with removable sorptive materials such as granular activated carbon or biochar. 542 The buoyant structures of CFWs can also include aeration systems that can increase aerobic 543 microbial actions resulting in improved degradation of PFAS in the presence of molecular 544 oxygen [17]. Zhang and Liang [44] reported that aeration significantly improves the removal 545 by duckweed of PFAS compounds such as PFOA and PFOS.

546 Furthermore, management of harvested PFAS-contaminated plant material is required. 547 Management strategies for harvested PFAS-contaminated plant material includes pyrolysis 548 to produce PFAS-free biochar materials. Thermal desorption of PFAS from the waste 549 followed by destruction will reduce the total amount of the compound requiring destruction 550 since only the off-gases are destroyed instead of the entire waste material itself. The resultant 551 biochar, which would otherwise enter the waste stream, can be then utilized to improve urban 552 water quality.

553 4. Conclusion

554 This study demonstrated the ability of three wetland species (*Phragmites australis*, 555 Baumea articulata and Juncus krausii) to uptake, bioaccumulate and translocate long-chain 556 PFAS compounds (i.e. PFOA and PFOS) from contaminated stormwater (level: 0.2 µg/L to 557 30 µg/L). A trend was observed where increasing shoot uptake of both PFOA and PFOS was 558 associated with increasing exposure time for all three plant species and increasing 559 concentration of these chemicals in stormwater. However, bioaccumulation factors decreased 560 with increasing PFAS concentrations. Both the translocation factors (TF) and 561 bioaccumulation factors increased with longer exposure times.

562 For all three plant species, PFOA accumulated in plant roots at significantly lower 563 concentrations than PFOS, while PFOA accumulated in plant shoots at significantly higher 564 concentrations than PFOS. The PFOA TF values were also found to be significantly higher 565 compared to PFOS. The TF values indicate the plants' effectiveness in translocating PFOA 566 from roots to shoots but only limited upward translocation of PFOS was observed. However, plant roots can be readily harvested and replanted regularly from a CFW system, which 567 568 provides a mechanism for sustainable plant uptake of PFOS, without breakthrough should 569 uptake capacity be exhausted.

570 The highest overall PFOA and PFOS removal efficacies were found to be for 571 *Phragmites australis* followed by *Baumea articulata and* then *Juncus krausii*. However, for 572 all plants under consideration, the overall removal efficacy was found to decrease with 573 increases in PFAS concentration in stormwater. The NanoSIMS data clearly demonstrate the 574 presence of PFOA and PFOS within plant tissue, both root and shoot but not on external 575 surfaces. These results show that CFWs planted with native plant species can be used to 576 reduce long-chain PFAS contaminants in surface waters.

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Figure 1. Concentration of a) PFOA and b) PFOS in Juncus krausii shoots and roots after 1, 7 and 14 days of exposure to 0.2, 2, 10 and 30 µg/L of PFOA or PFOS in stormwater. Error bars represent the standard deviation (n=3).



Figure 2. PFOS and PFOA accumulation in plant biomass (roots + shoots) (a) and *Juncus krausii* translocation factors after 14 days exposure to
 PFOA- or PFOS-spiked stormwater (b).



Figure 3. Concentration of PFOS and PFOA in shoots and roots of *Baumea articulata*, *Phragmites australis* and *Juncus krausii* (a), percentage removal (%) (b) and BAF_{whole plant} values for both PFOS and PFOA (c) at the end of the exposure period for water spiked with 10 μ g/L of PFOA and 10 μ g/L of PFOS. Error bars represent the standard deviation (n= 3).



Figure 4. Distribution of ¹³C enrichment (proxy for ¹³C-PFOA or ¹³C-PFOS respectively) in the shoots (top) and roots (bottom) of *Juncus krausii* after 28 days incubation. Each of the four sample types are represented by a combined secondary electron micrograph to show structures of interest and a ¹³C/¹²C overlaid hue saturated intensity image (HSI) of the same area indicating where ¹³C enrichment is present. For each sample type, the outer surface (S)

- of the tissue is at top with inner tissue below. Larger black areas on samples are indicative of
- sample tears and should be ignored.



Figure 5. TF values for PFOA (a) and PFOS (b) of Baumea articulata, Phragmites australis and Juncus krausii during the study period for water spiked with PFOA and PFOS ($10 \mu g/L$ each).



Figure 6. Concentrations of PFOA and PFOS in the shoots and roots of *Baumea articulata* (a) and *Phragmites australis* (b) at harvest days since exposure for water spiked with both PFOA and PFOS ($30 \mu g/L$ each). Error bars represent the standard deviation (n= 3).



Figure 7. TF values (a) and BAF values (b) for *Baumea articulata* and *Phragmites australis* exposed to PFOA and PFOS for 28 days. Error bars
 represent the standard deviation (n= 3).