

A new foam-based method for the (bio)degradation of hydrocarbons in contaminated vadose zone

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- 1 A new foam-based method for the (bio)degradation of hydrocarbons
- 2 in contaminated vadose zone
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- 16 Abstract

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- 17 An innovative foam-based method for Fenton reagents (FR) and bacteria delivery was
- assessed for the *in situ* remediation of a petroleum hydrocarbon-contaminated unsaturated
- 19 zone. The surfactant foam was first injected, then reagent solutions were delivered and
- 20 propagated through the network of foam lamellae with a piston-like effect. Bench-scale

experiments demonstrated the feasibility of the various treatments with hydrocarbon (HC) removal efficiencies as high as 96%. Compared to the direct injection of FR solutions, the foam-based method led to larger radii of influence and more isotropic reagents delivery, whereas it did not show any detrimental effect regarding HC oxidation. Despite 25% of HCs were expelled from the treated zone because of high foam viscosity, average degradation rates were increased by 20%. At field-scale, foam and reagent solutions injections in soil were tracked both using visual observation and differential electric resistivity tomography. The latter demonstrated the controlled delivery of the reactive solutions using the foam-based method. Even if the foam-based method duration is about 5-times longer than the direct injection of amendment solutions, it provides important benefits, such as the confinement of harmful volatile hydrocarbons during Fenton treatments, the enhanced reagents delivery and the 30% lower consumption of the latter.

1. Introduction

Contamination of soils by petroleum hydrocarbons (HCs) is a worldwide concern, given the health and environmental hazards [1]. Their occurrence in the environment is often linked to anthropogenic activities, such as accidental spills and leaks [2,3]. In France, half of the polluted sites are contaminated by HCs, while polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) are involved in more than 15% of the cases [4]. *In situ* environmental remediation (ISER) is increasingly used among remediation strategies because of the lower dissemination risks and the higher sustainability. The application of In Situ Chemical Oxidation (ISCO) technologies has shown to be a good strategy for the remediation of these contaminated sites [5]. Among the various ISCO treatment methods, Fenton oxidation is the most commonly used [6]. Fenton oxidation uses the reaction of hydrogen peroxide solution and the ferrous ion to produce the highly reactive hydroxyl radical (eq. 1), for HC mineralization.

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$$H_2O_2 + Fe^{2+} \rightarrow OH^{\bullet} + OH^{-} + Fe^{3+}$$
 (1)

Recently, it was suggested that since ISCO is often not able to access and oxidize all of the residual contaminants, biological polishing would be a good means to complete at low cost the remediation of contaminated sites [7–11]. Fenton reagent (FR) appears to be an excellent candidate for the oxidation step, because of the environmental friendliness of its decomposition products and its low persistence in the environment [11–15]. Moreover, Fenton oxidation decreases pollutants concentrations and improves the bioavailability of metabolites, which facilitates indigenous bacterial activity [16–19]. Finally, it also provides oxygen and nutrients for indigenous bacteria to improve the biodegradation of pollutants [11,17]. Besides, *in situ* bioremediation treatments alone have a limited effectiveness to remediate historically contaminated soils. Usually, HCs are strongly sorbed onto (or

partitioned into) solid phases and are thus not easily degraded by microorganisms. Then, in order to be degraded, HCs must be released into the aqueous phase [20]. Due to the low mass-transfer rates in the soil matrix, this release often limits the effectiveness of bioremediation. In situ bioremediation as post-treatment improved HCs removal and reduced the soil toxicity after a chemical treatment, which meets the revitalization goals [21]. Nevertheless, more research is required to further study and optimize the interaction between the two treatments (operating conditions, micro-organisms, etc.). Basic bioremediation methods include biostimulation (BS) and bioaugmentation (BA) [22,23]. They have a minimal environmental impact and low processing costs [24]. However, the degradation efficiency is often hindered by the poor contact between remedial agents and contaminants, especially in the vadose zone where gravity and anisotropy may hinder the distribution of amendments [25–27]. Currently, there is a growing interest for the use of high viscosity shear-thinning fluids for ISER. Among them, surfactant foam has shown to be promising [25,26,28-33]. Foam in porous media appears as gas bubbles separated by thin liquid films (lamellae) blocked at pore throats. These lamellae must stretch to go through pores or break, opposing resistance to gas flow. This gives an important apparent viscosity to strong foams that diverts flow from big pores to smaller ones [34]. Hence, foam can be used in two ways, as a blocking agent [31,35], or, as a mobility control agent to avoid the digitation of the injected fluid or related phenomena [25,26,33,36]. So far, reports about field-scale remediation tests dealing with foams are scarce and only mention aquifers contaminated by chlorinated-compounds [29,31,37]. The occurrence of HC contaminations and challenging specific issues, like radius of influence (ROI which is the radial distance travelled by the fluid from the injection point) in vadose zones, and the efficiency of degradation reactions, deserve studies.

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Previously, we reported some bench-scale developments of this innovative surfactant foambased technology, considering the improved oxidation of coal-tar contaminated soils by persulfate [25,26,28,38]. In this case, further critical developments are reported, considering historically HC contaminated soils, the control and performance of the powerful Fenton reaction and of its combined treatment with biodegradation, assessed in situ both at bench and field-scales. First, a comparative study in sandboxes of amendment delivery and HC degradation rates using Fenton in acidic conditions is provided, considering the new foambased technology vs. the usual direct injection of active solutions. Second, combined Fenton in non-acidified conditions and biological treatments applied as a post-oxidation treatment are reported. Finally, the application of the combined treatment at the real scale using this new technology is reported and assessed, also considering a cost-benefit-risk balance. Even if they are scarce, all the reported assessments of foam-based treatments in ISER have highlighted the technical difficulties to properly manage this complex fluid [29,31,35]. For this reason, a geophysical imaging using the low-invasive electrical resistivity tomography (ERT) was carried out to monitor the propagation of the injected fluids, during our field tests.

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2. Materials and methods

2.1. Test-site and soils

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The study site was a former petroleum hydrocarbon storage area, situated in Collonges-au-Mont-d'Or (45°49'30.7"N 4°50'58.4"E, France). The vadose zone was about 10 m deep. Both of the saturated and unsaturated zones were contaminated by HCs as the consequence of spills in the 1940's. From the surface, there was a first layer of embankments, then a silt layer, and a sand one with 1.0, 0.3 and 4 m thicknesses, respectively. The latter was contaminated by HCs up to 12000 mg.kg⁻¹. The microbial activity and nitrogen content (<0.5 gN.kg⁻¹) in soil were low. For lab studies, soil samples were collected from the contaminated site at depths from 1 to 4 m below the ground surface (mbgs). Before being used, the HC contaminated soil was sieved to remove the coarser fraction (> 1 cm), then it was mechanically homogenized and its main physicochemical properties were evaluated. Particle size distribution was determined by sieving [39]; the D_{10} and D_{90} of the collected fraction were 168 and 2040 μ m, respectively. D₁₀ and D₉₀ correspond to the 10th and 90th percentile of grain size distribution, respectively. The soil permeability was 267 µm² as measured using the constant head technique [40]. The soil porosity was 30.6% as measured by weighing a soil column before and after filling it with water to determine its porous volume (PV) [41]. The measured pH of the soil was 9 (multiparameter analyzer Consort C862), using a 1/5w soil/deionized water ratio stirred for 1 h [42]. The carbonates content of the soil was 4.5% as measured by volumetric measurement of CO₂ formed during acidic dissolution [43]. The soil was hydrophilic, considering the measured contact angle at the air/water/soil interface, using the modified sessile method [44], which was 30°. The initial water content of the soil was 1%w as measured by the Karl Fischer method [45]. Soil moisture content was determined in triplicates. Approximately 5 g of sample were weighted before and after drying in an oven at 105 °C overnight (at least 16 h). Soil relative humidity was then calculated by weight difference [46]. Typically, the average C10-40 semi-volatile and C5-C11 volatile total petroleum hydrocarbons (TPH) indices measured in the soil were 3000 ± 324 and 44 ± 5 mg.kg⁻¹, respectively. Sums of 16 US PAH and BTEX concentrations were 20.0 ± 4.8 and 5.000 ± 0.003 mg.kg⁻¹, respectively. Total nitrogen was measured using Total Nitrogen test kits (Merck) extractable phosphorous (orthophosphates) was measured by the Olsen method [47].

2.2. Chemicals and reagents

The zwitterionic Lauryl Betaine (LB, 40%w, EOC) surfactant was used to make foam, as previously reported [25,26,38]. Hydrogen peroxide (35%w, Acros Organics) and iron(II) sulfate (FeSO₄.7H₂O, Fisher Scientific) were used to form the Fenton reagent. Sulfuric acid (98%) was provided by Merck. Analytical reagents were ammonium thiocyanates (98%, Prolabo) and hydrochloric acid (37%, VWR). Ammonium nitrate (>98%) and potassium phosphate (>98%) were provided by Acros Organics. Magnesium sulfate (MgSO₄.7H2O, >99%), calcium chloride (>99%), ammonium chloride (>99.8%) and ammonium sulfate (>99%) were provided by Merck. Sodium chloride (>99.9%) was provided by VWR. For field-test, LB 40 %w, hydrogen peroxide (35%, Quaron), iron(II) sulfate heptahydrate (85%, UAB) and sulfuric acid (37%, Ardea) were used.

The FR was prepared in a 1:5 ratio of iron(II) sulphate to hydrogen peroxide, because it is stated in literature that the optimal H₂O₂/Fe ratio varies between 5 and 25 [17,48–51]. An excess of iron causes an unproductive consumption of hydroxyl radicals and undesirable side reactions, which increase the scavenging of hydroxyl radicals [52]. The concentration of FR

delivered was 9 g.kg_{soil}⁻¹, corresponding to concentrations of 4.4%w and 0.9%w for H_2O_2 and FeSO₄, respectively. The oxidant dose was estimated from the stoichiometric molar ratio (SMR) between H_2O_2 and dodecane, considering the latter as being representative of the HC contamination of the soil [53]. Since the low pH required for conventional Fenton oxidation clean-up is of major importance, concentrated H_2SO_4 was added to the FR solutions to decrease the pH of the injected solutions to 3, which in turn prevents strong precipitation of Fe^{3+} [6,54].

2.3. Biological reagents

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Based on an analysis of total N and extractable P amounts in the soil, the BS solution was made of (NH₄)₂HPO₄ and K₂SO₄, at 3.27 and 1.7 g.l⁻¹, in order to maintain a C:N:P ratio close to 100:10:1. The BA solution was prepared using the same concentrations of N and P as in the BS solution. Yet, the micro-organisms developed in a continuous reactor were added at a colony forming unit (CFU) concentration of (3.7 ± 1.1)×10⁷ CFU.ml⁻¹. The microbial development was performed for 1 month in an aerated Continuous Stirred Tank Reactor (CSTR) of 4.2 l at 293 K, as described previously [55]. The initial inoculum for the CSTR was a mixed culture from different biological batch experiments. The batch experiments aimed at testing and selecting indigenous bacteria that were present in the soil of the contaminated site, regarding their ability to use the pure phase of HCs as a carbon source in presence of high LB concentrations. Likewise, HCs from the contaminated site and LB were the only carbon sources in the CSTR. The pure HC phase was injected in the reactor through a syringe pump at a flow rate of 4.8 ml.d⁻¹. The nutrient feeding solution was made of 1 g.l⁻¹ NH₄NO₃, 0.05% LB, 0.1 g.l⁻¹ MgSO₄, 0.01 g.l⁻¹ CaCl₂, 0.4 g.l⁻¹ KH₂PO₄, 1.775 g.l⁻¹ K₂HPO₄, 0.05 g NaCl, 0.5 mg.l-1 FeSO₄.7H₂O. This solution was injected by a peristaltic pump to maintain a 3.4 d hydraulic retention time. The CSTR was run for one month, in order to select microorganisms able to degrade HCs in presence of LB in these operating conditions.

2.4. Experimental set-up

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2.4.1. Laboratory scale

2.4.1.1. Column and sandbox description

Foams were pre-generated in all column experiments using a vertical pre-column (5 cm long, i.d. 32 mm) containing glass beads with diameters ranging from 100 to 300 µm. The surfactant solution and the gas were mixed just before the pre-column through a plastic-T. The outlet of the pre-column was connected to the inlet of the soil column. The soil column was a glass column filled with 62 g of soil by three compacted layers of 1.5 cm (4.5 cm long, i.d. 3.2 cm). The soil sample set up used metallic grids. The column was set horizontally to better mimic injection in field conditions. Syringe pumps, flow-meter and pressure sensor were the same as those used in 2D-experiments. The experimental set-up used for fluids injection in 2D-sandboxes is shown in Fig. 1. The soil was packed in a PMMA sandbox (i.d.: 25 cm wide, 2 cm thick, 18 cm high). PMMA was selected due to its transparency and chemical resistance. The front face was removable using screws and gasket. The soil was compacted using a mallet while filling. Top lid and gasket were then tightly held using clamps to ensure perfect sealing. All of the experiments were conducted under unsaturated conditions. Foam was pre-generated using a 9 cm precolumn (i.d. 18 mm) containing a non-contaminated soil particles with diameters ranging from 244 to 1113 µm. For the experiments using foam, fluids were injected using a homemade vertical plastic sleeved grouting pipe (SP) inserted into the soil. The SP carried a rubber sleeve covering two opposed injection holes (see Fig. 1) from where fluids exited. An epoxy resin plug prevented the injected fluids from rising inside the SP. The inlet of the SP was connected to the outlet of the pre-column. The SP was used to get closer to the injection tool used in the field-test (see section 2.3.2). Syringe pumps, flow-meter and pressure sensor were like in Bouzid [26].

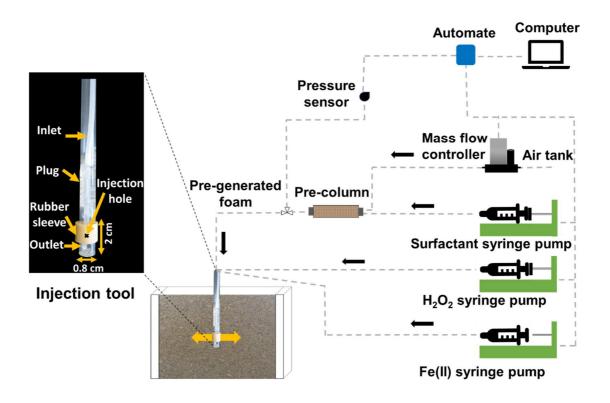


Figure 1. Experimental set-up used for fluids injections in 2D-experiments.

2.4.1.2. Injection procedures

The injection procedures were similar for all the experiments with foam. First, a pregenerated foam was injected into the soil. The foam was made using a 4% LB solution and had a quality factor (FQ) of 90%. Then FR were injected in a liquid form, with a low flow-rate, in order to flow with a piston-like effect through the water network of foam [26]. Then, to

study the combination of treatments, biological reagents (nutrients and micro-organisms) were injected in liquid form after 15 h, since the chemical oxidation was achieved within 3 h. Different foam-based remediation strategies were assessed in column: (i) Fenton/natural attenuation (F/NA), (ii) Fenton/biostimulation (F/BS) and (iii) Fenton/bioaugmentation (F/BA). Before each combined treatment, the surfactant solution and gas were injected at flow rates of 0.355 and 3.2 ml.min⁻¹, respectively, during 1 h, to obtain a homogeneous foam at the outlet of the pre-column. Then, the outlet of the pre-column was connected to the inlet of the soil column. Once the foam filled the column, 2 PV of H₂O₂ and of Fe²⁺ solutions were directly injected into the soil column by two syringe pumps at flow rates of 0.4 ml.min⁻ ¹, during 64 min. The relative soil humidity after this injection was 5 ± 1%. Finally, for combined treatments with BS or BA, 2 PV of BS or BA solutions were directly injected into the soil column with a syringe pump at a flow rate of 0.4 ml.min⁻¹. The relative humidity after these injections was 9.4 ± 0.5%. Effluent samples were taken for plate count analysis to determine the percent of viable cells that were transported through the column. For each remediation strategy, some columns were directly analyzed whereas others were closed with stoppers and maintained at 298 K for 40 d before being analyzed. For sandboxes experiments, two FR delivery methods were compared. FR were delivered either directly as solutions in water (W-FR) as a reference method or as these solutions delivered after foam injection (F-FR) through the same opening. Experiments were duplicated to ensure repeatability. For all the experiments, the FR were prepared in situ by alternatively injecting acidified (pH 3) iron(II) and H₂O₂ solutions, using the SP. For W-FR experiments, 60 ml of amendment solutions could be injected (at a 8 ml.min⁻¹ flow rate)

until the bottom of the sandbox was reached. For F-FR experiments, pre-generated foam

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was first injected. After the foam filled the edge of the sandbox, the FR-solutions were alternatively injected to replace the surfactant solution held in the foam lamellae network. In order to deliver the required dose, three oxidant injection cycles separated by 1 h reaction time each were carried out. For each cycle, the FR produced in situ had a concentration of 4.4%w. This was carried out by injecting alternatively acidified H₂O₂ (4.4%w) and FeSO₄ (0.9%w) solutions at a 2 ml.min⁻¹ flow rate. This injection method was chosen to avoid the use of very concentrated H₂O₂ solutions. Indeed, for F-FR experiment, to deliver the same amounts of oxidant into the soil, the final water saturation (33%) was considered, to calculate FR-concentrations which were delivered. Thus, FR-concentration (H₂O₂ and Fe²⁺ solutions) was 3-times higher (13.3%w), to deliver the same amount of FR than in the W-FR experiments (4.4%w). The volume of FR injected was the one required to push the surfactant solution out the foam's water network. This was achieved by calculating the porous volume of the soil filled with foam using, the ImageJ software [56] and the known water saturation (33%) in that zone. The calculated volume of FR-solution was 0.3 PV for each cycle. A pressure gradient limit was set at 0.1 MPa.m⁻¹ for injection to avoid soil fracturing or heaving in field conditions [57]. To quantify the oxidant distribution efficiency, an isotropic distribution factor, (If, dimensionless) was calculated according to eq.2 [25]. The If is the iron concentrationweighted ratio of its propagation distances in the vertical and horizontal directions from the injection point, which allows the comparison of delivery and sweeping efficiency between

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experiments.

$$I_{f} = \frac{\sum dv^{-}Cv^{-}/\sum dv^{+}Cv^{+}}{\sum |dh|Ch/\sum |dv|Cv}$$
 (2)

where d and C are the propagation distance and the iron concentration at a given distance from the injection point, respectively. The indexes v and h represent the vertical and the horizontal directions, respectively, and the + or - signs indicate the upper and lower or right and left direction for the vertical and horizontal distances, respectively. The optimal I_f value would be 1, representing an isotropic reagents distribution, and meaning that the horizontal and vertical distribution of the oxidant are equal. In contrast, high or low I_f -values indicate an anisotropic distribution of reagents around the injection point.

2.4.2. Pilot scale

The tailored field injection procedure was set up using the soil lab studies. The key points were the use of sleeved tubing systems and a three-steps injections using a pre-generated foam, FR and BS or BA solutions. The goals were to assess fluids injectability and treatments efficiency in field conditions.

Four injection wells (P1 to P4) were PVC pipes (d.: 7.6 cm). They were set down to 4 mbgs, with 1 cm openings (S1 to S3) at 2.5, 3 and 3.5 mbgs locked with rubber bands (Fig. 2 right) and surrounded by a cement frame (cement/water: 0.26). SP allows a better depth selectivity during the injection. The four injection wells were set in a spiral arrangement around a central control well (Pz, Fig. 2 left), to better assess the foam-based method ROI. The control well was set down to 6 mbgs in the sandy layer and perforated from 2 to 6 mbgs.

To assess the HC degradation rates, drillings were performed on the treated area, to collect soil samples after 10 and 110 d. Sampling was realized as shown in Fig. 2 (left). Drilled

were collected at 3 mbgs using a power shovel. Average contaminant concentrations in the

samples were obtained from 3 to 4 mbgs at spots A to G. Besides, samples at spots 1 to 6

plot were determined using P1 to P4 drilling cuts, recovered from 2 to 6 mbgs. The lithology along P1 to P4 is shown in Fig. 2. The injections were performed in the sand layer.

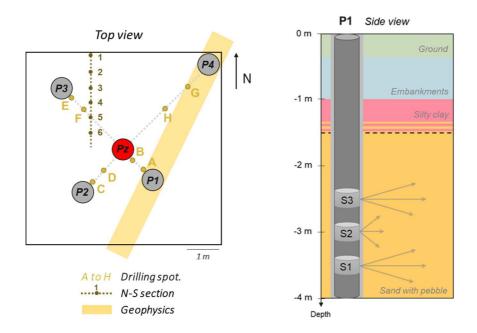


Figure 2. Left: injection and control wells. Sampling plan: drilling along N-S section and local sampling points A to H. Geophysical monitoring along yellow line. Right: side view of the SP and lithological section of the plot.

2.4.2.1. Injection procedures

For each step, successive injections through openings were performed using a stainless-steel injection pipe (Petrometalic) equipped with two packers separated by 0.35 m. Packers were placed on each side of the opening and inflated with water. Then, the free space between the packers (volume: 1.6 l) was isolated from the rest of the pipe and was filled with foam, then with either liquid oxidant or BA/BS solutions using a 1 m³.h⁻¹ volumetric rate peristaltic pump. The carried foam, FR and BA/BS solutions were prepared on-site: 0.024 m³ of LB 40% were diluted in 0.6 m³ of water to have a 4% solution; 10 kg of iron sulfate were suspended

in 0.55 m^3 of water, to have a $1.5\% \text{ FeSO}_4$ solution, and acidified to pH 5 with H₂SO₄ (37%); 0.06 m^3 of H₂O₂ were diluted in 0.54 m^3 of water to have a 3.5 % solution. BS and BA solutions were prepared in a 0.4 m^3 stirred tank.

Works were carried out in four steps. First, the cement shells around SPs were broken down using high pressured water. During this step, flow rate, pressure and injected water volume were monitored to avoid ground fracturing. Stop values were set to 3.6 m³.h⁻¹, 1 MPa and 0.15 m³ per opening. After the breakdown of the cement shells, the injection pressure sharply dropped from 1 to 0.1 MPa, while flow rate increased, suggesting that water flowed into the soil. At this point the water injection was stopped. Then, the LB solution was loaded in a 0.025 m³ foam generator (GS-30, Netzone Consult). The pre-generated foam (FQ: 80%) made by the foam generator was then injected using the stainless-steel injection pipe at a flow rate of 0.2 m³.h⁻¹. After the foam injection, FR solutions were injected in two steps to prevent an exothermic reaction in the pipes: 0.1 m³ of 1.5 % iron sulfate solution were injected, followed by 0.05 m³ of 4% H₂O₂ solution. 0.2 m³ of FR solution were injected in each P1 and P2 opening, 0.5 m³ in each P3 and P4 opening, with a flow rate of 0.9 m³.h⁻¹ and an average pressure of 0.5 MPa.

Finally, biological post-treatments were applied, considering F/BS and F/BA carried out in P1 and P2, respectively. Based on a N and P content of the soil, the BS solution was 0.75 g.l⁻¹ KH₂PO₄, 0.5 g.l⁻¹ KH₂PO₄, 5 g.l⁻¹ (NH₄)₂SO₄, 1.25 g.l⁻¹ NH₄Cl, 0.31 g.l⁻¹ (NH₄)₂HPO₄, 1.25 g.l⁻¹ NH₄NO₃. The BA solution was prepared using the same N and P concentrations, and the addition of the microorganisms developed in the 0.4 m³ stirred batch reactor for 12 d. The temperature ranged between 286 and 292 K during the development. The initial viable cells concentration was 8.5 10⁸ cfu.ml⁻¹. The growth medium was composed by 0.01% LB, 0.5 g.l⁻¹

(NH₄)₂HPO₄, 0.5 g.l⁻¹ HC pure phase, 0.25 g.l⁻¹ of NAPL, 0.25 g.l⁻¹ of diesel previously altered by a Fenton reaction. After a 12 d growth, the final viable cell concentration was 2.10⁸ CFU.ml⁻¹. For the F/BS and F/BA treatments, 0.1 m³ of solutions were injected through each SP opening using a peristaltic pump (1 m³.h⁻¹, 0.2 MPa).

2.4.2.2. Geophysical monitoring

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One of the main advantages of using ERT is its ability to provide spatial information about the subsurface in a minimally invasive manner at a quite good resolution. In addition, it allows the collection of a suite of continuous datasets at the same location as a function of time that can highlight changes in the system [58]. Foam injections in P1 and P4, and iron(II) solution injection in P1 wells were monitored using 2D ERT. A 36 electrodes electrical profile line was disposed along the injection wells P1 and P4 (Fig. 2). The geoelectrical data were collected using a system of multi-electrodes measurement (SYSCAL R1 and switch 72, Iris instruments). The system was equipped with a resistivity meter connected to a cable with multiple outlets connected to the 36 stainless-steel electrodes. They were set in the ground at regular intervals of 0.7 m to allow a depth investigation of about 4.5 m. The electrical measurements were taken according to a Wenner-Schlumberger configuration sequence along a rectilinear profile. Acquired data were then automatically filtered, to eliminate negative values and values with s.d.> 1%. Measurements after inversion using the Res2DInv software (Geotomo) were then represented in the form of a pseudo-view of the repartition of apparent resistivity vs. depth [59]. Finally, the local resistivity data were analyzed with the software Surfer (Golden Software) to get a deeper analysis of the local resistivity changes in the soil during the injection steps.

2.5. Analytical methods

2.5.1. Hydrocarbons extraction and analysis

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Two methods were compared to remove HC in sandboxes experiments: the first one used the photo-ionization detection (PID) method, for volatile organic compounds (VOCs) and the second one used GC/FID and GC/MS for C10-C40 and C5-C11 TPH measurements, respectively. For both methods, HC concentrations in sandboxes were locally measured, to create a map of HC removal rates, 24 h after the FR injection. For the first method, HC concentrations were determined with a Photo-Ionization Detector (PID, Tiger Ion Science) using isobutylene as a calibration gas with a 1 ppb detection limit. The linear range of detection was up to 800 ppm. Recovery upon soil spiking with pure phase of the HCs collected from the site was 97.3%, while the sensitivity of a typical calibration curve was 0.0157 ($R^2 = 0.9999$). The PID method was tested because of its rapidity, low cost, the number of samples and the repetitions that can be carried out. Before the PID measurements, the soil was thoroughly sampled after the removal of the sandbox front face. For each sampling, 5 g of soil were transferred into a glass vial, mixed, and let to rest for 5 min before the measurement of the gas phase. The effect of water and surfactant concentrations on the VOC concentrations measured were considered using calibration curves. C10-C40 TPH were obtained according to the NF EN ISO 9377-2 analysis as follows: 50 μl of the extracts were analyzed using GC/FID (Thermo Trace 1300, VF Select Mineral Oil 15 m capillary column with 0.32 mm i.d., film diameter 0.10 μm). Hydrogen was used as a carrier gas. The initial oven temperature was 308 K for 3 min and increased by 313 K.min⁻¹ until it reached 593 K. For field soil samples, C10-C40 TPH indices and the sum of 16 US PAHs were performed following the NF EN ISO 16703 and NF ISO 18287 standards, and quantification limits were 15 and 0.8 mg.kg⁻¹ for TPH and PAH, respectively. Variability was 40 and 28% for TPH and PAH concentrations, respectively. C5-C11 TPH were obtained according to the XPT 90-124-analysis as follows: 1 ml of the sample vapor phase were analyzed using GC/MS (Thermo Trace DSQ, head space). Helium was used as a carrier gas. The initial oven temperature was 313 K for 5 min and then increased by 288 K.min⁻¹ until it reached 423 K. The TPH quantifications were carried out by external calibration using certified standards.

2.5.2. Iron determination

Iron concentrations (g.kg⁻¹) in sandboxes were determined as follows: first, 20 g of sampled soil across the cell were transferred in glass flasks with 50 ml deionized water and 2 ml hydrochloric acid (6 mol.l⁻¹). Then, the flasks were shaken using an orbital shaker for 30 min to extract iron into the water phase. Then, the samples were filtered through Whatman paper and 1 ml NH_4SCN (1 mol.l⁻¹) and 1 ml H_2O_2 were added to filtrates to form the $Fe(SCN)^{2+}$ complex. Finally, the brown complex was quantified by UV-vis spectrometry (Agilent Cary 100) at 475 nm [60].

2.5.3. Respiration assays

Oxygen uptake was monitored during degradation using an Oxitop® system [61]. 40 g of fresh sample were placed in Oxitop® jars and incubated at 298 K. Soil respiration (SR) was calculated according to the eq. 3.

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$$SR = \frac{M(O2)}{RT} \cdot \frac{V_g}{M_S} \cdot \Delta P(O_2)$$
 (3)

where SR is the soil respiration (mg O_2 g⁻¹ DW), M(O_2) is the molar mass of oxygen (mg.mol⁻¹), V_g is the free gas volume (m³), $\Delta P(O_2)$ is the pressure difference (hPa), R is the gas constant (m³.Pa.K⁻¹.mol⁻¹), T is the measuring temperature (K) and M_S is the soil dry mass (g DW).

368 To compare the influence of different treatments on the respirometry, SR ratio was

W-FR F-FR

369 calculated after 10 d of treatment:

$$R = \frac{SR_X}{SR_{NA}} \tag{4}$$

- where SR_X and SR_{NA} are the SR after a given treatment and after the Fenton treatment
- 372 alone, respectively.
- 373 2.5.4. Microbial plate counts
- 374 Viable cells were extracted from the soil by mixing 5 g of soil with 20 ml of a solution
- 375 containing NaCl (9 g.l⁻¹) and K₂HPO₄ (3.5 g.l⁻¹) at pH 7.0 [62]. These samples were then mixed
- for 30 s using a vortex mixer before a further dilution in the NaCl and K₂HPO₄ solution [63].
- 377 Dilutions from 10⁻¹ to 10⁻⁶ were then performed in series and 0.1 ml of each dilution was
- 378 plated onto a solid plate count agar medium and incubated for 72 h at 303 K. The results are
- 379 expressed as CFU per g.
- 380 3. Results
- 3.1 Lab-scale
- 3.1.1. Comparison of methods for reagents delivery and oxidation efficiency
- 383 The deliveries of FR solutions into the soil considering either their direct injection or after
- 384 foam injection were compared. The distribution of FR and C10-C40 TPH removal rates
- obtained after oxidation are shown in Figure 3. The removal rates obtained after oxidation
- for both methods using the PID are summarized in Fig S1.

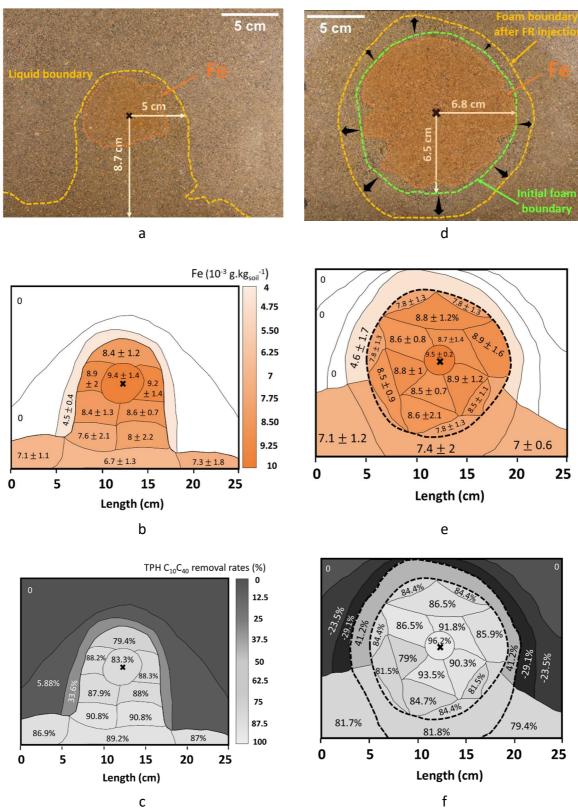


Figure 3. Top: FR visual distribution (a) after direct injection of the solutions (W-FR) and (d) using the foam-based method (F-FR). Middle and bottom: maps of Fe distribution and C10-C40 TPH removal rates, respectively: (b,c) after direct injection of the solutions and

(e,f) using the foam-based method. Black cross indicates the injection point. Fe concentrations varied from 0 (white) to 10⁻³ g.kg_{soil}⁻¹ (dark orange). Standard deviations for C10-C40 TPH indices ranged between 0.5 and 2%.

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The propagation of FR solutions resulting from their direct injection (Fig. 3a), was dominated by gravity and solutions accumulated at the bottom of the sandbox. In contrast to hydrophobic coal tar contaminated soils, the contaminated soil was initially hydrophilic and solutions also propagated above the injection point because of some capillary suction [28]. Visually, the FR propagation within the contacted area was hindered, since the brown color of the Fe³⁺ accumulated preferentially around the injection point (see the orange dashed lines in Fig. 3a). This observation was confirmed both by the low I_f -value (0.58 \pm 0.03) and by the Fe distribution map (Fig. 3c), where the highest Fe concentrations were close to the injection point. Fe concentrations varied 2-times between the lowest and the highest ones within the swept zone. The slight difference of Fe concentrations could be explained by local soil heterogeneity and preferential flows. Fig. 3c presents the C10-C40 TPH removal rates map across the sandbox for the direct injection of FR. The removal rates were high in the contacted areas thanks to acidification to pH 3 and varied between 79.4 and 90.8% above and below the injection point, respectively [64–66]. Indeed, preliminary oxidation tests carried out without the acidification of the FR revealed that the HC removal rates did not exceed 40%, as previously reported [67,68]. In addition, the precipitation of Fe³⁺ leads to the plugging of the injection pipes and the soil pores, which resulted in poor FR solutions injectability. The C5-C11 TPH removal rates measured after oxidation were 100% for all the contacted areas. C10-C40 TPH removal rates were similar to those calculated using the fast and cheaper PID method (see Fig. S1a), confirming that the latter can be considered as a

reliable method to monitor the TPH removal rates. Nevertheless, the ROI of the FR solution needs to be improved, in order to decrease the treatment costs and the uncertainties associated to poor reagents delivery. Experimental documents reporting the performances of the foam-based method are shown in Fig. 3d-f. The pre-generated foam flowed quite isotropically around the injection point (green dashed lines in Fig. 3d) and with an improved ROI, as previously reported [25–27,69]. In contrast to solutions, foam propagation is mainly controlled by its high viscosity, that overcomes gravity [25]. In order to maximize the selectivity of the oxidation, the previously developed foam-based method was applied [25,26,28]. The FR was made in situ after foam injection (see green and yellow lines in Fig. 3d). As shown in Fig. 3d, H₂O₂ and FeSO₄ were successfully mixed in situ to produce the FR, as shown by the light brown color that developed quite homogeneously within the foam. The FR injection led to the expansion of the foam's initial volume by 0.7-times. This increase is explained by three phenomena: first, surfactant production during HC oxidation [7], second, O2 production from the disproportionation reaction of H₂O₂, and third, gas production during HC mineralization. During the three injection cycles of FR, the highest allowed pressure gradient (0.1 MPa.m⁻¹) was recorded at the launch because at this moment, HC concentration was the highest one. During the next two cycles, the injection pressure gradient did not exceed 0.07 and 0.04 MPa.m⁻¹ for the second and third cycles, respectively. Both of these lower pressures are explained by the decrease of HC concentrations in the treated zone. Fig. 3e shows the Feconcentration map in the sandbox when using the foam-based method. As seen for the propagation of FR solutions when they are directly injected, the highest Fe-concentration was obtained near the injection point. However, they varied only 1.2-times between the lowest and highest values within the zone filled with foam. Horizontal and vertical oxidant-

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distributions were roughly equal as demonstrated by the If-value amounting to 0.95 ± 0.04 which is close to the optimal value, in contrast to W-FR experiment. Fig. 3f presents the map of C10-C40 TPH removal rates in the sandbox. They were better than for the W-FR method and greater than 79% within the zone filled with foam. After a 24 h reaction time, the soil pH only reached 4, showing the persistence of the acidification in the area contacted by foam. However, it is worth mentioning that about 25% were displaced outside the foam zone during the foam injection phase, because of its strong viscosity [26,30,32,36]. This explains some locally negative C10-C40 TPH removal rates obtained in the vicinity of the front line of foam. The highest TPH removal rate was obtained near the injection point (96.2%), where the highest FR-concentration was observed too. Lower TPH removal rates (~81%) were also observed at the bottom of the cell, outside the foam boundary (Fig. 3f). It confirms that some oxidant was expelled outside the foam, probably during the second and third injection cycles; this is also explained by a less selective oxidation reaction due to mixing with some surfactant, pushed away by the oxidant [25,26]. Once again, C5-C11 TPH were completely removed inside the foam filled region, whereas C10-C40 TPH removal rates were similar to those calculated using the PID (see Fig. S1b). Yet, when considering the global TPH removal in the whole sandbox, the F-FR method was 20% more efficient than the W-FR one. TPH removal kinetics were pseudo-first-order. Apparent rate constants were 2.43 ± 0.1 and 2.04 ± 0.05 h⁻¹ for W-FR and F-FR, respectively. The lower value for F-FR is explained by the presence of 13% of the surfactant initially injected after FR injection, as previously explained [28]. This remaining surfactant resulted from adsorption at interfaces and by-passing phenomena in the porous medium. Hence, the main conclusion here is that the ISCO treatment was much more controlled and effective when using foam. As ISCO lowers the HCconcentrations and improves the bioavailability of the parent compounds, facilitating

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indigenous bacterial activity, their combination was studied in non-acidified condition as follows.

3.1.2. Combined treatments

To reduce the treatment cost and the acidification impacts, the coupling of ISCO, without acidification, with biological treatments as a polishing step for the removal of the residual contaminant mass, was assessed. Three main aspects of this coupling were studied: (i) the influence of the Fenton reaction on the microorganisms concentration in soil, microbial activity and pollutant degradation during the natural attenuation (F/NA); (ii) the influence of the addition of nutrients, i.e. biostimulation, (F/BS) on the microbial growth and activity in soil; (iii) the influence of the addition of microorganisms, i.e. bioaugmentation, selected and developed in a continuous reactor on the HC degradation activity in the soil.

Figure 4A shows the concentration of viable cells (CFU.g⁻¹ of dry soil) before and after each

Figure 4A shows the concentration of viable cells (CFU.g⁻¹ of dry soil) before and after each treatment. After the oxidation treatment, the CFU in soil was reduced by two orders of magnitudes. Besides, BA caused an increase in the number of viable microorganisms in the soil immediately after the injection. Consequently, the microbial injection allowed the soil to reach a CFU value which was similar to those measured before the chemical oxidation.

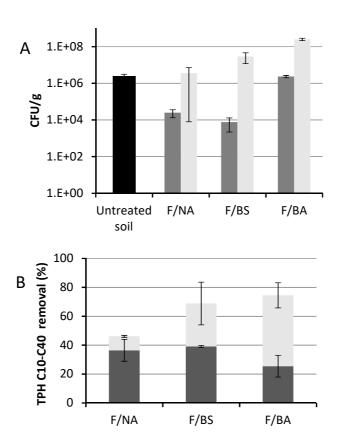


Figure 4. A) Colony forming units (CFU) concentrations for the untreated soil (■) and after applying the combined treatments in soil immediately after injection (■) and 40 d after injection (■). B) HC removal after applying the coupled treatments in soil columns immediately after injection (■) and after 40 d of treatment (■).

After 40 d, an increase by two order of magnitudes of the average of the number of viable cells was observed suggesting a possible rebound effect in the F/NA treatment, in agreement with [21]. Similarly, both of the BS and BA treatments allowed the CFU to increase by three and two orders of magnitudes, respectively. The enhanced microbial growth in the BS treatment is explained by a higher N and P availability, which can promote microbial development. Besides, the higher microbial growth observed after F/BS in relation to F/BA could be related to the higher initial amount of viable cells in the BA soil compared to the BS

one. This higher initial viable cells lead to a higher consumption of nutrients in F/BA soil columns.

The results of respirometry experiments demonstrated that the oxygen consumption was enhanced by BS and BA compared to NA after 10 d (Fig. S2). The difference in activity between NA and BS can also be explained by the low nutrient content in the original soil and the slightly lower amount of initial humidity in soil. Moreover, these results show that the activity in the BA columns was higher than in the BS ones, because of a higher amount of viable cells.

The overall HC removal after each combined treatment is shown in Figure 4B. After use of FR treatment without acidification, HC removal was ranging from 25% to 40%. However, this value was lower for the F/BA treatment. Indeed, even if HCs were mostly separated from it, the BA solution still contained these compounds. Consequently, a notable amount of HCs was injected into the columns (about 15% of the initial HC concentration), which explains the decrease in the removal efficiency in this condition.

Forty days after the Fenton treatment, NA had increased the HC elimination by about 10% while BS and BA treatments had increased it by 30% and 49% on average, respectively (i.e. 20% and 39% higher than NA). These results and the higher soil microbial activity observed in these columns can result from the fact that F/BS and F/BA treatments produced higher CFU values. This shows that the bacterial growth observed during these treatments was not only connected to the HC biodegradation, but also to the consumption of natural organic matter in soil and oxidation by-products. However even if in average F/BA treatment allowed to reach higher removal than F/BS treatment, the results obtained are not statistically different.

These results show that coupling Fenton and biological treatments after the foam injection is effective, since Fenton-like reactions lead to oxidation products that are more soluble in water and thus more bioavailable [17,70].

Furthermore, after the Fenton treatment, indigenous microorganisms continued to degrade HCs in soil, and the addition of nutrients also boosted this phenomenon. Yet, by adding HC-consuming microorganism selected and acclimated from the contaminated soil, the treatment was more efficient than BS alone. Similar results were reported in more optimal growth conditions for microorganisms [10,11,21]. Bajagain [12] also obtained a better HC removal efficiency by spraying BA foaming solutions in a combined chemical oxidation/biodegradation treatment. However, to the best of our knowledge, this is the first time that a coupled chemical oxidation/biodegradation treatment was tested in a real contaminated soil under unsaturated conditions after a foam injection.

3.2 Field-scale

516 3.2.1.Reagents injection

Figure 5 shows the foam aspects observed in the field during the different treatements phases.

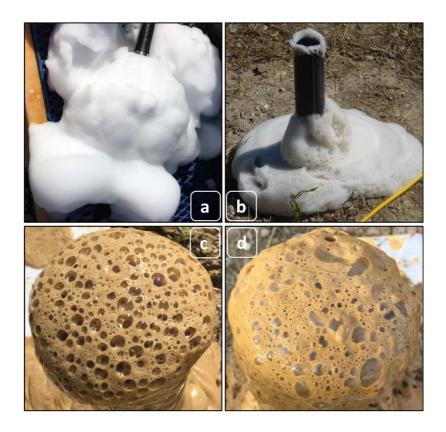


Figure 5. a: Surfactant foam after production at the output of the foam generator; b,c and d: resurgence in the central well (Pz) after injection in P1 of foam alone, iron sulfate solution and hydrogen peroxide solution, respectively.

Considering a soil porosity of 30%, 0.2 m³ of pregenerated foam (Fig. 5a) were injected in each opening of P1 and P2 wells to get a 0.5 m ROI. Foam resurgence in Pz (Fig. 5b) was observed after a 0.2 m³ injection in S1-P1, suggesting that, actually, the ROI would be about 1 m. The structure of the resurging foam was very similar to the injected one.

Considering the distance between P1 and Pz and the resurgence time of the foam, its propagation rate was estimated at 3 m.h⁻¹. After a 0.1 m³ iron sulfate solution injection, a brown structured foam exited Pz (Fig 5c). Yet, after a 0.1 m³ of hydrogen peroxide injection, a less structured foam containing more gas quickly exited Pz (Fig. 5d). A sample of this foam was collected; 15 min later, its volume increased by 30% (Fig. S3). It confirmed that, because

of the reaction between H_2O_2 and the HC contaminated soil, a production of gas occurred, as observed in part 3.1.1.

3.2.2.Geophysical monitoring of the fluids propagation

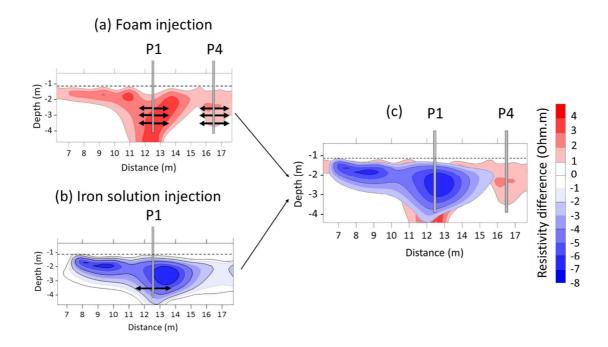


Figure 6. Changes in electrical resistivity after foam injections in P1 and P4 (a) and then after iron solution injection in P1 (b), and the combination of the two profiles (c).

Figure 6 shows differential ERT 2D profiles of the transect, where the foam and the iron solution were injected (Fig. 2). The profiles were obtained by using a differential mapping of local electrical resistivities between each step. The first reference state was the breakdown of cement shell around the injection wells, then the second one was the injection of foam in P1 and P4. Red and blue colors (positive and negative values, respectively) indicate an increase and then a decrease of the soil electric resistivity after the successive injections of foam and iron solution.

In fact, the electric resistivity of the soil is mainly controlled by the water saturation. Fig. 6a represents foam injections in P1 and P4. A transient regime is firstly observable, where the injected foam was destabilized by the presence of HCs [26,71]. At this moment, a weak foam propagated beneath the low permeability silty-clay layer as shown by the significant fingering. Then, a steady state was reached, where a viscous strong foam propagated with a flat front. Thus, the soil became locally more electrically resistive. It is related to the reduction of moisture and to the number of available electrical pathways through the water films between gas bubbles [58,72]. The region swept by the foam exhibits a symmetry around the injection wells with about 1 m ROI, as expected from the foam volume injected. The day after, the injection of the iron solution in P1-S1 was also tracked. The differential ERT profile and the combination of the foam/iron profiles are presented in Fig. 6c. Results from the differential ERT profiles showed a good match for the propagation of foam and the iron solution (Fig. 6 c). This suggests that the Fe solution successfully propagated through the network of foam lamellae created into the soil.

3.2.3.Treatement efficiency assessement

The treatment efficiency was assessed considering injectability, C10-C40 TPH degradation rates at 10 and 110 d, ROIs and the cost/benefit/risk balance.

Foam injectability using SP was relatively low. Three days were needed to inject 4.2 m³ of pre-generated foam in a 10⁻⁴ m.s⁻¹ soil hydraulic conductivity. It corresponds to a flow rate of 0.175 m³.h⁻¹ for 8 h a day. It is lower than those reported by Portois [31], and it is explained by the much higher hydraulic resistance of the injection tool used. Oxidant solutions injectability was good, with a flow rate of 0.9 m³.h⁻¹, which is 5-times higher than the foam

flow rate. Resurgences of foam from Pz were observed throughout the oxidant injection. The injectability of BA and BS solutions was also good.

A difficulty of the developed foam-based method would be to control the right propagation of the solutions, since high injection rates can lead to foam fracturing and anisotropic distribution of reagents. Yet, differential ERT images suggest that the F-FR method is quite robust. Samples from 1 to 6 and A to H were drilled at 3 m deep along a N-S transect and around P1 to P4 after 10 and 110 d of treatment, respectively (see Fig.2). HC concentrations and degradation rates were quite changeable in the plot and measurement uncertainties (~40%) were high (Table S1). HC concentrations along the N-S transect, after the Fenton treatment, are shown in Figure 7.

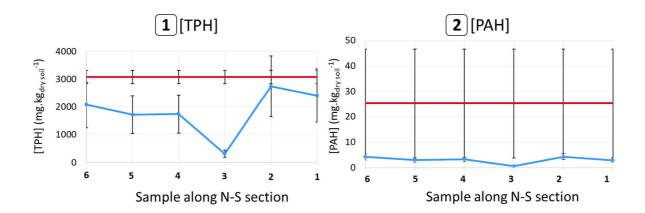


Figure 7. TPH C10-40 (1) and PAH (2) concentrations in soils along N-S section (see Fig. 2 for samples collection). Each sample was collected at 3 m deep, 10 d after Fenton reagent injection. Red lines show the average contaminants concentrations before treatment.

Despite large uncertainties observed for C10-40 TPH removal rates, contaminant concentrations were clearly lower after treatments. Based on results in Fig. 7, ROI were

estimated to be from 1 to 3 m, in agreement with the differential ERT-profile obtained after the injection of the iron solution (Fig. 6).

After 110 d, average C10-C40 TPH and PAH degradation rates (samples A to H) were 30 \pm 28% and 68 \pm 25%, respectively. The highest TPH degradation rates, around 60 \pm 28%, were obtained in B and D samples, suggesting further HC degradation by the biological post-treatments applied in P1 and P2. This matches respirometric experiments performed 10 d after the injections, which demonstrated an enhancement of the soil oxygen consumption after BS and BA (R factor in B, C and D sampling amounted to 1.5, 2.5 and 1.5, respectively). The overall moderate HC degradation rates of 30 % can be connected to the low acidification of the injected FR. In this condition, the Fenton reaction is not strong enough, as previously reported (see part 3.1.1).

Considering costs, the surfactant used to generate foam is twice more expensive than oxygen peroxide. Yet, when the foam-based method is carried out, about 30% less oxidant is required, to fill the porosity of the soil, compared to a direct injection of oxidant liquids. Even though the oxidant volumes were lower, the same HC degradation rates and the isotropic distribution of reagents into the soil were achieved, using the foam-based method. Since foam persists for several weeks into the soil [26,31], there is no need to inject foam anymore.

Considering the foam injection process, a cheap foam generator was used. An accurate monitoring of the injection pressures, flow rates and injected volumes would be required when using the foam-based method. Yet, this kind of devices is commonly used during remediation operations using routed SP. Thus, the cost balance is in favor of this innovative foam-based method. Furthermore, another advantage is that the foam prevents harmful

vapors from being released, which usually occurs when the exothermic Fenton reaction is used. Moreover, the use of the foam based-method leads to a more complete degradation of the HCs [28].

4. Conclusions

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The new foam-based technology is very effective to remediate HC contaminated unsaturated soils, using in situ Fenton oxidation and biodegradation. It offers a better controlled delivery of reagents solutions than their direct injection. Moreover, it fights gravity effects, leading to a longer residence time of amendment in the vadose zone. Thanks to a piston-like effect, solutions flow through the foam lamella network, avoiding nasty interactions between the surfactant required to make foams and the very reactive oxidant or surfactant-sensitive microorganisms. HC removal rates as high as 96% were obtained using the acidic Fenton reagent. Yet, the coupling of Fenton with biological treatments, without acidification, is effective and degradation rates as high as 75% were reached. Even if the concentration of microorganisms decreased immediately after a non acidified Fenton treatment, it was recovered within 40 d. Fieldworks were slightly delayed, because of the foam injection and the high hydraulic resistance of the injection tool. Yet, the latter could be improved. Moreover, it is important to consider a transient regime before getting the homogeneous propagation of viscous foams. Regarding this, differential ERT is attractive to track foam and amendment propagation at field-scale, but also their behaviour. This monitoring suggests that the developed technology is quite robust towards risks of uncontrolled delivery that may arise at high injection rates of reagents. This technology is not more expensive than classical treatments. Moreover, it reduces treatment uncertainties and the release of harmful vapors generated during the Fenton treatment. Yet, considering the mobilization of some HC outside the treated zone, a remanent oxidant, like persulfate, should be introduced both in the injected surfactant solution and in groundwater.

5. Acknowledgements

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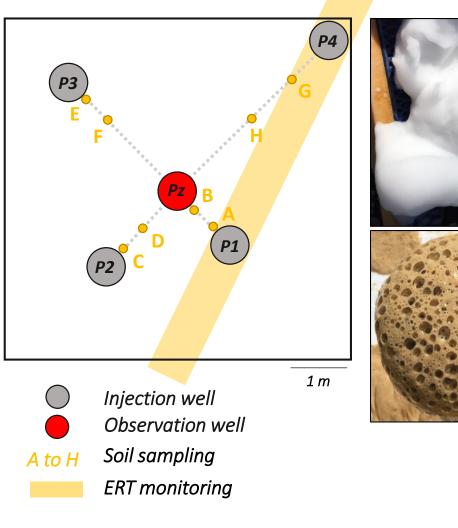
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Top view





Treatment steps

Surfactant foam injection

ISCO (Fenton reagent injection)

Bioremediation (biostimulation, bioaugmentation)