

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

I. Bouzid, D. Pino Herrera, M. Dierick, Y. Pechaud, V. Langlois, P.Y. Klein,

J. Albaric, N. Fatin-Rouge

▶ To cite this version:

I. Bouzid, D. Pino Herrera, M. Dierick, Y. Pechaud, V. Langlois, et al.. A new foam-based method for the (bio)degradation of hydrocarbons in contaminated vadose zone. Journal of Hazardous Materials, 2021, 401, pp.123420. 10.1016/j.jhazmat.2020.123420. hal-02962558

HAL Id: hal-02962558 https://hal.science/hal-02962558v1

Submitted on 18 Jul 2022

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



Distributed under a Creative Commons Attribution - NonCommercial 4.0 International License

Version of Record: https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0304389420314096 Manuscript_143a3ae94bb5e0329ddf466430ed0514

1 A new foam-based method for the (bio)degradation of hydrocarbons

2 in contaminated vadose zone

- 3 I. Bouzid^a, D. Pino Herrera^b, M. Dierick^c, Y. Pechaud^b, V. Langlois^b, P.Y. Klein^c, J. Albaric^d, N. Fatin-
- 4 Rouge^a
- ³ ^a Université de Bourgogne Franche-Comté–Besançon, Institut UTINAM–UMR CNRS 6213, 16, route
- 6 de Gray, 25030, Besançon, France
- 7 ^b Université Paris-Est, Laboratoire Géomatériaux et Environnement (LGE), EA 4508, UPEM, 77454
- 8 Marne-la-Vallée, France
- 9 ^c REMEA, 22 Rue Lavoisier, 92000 Nanterre, France
- ^d Laboratoire de Chrono-Environnement, UMR CNRS 6249, Université de Bourgogne, Franche-Comté,
- 11 France
- 12 Corresponding author: Nicolas Fatin-Rouge
- 13 E-mail: nicolas.fatin-rouge@univ-fcomte.fr
- 14 Telephone: +33 3 81 66 20 91
- 15
- 16 Abstract

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 zone. The surfactant foam was first injected, then reagent solutions were delivered and propagated through the network of foam lamellae with a piston-like effect. Bench-scale 21 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 22 foam-based method led to larger radii of influence and more isotropic reagents delivery, 23 whereas it did not show any detrimental effect regarding HC oxidation. Despite 25% of HCs 24 were expelled from the treated zone because of high foam viscosity, average degradation 25 26 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. 27 The latter demonstrated the controlled delivery of the reactive solutions using the foam-28 based method. Even if the foam-based method duration is about 5-times longer than the 29 direct injection of amendment solutions, it provides important benefits, such as the 30 31 confinement of harmful volatile hydrocarbons during Fenton treatments, the enhanced 32 reagents delivery and the 30% lower consumption of the latter.

Contamination of soils by petroleum hydrocarbons (HCs) is a worldwide concern, given the 35 health and environmental hazards [1]. Their occurrence in the environment is often linked to 36 37 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 38 involved in more than 15% of the cases [4]. In situ environmental remediation (ISER) is 39 40 increasingly used among remediation strategies because of the lower dissemination risks and the higher sustainability. The application of In Situ Chemical Oxidation (ISCO) 41 technologies has shown to be a good strategy for the remediation of these contaminated 42 43 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 44 45 the ferrous ion to produce the highly reactive hydroxyl radical (eq. 1), for HC mineralization.

46
$$H_2O_2 + Fe^{2+} \rightarrow OH^{\bullet} + OH^{-} + Fe^{3+}$$
 (1)

47 Recently, it was suggested that since ISCO is often not able to access and oxidize all of the 48 residual contaminants, biological polishing would be a good means to complete at low cost 49 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 50 decomposition products and its low persistence in the environment [11–15]. Moreover, 51 Fenton oxidation decreases pollutants concentrations and improves the bioavailability of 52 metabolites, which facilitates indigenous bacterial activity [16–19]. Finally, it also provides 53 oxygen and nutrients for indigenous bacteria to improve the biodegradation of pollutants 54 [11,17]. Besides, in situ bioremediation treatments alone have a limited effectiveness to 55 56 remediate historically contaminated soils. Usually, HCs are strongly sorbed onto (or 57 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 58 mass-transfer rates in the soil matrix, this release often limits the effectiveness of 59 bioremediation. In situ bioremediation as post-treatment improved HCs removal and 60 reduced the soil toxicity after a chemical treatment, which meets the revitalization goals 61 62 [21]. Nevertheless, more research is required to further study and optimize the interaction between the two treatments (operating conditions, micro-organisms, etc.). Basic 63 64 bioremediation methods include biostimulation (BS) and bioaugmentation (BA) [22,23]. They have a minimal environmental impact and low processing costs [24]. However, the 65 degradation efficiency is often hindered by the poor contact between remedial agents and 66 contaminants, especially in the vadose zone where gravity and anisotropy may hinder the 67 68 distribution of amendments [25–27].

69 Currently, there is a growing interest for the use of high viscosity shear-thinning fluids for 70 ISER. Among them, surfactant foam has shown to be promising [25,26,28–33]. Foam in 71 porous media appears as gas bubbles separated by thin liquid films (lamellae) blocked at 72 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 73 74 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 75 phenomena [25,26,33,36]. So far, reports about field-scale remediation tests dealing with 76 foams are scarce and only mention aquifers contaminated by chlorinated-compounds 77 78 [29,31,37]. The occurrence of HC contaminations and challenging specific issues, like radius 79 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. 80

81 Previously, we reported some bench-scale developments of this innovative surfactant foam-82 based 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 83 historically HC contaminated soils, the control and performance of the powerful Fenton 84 reaction and of its combined treatment with biodegradation, assessed *in situ* both at bench 85 86 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 foam-87 88 based 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 89 are reported. Finally, the application of the combined treatment at the real scale using this 90 new technology is reported and assessed, also considering a cost-benefit-risk balance. Even 91 92 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 93 this reason, a geophysical imaging using the low-invasive electrical resistivity tomography 94 95 (ERT) was carried out to monitor the propagation of the injected fluids, during our field tests.

97 2. Materials and methods

98 2.1. Test-site and soils

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.

106 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 107 108 to remove the coarser fraction (> 1 cm), then it was mechanically homogenized and its main 109 physicochemical properties were evaluated. Particle size distribution was determined by 110 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. 111 112 The soil permeability was 267 μ m² 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 113 water to determine its porous volume (PV) [41]. The measured pH of the soil was 9 (multi-114 115 parameter 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 116 of CO₂ formed during acidic dissolution [43]. The soil was hydrophilic, considering the 117 118 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 119

120 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 16 121 h). Soil relative humidity was then calculated by weight difference [46]. Typically, the 122 average C10-40 semi-volatile and C5-C11 volatile total petroleum hydrocarbons (TPH) 123 indices measured in the soil were 3000 ± 324 and 44 ± 5 mg.kg⁻¹, respectively. Sums of 16 124 US PAH and BTEX concentrations were 20.0 \pm 4.8 and 5.000 \pm 0.003 mg.kg⁻¹, respectively. 125 Total nitrogen was measured using Total Nitrogen test kits (Merck) extractable phosphorous 126 (orthophosphates) was measured by the Olsen method [47]. 127

128 2.2. Chemicals and reagents

The zwitterionic Lauryl Betaine (LB, 40%w, EOC) surfactant was used to make foam, as 129 130 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 131 132 (98%) was provided by Merck. Analytical reagents were ammonium thiocyanates (98%, 133 Prolabo) and hydrochloric acid (37%, VWR). Ammonium nitrate (>98%) and potassium phosphate (>98%) were provided by Acros Organics. Magnesium sulfate (MgSO₄.7H2O, 134 >99%), calcium chloride (>99%), ammonium chloride (>99.8%) and ammonium sulfate 135 (>99%) were provided by Merck. Sodium chloride (>99.9%) was provided by VWR. For field-136 test, LB 40 %w, hydrogen peroxide (35%, Quaron), iron(II) sulfate heptahydrate (85%, UAB) 137 and sulfuric acid (37%, Ardea) were used. 138

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 H_2O_2 /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 H₂O₂ and FeSO₄, respectively. The oxidant dose was estimated from the stoichiometric molar ratio (SMR) between H₂O₂ 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 H₂SO₄ was added to the FR solutions to decrease the pH of the injected solutions to 3, which in turn prevents strong precipitation of Fe³⁺ [6,54].

150 2.3. Biological reagents

Based on an analysis of total N and extractable P amounts in the soil, the BS solution was 151 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 152 to 100:10:1. The BA solution was prepared using the same concentrations of N and P as in 153 the BS solution.Yet, the micro-organisms developed in a continuous reactor were added at a 154 155 colony forming unit (CFU) concentration of $(3.7 \pm 1.1) \times 10^7$ CFU.ml⁻¹. The microbial 156 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 157 mixed culture from different biological batch experiments. The batch experiments aimed at 158 159 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 160 161 high LB concentrations. Likewise, HCs from the contaminated site and LB were the only 162 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, 163 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, 0.5 164 165 mg.I⁻¹ FeSO₄.7H₂0. 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 micro-organisms able to degrade HCs in presence of LB in these operating conditions.
- 168 2.4. Experimental set-up
- 169 2.4.1. Laboratory scale
- 170 2.4.1.1. Column and sandbox description

Foams were pre-generated in all column experiments using a vertical pre-column (5 cm long, 171 172 i.d. 32 mm) containing glass beads with diameters ranging from 100 to 300 μ m. The surfactant solution and the gas were mixed just before the pre-column through a plastic-T. 173 174 The outlet of the pre-column was connected to the inlet of the soil column. The soil column 175 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 176 better mimic injection in field conditions. Syringe pumps, flow-meter and pressure sensor 177 178 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 179 180 was packed in a PMMA sandbox (i.d.: 25 cm wide, 2 cm thick, 18 cm high). PMMA was 181 selected due to its transparency and chemical resistance. The front face was removable 182 using screws and gasket. The soil was compacted using a mallet while filling. Top lid and 183 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 pre-184 column (i.d. 18 mm) containing a non-contaminated soil particles with diameters ranging 185 186 from 244 to 1113 μ m. 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 187 rubber sleeve covering two opposed injection holes (see Fig. 1) from where fluids exited. An 188

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.

193 **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.

200 Different foam-based remediation strategies were assessed in column: (i) Fenton/natural 201 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 202 flow rates of 0.355 and 3.2 ml.min⁻¹, respectively, during 1 h, to obtain a homogeneous foam 203 204 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 205 were directly injected into the soil column by two syringe pumps at flow rates of 0.4 ml.min⁻ 206 ¹, during 64 min. The relative soil humidity after this injection was 5 ± 1%. Finally, for 207 combined treatments with BS or BA, 2 PV of BS or BA solutions were directly injected into 208 209 the soil column with a syringe pump at a flow rate of 0.4 ml.min⁻¹. The relative humidity 210 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 211 212 remediation strategy, some columns were directly analyzed whereas others were closed 213 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

221 was first injected. After the foam filled the edge of the sandbox, the FR-solutions were 222 alternatively injected to replace the surfactant solution held in the foam lamellae network. 223 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 224 4.4%w. This was carried out by injecting alternatively acidified H₂O₂ (4.4%w) and FeSO₄ 225 226 (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 227 228 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⁺ 229 solutions) was 3-times higher (13.3%w), to deliver the same amount of FR than in the W-FR 230 experiments (4.4%w). The volume of FR injected was the one required to push the surfactant 231 232 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 233 (33%) in that zone. The calculated volume of FR-solution was 0.3 PV for each cycle. A 234 235 pressure gradient limit was set at 0.1 MPa.m⁻¹ for injection to avoid soil fracturing or heaving 236 in field conditions [57].

To quantify the oxidant distribution efficiency, an isotropic distribution factor, (I_f, dimensionless) was calculated according to eq.2 [25]. The I_f 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 experiments.

242
$$I_{f} = \frac{\sum dv^{-}Cv^{-} / \sum dv^{+}Cv^{+}}{\sum |dh|Ch / \sum |dv|Cv}$$
(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.

250 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 arrangement acentral 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 samples were obtained from 3 to 4 mbgs at spots A to G. Besides, samples at spots 1 to 6 were collected at 3 mbgs using a power shovel. Average contaminant concentrations in the

265 plot were determined using P1 to P4 drilling cuts, recovered from 2 to 6 mbgs. The lithology





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.

268 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 m³ of water, to have a 1.5% FeSO₄ solution, and acidified to pH 5 with H₂SO₄ (37%); 0.06 m³ of H₂O₂ were diluted in 0.54 m³ of water to have a 3.5 % solution. BS and BA solutions were prepared in a 0.4 m³ stirred tank.

279 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 280 were monitored to avoid ground fracturing. Stop values were set to 3.6 m³.h⁻¹, 1 MPa and 281 0.15 m³ per opening. After the breakdown of the cement shells, the injection pressure 282 sharply dropped from 1 to 0.1 MPa, while flow rate increased, suggesting that water flowed 283 284 into the soil. At this point the water injection was stopped. Then, the LB solution was loaded 285 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 286 flow rate of 0.2 m³.h⁻¹. After the foam injection, FR solutions were injected in two steps to 287 prevent an exothermic reaction in the pipes: 0.1 m³ of 1.5 % iron sulfate solution were 288 injected, followed by 0.05 m³ of 4% H₂O₂ solution. 0.2 m³ of FR solution were injected in 289 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 290 291 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 KH_2PO_4 , 0.5 g.l⁻¹ KH_2PO_4 , 5 g.l⁻¹ $(NH_4)_2SO_4$, 1.25 g.l⁻¹ NH_4Cl , 0.31 g.l⁻¹ $(NH_4)_2HPO_4$, 1.25 g.l⁻¹ NH_4NO_3 . 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 10^8 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 2.10^8 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).

303 2.4.2.2. Geophysical monitoring

One of the main advantages of using ERT is its ability to provide spatial information about 304 the subsurface in a minimally invasive manner at a quite good resolution. In addition, it 305 306 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) 307 solution injection in P1 wells were monitored using 2D ERT. A 36 electrodes electrical profile 308 309 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 310 instruments). The system was equipped with a resistivity meter connected to a cable with 311 312 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 313 314 measurements were taken according to a Wenner-Schlumberger configuration sequence along a rectilinear profile. Acquired data were then automatically filtered, to eliminate 315 negative values and values with s.d.> 1%. Measurements after inversion using the Res2DInv 316 software (Geotomo) were then represented in the form of a pseudo-view of the repartition 317 318 of apparent resistivity vs. depth [59]. Finally, the local resistivity data were analyzed with the 319 software Surfer (Golden Software) to get a deeper analysis of the local resistivity changes in 320 the soil during the injection steps.

321 2.5. Analytical methods

322 2.5.1. Hydrocarbons extraction and analysis

Two methods were compared to remove HC in sandboxes experiments: the first one used 323 the photo-ionization detection (PID) method, for volatile organic compounds (VOCs) and the 324 325 second one used GC/FID and GC/MS for C10-C40 and C5-C11 TPH measurements, 326 respectively. For both methods, HC concentrations in sandboxes were locally measured, to 327 create a map of HC removal rates, 24 h after the FR injection. For the first method, HC 328 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 329 detection was up to 800 ppm. Recovery upon soil spiking with pure phase of the HCs 330 331 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 332 333 number of samples and the repetitions that can be carried out. Before the PID 334 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 5 335 336 min before the measurement of the gas phase. The effect of water and surfactant concentrations on the VOC concentrations measured were considered using calibration 337 curves. C10-C40 TPH were obtained according to the NF EN ISO 9377-2 analysis as follows: 338 339 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 340 carrier gas. The initial oven temperature was 308 K for 3 min and increased by 313 K.min⁻¹ 341 until it reached 593 K. For field soil samples, C10-C40 TPH indices and the sum of 16 US PAHs 342 343 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 344 40 and 28% for TPH and PAH concentrations, respectively. C5-C11 TPH were obtained 345

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.

351 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 NH₄SCN (1 mol.l⁻¹) and 1 ml H₂O₂ 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].

359 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.

363
$$SR = \frac{M(O2)}{R.T} \cdot \frac{V_g}{M_S} \cdot \Delta P(O_2)$$
 (3)

where SR is the soil respiration (mg O₂ g⁻¹ DW), M(O₂) 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-FRF-FR369calculated after 10 d of treatment:

$$370 \qquad R = \frac{SR_X}{SR_{NA}} \tag{4}$$

371 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

Viable cells were extracted from the soil by mixing 5 g of soil with 20 ml of a solution 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]. Dilutions from 10^{-1} to 10^{-6} were then performed in series and 0.1 ml of each dilution was plated onto a solid plate count agar medium and incubated for 72 h at 303 K. The results are expressed as CFU per g.

380 3. Results

381 3.1 Lab-scale

382 3.1.1. Comparison of methods for reagents delivery and oxidation efficiency

The deliveries of FR solutions into the soil considering either their direct injection or after 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%.

387

The propagation of FR solutions resulting from their direct injection (Fig. 3a), was dominated 388 by gravity and solutions accumulated at the bottom of the sandbox. In contrast to 389 hydrophobic coal tar contaminated soils, the contaminated soil was initially hydrophilic and 390 391 solutions also propagated above the injection point because of some capillary suction [28]. 392 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 393 394 lines in Fig. 3a). This observation was confirmed both by the low I_{f} -value (0.58 ± 0.03) and by 395 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 396 397 within the swept zone. The slight difference of Fe concentrations could be explained by local 398 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 399 contacted areas thanks to acidification to pH 3 and varied between 79.4 and 90.8% above 400 and below the injection point, respectively [64–66]. Indeed, preliminary oxidation tests 401 carried out without the acidification of the FR revealed that the HC removal rates did not 402 exceed 40%, as previously reported [67,68]. In addition, the precipitation of Fe³⁺ leads to the 403 plugging of the injection pipes and the soil pores, which resulted in poor FR solutions 404 injectability. The C5-C11 TPH removal rates measured after oxidation were 100% for all the 405 contacted areas. C10-C40 TPH removal rates were similar to those calculated using the fast 406 407 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 411 in Fig. 3d-f. The pre-generated foam flowed quite isotropically around the injection point 412 413 (green dashed lines in Fig. 3d) and with an improved ROI, as previously reported [25–27,69]. 414 In contrast to solutions, foam propagation is mainly controlled by its high viscosity, that 415 overcomes gravity [25]. In order to maximize the selectivity of the oxidation, the previously 416 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 417 418 successfully mixed in situ to produce the FR, as shown by the light brown color that 419 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, 420 surfactant production during HC oxidation [7], second, O₂ production from the 421 422 disproportionation reaction of H₂O₂, and third, gas production during HC mineralization. 423 During the three injection cycles of FR, the highest allowed pressure gradient (0.1 MPa.m⁻¹) 424 was recorded at the launch because at this moment, HC concentration was the highest one. 425 During the next two cycles, the injection pressure gradient did not exceed 0.07 and 0.04 426 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 Fe-427 428 concentration map in the sandbox when using the foam-based method. As seen for the 429 propagation of FR solutions when they are directly injected, the highest Fe-concentration 430 was obtained near the injection point. However, they varied only 1.2-times between the 431 lowest and highest values within the zone filled with foam. Horizontal and vertical oxidant-

432 distributions were roughly equal as demonstrated by the I_f-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 433 of C10-C40 TPH removal rates in the sandbox. They were better than for the W-FR method 434 and greater than 79% within the zone filled with foam. After a 24 h reaction time, the soil pH 435 only reached 4, showing the persistence of the acidification in the area contacted by foam. 436 437 However, it is worth mentioning that about 25% were displaced outside the foam zone 438 during the foam injection phase, because of its strong viscosity [26,30,32,36]. This explains 439 some locally negative C10-C40 TPH removal rates obtained in the vicinity of the front line of 440 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 441 442 observed at the bottom of the cell, outside the foam boundary (Fig. 3f). It confirms that 443 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 444 surfactant, pushed away by the oxidant [25,26]. Once again, C5-C11 TPH were completely 445 446 removed inside the foam filled region, whereas C10-C40 TPH removal rates were similar to 447 those calculated using the PID (see Fig. S1b). Yet, when considering the global TPH removal 448 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 2.04 449 450 \pm 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 451 452 [28]. This remaining surfactant resulted from adsorption at interfaces and by-passing 453 phenomena in the porous medium. Hence, the main conclusion here is that the ISCO 454 treatment was much more controlled and effective when using foam. As ISCO lowers the HC-455 concentrations and improves the bioavailability of the parent compounds, facilitating

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

458 3.1.2. Combined treatments

To reduce the treatment cost and the acidification impacts, the coupling of ISCO, without 459 acidification, with biological treatments as a polishing step for the removal of the residual 460 461 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 462 463 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 464 soil; (iii) the influence of the addition of microorganisms, i.e. bioaugmentation, selected and 465 466 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 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 soilcolumns.

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.

493 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. 494 20% and 39% higher than NA). These results and the higher soil microbial activity observed 495 496 in these columns can result from the fact that F/BS and F/BA treatments produced higher 497 CFU values. This shows that the bacterial growth observed during these treatments was not 498 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 499 allowed to reach higher removal than F/BS treatment, the results obtained are not 500 statistically different. 501

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].

505 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-506 consuming microorganism selected and acclimated from the contaminated soil, the 507 508 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 509 removal efficiency by spraying BA foaming solutions in a combined chemical 510 oxidation/biodegradation treatment. However, to the best of our knowledge, this is the first 511 512 time that a coupled chemical oxidation/biodegradation treatment was tested in a real 513 contaminated soil under unsaturated conditions after a foam injection.

514

515 3.2 Field-scale

516 3.2.1.Reagents injection

517 Figure 5 shows the foam aspects observed in the field during the different treatements 518 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.

519	Considering a soil porosity of 30%, 0.2 m ³ of pregenerated foam (Fig. 5a) were injected in
520	each opening of P1 and P2 wells to get a 0.5 m ROI. Foam resurgence in Pz (Fig. 5b) was
521	observed after a 0.2 m ³ injection in S1-P1, suggesting that, actually, the ROI would be about
522	1 m. The structure of the resurging foam was very similar to the injected one.

523 Considering the distance between P1 and Pz and the resurgence time of the foam, its 524 propagation rate was estimated at 3 m.h⁻¹. After a 0.1 m³ iron sulfate solution injection, a 525 brown structured foam exited Pz (Fig 5c). Yet, after a 0.1 m³ of hydrogen peroxide injection, 526 a less structured foam containing more gas quickly exited Pz (Fig. 5d). A sample of this foam 527 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
- 529 observed in part 3.1.1.

530 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. 538 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 539 injected foam was destabilized by the presence of HCs [26,71]. At this moment, a weak foam 540 propagated beneath the low permeability silty-clay layer as shown by the significant 541 fingering. Then, a steady state was reached, where a viscous strong foam propagated with a 542 543 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 544 545 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. 546 The day after, the injection of the iron solution in P1-S1 was also tracked. The differential 547 548 ERT profile and the combination of the foam/iron profiles are presented in Fig. 6c. Results 549 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 550 network of foam lamellae created into the soil. 551

552 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. Theinjectability of BA and BS solutions was also good.

562 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 563 distribution of reagents. Yet, differential ERT images suggest that the F-FR method is quite 564 robust. Samples from 1 to 6 and A to H were drilled at 3 m deep along a N-S transect and 565 around P1 to P4 after 10 and 110 d of treatment, respectively (see Fig.2). HC concentrations 566 and degradation rates were quite changeable in the plot and measurement uncertainties 567 (~40%) were high (Table S1). HC concentrations along the N-S transect, after the Fenton 568 569 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.

570 Despite large uncertainties observed for C10-40 TPH removal rates, contaminant 571 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 afterthe injection of the iron solution (Fig. 6).

574 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 575 576 obtained in B and D samples, suggesting further HC degradation by the biological posttreatments applied in P1 and P2. This matches respirometric experiments performed 10 d 577 after the injections, which demonstrated an enhancement of the soil oxygen consumption 578 579 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 580 581 of the injected FR. In this condition, the Fenton reaction is not strong enough, as previously reported (see part 3.1.1). 582

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.

590 Considering the foam injection process, a cheap foam generator was used. An accurate 591 monitoring of the injection pressures, flow rates and injected volumes would be required 592 when using the foam-based method. Yet, this kind of devices is commonly used during 593 remediation operations using routed SP. Thus, the cost balance is in favor of this innovative 594 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].

598 4. Conclusions

The new foam-based technology is very effective to remediate HC contaminated 599 unsaturated soils, using in situ Fenton oxidation and biodegradation. It offers a better 600 601 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 602 603 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 604 or surfactant-sensitive microorganisms. HC removal rates as high as 96% were obtained 605 using the acidic Fenton reagent. Yet, the coupling of Fenton with biological treatments, 606 607 without acidification, is effective and degradation rates as high as 75% were reached. Even if 608 the concentration of microorganisms decreased immediately after a non acidified Fenton 609 treatment, it was recovered within 40 d. Fieldworks were slightly delayed, because of the 610 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 611 homogeneous propagation of viscous foams. Regarding this, differential ERT is attractive to 612 613 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 614 uncontrolled delivery that may arise at high injection rates of reagents. This technology is 615 616 not more expensive than classical treatments. Moreover, it reduces treatment uncertainties and the release of harmful vapors generated during the Fenton treatment. Yet, considering 617

618	the m	obilization of some HC outside the treated zone, a remanent oxidant, like persulfate,
619	should	d be introduced both in the injected surfactant solution and in groundwater.
620	5. Ack	nowledgements
621	This r	esearch was carried out as a part of the MOUSTIC project funded by the French
622	Natior	nal Research Agency (ANR-15-CE04-0011). Laura Fatin-Rouge is acknowledged for her
623	help t	o improve the English of the manuscript.
624	6. Ref	erences
625	[1]	D.W. Tomlinson, M.O. Rivett, G.P. Wealthall, R.E.H. Sweeney, Understanding complex
626		LNAPL sites: Illustrated handbook of LNAPL transport and fate in the subsurface, J.
627		Environ. Manage. 204 (2017) 748–756. doi:10.1016/j.jenvman.2017.08.015.
628	[2]	M.A. Lominchar, A. Santos, E. de Miguel, A. Romero, Remediation of aged diesel
629		contaminated soil by alkaline activated persulfate, Sci. Total Environ. 622–623 (2018)
630		41–48. doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.11.263.
631	[3]	J. Pinedo, R. Ibáñez, J.P.A. Lijzen, Á. Irabien, Assessment of soil pollution based on
632		total petroleum hydrocarbons and individual oil substances, J. Environ. Manage. 130
633		(2013) 72–79. doi:10.1016/j.jenvman.2013.08.048.
634	[4]	V. Antoni, Basol : un panorama des sites et sols pollués, ou potentiellement pollués,
635		nécessitant une action des pouvoirs publics, Paris, 2013.
636	[5]	R.L. Siegrist, M. Crimi, T.J. Simpkin, In Situ Chemical Oxidation for Groundwater
637		Remediation, Springer-Verlag, New York, 2011. doi:10.1007/978-1-4419-7826-4.

638	[6]	M. Cheng, G. Zeng, D. Huang, C. Lai, P. Xu, C. Zhang, Y. Liu, Hydroxyl radicals based
639		advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) for remediation of soils contaminated with
640		organic compounds : A review, Chem. Eng. J. 284 (2016) 582–598.
641		doi:10.1016/j.cej.2015.09.001.
642	[7]	J. Gryzenia, D. Cassidy, D. Hampton, Production and accumulation of surfactants
643		during the chemical oxidation of PAH in soil, Chemosphere. 77 (2009) 540–545.
644		doi:10.1016/j.chemosphere.2009.07.012.
645	[8]	A. Goi, N. Kulik, M. Trapido, Combined chemical and biological treatment of oil
646		contaminated soil, Chemosphere. 63 (2006) 1754–1763.
647		doi:10.1016/j.chemosphere.2005.09.023.

648 [9] D. Huang, C. Hu, G. Zeng, M. Cheng, P. Xu, X. Gong, R. Wang, W. Xue, Combination of

649 Fenton processes and biotreatment for wastewater treatment and soil remediation,

650 Sci. Total Environ. 574 (2017) 1599–1610. doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2016.08.199.

- 651 [10] G.A. Silva-Castro, B. Rodelas, C. Perucha, J. Laguna, J. González-López, C. Calvo,
- Bioremediation of diesel-polluted soil using biostimulation as post-treatment after
- 653 oxidation with Fenton-like reagents: Assays in a pilot plant, Sci. Total Environ. 445–
- 654 446 (2013) 347–355. doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2012.12.081.
- 655 [11] N.B. Sutton, T. Grotenhuis, H.H.M.M. Rijnaarts, Impact of organic carbon and
- 656 nutrients mobilized during chemical oxidation on subsequent bioremediation of a
- diesel-contaminated soil, Chemosphere. 97 (2014) 64–70.

658 doi:10.1016/j.chemosphere.2013.11.005.

659	[12]	R. Bajagain, Y. Park, S.W. Jeong, Feasibility of oxidation-biodegradation serial foam
660		spraying for total petroleum hydrocarbon removal without soil disturbance, Sci. Total
661		Environ. 626 (2018) 1236–1242. doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.01.212.

- 662 [13] S. Gan, E. V. Lau, H.K. Ng, Remediation of soils contaminated with polycyclic aromatic
- 663 hydrocarbons (PAHs), J. Hazard. Mater. 172 (2009) 532–549.
- 664 doi:10.1016/j.jhazmat.2009.07.118.
- 665 [14] B. Ranc, P. Faure, V. Croze, M.O. Simonnot, Selection of oxidant doses for in situ
- 666 chemical oxidation of soils contaminated by polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs):
- 667 A review, J. Hazard. Mater. 312 (2016) 280–297. doi:10.1016/j.jhazmat.2016.03.068.
- 668 [15] C. Trellu, E. Mousset, Y. Pechaud, D. Huguenot, E.D. Van Hullebusch, G. Esposito, M.A.
- 669 Oturan, Removal of hydrophobic organic pollutants from soil washing / flushing

670 solutions : A critical review, J. Hazard. Mater. 306 (2016) 149–174.

- 671 doi:10.1016/j.jhazmat.2015.12.008.
- 672 [16] F.H. Chapelle, P.M. Bradley, C.C. Casey, Behavior of a Chlorinated Ethene Plume
- following Source-Area Treatment with Fenton's Reagent, Groundw. Monit. Remediat.

674 (2005) 131–141. doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-6592.2005.0020.x.

- 675 [17] N. Kulik, A. Goi, M. Trapido, T. Tuhkanen, Degradation of polycyclic aromatic
- 676 hydrocarbons by combined chemical pre-oxidation and bioremediation in creosote
- 677 contaminated soil, J. Environ. Manage. 78 (2006) 382–391.
- 678 doi:10.1016/j.jenvman.2005.05.005.
- 679 [18] C.M. Miller, R.L. Valentine, M.E. Roehl, P.J.J. Alvarez, Chemical and microbiological

680	assessment of pendimethalin-contaminated soil after treatment with Fenton's
681	reagent, Water Res. 30 (1996) 2579–2586. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/S0043-
682	1354(96)00151-0.

[19] X. Xu, A. Saeedi, Evaluation and Optimization Study on a Hybrid EOR Technique
Named as Chemical-Alternating-Foam Floods, Oil Gas Sci. Technol. 72 (2017) 1–14.
doi:10.2516/ogst/2016022.

[20] L.D. Hansen, C. Nestler, D. Ringelberg, R. Bajpai, Extended bioremediation of PAH/PCP
 contaminated soils from the POPILE wood treatment facility, Chemosphere. 54 (2004)

688 1481–1493. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2003.09.046.

[21] Venny, S. Gan, H.K. Ng, Modified Fenton oxidation of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon
 (PAH)-contaminated soils and the potential of bioremediation as post-treatment, Sci.

691 Total Environ. 419 (2012) 240–249. doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2011.12.053.

- 692 [22] S. Kuppusamy, P. Thavamani, K. Venkateswarlu, Remediation approaches for
- 693 polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) contaminated soils : Technological
- 694 constraints , emerging trends and future directions, Chemosphere. 168 (2017) 944–
- 695 968. doi:10.1016/j.chemosphere.2016.10.115.

696 [23] N.B. Sutton, J.T.C. Grotenhuis, A.A.M. Langenhoff, H.H.M. Rijnaarts, Efforts to improve

- 697 coupled in situ chemical oxidation with bioremediation: A review of optimization
- 698 strategies, J. Soils Sediments. 11 (2011) 129–140. doi:10.1007/s11368-010-0272-9.
- 699 [24] S. Fuentes, V. Méndez, P. Aguila, M. Seeger, Bioremediation of petroleum
- 700 hydrocarbons : catabolic genes , microbial communities , and applications, Appl

701		Microbiol Biotechnol. 98 (2014) 4781–4794. doi:10.1007/s00253-014-5684-9.
702	[25]	I. Bouzid, J. Maire, N. Fatin-Rouge, Comparative assessment of a foam-based oxidative
703		treatment of hydrocarbon-contaminated unsaturated and anisotropic soils,
704		Chemosphere. 233 (2019) 667–676. doi:10.1016/j.chemosphere.2019.05.295.
705	[26]	I. Bouzid, J. Maire, S.I. Ahmed, N. Fatin-Rouge, Enhanced remedial reagents delivery in
706		unsaturated anisotropic soils using surfactant foam, Chemosphere. 210 (2018).
707		doi:10.1016/j.chemosphere.2018.07.081.
708	[27]	L. Zhong, J. Szecsody, M. Oostrom, M. Truex, X. Shen, X. Li, Enhanced remedial
709		amendment delivery to subsurface using shear thinning fluid and aqueous foam, J.
710		Hazard. Mater. 191 (2011) 249–257. doi:10.1016/j.jhazmat.2011.04.074.
711	[28]	I. Bouzid, J. Maire, N. Fatin-rouge, Comparative assessment of a foam-based method
712		for ISCO of coal tar contaminated unsaturated soils, J. Environ. Chem. Eng. 7 (2019)
713		103346. doi:10.1016/j.jece.2019.103346.
714	[29]	J. Maire, A. Joubert, D. Kaifas, T. Invernizzi, J. Marduel, S. Colombano, D. Cazaux, C.
715		Marion, P. Klein, A. Dumestre, N. Fatin-rouge, Assessment of flushing methods for the
716		removal of heavy chlorinated compounds DNAPL in an alluvial aquifer, Sci. Total
717		Environ. 612 (2018) 1149–1158. doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.08.309.
718	[30]	J. Maire, N. Fatin-Rouge, Surfactant foam flushing for in situ removal of DNAPLs in
719		shallow soils, J. Hazard. Mater. 321 (2017) 247–255.
720		doi:10.1016/j.jhazmat.2016.09.017.
721	[31]	C. Portois, E. Essouayed, M.D. Annable, N. Guiserix, A. Joubert, O. Atteia, Field

- 722 demonstration of foam injection to confine a chlorinated solvent source zone, J. Contam. Hydrol. 214 (2018) 16–23. doi:10.1016/j.jconhyd.2018.04.003. 723 724 [32] M. Longpré-girard, R. Martel, T. Robert, R. Lefebvre, J. Lauzon, 2D sandbox experiments of surfactant foams for mobility control and enhanced LNAPL recovery in 725 layered soils, J. Contam. Hydrol. 193 (2016) 63-73. 726 727 doi:10.1016/j.jconhyd.2016.09.001. 728 [33] X. Shen, L. Zhao, Y. Ding, B. Liu, H. Zeng, L. Zhong, X. Li, Foam, a promising vehicle to 729 deliver nanoparticles for vadose zone remediation, J. Hazard. Mater. 186 (2011) 730 1773–1780. doi:10.1016/j.jhazmat.2010.12.071. K. Ma, R. Liontas, C.A. Conn, G.J. Hirasaki, S.L. Biswal, Visualization of improved sweep 731 [34]
- with foam in heterogeneous media using microfluidics, Soft Matter. 8 (2012) 10669-732 10675. doi:10.1039/c2sm25833a. 733
- G.J. Hirasaki, C.A. Miller, R. Szafranski, J. Lawnson, N. Akiya, Surfactant/Foam Process 734 [35] 735 for Aquifer Remediation, in: Int. Symp. Oilf. Chem., Society of Petroleum Engineers, Houston, Texas, 1997. doi:10.2118/37257-MS.
- J. Maire, A. Coyer, N. Fatin-rouge, Surfactant foam technology for in situ removal of 737 [36] 738 heavy chlorinated, J. Hazard. Mater. 299 (2015) 630–638.
- doi:10.1016/j.jhazmat.2015.07.071. 739
- 740 G.J. Hirasaki, C.A. Miller, R. Szafranski, J.B. Lawson, N. Akiya, Surfactant/foam process [37]
- for aquifer remediation, Proc. SPE Int. Symp. Oilf. Chem. (1997) 471–480. 741
- doi:10.2523/37257-ms. 742

743	[38]	I. Bouzid, J. Maire, E. Brunol, S. Caradec, N. Fatin-Rouge, Compatibility of surfactants
744		with activated-persulfate for the selective oxidation of PAH in groundwater
745		remediation, J. Environ. Chem. Eng. 5 (2017) 6098–6106.
746		doi:10.1016/j.jece.2017.11.038.
747	[39]	I. Watson, A. Burnett, Hydrology: an Environmental Approach, 1st Editio, CRC Press,
748		1995. doi:https://doi.org/10.1201/9780203751442.
749	[40]	M. Fireman, Permeability Measurements On Disturbed Soil Samples, Soil Sci. 58
750		(1944) 337–354.
751	[41]	M. Carter, E. Gregorich, Soil sampling and methods of analysis, 2nd editio, 2007.
752		doi:https://doi.org/10.1201/9781420005271.
753	[42]	ISO 10390, Soil quality — Determination of pH, (2005).
754	[43]	A. Dreimanis, Quantitative gasometric determination of calcite and dolomite by using
755		Chittick apparatus, J. Sediment. Res. 32 (1962) 520–529.
756		doi:https://doi.org/10.1306/74D70D08-2B21-11D7-8648000102C1865D.
757	[44]	J. Bachmann, a Ellies, K Hartge, Development and application of a new sessile drop
758		contact angle method to assess soil water repellency, J. Hydrol. 231–232 (2000) 66–
759		75. doi:10.1016/S0022-1694(00)00184-0.
760	[45]	K. Schöffski, D. Strohm, Karl Fischer Moisture Determination, Encycl. Anal. Chem.
761		(2006) 1–13. doi:10.1002/9780470027318.a8102.

- 762 [46] Standards Association of Australia, Methods of testing soil for engineering purposes
- 763 Part B Soil moisture content tests Determination of the moisture content of a soil -

Oven drying method (standard method), 1977.

- 765 [47] D.L. Sparks, A.L. Page, P.A. Helmke, R.H. Loeppert, Methods of Soil Analysis, Part 3:
 766 Chemical Methods, John Wiley & Sons, 2020.
- 767 [48] S. Jorfi, A. Rezaee, N. Jaafarzadeh, Pyrene removal from contaminated soils by
- 768 modified Fenton oxidation using iron nano particles, J. Environ. Heal. Sci. Eng. 11
- 769 (2013) 2–9. doi:10.1186/2052-336X-11-17.
- 770 [49] H. Sun, Y. Qi-she, Influence of pyrene combination state in soils on its treatment
- efficiency by Fenton oxidation, J. Environ. Manage. 88 (2008) 556–563.
- 772 doi:10.1016/j.jenvman.2007.03.031.
- 773 [50] M. Usman, P. Faure, C. Ruby, K. Hanna, Remediation of PAH-contaminated soils by
- 774 magnetite catalyzed Fenton-like oxidation, Appl. Catal. B Environ. 117–118 (2012) 10–
- 775 17. doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2012.01.007.
- 776 [51] C. Valderrama, R. Alessandri, T. Aunola, J.L. Cortina, X. Gamisans, T. Tuhkanen,
- 777 Oxidation by Fenton's reagent combined with biological treatment applied to a
- creosote-comtaminated soil, J. Hazard. Mater. 166 (2009) 594–602.
- 779 doi:10.1016/j.jhazmat.2008.11.108.
- 780 [52] H. Ouriache, J. Arrar, A. Namane, F. Bentahar, Treatment of petroleum hydrocarbons
- contaminated soil by Fenton like oxidation, Chemosphere. 232 (2019) 377–386.
- 782 doi:10.1016/j.chemosphere.2019.05.060.
- 783 [53] B. Ranc, P. Faure, V. Croze, C. Lorgeoux, M. Simonnot, Comparison of the
- reffectiveness of soil heating prior or during in situ chemical oxidation (ISCO) of aged

785		PAH-contaminated soils, (2017) 11265–11278. doi:10.1007/s11356-017-8731-0.
786	[54]	S.R. Kanel, B. Neppolian, H. Choi, JW. Yang, Heterogeneous Catalytic Oxidation of
787		Phenanthrene by Hydrogen Peroxide in Soil Slurry: Kinetics, Mechanism, and
788		Implication, Soil Sediment Contam. 12 (2003) 101–117. doi:10.1080/713610963.
789	[55]	D.O. Pino-Herrera, Y. Fayolle, S. Pageot, D. Huguenot, G. Esposito, E.D. van
790		Hullebusch, Y. Pechaud, Gas-liquid oxygen transfer in aerated and agitated slurry
791		systems with high solid volume fractions, Chem. Eng. J. 350 (2018) 1073–1083.
792		doi:10.1016/j.cej.2018.05.193.
793	[56]	C.A. Schneider, W.S. Rasband, K.W. Eliceiri, NIH Image to ImageJ : 25 years of image
794		analysis, Nat. Methods. 9 (2012) 671–675. doi:10.1038/nmeth.2089.
795	[57]	US EPA, Hydraulic fracturing technology, EPA 540-R-93-505. (1993) 140.
796	[58]	Y. Wu, S. Hubbard, D. Wellman, Geophysical Monitoring of Foam Used to Deliver
797		Remediation Treatments within the Vadose Zone, Vadose Zo. J. 11 (2012) 0.
798		doi:10.2136/vzj2011.0160.
799	[59]	V. Bichet, E. Grisey, Spatial characterization of leachate plume using electrical
800		resistivity tomography in a land fill composed of old and new cells (Belfort, France),
801		211 (2016) 61–73. doi:10.1016/j.enggeo.2016.06.026.
802	[60]	J.T. Woods, M.G. Mellon, Thiocyanate Method for Iron A Spectrophotometric Study,
803		Ind. Eng. Chem Anal. Ed. 13 (1941) 551–554. doi:10.1021/i560096a013.
804	[61]	P. Vähäoja, K. Roppola, I. Välimäki, T. Kuokkanen, Studies of biodegradability of
805		certain oils in forest soil as determined by the respirometric BOD OxiTop method, Int.

806		J. Environ. Anal. Chem. 85 (2005) 1065–1073. doi:10.1080/03067310500174195.
807	[62]	I.L. Pepper, C.P. Gerba, T.J. Gentry, R.M. Maier, Environmental Microbiology,
808		Academic Press, 2011.
809	[63]	R.K. Rothmel, R.W. Peters, E. St. Martin, M.F. Deflaun, Surfactant
810		foam/bioaugmentation technology for in situ treatment of TCE- DNAPLs, Environ. Sci.
811		Technol. 32 (1998) 1667–1675. doi:10.1021/es970980w.
812	[64]	S. Hashemian, M. Tabatabaee, M. Gafari, Fenton oxidation of methyl violet in aqueous
813		solution, J. Chem. (2013). doi:10.1155/2013/509097.
814	[65]	S. Hashemian, Fenton-like oxidation of malachite green solutions: Kinetic and
815		thermodynamic study, J. Chem. 2013 (2013). doi:10.1155/2013/809318.
816	[66]	A. Bharadwaj, A.K. Saroha, Decolorization of the textile wastewater containing
817		reactive blue 19 dye by Fenton and Photo-Fenton oxidation, J. Hazardous, Toxic,
818		Radioact. Waste. 19 (2015) 1–7. doi:10.1061/(ASCE)HZ.2153-5515.0000267.
819	[67]	Y.S. Jung, W.T. Lim, J.Y. Park, Y.H. Kim, Effect of pH on Fenton and Fenton - like
820		oxidation, Environ. Technol. 30 (2009) 183–190. doi:10.1080/09593330802468848.
821	[68]	C. Chang, Y. Hsieh, K. Cheng, L. Hsieh, Effect of pH on Fenton process using estimation
822		of hydroxyl radical with salicylic acid as trapping reagent, Water Sci. Technol. 54
823		(2008) 873–879. doi:10.2166/wst.2008.429.
824	[69]	Y.S. Zhao, Y. Su, J.R. Lian, H.F. Wang, L.L. Li, C.Y. Qin, Insights on Flow Behavior of
825		Foam in Unsaturated Porous Media during Soil Flushing, Water Environ. Res. 88
826		(2016) 2132–2141. doi:10.2175/106143016X14733681695483.

827	[70]	K. Nam, W. Rodriguez, J.J. Kukor, Enhanced degradation of polycyclic aromatic
828		hydrocarbons by biodegradation combined with a modified Fenton reaction,
829		Chemosphere. 45 (2001) 11–20. doi:10.1016/S0045-6535(01)00051-0.
830	[71]	K. Osei-bonsu, N. Shokri, P. Grassia, Foam stability in the presence and absence of
831		hydrocarbons: From bubble- to bulk-scale, Colloids Surfaces A Physicochem. Eng. Asp.
832		481 (2015) 514–526. doi:10.1016/j.colsurfa.2015.06.023.
833	[72]	C.S. Boeije, C. Portois, M. Schmutz, O. Atteia, Tracking a Foam Front in a 3D,
834		Heterogeneous Porous Medium, Transp. Porous Media. 131 (2018) 1–20.
835		doi:10.1007/s11242-018-1185-0.

Top view



Soil sampling

ERT monitoring

A to H



Treatment steps

Surfactant foam injection ISCO (Fenton reagent injection) Bioremediation (biostimulation, bioaugmentation)