

1 **FEASIBILITY OF COUPLING PERMEABLE BIO-BARRIERS AND**
2 **ELECTROKINETICS FOR THE TREATMENT OF DIESEL**
3 **HYDROCARBONS POLLUTED SOILS**

4

5 Esperanza Mena Ramírez², Cristina Sáez Jiménez^{1,3}, José Villaseñor Camacho^{2,*},
6 Manuel A. Rodrigo Rodrigo^{1,3} and Pablo Cañizares Cañizares³

7

8 (1) ISE member

9 (2) Chemical Engineering Department. Research Institute for Chemical and
10 Environmental Technology (ITQUIMA). University of Castilla La Mancha, 13071,
11 Ciudad Real, Spain.

12 (3) Chemical Engineering Department. Faculty of Chemical Sciences and Technology.
13 University of Castilla La Mancha, 13071, Ciudad Real, Spain.

14 *Corresponding author. Tel.: +34 926295300; E-mail: Jose.Villasenor@uclm.es

15

16 **Abstract**

17 In this study, the remediation of a diesel hydrocarbon-polluted clay soil using an
18 electrochemical-biological combined technology is assessed. The polluted soil was
19 subjected to an electrokinetic (EK) treatment with a biological permeable reactive
20 barrier. A lab-scale electrochemical cell for soil treatment was used. The biological
21 barrier placed in the soil was a biofilm reactor previously adapted for diesel
22 degradation. A batch experiment of 336 h was conducted in a synthetic clay soil spiked
23 with 10 g·kg⁻¹ of diesel and a constant voltage gradient of 1.0 V cm⁻¹. Sodium dodecyl
24 sulphate was used as an anionic surfactant in the cathodic well to allow for hydrocarbon
25 emulsification during the treatment. At the end of the experiment, extreme pH values

26 were observed near the electrodes. However, the pH remained constant at
27 approximately 7.7 in the central biobarrier zone, which allowed for biological processes.
28 Biological growth was observed in the biobarrier, and a part of the biofilm was detached
29 and transported through the soil in both directions. Furthermore, the surfactant was
30 transported across the soil due to electromigration and electroosmosis, which resulted in
31 diesel emulsification. The combination of biological and EK phenomena finally
32 resulted in a homogenous hydrocarbon removal of approximately 27% in the polluted
33 soil, which indicated a 39% removal of the diesel biodegradable fraction.. Due to the
34 electroosmotic flow and the biological degradation, some of the water, surfactant and
35 inorganic nutrients were removed from the soil and should be continuously replaced if a
36 long-time experiment is conducted.

37

38 **Keywords**

39 Electrokinetics, biological permeable barrier, electrobioremediation, polluted soil, diesel
40 hydrocarbon

41

42 **1. Introduction**

43 The electrokinetic (EK) treatment of polluted soils consists of applying a low intensity
44 direct electric current through the soil between appropriately distributed electrodes.

45 Consequently, different EK phenomena (electromigration, electrophoresis and
46 electroosmosis) occur in the soil when a current is applied, which promotes the
47 transport of ionic and molecular species in the soil, including pollutants,
48 microorganisms or nutrients, and leads to *in situ* soil remediation. Generally, EK
49 technology is specifically recommended for the treatment of low permeability clay soils
50 [1-5]. In the recent years, interest has increased in combining the advantages of EK
51 technologies with other conventional soil remediation technologies to improve
52 remediation efficiency [6]. In particular, one possible technique is the combination of
53 permeable reactive barriers (PRB) and EK treatments *in situ*.

54 Generally, PRBs are engineered zones of a reactive material that is placed in the
55 direction of groundwater flow to help intercept a pollution plume that is carried within
56 an aquifer by retaining or degrading the pollutants [7]. The subsurface pollution plume
57 can be caused to flow through the PRB using the natural hydraulic gradient or a pump-
58 and-treat method. However, when the soil to be treated has very low permeability
59 properties, the mobilization of the water using this conventional technique is not
60 possible. Thus, when a PRB is coupled with EK technology, the pollutants are driven by
61 the EK mass transport processes described above.

62 Different materials could be used to build different PRBs that are based on several
63 different mechanisms (reduction using elemental metals, adsorption with porous high-
64 surface materials, ion exchange with resin-based materials, biological degradation, etc.).
65 In particular, barriers based on biological degradation are named biological permeable
66 reactive barriers (Bio-PRB) or biobarriers. A biobarrier is a fixed culture bioreactor that

67 includes a porous supporting material and a microbial biofilm attached on its surface.
68 The working principle of a biobarrier is the same as that of a conventional biofilm
69 reactor. In fact, the only difference is that it is inserted in the soil during EK treatment.
70 Numerous publications are available regarding the use of PRBs [8-13] or biobarriers
71 [14-20] for the removal of heavy metals or organic compounds from polluted soils.
72 However, the combination of the EK and the PRB treatments is much more recent, and
73 consequently, only a limited number of publications are available regarding this topic:
74 some studies are based on using physical and/or chemical mechanisms in the PRB to
75 remove metals or organic pollutants [21-27], while, to our knowledge, no references are
76 available regarding the specific case of combined biological barriers/EK treatment. The
77 combination of biotechnology and the EK phenomena for polluted soils remediation has
78 been called “electrobioremediation” and has been previously studied as another strategy
79 [2, 28-40].
80 In this study, a soil polluted with diesel hydrocarbons is treated using the EK/Biobarrier
81 method. Hydrocarbon soils and groundwater pollution are major environmental
82 problems that are usually caused by a number of anthropogenic activities that are
83 inefficient or by uncontrolled accidents (leaking tanks or ruptured pipelines at service
84 stations or in industrial areas). In this paper, we propose applying the EK/PRB
85 remediation technology by using a biobarrier with a diesel degrading microbial
86 consortia attached on the surface of gravel particles. Because diesel composition is a
87 complex mixture of different hydrocarbons, diesel fuel could be used as a model for
88 studying the treatment of this type of pollution in soils. The most relevant difference
89 between this study and previous studies is the innovative combination of the biobarrier
90 and the EK process for remediating soil polluted with diesel-oil.

91

92 **2. Experimental**

93 **2.1. Electrokinetic installation**

94 The lab-scale set-up is shown in Figure 1, and was made of transparent methacrylate
95 and divided into five compartments. The central compartment contained the polluted
96 soil in which the biobarrier with the diesel degrading support microorganism was
97 loaded. The pore system of the biobarrier was filled with a Bushnell Hash Broth (BHB)
98 inorganic nutrient solution, a commercial inorganic nutrient salt mixture that was
99 specific for heterotrophic microbial development and was provided by DifcoTM (Le Pont
100 de Claix, France). The BHB composition was as follows: 0.2 g·l⁻¹ MgSO₄, 0.02 g·l⁻¹
101 CaCl₂, 1.0 g·l⁻¹ KH₂PO₄, 1.0 g·l⁻¹ (NH₄)₂HPO₄, 1.0 g·l⁻¹ KNO₃ and 0.05 g·l⁻¹ FeCl₃. The
102 diesel-polluted soil was loaded on both sides of the biobarrier and separated from it by
103 0.5 mm nylon mesh. The biobarrier was 5 cm thickness. The two electrodic
104 compartments were located on one side of each section of the polluted soil and were
105 separated from the soil by 0.5 mm nylon mesh. One of these compartments served as an
106 anodic well, and the other compartment served as a cathodic well. Each electrodic
107 compartment was finally connected to an additional collector compartment at both
108 extremes to collect the liquid that overflowed from the electrodic wells. Graphite
109 electrodes were introduced in the electrodic compartments and were connected to the
110 power supply device (HQ Power, Gavere, Belgium) so that one of them served as the
111 anode and the other served as the cathode. The electrodes had dimensions of 10.0 ×
112 10.0 × 1.0 cm and were provided by Carbosystem (Madrid, Spain). To obtain a
113 homogeneous distribution of current lines throughout the soil, the electrodes were
114 positioned to cover the same cross section as the fraction of the soil to be studied. The
115 system was open in the top side in order to reproduce a possible future full scale
116 application.

117 **2.2. Materials**

118 Electrochemical techniques are especially recommended for treating low permeability
119 soils, such as clays. Therefore, in this study, kaolinite (provided by Manuel Riesgo
120 Chemical Products, Madrid, Spain) was used as a model for clay soil. The properties of
121 this synthetic clay soil are detailed in Table 1.

122 The diesel oil that was used as the pollutant was a conventional petroleum-derived fuel
123 that was purchased from a petrol station in Ciudad Real, Spain. In previous
124 characterization tests [41] using chromatography analysis, it was determined that the n-
125 alkanes that were predominantly present in the commercial oil had chain lengths of
126 between 10 and 26 carbon atoms. In addition, pristane and phytane biomarkers were
127 identified. The density of the diesel was $882 \text{ g}\cdot\text{l}^{-1}$ when measured according to a
128 standard procedure (ISO-3675 1998).

129 To artificially pollute the soil, the diesel was diluted tenfold in acetone before evenly
130 distributing the solution drop by drop in the corresponding amount of kaolinite. The
131 solvent (acetone) and the higher volatile diesel fractions (approximately 6% of the
132 initial amount of added diesel) were allowed to evaporate at room temperature for at
133 least two days. The concentration of diesel present in the soil at the beginning of the
134 experiment was approximately $10 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$.

135 **2.3. Biobarrier development**

136 The gravel support was used for the biobarrier with a particle diameter of approximately
137 4 mm. The following procedure was used to develop the biobarrier with the attached
138 diesel-degrading biofilm: first, the gravel bed was immersed in a BHB solution with a
139 small amount of diesel ($2.1 \text{ g}\cdot\text{l}^{-1}$) that was emulsified with the sodium dodecyl sulphate
140 (SDS) surfactant ($1.0 \text{ g}\cdot\text{l}^{-1}$) that was provided by Panreac Chemical Products
141 (Barcelona, Spain). In turn, microorganisms that were previously acclimated to diesel

142 degradation [41] were inoculated into the flooded bed. Under these conditions, the
143 culture was allowed to grow for one week to allow the microorganisms attached on the
144 gravel surface to develop. Once this first activation period expired, a feed pump was
145 connected to the system so that the BHB medium including the diesel emulsified with
146 SDS passed through the gravel bed. The diesel concentration in the medium was
147 approximately $2.1 \text{ g}\cdot\text{l}^{-1}$ (an approximate value of $4.0 \text{ g}\cdot\text{l}^{-1}$ if expressed as the Chemical
148 Oxygen Demand, COD). The bed was continuously flooded with no aeration such that
149 the input of the feed solution was performed in the bottom of the reactor that contained
150 the developing biobarrier and the output occurred through an overflow. The feed flow
151 was set so that the residence time in the reactor was approximately 4 h, which was the
152 optimum value according to previous studies that were conducted with the same
153 microbial culture [41]. During the steady state operation of the system, a total COD
154 removal efficiency of more than 50% was achieved (data not shown). This removal
155 included the COD due to the diesel and the surfactant. SDS is an organic compound that
156 is derived from the C-12 alkane and can be easily biodegraded by the diesel-degrading
157 microbial consortia. In fact, in a previous test, more than 95% of the surfactant was
158 degraded in 7 days of operation. Consequently, a diesel-removing biofilm reactor was
159 developed for use as a biobarrier.

160 **2.4. Experimental procedure**

161 The soil was manually compacted into the central compartment on both sides of the
162 biobarrier to achieve the highest degree of compaction possible and avoid the formation
163 of preferential flow paths that could interfere with the results. The bulk dry density of
164 the soil after compaction was approximately 1300 Kg m^{-3} . Next, the biobarrier was
165 loaded into the central position (Figure 1) and flooded with the BHB medium. An
166 inorganic salts mixture was used as an anolyte and to moisten the soil and ensure

167 electrical conductivity. This salt solution was composed of the following: 30.36 mg·l⁻¹
168 of NaNO₃, 70 mg·l⁻¹ of NaHCO₃ and 88.75 mg·l⁻¹ of Na₂SO₄. The clay soil was wetted
169 to obtain saturated conditions to a moisture content of approximately 40% (0.4 kg water
170 per kg of wet soil). On the other side and in the cathodic compartment, an anionic
171 surfactant solution was used as a catholyte. A 2.38 g·l⁻¹ SDS solution was loaded into
172 the cathodic compartment at the beginning of the the experiment.
173 The experiment was performed using a potentiostatic method (i.e., setting a voltage
174 gradient value that remained constant throughout the experiment). The current intensity
175 values varied with time and depending on the characteristics of the medium. In this
176 case, the voltage gradient was set at 1.0 V·cm⁻¹. Based on the length of the treated
177 section (20 cm), the total value of the fixed voltage was 20 V.

178 **2.5. Sampling and analyses**

179 The duration of the experiment was two weeks, and the following parameters were
180 monitored daily: temperature and the dissolved oxygen (DO) concentrations in the
181 biobarrier liquid medium; the electrical current trough the soil (using a multimeter that
182 was capable of measuring the electrical current in milliamps); the electro-osmotic water
183 volume that was collected in the cathodic compartment; and the pH, conductivity and
184 total-P, total-N, diesel and SDS concentrations in the electro-osmotic water that were
185 mobilized, in the anolyte, catholyte and in the liquid biobarrier medium. In addition, the
186 following parameters were measured in the soil at the beginning and end of the
187 experiment: pH, conductivity, moisture content, the concentration of microorganisms
188 and the total-P, total-N, diesel and SDS concentrations. At the end of the experiment,
189 both sections of the polluted soil were divided into eight portions, so that the parameter
190 measurements were performed at 16 points in the soil. Thus, the influence of the

191 position of the electrode on the measured parameters were analysed in addition to the
192 axial deviation at the points that were situated at the same distances as the electrodes.
193 Next, the analytical procedures for the measurement of each parameter are detailed. The
194 humidity was calculated in the soil samples by accounting for the loss in mass after
195 drying at 105°C for 24 h. The pH, conductivity and the total P, total N, diesel and SDS
196 concentrations were measured from the soil samples as follows: 10 g of the dried soil
197 samples were suspended in 25 ml of Milli-Q water using 20 min of vigorous magnetic
198 agitation. Next, the samples were centrifuged at 4000 rpm for 15 min. The parameters
199 were measured in the supernatant phase. The pH was measured using a CRISON pH
200 meter and the conductivity was measured using a Jenway conductivimeter. In addition,
201 the dissolved oxygen (DO) concentration in the biobarrier liquid medium was measured
202 using a Hanna 98186 selective electrode. The N and P concentrations were measured
203 using a Gallery photometric analyser (Thermo Fischer Scientific, Massachusetts, USA).
204 The SDS concentration was measured using a previously reported specific photometric
205 method [42, 43]. Briefly, 5 ml of the sample was alkalized by adding 200 µl of a 50
206 mM sodium tetraborate solution. Next, 100 µl of a stabilized methylene blue solution
207 was added to the sample and homogenized. Finally, 4 ml of chloroform was added.
208 After vigorous stirring for 30 s followed by 5 min at rest, the absorbance of the organic
209 phase was measured at 650 nm.

210 Diesel hydrocarbons concentration was expressed as Total Petroleum Hydrocarbon
211 (TPH) measured by GC-FID. Taking into account the amount of diesel in the soil at the
212 beginning of the experiments and the results obtained in the analysis of the soil samples
213 at the end of the experiments, the total amount of diesel removed from the system was
214 calculated, following the same procedure previously detailed in bibliography [44]. The
215 diesel concentrations were determined using a fractionated serial extraction as follows:

216 10 g of wet soil were mixed with 6 ml of hexane (divided into three steps of 2 ml). In
217 every single step extraction, the soil was mixed with the corresponding volume of
218 dissolvent and agitated vigorously in a Vortex agitator for 5 min. Next, the samples
219 were centrifuged at 4000 rpm for 15 min. The samples that were taken from the organic
220 supernatant phase were analysed using a Trace GC Ultra (Thermo Fisher Scientific,
221 Massachusetts, USA) gas chromatograph that was equipped with a flame ionization
222 detector (GC-FID). The hydrocarbons were separated in a micro Ultra Fast capillary
223 column (5 m × 0.1 mm i.d. × 0.4 μm). The injector and the detector were scheduled at a
224 temperature of 250°C and 280°C, respectively, and the thermal ramps used were as
225 follows: initial temperature of 65°C for 0.1 min. followed by a gradient of 50°C·min⁻¹
226 until a final temperature of 70°C to be maintained during 1.5min., after that another
227 gradient of 180°C·min⁻¹ until a final temperature of 240°C maintained during 2 min.,
228 and finally, another gradient of 250°C·min⁻¹ until a final temperature of 280°C
229 maintained for 1 min. The carrier gas used was high purity helium, with a flow of 50
230 ml·min⁻¹. Finally, the injection volume was 1 μL and a split injection mode was
231 employed.

232 The concentration of microorganisms was expressed in Colony Forming Units (CFU)
233 per gram of dry soil and was measured by suspending 10 g of wet soil in 10 ml of saline
234 water using 1 min of Vortex agitation. Next, an aliquot of 100 μL of the soil-saline
235 suspension was plated on Petri dishes. The nutrient solid phase of these dishes was
236 prepared using LB medium (with the following composition per litre of deionised
237 water: 10 g NaCl, 5 g yeast extract and 10 g casein peptone) with 15 g·l⁻¹ of European
238 Bacteriological Agar and 2 g·l⁻¹ of glucose as the carbon source. Inoculums were evenly
239 spread using Digralsky handles, and the plates were incubated for 48 h at 26°C, which
240 provided sufficient time for enumerating the individual colonies that were present in

241 each sample. Finally, the biomass concentrations in the biobarrier were determinate
242 before and after the treatment. This value corresponds to the weight difference of the
243 dried samples before and after calcination at 550°C for 2 h.

244 **3. Results and Discussion**

245 Figure 2 shows the pH and conductivity profiles of the soil after treatment.

246 As expected due to the water electrolysis reactions, an acidic pH was obtained in the
247 areas near the anode electrode. In addition, a basic pH was obtained near the cathode
248 electrode (Figure 2, part a). Because the rate at which protons ions move through the
249 soil is greater than the rate at which hydroxyl ions move through the soil, the changes in
250 the baseline value to an acidic pH in the areas near the anode were more pronounced
251 than the changes in the baseline value to a more basic pH in the areas near the cathode.

252 The soil conductivity was greater in the areas closer to the anode and lower near the
253 cathode (Figure 2, part b). This result occurred because the basic pH caused
254 precipitation and fixed the ionic species. Thus, the mobility of the ionic species was
255 more limited. Conversely, the increase in the conductivity in the area near the anode
256 resulted from the electromigration of the anions and the liberation of the species due to
257 the influences of the acidic pH front.

258 Figure 3 shows the experimental conditions in the biobarrier during the experiment. All
259 of the conditions were adequate for the biological degradation of diesel during the
260 experiments. The temperature was slightly above room temperature because the heat
261 caused by the application of the electric field was not pronounced, but was slightly
262 below the optimum value for the microbial consortium used, which was 26°C [41]. In
263 the last hours of the experiment, the temperature decreased, which corresponded with
264 the accentuated decrease in the electrical current that was obtained at the same time.

265 The pH values stayed approximately constant at neutral position throughout the

266 experiment. The influences of the acid and the basic fronts were neutralized in the
267 centre of the soil section where the biobarrier was installed, and thanks to the buffer
268 effect of the biological growth liquid medium. The DO concentration increased to a
269 value near the saturation point (6 ppm). Due to the salinity of the system, this value
270 must be below the value that was obtained for the pure water (approximately 8 ppm).
271 The DO concentration near the saturation conditions was maintained nearly constant
272 throughout the experiment. In addition, it has been supposed that the electro-osmotic
273 flow could cause the drag of the oxygen generated at the anode surface through the soil.
274 The previous development of the microorganisms attached in the biobarrier was
275 conducted under flooded and non-aerated conditions. Thus, in its application for soil
276 treatment, high dissolved oxygen concentrations would not be necessary for the diesel
277 biodegradation process. However, aerobic processes are usually more efficient, which
278 could be relevant for the application of this technology in similar aerobic remediation
279 processes.

280 Figure 4 shows the variations in the electric current intensity with time during the
281 experiment. Decreasing electrical currents resulted from the removal of ionic species
282 from the soil solution. This removal is due to the electromigration phenomena
283 throughout the soil and causes the accumulation of the anionic and cationic species in
284 the anodic and cathodic compartments, respectively, and also due to precipitate
285 formation in the higher pH region. In the same way, the electroosmotic drag can result
286 in the removal of the ionic water-soluble species from the system. These EK mass
287 transport processes removed the ionic species from the soil and decreased the
288 conductivity.

289 Figure 5, part a, shows the concentrations of the viable microorganisms in the soil at the
290 beginning and end of the experiment at the different sampling points. Please note that

291 the horizontal dashed line in figure 5a indicates just the initial microorganisms
292 concentration in the central biobarrier, because there were no microorganisms in the soil
293 at the beginning of the experiment. At the end of the experiment, higher microbial
294 concentrations were observed in the central areas near the biobarrier in which the diesel
295 degrading microorganisms were supported (Figure 5.a). In this area (as previously
296 discussed), conditions are optimal for microbial growth in terms of the pH and nutrient
297 concentrations. Similarly, in the areas near the electrodes, the microbial concentrations
298 were lower. Indeed, a possible experimental error in certain measurements should be
299 considered (point 1, upper right position). In these zones, the conditions for microbial
300 growth became more extreme as the experiment progressed, especially regarding the pH
301 values and the inorganic nutrient availability. Moreover, the presence of
302 microorganisms in zones that were far from the central biobarrier resulted from the
303 biofilm detachment process and the EK transport of the microorganisms [45]. The
304 biofilm detachment process resulted from biomass growth and the movement of water
305 through the biobarrier.

306 The results shown in Figure 5. b indicated that an homogeneous removal of pollutants
307 was achieved in the soil (approximately 27% of diesel was removed from the soil).
308 Because the higher volatile hydrocarbon fractions were previously removed and the
309 increase in soil temperature was negligible, hydrocarbon volatilization was not
310 considered, and only the combination of biological and EK phenomena was assumed to
311 be responsible for the diesel removal. Moreover, no diesel oil was detected in the
312 electrodic wells. The homogeneity of the diesel removal would result from two aspects.
313 First, the microorganisms were present nearly throughout the soil portion (not only the
314 biobarrier) due to the biofilm detachment and the EK transport. In addition, the diesel
315 could be emulsified with SDS and moved across the soil because a combination of

316 electrokinetic phenomena (later discussed in figures 6 and 7) and it would allow for the
317 mobilization of the diesel through the biobarrier, where higher degradation activity
318 would be conducted. When comparing a previous study regarding diesel biodegradation
319 with the same microbial consortia [40] and the removal of diesel that was obtained
320 during the biobarrier development in the present work (data not shown), the
321 biodegradable fraction of the COD of the diesel that was used was approximately 70%.
322 This result indicates that an important amount of the biodegradable fraction of the diesel
323 hydrocarbons (39% approximately) were removed through the EK/biobarrier treatment in
324 two weeks.

325 Figure 6, part a, shows the surfactant profile that was obtained in the soil at the end of
326 the experiment. Surfactant was not added in the soil at the beginning of the experiment,
327 but 500 ml of a $2.38 \text{ g}\cdot\text{l}^{-1}$ SDS solution was added in the cathodic well. At the end of the
328 experiment, the surfactant was distributed throughout the soil according to the data
329 presented in Figure 6.a, and reached higher concentrations in the areas near the cathodic
330 well where the surfactant was introduced at the beginning of the experiment. The
331 surfactant was mobilized by electromigration from the cathode to the anode
332 compartment because it was an anionic product. Thus, small amounts of the surfactant
333 were detected in the anodic well with time, and the surfactant concentrations decreased
334 in the cathodic well as the experiment progressed (Figure 6.b). It is hypothesised also
335 that micelles, which are soluble in water, were dragged by the electroosmotic process
336 from the anode to the cathode. The combination of electromigration towards the anode
337 and electroosmosis towards the cathode would produce the movement of SDS/diesel
338 micelles across the whole soil, passing through the biobarrier in both directions.

339 Previous research [46] reported similar movement of hydrocarbons emulsified with
340 flushing fluids in EK experiments. Thus, due to the contributions of the EK and

341 biological phenomena, a SDS distribution across the soil was obtained to help with
342 homogeneous pollutant removal (as explained above). It is important to note that a
343 certain amount of surfactant would be biodegraded by the microbial consortia, which
344 agrees with the results that were obtained during the biobarrier development. According
345 to the mass balance calculation, 267 mg of SDS were removed from the soil by
346 biodegradation, which corresponds to approximately 22% of the total amount of
347 surfactant that was added to the system at the beginning of the experiment. In addition,
348 the surfactant biodegradation and replacement should be considered in the long-term
349 experiments.

350 Furthermore, the total volatile solids concentrations in the biobarrier were measured.
351 This concentration was directly related to the biomass concentration that was supported
352 in the biobarrier. Overall, the amount of biomass attached to the biobarrier increased by
353 25% after the process (from an initial value of $5.93 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$, to a final value of 7.50
354 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$). Again, this result confirmed the presence of biological activity in the area of
355 the biobarrier that caused the biological degradation of the pollutant.

356 As noted in Figure 7, the average value of the obtained electro-osmotic flow was 8.8
357 $\text{ml}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$. Thus, after 335 h of the experiment, a volume of approximately 2500 ml of
358 water was mobilized by the electro-osmotic process towards the cathode. Considering
359 that the volume of the pore water in the soil at the beginning of the experiment was
360 approximately 1040 ml, the volume of water that was moved by electro-osmosis was
361 2.5 times greater than the volume of the pore water in the soil under saturated
362 conditions. Therefore, the influences of the electro-osmotic phenomena on the drag of
363 the species in the soil are important. In addition, a water balance was calculated and
364 indicated that water was removed from the system by evaporation at a rate of
365 approximately $3.2 \text{ ml}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$. Considering that the electroosmotic flow was $8.8 \text{ ml}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$, the

366 amount of water flowing vertically was 36% of the amount of water flowing
367 horizontally. In our case, approximately 1060 ml of water was lost by evaporation from
368 the system, which is a very remarkable value when considering that the water volume in
369 the soil at the beginning of the experiment was 1040 ml. Therefore, the influences of
370 vertical fluxes must be considered in this process, especially in systems where the
371 vertical dimension is predominant.

372 Finally, the nutrient availability for biological processes, and the possible pH changes in
373 the biobarrier in longer experimental periods, must be considered. Due to the
374 combination of the biological and EK phenomena, the initially high total-N and total-P
375 concentrations (500 and $300 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{l}^{-1}$, respectively) strongly and quickly decreased in the
376 biobarrier zone. The observed average removal rates from the biobarrier zone were
377 approximately $27 \text{ mg NO}_3^- \text{ l}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$, $33 \text{ mg NH}_4^+ \text{ l}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ and $16 \text{ mg PO}_4^{3-} \text{ l}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$, which
378 caused that the biological growth medium was continuously replaced in the biobarrier
379 in order to avoid rate limitations because of lack of nutrients. The bioavailability of the
380 nutrients in this type of soil under the EK conditions was previously reported [47].

381 Approximately 495 mg of N and 290 mg of P need to be replaced in the system during
382 the removal of approximately 27% of the hydrocarbon (expressed as COD). Also, it
383 must be noted that after two weeks the centre soil section was still neutral but it is
384 possible that the proton mobility could affect in longer experimental periods and cause
385 pH decrease. Thus, the biological growth medium replacement also included a buffer
386 solution to avoid strong pH changes.

387

388

389

390

391 **4. Conclusions**

392 Although the EK treatment caused pH variations near the electrodes, the pH remained
393 neutral in the central biobarrier area, thanks to the buffer effect of the biological growth
394 liquid medium, which was adequate for the biological process. Important biological
395 growth was observed in the biobarrier, the amount of biomass attached increased by
396 25% after the process, and part of the biofilm was detached. The EK transport processes
397 caused the surfactant and the excess biomass distribution across the soil. Consequently,
398 the combination of electromigration towards the anode and electroosmosis towards the
399 cathode would produce the movement of SDS/diesel micelles across the whole soil,
400 passing through the biobarrier in both directions, which resulted in a homogeneous
401 hydrocarbon removal of approximately 39% of the diesel biodegradable fraction in 336
402 h. The water, surfactant and inorganic nutrients were partially removed from the soil,
403 which should be continuously replaced to maintain adequate experimental conditions.
404 The economical applicability of this proposed technology would depend on the analysis
405 of the electrical power consumption and nutrient supply costs, compared to the cost
406 savings because of the in situ technique.

407 **5. Acknowledgments**

408 We acknowledge the financial support of the Spanish Government through projects
409 CTM 2010-18833, CTM 2013-45612-R and INNOCAMPUS.

410 **6. Author Disclosure Statement**

411 The authors declare no competing financial interest.

412 **7. References**

413 [1] K.R. Reddy, C. Cameselle, *Electrochemical Remediation Technologies for Polluted*
414 *Soils, Sediments and Groundwater*, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., Hoboken, New Jersey,
415 2009.

416 [2] H.I. Gomes, C. Dias-Ferreira, A.B. Ribeiro, Electrokinetic remediation of
417 organochlorines in soil: Enhancement techniques and integration with other remediation
418 technologies, *Chemosphere* 87 (2012) 1077-1090.

419 [3] E.G. Sumbarda-Ramos, O.X. Guerrero-Gutierrez, B. Murillo-Rivera, I. González,
420 M.T. Oropeza-Guzman, Electrokinetic treatment for clayed and sandy soils, *J. Appl.*
421 *Electrochem.* 40 (2010) 1255-1261.

422 [4] R.E. Saichek, K.R. Reddy, Electrokinetically enhanced remediation of hydrophobic
423 organic compounds in soils: A review, *Crit. Rev. Env. Sci. Tech.* 35 (2005) 115-192.

424 [5] A.T. Lima, P.J. Kleingeld, K. Heister, J.P.G. Loch, Removal of PAHs from
425 contaminated clayey soil by means of electro-osmosis, *Sep. Purif. Technol.* 79 (2011)
426 221-229.

427 [6] A.T. Yeung, Y.Y. Gu, A review on techniques to enhance electrochemical
428 remediation of contaminated soils, *J. Hazard. Mater.* 195 (2011) 11-29.

429 [7] E.K. Nyer, *In situ treatment technology*, Lewis Publishers, Boca Raton, Florida,
430 2001.

431 [8] R. Focht, J. Vogan, S. O'Hannesin, Field application of reactive iron walls for in-situ
432 degradation of volatile organic compounds in groundwater, *Remediation J.* 6 (1996) 81-
433 94.

434 [9] A.R. Gavaskar, Design and construction techniques for permeable reactive barriers,
435 *J. Hazard. Mater.* 68 (1999) 41-71.

436 [10] B.D.M. Painter, *Reactive Barriers: Hydraulic Performance and Design*
437 *Enhancements*, *Ground Water* 42 (2004) 609-617.

438 [11] M.M. Scherer, S. Richter, R.L. Valentine, P.J.J. Alvarez, *Chemistry and*
439 *Microbiology of Permeable Reactive Barriers for In Situ Groundwater Clean up*, *Crit.*
440 *Rev. Microbiol.* 26 (2000) 221-264.

- 441 [12] F.G. Simon, T. Meggyes, T. Tünnerneier, K. Czurda, K.E. Roehl, Long-term
442 behaviour of permeable reactive barriers used for the remediation of contaminated
443 groundwater, in: Proceedings of the 8 th International Conference on Radioactive Waste
444 Management and Environmental Remediation ICEM, 2001, p. 637.
- 445 [13] R. Thiruvengkatachari, S. Vigneswaran, R. Naidu, Permeable reactive barrier for
446 groundwater remediation, *J. Ind. Eng. Chem.* 14 (2008) 145-156.
- 447 [14] C.M. Kao, S.C. Chen, J.K. Liu, Development of a biobarrier for the remediation of
448 PCE-contaminated aquifer, *Chemosphere* 43 (2001) 1071-1078.
- 449 [15] C.M. Kao, S.C. Chen, J.Y. Wang, Y.L. Chen, S.Z. Lee, Remediation of PCE-
450 contaminated aquifer by an in situ two-layer biobarrier: Laboratory batch and column
451 studies, *Water Res.* 37 (2003) 27-38.
- 452 [16] S.J. Liu, B. Jiang, G.Q. Huang, X.G. Li, Laboratory column study for remediation
453 of MTBE-contaminated groundwater using a biological two-layer permeable barrier,
454 *Water Res.* 40 (2006) 3401-3408.
- 455 [17] H.Q. Ma, L.Y. Zhang, H.L. Zhang, S. Li, In situ remediation of petroleum
456 hydrocarbon contaminated groundwater using a novel biobarrier, *Chongqing Daxue*
457 *Xuebao/Journal of Chongqing University* 34 (2011) 99-104.
- 458 [18] K.D. Miller, P.C. Johnson, C.L. Bruce, Full-scale in-situ biobarrier demonstration
459 for containment and treatment of MTBE, *Remediation J.* 12 (2001) 25-36.
- 460 [19] S. Saponaro, M. Negri, E. Sezenna, L. Bonomo, C. Sorlini, Groundwater
461 remediation by an in situ biobarrier: A bench scale feasibility test for methyl tert-butyl
462 ether and other gasoline compounds, *J. Hazard. Mater.* 167 (2009) 545-552.
- 463 [20] S. Saponaro, A. Careghini, L. Romele, E. Sezenna, A. Franzetti, I. Gandolfi, M.
464 Daghigho, G. Bestetti, Remediation of groundwater polluted by gasoline-derived
465 compounds with biobarriers, *WIT Trans. Ecol. Envir.* 164 (2012) 439-449.

466 [21] H.I. Chung, M. Lee, A new method for remedial treatment of contaminated clayey
467 soils by electrokinetics coupled with permeable reactive barriers, *Electrochim. Acta* 52
468 (2007) 3427-3431.

469 [22] L. Cang, D.M. Zhou, D.Y. Wu, A.N. Alshawabkeh, Coupling electrokinetics with
470 permeable reactive barriers of zero-valent iron for treating a chromium contaminated
471 soil, *Separ. Sci. Technol.* 44 (2009) 2188-2202.

472 [23] Y.C. Huang, Y.W. Cheng, Electrokinetic-enhanced nanoscale iron reactive barrier
473 of trichloroethylene solubilized by Triton X-100 from groundwater, *Electrochim. Acta*
474 86 (2012) 177-184.

475 [24] Z. Li, S. Yuan, J. Wan, H. Long, M. Tong, A combination of electrokinetics and
476 Pd/Fe PRB for the remediation of pentachlorophenol-contaminated soil, *J. Contam.*
477 *Hydrol.* 124 (2011) 99-107.

478 [25] C. Ruiz, E. Mena, P. Cañizares, J. Villaseñor, M.A. Rodrigo, Removal of 2,4,6-
479 Trichlorophenol from Spiked Clay Soils by Electrokinetic Soil Flushing Assisted with
480 Granular Activated Carbon Permeable Reactive Barrier, *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.* 53 (2013)
481 840-846.

482 [26] J. Wan, Z. Li, X. Lu, S. Yuan, Remediation of a hexachlorobenzene-contaminated
483 soil by surfactant-enhanced electrokinetics coupled with microscale Pd/Fe PRB, *J.*
484 *Hazard. Mater.* 184 (2010) 184-190.

485 [27] C. Yuan, T.S. Chiang, The mechanisms of arsenic removal from soil by
486 electrokinetic process coupled with iron permeable reaction barrier, *Chemosphere* 67
487 (2007) 1533-1542.

488 [28] G.V. Chilingar, W.W. Loo, L.F. Khilyuk, S.A. Katz, Electrobioremediation of soils
489 contaminated with hydrocarbons and metals: Progress report, *Energ. Source.* 19 (1997)
490 129-146.

491 [29] Z.-Y. Dong, W.-H. Huang, D.-F. Xing, H.-F. Zhang, Remediation of soil co-
492 contaminated with petroleum and heavy metals by the integration of electrokinetics and
493 biostimulation, *J. Hazard. Mater.* 260 (2013) 399-408.

494 [30] M.J. Harbottle, G. Lear, G.C. Sills, I.P. Thompson, Enhanced biodegradation of
495 pentachlorophenol in unsaturated soil using reversed field electrokinetics, *J. Environ.*
496 *Manage.* 90 (2009) 1893-1900.

497 [31] T. Li, S. Guo, L. Zhang, F. Li, Electro-biodegradation of the oil-contaminated soil
498 through periodic electrode switching, in: *Proceedings of the 4th International*
499 *Conference on Bioinformatics and Biomedical Engineering iCBBE, 2010*, Article
500 number 5517376.

501 [32] F. Li, S. Guo, N. Hartog, Electrokinetics-enhanced biodegradation of heavy
502 polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in soil around iron and steel industries, *Electrochim.*
503 *Acta* 85 (2012) 228-234.

504 [33] Q. Luo, H. Wang, X. Zhang, X. Fan, Y. Qian, In situ bioelectrokinetic remediation
505 of phenol-contaminated soil by use of an electrode matrix and a rotational operation
506 mode, *Chemosphere* 64 (2006) 415-422.

507 [34] X. Fan, H. Wang, Q. Luo, J. Ma, X. Zhang, The use of 2D non-uniform electric
508 field to enhance in situ bioremediation of 2,4-dichlorophenol-contaminated soil, *J.*
509 *Hazard. Mater.* 148 (2007) 29-37.

510 [35] Q. Luo, X. Zhang, H. Wang, Y. Qian, The use of non-uniform electrokinetics to
511 enhance in situ bioremediation of phenol-contaminated soil, *J. Hazard. Mater.* 121
512 (2005) 187-194.

513 [36] X. Mao, J. Wang, A. Ciblak, E.E. Cox, C. Riis, M. Terkelsen, D.B. Gent, A.N.
514 Alshawabkeh, Electrokinetic-enhanced bioaugmentation for remediation of chlorinated
515 solvents contaminated clay, *J. Hazard. Mater.* 213-214 (2012) 311-317.

516 [37] J.L. Niqui-Arroyo, M. Bueno-Montes, R. Posada-Baquero, J.J. Ortega-Calvo,
517 Electrokinetic enhancement of phenanthrene biodegradation in creosote-polluted clay
518 soil, *Environ. Pollut.* 142 (2006) 326-332.

519 [38] J.L. Niqui-Arroyo, J.J. Ortega-Calvo, Integrating biodegradation and
520 electroosmosis for the enhanced removal of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons from
521 creosote-polluted soils, *J. Environ. Qual.* 36 (2007) 1444-1451.

522 [39] L.Y. Wick, L. Shi, H. Harms, Electro-bioremediation of hydrophobic organic soil-
523 contaminants: A review of fundamental interactions, *Electrochim. Acta* 52 (2007) 3441-
524 3448.

525 [40] S. Suni, E. Malinen, J. Kosonen, H. Silvennoinen, M. Romantschuk,
526 Electrokinetically enhanced bioremediation of creosote-contaminated soil: Laboratory
527 and field studies, *J. Environ. Sci. Heal. A* 42 (2007) 277-287.

528 [41] E. Moliterni, R.G. Jiménez-Tusset, M. Villar Rayo, L. Rodriguez, F.J. Fernández,
529 J. Villaseñor, Kinetics of biodegradation of diesel fuel by enriched microbial consortia
530 from polluted soils, *Int. J. Environ. Sci. Te.* 9 (2012) 749-758.

531 [42] K. Hayashi, A rapid determination of sodium dodecyl sulfate with methylene blue,
532 *Anal. Biochem.* 67 (1975) 503-506.

533 [43] E. Jurado, M. Fernández-Serrano, J. Núñez-Olea, G. Luzón, M. Lechuga,
534 Simplified spectrophotometric method using methylene blue for determining anionic
535 surfactants: Applications to the study of primary biodegradation in aerobic screening
536 tests, *Chemosphere* 65 (2006) 278-285.

537 [44] E. Moliterni, L. Rodriguez, F.J. Fernández, J. Villaseñor, Feasibility of different
538 bioremediation strategies for treatment of clayey and silty soils recently polluted with
539 diesel hydrocarbons, *Water, Air, and Soil Pollution* 223 (2012) 2473-2482.

540 [45] E. Mena, J. Villasenor, P. Canizares, M.A. Rodrigo, Influence of soil texture on the
541 electrokinetic transport of diesel-degrading microorganisms, Journal of Environmental
542 Science and Health - Part A Toxic/Hazardous Substances and Environmental
543 Engineering 46 (2011) 914-919.

544 [46] J. Kim, K. Lee, Effects of electric field directions on surfactant enhanced
545 electrokinetic remediation of diesel-contaminated sand column, Journal of Environmental
546 Science and Health - Part A Toxic/Hazardous Substances and Environmental Engineering
547 34 (1999) 863-877.

548

549 [47] E. Mena, J. Villaseñor, M.A. Rodrigo, P. Cañizares, Mobility and bioavailability of
550 nutrients and microbial electron acceptors in bioelectroremediation processes in soils,
551 in: A.N. Alshwabkeh (Ed.), 12th International Symposium on Electrokinetic
552 Remediation, Northeastern University, Boston, MA, USA, 2013, p. 49.

553

554

555

556

557

558

559

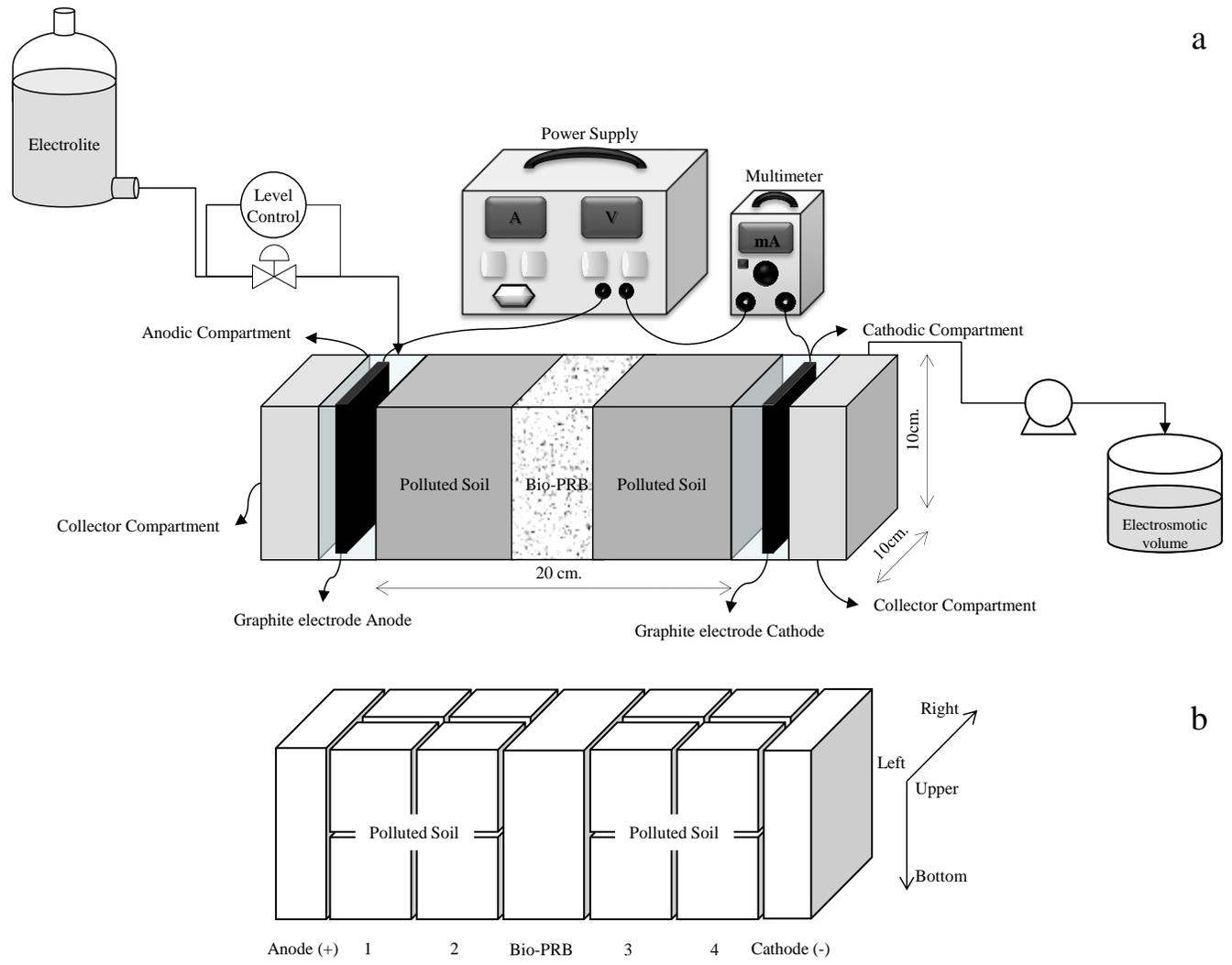
560

561

562

563

564



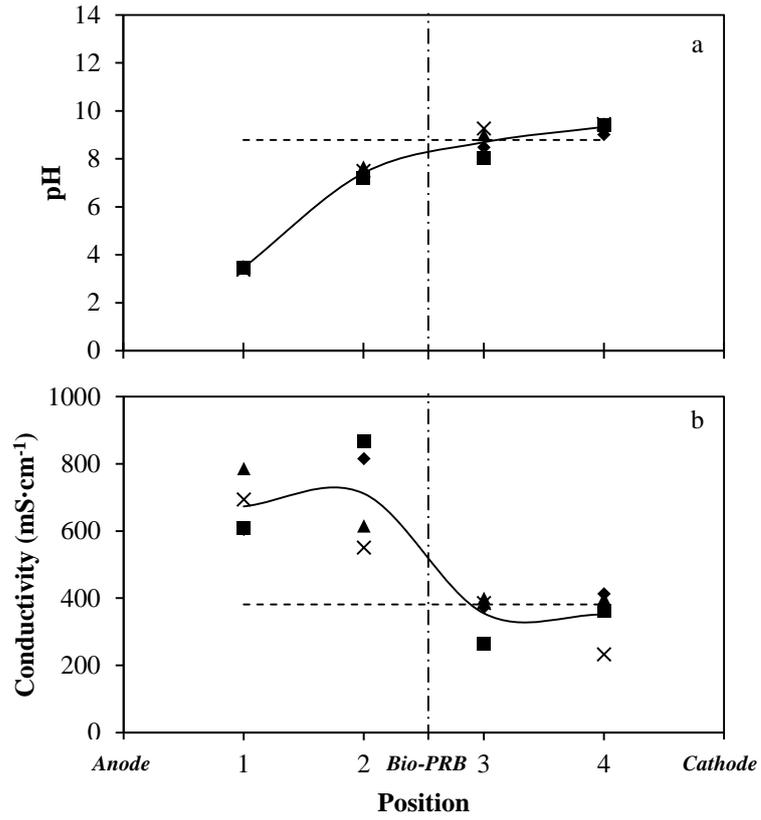
a

b

566

567

Figure 1



568

569

570

571

572

573

574

575

576

577

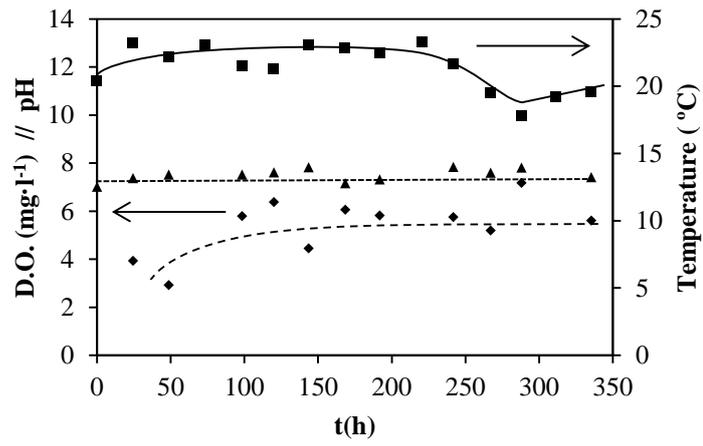
578

579

580

581

Figure 2



582

583

584

585

586

587

588

589

590

591

592

593

594

595

596

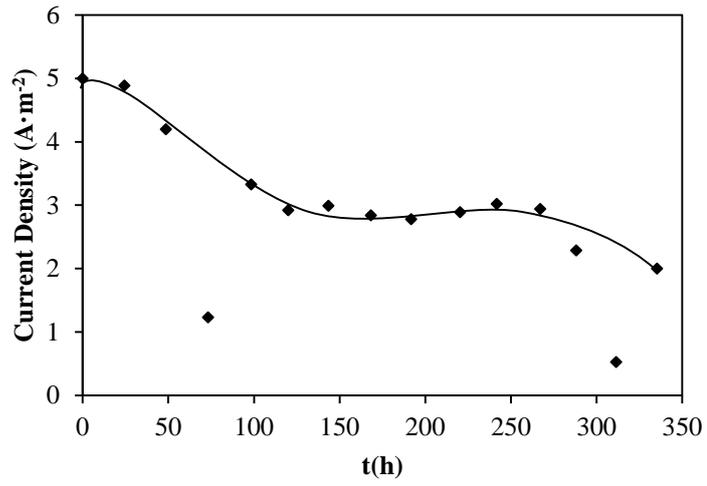
597

598

599

600

Figure 3



601

602

603

604

605

606

607

608

609

610

611

612

613

614

615

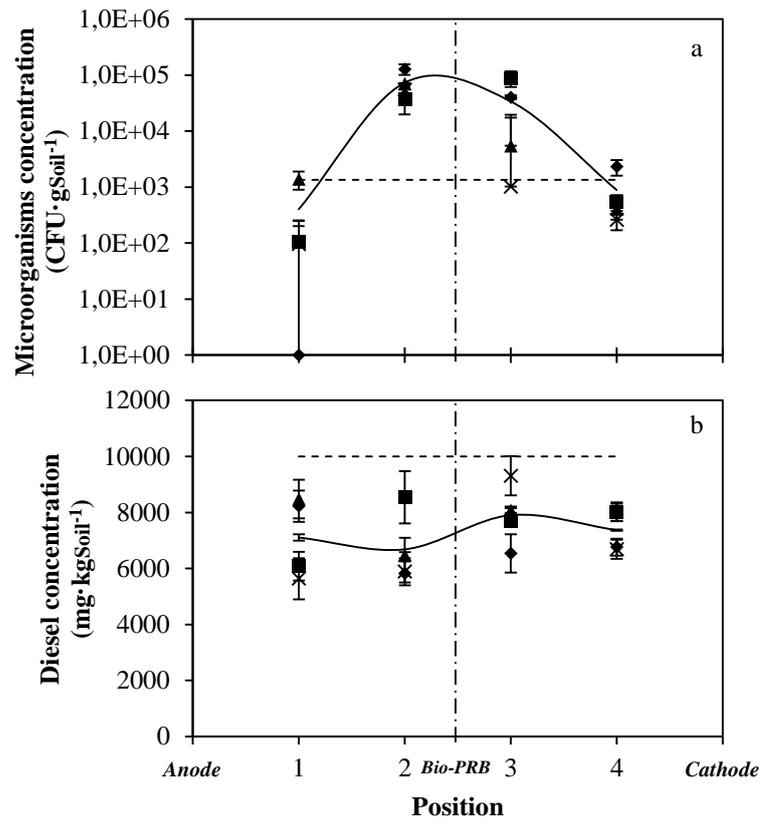
616

617

618

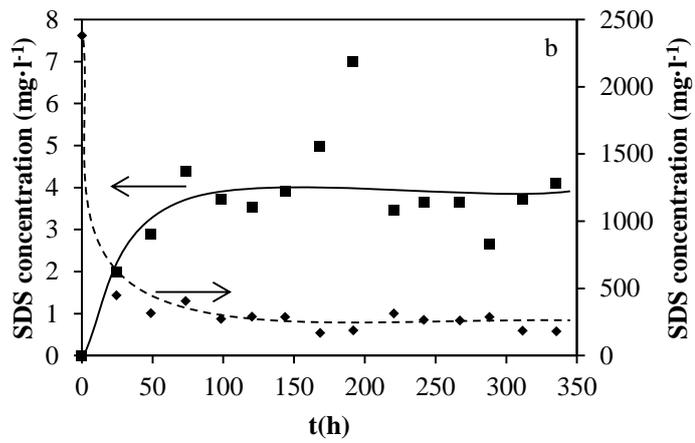
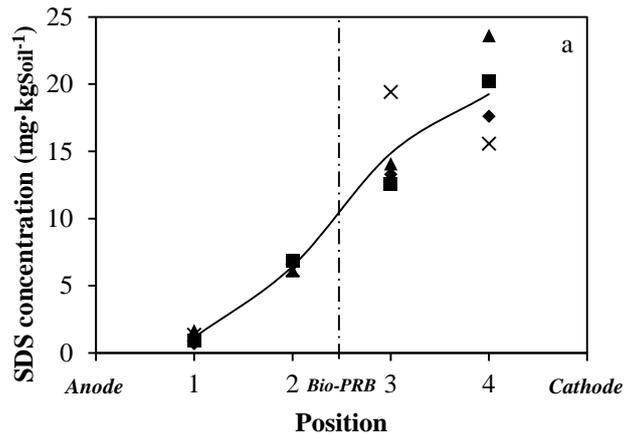
619

Figure 4



620
 621
 622
 623
 624
 625
 626
 627
 628
 629
 630
 631
 632
 633

Figure 5



634

635

636

637

638

639

640

641

642

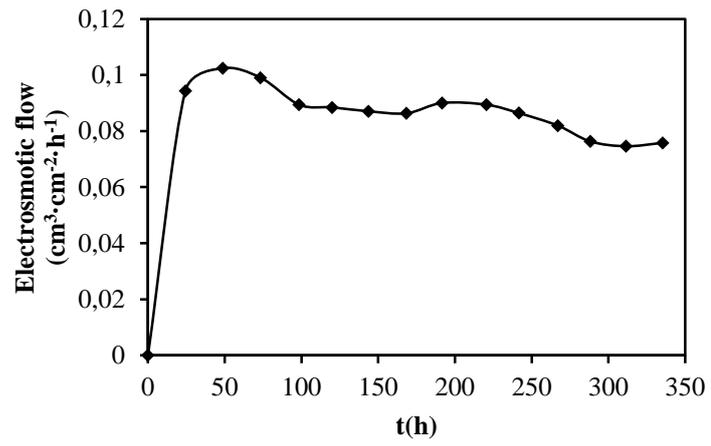
643

644

645

646

Figure 6



647

648

649

650

651

652

653

654

655

656

657

658

659

660

661

662

663

664

665

Figure 7