2

Improving the sustainability of granular iron/pumice systems for water treatment

Stefania Bilardi^a, Paolo S. Calabrò^a, Sabine Caré^b, Nicola Moraci^a, Chicgoua Noubactep^{c,d,*} 3 4 ^aUniversità degli Studi Mediterranea di Reggio Calabria, MECMAT, Mechanics and Materials Department, Faculty of 5 Engineering, Via Graziella, loc. Feo di Vito, 89122 Reggio Calabria, Italy. 6 ^bUniversité Paris-Est, Laboratoire Navier (UMR 8205), CNRS, ENPC, IFSTTAR, F-77455 Marne-la-Vallée, France; 7 ^cAngewandte Geologie, Universität Göttingen, Goldschmidtstraße 3, D-37077, Göttingen, Germany. 8 ^dKultur und Nachhaltige Entwicklung CDD e.V., Postfach 1502, D-37005 Göttingen, Germany 9 * e-mail: cnoubac@gwdg.de; Tel. +49 551 39 3191, Fax. +49 551 399379. 10 Abstract Metallic iron (Fe⁰) is currently used in subsurface and above-ground water filtration systems on a 11 pragmatic basis. Recent theoretical studies have indicated that, to be sustainable, such systems 12 should not contain more than 60 % Fe⁰ (vol/vol). The prediction was already validated in a Fe⁰/sand 13

system using methylene blue as an operational tracer. The present work is the first attempt to

experimentally verify the new concept using pumice particles. A well-characterized pumice sample

is used as operational supporting material and is mixed with 200 g of a granular Fe⁰, in volumetric

proportions, varying from 0 to 100 %. The resulting column systems are characterized (i) by the

time dependent evolution of their hydraulic conductivity and (ii) for their efficiency for the removal

of Cu^{II}, Ni^{II}, and Zn^{II} from a three-contaminants-solution (about 0.30 M of each metal). Test results

showed a clear sustainability of the long term hydraulic conductivity with decreasing Fe⁰/pumice

ratio. In fact, the pure Fe⁰ system clogged after 17 days, while the 25 % Fe⁰ system could operate

for 36 days. The experimental data confirmed the view that well-designed Fe⁰ PRBs may be

24

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

successful at removing both reducible and irreducible metal species.

^{*} Corresponding author: Tel. +49 551 39 3191, Fax. +49 551 399379; E-mail: cnoubac@gwdg.de.

Keywords: Column study, Hydraulic conductivity, Reactive walls, Pumice, Zerovalent iron.

2

3

1 Introduction

Filter materials for water treatment are ideally used in small quantities. The high required affinity of 4 5 used aggregates for efficient water treatment is not always readily available in natural materials. On 6 the other hand, efficient filters should be designed to make the best use of these latter with the 7 minimum of processing (Smith et al., 2001). Alternatively, readily available natural materials (e.g. 8 anthracite, gravel, pumice, sand) may be mixed to low cost synthetic aggregates/materials (activated 9 carbon, blast furnace slag, metallic iron) for improving the performance of the resulting water 10 treatment systems. The key properties determining the permeability, the stability and the longevity 11 (sustainability) of granular filters include porosity/texture of used particles, particle size, particle 12 shape and particle size distribution or material sorting (Haarhoff and Vessal, 2010; Kubare and 13 Haarhoff, 2010; Miyajima, 2012; Btatkeu et al., 2013; Caré et al., 2013). Two key interrelated 14 properties required for a sustainable filter include: (i) high permeability combined with resistance to 15 internal erosion of fines and (ii) low susceptibility to chemical attack (prerequisite p).

Granular metallic iron (Fe⁰), as currently used in water treatment, is a reactive material and its 16 17 oxidative dissolution by water is a volumetric expansive process (Pilling and Bedworth, 1923; Caré et al., 2008). This means that Fe^{0} is highly susceptible to chemical attack and the products of this 18 19 chemical reaction are fines/precipitates (iron hydroxides and oxides). In other words, 'prerequisite p' is not satisfied as the sustainability of Fe^0 filters is impaired by the same properties making Fe^0 20 21 an attractive material: the chemical reactivity of iron (Liu et al. 2013). However, without considering these key properties, Fe⁰ permeable reactive barriers (Fe⁰ PRBs) have become an 22 23 established technology for the treatment of contaminated groundwater (O'Hannesin and Gillham, 24 1998; Li et al., 2006; Bartzas and Komnitsas, 2010; Li and Benson, 2010; Comba et al., 2011; Gheju, 2011; Giles et al., 2011; Hashim et al., 2011; Ruhl et al., 2012). Currently, about 180 Fe⁰
 PRBs have been installed worldwide (ITRC, 2011).

The fundamental mechanisms of contaminant removal in Fe⁰ filtration systems are adsorption, co-3 4 precipitation and adsorptive size-exclusion (Noubactep, 2008; 2010; 2011). Contaminant removal 5 also implies iron corrosion (Lavine et el., 2001; You et al., 2005; Jiao et al., 2009; Ghauch et al., 6 2011; Gheju and Balcu 2011). Therefore, due to the volumetric expansive nature of this process 7 ('prerequisite p'), the remediation of contaminated groundwater necessarily results in the gradual clogging of the Fe⁰ PRB, and thus in the deterioration of the permeable barrier hydraulic 8 9 conductivity (permeability loss) over time (Zhang and Gillham, 2005; Courcelles et al., 2011; 10 Knowles et al., 2011; Jeen et al., 2012; Miyajima, 2012; Noubactep, 2013a; 2013b; 2013c).

The gradual clogging (permeability loss) of Fe^{0} filtration systems has several origins: (i) biological 11 12 activities like biofilm growth or biocorrosion, (ii) chemical processes like (hydr)oxide or calcite 13 precipitation, (iii) physical processes allowing the retention of fine particles in the PRB pores, and 14 (iv) production and accumulation of gases (mainly H₂). Pores clogging could generate a decrease in 15 treatment performance and the bypass of untreated contaminated groundwater (Rangsivek and Jekel 16 2005; Courcelles et al., 2011; Knowles et al., 2011; Jeen et al., 2012). Therefore, PRBs clogging 17 issues will require cost-intensive reactive material substitution, if satisfactory operational 18 performance has to be maintained. The present work is focused on the characterization of PRB 19 clogging due to pore filling by in-situ generated iron corrosion products neglecting the other 20 possible phenomena that could contribute to permeability reduction (i.e. gas retention, biocorrosion, 21 biofouling) (Henderson and Demond, 2011; Caré et al., 2013; Noubactep, 2013a).

The objective of the present work is to characterize the efficiency of Fe⁰/pumice granular mixtures for contaminant removal in column experiments containing 0 to 100 % Fe⁰ (vol/vol). Fe⁰ is admixed to a well-characterized pumice specimen (Moraci and Calabrò, 2010; Calabrò et al., 2012; Bilardi et al., 2013a), in different volumetric ratios. The model oxic solution (about 8 mg/L O₂) contained about 0.30 M of Cu^{II}, Ni^{II}, and Zn^{II}. The evolution of the systems is characterized by
 determining the (i) extent of contaminant removal (or retention), and (ii) variation of hydraulic
 conductivity.

4 2 Materials and methods

5 2.1 Chemicals

6 Copper(II) nitrate hydrate (purity 99.999), nickel(II) nitrate hexahydrate (purity 99.999) and zinc(II) 7 nitrate hexahydrate (purity 99.000) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich. The three heavy metals are 8 used for their different affinity to iron oxides (Wang and Qin, 2007; Moreira and Alleoni, 2010; 9 Vodyanitskii, 2010). In addition, a survey of the electrode potential (E^0) of involved couples 10 indicated differential redox behaviours. In fact, Zn^{II} ($E^0 = -0.763$ V) can not be reduced by Fe⁰ ($E^0 =$ 11 -0.440 V) while Cu ($E^0 = 0.337$ V) is readily reduced. The electrode potential of Ni ($E^0 = -0.250$ V) 12 is relatively close to that of Fe ($\Delta E^0 = 0.19$ V) such that quantitative reduction can not be expected.

13 2.2 Solid materials

Pumice: the used pumice originates from Lipari (Aeolian Islands, Sicily - Italy); its mineralogical 14 15 composition was determined as follows: SiO₂: 71.75 %; Al₂O₃: 12.33 %; K₂O: 4.47 %; Na₂O: 3.59 %; Fe₂O₃: 1.98 %; moreover it contains about 4 % of bound water (structural water) and traces of 16 17 other compounds (e.g. CaO, SO₃ MgO, TiO₂, FeO, MnO, P₂O₅). Although pumice exhibited a non negligible removal capacity for heavy metals (Moraci and Calabrò, 2010; Calabrò et al., 2012), it 18 19 was used here as an operational inert material with the virtual capacity of storing corrosion products 20 in its pores and retarding clogging (Moraci and Calabrò, 2010; Noubactep and Caré, 2010; 21 Noubactep et al. 2012a; Noubactep et al. 2012b). The material is characterized by uniform grain 22 size distribution. The mean grain size (d_{50}) is about 0.3 mm and the coefficient of uniformity (U) is 23 1.4 (see Supporting Information).

24 **Metallic iron**: the used Fe^0 is of the type FERBLAST RI 850/3.5, distributed by Pometon S.p.A.,

25 Mestre - Italy. The material contains mainly iron (> 99.74 %). Identified impurities included mainly

1 Mn (0.26 %), O, S and C. The material is characterized by uniform grain size distribution. The 2 mean grain size (d₅₀) is about 0.5 mm and the coefficient of uniformity (U) is 2 (see Supporting 3 Information).

The microstructure of used Fe⁰ and pumice was characterized using Mercury Intrusion Porosimetry
(MIP) measurements and by Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) observations (see Supporting
Information).

7 2.3 Columns experiments

8 The used solutions were obtained by dissolving copper nitrate, nickel nitrate and zinc nitrate in 9 distilled water. The molar concentration of the resulting solution was as follows: 0.27 M Cu, 0.29 10 M Ni and 0.37 M Zn. The corresponding mass concentrations are 17 mg/L Cu, 17 mg/L Ni, and 23 11 mg/L Zn.

No attempt was made to control the mass of dissolved oxygen (DO) present during the column experiments. The main source of molecular oxygen is the air in the headspace of the PE bottles. It can be assumed that the model solutions contained up to 8 mg/L DO. The role of dissolved oxygen in accelerating the kinetics of aqueous iron corrosion is well-documented (e.g. Cohen, 1959; Stratmann and Müller, 1994). Using an oxic solution is a tool to enable the characterization of clogging under relevant conditions at reasonable experimental durations.

Simplified model solutions (no carbonates, bicarbonates and relevant cations) were used as this work is a seminal one focused on the impact of molecular O_2 on the clogging process of Fe⁰ PRBs as influenced by pumice addition in various proportions. Testing more complex solutions relevant to simulate natural situation could be built on the results from these simplified systems.

Laboratory scale polymethyl methacrylate (Plexiglas) columns were operated in up-flow mode. The influent solution was pumped upwards from a single PE bottle using a precision peristaltic pump (Ismatec, ISM930). In all the tests the flow rate was maintained constant at a value of 0.5 mL/min.

Tygon tubes were used to connect inlet reservoir, pump, columns and outlet. Six plexiglas columns
 (50 cm long, 5.0 cm inner diameter) were used in the experiments (Fig. 1).

The ratio column diameter (D) to average material particle size (d) ensured the prevention of channelling and wall effects. In fact, used D/d ratio (actually 100 to 165) is by far larger than the threshold value of 50 (Badruzzaman and Westerhoff, 2005).

6 Six different systems were investigated (Systems A through F) (Tab. 1). System A was the operational reference system containing only pumice (0 % Fe⁰) and system F was a pure iron 7 column (100 % Fe⁰). The volumetric proportion of Fe⁰ in the 4 other systems was 10, 25, 50 and 8 75 % following a procedure recently presented (Noubactep and Caré, 2011; Noubactep et al. 9 2012b). In systems B to F, the mass of iron was fixed to 200 g. This mass represented either 100 % 10 11 of the reactive zone (rz) or the relevant volumetric proportion of rz (Fig. 1, Tab. 1). Tab. 1 12 summarizes the theoretical (rz_{theor:} i.e. the height of the column occupied by the reactive medium when Fe⁰ and pumice were used in series and not as a mixture) and measured (rz_{eff} i.e. the height of 13 14 the reactive zone in the column effectively measured) reactive zone for each individual systems.

The hydraulic conductivity was determined during the column tests, by either constant-head (k > 115 10^{-6} m/s) or variable-head (k < 10^{-6} m/s) permeability methods (Head and Keeton, 2008), at given 16 17 times to assess the permeability of the systems. During hydraulic conductivity determinations, the 18 test was interrupted and a tank or a burette, filled with the same contaminated solution used during 19 the test, was connected to the column in order to carry out the appropriate procedure. At the end of 20 the permeability test the flow in the column was re-established with the operation mode illustrated 21 before. The duration of these procedures was very limited therefore the disturbance to the test was fully acceptable. The column tests were performed at room temperature (21 ± 4 °C). Solution 22 23 samples for analysis were collected from the columns outlet at periodic intervals and the 24 experiments where prolonged until contaminant breakthrough (system A) or a significant loss of the

hydraulic conductivity (systems C to F) was observed; only system B was voluntarily stopped after
 90 days. Tab. SI summarizes the experimental research program (Supporting Information).

3 The aqueous concentrations of Cu, Ni and Zn were determined by Atomic Absorption
4 Spectrophotometry (AAS - Shimadzu AA – 6701F) using conventional Standard Methods (APHA
5 2005).

6 2.4 Expression of the experimental results

In order to characterize the magnitude of tested systems for contaminant removal, the removal efficiency (E) and the specific removal (E_s) were calculated using Eq. 1 and Eq. 2 (Moraci and Calabrò, 2010; Btatkeu et al., 2013).

(1)

(2)

$$E = m_{\rm rem}/m_{\rm in}*100$$

11
$$E_s = m_{rem}/m_{Fe} * 100$$

where m_{in} is the mass of contaminant flowed into the column, m_{rem} is the mass of removed contaminant, and m_{Fe} the mass of Fe⁰ present in the column.

14 **3** Results and discussion

15 **3.1** Contaminant removal

The presentation is based on the concept that tested contaminants are removed in Fe^{0} columns (at pH > 5) by adsorption, co-precipitation and adsorptive size-exclusion (Noubactep, 2008; 2010; 2011; 2013a). Given the importance of the pH value for this concept, the results of pH monitoring are presented first.

20 3.1.1 pH value

Figure 2 summarizes the results of the evolution of the pH value in all investigated systems. It is shown that in the reference system (100 % pumice), the initial pH (6.3) decreased to 5.8 and remained constant for the entire column tests duration. The slight pH decrease could be attributed to acidic sites at the pumice surface (Eq. 3). In all other systems, the pH value first increased to value 1 > 9.0 and progressively decreased to values close to 6.0 - 7.0. The observed pH increase is certainly 2 due to iron corrosion which consumes H⁺ (Eq. 4).

$$SiO_{2(s)} + 2 H_2O \Rightarrow H_4SiO_4(aq)$$
 (3)

(4)

4

$$\mathrm{Fe}^{0}$$
 + 2 H⁺ \Rightarrow Fe²⁺ + H₂

5 The subsequent progressive decrease of the pH value is consistent with slower kinetics of iron 6 corrosion due to the formation of an oxide scale at the Fe⁰ surface (Cohen, 1959; Evans, 1969; 7 Aleksanyan et al., 2007; Nesic, 2007). The most important issue from Fig. 2 is that for all Fe⁰-8 containing systems, the effluent pH value is higher than 5.0. This suggests that contaminant 9 removal by adsorption, co-precipitation and adsorptive size-exclusion (Noubactep, 2011) could be 10 quantitative within these columns.

11 **3.1.2 Iron release**

Figure 3 summarizes the results of the evolution of dissolved iron concentration in the effluent. It is 12 evident from Fig. 3a, that the highest iron release was observed in the system with the lowest Fe^{0} 13 ratio (B, $10 \% \text{ Fe}^{0}$). The lowest Fe⁰ ratio corresponds to the highest amount of pumice (243 g - Tab. 14 1), acidifying the system after Eq. 3. The transport of iron corrosion products is certainly favoured 15 16 at low pH values and may be favoured by larger porosity (Nimmo, 2004; Woudberg and Du Plessis, 17 2008; Glover and Walker, 2009). In other words, in all other systems, even more iron could be 18 dissolved but it is retained within the system by (i) adsorption onto available iron oxides or onto 19 pumice, or (ii) precipitation as iron (hydr)oxides (Miyajima, 2012; Miyajima and Noubactep, 2013). 20 It is very important to notice that the extent of iron release depends primarily on the intrinsic reactivity of used Fe⁰. Although data on iron release from column experiments are available in the 21 22 literature (e.g. Westerhoff and James, 2003) it is impossible to make a quantitative comparison. In fact, a parameter (or an index) to characterize the intrinsic reactivity of Fe⁰ is still lacking 23 (Noubactep et al., 2009; Noubactep, 2012). 24

Fig. 3b shows that, apart from system B (10:90), in all other systems less than 1 mg/L iron was released in the effluent solution. It is interesting to note that, for the remaining systems, the two columns with the largest proportion of Fe^0 (50 and 100 %) exhibited the highest iron release.

4 **3.1.3 Metal concentration**

Table 2 summarizes the results of the removal of Cu^{II} , Ni^{II} and Zn^{II} in terms of removal efficiency E, and of specific removal efficiency E_s for all the 5 systems containing Fe^0 . It should be kept in mind that the experimental duration was variable as most of the experiments were stopped because of significant permeability loss (see Tab. 1). Nevertheless, it can be seen that 367 to 2881 mg of individual contaminants flowed into the columns and retained with an efficiency E > 90.0 %. Moreover, the specific efficiency (E_s) varied from 1.7 to 13.6 mg contaminant per g of Fe^0 .

An important feature from Tab. 2 regards the suitability of E_s values (Eq. 2) for the characterization 11 of processes occurring in Fe⁰/H₂O systems (Btatkeu et al., 2013; Miyajima and Noubactep, 2013). 12 Normalizing the extent of contaminant removal (m_{rev} - Eq. 2) by the available amount of Fe⁰ (here 13 14 200 g) is only valid, if there is a clear linear relationship between iron corrosion and contaminant removal. Such a relationship has not been demonstrated in the Fe⁰ remediation literature despite 15 16 repeated reports on reaction orders. Moreover, an adequate argumentation for adsorptive processes 17 has been simply transposed to systems, where adsorption is only one (and not necessarily the 18 dominant) removal mechanism.

In pure adsorption systems (e.g. activated carbon, iron oxide, clay) were the whole mass of adsorbing material is present at the start of the removal process (t_0 or t = 0), its adsorption capacity can be exhausted with time. In a Fe⁰ system on the contrary, adsorbing species are generated in situ after the start of the experiment ($t > t_0$). Accordingly the extent of contaminant removal depends on the kinetics of iron corrosion and the affinity of contaminants for corrosion products as far as only adsorption is concerned. Additionally, contaminants are also removed by co-precipitation and sizeexclusion. In other words, normalizing the extent of contaminant removal by the Fe⁰ amount requires at least the knowledge of the intrinsic reactivity of used Fe⁰ and the impact of operational
 parameters thereon. The most relevant operational parameter in the present work is the volumetric
 Fe⁰:pumice ratio.

Figure 4 shows that the influence of the volumetric Fe⁰:pumice ratio on the removal efficiency of 4 Cu^{2+} , Ni^{2+} , Zn^{2+} is very similar to the influence of the adsorbent amount on adsorption of Mn^{2+} by 5 6 clay minerals (Goldani et al., 2013). These authors reported a decreasing trend of the adsorption capacity (q_e value / mg g^{-1}) for Mn²⁺ with increasing adsorbent amount (50 to 500 mg). This 7 8 observation was mainly rationalized by the fact that a large adsorbent amount reduces the 9 unsaturation of the adsorption sites. Correspondingly, the number of such sites per unit mass 10 decreases resulting in comparatively less adsorption at higher adsorbent amount. In the present work, the Fe⁰ amount is constant (200 g) and only its volumetric ratio in the mixture to pumice 11 varies. Moreover, a higher Fe^0 ratio is coupled to a shorter reactive zone (e.g. 2.6 cm for 100 % Fe^0 12 and 26.2 cm for 10 % Fe⁰). Thus, a higher Fe⁰ volumetric ratio may create particle aggregation 13 14 (cementation), decreasing the total number of adsorption sites, decreasing the porosity of the 15 reactive zone, and increasing the diffusion path to adsorption sites. Altogether, these factors 16 contribute to the decrease of the amount of contaminant adsorbed, assuming that the same amount of adsorbent is generated in all systems. As summarized in Tab. 2, except system B (10 % Fe⁰), 17 18 metal removal was quantitative in all other systems.

19 Contaminant breakthrough was observed in other systems only short before the experiment was 20 stopped and was mainly attributed to transport through preferential flow paths (Miyajima and 21 Noubactep, 2013 and ref. cited therein). Even under such conditions the concentration of Cu and Zn 22 remained below 1 mg/L whereas the concentration of Ni exceeded 4 mg/L for system F (100 % Fe⁰) 23 and system D (50 % Fe⁰) but not for system E (75 % Fe⁰). This anomaly in the sequence D/E/F 24 confirms that the process responsible for metal breakthrough near system clogging is probably a 25 meta-stable one (preferential flow).

1 **3.2.4** Mechanism of contaminant removal

The experimental data previously described has shown that contaminants are quantitatively removed in columns with volumetric Fe⁰ ratio higher than 10 % until the system is almost clogged. In the system with 10 % Fe⁰, quantitative iron release is observed (Fig. 5). Quantitative iron release coincided with minimal contaminant removal (or contaminant breakthrough) as discussed above. This section further discusses the behaviour of system B (Fig. 5a).

The ionic radii of the investigated cations increase in the order $Ni^{2+} < Cu^{2+} < Zn^{2+}$. The metallic ions are removed by four different mechanisms (Herbert, 1996; Wang and Qin, 2007; Vodyanitskii, 2010): (i) co-precipitation with iron hydroxides, (ii) adsorption onto the (hydr)oxide surfaces, (iii) isomorphic substitution for Fe in the iron oxide structure, or adsorptive size-exclusion. In multielement systems, the most common reported affinity sequence for iron oxides and soils is Cu > Zn > Ni (Moreira and Alleoni, 2010). This trend is confirmed by Fig. 5b.

13 Fig. 5a illustrates the fact that contaminants breakthrough occurs when increased iron release is 14 observed. For example, no significant breakthrough was observed in system B until t=30 days 15 although up to 8 mg/L Fe was released into the outlet solution. For t > 30 days Zn and Ni 16 breakthrough occurs and the breakthrough magnitude is in agreement with the affinity sequence for iron oxides (Cu > Zn > Ni). Accordingly, breakthrough is first observed for less bounded Ni 17 18 followed by Zn. As concerning Cu no breakthrough was observed through the end of the experiment. At first glance, this observation could be attributed to Cu^{II} cementation at the surface of 19 Fe⁰ in the column. In fact, Cu reduction to elemental Cu (Cu⁰), as mentioned above, is very 20 21 favourable and is used in many hydrometallurgical processes (Gros et al., 2011a; 2011b). However, because Cu removal in this study occurred at pH > 5 (section 3.2.1), the Fe⁰ surface was necessarily 22 covered by iron (hydr)oxides (Aleksanyan et al., 2007; Nesic, 2007) and was not directly accessible 23 to Cu^{II} (Ni^{II} and Zn^{II}). More detailed discussion on the removal of metallic ions by Fe⁰ in multi-24

elements system is given for instance by Cantrell et al.(1995), Qiu et al. (2000), Bartzas et al.
 (2006), Komnitsas et al. (2006; 2007) and Scott et al. (2011).

It should be recalled that in a Fe⁰/H₂O system, so-called structural Fe^{II} (adsorbed Fe^{II}) is available 3 and is, in some circumstances, a more efficient reducing agent than Fe^0 (White & Peterson, 1996). 4 Accordingly, Cu^{II} might be quantitatively removed within the oxide scale on iron. Even if Cu^{II} is 5 6 reduced at the surface of Fe⁰, it will be enmeshed within the matrix of iron oxides as corrosion proceeds. In conclusion, aqueous Cu^{II} is also permanently removed by the process of iron corrosion 7 (enmeshment or co-precipitation). It should be also remembered that the stronger affinity of Cu^{II} for 8 9 iron oxides (adsorption) is sufficient to rationalize the absence of Cu breakthrough for 90 days (Fig. 10 5b).

11 **3.3 Hydraulic conductivity**

The results presented in Fig. 6 clearly demonstrate that granular Fe⁰/pumice mixtures are more 12 sustainable in terms of long term permeability than the pure Fe⁰ PRB for the decontamination of 13 14 used model solution. Fig. 6a shows that the pure pumice systems exhibited an initial porosity of 72.6 % while the porosity of the pure Fe^0 system was 49.6 % (Tab. 1). Fig. 6b shows that the 100 % 15 Fe⁰ system was clogged after 17 days; the 25 % Fe⁰ system after 37 days and the 10 % Fe⁰ system 16 was still highly permeable after 90 days. Even though the 10 % Fe⁰ system was not efficient at 17 18 removing Ni and Zn, such systems could be used to generate dissolved Fe for other purposes 19 including: (i) in-situ generation of Fe for contaminant removal (Khan et al., 2000; Pokhrel and Viraraghavan, 2009) and (ii) oxygen scavenger to sink the O₂ concentrations in above-ground 20 21 devices (Mackenzie et al., 1999; Noubactep and Schöner, 2010; Noubactep et al., 2010).

A fundamental feature from Fig. 6a is that it combines contaminant removal (here E_s value for Zn) and initial porosity. The initial porosity decreases linearly with increasing Fe^0 ratio. This behaviour is rationalized by the fact that a compact material (Fe^0) is admixed to a porous one (pumice). The initial pore volume will be progressively filled by in situ generated iron corrosion products (Caré et al., 2013) which adsorb and co-precipitate metal ions. Reduced pore volume increases sizeexclusion efficiency while decreasing permeability. The challenge of designing hybrid Fe^0 /material systems is to find out the optimal system concealing sustained permeability and efficient contaminant removal. Fig. 6a confirms/shows unambiguously that such a system should contain as less Fe^0 (volumetric proportion) as possible (Caré et al., 2013; Miyajima and Noubactep, 2013).

Considering the factor of 65 times to account for the differential kinetics of Fe^{0} oxidation under 6 7 oxic (8 mg/L O₂) and anoxic (0 mg/L O₂) conditions (Cohen, 1959), it can be argued that the 8 shortest experimental duration (17 days) reported here could corresponds to about 1105 days under 9 anoxic conditions. These are more than 3 years necessary to observe clogging under the 10 experimental conditions of this work after 17 days. This result justifies the use of oxic conditions to 11 investigate target processes under laboratory conditions. By performing parallel experiments with 12 various amounts of molecular O₂ (Vidic and Suidan, 1991) a better characterization of the impact of the availability of molecular O₂ is possible. This effort is even urgently needed as Fe⁰ beds have 13 14 been proposed for an array of applications varying from pure anoxic (groundwater remediation) to 15 oxic (household filter) systems.

16 Fig. 7 depicts the evolution of the experimental duration and the residual porosity (modelled, see below) as a function of the initial porosity of the columns containing Fe⁰. The lowest porosity (49.6 17 %) corresponds to system F (100 % Fe^{0}) and the largest (70.5 %) to system B (10 % Fe^{0}). It is seen 18 that the experimental duration (system sustainability) increases almost linearly with decreasing Fe⁰ 19 proportion from 100 to 25 %. From 25 to 10 % Fe⁰ an abrupt increase of the experimental duration 20 21 is observed. These results are qualitatively confirmed by the evolution of the residual porosity for 22 $\eta = 6.4$ (Fig. 7a) where η is the coefficient of volumetric expansion of rust specimens (Caré et al., 23 2008).

The residual porosity $(\Phi(t)/\Phi_0)$ is defined as the ratio of the porosity at time t $\Phi(t)$ to the initial porosity Φ_0 induced by the formation of rust leading to porosity loss according to:

$$\frac{\Phi(t)}{\Phi_0} = 1 - \frac{\Delta V}{\Phi_0 \cdot V}$$
(5)

2 Where $\Delta V = (\eta - 1)^* V$ is the effective volumetric expansion of the initial volume V of Fe⁰.

The residual porosity which is an indicator of the hydraulic conductivity, is given for all systems in 3 4 Fig. 7. The observed time-dependant decrease of the hydraulic conductivity is attributed to two 5 different factors: (i) the decrease of the effective pore-size as concentric layers of iron oxides are formed on Fe⁰, and (ii) the filling of pores by precipitated Fe species that escaped out of the oxide 6 7 scale. Permeability loss due to in-situ generated particles is retarded when larger particle sizes are 8 used. Accordingly, as the grain-size increases, the loss of hydraulic conductivity should follow the 9 inverse trend. In other words, the kinetics of the occupation of the voids depends on the grain-size 10 of used particles (effective pore-size).

Theoretically, for spherical grains of uniform size (monosized), the grain diameter will not impact initial porosity but only the void diameter. However, the total porosity generally increases with increasing sorting (grain size distribution), decreases with increasing sphericity and roundness of particles, decreases with the increasing of relative density (closer packing) (Gibb et al., 1984). All these aspects have to be considered to discuss literature results as well.

It appears from Fig. 7a that the residual porosity tends to zero $(\Phi(t)/\Phi_0 = 0 \text{ or permeability loss})$ for 16 clogged systems (% Fe⁰ \ge 25 – clogging precedes Fe⁰ depletion). For Fe⁰ < 25 %, $\Phi(t)/\Phi_0 \neq 0$ at Fe⁰ 17 18 depletion in accordance with the evolution of the hydraulic conductivity and the test duration. At 19 first glance, this observation could be misinterpreted as the confirmation of the proposed model. But under the experimental conditions, Fe⁰ was not completely depleted. Accordingly, this experimental 20 21 evidence rather suggests that the entrance zone of the column could have been rapidly clogged due 22 to elevated O₂ levels (Mackenzie et al., 1999). The presence of O₂ leads to iron (hydr)oxides with higher expansion coefficient (η) implying a more rapid decrease of the residual porosity (Fig. 7b). 23

Fig. 7b depicts the modelled variation of the residual porosity for 3 different values of η (2.08, 3.03 and 6.4). It is seen that under ideal conditions (uniform corrosion), the sustainability of a Fe⁰ filter depends on the availability of O₂. Accordingly the most sustainable system is the one operating under conditions where Fe₃O₄ (η = 2.08) is the major iron corrosion product (anoxic conditions). These conditions could be obtained in a second column in series with a first one acting as O₂ scavenger.

7 The fact that observed preservation of permeability with time is coupled with a decrease of 8 contaminant removal efficiency suggests that for any Fe^{0} /additive couple, an increase of filter 9 sustainability with decreasing Fe^{0} proportion down to a threshold value (here 25 % Fe^{0}) would be 10 observed.

This study has traceably demonstrated that admixing non expansive material with Fe^0 is a tool to increase permeable reactive barriers sustainability. In other words, an efficient but not sustainable system (100 % Fe^0) is transformed into an efficient and more sustainable one by admixing a certain volumetric proportion of pumice (here ≥ 75 %). The admixing material (here pumice) should necessarily be less expensive than Fe^0 ; thus, cost savings could be regarded as a positive side effect of increased performance.

17 **3.4** Significance for future works

18 This study is a continuation of a broad-based work aiming at designing non-site-specific Fe^{0} 19 filtration systems for water treatment and environmental remediation in its third step.

The first step consisted in identifying the common underlying mechanisms for contaminant removal (Noubactep, 2007; 2008; 2010; 2011). Adsorption, co-precipitation and size-exclusion were identified as fundamental paths for water treatment in Fe⁰ packed beds (Noubactep, 2011). This result belittled the importance of chemical reduction in the process of contaminant removal in Fe⁰/H₂O systems and clearly demonstrated that Fe⁰ is not a relevant reducing agent under environmental conditions. The strong fact that Fe⁰ is the parent of all reducing species (e.g. Fe^{II}, Fe₃O₄, green rust, H/H₂) should never be misinterpreted as 'contaminant reduction coupled with
 electrochemical iron corrosion' (Noubactep, 2013b; 2013c).

The second step consisted in writing the dimensionless equation of a Fe⁰ packed beds (Noubactep 3 and Caré, 2010; Noubactep et al., 2010; Noubactep and Caré, 2011; Noubactep et al., 2012a; 4 5 Noubactep et al., 2012b; Caré et al., 2013). It is important to notice, that the equation is based on 6 the volumetric fraction of the packed beds available for 'storing' corrosion products (total porosity) (Noubactep and Caré, 2011). This theoretical work has shown that the volumetric ratio of Fe⁰ in a 7 8 granular mixture should ideally not exceed 60 %. The basics for a systematic research for non-sitespecific Fe⁰ filtration systems were established. In particular each Fe⁰ material should be 9 10 characterized for its intrinsic reactivity; all used materials should be characterized for their form, 11 homogeneity and shape (Crane and Noubactep, 2012; Noubactep et al., 2012a; Caré et al., 2013).

12 The current third step consists in validation the equation of the column (Calabrò et al., 2012; Bilardi 13 et al., 2013a; Bilardi et al., 2013b). In this effort methylene blue (MB) was positively tested as an operational tracer (Miyajima, 2012; Btatkeu et al., 2013; Miyajima and Noubactep, 2013). 14 Experiments with MB confirmed theoretical predictions that a pure Fe⁰ bed is not sustainable. 15 Moreover, it could be shown that the optimal volumetric Fe⁰ ratio for sustainable filters is lower 50 16 %. Given the large density difference between Fe^0 (7.8 g cm³) and commonly tested additives (e.g. 17 anthracite, gravel, pumice, sand) ($< 3.0 \text{ g cm}^3$), this results clearly shows that the commonly used 18 1:1 weight ratio is not optimal as well. Experiments with MB suggested that the optimal Fe^{0} 19 volumetric ratio in a dual Fe^0 /sand system is comprised between 30 and 50 %. 20

The present work has systematically tested the Fe^{0} /pumice system for the first time using Cu, Ni and Zn as model contaminants. The results showed that the optimal Fe^{0} ratio for a sustainable filter is 25 %. This result could be regarded as close to 30 % as determined by Miyajima and Noubactep (2013). However, under their experimental conditions, these authors could not experimentally document permeability loss. Accordingly, the present work has provided the most reliable optimal Fe⁰ ratio for sustainable Fe⁰ filtration systems. In other words, this work proposes (provides) the following rule of thumb for further research (including pilot plant studies): "mix one volume of Fe⁰ and 3 volumes of the additive(s)". The universal validity of this rule of thumb relies on the evidence that it is based on a dimensionless equation. Thus, if a filter has to contain 1 kg Fe⁰, the volume occupied by this Fe⁰ mass is used as unit and three units volume of the additives of comparable size (and shape) are to be added and homogenized.

7 4. Concluding remarks

Environmental remediation and water treatment using metallic iron (Fe⁰) in packed beds is an 8 9 established technology. Despite two decades of active research, this technology is still mostly 10 regarded as an innovative one or has been simply declared a developed one. However, a developed 11 technology is a technology that has established the scientific basis of the involved processes. This work has clearly confirmed theoretical predictions that: (i) pure Fe^0 beds are not sustainable, (ii) a 12 bed made up of 25 % Fe⁰ (vol/vol) and 75 % pumice is probably the most efficient system 13 14 concealing sustained permeability and increased efficiency for contaminant removal, (iii) the specificity of contaminant removal in Fe⁰ filters fundamentally depends on the adsorptive affinity to 15 16 iron oxides (and not on the redox affinity).

17 The knowledge that the most sustainable filter is made up of more than 70 % (vol/vol) of pumice corroborates the view that sustainable Fe⁰/aggregate filters are Fe⁰-amended aggregate filters (e.g. 18 Fe⁰-amended pumice filter or Fe⁰-amended sand filter). Most common natural aggregates are 19 anthracite, sand, gravel, pumice or crushed rock. However, manufactured aggregates (e.g. blast 20 furnace slag) can also be used as well. Basically there is an infinite number of Fe⁰-amended filters 21 22 as relevant aggregates may include activated carbon and biomaterial (e.g. wood and coconut shell). A Fe⁰-amended filter can be regarded as a size-exclusion system in which size exclusion is 23 24 improved by in situ generated iron corrosion products. This is a typical case of self-filtration. The challenge for future works is the proper design of these filters. 25

Further research at laboratory scale is needed to develop methodologies for the Fe⁰ filter design.
 This effort should be accompanied by numerical modelling. Pilot scale installations are needed
 afterwards to fine tune determine the practicality of several aspects optimised at lab scale.

4 Acknowledgements

5 The authors are grateful to Dott Giuseppe Panzera for its essential assistance during this research 6 activity and to the director and officials of the environmental protection sector of the province of 7 Reggio Calabria for authorisation to use their atomic absorption spectrophotometer. SEM 8 observations were performed at laboratory LMT Cachan, ENS de Cachan / CNRS / Université 9 Pierre et Marie Curie (Paris 6), France. The manuscript was improved by the insightful comments 10 of anonymous reviewers from Journal of Environmental Management.

11 **References**

- Aleksanyan A.Y., Podobaev A.N., Reformatskaya I.I., 2007. Steady-state anodic dissolution of iron
 in neutral and close-to-neutral media. Protection of Metals 43, 66–69.
- APHA, AWWA, WEF, 2005. Standard Methods for the examination of water and wastewater, 21st
 ed. American Public Health Association, Washington D.C. (USA).
- Badruzzaman M., Westerhoff P., 2005. The application of rapid small-scale column tests in iron based packed bed arsenic treatment systems, ACS Symposium Series, 915 (Advances in
 Arsenic Research): 268–283.
- Bartzas G., Komnitsas K., 2010. Solid phase studies and geochemical modelling of low-cost
 permeable reactive barriers. J. Hazard. Mater. 183, 301–308.
- Bartzas G., Komnitsas K., Paspaliaris I., 2006. Laboratory evaluation of Fe⁰ barriers to treat acidic
 leachates. Miner. Eng. 19, 505–514.
- 23 Bilardi S., Calabrò P.S., Caré S., Moraci N., Noubactep C., 2013a. Effect of pumice and sand on the
- sustainability of granular iron beds for the removal of Cu^{II}, Ni^{II}, and Zn^{II}. Clean Soil, Air,
- 25 Water, doi: 10.1002/clen.201100472.

1	Bilardi S., Amos R.T., Blowes D.W., Calabrò P.S., Moraci N., 2013b. Reactive transport modeling
2	of ZVI column experiments for nickel remediation. Ground Water Monit. Remed. 33, 97–104.
3	Btatkeu K. B.D., Miyajima K., Noubactep C., Caré S., 2013. Testing the suitability of metallic iron
4	for environmental remediation: Discoloration of methylene blue in column studies. Chem.
5	Eng. J. 215-216, 959–968.
6	Calabrò P.S., Moraci N., Suraci P., 2012. Estimate of the optimum weight ratio in zero-valent
7	iron/pumice granular mixtures used in permeable reactive barriers for the remediation of
8	nickel contaminated groundwater. J. Hazard. Mater. 207-208, 111-116.
9	Cantrell K.J., Kaplan D.I., Wietsma T.W., 1995. Zero-valent iron for the in situ remediation of
10	selected metals in groundwater. J. Hazard. Mater. 42, 201–212.
11	Caré S., Crane R., Calabrò P.S., Ghauch A., Temgoua E., Noubactep C., 2013. Modelling the
12	permeability loss of metallic iron water filtration systems. Clean - Soil, Air, Water, doi:
13	10.1002/clen.201200167.
14	Caré S., Nguyen Q.T., L'Hostis V., Berthaud Y., 2008. Mechanical properties of the rust layer
15	induced by impressed current method in reinforced mortar. Cement Concrete Res. 38, 1079-
16	1091.
17	Cohen M., 1959. The formation and properties of passive films on iron. Can. J. Chem. 37, 286–291.
18	Comba S., Di Molfetta A., Sethi R., 2011. A Comparison between field applications of nano-,
19	micro-, and millimetric zero-valent iron for the remediation of contaminated aquifers. Water
20	Air Soil Pollut. 215, 595–607.
21	Courcelles B., Modaressi-Farahmand-Razavi A., Gouvenot A., Esnault-Filet A., 2011. Influence of
22	precipitates on hydraulic performance of permeable reactive barrier filters. Int. J. Geomech.
23	11, 142–151.
24	Crane R.A., Noubactep C.; 2012: Elemental metals for environmental remediation: learning from
25	hydrometallurgy. Fresenius Environ. Bull. 21, 1192–1196.

- 1 Evans U.R., 1969. Mechanism of rusting. Corros. Sci. 9, 813–821.
- Ghauch A., Abou Assi H., Baydoun H., Tuqan A.M., Bejjani A., 2011. Fe⁰-based trimetallic
 systems for the removal of aqueous diclofenac: Mechanism and kinetics. Chem. Eng. J. 172,
 1033–1044.
- Gheju M., 2011. Hexavalent chromium reduction with zero-valent iron (ZVI) in aquatic systems.
 Water Air Soil Pollut. 222, 103–148.
- Gheju M., Balcu I., 2011. Removal of chromium from Cr(VI) polluted wastewaters by reduction
 with scrap iron and subsequent precipitation of resulted cations. J. Hazard. Mater. 196, 131–
 138.
- Gibb J.P., Barcelona M.J., Ritchey J.D., LeFaivre M.H., 1984. Effective porosity of geologic
 materials: first annual report. Champaign, Ill; Illinois State Water Survey. SWS contract
 report 351.
- Giles D.E., Mohapatra M., Issa T.B., Anand S., Singh P., 2011. Iron and aluminium based
 adsorption strategies for removing arsenic from water Review. J. Environ. Manage. 92, 3011–
 3022.
- Glover P.W.J., Walker E., 2009. Grain-size to effective pore-size transformation derived from
 electrokinetic theory. Geophysics 74, E17–E29.
- Goldani E., Moro C.C., Maia S.M., 2013. A study employing differents clays for Fe and Mn
 removal in the treatment of acid mine drainage. Water Air Soil Pollut. 224, doi:
 10.1007/s11270-012-1401-4.
- Gros F., Baup S., Aurousseau M., 2011. Copper cementation on zinc and iron mixtures: Part 2:
 Fluidized bed configuration. Hydrometallurgy 106, 119–126.
- Gros F., Baup S., Aurousseau M., 2011. Copper cementation on zinc and iron mixtures: Part 1:
 Results on rotating disc electrode. Hydrometallurgy 106, 127–133.

- Haarhoff J., Vessal A., 2010. A falling-head procedure for the measurement of filter media
 sphericity. Water SA 36, 97–104.
- Hashim M.A., Mukhopadhyay S., Sahu J.N., Sengupta B., 2011. Remediation technologies for
 heavy metal contaminated groundwater. J. Environ. Manage. 92, 2355–2388.
- Head K.H., Keeton G.P., 2008. Permeability, shear strength & compressibility tests, In: Manual of
 Soil Laboratory Testing, vol. 2. Whittles Publishing: United Kingdom.
- Henderson A.D., Demond A.H., 2011. Impact of solids formation and gas production on the
 permeability of ZVI PRBs. J. Environ. Eng. 137, 689–696.
- 9 Herbert R.B., 1996. Metal retention by iron oxide precipitation from acidic ground water in
 10 Dalarna, Sweden. Appl. Geochem. 11, 229–235.
- ITRC (Interstate Technology & Regulatory Council). 2011. Permeable reactive barrier: Technology
 update. PRB-5. Washington, D.C.: Interstate Technology & Regulatory Council, PRB:
 Technology Update Team. www.itrcweb.org (access: 12.12.2012).
- Jeen S.-W., Amos R.T., Blowes D.W., 2012. Modeling gas formation and mineral precipitation in a
 granular iron column. Environ. Sci. Technol. 46, 6742–6749.
- Jiao Y., Qiu C., Huang L., Wu K., Ma H., Chen S., Ma L., Wu L., 2009. Reductive dechlorination
 of carbon tetrachloride by zero-valent iron and related iron corrosion. Appl. Catal. B: Environ.
 91, 434–440.
- Khan A.H., Rasul S.B., Munir A.K.M., Habibuddowla M., Alauddin M., Newaz S.S., Hussam A.,
 2000. Appraisal of a simple arsenic removal method for groundwater of Bangladesh. J.
 Environ. Sci. Health A 35, 1021–1041.
- Knowles P., Dotro G., Nivala J., García J., 2011. Clogging in subsurface-flow treatment wetlands:
 Occurrence and contributing factors. Ecol. Eng. 37, 99–112.

1	Komnitsas K., Bartzas G., Fytas K., Paspaliaris I., 2007. Long-term efficiency and kinetic
2	evaluation of ZVI barriers during clean-up of copper containing solutions. Miner. Eng. 20,
3	1200–1209.
4	Komnitsas K., Bartzas G., Paspaliaris I., 2006. Inorganic contaminant fate assessment in zero-valent
5	iron treatment walls. Environ. Forensics 7, 207–217.
6	Kubare M., Haarhoff J., 2010. Rational design of domestic biosand filters. J. Water Supply: Res.
7	Technol. – AQUA 59 (1), 1–15.
8	Lavine B.K., Auslander G., Ritter J., 2001. Polarographic studies of zero valent iron as a reductant
9	for remediation of nitroaromatics in the environment. Microchem. J. 70, 69-83.
10	Li L., Benson C.H., Lawson E.M., 2006. Modeling porosity reductions caused by mineral fouling in
11	continuous-wall permeable reactive barriers. J. Contam. Hydrol. 83, 89-121.
12	Li L., Benson C.H., 2010. Evaluation of five strategies to limit the impact of fouling in permeable
13	reactive barriers. J. Hazard. Mater. 181, 170–180.
14	Liu H., Wang Q., Wang C., Li Xz., 2013. Electron efficiency of zero-valent iron for groundwater
15 16	remediation and wastewater treatment. Chem. Eng. J. 215–216, 90–95. Mackenzie P.D., Horney D.P., Sivavec T.M., 1999. Mineral precipitation and porosity losses in
10	granular iron columns. J. Hazard. Mater. 68, 1–17.
18	Miyajima K., 2012. Optimizing the design of metallic iron filters for water treatment. Freiberg
19	Online Geoscience 32, 60 pp.
20	Miyajima K., Noubactep C., 2013. Impact of Fe ⁰ amendment on methylene blue discoloration by
21	sand columns. Chem. Eng. J. 217, 310–319.
22	Moraci N., Calabrò P.S., 2010. Heavy metals removal and hydraulic performance in zero-valent
23	iron/pumice permeable reactive barriers. J. Environ. Manage. 91, 2336–2341.
24	Moreira C.S., Alleoni L.R.F., 2010. Adsorption of Cd, Cu, Ni and Zn in tropical soils under
25	competitive and non-competitive systems. Sci. Agric. 67, 301-307.
26	Nesic S., 2007. Key issues related to modelling of internal corrosion of oil and gas pipelines - A
27	review. Corros. Sci. 49, 4308–4338.
	22

- Nimmo JR. Porosity and pore size distribution. in Hillel D, editor. *Encyclopedia of Soils in the Environment*: London, Elsevier; 2004; 3:295–303.
- Noubactep C., 2007. Processes of contaminant removal in "Fe⁰-H₂O" systems revisited. The
 importance of co-precipitation. Open Environ. J. 1, 9–13.
- Noubactep C., 2008. A critical review on the mechanism of contaminant removal in Fe⁰-H₂O
 systems. Environ. Technol. 29, 909–920.
- Noubactep C., Licha T., Scott T.B., Fall M., Sauter M., 2009. Exploring the influence of operational
 parameters on the reactivity of elemental iron materials. J. Hazard. Mater. 172, 943–951.
- 9 Noubactep C., 2010. The fundamental mechanism of aqueous contaminant removal by metallic
 10 iron. Water SA 36, 663–670.
- Noubactep C., Caré S., 2010. Enhancing sustainability of household water filters by mixing metallic
 iron with porous materials. Chem. Eng. J. 162. 635–642.
- Noubactep C., Caré S., Togue-Kamga F., Schöner A., Woafo P., 2010. Extending service life of
 household water filters by mixing metallic iron with sand. Clean Soil Air Water 38, 951–
 959.
- Noubactep C., Schöner A., 2010. Metallic iron: dawn of a new era of drinking water treatment
 research? Fresen. Environ. Bull. 19, 1661–1668.
- Noubactep C., 2011. Aqueous contaminant removal by metallic iron: Is the paradigm shifting?
 Water SA 37, 419–426.
- Noubactep C., Caré S., 2011. Designing laboratory metallic iron columns for better result
 comparability. J. Hazard. Mater. 189, 809–813.
- Noubactep C., 2012. Characterizing the reactivity of metallic iron in Fe⁰/As-rock/H₂O systems by
 long-term column experiments. Water SA. 38, 511–517.
- Noubactep C., Caré S., Crane R.A., 2012a. Nanoscale metallic iron for environmental remediation:
 prospects and limitations. Water Air Soil Pollut. 223, 1363–1382.

1	Noubactep C., Temgoua E., Rahman M.A., 2012b. Designing iron-amended biosand filters for
2	decentralized safe drinking water provision. Clean: Soil, Air, Water 40, 798-807.
3	Noubactep C., 2013a. On the suitability of admixing sand to metallic iron for water treatment. Int. J.
4	Environ. Pollut. Solutions 1, 22–36.
5	Noubactep C., 2013b. Relevant reducing agents in remediation Fe ⁰ /H ₂ O systems. Clean: Soil, Air,
6	Water, doi:10.1002/clen.201200406.
7	Noubactep C., 2013c. Metallic iron for water treatment: A critical review. Clean - Soil, Air, Water,
8	doi: 10.1002/clen.201200502.
9	O'Hannesin S.F., Gillham R.W., 1998. Long-term performance of an in situ "iron wall" for
10	remediation of VOCs. Ground Water 36, 164–170.
11	Pilling N. B., Bedworth R.E., 1923. The oxidation of metals at high temperatures. J. Inst. Met. 29,
12	529–591.
13	Pokhrel D., Viraraghavan T., 2009. Biological filtration for removal of arsenic from drinking water.
14	J. Environ. Manage. 90, 1956–1961.
15	Qiu S.R., Lai HF., Roberson M.J., Hunt M.L., Amrhein C., Giancarlo L.C., Flynn G.W., Yarmoff.
16	2000. Removal of contaminants from aqueous solution by reaction with iron surfaces.
17	Langmuir 16, 2230–2236.
18	Rangsivek R., Jekel M.R., 2005. Removal of dissolved metals by zero-valent iron (ZVI): Kinetics,
19	equilibria, processes and implications for stormwater runoff treatment. Water Res. 39, 4153-
20	4163.
21	Ruhl A.S., Ünal N., Jekel M., 2012. Evaluation of two-component Fe(0) fixed bed filters with
22	porous materials for reductive dechlorination. Chem. Eng. J. 209, 401–406.
23	Scott T.B., Popescu I.C., Crane R.A., Noubactep C., 2011. Nano-scale metallic iron for the
24	treatment of solutions containing multiple inorganic contaminants. J. Hazard. Mater. 186,
25	280–287.

1	Smith M.R., Collis L., Fookes P.G., Lay J., Sims I., Smith M.R., West G., 2001. Aggregates for use
2	in filter media. Geological Society, London, Engineering Geology Special Publications 17,
3	291–298.
4	Stratmann M., Müller J., 1994. The mechanism of the oxygen reduction on rust-covered metal
5	substrates. Corros. Sci. 36, 327–359.
6	Vidic R.D., Suidan M.T., 1991. Role of dissolved oxygen on the adsorptive capacity of activated
7	carbon for synthetic and natural organic matter. Environ. Sci. Technol. 25, 1612–1618.
8	Vodyanitskii Y.N., 2010. The role of iron in the fixation of heavy metals and metalloids in soils: a
9	review of publications. Eurasian Soil Sci. 43, 519-532.
10	Wang X.S., Qin Y., 2007. Relationships between heavy metals and iron oxides, fulvic acids,
11	particle size fractions in urban roadside soils. Environ. Geol. 52, 63-69.
12	Westerhoff P., James J., 2003. Nitrate removal in zero-valent iron packed columns. Water Res. 37,
13	1818–1830.
14	White A.F., Peterson M.L., 1996. Reduction of aqueous transition metal species on the surfaces of
15	Fe(II)-containing oxides. Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 60, 3799-3814.
16	Woudberg S., Du Plessis J.P., 2008. Predicting the permeability of very low porosity sandstones.
17	Transp. Porous Med. 73, 39–55.
18	You Y., Han J., Chiu P.C., Jin Y., 2005. Removal and inactivation of waterborne viruses using
19	zerovalent iron. Environ. Sci. Technol. 39, 9263-9269.
20	Zhang Y., Gillham R.W., 2005. Effects of gas generation and precipitates on performance of Fe ⁰
21	PRBs. Ground Water 43, 113–121.
22	
23	

Table 1: Main characteristics of the studied columns. "Volume" is the apparent volume of granular medium. "rz_{theor}" is the sum of the volumes occupied by the two media separately. "rz_{eff}" is the measured reactive zone. The estimated porosity and the duration of the experiment are also given.

- 4
- 5

System	Volume		Mass		Column				
	Fe ⁰	Pumice	Fe ⁰	Pumice	rZ _{theor}	rz _{eff.}	Porosity*	Duration	
	(%)	(%)	(g)	(g)	(cm)	(cm)	(%)	(day)	
Α	0	100	0.0	269.7	29.69	30.0	72.6	45	
В	10	90	200.0	242.7	26.72	26.2	70.5	90	
С	25	75	200.0	80.9	10.48	9.8	64.9	36**	
D	50	50	200.0	27.0	5.24	5.0	59.5	28**	
Ε	75	25	200.0	9.0	3.49	3.4	54.8	22**	
F	100	0	200.0	0.0	2.62	2.6	49.6	17**	

- 6 * the internal porosity of the pumice is also included
- 7 ** stopped because of excessive permeability loss
- 8

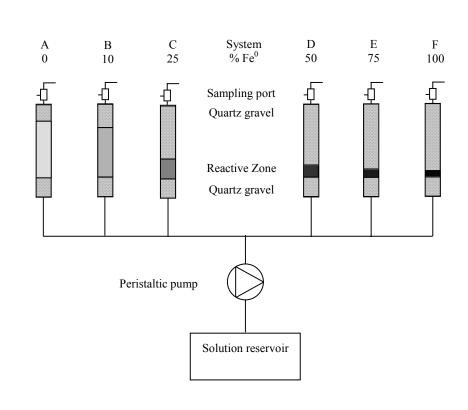
9

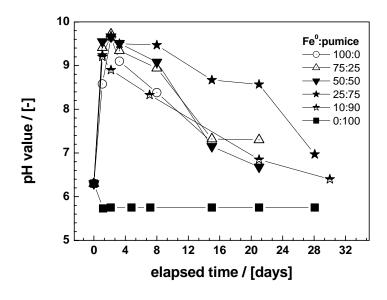
- **Table 2**: Magnitude of contaminant removal in investigated systems. m_{in} is the mass of contaminant
- $2 \qquad \mbox{flowed into the column, E is the removal efficiency and E_s the specific removal.}$

System	m _{in}			Е			Es		
	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ni	Cu	Zn
	(mg)			(%)			(mg/g)		
В	2130	2130	2881	90.1	99.8	94.2	9.58	10.6	13.6
С	881.3	881.3	1192	98.7	99.9	99.9	4.53	4.40	5.96
D	612	612	828	93.3	99.9	99.6	2.86	3.06	4.12
Ε	514.1	514.1	695.5	97.9	99.9	99.9	2.52	2.57	3.47
F	367.2	367.2	496.8	94.7	99.9	99.8	1.74	1.83	2.48

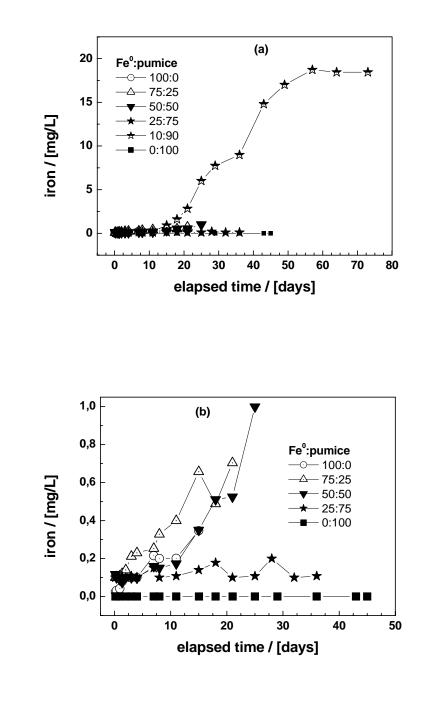




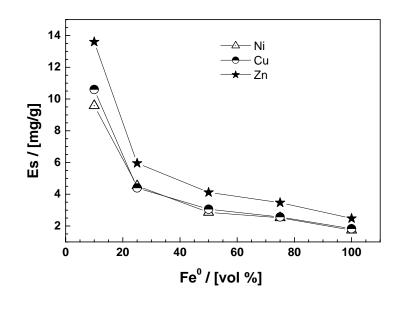


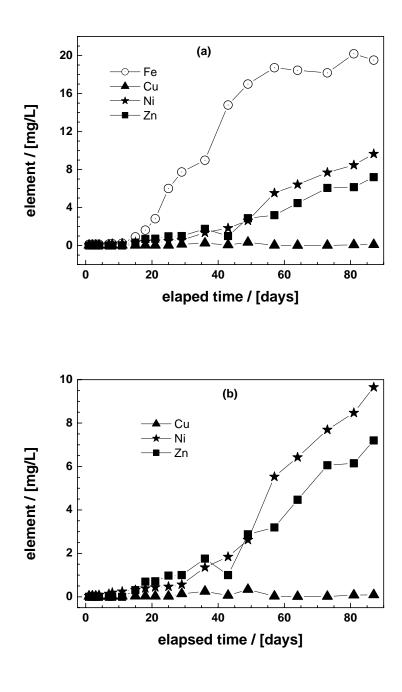






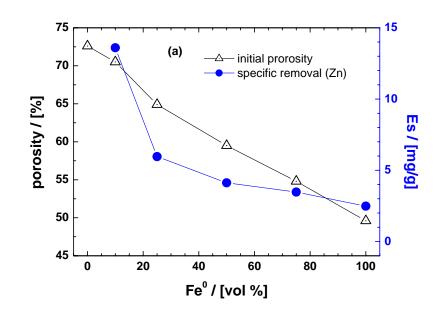
1 Figure 4







1 Figure 6





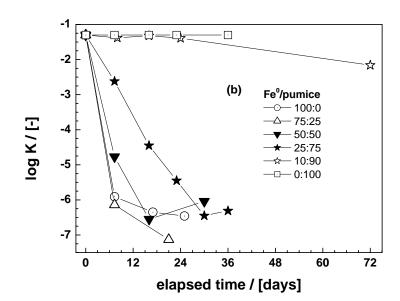
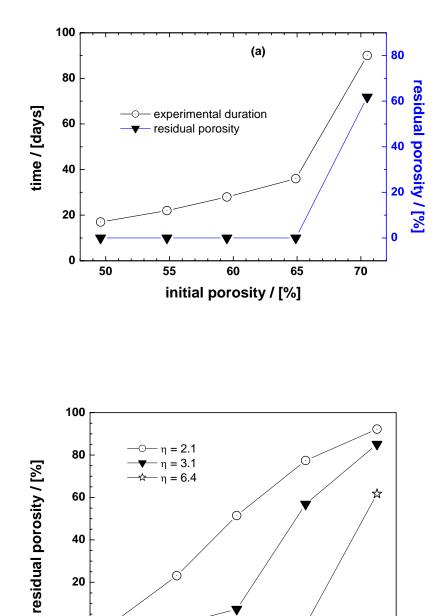


Figure 7



☆

initial porosity / [%]

ŵ

☆

1 Figure captions

2

Figure 1: Schematic diagram of the experimental design. Used materials were (i) Fe⁰ (0 or 200 g),
(ii) pumice (0 to 270 g), and (iii) quartz gravel (10 cm at the inlet and balance to fill the column at
the outlet). The black colour represents Fe⁰ and the grey colour pumice. The darker a reactive zone,
the higher the Fe⁰ ratio.

Figure 2: Time-dependant evolution of the pH value of column effluent. The lines are not fitting
functions, they simply connect points to facilitate visualization.

9 Figure 3: Time-dependant evolution of the iron concentration of column effluent for a) all 10 experimental duration and b) the first 50 days. The lines are not fitting functions, they simply 11 connect points to facilitate visualization.

Figure 4: Influence of the Fe:pumice volumetric ratio on the removal efficiency of Cu^{II} , Ni^{II} and Zn^{II} as reflected by the Es (mg/g) values. The lines are not fitting functions, they simply connect points to facilitate visualization.

Figure 5: Magnitude of Cu, Fe, Ni and Zn release from the column with 10 % Fe⁰. The lines are not fitting
functions, they simply connect points to facilitate visualization.

17 Figure 6: (a) Comparison of the initial porosity and the specific efficiency (Es value for Zn) as 18 influenced by the Fe:pumice volumetric ratio, (b) Time-dependant evolution of the hydraulic 19 conductivity in all six systems. The lines are not fitting functions, they simply connect points to 20 facilitate visualization.

Figure 7: (a) Time-dependant evolution of the residual porosity in all six systems and (b) residual porosity $\Phi(t)/\Phi_0$ for three values of the expansion coefficient η . The residual porosity is $\Phi(t)/\Phi_0 = 0$ for systems with clogging before Fe⁰ depletion and $\Phi(t)/\Phi_0 \neq 0$ at Fe⁰ depletion. The lines are not fitting functions, they simply connect points to facilitate visualization.