

Design of a Treatment Zone Technology for In-situ Immobilisation of Uranium and Arsenic

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In this study we investigated the geochemical and microbial as well as the technical basis for an effective in-situ immobilisation of arsenic and uranium. To do this, we combined microbial sulphate reduction with anaerobic corrosion of grey cast iron powder and nano scale iron, respectively. While nano scale iron showed an extremely high, but temporary reactivity, a lasting iron corrosion and environmental reduction was observed for grey cast iron powder. By adding methanol or H₂/CO₂ respectively, heterotrophic and Autotrophic sulphate reduction as well as iron sulphide precipitation were stimulated and therewith reducing conditions were maintained. In the tests, iron sulphide was shown to coprecipitate arsenic and to catalyse reductive uranium precipitation, which was indicated by X-Ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). However, an scanning electron microscopy (SEM) micrograph with an energydispersive X-Ray measurement pointed out, that most uranium was fixed directly to the surface of the grey cast iron particles.

For in-situ immobilisation, a suitable treatment zone technology must be developed. Using high injection pressure and volume flow after an initialhydraulic or pneumatic fracturing of the sediment we attained good results for nano scale iron and grey cast iron particle injection. In both cases injection range exceeded the test-barrel radius (0.74 in.) and generated amounts of 0.5–3 g Fe/kg sediment. No hydraulic conductivity loss was observed.

1 Introduction

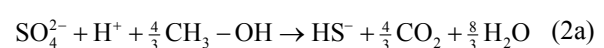
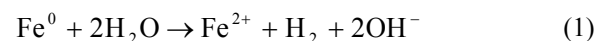
1.1 Motivation

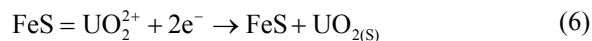
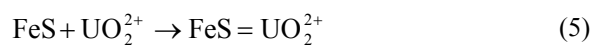
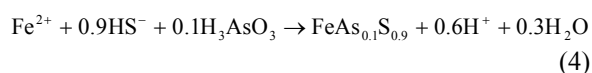
The intensive uranium ore mining which took place until the mid-seventies has resulted in many abandoned mine processing sites in East Germany which need to be restored. Residues have been dumped in waste disposal sites and tailings-lakes without aquifer sealing. Thus, groundwater run-off exceeds uranium and arsenic legal limit values. To prevent pollution of adjacent aquifers, in-situ immobilisation of uranium and arsenic has to be developed downstream of waste disposal sites and tailingslakes. The objectives of the study are both investigations to the geochemical and microbial immobilisation for arsenic and uranium as well as the technical basis for an iron particle injection.

1.2 Geochemical and microbial base

We use the anaerobic iron corrosion for initial redox reduction as well as for the ferrous iron and hydrogen supplies (Equation 1). For an in-situ application, it is necessary to focus on choice and verification of longterm reactive iron materi-

als. We selected a grey cast iron powder, because impurities like carbides counter passivation of the iron surface and therefore encouraging iron corrosion (FRIEDRICH et al., 2001). The development of nano scale iron by a Japanese company enabled another interesting possibility for pollutant immobilisation (VANCE 2002) in our research. In order to keep reducing conditions and to produce sulphide, microbial sulphate reduction is stimulated by adding methanole or H₂ and CO₂. Equations (2a) and (2b) show heterotrophic and Autotrophic sulphate reduction. Under the adequate environmental conditions the produced sulphide precipitates with ferrous iron to amorphous iron sulphide (Equation 3). It is known that iron sulphides co-precipitate arsenic very well (MORSE 1987). The capacity of iron sulphides for sorption and the consequent reductive precipitation of uranium is presently under investigation (FIEDOR 1998; WERSIN 1994). Equations (4) and (5a), (5b) show the reaction patterns for pollutant immobilisation.





1.3 Technical base

For in-situ immobilisation of arsenic and uranium, a ZVI treatment zone technology is intended. This technology consists of the installation of a line of overlapping ZVI injection points perpendicular to the groundwater flow direction. Pilot tests with effective abiotic reduction of chlorinated solvents using ZVI treatment zone technology were described in several US-papers (LISKOWITZ 1999; SCHURING 1999; SIMPKIN 2003). In contrast to permeable reactive barriers (PRBs), no excavation and therefore no damage to the cover sealing of waste disposal sites is necessary. Furthermore PRBs are limited in depth (circa 70 ft), a ZVI treatment zone is only limited to the depth of the drilling equipment.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Batch Design

Geochemical and microbial immobilisation processes of uranium and arsenic were studied in anaerobic batch tests for 100 days at 12°C. Sediment and groundwater were gathered from the abandoned mine processing site in Lengenfeld, East Germany. The sediment consisted of weathered granite gravel, which was mixed in a ratio of 1:3 with silica sand. The groundwater contained about 5 mg·L⁻¹ organic carbon, 70 mg·L⁻¹ inorganic carbon, 300 mg sulphate and less than 1 mg·L⁻¹ oxygen. The pH was neutral and the redox potential was approximately +300 mV. Uranium (20–30 mg U/L as uranyl nitrate) and Arsenic (10–20 mg As/L as sodium arsenite) were enriched as well as cast iron powder (3 g·L⁻¹, particle size 20–63 µm) and nano scale iron (about 30 mg/L, 0,1µm-colloids) respectively. Sulphate reducing bacteria from the native groundwater were raised in separate microcosms under ideal conditions. They added to the tests. Then, heterotrophic and Autotrophic sulphate reduction was stimulated with methanol (200 mg·L⁻¹) and regular H₂/CO₂ gassing (1:1), respectively. Parallel attempts without sediment were carried out for mineralogical analyses of iron precipitates.

2.2 Batch Analyses

During the batch tests, sampling of the aqueous phase was carried out at regular intervals using plastic syringes. In addition to pH and redox, carbon was analysed by TOC-Analyser, elements were measured by ICP-OES, anions were analysed by IC and ferrous iron was measured by a photometer. Sulphide was detected by an amperometric H₂S-microsensor. According to the test, pollutant binding forms and iron sulphide concentration were analysed under strictly anaerobic conditions by means of a sequential sediment extractions and acid volatile sulphur (AVS) digestions. Via sequential extraction with pH-graded inorganic salt solutions cations were differentiated to six binding fractions (KRUMNÖHLER 1995):

- 1) exchangeable,
- 2) carbonatic and specific adsorbed,
- 3) organic and specific adsorbed or bound to amorphous iron hydroxides,
- 4) bound to weakly crystalline iron hydroxides,
- 5) bound to crystalline iron hydroxides and
- 6) sulphidic or residual bound.

Using the iron precipitates from the attempts without sediment, X-Ray Diffraction (XRD)-, SEM- and XPS- Analyses were carried out to identify newly formed minerals and the amounts of arsenic and uranium bound to the precipitates. Precipitates were dried via acetone and vacuum filtration in a nitrogen atmosphere.

2.3 Injection Test Design

A downstream perforated injection lance was placed in the centre of a closed barrel (height 1.97 feet, diameter 1.48 feet) filled with silica sand. Injection lance diameter and perforated zone was 2 in., respectively. The non-perforated zone of the lance was sealed with a packer. In order to avoid upward streaming, horizontal caulking plastic disks were set in the barrel around the lance. Preceding the iron particle injection preferential flow paths had to be created through hydraulic (HOCKING 1999) or pneumatic fracturing (LISKOWITZ 1999; SCHURING 1999). For this purpose water (15 minutes for nano scale iron injection) or gas (5 minutes for grey cast iron injection) were injected through the lance with a high pressure (about 3–4 bar) and volume flow (about 50 L·h⁻¹). Ensuing, 120 L and 200 L iron particle suspension (0.25 g

nano scale iron/L or 0.1 g cast iron/L < 20 µm) were delivered through the lance by means of a peristaltic pump with flow rates from 40 to 50 L·h⁻¹, respectively. To maintain the suspension of the iron particles, that was stirred in the storage tank and circulated through the lance with a pump.

sediment mass (g Fe/kg sediment) by means of a calibration curve. Therefore, six known amounts of cast iron powder and nano scale iron were eluted for six minutes in acidified distilled water with a pH of 1, respectively. A ‘6-minutes-corrosion-factor’ was derived from the ratio of ferrous iron released to total iron amount. Within this time, 50 % nano scale iron and about 20 % grey cast iron (< 20 µm) corroded. Column tests were conducted to control hydraulic conductivity loss of the treated sediment.

2.4 Injection Test Analyses

Following the injection test, sediment samples were collected around the lance and subsequently leached in acidified distilled water with a pH of 1. Ferrous iron, released within six minutes, was measured by ferrous-iron-strips and converted to

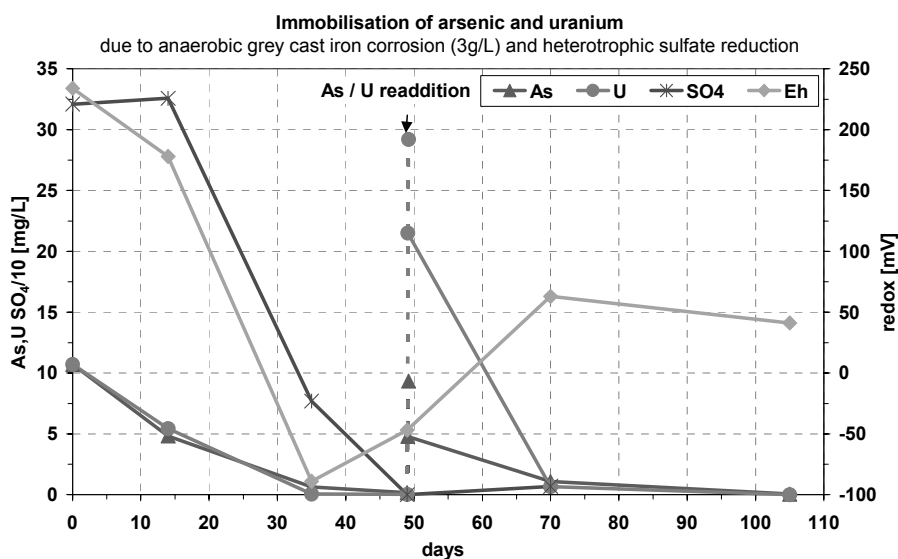


Figure 1: Trends of arsenic, uranium, sulphate and redox due to anaerobic grey cast iron corrosion and heterotrophic sulphate reduction.

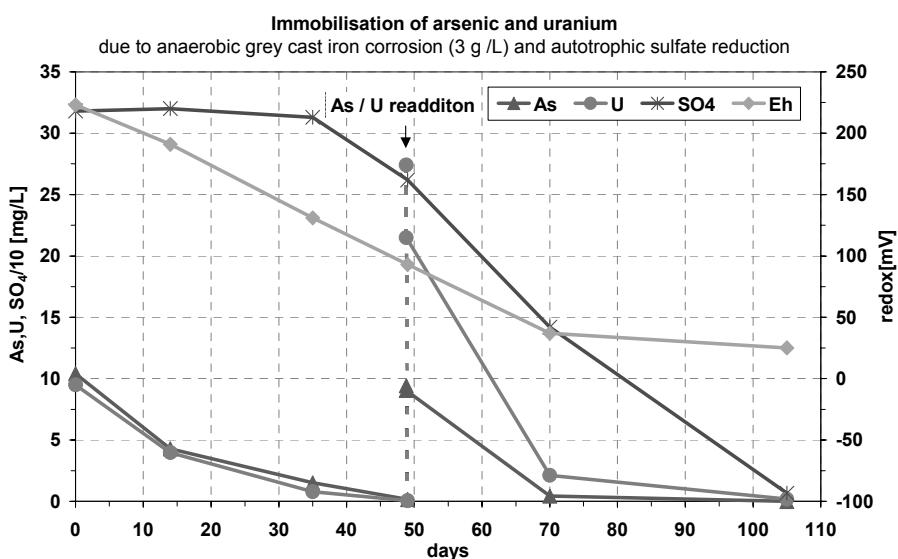


Figure 2: Trends of arsenic, uranium, sulphate and redox due to anaerobic grey cast iron corrosion and Autotrophic sulphate reduction.

3 Results and Discussion

3.1 Batch Tests

A lasting environmental change and ferrous iron release was observed in the test with cast iron powder addition. Both heterotrophic and Autotrophic sulphate reduction resulted in amorphous iron sulphide precipitation. Using AVS digestion at the end of the test 0.05 wt% and 0.04 wt % iron sulphide were detected respectively. According to a 14- day- lag time, heterotrophic sulphate reduction set in with a rate of $0.1 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}\cdot\text{d}^{-1}$. Autotrophic sulphate reduction started after 35 days and averaged $0.05 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}\cdot\text{d}^{-1}$. Remarkably, the rate of iron corrosion in

the latter test ($0.13 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}\cdot\text{d}^{-1}$) was nearly double that with methanol addition for heterotrophic sulphate reduction ($0.06 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}\cdot\text{d}^{-1}$). Due to CO_2 gassing iron corrosion was promoted because HCO_3^- is able to break through corrosion layers around iron particles (GU et al. 1999). Figure 1 presents trends of arsenic, uranium, sulphate and redox for the tests with anaerobic grey cast iron corrosion and heterotrophic sulphate reduction. Figure 2 presents the same for the parallel attempt with Autotrophic sulphate reduction.

In both tests uranium and arsenic were completely immobilised. While most uranium was immobilised by surface complexation, probably directly on the surface of grey cast iron particles,

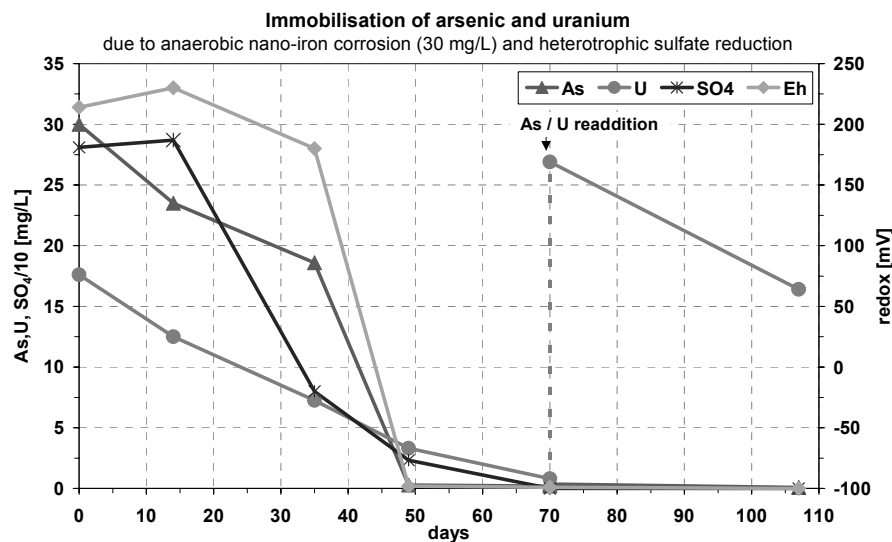


Figure 3: Trends of arsenic, uranium, sulphate and redox due to anaerobic nano iron corrosion and heterotrophic sulphate reduction.

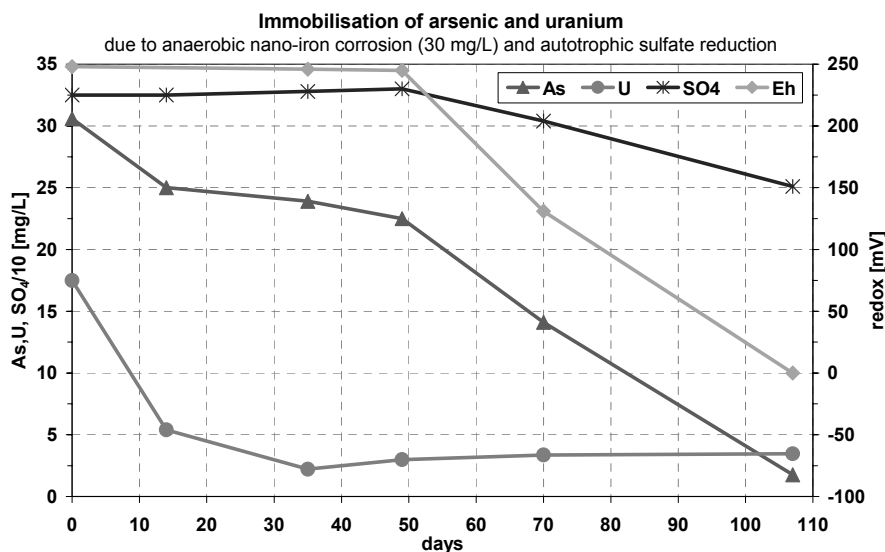


Figure 4: Trends of arsenic, uranium, sulphate and redox change due to anaerobic nano iron corrosion and Autotrophic sulphate reduction.

arsenic bound predominantly to newly formed amorphous iron hydroxides and co-precipitated with amorphous iron sulphide after sulphate reduction was initiated. These findings were obtained from an SEM-EDX analysis as well as sequential sediment extractions. Furthermore, an XPS-analysis and geochemical modelling (PHREEQC 2.7) indicated reductive precipitation of Uranium (VI) to amorphous uraninite in minor parts. These may have been catalysed by cast iron and iron sulphide surfaces. As shown in the diagrams, readded uranium and arsenic were immobilised too, retention capacity of reactive phases had not yet been exhausted.

In contrast to the tests with cast iron powder, the addition of nano scale iron resulted in a temporary, intensive environmental change. The nano scale iron was completely corroded within a few hours, long before sulphate reduction could set in. After a lag of 14 days heterotrophic sulphate reduction occurred at a rate of $0.08 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}\cdot\text{d}^{-1}$, Autotrophic sulphate reduction was first observed after a 50 day-lag with only $0.01 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}\cdot\text{d}^{-1}$. Significant amounts of aqueous sulphide were measured, indicating the lack of ferrous

iron for iron sulphide precipitation. After re-addition of arsenic, it was immediately precipitated as arsenic-sulphide.

The sequential sediment extraction indicated for arsenic mainly a sorption to newly formed amorphous iron hydroxides, and also a co-precipitation with (iron) sulphides in minor parts. Most of uranium was immobilised by sorption on older, poorly crystalline iron hydroxides from the sediment. The SEM/EDX-micrograph of the precipitate from the attempt with heterotrophic sulphate reduction (without sediment) show extremely high contents of uranium (Figure 5), whose homogeneous distribution indicated an independent, but amorphous uranium-phase. Uranium, arsenic, sulphate and redox trends for the nano scale iron tests are shown in Figure 3 (heterotrophic sulphate reduction) and Figure 4 (slight Autotrophic sulphate reduction).

3.2 Injection Tests

Using high injection pressure and volume flow after an initial fracturing of the soil we attained good results for nano scale iron and grey cast iron particle injection. The blackening of the

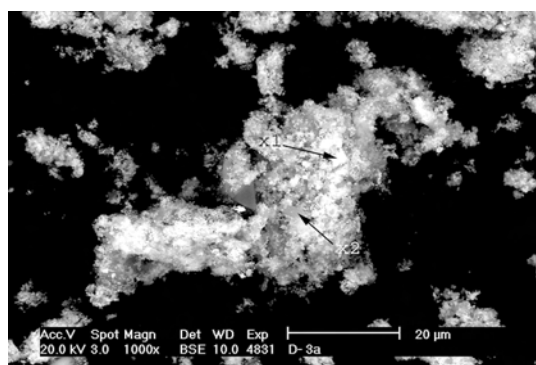


Figure 5: SEM Image and EDX analysis of iron precipitate from the attempt with nano scale iron and heterotrophic sulphate reduction.

x1:	7.5 mol% S, 8.1 mol% Fe, 25.6 mol% U
x2:	15.2 mol% S, 13.6 mol% Fe, 16.0 mol% U

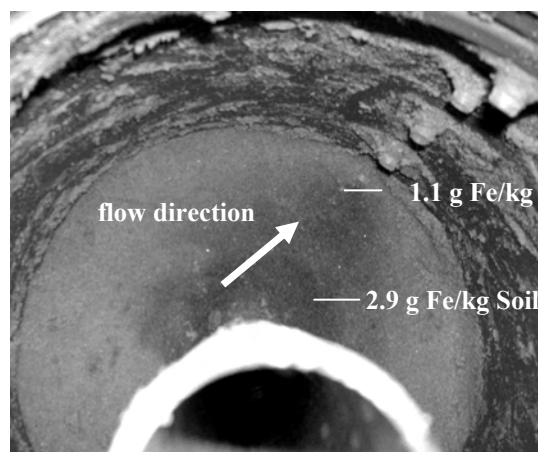


Figure 6: iron propagation in the nano scale injection test.

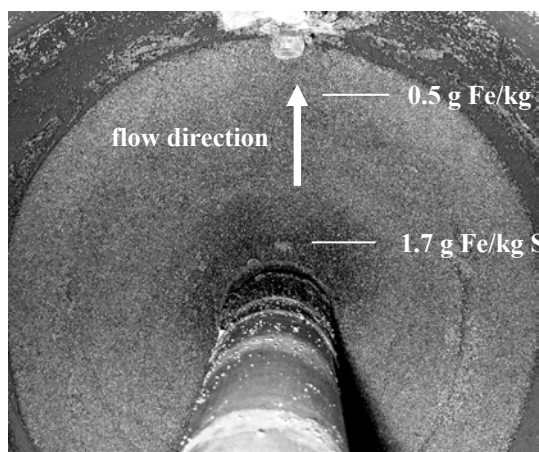


Figure 7: iron propagation in the grey cast iron injection test.

barrel outlet of both the nano scale iron and grey cast iron injection indicated an iron break through and therewith injection ranges, which exceeded the barrel radius (0.74 in.). Figure 6 and Figure 7 present clearly black coloured soil in the injection areas. Total amounts of 0.5–3 g Fe/kg soil were determined by means of the ‘6-minutes-corrosion-factor’. The treated sediment showed no hydraulic conductivity loss due to the low iron content and the initial hydraulic or pneumatic fracturing.

4 Conclusion

The injection of grey cast iron particles and subsequent, continuous H₂/CO₂ gassing was the best combination tested for in-situ treatment of arsenic and uranium. Both the stimulating force of CO₂ on iron corrosion and Autotrophic sulphate reduction and the microbial consumption of H₂ produced by iron corrosion promote a lasting and effective iron corrosion and environmental reduction. Through the stimulation of Autotrophic sulphate reduction reducing conditions were maintained and amorphous iron sulphide precipitation took place. The latter was able to coprecipitate arsenic and to catalyse reductive uranium precipitation. However, in our tests most uranium was attached directly to grey cast iron particles. Due to its high and only temporary reactivity, nano scale iron appears inapplicable for a lasting in-situ immobilisation technology. Using high injection pressure (about 3–4 bar) and volume flow (about 50 L h⁻¹) as well as an initial hydraulic or pneumatic fracturing we attained good results for nano scale iron and grey cast iron injection. In both cases injection range exceeded the test-barrel radius (0.74 in.) and generated amounts of 0.5 to 3 g Fe/kg sediment. No hydraulic conductivity loss was observed.

Recently, column tests were started to evaluate long-term reactivity of injectible iron particle amounts. Our study showed the need for further research into Autotrophic sulphate reduction and its effective contribution on arsenic and uranium immobilisation under flow conditions. Larger scale tests in order to verify injection range of the favoured injection technology are under way.

5 Acknowledgments

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