



Low temperature soil petroleum hydrocarbon degradation at various oxygen levels



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ABSTRACT

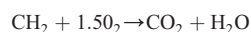
A laboratory incubation study was conducted on a petroleum-contaminated soil from Macquarie Island in sub-Antarctic Australia to develop a target O₂ level for bioventing. The soil was amended with NH₄NO₃ (175 mg N kg⁻¹ soil) and ¹⁴C-hexadecane (250 mg kg⁻¹ soil) and placed in sealed respirometry chambers. The headspaces in the chambers were adjusted to 0, 1, 2.6, 5.2, 10.5, and 20.9% O₂. Each chamber was connected to an NaOH CO₂ trap and to an O₂ feed line (except the 0% O₂ chambers were connected to an N₂ feed line). Chambers were supplied with O₂ in response to pressure drop resulting from CO₂ trapping. Soils were incubated at 6 °C for 12 weeks. O₂ consumption and petroleum degradation were maximized in chambers with 10.4% O₂. There was a slight decline in both O₂ consumption and petroleum degradation at 20.9% O₂. As O₂ concentrations declined below 10.4% O₂ both O₂ consumption and petroleum degradation declined markedly. ¹⁴C collected in the CO₂ traps did not follow this pattern, but was greater in the 1% O₂ chambers than in 2.6 or 5.2% O₂ chambers. Nitrogen remaining at the conclusion of the study indicated that nitrate was completely consumed in the 0, 1, 2.6, and 5.2% O₂ chambers. nC₁₇:pristane and nC₁₈:phytane ratios in the soil at the conclusion of the incubation were significantly lower in the 10.4% O₂ chambers than in those with 20.9% O₂, and more petroleum hydrocarbons were consumed in the 10.4% chambers. Preferential degradation of pristane and phytane in the presence of limited O₂ may be the result of denitrification, evidenced by lower residual nitrate levels in the 10.4 than the 20.9% O₂ environment. Ten percent O₂ is suggested as a target for O₂ enhanced bioremediation.

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1. Introduction

Microbial oxidation of organic carbon and petroleum hydrocarbon soil contaminants is favored by the presence of molecular oxygen. Hydrocarbon oxidation processes generally require oxygenases (Atlas and Bartha, 1987) and typically occur more rapidly as oxygen levels increase (Atlas and Cerniglia, 1995).

The relationship between aerobic hydrocarbon biodegradation and oxygen consumption is stoichiometrically variable depending, in part, on the degree of hydrocarbon oxidation and the proportion of carbon and oxygen used for formation of biomass. In the absence of the formation of biomass the following equation has been used to relate oxygen consumption and hydrocarbon degradation



and suggests that about 3.4 g oxygen per g hydrocarbon are required for complete mineralization to CO₂ and H₂O (Huesemann and Truex, 1996).

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In waterlogged soil low concentrations of O₂ may be rate-limiting for hydrocarbon biodegradation (Atlas and Cerniglia, 1995; Rayner et al., 2007). As soil moisture increases, air in soil pores is displaced. The rate of diffusion of air into and through soil is approximately proportional to the square of the air-filled porosity, and is therefore greatly limited in waterlogged soil (Reddy and Patrick, 1983; Turco and Sadowsky, 1995). Troquet et al. (2003) identified O₂ diffusion as a limiting factor in soil bioremediation. As a consequence of reduced gas diffusion in wet soils, O₂ levels are reduced and levels of CO₂ elevated because diffusion of respired CO₂ is restricted in poorly aerated soils.

Zhou and Crawford (1995) reported that biodegradation of petroleum in gasoline contaminated soil was most rapid when microcosm headspace was 8% O₂, and slowed considerably in both higher and lower O₂ concentrations. The degradation rate at 8% O₂ was more than twice that they observed at a near atmospheric O₂ level (18% O₂). According to Wuerdemann et al. (1994), an oxygen concentration of 5% or lower was limiting to hydrocarbon biodegradation in soil from a former gasworks site. Sierra and Renault (1995) further indicated that microbial mineralization of nitrogen from soil organic matter was inhibited when CO₂ concentrations exceeded 4%.

Degradation of hydrocarbons by anaerobic organisms is different from aerobic degradation, as they do not use the oxygenases used by aerobic organisms (Powell et al., 2006). Both aliphatic and aromatic hydrocarbon biodegradations are more rapid when adequate soil oxygen is present (Zhou and Crawford, 1995), although Hasinger et al. (2012) suggested that anaerobic degradation patterns may be different from those of aerobic degradation with respect to hydrocarbon compound structure.

In the absence of adequate levels of O₂, anaerobic degradation of alkanes and aromatics through respiratory denitrification proceeds using nitrate as the terminal electron acceptor (Ehrenreich et al., 2000; Hutchins, 1991). The nitrate is converted to N₂ or N₂O gases during this process (Burgin and Hamilton, 2007) and carbon is converted to CO₂ (So and Young, 2001). Anaerobic hydrocarbon degradation can also proceed using other terminal electron acceptors such as ferric iron or sulfate, although the energy return per unit of hydrocarbon degraded is greatest with O₂, followed by nitrate (Hasinger et al., 2012). Anaerobic pathways likely predominate deep in the soil profile, where oxygen diffusion is limited (Salminen et al., 2006). However, petroleum degradation through respiratory denitrification, stimulated by addition of nitrate fertilizer, may be as important as aerobic degradation (Powell et al., 2006).

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of varied O₂ levels on terminal electron acceptor consumption and hydrocarbon degradation in a petroleum contaminated sub-Antarctic soil. To that end, a series of respirometry chambers was set up with an array of headspace O₂ concentrations in support of in situ remediation studies conducted at Macquarie Island. To develop a better understanding of the potential for enhancement of in situ bioremediation via air sparging, a laboratory study was conducted to evaluate the relative efficiency of anoxic versus aerated remediation.

2. Methods

Soil was collected from a petroleum-contaminated site on sub-Antarctic Macquarie Island, Australia. Macquarie Island (54°29' 59"S, 158°57'08"E) is located approximately 1500 km south-southeast of Tasmania. Mean daily temperatures range from 1.3 °C in September to 8.6 °C in January (Deprez et al., 1994). Macquarie Island has a moist climate and is ice-free. Annual rainfall is 952.6 mm.

The soil used in this study was collected from the Main Power House, where spills of Special Antarctic Blend fuel have occurred (Deprez et al., 1994; Rayner et al., 2007). The site from which soil was collected is waterlogged and contained approximately 12,500 mg kg⁻¹ of diesel range organics (C₉ to C₂₈). Soil was spiked with ¹⁴C hexadecane (1% by weight) in diesel fuel carrier, at 250 mg kg⁻¹ soil. Soil was sieved (2 mm) and mixed in a 4 °C room. Each air-tight stainless steel 500 ml respirometer chamber was filled with 50 g (fresh weight) of soil. A solution of 1 g NH₄NO₃ dissolved in 10 ml H₂O was added at a rate of 175 mg N kg⁻¹ dry soil. Final soil moisture content was 17.5% by weight. Mercury poisoned controls, treated with 10,000 mg kg⁻¹ of HgCl₂ were used to evaluate abiotic processes.

Headspace oxygen contents of the respirometer chambers were adjusted by pressurizing chambers with 0.2 MPa N₂ gas into chambers, allowing chambers to equilibrate for 2 h, then relieving the pressure and allowing the chamber pressure to equilibrate with that of the atmosphere. This procedure was repeated to achieve chamber headspace compositions of approximately 0, 1, 2.6, 5.2, 10.5 and 20.9% O₂. Mercury-treated controls were included for the 0 and 20.9% O₂ treatments only.

Each chamber was connected to a NaOH trap to absorb CO₂ evolved during the microbial oxidation of contaminant and connected to a modified COMPUT-OX Respirometer (N-CON Systems, Crawford Ga). Oxygen consumption related to contaminant biodegradation resulted in a headspace pressure drop that triggered metered oxygen delivery into the vessels. CO₂ consumed by the NaOH trap was resupplied with

pure O₂ in the 1, 3, 6, 10.4, and 20.9% treatments, and by N₂ in the 0% O₂ treatment. The respirometer recorded O₂ consumption every 30 min.

CO₂ traps were connected to the respirometer chambers with quick-connect fittings to allow them to be replaced periodically without opening the respirometer chamber. Chambers were filled with appropriate headspace gas (matching treatment O₂ levels) prior to re-attaching to the respirometer chambers. Headspace composition was adjusted by evacuating traps to 0.025 MPa and refilling with N₂ an appropriate number of times.

Chambers were periodically attached to O₂ sensors (KE series oxygen sensors, GS Yuasa Industry Ltd., Kyoto Japan) to monitor chamber O₂ levels. O₂ sensors were allowed to equilibrate for 24 h prior to reading. NaOH trap contents were collected periodically and analyzed for total and radiolabeled CO₂.

Total trapped CO₂ was assayed by titration. To measure the amounts of ¹⁴C-hexadecane that were mineralized, and hence converted to ¹⁴CO₂, 1 ml of the liquid from CO₂ traps was mixed with 9 ml scintillant (Starscint, Packard) and allowed to equilibrate for at least 24 h. Radioactivity was measured on a 2250CA Tri-carb Packard Liquid Scintillation Analyzer. Quench was accounted for by the automatic efficiency control-quench curve, generated for quenched ¹⁴C-standards (Amersham). The radioactivity in the trap at each time was calculated by multiplying the radioactivity in each 1 ml sample by the ratio of volume of sample removed to total trap volume.

Each treatment was replicated three times. Chambers were incubated at 6 °C for 12 weeks. Headspace gases were adjusted as necessary after 63 and 76 days, by pressurizing and equilibrating, as described in the experiment setup.

Post incubation soil contaminant and nitrogen levels were assayed. At the conclusion of the incubation, petroleum hydrocarbons were extracted from 10 g samples of soil with 10 mL of hexane, 10 mL of water, and 0.5 mL of an internal standard solution containing 1000 mg L⁻¹ cyclo-octane, 100 mg L⁻¹ D8-naphthalene, 100 mg L⁻¹ p-terphenyl, and 1000 mg L⁻¹ 1-bromoeicosane dissolved in hexane. Vials containing soil and extractant were tumbled end-over-end at 50 rpm overnight and allowed to settle. The clear hexane layer was analyzed via GC-FID with a 30 m, 0.32 mm i.d., 0.25 μm film thickness BP-1 capillary column (SGE) and a split/splitless FocusLiner (SGE).

Hydrocarbon and O₂ consumption data were analyzed with SAS Proc ANOVA as a randomized complete block design (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC).

Inorganic nitrogen was extracted from the soil with 2 M KCl (10 g soil:30 ml KCl) and ammonium and nitrate nitrogen were assayed colorimetrically with a HACH DR 2700 spectrophotometer (HACH, Loveland, CO).

3. Results and analyses

Chamber O₂ levels were measured between day 57 and day 62. O₂ concentrations were 1.7% in the 0% treatment, 0.30 in the 2.6% treatment, 0.5% in the 5.2% treatment, 11.58 in the 10.5% treatment, and 16.6% in the 20.9% treatment. Headspace composition was adjusted on day 63. Measured again between days 70 and 75, the chamber O₂ levels were 1.4, 4.0, 4.9, and 15.6 for the 2.6, 5.2, 10.6 and 20.9% O₂ treatments, respectively. Following adjustment on day 76, O₂ levels were 2.8, 6.1, 8.5, and 19.5%, respectively.

Oxygen consumption, measured as O₂ metered in to the chambers via the N-CON respirometer in addition to O₂ added to adjust chamber headspace, is shown in Fig. 1. Vertical jumps represent addition of O₂ during chamber headspace adjustments. Total cumulative O₂ consumption was subject to ANOVA, results of which are shown in Fig. 2. Mercury poisoned controls consumed very little O₂. Oxygen consumption increased as headspace O₂ levels were increased, up to

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