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Abstract: Among remediation approaches, the Fenton-like treatment (FLT) is an ISCO technique relying on the iron-induced H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> activation in the presence of additives aimed at increasing the oxidant lifetime and maximizing iron solubility under natural soil pH conditions. The efficacy of FLT in the clean-up of hydrocarbon-contaminated soils is well established at the field-scale. However, a deeper understanding on the impact of the FLT on density, diversity and activity of the indigenous soil microbiota, might provide further insights into an optimal combination between FLT and in-situ bioremediation (ISB). The aim of this work was to assess the impacts of FLT on the microbial community of a diesel-contaminated soil collected nearby a gasoline station. Different FLT conditions were tested by varying either the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentrations (2 and 6%) or the oxidant application mode (single or double dosage). The impact of these treatments on the indigenous microbial community was assessed immediately downstream of the FLT endpoints and after 30, 60 and 90 d and compared with enhanced natural attenuation (ENA). After FLT, a dramatic decrease in bacterial density, diversity and functionality was evident. Although in 2+2% microcosms a delayed recovery of the indigenous microbiota was observed as compared to those subjected to single oxidant dose, after 60 d incubation, 7.1-fold increases in respiration rates were observed with respect to those detected at the respective FLT endpoint. Irrespective of the oxidant dose, best degradation results after 90 d incubation (around 80%) were observed with combined FLT, relying on double oxidant addition, and bioremediation.

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To the Editor of  
Chemosphere

Dear Editor,

please find hereby attached the paper titled “*Impact of the Fenton-like treatment on the microbial community of a diesel-contaminated soil*” by Flavia Polli, Daniela Zingaretti, Silvia Crognale, Lorena Pesciaroli, Alessandro D’Annibale, Maurizio Petruccioli and myself.

In this work we investigated the response of the bacterial community of a diesel-contaminated soil to the disturbance of oxidative stress caused by the application of the Fenton-like treatment (FLT). This treatment was tested under different operating conditions by varying either the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentrations or the oxidant application mode (single or double dosage). The impact of these treatments on the indigenous microbial community was assessed immediately downstream of the FLT endpoints and after 30, 60 and 90 d of bioremediation and compared with enhanced natural attenuation (ENA). As demonstrated by the results reported in the paper, Fenton-like treatment was equally effective operating either with a single H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> injection at higher concentration or applying a double injection at lower concentration. Despite the negative impacts of the oxidation step, the analysis performed in this study allowed to observe a delayed recovery of the indigenous microbiota with time.

Although the manuscript length exceed the word limits indicated in the Guide for authors, we believe that all the information provided in this paper are useful for better understand the effects of the Fenton-like treatment on the microbial community and hence we would prefer not to shorten the manuscript. If deemed necessary, we will be anyhow available to move some information in the supplemental files.

We believe that these results could be of interest for the readers of Chemosphere since others papers on these subjects have been already published in this journal.

I look forward to hearing from you about the outcome of the review.

Best Regards,  
(Prof. Renato Baciocchi)

# IMPACT OF THE FENTON-LIKE TREATMENT ON THE MICROBIAL COMMUNITY OF A DIESEL-CONTAMINATED SOIL

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## Highlights

- The effect of a Fenton-like treatment on the soil microbial community was assessed
- Adding H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> twice at lower amount is effective as adding it once at higher amount
- Higher H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration entails more severe impact on microbial community
- Bioattenuation occurred after Fenton-like step despite the observed negative impacts
- Fenton-like treatment can significantly shorten the bioremediation process

1 **IMPACT OF THE FENTON-LIKE TREATMENT ON THE MICROBIAL**  
2 **COMMUNITY OF A DIESEL-CONTAMINATED SOIL**

3

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13

## 14 **Abstract**

15 Among remediation approaches, the Fenton-like treatment (FLT) is an ISCO technique relying on  
16 the iron-induced  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  activation in the presence of additives aimed at increasing the oxidant  
17 lifetime and maximizing iron solubility under natural soil pH conditions. The efficacy of FLT in the  
18 clean-up of hydrocarbon-contaminated soils is well established at the field-scale. However, a deeper  
19 understanding on the impact of the FLT on density, diversity and activity of the indigenous soil  
20 microbiota, might provide further insights into an optimal combination between FLT and in-situ  
21 bioremediation (ISB). The aim of this work was to assess the impacts of FLT on the microbial  
22 community of a diesel-contaminated soil collected nearby a gasoline station. Different FLT  
23 conditions were tested by varying either the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  concentrations (2 and 6%) or the oxidant  
24 application mode (single or double dosage). The impact of these treatments on the indigenous  
25 microbial community was assessed immediately downstream of the FLT endpoints and after 30, 60  
26 and 90 d and compared with enhanced natural attenuation (ENA). After FLT, a dramatic decrease in  
27 bacterial density, diversity and functionality was evident. Although in 2+2% microcosms a delayed  
28 recovery of the indigenous microbiota was observed as compared to those subjected to single  
29 oxidant dose, after 60 d incubation, 7.1-fold increases in respiration rates were observed with  
30 respect to those detected at the respective FLT endpoint. Irrespective of the oxidant dose, best  
31 degradation results after 90 d incubation (around 80%) were observed with combined FLT, relying  
32 on double oxidant addition, and bioremediation.

## 33 **1 Introduction**

34 In-Situ Chemical Oxidation (ISCO) is an effective technology for the remediation of soil and  
35 groundwater contaminated by a wide range of organic pollutants (Pignatello et al., 2006; Baciocchi  
36 et al., 2014). An ISCO treatment involves the injection of an oxidant, such as permanganate (Chen  
37 et al., 2016), hydrogen peroxide (Laurent et al., 2012), persulfate (Sutton et al., 2014b) or ozone  
38 (Yu et al., 2007), into the subsurface to mineralize the contaminants of concern or, at least,

39 transform them in less toxic products. Among the different formulations proposed so far, the Fenton  
40 process involves the reaction between H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and ferrous iron yielding the hydroxyl radical ( $\cdot$ OH)  
41 ferric iron and hydroxyl ions (OH<sup>-</sup>) (Huling and Pivetz, 2006). Several approaches and methods  
42 involving the use of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and iron were investigated so far. Among these, the so called Fenton-like  
43 treatment (FLT) is a process relying on the iron-induced activation of hydrogen peroxide exerted by  
44 minerals naturally occurring in soils, in the presence of proper amendments (stabilizing and  
45 chelating agents) aimed at increasing both oxidant lifetime and iron solubility at natural soil pH  
46 conditions; its efficacy in the clean-up of soils contaminated by petroleum hydrocarbons has been  
47 already established (e.g. Watts and Dilly, 1996). The acceptance of Fenton treatments by regulators  
48 is often constrained by concerns on the effect of the process on soil microbial community. The  
49 Fenton process indeed affects negatively activity and vitality of indigenous microflora (Waddell and  
50 Mayer, 2003). Actually, hydrogen peroxide is reportedly an antiseptic reagent (Chapelle et al.,  
51 2005) able to either inhibit or kill microorganisms even at lower concentrations than those typically  
52 applied for other oxidants used in ISCO treatments (Waddell and Mayer, 2003; Huling and Pivetz,  
53 2006; Pardieck et al., 1992, U.S. EPA, 2004). Hydroxyl radicals arising from Fenton reactions have  
54 been shown to enhance mutagenesis, cell death, cell membrane damage, and to reduce both  
55 microbial activity and acclimation ability of microbial populations (Waddell and Mayer, 2003; Sahl  
56 and Munakata-Marr, 2006; Sutton et al., 2011). The harmful effects of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> on microbial  
57 community are concentration-dependent; as a result, the U.S. EPA recommends the use of aqueous  
58 solution of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> with a concentration lower than 500 mg L<sup>-1</sup> (U.S. EPA, 2004) to limit these  
59 phenomena.

60 Nevertheless, there is also evidence that the negative effect exerted by Fenton processes does not  
61 hinder a recovery of biological activity over time. For instance Sutton et al. (2014c), who  
62 investigated the effect of Fenton and modified Fenton processes on microbial diversity and activity  
63 during 8 weeks of incubation in two diesel-contaminated soils, observed that although microbial

64 communities was adversely affected in the first 2 weeks, a rebound of microbial abundance and  
65 biodegradation activity was observed after 4 weeks. This behaviour opened the way for the  
66 development of a treatment train based on the sequential application of ISCO and in situ  
67 bioremediation (ISB), which was investigated in several studies. For instance, Chen et al. (2016)  
68 investigated the efficiency of diesel removal by in situ chemical oxidation evaluating the effects of  
69 different oxidants on indigenous microorganisms; they observed that the contaminant removal was  
70 highest in ISCO-treated microcosms enabling a rapid recovery of the microbiota. These studies  
71 indicated that the combination of chemical oxidation and in situ bioremediation could be more  
72 efficient than ISCO alone in achieving the clean-up goals, since chemical oxidation was capable of  
73 reducing the contaminant's concentration to a level suitable for the further biological degradation of  
74 the residual contamination. The optimal coupling of ISCO and ISB requires a careful design of the  
75 chemical oxidation step, aimed at limiting its negative effects on the microbial community, as also  
76 shown by Chen et al. (2016).

77 Despite the available literature, there is still need of further investigation in view of ISCO  
78 integration with ISB. This regards in particular Fenton-like processes since, although previous  
79 studies have analysed the combination of bioremediation and other ISCO treatment, such as Fenton,  
80 modified Fenton, persulfate and permanganate and other oxidants (e.g. Chen et al., 2016; Sutton et  
81 al., 2014b, 2014c), the combination of ISB with Fenton-like processes has not been fully  
82 investigated yet. Thus, this study was aimed to gain more insights on this issue and to assess  
83 specifically the response of the bacterial community of a diesel-contaminated soil to the disturbance  
84 of oxidative stress caused by the application of FLT treatment. In particular, the soil underwent  
85 different treatment conditions, differing for either H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentrations (2 and 6%) or application  
86 mode (single injection or double after depletion of the first dose). Short-term and long-term effects  
87 on the bacterial community of the different tested treatments were evaluated using different  
88 molecular tools (i.e., Real Time PCR and DGGE) and biochemical tests (respirometry and  
89 dehydrogenase activity). The obtained results were then compared, both in terms of degradation

90 outcomes and impact on the microbial community with those obtained by enhanced natural  
91 attenuation (ENA).

## 92 **2 Materials and methods**

### 93 **2.1 Reagents**

94 Hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, 30% w/w), titanium (IV) oxysulfate, sulphuric acid (96%), monobasic  
95 potassium phosphate (KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>), used as stabilizing agent, ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid disodium  
96 salt dihydrate (EDTA) (99%), used as chelating agent, were purchased by Sigma Aldrich. 5- $\alpha$ -  
97 androstane (99.9%, 2.00  $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$  in methylene chloride, Sigma Aldrich) and 1-chlorooctadecane  
98 (99.6%, Sigma Aldrich) were used as internal standard and the surrogate, respectively. Anhydrous  
99 sodium sulphate (Sigma Aldrich > 99%), previously thermally activated at 500 °C for 4 h, was used  
100 for drying the soil samples during hydrocarbons extraction. All aqueous solutions employed were  
101 prepared with deionized water produced by reverse osmosis (Zeneer Power System).

### 102 **2.2 Soil Characterization**

103 All experiments were performed using a Diesel-contaminated soil collected in a gasoline station site  
104 and sampled from the capillary fringe at a depth of 1-2 m. Before use, the contaminated soil was  
105 sieved to remove the coarser fraction ( $d > 1.0$  cm), mechanically homogenized in a stainless steel  
106 vessel and its main chemical and biological properties were evaluated. The particle size distribution  
107 was determined applying the ASTM D422 (2007) procedure. The total organic carbon (TOC)  
108 content was determined as difference between the total carbon (TC) and inorganic carbon (IC) data  
109 measured using a Shimadzu TOC VCPH analyser equipped with a SSM-5000A solid sampler (EN  
110 15936:2012). The soil oxidant demand (SOD) and total oxidant demand (TOD) were measured by  
111 potassium permanganate consumption (Crimi et al., 2003). The pH was measured in the supernatant  
112 of a suspension made by 10 g of soil and 25 mL of a CaCl<sub>2</sub> solution 0.01 M. The total Fe and Mn  
113 content was determined by acid extraction (US EPA 3050B, 1996) followed by ICP-OES analysis  
114 (Agilent 710-ES) of the solution (ISO 11885:2011). The initial Diesel Range Organics (DRO)

115 content of the soil was also analysed measuring the concentration of hydrocarbons C8-C28 by gas  
 116 chromatography (see subsection 2.4).

### 117 2.3 Experimental set up

118 Two types of static batch tests were performed using the diesel-contaminated soil, i.e. Fenton-like  
 119 treatment (FLT) coupled with bioremediation (coded as FLT-BR) and enhanced natural attenuation  
 120 (coded as ENA) alone. Table 1 reports a synoptic scheme of the remediation microcosms and main  
 121 parameters of both the chemical oxidation and the biological attenuation step (i.e., liquid/solid ratio,  
 122 oxidant dose and application mode, endpoint for each Fenton-like treatment, mineral solution, water  
 123 content and bioremediation treatment times).

124 **Table 1.** Synoptic scheme of experimental design and main related conditions.

Test	Chemical oxidation step						Biological Attenuation Step		
	H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> (% wt)	KH <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> :H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> (mol/mol)	EDTA (mmol kg <sup>-1</sup> )	N° solution injection	L/S ratio (1 kg <sup>-1</sup> )	Treatment end-point (d)	Mineral solution (ml)	Water content (%)	Time (d)
Enhanced Natural Attenuation (ENA)									
ENA	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	30	30, 60, 90
Fenton-like treatment (FLT) and bioremediation (BR)									
FLT 2% H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	2	1:30	10	1	2	8	2	30	30, 60, 90
FLT 2+2% H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	2	1:30	10	2	2	13	2	30	30, 60, 90
FLT 6% H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	6	1:30	10	1	2	16	2	30	30, 60, 90

125

126 In the FLT-BR tests, the chemical oxidation step was followed by bioremediation; the ENA tests  
 127 were incubated in parallel with the beginning of the bioremediation phase of FLT-BR microcosms,  
 128 which was scheduled at the respective endpoints of each chemical oxidation treatment. This was  
 129 done in order to assess the possible recovery of the indigenous microbiota in FLT-treated  
 130 microcosms and to compare the clean-up efficiency of the combined FLT-BR treatments with those  
 131 attained by ENA.

#### 132 2.3.1 Fenton-like treatments

133 In the FLT-BR tests, a 50 mL plastic vial was loaded with the contaminated soil (12 g) and the  
 134 hydrogen peroxide solution (24 mL). Prior to the oxidation step, the soil was saturated with a

135 solution of EDTA for 24 h; then, the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> solution (either 2 or 6%, w/w) stabilized with KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>  
136 was added. The concentrations of the additives used in the FLT-BR tests were based on previous  
137 ISCO studies (Innocenti et al., 2014; Piscitelli et al., 2015). In particular, the stabilizing agent was  
138 added in order to achieve a KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>:H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> molar ratio equal to 1:30 and EDTA was dosed at a  
139 concentration of 10 mmol kg<sup>-1</sup> soil. The oxidation reaction was allowed to proceed until the residual  
140 hydrogen peroxide concentration was around 10% of its initial value. Tests were also performed  
141 with a sequential addition of a 2% hydrogen peroxide solution (2+2% tests) and the second dose  
142 was applied as the residual H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration had dropped by 90%. Based on this criterion, the  
143 end-points of each Fenton-like treatment was as follows: 8 d for 2% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> test, 13 d for 6% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>  
144 test and 16 d for 2+2% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> test. At the end of the oxidation phase, the slurry samples were  
145 centrifuged at 4 °C (8000 rpm, 15 min) and, after discarding the supernatant, the recovered soil  
146 sample used for the subsequent bioremediation step.

### 147 **2.3.2 Bioremediation treatments**

148 Microcosms containing the FLT-treated soil (12 g) were mixed with 2 mL mineral solution (CaCl<sub>2</sub>,  
149 0.05 g L<sup>-1</sup>; MgSO<sub>4</sub>\*7H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.1 g L<sup>-1</sup>; FeCl<sub>3</sub>, 0.12 mg L<sup>-1</sup> and NH<sub>4</sub>Cl, 0.5 g L<sup>-1</sup>) and incubated in the  
150 dark at 20 °C for 3 months in 50 mL plastic vials with screw caps. The soil moisture was  
151 maintained at 30% in order to simulate typical conditions found in the capillary fringe, from which  
152 the soil samples were collected. In the ENA tests, the same procedure was applied to a sample of  
153 untreated soil. Each FLT-BR and ENA microcosm was performed in triplicate for each time point  
154 (i.e., 0, 30, 60 and 90 d).

### 155 **2.4 Chemical analyses**

156 H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration was measured using an UV–VIS spectrophotometer TU-1880S Double Beam  
157 after colour development with titanium sulphate (Schumb et al., 1955). The DRO residual  
158 concentrations in the different soil samples were determined according to the U.S. EPA 3550C,  
159 (2007) procedure. In particular, the soil (5.0 g) was mixed in a 50 mL glass vial with 5.0 g of

160 anhydrous sodium sulphate, 5.0 mL of n-hexane, 10 mL of acetone (ISPRA, 2011) and 1 mL of 1-  
161 chlorooctadecane solution (MADEP-EPH-04, 2004) and incubated for 30 min in an ultrasonic bath  
162 (Fisher Scientific FB 15053). After ultrasonic extraction, the supernatant was transferred to a funnel  
163 with 50 mL of DI water in order to remove acetone by liquid-liquid extraction, thus allowing to  
164 obtain an extract with only n-hexane as solvent. The extract was then purified with 0.4 g of  
165 previously activated Florisil and 0.4 g of anhydrous sodium sulphate (ISPRA, 2011) and 5- $\alpha$ -  
166 androstane was added as internal standard (MADEP-EPH-04, 2004).

167 DRO concentration was measured by GC/MS (direct injection, split ratio 1:20, 1 $\mu$ L-injection  
168 volume) with a Shimadzu GC QP2010SE instrument equipped with a TR-5MS column (30 m  $\times$   
169 0.25 mm ID  $\times$  0.25  $\mu$ m film thickness) (Thermo Scientific), using helium as carrier gas. The initial  
170 oven temperature set at 50 $^{\circ}$ C, held for 1 min, ramped up to 110  $^{\circ}$ C (10  $^{\circ}$ C min $^{-1}$ ) and then ramped  
171 to 320  $^{\circ}$ C (3 $^{\circ}$ C min $^{-1}$ ) and, finally, held at 320  $^{\circ}$ C for 3 min (adapted from Xie et al., 1999). DRO  
172 concentrations are referred to unit mass of soil (EN 15934:2012).

## 173 **2.5 Biological analyses**

### 174 **2.5.1 Molecular analyses**

175 Microbial abundance and diversity were assessed by quantitative polymerase chain reaction (q-  
176 PCR) and denaturant gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE) respectively.

177 Total soil DNA was extracted using a PowerSoil $^{\circ}$  DNA Isolation Kit (MO BIO Laboratories, Inc.)  
178 and q-PCR experiments were performed with LightCycler $^{\circ}$  480 Real-Time PCR System (Roche)  
179 using the fluorescent molecule SYBR Green I. The 16S rDNA was amplified using the primers  
180 331F (TCCTACGGGAGGCAGCAGT) and 797R (GGACTACCAGGGTATCTAATCCTGTT)  
181 (Nadkarni et al., 2002). For each reaction, 10  $\mu$ L SYBR Green PCR Master mix (Roche), 1  $\mu$ L of  
182 each primer 1  $\mu$ L DNA and 3  $\mu$ L H $_2$ O were used. Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification  
183 was conducted with an initial denaturation at 95  $^{\circ}$ C for 5 min, followed by 45 cycles of  
184 denaturation, annealing (60  $^{\circ}$ C) and extension at 72  $^{\circ}$ C for 1 min and a final melting step. Bacterial

185 concentrations were calculated based on a standard curve obtained using triplicate 10-fold serial  
186 dilutions of known concentration of plasmid pGem T-easy cloning vector containing the bacterial  
187 target as the insert.

188 In DGGE analysis, the hypervariable V3 region of the 16S rDNA was amplified using the primers  
189 341F (ACG GGG GGC CTA CGG GAG GCA GCAG) and 534R (ATT ACC GCG GCT GCT  
190 GG) (Muyzer et al., 1993). Reaction mix used for each sample was composed by 2 $\mu$ L template  
191 DNA, 1  $\mu$ L of each primer, 25  $\mu$ L Nzytaq MasterMix (NZYtech, Lisbon, Portugal ) and 21  $\mu$ L H<sub>2</sub>O.  
192 PCR amplification was conducted with an initial denaturation at 95 °C for 2 min followed by the  
193 annealing phase in which the temperature was decreased by 0.5 °C in each cycle from 65 °C till 55  
194 °C and then further ten cycles were performed. Each amplification product was checked on 1.2%  
195 agarose gel prior to denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE) analysis, which was performed  
196 using INGENY phorU-2 system (Ingeny International BV, Goes, NL). A 6% polyacrylamide gel on  
197 TAE 10X (20 mM Tris, 10 mM acetate, 0.5 mM Na<sub>2</sub>EDTA, pH 7.8) with a 40-60% urea-  
198 formamide linear gradient was used and electrophoresis was performed at 60 °C and 100 V for 16  
199 h. After electrophoresis, the gel was stained using Gel Star (Invitrogen) in TAE 1X for 45 min and  
200 the image was detected using a UV trans-illuminator with camera (Chemidoc, Biorad).

201 The obtained DGGE images were then analysed using Quantity-one image analysis software (v.  
202 4.2.5 Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA) to assess the biodiversity of the bacterial species present  
203 by calculating diversity indices Richness (R), Shannon-Weaver (H') and Evenness (E). In particular  
204 R was the number of detected bands. H' index was calculated as  $-\sum p_i \ln p_i$ , where  $p_i$  was the ratio  
205 between the single band intensity and the sum of bands intensity of each lane and Evenness (E) was  
206 calculated as  $H' \ln R^{-1}$  (García-Delgado et al., 2015). Pareto Lorenz curves were calculated  
207 according to Marzorati et al. (2008).

## 208 **2.5.2 Biochemical analyses**

209 Community level physiological profile (CLPP) of the untreated soil was determined by the Biolog  
210 EcoPlate™ system (Biolog Inc., CA, USA). Each 96-well plate consists of three replicates, each  
211 one comprising 31 sole carbon sources and a water blank. Aliquots of soil elutriate (100 µl),  
212 obtained by suspending soil in the physiological solution (1:10, w/v) and incubating in an  
213 ultrasonic bath for 15min, followed by 15 min orbital shaking, were inoculated into the microplate.  
214 The plates were incubated at 20 °C, and colour development in each well was recorded as optical  
215 density (OD) at 590 nm with a plate reader at regular 12 h-intervals. Absorbance values for each of  
216 the 31 substrates were corrected by subtraction of the blank control value.

217 Soil dehydrogenase activity was determined according to the method of Trevors et al. (1984). In  
218 particular, the soil (1.0 g), the moisture of which had been adjusted to 60% of the water-holding  
219 capacity, was incubated at 37 °C for 36 h prior to the addition of a 2,3,5-triphenyltetrazolium  
220 chloride (TTC, 1.5%, w/v) solution in Tris-HCl buffer 0.1 M pH 7.6. At the end of incubation, the  
221 triphenylformazan (TPF) was extracted with 8 ml of acetone, the extract was filtered and the  
222 absorbance of the filtrate read at 546 nm ( $\epsilon = 15.4 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ).

223 Microbial respiration was determined using the MicroResp™ soil respiration system (Micro-  
224 Resp™, Macaulay Scientific Consulting Ltd, Aberdeen, UK) according to the method of Campbell  
225 et al. (2003). In particular, approx. 0.5 g from each soil microcosms, the moisture of which had  
226 been previously adjusted to 60% of the WHC, were placed in each one of the 96 deep-well plates  
227 and two replicates were used for each microcosm. To determine the evolved CO<sub>2</sub>, a colorimetric  
228 method relying on the change in the pH of a gel-based solution of bicarbonate containing cresol red  
229 was used. The absorbance of the detection plate was read at 595 nm at start and after 6 h of  
230 incubation at 25 °C by using a Zenyth multi-mode reader (Anthos, Wals, Austria). The absorbance  
231 after 6 h was normalized for any differences recorded at time zero and converted to the headspace

232 CO<sub>2</sub> concentration by using a calibration curve obtained as described by the manufacturer.  
233 Respiration data were expressed in terms of  $\mu\text{g C-CO}_2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ soil h}^{-1}$ .

## 234 **2.6 Statistical analysis**

235 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by the Least Significant Difference (LSD) post-  
236 hoc tests were performed by using the SigmaStat 3.5 software package (Jandel Scientific,  
237 Germany).

238

## 239 **3 Results and Discussion**

### 240 **3.1 Soil Characterization**

241 The main chemical and biological properties of the soil under study, which was a backfill sand, are  
242 shown in Table 2. The analysis of the particle size distribution confirmed that the soil had a coarse  
243 texture and could be defined as a sand with gravel. Its TOC content was around 0.83% and was  
244 considered suitable for ISCO application since a limited unproductive oxidant consumption by soil  
245 organic matter is expected (Baciocchi et al., 2014). Furthermore, the obtained SOD and TOD values  
246 were equal to 2.1 and 10.9  $\text{g}_{\text{ox}} \text{ kg}_{\text{soil}}^{-1}$ , respectively, suggesting that the unproductive consumption of  
247 the oxidant through reaction with natural soil reductants for this soil is lower than the suggested  
248 maximum value of 30  $\text{g}_{\text{ox}} \text{ kg}_{\text{soil}}^{-1}$  (Baciocchi et al., 2014). The pH of the soil (i.e., 7.6) was also  
249 suitable for Fenton-like treatments (Sigriest et al., 2011). The total Fe content was equal to  $41.9 \pm$   
250  $4.0 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  while the DRO content was  $1847 \pm 378 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \text{ soil}$ .

251 The microbial abundance in the soil under study was evaluated through both cultivation-dependent  
252 approaches (viable counts) and (q-PCR) experiments targeting the 16S rRNA gene. The untreated  
253 soil had a bacterial density of  $3.1 \times 10^6 \text{ CFU g}^{-1}$  corresponding to a 16S copy number of  $6.54 \times 10^8 \text{ g}^{-1}$ .  
254 Such a microbial density was deemed to be compatible with an enhanced natural attenuation.  
255 CLLP analysis evidenced the indigenous microbial community capacity to metabolize the following  
256 substrates (data not shown): pyruvic acid methyl ester, D-xylose, D-galacturonic acid, L-asparagine,

257 Tween 40, Tween 80, D-mannitol, itaconic acid, glycyl-L-glutamic acid. The microbial activity  
 258 against Tweens could indicate the hydrocarbon-degrading potential of the indigenous microbial  
 259 community.

260

261

262

263 **Table 2.** Main chemical and biological properties of the contaminated soil sample.

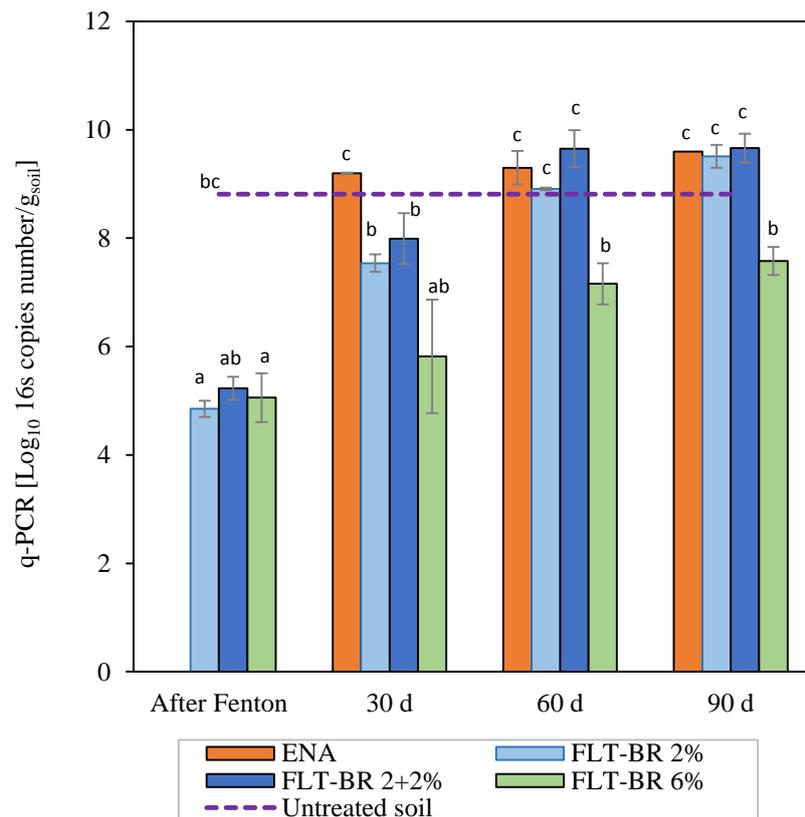
Parameter	Units.	Mean value
<b>Particle Size Distribution</b>		
d > 2 mm	%	34.3
1.7 < d < 2 mm	%	2.3
0.84 < d < 1.7 mm	%	15.3
0.425 < d < 0.84 mm	%	20.3
0.125 < d < 0.425mm	%	25.7
d < 0.125 mm	%	2.1
Water content	%	4.3-5
TC	%	0.94
IC	%	0.11
TOC	%	0.83
pH	-	7.6
Fe	mg kg <sup>-1</sup> soil	41.9 ± 3.97
Mn	mg kg <sup>-1</sup> soil	0.87 ± 0.02
Soil Oxidant Demand (SOD)	g <sub>ox</sub> kg <sup>-1</sup> soil	2.1
Total Oxidant Demand (TOD)	g <sub>ox</sub> kg <sup>-1</sup> soil	10.9
DRO (C <sub>12</sub> -C <sub>28</sub> )	mg kg <sup>-1</sup> soil	1847 ± 378
Bacterial abundance	CFU g <sup>-1</sup> × 10 <sup>6</sup>	3.1±0.45
	16S rRNA gene copy number g <sup>-1</sup> soil	6.54 ± 0.64 × 10 <sup>8</sup>
Respiration rate	μg C-CO <sub>2</sub> g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup>	0.15 ± 0.01
Dehydrogenase activity	nmol TPF g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup>	3.05 ± 0.33

264

### 265 3.2 Effects of treatments on the microbial abundance

266 Figure 1 shows that in the ENA microcosm, the 16S rRNA gene copy number remained stable  
 267 throughout the incubation, ranging from 10<sup>8</sup> to 10<sup>9</sup> and reaching a value that did not significantly  
 268 differ from that found in the soil at start.

269 As expected, the application of the FLT exerted a marked suppressive effect on the indigenous  
 270 bacterial community immediately after the end-point of each treatment. In fact, after Fenton  
 271 oxidation, no growth was detected by the cultivation-dependent method (data not shown) and q-  
 272 PCR detected a low bacterial abundance ( $10^5$  16S copies  $g^{-1}_{soil}$ ) regardless of both the dose and  
 273 mode of hydrogen peroxide injection (single or double). The known biocide effect of  $H_2O_2$  on  
 274 microbial growth is exerted by oxidative stress targeting lipids, proteins and, above all, DNA which  
 275 may be significantly affected by nicking (Linley et al., 2012). However, microorganisms may cope  
 276 with oxidative stress through defence mechanisms based on enzymatic reactions (catalase and/or  
 277 superoxide dismutase) and/or genetic repair tools enabling the indigenous bacterial community to  
 278 withstand and/or recover after the cessation of the stress factor.



279  
 280 **Figure 1:** 16S rRNA gene copy number in Enhanced Natural Attenuation (ENA) microcosm and in  
 281 microcosms subjected to sequential Fenton-like treatment and bioremediation (FLT-BR) at different times of  
 282 incubation (0, 30, 60 and 90 d). Statistical pairwise multiple comparison of data was carried out by the least  
 283 significant difference (LSD) test and the same letters above bars indicate the absence of significant  
 284 differences ( $P \leq 0.05$ ). The dashed line represents the 16S copy number in the initial contaminated soil.

285 The time-dependent response of the bacterial community to the chemical oxidation treatments was  
 286 studied over three months starting from the end-point of each Fenton-like treatment. Fig. 1 shows  
 287 that after 30 d, the community responded differently in dependence on the dose of the oxidant. At  
 288 that time, a partial recovery of the community abundance (from  $10^5$  to  $10^7$  16S RNA gene copy  
 289 number  $g^{-1}$ ) was observed in microcosms subjected to 2% oxidant dose, irrespective of the single or  
 290 double injection; conversely, no rebound was observed when the applied dose was 6%. After 60 d,  
 291 the microcosms subjected to 2%  $H_2O_2$ , either with single or double injection, reached similar values  
 292 to those observed in both untreated soil and in coeval ENA microcosms, showing a total rebound  
 293 capacity of the community, at least from the quantitative point of view. A slower recovery was  
 294 observed in microcosms that had undergone 6% oxidant treatment where even after three months  
 295 the bacterial abundance remained two orders of magnitude lower than that observed in the untreated  
 296 soil.

### 297 3.2.1 Effects on the microbial community structure

298 Since chemical oxidation treatments are known to affect also the community structure, microbial  
 299 biodiversity and evenness distribution of the resilient communities were assessed by the analysis of  
 300 DGGE profiles, the PCR-amplified 16S rDNA (Fig. S1) which enabled the calculation of diversity  
 301 indices (Table 3) and Pareto Lorenz curves (Fig. 2).

302 **Table 3:** Bacterial community diversity indices calculated from DGGE profiles obtained immediately  
 303 downstream of the chemical oxidation treatment endpoint and after 30, 60, 90, in Fenton-like-treated  
 304 microcosms and in parallel enhanced natural attenuation (ENA) microcosms. Statistical pairwise multiple  
 305 comparison of column data was carried out by the least significant difference (LSD) test and the same letters  
 306 above bars indicate the absence of significant differences ( $P \leq 0.05$ ).

Diversity indices				
	Incubation Time	Shannon-Weaver ( $H'$ )	Richness (R)	Evenness (E)
<b>Untreated soil</b>		$2.32 \pm 0.16^b$	$15 \pm 1^{bc}$	$0.86 \pm 0.02^{ab}$
<b>ENA</b>	0	$2.39 \pm 0.13^b$	$16 \pm 1^{bc}$	$0.85 \pm 0.03^{ab}$
	30 days	$2.56 \pm 0.15^{bc}$	$19 \pm 2^c$	$0.87 \pm 0.02^{ab}$
	60 days	$2.51 \pm 0.11^{bc}$	$13 \pm 2^{bc}$	$0.87 \pm 0.03^a$
	90 days	$2.53 \pm 0.16^{bc}$	$12 \pm 2^c$	$0.86 \pm 0.02^{ab}$

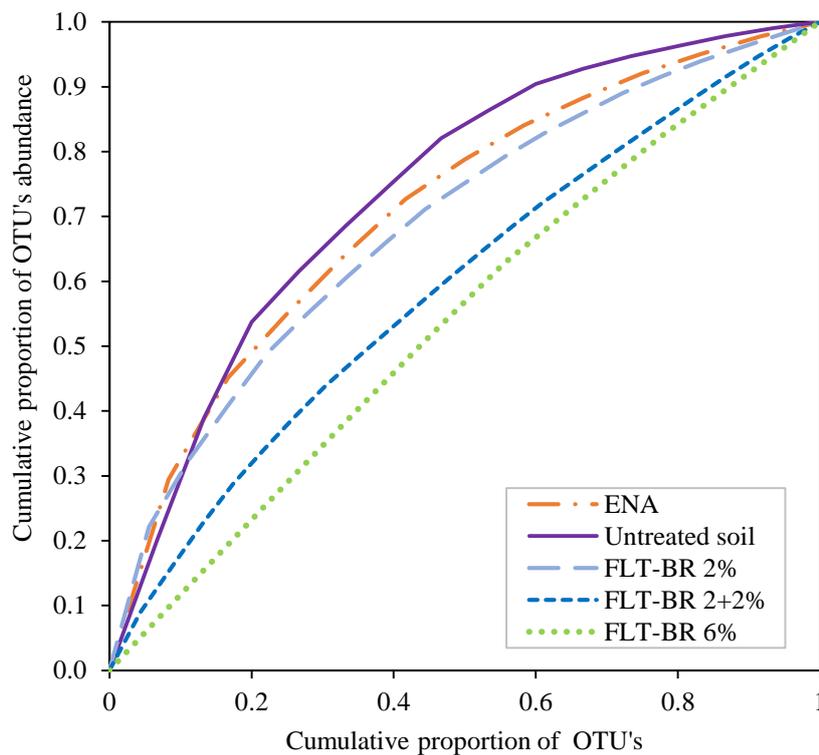
<b>Fenton-Bioremediation</b>				
<b>2%</b>	0	2.38 ± 0.18 <sup>b</sup>	14 ± 2 <sup>b</sup>	0.90 ± 0.03 <sup>ab</sup>
	30 days	2.89 ± 0.12 <sup>c</sup>	23 ± 2 <sup>d</sup>	0.92 ± 0.02 <sup>b</sup>
	60 days	2.49 ± 0.15 <sup>bc</sup>	13 ± 1 <sup>ab</sup>	0.96 ± 0.03 <sup>c</sup>
	90 days	2.63 ± 0.11 <sup>bc</sup>	18 ± 1 <sup>c</sup>	0.91 ± 0.03 <sup>b</sup>
<b>2+2%</b>	0	2.47 ± 0.15 <sup>b</sup>	15 ± 1 <sup>bc</sup>	0.93 ± 0.02 <sup>b</sup>
	30 days	2.92 ± 0.17 <sup>c</sup>	19 ± 2 <sup>c</sup>	0.99 ± 0.03 <sup>c</sup>
	60 days	3.16 ± 0.16 <sup>c</sup>	25 ± 1 <sup>d</sup>	0.98 ± 0.03 <sup>bc</sup>
	90 days	3.08 ± 0.13 <sup>c</sup>	23 ± 1 <sup>d</sup>	0.98 ± 0.03 <sup>bc</sup>
<b>6%</b>	0	2.30 ± 0.13 <sup>b</sup>	14 ± 1 <sup>b</sup>	0.90 ± 0.02 <sup>b</sup>
	30 days	1.99 ± 0.12 <sup>a</sup>	8 ± 2 <sup>a</sup>	0.96 ± 0.03 <sup>bc</sup>
	60 days	2.30 ± 0.15 <sup>b</sup>	10 ± 1 <sup>a</sup>	0.99 ± 0.02 <sup>bc</sup>
	90 days	2.18 ± 0.14 <sup>ab</sup>	9 ± 1 <sup>a</sup>	0.99 ± 0.02 <sup>b</sup>

307

308 The addition of the oxidant at 2% in single dose led to an increase of both bacterial richness and  
309 diversity. The Fenton treatment at 2% with double injection gave rise to a higher and prolonged  
310 increase of both bacterial diversity and richness as compared to the microcosm undergoing single  
311 dose (Table 3). This effect, already described in literature (Chen et al., 2016; Sutton et al., 2014c),  
312 was suggested to be due to the release of degradable products in the soil which enhanced latent  
313 microbial species. In this respect, a previous study had shown the formation of several soluble  
314 compounds such as carboxylic acid, aldehydes and ketones due to the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced oxidation of  
315 diesel (Villa et al., 2008), the enhanced biodegradability of which was also inferred by an increase  
316 in the BOD<sub>5</sub>/COD ratio in another investigation (Mater et al., 2007). In addition, Sutton et al.,  
317 (2014c) interpreted this temporary increase of biodiversity as a transient adaptation of a resilient  
318 community until the attainment of a new “steady state” condition. Conversely, a severe negative  
319 impact on microbial community richness in the soil that underwent 6% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment was  
320 observed (Table 3).

321 In order to investigate the stability of the resilient bacterial communities that established 90 d after  
322 the endpoints of the different FLT, Pareto Lorenz (PL) distribution curves, derived from their  
323 respective DGGE profiles, were plotted (Fig. 2).

324 In general, the more the PL curve deviates from the 45° diagonal (the theoretical perfect evenness  
 325 line), the greater the shift in the evenness of the studied community (Marzorati et al., 2008). The PL  
 326 curve of the untreated soil showed that 20% of the cumulative proportion of bands corresponded to  
 327 a 54% of cumulative relative abundance of the bands, resembling the curve of the 90-d-old ENA  
 328 microcosm. These results indicated the presence of dominant species without, however, a high  
 329 degree of specialization for that habitat (Marzorati et al., 2008). The deviations of the PL curves of  
 330 the Fenton-like treated microcosms with respect to the perfect evenness line (45° diagonal) tended  
 331 to decrease as a function of the oxidant dose (Fig. 2). In particular, in microcosms treated with 2%  
 332 H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, the 20% intercept value was still around 45%, while in the 2+2% and 6% microcosms, the  
 333 intercepts amounted to 32 and 22% that indicated almost the absence of dominant species.  
 334



335  
 336 **Figure 2:** Pareto Lorenz curves derived from DGGE profiles of the initial soil (IS), Enhanced Natural  
 337 Attenuation (ENA) microcosms and those subjected to sequential Fenton-like treatment and bioremediation  
 338 (FLT-BR) after 90 d of incubation.

339

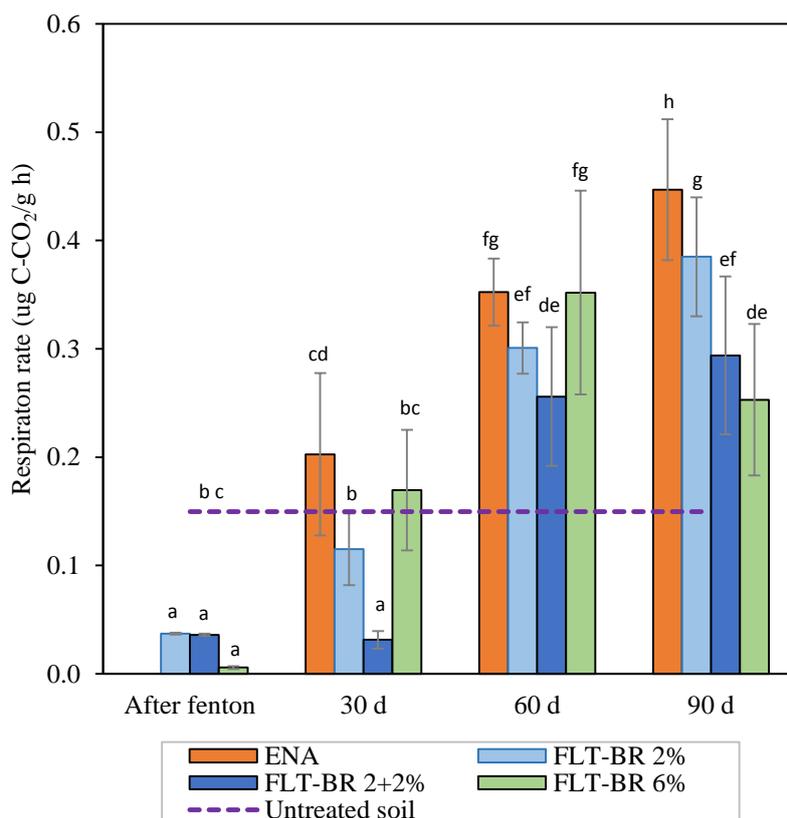
340 Marzorati et al. (2008) suggested that the absence of dominant species (such as in 2+2% and 6%  
341 H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> microcosms) might lead to a relatively long lag phase in the presence of a further stress  
342 exposure. Conversely, the community that experienced the 2% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment, having a 45% PL  
343 curve, is expected to deal effectively with changing environmental conditions and to preserve its  
344 functionality, even after a possible secondary stress disturbance.

345

### 346 **3.2.2 Effects on Microbial function**

347 To gain further insights into the effect of the chemical oxidation treatments on the indigenous  
348 microbiota, some indices of microbial function were also determined. To this aim, respiration rate  
349 and dehydrogenase activity in the microcosms undergoing ENA were compared with those  
350 determined after 30, 60 and 90 d from the endpoint of each FLT.

351 On a comparative basis, the respiration rates in both the initial soil (Table 2) and all remediation  
352 microcosms was lower by around one order of magnitude than those found in natural and  
353 agricultural soils. (Stoyan et al., 2000; Renault et al., 2013), This was somehow expected since, in  
354 addition to the contamination, the soil under study had a highly predominant sandy texture with an  
355 ensuing low organic matter content. Anyhow, as shown in Fig. 3, a time dependent rise in  
356 respiration rate was observed in ENA microcosm with a three-fold increase after 90 d with respect  
357 to the microcosm at start (0.45 vs. 0.15  $\mu\text{g C-CO}_2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ soil h}^{-1}$ ). Irrespective of both dose and  
358 application mode, respiration was markedly depressed when measured immediately after the  
359 endpoint of each FLT with values ranging between 0.006 to 0.037  $\mu\text{g C-CO}_2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ soil h}^{-1}$ . However, a  
360 prompt recovery was observed in the microcosms that underwent single addition of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>.



361

362 **Figure 3:** Respiration rates determined immediately downstream of the chemical oxidation treatment  
 363 endpoints and after 30, 60, 90 d in Fenton-like-treated microcosms and in parallel enhanced natural  
 364 attenuation (ENA) microcosms. Statistical pairwise multiple comparison of data was carried out by the least  
 365 significant difference (LSD) test and the same letters above bars indicate the absence of significant  
 366 differences ( $P \leq 0.05$ ). The dashed line represents the basal respiration in the initial contaminated soil.

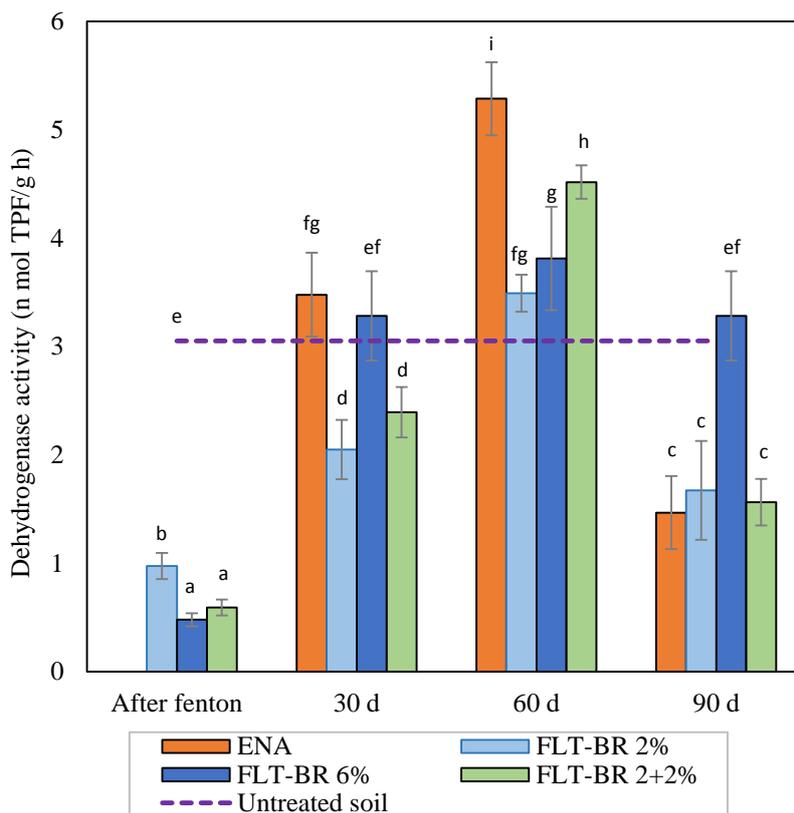
367

368 In the microcosms that had been treated with 2% oxidant, respiration tended to increase over time  
 369 although its amounts were lower than those detected in the coeval ENA microcosms. In microcosm  
 370 that had been treated with 6% oxidant, the extent of recovery was higher than that found in 2%  
 371 microcosms and respiration did not significantly differ from that found in coeval ENA microcosms  
 372 in the early 30 d of incubation. Conversely, in the microcosms that were subjected to double  
 373 addition of 2% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, the recovery was delayed as it can be inferred from the similarity of  
 374 respiration values in 30-d-old microcosms and those at start. However, after 60 d incubation, 7.1-  
 375 fold increases in respiration rates were observed in 2+2% microcosms, with respect to those  
 376 detected in the same microcosms immediately downstream of the endpoint of the chemical

377 oxidation treatment. This recovery effect was also extended to the further harvest (90 days) for the  
378 2+2% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> microcosm.

379 Besides respirometry, the activity of some key enzymes in soil is recognized as an index of  
380 functionality and vitality of the indigenous microbial communities. Among them, dehydrogenase  
381 (DH-ase) activity represents an indicator of soil's redox capacity and, as such, is considered a  
382 widely accepted index of soil quality and of recovery of functionality in remediation scenarios  
383 (Dawson et al, 2007).

384 On a comparative basis with several soil typologies (Kumar et al., 2013), DH-ase activity was found  
385 to be very low in the initial contaminated soil (Table 2) and further depressed immediately  
386 downstream of the endpoints of FLT (Fig. 4).



387

388 **Figure 4:** Dehydrogenase activities determined immediately downstream of the chemical oxidation  
389 treatment endpoints and after 30, 60, 90, in Fenton-like-treated microcosms and in parallel enhanced natural  
390 attenuation (ENA) microcosms. Statistical pairwise multiple comparison of data was carried out by the least  
391 significant difference (LSD) test and the same letters above bars indicate the absence of significant  
392 differences ( $P \leq 0.05$ ). The dashed line represents the dehydrogenase activity in the initial contaminated soil

393

394 However, DH-ase activity tended to increase in the early two months of incubation in all the  
395 microcosms under study to decline thereafter. After 60 d of incubation, in particular, DH-ase  
396 activities were significantly higher than that found in the original untreated soil, as shown in Fig. 4.  
397 Although respiration relies on the activity of different dehydrogenase systems, the time-dependent  
398 trend of this parameter differed from that found for respiration rate. In this respect, several studies  
399 have failed to find correlation between these parameters in soil (Nohrstedt, 1985) and this has been  
400 ascribed to the inability of some microorganisms and respective dehydrogenase systems to use TTC  
401 as the electron acceptor (Tarafdar, 2003).

402

403

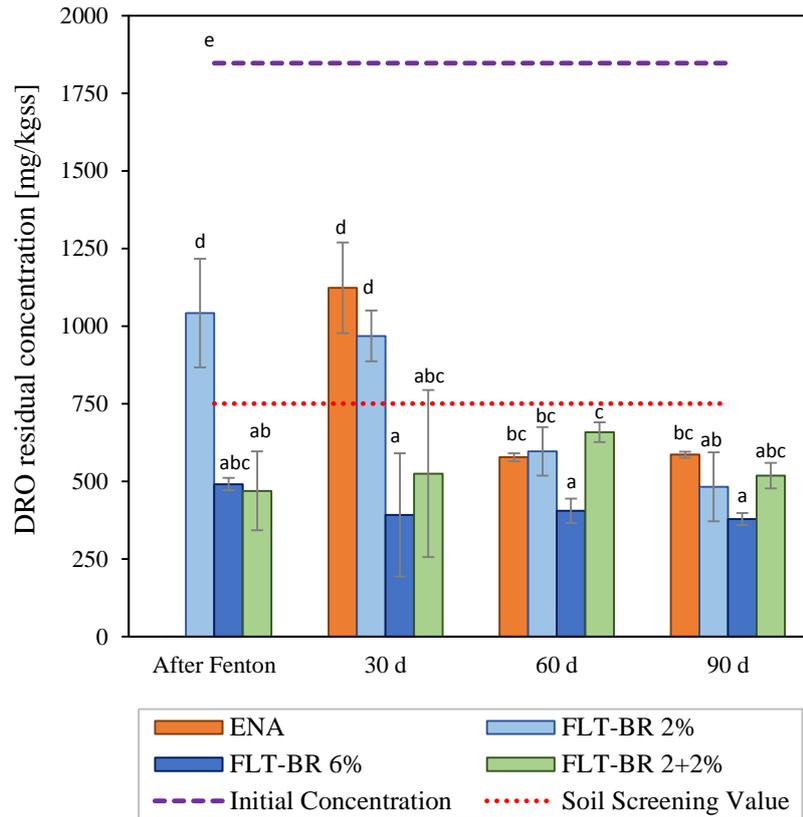
### 404 **3.2.3 DRO degradation in microcosms**

405 Regardless of the incubation time, in all the microcosms under study, the residual DRO  
406 concentrations were significantly lower than those found in the initial soil (1847 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> soil), as  
407 shown in Fig. 5. In particular, in the early two months of incubation, the contaminant concentration  
408 markedly dropped in the ENA microcosms (1123 and 578 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> after 30 and 60 d) to remain  
409 almost constant thereafter; thus, at the end of the set incubation time, this treatment yielded a  
410 contaminant removal equal to 68.3%. This was expected since CLPP showed the ability of the  
411 indigenous community to utilize hydrocarbon-related compounds, such as Tweens, which contain a  
412 significant acyl moiety in their structure; in addition, the bacterial counts in the initial soil was  
413 significantly higher than that suggested as the minimal threshold (10<sup>3</sup> CFU g<sup>-1</sup>) to ensure the  
414 feasibility of bioremediation (Chen et al., 2016; U.S. EPA, 2004). Furthermore, respiration rate and  
415 the dehydrogenase activity in the ENA microcosm had indicated a time-dependent increase in the  
416 early two months of incubation.

417

418

419



420

421 **Figure 5:** DRO residual concentration determined immediately downstream of the chemical oxidation  
 422 treatment endpoints and after 30, 60, 90, in Fenton-like-treated microcosms and in parallel enhanced natural  
 423 attenuation (ENA) microcosms. Statistical pairwise multiple comparison of data was carried out by the least  
 424 significant difference (LSD) test and the same letters above bars indicate the absence of significant  
 425 differences ( $P \leq 0.05$ ). The dotted and the dashed line indicate the DRO concentration in the initial untreated  
 426 soil and the regulatory limit set by the Italian legislation for industrial soil, respectively.

427

428 It can be noticed that all the FLT's, at their respective endpoints, were able to meet the soil screening  
 429 value ( $750 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ) set by the Italian legislation for industrial soils with the notable exception of  
 430 that conducted with 2%  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  in which the onset of degradation was delayed. In fact, the residual  
 431 DRO concentration, determined immediately downstream of the treatment's endpoint, did not  
 432 significantly differ from that found after 30 d incubation (Fig. 5). Conversely, the contaminant  
 433 concentration dropped after 60 d to reach  $482 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  after 90 d of incubation. With this regard, the  
 434 Pareto-Lorenz curve had indicated that the evenness of the bacterial community in this microcosm  
 435 was similar to those of both the initial soil and 90-d-old ENA microcosm which had shown

436 hydrocarbon-degrading capacity. The overall clean-up efficiency of the FLT (2% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>)-BR  
437 treatment was around 74%.

438 In agreement with Sutton et al. (2014a), the double injection of the 2% hydrogen peroxide solution  
439 led to higher DRO removal efficiency than that obtained with single oxidant dose with a  
440 contaminant residual concentration of 491 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> after the treatment endpoint. However, in this  
441 case, the impact of bioattenuation on the DRO concentration was limited as compared to that  
442 observed with the 2% microcosms, leading to a DRO residual concentration of 379 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> after 90  
443 d of incubation. In this respect, the Pareto-Lorenz curve witnessed for a loss of dominant species  
444 originally present in the initial soil. The overall clean-up efficiency of the FLT (2+2% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>)-BR  
445 treatment was 79.5%.

446 In the 6% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> microcosms, the DRO residual concentration was equal to 469 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> after the  
447 oxidation phase and remained fairly constant during the whole biological phase, showing a  
448 negligible effect of the bioattenuation on the DRO concentration. In this case, the Pareto-Lorenz  
449 curve was very close to the perfect evenness line (45° diagonal), indicating the absence of  
450 predominant species originally present in the initial soil.

451

452

#### 453 **4 Conclusions**

454 In this study, the effect of a Fenton-like treatment (FLT) on the soil microbial community was  
455 assessed applying different oxidant concentration and single or double hydrogen peroxide dosage.  
456 The results obtained in this study showed that FLT treatment was equally effective operating either  
457 with a single H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> injection at higher concentration (6%) or applying a double injection at lower  
458 concentration (2+2%), with a DRO removal after the Fenton-like treatment around 75%. However,  
459 the analysis performed on the microcosms that underwent a FLT with higher hydrogen peroxide  
460 concentration showed a severe impact on microbial community richness and bacterial abundance.  
461 Conversely, the Fenton-like treatment proved to be less effective when operating a single injection  
462 at 2% (44% DRO removal). Nevertheless, the 2% treatment impacted less the microbial community  
463 with respect to both the 6% and 2+2%, allowing bioattenuation to occur after the chemical  
464 oxidation step, with a residual concentration after 90 days similar to the one achieved in the other  
465 tests just after the Fenton's treatment. Although the combination of chemical oxidation and  
466 bioremediation allows to overcome the limitation of biodegradation at high contaminant  
467 concentration, the results obtained in this work suggest that at the tested contaminant's  
468 concentration (1847 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> DRO) enhanced natural attenuation alone was also effective, in  
469 agreement with Chen et al. (2016), but the FLT can significantly shorten the bioremediation  
470 process.

471

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