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MICROBIOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS IN A ZERO-VALENT
IRON REACTIVE BARRIER

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1 ABSTRACT

2 Zero-valent iron (Fe^0)-based permeable reactive barrier treatment has been generating
3 great interest for passive groundwater remediation, yet few studies have paid particular attention
4 to the microbial activity and characteristics within and in the vicinity of the Fe^0 -barrier matrix.
5 The present study was undertaken to evaluate the microbial population and community
6 composition in the reducing zone of influence by Fe^0 corrosion in the barrier at the Oak Ridge Y-
7 12 Plant site. Both phospholipid fatty acids and DNA analyses were used to determine the total
8 microbial biomass population and microbial functional groups, including sulfate-reducing
9 bacteria, denitrifying bacteria, and methanogens, in groundwater and soil/iron core samples. A
10 diverse microbial community was identified in the strongly reducing Fe^0 environment despite a
11 relatively high pH condition within the Fe^0 barrier (up to pH ~10). In comparison with those
12 found in the background soil/groundwater samples, the enhanced microbial biomass population
13 ranged from ~1 to 3 orders of magnitude and appeared to increase from upgradient of the barrier
14 to downgradient soil. In addition, microbial community composition appeared to change over
15 time, and the bacterial types of microorganisms increased consistently as the barrier aged. DNA
16 analysis indicated the presence of sulfate-reducing and denitrifying bacteria in the barrier and its
17 surrounding soil. However, the activity of methanogens was found to be relatively low,
18 presumably as a result of the competition by sulfate/metal-reducing bacteria and denitrifying
19 bacteria because of the unlimited availability of sulfate and nitrate in the site groundwater.
20 Results of this study provide evidence of a diverse microbial biomass population within and in
21 the vicinity of the iron barrier, although the important roles of microbial activity, either
22 beneficially or detrimentally, on the longevity and enduring efficiency of the Fe^0 barriers are yet
23 to be evaluated.

24
25 **Keywords:** iron barriers, microorganisms, microbial activity, diversity, and DNA.

1 INTRODUCTION

2 Microbiological processes may play an important role in the long-term performance of
3 the zero-valent iron (Fe^0)-based permeable reactive barriers, yet few studies have paid particular
4 attention to the microbial activity and characteristics within and in the vicinity of the Fe^0 -barrier
5 matrix (Gu et al., 1999; Scherer et al., 2000). Major uncertainties need to be resolved with
6 respect to the adaptation of indigenous microorganisms to the strongly reducing Fe^0
7 environment, changes in the microbial community composition, and more importantly, their
8 beneficial or detrimental effects on the longevity and enduring efficiency of the Fe^0 barriers.
9 Depending on the groundwater geochemistry, an enhanced microbial activity may reduce the
10 porosity and the hydraulic performance of the barriers as a result of the accumulation of biomass
11 or biofilm, the production of gas bubbles (e.g., denitrification), and the formation of mineral
12 precipitation (Taylor and Jaffe, 1990; Gu et al., 1999; Phillips et al., 2000; Scherer et al., 2000).
13 A combination of excessive microbial growth and mineral precipitation on Fe^0 surfaces could
14 also result in a decreased reactivity of Fe^0 with contaminants and the subsequent diversion of
15 groundwater flow around the barrier (as corrosion products accumulate) and, thus the reduced
16 long-term treatment efficiency of the barrier (Blowes et al., 1997; Tratnyek et al., 1997;
17 O'Hannesin and Gillham, 1998; Liang et al., 2000).

18 Conversely, microorganisms could enhance the performance of the reactive barriers by
19 contributing to the degradation of contaminants, by consuming H_2 gas bubbles produced by iron
20 corrosion in groundwater, and by contributing to mineral dissolution (Matheson and Tratnyek,
21 1994; Allen-King et al., 1997; Weathers et al., 1997; Novak et al., 1998). More specifically, the
22 depletion of dissolved oxygen and the production of cathodic H_2 by Fe^0 corrosion provide a
23 reducing environment favorable to many H_2 -consuming anaerobic microorganisms, such as
24 sulfate- and metal-reducing bacteria, methanogens, and denitrifying bacteria, which may
25 stimulate the biotransformation of many redox-sensitive contaminants. As an example, recent

1 studies have shown that a combination of Fe^0 with methanogenic consortium significantly
2 enhanced both the rate and extent of transformation of chlorinated methanes, such as chloroform
3 and carbon tetrachloride (Weathers et al., 1997; Novak et al., 1998; Till et al., 1998).

4 Although more than a dozen of in situ Fe^0 reactive barriers have been installed across
5 North America (Liang et al., 2000; Scherer et al., 2000), field evidence for the enhancement of
6 microbial populations and diversity as a result of Fe^0 -corrosion is lacking. There were no
7 detailed studies and monitoring of microbial activity and diversity at many of the reactive barrier
8 sites, which have resulted in inconsistent observations to date. For example, no significant
9 microbial activities were observed in several Fe^0 -reactive barriers, such as at the Somersworth
10 Sanitary Landfill site in New Hampshire (Duwart, 2000) and an industrial site in New York
11 (Clark, 2000). On the other hand, significant microbial activities were observed in the water
12 effluent and Fe^0 filings both in a laboratory column study (Gu et al., 1999) and a field flow-
13 through experiment at the U.S. Department of Energy (DOE) Portsmouth, Ohio site (Liang et al.,
14 1997). Increased levels of sulfide and sulfide-mineral precipitates were reported in these studies,
15 presumably as a result of microbial reduction of sulfate to sulfide. Similarly, ferrous sulfides
16 have been detected as coatings on mineral surfaces in an Fe^0 -reactive barrier at the U.S. Coast
17 Guard air base near Elizabeth City, North Carolina, although no specific analysis of microbial
18 activity was reported (Puls et al., 1999).

19 The primary objective of this work was to determine and evaluate the microbial
20 population and community composition in the reducing zone of influence by Fe^0 corrosion as
21 part of the major study of an in situ iron reactive barrier designed for the sequestration or
22 removal of uranium and other contaminants, such as technetium (^{99}Tc) and nitrate, in
23 groundwater at the Oak Ridge Y-12 Plant site, Oak Ridge, Tennessee (Gu et al., 2001). Both
24 phospholipid fatty acids (PLFA) and DNA analyses were performed using groundwater and

1 soil/iron core samples to determine the total microbial abundance and microbial functional
2 groups, including sulfate-reducing bacteria, denitrifying bacteria, and methanogens.

4 MATERIALS AND METHODS

5 **Site Description.** The construction of the iron-reactive barrier trench at the Oak Ridge
6 Y-12 Plant site was completed in late November 1997 as part of the technology demonstration
7 using Fe^0 to retain or remove uranium and other contaminants in groundwater. The trench
8 dimensions are ~225 ft in length, 2 ft in width, and ~30 ft in depth with an Fe^0 -filled midsection
9 of ~26 ft in length between two ~100-ft sections of pea gravel (Figure 1). Guar-gum biopolymer
10 slurry was used during soil excavation to prevent the trench walls from collapsing, and the
11 Peerless Fe^0 filings (about -1/2 to 25 mesh size from Peerless Metal Powders and Abrasives,
12 Detroit, Michigan) were used as the reactive medium in the midsection of the barrier. The soil
13 around the barrier is a heterogeneous mixture of fill materials, native soil, saprolite, and rock
14 fragments (Watson et al., 1999). Native soil and saprolite from the Nolichucky Shale formation
15 are present near the bottom of the barrier. The barrier trench is oriented nearly parallel to the
16 direction of groundwater flow and was designed to use both the natural groundwater gradient and
17 the permeability contrast between the iron/gravel in the trench and the native silt/clay outside the
18 trench to direct groundwater flow through the iron treatment zone (Figure 1). Hydraulic
19 monitoring at the site indicated that the hydraulic gradient is ~0.025 ft/ft across the site but
20 flattens to 0.01 ft/ft in the vicinity of the barrier trench. More detailed site information and its
21 hydrogeology were given elsewhere (Watson et al., 1999; Phillips et al., 2000).

22 **Groundwater and Core Sampling.** Approximately 48 piezometers including 6
23 multi-port monitoring wells within the iron barrier were installed at the site, although only
24 several selected monitoring wells were sampled and analyzed for microbiological characteristics

1 as shown in Figure 1. These sampling wells include (1) DP-20m, screened at ~27.5 to 28 ft
2 below the surface and located in the upgradient portion of the iron; (2) TMW-9, screened at ~15
3 to 30 ft below the surface and located in the center of the iron; (3) DP-11, screened at ~14.5 to 24
4 ft belowground and located in soil (downgradient of the iron) where groundwater exits the
5 barrier; and (4) TMW-5, screened at ~14 to 24 ft belowground and located ~50 ft upgradient of
6 the trench (Figure 1). Groundwater from TMW-5 was not influenced by the Fe^0 barrier and was
7 therefore used as a background or reference well for comparison. Similarly, a vertical soil core
8 sample was obtained in the vicinity of TMW-5 and used as a control for the assessment of
9 changes in microbial population and composition as influenced by the Fe^0 barrier. The
10 geochemical properties of groundwater in these monitoring wells are given in Table 1. In
11 general, the site groundwater is aerobic with a near neutral pH and relatively high concentrations
12 of nitrate, bicarbonate, and calcium in comparison with other anions (e.g., sulfate and chloride)
13 or cations (e.g., Mg and Na). Groundwater samples for microbial assay were collected in 1-L
14 polyethylene bottles, unfiltered and unacidified, but were preserved with 10-mL of formaldehyde
15 (36%) prior to the analysis by the phospholipid fatty acids (PLFA) technique. No preservatives
16 were added for those samples used for DNA analysis.

17 About 15 months after the barrier was installed, core samples were collected in
18 polyurethane tubes (~4 ft length \times 1¼ in. diameter) from the Fe^0 barrier and adjacent soil with a
19 Geoprobe by Miller of Huntsville, Alabama. The northern upgradient and southern downgradient
20 interfaces of the trench and soil/iron material were intercepted by coring at a 60-degree angle, as
21 described in detail in Phillips et al (2000) and Gu et al. (2002). The cores were taken from three
22 sections along the Fe^0 barrier at the ~14 to 22 ft and ~21 to 29 ft levels, although only selected
23 core samples from the middle section of the Fe^0 barrier were used for microbial analysis (Figure

1) The soil or Fe⁰ core samples were collected in the field in sterilized Whirl-Pak bags, placed in an ice-filled cooler, transported to a laboratory, and immediately frozen until analysis.

Phospholipid Fatty Acids Analysis

Phospholipid fatty acids (PLFA) are important components of all cellular membranes of living organisms, and PLFA analysis is based on the extraction and separation of phospholipid classes, followed by quantitative analysis using gas chromatography mass spectrometry (GC/MS). Briefly, some selected groundwater and core samples were obtained, and the microbial population and community composition were determined in the laboratory of Microbial Insights (Rockford, Tennessee). First, ~1 to 2 L of groundwater were collected and filtered on 47-mm Whatman Anodisc filters (0.22- μ pore diameter). The filter disks were then lyophilized and the lipids extracted with one-phase chloroform-methanol buffer extractant (Guckert et al., 1986). For soil and iron filing samples, an ~60-g subsample was used for the extraction of PLFA by the chloroform-methanol buffer (90 mL). The extracted total lipid was further fractionated into neutral lipids, glycolipids, and polar lipids on disposable silicic acid columns before analysis by GC/MS (Ringelberg et al., 1988). Results of PLFA analysis were expressed in picomoles (pmol) per mL of groundwater or in pmol per gram soil or iron mass, which were then converted to microbial biomass (cells mL⁻¹ or cells g⁻¹) based on an assumption that each pmol of PLFA yields approximately 2×10^6 cells (Balkwill et al., 1988).

DNA Analysis

Although PLFA provides a means of measuring microbial biomass and community composition, it provides little information on specific microbial functional groups that are present in the sample. The DNA analysis was therefore performed to determine these functional groups, including sulfate-reducing bacteria, denitrifying bacteria, and methanogens.

1 Experimentally, about 2-L groundwater samples were taken; microbial cells were collected by
2 centrifuging the groundwater at 12,000 rpm and used for the extraction of DNA. For soil and
3 iron samples, a 5-g subsample was used for DNA extraction. The samples were ground in the
4 presence of liquid N₂ and sterilized sand as described elsewhere (Zhou et al., 1996). The DNA
5 was then extracted by sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS)-based extraction buffer and purified with
6 Wizard resin columns (Zhou et al., 1996).

7 In order to obtain semiquantitative information about specific functional groups of
8 microorganisms, a series of tenfold dilutions of the original extracted samples were used and
9 analyzed by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) with group-specific primers for various microbial
10 functional groups, including sulfate-reducing bacteria (Karkhoff-Schweizer et al., 1995),
11 denitrifying bacteria with heme-(nirS) and copper-(nirK) nitrite reductases (Braker et al., 2000),
12 and methanogens (Springer et al., 1995). The PCR amplifications were carried out as described
13 by Zhou et al. (1996). The highest dilution that gives PCR amplification was used as a semi-
14 quantitative method to determine the relative abundance of each microbial functional group.

15 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

16 Microbial Biomass Population and Diversity in Groundwater. Approximately 1 year
17 after the Fe⁰ reactive barrier was installed, a substantially enhanced microbial population was
18 observed in the groundwater within and in the vicinity of the Fe⁰ barrier from three sampling
19 events between January 1999 and April 2000 (Figure 2). The total microbial abundance (in cells
20 per mL groundwater) was ~1 to 3 orders of magnitude higher than that of the background
21 groundwater (TMW-5) located ~50 ft upgradient of the barrier trench. The enhanced microbial
22 biomass population is particularly evident in groundwater in the downgradient soil (DP-11) and
23 in the center of the iron barrier (TMW-9). A lower microbial biomass population, however, was
24 found in the well (DP-20m) located in the upgradient portion of the iron where groundwater

1 enters the iron barrier. It therefore appears that the microbial biomass population increased from
2 the upgradient to the downgradient soil of the iron barrier (or along the flow path). The
3 microbial population appears to vary slightly in the three sampling events, which took place
4 between January 1999 and April 2000. In the center well within the iron barrier (TMW-9), the
5 microbial biomass population increased threefold to tenfold in April 2000 in comparison with
6 those observed in January and August 1999. A slightly increased microbial population was also
7 observed over time in the upgradient monitoring well in the iron barrier (DP-20m). These
8 observations may suggest a rapid colonization of microbial communities in the first year in a Fe^0
9 environment with a relatively high pH and a low Eh. These results are consistent with previous
10 observations that the microbial community population was able to adapt to the strongly reducing
11 Fe^0 environment that resulted in an increased sulfate reduction over time in a laboratory column
12 flow-through experiment using simulated groundwater (Gu et al., 1999). However, it is possible
13 ~~pointed out that~~ the increased microbial biomass population in the Fe^0 barrier also may be
14 partially attributed to the use of Guar gum during the trench excavation. Although the trench
15 was flushed with ~3 bed volumes of water with enzyme for the degradation of Guar gum
16 polymers after installation, the residual Guar gum degradation byproducts, such as glucose, may
17 have greatly stimulated the initial growth of microorganisms.

18 A variety of microbial communities were also detected by the PLFA analysis in
19 groundwater (Figure 3a,b). Despite the fact that many microbial species have overlapping PLFA
20 patterns, although PLFA analysis suffers from its inability to identify the functional groups of
21 microorganisms because many microbial species have similar PLFA patterns. However, PLFA
22 analysis is able to provide insights into microbial community composition, because some
23 specific functional groups of microorganisms contain characteristic fatty acid profiles or lipid
24 biomarkers (Dowling et al., 1986; Guckert et al., 1986; Tunlid and White, 1991). As shown in

Figure 3, six general groups of microbial groups were classified on the basis of the following PLFA structural groups: monoenoic, polyenoics, normal saturated, terminally branched, mid-chain branched, and branched monoenoic PLFAs. The normal saturated PLFAs are found in almost all microorganisms except Archaea, whereas the ~~monoenoic and polyenoic~~ PLFAs are found in most Gram-negative bacteria ~~and some types of~~ as well as eukaryotic microorganisms. In particular, the monoenoic PLFA may represent ~~fast-growing~~ Gram-negative bacteria that can utilize a wide range of carbon sources and adapt quickly to a variety of environments (Guckert et al., 1986; Balkwill et al., 1988). The branched PLFA ~~last three groups~~ are commonly found in Gram-positive and anaerobic microorganisms, such as sulfate- and metal-reducing bacteria, and some Gram-negative facultative anaerobes.

Results (Figure 3a) indicated that these ~~fast-growing Gram-negative bacteria (monoenoic PLFAs)~~ were among the most abundant found in all groundwater samples, and ~~their population as well as the proportions contents of the monoenoic and terminally branched PLFAs (or its related microbial community~~ (Figure 3b) appeared to increase slightly over time (between January 1999 and April 2000). On the other hand, the relative proportions abundance of polyenoic PLFAs decreased consistently with time, and no significant amounts of polyenoic PLFAs were found in groundwater samples obtained in April 2000 (or ~2.5 years after the Fe⁰ barrier was installed). These observations may suggest that, over time, the polyenoic containing microorganisms or possibly polyenoics released from the Guar gum populations were gradually replaced by other eubacteria bacterial types (e.g., an increased terminally branched PLFA and its associated microbial community population, Figure 3b). However, ~~it is pointed out that these observations may be complicated by the initial use and later degradation of residual Guar gum because polyenoics are commonly found in such organisms as fungi, protozoa, algae, higher plants, and animals.~~ The Guar itself may contain some residual polyenoics, although a number

1 of elliptical 50 to 100 um long protozoa and small organisms were indeed observed in
2 groundwater by a ~~colloidal~~ borescope (with a 200× microscope) that was initially intended to
3 observe colloids in groundwater and the flow directions in the Fe⁰ barrier in December 1998
4 (data not shown).

5 The terminally branched saturated PLFA, representing largely the Gram-positive
6 bacteria, dominated among the branched PLFA group (Figure 3b), although the branched PLFA
7 was much less abundant than the monoenoic PLFA (Figure 3a). In particular, the branched
8 PLFA constituted less than 5% of total PLFA in the center well of the iron barrier (TMW-9).
9 However, the relative abundance of these terminally branched PLFA increased consistently over
10 time within the iron barrier (TMW-9 and DP-20m), which was in contrast to that of polyenoic
11 PLFAs, as discussed earlier. These observations may again indicate the adaptation or growth of
12 ~~these~~ Gram positive, anaerobic microorganisms under the site-specific environmental conditions
13 within the Fe⁰ barrier.

14 To identify specific functional groups of microorganisms in the groundwater, various
15 tenfold dilutions of DNA extracts were analyzed with DNA primers for sulfate-reducing
16 bacteria, denitrifying bacteria, and methanogens because these are the anaerobic microorganisms
17 most likely influenced by the reduction zone of the Fe⁰ barrier (Gu et al., 1999; Scherer et al.,
18 2000). A typical image of the DNA gel electrophoresis is shown in Figure 4 (for sulfate-
19 reducing bacteria). As expected, results (Table II) indicated that the sulfate-reducing and
20 denitrifying bacteria were among the most dominant groups of microorganisms identified in
21 these groundwater samples. The relative abundance of these microorganisms also increased
22 along the flow path from upgradient of the Fe⁰ barrier (DP-20m) to downgradient soil (DP-11),
23 which was consistent with the results of PLFA analysis (Figure 2). These observations may
24 provide direct evidence of microbial involvement in the reduction of sulfate and nitrate in the Fe⁰

1 barrier under anaerobic conditions. As reported previously, significantly decreased
2 concentrations of sulfate and nitrate were found in the reducing zone of the Fe^0 barrier (Gu et al.,
3 1999; Watson et al., 1999; Phillips et al., 2000). Sulfates were reduced to sulfides, resulting in
4 the formation of FeS precipitates in the Fe^0 barrier. Similarly, elevated sulfide concentration and
5 sulfide mineral precipitation, such as FeS and mackinawite (Fe_9S_8), were also reported in
6 laboratory Fe^0 columns after addition of a broad microbial inoculum (Gu et al., 1999). To date,
7 sulfate reduction is considered primarily as microbiologically mediated reduction processes
8 (Ehrlich, 1990). There is little or no direct evidence showing an abiotic reduction of sulfate by
9 Fe^0 although the reduction of nitrate and sulfonic acid by Fe^0 metal has been reported
10 (Lipczynska-Kochany et al., 1994; Huang et al., 1998).

11 **Microbial Biomass Population and Diversity in Core Samples.** As in groundwater
12 samples, a substantially enhanced microbial biomass population and diversity were observed in
13 soil and iron core samples that were taken ~15 months after the iron reactive barrier was installed
14 in the field (Figures 5 and 6). The total microbial abundance in the soil/iron core samples was
15 ~2 to 3 orders of magnitude higher than that in the background soil sample located
16 approximately 50 ft upgradient of the Fe^0 barrier. In addition, the microbial biomass population
17 appeared to increase from the upgradient iron barrier to the downgradient soil as found in
18 groundwater samples in Figure 2, except in the upgradient soil (located approximately 6 in. from
19 the soil/iron interface), which showed the highest microbial biomass abundance (Figure 5). This
20 observation may be explained by the fact that the interface soil also is a strongly reducing zone
21 influenced by the iron corrosion and H_2 and a zone with a relatively high concentration of sulfate
22 and nitrate where groundwater enters into the Fe^0 reactive barrier. The soil could have been a
23 better environment (with nutrients and carbon sources) than Fe^0 filings for the colonization
24 and/or growth of indigenous microorganisms. Additionally, it is noted that the microbial

1 biomass population was expressed on a unit mass basis of soil or Fe^0 (Figure 5), which may also
2 underestimate the total biomass content in the Fe^0 samples (on a unit volume basis) because of a
3 relatively high particle density of metallic Fe^0 .

4 Nevertheless, diverse microbial communities were present in these soil/iron core samples
5 (Figure 6a,b), and the microbial community composition appears to differ slightly from those in
6 the groundwater samples. In general, the relative abundance of polyenoics decreased from the
7 upgradient portion of the iron to downgradient soil, whereas both terminally branched and
8 monoenoic PLFAs increased, presumably related to the growth of both Gram-positive or Gram-
9 negative anaerobic microorganisms. The relative percentages of polyenoics were particularly
10 high in samples from the iron barrier compared with those in the soil, and these observations
11 again may be complicated by the initial use of Guar gum.

12 Soil/iron core samples were also analyzed for DNA primers to identify microbial
13 functional groups of sulfate-reducing bacteria, denitrifying bacteria, and methanogens (Table
14 III). Results showed a relatively higher microbial population (or extracted DNA content) in both
15 the upgradient and downgradient soil cores than in the iron samples and are in general agreement
16 with the PLFA analysis (Figure 5). However, a much lower PCR amplification signal was
17 observed in all these solid samples than those in groundwater samples (Table II). This
18 discrepancy may be largely attributed to a poor recovery of DNA using the current methodology
19 for extracting DNA from soil or iron samples because of sorption of these DNA macromolecules
20 on the mineral or iron surfaces (Zhou et al., 1996). Nevertheless, sulfate-reducing bacteria,
21 denitrifying bacteria, and methanogens were identified in most of these soil/iron core samples.

22 Although methanogens are known to have a great affinity for H_2 (Lovley and Goodwin,
23 1988), relatively low levels of methanogenic microorganisms were identified in both
24 groundwater and soil/iron samples in comparison with those of sulfate-reducing bacteria and

1 denitrifying bacteria (Tables II and III). The low levels of methanogens may be related to the
2 relatively high concentrations of nitrate and sulfate present in groundwater, which could have
3 inhibited the proliferation of methanogens. Such observations are consistent with previous
4 studies that showed that sulfate-reducing bacteria have a greater affinity for H_2 than
5 methanogens and may therefore outcompete hydrogenotrophic methanogens because of an
6 unlimited availability of sulfate in groundwater (Lovley and Goodwin, 1988).

7 **Summary and Conclusions.** The present study provides evidence of a stimulated
8 microbial population in an in situ Fe^0 reactive barrier used for the sequestration or removal of
9 such contaminants as uranium, ^{99}Tc , and nitrate. An increased biomass and diversified microbial
10 community composition structure was observed by PLFA which provides can provide
11 quantitative measures of in situ community composition and indications of nutritional
12 status analysis of characteristic fatty acids or lipid biomarkers, although such analyses were
13 unable to provide information regarding specific microbial species and therefore their functional
14 roles in sequestering or degrading a variety of contaminants. On the other hand, DNA analysis
15 provided direct measurements of microbial functional groups, including anaerobic sulfate-
16 reducing bacteria, denitrifying bacteria, and methanogens. Some important implications of the
17 presence of these microorganisms are probably twofold, either beneficial or detrimental, to the
18 performance of the Fe^0 barrier. For example, denitrifying bacteria may have greatly increased
19 the rate and extent of nitrate reduction in the reducing zone of the Fe^0 barrier. As reported
20 previously (Gu et al., 2001), nitrate was found to be completely degraded in groundwater in most
21 of the monitoring wells within and downgradient of the Fe^0 barrier. Similarly, sulfate-reducing
22 bacteria may have played an essential role in reducing sulfate to sulfide (Gu et al., 1999; 2001)
23 because there is no evidence to date showing that sulfate could be chemically reduced to sulfide
24 by Fe^0 . These observations illustrate some beneficial contributions of microbial activity for
25 enhanced degradation of contaminants or co-contaminants in groundwater. In addition, previous
26 studies also indicated that these anaerobic microorganisms might potentially benefit the

1 hydraulic flow of the system by consuming cathodic H_2 gas generated by the corrosion of Fe^0 in
2 groundwater (Gu et al., 1999).

3 However, increased microbial biomass population also may adversely impact the
4 performance of the Fe^0 barrier because of the potential biofouling and gas production from
5 microbial respiration and denitrification (such as CO_2 , N_2 , and nitrous oxides). More
6 importantly, perhaps, the reduction of sulfate to sulfide has been reported to contribute to FeS
7 mineral precipitation, which forms coatings on Fe^0 surfaces, decreases the surface reactivity of
8 Fe^0 with contaminants, and causes the cementation of Fe^0 grains or system clogging (Gu et al.,
9 1999; 2001; Phillips et al., 2000). The present study provided no evidence of excessive
10 microbial growth or biofouling in the Fe^0 barrier, probably because of a limited supply of
11 nutrients and a relatively high pH condition. However, the highest microbial biomass population
12 appears to be associated with soils adjacent to the Fe^0 barrier (Figures 2 and 5), where H_2 could
13 diffuse in to stimulate the growth of indigenous anaerobic microorganisms. A close monitoring
14 of microbial activity in the soils in the vicinity of the Fe^0 barrier may thus be important to assess
15 potential biofouling. Future studies are certainly needed for a better understanding of the
16 beneficial or detrimental effects of microbial activity on the long-term performance of the Fe^0
17 barriers.

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Table 1. General groundwater chemistry at the Oak Ridge Y-12 Plant reactive barrier site (sampled in January 1999).

	TMW-5	DP-20m	TMW-9	DP-11
pH	6.8	7.4	9.0	6.6
Eh	215	-260	-162	-112
Conductivity (μ S)	1605	1006	301	845
Nitrate (mg/L)	904	2.4	0.1	0.1
Sulfate (mg/L)	46.8	43.5	67.9	77.5
Chloride (mg/L)	54.9	119.6	21.1	27.6
HCO ₃ ⁻ /CO ₃ ⁼ (mg/L)	139	474	97	592
Calcium (mg/L)	361	158	29.8	162
Magnesium (mg/L)	20.5	22.8	12.1	20.8
Sodium (mg/L)	8.9	34.6	18.9	20.6
Potassium (mg/L)	2.9	2.7	2.2	5.0

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Table 2. DNA functional group analysis of microorganisms^a in groundwater at the Y-12 Pathway 2 site.

	TMW-5	DP-20m	TMW-9	DP-11
By DNA Analysis				
Sulfite reductase	nd ^b	10 ²	10 ²	10 ⁴
Denitrifying bacteria	nd ^b	10	10 ³	10 ³
Nitrite Reductase	nd ^b	nd ^b	10 ²	10 ⁴
Methanogens	nd ^b	1	nd ^b	10

^a. Microbial populations are presented as the maximum dilution (tenfold incremental) at which they are detected by the DNA PCR analysis. Sulfate-reducing bacteria, denitrifying bacteria, nitrite reductase, and methanogens were determined by the DSR, Heme, Cu, and MCR primers, respectively.

^b. nd = not detected.

Table 3. DNA functional group analysis of specific microbial populations in core samples at the Y-12 Pathway 2 site.

	Background soil	Upgradient soil (~21 ft)	Upgradient iron (~22 ft)	Downgradient iron (~21 ft)	Downgradient soil (~22 ft)
Sulfite reductase	nd ^a	10 ²	1	1	nd ^a
Denitrifying bacteria	nd ^a	1	nd ^a	1	1
Nitrite reductase	1	10 ²	10	10	10 ²
Methanogens	nd ^a	10	nd ^a	1	nd ^a

a. nd = not detected.

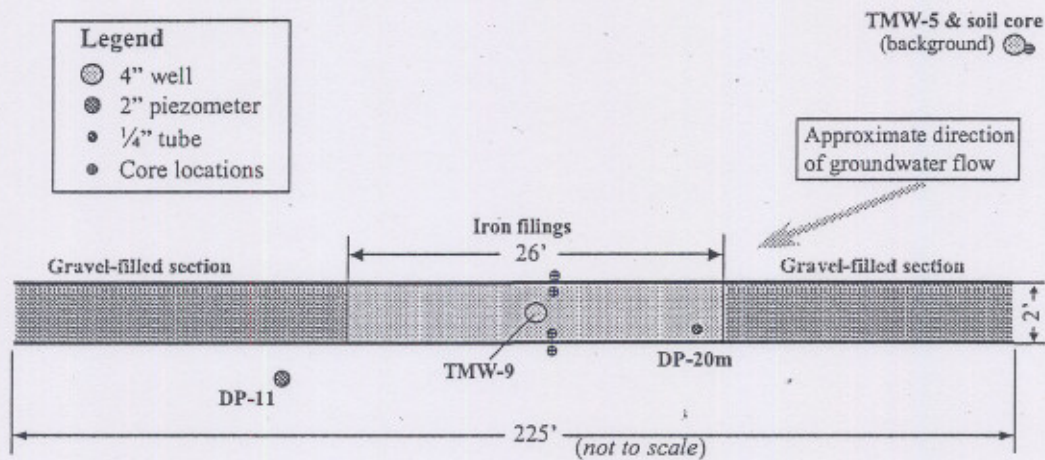


Figure 1. Schematic drawing of the iron/gravel barrier at the Oak Ridge Y-12 Plant site and the locations of groundwater sampling wells and soil/iron cores used for the determination of microbial population and community structure.

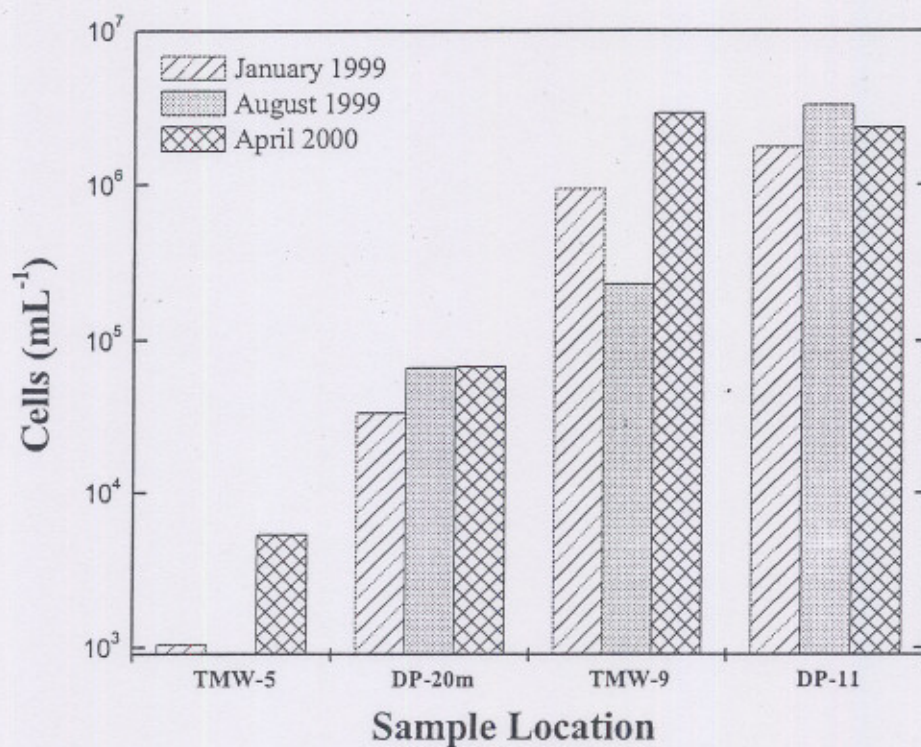


Figure 2. Microbial ~~population or abundance~~ biomass by PLFA analysis in groundwater from monitoring wells located at the upgradient soil (TMW-5), within the Fe⁰ barrier (DP-20m and TMW-9), and at the downgradient soil (DP-11).

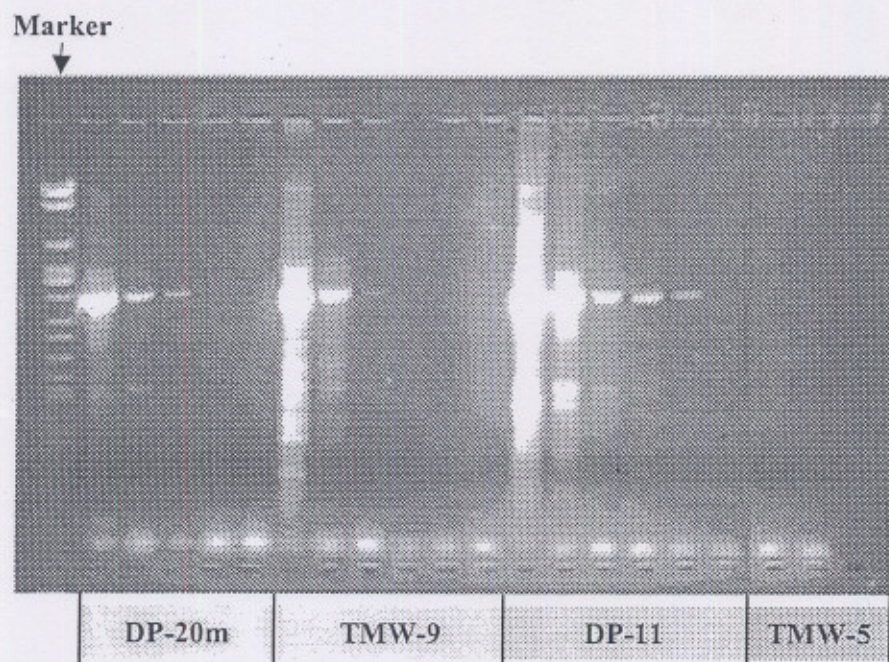
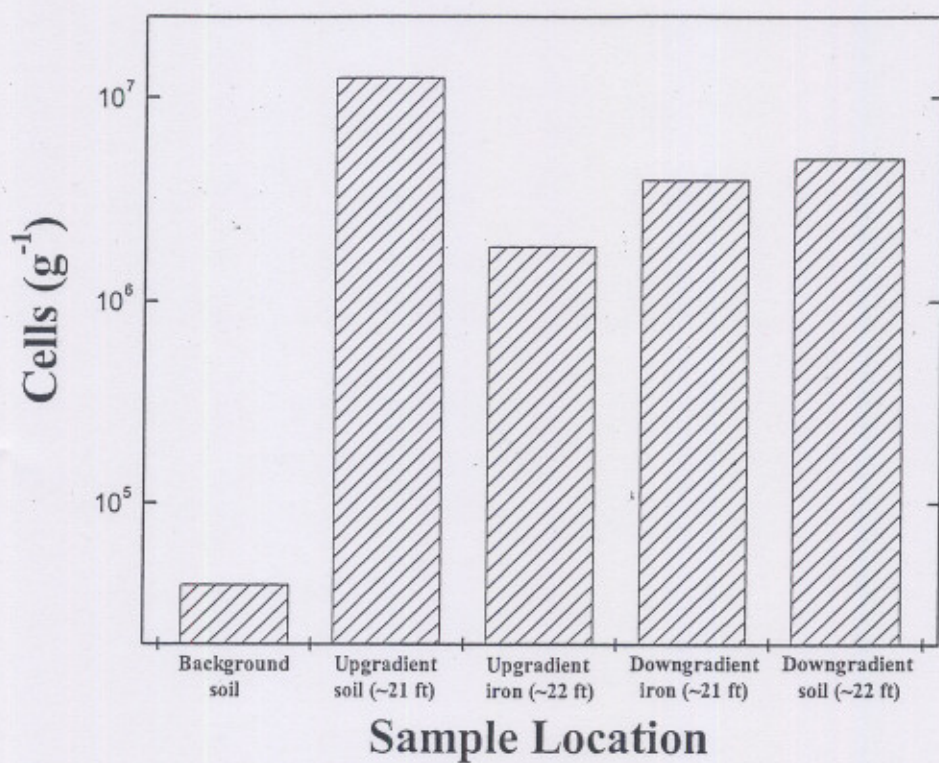


Figure 4. DNA gel electrophoresis image of dissimilatory sulfite reductase for sulfate-reducing bacteria in groundwater samples within and in the vicinity of the Fe^0 barrier. Different bands in each sample represent a series of tenfold dilutions for obtaining semiquantitative information on the abundance of sulfate-reducing bacteria.

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Figure 5. Microbial ~~population or abundance biomass~~ by PLFA analysis in soil/iron core samples within and in the vicinity of the Fe⁰ barrier.

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