



## **Influence of electrode placement for mobilising and removing metals during electro dialytic remediation of metals from shooting range soil**

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*Published in:*  
Chemosphere

*Link to article, DOI:*  
[10.1016/j.chemosphere.2018.07.063](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2018.07.063)

*Publication date:*  
2018

*Document Version*  
Peer reviewed version

[Link back to DTU Orbit](#)

*Citation (APA):*  
Pedersen, K. B., Jensen, P. E., Ottosen, L. M., & Barlindhaug, J. (2018). Influence of electrode placement for mobilising and removing metals during electro dialytic remediation of metals from shooting range soil. *Chemosphere*, 210, 683-691. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2018.07.063>

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# Accepted Manuscript

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PII: S0045-6535(18)31321-3

DOI: 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2018.07.063

Reference: CHEM 21778

To appear in: *Chemosphere*

Received Date: 15 April 2018

Accepted Date: 12 July 2018

Please cite this article as: Kristine B. Pedersen, Pernille E. Jensen, Lisbeth M. Ottosen, John Barlindhaug, Influence of electrode placement for mobilising and removing metals during electrodialytic remediation of metals from shooting range soil, *Chemosphere* (2018), doi: 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2018.07.063

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1 **Influence of electrode placement for mobilising and removing metals during electrodynamic**  
2 **remediation of metals from shooting range soil**

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10

11 **Abstract**

12 Electrodynamic remediation was applied to a shooting range soil to investigate the influence of  
13 electrode placement on the removal and binding of metals during the treatment. The set-up  
14 was based on a 2-compartment cell, in which the cathode was separated from the soil by a  
15 cation exchange membrane and the anode was placed directly in the soil, thereby introducing  
16 protons and oxygen directly in the soil. Mobilisation of metals from less available fractions  
17 (oxidisable and residual) in the soil occurred, due to oxidation/dissolution of insoluble/soluble  
18 organic matter and possibly metal oxides in the residual fraction.

19 The transport via electromigration out of the soil and/or re-precipitation in other fractions of  
20 the soil (oxidisable, reducible, exchangeable) depended on the metal. More than 30% of the  
21 initial content of Mn, Cd, Cu, Pb and Zn and less than 20% of the initial content of Al, Fe, K, Mg,  
22 As, Cr and Ni was transported out of the soil. By decreasing the distance between the

23 electrodes from 3.0 to 1.5 cm, the removal of the targeted metal for remediation, Pb, was  
24 improved by more than 200%, from 14 to 31%. A similar removal could be achieved in  
25 experiments with long distance between electrodes (3.0 cm) by increasing the current intensity  
26 from 4 to 10 mA and/or the remediation time from 7 to 35 d. The experiments showed that the  
27 design and optimisation of electrodynamic remediation depends on the targeted metal and  
28 metal partitioning.

29  
30 **Keywords:** Electrokinetic remediation, heavy metals, shooting range soil, metal fractionation

## 31 32 **1. Introduction**

33 The in-situ remediation of polluted fine-grained soils remains a challenge due to the low  
34 hydraulic conductivity. Electrokinetics has for the past 30 y been recognized to deal with this  
35 specific challenge along with the site-specific conditions related to local geochemical processes,  
36 pollutant composition and concentration (Virkutyte et al., 2002; Alshawabkeh, 2009). The  
37 principle of electrokinetic remediation is to apply a DC electric field of low intensity to the  
38 polluted soil, thereby forming an acidic front at the anode and an alkaline front at the cathode  
39 due to electrolysis reactions at the electrodes. The acidic front prevails, desorbing metals along  
40 its path towards the cathode. Electromigration has been recognized as the most important  
41 transport pathway of metals in electrokinetic remediation and charged metals and complexes  
42 are transported to the electrode of opposite charge (Acar and Alshawabkeh, 1993). In the zone  
43 between the acidic and alkaline fronts, precipitation of metals occurs. Accordingly some early  
44 optimization efforts to increase the removal of metals were related to preventing the alkaline

45 front from forming, for instance by adding agents to the catholyte to neutralize hydroxyl ions  
46 produced at the cathode (Puppala et al., 1997; Zhou et al., 2004, 2005), or by using ion  
47 exchange membranes (electrodialytic remediation) (Hansen et al., 1997). By applying ion  
48 exchange membranes instead of passive membranes, the transport of ions between the  
49 electrolytes/electrodes and the soil matrix can be controlled. In the traditional 3- compartment  
50 set-up, ion exchange membranes have been applied to prevent protons from the anode and  
51 hydroxyl ions from the cathode from entering the soil matrix (Ottosen et al., 1997). Water  
52 splitting at ion-exchange membranes occur at a limiting current at which there are not enough  
53 ions in the immediate vicinity of the membranes to carry the current. Due to the negative  
54 charge of clay, there is an abundance of cations compared to anions in soils and for this reason,  
55 depletion of anions adjacent to the anion-exchange membrane will occur at a lower current  
56 than depletion of cations at the cation-exchange membrane. The limiting current density  
57 depends on the membrane and solution properties. In electrodialytic remediation the limiting  
58 current has been exploited to ensure acidification of the soil, by water splitting at the anion  
59 exchange membrane (Ottosen et al., 2000), adjacent to the anode, and by proton leakage from  
60 the cation exchange membrane (Nystroem et al., 2005).

61 In recent years, optimisation efforts in electrodialytic remediation have included the  
62 development of the 2-compartment cell design, in which the anode is placed directly in the soil  
63 compartment, introducing protons directly in the compartment. A cation exchange membrane  
64 separating the soil- and cathode compartment prevents hydroxyl ions produced at the cathode  
65 from entering the soil (Fig. 1a) (Ebberts et al., 2015). In comparison with the traditional 3-  
66 compartment cell design, faster acidification and energy efficiency are among the advantages

67 observed in the 2-compartment cell design (Ebbers et al., 2015; Pedersen et al., 2015b). In  
68 addition, it has been speculated whether metals bound in organic matter are more readily  
69 released by oxidation in the 2-compartment cell due to the introduction of oxygen from the  
70 electrolysis reaction (Pedersen et al., 2015a). The 2-compartment cell has been tested in a  
71 stirred set-up, but has yet to be tested in a stationary set-up. The latter is relevant for in-situ  
72 remediation when minimal physical disturbance to the land at a given site is desirable,  
73 providing that the site conditions allow time and space for the remediation.

74 In previous stationary electrokinetic set-ups, the anode has been separated from the soil  
75 compartment and the influence of placing the anode directly in the soil on the metal  
76 mobilisation has not yet been tested. Metal speciation has previously been found to affect the  
77 extent to which metals desorb from the soil matrix under the influence of an electric field (Kim  
78 and Kim, 2001; Suèr et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2005; Jensen et al., 2007), the effect of introducing  
79 oxygen directly into the soil via electrolysis reactions on the anode, has however not been  
80 investigated.

81 In this study, lab-scale experiments were performed to investigate the influence of the  
82 placement of electrode, on the mobilisation of metals near the anode as well as the  
83 perpendicular distance from the anode was studied and related to important variables in the  
84 electrokinetic remediation process, i.e. current density and remediation time. This also included  
85 an assessment of the influence on metal fractionation before and after the electro-dialytic  
86 treatment. To obtain an understanding of the changes in the binding of metals in the soil,  
87 environmental priority metals as well as selected trace elements were included.

## 88 **2. Methods and materials**

## 89 2.1 Soil

90 The soil used in this study was sampled from the top 10 cm of the earthen backstop from a  
91 former military shooting range in Lygna, Norway. Prior to analysis and electrodynamic  
92 experiments, the soil was sieved and particles larger than 4 mm were separated and disposed  
93 of.

94 The soil characteristics have been analysed in a previous study (Pedersen et al., 2018) and are  
95 summarised in table 1. The concentrations of the priority metals (As, Cd, Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb and Zn)  
96 were compared to the Norwegian quality criteria for soil of good environmental quality (Class  
97 2). The only metal exceeding the criteria was Pb with a concentration in the range of Norwegian  
98 quality class 4 soil (300-700 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of Pb). Quality Class 4 soils are characterised as 'poor  
99 environmental quality', with potential adverse effects on human health and risk of dispersion  
100 into the environment.

### 101 **Table 1**

## 102 2.2 Analysis

103 Metal concentrations (Al, Fe, K, Mg, Mn, As, Cd, Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb, Zn) were measured before and  
104 after the electrodynamic remediation by Inductively Coupled Plasma - Optical Emission  
105 Spectrometry (ICP-OES) after digestion (Norwegian standard NS4770). The sampled soil was  
106 dried at 105°C and crushed. 1.0 g of the soil and HNO<sub>3</sub> (9 M, 20 mL) were autoclaved (200 kPa,  
107 120 °C, 30 min). Solid particles were subsequently removed by vacuum filtration through a 0.45  
108 µm filter and the liquid was diluted to 100mL. Triple determination were made.

109 *Sequential extraction* was made in four steps based on the improvement of the three-step  
110 method (Rauret et al., 1999) described by Standards, Measurements and Testing Program of

111 the European Union. Air-dried soil (0.5 g) was first extracted with acetic acid (0.11 M, 20 mL,  
112 pH3) for 16 h; secondly with hydroxylammonium chloride (0.1 M, 20 mL; pH2) for 16 h; thirdly  
113 with hydrogen peroxide (8.8 M, 5 mL) for 1 h, followed by extraction at 85 °C for 1 h,  
114 evaporation of liquid at 85°C, and subsequent extraction of the cooled solid fraction with  
115 ammonium acetate (1 M, 25 mL, pH 2) for 16 h; and fourthly the remaining solid particles were  
116 analysed for metal content after digestion. Liquids were measured for metals by ICP-OES. Triple  
117 determination was made.

## 118 *2.3 Electrodialytic remediation*

### 119 *2.3.1 Electrodialytic cell design*

120 The set-up and principles of the 2-compartment electrodialytic cell used in this study is  
121 illustrated in fig. 1. The cell design consisted of an electrolyte compartment (catholyte) and a  
122 compartment containing the soil. The cell compartments were manufactured from Plexiglas®  
123 and the dimensions were: length of electrolyte compartment 3.5 cm; length of soil  
124 compartment 1.5 or 3.0 cm; inner diameter of all compartments 8 cm. Ionics supplied the  
125 cation exchange membrane (CR67 HUY N12116B). The catholyte was NaNO<sub>3</sub> (0.01 M) adjusted  
126 to pH 2 by HNO<sub>3</sub> (5 M). The catholyte (500 mL) was circulated (Pan World pumps) through a 500  
127 mL glass bottle at flow rates of 30 mL min<sup>-1</sup>. Circulation of the catholyte allows for the removal  
128 of gasses generated at the electrode, ensures low polarization at the electrode and minimizes  
129 concentration gradients (Sun et al., 2012). Platinum coated titanium electrode was used as a  
130 cathode, a titanium coated mesh (height 4 cm; width 8 cm) was used as anode and a power  
131 supply (Hewlett Packard E3612A) maintained a constant DC current.

132 **Fig. 1**



133 After the electro dialytic experiments, the soil was cut longitudinal into three slices (Fig. 1b).  
134 Slice 1 included the top section of the cell, not in direct contact with the anode (25% of the  
135 total amount of soil). Slice 2 included the middle part of the cell, in contact with the anode  
136 mesh in the left side of the cell (50% of the total amount of soil). Slice 3 included the bottom  
137 section of the cell, not in direct contact with the anode (25% of the total amount of soil). Soil  
138 from each slice was homogenised by the use of a mortar. Subsequently soil was sampled for  
139 total metal concentration analysis by ICP-OES and sequential extraction analysis (section 2.2).  
140 The membrane and electrodes were rinsed in  $\text{HNO}_3$  (5M) overnight and the heavy metal  
141 concentrations in the rinsing liquids as well as in the catholyte were measured by ICP-OES.

#### 142 *2.3.2 Electro dialytic experiments*

143 The variables tested were distance between electrodes, current density and remediation time.  
144 The distance between the electrodes was measured as the distance between the cation  
145 exchange membrane and the anode mesh (i.e. the length of the soil compartment). The  
146 objective of the study was to investigate the influence of the anode placement, with the focus  
147 of analysing effects on the metal partitioning, a short distance between the electrodes was  
148 chosen (1.5/3.0 cm). The experimental settings are given in table 2.  
149 The removal percentages of metals were calculated as the fraction of metal removed compared  
150 to the total amount of metal at the end of the experiments. The calculation of metals removed  
151 were based on the metal concentrations in the rinsing liquids after the electro dialytic  
152 experiments (cathode, catholyte and membrane).  
153 The power consumption in Wh (E) was calculated as:

$$154 \quad \int_{t=0}^t E = VI dt$$

155 where V is the voltage between the electrodes (V), I is the current (A) and t is the remediation  
156 time (h).

### 157 **3. Results and discussion**

#### 158 *3.1 Influence of experimental settings on the removal of metals*

159 Pb is the primary component in bullets (ca. 90%) and co-contaminants due to shooting range  
160 activities include As, Cd, Cu, Ni, Sb and Zn (Sorvari, 2011; Sanderson et al., 2012; Seshadri et al.,  
161 2017). Metallic fragments from bullets were not observed in the soil from the shooting range  
162 and the low standard deviations of analysed potential pollutants (As, Cd, Cu, Pb and Zn)  
163 confirmed this observation. The concentrations of As, Cd, Cu, Ni and Zn were low in relation to  
164 the soil quality criteria, but may be elevated compared to the natural background conditions.  
165 Anthropogenic metal sources can change the metal partitioning in the soil (Wuana and  
166 Okieimen, 2011). Based on the pollutant sources at the site, the metal concentrations and  
167 partitioning of Al, Fe, K, Mg, Mn and Cr are not expected to be impacted by the previous  
168 activities.

169 The percentage of metals removed after the electrodialytic treatment depended on the metal.  
170 The lowest percentages removed (<5%) were As, Cr and Fe and the highest observed removal  
171 (>40%) was Cd and Cu (table 2). This is in line with previous findings showing that As and Cr are  
172 less mobile than Cd and Cu under the influence of an electric field (Hansen et al., 1997; Ottosen  
173 et al., 2009; Lu et al., 2012; Yang et al., 2014). Within the experimental space studied, the

174 influence of variables on the removal percentages varied with the metal (table 2). For most of  
175 the metals, changing the experimental settings did not significantly influence the removal  
176 percentage. Considerably deviating from this trend, a higher current density increased the  
177 removal of Cu and Pb by 270% and 220% (exp. 1 and exp. 3). Increasing the distance between  
178 the electrodes from 1.5 to 3.0 cm halved the removal of Cu and Pb (exp. 1 and 2). Similar  
179 removal of Cu and Pb was observed in exp. 3 (low current density, short distance between the  
180 electrodes), and exp. 2 (high current density, long distance between the electrodes). Likewise,  
181 by increasing the remediation time from 7 to 35 d it was possible to increase removal  
182 percentages.

183 The experimental settings did not influence the final pH levels, and could be due to a high  
184 buffer capacity related to Al/Fe oxides/hydroxides and high content of organic matter in the soil  
185 at this pH level (Wang et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2017). The reason, that the metals, except Cu  
186 and Pb, had similar removal percentages in all experiments could be related to the same final  
187 pH levels (table 2). The deviating trend for Cu and Pb suggests a difference in binding pattern  
188 and possibly indication of anthropogenic impact. The solid-solution partitioning ( $K_d$ ) of metals  
189 in soils vary with metal concentration, e.g.  $K_d$  for Pb increases while  $K_d$  for Zn decreases with  
190 increasing anthropogenic impact (Sauvé et al., 2000).

## 191 **Table 2**

192 The consumption of energy per mass of soil was lowest in exp. 2 (table 2). Consumption of  
193 energy per mass of soil increased with higher current density (exp. 1 vs. exp. 3) and with a  
194 longer remediation time (exp. 2 vs. exp. 4). Doubling the amount of soil to be remediated did  
195 not increase the energy consumption per mass of soil (exp. 1 vs. exp. 2). For the targeted metal

196 for remediation, Pb (table 1), highest removal was in exp. 1 and 4. Despite the higher  
197 consumption of energy, the energy required to remove Pb was however lowest in exp. 1 and  
198 exp. 4. If the design of the electrodynamic removal of Pb includes energy consumption, optimal  
199 conditions (high removal, low energy consumption) can be achieved by either applying short  
200 distance between electrodes or applying high current density and remediation time in designs  
201 with long distance between electrodes.

### 202 *3.2 Removal of metals in different fractions in soil*

203 Electrodynamic treatment and experimental settings influenced the metal fractionation of the  
204 potential pollutant metals. The naturally occurring metals (Al, Fe, K, Mg, Mn, Cr and Ni)  
205 displayed some differences in metal fractionation after the electrodynamic treatment (Fig. 2).  
206 The fractionation of Al, Fe and Mg was similar in exp. 1-3, with some differences in exp.4  
207 indicating that a long remediation time (35 d) at high current (10 mA) changed the mobilisation  
208 in the studied soil. For K, the removal was similar in the four experiments, while the biggest  
209 alteration to the metal binding was observed in exp. 2 and exp. 4 with higher quantities of the  
210 metal mobilised from the residual fraction and precipitating in the more available fractions of  
211 the soil.

212 The removal of Mn was not influenced by the experimental design, the electrodynamic  
213 treatment was however observed to influence metal fractionation. The partitioning in the soil  
214 after all electrodynamic treatments was however similar, indicating that the experimental  
215 settings did not influence the removal or mobilisation of Mn in the soil. The amount of Mn  
216 bound in the residual fraction was reduced by a third and the exchangeable fraction halved  
217 during the treatment, suggesting that Mn released from the residual fraction, either from

218 insoluble organic matter or well-crystalline oxides, was largely transported by electromigration  
219 out of the soil. Less than 1% of Cr was removed from the soil during the electro-dialytic  
220 remediation, it was however observed that 7-17% of the Cr originally bound in the residual  
221 fraction was transferred to more available fractions, especially the oxidisable fraction. For both  
222 Cr and Mn, re-adsorption from the residual fraction of the soil could be related to the high  
223 content of organic matter in the soil. Previous studies have found that organic acids increase  
224 metal mobility at low pH (<4) (Renella et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2013; Vítková et al., 2015) and  
225 could have desorbed Cr and Mn bound in insoluble organic matter or stable minerals, present  
226 in the residual fraction (Tessier et al., 1979). Depending on the metal mobility and affinity to  
227 compounds in the soil, the metals could be transported through the soil with limited re-  
228 precipitation, as Mn, or re-precipitated, as was observed for Cr in the oxidisable fraction. Humic  
229 acids are known to form stable Cr complexes and is insoluble, immobile and unreactive in the  
230 pH ranges 2.7-4.5, while other organic acids such as citric acid and fulvic acid form soluble Cr  
231 complexes (Kotaś and Stasicka, 2000).

232 **Fig. 2**

233

234 For Cd, the fractionation was similar in exp. 1-3, with some differences in exp. 4, indicating that  
235 a long remediation time at a high current, to a higher degree influenced the metal  
236 fractionation. Less Cd was bound in the oxidisable fraction in exp. 4 suggesting higher oxidation  
237 of Cd-organic complexes, increasing the desorption of Cd from the soil (Zhao et al., 2014).  
238 The electrodynamic remediation influenced the removal and fractionation of Cu in the soil. The  
239 original partitioning of 90% of the Cu in the oxidisable and residual fractions was reduced to 45-  
240 70% during the electrodynamic treatments. This is an indication of oxidation of soluble as well as  
241 insoluble organic matter releasing Cu in the process, and potential oxidation of Cu minerals in  
242 the residual fraction. The Cu sulphides chalcopyrite and bornite are for instance found in the  
243 residual rather than oxidisable fraction of the sequential extraction regime (Dold, 2003). Some  
244 of the released Cu from insoluble organic matter was likely re-precipitated in the oxidisable  
245 fraction due to the high affinity of Cu to organic matter (Kinniburgh et al., 1999), and adsorbed  
246 to clay minerals in the exchangeable fraction.

247 After the electrodynamic remediation experiments, the initial content of Pb in the oxidisable and  
248 residual fractions was reduced from 60% to 22-30%. Release of Pb could take place by oxidation  
249 of soluble and insoluble organic matter. Due to the high affinity of Pb to organic matter  
250 (Eggleton and Thomas, 2004) some of the Pb in solution may have re-precipitated in the  
251 oxidisable fraction. More than 30% of the Pb was bound in the reducible fraction after the  
252 experiments, indicating that substantial reduction of Mn/Fe oxides during the treatment did  
253 not occur and that some of the released Pb from the oxidisable and residual fractions may have  
254 re-precipitated in the reducible fraction. Pb has high affinity to be adsorbed to Fe, Mn and Al  
255 oxides, and co-precipitated with Fe and Mn oxides (Bradl, 2004; Favas et al., 2011).

256 The reduction of Zn bound in the oxidisable and residual fractions was not as pronounced as  
257 observed for Cu and Pb (Fig. 2). Most of the removal observed during the electrodynamic  
258 remediation originated from the residual and oxidisable fractions indicating oxidation of Zn-  
259 organic complexes and potential dissolution of stable Zn minerals. In exp. 4 re-precipitation of  
260 Zn occurred in the exchangeable fraction and could be related to Zn in acidic medium adsorbing  
261 to clay minerals by cation exchange processes (Fotovat and Naidu, 1998).

262 Previous studies have shown that electrokinetic remediation of soil and sediments enhances  
263 natural weathering processes (Kirkelund et al., 2010). Electrodynamic treatment has also been  
264 shown to remove naturally occurring metals in soil and sediment, the removal percentages  
265 depend on the mobility of the metal and how the metal is bound in the soil minerals (Jensen et  
266 al., 2006; Pedersen et al., 2016). In this study, low removal percentages (<15%) as well as low  
267 influence of experimental settings on metal fractionation was observed for most of the  
268 naturally occurring metals Al, Fe, K, Mg, Cr, Ni. An exception to this was Mn, which had higher  
269 removal percentages (31-38%) and metal fractionation changed after electrodynamic treatment.  
270 This indicates that Mn desorbed/dissolved and that the electrodynamic conditions increased the  
271 mobility of Mn compared to the other trace metals. This observation is in line with other  
272 studies showing that under the influence of an electric field, Mn is mobilised to a higher degree  
273 than other trace metals (Jensen et al., 2006; Pedersen et al., 2017).

274 The metals Cd, Cu, Pb and Zn had the highest removal percentages (table 2). The initial  
275 concentrations of Cd, Cu and Zn (table 1) were below levels considered as pollution. However,  
276 since the metals constitute part of bullets, the concentrations may be elevated compared to  
277 the natural background concentrations at the site. The initial metal fractionation of Cd, Cu and

278 Zn was comparable to that reported in literature (Tipping et al., 2003). Metal fractionation of  
279 Cd and Zn was not significantly affected by the experimental settings indicating that pH rather  
280 than the electrodynamic conditions controlled the mobilisation in the studied experimental  
281 space. The metal fractionation of Cu was affected by the experimental settings indicating that  
282 electrodynamic conditions, e.g. acidification and redox affected the mobilisation. Based on the  
283 observed trends for Cd, Cu and Zn, it is not possible to assess whether the initial concentrations  
284 are background concentrations or affected by the shooting range activities. The high initial  
285 concentration of Pb was a clear indication of anthropogenic impact.

286 In this study, most of the removal of Cu and Pb originated from the labile fractions of the soil  
287 (oxidisable and residual). This could be due to the electrodynamic cell design and the soil  
288 characteristics. As an effect of placing the anode directly in the soil, oxidation of insoluble and  
289 soluble organic compounds could occur, thereby increasing the mobilisation of Cu and Pb. The  
290 soil characteristics (high content of clay/silt and organic matter) may have enhanced the re-  
291 precipitation of released metals, thereby preventing the electromigration of metals out of the  
292 soil. This is in line with previous studies in which metals concentrations in the exchangeable  
293 fraction increased during electrokinetic remediation, due to re-precipitation of metals from  
294 dissolution of organic matter and minerals (Ribeiro and Mexia, 1997; Peppicelli et al., 2018).

### 295 *3.3 Influence of anode placement*

296 To evaluate the effect of the anode placement, the soil was sliced in three at the end of the  
297 experiments. In the traditional 3-compartment set-up it was shown that the horizontal  
298 transport of protons and metals through the soil during electrodynamic decreases with the  
299 horizontal distance from the anode (Hansen et al., 1997). In this study, the anode was,



300 however, placed directly in the soil and instead of the usual practice of slicing the soil vertically,  
301 perpendicularly to the electric field to assess the transport across the cell, the soil was sliced  
302 longitudinal. This was done in order to investigate the possible influence of the direct contact of  
303 anode with the soil (slice 2), on metal removal and partitioning in the soil, e.g. more  
304 mobilisation due to electrolysis reactions. The pH was lowest in the middle part of the cell (slice  
305 2, Fig. 3) with similar pH levels in other parts of the cell. The water content did not vary  
306 significantly between the different parts of the cell. For this reason, slices 1 and 3 are expected  
307 to show similar patterns in removal percentages of metals.

308 **Fig. 3**

309 For the metals Al, Mn, Cu and Pb differences in the removal percentages from different parts of  
310 the cell were observed (Fig. 4). For Al, higher removal was observed from the middle part of the  
311 cell (soil in direct contact with anode) and it is speculated whether this was due to dissolution  
312 of the stable mineral aluminium hydroxide oxide, as electrolysis is a well-established technique  
313 for extracting Al from bauxite (Gow and Lozej, 1993) and would occur adjacent to the anode.  
314 The difference in removal of Mn from different parts of the cell is especially apparent in the two  
315 experiments with short distance between the electrodes (exp. 1 and 3). Mn is known to be  
316 among the more mobile metals in soil (Violante et al., 2010) and has low affinity for clay  
317 minerals (Fijałkowski et al., 2012) compared to the other metals. The biggest difference in  
318 removal from different parts of the cell was observed for Cu and Pb, with the highest removal  
319 from the middle part of the cell. This could be related to the slightly lower pH observed in the  
320 middle part of the cell (Fig. 4) or different redox conditions due to electrolysis reactions on the  
321 anode.

322 **Fig. 4**

323 In order to evaluate the potential effect of the electrolysis reactions on the release of Cu and Pb  
324 in the different parts of the cell, metal fractionation was used (Fig. 5). There was an observed  
325 difference in the removal and mobilisation of Cu and Pb from the different parts of the cell,  
326 most noticeable for Cu. There was more removal and desorption from the oxidisable and  
327 residual fractions in slice 2 (anode directly in contact with soil) indicating more dissolution and  
328 release of Cu/Pb due to a lower pH, redox conditions (oxidation) or that the electric field was  
329 more efficient in this part of the soil. More re-precipitation in the reducible and exchangeable  
330 fractions were observed in slices 1 and 3, and could be an indication of more efficient  
331 electromigration in the middle part of the cell. The effect of experimental settings on the metal  
332 fractionation in different parts of the soil was most obvious in exp. 1 and exp. 4, the  
333 experiments for which the highest removal of Cu and Pb was observed (table 2). These  
334 experiments had the highest charge transfer per quantity of soil, with the highest observed  
335 effect on the metal fractionation as well as on the removal of Cu and Pb. As a reference to  
336 these observations, the metal fractionation of Zn, known to be mobile under the influence of an  
337 electric field, was used. More removal of the metal was observed in slice 2 (exp. 1 and exp. 4)  
338 and the difference in metal fractionation between the different parts of the cell was mainly  
339 related to the residual fraction. This could indicate dissolution of Zn minerals in the residual  
340 fraction. Similar amounts of Zn were bound in the exchangeable, reducible and oxidisable  
341 fractions in the different parts of the cell (Fig. 5). This indicates similar re-precipitation of Zn  
342 across different parts of the soil and the electric field, the higher removal of Zn from the middle  
343 part of the cell however indicating higher efficiency of the electric field. The placement of the

344 anode hence appears to influence the efficiency of electro-dialytic remediation, affecting the  
345 oxidation of minerals and organic matter, thereby influencing the mobilisation of metals bound  
346 in the oxidisable and residual fractions and in addition affecting the efficiency of transport  
347 through the cell.

348 **Fig. 5**

#### 349 **4. Conclusions**

350 By placing the anode directly in the soil, mobilisation of metals from less available fractions in  
351 the soil during electrolysytic remediation was observed. This was suggested to be due to  
352 oxidation/dissolution of insoluble/soluble organic matter and metal oxides in the residual  
353 fraction on account of electrolysis reactions at the anode. The transport via electromigration  
354 out of the soil and re-precipitation in other fractions of the soil (oxidisable, reducible,  
355 exchangeable) depended on the metal. More than 30% of the original content of Mn, Cd, Cu, Pb  
356 and Zn was removed from the soil while less than 20% of the initial content was transported  
357 out of the soil for the metals Al, Fe, K, Mg, As, Cr and Ni. From the middle part of the cell, in  
358 which the anode was in direct contact with the soil, higher mobilisation and removal was  
359 observed, especially for Cu and Pb. Metal fractionation after the electrolysytic remediation  
360 showed more removal from the oxidisable/residual fractions.

361 Optimal settings for the removal of metals depended on the metal. For the targeted metal for  
362 remediation, Pb, the removal increased by applying short distance between the electrodes (1.5  
363 cm). Similar removal efficiency in experiments with long distance between the electrodes (3.0  
364 cm) could be achieved by increasing the current density and the remediation time. The findings  
365 of this study demonstrated that the design and optimisation of electrolysytic remediation  
366 should take into regard the targeted metal(s) and the metal fractionation.

#### 367 **Acknowledgements**

368 The Norwegian Defence Estates Agency is acknowledged for funding the experimental part of  
369 the project. The Northern Environmental Waste Management (EWMA) project, funded by the

370 Research Council of Norway through NORDSATSNING (grant number 195160) and Eni Norge AS,  
371 is acknowledged for funding time for data treatment and manuscript writing.

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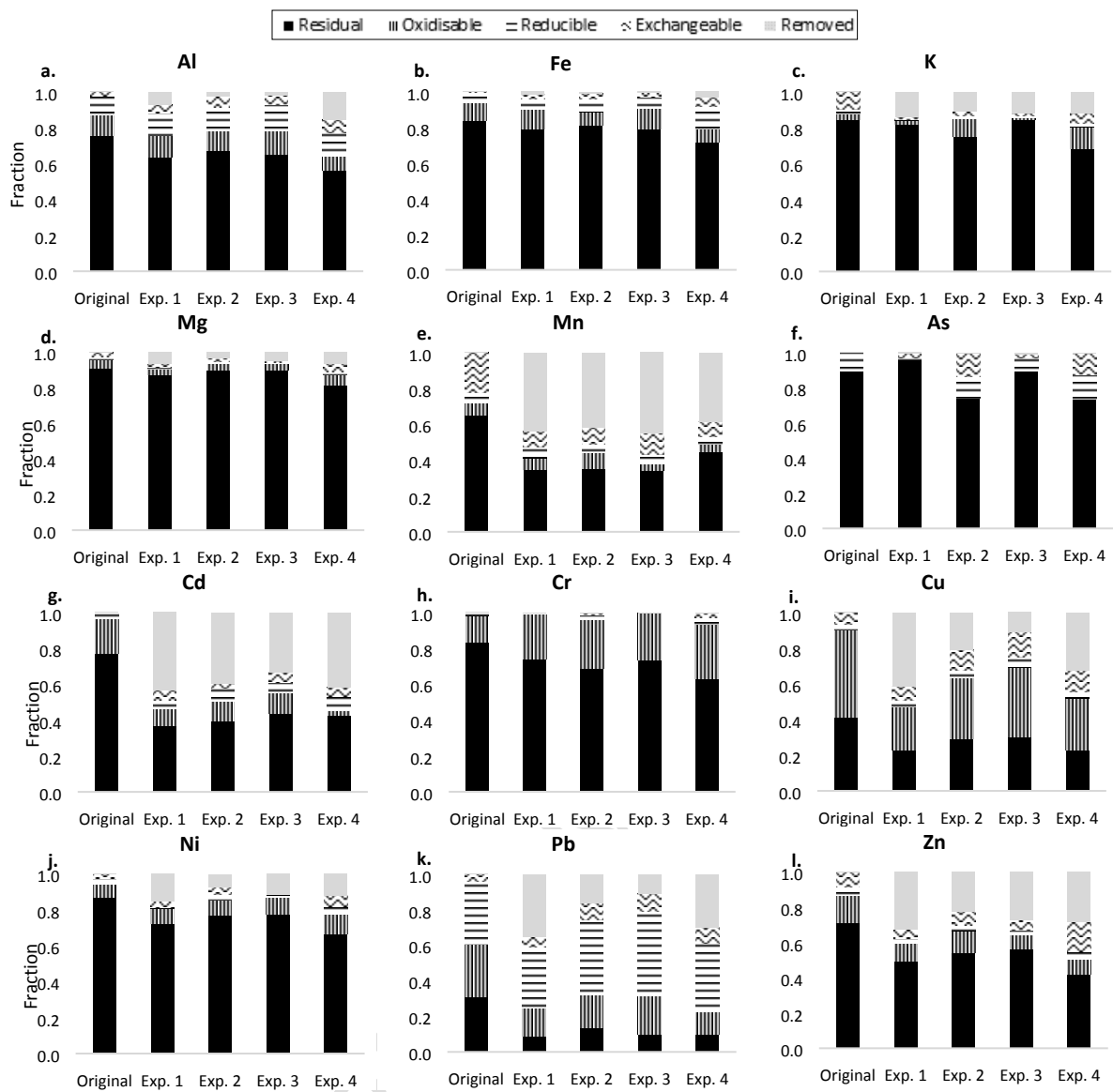
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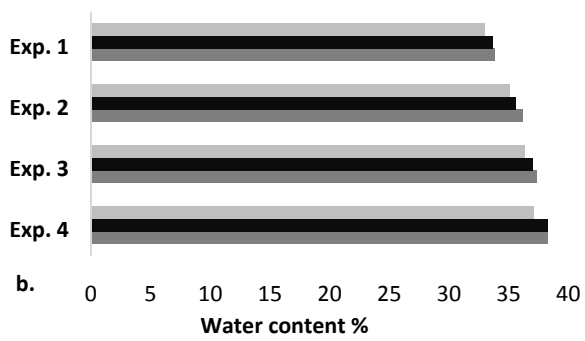
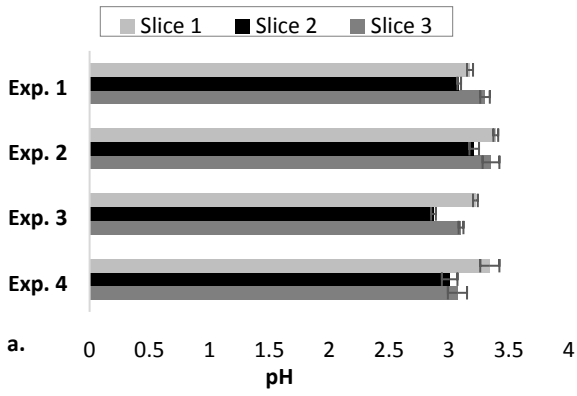
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**Figure captions**

Fig. 1: a). The electro dialytic cell scheme. b). The sampling regime after the electro dialytic experiments.

Fig. 2: The partitioning of metals, based on the total amount of metal in the electro dialytic cell after the experiments. 'Removed' is the fraction of metal mobilised and transported to the cathode compartment during the electro dialytic treatment, 'exchangeable' is the fraction of metals available by ion exchange or weak acid in the soil, 'reducible' is the fraction of metals bound in Fe/Mn oxides in the soil, 'oxidisable' is the fraction of metals bound to soluble organic matter in the soil and 'residual' is the fraction of metals bound in insoluble organic matter and stable minerals in the soil.

Fig. 3: pH and water content in the different parts of the soil compartment after the electro dialytic remediation experiments. Slice 1 is the top part of the soil (25% of the total amount of soil), slice 2 is the middle part of the soil (50% of the total amount of soil) and slice 3 is the bottom part of the soil (25% of the total amount of soil) in the electro dialytic cell.

Fig. 4: Removal of metals in the different parts of the soil compartment in the electro dialytic remediation experiments. Slice 1 is the top part of the soil (25% of the total amount of soil), slice 2 is the middle part of the soil (50% of the total amount of soil) and slice 3 is the bottom part of the soil (25% of the total amount of soil) in the electro dialytic cell.

Fig. 5: Metal speciation of Cu, Pb and Zn in the different parts of the soil compartment before and after the electro dialytic remediation experiments. Slice 1 is the top part of the soil (25% of the total amount of soil), slice 2 the middle part of the soil (50% of the total amount of soil) and slice 3 is the bottom part of the soil (25% of the total amount of soil) in the electro dialytic cell.

**Highlights**

Electrodialysis was applied to mobilise and remove metals from a shooting range soil

The anode placement in the soil ensured introduction of protons and oxygen

Oxidation and dissolution of organic matter and metal oxides, mobilized metals

Electromigration and re-precipitation in other soil fractions depended on the metal

Optimisation depends on the targeted metal, metal speciation and soil characteristics

**Table 1: Soil characteristics and metal concentrations, compared to the Norwegian quality criteria class 2 (predicted no effects), where these are available.**

<i>Characteristic</i>	<i>Unit</i>	<i>Value</i>	<i>Standard deviation</i>	<i>Norwegian quality criteria for soil class 2</i>
Carbonate	%	0.2	20%	-
Organic matter	%	12.6	8%	-
Total carbon	%	13.6	14%	-
pH		3.7	1%	-
Conductivity	mS cm <sup>-1</sup>	0.3	8%	-
<b>Grain size distribution</b>				
<i>Clay (&lt;2μm)</i>	%	12.9		-
<i>Silt (2-63μm)</i>	%	35.5		-
<i>Sand (63μm-1mm)</i>	%	25.7		-
<i>Gravel (&gt;1mm)</i>	%	25.9		-
<b>Metal concentrations</b>				
<i>Al</i>	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	10,280	4%	-
<i>Fe</i>	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	15,760	6%	-
<i>K</i>	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	1090	9%	-
<i>Mg</i>	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	2070	4%	-
<i>Mn</i>	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	270	15%	-
<i>As</i>	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	3.0	7%	20
<i>Cd</i>	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	0.2	15%	10
<i>Cr</i>	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	15	6%	200
<i>Cu</i>	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	47	8%	200
<i>Ni</i>	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	11	7%	135
<i>Pb</i>	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	450	9%	100
<i>Zn</i>	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	46	7%	500

**Table 2: Experimental settings and results of the electrodialytic remediation experiments. The removal of metals (%), the final pH and energy consumption per kg treated soil in the four experiments. Pb was the targeted metal for remediation and calculation of the energy required for removing Pb is also provided.**

	Exp. 1	Exp. 2	Exp. 3	Exp. 4
<b>Experimental settings</b>				
Distance between electrodes (cm)	1.5	3.0	1.5	3.0
Current density (mA cm <sup>-2</sup> )	0.2	0.2	0.08	0.2
Remediation time (d)	7	7	7	35
<b>Removal of metals (%)</b>				
Al	7	2	2	14
Fe	1	1	1	3
K	14	10	11	12
Mg	7	4	5	7
As	1	1	1	1
Cd	43	39	34	42
Cr	<1	<1	<1	<1
Cu	41	21	16	33
Ni	13	8	11	12
Pb	31	14	14	30
Zn	34	23	28	29
<b>pH</b>				
Final pH	3.2	3.3	3.0	3.1
<b>Energy consumption</b>				
kWh kg <sup>-1</sup> soil	0.48	0.29	0.38	0.44
kWh g <sup>-1</sup> Pb removed	3.0	5.8	9.0	3.1