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Research Article

Keywords: groundwater remediation, zero-valent iron, nitroaniline, pollutants, plaster, precast retaining wall block

Posted Date: March 15th, 2021

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-281415/v1>

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Remediation of 4-nitroaniline by plaster-based permeable reactive barriers containing zero valent iron (ZVI): precast plaster retaining wall blocks for environmental applications

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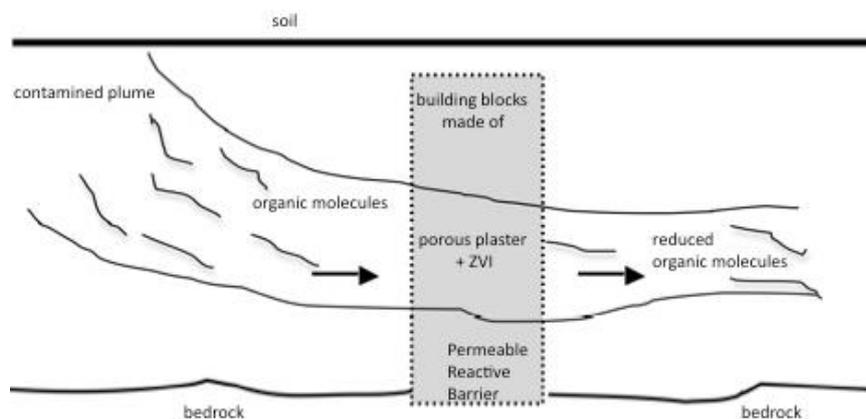
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Graphical abstract



Highlights files

- Precast plaster blocks were tested for environmental applications

- Zero Valent Iron (ZVI) dispersed in plaster blocks was active in reducing 4-nitroaniline (PNA) to p-phenylenediammine with a reactive capacity of 55 mg/g (PNA/ZVI)

20 - Permeability of plaster blocks can be modulated depending on composite formulation.

21

22 **Abbreviations:** **PDA**, p-phenylenediamine; **PE**, polyethylene; **PET**, polyethylene
23 terephthalate; **PNA**, 4-nitroaniline (or p-nitroaniline)

24

25 **Abstract**

26 Permeable reactive barrier (PRB) containing zero valent iron (ZVI), plaster and additives to
27 make a porous composite structure was tested to remove an organic nitro compound as model
28 pollutant. An aqueous solution of 4-nitroaniline (PNA) was passed through a porous plaster
29 composite column and chemical degradation quantified by UV-Vis spectroscopy. PNA was
30 reduced to p-phenylenediamine and the rate of the reduction was strongly related to ZVI
31 amount, pollutant volume, and the contact rate with metal particles. The parameters could be
32 controlled by reactor design and operation. The columns were made to test the materials for
33 making precast plaster blocks containing ZVI. The results showed that such porous plaster
34 blocks could be efficient as retaining walls for environmental applications.

35

36 **1. Introduction**

37 Permeable reactive barrier (PRB) is a cost-effective technology for “in situ passive method”
38 of groundwater remediation (Henderson and Demond 2007). It is an implementation of
39 filtration consisting in a permeable zone, which passively captures a plume of contaminants
40 through immobilization or transformation of pollutants, releasing decontaminated water to
41 the other side of the barrier (Grajales-Mesa and Malina 2016). PRB is generally composed of
42 inexpensive filler materials, doped with specific reagents for remediation of unwanted
43 compounds. It was reported that zero valent iron (ZVI) is particularly effective in chemical

44 degradation of persistent chlorinated compounds into non-toxic and harmless by-products
45 (Dorathi and Kandasamy 2012).

46 Nitrocompounds are usually present in hair dyes (Various authors 1992), in pharmaceuticals,
47 such as chloroamphenicol (Various authors 1989a) and metronidazole (Gavrilescu et al.
48 2015), and nitroarenes has been identified in vehicle exhausts (Various authors 1989).

49 Nitroarenes can be reduced to corresponding anilines, in presence of ZVI and hydrochloric
50 acid, in Bechamp reduction (Béchamp 1854); moreover, in organic synthesis other methods
51 have found to be more specific and to reduce by-pass products (Schabel et al. 2013). For
52 instance, silver nanoparticles were developed for in situ catalytic reduction method of PNA
53 (Farooqi et al. 2018). However, in order to integrate in PRB a low cost reactant, ZVI has
54 already shown to be a good candidate for reduction of different pollutants (Hu et al. 2018;
55 Eljamal et al. 2018, 2020; Khalil et al. 2018; Maamoun et al. 2018, 2020, 2020a). Efficiency
56 of PRB is related to flow of polluted plume and to pollutant characteristics (Wantanaphong et
57 al. 2006; Touze, et al. 2004).

58 Calcium sulfates (including plaster, $\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 0.5\text{H}_2\text{O}$, and its dihydrated product, gypsum,
59 $\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$) were chosen as inert substrate in order to prepare composites. They are low
60 cost building materials, sometime considered as a waste when by-product in industrial
61 preparation of phosphoric acid (Saadaoui et al. 2017). One great advantage of calcium
62 sulfates is that they are compatible with a variety of fillers, still retaining adequate
63 mechanical properties. The main problem in using them for geological applications is their
64 relative solubility, which, however, could be an advantage in an environmental approach: in
65 fact a calcium sulfate-based PRB should break up with time discharging in environment no
66 toxic species.

67 We researched the possibility of using plaster as barrier component for controlling liquid
68 flow rates while simultaneously introducing a low cost reactive material. Our aim was to

69 verify if plaster can be used for permeable barrier construction and if ZVI retains its redox
70 properties when included in a solid shell.

71 A plaster-based composite, shaped as a column, was formulated in order to make a model
72 barrier to study ZVI efficiency for soluble organic species depollution, such as 4-nitroaniline
73 as pollutant model.

74 Key factors of all-in-one composites design for PRB were investigated as follows:

75 1- Permeability of solid plaster, as inert support for PRB, was determined and a method to
76 improve it was developed (giving “porous” plaster)

77 2- “Porous” plaster was tested for its mechanical properties and the better formulation
78 chosen.

79 3- ZVI was inserted in “porous” plaster and new composites were checked for their
80 mechanical properties giving a formulation with a good compromise for all parameters.

81 4- Reduction of 4-nitroaniline was performed in batch with ZVI as in Béchamp reaction, in
82 order to establish reaction chemical parameters (amount of reactive specie, pH values).

83 5- Degradation of 4-nitroaniline (PNA, used as model pollutant) to p-phenylenediamine
84 (PPD), was quantified by UV spectroscopy by measuring its absorbance maximum at 380
85 nm.

86 5- Reduction of 4-nitroaniline was performed in column as a model for all-in-one PRB
87 system: breakdown and exhaustion points were determined for specific experimental
88 conditions.

89

90 **2. Experimental**

91 *2.1. Chemicals*

92 Plaster, in chemical form of $\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 0.5\text{H}_2\text{O}$, was a commercial powder (plaster of Paris
93 quality) from Parexlanko, France; iron powder (ZVI, 325 mesh, 99%), H_3PO_4 (85%), and

94 CaCO₃ (99%) were from Acros (France), 4-nitroaniline (or p-nitroaniline, PNA, 98%) and p-
95 phenyldiamine (PDA, 98%) from Aldrich (France).

96 2.2. Material characterization

97 Solid samples were characterized by powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) with a Bruker D2
98 X'PertPRO diffractometer using Cu K α radiation (40 kV and 40 mA). Crystallographic
99 identification of CaSO₄·2H₂O was accomplished by comparing the experimental XRD pattern
100 to COD 2300259 of gypsum standard (point group 2/m).

101 2.3. Physical and mechanics tests

102 All samples were weighted and “apparent” density calculated from geometrical parameters.
103 Indirect tensile stress diametral compression tests were carried out with a Zwick Roll Z020
104 testing machine (Zwick Roell, France) at a crosshead speed of 10 mm/min, until failure.
105 Using initial height (L [m]) and diameter (D [m²]) of each sample, and measuring the
106 reciprocated force (F [kg/ms²]) from compression, indirect (or Brazilian) tensile strength, σ_T
107 ([kg/m²s²]), was calculated from its definition in equation 1:

$$108 \quad \sigma_T = \frac{2F}{\pi LD} \quad (1)$$

109 2.4. Porosity determination

110 Porosity was determined from the ratio of experimental “apparent” density of each sample
111 and gypsum density, CaSO₄·2H₂O, 2.308 g/cm³ (CRC Handbook of Chemistry and Physics,
112 2019) with equation 2:

$$113 \quad \text{porosity(\%)} = \frac{\text{density}_{\text{exp}}}{\text{density}_{\text{gypsum}}} \times 100 \quad (2)$$

114 2.5. Spectroscopic analysis

115 UV-VIS spectra were used to quantify 4-nitroaniline (PNA) and p-phenyldiamine (PDA)
116 concentrations. Vis-UV spectra were recorded between 200 and 700 nm in aqueous solution
117 on a HP 8453 spectrophotometer with quartz cells of 0.2 and 1 cm of path-length. Spectra of

118 pure 4-nitroaniline (PNA) and p-phenylenediamine (PDA) were recorded in aqueous solution
119 giving the following spectroscopic features: PNA: 380 ($\epsilon=73.3 \text{ L}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}\cdot\text{cm}^{-1}$), 227 (35.5), 204
120 (63.0) nm. PDA: 305 ($\epsilon=13.7 \text{ L}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}\cdot\text{cm}^{-1}$), 240 (49.3), 210 (58.7) nm. PNA concentrations in
121 solution were determined from absorbances measured at 380. PDA formation (following
122 mechanism of Bechamp reduction) was checked from band at 240 nm (PDA maximum
123 absorption).

124 2.6. Determination of PNA degradation

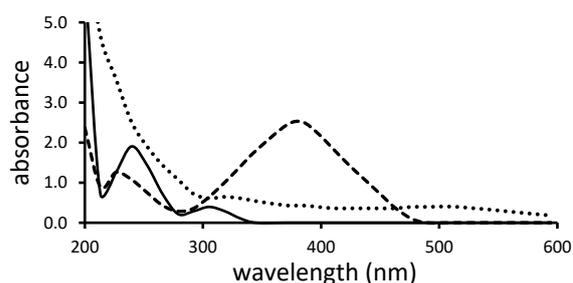
125 Degradation of PNA, meaning the disappearing of its characteristic absorption band at 380
126 nm), was calculated from the UV-Vis spectra with equation 3:

$$127 \quad \text{degradation}(\%) = \frac{(A_{380} - A_{600})}{(A_{380}^{\circ} - A_{600}^{\circ})} \times 100 \quad (3)$$

128 where A_{380} and A_{600} are the absorption values of each sample at the noted wavelengths, and
129 A_{380}° and A_{600}° the absorption values of starting solutions. Absorption values were corrected at
130 600 nm in order to avoid diffusion effects from cloudy solutions. At 380 nm the absorption
131 contribution for presence of PDA in aqueous solutions was insignificant.

132

133



134

135 **Figure 1** Absorption spectra of PNA (---), PDA (—) and PDA polymerization product (···) in
136 aqueous solutions: [PNA]= [PDA]= 30 mg/l; path-length quartz cell = 0.2 cm

137

138 2.7. Plaster samples preparation

139 Plaster slabs were made by adding plaster (50 g) to appropriate amounts of distilled water.
140 After 5 minutes of mixing, preparations were poured into PET (polyethylene terephthalate) or
141 PE (polyethylene) cylindrical molds to make samples for flow experiments (in 2.8-cm-
142 diameter, 2-cm-high) and for mechanical tests and density measurements (in 2.6-cm-
143 diameter, 5-cm-height). All solid samples were dried at 60°C for 24 hours before their use.

144 2.7.1. Effect of water

145 In these series of experiment the water/plaster ratio was modified, as reported in Table 1, and
146 physical and mechanical properties measured for each sample, giving the results reported in
147 Table 1.

Water/plaster ratio (w/w)	density (g/ml)	porosity (%)	indirect tensile strength (MPa)
0.5	1.15±0.04	50.46±0.40	7.14±0.43
0.6	1.10±0.04	52.71±0.33	5.47±0.41
0.7	1.04±0.06	55.06±0.61	4.48±0.43
0.8	0.99±0.05	57.39±2.00	3.57±0.19

148

149 **Table 1** Physical and mechanical properties of plaster samples (density, porosity, indirect
150 tensile strength) as a function of plaster/water ratio (w/w); experimental conditions: plaster
151 (50.00 g); measurements were an average from ten samples.

152 These sample were checked for their permeability (see section 2.7.5)

153 2.7.2. Effect of porogen (CaCO₃+H₃PO₄)

154 Porous samples were prepared by grinding calcium carbonate (pure or recovered from
155 calcined egg shell waste) with plaster powder, then pouring the powder in phosphoric acid-
156 containing water.

157 Permeability of these samples was compared with those of “compact” plaster (see section
158 2.7.5).

H ₃ PO ₄ (g)	H ₃ PO ₄ (%)	density (g/ml)	porosity (%)	indirect tensile strength (MPa)
0.00	0	1.04±0.06	55.06±0.61	4.48±0.43
0.34	0.3	0.86±0.06	63.08±2.72	1.48±0.09
0.68	0.6	0.76±0.01	66.97±0.35	1.15±0.73
1.01	0.8	0.74±0.03	67.94±2.62	1.04±0.25
1.35	1.1	0.72±0.01	69.13±1.80	0.83±0.08

159

160 **Table 2** Physical and mechanical properties of plaster samples (density, porosity, indirect
 161 tensile strength) as a function of H₃PO₄ added; experimental conditions: plaster (50.0g,
 162 41.6%); water (58.2 %); CaCO₃ (0.2%)

163

164 2.7.3. Effect of acid

165 The effect of mineral acid on plaster setting was tested with H₃PO₄ and HCl: if acidic
 166 solutions increased porosity compared to distilled water, however samples with hydrochloric
 167 acid were more dense and compact than those made with phosphoric acid (Table 3).

acid	density (g/ml)	porosity (%)	indirect tensile strength (MPa)
0	1.04±0.06	55.06±0.61	4.48±0.43
H ₃ PO ₄	0.52±0.07	77.55±0.61	1.89±0.65
HCl	0.94±0.02	59.48±0.67	5.87±1.90

168

169 **Table 3** Physical and mechanical properties of plaster samples (density, porosity, indirect
 170 tensile strength) as a function of H₃PO₄ added; experimental conditions: plaster (50.0g,
 171 41.6%); water (58.2 %); CaCO₃ (0.2%)

172

173 2.7.4. Effect of ZVI

174 Different amounts of ZVI were dispersed in solid components (plaster and calcium
 175 carbonate) before adding liquid components (water and phosphoric acid), in order to
 176 uniformly scatter heavy iron in slab. Physical and mechanical properties of different samples
 177 obtained were reported in Table 4.
 178

ZVI (g)	ZVI percentage (%)	density (g/ml)	porosity (%)	indirect tensile strength (kPa)
0	0	0.86±0.06	63.08±2.72	1.48±0.09
1.00	1.2	0.88±0.29	62.19±0.66	1.26±0.27
2.00	2.3	1.17±0.05	49.56±0.37	1.93±0.30
3.00	3.4	1.36±0.05	41.23±0.93	3.18±0.88
5.00	5.6	1.36±0.06	41.32±0.57	3.14±0.51

179

180 **Table 4** Physical and mechanical properties of plaster samples (density, porosity, indirect
 181 tensile strength) as a function of ZVI added; experimental conditions: plaster (50.0 g, 41.0%);
 182 water (57.4%); CaCO₃ (0.2%); H₃PO₄ (0.2%)

183 2.7.5. Permeability coefficient measurements

184 Permeability coefficient measurements were done on plaster samples (2.8-cm diameter, 2.0-
 185 cm heigth) with a water pressure column of 5 cm. Discharge of water (Q [m³/s]) percolating
 186 under a constant head difference (H [m]) through a sample, of porous material of cross area S
 187 ([m²]) and length L ([m]), was determined for several samples as in Tables 5. Permeability
 188 coefficients K (hydraulic conductivity, [m/s]) were calculated from Darcy's law, following
 189 equation 4:

$$190 \quad K = \frac{QL}{SH} \quad (4)$$

191

Serie	water/plaster (w/w)	CaCO ₃ +H ₃ PO ₄ (%)	ZVI (%)	pH values	permeability coefficient (m/s)
-------	---------------------	---	---------	-----------	--------------------------------

1	0.7	-	-	7.1	$\geq 8.23 \cdot 10^{-8}$
2	0.7	0.4	-	7.4	$2.88 \pm 0.13 \cdot 10^{-5}$
3	0.7	-	2	7.1	$\geq 8.23 \cdot 10^{-8}$
4	0.7	0.4	2	7.3	$2.24 \pm 0.74 \cdot 10^{-5}$

192

193 **Table 5** Permeability coefficients of plaster samples as a function of composition.

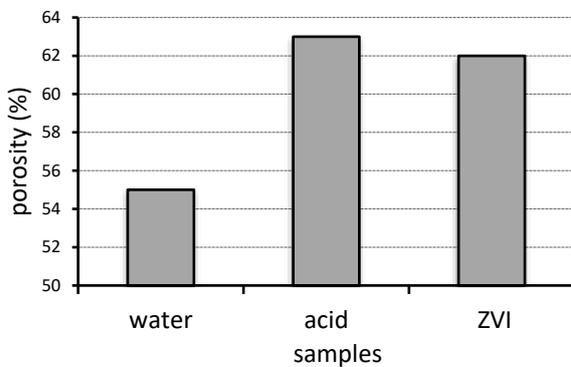
194 Experimental conditions: plaster (50.0 g, 41.0%); experiments were an average of five
 195 samples.

196

197 For the samples containing “compact” plaster (series 1 and 3), discharge was very slow and
 198 permeability coefficients were estimated from water amount recovered after 24 hours.

199 2.7.6. Column formulation

200 In a further step, only composites with a permeability allowing to study PRB chemical
 201 reactivity in period of one day, were used in depolluting tests.



202

203 **Figure 2** Porosity optimization as a function of different components of BRP (water,
 204 phosphoric acid and ZVI) plaster (50.0 g, 40.0%); water (56.0%); CaCO₃ (0.2%); H₃PO₄
 205 (0.2%)

206

207 Figure 2 reported the optimization of all composite components (water, calcium carbonate,
 208 phosphoric acid, ZVI) for a fixed amount of plaster in order to keep a good equilibrium

209 between different physical properties. Final composite formulation contained plaster and
210 water with 0.7 ratio, 0.2% CaCO₃ and 0.4% H₃PO₄ (per 50 g of plaster), used to mold
211 depolluting columns.

212

213 2.8. *Bechamp reduction*

214 2.8.1. ZVI in batch reaction

215 Batch experiments were conducted inside 250 ml Erlenmeyer flasks under continuous
216 magnetic stirring (500 rpm) and the overall time of experiments was 7 hours. Batch
217 experimental initial conditions were: temperature; 25°C, PNA concentration; 30mg/l, water
218 volume; 100 ml. Specific variables in batch experiments included pH (initial pH acidic or
219 neutral) and the amounts of ZVI (1, 2 and 3 g). Sampling was conducted within accumulative
220 time of 15 minutes during first three hours, then of 1 hour for last four from commencement
221 of batch experiments, For analysis, 2 ml samples were withdrawn by a 5 ml syringe, Vis-UV
222 spectra registered using a 1 cm quartz cell, then returned to batch. Initial pH was adjusted, or
223 not, using 95% phosphoric acid.

224 In both experiments, degradation percentage was calculated from absorbance values at 380
225 nm corresponding maximum absorption of PNA, as indicated in Section 2.5.

226 2.8.2. Column preparation

227 100 g of plaster, mixed with appropriate amounts of ZVI and 0.2% CaCO₃, were added to 70
228 ml of distilled water, containing 0.4 g of phosphoric acid, then all reagents were mixed
229 together and the viscous mixture poured into PET (polyethylene terephthalate) cylindrical
230 molds (in 5.0-cm-diameter, 15-cm-height) used as percolator system. PET shells were
231 thermally fixed to plaster columns in order to avoid leaking out from their extremities.

232 2.8.3. ZVI in column reaction

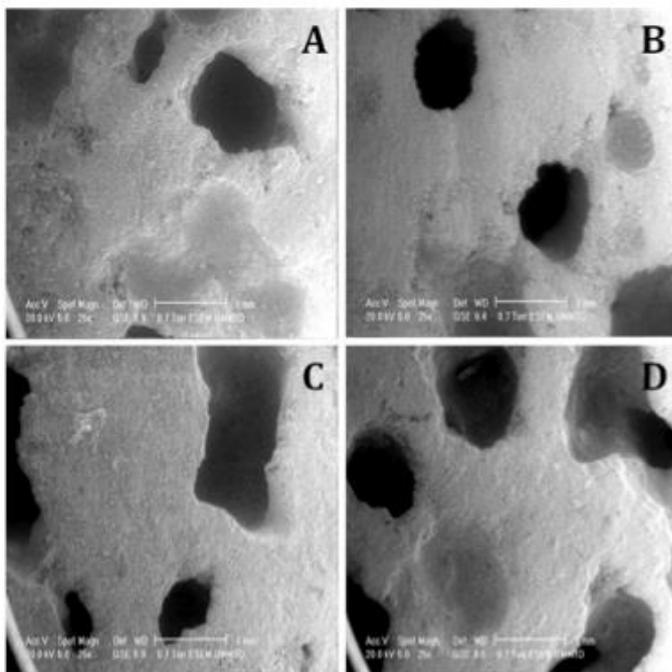
233 PNA-containing aqueous solutions (100 ml aliquots) were passed by percolation through
234 columns. Fractions of 100 ml were recovered post-column: 2 ml of each fraction was checked

235 by UV-Vis spectrum between 200 and 700 nm and absorbance values at 380 nm (wavelength
236 of maximum absorbance for PNA) used to calculate PNA concentration in each fraction, as
237 indicated in Section 2.5.

238 2.9. SEM Analysis

239 Plaster samples were observed by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) Zeiss Supra 55VP.

240



241

242 **Figure 3** SEM photographs showing a view of porogen-containing hardened gypsum
243 samples, prepared with a water-to-plaster ratio of 0.7, as a function of carbonate amounts
244 (with 1.1 % phosphoric acid, w/w). CaCO₃: A=0.2%, B=0.5g, C=0.7g, D= 0.9% (w/w);
245 length scale bar is 1mm and magnification x25)

246

247 2.10. Speciation of ZVI reacting species

248 Samples of plaster-based composites (2.8-cm diameter, 2.0-cm height) were soaked in
249 distilled water (25 ml) and pH was measured as a function of time. O-phenathroline (0.5%)
250 and KSCN (1%) in aqueous solution were used to check presence of Fe(II) or Fe(III) species,

251 respectively. Because of the low amount of iron species in solution, reagents were used in
252 strong excess but quantification was not reliable.

253

254 **3. Results and discussion**

255 Calcium sulfates (including starting material, plaster, $\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 0.5 \text{H}_2\text{O}$, and its hydrated
256 product, gypsum, $\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$) were chosen as inert substrate in order to prepare porous
257 composites. They are low cost materials, sometime considered as a waste as in the case of
258 phosphogypsum (Chernysh et al. 2021) compatible with a variety of fillers, still retaining
259 adequate mechanical properties. The main problem in using them for geological applications
260 is their relative solubility, which could be an advantage for environmental approach: in fact a
261 calcium sulfate-based PRB should break up with time discharging in environment only no
262 toxic species.

263 Hemihydrate calcium phosphate ($\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 0.5\text{H}_2\text{O}$), named plaster, became gypsum when
264 hydrated ($\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$); however plaster denomination was here extended to “hydrated
265 samples”, with no reference to their chemical state. Different formulations were prepared, by
266 using plaster, water, chemical porogen and “reactive components” (ZVI) in different
267 proportions. For each sample, density, porosity, permeability, and mechanical properties were
268 determined.

269 3.1.1 Properties of plaster-based composites

270 It was reported that water amount determined porosity in plasters blocks (Lewry and
271 Williamson 1994; Adrien et al. 2016); as reported in Table 1, density and indirect tensile
272 strength of materials were reduced as a function of water contents and porosity increased.

273 In reaction between plaster ($\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 0.5\text{H}_2\text{O}$) and water to form gypsum ($\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$), part of
274 water is consumed by hydration reaction during material setting and remainder slowly

275 evaporated leading to porosity (Diaga Seck et al. 2015); hardening of plaster paste leads to
276 porous structure, made of entangled needle-shape gypsum crystals (Jaffel et al. 2006).
277 However, in order to allow percolation in short times, porosity, as shown in Table 5, obtained
278 only by water evaporation was not enough to have an acceptable permeability and a better
279 porogen for plaster was sought.

280 Calcium carbonate was used as porogen in presence of acid in order to generate open porosity
281 and increase permeability through the column (Table 2); phosphoric acid was chosen because
282 eventual formation of calcium phosphate as secondary product was supposed to not modify
283 plaster structure: the two materials are perfectly compatible, moreover giving composites
284 with lower dissolution rates and enhanced mechanical properties (Fisher et al. 2012).

285 In presence of increasing amount of H_3PO_4 , porosity increased when density and mechanical
286 properties decreased, in agreement with cavity formation following CO_2 degassing during
287 material setting (Table 2). Starting from 0.5% acid, porosity was not significantly modified,
288 as well as mechanical properties. However, permeability increased three times of magnitude
289 compared to “compact” plaster. Calcium phosphates, probably formed, was dispersed in
290 gypsum matrix with no effects on physical and mechanical parameters. It was reported that
291 weak acids (such as citric acid) play a role as plastifier, retarding setting (Lanzóna and
292 García-Ruiz 2012) because citric acid partially inhibits binder hydration from hemihydrate to
293 dihydrate.

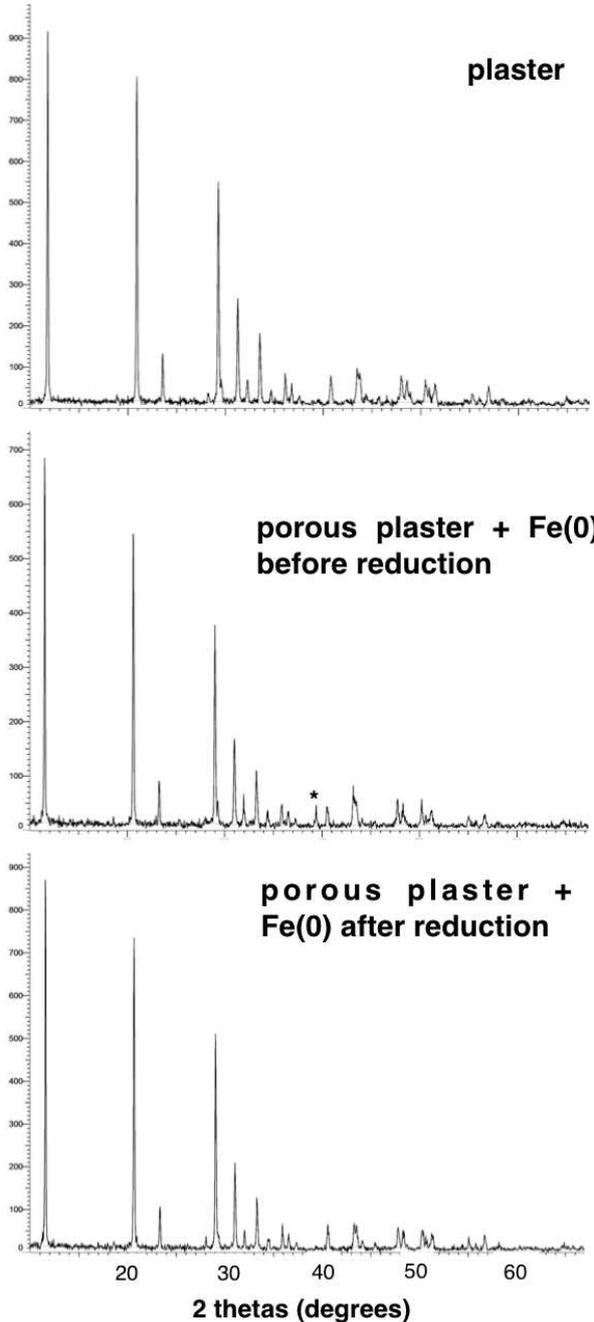
294 Compatibility of $CaCO_3$ in plaster (up to 1.5 %) was checked in order to verify density and
295 porosity of composites. Moreover, if total porosity seemed little affected by increasing
296 amount of $CaCO_3$, pore dimensions were bigger (Figure 3). In SEM images of porogen-
297 containing samples in Figure 3, presence of 1 mm pores of diameter was evident.

298 A 1H NMR relaxation study of water, confined in porous medium of hardening gypsum,
299 described coexistence of two water populations, in permeable and disordered porous plaster
300 structure (in gypsum chemical form). Regarding spatial localization of the two water

301 populations, the first one (P1) extends uniformly in space while the second one (P2) is more
302 confined and isolated in some clusters of gypsum needles (Jaffel et al. 2006). Distribution of
303 the two populations is related to w/p values and at low w/p value, P2 increased and P1
304 decreased, in agreement with total porosity observed as a function of water-to-plaster ratio
305 (w/p). Moreover, from a microstructural point of view, an intricate percolation networks of
306 needles with different packing density exists in hardened plaster structure where percolation
307 threshold for allowing water exchange is about w/p=0.6: below w/p= 0.6, there is an
308 extremely slow exchange rate (almost zero) and the two water populations are almost
309 independent. Above w/p=0.7, there is a small but finite exchange rate between the two water
310 populations, however composite permeability was not sufficient to run PRB kinetic studies in
311 short times.

312 Presence of mineral acids influence gypsum crystallization step, promoting formation of large
313 bulky crystals (Mori 1982). Because of increasing in particle size due to increased growth
314 rate (Al-Othman and Demopoulos 2009), strength of hydrochloric acid-containing samples
315 was increased and their porosity similar to samples in absence of acid (Table 3), However,
316 goal of our research was to increase plaster permeability in order to accelerate degradation
317 reactions and not to ameliorate composite mechanical properties. For these reasons
318 hydrochloric acid was not used in further experiments.

319 It has to be observed that in the absence of carbonate, porosity was higher with respect to
320 samples in Table 2, indicating that CaCO_3 could also act as buffer to stop the acid reactivity
321 and control porosity. However, if porosity of different plaster slabs, as numeric values
322 obtained from sample densities, with and without porogen, was not so different (62% vs 55%,
323 Table 4), permeability was extremely dependent on porogen nature, differing about three
324 orders of magnitude (Table 5).



Depending on ZVI amounts (Table 4), density and mechanical properties were increased, porosity was reduced whereas, however permeability remained similar than in absence of ZVI.

3.1.2 Composite characterization

XRD diffractograms for plaster samples (Figure 4) were compatible with those of gypsum (COD 2300259). For composites, porous, with and without ZVI, all chemicals other than calcium sulfate were less than 10% and major deflection angle at 44.8° (2θ) for Fe(0) (Khalil et al. 2018) not detected by XRD. In fact, in these experimental condition, it could be observed, mixed to gypsum, only with

342 50% Fe(0). However, in composites containing Fe(0) a deflection angle at 39.5° was present
 343 but disappeared after PNA reduction (Figure 4) indicating presence of reactive iron species
 344 not clearly identified by DRX data.

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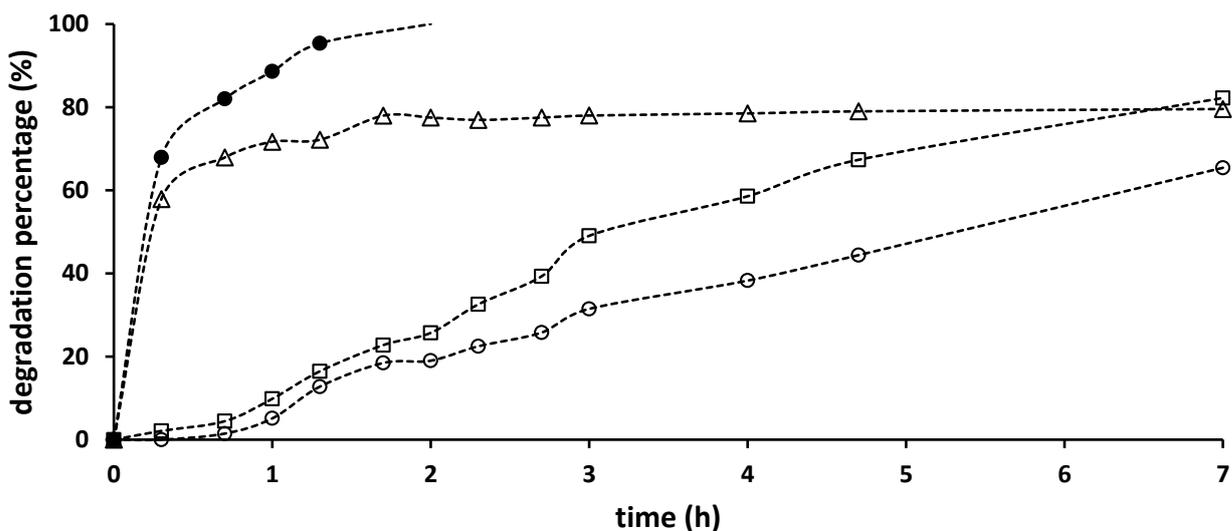
362 **Figure 4** DRX of plaster composites, with and without Fe(0), before and after PNA
363 reduction. Composites were formulated as in Tables 1 and 4

364

365 *3.2. Chemical reduction (Bechamp reduction)*

366 *3.2.1. ZVI reactivity in batch reduction*

367 In order to identify the best experimental conditions, Bechamp reduction was checked
368 batchwise. Experiments were run as a function of ZVI amount, in absence and in presence of
369 phosphoric acid to activate reduction. “Classical” Bechamp reduction (Béchamp 1854) is run
370 with acetic acid (or hydrochloric acid), which does not form insoluble species after oxidation
371 of ZVI to Fe(II) or Fe(III); in fact possible formation of insoluble iron phosphate was
372 expected in our experimental conditions, however nothing was reported in literature to
373 support its role in Bechamp reduction. As a function of time, yellow solution turned pale:
374 also in absence of acid, reduction occurred and after 7 hours almost no PNA remained in
375 solution (Figure 5).



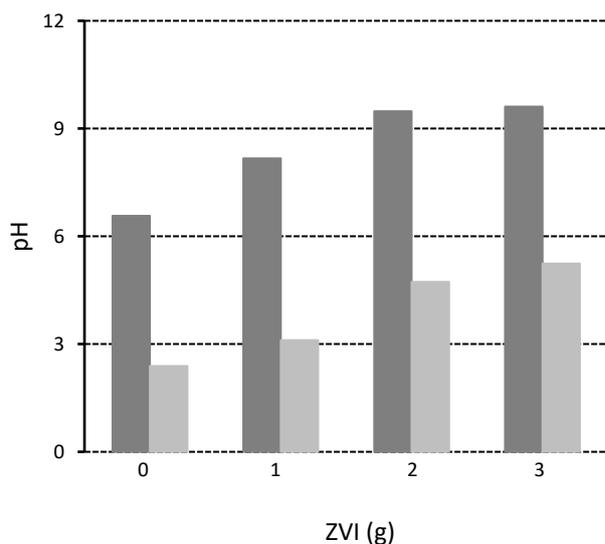
376

377 **Figure 5** Degradation of PNA in Bechamp reduction as a function of time and of ZVI
 378 percentage: 1.2 (○); 2.3 (□); 3.4(△); 1.0 % + 1.0 % H₃PO₄(●); [PNA]=30 mg/l

379

380 In presence of H₃PO₄ (0.4%) or higher amount of ZVI (>3%), the reaction was faster and total
 381 reduction occurred in 1 hour. Samples recovered after reduction, with or without acid,
 382 became violet by standing and solutions were cloudy: the presence in solution of ionic iron
 383 species can form insoluble iron hydroxydes (even if at acidic pH, Figure 6) which explained
 384 cloudy diffusion. Redox reaction was not halted to PDA and polymerization of aromatic
 385 molecules also occurred, as usual in presence of metal ions (Lajoie-Halova et al. 2006;
 386 Sapurina and Stejskal 2008). In addition, formation of iron hydroxo species seemed justified
 387 because pH values increased at the end of Bechamp reduction, in all experimental conditions
 388 (Figure 6).

389



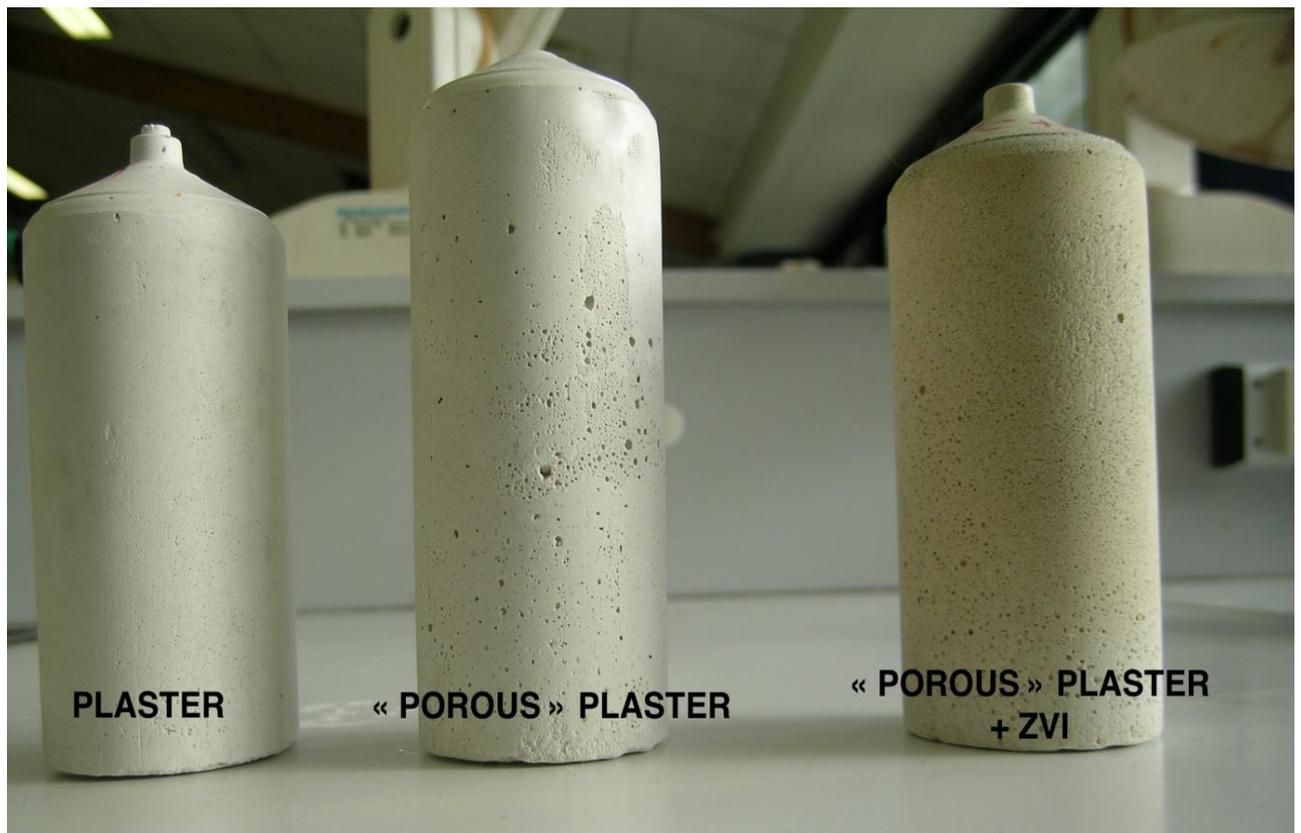
390

391 **Figure 6** Final pH values of solutions in batch Bechamp reduction after 7 hours, as a fonction
 392 of ZVI: without acid (dark grey); with 1 % H₃PO₄ (light grey)

393

394 3.2.2. ZVI reactivity in column reduction

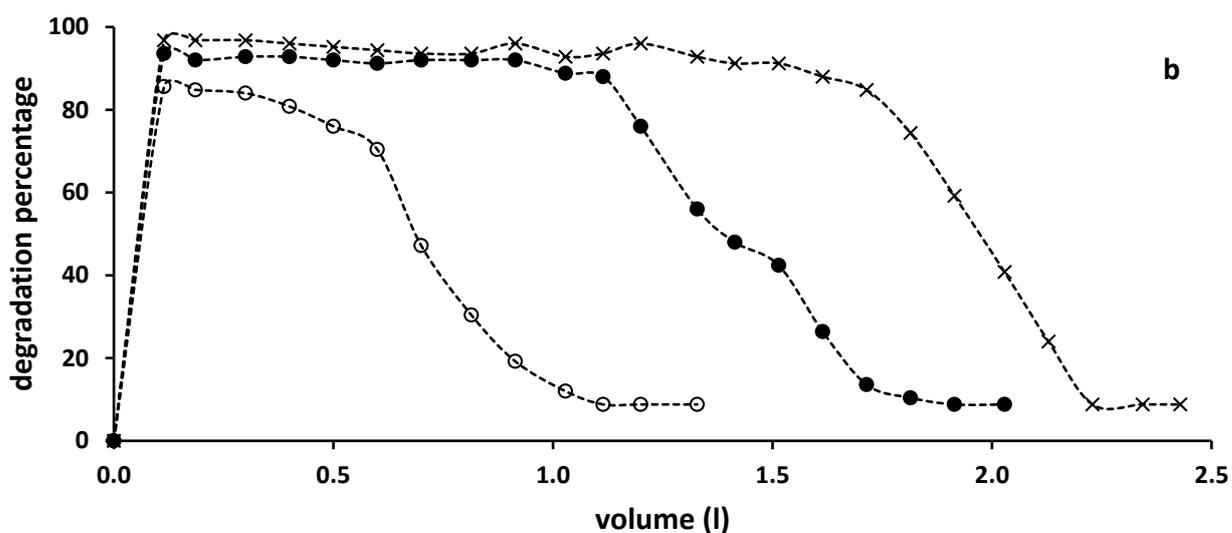
395 PNA solutions were added to columns (Fig. 7) and, after percolation, fractions (100 ml) were
 396 recovered and analyzed by Vis-UV spectroscopy. In all experiments, yellow colour of PNA
 397 solutions disappeared indicating that Bechamp reduction occurred in plaster columns. In
 398 order to verify chemical effects in colour fading, UV-Vis spectra were registered between
 399 200 and 700 nm: PNA was reduced to PDA indicating that Bechamp reaction occurred in
 400 plaster column (Figure 1). As observed in batch experiments, PDA aqueous solutions were
 401 not stable as a function of time and pale yellow solutions became hazy and violet colored,
 402 indicating polymerization of aromatic amines.



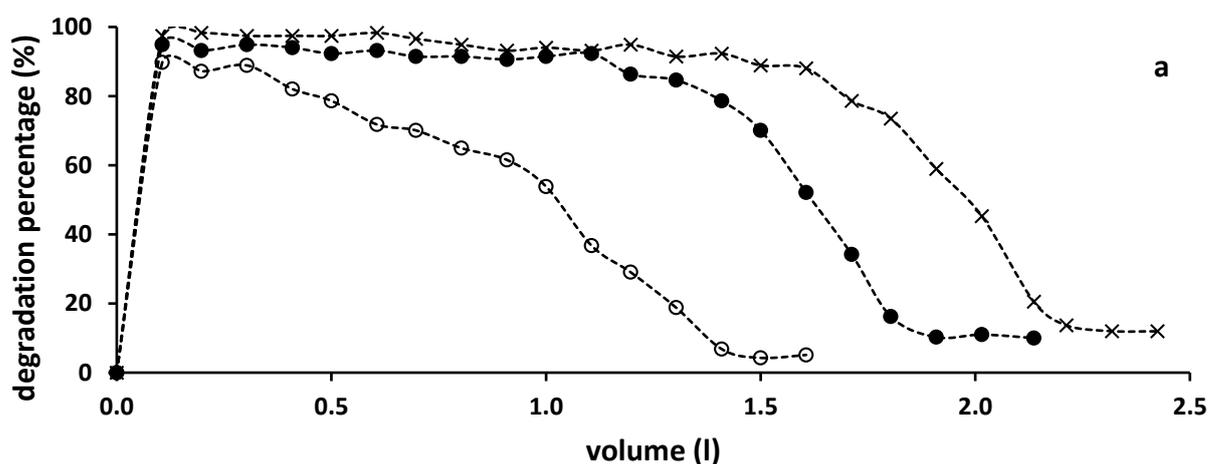
404 **Figure 7** Plaster columns. Column composition: plaster (50.0 g, 41.0%); water (57.4%);
405 CaCO_3 (0.2%); H_3PO_4 (1.4%); ZVI (2.3%)

406 Degradation profiles, as a function of time at different concentration of PNA and ZVI, were
407 reported in Figure 8. The flow through the columns was around 0.3 ml/min and increased as a
408 function of added volume at about 25%

409



410



411
412

413 **Figure 8** Degradation profiles of p-nitroaniline as percentage (PNA= 30 mg/L (a), 100 mg/L
414 (b)) as a function of elution volume and ZVI percentage. ZVI: 1.2 (○), 2.3 (●), 3.4 % (x);
415 column composition (without ZVI): plaster (200.0 g, 41.0%); water (57.4%); CaCO₃ (0.2%);
416 H₃PO₄ (1.4%)

417 As expected, breakthrough points in Bechamp reduction were depending on ZVI amount
418 included in plaster column; PNA concentration seemed have less influence because
419 degradation profiles in Figure 7 (except those with low quantity of ZVI (1.2%)) were almost
420 superimposable.

421 From degradation reaction, the amount of PNA reduced to PDA by ZVI (in 2.3 and 3.4%
 422 experiments) was estimated: e.g. 1.6 L of aqueous PNA solution at 100 mg/L were treated by
 423 3 g of ZVI, meaning a complete inactivation at around 55 mg of PNA ($3.0 \cdot 10^{-4}$ mol) per gram
 424 of ZVI ($1.8 \cdot 10^{-2}$ mol) moles), or around $2 \cdot 10^{-2}$ mol PNA per 1 mol Fe(0).

425

426 3.2.3 Degradation reaction

427 In order to indentify mechanism of PNA reduction in plaster columns, oxidation products
 428 from ZVI were searched. Unfortunately the low percentage of metal species in plaster
 429 composites did not allow to clearly identify by DRX intermediate species in ZVI oxidation
 430 process. Moreover, because of coloured solution for PNA and PDA, Fe(II) or Fe(III) species
 431 colorimetric identification in solution was not possible. For these reasons, control
 432 experiments were run in order to observe chemical species formed by interaction of ZVI with
 433 water. For instance, treating ZVI with H_3PO_4 , presence of Fe(II) was detected by colorimetry,
 434 which seemed confirm the predominance of Fe(II) in Bechamp mechanism (Popat and
 435 Padhiyar 2013).

436

	pH (t=0)	pH (t=48 h)	Fe(II) test	Fe(III) test
Plaster	6.92	6.87	n.d.	n.d.
Plaster + ZVI	6.76	7.45	-	-
Plaster + ZVI + $CaCO_3$ + H_3PO_4	6.91	7.09	+	-

437

438 **Table 6** pH values and qualitative colorimetric results for ionic iron species in plaster-based
 439 composites soaked in distilled water

440

441 In ZVI-containing column, during the addition of PNA solutions, the first volume eluted was
 442 slightly acid (pH value = 5.22), probably because of presence of acid trace, whereas, as a

443 function of volume of organic species added, solution pH was determined by the presence of
444 specific organic compound (PDA, pH = 8.07; PNA, pH = 6.10 for 30mg/l aqueous solutions)
445 However, because of instability of Fe(II) species in aqueous solution in presence of dioxygen,
446 at the end of the reduction process, reddish colour of column indicated presence of Fe₃O₄
447 species

448 From our experimental results, we cannot exclude or affirm the presence of other iron
449 species such as oxides, hydroxides, or phosphates and make hypothesis on their involvement
450 in reduction reaction.

451

452 3.2.4. Kinetics analysis

453 Bechamp reduction is a stoichiometric reaction, and not a catalytic one, resulting in a series
454 of parallel reactions, with generation of one or more intermediates and byproducts (Popat &
455 Padhiyar, 2013). ZVI is “consumed” in redox system (or, from a chemical point of view,
456 oxidated) and/or, probably, passivated during flow of aqueous solutions. However, it has
457 been reported by Noubactep that, in order to minimize the abundance of iron corrosion
458 products in a ZVI/H₂O system, the following operations can be undertaken: (i) use the lowest
459 possible Fe(0) loading (e.g. <5 g/l); (ii) work under non-disturbed conditions (mixing speed 0
460 min⁻¹) or low mixing conditions; (iii) used a less reactive material; (iv) work at low
461 temperature (e.g. 15°C). (Noubactep 2009). In our case, if the first point was respected, in
462 order to accelerate kinetics time, we used a special porous plaster with a high flow, which
463 could accelerate reducing agent disruption. Of course, in an environmental application, it
464 would be possible to alternate in PRB porous plaster blocks (in order to absorb more polluted
465 solution) and ZVI-containing compact plaster blocks (in order to act as reducing agent).
466 However, Bechman reaction in PRB seems to be more complex than in solution. In fact, if

467 contaminant reduction by Fe(0) occurs and contributes significantly to the process of
468 contaminant removal, this mechanism remains unclear. In fact, it is matter of question in ZVI
469 depolluting systems, if, between the Fe(II)/Fe(0) or Fe(III)/Fe(II) couples, which one is
470 involved in the redox reactions (Noubactep 2008). From our point of view, we checked in
471 batch direct reaction between ZVI and PNA without acid and the reduction occurred with a
472 kinetics depending on ZVI amount. As a consequence, we expected that Fe(0) would be
473 directly involved in the redox system; however kinetics, in batch and in column were not the
474 same (in column the reaction was instantaneous) suggesting that preliminar treatment with
475 phosphoric acid acted also on ZVI, partially generating Fe(II) species. It means that Fe(II)
476 species could be involved in order to accelerate reduction rate, whereas, it remains the
477 question of Fe(II) species stability (excepted in the form of phosphate salt), which is possible
478 only dried or in the absence of dioxygen.

479 If phosphoric acid, reacting with ZVI, can form Fe(II) species, more efficient as redox
480 couple, unfortunately nothing is known on the role of iron phosphate in Bechamp reduction.
481 We can speculate on the possibility that in-situ formed ionic species could coordinate organic
482 molecules in order to favor, by molecular proximity, redox reaction. Between Fe(II) or Fe(III)
483 species, the former has preferential affinity to bind nitrogen-containing ligand (Cotton &
484 Wilkinson, 1988). On this half, studies are actually in progress to evaluate how organic
485 chemical structure could influence redox reaction.

486 Noubactep reported also that corrosion products form an active physical barrier reducing the
487 accessibility of the bare surface of Fe(0) materials to contaminants getting inactivation of
488 ZVI (Noubactep 2007). It has been suggested, for instance, that “solution decoloration” could
489 occur because of concomitant precipitation of iron hydroxydes (Noubactep 2009a), which
490 absorb organic compounds as we previously observed co-precipitation in case of
491 hydroxyapatite (Lemlikchi, et al. 2014.). From our experience, we cannot totally exclude this

492 mechanism (Noubactep 2011), whereas PDA recovering, in the first fractions, strongly
493 suggested that redox mechanism was predominant.

494 We observed that, as a function of time, flow through the column increased by 25%.
495 Different hypothesis can made on the interaction between PNA and ZVI. Concerning the
496 flow, two different mechanisms seemed to occur: on one hand, plaster columns were
497 sensitive to percolation, and, as a function of water volume, were fragilized. On the other, in
498 situ formation of insoluble iron species, such as hydroxides or phosphates, in sol or in gel
499 form, could plug the porosities (Noubactep 2008), but with this hypothesis, the flow would be
500 reduced.

501

502 *3.3. Environmental impact and cost*

503 The cost of plaster-based PRB is estimated to be very low and convenient. PDA, the
504 reduction product of PNA, is a still toxic species, but it could be captured on column with
505 special additives (not reported here).

506 An ideal PRB should present the following advantages:

507 i) chemical reactivity, which is related to reactant contact time, depending on kinetics and
508 flow. Chemical reactivity involves also compatibility between reactive species and barrier
509 materials.

510 ii) stability during PRB lifetime in order to minimize lost of efficiency;

511 iii) hydraulic and mechanical performances: PRB permeability has to be higher than aquifer
512 flow in order to not disturb underground flow and not induce polluted flow out of the barrier.

513 The supporting material should also be shaped in blocks in order to easily build PRB and, of
514 course, with good mechanical properties for barrier stability;

515 iv) reduced environmental impact in order to not increase pollution effects: PBR has to be
516 mainly constituted by inert and non-toxic materials, producing, when possible, non-toxic and
517 harmless by-products;
518 v) cost of PRB building (in terms of materials and construction process as low as possible in
519 order to be economically feasible.

520 Finally, the efficiency of ZVI in plaster based-columns suggest the use of these composite as
521 precast plaster retaining wall blocks in environmental applications.

522

523 4. Conclusion

524 PRB was used to purify water from organic contaminants, such as 4-nitroaniline. Plaster is
525 one of the most used materials in construction industry. It can also be used in PRB, and while
526 it is being made the plaster can incorporate many types of additives. We have included ZVI
527 to make a reactive component with capacity to remove nitro compounds while the water flow
528 passes through the plaster. The use of ZVI as additive in the PRB allows removing the toxic
529 organic compound by reduction of the nitro function to amino functions. To provide a PRB
530 with good flow through properties, the formulation of porous plaster with increased porosity
531 was made possible by the reaction of calcium carbonate with a small amount of phosphoric
532 acid, which causes the evolution of carbon dioxide gas simultaneously with the precipitation
533 of hydroxylapatite effectively making the plaster less water soluble. Thus improved PRB
534 containing plaster, designed porosity and ZVI particles can be developed for use in removal
535 of organic compounds from water. This opens possibilities for the use of PRB in many
536 pollution control technologies where it could be scaled up.

537 **Declarations**

538 Consent for publication

539 Not applicable

540

541 Availability of data and materials

542 All data generated or analysed during this study are included in this published article

543

544 Competing interests

545 Authors have not financial and non-financial competing interests on this research field

546

547 Ethical approval

548 Not applicable

549

550 Consent to participate

551 Not applicable

552

553 Funding

554 This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public,
555 commercial or not-for-profit sectors.

556

557 Authors' contributions

558 MF and PS conceived the study, were in charge of overall direction and planning and were
559 major contributors in writing the manuscript. SB and MF processed experimental data,
560 formulated composites, performed analysis, and drafted the manuscript. FF prepared samples,
561 performed SEM analysis and worked on the manuscript. All authors discussed the results and
562 commented on manuscript.

563

564 Acknowledgements

565 SB is grateful to the Algerian Ministry of Education for the fellowship.

566 The authors thank dr. Farid Errassifi (ILIPACK, PEC Department, Université Toulouse 3
567 Paul Sabatier, Castres, France) for technical assistance in the mechanical strength
568 measurements.

569

570 Abbreviations used

571 PDA, p-phenylenediamine; PNA, 4-nitroaniline; PRB, permeable reactive barrier; ZVI, zero
572 valent iron;

573

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Figures

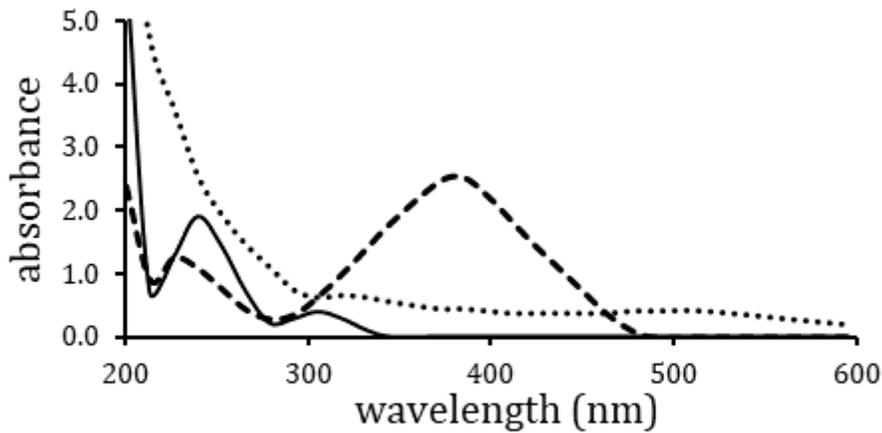


Figure 1

Absorption spectra of PNA (—), PDA (___) and PDA polymerization product (...) in aqueous solutions: [PNA]= [PDA]= 30 mg/l; path-length quartz cell = 0.2 cm

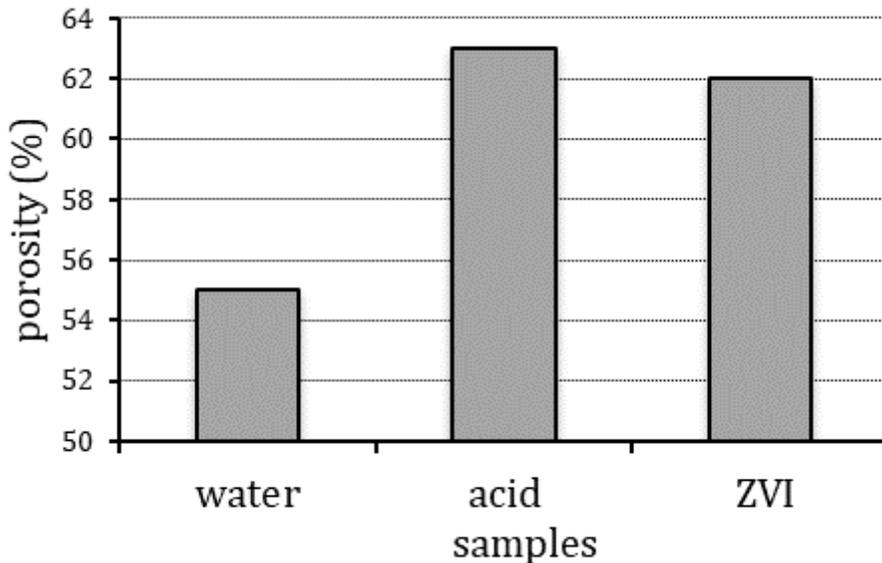


Figure 2

Porosity optimization as a function of different components of BRP (water, phosphoric acid and ZVI) plaster (50.0 g, 40.0%); water (56.0%); CaCO₃ (0.2%); H₃PO₄ (0.2%) Plaster samples were observed by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) Zeiss Supra 55VP.

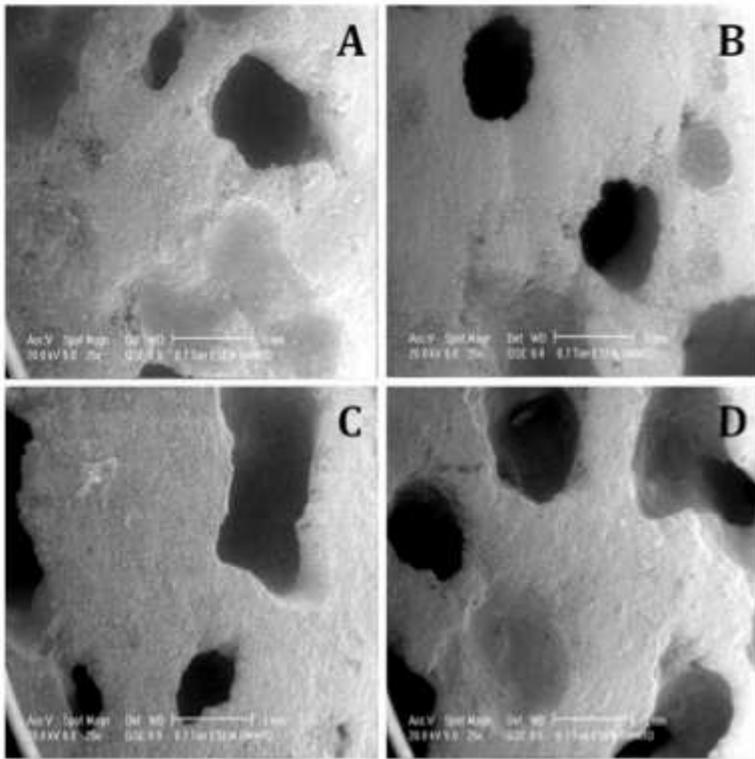


Figure 3

SEM photographs showing a view of porogen-containing hardened gypsum samples, prepared with a water-to-plaster ratio of 0.7, as a function of carbonate amounts (with 1.1 % phosphoric acid, w/w). CaCO₃: A=0.2%, B=0.5g, C=0.7g, D= 0.9% (w/w); length scale bar is 1mm and magnification x25)

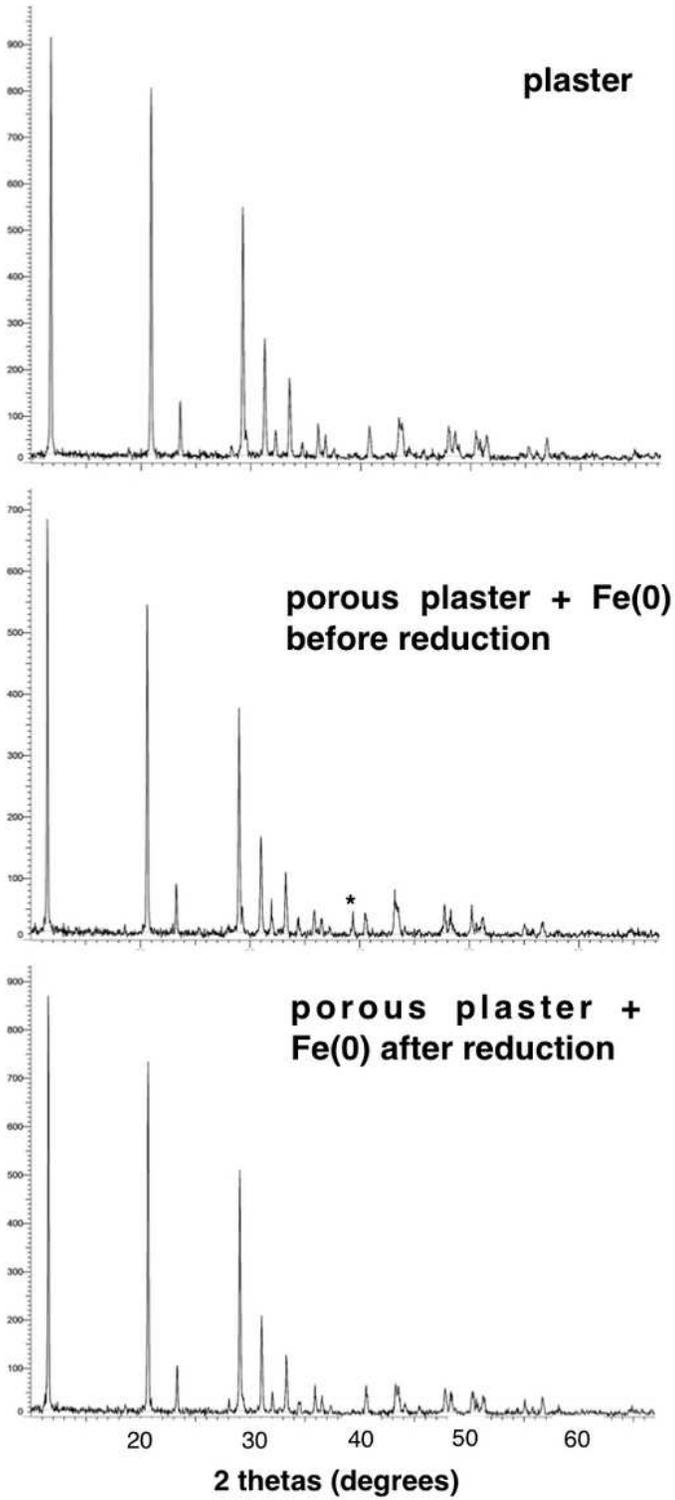


Figure 4

DRX of plaster composites, with and without Fe(0), before and after PNA reduction. Composites were formulated as in Tables 1 and 4

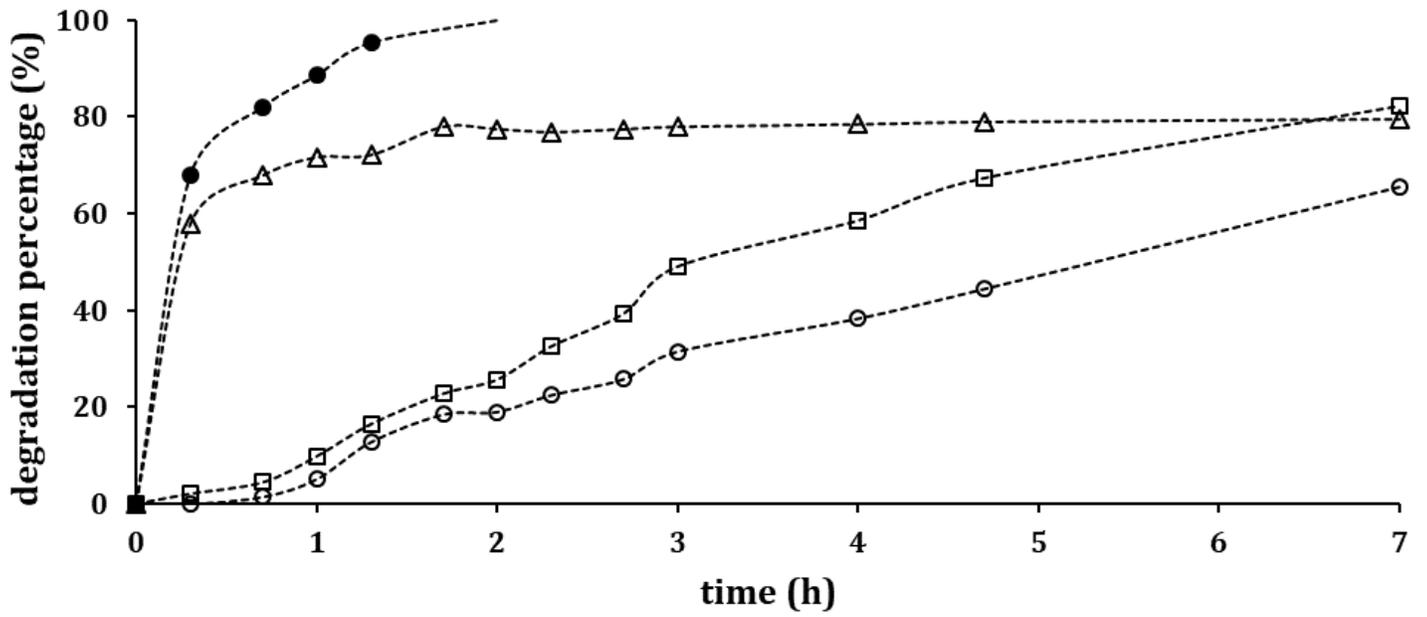


Figure 5

Degradation of PNA in Bechamp reduction as a function of time and of ZVI percentage: 1.2 (●); 2.3 (△); 3.4 (□); 1.0 % + 1.0 % H₃PO₄ (○); [PNA]=30 mg/l

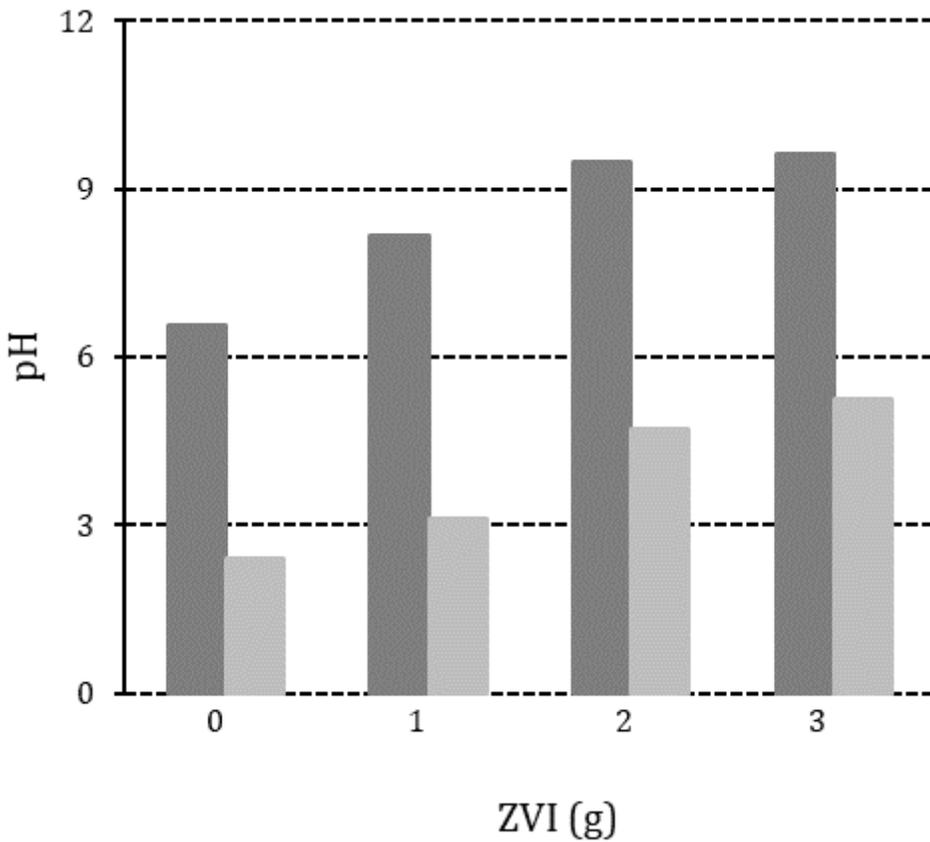


Figure 6

Final pH values of solutions in batch Bechamp reduction after 7 hours, as a function of ZVI: without acid (dark grey); with 1 % H₃PO₄ (light grey)

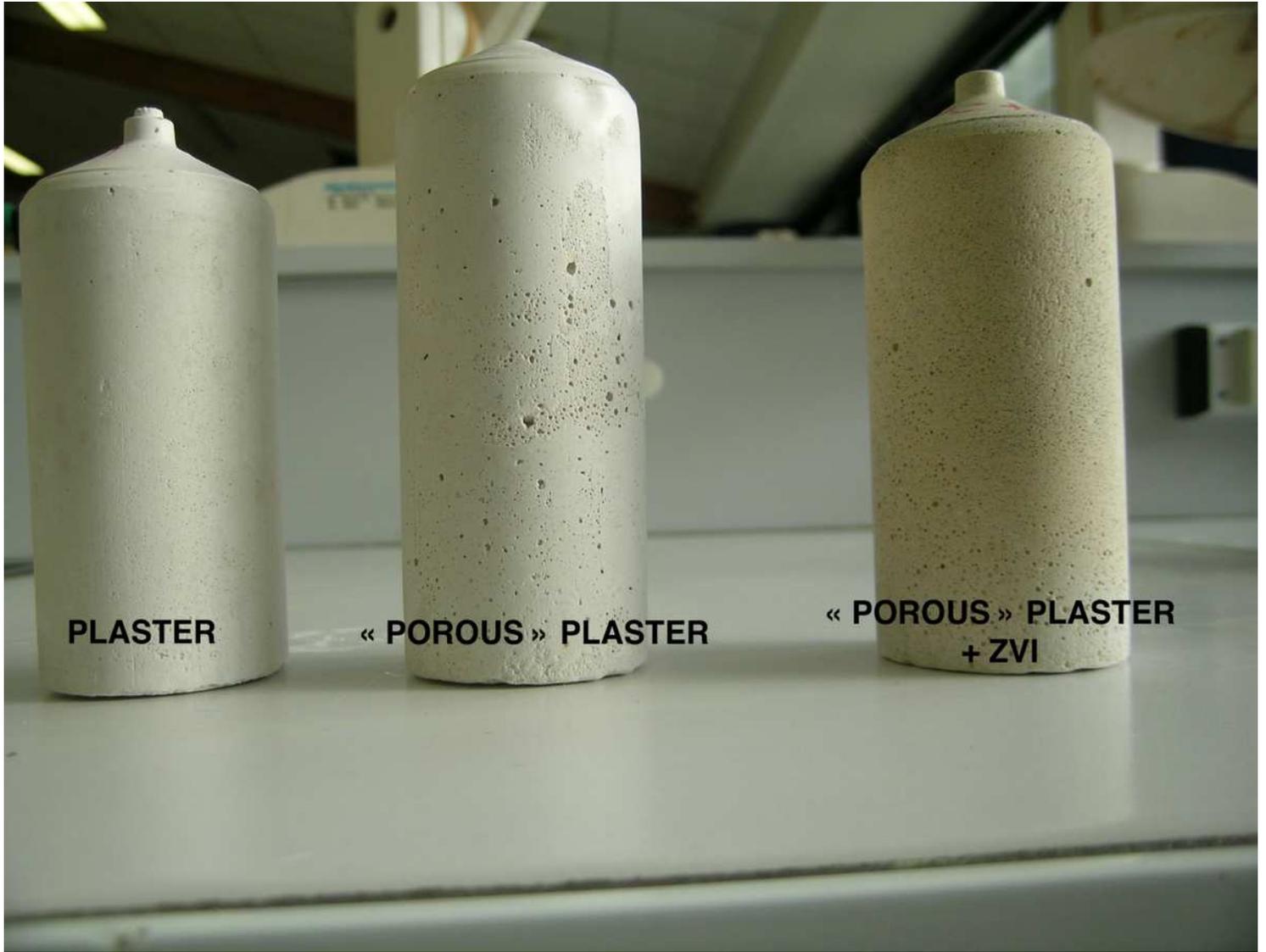


Figure 7

Plaster columns. Column composition: plaster (50.0 g, 41.0%); water (57.4%); CaCO₃ (0.2%); H₃PO₄ (1.4%); ZVI (2.3%)

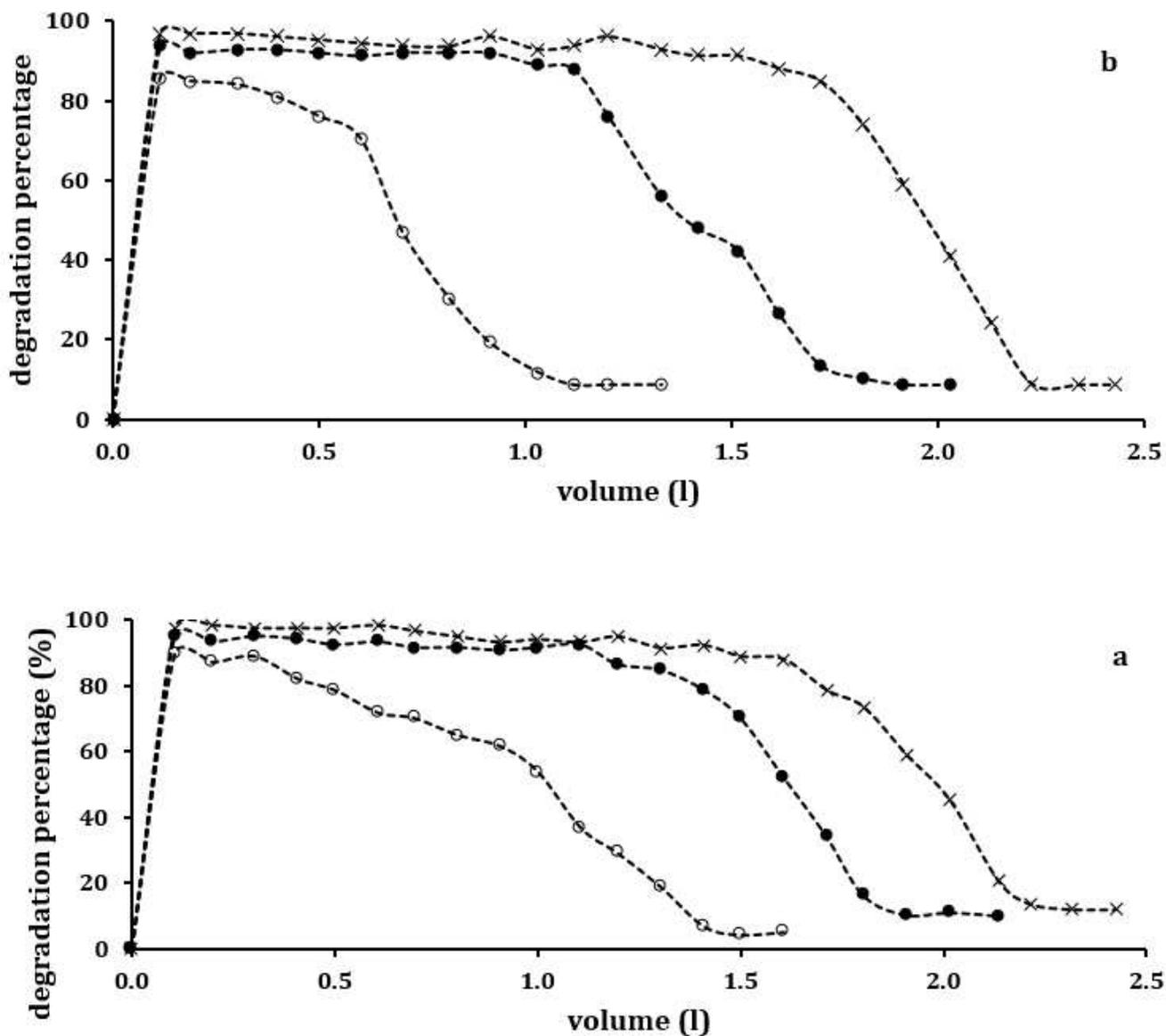


Figure 8

Degradation profiles of p-nitroaniline as percentage (PNA= 30 mg/L (a), 100 mg/L (b)) as a function of elution volume and ZVI percentage. ZVI: 1.2 (◻), 2.3 (◊), 3.4 % (x); column composition (without ZVI): plaster (200.0 g, 41.0%); water (57.4%); CaCO₃ (0.2%); H₃PO₄ (1.4%)

Supplementary Files

This is a list of supplementary files associated with this preprint. Click to download.

- [GraphicalAbstract.jpg](#)