1 PRELIMINARY INSIGHTS ABOUT THE TREATMENT OF CONTAMINATED MARINE 2 SEDIMENTS BY MEANS OF BIOSLURRY REACTOR: PROCESS EVALUATION AND 3 MICROBIOLOGICAL CHARACTERIZATION

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19 ABSTRACT

20 Contaminated marine sediments represent a critical threat towards human health and ecosystems, 21 since they constitute a potential reservoir of toxic compounds release. In the present study, a bioslurry 22 reactor was studied for the treatment of real marine sediments contaminated by petroleum 23 hydrocarbons. The experimental campaign was divided in two periods: in the first period, microcosm 24 trials were carried out to achieve useful indicators for biological hydrocarbon removal from 25 sediments. The microcosm trials highlighted that the inoculum of halotolerant allochthonous bacteria 26 provided the highest performance followed by autochthonous biomass. Based on the achieved results, 27 in the second experimental period a bioslurry reactor was started up, based on a semisolid stirred tank 28 reactor (STR) operated in batch mode. The process performances have been evaluated in terms of 29 total petroleum hydrocarbon (TPH) removal, coupled with the characterization of microbial 30 community through a Next Generation Sequencing (NGS) and phytotoxicity tests through the 31 Germination Index (GI) with Lepidium Sativum seeds. The achieved results showed good 32 hydrocarbons removal equal to 40% with a maximum removal rate of 220 mg_{TPH} kg⁻¹ d⁻¹, but 33 highlighting that high contaminant concentrations might affect negatively the overall removal 34 performance. In general, the observed results were encouraging towards the feasibility of biological 35 treatment of marine sediments contaminated by hydrocarbons. The microbiological analysis allowed 36 the identification of taxa most involved in the degradation of TPH, highlighting after the treatment a 37 shift in the microbial community from that of the raw sediment.

38 Keywords: bioremediation; bioaugmentation; hydrocarbon pollution; contaminated marine 39 sediments; microbial community;

40 1. INTRODUCTION

41 Marine sediments constitute a complex environment, characterized by huge variability in the 42 formation pathways, chemical-physical features, living organisms and types of contamination. They 43 represent a potential reservoir of toxic compounds as they are often subject to anthropogenic inputs 44 (Rocchetti et al., 2012; Maletić et al., 2018; Albarano et al., 2020). Sediment contamination is 45 mainly due to urban or industrial waste discharges and among the most widespread pollutants, 46 petroleum hydrocarbons (HCs), usually expressed as a total petroleum hydrocarbons (TPHs), 47 represent a huge threat for ecosystems and human health (Maletić et al., 2018). In particular, 48 petroleum hydrocarbons can be trapped in sediments for a long time due to their hydrophobic nature 49 (Pino-Herrera et al., 2017), becoming an environmental concern and public health problem since 50 they can be released from the sediments which might represent over time a primary source of 51 contamination (McGenity et al., 2012; Maletić et al., 2018). For these reasons, the treatment of 52 marine sediments contaminated by hydrocarbons represents an urgent need and has become an 53 important topic of research (Pino-Herrera et al., 2017). Amongst the different alternatives, 54 biodegradation by microbial populations capable of using hydrocarbons as a source of carbon and 55 energy represent a promising technology for sediments remediation (Varjani, 2017; Varjani and 56 Upasani, 2017; Usman et al., 2018). These strategies which are eco-friendly and more economic 57 compared to thermal or chemical-physical processes, are gaining attention thanks to a number of 58 studies on microbial behavior for the degradation of petroleum hydrocarbons (Huesemann et al., 59 2002; Perelo, 2010). In this context, bacteria have been recognized as the predominant 60 microorganisms involved in hydrocarbons degradation under aerobic conditions (Zhao and Wong, 61 2009; Zhao et al., 2011), with Proteobacteria and Bacteroidetes phyla as the most abundant taxa in 62 marine sediments (Iannelli et al., 2012; Chiellini et al., 2013). An increase in taxa belonging to 63 Alphaproteobacteria and Gammaproteobacteria classes was observed during degradation of oil 64 compounds (Lamendella et al., 2014), highlighting an adaptive behavior of indigenous bacteria

65 affiliated to these classes during bioremediation, with a shift in composition within these classes 66 (Fuentes et al., 2014; Smith et al., 2015; Fuentes et al., 2016;). This change depends on a number of 67 factors, including the environmental compartment (eg. soil or marine sediment, freshwater or 68 seawater), sediment properties (eg. texture, pH, organic matter, nutrients, temperature), the level 69 and age of contamination, the microbial community, and the selected bioremediation technology 70 (Kaplan and Kitts, 2004; Hamamura et al., 2013; Fuentes et al., 2014; Fuentes et al., 2016). Among 71 ex-situ biological treatments, bioslurry reactors are one of the best technology for the treatment of 72 soils or sediments contaminated by hydrocarbons under controlled conditions. To promote the 73 contaminant biodegradation, sediment is mixed with water to form a suspension, referred to as 74 slurry, typically 10 to 60% expressed as weight by volume (w/v) (Gan et al., 2009; Pino-Herrera et 75 al., 2017; Lumia et al., 2020). Indeed, in a slurry phase it is possible to enhance the mass transfer 76 rates and the contact between pollutants, nutrients and microorganisms present. Generally, bioslurry 77 reactors are operated in batch mode to facilitate the handling of slurries, thereby ensuring higher 78 process yields (Prasanna et al., 2008; Venkata Mohan et al., 2008). Reactors are therefore equipped 79 with mixing devices to maintain the characteristics of the suspension homogeneous over time and, 80 frequently, with air diffusers to ensure the establishment of an aerobic metabolism (Robles-81 González et al, 2008). Despite the potential effectiveness of the treatment, to authors' best 82 knowledge very few studies have been carried out on real marine sediments contaminated by 83 hydrocarbons, often at very small scale and for limited duration (Beolchini et al., 2010; Chikere et 84 al., 2011). Therefore, the aim of the present paper is to present the first results of an experimental 85 study carried out on TPH-contaminated marine sediments dredged from the Augusta bay (Sicily, 86 southern Italy), an Italian contaminated site of National interest. In detail, after sediments 87 characterization, preliminary microcosm tests have been performed in order to assess the indicators 88 useful to optimize the performance of biological treatment for the removal of hydrocarbons. After 89 this preliminary phase, a bioslurry reactor conceived as a semisolid stirred tank reactor (STR) was 90 designed and realized. The bioslurry reactor was then monitored in order to assess the

91 biodegradation performance in terms of TPH removal, microbial community composition and 92 phytotoxicity of sediment samples during treatment.

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94 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

95 2.1 Microcosm tests

96 The experimental set-up consisted of different microcosm configurations aimed at assessing the 97 most suitable one for the subsequent bioslurry reactor application. The preliminary microcosm 98 study was carried out by using different raw sediment samples collected at Augusta harbor (Sicily, 99 Italy). The details of sediments sampling and characterization has been reported elsewhere (Lumia 100 et al., 2018). Briefly, physic-chemical characterization revealed a high organic matter (4.2%), 101 moisture content (44%), and sulphides (61 mg kg⁻¹). The grain size and mineralogical analyses 102 indicated the presence of silty and calcite $(CaCO₃)$, (64.6%) ; while the particle size analysis 103 indicated the presence of the silty fraction (77.4%), followed by sandy (19.6%) and clay (3%) 104 fractions. Concerning TPH features, hydrocarbons were in the range C_{12} -C₄₀, mostly concentrated 105 in the C16-C28 classes (almost 79%). Hydrocarbons in sediments likely derived from petroleum 106 compounds spillage from tanker or pipes, typical pollution phenomena in Augusta Bay, well as 107 from accidental leakage of slop wastewater produced from the activity of oil tankers washing with 108 seawater. The raw sediment samples have been mixed in order to obtain a homogeneous sample 109 (namely "Sample 0"), which was used for the microcosm trials, carried out in glass vessels. A sub-110 sample of almost 120 g was withdrawn from Sample 0 and further divided into four portions of 30 ± 10 111 0.5 g by means of a laboratory analytical balance. These portions were placed into glass vessels 112 filled with 970 g of tap water. Therefore, the slurry concentration in each vessel was equal to 30 g 113 kg⁻¹. Furthermore, the different vessels, named to as Test 0, Test 1, Test 2 and Test 3 were 114 differentiated according to what reported in Table 1.

Parameter	Units	Test 0	Test 1	Test 2	Test 3
Water	g	970	970	970	970
Sediment	g	30	30	30	30
NH ₄ Cl	g		40	40	40
K ₂ HPO ₄	g		10	10	10
Halophilic biomass	mL			1	
Halotolerant biomass	mL				1

115 Table 1. Main features of the investigated microcosms

116

117 Briefly, Test 0 was the "blank control" aimed at assessing the potential biodegradability of the 118 autochthonous biomass already present in the marine sediments. Test 1, characterized by the 119 spiking of N and P (proportion 4:1), was aimed at assessing the "biostimulation" of the eventual 120 autochthonous biomass. Test 2 and 3 were considered in order to evaluate the difference in the 121 biodegradation process due to the inoculum of allochthonous biomass ("bioaugmentation"); a 122 biomass already acclimated to high salinity was inoculated in Test 2, whilst in Test 3 it was 123 inoculated a bacterial consortium acclimated to salinity and hydrocarbons. Aerobic conditions were 124 ensured by and air blower connected with fine bubble porous diffusers placed at the bottom of each 125 vessel. The experimental campaign had a duration of 24 days and the microcosm's temperature was 126 kept at $20 \pm 0.5^{\circ}$ C by means of thermostatic incubator. After the initial characterization of "Sample" 127 0", sampling on solid phase was carried at day 15 and at day 24, whilst sampling of the liquid phase 128 was carried out at the end of experiments (day 24). It is worth noting that, due to microcosm small 129 amount, no replicates were considered in order to avoid excessive disturbance of the system. The 130 procedure adopted for TPH measurement in both solid and liquid phase will be described in a 131 section below.

133 2.2 Bioslurry reactor

134 The experimental set-up consisted of a cylindrical reactor in PVC with a GRP bottom with a 135 volume of 30 L (\emptyset : 31 cm; H: 40 cm). The reactor was equipped with three vertical baffles (H: 32 136 cm, W: 5.7 cm, S: 0.3 cm) fixed at 120° and at 4.5 cm from the bottom. Mixing was guaranteed by 137 a mechanical stirrer (IKA RW 28 DIGITAL), equipped with a PBT (Pitched-Blade Turbine) 138 impeller with 4 blades inclined at 45° with a diameter of 10 cm and placed at 3 cm from the bottom. 139 The aeration system consisted of three cylindrical microbubbles porous diffusers placed at the 140 bottom between the baffles and connected to a blower (MEDO LA-45C). The reactor was equipped 141 with slurry sampling sockets. The above experimental set-up was chosen after a preliminary study 142 (data not shown) that enabled to assess the best hydrodynamic configuration in terms of mutual 143 position of diffusers and baffles, mixing speed and turbine depth. The bioreactor had an overall 144 volume of 24 L and was characterized by a liquid-sediment ratio of 10% in weight and a stirring 145 speed of 675 ± 25 rpm. Real contaminated sediment samples collected at Augusta harbor (Lumia et 146 al., 2018) were mixed in order to have an initial hydrocarbon concentration close to 13,000 mgTPH kg_{SS}^{-1} , with the aim to assess the biodegradation potential of high polluted sediments. Based on the 148 results achieved in the microcosm trials, the bioslurry reactor was inoculated with 200 mL of 149 granular halotolerant biomass sampled from a pilot plant treating an industrial wastewater 150 characterized by high salinity and hydrocarbon content (Campo and Di Bella, 2019). The biomass 151 inoculum had total and volatile suspended solid concentrations (TSS and VSS) of 3.87 g L^{-1} and 152 2.33 g L^{-1} , respectively. The experimental campaign had a duration of 105 days. Figure 1 shows 153 some details of the experimental set-up.

155 Figure 1. Schematic section (a), panoramic view (b) and internal details (c) of bioslurry STR reactor. 156

157 2.3 Analytical Methods

158 2.2.1 Total petroleum hydrocarbon measurement

159 The slurry samples were extracted in duplicate from the central sampling port (Figure 1b) of 160 bioslurry reactor and then subject to 2 h settling for supernatant-solid separation. Four 50 mL 161 samples were withdrawn from the settled solid and then dried at 27^oC for two days prior to analysis. 162 TPH concentrations in solid and liquid phase were evaluated using EPA 8010C and 3510C methods 163 by GC–FID (Agilent 6890N), respectively. EPA 3545A method "Pressurized Fluid Exaction (PFE)" 164 and the "Speed Extractor E-916" were used for the solid to liquid hydrocarbons extraction 165 procedure. The TPH value was set as the mean value of the replicates, and the Standard Error (SE) 166 was computed as the ratio between standard deviation and square root of total number of samples.

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168 2.2.2 Microbial community analysis

169 The composition of the bacterial community was evaluated by the next generation sequencing 170 (NGS) of the V1-V3 region of the 16S rRNA gene. The procedures adopted for nucleic acid

171 extraction, amplification, genomic library preparation and sequencing on the Illumina MiSeq 172 platform have been carried out according to Matturro et al. (2017). Taxonomy has been assigned 173 through an up-dated database (Silva Ribosomal RNA gene database) which provided the 174 information of the bacterial consortium at phylum, class, order, family and genus, respectively. 175 Sediment samples from inoculum (I), not treated slurry sediment (NT) and after bioslurry treatment 176 (BS) were subject to microbial analysis in duplicate.

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178 2.2.3 Germination index measurement

179 Lepidium sativum L. seeds were used to determine the germination index (GI) of the liquid phase 180 generated following the sedimentation process of the slurry samples (Hoekstra et al., 2002; Doni et 181 al., 2018). The analyses were carried out on the raw and treated sediment samples in duplicate. 182 Three different dilution have been investigated: undiluted sample, diluted with distilled water at 183 50% and 75%. For each configuration 1 ml of matrix – water extract (1:10 w/v) was added to 10 184 seeds in Petri dish and incubated at 27 °C for 72 h in the dark. After that, the number of germinated 185 seeds (G) and the relative root elongation (L) were measured and compared with the control 186 obtained incubating the seeds with deionized water (G_C, L_C) . Each test was carried out in triplicate. 187 The GI (%) was calculated using the following equation: GI (%) = $(G \cdot L)/(Gc \cdot Lc) \cdot 100$.

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189 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

190 3.1 Microcosm trials

191 3.3.1 TPH residual concentration

192 Figure 2 depicts the evolution of TPH concentration in the solid matrix (Figure 2a) during

193 experiments while Figure 2b shows the TPH concentrations in the liquid phase at the end of

194 experiments (day 24), as well as the TPH removal efficiency (Figure 2c) for the different

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198 Figure 2. TPH residual concentrations in sediment (a) and liquid phase (b), removal efficiency 199 referred to solid matrix (c).

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201 Referring to the solid matrix, the lowest residual concentrations were found in Test 3, characterized 202 by the inoculum of halotolerant biomass, already acclimated to salinity and hydrocarbons. The 203 residual TPH concentration was similar in the other trials. Figure 2b shows the TPH concentration 204 in the supernatant of each trial at the end of experiments (after 24 days of treatment); from these 205 data, it is suggested that the liquid TPH concentration is an inverse indicator of the degradative 206 ability of the bacterial consortium in each trial. Indeed, microorganisms can degrade compounds in 207 the liquid phase; therefore, lower TPH concentrations in the phase liquid might be related to a

208 higher biodegradation activity, even if the contribution to volatilization must be taken into account 209 in further studies.

210 Concerning the removal rate in the solid matrix, by assuming a linear TPH decrease between 211 sampling, the highest values were obtained for the Test 3 inoculated with halotolerant biomass (9,33 212 and 8,33 mgTPH kgss⁻¹ day⁻¹ at day 15 and 24, respectively), in agreement with the above discussed 213 results. The autochthonous biomass (Test 0), deriving from an anaerobic environment, was subject 214 to an initial inhibiting effect due to the switch to aerobic conditions. After the acclimation period, 215 the autochthonous biomass showed a degradation rate similar to that of Test 3 (2,93 and 8,11 216 mgTPH kg_{SS}⁻¹ day⁻¹ at day 15 and 24, respectively). At the end of experiments, the lowest 217 degradation rate was observed in Test 2, inoculated with halophilic biomass, likely due to a 218 competition among the bacterial consortium $(1, 56 \text{ mgTPH} \text{ k} g_{ss}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1})$ at day 24). However, despite 219 the above assumptions could be realistic, a higher set of experimental data might have supported a 220 more rigorous data modelling and a more rigorous identification of the process kinetics. This aspect 221 will be deepened in future activities.

222

223 3.2 Bioslurry reactor

224 3.2.1 TPH removal performance

225 Figure 3 shows the evolution of TPH concentration in the bioslurry reactor for both solid and liquid 226 phase. From the observation of data reported in Figure 3, it is worth noting an initial decrease of 227 TPH in the solid phase, corresponding to a slight increase of TPH in the liquid phase, likely due to 228 an initial leaching effect from the solid phase.

229 Afterwards, the TPH concentration in the liquid phase showed an almost constant value while it was 230 observed a significant decrease of TPH in the solid phase; such a behavior could be due to a sort of

231 balance among TPH desorption from the solid matrix followed by biological degradation in the

232 liquid phase. Until experimental day 40, the TPH biodegradation could be expressed through a $1st$ 233 order kinetic (k = 0.013 and $R^2 = 0.98$); while from experimental day 40 onwards the TPH 234 concentrations remained almost stable, suggesting an interruption of both biological and desorption 235 process, since also in the liquid phase the TPH concentration remained almost constant. The overall 236 removal efficiency was almost 40% with a maximum removal rate of 220 mg_{TPH} kg⁻¹ d⁻¹. The 237 accuracy and reliability of the experimental data was confirmed by the low values of the standard 238 error, almost lower than 10% of the mean value. The majority of literature studies were carried out 239 on soils showing in general higher removal efficiencies compared to that achieved in the present 240 study, even if significantly different operational conditions make quite impossible a direct 241 comparison of different studies (Pino-Herrera et al., 2017). A previous study carried out on marine 242 sediment, highlighted a similar behavior in terms of removal efficiency during a 35 days treatment 243 (Beolchini et al., 2010). However, in the study of Beolchini and co-workers the initial contaminant 244 concentration was one order of magnitude lower that the present study. The results achieved in this 245 preliminary study suggest the potential feasibility of biological treatment for marine sediments 246 contaminated by hydrocarbons. However, the results achieved after day 40 could suggest an 247 inhibition effect likely because the remaining hydrocarbon classes were more recalcitrant and 248 characterized by high concentrations. Therefore, high TPH concentrations might negatively affect 249 the overall performance of the treatment, suggesting that treatment with bioslurry reactor might be a 250 good option with lower TPH concentrations, in order to have the chance to meet the standards 251 imposed by Regulations that were not met in the present study. In this light, future activities should 252 investigate the system behavior in presence of lower TPH concentrations.

253

254 Figure 3. Evolution of TPH concentration in the bioslurry reactor solid and liquid phase: the bars 255 indicating the standard error.

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257 3.2.2 Microbial community characterization

258 In the experimental study, the inoculum (I), sediment before treatment (NT) and after bioslurry 259 reactor treatment (BS) have been characterized in duplicate. As overall result, 240 genera afferent to 260 173 families and 150 orders with 62 classes and 33 phyla have been found, differently distributed in 261 the different samples. The following Figure 4 shows the data returned from the platform (genus 262 copies) in terms of relative abundance for the different taxonomic levels. From the taxonomic 263 analysis at phylum level (Figure 4a) the most represented taxa were constituted by Proteobacteria 264 (60%, 50% and 28%, for sample I, NT and BS, respectively). Numerous was the component 265 represented by Bacteroidetes for the inoculum (35%) and BS sample (17%); for the NT sample it 266 was much lower (7%), while taxa typical of anaerobic environment belonging to 267 Epsilonbacteraeota were more prevailing (30%). From Figure 4b, it is possible to notice that the 268 *Alphaproteobacteria* class was dominant for the inoculum (54.5%) and for the NT sample (28.5%).

269 In contrast, after bioslurry treatment, the above class showed a significant abundance reduction, 270 down to 8%. The above results could be likely related to the features of mixing and aeration that 271 might have altered the NT sample by promoting a shift in the microbial community and favoring the 272 Gammaproteobacteria (Smith et al., 2015). At order level (Figure 4c) the *Alphaproteobacteria* and 273 Gammaproteobacteria were characterized by different composition in the different samples 274 investigated. The most abundant orders for Alphaproteobacteria were represented by 275 Sphingomonadales (30%) and Rhodobacterales (20%) for the inoculum, Rhodospirillales (20%) 276 and Rhodobacterales (2.5%) for NT, Sphingomonadales (1.7%) for BS. Concerning 277 Gammaproteobacteria the most abundant orders were: Alteromonadales (3.8%) for the inoculum I, 278 Ectothiorhodospirales (6.3%) and Steroidobacterales (4.9%) for NT sample, Betaproteobacteriales 279 (14%) and Steroidobacterales (1.2%) for BS sample. In particular, the increase of 280 Betaproteobacteriales, typical of sediments exposed to contamination by petroleum hydrocarbons, 281 suggests their potential role in the biodegradation process (Head et al., 2006, Martin et al., 2012, 282 Fuentes et al., 2016; Kucharzyk et al., 2018; Roy et al., 2018). Among the Bacteroidetes phylum, 283 the most abundant class was *Bacteroidia* for all samples (Figure 4a). At order level, the 284 Flavobacteriales were present in all samples, mostly for the inoculum and for NT samples. Taxa 285 belonging to this order are common in marine ecosystems contaminated by TPH (Leahy e Colwell, 286 1990). At family level (Figure 4d) it was noticed an abundance increase of the unclassified taxa, 287 equal to 54%; this result could be likely related to the high contamination level that, coupled to 288 operational conditions could have inhibited the process favoring the growth of taxonomic group not 289 present in the used database. 290 From the higher to the lower classification levels, it was observed that the inoculum did not

291 influence the dynamic of the bacterial community composition at the end of the experimental

292 period. For instance, referring to the genus *Muricauda* with an abundance of 16% in the inoculum

293 (I) and not present in the NT sample, no genetic copies were found in the sediment after bioslurry

294 treatment (Figure 4e). This result could be related to competition between autochthonous and 295 allochthonous biomass. The former, already present in the raw sediment in a sort of quiescence, 296 might have overwhelmed the latter once the treatment process started. Afterwards, even the 297 autochthonous biomass was subject to a growth limitation, moving towards endogenous conditions, 298 which did not allow a clear identification of functional groups involved in the biodegradation 299 process for the lower taxa.

300 Concerning the reliability of the reported values, the Standard Deviation values were always lower

301 (< 2%), excepting genus Magnetovibrio found in the NT samples (5.86%). However, it is important

302 to stress that Magnetovibrio, belonging to the Alpha-Proteobacteria class, it is not functional to

- 303 hydrocarbon degradation (Bazylinski et al., 2013). Indeed, it was not found in the microbial
- 304 composition of treated samples (BS).

307 Figure 4. Relative abundance at phylum (a), class (b), order (c), family (d) and genus (e).

308 3.3 Sediment phytotoxicity

309 The phytotoxic features of the solid matrix, before and after bioslurry treatment, are shown in

310 Figure 5, in terms of root elongation (Figure 5a) and germination index (Figure 5b).

314

315 From Figure 5 it is possible to observe a significant improvement of root elongation and GI for the 316 configurations characterized by dilution ratios of 50% and 75%, for the treated sediment (day 105 317 compared to that of untreated sediment sample (day 0). In particular, the root elongation was 318 approximately 14 mm for the treated sediment sample (day 105) with a dilution ratio of 75%, 319 compared to the raw sediment sample at the same dilutions whose root length was less than 6 mm 320 (Figure 5a). All configurations showed an improvement in quality for the treated sediment (105 321 days), with a germination index between 75% and 390%, compared to 61% and 144% for the 322 untreated sediment (Figure 5b), highlighting the reduction of the toxic properties of the solid matrix 323 after bioslurry treatment.

324

326 4. CONCLUSIONS

327 The results achieved in this preliminary study provided useful insights about the feasibility of 328 biological aerobic treatment of marine sediments contaminated by hydrocarbons. In particular, the 329 microcosm trials highlighted that the inoculum of halotolerant allochthonous biomass provided the 330 highest performance in terms of hydrocarbon removal, even if the autochthonous biomass, after an 331 acclimation period, revealed good activity in the aerobic hydrocarbon degradation. The results from 332 the bioslurry reactor suggest that a high contaminant concentration may hinder the achievement of 333 high removal efficiencies. In further experimental activities, lower hydrocarbon concentrations 334 might be considered in order to achieve higher removal efficiencies. The assessment of gaseous 335 emissions from the system could be useful to obtain a more accurate evaluation of TPH-removal 336 pathways. The results of microbiological community highlighted that the autochthonous biomass 337 likely overwhelmed the allochthonous one during treatment, thus suggesting that future 338 investigations might be carried out without external inoculum. Finally, in light of potential reuse of 339 the treated sediments, the results of the phytotoxicity tests showed that the treatment with bioslurry 340 reactor provides a matrix with higher quality characteristics than the original state.

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