

1 ***Ecofriendly* nanotechnologies and nanomaterials for environmental applications:**
2 **key issue and consensus recommendations for sustainable and ecosafe**
3 **nanoremediation**

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Abstract

The use of engineered nanomaterials or nanoparticles (ENM/Ps) for environmental remediation, known as *nanoremediation*, represents a challenging and innovative solution, ensuring a potentially quick and efficient removal of pollutants. Although there is a growing interest for nanotechnological solutions for pollution remediation, with significant economic investment, environmental and human risk assessment associated with the use of ENM/Ps are still a matter of debate. Currently, limited *in situ* applications of nanoremediation interventions are available. The development and production of innovative nanotechnologies applied to water and soil/sediment remediation suffer for a lack of data regarding environmental impact and specific legislation, which make difficult to implement nanotechnology at European level. This paper summarizes the findings from an expert workshop “*Ecofriendly Nanotechnology: state of the art, future perspectives and ecotoxicological evaluation of nanoremediation applied to contaminated sediments and soils*” convened during the Biannual ECOTOxicology Meeting 2016 (BECOME) held in Livorno (Italy); discussion between institutions, research community, industry and stakeholders took place with the aim of identifying new ideas for contaminated land and sediment recovery as the potential implementation of nanoremediation. The workshop included four topics: i) risk assessment of ENM/Ps for environmental remediation; ii) current *in situ* and *ex situ* applications; iii) innovative and sustainable nano-materials; iv) business development. An overview of three projects (i.e. two still ongoing) was presented during the workshop with the aim to provide insights into the state of the art of collaborative research about nanoremediation across Europe.

55 *1.Introduction*

56 Environmental pollution can be significantly reduced by means of techniques able to clean up or
57 remove pollutants from an environmental matrix from which the current definition of environmental
58 remediation. Different remediation techniques aim to reduce any risk for the environment and/or
59 human health associated with the presence of pollutants in environmental matrices. However, there
60 are several limitations, which stimulated the development of new solutions able to better, faster, and
61 cheaper perform pollution remediation.

62 Nanotechnology is an innovative scientific and economic field leading to develop further
63 remediation approaches (Lofrano et al., 2017a). Engineered nanomaterials or nanoparticles
64 (ENM/Ps) have several physico-chemical properties that make them particularly attractive, *inter*
65 *alia*, for water and soil remediation. The use of ENM/Ps for environmental remediation, known as
66 *nanoremediation*, represents a challenging and innovative solution, potentially supporting pollutants
67 removal reducing time and costs of cleanup operations (Karn et al., 2009; Corsi et al., 2014;
68 Lofrano et al., 2016). Currently, critical factors as financial and lack of proper legislative supports,
69 limit the development of nanoremediation at European level. In Europe, it has been estimated that
70 there are more than 2.5 million potentially polluted sites which need to be remediated and that
71 350,000 sites may cause a potential risk to humans or the environment (EEA, 2014). Such emerging
72 needs and new research achievements in nanoremediation have been discussed during the 7th
73 BECOME (Biannual ECotoxicology Meeting) workshop held in November 2016 in Livorno
74 (Italy). Specific attention was focused on wastewater treatment (i.e. including industrial effluents),
75 *in situ* remediation of soil and sludge to be recovered and reused, and ecofriendly ENM/Ps or
76 nanostructured products from renewable sources. The need to provide further knowledge in terms of
77 ENM/Ps stability in *in situ* applications, of mobility assessment and ultimate fate models, have been
78 also underlined.

79 Based on ecotoxicological data, the best workflow for ENM/Ps design have been discussed to
80 develop new ecosafe ENM/Ps for environmental remediation. The role of Academia and other
81 research institutions in technology transfer has been addressed providing tools and *modus operandi*
82 for the valorization of public investments with clear outcomes on productivity. The workshop
83 included four main topics: i) ecotoxicological risk assessment of ENM/Ps used for environmental
84 remediation; ii) current *in situ* and *ex situ* applications of ENM/Ps; iii) innovative and sustainable
85 nano-materials for remediation; iv) business development.

86 An overview of three projects (i.e. two still ongoing) was presented as case studies to provide
87 insights into the state of the art of collaborative research across Europe on nanoremediation.

88 Future perspectives regarding the development of ENM/Ps for environmental remediation were
89 discussed and summarized in this position paper in order to suggest the potential direction to follow
90 about nanoremediation, in the near future, at the international level.

91

92 *2. Risk assessment of ENM/Ps for environmental remediation*

93 The exponential production of ENM/Ps, due to their inclusion in many applications, induced the
94 European Parliament in 2009, to call on the Commission to review waste legislation, emission limit
95 values and environmental quality standards in air and water. More recently, the Commission
96 evaluated the need to review Registration and Authorisation of Chemicals (REACH) directive for
97 nanomaterials (COM, 2012) and to suggest recommendations on how REACH can adequately be
98 adapted to ENMs (Schwirn et al., 2014). In order to ensure an efficient assessment of the
99 environmental effects due to the release of ENMs, the OECD promoted an international cooperation
100 program and developed a series of recommendations, identifying alternative testing strategies to be
101 used in risk analysis context (ENV/JM/MONO, 2016).

102 To date, effective concentration of ENM/Ps released in the environment remains uncertain and is
103 mainly based on information regarding the life cycle of ENM-based products (Gottschalk et al.,
104 2009). A realistic scenario predicted concentrations in water ranging from 0.03 µg/L for nanosilver
105 to 0.5 ng/L for carbon nanotubes (Muller and Nowack, 2008).

106 Ecotoxicology can be also used to verify the eco-sustainability of ENM/Ps in the environment
107 and to support decision of policy-makers to define risk levels. The risk level depends upon the
108 mobility of ENM/Ps in the matrix, with lower risk associated to solid materials and higher risks in
109 case of dry, dispersible ENM/Ps (Pal et al., 2007).

110 Among the most important topics discussed during the workshop was the lack of
111 ecotoxicological standardized protocols to test ENM/Ps in terms of differences in the species tested,
112 in techniques for particle preparation, in means of dispersions, in dose/concentrations tested and in
113 the duration of exposure. All these variables strongly influenced the results limiting the comparison
114 of the observed effects (Zhou et al., 2016; Petersen 2015, Corsi et al., 2014; Kühnel and Nickel,
115 2014). As reported by Savolainen and co-authors (2013) it is extremely important to develop a
116 common, strategic vision of future researches in ENM/Ps at European and global level. In

117 particular, the need to found common, appropriate and valid ecotoxicology protocols, in order to
118 compare the results and to support environmental policies, becomes urgent. Regulators are expected
119 to take decisions on level of ENM/Ps to be safely released in the environment, as strongly required
120 by stakeholders and industries. Greener growth requires stringent, but also flexible environmental
121 policies, in order to minimize the barriers of economic growth and competition (OECD, 2014).
122 Only strengthening the knowledge about the environmental risk of ENM/Ps, awareness can be
123 increased like as the adoption of safer products and techniques (Botta & Kozluk, 2014). Thus,
124 validation of ecotoxicological procedures for testing ENM/Ps should be the next European target
125 that will promote their eco-friendly application in remediation strategies.

126 Marine environment has been historically recognized an important source of goods in terms of
127 fishery and services (e.g. maritime activities), but also of vital importance for human health and
128 well-being. An increasing number of ENM-based products are being developed specifically for
129 marine applications such as *in situ* nanoremediation (i.e. absorbent nanowires for oil spills,
130 desalination using reverse osmosis, etc.), which have been significantly increased the benefit of
131 nanotechnologies in reducing marine environment threats. Nevertheless, current uncertainties
132 related to potential adverse effects of ENM/Ps on marine organisms, and the overall ecosystem,
133 urgently require their ecosafety assessment (Corsi et al., 2014; Lofrano et al., 2017b).

134 Marine nano-ecotoxicology can provide tools able to discriminate nanotechnologies that do
135 pose any risk on marine wildlife promoting, at the same time, those practices which will increase
136 benefits to the marine ecosystem as a whole.

137 The risk associated with the release and accumulation of contaminants into the marine
138 environment has been strongly faced with the development of an environmental risk assessment
139 (ERA) framework. Past, but also recent, accidental marine pollution events have been handled by
140 the application of ERA approaches and solved with a certain level of accuracy by linking the
141 ecological effects to the physico-chemical nature of the stressor in terms of concentration-time-
142 response relationship. A similar approach can be applied to the ENM/Ps (Klaine et al., 2012) even
143 though it needs to be tuned to “nano-specific” features as exposure and effect scenarios.

144 Exposure scenarios, as well as patterns of uptake and toxicity, are substantially still unknown for
145 natural marine environment (Koelmans et al., 2015) and represent a major challenge for marine
146 nano-ecotoxicologists. Bridging current knowledge acquired from lab-controlled experimental
147 conditions to environmental realistic scenarios resembling natural ecosystems is therefore their
148 featured mission (Gottschalk et al., 2013). This is further complicated by the general lack of
149 appropriate methodologies able to detect and quantify ENM/Ps in environmental matrices though

150 some advancements are available for specific ENPs (Proulx et al., 2014; Nowack et al., 2016).

151 The many peculiar features of ENM/Ps as chemical core, size, shape and surface energy have
152 been shown to substantially affect their final properties once released in complex natural
153 environmental media as for instance sea waters. In this context, marine waters are even more
154 diverse since physico-chemical parameters, and inorganic and organic composition substantially
155 differ from surface, column and deep waters as well as in lagoon, estuaries, coastal areas and deep
156 oceans (Nowack et al., 2012). The ENM/Ps fate in terms of dispersion might be triggered by
157 parameters as pH, osmolarity and natural organic matter (NOM) mainly based on colloids and
158 proteins, which are able to interact with the specific properties of the ENM/P itself thus affecting
159 uptake and toxicity in exposed organisms (Corsi et al., 2014). The final outcome of such
160 interactions is also affected by the biological status of the organism itself as for instance its ability
161 to face and react to such exposure. Further effects could also be seen at higher level from organism,
162 to population and community and the entire ecosystem (Matranga and Corsi, 2012).

163 Therefore, the main issue for marine nano-ecotoxicologists is whether current findings are or not
164 representative of real natural scenarios where several interactions/transformations between ENM/Ps
165 and natural marine waters and populating organisms could occur. In addition, ENM/Ps final fate,
166 although not fully predicted by models, has been hypothesised to be type-specific (e.g. metal-oxide,
167 carbon based) so that the ability to reach specific target ecosystems urgently need be further
168 investigated (Nowack 2009).

169 Treatment technologies, based on new ecofriendly ENM/Ps, should be developed considering the
170 safe-by-design approach in order to significantly decrease any environmental risk associated to their
171 application within nanoremediation.

172 To implement the effective application of nanotechnology in this field, a thorough ecosafety
173 assessment of ENM/Ps should be performed addressing the following key aspects: (1)
174 understanding the behavior of ENM/Ps in natural complex media, with particular focus on the
175 physico/chemical modifications by environmental factors, which might affect their reactivity and
176 fate; (2) identify possible toxicological targets of ENM/Ps and provide a mechanism-based
177 evaluation of ecotoxicity in different species; (3) assess the risk of the (sub)-products generated in
178 the environmental matrix during and after the remediation treatment, for example the “complex”
179 ENM/Ps + contaminant as well as the generation of potential harmful by-products, as active
180 metabolites produced during oxidation processes.

181 Investigations of the most common used ENM/Ps for remediation, nanoscale zero valent iron
182 (nZVI) showed that it might cause hazardous effects to organisms in the environment, especially
183 microorganisms (Kumar et al., 2014). A review of the recent published literature showed that
184 although nZVI is a reactive substance with toxic properties, it could also stimulate microbiota
185 through its influence on environmental parameters (Semerad and Cajthaml, 2016). Results show
186 clearly that there is a need for further investigations to achieve a deeper understanding on how
187 nZVI, as well as other ENM/Ps applied for remediation, affect organisms in areas surrounding their
188 applications. However, it should be considered that the purpose of *in-situ* nanoremediation is to
189 reduce the toxic pollutants in a contaminated area and that the application of ENM/Ps may reduce
190 the overall toxicity of the contaminated site even if it has properties which could cause toxic effects
191 on biota (Semerad and Cajthaml, 2016).

192 When ENM/Ps enter the environment, they are subject to a variety of processes (Stone et al.,
193 2010; Nowack et al., 2012; Tangaa et al., 2016). NPs may homoaggregate to each other or
194 heteroaggregate to other particles in the environment and subsequently in the sediment. They may
195 also dissolve, transform chemically and react with environmental ligands. In order to optimize a
196 remediation process we must be able to predict what happens to the ENM/Ps introduced to a
197 polluted site during and after the elimination of the target pollutants.

198 The tendency of ENM/Ps to rapidly agglomerate and aggregate when released to the
199 environment may hinder effective remediation (Karn et al., 2009). Different approaches have been
200 used for describing the aggregation processes, which typical fall into two categories, one based on
201 particle number (e.g. Praetorius et al., 2014) and another based on mass (Dale et al., 2015; Markus
202 et al., 2015). The particle number based approach describes the aggregation kinetics using an
203 attachment efficiency, a collision frequency and the particles concentrations whereas in the mass
204 based approach the attachment efficiency and collision frequency is replaced with a mass based rate
205 of aggregation (Dale et al., 2015). The development of these models has primarily been driven by
206 the need to understand the fate of ENMs in the environment and their possible environmental risk.

207 Despite lack of methods for *in-situ* assessment of ENM/P speciation, ageing and agglomeration
208 state (Peijnenburg et al., 2016), predictive fate and transport models for ENM/Ps are useful tools in
209 the design and selection of a nanoremediation strategy for a specific contaminated area.

210 A concept which integrates modeling of the fate of both the ENM/P and the pollutant in a
211 contaminated layer of sediment have been recently developed. The concept consists of a hydraulic
212 model which is coupled to a fate modeling module enabling a combined description of transport and
213 fate as function of time and position. State variables-concentration of pollutants and ENM/Ps are

214 mutually coupled and the transformation processes expressed as differentials with respect to time.
215 In the first version of the concept, processes for the pollutants include adsorption to Solid Particular
216 Matter (SPM), adsorption to ENM/P being dependent of the state of the ENM/P, i.e. the degree of
217 homo- and heteroaggregation, and of sedimentation. Degradation and evaporation of the pollutants
218 were not included in this initial version, but these processes can readily be added. The mathematical
219 mass based equations presented by Markus et al. (2015) can be used for the ENM/P homo- and
220 heteroaggregation. The modeling results are given as the concentrations of pollutants, as a function
221 of time after a simulated treatment with ENM/P, in a contaminated area of sediment within a
222 selected period. Another output of the conceptual model is the distribution of the degree of ENM/P
223 aggregation at a certain time (with respect to homo- and heteroaggregation).

224 Although deep insight on the environmental effect and fate of ENM/Ps is still in its infancy, the
225 model is able to compare and screen the impact of different ENM/Ps when injected or dosed in a
226 contaminated sediment layer. It is possible to apply the proposed concept to assess ENM/Ps
227 properties, which are crucial for their fate and transport. It can be used to explore the consequences
228 of different input values such as pollutants, ENM/Ps, salinity and sediment properties. The concept
229 provides the basic for ecosafe design of the ENM/P and choice of strategy for remediation.

230

231 3. Current *in situ* and *ex situ* applications

232 3.1 Sediment/soil

233 The quality of sediment and soil is an essential asset, being their remediation in case of pollution
234 events, of extreme urgency. Oil spills (i.e. Deep Water Horizon, USA), industrial and military
235 activities, relevant accidents and incorrect or illegal waste management are the main responsible of
236 sediment and soil contamination (Libralato et al., 2008; Hurel et al., 2017). Their *ex situ* cleaning by
237 mechanical removal of contaminated material or active *in situ* methods are often costly (Lofrano et
238 al., 2017b). Passive *in situ* approaches utilising engineered materials (EMs) (from the micro- to the
239 nano-scale), which are deliberately introduced into the sediment/soil or delivered to surface water
240 (e.g. oil spill), have shown to be potentially effective as catalytic agents, transforming contaminants
241 into less harmful or harmless substances. However, safe-by-design is frequently unattended and
242 environmental risk assessment about nanoremediation is further away to be completed, even though
243 some countries are already at the field scale (Libralato et al., 2016).

244 Several papers, since the beginning of the nano-era, focused on the dichotomy of the effects of
245 micro- (MP) and nano-sized particles (NP). Are NPs better than MPs? Of course, as usual, it
246 depends. Costs and benefits are not always easy to define especially for emerging materials where
247 the amount of pros and cons are almost the same, at least at the beginning when unexplored aspects
248 are still present, and contradictory results exist considering both human health and environmental
249 effects (Lofrano et al., 2017b). Certainly, some concerns occur regarding the use of ENMs in
250 contaminated soil/sediment: once dispersed in a contaminated site would ENM/Ps be mobile to a
251 point that they could be taken up by plants or animals at the site or further away, and adversely
252 affect them? How to consider the environmental benefits and risks of ENM/Ps for *in situ*
253 applications? Does their use and behavior pose questions regarding environmental fate and impact?
254 Do they provide easier and better results than the relative MPs? Moreover, a remediation
255 technology must attend to cost-benefit approaches considering practical immediate issues and long-
256 term expectancies. For example, nano-iron has an average cost of about 100 €/kg compared to 10
257 €/kg of iron MPs (SiCon, 2016), mainly due to the relative economies of scale. The very high
258 reactivity of iron NPs makes its *in situ* application sometimes difficult and the remediation activity
259 could present a limited long-lasting ability (Libralato et al., 2016). Thus, a case-by-case analysis
260 must be undertaken to assess the potential real applicability and need for nanoremediation.

261

262 3.2 Wastewater

263 The pursuit of sustainable technologies for environmental remediation has become the priority
264 over the past few years, due to the impact of the unprecedented increase in human population and
265 its adverse effects on natural ecosystems. In particular, the lack of water resources is ever growing
266 due to land degradation, pollution, urbanization, and global economic development. In this
267 situation, the concept of wastewater treatment should be explored with a different goal, in which
268 wastewater is transformed toward sustainability, assuring a safe citizens' quality of life and
269 boosting the economy production chain, through the reuse of effluents in irrigation, water supply
270 and water storage in rural and urban environments. In this context, nanotechnology would represent
271 a major breakthrough in the potential sustainable water management.

272 Due to the tunable properties and outstanding features of ENM/Ps, nanotechnology emerged as a
273 robust and efficient technology that overcomes the limits of existing processes in wastewater
274 treatment (Qu et al., 2013). The main advances of nanotechnology rely in the ability to degrade

275 almost completely several types of recalcitrant compounds (Shao et al., 2013; Lofrano et al., 2016),
276 the antimicrobial properties for disinfection, the possibility of regeneration and reuse and the low
277 energy consumption (Pouretedal and Sadegh, 2014).

278 A wide range of ENM/Ps have been tested for the removal of inorganic and/or organic
279 contaminants (see the reviews by Hua et al., 2012; Shantosh et al., 2016; Anjum et al., 2016 and
280 citations therein). The three main applications are: i) Nano-adsorbents: made of either carbon-based
281 or metal-based NMs. Such application has high efficiency on adsorption of organic pollutants and
282 also for metal removal, due to extremely high specific surface area, more accessible sorption sites
283 and lower intraparticle diffusion (Lofrano et al., 2016). ii) Membrane systems based on nanofibers
284 or nanocomposites, which offer a great opportunity to improve the membrane permeability, fouling
285 resistance, mechanical and thermal stability, and to provide new functions for contaminant
286 degradation (Liu et al., 2015). iii) Nano catalysts: with particular focus on photocatalyst such as
287 TiO₂ (Carotenuto et al., 2014; Lofrano et al., 2016). This application for the wastewater treatment
288 allows fast and efficient removal of metals, and several types of organic pollutants such as for
289 instance hydrocarbons, perfluorooctanoic acid, pharmaceuticals and personal care products as well
290 as of antibiotic resistance bacteria and genes (Shao et al., 2013; Bethi et al., 2016).

291 Based on the achievements obtained so far, nanotechnology holds great potential as a tool for
292 sustainable wastewater treatment and remediation. Nevertheless most of the applications are still at
293 laboratory scale, and some drawbacks for full scale application must be overcome, such as technical
294 challenges related to the production of huge quantity of ENM/Ps, cost-effectiveness and
295 environmental concerns related to their potential release (Lofrano et al., 2017a).

296 Future studies need to be done to assess the applicability and efficacy of different
297 nanotechnologies under more realistic conditions. For instance, most of the studies were based on
298 relatively short time exposure periods, while the long-term performance of these nanotechnologies
299 is largely unknown. Moreover avoiding of unintended consequences on natural environments is the
300 main issue for the effective adoption of this technology. In fact, the application of nanotechnology
301 will inevitably lead to the release of ENM/Ps in water and in sludge, from where they will likely
302 enter into natural ecosystems (Nogueira et al., 2015a). Therefore the removal of ENMs from these
303 media might represent a crucial aspect for safe application of nanotechnology. Currently several
304 methods are available, mostly involving the exploitation of magnetic properties of some inorganic
305 material, cross-flow filtration, and centrifugation. Recently great effort has been devoted to

306 develop treatment systems with immobilized ENPs (Delnavaz et al., 2015). Another pivotal
307 challenge is to develop ENM/Ps which do not pose toxicity for natural ecosystems, but this aspect is
308 more easy to achieve by choosing eco-compatible chemical compositions of the material than for
309 the shape and the size of the ENM/Ps. Up to now few studies investigated the harmful effects of
310 ENM/Ps occurring in wastewater and sludge, highlighting a potential risk for wildlife, related to the
311 application of ENM/Ps in wastewater processes (Carotenuto et al., 2014; Nogueira et al., 2015b).
312 Nevertheless a proper ecotoxicological evaluation of ENM/Ps, intended for wastewater treatment, is
313 still lacking. Overall, the generation of ENM/Ps that meet the highest standards of environmental
314 safety will therefore support industrial competitiveness, innovation and sustainability.

315

316 3.3 Groundwater

317 *In situ* techniques are often employed for groundwater remediation in order to avoid excavating
318 soil and dumping it off site, or using Pump&Treat approaches, which may often be ineffective
319 and/or excessively costly. Groundwater (or aquifer) nanoremediation, which exploits ENPs for the
320 treatment of contaminated groundwater, broadens the range and increases the effectiveness of *in*
321 *situ* remediation options. Several ENPs have been studied in the last years for groundwater
322 remediation purposes. Even if the use of other materials has been explored, most of the particles
323 which are currently being tested and show a good performance for groundwater remediation are
324 iron-based NPs, both in the form of iron particles alone, and as composite materials. Iron particles
325 include, eg., nanoscale and microscale Zerovalent Iron (nZVI and mZVI) (Wang and Zhang, 1997),
326 and nanosized iron oxides, such as goethite for heavy metals sorption, and ferrihydrite for improved
327 microbial-assisted degradation of organic contaminants (Bosch et al., 2010). Examples of iron-
328 based composite nanomaterials include CARBO-IRON®, where NZVI is embedded in a carbon
329 matrix to promote mobility and contaminant targeting (Mackenzie et al., 2012), bimetallic particles,
330 and emulsified zero valent iron (EZVI).

331 Granular, millimetric zero-valent iron (ZVI) is one of the most successful reagents for
332 groundwater remediation deployed in Permeable Reactive Barriers (PRBs). A PRB is a passive
333 technology for *in situ* treatment of contaminated groundwater plumes (Di Molfetta and Sethi, 2006).
334 Due to its capability of degrading a wide range of organic contaminants, and of reducing and
335 immobilizing metal ions, ZVI has been employed in hundreds of PRBs worldwide. However,
336 installation and construction limitations restrain the application of this technology, making the

337 treatment of deep contaminations impracticable, for instance. Moreover, PRBs target only the
338 dissolved plume and cannot be used for direct treatment of the source of contamination. Wang and
339 Zhang (1997) proposed the use of nanoscale zerovalent iron (nZVI) as an alternative to granular
340 iron. Owing to its small particle size (less than 100 nm), nZVI is characterized by a high specific
341 surface area (10-50 m²/g) and consequently exhibits a significantly faster contaminant degradation
342 rate (Tosco et al., 2014b). Furthermore, nZVI aqueous suspensions can be directly injected in the
343 subsurface, directly targeting the plume close to the source of contamination and attaining higher
344 depths than with PRBs. nZVI's small size and high reactivity alone, however, are not sufficient to
345 ensure an effective remediation. In recent years, several laboratories worldwide have been seeking
346 solutions to some of nZVI's main limitations, that must be addressed in regard to the effectiveness
347 and feasibility in field-scale applications. They include in particular stability against aggregation,
348 short and long term mobility in aquifer systems, and longevity under subsurface conditions.

349 The particles' strong tendency to aggregate can be contrasted by the use of organic and inorganic
350 stabilizers (Wang et al., 2013). Biopolymers were found to have a high applicability potential due to
351 their stabilizing effectiveness, wide availability, low cost and environmental compatibility.

352 In the framework of the FP7 UE project SQUAREHAB (G.A. n. 226565), guar gum (Gastone et
353 al., 2014), xanthan gum (Dalla Vecchia et al., 2009) and mixtures of the two (Xue and Sethi, 2012)
354 proved to be suitable for particle stabilization and delivery (Aquarehab, 2014). The shear thinning
355 rheological behaviour of these biopolymers (Comba et al., 2011) ensures stability against particle
356 aggregation at low shear rates, when they are characterized by high viscosity, and facilitates
357 transport in subsurface porous media during injection, when viscosity is significantly reduced.

358 NANOREM (Taking Nanotechnological Remediation Processes from the Lab Scale to End User
359 Applications for the Restoration of a Clean Environment, G.A. n. 309517) was a FP7 EU funded
360 project focused on facilitating practical, safe, economical and exploitable groundwater
361 nanoremediation. In 2011, tens of sites were identified in US, and 16 in EU (Mueller et al., 2012).
362 In the NANOREM project significant effort was devoted to the development of modelling tools to
363 support the design and field implementation of *in situ* nanoremediation interventions. The design of
364 a field-scale injection of ENP suspensions requires reliable procedures and approaches to
365 effectively assess the expected ENP mobility at the field scale and for a reliable estimation of
366 several operative parameters, such as particle distribution around the injection well, radius of
367 influence (ROI) for a target concentration, number of required injection wells, etc. This information

368 can be typically obtained using an experimental approach, running a wide set of column transport
369 tests under all different field-relevant conditions, and inferring the expected mobility at the field
370 scale from the laboratory results. However, this approach may be time- and cost-consuming, and
371 does not guarantee a direct up-scalability to the field, if not supported by modeling.

372 The Groundwater Engineering Group of Politecnico di Torino developed MNMs Micro-and
373 Nanoparticle transport, filtration and clogging Model-Suite
374 (<http://areeweb.polito.it/ricerca/groundwater/software/MNMs.php>), a comprehensive tool for the
375 interpretation of NP transport experiments at the lab scale.

376 When upscaling from lab to full field scale, the first step in the design of an intervention is the
377 execution of a pilot injection. In field applications, NP suspensions are typically injected into the
378 subsurface via wells or direct push systems, generating a radial flow (Tosco et al., 2014a). MNMs
379 can be used to simulate the particle transport distance in the subsurface and to estimate the expected
380 ROI. For full scale interventions, more complex scenarios can be simulated with the powerful
381 MNM3D tool (Bianco et al., 2016)
382 (<http://areeweb.polito.it/ricerca/groundwater/software/MNM3D.php>). This software can be used to
383 simulate important operative parameters, including particle distribution, ROI, number of injection
384 wells.

385 Understanding particle transport and deposition is of pivotal importance not only in the short
386 term, during injection, but also in the long term, to understand the fate of the particles in the
387 environment. NP injection is usually performed at high flow rate in order to achieve high ROIs.
388 When the injection process is interrupted, the particles are subjected to natural flow, and transport
389 velocities become much smaller. In such conditions, the geochemical properties of groundwater and
390 the aquifer heterogeneities become the main driving force governing the particle deposition and
391 release processes. Some particles, such as nZVI, usually are almost immobile under typical aquifer
392 conditions, but other NMs can be significantly mobile in groundwater systems, eg. CarboIron and
393 iron oxide NPs studied for metal immobilization in the framework of the H2020 REGROUND
394 project (G.A. an. 641768) (Tirafferri et al., 2017).

395 As a consequence, to guarantee the long-term safety of the remediation approach and meet
396 regulator requirements, it is of pivotal importance to provide reliable, quantitative estimations on
397 the long term mobility of the injected particles that may remain in the subsurface after reaction with
398 the contaminant. The NANOTUNE approach was developed at Politecnico di Torino to tune the

399 mobility and potentially immobilize these NPs. Moreover, MNM3D can be used as a tool to
400 evaluate the *post*-remediation fate of NPs employed in groundwater remediation projects.

401

402 *4. Innovative and sustainable (nano)materials*

403 While several ENMs reported in the literature show outstanding performances, in terms of
404 decontamination efficiency of water and soil, the potential safety drawbacks related to their use in
405 ecosystems suggest the necessity to design new solutions, capable to take into account these critical
406 aspects (Trujillo-Reyes et al., 2014).

407 In this context, a valuable alternative strategy to overcome the ecotoxicology and legislative
408 issues related to the use of ENM/Ps for environmental remediation consists into the simple concept
409 of moving from *nano-sized* materials to *nano-structured* devices, transferring the advantages of
410 nanotechnology to macro-dimensioned systems. If NMs, such as NPs and nanofibers, are not used
411 directly in the remediation process, but become building blocks of stable nanostructured systems
412 with enhanced micro- and nano-porosity, it is possible to provide a new class of sorbent units with
413 high surface area, capable to remove organic and inorganic pollutants from contaminated water, air,
414 and soil. To reach this goal, an optimized system should preserve the advantages deriving from
415 ENM/Ps and prevent their release in the ecosystem. Moreover, this approach could be considered
416 even much more valuable if the new ENM/Ps are obtained starting from the easy and scalable
417 processing of renewable sources. For this reason, the choice of biopolymers as starting materials is
418 becoming an important target.

419 Polysaccharides well fit most of the requirements for the design of ENM/Ps, as they combine a
420 good chemical reactivity for further nano-structuring processes, due to the presence of several
421 hydroxyl functional groups on the polymer backbone, with their high biodegradability and
422 negligible toxicity. Cellulose represents an abundant, renewable, and low-cost polysaccharide
423 natural source, especially when deriving from agricultural and industrial by-products, for the
424 production of materials for water remediation (Krishnaniandand Ayyappan, 2006). Sugarcane
425 bagasse, fruit peel, biomass, and rice husks have been proposed as cellulose-based matrices for the
426 removal of heavy metal ions from contaminated water. Moreover, waste paper would also represent
427 an alternative, even cheaper source of cellulose, suggesting the virtuous approach of “*recycling to*
428 *remediate*” (Setyono and Valiyaveettil, 2016).

429 Nevertheless, what makes cellulose so attractive as source for the design of advanced materials is
430 its intrinsic hierarchical structure (Kim et al. 2015). The cellulose fiber composite is made with
431 macrofibers of cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin. The macrofibers are composed of microfibrils,
432 which in turn are formed with nanofibrils of cellulose. The possibility to cleave the original
433 structure of native cellulose and to produce cellulose nanofibers (CNF) opens interesting
434 perspectives for a wide range of applications, including wastewater treatment. Following the
435 simplest protocol for the production of CNF, cellulose can be preliminary oxidized with the 2,2,6,6-
436 tetramethylpiperidinyloxy (TEMPO)-mediated system (Pierre et al., 2017), selectively converting
437 primary C6-hydroxyl groups of the glucose units to the corresponding carboxylic groups. Following
438 this protocol, defibrillation of TEMPO-oxidized cellulose nanofibers (TOCNF) can be achieved by
439 increasing the pH of the solution. In fact, the deprotonation of carboxylic groups favor the
440 electrostatic repulsion of negatively charged single fibrils, leading to the physical separation of
441 single fibriles.

442 Hydrogels obtained from TOCNF have been reported as efficient and reusable adsorbents of
443 heavy metal ions (Isobe et al., 2013). However, TOCNF can be also used for further cross-linking,
444 taking advantage of the new carboxylic moieties introduced on the polymer backbone. While this
445 process would lead to macro-dimensioned nano-structured systems, with all the advantages
446 previously discussed, the choice of the ideal cross-linker would allow to introduce additional
447 properties and functional groups, increasing the versatility of the systems. In this context, we
448 recently reported a thermal route for the production of a new class of aerogels, starting from
449 TOCNF and following a simple thermal protocol in the presence of branched-polyethyleneimine
450 (bPEI) (Melone et al., 2015a). The formation of amide bonds between the carboxylic and the amine
451 moieties favored the high reticulation into sponge-like, water stable systems, which show high
452 efficiency in removing heavy metals and phenolic derivatives from wastewater. The possibility to
453 functionalize selectively the amino groups of the cross-linker (Melone et al., 2015b), and to use
454 these devices as templates for further organic (Panzella et al., 2016) and inorganic (Melone et al.,
455 2013) coating, suggests the potentialities of this new ENM, whose properties can be modulated in
456 order to perform selectively for the absorption and degradation of target contaminants.

457 In the framework of the NANOBOND project (Nanomaterials for Remediation of Environmental
458 Matrices associated to Dewatering), the specific application of hydrogels obtained from TOCNF
459 and tested for their ecosafety will aim to develop new ecofriendly nanotechnologies for sludge and
460 dredged sediment remediation. Funded in the framework POR CReO FESR Tuscany 2014-2020,

461 the NANOBOND project aims to develop an innovative system for treating contaminated sludge
462 and dredged sediments, by coupling the use of nanostructured *eco-friendly* materials with the
463 classical geotextile dewatering tubes. This new solution, will enable to reduce contaminated sludge
464 and sediments, in terms of volumes and costs of transport, but also to convert the resulting solid and
465 liquid wastes to a renewable clean resource to be use, for instance, in riverbanks settlements and
466 any other applications. By developing nanoremediation techniques associated with dewatering,
467 NANOBOND intends to explore new solutions to dredging and sludge management linked to
468 hydrogeological disruption and maintenance of harbour areas, emerging issues which are
469 tremendously increasingly worldwide. This innovative solution aims to became an efficient strategy
470 to significantly reduce sludge and sediment contamination through nanoremediation since also
471 easily scalable for large-scale *in situ* applications with competitive costs. The NANOBOND
472 consortium made by a 70% of industrial partnership specifically of companies involved in sludge
473 and dredged sediment disposal as well as in their risk assessment and 30% of academia and research
474 institutes for synthesis, ecosafety and life cycle assessment of nanostructured materials
475 accomplished the requirements of technology transfer and business development needed for the
476 development of an ecosafe and sustainable nanoremediation and promote economic development in
477 terms of industrial competitiveness and innovation, both still very little developed in European
478 countries.

479 A further examples is the INTERREG EUROPE project TANIA (TreAting contamination
480 through NanoremedIation) with the aim to improve EU regional policies on treating contamination
481 through nanoremediation in European countries. Funded under the 2nd Call for proposal 2016 under
482 the Axis IV “Environment and Resource Efficiency and led by Tuscany Region, TANIA aims to
483 improve the implementation of regional development policies and programs in the field of the
484 environmental prevention and protection by pollutants and specifically addresses to innovative and
485 low cost technological solution for the (nano)remediation of contaminated soil and water. Green
486 nanotechnology refers to the use of nanotechnology to enhance the environmental sustainability of
487 processes producing negative externalities. It also refers to the use of nanotechnology products to
488 enhance sustainability. It includes making green nano-products and using nano-products in support
489 of sustainability. Green nanotechnology has two goals: producing nanomaterials and products
490 without harming the environment or human health, and producing nano-products that provide
491 solutions to environmental problems. The concept of nanoremediation fits into this second
492 objective. However, the technology is currently not widely diffused despite an ever-increasing

493 number of sites requiring swift treatment to combat contamination. Being so innovative, there is
494 still resistance to their large-scale application and to policies that support it. There is a lack of
495 information and knowledge on their safety and potential, leading to much misinformation.
496 Therefore, in order to further promote the application of nanoremediation techniques and
497 technologies, regional policy makers must work together and with main stakeholders in order to: (i)
498 support continued research and innovation into the identification and production of eco-compatible
499 and eco-sustainable nanotechnologies for treatment of contaminated soil and water; (ii) define a
500 standardized methodology to evaluate the effectiveness, economic sustainability and the
501 environmental safety and impact of ENM/Ps for contamination treatment, within the context of
502 existing environmental regulations at National and European level.

503 Environmental safety is particularly relevant to *in-situ* remediation where reactive products must
504 be checked in terms of their reaction with and impact on treated compounds; (iii) support patenting
505 and pilot applications of new ENM/Ps developed on the basis of safety by design concepts; (iv)
506 develop a policy framework to provide incentives for *in-situ* use of ENM/Ps for treatment of
507 contaminated soil and water; (v) raise awareness on the process of nanoremediation, its benefits and
508 means of application. In this context TANIA aims to improve the policy instruments of 5 different
509 EU Regions, sharing also practices and results with the whole INTERREG EUROPE community.
510 TANIA is coordinated by the Development Agency for the Empolese Valdelsa (ASEV Lead Partner
511 – ITALY) and involves all the managing authority of the policy instrument on which it addresses
512 own attention. TANIA's partnership includes Regional Agencies representative of several European
513 countries (Italy, France, Finland, Greece and Hungary).

514 An important role must be played also by the other stakeholders. Academia, one of this, has to
515 play a major role for supporting and organizing this type of research that overlaps several different
516 fields and that cannot be faced by single research groups or departments. As an example even in the
517 case previously briefly described before in the present paper, it is easy to identify how, to concretely
518 operate in real case, the contribution originates by inorganic and organic chemist, applied chemists,
519 analytical chemists, industrial and processes engineers, biologists, toxicologists, ecologists and
520 expert of regulatory matter. It is clear that such a huge amount of competences is not easy to be
521 assembled: for this reason a pivot role must be played by large organization, like national research
522 institution, such as ISPRA, or aggregation of University, such as the case of NANOBOND project
523 under the flag of the Consortium INSTM (National Universities Consortium for the Science and
524 Technology of Materials, www.instm.it).

525 *5. Business development of the sector*

526 In the field of environmental remediation and the related treatments and disposal of the various
527 solid and liquid matrices, strong collaboration between industrial sector and research is absolutely
528 needed. Specific issues related to waste or site typologies and the resulting innovation from the
529 applied nanotechnologies and their development, will increase the competitiveness of companies
530 involved in the environmental sector with also benefit from applied research as the increase of
531 patents. A role that must be played together by researchers and industries is in the choice of
532 strategies that will allow the scale-up of the material and techniques developed, taking in mind that
533 the amount of materials to be employed is measured in tons or kilotons, as like as the cost of
534 production must be affordable for concretely tackle large scale case. This aspect not necessarily
535 must be considered as mass production because it can also have success with an approach for niche
536 production, but for sure the valley between the laboratory bench production and an industrial
537 product ready for commercialization must be cross, keeping in mind all the classical problems that
538 this pathway usually meet.

539 A multidisciplinary approach must be applied at the forefront of the most advanced
540 nanotechnological solutions to be tunable according to different situations. Remediation should
541 accomplish several aspects according to national regulation, human and environmental safety and
542 contract management economics.

543 The global nanotechnology market in environmental applications reached \$23.4 billion in 2014.
544 This market is expected to reach about \$25.7 billion by 2015 and \$41.8 billion by 2020, registering
545 a compound annual growth rate (CAGR) of 10.2% from 2015 to 2020
546 ([https://www.bccresearch.com/market-research/nanotechnology/nanotechnology-environmental-](https://www.bccresearch.com/market-research/nanotechnology/nanotechnology-environmental-applications-market-nan039c.html)
547 [applications-market-nan039c.html](https://www.bccresearch.com/market-research/nanotechnology/nanotechnology-environmental-applications-market-nan039c.html)). The urgent need to develop commercially-deployed
548 remediation technologies at European level have seen the involvement of service providers and site
549 owners or managers which are now finally considering their potential applications as well as
550 implications for their business activities. Only in Tuscany Region (Central Italy), sites under
551 remediation are around 3.700 (approx. 17.000 hectares), and more than 50% are considered
552 potentially contaminated (ARPAT, 2016). The dimension of the phenomenon linked to dredging
553 activities is identified by the following data: in Italy, the average dredging is 6 million cubic meters
554 per year. From 10 to 25% by weight of these materials is contaminated (Bortone, 2007). Sea areas
555 falling within the perimeter of Sites of National Interest to be reclaimed are over 124,000 hectares

556 (Legambiente, 2014). Only in the harbor area of Livorno (one of the major harbour of Tuscany
557 Region), about 1.8 million cubic meters of sediments have been dredged in the decade 2006-2016.

558 Currently the remediation sector in Italy is in a stalled state due to the lack of adequate
559 investments and also often farraginous administrative procedures (Legambiente, 2014).

560 In terms of land, this solution accounts for 50% of land reclamation, while technological
561 processing solutions represent minority percentages (EEA, 2012). In the case of dredged sediment
562 management, the traditional approach involves storing in collapsed crates or CDF (Confined
563 Disposal Facility), capping or conferral in a controlled landfill.

564 An increase of sustainable environmental remediation solution is therefore mandatory so that the
565 benefit of the remediation action will be greater than the impact of the action itself (SuRF Italy,
566 2014). This is particularly evident in recovery of former industrial areas, which, apart from limiting
567 soil consumption, can produce benefits beyond the cost of the interventions themselves (APAT,
568 2006). Today, more than ever, these interventions become significant given the wide presence of
569 dismantled industrial areas, transformed into large "urban voids", following the progressive
570 outsourcing of western economies.

571 The approach to re-use (both the areas to be reclaimed and the environmental matrices) is the
572 aim of numerous studies that highlight the possibilities of recovery. In the case of dredged
573 sediments, for instance, recovery is possible by using them as materials in the building industry
574 (Hamer et al., 2005; Dang et al., 2013; Aouad et al., 2012), or as infrastructural components
575 (Sheehana and Harringtonb, 2012).

576 The European Community promotes the more efficient use of resources: in the logic of the
577 circular economy, the circle closes with the transformation of waste into resources (European
578 Commission, 2014). The innovative approach of the circular economy aims to bring greater
579 resource efficiency and material savings, based on the life cycle principle (Kobza et al., 2016).

580 Identifying nanomaterials as a technological solution for remediation can be a decisive turning
581 point and is perfectly in line with the principles of circular economy. In fact, the project is
582 characterized by a high degree of flexibility with regard to incoming material streams (treatment of
583 sediments of different nature and contamination) and a high level of sustainability (technologies
584 that aim at material recovery, low impact on the configuration plant engineering). It could
585 successfully enter the industrial economic system by proposing lower costs than those currently on
586 the market for sediment treatment, with additional strengths, such as lower transport costs, linked to
587 the elimination of the need to travel long distances for specific treatments and the possibility of re-

588 use of processed material, possibly for port infrastructure (extensions) and other uses (eg watering
589 of streams).

590

591 *Concluding remarks*

592 As the potential and efficacy of nanotechnology is well established, several drawbacks related to
593 the full-scale application should be overcome. In particular great efforts should be devoted to
594 develop (nano)materials which own ecosafe features such as limited release in environmental
595 matrices and any toxicity for natural ecosystems. Ecotoxicology can be used to develop *ecofriendly*
596 nanotechnology and (nano)-materials and to support decision-makers.

597 The development and production of innovative nanotechnologies, applied to water and
598 soil/sediment remediation, must fill current gaps on their environmental impact. Moreover, a
599 specific legislation at European level is necessary to regulate their emissions and field application.

600

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