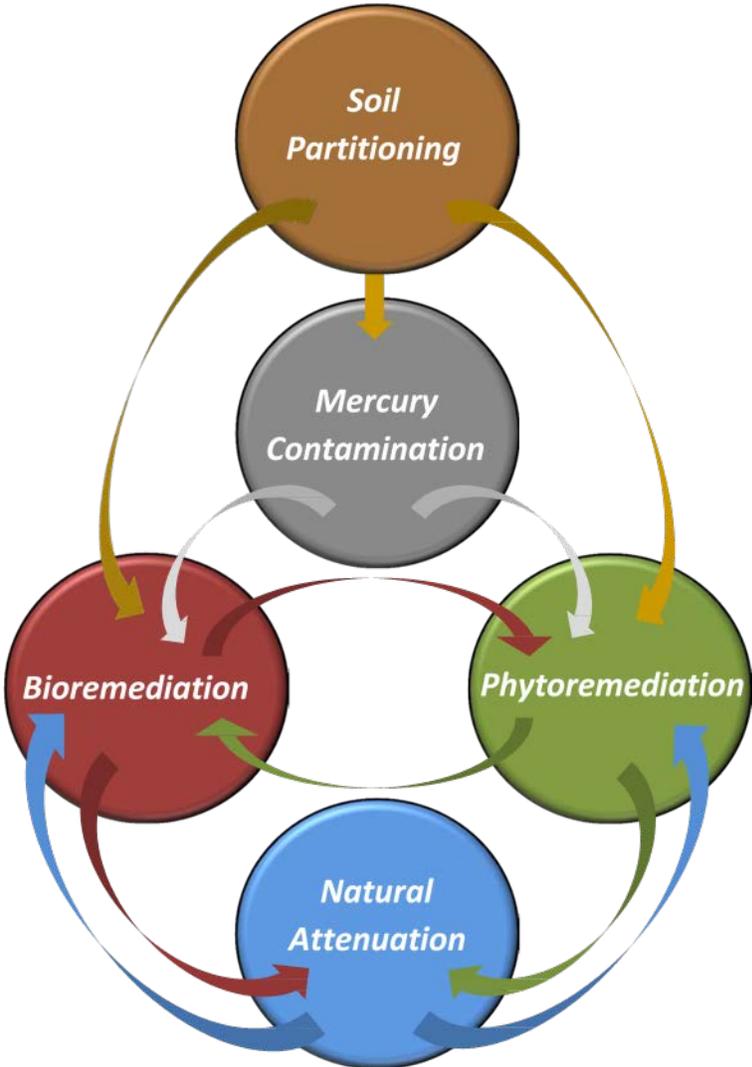


**Soil Treatability Studies
Area IV Santa Susana Field Laboratory
Ventura County, California**



September 2015

Soil Treatability Studies Summary Report Area IV Santa Susana Field Laboratory Ventura County, California

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Soil Treatability Studies Summary Report Area IV Santa Susana Field Laboratory Ventura County, California

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Attachments

Attachment A – Chemical Characterization of Residual Fuel Hydrocarbons in Soils at the Santa Susana Field Laboratory

Acronyms

AOC	Administrative Order of Consent
Cal Poly	California Polytechnic State University
COIs	contaminants of interest
dioxins	polychlorinated dibenzo dioxins
DOE	U.S. Department of Energy
DTSC	Department of Toxic Substances Control
EDTA	ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
EFHs	Extractable Fuel Hydrocarbons
ft bgs	feet below ground surface
LUT	Look-up Table
mg/kg	milligrams per kilogram
mm	millimeters
PAHs	polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons
PCBs	polychlorinated biphenyls
Sandia	Sandia National Laboratories
SSFL	Santa Susana Field Laboratory
TPH	total petroleum hydrocarbons
UCR	University of California-Riverside

Section 1

Introduction

In accordance with the Administrative Order of Consent (AOC) signed by the U.S. Department of Energy (DOE) with the California Department of Toxic Substances Control (DTSC), DOE conducted a series of soil treatability studies using soil from Area IV of the Santa Susana Field Laboratory (SSFL). The objective of the soil treatability studies was to evaluate onsite soil treatment technologies that could reduce the volume of contaminated soil that otherwise would need to be excavated and transported from Area IV.

DOE's first step in conducting the soil treatability studies was engaging Sandia National Laboratories (Sandia) to review literature and inquire with practicing remediation professionals on soil treatability studies conducted throughout the world to determine which soil treatment technologies may be applicable to contaminants in soil at Area IV. The contaminants of interest (COIs) investigated by the treatability studies were, generally, metals (primarily mercury, silver, lead), polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), polychlorinated dibenzo dioxins (dioxins), and total petroleum hydrocarbons (TPH).

Based on Sandia's literature review and inquiry with professionals, Sandia recommended that DOE consider six soil study options (Sandia 2012) for the COIs:

- Mercury valence state determination
- Soil partitioning
- Bioremediation
- Phytoremediation
- Natural attenuation
- Thermal treatment

Section 2

Background

Mercury has unique chemical properties that allow it to exist in the environment in different chemical states (also termed valence states) – as a liquid metal, as a salt, or as a complex with other compounds. The chemical state of mercury in soil is important to know for soil treatment considerations because as a metal it can be removed from soil through thermal treatment, as a soluble salt it can be absorbed in soil by microbes and plant roots, and as an insoluble complex only soil washing may be effective in removing mercury from soil.

Soil partitioning evaluates within which of the various particle size ranges the contaminants may be found. Soil is composed of particles ranging in size from a fraction of a millimeter (clay, silt, and fine sand) to coarse sand and gravel sizes. Typically soil contaminants preferentially adsorb to the smaller soil particles (termed "fines"). If this is the case, it may be possible to separate larger soil particles from the smaller particles through the use of sieves. If the contaminants are primarily found on the smaller soil particles, then the separation can reduce the volume of soil to be transported from Area IV. The Area IV soil is primarily of sandstone origin so it consists of predominantly larger soil particle sizes. The types and sizes of soil particles that contaminants are adsorbed to is also important for biological remediation considerations. In order for microbes and plant roots to absorb contaminants, the contaminants must be soluble or found in soil moisture. If the contaminants are strongly adsorbed to smaller soil particles, the contaminants may not be soluble and thus are not available to microbes and plant roots. Soil partitioning is also the first step in evaluating whether soil washing (removing contaminants from soil particles using chemicals and mechanical mixing) would be an effective treatment technology.

Bioremediation employs microorganisms (e.g., bacteria) and fungi to use the contaminants as an energy source or to chemically convert the contaminants to less toxic forms. How the microorganisms can convert the contaminants is highly dependent on the amount of oxygen and types of bacteria/fungi in the soil. Some microorganisms can only live in soil with oxygen, while others can only live in the absence of oxygen. And, as indicated in the paragraph below, there can be a symbiotic relationship between microorganisms and plant roots.

Phytoremediation is the use of plants to uptake (remove from soil) and/or degrade contaminants. The contaminants either are metabolized (converted to carbon dioxide, water, and salts) by the plants, incorporated into plant tissue, or volatilized from the plants into the atmosphere. In order for the contaminants to be absorbed into plant roots, the contaminants must be biologically available, usually meaning the contaminants must be in a soluble form. In some instances, a symbiotic relationship between plants and microbes exists; microorganisms in the soil can make some contaminants more available to plant roots, and the roots can release compounds making chemicals more available to microorganisms.

Natural attenuation is the use of physical, chemical, and biological processes to reduce concentrations of contaminants in soil. All organic compounds (meaning compounds with carbon as a basis) will eventually degrade into basic elements such as carbon dioxide, water, and mineral

salts. However, the rate of chemical degradation can vary greatly depending on contaminant properties (e.g., volatility, solubility, and degree of chlorination) and soil type and conditions. Degradation rates can range from months to years depending upon the aforementioned variables. Knowing rates of degradation is important not only for site monitoring considerations, but also for understanding the feasibility of enhancing degradation of contaminants in soil.

Thermal treatment is the practice of either heating soil to drive off volatile chemicals (fuels, solvents, mercury) or incinerating soil to destroy highly stable chlorinated chemicals. Thermal treatment can involve placement of thermal probes into the soil to heat it, or excavation of the soil for placement in incinerators for burning.

Section 3

Treatability Studies Discussion

Based on the recommendations made by Sandia, DOE elected to conduct five soil treatability studies:

- Mercury chemical (valence) state determination
- Soil partitioning
- Bioremediation
- Phytoremediation
- Natural attenuation

Thermal treatment was not chosen to be studied at this time.

The selected soil treatment technologies are interrelated and provide supporting information for each other. For example, knowing the mercury chemical state is necessary to determine whether mercury is amenable to soil washing, bioremediation, phytoremediation, and/or thermal treatment. The soil partitioning study results indicate whether contaminants could be available to plants, microorganisms, or fungi for bioremediation and phytoremediation studies. All of the studies are related to the biological, chemical, and/or physical aspects of natural attenuation. Therefore, the findings of each study determine the natural attenuation processes present at Area IV and their rates of COI reductions.

At the suggestion of the community, DOE contracted two local universities to conduct the soil treatability studies. Researchers at California Polytechnic State University (Cal Poly) conducted the bioremediation, phytoremediation, and natural attenuation studies; researchers from the University of California-Riverside (UCR) conducted the mercury and soil partitioning study. The goal of the studies conducted by the universities was to determine whether any of the technologies could reduce soil concentrations to meet cleanup levels identified in the AOC soil Look-up Table (LUT), or could reduce the volume of contaminated soil requiring excavation and transportation from Area IV.

To describe the relationships, background, and purposes of the studies, DOE developed a Master Work Plan (CDM Smith, 2013). Cal Poly developed separate work plans for the bioremediation study (Nelson et al., 2015a), phytoremediation study (Nelson et al., 2015d), and natural attenuation study (Nelson et al., 2014 and 2015c). UCR developed separate work plans for the mercury study (Liu, 2015) and soil partitioning study (Matsumoto and Martin, 2015).

The treatability studies determined that attaining the AOC soil cleanup levels (LUT values) would require significant time and effort, if the LUT values could be achieved at all, through the identified treatment options. This determination is due in part to the combination of the highly weathered state of the contaminants (i.e., the more easily degradable contaminants have already been degraded), contaminant chemical state (e.g., mercury valence state), and the nature of the AOC cleanup levels. The results of the five individual treatability studies are summarized below.

More detailed descriptions of each study's purpose, design and methodology, results, and conclusions can be found in the individual treatability study work plans and study reports (see References Section for full citations).

3.1 Mercury Contamination Study Conclusions

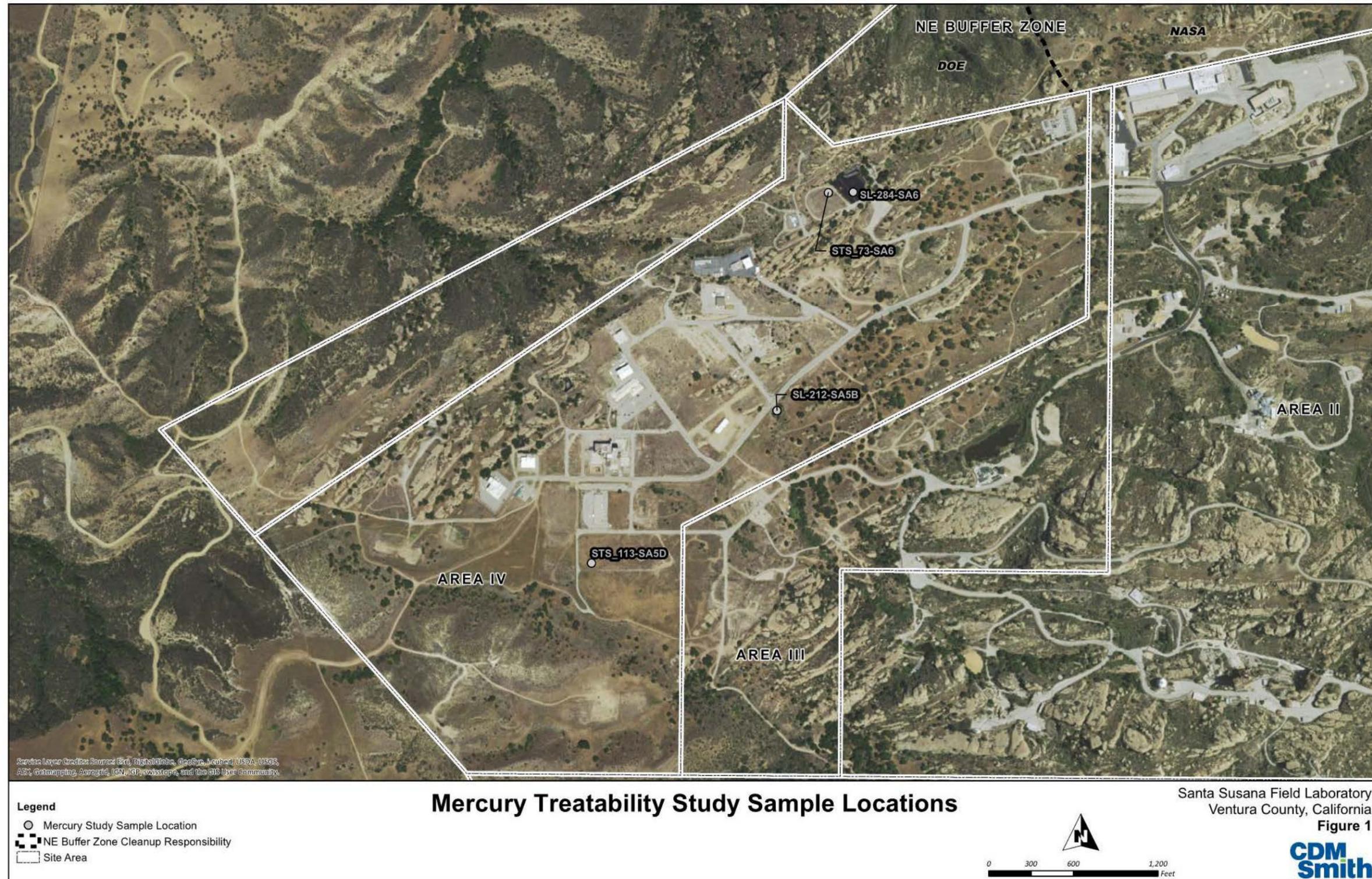
The mercury contamination treatability study was designed to determine the current valence states and spatial distribution of mercury in Area IV soils, and assess potential mercury remediation technologies. The results are reported in Liu (2015). Soil samples were collected from four locations within Area IV, and these samples were then analyzed to determine the concentration of each mercury valence state. Mercury concentration information from previous soil sampling events was also reviewed to aid in the interpretation of the spatial distribution of total mercury at Area IV.

In three of the four locations sampled specifically for this study, mercury concentrations were highest in surface soils (0 and 1.5 feet below ground surface [ft bgs]) and decreased with increasing soil depth. Total mercury exceeded its AOC LUT value at these locations. The sample location not exhibiting the trend of mercury concentration decreasing with depth (STS-73-SA6) had been excavated as part of a soil removal action prior to the commissioning of these soil treatability studies.

No elemental vapor phase mercury was detected in any of the samples. Methyl mercury was detected only in trace amounts at two locations. Approximately 12 percent of all mercury found in the soil samples was in a chemical form that is soluble (mobile) and thus potentially bioavailable. This would suggest that soil washing, bioremediation, and phytoremediation, theoretically, could be viable treatment options to remove the mobile fractions of mercury from these surface soils. However, the immobile fraction of mercury at the same locations is still above the mercury LUT value. This means that bioremediation and phytoremediation alone would likely not be able to achieve mercury LUT values for Area IV soil. The phytoremediation study saw no increase of mercury in plant tissue samples under controlled greenhouse conditions.

In deeper soils, the majority of mercury exists in the immobile, elemental form that is tightly bound to soil particles. Additional testing of potential alternative cleanup approaches would be required to determine the feasibility of any treatment methods for these immobile fractions.

Figure 1 presents the location of the samples collected for the Mercury Contamination Study.



3.2 Soil Partitioning Study Conclusions

The soil partitioning study was designed to determine the soil particle size range(s) where contaminants are found. The results are reported in Matsumoto and Martin (2015). Surface soil samples (0.0 to 0.5 or 0.5 to 1.5 ft bgs) were collected from four Area IV locations. At one location, three distinct depth intervals were sampled (0.0 to 0.5, 0.5 to 1.5, and 2.0 to 3.0 ft bgs). Each sample was subsequently separated into one of four particle size ranges (greater than 2.0 millimeters [mm], 0.425 to 2.0 mm, 0.075 to 0.425 mm, and less than 0.075 mm) via mechanical sieving. Each size fraction and an aliquot of the whole un-sieved soil for each sample were then analyzed for the COIs to determine if the COIs were preferentially found in a certain soil particle size range.

The soil partitioning study concluded that it may be possible to reduce the removal depth of contaminated soil for offsite disposal or onsite treatment, as the COI concentrations generally decreased with increasing depth in the soil column (suggesting that downward migration through the soil of the contaminants is a slow process). However, the potential for reducing the volume of contaminated soil requiring treatment or disposal via particle size separation is minimal. COI concentrations were found to exceed the LUT values in many of the soil size fractions. *Ex-situ* soil washing is a potentially applicable remedial technology due to dominance of coarse material and sands in Area IV soils, but further laboratory testing would be required to determine the strength of the chemical washing agents (solvents, surfactants, acids, etc.) required for COI removal, to determine the agent's effects on the soil, and to determine proper waste disposal procedures for any generated waste stream. It is likely that multiple washing agents would be required for COI removal, resulting in sterilization of the soil. This sterilization would likely require the addition of significant soil amendments to restore the soil biological function.

Figure 2 presents the location of the samples collected for the Soil Partitioning Study.



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- Legend**
- Soil Partitioning Study Sample Location
 - NE Buffer Zone Cleanup Responsibility
 - Site Area

Soil Partitioning Treatability Study Sample Locations



Santa Susana Field Laboratory
Ventura County, California
Figure 2



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3.3 Bioremediation Study Conclusions

The bioremediation treatability study was conducted in two phases. Both phases are reported in Nelson et al. (2015a). Phase 1 involved the collection of soil samples from across Area IV that had a range of COI concentrations. These samples were then cultured and/or analyzed to determine if the microbial organisms already present in Area IV soils are capable of degrading the COIs.

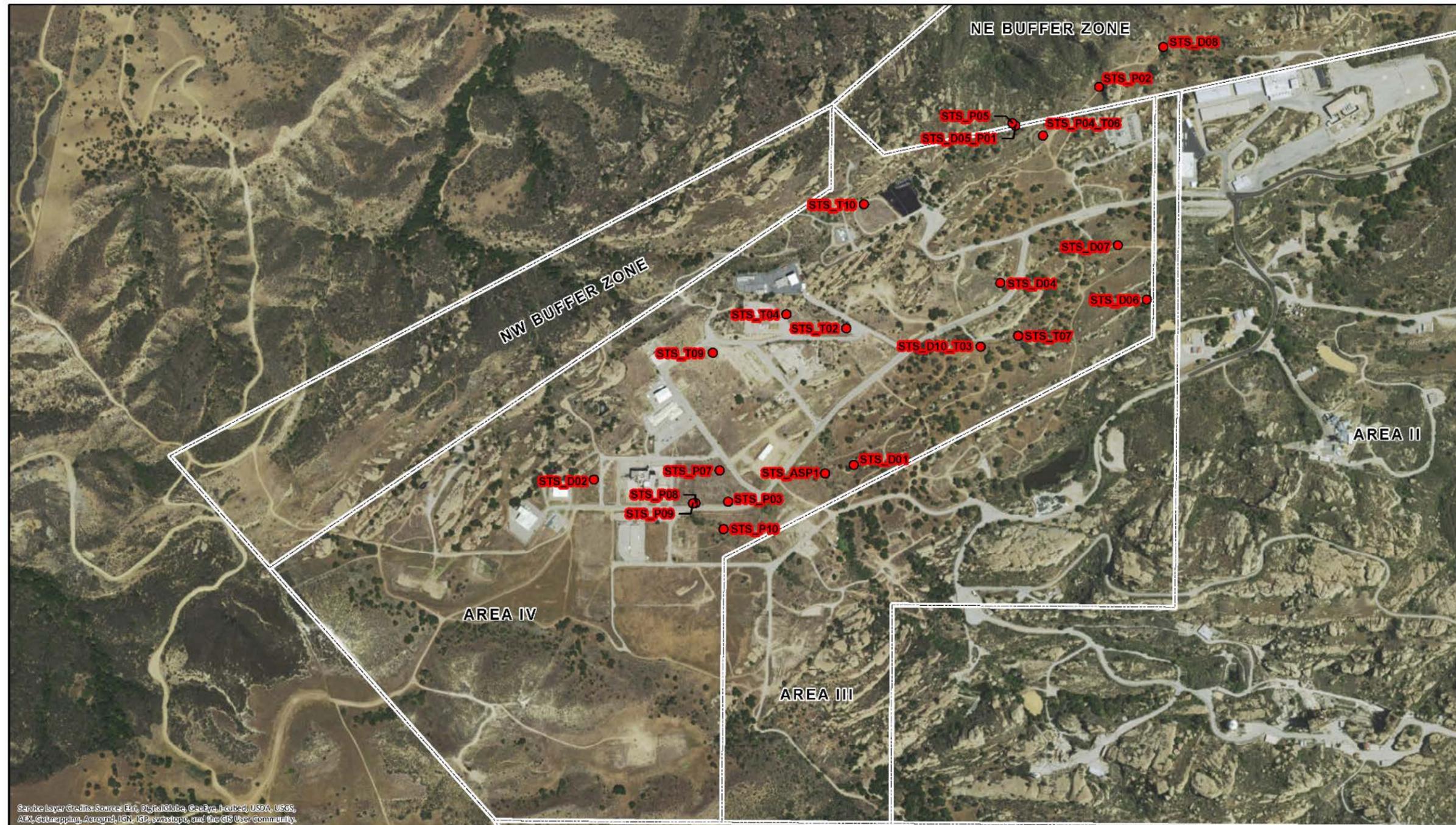
Phase 2 involved collecting Area IV soils for use in controlled laboratory microcosms to measure biodegradation rates under typical site conditions and to estimate the effectiveness of biostimulation (e.g., adding fertilizers) and bioaugmentation (e.g., adding organisms) for increasing COI degradation rates.

Phase 1 results identified 21 unique microorganism species in Area IV soils, including 14 bacteria and 7 fungi. These isolated microorganisms included three strains of the fungi *Phanerochaete chrysosporium*; bacterial species *Arthrobacter*, *Streptomyces*, *Micromonospora*, and *Variovorax*; and six strains of the bacteria *Pseudomonas*. Ten of the bacteria and three of the fungi that were isolated are known to be degraders of the COIs or come from a genus that contains known COI degraders.

Phase 2 results suggested slow biodegradation rates for the organic COIs. Slight decreases in organic COI concentrations were observed over the 8-month laboratory microcosm incubation period, but decreases were not statistically significant at 95% confidence. Biostimulation with fertilizer and bulking agents was not effective at increasing organic COI degradation rates, and biostimulation with surfactants had limited effect. Bioaugmentation with the white-rot fungi *Phanerochaete chrysosporium* was determined to have potential for degradation of dioxins.

The Phase 2 conclusions also suggested that the organic COIs at Area IV are highly weathered and strongly adsorbed to soil particles. Most of the readily biodegradable compounds have likely already biodegraded or volatilized, and the remaining compounds are likely to be sequestered in the soil, reducing their bioavailability. Therefore, if bioremediation were considered as a remedial technology, it would primarily be for those areas with low COI concentrations, low risk of COI exposure to humans, and where significant time for degradation could be allowed.

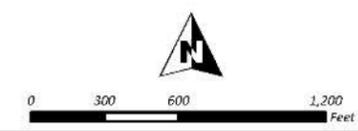
Figure 3 presents the location of the samples collected for the Bioremediation Study.



SanDiego@credits:Source: Esri, DigitalGlobe, GeoEye, IGN, GeoEye, Incubed, USDA, USGS, AEX, Getmapping, Aergrid, IGN, IGP, Swisstopo, and the GIS User community.

- Legend**
- Bioremediation Study Sample Location
 - Site Area

Bioremediation Treatability Study Sample Locations



Santa Susana Field Laboratory
Ventura County, California
Figure 3



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3.4 Phytoremediation Study Conclusions

The phytoremediation study was conducted in two phases. Phase 1 involved the collection of plant roots, above ground stems and foliage, and associated soils to determine which plant species presently growing in Area IV may contribute to the phytoremediation of the COIs. Nine species of plants were sampled during Phase 1. Phase 2 involved growing three candidate plant species identified during Phase 1 in greenhouse microcosms to measure COI uptake/degradation rates and test the effects of additives (e.g., chelating agents, fertilizer) on uptake/degradation rates. Both phases are reported in Nelson et al. (2015d).

Phase 1 results showed that Extractable Fuel Hydrocarbons (EFHs) were observed in the roots and foliage of all plant species. However, the EFHs observed in plant tissues appeared to be phytogenic (i.e., produced by plants). PAHs were also detected in the roots of most plant species but, similar to EFHs, the PAHs detected in some species appeared to be phytogenic.

PCB uptake was not observed for any Phase 1 plant species; however, PCBs were not detected in the soils associated with Palmer's Goldenbush or Purple Needlegrass specimens. Chlorinated dioxins were found in Blue Elderberry, Palmer's Goldenbush, Yerba Santa, and Purple Needlegrass tissues.

Mercury uptake was not observed for any species; however, mercury was below the detection limits in soil associated with Palmer's Goldenbush, Narrowleaf Milkweed, and Purple Needlegrass. Silver was observed in the roots of all plant species except for Palmer's Goldenbush and Purple Needlegrass. Summer Mustard was the only species that showed uptake of silver into the foliage. This uptake of silver into the foliage was at much lower concentrations than the silver concentration present in the soil.

For the Phase 2 greenhouse microcosms, Coyote Brush (*Baccharis pilularis*) and Mule Fat (*Baccharis salicifolia*) were selected for study as they both showed uptake of most of the COIs during Phase 1. A grass species had to be selected without field screening due to growing-season constraints, and Purple needlegrass (*Nassella pulchra*) was chosen because it is native to Area IV and known for its resilience.

A comparison of Phase 2 planted and unplanted microcosm results indicated that EFH degradation rates via rhizostimulation of soil microbes are slow over the first 85 days. Final EFH concentrations at 211 days were inconclusive because of an apparent anomaly in EFH measurement between different contract analytical laboratories used for the 85-day test analysis and 211-day analysis. Therefore, 12-month samples were sent to the first analytical laboratory (same as the 85-day test). The resulting petroleum hydrocarbon concentrations fell in a similar concentration range as the initial and second analyses.

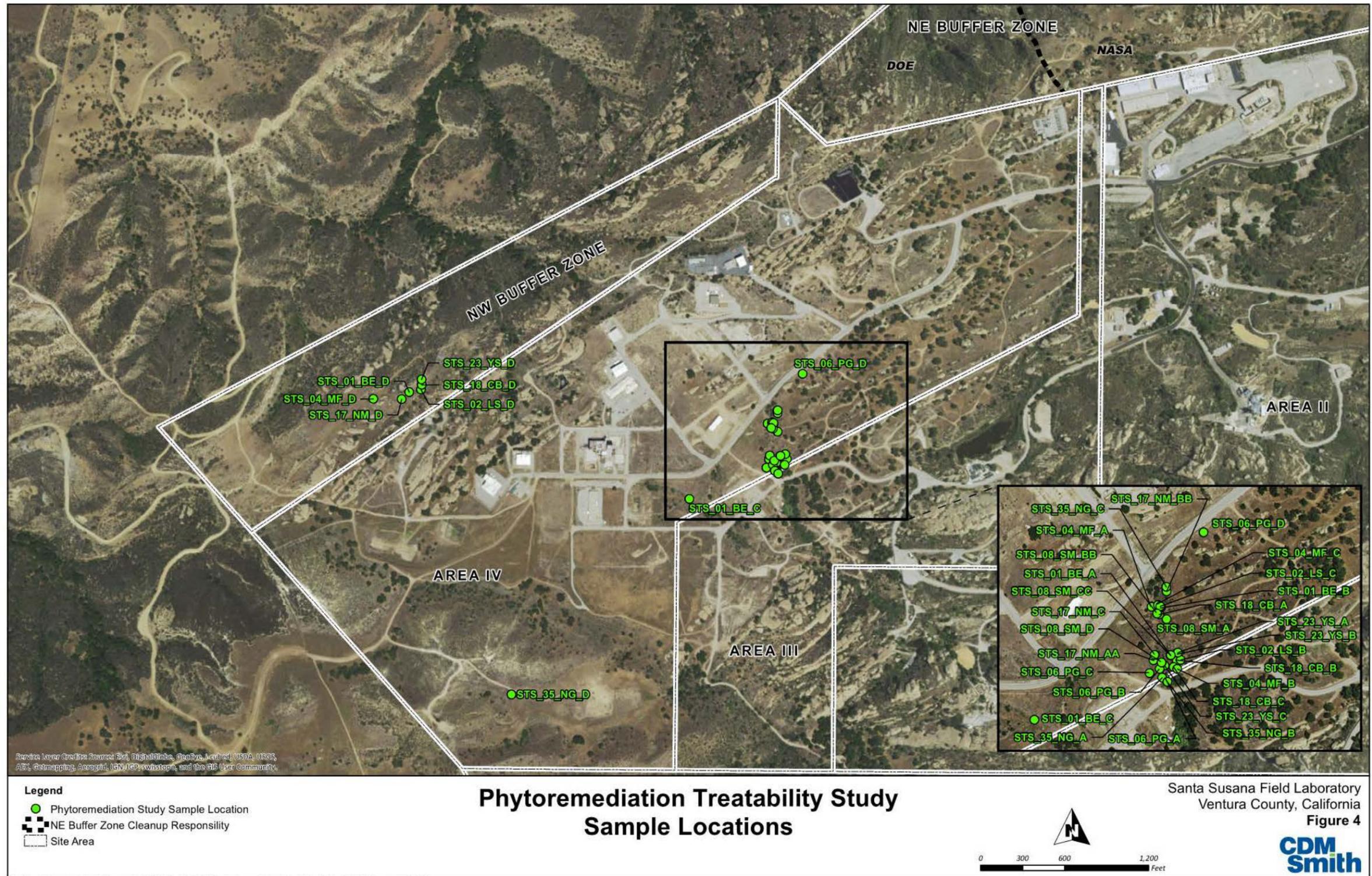
As a follow-up effort to these treatability efforts, university researchers investigated, in part, the inherent difficulties of accurately measuring petroleum hydrocarbons at low concentrations (Nelson et al., 2015b). The study's authors observed that it is difficult to accurately quantify petroleum hydrocarbons at the concentrations that were present in their Area IV soil samples (100 to 300 milligrams per kilogram [mg/kg]). As such, the study's authors concluded that reliable hydrocarbon measurement near the 5 mg/kg LUT value for TPH would be nearly impossible to achieve for Area IV. Hydrocarbon concentrations are calculated by integrating the area under numerous overlapping gas chromatograph data peaks, and thus a baseline has to be drawn underneath the peaks for the integration. The study author's stated that drifting baselines, non-zero signal at the end of the elution time, and non-zero blanks all can make the concentration calculation inaccurate at low hydrocarbon concentrations.

No significant reductions of PAH, silver, or mercury soil concentrations were observed for any of the Phase 2 microcosms. Amending the soil by adding the chelation agent ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) did not improve mercury uptake.

Soil PCB concentrations decreased by 13 to 15 percent (with significant variability of observed PCB concentrations) over 7 months for soil microcosms planted with purple needlegrass and coyote brush, relative to sterile controls. Since no PCBs were observed in the plant tissue of these microcosms, the mechanism for this PCB reduction appears to be stimulation of soil bacteria. Soil dioxin concentrations decreased by 18 to 20 percent over 7 months for soil microcosms planted with coyote brush. Rhizostimulation again appears to be the operative mechanism.

As with bioremediation, phytoremediation could be useful in conjunction with site restoration in areas with low COI concentrations, low risk of COI exposure to humans, and where significant time for degradation could be allowed.

Figure 4 presents the location of the samples collected for the Phytoremediation Study.



3.5 Natural Attenuation Study Conclusions

The natural attenuation study was conducted in two phases. Phase 1 primarily consisted of a literature review of natural attenuation processes to determine which Area IV COIs are amenable to natural degradation processes. The literature review results were then used to estimate the time that would be required for natural attenuation of these COIs to reach LUT values, based on current Area IV soil COI concentrations. Phase 1 also examined soil COI concentrations from locations resampled over a period of time in order to estimate site-specific natural attenuation rates. All of these results were presented in a Phase 1 natural attenuation study report (Nelson et al., 2014).

Figure 5 presents the location of the samples collected for the Natural Attenuation Study.

Phase 2 involved using findings from the companion bioremediation and phytoremediation treatability studies to further develop site-specific COI degradation rates under typical site conditions. The Phase 1 natural attenuation study report was then updated with the findings from Phase 2 (Nelson et al., 2015c).

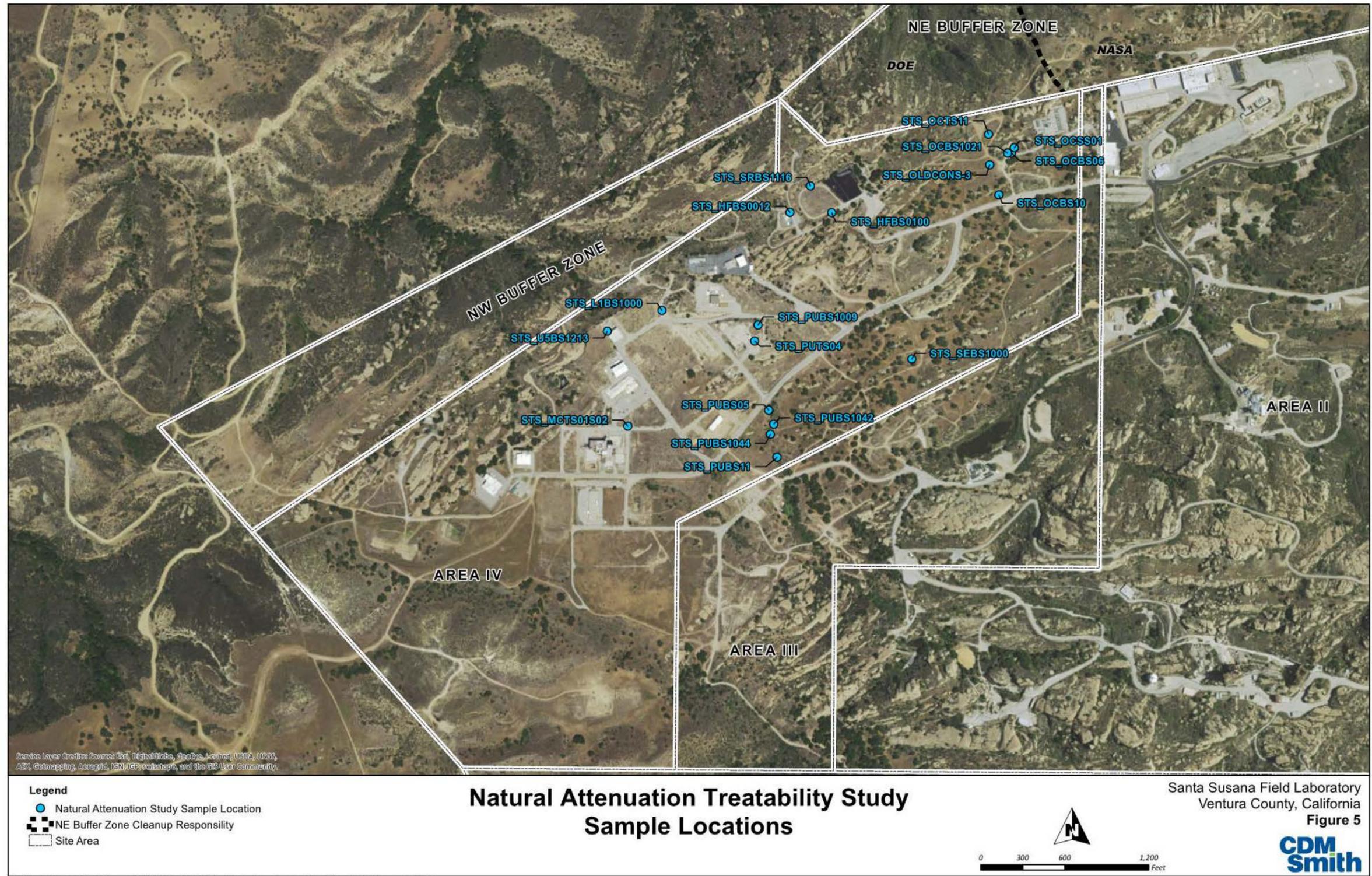
The findings of the Phase 1 literature review (Nelson et al., 2014) suggest all organic COIs in Area IV soils will eventually biodegrade, but some COIs will degrade slowly. Predicted times for Area IV soil COI concentrations to reach LUT values, as determined by the natural attenuation study Phase 1 literature review, are as follows:

- Petroleum hydrocarbons: 0.42 to 69 years
- PAHs: 5 to 15 years
- PCBs: Undetermined (half-life = 40 years)
- Chlorinated dioxin/furans: 1 to 50 years

The broad range of predicted natural attenuation rates were attributed to the variances in the initial concentrations and biodegradation rates reported in the literature.

Phase 2 analyses of the companion bioremediation and phytoremediation studies suggested longer estimated remediation times than those predicted by the published literature. Conclusions regarding Area IV-specific natural attenuation rates, as determined by the review of the bioremediation and phytoremediation treatability study results, are provided further below.

This study ultimately concluded that natural attenuation at Area IV is expected to take on the order of decades to reach current AOC LUT values for the various COIs. These predicted remediation times are partially the result of the current clean-up goals to reach background COI levels and the result of COI weathering into the soil matrix, rendering the contaminants generally unavailable to biological or phytoremediation potential. The natural attenuation study also concluded that much shorter remediation times would be expected if clean-up goals were set similar to those set for typical past industrial sites (Nelson et al., 2015b)(see Attachment A).



3.5.1 EFH Natural Attenuation Conclusions

More than a 40 percent reduction in EFH concentrations in 126 days was observed for one of the three unamended bioremediation Phase 2 microcosms. However, little or no EFH was observed for the other two microcosms. These results indicate the variability in the efficacy of hydrocarbon bioremediation.

Naturally occurring organic matter could possibly be misinterpreted as petroleum hydrocarbons during chemical analyses. As stated above, Nelson et al. (2015b) determined that it is difficult to accurately quantify petroleum hydrocarbons at the concentrations that were present in their Area IV soil samples (see Attachment A). The study also concluded that reliable hydrocarbon measurement near the 5 mg/kg LUT value would be nearly impossible to achieve.

3.5.2 PAH Natural Attenuation Conclusions

Phase 2 bioremediation microcosm experiments did not show significant PAH biodegradation for the unamended controls. Phytoremediation study results also indicated little or no PAH biodegradation in microcosm soils with plants. Together, these results suggest limited PAH degradation under natural conditions, and that the PAHs remaining in Area IV soils have low biodegradability. This limited PAH degradation may be a result of PAHs being weathered and sequestered in the soil matrix, limiting their availability to microorganisms.

3.5.3 PCB Natural Attenuation Conclusions

Bacterial PCB degradation requires anaerobic dechlorination, and anaerobic conditions were not observed in Area IV soils. This suggests that bacterial dechlorination of PCBs will not be a viable mechanism for PCB degradation. However, fungal biodegradation of PCBs is possible under aerobic conditions, and three strains of the white-rot fungi *Phanerochaete chrysosporium* reportedly capable of biodegrading PCBs were isolated from Area IV soils. PCB degradation via white-rot fungi may be a potential remedial measure.

PCB concentrations decreased over the bioremediation microcosm incubation period, but these decreases were not statistically significant at the 95% confidence level from the sterile controls. In the phytoremediation study, soil PCB concentrations also decreased for soil microcosms planted with purple needlegrass and coyote brush. No PCBs were observed in plant tissue, so the mechanism for PCB concentration reduction appears to be stimulation of microorganisms in the soil.

3.5.4 Dioxin Natural Attenuation Conclusions

Only small decreases in dioxin concentrations were observed in the unamended bioremediation soil microcosms, suggesting slow dioxin biodegradation under natural attenuation conditions. The bioremediation microcosms augmented with the fungi *Phanerochaete chrysosporium* exhibited decreases in chlorinated dioxin concentrations more than in unamended microcosms. Some decreases in soil dioxin concentrations were observed in the planted phytoremediation microcosms. This suggests some potential, albeit limited, for dioxin remediation via phytoremediation processes.

Section 4

Summarized Conclusions

Results from the Cal Poly and UCR soil treatability studies identified the following conclusions:

- The COIs present in Area IV soils appear to be highly weathered. The easily degraded COIs have likely already been degraded.
- Due to their state of weathering, the COIs are fairly recalcitrant and are not likely readily amenable to natural attenuation, bioremediation, or phytoremediation processes.
- It will take considerable time (possibly decades in some cases) to achieve current LUT values for organic COIs via natural attenuation, bioremediation, or phytoremediation processes.
- It is likely that bioremediation or phytoremediation processes cannot achieve current LUT values, regardless of duration, for mercury as the immobile fraction of mercury present in many samples is, by itself, above the mercury LUT value.
- The potential for reducing the volume of contaminated soil requiring disposal or treatment via size separation is minimal.
- *Ex-situ* soil washing is a potential remedial technology for Area IV soils; however, further study would be required to determine the required strength of the extraction fluid and its effects on the soil.
- University researchers determined that naturally occurring organic matter could possibly be misinterpreted as petroleum hydrocarbons during laboratory chemical analyses.

Section 5

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Attachment A – Chemical Characterization of Residual Fuel
Hydrocarbons in Soils at the Santa Susana Field Laboratory



Chemical Characterization of Residual Fuel Hydrocarbons in Soils at the Santa Susana Field Laboratory

Environmental Remediation Services for Environmental Compliance for Area IV

FINAL REPORT

July 31, 2015

Submitted to the US Department of Energy via CDM Smith

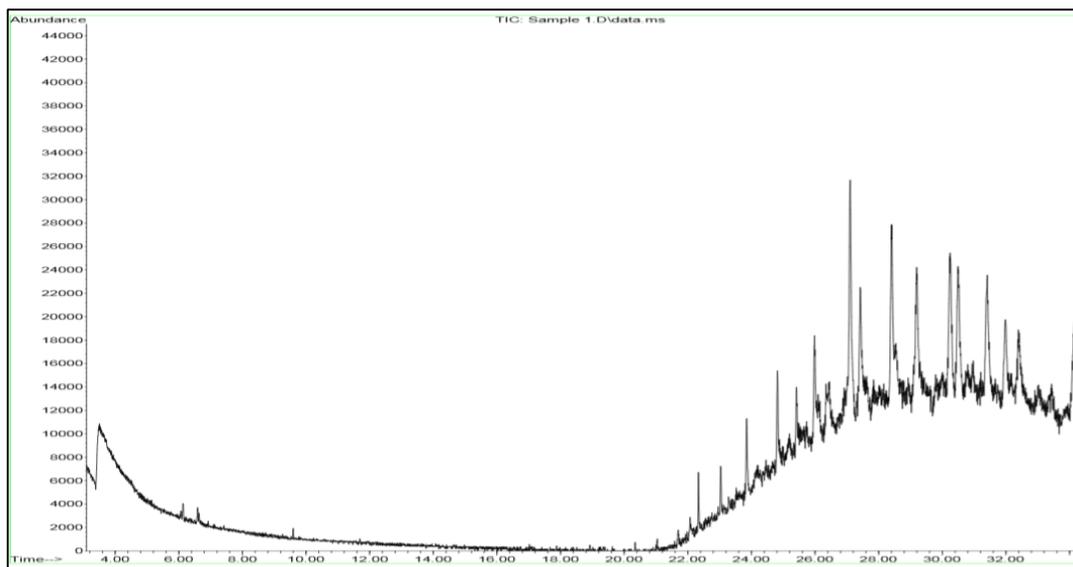
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Executive Summary

Five soil samples were collected from Area IV of the former Santa Susana Field Laboratory (SSFL) and analyzed using gas chromatography/mass spectroscopy (GC/MS) to determine the chemical constituents of the material being characterized as total petroleum hydrocarbon (TPH). One objective of this study was to determine to what extent natural organic material (NOM) contributes to the TPH signal. Another objective was to investigate the use of silica gel cleanup as a method to remove polar NOM before TPH analysis to provide a more accurate measure of actual petroleum hydrocarbons. A third issue which ended up being addressed in this study was the inherent difficulties of accurately measuring TPH at low levels.

Results of the GC/MS spectral analyses suggest that the contamination of Area IV soils being characterized as TPH consists of high molecular weight hydrocarbons, suggestive of residual-range oil (RRO). These hydrocarbons are mostly highly-branched and cyclic hydrocarbons which are known to be slow to biodegrade. PAHs are also present in the soils, as well as some heterocyclic compounds. Many of the branched hydrocarbons and PAHs are partially oxidized. Also detected in the soil samples were organic acids such as oleic acid and oxalic acid, suggestive of NOM. This NOM fraction accounted for about 5 to 8% of the total TPH.

Silica gel cleanup by EMAX Laboratory removed 5 to 40% of the TPH in the five soil samples. Mixed results were obtained in the Cal Poly lab, with silica gel cleanup actually increasing the TPH for three of the five samples. GC/MS analysis showed that silica gel cleanup removed some of the polar organic compounds, but not all of them. Thus, the silica gel approach may underestimate the contribution of NOM to TPH measurement. PAHs and large branched hydrocarbons were not removed by the silica gel cleanup.

An important observation during this study is that it is difficult to accurately quantify TPH at the very low soil TPH concentrations of the Area IV soils used in this study (100 to 300 mg/kg). TPH concentrations of soil samples sent to two different contract laboratories as part of the earlier bioremediation study differed by nearly an order of magnitude. Reliable TPH measurement near background TPH levels or near the 5 mg/kg look-up table value for Area IV would be nearly impossible. At these very low TPH concentrations several factors can significantly impact the calculation of TPH concentrations from GC data, making the calculated concentrations unreliable. TPH concentrations are calculated by integrating the area under numerous overlapping peaks, and thus a baseline has to be drawn underneath the peaks for the integration. Drifting baselines, non-zero signal at the end of the elution time, and non-zero blanks all can make the calculation of TPH inaccurate at low TPH concentrations.

The look-up table value published by the DTSC for TPH is 5 mg/kg, which is 20 times lower than any state standard for RRO, and 1,000 times lower than typical values used by many states. Most states have now started using risk-based clean-up goals. It is beyond the scope of this study to argue for a change in clean-up goals, however, this study has demonstrated that there are clear technical problems with measuring TPH concentrations at such low levels.

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1.0 Introduction

Cal Poly recently completed three soil treatability studies to support remediation efforts for contaminated soil in Area IV of the former Santa Susana Field Laboratory (SSFL). The purpose of these studies was to determine the viability of using *in-situ* remediation techniques, such as bioremediation, phytoremediation and/or natural attenuation to reduce contaminant concentrations and thus reduce the volume of soil needing to be excavated and hauled off-site. In the process of conducting this research, Cal Poly researchers noted difficulties accurately measuring total petroleum hydrocarbon (TPH) concentrations at the very low levels specified by the Department of Toxic Substances and Control (DTSC) for cleanup goals and also discovered the presence of natural organic material (NOM) in the soil samples which was inadvertently contributing to TPH quantification. To address these issues, Cal Poly was given the charge to investigate the chemical composition of the material in the soil being quantified as TPH, and test methods such as silica gel cleanup for providing more accurate TPH measurement.

Possible anomalies in the measurement of TPH were elucidated in the analysis of the final soil samples for a bioremediation microcosm experiment which was part of the bioremediation study. Initial soil samples collected during this experiment and those collected after 126 days of incubation were analyzed for TPH by EMAX, an EPA-certified contract laboratory. Final samples collected after 244 days of incubation were analyzed for TPH by a different contract laboratory – Lancaster Laboratory. TPH concentrations reported by Lancaster Laboratory were 5 to 10 times higher than those reported by EMAX for earlier samples. Both laboratories use an EPA-approved method for gas chromatographic (GC) analysis. Since such an increase in TPH concentration didn't make sense, additional final samples were then analyzed by EMAX, and the TPH concentrations were reported to be similar to those measured earlier. This suggested that different lab techniques may be resulting in widely different measurements of TPH. In the current research, possible reasons for these discrepancies were explored, such as GC integration problems caused by drifting baselines and interference from the presence of NOM. Ordinarily these problems are not expected to be significant, but at the very low TPH concentrations of the samples from Area IV, these problems may have significantly impacted the analysis of TPH.

Another interesting finding at the end of the bioremediation study was the identification of natural oils, such as oleic acid and palmitic acid, in a soil sample from the end of the soil microcosm experiment. A preliminary chemical analysis using gas chromatography/mass spectrometry (GC/MS) indicated significant amounts of natural organic material (NOM) which is likely to be counted as total petroleum hydrocarbon (TPH) and/or extractable fuel hydrocarbons (EFH) in standard tests for petroleum hydrocarbons. From the GC/MS analysis of one of the final bioremediation soil samples, the larger peaks in the chromatogram were associated with organic acids, while the smaller peaks were attributed to weathered petroleum hydrocarbons (Figure 1-1). The interference from NOM could potentially result in reported TPH/EFH soil concentrations higher than that attributable to hydrocarbons from petroleum-based

origins. It is therefore important to 1) understand the actual composition of the material thought to be petroleum hydrocarbons so that clean-up goals can be set accordingly, and 2) develop analytical methods to independently quantitate petroleum hydrocarbons with minimal interference from NOM in the soil.

A common method to remove polar organic compounds from soil extracts prior to TPH analyses is a cleanup procedure using silica gel fractionation. However, it is not certain if this method is accurate for removing NOM (Mujis and Jonker, 2009). Thus, another objective of this study was to investigate the use of silica gel cleanup for Area IV soils, specifically to determine if this methods effectively removes NOM before TPH analysis.

To address the issues described above, a series of laboratory investigations of soils from SSFL were conducted. TPH quantitation methods were tested and chemical composition was investigated for five fresh soil samples collected from Area IV to provide representative samples for testing the relative quantities of TPH and NOM in the soil. Cal Poly researchers worked with CDM Smith staff to identify the five sites for soil collection. The specific objectives listed below were addressed by this research:

1. Characterize chemical constituents in the five soil samples using GC/MS to analyze for NOM, as well as hydrocarbons and PAHs.
2. Quantify NOM relative to petroleum hydrocarbons.
3. Evaluate the standard silica gel cleanup protocol to separate NOM from petroleum hydrocarbons – determine if silica gel cleanup removes the NOM in Area IV soils and leaves intact the petroleum hydrocarbons and PAHs.
4. Interpret site-wide TPH/EFH analytical results with silica gel prep.

This study also examined the look-up table values for TPH set by the DTSC in terms of the technical feasibility of accurate TPH measurement at these low concentrations. The DTSC created a lookup table with cleanup goals for each of the soil contaminants at Area IV, and set a lookup table value for TPH of 5 mg/kg for the C15-C20 equivalent carbon range. However, the DSTC stated that “for locations where TPH is the sole contaminant, a cleanup strategy will be considered based on the findings of the soil treatability study” (DTSC 2013). One of the objectives of this follow-on study is therefore to make conclusions regarding the measurement of TPH which may inform future clean-up standards for TPH at Area IV.

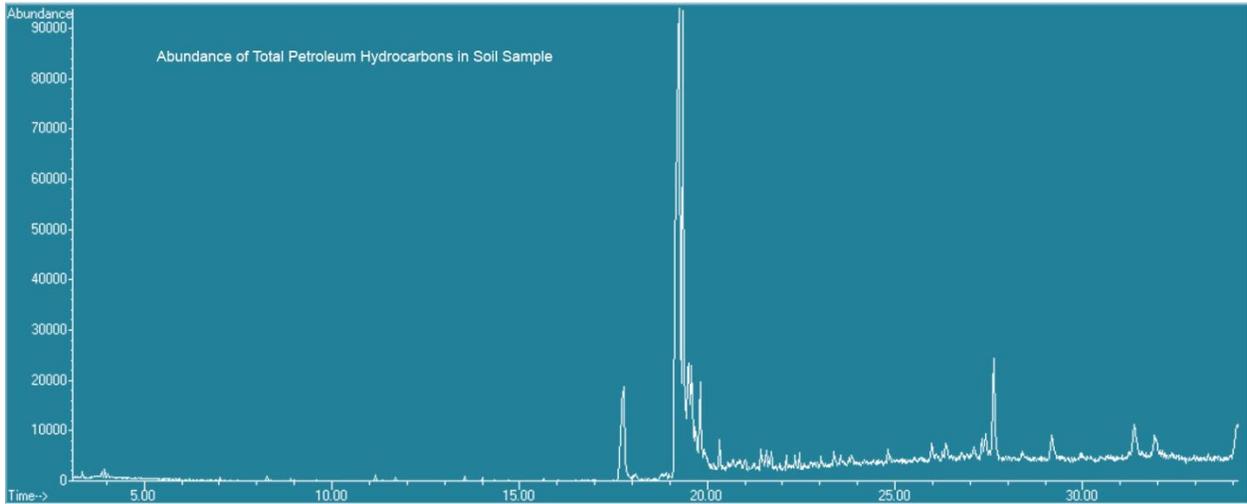


Figure 1-1. Analysis of a soil sample from the end of the bioremediation microcosm experiment in the soil treatability study.

2.0 Background

2.1 Regulatory TPH clean-up levels

The USEPA originally exempted petroleum hydrocarbons from CERCLA regulation, and as a result states developed their own requirements for clean-up levels. These requirements were usually presented as concentration of TPH, and ranged from 10 to over 10,000 mg TPH/kg soil (TPHCWG, 1998). The Total Petroleum Hydrocarbon Criteria Working Group (TPHCWG) was formed in 1993 based on this observation that widely different clean-up requirements were being used by states at sites that were contaminated with petroleum compounds. The TPHCWG members recognized that these numerical standards were not based on scientific assessment of risk, and therefore recommended a new approach utilizing appropriate fraction-specific toxicity data. More recently, the State of Alaska conducted a survey of all 50 states and Canada and found that most states were by then using risk-based cleanup levels, but still found a wide range of TPH cleanup levels (ADEC 2013). For residual range oil (RRO), which is typical of SSFL soil contamination, the cleanup levels varied from 99 mg/kg (Texas) to 10,000 mg/kg (Utah). In comparison, the look-up table value established by the DTSC for Area IV at SSFL is only 5 mg/kg for TPH in the C15-C20 equivalent carbon range (DTSC 2011). However, as stated above, the DSTC noted that the final cleanup strategy should be based on the findings of the soil treatability study. In this final phase of the soil treatability studies, it is thus important to determine if the 5 mg/kg cleanup level can be measured accurately.

2.2 GC/MS analysis of petroleum hydrocarbons

TPH is most often measured using gas chromatography with a flame ionization detector (GC/FID). However, gas chromatography with a mass spectrometer detector was used in the present study to provide more detailed identification of specific compounds in the unresolved complex mixture typically observed for petroleum compounds in Area IV soils. The MS detector allows for identification of specific compounds by comparison of mass spectra to a library of 250,000 specific compounds. However, mass spectroscopy has some limitations, and it should be used with caution for identification of compounds in complex mixtures such as petroleum products (TPHCWG, 1998). It should also be noted that GC/FID is better for quantifying TPH than GC/MS because the response of an FID is proportional to the mass of hydrocarbon present regardless of the type of hydrocarbon (e.g., aromatic, aliphatic or olefin). In contrast, the MS detector may have different responses for different types of hydrocarbon compounds (TPHCWG, 1998). In this study, the GC/MS was primarily used for diagnostic purposes to roughly characterize the residual “TPH” and determine if some of the compounds eluting with the TPH are actually natural organic material.

2.3 Silica gel treatment to remove lipids

An important limitation of the standard method for measuring TPH is that the entire chromatogram of the unresolved complex mixture is integrated, and thus non-petroleum hydrocarbons, such as soil or sediment organic matter (i.e., degradation products of plants and animals), or lipids may be inadvertently included in the measurement of TPH. If not properly removed, these compounds can cause an overestimation of TPH concentrations, as they will contribute to the overall detector response by FID or MS. Therefore, “appropriate sample clean-up is of great importance when determining TPH concentrations in environmental matrixes” (Mujis and Jonker, 2009). The most common cleanup technique used on extracts for TPH analyses is silica-gel cleanup using EPA Method SW-846 3630 (TPHCWG, 1998). Mujis and Jonker (2009) evaluated this silica gel cleanup method and found 84% TPH recovery and 59% removal of lipids from Dutch sediment samples.

3.0 Methodology

3.1 Soil collection

Fresh soil samples were collected from five locations of Area IV at the SSFL site (Table 3-1). Soil sample collection was conducted by Hazardous Waste Operations and Emergency Response (HAZWOPER)-certified field personnel per 29 CFR 1910.120. Soils were collected with decontaminated stainless steel instruments. Splits of each sample were sent to Cal Poly and EMAX Laboratory.

Table 3-1. Legend for soil sample identification

Soil Sample Number	Sample ID
1	5D-612
2	5D-885
3	01-BE-B
4	02-LS-C
5	18-B-A

3.2 Extraction and TPH analytical methods

Extraction:

The TPH extraction protocol was adapted from EPA Standard Method #3550. Ten to 25-g samples of each soil sample were placed in a 100-mL sample bottle. Approximately 30 mL of methylene chloride (MeCl) was added to the sample bottle containing the soil, and the sample was sonicated for 3 min at 60,000 Hz using a Sonifier 250 (Branson Ultrasonics Corp., Danbury, Connecticut). Sodium sulfate (Na₂SO₄) was added to a 24-cm (diameter) 802 Fluted Grade Whatman Inc. filter mounted in a glass funnel to remove water from the extracts. Na₂SO₄ was also added directly to the sample bottle. The extract was poured through the fluted filter and then through a Millipore API 04200 glass fiber filter into a test tube. Another 25 mL of MeCl was added to the soil sample. This additional solvent was then sonicated and filtered as described above and added to the previous 25 mL of MeCl for a total extract volume of 50 mL.

Each sample extract was transferred to a Turbovap® tube and concentrated using a Turbovap® nitrogen evaporation system in a room temperature (20 - 25°C) water bath to an approximate volume of 2 mL. The sample was transferred into a 10-mL graduated cylinder, and the volume was brought up to 5 mL with additional MeCl. These extracts were poured into two GC vials with crimp caps for GC analysis.

GC/MS analysis:

Samples from each extract were run through an Agilent Technologies 6890N Gas Chromatograph (splitless inlet) with an Agilent 5975B inert Mass Selective Detector. A 50-m fused silica column 250- μ m in diameter was used (Agilent Catalog #19091S-433) in the chromatograph. Samples were automatically loaded using an Agilent 7683B Series Injector capable of holding eight GC vials, two solvent vials, and a waste vial. The sample injection volume was 2 μ L from a 10- μ L syringe. To ensure no samples were cross-contaminated, the injector was programmed to rinse the syringe twice with methylene chloride before taking sample extract from the GC vial. The temperature ramped from 45°C to 275°C at a rate of 12°C per minute and was then held at 275°C for the remainder of the 34-min run. The GC front inlet was pressurized to 12.26 psi at a temperature of 200°C. Helium was used as the carrier gas.

Each chromatogram was integrated over the appropriate range of elution times, and the resulting area was used to calculate the TPH concentration in the solvent extract using a calibration curve derived from known standards.

Standard curves:

Calibration curves were prepared using SAE-30 motor oil, because the apparent equivalent carbon range matched that of the soil sample extracts. For the motor oil standards, 0.0250 g of SAE 30 motor oil was weighed out in a small beaker and rinsed into a 50-mL volumetric flask using MeCl. The flask was then filled to volume with methylene chloride, for a final solution with 5000-mg/L motor oil in MeCl. Standard dilutions were then prepared from the 5000-mg/L stock solution. A sample calibration curve is shown in Figure 3-1.

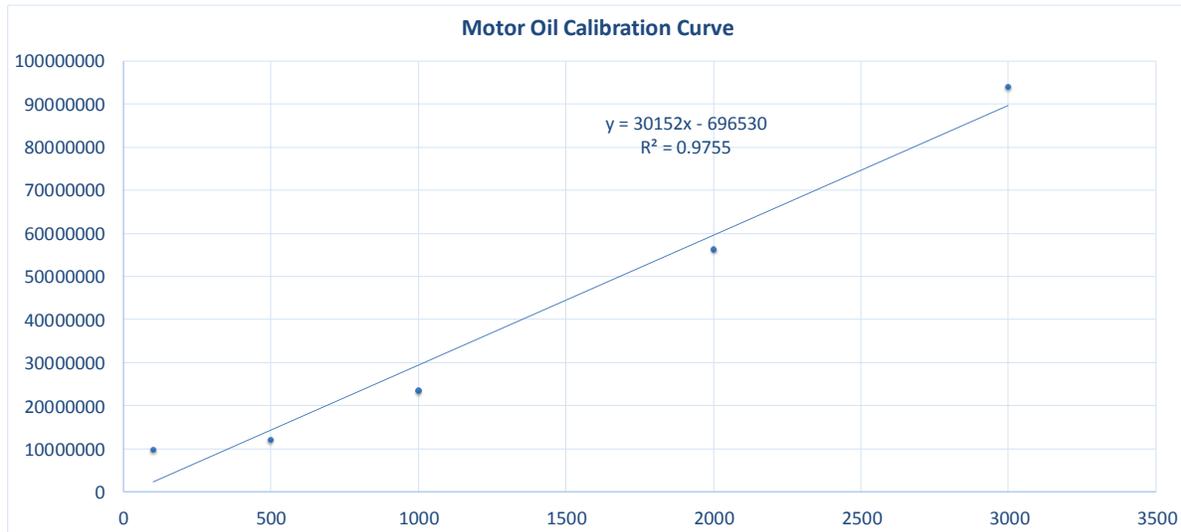


Figure 3-1. Sample calibration curve for TPH measurement in MeCl extracts.

3.3 Silica gel technique

The MeCl extracts from each soil sample (before concentrating) were run on a silica gel column as a preparatory method to remove polar compounds. Chromatographic-grade silica gel (100-200 mesh, Fisher Scientific S817-1) was baked overnight at 130°C and placed in a 10 in x 10.5 mm ID glass chromatographic column (Ace Glass, Inc 5906-05). After rinsing the column with MeCl, it was filled with MeCl and a glass wool plug was pushed into the bottom with a glass rod. The column was packed with 11.0 g \pm 0.1 g of activated silica gel as a slurry. The slurry was created by adding approximately 5 mL of methylene chloride. The slurry was transferred, with rinsing, into the column containing glass wool. The sample in MeCl was poured through the column, and the eluent collected in a glass flask. The sample was carefully transferred to a Turbovap® tube and concentrated using a Turbovap® nitrogen evaporation system in a room temperature (20 - 25°C) water bath to an approximate volume of 2 mL. The sample was transferred into a 10-mL graduated cylinder, and the volume was brought to 5 mL with additional MeCl. The samples were stored in the freezer and analyzed by GC/MS as described above.

4.0 Results

4.1 TPH analysis of five soil samples

Results of TPH analyses for duplicate soil samples in the Cal Poly Lab by GC/MS are compared to TPH results reported by EMAX using GC/FID in Table 4-1 (detailed results from EMAX are in Appendix A). High variability was observed between the Cal Poly duplicate analyses, with relative standard deviations ranging from 13 to 82%. The variation between Cal Poly TPH results and those of EMAX was even greater, with percent differences ranging from -5% to +256%. Note that the difference between TPH concentrations previously measured by Lancaster Laboratories (another commercial laboratory) and EMAX (as described in Section 2.4) were much greater than the differences between TPH concentrations measured by Cal Poly and EMAX. For Sample 1, the TPH concentration measured by EMAX was non-detect, but it was 56 and 208 mg/kg for replicate analyses at Cal Poly conducted on two different soil aliquots of Sample 1.

The high variability in measured TPH concentrations may be attributed to soil heterogeneity as well as inherent difficulties of measuring such low TPH concentrations. Soil Sample 1 contained small rocks about 2-8 mm in size, and the presence of these rocks could result in soil aliquots with varying amounts of fine soil for which TPH concentrations are expected to be highest. Also, what appeared to be small tar balls had been previously observed in bulk soil collected for the bioremediation and phytoremediation soil treatability studies. These small tar balls would be expected to cause large differences in TPH concentrations measured for samples containing tar balls vs. sample aliquots with no tar balls.

Several difficulties were encountered during the GC quantification of TPH at the low soil concentrations of these samples. First, the petroleum compounds appear to be of very high molecular weight, in the residual range oil (RRO) range (see for example Figure 4-1A below). Since the equivalent carbon range was so high, the baseline of the GC did not return to zero at the end of each run. This makes it very difficult to decide where to set the baseline for integration of total peak area for the unresolved peaks in the chromatogram. Second, the detector signal for the solvent (methylene chloride) was significant, causing a wide solvent shoulder extending 10 to 15 minutes into the chromatogram. Third, solvent blanks often exhibited peak areas similar to those of the low concentration samples and the low-concentration standards. Fourth, the r-squared for the standard curve was only about 0.97, which is lower than the value of 0.99 typically observed for standards with higher concentrations. At higher TPH concentrations all of these effects would be insignificant, but at very low TPH concentrations these effects could result in poor reproducibility and possibly even anomalous results.

**Table 4.1. TPH results from Cal Poly Lab (GC/MS)
compared to TPH results of EMAX commercial laboratory**

Sample Number	Sample ID	TPH Concentration (mg/kg)						Difference between Cal Poly and EMAX (%)	
		EMAX	Cal Poly Lab				Std. Dev.		Rel. Std. Dev. (%)
			Rep 1	Rep 2	Average	Std. Dev.			
1	5D-612	ND	208	56	132	108	82	+∞	
2	5D-885	50	212	41	127	121	95	+154	
3	01-BE-B	170	147	176	161	21	13	-5	
4	02-LS-C	17	34	87	60	37	62	+256	
5	18-B-A	190	219	316	268	69	26	+41	

4.2 Effect of silica gel cleanup on TPH concentrations

Chromatograms for GC/MS analysis of the five soil samples with and without silica gel cleanup are shown in Appendix B, Figures B-1 through B-5. There were no obvious specific peaks removed by the silica gel clean-up in these chromatograms. However, a more detailed analysis of peaks associated with NOM is given below in Section 4.3.

TPH concentrations measured with and without silica gel cleanup are shown in Table 4.1. For the EMAX analyses, the TPH concentrations were 5 to 40% lower after silica gel cleanup. This suggests that polar NOM may have been removed by the silica gel cleanup method, but this is difficult to prove based on the Cal Poly chromatograms in Figures 4-1 through 4-5. For the Cal Poly analyses, the silica gel cleanup gave mixed results, with somewhat higher TPH concentrations observed after silica gel cleanup for 3 out of the 5 samples. One Cal Poly sample was the same with and without silica gel cleanup, and one sample decreased in TPH concentration after silica gel cleanup.

Table 4.2. Effect of silica gel cleanup on measured TPH concentrations by EMAX and Cal Poly

Soil Sample	Soil Sample Location	TPH Concentration (mg/kg)			
		EMAX Results		Cal Poly Results	
		Before Silica	After Silica	Before Silica	After Silica
1	5D-612	-	-	208	209
2	5D-885	50	43	212	99
3	5B- 01-BE-B	170	150	147	168
4	5B-02-LS-C	17	10	34	101
5	5B-18-CB-A	190	180	219	262

4.3 Identification and quantification of NOM and petroleum compounds

Specific compounds eluting in the GC analyses of the soil samples with and without silica gel cleanup were identified using their MS spectra. The Agilent GC/MS software has a library of 250,000 compounds used to match mass spectra to the peaks identified in the chromatograms. The software provides an estimate of the probability of a good match between the compounds eluting from the GC column and the stored model compounds in the library. A summary of the compounds observed in each chromatogram is given in Table 4-3, and chemical structures of 64 different potential compounds are shown in Appendix C along with their mass spectra. Match probabilities are shown in Table 4.3. It is important to remember that the mass spectra are not necessarily perfect matches for specific compounds, but this analysis provides a general snapshot of the types of compounds detected in the soil samples which are being counted as part of the “TPH.”

Many of the compounds identified by their mass spectra were highly branched and cyclic hydrocarbons (Appendix C, Figures C- 13, 30, 33, 34, 39-42, 44, 45, 56-58, 60, 61 and 63). Such compounds are typical of RRO because these hydrocarbons are resistant to biodegradation. A variety of PAHs were also identified by their mass spectra (Appendix C, Figures C- 3, 12, 15-17, 20-22, 25, 26, 37 and 52). Many of the hydrocarbons identified were partially oxidized (Appendix C, Figures C- 2, 5, 14, 18, 19, 23, 24, 27-29, 31, 43, 62 and 64). There were also organic acids identified, such as n-decanoic acid (Figure C-35), stearic acid (Figure C-48), and oleic acid (Figure C-49). These organic acids could be naturally-occurring organic compounds from plant sources (NOM) or degradation products of hydrocarbons. Other oxidized compounds observed which could be considered NOM include nonanal (Figure C-46) and an oxalic acid derivative (Figure C-50). There were also some heterocyclic compounds identified (Figures C- 4, 6, 8, 51, 53 and 54), but these were relatively rare. A couple of silicon-based compounds were observed (Figures C- 9-11) which may be coming from the column packing.

From the summary of compounds found in Table 4.3, it can be seen that only a few compounds, such as oleic acid, were removed by the silica gel cleanup. Oxalic acid derivatives were partially removed by the silica gel cleanup. PAHs and branched/cyclic hydrocarbons were not removed by the silica gel cleanup. It can be cautiously concluded that the silica gel cleanup removes part of the NOM, but not all of it, and that compounds typically associated with TPH, such as hydrocarbons and PAHs are not removed.

The quantitative contribution of NOM to the total TPH measured was estimated by integrating peaks of compounds thought to be NOM. About 3 to 8% of the TPH was attributed to NOM using this method (Table 4.4). For Soil Samples 1-3, the silica gel cleanup did not reduce the contributions of NOM, but for Soil Samples 4 and 5 all of the NOM appeared to be removed by the silica gel cleanup.

Table 4-3. Summary of common compounds identified in soil extracts using mass spectroscopy – with and without silica gel cleanup. Figure numbers refer to mass spectra and chemical structures shown in Appendix C.

Sample 1, no Silica Gel Prep				Sample 1, Silica Cleanup			
Elution Time	Compound	Concentration (mg/kg)	Probability (%)	Elution Time	Compound	Concentration (mg/kg)	Probability (%)
22.33	Sulfurous Acid/Oxalic Acid	5.64	8.5	6.14	Cyclopentane	1.73	55
23.04, 23.85	Oxalic Acid	6.67	30	6.64	Branched Cyclohexane (Figure C-33)	0.32	26.3
25.41	Large oxidized compound (Figures C-58, C-62)	6.03	35	7.3, 8.89, 10.2	Branched Heptane (Figures C-39, 40, 63)	3.38	55
27.1	28-Nor-1 7B(H)-hopane	9.12	53.3	22.33	Oxalic Acid	0.81	15
27.42	Large Organic Compound, Cl poss (Figure C-59)	6.66	10	23.85	Branched Tetracontane/ Oxalic Acid	1.06	6/ 3.62
28.4-32.4	Large Cyclic Organics, Cl & Br poss (Figure C-57)	46.53	5 to 10	25.4	Large Oxidized Organic (Figures 58, 62)	0.85	50
				27.1	28-Nor-1 7B(H)-hopane	3.29	15
				27.4	Heptacosane	2.52	16
Sample 2, no Silica Gel Prep				Sample 2, Silica Cleanup			
Elution Time	Compound	Concentration (mg/kg)	Probability (%)	Elution Time	Compound	Concentration (mg/kg)	Probability (%)
6.6	C8H17N2O (Figure C-6)	7.32	91.8	7.3	Branched Heptane (Figures C-39, 40, 63)	7.93	35
9.59	Decamethyl Cyclopentasiloxane	7.25	63.1	9.59	Quinolinedione	6.00	79
28.1	Oxalic Acid	10.43	50	22.35, 24.7, 27.4	Oxalic Acid	7.13	30
29.48	Bacchotricuneatinc	7.39	50				
23.5-30	Piperidinone	10.73	10 to 25				
Sample 3, no Silica Gel Prep				Sample 3, Silica Cleanup			
Elution Time	Compound	Concentration (mg/kg)	Probability (%)	Elution Time	Compound	Concentration (mg/kg)	Probability (%)
9.59	Chloro ethanol acetate	8.17	25	7.3, 8.89, 10.2, 11.4	Branched Heptane	7.81	55
18.67	Cyclic Octatomic Sulfur	8.32	98.3	18.67	Cyclic Octatomic Sulfur	5.68	97
18.81, 19.24	Pyrene	11.12	65	18.81, 19.24	Pyrene/ Fluoranthene	9.98	50
21.65-21.75	PAHs	10.55	50	21.65-21.75	PAHs (Figures C-3, 15, 16, 17, 20, etc.)	10.86	75
24.0-25.1	Benzo-k-fluoranthene	11.13	33	24-25.1	Benzo-k-Fluoranthene	10.18	35
26.5-28.5	oxalic acid/octadecanoic acid	13.50	10 to 20				
Sample 4, no Silica Gel Prep				Sample 4, Silica Cleanup			
Elution Time	Compound	Concentration (mg/kg)	Probability (%)	Elution Time	Compound	Concentration (mg/kg)	Probability (%)
21.69	2,4,6,8 Tetramethyl-Undecene	3.79	44.4	7.29	Heptane, 2,2,4,6,6-pentamethyl	8.96	42.3
22.34	Oleic Acid	3.92	9.71	7.87, 8.18	Methylene Chloride	6.07	80
24	Benzo-e-pyrene	3.88	34.2	8.89, 10.19, 11.4	Dimethyl Heptane	6.74	30.6
24.71, 24.85, 25.11	Benzo-k-fluoranthene/Perylene	5.25	30.5	17.08	Phthalic Acid	5.88	~40
28.4-30.22	Benzo-ghi-perylene	6.20	65.6-77.1	17.87-17.9	Ethaneperoxic Acid	5.85	76.2
				22.33	Hexylundecylester Sulfurous Acid	6.00	49-54.5
				23.99-25.11	Benzo-k-fluoranthene	17.44	75.5
				29.0-30.2	Benzo-ghi-perylene	11.23	67.8
				26.5-27.1	Cyclic hydroxy-ethyl compound	7.26	50
Sample 5, no Silica Gel Prep				Sample 5, Silica Cleanup			
Elution Time	Compound	Concentration (mg/kg)	Probability (%)	Elution Time	Compound	Concentration (mg/kg)	Probability (%)
16.47	Fluorene	7.70	56	7.3	Branched Heptane (Figures 39, 40, 63)	7.96	36.7
18.82, 19.24	Fluoranthene/Pyrene	13.79	50	16.47	Fluorene	6.13	54
21.65, 21.71	Triphenylene (PAHs)	23.24	40	18.82, 19.24	Pyrene/ fluoranthene	9.58	50
24-25.1	Benzo-k-fluoranthene	28.86	20	21.65-21.75	PAHs (Figures 3, 15, 16, 17, 20, etc.)	21.57	40
29-30.2	Benzo-ghi-pyrylene	9.99	60-70	24, 24.7, 24.85	Benzo-k-fluoranthene	23.43	50
				29-30.2	Benzo-ghi-perylene	9.18	60-70

Table 4.4. Estimated Contribution of NOM to Measured TPH of the Soil Samples With and Without Silica Gel Cleanup.

Soil Sample	Without Silica Cleanup		With Silica Cleanup	
	Concentration NOM (mg/kg)	Percent of TPH	Concentration NOM (mg/kg)	Percent of TPH
1	9.3	4.03	9.0	4.02
2	16.8	6.89	9.0	7.14
3	9.1	4.95	6.6	3.45
4	4.0	7.94	0.0	0
5	7.4	2.93	0.0	0

4.4 Site-wide implications

Important implications of this study which are applicable to interpretation of site-wide TPH soil concentrations can be drawn from the results of the silica gel cleanup investigation and the general problems identified for TPH analysis of Area IV soils with low TPH concentrations. Results of this study show that the silica gel cleanup is an appropriate tool for increasing the accuracy of TPH measurements. Even more significant are the findings that accurate measurement of TPH concentrations is very difficult at low concentrations.

The silica gel cleanup used by EMAX for many TPH analyses site-wide can significantly lower TPH concentrations. Based on the GC/MS analyses reported here, this cleanup technique is appropriate because it appears to remove only polar organic compounds and not PAHs or petroleum hydrocarbons. Further, these results suggest that the removal of such polar compounds may not be complete, and therefore actual TPH concentrations should be even lower than those determined with the silica gel cleanup.

The GC/MS chromatograms show that the residual petroleum compounds in Area IV soils exhibit very high molecular weight consistent with residual-range organics (RRO). The RRO is similar to asphalt (bitumen). Such high molecular weight material gives GC signals outside the normal C-8 to C-40 equivalent carbon range, and this complicates TPH measurement because it is difficult to integrate the total unresolved complex mixture when the final signal is not zero – this is because it is difficult to decide what background level to use for an integrating baseline. See for example the chromatogram for Sample 1 (Appendix B, Figure B-1A) which shows a relatively high GC signal at the end of the GC run.

Setting TPH clean-up levels near background levels is problematic because of the inherent difficulties of measuring TPH concentrations near background concentrations. At these low TPH concentrations, effects such as drifting baselines, TPH in sample blanks, and solvent fronts become significant. These effects are ordinarily insignificant when measuring higher TPH concentrations. As described in Section 2.1, clean-up levels for RRO in the U.S. vary from

99 mg/kg in Texas to 10,000 mg/kg in Utah (ADEC 2013). States typically set their cleanup goals at 5,000 mg/kg for soils. Thus, the look-up table values for TPH at Area IV are about 20 times lower than the lowest state standard and 1,000 times lower than typical values.

Another observation from the bioremediation study is that the petroleum compounds sometimes appear to be concentrated in small tar balls in the soil as opposed to homogeneously dispersed in the soil. Such tar balls were observed in the bulk soil collected from Area IV for the bioremediation study using laboratory microcosms as well as the phytoremediation study. The presence of these tar balls would be expected to cause high variability of TPH measurements because one subsample may contain a tar ball while another does not.

5.0 Conclusions

The GC/MS spectral analyses suggest that the remaining TPH contamination of Area IV soils consists of high molecular weight hydrocarbons as expected for RRO or asphalt. These hydrocarbons are mostly highly-branched and cyclic hydrocarbons which are known to be slow to biodegrade. PAHs are also present in the soils, as well as some heterocyclic compounds. Many of the branched hydrocarbons and PAHs appeared to be partially oxidized. Also detected in the soil samples were organic acids such as oleic acid and oxalic acid, suggestive of NOM. Such compounds also can be degradation products of hydrocarbon biodegradation. This NOM fraction accounted for about 5 to 8% of the total TPH. NOM appeared to account for a larger fraction of the TPH in our preliminary analysis of a soil from the bioremediation microcosm experiment.

Silica gel cleanup by EMAX Laboratory removed 5 to 40% of the TPH in the five soil samples. Mixed results were obtained in the Cal Poly lab, with silica gel cleanup actually increasing the TPH for three of the five samples. The silica gel cleanup was found to remove some of the polar organic compounds, but not all of them. Thus, the silica gel approach may underestimate the contribution of NOM to TPH measurement. PAHs and large branched hydrocarbons were not removed by the silica gel cleanup.

An important observation during this study is that it is difficult to accurately quantify TPH at the very low soil TPH concentrations of the Area IV soils used in this study (100 to 300 mg/kg). Reliable TPH measurement near background TPH levels or near the 5 mg/kg look-up table value for Area IV would be nearly impossible. At these very low TPH concentrations several factors can significantly impact the calculation of TPH concentrations from GC data, making the calculated concentrations unreliable. TPH concentrations are calculated by integrating the area under numerous overlapping peaks, and thus a baseline has to be drawn underneath the peaks for the integration. Drifting baselines, non-zero signal at the end of the elution time, and non-zero blanks all can make the calculation of TPH inaccurate at low TPH concentrations. At higher TPH concentrations, these effects become much less significant.

The look-up table value published by the DTSC for TPH is 5 mg/kg, which is 20 times lower than any state standard for RRO, and 1,000 times lower than typical values used by many states. Most states have now gone to risk-based clean-up goals (ADEC, 2011). It is beyond the scope of this study to argue for a change in clean-up goals, however, this study has demonstrated that there are clearly technical problems with measuring TPH concentrations at such low levels.

6.0 References

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Appendix A: Detailed EMAX TPH results for five soil samples showing equivalent carbon ranges.

All analyses conducted on April 22, 2015.

Table A-1: EMAX results for TPH analyses without silica gel clean-up

Soil Sample ID	Percent moisture	Silica Cleanup?	Equivalent Carbon Range	TPH Concentration (mg/kg)
SSFL-EFH-SO-612-SA5D-0.5-1.0	7.7	NO	(C12-C14)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-612-SA5D-0.5-1.0	7.7	NO	(C15-C20)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-612-SA5D-0.5-1.0	7.7	NO	(C21-C30)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-612-SA5D-0.5-1.0	7.7	NO	(C30-C40)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-612-SA5D-0.5-1.0	7.7	NO	(C8-C11)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-612-SA5D-0.5-1.0	7.7	NO	TOTAL (C8-C40)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-885-SA5D-0.5-1.0	4.7	NO	(C12-C14)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-885-SA5D-0.5-1.0	4.7	NO	(C15-C20)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-885-SA5D-0.5-1.0	4.7	NO	(C21-C30)	13
SSFL-EFH-SO-885-SA5D-0.5-1.0	4.7	NO	(C30-C40)	37
SSFL-EFH-SO-885-SA5D-0.5-1.0	4.7	NO	(C8-C11)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-885-SA5D-0.5-1.0	4.7	NO	TOTAL (C8-C40)	50
SSFL-EFH-SO-01-BE-B-SA5B-0.5-1.0	3.4	NO	(C12-C14)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-01-BE-B-SA5B-0.5-1.0	3.4	NO	(C15-C20)	2.9
SSFL-EFH-SO-01-BE-B-SA5B-0.5-1.0	3.4	NO	(C21-C30)	77
SSFL-EFH-SO-01-BE-B-SA5B-0.5-1.0	3.4	NO	(C30-C40)	91
SSFL-EFH-SO-01-BE-B-SA5B-0.5-1.0	3.4	NO	(C8-C11)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-01-BE-B-SA5B-0.5-1.0	3.4	NO	TOTAL (C8-C40)	170
SSFL-EFH-SO-02-LS-C-SA5B-0.5-1.0	8.1	NO	(C12-C14)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-02-LS-C-SA5B-0.5-1.0	8.1	NO	(C15-C20)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-02-LS-C-SA5B-0.5-1.0	8.1	NO	(C21-C30)	4
SSFL-EFH-SO-02-LS-C-SA5B-0.5-1.0	8.1	NO	(C30-C40)	13
SSFL-EFH-SO-02-LS-C-SA5B-0.5-1.0	8.1	NO	(C8-C11)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-02-LS-C-SA5B-0.5-1.0	8.1	NO	TOTAL (C8-C40)	17
SSFL-EFH-SO-18-CB-A-SA5B-0.5-1.0	2.9	NO	(C12-C14)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-18-CB-A-SA5B-0.5-1.0	2.9	NO	(C15-C20)	7.8
SSFL-EFH-SO-18-CB-A-SA5B-0.5-1.0	2.9	NO	(C21-C30)	100
SSFL-EFH-SO-18-CB-A-SA5B-0.5-1.0	2.9	NO	(C30-C40)	83
SSFL-EFH-SO-18-CB-A-SA5B-0.5-1.0	2.9	NO	(C8-C11)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-18-CB-A-SA5B-0.5-1.0	2.9	NO	TOTAL (C8-C40)	190

Table A-2: EMAX results for TPH analyses with silica gel clean-up

Soil Sample ID	Percent moisture	Silica Cleanup?	Equivalent Carbon Range	TPH Concentration (mg/kg)
SSFL-EFH-SO-612-SA5D-0.5-1.0	7.7	YES	(C12-C14)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-612-SA5D-0.5-1.0	7.7	YES	(C15-C20)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-612-SA5D-0.5-1.0	7.7	YES	(C21-C30)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-612-SA5D-0.5-1.0	7.7	YES	(C30-C40)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-612-SA5D-0.5-1.0	7.7	YES	(C8-C11)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-612-SA5D-0.5-1.0	7.7	YES	TOTAL (C8-C40)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-885-SA5D-0.5-1.0	4.7	YES	(C12-C14)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-885-SA5D-0.5-1.0	4.7	YES	(C15-C20)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-885-SA5D-0.5-1.0	4.7	YES	(C21-C30)	21
SSFL-EFH-SO-885-SA5D-0.5-1.0	4.7	YES	(C30-C40)	22
SSFL-EFH-SO-885-SA5D-0.5-1.0	4.7	YES	(C8-C11)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-885-SA5D-0.5-1.0	4.7	YES	TOTAL (C8-C40)	43
SSFL-EFH-SO-01-BE-B-SA5B-0.5-1.0	3.4	YES	(C12-C14)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-01-BE-B-SA5B-0.5-1.0	3.4	YES	(C15-C20)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-01-BE-B-SA5B-0.5-1.0	3.4	YES	(C21-C30)	73
SSFL-EFH-SO-01-BE-B-SA5B-0.5-1.0	3.4	YES	(C30-C40)	73
SSFL-EFH-SO-01-BE-B-SA5B-0.5-1.0	3.4	YES	(C8-C11)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-01-BE-B-SA5B-0.5-1.0	3.4	YES	TOTAL (C8-C40)	150
SSFL-EFH-SO-02-LS-C-SA5B-0.5-1.0	8.1	YES	(C12-C14)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-02-LS-C-SA5B-0.5-1.0	8.1	YES	(C15-C20)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-02-LS-C-SA5B-0.5-1.0	8.1	YES	(C21-C30)	3.3
SSFL-EFH-SO-02-LS-C-SA5B-0.5-1.0	8.1	YES	(C30-C40)	6.9
SSFL-EFH-SO-02-LS-C-SA5B-0.5-1.0	8.1	YES	(C8-C11)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-02-LS-C-SA5B-0.5-1.0	8.1	YES	TOTAL (C8-C40)	10
SSFL-EFH-SO-18-CB-A-SA5B-0.5-1.0	2.9	YES	(C12-C14)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-18-CB-A-SA5B-0.5-1.0	2.9	YES	(C15-C20)	7.2
SSFL-EFH-SO-18-CB-A-SA5B-0.5-1.0	2.9	YES	(C21-C30)	82
SSFL-EFH-SO-18-CB-A-SA5B-0.5-1.0	2.9	YES	(C30-C40)	86
SSFL-EFH-SO-18-CB-A-SA5B-0.5-1.0	2.9	YES	(C8-C11)	
SSFL-EFH-SO-18-CB-A-SA5B-0.5-1.0	2.9	YES	TOTAL (C8-C40)	180

Appendix B. Cal Poly chromatograms of soil extracts with and without silica gel cleanup

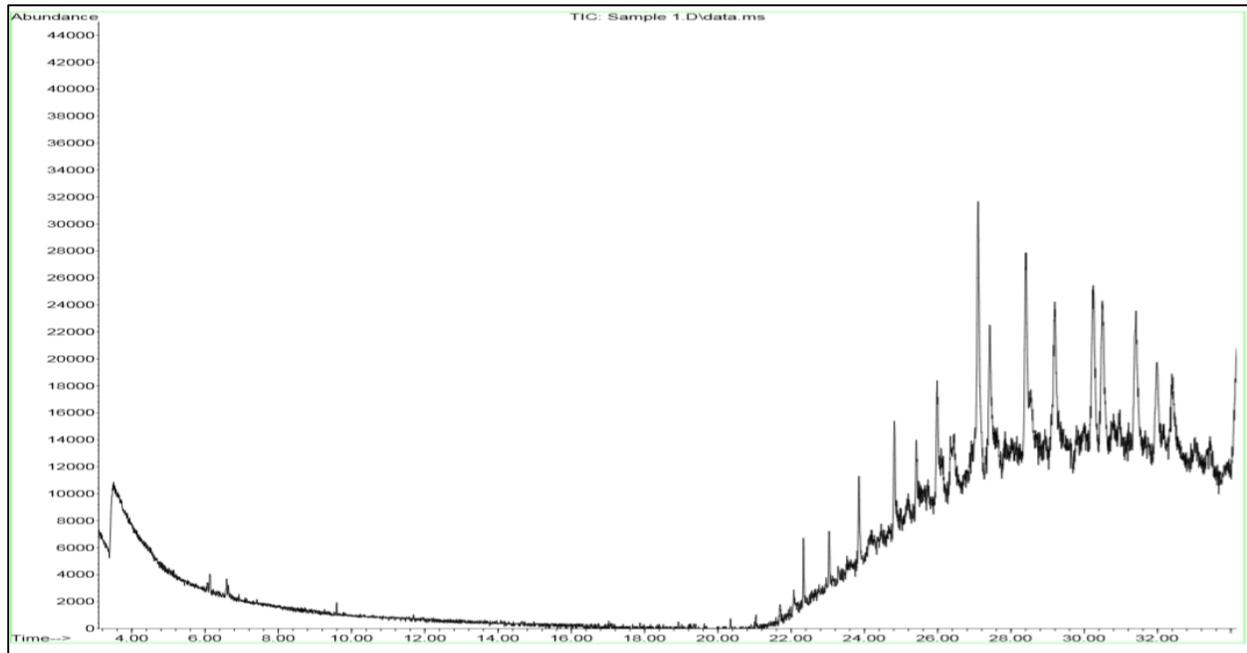


Figure B-1A: Sample 1 (5D-612) with no silica gel prep.

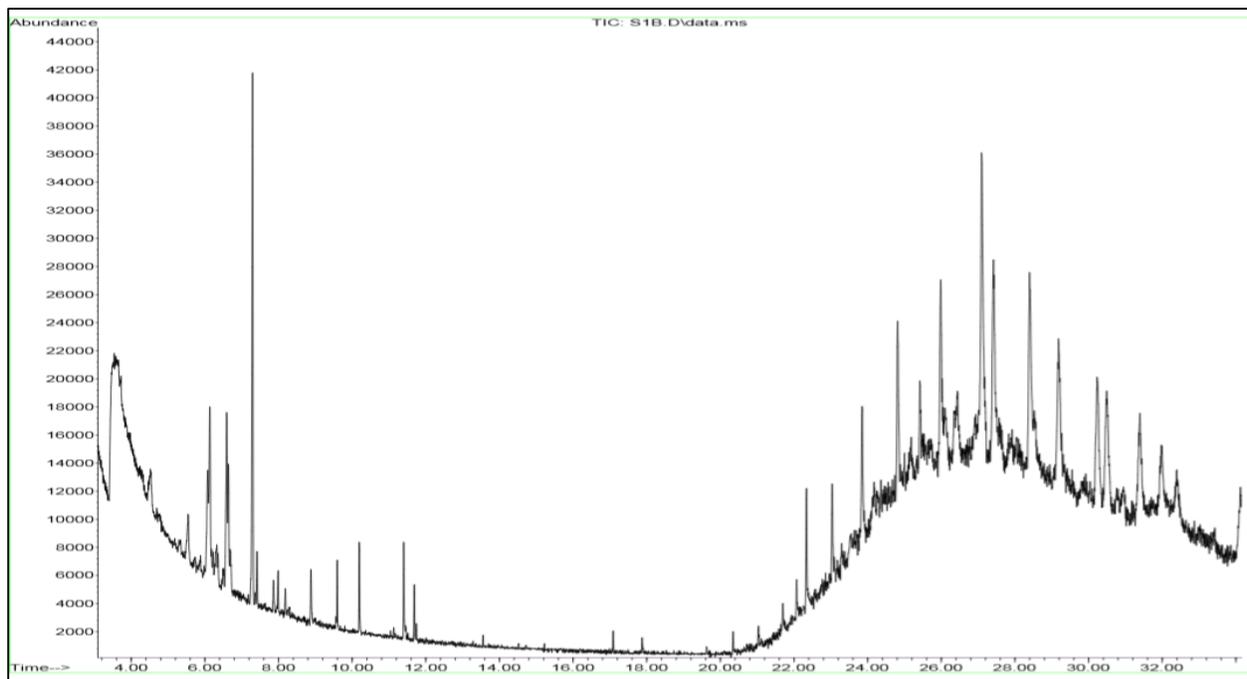


Figure B-1B: Sample 1 (5D-612) with silica gel prep.

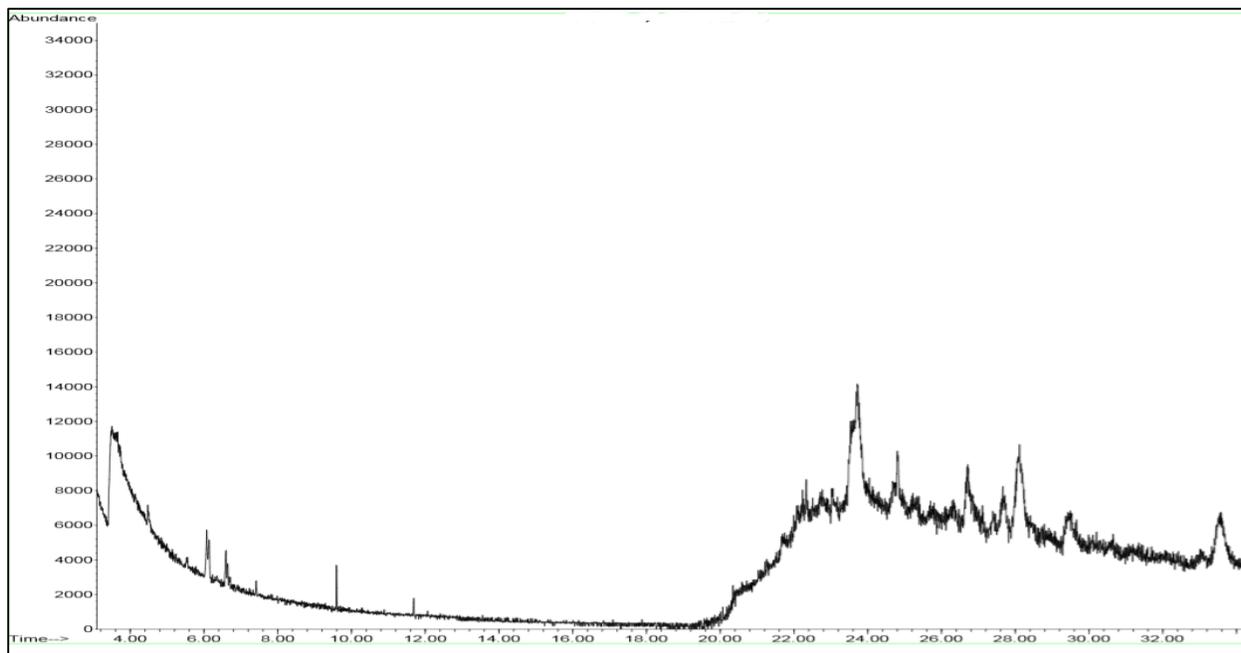


Figure B-2A: Sample 2 (5D-885) without silica gel prep.

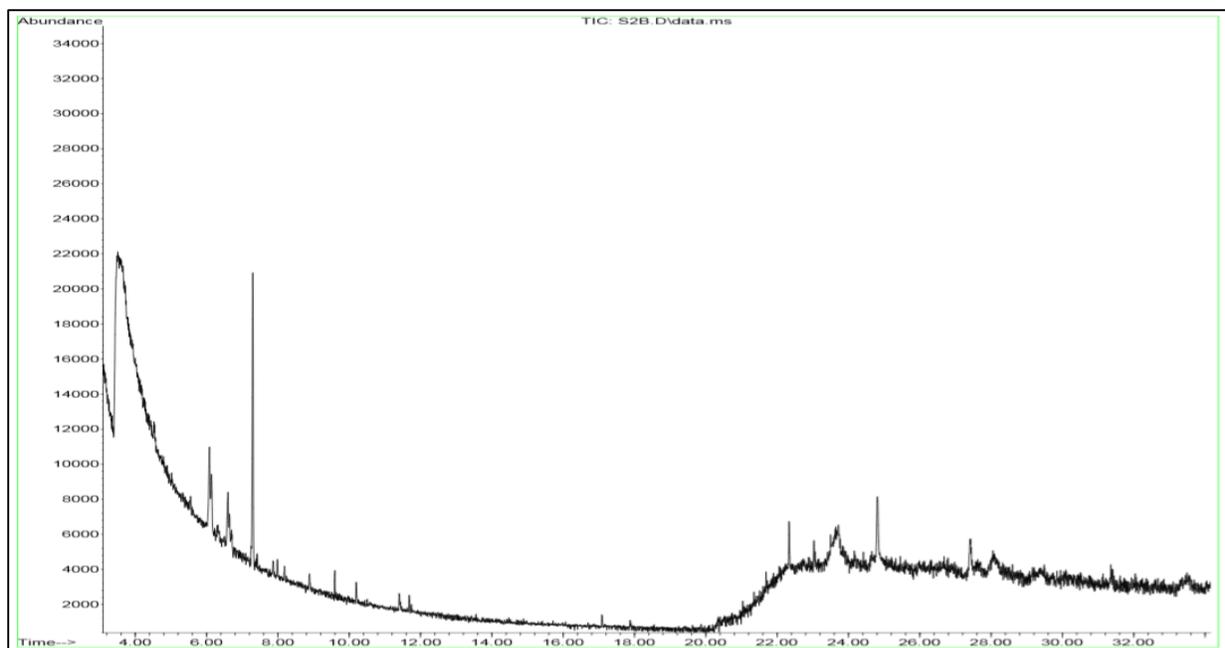


Figure B-2B: Sample 2 (5D-885) with silica gel prep.

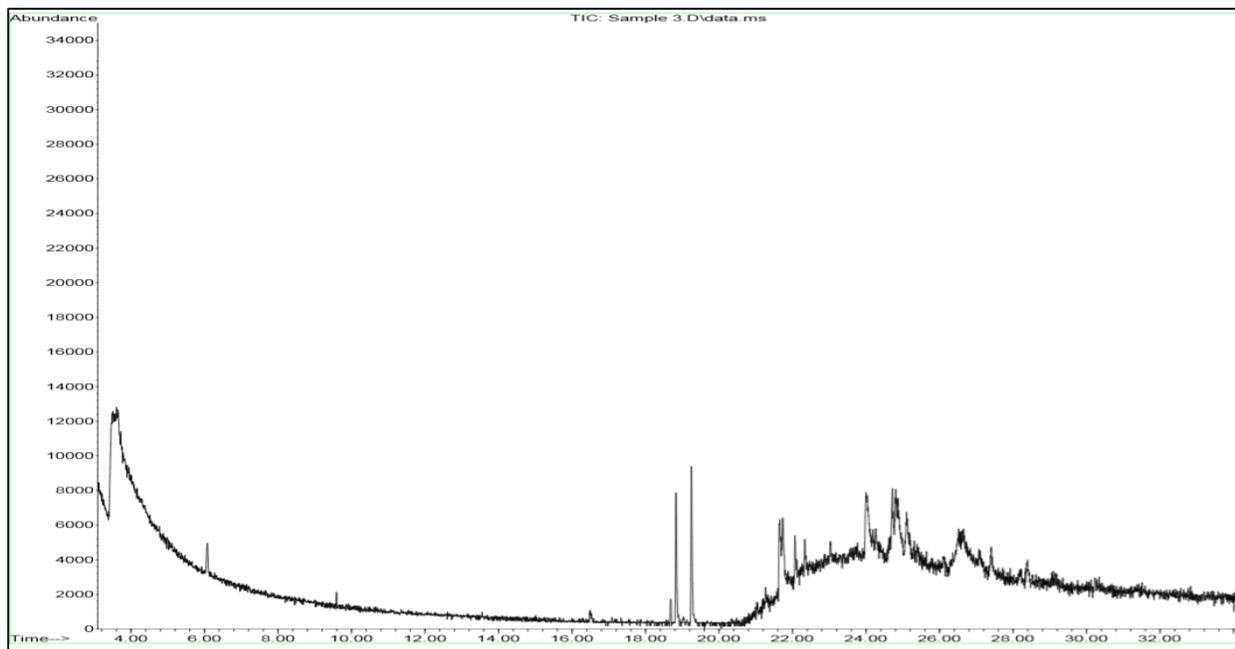


Figure B-3A: Sample 3 (01-BE-B) without silica gel prep.

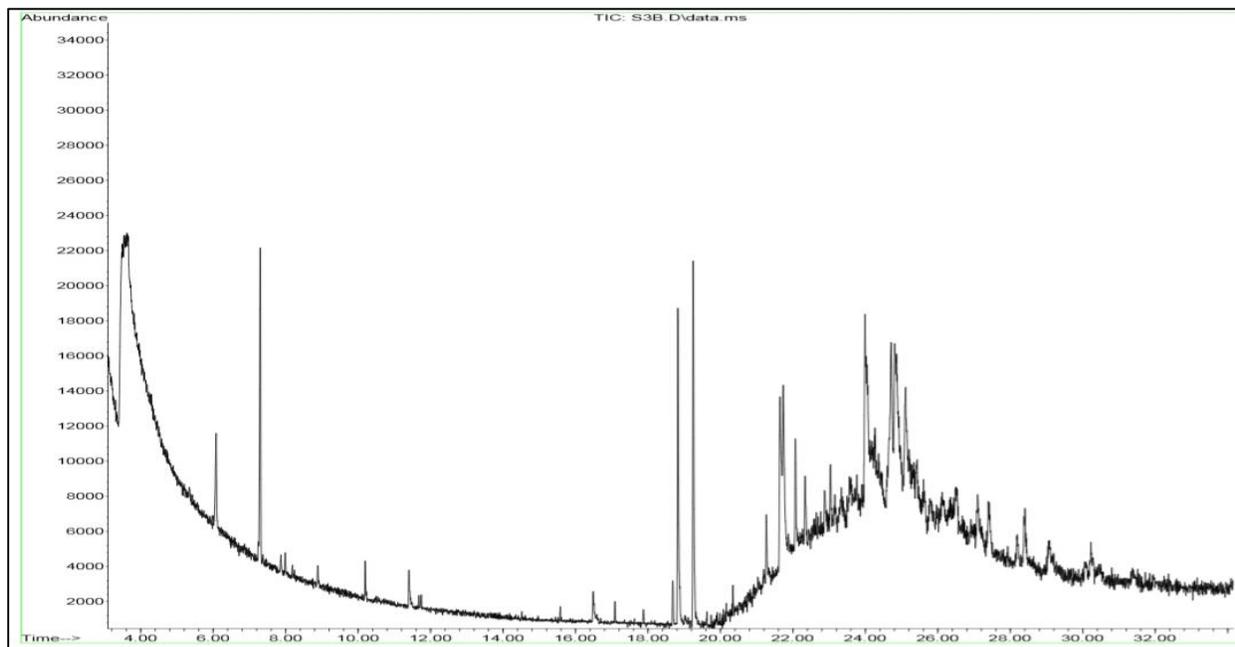


Figure B-3B: Sample 3 (01-BE-B) with silica gel prep.

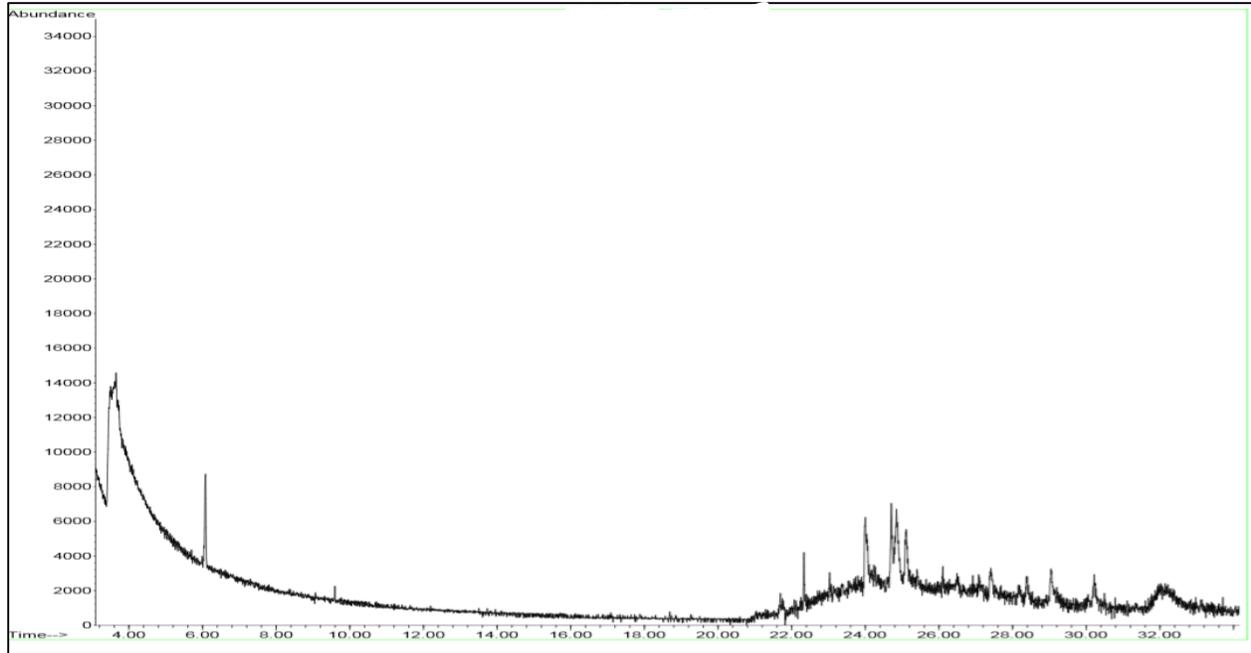


Figure B-4A: Sample 4 (02-LS-C) without silica gel prep.

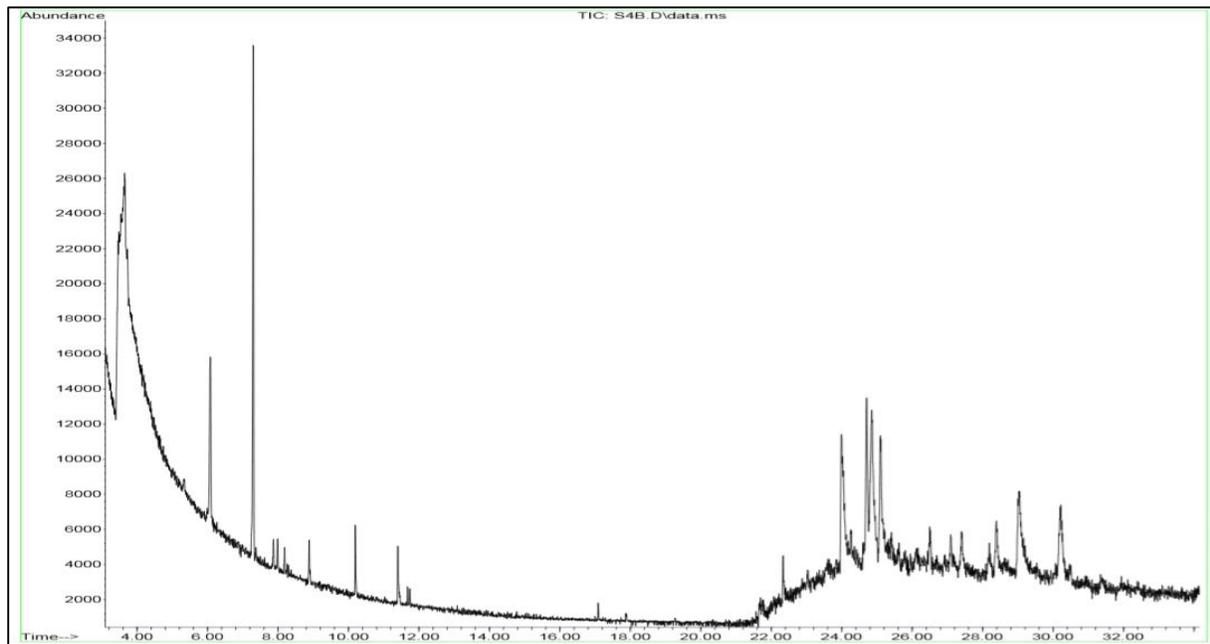


Figure B-4B: Sample 4 (02-LS-C) with silica gel prep.

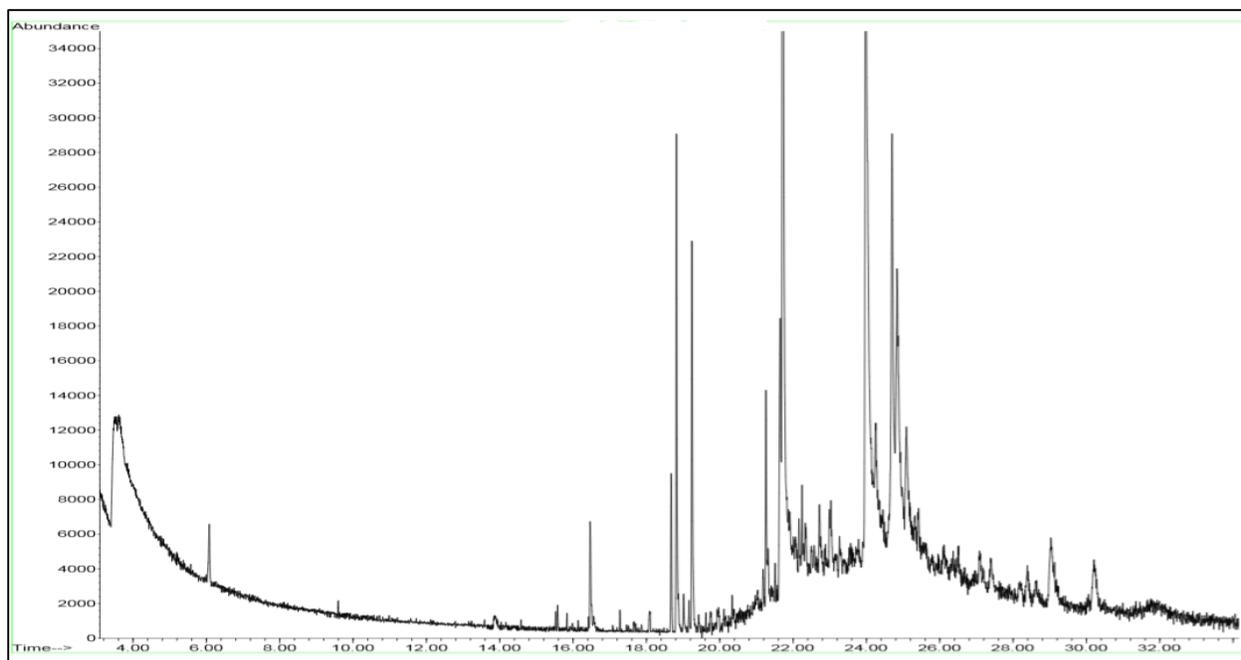


Figure B-5A: Sample 5 (18-B-A) without silica gel prep.

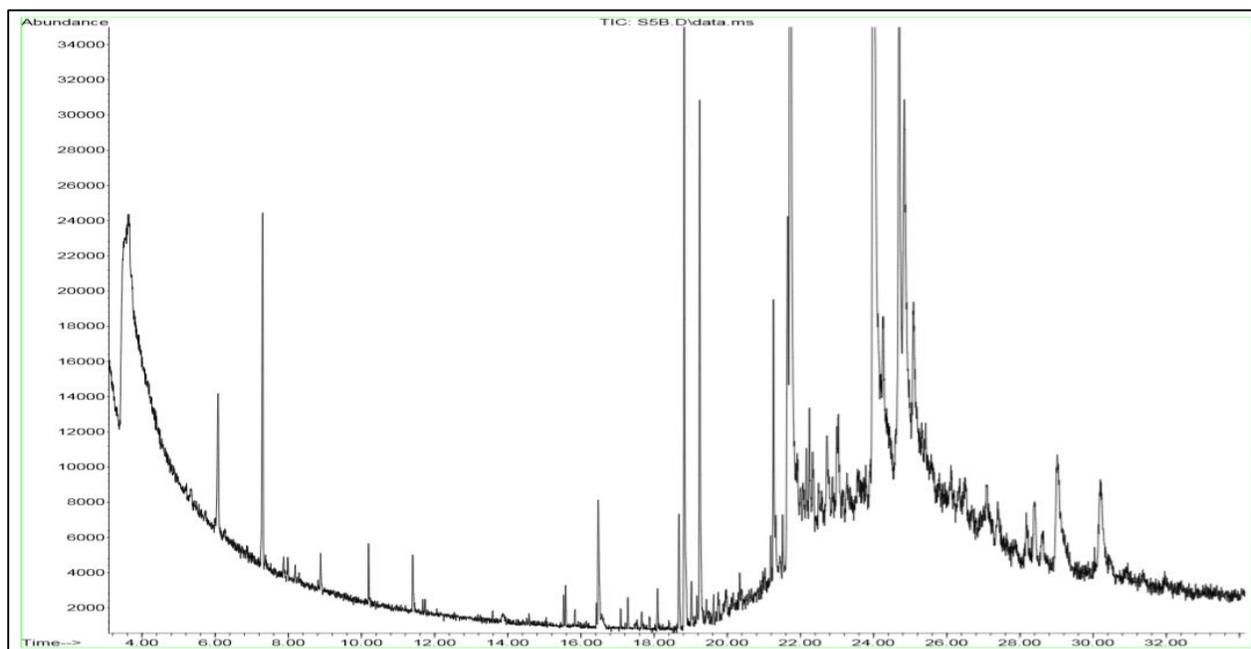


Figure B-5B: Sample 5 (18-B-A) with silica gel prep.

Appendix C. Mass spectral identification of specific compounds in the soil samples.

Appendix: Compound Figures

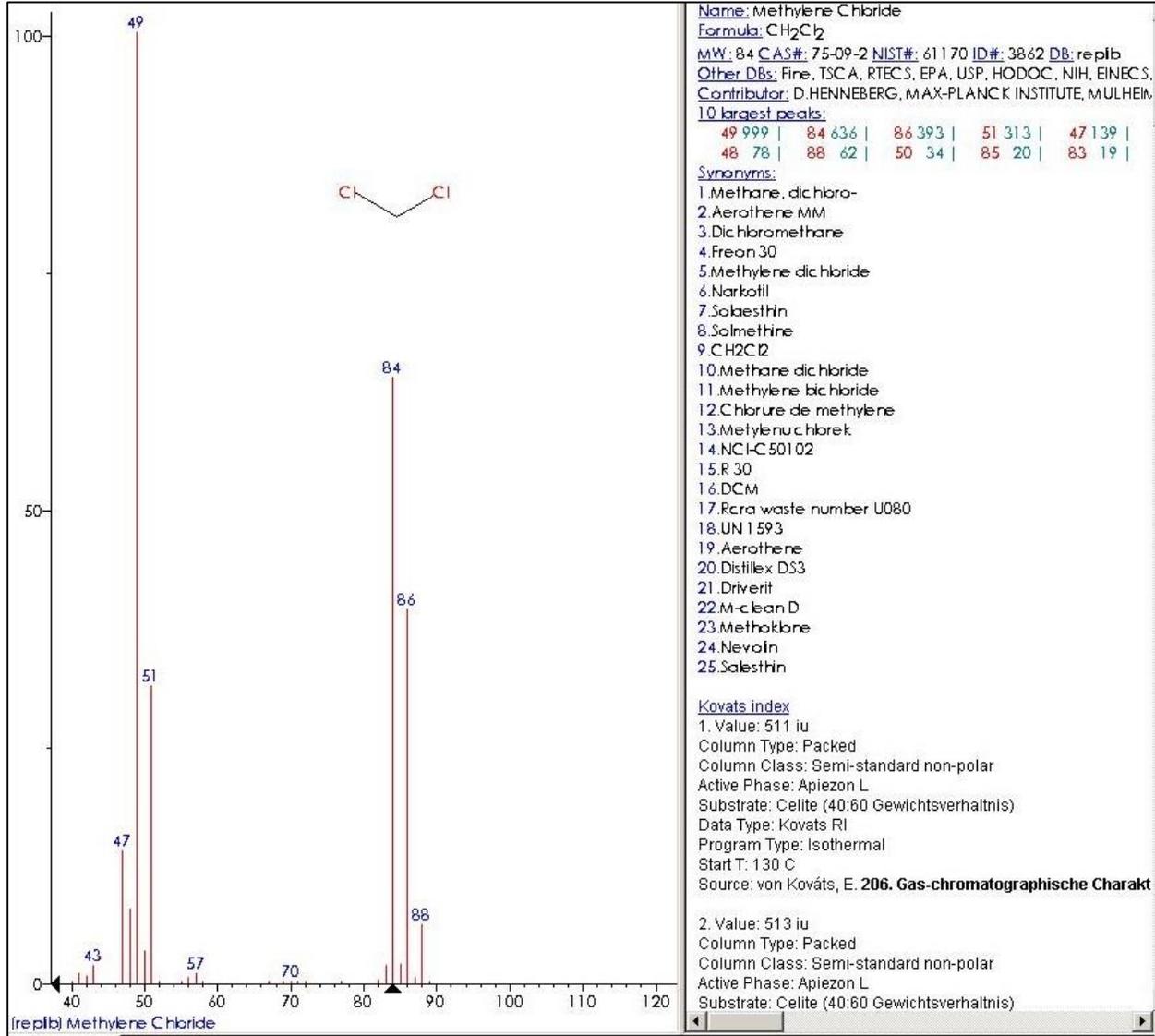


Figure C-1

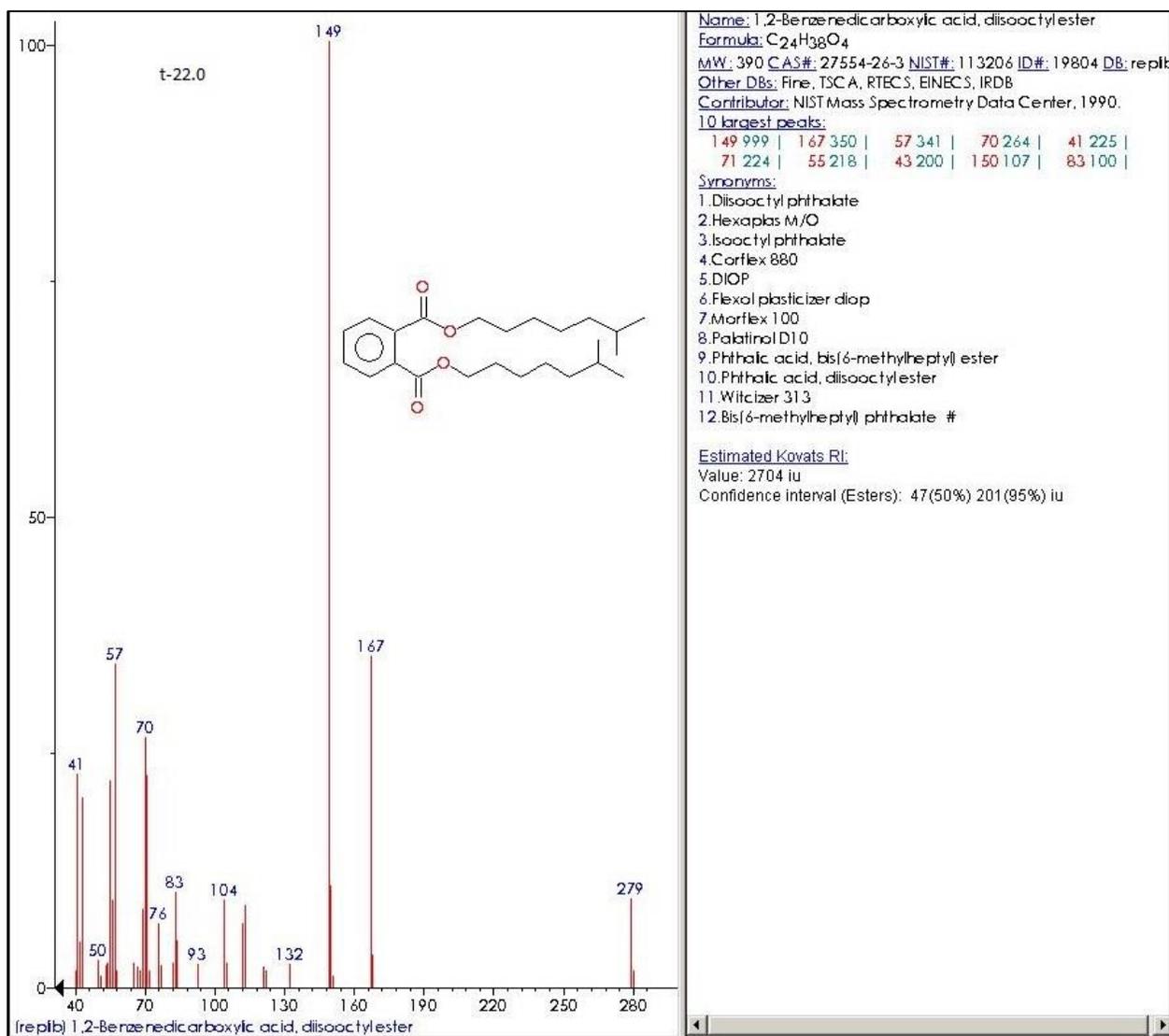


Figure C-2

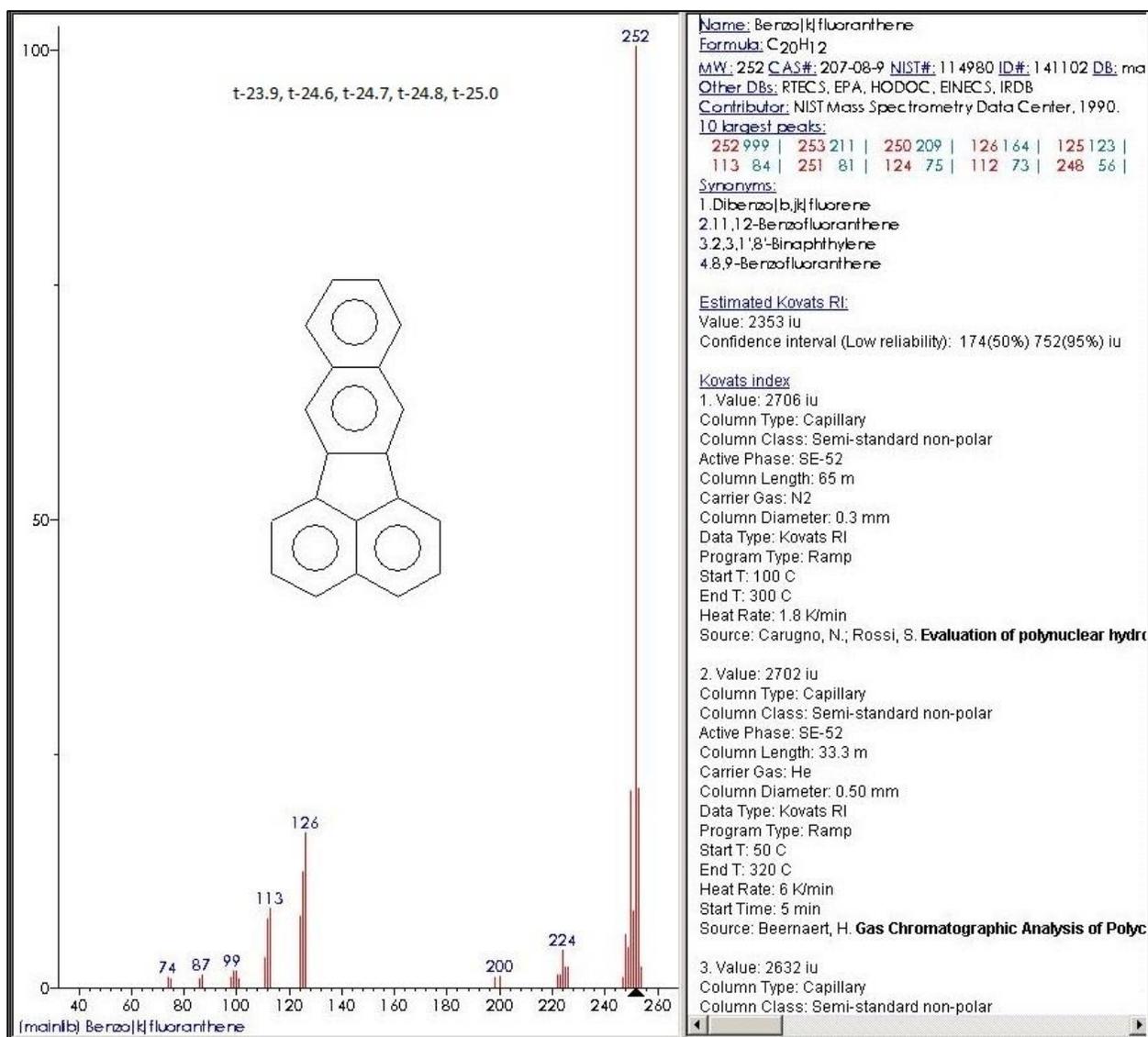


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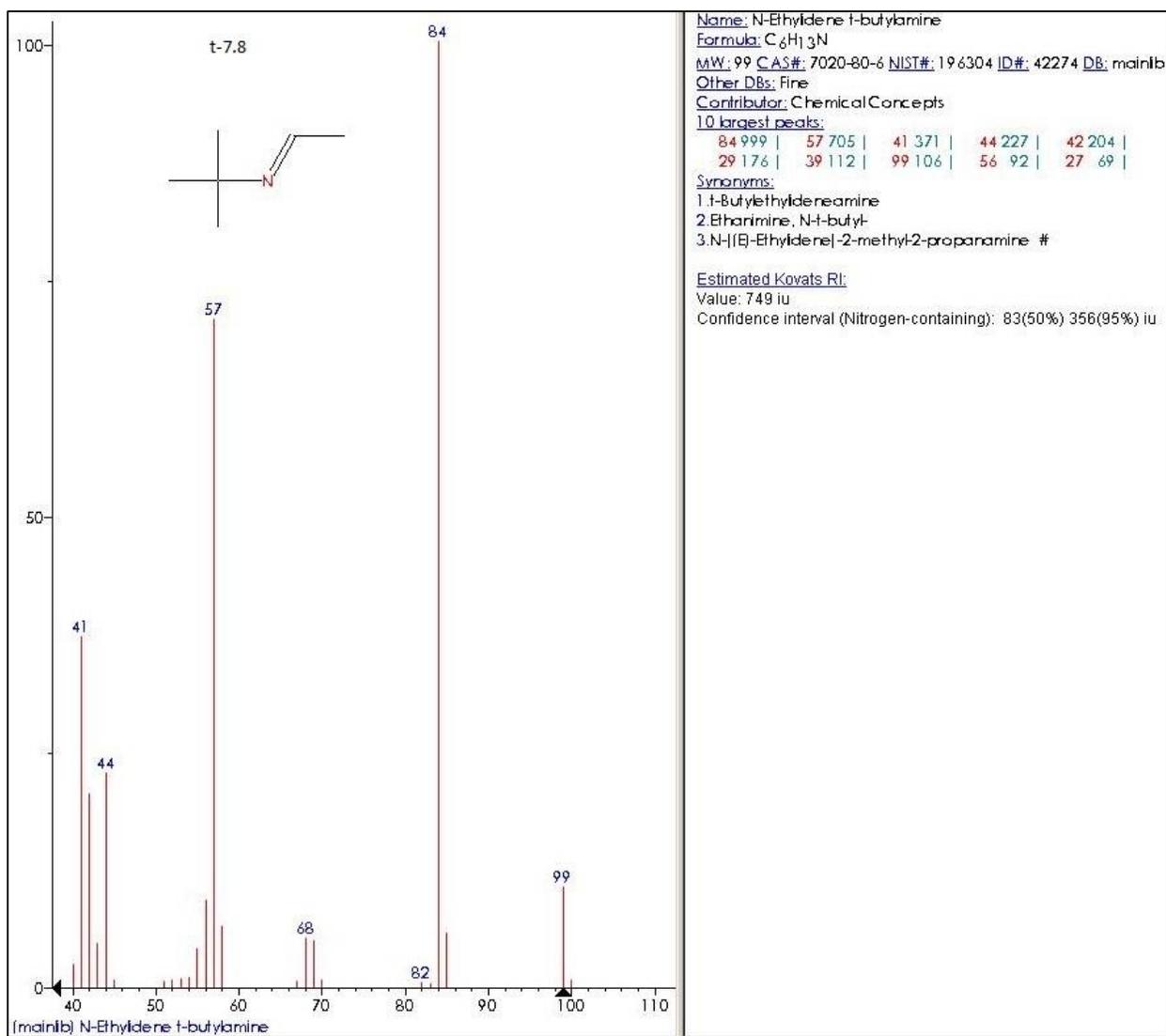


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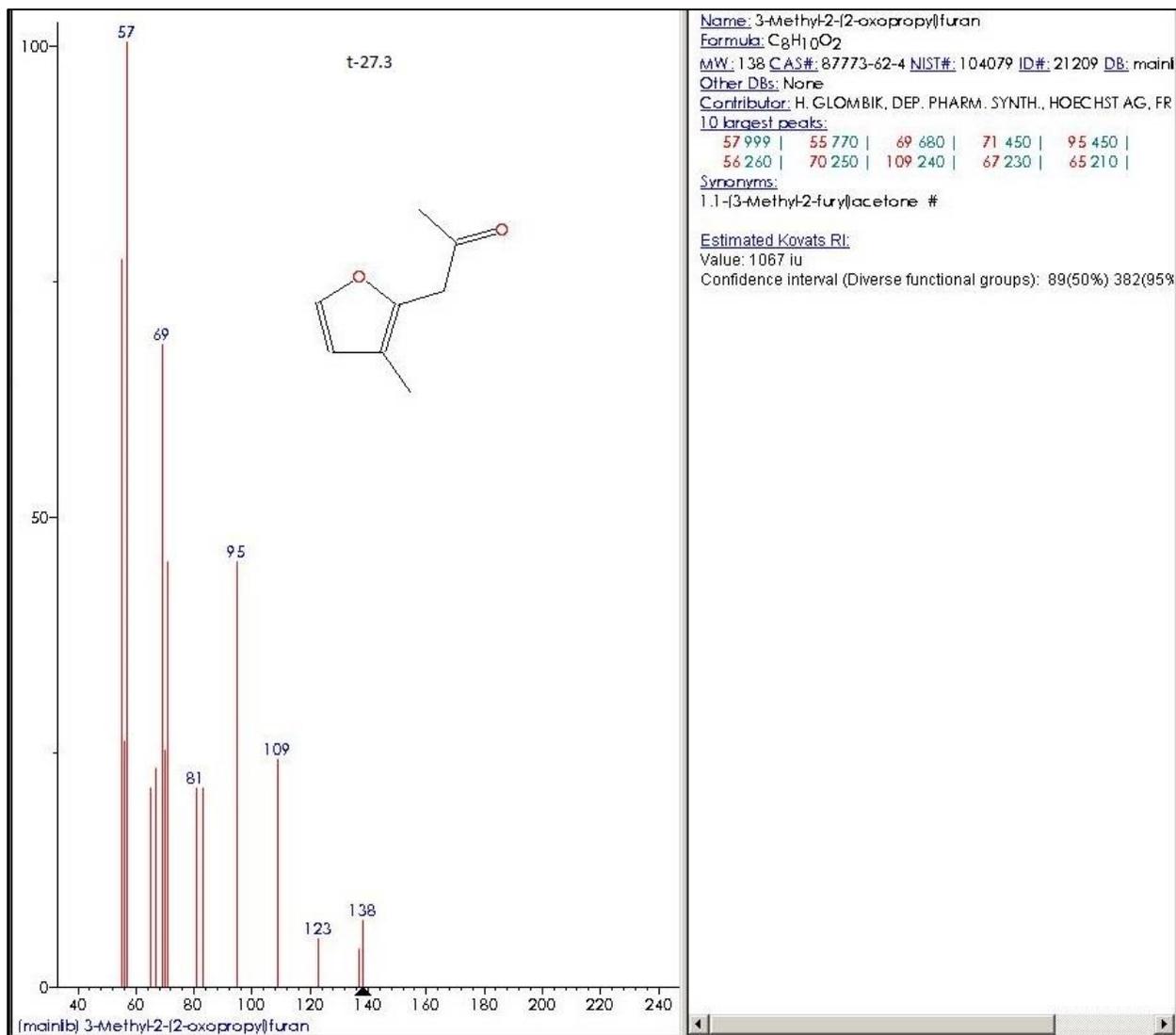


Figure C-5

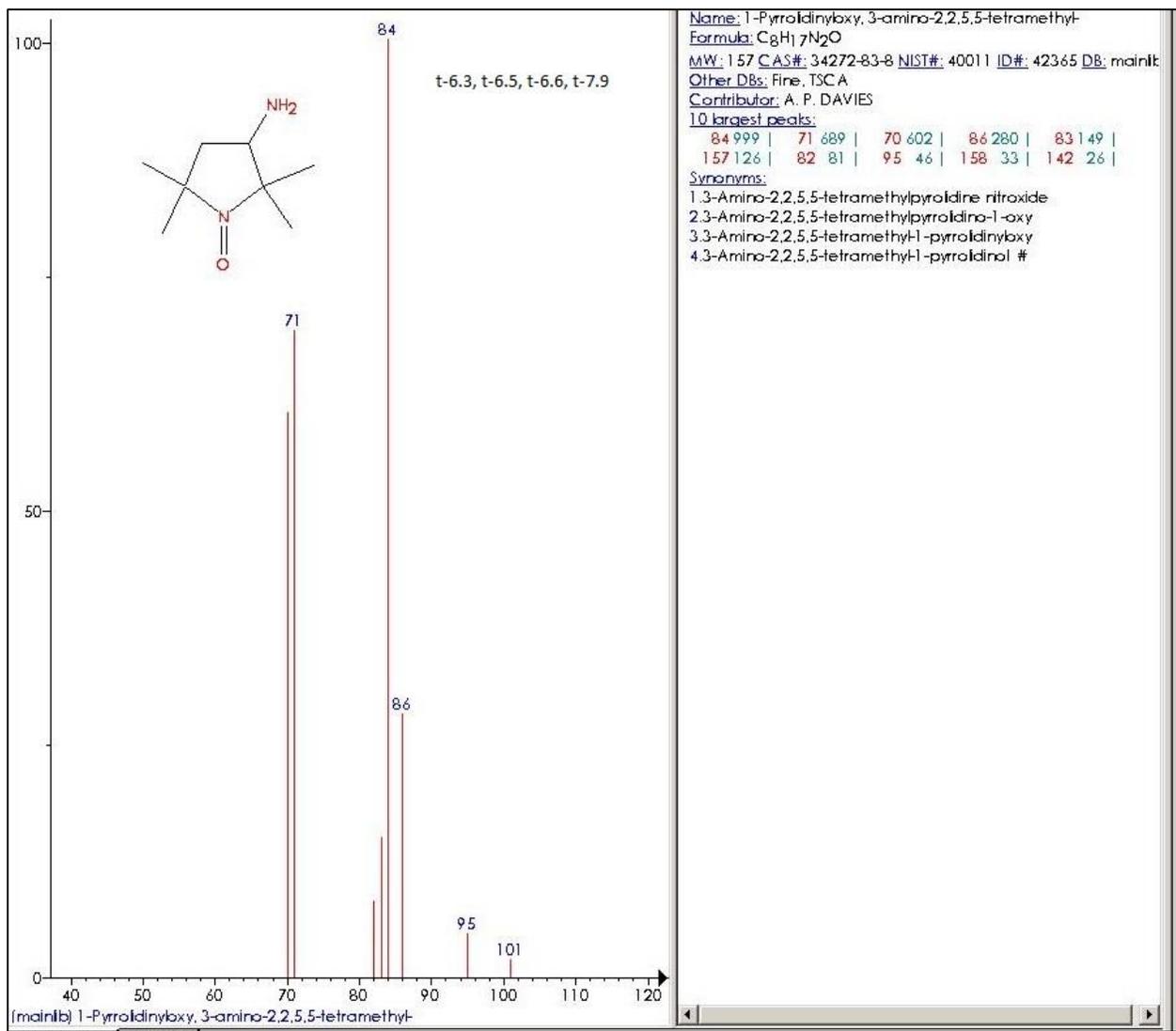


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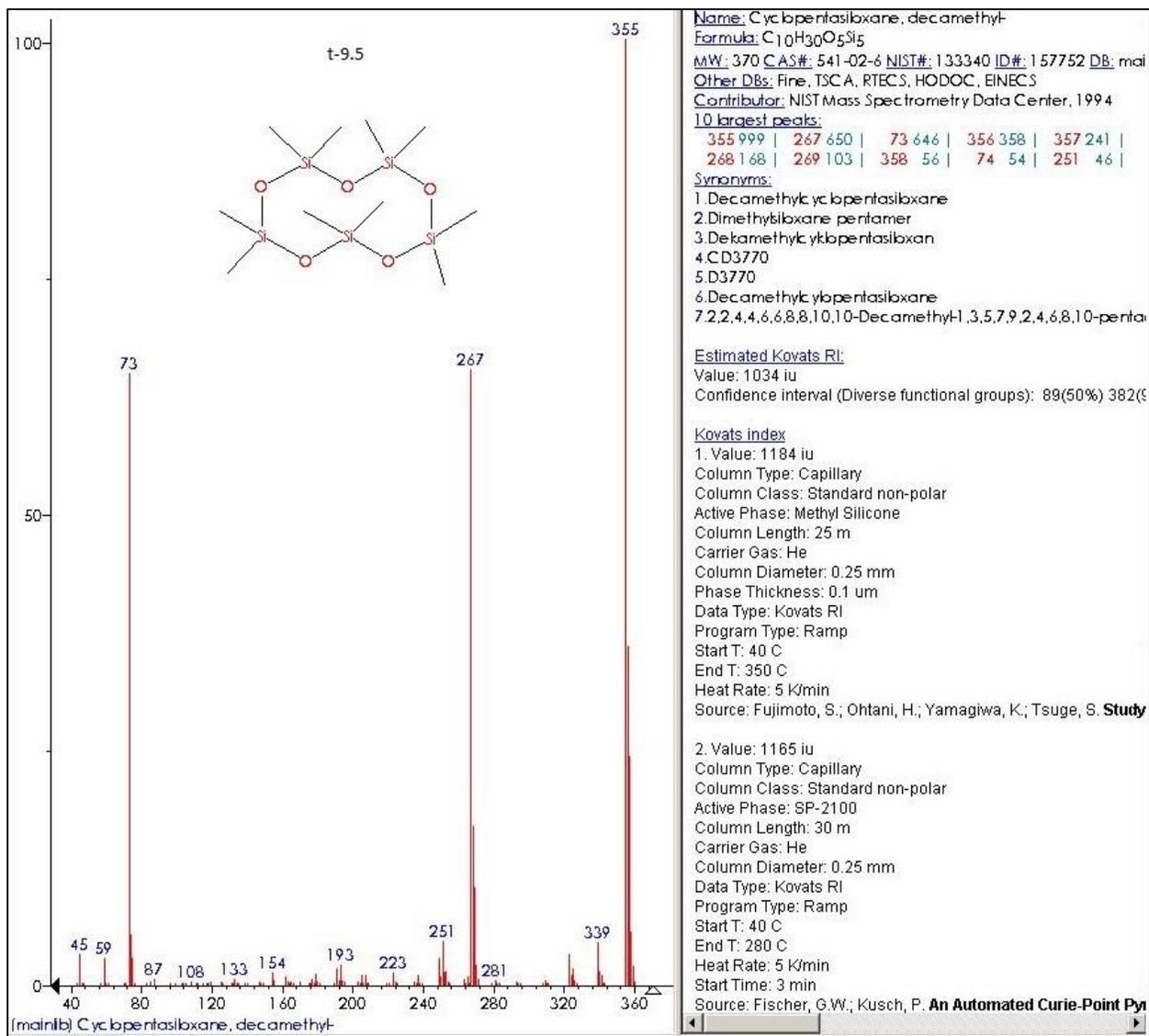


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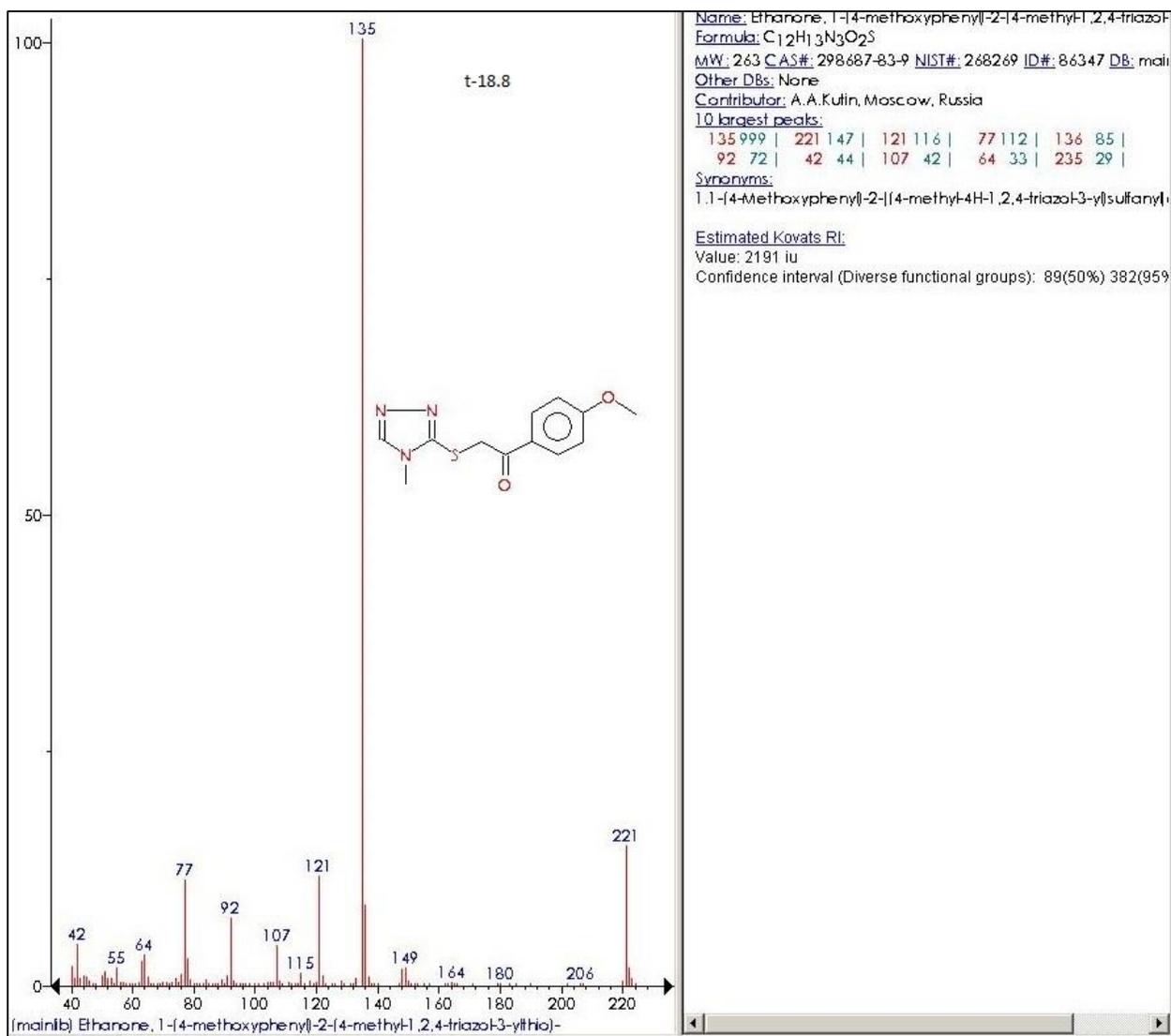


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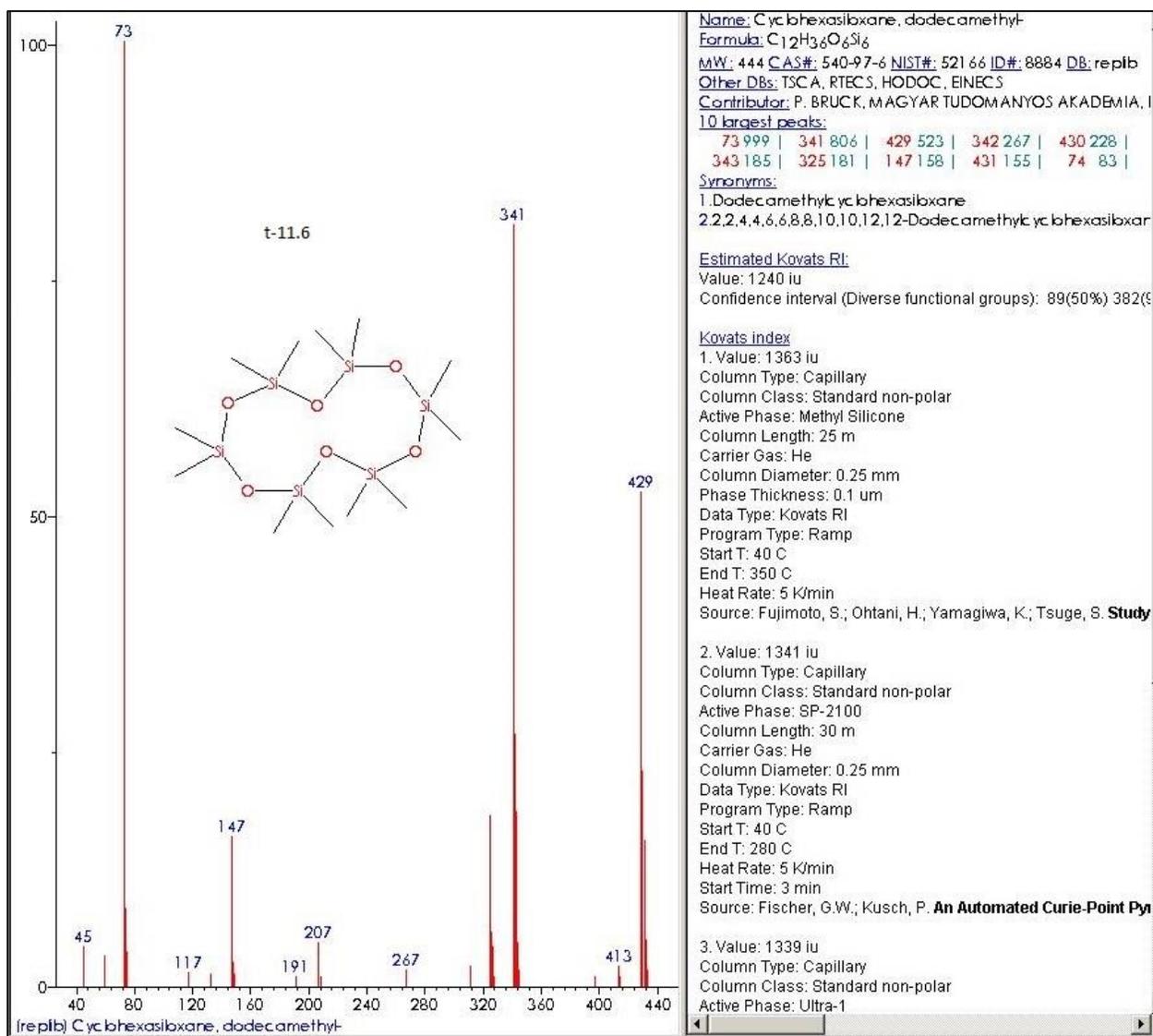


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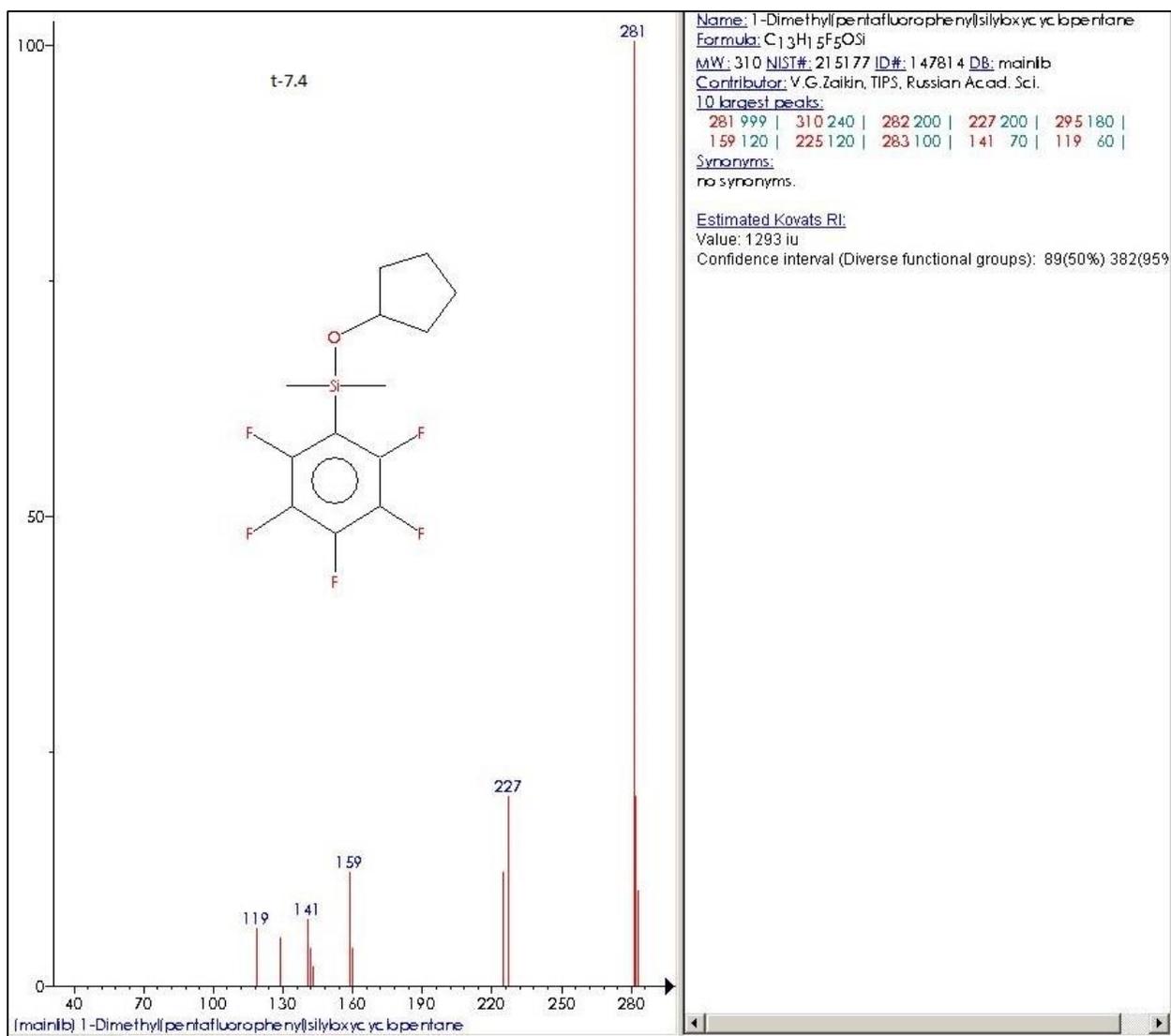


Figure C-10

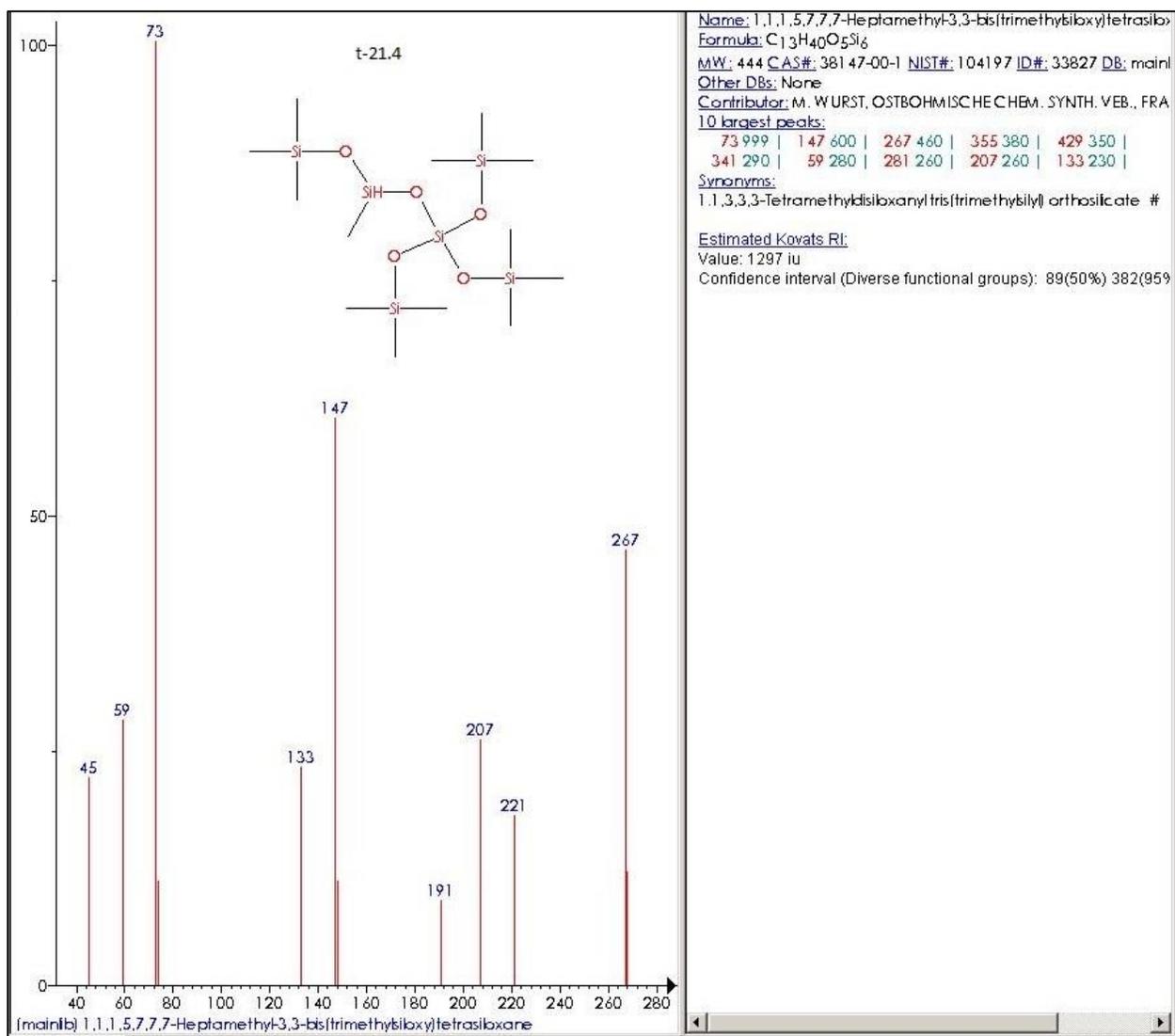


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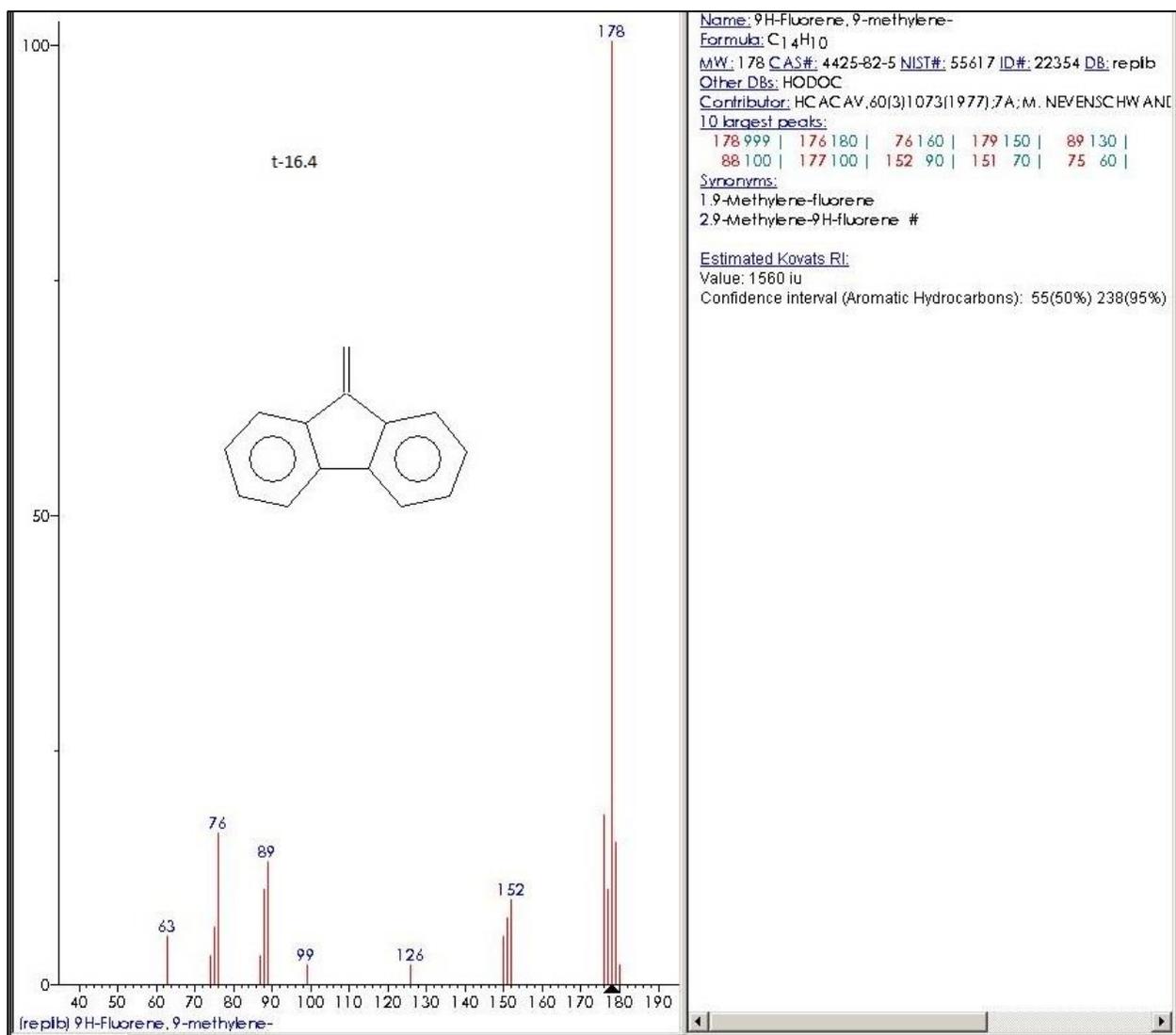


Figure C-12

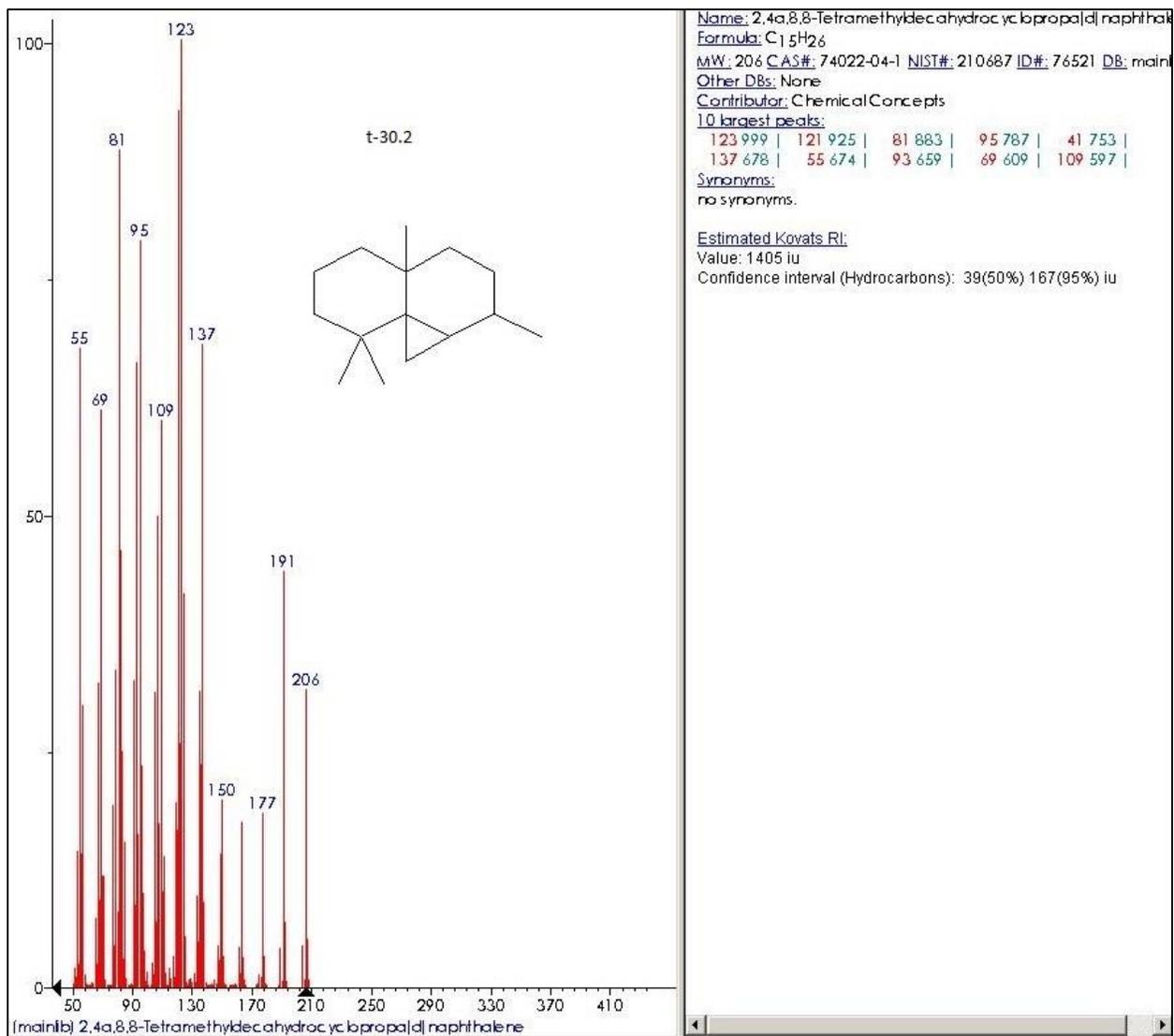


Figure C-13

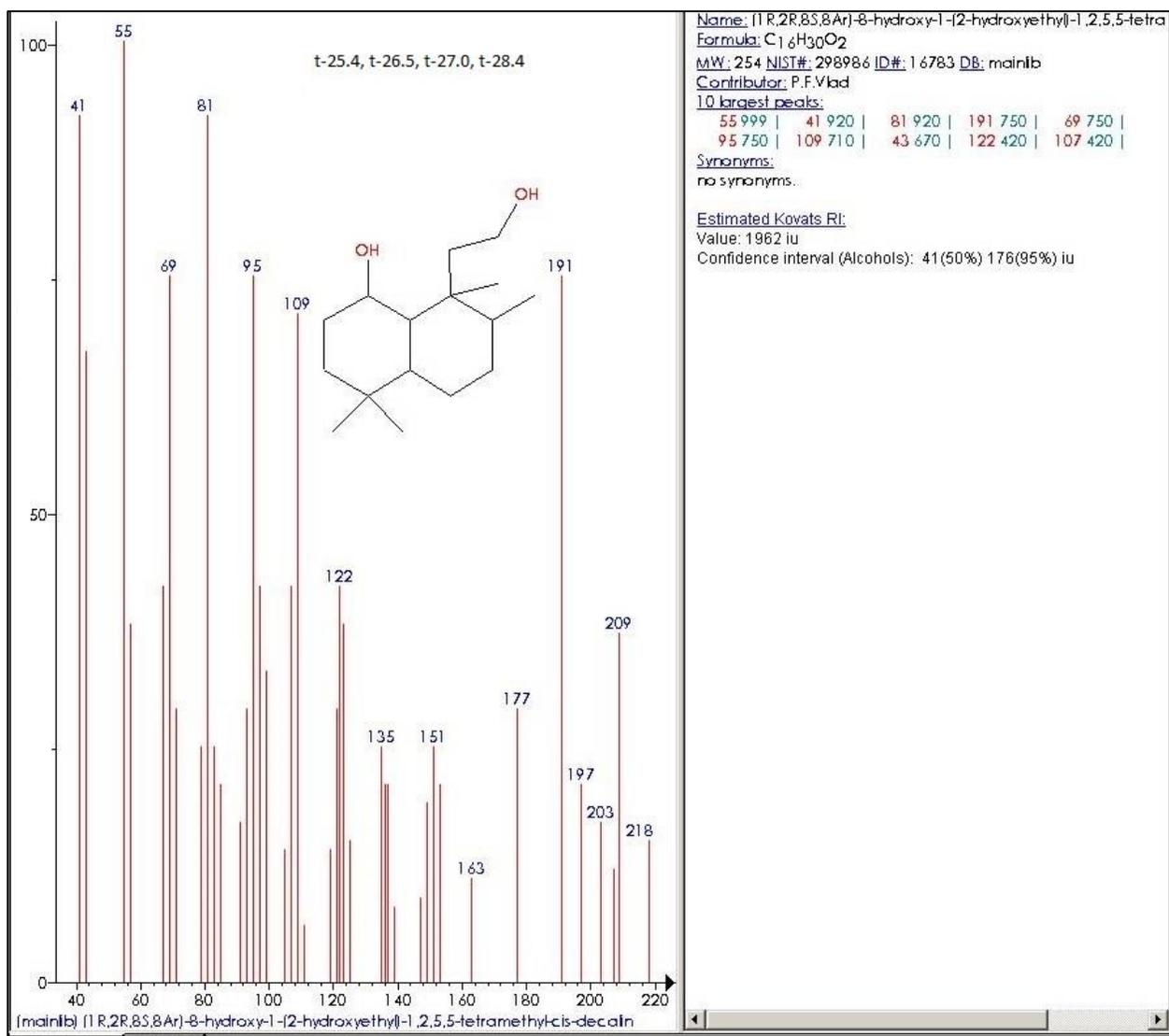


Figure C-14

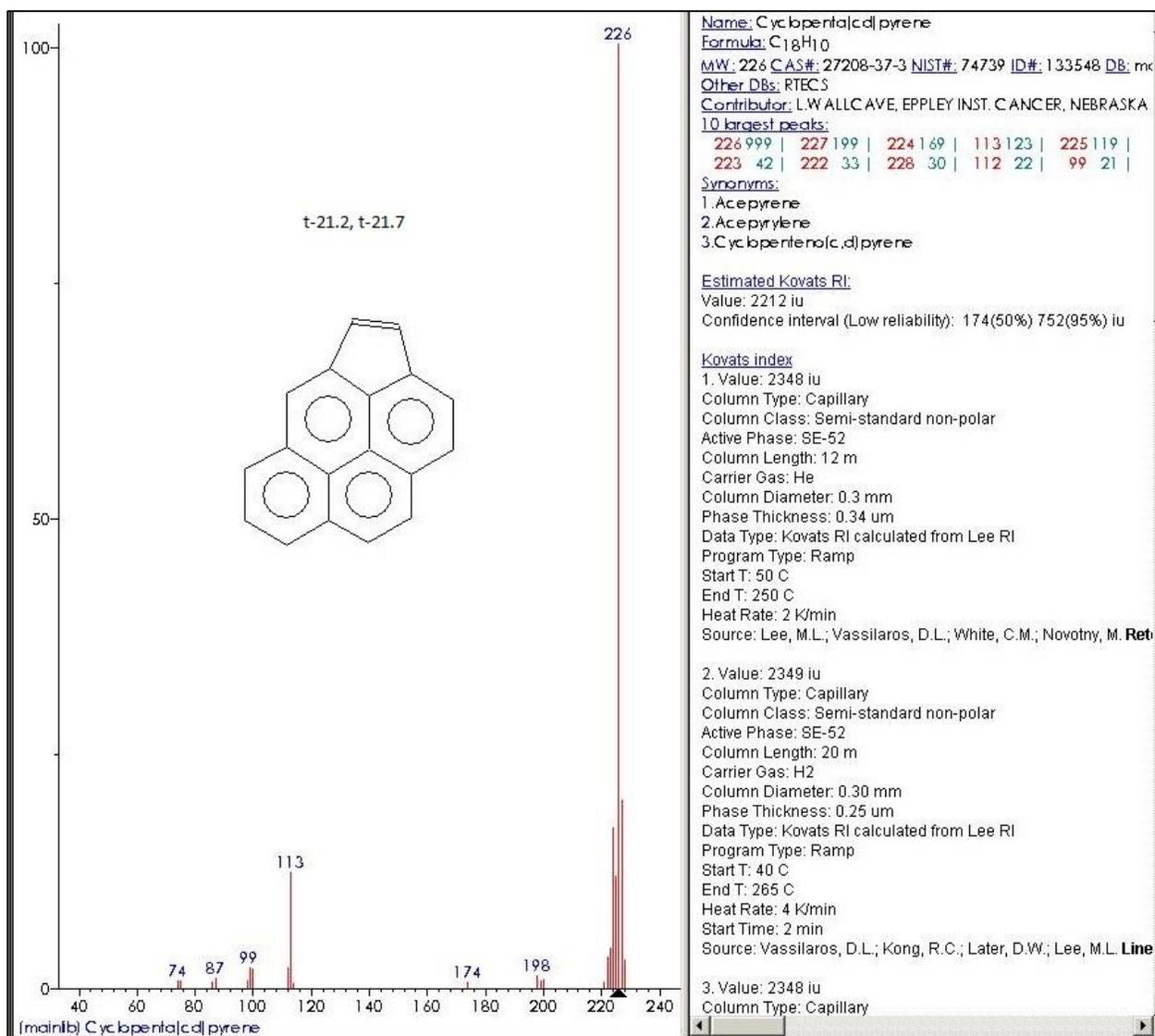


Figure C-15

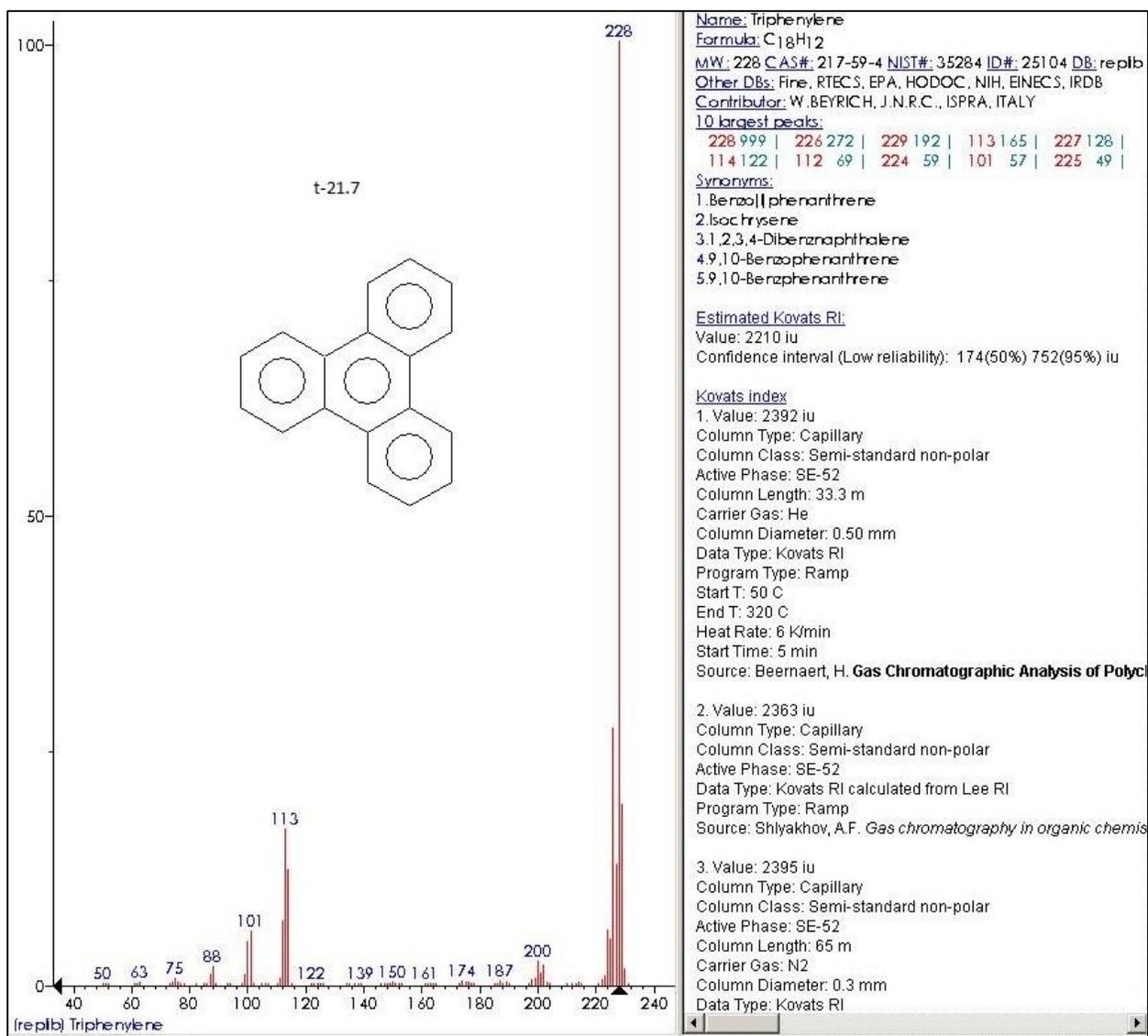


Figure C-16

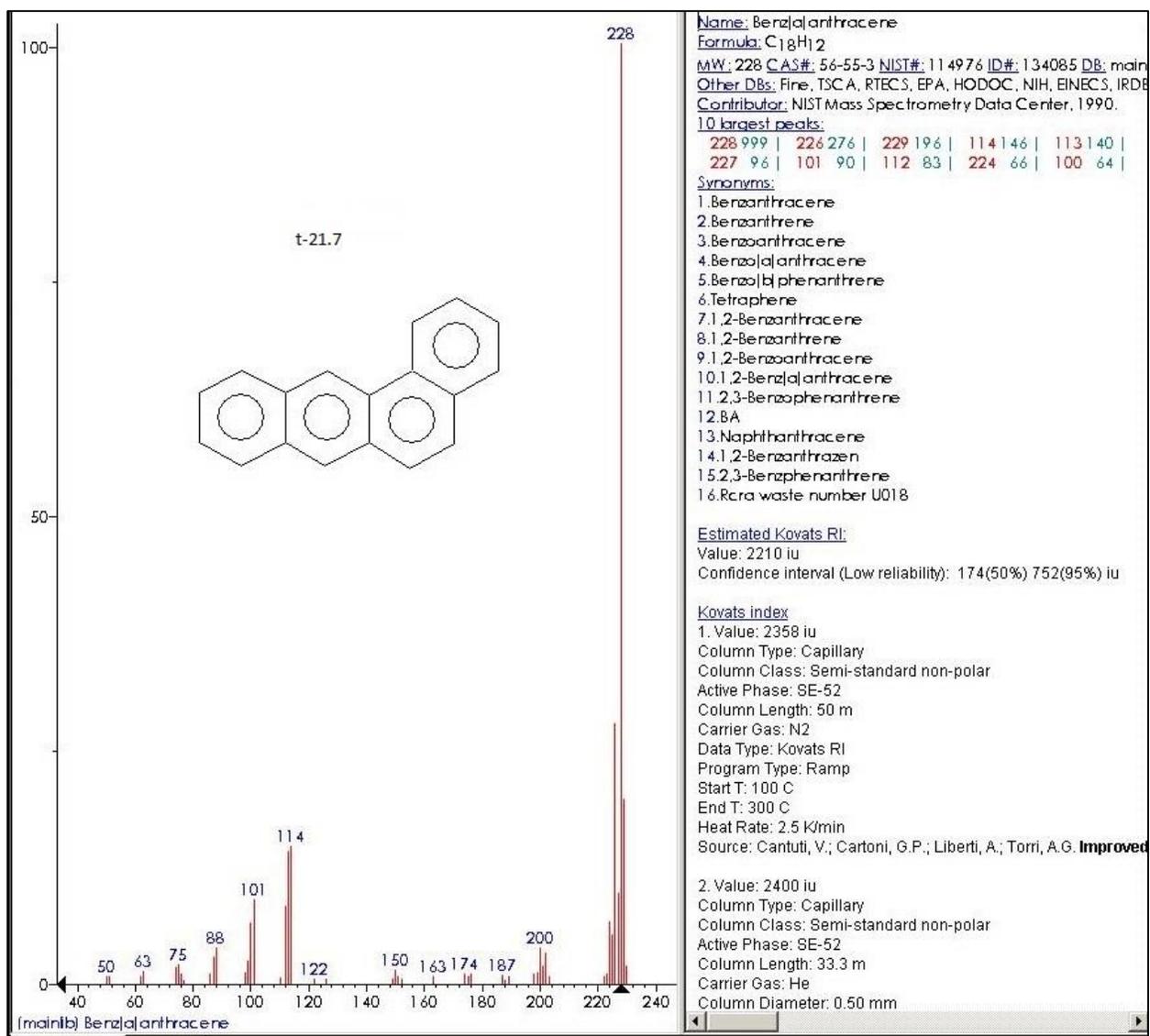


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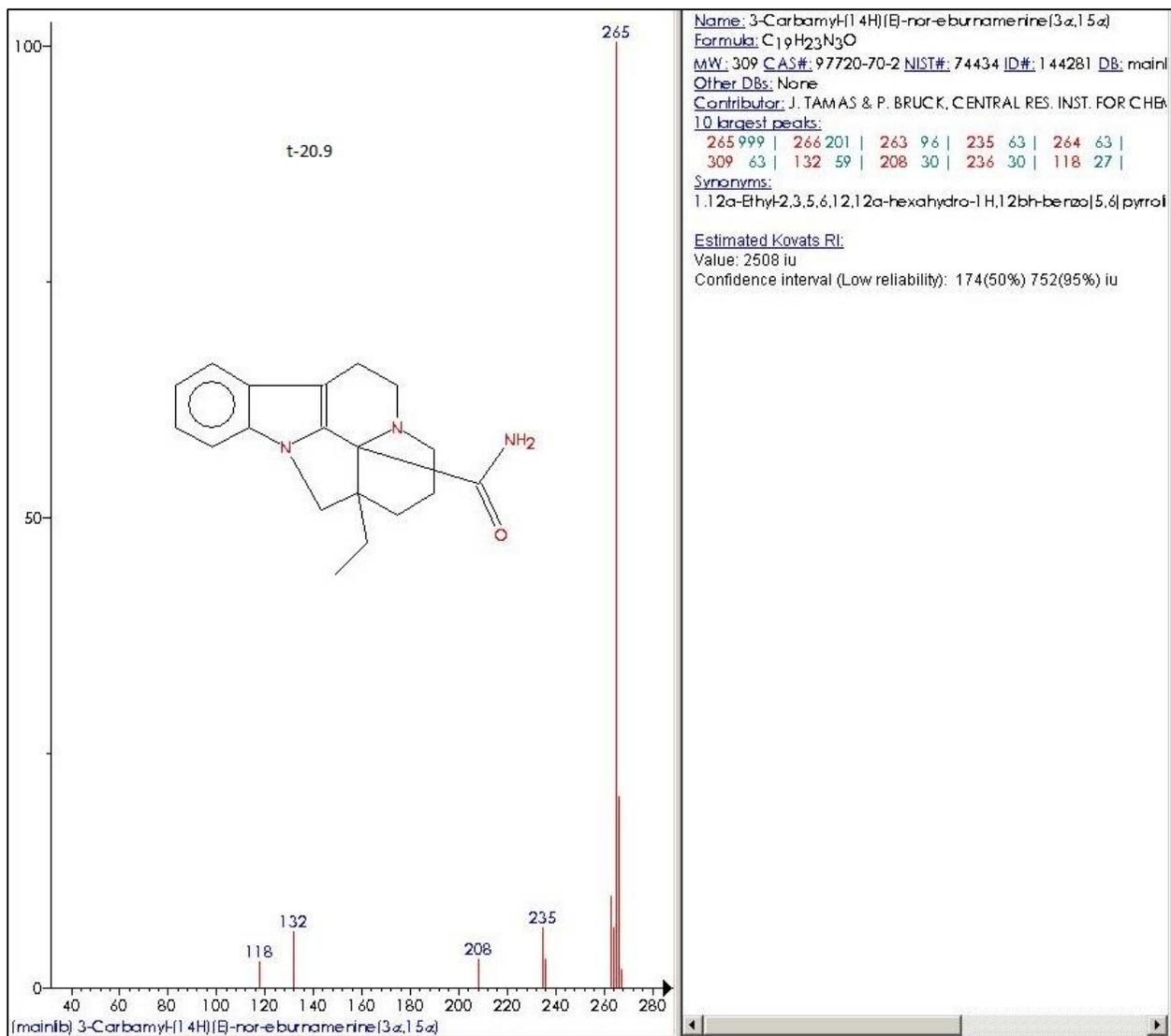


Figure C-18

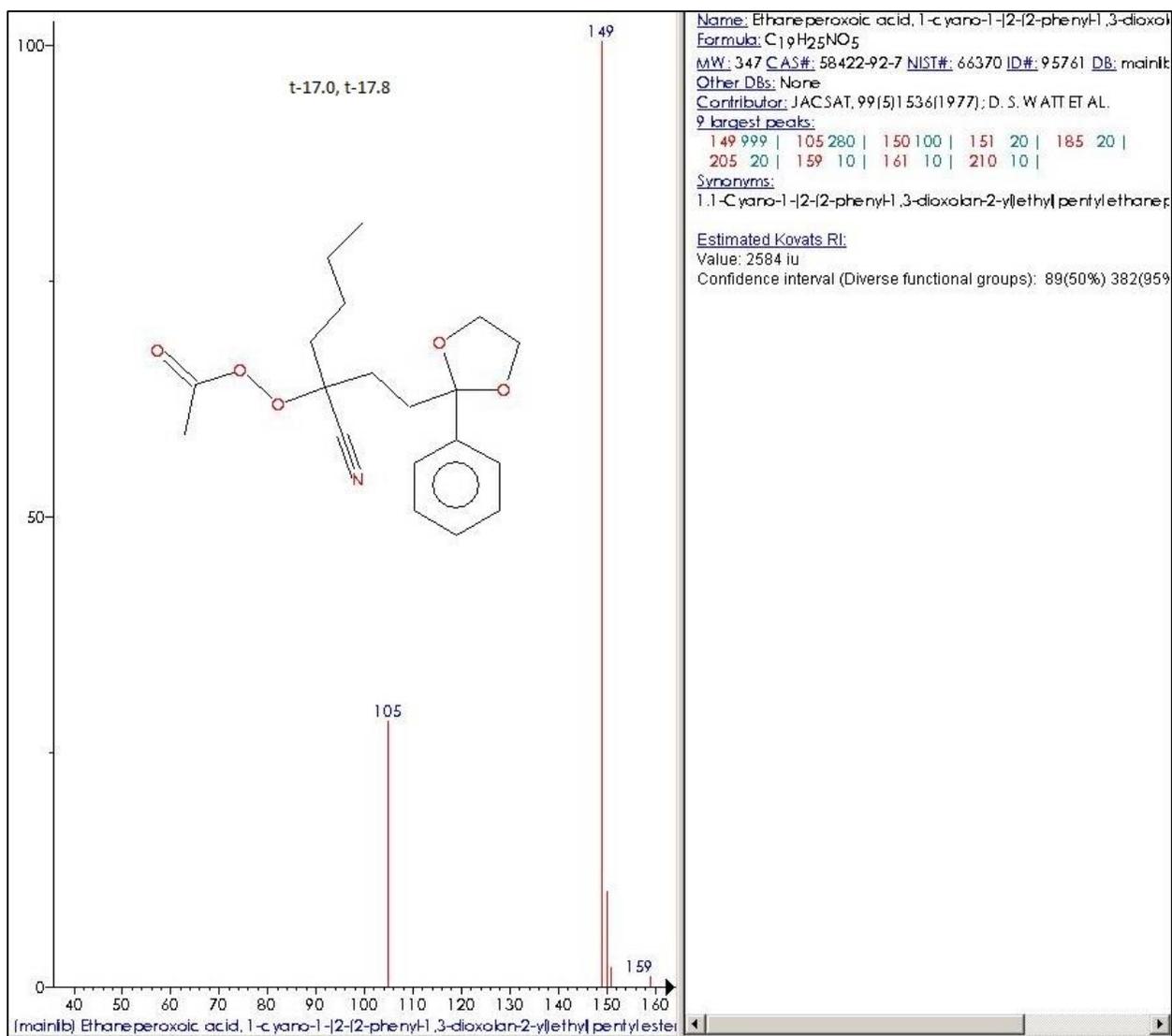


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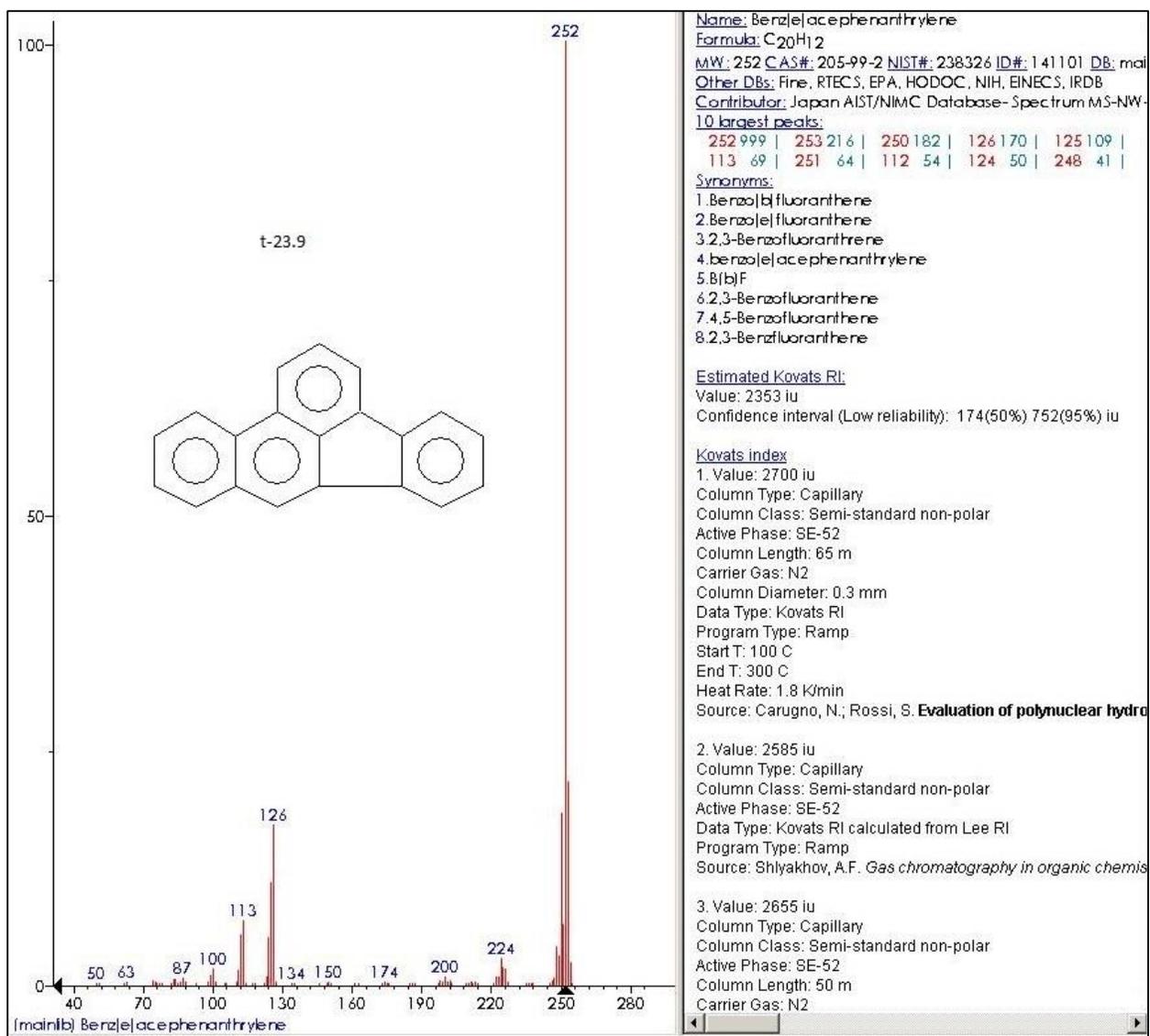


Figure C-20

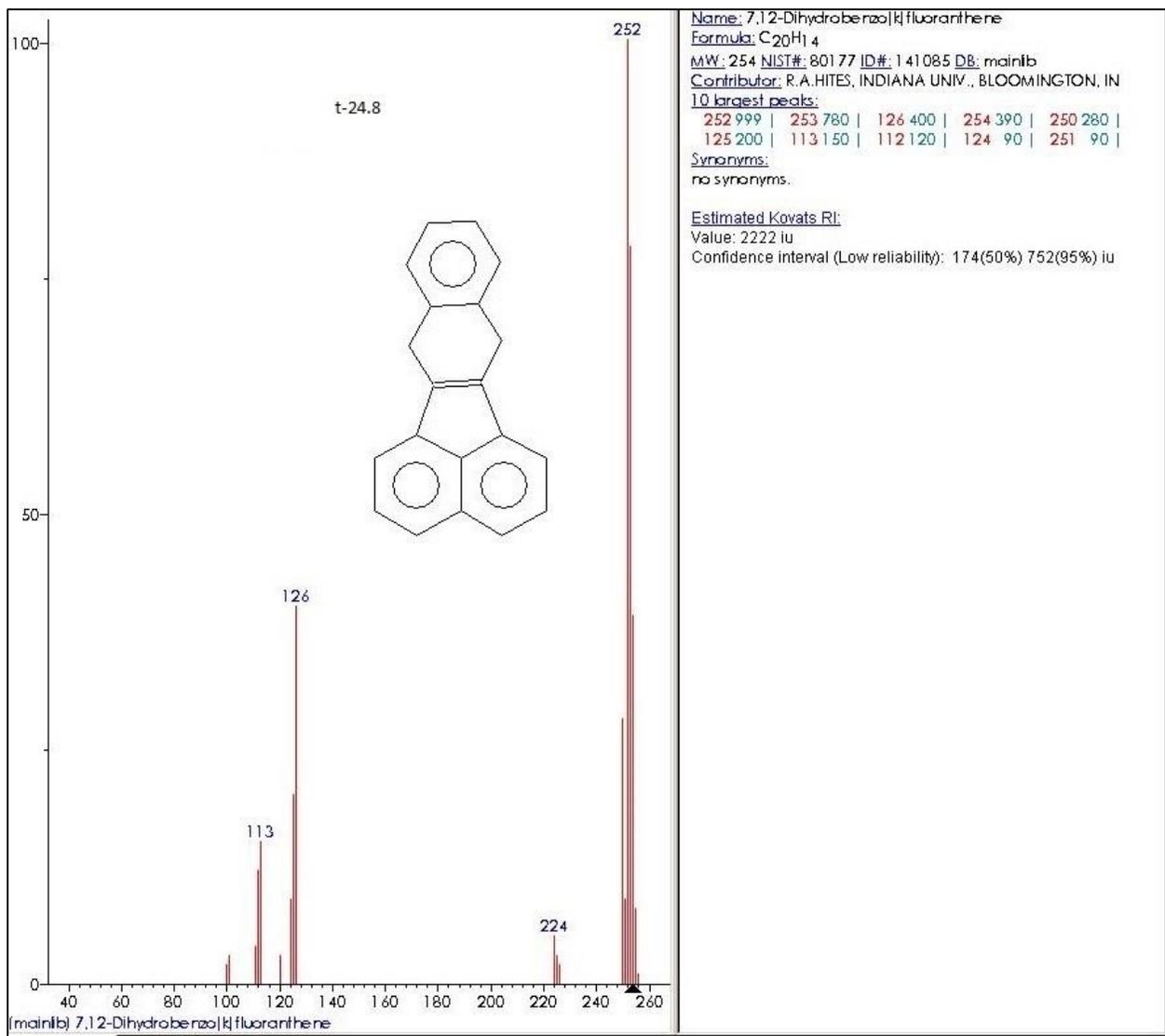


Figure C-21

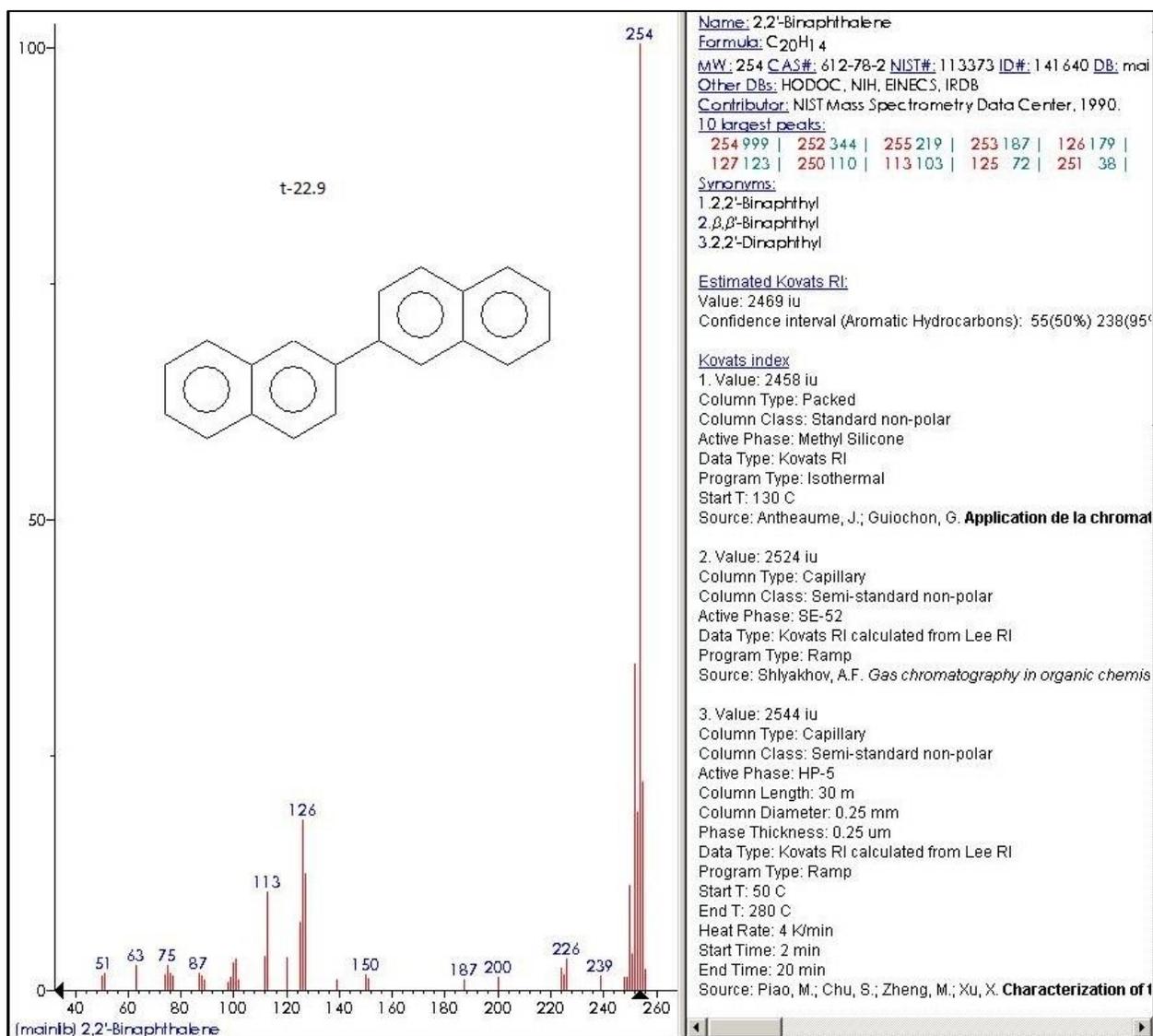


Figure C-22

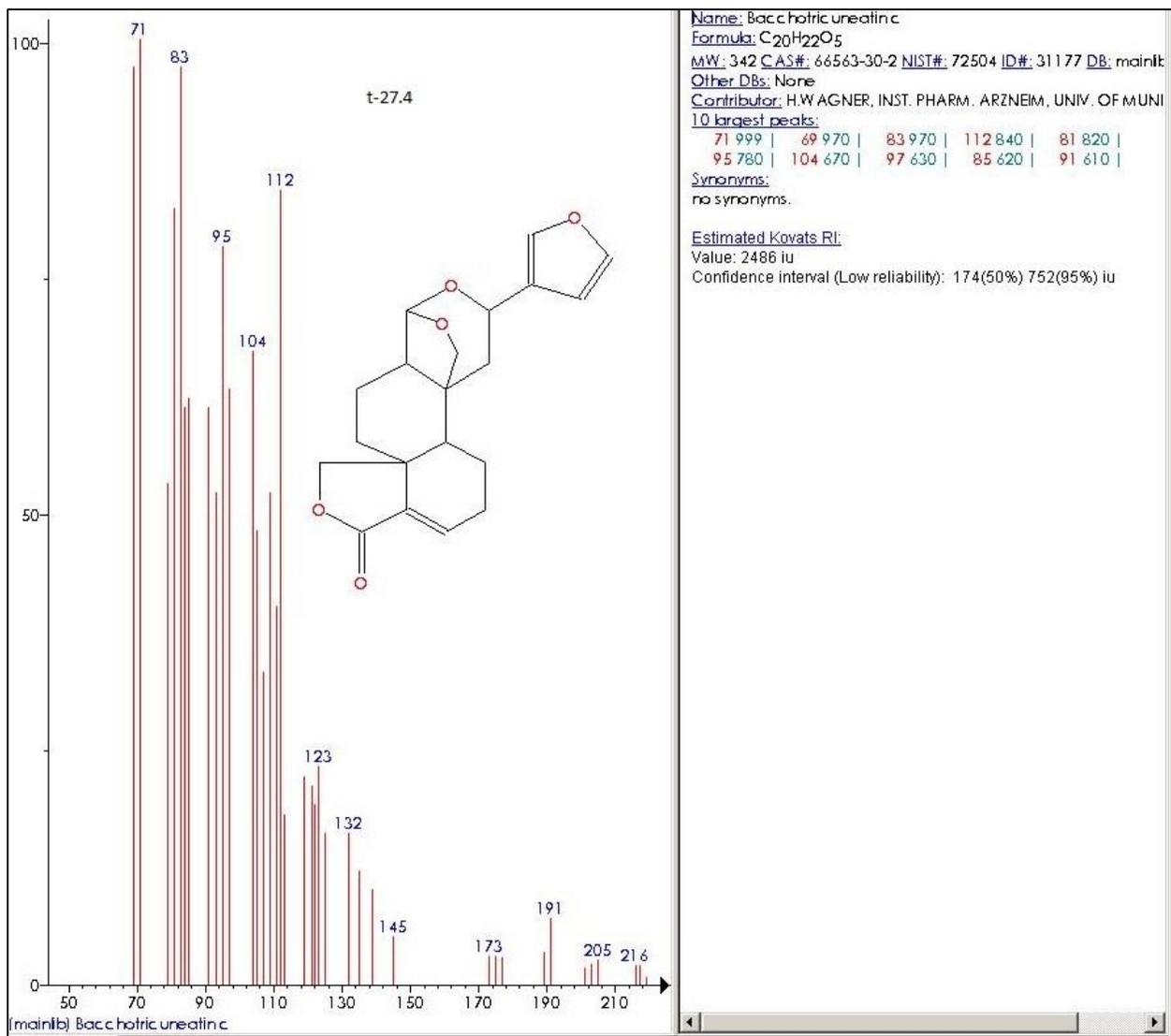


Figure C-23

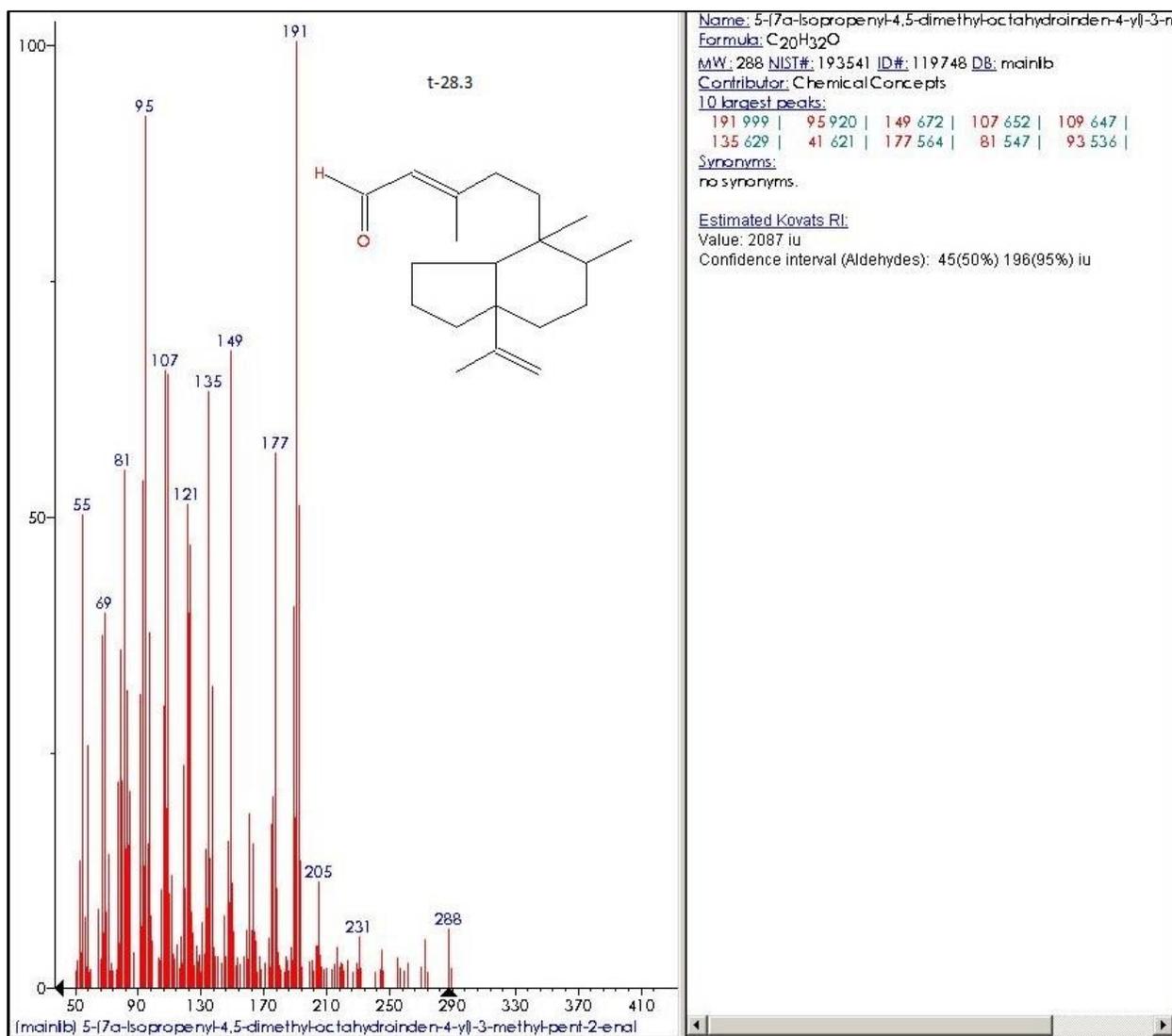


Figure C-24

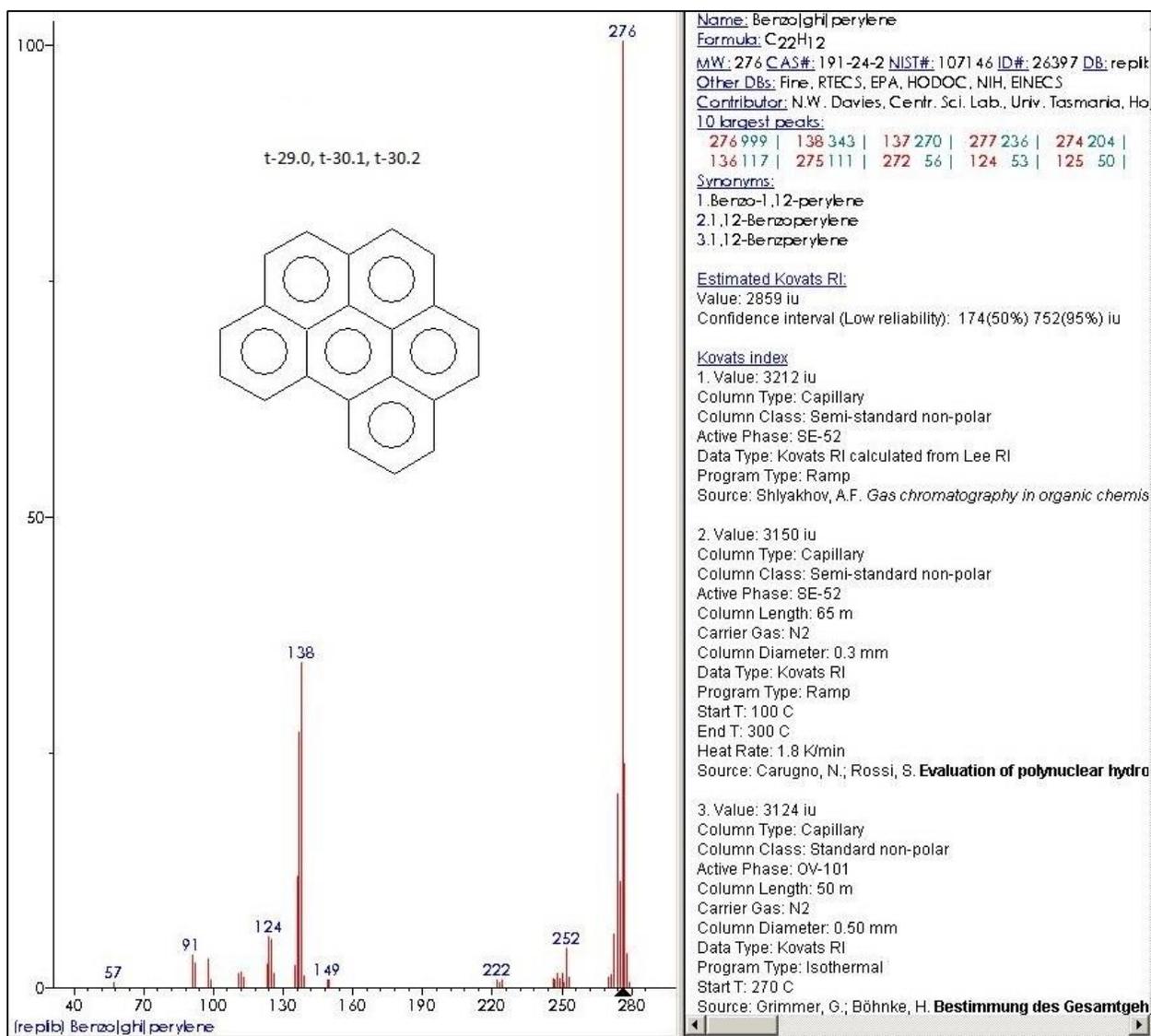


Figure C-25

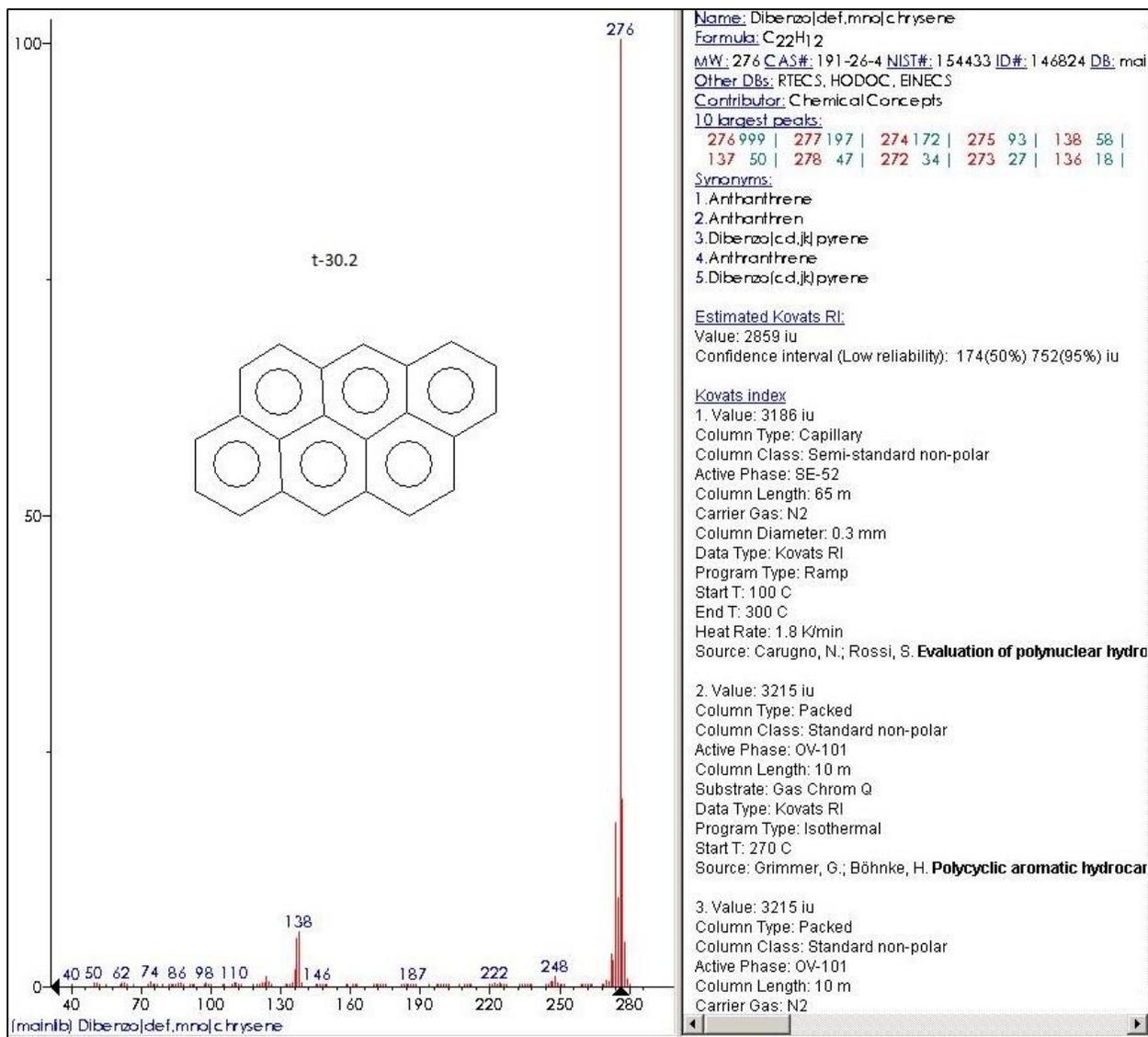


Figure C-26

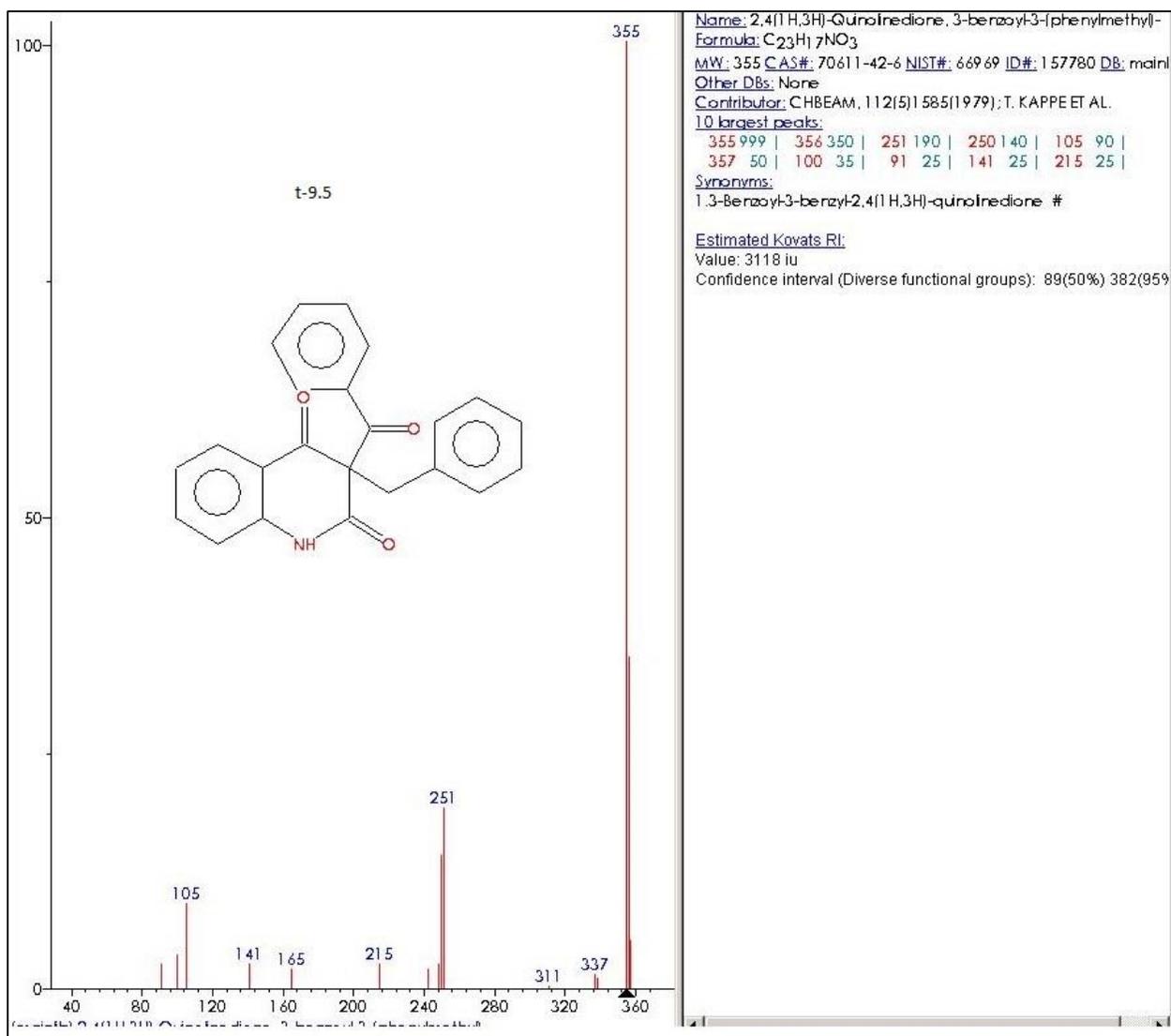


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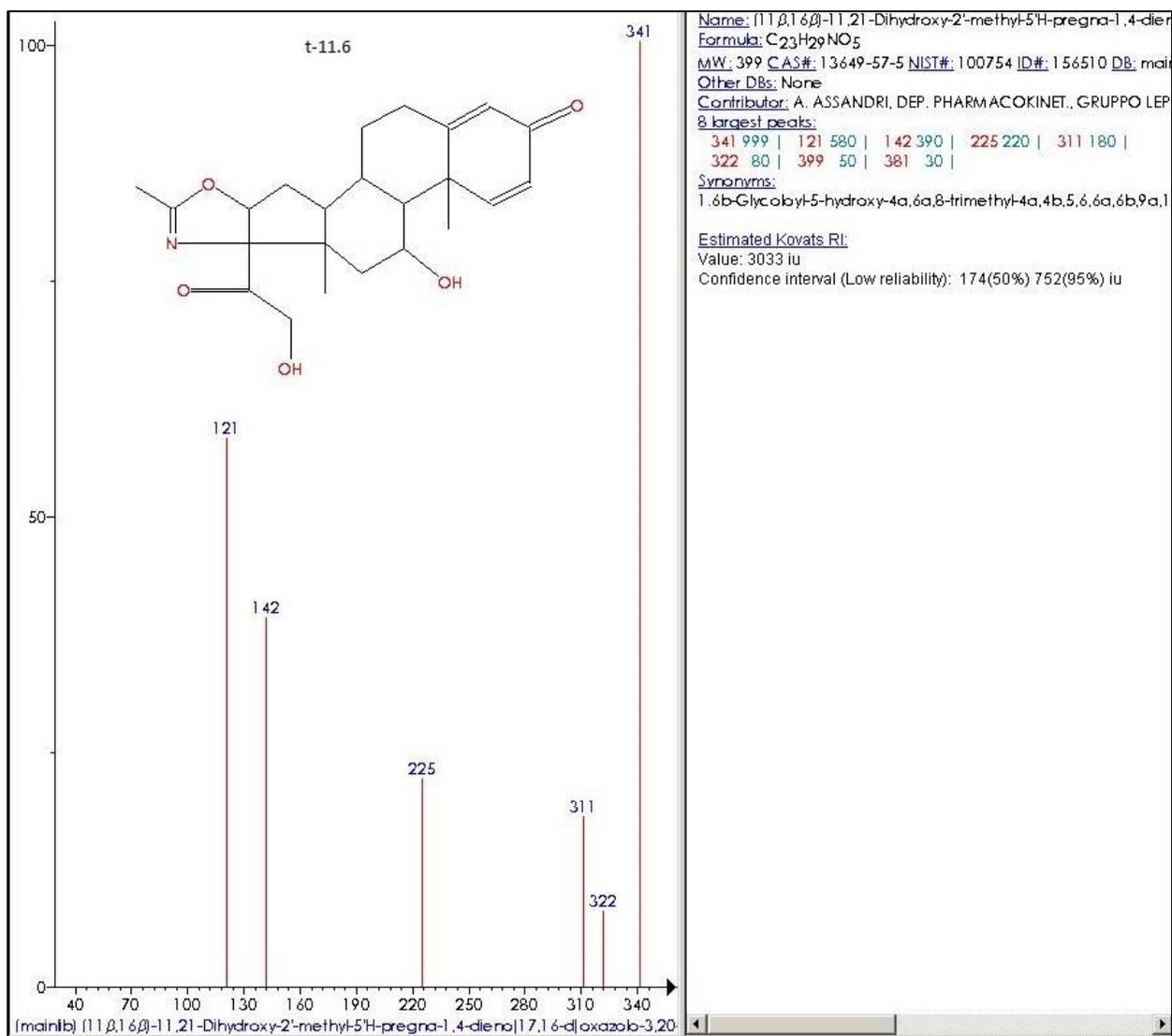


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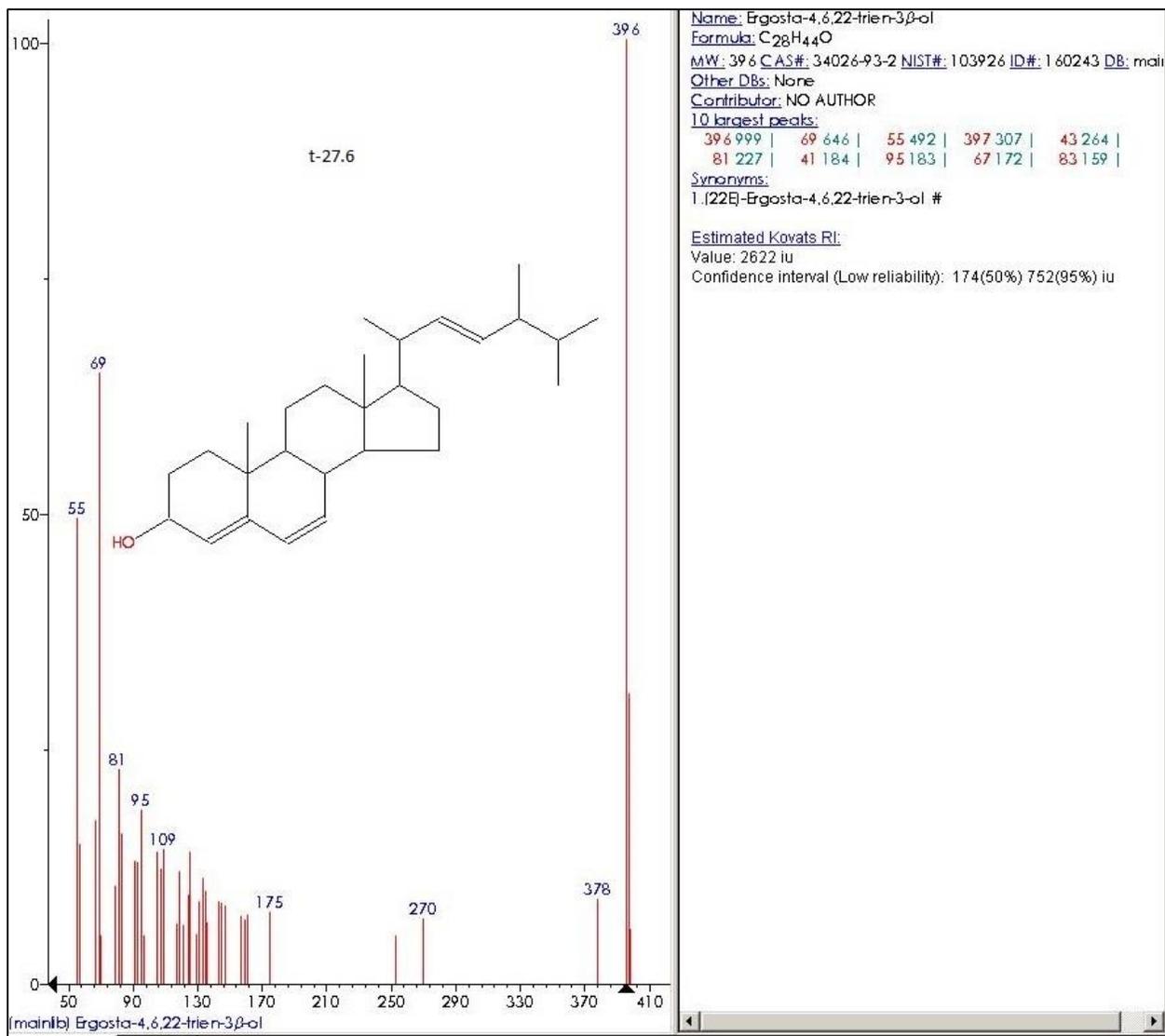


Figure C-29

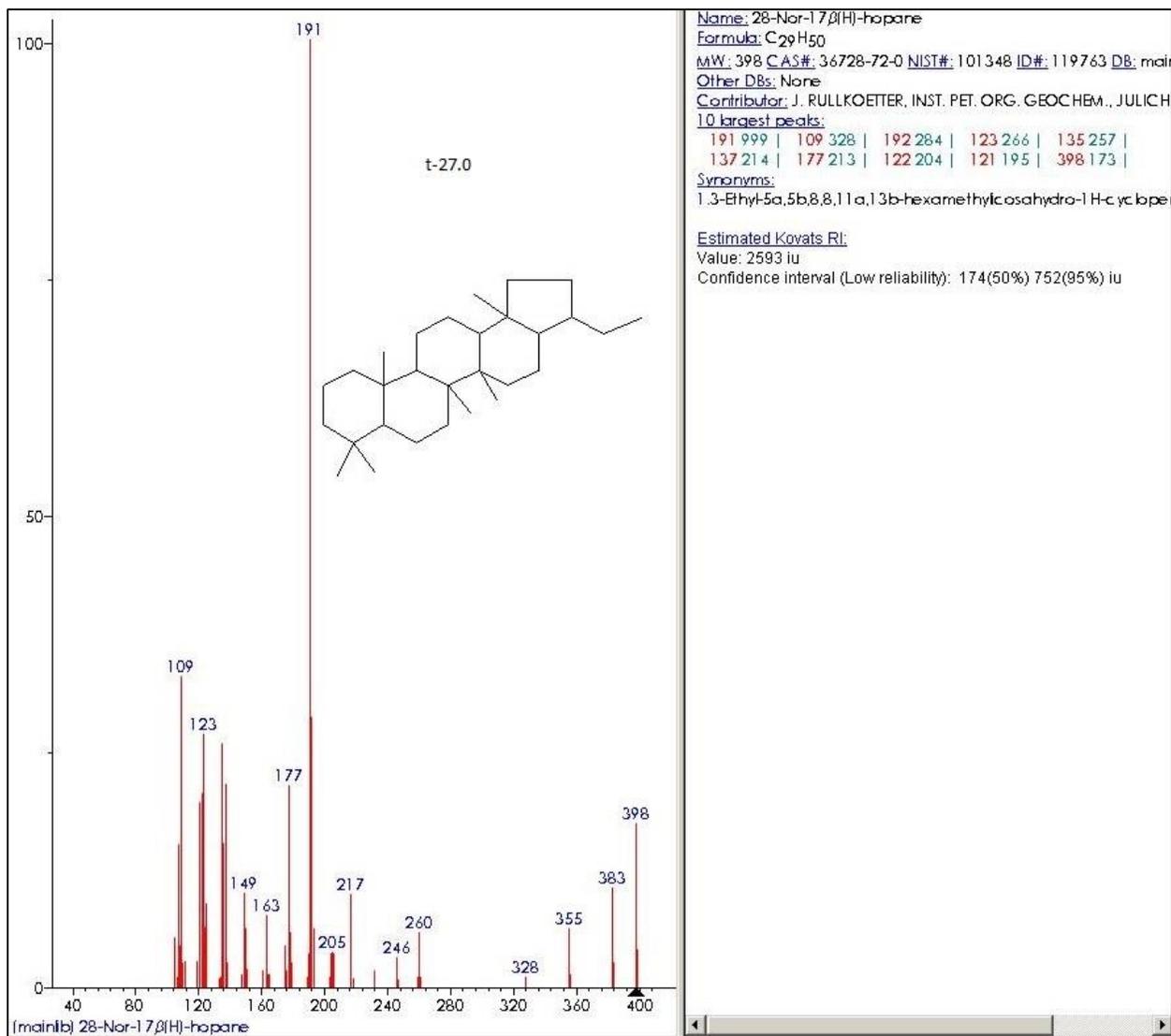


Figure C-30

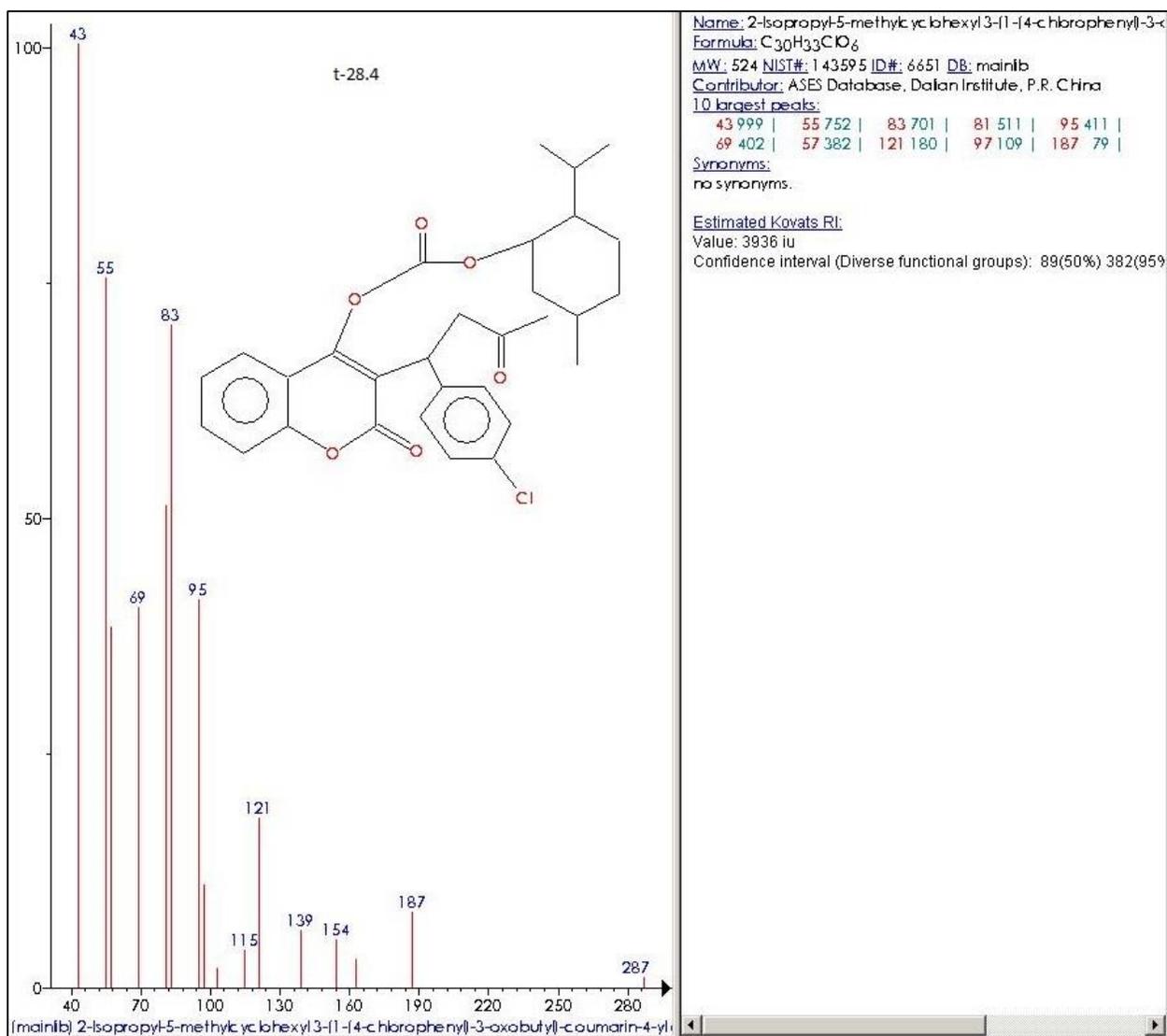
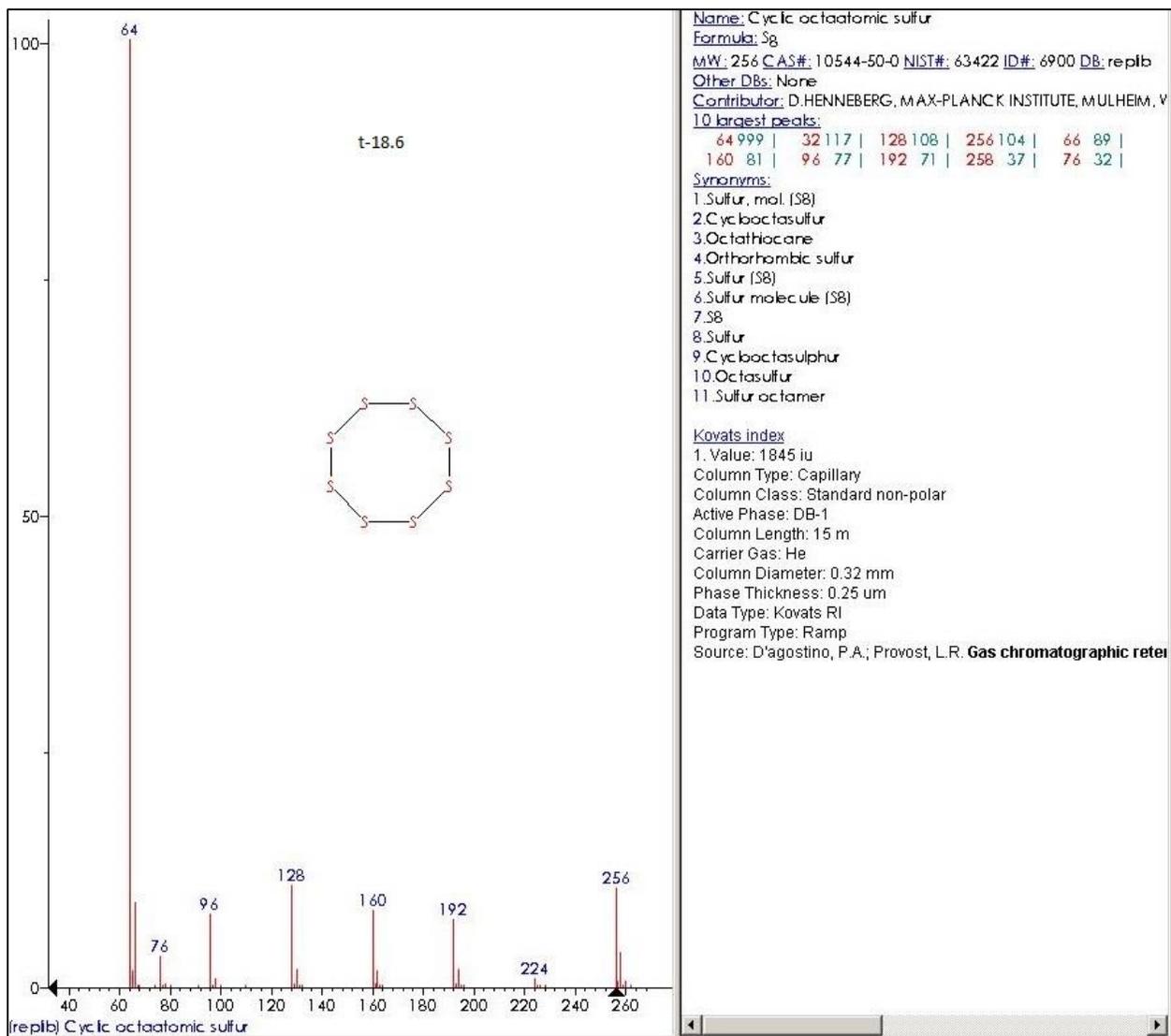


Figure C-31

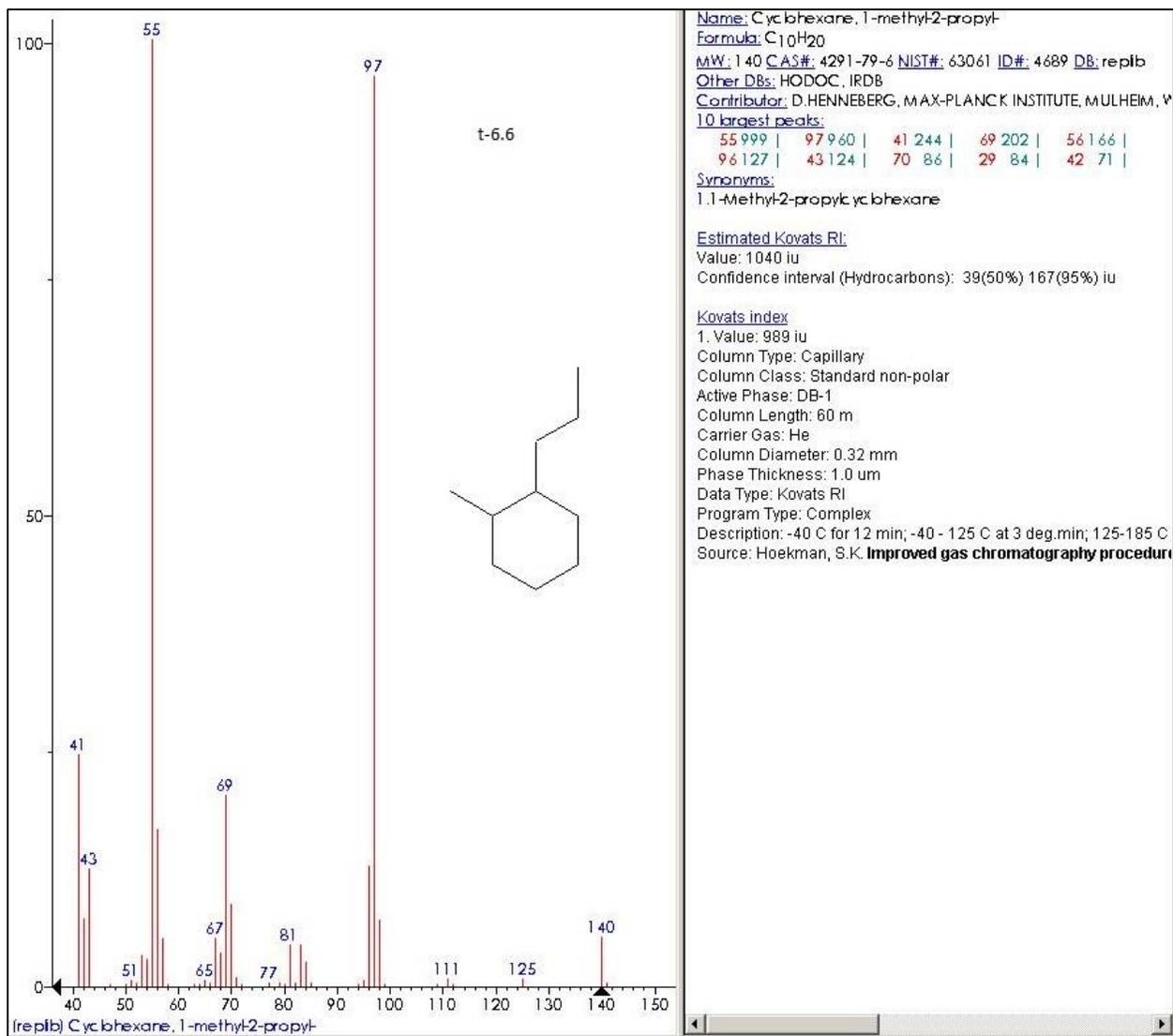


Name: Cyclic octatomic sulfur
 Formula: S₈
 MW: 256 CAS#: 10544-50-0 NIST#: 63422 ID#: 6900 DB: reptb
 Other DBs: None
 Contributor: D.HENNEBERG, MAX-PLANCK INSTITUTE, MULHEIM, V
 10 largest peaks:
 64 999 | 32 117 | 128 108 | 256 104 | 66 89 |
 160 81 | 96 77 | 192 71 | 258 37 | 76 32 |

Synonyms:
 1. Sulfur, mol. (S8)
 2. Cyclooctasulfur
 3. Octathiocane
 4. Orthorhombic sulfur
 5. Sulfur (S8)
 6. Sulfur molecule (S8)
 7. S8
 8. Sulfur
 9. Cyclooctasulphur
 10. Octasulfur
 11. Sulfur octamer

Kovats index
 1. Value: 1845 iu
 Column Type: Capillary
 Column Class: Standard non-polar
 Active Phase: DB-1
 Column Length: 15 m
 Carrier Gas: He
 Column Diameter: 0.32 mm
 Phase Thickness: 0.25 um
 Data Type: Kovats RI
 Program Type: Ramp
 Source: D'agostino, P.A.; Provost, L.R. **Gas chromatographic refer**

Figure C-32



Name: Cyclohexane, 1-methyl-2-propyl-
Formula: C₁₀H₂₀
MW: 140 **CAS#:** 4291-79-6 **NIST#:** 63061 **ID#:** 4689 **DB:** reptb
Other DBs: HODOC, IRDB
Contributor: D. HENNEBERG, MAX-PLANCK INSTITUTE, MULHEIM, W
10 largest peaks:
 55.999 | 97.960 | 41.244 | 69.202 | 56.166 |
 96.127 | 43.124 | 70.86 | 29.84 | 42.71 |
Synonyms:
 1,1-Methyl-2-propylcyclohexane
Estimated Kovats RI:
 Value: 1040 iu
 Confidence interval (Hydrocarbons): 39(50%) 167(95%) iu
Kovats index
 1. Value: 989 iu
 Column Type: Capillary
 Column Class: Standard non-polar
 Active Phase: DB-1
 Column Length: 60 m
 Carrier Gas: He
 Column Diameter: 0.32 mm
 Phase Thickness: 1.0 um
 Data Type: Kovats RI
 Program Type: Complex
 Description: -40 C for 12 min; -40 - 125 C at 3 deg.min; 125-185 C
 Source: Hoekman, S.K. **Improved gas chromatography procedure**

Figure C-33

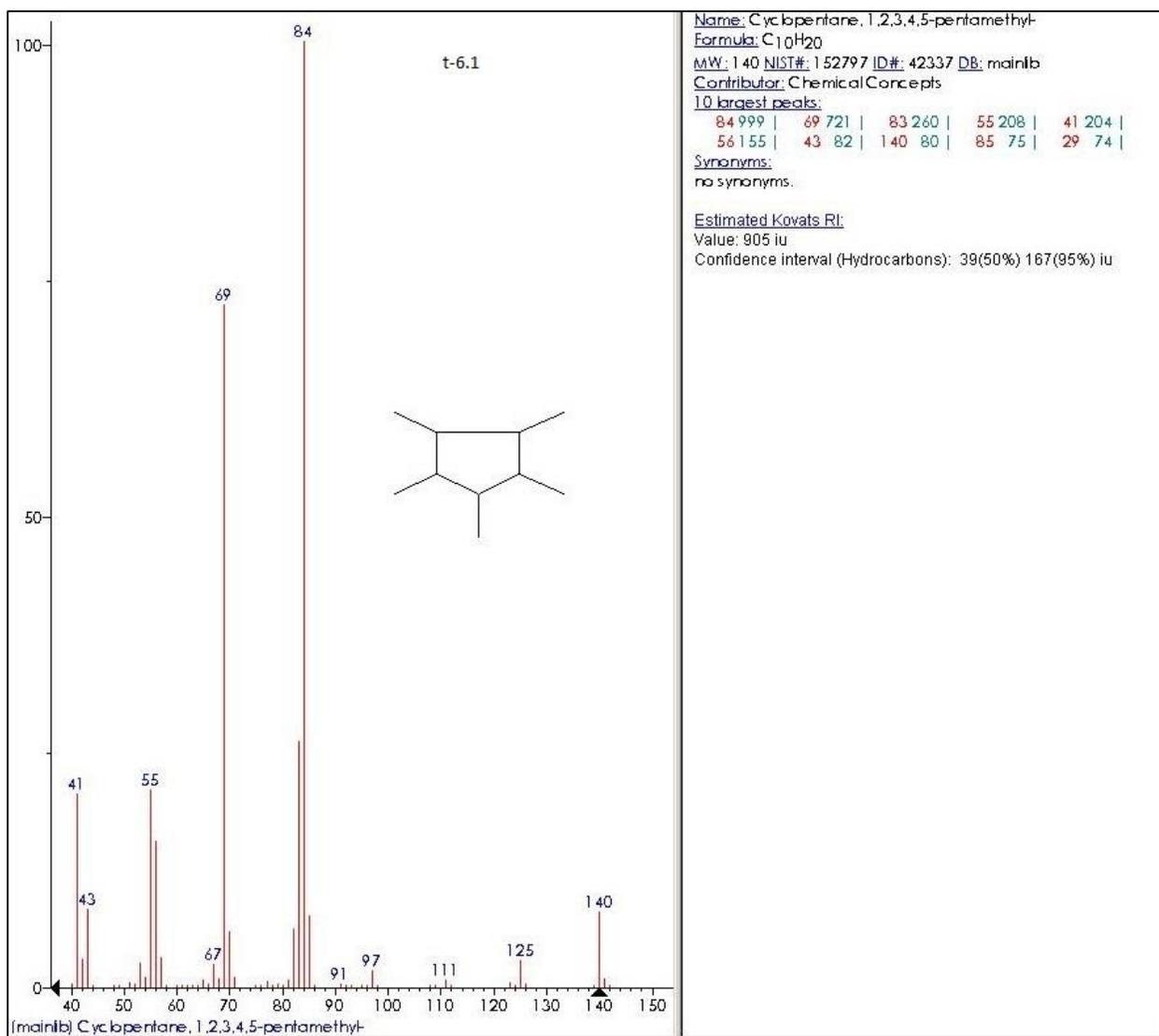
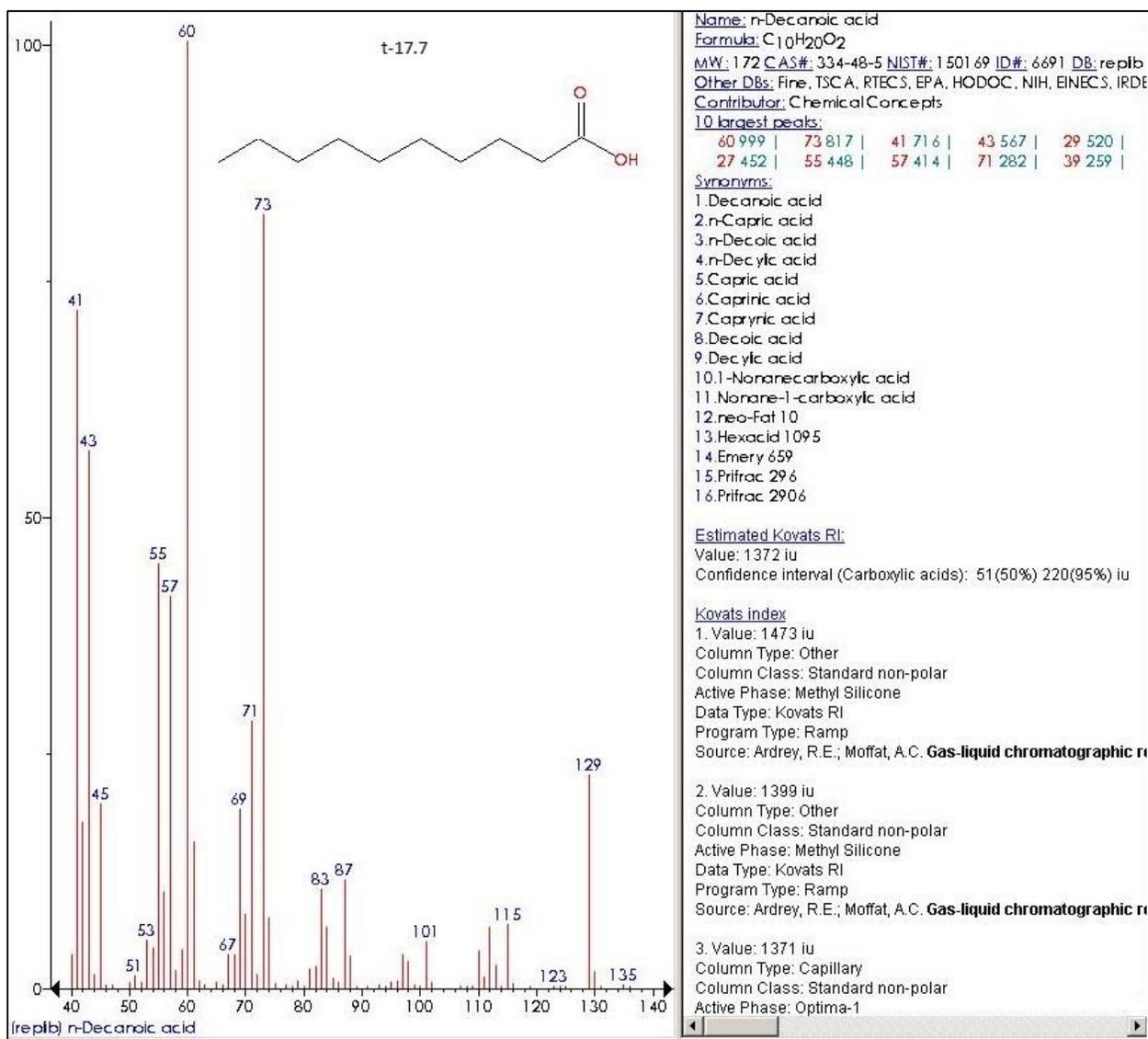


Figure C-34



Name: n-Decanoic acid
Formula: C₁₀H₂₀O₂
MW: 172 **CAS#:** 334-48-5 **NIST#:** 150169 **ID#:** 6691 **DB:** replb
Other DBs: Fine, TSCA, RTECS, EPA, HODOC, NIH, EINECS, IRDE
Contributor: Chemical Concepts
10 largest peaks:
 60 999 | 73 817 | 41 716 | 43 567 | 29 520 |
 27 452 | 55 448 | 57 414 | 71 282 | 39 259 |
Synonyms:
 1. Decanoic acid
 2. n-Capric acid
 3. n-Decoic acid
 4. n-Decylic acid
 5. Capric acid
 6. Caprylic acid
 7. Caprylic acid
 8. Decoic acid
 9. Decylic acid
 10.1-Nonanecarboxylic acid
 11. Nonane-1-carboxylic acid
 12. neo-fat 10
 13. Hexacid 1095
 14. Emery 659
 15. Prifrac 296
 16. Prifrac 2906
Estimated Kovats RI:
 Value: 1372 iu
 Confidence interval (Carboxylic acids): 51(50%) 220(95%) iu
Kovats index
 1. Value: 1473 iu
 Column Type: Other
 Column Class: Standard non-polar
 Active Phase: Methyl Silicone
 Data Type: Kovats RI
 Program Type: Ramp
 Source: Ardrey, R.E.; Moffat, A.C. **Gas-liquid chromatographic r**
 2. Value: 1399 iu
 Column Type: Other
 Column Class: Standard non-polar
 Active Phase: Methyl Silicone
 Data Type: Kovats RI
 Program Type: Ramp
 Source: Ardrey, R.E.; Moffat, A.C. **Gas-liquid chromatographic r**
 3. Value: 1371 iu
 Column Type: Capillary
 Column Class: Standard non-polar
 Active Phase: Optima-1

Figure C-35

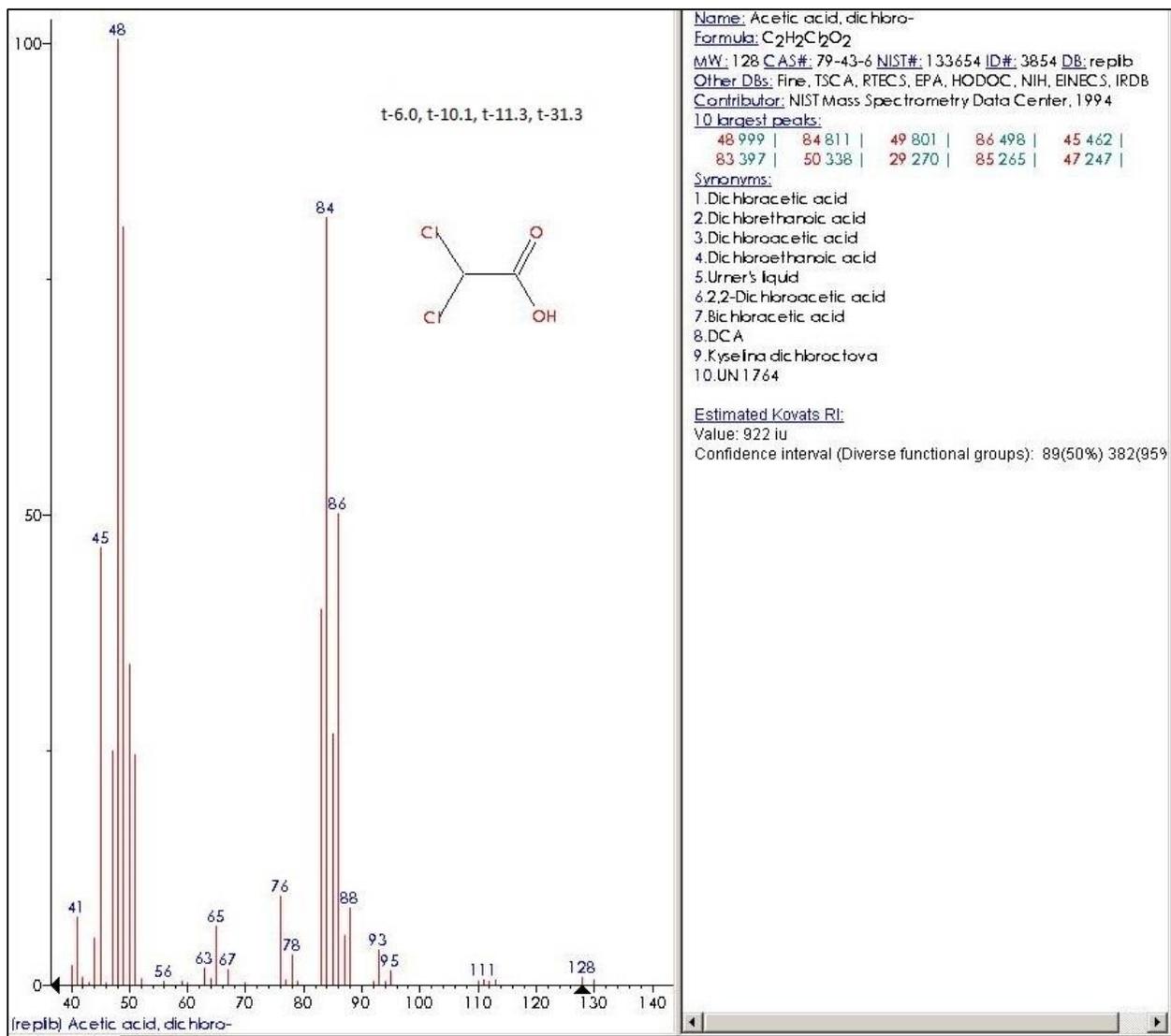


Figure C-36

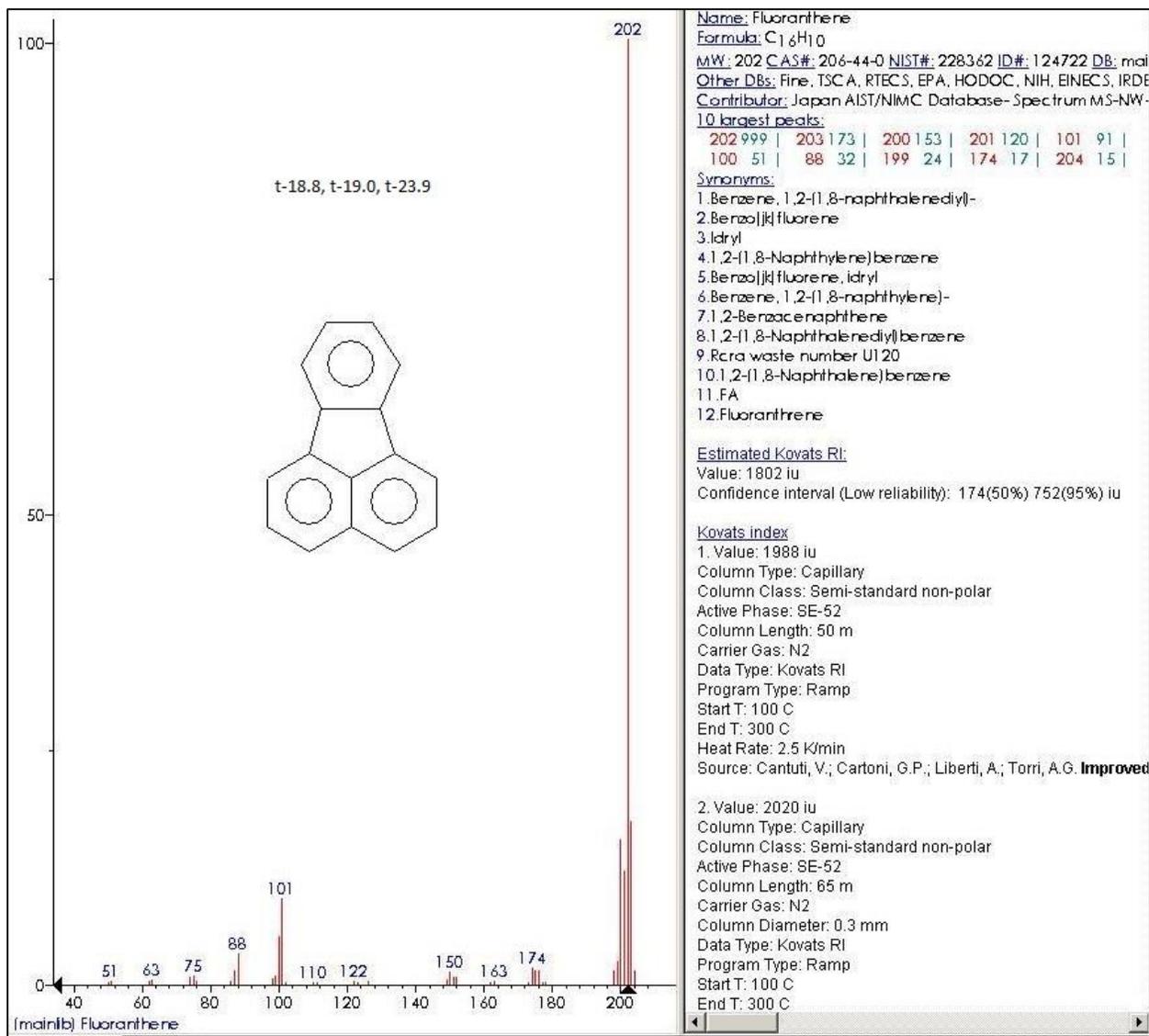


Figure C-37

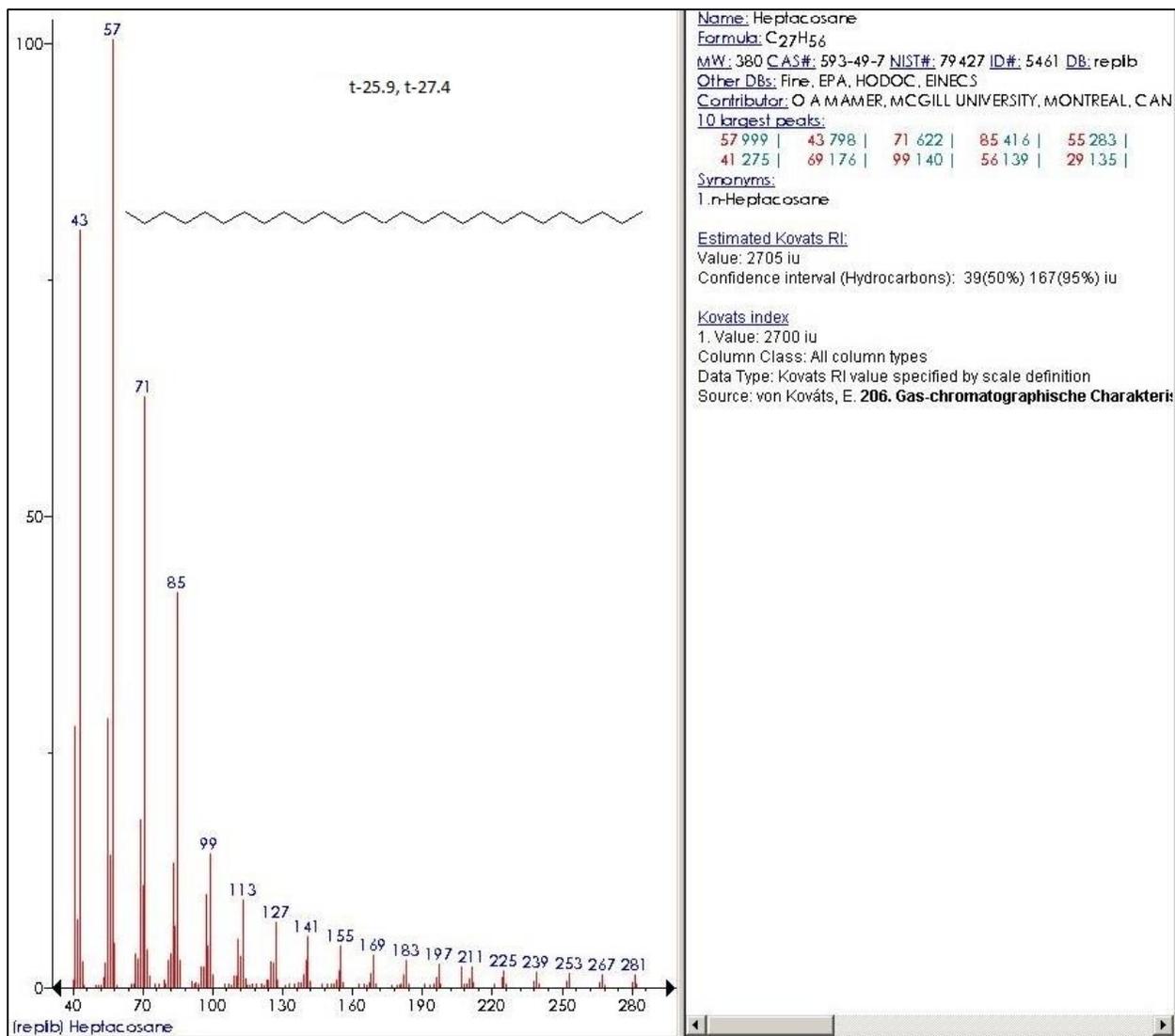


Figure C-38

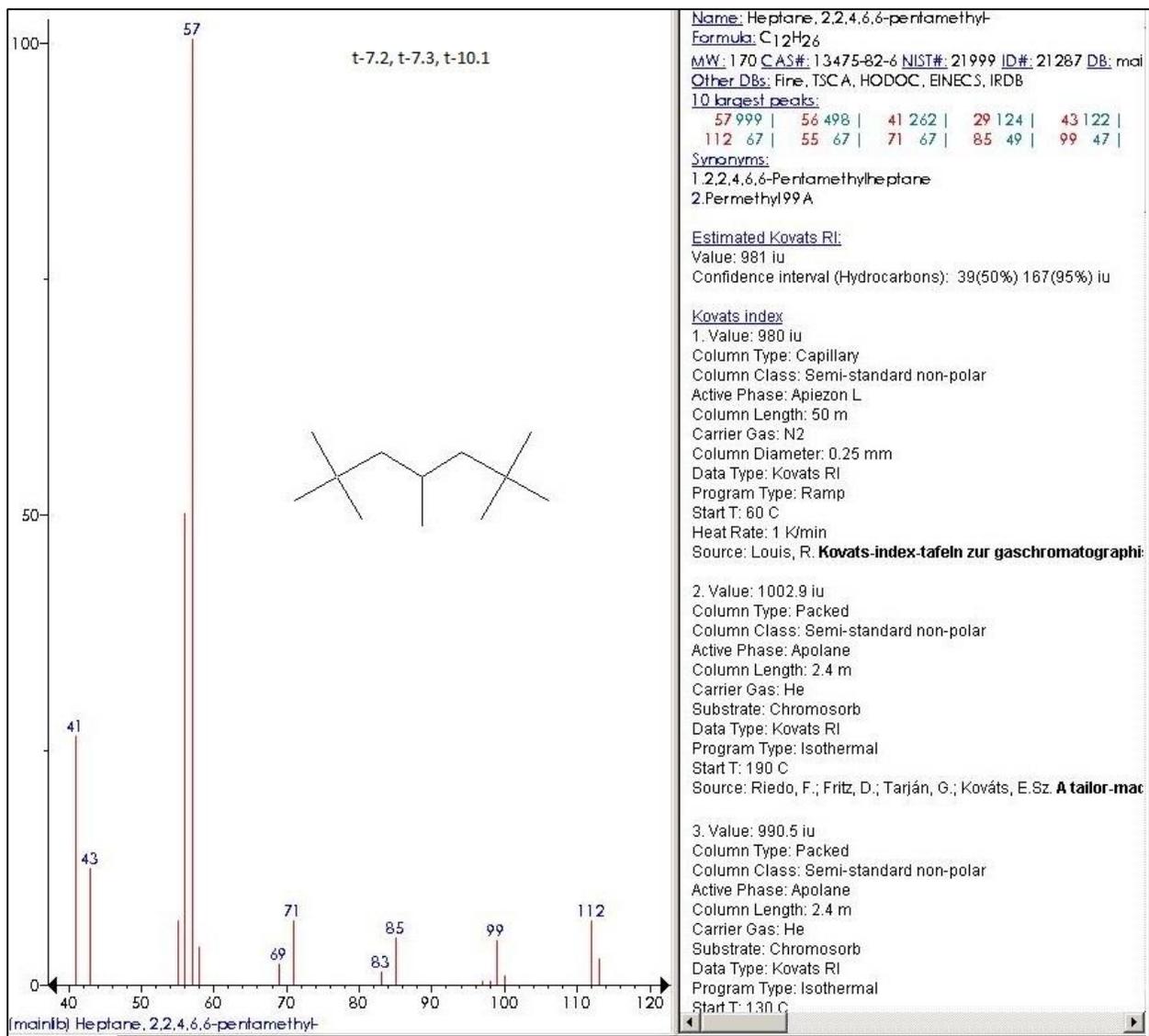


Figure C-39

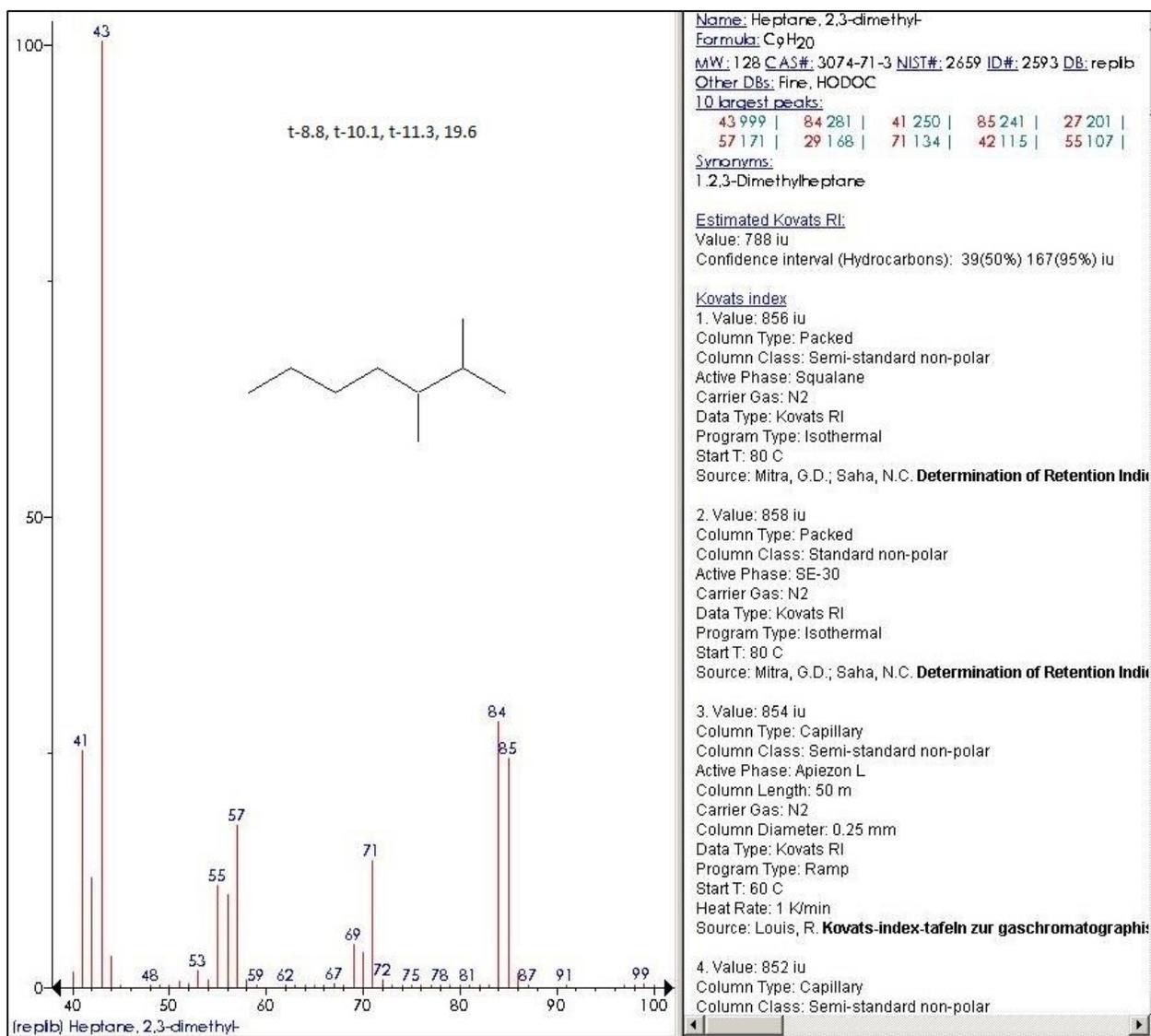


Figure C-40

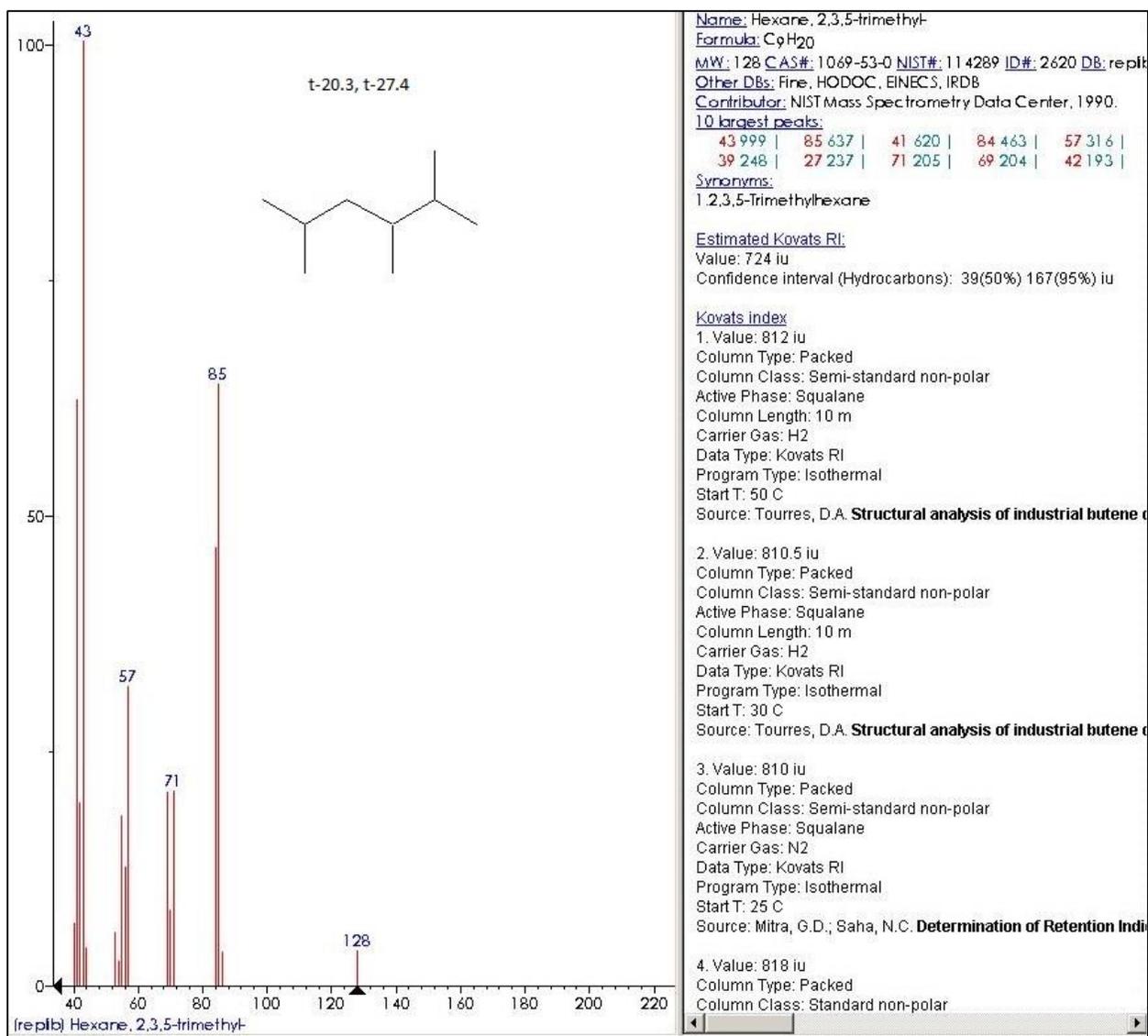


Figure C-41

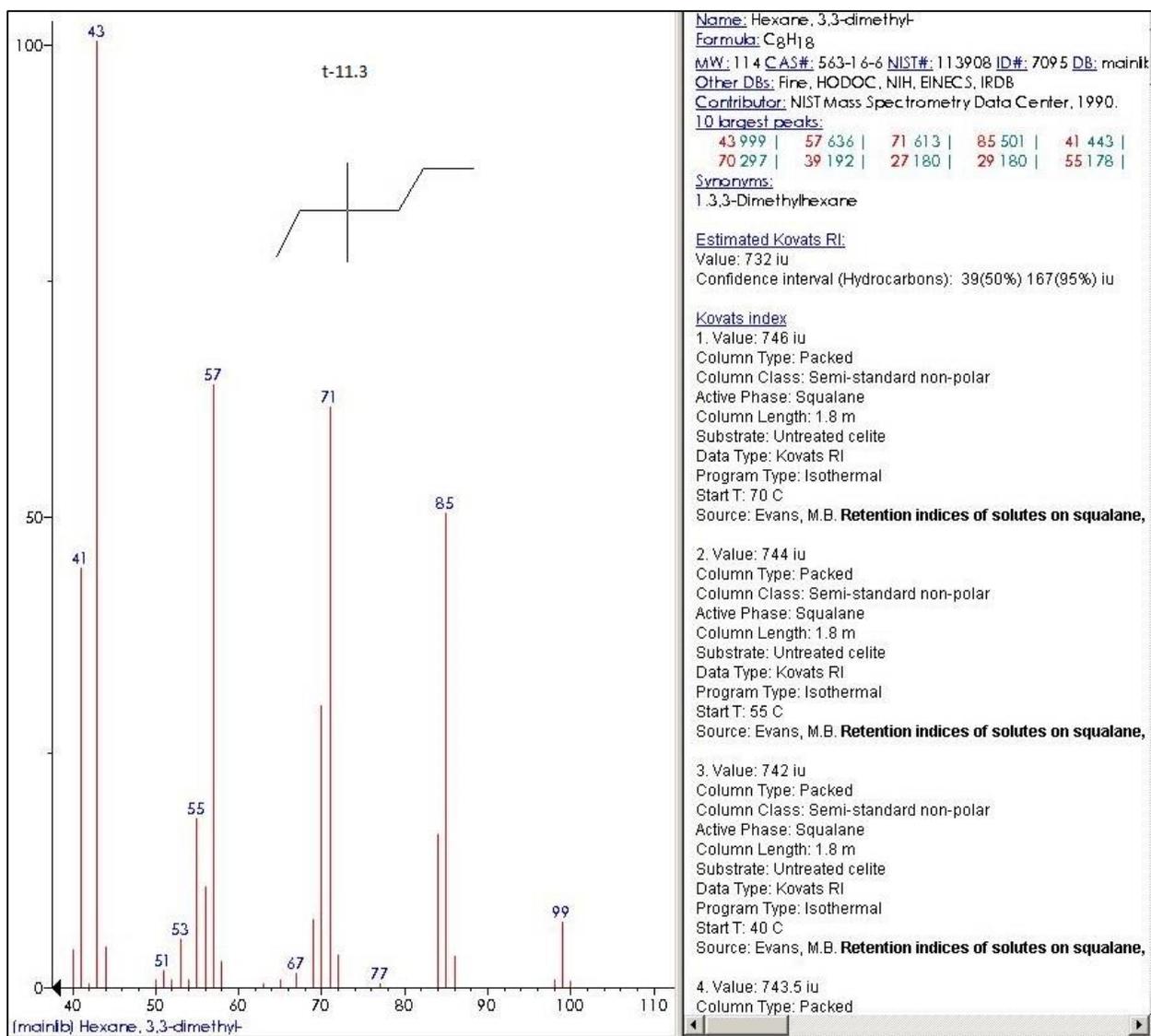


Figure C-42

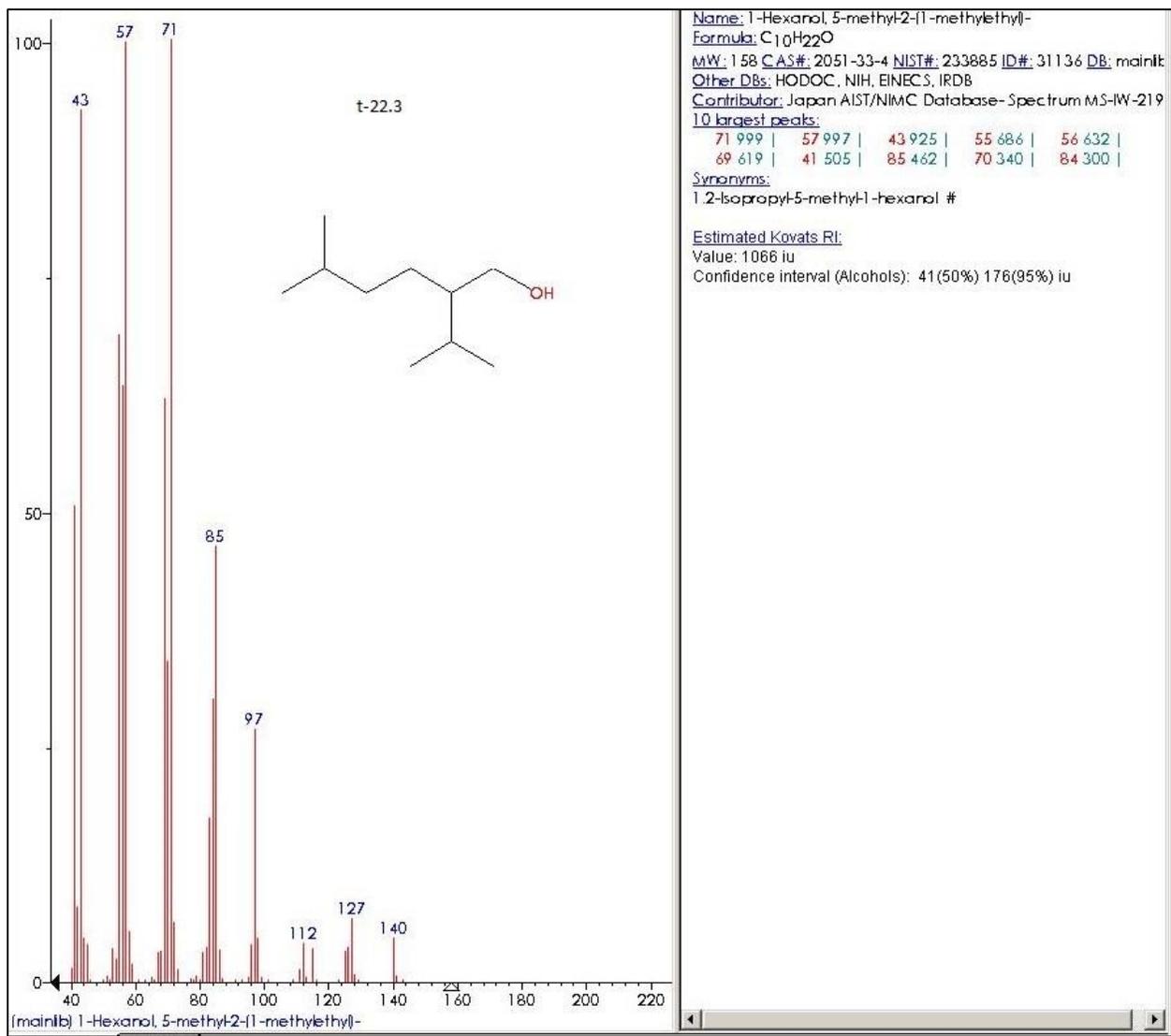


Figure C-43

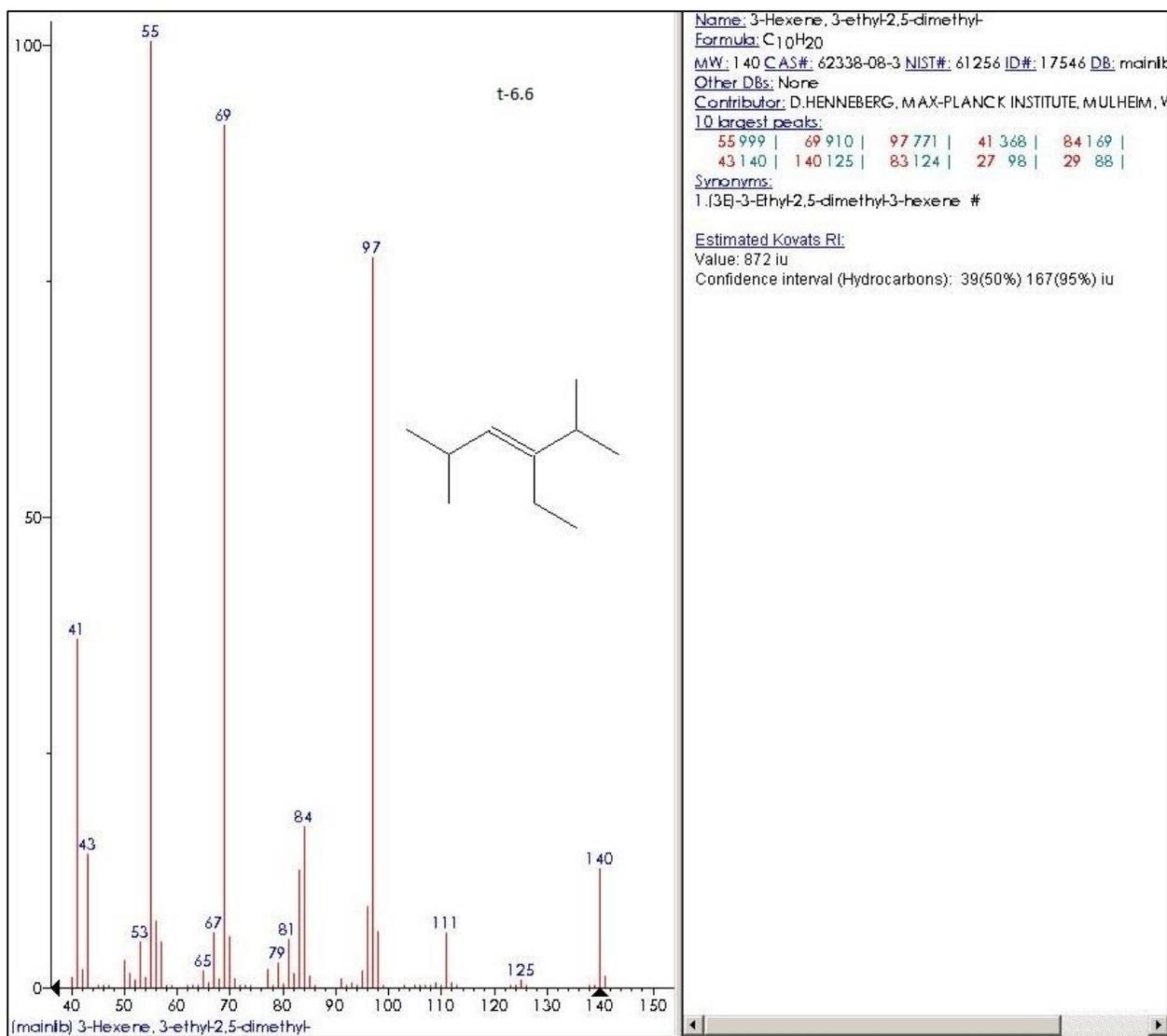


Figure C-44

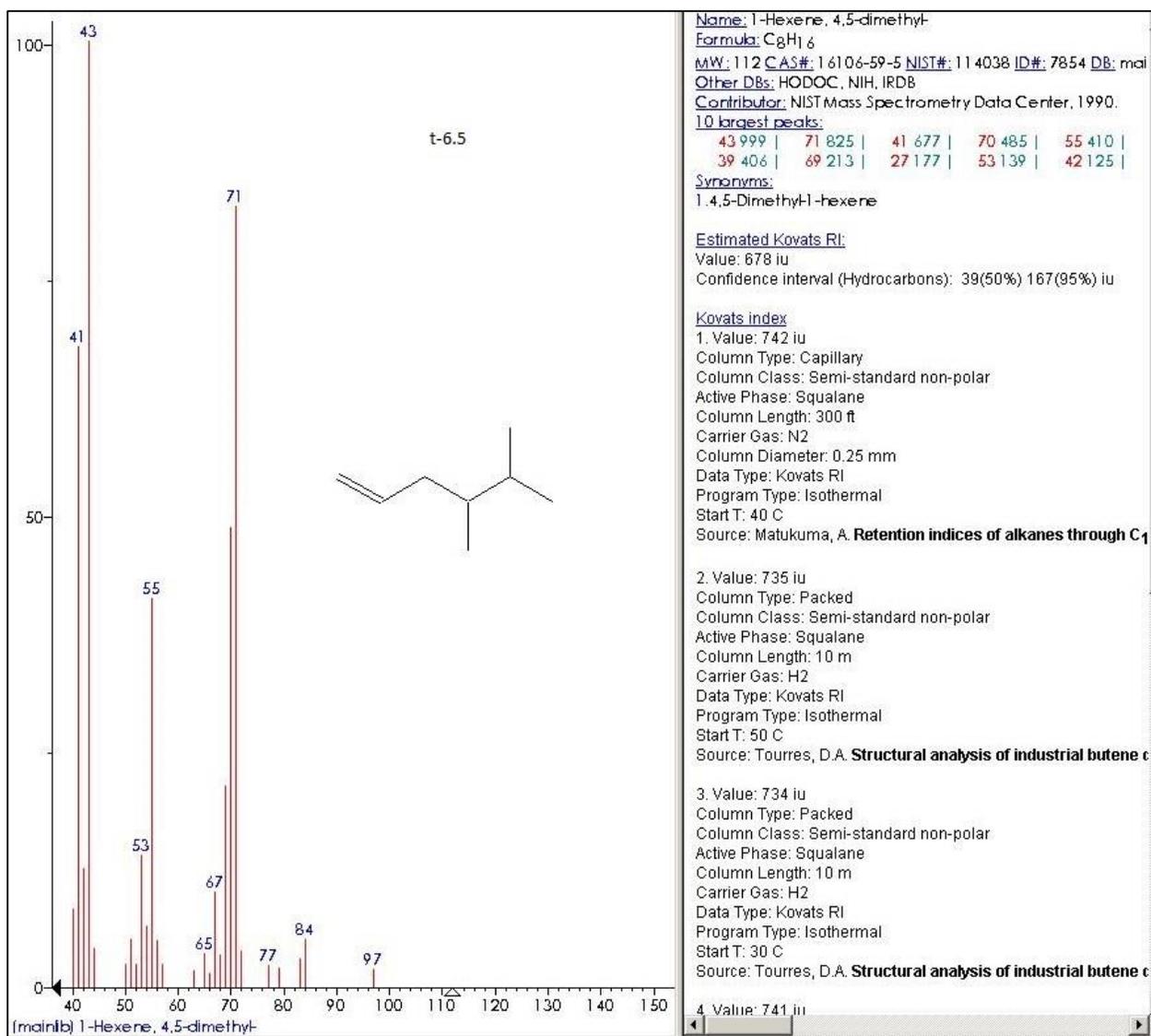


Figure C-45

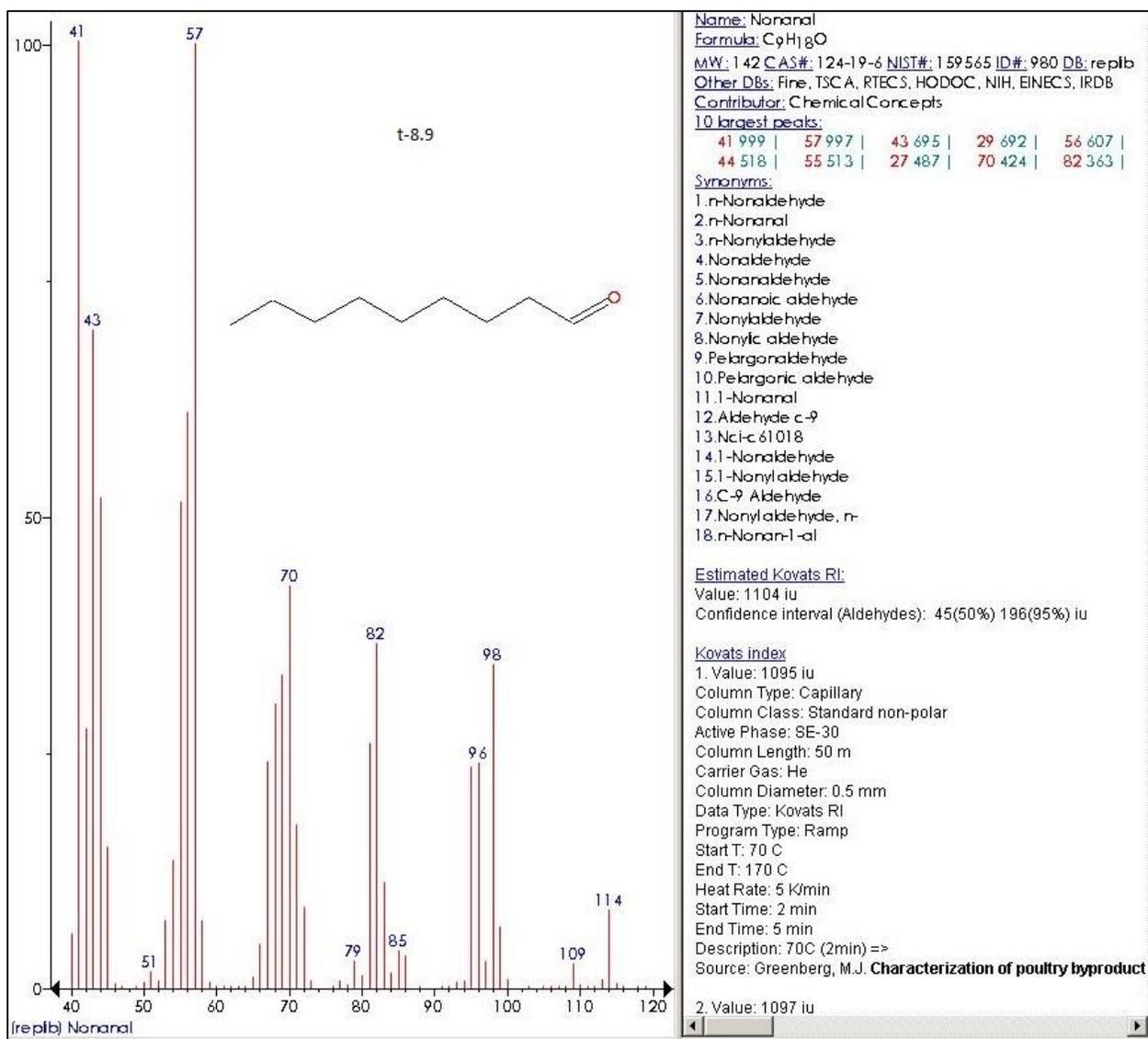


Figure C-46

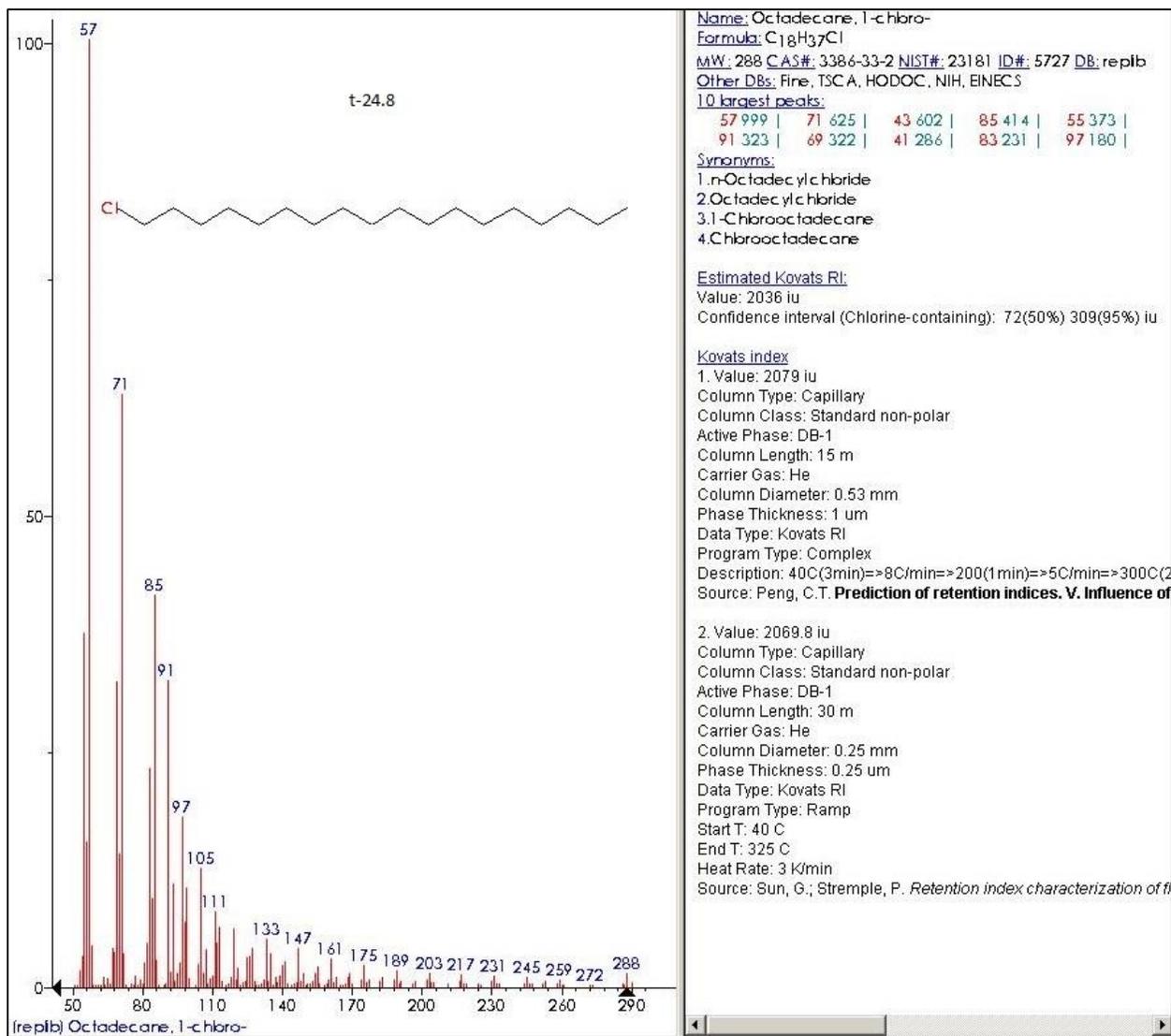


Figure C-47

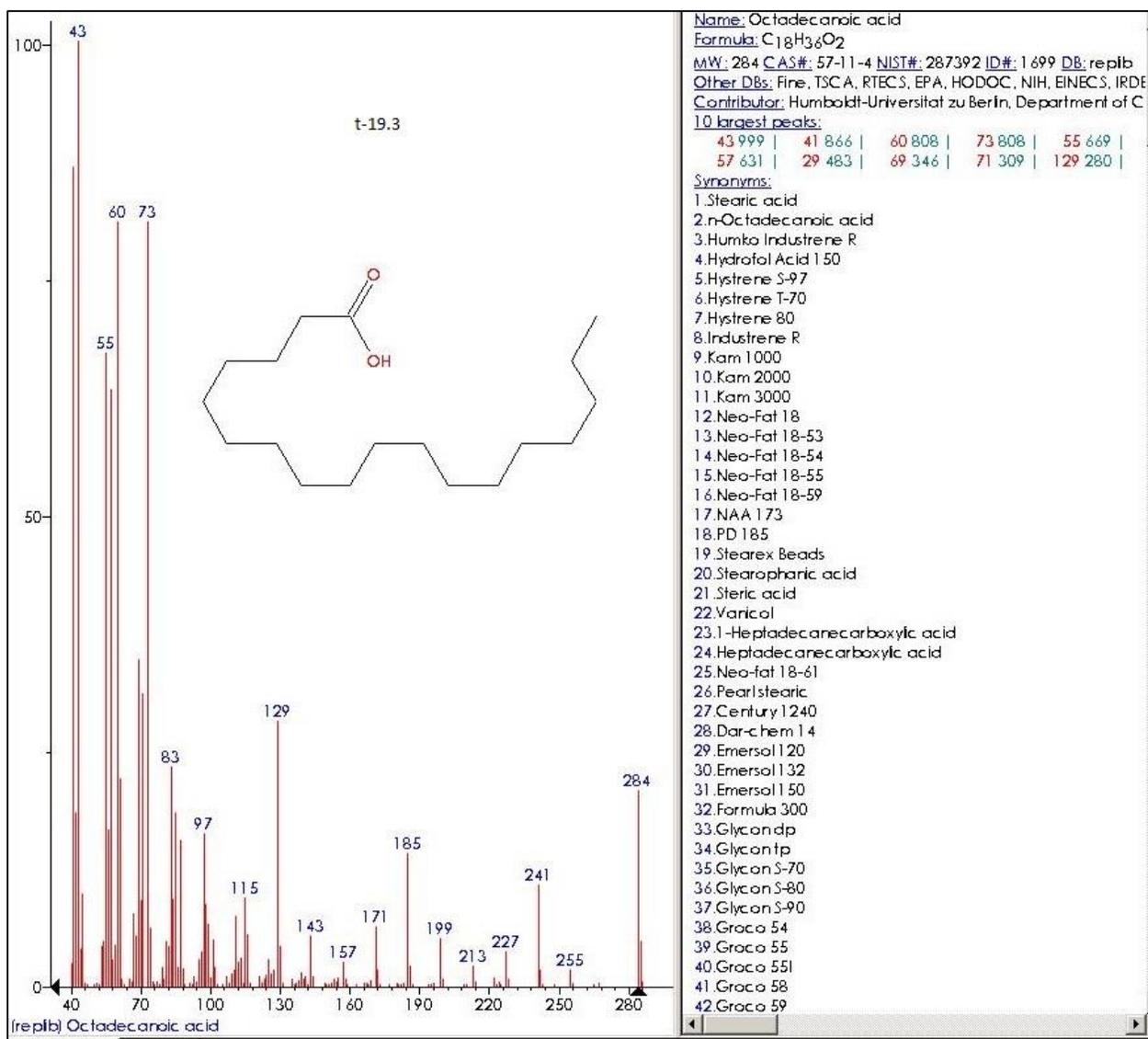


Figure C-48

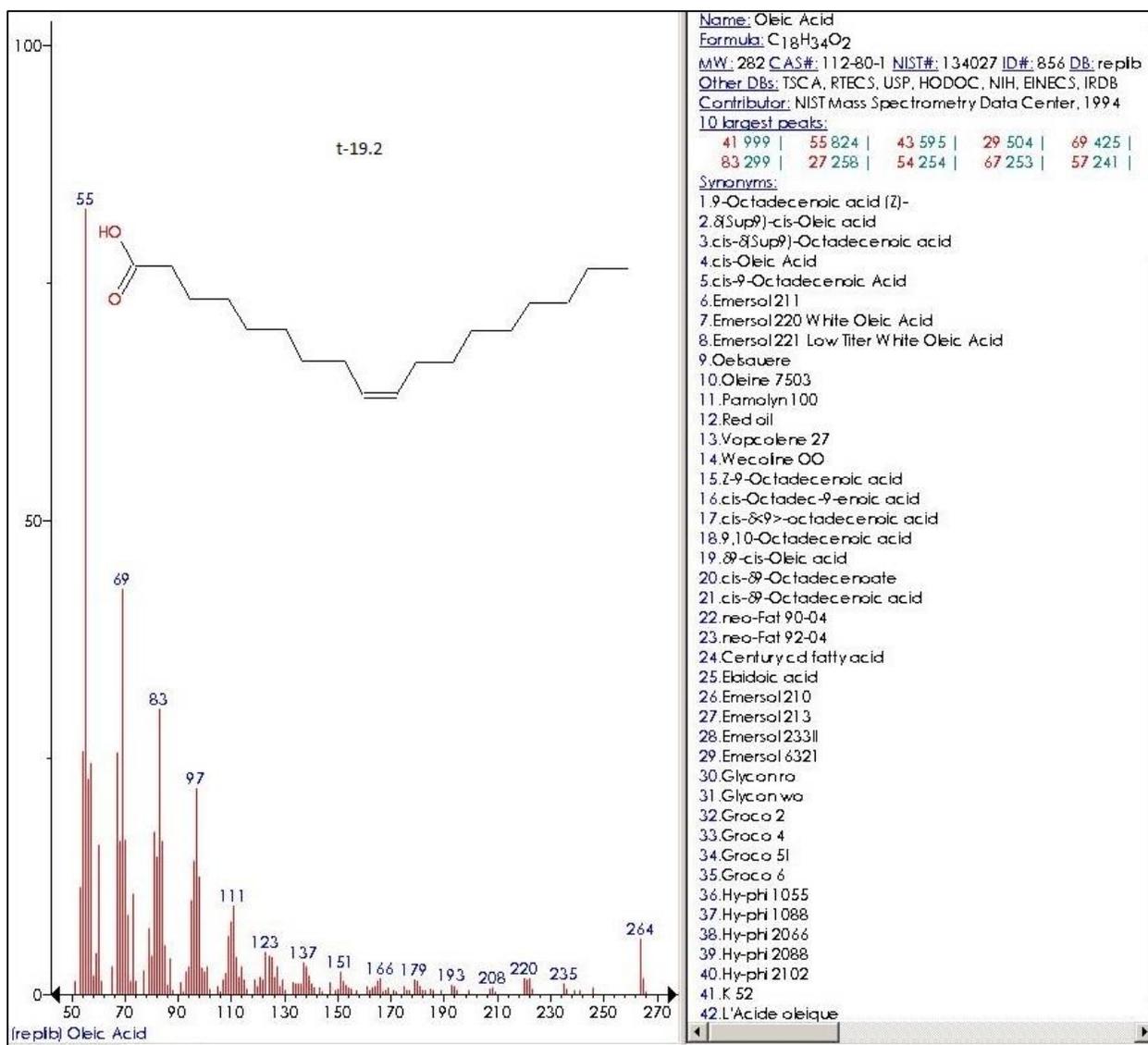
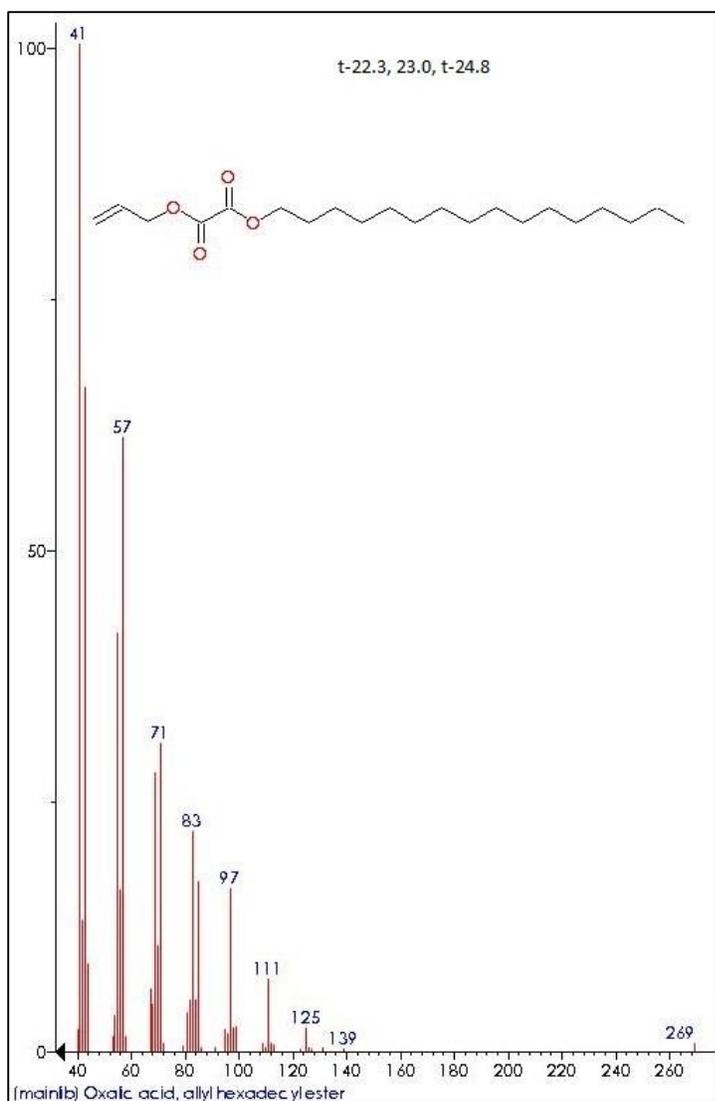


Figure C-49



Name: Oxalic acid, allyl hexadecylester
 Formula: C₂₁H₃₈O₄
 MW: 354 NIST#: 309244 ID#: 2186 DB: main1b
 Contributor: V.G. Zaikin, R.S.Borisov, TIPS RAS, Moscow, Russia
 10 largest peaks:
 41 999 | 43 659 | 57 609 | 55 415 | 71 306 |
 69 276 | 29 219 | 83 218 | 85 168 | 97 162 |
 Synonyms:
 no synonyms.
 Estimated Kovats RI:
 Value: 2433 iu
 Confidence interval (Esters): 47(50%) 201(95%) iu

Figure C-50

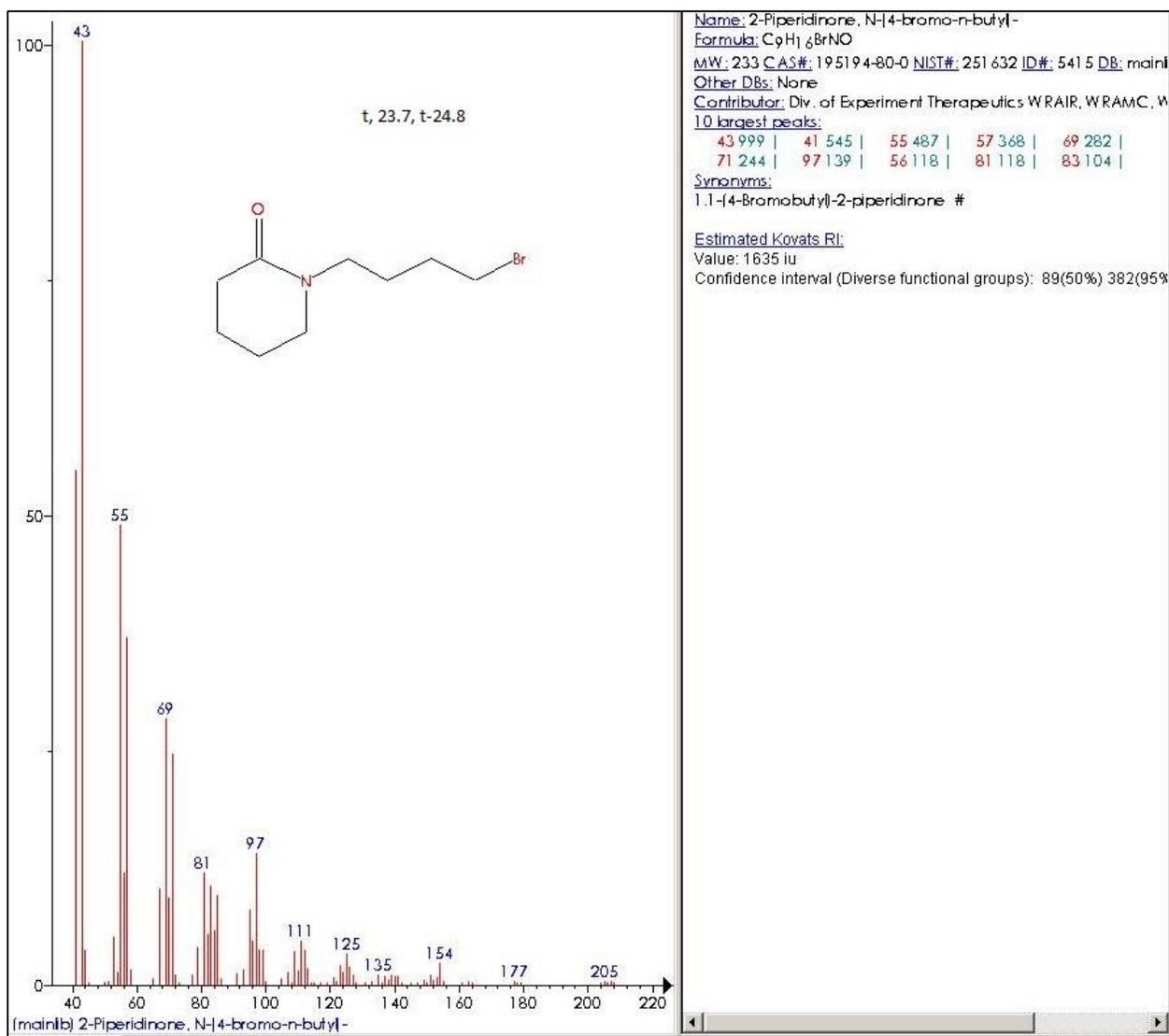


Figure C-51

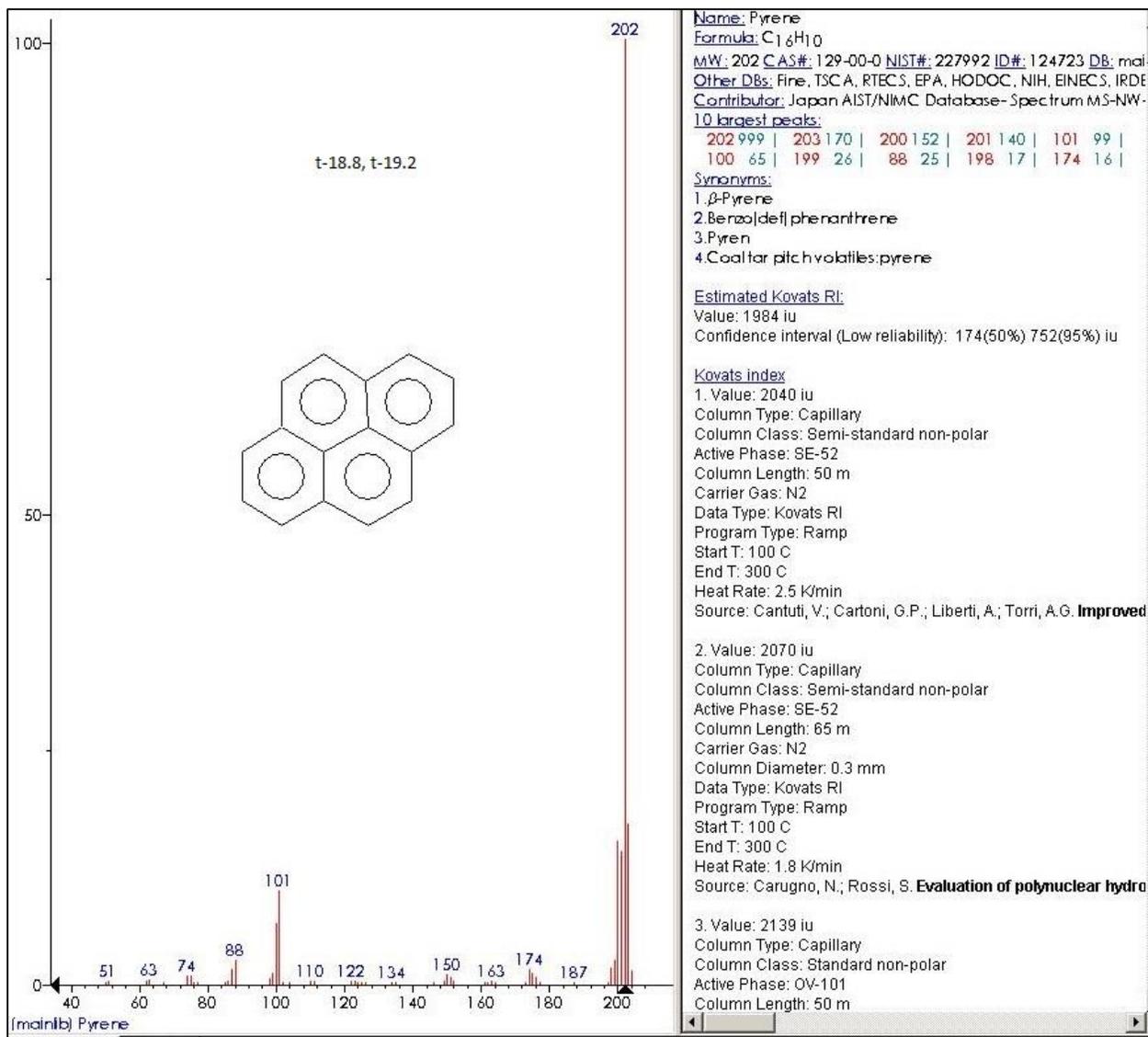


Figure C-52

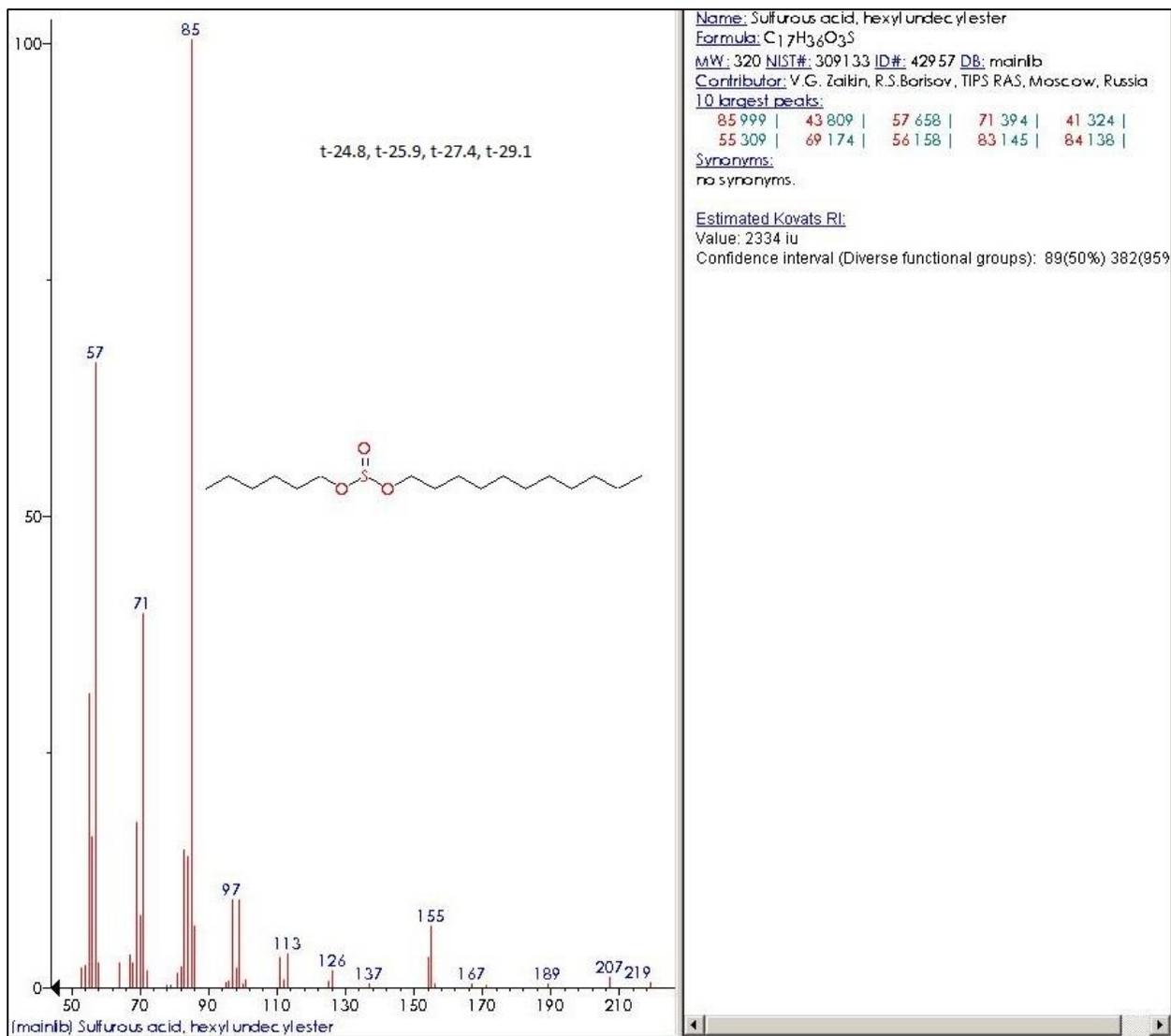


Figure C-53

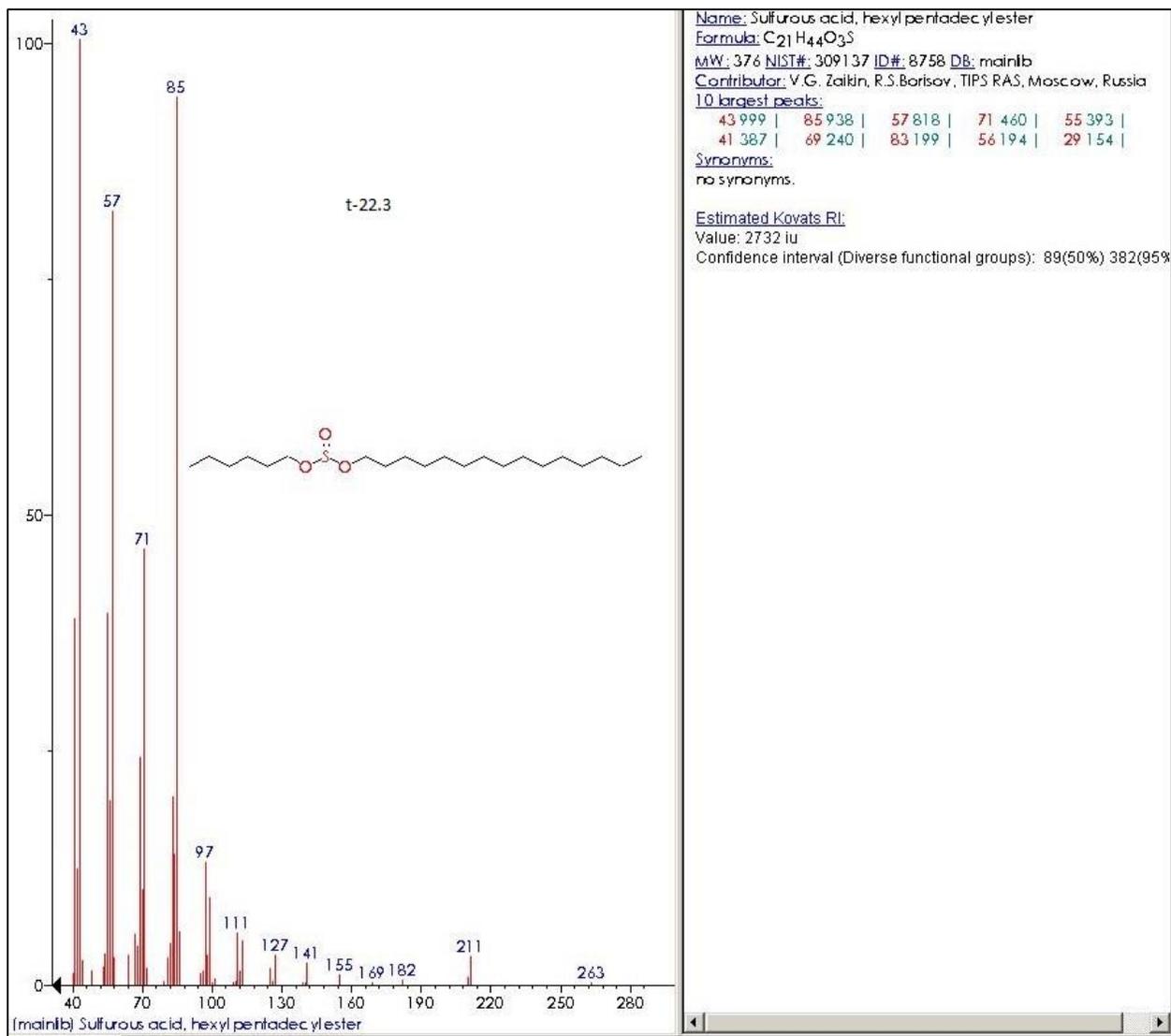


Figure C-54

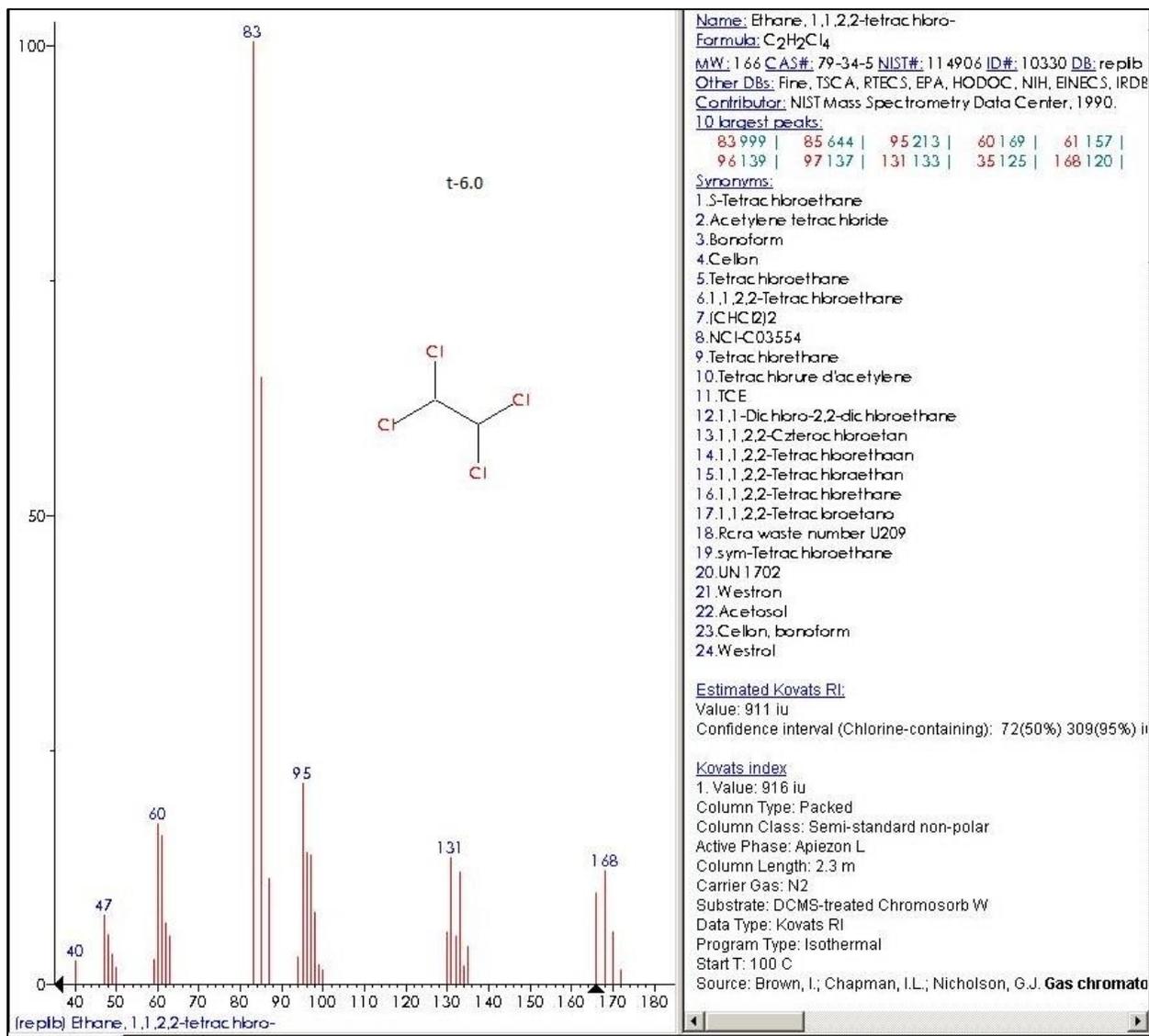


Figure C-55

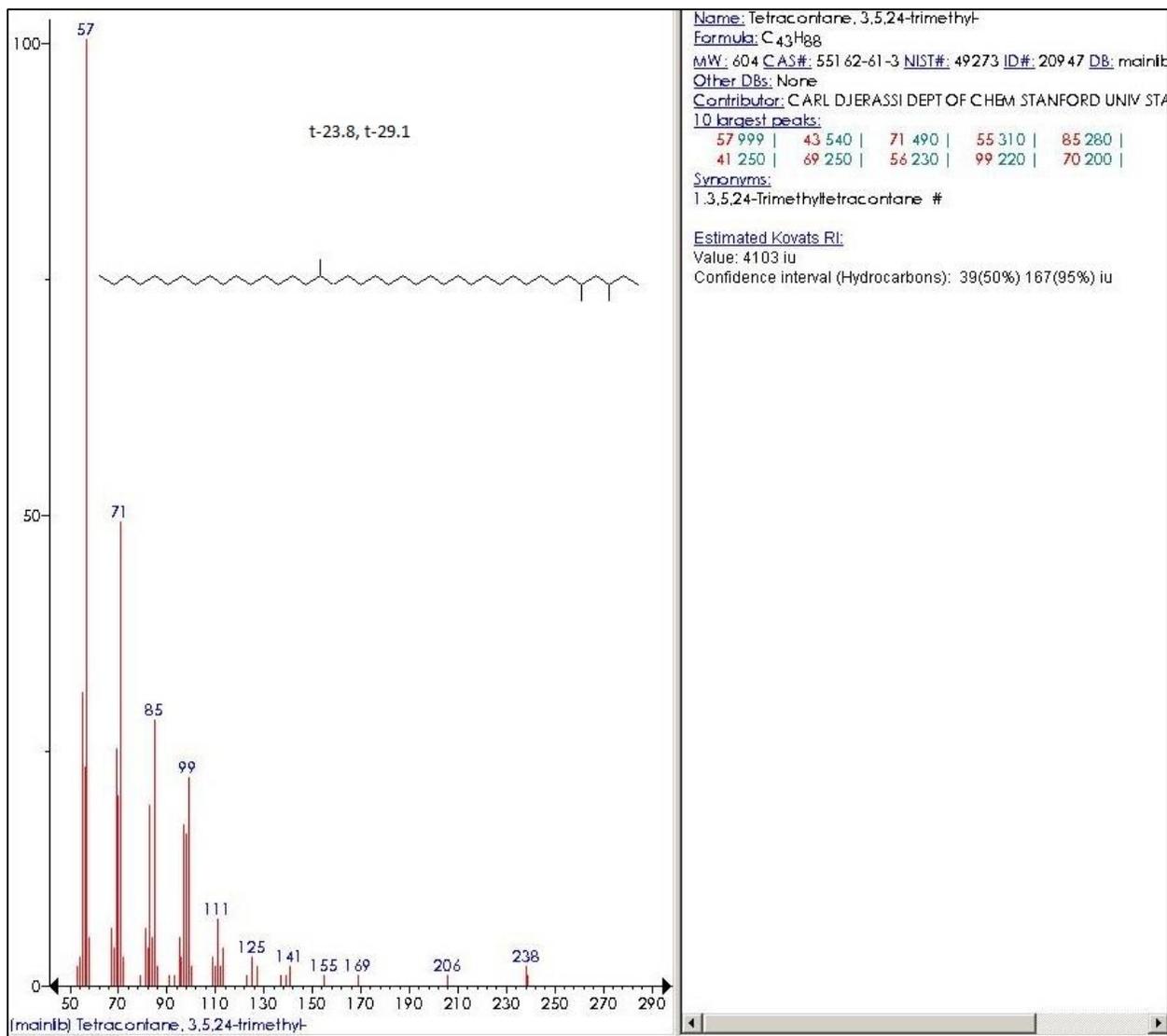


Figure C-56

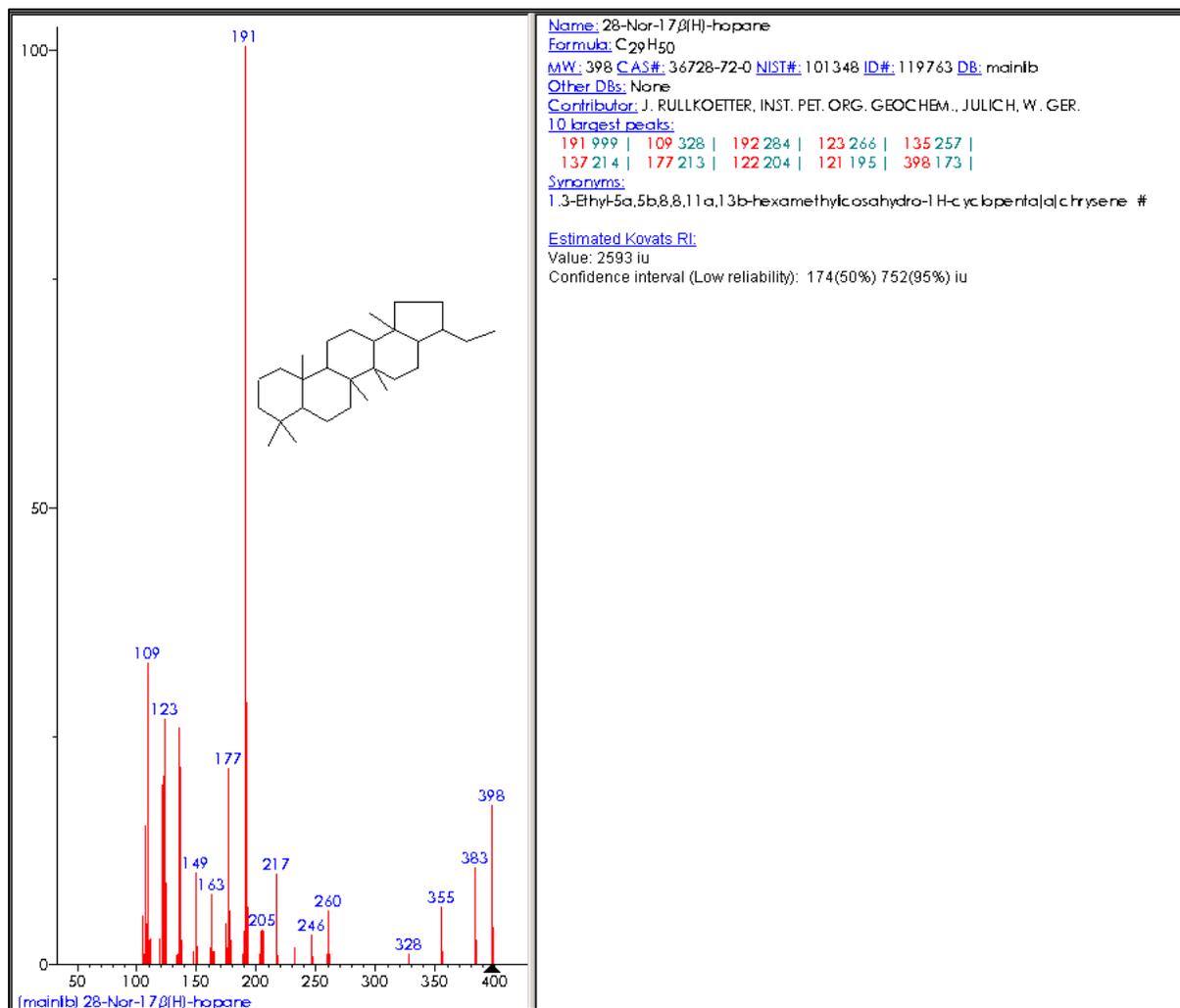


Figure C-57

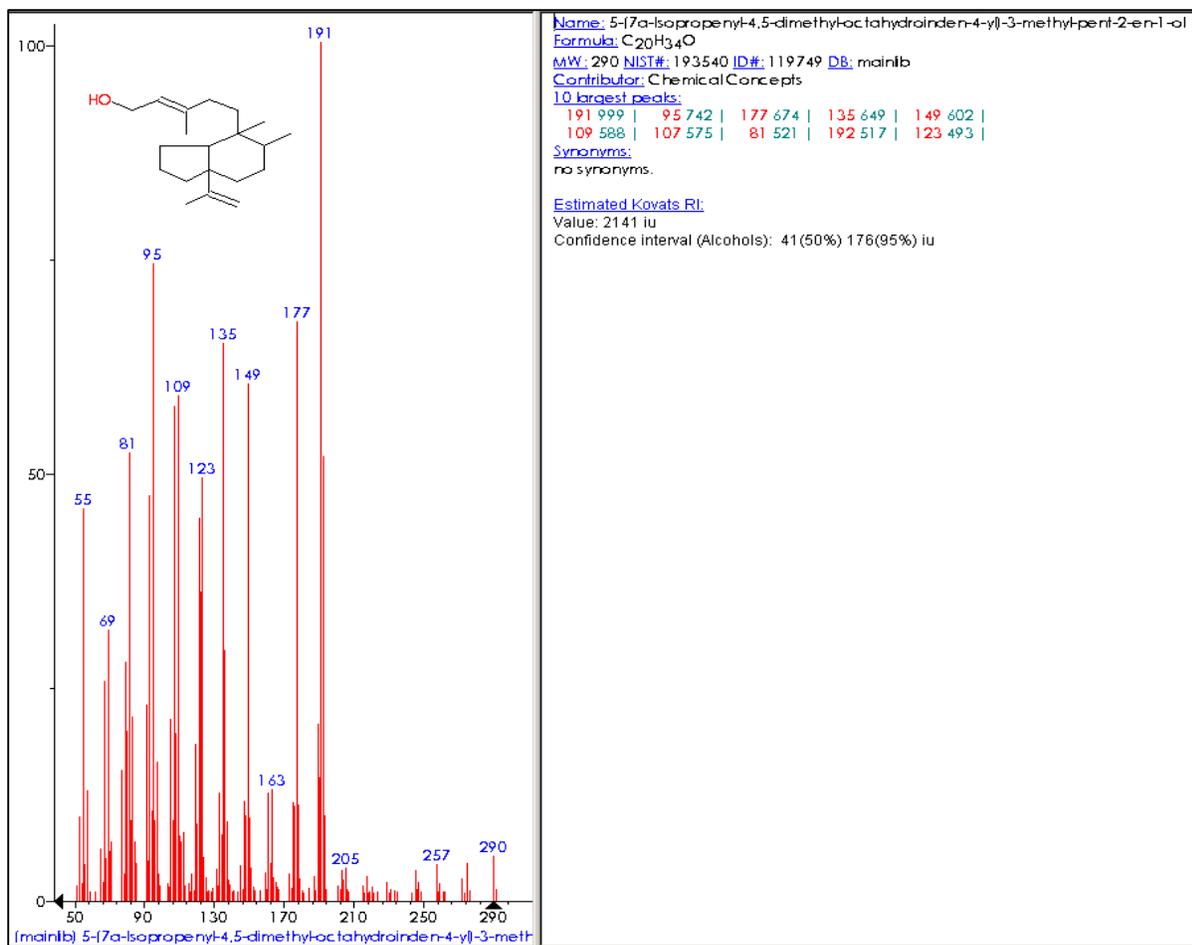


Figure C-58

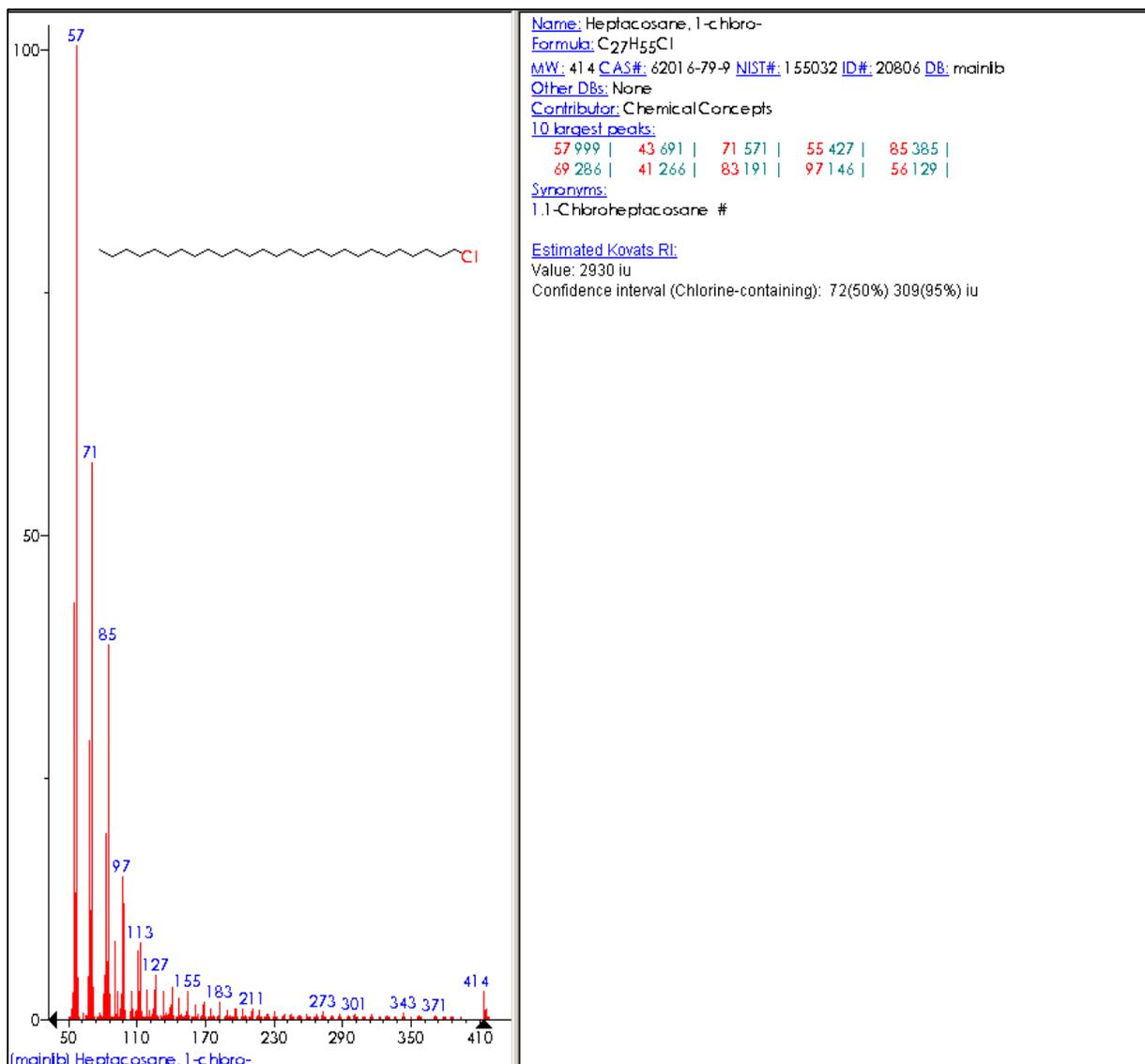
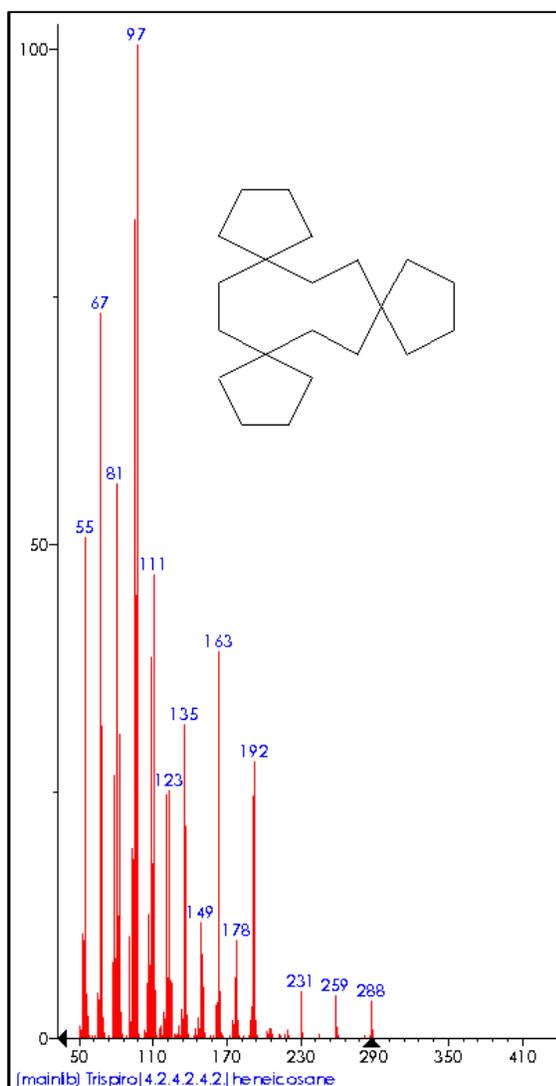


Figure C-59



[Name:](#) Trispiro[4.2.4.2.4.2]heneicosane
[Formula:](#) C₂₁H₃₆
[MW:](#) 288 [NIST#:](#) 152808 [ID#:](#) 54600 [DB:](#) mainlib
[Contributor:](#) Chemical Concepts
[10 largest peaks:](#)
 97 999 | 95 824 | 67 729 | 81 557 | 41 541 |
 55 503 | 111 466 | 96 445 | 163 389 | 109 383 |
[Synonyms:](#)
 no synonyms.

[Estimated Kovats RI:](#)
 Value: 2262 iu
 Confidence interval (Hydrocarbons): 39(50%) 167(95%) iu

Figure C-60

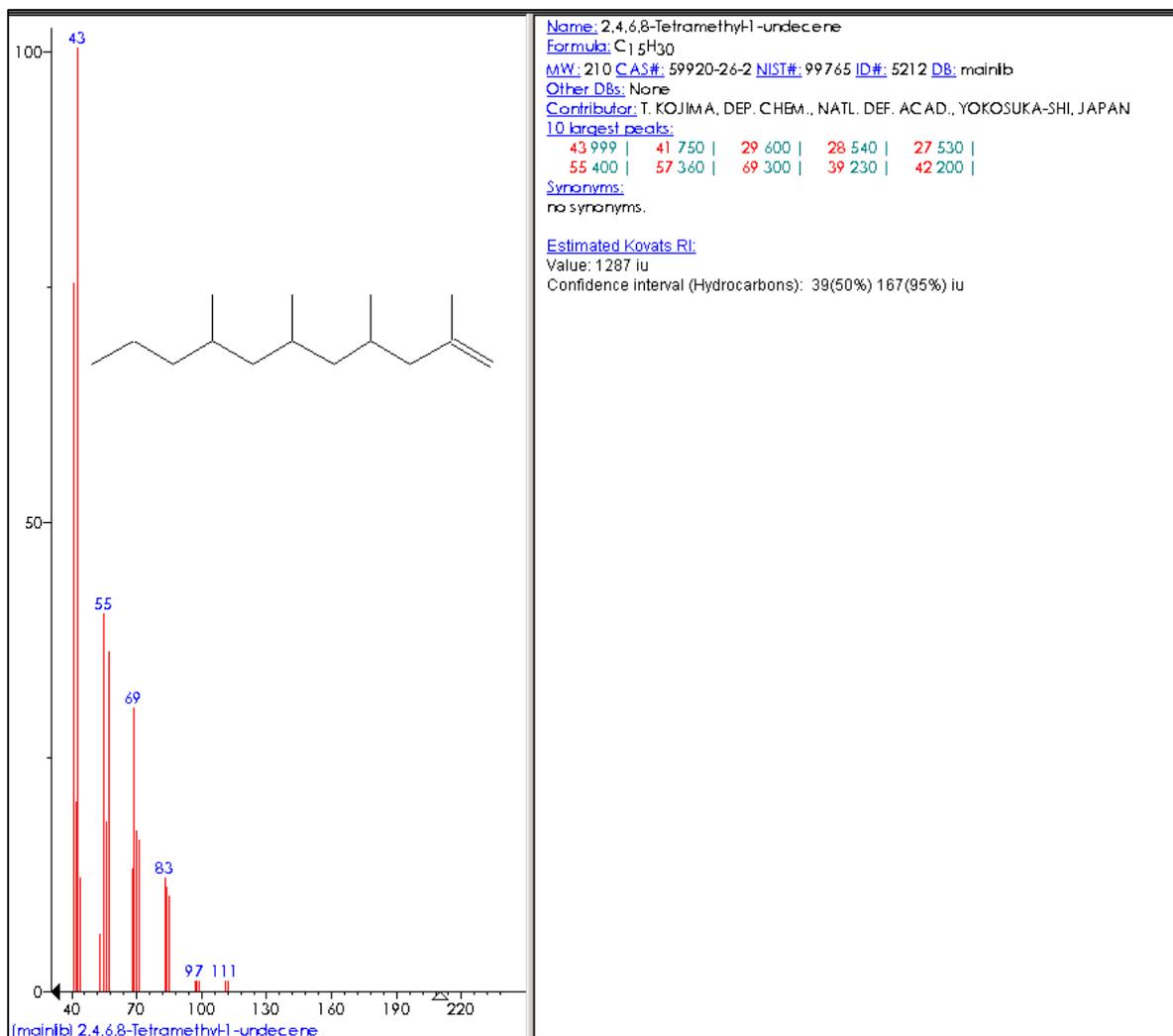


Figure C-61

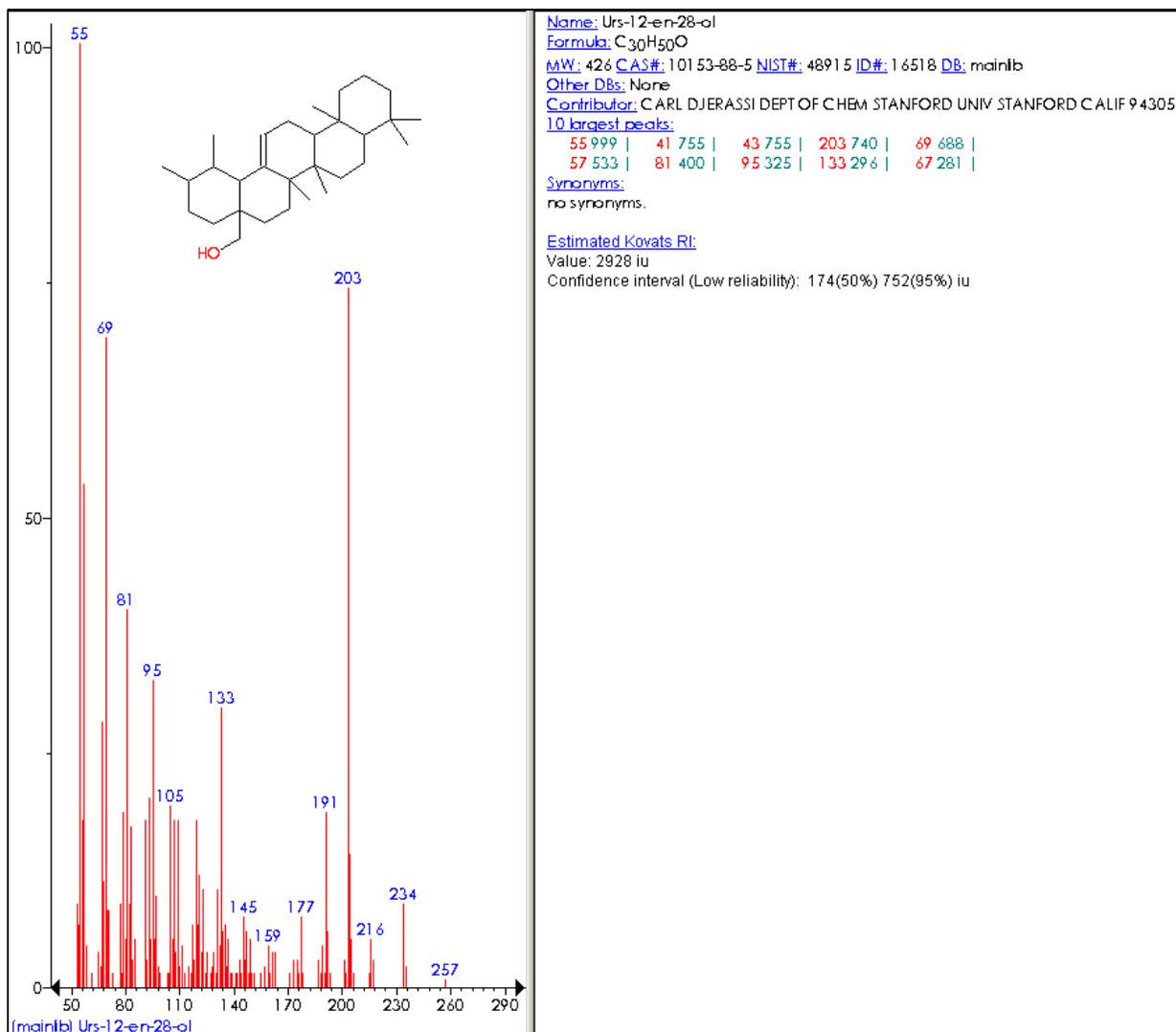


Figure C-62

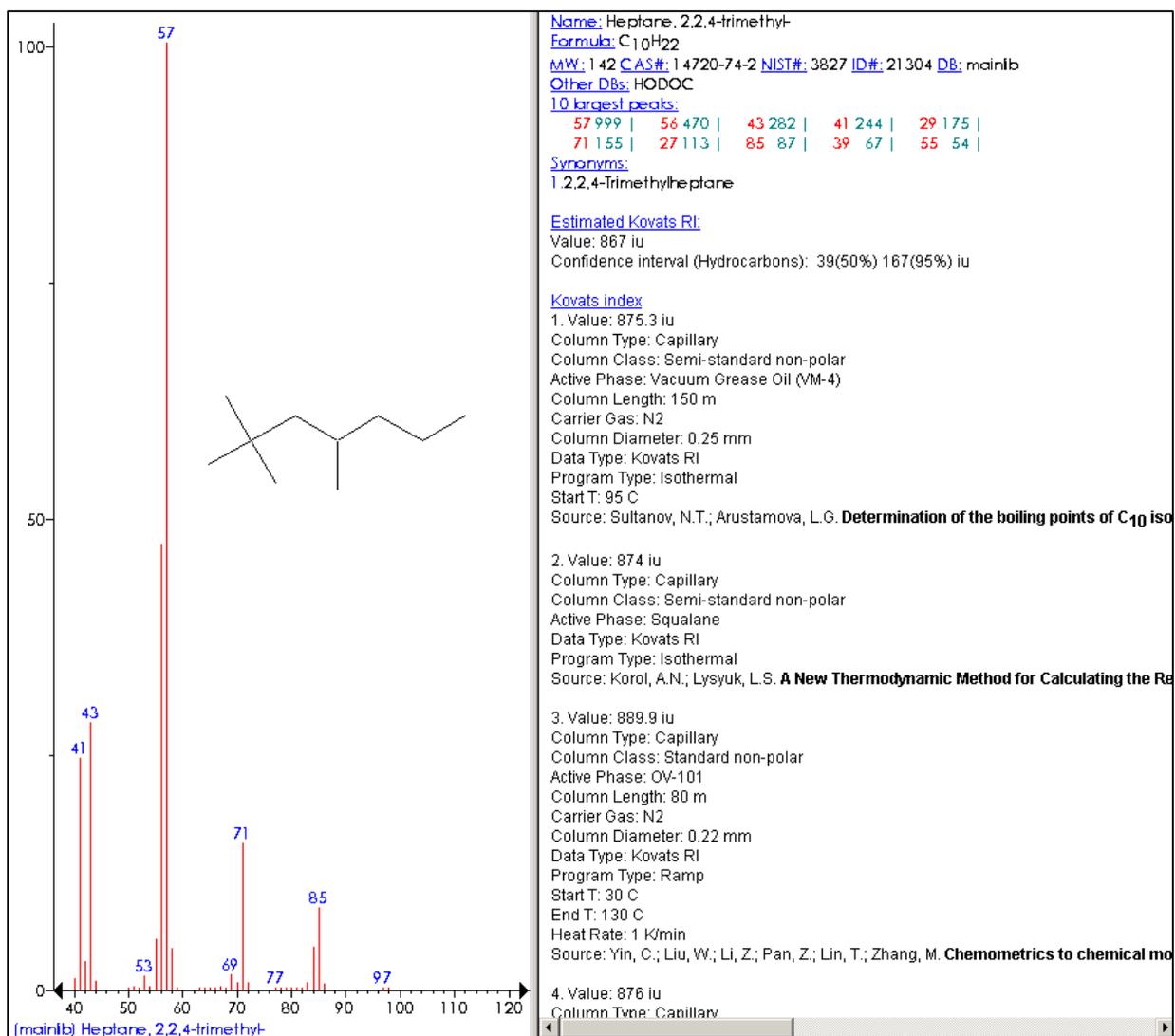


Figure C-63

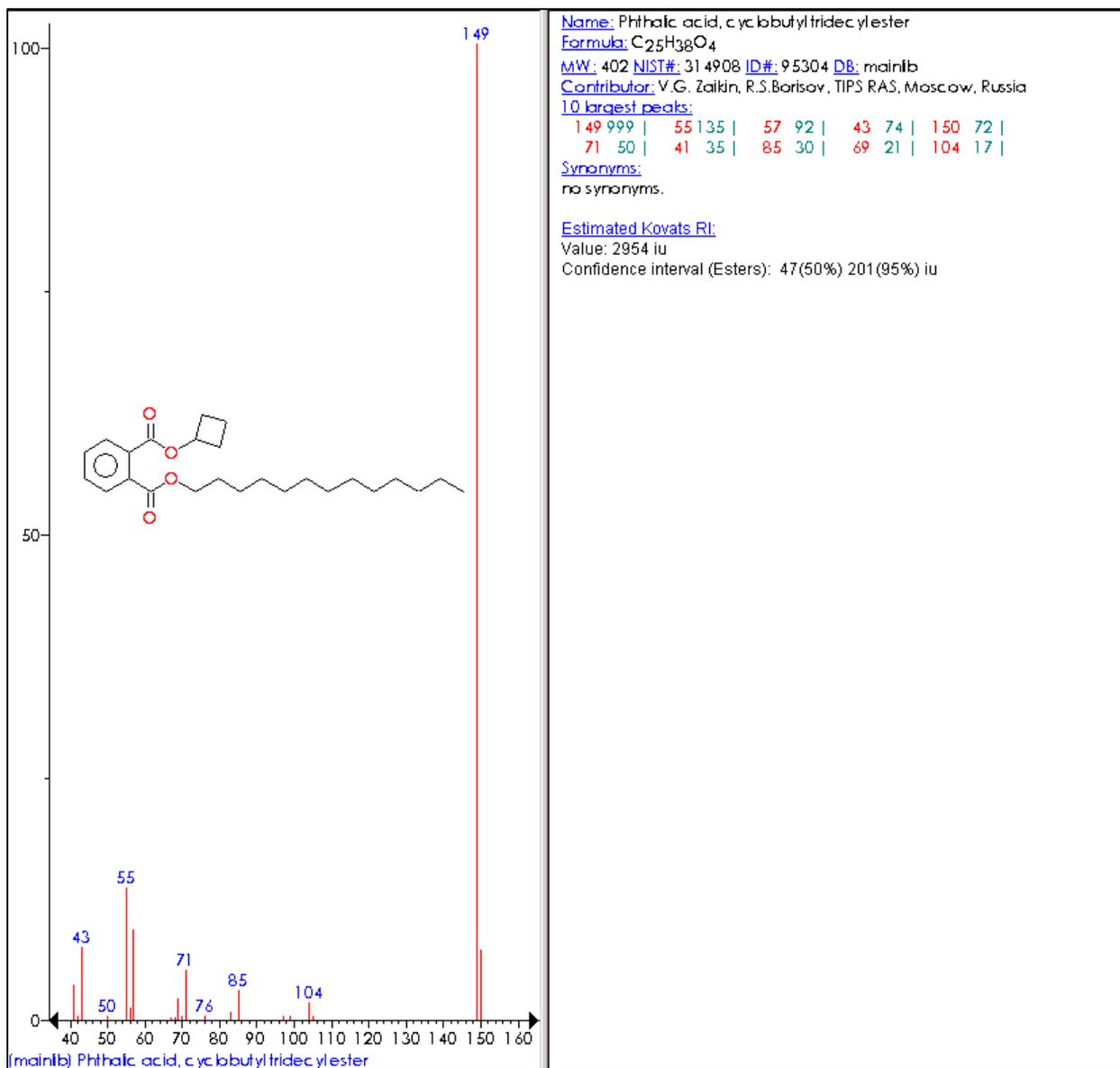


Figure C-64