Environmental Science Processes & Impacts

Accepted Manuscript



This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. We will replace this Accepted Manuscript with the edited and formatted Advance Article as soon as it is available.

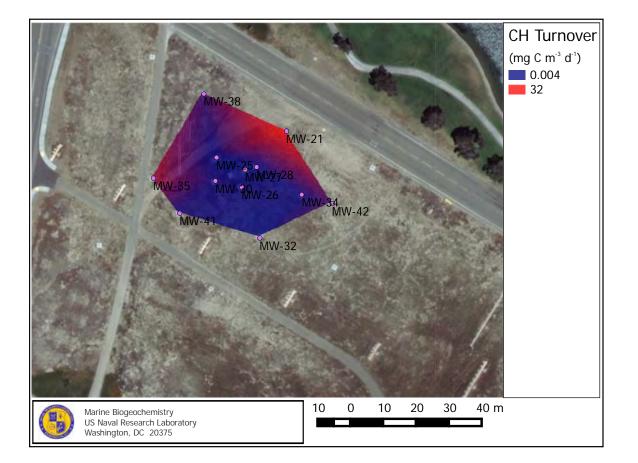
You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the **Information for Authors**.

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard <u>Terms & Conditions</u> and the <u>Ethical guidelines</u> still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.



rsc.li/process-impacts

Chlorinated hydrocarbon turnover (mineralization) estimated by CO₂ radiocarbon content and respiration rate coupled to ZOI models.



 $\rm CO_2$ radiocarbon analysis has proved extremeley useful in definitively demonstrating onsite hydrocarbon (fuels, industrical chemicals, etc) remediation to a non-toxic endproduct. Vadoze-zone and groundwater $\rm CO_2$ which is radiocarbon-depleted relative to background $\rm CO_2$ confirms fossil-fuel or industrial chemical degradation. Combining $\rm CO_2$ radiocarbon analysis, on-site $\rm CO_2$ production rate , and a hydrogeologic Zone of Influence (ZOI) model for each collection well allows calculating contaminant degradation per unit time and unit area. Combining these measureemnts allows an environmental manager to estimate time-to-remediate for specific regions within a site – or the entire site. This information aids in evaluating remediation alternatives and can be used throughout the life-cycle of site analysis to assess remediation.

Environmental Science: Processes & Impacts

ARTICLE

Cite this: DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x

Received 00th January 2012, Accepted 00th January 2012

DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x

www.rsc.org/

Combined radiocarbon and CO₂ flux measurements used to determine *in situ* chlorinated solvent mineralization rate

T.J. Boyd,^a M.T. Montgomery,^a R.H. Cuenca,^b and Y. Hagimoto^b

A series of combined measurements was made at the Naval Air Station North Island (NASNI) Installation Restoration Site 5, Unit 2 during July and August 2013. Combined measurements included CO₂ respiration rate, CO₂ radiocarbon content to estimate chlorinated hydrocarbon (CH) mineralization and a zone of influence (ZOI) model. CO₂ was collected continuously over 2 two-week periods by recirculating monitoring well headspace gas through NaOH traps. A series of 12 wells in the main CH plume zone and a background well with no known historical contamination were sampled. The background well CO₂ was used to determine radiocarbon content derived from respired natural organic matter. A two end-member mixing model was then used to then determine the amount of CH-derived carbon present in the CO_2 collected from plume region wells. The ZOI model provided an estimate for the soil volume sampled at each well. CH mineralization rates were highest upgradient and at the plume fringe for areas of high historical contamination and ranged from 0.02 to 5.6 mg CH carbon d⁻¹. Using the ZOI model volume estimates, CH-carbon removal ranged from 0.2 to 32 mg CHcarbon $m^{-3} d^{-1}$. Because the rate estimates were based on a limited sampling (temporally), they were not further extrapolated to long-term contaminant degradation estimates. However, if the site manager or regulators required them, estimates - subject to long-term variability uncertainties - could be made using volume and rate data determined over short timescales. A more comprehensive seasonal sampling is needed to constrain long-term remediation models for the entire impacted area and identify environmental conditions related to more rapid turnover times amongst the wells.

Introduction

The Department of Defense (DoD), Department of Energy (DOE), other federal agencies and civilian entities are faced with billion dollar expenditures for environmental cleanup in the United States. Prohibitive cleanup costs make treatment strategies such as monitored natural attenuation (MNA), enhanced passive remediation (EPR) or low cost engineered solutions attractive remediation alternatives for reaching Response Complete (RC) status. Historically, lines of converging evidence are used to establish the occurrence of in situ bioremediation, abiotic contaminant conversion, or other forms of natural attenuation. It is often accepted that no single analysis or combination of ex situ laboratory tests provides an accurate contaminant turnover confirmation or rate information for contaminant degradation under *in situ* conditions¹⁻⁴. Similarly, reports sponsored by DoD, DOE and Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) advocate collection of a wide array of data to confirm contaminant attenuation and predict timescale(s) for remediation $^{5-7}$.

Multiple lines of evidence provide a means for refining what occurs on-site and in some instances, may provide indirect contaminant degradation rate estimates. However, site managers are under considerable pressure to decrease costs while still obtaining the most realistic and complete site conceptual model data. A clear need exists for relatively inexpensive methods that are able to provide compelling evidence for contaminant turnover while also offering realistic rate estimates for obtaining cleanup goals. Combining natural abundance ¹⁴CO₂ measurements with CO₂ production (contaminant respiration) rates offers a method for simultaneously determining the amount of CO₂ generated from the contaminant pool and that CO₂'s generation rate (be it biodegradation or abiotic conversion)⁸.

Because of the very distinct fossil carbon signatures (devoid of ¹⁴C) relative to contemporary carbon (modern), ¹⁴CO₂ analysis has recently been applied to tracking fossil fuelderived contaminant degradation products⁸⁻¹⁴. Analytical resolution between the two end members (fossil and contemporary) is over 1,100 parts per thousand (standard measurement scale) and can be accurately measured on contemporary AMS systems. Living biomass, atmospheric CO_2 , and soil organic matter-derived CO_2 are all analytically distinct from fossil-derived CO_2 . Petroleum and petroleum-sourced industrial chemicals have a distinct radiocarbon signature (0% modern) and the absence of ¹⁴C is evenly distributed throughout the contaminant pool - offering a built-in tracer. As radioactive decay rates are unchanging, the only potential bias in this measurement is toward the conservative (for example, if some atmospheric CO_2 contaminates a sample the measurement will be more modern and thus will not overestimate degradation rate).

If considerable degradation (contaminant oxidation) is occurring, CO_2 evolution associated with a fossil-fuel based contaminant plume will reflect the carbon source. Up-gradient of the plume (*e.g.* background site), groundwater and soil CO_2 will be primarily derived from respired natural organic matter. Within the plume or at the fringes, biodegrading contaminant will generate CO_2 with 0% modern carbon. This signal can be differentiated from CO_2 from natural organic carbon sources using a two end-member mixing model^{12, 13}. With one measurement, it is possible to directly link contaminant degradation to the on-site CO_2 pool.

This single measurement technique, applied to several sites, has linked contaminant turnover to fossil-hydrocarbon or industrial chemical oxidation^{5-9,8}. Although this singular analytical method is powerful evidence that contaminants are being degraded to CO₂ in situ, it does not readily allow calculating contaminant turnover rates without additional site information. It only defines what percentage of the total respiration CO₂ pool is due to contaminant degradation relative to natural organic matter. A logical next step would be to couple CO₂ source (contaminant versus natural organic matter) with CO₂ production rate to estimate intrinsic contaminant biodegradation rate. In previous studies, short-term soil respiration rates were measured at the same site where soil gas CO₂ radiocarbon analysis indicated fossil fuel contributed significantly to the CO_2 pool⁸. The data were scaled to the site's area such that a two dimensional flux measurement for contaminant carbon could be estimated.

Many techniques exist for determining CO_2 flux within soil horizons. Generally, methods may have open- or closed-system designs¹⁵. Most recently, flux chambers (a type of closedsystem) and gas flux models were used to estimate net respiration in contaminated soils^{8, 14, 16, 17}. These techniques applied over a range of sub-sites (*e.g.* over a contaminant plume and background areas) estimate increased CO_2 production attributable to organic contaminants. Although the twodimensional flux at the air:soil interface can estimate contaminant turnover, it provides only a net flux twodimensional estimate (m² d⁻¹). Scaling to 3-D required a soil flux model. Another means to obtain a 3-dimensional CO_2 gas production rate is to trap CO_2 from a "known" volume over unit time. This also requires modeling the system to determine the volume within the collection sphere. Collecting CO_2 from soil

gas or groundwater is relatively easy and inexpensive, however, the ability to confirm that CO_2 produced is definitively linked to the contaminant on-site requires radiocarbon analysis - which may be sample limited (~1 mg CO_2 needed).

In this study, the goal was to collect CO_2 produced at a predominately TCE-contaminated groundwater site over time to both assess CH to CO_2 conversion rates and synchronously collect ample CO_2 for confirmatory radiocarbon analysis. An additional goal was to produce a ZOI model to calculate TCE conversion to CO_2 on a per unit volume and per unit time basis.

Materials and methods

Site description

IR Site 5, Unit 2 at North Island, CA (Fig. 1) was identified as a prime candidate to couple radiocarbon and CO_2 flux measurements due to a rich archive of existing data on contaminant levels, hydrogeology and the need for site closure



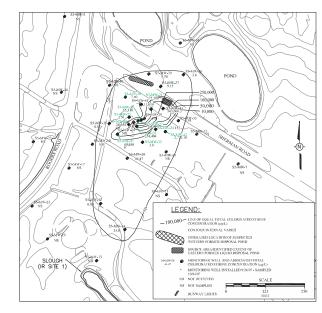


Fig. 1. Sample site. Engineering diagram shows central well cluster. Sampled wells in green text.

information. The site is a former landfill with an estimated 2,000 tons of hazardous wastes disposed at the site prior to 1970. Waste was then transferred off-site. The area was

converted to a golf course in 1983. Two pits were associated with Unit 2 (Eastern and Western). Only the Eastern pit was excavated (2001). Waste deposited at IR-5 included trash, solvents, oils, caustics, hydraulic fluid, contaminated solid waste, sludge and paints.

Current site activity includes monitoring, inspection and maintenance of the landfill cover. Within Unit 2, monitoring was conducted semi-annually until mid-2008 and the plume of chlorinated solvent material (in some wells over 1 g L⁻¹) appears to be slowly receding over time. The presumed attenuation mechanism is biological degradation. Unit 2 consists of mostly natural vegetation (Fig. 1). Wells within the adjacent IR Site 5 Unit 1 were sampled for dissolved CO₂ radiocarbon when searching for a suitable background site during a previous study at NASNI and found to be relatively depleted in ¹⁴C¹³.

The site is fitted with numerous groundwater sampling wells installed from 2000 - 2005, made from 4" PVC pipe and screened across the groundwater:vadose transition. It is seldom disturbed being in the approach path to a runway. Twelve wells within a central cluster were used for CO_2 collection. A background well upgradient of any known contamination was used for background CO_2 radiocarbon age and flux measurements¹³.

San Diego has a Mediterranean-like climate with two major seasonal patterns (wet and dry season). The limited sampling event described here was conducted during June and August 2013 - during the dry season. Rain total prior to sampling was 11.2 cm for the calendar 2013 year. At the site, historical

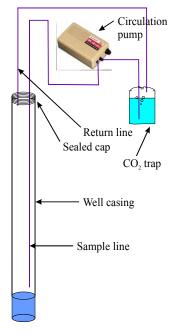


Fig. 2. Well sampling schematic

contamination from chlorinated hydrocarbons was elevated within the central well cluster (MW-25-MW-30) and on the Northern portion of the site near Sherman Road (Fig. 1 - largest zoom). Contaminated soil was removed from the historical landfill site in 1983 and the Eastern waste pit of Unit 2 in 2001. Since that time, regular monitoring has revealed decreasing CH concentrations with persistently high contamination the at central well cluster. According site to managers, seasonal rains (Dec-Feb) typically elute

CHs off soils in the vadose zone which transiently increases groundwater CH concentrations¹⁸. Soils have been identified as primarily sands (from dredging operations last century). No significant sources of $CaCO_3$ have been identified.

CO₂ collection

A CO₂ collection system consisting of solar power cells, battery banks, voltage controllers, sealed pumps, tubing, well caps, and NaOH traps was developed and deployed on-site. Batterypowered pumps (Won Brothers LifeAir 50) were modified to intake only from a glued teflon tubing connection and output through a separate tube (1/16"). Tubing was glued into place using epoxy and sealed with silicone sealant. Battery powered pumps were modified by the manufacturer to accept 3 V from a wired connection. Solar panels were used to recharge deepcycle batteries and appropriate step-down transformers were used to deliver ~3 V to each pump. For the main well cluster and a background well, a pump and associated sampling infrastructure was installed. The sample cluster for pumps was limited to wells within the range of the solar panel and wiring. Initial samples (groundwater only) collected previous to pump deployment (March 2013) covered a larger area. It was not possible given flight path restrictions and solar power requirements to cover a wider sampling area for CO₂ collection.

Sealable well caps (Dean Bennett Supply, Denver, CO) were modified with thru-tubes to allow removal of gas from the well headspace and return CO₂-scrubbed gas to the same headspace (thus producing no net "draw" from the well). The draw tube was approximately 2 meters and pushed down toward – but above - the groundwater level while the return tube extended only ~10 cm from the well cap. A CO₂ trap consisting of ~50 g NaOH pellets was made from a 100 mL serum bottle and teflon-lined septum (Fig. 2).

Before CO_2 was captured, each well pump was run for ~48 hours (at least 60 well casing volumes) and trapped CO_2 - presumed to be a mixture of in-well CO_2 and CO_2 drawn in from opening the well - was discarded. A fresh CO_2 trap was installed and pumps were run continuously for two 2-week periods (one set of traps per 2-weeks). Traps were shipped to NRL for subsequent analysis.

Pump operation was monitored using a voltage sensor for each pump (Hobo U-12 data loggers, Onset, Bourne, MA). Pumps were generally operational for the full period, however, towards the end of each 2-week period, early morning operation became limited as solar cells could not keep up with the constant current draw. Several pumps did not survive the full 4 week collection period (dead motor, disintegrated plastic, etc). These issues are addressed in the results section. No uncompromised pumps were non-operational for more than 4 h during any 24 h period.

CO₂ production analysis

Serum bottle contents with trapped CO_2 were carefully transferred to a large graduated cylinder and diluted with purified water (MilliQ > 18 M Ω resistance) until all NaOH pellets were dissolved. Triplicate sub-samples from each 2week collection were then transferred to 20 mL serum bottles. Samples were appropriately diluted and analyzed by acidifying the CO_2 out of solution and measuring by coulometry¹⁹. CO_2 was quantified relative to a certified reference material²⁰.

Samples were run in duplicate and values were averaged for reporting. Production (collection) rate was calculated dividing the total recovered CO_2 by the time of collection (annotated for each well). Because trapping CO_2 from the well headspace could introduce an equilibrium CO_2 transfer from the adjacent volume to the well head-space, CO_2 ccollection rates were converted to CO_2 production rates by subtracting the average collection value for the lowest value well (see results section). The CO_2 flux from this well was assumed to be solely driven by equilibrium (even though organic matter and contaminating mineralization may have occurred). CO_2 collection and production rates were averaged between the two collection periods to obtain a representative "dry season" values.

Radiocarbon analysis

Table 1. Water quality parameter for July 2013 sampling

Well	Na^+	\mathbf{K}^+	Mg^{2+}	Ca ²⁺	pН
	$(mg L^{-1})$	$(mg L^{-1})$	$(mg L^{-1})$	$(mg L^{-1})$	
MW-01	134	11	33	66	5.87
MW-21	190	44	20	33	6.74
MW-25	569	43	59	22	6.69
MW-26	465	64	52	22	6.40
MW-27	513	80	62	25	6.66
MW-28	611	78	54	13	6.80
MW-30	359	70	42	29	6.54
MW-32	936	39	78	13	6.76
MW-34	462	55	48	8	6.97
MW-38	283	29	41	30	5.13
MW-41	306	120	45	29	6.49
MW-42	665	34	64	13	6.78

 CO_2 trapped in aqueous NaOH (left over after coulometric analysis) was sent to Beta Analytic (Miami, FL) for radiocarbon dating using accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS). Samples were also analyzed for $\delta^{13}CO_2$ ratios using methods previously described¹³.

Water quality analysis

In order to rule out any sources of potential CO_2 contamination which might bias radiocarbon measurements, cations potentially associated with carbonate dissolution, fertilizer use (potassium carbonates) and seawater intrusion were measured. Carbonate carbon could be ancient relative to background. Water samples were taken in pre-cleaned 40 mL vials for pH and cation concentrations. Samples were assayed for K⁺, Ca⁺⁺, Mg⁺⁺ and Na⁺ ions using a Dionex DX120 ion chromatograph with a CS12A cation column as previously described¹³. Stoichiometric differences between seawater and groundwater Na⁺:Ca⁺⁺ ratios coupled with low pH relative to background wells were evaluated as a potential indication of carbonate dissolution. Soil characterization data from borehole studies at two sites on North Island indicated no limestone soil lenses.

Zone of influence model/simulation

A ZOI model was created based on well and local soil characteristics. These included well construction (casing dimensions, depth to water) temperature, atmospheric pressure and soil permeability values. Analysis of well logs and prior well tests in the project area was used to develop a hydrogeologic site model. This information was coupled with CO₂ equilibrium simulations to create the ZOI model. The ZOI model was developed using MT3DMS²¹ and MODFLOW-2005²². MT3DMS is the biodegradation model capable of simulating multi-solute transport and reaction, and was used to simulate CO₂ solute transport as a part of the ZOI model. MODFLOW-2005 is the hydrogeological model considered as the reference code to simulate groundwater dynamics and was used to simulate groundwater flow in the unconfined aquifer at the study site. The two models have been used together as the standard package for multi-species contaminant transport simulations²³. In this study, ModelMuse linked and interfaced the two models 24 .

The study target was CO_2 produced from chlorinated solvents (*e.g.* TCE and its breakdown products DCE and VC). Among different biodegradation models studied (*e.g.* MT3DMS, RT3D, Biosereen, Biochlor, and SEAM3D), a groundwater simulation model and a complex CO_2 transformation system tracking CO_2 solutes from different sources was needed. ModelMuse was able to adequately couple modes for this purpose. Simulations treated all CO_2 with different origins together - radiocarbon content was then used to uniquely distinguish CO_2 derived from chlorinated solvents.

Determining contaminant respired

Radiocarbon data were converted to Δ^{14} C notation as needed for further calculations using standard methods²⁵. An isotopic mixing model was applied to each sample using CO₂ radiocarbon value collected at MW-01 as the site-wide background value¹². MW-01 is roughly 400 meters northwest of the main contamination. There is no known contaminanation at this well (planned background well). Background Δ^{14} C was -162 ‰ (MW-01) and Δ^{14} C_{petroleum} was assigned the value -999 ‰. The *fraction_{petroleum}* was solved using Equation (1):

(1) Δ^{14} CO₂ = (Δ^{14} C_{petroluem} X fraction_{petroleum}) + [Δ^{14} C_{natural organic} matter X (1 – fraction_{petroluem})]

¹⁴C-content measurements were used to determine the proportion of vadose zone CO_2 derived from contaminants of interest $(CH)^{12}$. These values were then coupled with hydrogeologic model data to determine contaminant flux through oxidation processes to CO_2 . The CO_2 production rate at well MW-01 was not used for this correction – only to calculate fraction petroleum. Comparing in-plume measurements with reference site(s) measurements allowed source apportioning *in situ* microbial assemblage carbon demand and determining COI degradation rate.

Results and discussion

Cation and pH analysis

Samples for cation and pH were analyzed for March 2013 and

July 2013 samplings. pH was near neutral for most wells except

for MW-01 (background) and MW-38 (Table 1). Wells on the

site's Southern side generally had a higher Na⁺ content, but

were not in a range which indicated significant seawater

intrusion. pH was elevated in the pre-sampling (March 2013 -

see supplementary information), but cation concentrations were

not significantly different. We speculate seasonal rains

(typically January through March) impact groundwater pH.

Calcium ion concentrations ranged from 8.0 to 66 mg L⁻¹ (Table 1) but did not inversely correlate with pH to indicate

significant carbonate dissolution during either sampling ($r^2 <$

0.3). We performed a trend analysis with the water quality data

using principal components analysis (PCA). Bi-plots showed no

CO₂ production rate in each well. MW-01 (background well) had high CO₂ production rate at \sim 31 mg CO₂ d⁻¹. Standard error for duplicate analyses averaged 0.98% and ranged from 0.03 to 4%. Two 2-week periods were sampled during the same season and averaged for subsequent calculations (e.g. preliminary time-to-remediate). Standard error for CO_2 ranged from <1 to 51% between the two collection periods. However, most standard errors were relatively low and averaged ~13% (Table 2). While introducing additional error, averaging allowed a single calculation for volume removed during a one month

CO₂ carbon isotope analysis

period.

Twenty six NaOH-trapped CO₂ samples were analyzed for radiocarbon. Two wells (MW-27 and MW-32) had pump issues (became unsealed allowing atmospheric CO₂ intrusion) and were suspect but sent for analysis anyway. Stable carbon isotope ratios for CO₂ indicated potential contamination with atmospheric CO₂ (typically -7‰_{VPDB}) for MW-27. MW-32, which also leaked at the inlet line, had a δ^{13} CO₂ value similar to other wells. $\delta^{13}CO_2$ values were in a range to indicate respiration from natural organic matter sources (Table 2). Many values were lighter than ~-25‰_{VPDB}. This might indicate removal of isotopically-lighter contaminant source or daughter products. In a previous studies, several wells were sampled for compound-specific stable carbon isotope values (MW-21, MW-41, MW-42, and MW-43). In wells where cis-1,2-DCE concentrations decreased between the two time-points studied (about 1 year apart), there was a concomitant ¹³C enrichment in the remaining *cis*-1,2-DCE pool.

The background well (MW-01) had a Δ^{14} C ratio of -147‰. This equates to 1280 years before present (ybp) or 85% modern (pMC). This well was used as the background for the isotopic mixing model. Radiocarbon ratios ranged from -147% to -663‰ at the fringe of the removed source area (Sherman Road) with wells near the central cluster of high residual contamination showing relatively modern values (e.g. close to 0 - Table 2). As with CO₂ production, the two sampling period samples were averaged for subsequent calculations. Radiocarbon ratio measurements were very similar between individual 2-week periods. Standard error between periods averaged 6% and ranged from 0.25 to 18%.

ZOI model

Groundwater hydraulic and CO2 solute properties for the study site were obtained from previous reports ^{26, 27}. Three years of weather data (2007, 2011 and 2012) were obtained from CIMIS San Diego station (Station ID 184) to estimate aquifer recharge rate. Tidal data for the same three years were obtained from the NOAA San Diego Station (Station ID: 9410170) to define boundary conditions. From the aerial photo, surface water pools (e.g. ponds and creeks) were identified on the Northeastern side of the area (in the golf course and park). A constant head equal to the elevation of these surface water bodies was assigned to the boundary.

This journal is © The Royal Society of Chemistry 2012

-			
Well	CO ₂	δ^{13} CO ₂	Δ^{14} CO ₂
wen	production (mg d ⁻¹)	$(\%_{VPDB})$	Δ CO ₂ (‰)
MW-01*	31±0.85	-34	-147
MW-21	34±4.3	-28	-663
MW-25	$0.0^{\text{¥}}$	-23	-153
MW-26	3.4±0.79	-25	-298
MW-27	$0.0^{\$}$	-18	M^{\S}
MW-28*	1.3±0.03	-25	-190
MW-30	9.7±5.1	-35	-254
MW-32	1.6±0.01	-28	M^{\S}
MW-34	2.1±0.04	-32	-283
MW-35	25±1.9	-25	-598
MW-38	21±11	-25	-354
MW-41	16±0.68	-28	-232
MW-42	16±0.080	-23	-482

Table 2. CO₂ produciton rates and isotopic values

*based on single 2-week collection (pump failure) [§]Modern value (1950+) - indicated pump leak [¥]Assumed to be purely equilibrium-driven

CO₂ collection rates ranged from 0 (see equilibrium subtraction below) to 34 mg CO_2 d⁻¹ (Table 2). CO_2 collection was lowest in the central well cluster where historical contamination was highest. Because CO₂ was constantly scrubbed from the well casing, a physical equilibrium-driven "draw" of CO₂ should have occurred in each well (in addition to CO₂ driven into the well headspace due to active respiration). There was no correlation between the dissolved CO2 in the groundwater collected immediately before the wells were sealed and pumping started (data in supplementary materials). The lowest collection rate (MW-25) was used to estimate the CO₂ trapped only from physical equilibrium kinetics. This well coincidentally also had CO₂ with the youngest radiocarbon age relative to the background well (Table 2). The collection rate at this well was conservatively estimated as the physical CO₂ equilibrium influence and was subtracted (as proportion of starting DIC - raw CO2 collection - (DIC X MW-25 collection rate/MW-25 DIC)) from all other collection rates to calculate

any possible interferences were minimal and would be encapsulated within the background

strong

most

loadings with

any variable

(Ca²⁺ being of

concern). We

thus assumed

ratio(s). CO₂ collection and production

radiocarbon

well's

rates

The areal model indicated that the effects of short term (daily and weekly periods) changes in sea level around the Table **3**. Parameter summary for ZOI model

Parameter	Units	Value
Hydrology		
Hydraulic Conductivity	mL h ⁻¹	0.44 (aquifer)
Porosity (aquifer)		10 (well) 048 (aquifer) 0.99 (well)
Bulk Density	g cm ⁻³	1.4
Specific Yield	cm ³ cm ⁻³	0.2
Hydraulic Gradient	m m ⁻¹	0.015
CO ₂ Solute Transport		
Diffusion Coefficient	$m^2 hr^{-1}$	5.77 X 10 ⁻⁵
Longitudinal Dispersivity	m	6.1
Horizontal Transverse Dispersivity	m	0.61
Vertical Transverse Dispersivity	m	0.061
Soil Gas CO ₂	%	0.56

peninsula on groundwater flow at the study site were insignificant. This agrees with the previous reports¹⁸ and cation analysis presented here. Groundwater hydrology at the study site is usually steady between late summer and fall, therefore, flow during CO₂ collection (July-August 2013) was assumed steady (*i.e.* constant hydraulic gradient). The hydraulic gradient estimated by the areal model was 0.009 m m⁻¹, which was reasonably close to that estimated from the groundwater elevation map in June 2011²⁶. Other parameters were obtained from the literature (Table 3).

Initial solute CO₂ distribution in the aquifer around the sampling well was assumed in equilibrium with the CO₂ supplied from overlying soil gas and mineralization; therefore, CO₂ distribution was assumed uniform. Any CO₂ gradient observed at the end of the 2-week simulation period was assumed to be attributable to CO₂ collection in the well. With uniform CO2 distribution, the ZOI associated with CO2 collection was defined as the volume of aquifer that had a CO₂ concentration 95% or less of the initial concentration. Using Henry's law, CO₂ equilibrium concentration at the groundwater table with the CO_2 -rich soil gas was estimated as 8.4 g CO_2 m⁻³. Because biochemical conditions in the unconfined aquifer during CO₂ collection was unknown, the ZOI model assumed constant and conservative mineralization rates for chlorinated solvents (e.g. DCE and VC half lives = 3.8 and 9.5 years, respectively). The ZOI model was thus simplified by not accounting for mineralization during the 2-week CO₂ collection period. However, mineralization has certainly accumulated CO2 in the aquifer over time as CO₂ radiocarbon ages were older than background (Table 4).

The calibrated ZOI model was run with the estimated hydraulic gradient (0.015 m m⁻¹) and hypothetical background

 CO_2 concentration (8.4 g CO_2 m⁻³). The entire model domain for this scenario was 9.0 m x 4.5 m x 10.0 m deep. Horizontal spatial resolution was set to 0.09 m x 0.09 m, which makes one grid area equal to 0.0081 m², the same as the well area. Vertical spatial resolution varied from 0.05 m at the surface to 1.7 m at the bottom. The hydraulic gradient was applied to the ZOI model by setting the constant head condition along two boundaries allowing groundwater to flow left to right (Fig. 3).

The ZOI model described above was then coupled with measured CO_2 collection rates. Calibration assumed that collection rate was constant during the collection period. Calibration also assumed an equilibrium between CO_2 output (*i.e.* collection) and supply (*i.e.* diffusion) at the well water table. In other words, CO_2 concentration at the well water surface was assumed to decrease to 0.0 g CO_2 m⁻³ by the end of the simulation.

ZOI calibration varied when taking CO₂ collection rate into account. Measured collection rate linearly correlated with the calibrated background CO₂ groundwater concentration ($r^2 =$ 0.96). Also, estimated ZOI volume was linearly correlated with background CO₂ concentration ($r^2 = 0.98$) and thus CO₂ collection rate. Assuming 0.04% partial pressure of atmospheric CO₂, equilibrium CO₂ concentration of noncontaminated aquifer exposed to the atmosphere would be 0.60 g m⁻³. Estimated background CO₂ concentration for all collection rates was higher than this value suggesting groundwater contamination with chlorinated solvents (*e.g.* TCE, DCE, VC) and their active mineralization. However, estimated background CO₂ concentrations are below solubility of CO₂ (1,450 g m⁻³ at 25 °C) and do not indicate CO₂ saturation in the aquifer.

The calibration assumes a steady hydraulic gradient and constant collection rates. A supplemental simulation for

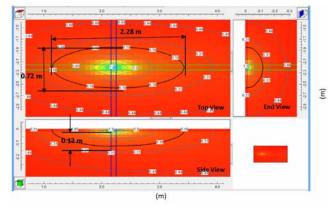


Fig. 3. Calibrated ZOI model for the average CO₂ collection rate (0.0048 g m⁻³). Calibrated background CO₂ concentration was 6.5 g m⁻³, and ZOI threshold concentration was 6.18 g m⁻³ (solid black line). Longitudinal and transverse diameters of ZOI were 2.28 m and 0.727 m, respectively. Depth of ZOI was 0.12 m

average CO_2 collection rate indicated approximately 50% increase in estimated background CO_2 concentration (*i.e.* increased from 6.5 to 9.7 g m⁻³) with 10% increase in hydraulic gradient (*i.e.* increased from 0.0150 to 0.0165 m m⁻¹). Another

Contaminant turnover

supplemental simulation for average CO₂ production rate increased background CO₂ concentration by 46% (i.e. increased 6.5 to 9.5 g m⁻³) if the collection rate changed from 0.00530(+10 %) to 0.00434 g h⁻¹ (-10 %) over the 2-week collection period. Furthermore, the ZOI model assumed constant and conservative reaction rate for chlorinated solvents. After accounting for the small difference in the first and second CO₂ collection rates, reaction rate appeared to be underestimated for the study site. Therefore, it is important for ZOI estimation to collect and account for these aquifer and operation parameters for better accuracy and reliability. Using CO₂ collection rate, proportion of CO₂ attributable to CH degradation, and the ZOI model, we calculated mass CH removal at each well per unit time. The two end-member

Table 4. Site-scaled contaminant degradation

			Contaminant degradation
		Contaminant degradation rate	per unit time and volume
Well	f _{pet} (%)	(mg C d ⁻¹ ±10%)	$(mg C m^{-3}d^{-1} \pm 15\%)$
MW-01	0	N.A.	N.A.
MW-21	60	5.6	32
$MW-25^{*}$	1.0	0	0
MW-26	18	0.18	1.0
MW-28	5.0	0.017	0.098
MW-30	12	0.34	1.9
MW-34	16	0.10	0.58
MW-35	53	3.6	20
MW-38	24	1.4	8.1
MW-41	10	0.44	2.5
MW-42	39	1.7	9.8

mixing model (eq(1)) was used with data (Table 2) to solve for

 f_{pet} at each well. The f_{pet} varied from 1 to 60 % over the sampled

N.A. Not applicable – MW-01 used as the background (e.g. no contamination)

[¥]Assumed to be purely equilibrium-driven (*e.g.* no respiration)

wells (Table 4). This proportion was multiplied per carbon basis with the CO₂ production rate to obtain the contaminant (CH) mineralization rate (Table 4). Finally, using the ZOI volume (average - 0.176 m³), contaminant mineralization rate per unit time and volume was calculated (Table 4). Contaminant degradation rate per unit area was highest at MW-21 (32 mg C m⁻³ d⁻¹). In areas with highest historical contamination (MW-25 - MW-30), CH mineralization rate was slowest, potentially indicating toxicity or lack of necessary cometabolic substrates driving CH turnover. CH mineralization rates measured at the fringing periphery (near Sherman Road) appear to be most rapid relative to the central well cluster (MW-38, MW-21, MW-42) which supports the plume fringe biodegradation concept observed in other systems²⁸. Historical

contamination was higher in this region before excavation. Higher rates here (at the fringe) might indicate greater cometabolic substrate availability or decreased toxicity. CO2 production was high in the fringing area, while f_{pet} indicated significant CH turnover (Fig. 4).

A major focus for this study was to combine rate measurements, proportion mineralized from contaminants and ZOI estimates to determine site CH mineralization spatially and temporally. While any estimate is subject to error, each technique in this study offers direct in situ measurements of relevant analytes rather than more common indirect measures (electron acceptors, nutrients, dissolved oxygen, etc). Instead, carbon mineralized specifically from the contaminant of interest (in this case CH, but the method is applicable to any carbon-based chemical produced from fossil fuel stocks) is analyzed. There are currently many "lines of evidence" measures used for confirming (or indicating) contaminant turnover at impacted sites²⁹⁻³¹. However, these techniques do not directly target the complete degradation product (CO₂) linking original contaminant to degradation product. While many measures indirectly suggest remediation is occurring, they cannot readily be used to determine mass removal (as most do not directly relate to carbon mineralized)³²⁻³⁴.

To determine mass removal, one could extrapolate the data in the time and volume domains as required. As only one month of data were collected in this study, it would be difficult to extrapolate into accurate long-term degradation rate - or timeto-remediate estimates. Methods do exist for interpolating the collected data to the site, for instance finite-difference estimations and inverse weighting interpolation. For this initial demonstration combining concurrent CO₂ radiocarbon and flux measurements with ZOI modeling, this type of modeling could be done. One would have to assume that the annual CO₂ flux and proportion derived from the CH, were similar throughout the year. Additionally, seasonal weather patterns (winter rains which significantly increase contaminant desorption from soil particles¹⁸) would have to be ignored. Continued sampling over longer periods capturing seasonal variation would allow a far more robust modeled time-to-remediate estimates.

Soil respiration measurements have recently been made using flux chambers and rates are expressed per square unit area (to indicate soil-atmosphere exchange). Additionally, collecting soil gas at different depths has allowed modeling carbon flux from contaminants in the volume domain. In a recent report discreet soil gas samples were collected for ¹⁴CO₂ measurements⁸. The authors conclude that it is possible to both underestimate and overestimate contaminant degradation rates when soil gas is collected from a separate "pool" than the CO₂ accounted for in flux chamber respiration measurements and advocate coupling rate measurements with radiocarbon analysis on the same sample^{8, 14}. In the present study, collected CO₂ from the well screen region was used exclusively for the combined measurements. Follow-on work is pending to extend the study over the course of one year. In this manner, it is hoped that variation over time (seasonal, extreme weather, static conditions, etc) can be captured and directly related to radiocarbon content in order to directly determine total CH conversion to CO₂ on-site.

No measurement scaled to an entire site is free from inherent uncertainty. Hydrogeologic parameters, such as porosity, specific yield, etc are taken as single values and used in models to describe entire sites. These parameters are measured in subsamples assumed to be homogenous - but in reality are heterogeneous at the macro- and microscales. The ZOI model, for instance, had variation on the order of 35%. It is difficult to propagate this error as the uncertainty inherent in the simulation is unknown. Furthermore, at IR-5, Unit 2, there has been mixed contamination (c.f. 18). In the region North of the study area, there was considerable fuel hydrocarbon contamination. In the most recent surveys, the region sampled for this study are virtually free of fuel hydrocarbons - with the major contaminant source being CH18. As the groundwater flow is from the North, it is possible CO₂ respired from the region upgradient of the study area is a source for ancient CO₂. As natural abundance radiocarbon analysis is non-specific for source (actual compound, not fossil origin), it cannot be ruled out that some of the CO₂ used to calculate CH mineralization could be from fuel hydrocarbons. As fringe wells (like MW-38 and MW-21) have been free of fuel hydrocarbons in recent samplings18, we make the assumption that CO₂ captured as respiration product is derived from NOM and CH at these wells.

Conclusions

In this study, we were able to combine CO₂ production measurements, radiocarbon age for that same CO2 and estimated ZOI for each well to determine contaminant mineralization rate(s). ZOIs were calculated using site-specific geochemical data, and therefore represent a refined estimate of the sampled area relative to a single point source water sample. The literature has numerous examples of extrapolation between groundwater sampling wells to parameterize and visualize site characteristics. In this work, we modeled the zone around each well in three dimensions but did not further extrapolate believing seasonal differences would likely introduce considerable error. A follow-on study in which CO₂ fluxes will be measured for an entire year has been proposed. The ultimate goal for this initial study was to determine the contaminant to CO_2 conversion rate per unit area (m⁻³) per unit time (d⁻¹) at a group of wells spanning the contaminant plume. While this effort only represents a short temporal sampling (one month), we initially conclude:

• CO_2 production rate(s) collected over one month period (the average of two, 2-week collections) ranged from 0.001 to 5.6 $\pm 10\%$ mg d⁻¹ and CO₂ collection rates were lowest where CH contamination was historically highest.

• Radiocarbon content for CO_2 respired *in situ* ranged from ~1340 to 8,700 ybp or from 34 to 85 pMC. CO_2 was primarily derived from non-fossil sources (natural organic matter) in areas with highest historical CH contamination (well cluster MW-28 – MW-30).

• A zone of influence (ZOI) model was created to determine per unit volume for collected CO₂ (grams per unit volume). Average ZOI was 2.28 X 0.72 X 0.12 meters with an average volume of 0.176 m⁻³.

Journal Name

• Contaminant turnover ranged from 0.004 to 32 mg carbon $m^{-3} d^{-1}$. This rate was lowest over the region of highest historical CH contamination (MW-25 – MW-30).

Of particular interest were the findings that the lowest apparent CH utilization was coincident with regions of highest historical contamination. There was no direct correlation ($r^2 < 0.50$) between historical contaminant concentrations and CH utilization. CO₂ collected above the high historical contamination region had the highest pMC indicating less relative contribution from CH than natural organic matter to the

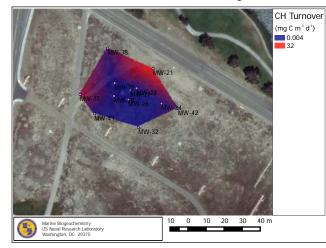


Fig. 4. Contaminant mineralization rate per unit time and area (g C m $^{\rm 3}$ d $^{\rm -1}).$

relatively small respiration CO_2 pool. This finding was contrary to the previous study at NASNI in which the contamination was fuel hydrocarbons - and CO_2 collected within the fuel plume was distinctly from the fossil end-member¹³. At present, it is unknown why CH conversion appears lowest where substrate concentrations are highest. The plume fringe concept has become widely accepted (*c.f.*²⁸) as a model for this phenomenon. We speculate lack of cometabolic substrates coupled with the fact that CH degradation is usually a cometabolic process (not offering direct carbon and energy gains to the assemblage) as likely reasons. Processes that spatially enhance the plume fringe (*e.g.* fluctuating water table) may be important to increasing contaminant mineralization rates at these types of sites. For instance, during rain events, nutrients, electron acceptors, and additional substrates may be "released" into the groundwater.

Future research to advance this combined methodology and expand the scope will focus on the present site to expand seasonality and refine the spatial approach by scaling well measurements to individual well ZOIs. The approach is particularly appropriate for sites where engineering approaches are in place (zero valent iron curtains, addition of electron acceptors, chemical oxidation additions, *etc*). Future planned activities at this site include:

• Additional seasonal samplings (currently planning subsampling every two weeks to gather "wet" and "dry" season total CO₂ production)

• Deploy more robust pumps (non-mechanical). While the pumps utilized in this study worked well in the laboratory for

extended periods, they were not robust enough for field use. Magnetic oscillating pumps, while drawing more power, have been procured for additional temporal sampling.

• Refine ZOI model by collecting and calibrating CO₂ collection rates with groundwater concentrations.

• Sample during or, at least under the influence of rain events

• Given estimates of source size (kg), refine time to degrade estimates.

Acknowledgements

Financial support for this research was provided by the Strategic Environmental Research and Development Program (SERDP ER-2338; Andrea Leeson, Program Manager). Michael Pound, Naval Facilities Engineering Command, Southwest provided logistical and site support for the project. Brian White, Erika Thompson and Richard Wong (CBI Federal Services, Inc) provided on-site logistical support, historical site perspective and relevant reports. Todd Wiedemeier (T.H. Wiedemeier & Associates) provided documentation, discussion and historical site perspectives.

Notes and references

^{*a*} Marine Biogeochemistry Section, US Naval Research Laboratory, 4555 Overlook Ave., SW, Washington, DC 20375, USA. E-mail: thomas.boyd@nrl.navy.mil; Fax: +1-202-404-8515; Tel: +1-202-404-6424.

^b Department of Biological and Ecological Engineering, Oregon State University, Corvallis, OR 97331-3906, USA. E-mail: Richard.Cuenca@oregonstate.edu; Fax: +1- 541-737-2082; Tel: +1- 541-737-6307.

Electronic Supplementary Information (ESI) available: [data and graphs not shown in text]. See DOI: 10.1039/b000000x/

- National Research Council, In situ bioremediation: When does it work?, National Academy of Sciences, Washington, DC, 1993.
- 2. J. V. Weiss and I. M. Cozzarelli, Ground water, 2008, 46, 305-322.
- W. A. Illman and P. J. Alvarez, Crit. Rev. Environ. Sci. Technol., 2009, 39, 209-270.
- P. Bombach, H. H. Richnow, M. Kästner and A. Fischer, Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol., 2010, 86, 839-852.
- K. M. Vangelas, Summary Document of Workshops for Hanford, Oak Ridge and Savannah River Site as part of the Monitored Natural Attenuation and Enhanced Passive Remediation for Chlorinated Solvents - DOE Alternative Project for Technology Acceleration, U.S. Department of Energy, Westinghouse Savannah River Company, Aiken, SC, 2003.
- T. H. Wiedemeier, M. A. Swanson, D. E. Moutoux, E. K. Gordon, J. T. Wilson, B. H. Wilson, D. H. Kampbell, P. E. Hass, R. N. Miller, J. E. Hansen and F. H. Chapelle, *Technical Protocol for Evaluating Natural Attenuation of Chlorinated Solvents in Ground Water*, USEPA Office of Research and Development, Washington, DC, 1998.
- J. T. Wilson, D. H. Kampbell, M. Ferrey and P. Estuestra, Evaluation of the Protocol for Natural Attenuation of Chlorinated Solvents: Case Study at the Twin Cities Army Ammunition

Plant, USEPA Office of Research and Development, Washington, DC, 2001.

- 8. N. J. Sihota and K. Ulrich Mayer, Vadose Zone Journal, 2012, 11.
- C. M. Aelion, B. C. Kirtland and P. A. Stone, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 1997, **31**, 3363-3370.
- B. C. Kirtland, C. M. Aelion, P. A. Stone and D. Hunkeler, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 2003, **37**, 4205-4212.
- B. C. Kirtland, C. M. Aelion and P. A. Stone, J. Contam. Hydrol., 2005, 76, 1-18.
- R. B. Coffin, J. W. Pohlman, K. S. Grabowski, D. L. Knies, R. E. Plummer, R. W. Magee and T. J. Boyd, *Environmental Forensics*, 2008, 9, 75-84.
- T. J. Boyd, M. J. Pound, D. Lohr and R. B. Coffin, *Environmental Science: Processes & Impacts*, 2013, 15, 912-918.
- N. I. Sihota, O. Singurindy and K. U. Mayer, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 2011, 45, 482-488.
- J. M. Norman, C. J. Kucharik, S. T. Gower, D. D. Baldocchi, P. M. Crill, M. Rayment, K. Savage and R. G. Striegl, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 1997, **102**, 28771-28777.
- R. T. Amos, K. U. Mayer, B. A. Bekins, G. N. Delin and R. L. Williams, *Water Resour. Res.*, 2005, 41, 1-15.
- S. Molins, K. U. Mayer, R. T. Amos and B. A. Bekins, J. Contam. Hydrol., 2010, 112, 15-29.
- Shaw Infrastructure Inc., Draft Feasibility Study, Installation Restoration Site 5, Unit 2, Naval Air Station North Island, San Diego, California SHAW-4302-0075-2318, Shaw Infrastructure, Inc, Concord, CA, 2013.
- K. M. Johnson, J. M. Sieburth, P. J. I. B. Williams and L. Brändström, *Mar.Chem.*, 1987, 21, 117-133.
- 20. A. G. Dickson, Oceanography, 2010, 23, 34-47.
- 21. C. Zheng and P. P. Wang, MT3DMS: A modular three-dimensional multispecies transport model for simulation of advection, dispersion, and chemical reactions of contaminants in groundwater systems; documentation and user's guide, DTIC Document, 1999.
- A. W. Harbaugh, MODFLOW-2005, the US Geological Survey modular ground-water model: The ground-water flow process, US Department of the Interior, US Geological Survey, 2005.
- 23. H. Prommer, D. A. Barry and C. Zheng, *Ground Water*, 2003, **41**, 247-257.
- R. B. Winston, in *Ground Water Book 6*, U.S. Geological Survey, Reston, VA, Editon edn., 2009, vol. Techniques and Methods 6-A29.
- 25. M. Stuiver and H. A. Polach, Radiocarbon, 1977, 19, 355-363.
- 26. Accord Engineering Inc, Semi-Annual Post-Closure Maintenance Report for Calendar Year 2011 Installation Restoration (IR) Program Site 2 (Old Spanish Bight Landfill), Site 4 (Public Works Salvage Yard), and Site 5, Unit 1 (Golf Course Landfill), San Diego, CA, 2011.
- 27. Geosyntec Consultants, Annual Progress Report October 2010 to December 2011, Operable Unit 24, Columbia, MD, 2012.
- R. D. Bauer, M. Rolle, S. Bauer, C. Eberhardt, P. Grathwohl, O. Kolditz, R. U. Meckenstock and C. Griebler, *J. Contam. Hydrol.*, 2009, 105, 56-68.
- 29. Parsons Engineering, Natural Attenuation of Fuel Hydrocarbons Performance and Cost Results from Multiple Air Force

Demonstration Sites, Parsons Engineering Science, Inc., Denver, CO, 1999.

- Parsons Engineering, Natural Attenuation of Chlorinated Solvents Performance and Cost Results from Multiple Air Force Demonstration Sites, Parsons Engineering, Inc., Denver, CO, 1999.
- 31. Parsons Engineering, *Principles and practices of enhanced anaerobic bioremeidation of chlorinated solvents*, 2004.
- F. H. Chapelle, P. M. Bradley and C. C. Casey, Ground Water Monitoring & Remediation, 2005, 25, 131-141.
- F. J. Krembs, R. L. Siegrist, M. L. Crimi, R. F. Furrer and B. G. Petri, Ground Water Monitoring & Remediation, 2010, 30, 42-53.
- M. L. Brusseau, V. Rohay and M. J. Truex, Ground water monitoring & remediation, 2010, 30, 57-64.