

Evaluation of the Johnson and Ettinger Model for Prediction of Indoor Air Quality

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Abstract

Screening level models are now commonly used to estimate vapor intrusion for subsurface volatile organic compounds (VOCs). Significant uncertainty is associated with processes and models and, to date, there has been only limited field-based evaluation of models for this pathway. To address these limitations, a comprehensive evaluation of the Johnson and Ettinger (J&E) model is provided through sensitivity analysis, comparisons of model-predicted to measured vapor intrusion for 11 petroleum hydrocarbon and chlorinated solvent sites, and review of radon and flux chamber studies. Significant intrusion was measured at five of 12 sites with measured vapor attenuation ratios (α_m 's) (indoor air/source vapor) ranging from $\sim 1 \times 10^{-6}$ to 1×10^{-4} . Higher attenuation ratios were measured for studies using radon, inert tracers, and flux chambers; however, these ratios are conservative owing to boundary conditions and tracer properties that are different than those at most VOC-contaminated sites. Reasonable predictions were obtained using the J&E model with comparisons indicating that model-predicted vapor attenuation ratios (α_p 's) were on the same order, or less than the α_m 's. For several sites, the α_m were approximately two orders of magnitude less than the α_p 's indicating that the J&E model is conservative in these cases. The model comparisons highlight the importance in using appropriate input parameters for the J&E model. The regulatory implications associated with use of the J&E model to derive screening criteria are also discussed.

Introduction

The use of models to predict indoor air quality associated with volatile organic compound (VOC) contamination in soil and ground water is now commonplace (ASTM 1995; Johnson et al. 1998; Hers et al. 2002). Screening models typically used for this pathway are the Johnson and Ettinger (1991) model (henceforth referred to as the J&E model), or variants thereof. Processes controlling the intrusion of VOC vapors into buildings are not well understood, the accuracy of the J&E model is uncertain, and there have been only limited comparisons of model predictions to field data. There are also substantial differences in the way in which the J&E model is used for regulatory purposes.

To address these limitations, this paper presents a comprehensive evaluation of the J&E model based on theoretical considerations and field data from petroleum hydrocarbon and chlorinated solvent sites, and radon and flux chamber studies. Data sources are published studies, consultant or agency reports, and a field-based research program conducted by the authors. Included in the data sets analyzed are several recent groundbreaking investigations at chlorinated solvent sites.

The paper begins with an analysis of methods for estimating input parameters for the J&E model and their effect on model sensitivity and uncertainty. This analysis provides the needed context for the methods employed to interpret the field data used for this study. It is also important because it is

essential that model attributes and potential limitations be understood before using field data to evaluate the predictive capabilities of a model. Field-based methods for the evaluation of vapor attenuation ratio (α), defined as the indoor air concentration divided by the source vapor concentration, are evaluated next. The primary focus is measured vapor attenuation ratios (α_m) from 11 sites with petroleum hydrocarbon and chlorinated solvent contamination. Information from tracer studies using radon or an injected tracer such as sulphur hexafluoride (SF_6), and flux chamber studies are also reviewed. The measured α_m from field studies are compared to model-predicted vapor attenuation ratios (α_p) using the J&E model. Trends in the data are qualitatively evaluated and possible factors affecting vapor intrusion are considered. The paper also comments on the use of the J&E model to derive regulatory screening criteria.

J&E Model Input Parameters, Sensitivity, and Uncertainty

The basic form of the J&E model couples one-dimensional steady-state diffusion through soil, and diffusion and advection through a building envelope (i.e., foundation). A simple "box" model, which assumes uniform and instantaneous mixing of chemicals within the building enclosure, is used to estimate the indoor air concentration. Model sensitivity and uncertainty analysis and input needed for comparisons of

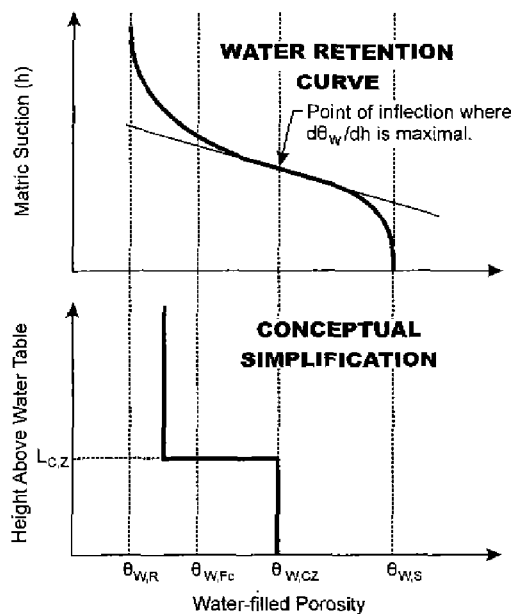


Figure 1. Conceptual simplification of water retention curve for purposes of estimating moisture contents and capillary rise (θ_{WR} , θ_{WFC} , θ_{WCZ} , θ_{WS} are the residual, field capacity, capillary zone, and saturated water contents).

model predictions to field data all require estimation of effective diffusion coefficient and soil gas advection rate. Because the available data varied, different methods were used to estimate these input parameters and interpret field data. The estimation methods subsequently used in this paper are discussed in the following sections.

Estimation of Effective Diffusion Coefficient (Air-Filled and Total Porosity)

The J&E model uses the Millington and Quirk (1961) relationship to estimate the effective diffusion coefficient (D_{eff}^T), as follows:

$$D_{eff}^T = (\theta_a^{(10/3)} / \theta^2) * D_{air} + 1/H' * (\theta_w^{(10/3)} / \theta^2) * D_{water}$$

where θ_a , θ_w , and θ are the air-filled, water-filled, and total porosity; D_{air} and D_{water} are free-air and free-water diffusion coefficients (L^2T^{-1}); and H' is the dimensionless Henry's law constant.

A common method for estimating air-filled and total porosity directly uses the measured soil moisture content and bulk density. A potential disadvantage is that soil disturbance during sampling can lead to inaccurate moisture, density, and hence, porosity estimates. Samples obtained adjacent to buildings may not be representative of conditions below buildings owing to the drying of soil that can occur.

A second method involves the use of the van Genuchten (VG) model (van Genuchten 1980) to predict the water retention parameters for U.S. Soil Conservation Service (SCS) soil types, based on VG model curve-fit parameters computed by Schaap and Leij (1998) (Simplified VG method). This method, developed by Environmental Quality Management Inc. (EQM 2000), is incorporated in U.S. EPA guidance for this

pathway. The VG model parameters are, in turn, used to develop a simplified step function for water-filled porosity (Figure 1). The capillary zone (θ_{WCZ}) water-filled porosity is equal to the moisture content at the inflection point in the water retention curve where $d\theta_w/dh$ is maximal, as suggested by Waitz et al. (1996) (where θ_w and h equal the water-filled porosity and matric suction, respectively). Vapor-phase diffusion becomes negligible once the water-filled porosity exceeds the θ_{WCZ} . The height of the capillary zone is estimated using an equation for capillary rise in a tube (Fetter 1994), and mean particle size for the SCS soil textural classifications (Nielson and Rogers 1990). The water-filled porosity above the capillary zone is user defined; we suggest a practical range below a building is between the residual water content and field capacity.

The simplified VG model likely predicts lower than actual water-filled porosity in soil, for the capillary transition zone (Figure 1). Because diffusion rates are much higher in air than water, this simplification likely results in conservative (high) diffusion estimates through the capillary transition zone. However, this conservatism may be counterbalanced by nonrepresentative assumptions for the ground water contamination source. The common paradigm for prediction of cross-media VOC transport is that dissolved chemicals are present below a static water table, and that transport through the capillary transition zone is limited to vapor- and aqueous-phase diffusion. In reality, there will be some lateral ground water flow and dispersive mixing of chemicals in the tension-saturated zone, and vertical movement of chemicals as a result of water-table fluctuations. There is limited information on VOC migration in the capillary transition zone. One study, involving a large chamber, showed that the pore-water concentrations in the tension-saturated zone were similar to those below the water table, and showed a sharp decline in concentrations near the top of the tension-saturated zone (McCarthy and Johnson 1993). The implication is that a more representative top boundary for dissolved ground water contaminants may be some distance above the water table.

Estimation of Soil Gas Advection Rate (Q_{soil})

The method often used with the J&E model for estimating the soil gas advection rate (Q_{soil}) through the building envelope is an analytical solution for two-dimensional soil gas flow to a small horizontal drain (Nazaroff 1992). This model is used to simulate gas flow to an edge crack located at the perimeter of a building (perimeter crack model). The Q_{soil} (L^3T^{-1}) is estimated as follows:

$$Q_{soil} = \frac{2 \pi k_a \Delta P X_{crack}}{\mu \ln \left(\frac{2 z_{crack}}{r_{crack}} \right)} \quad (2)$$

where k_a is the soil-air permeability (L^2), ΔP is the pressure difference between the building and ambient air, X_{crack} is the perimeter crack length (L), μ is the gas viscosity ($ML^{-1}T^{-1}$), z_{crack} is the depth to edge crack (L), and r_{crack} is the crack radius (L). The ratio of cracks to total subsurface foundation area (i.e., base and walls) (η) can be expressed as

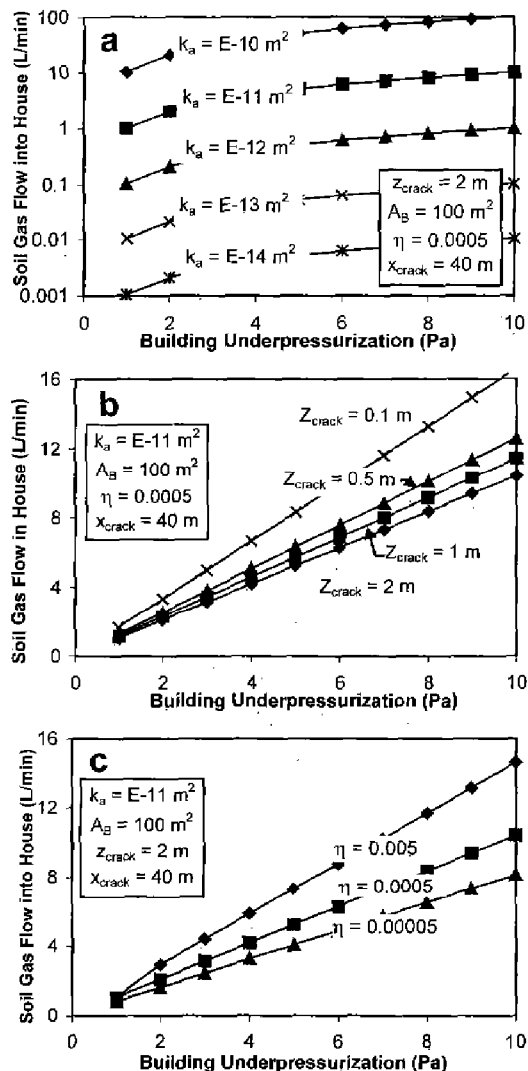


Figure 2. Sensitivity of soil gas flow to perimeter crack model (used in J&E model) to (a) soil-air permeability (k_a), (b) depth to perimeter crack (z_{crack}), and (c) crack ratio (η). x_{crack} = perimeter crack length, A_B = subsurface foundation area.

$$\eta = \frac{r_{\text{crack}} x_{\text{crack}}}{A_B} \quad (3)$$

where A_B is the subsurface foundation area (L^2). The perimeter crack model accounts for both soil gas flow through soil and the foundation, but is most sensitive to the soil-air permeability based on the analysis presented in Figure 2. For the range of values chosen for k_a , η , ΔP , and z_{crack} , by far the greatest variation is obtained for k_a with the predicted Q_{soil} ranging between ~ 0.001 and 100 L/min .

One method of estimating soil-air permeability is to use published values for saturated hydraulic conductivity and water retention parameters for a particular soil type (EQM 2000). This method involves the following steps: (1) obtain saturated hydraulic conductivity for soil texture type (Schaap and Leij 1998); (2) estimate intrinsic permeability from saturated hydraulic conductivity; (3) estimate effective total fluid saturation at field capacity;

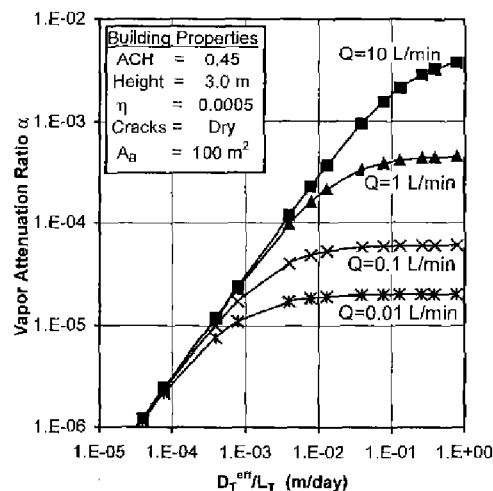


Figure 3. Sensitivity of vapor attenuation ratio (benzene) to soil-gas flow rate (Q) into building using perimeter crack model with dry dust-filled concrete cracks with total porosity = 0.3 Height = building height, $Q = Q_{\text{soil}}$, ACH = air exchanges per hour (other symbols previously defined).

(4) estimate relative air permeability using the relationship proposed by Parker et al. (1987); and (5) calculate effective soil-air permeability (relative air permeability multiplied by intrinsic permeability). The soil-air permeability can also be measured in the field (Garbesi and Sextro 1995; Hers and Zapf-Gilje 1998); however, this type of testing is rarely performed.

The Q_{soil} can also be estimated from a tracer test mass balance. When soil-gas advection is the primary mechanism for tracer intrusion into a building, the Q_{soil} can be estimated by measuring the concentrations of a chemical tracer in indoor air, outdoor air, and in soil vapor below a building, and measuring the building ventilation rate (Hers et al. 2002; Fischer et al. 1996; Garbesi et al. 1993; Rezvan et al. 1991; Garbesi and Sextro, 1989). The Q_{soil} values measured using this technique are compared to predicted rates using the perimeter crack model, for sites with coarse-grained soils (Table 1). The perimeter crack model predictions are both higher and lower than the measured values, but overall are within one order of magnitude of the measured values. Although the Q_{soil} predicted by models and measured using field tracer tests are uncertain, the results suggest that a "typical" range for houses on coarse-grained soils is on the order of 1 to 10 L/min.

J&E Model Sensitivity for Key Input Parameters

The sensitivity of the benzene α_p predicted by the J&E model is evaluated as a function of soil gas flow (Q_{soil}), the effective diffusion coefficient (D_T^{eff}), and contamination depth (L_T) (Figure 3). The D_T^{eff}/L_T ratio captures the influence of soil properties and depth to contamination source on α_p . For BTEX and most chlorinated solvent compounds, chemical-specific variation in the D_T^{eff}/L_T ratio is not significant because the free-air diffusion coefficients vary by only a factor of two, and the Henry's law constants vary by a factor of 10 (D_T^{eff}/L_T is less sensitive to H' than D_{air}). Because the effective diffusion coefficient is calculated using the Millington and Quirk (1961) relationship, the soil properties of relevance are the air-filled and total porosity. A high D_T^{eff}/L_T ratio is asso-

Table 1
Comparison of Measured and Model-Predicted Soil Gas Flow Rates Into Buildings

Site	Foundation Type	ΔP (Pa)	Subsurface Foundation Area (m ²)	Crack Ratio η	Depth to Perimeter Crack (m)	$k_{\text{soil-air}}$ (Darcy)	Soil Gas Flow Rates	
							Measured Tracer (L/min)	Predicted PCM (L/min)
Chatterton Site (Hers et al. 2000)	Slab-on-grade	30	57	0.00033	0.3	10	2.7	29
	Slab-on-grade	10	57	0.00033	0.3	10	4.2	9.6
	Slab-on-grade	10	57	0.0001	0.3	10	2.9	8.2
Alameda Site Fischer et al. (1996)	Slab-on-grade	3	50	0.0001	0.2	10	1.4	2.4
Central California Site Garbese & Sextro (1989)	Filled hollow block basement w/coating	30	128	0.0001	2.5	3	67	8.3
Ben Lomond Garbesi et al. (1993)	Experimental basement	10	26	0.00075	1.8	6	9.7	2.3
Spokane Valley Houses Revzan et al. (1991)	Poured concrete basements	5	220	0.0001	2	200	102	110

Notes: Bold print values assumed, all other values measured, ΔP = building underpressurization, PCM = Perimeter Crack model.

Table 2
Qualitative Summary of Sensitive Parameters for the J&E Model

	Building Depressurized (Advection and Diffusion)	Building Not Depressurized (Diffusion Only)
High D_T^{eff}/L_T (shallow and/or dry soil)	Q_{soil} (advection controlled)	Building foundation cracks
Moderate D_T^{eff}/L_T	Q_{soil} and moisture content (MC)	Building foundation cracks and MC
Low D_T^{eff}/L_T (deep and/or wet soil)	Moisture content (diffusion controlled)	Moisture content (MC)

Note: Indoor air concentrations are directly proportional to source concentrations, building mixing height and ventilation rate.

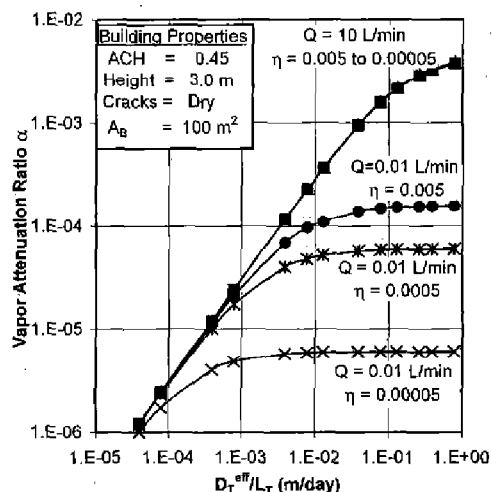


Figure 4. Sensitivity of vapor attenuation ratio (benzene) to soil-gas flow rate (Q) using perimeter crack model and foundation crack ratio (η) (other symbols previously defined).

ciated with dry soils and/or shallow contamination, whereas a low D_T^{eff}/L_T ratio is associated with wet soils and/or deep contamination. Based on the analysis in the sections that follow, sensitive parameters for the J&E model are also qualitatively summarized in Table 2.

Sensitivity of α_p to Q_{soil}

For sensitivity analysis purposes, a Q_{soil} range of 0.01 to 10 L/min was chosen because it is considered representative of most houses or small buildings. The results indicate that Q_{soil} begins to have a significant influence on α_p when D_T^{eff}/L_T values are moderate to relatively large (>0.001 m/day) (Figure 3). The J&E model is described to be advection controlled for this scenario. When D_T^{eff}/L_T is relatively small (<0.001 m/day), α_p is not sensitive to Q_{soil} . The J&E model is described to be diffusion controlled for this scenario. The D_T^{eff}/L_T for case studies subsequently evaluated in this paper ranged from ~ 0.002 to 0.1 m/day. For these D_T^{eff}/L_T values, the maximum error in prediction caused by a four order of magnitude variation in Q_{soil} ranges from 3X to 100X.

Sensitivity of α_p to Crack Ratio

The influence of crack ratio (η) on α_p was evaluated for two different Q_{soil} values (Figure 4). For $Q_{\text{soil}} = 10$ L/min, α_p is not sensitive to η . When $Q_{\text{soil}} = 0.01$ L/min, a two order of magnitude change in η causes up to 25X change in α_p . The sensitivity of α_p to η increases as Q_{soil} decreases, with sensitivity highest for the diffusion-only case (i.e., $Q_{\text{soil}} = 0$). The crack ratio is of little importance for smaller D_T^{eff}/L_T or $Q_{\text{soil}} > 1$ L/min, which means that for the majority of sites crack ratio will not be important.

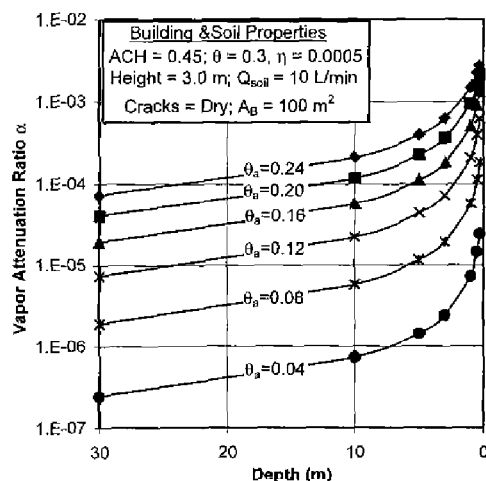


Figure 5. Sensitivity of vapor attenuation ratio (benzene) to water-filled porosity (θ_a). Other symbols previously defined.

Sensitivity of α_p to Air-Filled Porosity (Moisture Content)

The effect of air-filled porosity and depth to contamination was evaluated for a soil with moisture contents ranging from 3.6% to 15.6% (dry weight) and a constant total porosity of 0.3 (Figure 5). This variation in moisture content is potentially representative of the difference between a dry soil below a building compared to a wet soil within the capillary transition zone. The corresponding air-filled porosities are between 0.04 and 0.26. A Q_{soil} value of 10 L/min was assumed. For a constant depth to contamination, a 4X change in moisture content causes approximately or more than two orders of magnitude change in α_p . For a constant moisture content, α_p becomes sensitive to depth to contamination, at shallow depths. It is clear that soil layers with high moisture content will have a significant effect on the diffusive flux and vapor intrusion.

J&E Model Uncertainty for Range of Values

Vapor attenuation ratios predicted by the J&E model are provided for a range of soil gas advection rates and building properties, as a function of D_T^{eff}/L_T (Figure 6). For illustrative purposes, upper and lower soil-gas advection rates were estimated for four U.S. SCS soil textures (sand, loamy sand, sandy loam, and silt) using published values for saturated hydraulic conductivity and the perimeter crack model. The soil type only applies to soil immediately adjacent to the building, because the radius-of-influence for soil-gas advection is relatively limited. The estimated Q_{soil} values are highly uncertain; however, we note that the predicted values for sand (1 to 10 L/min) are consistent with the results of tracer tests for coarse-grained soils. The uncertainty in Q_{soil} increases for finer-grained soils because the influence of permeable soil layers and preferential pathways (e.g., utility back-fill) becomes more important. It is suggested that the Q_{soil} for sand be used when near the foundation soil is not well characterized.

The building properties input to the model are the crack ratio, dust-filled crack moisture content, building height, building air exchanges, and building foundation size. The upper and lower building properties given are subjectively considered to represent the range of values that would be encountered at most

sites, based on available information and the author's experience (Hers and Zapf-Gilje 1998; Hers et al. 2001). The subsurface foundation area is for a house with a shallow basement or slab-on-grade foundation. Slightly lower α_p 's would be predicted for a deep basement with larger foundation area.

The graphs in Figure 6 illustrate the effect of variation in Q_{soil} and building properties on vapor attenuation ratio, but do not address uncertainty in D_T^{eff}/L_T , which is primarily caused by soil moisture content. To gain insight into uncertainty in model predictions owing to moisture content, a possible range in D_T^{eff}/L_T was evaluated for two hypothetical scenarios. The first scenario (Site 1) assumes a shallow soil vapor source (1.5 m depth) situated well above the water table. The second scenario (Site 2) assumes a relatively deep water table (6 m depth) and contamination that is limited to a dissolved ground water plume. Both sites were assumed to have uniform SCS loamy sand soil. The approach taken was to first obtain a plausible best estimate, and upper and lower range for D_T^{eff}/L_T . For Site 1, a constant air-filled porosity halfway between the residual water content and field capacity was assumed. For Site 2, the simplified VG method was used to estimate the air-filled and total porosity for the capillary zone. As shown in Table 3, the resulting porosities are expressed as relative water saturation values where $S = \theta_w/\theta$ and $\theta_a = \theta(1-S)$. The reason for using relative saturation values in the uncertainty analysis is that the air-filled and total porosity are expected to be strongly correlated. Therefore, uncertainty would be overestimated if these parameters are allowed to vary independently. This is prevented through the use of the relative saturation values. The uncertainty ranges given for total porosity and relative saturation are considered reasonable values for a well-characterized site.

Using the best estimate values and uncertainty ranges, the best estimate, lower and upper ranges are provided for the normalized effective diffusion coefficient (D_T^{eff}/L_T) (Table 3 and Figure 6). For Site 1, the upper and lower D_T^{eff}/L_T values vary by a factor of 2.4. For Site 2, the uncertainty is greater (factor of 23) because the sensitivity of D_T^{eff}/L_T to air-filled porosity within the capillary zone is high because moisture content is also high.

The overall uncertainty in the vapor attenuation ratio will be dependent on the available data. If there is information only on the contamination depth, the range in α_p can vary three to four orders of magnitude. When information on soil properties is also available, the uncertainty in D_T^{eff}/L_T and Q_{soil} is reduced resulting in α_p that vary over two orders of magnitude (Figure 6). When good quality site-specific data is available for both soil properties (e.g., moisture content) and building properties (e.g., ventilation rate, mixing height), it may be possible to reduce the uncertainty in α_p to approximately one order of magnitude.

Field-Based Methods for Evaluation of Vapor Intrusion

Three field-based approaches or methods are used to evaluate vapor intrusion: the indoor VOC method, the tracer method, and the flux chamber method. The *indoor VOC method* involves measurement of VOC concentrations in indoor air and at the contamination source. The α_m will vary depending on the contamination scenario. For sites with dissolved ground water plumes, the α_m is calculated using a

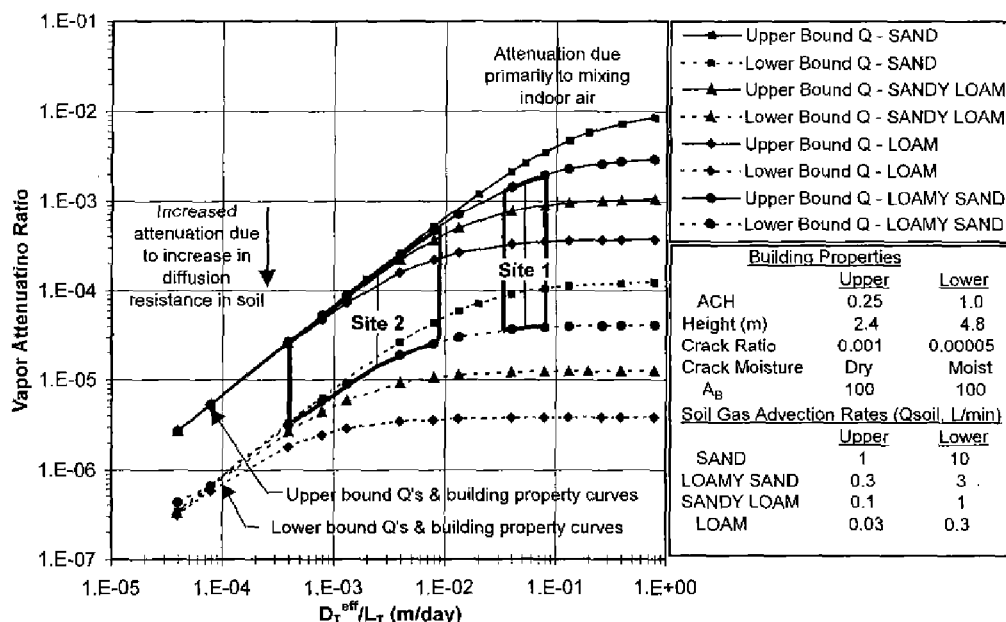


Figure 6. Predicted vapor attenuation ratio (benzene) for vapor concentrations at source and indoor air using Johnson and Ettinger (1991) model. Figure adapted from Johnson et al. (1998). Dry dust-filled cracks: Total porosity = 0.3; moist dust-filled cracks: water-filled porosity = 0.1, and total porosity = 0.3.

Table 3
Uncertainty Analysis for Normalized
Effective Diffusion Coefficient

Parameters	Best Estimate Values		Uncertainty
	Site 1	Site 2	
Input Parameters			
Contamination	Above WT	Dissolved in Gdw	N/A
Contamination depth (m)	1.5	6.0	constant
U.S. SCS soil classification	Sandy Loam	Sandy Loam	N/A
Total porosity (θ)	0.390	0.390	+/- 10%
$S_R (\theta_w/\theta)$ above CZ (S)	0.265	0.265	+/- 25%
Height of CZ (L_{cz}) (m)	N/A	0.250	+/- 25%
$S_R (\theta_w/\theta)$ in CZ (S_{cz})	N/A	0.821	+12/-10%
Calculated Values			
D_T^{eff}/L_T lower est. (m/day)	0.0325	0.00038	
D_T^{eff}/L_T best est. (m/day)	0.0512	0.00248	
D_T^{eff}/L_T lowest est. (m/day)	0.0775	0.00861	
D_T^{eff}/L_T upper/lower range	2.4	23	

Notes: CZ = capillary zone, S_R = relative saturation, Gdw = Ground water, WT = water table.

predicted source vapor concentration (i.e., directly above the water table) estimated using the Henry's law constant assuming equilibrium partitioning between the dissolved and vapor phases. When measured source vapor concentrations are available, the α can be directly calculated. Because some deviation from equilibrium conditions would be expected, the α_m estimated using ground water and soil vapor data are not directly comparable. A key challenge for this approach is that there are numerous other "background" sources of VOCs in indoor and outdoor air for most chemicals of concern at contaminated

sites (Hers et al. 2001). The intrusion of soil vapor into buildings is also highly dependent on site-specific conditions and may vary over time. These factors complicate the interpretation of indoor air measurements when the goal is to deduce the subsurface-derived component.

The *tracer method* involves measurement of the indoor air concentration of a tracer injected below ground (SE_g), or a natural tracer such as radon (Fisher et al. 1996; Garbesi et al. 1993). The measured vapor intrusion for the tracer is, in turn, used to infer intrusion for the VOC of interest. Key factors affecting this approach are that boundary conditions for a tracer injected below a building may be different than those for the VOC of interest (e.g., if contamination is relatively deep) and that typically, an essentially inert tracer is used. When compared to the tracer, the mass loss or attenuation through sorption and/or biodegradation will be greater for most VOCs of interest. For these reasons, the tracer method will typically provide a conservative estimate of intrusion.

The *flux chamber* method involves measurement of soil-gas flow and/or VOC flux through cracks or openings in a building foundation. There are only a few published reports documenting the use of flux chambers to measure VOC flux into buildings (Figley and Snodgrass 1992; Hers and Zapf-Gilje 1998). Challenges for this approach are that these tests are difficult and costly to perform, and the uncertainty associated with "scaling up" the results for a small crack to an entire building.

Results and Discussion of Field Studies and Model Predictions

Indoor VOC Method

Vapor attenuation ratios are evaluated for 11 sites. The sites represent studies available to the authors with reasonable quality field data, and are for residential houses, ground-floor

Table 4
Measured and Model-Predicted Vapour Attenuation Ratios

Site & Reference	Contaminant or Tracer	Building and Foundation Type	Soil Conditions	Depth (m) ¹	Chemical	Source Concentration (ug/L)	N Indoor Air ²	α_m Stat	Measured α_m	J&E model α_p ³	Comments
Indoor VOC Method											
"Virginia (Motiva) Site", Fan and Quinn (2000)	petroleum HC, NAPL above water	SFR, basements, attached garages, cement block foundations	claystone saprolite k ~ 0.01 darcy	0.5	benzene	V: 410	13	50th	<8.3E-6	3.70E-06	
"Chatterton Site" Delta, B.C., Canada	BTX	research greenhouse	surface silt to f. sand, underlain by	1.4	benzene	V: 15,000	3-4	Avg	<5.3E-7	1.3E-05	C1: $\Delta P = 0$ Pa, $\eta = 3.3E-4$
Hers et al. (1998)	petro-chemical plant	slab-on-grade poured concrete	m. sand with		toluene	V: 20,000	3-4	Avg	<1.9E-6	1.3E-05	C1: $\Delta P = 0$ Pa, $\eta = 3.3E-4$
Hers et al. (2000a)	NAPL above water table	2 mm edge crack	k ~ 10 darcies		benzene	V: 15,000	3-4	Avg	4.0E-07	5.9E-05	C2: $\Delta P = 2.5$ Pa, $\eta = 1E-4$
					toluene	V: 20,000	3-4	Avg	5.9E-07	5.9E-05	C2: $\Delta P = 2.5$ Pa, $\eta = 1E-4$
					benzene	V: 15,000	3-4	Avg	9.9E-05	7.8E-05	C3: $\Delta P = 10$ Pa, $\eta = 1E-4$
					toluene	V: 20,000	3-4	Avg	1.3E-04	7.8E-05	C3: $\Delta P = 10$ Pa, $\eta = 1E-4$
					benzene	V: 15,000	3-4	Avg	7.2E-06	8.0E-05	C4: $\Delta P = 10$ Pa, $\eta = 3.3E-4$
					toluene	V: 20,000	3-4	Avg	3.4E-05	8.0E-05	C4: $\Delta P = 10$ Pa, $\eta = 3.3E-4$
					benzene	V: 15,000	3-4	Avg	5.8E-06	2.9E-05	C5: $\Delta P = 30$ Pa, $\eta = 3.3E-4$
					toluene	V: 20,000	3-4	Avg	2.2E-05	2.9E-05	C5: $\Delta P = 30$ Pa, $\eta = 3.3E-4$
"Paulsboro Site", NJ USA, Laubacher et al. (1997)	gasoline NAPL above water table	SFR basement	sand, some silt	2.74	benzene	V: 576	15	Avg	<1.6E-6	4.3E-04	
"Alameda (Air Station) Site", CA, USA	gasoline NAPL above water table	small commercial building, slab-on-grade poured concrete	sand k ~ 1 to 3 darcy	0.7 0.7	benzene	V: 200	1	N/A	<9E-6	2.45E-04	
Fischer et al. (1996)					iso-pentene	V: 28,000	1	N/A	<9E-7	2.46E-04	
"Mass. DEP Sites" USA, Fitzpatrick & Fitzgerald (1996)	petroleum hydrocarbon	N/A (3 sites)	N/A	N/A	benzene	N/A	-	N/A	1E-5 to 4E-5	INS	INS
"Midwest School Site" USA, Moseley and Meyer (1992)	petroleum HC NAPL above water table	Built 50's, at-grade construction, crawl-space, large paved area	sand & gravel, discontinuous clay lenses	- 3	benzene total HC	N/A	N/A	N/A	HC-like odours -- 1E-4	INS	crawlspace conc.: benzene ~ 8.3 mg/m ³ , Total HC ~ 500 mg/m ³
"CDOT HDQ Site" Colorado, USA	chlorinated solvents, dissolved plume	mostly apartments, few SFRs, mostly slab-on-grade, few crawl-spaces & basements, AC mostly window units, heating natural gas, baseboard, and/or fireplaces	weathered & fractured claystone above water table	4.6	1,1 DCE	G: 10-10,000	115-	Geom	4.8E-06		α_m values for houses above plume with DCE groundwater concentration > 10 ug/L
Johnson et al. (2000)					1,1 DCE	G: 10-10,000	150	90th	2.0E-05		
					TCE	G: 3-3,000	115-	Geom	1.4E-05		
					TCE	G: 3-3,000	150	90th	7.0E-05		
					1,1,1 TCA	G: 10-1,000	115-	Geom	1.7E-05		
					1,1,1 TCA	G: 10-1,000	150	90th	6.6E-05		
					above 3 CS		115-	Geom	1.2E-05	8.6E-05	average for 3 chlorinated solvents (CS)
					above 3 CS		150	90th	5.2E-05	2.4E-04 ⁴	
"Redfields Site" Colorado, USA	chlorinated solvents, dissolved plume	SFRs, built 50's and 60's, mostly basements or crawlspaces, no combustion air intakes	clay & silt, some sand layers, mostly sand or silt near WT	6.1 to 7.3	1,1 DCE	G: 10-1,000	65	50th	1.50E-05	INS	α_m values for houses above plume with DCE groundwater concentration > 10 ug/L
Envirogroup (1999)					1,1 DCE	G: 10-1,000	65	Avg	7.60E-05		
					1,1 DCE	G: 10-1,000	65	90th	1.20E-04		
Hamilton Site Colorado, USA (2001), unpublished	chlorinated solvents, dissolved plume	SFRs, built 50's mostly basements	primarily sand & gravel, some clay & silt layers	9.7 to 11	1,1 DCE	G: 15-30	32	30th	6.80E-05	INS	Gravel at water table
						G: 15-30	32	90th	1.40E-04		
"Lowry (Air Force Base) Site" Colorado, USA	chlorinated solvents, dissolved	SFR: mostly basements, some crawlspaces	silty sand to silt, generally silty sand near water table	6.1 to 7	1,1 DCE	G: 1.4-1.9	>50	50th	2.20E-05	INS	max $G \alpha_m = 6.2E-04$
Versar (2000)					TCE	G: 120-170	>50	50th	2.20E-05		max $G \alpha_m = 1.2E-03$
					1,1 DCE	V: > 29	>50	50th	6.50E-04		max $V_{SS} \alpha_m = 8.3E-03$
					TCE	V: > 1,000	>50	50th	7.70E-04		max $V_{SS} \alpha_m = 1.4E-02$
"Mountain View Site" California, USA	chlorinated solvents, leach-field & dissolved ⁵	SFRs, built 1998, at-grade construction with moisture vapor barrier	mostly silty/clayey sand & gravel, some sand or silt lenses	1.5 10.7	TCE	V: 84	14	Max	2.80E-04	INS	α_m shallow vapour
Wu (2000)					TCE	V: 84	14	2nd ⁶	<1.3E-5		
					TCE	G: 735	14	Max	7.80E-05		α_m groundwater, depth to groundwater = 10.7 m
					TCE	G: 735	14	2nd	<3.6E-5		
"Mass. DEP Sites" USA, Fitzpatrick & Fitzgerald (1996)	chlorinated solvents	N/A (19 sites)	N/A	N/A	CS	N/A	N/A	N/A	2E-6 to 1E-1	INS	high α_m associated with highly permeable building envelopes (earthen floor, block walls & sumps)
Tracer and Flux Chamber Tests											
"Central California Site", Garbesi & Sextro (1989)	SF ₆	SFR, basement poured slab, block walls coated with asphalt	sandy loam to loamy sand, k = 0.1 to 10 darcies	sub-slab	SF ₆	N/A	N/A	N/A	- 1E-3	N/A	$\Delta P = 30$ Pa
"Alameda Site" Fischer et al. (1996)	SF ₆	small commercial, slab on-grade, concrete	sand, k = 1 to 3 darcy	sub-slab	SF ₆	N/A	N/A	N/A	2E-4 to 4E-4	N/A	$\Delta P = 3$ (estimate based on wind loading)
U.S. Sites Little et al. (1992)	radon	SFRs	N/A	sub-slab	radon	N/A	N/A	N/A	1.6E-3 ⁷	N/A	
"Spokane River Valley Sites", WA, USA, Rezvan et al. (1992)	radon	SFRs (14), 8 houses slab-on-grade, 6 basement	highly permeable sand & gravel, k ~ 200 darcies	sub-slab	radon	N/A	N/A	N/A	~ 7.9E-3 to 4.5E-2	N/A	winter conditions, mean house volume = 500 m ³ , ACH = 0.5/hr

Notes: ¹Depth to contamination from underside of foundation slab; ²N = Number of indoor air samples tested; ³Best estimate unless otherwise noted; ⁴Upper range; ⁵Contamination likely in unsaturated zone; ⁶2nd highest α_m value; ⁷Alpha (α) estimated using mean radon content of soil combined with appropriate constant divided by radon concentration in U.S. homes (55 Bq m⁻³); ⁸N/A = not available or applicable, SFR = single family residence, SF₆ = sulphur hexafluoride; V = vapor, V_{SS} = sub-slab, G = ground water, bgs = below ground surface, HC = hydrocarbon, AC = air-conditioning, INS = insufficient data, ACH = air exchanges per hour, WT = water table, CS = chlorinated solvents.

Table 5
Input Parameter Values Used for Johnson and Ettinger (1991) Model¹

Parameter	Virginia Site	Chatterton Site	Paulsboro Site	Alameda Site	Midwest Site	CDOT HDQ Site	Redfields Site	Hamilton Site	Lowry Site	Mountain West Site
US SCS soil type used for D_T^{eff}/L_T	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Loamy Sand	Sand	Loamy Sand	N/A
Depth to contamination (L_T) (m)	0.5	1.4	2.74	0.7	3.0	4.8	6.1	10.3	0.25 ¹	1.5 ²
Total porosity unsaturated zone (θ)	0.43	0.36	0.39	0.36	0.4	0.4	0.39	0.375	0.39	0.41
Air-filled θ unsaturated zone (θ_a)	0.28	0.21	0.23	0.22	0.25	0.26	0.287	0.319	0.287	0.2
Height of capillary zone (L_c) (m)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	0.2	0.25		0.17	0.25
Total θ capillary zone (θ_c)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	0.4	0.39	0.375	0.39	0.41
Air-filled θ capillary zone ($\theta_{a,c}$)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	0.08	0.07	0.12	0.07	0.1
D_T^{eff}/L_T (m/day)	0.12 ⁴	0.023 ⁴	0.014 ⁴	0.054 ⁴	0.016 ⁴	3.4E-3 ⁶	2.4E-3 ⁷	8.4E-3 ⁷	0.49 ⁸	0.013 ¹⁰
Soil-air permeability k_a (10^{-12} m ²)	0.01	10	10	3	—	N/A ¹²	—	—	—	—
Building underpressurization (Pa)	1	0, 2.5, 10, 30	5	3	—	N/A ¹²	—	—	—	—
Foundation crack ratio (η)	1.5E-03	3.3E-4 to 1E-4	1E-04	1E-04	—	1E-04	—	—	—	—
x_{crack} (m)	55.9	26.8	27.6	26.8	—	N/A ¹²	—	—	—	—
z_{crack} (m)	2.0	0.3	2.13	0.2	—	N/A ¹²	—	—	—	—
Q_{soil} (L/min)	0.0016	8.2 to 29	2.8	2.2	—	10	—	—	—	—
Total θ dust-filled cracks (θ_{crack})	0.43	0.25	0.25	0.25	—	0.4	—	—	—	—
Air-filled θ dust-filled cracks ($\theta_{a,crack}$)	0.28	0.25	0.25	0.25	—	0.26	—	—	—	—
Air exchange per hour (ACH)	0.76	0.42 to 14.3	0.42	2.1	—	0.45	—	—	—	—
Building mixing height (m)	2.0	2.19	2.74	2.4	—	3.0	—	—	—	—
Subsurface building area (A_B) (m ²)	186	57	39	50	—	89	—	—	—	—

Notes: ¹Depth to sub-slab soil gas probes; ²Depth to shallow gas probes; ³Depth to ground water; ⁴Benzene; ⁵Iso-pentene; ⁶Average 1, 1 DCE, TCE and 1,1,1 TCA; ⁷1,1 DCE; ⁸DCE for sub-slab vapor source (TCE value is 0.43); ⁹DCE for ground water source (value for TCE is 2.2E-03); ¹⁰TCE for shallow vapor source; ¹¹TCE for ground water source; ¹² Q_{soil} is estimated directly; therefore x_{crack} , z_{crack} , ΔP and k_a not needed; ¹³Building foundation thickness not included since has negligible effect.

apartments, or small commercial buildings. Site characteristics and estimated input parameters are summarized, and measured and J&E model-predicted vapor attenuation ratios (α_m and α_p) are compared (Tables 4 and 5, Figure 7). In most cases, the vapor attenuation ratios are estimated by the authors using site data; in a few cases, the ratios given in references cited in Table 4 are reported. This has led to differences in the statistical estimators used to characterize the variability in α_m and α_p . For completeness, the vapor attenuation ratios reported for several Massachusetts sites are also included in Table 4; these sites are not included in the 11 case study sites discussed later.

The quality and quantity of site characterization data, and ability to distinguish measured indoor air concentrations from background VOC sources varies from site to site. For three sites, the VOC concentrations in a relatively large number of houses above the contaminant plume were significantly greater than house concentrations in background areas, resulting in fairly reliable α_m estimates. For the remaining sites, either the vapor-derived VOC concentrations in indoor air were significant in only a small subset of houses above the contaminant plume, or there was no significant difference between above plume and background indoor air concentrations. The vapor attenuation ratio is not measurable when there is no significant vapor-derived component; however, the indoor air concentrations can be used to calculate upper bound α_m values, represented as "less than" values in Table 4, and dashed lines in Figure 7.

For each site (except Chatterton), a predictive "envelope" for

α_p was generated. A best estimate D_T^{eff}/L_T was directly calculated when reasonably good quality moisture content data was available. When good quality data was not available, the U.S. SCS soil texture class was inferred based on soil descriptions and the simplified VG method was used to calculate D_T^{eff}/L_T . We recognize that inference of soil texture is approximate and subjective. The upper and lower bound D_T^{eff}/L_T values were approximated using the same variability calculated for the two hypothetical sites discussed earlier (Table 3). The upper and lower bounds for Q_{soil} and building properties are the curves presented in Figure 6. A Q_{soil} range of 1 to 10 L/min (i.e., representative of sand) was assumed for all sites (except Virginia) because either coarse soils were present below building foundations, or there was no information on soil type (in these cases, sand was assumed to be present below foundations). Based on the fine-grained near-foundation soils at the Virginia site, a Q_{soil} range of 0.03 to 0.3 L/min (i.e., representative of loam) was assumed. When there was sufficient information on building properties and soil gas advection potential, the J&E model-predicted α_p was also estimated (represented as symbols in Figure 7). For the Chatterton site, only the best estimate α_p were plotted because testing at this site involved an experimental building and test cases not representative of generalized predictive envelopes in Figure 6.

Measured Vapor Attenuation Ratios at Petroleum Hydrocarbon Sites

Case study sites with petroleum hydrocarbon contamination have coarse-grained soils (except for the Virginia site) and

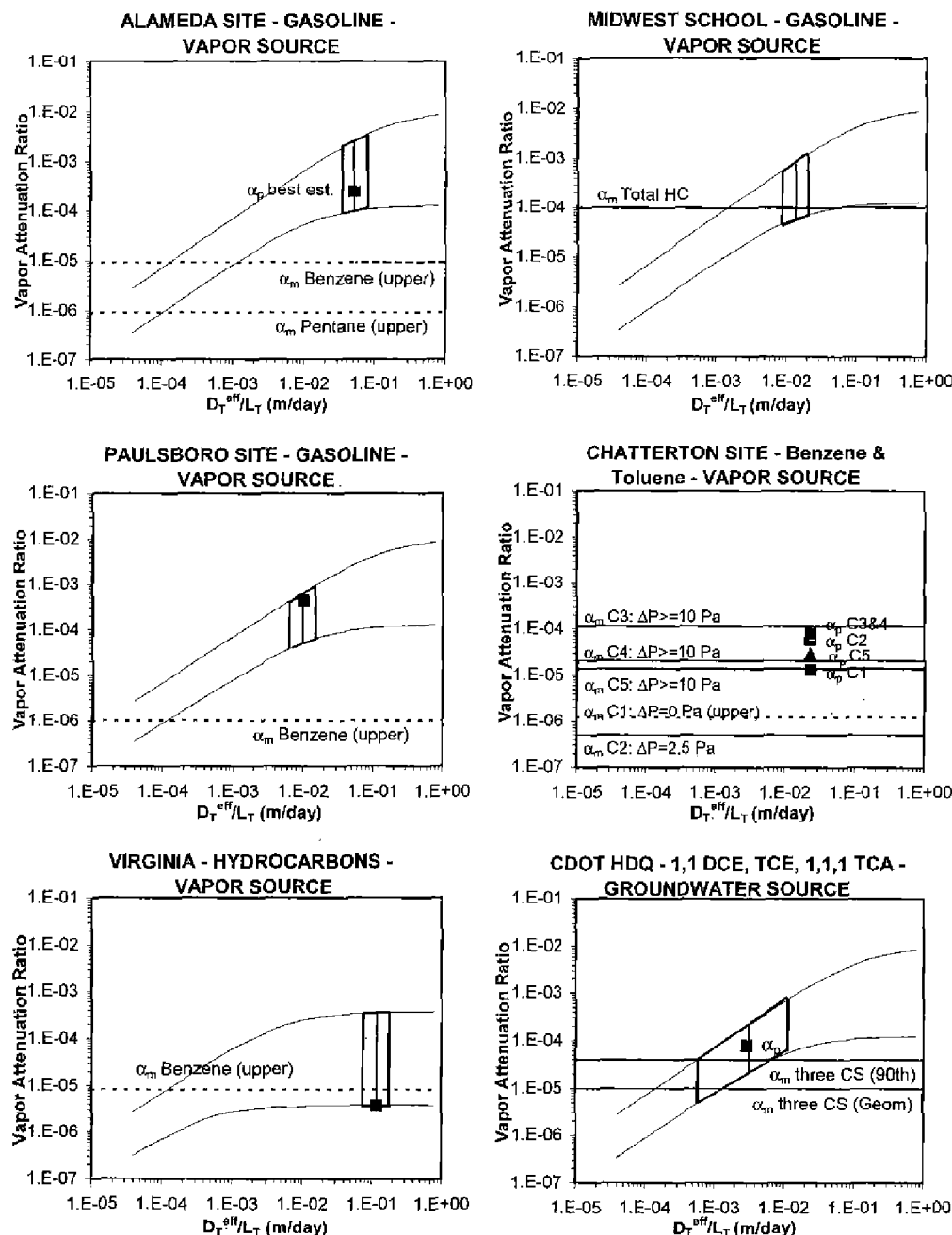


Figure 7a. Comparison between measured and J&E model-predicted vapor attenuation ratio (benzene). Upper and lower bound curves from Figure 6 are included. Dashed lines indicate that α_m is upper bound value. Symbols are best estimate α_p values.

shallow to moderate depths to contamination (0.5 to 3 m). Extensive residual nonaqueous phase liquid (NAPL) is present above the water table at the Chatterton site. There is evidence for some residual NAPL above the water table at the Alameda, Paulsboro, Virginia, and Midwest School sites. Indoor air testing was limited to a single or small number of buildings at each case study site. For petroleum sites, near-source vapor concentrations are available and therefore the α_m is directly calculated (vapor α_m).

At the Virginia, Chatterton (depressurization (ΔP) = 0 Pa case), Paulsboro, and Alameda sites, there was no difference between indoor air concentrations measured in building(s)

above the plume and in background areas, indicating that the α_m are unknown. For these sites, the α_m calculated using the measured indoor air concentrations are upper-bound values and range from $< 4.0 \times 10^{-7}$ to $< 9.0 \times 10^{-6}$. For the Chatterton $\Delta P = 2.5$ Pa case, there was a statistically significant difference in indoor and background indoor air concentrations; however, the α_m remained low (4.0×10^{-7} to 5.9×10^{-7}). For the Chatterton $\Delta P = 10$ and 30 Pa cases, there was a significant increase in indoor air concentrations and α_m .

At the Midwest School site, hydrocarbon-like odors were noted indoors during a period of relatively heavy rains and high water table in September 1992. Subsequent analysis of indoor

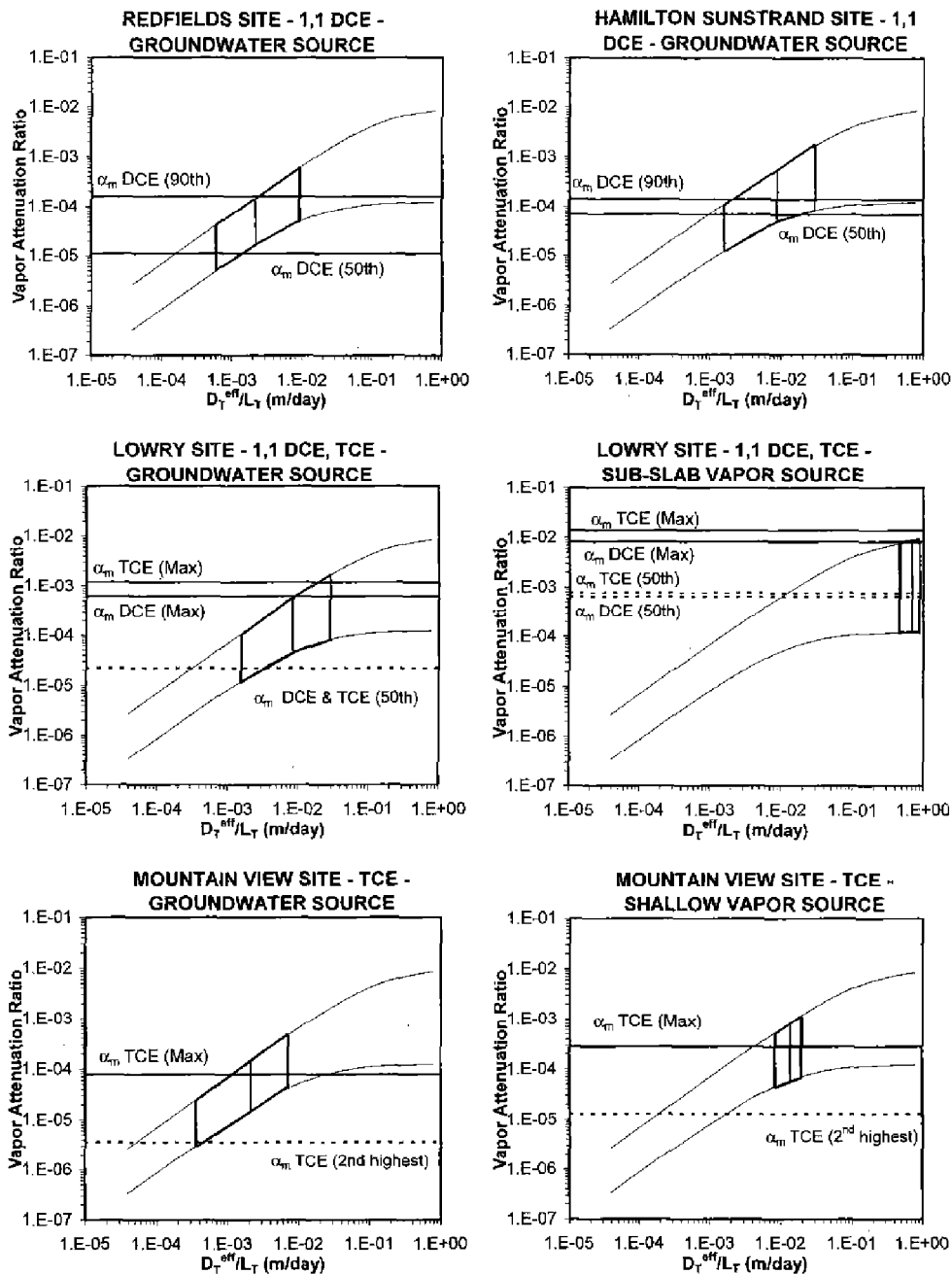


Figure 7b. Comparison between measured and J&E model-predicted vapor attenuation ratio (benzene). Upper and lower bound curves from Figure 6 are included. Dashed lines indicate that α_m is upper bound.

air during October 1992 indicated that hydrocarbon concentrations in indoor air were elevated but could not be conclusively distinguished from background sources at this time. However, the benzene (8 mg/m³) and total hydrocarbon concentrations (500 mg/m³) in an unventilated crawlspace below the ground floor were well above background levels. Based on a rough estimate of the source vapor concentrations and odor thresholds for hydrocarbons, the α_m may have been on the order of 1×10^{-4} .

Field data, including soil vapor profiles, indicate there was significant bioattenuation of hydrocarbon vapors for the Alameda and Chatterton ($\Delta P = 0$ and 2.5 Pa cases) sites. This

is consistent with other studies indicating that biodegradation can result in significant vadose zone attenuation of hydrocarbon vapors, provided sufficient O₂ is present (Ostendorf and Kampbell 1991; Ririe and Sweeney 1995). For higher underpressurizations (10 and 30 Pa), at the Chatterton site hydrocarbon vapor concentrations were elevated because of increased vapor flux from deeper soil, and reduced travel times (Hers et al. 2002). The relatively high α_m at the Chatterton site are from the combined effect of shallow contamination, relatively permeable soils, and high building underpressurizations.

The Paulsboro and Midwest School sites had elevated

hydrocarbon vapor levels directly below the building slab. For the Midwest School site, we speculate that elevated indoor hydrocarbon concentrations may have been a result of limited biodegradation owing to a large building and paved area, which reduced oxygen recharge, combined with factors that contributed to vapor intrusion into the building. These factors include building construction (i.e., crawlspace) and/or a sanitary sewer that was located near the water table within the hydrocarbon plume, which may have acted as a preferential pathway. At the Virginia site, contamination was shallow but no significant vapor intrusion was measured possibly because of the presence of fine-grained soils and/or building construction (i.e., tight foundations).

Comparison to Model Predictions for Petroleum Hydrocarbon Sites

Comparisons for the Chatterton ($\Delta P = 0$ and 2.5 Pa cases), Paulsboro, and Alameda sites indicate that the best estimate α_p are one to two orders of magnitude higher than the measured or upper bound α_m indicating the J&E model results in conservative predictions for these sites. Comparisons for the Chatterton ($\Delta P = 10$ and 30 Pa cases) and Virginia sites indicate the best estimate α_p are similar to the α_m . The high soil-gas advection rates for the Chatterton site resulted in significant vapor intrusion rates and hence similar α_p and α_m . For the Virginia site, the α_p is lower than at other sites owing to the influence of the fine-grained soils. For the Midwest site, the predictive envelope for α_p also intersects the α_m ; however, the α_m is highly uncertain.

Measured Vapor Attenuation Ratios at Chlorinated Solvent Sites

At four case study sites with chlorinated solvent contamination (CDOT, Redfields, Hamilton, and Lowry), dissolved plumes have migrated below houses (Table 4). The depth to the water table at these sites ranged from ~4.8 to 10.7 m below ground surface. The ground water plumes at these sites are relatively long and narrow, resulting in significant spatial variability in dissolved ground water concentrations. At the fifth site (Mountain View), houses were constructed on top of a former leach field where chlorinated solvents had been disposed of. Therefore, in addition to ground water, shallow soil is likely contaminated at this site. Soil grain size at the sites is variable (Table 4). For all sites, the α_m are estimated using vapor concentrations predicted from ground water data (ground water α_m). For the Lowry and Mountain View sites, soil vapor data were also available; therefore, the α_m is also directly calculated using vapor data (unless otherwise noted, the α_m given below are for the ground water source scenario).

For the CDOT site, the differences in three chlorinated solvent concentrations (1,1 DCE, TCE, and 1,1,1 TCA) in houses above the plume and at background locations are statistically significant. However, the ground water and indoor air data were found to be unreliable at the periphery of the plume and therefore low ground water and indoor air concentrations were removed from the database prior to calculating the α_m . The resulting database comprises several hundred tests from apartments and houses. The methodology used to estimate α_m is further described in Johnson et al. (2000). The geometric mean and 90th percentile α_m for the CDOT site are 1.0×10^{-5} and 5.2×10^{-5} . Analysis of the intrusion database for the site indi-

cated no strong correlation between seasons and α_m , or difference between basement and slab-on-grade construction (personal communication, Dr. Jeff Kurtz, EMSI Inc.).

For the Redfields site, the difference in 1,1 DCE concentrations in houses above the plume and at background locations are statistically significant. A data screening procedure similar to that used for the CDOT site resulted in α_m only being estimated in areas where the 1,1 DCE concentrations in ground water exceeded 10 $\mu\text{g/L}$. A visual interpolation method was used to estimate ground water concentrations below houses. The resulting database comprises 65 houses nearest to the Redfields site. The 50th and 90th percentile α_m for the Redfields site are 1.1×10^{-5} and 1.2×10^{-4} . Synoptic data for the Redfields site indicated a slight correlation between indoor 1,1 DCE concentrations and season, for some houses, with winter-time values that were two to three times higher than summer-time values (personal communication, Dr. David Folkes 2000).

For the Hamilton site, the difference in 1,1 DCE concentrations in houses above the plume and at background locations are statistically significant. Because ground water data was limited, the attenuation ratio analysis is for a strip of 32 houses parallel and closest to the long axis of the plume (and wells) in the area with 1,1 DCE concentrations above ~10 $\mu\text{g/L}$. The 50th and 90th percentile α_m for the Hamilton site are 6.8×10^{-5} and 1.4×10^{-4} .

At the Lowry site, the database evaluated consists of more than a year of quarterly testing at 13 houses above and near the periphery of the plume. Concurrent testing of indoor air, and subsurface vapor concentrations for houses with slab-on-grade or basement construction, and crawlspace air for houses with crawlspaces was conducted. At one house, the maximum TCE and 1,1 DCE concentrations in indoor air were 51 $\mu\text{g/m}^3$ and 0.91 $\mu\text{g/m}^3$, suggesting significant vapor intrusion. At three other houses, the TCE concentrations in indoor air were mostly between 5 and 15 $\mu\text{g/m}^3$. Compared to published background data for TCE (Hers et al. 2001) and data for houses along the periphery of the plume, it is possible that concentrations at these three houses included a soil vapor-derived component. The indoor air concentrations were at background levels in remaining houses.

Measured vapor attenuation ratios are estimated for a subset of four Lowry houses with nearby ground water data. For this data subset, the maximum indoor air TCE concentration was 51 $\mu\text{g/m}^3$, but exceeded 5 $\mu\text{g/m}^3$ in only one house. Therefore, most α_m are upper bound values. When all data are used, the 50th percentile and maximum ground water α_m are 2.2×10^{-5} and 1.2×10^{-3} for TCE, and 2.2×10^{-5} and 6.2×10^{-4} for 1,1 DCE. The maximum, as opposed to 90th percentile α_m , was calculated owing to the relatively limited number of tests for this site. The Lowry subsurface vapor concentrations were highly variable and elevated below certain houses (e.g., TCE up to 10,000 $\mu\text{g/m}^3$), but near background levels below other houses above the plume. An analysis of the house data subset where indoor air TCE concentrations exceeded 5 $\mu\text{g/m}^3$ and/or subsurface TCE concentrations exceeded 1000 $\mu\text{g/m}^3$ indicated that the 50th percentile and maximum subsurface vapor α_m are 7.7×10^{-4} and 1.4×10^{-2} . Available synoptic data for the Lowry site indicated no significant seasonal variation in subsurface or indoor air concentrations.

At the Mountain View site, indoor air in seven houses

above the contaminated area and two "background" houses in a noncontaminated area was tested on two occasions. The indoor TCE concentration in one house was 12 and 25 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, whereas the TCE concentrations in remaining houses were at background levels (0.26 to 1.1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) (Wu 2000). The maximum ground water α_m is 7.8×10^{-5} while the shallow vapor maximum α_m is 2.8×10^{-4} .

When all five sites are evaluated, the results can be summarized as follows. The 50th percentile (or geometric mean) and 90th percentile (or maximum) α_m values for the ground water to indoor air pathway were remarkably similar for all sites (approximately 1×10^{-5} and 1×10^{-4} , respectively). For individual sites, there is significant house-to-house variability in α_m (e.g., two order of magnitude difference for Redfields site); however, based on the available data there appear to be only slight, if any, seasonally induced variations in vapor intrusion, and similar intrusion rates for houses with basement and slab-on-grade construction. Potential sources of variability in α_m include inaccurate estimation of water table ground water concentrations below houses, geological heterogeneity, differences in house construction and depressurization, and differences in ventilation rates and house activities during indoor air testing. At the Lowry and Mountain View sites, no significant vapor intrusion could be measured for most houses. One likely reason for the generally nonsignificant intrusion is that ground water concentrations are lower at these sites, compared to the CDOT, Redfields, and Hamilton sites. Another possible factor for the Mountain View site is the building construction, which consists of at-grade foundation slab with (moisture) vapor barrier. Overall, the results suggest that geologic conditions and diffusion rates have the greatest influence on vapor intrusion rates at the chlorinated solvent sites, and that building factors are less important.

Comparison to Model Predictions for Chlorinated Solvent Sites

Comparisons for sites with the most reliable data (CDOT, Redfields, and Hamilton) indicates that the predictive envelope for the α_p intersects the α_m . The centroid of the predictive envelope is in all cases higher than the 50th percentile α_m suggesting, on average, the J&E model would result in conservative predictions. For the CDOT site, the best estimate α_p is approximately eight times higher than the 50th percentile α_m . For the Lowry site, the predictive envelope is below the α_m for one house with significant vapor intrusion, indicating a non-conservative prediction in this case. For the Mountain View site, the predictive envelope for α_p intersects the maximum α_m . Overall, the J&E model in most cases results in conservative predictions (i.e., α_p is higher than α_m). However, the comparisons highlight the potential for nonconservative predictions if a combination of low Q_{soil} and low D_T^{eff}/L_T are used.

Tracer Method

There are several sites where tracer tests can be used to estimate α , which range from $\sim 2 \times 10^{-4}$ at the Alameda site to 4.5×10^{-2} at the Spokane River (Valley) sites (Table 4). The Spokane River sites were calculated using an assumed average house volume (500 m^3) and building ventilation rate (air changes per hour (ACH) = 0.5 hour^{-1}) and therefore are approximate. Soils at the Spokane River site are very permeable, and α is based on winter conditions (i.e., highest expected

seasonal building depressurization); therefore, the α for this site is considered an upper range value. It should be remembered that tracer studies represent α values for near-field boundary conditions and, therefore, are not representative of intrusion at many sites contaminated with VOCs. The tracer test α values are, however, consistent with the upper range of the J&E model predictions (Figure 6).

Flux Chamber Method

A method that has been used for radon assessments is the equivalent leakage area (ELA) method (Grimsrud et al. 1982; CSGB 1986). The ELA is obtained by developing an empirical relationship between the soil-gas flow into a building and building depressurization. Soil-gas flows are measured using flux chambers and mass flow meters. In one study involving multiple measurements of soil-gas flow through various building foundation cracks at 10 houses in Saskatchewan, Canada, the total house foundation ELA for the foundation edge cracks and utility penetrations ranged from 0.15 to 16.4 cm^2 (Figley and Snodgrass 1992). The contribution to total ELA from untrapped floor drains, present at a few houses, was excluded from this analysis since untrapped drains are uncommon in newer construction. For example, the National Building Code of Canada (1995) requires sealing of floor drainage systems that have the potential to allow soil-gas entry (Section 9.13.8.3).

The measured total ELA can be used to estimate soil-gas intrusion rates using the method in Figley (1997). A building depressurization representative of severe winter conditions (10 Pa), as proposed by Figley (1997), and possible values for the house volume (500 m^3) and building ventilation rate (0.3 ACH) produces α values between 3.6×10^{-4} and 3.8×10^{-2} . The α obtained in this manner is conservative because it assumes an unlimited and uniform soil-vapor source directly below the foundation slab (i.e., contaminants in vapor are replenished as fast as they are swept into the building).

Flux chamber tests have also been used to measure VOC flux rates through concrete cracks (Schmidt and Zdeb 1997; Hers and Zapf-Gilje 1998). Both studies indicated detectable VOCs were measured in soil gas transmitted through cracks, and the study by Hers and Zapf-Gilje (1998) indicated that the scaled-up flux for the entire building was of the same order as flux measured by the indoor VOC method.

Regulatory Implications

The J&E model is widely used for regulatory and guidance purposes in North America. Several agencies have developed generic screening criteria for the vapor intrusion pathway (Massachusetts 1993; Michigan 1998; Connecticut 1998). Semigeneric soil standards have been developed in Canada, based on two soil types (fine- and coarse-grained) and two building types (CCME 2000). Guidance recently developed by the U.S. EPA consists of a multitiered framework to evaluate the soil vapor intrusion pathway (U.S. EPA 2002). A primary (initial) screening step is used to identify sites with significant potential for vapor intrusion (e.g., odors, product in sumps or directly below foundation), and where indoor air monitoring and/or engineering controls is warranted. A secondary screening step involves the use of semigeneric curves for α , based

on soil type and depth, and target breathing concentrations in indoor air to back-calculate acceptable source ground water and soil vapor concentrations. Depending on the results of the secondary screening, there is the option to conduct a site-specific pathway assessment.

Derivation of regulatory criteria requires the prediction of cross-media transfer of contaminants, and vapor transport and intrusion into buildings. For the regulatory agencies cited previously (excluding Massachusetts), cross-media transfer between VOCs in ground water and soil vapor is predicted using the Henry's law constant assuming equilibrium partitioning. Under the Massachusetts guidance, the Henry's law constant is divided by 10 to account for source vapor concentrations that are typically lower than those predicted assuming equilibrium partitioning. The vapor attenuation ratios incorporated into regulatory criteria depend on whether the assumed contamination scenario is a dissolved ground water plume or an unsaturated zone contamination source. For a ground water source, the α incorporates vapor transport through both the capillary transition zone and unsaturated zone. For an unsaturated zone source, the α incorporates transport through just the unsaturated zone. For the agencies cited previously, the ground water source α ranges from 4.6×10^{-6} to 1.5×10^{-3} whereas the vapor source α ranges from 3.9×10^{-7} to 6.2×10^{-3} . An analysis of the previous regulatory criteria indicates that the key factor affecting the α is the Q_{soil} value chosen or estimated for predictive purposes. Of lesser importance is the assumed generic or semigeneric soil type.

When vapor attenuation ratios incorporated in regulatory criteria are compared to measured ratios for field studies presented in this paper, it is apparent that the low end of the regulatory range may not be conservative for some sites. Of greatest concern would be sites with nonbiodegradable chemicals, shallow to moderate depth contamination, and high advection potential (i.e., coarse soil, high building underpressurization).

Conclusions and Recommendations

A comprehensive evaluation of the J&E model characteristics and sensitivity, and comparisons of measured to model-predicted vapor attenuation ratios (α_m and α_p), have been provided for residential houses, ground-floor apartments, and small commercial buildings. Based on this analysis, the following conclusions can be drawn:

1. The J&E model is moderately too highly sensitive to soil-gas advection rate into the building (Q_{soil}), at D_T^{eff}/L_T values above $\sim 1 \times 10^{-3}$. Except when Q_{soil} is low, the J&E model is relatively insensitive to building foundation properties. At best, the range or uncertainty in J&E model predictions is about one order of magnitude when relatively good quality site-specific data is available.
2. Estimation of effective diffusion coefficient is subject to considerable uncertainty. Some of this uncertainty can be reduced through better site characterization, including careful lithological descriptions, testing of moisture content, grain size distribution and water retention, and appropriate consideration of the effect of surface barriers on soil moisture content.
3. Several radon and VOC tracer studies indicate that measured Q_{soil} values at coarse-grained soil sites, for single fam-

ily residences, ranged from ~ 1 to 10 L/min. Depending on the input values chosen, much lower Q_{soil} values can be predicted using the soil-gas advection model typically used in conjunction with the J&E model.

4. There are only a limited number of high quality and comprehensive field studies that can be used to help validate models for the vapor intrusion pathway.
5. For petroleum hydrocarbon sites, the vapor α_m for the Chatterton site (high ΔP cases) and Midwest site were on the order of 1×10^{-5} to 1×10^{-4} (the Midwest value is uncertain). For the remaining cases and sites, the possible upper bound vapor α_m ranged from $\sim 5 \times 10^{-7}$ to 1×10^{-5} .
6. For chlorinated solvent sites, the ground water α_m were on the order of 1×10^{-6} to 1×10^{-4} for the three sites with the most reliable data sets (CDOT, Redfields, and Hamilton). For one site with a smaller and somewhat less reliable data set (Lowry), the maximum ground water α_m was $\sim 1 \times 10^{-3}$ while the maximum subsurface vapor α_m was $\sim 1 \times 10^{-2}$.
7. For the tracer and flux chamber studies, the α_m was on the order of 1×10^{-4} to 1×10^{-2} . In the context of VOC intrusion, these α_m represent conservative upper bounds owing to boundary conditions and tracer properties that are generally different than those at VOC-contaminated sites.
8. For almost all case studies, the best estimate J&E model-predicted α_p were one to two orders of magnitude less than the 50th percentile or median α_m , indicating that when best estimate and average conditions are evaluated, the J&E model predictions are conservative. There were a few cases studies where the best estimate α_p was less than the 90th percentile or maximum α_m , indicating the J&E model predictions are nonconservative for a small subset of houses or apartments. The comparisons also highlight the potential for non-conservative model predictions if a combination of low Q_{soil} and low D_T^{eff}/L_T are used.

The observed variability in α_m between different field sites, and individual houses at some sites, highlights the complexity of processes affecting vapor intrusion. Numerous factors potentially affect the vapor intrusion pathway including biodegradation, chemical transformation, sorption, contaminant source depletion, geologic heterogeneity, soil properties (moisture content, permeability, organic carbon content), building properties, meteorological conditions, and building ventilation rates. In light of this complexity, it is important to recognize the vapor intrusion modeling paradigm typically followed is a compartmental model for steady-state one-dimensional diffusion through soil, and diffusion and advection through a building foundation having an idealized edge or perimeter crack (J&E model). Often, a homogeneous soil is assumed, although it is relatively easy to model diffusion for multiple soil layers assuming site information is available (Johnson et al. 1998). Simulation of vapor transport through the building foundation and mixing of VOCs within the building airspace is highly simplified. Although not used for this study, it is noted that the J&E model has been modified to include first-order biodegradation for a dominant soil layer (Johnson et al. 1998) and oxygen-limited first-order biodegradation (Johnson et al. 2001).

Notwithstanding the above, the question remains: Can the

J&E model (or other similar screening models) be reliably used for the vapor intrusion pathway? Our answer is a qualified yes, provided that appropriate input values are used and the model sensitivity, uncertainty, and limitations are recognized. The answer may also depend on what the model is used for. For example, the use of the J&E model to set generic criteria is problematic owing to model sensitivity and uncertainty, and the wide range in possible site conditions. In our opinion, a semigenetic approach that incorporates site-specific information on critical factors affecting vapor intrusion (e.g., Q_{soil} and soil properties) improves on a single criteria approach. The technically preferred approach is to use the J&E model on a fully site-specific basis, and to calibrate model predictions using soil vapor profiles, and when possible, indoor air data. In all cases, an appropriate framework for model use and understanding of model characteristics is essential when using models for regulatory purposes.

Several data gaps and sources of uncertainty remain. Additional field-based studies should be conducted to evaluate the vapor intrusion pathway for different site conditions, and to more fully assess specific factors affecting vapor intrusion. Data that would contribute to a more in-depth pathway analysis include soil properties such as moisture content and porosity, soil vapor concentration profiles below buildings, building properties such as depressurization, and meteorological data. Further evaluation of biodegradation kinetics for hydrocarbon vapors, effect of surface barriers (e.g., buildings) on biodegradation, and chlorinated solvent transformation processes are also needed.

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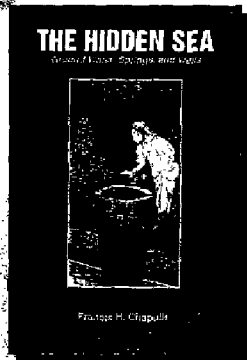


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