

Transient Variability In Vapor Intrusion And The Factors That Influence It

Jonathan G. V. Ström,[†] Yijun Yao,[‡] and Eric M. Suuberg^{*,†}

[†]*Brown University, School of Engineering, Providence, RI, USA*

[‡]*Zhejiang University, Hangzhou, China*

E-mail: eric_suuberg@brown.edu

Abstract

Introduction

Long term vapor intrusion (VI) studies in both residential and larger commercial structures have raised concerns regarding significant observed transient behavior in indoor air contaminant concentrations.¹⁻⁷ VI involves the migration of volatilizing contaminants from soil, groundwater or other subsurface sources into overlying structures. VI has been a recognized problem for some time, but many aspects remain poorly understood, particularly with respect to the causes of large temporal transients in indoor air concentrations. There is uncertainty within the VI community regarding how to best develop sampling strategies to address this problem.^{1,3,8}

Results from a house operated by Arizona State University (ASU) near Hill AFB in Utah, an EPA experimental house in Indianapolis, IN and a large warehouse at the Naval Air Station (NAS) North Island, CA have all shown significant transient variations in indoor

air contaminant concentrations. All were outfitted with sampling and monitoring equipment that allowed tracking temporal variation in indoor air contaminant concentrations on time scales of hours. All have shown that these concentrations varied significantly with time - orders of magnitude on the timescale of a day or days.^{5,9,10}

In one instance the source of the variation was clearly established during the study; at the ASU house a field drain pipe (or “land drain”), which connected to a sewer system, was discovered beneath the house, and careful isolation of this source led to a clear conclusion that this preferential pathway significantly contributed to observed indoor air contaminant levels and their fluctuations.^{10,11} While in this case the issue of a contribution from a preferential pathway was clearly resolved, what it left open was a question of whether existence of such a preferential pathway to an area beneath a structure would always be expected to lead to large fluctuations in indoor air contaminant concentrations.

Similarly, a sewer pipe has recently been suggested to be a source of the contaminants found in the EPA Indianapolis house. That site was also characterized by large indoor air contaminant concentration fluctuations.^{7,12} Sewer lines have been generally implicated as VI sources at several sites.^{12–15} A Danish study estimate that roughly 20% of all VI sites in central Denmark involve significant sewer VI pathways.¹⁶ Thus while the consideration of a role of possible sewer or other preferential pathways is now part of normal good practice in VI site investigation,¹ it is still not known whether the existence of such pathways automatically means that large temporal fluctuations are necessarily to be expected. In some of these cited cases,^{13,15} a sewer provided a pathway for direct entry of contaminant into the living space. While potentially important in many cases, this scenario is not further considered here, where the focus is on pathways that deliver contaminant via the soil beneath a structure.

It is, however, now known that even absent a preferential pathway, there may be significant transient variation in indoor air contaminant concentrations at VI sites.^{2,4,17} One example is a site at NAS North Island at which no preferential pathways have been identified. Instead, a building at this site is characterized by significant temporal variations in

indoor-outdoor pressure differential.⁵ It is believed that this is the origin of the observed indoor air contaminant concentration fluctuations at that site.

This paper investigates the sources of the temporal variation in indoor air contaminant concentrations in both the presence and absence of preferential pathways. In this work, the latter scenarios are referred to as "normal" VI scenarios, in which there is typically a groundwater source of the contaminant. Specifically, we pose the question of just how much variation in indoor air contaminant concentration may be expected at such normal VI sites vs. those characterized by preferential pathways. The conditions required for preferential pathways to become significant contributors to temporal variations in indoor air contaminant concentrations are also explored, and the consequences for sampling strategies are also discussed.

Methods

Statistical Analysis

This paper heavily relies on statistical analysis of high resolution datasets from two well-studied VI sites, one near Hill AFB in Utah (called the ASU house) and another in Indianapolis, IN (simply called as such.) Analysis is performed using the SciPy, NumPy, Pandas, and Seaborn Python packages. Probability distributions of various parameters are constructed using the kernel density estimation (KDE) method,¹⁸ which is implemented in the SciPy package.

To begin to characterize transient behavior in indoor air contaminant concentrations, actual datasets are analyzed to establish common levels of variability at VI sites. For this purpose, the datasets from the ASU house in Utah, the EPA Indianapolis site and North Island NAS were chosen for analysis. This paper relies on statistical analysis of published field data, and readers are referred to the original works for details regarding data acquisition.^{3,5,7,9,10}

The ASU house data were obtained over a period of a few years. During part of this time, controlled pressure method (CPM) tests were being conducted, in which the house was underpressurized to an extent greater than that characterizing “normal” operation. This caused greater than normal advective flow from the subsurface into the house, thus increasing VI potential.^{6,9,19} This period of CPM testing is considered separately from the otherwise “natural” VI conditions in the analysis. Likewise, the existence of a preferential pathway at the ASU house needs to be considered in examining the dataset, noting that during some of the testing, this pathway was deliberately cut off, resulting in what we have termed “normal” VI conditions in which the main source of contaminant was believed to be groundwater.

The NAS North Island dataset has not (as far as is known) been influenced by a preferential pathway, but the structure there was subject to large internal pressure fluctuations, much more extensive than those typically recorded at the ASU house during normal operations. Additionally, the underlying soil at NAS North Island is sandy and more permeable than that at the ASU site, which, as will be shown, contributes to the indoor air contaminant concentrations being more sensitive to pressure fluctuations.⁵

Likewise, the Indianapolis site investigation spanned a number of years and periodically included the testing of a sub-slab depressurization system (SSD). The goal of the SSD testing was to mitigate the VI risk by drastically depressurizing the sub-slab area underneath the house, preventing the contaminants from entering the structure above. Only the period before the installation of this system was considered in the present analysis. It is likely a sewer line beneath the structure acted as a preferential pathway,¹² however at no point was this preferential pathway removed, making it difficult to assess how significant the role of the preferential pathway was at this site. Regardless of this it is of interest to consider the data from this site due to how extensive and complete the data collection was.

The typical variation in indoor air contaminant concentrations with time will first be considered below in the case of the ASU house during “natural”, (i.e. non-CPM condi-

tions), in the case of the NAS North Island site over the entire available dataset, and for the Indianapolis case we consider the variations before the installation of the SSD system. The deviations in indoor air concentration from the mean TCE (and Chloroform and PCE at the Indianapolis site) values, as well as the indoor-outdoor pressure differentials associated with these concentrations were examined. Both univariate and bivariate kernel density estimations (KDE) were constructed. KDE is a technique that estimates the probability distribution of a random variable(s) by using multiple kernels, or weighting functions, and in this case, Gaussian kernels are used to create the KDEs. This means that it is presumed that the variables of interest (i.e., indoor air contaminant concentrations and indoor-outdoor pressure differentials, as sampled) are normally distributed around mean values (and that there are statistical fluctuations associated with each sampling event). In this instance, the scipy statistical package was used to construct the KDEs, assuming a bandwidth parameter determined by Scott’s rule. The distributions of the individual parameters and the relationship between them will be examined using the KDE method.

Methods

Vapor Intrusion Model

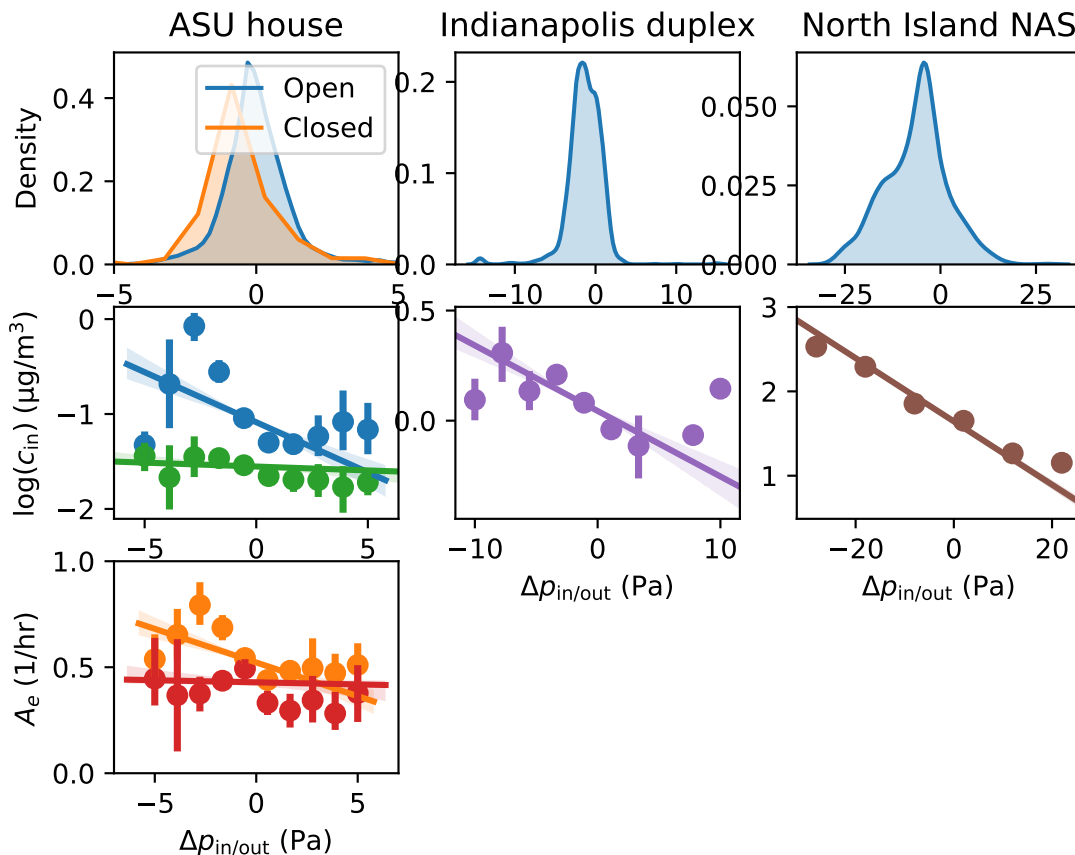
$$V \frac{\partial c_{\text{in}}}{\partial t} = n - c_{\text{in}} A_e V \quad (1)$$

Results & Discussion

Statistical Analysis of Field Data

Our discussion of examining the temporal variability of indoor air contaminant concentration begins by considering one of the most dynamic factors that influence VI - the indoor/outdoor pressure difference ($p_{\text{in/out}}$). In the top row of Figure 1, the distribution of $p_{\text{in/out}}$ at three difference VI sites, the ASU house, Indianapolis site, and North Island NAS, are plotted.

Figure 1: Distributions of indoor/outdoor pressure differences (top row), and its correlation with indoor air contaminant concentrations (middle rows), and air exchange rate (bottom row), at three different VI sites - ASU house, Indianapolis site, and North Island NAS.



The distributions of $p_{in/out}$ at these three site resemble normal-like distribution, with a mean of a few negativa Pa, indicating that the most probable state is that these sites are slightly depressized. At the ASU house and the Indianapolis site, the range of $p_{in/out}$ values are relatively similar, whereas the North Island NAS site has significalty larger span of values. This is most likely due to the poor structural condition of the North Island site, making it much more susceptible to barometric pressure fluctuations; the ASU house and Indianapolis site are regular residential structure in good condition. The periods when the preferential pathway at the ASU house was open and closed are considered separately.

Now we move on to look at $p_{in/out}$ is correlated with the indoor air contaminant concen-

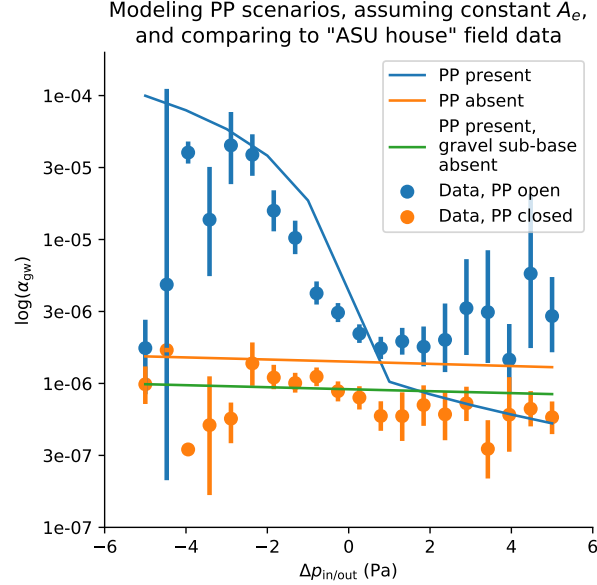
tration (c_{in}). The middle row of Figure 1 shows the log-10 values of c_{in} vs. $p_{\text{in/out}}$, placed into evenly spaced bins, are plotted. Each bin represents the mean c_{in} and the errorbars show the 95% confidence interval. A linear regression curve is also fitted to the data, with the shaded part of the regression again indicating the 95% confidence interval. At the ASU house, it is readably apparent that the preferential pathway has a profound effect on how sensitive c_{in} is to $p_{\text{in/out}}$, showing that the closing of the preferential pathway fundamentally changes the site. Perhaps surprsingly, when the preferential pathway is closed $p_{\text{in/out}}$ is not strongly correlated with c_{in} .

At the Indianapolis and North Island NAS sites, we again see the association of higher c_{in} when the structures are depressurized, but with still significant variability for a given $p_{\text{in/out}}$.

The difference in correlation of c_{in} vs. $p_{\text{in/out}}$ for the "open" and "closed" periods, as well as the $p_{\text{in/out}}$ is more evenly distributed around 0 Pa support our choice of model, where we assume that the preferential pathway acts by enhancing the "advective potential" of a VI site through improving communication between the indoor and outdoor.

It is clear that $p_{\text{in/out}}$ sets a trend, i.e. increased depressurization is associated with higher c_{in} , but there is still considerable variability for a given $p_{\text{in/out}}$. $p_{\text{in/out}}$ is important in determining the contaminant entry rate into a structure, but it also will partly determine the air exchange rate. How significantly $p_{\text{in/out}}$ determines A_e varies with site specific conditions, e.g. HVAC operation, if windows are open/closed, how well insulated the structure is etc. A_e is thus highly variate for a given $p_{\text{in/out}}$, and we hypothesize that most of the variability in c_{in} at a specific $p_{\text{in/out}}$ may be explained by variation in air exchange rate (A_e). In the bottom left of Figure 1 we can see that larger depressurization is associated with higher A_e , while overpressurazation is associated with lower A_e , but with still significant uncertainty.

Figure 2: Simulated cases



Influence Of Pressure On Indoor Air Variability

To examine the role that $p_{\text{in/out}}$ and A_e play in determining c_{in} variability (given as attenuation from groundwater vapor source α_{gw} here), we first consider modeling VI scenarios with a constant $A_e = 0.5$ (1/hr), and varying $p_{\text{in/out}}$ from 5 to -5 Pa. The first of these scenarios is aimed to be similar to the period when the preferential pathway is open at the ASU house, and thus the modeled preferential pathway is active. In the second scenario, this preferential pathway feature is deactivated, akin to the period when the preferential pathway was closed at the ASU site. And in the third, the preferential pathway is again modeled, but the permeable gravel sub-base is instead assumed consist of the sandy loam, just like the surrounding soil, giving an "uniform soil" scenario. The results of these modeled scenarios are then compared to the preferential pathways "open" and "closed" periods from the ASU data, and may be seen in Figure 2. The data is here binned into evenly spaced bins, with each dot representing the mean α_{gw} and the error bars denote the 95% confidence intervals.

By examining the first scenario (blue) it is readily apparent that the model is able to capture the behavior of the preferential pathway when the structure is depressurized ($p_{\text{in/out}} <$

0) but not very well when the house is overpressurized ($p_{\text{in/out}} > 0$). This shows that the preferential pathways acts by increasing advective potential, allowing even relatively small increases in depressurization dramatically increases the contaminant entry rate into the house. Conversely, when the structure is overpressurized, contaminant entry is more effectively inhibited, leading to diffusion being the more important transport mechanism from the sub-base to the indoor air space, leading to the decrease in α_{gw} . Yet, when $p_{\text{in/out}} > 0$ there is a slight increase in α_{gw} which can be explained by the fact that lower A_e are associated with overpressurization, leading to an increase in α_{gw} ,

An interesting contrast to this scenario is third, when the preferential pathway is still present but the permeable gravel sub-base is not. Under these conditions, there is almost increase in advective transport as the impermeable sub-base effectively inhibits this. This leads to the conclusion that unless there is some way for a preferential pathway to effectively communicate between the sub-base region (or wherever the preferential pathway is), then it is unlikely to find the dramatic effect observed at the ASU house.

Lastly, we consider the second scenario, where there is no preferential pathway present (but there is a permeable gravel sub-base). Here the general (weak) trend of increased α_{gw} with increase depressurization is captured, but none of the variability is captured. There is inadequate potential for advective transport and thus $p_{\text{in/out}}$ does not significantly increase the contaminant entry rate. Furthermore, the seemingly random variability is not captured. Clearly, the A_e fluctuations must be incorporated into the modeling methodology to more accurately predict the variability in α_{gw} .

Combined Influence Of Pressure And Air Exchange Rate On Indoor Air Variability

Variation Timeperiod

So far our discussion has focused on how much variability in c_{in} can be expected, and some drivers for this, at the three different sites. However, this tells just little about how much

Figure 3

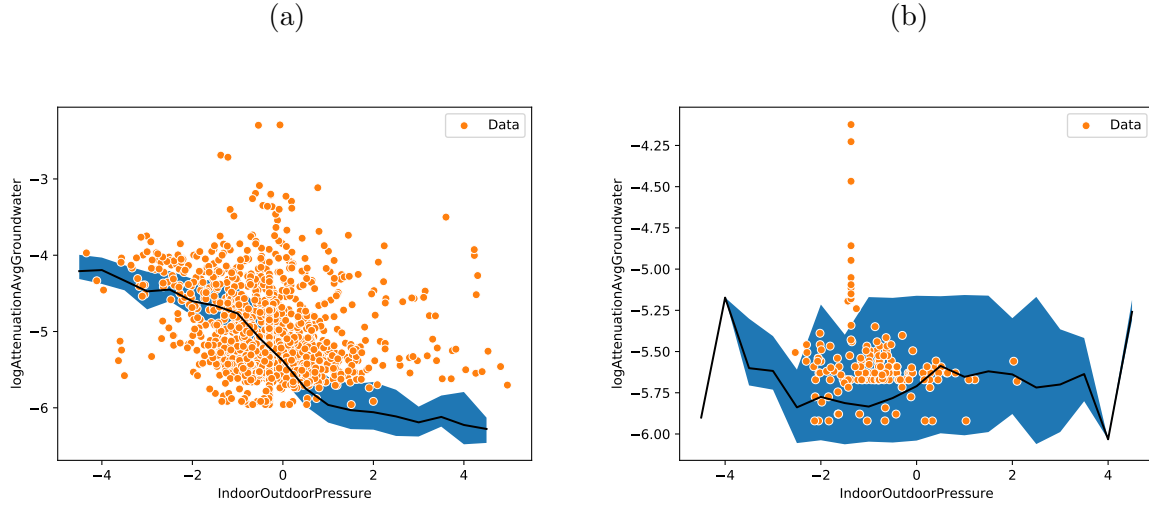
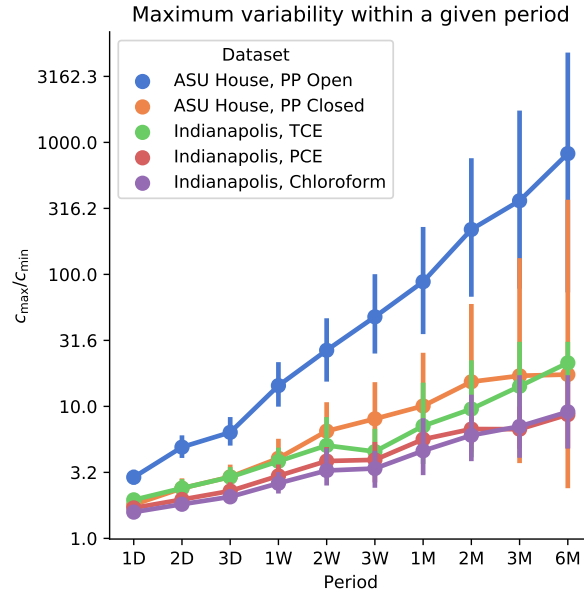


Figure 4: (1D is 1 day, 2W is 2 weeks, and 3M is 3 months).



191 c_{in} may vary over a given timeperiod. To examine this, the data is resampled over a chosen
 192 timeperiod, and the quotient of the maximum and minimum c_{in} (denoted as c_{max}/c_{min}) are
 193 plotted for this period. I.e. if c_{in} samples were collected every four hours over a period of a
 194 year, and the data is resampled on a daily basis, then c_{max}/c_{min} is returned for within each
 195 day, giving 365 data points. For this analysis, we consider the period when the preferential
 196 pathway was open/closed at the ASU house, and the three indoor air contaminant found

at the Indianapolis site (TCE, PCE, and Chloroform). The North Island NAS dataset is excluded here, as the data that we have available only spans a few days versus year(s) for the ASU house and Indianapolis sites.

Figure 4 shows the the expected maximum variability over different resampling periods (from 1 day to 6 months). As one might expect, the longer the resampling period, the larger the maximum variability is, spanning from less than a threefold difference, to two to three orders of magnitude. That such a large variability is observed when the resampling time approaches the length of the entire datasets is hardly surprising, nor is it surprising that the variability is much more significant when the preferential pathway was open than closed. What may be surprising is that absent a preferential pathway such as the one at the ASU house, it may take a few weeks before an order of magnitude maximum variability is reached. The most significant result of this analysis is that the maximum variability is quite small across a few days, suggesting that e.g. 24-hour passive samplers will resolve the daily temporal variability in c_{in} well ($c_{\text{max}}/c_{\text{min}} \approx 1.5$) and that a sampling frequency greater than a few days may yield little extra information.

Attenuation To Subslab

Acknowledgement

This project was supported by grant ES-201502 from the Strategic Environmental Research and Development Program and Environmental Security Technology Certification Program (SERDP-ESTCP).

References

- (1) U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, OSWER Technical Guide for Assessing and Mitigating the Vapor Intrusion Pathway From Subsurface Vapor Sources To

Indoor Air. <https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2015-09/documents/oswer-vapor-intrusion-technical-guide-final.pdf>, 00005.

(2) Folkes, D.; Wertz, W.; Kurtz, J.; Kuehster, T. Observed Spatial and Temporal Distributions of CVOCs at Colorado and New York Vapor Intrusion Sites. *29*, 70–80, 00048.

(3) Holton, C.; Luo, H.; Dahlen, P.; Gorder, K.; Dettenmaier, E.; Johnson, P. C. Temporal Variability of Indoor Air Concentrations under Natural Conditions in a House Overlying a Dilute Chlorinated Solvent Groundwater Plume. *47*, 13347–13354, 00028.

(4) Johnston, J. E.; Gibson, J. M. Spatiotemporal Variability of Tetrachloroethylene in Residential Indoor Air Due to Vapor Intrusion: A Longitudinal, Community-Based Study. *24*, 564, 00018.

(5) Hosangadi, V.; Shaver, B.; Hartman, B.; Pound, M.; Kram, M. L.; Frescura, C. High-Frequency Continuous Monitoring to Track Vapor Intrusion Resulting From Naturally Occurring Pressure Dynamics. *27*, 9–25, 00001.

(6) McHugh, T.; Loll, P.; Eklund, B. Recent Advances in Vapor Intrusion Site Investigations. *204*, 783–792, 00005.

(7) U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Assessment of Mitigation Systems on Vapor Intrusion: Temporal Trends, Attenuation Factors, and Contaminant Migration Routes under Mitigated And Non-Mitigated Conditions. 00002.

(8) Johnson, P. C.; Holton, C. W.; Guo, Y.; Dahlen, P.; Luo, E. H.; Gorder, K.; Dettenmaier, E.; Hinchee, R. E. Integrated Field-Scale, Lab-Scale, and Modeling Studies for Improving Our Ability to Assess the Groundwater to Indoor Air Pathway at Chlorinated Solvent-Impacted Groundwater Sites. 00003.

(9) Holton, C. W. Evaluation of Vapor Intrusion Pathway Assessment Through Long-Term

Monitoring Studies. https://repository.asu.edu/attachments/150778/content/Holton_asu_0010E_15040.pdf, 00003.

(10) Guo, Y. Vapor Intrusion at a Site with an Alternative Pathway and a Fluctuating Groundwater Table. <https://repository.asu.edu/items/36435>, 00001.

(11) Guo, Y.; Holton, C.; Luo, H.; Dahlen, P.; Gorder, K.; Dettenmaier, E.; Johnson, P. C. Identification of Alternative Vapor Intrusion Pathways Using Controlled Pressure Testing, Soil Gas Monitoring, and Screening Model Calculations. *49*, 13472–13482, 00019.

(12) McHugh, T.; Beckley, L.; Sullivan, T.; Lutes, C.; Truesdale, R.; Uppencamp, R.; Cosky, B.; Zimmerman, J.; Schumacher, B. Evidence of a Sewer Vapor Transport Pathway at the USEPA Vapor Intrusion Research Duplex. *598*, 772–779, 00007.

(13) Pennell, K. G.; Scammell, M. K.; McClean, M. D.; Ames, J.; Weldon, B.; Friguglietti, L.; Suuberg, E. M.; Shen, R.; Indeglia, P. A.; Heiger-Bernays, W. J. Sewer Gas: An Indoor Air Source of PCE to Consider During Vapor Intrusion Investigations. *33*, 119–126, 00022.

(14) Roghani, M.; Jacobs, O. P.; Miller, A.; Willett, E. J.; Jacobs, J. A.; Viteri, C. R.; Shirazi, E.; Pennell, K. G. Occurrence of Chlorinated Volatile Organic Compounds (VOCs) in a Sanitary Sewer System: Implications for Assessing Vapor Intrusion Alternative Pathways. *616-617*, 1149–1162, 00002.

(15) Riis, C. E.; Christensen, A. G.; Hansen, M. H.; Husum, H.; Terkelsen, M. Vapor Intrusion through Sewer Systems: Migration Pathways of Chlorinated Solvents from Groundwater to Indoor Air. Seventh International Conference on Remediation of Chlorinated and Recalcitrant Compounds. 00012.

(16) Nielsen, K. B.; Hvidberg, B. Remediation Techniques for Mitigating Vapor Intrusion from Sewer Systems to Indoor Air. *27*, 67–73, 00002.

- 267 (17) Brenner, D. Results of a Long-Term Study of Vapor Intrusion at Four Large Buildings
268 at the NASA Ames Research Center. *60*, 747–758, 00003.
- 269 (18) Altman, N. S. An Introduction to Kernel and Nearest-Neighbor Nonparametric Regres-
270 sion. *46*, 175–185, 01805.
- 271 (19) McHugh, T. E.; Beckley, L.; Bailey, D.; Gorder, K.; Dettenmaier, E.; Rivera-Duarte, I.;
272 Brock, S.; MacGregor, I. C. Evaluation of Vapor Intrusion Using Controlled Building
273 Pressure. *46*, 4792–4799, 00037.