

Presentation Overview: Treatment of dissolved-phase chlorinated ethenes in groundwater using in situ bioremediation (ISB) is an established technology; however, its use for DNAPL source zones is an emerging application. This training course supports the ITRC Technical and Regulatory Guidance document In Situ Bioremediation of Chlorinated Ethene: DNAPL Source Zones (BioDNAPL-3, 2008). This document provides the regulatory community, stakeholders, and practitioners with the general steps practitioners and regulators can use to objectively assess, monitor, and optimize ISB treatment of DNAPL source zones. The objective is to provide adequate technology background for the user to understand the general and key aspects of ISB for treatment of chlorinated ethene DNAPL source zones. It is not intended to be a step-by-step instruction manual for remedial design, but describes technology-specific considerations for application of ISB of DNAPL source zones.

For this training and guidance document, a DNAPL source zone includes the zone that encompasses the entire subsurface volume in which DNAPL is present either at residual saturation or as "pools" that accumulate above confining units. The DNAPL source zone includes regions that have come into contact with DNAPL and may be storing contaminant mass as a result of diffusion of DNAPL into the soil matrix. Even though DNAPLs may be present in both the unsaturated and saturated zones, the discussion of ISB of DNAPL source zones in this training and guidance document focuses on treatment of DNAPL source zones within the saturated zone.

Two goals of any DNAPL source treatment technology are to 1) reduce the mass of contaminants within the source area and 2) prevent migration of contaminants above unacceptable levels. The enhanced ISB technology reduces source mass and controls flux through the enhanced dissolution and desorption of DNAPL constituents into the aqueous phase, and subsequent microbially mediated degradation processes. Although enhanced ISB of DNAPL source zones has been demonstrated in the field at a few chlorinated solvent sites, expectations for rapid depletion of the source zone must be realistic. This training and guidance provide detailed requirements necessary to support the realistic determination of goals for ISB of a DNAPL source zone.

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Larry Syverson is a groundwater remediation specialist for the Virginia Department of Environmental Quality in Richmond, Virginia. Larry has worked at the Department for since 1991: five years in the underground storage tank section and since 1996 in the solid waste section. Larry issues solid waste groundwater permits, reviews post-closure care applications and oversees corrective action projects for the Department's Northern Regional Office. Prior to the Department, Larry worked for 16 years in Texas and Oklahoma has a petroleum geologist and in Virginia as an environmental consultant. Larry is currently the ITRC's point of contact for Virginia and is a member of the BioDNAPL team. Larry earned a bachelor's degree in geology in 1972 and a master of environmental science in 1988 from The University of Oklahoma in Norman, Oklahoma. Larry is a Certified Professional Geologist by the Commonwealth of Virginia.

Dr. David Major, Ph.D., is a Principal and a Vice President of Geosyntec Consultants Inc., Associate Editor of Ground Water Monitoring and Remediation, and an Adjunct Professor at the Department of Chemical Engineering and Applied Chemistry, University of Toronto and Department of Earth Sciences, University of Waterloo (UW). He has worked for Geosyntec Consultants Inc. in Guelph, Ontario, Canada since 1998. He has helped various researchers to develop and commercialize new environmental technologies such as zero-valent iron (ZVI) permeable reactive barriers, molecular biomarkers, and bioaugmentation cultures. David was recently inducted into the Space Hall of Fame® in 2007 in recognition for his role in commercializing NASA's Emulsified ZVI to treat DNAPLs. He received one of 50 Science's Alumni of Honor Awards from the University of Waterloo, in celebration of 50 years of success and accomplishments of UW alumni and the university. David also serves on various national scientific and regulatory advisory boards. He is a member of the Remediation Technologies Development Forum, served on a U.S. EPA Expert Panel to address the benefits of partial source treatment of DNAPLs, and on the U.S. National Research Council Committee on Geological and Geotechnical Engineering in the New Millennium. He has been active in ITRC since 1996. He co-developed and taught two ITRC courses (monitored natural attenuation [MNA] and accelerated anaerobic bioremediation of chlorinated solvents) and is currently an instructor on ITRC's BioDNAPL training course. David earned his bachelor's and master's of science, and doctoral degrees in biology from the University of Waterloo, Waterloo Ontario in 1981,1984, 1987 respectively.

Dr. Wilson S. Clayton, Ph.D., P.E., P.G., is a co-founder and Vice President of Aquifer Solutions, Inc., a small woman-owned business specializing in vadose zone and groundwater hydrology and in-situ remediation founded in 2001. Wilson was previously employed with Groundwater Technology Inc., and then by acquisition with Fluor Daniel CTI, and IT Corporation. Wilson held positions including Territory Manager, Treatability Laboratory Director, and National Practice Leader training course. Wilson earned a bachelor's degree in geology from Clemson University in Clemson, South Carolina in 1984, a master's degree in geology from University of Connecticut in Stors, Connecticut in 1986, and a doctoral degree in geology from Clemson of Manager. Treatability Caboratory Director, and National Practice Leader training course. Wilson earned a bachelor's degree in geology from Clemson University in Clemson, South Carolina in 1984, a master's degree in geology from University of Connecticut in Stors, Connecticut in 1986, and a doctoral degree in geology from Clemson of MANEY.

Ryan A. Wymore, P.E., is with CDM in Denver, Co, where he serves as a national resource for evaluation, selection, and implementation of remediation strategies and solutions. Since 1998, he has specialized in innovative groundwater remediation technologies, particularly bioremediation, monitored natural attenuation and chemical oxidation. He also serves as the administrator for CDM's Research and Development Program, where he coordinates all of the company's internally and externally funded research. He has worked for the Idaho National Engineering and Environmental Laboratory, North Wind Inc., and is currently at CDM, where he has worked since 2005. He has given over sixty presentations at various local, regional, national, and international symposia and meetings. Since 2002, he has worked with ITRC teams on DNAPLS, Bioremediation of DNAPLS, and Enhanced Attenuation: Chlorinated Organics. He was an instructor on the ITRC DNAPL Performance Assessment Internet-based training course, which was delivered to more than 1,100 trainees. Ryan earned a bachelor's degree in Biological Systems Engineering from the University of Nebraska-Lincoln in 1997 and a master's degree in Civil/Environmental Engineering from the environmental discipline.



On this slide, we see a list of the problems associated with DNAPL source zones.

There are more than 10,000 DNAPL sites across the country, located in every state. These include many DOD and DOE sites as well as dry cleaner sites and various industrial and manufacturing properties

Due to the characteristics of DNAPL sites, many are considered high risk because they include cancer causing contaminants, such as PCE and TCE, which have low maximum contaminant levels (MCLs). Many of these contaminants have half-lives that are quite long. In addition, the sites are difficult to clean up because the contaminants are denser than water.

As a result, few remediation technologies are effective at cleaning-up DNAPL source zones.

In 2004, ITRC formed the Bioremediation of DNAPLs Team to investigate the use of In Situ Bioremediation at DNAPL source zone sites. Note: "In Situ Bioremediation" will be referred to simply as "ISB."

ISB is an established technology; however, its use at DNAPL source zones is still an emerging application. The team determined that ISB is a viable technology for remediating DNAPLs at source zones because of its efficiency and cost effectiveness.

As a result, the team produced the technical and regulatory guidance upon which this training is based, to provide the know-how in utilizing ISB at DNAPL source zones.



So why a Tech-Reg Guidance?

It was the team's objective to provide the regulatory community, stakeholders, and consultants with a useful evaluation guide for ISB.

The document also provides a systematic understanding from both a technical and regulatory perspective.

Technical – The document describes technology specific considerations for source zone characterization, treatment application, and things to look for when designing the system. This allows ISB to be another remediation technology in your tool box.

The document also addresses **regulatory** concerns. It is imperative, however, that the user contact the regulators before applying this technology because regulations vary from state to state.



Here are the key points you will learn from this course.

•You will gain insight as to when and where to consider this remedy for DNAPL source zones.

•Site conditions, both favorable and less favorable, that affect the performance of the technology.

•There will be a discussion on how to monitor and evaluate the performance of ISB.

•The course will discuss the advantages, as well as, the challenges of the technology at a DNAPL source zone.

You should be aware however that this Tech-Reg is not a detailed design manual and it will only address remediation of the saturated zone.



This slide outlines what regulators and stakeholders can expect from the technology.

•ISB involves the mass removal of the contaminant.

•It is expected that this reduction in contaminant mass will occur within a few months of implementation. So you will see an immediate result.

•The technology, through microbial activities, increases the rate of dissolution and desorption of the DNAPLs.

•One other reason for the technology's success is that a multiple chlorinated compounds can be degraded at the same time.

•ISB requires low maintenance. Basically, microbes in the subsurface breakdown contaminants to less harmful compounds. However, it may require the introduction of additional microbes to increase the population and thereby enhance the degradation.

•The start-up costs may be considerably lower than other technologies particularly if the appropriate microbes are present in sufficient number and if the geochemical aspects of the site are suitable for biodegradation.

•The time frame is uncertain at this point because it is an emerging technology for DNAPL source zones and may vary from site to site.



No associated notes.





- Source zone and its architecture
- ▶ <u>Mechanisms</u> of *in situ* bioremediation

No associated notes.



This section will provide an overview of how ISB for chlorinated ethene DNAPL works-refer to section 2 of the BioDNAPL guidance document.

DNAPL source zones do not necessarily have readily detectable free product. The NRC recognized that DNAPL would be present in a number of phases and therefore defined a source zone as...



ISB works by enhancing the rate of dissolution of the various phases of DNAPL-degrade the parent compounds PCE or TCE to more soluble daughter products increasing the mass transfer of the DNAPL into solution. Bacteria cannot directly degrade the free phase DNAPL, but can actively degrade at or close to the aqueous solubility of the chlorinated ethenes.

¹⁵ Aqueous Solubility of Selected Chlorinated Solvents



	Water	* REGULATORY *
Compound	Solubility*	Microorganisms that
Chlorinated Ethenes	(mg/L)	dechlorinate can function at or close to the
Tetrachloroethene (PCE)	200	
Trichloroethene (TCE)	1470	chlorinated solvents'
cis-1,2-Dichloroethene (cDCE)	3500	aqueous solubility limits
trans-1,2-Dichloroethene (tDCE)	6300	Lower chlorinated
Vinyl Chloride (VC or Chloroethene)	8800	degradation products
		generally have higher
Chlorinated Ethanes		aqueous solubility
1,1,1-Trichloroethane (1,1,1-TCA)	1330	Therefore, as
1,1,2-Trichloroethane (1,1,2-TCA)	4420	dechlorination proceeds,
1,2-Dichloroethane (1,2-DCA or EDC)	8520	more mass goes into
Chlorothane (Ethyl Chloride)	5680	solution
		*Johnson and Ettinger
Chlorinated Methanes		(http://www.epa.gov/osw
Carbon Tetrachloride (CT)	793	er/riskassessment/airmo del/johnson_ettinger.htm (GW-SCREEN-FEB-04))
Chloroform (CF or Trichlormethane)	7920	
Dichloromethane (DCM or Methylene Chloride)	13000	
Chloromethane (Methyl Chloride)	5330	

Lesser chlorinated compounds have higher water solubility.

Data on water solubility is available at

http://www.epa.gov/oswer/riskassessment/airmodel/johnson_ettinger.htm

From the "3-Phase System Models and Soil Gas Models" section, download the "Excel zip file (ZIP 282K)." From the zip file, open the "GW-SCREEN-Feb04.xls" Excel file. Information is listed on the "VLOOKUP" sheet.



Many different types of bacteria can degrade PCE and TCE to cis-DCE, but only one group of bacteria (Dehalococcoides or DHC) has been identified that can dechlorinate completely to ethene. So if DHC are not present naturally they can be added – a process termed bioaugmentation. All strains of DHC bacteria cannot do the complete dechlorination-only those with the vcrA gene. There are molecular tests for the DHC bacteria and the vcrA gene.



Electron donors are the complex organic compounds that are added to 'feed' the bacteria during the reductive dechlorination process. Examples of electron donors are ethanol, lactate, molasses, emulsified soybean oil etc. – these compounds are broken down to hydrogen by fermentative bacteria. The hydrogen is the electron donor that the DHC bacteria use. DHC bacteria use the chlorinated ethene (TCE, PCE) itself as the electron acceptor-they 'breath' the chlorinated ethenes.



In addition to hydrogen, bacteria can produce acetate and methane from the addition of electron donors. High concentrations of chlorinated solvents in a DNAPL source zone can inhibit methanogens that produce methane and other hydrogen utilizing microorganisms. This has two positive effects-less methane production and more efficient use of the hydrogen produced-more available for the dechlorinating bacteria.



To sum up the last few slides:

Microorganisms can degrade chlorinated solvents at very high concentrations-to the limit of the solvents water solubility.

Degradation increases the concentration gradient between DNAPL and groundwater promoting faster mass removal. DHC bacteria are critical to complete dechlorination, but not critical in terms of enhancing dissolution in the source zone where the degradation of the parent compounds has the biggest impact.



One of the complicating factors is working with mixed chlorinated solvents and the inhibition effects encountered. Inhibition is not the same as toxicity-it does not kill the organisms, just inhibits the degradative activity until the concentration is reduced or the compound removed. One thing to note here is the different groups of microorganisms associated with the different dechlorination steps.



111 TCA can inhibit DHC and certain Dehalobacter bacteria that degrade TCE to cis DCE to VC to ethene.



Similarly chloroform at a relatively low concentration (70 ppb) can inhibit these dechlorination steps. In general with these compounds present above their inhibitory concentration we will see an accumulation of cis-DCE and or Vinyl chloride.



Much higher concentration of dichloromethane (aka methylene chloride) will also inhibit these dechlorination steps.



Cis-DCE can also inhibit further dechlorination of the chlorinated ethanes. In field studies inhibition has at some sites to occur at much higher concentrations. Bioaugmentation with mixed cultures that degrade different chlorinated VOCs can be used to overcome this inhibition.



No associated notes.



The next set of slides shows the effect of biological degradation on DNAPL. This slide shows the DNAPL as a drop sitting on a surface surrounded by groundwater and the concentration with distance from that drop. The DNAPL exposed to flowing groundwater will dissolve into the groundwater right at the surface at its maximum water solubility called C sub sat and that concentration will decrease as a function of distance from the NAPL surface (C sub w) - the difference between C sat and Cw is the concentration gradient that drives the flux (J) or the mass transfer rate from the NAPL surface to the bulk groundwater. The gradient is show as the slope of the line on the graph to the right.



Increases in the concentration gradient can be caused by the use of surfactant, co-solvents and heat.



Biodegradation lowers the concentration of the chlorinated compounds in the groundwater (C sub w) increasing the concentration gradient.



The DNAPL 'pool length' is typically made up of small residuals, droplets, and ganglia of DNAPL. The length of the pool has a direct effect on the remediation timeframe because the pool dissolves from the upgradient edge.



When only the leading or upgradient end dissolving there is little change in the concentration over time in the well.



This shows the concentration of the chlorinated solvents with time without degradation



ISB overcomes this problem in two ways: Increasing the concentration gradient and therefore the dissolution rate and also by 'cleaning' water between the droplets allowing more mass to be impacted, not just the leading edge.



This slide shows the pattern of concentrations that you would observe if DNAPL ethenes were being treated by ISB. When ISB is working the concentration can increase due to enhanced dissolution and stay high for a long period of time until all of the mass is depleted.



No associated notes.



As with any technology there are challenges and limitations to its application....



No associated notes.




- **Determine and control the aquifer's redox status** Oxidative bacteria dominate aquifers in which energetic electron acceptors (O2, NO3, Fe3+, Mn5+, for example) are abundant. Often these electron acceptors are available in the groundwater flowing into the DNAPL source zone and, in the case of iron and manganese, from the aquifer matrix, itself. The first task for enhanced reductive dechlorination treatment is to determine aquifer oxidation/reduction status.
- **Expand populations of fermenting bacteria** Late-stage dechlorinating bacteria (those that dechlorinate cis-DCE and vinyl chloride) depend on molecular hydrogen (H2) for reducing equivalents. As noted earlier, hydrogen is generated along with mixed organic acids during fermentation reactions. When the aquifer microbial community enters fermentative metabolism, many partial decomposition products can be observed, including alcohols, ketones, and volatile fatty acids (VFAs). These compounds are then metabolized during consumption of electron acceptors including chlorinated solvents.
- **Enhance early-stage dechlorination metabolism** Several bacterial genera are known to dechlorinate perchloroethene and trichloroethene to the cis-dichloroethene stage. This is referred to as the early-stage dechlorination. It is possible to dechlorinate the perchloroand trichloroethene at a solvent contaminated site, without achieving significant reductions of the cis-dichloroethene that is produced.
- *Initiate (if necessary) and expand late-stage dechlorination* To date, one bacteria species has been identified that performs late-stage dechlorination reactions the dechlorination of cis-dichloroethene and vinyl chloride. That species is *Dehalococcoides ethenogenes* and only some strains of that species produce vinyl chloride reductase, and the enzyme that completes the last step in dechlorination, reducing vinyl chloride to ethene.
- **Dissolve and desorb non-aqueous solvent mass** Only a small fraction of the solvent mass in DNAPL source zones resides in the aqueous phase. To achieve measurable reductions of DNAPL source mass, it is necessary to dissolve and desorb solvents that are stored in non-aqueous phase.



Refer to document

Ongoing optimization –later presenters discuss monitoring and evaluation



ISB design should be optimized to the site conditions.

As discussed in the first portion of the presentation, need to have a good Conceptual Site Model (CSM).

From the CSM, the amendment and delivery approach need to be appropriate to the site conditions (physical and chemical/biological).

For some sites, conditions may dictate that only a narrow range of the available approaches will be optimal.

Transition to discussion of DNAPL source area CSM.



- DNAPL source mass delineation One of the very difficult problems for DNAPL treatment is the mapping of contaminant mass in the aquifer. There are no proven methods to remotely sense DNAPL source mass, so the only viable survey methods depend on direct contact with the contaminant significant sampling is intensive in three dimensions.
- DNAPL source area hydrogeology The injection of electron donor solutions into an aquifer, to achieve placement in intended locations, is as challenging as any other element of the technology.

Transition to discussion of heterogeneity.



Geologic Heterogeneity Effects Both DNAPL Distribution and Amendment Delivery.

Areas of DNAPL above residual saturation are notoriously hard to identify, and likely their presence/absence is unknown.

Think about how the depicted heterogeneity would effect the design approach.

Think about how it might vary as a function of scale. What if this cross-section were 3m. high and 5m. wide? What if it were 30m x 50 m?

At what point might you need multi-level injection wells to target specific injection intervals? Will all the injected fluid flow into the sand interval in the middle?

How will the treatment strategy deal with the source zone above the water table? Reductive dechlorination ISB will not work there, so probably a combined remedy is needed.

How might the scale effect the delivery strategy? As the scale becomes larger, the options narrow and developing a well integrated design becomes more critical. In general, the delivery strategy and the amendment selection have to go hand-in-hand.

Transition to discussion of amendment alternatives and say we will talk about delivery strategy after amendment selection.



The carbon donors are consumed by fermenting bacteria, and the fermentation process ultimately releases hydrogen that is used for electron transfer

Differences are primarily in chemical and physical properties and behavior in the subsurface.

The practical differences relate to injectability, persistence, and the specific fermentation process that is promoted.

For example, edible oils like soybean oil can be used, but they have to be made into an emulsion to be able to be transported in the subsurface, as shown in the lower corner.

Transition by looking at the fermentation process for edible oil emulsions.



Electron donors fall into two general classes, although in reality a continuum of behavior exists.

Transition by going back to the classes as useful distinctions, albeit not absolute characterization.



This slide shows the fermentation of soybean oil to volatile fatty acids (term - VFA).

Each step in the fermentation process releases hydrogen. Some VFAs are not very productive toward the desired microbial process, for example acetic acid.

Note that lactic acid VFA is a fermentation product of soybean oil. It is also used by itself as a highly soluble amendment, as shown in the next slide.



"Soluble amendments" are generally referring to a product that is highly mobile in the subsurface – fully miscible in water.

The slide shows two approaches to injection. The recirculation scenario on the left provides greater control and flexibility (e.g., allows changing the donor concentrations in real time), but will generally cost more than direct injection, which may be designed similar to the depiction on the right.



Slow release amendments are generally referring to a product that has some limitations on mobility in the subsurface, and that results in a residual capacity to release Volatile Fatty Acids (VFA) over time. With slow release donors, the area of influence may expand over time and then later contract as the donor is depleted.



Secondary amendments can be used to help control geochemical or microbial conditions, if needed.



After you understand the conceptual site model and choices of amendments, it is time to select an overall treatment configuration.

Treatment zone configuration, and differences in Injection Volume Dose delivery mode Elements include:

The treatment zone configuration (i.e. barrier vs. areal treatment)

The hydrogeologic constraints and conceptual plan for amendment injection and subsurface distribution

A plan for monitoring, evaluating, and possibly modifying the treatment process over time

There is always more than one way to approach the design. The "art of practice" comes into play in choosing an optimal design.

Transition with site specific considerations.





Example of source zone barrier configuration



Examples of source zone injection/extraction and "inject and drift"



After you have selected an amendment and an overall treatment configuration, it is time to get the amendment into the ground.

The tech-reg guidance document, and this presentation are not focused on providing a design cook book, but rather focused on educating folks on the technical issues and decisions that are faced.

We will only be able to address the injection design in an overview fashion.





Site-specific factors strongly affect our ability to deliver amendments uniformly throughout the target treatment zone



The amount of the donor needed is determined by all of the electron acceptors in the system.

There are spreadsheets available that calculate donor demand based on electron acceptor concentrations and influx, but these still include safety factors.









The process controls on this technology are simple:

Carbon solution composition, volume, concentration and injection frequency can all be adjusted

Aquifer pH may be adjusted through base or buffer addition

Bacterial cultures can be injected to augment natural aquifer populations

The process requires monitoring of the treatment zone to determine:

- 1) Is the organic carbon distribution is meeting design objectives?
- 2) Have the microbial populations developed as expected?
- 3) Have the expected contaminant reductions been achieved?

















Figure 5-5 Concentration patterns in the chlorinated ethene dechlorination sequence that are typically observed when DNAPL source mass is dissolved or desorbed during enhanced reductive dechlorination.











A summary of today's course is found on this slide. The important points to take away are:

•ISB is a viable remediation technology for source zones. It can be a stand-alone remedy or combined with another technology.

•The technology accelerates mass removal.

•That degradation begins within a few months of implementation.

•The technology treats multiple compounds at the same time.

•ISB is an efficient and cost effective technology.



As you will see on this slide, there are seven other DNAPL-based documents (plus a resource guide) in addition to the document we discussed today (as seen in yellow). We encourage you to visit the ITRC website and download those documents that will assist you in implementing ISB.

The top block (in blue) refers to a new team forming this year to address combining technologies when remediating DNAPL source zones. It is anticipated that the team will produce a Tech-Reg document in 2010.



Links to additional resources: http://www.clu-in.org/conf/itrc/bioDNAPL/resource.cfm

Your feedback is important – please fill out the form at: http://www.clu-in.org/conf/itrc/bioDNAPL/feedback.cfm

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