

**SORPTION KINETICS OF  
HYDROPHOBIC ORGANIC COMPOUNDS  
ONTO ORGANIC MODIFIED SURFACES**

by  
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## ABSTRACT

The sorption of five chlorinated benzenes and sixteen other organic solutes was investigated by determining the extent of sorption and the sorption rates in a series of 40 batch and 139 column experiments using surface-modified silica of known chemical composition. These surfaces were used to represent important functional groups in soil, and consisted of porous silica with patchy surface coatings of aliphatic chains ( $C_1$ ,  $C_8$ , and  $C_{18}$ ), and other substituent groups (phenyl, amine, alcoholic, and carboxylic). Three possible rate-limiting steps were examined: diffusion through immobile pore fluid, diffusion through bound organic matter, and the chemical binding and release rate.

First-order desorption rate coefficients were observed to be  $10^{-1}$  to  $10^{-2}$   $s^{-1}$  on unbonded, and  $C_8$ ,  $C_{18}$ , amine, and alcoholic modified surfaces, and  $10^{-3}$  to  $10^{-5}$   $s^{-1}$  on  $C_1$  and phenyl-polymer modified surfaces. Diffusion through immobile pore fluid had only a minor effect on the sorption rate, as evidenced by similar rates on organic-bound porous and solid particles. The diffusion rate through the bound organic layer is not rate limiting due to the small organic layer thickness. The observed slow desorption on the phenyl-polymer surface is consistent with the rate limiting step being the chemical binding and release rate. The changes in the rate with temperature and within a series of chlorinated benzenes support this conclusion.

The free energies for sorption onto the phenyl-polymer surface ranged from  $-4.0$   $kcal\ mol^{-1}$  for chlorobenzene to  $-6.9$   $kcal\ mol^{-1}$  for pentachlorobenzene, which are within the range expected for van der Waals interactions. The observed sorption energies are slightly stronger than predicted for hydrophobic surfaces, possibly reflecting strong binding due to multiple pi-pi electron interactions on the phenyl-polymer surface. Hydrophobic solute partitioning onto natural soils, as observed by others, is less than that observed on aliphatic and phenyl hydrophobic surfaces in this study, but greater than on amine or alcoholic modified surfaces. The sorption of di-, tri-, and tetra-chlorobenzenes onto the phenyl-polymer surface is apparently driven by the overall sorption enthalpy ( $\Delta H^\circ = -3.9$  to  $-4.9$   $kcal\ mol^{-1}$ ) and to a lesser extent by the entropy ( $T\Delta S^\circ = 0.5$  to  $1.5$   $kcal\ mol^{-1}$ ). As equilibrium of the reactions observed in this study are reached within hours, these reactions are important at small field scales where residence times are hundreds of hours or less.

## CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

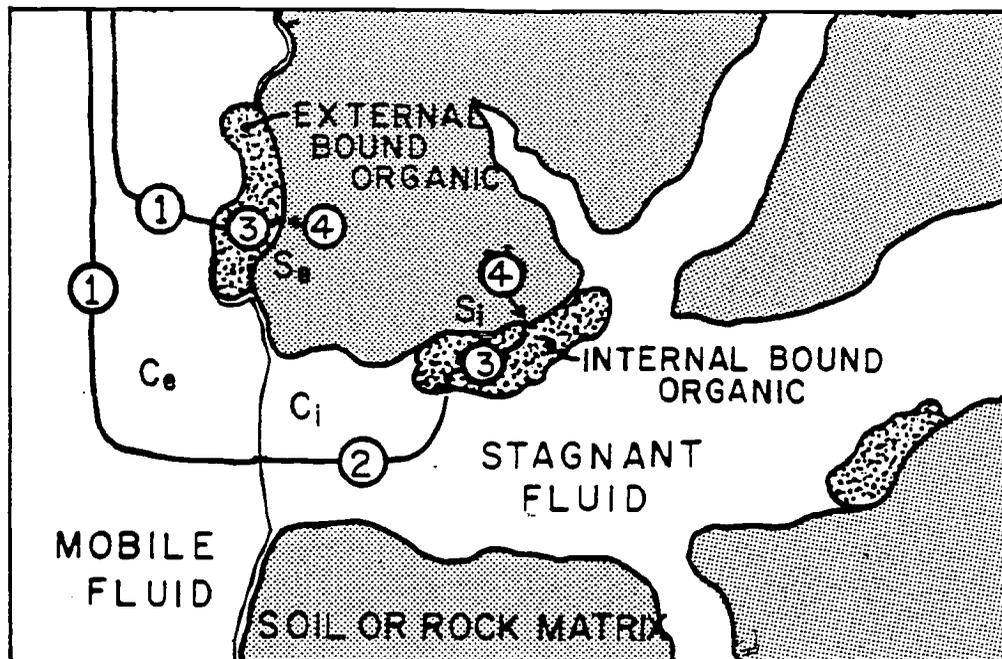
In industrial nations, the mass of synthetically produced organic material is within an order of magnitude of that synthesized by nature [Stumm *et al.*, 1983]. An understanding of the processes and interactions of organic solutes with the environment is important in order to control their spread in soil and in ground water systems. In many cases, by assuming that sorption of organic solutes onto surfaces is at equilibrium, their movement is overpredicted [Valocchi, 1985]. A more accurate description of the sorption process that includes kinetics can be used for better prediction of solute movement. The processes that cause slow sorption are examined in this research using model soils and laboratory scale transport systems.

### 1.1 Importance of Nonequilibrium Sorption

Nonequilibrium sorption and desorption in subsurface media arises when physical and chemical processes at the single pore level are slow relative to advection in the bulk media. Sorption and desorption in a porous media involves the physical and chemical rearrangement steps illustrated in Figure 1.1. In principle, any of these steps could limit the rate of the overall sorption process. In practice, bulk transport and boundary layer diffusion are generally not rate limiting in ground water media, as the distances and flow velocities involved are small.

Diffusion resistance inside a porous aggregate particle can be significant where pore sizes are small and aggregate sizes are large. Diffusion of molecules through organic material in subsurface media will be retarded relative to that in water due to the non-liquid nature of organic phases. The sorption binding step can be rate limited due to steric inhibition in reaching a binding site [Jinno *et al.*, 1985] or to a high activation energy.

Models used to predict transport of solutes that assume equilibrium sorption [Lapidus and Amundson, 1952] can predict movement in most cases in large scale aquifers, where flow rates are slow. In cases of some degree of nonequilibrium sorption, equilibrium models can still be used, where the slow sorption/desorption process produces greater apparent dispersion [VanGenuchten, 1985]. In cases of considerable



1. Advection and Dispersion in Mobile Fluid
- Slow Rate Steps:
2. Diffusion through Immobile Pore Fluid
  3. Diffusion through the Bound Organic Layer
  4. Binding and Release

*Figure 1.1 Conceptual model of microscale transport and sorption*

nonequilibrium sorption, advection-dispersion models that assume equilibrium sorption cannot adequately describe the behavior.

The importance of nonequilibrium behavior for understanding and modeling contaminant transport has been illustrated for solute movement near pumping wells [Valocchi, 1986], in field soil experiments [Leenheer and Ahlrichs, 1971; MacKay et al., 1986; Parker and VanGenuchten, 1984], in laboratory soil columns [VanGenuchten and Cleary, 1982; Schwarzenbach and Westall, 1981; Whitehead, 1987], and in laboratory batch studies [Wu and Gschwend, 1986; Karickhoff and Morris, 1985; Coates and Elzerman, 1986].

## 1.2 Observations

### 1.2.1 Sorption

The predominance of natural organic matter in controlling the sorption of hydrophobic solutes in soil has been extensively documented [Karickhoff, 1984]. Partitioning of solutes between the sorbed phase ( $S$  in  $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ ) and the aqueous phase ( $C$  in  $\mu\text{g cm}^{-3}$ ) at low concentrations in many cases can be described by:

$$S = K_p C \quad (1)$$

where  $K_p$  is the partition coefficient between soil and water ( $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$  per  $\mu\text{g cm}^{-3}$ ). In the carbon referenced sorption model:

$$K_p = f_{oc} K_{oc} \quad (2)$$

where  $f_{oc}$  is the fraction carbon by weight, and  $K_{oc}$  is the partition coefficient between water and a hypothetical soil that is 100 percent organic carbon ( $\text{cm}^3 \text{g}^{-1}$ ).  $K_{oc}$  values depend on solute properties, and not soil properties, reflecting nonspecific sorption of hydrophobic solutes to soil organic matter. Carbon referenced sorption is applicable to hydrophobic solutes at concentrations less than half their solubility [Karickhoff, 1984], where the number of sorbed sites is much smaller than the total number of sites, so the interaction energy can be considered to be the same at all sites. Deviations from this

linear relationship are caused by: 1) multiple sorption mechanisms (e.g. sorption onto mineral surfaces); and 2) non-equilibrium behavior (e.g. kinetic limitations on sorption). For many compounds,  $K_{oc}$  is related to the octanol-water partition coefficient ( $K_{ow}$ ) with a linear free energy relation:

$$\log K_{oc} = \alpha \log K_{ow} + \beta \quad (3)$$

where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are empirical constants.

Retention of chlorinated benzenes onto natural soils was examined by *Schwarzenbach and Westall [1981]*, *Wu and Gschwend [1986]*, *Karickhoff et al., [1979]*, *Karickhoff [1984]*, *Klein [1986]*, and *Oliver [1985]*; data are shown in Table 1.1. The partition coefficients reflect differences in  $f_{oc}$  in different soils; however, the  $K_{oc}$  values reflect a linear trend of increasing sorption with molecular weight. Sorption from aqueous systems involves both a solvent effect energy [*Frank and Evans, 1945*], and the solute/surface interaction energy [*Sposito, 1984*]. The solvent effect includes a decrease in water structure upon solute removal from solution (positive entropy), and an increase in hydrogen bonding between water molecules (negative enthalpy). The interaction energy includes both the solute/surface reaction enthalpy and the negative entropy of moving the solute molecule from a liquid to a sorbed state. As the series of chlorinated benzenes in Table 1.1 have similar interaction energies with a surface, the increase in  $K_{oc}$  with molecular weight reflects mainly the solvent effect energy as a result of the increased hydrophobic surface area.

A slow approach to equilibrium has been observed in some cases, and is reported as the first-order desorption rate coefficient ( $k_b$ ). Rates were on the order of  $10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$  for di-, tri- and tetra-chlorobenzenes [*Wu and Gschwend, 1986*], and  $10^{-6}$  to  $10^{-7} \text{ s}^{-1}$  for penta- and hexa-chlorobenzenes [*Karickhoff, 1984*]. Desorption rate coefficients on the order of  $10^{-6}$  to  $10^{-7} \text{ s}^{-1}$  were observed for desorption of three polychlorinated biphenyls from river sediments [*Coates and Elzerman, 1986*]. These reported rates mean that the time to reach equilibrium took up to four weeks, which was observed in some of the

Table 1.1 Sorption of chlorinated benzenes onto soil

Compound	Solute		Sorbent		$K_p$	$K_{oc}^*$	$k_b$ (s <sup>-1</sup> )	Reference
	$C_o$ ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	Name	$f_{oc}$					
Benzene	2000	GR	---	---	---	83.	---	9
CB	20	KSI	0.0073	1.2	1.2	164.	---	1
	20	KBIH	0.0008	0.4	0.4	500.	---	1
						Ave $K_{oc}$ : 322 $\pm$ 237		
1,4-DCB	20	KSI	0.0073	4.4	4.4	603	---	1
	20	KBIH	0.0008	1.1	1.1	1380	---	1
	4.4	CR	0.170	87.0	87.0	512	$1.2 \times 10^{-2}$	2
	1200	2V2 DB	0.0010	1.40	1.40	1500	---	3
	1200	102 SG	0.0010	3.33	3.33	3300	---	3
	1200	---	0.0009	0.42	0.42	477	---	3
		---	0.011	3.05	3.05	277	---	4
		---	0.012	0.51	0.51	280	---	5
	980	---	0.039	18.4	18.4	472	$8 \times 10^{-7}$	6
						Ave $K_{oc}$ : 609 $\pm$ 451		
1,2,4-TCB	20	KSI	0.0073	14.5	14.5	1990	---	1
	20	KBIH	0.0008	2.5	2.5	3125	---	1
	13.7	CR	0.170	265	265	1560	$5.8 \times 10^{-3}$	2
						Ave $K_{oc}$ : 2220 $\pm$ 809		
1,2,3,4-TECB	3.2	CR	0.170	1220	1220	7180	$1.6 \times 10^{-3}$	2
		IS	0.065	58	58	892	---	2
		NR	0.088	418	418	4750	---	2
						Ave $K_{oc}$ : 4270 $\pm$ 3170		
1,2,4,5-TECB	40	KSI	0.0073	37.9	37.9	5192	---	1
		KBIH	0.0008	6.2	6.2	7750	---	1
						Ave $K_{oc}$ : 6470 $\pm$ 1810		
PCB	2.3	CR	0.170	4690	4690	27600	$5.8 \times 10^{-4}$	2
	1.6	IS	0.065	239	239	3680	---	2
	0.4	NR	0.088	1560	1560	17700	---	2
	3.5	13	---	7100	7100	---	$1.0 - 3.5 \times 10^{-6}$	7,8
						Ave $K_{oc}$ : 16300 $\pm$ 12000		
HCB	2.5	13	---	2800	2800	---	$0.3 - 13 \times 10^{-6}$	7,8

$$*K_{oc} = K_p / f_{oc}$$

<sup>1</sup>Schwarzenbach and Westall, 1981.

<sup>2</sup>Wu and Gschwend, 1986.

<sup>3</sup>Keefer, 1986.

<sup>4</sup>Chiol et al., 1983.

<sup>5</sup>Southern and Hower, 1986.

<sup>6</sup>Oliver, 1985.

<sup>7</sup>Karickhoff, 1984.

<sup>8</sup>Karickhoff and Morris, 1985.

<sup>9</sup>Karickhoff, 1979.

laboratory experiments [Karickhoff, 1980].

The causes of the slow sorption of chlorinated benzenes on natural sediments were reported as diffusion through immobile pore fluid [Wu and Gschwend, 1986] and a series chemical reaction [Karickhoff, 1984]. In another study, the sorption of chlorinated phenols appeared to be controlled by the rate of penetration into the natural organic matter [Isaacson and Frink, 1984]. Earlier, sorption of carbaryl and parathion onto soil was reported to be limited by the rate of chemical binding and release [Leenheer and Ahlrichs, 1971].

The carbon-referenced-sorption model is observed to apply down to an  $f_{oc}$  value of 0.001. Below this value, sorption onto mineral surfaces is thought to be important. At low  $f_{oc}$  values, sorption can still be approximated from solute properties, as is illustrated for twelve chlorinated benzenes [Schwarzenbach and Westall, 1981]:

$$\log K_p = 0.4 \log K_{ow} + 0.29 \quad (4)$$

where less sorption onto mineral surfaces is observed compared to soils that contain organic matter. The lack of dependence on mineral surface properties may indicate that sorption of hydrophobic solutes is caused primarily by the solvent effect.

A weak dependence on the surface area of the soil, due to binding interactions, is observed with the sorption of 25 hydrophobic organic solutes to organic-free silica:

$$\log K_p = 0.16 \log K_{ow} + \log \frac{S_a}{200} \quad (5)$$

where  $S_a$  is the mineral surface area ( $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$ ) [McCarty *et al.*, 1981].

Data for the sorption of chlorinated benzenes onto mineral surfaces are shown in Table 1.2, where the partition coefficient is expressed per unit surface area. As with soils containing organic matter, sorption onto mineral surfaces increases linearly with solute molecular weight (or hydrophobic surface area), reflecting the solvent effect. Some difference in sorption is observed between silica and alumina, and sorption onto kaolinite is greater than either silica or alumina. This indicates that the binding

**Table 1.2 Sorption of chlorinated benzenes onto mineral surfaces**

Solute	Sorbent	$S_a$ ( $m^2 g^{-1}$ )	$K_p$ ( $cm^3 g^{-1}$ )	$K_p$ ( $cm^3/100 m^2$ )	Reference
Chlorobenzene	Kaolinite	12	0.6	5.0	1
	$\delta$ - $Al_2O_3$	120	0.6	0.5	1
	$SiO_2$	300	4.2	0.84	1
1,4-DCB	Kaolinite	12	1.1	9.2	1
	$\delta$ - $Al_2O_3$	120	0.9	0.75	1
	$SiO_2$	500	6.0	1.2	1
1,2-DCB	Sand ( $SiO_2$ )	---	$7.63 \pm 0.36$	---	2
1,2,4-TCB	Kaolinite	12	2.4	20.0	1
	$\delta$ - $Al_2O_3$	120	1.5	1.25	1
	$SiO_2$	500	7.6	1.52	1
1,2,4,5-TECB	Kaolinite	12	4.9	41.0	1
	$\delta$ - $Al_2O_3$	120	2.2	1.8	1
	$SiO_2$	500	12.1	2.42	1

<sup>1</sup>Schwarzenbach and Westall, 1981.

<sup>2</sup>MacKay et al., 1986.

interaction energy cannot be completely ignored.

Slow sorption onto mineral surfaces was observed with trichloroethylene on clay [Rogers, 1980] and dichlorobenzene on sand [Ball and Roberts, 1985], where the slow approach to equilibrium is caused by immobile pore volume diffusion. Internal diffusion also caused slow exchange of  $\text{Sr}^{+2}$  for  $\text{Ca}^{+2}$  in 5-10 mm sand particles [Jackman and Ng, 1986]. No chemically caused slow sorption of hydrophobic solutes to mineral surfaces were reported in the literature.

### 1.2.2 Transport

A slow approach to sorption equilibrium for organic solutes can be significant in short-residence-time systems, such as aquifer cleanup sites or near pumping wells. In systems with longer residence times (i.e., slower velocities or longer distances), such as regional systems, an equilibrium description is usually adequate. In cases where non-equilibrium sorption is modeled with an equilibrium description, the lack of understanding of molecular level interactions will result in less accurate predictions, since sorption parameters ( $K_p$ ,  $D$ ) obtained at one velocity will not be the same at a different velocity.

Several different nonequilibrium models have been developed over the last few decades. A physical nonequilibrium model considering diffusion into immobile pore volume (no sorption) was developed [Coates and Smith, 1964], then modified to include sorption [VanGenuchten and Wierenga, 1976]. Other physical nonequilibrium models of diffusion into aggregate particles account for different aggregate geometries [VanGenuchten, 1985], or series diffusion processes [Miller et al., 1987].

Chemical nonequilibrium has been modeled as a first-order reversible reaction [Leenheer and Ahlrichs, 1971; VanGenuchten, 1974]. In many cases, more involved sorption reactions can be approximated with the first-order model. A model describing equilibrium sorption in parallel with first-order kinetic sorption [Cameron and Klute, 1977] provides one more parameter and can describe more involved sorption, as can series reactions [Karickhoff, 1984]. A model describing equilibrium sorption in parallel with different slow reactions [Bahr and Rubin, 1987] has also been formulated.

A model with three slow steps has been formulated [Akratanakul *et al.*, 1983], but experimental determination of parameters is not feasible. In principle, physical and chemical measurements within individual pores are needed to determine parameters [Davidson *et al.*, 1981]. The ability to formulate and numerically solve complex simulation models exceeds our ability to verify these models using the limited experimental data base presently available [Rao *et al.*, 1982]. Experimentally, most cases that are described with more involved models can also be described with a simpler first-order model. This indicates that better experimental techniques are needed to obtain data that can distinguish cases of more involved slow sorption phenomena.

Even with the simple first-order sorption model, obtaining reliable sorption rates is difficult, as evidenced by the lack of rate data in the literature [VanGenuchten and Cleary, 1982]. A single experiment may not be conclusive to determine even the rate parameter, much less the sorption mechanism. Experiments run at certain velocities produce more accurate rate data [Chu and Langer, 1985; Larsson *et al.*, 1982]. This technique is refined in this research for multiple experiments at different velocities.

Experimental methods are needed to distinguish slow sorption mechanisms. In one study, it was concluded that a physical or chemical slow sorption model could fit the data equally well [Rao *et al.*, 1979]. This is to be expected since both models reduce to the same mathematical solution.

### **1.3 Purpose and Objectives**

The purpose of this research is to develop an understanding of the sorption mechanism (equilibrium sense) of hydrophobic solutes in natural systems. The rates of sorption and desorption are controlled by one of three possible rate limiting steps (Figure 1.1): diffusion through immobile fluid, diffusion through organic matter, or chemical binding and release.

This is accomplished through a laboratory study of sorption onto model surfaces, which contain major functional groups found in natural soil. Use of model surfaces enables control of the solute-sorbent interactions and sorbent geometry. Experiments

with these model sorbents are designed to affect only one rate step at a time in order to determine the cause of slow sorption.

Diffusion through immobile pore fluid is examined with porous silica aggregates with internal porosity. Differences in particle diameter and internal pore size are used to change diffusion times. Diffusion through a bound organic layer is examined by changing the thickness or density of the organic matter, and by examination of the size and shape of the solute and sorbent molecules. The binding/release step is examined through the use of different bound functional groups, different solutes, and thermodynamics. Changes in the extent and rate of sorption with different compounds or at different temperatures are used to quantify the sorption energy and rate limiting step.

Model sorbents used in the experiments are made from silica and alumina. Silica has a negative surface charge, chemically resembling 2:1 clay surfaces. The silica is modified by covalently bonding organic compounds to the surface. Bound organic compounds include hydrophobic organic matter, and common functional groups found in soil. Sorption mechanisms on these modified surfaces are known in some cases [Antle *et al.*, 1985]. Sorption mechanisms and rates may be applicable to natural systems, since sorbents used are portions of natural soil organic matter.

**CHAPTER 2**  
**BACKGROUND - SOLUTE SORPTION AND TRANSPORT**

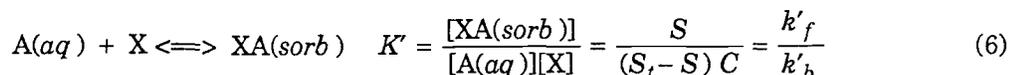
Organic solute transport and sorption are illustrated in Figure 1.1, where sorption is defined by three steps, any of which could be rate limiting. The chemical sorption processes and energies are discussed in Section 2.1, and the mathematical description of transport and sorption are discussed in Section 2.2.

**2.1 Solute Sorption**

The partitioning of an organic solute between water and a surface phase involves energy changes associated with cavity formation in the water (Figure 2.1) and the energy of interaction between the solute molecule and the surface phase [Horvath *et al.*, 1976]. The total energy in bringing the solute molecule from the gas reference state to the surface phase [Sinanoglu, 1968] is similar to that shown in Figure 2.1, but with additional attractions to the surface. Sorption energy can be defined as the net energy gain in moving a solute molecule from solution to a surface [Horvath and Melander, 1977]. The net effect of the energy changes at the molecular scale is solute removal from solution. At a larger scale, sorption appears relatively simple and can be modeled with simple interactions.

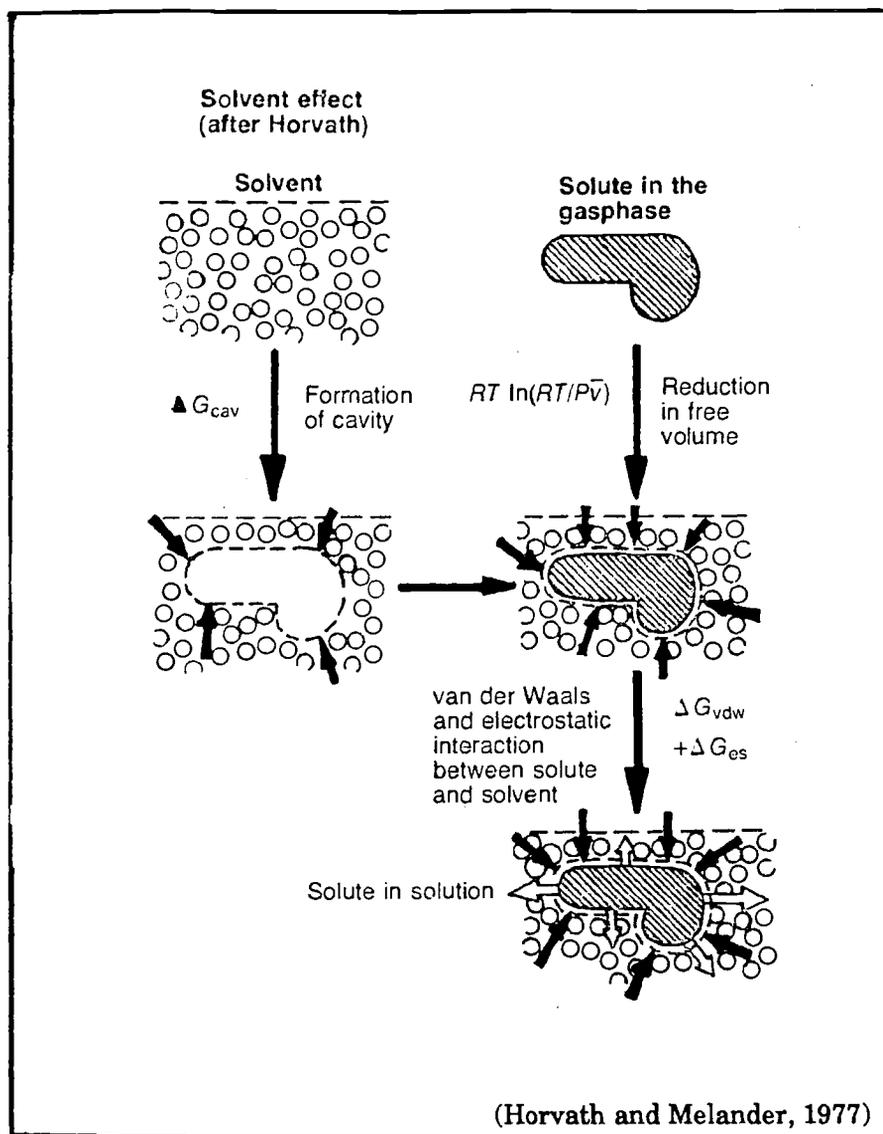
**2.1.1. Modeling Sorption**

For simple single-site sorption of solute molecules, the sorption reaction can be described with:



where X represents a surface site; C is the solute concentration in solution ( $\mu\text{g cm}^{-3}$ ),  $S_t$  is the total number of surface sites (maximum adsorption density;  $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ ), S is the sorbed concentration ( $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ ), and the forward and reverse rate constants are  $k'_f$  ( $\text{cm}^3 \mu\text{g}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) and  $k'_b$  ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ). Rearranging equation (6) to the form of a Langmuir isotherm gives:

$$\frac{S}{S_t} = \frac{K'C}{(1 + K'C)} \quad (7)$$



**Figure 2.1 Energy of a solute molecule in solution**

For organic solutes of limited solubility, the maximum adsorption density is not reached ( $K'C \ll 1$ ), and equation (7) becomes a linear isotherm (equation 1). The Freundlich isotherm, which is empirically derived, is also used to describe nonlinear sorption:

$$S = K_p C^N \quad (8)$$

where  $N$  less than 1 can approximate a Langmuir isotherm over a small range. This form has advantages over the Langmuir isotherm for transport modeling (Section 2.2.7).

In this research, the total concentration of surface sites is much larger than the sorbed concentration. For example, if a DCB molecule sorbs to a single aromatic group on a phenyl-modified surface, then the number of occupied sites can be estimated. Assuming an  $f_{oc}$  of 1 percent on the surface, and one bonded benzene ring (6 carbons) per sorption site, the total number of sites is calculated at  $1.9 \times 10^{19}$  sites  $\text{cm}^{-3}$ . Dichlorobenzene at a concentration of 500 ppb (equivalent to  $2.0 \times 10^{-12}$  molecules  $\text{g}^{-1}$  in liquid) has an equilibrium partition coefficient ( $K_p = 60 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ) equivalent to  $1.2 \times 10^{14}$  molecules  $\text{g}^{-1}$  sorbed. This corresponds to 1 site in 100,000 occupied for concentrations used in column experiments. At the solubility limit of DCB ( $89 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ), the number of occupied sites is  $2.1 \times 10^{16} \text{ g}^{-1}$  or 1 site in 1000.

For  $S_t - S$  approximately equal to  $S_t$ , equation (6) simplifies to:

$$K' S_t = K_p = \frac{[XA(\text{sorb})]}{[A(\text{aq})]} = \frac{\rho_b k_f}{\theta k_b} \quad (9)$$

where  $K_p$  is the partition coefficient, and the forward and reverse rate coefficients are  $k_f$  and  $k_b$  ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ), respectively. The thermodynamic  $K$  describes the partitioning between a pure organic phase ( $\mu\text{g} / \text{cm}_{om}^3$ ) and water ( $\mu\text{g} / \text{cm}_{aq}^3$ ), and is related to  $K_p$  by:

$$K = \frac{S f_c M_{om} [\mu\text{g} / \text{cm}_{om}^3]}{C f_{oc} V_{om} [\mu\text{g} / \text{cm}_{aq}^3]} = \frac{f_c M_{om} K_p}{f_{oc} V_{om}} \quad (10)$$

where  $f_c$  is the fraction carbon in the organic portion of the silane (Table 3.2),  $M_{om}$  is the molecular weight of the organic portion of the bound silane,  $f_{oc}$  is the mass fraction

of carbon based on total particle mass (Table 3.1), and  $V_{om}$  is the molar volume of the organic fraction (Table 3.2). The chromatographic capacity factor is equal to the partition coefficient ( $K_p$ ) times the soil-to-water ratio ( $\rho_b/\theta$ ). The thermodynamic  $K$  is related to total sorption energy ( $\Delta G^\circ$ ):

$$\Delta G^\circ = - RT \ln K \quad (11)$$

where  $R$  is the gas constant, and  $T$  is absolute temperature ( $^\circ K$ ).

Equation (9) can also be used to describe more involved reactions, if the pseudo-first-order reaction rates can adequately approximate the reaction. The first-order rate coefficients ( $k_f$  and  $k_b$ ) can be used to calculate the time at which the reaction is half completed:

$$t_{1/2} = \frac{\ln 2}{k_b} \quad (12)$$

for comparison with the time scale of other processes.

Sorption reversibility is assumed in applying the above equations to this research, as it is in gas and liquid chromatographic systems [Giddings, 1965]. Hysteresis in isotherms [VanGenuchten and Cleary, 1979] can be due to a greater energy required for desorption as compared to sorption. This has been modeled as two components of sorption, a reversible fraction and an irreversible fraction [Di Toro and Horzempa, 1982].

### 2.1.2 Calculated Sorption Energies

The total energy of sorption from aqueous solution can be estimated with different empirical relationships. These include physically based relationships [Yalkowsky, 1979], the molecular connectivity model [Kier and Hall, 1976], and the solvophobic model [Horvath and Melander, 1978], among others.

The solubility and thus the partition coefficient of a hydrophobic solute is related to the molecule's total surface area. For the chlorinated benzenes used in this research, the molecular surface area increases almost linearly (Table 3.4) from chlorobenzene to

hexachlorobenzene. A relationship between the total molecular surface area and the solubility ( $\text{mol L}^{-1}$ ) for 26 halobenzenes at  $25^\circ\text{C}$  is [Yalkowsky *et al.*, 1979]:

$$S_w = -0.0103 T_m - 0.04225 S_a + 3.2970 \quad (13)$$

where  $T_m$  is the melting point ( $^\circ\text{K}$ ), and  $S_a$  is the surface area ( $\text{cm}^3 \text{mol}^{-1}$ ). Hansch [1969] first proposed a log-linear relationship between solubility and octanol-water partitioning ( $K_{ow}$ ), and measured this relationship for many series of compounds over eight orders of magnitude of  $K_{ow}$ . Hansch [1969] also proposed that additional fragments and functional groups have an additive effect on  $K_{ow}$ . Yalkowsky, Valvani, and MacKay [1983] presented a log-linear relationship between solubility ( $\text{mol L}^{-1}$ ) and  $K_{ow}$  for 162 aromatic compounds (including chlorinated benzenes) at  $25^\circ\text{C}$ :

$$\log S_w = -0.944 \log K_{ow} - 0.01 T_m + 0.323 \quad (r^2=0.96) \quad (14)$$

Another relationship applicable to halogenated benzenes involves the measured super-cooled liquid solubilities ( $S^*$  in  $\text{mol L}^{-1}$ ) of the solute and  $K_{ow}$  [Chiou *et al.*, 1982] at  $25^\circ\text{C}$ :

$$\log K_{ow} = -0.862 \log S^* + 0.710 \quad (r = 0.994, n = 36) \quad (15)$$

Partitioning between octanol and water ( $K_{ow}$ ) can then be related to the water-organic partition coefficient ( $K_{oc}$ ), using equation (3):

$$\log K_{oc} = \alpha \log K_{ow} + \beta \quad (3)$$

For polycyclics  $\alpha$  is 1.00 and  $\beta$  is -0.21 [Karickhoff *et al.*, 1979], for 13 halo/methyl benzenes,  $\alpha$  is 0.72 and  $\beta$  is 0.49 [Schwarzenbach and Westall, 1981], and for many low molecular weight hydrophobic compounds,  $\alpha$  is 0.72 and  $\beta$  is 0.54 (compiled data from others) [Schwarzenbach, 1983].

The earliest use of this relationship was for estimation of hydrophobic bonding in biological systems [Hansch, 1968]. If organic surfaces are liquid-like, then partitioning may be similar to partitioning to octanol. Bound aliphatic chains shorter than four

methyl groups are relatively immobile, and partitioning is similar to solid surfaces [Hunnicuttt *et al.*, 1986]. Longer aliphatic chains resemble liquids with respect to sorption. Partitioning to more complex biological systems also may not be as simple as octanol-water partitioning [Miller *et al.*, 1985]. The relationship between  $K_{ow}$  and  $K_{oc}$  does not apply at low  $K_{ow}$ 's where binding mechanisms other than van der Waals are present [Karickhoff, 1984].

The total sorption energy was calculated from measured solubilities (column 3 in Table 2.1; equations 3, 11, and 14) and from measured octanol-water partition coefficients (column 4; equations 3 and 11). The calculated energies with these two methods were similar, where energies increased with increased molecular weight.

The molecular connectivity theory uses index values that are based on electron and orbital counts [Kier and Hall, 1976; 1986]. Correlations between these structural parameters and a wide range of physicochemical parameters and activity parameters (such as sorption) are numerous. A relationship between solubility and the  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  molecular connectivity indices [Kier and Hall, 1986] for 35 halobenzenes is:

$$-\log S_w = 0.890 X_1 + 0.627 X_2 + 0.00979 T_m - 2.004 \quad (16)$$

where  $T_m$  is the solute melting point and the indices are listed in Table 2.2. The total sorption energy was calculated from the molecular connectivity indices (column 2; equations 3, 11, 14, and 16). A difference in sorption energy for isomers is predicted with this method, but not for those calculated from measured values of  $K_{ow}$ , possibly reflecting less sensitivity in the  $K_{ow}$  technique. Values calculated from the molecular connectivity indices are larger for tetra-, penta-, and hexa-chlorobenzenes, compared to the energies calculated from solubility or  $K_{ow}$  data.

The solvophobic model was not used to estimate sorption energy. However, in an attempt to separate the energy due to solvent interactions from the sorbent/surface interaction energy, a simple model was assumed (Dr. S. Yalkowsky, Pharmaceutical Sciences, University of Arizona). Water, solute, and surface molecules are assumed to be

**Table 2.1** Calculated sorption energies

Compound	$\Delta G^A$ from $X_1$ and $X_2$ (kcal/mole)	$\Delta G^B$ from $S_w$ (kcal/mole)	$\Delta G^C$ from $K_{ow}$ (kcal/mole)
Benzene	-2.74	-2.76	-2.77
CB	-3.25	-3.43	-3.49
1,2-DCB	-3.93	---	-4.17
1,3-DCB	-3.60	---	-4.17
1,4-DCB	-4.49	-4.21	-4.17
1,3,5-TCB	-5.03	---	-4.89
1,2,4-TCB	-4.94	-4.88	-4.89
1,2,3-TCB	-5.41	---	-4.89
1,2,3,5-TeCB	-5.90	---	-5.57
1,2,4,5-TeCB	-6.88	-5.60	-5.57
1,2,3,4-TeCB	-6.11	---	-5.57
PCB	-7.21	-6.31	-6.29
HCB	-9.60	---	-7.00

<sup>A</sup>from calculated indices, and equations 17, 19, and 21).

<sup>B</sup>From measured solubilities (Table 3.4) and equations 19 and 21.

<sup>C</sup>From measured  $K_{ow}$  and equation 21.

**Table 2.2 Molecular connectivity indices for chlorinated benzenes**

Compound	$X_1$	$X_2$
Benzene	3.00	1.500
CB	3.394	1.894
1,2-DCB	3.805	2.540
1,3-DCB	3.788	2.199
1,4-DCB	3.788	2.305
1,3,5-TCB	4.182	2.414
1,2,4-TCB	4.198	2.860
1,2,3-TCB	4.215	3.114
1,2,3,5-TeCB	4.609	3.343
1,2,4,5-TeCB	4.609	3.430
1,2,3,4-TeCB	4.626	3.702
PCB	5.037	4.197
HCB	5.464	4.976

(Sabljic, 1985)

the same size, and there is one interaction between each. The net energy in moving a hydrophobic solute molecule from a gas reference state into aqueous solution is equal to the gain of a water/solute interaction and the loss of a water/water interaction. The net energy in moving a hydrophobic solute molecule from a gas reference state to a surface site is equal to the gain of a solute/surface interaction, the gain of a water/water interaction (since a water molecule was displaced from the surface), and the loss of a water/surface interaction. Sorption energy is then defined as the net energy gain of a solute molecule moving from solution to a surface site [McGuire and Suffet, 1979].

For this approximation, four interactions were considered: water/water (dipole/dipole), water/solute (dipole/induced dipole), water/organic surface (dipole/induced dipole), and solute/organic surface (induced dipole/induced dipole). The dipole/dipole interaction between water molecules is strong and equal to 5.0 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> [Porterfield, 1984]. Dipole/induced dipole interactions are approximated with:

$$\Delta G_{di} = \frac{-1.44 \times 10^{13} \mu_1 \alpha_2}{r^6} \quad (17)$$

where  $r$  is the radius between molecules ( $3 \times 10^{-8}$  cm),  $\mu_1$  is the dipole moment of water ( $1.7 \times 10^{-18}$  esu) [CRC, 1982], and  $\alpha_2$  is the polarizability of the solute or surface-bound molecule ( $1 \times 10^{-24}$  cm<sup>3</sup>). Polarizability ( $\alpha_2$ ) can vary in the range of 0.2 -  $1.0 \times 10^{-24}$  cm<sup>3</sup> for ions to large molecules. The units of  $\Delta G_{di}$  are kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>, where the constant includes a unit conversion.

The solute/surface interaction is calculated by assuming an induced dipole/induced dipole interaction with [Porterfield, 1984]:

$$\Delta G_{ii} = \frac{-1.44 \times 10^{13} \mu_1 \mu_2}{r^3} \quad (18)$$

where  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$  are dipole moments. The dipole moment of 1,4-dichlorobenzene is  $0.2 \times 10^{-18}$  esu, chlorobenzene is  $1.6 \times 10^{-18}$  esu (Table 3.4), and the dipole moment of the surface is assumed to be  $1.8 \times 10^{-18}$  esu. If the sorption interaction is a dipole/dipole

interaction, then the energy is calculated with:

$$\Delta G_{dd} = \frac{-3I' \alpha^2}{4r^6} \quad (19)$$

where  $I'$  is the ionization potential of the solute molecule ( $461 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ ) [*Porterfield, 1984*].

The calculated energy for a solute molecule sorbing onto a surface is the gain of a solute/surface interaction ( $0.19$  to  $1.5 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ , equation 19), the gain of a water/water interaction ( $5 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ ), and the loss of a water/surface interaction ( $0.14 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ , equation 17). This net energy on the surface is  $-5.1$  to  $-6.4 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ , where the range arises due to the value of dipole moment used for the surface (assuming a dipole/induced dipole interaction). Assuming a dipole/dipole interaction for the solute/surface energy, then the calculated solute/surface interaction energy is  $0.47 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ , and the net energy is  $-5.5 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ . The solvent effect alone is the energy of placing a molecule in solution, which is equal to the loss of a water/water interaction ( $5 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ ), and the gain of a water/solute interaction ( $0.14 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ ; equation 17).

The net sorption energy is equal to the energy on the surface ( $-5.1$  to  $-6.4 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ ) minus the energy in solution ( $4.9 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ ), totaling  $-9.9$  to  $-11.2 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ . This shows that the solvent effect accounts for 40 to 50 percent of the net sorption energy. For the sorption of azobenzene [*Halicioglu and Sinanoglu, 1969*], the solvent effect accounts for one-fourth of the total sorption energy; for 1,4-dioxane, the solvent effect accounts for half the sorption energy [*McGuire and Suffet, 1979*]. Although the calculated energies are not accurate, this does provide an idea of the relative contributions of the solvent effect versus the interaction energy on the sorption from aqueous solution.

### 2.1.3 Temperature, Pressure, and Surface Tension effects on $K_p$

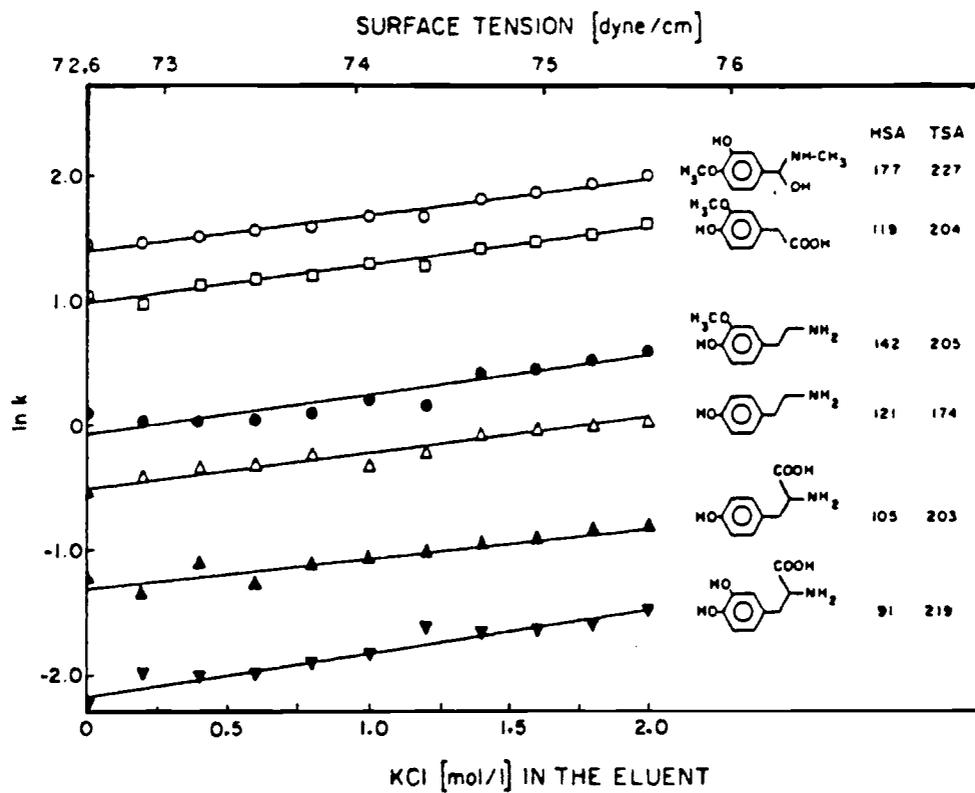
The effect of temperature on sorption is described by the van't Hoff equation [Stumm and Morgan, 1981]:

$$\ln K = -\frac{\Delta H^\circ}{RT} + \frac{\Delta S^\circ}{R} \quad (20)$$

where  $\Delta H^\circ$  is the reaction enthalpy ( $\text{kcal mol}^{-1}$ ),  $\Delta S^\circ$  is the entropy of the overall sorption reaction ( $\text{kcal mol}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$ ), and  $R$  is the gas constant. A plot of  $1/T$  versus  $\ln K$  yields a slope of  $-\Delta H^\circ/R$  and an intercept of  $\Delta S^\circ/R$  [Melander *et al.*, 1978]. In order to calculate enthalpy and entropy, experiments are run at different temperatures. A non-linear plot could indicate a change in binding mechanism at different temperature. This was the case in one study [Yang *et al.*, 1987], where more H-bonding and less van der Waals bonding is indicated at higher temperature.

Pressures for the column experiments in this research varied from less than 100 psi to over 4500 psi, which has an effect on the sorption energy. Assuming that the molar volume does not change over the pressure range, then the log of  $K_p$  increases with pressure [Stumm and Morgan, 1981]. This increase in  $\Delta G^\circ$  or (or  $K$ ) with pressure has been confirmed experimentally [Toyohide and Ishii, 1982] for retention of aromatic compounds in aqueous solution sorbing to organic bound surfaces.

The change in sorption energy with ionic strength is expected since at higher ionic strength, there is an increase in surface tension, which increases the energy associated with the solvent effect. This increase in surface tension is about 3 percent for a 0.1 M solution of KCl, which is the highest concentration used in this research. Increasing the ionic strength then log-arithmetically increases retention [Horvath and Melander, 1977], shown with aromatic acids in Figure 2.2. This effect should be small for the small (< 3 percent) change in surface tension in this research. There is an exponential decrease in sorption upon the addition of a miscible cosolvent (such as methanol) to aqueous solution [Horvath and Melander, 1977; Nkedi-Kizza *et al.*, 1987] due to the decrease in surface tension. The presence of an organic cosolvent such as methanol also



(Horvath and Melander, 1977)

Figure 2.2 ionic strength effect on sorption

appears to increase the sorption rate [Nkedi-Kizza *et al.*, 1987].

Chromatography literature indicates no change in sorption with the presence of other solutes [Snyder and Kirkland, 1979]. Since the actual sorbent is heterogeneous, the most reactive and exposed sites are most likely involved in interactions, so there is some competition for sites. Competitive adsorption has been studied [Weber, 1984] and has been described when a solute with a stronger retention mechanism displaces a less strongly held solute. The breakthrough curve of a less strongly retained solute exhibits a peak that can exceed input concentration, as it is displaced by the more strongly retained solute [Weber *et al.*, 1987; Boast, 1973]. Alternatively, sorption of a less strongly held solute in a system where a stronger solute is sorbed may show increased retention, provided there is no competition for sites and the first solute is attracted to the second solute. An S-type isotherm implies that successive sorbate molecules cooperate strongly in sorption of further sorbate sorption [Isaacson and Frink, 1984].

#### **2.1.4 Sorption on Model Surfaces**

In chromatography systems, hydrophobic interactions are more easily understood since some of the system complexity is reduced. Retention of hydrophobic compounds onto organic modified surfaces is in the following order (strongest first with a higher  $K_{oc}$ ):  $C_{18} > C_8 > \text{phenyl} > C_1 > \text{CN}$  [Antle *et al.*, 1985], where the aliphatic chain length is defined by the number of carbon atoms. The optimum van der Waals binding distance between methyl groups is 0.357 nm [Bondi, 1964].

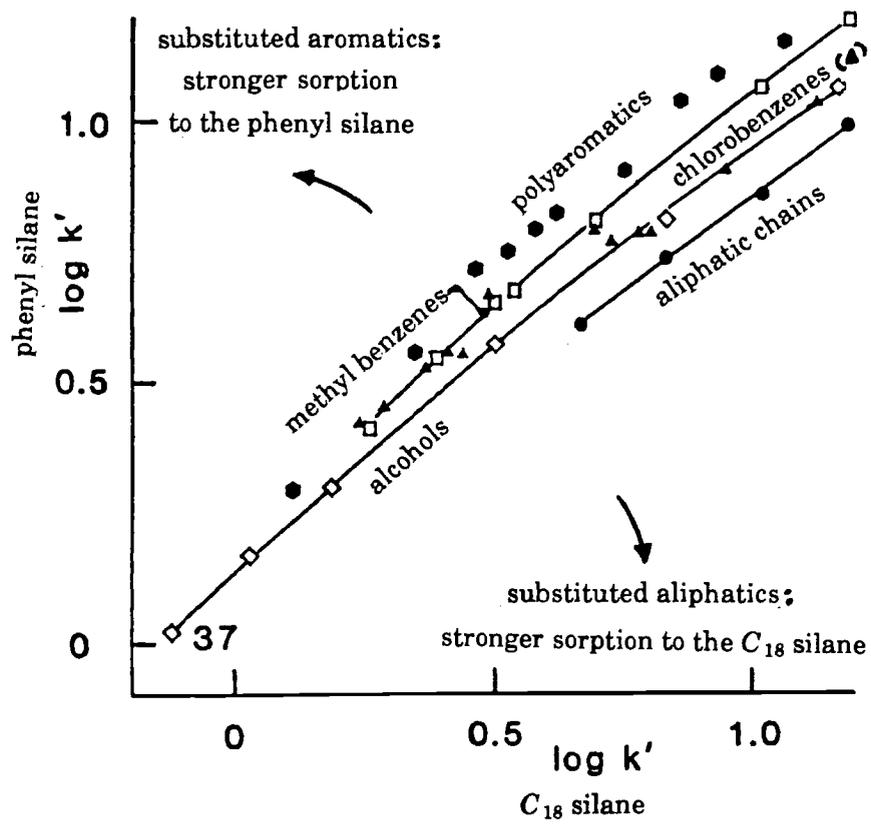
Retention onto aliphatic chains depends on the number of electrons involved in the interaction, so longer chains have greater solute retention due to more van der Waals interactions, compared to shorter chains [Hanai *et al.*, 1984]. Solutes with polar or ionic groups that H-bond with water are retained less. The binding strength of solutes on  $C_{18}$ -modified silica are in the following order (strongest first): aliphatic hydrocarbons, induced dipoles ( $\text{CCl}_4$ ), dipoles ( $\text{CHCl}_3$ ), weak Lewis bases (ethers, aldehydes, ketones), strong Lewis bases (amines), weak Lewis acids (alcohols, phenols), and strong Lewis acids (carboxylic acids) [Macherey-Nagel, 1987].

Retention of substituted benzenes onto a phenyl-modified surface is caused by the solvent effect and pi-electron to pi-electron van der Waals interactions [Thus *et al.*, 1985; Hanai *et al.*, 1984; Jinno *et al.*, 1985]. The pi-electron attraction between aromatic groups are stronger than normal van der Waals attractions, as shown in Figure 2.3, where increased retention of aromatic compounds (compared to aliphatic compounds) on an aromatic (phenyl) surface is illustrated. Substituted aromatic solutes exhibit strong binding regardless of the functional groups, indicating that the interaction is with the pi-electrons in the benzene rings. Steric effects often account for breakdown in calculated sorption activity, especially in large molecular structures [Tomlinson, 1975].

This increased sorption energy between aromatic groups is on the order of: 1.2 times for chlorinated benzenes, 1.3 times for alkyl benzenes, and 1.5 times for polyaromatics. With the Hückel Molecular Orbital Theory [Streuli and Orloff, 1971], pi electron interaction energies are calculated at about 2 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> for benzene and chlorobenzene. Values are also experimentally reported varying from 1.7 to 2.2 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> for benzene, CB, DCB, and TCB [Hanai and Hubert, 1984]. The optimum binding distance between the aromatic solute and the aromatic sorbent is 0.32 nm [Bondi, 1964].

The observed sorption energies for chlorinated benzenes onto model sorbents are shown in Table 2.3. Sorption data on C<sub>1</sub>-modified surfaces are from gas chromatography experiments, so does not include the solvent effect energy. Sorption in liquid systems onto the C<sub>18</sub> or phenyl monomer surfaces are reported only in mixed liquids (water and acetonitrile), so  $K_{oc}$  values are normalized to 100 percent water, for comparison. Partitioning between octanol/water and fish fat/water are presented [Opperhulzen *et al.*, 1988] with the reported values of entropy and enthalpy.

Fish fat to water partitioning differs from octanol/water partitioning (Table 2.3), with positive enthalpy values. Enthalpy for six aromatic acids sorbing to a C<sub>18</sub> surface [Horvath *et al.*, 1978] were negative, and about -3 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>, with the total sorption energy of 7 to 9 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>. Partitioning to fish fat is an entropy driven process (Table



(Hanai and Hubert, 1984)

Figure 2.3 Selective retention on aromatic and aliphatic surfaces

Table 2.3 Sorption of chlorinated benzenes onto organic sorbents

Compound	Sorbent		Solvent State	$K_p$	Retention				$\Delta G$ (Kcal/m)	$\Delta H$ (Kcal/m)	TAS (Kcal/m)	Ref
	Type	$f_{oc}$			$Rf^2$	$K'$	$K_{oc}$	$K_{oc,n}^3$				
Benzene	$C_1$	—	Gas	—	667	—	—	—	—	—	4	
	$C_{1a}$	0.195	Liq <sup>1</sup>	—	—	1.661	4.864	331.6	-3.44	—	5	
	$\emptyset Mono$	0.0791	Liq <sup>1</sup>	—	—	0.750	5.415	369.1	-3.50	—	5	
CB	$C_{1a}$	0.195	Liq <sup>1</sup>	—	—	2.318	6.788	462.7	-3.63	—	5	
	$\emptyset Mono$	0.0729	Liq <sup>1</sup>	—	—	0.888	6.412	437.1	-3.60	—	5	
1,2-DCB	$C_1$	—	Gas	—	1006	—	—	—	—	—	4	
	$C_{1a}$	0.195	Liq <sup>1</sup>	—	—	3.180	9.312	634.8	-3.82	—	5	
	$\emptyset Mono$	0.0791	Liq <sup>1</sup>	—	—	1.038	7.495	510.9	-3.69	—	5	
1,3-DCB	$C_1$	—	Gas	—	964	—	—	—	—	—	4	
	$C_{1a}$	0.195	Liq <sup>1</sup>	—	—	3.791	11.10	756.6	-3.92	—	5	
	$\emptyset Mono$	0.0791	Liq <sup>1</sup>	—	—	1.069	7.718	526.1	-3.71	—	5	
	Fish	—	H <sub>2</sub> O	—	—	—	—	—	-6.29	1.43	7.70	6
1,4-DCB	Octanol	—	H <sub>2</sub> O	3.55	—	—	—	—	-5.98	-3.59	2.39	6
	$C_1$	—	Gas	—	970	—	—	—	—	—	4	
	$C_{1a}$	0.195	Liq <sup>1</sup>	—	—	3.471	10.16	692.6	—	—	5	
	$\emptyset Mono$	0.0791	Liq <sup>1</sup>	—	—	1.069	7.718	526.1	—	—	5	
1,2,3-TCB	$C_1$	—	N <sub>2</sub>	—	1211	—	—	—	—	—	4	
1,2,4-TCB	$C_1$	—	N <sub>2</sub>	—	1177	—	—	—	—	—	4	
	$C_{1a}$	0.195	Liq <sup>1</sup>	—	—	5.440	15.93	1086.	—	—	5	
	$\emptyset Mono$	0.0791	Liq <sup>1</sup>	—	—	1.264	9.126	622.1	—	—	5	
1,3,5-TCB	$C_1$	—	N <sub>2</sub>	—	1131	—	—	—	—	—	4	
	$C_{1a}$	0.195	Liq <sup>1</sup>	—	—	7.016	20.54	1400.	—	—	5	
	$\emptyset Mono$	0.0791	Liq <sup>1</sup>	—	—	1.306	9.430	642.8	—	—	5	
	Fish	—	H <sub>2</sub> O	—	—	—	—	—	-7.06	2.51	9.56	6
	Octanol	—	H <sub>2</sub> O	4.32	—	—	—	—	-7.05	-5.19	1.84	6
1,2,3,4-TeCB	$C_1$	—	Gas	—	1366	—	—	—	—	—	4	
	$C_{1a}$	0.195	Liq <sup>1</sup>	—	—	7.627	28.04	1502.	—	—	5	
	$\emptyset Mono$	0.0791	Liq <sup>1</sup>	—	—	1.503	10.87	741.0	—	—	5	
	Fish	—	H <sub>2</sub> O	—	—	—	—	—	-7.58	3.23	10.8	6
	Octanol	—	H <sub>2</sub> O	4.61	—	—	—	—	-7.41	-6.29	1.12	6
1,2,3,5-TeCB	$C_1$	—	Gas	—	1326	—	—	—	—	—	4	
	$C_{1a}$	0.195	Liq <sup>1</sup>	—	—	9.150	26.79	1826.	—	—	5	
	$\emptyset Mono$	0.0791	Liq <sup>1</sup>	—	—	1.532	11.06	783.9	—	—	5	
1,2,4,5-TeCB	$C_1$	—	N <sub>2</sub>	—	1326	—	—	—	—	—	4	
	$C_{1a}$	0.195	Liq <sup>1</sup>	—	—	8.708	25.50	1738.	—	—	5	
	$\emptyset Mono$	0.0791	Liq <sup>1</sup>	—	—	1.820	10.97	747.8	—	—	5	
PCB	$C_1$	—	N <sub>2</sub>	—	1496	—	—	—	—	—	4	
	$C_{1a}$	0.195	Liq <sup>1</sup>	—	—	12.88	37.72	2571.	—	—	5	
	$\emptyset Mono$	0.0791	Liq <sup>1</sup>	—	—	1.851	13.36	910.7	—	—	5	
	Fish	—	H <sub>2</sub> O	—	—	—	—	—	-8.17	3.82	12.0	6
	Octanol	—	H <sub>2</sub> O	—	—	—	—	—	-8.03	-7.56	0.67	6
HCB	$C_1$	—	Gas	—	1656	—	—	—	—	—	4	
	$C_{1a}$	0.195	Liq <sup>1</sup>	—	—	19.40	56.84	3876.	—	—	5	
	$\emptyset Mono$	0.0791	Liq <sup>1</sup>	—	—	2.318	16.74	1141.	—	—	5	
	Fish	—	H <sub>2</sub> O	—	—	—	—	—	-8.75	4.28	13.0	6

<sup>1</sup>liquid solution; 30% water and 70% acetonitrile<sup>2</sup>retention index<sup>3</sup> $K_{oc,n}$  normalized to 1,4-DCB data from natural soil ( $K_{oc} \times 609.3/8.939 = K_{oc,n}$ )<sup>4</sup>Sabljic, 1985<sup>5</sup>Hanai and Hubert, 1984<sup>6</sup>Opperhulzen et al., 1988

2.3), since the enthalpy values are positive, whereas partitioning to octanol (from water) is driven both by the positive entropy and the negative enthalpy. For the series of chlorinated benzenes, the total sorption energies on fish fat (Table 2.3) are slightly smaller than the calculated sorption energies on organic carbon (Table 2.1).

### **2.1.5 Sorption Mechanisms in Natural Soil**

Interactions with natural soil are more diverse than with model systems, since the combined mineral and organic surface is heterogeneous. The mineral surface may include silica, alumina, and carbonates coated with iron and magnesium oxides [Spósito, 1984]. Soil organic matter appears to coat mineral surfaces in a thin layer, since in one case, the surface area was 50 percent coated with organic compounds even with a small  $f_{oc}$  (2 percent) [Thurman, 1985].

Natural organic matter has a heterogeneous structure, with portions that are hydrophobic (aliphatic chains and benzene rings), and portions with hydrophilic functional groups. In one study, terrestrial fulvic acid had 3 to 4 aromatic rings for every 60 carbon atoms [Thurman, 1985]. Marine organic matter has a greater fraction of aliphatic chains versus aromatic groups. The amounts of functional groups vary; one sample of terrestrial fulvic acid contained 9.1 meq g<sup>-1</sup> of carboxylic groups, 3.6 meq g<sup>-1</sup> of alcoholic groups, 3.3 meq g<sup>-1</sup> of phenolic groups, and 3.1 meq g<sup>-1</sup> of ketone groups [Matsuda and Schnitzer, 1971]. Minor functional groups include enolic hydrogen, quinone, ether, aldehyde, ester, lactone, and amide [Thurman, 1985]. Natural organic matter is generally sorbed to mineral surfaces through hydrogen bonds [Karickhoff, 1980], oriented with a higher percentage of carboxylic and ionic groups in contact with water, minimizing hydrophobic surface area [Matsuda et al., 1971].

Organic solutes are attracted to natural or model surfaces with the interactions summarized in Table 2.4. The total energy for sorption from aqueous solution results in part from solvent effects, along with the surface interactions. The overall process of removal from aqueous solution and binding to a surface is referred to as sorption when the mechanism(s) are unknown or complex. This ranges from adsorption, involving

*Table 2.4 Sorption mechanisms*

<i>Functional Group</i>	<i>Binding Mechanism</i>
Amines, ring NH, heterocyclic N	Cation exchange
Amines, heterocyclic N, carbonyl, carboxylate	Protonation
Carboxylate	Anion exchange
Amino, carboxylate, carbonyl, alcoholic OH	Water bridging
Carboxylate, amines, carbonyl, alcoholic OH	Cation bridging
carboxylate	Ligand exchange
Amines, carbonyl, carboxyl, phenyl hydroxyl	Hydrogen bonding
Uncharged, nonpolar organic functional groups	van der Waals Interactions

(Sposito, 1985)

chemical bonds for more strongly held solutes, to physical adsorption for hydrophobic solutes. The solvent effect is altered with some hydrophobic solutes (containing aliphatic chains) that fold over themselves, resulting in a more compact structure with greater water solubility [Tomlinson, 1975].

The sorption of highly ionizable organic compounds decreases with higher bound organic content [Zierath *et al.*, 1980] reflecting the decrease in available mineral surface. Sorption of ionic groups onto a hydrophobic surface change as a function of pH. As the pH decreases lower than the  $pK_a$ , acidic groups become neutrally charged and hydrophobic sorption increases, whereas the sorption of basic groups increases at high pH. In some cases, hydrophobic and ionic components of sorption can be combined in a single partition coefficient [Karickhoff, 1984], with  $K_{oc}$  and  $K_{ionic}$  fractions. Sorption of pesticides may involve more than one type of interaction, but comparison between sorption and total clay, mineralogy, cation exchange capacity, or surface area [Hassett *et al.*, 1980; Kahn *et al.*, 1979] shows an insignificant correlation. Sorption mechanisms can change as a function of pH. For example, a decrease in pH caused a significant increase in aromatic amine sorption [Means *et al.*, 1987] due to the ionic form having a higher binding energy. Adsorption of benzidine (4,4-diamino biphenyl) is significantly greater at pH greater than 5.3, above both the  $pK_a$ 's of the surface and the solute (both ionized), indicating H-bonding [Zierath *et al.*, 1980]. However, the sorption of naphthol on natural organic matter was mainly due to hydrophobic interactions and not H-bonding of the OH group [Hassett, 1981].

Interactions of noncovalent organic solutes include coulombic attraction of oppositely charged ionized groups, hydrogen bonding between suitable donors and acceptors and hydrophobic interactions of nonpolar groups [Horvath and Melander, 1978]. Dipole interactions arise from a slight permanent dipole [Blevins, 1982]. Dipoles arise from a significant difference in electronegativity (but not large enough to ionize). Induced dipole interactions arise from synchronous orbits of electrons causing instantaneous dipoles [Fressenden *et al.*, 1982]; this energy is about  $2 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$  [Blevins, 1982].

Hydrogen bonding is an especially strong dipole interaction between H bonded to N, O, or F, with an energy of 5-10 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> [Fressenden *et al.*, 1982]. Interactions with solutes with many functional groups are largely unexplained. Adsorption of phthalates was mainly through the phenolic groups for short alkyl chains, but for longer alkyl chains hydrophobic interactions were more significant [Matsuda and Schnitzer, 1971]. The pesticide DDT binds to humic material by unknown mechanism(s) where pH, calcium concentration, and ionic strength affect binding [Carter *et al.*, 1982].

## 2.2 Solute Transport

### 2.2.1 General Sorption Model

Transport and sorption in a porous media at the grain scale involves the physical and chemical rearrangement steps illustrated in Figure 1.1. Any of steps 2 through 4 could cause the observed slow approach to equilibrium. Other researchers have considered up to four rate steps (film diffusion, intraparticle diffusion, physical adsorption, and chemical adsorption) [Rubin, 1983].

Diffusion through immobile pore fluid has been reported to cause rate-limited sorption [Rao *et al.*, 1979; Wu and Gschwend, 1986], as has diffusion through a bound organic layer [Isaacson and Frink, 1984]. The chemical binding and release rate has also been reported to cause slow sorption [Leenheer and Ahlrichs, 1971].

In a one-dimensional transport situation, three rate limiting steps in a series can be replaced by a single rate (analogous to series resistors), which gives rise to considering the overall process as one single rate. If one step is significantly slower than the other steps, then this is a valid assumption. The governing equation for one-dimensional solute transport in a porous media with both mobile and immobile regions and sorption in both regions is [van Genuchten *et al.*, 1974]:

$$\theta_e \frac{\partial C_e}{\partial t} + \theta_i \frac{\partial C_i}{\partial t} + f \rho_b \frac{\partial S_e}{\partial t} + (1-f) \rho_b \frac{\partial S_i}{\partial t} = \theta_e D \frac{\partial^2 C_e}{\partial Z^2} - v \theta_e \frac{\partial C_e}{\partial Z} \quad (21)$$

where  $C_e$  and  $C_i$  are the solute concentrations ( $\mu\text{g cm}^{-3}$ ) in the mobile and immobile regions, respectively;  $S_e$  and  $S_i$  are the respective bound concentrations ( $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ );  $\theta_e$  and  $\theta_i$  are the volume fractions of the immobile and immobile liquid regions,  $\rho_b$  is the dry bulk density ( $\text{g cm}^{-3}$ ) of the porous media,  $f$  is the fraction of sorbent in the mobile region,  $D$  is the longitudinal hydrodynamic dispersion coefficient ( $\text{cm}^2\text{s}^{-1}$ ), and  $v$  is the average interstitial velocity ( $\text{cm s}^{-1}$ ).

Diffusion through the immobile region is approximated by slow mass transfer between mobile and immobile water. The solute concentration in the two regions can be related by:

$$\theta_i \frac{\partial C_i}{\partial t} + \rho_b (1-f) \frac{\partial S_i}{\partial t} = \alpha_e (C_e - C_i) \quad (22)$$

where  $\alpha_e$  is the mass transfer coefficient ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ), which is dependent on the solute molecule size (changes the molecular diffusion coefficient) and the geometry of the immobile region (which alters the diffusion distance and tortuosity) [Coates and Smith, 1964]. This can also be formulated with diffusion coefficients for planar diffusion, rectangular diffusion, spherical diffusion, and cylindrical diffusion [van Genuchten, 1985].

Diffusion through a bound organic layer is approximated by:

$$\rho_b \frac{\partial S_i}{\partial t} = \alpha_i (K_p C_i - S_i) \quad (23)$$

where  $\alpha_i$  is the mass transfer coefficient through the bound organic layer. For this process to be the rate limiting step, the organic layer must be thick enough compared to the solute molecule so that movement through it could be approximated by a diffusion process rather than considering individual molecular forces at each point.

For kinetically limited sorption and desorption, assuming a first-order reversible reaction, and a linear isotherm (equation 1), the governing equation is:

$$\rho_b \frac{\partial S_i}{\partial t} = k_f \theta_i C_i - k_b S_i \quad (24)$$

where  $k_f$  and  $k_b$  are the first-order forward and reverse rate coefficients ( $s^{-1}$ ), respectively.

The lower (exit) boundary condition is:

$$\frac{\partial C_e}{\partial z} (Z = \infty, t) = 0 \quad (25)$$

which states zero concentration gradient in the semi-infinite domain. A finite domain boundary condition ( $z = L$ ) is more difficult to solve and there is no evidence that the solution leads to a better description of the physical process [van Genuchten, 1981].

The initial condition at the upper boundary is a constant flux type and within the column:

$$v C_e - D \frac{\partial C_e}{\partial Z} = \begin{cases} v C_0 & 0 < t < t_1 \\ 0 & t_1 < t \end{cases}, \quad C_e = C_i = 0 \quad (26)$$

where  $t_1$  is the duration of time that a solute with concentration  $C_0$  is injected into the column. A constant concentration initial condition, although simpler, can lead to mass balance errors which are significant with high velocities [van Genuchten, 1981].

A general solution to all the above equations for the boundary conditions in a column experiment is not available. In addition, since slow mass transfer rates and reaction rates are analogous to series resistances, a unique set of parameters would be difficult to determine experimentally. Solutions are presented in cases where a single step is rate limiting.

In this research, three cases based on this general sorption model are considered: 1) slow transfer between the mobile and immobile pore fluid regions, 2) slow transfer through the bound organic layer, and 3) first-order chemical kinetics. In addition, several cases of no advective flow with a rate-limiting step are considered.

Making the substitutions for the variables ( $C_e$ ,  $C_i$ ,  $z$ , and  $t$ ,  $K_p$ ,  $D$ ,  $\alpha_e$ , and  $f$ ) listed in Table 2.5, equation (21) reduces to:

$$\beta R_f \frac{\partial C_1}{\partial T} + (1 - \beta) R_f \frac{\partial C_2}{\partial T} = \frac{1}{P} \frac{\partial^2 C_1}{\partial Z^2} - \frac{\partial C_1}{\partial Z} \quad (27)$$

Table 2.5 Nondimensional parameters

Model	$C_1$	$C_2$	$T$	$Z$	$P$	$R_f$	$\omega$	$\beta$
Equilibrium	$\frac{C}{C_o}$	—	$\frac{tv}{L}$	$\frac{x}{L}$	$\frac{vL}{D}$	$1 + \frac{\rho_b K_p}{\theta}$	—	—
First-order								
kinetic	$\frac{C}{C_o}$	$\frac{S}{K_p C_o}$	$\frac{tv}{L}$	$\frac{x}{L}$	$\frac{vL}{D}$	$1 + \frac{\rho_b K_p}{\theta}$	$\frac{k_b \rho_b K_p L}{\theta v}$	$\frac{1}{R}$
Bound-organic								
diffusion	$\frac{C}{C_o}$	$\frac{S}{K_p C_o}$	$\frac{tv}{L}$	$\frac{x}{L}$	$\frac{vL}{D}$	$1 + \frac{\rho_b K_p}{\theta}$	$\frac{\alpha_i \rho_b K_p}{\theta v}$	$\frac{1}{R}$
Immobile-fluid								
diffusion	$\frac{C}{C_o}$	$\frac{C_i}{C_o}$	$\frac{tv \theta_e}{\theta L}$	$\frac{x}{L}$	$\frac{vL}{D}$	$1 + \frac{\rho_b K_p}{\theta}$	$\frac{\alpha_e L}{\theta_e v}$	$\frac{\theta_e + f \rho_b K_p}{\theta + \rho_b K_p}$
Series or Parallel								
Reactions	$\frac{C}{C_o}$	$\frac{C_i}{C_o}$	$\frac{tv}{L}$	$\frac{x}{L}$	$\frac{vL}{D}$	$1 + \frac{\rho_b K_p}{\theta}$	$\frac{k_b K_p L (1 - X_1)}{v \theta}$	$\frac{\theta + X_1 \rho_b K_p}{\theta + \rho_b K_p}$

where the dimensionless model parameters are retardation factor ( $R_f$ ), Peclet number ( $P$ ),  $\omega$  (or Damkohler number  $N_D$ ), and beta ( $\beta$ , the fraction factor). A single rate step (of equations 22-24) can be reduced to a dimensionless form by making the substitutions listed in Table 2.5:

$$(1 - \beta)R_f \frac{\partial C_2}{\partial T} = \omega(C_1 - C_2) \quad (28)$$

Each potential rate limiting mechanism is discussed individually in the following sections. The solution to the above dimensionless equations is available in analytical form where a linear isotherm is assumed (equation 1), or in numerical form where a Freundlich isotherm is assumed (equation 8).

A one-dimensional transport system is used to determine sorption parameters. In this research, all columns are fully saturated with water, and the velocity is held constant throughout the experiment. The average interstitial velocity is determined by the volume eluted over time (equation 62), using porosity experimentally determined from bulk and solids density (equation 63), and confirmed with a conservative tracer breakthrough.

A pore volume is then defined as the column volume times porosity. Unsorbed tracer breakthrough occurs at one pore volume, whereas sorbed tracer breakthrough is lagged since some of the mass is sorbed to the soil. The retardation factor is defined as the number of pore volumes required before the average mass breakthrough occurs. This is expressed as the relative velocity of water to solute, or in terms of the partition coefficient, with:

$$R_f = \frac{v}{v_{solute}} = \frac{\rho_b K_p}{\theta} + 1 \quad (29)$$

where a retardation factor greater than one is due to sorption [*Lapidus and Amundson, 1952*].

### 2.2.2 Batch Sorption Models

Batch experiments represent closed systems, eliminating velocity and the velocity-dependent mechanical dispersion in the general sorption model. In principle, a slow approach to equilibrium can be studied more easily in a batch system, as there are fewer variables. Three batch cases are considered in this research, a first-order reversible reaction, spherical diffusion, and planar diffusion.

The change in the solute concentration in the liquid and in sorbed phases for a first-order reversible reaction (equation 6) in a closed system are described by the following differential equations:

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = k_b S - k_f C \quad \frac{\partial S}{\partial t} = k_f C - k_b S \quad (30)$$

Starting with initial solute concentration ( $C_0$ ) and final concentration ( $C_\infty$ ) in a solution of limited volume, the solution is:

$$\ln \left[ \frac{C - C_\infty}{C_0 - C_\infty} \right] = -(k_f + k_b) t = -\zeta t \quad (31)$$

where  $C$  is the solute concentration at time  $t$  [Stumm and Morgan, 1981]. Plotting the  $\ln$  [normalized concentration] versus time produces a slope ( $\zeta$ ), which is used with equation (9) to determine the forward and reverse rates with:

$$k_f = \frac{\zeta}{[\theta/K_p \rho_b + 1]} \quad k_b = \frac{\zeta}{[\rho_b K_p / \theta + 1]} \quad (32)$$

The resulting sorption and desorption curves are not symmetrical unless the final concentration ( $C / C_0$ ) is 0.5.

A spherical diffusion model is used to quantify the diffusion rate into aggregate particles, which are assumed spherical. The governing equation is Fick's second law in radial coordinates:

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = D \left[ \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial r^2} + \frac{2}{r} \frac{\partial C}{\partial r} \right] \quad (33)$$

which is reduced to a linear partial differential equation and solved with boundary conditions of limited total mass [Crank, 1956; Carslaw and Jaeger, 1959]:

$$\frac{M_t}{M_\infty} = 1 - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{6\alpha(\alpha+1) \exp(-D q_n^2 t / a^2)}{9 + 9\alpha + q_n^2 \alpha^2} \quad (34)$$

$$\text{where: } \alpha = \frac{\theta}{\rho_b K_p}, \quad \frac{M_\infty}{VC_o} = \frac{1}{1+\alpha}, \quad \tan q_n = \frac{3 q_n}{3 + \alpha q_n^2}$$

where the solution is approximated with the first six terms. Note that the solution is similar in form to the chemical reaction (i.e. log concentration versus time, equation 31), but with more terms. The spherical diffusion model [Crank, 1985] is used to estimate the time to reach equilibrium concentration in an aggregate particle (Table 2.6). For 100  $\mu\text{m}$  particles, the equilibration time was about 1 minute; for 500  $\mu\text{m}$  particles, the value increased to about 1 hour, and for 2 mm particles, the value is about 6 to 10 hours. Slower diffusion is possible when the aggregate pore size is on the same scale as the molecule [Larsson *et al.*, 1982], and the molecules cannot exhibit random motion. A numerical solution of spherical diffusion considering a range of diffusivities was developed [Wu and Gschwend, 1986] but leads to a single parameter for fitting.

A planar diffusion model is used to simulate diffusion through the bound organic layer in a batch experiment. The governing differential equation is Fick's second law in rectangular coordinates, and the solution in a vial of limited volume is:

$$\frac{M_t}{M_\infty} = 1 - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2\alpha(1+\alpha) \exp(-Dq_n^2 t / L^2)}{1 + \alpha + \alpha^2 q_n^2} \quad (35)$$

$$\text{where: } \alpha = \frac{\theta}{\rho_b K_p}, \quad \frac{M_\infty}{2AC_o} = \frac{1}{1+\alpha}, \quad \tan q_n = -\alpha q_n$$

This is mathematically very similar to the spherical diffusion model, however, the planar diffusion model produces a steeper slope of time versus concentration during the slow approach to equilibrium sorption.

**Table 2.6 Diffusion times into aggregate particles**

Particle Dia. ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	Time to Concentration at Particle Center (C/Co)							
	0.50		0.90		0.95		0.99	
	KCl (sec)	DCB (sec)	KCl (sec)	DCB (sec)	KCl (sec)	DCB (sec)	KCl (min)	DCB (min)
20	0.011	0.027	0.024	0.058	0.031	0.073	0.048	0.114
100	0.28	0.66	0.61	1.44	0.77	1.82	1.20	2.84
500	2.00	16.6	15.2	36.1	19.2	45.6	30.0	71.0
2000	112.2	265	244	578	308	732	480	1134

Batch experiment results may not be comparable to column results due to several factors: the effect of partitioning into dissolved organic matter, the breakdown of particles moving in batch vials [Wu and Gschwend, 1986], and the pressure in column experiments.

### 2.2.3 Equilibrium Solute Transport Model

#### 2.2.3.1 Description and Parameter Sensitivity

Using the general sorption model formulation (equations 21-24) and making the assumption that all of the rate processes are fast compared to the residence time in the flow system, the overall transport equation reduces to the equilibrium solute transport equation:

$$R_f \frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = \theta D \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial Z^2} - \theta v \frac{\partial C}{\partial Z} \quad (36)$$

Sorption is described by the partition coefficient (equation 29). The equilibrium formulation of sorption is widely used in 2- and 3- dimensional models due to its simplicity [Rao and Jessup, 1982]. Making the nondimensional substitutions listed on Table 2.5 for the equilibrium model, and assuming  $N_D$  is 0 (no rate limitations), this dimensional equation reduces to equation (27) where  $N_D$  is 0, and  $\beta$  is 1.0.

This equilibrium model has two parameters, the partition coefficient ( $K_p$ ) and the dispersion coefficient ( $D$ ). The effect of the parameters on a breakthrough curve is illustrated in Figure 2.4A. The partition coefficient (or retardation factor) affects the time required before solute is eluted from the column (Figure 2.4A). The retardation factor is equal to the average mass breakthrough point, or the area in front of the breakthrough curve. Since concentration changes twice in the course of an experiment (from  $C/C_0 = 0.0$  to 1.0 and back to 0.0), two separate retardation factors (and  $K_p$ 's) can be obtained. For the breakthrough curve where  $R_f$  is 1, the two retardation factors are equal to area A and D in Figure 2.4A.

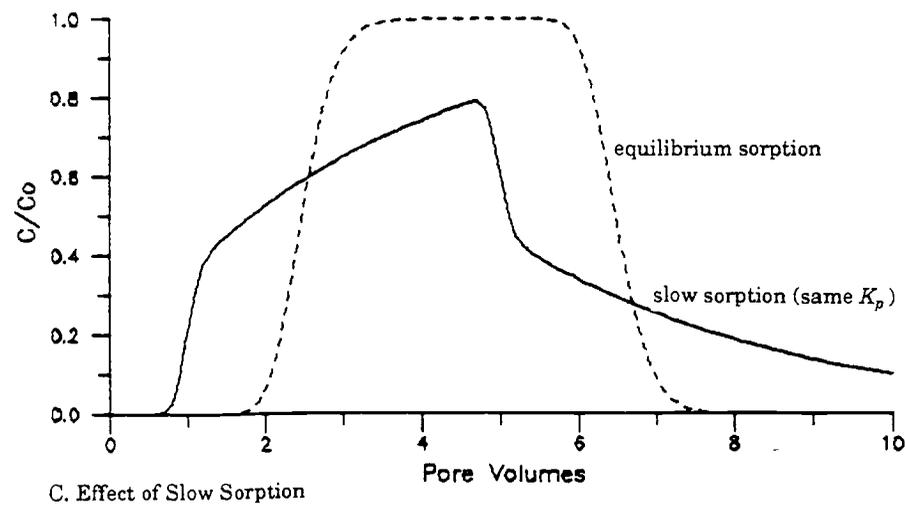
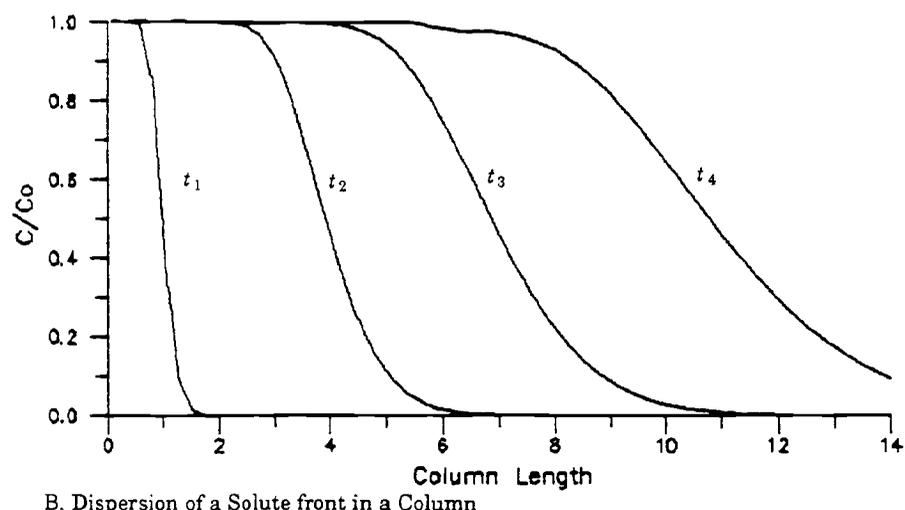
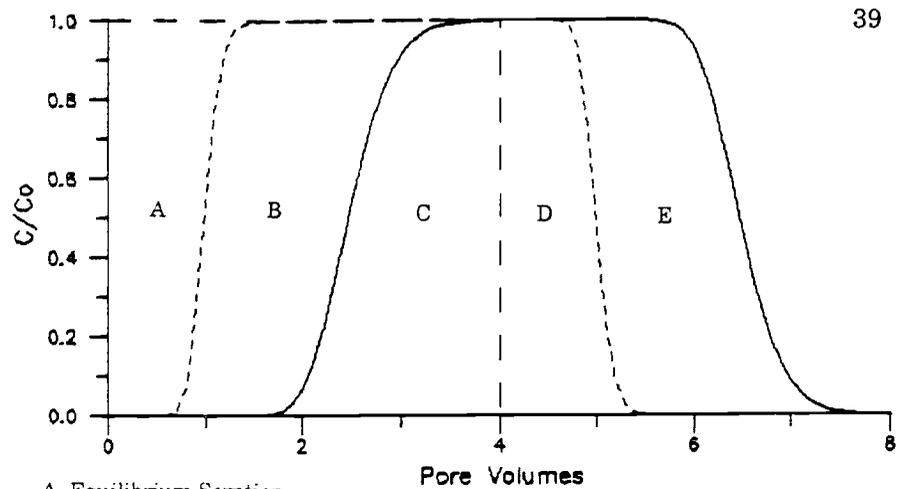


Figure 2.4 Solute breakthrough curves

Dispersion affects the spread of the solute in the column. In the absence of dispersion, breakthrough curves would instantly change concentration from 0 to 1 as governed by the partition coefficient. At any point in time, dispersion symmetrically spreads the sharp solute input (illustrated in Figure 2.4B). Dispersion is a function of time, so at later times, the observed spreading is greater. Therefore, solute elution from a column exhibits slightly asymmetrical breakthrough (Figure 2.4A), since there is more spreading at later elution times. This is analogous to the Doppler effect with sound waves. The slightly asymmetrical breakthrough curve produces a retardation factor that is not exactly equal to solute breakthrough at the 50 percent concentration point ( $C / C_0$ ), but skewed past it. The breakthrough curves also are used to estimate sorption reversibility (or hysteresis) and the overall mass balance of the experiment. The sorption retardation factor (area A + B in Figure 2.4A) and the desorption retardation factor (area D + E) are equal for reversible sorption. The area under the sorption curve (area C + D + E) equals the injection area (A + B + C) when there is no mass loss in the system, including irreversible sorption.

Dispersion is not explicitly estimated in liquid chromatography, but reported in terms of a ratio of dispersion to retention, or plate height. Plate height is defined as the distance over which mobile phase solute and sorbed solute are in equilibrium [Giddings, 1965]:

$$H = \frac{w_{10}}{K'} \quad (37)$$

where dispersion is approximated by the peak width at 10 percent height ( $w_{10}$ ). H is expressed in terms of a length and is about 20-100  $\mu\text{m}$  for 5-10  $\mu\text{m}$  particles, and is longer for larger particles [Macherey-Nagel, 1987]. In hydrologic terms, optimum peak height (minimum spreading) occurs at low velocity where mechanical dispersion is minimized, but not so slow that molecular diffusion becomes significant ( $D / D_0 = 1$ ).

A slow rate process (or nonequilibrium) adds to the observed spreading, as shown in Figure 2.4C where increased spreading is due to incomplete sorption. The retardation factor is still equal to the mass-area in front of the solute breakthrough curve for sorption and desorption [Jacobsen *et al.*, 1984]. The area under the breakthrough curve is still equivalent to the injected mass, demonstrated in Figure 2.5 for eight orders of magnitude of varying amounts of nonequilibrium. The dip in the breakthrough area shown in Figure 2.5 was caused by numerical error in calculating the breakthrough area, and can be eliminated.

The importance of nonequilibrium sorption on solute breakthrough is dependent on the transport time through the column. Assuming a first-order reversible reaction is the rate limiting step, the approximate ratio of residence time of a solute in the column to the reaction half-life is expressed as the Damkohler number [Bahr and Rubin, 1987]:

$$N_D = \frac{(L/v)(\rho_b K_p / \theta)}{1/k_b} \quad (38)$$

where  $(L/v)$  is a conservative tracer residence time,  $(\rho_b K_p / \theta)$  is equal to  $v/v_{solute}$  (or  $R_f - 1$ ; equation 29), so this product is the residence time of a solute, and  $1/k_b$  is approximately the reaction half-life (equation 12). When  $N_D$  is 1.44, the solute residence time is exactly equal to reaction half-life.

### 2.2.3.2 Hydrodynamic Dispersion

Since both hydrodynamic dispersion and a slow rate process produce spreading of a breakthrough curve, in order to obtain an accurate estimate of the sorption rate, the hydrodynamic dispersion must be well defined. Solute molecules transported through a porous system are subject to molecular diffusion in solution and mechanical mixing due to the media geometry. Spreading caused by mechanical dispersion through a porous media can be due to: 1) velocity variation within a pore (zero velocity at walls), 2) tortuosity or difference in true path length, 3) difference in flow in pores of different size, 4) interconnected paths, 5) turbulence, and 6) immobile pore volume diffusion or eddys.

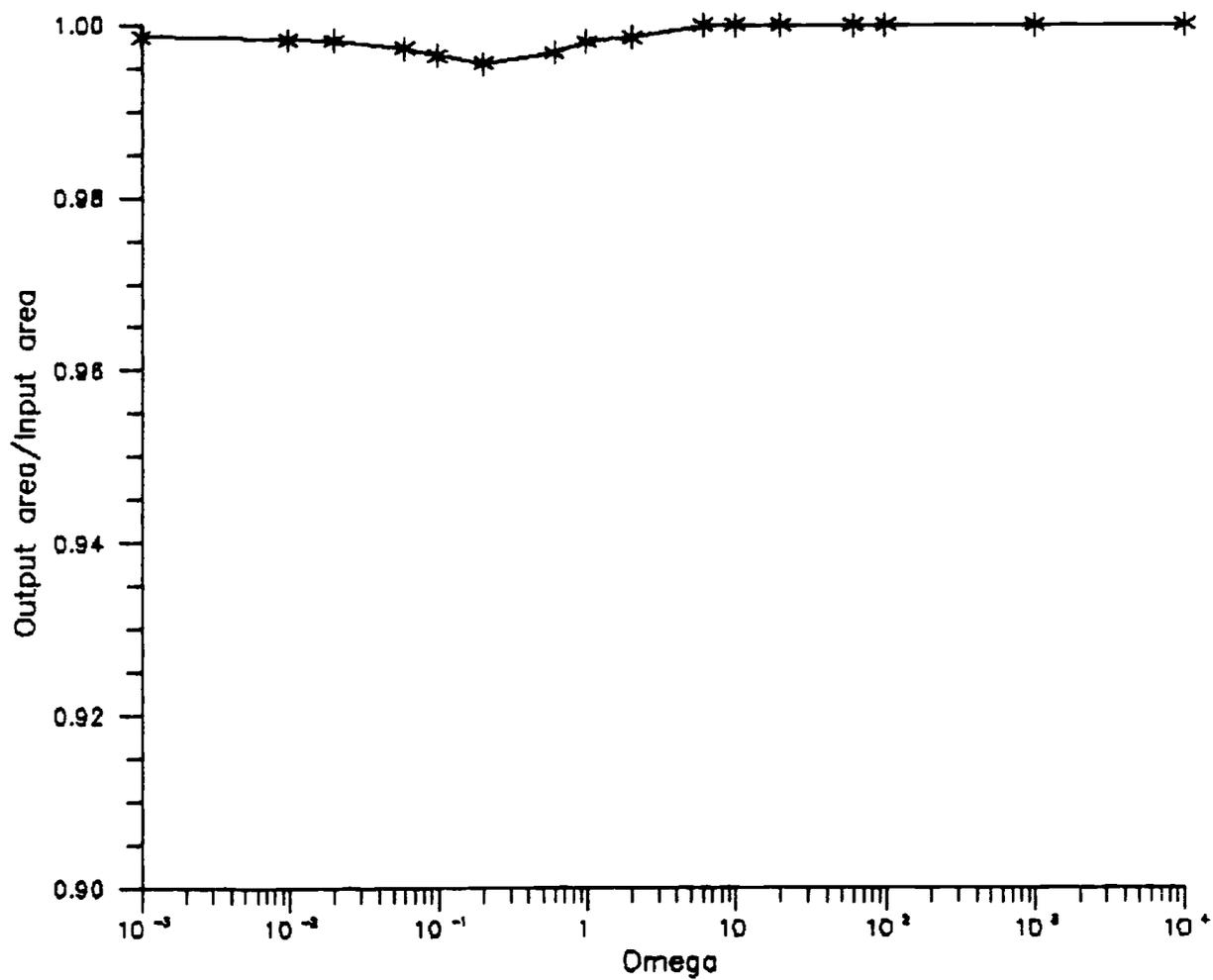


Figure 2.5 Mass balance at different reaction rates

At best, hydrodynamic dispersion is estimated with empirical relationships or by stochastic methods. Hydrodynamic dispersion is normalized with the Brenner number, or the previously defined column Peclet number ( $P=vl/D$ ), where  $l$  is the column length [Rose, 1977]. Molecular diffusion is normalized with the Peclet number ( $P^* = vd/D_o$ ), where  $d$  is the particle diameter.

The stagnant-phase slow mass transfer has been divided up into external film diffusion and internal immobile pore volume diffusion [Snyder and Kirkland, 1979] for modeling purposes. This is analogous to a two resistance diffusion model used in engineering [Weber and Wang, 1987]. Eddy viscosity is defined as turbulent transfer of momentum by eddies, giving rise to internal fluid friction; this is analogous to molecular viscosity in laminar flow, but at a much larger scale. The coefficient is about  $10^{-4}$ , or  $10^5$  times the molecular kinematic viscosity [CRC, 1980]. Diffusion in internal pore volume is modeled with a simple diffusion equation with the modification of tortuosity factor (ratio of diffusion in porous medium/free liquid) which varies between 0.5 and 0.8 [Bear, 1979], and averages 0.66 [Marshall and Homes, 1979].

The turbulence effect on dispersion refers to the nonlaminar flow regime where different relationships exist describing spreading. The Reynolds number [Bird et al., 1960] describes the ratio of internal to viscous forces. When the Reynolds number is small ( $<10$ ) flow is laminar and linear; when the Reynolds number is large ( $10 < Nr < 100$ ) flow is laminar but nonlinear, and above 100, flow is turbulent. The Reynolds numbers for experiments in this research ranged from 0.002 to 0.24, and are thus within the linear, laminar range.

At intermediate velocities, pore-size variation and immobile phase diffusion processes produce the most spreading compared to other processes, whereas at high velocity, immobile phase diffusion is the largest portion of hydrodynamic dispersion [Giddings, 1965], based on empirical estimates of these processes.

Hydrodynamic dispersion increases non-linearly with temperature. Molecular diffusion increases with increasing temperature (equation 39); viscous shear forces and,

consequently slow mass transfer in stagnant fluids then decrease at increased temperature. Other researchers [Wu and Gschwend, 1986] predict an increase in hydrodynamic dispersion with increasing temperature. Dispersion increases with temperature when molecular diffusion is the largest term (low velocity) or in gas transport systems (gas chromatography) [Conder and Young, 1979] where molecular diffusion is five orders of magnitude greater than mechanical dispersion.

### 2.2.3.2.1 Molecular Diffusion

Molecules exhibit random motion as a function of internal energy (related to absolute temperature) and their ability to transfer this energy into motion (related to molecular size). This random motion can be described with a diffusion coefficient as defined by the Stokes-Einstein equation [Bird et al., 1960]. An approximation of the Stokes-Einstein equation for nonspherical molecules in liquid solution can be made with the Wilke-Chang equation:

$$D_o = \frac{5.062 \times 10^{-7} T}{V_a^{0.6}} \quad (39)$$

where  $D_o$  is the molecular diffusion coefficient,  $T$  is temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{K}$ ), and  $V_a$  is the molar volume at normal boiling point. Constants for water are included in equation (39). Molar volumes are estimated by addition of fractions of molecules [Welty et al., 1976]. The accuracy of the Wilke-Chang equation is about 5 percent. This relationship shows that diffusion increases with molecular weight and temperature.

A case where diffusion into spherical particles is incorporated into hydrodynamic dispersion has been analytically solved [van Genuchten, 1985]:

$$D_{total} = \phi D_{mobile} + \frac{(1 - \phi) a^2 v^2 R_{im}^2}{15 D_a [\phi R_m + (1 - \phi) R_{im}^2]} \quad (40)$$

where  $D_{total}$  is the mobile phase hydrodynamic dispersion,  $D_{total}$  is the total spreading observed (in the mobile and immobile pore fluid regions),  $\phi$  = fraction mobile porosity ( $\theta_e/\theta$ ),  $R$  is retardation factor ( $R_f$ ) in the immobile region ( $i$ ) or mobile region ( $e$ ), and

$D_a$  is the diffusion coefficient in the porous particle ( $D_o \tau$ ).

The effect of diffusion in the immobile pore space (equation 40) on hydrodynamic dispersion is shown in Table 2.7A. This illustrates several points; first, dispersion is theoretically different for molecules with a different molecular weight, since the ratio of dispersion coefficients is not equal to 1.0 in all cases (values range from 1.1 to 2.0). Secondly, the additional dispersion is greater with larger particles which require a longer time to reach equilibrium. For example, the  $D_{TeCB}/D_{KCl}$  ratio is 1.01 for 20- $\mu\text{m}$  particles compared to 2.1 for 2-mm particles. Lastly, this effect is greater for solutes with a larger difference in diffusion coefficients, as shown with the  $D_{TeCB}/D_{KCl}$  ratios being larger than the  $D_{DCB}/D_{KCl}$  ratios.

Other aggregate geometries have also been solved analytically [*van Genuchten, 1985*] including rectangular, hollow cylindrical, and solid cylindrical cases. Diffusion in immobile pores assumes a monocontinuum [*Parker and Valocchi, 1986*], ignoring cases when the pore size is as small as the molecule, where a diffusion model fails to explain some observations at the molecular scale [*Davidson et al., 1981*]. In this research, the smallest pores could exclude some solute molecules.

#### 2.2.3.2.2 Mechanical Dispersion

The processes of mechanical dispersion are combined with molecular diffusion to describe hydrodynamic dispersion in its most widely used form in transport models [*Freeze and Cherry, 1979; Bear, 1979*]:

$$D = D_o + D_l v^N \quad (41)$$

where  $D_o$  is the molecular diffusion,  $v$  is the average interstitial velocity, and  $D_l$  is the mechanical dispersion coefficient (or dispersivity), and  $N$  is an exponent generally equal to 1. As velocity increases, hydrodynamic dispersion increases, but mechanical dispersion in this case is assumed constant.

At typical ground water velocities, molecular diffusion is small compared to mechanical dispersion, and hydrodynamic dispersion is assumed linearly dependent on

**Table 2.7 Calculated hydrodynamic dispersion**

Particle Dia.( $\mu\text{m}$ )	Calculated Dispersion						Dispersion Ratio				
	$D_{\text{KCl}}$	$D_{\text{CB}}$	$D_{\text{DCB}}$	$D_{\text{TCB}}$	$D_{\text{TeCB}}$	$D_{\text{PCB}}$	$\frac{D_{\text{CB}}}{D_{\text{KCl}}}$	$\frac{D_{\text{DCB}}}{D_{\text{KCl}}}$	$\frac{D_{\text{TCB}}}{D_{\text{KCl}}}$	$\frac{D_{\text{TeCB}}}{D_{\text{KCl}}}$	$\frac{D_{\text{PCB}}}{D_{\text{KCl}}}$
<b>Table 2.7A. Hydrodynamic Dispersion with Spherical Diffusion<sup>1</sup></b>											
20	.0012	---	.0012	.0012	.0012	---	---	1.00	1.00	1.01	---
100	.0013	---	.0014	.0014	.0014	---	---	1.08	1.09	1.11	---
500	.0043	---	.0070	.0074	.0078	---	---	1.60	1.70	1.80	---
2000	.052	---	.094	.11	.11	---	---	1.80	1.95	2.06	---
<b>Table 2.7B. Hydrodynamic Dispersion for Unsorbed Transport through Aggregates<sup>2</sup></b>											
20	.00015	.000071	.00023	.00024	.00025	.000095	1.18	1.51	1.58	1.64	1.33
100	.00014	.00063	.0024	.0025	.0026	.0013	1.64	1.76	1.85	1.94	2.03
500	.016	.0098	.032	.034	.036	.024	1.92	1.95	2.07	2.19	2.50
2000	0.17	0.13	0.36	0.40	0.41	0.35	2.04	2.11	2.26	2.40	2.70
<b>Table 2.7C. Hydrodynamic Dispersion with Fast Sorption<sup>3</sup></b>											
20	.0011	.0011	.00098	.0023	.010	.017	0.58	0.89	2.14	9.32	14.3
100	.0023	.0016	.0031	.0045	.012	.017	0.95	1.36	1.96	5.38	9.07
500	.017	.011	.032	.034	.042	.046	1.78	1.88	1.96	2.42	2.75
2000	0.17	0.13	0.36	0.36	0.37	0.40	2.03	2.10	2.11	2.15	2.21
<b>Table 2.7D. Hydrodynamic Dispersion with Slow Sorption<sup>3</sup></b>											
20	.0011	---	0.30	0.14	.050	---	---	267	127	45.1	---
100	.0023	---	0.30	0.14	.052	---	---	128	61.7	22.5	---
500	.017	---	0.33	0.17	.085	---	---	18.9	10.1	4.93	---
2000	0.17	---	0.66	0.53	0.46	---	---	3.80	3.06	2.67	---
<b>Average for 100 <math>\mu\text{m}</math> Particles</b>							1.3	1.5	1.9	3.7	5.6

<sup>1</sup>Using equation (52)[Parker and Valocchi, 1986]<sup>2</sup>Using equation (54)[Horvath and Lin, 1976]<sup>3</sup>Using equations (54) and (55)[Horvath and Lin, 1976 and 1978]

velocity. When modeling solute transport, the dispersive flux is considered to be linearly related to the concentration gradient, a form which is similar to Fick's Law describing a linear relationship between diffusive flux and the concentration gradient [Kirkham and Powers, 1971]. Dispersion is a scale-dependent parameter, because it averages different processes at different scales, and is not linearly related to concentration gradient. The similarity to Fick's Law is more or less accidental [Scheidtger, 1960], and is not accurate for all situations.

In a study of several hundred column experiments with natural soils [Rose, 1977], it was determined that hydrodynamic dispersion is better described with the exponent (N) equal to 1.0 to 1.5. Aggregate particles (359 experiments) had an average N of 1.11. Higher-order power-series expressions for hydrodynamic dispersion were developed for model particles, but it was concluded that for natural particles, equation (41) models the dispersion equally well. In addition, many of the parameters could not be determined for natural particles since they were not constant.

Chromatography researchers use porous aggregates and combine interparticle spreading processes into a single term, eddy diffusion, by assuming uniform pore sizes and path lengths, which is somewhat invalid even with chromatographic particles [Snyder and Kirkland, 1979]. Additional mechanical spreading is due to surface diffusion and diffusion within immobile pore fluid.

Spreading of unsorbed solutes is estimated by combining a series of empirical equations that describe molecular diffusion, eddy diffusion, surface (film) diffusion, and immobile-pore-volume diffusion [Horvath and Lin, 1976 and 1978]. This analysis assumes that processes are linear, so solutions are additive:

$$D = D_o + \frac{\lambda v d_p}{\gamma[1+w(v d_p / D_o)^{-1/3}]} + \frac{w \phi^2 \theta_i (v d_p)^{5/3}}{9 \gamma D_o^{2/3} (1+k_o)^2} + \frac{k_o v^2 d_p^2}{30 \tau D_o (1+k_o)} \quad (42)$$

where the terms account for molecular diffusion, eddy diffusion, film resistance, and intraparticle diffusion, respectively. The purpose of using this equation is to

demonstrate that different molecules have different characteristic dispersion coefficients in the same porous media. This equation accounts for more processes than just spherical diffusion (equation 40).

The eddy-diffusion term resulted from estimates by *van Deemter* and others [1956] where  $w$  is an obstruction factor (averaging 2.75),  $\gamma$  is an empirical parameter (0.6),  $\lambda$  is a spreading factor (1.0), and  $d_p$  is the effective particle diameter. Film resistance is based on a free-surface model [Pfeffer *et al.*, 1964], where  $\theta_i$  is the intraparticle porosity (0.46),  $\theta_e$  is the interparticle porosity (0.40),  $k_o$  is a porosity factor ( $\theta_i(1-\theta_e)/\theta_e=1.15$ ) [Horvath and Lin, 1976] and  $\phi$  is the pore volume accessible to solute molecules (1.0). The intraparticle diffusion term is an empirical estimate of spherical diffusion where  $\tau$  is the tortuosity.

Estimates of hydrodynamic dispersion are calculated with equation (42) for an ionic tracer and for chlorinated benzenes (Table 2.7B), using realistic values for real and empirical parameters. The calculated dispersion coefficients are larger for compounds with greater molecular weight, than for smaller compounds. The  $D_{solute}/D_{KCl}$  ratios (1.5 to 2.8) are larger than those in Table 2.7A where only immobile pore volume diffusion was considered (1.0 to 2.1). With larger particles, the  $D_{solute}/D_{KCl}$  ratio becomes larger (Table 2.7B), reflecting a greater amount of intraparticle diffusion. At this velocity, however, the eddy diffusion term was the largest.

#### **2.2.3.2.3 Slow Rate Process and Dispersion**

For some cases, slow rate process spreading can be included into dispersion, and transport could be modeled with an equilibrium transport model [Parker and Valocchi, 1986]. The purpose of including chemical kinetic spreading in dispersion is to demonstrate the effect a slow rate process has on a breakthrough curve, noting that for proper analysis of the processes, a slow intra-aggregate process must be separated from mobile-phase dispersion.

Assuming a first-order reversible reaction with a kinetic parameter,  $k_b$ , and partition coefficient,  $K_p$ , *Horvath and Lin (1978)* have developed an additional term accounting for spreading due to slow sorption:

$$D_{kinetic} = \frac{2[1 + (\rho_b K_p / \theta)] v^2}{(1 + k_o)(2 + \rho_b K_p / \theta)^2 k_b} \quad (43)$$

Two sets of calculated dispersion coefficients are presented in Table 2.7 which include sorption (combining equations 42 and 43). In Table 2.7C, a fast reaction is assumed ( $N_D = 100$ ), and the  $D_{solute}/D_{KCl}$  ratios are approximately equal to the cases where sorption is not taken into account (Table 2.7B). Averaging the  $D_{solute}/D_{KCl}$  ratios from Table 2.7B and C for 100- $\mu\text{m}$  particles results in 1.3 for chlorobenzene, 1.5 for dichlorobenzene, 1.9 for trichlorobenzene, 3.7 for tetrachlorobenzene, and 5.6 for pentachlorobenzene.

A case of sorbed solute dispersion where a slow reaction is assumed is presented in Table 2.7D ( $N_D = 1$ ). The substantial increase in the dispersion of the solute is due to spreading caused by the slow reaction. These dispersion coefficients are about two orders of magnitude larger for solutes compared to other cases (Table 2.7A-C) that do not include the effect of a slow rate process. The  $D_{solute}/D_{KCl}$  ratios are also substantially greater for smaller particles, compared to cases where fast sorption was assumed (Table 2.7C). This analysis shows that if all of the spreading was modeled as dispersion (with an equilibrium transport model), the  $D_{solute}/D_{KCl}$  ratio can be used to evaluate the effect of the slow rate process. A substantial increase in the ratio of dispersion coefficients for a solute/ion ratio greater than about 1.5 can be attributed to kinetic effects. This approach has been qualitatively used for looking for cases of non-equilibrium [*Valocchi, 1985*].

The dispersion coefficient should include only hydrodynamic dispersion, but for a limited change in experimental conditions, a change in a slow kinetic rate has the same effect as a change in dispersion [*van Genuchten and Cleary, 1979*], as shown in Figure 2.4. Three cases of nonequilibrium sorption are quantitatively analyzed with an

equilibrium model in Figure 2.6. These cases are equilibrium sorption ( $N_D = 100$ ), some slow sorption ( $N_D = 10$ ), and slow sorption ( $N_D = 1.0$ ). The three cases are equivalent to a single slow sorption process in which velocity is increased an order of magnitude in successive cases. The equilibrium model fits some of the data well ( $N_D = 100$  and 10), but does not fit the slow sorption data (where  $N_D = 1.0$ ).

In the case of considerable nonequilibrium sorption, the equilibrium model cannot account for the behavior, and more importantly, cannot predict this phenomena. The case of considerable nonequilibrium ( $N_D = 1.0$ ) cannot be fit with the equilibrium model by changing dispersion (model fit 3), or even by altering  $K_p$  (model fit 4). The partition coefficient is a constant for a soil/solute combination and does not change at different velocities. This example shows that an equilibrium sorption model cannot be used for accurate prediction of solute breakthrough when a slow rate process is involved.

## 2.2.4 First Order Model

### 2.2.4.1 Chemical Kinetics

If a reversible first-order reaction (equation 6) is the only rate limiting step (no diffusional limitations), then the general sorption model equations (21) and (24) reduce to:

$$\theta_e \frac{\partial C_e}{\partial t} + \rho_b \frac{\partial S_e}{\partial t} = \theta_e D \frac{\partial^2 C_e}{\partial Z^2} - v \theta_e \frac{\partial C_e}{\partial Z} \quad (44)$$

$$\rho_b \frac{\partial S_e}{\partial t} = k_b \rho_b [K_p C_e - S_e] \quad (45)$$

These equations reduce to the nondimensional equations (27) and (28) by making the substitutions for the parameters ( $C_e$ ,  $C_i$ ,  $z$ ,  $t$ ,  $K_p$ ,  $D$ , and  $k_b$ ) listed in Table 2.5. Omega ( $\omega$ ) in this model is equivalent to Damkohler number (equation 38).

This model has three parameters, where hydrodynamic dispersion ( $D$ ) produces spreading and  $K_p$  produces a lag in the solute breakthrough time. The third parameter,  $k_b$ , produces a time-related spreading phenomena, more intuitively described with the dimensionless Damkohler number. When the Damkohler number is large ( $N_D > 100$ ),

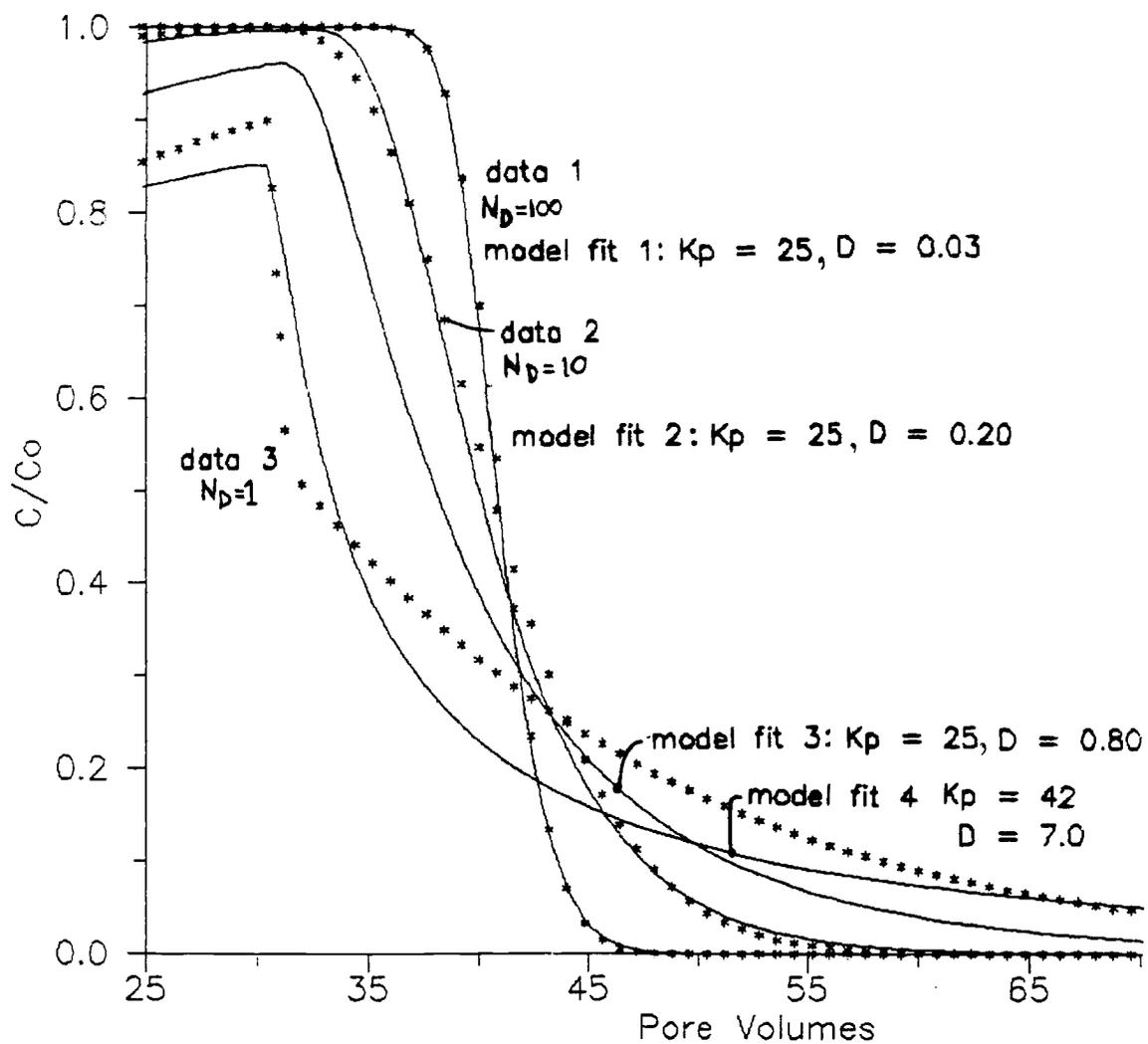


Figure 2.6 Equilibrium model fit to simulated nonequilibrium data

the reaction time is two orders of magnitude faster than residence time and the reaction is near equilibrium, as shown in Figure 2.7. When the reaction rate and residence time are about equal ( $N_D$  near 1.0), then only some of the solute reacts with the surface, and additional spreading results in the breakthrough curve. When the reaction is two or more orders of magnitude slower than the residence time ( $N_D < 0.01$ ), then only a small portion of the solute reacts with the surface and the breakthrough curve is almost like that for a conservative tracer.

The first-order model parameters are also used to define the amount of observed nonequilibrium, as defined by Valocchi [1985] with the second central moment ( $E_2$ ):

$$E_2 = \frac{v^2}{Dk_b} \left[ \frac{\rho_b K_p / \theta}{[1 + \rho_b K_p / \theta]^2} \right] \quad (46)$$

where  $E_2 > 100$  indicates nonequilibrium (additional spreading). Skewness of a breakthrough curve indicates hysteresis and can be defined in terms of the third central moment ( $E_3$ ) using first-order model parameters [Valocchi, 1985]:

$$E_3 = E_2 \left[ 1 + \frac{v^2}{Dk_b} \frac{1}{[2 + 2\rho_b K_p / \theta]} \right] \quad (47)$$

First-order model rates can also be determined with a plot of retardation factor versus plate height (equation 37) for cases of varying velocity. Increased spreading (and plate height) and the decreased retardation factor are used to define the reaction rate [Chu and Langer, 1985].

#### 2.2.4.2 Diffusion through the Bound Organic Layer

If the slow mass transfer through a bound organic layer is the only rate limiting step, then the general sorption model equations (21) and (23) reduce to:

$$\theta_e \frac{\partial C_e}{\partial t} + \rho_b \frac{\partial S_e}{\partial t} = \theta_e D \frac{\partial^2 C_e}{\partial z^2} - v \theta_e \frac{\partial C_e}{\partial z} \quad (48)$$

$$\rho_b \frac{\partial S_e}{\partial t} = \alpha_i [K_p C_e - S_e] \quad (49)$$

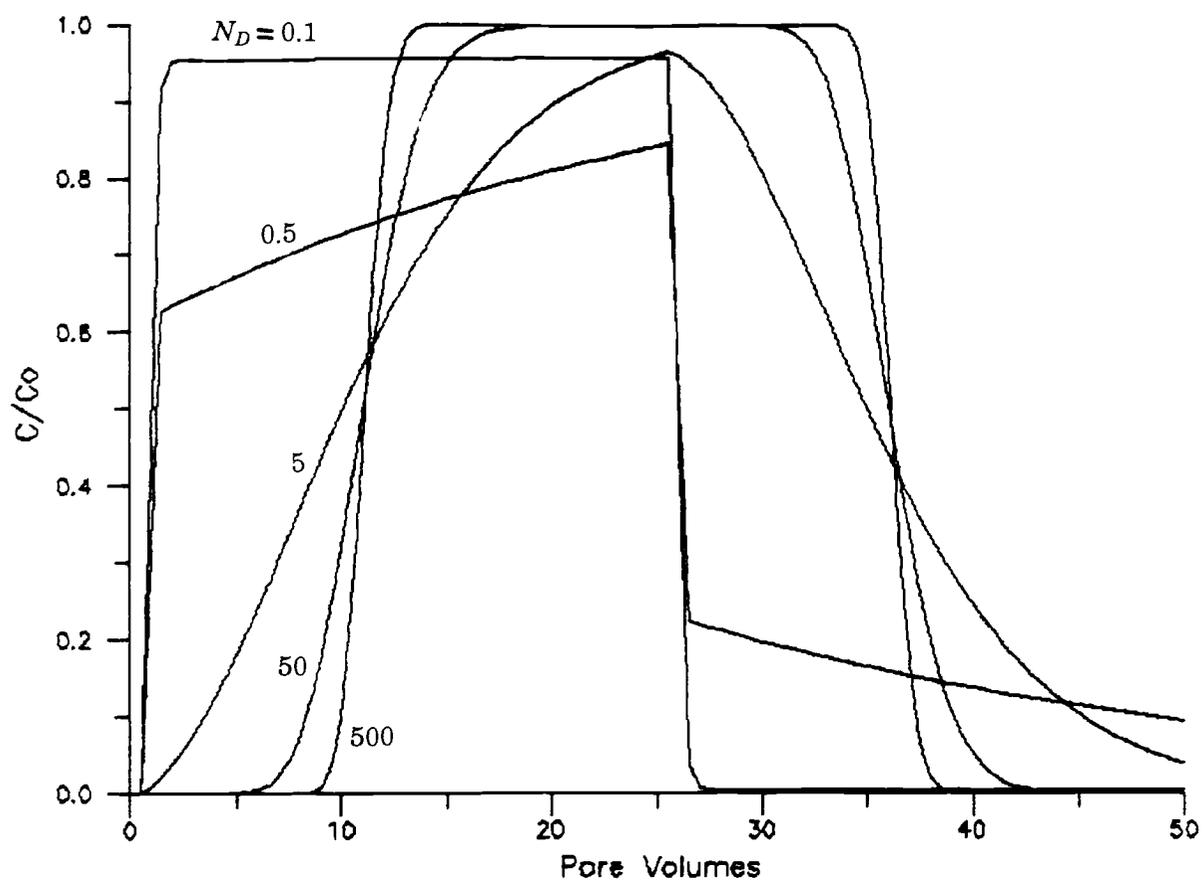


Figure 2.7 First-order model rate parameter effect on a breakthrough curve

where  $\alpha_i$  is the mass transfer coefficient between liquid and sorbed phases. These equations are reduced to the general dimensionless equations (27) and (28) by making the substitutions listed in Table 2.5 (where  $\beta = 1/R_f$ ). The solution is analytical with a linear isotherm (Section 2.2.6) or numerical with a Freundlich isotherm (Section 2.2.7). This model has three parameters ( $D$ ,  $K_p$ , and  $\alpha_i$ ), where dispersion ( $D$ ) controls the physical spreading,  $K_p$  controls the relative position in time of the breakthrough curve, and the additional term  $\alpha_i$  (or dimensionless rate  $\omega$ ) produces a time-dependent spreading.

This model formulation is mathematically equivalent to the first-order chemical model where  $\alpha_i$  is  $\rho_b k_b$ , so the effect of changing  $\alpha_i$  is also illustrated in Figure 2.7. When the diffusion rate is on the same time scale as residence time, a large amount of spreading is observed ( $N_D = 1$ ), whereas when the diffusion time is small compared to the residence time ( $N_D = 100$ ), equilibrium sorption is observed.

### 2.2.4.3 Parameter Sensitivity and Estimation

The effect of changing the three parameters in the first-order model is illustrated in Figure 2.4 and Figure 2.7. Estimating the three parameters from a breakthrough curve may not produce a unique set of parameters. Independent determination of hydrodynamic dispersion must be made in order to properly separate dispersion from a slow rate process. The partition coefficient can be determined by integration of the area in front of the solute breakthrough curve, regardless of the extent of nonequilibrium, but is more accurate when near equilibrium (sharper breakthrough curve). This corresponds to an experiment run at low velocity. The first-order model fit produces a  $K_p$  assuming a linear isotherm with no hysteresis in sorption (no irreversible sorption), whereas the  $K_p$  determined from the area in front of a breakthrough curve does not assume an isotherm.

The observed spreading in the breakthrough curve must be separated into hydrodynamic dispersion and a slow rate process. The  $D_{solute}/D_{KCl}$  ratio (Table 2.7) is used

for this purpose, where the dispersion for the solute is fixed at a factor times  $D_{KCl}$ . Dispersion in the model fit now represents hydrodynamic dispersion and additional spreading is due to the slow rate process.

The third parameter,  $k_b$ , is best determined at a sufficiently high velocity such that the slow rate process has the greatest effect on the breakthrough curve (approximately  $N_D = 1$ ). The sensitivity of the rate parameter ( $N_D$ ) is illustrated in Figure 2.8 in a plot of average  $N_D$  versus the area between two  $N_D$  values. This shows the maximum area difference (greatest parameter sensitivity and lowest error in fit) occurs when  $N_D$  is equal to 1.44. This is where the solute residence time is equal to reaction half life (equation 38). Experimentally, the maximum effect of the slow sorption process is obtained by varying the velocity with the same sorbent/sorbate combination. Obtaining rate data from single experiments at different velocities are only accurate to 2 to 3 fold under the best conditions [Chu and Langer, 1985]. Multiple experiments run at different velocities are used to obtain a single rate parameter (in Section 5.3.3), which should provide more accurate rate data.

### 2.2.5 Two Region Model

The two-region model represents a case of slow diffusion through immobile pore fluid, and is mathematically equivalent to parallel or series reactions where one reaction is slow. This model has four parameters, including  $K_p$ ,  $D$ , a rate parameter, and a fraction parameter.

#### 2.2.5.1 Diffusion through Immobile Pore Fluid

Assuming that diffusion through immobile pore fluid is the only rate limiting step, the general sorption model (equations 21 and 22) reduces to:

$$[\theta_e + f \rho_b K_p] \frac{\partial C_e}{\partial t} + [\theta_i + (1-f) \rho_b K_p] \frac{\partial C_i}{\partial t} = \theta_e D \frac{\partial^2 C_e}{\partial z^2} - v \theta_e \frac{\partial C_e}{\partial z} \quad (50)$$

$$[\theta_i + (1-f) \rho_b K_p] \frac{\partial C_i}{\partial t} = \alpha_e (C_e - C_i) \quad (51)$$

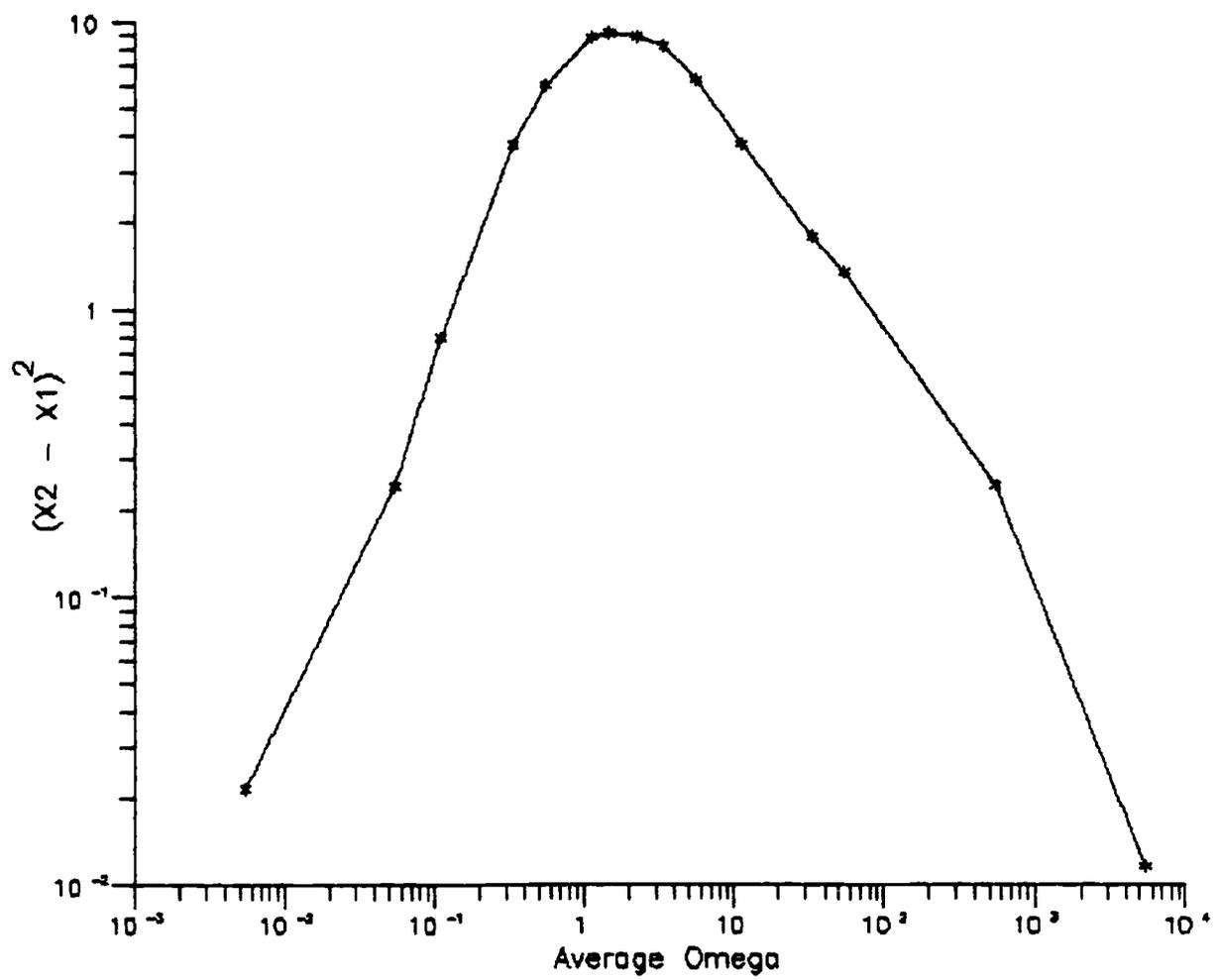


Figure 2.8 Rate Parameter sensitivity at different velocity

If the substitutions listed for a mobile/immobile model in Table 2.5 are made, the four model parameters are nondimensionalized into retardation factor ( $R_f$ ), Peclet number ( $P$ ), omega ( $\omega$ ), and beta ( $\beta$ ), and equations (50) and (51) are reduced to dimensionless equations (27) and (28). This model was first formulated by *Coates and Smith [1964]* with no sorption, and by *van Genuchten and Wierenga [1974]* to account for diffusion through aggregate particles with sorption in mobile and immobile regions.

The parameters in this model differ from the previous model in that porosity is divided into mobile porosity ( $\theta_e$ ) and immobile porosity ( $\theta_i$ ), and  $D$  and  $\alpha_e$  are calculated using mobile porosity rather than the total porosity. The fourth parameter, the fraction mobile sites ( $f$ ), adds to the model ability to fit a breakthrough curve, compared to a first-order model. This model has been successfully used to model transport in cracked soil and in soil containing macropores where a large fraction of immobile region is present, and sorption occurs in mobile and immobile regions [*van Genuchten, 1981*].

The nondimensional equations (27 and 28) can also represent cases of diffusion through immobile fluid, where geometries of the aggregate particle can include spherical [*Parker and Valocchi, 1986*], planar, rectangular, hollow cylindrical, and solid cylindrical [*van Genuchten, 1985*]. Diffusion into spherical aggregates can be reduced from this two-region model to an equilibrium model where the slow rate process is included in the dispersion term (equation 40) [*Parker and Valocchi, 1986*].

#### 2.2.5.2 Multiple Reactions

A case of an equilibrium reaction in parallel with a first-order reversible reaction:



can be represented by the two-region model (equations 27 and 28) with the substitutions for the parameters listed in Table 2.5. The total sorbed concentration,  $S$ , is the sum of  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ . In this case,  $K_p$  and  $D$  are as previously defined,  $k_b$  is the desorption rate coefficient for the slow reaction, and  $X_1$  (the fraction parameter) represents the fraction

of fast reaction sites (that sorb to  $S_1$ ). Formulation of equilibrium sorption in parallel with one or more kinetically influenced terms was made by *Bahr and Rubin [1987]*, where the nonequilibrium effects are also described in terms of a dimensionless rate parameter. Parallel reversible and irreversible reactions can be modeled with a first-order model and zeroth order mass loss term [*Di Toro et al., 1982*].

A case of an equilibrium reaction occurring in series followed by a first-order reversible reaction:



is also solved with the two-region model making the substitutions indicated in Table 2.5. This model was formulated by *Karickhoff [1984]*. In this case, the total sorbed concentration ( $S$ ) is the sum of  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ , and the  $K_p$  for fast sorption sites is equal to 1. The parameters are the same as the parallel reaction case.

### 2.2.5.3 Parameter Sensitivity and Estimation

The two-region model has four parameters,  $K_p$ ,  $D$ , a rate parameter, and a fraction parameter ( $f$ ). The effects of dispersion and the partition coefficient on breakthrough curves are discussed with other models (Figure 2.4). The rate parameter has a similar effect to that of the first-order-model rate parameter (Figure 2.7). An example of the effect of varying  $\omega$ , when  $f$  is 0.5, is shown in Figure 2.9A. The maximum sensitivity (or the fastest change) of the rate parameter occurs when  $\omega$  is 1.44, as discussed earlier with the first-order model (Figure 2.7).

The fourth parameter,  $f$ , is the fraction of sorption sites in the mobile region and  $(1-f)$  is the fraction of sites in the immobile region. At a fixed value of  $f$ , variation of  $\alpha_e$  is analogous to a first-order model where:

$$k_b' = \frac{\alpha_e}{\rho_b K_p} \quad (54)$$

Varying  $f$  (Figure 2.9B) shows little sensitivity, but mathematically when  $f$  is 0, this

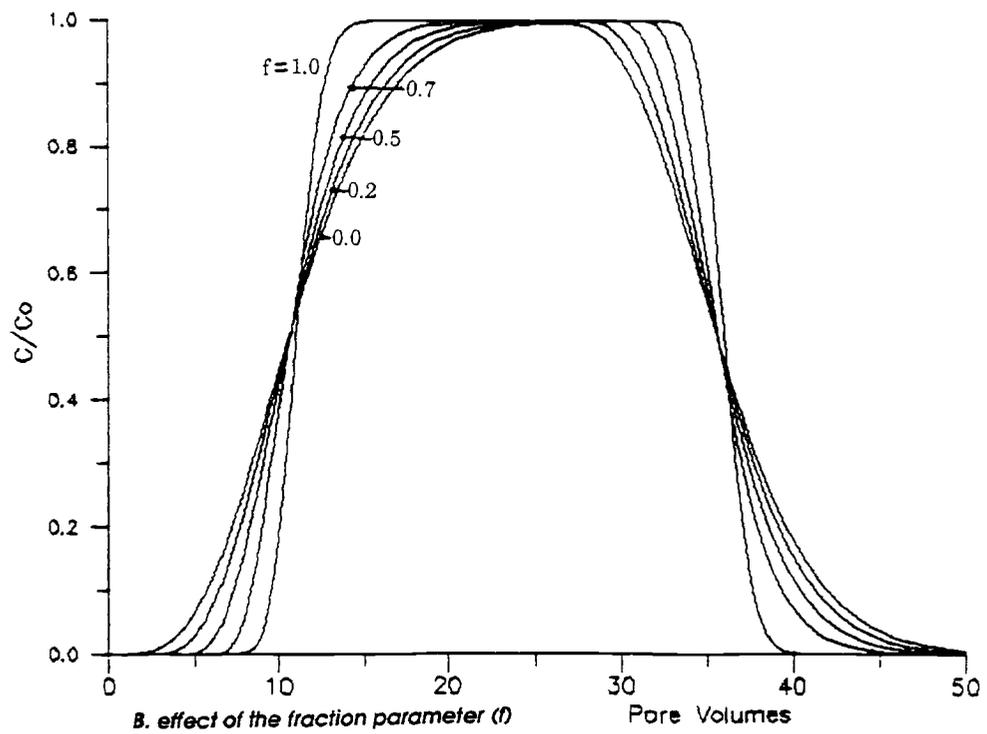
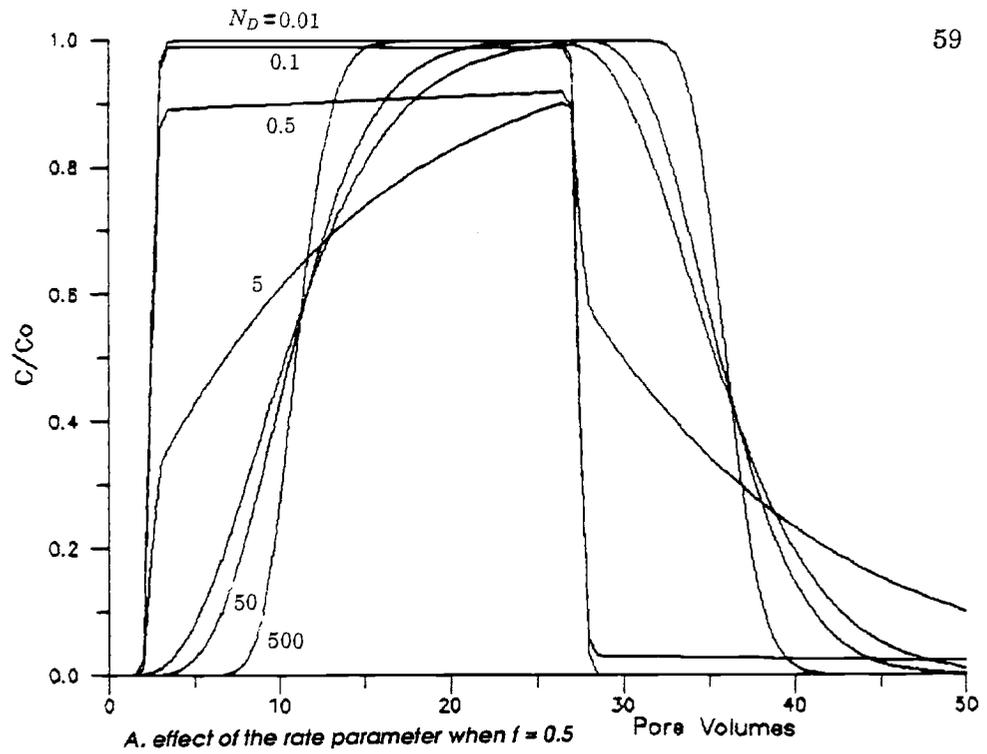


Figure 2.9 Two region model rate and fraction parameters

solution reduces to a first-order model, and when  $f$  is 1, this solution reduces to the equilibrium model.

Particles used in this research have an interparticle porosity ( $\theta_e$ ) of 0.40 and an intraparticle porosity ( $\theta_i$ ) of 0.46. Assuming that the sites are evenly distributed over the surface area, and noting that the external surface area is 1 percent of total surface area), then  $f$  is 0.01. If the bound organic material preferentially binds to the exterior of particles, then  $f$  may be larger than this value. If all of the organic material binds to the particle exterior, then  $f$  is 1.0. Since the distribution of the bound organic material on the surfaces used in this research is not known,  $f$  is used as a fitting parameter.

Since  $f$  can affect the breakthrough curve spreading, it should be independently determined. If the best estimate of  $f$  is small (near 0.0), then the first-order model can be used [*van Genuchten, 1985*]. If  $f$  is known, then  $t$  should be fixed, allowing  $\alpha_e$  to be the only parameter that varies, since if both  $f$  and  $\alpha_e$  are allowed to vary, a unique fit will not be determined. Reduction of this two-region model to a first-order model has been solved analytically [*van Genuchten, 1985; Parker and Valocchi, 1986*].

Since this two-region model can represent both physical and chemical slow approach to equilibrium, a single experiment cannot distinguish between these two cases [*Rao et al., 1979*], but rather experiments must be designed to alter the diffusion rate or chemical rate separately.

### **2.2.6 Analytical Solution - CFITIM**

An analytical solution to the general sorption model (equations 27 and 28) with the listed boundary and initial conditions (equations 25 and 26) is available with a nonlinear-least-squares parameter-estimation routine (CFITIM; *van Genuchten, 1981*). A second program is also available with a more efficient routine for parameter estimation (CXTFIT; *Parker and van Genuchten, 1984*). Two boundary conditions are available, which lead to different solutions at fast velocities where the first boundary type leads to mass balance errors. The constant flux boundary condition (second type) is

used in this research. The analytical solution is accurate as long as the Peclet number is not too small (dispersion becomes large), as defined by:

$$P > \frac{5 + 5D vt}{l R_f} \quad (55)$$

For cases of smaller column Peclet numbers (0.1), the solution is only slightly in error.

The curve-fitting routine is designed to accept fixed values of the transport parameters or allow them to be altered iteratively to obtain a better fit. The goodness of fit is described by the sum of the squares of the difference between each data point and the model point (*ssq*).

*Van Genuchten [1981]* recommends using a small number of data points (15-30) to reduce the model iteration time, with an upper limit of 90 points. This does, however, require the subjective removal of data points. All points are treated with equal weight in the curve-fitting routine, so if fitting a portion of the breakthrough curve is more important, then the number of points in other portions of the breakthrough curve should be reduced. The curve-fitting routine may not converge to a solution if poor estimates of parameters are chosen, or may converge to a wrong solution. The best technique is to fix as many parameters as possible that can be independently determined, as discussed earlier.

### **2.2.7 Numerical Solution - MOB2**

A finite-difference solution of the general sorption equations (27 and 28) is available with the listed boundary and initial conditions (equations 25 and 26), but with a Freundlich isotherm (equation 8) [*van Genuchten, 1979*]. This central-in-time finite difference solution was used with 100 nodes, each with a length of length 0.14 cm, to define a total column length of 14 cm. The finite difference stability condition:

$$\frac{D \Delta t}{(\Delta x)^2} < 0.5 \quad (56)$$

indicates that the time step could be as large as 4.0 sec; 1.0 sec is used in order to not

violate the Peclet and Courant conditions:

$$\frac{v \Delta t}{D} < 10 \quad (57)$$

$$\frac{v \Delta t}{\Delta x} < 1 \quad (58)$$

where the Courant number [Daus *et al.*, 1985] defines the accuracy of the finite difference scheme. This leads to a large number of time steps (28,758) to simulate a breakthrough curve.

The finite difference solution (Freundlich exponent = 1) is compared to the analytical solution in Figure 2.10 where five cases of different Peclet numbers are simulated. At large Peclet numbers (300, 170, 100) where the analytical solution is slightly more accurate, the analytical and numerical solutions diverge. This may reflect a difference in the definition of the input variables. At small Peclet numbers ( $P = 10, 1$ ) the solutions converged.

This model has an additional parameter, the Freundlich isotherm exponent ( $N$ ). The effect of a nonlinear isotherm ( $0.7 < N < 1.3$ ) on a breakthrough curve that exhibits slow sorption ( $\alpha_e = 4 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) is shown in Figure 2.11. When the exponent is smaller than 1.0, then at higher concentrations, less solute is sorbed. This situation is found when the number of sorption sites is limited. This case of less retardation of a solute at higher concentrations ( $N = 0.7$ ) produces a steeper ascent of the breakthrough curve compared to the case for which  $N$  is 1. On the desorption part of the curve, more sorption at lower concentration leads to tailing. When  $N$  is greater than 1.0, then the greater sorption at higher concentrations leads to a less steep sorption curve. During desorption, less sorption at lower concentration leads to a steeper slope.

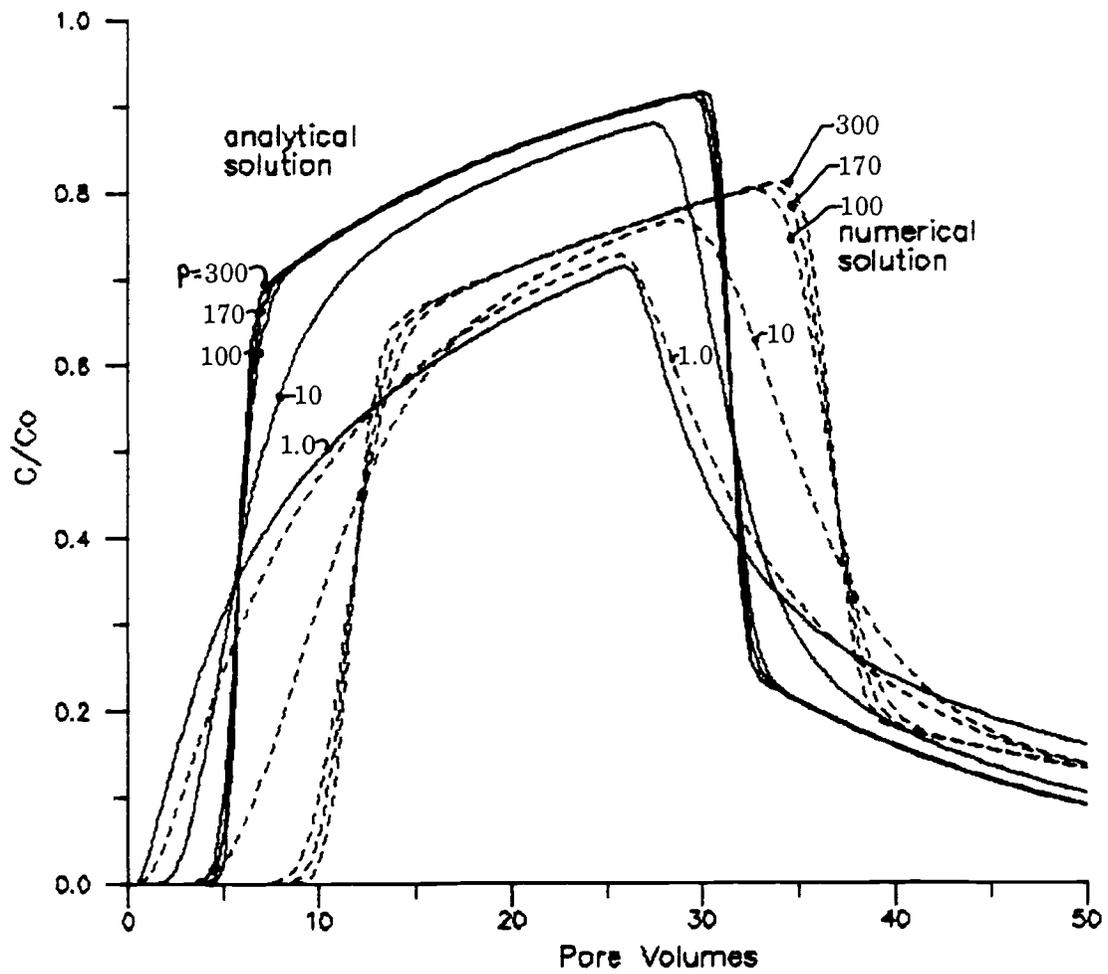


Figure 2.10 Comparison of analytic and numerical solutions

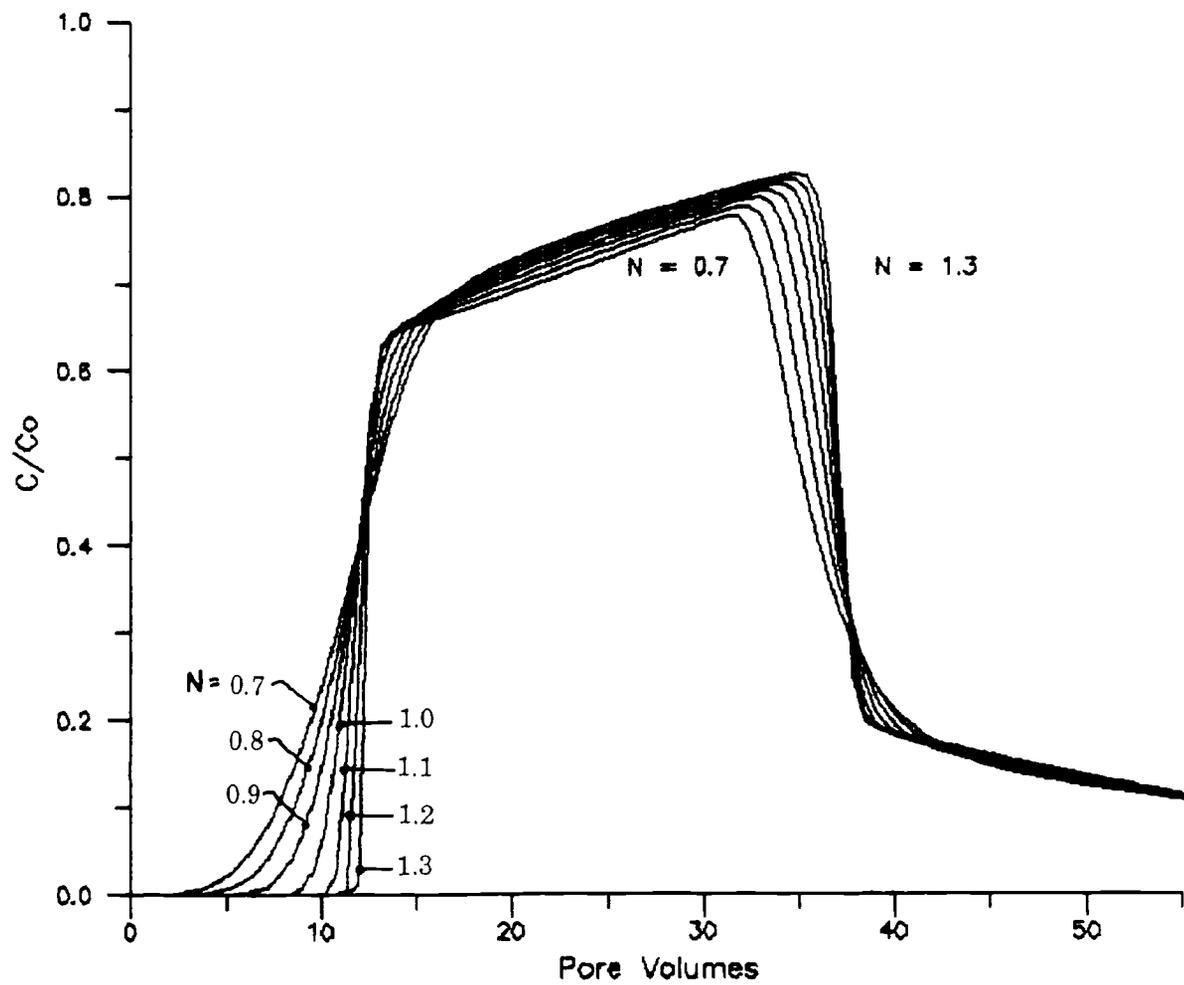


Figure 2.11 Effect of a nonlinear isotherm on a breakthrough curve

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

#### **3.1 Experimental Approach**

The observed slow sorption and desorption of solutes is considered to be caused by one of three possible rate limiting steps: diffusion through immobile pore fluid, diffusion through the bound organic layer, and the chemical binding and release step. Experiments performed in this research are designed to vary conditions that will affect only one of these steps in order to determine which is causing the observed slow sorption. Batch experiments are used primarily for screening for sorbent/sorbate combinations that exhibit slow sorption. Additionally, batch experiments are used to develop isotherms, and in some cases, determine sorption rates. Column experiments consist of passing a contaminant solution through a column packed with bonded silica until contaminant breakthrough occurs, then flushing the column with a contaminant-free solution. The resulting breakthrough curves were then evaluated using the models developed in Chapter 2 to estimate sorption parameters. Column experiments are performed with chlorinated benzenes, and batch experiments with a broader range of organic solutes.

Sorbents used in this research are made from porous aggregates of silica and alumina, which in most cases are partially coated with an aliphatic or aromatic organic compound. Organic modifiers simulate portions of natural organic matter that are important in the sorption of the hydrophobic compounds. The organic modifiers are either hydrophobic organic matter (aliphatic chains or phenyl groups), or common functional groups found in natural organic matter (carboxylic, amine, or alcoholic).

Particles with differing geometry and dimensions are used to examine the rate of diffusion through immobile pore fluid. This was done with the use of porous silica aggregates that have a different particle size to simulate a change in diffusion path length, or particles with different internal pore dimensions to simulate a change in tortuosity. Solid particles are used to eliminate all immobile pore volume. The diffusion rate through the bound organic layer is examined by changing the thickness or surface density of the organic layer. In addition, examination of the molecular size and shape of

the solute and sorbate is done to determine if diffusion through the organic layer is a rate-limiting step. The chemical binding and release step is examined by altering the surface functional group. In addition, column experiments are run at different temperatures to determine if the rate limiting step is caused by a physical or chemical process. The change in the sorption rate over a homologous series of compounds of increasing molecular weight is also used to separate physical and chemical processes.

### **3.2 Batch Experiments**

Batch experiments were used for screening sorbent/sorbate combinations that exhibited slow sorption. Most experiments resulted in partition coefficients and qualitative sorption and desorption rates. A total of 47 separate batch experiments were completed from August, 1985 to December, 1986 (20-40 vials each) with 38 successful experiments using 16 different compounds.

#### **3.2.1 Experimental Procedure**

Batch experiments consisted of adding 0.1-10 g of sorbent, 1.5-40 mL of water and solute to a borosilicate vial with a teflon-lined cap, without head space. Bottles were rotary mixed (10 rpm) for times ranging from seconds to 14 days. A typical experiment consisted of 20-40 vials. Bottles were then centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 15 minutes, and then the solute concentration remaining in the liquid was analyzed. Short-time-scale samples were not centrifuged, but were withdrawn with a syringe and passed through a 0.22- $\mu$ m polycarbonate filter before analysis.

Pentane extraction involved transferring 0.2-1.0 mL of liquid concentrate (filtrate) into a second vial and adding 0.5 mL of pentane. After 50 shakes of the vial, 3  $\mu$ L of the pentane was injected into a gas chromatograph (GC); most of the hydrophobic solutes partition into the pentane. A Varian 3760 packed column GC or a Hewlett Packard 3890 capillary column GC were used. The separation column consisted of a 3 percent SP-2250 on an activated carbon support (Supelco, Inc., Bellefonte, PA), or OV-1 on a diatomaceous earth support, or OV-1 on a glass capillary column. Detection was with an electron capture detector in all cases.

Liquid chromatography analysis was used with some substituted aromatic compounds and was performed on a Spectra-Physics 8100 (Spectra-Physics, Santa Clara, CA), using an RP-18 column (Millipore, Bedford, MA), a flow rate of  $1.0 \text{ mL min}^{-1}$ , a mixed methanol-water mobile phase, and an ultraviolet (UV) detector. Blanks and standards were made in identical sample bottles and treated in the same manner as samples. Some standards were analyzed at the end of the experiment to account for any losses of mass. Substituted benzenes were found not to absorb to glass.

The reaction rates obtained from batch experiments may be different from column experiments since flow in columns forces some advective flow through porous particles [Antle *et al.*, 1985]. Particles in batch reactors are subject to shear forces that break particles apart [Wu and Gschwend, 1986]. Partitioning in batch systems may be altered due to colloid partitioning [Gschwend and Wu, 1985]. In addition, in batch experiments, as each bottle is a different sorbent sample, more sampling variability may result compared to column experiments, where all samples sorb to the same mass of sorbent. As a result, batch experiments generally show more variability, less sorption, and faster sorption than column experiments.

### 3.2.2 Modeling Batch Experiment Data

Batch-experiment partition coefficients were calculated from the fraction solute remaining in solution ( $f_l$ ):

$$K_p = \frac{(1-f_l)}{f_l} \frac{V_{liquid}}{M_{solid}} = \frac{1-f_l}{f_l r_{sw}} \quad (59)$$

where  $r_{sw}$  is the solid/liquid ratio ( $Mass_{solid}/Volume_{liquid}$ ). Data for long time scales (weeks) is accurate to within 2 percent, based on the standard deviation in  $K_p$  for six experiments. Data are less reliable for smaller vials where the surface tension of water makes separation of water from solids more difficult.

Desorption experiments required calculation of the solute mass remaining in the vial with:

$$C_{or} = C_o [1 - f_l (1 - \frac{\Delta V_{liquid}}{V_{liquid}})] \quad (60)$$

where  $C_{or}$  is the total mass of solute remaining expressed in terms of a liquid concentration,  $\Delta V_{liquid}$  is the volume of water removed from the system, and  $V_{liquid}$  is the total volume of water. The fraction solute ( $f_l$ ) remaining in solution was then calculated using the calculated initial concentration remaining in solution ( $C_{or}$ ). The desorption data showed more scatter due to a greater number of sample handling steps; a similar observation has been made by other researchers [Karickhoff, 1980]. The sorbed concentration for sorption and desorption experiments was calculated with:

$$S = \frac{(C_o - C)}{r_{sw}} \quad (61)$$

Rate data were modeled with planar and spherical diffusion models, and a first-order chemical model. The models required two points to fit experimental data; the time to reach equilibrium sorption and a 50 percent sorption point were used. Shorter time scale data (<2 minutes) were considered inaccurate and were not used. Where sorption rates were not calculated, the values shown represent the time to reach a point within 2 percent of equilibrium.

Kinetic data at shorter time scales are less reliable since proper mixing and centrifugation required ten minutes. Filtering out solids worked only with particles of diameter greater than 100  $\mu\text{m}$ , and could be performed within a minute. Slow mixing of the soil with water and solute before extracting liquid was another source of error in short-time-scale samples. Less sorption was observed in experiments where no mixing was performed. As a result, the short-time-scale rate data are unreliable ( $\pm 15$  percent) for times less than 1 minute, and somewhat unreliable ( $\pm 5$  percent) for times of 1-5 minutes.

A loss in mass of a solute in solution caused by mechanisms other than sorption occurs in natural systems, but can be controlled to a greater extent in laboratory

systems. Mass loss occurs by volatilization, biodegradation, sorption onto dissolved organic matter, and irreversible sorption.

Biodegradation of organic solutes in natural soils has been observed for a wide variety of compounds [Graham-Bryce, 1981]. Di-, tri-, and tetra-chlorinated benzene biodegradation has been reported in soil [McCarty *et al.*, 1981] even at low concentration [Kobayashi *et al.*, 1982]. Biodegradation of 1,2 dichlorobenzene in the laboratory and field has been reported [Wilson *et al.*, 1987] after 9-12 weeks.

Mass loss due to partitioning of solutes to colloidal organic matter decreases the observed partition coefficient between soil and water [Gschwend and Wu, 1985; McBath *et al.*, 1987; Capel *et al.*, 1987]. Sorption is less at higher solid/liquid ratios where colloidal organic matter increases, and is more significant in batch experiment systems than in column systems. Dissolved organic matter is not significant with the model soil used, where organic compounds are covalently bound to the surface, but is a factor in natural soils, where dissolved organic matter averages  $3 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  [Thurman, 1985].

### **3.3 Column Experiments**

#### **3.3.1 Apparatus Description and Procedure**

Column experiments consisted of feeding a KCl solution containing an organic solute into a 1.0-cm diameter by 5- to 25-cm long column until solute breakthrough occurred, then feeding a lower conductivity, solute-free solution until all of the organic solute was removed from the column (Figure 3.1). To collect column inlet and exit samples, a 200- $\mu\text{L}$  volume was isolated in a liquid chromatograph (HPLC) sample-injection valve; and when 700  $\mu\text{L}$  of pentane was injected into the valve, water and pentane were flushed into a 1.5-mL vial with teflon-lined septa cap. This procedure is reproducible ( $\pm 1$  percent), accomplishing sample removal and pentane extraction all within 30 seconds. Extraction and analysis was the same as for batch experiments.

Discrete samples (200  $\mu\text{L}$ ) represented 1.3 to 6.3 percent of the column volume, thus output concentrations were averaged over only a short time. Experiments with

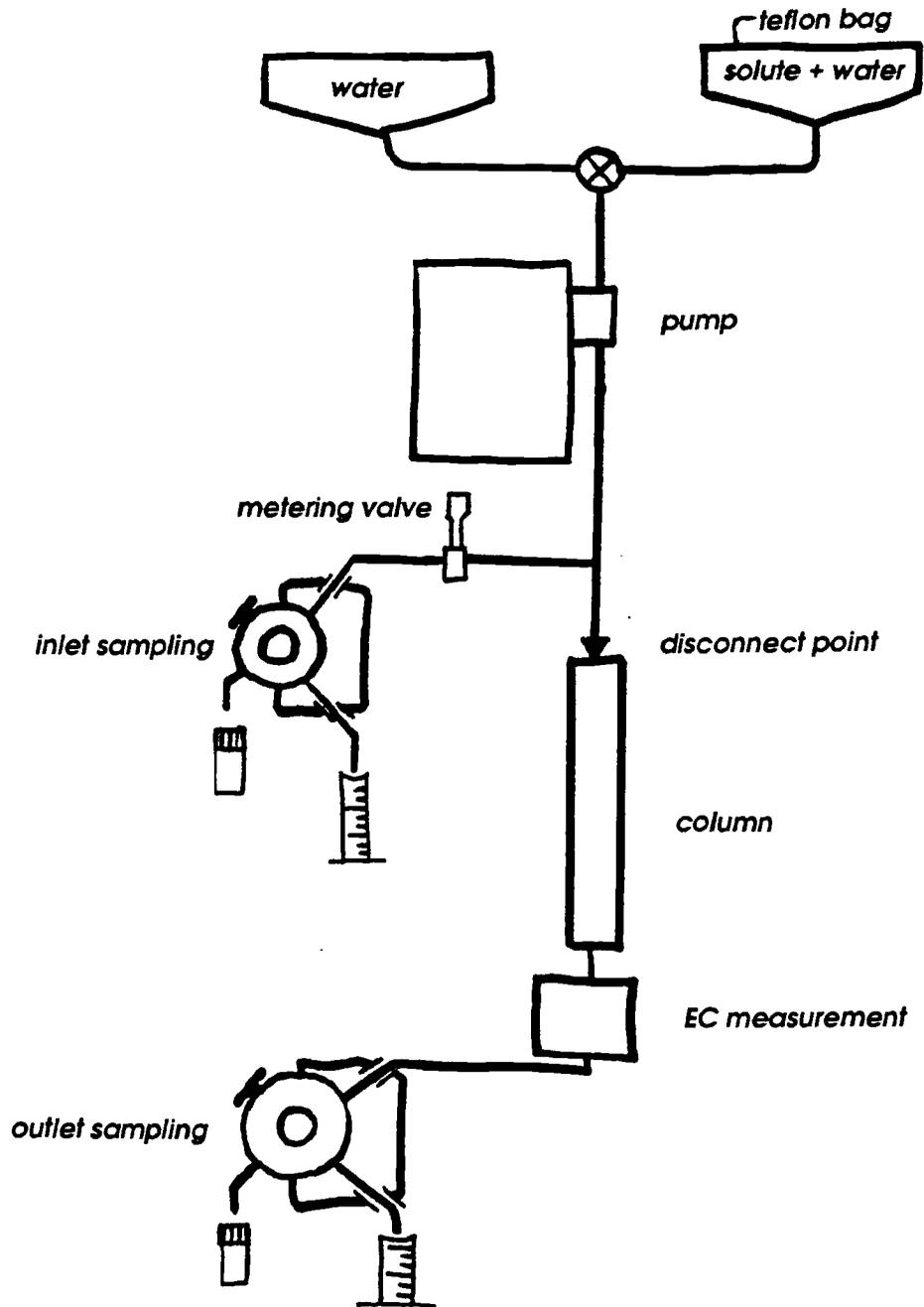


Figure 3.1 Column experimental apparatus

very short columns (sample volume was 6.3 percent of column volume) that were run at very high velocities (up to 2 pore volumes per minute) were subject to large jumps in concentration by a combination of the sample averaging effect and the time needed to sample. Stainless-steel tubing used in the apparatus was the smallest obtainable (0.013-cm internal diameter) to minimize dead volume between the column and the detector. Extra column volume after the column was 0.216 mL, including a 0.200-mL sampling loop, so the sample was considered to represent the concentration at the column exit. Sampling precision was 0.3 percent, based on 300 of the 15,000 samples analyzed. Another measure of the sampling precision is the average of the solute inlet concentration, which was  $0.9996 \pm 0.026$  ( $n = 150$ ).

A flexible teflon bag was used as the feed-solution reservoir. It was necessary to fill the bag several days before an experiment, since some initial solute mass loss occurred. Constant flow was accomplished with an HPLC pump (Eldex Laboratories, San Carlos, CA or Beckman Instruments, Santa Ana, CA). A pulse damper was not used since it added undesirable volume to the apparatus, and its removal added only a fixed amount of dispersion. All parts in contact with the solute were stainless steel, glass (piston), or teflon.

A lack of mass balance in breakthrough curves could indicate irreversible sorption or mass loss in the apparatus. The average ratio of the solute mass fed into the column to the amount detected for the 92 column experiments was  $1.026 \pm 0.106$ , with six experiments showing large mass imbalances. Upon removal of these six experiments, the mass balance becomes  $1.011 \pm 0.043$ , showing that the apparatus was capable of no mass losses.

Two KCl solutions (0.01 and 0.02 M) were used in the solute feed water and blank feed water to identify system dispersion; the high ionic strength was necessary to minimize the effect of anion exclusion. The column retention volume (and porosity) was calculated from particle and solids density (equation 63) and verified with the KCl breakthrough. Electrical conductivity was measured with a Wescan 2540 conductivity

meter and micro-cell.

Several experiments were run at temperatures from 3 to 48°C. Temperature control was accomplished by placing the entire apparatus inside a refrigerator and wrapping copper tubing around the solute feed reservoir, pump head, column, and sampling valves; water from an external constant temperature bath was circulated through the tubing. Insulation was also wrapped around the apparatus, exposing only the sampling valves. The refrigerator was opened only when sampling. The reported experiment temperature is an average for the solute reservoir and the column.

Six different columns were used with diameters of 0.9 or 1.0 cm and lengths of 5.0, 11.0, 14.0, or 25.0 cm. They were sized to accommodate a small amount of sorbent for large retention ( $K_p$  large) or large columns for small retention. The velocity dependence of dispersion was different for each column and was determined experimentally (Section 4.3.1). Prior to use, columns and 0.45- $\mu\text{m}$  frits were washed in methanol, then dried at 105°C overnight.

Sorbent was packed dry with the "tap-fill" method [*Snyder and Kirkland, 1979*]; 30 pore volumes of water were then run through the column. The column inlet was opened and examined for additional void volume caused by grain rearrangement, and then the column was repacked if necessary. Electrical conductivity was monitored during the process to check for stability.

Packed columns were stored for up to 65 days (long-term sorption experiments) with only one case of bacterial growth observed. Columns could withstand high pressure (6000 psi) and were used for several experiments before clogging; one column was used for over 11,000 pore volumes. It was not determined, however, if the bonded organic content, or particle size changed. Column clogging was minimized by filtering liquid input into column and minimizing exposure to high pH or heat.

### 3.3.2 Modeling Column-Experiment Data

Column experiments were analyzed for mass balance, breakthrough curve symmetry, and model parameters. For each experiment, column dimensions, sorbent properties, and solute concentration were noted. Velocity was calculated from the volume per unit time of fluid transported through the column:

$$v = \frac{Q}{A \theta} \quad (62)$$

where  $Q$  is the volumetric discharge,  $A$  is the cross-sectional area, and  $\theta$  is the total porosity. All columns were fully saturated with water and pumping rate held constant throughout the experiment.

Breakthrough curves were planimeted to calculate the retardation factors for sorption and desorption, and the mass eluted. Mass eluted divided by mass injected was used as a measure of the mass balance. Partition coefficients were calculated from planimeted retardation factors using equation (29). Some error was introduced when sorption did not reach  $C/C_o$  of 1.0, or desorption did not reach 0.0, as it was necessary to extrapolate the curve in order to planimeter the area. The ratio of sorption  $K_p$  to desorption  $K_p$  ( $K_{ps}/K_{pd}$ ) was used as a measure of sorption reversibility.

Dispersion ( $D$ ) for a conservative tracer was determined by fitting the KCl breakthrough curve to an equilibrium model; the fitted parameters were  $K_p$  and  $D$ , with injection pulse fixed. If the model fit to KCl data was poor ( $ssq > 0.20$ ), then dispersion was calculated from the velocity/dispersion data (see Section 4.3.1). The measure of total error in the model fit is the sum of the squares of the deviation between model and data ( $ssq$  in Appendix B).

Solute breakthrough data were first modeled with the equilibrium model, fixing only the injection pulse; fitted parameters were  $K_p$  and  $D$ . The resulting dispersion coefficient in this case was used as an indicator of nonequilibrium. Data were also fit to the first-order and two-region models, fixing  $D$  at the ionic-tracer dispersion value times

a factor. This factor was 1.3 for chlorobenzene, 1.5 for dichlorobenzene, 1.9 for trichlorobenzene, 3.7 for tetrachlorobenzene, and 5.6 for pentachlorobenzene, as developed in Section 2.2.2.1. Nonequilibrium models were run fixing  $K_p$  at the planimetered value in one run, and allowing  $K_p$  to vary in another run. Allowing  $K_p$  to vary resulted in a substantially better fit in some cases, even if  $K_p$  did not change more than 10 percent. Other researchers [Nkedi-Kizza *et al.*, 1987] have found a 20 percent variation in determining  $K_p$  by various methods.

Experiments were also modeled fixing the solute dispersion ( $D$ ) value at that of the ionic tracer. In some cases, a third fit was performed, letting dispersion vary. In all cases, the planimetered  $K_p$  was used as the initial guess, or  $K_p$  was fixed at that value. Allowing  $K_p$  to vary resulted in a better fit. Parameters not fixed were determined by a nonlinear least squares fit to data [van Genuchten, 1981], which included sorption rate ( $k_b$ ) for the first-order model, and mass transfer rate ( $\alpha_e$ ) and fraction mobile sites ( $f$ ) for the two-region model.

In one case (experiment G-2), dispersion for DCB was fixed at 1.0, 1.3, 1.7, and 3.0 times the KCl dispersion coefficient. This surface (phenyl polymer) exhibited slow sorption of DCB in all breakthrough curves. Varying the dispersion value from 1.0 to 3.0 made little difference in the fit (only a slight increase in  $ssq$ ). However, as dispersion increased, the rate parameter ( $\omega$ ) also increased (i.e. a faster reaction), as more of the observed spreading was included in hydrodynamic dispersion (and less included in a slow rate process). For a breakthrough curve exhibiting fast sorption (experiment B-1), the fitted curve was very sensitive to the value of dispersion, and the best model fit was obtained when dispersion was fixed at 1.5 times the KCl dispersion, similar to the calculated value. Apparently, when the dispersion coefficient was too large, the model curve exhibited greater spreading than the experimental data, and the resulting error ( $ssq$ ) increased substantially.

Allowing the injection pulse (volume of solute-containing water injected) to vary can result in a substantially better fit for cases where  $K_p$  for sorption and desorption

differ. Varying the pulse compensates for apparent hysteresis in sorption by equalizing the  $K_p$ 's. However, fitted values of  $K_p$  and the rate parameter have little meaning in this case; for meaningful results, sorption and desorption portions of breakthrough curves should be modeled separately. Therefore, an understanding of each parameter in the model is necessary to obtain meaningful data, because obtaining a better model fit by curve fitting does not necessarily reflect any understanding of the processes.

### **3.4 Sorbent Properties**

Sorbents used in this research are made from porous and solid silica and alumina. The porous mineral surfaces used are commercially available with a wide range of geometrical structure. This difference in structure was used to alter the diffusion time through the immobile pore fluid. The silica used for many experiments was modified with an organosilane, which is covalently bound to the surface and provides a variety of accessible organic functional groups.

#### **3.4.1 Unbonded Mineral Surfaces**

Porous sodium silicate used in this research was a commercial product donated by manufacturers (Table 3.1). Some nonporous silica was also used, as well as porous alumina. Most experiments were performed with porous silica from a single manufacturer (PQ Corporation), to minimize the difference in surface properties. Particles used ranged in diameter from 2- $\mu\text{m}$  (nonporous) to 600- $\mu\text{m}$  (porous) particles, and had internal pore diameters of 11-27 nm.

##### **3.4.1.1 Structure**

Porous silica and alumina are prepared by the manufacturer by coagulating nanometer sized primary particles into aggregates, which are then crushed and sized. The pore size is controlled by the primary particle size. A larger range in pore size is caused by using primary particles with varying diameter. Other mineral surfaces used in chromatography include alumina, diatomaceous earth, styrene divinyl benzene and carbon [Blevins, 1982].

Table 3.1 Surfaces used in experiments

Name	Lab Name	Manufacturer	Diam. <sup>1</sup> ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	Surf. Area ( $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$ )	Frac. Area Reduced	Pore Diam. (nm)	Bulk Density ( $\text{g cm}^{-3}$ )	Porosity	Bound organic	$F_{\infty}$	Frac. organic Coverage	Frac. silane Coverage
K	AC-A	Analytichem	40	313.4	--	--	--	--	none	--	--	--
L	AC-B	Analytichem	40	500.0	--	--	--	--	C <sub>1</sub> -Poly	0.0430	1.074	2.331
AA	AC-C	Analytichem	40	500.0	--	--	--	--	C <sub>2</sub> -Poly	0.0432	0.525	0.763
M	AC-D	Analytichem	40	500.0	--	--	--	--	C <sub>8</sub> -Poly	0.1162	0.363	0.518
N	AC-E	Analytichem	40	500.0	--	--	--	--	C <sub>18</sub> -Poly	0.1818	0.252	0.375
AB	AC-F	Analytichem	40	500.0	--	--	--	--	AMIN-Poly	0.1200	1.501	3.786
AC	DEG-A	Degussa OX50	0.040	38.83	--	none	--	--	none	--	--	--
AD	DEG-B	Degussa Al203	0.015	94.13	--	none	--	--	--	--	--	--
AE	MIN-A	PGS minusil 30	8.8	1.624	--	none	--	--	--	--	--	--
J	MIN-B	PGS minusil 5	1.9	6.351	--	none	--	--	none	--	--	--
A	PQ-A	PQ Corp CD-807	100	182.6	0.902	27.5	0.3489	0.858	C <sub>1</sub> -Poly	0.0143	0.893	1.091
B	PQ-B	PQ Corp CD-807	100	203.4	1.005	27.5	0.3627	0.852	C <sub>8</sub> -Poly	0.0068	0.053	0.054
C	PQ-C	PQ Corp CD-807	100	191.5	0.946	27.5	-0.3555	0.855	C <sub>18</sub> -Poly	0.0105	0.036	0.037
D	PQ-D	PQ Corp CD-807	100	224.7	1.110	27.5	0.3520	0.856	PHE-Mono	0.0016	0.012	0.013
E	PQ-E	PQ Corp CD-807	100	195.2	0.964	27.5	0.3614	0.852	PHE-Poly	0.0137	0.143	0.149
AF	PQ-F	PQ Corp CD-807	100	215.6	1.065	27.5	0.3597	0.853	Carboxylic	0.0085	0.088	0.138
R	PQ-G	PQ Corp CD-807	100	209.7	1.036	27.5	0.3383	0.862	DIOL-Poly	0.0087	0.091	0.093
S	PQ-H	PGS minusil 30	8.8	1.631	1.004	none	--	--	PHE-Poly	0.0004	0.521	0.522
F	PQ-I	PQ Corp CD-803	20	345.5	0.858	11.0	0.3536	0.856	PHE-Poly	0.0111	0.058	0.060
G	PQ-J	PQ Corp CD-807	20	190.7	0.896	27.5	0.2905	0.881	PHE-Poly	0.0101	0.105	0.109
T	PQ-K	PQ Corp CD-807	100	199.1	0.983	27.5	0.3415	0.861	AMIN-Poly	0.0081	0.084	0.177
H	PQ-L	PQ Corp XG-10	425	387.8	0.887	10.0	0.4185	0.829	PHE-Poly	0.0106	0.055	0.057
AG	PQ-M	PQ Corp XG-10	135	401.0	0.917	10.0	0.4342	0.823	PHE-Poly	0.0092	0.048	0.049
I	PQ-N	PQ Corp CD-807	100	202.5	--	27.5	0.3300	0.865	none	--	--	--
W	PQ-O	PQ Corp CD-803	20	402.5	--	27.5	0.2776	0.887	none	--	--	--
X	PQ-P	PQ Corp CD-807	100	207.7	1.026	27.5	0.3632	0.852	.473 C <sub>18</sub> -Poly	0.0060	0.021	0.021
			100	207.7	1.026	27.5	0.3632	0.852	.527 PHE-Poly	0.0066	0.069	0.070
AH	PQ-Q	PGS min-u-sil 5	1.9	6.515	1.026	none	0.9400	0.616	C <sub>1</sub> -Poly S	0.0142	0.293	0.298
O	PQ-R	PGS min-u-sil 5	1.9	5.816	0.916	none	0.8978	0.634	C <sub>1</sub> -Poly S	0.0022	0.045	0.039
AI	PQ-S	PQ Corp CD-807	100	211.6	1.043	27.5	0.3576	0.85	PHE-Poly	0.0093	0.097	0.100
Q	PQ-T	PQ Corp CD-807	100	201.2	0.994	27.5	0.3510	0.857	PHE-Mono	0.0075	0.059	0.059
U	PQ-U	PGS min-u-sil 5	1.9	5.923	0.933	none	0.8748	0.643	PHE-Poly S	0.0044	1.514	1.536
V	PQ-V	PQ Corp XG-10	425	437.1	--	10.0	0.4372	0.822	none	--	--	--
AJ	PQ-W	PQ Corp CD-807	20	212.9	--	27.5	0.3544	0.855	none	--	--	--
AK	SCM-A	Smith Corona G600	4.7	325.0	--	13.5	--	--	C <sub>1</sub> -Poly	--	--	--
AL	SCM-B	Smith Corona G600	4.7	325.0	--	13.5	--	--	C <sub>8</sub> -Poly	--	--	--
AM	SCM-C	Smith Corona G600	4.7	325.0	--	13.5	--	--	C <sub>18</sub> -Poly	--	--	--
AN	SCM-D	Smith Corona G600	4.7	325.0	--	13.5	--	--	PHE-Mono	--	--	--
AO	SCM-E	Smith Corona G600	4.7	325.0	--	13.5	--	--	PHE-Poly	--	--	--
AP	SCM-F	Smith Corona G600	4.7	325.0	--	13.5	--	--	Carboxylic	--	--	--
AQ	SCM-G	Smith Corona G600	4.7	325.0	--	13.5	--	--	DIOL-Poly	--	--	--
AR	SCM-H	Smith Corona G900	8.5	493.5	--	2.6	--	--	none	--	--	--
P	SCM-I	Smith Corona G604	13.5	247.1	--	13.5	--	--	none	--	--	--
AS	ZEO-A	Huber ZEOSYL110SD	13.0	140.0	--	--	--	--	C <sub>18</sub> -Poly	0.0068	0.034	0.034
AT	ZEO-B	Huber ZEOSYL110SD	13.0	140.0	--	--	--	--	C <sub>18</sub> -Poly	0.0117	0.058	0.059
AU	ZEO-C	Huber ZEOSYL110SD	13.0	140.0	--	--	--	--	C <sub>18</sub> -Poly	0.0194	0.096	0.100
AV	ZEO-D	Huber ZEOSYL110SD	13.0	84.29	--	--	--	--	none	--	--	--
Y	AL-A	ALCOA CS4712-A2	236	314.6	--	4.0	0.7205	0.788	none	--	--	--
Z	AL-B	ALCOA CS4713-B2	236	122.1	--	10.0	0.6775	0.801	none	--	--	--
AW	AL-C	ALCOA CS4712-A1	483	316.7	--	4.0	0.6556	0.807	none	--	--	--
AX	AL-D	ALCOA CS4713-B1	483	128.0	--	10.0	--	--	none	--	--	--

<sup>1</sup>Average particle diameter between sieves.<sup>2</sup>By single point N<sub>2</sub> adsorption.<sup>3</sup>Surface area/unbonded surface area.<sup>4</sup>Measured.<sup>5</sup>Calculated with equation (76);  $\rho_s = 2.45$  (silica), 3.40 (alumina).<sup>6</sup>Calculated with equation 84 and Table 3.1.

The porous silica used in this research is formed by homogeneous nucleation of amorphous silica particles from silicic acid molecules, continued growth of these nanometer sized silica beads which are then "melted" together with acid or heat [Fleming, 1986], forming irregular aggregates with internal void space. The average coordination number of primary particles is 4 (tetrahedral structure) [Drake et al., 1986]. Primary particles range from 1 to 10 nm in diameter; secondary particle structure is around 100 nm, and final particles are about a centimeter in diameter. Particles are crushed and sieved to a desired size; they are angular and edges break when packed into columns [Horvath et al., 1977]. Secondary particles are round agglomerates of primary particles. Growth of secondary particles to large diameters is possible, but expensive. These have been made [Macherey Nagel, 1987] with particle sizes from 3 to 70  $\mu\text{m}$  with seven pore diameters from 5 to 400 nm.

The interparticle porosity averages 0.40 [Iler, 1979] for the angular particles used in this research, with an intraparticle porosity about 0.46 [PQ Corporation, 1986]. Total porosity for silicas used in this research ranged from 0.35 (nonporous) to 0.88 (porous). Porosity was calculated from bulk density and solids density:

$$\theta = 1 - \frac{\rho_b}{\rho_s} \quad (63)$$

where  $\rho_b$  is the dry bulk density, and  $\rho_s$  the solids density. Bulk density was calculated with the measured mass and volume of sorbent packed into a 10 to 30  $\text{cm}^3$  graduated cylinder. The solids density is 2.45 for silica (PQ Corporation, 1986), and 3.40 for alumina [Iler, 1979]. The porosity was also determined from the breakthrough curve of a conservative (KCl) tracer at high ionic strength.

Other commercially available porous silicas [Merck] have porosities ranging from 0.59 to 0.73 [Drake et al., 1986]. Determination of total porosity can also be done by weighing a packed column with different density fluids in it [Blevins, 1982], or injecting a conservative, nonsorbing tracer such as  $\text{CaNO}_3$  [Yang and Gilpin, 1987].

Fractal models can be used for calculating particle internal geometry [Avnir, 1986; Drake et al., 1986; Keefer, 1986] and are useful because the absolute surface topology depends on the method used to probe the surface. Fractal analysis indicates a probe of 0.3 nm is needed to characterize the surface; a larger size would not characterize all the surface structure. This is equal to the spacing between oxygens on the silica surface (0.30 nm) [Miller et al., 1985]. The surface area can be measured by nitrogen adsorption only where pores or surface roughness are greater than 1.2 nm [Drake et al., 1986].

The aggregate particles packed into a column provide for tremendous reactive surface area, but create additional dispersion by immobile pore fluid diffusion [Rose, 1977]. Irregularities in interparticle porosity have been demonstrated mathematically to result in asymmetrical breakthrough curves [Yeroshenkova et al., 1983], even assuming no immobile pore volume.

Researchers [Snyder et al., 1979] believe that there is advective transport around and through porous particles with only a minor amount of immobile internal pore space. The amount of immobile pore space may be a function of pressure, so it could be greater for batch (low pressure) experiments. Gaseous diffusion of water vapor through porous silica is in the range of  $10^{-6}$  to  $10^{-10}$   $\text{cm s}^{-1}$ , whereas diffusivities of ions in aqueous solution are on the order of  $10^{-5}$  to  $10^{-6}$   $\text{cm s}^{-1}$  [Andersson et al., 1985]. Gas diffusion of water vapor into 50- $\mu\text{m}$  particles reached equilibrium within 30 minutes.

#### **3.4.1.2 Properties**

Single-point nitrogen adsorption was determined on the sorbents used in this research, and is reported in Table 3.1. This technique (Quantisorb, Bristol, PA) consisted of a flow-through cell containing the sorbent, and the means to measure the difference in mass of nitrogen flowing in and out of the cell. The cell holder containing the sorbent was placed in liquid nitrogen, liquefying gaseous nitrogen that is flowing past the sorbent. Assuming monolayer coverage of liquid nitrogen, the total mass of nitrogen adsorbed to the particle surface is proportional to the sorbent surface area. Desorbing the liquid nitrogen from the sorbent surface is done with water (25°C), and results in a

mass gain to the system that is also proportional to the surface area.

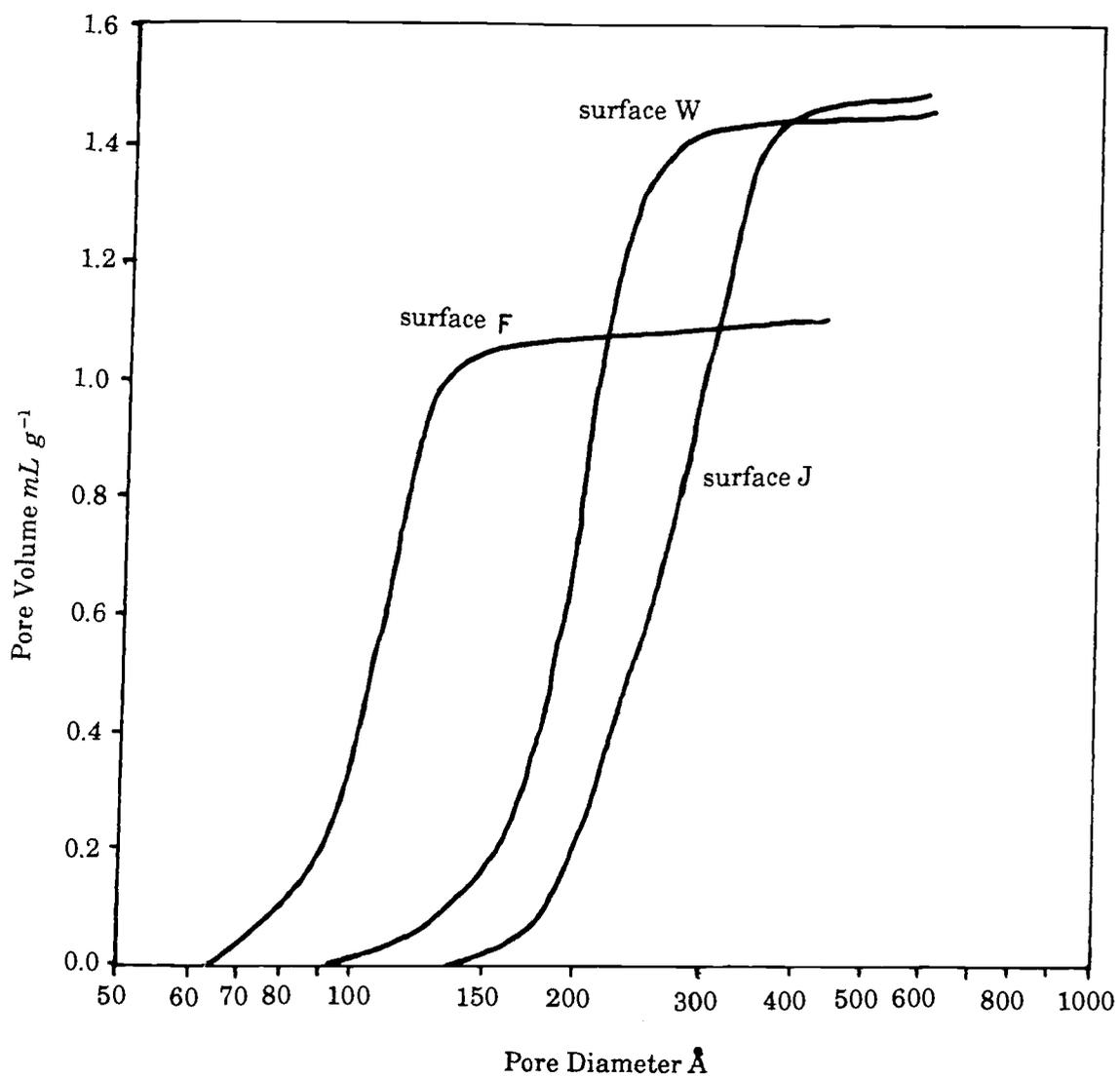
A minimum of three adsorption/desorption cycles were done on each surface with duplicates for 10 percent of the samples. Precision was about  $\pm 1$  percent, although accuracy between samples of the same surface was  $\pm 3$  percent. The manufacturer suggests an accuracy of 5 percent. Measured surface areas ranged from 5 to 500  $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$ .

The pore-size distributions for some of the silicas used in this research were supplied by the manufacturer (Figure 3.2) [PQ, 1986]. These were determined from multipoint nitrogen adsorption data, and calculated by assuming a BET isotherm and cylindrical geometry. The distributions are narrow; the 27.5 nm pore silica (surfaces A through E) had a pore size range of 15-36 nm (99.5 percent).

The porous silica used is somewhat amorphous [Iler, 1979], but the structure is generally silica tetrahedra with the distance between the silicon and oxygen atoms of 0.187 nm, an angle between oxygens (O-Si-O) of 109 degrees, and a distance between oxygens of 0.299 nm [Miller *et al.*, 1985]. The  $\text{pH}_{iep}$  of silica is  $2.0 \pm 0.5$  [Iler, 1979], indicating that the surface has a net negative charge at neutral pH. The  $\text{pK}_a$  for proton dissociation from the silica surface is 7.1 to 9.5 [Miller *et al.*, 1985], accounting for silica stability in the 1 to 9 pH range [Karch *et al.*, 1976]. Silica dissolution increases dramatically at  $\text{pH} > 9.5$  and at elevated temperatures.

Hydroxyl groups chemisorbed on the silica surface are oriented with the OH groups parallel to the surface [Urban *et al.*, 1985]. The surface is considered chemically heterogeneous [Hunnicut, 1986], with an average silanol (SiOH) distribution of 8  $\mu\text{molm}^{-2}$ . Researchers estimate that 50 to 75 percent of the silanol groups can be brought to reaction [Bein *et al.*, 1984]; the calculated maximum site density is 4.5 to 8.0  $\text{nm}^{-2}$  [Blevins, 1982].

Magnetic resonance has been used to determine the relative fractions of surface groups [Fyfe *et al.*, 1985]. Silica gel has 60 percent siloxane bonds (Si-O-Si), 32 percent lone bonds (SiOH), and 8 percent geminal bonds (Si(OH)<sub>2</sub>). It was also determined that



(PQ Corporation, 1986)

**Figure 3.2** Pore size distribution of unbonded silica

all of the geminal sites and only some of the lone sites reacted (20 percent of the total number of sites) when a silane was bound to the surface. Hydrogen bonding between adjacent lone sites [Miller *et al.*, 1985] is observed and causes greater activity. Glass beads are reported to have a greater percentage of reactive sites (35 percent) compared to the sodium silicate. The nature of the silica surface does affect partitioning since bonded phases from different manufacturers react differently, possibly caused by trace elements in the amorphous silica.

### **3.4.2 Organic Modified Surfaces**

#### **3.4.2.1 Sorbents Used**

Organic molecules are bound to silica particles to simulate some of the functional groups found in natural soil organic matter. Silica was modified with aliphatic chains, phenyl groups, and aliphatic chains with alcoholic, amine, or carboxylic groups for this purpose, as indicated on Table 3.1. The most extensive use was made of the nonpolar modifiers (phenyl groups and aliphatic chains), since sorption of the solutes of interest is predominantly through van der Waals attractions between nonpolar groups. Properties of the organic modifiers are shown in Table 3.2.

The organic modifiers are bonded to the surface in clumps, with the mass fraction of bound carbon being about one percent, to simulate distribution found in natural soils. Natural soils have a range of bound carbon of 0.01 - 5 percent [Karickhoff, 1984].

Organic-modified silica was introduced in 1952 by Howard and Martin [Blevins, 1982]. The first organic modified liquid chromatographic (LC) stationary phase was a C<sub>18</sub>-modified silica developed in 1966 [Horvath *et al.*, 1977]. Bonded phases are used for chromatographic separation, reaction catalysis, waterproofing, and specialized coating. Surface modification can be made with alcoholic groups (Si-O-C bonds), primary or secondary amines (Si-N-C bond), or with a chlorosilane (Si-O-Si-C bond); these are listed in order of increasing stability against hydrolysis [Karch *et al.*, 1976]. Bonded phases now represent over 80 percent of LC columns [Horvath *et al.*, 1978].

**Table 3.2 Silane properties**

Name	$M_t$ Total Molecular Weight ( $g\ m^{-1}$ )	$f_{ct}$ Fraction Carbon of Total Silane ( $g/g$ )	$M_{om}^1$ Organic Fraction Molecular Weight ( $g\ m^{-1}$ )	$f_c$ Fraction Carbon of Organic Fraction ( $g/g$ )	$V_{om}^2$ Volume of the Organic Fraction ( $cm^3\ m^{-1}$ )	Thickness (length) from Surface (nm)
$C_1$	149.5	0.08	15	0.800	13.6	0.5
$C_8$	247.5	0.388	113	0.850	85.1	1.6
$C_{18}$	387.5	0.557	253	0.854	187	2.5
Phenyl-Monomer	170.5	0.563	107	0.897	75.7	1.1
Phenyl-Polymer	211.5	0.340	77	0.935	44.9	1.1
Carboxylic	217.5	0.221	144	0.500	85.7	---
Dialcoholic	235.0	0.306	121	0.496	84.3	---
Amine	221.5	0.163	44	0.545	34.2	---

<sup>1</sup>Molecular weight of organic fraction of silane; excludes Si, Cl, and O.

<sup>2</sup>Bondi, 1964.

Chloro- or methoxy- ( $\text{OCH}_3$ ) silanes are most commonly used due to great binding strength on silica and alumina, and the extensive availability of bonded phases (Petrarch Systems, Bristol, PA). The general silane formula  $\text{R}_N\text{SiX}_{(4-N)}$  can be subdivided into:

$\text{C}_1\text{-Si-R}_3$  trifunctional and monomer

$\text{C}_2\text{-Si-R}_2$  difunctional and dimer forming

$\text{C}_3\text{-Si-R}_1$  monofunctional and polymer forming

Chlorosilanes (monomers) bind in monolayers on the surface and trichlorosilanes (polymers) bind to the surface in polymer clumps. Attachment to the silica surface is by removal of chlorine from the silane and hydrogen from the surface to form a Si-O-Si covalent bond [Hunnicutt *et al.*, 1986]. Silanes can also be bound to an alumina surface, and metals including aluminum, silicon, tin, titanium, copper, iron, gold, and zinc [Petrarch Systems, 1987].

Functional group(s) are generally hydrophobic, but can also be polar groups. Commonly used functional groups include: 1) aliphatic chains ( $\text{C}_1$ ,  $\text{C}_2$ ,  $\text{C}_4$ ,  $\text{C}_6$ ,  $\text{C}_8$ ,  $\text{C}_{18}$ ,  $\text{C}_{24}$ ); 2) aromatic groups; 3) polynuclear groups; and 4) silanes with specific functional groups. Aliphatic chains ( $\text{C}_{18}$ ) and monofunctional phenyl silanes are the most common.

Phenyl silanes are of particular interest in this research and are available as mono-, di-, or tri-phenyl silanes [monomers; Jinnó *et al.*, 1985], penta-phenyl functional silane [Chen *et al.*, 1986], phenyl polymer (Petrarch Systems, Bristol, PA), and phenyl groups attached to aliphatic chains of varying length [Blevins, 1982; Den *et al.*, 1985]. Polyaromatic (naphthyl and pyrene) silanes are also available [Takana *et al.*, 1982] as well as heterocyclics (hexyl and hexanol). Phenyldimethylchlorosilane is used as a catalyst and in a variety of industrial reactions; triphenylchlorosilane is used as a GC column deactivator and in some LC columns [Okamoto *et al.*, 1985], and phenyltrichlorosilane (polymerizing) is used for hole filling on silica surfaces, wear coating on magnetic recording surfaces, and waterproofing [Matzen *et al.*, 1986].

From mono- to di- to tri- phenyl silanes, as the bulkiness of the bonded group increases, steric exclusion of the silane from the smaller pore silica is observed [Okamoto *et al.*, 1985], and some pore clogging is observed by the reduction in surface area. Trichlorophenyl silane is observed to polymerize in water to a molecular weight of  $1.2 \times 10^6$  in an organic solution [Dianippon Chemicals, Inc., 1984].

Silanes with polar or ionic functional groups can also be attached to a silica surface but require deactivation of the group before binding, then reactivation of the functional group. Silanes with alcoholic, amine, and carboxylic groups were used in this research. Using carbonyl dimidazole (CDI) instead of a silane, virtually any ligand can be bound to a silica surface [Hearn, 1983; Larsson *et al.*, 1982].

#### **3.4.2.2 Preparation**

The procedure used in this research to bind silanes is designed to obtain only a partial (< 3 percent) and lumpy coating, in order to simulate the distribution of soil organic matter coatings on mineral surfaces. This procedure was developed with the advice of Dr. M. Burke (personal communication) in the Chemistry Department at the University of Arizona. Silane polymers were used to make a lumpy coating. Polymers do not increase the thickness of the silane since they polymerize laterally [Hunnicuttt *et al.*, 1980]. Silanes bound on surfaces are not observed with more than monolayer coverage. The presence of water with a multichlorosilane will produce a silane polymer in solution [Karch *et al.*, 1976], which can then be bound to the surface. Adding the silane to a water and a silica slurry allows for some polymerization but silane is still able to diffuse into pores. Polymerization is also controlled by the solid-liquid ratio and rate of evaporation of water during condensation.

Prior to use, the silica was washed with methanol and 0.1 N HCl, then dried at 200°C overnight. The silane was added into a silica-water slurry (10 g of silica and 200 mL of water) and mixed for 2-12 hours (for polymerization), then dried at 105°C overnight (binding to the silica surface), and finally rinsing with carbon tetrachloride, hexane, methanol, hydrochloric acid, and finally water prior to use. Note that after packing

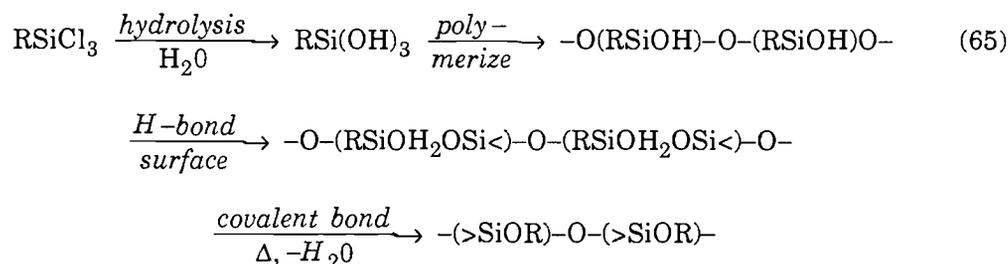
into a column, silica was rinsed further (30 pore volumes) before experimentation.

The binding reaction of monomeric groups are made from chlorosilanes with methyl side groups is:

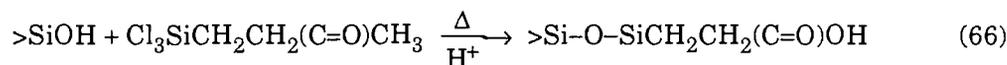


where  $R$  is an organic functional group ( $\text{C}_1$ ,  $\text{C}_8$ ,  $\text{C}_{18}$ , or phenyl), and  $>\text{SiOH}$  refers to a surface silanol site. The phenyl silane used was phenyldimethylchlorosilane (Petrarch P0160) from Petrarch Systems [Bristol, Pa.]. Properties of the silanes used in this research are listed in Table 3.2.

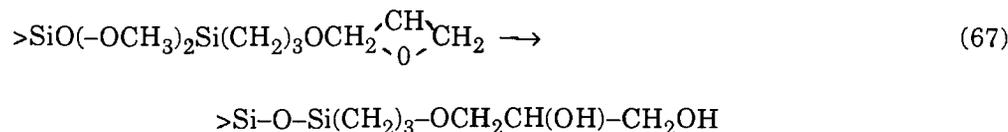
Polymer surfaces are made from trichlorosilanes with the following reaction:



where the phenyl silane used was phenyltrichlorosilane (Petrarch P0280). A carboxylic functional group is bound to silica with a 2-(carbomethoxy)ethyltrichlorosilane (Petrarch C2905):

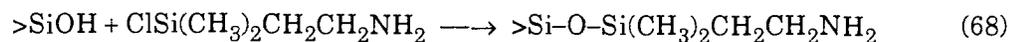


An alcoholic functional group is bound to silica with 3-glycidoxypropyltrimethoxysilane (Petrarch G6720):

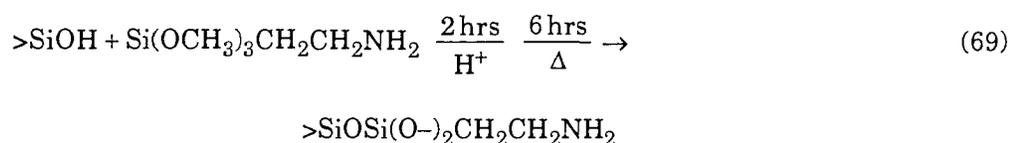


An amine monomer is bound to silica with 3-aminopropyltrimethoxysilane (Petrarch A0735) and with the same reaction conditions as the aliphatic chain monomer

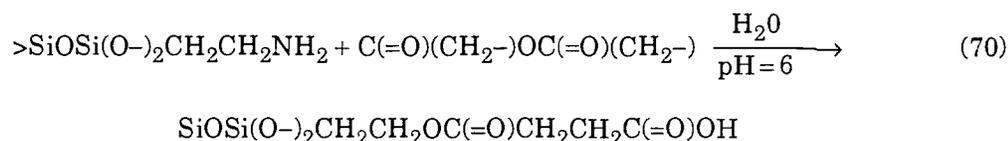
binding reaction:



where the surface is washed with carbon tetrachloride and methanol after binding. An amine polymer is bound to silica with 3-aminopropyltriethoxy silane (Petrarch A0750) with the following reaction:



Amine modified silicas were also modified to produce carboxylic and ketone groups bound to an aliphatic chain [Zerda *et al.*, 1985] with the following reaction:



A list of thirty modified silicas with chemical and physical properties made in this research is presented in Table 3.1. The bound silane is covalently bonded to the surface, and is thus stable over a wide range of pH and temperatures up to 220°C [Karch *et al.*, 1976]. The bound silane thickness varies from 0.5 nm for C<sub>1</sub> to 2.5 nm for C<sub>18</sub> [PQ Corp., 1986], to 1.1 nm for phenyl. The silane binds on surfaces in pores, and will bridge across pores if the silane molecule is large enough (more common for polymers).

The procedure used to bind silanes for chromatography purposes are designed for complete coverage of the silica surface [Antle *et al.*, 1985]. About half of the 4.8 groups nm<sup>-2</sup> are sterically able to react with C<sub>1</sub> [Blevins, 1982]. Longer chains lie flat on the surface, covering unbound silanol groups. Silanes longer than C<sub>8</sub> have less access to the reactive surface. The rate of silane binding is slow compared to reagent transport [Hunnicuttt *et al.*, 1986]. From fastest to slowest, the silation reaction rate is: short aliphatics > long chain aliphatics > phenyl > amine > alcoholic silanes.

The typical chromatography binding procedure is to clean and dry the silica (absence of water), apply 2 to 5 percent of the silane in toluene, reflux for 12 hours, add an acid scavenger (pyridine), end cap with a C<sub>1</sub> polymer, then rinse with toluene and methanol [Kingston *et al.*, 1976]. Analysis of 21 variables in the reaction [Jones, 1987], indicated that six factors are very significant to achieve complete coverage. These are the nature of the silane, silanizing twice, using a large excess of silane (5 equivalents), end capping (C<sub>1</sub> silane), using a trifunctional silane, and using an acid scavenger. Silanization can also be done in situ [Gilpin *et al.*, 1976] which additionally coats the inside of the column. Even chromatographers admit, however, that the binding procedure is unique and the organic coated silica produced varies from batch to batch, so the bound silica still represents unique set of variables.

### 3.4.2.3 Properties

The mass of bound organic carbon was determined by elemental pyrolysis, giving percent carbon by total mass with a lower limit of  $0.0002 \pm 0.0001$ . Unbound silica was also measured to account for the inorganic carbon. Bound particles made in this research had a fraction carbon by mass ( $f_{oc}$ ) ranging from 0.04 to 1.94 percent (Table 3.1). The amount of surface area coverage of organic matter ( $X_{om}$ ) based on the mass of carbon was calculated with:

$$X_{om} = \frac{1}{[(f_c / f_{oc} - 1) M_{om} F S_a]} \quad (71)$$

where  $f_{oc}$  is the fraction organic carbon in the sorbent,  $f_c$  is the fraction carbon in the organic portion of the silane,  $M_{om}$  is the molecular weight of the organic portion of the silane (Table 3.2),  $F$  is the surface site density ( $6.67 \times 10^{-6}$  mol m<sup>-2</sup> for silica) and  $S_a$  is the silica surface area (m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>). The fraction organic coverage ranged from 0.9 to over 100 percent (Table 3.1), and represents the area (and volume) where most hydrophobic organic compounds sorb.

The fraction silane coverage ( $X_g$ ) was calculated with equation (71), making the substitutions of the total bound silane molecular weight ( $M_t$ ) from Table 3.2, and the fraction carbon of the silane ( $f_{ct}$ ). This fraction silane coverage represents the mole fraction of total material added to the unbonded silica. As shown in Table 3.1, the fraction coverage is slightly greater than the fraction organic matter coverage, as expected.

The maximum mass of bound silane varies with silane size; for a  $C_1$  monomer,  $f_{oc}$  is 3.3 percent, for a  $C_8$  monomer,  $f_{oc}$  is 12 percent, for a  $C_{18}$  polymer,  $f_{oc}$  is 19 percent, and for phenyl monomer,  $f_{oc}$  is 7 percent [Karch *et al.*, 1976; Bein-Vogelsand *et al.*, 1984]. Maximum coverage is one molecule per  $0.18 \text{ nm}^2$  ( $C_1$ ),  $0.49 \text{ nm}^2$  ( $C_{18}$ ) [Karch *et al.*, 1976], and  $0.52 \text{ nm}^2$  (phenyl monomer) [Okamoto *et al.*, 1985]. Most porous surfaces used in this research averaged 1 percent carbon by mass, which covered 1 to 15 percent of the surface sites. Nonporous silica coverage by bound organic matter was calculated at 50 to 150 percent of the silica sites, possibly indicating some coverage greater than monolayer.

Binding silanes reduces the amount of available silanol surface. The unreacted surface area was determined experimentally by nitrogen adsorption, and sodium hydroxide titration. Single-point nitrogen adsorption was performed on the unbound and bound silicas used in this study; the reduction in surface area for bound silicas was 10 percent or less, since only a small mass of silane was bound. Solid particles did not show a reduction in surface area even with a high fraction coating.

Internal porosity (and surface area) is reduced when silane polymers are large enough to bridge across pores, as observed with  $C_{18}$  polymers (PQ Corporation, 1986). Surface-area reduction is not observed with  $C_1$ ,  $C_8$ , and  $C_{18}$  monomers [Hunnicuttt *et al.*, 1986].

Multipoint nitrogen adsorption can be used to examine pore clogging. In a study where different phenyl silanes were bound to silica [Okamoto *et al.*, 1985], the unbound silica had a pore diameter of 9.5 nm. Binding a monophenyl silane to the silica ( $f_{oc} =$

0.0445) produced an average pore diameter of 8.6 nm; binding a diphenyl silane ( $f_{oc} = 0.0592$ ) changed the average pore diameter to 8.5 nm, and binding a triphenyl silane ( $f_{oc} = 0.0518$ ) changed the pore diameter to 8.5 nm. The pore distributions, however, show most of the decrease is in the percentage of pores smaller than 2.0 nm.

Silanol surface activity can also be determined by titrating the surface to high pH [Sears, 1956] with the following reaction:



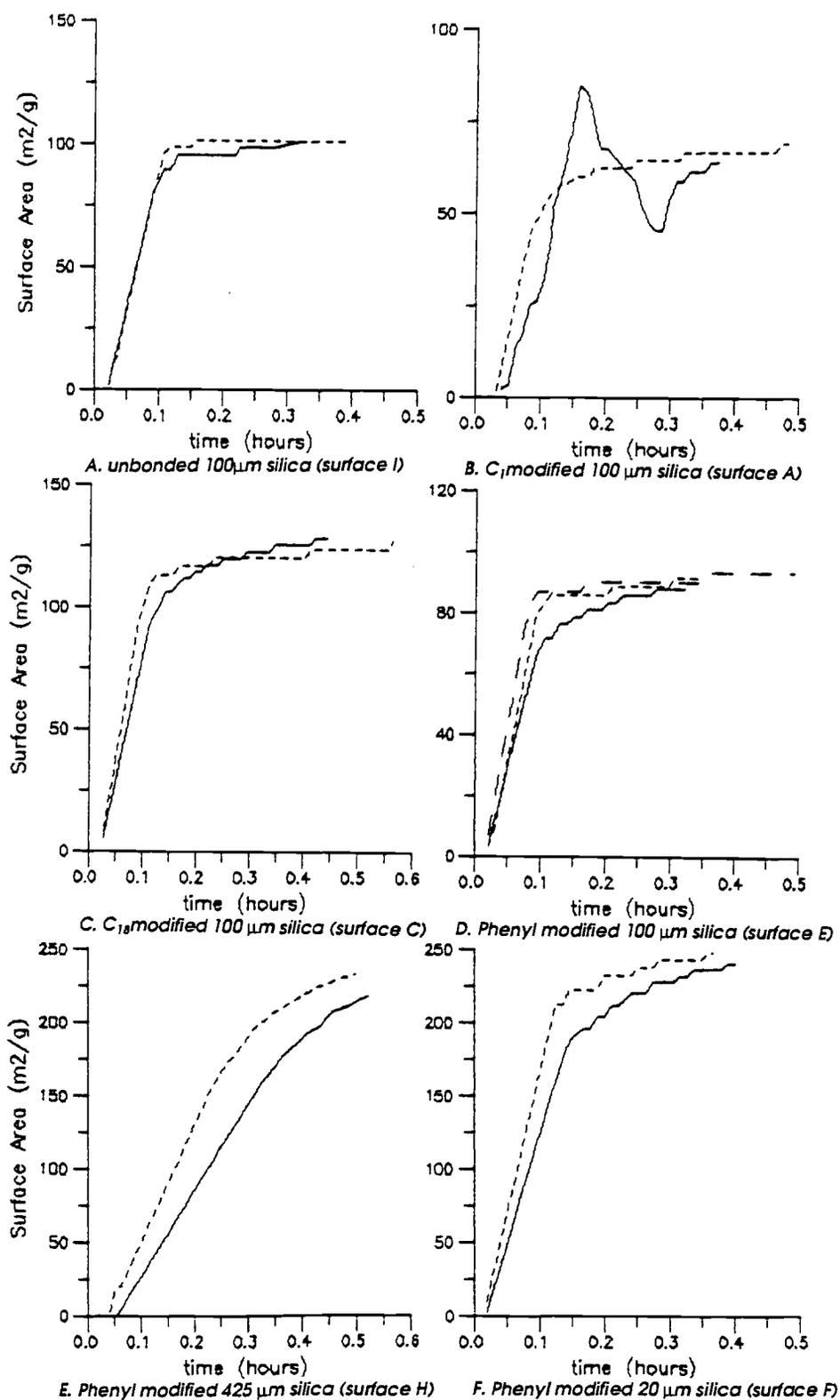
The mass of eluted hydrogen ions depends on the total surface area of the silica surface and can be correlated to nitrogen surface area.

The titrations were done under a nitrogen atmosphere (eliminating the effect of carbon dioxide in the air), and with an autotitrator. This provided accurate pH control, records of acid or base addition and the surface area. In addition, the rate to reach equilibrium was noted. The rate depends on the diffusion rate of hydrogen ions out of the porous particles. The apparatus requires 10 to 20 seconds to stabilize pH, so faster rates are not observable.

The procedure involved first cleaning the silica, adding 1.5 g of silica and 30 g of sodium chloride to 100 mL of water, stabilizing the pH at 4.00 for 30 minutes, then changing the pH to 9.00 quickly and measuring the amount of base needed to maintain that pH. Surface area ( $S_a$ ) is determined from linear regression between surface area and volume of NaOH added ( $V$ ):

$$S_a = 32V - 25 \quad (73)$$

Thirteen titrations were performed on six different surfaces, where five were modified with bound organic compounds (Figure 3.3). The steps in the curves reflect the apparatus resolution where 0.10 pH unit is 1 percent of the surface area. Unbound silica showed a surface area of  $102 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  (compared to  $200 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  on Table 3.1). Silane-modified surfaces generally showed a reduction in surface area compared to unbound;



**Figure 3.3 Surface area determination by NaOH titration**

the C<sub>1</sub> surface had an area 65 percent that of unbound silica, the C<sub>18</sub> surface had greater surface area (128 percent), and the phenyl-modified silica had a surface area that was 89 percent of unbound silica. Nitrogen adsorption surface area did not show as much reduction. Two other phenyl-polymer modified silicas (Figure 3.3E and F) also showed less surface area when compared to respective unbound silica.

Fast sorption (within 15 minutes) is observed for the unbonded silica, and the 100- $\mu\text{m}$  organic-bound particles; the rate shown at very short times is controlled by the apparatus pH adjustment rate. Slower sorption is observed for the 425- $\mu\text{m}$  phenyl-polymer-bound silica in Figure 3.3E where equilibrium is reached within 1.5 hours.

Two additional methods can be used to characterize the bonded-silica surface. Methyl red complexes with the unreacted silanol sites, turning them red [Karch *et al.*, 1976]. A copper amine complex is also adsorbed to silanol sites but is best used for determination of external activity, since adsorption to internal sites can take up to 80 days [Jennings and Brownlee, 1986].

The length of the aliphatic chain has an effect on the motion of the silane, and its accessibility to solute molecules. Chains shorter than 4 methyl groups are relatively rigid, and longer chains are flexible. The motion of the longer aliphatic chains [Beaufils *et al.*, 1985] causes the silane to occupy a larger volume in water than should occupy. This motion increases mass transfer (sorption) and the bound surface is liquid-like [Antle *et al.*, 1986]. On the other hand, if a short organic compound, such as trichlorophenylsilane, is bound to a surface, it exists as hydrated crystal clumps due to restriction in motion imposed by the absence of an alkyl chain [El-Hassan *et al.*, 1986]. This also hinders the mass transfer of solute molecules to surface sites.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy can be used to measure the external and internal surface composition. A C<sub>18</sub> monomer modified silica [Hunnicuttt *et al.*, 1986] showed no difference with depth, indicating an evenly distributed coating. Magnetic resonance spectra of an unbound and C<sub>1</sub> bound silica [Fyfe *et al.*, 1985] showed that all 9 percent of the Si(OH)<sub>2</sub> sites and about a fifth of the available SiOH sites reacted.

### 3.5 Sorbate Properties

Sorbates used in this study were chosen to be relatively simple molecules that may exhibit slow sorption and are of environmental concern. Substituted benzenes with 1-3 chloro- groups and nine batch experiment solutes are priority pollutants [Keith *et al.*, 1979]. Sixteen compounds were used in batch studies (data in Table 3.3), but only chlorinated benzenes were used in column experiments (data in Table 3.4). Physical properties such as molecular volume, radius, and area were calculated from x-ray diffraction data [Bondi, 1964]. Structure - activity relationships were used to calculate some physicochemical data [Kier and Hall, 1986] and experimental data are included where noted. For the series of chlorinated benzenes, the molecule volume doubled, but the properties changed considerably. The octanol-water partition coefficient increased four orders of magnitude, molecular diffusion decreased 40 percent, and the vapor pressure decreased six orders of magnitude.

**Table 3.3 Sorbents used in batch experiments**

Compound	Molecular Weight	Melting Point (°C)	Boiling Point (°C)	Solubility in Water (mg/l)	Log $K_{ow}$	Vapor Pressure (mm)	$K_B$ (ATM $m^2/M$ )	$D_o^1$ ( $cm^2/s$ )
1,2-Dichloroethane	98.96	-110.	76.12	11,000	1.458	107.2	$1.39 \times 10^{-3}$	$1.15 \times 10^{-5}$
1,3-Dichloropropene	111.0	-100.	109.2	8532.	1.603	31.20	$5.87 \times 10^{-4}$	$1.03 \times 10^{-5}$
Trichloroethane	133.4	-88.0	108.1	3220.	2.051	28.81	$1.73 \times 10^{-3}$	$9.85 \times 10^{-6}$
Trichloroethene	131.4	-89.0	119.1	1814.	2.267	20.72	$2.17 \times 10^{-3}$	$9.85 \times 10^{-6}$
Perchloroethene	165.8	-69.0	148.1	326.8	3.020	6.04	$4.44 \times 10^{-3}$	$8.704 \times 10^{-6}$
Toluene	92.14	15.92	118.8	328.2	2.791	17.62	$7.16 \times 10^{-3}$	$1.023 \times 10^{-5}$
Nitrobenzene	123.1	97.87	189.3	867.0	1.885	.362	$7.45 \times 10^{-5}$	$9.00 \times 10^{-6}$
Nitrotoluene	137.14	95.16	204.6	191.8	2.534	.164	$1.70 \times 10^{-4}$	$8.34 \times 10^{-6}$

<sup>1</sup>Estimated with the Stokes-Einstein Equation (51)

Table 3.4 Chlorinated benzene data

Compound	Volume <sup>1</sup> (cm <sup>3</sup> /M) (Å <sup>3</sup> /atom)	Surface Area <sup>1</sup> (cm <sup>2</sup> /M) (Å <sup>2</sup> /atom)	Dimensions <sup>2</sup> (Å) (Å) (Å)	Dipole <sup>3</sup> μ (esu)	T <sub>m</sub> <sup>3</sup> (°C)	T <sub>b</sub> <sup>3</sup> (°C)	M (g/M)	S <sub>w</sub> (mg/L)	K <sub>H</sub> (ATMm <sup>3</sup> /M)	log K <sub>ow</sub> <sup>4</sup>	log K <sub>oc</sub> <sup>5</sup>	D <sub>0</sub> <sup>6</sup> (cm <sup>2</sup> /s)	P <sub>i</sub> (mm)
Benzene	48.36 80.31	5.33 109.5	3.54 8.29 8.29	-	5.52	93.31	78.11	1490.3	0.00395	2.142	2.032	1.00 x 10 <sup>-5</sup>	52.01
CB	57.84 96.05	7.14 127.1	3.54 8.29 9.07	1.55	-4.8	132.0	112.6	339.8	0.00177	2.855	2.546	8.82 x 10 <sup>-6</sup>	3.69
1,2-DCB	67.32 111.8	8.95 142.7	3.54 8.29 9.83	2.05	-17	180.5	147.00	---	---	3.523	3.027	8.08 x 10 <sup>-6</sup>	--
1,3-DCB	67.32 111.8	8.95 144.7	3.54 8.29 9.83	1.36	-25	173.0	147.00	---	---	3.568	3.059	8.08 x 10 <sup>-6</sup>	---
1,4-DCB	67.32 111.8	8.95 144.7	3.54 8.29 9.83	0.20	3.6	174.0	147.00	79.1	0.00164	3.568	3.059	8.08 x 10 <sup>-6</sup>	0.286
1,2,3-TCB	76.80 127.5	10.76 158.3	3.54 9.07 9.83	--	52.7	218.0	181.45	---	---	4.281	3.572	7.49 x 10 <sup>-6</sup>	--
1,2,4-TCB	76.80 127.5	10.76 160.2	3.54 9.07 9.83	--	25.0	233.9	181.45	13.71	0.00140	4.281	3.572	7.49 x 10 <sup>-6</sup>	0.0730
1,3,5-TCB	76.80 127.5	10.76 162.2	3.54 9.07 9.83	0	63.2	208.0	181.45	---	---	4.281	3.572	7.49 x 10 <sup>-6</sup>	--
1,2,3,4-TeCB	86.28 143.3	12.57 173.8	3.54 9.07 9.83	-	46.9	254.0	215.9	---	---	4.994	4.086	7.00 x 10 <sup>-6</sup>	--
1,2,3,5-TeCB	86.28 143.3	12.57 175.8	3.54 9.07 9.83	-	50.8	216.0	215.9	---	---	4.994	4.086	7.00 x 10 <sup>-6</sup>	--
1,2,4,5-TeCB	86.28 143.3	12.57 175.8	3.54 9.07 9.83	-	139.1	267.4	215.9	0.188	0.00134	4.994	4.086	7.00 x 10 <sup>-6</sup>	0.00081
PCB	95.76 159.0	14.38 189.4	3.54 9.47 9.83	-	84.6	298.0	250.3	0.118	0.000288	5.107	4.599	6.58 x 10 <sup>-6</sup>	9.4 x 10 <sup>-5</sup>
HCB	105.2 174.8	16.19 203.0	3.54 9.83 9.83	0.63	228.0	322.0	285.8	---	---	6.438	5.125	6.16 x 10 <sup>-6</sup>	--

<sup>1</sup>[Bondi, 1964, Miller et al., 1984]

<sup>2</sup>[Bondi, 1964, Kier and Hall, 1986]

<sup>3</sup>[Miller et al., 1984]

<sup>4</sup>[Schwarzenbach and Westall, 1981, Hanai and Hubert, 1984]

<sup>5</sup>Calculated with equation (21)

<sup>6</sup>Calculated with equation (51)

## CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

Batch and column experiments were used to examine the sorption of hydrophobic compounds from aqueous solution to surfaces. Batch experiments were used primarily for screening of sorbate/sorbent combinations that exhibited slow sorption, and for developing isotherms. Column experiments were used to determine sorption parameters while simulating one-dimensional ground water flow.

### 4.1 Batch Experiments

#### 4.1.1 Batch Screening for Slow Sorption Combinations

Results of batch experiment indicate the relative time necessary for various sorbate-sorbent combinations to reach equilibrium. Sorption of dichloroethane (DCA) and trichloroethylene (TCE) onto unbonded porous and nonporous silica reached equilibrium within minutes. Sorption of TCE onto high- $f_{oc}$  organic-coated silica ( $C_1$ ,  $C_8$ , and  $C_{18}$ ) reached equilibrium within 30 minutes (Table 4.1), indicating some observable kinetic effects. However, tetrachloroethylene (PCE) sorption and desorption on a  $C_1$  coated silica took longer; on the order of 10 and 50 hours, respectively. Experiments of sorption of TCE onto the high- $f_{oc}$  organic-coated silica were performed with a cosolvent, methanol, in order to be able to wet the sorbent. This cosolvent lowers the  $K_p$  (see Section 2.1.3), and may cause faster sorption and desorption rates [Nkedi-Kizza *et al.*, 1987].

Sorption of 1,4-dichlorobenzene (DCB) and nitrotoluene onto unbonded porous silica (Table 4.2) reached equilibrium in 10 hours. The substituted aromatic compounds investigated generally exhibited slower desorption than sorption from organic-coated silicas. Vials for desorption experiments were equilibrated for 1-2 weeks before starting experiments. Toluene sorption and desorption on a high- $f_{oc}$   $C_{18}$  silica was relatively fast, and reached equilibrium in 30 minutes. Nitrobenzene and nitrotoluene sorption onto  $C_{18}$  silica also reached equilibrium in 30 minutes, but desorption took about 100 hours. Sorbate/sorbent combinations that exhibited the slowest behavior were DCB, 1,2,4-trichlorobenzene (TCB), and 1,2,4,5-tetrachlorobenzene (TeCB) onto phenyl and

**Table 4.1 Batch results with aliphatic sorbents**

Solute	(μg cm <sup>-3</sup> )	Sorbent <sup>1</sup>		r <sub>sw</sub> (g cm <sup>-3</sup> )	K <sub>p</sub> (cm <sup>3</sup> g <sup>-1</sup> )	Time Scale <sup>2</sup>	
		ident	type			sorb(hr)	des(hr)
dichloroethane	0.217	J	unb	0.29	3.16	1.0	---
dichloropropene	0.185	J	unb	0.36	0.46	0.5	---
trichloroethane	0.211	J	unb	0.36	0.78	1.0	---
trichloroethane	0.303	J	unb	0.34	0.95	1.0	---
trichloroethene	0.210	J	unb	0.34	0.60	2.0	---
trichloroethene	0.187	AC	unb	0.19	3.17	1.0	---
trichloroethene	0.176	AD	unb	0.25	3.59	20.0	---
trichloroethene	0.176	K	unb	0.094	13.4	2.0	---
trichloroethene <sup>3</sup>	0.149	L	C <sub>1</sub>	0.023	42.3	1.0	1.0
trichloroethene <sup>3</sup>	0.199	L	C <sub>1</sub>	0.023	48.8	1.0	---
trichloroethene <sup>3</sup>	0.201	AA	C <sub>2</sub>	0.031	94.5	2.0	---
trichloroethene <sup>3</sup>	0.225	M	C <sub>8</sub>	0.0094	132.	0.5	---
trichloroethene <sup>3</sup>	0.199	M	C <sub>8</sub>	0.032	90.3	1.0	---
trichloroethene <sup>c</sup>	0.185	N	C <sub>18</sub>	0.031	260	1.0	1.0
trichloroethene <sup>c</sup>	0.209	N	C <sub>18</sub>	0.026	274	1.0	---
trichloroethene	0.145	AT	C <sub>18</sub>	0.026	2.75	1.0	---
trichloroethene	0.198	AB	amine	0.095	5.65	1.0	---
perchloroethene	0.199	L	C <sub>1</sub>	0.022	118	10.0	50.0
perchloroethene	0.200	N	C <sub>18</sub>	0.034	937	1.0	2.0
perchloroethene	0.192	J	unb	0.31	2.65	2.0	---

<sup>1</sup>See Table 3.1.<sup>2</sup>Time after which no change in K<sub>p</sub> ± 2 percent.<sup>3</sup>Methanol used as a cosolvent.

Table 4.2 Batch results with aromatic sorbents

Solute	(μg cm <sup>-3</sup> )	Sorbent <sup>1</sup>		r <sub>sw</sub> (g cm <sup>-3</sup> )	K <sub>p</sub> (cm <sup>3</sup> g <sup>-1</sup> )	Time Scale <sup>2</sup>	
		ident	type			sorb(hr)	des(hr)
toluene	5.620	N	C <sub>18</sub>	0.029	33.8	1.0	1.0
nitrobenzene	0.971	AU	C <sub>18</sub>	0.056	7.65	1.0	100
nitrotoluene	1.005	I	unb	0.118	4.78	0.2	---
nitrotoluene	1.005	W	unb	0.118	9.86	0.2	---
nitrotoluene	1.005	AJ	unb	0.118	1.62	0.5	---
nitrotoluene	1.005	AR	unb	0.118	2825	2.0	---
nitrotoluene	1.005	P	unb	0.118	5.67	0.5	---
nitrotoluene	1.005	AU	C <sub>18</sub>	0.056	9.53	0.5	100
1,4-DCB	6.000	AE	unb	0.056	3.86	10.0	---
1,4-DCB	0.810	AE	unb	0.056	2.74	5.0	---
1,4-DCB	0.506	N	C <sub>18</sub>	0.29	1073	0.2	0.5
1,4-DCB	3.785	AT	C <sub>18</sub>	0.056	21.6	1.0	20.0
1,4-DCB	10.40	AT	C <sub>18</sub>	0.056	11.5	0.5	1.0
1,4-DCB	0.483	C	C <sub>18</sub>	0.056	17.3	1.0	22.0
1,4-DCB	0.393	E	PhP	0.111	19.9	2.0	---
1,4-DCB	0.548	H	PhP	0.111	10.7	1.0	22.0
1,2,4-TCB	0.320	H	PhP	0.111	89.9	21.0	50.0
1,2,4,5-TeCB	0.245	C	C <sub>18</sub>	0.056	111	20.0	21.0
1,2,4,5-TeCB	0.105	H	PhP	0.111	36.0	23.0	100
PCB	0.030	P	unb	0.056	25.8	1.0	---

<sup>1</sup>See Table 3.1.<sup>2</sup>Time after which no change in K<sub>p</sub> ± 2 percent.

C<sub>18</sub> coated silica. The first-order rate coefficients were on the order of  $10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$  for sorption and  $10^{-3}$  to  $10^{-4}$  for desorption.

In most cases, diffusion or chemical models were not fit to data because only an estimate of the time scale for equilibration was needed. Batch screening indicated that substituted aromatics showed the slowest sorption and desorption. Two surfaces were examined further in batch experiments, the C<sub>18</sub>-modified silica, and phenyl-polymer modified silica.

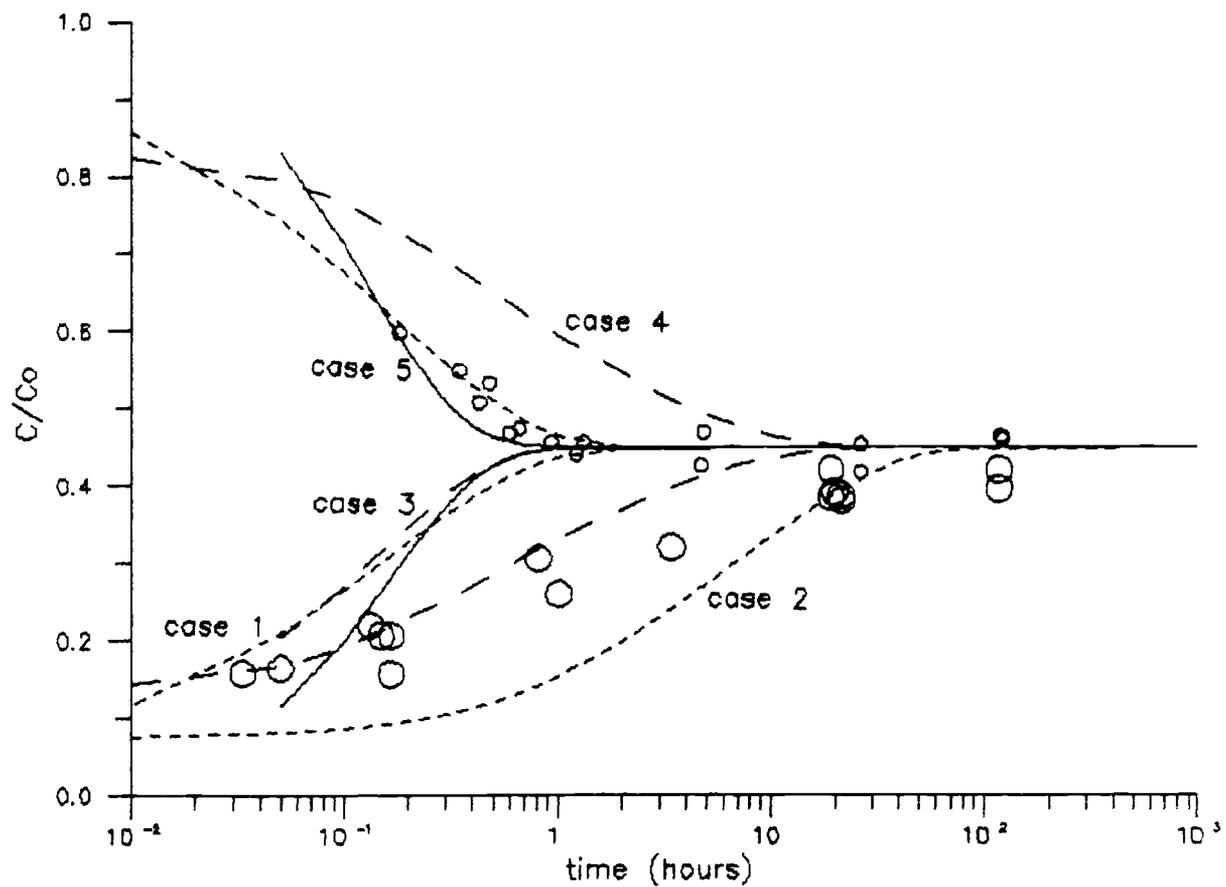
#### 4.1.2 Batch Results of Chlorinated Benzenes and C<sub>18</sub> Silica

DCB sorption onto a high- $f_{oc}$  C<sub>18</sub>-coated silica was examined in detail with planar and spherical diffusion and first-order chemical models (Figure 4.1). The data show faster sorption (within 1 hour) than desorption (up to 20 hours).

With a single diffusion parameter, the spherical diffusion model (equation 33) gave a relatively good fit to the sorption data, but a poor fit to the desorption data (case 1 on Figure 4.1). In case 2, the desorption data were fit using a diffusion constant 3-fold smaller; the point at 20 hours was used for the fit. The sorption data, however, cannot be fit with the diffusion constant obtained in case 2.

A planar diffusion model is mathematically similar to the spherical diffusion model, but with a slightly steeper slope before reaching equilibrium. The model fit to the sorption data is good (case 3), but the model fit to the desorption data is poor. Using parameter  $\alpha$  in the model ( $\theta/\rho_b K_p$ ) as a fitting parameter rather than fixing it at the appropriate value, a change in slope can be made that results in a better fit to the desorption data (case 4). This corresponds to a  $K_p$  of  $154 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ , or 7 times larger than indicated by the equilibrium  $K_p$  from the desorption data.

The best model fit is obtained with either a planar or a spherical diffusion model using the observed  $K_p$  with the sorption data, and using a seven-fold higher  $K_p$  with the desorption data. Spherical diffusion is probably closer to the actual diffusional geometry of the particle, however, planar diffusion is appropriate for diffusion into the surface



- Case 1: Spherical Diffusion ( $D = 5.5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$ )  
 Case 2: Spherical Diffusion ( $D = 1.8 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$ )  
 Case 3: Planar Diffusion ( $D = 6.3 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$ )  
 Case 4: Planar Diffusion ( $D = 1.2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  $K_p = 154 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ )  
 Case 5: First-order Reaction ( $K_p = 22 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ,  $k_f = 1.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  $k_b = 1.4 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ )

**Figure 4.1 Sorption/desorption of 1,4-DCB onto  $C_{18}$  modified silica**

organic layer (which is not very thick). However, since different model parameters are needed for sorption and desorption, diffusion alone is not causing the observed slow approach to equilibrium; the desorption tailing must be caused by the chemical nature of the sorbent.

A first-order chemical model (equation 30) was fit to the data in case 5 (Figure 4.1). As with the diffusion models, a better model fit was obtained with the sorption data compared to the model fit to the desorption data. Note that the first-order model does allow for a difference in rate of approach to equilibrium between sorption and desorption. The desorption data were modeled with a slightly smaller coefficient than the sorption data. The sorption rate was on the order of  $2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$  and desorption rate  $1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , although the model fit to the desorption data was poor. This surface was a porous silica that was not well characterized, so additional experiments were done on well characterized silica modified with  $\text{C}_{18}$  polymer (sorbent C).

The first-order model fit to DCB sorption onto the  $\text{C}_{18}$ -modified surface (Figure 4.2A) gave a good fit with  $k_f = 1.1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , and the desorption data fit with  $k_b = 3.8 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . The first-order model fit of TeCB sorption onto the  $\text{C}_{18}$  surface (Figure 4.2B) gave a good fit with  $k_f = 2.8 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$  and desorption with  $k_b = 6.3 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . Note that as sorption increases from DCB to TeCB, the ratio of  $k_f/k_b$  increases, corresponding to a slight increase in  $k_f$  and a large decrease in  $k_b$ . The model fit was made with equations (31) and (32).

#### **4.1.3 Batch Results of Chlorinated Benzenes and Phenyl-Silica**

Sorption and desorption rates of DCB, TCB, and TeCB on a phenyl-polymer modified silica (surface H) were examined with batch experiments and modeled with a first-order chemical model as shown in Figure 4.3. Dichlorobenzene sorption ( $k_f = 9.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) and desorption ( $k_b = 5.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) again showed a good fit to the sorption data and a fair fit to the desorption data. Desorption appeared to proceed as fast as sorption when far from equilibrium, but near equilibrium, the rate was slower (Figure 4.3A).

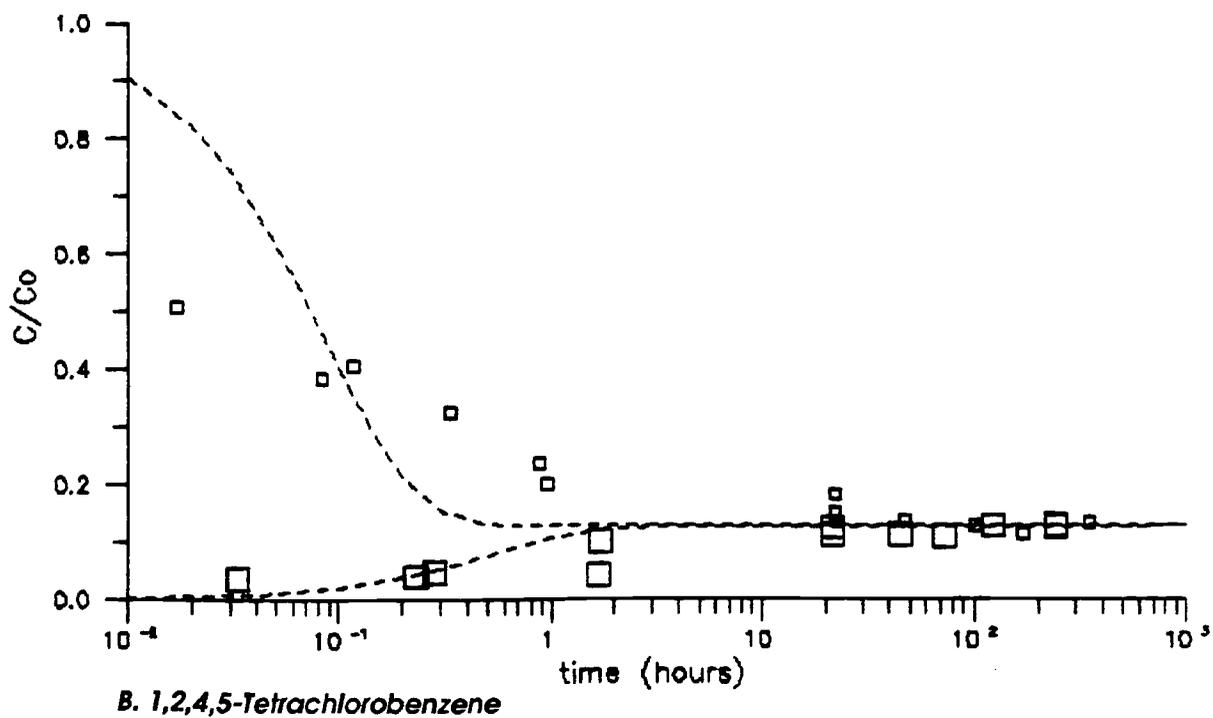
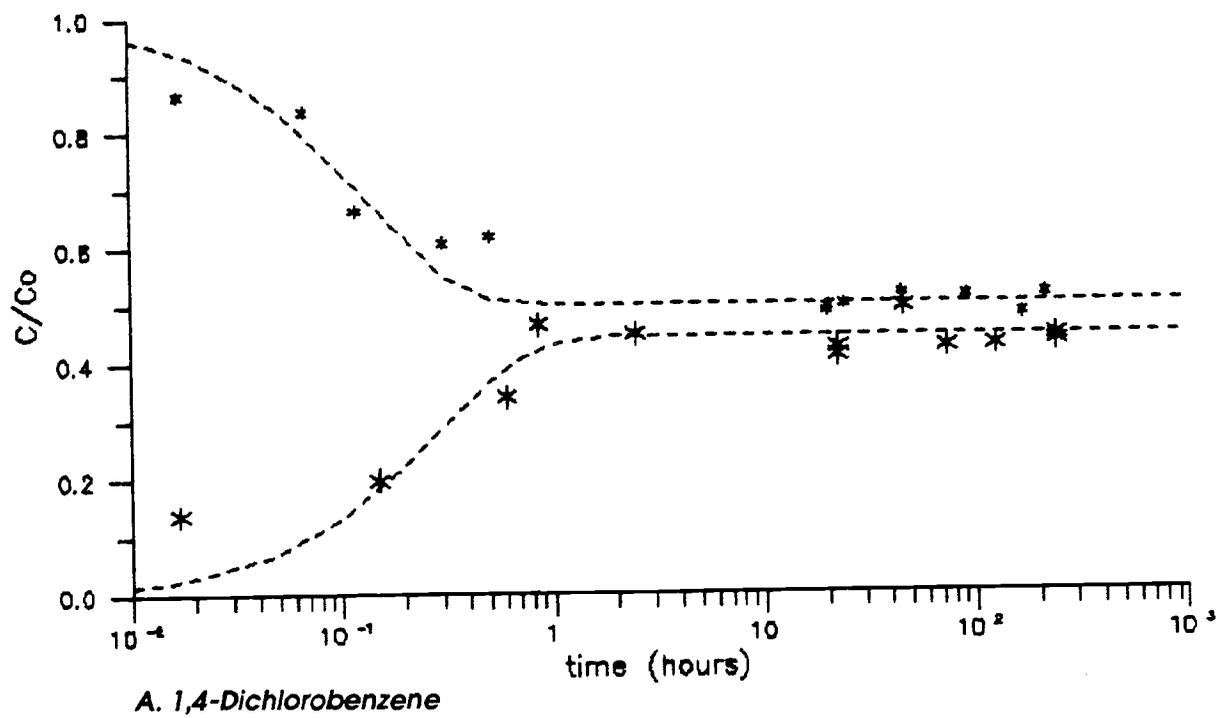


Figure 4.2 Batch sorption/desorption onto  $C_{18}$  modified silica

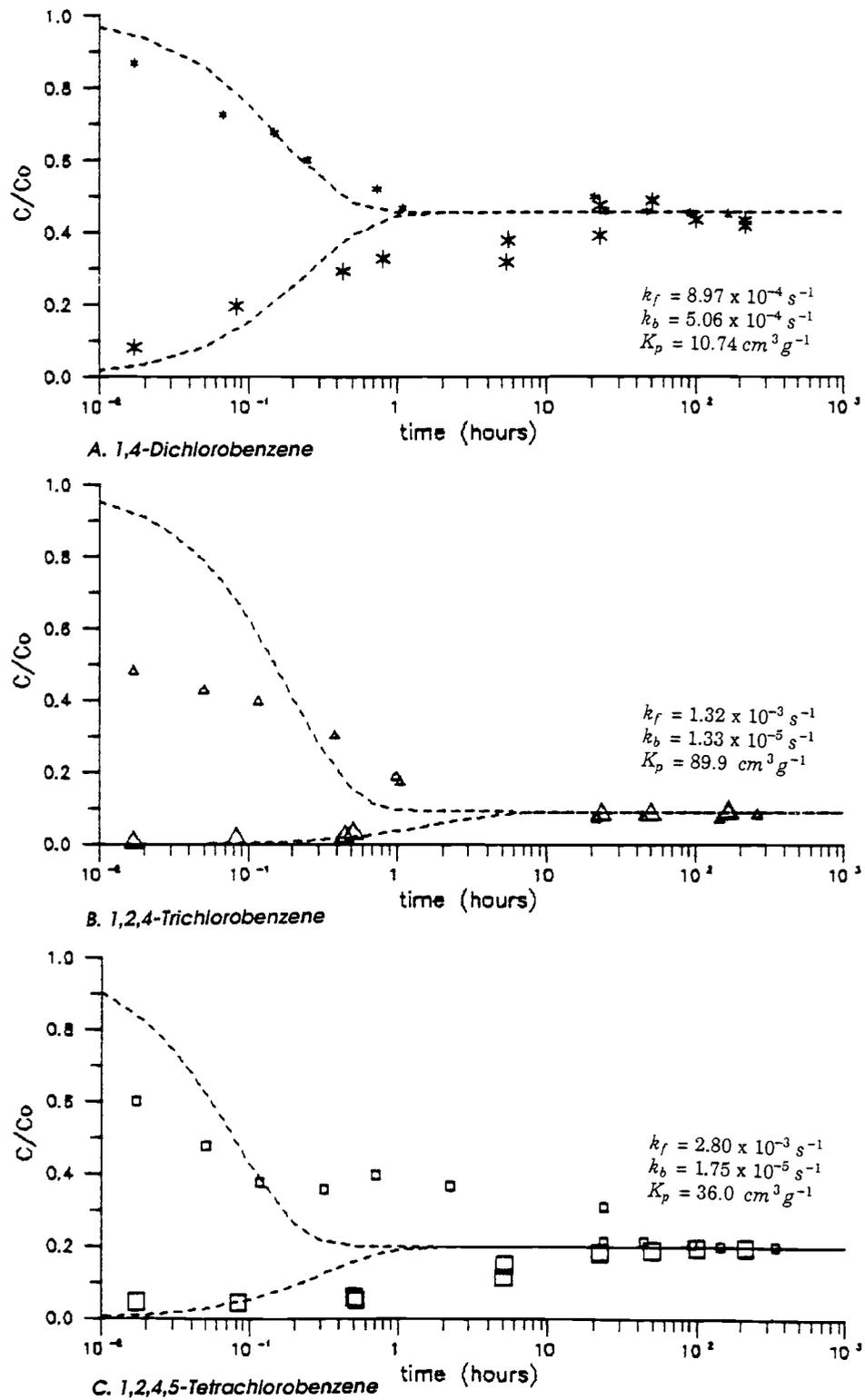


Figure 4.3 Batch sorption/desorption onto phenyl polymer modified silica (surface E)

Sorption of TCB ( $k_f = 1.3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) exhibited about the same rate as DCB, but desorption was slower ( $k_b = 1.3 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ). The model fit to the desorption data was uncertain due to small  $f_l$  at equilibrium (Figure 4.3B). Sorption of TeCB ( $k_f = 2.8 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) was slightly faster than other chlorinated benzenes (Figure 4.3C), and desorption was slower ( $k_b = 1.8 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) by 1.5 orders of magnitude compared to DCB. As discussed in the Section 3.2, the sorption data are more accurate ( $\pm 2$  percent) than the desorption data ( $\pm 5$  percent) due to more steps in the procedure for desorption experiments.

Note that the sorption and desorption of DCB appeared to have almost identical rates for both  $\text{C}_{18}$  and phenyl modified surfaces (same diameter particles), whereas the desorption rate of the TeCB data was half an order of magnitude slower than indicated by the phenyl silica data. With the sampling procedure used, accurate samples cannot be obtained in less than one minute. The lack of difference in the reaction rates may be caused by this experimental limitation, where the actual rate may be faster. Column experiments were used to determine faster sorption rates.

#### **4.1.4 Isotherms of DCB Sorption Onto Phenyl Modified Silica**

Equilibrium partitioning of 1,4-dichlorobenzene on a phenyl modified silica (surface F) was examined, with concentrations ranging from  $10 \text{ ng cm}^{-3}$  to the solubility limit ( $87 \text{ } \mu\text{g cm}^{-3}$ ). The lower limit was 20 times the minimum detection limit, so is subject to error with even a small amount of contamination or analytical error. A total of 60 vials were analyzed for this isotherm at sixteen different concentrations (Figure 4.4A), with an average  $K_p$  of  $39 \pm 16 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ .

A power-series fit to the full data set (Figure 4.4A) gave an exponent of 0.92 ( $r^2 = 0.961$ ), indicating virtually no decrease in partitioning even at the solubility limit; justifying the claim that the number of available sorption sites is large compared to the number of sorbed sites. The calculated number of sites occupied is 1/100,000 at a concentration of  $500 \text{ } \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  (most experiments).

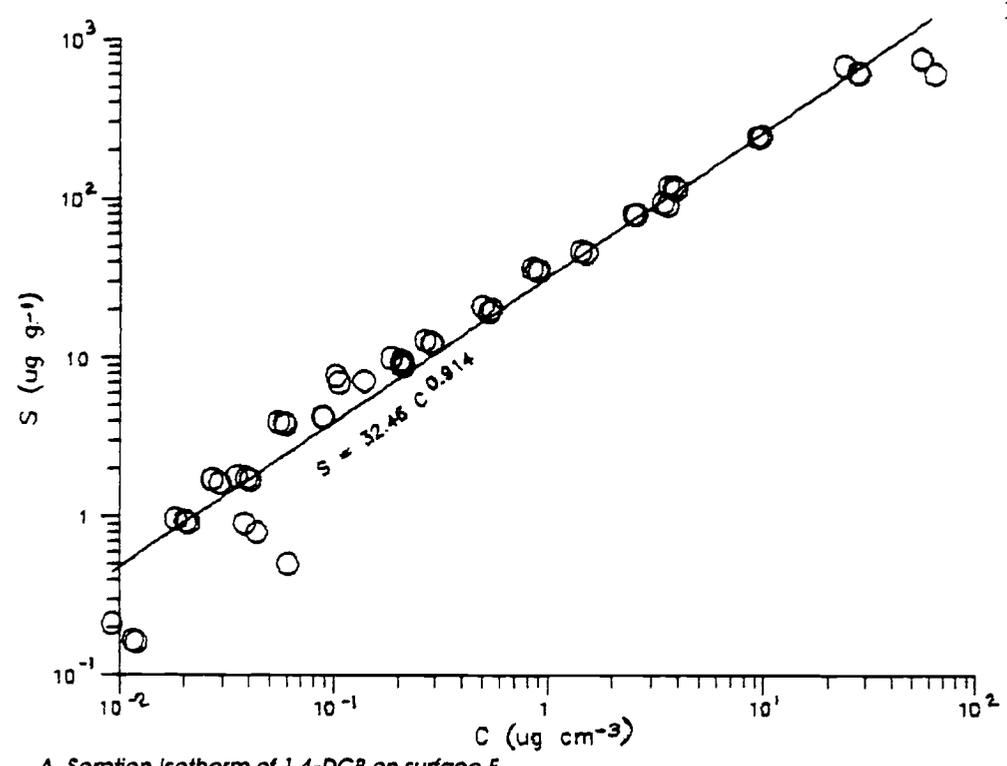
Column experiments are generally run at concentrations lower than  $1.0 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ , so an isotherm of all partitioning data below this limit has a power series exponent of 1.08 ( $r^2 = 0.894$ ), which indicates slightly greater sorption above  $500 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ . The slope of the low-concentration data is not significantly different from 1.00 at the 90 percent confidence level, so a linear isotherm was used in modeling data from the column experiments. A trend of slight decrease in  $K_p$  at higher concentrations is shown in Figure 4.4B, with considerable variation at very low concentrations. A nonlinear isotherm has some effect on the breakthrough curve shape (Section 2.2.7), but with exponential values of 1.08, there is essentially no noticeable effect, and a linear isotherm is assumed for modeling column experiments.

Isotherms were also developed from column experiments to test the linearity of sorption and desorption (Section 4.4.4.2). A sorption isotherm was also calculated from a single column experiment (equation 76), assuming the sorption reaction is at equilibrium at all times.

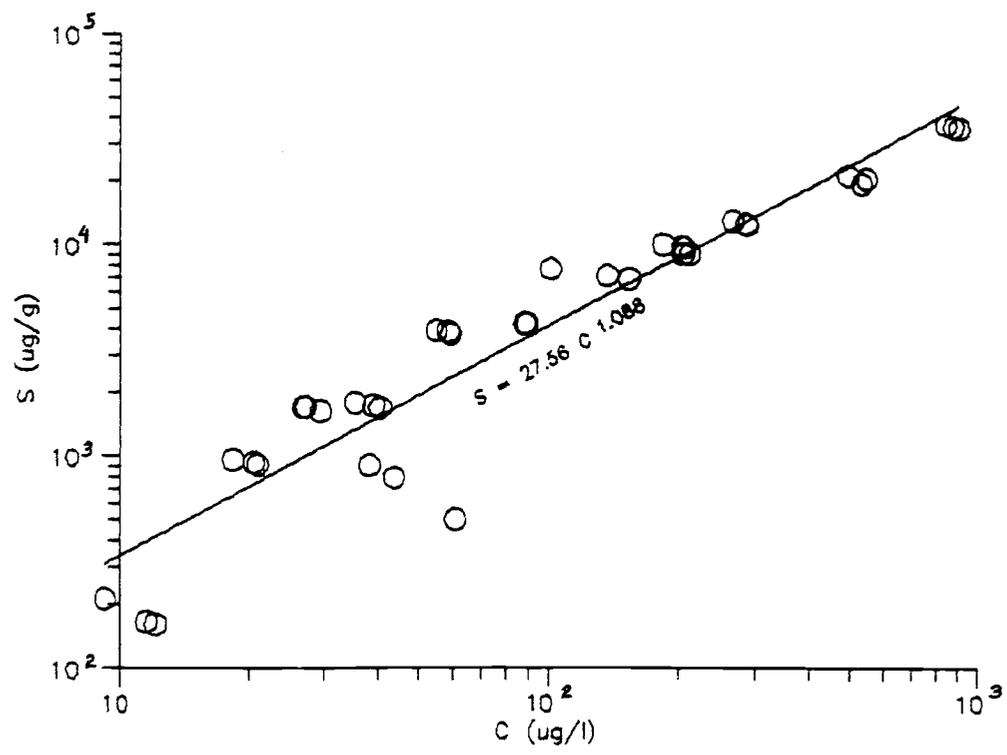
## **4.2 Ionic Tracer Breakthrough**

### **4.2.1 Ion Exclusion**

The breakthrough curve for a nonsorbing tracer, KCl, was used as an independent estimate of the void volume in the column. Experiments were performed to determine the ionic strength range where anion exclusion would be minimized so that KCl breakthrough could be considered conservative. Premature breakthrough of anions caused by the exclusion produces a pore volume (and porosity) value smaller than the total. Since chromatographic silica has a large amount of surface area, and exclusion is a near surface phenomena, a large amount of exclusion is possible. A total of forty KCl breakthrough experiments were performed; results are shown in Appendix A. The total porosity of 100- $\mu\text{m}$  porous silica when packed into columns is about 0.86, of which intraparticle porosity is 0.46, and interparticle porosity is 0.40 [Iler, 1979]. Porosities are calculated from KCl breakthrough experiments, where the initial (in the column) and final



A. Sorption Isotherm of 1,4-DCB on surface F



B. Sorption Isotherm for concentrations less than 1.0 ppm DCB

Figure 4.4 Sorption isotherm of DCB

(breakthrough) ionic strength are similar (Figure 4.5A). In these experiments, the initial and final ionic strength differed by two fold (0.01 M and 0.02 M, for example). The data show that the calculated porosity is reduced by anion exclusion from near surface pore space at an ionic strength below  $10^{-3}$  M.

The distance from the surface over which anions are excluded is approximately equal to the double diffuse layer thickness. For a monovalent electrolyte at 25°C, this distance ( $1/\kappa$  in nm) is given by [Stumm and Morgan, 1981]:

$$\frac{1}{\kappa} = 0.28 I^{-1/2} \quad (74)$$

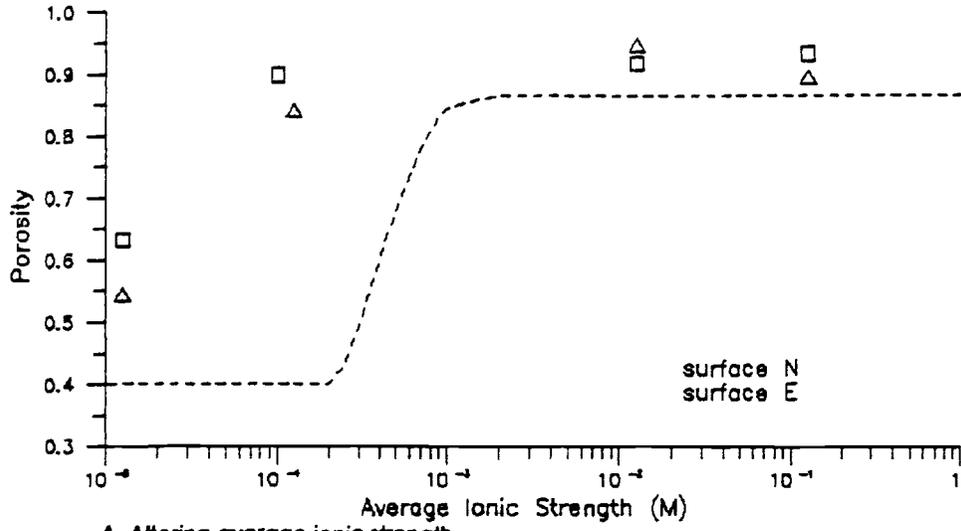
where  $I$  is the ionic strength (M). An analysis used in soil systems substitutes a step function for the actual exponential decrease of anions (and increase of cations) near charged surfaces [Krupp et al., 1972]:

$$d_s = 0.448 I^{-1/2} - 0.0566 \quad (75)$$

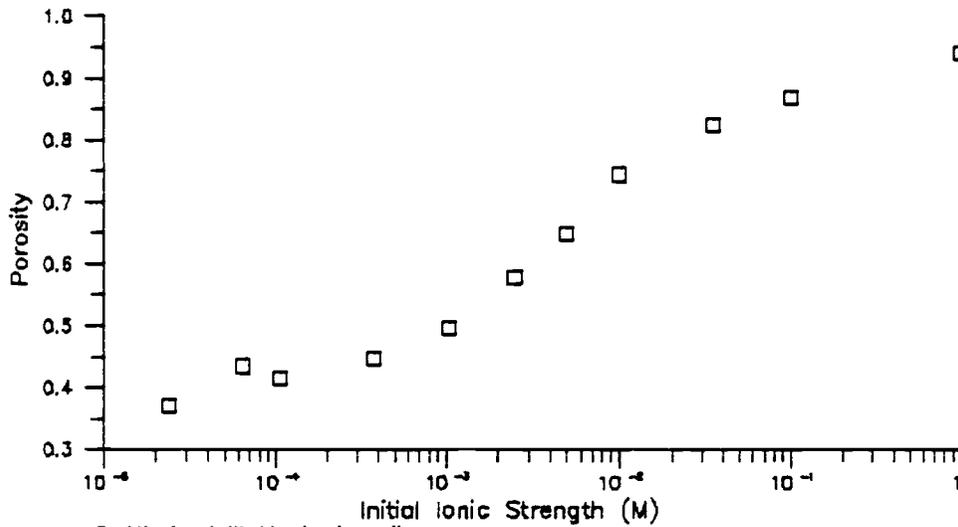
where  $d_s$  is the exclusion distance (nm), and constants for silica have been included in the two coefficients.

The change in the calculated porosity of KCl at different ionic strengths (Figure 4.5A) shows up to 50 percent exclusion (all intraparticle volume) at  $10^{-4}$  M ionic strength, and no effect at  $10^{-3}$  M. This narrow ionic strength range is due to the narrow pore size distribution.

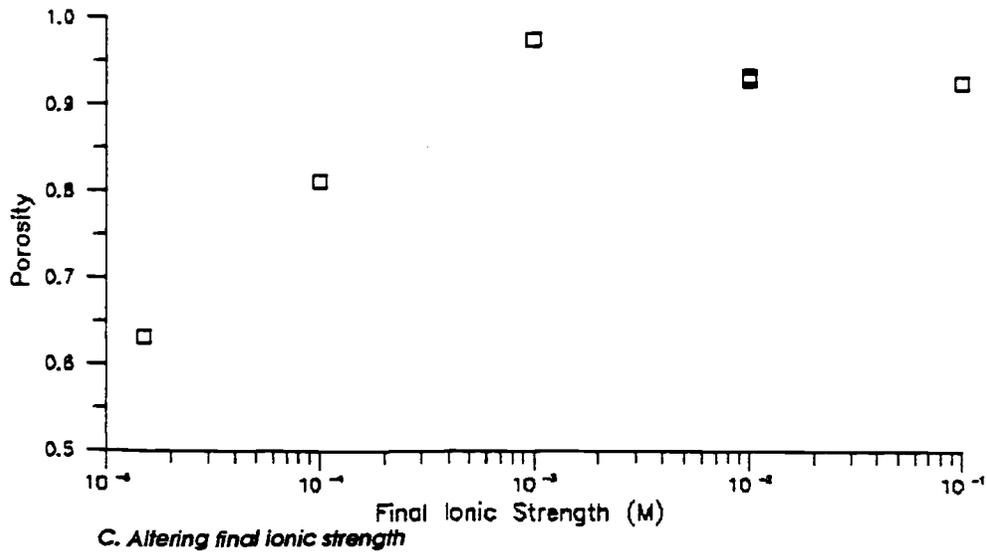
The magnitude and direction of the step change in ionic strength also affects the amount of anion exclusion (and the calculated porosity). Eleven experiments were run varying only the initial KCl concentration from  $10^{-5}$  to 1 M, and keeping the final concentration at  $10^{-5}$  M for maximum effect (Figure 4.5B). Up to a 60 percent decrease in calculated porosity is observed at concentrations below  $10^{-4}$  M. In addition, six experiments were done in which the final ionic strength was varied (Figure 4.5C). These showed exclusion at concentrations below  $10^{-2}$  M. Experiments in which the final ionic strength was varied did not show as much exclusion as varying the initial ionic



A. Altering average ionic strength



B. Altering initial ionic strength



C. Altering final ionic strength

Figure 4.5 ionic strength effect on porosity

strength, since at a KCl concentration of  $10^{-5}$  M, exclusion was only about 30 percent (varying final ionic strength), compared to 60 percent when varying initial ionic strength.

Results show that the exclusion process is dynamic, which is not indicated with the static exclusion models. In the frontal analysis of breakthrough curves [Jacobson *et al.*, 1984], the porosity is calculated based on the final solute concentration, so in effect, the porosity is considered independent of the initial ionic strength [Horvath and Lin, 1976]. The average porosity in a column could be estimated using a numerical simulation to describe changing porosity during ion breakthrough. If the kinetics of reaching anion sorption equilibrium are important, then the calculated porosity would be more dependent on initial ionic strength. This conclusion is likely, since varying initial ionic strength had more effect on the calculated porosity.

#### 4.2.2 Dispersion of the Ionic Tracer

In order to separate spreading of solute due to a slow interaggregate process from hydrodynamic dispersion, the effects of velocity, column diameter and length, and repacking on dispersion were investigated. Results from eleven different sorbate/column groups were correlated with velocity (Table 4.3). As expected, there was no correlation between column length or diameter and dispersion. Many results have a large error due to the small number of experiments. The larger particles generally showed greater dispersion than the smaller particles. This is expected as interparticle diffusion is greater for the larger aggregate particles (Table 2.7).

Considering data from all the column experiments ( $n = 139$ ) produces the relation between velocity and dispersion illustrated in Figure 4.6A ( $r^2 = 0.851$ ). The spread in the data is due to repacking the same sorbent into a column, dissolution of the sorbent, or grain rearrangement due to the pressure in the column. Running experiments with a single column (not repacked) produces a better correlation between velocity and dispersion (Figure 4.6B,  $r^2 = 0.995$ ), with the relationship being similar to the overall trend shown in Figure 4.6A (all experiments). The power series relationship of Figure 4.6B ( $D$

**Table 4.3 Hydrodynamic dispersion of an ionic tracer**

Sorbate Dia.( $\mu\text{m}$ )	Name	Column Dia.x Length (cm)	Number of exp.	Power Series Fit	$r^2$
2 $\mu\text{m}$ Solid	AH,O,U	1.0 x 5.0	3	$D = 0.119 v^{0.755}$	
20 $\mu\text{m}$	F	0.9 x 14	3	$D = 2.61 \times 10^{-12} v^{-6.74}$	
	G	1.0 x 14	3	$D = 5.18 \times 10^6 v^{6.38}$	
100 $\mu\text{m}$ Phenyl	E	0.9 x 5.0	19	$D = 0.859 v^{1.66}$	
	E	1.0 x 14	4	$D = 12.4 v^{1.57}$	
100 $\mu\text{m}$ Unbonded	I,D	0.9 x 5.0	11	$D = 5.23 \times 10^7 v^{7.23}$	
100 $\mu\text{m}$ Aliphatic	I,B,C	1.0 x 14	42	$D = 0.150 v^{1.10}$	
All 100 $\mu\text{m}$	I,B,C X,R,T	0.9 x 14	16	$D = 0.465 v^{1.17}$	
100 $\mu\text{m}$ Unbonded	I	0.9 x 14	7	$D = 0.267 v^{1.303}$	0.984 <sup>1</sup>
236 $\mu\text{m}$	Y,Z	1.0 x 10.5	3	$D = 7.39 v^{2.23}$	
425 $\mu\text{m}$	V	0.9 x 25	3	$D = 6.28 v^{1.83}$	
	H	1.0 x 14	3	$D = 5.5 \times 10^{-30} v^{-19.2}$	
All Sizes	All	All	139	$D = 0.210 v^{1.137}$	0.851 <sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Shown in Figure 4.6B.<sup>2</sup>Shown in Figure 4.6A.

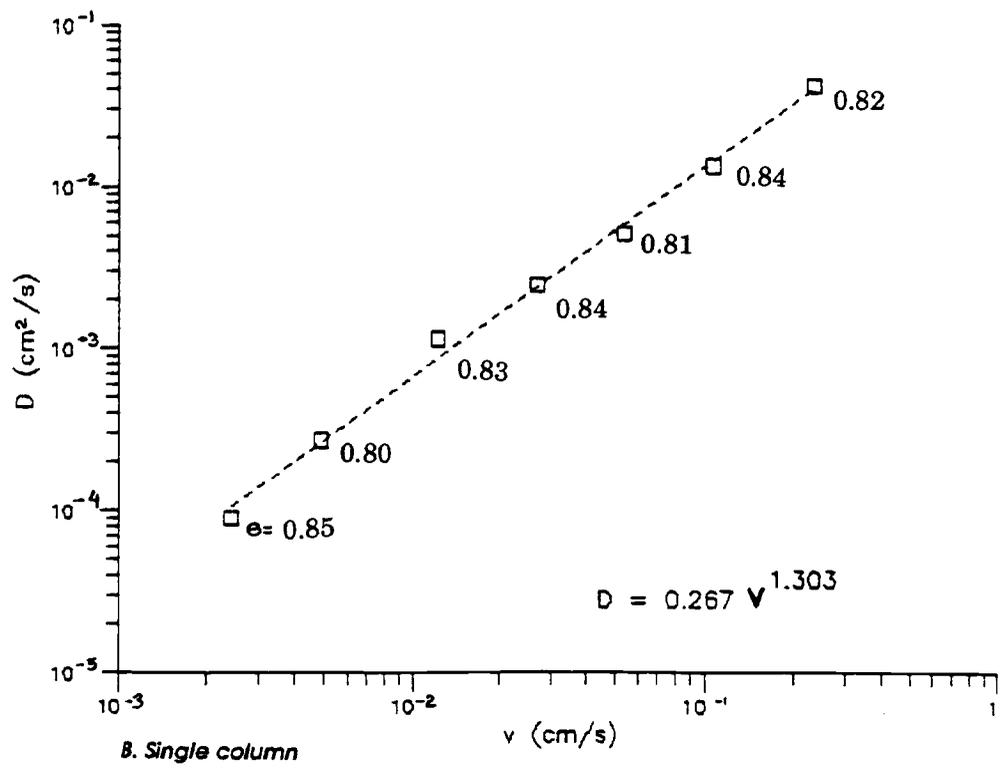
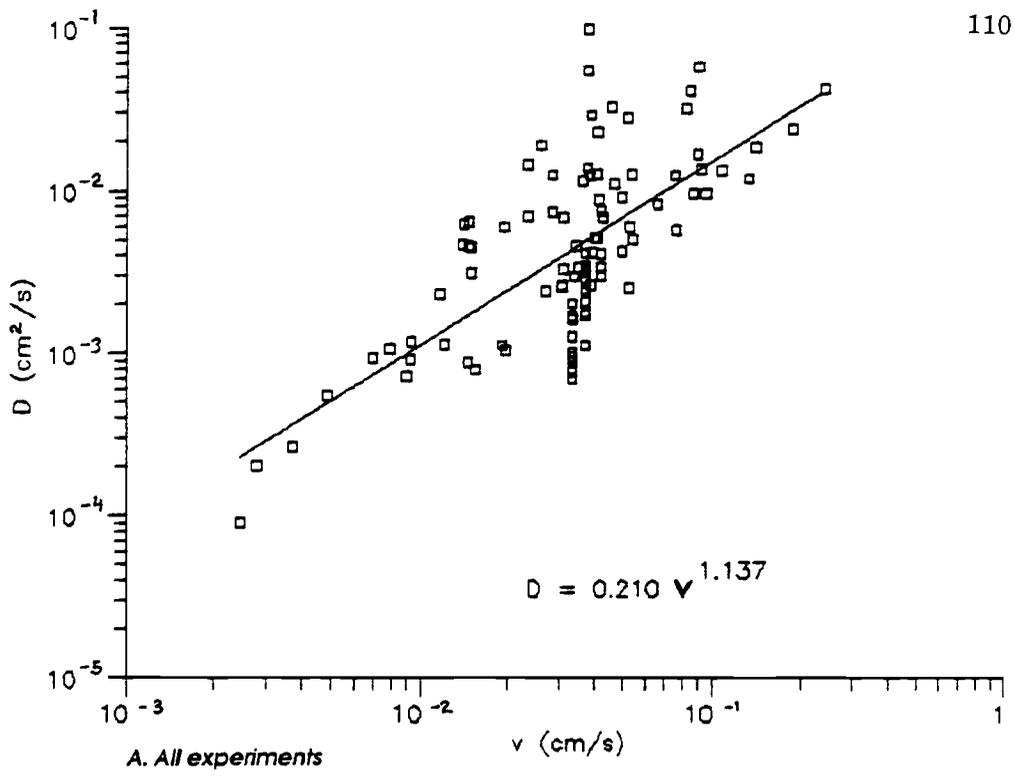


Figure 4.6 Velocity dependence of dispersion

$= 0.267 v^{1.31}$ ) was used to estimate KCl dispersion for subsequent experiments in the few cases where a good KCl breakthrough curve was not obtained.

The pressure in the column changes from  $< 100$  psi at low velocities ( $0.0017 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  in Figure 4.6B) to over 3000 psi for  $0.15 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$ . As indicated by the porosities shown next to points in Figure 4.6B, there is no correlation of porosity with pressure.

### 4.3 Solute Sorption Onto Unbonded Mineral Surfaces

An acidic surface (silica) and a basic surface (alumina) were used in experiments to determine the extent of partitioning of chlorinated benzenes to unbonded surfaces. Sorption was fast in all cases, with little evidence of nonequilibrium behavior.

#### 4.3.1 Silica

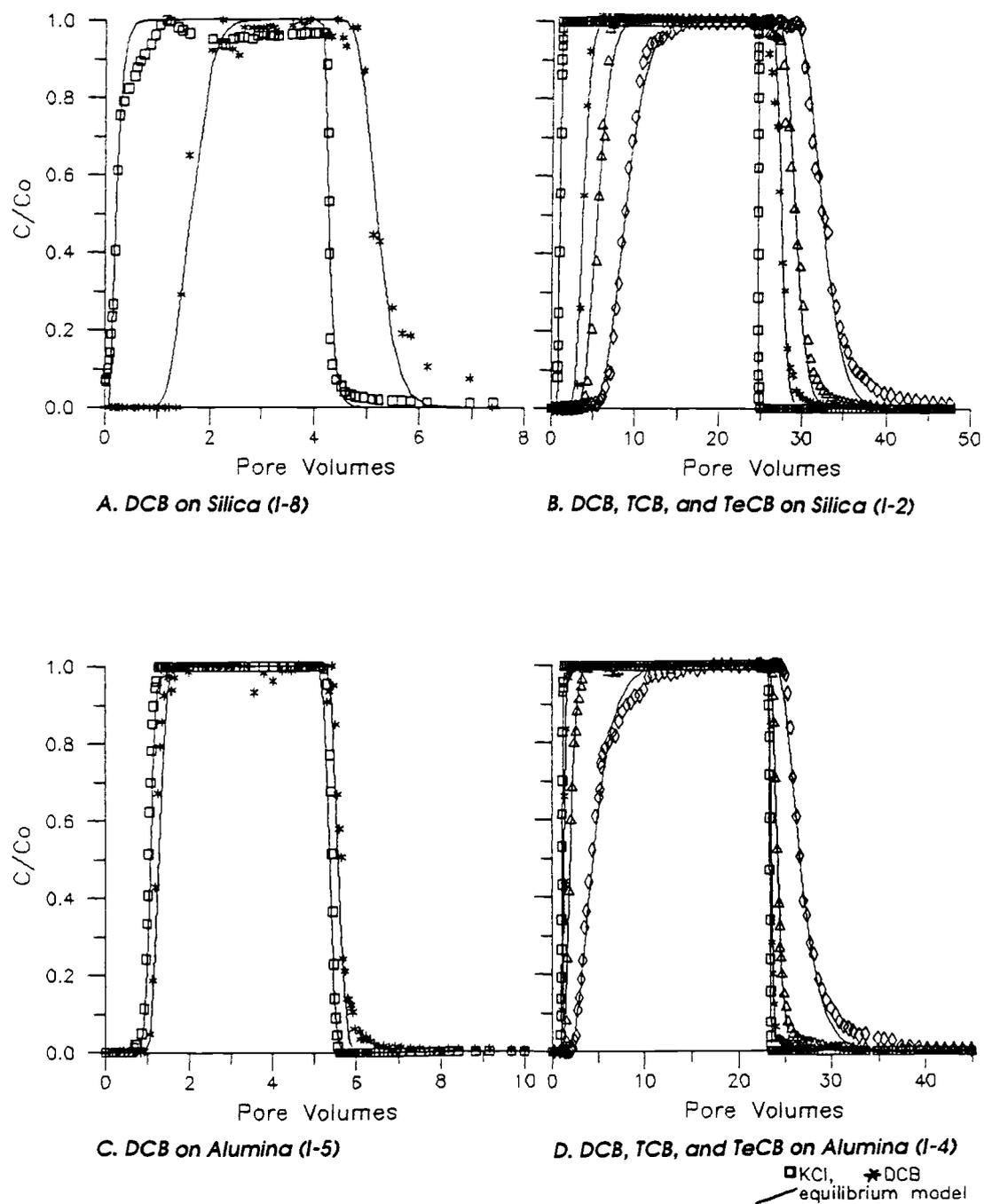
Six column experiments using two unbonded silicas were performed with sorption of DCB, two with TCB, and two with TeCB. All experiments are shown in Appendix C-1, with modeling results in Table 4.4. Sorption of DCB onto 100- $\mu\text{m}$  porous silica (surface I; shown in Figure 4.7A) had an average  $K_p$  of  $4.05 \pm 0.95$  (Table 4.4), which was fast and reversible sorption. Sorption of DCB onto 425- $\mu\text{m}$  porous silica (surface V) had a  $K_p$  of 3.01 (higher surface area) and was also fast and reversible. The  $K_p$  for sorption divided by the  $K_p$  for desorption ( $K_{ps}/K_{pd}$ ) was slightly greater than 1.0 in both cases ( $1.32 \pm 0.49$  for surface I and  $1.17 \pm 0.27$  for surface V). Since four of the experiments on the 100- $\mu\text{m}$  surface were the earliest experiments when the experimental procedure was still being refined, the error was larger, possibly accounting for this discrepancy.

The equilibrium model fits to the data suggest that DCB breakthrough was near equilibrium since the  $D_{DCB}/D_{KCl}$  ratio was  $2.17 \pm 0.81$  for the 100- $\mu\text{m}$  silica and 3.11 for the single experiment on the 425- $\mu\text{m}$  silica. Calculated ratios (Table 2.7) are on the order of 1.4 for the 100- $\mu\text{m}$  and 1.9 for the 500- $\mu\text{m}$  particles. Equilibrium sorption is also indicated by the first-order model fits, which give large  $\omega$ 's ( $> 60$ ). The best estimate of the first-order model  $k_b$  (Table 4.4) is  $0.024 \text{ s}^{-1}$  for 100- $\mu\text{m}$  silica and  $0.013 \text{ s}^{-1}$  for 425- $\mu\text{m}$  silica. This indicates that the time scale of the sorption reaction (defined by

Table 4.4 Sorption onto unbonded surfaces

Exp.	Sorbent	Solute	Equilibrium Model					First Order Model					Two Region Model				
			$D_{\text{fca}}$ ( $\text{cm}^2/\text{s}$ )	$K_{\text{ps}}^{-1} K_{\text{sp}}^{\text{rev}}$ ( $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$ )	$K_{\text{p}}$ ( $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$ )	$D$ ( $\text{cm}^2/\text{s}$ )	$D/\Delta_{\text{fca}}$ esq	$K_{\text{p}}$ ( $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$ )	$N_{\text{D}}$	$k_{\text{b}}$ ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ )	esq	$K_{\text{p}}$ ( $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$ )	$N_{\text{D}}$	$\alpha_{\text{e}}$ ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ )	$f$	esq	
I-6 Y	FQ-N	DCB	0.0033	...	0.005	0.0281	7.84	0.7230	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		
I-7 Z			0.00688	5.731 4.304 1.332	3.555	0.00856	1.24	0.2700	...	...	...	...	...	...			
I-8 ZZ			0.00744	5.235 2.479 2.112	1.659	0.00121	1.63	0.1885	...	...	...	...	...	...			
I-9 ZB			0.00108	3.346 2.300 1.455	3.552	0.00275	2.59	0.2422	...	...	...	...	...	...			
I-1 ZC			0.000925	4.220 4.782 0.882	4.037	0.00248	2.68	0.1375	3.848	63.90	0.0288	0.1625	4.20	0.7011	0.000186	1.098	0.1153
ave.				4.050 ± 0.945 1.317 ± 0.493			2.173 ± 0.808										
I-2 SF	FQ-V	DCB	0.00508	3.013 3.001 1.004	5.193	0.0156	3.11	0.1415	5.122	68.09	0.0422	0.1397	...	...	...	...	...
I-3 SG	AL-A		0.00794	0.565 0.234 2.415	0.906	0.0998	12.54	0.5044	0.614	10 <sup>3</sup>	268.0	0.6114	0.400	55992	33.70	1.934	0.7020
I-4 SH	AL-B		0.00267	0.365 0.336 1.057	0.412	0.00605	2.27	0.292	0.345	10.44	0.0553	0.1102	0.345	160.5	0.0993	1.622	0.0999
I-5 SI	AL-B		0.00119	0.252 0.412 0.612	0.341	0.00128	1.08	0.3824	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
I-2 SF	FQ-V	TCB	0.00508	4.772 5.080 0.939	8.542	0.0231	4.55	0.1566	8.402	53.43	0.0202	0.1527	...	...	...	...	...
I-10 SD	PQ-V		0.00941	10.47 11.31 0.926	9.660	0.0321	3.41	0.1328	9.457	285.1	0.154	0.1327	9.46	409.1	0.445	0.087	0.1328
ave.				7.91 ± 3.46 0.933 ± 0.009			3.98 ± 0.80										
I-3 SG	AL-A	TCB	0.00794	2.018 2.000 1.009	1.904	0.0398	5.01	0.1090	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
I-4 SH	AL-B		0.00267	1.166 1.246 0.936	1.259	0.0304	11.4	0.0365	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
I-2 SF	FQ-V	TcCB	0.00508	8.493 9.001 0.944	14.96	0.0267	5.26	0.1031	14.60	119.6	0.0260	0.1094	...	...	...	...	...
I-10 SD	PQ-V		0.00941	15.76 16.01 0.984	14.77	0.0382	4.06	0.0962	14.45	138.8	0.0491	0.0966	14.42	4195.2	4.56	0.585	0.0936
ave.				12.32 ± 4.13 0.964			4.65 ± 0.846										
I-3 SG	AL-A	TcCB	0.00794	7.354 7.320 1.005	6.919	0.0453	5.71	0.1257	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
I-4 SH	AL-B		0.00267	4.232 4.512 0.938	4.486	0.0711	26.6	0.1087	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

<sup>1</sup>From sorption portion of breakthrough curve. <sup>2</sup>From desorption portion of breakthrough curve. <sup>3</sup>Parameter fixed at this value.



**Figure 4.7 Sorption onto mineral surfaces**

reaction half-life) is less than a minute for both surfaces. Two experiments with DCB (Figure 4.7A and B) show little tailing of breakthrough curves, where the residence time in the column is on the order of an hour or longer.

Sorption of TCB onto 425- $\mu\text{m}$  silica (two experiments) had an average  $K_p$  of  $7.91 \pm 3.46$  (surface V). Sorption was reversible ( $K_{ps}/K_{pd} = 0.93 \pm 0.01$ ) and fast as indicated by large  $\omega$ 's ( $> 50$ ) and rates ( $k_b = 2 \times 10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ; Table 4.4) using the first-order model. The  $D_{DCB}/D_{KCl}$  ratio averaged 3.98, indicating little nonequilibrium, as can be observed in Figure 4.7B with a TCB breakthrough curve.

Sorption of TeCB onto 425- $\mu\text{m}$  silica (two experiments) had an average  $K_p$  of  $12.3 \pm 4.1$  which was reversible ( $K_{ps}/K_{pd} = 0.96 \pm 0.03$ ). The equilibrium model  $D_{DCB}/D_{KCl}$  ratio averaged  $4.66 \pm 0.85$ , which showed greater dispersion for DCB. This is expected since the molecular diffusion coefficient is smaller (Table 2.7) for DCB. The first-order model fit gave a large  $\omega$  with a  $k_b$  of  $4 \times 10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . Even with large differences in model fits, generally, smaller  $\omega$ 's are observed with TeCB than DCB as expected, apparently reflecting slower diffusion or exchange at the surface.

Four experiments were done injecting multiple solutes onto unbonded surfaces; DCB, TCB, and TeCB were sorbed to silica (Figure 4.7B). The partition coefficients were similar to those obtained from single solute experiments. The number of silica adsorption sites is very large compared to the number of sorbed sites, so sorption should be independent of additional solutes in solution. Chromatography researchers [Snyder and Kirkland, 1979] use silica for separation of hydrophobic solutes and assume no difference in partitioning when multiple solutes are present.

### 4.3.2 Alumina

Three experiments of chlorinated benzenes sorption were performed on two different porous aluminas (Appendix C-2). Sorption of DCB onto surface Y (4.0-nm pore) produced a  $K_p$  of  $0.35 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ , substantially less than on silica. As the hydrogen atoms on hydrophobic compounds represent a slightly positive pole [Thurman, 1985], these

compounds should be attracted to a surface which has a negative charge, such as silica at neutral pH. Alumina at neutral pH has a slight positive charge, and thus should exhibit less sorption than onto the negatively charged silica.

Sorption of DCB onto alumina surface Z (11-nm pore) produced a  $K_p$  of 0.34  $\text{cm}^3 \text{g}^{-1}$  (Figure 4.7C), similar to the other porous alumina (surface Y) even though the surface area is reduced three fold. Sorption reversibility ( $K_{ps}/K_{pd}$ ) was high for surface Y (2.42), but reversible for surface Z ( $0.84 \pm 0.32$ ). Variability may be due to the small  $K_p$  values. Sorption was fast, as indicated by the  $D_{DCB}/D_{KCl}$  ratio, which was 12.6 for surface Y and 1.17 for surface Z. A first-order model fit to one experiment indicated some slow sorption (some tailing is observed), although the  $k_b$  was relatively fast ( $5 \times 10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ).

Sorption of TCB onto the 4-nm pore alumina (Y) produced a  $K_p$  of 1.00, and a  $K_p$  of 0.95  $\text{cm}^3 \text{g}^{-1}$  onto the 11-nm pore alumina (Z). Surface area decreased three fold from surface Y to Z ( $315 \text{ m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$  for Y,  $122 \text{ m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$  for Z), but  $K_p$  did not reflect this change. This indicates that sorption was only weakly dependent on the surface interactions. The  $K_{ps}/K_{pd}$  ratio indicated that sorption was reversible (1.01 for surface Y; 0.94 for surface Z), and relatively fast as indicated by the  $D_{TCB}/D_{KCl}$  ratio (0.40 for surface Y and 1.14 for surface Z).

Sorption of TeCB onto the 4-nm pore alumina produced a  $K_p$  of 7.34, and a  $K_p$  of 4.37 on the 11-nm pore alumina (Table 4.4). This solute did not show a decrease in  $K_p$  as the surface area decreased 3-fold from surface Y to Z. Sorption was reversible ( $K_{ps}/K_{pd} = 1.01$  and 0.94, respectively), but slightly slower than TCB as indicated by  $D_{TeCB}/D_{KCl}$  ratio (0.46 for surface Y and 2.66 for surface Z). Slight desorption tailing was observed for the chlorinated benzenes when sorbed onto alumina, as shown in Figure 4.7D.

A comparison of sorption of chlorinated benzenes onto silica (Figure 4.7B) and alumina (Figure 4.7D) shows less sorption onto alumina, but both appear to sorb at the

same rate. None of the experiments show a large amount of slow sorption even with varying pore size (27-nm silica, and 11 or 4-nm alumina) or diameter (100- $\mu\text{m}$  or 236- $\mu\text{m}$ ). The pore size is large compared to solute size (1.1 nm), so tortuosity should not affect diffusion. The calculated diffusion times into porous particles (Table 2.6) of this size are on the order of several seconds. Since the column residence time is on the order of minutes or greater, sorption will appear fast.

#### 4.4 Solute Sorption onto Aliphatic Chain Modified Silica

##### 4.4.1 $C_1$ Modified Silicas

Three  $C_1$ -polymer modified silicas were made in this research; one bound to a 100- $\mu\text{m}$  porous silica (surface A), and two bound to 1.9- $\mu\text{m}$  nonporous silica (surfaces AH and O). The  $C_1$  polymer was bound to the solid particles to eliminate any slow sorption that may be caused by diffusion through immobile pore fluid. Column experiments are shown in Appendix C-3, and model results are presented in Table 4.5.

Four experiments were performed with  $C_1$ -modified surface (two are shown in Figure 4.8A and B), where  $K_p$  averaged  $326 \pm 137 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ , showing considerable variation. Some of this variation may be due to running the experiments at high velocities. The average  $K_{oc}$  of 23,000 is an order of magnitude larger than other organic modified surfaces studied, and is also large compared to natural organic matter (610 from Table 1.1) and chromatographic materials (650 from Table 2.3). This indicates a stronger binding mechanism on the  $C_1$ -polymer modified surface than other surfaces studied. The sorption  $K_p$  was about 30 percent smaller than desorption  $K_p$  ( $K_{ps}/K_{pd}$  averaged  $0.68 \pm 0.36$ ).

The  $D_{DCB}/D_{KCl}$  ratio was 3.21, which indicates little additional solute spreading from a slow sorption process. The large number of pore volumes required to reach equilibrium sorption (Appendix C-3) are probably caused by the large  $K_p$ . The first-order model fit to the best data (Figure 4.8A) indicates slow sorption with an  $\omega$  of 8.3 and a  $k_b = 4.1 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . This is about two orders of magnitude slower than the  $k_b$  on

Table 4.5 DCB sorption onto aliphatic chain modified silica

Exp.	Sorbent <sup>1</sup>	Equilibrium Model						First Order Model						Two Region Model				
		D <sub>KCN</sub> (cm <sup>2</sup> /s)	K <sub>ad</sub> (cm <sup>3</sup> /g)	K <sub>sp</sub> <sup>2</sup> (cm <sup>3</sup> /g)	rev.	K <sub>p</sub> (cm <sup>3</sup> /g)	D	D/D <sub>KCN</sub>	ssq	K <sub>p</sub> N <sub>0</sub> (cm <sup>3</sup> /g)	k <sub>b</sub> (s <sup>-1</sup> )	ssq	K <sub>p</sub> (cm <sup>3</sup> /g)	N <sub>D</sub>	α <sub>e</sub> (s <sup>-1</sup> )	f <sub>ssq</sub>		
A-3	QA	0.0188	152.8	329.1	0.464	165.5	0.0587	3.12	0.3637	---	---	---	---	---	---	---		
A-4	QB	0.0242	126.8	304.3	0.417	175.7	1.21	50.0	0.8062	232.4	6.720	0.000950	0.4644	---	---	---		
A-1	RF	0.0113	498.7	414.7	1.203	479.4	0.0545	4.82	0.8082	407.6	8.275	440.0	0.1715	453.1	0.968	0.00362	0.593	0.0705
A-2	RJ	0.0290	300.6	477.6	0.629	355.5	0.0465	1.60	0.5230	335.7	208.2	0.0158	1.0459	337.8	106000	0.0440	0.304	0.9893
	ave.		326 ± 137		0.678 ± 0.362		3.21 ± 10.4					0.00071						
O-2	RV	0.345	89.01	95.96	0.928	106.4	0.0511	12.2	1.0610	56.21	2.289	0.000232	2.6990	58.66	2.157	0.00749	0.046	2.6870
O-1	SA	0.164	45.99	60.26	0.763	77.82	0.0378	9.04	0.3224	71.82	7.780	0.000628	0.3948	77.95	1.057	0.00347	0.592	0.2961
B-2	QC	0.0171	23.91	28.28	0.845	23.80	0.0324	1.89	0.1083	30.32	207.1	0.103	0.8971	30.28	238.4	0.611	0.036	0.8946
B-3	QD	0.00853	18.86	27.53	0.685	23.87	0.0150	1.76	0.0861	24.86	87.54	0.0168	0.3770	25.00	2.427	0.00197	0.876	0.3766
B-5	QF	0.000729	27.18	28.71	0.947	29.67	0.00474	6.50	0.1481	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
B-4	QH	0.00612	28.58	27.73	1.031	32.58	0.0105	1.72	0.1740	29.55	30.44	0.00363	0.3103	87.62	0.0925	0.0000514	0.344	0.2175
B-1	RK	0.0140	26.45	27.08	0.977	28.37	0.0187	1.34	0.0801	26.83	526.1	0.123	0.0872	26.76	6724.1	7.20	0.323	0.0720
	ave.		25.86 ± 5.39		0.874 ± 0.143		1.51 ± 2.44					0.085						
B-6 <sup>3</sup>	SO	0.0296	15.31	16.03	0.955	15.67	0.0200	0.68	0.0170	15.02	710.2	0.308	0.0176	15.01	238.5	0.264	1.039	0.0173
B-7 <sup>4</sup>	TC	0.0337	26.73	39.57	0.676	27.09	0.0461	1.37	0.1496	23.11	471267	156.0	0.2158	23.19	68509	72.30	1.021	0.2890
C-2	QJ	0.0127	23.08	24.61	0.938	24.21	0.0858	6.76	0.0168	22.89	13.00	0.00735	0.0239	23.22	3.748	0.00807	0.518	0.1493
C-1	QK	0.000947	25.89	23.01	1.125	26.47	0.00282	2.98	0.1057	24.93	49.74	0.00239	>10	27.36	6724.0	1.34	0.32	0.0719
C-3	QL	0.109	18.28	21.39	0.855	21.74	0.0133	1.22	0.0509	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
	ave.		23.00 ± 1.61		0.973 ± 0.138		3.97 ± 2.44					0.0065						

<sup>1</sup>Bound on 100 μm diameter, 27 nm pore - silica except RV and SA which are 2 μm nonporous silica. <sup>2</sup>ly planimeter. <sup>3</sup>Loosely packed column (see text). <sup>4</sup>With diffusion column (see text).

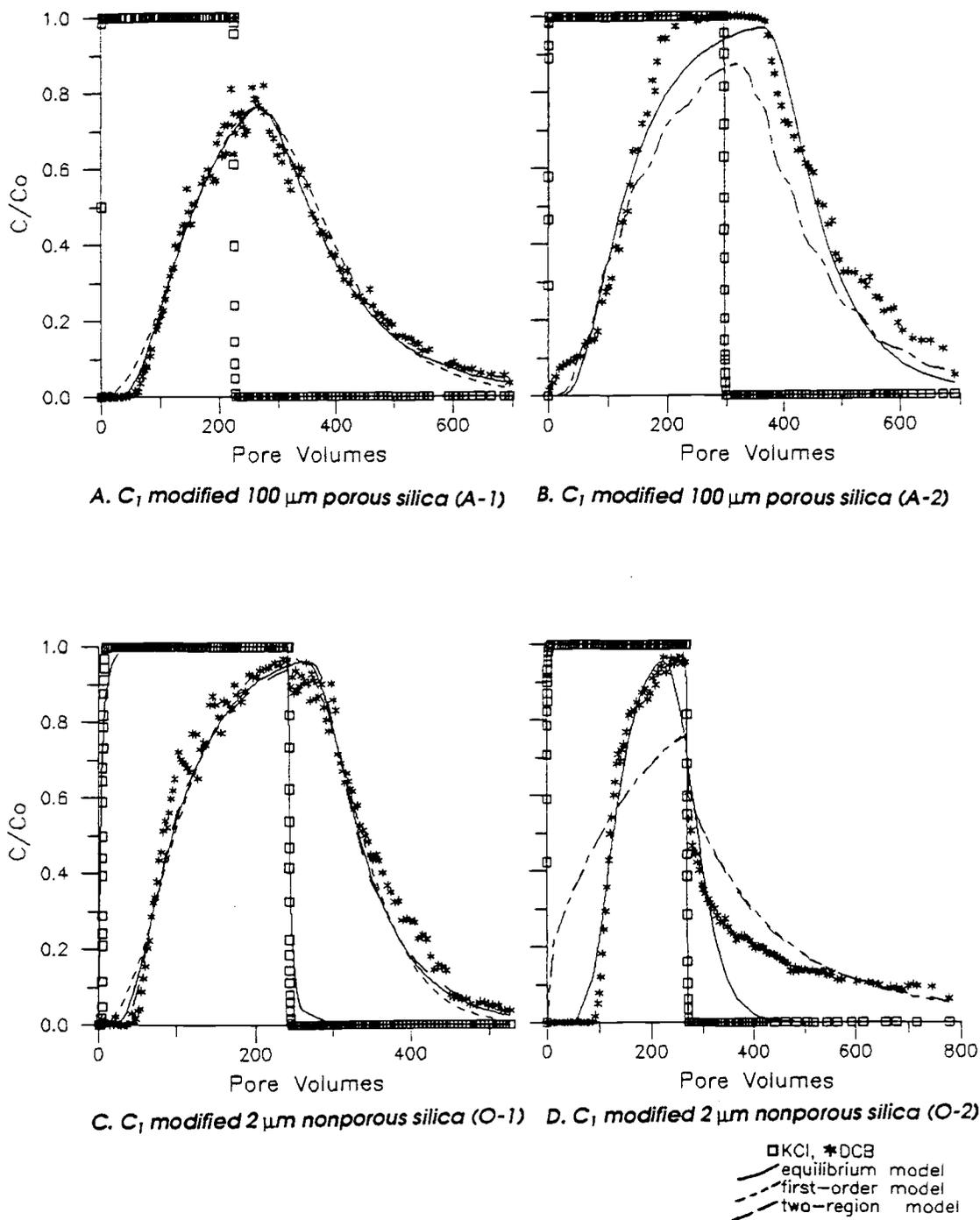


Figure 4.8 DCB Sorption onto  $C_1$  modified surfaces

unbonded silica of the same diameter and pore dimensions (surface I). A two region model fit gave an  $\alpha_e$  of  $7.76 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$  with an  $f$  of 0.592. The fraction of mobile sites ( $f$ ) was found to vary considerably between model fits, and was relatively insensitive.

One  $C_1$ -polymer modified solid surface (AH) had the same mass fraction organic coating ( $f_{oc}$ ) as the  $C_1$ -modified porous silica (surface A), whereas a second  $C_1$ -modified solid surface (O) had much lower  $f_{oc}$ . DCB sorption onto surface AH (Figure 4.8D) had a  $K_p$  of  $92.5 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$  and a  $K_{oc}$  of 6510. This surface (see Table 3.1) has the equivalent organic monolayer coverage of 30 percent; at this high coverage, slow sorption could be caused by thicker polymer layer on the surface. Sorption reversibility ( $K_{ps}/K_{pd}$ ) of DCB on surface AH was 0.93 (Table 4.4). The first-order model fit to the data had a small  $\omega$  (2.3), with the desorption rate ( $k_b = 2.3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) virtually identical to the  $C_1$ -modified porous surface (A).

Since the  $C_1$ -modified solid surface (AH) may have had more than monolayer coverage, a second  $C_1$ -modified nonporous surface was made (O). Sorption of DCB onto this surface (Figure 4.8C) had an average  $K_p = 53.1 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ , and a  $K_{ps}/K_{pd}$  of 0.76, which may indicate some irreversible sorption. The  $K_{oc}$  was 24,000, which is the same as the  $C_1$ -modified 100- $\mu\text{m}$  porous surface. The equivalent organic monolayer coverage for surface O is about 4 percent. An equilibrium model fit gave a  $D_{DCB}/D_{KCl}$  ratio of 9.04, compared to 4.8 for the  $C_1$  porous silica (A). A first-order model fit also indicated non-equilibrium sorption with an  $\omega$  of 7.8 and a  $k_b$  of  $8.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ .

This  $C_1$  polymer bound on a solid surface had a  $k_b$  only twice as large as the  $C_1$  porous silica. The additional slow sorption onto the 100- $\mu\text{m}$  porous particle may be caused by diffusion into the particle. Since both rates are still two orders of magnitude slower than the rate on the unbonded surface (or  $C_3$  surface), this indicates that the presence and nature of the organic layer is related to the slow sorption.

The two-region model (Table 4.5) shows virtually identical fits for the  $C_1$  solid surface as the  $C_1$ -porous silica, with the fraction mobile sites ( $f$ ) varying between 0.3 and

0.6, and similar mass transfer rates through the immobile fluid (averaging  $4.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ). Desorption of DCB after 26 days (experiment A-4) had the same sorption and desorption  $K_p$  as those experiments immediately desorbed, indicating no very slow reactions or development of stronger binding mechanisms.

#### 4.4.2 $C_8$ Modified Surfaces

##### 4.4.2.1 $C_8$ Column Experiments

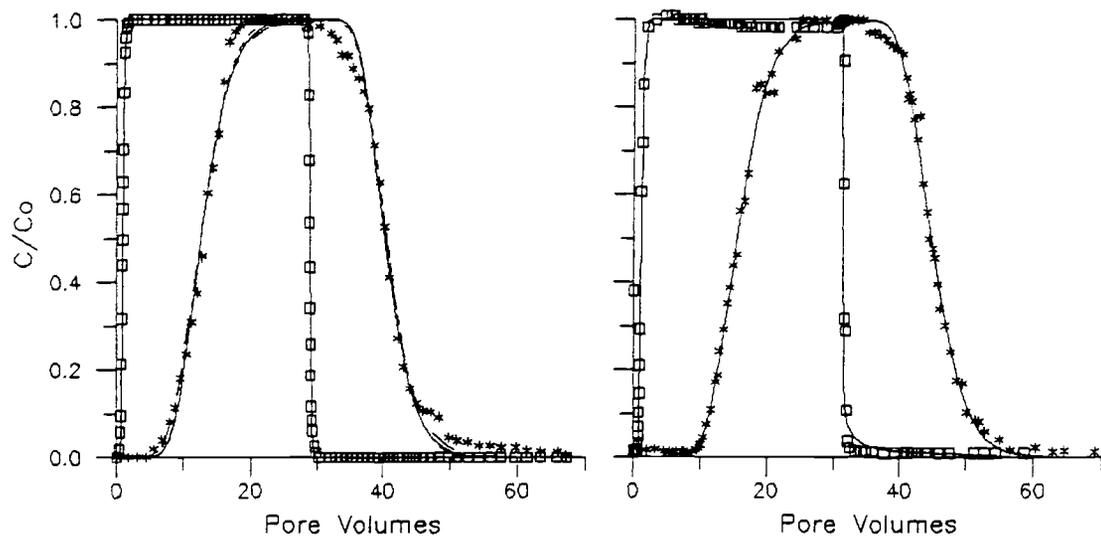
Different chain length silanes were bound to silica to examine the rate of diffusion through the bound organic layer. Seven experiments with a  $C_8$  polymer surface (B) had an average  $K_p$  of  $25.9 \pm 5.4 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$  (Appendix C-4 and Table 4.5). Sorption was reversible ( $K_{ps}/K_{pd} = 0.87 \pm 0.14$ ) and fast ( $D_{DCB}/D_{KCl}$  ratio averaged 1.51). Sorption was 10-fold smaller than on the  $C_1$  surfaces, with  $K_{oc}$  averaging 3800 for the  $C_8$  surface. Two experiments are shown in Figure 4.9A and B; both show little tailing, indicating fast sorption and desorption.

An isotherm can be developed from a single column experiment if sorption equilibrium is assumed at all points in the breakthrough curve with [Gleuckauf, 1947]:

$$S(c) = \frac{C_o \theta \rho_s}{\rho_b} \int_0^{C_a} PV(c) dc = \frac{C_o \theta \rho_s}{\rho_b} A_r \quad (76)$$

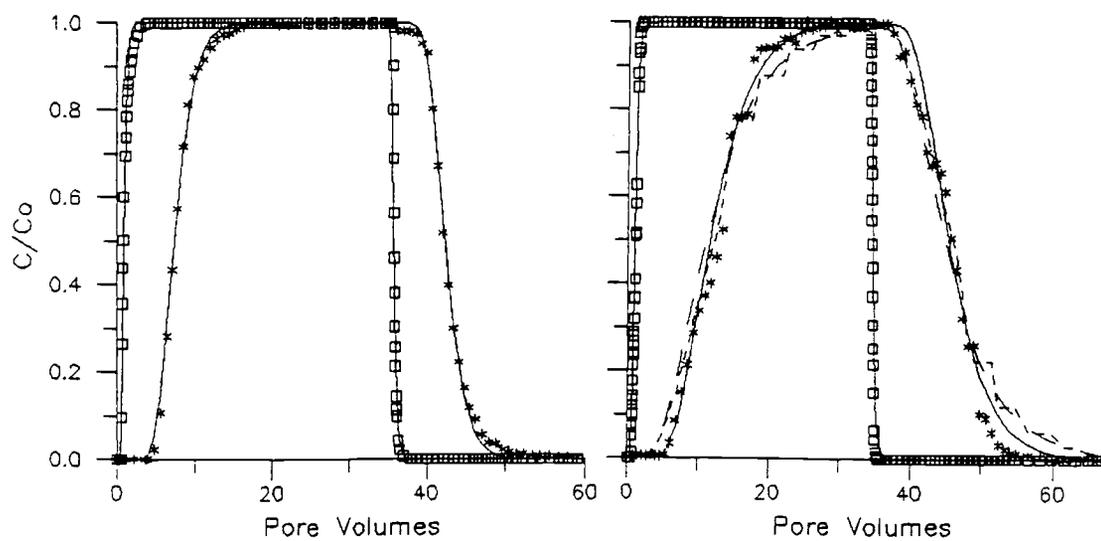
where  $PV(c)$  is the retention time (in pore volumes), and  $A_r$  is the retention volume of a solute (concentrations from 0 to  $C_a$ ) [Conder and Young, 1979]. Two isotherms were calculated from experiment B-1 (Figure 4.10), where  $C_o$  was 0.5 ppm. The sorption isotherm ( $S = 96.7 C^{1.40}$ ) and the desorption isotherm ( $S = 77.0 C^{0.95}$ ) differed, but both exhibited a near-linear trend that is similar to the isotherm on the phenyl surface (exponent = 1.09, Figure 4.4B). Isotherms were also calculated from the equilibrium model fit, where the sorption and desorption isotherm exponents (1.09 and 0.93, respectively) were close to the value of 1.0 that is assumed in the model.

A first-order model was fit to several  $C_8$  experiments (Table 4.5) with an average  $k_b$  of  $8.5 \times 10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . This rate corresponds to a reaction half-life of 8 seconds, compared



A.  $C_8$  modified 100  $\mu\text{m}$  porous silica (B-1)

B.  $C_8$  modified 100  $\mu\text{m}$  porous silica (B-3)



C. Loosly Packed surface B (B-6)

D. Diffusion column and flow column (B-7)

□ KCl, \* DCB  
 — equilibrium model  
 - - - first-order model  
 - · - two-region model

Figure 4.9 DCB sorption onto  $C_8$  modified silica

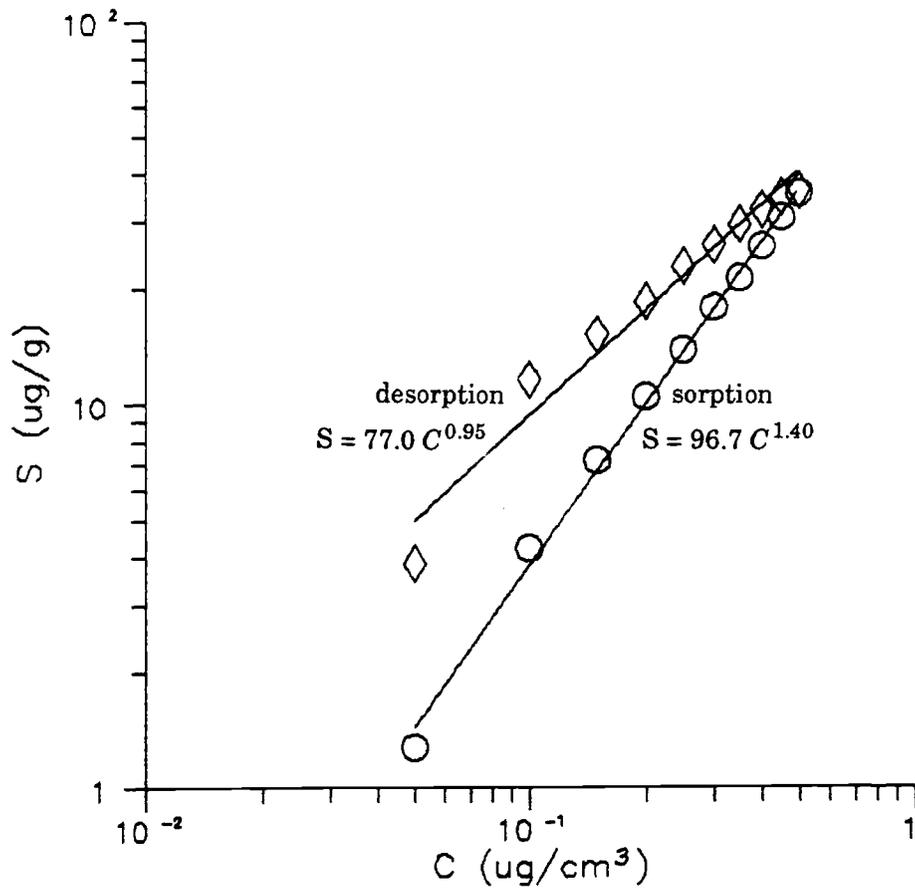


Figure 4.10 Isotherm calculated from a breakthrough curve (B-1)

to a column residence time of 50 minutes, so the reaction can be considered at equilibrium. Note that there is much uncertainty in determining  $k_b$  when the breakthrough curve is near equilibrium (Figure 2.7). All other first-order model fits to  $C_8$  breakthrough curves also gave large  $\omega$ 's and fast rates. The two-region model fit also gave a large  $\alpha_e$  (15.3), which was four orders of magnitude larger than for the  $C_1$  surface. The ratio of solute residence time to mass transfer time ( $\omega$ ) varied from 30 to 500.

If the  $C_8$  polymer was evenly coated on both external and internal surfaces of the porous silica, then sorption should be uniformly distributed. The sorption rate would be equal to or slower than on the unbonded silica, which is thought to be diffusion controlled. Slower sorption for a  $C_8$  surface could indicate diffusion through the  $C_8$  polymer to a binding site, or that the  $C_8$  polymer clogs some of the internal pore space. The  $C_8$  polymer is 1.3-nm long, so is unlikely to affect the pores (27-nm average width). Sorption on the  $C_8$  surface was faster than on the unbonded silica, however. If the  $C_8$  polymer was coated mainly on the outer surface, then sorption should be faster, since most diffusion into the porous particle is eliminated. The  $C_8$  polymer was calculated to cover 5 percent of the surface (Table 3.1); as the external surface is about 1 percent of the total surface area, it is possible that the  $C_8$  polymer could be preferentially bound near the surface.

The surface area (Table 3.1) measured by nitrogen adsorption was not reduced for the  $C_8$  modified surface compared to the unbonded surface, indicating no clogging of the pores. This also implies that the  $C_8$  silane is not bound entirely on the outer surface, where a coating this dense could lead to pore clogging (and surface area reduction), but more distribution throughout the particle.

Desorption of DCB from the  $C_8$  surface after 20 days (Figure 4.9B) had a larger  $K_p$  than for sorption, but this was not different from the immediate desorption  $K_p$  (Figure 4.9A), indicating that no stronger binding developed with time.

#### 4.4.2.2 Induced Slow Sorption with $C_8$ Modified Silica

Two experiments were designed to induce additional dispersion with the  $C_8$  surface in order to confirm that the slow sorption observed on other surfaces can be related to the nature of the sorbent.

One experiment (B-6) was performed with a column only partially packed with  $C_8$  modified silica (other half water). This magnifies the formation of additional pore space in the column as a result of grain rearrangement, which is observed with some columns. This experiment showed (Figure 4.9C) a lower  $K_p$  ( $15.7 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ), which is expected with about 50 percent loss of sorbent mass. The dispersion of both KCl and DCB increased, but the  $D_{DCB}/D_{KCl}$  ratio did not. The first-order model fit indicated a fast reaction ( $\omega = 710$ ,  $k_b = 0.31 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), which was similar to the  $C_8$  experiments with fully packed columns. This indicates that loose column packing will lead to variation in  $K_p$  and additional dispersion but should not affect the sorption rate if the  $D_{DCB}/D_{KCl}$  ratio is used to calculate D in the nonequilibrium models.

The column apparatus was then modified so that a fully packed  $C_8$ -silica column was in line, and an additional column without packing was installed at a right angle into the exit of the  $C_8$  column (experiment B-7 in Figure 4.9D). This diffusion column was filled with water, and as there is no advective flow through this column, solute mass can only slowly diffuse into it. The diffusion column volume was  $15 \text{ cm}^3$  and column volume was  $7.5 \text{ cm}^3$ . With this apparatus, both KCl and DCB dispersion should increase, not just DCB, when there is a slow sorption process.

Results of the diffusion column experiment (Table 4.5) show an increase of about three fold for both KCl and DCB dispersion. The equilibrium model  $D_{DCB}/D_{KCl}$  ratio is still small (1.37), indicating no change in the observed nonequilibrium. A first-order model fit does show a smaller  $\omega$  compared to other  $C_8$  experiments, indicating a slow process. The two-region model would accurately represent this case where the immobile pore space in the diffusion column is used to calculate the immobile and mobile porosity.

The two-region model fit had an  $f$  of 0.8 to 1.0, and an  $\alpha_e$  of  $2 \times 10^{-4}$ . The KCl breakthrough data also show increased dispersion, which could be modeled with a two-region mobile-immobile model.

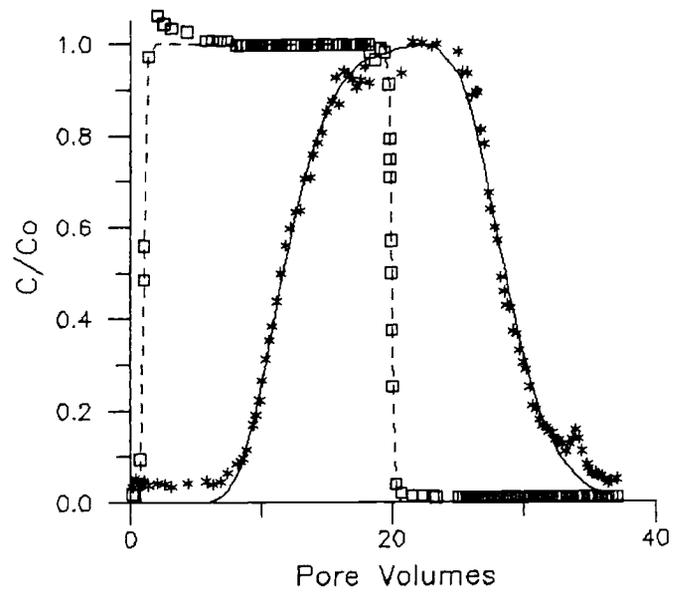
Therefore, a system which exhibits increased tailing can be created, but only by increasing the tailing of both the conservative and sorbed tracer. The extent of tailing in this case is still insignificant compared to other experiments. The effectiveness of the diffusion column could be improved by packing the column with sorbent to increase the mass of solute that can be transferred into the diffusion column.

#### 4.4.3 C<sub>18</sub> Modified Surfaces

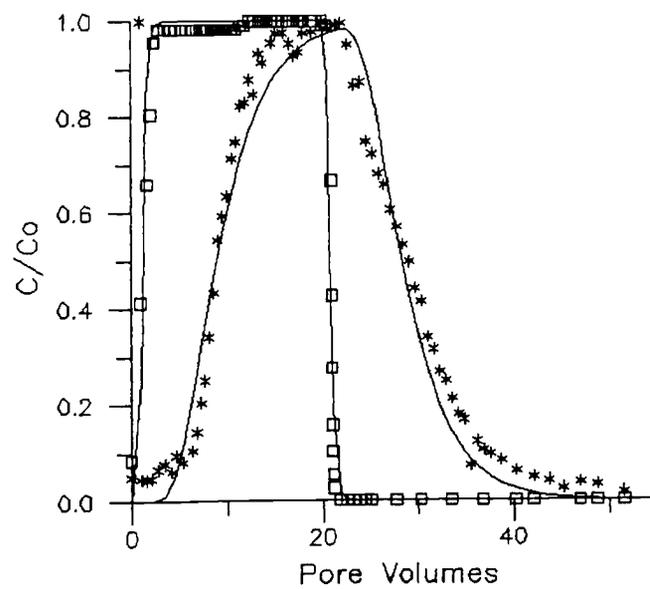
C<sub>18</sub> modified silica is the most commonly used chromatographic sorbent. It is used because of its large sorption capacity, and fast, reversible sorption properties. One C<sub>18</sub> modified silica was made in this research (surface C) which was 1.05 percent carbon by mass, and had an estimated monolayer surface coverage (equation 71) of 3.6 percent. A total of three column experiments were performed (Appendix C-5 and Table 4.5), which exhibited very reproducible sorption ( $K_p = 23.0 \pm 1.6$ ) and reversible sorption ( $K_{ps}/K_{pd} = 0.97 \pm 0.14$ ). Two experiments are shown in Figure 4.11. The  $K_{oc}$  for C<sub>18</sub>-modified silica (2190) is similar to that for C<sub>8</sub> ( $K_{oc} = 3800$ ), but much smaller than for C<sub>1</sub> surfaces (23,000).

Desorption of DCB from C<sub>18</sub> silica was made after 62 days in one experiment (Figure 4.11B), and did not show any difference in  $K_p$  compared to immediate desorption (Figure 4.11A), indicating no strong binding with time.

The equilibrium model  $D_{DCB}/D_{KCl}$  ratio averaged  $3.97 \pm 2.44$ , indicating some additional spreading due to the C<sub>18</sub> chain, compared to the C<sub>8</sub> modified silica. As the C<sub>8</sub> chain showed faster sorption than unbonded silica, one could conclude that in this case the slower approach to equilibrium may be caused by slower diffusion through the C<sub>18</sub> mass. A first-order model fit to the C<sub>18</sub> experiments also indicates about 1.5 orders of magnitude slower sorption than for C<sub>8</sub> experiments (Table 4.5), with  $\omega$  ranging from 13



**A. Immediate desorption (C-1)**



**B. Desorption after 62 days (C-3)**

□ KCl, \* DCB  
 — equilibrium model  
 - - - first-order model  
 - · - two-region model

**Figure 4.11 DCB sorption onto  $C_{18}$  modified silica**

to 50 and  $k_b$  averaging  $6.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ .

#### **4.5 Phenyl Modified Surfaces**

Phenyl monomer and polymer silanes were bound to various porous and solid silicas. These eleven surfaces were made to examine various rate-limiting mechanisms.

##### **4.5.1 Phenyl Monomer on 100 $\mu\text{m}$ Porous Silica**

Two surfaces were made with a phenyl monomer bound onto 100- $\mu\text{m}$  silica (surfaces D and Q). The reaction covalently binding the phenyl monomer onto silica proceeds slowly, so apparently little was bound during the two hours used in making the first surface (D), where  $f_{oc}$  was 0.0016, and during the 12 hours used in making the second surface (Q), where  $f_{oc}$  was 0.0075.

Six column experiments were performed (Appendix C-6) on these surfaces with results shown in Table 4.6. The  $K_p$  averaged  $4.1 \pm 1.1$  for surface D and  $5.2 \pm 1.6$  for surface Q; these small  $K_p$  values are essentially equal to that of unmodified silica. As a consequence, sorption at the silica surface undoubtedly played the major role in sorption. Sorption onto surface D (Figure 4.12A) and surface Q (Figure 4.12B) showed fast sorption and desorption. The  $K_{oc}$  values for surface Q (690) and surface D (2560) were small, and sorption was reversible ( $K_{ps}/K_{pd} = 0.85$ ).

The  $D_{DCB}/D_{KCl}$  ratio averaged 1.3 (Table 4.6), indicating little slow sorption. The first-order model fits also indicated fast sorption, with an average  $k_b$  of  $1.2 \times 10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (surface D) and  $1.2 \text{ s}^{-1}$  (surface Q). The two-region model fits also indicated a fast process with an  $\alpha_e$  of 4.1. All six breakthrough curves showed little tailing.

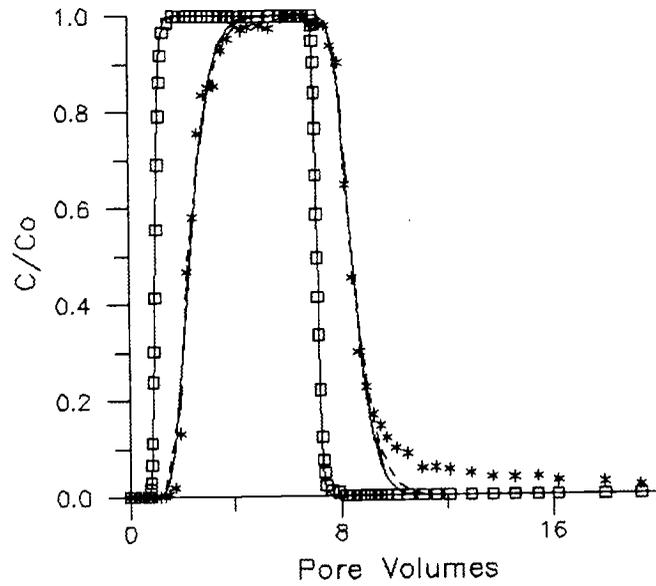
##### **4.5.2 Phenyl Polymer Bound to 100 $\mu\text{m}$ Porous Silica**

Eighteen experiments with 100- $\mu\text{m}$  porous silica with phenyl polymer bound to the surface (E) were performed with five different chlorinated benzenes (CB, DCB, TCB, TeCB, and PCB) and at six different temperatures. Sorption of DCB is discussed in the first section, various chlorinated benzenes in the second section, and sorption at different temperatures in the third section.

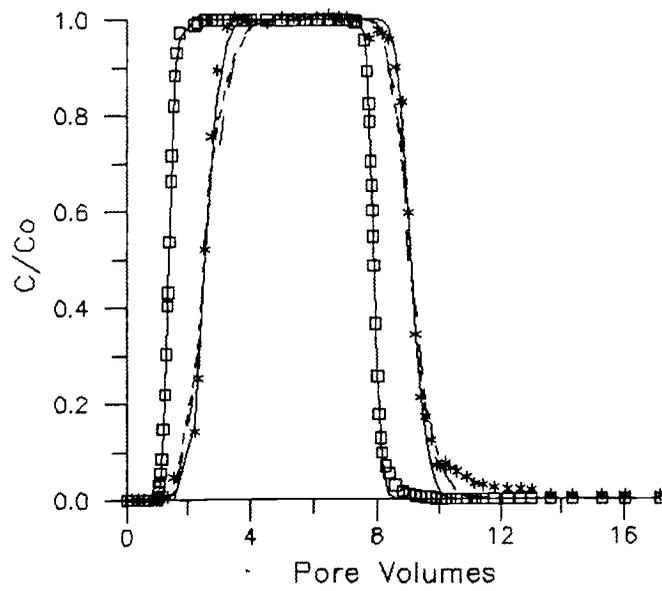
Table 4.6 DCB sorption onto phenyl monomer modified silica

Exp.	Sorbent <sup>1</sup>	Equilibrium Model						First Order Model					Two Region Model					
		$D_{\text{DCB}}$ ( $\text{cm}^2/\text{s}$ )	$K_{\text{ps}}$ ( $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$ )	$K_{\text{pd}}$ ( $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$ )	rev.	$K_{\text{p}}$ ( $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$ )	D	$DVD_{\text{DCB}}$ ( $\text{cm}^2/\text{s}$ )	seq	$K_{\text{p}}$ ( $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$ )	$N_{\text{D}}$ ( $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$ )	$k_{\text{b}}$ ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ )	seq	$K_{\text{p}}$ ( $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$ )	$N_{\text{D}}$ ( $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$ )	$\alpha_{\text{e}}$ ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ )	f	seq
D-3 QM	PQ-D PHEmono	0.000266	6.106	5.564	1.097	5.997	0.000743	2.79	0.1866	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
D-4 QN	PQ-D PHEmono	0.00232	4.472	--	--	3.981	0.00645	2.78	0.1790	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
D-1 RL	PQ-D PHEmono	0.000714	3.334	2.828	1.179	3.473	0.00294	4.14	0.0924	3.349	18.32	0.0115	0.1047	3.743	0.3109	0.000108	1.114	0.0879
D-2 RM	PQ-D PHEmono	0.000752	2.186	4.621	0.473	2.896	0.00319	4.24	0.0809	2.843	16.10	0.0125	0.0684	3.147	0.3562	0.000130	1.166	0.0626
ave.			4.1 ± 1.1		0.845		3.49					0.012						
Q-2 SM	PQ-T PHEmono	0.000339	3.773	5.479	0.689	3.975	0.000447	1.32	0.1380	3.904	14355	12.30	0.1176	3.899	0.0193	0.0000106	1.334	0.1378
Q-1 SN	PQ-T PHEmono	0.000203	2.792	3.551	0.786	3.863	0.000241	1.19	0.0485	3.762	2229	1.28	0.0636	3.794	5273.4	1.87	0.357	0.0489
ave.			5.2 ± 1.6				1.26					1.2						

<sup>1</sup>Bound to 100 μm porous silica.



**A. Surface D (D-1)**



**B. Surface Q (Q-1)**

□ KCl, \* DCB  
 — equilibrium model  
 - - - first-order model  
 - · - two-region model

**Figure 4.12 DCB sorption onto phenyl monomer modified silica**

#### 4.5.2.1 DCB and Phenyl Polymer Surface E at 25°C

Six column experiments of DCB sorption performed on the phenyl-polymer modified 100- $\mu\text{m}$  silica (E) at 25°C exhibited considerable slow sorption (Appendix C-8); model results are shown in Table 4.7. The results of two experiments (Figure 4.13A and B) illustrate the considerable tailing, where sorption and desorption took from 30 to 100 pore volumes. Experiments exhibiting fast sorption, such as that observed with the phenyl monomer surface (Figure 4.12) reach equilibrium within 3 pore volumes. The average  $K_p$  on the phenyl polymer surface is  $60.6 \pm 41.9 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ , which showed considerable variation between experiments. The  $K_p$  was consistent within experiments, with  $K_{ps}/K_{pd}$  equal to  $0.96 \pm 0.21$ , based on eleven experiments (including those run at different temperatures).

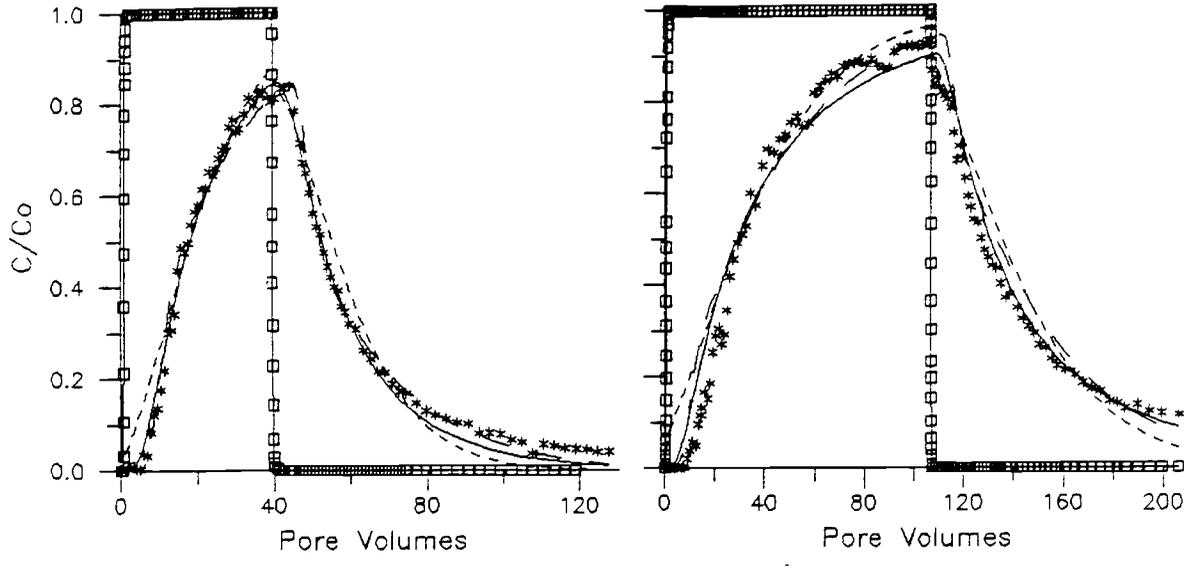
The equilibrium-model  $D_{DCB}/D_{KCl}$  averaged  $32 \pm 8.3$ , indicating slow sorption is causing much of the observed DCB spreading. The first-order model fit to data in these six experiments produced an average  $k_b$  of  $3.8 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , which is two orders of magnitude smaller than for a  $\text{C}_8$  surface bound on the same porous silica and with a similar  $f_{oc}$ . This indicates that the slow process depends on the nature of the bound organic matter.

The two-region model  $\alpha_e$  averaged  $3.4 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , and was relatively consistent between experiments even with  $f$  varying from 0.14 to 0.45. This rate coefficient can be dimensionally compared to the first-order rate coefficient with equation (54); the average  $\alpha_e/\rho_b K_p$  is  $1.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , or about 40 percent of  $k_b$ .

The solvophobic model indicates a small increase in  $K_p$  with increasing ionic strength, since surface tension is greater at higher ionic strength, and  $K_p$  is dependent on surface tension. The ionic strengths used in experiment E-3 were  $10^{-5}$  and  $2 \times 10^{-5}$  M where the resulting  $K_p$  is  $64.6 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ , compared to an average of  $60.6 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$  for experiments run at  $10^{-2}$  M. There is too much variability in the data to make a definite conclusion regarding the change in  $K_p$  with ionic strength.

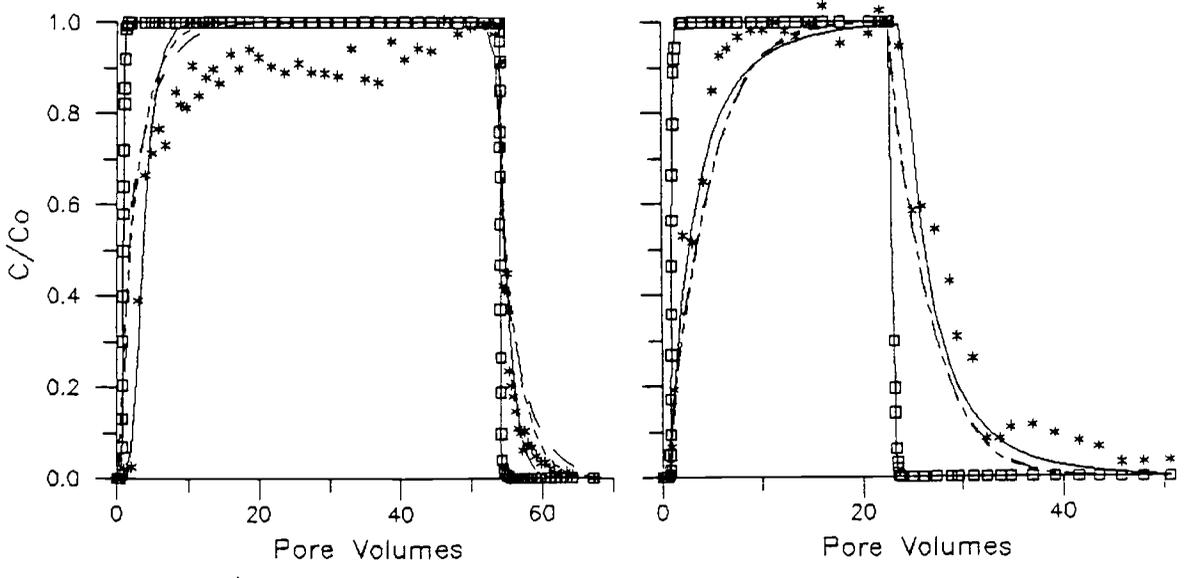
Table 4.7 Sorption onto phenyl polymer modified silica at 25°C

Exp.	Solute	Equilibrium Model						First Order Model					Two Region Model					
		$D_{ACN}$ ( $cm^2/s$ )	$K_p^1$	$K_p^2$	rev.	$K_p$ ( $cm^3/g$ )	D	$D/D_{ACN}$	seq	$K_p$ ( $cm^3/g$ )	$N_b$	$k_b$ ( $s^{-1}$ )	seq	$K_p$ ( $cm^3/g$ )	$N_b$	$\alpha_e$ ( $s^{-1}$ )	f	seq
E-17 RT	CB	0.00106	4.873	13.96	0.349	7.257	0.0557	56	0.2561	7.616	1.982	0.00243	0.4440	7.713	1.666	0.00263	0.225	0.4390
E-18 RW		0.000800	11.32	1.652	6.852	6.943	0.00607	7.6	0.5301	3.889	1.065	0.00201	1.0590	4.432	0.671	0.000835	0.401	1.0200
ave.			7.95 ± 6.68									0.0020						
E-5 QP	DCB	0.858	8.015	9.949	0.806	11.810	0.517	60.3	0.1348	8.98	2.195	0.00417	0.1377	8.983	2.593	0.00750	0.024	0.1160
E-1 QQ		0.00629	18.23	28.78	0.633	18.777	0.140	222.0	0.2124	14.57	2.701	0.000439	0.5534	19.08	0.578	0.000232	4.51	0.3220
E-2 RN		0.000889	59.45	53.24	1.117	54.00	0.0251	282.0	0.0592	45.97	3.608	0.000542	0.2864	53.65	1.119	0.00131	0.408	0.1030
E-3 SR		0.00501	72.38	56.85	1.273	84.82	0.0448	8.94	0.2512	63.86	3.259	0.000385	0.5854	77.81	1.143	0.00146	0.352	0.3319
E-4 TD		0.00114	98.41	92.39	1.065	109.1	0.0635	55.7	0.2720	82.42	2.840	0.000312	0.4635	85.48	2.121	0.00326	0.142	0.4655
E-9 SS		0.0139	105.5	115.6	0.913	88.13	0.594	42.7	0.6544	62.64	2.045	0.00142	0.7633	71.20	1.124	0.00826	0.189	0.6582
ave.			60.6 ± 41.9					32 ± 8.3				0.00038				0.0037		
E-12 RX	TCB	0.00611	81.42	85.17	0.956	82.54	0.151	24.7	0.0855	64.97	2.394	0.000919	0.4114	77.30	0.609	0.00258	0.393	0.2110
E-13 RZ		0.0128	84.61	90.41	0.936	90.16	0.213	16.6	0.1256	67.92	2.691	0.00100	0.3724	82.16	0.470	0.00202	0.371	0.1076
E-14 SB		0.0120	138.7	88.19	1.573	89.71	2.01	167.0	0.4840	87.21	0.793	0.000568	0.3578	91.23	0.685	0.03959	0.028	0.3354
E-15 SC		0.00586	203.8	116.1	1.755	242.5	0.535	91.3	0.4098	137.1	2.255	0.000592	0.9937	134.6	2.335	0.0176	0.004	0.9301
E-9 SS		0.0139	262.1	202.6	1.294	268.1	0.521	37.5	1.7400	179.3	3.071	0.000742	1.6076	159.9	0.646	0.00394	0.394	0.6302
ave.			135 ± 65					54.1				0.00070						
E-14 SB	TeCB	0.0120	135.3	144.3	0.938	158.0	0.758	63.2	0.2444	102.4	2.222	0.00136	0.2956	108.0	1.946	0.0206	0.028	0.2920
E-15 SC		0.00586	438.0	536.9	0.816	624.6	0.436	74.4	0.2531	344.6	2.877	0.000300	0.7706	541.8	0.857	0.00523		
E-9 SS		0.0139	563.6	563.6	1.000	801.2	0.605	46.8	1.5710	385.2	3.731	0.000420	1.6542	377.1	3.566	0.0262	0.047	1.6560
ave.			397 ± 204					63.5				0.00050						
E-16 SE	PCB	0.00976	858.3	755.2	1.137	754.4	0.189	19.4	0.4716	566.2	6.758	0.000541	0.7276	774.8	0.7693	0.00591	0.473	0.3664
E-9 SS		0.0139	987.9	1269.1	0.778	1278.5	0.324	23.3	1.1770	813.5	4.444	0.000237	1.3752	867.8	2.454	0.0776	0.188	1.2891
ave.			968 ± 222					21.3				0.00030						



A. DCB sorption (E-2)

B. DCB sorption (E-4)



C. CB sorption (E-17)

D. CB sorption (E-18)

□ KCl, \* DCB  
— equilibrium model  
- - - first-order model  
- · - two-region model

Figure 4.13 DCB and CB sorption onto phenyl polymer surface E

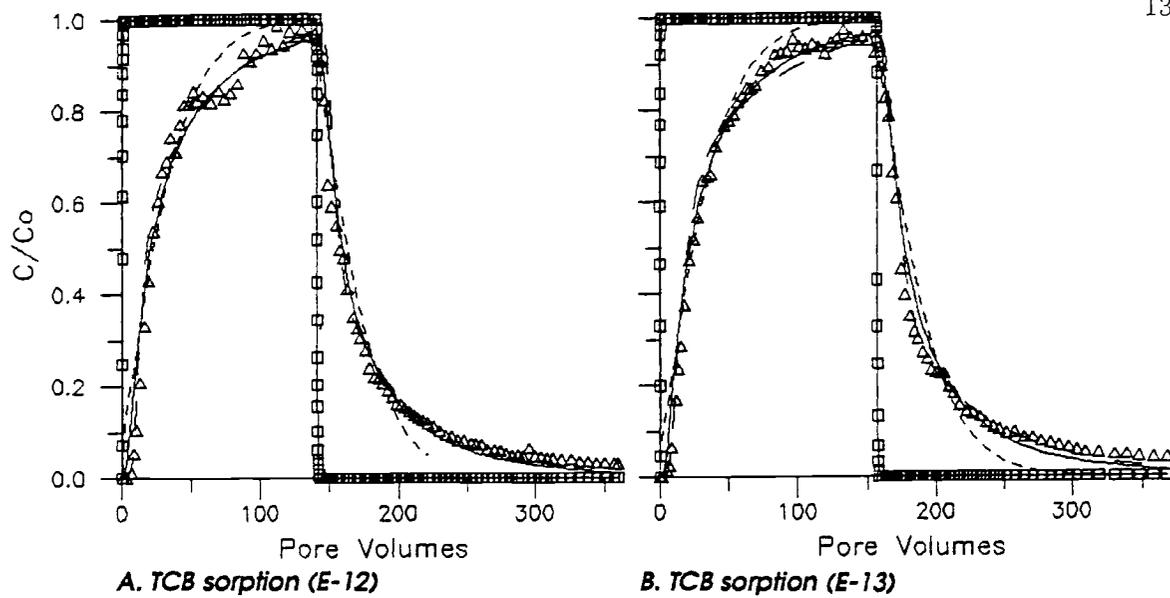
The partition coefficient is more accurately determined at low velocity, but since the shape of the breakthrough curve changes at different velocities,  $K_p$  can appear to change. There was no correlation of  $K_p$  with velocity with the six experiments over velocities ranging from 0.02 to 0.2 cm s<sup>-1</sup>.

#### 4.5.2.2 Other Chlorinated Benzenes

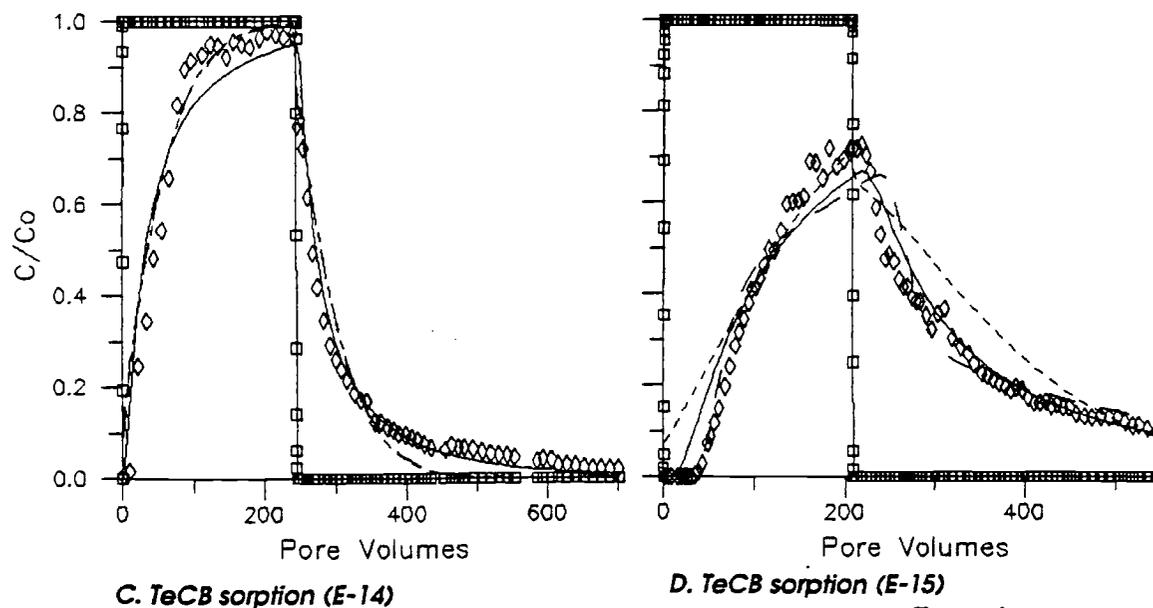
Four additional chlorinated benzenes were sorbed and desorbed onto the phenyl polymer modified 100- $\mu$ m silica.

Two experiments were performed with chlorobenzene (Figure 4.13C and D), with considerable variation in results (Table 4.7). Chlorobenzene is not easily detected with an electron capture detector on the gas chromatograph, so higher concentrations were used (2.6 and 3.2 ppm). The average  $K_p$  for both sorption and desorption for two experiments was  $8.0 \pm 5.7$  with one experiment showing a larger desorption  $K_p$  and one a larger sorption  $K_p$ . Experiment E-17 (Figure 4.13D) had better solute mass balance, and this experiment showed the desorption  $K_p$  three times the sorption  $K_p$ . The equilibrium model  $D_{DCB}/D_{KCl}$  ratios for the two experiments were 52 and 7.6, indicating some slow sorption. The first-order model produced  $\omega$ 's of 1-2, and  $k_b$ 's of  $1-3 \times 10^{-3}$  s<sup>-1</sup>.

Five column experiments of TCB sorption were performed on the phenyl-polymer modified 100- $\mu$ m silica (surface E) at 25°C (Appendix C-10), with results presented in Table 4.7. The  $K_p$  averaged  $135 \pm 65$  cm<sup>3</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>, with larger values for sorption ( $K_{ps}/K_{pd} = 1.26 \pm 0.43$ ), although most of the 11 experiments showed completely reversible sorption. Two experiments are shown in Figure 4.14A and B. The  $K_{oc}$  for TCB is 9880, five times that for DCB on the same surface. A significant amount of tailing is seen with TCB, as shown by the average equilibrium model  $D_{TCB}/D_{KCl}$  ratio, which was 54.1. Values of  $D_{TCB}/D_{KCl}$  larger than 2.0 (Table 2.7) indicate slow sorption. The first-order model fits gave  $\omega$ 's of 0.8 to 3.0, with an average  $k_b$  of  $7 \times 10^{-4}$  s<sup>-1</sup>; the model fits were only fair ( $ssq = 0.2 - 1.0$ ). The poor fit to the breakthrough curve tailing could indicate a more complex sorption process. The two-region model did provide a better fit to the data,



□ KCl,    △ TCB  
 — equilibrium model  
 - - - first-order model  
 - · - two-region model



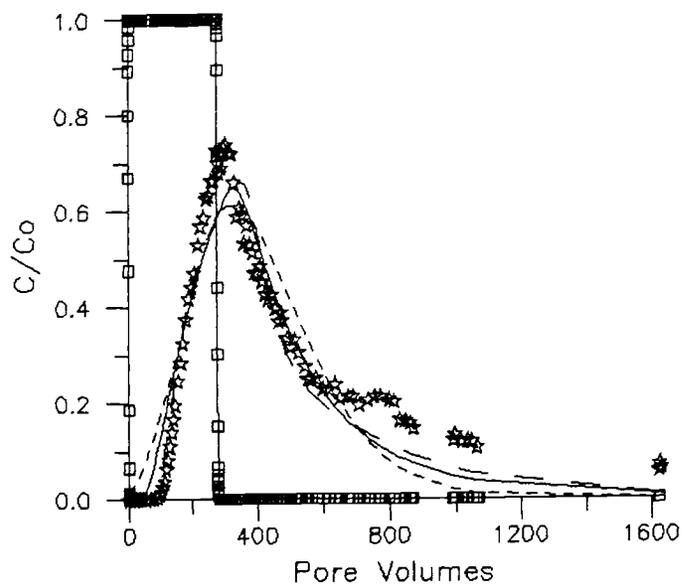
□ KCl,    ◇ TeCB  
 — equilibrium model  
 - - - first-order model  
 - · - two-region model

Figure 4.14 TCB and TeCB sorption onto phenyl polymer surface E

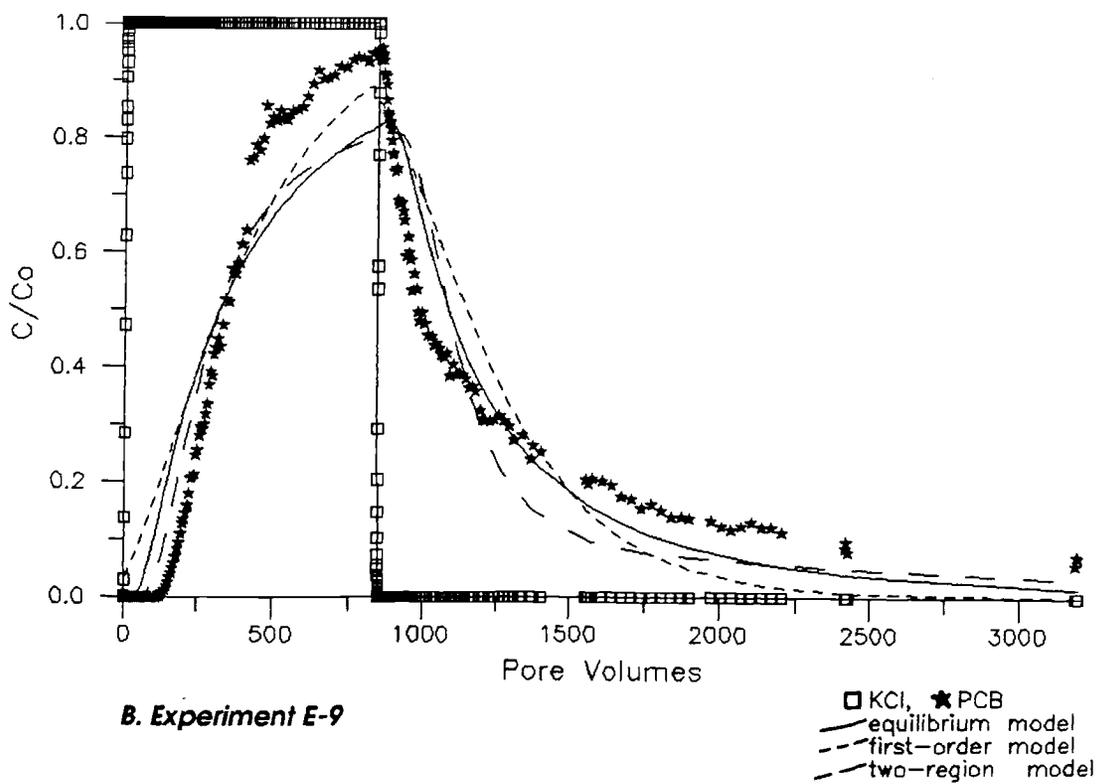
where  $\alpha_e$  averaged  $2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  $f$  ranged from 0.004 to 0.4. The average value for  $\alpha_e/\rho_b K_p$  (equation 54) was  $4 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$ .

Three column experiments were performed with the sorption of TeCB onto the phenyl-polymer modified 100- $\mu\text{m}$  silica at 25°C (Appendix C-12 and Figure 4.14C and D) with results in Table 4.7. Sorption was reversible ( $K_{ps}/K_{pd} = 1.08 \pm 0.38$  for 8 experiments) where the average  $K_p$  was  $397 \pm 204 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ . Tailing was significant for these experiments; the  $D_{TeCB}/D_{KCl}$  ratio averaged 63.5, as compared to a calculated value of 5.4 for fast sorption (Table 2.7). The first-order model fits gave  $\omega$ 's of 2 to 4, with a  $k_b$  averaging  $5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , and fair model fits ( $ssq = 0.3$  to 2.0). The two-region model fits were better in some cases, with  $\alpha_e$  ranging from 0.005 to  $0.02 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , and fraction mobile sites ( $f$ ) ranging from 0.02 to 0.5. The  $\alpha_e/\rho_b K_p$  averaged  $1.8 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . The non-equilibrium model fits are only fair even though the data are not scattered, which may indicate the sorption process is not adequately described. With the large  $K_p$ 's, experiments were run at high velocity, which created more dispersion and possibly preferential flow channels in the column. This could change the shape of the breakthrough curves.

Two experiments of pentachlorobenzene sorption were performed on the phenyl-polymer modified 100- $\mu\text{m}$  silica (shown in Figure 4.15A and B), with results in Table 4.7. The  $K_p$  averaged  $968 \pm 222 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ , and sorption was reversible ( $K_{ps}/K_{pd} = 0.96$ ). The large  $K_p$  required a large number of pore volumes to be eluted (over 3000 pore volumes for experiment E-9), and a high velocity. The equilibrium model dispersion of PCB was only 2.3 to 19 greater than the KCl dispersion, indicating only a small amount of non-equilibrium sorption. The first-order model fits to the data also indicated some non-equilibrium with an  $\omega$  of 4-5 and a  $k_b$  of  $3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . The first-order model fits were poor ( $ssq = 0.7$ -1.7), but the two-region model fits were better ( $ssq = 0.4$ -1.4), where  $\alpha_e$  averaged  $0.6$ - $1.0 \times 10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  $f$  ranged from 0.2 to 0.5. The  $\alpha_e/\rho_b K_p$  averaged  $2.3 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , which is an order of magnitude slower than first-order rate coefficient.



**A. Experiment E-16**



**B. Experiment E-9**

**Figure 4.15 PCB sorption onto phenyl polymer surface E**

For eight of the experiments, from two to four chlorinated benzenes were fed simultaneously through columns packed with the phenyl-polymer surface E. Experiment E-9 is shown in Figure 4.16 with breakthrough curves for KCl, DCB, TCB, TeCB, and PCB. These  $K_p$ 's for all solutes were from 40 to 190 percent greater than  $K_p$ 's obtained from single solute experiments (Table 4.8). Most experiments have consistent  $K_p$ 's between sorption and desorption, but there is much a wider variation of  $K_p$ 's between experiments. Even with this variation, in all cases, multiple solute experiments exhibited larger  $K_p$ 's than single solute experiments.

Increased sorption could be due to sorption onto another sorbate (cosorption). For example, sorbed PCB could be considered additional bound organic phase for DCB to sorb to. This trend is not reported in chromatography literature [Antle *et al.*, 1985] where multiple solute injections are made routinely, although low injection masses of solutes are generally used.

#### **4.5.2.3 Sorption at Different Temperatures**

Five experiments with DCB, TCB, and TeCB were performed on a single column (surface E) at temperatures from 3 to 48°C; breakthrough curves are shown in Figure 4.17A-F and Appendix C-9, C-11, and C-13, with the modeling results in Table 4.9. Temperature was equilibrated at least 12 hours before running each experiment.

The change in  $K_p$  at different temperatures can be seen more clearly in Figures 4.18A, B, and C, for DCB, TCB, and TeCB, respectively. Each solute shows decreased retention at higher temperature; using the van't Hoff equation (20),  $\Delta H^\circ$  can be determined. The sorption rate is generally faster at higher temperature; the Arrhenius equation (77) is used to determine the activation energy.

##### **4.5.2.3.1 Partition Coefficient**

The partition coefficients of three chlorinated benzenes decreased as temperature increased (Figure 4.18). The partition coefficients from first-order model fits are plotted against  $1/T$  in Figure 4.19. Visually, the slopes are similar, corresponding to a similar

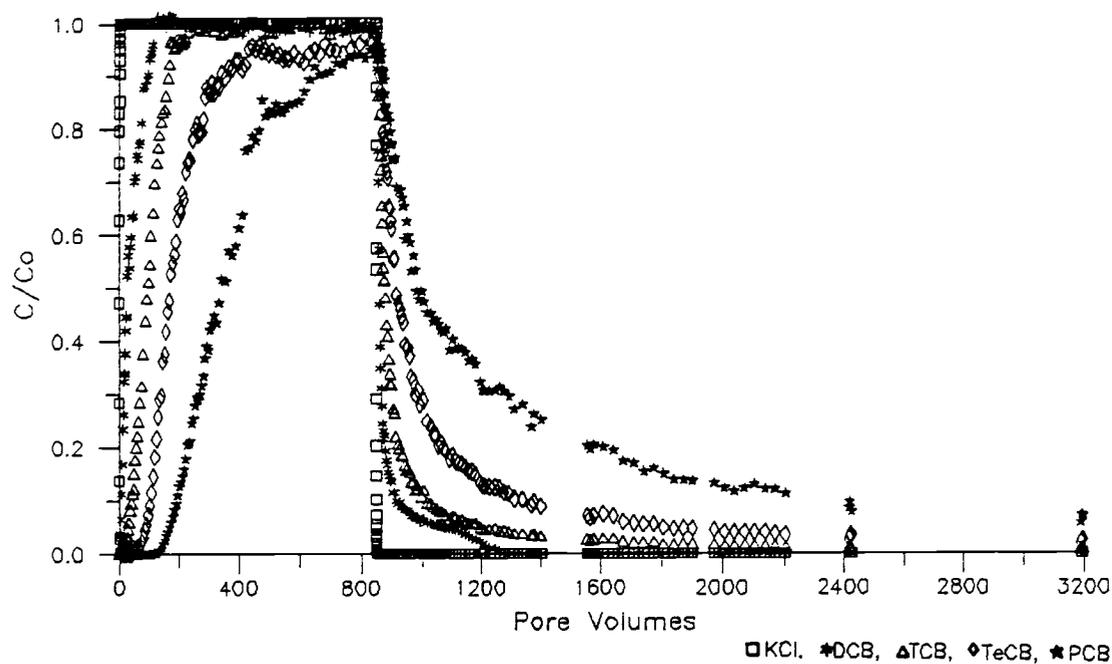


Figure 4.16 Multiple solute breakthrough (E-9)

Table 4.8 Effect of multiple solutes on partitioning

Solute	Single Solute		N	Multiple Solute		Percent Increase
	$K_p$	Ave $K_p$		$K_p$	Ave $K_p$	
DCB	8.98					
	23.5					
	56.3	49.8	4	111	111	120
	64.6					
	95.4					
19.9*						
TCB	83.3		4	232		
	87.4	85.3	2	113	169	94
	89.9		2	160		
TeCB	136*		4	564		
			2	140	397	190
			2	487		
PCB	808		4	1130	1130	40

\*Batch experiment.

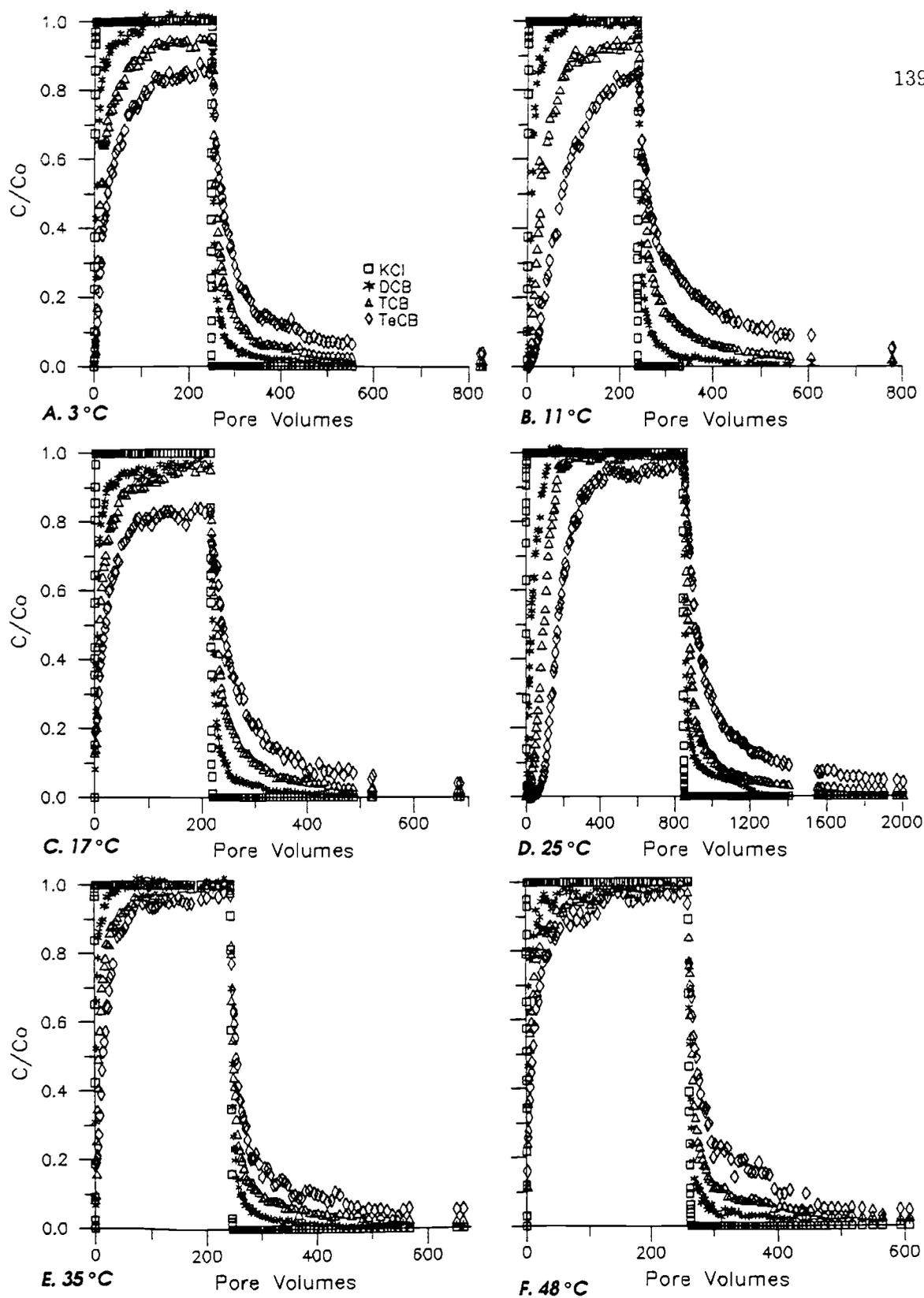


Figure 4.17 Sorption at different temperatures

Table 4.9 Sorption onto surface E at different temperatures

Exp.	Solute	T (°C)	Equilibrium Model										First Order Model					Two Region Model				
			$D_{KCl}$ ( $cm^2/s$ )	$K_{ad}^1$	$K_{po}^2$	rev.	$K_p$ ( $cm^3/g$ )	D	$D/D_{KCl}$	sq	$K_p N_b$ ( $cm^3/g$ )	$k_b$ ( $s^{-1}$ )	sq	$K_p$ ( $cm^3/g$ )	$N_b$	$c_e$ ( $s^{-1}$ )	f	sq	$K_p$ ( $cm^3/g$ )	$N_b$	$c_e$ ( $s^{-1}$ )	f
E-6 SY	DCB	3	0.0426	26.43	28.15	0.939	22.94	0.463	10.87	0.0691	16.84	1.809	0.00431	0.2518	21.15	0.532	0.00362	0.336	0.0756			
E-7 SX		11	0.0329	31.86	38.70	0.823	28.01	0.245	7.447	0.1404	21.05	3.622	0.00667	0.2179	24.07	0.636	0.00418	0.484	0.1580			
E-8 SZ		17	0.469	46.00	35.49	1.296	23.81	0.645	1.375	0.0829	14.96	1.429	0.00346	0.2085	14.97	1.420	0.00870	0.086	0.2085			
E-9 SS		25	0.0139	105.5	115.6	0.913	88.13	0.549	42.73	0.6544	62.64	2.045	0.00142	0.7633	71.20	1.124	0.00826	0.189	0.6582			
E-10 TA		35	0.00984	12.74	14.73	0.865	11.39	0.647	65.75	0.1103	8.128	0.926	0.00467	0.1894	8.586	0.793	0.00551	0.183	0.1810			
E-11 TB		48	0.0592	32.64	39.08	0.835	15.96	1.26	21.28	0.0882	7.932	0.639	0.00342	0.1836	11.71	0.272	0.00196	0.262	0.1011			
E-6 SY	TCB	3	0.0426	108.2	52.53	2.060	96.93	1.10	25.82	0.0499	45.22	1.849	0.00164	0.4928	61.28	0.239	0.00162	0.328	0.0571			
E-7 SX		11	0.0329	131.6	101.9	1.291	164.6	0.873	26.54	0.4363	63.86	3.011	0.00183	0.8200	207.9	0.166	0.00109	0.234	0.3019			
E-8 SZ		17	0.469	73.18	67.17	1.089	79.07	1.04	2.217	0.1226	40.64	1.442	0.00128	0.2798	42.01	0.453	0.00277	0.289	0.2044			
E-9 SS		25	0.0139	262.1	202.6	1.294	268.1	0.521	37.48	1.7400	179.3	3.071	0.000742	1.6076	168.9	3.165	0.0233	0.044	1.5990			
E-10 TA		35	0.00984	44.16	52.46	0.842	45.36	1.17	118.9	0.2134	24.00	1.329	0.00227	0.3504	25.52	0.796	0.00553	0.207	0.3254			
E-11 TB		48	0.0592	47.34	61.97	0.764	53.82	1.78	30.07	0.0448	22.61	1.126	0.00212	0.2355	26.08	0.210	0.00151	0.290	0.0902			
E-6 SY	TeCB	3	0.0426	288.4	201.7	1.430	296.7	1.50	35.21	0.0624	110.9	1.550	0.000560	0.5669	135.1	0.349	0.00237	0.311	0.1012			
E-7 SX		11	0.0329	308.1	221.1	1.393	698.5	1.39	42.25	0.3846	198.8	2.370	0.000462	1.0640	333.9	0.406	0.00266	0.312	0.3946			
E-8 SZ		17	0.469	260.5	153.6	1.696	251.7	1.45	3.092	0.4845	101.3	1.254	0.000448	0.3383	78.58	1.340	0.00821	0.017	0.3025			
E-9 SS		25	0.0139	563.6	563.6	1.000	801.2	0.605	43.53	1.5710	385.2	3.731	0.000420	1.6542	377.1	3.566	0.0262	0.096	1.6560			
E-10 TA		35	0.00984	75.34	115.3	0.653	101.1	1.32	134.1	0.2982	45.57	1.509	0.00136	0.3310	44.10	1.545	0.0107	0.026	0.3273			
E-11 TB		48	0.0592	76.02	103.1	0.737	110.5	1.82	30.74	0.3183	49.59	1.157	0.000991	0.3588	42.14	0.479	0.00345	0.213	0.2976			

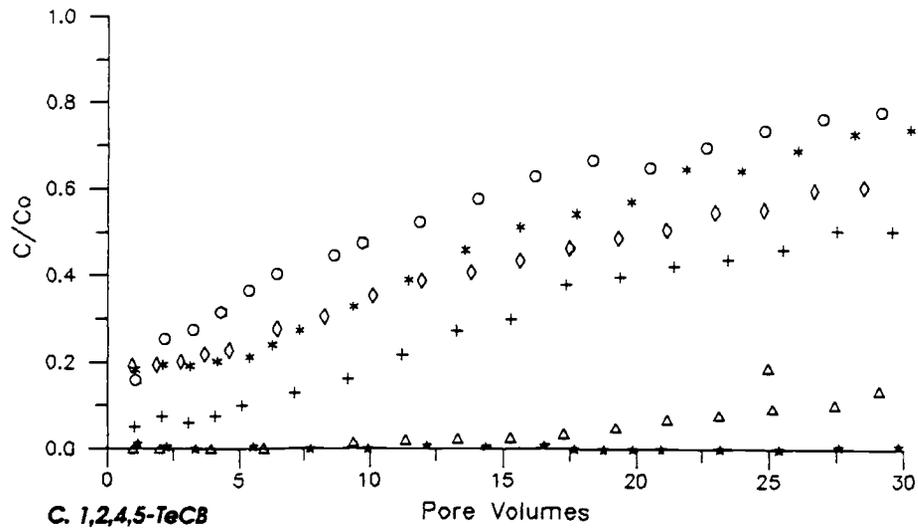
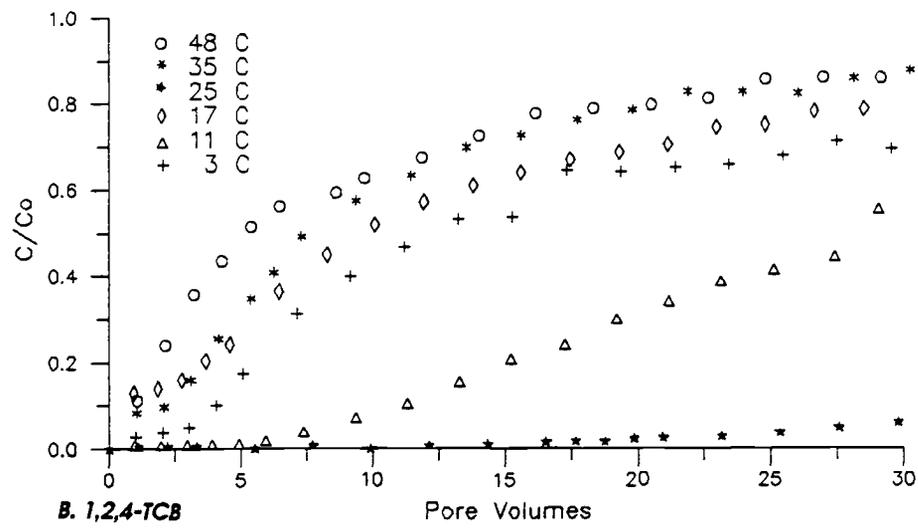
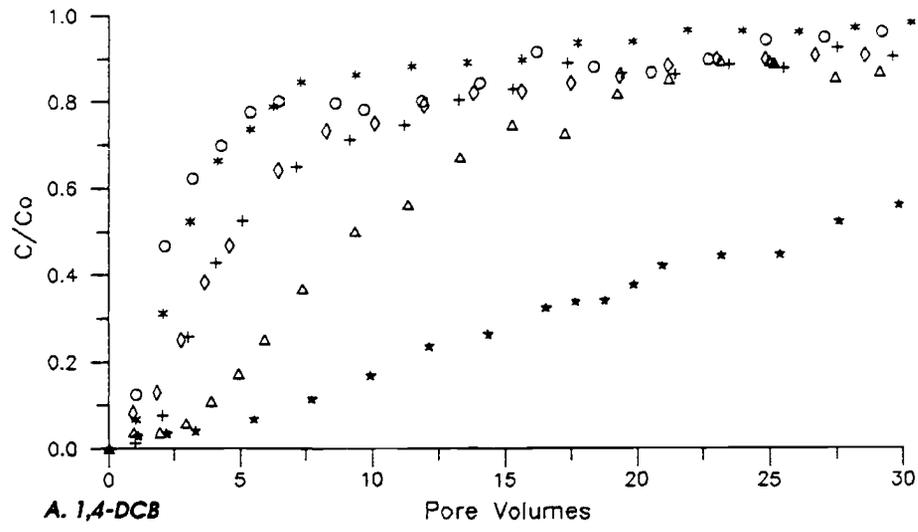


Figure 4.18 Effect of temperature on sorption

enthalpy of the overall sorption process. The intercept is different in each case, corresponding to increased entropy for the sorption reaction.

The van't Hoff equation (20) was used to calculate the enthalpy of the sorption reaction, with results shown in Table 4.10. Enthalpy changes that occur during sorption result from both the sorbent/sorbate interaction and the increased hydrogen bonding upon solute molecule removal from solution (the solvent effect). The sorbate/sorbent interaction enthalpy is not expected to change over the series of compounds, but the solvent effect enthalpy decreases, resulting from increased hydrogen bonding upon larger molecule removal from solution.

The experimental data (Table 4.10) show enthalpies of  $-3.9 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$  for DCB,  $-3.7 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$  for TCB, and  $-4.9 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$  for TeCB. This decrease in enthalpy over the series of compounds may be due to the solvent effect.

The van't Hoff equation (Figure 4.19) was used to calculate the thermodynamic  $K$  at  $25^\circ\text{C}$ , for the three compounds. This represents the partition coefficient between a pure organic phase and water. The Gibbs free energy was calculated using equation (11), where  $\Delta G^\circ$  for DCB was  $-4.3 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ ,  $-4.9 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$  for TCB, and  $-5.4 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$  for TeCB. These small sorption energies are consistent with a van der Waals interaction.

The entropy of the overall sorption process was calculated from  $\Delta G^\circ$  and  $\Delta H^\circ$  values (Table 4.10), and is slightly positive for the three compounds (0.4 to 1.2  $\text{kcal mol}^{-1}$ ). There are two entropy effects in the sorption process (Section 2.1.1). These are the decreased entropy in moving a solute molecule from liquid to a sorbed state, and the increased entropy from the solvent effect (decreased water molecule structure due to the solute molecule removal from solution). Experimental values do show that the solvent effect entropy is greater. The solvent effect entropy is considered a major driving force for the sorption of hydrophobic compounds from aqueous solution [*Frank and Evans, 1945*].

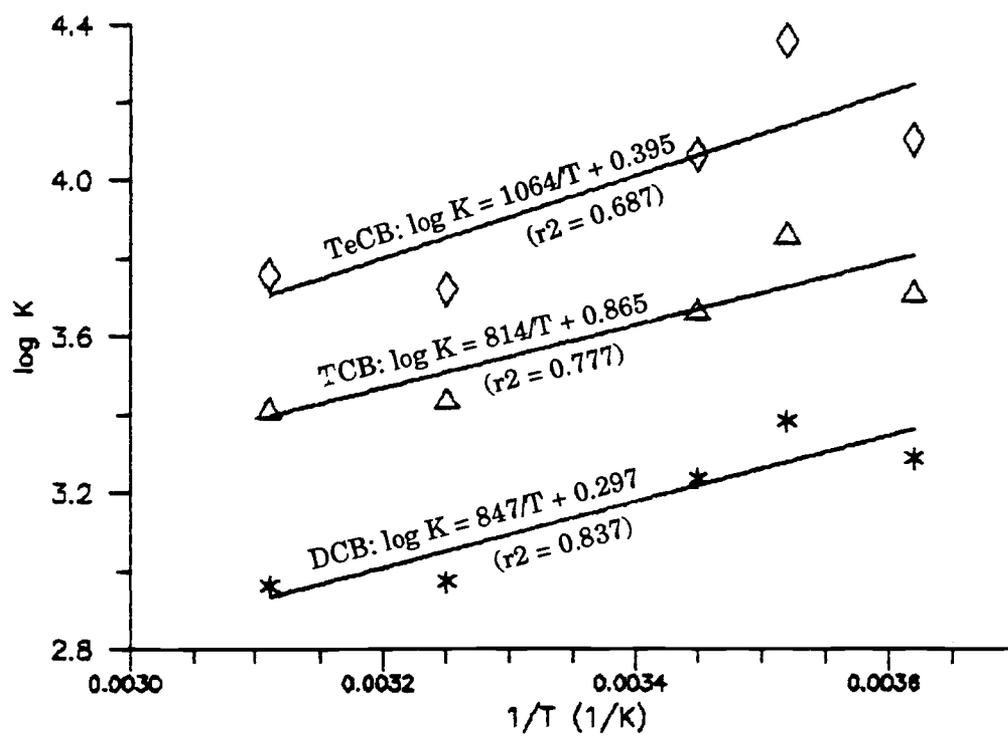


Figure 4.19 Sorption at different temperature

Table 4.10 Thermodynamic results

<i>K versus T (van't Hoff Equation)</i>			
Compound	$\Delta H^\circ$ (kcal mol <sup>-1</sup> )	$T\Delta S^\circ$ (kcal mol <sup>-1</sup> )	$\Delta G^\circ$ (kcal mol <sup>-1</sup> )
DCB	-3.88 ± 0.12	+0.40 ± 0.12	-4.28 ± 0.12
TCB	-3.73 ± 0.15	+1.17 ± 0.15	-4.90 ± 0.14
TeCB	-4.87 ± 0.24	+0.54 ± 0.24	-5.41 ± 0.23

$$\log K = [-\Delta H / 2.3R]1/T + \Delta S / 2.3R$$

$$\Delta H = -2.3R (\text{Slope})$$

$$\Delta G = -RT \ln K \text{ at } 25^\circ\text{C}$$

$$T\Delta S = \Delta H - \Delta G$$

<i>Sorption rate versus T (Arrhenius Equation)</i>		
Compound	<i>k<sub>f</sub> versus T</i>	<i>k<sub>b</sub> versus T</i>
	$E_a$ (kcal mol <sup>-1</sup> )	$E_a$ (kcal mol <sup>-1</sup> )
DCB	+4.95	+1.55
TCB	+2.06	-1.02
TeCB	+0.74	+0.01

$$E_a = -2.3R (\text{Slope})$$

#### 4.5.2.3.2 Chemical Sorption Rate

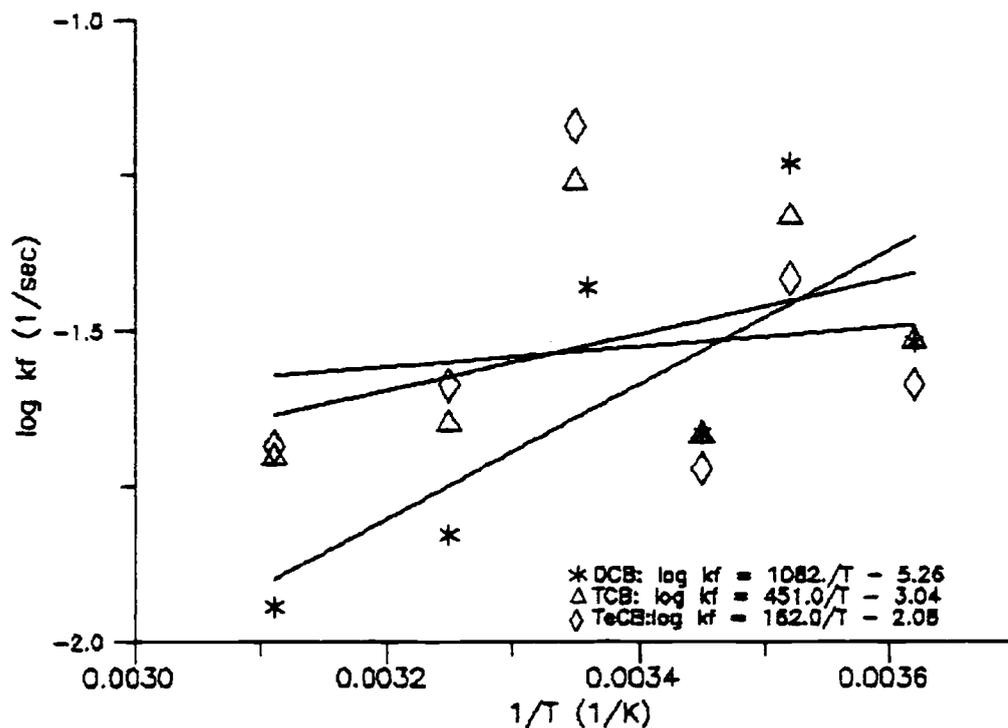
The change in the sorption and desorption rates of the three solutes over the 3 to 48°C temperature range are shown in Figure 4.20A and B. The rates ( $k_f$  and  $k_b$ ) shown are first-order model fits to breakthrough curves (see Table 4.9).

If the slow sorption is caused by a slow first-order chemical reaction, then slow chemical reaction theory can be used to estimate thermodynamic parameters from the rate versus temperature data. Two theories that can explain slow chemical reactions are the collision theory and the transition state theory. The collision theory describes the reaction proceeding at a rate controlled by the frequency of collisions of molecules at a specific orientation [Fressenden *et al.*, 1982], where the frequency of collisions are smaller for more specific orientations. Reaction kinetics are described with the Arrhenius equation:

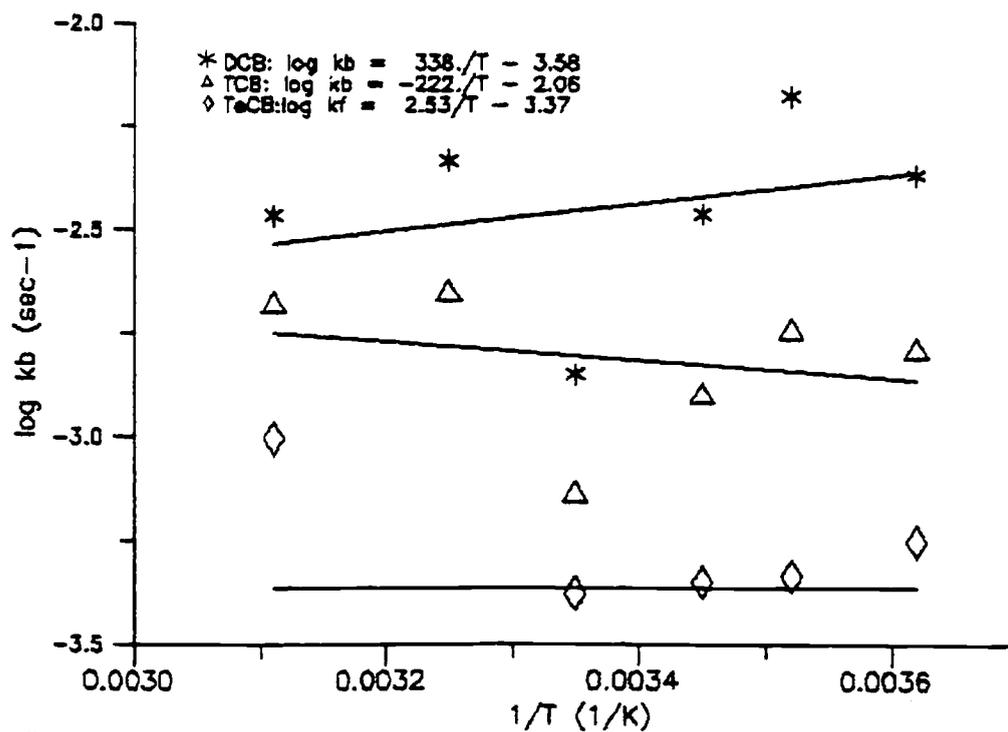
$$k_b = A \exp\left[\frac{-E_a}{RT}\right] \quad (77)$$

where  $k_b$  is the reaction rate,  $E_a$  is the activation energy, and  $A$  is the collision frequency (and steric) factor. The transition state theory is a more energetic approach, where the slow reaction results from the energy barrier in creating an activated complex and the slow decay of the complex. A comparison between these two approaches can lead to the calculation of the activated complex enthalpy and entropy.

The plot of  $k_b$  versus  $1/T$  (Figure 4.20B) shows little trend with increasing temperature, as the  $k_b$  for DCB decreases, the  $k_b$  for TCB increases, and the  $k_b$  for TeCB does not change. The forward rate coefficient ( $k_f$ ) was calculated from desorption rate and  $K_p$  (equation 9), and it shows a regular trend of decreasing rate with increasing temperature (Figure 4.20A). Scatter in the rate data is understandable since model fits to data are only fair to good (ssq = 0.2 to 2.0). Even with these well characterized particles, it may not be possible to completely separate several rate-limiting steps. Since the diffusion time into porous particles is about one minute, a faster chemical reaction rate



A. First-order sorption rate coefficient ( $k_f$ )



B. First-order desorption rate coefficient ( $k_b$ )

Figure 4.20 Arrhenius plots of reaction rates

will not be observed, as it will be masked by the slower diffusion rate. The rate-limiting step also may not be entirely caused by slow chemical reaction.

Sorption and desorption rate data were fit to the Arrhenius equation (77) to calculate the activation energy ( $E_a$  in Table 4.10). The  $E_a$  values calculated with  $k_b$  range from +0.8 to +5.0 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>, and with  $k_f$  range from -1.0 to +1.6 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>. These values are near the reported values for collisions by diffusion in aqueous solution (+3 to 5 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>) [Stumm and Morgan, 1981], but most of the data in this research indicate that a slow binding and release step is rate limiting.

#### 4.5.2.3.3 Diffusion Rate

The sorption rates obtained from model fits of breakthrough curves at different temperatures (Table 4.9) can be compared to the expected rate if diffusion were the rate-limiting sorption step. A case where diffusion through immobile fluid is assumed to cause all of the slow sorption is examined with use of equation (40). In this case, the diffusion coefficient through spherical particles is calculated by assuming that  $D_{mobile}$  (for a solute) is equal to a factor times  $D_{KCl}$ , where this factor is 1.5 for DCB, 1.9 for TCB, and 3.7 for TeCB. The total dispersion observed ( $D_{total}$ ) is that obtained from the equilibrium model fit to data (Table 4.9), so it includes hydrodynamic dispersion and spreading due to the slow process. The diffusion in spherical particles ( $D_a$ ) necessary to cause the observed slow sorption is calculated (Table 4.11) for all of the experiments at different temperatures.

Linear regression of diffusion coefficients over the temperature range shows a decrease of 66 percent for DCB, 17 percent decrease for TCB, and a 13 percent increase for TeCB. The correlation was very poor, with  $r^2 = 0.392$ , 0.016, and 0.005 for the three compounds. A graph of these data (Figure 4.21) show considerable scatter, with no observable trend. If the sorption rate was controlled by the diffusion rate, then it should increase 16.3 percent from 3 to 48°C, according to the Wilke-Chang equation (39). As the calculated  $D_a$  values do not indicate this trend, the sorption rate is not caused by

Table 4.11 Calculated diffusion coefficient on surface E

Solute	Spherical Diffusion Coefficient ( $D_A$ ) x $10^9$ *					
	3°C	11°C	17°C	25°C	35°C	48°C
DCB	13.5	24.2	7.63	11.9	9.76	5.46
	$D_A = 2.52 \times 10^{-10} T + 8.67 \times 10^{-8}$ ( $r^2 = 0.392$ )					
TCB	5.68	6.69	4.74	13.8	5.41	3.92
	$D_A = 2.82 \times 10^{-11} T + 1.51 \times 10^{-8}$ ( $r^2 = 0.016$ )					
TeCB	4.31	4.29	3.43	12.3	4.85	4.04
	$D_A = 1.47 \times 10^{-11} T + 1.18 \times 10^{-1}$ ( $r^2 = 0.005$ )					

\*equation (90)

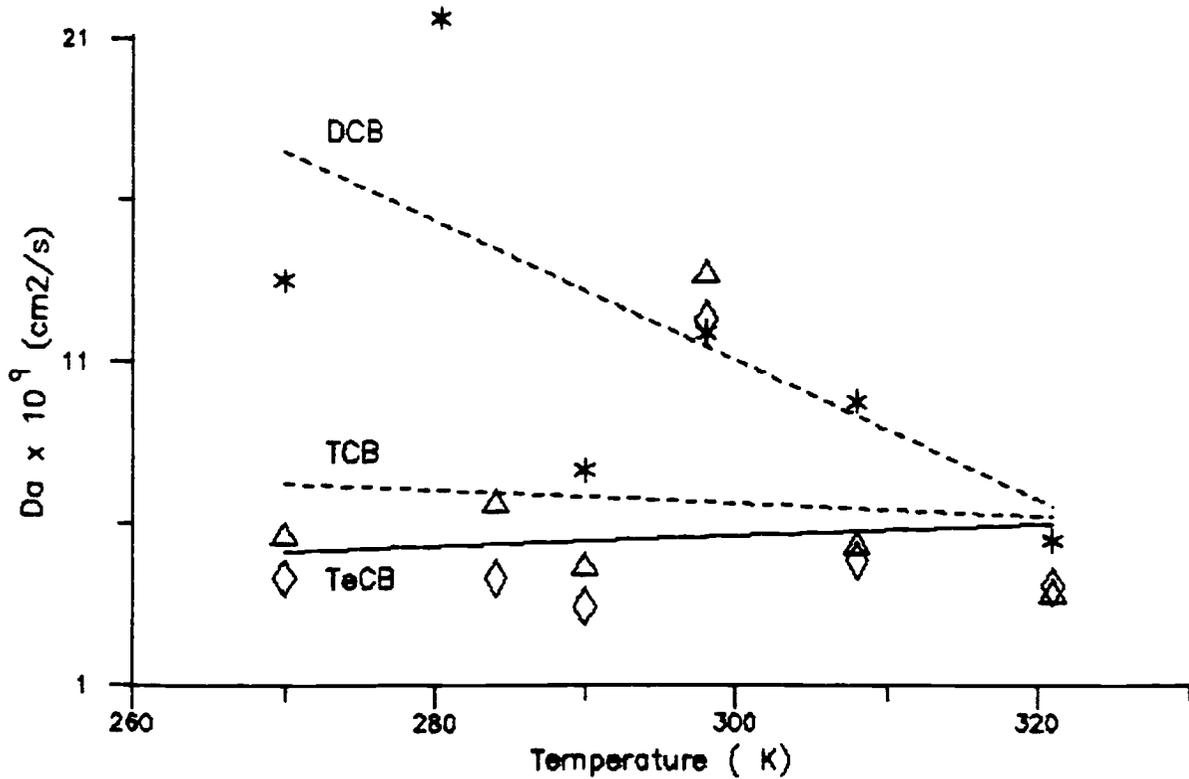


Figure 4.21 Temperature effect on particle diffusion

diffusion through immobile fluid.

The diffusion rate through the bound organic layer is quantified by  $\alpha_i$  ( $\rho_b k_b$ ) as defined in Section 2.2.4.2. First-order model fits to breakthrough curves at different temperatures can be compared to the expected change in the diffusion rate over the 45°C range (a 16.3 percent increase). The change in  $k_b$  with temperature (Table 4.9) is illustrated in Figure 4.20B. Linear regression produced the following results for the compounds: for DCB,  $k_b = -3.0 \times 10^{-5} T + 1.3 \times 10^{-2}$  ( $r^2 = 0.097$ ), for TCB,  $k_b = 1.1 \times 10^{-5} T - 1.6 \times 10^{-3}$  ( $r^2 = 0.12$ ), and for TeCB,  $k_b = 1.4 \times 10^{-5} T - 3.4 \times 10^{-3}$  ( $r^2 = 0.43$ ). Calculating the change in  $k_b$  (or  $\alpha_i$ ) over the temperature range with these equations produces a 32 percent decrease for DCB, a 40 percent increase for TCB, and a 200 percent increase for TeCB. Since there is poor correlation with the expected 16 percent increase from the Wilke-Chang equation, diffusion through the bound organic layer is an unlikely rate-limiting step.

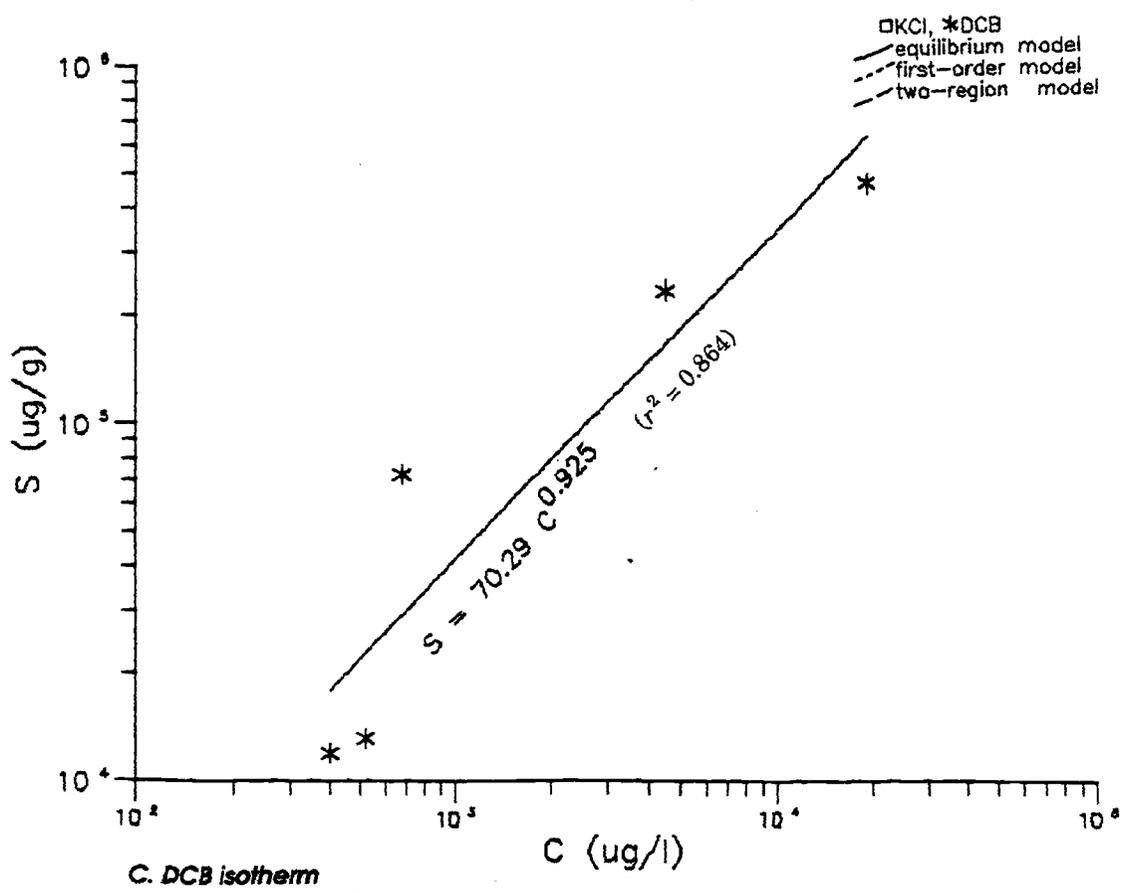
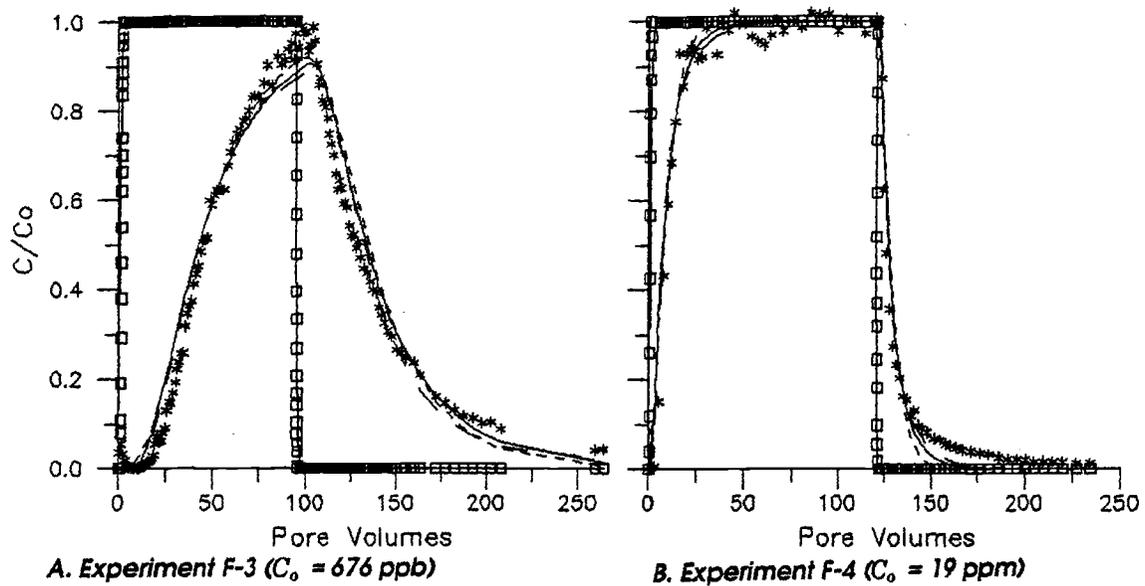
#### 4.5.3 Phenyl Polymer Modified 20 $\mu\text{m}$ Silica with 10 nm Pores

Five column experiments were performed with a phenyl-polymer modified 20- $\mu\text{m}$  silica (Appendix C-15) that has a 10 nm average intraparticle pore size (surface F). The model results are presented in Table 4.12, and two breakthrough curves are shown in Figure 4.22A and B. The  $K_p$  averaged  $47.9 \pm 33.4 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$  with values ranging from 17 to 109, although there was no correlation with concentration. The  $K_{oc}$  averaged 4320, which was about the same as the phenyl-modified 100- $\mu\text{m}$  silica (surface E). Sorption was reversible ( $K_{ps}/K_{pd} = 0.92 \pm 0.34$ ) for the five experiments.

The concentrations of DCB used in experiments varied from 400 ppb to 19 ppm, so an isotherm was developed (Figure 4.22C) and compared to the isotherm obtained from batch experiments. At lower concentrations, breakthrough curves show more tailing (Figure 4.22A, 676 ppb) than for experiments at higher concentration (Figure 4.22B, 19 ppm). Using the average  $K_p$  for each experiment ( $C_o$ ), an isotherm was obtained (Figure 4.22C), where  $S = 70.3 C^{0.925}$  ( $r^2 = 0.864$ ), similar to the isotherm developed from

Table 4.12 DCB sorption onto phenyl polymer modified silicas

Exp.	Solute	Dia. ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	Equilibrium Model						First Order Model						Two Region Model				
			$D_{\text{KCN}}$ ( $\text{cm}^2/\text{s}$ )	$K_{\text{ps}}^{-1}$ ( $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$ )	$K_{\text{ps}}^{\text{rev}}$	$K_p$ ( $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$ )	D	$D/D_{\text{KCN}}$ ( $\text{cm}^2/\text{s}$ )	$K_p N_b$ ( $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$ )	$k_b$ ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ )	ssq	$K_p$ ( $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$ )	$N_b$	$\alpha_b$ ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ )	f	ssq			
U-1 SP	PQ-U	2	0.0185	16.49	4.759	3.465	16.69	0.0109	0.75	0.6657	43.18	1.552	0.0000620	3.0546	14.50	0.7022	0.000659	0.007	2.590
U-2 SQ	PQ-U	Solid	0.0636	3.451	2.773	1.245	8.664	7.65	142	0.1037	7.980	0.229	0.0000776	0.9551	1.930	0.1828	0.000248	0.045	0.0650
ave.				$6.87 \pm 6.47$		2.36							0.000070						
F-1 QV	PQ-I	20	0.00518	25.06	25.71	0.975	85.401	0.591	114	0.0876	24.62	1.967	0.000560	0.1717	24.23	2.108	0.00244	0.015	0.1635
F-2 QW	PQ-I	Porous	0.0117	17.31	42.58	0.407	20.329	0.429	36.7	0.3150	14.40	2.866	0.000984	0.0523	29.94	0.7990	0.000826	0.260	0.8692
F-3 SJ	PQ-I	(11 nm	0.00475	104.0	109.4	0.951	124.91	0.0177	3.73	0.2831	110.2	6.236	0.000380	0.3980	117.11	2.0830	0.00232	0.382	0.3229
F-5 SK	PQ-I	Pore)	0.00887	49.67	55.76	0.891	46.504	0.0860	9.70	0.2322	38.71	4.130	0.00210	0.3228	43.89	0.9993	0.00228	0.528	0.2599
F-4 SL	PQ-I		0.0129	28.56	20.98	1.561	22.229	0.0670	5.15	0.1825	19.83	3.944	0.00388	0.2347	21.13	1.2080	0.00389	0.446	0.1868
ave.				$47.9 \pm 33.4$		0.917			36.5				0.00067				0.0043		
G-1 QX	PQ-J	20	0.000855	32.09	28.69	1.119	31.425	0.0679	79.4	0.1153	27.94	4.790	0.00106	0.2380	33.79	0.7880	0.000651	0.577	0.1700
G-2 QY	PQ-J	(27 nm	0.00339	20.31	16.78	1.210	19.875	0.114	33.6	0.0677	15.63	2.718	0.00132	0.5404	15.71	2.569	0.00257	0.129	0.5392
G-3 QZ	PQ-J	Pore)	0.00185	17.48	22.46	0.778	16.887	0.120	72.7	0.1694	15.13	3.820	0.00182	0.2792	18.01	0.7440	0.000707	0.527	0.0833
ave.				$23.0 \pm 6.19$					40.1				0.0016				0.0029		
E-5 QP	PQ-E	100	0.858	8.015	9.949	0.806	11.810	0.517	60.6	0.1948	8.98	2.195	0.00417	0.1377	8.983	2.593	0.00750	0.024	0.1160
E-1 QQ	PQ-E	(27 nm	0.00629	18.23	28.80	0.633	18.777	0.140	222	0.2124	14.57	2.701	0.000439	0.5534	19.08	0.578	0.000232	0.451	0.3220
E-2 RN	PQ-E	Pore)	0.000889	59.45	53.24	1.117	54.00	0.0251	282	0.0592	45.97	3.608	0.000542	0.2864	53.65	1.119	0.00131	0.408	0.1030
E-3 SR	PQ-E		0.00501	72.38	56.85	1.273	84.82	0.0448	8.94	0.2512	63.86	3.259	0.000385	0.5854	77.81	1.143	0.00146	0.352	0.3319
E-4 TD	PQ-E		0.00114	98.41	92.39	1.065	109.1	0.0636	55.8	0.2720	82.42	2.840	0.000312	0.4635	85.48	2.121	0.00326	0.142	0.4655
E-9 SS	PQ-E		0.0139	105.5	115.6	0.913	88.13	0.594	42.7	0.6544	62.64	2.045	0.00142	0.7633	71.20	1.124	0.00826	0.189	0.6582
ave.				60.6					32.0				0.00038				0.0034		
H-2 RA	PQ-L	425	0.0560	16.71	17.56	0.952	15.26	0.107	1.91	0.1941	10.89	6.204	0.00281	0.4450	16.66	0.1902	0.000190	0.606	0.2538
H-3 RO	PQ-L	(11 nm	0.00520	26.81	24.99	1.073	25.95	0.222	4.27	0.0661	22.55	3.006	0.000754	0.2438	25.39	0.9394	0.00107	0.435	0.0767
H-1 RP	PQ-L	Pore)	0.00421	23.63	23.80	0.993	22.47	0.237	56.3	0.0997	19.61	2.963	0.000835	0.3138	22.35	0.8780	0.000979	0.424	0.0885
ave.				$22.2 \pm 4.13$					33.6				0.0011				0.0015		



**Figure 4.22 DCB sorption onto phenyl polymer surface F (20  $\mu$ m diameter with 11 nm pores)**

batch experiments (exponent = 0.91).

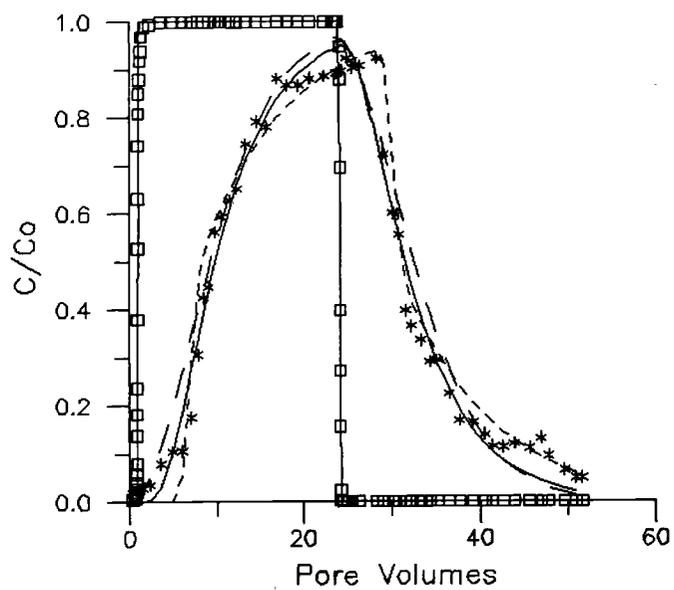
The equilibrium model  $D_{DCB}/D_{KCl}$  (Table 4.12) averaged  $36.5 \pm 45.0$ , indicating a variable amount of nonequilibrium sorption. The first-order model, however, indicates fairly consistent slow sorption values between experiments, with  $\omega$  varying from 2 to 7 and  $k_b$  averaging  $6.7 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . The two-region model also had a consistent rate coefficient ( $\alpha_e$ ) of  $4.3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , even with  $f$  varying from 0.02 to 0.53. The  $\alpha_e/K_p \rho_b$  from the two-region model is  $2.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ .

One desorption was performed after 62 days (experiment F-2), and it had a much larger desorption  $K_p$  (43) than sorption (17), which could indicate some irreversible sorption. However,  $K_p$  values were within the range of those obtained from other experiments, and no irreversible sorption was observed with batch experiments over a 2 week period.

#### 4.5.4 Phenyl Polymer Modified 20 $\mu\text{m}$ Silica with 27.5 nm Pores

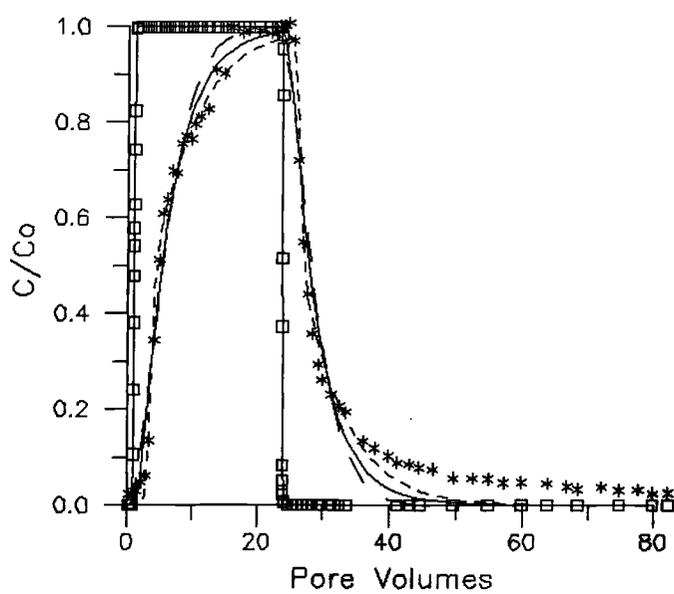
Three column experiments of DCB sorption were performed on a phenyl-polymer modified 20- $\mu\text{m}$  silica that had a 27.5 nm average pore diameter (surface G). Break-through curves are shown in Appendix C-16, and modeling results in Table 4.12. The  $K_p$  averaged  $23.0 \pm 6.2 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ , and the  $K_{oc}$  averaged 2270, showing less partitioning than observed on the other 20- $\mu\text{m}$  surface (surface F) with the same  $f_{oc}$ . Two break-through curves are shown in Figure 4.23A and B. Desorption was performed after 54 days in one experiment (Figure 4.23B), and it showed a slightly larger desorption  $K_p$  (22.5) compared to the sorption  $K_p$  (17.5). An experiment in which immediate desorption was performed (Figure 4.23A) showed slightly greater sorption  $K_p$  than the desorption  $K_p$ .

The equilibrium model  $D_{DCB}/D_{KCl}$  averaged  $40.1 \pm 36.5$ , indicating a fair degree of nonequilibrium sorption. The first-order model fits to the three experiments showed a consistent amount of nonequilibrium with  $\omega$  ranging from 2.7 to 4.8, and  $k_b$  averaging  $1.6 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . This rate is 140 percent larger than that obtained from the other 20- $\mu\text{m}$



**A. Experiment G-1**

□ KCl, \* DCB  
 — equilibrium model  
 - - - first-order model  
 - · - two-region model



**B. Experiment G-3**

**Figure 4.23 DCB sorption onto phenyl polymer surface G  
(20  $\mu\text{m}$  diameter with 27 nm pores)**

phenyl-polymer surface with smaller pores (surface F).

The two-region model fits to breakthrough curves had an average  $\alpha_e$  of  $2.9 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , which is slower than the other 20- $\mu\text{m}$  silica that had smaller pores (surface F). The sorption rate is partially controlled by diffusion through immobile pore fluid, since the smaller particles with more tortuous flow paths exhibited slower rates.

#### **4.5.5 Phenyl Polymer Modified 425 $\mu\text{m}$ Silica with 11 nm Pores**

Three column experiments were performed with sorption of DCB onto a phenyl-polymer modified 425- $\mu\text{m}$  silica, which has an average pore diameter of 11 nm (surface H). This silica differs from surface F only by particle size, the pore diameter is identical for both surfaces. Breakthrough curves of experiments are in Appendix C-17, and the modeling results are shown in Table 4.12.

Sorption onto the 425- $\mu\text{m}$  surface had an average  $K_p$  of  $22.2 \pm 4.1 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$  and a  $K_{oc}$  of 2100, somewhat smaller than other phenyl polymer modified surfaces. The sorption was reversible ( $K_{ps}/K_{pd} = 1.01$ ), and there was a large amount of nonequilibrium sorption exhibited based on the equilibrium model  $D_{DCB}/D_{KCl}$  ratio ( $33.6 \pm 28.4$ ) and the tailing, which is shown in Figure 4.24A and B.

The first-order model shows a consistent amount of nonequilibrium sorption with  $\omega$  values ranging from 3 to 6 and a  $k_b$  averaging  $1.1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . This sorption rate was 74 percent faster than the 20- $\mu\text{m}$  particle with same pore size (surface F). The two-region model fit to the data had an average  $\alpha_e$  of  $1.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , which is 180 percent slower than the 20- $\mu\text{m}$  silica with the same pore size. There appears to be some indication that the sorption rate is slower for the larger particle, indicating diffusion through immobile fluid is causing some of the slow sorption.

#### **4.5.6 Phenyl Polymer Modified 2 $\mu\text{m}$ solid Silica**

A phenyl polymer silane was bound to a 1.9- $\mu\text{m}$  nonporous silica (surface U), resulting in an  $f_{oc}$  of 0.0044, or about a third that determined on the porous silicas. The calculated monolayer surface area coverage (Table 3.1) was about 100 percent on the

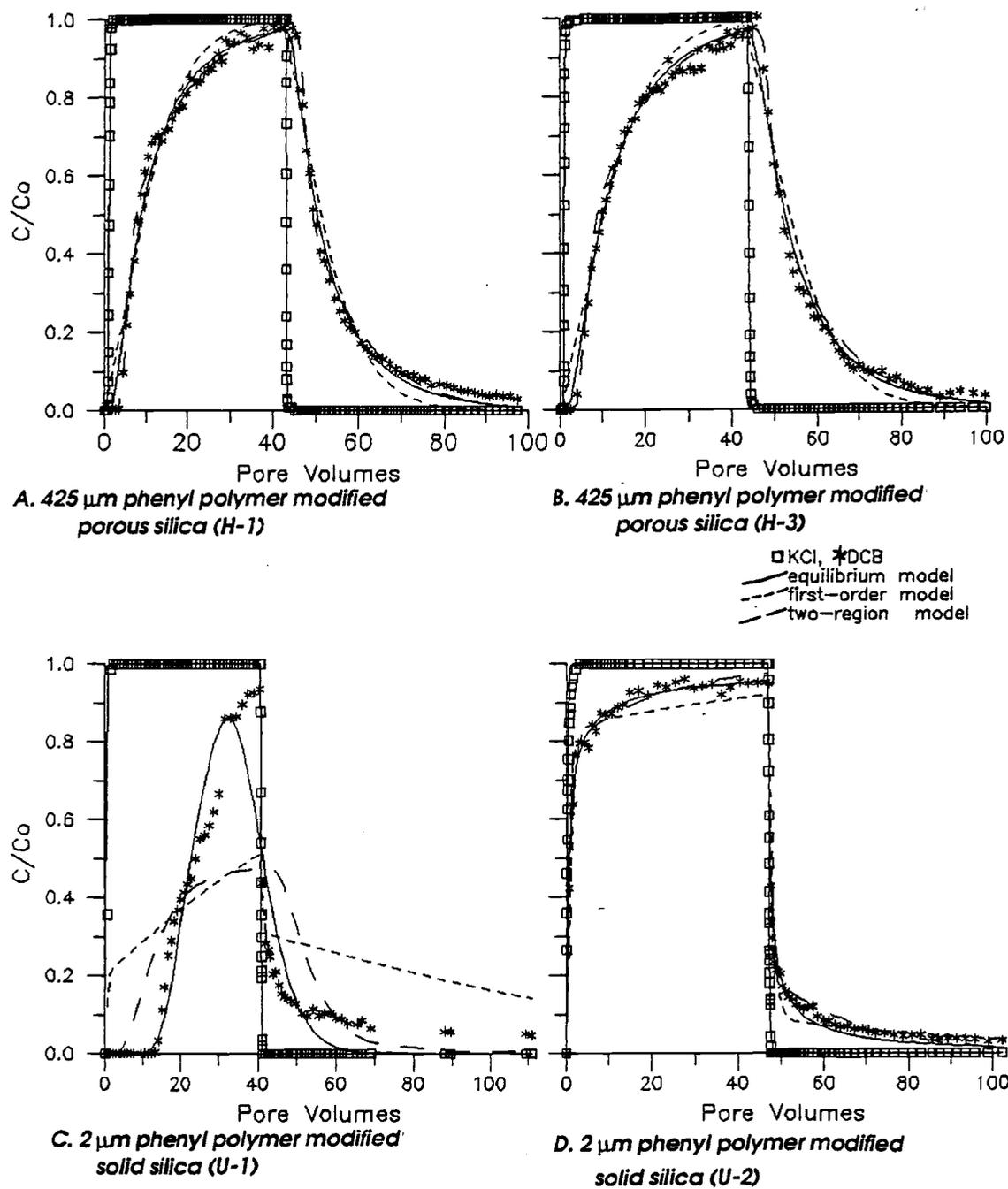


Figure 4.24 Particle structure effect on DCB sorption

solid surface, compared to 2 to 15 percent on the porous surfaces. Two column experiments of DCB sorption were performed on the 2- $\mu\text{m}$  nonporous silica (Figure 4.24C and D), with the modeling results shown in Table 4.12.

The partition coefficient averaged  $6.9 \pm 6.5 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ , and the average  $K_{oc}$  was 1560, smaller than other phenyl-polymer modified silicas. Since the polymer is more densely packed on the surface, sorption sites may be less accessible. This could lead to slower chemical sorption into the polymer. The sorption  $K_p$  was over twice that for desorption ( $K_{ps}/K_{pd} = 2.4 \pm 1.6$ ), possibly indicating some irreversible sorption.

The equilibrium model dispersion for DCB was 142 times larger than the dispersion observed for KCl for experiment U-2 (Figure 4.24D). The first-order model fit to the two experiments produced  $\omega$  values of 0.2 and 1.5, and an average  $k_b$  of  $7.0 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . The model fit was good for experiment U-2 (ssq = 0.35), but poor for experiment U-1 (ssq = 3.1).

The two-region model fits to the experiments were considerably better than first-order model fits, where  $\alpha_e$  averaged  $4 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , and  $f$  averaged 0.014. The small value of  $f$  (fraction mobile sites) indicates that slow sorption can be modeled with mainly slow sorption sites, which is mathematically close to the first-order model where all of the sites exhibit slow sorption. The  $\alpha_e/\rho_b K_p$  was  $6.6 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , equal to that obtained in the first-order model fit to data.

#### **4.6 C<sub>18</sub> and Phenyl Polymer Modified 100 $\mu\text{m}$ Silica**

A 100- $\mu\text{m}$  porous silica was modified by binding both a C<sub>18</sub>-polymer and a phenyl-polymer (about equal mixture) to the surface (X). In this case, sorption onto the bound organic phase occurs by parallel reactions, fast (equilibrium) sorption onto the C<sub>18</sub> fraction, and slow sorption onto the phenyl-polymer fraction. Since the polymerization of phenyl groups produces strong and slow sorption, the sorption rate on the phenyl-polymer fraction of this surface should increase. Sorption on this surface is heterogeneous, which is observed to produce more peak spreading [Antle *et al.*, 1985].

Two column experiments were performed with this heterogeneous surface (Figure 4.25A and B), with modeling results shown in Table 4.13. The average  $K_p$  was  $30.0 \pm 1.8 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ , which was reversible within 2 percent in both cases. The equilibrium model DCB dispersion was 11 to 26 times greater than the KCl dispersion, indicating some nonequilibrium, but not as great as on the pure phenyl-polymer modified surfaces. Visually (Figure 4.25A and B), breakthrough curve tailing appears greater than tailing observed on the  $\text{C}_{18}$  silica, but less than that seen on the phenyl-polymer silica.

This parallel sorption can be modeled with a first-order model (single rate) where  $\omega$  was 6 to 8, and the  $k_b$  was  $1\text{-}3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , or about three-fold faster than the phenyl-polymer bound to 100- $\mu\text{m}$  silica (surface E). The rate on the heterogeneous surface is 2-6 fold slower than the rate observed for  $\text{C}_{18}$  polymer bound to 100- $\mu\text{m}$  porous silica (surface C).

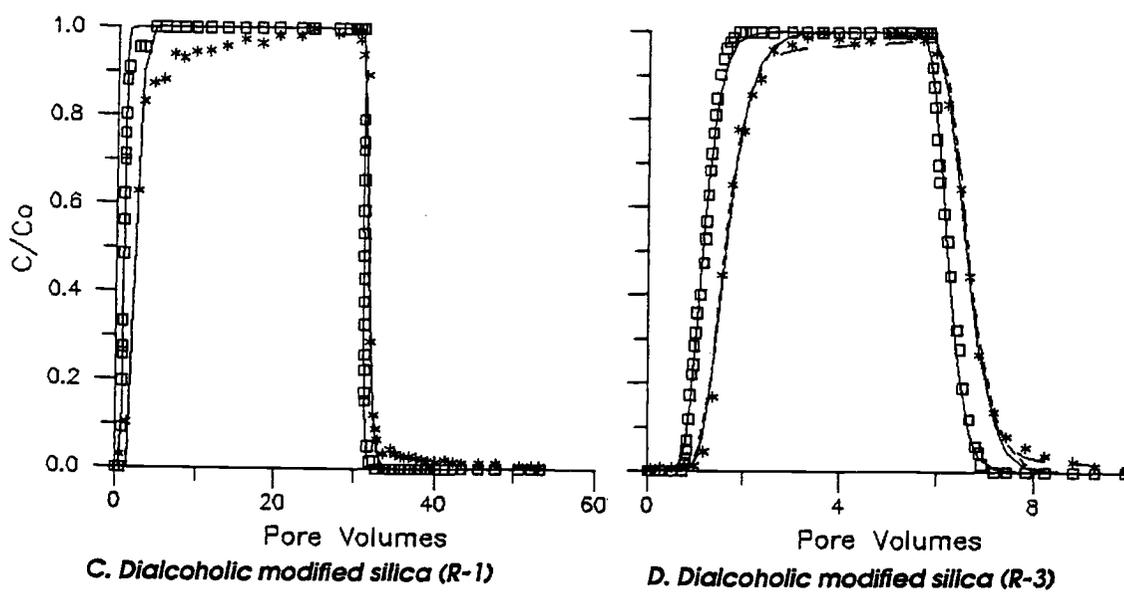
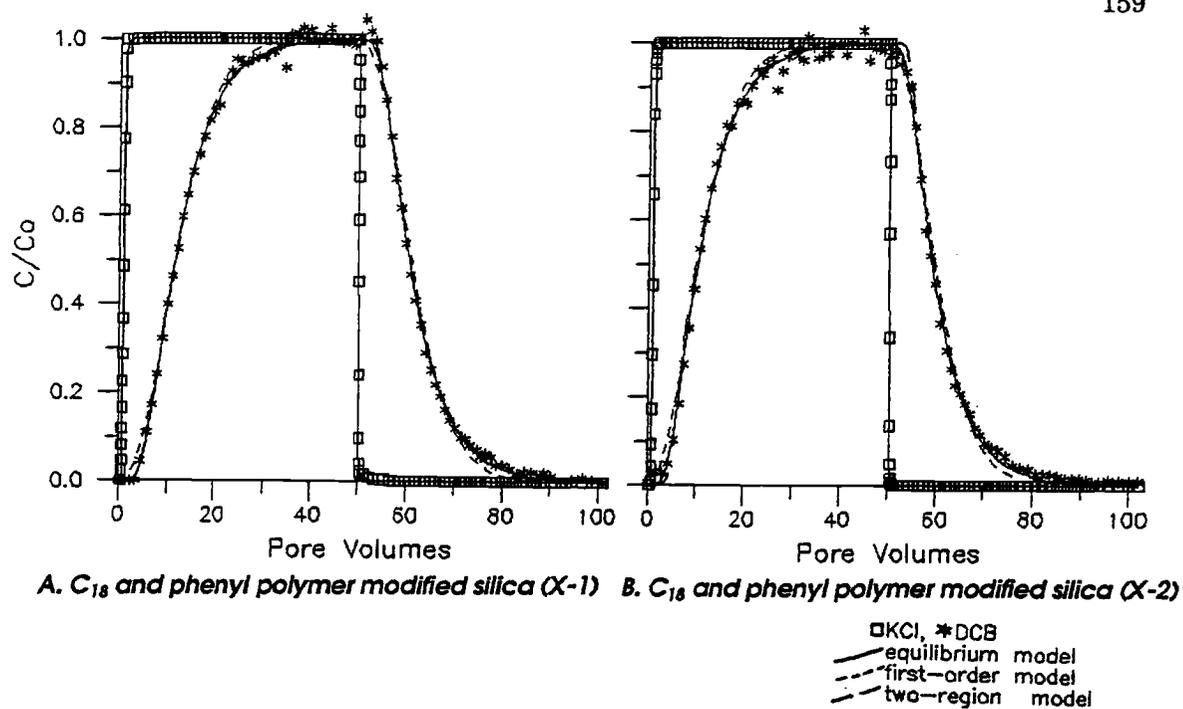
A two-region model can be interpreted in terms of a slow reaction in parallel with a fast reaction. Fitting the two region model to experiment X-2 produced a slow reaction rate of  $8.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , which is still twice as large as the phenyl-polymer surface ( $k_b = 3.8 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), although the standard error in the calculated rate is about 30 percent.

#### 4.7 Alcoholic Modified Surface

A silane with six carbons in an aliphatic chain, an ether group (C-O-C), and two alcoholic groups was bound to a 100- $\mu\text{m}$  silica (surface R). The surface is mainly nonpolar, but has some dipole moment due to the functional groups. Because of the polar functional groups, sorption of hydrophobic compounds is expected to be smaller than on a pure nonpolar silane. Three column experiments were performed with the sorption of DCB (Appendix C-19), where the  $K_p$  averaged  $0.99 \pm 0.02 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ . Model results are shown in Table 4.13, and the results of two experiments are illustrated in Figure 4.25C and D. The  $K_p$  is smaller than all other organic surfaces as well as unbound surfaces, and the calculated  $K_{oc}$  (114) is also about an order of magnitude smaller than for organic modified surfaces.

Table 4.13 DCB sorption onto functional group modified silica

Exp.	Sorbent	Equilibrium Model						First Order Model				Two Region Model						
		$D_{\text{KCl}}$ ( $\text{cm}^2/\text{s}$ )	$K_{\text{ad}}^1$ ( $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$ )	rev.	$K_{\text{p}}$ ( $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$ )	D	$D/D_{\text{KCl}}$ seq ( $\text{cm}^2/\text{s}$ )	$K_{\text{p}}$ ( $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$ )	$N_{\text{b}}$	$k_{\text{b}}$ ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ )	seq	$K_{\text{p}}$ ( $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$ )	$N_{\text{b}}$	$\alpha_{\text{e}}$ ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ )	f	seq		
X-1 RR	PQ-P C <sub>18</sub> - $\omega$ -2poly	0.00832	31.72	31.65	1.002	28.92	0.107	11.5	0.0164	26.98	7.324	0.00228	0.0477	27.73	2.258	0.00323	0.470	0.0200
X-2 RS	PQ-P C <sub>18</sub> - $\omega$ -2poly	0.00437	28.86	28.45	1.014	25.98	0.116	26.5	0.0247	23.97	5.896	0.00206	0.0709	25.01	1.839	0.00263	0.484	0.0485
ave.			30.02 $\pm$ 1.76					19.0										
R-1 RE	PQ-G DIOLpoly	0.00693	6.630	3.848	1.723	4.083	0.0121	1.75	0.0894	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
R-2 RH	PQ-G DIOLpoly	0.0256	3.063	2.833	1.081	2.568	0.00401	16.7	0.0688	2.308	451.8	0.358	0.0811	2.32	2846.0	0.817	1.019	0.0799
R-3 RI	PQ-G DIOLpoly	0.00656	1.752	1.836	0.954	1.744	0.00649	0.99	0.0239	1.538	10296	18.0	0.0227	2.02	0.0527	0.0000223	1.407	0.0229
ave.			3.33 $\pm$ 1.80		1.25			6.13				1.1						
T-1 ST	PQ-K AMINpoly (pH = 7.0)	0.0490	4.325	2.889	1.466	5.249	0.0300	0.97	0.6083	4.992	6.983	0.00603	0.6188	5.21	1.409	0.000971	0.782	0.6031
T-2 SU	PQ-K AMINpoly (pH = 3.9)	0.00316	3.713	5.420	0.685	2.801	0.00711	2.25	0.1628	2.562	1000000.	1060.	0.1509	2.67	610121	262.0	0.225	0.1432
T-3 SV	PQ-K AMINpoly (pH = 2.3)	0.00457	2.037	4.177	0.488	2.819	0.0118	2.58	0.1820	2.516	350.9	0.376	0.1863	2.52	351.0	0.150	1.303	0.1848
T-4 SW	PQ-K AMINpoly (pH = 1.0)	0.00467	4.009	3.711	1.080	2.768	0.0184	3.94	0.1784	2.322	61.45	0.0701	0.1994	3.41	0.1418	0.0000596	0.995	0.0731



**Figure 4.25 DCB sorption onto heterogeneous surfaces**

Sorption onto the alcoholic modified surface was fast (Figure 4.25C and D), indicated by the lack of tailing in breakthrough curves and by the equilibrium model  $D_{DCB}/D_{KCl}$  ratio (0.964). The first-order model  $\omega$  values were large (26 to 10,000), and  $k_b$  averaged  $1.1 \text{ s}^{-1}$ . The two-region model fits to two experiments had a difference in  $\alpha_e$  of five orders of magnitude, indicating difficulty in fitting data to a unique set of parameters. Multiple experiment fitting model (MFITIM), discussed in Section 5.3.3, is used to improve this fit.

#### 4.8 Amine Modified Silica

A silane with a two carbon chain and terminating amine group was bound to a 100- $\mu\text{m}$  silica surface (surface T). The fraction of bound carbon by weight ( $f_{oc}$ ) was 0.8 percent, and the fraction of bound nitrogen by weight was 0.3 percent. Amine surfaces are strong Lewis bases and will ionize at low pH. This will decrease sorption of a hydrophobic solute, such as a chlorinated benzene, at low pH [Horvath *et al.*, 1978].

Four column experiments of DCB sorption were performed on this amine surface at different pH values (7.00, 3.88, 2.28, and 1.03), shown in Figure 4.26A through D. Model results are presented in Table 4.13. The  $K_p$  did not show a significant change over the pH range ( $K_p$  was 3.56, 4.57, 3.11, and 3.86 respectively), indicating the amine group  $pK_a$  was not between 1 and 7. The  $pK_a$  of aliphatic amines should be in the range of 7 to 10 [Fressenden *et al.*, 1982], with a net positive charge below this value. The low  $K_p$  values are about the same as sorption onto unbonded silica. At low pH values, the silica is more neutrally charged ( $pH_{iep} = 2.0$ ), which may lead to greater sorption onto the silica surface.

Tailing visually increases as the pH decreases, which is also indicated by the increasing equilibrium model dispersion ratio ( $D_{DCB}/D_{KCl} = 0.97, 2.25, 2.58, \text{ and } 3.94$ ).

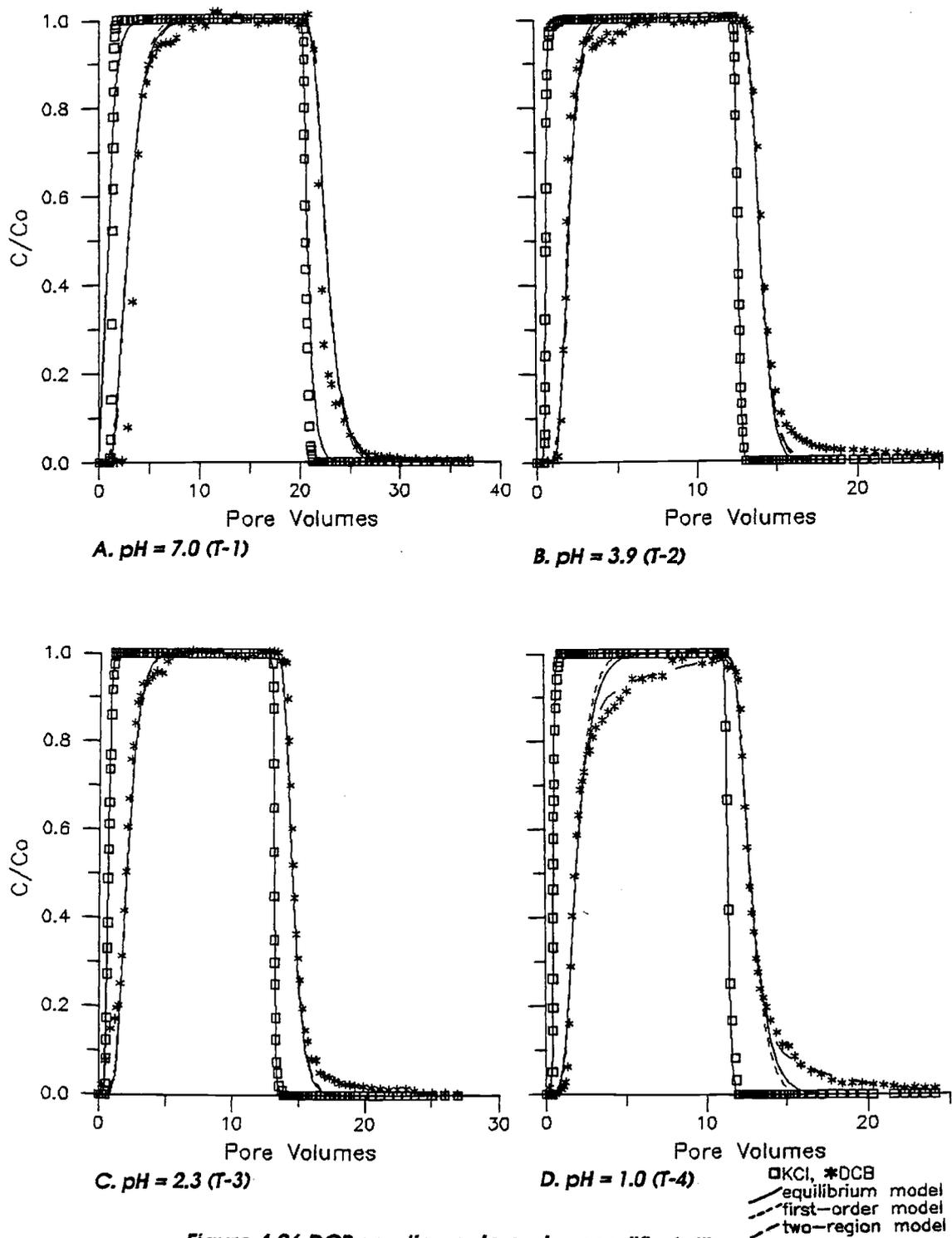


Figure 4.26 DCB sorption onto amine modified silica

The equilibrium model, however, did not fit all the tailing in the data for the lower pH values. The first-order model fits to data indicated that  $\omega$  decreased at lower pH, indicating increasing nonequilibrium sorption. The two-region model fit to experiment T-4 (Figure 4.26D) fit the tailing, and does indicate a small  $\alpha_2$  value.

## CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION

### 5.1 Sorption on Mineral Surfaces

#### 5.1.1 Sorption Energy

The energy that causes the hydrophobic solutes used in this research to sorb to organic surfaces is primarily due to the solvent effect and less to the interaction with the surface. Sorption of hydrophobic solutes to mineral surfaces may have a smaller interaction energy. The solvent effect results from the energy changes caused by solute molecule removal from aqueous solution. Van der Waals interactions between hydrophobic solutes and the mineral surface are small, on the order of 0.01 - 1.0 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> [Blevins, 1982], whereas the solvent effect energy is on the order of 0.1 to 5 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> (Table 2.2). The partitioning due to the solvent effect is directly proportional to the solute-molecule hydrophobic surface area, which is proportional to the solute molecular weight for the chlorinated-benzene series studied. For example, Yalkowsky [1979] presented a relationship between hydrophobic surface area and solubility for halogenated benzenes (equation 13). As the solubility is related to  $K_{ow}$ , and since the sorption is mainly an entropy effect, then a relationship between  $K_{ow}$  and  $K_p$  should also hold for partitioning to mineral surfaces as well as to an organic phase. Considering only chlorinated benzenes, one finds:

$$\log K_p = 0.441 \log K_{ow} - 1.09 \quad (r^2 = 0.946, n = 7) \quad (78)$$

which is shown in Figure 5.1B. This is similar to the relationship found by Karickhoff [1984], shown as equation (4) of Chapter 1. Therefore, a high correlation between  $K_p$  and molecular weight is also consistent with the hypothesis that the solvent effect is the main driving force of the sorption process.

Since the surface area of the chlorinated benzenes is linearly related to molecular weight (Table 3.4), then there should be a correlation between solute molecular weight and  $K_p$ . Considering all chlorinated compounds (Table 5.1), there is a fair correlation

Table 5.1 Sorption of hydrophobic organic solutes onto mineral surfaces<sup>a</sup>

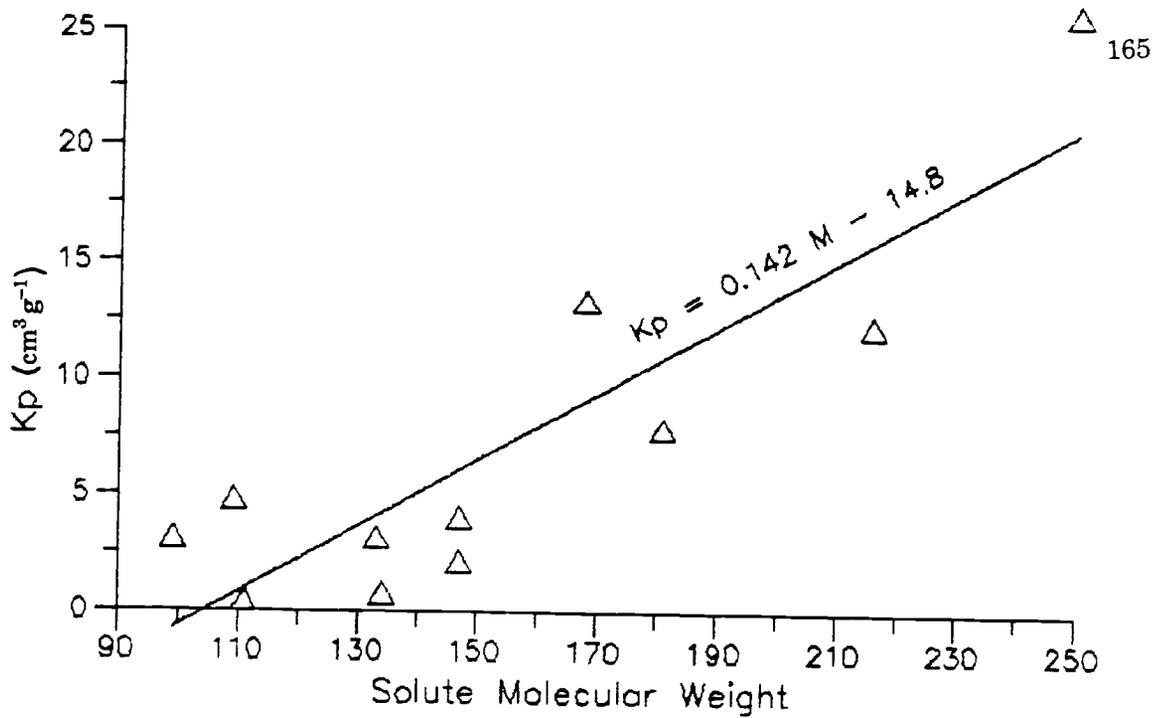
Solute	Sorbent <sup>b</sup>		$K_p$ (cm <sup>3</sup> g <sup>-1</sup> )	$K_p$ (cm <sup>3</sup> /100 m <sup>2</sup> )	$k_b$ (s <sup>-1</sup> )	t (hr)	exp. type <sup>c</sup>	
	C <sub>o</sub> (ppb)	type						name
DCA	217.	silica	J	3.16	49.6	---	<1	b1
DCP	185.	silica	J	0.46	7.24	---	<0.5	b1
TCA	212.	silica	J	0.78	12.3	---	<1	b1
TCE	210.	silica	J	0.60	9.45	---	<2	b1
TCE	187.	silica	AC	3.17	8.16	---	<1	b1
TCE	176.	silica	K	13.4	4.28	---	<2	b1
TCE	176.	alumina	AD	3.59	3.94	---	<20	b1
PCE	192.	silica	J	2.65	41.7	---	<2	b1
NT <sup>d</sup>	1000	silica	I	4.78	2.36	---	<0.2	b1
NT	1000	silica	W	9.86	2.45	---	<0.2	b1
NT	1000	silica	AV	1.62	1.92	---	<0.5	b1
NT	1000	silica	AR	2830	572.	---	<2	b1
NT	1000	silica	P	5.67	2.29	---	<0.5	b1
1,4-DCB	6000	silica	AE	3.86	238	---	<10	b1
1,4-DCB	810.	silica	AE	2.74	169	---	<5	b1
1,4-DCB	198-674	silica	I	4.05	2.00	0.024	---	c4
1,4-DCB	390	silica	V	2.17	0.497	0.013	---	c1
1,4-DCB	1380	alumina	Y	0.346	0.110	270	---	c1
1,4-DCB	574-1300	alumina	Z	0.339	0.278	0.055	---	c2
1,2,4-TCB	148-468	silica	V	7.90	1.81	0.15	---	c2
1,2,4-TCB	223	alumina	Y	1.00	0.318	---	---	c1
1,2,4-TCB	200	alumina	Z	0.95	0.718	---	---	c1
1,2,4,5-TeCB	187-235	silica	V	12.3	2.82	.049	---	c2
1,2,4,5-TeCB	216	alumina	Y	7.34	2.33	---	---	c1
1,2,4,5-TeCB	176	alumina	Z	4.37	3.58	---	---	c1
PCB	118	silica	P	25.8	10.4	---	---	b1

<sup>a</sup>Data compiled from Tables 4.1, 4.2, and 4.4.

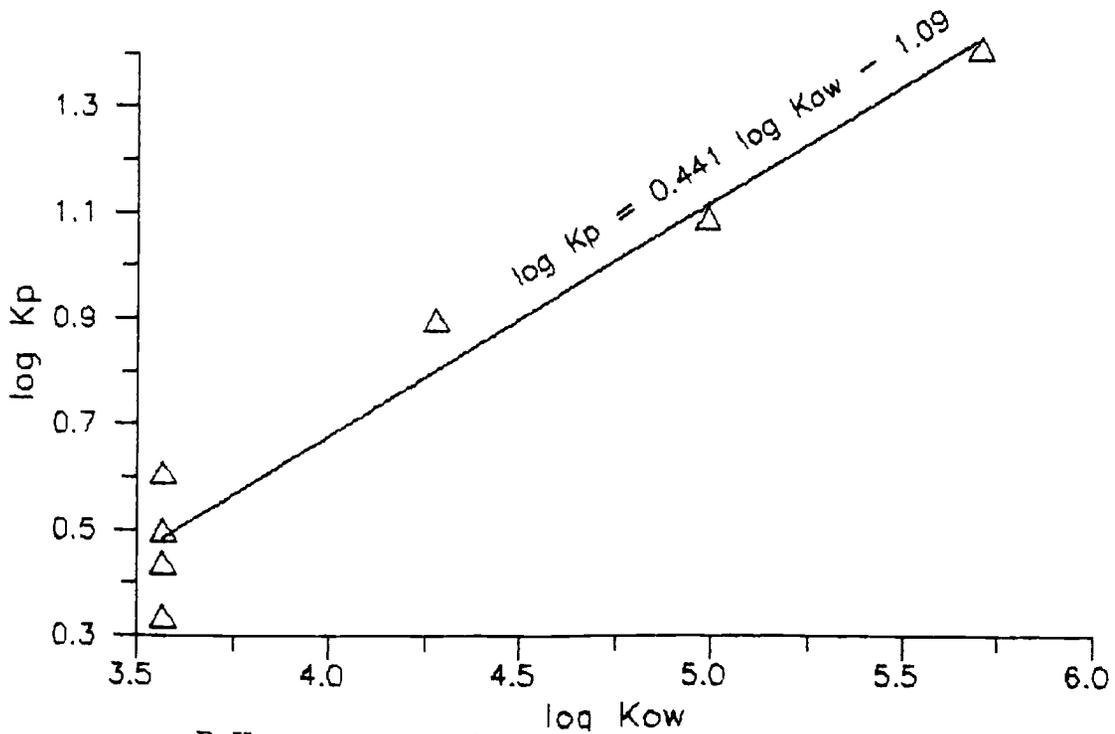
<sup>b</sup>Sorbent properties are found in Table 3.1.

<sup>c</sup>b = batch, c = column, n = number of experiments.

<sup>d</sup>NT = *p*-nitrotoluene



A. Effect of solute molecular weight on  $K_p$  (from Table 5.1) for sorption of chlorinated solutes onto porous silica only



B.  $K_{ow}$  versus observed  $K_p$  for Chlorinated Benzenes

Figure 5.1 Sorption onto silica - the solvent effect

between solute molecular weight and  $K_p$  for porous silica surfaces (Figure 5.1A):

$$K_p = 0.142M - 14.8 \quad (r^2 = 0.771, n = 11) \quad (79)$$

where  $M$  is the solute molecular weight. These relationships imply that a reasonable estimate of chlorinated benzene sorption onto silica can be obtained with only knowledge of solute properties.

Because the surface areas of sorbents vary,  $K_p$  is expressed per unit surface area rather than percent mass for the different surfaces in Table 5.1.  $K_p$  ( $\text{cm}^3/100 \text{ m}^2$ ) is plotted against solute molecular weight in Figure 5.2 (chlorinated benzenes only). A more regular increase in  $K_p$  is observed in Figure 5.2 than in Figure 5.1A, where the difference in the sorbent surface area was not taken into account. As molecular weight increases, there is an increase in sorption onto the silica and alumina, as described by the equations on Figure 5.2. Sorption onto silica is up to an order of magnitude greater than onto alumina, consistent with the findings of others.

*Schwarzenbach and Westall [1981]* show that sorption onto porous silica is observed to average 50 percent greater than onto porous alumina, and sorption onto kaolinite is an order of magnitude greater than onto silica. Kaolinite has a  $pH_{iep}$  of 4.6 [*Stumm and Morgan, 1981*], so at neutral pH, it may have less surface charge than silica or alumina. As more neutral surfaces have weaker bonding with water, there is less energy to displace water molecules, and consequently sorption is energetically more favorable. In addition, the weak attractions of hydrophobic molecules to uncharged surfaces are stronger than with charged surfaces. The difference in sorption between silica, alumina, and kaolinite indicates the surface interaction also plays a role in the overall sorption energy.

The effect of solute/surface interactions is seen in a correlation between  $K_p$  and sorbent surface area. The  $K_p$  for DCB decreased 46 percent with a two-fold increase in silica surface area (surfaces I versus V of Table 5.1), but did not change with a three-fold increase in alumina surface area (surfaces Y versus Z of Table 5.1). The  $K_p$  for TCB

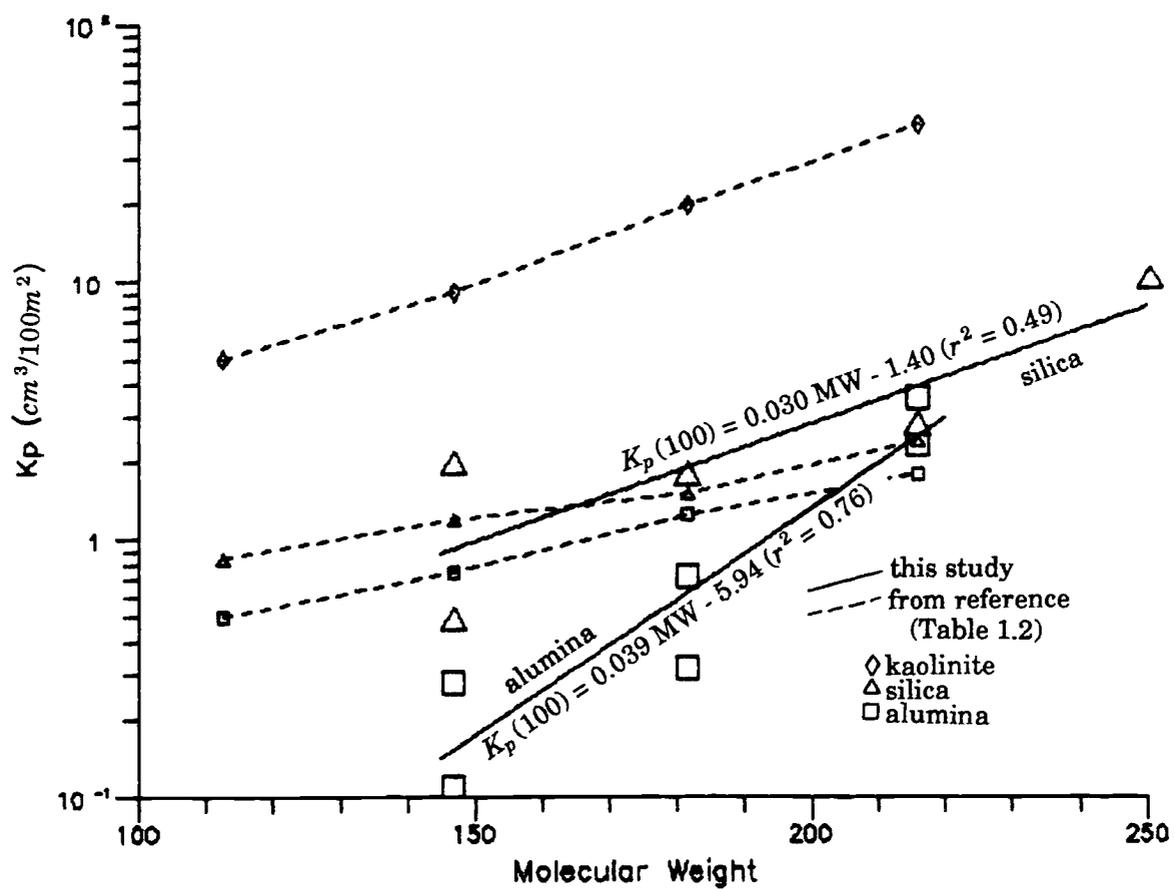


Figure 5.2 Chlorinated benzene sorption onto mineral surfaces

increased 5 percent with a three-fold increase in alumina surface area, and the  $K_p$  for TeCB increased 70 percent with a three-fold increase in alumina surface area (surfaces Y versus Z). The  $K_p$  for nitrotoluene did not change for a two-fold increase in silica surface area (surfaces P and I of Table 5.1). This lack of correlation between  $K_p$  and surface area indicates that the solute-surface forces are less important than the solvent effect. Other researchers have noted a weak correlation between surface area and  $K_p$  (equation 5) [McCarthy *et al.*, 1981].

### 5.1.2 Sorption Rate

Sorption on unbonded surfaces is relatively fast; the first-order desorption rate coefficient ( $k_b$ ) from column experiments (Table 4.4) for DCB release from silica averaged  $0.024 \text{ s}^{-1}$  for the 100- $\mu\text{m}$  surface and  $0.013 \text{ s}^{-1}$  for the 425- $\mu\text{m}$  surface. The corresponding first-order  $k_f$ 's (calculated with  $k_b$  and  $K_p$ ) for DCB are  $0.041 \text{ s}^{-1}$  for the 100- $\mu\text{m}$  surface, and  $0.012 \text{ s}^{-1}$  for the 425- $\mu\text{m}$  surface. The  $k_b$ 's for TCB and TeCB were  $0.15 \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  $0.049 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , respectively. The respective  $k_f$ 's were  $0.50 \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  $0.25 \text{ s}^{-1}$ . These correspond to reaction half-lives (equation 12 in Chapter 2) of 2 to 60 seconds.

If the surface reaction is fast, then the sorption and desorption rates should reflect the diffusion time into the porous particles. The time required to reach 50 percent equilibration in 100- $\mu\text{m}$  porous particles is 0.6 seconds (Table 2.6), and is 15 seconds for 500- $\mu\text{m}$  particles. The observed time scale for DCB is longer than predicted, but about equal to the predicted value for TCB and TeCB. The slow desorption rate for DCB could reflect either a slow chemical sorption step (unlikely for mineral surfaces), or smaller tortuosities than are used in calculating diffusion equilibration times (Table 2.6). The diffusion time through immobile pore fluid (Table 2.7) is expected to be smaller for DCB, but the data are inconclusive due to the considerable scatter.

Tortuosity can be calculated using equation (40) of Chapter 2, and observed dispersion for the solute and conservative tracer. With the simplification that  $R_{mobile}$  equals

$R_{immobile}$ , equation (40) reduces to:

$$D_{total} = \phi D_{mobile} + \frac{(1-\phi)r^2 v^2}{15\tau D_o} \quad (80)$$

where  $D_{total}$  is the total spreading observed in the system (estimated with the equilibrium model),  $D_{mobile}$  is the expected hydrodynamic dispersion for the DCB solute molecule ( $1.5D_{KCl}$ ),  $\phi$  is  $\theta_e/\theta$ ,  $r$  is the particle radius, and  $\tau$  is tortuosity. The second term on the right-hand side of equation (80) is for intraparticle diffusion.

Tortuosity is calculated to be 0.02 for the 100- $\mu\text{m}$  particles (experiment I-1), and 0.16 for the 425- $\mu\text{m}$  particles (experiment I-2). These are an order of magnitude smaller than aggregate-particle tortuosities of 0.4 to 0.9 that are observed by others [Rose, 1977]. Smaller tortuosities are observed when the pore dimensions are on the same order of magnitude of dimension as the solute molecules. However, 99 percent of the pores are greater than 20 nm in size and the smallest pores of the porous silicas used are 6 nm (Figure 3.2), versus the chlorinated benzene maximum dimension of 1.1 nm (Table 3.4).

## 5.2 Sorption on Organic-Modified Surfaces

The average first-order desorption rates for organic-modified silicas vary over four orders of magnitude from  $0.1 \text{ s}^{-1}$  for  $\text{C}_8$  modified silica to  $10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$  for phenyl-polymer-modified silica (Table 5.2). The most likely causes of slow sorption are illustrated in Figure 1.1. Intraparticle diffusion can be quantified by the two-region model rate coefficient ( $\alpha_e$ ), diffusion through a bound organic layer by the first-order model rate coefficient ( $\alpha_i$ , or  $\rho_b k_b$ ), and the binding step by the first-order model desorption rate ( $k_b$ ). The two-region model  $\alpha_e/\rho_b K_p$  is dimensionally equivalent to  $k_b$  (equation 54).

Table 5.2 Sorption rates on organic modified surfaces

Solute	Sorbent <sup>1</sup>		N	K <sub>p</sub> (cm <sup>3</sup> g <sup>-1</sup> )	K <sub>oc</sub> (cm <sup>3</sup> g <sup>-1</sup> )	D <sub>solute</sub> D <sub>KCl</sub>	k <sub>f</sub> (s <sup>-1</sup> )	k <sub>b</sub> (s <sup>-1</sup> )	half-life (min)	α <sub>e</sub> (s <sup>-1</sup> )
	type	dia.(μm)								
CB	∅-poly (E)	100	2	7.95	580	29.8	0.0067	0.0020	5.8	0.002
DCB	C <sub>1</sub> -poly (A)	100	4	326	22800	4.80	0.097	0.00071	28	0.003
	C <sub>1</sub> -poly (O)	2	1	92.5	6510	3.21	0.0089	0.00023	50	0.007
	C <sub>1</sub> -poly (AI)	2	1	53.1	23700	9.04	0.019	0.00085	14	0.004
	C <sub>8</sub> -poly (B)	100	7	25.9	3800	1.51	0.92	0.085	0.14	0.002
	C <sub>18</sub> -poly (C)	100	3	23.0	2200	3.97	0.063	0.0065	1.8	0.008
DCB	∅-mono (D)	100	4	4.1	2560	1.30	0.021	0.012	0.011	0.0001
	∅-mono (Q)	100	2	5.2	693	1.30	2.6	1.2	0.012	0.50
DCB	∅-poly (U)	2	2	6.87	1560	142	0.00020	0.000070	64	0.00045
	∅-poly (F)	20	5	47.9	4320	36.5	0.013	0.00067	17	0.0043
	∅-poly (G)	20	3	23.0	2270	40.1	0.015	0.0016	7.2	0.0029
	∅-poly (E)	100	5	60.6	4420	32.0	0.0096	0.00038	30	0.0034
	∅-poly (H)	425	3	22.2	2100	33.6	0.010	0.0011	11	0.0015
DCB	∅ + C <sub>18</sub> (X)	100	2	30.0	6820	18.5	0.018	0.0022	5.3	0.0029
	Alcohol (R)	100	3	3.33	114	0.964	0.28	0.20	0.058	0.41
	Amine (T)	100	4	3.58	442	0.970	0.16	0.11	0.11	0.050
TCB	∅-poly (E)	100	5	135.3	9880	54.1	0.040	0.00070	16	0.012
TeCB	∅-poly (E)	100	3	396.9	28970	63.5	0.083	0.00050	23	0.017
PCB	∅-poly (E)	100	2	968	70660	11.0	0.12	0.00030	38	0.042

<sup>1</sup> Sorbent properties found in Table 3.1.

data compiled from Tables 4.5, 4.6, 4.7, 4.12, and 4.13.

### 5.2.1. Diffusion through Immobile Pore Fluid

Slow rearrangement of molecules in space can be due to long diffusional paths, constricted diffusional channels in a solid matrix, or diffusion through a dense or highly viscous material. Diffusion through immobile fluid for organic-modified porous silicas should be the same as for unmodified silica of the same size.

Porous silica modified with an organic silane may have more constricted internal pore space, as the silane may polymerize across some small pore channels. Therefore, diffusion through modified porous particles may be different from that of unbonded silica. Diffusion through aqueous internal fluid in organic-modified silica is examined by considering both the effect of particle size and pore size.

The desorption rate on the C<sub>1</sub> polymer bound to 100- $\mu\text{m}$  porous silica ( $k_b = 7 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) was similar to that on C<sub>1</sub>-modified 2- $\mu\text{m}$  solid silica ( $k_b = 5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ). This suggests that the slow sorption is not caused by diffusion through immobile pore fluid, but is a function of the nature of the bound C<sub>1</sub> organic.

The effect of particle size can also be seen by comparing the 425- $\mu\text{m}$  (surface H; Figure 4.24A and B) and 20- $\mu\text{m}$  phenyl-modified porous silica (surface F; Figure 4.22A and B). The average  $k_b$ 's for the larger particle were 40 percent faster than for the smaller particle. For the two-region model fits,  $\alpha_e$  was 1.8 times smaller for the larger versus smaller particle, however.

Phenyl modified surfaces E (100  $\mu\text{m}$ ; Figure 4.13A and B) and G (20  $\mu\text{m}$ ; Figure 4.23A and B) also differed only by particle size (same pore diameter). In this case, both the first-order and two-region model rate coefficients were smaller for the larger particle. Therefore, there is some effect of particle size on the sorption rate due to intraparticle diffusion that cannot be discounted. However, most of the observed slow sorption is apparently due to the nature of the bound organic layer; since phenyl-polymer bound surfaces had rates four orders of magnitude slower than C<sub>8</sub> bound to the same particle (100  $\mu\text{m}$ ).

Two of the 20- $\mu\text{m}$  particles modified with a phenyl polymer differ only in the average pore size (11 versus 27.5 nm). Desorption tailing was greater for the smaller (surface G; Figure 4.23A and B) compared to the larger pore-size particle (surface F; Figure 4.22A and B). Both the first-order and two-region model rate coefficients were about 60 percent greater for the larger pore-size particles. This suggests that tortuosity (by changing the pore size) has some effect on the sorption rate. However, similar to a change in particle size, most of the slow sorption is still caused by the nature of the bonded phase, since there is a four-order-of-magnitude difference in sorption rate for different organic-bound porous silicas.

The phenyl polymer bound to a solid silica surface (surface U) had a desorption rate ( $2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) slower than the 100- $\mu\text{m}$  ( $4 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) or 425- $\mu\text{m}$  phenyl polymer bound surface ( $7 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), further indicating slow sorption is predominantly caused by the nature of the bound organic layer and not by diffusion through immobile pore fluid.

Interpretation of the DCB sorption data in terms of the equilibrium model gave large values of total dispersion, which can be interpreted as due to slow intraaggregate mass transfer. Tortuosity was calculated using equation (80) for the various organic-modified sorbents, as shown in Table 5.3. Surfaces that exhibited the fastest sorption ( $\text{C}_8$ ,  $\text{C}_{18}$ , and Diol) had the largest tortuosities (0.16, 0.013, and 0.02); these are still somewhat smaller than the 0.66 average reported by others [Rose, 1977]. In chromatography, the combined intraparticle effects of tortuous and constricted flow paths reduce the molecular diffusion coefficient to a value of 0.4 to 0.9 times that of the bulk-phase value. A similar reduction is expected for diffusion within reasonable open particles [Giddings, 1965].

The phenyl-polymer-modified 100- and 20- $\mu\text{m}$  particles had significantly smaller calculated tortuosities (4 to 10 times) than aliphatic chain modified particles. It is unlikely that the phenyl polymer could clog more pore space than aliphatic polymers, since its molecular dimensions are smaller than most aliphatic silanes. In addition, since the calculated values of tortuosity are three orders of magnitude smaller than

Table 5.3 Calculated tortuosity

Size	Particle	Modifier	Calculated Tortuosity*	N
100 $\mu\text{m}$ , 27 nm pore		C <sub>1</sub>	0.0041	2
		C <sub>8</sub>	0.16	3
		C <sub>18</sub>	0.013	3
		Ø-mono	0.024	6
20 $\mu\text{m}$ , 10 nm pore		Ø-poly	0.00051	5
20 $\mu\text{m}$ , 27 nm pore		Ø-poly	0.00047	3
100 $\mu\text{m}$ , 27 nm pore		Ø-poly	0.00033	4
425 $\mu\text{m}$ , 11 nm pore		Ø-poly	0.062	3
100 $\mu\text{m}$ , 27 nm pore		C <sub>18</sub> +Ø-poly	0.0010	2
		Dialcoholic	0.020	3
		Amine	0.0028	4

\*Calculated tortuosity (equation 90) assumes all observed slow sorption is caused by diffusion through immobile pore space.

those reported by others, it is unlikely that diffusion through the porous particles is causing the observed slow sorption.

The phenyl-polymer-modified 425- $\mu\text{m}$  particle had a tortuosity of 0.06. This value is more reasonable compared to values obtained on smaller particles, due to the larger particle radius used in equation (80). The diffusion time into a particle of this size (Table 2.5) is on the order of 36 seconds, compared to 2 seconds for 100- $\mu\text{m}$  or smaller particles.

In summary, diffusion through immobile pore water did not cause most of the observed slow sorption rate for 425- $\mu\text{m}$  and smaller particles used in this research. It did, however, have some effect on the sorption rate, as some of the larger or more tortuous particles had smaller rate coefficients, and thus had longer times to reach sorption equilibrium.

### ***5.2.2 Diffusion through the Bound Organic***

Sorption of 1,4-DCB onto several phenyl-polymer modified silicas is slower than onto the  $\text{C}_{18}$  or unbonded silica, suggesting that the nature of the surface phase is important. The phenyl-monomer silica did not produce any slow kinetic effects, suggesting that the polymerization is important. The  $\text{C}_{18}$ -polymer silica has as high an organic content as the phenyl polymer, but did not show any kinetic effects. This further implies that pore clogging (expected for both the  $\text{C}_{18}$  polymer and phenyl polymer) by itself is not causing slow sorption, but the rate is controlled by the nature of the bound organic phase.

Diffusion through the bound organic layer is characterized by  $\alpha_i$  (equivalent to  $\rho_b k_b$ ) obtained from a first-order model fit of the data. Aliphatic chain-modified silicas ( $\text{C}_1$ ,  $\text{C}_8$ , and  $\text{C}_{18}$ ) differ only in the thickness of the organic layer; the same organic sorption sites are present, and they are all bound to 100- $\mu\text{m}$  porous particles. The thickness of the bound organic layer varies from 0.5 nm for  $\text{C}_1$ , 1.6 nm for  $\text{C}_8$ , and to 2.5 nm for  $\text{C}_{18}$ . Thickness should affect the diffusion path length, so longer chain-modified

surfaces should exhibit slower sorption.

This, in fact, is not the case (Table 5.2); the C<sub>1</sub>-modified surface exhibits the slowest rate ( $6 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), at least an order of magnitude slower than that for C<sub>8</sub> or C<sub>18</sub>-modified silica. The C<sub>1</sub> surface also exhibits stronger retention (10-fold), so the sorption mechanism is apparently not the same as the other aliphatic chain-modified silica. Aliphatic chains with less than four methyl groups are rigidly bound to surfaces [El-Hassan *et al.*, 1986]. The rigidity leads to more limited access by solute molecules [Beaufils *et al.*, 1985], which may cause slow sorption.

Both the C<sub>8</sub>- and C<sub>18</sub>-modified silicas exhibit similar retention ( $K_p$  or  $K_{oc}$ ), but there is a difference in the sorption rate. The C<sub>18</sub> surface (Table 5.2) has an average desorption rate about 10-fold slower than the C<sub>8</sub>, suggesting an increase due to diffusion path length; however, an unambiguous interpretation is not possible as variation in data is considerable. Beaufils [1985] suggest that bond rotation and motion of long aliphatic chains in aqueous solution should lead to faster equilibration times for C<sub>18</sub> versus shorter aliphatic chains bound on surfaces, which is contrary to the observed slower sorption onto the C<sub>18</sub> surface.

The chlorinated benzenes used in this research are disk-like molecules with a thickness of 0.35 nm, and diameter of 0.8 to 1.1 nm (Table 3.4). The thickness of the bound aliphatic surfaces therefore represents less than three molecular layers to diffuse through, so describing the rate-limiting step as diffusion through the bound organic layer to the surface is not appropriate. When the scale of observation is large compared to individual surface forces, forces can be averaged into a monocontinuum of resistance with a diffusion model. This is not the case here where diffusion distance is only several molecular layers. At this scale, the slow approach to equilibrium is more correctly described as a binding-step limitation.

The thickness of the bound phenyl-polymer is 1.8 nm, and also represents less than two molecular layers in thickness, suggesting that diffusion through the bound

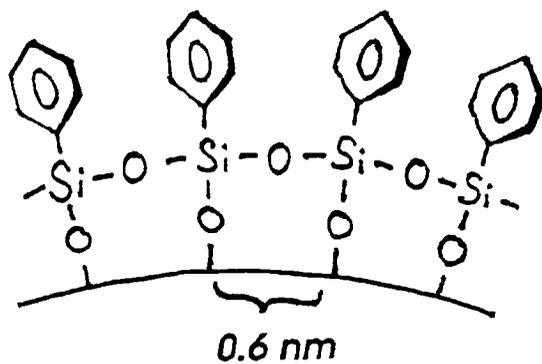
organic layer is not an appropriate model for the observed slow sorption. Binding a phenyl monomer versus phenyl polymer should have the effect of changing only the density of phenyl groups on the surface, as illustrated in Figure 5.3. The polymerization produces phenyl groups tightly packed on the surface, whereas the monomer bound to a surface has variable distance between phenyl groups.

If sorption is the attraction between pi electrons in the chlorinated benzene and the surface benzene ring, then this binding energy should be the same for the two surfaces. The only difference between the two surfaces should be the diffusion through the organic layer. The phenyl polymer covers about 50 percent more surface area and the fraction carbon on the surface is twice as great compared to the monomer (Figure 5.3). The  $K_{oc}$  is four times greater for the polymer than the monomer, indicating a stronger binding energy. What can be concluded from the results summarized on Figure 5.3 is that the close phenyl spacing provides for increased sorption energy and slow sorption, as suggested previously by *Jinno [1985]*.

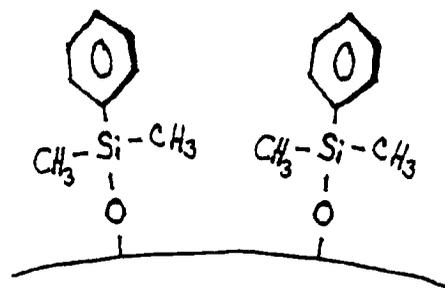
To further distinguish slow diffusion from binding, a surface was prepared with both a C<sub>18</sub> polymer and a phenyl polymer. If the sorption rate is controlled by diffusion through the bound organic layer, then the rate may decrease since the organic layer is thicker compared to a pure phenyl modified surface. If the sorption rate is controlled by the binding step, then sorption should proceed with a fast reaction (C<sub>18</sub> portion) in parallel with a slow reaction (phenyl portion), and the two region model can be used to estimate the overall sorption rate (Section 2.2.5.2). The sorption rate on this surface (Table 5.2) is about 4.7 times faster than on the phenyl-polymer surface, which does not confirm either hypothesis. The rate is consistent with the hypothesis that closely-spaced phenyl groups are the cause of the slow sorption, since probably fewer phenyl groups are closely spaced on this surface.

Diffusion of molecules through organic material in subsurface media will be retarded relative to that in water due to the non-liquid nature of organic phases. Diffusion behavior in natural organic phases is expected to bear some resemblance to

Phenyl polymer



Phenyl monomer



5.1%	surface area coverage	3.3%
0.0137	$f_{oc}$	0.0075
1700	$K_{oc}$	400
0.00006	$k_b$	0.02

**Figure 5.3** Effect of polymerization of the bound organic on the sorption of DCB  
(data from Tables 4.6 and 4.7)

diffusion through membranes and in polymers. The lag time ( $t_l$ ) for passage of a diffusing molecule through a homogeneous membrane is [Barrer, 1939]:

$$t_l = \frac{h_m^2}{6 D_m} \quad (81)$$

where  $h_m$  and  $D_m$  are the membrane thickness and diffusivity, respectively.

The relative diffusion coefficients for 1,4-DCB in the bound-organic phase are assumed to be 200-1000 times slower than diffusion in water [Barrer, 1939] (Table 3.4), giving an estimated  $D_m$  of  $0.8\text{-}4.0 \times 10^{-9} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ . The lag time is assumed to be equal to the reaction half-life, which is calculated from the first-order model  $k_b$  (Table 5.4) with equation (12). The lag time varied from 0.05 minutes for dialcoholic-modified surface to 30 minutes for the phenyl-modified surface. The organic layer thicknesses calculated from (71) then varied from  $10^3$  to  $10^5$  nm, or 3 to 5 orders of magnitude larger than the actual thickness. This further indicates that diffusion through the bound organic layer could not cause most of the observed slow sorption.

The Wilke-Chang equation (39) includes the effect of increasing molar volume (proportional to molecular weight) and temperature on the molecular diffusion coefficient. The change in the sorption rate over the series of chlorinated benzenes studied (Table 4.9) can be compared to the expected decrease of 25 percent from the Wilke-Chang equation. A plot of the bound organic rate coefficient ( $\alpha_i$ ) versus molecular weight of the chlorinated benzene (Figure 5.4) shows a decrease averaging 92 percent from chlorobenzene to pentachlorobenzene. This poor correlation suggests that diffusion through the bound organic layer is not the rate-limiting step in the sorption process. Although  $\alpha_i$  is not dimensionally equivalent to diffusion coefficient, they are directly proportional; i.e., they differ by a length scale.

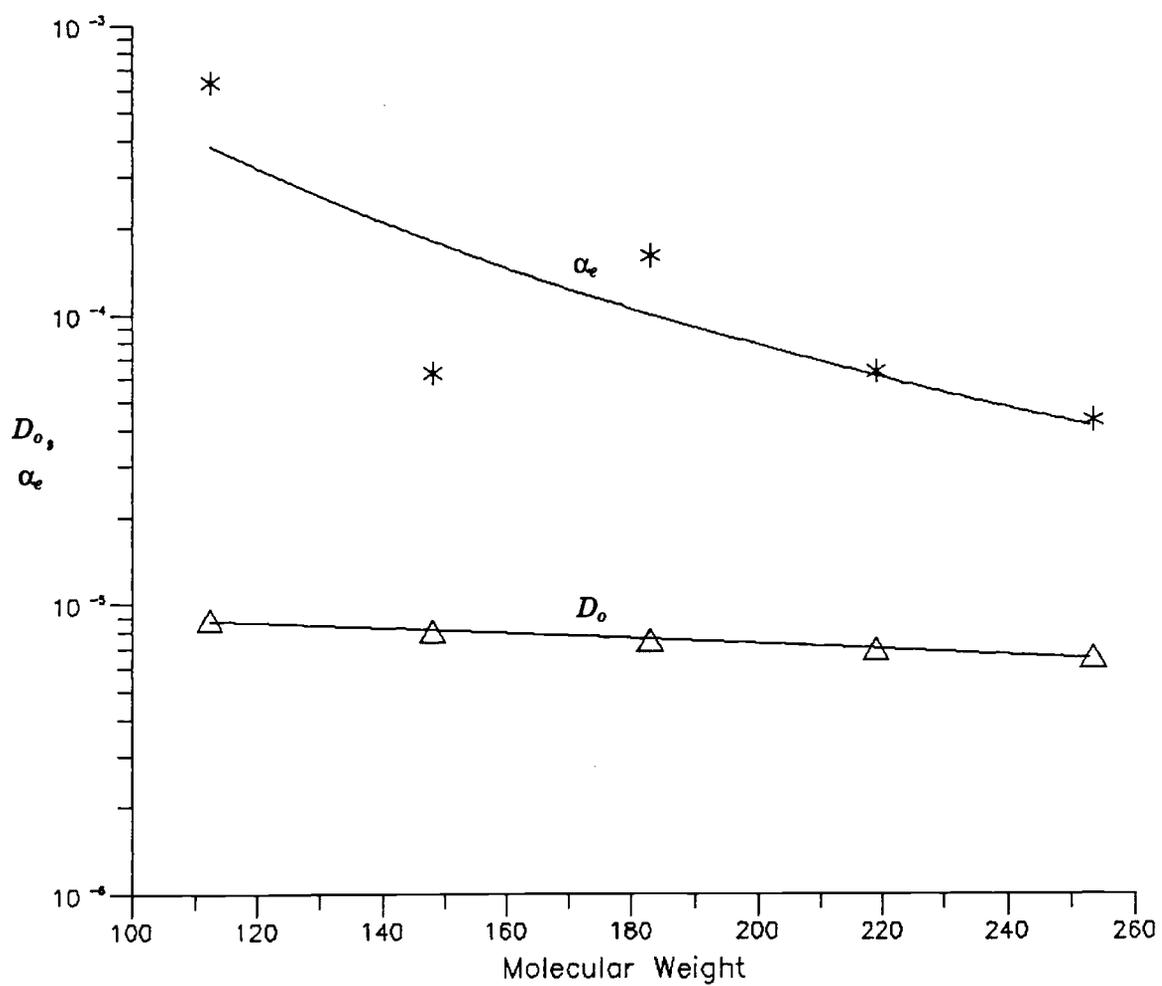
The change in the sorption rate of chlorinated benzenes at different temperatures can be compared to the expected increase in diffusion rate through the bound organic layer. The Wilke-Chang equation predicts a 16 percent increase in diffusion rate over a

**Table 5.4** *Calculated bound organic layer thickness*

Modifier <sup>1</sup>	Sorbent Thickness (nm)	Reaction half-life (min)	Calculated Thickness <sup>2</sup> (nm)
C <sub>1</sub>	0.5	18.3	2.3 - 5.1 x 10 <sup>4</sup>
C <sub>8</sub>	1.6	0.178	2.3 - 5.1 x 10 <sup>3</sup>
C <sub>18</sub>	2.5	1.78	0.7 - 1.6 x 10 <sup>4</sup>
Phenyl	1.8	30.4	3.0 - 6.6 x 10 <sup>4</sup>
C <sub>18</sub> +Phenyl	2.5	5.25	1.2 - 2.8 x 10 <sup>4</sup>
Dialcoholic	1.5	0.058	1.3 - 2.9 x 10 <sup>3</sup>
Amine	0.8	0.105	1.7 - 3.9 x 10 <sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>On 100 μm porous silica

<sup>2</sup>Calculated with equation (31)



**Figure 5.4 Diffusion rate through the bound organic**

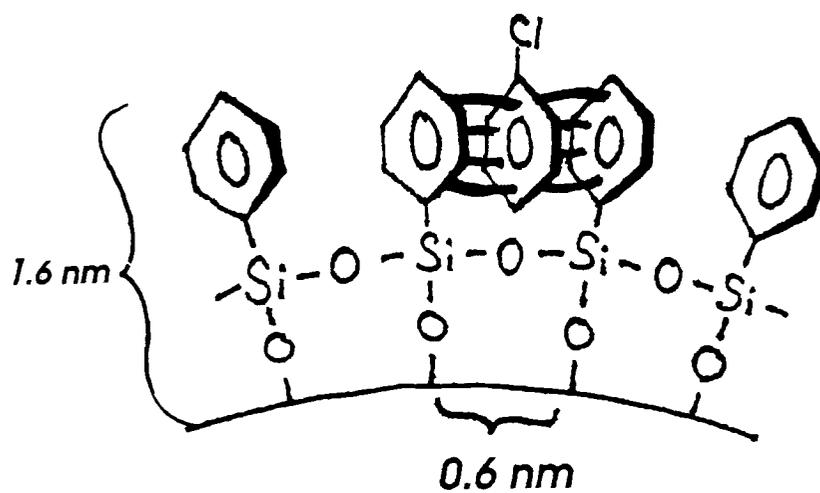
45°C temperature increase, which applies to any compound. The change in  $\alpha_i$  is shown in Figure 4.20B, and shows an average increase of 31 percent for DCB, a decrease of 33 percent for TCB, and a 5 percent increase for TeCB. This also suggests that diffusion through the bound organic layer is not the rate-limiting step.

### 5.2.3 Chemical Binding and Release Step

Desorption rates for organic-modified surfaces from column experiments (Table 5.2) ranged from  $2 \times 10^{-4}$  to  $1.0 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , where  $C_1$  and phenyl-modified surfaces exhibited the slowest rates ( $2 \times 10^{-4}$  to  $10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ). Rates on phenyl-modified surfaces are consistent with batch experiments. The slow approach to equilibrium appears to be related to the nature of the surface phase, as equilibration times were 5 to 100 times greater than those with aliphatic surfaces. Diffusion through immobile pore fluid makes only a small contribution to the observed slow sorption.

Sorption or desorption that exhibits a chemical-kinetic limitation is expected in cases of strong chemical binding rather than in cases of non-specific sorption or hydrophobic partitioning. Slow chemical changes typically arise due to the presence of an activation barriers. Strong binding is expected to result in slow breakup of a complex. Sorption may still be fast, exhibiting diffusion control. The  $C_1$ -modified surface does, in fact, exhibit significantly stronger sorption (about 10-fold) compared to other hydrophobic organic-modified surfaces. The sorption rates on the  $C_1$ -modified solid silica were the same as on a  $C_1$ -modified porous-silica, indicating that the nature of the bound  $C_1$  polymer is causing the slow sorption. The phenyl-modified surfaces have about the same  $K_{oc}$  values (Table 5.2) as  $C_8$  or  $C_{18}$ -modified surfaces.

Slow chemical sorption can also be caused by steric hindrance reaching the binding site. Adjacent surface groups on the phenyl-polymer surface are approximately 0.6 nm apart (Figure 5.5), and solute molecules bind to this surface with an optimum distance of 0.3 nm [Miller *et al.*, 1985]. This sorption site therefore requires a specific orientation of the planar solute molecule, which could cause the slow approach to equilibrium. The



*Multiple pi-pi electron interactions*

*Optimum binding distance - 0.3 nm*

*Figure 5.5 Proposed binding site on the phenyl polymer surface*

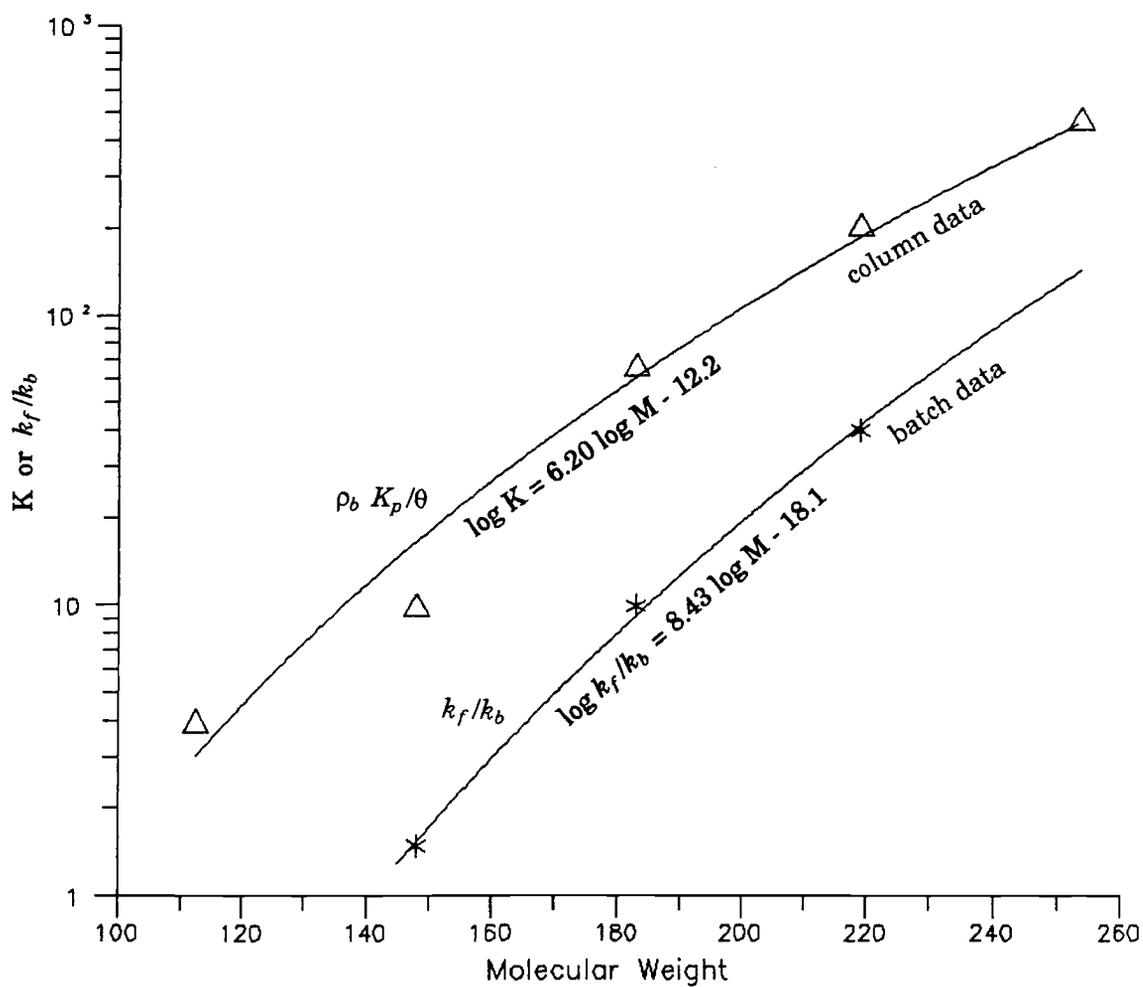


Figure 5.6 Binding step - rate data

increased binding energy of the phenyl-polymer compared to the phenyl-monomer surface probably results from pi-pi electron interaction on both sides of the sorbing aromatic compound [Jinno *et al.*, 1985].

Calculation of an equilibrium constant ( $K$ ) from batch data as the ratio of forward to reverse reaction rates (equation 9) shows a 27-fold increase going from DCB to TeCB (Figure 5.6) versus a 20-fold increase for the same series from column data. Similar slopes of  $K$  and  $k_f/k_b$  indicate that the data are consistent with a chemical rate-limiting sorption step. The difference in actual values of  $K_p \rho_b / \theta$  and  $k_f/k_b$  results from use of different phenyl surfaces (different  $f_{oc}$ ) in batch and column experiments. The difference between these two curves is reduced by accounting for this 30 percent difference in bound carbon mass.

Published rates of sorption onto organic-modified surfaces were not found, but some literature exists for sorption onto natural soils. *Schwarzenbach and Westall [1981]* reported that sorption was noticeably slow in column experiments at velocities greater than  $0.01 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  (residence time of 48 minutes), but did not determine actual rates. Using a first-order-model ratio of residence time to reaction half-life (equation 12), a  $k_b$  calculated from their data should be less than  $10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$  in order to have noticeable kinetic effects.

*Wu and Gschwend [1986]* interpreted the kinetics of sorption in terms of the diffusion rate through aggregate particles. Even though diffusion was rate limiting, reaction half lives (and  $k_b$  values) can be obtained from their graphs (in Table 1.1), for comparison to  $k_b$  values obtained in this study. The value for DCB was  $10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , compared to  $10^{-4}$  to  $1.0 \text{ s}^{-1}$  determined for various surfaces in this study. Their sorption data corresponds most closely to that observed on the  $\text{C}_{18}$  polymer-modified silica (surface C) with a rate of  $7 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . *Oliver [1985]* reports a sorption rate of  $8 \times 10^{-7} \text{ s}^{-1}$  of DCB onto natural soil, about 2.5 orders of magnitude slower than even the phenyl-modified surfaces.

The desorption rate coefficient of TCB on natural soil [Wu and Gschwend, 1986] was calculated to be  $6 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , or an order of magnitude faster than that observed on the phenyl-modified surface in this study. The TeCB desorption rate coefficient on natural soil was  $2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$  [Wu and Gschwend, 1986], compared to  $5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$  estimated on the phenyl surface in this study. Finally, sorption of PCB on natural soil ( $k_b = 6 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) [Wu and Gschwend, 1986] is also faster than observed on a phenyl-modified surface ( $k_b = 3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ).

Desorption rates of chlorinated benzenes on natural soils are generally observed to be faster than on a phenyl surface, whereas DCB sorption onto a  $\text{C}_{18}$  surface occurs at approximately the same rate as on soil. The rates reported by Wu and Gschwend [1986] may be faster than in natural systems as they reported that the gas-stripping apparatus used to measure rates had the effect of breaking the aggregate particles apart, which would affect the diffusion-controlled sorption rate.

#### 5.2.4 Sorption Energy

Partition coefficients for chlorinated benzene sorption on organic-modified surfaces are summarized in Table 5.5. The  $K_p$  values for sorption on aliphatic-bonded silica vary from  $325 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$  for  $\text{C}_1$  surfaces to  $24 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$  for  $\text{C}_8$  and  $\text{C}_{18}$  surfaces; the greater sorption for  $\text{C}_1$  surfaces is also reflected in the  $K_{oc}$  values. The  $K_{oc}$  values for phenyl-polymer surfaces range from 1500 to  $4400 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ , somewhat higher than for the phenyl-monomer surfaces ( $K_{oc}$  was 693 to 2560).

The surface bonded with both the phenyl polymer and the  $\text{C}_{18}$  polymer had a  $K_{oc}$  (6800) higher than either individual organic modified surface. Surfaces modified with alcoholic or amine groups showed 10-fold less sorption due to the more polar nature of the surface, as compared to aliphatic- or phenyl-modified surfaces.

Sorption of DCB on natural soils (Table 1.1) shows considerable variability ( $K_{oc} = 609 \pm 451$ ), but the  $K_{oc}$  averaged less than observed on the organic-modified surfaces in

Table 5.5 Sorption energies on organic modified surfaces

Solute	Sorbent	$K_p$	Reverse	$K_{oc}$	$\Delta G^1_{(surface)}$	$\Delta G^2_{(100\% organic)}$			
$C_o$ (ppb)	modifier <sup>b</sup>	Dia. ( $\mu m$ )	$N^c$	( $cm^3/g$ )	$K_{ps}/K_{pd}$	(Kcal/mol)	(Kcal/mol)		
CB	2600-3200	$\emptyset$ poly (E)	100	2	$7.95 \pm 5.68$	3.60	580	-0.70	-4.05
DCB	76-500	$C_1$ poly (A)	100	4	$326. \pm 137.$	0.68	22800	-2.89	-5.86
	1160	$C_1$ poly (O)	2, solid	1	92.48	0.93	6510	-2.93	-5.12
	99	$C_1$ poly (AD)	2, solid	1	53.12	0.76	23700	-2.56	-5.89
	106-1210	$C_8$ poly (B)	100	7	$25.9 \pm 5.39$	0.87	3800	-1.39	-4.95
	266-353	$C_{18}$ poly (C)	100	3	$23.0 \pm 1.61$	0.97	2180	-1.32	-4.64
DCB	172-1200	$\emptyset$ mono (D)	100	4	$4.1 \pm 1.1$	0.84	2560	-0.30	-4.79
	320-480	$\emptyset$ mono (Q)	100	2	$5.2 \pm 1.6$	0.84	693	-0.44	-4.01
DCB	901-997	$\emptyset$ poly (U)	2, solid	2	$6.87 \pm 6.47$	2.36	1560	-1.32	-4.63
	400-19,000	$\emptyset$ poly (F)	20	5	$47.9 \pm 33.4$	0.92	4320	-1.76	-5.24
	42-502	$\emptyset$ poly (G)	20	3	$23.0 \pm 6.19$	1.04	2270	-1.32	-4.85
	370-1160	$\emptyset$ poly (E)	100	5	$60.6 \pm 41.9$	0.96	4420	-1.90	-5.25
	380-518	$\emptyset$ poly (H)	425	3	$22.2 \pm 4.15$	1.01	2100	-1.30	-4.81
DCB	344-365	$\emptyset + C_{18}$ (X)	100	2	$30.0 \pm 1.76$	1.02	6820	-1.48	-5.42
	163-946	Dialcohoic (R)	100	3	$0.994 \pm .017$	1.25	114	+0.54	-2.60
	525-658	Amine (T)	100	4	3.58 (pH = 7)	0.93	442	-0.22	-3.40
TCB	30-500	$\emptyset$ poly (E)	100	5	$135. \pm 64.9$	1.26	9880	-2.37	-5.73
TeCB	138-701	$\emptyset$ poly (E)	100	3	$397. \pm 204.$	1.08	28970	-3.01	-6.36
PCB	277-308	$\emptyset$ poly (E)	100	2	$968 \pm 222$	0.96	70700	-3.54	-6.89

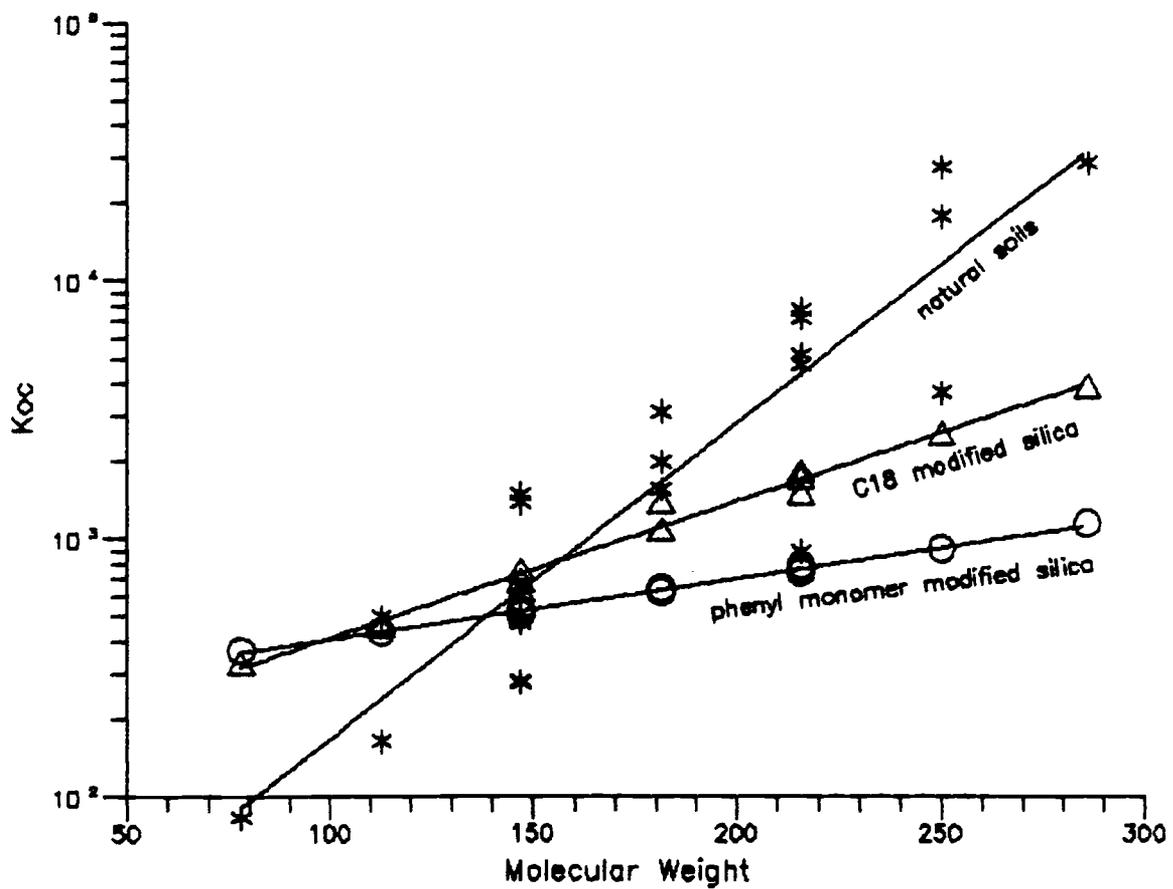
\*data compiled from Tables 4.5, 4.6, 4.7, 4.12, and 4.13.

<sup>b</sup>Sorbent properties found in Table 3.1.

<sup>c</sup>Number of experiments.

$$\Delta G = -RT \ln (\rho_b K_p / \theta)$$

$$\Delta G^2 = -RT \ln (K_p f_c M_{om} / f_{oc} V_{om})$$



data from reference (Table 1.1)

Figure 5.7 Chlorinated benzene sorption to natural and organic modified surfaces

this study. The  $K_{oc}$  values for chlorinated-benzene sorption on natural soils are shown as a function of molecular weight (Figure 5.7). The trend is log-linear, as sorption of PCB and HCB are considerably higher than other compounds in the series. A log-linear trend is expected, since over the series of chlorinated benzenes there is an even, incremental increase in molecule surface area (Table 3.4), which is log-linearly related to  $K_{oc}$  (equations 3, 13 and 14).

Also plotted in Figure 5.7 are the  $K_{oc}$ 's obtained from literature for sorption onto  $C_{18}$  and phenyl-monomer modified surfaces (Table 2.3) for a water-acetonitrile mixture. To facilitate comparison, the  $K_{oc}$  values were normalized to the  $K_{oc}$  for DCB in natural soil. Values reflect a linear but smaller increase in the sorption energy over the series, compared to natural soils. As the solvent effect is a major portion of the overall sorption energy, and the surface tension in the mixed system is smaller than pure water, a lower slope is expected.

For comparison,  $K_{oc}$  values obtained in this study (Table 5.5) are shown in Figure 5.8 together with values from literature (from Figure 5.7). The  $K_{oc}$  values for DCB show a decrease in sorption energy  $C_1$ , phenyl +  $C_{18}$ , phenyl polymer, aliphatic chains, phenyl monomer, amine, and alcoholic. Sorption of DCB onto natural soils is almost an order of magnitude less than most model surfaces, with  $K_{oc}$  values similar to the phenyl-monomer and amine surfaces. The retention of aromatic compounds on phenyl surfaces was observed to be 20 percent greater than retention on a  $C_{18}$  surface [*Thus et al, 1985*], whereas a difference of 34 percent was observed in this study.

The aliphatic and phenyl surfaces probably exhibit increased sorption compared to soil since they are pure hydrophobic matter with no polar functional groups. Chlorinated benzenes sorb predominantly to hydrophobic organic matter, and do not sorb as much in the presence of polar functional groups.

Retention on alcoholic- and amine-modified surfaces was about half that on hydrophobic modified silica, reflecting the presence of polar functional groups. The dialcoholic

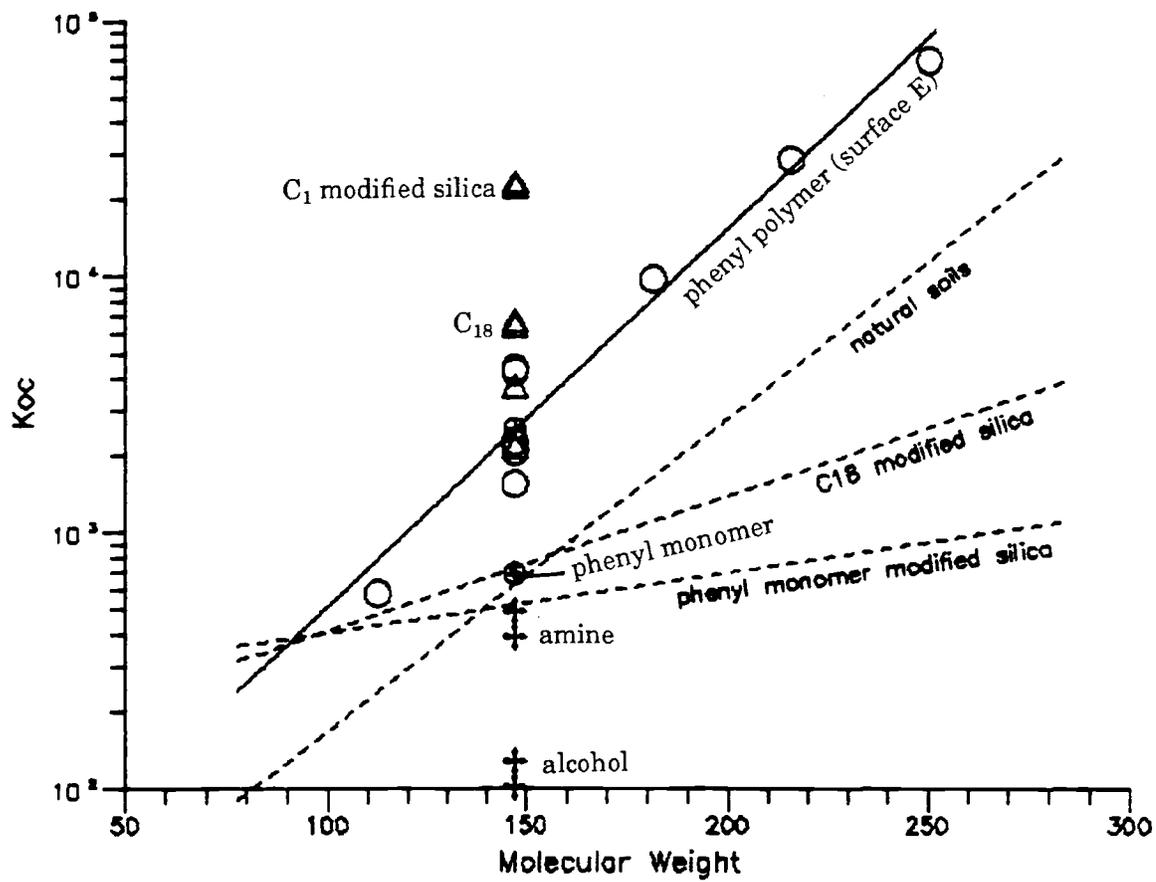


Figure 5.8 Sorption onto organic modified surfaces

functional group is less polar than the unbonded silica [Macherey-Nagel, 1987], but more polar than most silanes and has the ability to hydrogen bond with water. It is expected to have a smaller  $K_{oc}$  than aliphatic modified silica [Larsson et al., 1982]. Amine surfaces are strong Lewis bases and ionize at low pH. These silanes are used as weak anion exchangers at low pH for carbohydrate separation. Sorption of hydrophobic compounds is less than on aliphatic chains, since the surface is more polar.

The increase in  $K_{oc}$  over the series of chlorinated benzenes on the phenyl polymer surface is similar to that observed with natural soils. Both the  $K_{oc}$  values of the phenyl polymer and natural soil indicate a log-linear trend with molecular weight. A log-linear increase in sorption energy with molecular weight is expected as  $K_{oc}$  is log-linearly related to the increase in solute molecule surface area (equations 3, 13, and 14). The departure from this trend may reflect an interaction with the mineral surface for the higher-molecular-weight compounds. Karickhoff [1984] suggested that sorption onto mineral surfaces for polycyclic compounds (with large  $K_{oc}$  values) causes increased retention that is not accounted for by considering only sorption to the bound organic matter.

Energies calculated from the molecular connectivity indices (column 2 in Table 2.1) for sorption onto a 100 percent organic phase, show the following relationship:

$$\Delta G^\circ = -0.045 M + 0.802 \quad r^2 = 1.000 \quad (82)$$

The observed trend for sorption on the phenyl polymer surface (from Table 5.5) can be compared by normalizing  $K_p$ 's to a 100 percent organic surface (equation 10):

$$\Delta G^\circ = -0.020 M - 1.96 \quad r^2 = 0.942 \quad (83)$$

The data show less of an increase in sorption energy with molecular weight than is calculated from the model. Experimental data (Table 5.5) show larger  $\Delta G^\circ$  values for DCB, TCB, and TeCB, but essentially the same values for PCB. This increased sorption energy for DCB, TCB, and TeCB may be due to the dominating importance of pi-pi electron interactions for these compounds. The decreased sorption for PCB may reflect

increased steric hindrance, reducing access to some of the binding sites.

Entropy changes that occur as a result of sorption include decreased structure of water molecules upon solute molecule removal from aqueous solution (solvent effect), and the increased structure as the solute molecule is moved from a liquid to a sorbed state. If the solvent effect entropy change is greater, then there is a net positive entropy change for sorption. Enthalpic changes include the sorbent/sorbate versus the solute/solvent interaction, and increased hydrogen bonding of water upon solute-molecule removal from solution. Both the solvent effect enthalpy and the solute/surface interaction enthalpy are negative.

The entropy and enthalpy were estimated from sorption at different temperatures (Table 4.10), and can be compared to the limited data available in literature. Partitioning between octanol and water (Table 2.3) show values of -4 to -7 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> for DCB, TCB, and TeCB. Enthalpies calculated on the phenyl-modified surface in this study (Table 4.10, van't Hoff data) are negative, but less than observed on partitioning to octanol. This difference can be accounted for using equations (3) and (11), to calculate  $\Delta G^\circ$  for  $K_{oc}$  rather than  $K_{ow}$ : -4.8, -5.6, and -5.8 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> (for DCB, TCB, and TeCB respectively). These values are similar to that observed on the phenyl surface (-4.3 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> for DCB, -4.9 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> for TCB, and -5.4 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> for TeCB).

The entropy for water to octanol partitioning (Table 2.3; reported as  $T\Delta S$ ) is positive and on the order of 1 to 2 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>. The observed trend was similar, with values of 0.4 for DCB, 1.2 for TCB, and 0.5 for TeCB. The positive  $T\Delta S$  suggests that the solvent effect dominates the entropy change. Partitioning from water to fish fat (Table 2.3) [Opperhulzen *et al.*, 1988] is an entropy driven reaction, with enthalpy values being positive. This system is not comparable to that observed with partitioning to octanol, or to organic modified surfaces in this research. Octanol/water partitioning, however, is used as an analogy to sorption between aqueous solution and natural soil organic matter.

### 5.2.5 Binding Mechanism

In liquid chromatography of small polar molecules, kinetic resistances are typically less important than diffusional resistances for porous packing with a diameter larger than 5 to 10  $\mu\text{m}$ ; for larger molecules that bind at multiple sites on the surface, kinetic resistances should dominate [Horvath and Melander, 1983]. Results are generally for mobile phases less polar than water, however. For example, increased band spreading due to slow kinetics for more-strongly retained species was observed for a series of organic acids on a  $\text{C}_{18}$ -modified surface [Horvath and Lin, 1978]. Activation energies for binding were on the order of  $3 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ , near that expected for a diffusion limitation. For dissociation, activation energies were on the order of 7 to  $9 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$  [Horvath and Lin, 1978], in the range of typical weak chemical interactions.

Sorption-rate data at different temperatures were used to calculate the activation energy (Table 4.10) with the Arrhenius equation. Data were considerably more scattered than partition data, and the resulting activation energy values from both  $k_f$  and  $k_b$  data did not indicate a trend with increasing molecular weight. The activation energies calculated from  $k_b$  ranged from  $+0.8$  to  $+5.0 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ , which are in the range of reported values ( $+3$  to  $5 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ ) for collision by diffusion in aqueous solution [Stumm and Morgan, 1981].

In the case of an aromatic compound partitioning to a phenyl-polymer surface, pi electron interactions between the carbon atoms of benzene rings are stronger than van der Waals attractions between other hydrophobic surfaces [Hanai and Hubert, 1984; Jinno et al, 1985]. The electron cloud associated with the phenyl ring has the ability to undergo further induced delocalization; it is a weak hydrogen bond acceptor (10 times weaker than normal hydrogen bonds) [Blevins, 1982]. This pi electron interaction is relatively constant for aromatics even with different hydrophobic or polar functional groups. In the chlorinated benzene series, 1,2,3,4-TeCB has a slightly greater dipole moment, and has less ability to delocalize pi electrons [Haken et al., 1983].

As phenyl groups are bound to the silica surface without an aliphatic chain, they do not move [El-Hassan *et al.*, 1986]; as functional groups bound on a long aliphatic chain exhibit motion. This lack of movement for the bound phenyl groups decreases the mass transfer of solute molecules to sorption sites. Additional decrease in mass transfer is caused by the presence of closely spaced phenyl groups. Adjacent bound phenyl groups (when bound as a polymer) are separated by an average distance of 0.6 nm, and aromatic groups bind with an average distance of 0.3 nm [Miller *et al.*, 1985]. There may be some increased time to reach a binding site due to this specific orientation, since the strongest binding sites are not at the water-organic interface, but in the interior of the bound organic layer.

In a study where one, two, or three phenyl groups were attached to a single silica atom [Jinno *et al.*, 1985], increased sorption as well as slower sorption was observed with increasing density of phenyl groups. This was interpreted as multiple pi electron interactions on both sides of the sorbing aromatic solute [Okamoto *et al.*, 1985]. Sorption energies of different substituted aromatics were less than 20 percent different [Hanai and Hubert, 1985], and this was interpreted as meaning the binding mechanism was through the pi electrons in the benzene ring. Slower sorption is observed with polyaromatics or aromatics with large attached functional groups, which was interpreted as steric hindrance in reaching the preferred binding site [Toyohide *et al.*, 1982].

Strong binding interactions in some cases can include irreversible sorption, as concluded with sorption of chlorinated phenols [Isaacson and Frink, 1983]. Since this also produces tailing, it can be misinterpreted as tailing due to kinetic limitations. With all the surfaces in this study, sorption reversibility ( $K_{ps}/K_{pd}$  in Table 5.5) averaged  $0.96 \pm 0.15$  ( $n = 92$ ), indicating little nonreversible sorption. Mass balance for all experiments also indicated no irreversible sorption. Sorbent/sorbate combinations that exhibited the greatest deviation from reversibility were the poorer quality experiments (due to difficulty analyzing solute concentration or grain rearrangement in the column). Additionally, six experiments that were sorbed for 60 days before desorption also showed no

irreversible sorption.

### **5.3 Application to Natural Systems**

#### **5.3.1 Sorption Mechanisms and Rates**

Chlorinated benzenes partition more strongly to natural than to artificial mineral surfaces. This may be due to natural surfaces containing other oxides or traces of natural organic matter. Sorption onto mineral surfaces needs to be accounted for even in cases where organic matter is present. Sorption to organic-modified model surfaces (Figure 5.8) is greater than onto natural soil. This is probably due to natural organic matter having a smaller percent hydrophobic mass than a model hydrophobic surface. Figure 5.8 also shows that heterogeneous surfaces can be made that simulate the sorption found in natural systems.

The slow desorption rates observed for phenyl-polymer surfaces are probably due to steric limitation in reaching the binding site of closely spaced benzene rings [*Jinno et al., 1985*]. As natural organic matter averages 4 to 6 benzene rings per molecular weight of 500 [*Thurman, 1985*], closely spaced benzene rings are possible. Other researchers have suggested that slow sorption is caused by the rate of penetration into natural organic matter [*Isaacson and Frink, 1983*], and by the chemical sorption and desorption rate [*Leeheer et al., 1971*]. Both cases illustrate that kinetic limitations in natural soils can be caused by the nature of the bound organic phase.

Rates that are important in natural systems depend on the residence time of the flow system. As described in *Bahr and Rubin [1987]*, laboratory reaction rates can be scaled up and compared to field residence times by use of the Damkohler number (equation 38), which is the ratio of residence time to reaction time. Rates observed in the experiments reported here are generally faster than would be important in ground water situations, but would be important near pumping wells or small field sites. By the same token, kinetic reactions important on a field scale ( $<10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) would be difficult to

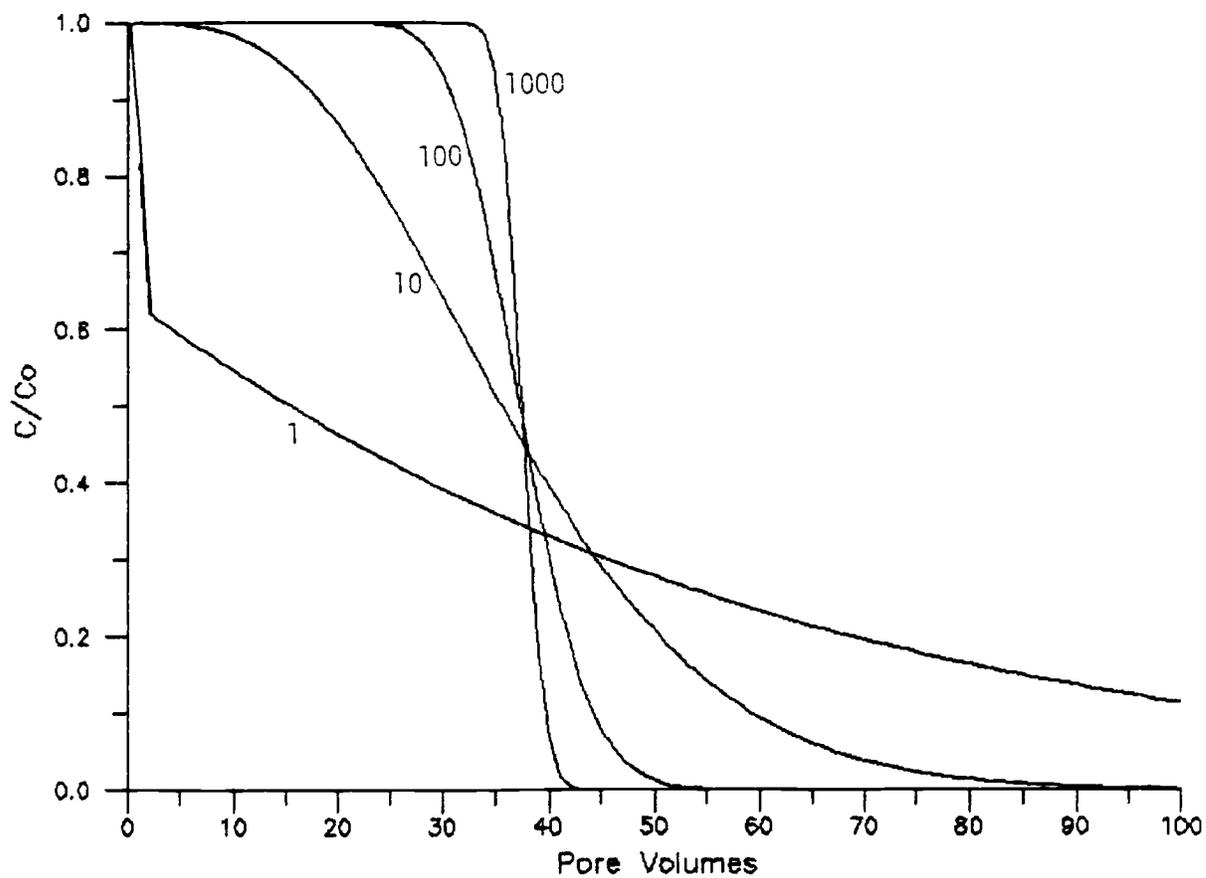
observe in the laboratory.

For example, Figure 5.9 illustrates that even for the high velocities sometimes associated with aquifer cleanup,  $k_b > 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$  is little different from equilibrium behavior, and  $K_p$  determines the extent of flushing needed. As  $K_p$  decreases,  $k_b$  becomes increasingly more important. The residence times in these small-field-scale systems are on the order of hundreds of hours or greater; and the reaction half lives (Table 5.2) for the sorbent/sorbates determined in this study ranged from 1 to 60 minutes. The corresponding ratio of residence to reaction time (Damkohler number) is then 100 or greater, indicating essentially equilibrium behavior.

Slower desorption rates reported by other researchers would have some effect in field situations. Desorption rates on the order of  $10^{-6}$  to  $10^{-7} \text{ s}^{-1}$  were observed for desorption of three polychlorinated biphenyls from river sediments [Coates and Elzerman, 1986]. Values were three-fold lower for sediments containing montmorillonite versus kaolinite. First-order rate coefficients of  $0.03$  to  $1.0 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$  were reported for sorption of PCB and HCB onto various soils [Karickhoff and Morris, 1985], using a series-reaction model to interpret data. Values reported earlier for pyrene ( $10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), phenanthrene ( $5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), and naphthalene ( $3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) were also faster [Karickhoff, 1980].

The rate of  $5 \times 10^{-7} \text{ s}^{-1}$  corresponds to a reaction half-life of 400 hours. In this case, kinetics should be considered for modeling field systems where the aquifer residence times are up to 800 days ( $N_D < 50$ ). Significant departure from equilibrium behavior (where  $N_D < 10$ ) are be observed in flow systems where residence times would be less than 150 days.

The change from a laboratory to field scale offers additional complexities. Columns used in this research were fully saturated, so volatilization of the solute was ignored. A model of equilibrium partitioning between solid, liquid, and gas-phases [Baehr, 1987] indicates that for highly volatile compounds, gas phase transport will increase the mobility in a partially saturated system compared to a fully saturated system, since



**Figure 5.9 Effect of the desorption rate on field desorption**

first-order model with a length = 20 m,  $v = 0.03$  cm/s,  
 $D = 0.01$  cm<sup>2</sup>/s,  $\theta = 0.4$ ,  $\rho_b = 1.5$ , curves for various values of  $N_D$ ;  
 note that  $k_b$  (s<sup>-1</sup>) equals  $N_D$  times  $1.7 \times 10^{-6}$ .

diffusion in the gas phase can be greater than advective movement in the aqueous phase. Mass loss from biodegradation was also ignored in this study, even though it is observed in the laboratory and field with several chlorinated benzenes [MacKay *et al.*, 1987].

Reactions occurring in the laboratory may not yield the same results as in the field where some catalysts such as other ions or micro-environmental conditions are missing or sporadic [Graham-Bryce, 1981]. A study of pesticide sorption in the laboratory and at a field site [Elabd *et al.*, 1986] showed no correlation between field  $K_p$  and field  $f_{oc}$ , indicating other interactions were significant. In addition, the variation of parameters in the field that were constant in the laboratory led to difficulty in applying results to the field scale. Others have also observed that the mean  $K_p$  from several field sites [Schultin *et al.*, 1987; MacKay *et al.*, 1986] had little correlation to laboratory  $K_p$ 's.

In simulation of laboratory results at the field scale, the effect of variation of  $f_{oc}$  (or  $K_p$ ) was calculated by modifying the one-dimensional numerical solution (MOB2) to include a stochastically varying  $K_p$ . The specifics of the numerical scheme used are found in Section 2.2.7. A random variation in the sorbent mass ( $f_{oc}$ ) with covariance structure is assumed, where  $K_p$  is equivalent to  $K_{oc}$  times  $f_{oc}$  (equation 2). Three cases were considered:  $f_{oc} = 0.01 \pm 0.0001$ ,  $f_{oc} = 0.01 \pm 0.001$ , and  $f_{oc} = 0.01 \pm 0.01$ . This would simulate soil organic matter gradually changing in a profile, with correlation at a small distance, but no correlation at a large distance.

Soil organic matter is correlated with clay content, so in layered soil where layers had a different clay content, a vertical correlation scale would be equal to half of a formation thickness. The integral scale for this simulation (distance over which data are correlated) [Andersson and Shapiro, 1983] is 2.5 nodes, with 100 total nodes in the soil profile.

Values of  $f_{oc}$  (and corresponding  $K_p$ ) for the three cases are shown in Table 5.6, where the first case shows  $K_p$  varying from 21 to 31, the second case  $K_p$  varies from 14

Table 5.6 Simulated  $K_p$  values for Stochastic Cases

Case 1		Case 2		Case 3	
$f_{oc} = 0.01 \pm 0.0001$		$f_{oc} = 0.01 \pm 0.001$		$f_{oc} = 0.01 \pm 0.01$	
$K_{p,i}$	$f_{oc,i}$	$K_{p,i}$	$f_{oc,i}$	$K_{p,i}$	$f_{oc,i}$
26.797	0.01072	38.681	0.01227	42.966	0.01719
30.672	0.01227	42.938	0.01718	81.724	0.03269
30.760	0.01230	43.216	0.01729	82.603	0.03304
31.440	0.01258	45.366	0.01815	89.403	0.03576
28.684	0.01144	36.398	0.01456	61.043	0.02442
26.282	0.01051	29.053	0.01162	37.815	0.01513
25.425	0.01017	26.343	0.01054	29.246	0.01170
25.631	0.01025	26.997	0.01080	31.314	0.01253
26.267	0.01051	29.008	0.01160	37.673	0.01507
25.338	0.01014	26.070	0.01043	28.383	0.01135
25.330	0.01013	26.844	0.01042	28.303	0.01132
26.182	0.01047	28.737	0.01149	36.817	0.01473
24.461	0.00978	23.294	0.00932	19.687	0.00784
26.641	0.01066	30.188	0.01208	41.406	0.01656
28.519	0.01141	36.128	0.01445	60.189	0.02408
30.851	0.01234	43.501	0.01740	83.506	0.03340
29.101	0.01164	37.970	0.01519	66.015	0.02641
25.923	0.01837	27.918	0.01117	34.229	0.01369
25.195	0.01008	25.615	0.01025	26.946	0.01078
21.725	0.00869	14.645	0.00586	-7.746	-0.00310
21.231	0.00849	13.081	0.00523	-12.692	-0.00508
21.264	0.00851	13.185	0.00527	-12.363	-0.00495
21.524	0.00861	14.007	0.00560	-9.764	-0.00391
23.383	0.00935	19.885	0.00795	8.825	0.00353
26.548	0.01062	29.895	0.01196	40.478	0.01619
27.215	0.01089	32.004	0.01280	47.149	0.01886
27.059	0.01082	31.511	0.01260	45.590	0.01824
27.475	0.01099	32.828	0.01313	49.755	0.01990

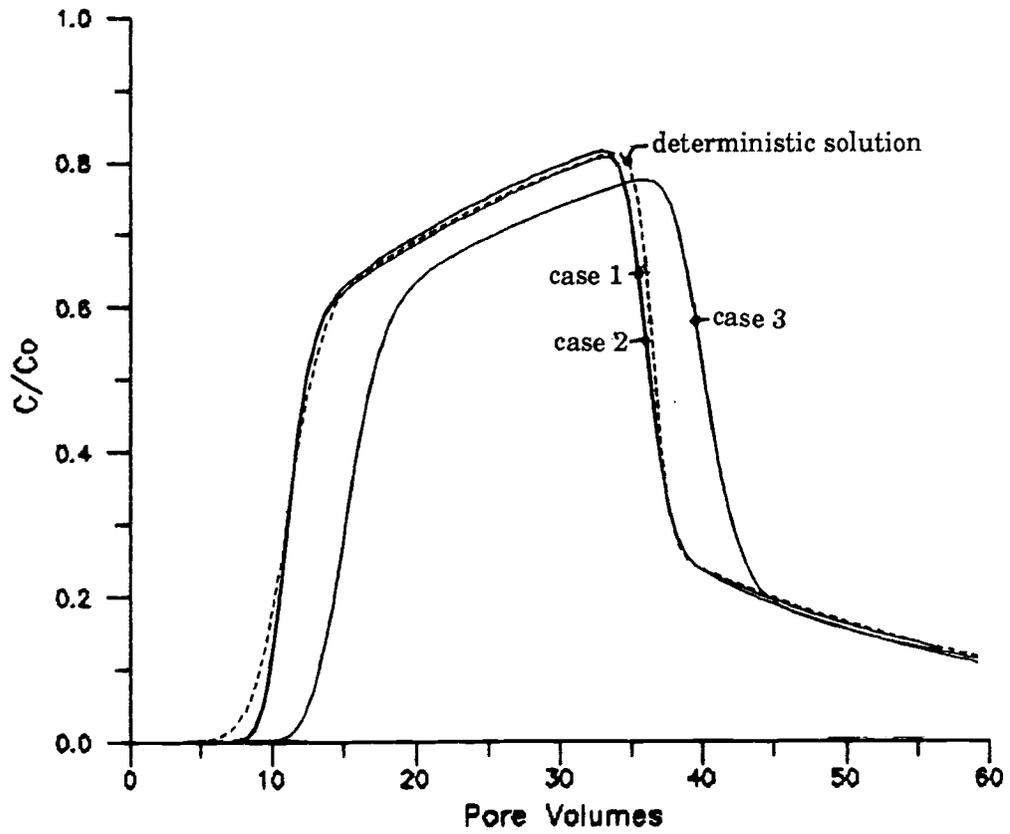


Figure 5.10 Effect of random variation of  $f_{oc}$  on the breakthrough curve

to 45, and in the third case  $K_p$  varies between 0 and 90. A single model run with each case produced breakthrough curves (shown in Figure 5.10) where little difference is observed in the curve shape compared to the deterministic solution. Usually, many realizations (runs) of the stochastic model are performed to produce an average breakthrough curve, which is then compared to the deterministic model, but this was not necessary for this example.

Results are intuitively appealing, since in one-dimensional flow a change in  $K_p$  (or retardation factor) is analogous to series resistors; all flow must go through every node, so the value of the individual nodes are not important, only the average  $K_p$ . The fact that no additional spreading is observed with randomly varying  $K_p$  in one dimension is an artifact of the case considered. In an actual field situation, variation of  $f_{oc}$  would increase the observed spreading, as different parts of the flow system would have a different solute velocity (defined with respect to retardation factor in equation 29). A two dimensional simulation of randomly varying  $K_p$  [Daugarty *et al.*, 1987] showed that additional spreading results; this could be misinterpreted as kinetic effects. A case of stochastic variation of  $K_p$  near pumping wells [Valocchi, 1986] demonstrated that non-equilibrium sorption exhibits a strong spatial dependence.

Randomly varying the velocity [Parker and van Genuchten, 1984] results in increased dispersion even in a one-dimensional case (with no change in  $K_p$ ). Varying several parameters in 2 or 3 dimensional simulations [Sposito and Barry, 1987] showed that the average value of the parameter was not equal to the stochastic parameter average. Dispersion is a function of scale [Andersson *et al.*, 1983], since at different scales, different processes are being averaged into dispersion.

This demonstrates that spreading observed in a field situation could be caused by a slow sorption step, or by spatial variation in velocity or aquifer properties (dispersion or  $f_{oc}$ ). Clearly, scaling up of parameters obtained at the laboratory scale to the field scale should be done through intermediate scale studies for accurate application of the mechanisms and rates obtained at a small scale.

### **5.3.2 Methods to Determine Sorption Mechanism**

A series of experiments was performed in this study to separate possible rate limiting steps (Figure 1.1). Using model surfaces, considerable control of the geometry and size of the mineral surface and bound organic layer is possible. This type of control is not possible with natural systems, but some of the methods developed can still be applied to natural soils to determine the sorption mechanism.

Diffusion through immobile pore fluid can be examined in natural systems by separating particles of different size and then determining if the larger particle exhibits slower sorption (as done in this study). Results can be quantified by calculating apparent tortuosity (equation 40) using the equilibrium model dispersion coefficients. Experiments run at different temperature can also be used to determine if the change in intraparticle diffusion (same equation) over a temperature range is consistent with expected change in diffusion (Stokes-Einstein equation 39). Removal of the bound organic material and comparison of sorption rates on bound and unbound particles can also quantify the effect of the diffusion rate in the immobile pore fluid.

The diffusion rate through the bound organic layer can be quantified with a series of compounds, and compared to the expected change in diffusion rate from the Stokes-Einstein equation. Any quantification of the physical dimensions of the bound organic layer can be used to estimate the diffusion rate through the bound organic layer [Barrer, 1939]. The sorption of a series of compounds at different temperature can be used to determine if a chemical reaction can adequately describe the sorption kinetics. In addition, the sorption energy and activation energy can be estimated and compared to published values.

### **5.3.3 Optimum Methods to Determine Sorption Parameters**

As many as five parameters can be estimated from a single breakthrough curve, and since some are related, this leads to the conclusion that there are more than one set of parameters that can fit the data in many cases. Spreading of a breakthrough curve is

a function of hydrodynamic dispersion and a slow rate process. Independent determination of dispersion (see Section 2.2.2) is necessary to properly separate it from the slow rate process. The partition coefficient can also be independently determined from the area in front of the breakthrough curve. An experiment run at low velocity (exhibiting little kinetics) provides for the best determination of  $K_p$ .

The most accurate velocity to determine the rate parameter is when the ratio of the residence time is equal to the reaction time (equation 38). Figure 2.8 describes this point of maximum sensitivity of the rate parameter when the Damkohler number equals 1.44. At these high velocities, the spreading due to the slow rate process exhibits maximum effect, as shown in Figure 2.7. Performing experiments at these velocities and obtaining reliable (and enough) samples is difficult with the apparatus described in this research. Continuous detection of solute concentration, and injection of a solute pulse without interrupting the flow through the column, and use of smaller columns would make this feasible. This is essentially a liquid chromatograph system. Additionally, injecting a small injection pulse would decrease column degradation.

A hypothetical example of determining the reaction rate from small pulse injections is illustrated in Figure 5.11 (analogous to Figure 2.7). Low velocity injections produce sharp peaks with a defined retardation factor. By simulating injections at larger velocities, more kinetic spreading is observed (and more dispersion). Eventually, at very fast velocities, the solute does not have time to react with the column material, and the breakthrough curve appears conservative (retardation factor = 1). There is an intermediate velocity where the residence time is equal to the reaction time, as observed by the flat breakthrough curve. The desorption rate coefficient ( $k_b$ ) can be determined from velocity by:

$$k_b = \frac{1.44 v \theta}{l \rho_b K_p} = \frac{1.44 v}{[R_f - 1] l} \quad (84)$$

where  $l$  is the column length, and  $K_p$  is determined from a low velocity (or batch) experiment. Experimentally, all velocities are not obtainable, nor is continuous detection at

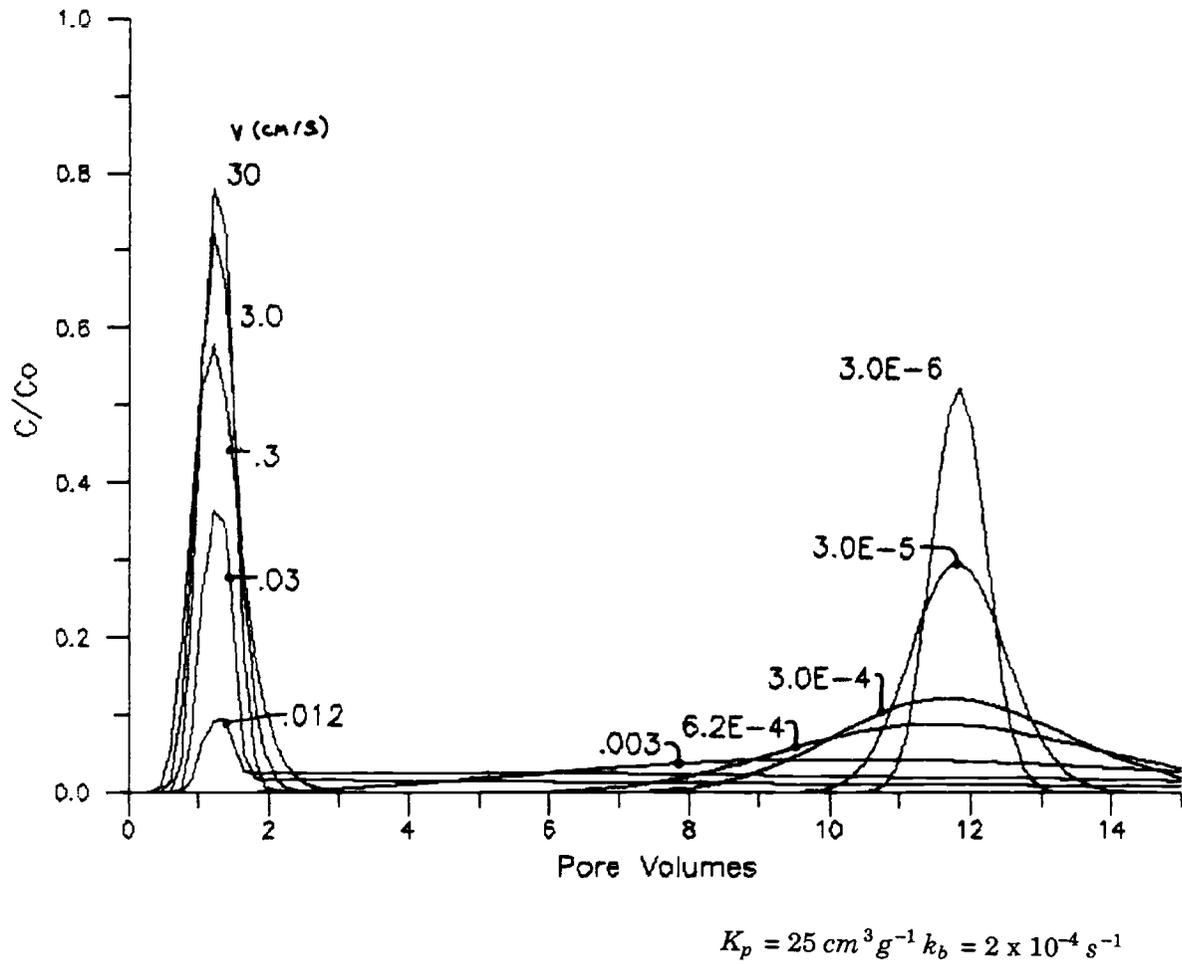


Figure 5.11 Effect of velocity on small injection pulse breakthrough curves

the concentrations of interest. Column experiments were performed at different velocities for some sorbent/sorbate combinations in this research. Sorption rates (and other parameters) were determined for each experiment, where error between the best experiments is 2 to 3 fold (similar accuracy stated by other researchers), and at worst, 5 orders of magnitude. The largest error were those sorbent/sorbate combinations exhibiting fast sorption, where there is considerable error in determining a  $k_b$  value from a breakthrough curve that exhibits essentially no kinetics.

Theoretically, a single sorbent/sorbate combination has a single sorption rate and partition coefficient. Simple averaging of several experiments (when deviations are several orders of magnitude) may not produce the best set of parameters that accurately represent the experimental data. This is because the rate parameter sensitivity is nonlinear (Figure 2.8); there is greater error in fitting the rate parameter for experiments run at low velocities.

The analytical solution of the nonequilibrium solute transport model (CFITIM) was modified to be able to determine parameters from several experiments simultaneously that minimize the total error in fitting all experiments. The program, MFITIM, is listed in Appendix D, with an example input file (Appendix E) and output file (Appendix F). A total of three parameters are optimized with the two-region model ( $K_p$ ,  $\alpha_e$ , and  $f$ ), and two parameters with the first-order model ( $K_p$  and  $k_b$ ). Eight cases were run with the sorbent/sorbate combinations listed in Table 5.7; cases were chosen as examples where a large variation in a parameter existed between experiments. The program, MFITIM, can obtain better results than a simple average of individual experiments by adjusting parameters and arriving at a lower total error. This is illustrated in Table 5.7 where a better fit is obtained in each case. Five cases of the two-region model are shown, with representative 2 or 3 experiments from each sorbent/sorbate combination.

Obtaining a better fit (lower total error) in most cases is not equal to the average value of individual experiments. Since error is nonlinear for the rate parameter (Figure 2.8), large  $N_D$ 's can be adjusted to a greater extent without affecting error, compared to

Table 5.7 Multiple experiment parameter estimation results

Sorbent	Solute	N	Single-Experiment Method		Multiple-Experiment Method		
			parameter	$\Sigma \text{ssq}/N$	parameter	$\Sigma \text{ssq}/N$	$\Delta \text{ssq}$
C <sub>1</sub> poly, 100 $\mu\text{m}$ (A)	DCB	2	$K_p = 450, 330$	2.369	$K_p = 347$	2.331	+1.6%
			$\alpha_s = 940, 0.0078$		$\alpha_s = 1.2$		
			$f = 0.59, 0.30$		$f = 0.32$		
$\emptyset$ poly, 20 $\mu\text{m}$ (G)	DCB	2	$K_p = 16, 34$	2.163	$K_p = 25$	2.067	+4.4%
			$\alpha_s = 0.0056, 0.0014$		$\alpha_s = 0.0013$		
			$f = 0.13, 0.58$		$f = 0.33$		
$\emptyset$ poly, 100 $\mu\text{m}$ (E)	DCB	2	$K_p = 19, 85$	>10	$K_p = 83$	7.258	>+30%
			$\alpha_s = 0.00075, 0.0070$		$\alpha_s = 0.0055$		
			$f = 0.45, 0.14$		$f = 0.11$		
$\emptyset$ poly, 425 $\mu\text{m}$ (H)	DCB	3	$K_p = 22, 17, 25$	1.921	$K_p = 18$	0.790	+59%
			$\alpha_s = 0.0020, 0.00039, 0.0022$		$\alpha_s = 0.0089$		
			$f = 0.42, 0.60, 0.43$		$f = 0.47$		
$\emptyset$ poly, 100 $\mu\text{m}$ (E)	TeCB	2	$K_p = 108, 542$	9.333	$K_p = 340$	4.429	+52%
			$\alpha_s = 0.021, 0.0052$		$\alpha_s = 0.017$		
			$f = 0.028, 0.29$		$f = 0.016$		

experiments with small  $N_D$ 's. This is illustrated with the first case (surface A), where the average  $\alpha_e$  of two experiments is 460 with a six order of magnitude difference in the values. The multiple experiment fit average  $\alpha_e$  is 1.2, where the experiment with the large  $N_D$  is adjusted to a greater extent. The average  $K_p$  and  $f$  values from MFITIM are also different from the arithmetic average of the individual experiments.

This program is most useful when there is a wide variation in velocity between experiments. This is best illustrated with the last case (TeCB) where there is a two fold difference in velocity. Theoretically, a unique rate parameter can be best determined from several experiments (same sorbent and sorbate) run at different velocities. Considering experiments as vertical lines a fixed distance apart in Figure 2.8, fitting a single rate parameter to multiple experiments is then equivalent to moving these vertical lines (keeping the fixed distances) along the x-axis to a point of lowest error. This multiple experiment method should yield more accurate chemical parameters from breakthrough curves than is possible from modeling single breakthrough curves, which can be used for more accurate determination of the sorption mechanism.

## CHAPTER 6 CONCLUSIONS

Sorption kinetics were examined with the use of model sorbents in order to quantify the rate of diffusion through immobile pore fluid, the rate of diffusion through the bound organic layer, and the chemical binding and release rate. Slow sorption and desorption, as evidenced by tailing in breakthrough curves, were observed with phenyl and C<sub>1</sub> polymer modified surfaces, but not with several other organic modified surfaces, nor with unbound silica and alumina.

The observed slow sorption and desorption appear to be caused by the chemical binding and release step, as evidenced by similar sorption rates onto porous and solid particles modified with a phenyl or C<sub>1</sub> polymer. Sorption and desorption of solutes on both the C<sub>1</sub>- and phenyl-polymer surfaces were modeled accurately with a first-order reversible reaction and a single rate parameter ( $k_b$ ). The rate data from column experiments at different temperature, and through a series of compounds, indicate that a diffusion process was not causing the observed slow sorption. The data was consistent with the binding and release rate causing the observed slow sorption. The rates observed for chlorinated benzene sorption onto the phenyl-polymer surface were slower than rates observed by others in natural soil [Wu and Gschwend, 1986], but rates on other organic-modified surfaces were up to 3-fold faster than in soil.

The binding energy for sorption of chlorinated benzenes onto the phenyl-polymer surface is stronger than on either the phenyl-monomer surface or aliphatic chain organic-modified surfaces. This is probably caused by the stronger interactions between pi electrons in the benzene ring of the solute molecule and surface phenyl molecules [Jinno *et al.*, 1985]. Sorption onto the phenyl-polymer surface versus the phenyl-monomer surface is stronger and slower. The difference in rate is apparently due to a steric hindrance in reaching the strongest binding sites between the closely spaced phenyl groups on the polymer surface. Here, multiple pi-pi electron interactions are possible [Hanai *et al.*, 1985]. In addition, since the phenyl groups are bound close to the surface [El-Hassan, 1986], they do not move; this decreases the the mass transfer rate of

solute molecules to binding sites. Long aliphatic chains bound to the surface exhibit motion that increases the mass transfer rate to surface sites.

Sorption energies for the series of chlorinated benzenes are small, ranging from  $-4.0 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$  for chlorobenzene to  $-6.9 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$  for pentachlorobenzene, and are consistent with the van der Waals interactions expected. Sorption energies are slightly stronger than estimated values from physico-chemical data for most of the chlorinated benzenes sorbing onto phenyl-polymer surface. This may reflect the increased binding energy of the pi-pi electron interactions compared to simple van der Waals interactions. Sorption energies were considerably weaker for amine and alcohol modified surfaces, as expected, since hydrophobic solutes sorb less in the presence of polar functional groups. Sorption energies observed with natural soils are smaller than those observed on the hydrophobic surfaces in this research, but greater than those observed on surfaces modified with amine or alcoholic groups. Apparently, both sorption energies and rates observed in natural soils can be simulated with model sorbents.

The sorption of chlorinated benzenes onto the phenyl-polymer surface is caused mainly by the negative enthalpy ( $-4$  to  $-5 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ ), and to a lesser extent by the positive entropy of the sorption reaction ( $T\Delta S$  was  $0.4$  to  $1.2 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ ). The positive entropy change indicates that the disordering of water molecules upon solute removal from solution (entropy portion of the solvent effect) is greater than the negative entropy of moving the solute molecule from liquid to sorbed state. The negative enthalpy is composed of both the solute/surface interaction energy and the increased hydrogen bonding due to the solvent effect. The decrease in enthalpy from DCB to TeCB may be caused by the solvent effect, as the surface interaction energy should not change over the series of compounds. The entropic and enthalpic changes appear to indicate that the solvent effect is the major component of the overall sorption reaction. The calculated solvent effect and interaction energies are approximately equal, showing that removal of hydrophobic solutes from solution is as much a driving force as is the interaction energy with the surface.

The diffusion rate through the bound organic layer is apparently relatively fast due to the small thickness of the organic layer. This conclusion is also consistent with the rate data for the series of chlorinated benzenes and sorption at different temperatures. In addition, the calculated diffusion rate through a bound organic layer of this thickness [Barrer, 1939] is considerably faster than that observed.

The slow approach to equilibrium is partially caused by diffusion through immobile pore fluid since a difference in the sorption rate is observed with particles of a different size or different tortuosity, although the effect is small. Diffusion through immobile pore fluid has only a minor effect on the overall sorption rate, since most of the slow sorption is still observed when the  $C_{1-}$  or phenyl-polymer is bound to solid particles. The expected diffusion rates for 500  $\mu\text{m}$  particles or smaller are less than one minute, and pore clogging expected by binding organic compounds to the surface did not seem to affect this diffusion rate, since some organic-bound particles had the same sorption rate as unbonded particles.

Kinetic limitations cause a considerable increase in the time needed to desorb solutes from surfaces. The relative transport versus chemical (sorption) time scales suggest that chlorinated benzene sorption would be kinetically limited only in some field situations involving residence times of 100 hours or less such as near pumping wells, in soils, or in small scale aquifer cleanup operations. Desorption rates observed by other researchers would have an effect on intermediate scale flow systems (residence times to 800 days). Kinetics are postulated to cause some of the difference between observed ion transport and equilibrium model predictions even in large aquifers [Jennings, 1987]. Desorption of solutes from soil can be made faster by increasing temperature, addition of a cosolvent to water, and addition of a organic colloid phase.

Further investigation of the interactions in natural systems can be made with model surfaces for polar and ionic interactions, and with a wider variety of solutes. Application of some of the methods used in this research to natural soils can be made to determine the rate limiting sorption step. Accurate kinetic parameters are needed to

determine the sorption mechanism, which can be done with a single experiment run at optimum velocity, or multiple experiments run at different velocities. Development of better methods for integrating modeling and experimentation are needed in order to produce more accurate rate data.

### A. KCl Column Modeling Data

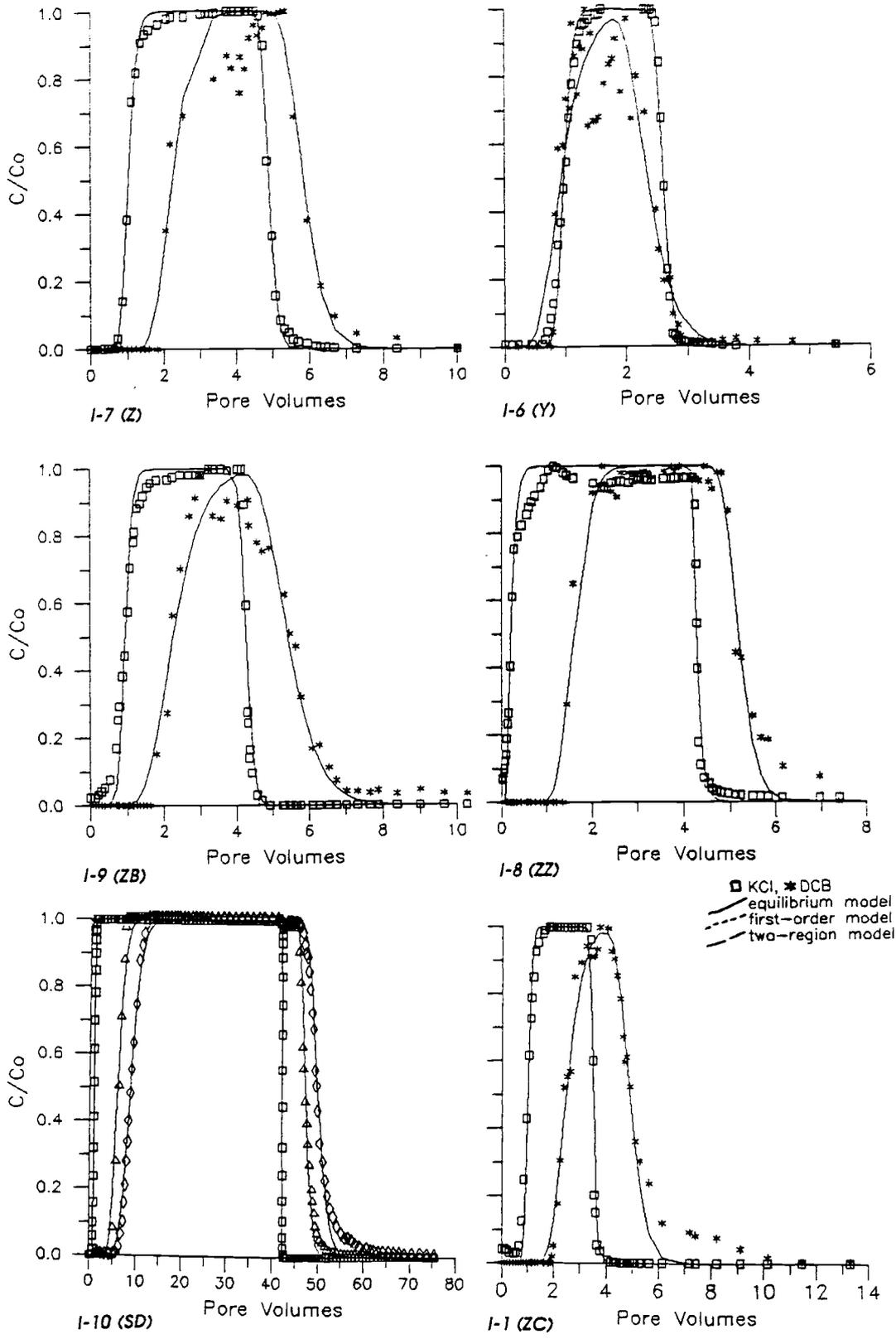
															EMULSION MODEL					
NAME	DATE	misc.	Q (cm <sup>3</sup> /s)	ave vel v (cm/s)	pore vol (cm <sup>3</sup> )	column injec (cm <sup>2</sup> )	col le (cm)	col volume (cm <sup>3</sup> )	total poro- sity	actual poro- sity	built density (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	SORBENT name	bound organic	KCl	KCl	KCl Rf	KCl Peclet	KCl D (cm <sup>2</sup> /s)	SSQ (error)	
														init conc (Molar)	final conc (Molar)					
A1	10-13-86	pH=7.02	0.0284	0.04182	9.506	6.00	0.785	14.00	10.99	0.865	0.887	0.330	PO-N	none	7.90E-03	3.20E-03	1.026	77.22	7.58E-03	0.1117
A2	10-13-86	pH=9.83	0.0284	0.04182	9.506	6.00	0.785	14.00	10.99	0.865	0.787	0.330	PO-N	none	7.90E-03	4.00E-03	0.910	153.9	3.76E-03	0.0470
A3	10-14-86	pH=3.85	0.0284	0.04182	9.506	6.00	0.785	14.00	10.99	0.865	0.836	0.330	PO-N	none	2.00E-03	6.30E-03	0.966	171.9	3.41E-03	0.0081
A4	10-14-86	pH=2.04	0.0284	0.04182	9.506	6.00	0.785	14.00	10.99	0.865	0.816	0.330	PO-N	none	1.60E-02	2.50E-02	0.943	191.8	3.05E-03	0.0083
A5	10-14-86	pH=6.98	0.0284	0.04182	9.506	6.00	0.785	14.00	10.99	0.865	0.429	0.330	PO-N	none	1.30E-05	5.00E-05	0.496	142.1	4.12E-03	0.0226
A6	2-21-87	vary	0.0283	0.05223	2.709	10.00	0.636	5.00	3.18	0.852	0.545	0.361	PO-E	none	1.00E-05	1.50E-05	0.639	102.9	2.54E-03	0.0225
A7	2-21-87	ionic	0.0167	0.03082	2.709	10.00	0.636	5.00	3.18	0.852	0.839	0.361	PO-E	none	1.00E-04	1.50E-04	0.985	58.94	2.61E-03	0.0585
A8	2-21-87	strength	0.0167	0.03082	2.709	10.00	0.636	5.00	3.18	0.852	0.947	0.361	PO-E	none	1.00E-02	1.50E-02	1.111	58.13	2.63E-03	0.0528
A9	2-21-87	range	0.0183	0.03377	2.709	10.00	0.636	5.00	3.18	0.852	0.894	0.361	PO-E	none	1.00E-01	1.50E-01	1.049	56.05	3.01E-03	0.0316
A11	2-21-87	vary	0.0183	0.03326	2.751	7.50	0.636	5.00	3.18	0.865	0.632	0.330	PO-N	none	1.00E-05	1.50E-05	0.731	81.16	2.05E-03	0.0698
A12	2-21-87	ionic	0.0183	0.03326	2.751	7.50	0.636	5.00	3.18	0.865	0.896	0.330	PO-N	none	1.00E-04	1.50E-04	1.036	131.4	1.27E-03	0.0958
A36	3-23-87		0.0233	0.03431	9.506	3.60	0.785	14.00	10.99	0.865	0.644	0.330	PO-N	none	1.00E-03	2.50E-03	0.744	104.5	4.60E-03	0.0090
A13	2-21-87	strength	0.0183	0.03326	2.751	7.50	0.636	5.00	3.18	0.865	0.932	0.330	PO-N	none	1.50E-04	1.00E-02	1.077	131.0	1.27E-03	0.0041
A14	2-21-87	range	0.0183	0.03326	2.751	7.50	0.636	5.00	3.18	0.865	0.916	0.330	PO-N	none	1.00E-02	1.50E-02	1.059	173.3	9.60E-04	0.0173
A15	2-21-87		0.0183	0.03326	2.751	7.50	0.636	5.00	3.18	0.865	0.948	0.330	PO-N	none	1.50E-02	1.00E-01	1.096	131.0	1.27E-03	0.0050
A16	2-21-87		0.0183	0.03326	2.751	7.50	0.636	5.00	3.18	0.865	0.932	0.330	PO-N	none	1.00E-01	1.50E-01	1.077	164.1	1.01E-03	0.0062
A18	3-2-87	vary	0.0183	0.03326	2.751	3.60	0.636	5.00	3.18	0.865	0.982	0.330	PO-N	none	1.00E-05	1.00E-03	1.135	233.8	7.11E-04	0.0471
A19	3-2-87	ionic	0.0183	0.03326	2.751	3.60	0.636	5.00	3.18	0.865	0.811	0.330	PO-N	none	1.00E-05	1.00E-04	0.937	97.06	1.71E-03	0.1880
A20	3-2-87	strength	0.0183	0.03326	2.751	3.60	0.636	5.00	3.18	0.865	0.928	0.330	PO-N	none	1.00E-05	1.00E-02	1.073	213.1	7.80E-04	0.0179
A21	3-2-87	range	0.0183	0.03326	2.751	3.60	0.636	5.00	3.18	0.865	0.925	0.330	PO-N	none	1.00E-05	1.00E-01	1.069	181.8	9.15E-04	0.0125
A22	3-14-87	vary	0.0183	0.02695	9.506	3.60	0.785	14.00	10.99	0.865	0.849	0.330	PO-N	none	1.00E-02	2.00E-02	0.981	152.0	2.48E-03	0.0282
A23	3-14-87	velocity	0.0367	0.05405	9.506	3.60	0.785	14.00	10.99	0.865	0.798	0.330	PO-N	none	1.00E-02	2.00E-02	0.923	147.1	5.14E-03	0.0233
A24	3-14-87		0.0733	0.10795	9.506	3.60	0.785	14.00	10.99	0.865	0.829	0.330	PO-N	none	1.00E-02	2.00E-02	0.958	110.8	1.36E-02	0.0159
A25	3-14-87		0.1633	0.24049	9.506	3.60	0.785	14.00	10.99	0.865	0.841	0.330	PO-N	none	1.00E-02	2.00E-02	0.972	77.33	4.34E-02	0.0353
A26	3-14-87		0.0083	0.01222	9.506	3.60	0.785	14.00	10.99	0.865	0.810	0.330	PO-N	none	1.00E-02	2.00E-02	0.936	150.3	1.14E-03	0.0047
A25	3-23-87	vary vel	0.00333	0.00490	9.506	3.60	0.785	14.00	10.99	0.865	0.843	0.330	PO-N	none	1.00E-02	2.00E-02	0.974	254.8	2.69E-04	0.0085
A27	3-14-87		0.00167	0.00246	9.506	3.60	0.785	14.00	10.99	0.865	0.817	0.330	PO-N	none	1.00E-02	2.00E-02	0.944	380.4	9.05E-05	0.0019
A28	3-16-87	vary	0.025	0.03682	9.506	3.60	0.785	14.00	10.99	0.865	0.370	0.330	PO-N	none	2.40E-05	1.00E-05	0.428	296.0	1.74E-03	0.0122
A29	3-16-87	initial	0.025	0.03682	9.506	3.60	0.785	14.00	10.99	0.865	0.435	0.330	PO-N	none	6.40E-05	1.00E-05	0.583	123.3	4.18E-03	0.0119
A30	3-16-87	ionic	0.025	0.03682	9.506	3.60	0.785	14.00	10.99	0.865	0.415	0.330	PO-N	none	1.05E-04	1.00E-05	0.480	159.7	3.23E-03	0.0042
A31	3-16-87	strength	0.025	0.03682	9.506	3.60	0.785	14.00	10.99	0.865	0.446	0.330	PO-N	none	3.76E-04	1.00E-05	0.516	177.8	2.90E-03	0.0012
A32	3-16-87		0.025	0.03682	9.506	3.60	0.785	14.00	10.99	0.865	0.495	0.330	PO-N	none	1.05E-03	1.00E-05	0.572	213.7	2.41E-03	0.0051
A33	3-16-87		0.025	0.03682	9.506	3.60	0.785	14.00	10.99	0.865	0.745	0.330	PO-N	none	1.00E-02	1.00E-05	0.861	242.8	2.12E-03	0.0197
A34	3-16-87		0.025	0.03682	9.506	3.60	0.785	14.00	10.99	0.865	0.869	0.330	PO-N	none	1.00E-01	1.00E-05	1.005	152.4	3.38E-03	0.0080
A10	2-21-87		0.0183	0.03377	2.709	10.00	0.636	5.00	3.18	0.852	0.735	0.361	PO-E	none	1.50E-01	1.00E-05	0.863	40.34	4.12E-03	0.0158
A17	2-21-87		0.0183	0.03326	2.751	7.50	0.636	5.00	3.18	0.865	0.940	0.330	PO-N	none	1.50E-01	1.00E-05	1.087	185.1	8.99E-04	0.0047
A37	3-23-87	init.	0.025	0.03682	9.506	3.60	0.785	14.00	10.99	0.865	0.579	0.330	PO-N	none	2.50E-03	1.00E-05	0.669	284.1	1.81E-03	0.0100
A38	3-23-87	conc.	0.025	0.03682	9.506	3.60	0.785	14.00	10.99	0.865	0.649	0.330	PO-N	none	5.00E-03	1.00E-05	0.750	457.5	1.13E-03	0.0420
A39	3-23-87		0.025	0.03682	9.506	3.60	0.785	14.00	10.99	0.865	0.824	0.330	PO-N	none	3.50E-02	1.00E-05	0.953	206.9	2.49E-03	0.0150
A40	3-23-87		0.025	0.03682	9.506	3.60	0.785	14.00	10.99	0.865	0.941	0.330	PO-N	none	1.00E+00	1.00E-05	1.088	149.4	3.45E-03	0.0070



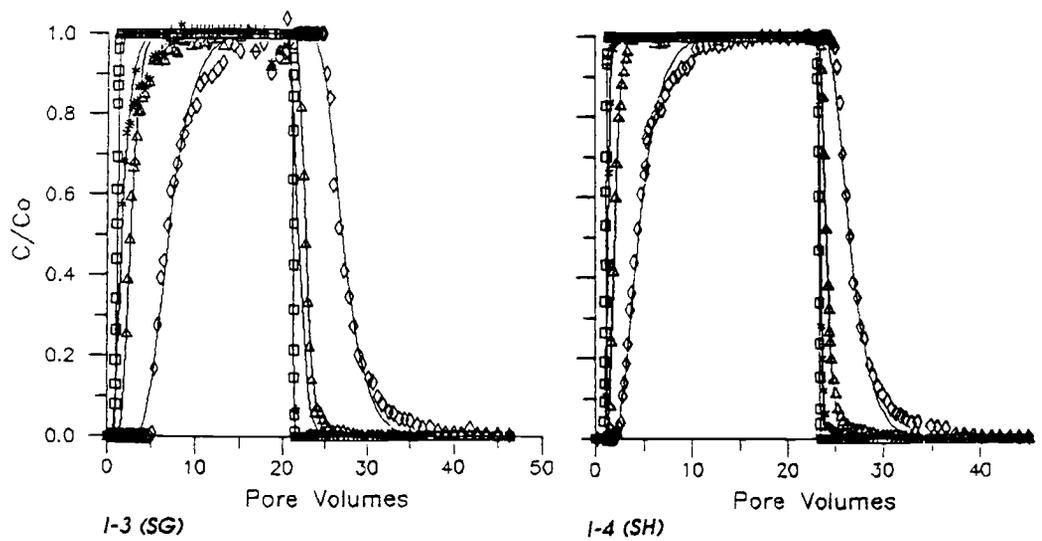
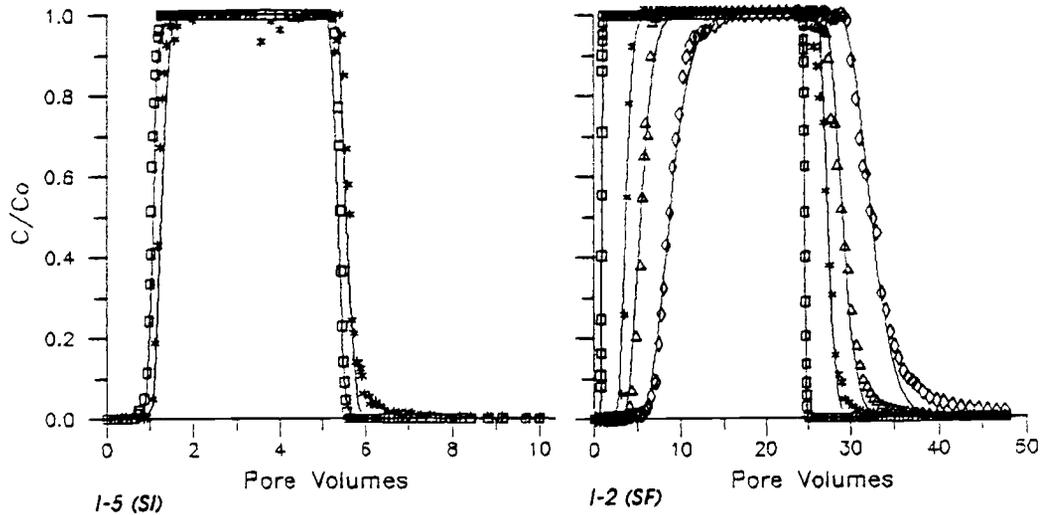






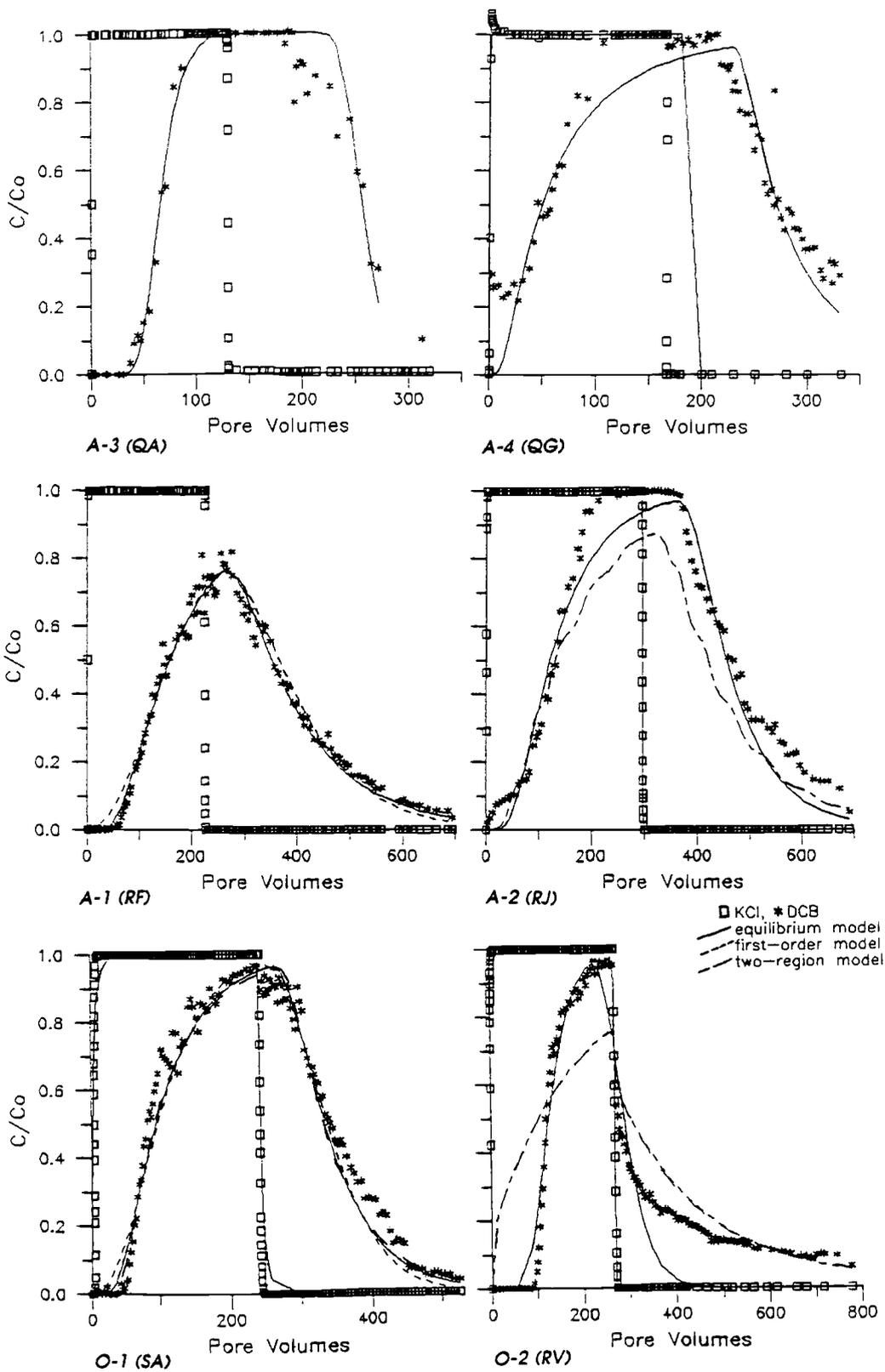


C.1 Unbonded Silica

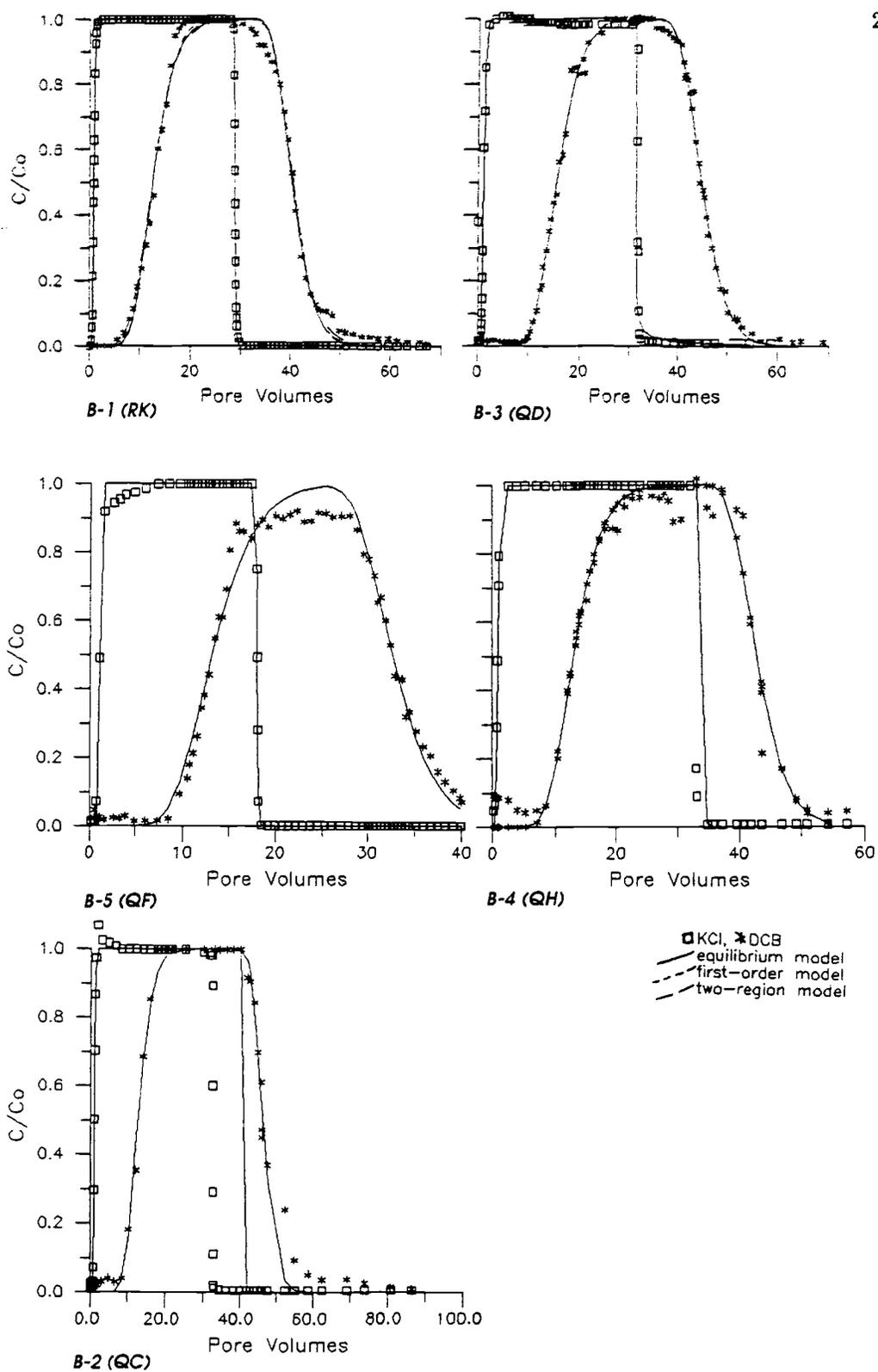


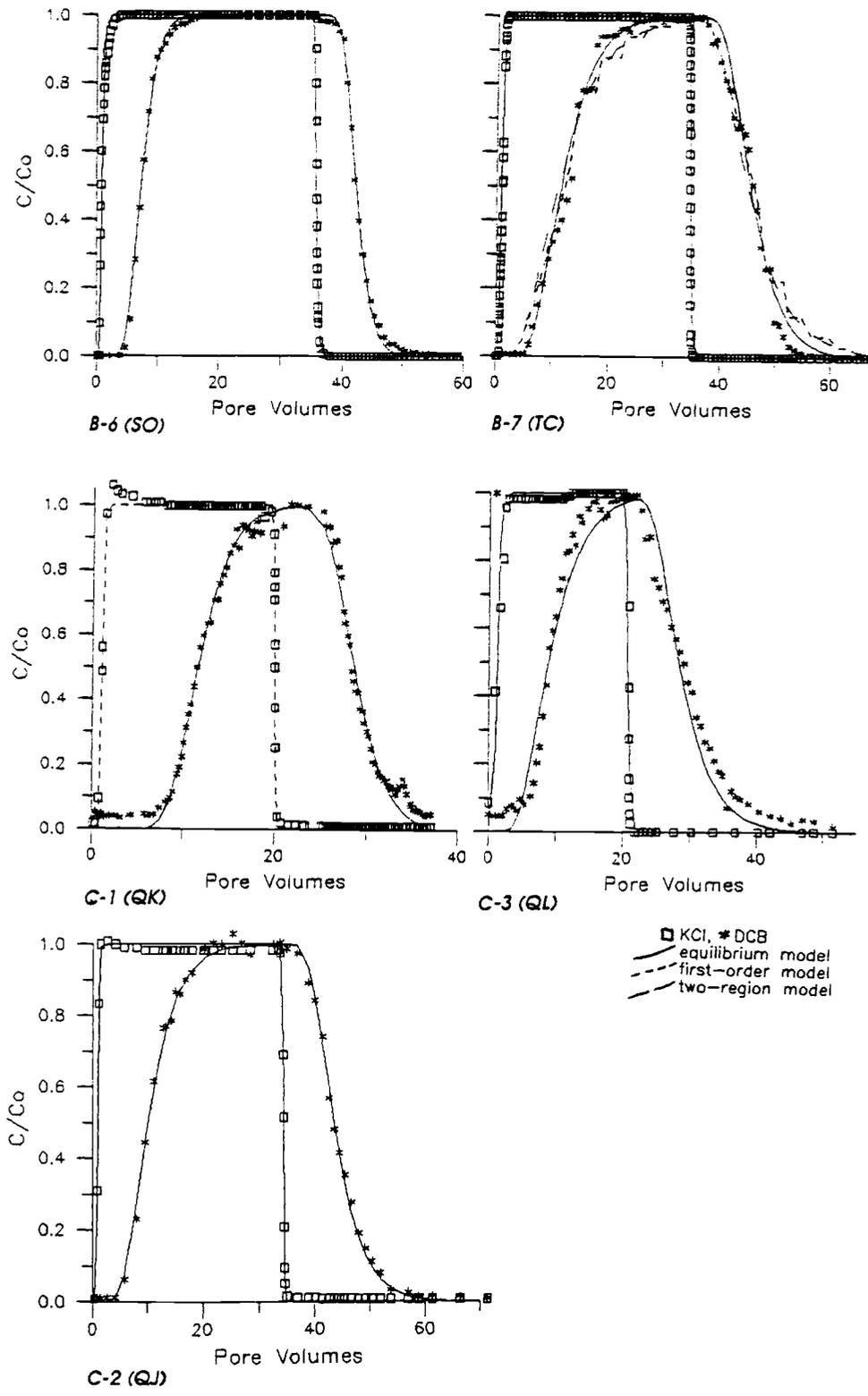
□ KCl, \* DCB, △ TCB, ◇ TeCB  
 — equilibrium model  
 - - - first-order model  
 - · - two-region model

C.2 Unbonded Silica and Alumina

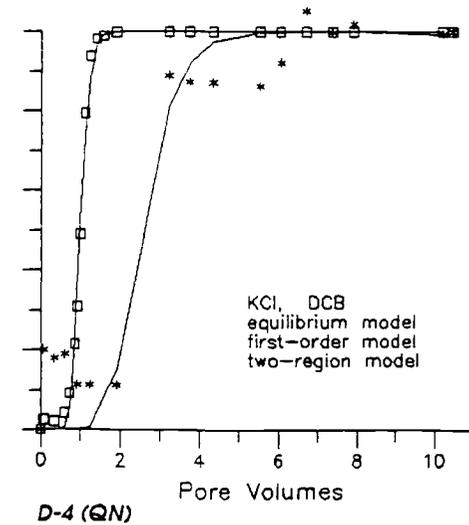
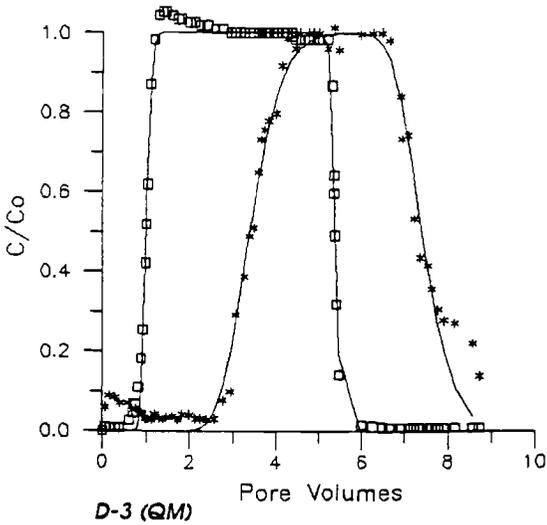
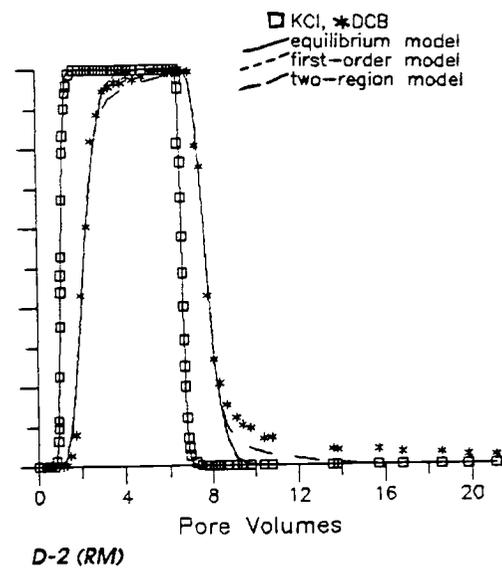
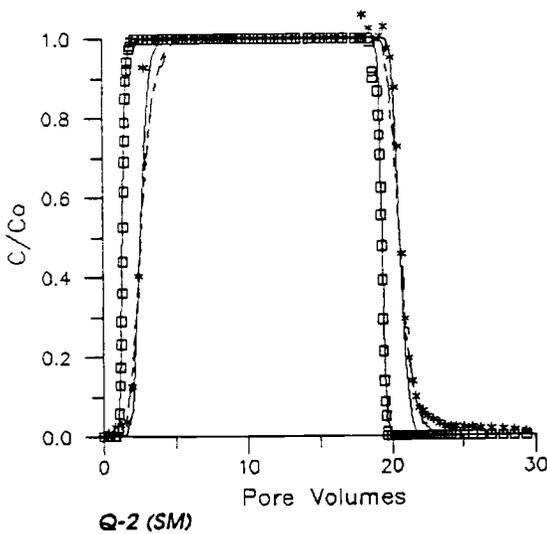
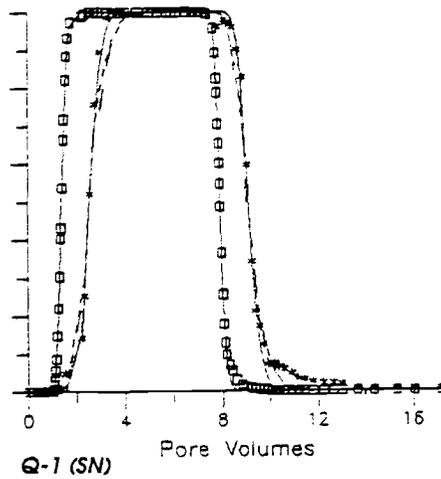
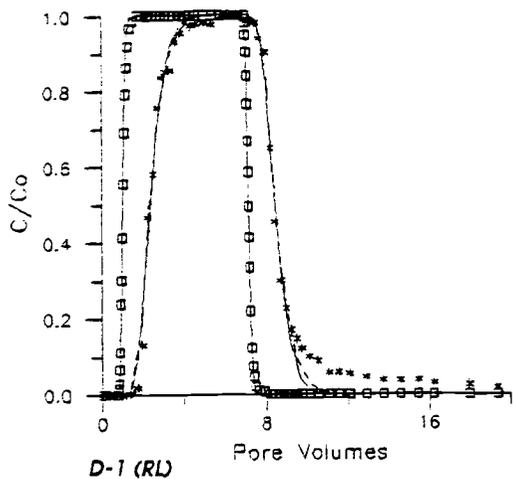


*C.3C<sub>1</sub> polymer modified Silica*

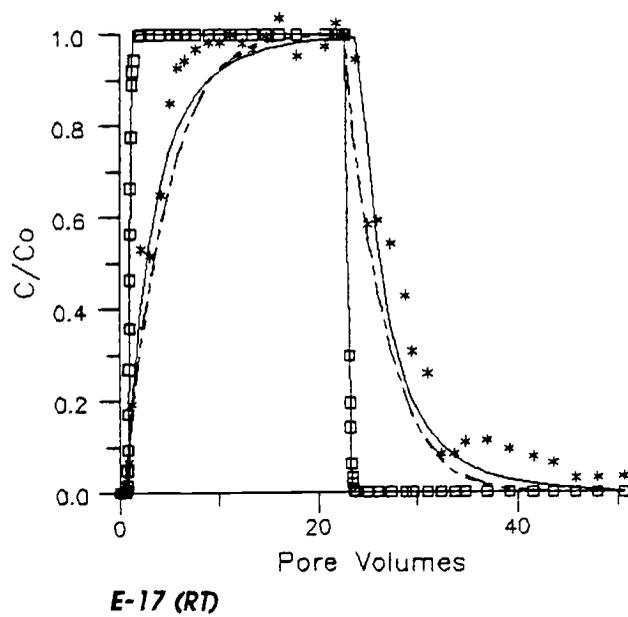
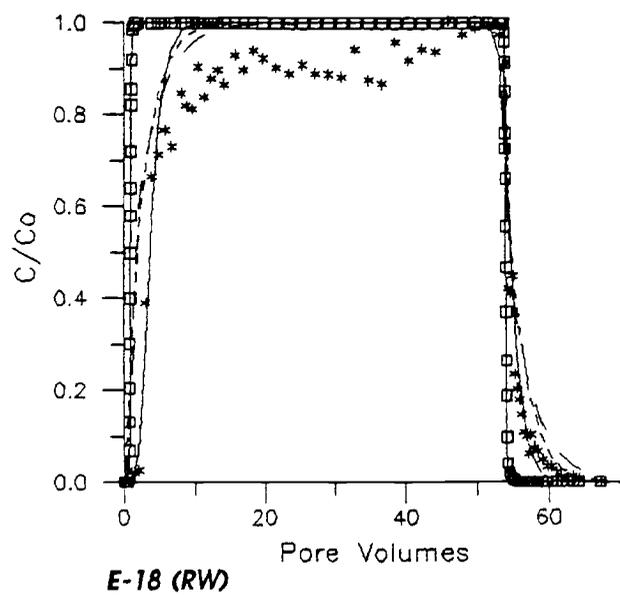
C.4  $C_8$  polymer modified Silica



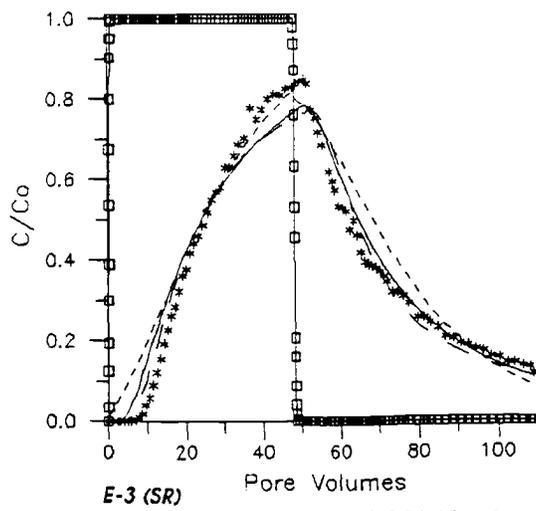
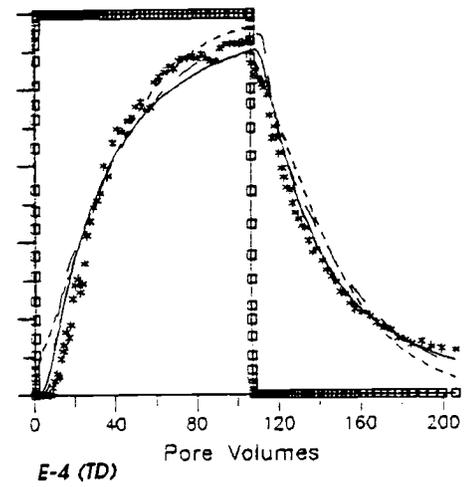
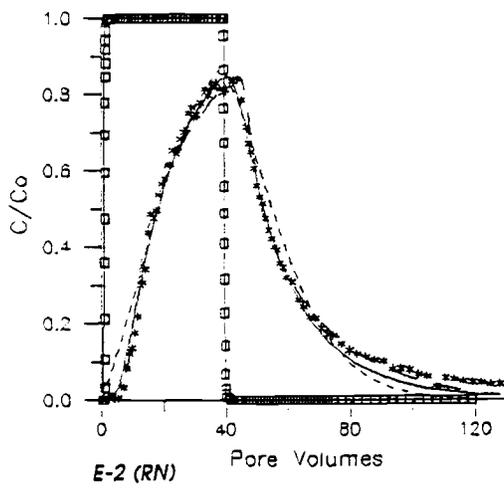
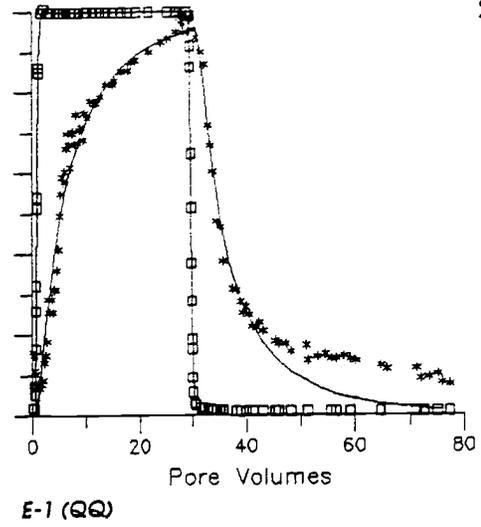
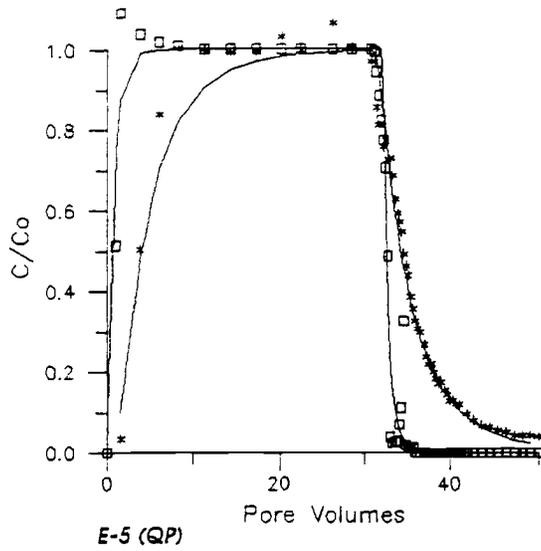
$C_{5C_8}$  and  $C_{18}$  modified Silica



C.6 Phenyl monomer modified Silica

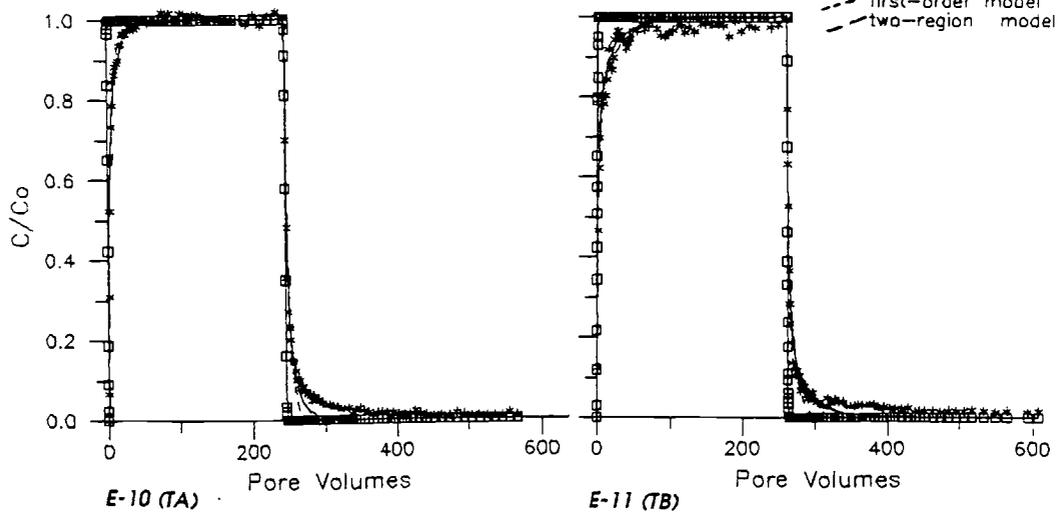
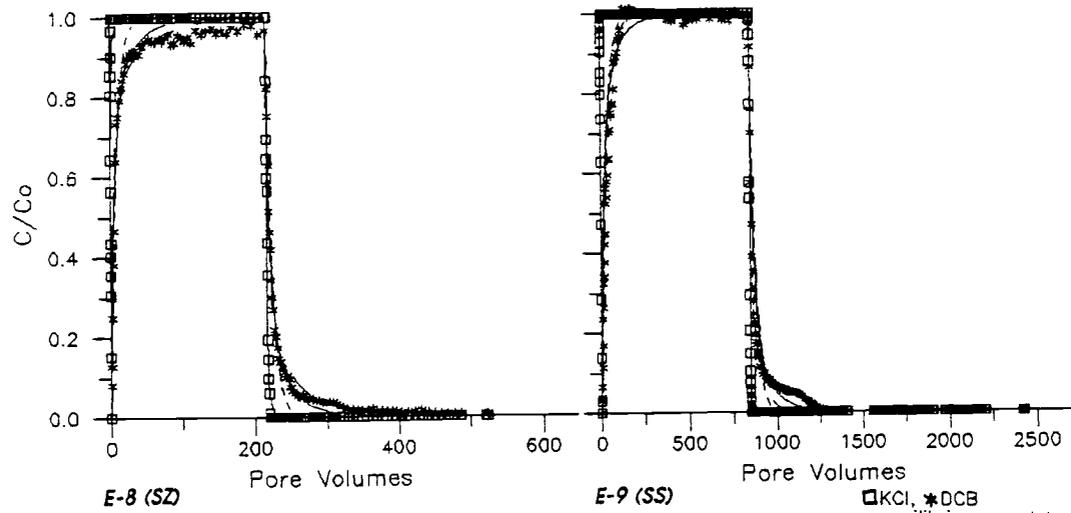
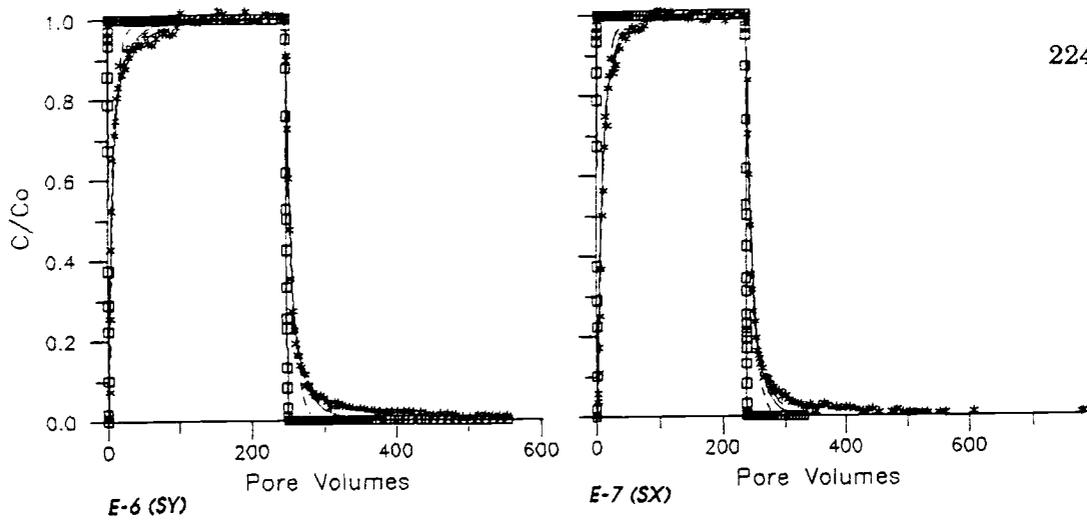


**C.7 Chlorobenzene on Surface E**

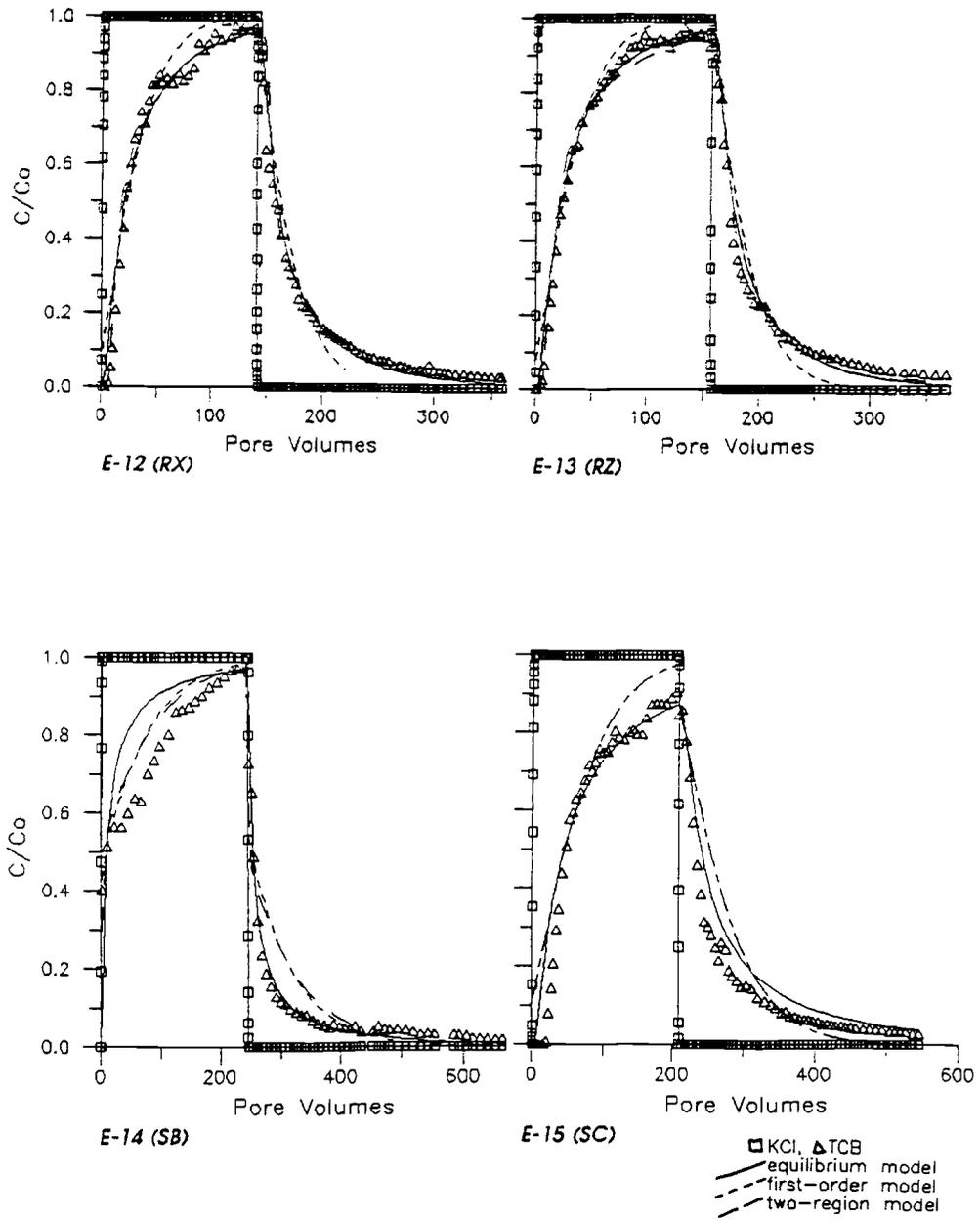


□ KCl, \* DCB  
 — equilibrium model  
 - - - first-order model  
 - · - two-region model

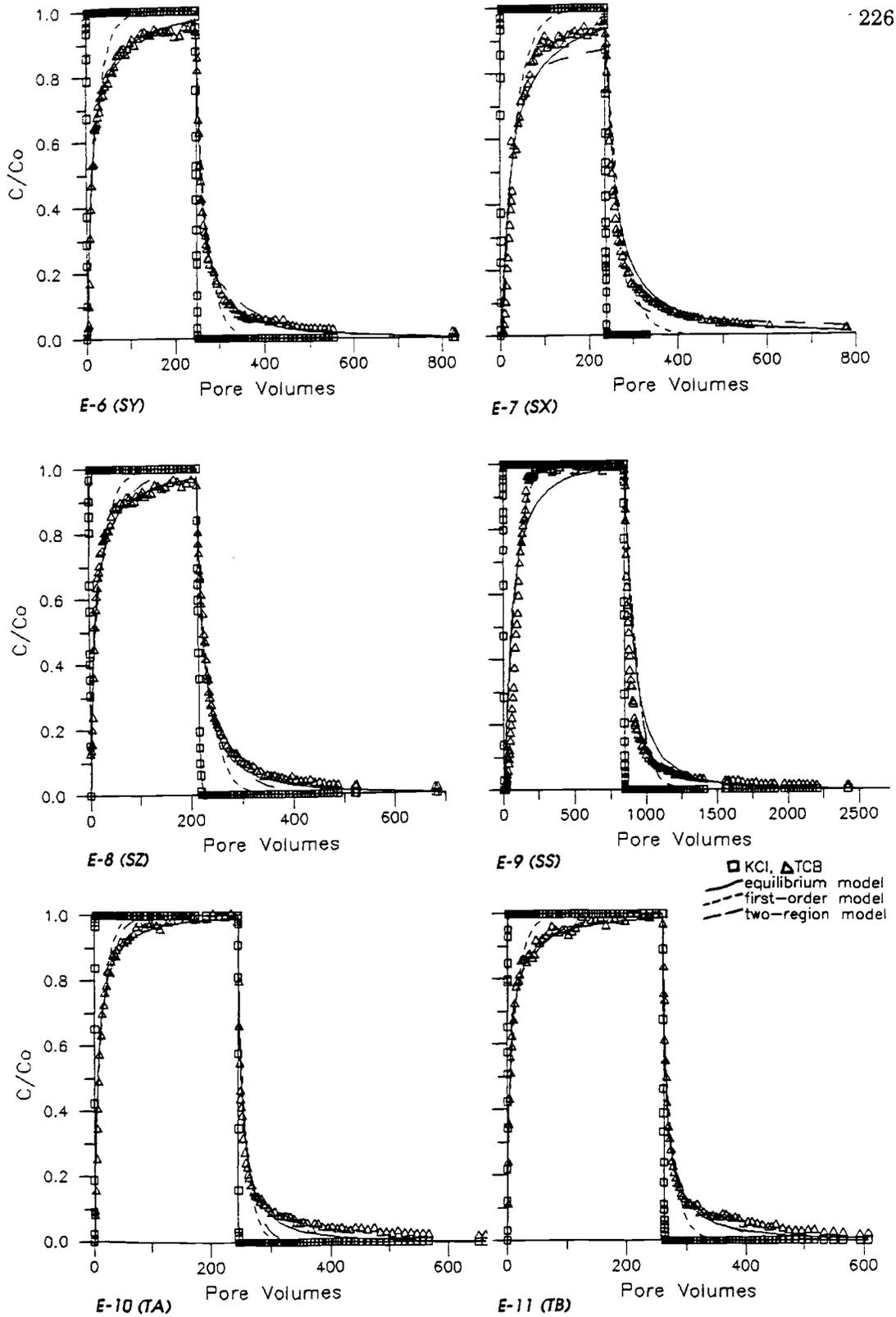
*C.8 Dichlorobenzene on Surface E*



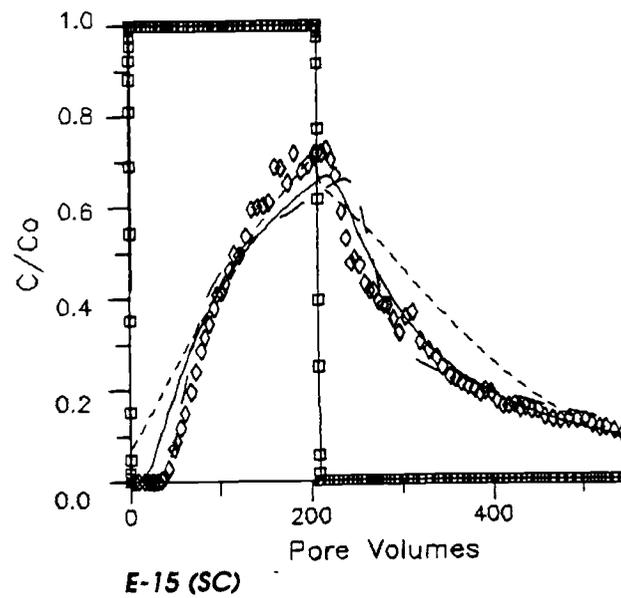
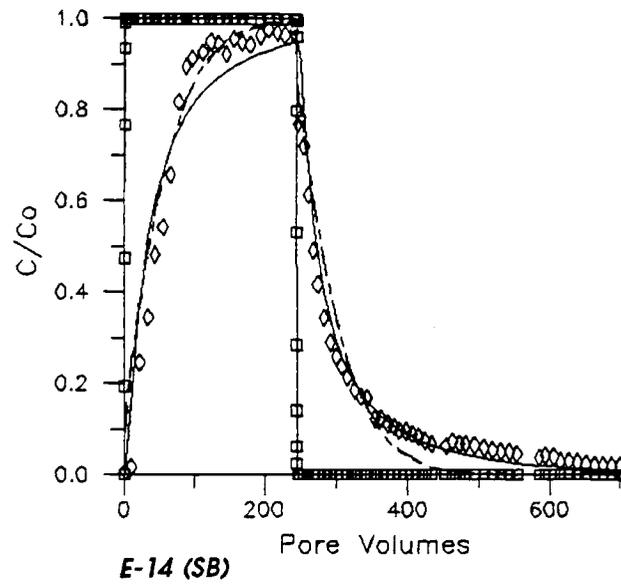
C.9 DCB at different temperature



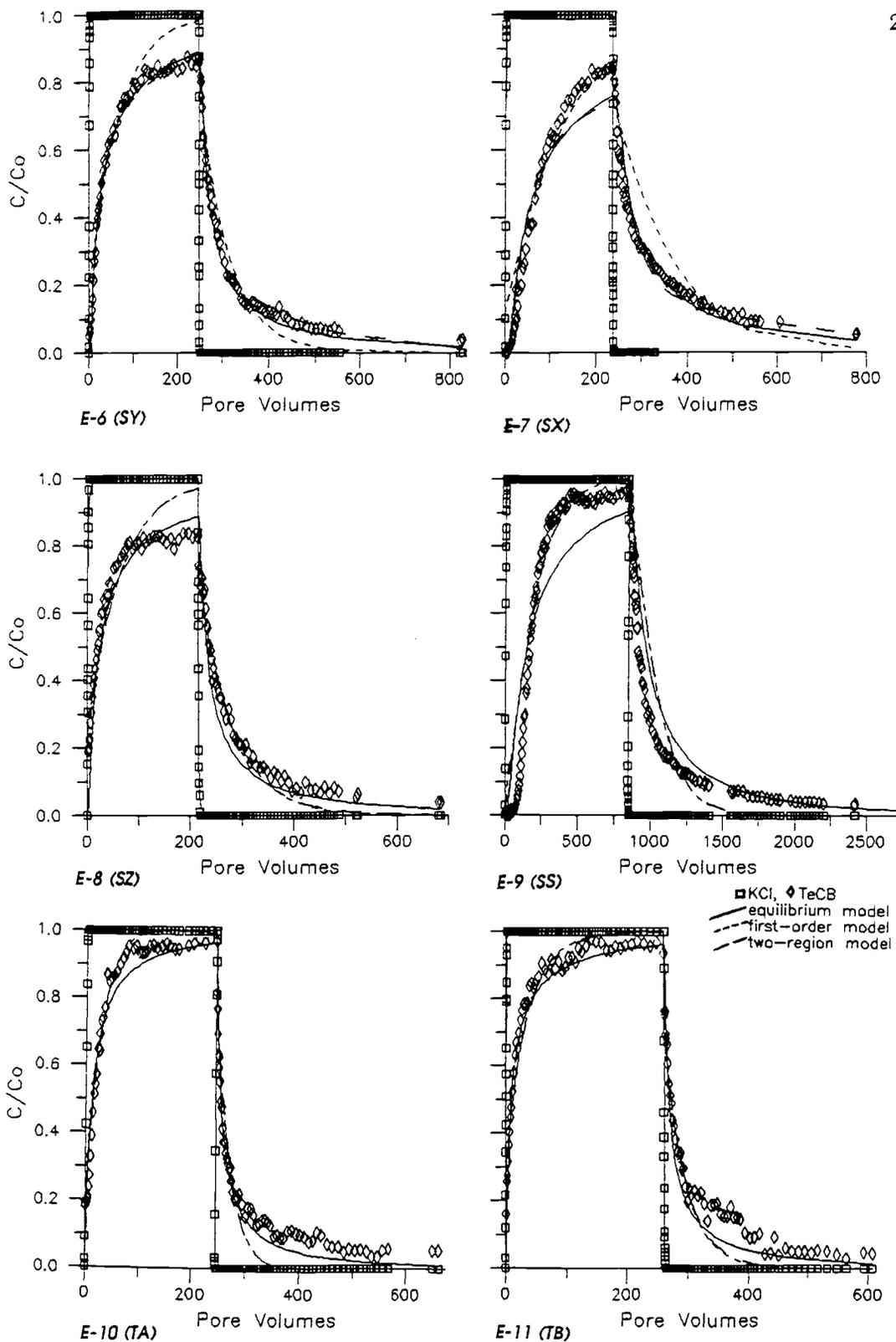
C.10 TCB on Surface E



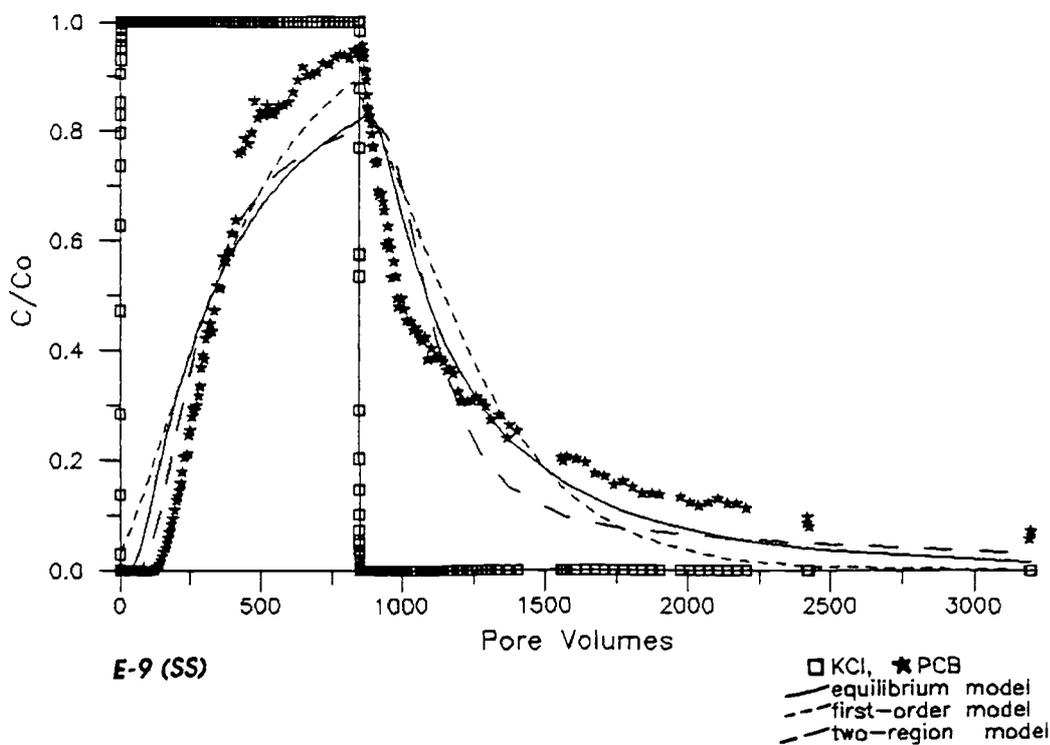
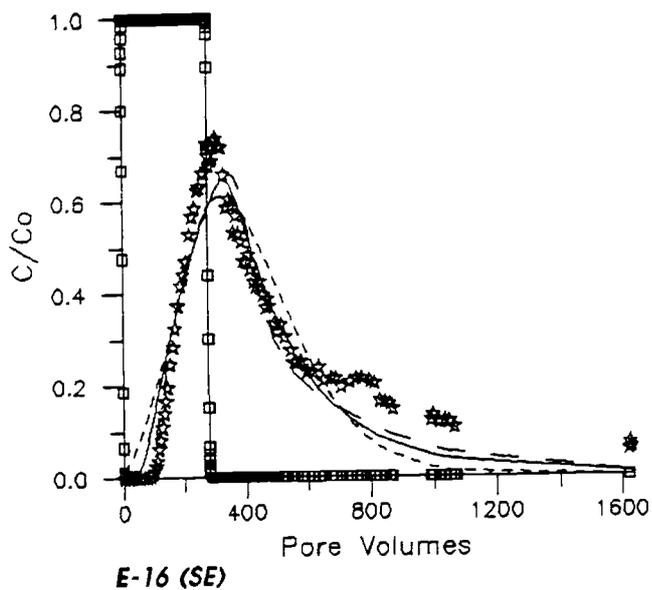
C.11 TCB at different temperature



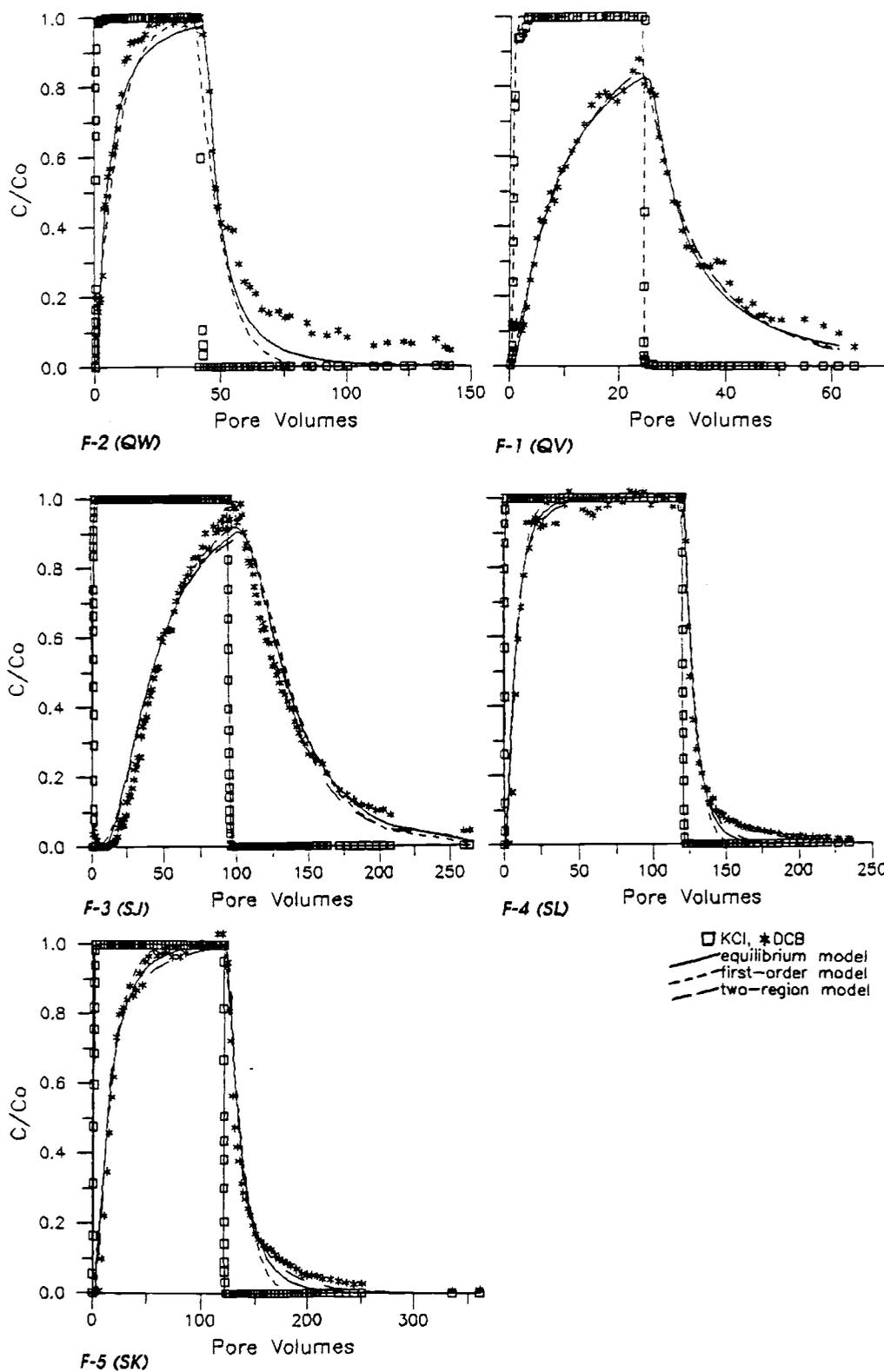
**C.12 TeCB on Surface E**



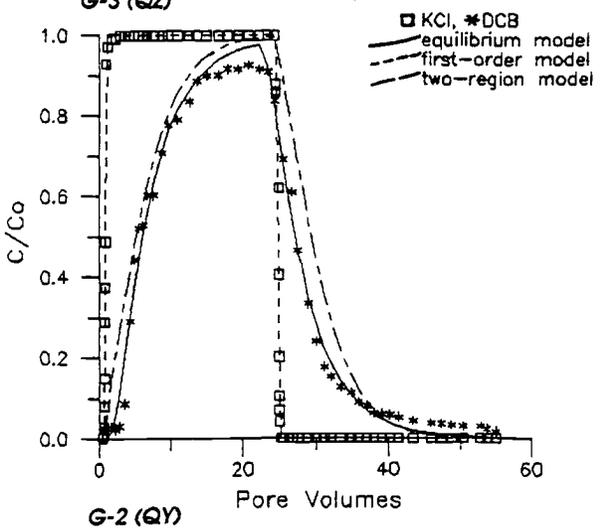
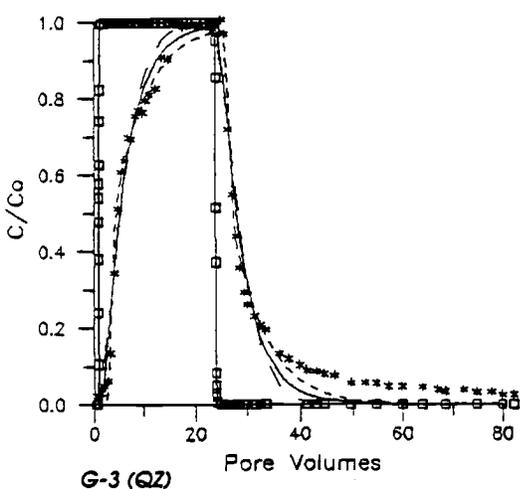
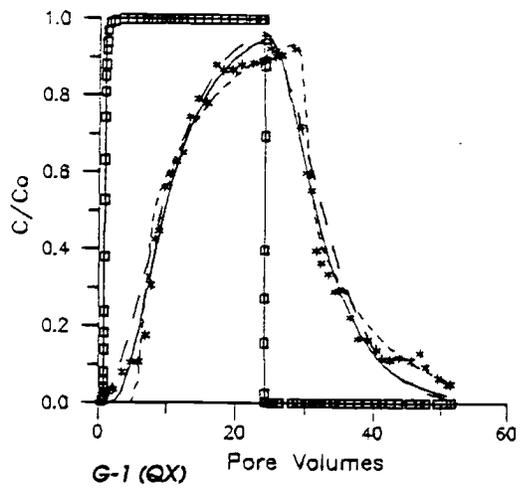
C.13 TeCB at different temperature



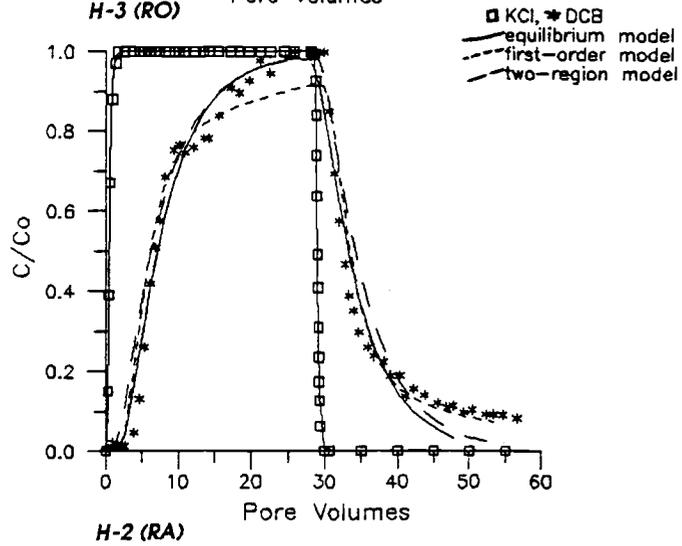
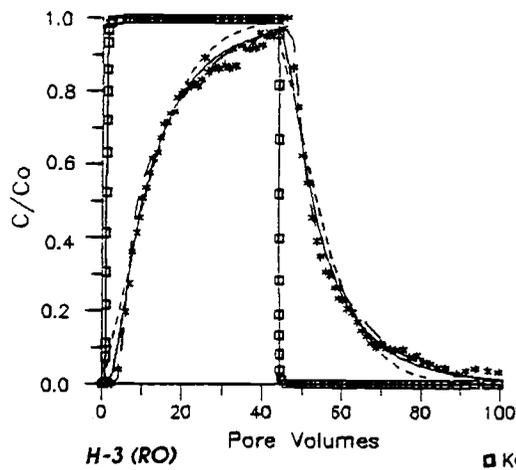
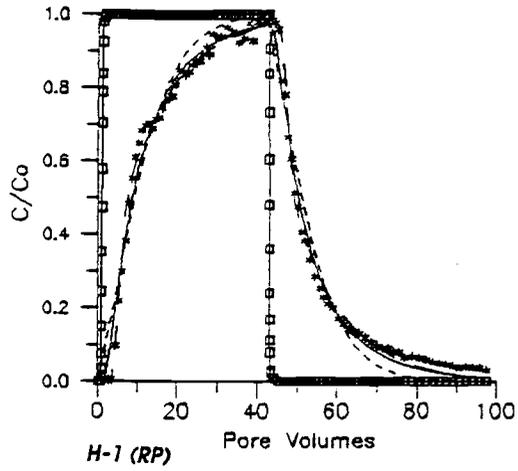
**C.14 PCB on Surface E**



C.15 20  $\mu\text{m}$  phenyl polymer surface F

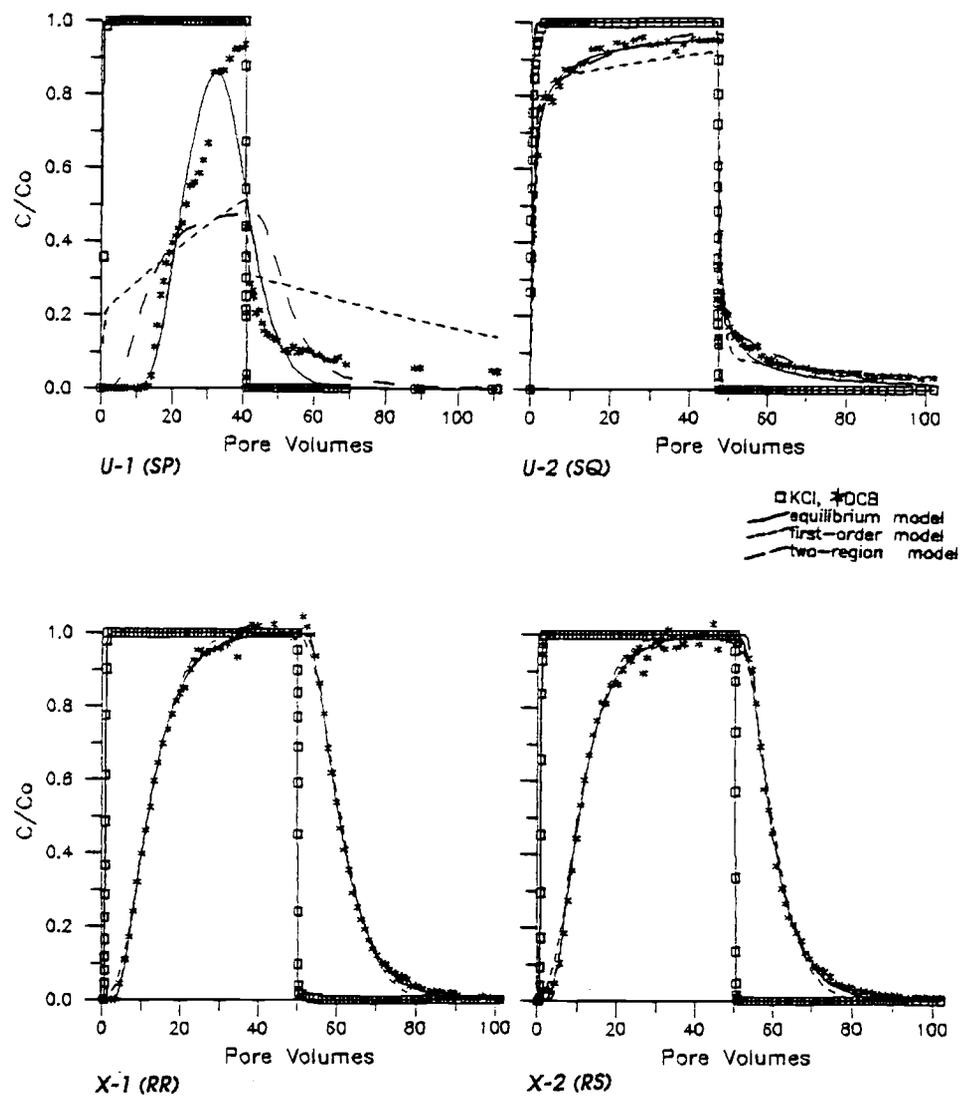


C.16 20  $\mu$ m phenyl polymer surface G

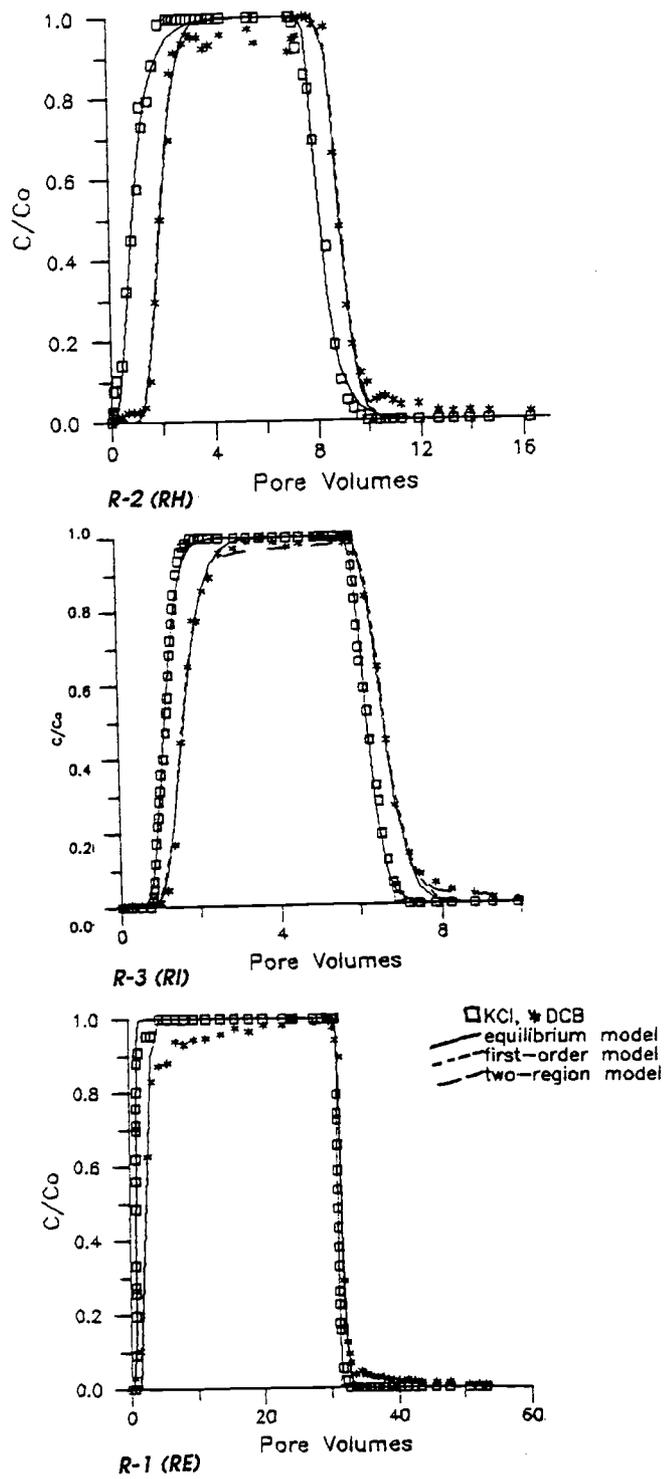


- KCl, ★ DCB
- equilibrium model
- - - first-order model
- two-region model

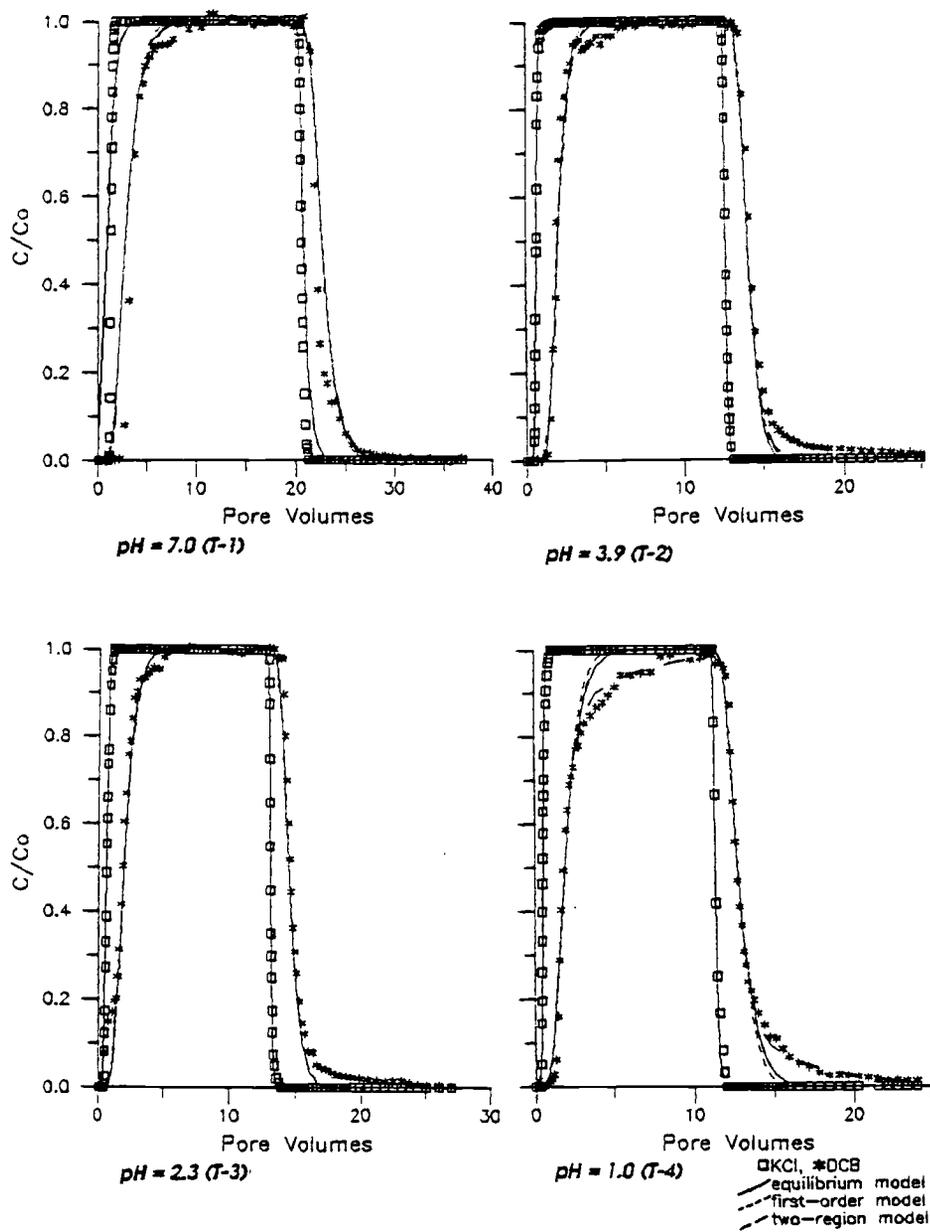
C. 17 425  $\mu\text{m}$  phenyl polymer surface H



*C.18 2  $\mu$ m phenyl surface and phenyl+C<sub>18</sub> surface*



C.19 Dialcoholic surface



C.20 Amine Surface

```

C
C
C
C
C *****
C * MFITIM - MULTIPLE EXPERIMENT PARAMETER ESTIMATION *
C * based on CFITIM by Rein van Genuchten (1981) *
C * modified by Jim Szecsody and Karen Humes, May, 1988 *
C * Non-linear Least Squares Analysis of Dimensional Parameters *
C *****
C
C Note: This version (1) assumes dispersion and pulse are fixed,
C and only first order or two region model are used (R, B, Q variable)
C and D, Qe, Pb, L same for all cases, velocity is different.
C
C IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
C DIMENSION Y(90,9),X(90,9),F(90,9),R(90,9),DELZ(90,5,9),B(10),E(5),
C ITH(10),NOB(9),QD(5),CSS(9),XKP(9),XKB(9),FF(9),VEL(9),XAE(9),
C IP(5),PHI(5),Q(5,9),TB(10),A(5,5),D(5,5),INDEX(5),PEC(9),PUL(9)
C CHARACTER TITLE*60,B(10)*3,FILEIN*20,FILEOUT*20,PLOTOUT*20
C DATA STOPCR/0.0005/
C
C ----- OPEN I/O FILES -----
C WRITE(*,*)' INPUT FILENAME = ?'
C READ(*,19)FILEIN
19 FORMAT(A20)
C OPEN(5,FILE=FILEIN,STATUS='OLD')
C WRITE(*,*)' OUTPUT FILENAME = ?'
C READ(*,21)FILEOUT
21 FORMAT(A20)
C KP=6
C OPEN(6,FILE=FILEOUT,STATUS='NEW')
C WRITE(*,*)' PLOT FILENAME = ?'
C READ(*,21)PLOTOUT
C OPEN(7,FILE=PLOTOUT,STATUS='NEW')
C
C ----- READ NUMBER OF CASES -----
C READ(5,1006) NC,KP
C IF (KP.NE.6) KP=1
C DO 120 NCASE=1,NC
C WRITE(KP,1000)
C
C ----- READ INPUT PARAMETERS -----
C READ(5,1006) MODE,NDATA,NIT,NOB(NCASE)
C M=(MODE-1)/2
C IF (M.EQ.0) WRITE(KP,1021)
C IF (M.EQ.1) WRITE(KP,1022)
C IF (M.EQ.2) WRITE(KP,1023)
C N=MODE-2*M
C IF (M.EQ.1) WRITE(KP,1024)
C IF (M.EQ.2) WRITE(KP,1025)
C NU=3
C IF (MODE.GT.2) NU=5
C NU1=NU+1
C NU2=2*NU
C READ(5,1001) TITLE
C WRITE(KP,1002) TITLE
C
C ----- READ COEFFICIENTS NAMES -----
C READ(5,1004) (B(I),I=1,NU2)
C
C ----- READ INITIAL ESTIMATES -----
C READ(5,1005) (B(I),I=NU1,NU2)
C
C IF (M.EQ.2) B(8)=1./B(7)
C
C ----- READ INDICES -----
C READ(5,1006) (INDEX(I),I=1,NU)
C IF (M.EQ.2) INDEX(3)=0
C WRITE(KP,1007)
C DO 4 I=1,NU
C J=2*I-1
C 4 WRITE(KP,1008) I,BI(J),BI(J+1),B(1+NU)
C ----- READ COLUMN EXPERIMENT PARAMETERS -----
C READ(5,1005) VEL(NCASE),BULK,XLEN,TFORG,EPORG
C WRITE(KP,1026) VEL(NCASE),BULK,XLEN,TFORG,EPORG
C IF (NDATA.EQ.0) GO TO 10
C
C ----- READ AND WRITE EXPERIMENTAL DATA -----
C DO 6 I=1,NOB(NCASE)
C 6 READ(5,1005) X(I,NCASE),Y(I,NCASE)
C 10 WRITE(KP,1009)
C DO 12 I=1,NOB(NCASE)
C 12 WRITE(KP,1010) I,X(I,NCASE),Y(I,NCASE)
C
C -----
C NP=0
C DO 14 I=NU1,NU2
C TB(I)=B(I)
C IF (INDEX(1-NU).EQ.0) GO TO 14
C NP=NP+1
C K=2*NP-1
C J=2*(1-NU)-1
C BI(K)=B(I)
C BI(K+1)=B(I+1)
C B(NP)=B(I)
C TB(NP)=B(I)
C TH(NP)=B(NP)
C 14 TH(1)=B(1)
C
C
C GA=0.02
C NIT=0
C NP2=2*NP
C CALL MODEL(TH,F(1,NCASE),NOB(NCASE),X(1,NCASE),INDEX,MODE)
C SSQ=0.
C DO 32 I=1,NOB(NCASE)
C R(I,NCASE)=Y(I,NCASE)-F(I,NCASE)
C 32 SSQ=SSQ+R(I,NCASE)*R(I,NCASE)
C WRITE(KP,1011) (BI(J),BI(J+1),J=1,NP2,2)
C WRITE(KP,1012) NIT,SSQ,(B(I),I=1,NP)
C
C ----- BEGIN OF ITERATION -----
C 3A NIT=NIT+1
C GA=0.1*GA
C DO 38 J=1,NP
C TEMP=TH(J)
C TH(J)=1.01*TH(J)
C Q(J,NCASE)=0
C CALL MODEL(TH,DELZ(1,J,NCASE),NOB(NCASE),X(1,NCASE),INDEX,MODE)
C DO 36 I=1,NOB(NCASE)
C DELZ(1,J,NCASE)=DELZ(1,J,NCASE)-F(1,NCASE)
C 36 Q(J,NCASE)=Q(J,NCASE)+DELZ(1,J,NCASE)*R(1,NCASE)
C Q(J,NCASE)=100.*Q(J,NCASE)/TH(J)
C
C ----- Q=XT*R (STEEPEST DESCENT) -----
C 38 TH(J)=TEMP
C DO 44 I=1,NP
C DO 42 J=1,I
C SUM=0

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```

      DO 40 K=1,NOB(NCASE)
40  SUM=SUM+DELZ(K, I, NCASE)*DELZ(K, J, NCASE)
      D(I, J)=100000.*SUM/(TH(I)*TH(J))
42  D(J, I)=D(I, J)
44  E(I)=DSQRT(D(I, I))
50  DO 52 I=1, NP
      DO 52 J=1, NP
52  A(I, J)=D(I, J)/(E(I)*E(J))
C
C ----- A IS THE SCALED MOMENT MATRIX -----
      DO 54 I=1, NP
      P(I)=Q(I, NCASE)/E(I)
      PHI(I)=P(I)
54  A(I, I)=A(I, I)+GA
      CALL MATINV(A, NP, P)
C
C ----- P/E IS THE CORRECTION VECTOR -----
      STEP=1.0
56  DO 58 I=1, NP
58  TB(I)=P(I)*STEP/E(I)*TH(I)
      DO 62 I=1, NP
      IF (TH(I)+TB(I))66, 66, 62
62  CONTINUE
      SUMB=0
      CALL MODEL(TB, F(I, NCASE), NOB(NCASE), X(I, NCASE), INDEX, MODE)
      DO 64 I=1, NOB(NCASE)
      R(I, NCASE)=Y(I, NCASE)-F(I, NCASE)
64  SUMB=SUMB+R(I, NCASE)*R(I, NCASE)
66  SUM1=0.0
      SUM2=0.0
      SUM3=0.0
      DO 68 I=1, NP
      SUM1=SUM1+P(I)*PHI(I)
      SUM2=SUM2+P(I)*P(I)
68  SUM3=SUM3+PHI(I)*PHI(I)
      ARG=SUM1/DSQRT(SUM2+SUM3)
      ARG1=0.
      IF (NP.GT.1) ARG1=DSQRT(1.-ARG*ARG)
      ANGLE=57.29578*ATAN2(ARG1, ARG)
C
C -----
      DO 72 I=1, NP
      IF (TH(I)+TB(I))74, 74, 72
72  CONTINUE
      IF ((SUMB-SSQ).LT.1.D-08)GO TO 80
74  IF (ANGLE-30.0)76, 76, 78
76  STEP=0.5*STEP
      GO TO 56
78  GA=10.*GA
      GO TO 50
C
C ----- PRINT COEFFICIENTS AFTER EACH ITERATION -----
80  CONTINUE
      DO 82 I=1, NP
82  TH(I)=TB(I)
      WRITE(KP, 1012) NIT, SUMB, (TH(I), I=1, NP)
      DO 86 I=1, NP
      IF (DABS(P(I)*STEP/E(I))/(1.0D-20+DABS(TH(I)))-STOPCR) 86, 86, 94
95  CONTINUE
      GO TO 96
94  SSQ=SUMB
      IF (NIT.LE.NIT) GO TO 34
C
C ----- END OF ITERATION LOOP -----
96  CONTINUE
      CALL MATINV(D, NP, P)
C
C ----- WRITE CORRELATION MATRIX -----
      DO 98 I=1, NP
98  E(I)=DSQRT(DMAX1(D(I, I), 1.D-20))
      WRITE(KP, 1013) (I, I=1, NP)
      DO 102 I=1, NP
      DO 100 J=1, I
100  A(I, J)=D(I, J)/(E(I)*E(J))
102  WRITE(KP, 1014) I, (A(I, J), J=1, I)
C
C ----- READ FINAL PARAMETERS INTO ARRAYS -----
      XKP(NCASE)=(B(1)-1.0)*TFORD/BULK
      PEC(NCASE)=B(16)
      PUL(NCASE)=B(10)
      IF (MODE.GT.4) THEN
      XKB(NCASE)=B(3)*TFORD*VEL(NCASE)/(XKP(NCASE)*BULK*XLEN)
      ELSE
      XAE(NCASE)=B(3)*EFORD*VEL(NCASE)/XLEN
      FF(NCASE)=(B(2)*(TFORD+BULK*XKP(NCASE))-EFORD)/(BULK*XKP(NCASE))
      ENDIF
C
C ----- CALCULATE 95% CONFIDENCE INTERVAL -----
      Z=1./FLOAT(NOB(NCASE)-NP)
      SDEV=DSQRT(Z*SUMB)
      TVAR=1.96+Z*(2.3779+Z*(2.7135+Z*(3.187936+2.466666*Z**2)))
      WRITE(KP, 1015)
      DO 108 I=1, NP
      SECDEF=E(I)*SDEV
      TVVALUE=TH(I)/SECDEF
      TSEC=TVAR*SECDEF
      THCODE=TH(I)-TSEC
      TPCODE=TH(I)+TSEC
      J=2*I-1
108  WRITE(KP, 1016) I, B(I), B(I+1), TH(I), SECDEF, TVVALUE, THCODE, TPCODE
      WRITE(KP, 1020) NCASE
120  CONTINUE
C
C ----- MULTIPLE EXPERIMENT PARAMETER ESTIMATION -----
      NU=5
      NU1=NU + 1
      NU2=2*NU
C
C ----- AVERAGE VALUE OF DIMENSIONAL PARAMETERS -----
      AKP=0.0
      AKB=0.0
      AAE=0.0
      AF=0.0
      DO 122 NCASE = 1, NC
      AKP = AKP + XKP(NCASE)
      IF (MODE.GT.4) THEN
      AKB = AKB + XKB(NCASE)
      ELSE
      AAE = AAE + XAE(NCASE)
      AF = AF + FF(NCASE)
      ENDIF
122  CONTINUE
C
C ----- CALCULATE AVERAGE VALUE OF DIMENSIONLESS PARAMETERS -----
      AKP = AKP/NC
      ARETARD = AEP*BULK/TFORD + 1.0
      IF (MODE.GT.4) THEN
      AKB = AKB/NC
      AOMEGA = AKB*BULK*AKP*XLEN/(TFORD*VEL(1))
      ABETA = 1./ARETARD
      ELSE
      AAE = AAE/NC
      AOMEGA = AAE*XLEN/(TFORD*VEL(1))
      AF = AF/NC

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      ABETA = (AF*BULK*AKP + EFORD)/(AKP*BULK + TPORD)
      ENDIF
C ----- CALCULATE SUM(SSQ)/NC -----
      SSQ=0.0
      DO 127 NCASE = 1,NC
      NP=0
      B(6)=FEC(NCASE)
      B(7)=ARETARD
      B(8)=ABETA
      B(9)=ACOMEGA*VEL(1)/VEL(NCASE)
      B(10)=FUL(NCASE)
      DO 125 I=1,NP
      TB(I)=B(I)
      IF(INDEX(I=NU).ED.0)GOTO 125
      NP=NP + 1
      K=2*NP-1
      J=2*(I-NU)-1
      BI(K)=BI(J)
      BI(K+1)=BI(J+1)
      B(NP)=B(I)
      TB(NP)=B(NP)
      TH(NP)=B(NP)
125 TH(I)=B(I)
      GA=0.02
      NIT=0
      NP2=2*NP
      CALL MODEL(TH, F(1,NCASE), NOB(NCASE), X(1,NCASE), INDEX, MODE)
      DO 126 I=1,NOB(NCASE)
      R(I,NCASE)=Y(I,NCASE)-F(I,NCASE)
126 SSQ=SSQ+R(I,NCASE)*R(I,NCASE)
127 CONTINUE
      WRITE(KP,1027) (BI(J),BI(J+1),J=1,NP2,2)
      WRITE(KP,1012) NIT,SSQ,(B(I),I=1,NP)
C ----- BEGIN ITERATION -----
134 NIT=NIT+1
      GA=0.1*GA
      DO 138 J=1,NP
      QD(J)=0.0
      DO 137 NCASE=1,NC
      TH(9)=TH(9)+VEL(1)/VEL(NCASE)
      TH(6)=FEC(NCASE)
      TH(10)=FUL(NCASE)
      TEMP=TH(J)
      TH(J)=1.01*TH(J)
      Q(J,NCASE)=0.
      CALL MODEL(TH,DELZ(1,J,NCASE),NOB(NCASE),X(1,NCASE),INDEX,MODE)
      DO 136 I=1,NOB(NCASE)
      DELZ(1,J,NCASE)=DELZ(1,J,NCASE)-F(I,NCASE)
136 Q(J,NCASE)=Q(J,NCASE)+DELZ(1,J,NCASE)*R(I,NCASE)
      Q(J,NCASE)=100.*Q(J,NCASE)/TH(J)
      QD(J)=QD(J)+Q(J,NCASE)
C ----- Q=XT*A (STEEPEST DESCENT) -----
137 CONTINUE
138 TH(J)=TEMP
      DO 144 I=1,NP
      DO 142 J=1,I
      SUM=0
      DO 141 NCASE = 1,NC
      DO 140 K=1,NOB(NCASE)
140 SUM=SUM+DELZ(K,I,NCASE)*DELZ(K,J,NCASE)
141 CONTINUE
      D(I,J)=10000.*SUM/(TH(I)*TH(J))
142 D(I,I)=D(I,J)
144 E(I)=DSORT(D(1,I))
150 DO 152 I=1,NP
      DO 152 J=1,NP
152 A(I,J)=D(I,J)/(E(I)*E(J))
C ----- A IS THE SCALED MOMENT MATRIX -----
      DO 154 I=1,NP
      P(I)=QD(I)/E(I)
      PHI(I)=P(I)
154 A(I,I)=A(I,I)+GA
      CALL MATINV(A,NP,P)
C ----- P/E IS THE CORRECTION VECTOR -----
      STEP=1.0
156 DO 158 I=1,NP
158 TB(I)=P(I)*STEP/E(I)+TH(I)
      DO 162 I=1,NP
      IF(TH(I)*TB(I))166,166,162
162 CONTINUE
      SUMB=0
      DO 165 NCASE=1,NC
      TB(9)=TB(9)+VEL(1)/VEL(NCASE)
      TB(6)=FEC(NCASE)
      TB(10)=FUL(NCASE)
      CALL MODEL(TB, F(1,NCASE), NOB(NCASE), X(1,NCASE), INDEX, MODE)
      DO 164 I=1,NOB(NCASE)
      R(I,NCASE)=Y(I,NCASE)-F(I,NCASE)
164 SUMB=SUMB+R(I,NCASE)*R(I,NCASE)
      CSS(NCASE)=0.0
      IF(NCASE.EQ.1)THEN
      CSS(NCASE)=SUMB
      ELSE
      CSS(NCASE)=SUMB-CSS(NCASE-1)
      ENDIF
165 CONTINUE
166 SUM1=0.0
      SUM2=0.0
      SUM3=0.0
      DO 168 I=1,NP
      SUM1=SUM1+P(I)*PHI(I)
      SUM2=SUM2+P(I)*P(I)
168 SUM3=SUM3+PHI(I)*PHI(I)
      ARG1=0.
      IF(NP.GT.1) ARG1=DSORT(1.-ARG*ARG)
      ANGLE=57.29578*DATAN2(ARG1,ARG)
C
      DO 172 I=1,NP
      IF(TH(I)*TB(I))174,174,172
172 CONTINUE
      WRITE(*,*)SUMB,SSQ
      IF((SUMB-SSQ).LT.1.D-07)GOTO 180
174 IF(ANGLE-30.0)176,176,178
176 STEP=0.5*STEP
      GOTO 156
178 GA=10.*GA
      GOTO 150
C ----- PRINT COEFFICIENTS AFTER EACH ITERATION -----
180 CONTINUE
      DO 182 I=1,NP
182 TH(I)=TB(I)
      WRITE(KP,1012) NIT,SUMB,(TH(I),I=1,NP)
      DO 186 I=1,NP
      IF(DABS(P(I)*STEP/E(I))/(1.D-20*DABS(TH(I)))-STOF(1))186,186,184
186 CONTINUE
      GOTO 196
194 SSQ=SUMB
      IF(NIT.LE.NIT)GOTO 134
C ----- END OF ITERATION LOOP -----
196 CONTINUE
      CALL MATINV(D,NP,P)
C ----- WRITE CORRELATION MATRIX -----

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```

      DO 138 I=1,NP
139  E(I)=DSQRT(DMAX1(D(1,I),1,D-20))
      WRITE(KP,1013) (I,I=1,NP)
      DO 202 I=1,NP
      DO 200 J=1,I
200  A(J,I)=0(J,I)/E(I)*E(I)
202  WRITE(KP,1014) I,(A(J,I),J=1,I)
C ----- CALCULATE 95% CONFIDENCE INTERVAL -----
      Z=1./FLDRT(MOR(1)-NP)
      SDEV=DSQRT(Z*SUMB)
      TVAR=1.96*Z*(2.3779+Z*(2.7135+Z*(3.187936+2.4666666*Z**2)))
      WRITE(KP,1015)
      WRITE(KP,2002)
      DO 208 I=1,NP
      SECDEF=E(I)*SDEV
      TVALUE=TH(1)/SECDEF
      TSEC=TVAR*SECDEF
      TMCDE=TH(1)-TSEC
      TPCOE=TH(1)+TSEC
      J=2*I-1
208  WRITE(KP,1016) I,B1(J),B1(J+1),TH(1),SECDEF,TVALUE,TMCDE,TPCOE
C ----- PREPARE FINAL OUTPUT -----
      WRITE(KP,2003)
      DO 211 NCASE=1,NC
      OMEGA=TH(9)*VEL(1)/VEL(NCASE)
      WRITE(KP,2008)NCASE,OMEGA,CSS(NCASE)
      WRITE(7,2008)NCASE,OMEGA,CSS(NCASE)
      DO 210 I=1,MOR(NCASE)
210  WRITE(7,2001)X(I),NCASE),F(I,NCASE)
211  CONTINUE
      AKP=(TH(7)-1.)*TFORD/BULK
      WRITE(KP,2004)AKP
      IF(MODE.GT.4)THEN
      AKB=TH(9)*TFORD*VEL(1)/(AKP*BULK*XLEN)
      WRITE(KP,2005)AKB
      ELSE
      AAE=TH(3)*EFORD*VEL(1)/XLEN
      WRITE(KP,2006)AAE
      AAF=(TH(2)*(TFORD*BULK*AKP)-EFORD)/(BULK*AKP)
      WRITE(KP,2007)AAF
      ENDIF
C ----- END OF PROBLEM -----
1000 FORMAT(//5X,67(1H+),/5X,1H*,65X,1H*/5X,1H*,5X,'NONLINEAR LEAST SQUARES ANALYSIS',28X,1H*/5X,1H*65X,1H*)
1001 FORMAT(A60)
1002 FORMAT(5X,1H*,A60,5X,1H*/5X,1H*,65X,1H*/5X,67(1H*))
1004 FORMAT(5(2A3,4X))
1005 FORMAT(5F10.0)
1006 FORMAT(5I5)
1007 FORMAT(//5X,'INITIAL VALUES OF COEFFICIENTS'/5X,30(1H=)/5X,'NO',
16X,'NAME',7X,'INITIAL VALUE')
1008 FORMAT(4X,13,5X,2A3,4X,F12.3)
1009 FORMAT(//5X,'OBSERVED DATA'/5X,13(1H=)/5X,'OBS. NO.',5X,'PURE VOLUME',5X,'CONCENTRATION')
1010 FORMAT(5X,15,5X,F12.4,4X,F12.4)
1011 FORMAT(//5X,'ITERATION',5X,'SSQ',2X,5(4X,2A3))
1012 FORMAT(5X,15,6X,F9.7,2X,2F10.4,3(1X,E10.3))
1013 FORMAT(//5X,'CORRELATION MATRIX'/5X,18(1H=)/8X,10(2X,12,7X))
1014 FORMAT(3X,13,10(2X,F7.4,2X))
1015 FORMAT(//5X,'NON-LINEAR LEAST SQUARES ANALYSIS, FINAL RESULTS'
1/5X,48(1H=)//5X,'95% CONFIDENCE LIMITS'/5X,'VAR',2X,'NAME'
2,5X,'VALUE',6X,'S.E. COEFF.',3X,'T-VALUE',5X,'LOWER',8X,'UPPER')
1016 FORMAT(5X,12,2X,2A3,F12.5,3X,F9.4,4X,F8.2,2X,F9.4,4X,F9.4)
1017 FORMAT(//5X,4(1H-),'ORDERED BY COMPUTER INPUT',5(1H-),3X,8(1H-),
1)'ORDERED BY RESIDUALS',6(1H-)//11X,'FORE',3X,'CONCENTRATION',
23X,'RESI-',9X,'FORE',3X,'CONCENTRATION',3X,'RESI-',5X,'NO',2X,
3'VOLUME',4X,'OBS.',2X,'FITTED',4X,'DUAL',3X,'NO',2X,'VOLUME',4X,
4'OBS.',2X,'FITTED',4X,'DUAL')
1018 FORMAT(5X,12,4F8.3,3X,12,4F8.3)
1020 FORMAT(//5X,'END OF PROBLEM FOR CASE = ',12)
1021 FORMAT(5X,1H*,5X,'EQUILIBRIUM TRANSPORT (MODEL A)',23X,1H*)
1022 FORMAT(5X,1H*,5X,'NON-EQUILIBRIUM TRANSPORT (MODEL B)',25X,1H*)
1023 FORMAT(5X,1H*,5X,'ONE-SITE KINETIC ADSORPTION (MODEL D)',23X,1H*)
1024 FORMAT(5X,1H*,5X,'FIRST-TYPE BOUNDARY CONDITION',31X,1H*)
1025 FORMAT(5X,1H*,5X,'THIRD-TYPE BOUNDARY CONDITION',31X,1H*)
1026 FORMAT(5X,'VELOCITY = ',F10.6,3X,', Pb = ',F4.3,', L = ',F6.2,
1', O = ',F4.3,', Qe = ',F4.3)
1027 FORMAT(//5X,'ITERATION',5X,'S.SQ',2X,5(4X,2A3))
2001 FORMAT(2X,F8.3,2X,F8.3)
2002 FORMAT(2X,'OMEGA USES VELOCITY FROM FIRST CASE')
2003 FORMAT(//5X,'FINAL MULTIPARAMETER RESULTS')
2004 FORMAT(//5X,'AVERAGE Kp = ',E10.4)
2005 FORMAT(5X,'AVERAGE kb = ',E10.4)
2006 FORMAT(5X,'AVERAGE ALPHA(E) = ',E10.4)
2007 FORMAT(5X,'AVERAGE F = ',E10.4)
2008 FORMAT(5X,'DATASET = ',12,', OMEGA = ',E10.4,', SSQ = ',F9.7)
C ----- CLOSE FILES -----
CLOSE(5)
CLOSE(6)
CLOSE(7)
STOP
END
C -----
SUBROUTINE MATINV(A,NP,B)
IMPLICIT REAL*(A-H,O-Z)
DIMENSION A(5,5),B(10),INDEX(5,2)
DO 2 J=1,5
2 INDEX(J,1)=0
I=0
4 AMAX=-1.0
DO 11 J=1,NP
IF(INDEX(J,1)) 11,6,11
6 DO 10 K=1,NP
IF(INDEX(K,1)) 10,8,10
8 P=DABS(A(J,K))
IF(P.LE.AMAX) GO TO 10
IR=J
IC=K
AMAX=P
10 CONTINUE
11 CONTINUE
IF(AMAX) 30,30,14
14 INDEX(IC,1)=IR
IF(IR.EQ.IC) GO TO 18
DO 16 L=1,NP
P=A(IR,L)
A(IR,L)=A(IC,L)
16 A(IC,L)=P
F=B(IR)
B(IR)=B(IC)
B(IC)=F
I=I+1
INDEX(I,2)=IC
18 P=1./A(IC,IC)
A(IC,IC)=1.0
DO 20 L=1,NP
20 A(IC,L)=A(IC,L)*P
B(IC)=B(IC)+P
DO 24 K=1,NP
IF(K.EQ.IC) GO TO 24

```

```

      F=A(K, IC)
      A(K, IC)=0.0
      DO 22 L=1, NP
22  A(K, L)=A(K, L)-A(IC, L)*F
      B(K)=B(K)-B(IC)*F
24  CONTINUE
      GO TO 4
26  IC=INDEX(1, 2)
      IR=INDEX(1C, 1)
      DO 28 K=1, NP
      F=A(K, IR)
      A(K, IR)=A(K, IC)
28  A(K, IC)=F
      I=I-1
30  IF (I) 26, 32, 26
22  RETURN
      END
C
C -----
C
C SUBROUTINE MODEL(B, Y, NUB, X, INDEX, MODE)
C
C PURPOSE: TO CALCULATE CONCENTRATIONS FOR GIVEN PORE VOLUME
C
      IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H, D-Z)
      DIMENSION B(10), Y(30), X(30), INDEX(5), XG(20), M(20)
      DATA XG/.03877242, .1169841, .1326976, .2681522, .3419941, .4137792,
1. 4830758, .5494671, .6125533, .6719567, .7273183, .7783057, .8246122,
2. 8657535, .9020988, .9328128, .9579168, .9772599, .9907262, .9982377/
      DATA M/.07750535, .07703982, .07611037, .07472317, .07288658, .07061165
1, .06791204, .06480401, .06130624, .05743377, .05322785, .04869581, .0438
27091, .03878217, .03346013, .02793701, .02224585, .01642106, .01049828, .
300452128/
      K=0
      IF (MODE, LE. 2) GO TO 12
C
C ----- SOLUTION FOR NON-EQUILIBRIUM TRANSPORT (MODEL B) -----
      DO 2 I=6, 10
      IF (INDEX(11-5), EQ. 0) GO TO 2
      K=K+1
      B(I)=B(K)
2  CONTINUE
      F=B(6)
      R=B(7)
      IF (MODE, GE. 5) B(8)=1./R
      BETA=DMINI(B(8), .9999000)
      OMEGA=B(9)
      DO 10 J=1, NOB
      DO 9 M=1, 2
      C=0.0
      T=X(J)+(1-M)*B(10)
      IF (T, LE. 0.) GO TO 6
      A=DSQRT(1.+0.5*C)
      T2=DMINI(T, BETA*R*(1.+0.5*(1.+A)/F))
      T1=DMAXI(0.060, BETA*R*(1.+0.5*(1.-A)/F))
      IF (T2, LE. T1) GO TO 6
      DO 4 I=1, 20
      TAU=(0.5*(T1+T2+(T2-T1)*XG(I)))
      C=C+M(I)*CCO(P, R, BETA, OMEGA, T, TAU, MODE)
      TAU=0.5*(T1+T2+(T1-T2)*XG(I))
4  C=C+M(I)*CCO(P, R, BETA, OMEGA, T, TAU, MODE)
      C=0.5*(T2-T1)+C
6  IF (M, EQ. 2) GO TO 8
      Y(J)=C
9  CONTINUE
10 Y(J)=Y(J)-C
      RETURN
C
C ----- SOLUTION FOR EQUILIBRIUM TRANSPORT (MODEL A) -----
      DO 14 I=4, 6
      IF (INDEX(11-3), EQ. 0) GO TO 14
      K=K+1
      B(I)=B(K)
14  CONTINUE
      E=0.0
      F=B(4)
      R=B(5)
      DO 18 J=1, NOB
      DO 16 M=1, 2
      C=0.0
      T=X(J)+(1-M)*B(6)
      IF (T, LE. 0.) GO TO 18
      CM=0.5*(R-T)*DSQRT(P/(R*T))
      CP=0.5*(R+T)*DSQRT(P/(R*T))
      C=0.5*EXF(E, CM)+0.5*EXF(P, CP)
      IF (MODE, EQ. 2) C=C+DSQRT(.3183099+P*(T/R))*EXF(-CM+CM, E)-0.5*(2.*F+P*
17/R)*EXF(P, CP)
      IF (M, EQ. 2) GO TO 18
      Y(J)=C
16  CONTINUE
18  Y(J)=Y(J)-C
      RETURN
      END
C
C -----
C
C FUNCTION CCO(P, R, BETA, OMEGA, T, TAU, MODE)
C
C PURPOSE: TO CALCULATE THE ARGUMENT UNDER THE INTEGRAL SIGN -----
C
      IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H, D-Z)
      CCO=0.0
      BER=BETA*R
      CM=F*(BER-TAU)**2/(4.*BER*TAU)
      C=.2820948*DSQRT(P*BER/TAU**3)*DEXP(-CM)
      IF ((MODE, EQ. 3), OR. (MODE, EQ. 5)) GO TO 2
      CP=(BER+TAU)*DSQRT(P/(4.*BER*TAU))
      C=2.*C*TAU/BER-0.5*EXF(P, CP)/BER
2  IF (C, LT. 1.D-07) RETURN
      EPSI=OMEGA*TAU/BER
      ETHA=OMEGA*(T-TAU)/(R-BER)
      CCO=C+GOLD(EPSI, ETHA)
      RETURN
      END
C
C -----
C
C FUNCTION GOLD(X, Y)
C
C PURPOSE: TO CALCULATE J(X, Y)
C
      IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H, D-Z)
      GOLD=0.0
      BF=0.9
      E=2.*DSQRT(X*Y)
      Z=X+Y-E
      IF (Z, GT. 17.) GO TO 8
      IF (E, NE. 0.) GO TO 2
      GOLD=DEXP(-X)
      RETURN
2  A=DMAXI(X, Y)
      B=DMINI(X, Y)
      NT=11.+2.*B+.3*A
      IF (NT, GT. 35) GO TO 6
      I=0

```

```

IF (X.LT.Y) I=1
GXY=1.+(I*(B-1.))
GX=1.0
GY=GX*Y
GZ=1.0
DO 4 K=1,NT
GX=GX*A/K
GY=GY*B/(K+1)
GZ=GZ+GX
4 GXY=GXY+GY+GZ
GOLD=GXY*DEXP(-X-Y)
GO TO 8
6 DA=DSQRT(A)
DB=DSQRT(B)
P=3.75/E
B0=(.3399423+P*(.01328592+P*(.00225319-P*(.00157565-P*(.00916281-P
)*(.02057706-P*(.02635537-P*(.01647633-.00392377*P)))))))/DSQRT(E)
BF=B0*DEXP(-Z)
P=1./(1.+3275911*(DA-DB))
ERF=P*(.2548296-P*(.2844967-P*(1.421414-P*(1.453152-P*(1.061405))))
P=0.25/E
C0=1.-1.772454*(DA-DB)*ERF
C1=0.5-2*C0
C2=0.75-2*C1
C3=1.875-2*C2
C4=6.5625-2*C3
SUM=.1994711*(A-B)*P*(C0+1.5*P*(C1+1.666667*P*(C2+1.75*P*(C3+P*(C4
1*(1.8-3.3*P*Z)+97.45313*P))))
GOLD=0.5*BF*(.3535534*(DA+DB)*ERF+SUM)*BF/(B0*DSQRT(E))
8 IF (X.LT.Y) GOLD=1.+BF-GOLD
RETURN
END
C
C -----
C FUNCTION EXP(A,B)
C
C PURPOSE: TO CALCULATE EXP(A) ERFC(B)
C
IMPLICIT REAL*8 (A-H,O-Z)
EXP=0.0
IF ((DABS(A).GT.170.).AND.(B.LE.0.)) RETURN
IF (B.NE.0.0) GO TO 1
EXP=DEXP(A)
RETURN
1 C=A-B*B
IF ((DABS(C).GT.170.).AND.(B.GT.0.)) RETURN
IF (C.LT.-170.) GO TO 4
X=DABS(P)
IF (X.GT.3.0) GO TO 2
T=1./(1.+3275911*X)
Y=T*(.2548296-T*(.2844967-T*(1.421414-T*(1.453152-1.061405*T))))
GO TO 3
2 Y=.5641896/(X+.5/(X+1.5/(X+2.5/(X+1.))))
3 EXP=Y*DEXP(C)
4 IF (B.LT.0.0) EXP=2.*DEXP(A)-EXP
RETURN
END

```

## E. Example Input for MFITIM

```

2 . 6
4 1 12 88
RF: DCB on 425 um phenyl polymer (PG-L) 6-15-87
peclet retard beta omega pulse
86.60 11.00 0.45 0.955 42.04
0 1 1 1 0
0.039 (A) 0.418 (A2) 14.0 (L) 0.823 (E) 0.42 (E2)
0.338 0.012
1.013 0.009
1.857 0.007
2.701 0.004
3.377 0.005
4.390 0.098 ETC.

```

## F. Example Output from MFITIM

ITERATION	S. SSQ	R	B	O
0	1.9212210	9.9540	0.4122	0.430E+00
1	1.7468468	10.0467	0.4202	0.443E+00
2	1.5172770	10.0250	0.4260	0.479E+00
3	1.3229214	10.0259	0.4317	0.514E+00
4	1.1647480	10.0408	0.4375	0.548E+00
5	1.0415122	10.0620	0.4431	0.581E+00
6	0.9498723	10.0833	0.4485	0.611E+00
7	0.8850507	10.1012	0.4537	0.639E+00
8	0.8417236	10.1137	0.4585	0.665E+00
9	0.8147870	10.1206	0.4628	0.689E+00
10	0.7998219	10.1225	0.4667	0.711E+00
11	0.7932676	10.1203	0.4701	0.732E+00
12	0.7924009	10.1148	0.4739	0.751E+00
13	0.7902575	10.2094	0.4776	0.769E+00

## CORRELATION MATRIX

```

=====
      1      2      3
1  1.0000
2 -0.3191  1.0000
3 -0.1804 -0.8513  1.0000

```

## NON-LINEAR LEAST SQUARES ANALYSIS, FINAL RESULTS

```

=====
          95% CONFIDENCE LIMITS
VAR NAME  VALUE  S.E. COEFF.  T-VALUE  LOWER  UPPER
OMEGA USES VELOCITY FROM FIRST CASE
1  omega  10.20041  0.3875  26.32  9.4299  10.9709
2  omega  0.47756  0.0235  20.36  0.4309  0.5242
3  omega  0.75951  0.0386  19.69  0.6828  0.8362

```

## FINAL MULTIPARAMETER RESULTS

```

DATASET = 1, OMEGA = 0.7658E+00, SSQ = 0.3128595
DATASET = 2, OMEGA = 0.7467E+00, SSQ = 0.4773980

```

```

AVERAGE Kp = 0.1828E+02
AVERAGE ALPHA(E) = 0.8886E-03
AVERAGE F = 0.4744E+00

```

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