Polyethylene Devices and the Effects of Sediment Resuspension on the Cycling of PAHs and PCBs in the Lower Hudson Estuary

by

Rachel **G.** Adams

S.M., Civil and Environmental Engineering, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 2000 B.S. Chemical Engineering, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, 1994

Submitted to the Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements of the Degree of

> DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY **IN** CIVIL **AND ENVIRONMENTAL ENGINEERING**

> > at the

MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF **TECHNOLOGY**

February **2003**

© **2003** Massachusetts Institute of Technology. **All** rights reserved.

 $\label{eq:2.1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\int_{0}^{\infty}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^{2\alpha} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\int_{0}^{\infty}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^{\alpha} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\int_{0}^{\infty}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$

Polyethylene Devices and the Effects of Sediment Resuspension on the Cycling of PAHs and PCBs in the Lower Hudson Estuary

by

Rachel **G.** Adams

Submitted to the Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering on October **3,** 2002 in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Civil and Environmental Engineering

ABSTRACT

In order to examine the importance of sediment resuspension on the sediment bed-towater column transport of hydrophobic organic contaminants (HOCs) in the lower Hudson Estuary, the following areas of research were pursued: **1)** a passive, *in situ* sampler, a polyethylene device **(PED),** for measuring HOCs in the aquatic environment was developed; 2) the desorption rate of pyrene, a polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon (PAH), from native Hudson River sediments was measured, and **3)** pyrene and 2,2',5,5'-tetrachlorobiphenyl (PCB *#52),* a polychlorinated biphenyl (PCB), concentrations were measured in the lower Hudson Estuary so that the input of these chemicals as a result of sediment resuspension could be compared to modeling expectations and the contribution of sediment resuspension to these chemicals' cycling could be quantified.

The use of a new passive, *in situ* sampler, a polyethylene device **(PED),** for measuring hydrophobic organic contaminants (HOCs) in the aquatic environment was demonstrated. Like semipermeable membrane devices (SPMDs) and solid-phase microextraction **(SPME),** PEDs passively measure the concentration of chemical present in the dissolved phase. PEDs provide for *in situ,* time-averaged measurements with fast equilibration times (on the order of days) and simple laboratory extraction. Polyethylene-water equilibrium partitioning constants *(K_{PEW}s)* and polyethylene diffusivity coefficients *(DPEs)* were measured in the laboratory so that dissolved concentrations could be calculated subsequent to PED extraction. *K_{PEWS}* for eleven PAHs and PCBs were found to correlate closely with octanol-water equilibrium partitioning constants *(K_{OW}s; log K_{PEW} = 1.1 log K_{OW}-0.45, R² = 0.85). Temperature and salinity dependence of* K_{PEW} for the chemical of interest can be predicted with that chemical's excess enthalpy of solution and Setschenow constant, respectively. D_{PE} s for several HOCs were measured in the laboratory so that the time for equilibrium uptake in the field could be predicted. PEDs allowed for quick, *in situ,* time-averaged measurements of phenanthrene and pyrene at **pM** concentrations and PCB *#52* at **fM** concentrations in Boston Harbor seawater.

Observations of disequilibrium between sorbed HOCs (e.g., PAHs **&** PCBs) and the surrounding environmental waters indicate that the times for desorption are important for understanding the fate of HOCs. Settling and resuspended particles can play a significant role in the cycling of HOCs. For PAHs, like pyrene, these chemicals' strong affinity for black carbon in the environment makes the rate of desorption less certain. The desorption rate for pyrene from native Hudson River sediment was measured in the laboratory and a diffusion rate constant (effective diffusivity/particle radius²) ranging from 1.0E-7 to 5.6E-7 s⁻¹ was measured. The results were in good agreement with a physically- and chemically-based model for estimating effective diffusivity and the rate of desorption.

The elevated levels of PAHs and PCBs in the sediments of the lower Hudson Estuary coupled with the tidally-driven sediment resuspension that occurs there, provide for the transport of these HOCs to and from the overlying water column. PED-measured dissolved concentrations of pyrene and PCB *#52* were quantified during both neap and spring tides during April and October field campaigns in order to assess the impact of increased sediment resuspension. The chemical potential in the sediments was found to be higher than that of the overlying waters for both pyrene and PCB *#52.* The input due to sediment resuspension to the lower Hudson Estuary was estimated to be 640 **-** 2200 g/day for pyrene and 12 **- 32** g/day for PCB *#52* during April **1999,** and **62 - 800** g/day for pyrene and 4.4 **- 10** g/day for PCB *#52* during October 2000. **A** comparison to other sources and sinks suggest that sediment resuspension is an important source. **A** one-box model was used to estimate the dissolved concentration within the estuary. This allowed for the validity of the model to be assessed and for missing sources or sinks to be examined. In April **1999** resuspended sediments appear to have served as a source **of** pyrene to the estuary, while during October 2000 the sediments and water were close to equilibrium suggesting a diminished source of pyrene to the overlying water. In contrast, mixing diagrams in April **1999** suggest that the resuspended sediments were serving as a sink, scavenging PCB *#52.* However, the sediment and water samples indicate that there was a driving force from the sediments to the water. **A** possible explanation for this observation may be the scavenging of PCB *#52* **by** "cleaner" sediments throughout the estuary. In October 2000, as with pyrene, the sediments and water were more closely equilibrated with respect to PCB *#52.* These results show that sediment resuspension is important to the cycling of PAHs and PCBs in the lower Hudson Estuary.

Thesis Supervisor: Philip M. Gschwend Title: Professor of Civil and Environmental Engineering

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported **by** the Office of Naval Research Grant Nos. N00014- **93-1-0883** and **N00014-99-0039** and Grant No. **006/01A** of the Hudson River Foundation. **I** would also like to thank the Hudson River Foundation for support **by** a graduate fellowship (Grant No **GF/01/01).**

The completion of this thesis would not have been possible without the help of many people.

I cannot thank John MacFarlane enough for all that he has taught me and all of the help he has given me in the lab. He has helped me throughout my years at MIT and was invaluable to the April **1999** sampling campaign for which we were able to perform extensive sampling despite the rainy, cold weather and boat engine problems we experienced. Above all John has been a pleasure to work with and has provided me with invaluable advice and support.

Rocky Geyer is the driving force behind the Hudson sampling trips. Without him, none of these trips would be possible. He has kindly shared with me his knowledge of sediment transport and the estuarine behavior of the lower Hudson Estuary.

I wish to thank Terry Donoghue for piloting the *Mytilus* in April **1999.** Thanks also go to Rainer Lohmann, Linda Kalnejais, Jay Sisson, Chris Sommerfield, and all of the researchers and crew aboard the *Samantha Miller* in October 2000 for their tireless efforts in the field.

Rainer Lohmann has also been working on PEDs and provided some of the polyethylene-water partitioning coefficients and organic and black carbon results presented in this thesis. **I** am thankful to him for sharing his laboratory expertise and his data with me.

I would also like to thank Chris Swartz, Allison MacKay, and Orjan Gustafsson for sharing their knowledge and showing me the ropes as a new graduate student. **I** have also enjoyed discussions with the many post docs that **I** have worked with: Lukas Wick, Carol Johnson, Kris McNeill, Goran Ewald, and Greg Noonan.

Steve Rudnick and Bob Chen helped me to use their time-resolved, laser-induced fluorescence spectrometer system and helped me to evaluate some of the data. They and the others in their lab made me feel very welcome, and **I** really appreciate all of their help.

I thank my thesis committee Phil Gschwend, Rocky Geyer, Harry Hemond, and Chris Reddy. They provided many thoughtful ideas and suggestions as to how to improve my work and this thesis.

I owe a great deal of thanks to my advisor Phil Gschwend. He has been the driving force behind this work and has provided a myriad of ideas and suggestions that have greatly improved it. He has taught me so much, and his enthusiasm for learning has been inspiring.

I must also thank Sheila Frankel. She has provided me with invaluable advice and support. She is always available to help a student in need, and **I** am so thankful to her for her encouragement.

Thanks also to Vicki Murphy, Sheila Anderson, and Jim Long. They are the people that keep Parsons running. **I** am especially lucky to have worked with Vicki

Murphy. I can always count on her to help me straighten out a bureaucratic debacle and to be just really friendly and helpful.

I am so thankful to Steve Margulis. He has always been there to listen to my latest idea or help me think through an obstacle in my research. He has helped me in more ways than **I** can begin to list.

Finally, I want to thank all of my friends at Parsons. There are too many great people to list, and I'm afraid **I** might forget someone. **I** appreciate all of the smiles and kind words **I** got from the friends **I** have made here. They have significantly enhanced my graduate school experience.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Once in the aquatic environment, the hydrophobic nature of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) causes them to preferentially sorb to the sediments **(1).** Consequently, even after the input of these contaminants has ceased or diminished, the sediments can remain a source of pollutants to the surrounding water. Recent studies indicate that the sediments of urban bodies of water are a source of hydrophobic organic contaminants (HOCs) to the overlying water column **(2-6).** The significant resuspension events that occur in the lower Hudson Estuary **(7-9)** may result in large fluxes of PAHs and PCBs to the surrounding waters. Recent studies in the Hudson **(3,10)** suggest that this is the case. It is important to improve our understanding of the extent to which sediment resuspension and subsequent chemical desorption play a role in the release of PAHs and PCBs to the water column so that we may improve our understanding of the mechanisms governing the fate of these chemicals in the environment. This improved understanding will aid environmental regulators and scientists in understanding the effects of these chemicals on the surrounding ecosystem and organisms and allow for the selection of appropriate sediment quality criteria **(11,12).**

The **U.S.** Environmental Protection Agency **(EPA)** estimates that approximately **10%** of the sediment underlying **U.S.** surface waters is sufficiently contaminated with toxic pollutants to pose potential risks to fish and to humans and wildlife who eat fish (12). The **U.S. EPA** has studied data from **1,372** of the **2,111** watersheds in the continental **U.S.,** and **96** of these studied watersheds have been identified to contain ''areas of probable concern" where potential adverse effects of sediment contamination

are more likely to be found (12). Similarly, out of 22 coastal embayments sampled **by** the **U.S.** National Oceanographic and Atmospheric Administration **(NOAA) 11%** of the surveyed area was found to be toxic in an amphipod survival test **(13).** Because of the contaminated sediments present throughout the United States as well as other parts of the world, the transfer of HOCs from the sediments to the surrounding waters is an important area of study.

The suspension of contaminated particles is of particular concern as it allows for direct contact between sorbed pollutants and the surrounding water. Several researchers have studied the importance of particle cycling on the fate of PAHs and PCBs in lakes (14-16) and estuaries **(17-19).** Depending on the difference in chemical potential between the sediments and water, particles may serve as a source or sink for HOCs in the surrounding waters.

The scavenging of PCBs onto settling particles has been observed in the aquatic environment. Jeremiason et al. (20) used sediment traps to estimate that over *50%* of the total Lake Superior water PCB burden is transported each year **by** settling particles to within *5* m of the lake bottom. However, they estimate that only *2-5%* of the settling PCBs accumulate in bottom sediments, suggesting that most of the PCBs are recycled in the bottom waters. In contrast, sediments with a greater chemical potential than the surrounding water may provide for the bed-to-water transfer of PAHs and PCBs. Capel and Eisenreich (21) observed elevated PCB concentrations in Lake Superior during the spring months when sediments are resuspended tens of meters into the water column. They observed the water column to have a PCB signature closely aligned to the PCB signature observed in the sediments during the spring months, while the summer PCB

water column signature was dissimilar to the underlying sediments. Maskaoui et al. (22) measured PAH porewater concentrations that were greater than surface water levels in the Jiulong River Estuary suggesting that the sediments may, in fact, serve as a source of PAHs to the overlying waters. In the Hudson River Estuary, sediment-bound PCBs were above equilibrium with the overlying water, suggesting that Hudson River sediments are a source of PCBs to the surrounding waters **(3).** Achman et al. have estimated that the sediment-exchange fluxes of PCBs are 2 to **100** times greater than the advective fluxes.

The overall goal of this research was to further our understanding of the fate of PAHs and PCBs in the aquatic environment, specifically, the importance of sediment resuspension on the sediment-water transport of HOCs in the lower Hudson Estuary. In order to accomplish this goal the following tasks were completed: **1)** a passive, *in situ* sampler, a polyethylene device **(PED),** for measuring HOCs in the aquatic environment was developed; 2) the desorption rates of pyrene, a PAH, from native Hudson River sediments were measured, and **3)** using chemical concentrations measured in the lower Hudson Estuary, the input of pyrene and 2,2',5,5'-tetrachlorobiphenyl (PCB *#52),* a PCB, due to sediment resuspension was quantified.

In Chapter 2, the parameters necessary for **PED** use were measured in the laboratory, and their use in the aquatic environment was demonstrated. PEDs, which are simply strips of low-density polyethylene, provide for *in situ,* time-averaged measurements with fast equilibration times and simple laboratory extraction. Polyethylene-water equilibrium partitioning constants and polyethylene diffusivity coefficients were measured in the laboratory so that dissolved concentrations could be calculated subsequent to **PED** extractions. **PED** sampling in Boston Harbor provided for

time-averaged measurements of phenanthrene and pyrene at **pM** concentrations and PCB *#52* at **fM** concentrations.

In Chapter **3,** the desorption kinetics of pyrene from native Hudson River sediments were measured. Laboratory desorption experiments were performed using time-resolved, laser-induced fluorescence and the results were modeled with the physically-based desorption model proposed **by** Wu and Gschwend (23,24). The measured rate constant was then used to estimate the time for pyrene desorption in the lower Hudson Estuary.

In Chapter 4, the importance of sediment resuspension to the inputs of dissolved pyrene and PCB *#52* were examined. PED-measured dissolved concentrations were collected during both neap and spring tides in order to assess the impact of increased sediment resuspension. Dissolved concentrations were examined with respect to salinity, which was used as an index of conservative mixing, in order to observe conservative or non-conservative behavior within the estuary. The magnitudes of the predominant sources and sinks of pyrene and PCB *#52* were estimated. Finally, dissolved concentrations of each chemical in the estuary were models with a one-box model approach in order to assess the validity of the model and check for any missing sources or sinks.

Finally, major conclusions and areas of future work are discussed in Chapter *5.*

CHAPTER 2: **POLYETHYLENE DEVICES: SAMPLERS FOR MEASURING TRACE DISSOLVED HYDROPHOBIC ORGANIC CONTAMINANTS IN THE AQUATIC ENVIRONMENT**

INTRODUCTION

Many hydrophobic organic contaminants (HOCs) including polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) are toxic. Unfortunately, these toxic chemicals are prevalent in the aquatic environment. While only a small fraction of the HOCs in the environment are present in the dissolved phase, it is the chemical's activity, which is closely related to this dissolved level, that controls the diffusive transport into other surrounding phases (i.e., volatilization, sorption, and passive uptake into organisms). Until recently, measuring the concentrations of dissolved HOCs has required the extraction of large volumes of water due to their low dissolved concentrations in the environment. This water must also be filtered in order to remove particulate matter; however, depending on the size of filter used, colloids and even larger particles may still be present in this "dissolved" fraction.

In the 1970's, scientists began Mussel Watch **(25)** a program where the concentrations of pollutants in mussels were measured in order to monitor the quality of the waters in which the mussels lived. Because mussels concentrate chemicals **by** up to factors of 10⁵ depending on the chemical, a much smaller sample can be analyzed than could be if the water is extracted. However, differences in biological or biochemical activities of the mussels were believed to result in some of the temporal and spatial variations observed in the mussel data.

Recently, two samplers based on the passive partitioning of HOCs into a hydrophobic phase have been used to measure HOCs in the dissolved phase. Huckins et al. **(26)** developed lipid-containing polyethylene tubes called semipermeable membrane devices (SPMDs) to passively monitor the concentration of HOCs dissolved in the water. Arthur and Pawliszyn **(27)** developed solid phase microextraction **(SPME)** for the concentration of organic chemicals onto chemically modified fused silica fibers followed **by** thermal desorption directly into an analyzing instrument. Both samplers are widely used.

SPMDs can serve as a surrogate to organisms living in the aquatic environment. They measure a chemical's activity in the environment while limiting variability due to biological activity **(28).** SPMDs allow for a time-averaged measurement of the concentrations of HOCs present **(29).** The chemicals of interest are concentrated into the triolein *as well as the polyethylene tubing* allowing for the recovery of large quantities of these chemicals **(30).** Laboratory experiments have been performed to measure the partitioning of HOCs into SPMDs and the rate of **HOC** uptake, allowing water concentrations to be calculated **(29,30).** At water flow rates less than **0.28** cm/s, chemical uptake may be limited **by** a water-controlled boundary layer **(31).** However, recovery compounds can be added to the **SPMD** prior to deployment in order to correct for variations in analyte uptake **(32,33).**

While SPMDs have proven to be useful samplers of the aquatic environment, many sampling difficulties still exist. SPMDs require protective housing for their deployment in order to avoid damage **(32).** We have found them to tear in the field resulting in a loss of an unknown quantity of the lipid inside. This loss makes it difficult

to calculate the **HOC** concentration that was in the water. Separating the triolein and its component fatty acids (i.e., oleic acid) from the **HOC** requires extra separation steps **(32).** Lengthy deployment times (14-30 days) required for SPMDs can be inconvenient and can enable biofouling which alters the uptake rates for the analytes of interest **(32).**

Another sampling method, **SPME,** has also been used for the passive measurement of HOCs in environmental samples (34). **SPME** allows for the desorption of the concentrated extract directly into the analyzing instrument. First, a polymer-coated silica fiber is exposed to the sample allowing the chemical of interest to absorb into the polymer. The fiber is then placed into the hot injector of a gas chromatograph or other instrument and thermally desorbed. This method does not require solvents and allows for simplified sample extraction *(35).* Varying polymer types and thicknesses have been used to suit the chemicals of interest *(35).* SPME fibers can be reused in order to limit cost. However, **SPME** fibers are fragile *(35)* so that sampling the environment directly is not always practical. In fact, high percentages of suspended matter in moving water can cause fiber damage *(35).* Typically, environmental samples are collected and then **SPME** sampling is done in the laboratory. Unfortunately, this method does not yield timeaveraged concentration results. The reuse of fibers is limited **by** carryover of chemicals from previous extractions, and a blank of the fiber should be run at least once between samples (34). Potter **&** Pawliszyn (34) found carryover to be significant for benz(a)anthracene, benzo(a)pyrene, and pentachlorobiphenyl even after four fiber blanks. Because the volume of polymer coated on the fibers is less that that of the triolein and polymer volume used in SPMDs, detection limits for **SPME** are generally not as low as those for SPMDs.

In our study, a new passive sampler called a polyethylene device **(PED) is** introduced. PEDs, which are simply strips of low-density polyethylene, provide a simple and effective method for the passive, *in situ* sampling of HOCs dissolved in water. They combine the best of SPMDs and **SPME. If** tearing occurs, this is not a problem as there is no triolein to leak out. Also, the single layer of plastic exposed on both sides allows for faster equilibration times. This enables environmental observations to be made in shorter times. It also results in less time for the formation of biofilms. Similar to SPMIDs, reference compounds can be impregnated into the PEDs in order to correct for any variations in uptake rate that may be caused **by** biofouling or a water-controlled boundary layer. The absence of triolein greatly simplifies the extract cleanup procedure. While PEDs cannot be inserted directly into the detector as SPME fibers are, their larger volume allows for a greater mass of chemical to be collected. Because they are easily used *in situ,* time-averaged environmental concentrations can be measured. As polyethylene is inexpensive, there is no need to reuse PEDs, eliminating any carryover problems that occur with **SPME.**

Because PEDs sample **by** diffusive uptake, an understanding of the polyethylenewater partitioning *(K_{PEW})* as well as the diffusivity in polyethylene *(D_{PE})* for the chemical of interest is needed. Here we report *KPEW and DPE* values for several PAHs and PCBs. Temperature and salinity effects on the *K_{PEW}* for selected chemicals were examined, and the temperature dependencies of D_{PE} were also tested. Finally, we used K_{PEW} s and D_{PE} s to quantify **HOC** concentrations for **PED** samples from Boston Harbor.

THEORY

In order to solve for the concentration of chemical present in the water of interest, the K_{PEW} (L^{3}/M) must be known. The K_{PEW} is the ratio of the concentration of chemical in polyethylene $(C_{PE}; M/M)$ and the concentration of chemical in water $(C_w; M/L^3)$ at equilibrium:

$$
K_{PEW} = \frac{C_{PE}}{C_W} \tag{2.1}
$$

With this K_{PEW} and the measured C_{PE} , the concentration of the chemical in the water at equilibrium can be estimated.

Because it may not always be possible or convenient to keep the PEDs in the environment for the time required for equilibration, it is important to understand the kinetics of uptake. When a plane sheet is suspended in a large volume of solution such that the amount of solute taken up **by** the sheet is a negligible fraction of the total solute mass, the concentration in the solution remains constant **(36).** This is the case for a **PED** in a large body of water (e.g. a lake, river, harbor, etc.). However, for a limited volume of solution (as is typical in laboratory experiments), a decrease in the concentration of solute in the solution will result because a significant fraction of solute will diffuse into the polyethylene (PE) sheet. Consequently, the empirically observed uptake rate varies as a function of the percentage of total chemical finally taken up **by** the sheet. The time for equilibration increases as the size of the water body increases. For example, for pyrene diffusing into polyethylene with a 78 μ m thickness, it takes 3.4 days to reach 50% of equilibrium in an infinite bath (i.e., large body of water), while it only takes **1.3** hours to reach **50%** equilibrium when **90%** of the total solute mass is finally taken up **by** the

sheet. The total mass of pyrene diffused into the PE in the first case is ten times greater than in the latter case, which results in longer equilibration times.

The limited volume case (i.e., the laboratory) allows one to measure the change in concentration in the solution over time. Assuming there is no water boundary limitation to transfer, the results can be used to estimate the diffusivity of the solute in the PE sheet. Crank **(36)** solved Fick's second law for the diffusion of a chemical from a stirred solution of limited volume into both sides of a plane sheet:

$$
\frac{M_t}{M_{\infty}} = 1 - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2\alpha (1+\alpha)}{1 + \alpha + \alpha^2 q_n^2} \exp\left(-Dq_n^2 t/l^2\right)
$$
(2.2)

where M_t and M_∞ are the total amount of chemical in the sheet at time *t* and at infinite time, respectively (M), *D* is the diffusion coefficient (L^2/T) , *t* is time (T), and *l* is one-half of the sheet thickness (L). The values of q_n are the non-zero positive roots of:

$$
\tan(q_n) = -\alpha \cdot q_n \tag{2.3}
$$

and α is the ratio of the volume of solution, $V_W(L^3)$, to the mass of the PE sheet, *Mass_{PE}* (M), divided **by** the partition coefficient:

$$
\alpha = \frac{(V_W / Mass_{PE})}{K_{PEW}}\tag{2.4}
$$

In other words, α is the ratio of the dissolved to sorbed chemical at equilibrium. The fractional uptake, f_{PE} , into the PE sheet at equilibrium may also be used to solve for α . The *f_{PE}* is equivalent to 1/(1+ α). For example, if 75 percent of the chemical in the PE-water system is in the sheet at equilibrium, f_{PE} is 0.75, and α is 0.33. Equation 2.2 can be used to estimate *D* **by** solving for the best fit with experimental data.

When there is an infinite amount of solute or a bath that is so large that the solution concentration does not change due to **PED** uptake (an infinite bath case), the following equation, also from Crank (36), can be used to solve for M_t/M_{∞} :

$$
\frac{M_t}{M_{\infty}} = 1 - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{8}{(2n+1)^2 \pi^2} \cdot \exp\left\{-D\left(n+\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \cdot \frac{\pi^2 t}{l^2}\right\}
$$
(2.5)

By combining Eqs. 2.1 and 2.5, one can solve for C_w as a function of C_{PE} , K_{PEW} , D, *t*, and *1:*

$$
C_W = \frac{C_{PE}}{K_{PEW} \cdot \left[1 - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{8}{(2n+1)^2 \pi^2} \cdot \exp\left\{-D\left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \cdot \frac{\pi^2 t}{t^2}\right\}\right]}
$$
(2.6)

As *t* approaches infinity, C_w approaches C_{PE}/K_{PEW} . Diffusivity and K_{PEW} can be obtained from lab experiments; and C_{PE} , *t* and *l* can be measured in field-deployed PEDs allowing one to solve for C_w in an infinite bath (i.e., an environmental case).

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Materials

Methanol (MeOH), acetone, methylene chloride **(DCM),** and hexane solvents were all **JT** Baker Ultra-resi-analyzed (Phillipsburg, **NJ).**

Low-density polyethylene (0.92 g/cm^3) from two different manufacturers was used in the experiments. The first polyethylene (Brentwood Plastics, Inc., Brentwood, MO) was 70 ± 1 µm thick. The second (Carlisle Plastic, Inc., Minneapolis, MN) was 51 **± 3** pm thick. Prior to use, PE was pre-cleaned with **500** mL of methylene chloride for a minimum of 48 hours, followed with methanol (24 hr), and finally clean water (24 hr). PEDs were kept in clean water (treatment explained below) until use.

All water was reverse osmosis pretreated and run through an ion-exchange resin and activated carbon filter system (Aries Vaponics, Rockland, MA) until a resistance of 18 M Ω was achieved. The water was then treated with ultraviolet light (Aquafine total organic carbon reduction unit, Valencia, CA) and filtered with a 0.22 μ m filter (Millipore, Bedford, MA). This low-carbon water was found to have less than **0.3** mg/L of total organic carbon **(TOC)** upon analysis on a Shimadzu **TOC-5000** (Columbia, **MD).**

Water Sampling Experiment

In order to sample a PED-water system multiple times so that the timedependence of concentration could be repeatedly observed, a closed incubation apparatus that allowed for the sampling of a small fraction of water was developed. Phenanthrene and pyrene were examined in the first set of experiments and **2,2',5,5'** tetrachlorobiphenyl (PCB **#52)** was measured in the following experiments. One polyethylene device **(PED)** was placed in one of two opaque **13-L** stainless-steel beakers with stainless steel lids (Polar Ware, Sheboygan, WI). Each beaker was filled with **10** L of water. Phenanthrene and pyrene beaker concentrations were **150** pg/L **(300** p.L of 5000 μg/mL in MeOH, Supelco, Bellefonte, PA) and 20 μg/L (200 μL of 1000 μg/mL in MeOH, Supelco), respectively. The PCB # 52 concentration was 16 μ g/L (400 μ L of 400 pg/mL in acetone prepared **by** dissolving **10** mg PCB *#52,* UltraScientific, **N.** Kingstown, RI). No **PED** was added to the second beaker, which served as a control.

The beaker solutions were allowed to equilibrate overnight after the chemicals of interest had been added. The PAH solutions were subsampled (3 mL) over time and analyzed via fluorescence spectroscopy (see below). The PCB **#52** solutions were subsampled **(10** mL) over time, extracted into **0.5** mL hexane, recovery corrected with hexachlorobenzene (10μ) of 1 μ g/mL in acetone, Kodak Eastman, Rochester, NY), and analyzed with a gas chromatograph-electron capture detector **(GC-ECD;** see below). Several subsamples were taken and analyzed over a period of several hours to measure the initial water concentration.

The PEDs were punctured with sixteen-gauge stainless-steel or copper wire approximately every **3** cm in an accordion fashion. The wire was then bent into a circle

(-11 cm in diameter) and attached to a stainless steel rod, which could be rotated. The **PED** was pulled flat against the wire in a circle. Then the **PED** was added to the first beaker and spun at speeds ranging from approximately 1 m/s **(90** rev/min) to **0.3** *m/s (30* rev/min) in order to mimic a typical water flow in the field. Because no change in uptake rate was observed upon changing the spinning from 1 *m/s* to **0.3** *m/s,* the chemical uptake rate is not thought to have been water-boundary controlled with in this range of spinning rates. Approximately **500** mg of **PED** was used in the PAH experiment, and **90** mg in the PCB experiment. The beakers were subsampled every 20 to **30** minutes initially and at longer time intervals after the **PED** and water in the first beaker had reached equilibrium (Figure **2.1).**

Lab experiments allowed for the determination of the fraction of chemical present in the water at equilibrium (Figure **2.1).** Assuming that the chemical is present only in the water or the **PED** (i.e., there are no wall effects, transformations, or losses), one may solve for the K_{PEW} as a function of the fraction of the chemical in the water f_w at equilibrium:

$$
K_{PEW} = \frac{(1/f_w) - 1}{r_{PEW}} \tag{2.7}
$$

where r_{PEW} is the polyethylene-to-water phase ratio $(M/L³)$. Any losses observed in the control beaker were used to correct the f_w . This control-corrected f_w was calculated as:

$$
f_W = \frac{C_{W,i, PED}}{C_{W,0, PED}} \cdot \frac{C_{W,0,Control}}{C_{W,i,Control}}
$$
(2.8)

where $C_{W,t,PED}$ is the water concentration in the PED beaker at time t , $C_{W,0,PED}$, is the water concentration in the PED beaker just before the PED is added, $C_{W,0,Control}$ is the water concentration in the control beaker at time zero just before the **PED** is added to the **PED beaker, and** $C_{W,t, Control}$ **is the concentration in the water in the control beaker at time** *t.*

In order to measure the temperature dependence of K_{PEW} , partitioning experiments were performed at several temperatures. The temperature was gradually decreased and finally increased to rule out chemical degradation as the cause for the decreased water concentrations. Several PAH uptake experiments were also performed at varying temperatures to investigate the importance of temperature on kinetics. The temperature of the beakers was maintained **by** placing them in a 40-L insulated tank attached to a refrigerated **28-L** recirculator (Forma Scientific, model 2100, Marietta, OH) and kept constant at temperatures ranging from 3 ± 0.3 to 24 ± 0.3 °C for 24 hours before the water concentrations were measured.

In order to measure the salinity dependence of K_{PEW} on the PAHs, sodium chloride (NaCl) was added to the beakers to create a **0.1** M NaCl solution. Phenanthrene and pyrene calibration solutions with *0.5* M NaCl were made and fluorescence intensities were measured to insure that salinity had no effect on fluorescence.

Fluorescence intensities for phenanthrene and pyrene were measured over time for the **PED** laboratory experiments performed at **23'C.** Over this period 1.4% of the water was removed for sampling purposes. **A** linear fit of the control beaker concentration data showed the fluorescence intensities decreasing **by 6%** for both phenanthrene and pyrene over the course of the experiment **(130** hours; Figure **2.1).** This small loss from the control beaker suggests that losses due to biodegradation, volatilization, etc. were small compared to uptake **by** the **PED.** As the stainless-steel

beakers are opaque, photodegradation can also be excluded as a possible decay mechanism.

A PAH mass balance was performed at the end of the 2-day **22 0C** lab experiment (Table **2.1).** The **PED** was extracted in 540 mL of hexane for 48 hours, and the phenanthrene and pyrene fluorescences were measured. For both phenanthrene and pyrene, the total mass measured was in good agreement with the mass added. For phenanthrene extracted from the beaker wall, an overlapping peak $(d_{10}$ -phenanthrene which had been added as a mass spectrometer recovery standard) prohibited us from measuring the intensity of phenanthrene. It can only be said that it was less than the height of the shoulder of the overlapping peak. However, the mass of phenanthrene and pyrene measured on the beaker walls of the experiment performed at 14° C was found to be 2 pg of phenanthrene for both the control beaker extract and the **PED** beaker extract. **If** this was the value of phenanthrene on the wall at the end of the **220C** experiment, the total phenanthrene recovered was 1471 **pg,** which is **98%** of the mass added. For pyrene, **99%** of the chemical added was in the water or in the **PED.** These mass balances indicate that there was little or no photodegradation or biodegradation. Because **98%** of phenanthrene and **99%** of pyrene was found to be in one of two phases (water and **PED),** our assumption that this was a two-phase system appears to be a valid one.

The concentrations of PCB **#52** were measured in both the **PED** and the control beaker throughout the course of the PCB experiment. **A** linear fit of the control beaker concentration data indicated that the PCB **#52** concentration increased **by 5%** over the first **160** hours of the experiment (Figure **2.1).** This is within the standard deviation of the measurements. However, over the entire course of this 71-day experiment, there was

considerable loss of PCB *#52.* The water, **PED (if** present), and beaker walls were extracted for both the **PED** beaker and the control beaker, so that a mass balance on each beaker and its contents could be performed (Table **2.1).** The **PED** was extracted in hexane for 48 hours. Water samples from each of the beakers were extracted as discussed previously, and the beaker walls were extracted with DCM . $Cl₆$ -benzene was used as a recovery standard for all of the extracts. The samples were analyzed on a gas chromatograph-mass spectrometer (see below).

Approximately *50%* of the PCB *#52* initially added was recovered at the end of the 71-day experiment. We estimate that between **6** and 24% of PCB *#52* was lost due to volatilization over the time period of the experiment. This assumes that the PCBs in the water and air have equilibrated, and that each time the beaker is sampled, the PCBs in the headspace are lost. However, as the beaker lids were not airtight, it is possible that there was greater PCB loss due to volatilization over the 71-day period. Between 1 and **3%** of the PCB was removed from the beaker due to sample removal. Because of the agreement between the total beaker extracts in both beakers, PCB concentrations were corrected with the control beaker (see above).

PED and Water Extraction Experiment

In order to measure *multiple K_{PEWS}* in the same experiment, multiple roundbottom flasks were prepared with water containing known concentrations of several PCBs or several PAHs and one small piece of PED (-4 mg) per flask. All of the experiments were performed at room temperature (23^oC), unless otherwise noted.

The PCB **PED** and water extraction experiments were performed **by** Rainer Lohmann in the Gschwend laboratory. **A** 4-L aqueous solution containing PCBs **(# 29** and 69 at 20 pg/mL, UltraScientific) was prepared from a 200 -pg/ μ L PCB solution in acetone and transferred into *250* mL flasks. **A** small piece of **PED (-** 4 mg) was added to each flask. The flasks were then tumbled for increasing time intervals **(6,** 12, 24 hrs, 2, 4, **7** days, and three were removed at 14 days) in order to ensure equilibrium. The PEDs were extracted in **5** mL of **DCM** followed **by 5** mL of hexane. For most samples, the aqueous phase was also solvent-extracted. A $25 \mu L$ internal PCB-standard (# 35, 60, 114, and 169 at 200 pg/ μ L) was added prior to extraction, and a 10- μ L aliquot of a 10 $ng/\mu L$ m-terphenyl solution was used as an injection standard.

A 4-L water solution containing **60** ng/L phenanthrene, **30** ng/L 2-methylphenanthrene and pyrene, 20 ng/L benz(a)anthracene, 40 ng/L chrysene, 200 ng/L benzo(a)pyrene, and **90** ng/L perylene was prepared. The phenanthrene and pyrene solutions were the same used in the water sampling experiment. Chrysene **(95%),** 2 methyl-phenanthrene **(99%),** perylene **(>99%),** benzo(e)pyrene **(99%;** all from Aldrich, Milwaukee, WI) and benz(a)anthracene (Accustandard Inc.; New Haven, **CT)** were dissolved in acetone, and subsequently added to the water solution. Approximately **500** mL of this solution was added to each of six 500-mL glass round-bottom flasks.

Prior to the partitioning experiment, six 7-mg **PED** circles were stirred in a **50** mL glass round-bottom flask with 50 mL of acetone containing 4 μ g/mL d_{12} benz(a)anthracene (2000 μg/mL dissolved in DCM from UltraScientific) and fluoranthene **(98%** from Aldrich). Impregnating the plastic with these PAHs allowed us to ensure that equilibrium had been reached at the end of the experiment. For example,

one would expect the *KPEWS* for the deuterated and non-deuterated benz(a)anthracene to be equal at equilibrium. The circles and acetone solution were stirred with a glasscovered stir bar for **26** hr. The **PED** circles were then placed in **50** mL of water and stirred for 1 hr. This process was repeated two more times to insure that all of the acetone had been removed. While a small quantity of PAHs may also have been removed, their low solubility and higher molecular weight allowed for a minimal loss.

Each circle was then cut into two pieces. Approximately three-fifths of each circle was added to one of the six round-bottom flasks, and the remaining two-fifths was extracted (see below). Each of the flasks was stirred on a stir plate with a glass-covered stir bar and covered in foil to avoid photodegradation. The water and **PED** of each flask was extracted and analyzed at increasing time intervals **(9.9, 18,** and four flasks at **28** days).

The **PED** pieces were extracted in **10** mL of hexane for at least 48 hours. **A** solution of d_{10} -phenanthrene, d_{10} -pyrene, and d_{12} -perylene (100- μ l of 200-pg/ μ l in hexane for **PED** extracts; in acetone for water extracts) was added as a recovery standard. The water was extracted in **500** mL glass volumetric flasks **(3** x **10** mL of hexane). The extracts were reduced to approximately 100 μ l, and a 10- μ l aliquot of a 4-ng/ μ l mterphenyl solution was added as an injection standard for subsequent analysis.

The *K_{PEW}* was calculated for each HOC as the ratio of the measured concentration of the solute in the **PED** and the measured concentration of the solute in water at equilibrium (Eq. 2.1). The average of the K_{PEWS} measured at equilibrium was taken in order to calculate the best value.

Infinite Bath Experiment

In order to evaluate the diffusivity values measured in the non-infinite bath water sampling experiments, the same water sampling system (see above) was set up with a very small mass of **PED** such that the water concentration would remain constant (phenanthrene: $25 \mu g/L$ and pyrene: $0.85 \mu g/L$), mimicking the field. In contrast to the previous experiments, only **1.1** mg of **PED** was added. This allowed for a predicted 1% and 0.2% fractional uptake at equilibrium for pyrene and phenanthrene, respectively. The experiment was performed at 20 ***C.** After **7.3** hr before equilibrium was reached, the **PED** was removed and extracted in a quartz cuvette **(NSG** Precision Cells Inc., Farmingdale, NY) in **3** mL of hexane for 48 hr. Synchronous fluorescence (see below) was used to measure the mass of phenanthrene and pyrene present in the **PED** as well as in the water before and after the **PED** was added. Throughout the experiment, the water concentration of phenanthrene and pyrene remained constant $(C_{\text{phen0}} = 25.0 \pm 0.4 \,\mu g/L)$, $C_{\text{phenF}} = 24.9 \pm 0.4 \text{ }\mu\text{g/L}; C_{\text{pyr0}} = 0.84 \pm 0.3 \text{ }\mu\text{g/L}; C_{\text{pyrF}} = 0.85 \pm 0.03 \text{ }\mu\text{g/L}.$

PED Deployment in Boston Harbor

In order to test the applicability of **PED** use in the aquatic environment, sampling was performed in Boston Harbor, MA, in December 2000. PEDs *(85* cm x *5* cm x **51** μ m) were deployed at two locations within the Harbor. The first PED was hung from a navigational buoy (#12) across from Logan Airport **(N** 42' **20.955** min, W **710 01.124** min), 2m below the water surface. The second **PED** was attached to our own float near the mouth of the Charles River $(N 42^{\circ} 22.261 \text{ min}, W 71^{\circ} 03.382 \text{ min})$, also 2 m from the surface. The water temperatures at the airport and Charles River locations were 2 and

3"C, respectively, and the water salinity was **33** psu at both locations. Both PEDs were deployed for **15** days, and 4-L water samples were taken at the same location at the time of **PED** recovery.

In the laboratory, the PEDs were rinsed in low-carbon water, wiped with a Kim wipe in order to remove any visible biofilm, and extracted in **DCM.** The water samples were also extracted in **DCM,** and recovery standards were added to both extracts. The samples were analyzed on the **GC-MS** as described below. Particulate organic carbon from the total water samples was measured **by** filtering a known volume of the sample on a glass fiber filter (Whatman, Maidstone, England). The filtered solids were then dried **(80'C),** weighed, and analyzed with a PE 2400 **CHN** elemental analyzer (Perkin Elmer Corp., Norwalk, **CT).**

Synchronous Fluorescence

Synchronous fluorescence **(37)** allowed for the simultaneous measurement of the concentrations of pyrene and phenanthrene in both water and hexane. The samples were scanned at room temperature (23 °C) in quartz cuvettes **(NSG Precision Cells Inc.)** on a Perkin Elmer Luminescence Spectrometer **LS** 50B between **250** and **350** nm with an offset of *55* nm, slit widths for the emission and excitation beams of **7** nm, and a scan speed of **1500** nm/min. Phenanthrene and pyrene intensity were measured at **292** nm and **319** nm, respectively. The measurement error (one standard deviation, s.d.) for phenanthrene and pyrene were **0.6** and **1.3%,** respectively. **A** calibration curve for phenanthrene and pyrene dissolved in water as well as hexane was completed each day in order to account for variations in the lamp. The s.d. for the equilibrium concentrations

measured before the **PED** was added was within **0.3%** (phenanthrene) and 0.2% (pyrene) of the mean. The s.d.'s for the concentrations measured once the **PED** and water had equilibrated were on average within **1%** and **3%** of the mean for phenanthrene and pyrene, respectively. The measured intensities were at least **15** times greater than intensities measured for water only.

GC-ECD

The PCB **#52** extracts from the water sampling experiment were separated on a Carlo Erba high-resolution gas chromatograph *(HRGC-5300)* with a DB-5 column **(J&W** Scientific; Folsom, CA; ID 0.32 mm; 0.25 μm film, 30 m length) and analyzed using an electron capture detector (ECD-40; Milan, Italy). The extract $(1 \mu L)$ was injected cold on-column, and the **GC** was temperature programmed from **70'C** to **300'C** at 20'C/min and held at **300'C** for **3** minutes. The **ECD** was run with a **95%** argon and **5%** methane make-up gas at 300°C. A calibration curve for PCB # 52 and Cl₆-benzene was completed each day in order to account for instrument variations.

PCB **#52** concentrations were recovery corrected with C16-benzene recoveries **(78 6%).** The s.d. (n **=** 4) for the PCB **#52** beaker equilibrium concentrations measured before the PED was added was within 0.9% of the mean. The s.d. ($n = 5$) for the concentrations measured once the **PED** and water had equilibrated was within **7%** of the mean. The peak heights were at the least **50** times greater than the baseline.

GC-MS

Extracts from **PED** and water extraction experiments were analyzed on a gas chromatograph **(GC;** Hewlett Packard **6890** Series) -mass spectrometer **(MS; JEOL MS-**
GCmate). The extracts $(1 \mu l)$ were injected splitless and separated on a J&W Scientific (Folsom, **CA) 30** m x **0.32** mm DB-5 *(0.25* [tm film thickness) fused-silica capillary column. For PCBs, the injection port was at **300'C,** and the GC-temperature program started at 70^oC, ramped at 20^oC/min to 180^oC, increased by 4^oC/min to 260^oC, reached **280'C** in a minute where it was held for 4 min. For PAHs, the injection port was at **280'C,** and **GC** was temperature programmed from **70'C** to **180'C** at 20"C/min and continued to **300*C** at 6"C/min. The **MS** was operated at a resolution of **500** in **EI+** mode and selected ion monitoring **(SIM)** was used. PCBs and PAHs were quantified relative to the internal recovery standards.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Equilibrium Constants

The K_{PEWS} measured in both experimental setups (the water sampling experiment and the **PED** and water extraction experiments explained above) for phenanthrene and pyrene match within error [Table 2.2, (38-41)]. The water sampling K_{PEW} measured for PCB #52 was also consistent with the PCB K_{PEW} s measured in the PED and water extraction experiment. The K_{PEW} for phenanthrene estimated by Huckins et al. (29) is in good agreement with the numbers presented here; however, the *KPEW* for PCB **#52** is not. The experiments performed **by** Huckins et al. **(29)** did not reach equilibrium, and the *K*_{PEW}S were estimated by modeling the uptake data. The differing PCB #52 K_{PEW} estimated in their work may **be** due to modeling error.

Within both compound classes, the *K_{PEW}*s increase with increasing molecular weight. This is to be expected since van der Waal's forces are a function of size, and as

the volume of these hydrophobic molecules increase, so does their affinity for the PE and their aversion to the water. Because of the large body of literature on octanol-water partition coefficients (K_{OW}) and the limited importance of hydrogen bonding on the K_{PEW} of these HOCs, the correlation between K_{PEW} and K_{OW} was examined (Figure 2.2). The measured *Kows* for PAHs cited in Mackay et al. (40) were averaged and 1 s.d. was calculated (Table 2.2). There were no *Kow* values for 2-methyl-phenanthrene referenced in Mackay et al. (40) so a value from Hansch et al. (41) was used. Because the K_{OW} value cited for perylene was significantly lower than the *Kow* for PAHs of comparable and smaller molecular weights, the *Kow* reported here is from Sangster **(39).** There was a good linear correlation between log K_{PEW} and log K_{OW} for the combined set of HOCs (\mathbb{R}^2) $= 0.85$; Figure 2.2). The linear fit of the log K_{PEW} and log K_{OW} for the individual compound classes was still better. For example, PAHs improved to $R^2 = 0.95$ (n = 8) and PCBs to $R^2 = 0.99$ (n = 3). Interestingly, the log K_{PEW} -log K_{OW} correlations indicate that the K_{PEW} 's for PAHs are greater than K_{PEW} 's for PCBs with the same K_{OW} . One explanation for this observation may be that the planar structure of the PAHs enhances their partitioning into the hydrocarbon chains of the polymer over that of the non-planar PCBs measured in this study. It is conceivable that the linear nature of the polyethylene is more compatible with the planar PAHs than the non-planar PCBs. These K_{PEW} - K_{OW} correlations allow one to estimate an HOC's K_{PEW} with a K_{OW} .

By assuming that the aqueous activity coefficient is the only variable governing *KPEw* that has significant temperature dependence (i.e., the excess enthalpy of solution in $PE \approx 0$), K_{PEW} was related to the excess enthalpy of solution in water, $\Delta H_s^e(kJ/mol)$.

$$
\ln(K_{PEW}) \cong -\frac{\Delta H_s^e}{RT} + C \tag{2.9}
$$

where *R* is the gas constant (kJ/molK), *T* is the absolute temperature (K), and *C* is a constant. Examining the partition data as a function of *]/(RT)* yielded estimates of corresponding ΔH_s^e values (Figure 2.3). The ΔH_s^e for phenanthrene was found to be 18 \pm 1 kJ/mol. This is the value that Schwarzenbach et al. (42) estimate for the ΔH_s^e of phenanthrene. We also measured an ΔH_s^e for pyrene of 29 \pm 2 kJ/mol. This is also comparable to the ΔH_s^e for pyrene estimate by Schwarzenbach et al. [25 kJ/mol; (42) Finally, the ΔH_s^e for PCB #52 was found to be 12 ± 5 kJ/mol, comparing reasonably well with **16** kJ/mol estimated for *2,3,4,5* tetrachlorobiphenyl [calculated with values from (43) These measurements indicate that a chemical's K_{PEW} can be adjusted for temperature with that particular chemical's ΔH_s^e .

Salinity can also affect a chemical's partition coefficient. Assuming that salt only influences PE-water partitioning due to effects in the aqueous solution, we expect:

$$
\frac{K_{PEW, salt}}{K_{PEW}} = 10^{K^S \cdot [Salt]}
$$
 (2.10)

where K^S is the Setschenow constant (M^{-1}) , and *[Salt]* is the salt concentration (M). Assuming K^S is 0.28 for phenanthrene and 0.29 for pyrene (42) and calculating $K_{PEW, \text{salt}}/$ *KPEW* for a **0.1** M NaCl water solution, one finds that the *KPEW,sait* is expected to be **1.07** times greater than K_{PEW} for both phenanthrene and pyrene. Experimental measurements indicate that $K_{PEW, salt}$ was 1.07 times greater than K_{PEW} for phenanthrene and 1.05 times greater for pyrene. These findings indicate that the Setschenow correlation can be used for adjusting *KPEW* for salt effects. While the effect of a **0.1** M NaCl solution is only **7%,** correcting for salt effects becomes more important at higher salinities. For example, a *0.5* M NaCl solution, which is similar to the salinity of ocean water, will result in a 40% increase in the K_{PEW} for pyrene.

Diffusivity Constants

In order to solve for **HOC** diffusivities in PE, a mass balance was used to fit **Eq.** 2.2 for observed *Cw:*

$$
C_{W} = C_{W \omega_{t=0}} - \left(1 - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2\alpha(1+\alpha)}{1 + \alpha + \alpha^{2}q_{n}^{2}} \exp\left(-Dq_{n}^{2}t/l^{2}\right)\right) \cdot \left(C_{W \omega_{t=0}} - C_{W \omega_{t=\infty}}\right) (2.11)
$$

The concentration data collected during the lab experiments were fit to **Eq. 2.11,** and the sum of the squared differences were minimized to solve for the diffusivity of each chemical (phenanthrene, pyrene, and PCB *#52)* in polyethylene at **23'C** (Figure 2.4; Table **2.3).** The PAH and PCB experimental data were obtained from the water sampling experiments. Equation 2.11 appears to fit the phenanthrene data quite well, but does not fit the higher molecular weight pyrene and PCB *#52* as well. For these HOCs, diffusion is slower than the fitted value initially and then becomes greater than the calculated diffusivity in the second half of the time course. This trend is also visible for phenanthrene, but to a lesser extent. The best fits for the PAHs measured in the experiments at *5,* 14, and **22'C** show the same results as the experiment at **23'C.** The concentration data for the laboratory experiments suggest that the diffusivities of the HOCs increased with time. It is possible that the chemical of interest may be acting as a plasticizer, causing diffusivity to increase with increasing absorbate concentration.

The diffusivities measured above along with *K_{PEWS}* were used to predict the dissolved concentrations of phenanthrene and pyrene in an infinite bath lab experiment

(see above). The PED concentration, D_{PE} , and K_{PEW} were used to calculate C_W according to **Eq. 2.3.** For phenanthrene, this value compared favorably to the directly-measured water concentration (Table 2.4). For pyrene, **Eq. 2.3** over-predicted the water concentration **by** about a factor of two. This was likely caused **by** an under-prediction of the fractional uptake **(31%** uptake predicted with **Eq. 2.5** vs. **56%** measured fractional uptake; Table 2.4). A diffusivity of 6 E-11 cm^2/s would provide for the observed 56% fractional uptake. This is consistent with the greater-than-calculated diffusivity observed in the second half of the water sampling time courses (Figure 2.4).

Several researchers have measured the diffusivities of hydrocarbons in polyethylene (44-47). However, there are many difficulties in comparing experimental data on diffusion in polymers. These comparisons are difficult because of the variations in morphological characteristics (e.g., degree of crystallinity) of the polymer. Only one value for the diffusivity of phenanthrene in polyethylene, one for pyrene, and one for PCB **#52** were found in the literature (29,48). Huckins et al. **(29)** measured diffusion coefficients for phenanthrene and PCB **#52** in SPMDs in an open system (Table **2.3).** Although the diffusivity measured **by** Huckins et al. is for diffusion through triolein and polyethylene, one might expect the diffusion through a plastic to be much slower than that through a liquid. Consequently, the "total" diffusivity should be similar to the diffusivity in polyethylene alone. The phenanthrene and PCB **#52** diffusivities measured here and **by** Huckins et al. are well within a factor of three.

Simko et al. (48) measured the diffusivity of pyrene in low-density polyethylene to be 5 E-10 cm²/s; this is more than an order of magnitude greater than the measured value of $2 E-11 cm²/s$ in this study. It is important to note, however, that the

experimental setup of Simko et al. was very different from the one used here. They measured the concentrations of pyrene in a polyethylene sheet composed of five layers. In order to prepare this five-layer sheet, they heated and pressed the polyethylene for several minutes. This heating and cooling may have a significant effect on the crystallinity of the polymer, which may have affected the diffusivity (49).

The diffusivities calculated with **Eq.** 2.11 were used to calculate the time for **90%** of equilibrium in an infinite bath diffusing into a PED with a 51 μ m thickness (Eq. 2.5; Table **2.3).** These times illustrate the importance of the kinetics on **PED** uptake. For example, a field experiment of 7 days (23^oC) will allow phenanthrene and pyrene to come to equilibrium; however, PCB **#52** will not have equilibrated and **Eq. 2.6** will be needed to correct for uptake kinetics.

The diffusivities of chemicals in various media have been observed to relate to the molar volume of the chemical (50). We examined the correlation between the D_{PE} for our measured values as well as literature values (44-46) and LeBas molar volumes (Figure 2.5). In general, our measured D_{PE} s are lower than the literature values. However, it is important to consider that the majority of the literature studies measure the uptake of a chemical into a semi-infinite sheet. This method assumes a constant concentration at the sheet surface and uses a different method of solution. Considering our lower-thanliterature-reported values and the apparent diffusivities increasing with time, it is possible that our D_{PE} are underestimated, and that the time for equilibrium may be less than we have predicted.

Our laboratory experiments suggest that the D_{PE} s measured for our chemicals were, in fact, increasing with time. This may be an experimental problem where late time

losses have been attributed to uptake when, in fact, they are due to other loss mechanisms. The increasing chemical uptake rate may be a real phenomenon due to the absorbate itself serving as a plasticizer. Future work is needed to understand this increasing diffusivity with time.

The *DPEs* measured in this study also appear to be less than those measured in other studies. These lower-than-literature values may be due to sampling artifacts (e.g. losses inferred to represent PE uptake are actually due to other loss mechanisms). Alternatively, the observed *D_{PE}s* may be lower because of differences in PE structure. For example, the plastic used in this study may be more crystalline than the other plastics studied. Our current kinetic observations serve as a good starting point for estimating the time for equilibrium, which will aid in predicting the required sampling exposure time. In order to account for these D_{PE} inaccuracies and possible biofouling that may occur in the field, impregnating PEDs with internal standards (see above) will allow for the fractional uptake to be estimated. For example, one would expect d_{10} -phenanthrene to desorb from the **PED** at the same rate phenanthrene was absorbed. With this rate constant, the fractional uptake of phenanthrene could be estimated based on field conditions.

In order to adjust diffusivity for temperature, it is necessary to know the diffusivity activation energy. The Arrhenius equation can be used to solve for this energy:

$$
D = A \exp(-E/RT) \tag{2.12}
$$

where A is a pre-exponential factor (cm²/s) and E is the activation energy (kJ/mol). A plot of *ln(D) vs. 1/(RT)* allowed for the use of the slope to solve for the activation energy

of diffusion for phenanthrene and pyrene (Figure **2.6).** With this method, the activation energies *±* 1 s.d. for phenanthrene and pyrene were estimated to be 46 **± 10** kJ/mol and *45* **±** 12 kJ/mol, respectively. Activation energies for the diffusivity of about 40 different hydrocarbons in low-density polyethylene compiled **by** Flynn (44) ranged from 34 to **87** kJ/mol. Our estimated activation energies are within this range. An activation energy of diffusivity of *45* kJ/mol and a temperature drop of **10'C** will cause the diffusion coefficient to decrease **by** a factor of two.

Environmental Measurements

To demonstrate the effectiveness of PEDs for environmental sampling, we used them to assess HOCs in Boston Harbor seawater in December 2000. Total water extracts were used to calculate dissolved concentrations (Table *2.5).* The dissolved fraction was estimated with particulate organic carbon measurements and organic matter-water partitioning coefficients corrected for water temperature and salinity. *K_{PEWS}* measured at **23'C** were corrected for temperature and salt effects and used to calculate the dissolved **HOC** concentrations corresponding to the **PED** extracts. The previously measured diffusivities were corrected for temperature, and the PCB *#52* concentration was corrected to account for the percentage of equilibrium that had been attained within **¹⁵** days at 2 and **3C** (Table **2.5).** Considering that total water extracts measure one point in time and are therefore not directly comparable to **PED** measurements, which provide for a time average, the total water extracts and **PED** measurements are in good agreement. **HOC** concentrations for PEDs and total water extraction measurements for phenanthrene

as well as pyrene in Boston Harbor were similar, although not identical (Table *2.5).* PCB *#52* total water extracts were within a factor of three of the PED-measured concentration. In order to remove the temporal variability present in Boston Harbor, several liters of harbor water should be collected for laboratory experiments. Subsamples could then be measured with a **PED** or extracted in the lab, and the resulting concentrations could be compared. This approach would help to remove temporal variability assuming that any laboratory sources and sinks could be eliminated or corrected for. As discussed previously, we believe there is greater error associated with those **HOC** concentrations that are measured with PEDs that have not yet equilibrated (i.e., PCB *#52)* with the surrounding water and must be corrected with diffusivity. This error may help to explain the higher **PED** sample concentrations.

The phenanthrene concentrations measured in December 2000 (40 and **80 pM)** are comparable to the **100 pM** phenanthrene concentration measured **by** Flores (4) with a **SPMD** at the airport location in February **1998.** The pyrene concentrations we measured (20 **pM)** at the airport are several times less than the **100 pM** concentration measured with *in situ* fluorescence detection **by** Rudnick *(51)* near the airport in November **1997.** This apparent decrease in PAH concentration may be partially explained **by** the implementation of secondary treatment for Boston's municipal wastewater in July **1998** and the relocation of the wastewater outfall to *9.5* miles off-shore in September 2000. PCB *#52* particulate samples collected in outer Boston Harbor near the airport in July of **1996 by** Gustafsson *(52)* were used to estimate dissolved concentrations of 400 **fM.** This value is comparable to the PCB *#52* concentrations we measured in December 2000 in

the inner harbor **(100** to 200 **fM).** In this instance, the temporal and spatial differences in these samples make them difficult to compare.

Applications

Initial experiments indicate that PEDs are useful devices for the measurement of dissolved HOCs in the water column. Polyethylene is readily available in varying thicknesses and is inexpensive. K_{PEWS} can be estimated with K_{OWS} and adjusted for temperature and salinity. Diffusivities can be used to estimate the time for equilibrium. PEDs can be impregnated with internal standards so that the rate of desorption within the surrounding environment can be measured and used to correct for the uptake rate of the chemicals of interest.

PEDs allow for the measurements of HOCs that are "truly dissolved." "Truly dissolved" refers to those chemicals which are not sorbed to particulate matter or colloids. This dissolved fraction controls the diffusive transport into the surrounding environment. Consequently, it is an important fraction to measure.

As PEDs require days (depending on the chemical and temperature) to reach equilibrium with the surrounding water, they allow for a time-averaged measurement. This is useful for determining the level of pollutant exposure for organisms living in the sampled environment. Using different **PED** thicknesses will allow for the measurement of varying lengths of time. For example, decreasing the PED thickness from 80 to 40 μ m cuts the uptake time **by** *75%.*

The large polyethylene-water partition coefficients for HOCs make the measurement of small concentrations of HOCs much less labor intensive than the

extraction of large volumes of water. In our hands, we have been able to measure concentrations as low as 200 **fM** (e.g., PCB **#52).** These large partition coefficients will facilitate the extraction of a mass of chemical that is greater than the analyzer's detection limit. Additionally, these larger concentrations generally allow for more accurate measurements.

Chemical	PED or Control Beaker	Incubation Time (day)	Mass in Water (μg)	Mass in PED $(\mu$ g)	Mass on Wall (μg)	Total (μg)	Mass Added (μg)
phenanthrene	PED Beaker	$\overline{2}$	998	471	24	1469 - 1493	1500
pyrene	PED Beaker	$\overline{2}$	56	142	3	201	200
PCB #52	PED Beaker	71	14 ± 1	69 ± 10	0.6	84 ± 11	160
PCB #52	Control Beaker	71	70 ± 10		4	74 ± 10	160

Table **2.1.** Masses of chemicals measured at the end of a PAH and a PCB water sampling lab experiments.

	Log Kpew ^b	Log Kpew ^b			
Chemical	PED & Water	Water Sampling	Log Kpew ^b		
	Extraction Exp.	Experiment	Huckins et al.	Log Kow ^c	Source
PAHs					
Phenanthrene	4.3 ± 0.1	4.23 ± 0.02	4.2	4.5 ± 0.1	Mackay et al. (1992)
2-Methyl Phenanthrene	4.8 ± 0.2			5.2	Hansch et al. (1995)
Fluoranthene	4.9 ± 0.1			5.1 ± 0.2	Mackay et al. (1992)
Pyrene	5.0 ± 0.1	5.02 ± 0.03		5.0 ± 0.2	Mackay et al. (1992)
Benz(a)anthracene	5.7 ± 0.1			5.62 ± 0.02	Mackay et al. (1992)
d_{12} -Benz(a)anthracene	5.7 ± 0.1				
Chrysene	5.7 ± 0.1			5.9 ± 0.1	Mackay et al. (1992)
Benzo(e)pyrene	6.2 ± 0.1			6.3 ± 0.2^d	Mackay et al. (1992)
Perylene	6.5 ± 0.2			6.3	Sangster (1989)
PCBs					
2,4,5 TriCB (#29)	$5.1 \pm 0.1^{\circ}$			5.6	Hawker & Connell (1988)
2,2',5,5' TetraCB (#52)		5.4 ± 0.1	4.6	5.8	Hawker & Connell (1988)
2,3',4,6 TetraCB (#69)	5.6 ± 0.2^e			6.0	Hawker & Connell (1988)

Table 2.2. Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon (PAH) and polychlorinated biphenyl (PCB) equilibrium partitioning coefficients **@** $23^{\circ}C^{a}$

^aErrors shown are \pm 1 s.d. ^blog [(mol/kg_{PE})/(mol/L_w)]. ^clog [(mol/L_o)/(mol/L_w)]. ^aThe K_{ow} for benzo(a)pyrene is used for comparison as there were no experimental data available for benzo(e)pyrene. *These values were measured **by** Rainer Lohmann in the Gschwend Laboratory.

$\overline{a}, \overline{a}, \overline{b}$							
Chemical	This study $(cm2/s \ @ \ 23°C)$	Time for 90% equilibrium in an infinite bath (day)	Huckins et al., 1993	Simko et al., 1999 $(cm2/s \ @ \ 18°C)$ $(cm2/s \ @ \ 24°C)$	LeBas Molar Volume (cm ³ /mol)		
phenanthrene	$2E-10$	0.4	7 E-11		199		
pyrene	$2E-11$	3		5 E-10	214		
PCB #52	7 E-12	10	2 E-11		268		

Table **2.3.** Diffusivities in polyethylene measured for phenanthrene, pyrene, and **2,2',5,5'-** tetrachlorobiphenyl (PCB *#52).*

Table 2.4. Measured and calculated values for phenanthrene and pyrene in the infinitebath experiment.

	Water Concentration $(\mu g/L)$			Fractional Uptake	Diffusivity $\text{(cm}^2\text{/s)}$	
	Measured	Predicted with	Measured ^b	Predicted with	Table	Required for
		Eq. 2.6 and		Eq. 2.5 and	2.3	measured
Chemical		D_{PE} from		D_{PE} from		fractional
		Table 2.3^a		Table 2.3		uptake ^c
phenanthrene	25	23	0.85	0.79	$2E-10$	$1 E-10$
pyrene	0.85	1.5	0.56	0.31	$2E-11$	6 E-11

 C_{PE} measured with synchronous fluorescence following extraction in hexane. Log K_{PEW} for phenanthrene: 4.23 and pyrene: 5.02. ^bCalculated as (C_{PEmeasured}/K_{PEW})/C_{Wmeasured}. ^CUsing this diffusivity in **Eq. 2.5** results in the measured fractional uptake.

Chemical	Location	Dissolved Conc. from total water extracts ^c (pM)	Estimated dissolved fraction ^e	Dissolved Conc. from PED extracts ^r (pM)	Estimated equilibrium percentage at 15 days
phenanthrene	Airport ^a Charles River ^b	40 70	0.99 0.99	80 70	100%
pyrene	Airport ^a Charles River ^b	20 40	0.98 0.98	20 10	100%
PCB #52	Airport ^a Charles River ^b	< 0.1 ^d < 0.07 ^d	0.93 0.94	0.2 0.2	60%

Table *2.5.* Phenanthrene, pyrene, and 2,2',5,5'-tetrachlorobiphenyl (PCB *#52)* concentrations measured with both total water extraction and **PED** methods.

aWater temperature **2'C,** 2 m depth, particulate organic carbon 0.2 mg/L, and salinity **33** psu. ^bWater temperature 3°C, 2 m depth, particulate organic carbon 0.2 mg/L, and salinity 33 psu. cDissolved concentrations were calculated from total water extracts and corrected for the predicted fraction of chemical in dissolved phase. ^dThe ion ratio measured indicated that there may have been an interfering ion, and that peak area may overestimate the mass present. ^eThe fraction of chemical present in the dissolved phase was estimated with particulate organic carbon measurements and organic-matter partitioning coefficients corrected for water temperature and salinity. ^fDissolved concentrations were calculated from PED extracts with K_{PEW} corrected for water temperature and salinity effects.

Figure **2.1.** Water concentration vs. time for phenanthrene (solid diamonds) and 2,2',5,5'-tetrachlorobiphenyl *(#52;* solid triangles **)** measured in laboratory experiments with spinning **PED** show that the system has reached equilibrium. Control beaker concentrations for phenanthrene (open diamonds) and 2,2'5,5'-tetrachlorobiphenyl (open triangles) show no other significant losses.

Figure 2.2. Log K_{PEW} vs. Log K_{OW} at 23°C for PAHs (solid diamonds) and PCBs (solid squares). The best-linear equation for each chemical group is: PAHs: $1.2x - 0.97$ (\mathbb{R}^2) *0.95*); **PCBs:** 1.1x-1.3 ($R^2 = 0.99$)

Figure **2.3.** In *KPEW* vs. 1/(RT) for 2,2',5,5'-tetrachlorobiphenyl (PCB **#52;** solid diamond), pyrene (solid triangle), and phenanthrene (solid square). The effect of **0.1** M NaCl on *K_{PEWS}* for pyrene (open triangle) and phenanthrene (open square) are indicated with open symbols.

Figure 2.4. Phenanthrene (solid diamond), pyrene (solid square), and *2,2',5,5'* tetrachlorobiphenyl (solid triangle) concentration in water vs. time at **23*C.** The Crank equation (2.11) fit is depicted as a solid line.

Figure **2.5.** In Diffusivity vs. In LeBas molar volume for chemicals measured in this work (Table **2.3:** solid triangle; Table 2.4: open triangle), polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in the literature (solid square), aromatic hydrocarbons in the literature (solid diamond), saturated hydrocarbons in the literature (open diamond).

Figure **2.6.** In diffusivity vs. 1/(RT) for phenanthrene (solid circle) and pyrene (solid square). R is the gas constant (kJ/molK) and T is temperature (K). The best linear fits for each chemical were: phenanthrene $[y = (-46 \pm 10 \text{ kJ/mol})x + (-3.7 \pm 4.1) R^2 = 0.91]$ and pyrene $[y = (-45 \pm 12 \text{ kJ/mol})x + (-6.0 \pm 5.0) R^2 = 0.88$].

CHAPTER 3: DESORPTION KINETICS OF PYRENE FROM NATIVE LOWER HUDSON ESTUARY SEDIMENTS

INTRODUCTION

Observations of disequilibrium between sorbed hydrophobic organic contaminants [HOCs; e.g., polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs)] and the surrounding environmental waters *(3,53,54)* indicate that the time for desorption is important for understanding the fate of HOCs. The settling and resuspension of particles can play a significant role in the cycling of HOCs *(15,55,56).* In areas of significant sediment resuspension, depending on the time of solid-water contact, the desorption of HOCs from suspended particles may be a significant source or sink of contaminants to or from the surrounding waters. For example, Achman et al. **(3)** have estimated that the input due to the desorption of PCBs from resuspended sediments in the lower Hudson Estuary is similar in magnitude to the boundary-layer-diffusion-controlled release from the bed.

For PAHs, these molecules' strong affinity for black carbon in the environment *(19,57-59)* makes their desorption kinetics more complicated. For example, in laboratory experiments, Accardi-Dey **&** Gschwend *(59)* found the sorption of pyrene onto black carbon had a half-life of approximately 1 day in contrast to a half-life on the order of hours for pyrene sorption onto natural sediment. Our current understanding of the desorption kinetics of PAHs from native sediments is limited and is an area where more study is needed.

Many models have been developed to simulate sorption kinetics. The one-box model is the simplest of the models. This model assumes that the sorption rate is a first-

order function of the difference in concentration between the bulk solution and the solution equilibrated with the sorbent is quantified with a single rate constant, *k.* This model implies that only one process is the limiting step for mass transfer across a boundary. Unfortunately, this simplified model does not fit experimental data well. Several researchers have observed a rapid initial uptake followed **by** a slower uptake rate **(60,61)** In order to account for these differing rates of desorption, a two-box model is often applied **(62,63).** This model applies to situations where there are two types of sorbents, two chemical reactions, or a more accessible sorbing site paired with one that is less accessible.

Wu and Gschwend (23,24) developed a model of sorption kinetics based on known physical and chemical processes (i.e., molecular diffusion and phase partitioning). Their model describes the kinetics of solution-solid exchange as a radial diffusive penetration of organic pollutants into or out of porous natural aggregates. The sorbate molecules are assumed to diffuse through the pore fluids in the interstices of natural silt aggregates while undergoing microscale equilibrium partitioning between the mobile and immobile phases of the silt aggregates. They developed a model to explain the time rate of change of the sorbed compound per unit volume:

$$
\frac{\partial S(r)}{\partial t} = D_{\text{eff}} \left[\frac{\partial^2 S(r)}{\partial r^2} + \frac{2}{r} \frac{\partial S(r)}{\partial r} \right]
$$
(3.1)

where $S(r)$ is the local total volumetric concentration in porous sorbent (mol/cm³), *r* is the radial distance, and

$$
D_{\text{eff}} = \frac{D_m n}{(1 - n)\rho_s K_d} \cdot f(n, \tau) \tag{3.2}
$$

where D_m is the pore fluid diffusivity of the sorbate (cm²/s), *n* is the porosity of the sorbent (cm³ of fluid/cm³ total), ρ_s is the specific gravity of the sorbent (g/cm³), K_d is the solid-

water partition coefficient ($[mo1/kg]/[mo1/L]$), and f is a correction factor which is a function of intraaggregate porosity and tortuosity (τ) . The model was found to fit laboratory sorption data for chlorobenzenes to soils and river sediments once the fitting porosity *n* was adjusted (23). Using a correction factor of n^1 , an empirical choice of $n =$ **0.13** allowed for a fit of reasonable accuracy. Using the Wu and Gschwend model, **Eq. 3.1** can be solved analytically for diffusion into a well-stirred bath with particles that are uniform in size **(36):**

$$
\frac{M_t}{M_{\infty}} = 1 - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{6\alpha(\alpha+1)\exp(-D_{\text{eff}}q_n^2t/a^2)}{9+9\alpha+q_n^2\alpha^2}
$$
(3.3)

where M_t and M_∞ are the total amount of chemical in the water at time t and at infinite time, respectively (M), t is time (T), and a is the particles' spherical radius (L). The values of q_n are the non-zero positive roots of:

$$
\tan(q_n) = \frac{3q_n}{3 + \alpha q_n^2} \tag{3.4}
$$

and α is the ratio of the volume of solution to the mass of solids divided by the partition coefficient:

$$
\alpha = \frac{(V_W / Mass_P)}{K_d} \tag{3.5}
$$

where V_W is the volume of water (L^3) and $Mass_p$ is the dry mass of the sediment particles (M). Simply stated, α is the ratio of the dissolved to the sorbed chemical at equilibrium. The fractional uptake, f_w , into the water at equilibrium may also be used to solve for α . The f_w is equivalent to 1/(1+1/ α) or 1/(1+ $r_{SW} * K_d$) where r_{SW} is the ratio of solid to water or *Massp/Vw.* For example, if *25%* of the chemical in the particle-water system is in the water at equilibrium, f_w is 0.25, α is 0.33, and $r_{sw} * K_d$ is 3. Eq. 3.3 can be used to

estimate D_{eff}/a^2 by solving for the best fit with experimental data. The limited volume case (i.e., the laboratory) allows one to measure the change in concentration in the solution over time. The results can be used to estimate the effective diffusivity of the solute within the particles. Once the D_{eff}/a^2 has been solved for in the laboratory case, the α can be adjusted for the solid-to-water ratio in the field, and the time for sorption or desorption in the field can be estimated.

In this study we examined pyrene, a PAH, in order to estimate the desorption rates of pyrene from native Hudson Estuary sediment. The use of native sediments allowed for the study of the effects of black carbon on PAH desorption. Due to the slower sorption times for PAHs to black carbon, PAHs that are added to sediments in the laboratory may not be representative of the PAHs sorbed to environmental sediments. On shorter time scales, these added PAHs may not partition into the sediments in the same manner as native PAHs. Laboratory experiments were performed and the results evaluated with the physically-based desorption model proposed **by** Wu and Gschwend (23,24) with respect to pyrene desorption from natural sediment (i.e., unaltered sediment with no pyrene addition). The most abundant size class **(38-88** tm) of a Hudson River sediment from an area of significant resuspension was used in the experiment. Finally, the measured D_{eff}/a^2 was used to estimate the time for pyrene desorption in the lower Hudson Estuary. To our knowledge, this is the first study on the desorption of a PAH from native sediment.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Materials

Sediment was collected with a 50x50 cm box corer from the lower Hudson Estuary in an area of significant sediment resuspension approximately 14 km north of the Battery (400 **49.209'N, 730 58.270'W)** on October 4, 2000 (Southern Estuarine Turbidity Maximum, **SETM;** Figure **4.1).** The sediment was divided into one-centimeter depth intervals and stored in glass amber jars at 4'C. The **0** to 2 cm depth fraction was wetsieved with standard sieves (sizes: 710, 250, 177, 149, 105, 88, and 38 μ m). Clean water (see below) was used to rinse the sediment through each of the sieves. Each size fraction was then rinsed into an amber jar where the particles were allowed to settle, and the excess water was decanted off. Each size class was weighed and a subsample of each size class was weighed, dried at **75'C,** and weighed again so that the solid mass fraction could be determined. The particle density of the $38 - 88 \mu m$ size class was measured with a specific gravity flask (64).

All water was reverse osmosis pretreated and run through an ion-exchange resin and activated carbon filter system (Aries Vaponics, Rockland, MA) until a resistance of **¹⁸ MQ** was achieved. The water was then treated with ultraviolet light (Aquafine total organic carbon reduction unit, Valencia, CA) and filtered with a 0.22 μ m filter (Millipore, Bedford, MA). This low-carbon water was found to have less than **0.3** mg/L of total organic carbon **(TOC)** upon analysis on a Shimadzu **TOC-5000** (Columbia, **MD).** Methanol (MeOH), acetone, methylene chloride **(DCM),** and hexane solvents were all **JT** Baker Ultra-resi-analyzed (Phillipsburg, **NJ).**

Desorption Experiments

In order to sample the sediment-water mixture multiple times so that the change in pyrene water concentration could be measured over time, two opaque **13-L** stainless-steel beakers with stainless steel lids (Polar Ware, Sheboygan, **WI)** were used. Each beaker was filled with **10** L of clean water. The control beaker contained **30** ng/L of pyrene (added via 10 mL of 30 μg/L in water from dilution of 1000 μg/mL in MeOH, Supelco, Bellefonte, PA) and was allowed to equilibrate overnight. Once the baseline concentration **(0** ng/L pyrene) in the experimental beaker, had been established, **5.15 g** of the **38-88** gm fraction of wet sediment (3 **g** dry weight) were added and continuously stirred with a motor-driven stainless steel stirring rod. This experiment was performed twice. The first experiment was performed at $23.8 \pm 0.5^{\circ}$ C and the second was performed at $25.2 \pm 0.4^{\circ}$ C.

For both experiments, the pyrene water concentration was measured in both beakers over time with time-gated, laser-induced fluorescence (LIF; see below). Unfortunately, difficulties with the LIF optical trigger (see below) made the measurements over the initial 20 hr of the first experiment suspect. Consequently, we only have confidence in the data collected after hour 20 of this experiment. No trigger problems were experienced in the second experiment. In order to measure fluorescence in the beaker with sediment, the stirring was stopped for approximately **10** min in order to allow for particle settling. **A** Stokes settling calculation [particle density $= 2.66$ g/cm³ (measured as discussed above), T $= 25^{\circ}$ C] indicated that 38 μ m particles should settle within 4 min; however, as the water was murky even after **10** minutes, it is suspected that the particles became smaller with stirring. The end of the LIF fiber optic probe (stainless steel casing; **1.3** cm diam. x **10** cm long; see below for optical fiber specifications) was placed in the beaker and three or more

pyrene measurements were taken; each measurement takes approximately 1 min to perform. As soon as the measurements were completed, the stirring in the beaker was reinitiated with the stir rod. The stirring was fast initially in order to resuspend any particles that may have settled. After a minute of fast stirring, the speed was lowered to approximately **150** rev/s. The control beaker was measured at similar time intervals to the beaker with sediment.

For the first experiment, calibration curves using **10,** 20, 40, and **60** ng/L pyrene solutions in 1-L amber bottles were completed within 4 hr or less of each measurement. During the second experiment, a **0** ng/L pyrene measurement was added to further constrain the lower portion of the calibration curves, and a calibration curve was completed immediately before or after each pair of desorption and control beaker measurements. Deviations in the calibration-curve-derived control beaker concentrations were used to correct the concentration in the beaker with sediment. The calibration curve was first used to calculate the pyrene concentration present in the beaker with sediment. Then this value was divided **by** the calibration-curve-derived concentration in the control beaker and multiplied **by** the spiked concentration **(30** ng/L).

Inner Filter Effects

Attenuation of the excitation beam and/or absorption of emitted radiation **by** an excess concentration of fluorophore or **by** the presence of an additional absorbing species in solution is commonly called the "inner filter effect." Additional pyrene fluorescence measurements were made with and without particles present in order to test for inner filter effects. Following the desorption experiment, the particles in the beaker were allowed to settle for **15** days. After this time, the solution was clear, and particles were visible on the

bottom of the beaker. A Stokes settling calculation [particle density $= 2.66$ g/cm³ (measured as discussed earlier), $T = 25^{\circ}$ C indicated that particles as small as 1 μ m should settle within 4 days. Several LIF measurements were taken over an hour. The particles were resuspended **by** first manually stirring the beaker with a stainless steel stirring rod and subsequently using the motor-driven stirrer for several minutes of continuous stirring. Then stirring was stopped and LIF measurements were taken at multiple particle-settling times.

Over the period of the fluorescence measurement checks, a gradual increase in the LIF system response over time was observed in all of the calibration standards. For example, the **10** ng/L standard intensity increased from **5800 @** 1:20 PM to **7300** at **3:30** PM. This increase in response is believed to be due to instrument "warm-up" and has been experienced previously **by** other instrument users.

Sediment and Water Extraction

After **10** days, the water-sediment mixture from the first experiment was centrifuged, so that the water and sediment could be separated for subsequent extraction. **A 500** mL subsample of the water was extracted in a 1 -L separatory funnel with **50** mL of **DCM** followed by two more 30 mL extractions. d_{10} -Pyrene (50 μ l of 500 pg/ μ l in MeOH) was added prior to extraction for recovery correction. The extract was dried with anhydrous sodium sulfate (Na_2SO_4) , transferred to hexane, and reduced to approximately 2 mL.

A 1.2 **g** (dry weight) subsample of sediment was extracted in a 50-mL glass centrifuge tube with 2 mL of acetone and 30 mL of DCM. d_{14} -p-Terphenyl was added prior to extraction for recovery correction. The sediment-solvent mixture was agitated with

a Vortex mixer for 1 min, the sediment was allowed to settle for **30** min, and the solvent was decanted into a 250-mL round-bottom flask. This process was repeated twice, and repeated two more times with only **3** mL of acetone in order to remove any residual pyrene. The extract was concentrated and exchanged into approximately 3 mL of hexane. A 50- μ L aliquot of a 3 ng/ μ L m-terphenyl solution was added to both the water and sediment extracts as an injection standard.

GC-MS

Sediment and water extracts were analyzed on a gas chromatograph **(GC;** Hewlett Packard **6890** Series) -mass spectrometer **(MS; JEOL** MS-GCmate). The extracts **(1 gl)** were injected splitless and separated on a **J&W** Scientific (Folsom, **CA) 30** m x **0.32 mm** DB-5 (0.25 μ m film thickness) fused-silica capillary column. The injection port was at **280'C,** and **GC** was temperature programmed from **70*C** to **180'C** at 20*C/min and continued to **300'C** at 6"C/min. The **MS** was operated at a resolution of **500** in **EI+** mode and selected ion monitoring **(SIM)** was used. Pyrene was quantified relative to the internal recovery standards. Recoveries for the added d_{10} -pyrene and d_{14} -p-terphenyl were quantified relative to an m-terphenyl injection standard and were **66%** for the sediment extraction and **68%** for the water extraction.

Laser Induced Fluorescence

A time-resolved, laser-induced fluorescence spectrometer system (65)was used to measure the dissolved pyrene concentration *in situ.* While the system can be used to measured fluorescence as a function of time (time-resolved), here pyrene intensity was measured at one delayed time (time-gated). The system consists of a pulsed nitrogen laser

 $(\lambda = 337 \text{ nm}, 600 \text{ ps pulse width}, 1.3 \text{ mJ pulse}^{-1}, \text{Photon Technology}, \text{Model PL2300}$ lens focused onto a 400 µm diameter silica optical delivery fiber. A concentric ring of 9 x 200 μ m diameter fibers delivers the emission radiation to a $\frac{1}{4}$ -m imaging spectrograph (SPEX, Model **270M)** whose output is focused on the input lens of a gated, intensified 1024 x **256** pixel charge-coupled camera (Princeton, Model ICCD-1024). The camera is thermoelectrically cooled and controlled **by** a Princeton Instruments Model **ST130** controller and **CSMA** software. **A** time delay unit (Princeton Instruments Model **PG-200)** controls the time gating via a 100 μm fiber connecting the laser and the optical trigger on the delay unit **(65).** Pyrene intensity was measured at a **128** ns delay with a gate width of **50** ns at **391** nm. The pyrene detection limit for this system is on the order of **5** ng/L *(51).*

The **ICCD** was read after each pulse and the fluorescence responses to **100** pulses from the laser were summed to create the fluorescence spectra. The **CSMA** software provided for a spectral display of emission fluorescence from **350** to **550** nm with a resolution of approximately **0.3** nm. The data was extracted from the **CSMA** files to a flat **ASCII** format using a C-program written **by** Steven Rudnick **(51).** The data was then filtered (smoothed with a low-pass filter) and plotted using a Matlab code written **by** Steven Rudnick and modified **by** Steven Margulis (Appendix **A).** The peak height of interest (Raman **@ 371** nm; pyrene **@ 391** nm) was quantified using a Matlab code written **by** Steven Margulis (Appendix **A).**

Organic and Black Carbon Analysis

A subsample of the sediment that was collected from the desorption experiment **(38 - 88** jim) was analyzed for both organic and black carbon. The sediment was dried **(70'C)** and crushed with a metal spoon. **A** 40 mg sample was combusted in a precombusted

crucible in a Sybron **F-A1730** Thermolyne muffle furnace (Dubuque, **IA)** under air for 24 hr at *375'C.* This method combusts the more labile organic carbon (OC) leaving the recalcitrant black carbon [BC; *(58,59)].*

Combusted (BC) and untreated **(OC &** BC) sediment were subsampled and weighed (~ **10** mg) into **Ag** capsules. In order to remove any inorganic carbon **(IC)** that may be present, 50 μ I of clean water and 50 μ I of sulfurous acid (>6% SO₂ by weight; Fisher Scientific, Fair Lawn, **NJ)** were added to each subsample. No effervescence was observed suggesting that there was little to no **IC** present. The samples were dried at room temperature overnight in a laminar flow hood.

The samples were then analyzed for carbon with a Perkin-Elmer 2400 **CHN** Elemental Analyzer (Norwalk, **CT).** Response factors were determined using an acetanilide standard (reproducible to within **±0.3%).** Sample blanks were found to have less than 3 µg of carbon and were subtracted from the sample carbon measurements. Three replicates for both the combusted and untreated samples were run and found to have a relative standard deviation of **±** *0.05%.* The weight percent carbon in the combusted samples (BC) was subtracted from the weight percent carbon measured in the untreated samples **(OC &** BC) to quantify the weight percent of **OC.**

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Sediment Particle Distribution

The sediment particles were dominated **by** the smaller size fractions (Figure **3.1).** The $38 - 88$ µm size class made up 62% of the particles on a dry mass basis, while the $\lt 38$ μ m size class was the second most abundant group (13%). The 105 – 149 μ m size class

made up 12% and the $88 - 105 \mu$ m size class was 5% of the total. The remaining 9% of the particles were all larger than $149 \mu m$. Because the $38 - 88 \mu m$ particle size class was the most abundant class present at this Hudson site, it was used in the desorption experiments for estimating representative rates of pyrene desorption in the lower Hudson Estuary.

Laboratory Desorption

The first desorption experiment indicated that the pyrene had reached equilibrium within the first 22 hr (Figure *3.2).* The pyrene concentration in the system was measured up to 140 hr and appeared to remain constant over the 22 to 140 hr period suggesting that no further pyrene desorption was occurring. Control-corrected equilibrium pyrene concentrations in the beaker with sediment averaged 13 ± 2 ng/L. This value is consistent with the equilibrium pyrene concentration measured in the desorption beaker of the 2nd experiment $(15 \pm 2 \text{ ng/L})$. In this experiment, there were no problems with the trigger, and the system appeared to reach equilibrium within 2 hr. In the 1st experiment, the LIFmeasured control beaker concentrations (after hour 20) ranged from **26** to 34 ng/L with an average concentration of 32 ± 2 ng/L (n = 7). In the second experiment, the concentrations ranged from 27 to 33 ng/L with an average concentration of 30 ± 2 ng/L (n = 12), implying very good accuracy and **±7%** precision. Adding the **0** ng/L concentration to the calibration curve and an increase in the frequency with which calibration curves were completed may have helped to improve the measurement accuracy in the second experiment.

Fluorescence Measurement Checks

Within error, fluorescence measurements with the LIF were not affected **by** particle-derived inner filter effects (Figure **3.3).** Pyrene fluorescence intensities in particlefree water **(15** days of settling; **7200 ± 500)** were **5%** less than the intensities measured in water with particles **(6** to **13** min of settling; **7600 ± 600).** However, as these measurements are within **1** standard deviation (s.d.) of the other, fluorescence measurements with the LIF are not believed to have been affected **by** particle-derived inner filter effects. **If** inner filtering were occurring, one would expect intensities to decrease in the presence of particles; however, in this experiment, the intensity increased slightly. This increase is believed to be the result of instrument warm-up because an increase in response for the pyrene standards was also observed.

Dissolved organic carbon quenching effects were calculated to be minimal. The total organic carbon concentration in our experiment was **6** mg/L **(3 g** sediment ***** 2% organic carbon **/ 10** L). **If** we assume that **10%** of this carbon became dissolved **(0.6** mg/L) and that the pyrene-DOC partition coefficient is 10^5 L/kg_{DOC} (66,67)only 6% of the pyrene would be bound to **DOC.** This percentage is comparable to the error for our measurements in the control beaker; however this error would be systematic rather than random.

Solid-Water and Black-Carbon Partitioning

The solid-water partitioning coefficient was calculated as the ratio of the pyrene sediment concentration and the dissolved pyrene concentration. The dissolved pyrene concentrations at equilibrium were measured independently with LIF and via a water extraction followed **by GCMS** analysis (both discussed previously). The LIF-measured pyrene concentrations measured were **13 ±** 2 ng/L (1st experiment) and **15 ±** 2 ng/L (2nd experiment; Table **3.1).** The GCMS-analyzed concentration in the water extract was **¹⁵** ng/L. Replicate **GCMS** measurements in our laboratory suggest that this number is accurate to within approximately 20%. Because of the improved calibration curve protocol

in the 2nd desorption experiment, and the GCMS-measured value, the dissolved concentration was assumed to be **15** ng/L. Using this value and the measured sediment concentration (800 ng/g), we calculated a K_d of $53,000 \pm 12,000$ (L/kg). The error (1 s.d.) was propagated from the measurement error in each of the variables following the general method for error propagation **(68).**

The black carbon-water partitioning coefficient K_{BC} ([μ g/kg_{BC}]/[μ g/L]^v) for the 38 – **88** gm size class of Hudson River sediment was estimated according to **(59):**

$$
K_{BC} = \frac{K_d - f_{OC} K_{OC}}{f_{BC} C_W^{(V-1)}}
$$
(3.6)

where f_{OC} is the weight fraction of organic carbon in the solid phase, K_{OC} is the OCnormalized partitioning coefficient ([mol/kg_{oC}]/[mol/L]), f_{BC} is the weight fraction of BC in the solid phase, and ν is the Freundlich exponent appropriate for the specific BC-PAH pairing of interest. This assumes that both pyrene sorbed fractions had equilibrated after **¹⁰** days. Based on the constant pyrene concentration measured over time (Figure **3.2),** this assumption seems appropriate. The parameters K_d , f_{BC} , f_{OC} , and C_w were measured (see above). **A** log *Koc* value of 4.7 **(69,70)** and a Freundlich exponent of **0.62 (59)** measured **by** others were used in the calculations. The weight percentage of **OC** and BC were measured as 1.85 ± 0.01 and 0.17 ± 0.01 , respectively. Using these values, the log K_{BC} is 6.8 ± 0.4 according to **Eq. 3.8.** Again error was propagated with measurement errors **(68).** This log K_{BC} is 0.5 log units greater than the log K_{BC} (6.25 \pm 0.14) measured in Boston Harbor sediments (59) However, given the large error associated with our K_{BC} , these values are just within the error of the other. However, the K_{BC} measured in this study is more closely aligned with log *KBC* measured for diesel particulate using a batch sorption method **(6.6)**
and column experiments **[7.0; (71)].** This finding may indicate that the black carbon associated with our smaller size class of sediment $(38 - 88 \,\mu\text{m})$ is more similar to dieselcombustion derived black carbon.

Rearranging Eq. 3.6 to solve for K_d , one can calculate the magnitude of each "piece" of K_d : $f_{OC}K_{OC}$ and $f_{BC}K_{BC}C_W^{(V-1)}$. According to this equation, only 2% of the pyrene was sorbed to organic carbon, while **98%** of the pyrene was black carbon-sorbed. Interestingly, **6%** of the pyrene in the system desorbed from the sediments. Consequently, the desorption rate measured in our system is thought to include both organic and black carbon desorption. At least **66%** of the pyrene is desorbing from black carbon; however, if equilibrium partitioning is maintained throughout the desorption, **98%** of the pyrene is desorbing from black carbon. Using the same organic and black carbon partitioning model, Lohmann et al. **(72)** estimated that *95%* of the pyrene in a sediment sample from the same location (all size fractions) at the 0-4 cm depth was black carbon-sorbed. In Boston Harbor sediments, they estimated that **92%** of the pyrene was sorbed to black carbon.

Radial Diffusion Rate Constant

In order to estimate the radial diffusion rate constant, D_{eff}/a^2 , with the desorption measurements, a mass balance was used to solve **Eq. 3.3** for the concentration in the water as a function of time, *Cw(t):*

CW(0=CWt=- I- 6a(a + **1)** *exp(-Degf qnla* **3.7)** *n=1 9+9a+qna*

The water concentration data collected during the lab experiments were fit to **Eq. 3.7** with the exception of the initial water concentration (time $= 0$). The following equation, which is derived from a solution discussed in Crank **(36)** and is suitable for small times, was used to fit the initial water concentration values because the use of **30** terms in **Eq. 3.7** was not sufficient to bring the M/M_{∞} term to zero at $t = 0$:

$$
C_{W}(t) = C_{W@t=\infty} \left(1+\alpha\left[1-\frac{\gamma_{1}}{\gamma_{1}+\gamma_{2}}\, \text{erfc}\left\{\frac{3\gamma_{1}}{\alpha}\left(\frac{D_{\text{eff}}t}{a^{2}}\right)^{1/2}\right\} - \frac{\gamma_{2}}{\gamma_{1}+\gamma_{2}}\, \text{erfc}\left\{-\frac{3\gamma_{2}}{\alpha}\left(\frac{D_{\text{eff}}t}{a^{2}}\right)^{1/2}\right\}\right] (3.8)
$$

where

$$
\gamma_1 = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \left(1 + \frac{4}{3} \alpha \right)^{1/2} + 1 \right\},
$$
\n $\gamma_2 = \gamma_1 - 1$

and

 $\text{erfc}(z) = \exp z^2 \text{erfc}(z)$

Each set of pyrene water concentration measurements taken within a *5* min period of time were averaged and the standard deviation calculated. The sum of the squared differences between the measured and estimated **(Eq. 3.7 & 3.8)** values were minimized to solve for the D_{eff}/a^2 for pyrene in the sediment particles. Fitting the first four data points in this manner provided for a D_{eff}/a^2 of 5.6E-7 s⁻¹ (Figure 3.4). When only the first two data points were fit to Eq. 3.7 and 3.8, the D_{eff}/a^2 was 1.0E-7 s⁻¹.

The K_d measured at equilibrium (Table 3.1) was used to estimate α based on Eq. 3.5. However, it should be noted that K_d is believed to be a function of C_W (Eq. 3.6). According to Eq. 3.6, K_d decreases as C_W increases. Consequently, the K_d at the earlier desorption times may have been smaller in magnitude. Because lower values of K_d correspond to longer times of desorption (see below), the D_{eff}/a^2 rate constants estimated here may be low estimates.

As we discussed previously, desorption can be modeled with a first-order rate constant. While this model does not fit experimental data as well as an intraparticle

diffusion model, its simplicity and single fitting parameter make it a desirable model for a first approximation or use with box-model systems. In a closed system, the fractional uptake can be modeled with a first-order desorption rate constant according to:

$$
\frac{M_t}{M_{\infty}} = 1 - \exp[-k_2(1+\alpha)t]
$$
\n(3.9)

where k_2 is the desorption first-order rate constant. Both k_2 and D_{eff}/a^2 are directly related to the reciprocal of the sorption time scale (24). Based on this, Wu and Gschwend (24)matched the first-order solution with the radial diffusion model at half-equilibration time ($M_{\nu}/M_{\infty} = 0.5$). In a closed system, k_2 is related to $D_{\nu}/\sqrt{a^2}$ by the following:

$$
k_2 = \frac{\left[\left(\frac{10.56}{\alpha} + 22.7\right)D_{\text{eff}} / a^2\right]}{\alpha} \tag{3.10}
$$

Fitting the first two experimental data points to **Eq. 3.9** provided for a first-order desorption half life of 0.80 hr $(2.4 \text{ E} - 4 \text{ s}^{-1})$; Table 3.2). Using Eq. 3.10 to solve for the k_2 corresponding to the D_{eff}/a^2 for the first four data points (5.6 E-7 s⁻¹) resulted in a first-order desorption half life of **0.11** hr. This smaller half-life is consistent with the greater rate of desorption observed for this fit (Figure 3.4). The k_2 half-life corresponding to the radial diffusion rate constant fit to the first two data points was estimated as 0.64 hr with **Eq. 3.10.** This value is well within a factor of two of the first-order desorption half-life estimated with **Eq. 3.9.** One would expect these values to be the similar as they were both fit with the two initial data points.

In an effort to assess the validity of our radial diffusion rate constant, D_{eff}/a^2 , the model for effective diffusivity proposed **by** Wu and Gschwend (23)was used to estimate a D_{eff} . In order to calculate the D_{eff} in Eq. 3.2., the pore geometry factors, $f(n, \tau)$ was related to porosity in sediment beds as:

$$
f(n,\tau) = n^i \tag{3.11}
$$

where the exponent, *i*, is between 1 and 2 (73). For simplicity, Wu and Gschwend (23)take the *i* to be 1, and solve for D_{eff} as:

$$
D_{\text{eff}} = \frac{D_m n^2}{K_d (1 - n) \rho_s} \tag{3.12}
$$

Using the intraaggregate porosity as a fitting parameter, they found the intraaggregate porosities in their sediments to range from **0.07** to **0.17 (0.13** on average). The diffusivity of pyrene in water (D_m) was estimated according to Hayduk and Laudie [7.7 E-6 cm²/s; (50)]. Using a porosity of 0.13 for the sediment used in this study, the D_{eff} is 1.1 E-12 cm²/s (Table **3.3).**

Using the range of particle radii present in the experimental sediment and the D_{eff} calculated according to Eq. 3.12 (1.1 E-12 cm²/s), the radial diffusion rate constant, $D_{\ell} \eta / a^2$ ranges from 5.5 E-8 – 2.9 E-7 s⁻¹ (Table 3.4). The D_{eff}/a^2 corresponding to a 38 μ m particle diameter $(2.9 \text{ E} \cdot 7 \text{ s}^{-1})$ is within the span of the radial diffusion constants estimated $(1.0 \text{ E} \cdot 7 \text{ s}^{-1})$ and 5.6 E-7s⁻¹). The 64 µm particle diameter corresponds to a D_{eff}/a^2 of 1.0 E-7 s⁻¹ and is equivalent to the radial diffusion rate constant estimated **by** fitting the first two data points of experimental data with **Eq. 3.7** and **3.8.** Considering the positive correlation between shrinking particle sizes and the energy input to the system, one might argue, that the average particle diameter in our experimental system with continuous stirring may be on the lower end of the particle range (e.g., $38 \mu m$). If this is true, then the physically-based

model proposed by Wu and Gschwend (23) is a reasonable predictor of the D_{eff} for pyrene in the native sediments tested.

Time for Desorption in the Lower Hudson Estuary

The rate of desorption is dependent on the solid-to-water ratio $Mass_p/V_W$ or r_{SW} in the system as well as the solid-water partition coefficient, *Kd.* Using **Eq 3.3** and **Eq. 3.8** at small times, the analytical solution for the radial diffusive desorption from or uptake **by** spherical particles suspended in a closed system was solved for and is presented graphically (Figure *3.5)* in order to illustrate the importance of the ratio of the solid-to-water on the rate of desorption. For example **300** mg/L of total suspended solids **(TSS)** corresponds to a $K_d * r_{sw}$ of 15.9, so the dimensionless time for 50% of equilibrium $(M/M_{\infty} = 0.5)$ is 2 E-4. However, if the TSS is only 10 mg/L, the $K_d * r_{sw}$ is 0.53, and the corresponding dimensionless time is **1.5 E-2.** This value is almost two orders of magnitude greater than the desorption rate for **300** mg/L of **TSS** and illustrates the importance of the solid-to-water ratio as well as the partitioning coefficient on the rates of desorption and sorption.

The *Defa2* measured in the laboratory were used to estimate the time for **50%** and **90%** desorption equilibrium for representative solid-to-water ratios measured in the lower Hudson Estuary. This approach assumes that the D_{eff}/a^2 for all of the sediments in the estuary are similar to the D_{eff}/a^2 measured for the 38 – 88 μ m size class. Eq. 3.3 was used to solve for the time at which M/M_{∞} was equal to 0.5 and 0.9. The range of D_{eff}/a^2 ratios measured in the laboratory for the $38 - 88 \mu m$ sediment fraction $(1.0 E-7 s^{-1} - 5.6 E-7s^{-1})$ was used to calculate the time for **50%** and **90%** equilibrium. **If** we assume that the high-**TSS bottom** waters of the lower Hudson Estuary have **300** mg/L **TSS** on average, it is

estimated that it will take between *5* and **30** min to reach *50%* equilibrium (Table **3.5).** Using the same approach, the time for **90%** equilibrium ranges from 4 to 20 hr. Given the 2 to **7** day residence times for the waters of the lower Hudson Estuary (74), the sediment and bottom water pyrene fractions are expected to be in equilibrium. **If** we assume an average **10** mg/L **TSS** for surface waters of the lower Hudson **(7),** the time for *50%* equilibrium will range from **8** to 40 hr, while the time for **90%** equilibrium is estimated to range from **3** to **10** days. Depending on the residence time for the estuary, the sediment and surface waters may or may not reach equilibrium. These findings illustrate the importance of the solid-to-water ratio and the partitioning coefficient on predicting appropriate rates of sorption and desorption.

Implications

Our findings suggest that the physically and chemically-based model for effective diffusivity put forth **by** Wu and Gschwend (23,24) is appropriate for estimating the desorption kinetics of pyrene in native sediments. Despite the fact that between **66** and **98%** of the pyrene is believed to have been desorbing from black carbon, the retarded radial diffusion model allowed for the estimation of an effective diffusivity that fit experimental results. An improved understanding of the pyrene desorption rates in native sediments is important for predicting the inputs of pyrene that may result from the disequilibrium observed between the pyrene fractions in the sediments and overlying water column. Based on the reasonable agreement between measured and modeled sorption rates for chlorobenzenes observed **by** Wu and Gschwend (23,24) and the agreement between the measured and modeled sorption rates for pyrene observed in this study, the physically and

chemically-based model for effective diffusivity may be useful for estimating rates of sorption and desorption for other HOCs as well.

^aMeasured in beaker experiments with LIF. ^bGCMS-analyzed centrifuged water extract; 20% error assumed. 'Calculated as Cs/Cw. dMeasured with **CHN** analyzer and calculated as weight percent (average ± 1 s.d.; $n = 3$) untreated sediment less the weight percent of combusted sediment. ^{*}Weight percent (average ± 1 s.d.; n = 3). ^fValue from correlation reported by Karickhoff (69). ^gMeasured value from Accardi-Dey & Gschwend (59). hCalculated using Equation **3.6.** 'Measured for Boston Harbor sediments *(59).* iMeasured for diesel particulate matter **(NIST** standard reference material) using batch sorption method (71). ^kMeasured for diesel particulate matter **(NIST** standard reference material) using column experiments **(71).**

	D_{eff}/a^2 (s ⁻¹)	1st-order desorption rate constant, k_2 (s^{-1})	Half-life, $t_{1/2}$ (hr)
Estimated with Eq. 3.9		$2.4E - 4$	0.80
Estimated with Eq. $3.10 \& 4$ -data-point-fit radial diffusion rate constant	5.6 E-7	$1.7E-3$	0.11
Estimated with Eq. $3.10 \& 2$ -data-point-fit radial diffusion rate constant	$1.0 E-7$	$3.0 E-4$	0.64

Table **3.2.** First-order desorption and radial diffusion rate constants.

Table **3.3.** Values used to calculate the effective diffusivity for **38 - 88** pm Hudson River sediment.

^aCalculated according to Hayduk & Laudie (50); molar volume =158.9 cm³/mol viscosity $= 0.8904$ centipoise. ^bMeasured with a specific gravity flask according to method in Blake (64). ^cTypical intraporosity reported in Wu & Gschwend (23). dCalculated according to **Eq. 3.12.**

\ldots		
Particle Radius (μm)	Corresponding D_{eff}/a^2 ($D_{\text{eff}} = 1.1$ E-12 cm ² /s) ^a	
19	$2.9F - 7$	
32	$1.0E-7$	
44	$5.5E-8$	

Table 3.4. Assumed particle radii with corresponding D_{eff}/a^2

aDeff calculated according to **Eq. 3.12.**

Table *3.5.* Range of total suspended solids in the lower Hudson Estuary and the corresponding equilibration times for pyrene.^a

Total suspended solids ^b (mg/L)	Time for 50% equilibrium ^{c} (hr)	Time for 90% equilibrium ^c (hr)
	$8 - 40$	$3 - 10$ days
300	$5 - 30$ min	$4 - 20$

^aThis assumes the D_{eff}/a^2 for all of the sediments in the estuary are similar to the D_{eff}/a^2 for the 38 – 88 μ m size class measured here. ^bThese are the end-members of the range of total suspended solids measured in the lower Hudson Estuar ^bCalculated according to Eq. 3.3; the first number corresponds to a $D_{\text{eff}}/a^2 = 5.6 \text{ E-7}$

 s^{-1} , and the second number corresponds to a $D_{\text{eff}}/a^2 = 1.0 \text{ E-7 s}^{-1}$

Figure **3.1.** Size distribution **by** dry mass of sediment from the lower Hudson Estuary approximately 14 km north of the Battery (40° 49.209' N, 73° 58.270' W).

Figure **3.2.** Pyrene water concentration vs. time measured in laboratory experiments with suspended sediment (solid diamond) show that in the 1st experiment (trigger difficulties), the system reached equilibrium within 22 hr with an average concentration of 13 ± 2 ng/L. The pyrene concentration in the control beaker (solid square) was **32 ±4** ng/L. In the 2nd experiment (no trigger difficulties), the system with suspended sediment (solid diamond) reached equilibrium within approximately 2 hr with an average concentration of **15 ±** 2 ng/L. Pyrene water concentrations in the control beaker (solid square; 2nd experiment) show that the laser induced fluorescence measurements are consistent and accurate $(30 \pm 2 \text{ ng/L}).$

Figure **3.3.** Pyrene fluorescence measured with laser induced fluorescence as a function of time. First, the pyrene fluorescence intensity was measured after **15** days of particle settling (solid diamond; 7200 ± 500 ; n=8). Following this measurement, the system was stirred and the particles were suspended. The average of the pyrene intensities measured between 6 and 13 min of particle settling (solid square) was 7600 ± 600 (n=8). The average after **17** to 45 min of settling (solid triangle) was **8000 ±** 400 (n=10).

Figure 3.4. Dissolved pyrene (ng/L) (solid diamond) vs. time^{0.5} at 25°C (2nd experiment). The error bars are ± 1 s.d. When the first four experimental data points were fit to Eq. 3.7 and 3.8, the resulting D_{eff}/a^2 was 5.6E-7s⁻¹ (dotted line). When only the first two data points were used to fit Eq. 3.7 and 3.8, the D_{eff}/a^2 was 1.0E-7 s⁻¹ (solid line).

Figure **3.5.** Analytical solutions for the radial diffusive desorption from or uptake **by** spherical particles. The numbers on the curves $(K_d * r_{sw})$ are the ratio of the mass sorbed on solids to the mass dissolved in solution at equilibrium. The $K_d * r_{sw}$ value of 15.9 corresponds to a r_{sw} of 300 mg/L (K_d = 53,000 L/kg), and the K_d* r_{sw} = 0.53 corresponds to a r_{sw} = 10 mg/L.

CHAPTER 4: THE IMPORTANCE OF SEDIMENT RESUSPENSION TO THE SEDIMENT-WATER ExCHANGE OF PAHS AND PCBs IN THE LOWER HUDSON ESTUARY

INTRODUCTION

Once in the aquatic environment, the hydrophobic nature of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) causes them to preferentially sorb to the sediments **(1).** Consequently, even after the input of these contaminants has ceased or diminished, the sediments can remain a source of pollutants to the surrounding water. Recent studies indicate that the sediments of urban bodies of water are a source of hydrophobic organic contaminants (HOCs) to the overlying water column **(2-6).** The significant resuspension events that occur in the lower Hudson Estuary **(7-9)** are expected to result in large fluxes of PAHs and PCBs to the surrounding waters. Recent studies in the Hudson **(3,10)** suggest that this is the case. It is important to improve our understanding of the extent to which sediment resuspension plays a role in the release of PAHs and PCBs to the water column so that we may model the transport of pollutants. This improved understanding will aid environmental regulatory agencies in establishing appropriate guidelines. Specifically, understanding the mechanisms for and the magnitude of PAH and PCB fluxes caused **by** sediment resuspension will aid the Environmental Protection Agency in selecting appropriate sediment quality criteria **(11,12).**

Because of elevated concentrations of PAHs and PCBs in sediments, parts of the lower Hudson Estuary are considered to be areas of environmental concern *(75).* Several researchers have measured PAHs and PCBs in and near the lower Hudson River Estuary *(6,10,75-78).* The average total PAH sediment concentration for the Hudson-Raritan Estuary (40 μ g/g) reported by Wolfe et al. (75) is ten times the "high" value (4 μ g/g: 85th

percentile of the national concentration range) reported **by NOAA (79).** The input of an estimated **100** to *650* tons **(80)** of PCBs between the late 1940's and **1977** from electrical capacitor manufacturing plants approximately **300** km from the mouth of the river may have provided for elevated PCB concentrations in the lower Hudson Estuary. However, it should be noted that due to the non-reactive nature of PCBs they are still abundant throughout the environment and several other sources (e.g., wastewater, run-off, atmospheric deposition, etc.) may contribute to PCB loading in the estuary. The average total PCB sediment concentration for the Hudson-Raritan Estuary **[300** ng/g; *(75)]* was greater than the "high" value (200 ng/g) reported **by NOAA (79).** Because of the large PAH and PCB concentrations measured in the sediments of the Hudson Estuary, an improved understanding of how environmental processes like resuspension affect the fate of PAHs and PCBs is needed.

The lower Hudson River estuary has been observed to have two estuarine turbidity maxima on the western side of the river [Figure **4.1; (7)].** Geyer **(8)** observed near-bottom suspended solids concentrations between **100** and 200 mg/L in the summer of **1992** and between **100** and 400 mg/L concentrations during high discharge in **1993** at the southern estuarine turbidity maximum site (Figure **4.1).** However, these elevated suspended solid concentrations were observed to drop to below 20 mg/L at slack tide, indicating the tidal influence of sediment resuspension. Tidal cycles also influence suspended solid concentrations. During spring tides, which are tides of greater-than-average change in water level around the times of new and full moon, near-bottom suspended sediment concentrations were found to reach values as high as **1800** mg/L. In contrast, near-bottom, suspended sediment levels during neap tide, which is a tide of minimum change in water

level occurring during the first and third quarters of the moon, were approximately six times less **(81).**

The distance of salt-water intrusion up the Hudson from the Battery varies from approximately **30** km during high freshwater discharge in the spring to approximately **100** km during low discharge in the fall **(82).** The flow in the Hudson Estuary is dominated **by** tidal flow even during times of **high** discharge; tidal flow is between **10** and **100** times greater than freshwater flow **(83).** Geyer **(8)** observed maximum flood currents to be **0.8** m/s and maximum ebb currents to be 1.2 m/s during low discharge conditions in **1992.** During high discharge conditions, Geyer **(8)** observed maximum flood and ebb currents to be *1.5 m/s.*

In this study the importance of sediment resuspension to the inputs of dissolved pyrene, a PAH, and 2,2',5,5'-tetrachlorobiphenyl (PCB *#52),* a PCB, were examined. The PED-measured dissolved concentrations were sampled during both neap and spring tides in order to assess the impact of increased sediment resuspension. Dissolved concentrations were examined with respect to salinity, which was used as an index of conservative mixing, in order to observe conservative or non-conservative behavior. Sediment concentrations were used to predict the expected direction of chemical movement based on the concentration gradient between the sediments and the overlying water. The magnitudes of the predominant sources and sinks of pyrene and PCB *#52* were estimated. Finally, the dissolved concentration of each chemical within the estuary was solved for with a simple one-box model approach in order to assess the validity of the model and check for any missing sources or sinks.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Study Area

The lower Hudson River Estuary empties into New York Harbor and is bordered **by** northern New Jersey to the west and Manhattan Island and New York City to the east. Sampling was performed along the estuary between New York Harbor and the town of Hastings approximately 34 km up river (Figure **4.1)** in April of **1999** and October of 2000. During the April campaign, sampling was performed during neap (April **9 - 11, 1999)** and spring (April **15 - 18, 1999)** tides at three stations: the Southern Site **(SS)** at the Battery which is located next to the southern tip of Manhattan where the Hudson empties into New York Harbor, the Southern Estuarine Turbidity Maximum **(SETM)** approximately **13** km up the river, and the Northern Site **(NS)** which is approximately 34 km up the river from the Battery near the town of Hastings (Table **4.1).** During the October sampling campaign, samples were collected during neap (October 4-6, 2000) and spring (October 12-14, 2000) tides at four stations: the **SS,** the **SETM,** the Northern Estuarine Turbidity Maximum **(NETM;** approximately 22 km from the Battery), and the **NS.** The **NS** was chosen to allow for the estimation of the input of PAHs and PCBs flowing into the estuary. As the **SETM** and **NETM** were observed to be areas of maximum resuspension, they would allow for an estimate of the magnitude of PAH and PCB input from sediment resuspension. The Battery **(SS)** was chosen to represent the output of PAHs and PCBs from the estuary. The **SS** and **NS** also served as a sort of "control" site where the resuspended solids concentrations are lower than those observed at the **SETM** and **NETM.**

Polyethylene Devices

Polyethylene devices (PEDs) were used in order to measure the "dissolved" concentrations of PAHs (e.g., pyrene) and PCBs (PCB **#52).** They were deployed in the lower Hudson Estuary during the neap and spring tides of both sampling campaigns (Table 4.2). PEDs were deployed at the **SS,** the **SETM,** and the **NS** in April **1999** and at the **SS,** the **SETM,** the **NETM,** and the **NS** in October 2000.

In April **1999,** two different types of polyethylene were used in the field. The first (Brentwood Plastics, Inc., Brentwood, MO) was 70 ± 1 µm thick, and the second (Carlisle Plastic, Inc., Minneapolis, MN) was 51 ± 3 μ m thick. In October 2000, only the 51 μ mthick polyethylene was used. The PEDs used in the field were approximately **3** cm wide, 90 cm long, and 70 μ m or 51 μ m thick depending on the manufacturer. Prior to deployment, the PEDs for the April campaign were extracted with methylene chloride (MeCl₂; JT Baker Ultra-resi-analyzed) twice $(2 \text{ days each time})$. They were then dried in a laminar flow hood for a minimum of **6** hours. After drying, the PEDs were stored in amber glass jars with screw-on, teflon-lined polypropylene covers. Prior to use, PEDs for the October campaign were pre-cleaned with 500 mL of MeCl₂ for a minimum of 48 hr, followed with methanol (24 hr), and finally clean water (see below; 24 hr). October PEDs were kept in clean water until use. The night before deployment, the PEDs were each punctured with a piece of MeCl2-rinsed, 16-gauge, stainless steel wire in an accordion manner and stored in a 1-gallon Ziploc bag.

Water was reverse osmosis pretreated and run through an ion-exchange resin and activated carbon filter system (Aries Vaponics, Rockland, MA) until a resistance of **18 M**

was achieved. The water was then treated with ultraviolet light (Aquafine **TOC** reduction unit, Valencia, CA) and filtered with a 0.22 μ m filter (Millipore).

During the April **1999** campaign, the boat was anchored, the engine turned off, and the stainless-steel wire with the PEDs was attached to a nylon rope. The nylon rope was anchored to the bottom and kept vertical with a float. PEDs were attached to the rope so that they would be at varying depths from the bottom (Table 4.2). The plastic bags were left around the PEDs until just before the each **PED** went into the water. During the October 2000 campaign, the same protocol was followed except the PEDs were attached to a chain anchored to the bottom. The bottom PEDs were kept vertical with a float approximately **5** m from the bottom, and the "surface" **PED** was attached to the chain 2 m below a surface buoy.

Extra PEDs were taken into the field and handled on deck in the same manner that the deployed PEDs were in order to determine the PAHs and PCBs present in the air that would also be in contact with the PEDs that were deployed in the water. In April, while the buoy for the **PED** deployment was being lowered into the water, the blank **PED** was exposed to the air. As this **PED** was exposed for the duration of the buoy deployment (approximately **15** minutes), the April blanks were exposed longer than each of the individual water-sampling PEDs. In October, the blank PEDs were exposed during the same period of exposure time as an individual water-sampling **PED** at each site. The PEDs were deployed for between approximately 2 and **3** days (Table 4.2). At recovery, the rope or chain was lifted from the water and as soon as each **PED** left the water, it was removed from the wire and placed in a glass amber jar with a teflon-lined polypropylene screw lid. Blank PEDs were re-exposed during recovery.

Water Sampling

Water samples and hydrographic data were collected during the neap and spring tides of the April **1999** campaign as well as during the spring tide of the October 2000 campaign. During the April **1999** neap tide, hydrographic data was collected at the **SS** and the **NS,** and only a few water samples were collected (Table 4.3). During the April **1999** spring tide hydrographic data and water samples were collected. The **NS** near Hastings was sampled during maximum flood. The **SETM** was sampled during maximum ebb, and the **SS** was sampled during maximum flood. Samples were typically collected 2 m from the surface and then several samples were typically collected **1,** 2, and **3** m from the bottom.

During the October spring tide, water and hydrographic data were collected at the **SS,** the **SETM,** the **NETM,** and the **NS** (Table 4.3). The **SS** was sampled during slack tide (October 12 **&** 14, 2000). The **NETM** was sampled during ebb (October 12) and flood (October 14) tide. The **NS** was sampled during slack (October 12) and flood (October 14) tide. Samples were typically collected at 2 m depth and **1** and 2 m from the river bottom. On October **13,** 2000 (spring tide), water samples and hydrographic data were collected approximately every hour for one 12-hr tidal cycle at the **SETM.**

Water was collected for total suspended solids measurements, particulate organic and black carbon analysis. **A** positive-displacement, gear-driven pump **(SP-300;** Fultz Pumps, Inc., Lewistown, PA) attached to a water quality multiprobe was lowered over the side of the boat. The water was pumped through $MeCl₂$ -rinsed, $\frac{1}{4}$ "diameter, aluminum tubing into **300** mL, clear glass, glass-stoppered, BOD bottles pre-combusted at *4500C.*

The tops of the bottles were kept covered with aluminum foil to avoid any addition of organic carbon not from the sample.

At the end of each day, between 40 and 120 mL of the water from each of the **300** mL samples for organic carbon analysis was filtered using a hand-pumped vacuum with pre-combusted *4.25-cm* glass fiber filters (Whatman International Ltd., Springfield Mill, England). During the October campaign, filters were rinsed with clean water immediately following the sample filtering; however, April filters were not rinsed. Filters were then folded and wrapped in aluminum foil and kept frozen until they could be analyzed for particulate organic and black carbon. **All** samples were stored in ice until they could be stored in the laboratory freezer at $0^{\circ}C$.

As mentioned previously, the water-displacement pump was attached to a water quality multiprobe (DataSonde 4; Hydrolab Corporation, Austin, TX). This probe allowed for the measurement of the following parameters at the time of sampling: depth, temperature, conductivity, and turbidity.

Sediment Sampling

In April and June of **1999,** sediment was collected at the **SETM** with a hydraulically dampened, gravity corer (84). Subsequent to collection the cores were stored at 6^oC. Because this coring method provides for an 11-cm diameter core encased in polycarbonate, sediments from the inner section of the core were collected to avoid any organic contamination. During the October campaign, sediment was collected with a **50** x **50** cm box-corer at each of the four sites over a two-day period (October 4-5). Metal spatulas and spoons were used to collect the surface sediment at 1-cm depth intervals at the surface and

2-cm depth intervals at greater depth (2 to **7** cm). The sediment was stored in glass amber jars at 4°C.

PED Extraction

The PEDs were stored in the glass amber jars at 0° C until they were extracted. PEDs from the April campaign were extracted in 500 mL of MeCl₂ in glass-stoppered bottles for 1 week. PEDs from the October campaign were extracted in 60 mL of MeCl₂ two times for a minimum of 24 hr each time. **All** bottles were covered with foil to prevent photodegradation. The PEDs from the neap tide of the April campaign were spiked with d_{12} -benz(a)anthracene as a recovery standard, while the spring tide April PEDs were spiked with several recovery PAHs $(d_{10}$ -phenanthrene, p-terphenyl, and d_{12} -perylene). The PEDs from the October campaign were spiked with a PAH and PCB recovery standard **(dio**phenanthrene, d_{14} -terphenyl, d_{12} -benz(a)anthracene, d_{12} -perylene, 2,3',4,6-Cl₄B, $2,2',3,4',5\text{-}Cl_5B$, and $2,2',3,4,5,6'\text{-}Cl_6B$. The extracts were dried with anhydrous sodium sulfate (Na₂SO₄) and stored overnight at 0°C. Subsequently, samples were concentrated with a Kuderna-Danish apparatus or via rotary evaporation followed by N_2 blow down.

GC-MS

PED extracts were analyzed on a gas chromatograph **(GC;** Hewlett Packard **6890** Series) -mass spectrometer **(MS; JEOL** MS-GCmate). The extracts **(1** pl) were injected splitless and separated on a J&W Scientific (Folsom, CA) 30 m x 0.32 mm DB-5 (0.25 μ m film thickness) fused-silica capillary column. For PCBs (e.g., PCB *#52),* the injection port was at **300'C,** and the GC-temperature program started at **70'C,** ramped at 20'C/min to **¹⁸⁰ 0C,** increased **by** 40C/min to **2600C,** reached **280'C** in a minute where it was held for 4

min. For PAHs (e.g., pyrene), the injection port was at **280'C,** and **GC** was temperature programmed from **70'C** to **180'C** at 20*"C/min* and continued to **3000C** at 60 C/min.

The **MS** was operated at a resolution of **500** in **EI+** mode and selected ion monitoring **(SIM)** was used. PCBs and PAHs were quantified relative to the internal recovery standards. Pyrene was quantified relative to the d_{12} -benz(a)anthracene, pterphenyl, or d_{14} -terphenyl recovery standards. PCB $#52$ was quantified relative to the 2,3',4,6-Cl4B recovery standard. Recoveries were calculated relative to the injection standard (p-terphenyl or m-terphenyl).

The concentration of pyrene and PCB *#52* present in the water was calculated **by** first subtracting off the mass of the respective chemicals measured in the blanks (Table 4.4). Pyrene blanks never exceeded **2.9%** of the mass measured in the water sampling **PED** and averaged **0.89 ± 0.76%** and **0.69 ± 0.75%** during the April **1999** and October 2000 campaigns, respectively. The PCB *#52* blanks during the April **1999** campaign averaged 14 **± 10%** of the mass measured in the water sampling **PED** with the highest percentage measured at **33%.** The PCB **#52** blanks during the October campaign were much smaller averaging **0.33 ± 0.25%** and ranging from **0.01** to **1.0%** of the mass measured in the sample.

The concentrations of dissolved pyrene and PCB **#52** present in the water column were calculated using their respective polyethylene-water partition coefficients (K_{PEW}; Table 2.2) adjusted for temperature and salinity and temperature-adjusted diffusivities (Table **2.3).** This method is presented in Chapter 2.

Total Suspended Solids

Because the turbidity probe broke during the April campaign, only filtered water samples were used to estimate the total suspended solids **(TSS).** During the October campaign, filtered water samples as well as Hydrolab turbidity measurements were collected. After the April campaign, each folded filter was transferred to a new aluminum foil envelope as the salt in the samples had begun to corrode the foil. The filters were first weighed, and then placed in a small utility oven (Model **1300U;** VWR Scientific, So. Plainfield, **NJ)** at **70'C** in order to dry. They were weighed each of the two following days until they had reached a constant weight indicating that they were dry. The average weight of five different clean filters was used to subtract from the total weight to calculate the mass of solids present. In order to correct for the additional mass of the salt present on the April filters, water was added to a pre-weighed, clean filter until it was saturated. The mass of the pre-weighed filter was subtracted from the saturated filter mass in order to calculate the mass of water present at saturation. The density of water was used to calculate the volume of water present, and using the salinity of the water, the additional mass due to salt was calculated. The salt mass was estimated to be between 12 and **87 %** of the total suspended solid mass (including salt), depending on the salinity of the water.

The Hydrolab turbidity sensor consists of an infrared emitter and a photodiode detector. The sensor measures the intensity of light scattered at 90[°] from an infrared light source of **880** nm. The turbidity sensor was calibrated with clean water **(0** mg/L) and a **100** mg/L kaolinite suspension in water. However, the corresponding filtered samples were measured to have consistently higher total suspended solids than the Hydrolab-measured samples. It is suspected that the kaolinite solution may not be representative of the

suspended solids observed in the Hudson Estuary. **A** correlation between filter-measured and Hydrolab-measured **TSS** (Filter-measured **TSS =** 1.67*Hydrolab-measured **TSS +** 39.5; $R^2 = 0.96$) was used to estimate the true TSS concentrations from Hydrolab measurements.

Organic and Black Carbon Analysis

Both sediments and **TSS** filters were analyzed for organic carbon **(OC)** and black carbon (BC). The sediment samples were ground with a mortar and pestle, and both sediments and filters were dried at **700C.** The dried filters were subsampled with a 4 **mm**diameter cork-borer. The filter subsamples and sediments were added to tared silver capsules **(D2029, 8** x *5* mm; Elemental Microanalysis Ltd., Manchester, **NH)** and weighed using an electrical microbalance (Cahn **25** Automatic Electrobalance; Ventron Corp., Cerritos, **CA).** In order to remove inorganic carbon, low-carbon water and **1** M **HCl** were added directly to the capsules following the procedure outlined **by** Gustafsson et al. *(58).* The samples were analyzed with a PE 2400 **CHN** elemental analyzer (Perkin Elmer Corp., Norwalk, CT). The instrument detection limit was approximately 3 μ g of C per input. Response factors were determined using an acetanilide standard. The relative standard deviation of these response factors within batches was **± 0.3%.** Blanks were prepared for each batch of samples; the average blank was $4.7 \pm 1.2 \mu$ g of C (n=5).

Portions of the remaining dried filter and sediment samples were added to preweighed and low-carbon-water rinsed porcelain crucibles with a silica glazed surface (Coors Ceramics, Golden, **CO).** The black carbon analysis procedure developed **by** Gustafsson et al. *(58)* was used to remove the "non-black" organic carbon. The crucibles with samples were placed into a muffle furnace (Thermolyne Model **F-A1730)** equipped

with an auxiliary temperature controller (Thermolyne Furnatrol **133,** Sybron Corp., Dubuque, **IA)** and covered with precombusted aluminum foil. The samples were oxidized in the presence of air for 24 hours at **³⁷⁵ 0C.** After the samples had cooled, the same method outlined above for the removal of inorganic carbon was followed, and the samples were analyzed with the PE 2400 **CHN** analyzer as discussed above.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Temperature and Salinity

The estuary is more strongly stratified during the neap tides than during the spring tides (Figures 4.2 **&** 4.3). **A** significant vertical salinity gradient was observed during both the April **1999 and** October 2000 neap tides. For example, the average surface salinity (2 m depth) at the **SS** was **9** psu, while the average bottom-water salinity was **27** psu during the neap tide in April **1999.** The vertical salinity gradient during spring tides was much smaller than the gradient observed during neap tides. During the spring tide in April **1999,** the average salinity at 2 m was 21 psu, while the average salinity in the bottom waters was 22 psu.

Temperature variations within the estuary were less dramatic than the salinity gradients. The temperature difference along the vertical ranged from **0** to **0.7*C.** The greatest vertical temperature gradient was observed at the **NS** during the April **1999** neap tide. At this time, the surface temperature was **8.8"C** while the bottom-water temperature was 8.1^oC. In general, the spring tide vertical temperature gradient was smaller (i.e., 0 to **0. 1"C)** with the largest vertical temperature gradient at the **SS,** where the temperature difference was **0.2"C** in April **1999** and **0.6⁰ C** in October 2000. The along-estuary

temperature difference (from the **NS** to the **SS)** was as large as 1.4*C during the April **1999** neap tide. In April, the harbor waters were colder than those upstream at the **NS.** In contrast, the surface-water temperatures measured during the October 2000 spring tide increased from the **NS** to the **SS.** Perhaps most noticeable is the temperature difference between the April and October campaigns where April water temperatures were between **7** and **9"C** and October temperatures were between **16** and **17'C.**

Total Suspended Solids

The total suspended solid **(TSS)** concentration was found to increase during flood and ebb tide and drop to smaller levels during slack tide (Figure 4.4). This was most noticeable in the bottom waters **(6.5** to **8** m depth) suggesting that presently resuspended sediments were responsible for the increased **TSS.** For example, approximately an hour before maximum flood, the **TSS** concentration was **680** mg/L at **7.9** m depth. Approximately one hour before slack tide, the **TSS** had dropped to **60** mg/L. Subsequently, at maximum ebb, the **TSS** at **6.9** m depth increased to **1000** mg/L. The average **TSS** over the course of the tidal cycle was **390** mg/L. These significant fluctuations in **TSS** illustrate the importance of the tidal cycle on sediment resuspension as well as the temporal variability within the estuary.

A much smaller **TSS** variability was observed at 2 m depth. At maximum flood, **TSS** at 2 m was **76** mg/L, while at slack tide it had dropped to **50** mg/L. The **TSS** levels increased to 120 mg/L at maximum ebb. The tidally-averaged **TSS** at 2 m depth was **71** mg/L. **TSS** was observed to increase with depth at the other sites during flood and ebb tides (Figures 4.5b&c). There is an increase in **TSS** with increasing depth at the **NETM** during both ebb and flood tide and at the **NS** during flood tide. As expected, the **TSS**

concentrations in the bottom waters at the **NS** are not as high as those in the **NETM** bottom waters during flood tide. The **TSS** concentrations measured during slack tide at the **SS** change very little over depth as is the case for the **TSS** during slack tide at the **NS** (Figures *4.5a&c).* Again, the influence of tidal cycle on **TSS** is apparent. Geyer et al. **(81)** also observed increases in **TSS** with depth as well as with flood and ebb tide.

Filtered water samples also showed an increase in **TSS** with depth (Tables 4.6 **&** 4.7). For example, the **TSS** concentration at 2 m depth at the **SS** during spring tide in April was **68** mg/L, while the **TSS** at **7.9** m at the same location and time was 120 mg/L. In agreement with observations **by** Geyer et al. **(81)** the bottom-water neap-tide **TSS** during a changing tide (ebb tide at the **SS)** was six times smaller than the bottom-water spring-tide **TSS** during a changing tide (flood tide at the **SS).** Also in agreement with the observations of other researchers **(7,81)** the **SETM** had higher **TSS** levels than the **NS** and the **SS** during flood and ebb tides during the spring tide of April **1999,** illustrating why it is called the Southern *Estuarine Turbidity Maximum.* Fewer comparisons can be made with the October 2000 filtered **TSS** as they are all spring tide measurements and the **SS** and **NS** samples were collected during slack tide in contrast to the **SETM** and **NETM** samples which were collected during flood and ebb tides. As observed in April **1999,** the increasing turbidity with depth is apparent at the three sites where multiple samples were collected at varying depths.

Organic and Black Carbon

The percentage of **OC** measured in **TSS** samples collected in April **1999** ranged from 1.5 to 13% (Tables 4.6 & 4.7) with an average of 4.2 ± 2.9 % OC. The percentage of organic carbon measured on October 2000 **TSS** ranged from 2.0 to 4.7% with an average of **3.3 ± 0.9%.** As the mass of the April filters was corrected for with an estimate of salt content, there **is** greater error associated with these values. This may explain the larger standard deviation associated with the average; however, it is also possible that the suspended **OC** was more variable within the estuary. The suspended **OC** percentages measured in this study are comparable to those measured **by** Achman et al. **(3)** approximately 11 km north of the Battery in **1992** and **1993.** Their average **TSS OC** percentages ranged from $3.24 \pm 0.52\%$ to $4.07 \pm 0.12\%$.

The **TSS** were measured to contain between **0.08** and *0.25%* BC in April **1999** with an average of **0.13 ±** *0.05%.* In October 2000, the few **TSS** samples measured were found to range from **<0.3** to *0.5%* BC. These values are comparable to sediment black carbon percentages measured in the East River in August **1996 by** Mitra et al. **(6).** These researchers found the black carbon percentages ranging from **0.25** to *0.55%.* The percentages of BC in **TSS** measured in this study are up to an order of magnitude lower than the percentage of BC measured in **TSS** samples collected in the Mississippi River and the Gulf of Mexico in April and November of **1999** *(85).* These researchers measured between 0.47 and **7.8%** BC in **TSS.** However, they also measured high percentages of **OC** in the **TSS;** the **TSS** contained between 24 and **32% OC.** The Mississippi River **TSS** appears to have contained a much higher percentage of **OC** and BC than the Hudson River **TSS** we measured.

Dissolved Spring and Neap Pyrene and PCB *#52*

PED-measured dissolved pyrene concentrations in the lower estuary ranged from **1** to **10** ng/L during the April **1999** sampling campaign (Figure 4.6). The dissolved pyrene concentrations measured during the October 2000 campaign ranged from *5* to **60** ng/L (Figure

4.7). The October concentrations were an order of magnitude greater than the April concentrations in several locations within the estuary. The dissolved pyrene concentrations measured in this study are comparable to values measured in New York Harbor at the mouth of the Hudson River in July **1998** using an XAD-2 resin **[10 & 16** ng/L; **(86)].** They are also similar to "dissolved" pyrene measured in filtered water samples taken south of the Harlem River [nearest to the **NETM; (87)]** where pyrene values ranged from 11 to **19** ng/L in these filtered water samples collected between December **1998** and October 2001.

PED-measured PCB *#52* concentrations ranged from 4 to **300 pg/L** during the April **1999** sampling campaign (Figure 4.8). The October 2000 concentrations ranged from **100** to 400 **pg/L** (Figure 4.9). As with pyrene there was an order of magnitude increase in PCB *#52* concentrations at multiple locations between April **1999** and October 2000. These values are comparable to measurements **by** Totten et al. **(88)** in New York Harbor at the mouth of the Hudson River in July **1998** using an XAD-2 resin. Totten et al. measured **237** and **275 pg/L** concentrations for PCB **# 52 &** 43; however as PCB #43 is present at less than *0.05%* in all Aroclor mixtures **(89),** the measured concentration is likely to be predominantly PCB **#52.** XAD-measured PCB *#52* water concentrations south of the Harlem River collected between December **1998** and October 2001 ranged from **11** to 340 **pg/L (87).** The PED-measured dissolved concentrations for additional PAHs (phenanthrene and benzo(a)pyrene) and PCBs *(#95, #105,* and **#128)** are presented in Appendix B.

Estuarine Activity

In order to study the importance of sediment resuspension, pyrene and PCB **#52** dissolved concentrations during both the neap and spring tides were examined with respect to salinity (Figures $4.10 - 4.13$). In the absence of a source or a sink for the chemical, the

physical mixing of the river and ocean waters will result in a linear or conservative relationship. **If** all other sources and sinks of the chemical of interest remain constant during the spring and neap tides, a non-conservative behavior may be attributed to sediment resuspension. The dissolved pyrene concentration in the mid-salinity region of the estuary increased between spring and neap tides (Figure 4.10). This suggests that the sediment resuspension observed in the lower Hudson Estuary may be a source of dissolved pyrene to the estuary. In contrast, during the October sampling campaign, the along-estuary mixing appeared much more conservative (Figure **4.11).** The largest dissolved concentration during the October neap tide was in the **SS** surface water, which is not an area of significant sediment resuspension. The October spring tide dissolved pyrene-salinity correlation is linear suggesting conservative behavior. During October the pyrene concentrations appear to be highest at the **SS** suggesting that the harbor waters may be a source of pyrene to the estuary.

It is important to note, that because the spring tide waters are more vertically wellmixed, spring tide mixing diagrams are more conducive to identifying sources and sinks within the estuary. The vertical stratification present during the neap tides, provides for a more pronounced bottom-water saltwater intrusion at the Battery **(SS),** and a freshwater outflow on the surface of the estuary. This stratification provides for a much different water path throughout the estuary than the path observed during spring tides. Consequently, sources and sinks are more difficult to identify with a mixing diagram.

During April **1999** the PCB *#52* concentration in the mid-salinity region of the estuary appears to decrease between neap and spring tides (Figure 4.12). This may suggest that PCB *#52* is being scavenged **by** the resuspended sediments, which are serving as a sink. The surface concentrations measured during the neap tide are larger than the concentrations at greater depth

with the exception of the **NS** sample at 3-m depth. One could hypothesize that during the neap tide when there is less resuspension and the estuary is vertically stratified, the PCB **#52** in the bottom salty layer is being scavenged **by** particles. Then during spring tide and increased sediment resuspension, the PCB **#52** at the **SETM** is scavenged further resulting in the small concentrations at all depths.

The dissolved PCB #52-salinity correlation in October 2000 is much more linear (Figure 4.13). Consequently, it is difficult to point to either a source or a sink for PCB **#52** within the estuary. Interestingly, for both April **1999** and October 2000 the upper river appears to be the source of PCBs to the estuary. This finding may suggest that the PCB "hot spots" approximately **300** km upriver are affecting PCB loading into the lower estuary.

Sediment Concentrations

Two sediment samples from the **SETM** were collected in April and June **1999.** The pyrene concentration was **1600** ng/g in both samples (Table 4.7). Sediment at the **SS,** the **SETM,** and the **NS** were collected again in October 2000 and measured to have pyrene concentrations ranging from **330** to 4200 ng/g (Table 4.8). Consistent with a harbor source, the sediment concentrations are greatest at the mouth of the river and decreased moving landward up river. There appears to have been a decrease in the sediment concentration over time, which may suggest that the sediment is indeed a source of pyrene to the overlying waters. However, Woodruff et al. **(9)** observed a seasonal progression in the spatial distribution of sedimentation with sediment accumulating near the mouth during the spring freshet period (April **'99),** and as the freshet abated, the new sediment being eroded and re-deposited further landward at the **SETM** (June **'99).** This sediment transport may also explain the change in pyrene sediment concentrations over time. These sediment concentrations are comparable to

the **1300** and **1700** ng/g of pyrene measured at *2.5* cm depth approximately *5* km north of the Battery in **1977 (90).** This study's values are also comparable to the surface sediment pyrene concentration measured in the East River in August **1996** (2000 ng/g) **by** Mitra et al. **(6).**

PCB *#52* sediment concentrations at the **SETM** were **32** and **31** ng/g in April and June, respectively. Sediment collected in October 2000 at the same site was found to have **16** and **¹⁸** ng/g of PCB#52. Again, there appears to have been a decrease in the **PCB** *#52* sediment concentration with time. In light of the sediment movement observed **by** Woodruff et al. **(9),** this decrease may be explained **by** the movement of "cleaner" sediment from the harbor. The PCB *#52* sediment concentrations measured here are comparable to PCB *#52* surface sediment concentrations measured **by** Long et al. **(91)** along the lower estuary in **1991** ranging from 21 to *55* ng/g.

Between 2.2 and **2.9%** organic carbon **(OC)** was measured in the **1999** sediment samples. These values are smaller than the percentage **OC** measured in the **TSS** at this site. Interestingly, however, the bottom-most TSS-associated organic carbon **(3.6%)** is the most similar in value. The percentage of black carbon in the **SETM** sediment was 0.20 and 0.21%. This value is greater than the TSS-associated black carbon measured at this site **(0.08 - 0.11%).** Similar to the **1999** values, sediment **OC** ranged from **2.6** to **3.0%** organic carbon in the October 2000 sediment samples. The percentage of black carbon (BC) measured in the October sediments ranged from 0.34 to **0.79%.** The relatively large BC percentage measured at the **SS (0.79%)** is not surprising given this site's urban nature and high boat traffic.

Estimated and Measured Dissolved Concentrations

In order to determine the direction of the thermodynamic driving force between the sediment and the overlying water, dissolved pyrene and PCB *#52* concentrations were

estimated and compared to the PED-measured dissolved concentrations. First the sediment concentrations and the appropriate partitioning coefficient were used to estimate the porewater concentration in the sediment:

$$
C_{\text{porewater}} = \frac{C_S}{K_d} \tag{4.1}
$$

where C_{power} is the dissolved porewater concentration ($\mu g/L$), C_S is the sediment concentration (μ g/kg), and K_d is the solid-water partition coefficient (L/kg) and is estimated according to the following *(59):*

$$
K_d = f_{OC}K_{OC} + f_{BC}K_{BC}C_w^{(v-1)}
$$
\n(4.2)

where f_{OC} is the weight fraction of organic carbon in the solid phase, K_{OC} is the OCnormalized partitioning coefficient ($[mo]/kg_{OC}]/[mol/L]$), f_{BC} is the weight fraction of BC is the solid phase, K_{BC} ([μ g/kg_{BC}]/[μ g/L]^v) is the BC-water partition coefficient, C_W is the dissolved concentration (μ g/L), and ν is the Freundlich exponent appropriate for the specific BC-chemical pairing of interest. The porewater concentration was solved for iteratively because the solid-water partition coefficient is a function of the dissolved or porewater concentration. The f_{OC} and f_{BC} were measured (see above). A log K_{OC} value of 4.7 (69,70) was used for pyrene calculations, and a $\log K_{OM}$ value of 4.9 (42) and f_{OM} estimated as 2 times f_{OC} was used for PCB #52 calculations. K_{OC} values were adjusted for temperature affects according to the following (42):

$$
K_{OC}(T_2) = K_{OC}(T_1) \left\{ \frac{\Delta H_s^e}{R} \left(\frac{1}{T_1} - \frac{1}{T_2} \right) \right\}
$$
 (4.3)

where ΔH_s^e is the excess enthalpy of solution in water (kJ/mol), *R* is the gas constant (kJ/molK), and *T* is the absolute temperature (K). The ΔH_s^{e} 's used for pyrene and PCB
#52 were **29** and 12 kJ/mol, respectively (as measured in Chapter #2). Log *KBC* (6.4 for pyrene and **5.9** for PCB **#52)** values were measured **by** Lohmann et al. **(72)** in the same sediment collected at the **SETM** in October 2000. As Lohmann et al. used a *v* of **0.7,** this value has been used in the calculations here as well.

Pyrene porewater concentrations estimated with this method for April **1999** are over an order of magnitude greater than PED-measured bottom-water pyrene concentrations, suggesting a driving force out of the sediment (Table 4.9). This finding is consistent with the non-conservative behavior observed in the pyrene mixing diagram (Figure **4.10).** The pyrene porewater concentration estimated for October is similar to the values measured in the bottom-waters, suggesting that the sediments and water may be close to equilibrium. This too is consistent with the conservative mixing behavior observed previously (Figure 4.11).

PCB **#52** porewater concentrations estimated from sediment measurements in April **1999** are at least an order of magnitude greater than the PED-measured bottom water concentrations (Table **4.10).** This finding suggests a gradient out of the sediments to the overlying water. However, this is contrary to the non-conservative mixing observed in the PCB **#52** mixing diagram where the estuary appeared to be serving as a sink. The PCB **#52** porewater concentrations estimated for October 2000 are similar in magnitude to the measured bottom water concentrations. In October, there may be a small driving force out of the sediment. These October estimates support the conservative behavior observed in the dissolved PCB #52-salinity correlation (Figure 4.13).

In order to assess the importance of desorption kinetics, the fraction of chemical desorbed was solved for according to the analytical solution for diffusion into a well-stirred bath with particles that are uniform in size **(36):**

$$
\frac{M_t}{M_{\infty}} = 1 - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{6\alpha(\alpha+1)\exp(-D_{\text{eff}}q_n^2t/a^2)}{9+9\alpha+q_n^2\alpha^2}
$$
(4.4)

where M_t and M_∞ are the total amount of chemical in the water at time *t* and at infinite time, respectively (M), $D_{\textit{eff}}$ is the effective intraparticle diffusivity (L^2/T), *t* is time (T), and *a* is the particles' spherical radius (L). The values of q_n are the non-zero positive roots of:

$$
\tan(q_n) = \frac{3q_n}{3 + \alpha q_n^2} \tag{4.5}
$$

and α is the ratio of the volume of solution to the mass of solids divided by the partition coefficient:

$$
\alpha = \frac{1}{K_d[TSS]}
$$
\n(4.6)

The D_{eff}/a^2 used for pyrene was 1.0E-7 s⁻¹ (see Chapter 3). The smallest of the D_{eff}/a^2 values measured in Chapter **3** was used in order to get a limiting case estimate. The *Deff* for PCB *#52* was estimated according to **(23):**

$$
D_{\text{eff}} = \frac{D_m n^2}{K_d (1 - n) \rho_s} \tag{4.7}
$$

where D_m is the pore fluid diffusivity of the sorbate (cm²/s), *n* is the porosity of the sorbent (cm³ of fluid/cm³ total), and ρ_s is the specific gravity of the sorbent (g/cm³). A D_m of 4.8 E-6 $\text{cm}^2\text{/s}$ (estimated according to (42)), an *n* of 0.13 (23), a ρ_s of 2.66 g/cm³ (Chapter 3), and a K_d of 16,000 L/kg were used to estimate a D_{eff} of 2.2 E-12 cm²/s for PCB #52.

Assuming an average particle radius of $32 \mu m$, the D_{eff}/a^2 calculated for PCB #52 was 2.2 E-7 s^{-1} . The TSS concentration was assumed to be 390 mg/L, the K_d 's for pyrene and PCB *#52* were **27,000** and **16,000 L/kg,** respectively.

Assuming an April spring tide residence time of *2.5* days (74), and an October spring tide residence time of 4.6 days [estimated **by** scaling according to the ratio of freshwater discharge in April 1999 (26,600 ft³/s) to freshwater discharge in October 2000 $(14,400 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s})$; (92)], the percentage of equilibrium achieved was estimated to be between 94 and **98%** for both pyrene and PCB *#52.* This finding suggests that the desorption of pyrene and PCB *#52* into the bottom-waters is not limited **by** the time for desorption. The estimated bottom water concentration including kinetics was estimated as the calculated equilibrium porewater concentration multiplied **by** the estimated fraction equilibrium (Tables 4.9 **& 4.10).** The combined equilibrium partitioning and desorption kinetics calculations suggest a thermodynamic gradient out of the sediments into the overlying water for pyrene and PCB *#52* in April **1999,** while suggesting little to no fugacity gradient between the sediments and water column in October 2000.

The apparent sediment-water disequilibrium in April **1999** and equilibrium in October 2000 along with the increase in pyrene and PCB *#52* dissolved concentrations from April to October may be explained **by** the seasonal sediment deposition observed **by** Woodruff et al.(9). They observed sediment deposition in the seaward reaches of the estuary during the freshet (April **1999)** followed **by** the "return" of this sediment, which was observed at the **SETM** in June **1999.** One may hypothesize that older sediment was exposed at the **SETM** during the freshet as sediment was re-deposited seaward. This newly exposed older sediment may not have had sufficient contact time with the overlying water

to equilibrate at the time of sampling. Consequently, the April **1999** sediments and water column were observed to be in disequilibrium. In contrast, the October sediments, which are believed to have been at the **SETM** since the previous June, had a significant span of time in which to equilibrate. This "extra" time may have allowed for the observed equilibrium between the sediment and water column and for the elevated pyrene and PCB *#52* concentrations observed in October 2000. These observations suggest the input of HOC's from the sediments (e.g. resuspension inputs) may be correlated with the seasonal movement of sediments within the estuary.

Magnitude of Sources and Sinks

The magnitude of the sources and sinks of pyrene and **PCB** *#52* in the estuary were estimated in April of **1999** and October 2000 where the control volume during spring tides was defined as the section of the river between the Northern Site and the Southern Site. During neap tides, the **NS** and **SS** were also defined as the end-points; however, only the sources and sinks to the bottom waters (4 m from the river bottom) were estimated during neap tides due the significant salinity stratification within the estuary. The following inputs and sources were estimated: **1)** desorption from or sorption to resuspended sediment, 2) advective fluxes over the Northern and Southern boundaries due to river flow, and **3)** diffusive fluxes across the sediment-water boundary layer from the underlying sediment. The following outputs and sinks were estimated: la) advective flux across the Northern and Southern boundaries, **1b)** advective fluxes from the bottom waters to the overlying waters (neap tide), and 2) air-water exchange (spring tides only).

The input and output due to river flow, *F* (M/T) was calculated as:

$$
F = Q \cdot C_w \tag{4.8}
$$

where Q is the tidally-averaged flow rate $(L³/T)$. A flow rate and salt balance including freshwater flow, **Qf,** along with Knudsen's relation applied to the landward side of the "box" were used to estimate Q 's into, out of, and between the two layers of the estuary for both neap and spring tides. Because the Hudson is a partially mixed estuary, it has a twolayer structure with freshwater at the surface overlying saline water at the bottom. In simplified terms, this dense saline water flows upriver, while the overlying fresh water flows downriver. This structure was used to create a simplified input **Q** at the bottom of the **SS,** an output **Q** at the surface of the **SS,** an input **Q** at the surface of the **NS,** and an input or output **Q** at the bottom of the **NS** depending on the distance of saltwater intrusion. Two additional Q 's were estimated with respect to transport between the top and bottom boxes. The freshwater flow rate was estimated at 1.4 times the discharge at Green Island [Troy, NY; (93)]. The estimated Q 's for neap and spring tides during April and October are presented in Appendix **C.** The *Cw's* were measured as discussed previously.

The input due to the diffusive flux, $D(M/T)$, across the sediment-water boundary was estimated as:

$$
D = \frac{D_m}{\delta_w} \left(\frac{C_s}{K_d} - C_w \right) \cdot A_{sed}
$$
 (4.9)

where δ_W is the diffusive boundary layer thickness at the sediment-water interface (L) and A_{sed} is the cross-sectional area over which the diffusive flux is occurring (L^2). C_W and C_S were measured. The D_m was estimated as 7.7 E-6 cm²/s (50)and 4.8 E-6 cm²/s (42)for pyrene and PCB **#52,** respectively. The diffusive boundary layer thickness was estimated

as 2 E-2 cm during both neap and spring tide. The δ_W is often between 2 E-2 and 1 E-1 cm thick and is dependent on the flow velocity of the overlying water and the surface topography of the sediment (94). Because of the larger velocities observed in the lower Hudson Estuary (95) , the lower value of this range was used in this model. K_d was estimated as discussed previously. *Ased* was estimated as **3.3 E7 m2.**

The input due to sediment resuspension, R (M/T) was estimated according to the following equation:

$$
R = \left(\frac{C_s}{K_d} - C_W\right) \cdot V_W \cdot \frac{M_t}{M_\infty} \tag{4.10}
$$

where V_w is the volume of water and M/M_∞ is the fraction of equilibrium that has been achieved and was solved according to **Eq.** 4.4. The *t* was assumed to be **1** day as the inputs were estimated on a g/day basis.

As approximately 20% of the estuary undergoes significant sediment resuspension, this portion was used to estimate input due to sediment resuspension. **A** tidally-averaged surface-water and a bottom-water **TSS** were estimated as **71** and **390** mg/L, respectively during spring tide based on the measurements made at the **SETM** on October **13,** 2000. The bottom-water **TSS** for neap tides was estimated as one-fifth of the spring tide value **(78** mg/L). It may be more appropriate to estimate the **TSS** in the estuary as a step function with **TSS** at **800** mg/L for **3** hr during max flood, followed **by TSS** *=* **50** mg/L for **3** hr during slack tide, etc. This would allow for the changing "driving force" or chemical potential within the estuary to be more accurately represented.

The output due to air-water exchange, $AW(M/T)$ was calculated according to:

$$
AW = v_{tot} \cdot C_W \cdot A_{surf} \tag{4.11}
$$

where v_{tot} is the water transfer velocity (cm/s), and A_{surf} is the surface area of the water. The v_{tot} used in the calculations were 4.0 E-4 cm/s and 7.9 E-4 cm/s for pyrene and PCB $#52$, respectively (42). v_{tot} is defined as:

$$
v_{tot} = \frac{z_w}{D_m} + \frac{z_a}{D_a K_H}
$$
 (4.12)

where z_w is the thickness of the stagnant water film at the air-water interface (cm), z_a is the thickness of the adjacent stagnant air boundary layer (cm), *Da* is the chemical's diffusion coefficient in air (cm²/s), and K_H is the Henry's Law constant (L_w/L_a) . The z_w was estimated as $5 E-3 cm$, and z_a as 0.1 cm. The z_w is a low estimate, which will allow for an upper value estimate of v_{tot} . The D_a 's used in the calculations were 4.9 E-2 cm²/s and 3.9 **E-2** cm2/s for pyrene and PCB *#52,* respectively and estimated according to Schwarzenbach et al. (42). The K_H 's were 3.6 E-4 and 1.2 E-2 L_a/L_w for pyrene and PCB #52, respectively (42). The surface area of the water was estimated as 4.0 E7 m^2 .

For pyrene during the April **1999** spring tide, the advective inputs and outputs are of similar magnitudes, and the inputs due to diffusive and sediment resuspension input are comparable (Table **4.11).** The output due to air-water exchange is two orders of magnitude lower than the other sources and sinks. The advective inputs and outputs during the April **1999** neap tide are also of similar magnitude. The sediment diffusive input during the April neap and spring tides were estimated to be equivalent; however, the neap diffusive input may in fact be smaller depending on the water velocity, and the resulting diffusive boundary layer thickness. The sediment resuspension input during the April neap tide was estimated to be approximately a factor of three less than sediment diffusive input. Much of this is due to the fact that only the desorption of pyrene from the suspended particles in the bottom waters of the estuary have been estimated during neap tide. This assumption seems

reasonable due to the stratified nature of the estuary during neap tides. During both tides in April **1999,** sediment resuspension and diffusive input appear to be the predominant inputs of pyrene to the estuary.

During the October spring tide, the advective inputs and outputs are again comparable to each other (Table 4.12). Again the sediment diffusive and resuspension inputs are of similar magnitude; however, they are approximately a factor of two smaller than the input estimated for the April **1999** spring tide. This is because the sediment and water are more closely equilibrated during October than April causing less of an input from the sediment. For the October neap tide bottom waters, the advective inputs are larger than the outputs; however, they are within a factor of two. Again, there is a decrease in the sediment diffusive and resuspension inputs between April and October neap tide. During the October neap tide, the input due to sediment resuspension is a factor of ten smaller than the input due to sediment boundary-layer diffusive input, which is again partially due to the assumption of a limited height of resuspension, and the consequent decrease in the mass of particles from which pyrene desorption was estimated. During spring tide in October 2000, the sediment diffusive and resuspension inputs are still the predominant sources of pyrene to the system; however they are less important than they were in April **1999.** Similarly, the input of pyrene due to diffusive and resuspension inputs have decreased between April and October. This decrease in sediment sources between April and October is the result of more closely equilibrated sediments and overlying waters present in October 2000.

As with pyrene, the April **1999** spring tide sources and sinks of PCB *#52* were also dominated **by** diffusive and sediment resuspension input (Table 4.13). The advective inputs are slightly larger *(15* vs. **6** g/day) than the advective outputs. Again, air-water

exchange does not appear to be an important sink. The neap tide advective input and output are again similar in magnitude. As in April **1999,** the neap tide sediment resuspension and diffusive input appear to be the dominant sources of PCB *#52* to the estuary with diffusive input three times greater than the input due to sediment resuspension **(39** vs. 12 g/day).

The October 2000 spring tide PCB *#52* sources appear to be dominated **by** sediment diffusive and resuspension inputs; however, these inputs are less than half of the April **1999** PCB *#52* spring input. Again, advective inputs and outputs are of comparable magnitudes **(92** vs. **110** g/day). Because of the elevated PCB *#52* concentrations within the estuary in October, air-water exchange is a larger sink that in was in April **1999 (8** g/day in October vs. *0.5* g/day in April). During the October 2000 neap tide, the PCB *#52* advective outputs were almost twice the advective inputs to the bottom waters. The sediment boundarylayer diffusive inputs appear to be the largest source of PCB *#52* to the October neap tide bottom waters. The input due to resuspension is about four times smaller than the diffusive input to the October 2000 neap tide waters. While sediment diffusion and resuspension appear to be the most important sources of PCB *#52* to the estuary, the importance of these sources appears to have diminished in October 2000 due to the more closely equilibrated sediments and overlying waters.

One-Box Model

Steady state was assumed, and **a** mass balance of the inputs and outputs was used to solve for the *Cw* within the spring tide estuary:

$$
C_{W} = \frac{F_{IN} + \frac{C_{S}}{K_{d}} \left(V_{W} \frac{M_{t}}{M_{\infty}} + \frac{D_{m}}{\delta_{W}} A_{sed} \right)}{Q_{OUT} + v_{tot} A_{surf} + V_{W} \frac{M_{t}}{M_{\infty}} + \frac{D_{m}}{\delta_{W}} A_{sed}}
$$
(4.13)

where F_{IN} is the advective input (M/T) and Q_{OUT} is the water flow rate out of the system $(L³/T)$. During the neap tide, the C_W within the bottom waters of the estuary were calculated in a similar manner:

$$
C_{w} = \frac{F_{\scriptscriptstyle{IV}} + \frac{C_{\scriptscriptstyle{S}}}{K_{\scriptscriptstyle{d}}}\left(V_{\scriptscriptstyle{W}}\frac{M_{\scriptscriptstyle{L}}}{M_{\scriptscriptstyle{\infty}}} + \frac{D_{\scriptscriptstyle{m}}}{\delta_{\scriptscriptstyle{W}}}\frac{A_{\scriptscriptstyle{sed}}}{\delta_{\scriptscriptstyle{W}}}\right)}{Q_{\scriptscriptstyle{OUT}} + V_{\scriptscriptstyle{W}}\frac{M_{\scriptscriptstyle{L}}}{M_{\scriptscriptstyle{\infty}}} + \frac{D_{\scriptscriptstyle{m}}}{\delta_{\scriptscriptstyle{W}}}\frac{A_{\scriptscriptstyle{sed}}}{\delta_{\scriptscriptstyle{W}}}}
$$
(4.14)

In this case air-water exchange is not considered, and Q_{OUT} includes the flow rate from the bottom waters to those above. The calculated C_W was then compared to the measured C_W in order to access the validity of the model (Tables 4.15 **&** 4.16). The measured *Cw* was estimated **by** averaging the PED-measured dissolved concentrations at the **SETM** for April **1999** and at the **SETM** and **NETM** for October 2000 within the appropriate control volume.

In April **1999** the estimated *Cw* for pyrene is about a factor of two larger than the measured value during the spring tide **(17** vs. **8.5** ng/L). Considering all of the parameters that were estimated, these numbers are in good agreement. During the neap tide the estimated pyrene *Cw* is over four times larger than the PED-measured value. The inconsistency between the estimated and observed *Cw's* may suggest that one of the sources has been over estimated or that there is a missing sink. As this model **did** not include sink terms for bio- or photodegradation, which may remove pyrene from the estuary, these processes may contribute to a missing sink. The greater discrepancy between the estimated and observed values during neap tide may indicate that the inputs due to

sediment resuspension were overestimated. For example, the estimated tidally-averaged **TSS** vales may be too high.

During the April **1999** neap tide, the estimated PCB *#52* concentration is four times larger than the PED-measured concentration. During the spring tide, the model overestimates the PCB *#52* concentration **by** almost a factor of **30.** This suggests that a source has been overestimated or that there is a missing sink. In light of the apparent driving force out of the sediments at the **SETM** and the apparent sink observed in the mixing diagram, "cleaner" sediments within the estuary may be scavenging PCB *#52* serving as the "missing sink." This hypothesis is further supported **by** the fact that sediment resuspension is greater during the spring than neap tides, and that there appears to be a larger sink for pyrene (only **8.7** ng/L) during the spring tide than during the neap tide **(61** ng/L).

As in April, the October 2000 estimated *Cw* for pyrene are about a factor of two larger than the measured C_W for spring tide, and the neap-tide estimated pyrene C_W is almost four times larger than the PED-measured value. Again considering all of the estimated parameters, the agreement is good; however, there could be a small missing sink (e.g., bio- or photodegradation) or a small overestimation of a source (e.g., an overestimate of the **TSS** during neap tide). The October 2000 estimates for PCB *#52 Cw's* are in good agreement (within 12% during spring tide and within *52%* during neap tide) with the **PED**measured C_w 's. In this case, the sources and sinks appear to have been modeled appropriately.

Implications

In April **1999** the sediments within the lower Hudson Estuary provided for the input of pyrene to the overlying waters. However, the sediments and water appear to have been more closely equilibrated during October 2000 suggesting that the sediments may have provided for a significantly smaller source of pyrene to the waters of the Hudson. With respect to PCB *#52,* mixing diagrams indicate that resuspended sediments may have provided a sink for dissolved PCB *#52* in April **1999;** however, selected sediment samples indicate that the sediment served as a source in April **1999.** One explanation may be the scavenging of PCB *#52* **by** cleaner sediments within the estuary. October 2000 PCB *#52* findings indicate that, as with pyrene, the sediments and waters of the lower Hudson are more closely equilibrated with respect to PCB *#52.*

Estimates of the magnitudes of the sources and sinks of pyrene and PCB *#52* to the lower Hudson Estuary indicate that in April **1999,** the largest sources of these chemicals was due to sediment diffusive and resuspension input. Again, in October, diffusive and resuspension provided for the largest input; however, more closely equilibrated October sediments and water provided for a smaller input of both pyrene and PCB *#52* from the underlying sediments. The inputs due to these sources are of similar magnitude.

The April to October decrease in driving force observations may be explained **by** the removal of sediment during the spring freshet coupled to the exposure of older underlying sediments that did not have sufficient time to equilibrate with the overlying water column at the time of sampling. Sediment redeposited in June of **1999** had ample time in which to equilibrate with the overlying waters explaining the more closely equilibrated system observed in October 2000. This observation suggests that there may be

a seasonal trend in **HOC** inputs from underlying sediments. The dynamic changes in this estuarine system make the modeling the fate of HOCs within it a challenge. Further modeling that accounts for the dynamic as well as multi-dimensional nature of this system is needed in order to assess the fate of PAHs and PCBs within the lower Hudson Estuary.

Station	Date	Coordinates
Southern Site (SS; Battery)	April 9 – 18, 1999	40° 43.350' N 74° 01.666' W
	October $4 - 14$, 2000	40° 45.597' N 74° 00.931' W
Southern Estuarine Turbidity	April 9 – 18, 1999	40° 49.231' N 73° 58.210' W
Maximum (SETM)	October $4 - 14$, 2000	40° 49.209' N 73° 58.269' W
Northern Estuarine Turbidity		
Maximum (NETM)	October $4 - 14$, 2000	40° 53.297' N 73° 56.148' W
	April 9 – 18, 1999	40° 59.680' N 73° 53.799' W
Northern Site (NS; Hastings)	October $4 - 14$, 2000	40° 58.594' N 73° 54.175' W

Table **4.1.** Sampling dates and coordinates.

Station	Date		Length of Deployment (days)	Total Water Depth $(meters)^{a}$		PED "Depths" (meters from river bottom) ^b	
SS	April 1999 October 2000	Neap 2.90 1.68	Spring 3.13 1.77	Neap 12 15.5	Spring 12 15	Neap 9, 5.5, 3, 2, 1 2 (below surface), $2, 1$	Spring 10, 3.5, 1.5 2 (below surface), $2, 1$
SETM	April 1999 October 2000	2.79 2.03	2.88 1.78	9.7 8.8	10 9.4	6.7, 5.5, 3, 2, 1 2 (below surface), $2, 1$	8.0, 3.5, 1.5 2 (below surface), $2, 1$
NETM	October 2000	1.79	1.83	6.6	5.8	2 (below surface), $2, 1$	2 (below surface), $2, 1$
NS	April 1999 October 2000	3.00 1.70	1.96 1.86	11.5 8.5	10 7.3	8.5, 5.5, 3, 2, 1 2 (below surface), $2, 1$	8, 3, 1 2 (below surface), $2, 1$

Table 4.2. **PED** Depths and Length of Deployment.

^aTotal water depth is a function of tidal cycle with a tidal range of 1.2 to 1.6 m (95). ^bValue are meters from river bottom unless otherwise specified.

Station	- — — Date		Sampling Depth (meters from surface)				
		Neap Tide	Spring Tide				
	April 1999	1.8, 9.5, 10.5	2.0, 6.9, 7.9, 8.0, 8.9				
SS	October 2000		2, 12.7, 14 2, 13.9, 15				
SETM	April 1999 October 2000		3.0, 5.3, 6.3, 7.3 1.9, 6.9, 7.9				
NETM	October 2000		2.0, 3.7, 4.8 2, 5.5, 6.5				
	April 1999	2.1, 9.5, 10.5	3.0, 6.7, 7.7, 8.7				
NS	October 2000		2.0, 5.1, 6.3 2, 6.3, 7.3				

Table 4.3. Hydrographic and water sampling depths.

Table 4.4. Average **PED** blanks **1** s.d. as a percentage of the water-measured sample

Chemical	April 1999		October 2000	
	Average	Range	Average	Range
Pyrene	$0.89 \pm 0.76\%$	$0.086 - 1.9\%$	$0.69 \pm 0.75\%$	$0.023 - 2.9\%$
	$(n = 33)$		$(n = 34)$	
PCB #52	$14 \pm 10\%$	$3.6 - 33\%$	$0.33 \pm 0.25\%$	$0.10 - 1.0\%$
	$(n = 6)$		$(n = 32)$	

Neap or Spring Tide	Station	Depth (meters from surface)	Date	Time	Flood, Ebb, or Slack	Total Suspended Solids (mg/L)	Percent Organic Carbon	Percent Black Carbon
Neap Tide	SS	10.5	4/9/99	11:02 AM	Ebb	21	3.3	
Neap Tide	SS	10.7	4/9/99	afternoon	$---$	43	2.4	
Spring Tide	SS	$\overline{2}$	4/15/99	7:30 AM	Flood	68	1.9	0.10
Spring Tide	SS	6.9	4/15/99	7:25 AM	Flood	160	1.5	0.11
Spring Tide	SS	7.9	4/15/99	7:19 AM	Flood	120	1.8	0.15
Spring Tide	SETM	3	4/17/99	4:33 PM	Ebb	190	13	
Spring Tide	SETM	5.3	4/17/99	4:26 PM	Ebb	280	5.0	0.11
Spring Tide	SETM	6.3	4/17/99	4:18 PM	Ebb	320	4.6	0.08
Spring Tide	SETM	7.3	4/17/99	4:11 PM	Ebb	380	3.6	0.10
Spring Tide	NS	3	4/15/99	8:28 AM	Flood	110	6.9	0.25
Spring Tide	NS	6.7	4/15/99	$\sim 8:20$ AM	Flood	170	3.7	0.11
Spring Tide	NS	7.7	4/15/99	8:15 AM	Flood	220	4.0	0.16
Spring Tide	NS	8.7	4/15/99	8:10 AM	Flood	180	3.1	

Table 4.5. Total suspended solids, organic and black carbon in the lower Hudson Estuary in April **1999.**

Neap or Spring Tide	Station	Depth (meters from surface)	Date	Time	Flood, Ebb, or Slack	Total Suspended Solids (mg/L)	Percent Organic Carbon	Percent Black Carbon
Spring Tide	SS	12.7	10/12/00	6:11 PM	Slack	26	2.2	
Spring Tide	SETM	1.9	10/13/00	8:30 AM	Flood	82	2.0	< 0.3
Spring Tide	SETM	6.9	10/13/00	8:20 AM	Flood	320	2.9	< 0.3
Spring Tide	SETM	7.9	10/13/00	8:05 AM	Flood	640	3.7	0.5
Spring Tide	NETM	2.0	10/12/00	3:00 PM	Ebb	180	3.6	
Spring Tide	NETM	3.7	10/12/00	2:52 PM	Ebb	300	4.6	
Spring Tide	NETM	4.8	10/12/00	2:42 PM	Ebb	420	4.7	
Spring Tide	NS	2.0	10/12/00	1:20 PM	Slack	26	3.5	
Spring Tide	NS	5.1	10/12/00	1:05 PM	Slack	44	3.0	
Spring Tide	NS.	6.3	10/12/00	12:49 PM	Slack	66	3.2	

Table 4.6. Total suspended solids, organic and black carbon in the lower Hudson Estuary in October 2000.^a

aThese values were measured **by** Rainer Lohmann.

Location and Date	Sediment Depth (cm)	Pyrene (ng/g)	PCB #52 (ng/g)	Percent organic carbon	Percent black carbon
S. ETM, April 1999	$0 - 2$	1600	32	2.2	0.21
S. ETM, June 1999	$0 - 2$	1600	31	2.9	0.20

Table 4.7. Pyrene, PCB *#52,* organic carbon, and black carbon measured in lower Hudson Estuary sediments in April and June **1999.**

Table 4.8. Pyrene, PCB *#52,* organic carbon, and black carbon measured in lower Hudson Estuary sediments in October 2000.

Location and Date	Sediment Depth (cm)	Pyrene (ng/g)	PCB #52 (ng/g)	Percent organic carbon	Percent black carbon
Southern Site, Oct. 2000	$0 - 1$	4200		3.0 ^a	$0.79^{\rm a}$
S. ETM, Oct. 2000 S. ETM, Oct. 2000	$0 - 1$ $1 - 2$	840 1500	16 18	2.6^b 2.6^b	0.34^b 0.34^{b}
Northern Site, Oct. 2000	$1 - 2$	330			

^aMeasured in our lab by Rainer Lohmann. ^bOrganic and black carbon measurements are for the 0-4 cm depth and were measured in our lab **(72).**

Chemical	Sediment concentration (ng/g)	Estimated solid- water partitioning coefficient (L/kg)	Estimated porewater concentration $(ng/L)^c$	Estimated fraction equilibrium ^a	Estimated bottom water concentration including kinetics $(ng/L)^e$	PED-measured bottom-water concentration $(ng/L)^{t}$
Pyrene	1600	$11{,}000^{\mathrm{a}}$	140	0.94	140	$3 - 10$
PCB #52	32	$15,000^{\rm b}$	2.1	0.95	2.0	$0.004 - 0.3$

Table 4.9. Estimated porewater concentration and the corresponding bottom-water concentration at the **SETM** in April **1999.**

^aEstimated with f_{oc} = 0.022 (measured), log K_{oc} = 4.7 (69), f_{BC} = 0.0021 (measured), log K_{BC} = 6.4 (72). ^bEstimated with f_{OM} = 0.044 (estimated as 2 times f_{OC} , log $K_{\text{OM}} = 4.90$ (42), $f_{\text{BC}} = 0.0021$ (measured), log $K_{\text{BC}} = 5.9$ (72). ^cEstimated as C_s/K_d. ^dEstimated according to Eq. 4.4 with residence time of 2.5 days, a mass-to-volume ratio of 390 mg/L and $K_d = 27,000$ L/kg for pyrene and $K_d = 16,000$ L/kg for PCB #52. ^eEstimated as the estimated porewater concentration multiplied **by** the estimated fraction equilibrium. fPED-measured concentration range during both neap and spring tides.

				ຼ			
Chemical	Sediment depth (cm)	Sediment concentration (ng/g)	Estimated solid- water partitioning coefficient (L/kg)	Estimated porewater concentration $(ng/L)^c$	Estimated fraction equilibrium ^d	Estimated bottom water concentration including kinetics $(ng/L)^e$	PED-measured bottom-water concentration $(ng/L)^t$
Pyrene	$0 - 1$	840	$25,000^a$	33	0.97	31	$20 - 30$
	$1 - 2$	1500	$20,000^a$	77	0.97	72	$20 - 30$
PCB #52	$0 - 1$	16	$31,000^b$	0.51	0.98	0.50	$0.2 - 0.3$
	-2	18	$30,000^{\rm b}$	0.59	0.98	0.58	$0.2 - 0.3$

Table **4.10.** Estimated porewater concentration and the corresponding bottom-water concentration at the **SETM** in October 2000.

^aEstimated with f_{oc} = 0.029 (measured), log K_{oc} = 4.7 (69), f_{BC} = 0.0034 (measured), log K_{BC} = 6.4 (72). ^bEstimated with f_{oM} = 0.058 (estimated as 2 times $f_{\rm OC}$), log $K_{\rm OM} = 4.90$ (42), $f_{\rm BC} = 0.0034$ (measured), log $K_{\rm BC} = 5.9$ (72). ^cEstimated as C_s/K_d . ^dEstimated according to Eq. 4.4 with residence time of 4.6 days, a mass-to-volume ratio of 390 mg/L and $K_d = 27,000$ L/kg for pyrene and $K_d = 16,000$ L/kg for PCB #52. ^eEstimated as the estimated porewater concentration multiplied **by** the estimated fraction equilibrium. fPED-measured concentration range during both neap and spring tides.

Table **4.11.** Magnitude of the sources and sinks of pyrene to the lower Hudson Estuary in April **1999a**

^aNeap tide sources and sinks are only for the bottom-water box.

Table 4.12. Magnitude of the sources and sinks of pyrene to the lower Hudson Estuary in October 2000^a

^aNeap tide sources and sinks are only for the bottom-water box.

^aNeap tide sources and sinks are only for the bottom-water box.

Table 4.14. Magnitude of the sources and sinks of PCB **#52** to the lower Hudson Estuary in October 2000^a

^aNeap tide sources and sinks are only for the bottom-water box.

		Spring Tide	Neap Tide		
Chemical	Mass-balance	PED-measured	Mass-balance	PED-measured	
	estimated C_w^a	$\mathrm{Cw}^{\mathfrak{b}}$	estimated C_w^c	$\operatorname{Cw}^{\operatorname{d}}$	
Pyrene $\binom{ng}{L}$		8.5		3.4	
PCB #52 (pg/L)	230	8.7	270	61	

Table *4.15.* Mass-balance estimated Cw and PED-measured Cw for April **1999.**

^aCalculated according to Eq. 4.13. ^bThe average of the PED measurements in the vertical at the **SETM.** ^cCalculated according to Eq. 4.14. ^oThe average of the PED measurements in the bottom waters at the **SETM.**

Table 4.16. Mass-balance estimated C_W and PED-measured C_W for October 2000.

		Spring Tide	Neap Tide		
Chemical	Mass-balance	PED-measured	Mass-balance	PED-measured $\mathrm{C_{W}}^{\mathrm{d}}$	
	estimated C_w^a	Cw^o	estimated C_w^c		
Pyrene (ng/L)		13		16	
PCB #52 (pg/L)	280	250	440	290	

^aCalculated according to Eq. 4.13. ^bThe average of the PED measurements in the vertical at the SETM and NETM. ^cCalculated according to Eq. 4.14. ^dThe average of the PED measurements in the bottom waters at the **SETM** and **NETM.**

Figure **4.1.** Sampling locations in the lower Hudson Estuary. The first set of stations (circles): the Southern Site **(SS);** the Southern Estuarine Turbidity Maximum **(SETM);** and the Northern Site **(NS)** were sampled in April **1999.** The second set of stations (triangles): **SS, SETM,** the Northern Estuarine Turbidity Maximum **(NETM),** and **NS** were sampled in October 2000. The dark areas in the river are areas of high turbidity.

Figure 4.2. Average salinity (practical salinity units; bold numbers in white squares) and temperature **(*C;** regular font in shaded rectangles) in the lower Hudson Estuary during neap tide (April **9-11, 1999)** and spring tide (April *15-18,* **1999).** The neap tide depths (meters below the surface) are **1.8, 9.5,** and *10.5* at the Southern Site **(SS),** approximately 2, 6,and **7** at the Southern Estuarine Turbidity Maximum **(SETM)** and 2.1, **9.5,** and **10.5** at the Northern Site **(NS).** The spring tide depths (meters below the surface) are 2.0, **7.9,** and **8.9** at the **SS, 3.0, 6.3,** and **7.3** at the **SETM,** and **3.0, 7.7,** and **8.7** at the **NS.** The shaded contours depict typical salinity profiles in the estuary during neap and spring tides (74). During neap tide, the estuary is vertically stratified with the denser salty water (dark contours) on the bottom and the fresher (less-dense) water (lighter contours) on the surface. During the spring tide, the estuary becomes more vertically well-mixed, and an along estuary salinity gradient is more visible with the saltier waters (darker contours) are at the mouth of the river near the Battery and the fresher water (lighter contour) upstream.

Figure 4.3. Average salinity (practical salinity units; bold numbers in white squares) and temperature **(*C;** regular font in shaded rectangles) in the lower Hudson Estuary during neap tide (October 4-6, 2000) and spring tide (October 12-14, 2000). The neap tide depths (meters below the surface) are 2, **13,** and 14 at the Southern Site **(SS),** 2, 7,and **8** at the Southern Estuarine Turbidity Maximum **(SETM),** 2, 4, and **5** at the Northern Estuarine Turbidity Maxiumum **(NETM),** and 2, **5,** and **6** at the Northern Site **(NS).** The spring tide depths (meters below the surface) are 2, **12.7,** and 14 at the **SS, 1.9, 6.9,** and **7.9** at the **SETM,** 2.0, **3.7,** and 4.8 at the **NETM,** and 2.0, **5.1,** and **6.3** at the **NS.** The contours depict representative salinity gradients during the neap and spring tides in the estuary with darker shades representing saltier water and lighter shades depicting fresher water (74).

Figure 4.4. Total suspended solids **(TSS)** as a function of time at the **SETM** on **10/13/00** measured with the Hydrolab over the course of one tidal cycle. The **TSS** measured at between **6.5** and **8** m depth (diamonds) averaged **390** mg/L over the tidal cycle, while the **TSS** measured at approximately 2 m depth (squares) averaged **71** mg/L. The slack tide, maximum flood, and maximum ebb times are for the George Washington Bridge which is approximately 4 km upriver and were predicted with Xtide, a tide-prediction program.

Figure *4.5.* Total suspended solids concentrations at the Southern Site **(SS;** a), the Northern Estuarine Maximum **(NETM; b),** and the Northern Site **(NS;** c) as a function of depth. The **TSS** concentrations at the **SS** were measured during slack tide on 10/12/00 between **18:11** and **18:38** (solid diamond) and during slack tide on 10/14/00 between *13:54* and 14:22 (open diamonds). **TSS** was measured at the **NETM** during ebb tide on 10/12/00 between 14:41 and *15:07* (closed circles) and during flood tide on 10/14/00 between *10:55* and **11:13** (open circles). The **TSS** measurements at the **NS** were collected during slack tide on 10/12/00 between 12:48 and **13:22** (solid triangles) and during flood tide on 10/14/00 between *9:15* and **9:28** (open triangles).

Figure 4.6. PED-measured dissolved pyrene concentration (ng/L) in the lower Hudson Estuary during neap tide (April **9-11, 1999)** and spring tide (April *15-18,* **1999).** The neap tide depths (meters from the river bottom) are **9,** *5.5,* 2, and **1** at the Southern Site **(SS), 6.7,** 2, and **1** at the Southern Estuarine Turbidity Maximum **(SETM),** and **8.5, 5.5,** 2, and lat the Northern Site **(NS).** The spring tide depths (meters from the river bottom) are **10, 3.5,** and **1.5** at the **SS, 8, 3.5,** and *1.5* at the **SETM,** and **3** and **1** at the **NS.** Contours depict representative salinity gradients within the estuary during neap and spring tides with darker contours representing more saline water and the lighter contours depicting fresher water (74).

Figure 4.7. PED-measured dissolved pyrene concentration (ng/L) in the lower Hudson Estuary during neap tide (October 4-6, 2000) and spring tide (October 12-14, 2000). The upper-most PEDs are 2 m below the surface, and the deeper PEDs are 2 and 1 m from the river bottom. Unfortunately, the spring **PED** 2 m from the bottom at the Southern Estuarine Turbidity Maximum was contaminated. Contours depict representative salinity gradients within the estuary during neap and spring tides with darker contours representing more saline water and the lighter contours depicting fresher water (74).

Figure 4.8. PED-measured dissolved PCB *#52* concentration **(pg/L)** in the lower Hudson Estuary during neap tide (April **9-11, 1999)** and spring tide (April *15-18,* **1999).** The neap tide depths (meters from the river bottom) are **9, 3,** and **1** at the Southern Site **(SS), 6.7, 3,** and **1** at the Southern Estuarine Turbidity Maximum **(SETM),** and *8.5,* **3,** and lat the Northern Site **(NS).** The spring tide depths (meters from the river bottom) are **10,** *3.5,* and *1.5* at the **SS, 8,** *3.5,* and *1.5* at the **SETM,** and **3** and **1** at the **NS.** Contours depict representative salinity gradients within the estuary during neap and spring tides with darker contours representing more saline water and the lighter contours depicting fresher water (74).

Figure 4.9. PED-measured dissolved PCB **#52 (pg/L)** in the lower Hudson Estuary during neap tide (October 4-6, 2000) and spring tide (October 12-14, 2000). The uppermost PEDs are 2 m below the surface, and the deeper PEDs are 2 and **1** m from the river bottom. Unfortunately, the spring **PED** 2 m from the bottom at the Southern Estuarine Turbidity Maximum was contaminated. Contours depict representative salinity gradients within the estuary during neap and spring tides with darker contours representing more saline water and the lighter contours depicting fresher water (74).

Figure 4.10. Dissolved pyrene concentration (ng/L) as a function of salinity (psu) measured at the Northern Site (triangle), the **S.** ETM (square), and the Southern Site (diamond) during neap tide (a) and spring tide **(b)** during the April **1999** sampling campaign. "Error" bars in the x-direction depict the salinity range observed at this location. Error bars in the y-direction represent a **25%** measurement error.

Figure **4.11.** Dissolved pyrene concentration (ng/L) as a function of salinity (psu) measured at the Northern Site (triangle), the **N.** ETM (circle), the **S.** ETM (square), and the Southern Site (diamond) during neap tide (a) and spring tide **(b)** during the October 2000 sampling campaign. "Error" bars in the x-direction depict the salinity range observed at this location. Error bars in the y-direction represent a **25%** measurement error.

Figure 4.12. Dissolved PCB *#52* concentration (ng/L) as a function of salinity (psu) measured at the Northern Site (triangle), the **S.** ETM (square), and the Southern Site (diamond) during neap tide (a) and spring tide **(b)** during the April **1999** sampling campaign. "Error" bars in the x-direction depict the salinity range observed at this location. Error bars in the y-direction represent a *25%* measurement error.

Figure 4.13. Dissolved PCB *#52* concentration (ng/L) as a function of salinity (psu) measured at the Northern Site (triangle), the **N.** ETM (circle), the **S.** ETM (square), and the Southern Site (diamond) during neap tide (a) and spring tide **(b)** during the October 2000 sampling campaign. "Error" bars in the x-direction depict the salinity range observed at this location. Error bars in the y-direction represent a *25%* measurement error.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND AREAS OF FUTURE WORK

CONCLUSIONS

The overall goal of this thesis was to assess the importance of sediment resuspension to the input of PAHs and PCBs to the lower Hudson Estuary. In order to accomplish this, three areas of work were pursued: **1)** a passive sampler for the measurement of "truly dissolved" HOCs was developed; 2) the desorption kinetics of pyrene from native Hudson River sediments was measured and modeled with a physically-based desorption model (23,24); and **3)** the inputs of pyrene and PCB *#52* into the lower Hudson Estuary were examined with respect to sediment resuspension, and the resultant inputs were quantified.

Initial experiments indicate that PEDs are useful devices for the measurement of dissolved HOCs in the water column. Polyethylene is readily available in varying thicknesses and is inexpensive. K_{PEWS} can be estimated with K_{QWS} and adjusted for temperature and salinity. Diffusivities can be used to estimate the time for equilibrium. PEDs can be impregnated with internal standards so that the rate of desorption within the surrounding environment can be measured and used to correct for the uptake rate of the chemicals of interest.

As PEDs require days (depending on the chemical and temperature) to reach equilibrium with the surrounding water, they allow for a time-averaged measurement. This is useful for determining the level of pollutant exposure for organisms living in the sampled environment. Using different **PED** thicknesses will allow for the measurement of varying lengths of time. For example, decreasing the PED thickness from 80 to 40 μ m cuts the uptake time **by** *75%.*
The physically- and chemically-based model for effective diffusivity put forth **by** Wu and Gschwend (23,24) appears to be appropriate for estimating the desorption kinetics of pyrene in native sediments. Despite the fact that between **66** and **98%** of the pyrene is believed to have been desorbing from black carbon, the retarded radial diffusion model allowed for the estimation of an effective diffusivity that fit experimental results. An improved understanding of the pyrene desorption rates in native sediments is important for predicting pyrene inputs resulting from the disequilibrium observed between the pyrene fractions in the sediments and overlying water column.

In April **1999** the sediments within the lower Hudson Estuary provided for the input of pyrene into the overlying waters. However, the sediments and water appear to have been more closely equilibrated during October 2000 suggesting that the sediments may have provided for a significantly smaller source of pyrene to the waters of the Hudson. With respect to **PCB** *#52,* mixing diagrams indicate that resuspended sediments may have provided a sink for dissolved PCB *#52* in April **1999;** however, the limited sediment samples collected for this study indicate that the sediment served as a source in April **1999.** One explanation for this observation may be the scavenging of PCB *#52* **by** cleaner sediments within the estuary. October 2000 PCB *#52* findings indicate that, as with pyrene, the sediments and waters of the lower Hudson are more closely equilibrated with respect to PCB *#52.*

Estimates of the magnitudes of the sources and sinks of pyrene and PCB *#52* to the lower Hudson Estuary indicate that in April **1999,** the largest sources of these chemicals was due to sediment diffusive and resuspension input, which are of comparable magnitudes. The April to October decrease in driving force observations

145

may be explained **by** the removal of sediment during the spring freshet coupled to the exposure of older underlying sediments that did not have sufficient time to equilibrate with the overlying water column at the time of sampling. Sediment redeposited in June of **1999** had ample time in which to equilibrate with the overlying waters explaining the more closely equilibrated system observed in October 2000. This observation suggests that there may be a seasonal trend in **HOC** inputs from underlying sediments. The dynamic changes in this estuarine system make the modeling the fate of HOCs within it a challenge.

FUTURE WORK

As is often the case, the findings from this research have brought to light many areas where an improved understanding and, consequently, future work is needed. The following is a list of future work that should be pursued to further our understanding within each of the areas of study pursued here.

PEDs

 \bullet Further experiments are needed to explain the causes for increasing D_{PE} with time. The plasticizer theory could be further tested **by** measuring the pyrene sorption into a **PED,** and repeating the experiment with the same pyrene-sorbed **PED. If** the pyrene is acting as a plasticizer, one would expect to see less of an increase in uptake rate as the "plasticizer" concentration increases.

• The lower-than-literature D_{PE} 's measured in this study need to be further investigated. An additional method for D_{PE} measurement may remove sampling artifacts that are resulting in the lower-than-literature values.

146

- Further research is needed to verify that PEDs can be consistently impregnated with internal standards so that the rate of desorption within the surrounding environment can be measured and used to correct for the uptake rate of the chemicals of interest.

Desorption Kinetics

• The pyrene desorption experiment should be repeated with greater sampling points during the first 2 hr of the experiment, allowing for a more accurate measurement for the rate of pyrene desorption.

e Further pyrene desorption experiments should be performed with varying solidto-water ratios to verify and/or illustrate the importance of this parameter to desorption rates.

- Desorption experiments for PCB **#52** should be completed on native Hudson River sediments in order measure a desorption rate constant for this chemical as well as assess the validity of Wu and Gschwend (23,24) with respect to PCB's sorbed to native sediments.

Hudson Sediment-Water Exchange

***** Further modeling that accounts for the multi-dimensional nature of this system is needed in order to assess the fate of PAHs and PCBs within the lower Hudson Estuary. The model used here accounts for vertical variations on a limited scale, and does little to account for across river variability.

- **A** more representative model that accounts for the cyclic nature of sediment resuspension is needed to more accurately predict the input of HOCs due to sediment resuspension. **A** series of step functions (over a particular time window, e.g., a residence

147

time) representing the on-off nature of the tidal influence on resuspension events may be a good first step.

LITERATURE CITED

- **(1)** Karickhoff, **S.** W.; Brown, **D. S.;** Scott, T. **A. 1979.** Sorption of hydrophobic pollutants on natural sediments. *Water Res., 13,* 241-248.
- (2) Chen, H.-W. *Fluxes of Organic Pollutants from Sediments in Boston Harbor;* Massachusetts Institute of Technology: Cambridge, MA, **1993, pp** 145.
- **(3)** Achman, **D.** R.; Brownawell, B. **J.;** Zhang, L. **1996.** Exchange of polychlorinated biphenyls between sediment and water in the Hudson River Estuary. *Estuaries, 19, 950-965.*
- (4) Flores, **A. E.** *Assessing the Fate of PAHs in the Boston Inner Harbor Using Semipermeable Membrane Devices (SPMDs);* Massachusetts Institute of Technology: Cambridge, MA, **1998, pp** 121.
- **(5)** Petroni, R. **N.;** Israelsson, P. H. *Mass Balance of 3D Model of PAHs in Boston's Innner Harbor;* Massachusetts Institute of Technology: Cambridge, MA, **1998, pp** 224.
- **(6)** Mitra, **S.;** Dellapenna, T. M.; Dickhut, R. M. **1999.** Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon distribution within lower Hudson River estuarine sediments: physical mixing vs. sediment geochemistry. *Estuar Coast Shelf S, 49,* **311-326.**
- **(7)** Hirschberg, **D.;** Bokuniewicz, H. **J.** "Measurements of water temperature, salinity and suspended sediment concentrations along the axis of the Hudson River estuary **1980-198 1,"** Marine Sciences Research Center, State University of New York, Stony Brook, **1981.**
- **(8)** Geyer, W. R. "Final Report: Particle Trapping in the Lower Hudson Estuary," Hudson River Foundation, **1995.**
- **(9)** Woodruff, **J. D.;** Geyer, W. R.; Sommerfield, **C.** K.; Driscoll, **N.** W. 2001. Seasonal variation of sediment deposition on the Hudson River Estuary. *Marine Geology, 179, 105-119.*
- **(10)** Adams, R. **G.** *Sediment-Water Exchange of Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons in the Lower Hudson Estuary;* Massachusetts Institute of Technology: Cambridge, 2000, **pp** 112.
- **(11) U.S.EPA** "Technical basis for deriving sediment quality criteria for nonionic organic contaminants for the protection of benthic organisms **by** using equilibrium partitioning," **U.S. EPA** Office of Water, **1993.**
- (12) **U.S.EPA** "EPA's contaminated sediment management strategy.," **U.S. EPA** Office of Water, **1998.**
- **(13) N.O.A.A.** "Sediment Toxicity in **U.S.** Coastal Waters," National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, Coastal Monitoring and Bioeffects Division, Office of Ocean Resources Conservation and Assessment, Coastal Ocean Program, **1998.**
- (14) Baker, **J. E.;** Eisenreich, **S. J. 1989.** PCBs and PAHs as tracers of particulate dynamics in large lakes. *J. Great Lakes Res., 15,* 84-103.
- **(15)** Baker, **J. E.;** Eisenreich, **S. J.;** Eadie, B. **J. 1991.** Sediment trap fluxes and benthic recycling of organic carbon, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, and polychlorinated biphenyl congeners in Lake Superior. *Environ. Sci. Technol., 25,* **500-509.**
- **(16)** Sanders, **G.;** Hamilton-Taylor, **J.;** Jones, K. **C. 1996.** PCB and PAH dynamics in a small rural lake. *Environ. Sci. Technol., 30, 2958-2966.*
- **(17)** Zhou, **J.** L.; Fileman, T. W.; Evans, **S.;** Donkin, P.; Fauzi, R.; Mantoura, **C.;** Rowland, **S. J. 1996.** Seasonal distribution of dissolved pesticides and polynuclear aromatic hydrocarbons in the Humber Estuary in Humber coastal zone. *Mar. Pollut. Bull., 32,* **599-608.**
- **(18)** Fernandes, M. B.; Sicre, M.-A.; Boireau, **A.;** Tronczynski, **J. 1997.** Polyaromatic hydrocarbon (PAH) distribution in the Seine River and its estuary. *Mar. Pollut. Bull., 11,* **857-867.**
- **(19)** Zhou, **J.** L.; Fileman, T. W.; Evans, **S.;** Donkin, P.; Readman, **J.** W.; Mantoura, R. F. **C.;** Rowland, **S. 1999.** The partition of fluoranthene and pyrene between suspended particles and dissolved phase in the Humber Estuary: a study of the controlling factors. *Sci. Total Environ., 243/244, 305-321.*
- (20) Jeremiason, **J. D.;** Eisenreich, **S. J.;** Baker, **J. E.;** Eadie, B. **J. 1998.** PCB Decline in settling particles and benthic recycling of PCBs and PAHs in Lake Superior. *Environ. Sci. Technol., 32,* **3249-3256.**
- (21) Capel, P. **D.;** Eisenreich, **S. J. 1985.** PCBs in Lake Superior, **1978-1980.** *J. Great Lakes Res., 11,* 447-461.
- (22) Maskaoui, K.; Zhou, **J.** L.; Hong, H. **S.;** Zhang, Z. L. 2002. Contamination **by** polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in the Jiulong River Estuary and Western Xiamen Sea, China. *Environ. Pollut., 118,* **109-122.**
- **(23)** Wu, **S.-C.;** Gschwend, P. M. **1986.** Sorption kinetics of hydrophobic organic compounds to natural sediments and soils. *Environ. Sci. Technol., 20,* **717-725.**
- (24) Wu, **S.-C.;** Gschwend, P. M. **1988.** Numerical modeling of sorption kinetics of organic compounds to soil and sediment particles. *Water Resour. Res., 8,* **1373- 1383.**
- **(25)** Farrington, **J.** W.; Goldberg, **E. D.;** Risebrough, R. W.; Martin, **J.** H.; Bowen, V. T. **1983. U.S.** "Mussel Watch" **1976-1978:** An overview of the trace-metal, **DDE,** PCB, hydrocarbons, and artificial radionuclide data. *Environ. Sci. Technol., 17,* 490-496.
- **(26)** Huckins, **J. N.;** Tubergen, M. W.; Manuweera, **G.** K. **1990.** Semipermeable membrane devices containing model lipid: **A** new approach to monitoring the bioavailability of lipophilic contaminants and estimating their bioconcentration *potential. Chemosphere, 20,* **533-552.**
- **(27)** Arthur, **C.** L.; Pawliszyn, **J. 1990.** Solid phase microextraction with thermal desorption using fused silica optical fibers. *Anal. Chem., 62,* 2145-2148.
- **(28)** Gale, R. W.; Huckins, **J. N.;** Petty, **J. D.;** Peterman, P. H.; Schwartz, T. R.; Tillitt, **D. E. 1997.** Comparison of the uptake of dioxin-like compounds **by** caged channel catfish and semipermeable membrane devices in the Saginaw River, Michigan. *Environ. Sci. Technol., 31,* **178-187.**
- **(29)** Huckins, **J. N.;** Manuweera, **G.** K.; Petty, **J. D.;** Mackay, **D.;** Lebo, **J. A. 1993.** Lipid-containing semipermeable membrane devices for monitoring organic contaminants in water. *Environ. Sci. Technol., 27,* 2488-2496.
- **(30)** Gale, R. W. **1998.** Three-compartment model for contaminant accumulation **by** semipermeable membrane devices. *Environ. Sci. Technol., 32,* **2292-2300.**
- **(31)** Vrana, B.; Schitirmann, **G.** 2002. Calibrating the uptake kinetics of semipermeable membrane devices in water: Impact of hydrodynamics. *Environ. Sci. Technol., 36,* **290-296.**
- **(32)** Petty, **J. D.;** Orazio, **C. E.;** Huckins, **J. N.;** Gale, R. W.; Lebo, **J. A.;** Meadows, **J. C.;** Echols, K.; Cranor, W. L. 2000. Considerations involved with the use of semipermeable membrane devices for monitoring environmental contaminants. *J. Chromatogr. A., 879,* **83-94.**
- **(33)** Huckins, **J. N.;** Petty, **J. D.;** Lebo, **J. A.;** Almeida, F. V.; Booij, K.; Alvarez, **D. A.;** Cranor, W. L.; Clark, R. **C.;** Mogensen, B. B. 2002. Development of permeability/performance reference compound approach for in situ calibration of semipermeable membrane devices. *Environ. Sci. Technol., 36,* **85-91.**
- (34) Potter, **D.** W.; Pawliszyn, **J.** 1994. Rapid determination of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons and polychlorinated biphenyls in water using solid-phase microextraction and **GC/MS.** *Environ. Sci. Technol., 28,* **298-305.**
- **(35)** de Fatima Alpendurada, M. 2000. Solid-phase microextraction: a promising technique for sample preparation in environmental analysis. *J. Chromatogr. A, 889, 3-14.*
- **(36)** Crank, **J.** *The Mathematics of Diffusion;* Oxford University Press: London, **1975.**
- **(37)** Vo-Dinh, T. *Synchronous Excitation Spectroscopy;* Wehry, **E.** L., **Ed.;** Plenum Press: New York, **1981, pp 167-192.**
- **(38)** Hawker, **D.** W.; Connell, **D.** W. **1988.** Octanol-water partition coefficients of polychlorinated biphenyl congeners. *Environ. Sci. Technol., 22,* **382-387.**
- **(39)** Sangster, **J. 1989.** Octanol-water partition coefficients of simple organic compounds. *J. Phys. Chem. Ref. Data., 18,* **1111-1229.**
- (40) Mackay, **D.;** Shiu, W.-Y.; Ma, K.-C. *Illustrated Handbook of Physical-Chemical Properties and Environmental Fate of Organic Compounds;* Lewis Publishers: Boca Raton, **1992;** Vol. 2.
- (41) Hansch, **C.;** Leo, **A.;** Hoekman, **D.** *Exploring QSAR: Hydrophobic, Electronic, and Steric Constants;* American Chemical Society: Washington, **DC, 1995;** Vol. 2.
- (42) Schwarzenbach, R. P.; Gschwend, P. M.; Imboden, **D.** M. *Environmental Organic Chemistry;* 1st ed.; John Wiley **&** Sons, Inc.: New York, **1993.**
- (43) Shiu, W.-Y.; Ma, K.-C. 2000. Temperature dependence of physical-chemical properties of selected chemicals of environmental interest. **II.** Chlorobenzenes, polychlorinated biphenyls, polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxins, and dibenzofurans. *J. Phys. Chem. Ref Data, 29,* **3 87-462.**
- (44) Flynn, **J.** H. **1982. A** collection of kinetic data for the diffusion of organic compounds in polyolefins. *Polymer, 23,* 1325-1344.
- (45) Asfour, **A.-F. A.;** Saleem, M.; DeKee, **D. 1989.** Diffusion of saturated hydrocarbons in low density polyethylene (LDPE) films. *J. Appl. Polym. Sci., 38,* **1503-1514.**
- (46) Doong, **S. J.;** Ho, W. **S. 1992.** Diffusion of hydrocarbons in polyethylene. *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res., 31,* **1050-1060.**
- (47) Aminabhavi, T. M.; Naik, H. **G. 1998.** Chemical compatibility study of geomembranes--sorption/desorption, diffusion and swelling phenomena. *J. Hazard. Mater., 60, 175-203.*
- (48) Simko, P.; Simon, P.; Khunovai, V. **1999.** Removal of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons from water **by** migration into polyethylene. *Food Chemistry, 64,* **157-161.**
- (49) Barrer, R. M. *Diffusion and permeation in heterogeneous media;* Crank, **J.** and Park, **G. S., Ed.;** Academic Press: London, **1968, pp 165-217.**
- **(50)** Hayduk, W.; Laudie, H. 1974. Prediction of diffusion coefficients for nonelectrolytes in dilute aqueous solutions. *AIChE J., 20,* **611-615.**
- **(51)** Rudnick, **S.** M. *In Situ Fluorescence Detection of Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons (PAH) in the Marine Environment;* University of Massachusetts: Boston, MA, **1998, pp 181.**
- **(52)** Gustafsson, **0.,** personal communication.
- **(53)** Karickhoff, **S.** W.; Morris, K. R. **1985.** Impact of Tubificid Oligochaetes on Pollutants Transport in Bottom Sediments. *Environ. Sci. Technol., 19,* **51-56.**
- (54) Lamoureux, **E.;** Brownawell, B. **J. 1999.** Chemical and biological availability of sediment-sorbed hydrophobic organic contaminants. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem., 18,* **1733-1741.**
- **(55)** Gustafsson, **0.;** Gschwend, P. M.; Buesseler, K. **0. 1997.** Settling removal rate of PCBs into the Northwestern Atlantic derived from ²³⁸U-²³⁴Th Disequilibria. *Environ. Sci. Technol., 31, 3544-3550.*
- **(56)** Schneider, **A.** R.; Eadie, B. **J.;** Baker, **J. E.** 2002. Episodic particle transport events controlling PAH and PCB cycling in Grand Traverse Bay, Lake Michigan. *Environ. Sci. Technol., 36,* **1181-1190.**
- **(57)** McGroddy, **S. E.;** Farrington, **J.** W.; Gschwend, P. M. **1996.** Comparison of the in situ and desorption sediment-water partitioning of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons and polychlorinated biphenyls. *Environ. Sci. Technol, 30,* **172-177.**
- **(58)** Gustafsson, **0.;** Haghseta, F.; Chan, **C.;** MacFarlane, **J.;** Gschwend, P. M. **1997.** Quantification of the dilute sedimentary soot phase: implications for PAH speciation and bioavailability. *Environ. Sci. Technol., 31,* **203-209.**
- **(59)** Accardi-Dey, **A.;** Gschwend, P. M. 2002. Assessing the combined roles of natural organic matter and black carbon as sorbents in sediments. *Environ. Sci. Technol., 36,* **21-29.**
- **(60)** Carroll, K. M.; Harkness, M. R.; Bracco, **A. A.;** Balcarcel, R. R. 1994. Application of a permeant/polymer diffusion model to the desorption of polychlorinated biphenyls from Hudson River Sediments. *Environ. Sci. Technol, 28,* **251-258.**
- **(61)** Pignatello, **J. J.;** Xing, B. **1996.** Mechanisms of slow sorption of organic chemicals to natural particles. *Environ. Sci. Technol., 30, 1-11.*
- **(62)** Brusseau, M. L.; Suresh, P.; Rao, **C. 1991.** Influence of sorbate sturcture of nonequilibrium sorption of organic compounds. *Environ. Sci. Technol.,* **25,** *1501-* **1508.**
- **(63)** Karickhoff, **S.** W.; Morris, K. R. **1985.** Sorption dynamics of hydrophobic pollutants in sediment suspensions. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem., 4,* 469-479.
- (64) Blake, **G.** R. *Particle Density;* Black, **C. A., Ed.;** American Society of Agronomy, Inc.: Madison, **1965;** Vol. **1, pp 770.**
- **(65)** Rudnick, **S.** M.; Chen, R. F. **1998.** Laser-induced fluorescence of pyrene and other polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH) in seawater. *Talanta, 47,* **907-919.**
- **(66)** Gauthier, T. **D.;** Shane, **E. C.;** Guerin, W. F.; Seitz, W. R.; Grant, **C.** L. **1986.** Fluorescence quenching method for determining equilibrium constants for

polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons binding to dissolved humic materials. *Environ. Sci. Technol., 20,* **1162-1166.**

- **(67)** Chin, Y.-P.; Gschwend, P. M. **1992.** Partitioning of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons to marine porewater organic colloids. *Environ. Sci. Technol., 26,* **1621-1626.**
- **(68)** Peters, **D. G.;** Hayes, **J.** M.; Hieftje, **G.** M. *Chemical Separations and Measurements: Theory and Practice of Analytical Chemistry;* W.B. Saunders Co.: Philadelphia, 1974.
- **(69)** Karickhoff, **S.** W. **1981.** Semiempirical estimation of sorption of hydrophobic pollutants on natural sediments and soils. *Chemosphere, 10,* **833-846.**
- **(70)** Gawlik, B. M.; Sotiriou, **N.;** Feicht, **E. A.;** Schulte-Hostede, **S.;** Kettrup, **A. 1997.** Alternatives for the determination of the soil adsorption coefficient, Koc, of nonionic organic compounds **- A** Review. *Chemosphere, 34, 2525-2551.*
- **(71)** Bucheli, T. **D.;** Gustafsson, **0.** 2000. Quantification of the soot-water distribution coefficient of PAHs provides mechanistic basis for enhanced sorption observations. *Environ. Sci. Technol., 34, 5144-5151.*
- **(72)** Lohmann, R.; MacFarlane, **J.** K.; Gschwend, P. M. in prep. On the importance of black carbon to sorption coefficients of native PAHs, PCBs, and PCDDs in contaminated sediments. **.**
- **(73)** Ullman, W. **J.;** Aller, R. **C. 1982.** Diffusion coefficients in nearshore marine sediments. *Limnol. Oceanogr., 27, 552-556.*
- (74) Geyer, W. R.; Gschwend, P. M.; Adams, R. **G.** *Sediment-water column exchange of toxic organic compounds;* Office of Naval Research: Arlington, VA, **1999.**
- *(75)* Wolfe, **D. A.,** E.R. Long, G.B. Thursby. **1996.** Sediment toxicity in the Hudson-Raritan Estuary: Distribution and correlations with chemical contamination. *Estuaries, 19,* **901-912.**
- **(76)** Bopp, R. F.; Simpson, H. **J.;** Olsen, **C.** R.; Kostyk, **N. 1981.** Polychlorinated biphenyls in sediments of the tidal Hudson River, New York. *Environ. Sci. Technol., 15,* **210-216.**
- **(77)** Brown, M. P.; Werner, M. B.; Sloan, R. **J.;** Simpson, K. W. **1985.** Polychlorinated biphenyls in the Hudson River. *Environ. Sci. Technol., 19,* **657- 661.**
- **(78)** Peven, **C. S.;** Uhler, **A. D.;** Hillman, R. **E.;** Steinhauer, W. **G. 1996.** Concentrations of organic contaminants in *Mytilus edulis* from the Hudson-Raritan Estuary and Long Island Sound. *Sci. Tot. Environ., 179,* **135-147.**
- **(79)** *N.O.A.A. Geometric mean and high concentrations, 2000.*
- **(80) U.S.EPA** "Hudson River PCB Superfund site (New York) Superfund Proposed Plan," **,** 2000.
- **(81)** Geyer, W. R.; Woodruff, **J. D.;** Traykovski, P. 2001. Sediment transport and trapping in the Hudson River Estuary. *Estuaries, 24,* **670-679.**
- **(82)** Abood, K. **A.** "Hudson River hydrodynamic and water quality characteristics: Prospectives on the New York Bight Symposium," **, 1978.**
- **(83)** Cooper, **J. C.;** Cantelmo, F. R.; Newton, **C. E. 1988.** Overview of the Hudson River Estuary. *American Fisheries Society Mongraph, 4,* 11-24.
- (84) Bothner, M.; Gill, P.; Boothman, W.; Taylor, B.; Karl, H. "Chemical and textural characteristics of sediments at an **EPA** reference site for dredged material on the

continental slope SW of the Farallon Islands," **U.S.** Geological Survey, Woods Hole Field Center, **1997.**

- *(85)* Mitra, **S.;** Bianchi, T. **S.;** McKee, B. **A.;** Sutula, M. 2002. Black carbon from the Mississippi River: Quantities, sources **,** and potential implications for the global carbon cycle. *Environ. Sci. Technol., 36,* **2296-2302.**
- **(86)** Gigliotti, **C.** L.; Brunciak, P. **A.;** Dachs, **J.;** Glenn, T. R.; Nelson, **E. D.;** Totten, L. **A.;** Eisenreich, **S. J.** 2002. Air-water exchange of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in the New York-New Jersey, **USA,** Harbor Estuary. *Environ. Toxicol. Chem., 21, 235-244.*
- **(87)** Litten, **S.,** New York State Department of Environmental Conservation.
- **(88)** Totten, L. **A.;** Brunciak, P. **A.;** Gigliotti, **C.** L.; Dachs, **J.;** Glenn, T. R.; Nelson, **E. D.;** Eisenreich, **S. J.** 2001. Dynamic air-water exchange of polychlorinated biphenyls in the New York-New Jersey Harbor Estuary. *Environ. Sci. Technol., 35,* 3834-3840.
- **(89)** Schulz, **D. E.;** Petrick, **G.;** Duinker, **J. C. 1989.** Complete characterization of polychlorinated biphenyl congeners in commercial Aroclor and Clophen mixtures **by** multidimensional gas chromatography-electron capture detection. *Environ. Sci. Technol., 23,* **852-859.**
- **(90)** Keane, **D.** P.; Bopp, R. F. "Chronologies of PAH Levels in Hudson Sediments," Hudson River Foundation, **1999.**
- **(91)** Long, **E.** R.; Wolfe, **D. A.;** Scott, K. **J.;** Thursby, **G.** B.; Tern, **E. A.;** Peven, **C.;** Schwartz, T. "Magnitude and Extent of Sediment Toxicity in the Hudson-Raritan Estuary," National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, **1995.**
- **(92)** *U.S.G.S. Hudson River freshwater discharge at New York, NY;* http://ny.usgs.gov/htdocs/dialer_plots/Hudson_R_at_NYC_Freshwater_Discharge .htm, 2001.
- **(93) U.S.G.S.** *Daily Streamflow for New York; USGS 01358000 Hudson River at Green Island New York;* http://waterdata.usgs.gov/ny/nwis/discharge/?site_no=01358000, 2000; Vol. 2002.
- (94) Jorgensen, B. B.; Marias, **D. J. D. 1990.** The diffusive boundary layer of sediments; Oxygen microgradients over a microbial mat. *Limnol. Oceanogr., 35, 1343-1355.*
- **(95)** Geyer, W. R.; Trowbridge, **J.** H.; Bowen, M. M. 2000. The dynamics of a partially mixed estuary. *J. Phys. Oceanogr., 30,* **2035-2048.**

APPENDIX A: MATLAB CODE FOR PROCESSING LASER-INDUCED FLUORESCENCE

CSMA SOFTWARE OUTPUT

Directions for processing fluorescence data

Create a "home" directory (e.g. RachelDesorp) in the C:\matlab directory. Put all data and matlab data (*.mat) and scripts (*.m) files in this home directory.

Put all *.spe data files in the csma\ra\ directory.

Run "processdata" in matlab to generate figures in postprocess\figs*.eps and peaks data in postprocess\data\peaks.dat.

Run "plotmulti" in matlab to generate figures with multiple spectra on a single plot.

```
% driver file for fluorescence data
%processdata.m
% Input the directory where the *.spe data files are
datadirl='ra'
% Number of first file in ra###*.spe sequence
firstnum=1054;
" Enter the first number in the ra###*.spe file sequence that
" is to be processed
firstfile=1054;
% Enter the last number in the ra###*.spe file sequence that
% is to be processed
lastfile=1164;
% This queries the filenames contained in the data directory
datadir2=['csma\' datadiri];
D=dir(datadir2);
[Ntot,m] =size (D);
% Check to see if DATA file exists in POSTPROCESS/DATA/
fid=fopen('POSTPROCESS\DATA\peaks.dat');
if fid < 0
   peaks=zeros(Ntot-2,4);
   save POSTPROCESS\DATA\peaks.dat peaks -ascii
else
   fclose(fid);
end
load ('POSTPROCESS/DATA/peaks.dat')
%if fid >0
" dataflag=l; % File already exists
" fclose(fid) ;
% load ('POSTPROCESS/DATA/peaks.dat')
%else
" dataflag=O; % File doesn't exist
% peaks=zeros(Ntot-2,4);
%end
ii=firstfile-firstnum+1;
for fileindex = (firstfile+3-firstnum) : (lastfile+3-firstnum)
   filename=getfield(D(fileindex), 'name');
   [pks]=plot13sub(datadir1,filename,ii);
   peaks(ii,:)=pks;
   ii=ii+l;
end
%save POSTPROCESS\DATA\peaks .mat peaks
%save POSTPROCESS\DATA\peaks.dat peaks -ascii
```

```
size(peaks)
```

```
fid=fopen('POSTPROCESS\DATA\peaks.dat','w');
for i=1:Ntot-2
   % fprintf(fid,'%6i %6i %6.1f %15.6e \n', peaks(i,:));
   fprintf(fid,'%7i %6i %6.1f %15.6e \n', peaks(i,:));
end
fclose(fid);
```

```
function [pks]=plotl3sub(dirc, filnm, ii)
%plotl3.m
% This code was modified by Steve Margulis to make
% it a subroutine as part of a postprocessing program
% ploti script for spectrometry
% plots single curve of exact filename - 300 grating
% requires center wavelength and title
% NOTE: This program changed by Steve Margulis so that
% all files (csma, temp, etc.) can be put in a single
% "home" directory and run from there. All calls below are
% now referenced to this home directory. However because the
% mvarget.exe program is hardwired to create the varpas.dat
% file in C:\matlab\temp directory a 'temp' directory must
% be created within the matlab directory before running.
% An additional line is added to copy the varpas.dat file
% to the proper working directory.
load mcorfact;
load ffsl;
%dirc = input ('Directory: ', 's');
%filnm = input ('File Name? XXXNNN: ', 's');
%%filepas = ['\csma\',dirc]; %Original line
filepas = ['csma\',dirc];
filepas = [filepas, '\'J;
filepas = [filepas, filnm];
%filepas = [filepas,'.spe'];
combuf = ['temp\mvarget.exe ', filepas];
dos (combuf);
% added by S.M.
%!copy C: \matlab\temp\varpas.dat temp\varpas.dat
dos ('copy C:\matlab\temp\varpas.dat temp\varpas.dat');
%!del C: \matlab\temp\varpas.dat
dos ('del C:\matlab\temp\varpas.dat');
load temp\varpas .dat;
yvals = varpas;
yvals = yvals.*mgcorr3;
yvals = filtfilt(b7,a7,yvals);
dos ('del temp\varpas.dat');
xval = mxgen3(450);
```

```
% Compute wavelength and intensity of peak/s
%[ymaxl, imax]=max(yvals);
%xmaxl=xval (imax);
%[ymax1,imax]=max(yvals(135:185))
%xmaxl=xval (imax+134)
%plot (xval, yvals,'.')
%XLABEL ('Wavelength (nm) ')
%YLABEL ('Response')
%TITLE (f ilnm)
%text(xmaxl+10,ymaxl,['Peak: x= ' num2str(xmaxl) '; y=
num2str(ymaxl)])
%grid;
[mm,nn]=size (filnm);
%if nn == 9
if nn == 10
   %file=filnm(1:5);
   file=filnm(1:6);
   ext=0;[<i>y</i>max1, <i>imax</i>] = max(<i>y</i>vals);xmaxl=xval (imax);
else
   %file=filnm(1:6);file=film(1:7);ext=1;[ymax1, max] = max(yvals(135:185));
   xmax1=xval (imax+134);
end
plot (xval, yvals)
XLABEL ('Wavelength
(nm) ' )
YLABEL ('Response')
TITLE (filnm)
text(xmaxl+10,ymaxl,
['Peak: x= ' num2str(maxl) '; y=
num2str(ymax1)])
grid;
%filenum=str2num(filnm(3:5));
filenum=str2num(filnm(3:6));
eval(['print -depsc POSTPROCESS\FIGS\' file '.eps'])
pks=[filenum ext xmaxl ymaxl];
%save POSTPROCESS\DATA\peaks.mat peaks
%save POSTPROCESS\DATA\peaks.dat peaks -ascii
```

```
%anxgen3.m
function y = xgen3(ctr)% generates x-axis for plots based on center wavelength - 300 grating
y = ctr - 107.56:.3136:ctr + 107.58;
```

```
%plotmulti
clear all
% Input the directory where the *.spe data files are
datadirl='ra'
% Number of first file in ra###*.spe sequence
firstnum=100;
% Rachel: type the numbers of the files you want
% to run here. Separate entries by a semi-colon.
files=[158; 183; 234; 261; 288; 345; 374];
Nfiles=length(files);
filestr=num2str(files);
% This queries the filenames contained in the data directory
datadir2=['csma\' datadiri];
D=dir(datadir2);
[Not,m] = size(D);figure(1)
clf
hold on
S=['b' Im' Ig' 'k' 'c' 'r' 'y'];
for i=1:Nfiles
   fileindex = files(i)+3-firstnum;
   filename=getfield(D(fileindex), 'name')
   [yvals,xvalJ=plotsub(datadirl,filename);
   plot (xval, yvals,S(i))
end
XLABEL ('Wavelength (nm)')
YLABEL ('Response')
grid;
legend(filestr);
```

```
function [yvals, xval] = plotsub(dirc, film)%plotsub.m
% This code was modified by Steve Margulis to make
% it a subroutine as part of a postprocessing program
% ploti script for spectrometry
% plots single curve of exact filename - 300 grating
% requires center wavelength and title
% NOTE: This program changed by Steve Margulis so that
% all files (csma, temp, etc.) can be put in a single
% "home" directory and run from there. All calls below are
% now referenced to this home directory. However because the
% mvarget.exe program is hardwired to create the varpas.dat
% file in C:\matlab\temp directory a 'temp' directory must
% be created within the matlab directory before running.
% An additional line is added to copy the varpas.dat file
% to the proper working directory.
load mcorfact;
load ffsi;
%dirc = input ('Directory: ', 's');
%filnm = input ('File Name? XXXNNN: ',' s');
%%filepas = ['\csma\',dirc]; %original line
filepas = ['csma\',dirc];
filepas = [filepas, '\'];
filepas = [filepas, filnm];
%filepas = [filepas,'.spe'J;
combuf = ['temp\mvarget.exe ', filepas];
dos (combuf);
% added by S.M.
%!copy C: \matlab\temp\varpas.dat temp\varpas.dat
dos ('copy C: \matlab\temp\varpas.dat temp\varpas.dat');
%!del C: \matlab\temp\varpas.dat
dos ('del C:\matlab\temp\varpas.dat');
load temp\varpas.dat;
yvals = varpas;
yvals = yvals.*mgcorr3;
yvals = filtfilt(b7,a7,yvals);
dos ('del temp\varpas.dat');
xval = mxgen3(450);
```
return

APPENDIX B: **PED-MEASURED** DISSOLVED PAH **AND** PCB **CONCENTRATIONS** FOR

APRIL **1999 AND** OCTOBER 2000

April **1999** Lower Hudson Estuary PED-measured Dissolved Concentrations Rachel Adams

April **1999** Lower Hudson Estuary PED-measured Dissolved Concentrations Rachel Adams

April **1999** Lower Hudson Estuary PED-measured Dissolved Concentrations Rachel Adams

April **1999** Lower Hudson Estuary PED-measured Dissolved Concentrations **--** PCBs

Excess enthalpy of solution of liquid **=** excess enthalpy of solution of a solid **-** enthalpy of melting

PCB **#52** measured experimentally; the remaining values calculated according to above eqn. with values from Shiu **&** Ma, 2000.

Ks **= 0.0018 * LeBas Molar Volume according to Xie et al., **1997**

 $\Delta \sim 10^{11}$

 $\sim 10^6$

NEAP TIDE PED's at the Battery **(SS)**

166

 $\overline{}$

 $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}(\tilde{\mathcal{C}})$

1April 1999 Lower Hudson Estuary PED-Measured Dissolved Concentrations -- PCBs

April 1999 Lower Hudson Estuary PED-Measured Dissolved Concentrations -- PCBs

October 2000 Lower Hudson Estuary PED-measured Dissolved Concentrations--PAHs Rachel Adams **PED I** (cm): **2.70E-03**

 $\sim 10^{11}$

October 2000 Lower Hudson Estuary PED-measured Dissolved Concentrations--PAHs

October 2000 Lower Hudson Estuary PED-measured Dissolved Concentrations--PAHs Rachel Adams

October 2000 Lower Hudson Estuary PED-measured Dissolved Concentrations--PAHs

Rachel Adams

October 2000 Lower Hudson Estuary PED-measured Dissolved Concentrations--PAHs Rachel Adams

October 2000 Lower Hudson Estuary PED-measured Dissolved Concentrations--PCBs

Rachel Adams

PED I (cm): **2.70E-03**

October 2000 Lower Hudson Estuary PED-measured Dissolved Concentrations--PCBs

October 2000 Lower Hudson Estuary PED-measured Dissolved Concentrations--PCBs

October 2000 Lower Hudson Estuary PED-measured Dissolved Concentrations--PCBs Rachel Adams

October 2000 Lower Hudson Estuary PED-measured Dissolved Concentrations--PCBs

 $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{L}})$ and $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{L}})$ and $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{L}})$

APPENDIX C: ESTIMATED FLOW RATES **USED IN MODELING CALCULATIONS**

Lower Hudson Estuary Flow Rates

