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7 **UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT**
8 **EASTERN DISTRICT OF WASHINGTON**

9 HANFORD CHALLENGE,
10 UNITED ASSOCIATION OF
PLUMBERS AND
STEAMFITTERS LOCAL
11 UNION, and the STATE OF
WASHINGTON,

12 Plaintiffs,

13 v.

14 ERNEST J. MONIZ, in his
official capacity as Secretary, the
15 UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF ENERGY,
16 and WASHINGTON RIVER
PROTECTION SOLUTIONS
17 LLC,

18 Defendants.

NO. 4:15-cv-05086-TOR
(consolidated with NO. 4:15-cv-05087-TOR)

DECLARATION OF
CHARLES HALBERT IN
SUPPORT OF PLAINTIFF
STATE OF WASHINGTON'S
MOTION FOR PRELIMINARY
INJUNCTION

19
20 I, CHARLES HALBERT, declare under penalty of perjury under the
21 laws of the state of Washington that the following is true and correct.
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1 1. I am over the age of 18, competent to be a witness herein, and
2 make this declaration in that capacity. I state the following based upon my
3 personal knowledge.

4 2. I have been employed as an Environmental Engineer at Landau
5 Associates for 18 years. I obtained two degrees in Environmental Engineering
6 from the New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology: a Bachelor of
7 Science degree in 1997 and a Master of Science degree in 1998. I am a
8 Professional Engineer, maintaining active licenses in Washington State
9 (License No. 38931) and Oregon State (Certificate No. 74068PE). Since 2003,
10 I have been responsible for the overall management of Landau Associates' air
11 quality practice.

12 3. My air quality assessment and permitting experience includes
13 estimating chemical concentrations in exhaust streams or releases from air
14 pollution sources, modeling the effects of chemical migration into indoor
15 spaces, modeling the effects of atmospheric dispersion on air pollutant
16 emissions, comparing the efficacy of air pollution control equipment
17 alternatives for use on sources of air pollutants, and evaluating compliance with
18 regulatory requirements for maximum acceptable ambient air impacts and
19 minimum required engineering control technologies.
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1 4. I have been asked by the Washington State Attorney General's
2 Office (State) to provide this declaration in the above-captioned lawsuit. As I
3 understand it, the State has brought a suit against the United States Department
4 of Energy (DOE) and Washington River Protection Solutions, LLC (WRPS),
5 under 42 U.S.C. § 6972(a)(1)(B), on the grounds that chemical vapors released
6 from or near the tank farms at the Hanford site's 200 Area present an imminent
7 and substantial endangerment to human health. I am making this declaration in
8 support of the State of Washington's Motion for Preliminary Injunction. I
9 anticipate reviewing additional records and transcripts of any depositions of
10 DOE and WRPS staff, and producing a full report on air quality issues for this
11 matter, which is due in August of this year. That report is expected to contain
12 additional information regarding potential chemical vapor concentrations to
13 which Hanford workers may be exposed. However, at this early stage of the
14 litigation, I am providing opinions in this declaration as to DOE and WRPS's
15 failure to protect worker health and safety by (1) failing to adequately monitor
16 and characterize source chemical vapor concentrations that can migrate to
17 worker breathing zones, (2) failing to adequately assess the potential for
18 elevated short-term exposure concentrations in worker breathing zones, and
19 (3) failing to use empirical data-in the form of documented worker exposures to
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1 chemical vapors-to identify protective vapor control zones (VCZs). My
2 opinions, which are documented in my declaration following statements of fact,
3 are organized according to those three categorical failures.

4
5 5. It is my understanding that, in addition to my declaration, three
6 other experts are submitting declarations on related topics: Bruce Miller, an
7 industrial hygiene expert, on DOE's and WRPS's failure to adopt industrial
8 hygiene and occupational health and safety procedures that can protect workers
9 at the Hanford tank farms; Russell Ogle, a chemical engineer, on the
10 mechanisms by which chemical vapors may be released from the tank farms,
11 the possible content of those vapors, and how DOE and WRPS have made and
12 now manage a system that allows their release; and Joyce Tsuji, a toxicology
13 expert, on the health and environmental hazards posed by the chemical vapors
14 in the tank farms. Together, the four expert declarations establish certain facts
15 and opinions regarding the imminent and substantial endangerment to human
16 health that currently exists at the Hanford site.

17
18 **A. Statements of Fact**

19
20 6. I have reviewed a number of reports and documents addressing the
21 tank farms located at the Hanford site's 200 Area, the chemicals located in the
22 tanks at those farms, and reported worker exposures to tank farm chemical

1 vapors. Reports and documents I have reviewed include those identified in the
2 attached Appendix.

3 7. From my review of the above-noted documents, I have learned the
4 following facts concerning the underground storage tanks at the 200 Area at the
5 Hanford site.
6

7 8. The 200 Area has 18 tank farms that contain 177 underground
8 storage tanks of which 149 are single-shell tanks (SSTs) and 28 are double-shell
9 tanks (DSTs). There are seven tank farms in the 200-West Area and 11 tank
10 farms in the 200-East Area. The tanks in these farms contain waste commonly
11 referred to as being of three types: highly radioactive sludge, lower level
12 radioactive supernatant, and saltcake. The sludge contains high concentrations
13 of both radionuclides and chemicals (both organic and inorganic). Used solvent
14 and complexing agents from separation processes have been discharged to the
15 tanks over time. Ongoing chemical and radiolytic reactions have caused
16 chemical degradation over time, generating compounds that may not have been
17 present in the original waste profiles.
18

19 9. Chemical vapors originate from the waste material in the Hanford
20 waste tanks and are released from the tanks to ambient air as chemical vapor
21 emissions from waste tank vents, stacks, alternative tank leakage pathways, and
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1 overflow and transfer lines. Tank headspace composition determines the vapor
2 composition at the point of release for waste tank vapor emissions (e.g., the
3 vent, stack, fugitive emissions). Chemicals confirmed to be present in tank
4 head space include toxic chemicals, both carcinogens and non-carcinogens,
5 with documented adverse human health impacts including chronic effects (i.e.,
6 health effects that result from long-term exposure to a chemical) and acute
7 effects (i.e., health effects that result from short-term exposure to a chemical).
8

9 10. DOE and its contractors, past and present, have collected
10 numerous samples with the intent of characterizing source vapor chemical
11 concentrations in the waste tanks. Those source vapor samples have been
12 collected for different purposes (e.g., consideration of worker breathing zone
13 exposures, characterization for air permit application or compliance purposes,
14 and evaluation of flammable or explosive conditions). Those source vapor
15 samples have also been collected from a variety of locations (e.g., within the
16 tank headspace, within the exhaust stack near the point of discharge, and
17 outside the exhaust stack near the point of discharge) using a variety of
18 inconsistent sample collection methods. Although the fragmented nature of
19 reporting the source vapor sampling results makes it difficult to understand
20 precisely what source vapor concentrations DOE and WRPS have used as a
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1 basis for assessing potential exposures to chemical vapor concentrations in
2 worker breathing zones, DOE and WRPS have attempted to document
3 maximum detected headspace vapor concentrations for some chemicals of
4 potential concern (COPCs) (Stock & Huckaby 2004; Meacham, *et al.* May
5 2006; Anderson, *et al.* 2006; Hughey & Farler 2008). In the absence of an
6 organized, up-to-date compilation of headspace vapor concentrations, I have
7 compiled the maximum headspace vapor concentrations from those references
8 for a subset of COPCs under consideration in a declaration by Dr. Joyce Tsuji,
9 in a table included as Exhibit 1 to my declaration. Exhibit 1 contains some
10 additional headspace vapor data that I discovered in other reports prepared by
11 DOE, WRPS, or their contractors after the preparation of the above-referenced
12 documents with maximum concentration data. Because the collection and/or
13 reporting of additional headspace vapor data has been limited since preparation
14 of the referenced summary reports, we expect that the maximum concentrations
15 shown in Exhibit 1 may, in fact, underreport actual conditions.

18 11. Chemical vapors are released from the waste tanks through active
19 or passive ventilation mechanisms. Vapors are emitted from tanks through the
20 risers when they are open to the atmosphere. The SSTs at Hanford have
21 generally been designed and operated to vent passively to the atmosphere
22

1 through high-efficiency particulate air (HEPA) filters. SSTs are actively
2 ventilated when waste is being transferred from an SST to a DST. The DSTs at
3 Hanford are generally equipped with active ventilation systems that generate a
4 chemical vapor stream transported to and released from an elevated exhaust
5 stack. Vapors can also escape as fugitive emissions from both SSTs and DSTs
6 through leaking valves, tank covers, and other release points.
7

8 12. Waste-disturbing activities (e.g., waste retrieval activities-the
9 pumping of waste from one tank to another tank, or the sluicing of waste in the
10 tanks so that the waste can be pumped out) can greatly alter the concentration
11 and composition of the headspace gases and vapors. Chemical concentrations
12 in headspace vapors have increased significantly during waste-disturbing
13 activities. In studies evaluating the effect of waste-disturbing activities on
14 chemical concentrations in headspace vapors, transient peak concentrations
15 were found to increase as much as three orders of magnitude (i.e., a factor of
16 1,000 or more, but less than 10,000) (Savannah River National Laboratory
17 (SRNL) 2014).
18

19 13. Chemical vapors released from the waste tanks are known to
20 present health and safety risks to Hanford workers. DOE, WRPS, and/or third
21 parties under contract to DOE or WRPS have conducted atmospheric dispersion
22

1 modeling to estimate a distance proximate to chemical vapor release points at
2 which chemical vapor concentrations are deemed to be safe for unprotected
3 worker exposure. The “vapor control zone,” or VCZ, is defined as the area
4 between the vapor release point and the modeled distance to concentrations
5
6 DOE and WRPS consider protective of worker safety and health. The VCZ is
7 the area in which DOE and WRPS require workers to use respiratory protection
8 equipment.

9 14. In spite of measures taken to protect workers while they are
10 working in the VCZ, workers have continued to report chemical exposures
11 when working in areas beyond the established VCZs. In some cases, reported
12 chemical exposures have occurred in areas tens or hundreds of feet distant from
13 tanks in which waste-disturbing activities were occurring at the time of
14 exposure. In summary, the VCZs that have been established by DOE and
15 WRPS to protect worker health and safety have, in fact, failed to protect
16 workers from exposure to chemical vapors in the breathing zone.
17

18 **B. Opinions Regarding Failure to Adequately Characterize Source**
19 **Vapors**

20 15. The following opinions relate to efforts conducted by DOE and/or
21 WRPS to characterize source vapor concentrations (e.g., in the headspace of
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1 tanks) to subsequently support of evaluations of vapor concentrations to which
2 workers could be exposed. These opinions are based on my understanding of
3 source vapor characterization efforts conducted by DOE and/or WRPS, and
4 they are based on my experience characterizing source concentrations
5 associated with chemical releases.
6

7 16. Any effort to characterize potential “exposure concentrations” (i.e.,
8 a chemical concentration to which a human receptor may be exposed) must be
9 predicated on a known or assumed “source concentration” (i.e., the chemical
10 concentration at or near the chemical’s point of origin-or at the point of its
11 release-in the exposure medium of interest). In the Hanford tank vapor matter,
12 estimated or modeled exposure concentrations in worker breathing zones have
13 been based on source concentrations of vapors within the headspace of the
14 waste tanks. I have reviewed documentation regarding four tank vapor
15 exposure assessments performed by DOE and/or WRPS, and the source
16 concentrations used in those assessments are based on the following data:
17 (i) generic unit concentrations, which allow for downwind “fractional
18 concentration” ratios to be applied to maximum source concentrations to
19 estimate the modeled downwind concentrations (Droppo 2004); (ii) “highest
20 source concentrations” from the Site Wide Industrial Hygiene Database
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1 (SWIHD), which appears to be only a partial data set relative to source vapor
2 concentration data collected at the Hanford site, apparently with consideration
3 of only one concentration collected during a waste-disturbing activity (WRPS
4 2014); (iii) the SWIHD, but solely for tanks in AX-Farm (Schmoldt & Stone
5 2015); and (iv) annual average emissions from the 2014 air emissions inventory
6 (Joslyn, *et al.* 2016). The source concentrations used as a basis for assessing
7 worker exposure may be representative of quiescent source conditions (with
8 one of the assessments considering a sample at least partially influenced by a
9 waste-disturbing activity), but they are not representative of peak transient
10 concentrations in the headspace source vapor during waste-disturbing
11 activities-and, therefore, the source concentrations that were used in those
12 assessments are not suitable for use in a modeling exercise intended to identify
13 a VCZ protective of workers based on vapor concentrations in the worker
14 breathing zone during waste-disturbing activities. In short, in their modeling
15 exercises to develop appropriate VCZs for worker safety, DOE and/or WRPS
16 have underestimated the source concentrations in tank headspace vapors by up
17 to three orders of magnitude (a factor of 1,000) for conditions contributing to
18 acute (i.e., short-term-less than a day) or bolus (i.e., elevated single-event)
19 exposures.
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1 17. Sampling methods used to characterize headspace vapor
2 concentrations introduce uncertainties and errors leading to underestimation of
3 actual concentrations. The following declarations identify mechanisms by
4 which concentrations may be underestimated by the two most prevalent
5 headspace vapor sampling methods at Hanford: Vapor Sampling System (VSS)
6 and In Situ Sampling (ISS).

8 18. Bolus releases of elevated chemical vapor concentrations within
9 the tank headspace environment occur not only during waste-disturbing
10 activities initiated by mechanical means or by the addition of materials to the
11 tank from an external environment (both of which may be controlled to avoid
12 influencing sampling results), but also as a result of ongoing chemical reactions
13 in the tank. Buoyant displacement gas release events (BDGREs) periodically
14 release elevated chemical vapor concentrations into the headspace over a short
15 period of time. Due to the sampling time of the VSS and ISS sampling methods
16 (spanning several minutes), short-term peak concentrations released within the
17 headspace environment are diluted by other lower-concentration vapors that
18 constitute the balance of the sample volume.

21 19. Vapor sampling methods that rely on the active transfer of vapor
22 volumes through or into a sample collection device-as is the case for both VSS

1 and ISS sampling-have the potential to draw unrepresentative gases from
2 interconnected environments into the sample. In the case of headspace vapor
3 sample collection, where the intended sample contains the most elevated
4 chemical concentrations relative to the other interconnected gaseous
5 environment (ambient air), the introduction of any other gas-whether by
6 drawing dilution air into the tank through open tank orifices, or by drawing
7 ambient air into the sampling system through unsealed parts of the sampling
8 train-will serve solely to dilute the sample (i.e., it will never overestimate the
9 concentration and may significantly underestimate the concentration).

11 20. With respect to the characterization of source vapor concentrations
12 that are representative of conditions leading to reasonable worst-case peak
13 short-term worker exposures, DOE and WRPS have failed to adequately
14 characterize those concentrations for use in evaluating exposure concentrations
15 in worker breathing zones.

17 **C. Opinions Regarding Failure to Adequately Assess Potential Short-
18 Term Exposure Concentrations in Worker Breathing Zones**

19 21. The following opinions relate to the applicability or
20 appropriateness of air quality modeling efforts conducted by DOE and/or
21 WRPS to predict downwind chemical concentrations in worker breathing zones.

1 These opinions are based on my understanding of air quality modeling efforts
2 conducted by DOE and/or WRPS, and they are based on my experience
3 characterizing air quality impacts associated with chemical releases.

4
5 22. Several models have been used by DOE and/or WRPS to evaluate
6 the potential for worker exposure to tank vapors and to establish VCZs
7 protective of worker health and safety. Generally speaking, those models fall
8 into one of three categories: atmospheric dispersion models, computational
9 fluid dynamic models, and industrial hygiene mathematical models. Each of
10 the models used by DOE and/or WRPS has fundamental shortcomings in its
11 ability to accurately and reliably predict exposure concentrations in worker
12 breathing zones from source concentrations in tank headspace vapors.

13
14 23. Atmospheric dispersion models are used to predict downwind
15 concentrations of a gas-phase chemical based on atmospheric conditions and
16 the characteristics of the chemical release. These models have several
17 fundamental assumptions and operational constraints that limit their ability to
18 accurately and reliably estimate concentrations in worker breathing zones for
19 bolus and acute exposures from tank vapor releases at the Hanford site.

20
21 24. Atmospheric dispersion models evaluate steady-state releases
22 under steady-state atmospheric conditions. Although actively ventilated tanks

1 without any waste-disturbing operations might reasonably be characterized as
2 steady-state releases for modeling purposes, there are many tank conditions that
3 cannot be characterized as steady-state releases: rapidly changing conditions
4 reflected during waste-disturbing activities, cyclic vapor releases produced by
5 the “burping” of vapors that accumulate-and release-over periods of time as
6 chemical reactions occur in waste media (e.g., BDGREs), and irregular releases
7 associated with fugitive emissions in passively ventilated tanks (e.g., venting
8 associated with fluctuations in atmospheric temperature and pressure).
9 Atmospheric dispersion modeling is inaccurate and unreliable for estimating air
10 quality impacts associated with non-steady-state chemical releases, which is the
11 condition that exists with the Hanford tank vapor emissions.
12

13
14 25. Atmospheric dispersion models are designed for chemical
15 dispersion beyond 100 meters and up to 50 kilometers from the release location.
16 Dispersion coefficients for short-range receptors have not been appropriately
17 developed for use in commercial atmospheric dispersion models. Simplified
18 mixing models are applied for short-range dispersion, which increases the
19 uncertainty of the results for near-field applications such as the evaluations
20 performed for the Hanford tank vapor releases.
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1 26. Atmospheric dispersion models produce time-averaged
2 concentrations within the plume boundary premised on the assumption that
3 concentrations are highest at the center of the plume (using a Gaussian
4 distribution profile). In reality, the plume direction fluctuates and the location
5 of the instantaneous maximum concentration moves around the wider average
6 plume boundary. The variance of the time-weighted average (i.e., the
7 uncertainty associated with the models' accuracy and reliability) is more
8 pronounced at shorter averaging times and shorter distances of evaluation. The
9 minimum averaging time appropriate for the time-averaged result is between 15
10 minutes and one hour. One means of extrapolating shorter-term concentrations
11 from the minimum time-weighted average concentrations is to apply a peak-to-
12 mean adjustment factor to the result of the dispersion model to estimate peak
13 concentrations. Peak-to-mean adjustment factors attempt to correlate time-
14 weighted average concentrations to shorter peak concentrations that may last
15 from a few seconds to a few minutes. The application of such peak-to-mean
16 adjustment factors introduces substantial uncertainty to atmospheric dispersion
17 modeling results because the data from which they are drawn (1) are not
18 chemical-specific, so they do not take into consideration chemical-specific fate
19 and transport effects, and (2) are not scenario-specific, so they do not take into
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1 consideration the effects of a representative range of local atmospheric and
2 topographic conditions.

3 27. Atmospheric dispersion models are not equipped to evaluate air
4 quality impacts under calm conditions when wind speeds are at or near zero.
5 Because wind speeds are negligible during calm conditions, which minimizes or
6 eliminates advective dispersion effects (i.e., those effects associated with the
7 movement of air), these are the very atmospheric conditions under which bolus
8 or acute short-term exposures produce the greatest impact to air quality in
9 worker breathing zones. This inability to accurately assess air quality impacts
10 associated with a chemical release under calm atmospheric conditions
11 introduces a greater level of uncertainty for estimates of near-field air quality
12 impacts.
13
14

15 28. Computational fluid dynamics (CFD) models use algorithms for
16 fluid flow and transport within a defined physical boundary. In a comparison
17 between an atmospheric dispersion model and a CFD model, for the purposes of
18 evaluating downwind tank vapor concentrations at the Hanford site, Joslyn, *et*
19 *al.* (2016), concluded that the atmospheric dispersion model “proved to be more
20 capable at handling specific atmospheric phenomena” than the CFD model.
21 (Joslyn, *et al.* 2016, p. ES-1). CFD models were not recommended for
22

1 continued use in estimating air quality impacts associated with tank vapor
2 releases at the Hanford site.

3 29. The American Industrial Hygiene Association (AIHA) has
4 published several mathematical models for estimating worker exposure to
5 chemical vapor releases (AIHA 2009). Versions of these AIHA models have
6 been used to recommend distances for VCZs at Hanford tank farms.
7

8 30. The AIHA mathematical dispersion model is based on the same
9 steady-state Gaussian dispersion equations described in paragraph 26 above,
10 and are limited by the same constraints of the Gaussian model assumptions.
11 Estimated air quality impacts generated by the AIHA models are time-averaged
12 concentrations, not instantaneous peak concentrations.
13

14 31. The dispersion elements of the Gaussian equations have been
15 simplified in the AIHA mathematical models. The AIHA mathematical models
16 have not been adequately validated for use in complex atmospheric conditions.
17

18 32. I have reviewed four air quality modeling evaluations performed
19 by DOE, WRPS, and/or their contractors. An objective of two of the four
20 evaluations was to establish VCZs protective of worker health and safety
21 (WRPS 2014; Schmoldt & Stone 2015). A third evaluation used generic unit
22 concentrations for source vapors (Droppo 2004), which would conceptually

1 allow DOE and WRPS to apply maximum headspace vapor concentrations
2 when evaluating VCZs appropriate for specific COPCs. In addition to the
3 general limitations and inadequacies identified above for the models DOE
4 and/or WRPS have used to evaluate air quality impacts in worker breathing
5 zones, I note the following concerns with (or arising from) the specific
6 application of models in the evaluations performed by Droppo, WRPS,
7 Schmoldt and Stone, and Joslyn, *et al.*

9 33. The Droppo evaluation makes use of atmospheric dispersion
10 modeling based on the Industrial Source Complex (ISC) algorithms developed
11 by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. For the purposes of establishing
12 VCZs around tank vapor release points at the Hanford site, the Droppo
13 evaluation is constrained by the shortcomings and limitations described for
14 atmospheric dispersion models in paragraphs 23 through 27 above.

16 34. Certain elements of the atmospheric dispersion modeling used to
17 support the Droppo evaluation are not documented with sufficient detail to
18 assess whether the modeling characterizes reasonable worst-case conditions.
19 Due to uncertainty around the simplified atmospheric parameterization, lack of
20 validation of the release parameters, unconfirmed peak-to-mean adjustment,
21 and unknown influence of surface roughness, terrain, and building downwash, it
22

1 is unclear whether the modeled results represent the worst-case concentration
2 estimate.

3 35. Droppo states, “During routine emissions, the concentrations in the
4 tank headspaces are assumed to represent the maximum concentrations that will
5 be released and can potentially occur in the environment.” (Droppo 2004, p. 4).
6 This statement fails to acknowledge the implications of exposures during
7 periods of non-routine emissions, namely, the magnitude of exposures that may
8 occur when waste-disturbing activities increase concentrations in tank
9 headspace vapor by as much as three orders of magnitude.

10
11 36. Droppo correctly observes that “The issue of concentration
12 variability and especially short-duration peaks needs to be addressed to better
13 understand the potential for worker exposures to occasionally higher
14 concentrations. That is, the computed average worker exposures may well be
15 within acceptable exposure limits-but a worker may smell or otherwise react to
16 higher short-term peak concentrations.” (Droppo 2004, p. 6). In the context of
17 frequent, ongoing reports of worker exposures to breathing-zone chemical
18 vapors (HPM Corporation (HPMC) 2016), and medical care for related
19 symptoms, DOE and WRPS have failed to appropriately act on Droppo’s
20 admonition to better understand the potential for workers to be exposed to
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1 higher short-term peak concentrations than those estimated by dispersion
2 models-and in failing to adequately understand the potential for higher short-
3 term peak concentrations, DOE and WRPS have failed to adequately protect
4 workers from reportable vapor exposures.
5

6 37. Both qualitatively and quantitatively, Droppo describes concerns
7 about breathing-zone vapor concentrations at distances far greater than any
8 VCZ ever established by DOE or WRPS. Qualitatively, Droppo defines “near-
9 field instantaneous concentrations” as “rapid concentration fluctuations . . .
10 approaching undiluted concentrations” (Droppo 2004, p. 1)-and he further states
11 that the distances at which these near-field, nearly-undiluted concentrations
12 “may be very close to a venting location-*or at some close distance including*
13 *locations in adjacent tank farms*” (*Id.*, p. 3) (emphasis added). The potential
14 concern about breathing-zone vapor concentrations is reinforced by Droppo’s
15 quantitative modeling results. For vapor release scenarios with low vapor
16 release velocities from the stack and low wind speeds, Droppo models
17 downwind concentrations that remain at significant levels at several extended
18 distances from the original vapor release: up to 60 percent of the source
19 concentration at 30 meters downwind, up to 12 percent at 100 meters, up to 1.6
20 percent at 300 meters, and up to 0.18 percent at 1,000 meters (*Id.*, Tbl. A.2). In
22

1 other words, Droppo's modeling indicates that for a chemical such as N-
2 nitrosodimethylamine (NDMA), with source vapor concentrations up to 360
3 parts per million by volume (ppmv; the maximum concentration detected in
4 headspace vapors (Ex. 1) times a factor of up to 1,000 to account for short-term
5 peak concentrations associated with waste-disturbing activities), concentrations
6 exceeding the Level 2 protective action criteria (PAC-2, at which irreversible or
7 serious health effects could impair a worker's ability to take protective action)
8 of 0.3 ppmv (Declaration of Joyce Tsuji (Tsjui Decl.)) could persist at
9 downwind distances of more than 1,000 meters (more than 3,300 feet) from the
10 vapor release. Chemicals such as ammonia, which can be detected by smell,
11 have a similar or greater potential for concentrations of concern at downwind
12 distances exceeding 300 meters. The conclusions that can be drawn from
13 Droppo's modeling and maximum anticipated source vapor concentrations
14 (Ex. 1; SRNL 2014) may be further supported by reported tank vapor exposures
15 occurring hundreds of feet away from releases associated with waste-disturbing
16 activities in AP-Farm in April and May 2016 (HPMC 2016). In spite of its
17 modeling limitations, the evaluation performed by Droppo and the maximum
18 anticipated source vapor concentrations during waste-disturbing
19 activities-which can be 1,000 times the source vapor concentrations detected in
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1 tank headspace prior to waste-disturbing activities (SRNL 2014)-provided DOE
2 and WRPS ample information to understand that tank vapors could persist at
3 concentrations of concern for worker health and safety at distances up to and
4 greater than 3,300 feet. During my visit to the Hanford site on June 23, 2016, I
5 observed VCZs of merely five feet from tank vents. The information
6 summarized above was obtained from data readily available to DOE and
7 WRPS; it was prepared by contractors they have retained for the explicit
8 purpose of understanding potential concerns about worker health and safety
9 issues stemming from chemical exposures in tank vapor release events. DOE
10 and WRPS have failed to appropriately respond to the potential for chemical
11 vapor exposure in worker breathing zones hundreds of feet from vapor release
12 points.
13
14

15 38. The presentation titled *Evaluation of Air-Purifying Respiratory*
16 *Protection Requirements for Tank Farms* (WRPS 2014) summarizes the results
17 of AIHA air dispersion modeling intended to identify the distance at which
18 chemical concentrations declined to a level that WRPS would use to establish
19 respiratory protection requirements. For the purposes of establishing VCZs
20 around tank vapor release points at the Hanford site, the WRPS evaluation is
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1 constrained by the shortcomings and limitations described for AIHA models in
2 paragraphs 29 through 31 above.

3 39. The WRPS presentation states that the AIHA model is a “validated
4 empirical model, not a simple dispersion calculation.” (WRPS 2014, p. 4).
5 Both of WRPS’s claims in that statement contradict information presented in
6 the reference document for the model itself (AIHA 2009). The AIHA model
7 reference repeatedly calls out model validation as an important element of
8 refining the accuracy and usefulness of industrial hygiene models and describes
9 the extent to which validation has been performed for many of the models
10 described in the reference. Shortcomings in the extent of validation of the
11 AIHA air dispersion model are explicitly mentioned in the reference document:
12 “The near field and mid field plume models presented below have had limited
13 validation, and their results are an estimate that may or may not compare well to
14 either more recent and more parameter intensive models or measurements.”
15 (AIHA 2009, p. 153). AIHA note a wide range of conditions and parameters
16 that are included in “fully developed Gaussian plume models,” and then
17 acknowledge that when developing the AIHA model for industrial hygiene
18 applications, “we will restrict ourselves to the more simple neutral buoyancy
19 and non-reactive systems” (*Id.*, p. 154). With respect to both model validation
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1 and the extent of simplifying conditions, the WRPS (2014) claims directly
2 contradict the assessments made by AIHA in its description of the model's
3 shortcomings.

4 40. The AIHA model generally considered source vapor
5 concentrations representative of quiescent tank conditions. One
6 concentration—that of NDMA in a C-Farm exhauster stack—was from a sample
7 collected “during C-Farm waste disturbing activities” (WRPS 2014, p. 7); even
8 that concentration is unlikely to represent peak concentrations during the waste-
9 disturbing activities performed at that time (SRNL 2014; ¶ 16, *supra*).

10
11 41. In spite of the shortcomings associated with the AIHA model, it
12 still produced results indicating distances of potential concern that DOE and
13 WRPS failed to adequately consider in their development of worker protection
14 procedures. Dispersion modeling results indicate chemical concentrations of
15 concern to a distance of 28.9 feet (suggesting an accuracy of model prediction
16 that is not warranted by the limitations of the model for this purpose) for
17 NDMA during waste-disturbing activities. Although WRPS recommended that
18 “[a]ny waste disturbing activity performed in C-Farm should result in an
19 establishment of the entire farm as a VCZ” (WRPS 2014, p. 12), it failed to
20 recognize and act on the fact that waste-disturbing activities in any tank farm
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1 will produce elevated source concentrations that should trigger the requirement
2 for an expanded VCZ.

3 42. The Schmoldt and Stone evaluation used an eddy diffusion model
4 prepared by AIHA for use in indoor industrial hygiene applications (AIHA
5 2009). Schmidt and Stone used the model to consider chemical vapor migration
6 from AX-Farm tanks during non-waste disturbing activities. The model
7 provides for an evaluation of eddy diffusion with advective forces (i.e., causing
8 a reduction in concentration by active movement of the air, for example, by
9 wind) following a pulse vapor release. The model, which is highly dependent
10 on the “turbulent eddy diffusion coefficient” has not been validated for use in
11 characterizing downwind chemical concentrations when complex atmospheric
12 conditions or terrain may influence chemical vapor migration.

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15 43. Schmoldt and Stone’s presentation of the modeling performed is
16 erroneous and misleading. Their text states, “the Model author recommended
17 the *utilized* 0.1 meter/minute wind speed as a worst case scenario” for
18 atmospheric dispersion effects (Schmoldt & Stone 2015, p. 4) (emphasis
19 added). Table 2 of the Schmoldt and Stone report presents a modeling
20 summary claiming a “0.1 meters per minute wind speed” (*Id.*, p. 8). The
21 modeled distances proclaimed as protective for ammonia, however, are actually
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1 based on a wind speed of 1.524 meters per minute (*Id.*, Attachs. 1, 2)-more than
2 15 times the wind speed recommended by the model author for a worst-case
3 scenario. Raising additional concern is the inconsistency between modeling
4 results in the report attachments for 2,3-dihydrofuran and NDMA.
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6 44. The Joslyn, *et al.* evaluation of two air models was not explicitly
7 performed to support the development of VCZs; however, the results do call
8 attention to a shortcoming in dispersion modeling that has yet to be adequately
9 assessed relative to the tank vapor exposure matter at Hanford: workers may, in
10 fact, be exposed to elevated short-term chemical vapor concentrations that
11 exceed those predicted by models (*see also* ¶ 36, *supra*). In the case of the
12 Joslyn, *et al.* evaluation, the modeling leads WRPS to conclude that “Ammonia
13 also had a peak concentration of 0.03 ppm, slightly below its reported odor
14 threshold of 0.04 ppm. Evaluation of the correlation of 1-hr averaged results to
15 shorter time periods suggests that the ammonia from stack emissions may rarely
16 exceed its odor threshold” (Joslyn, *et al.* 2016, p. ES-2). This conclusion,
17 which is based on WRPS’s modeling that is intended to be conservative, is not
18 supported by the frequent and pervasive occurrence of worker complaints
19 related to the inhalation of chemical vapors bearing a recognizable ammonia
20 odor.
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1 45. With respect to the use models to estimate exposure concentrations
2 in worker breathing zones, I conclude that (1) each of the models that DOE and
3 WRPS has used-and that I have reviewed-has substantive limitations and
4 shortcomings that negatively affect its ability to accurately and reliably estimate
5 maximum expected peak short-term concentrations in the breathing zone, and
6 (2) when presented with modeling and source vapor concentration data that
7 would indicate concentrations of concern for worker health and safety at
8 distances ranging from tens to hundreds of feet from release points, DOE and
9 WRPS repeatedly failed to adequately respond to those data by instituting
10 engineering controls or expanding VCZs to reflect the broader areas of potential
11 concern.
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14 **D. Opinions Regarding Failure to Identify Protective Vapor Control
Zones**

15 46. When empirical data (i.e., data that is obtained by observation, in
16 contrast to estimates that are made by modeling) is available, it is common
17 practice to use that empirical data as a frame of reference to calibrate a model
18 so that its future use may be more accurate and reliable for its intended purpose.
19 Model calibration is especially important when, as identified above, the model
20 has limitations that reduce its accuracy and reliability for the objective the
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1 model is intended to achieve. It is impracticable to collect empirical data in the
2 form of worker breathing zone chemical concentrations characterizing
3 reasonable worst-case conditions for a bolus or acute short-term exposure
4 associated with tank vapor releases. However, the ultimate objective of the air
5 quality modeling performed by DOE and/or WRPS-at least as it relates to the
6 matter considered by the subject motion for preliminary injunction-is to identify
7 areas in which measures should be taken to protect worker health and safety
8 (i.e., VCZs). Under federal regulations, WRPS is required to “provide a place
9 of employment that is free from recognized hazards that are causing or have the
10 potential to cause death or serious harm to workers” (Declaration of Bruce
11 Miller, ¶ 11). Dr. Tsuji has concluded that “tank exposures cause health effects
12 and pose risks of serious, irreversible impairment,” and “a subset of these health
13 effects are not immediately reversible and some workers have experienced
14 permanent damage to their health.” (Tsjui Decl. ¶¶ 12.d; 12.d.2). With that
15 context, reported vapor exposures-in the form of complaints of odors
16 accompanied by health symptoms consistent with acute exposure to COPCs in
17 tank vapors-are just as valid as detections of peak short-term concentrations
18 (which are impracticable to obtain through available sampling methods) as data
19 points that establish a relationship between (1) distance from tank vapor release
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1 points, especially during waste-disturbing activities, and (2) chemical vapor
2 concentrations in worker breathing zones that create conditions that are not
3 protective of worker health and safety. Based on the unreliable performance of
4 air quality models employed by DOE and WRPS-with results supporting
5 recommendations of VCZs ranging from less than 10 to greater than 3,300
6 feet-the benefits associated with calibrating one or more of the models would be
7 small: the nuances of atmospheric conditions, time-specific source
8 concentrations, and other scenario-specific conditions make refined modeling
9 efforts futile for a worker protection scenario such as the Hanford tank vapor
10 exposure matter. Instead, those models should be relegated to the purpose of
11 informing preliminary worker safety plans prior to the occurrence of
12 documented worker exposures. That time has passed. Following the
13 occurrence of documented worker exposures, the use of empirical data (worker
14 complaints of odors accompanied by health symptoms consistent with acute
15 exposure to chemicals of potential concern in tank vapors) is the most reliably
16 protective way to establish areas in which DOE and WRPS should take
17 measures to protect workers from tank vapor exposures.
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21 47. I conclude that DOE and WRPS have failed to adequately
22 incorporate worker complaints of odors accompanied by health symptoms

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consistent with acute exposure to COPCs in tank vapors in establishing work areas in which respiratory protection is required of workers.

DATED this 14th day of July 2016, in Seattle, Washington.



CHARLES HALBERT

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DATED this 21st day of July 2016.

s/ Thomas J. Young
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