

1 FORENSIC INVESTIGATIONS IN COMPLEX POLLUTION CASES INVOLVING
2 PCBs, DIOXINS AND FURANS: POTENTIAL PITFALLS AND TIPS

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24 1 INTRODUCTION

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26 Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), dioxins (PCDDs) and furans (PCDFs) are frequently
27 detected in grass, soil and farm animals near incineration plants, electric transformers
28 recycling facilities, or after major fires during environmental forensic investigations. The
29 sale of farm animals for food above established PCBs and PCDD/F limits is forbidden, and
30 therefore are slaughtered, or removed from contaminated areas to graze on uncontaminated
31 food, in an attempt to detoxify. This policy can result in substantial financial losses to
32 farmers and other parties on whose property these contaminants are detected. If regulated
33 levels are exceeded in one sample, the impacts are rarely limited to one area, or within the
34 sampling period. It is therefore important to establish the extent of the contamination,
35 distinguish the potential source(s) and identify the duration of the contamination event.
36 These determinations are especially challenging to account for background noise or when
37 multiple sources of these contaminants are present within a 10 kilometre (km) radius of the
38 investigated area and could have contributed to the contamination.

39 This manuscript examine potential pitfalls in the analysis of (PCBs), dioxins (PCDDs)
40 and furans (PCDFs) in terms of their regulated levels, sampling challenges, the analysis of
41 samples and statistical interpretation of the test data.

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44 2 REGULATED LEVELS

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46 PCDD/F and PCBs are detected in the environment as complex mixtures. To assess the
47 risks to human health and the environment, internationally agreed Toxic Equivalency
48 Factors (TEFs) have been developed and are regularly updated by the World Health
49 Organisation (WHO). The current TEFs are based on the findings of Van den Berg *et al.*¹
50 The biological effects of PCDD, PCDF and PCBs are mediated through the aryl

51 hydrocarbon receptor (AhR) which has a high affinity for 2,3,7,8-substituted PCDD/Fs and
 52 co-planar PCBs with either one or no chlorines in the 2, 2', 6 or 6' positions. Table 1 lists
 53 the 17 PCDD/Fs and 12 PCBs with TEFs from Van den Burg *et al.*¹
 54

55 Threshold and alert levels have been established by WHO for different matrices, and
 56 are expressed in TEQ (Toxicity Equivalent), for PCB DL (dioxin like), dioxins (PCDD)
 57 and furans (PCDF). More recently, other threshold levels have also been established for the
 58 7 indicator PCBs (PCBIs) (PCB-28, PCB-52, PCB-101, PCB-118, PCB-138, PCB-153,
 59 PCB-180). Common limit values can be established as follows for samples such as cattle
 60 and grass based on WHO TEFs (Table 2). Alert levels have also been generated for grass
 61 (12% humidity) at 0,5 pg g⁻¹ (picogram per gram) WHO -PCDD/F-TEQ and 0,35 pg g⁻¹
 62 WHO-PCBDL-TEQ. (e. g. European Directive 2006/13/CE)
 63

64 **Table 1.** 2005 World Health Organization (WHO) Toxicity Equivalent Factors (TEFs)
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Dioxins	WHO TEF	Furans	WHO TEF	PCBs (Cl substitution)	WHO TEF
2,3,7,8-TCDD	1	2,3,7,8-TCDF	0.1	PCB-77 (34-3'4')	0.0001
1,2,3,7,8-PeCDD	1	1,2,3,7,8-PeCDF	0.03	PCB-81 (345-4')	0.0003
1,2,3,4,7,8-HxCDD	0.1	2,3,4,7,8-PeCDF	0.3	PCB-105 (234-3'4')	0.00003
1,2,3,6,7,8--HxCDD	0.1	1,2,3,4,7,8-HxCDF	0.1	PCB-114 (2345-4')	0.00003
1,2,3,7,8,9-HxCDD	0.1	1,2,3,6,7,8-HxCDF	0.1	PCB-118 (245-3'4')	0.00003
1,2,3,4,6,7,8-HpCDD	0.01	1,2,3,7,8,9-HxCDF	0.1	PCB-123 (345-2'4')	0.00003
OCDD	0.0003	2,3,4,6,7,8-HxTCDF	0.1	PCB-126 (345-3'4')	0.1
		1,2,3,4,6,7,8-HpCDD	0.01	PCB-156 (2345-3'4')	0.00003
		1,2,3,4,7,8,9-HpCDD	0.01	PCB-157 (234-3'4'5')	0.00003
		OCDD	0.0003	PCB-167 (245-3'4'5')	0.00003
				PCB-169 (345-3'4'5')	0.03
				PCB-189 (2345-3'4'5')	0.00003

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69 **Table 2.** WHO established Toxicity Equivalent (TEQs) for meat and grass, 1998 and 2005
 70 values in picogram per gram (pg g⁻¹) and nannogram per gram (ng g⁻¹)
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Meat FAT	Toxicity Factor	TEQ Σ(PCDD+PCDF+PCBDL) pg g ⁻¹ I TEQ WHO	PCB ind ng g ⁻¹
2011	I-TEF WHO 1998	4,5 pg g ⁻¹ I-TEQ WHO 1998	Not applicable
2012-13-14	I-TEF WHO 2005	4 pg g ⁻¹ I-TEQ WHO 2005	40 ng g ⁻¹
Grass	Toxicity Factor	TEQ Σ(PCDD+PCDF+PCBDL) pg g ⁻¹ I TEQ WHO	
2011	I-TEF WHO 1998	1,25 pg g ⁻¹ I-TEQ WHO 1998	
2012	I-TEF WHO 2005	1,25 pg g ⁻¹ I-TEQ WHO 2005	

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76 3 SAMPLING

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78 Numerous samples are usually gathered during the course of an environmental forensics
79 investigation. These might be collected from air particles (on an Owen gage and from
80 emission source), as well as gas phases, vegetation, soils and animals, leading to complex
81 data set with the tens of thousands of data points.

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83 There are several pitfalls when selecting appropriate samples, including the following:

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85 • When sampling air and particulate matter to consider and monitor wind direction.
86 The sampling strategy should be designed to include a background sample which
87 is upwind of the suspected source(s). Most passive samplers collect dust from all
88 directions and so need to be combined with meteorological data to establish
89 sources. However there have been recent advances in sample collection
90 technologies that allow 360° sampling at 15° intervals to establish sources of dust
91 contamination.²

92 • When sampling the grass, it is essential to understand that these contaminants
93 will be found at higher concentration in winter, during the plant's dormant
94 season, and at lower concentrations during spring due to grass growth. Other
95 complex mechanisms such as microbial activity, photolysis and selective
96 evaporation are identified, which can reduce concentrations or alter chemical
97 signature / fingerprint (i.e. less chlorinated molecules are more degraded than the
98 more chlorinated ones).

99 • When sampling surface soils the samples are all made at same depth (between 0
100 and 5 cm maximum) as deeper soils are likely to be less contaminated. Similarly,
101 it is important to check that soils have not been perturbed: i.e. ploughed, or
102 disturbed by cattle feet in muddy areas, which would result in contaminants'
103 dilution.

104 • When sampling animals if the goal is to compare total concentrations then it is
105 preferable to obtain samples from the same tissue type as concentrations vary in
106 different tissues based on the lipid content. Therefore all data should be lipid
107 corrected to allow for a representative comparison between samples.
108 Concentrations can vary in different tissue types however the signature appears to
109 be very consistent, indicating that whilst collection of the same tissue type is
110 preferable, the signature in different animals can be compared using samples
111 obtained from different tissue types.³

112 • Impact to farmland, crops and livestock also depend on distance, wind direction,
113 topography. In some very rare instances, when farm animals are sampled from
114 freezers, expert needs to check that selected meat does not originate from distant
115 areas.

116 • The background concentrations and signature need to be established during
117 investigation and several samples are therefore required from several distant
118 areas, away from source, up to 10 km (see Figure 3 for example).

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122 In all cases, samples should be properly labelled and stored in containers appropriate
123 for the analysis that is being undertaken. As some PCB, PCDD/F congeners are semi
124 volatile samples should be packed tightly in glass containers to reduced headspace and
125 stored in cool boxes at 4°C once collected, to reduced potential losses through evaporation.
126 All samples should be transported to the laboratory as soon as possible (within 24 hrs) with
127 appropriate chain of custody documentation.

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130 4 ANALYSES AND STATISTICAL INTERPRETATION

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132 4.1. Analysis

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134 When regulatory authorities are involved, 2,3,7,8 substituted PCDD/F and WHO12 PCBs
135 are often of forensic interest (Table 1). For these contaminants, GC-MS or GC-ECD
136 provide a mean to quickly determine whether a sample is grossly contaminated. Many
137 commercial laboratories provide limits of detection (LODs) in the range of 10 – 1000 µg
138 kg⁻¹. This can be a significant limitation as background total PCB concentrations (in UK
139 urban soils) are between 0.01 – 40 µg kg⁻¹.⁴ Therefore, sample clean-up and analysis by
140 HRMS is often required to improve limits of detection to less than 1 µg kg⁻¹ by removing
141 or filtering out many interfering compounds. Whilst the 2,3,7,8 substituted PCDD/F and
142 WHO12 PCBs can establish risks to human health, additional congeners may be needed to
143 identify the source. This can be a time intensive task using GCMS or GCHRMS as several
144 runs using different column types are needed to produce a comprehensive congener
145 specific data set, due to multiple co-elutions of PCB and PCDD/F congeners (there are
146 over 400 PCBs and PCDD/Fs).

147 The development of comprehensive two-dimensional gas chromatography (GCxGC-
148 TOFMS) provides an extra dimension of separation which significantly increases the
149 resolving capacity. This has allowed for the identification of over 190 individual PCB
150 congeners along with simultaneous identification of other organohalogenated
151 contaminants.^{5,6} Figure 1 displays the separation of 173 peaks from 209 PCBs achieved
152 using a PCB specific Rtx-PCB column on GC-MS, compared to 200 peaks from 209 PCBs
153 which was achieved using GCxGC-TOFMS (Rtx PCB and Rxi-17 columns). However,
154 such expertise is usually at great costs, for example analytical costs for the PCB DL, PCDD
155 / PCDF and PCBIs range in the 500 US\$, and go as high as 2000 \$ for documenting all
156 PCB and PCDD/F congeners.

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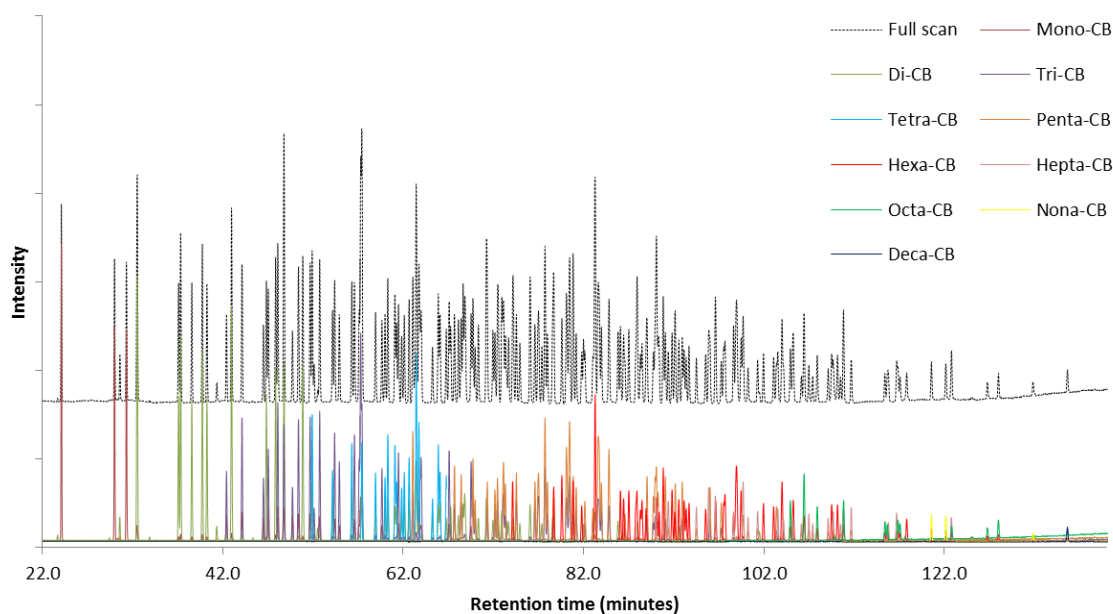
158 4.2. Statistical Interpretation

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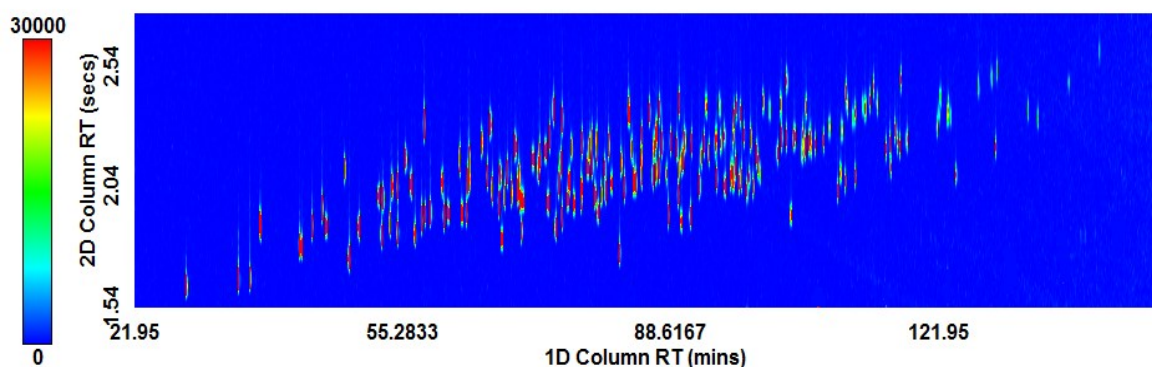
160 In most investigations involving PCBs, PCDD/Fs the results are screened against a specific
161 health value to establish the risks. This can be a simple comparison of individual sample
162 concentrations against a threshold level, or the use of statistics to determine if an area (or
163 site) is above the threshold value at a 95% degree confidence level. However, for many
164 forensic investigations the goal is not to determine if the concentration is above a
165 threshold, but to establish where the contamination has originated from. In these instances,
166 absolute concentrations are often of little use and signatures based on the relative
167 proportions of individual congeners are more useful, especially when combined with
168 multivariate statistics.

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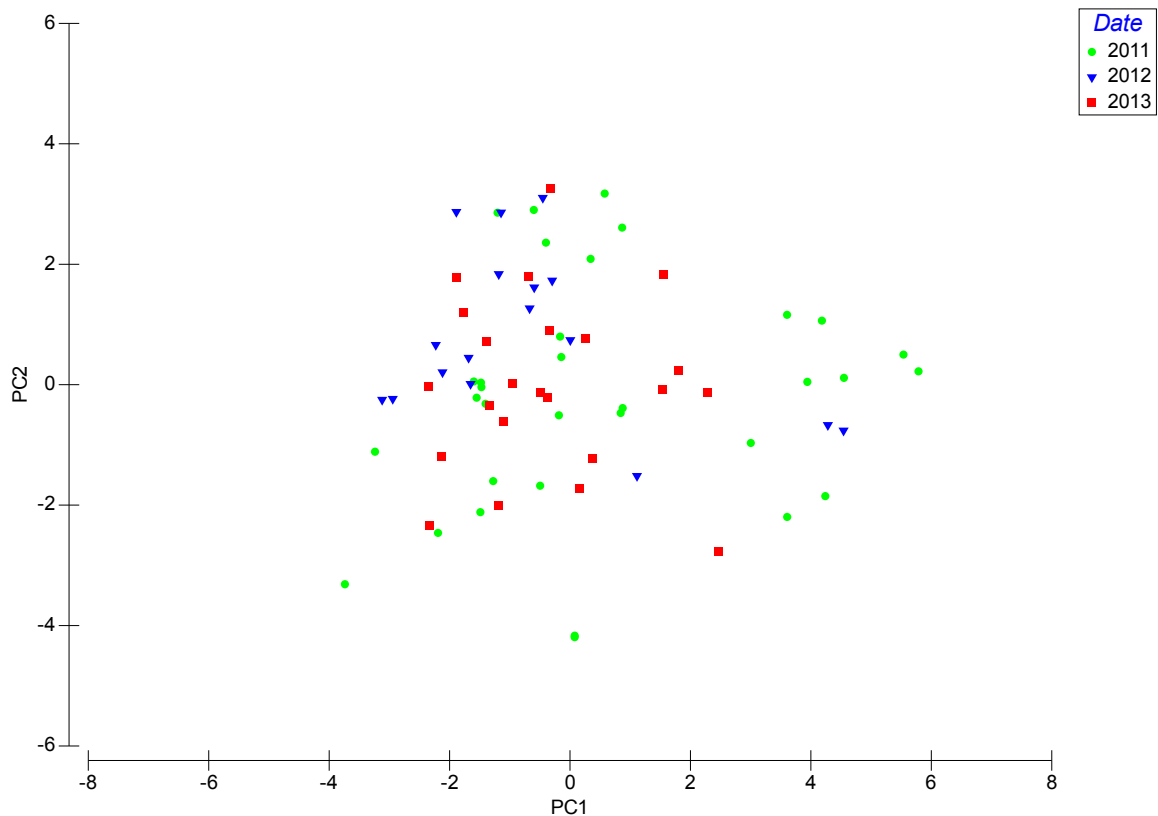
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174 **Figure 1.** Comparison of PCB separation using GC-MS (above), compared to GCxGC-
175 TOFMS (below). Figure adapted from Megson et al. 2014.³

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178 Statistical methods are of major relevance when comparing signatures through
179 fingerprinting: i.e. using R2 to determine the confidence interval, and multivariate analysis
180 to compare hundreds of samples and dozens of compounds. Most statistical techniques
181 require some prior knowledge of the contamination event. However, some systems with
182 multiple sources and degradation pathways are too complex to establish a priori
183 assumptions;⁷ in such investigations, exploratory data analysis techniques, such as
184 principal component analysis and polytopic vector analysis, can be used to identify the
185 source(s) of contamination. Principal component analysis may be especially useful for
186 identifying temporal patterns in the data. In some cases it can be important to identify if a
187 change in the signature has occurred after a specific date (for example when a company
188 was supposed to implement procedures to reduce its emissions to air). Figure 2 shows how
189 principal component analysis was used to show that the absence of a distinguishing pattern
190 in dust collected over a three year period.

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Figure 2. *PCA scores plot showing no noticeable change in dust signature over a three year monitoring period*

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In these cases it is also important to encompass and distinguish other potential contributors such as domestic heating, backyard burning, slash and burn as well as the background noise: The US EPA have produced a list of potential contributors, which is useful for forensic investigations, and is accessible at <http://www.epa.gov/ncea/pdfs/dioxin/2k-update/>. Historical research and proper investigations are essential to characterize potential sources so as to distinguish liabilities and allocate torts as honestly as can be. It is here important to characterize the background noise: when threshold limit values are exceeded in grass and cattle, the background noise typically accounts for around 2 % of the contamination.

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4.3 Modelling Data

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Expertise is required to identify the source by mapping the plume impacts for the different environmental media and receptors and comparing the chemical fingerprint of contaminants sampled at the source and at a distance. The concentration maps can be centred by source, when the impact distance can exceed 6 km, as documented for PM₁₀,⁸ depending on wind conditions or height of emission source.

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Documenting the exact contribution of suspected source versus other potential contributors is difficult. Some simple methods allow for the calculation of how much the supposed source has been contributing, within a given distance to source, using the following parameters and formulae:

- 220 • Annual emissions: Em_{ann} ;
- 221 • Distance to source: Dis_{source} used as a radius. Several models exist to estimate
222 particle concentrations, according to their size, wind speed, and height of chimney
223 as release point;
- 224 • Annual mass production for grass by surface –dry weight = 12% Humidity:
225 $Prod_{mass}$ in kg/m^2 or ton/hectar ($1000 kg/10\ 000m^2$), for example 6 tons of hay per
226 hectare;
- 227 • Concentration: Such a simulation can be operated on regulated level or on observed
228 concentrations $Conc_{reg}$ or $Conc_{obs}$ or to estimate impacts at a given level $Conc_{theor}$.
229 Concentrations are usually expressed in $pg\ g^{-1}$ TEQ for PCBDLs, PCDDs, PCDFs,
230 and in $ng\ g^{-1}$ PCBI, and
- 231 • Impacted surface: $Surf_{imp}$.

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233 A simple formula can be based under the assumption that the contamination results in
234 homogenous concentrations, independent on distance or winds direction or speed.

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236 Contaminant concentration in a given radius:

$$237\ Conc_{theor} = Em_{ann} / Dis_{source}^2 \times \pi \times Prod_{mass} \quad (1)$$

238

239 With an example of Em_{ann} 0,5 $g\ TEQ$, Dis_{source} 3000 m , $Prod_{mass}$ 6 tons ha^{-1} or 0.6 kg per
240 m^2 , $Conc_{theor} = 0,29\ pg\ g^{-1}\ TEQ$

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242 The same formula can be used to determine the theoretical radius within which a
243 regulated level would be found, if homogenous concentrations. In the preceding example,
244 the threshold limit of 0,35 $pg\ g^{-1}\ TEQ$ PCBDL for grass is exceeded within a radius of 3.2
245 km. The meat fat in most cows, however, would contain TEQ PCBDL values exceeding
246 this value whilst veals contamination is commonly twice higher than milking cows. These
247 calculations are usefully complemented by congener fingerprint profiles calculated from
248 samples. Figure 3 presents the following theoretical profile for vegetal concentrations from
249 samples made within same wind direction, and at varying distances. The abscissa –in
250 meters- represents the distances to source (upwind in negative numbers and downwind in
251 positive numbers) and ordinates represent the pollutant concentrations.

252 Such simple graphs, derived from Excel, can be used to estimate concentrations $Conc_{theor}$
253 at Dis_{source} , whether upwind or downwind. Such quasi-Gaussian profile further enables
254 the possibility to establish that:

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- 256 • the higher concentrations are by source;
- 257 • impacts are slightly higher downwind;
- 258 • the background noise is found at 10 km distance, upwind and downwind, and
- 259 • the absence of secondary sources that would have caused significant / local or
260 temporal concentration anomalies.

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262 In this theoretical case, the background noise is too low to cause concentrations in
263 excess of regulated thresholds, as is an almost universal condition, though depending on
264 the possibly high concentration of industrial plants, sources that would exist nearby.

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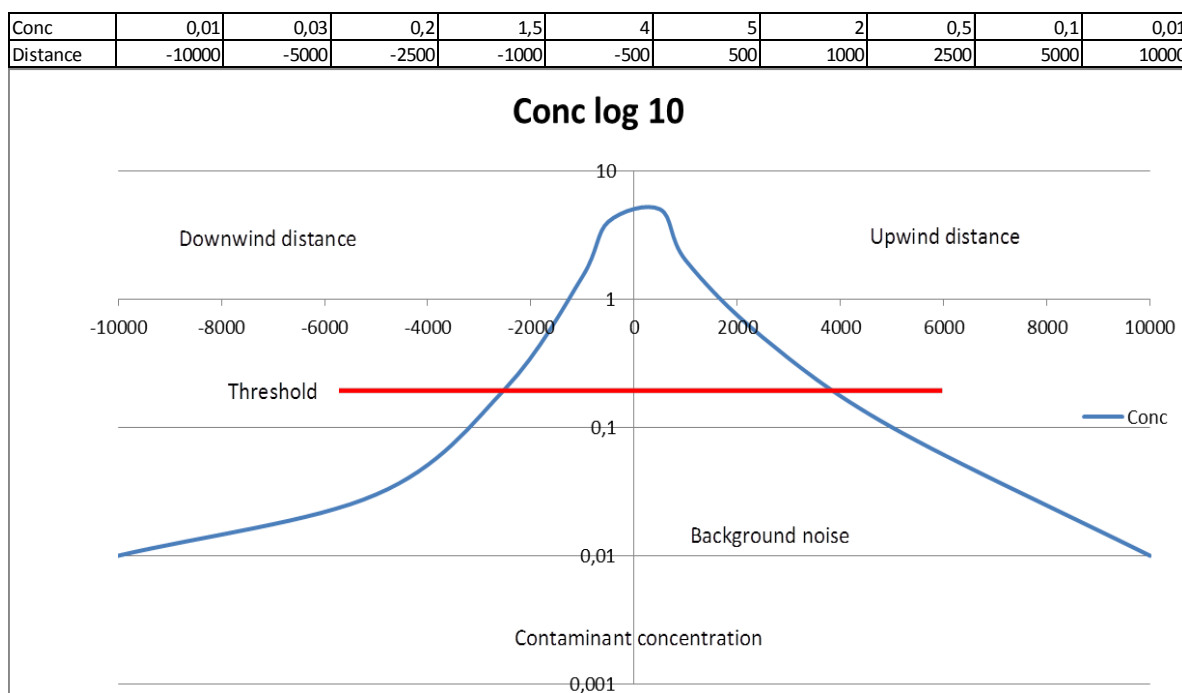
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Figure 3 Theoretical concentration profile for vegetal samples made within same wind direction, and at varying distances.

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5 DEBATES AND POTENTIAL PITFALLS

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5.1 Time

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Time is a critical factor because it can take years before the pollution is first documented.

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To the parties and their consultants, it is primordial to focus on the situation at the time the case and the supporting evidence did build, possibly years before forensic involvement. Dendrochemical evidence gained from pine or picea needles can help document current and past contamination, typically year by year and back to 7 or 8 years before sampling time, also providing the chemical fingerprint of the 35 sought congeners.

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In cases where an industrial party is continuously involved, they will do their best to abate their emissions, would it be by mechanical / physical / chemical control systems, or by reducing their activities, either on an annual basis, or within weeks or months before analytical campaigns are conducted, of which they proactively are informed. In such a situation, measured concentrations would not exceed regulated thresholds, although they may have at other times.

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Furthermore, environmental forensic expertise also can address preventive considerations: this *in futurum* part of experts' tasks is to check whether proper solutions are in place or additional measures should be set. Such anticipative considerations are essential to help the judge and law enforcement authorities make sure that the pollution problem will not continue after litigation of the dispute, or would not occur in other circumstances.

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With the adoption of international conventions, such as the 1989 Aarhus Convention or Sustainable development, the experts' mandates are turning more and more complex as

298 they involve considerations to Human Rights, or environmental damage, that goes far
299 beyond common forensic practice in the 20th Century.

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301 **5.2 Combining Datasets**

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303 Care is required when combining and comparing datasets from different sampling
304 investigations, as analytical procedures are constantly changing. Similar challenges exist
305 when comparing samples from different matrixes as the extraction and clean up procedures
306 will differ depending on the matrix and possibly even the sample. This is especially
307 important when comparing low level concentration data, in instances where the
308 concentration is below the limit of detection (LOD) a value of the LOD or LOD/2 is often
309 substituted.⁹ If the LOD is different between the two or more datasets this can indicate a
310 difference between the datasets which may not actually exist in the samples.

311 Another consideration with PCB and PCDD/F data collected over different time
312 periods is the fact that the TEFs are regularly reviewed and updated by WHO. The most
313 recent values were released in 2005 and so it is important to understand that any TEQs
314 produced before 2005 may have been calculated using the 1998 WHO TEFs and any TEQs
315 calculated before 1998 may have been calculated using the 1988 NATO I-TEQs.
316 Depending upon which of the three TEFs are used, and on the congener mixture in the
317 samples, it is not uncommon for the calculated TEQs to vary by over 10%.¹⁰ Therefore
318 care must be taken when comparing and combining datasets over different time periods
319 and it is always useful to double check the raw data to identify which TEFs have been used
320 in any TEQ calculation.

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322 **5.3 Evidence**

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324 In some cases local events, such as slash and burn, backyard waste burning may be
325 inferred as temporal and local cause of exceeding threshold limits in some samples. A rule
326 of thumb is that such events also exist in the areas where background noise is documented.
327 Some parties may utilize selected data rather than considering the entire data set in an
328 attempt to advocate a particular position, rather than considering all of the information and
329 basing scientific opinions on this analysis.

330 The bibliographic resources available are vast, technically complex, and may be
331 available from governmental and intergovernmental organizations or from peer-reviewed
332 publications. Language is a significant barrier. This would require considerable resource as
333 dozens of key references are several hundred pages, when it may be sufficient to translate
334 the important pages only (for example the web link given in section 4.2. refers to an US
335 EPA document several hundred pages long).

336 Depending on the judicial system in place in the country where the case takes place, it
337 is more or less easy to access all pre-existing evidences. Taking just one example, when
338 many others could be referred to, let's consider that an industrial plant has been found to
339 cause environmental impacts in excess of regulated level; worker's staff, most directly
340 exposed to industrial activity, may have been subject to biological sampling, to document
341 their exposure to the specific pollutant. What about if such worker's exposure has been
342 documented by company and his exposure level is not communicated to the experts, nor
343 attorneys and even not Court, whenever the numbers may exceed by 50 or 100 times the
344 regulated ones? Such evidence would have proved essential to link contamination to the
345 workplace as a source, but also to further establish toxic torts.

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348 6 CONCLUSIONS

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350 Environmental forensics investigations are key to Justice by honestly documenting the
351 facts, understanding each and all of the evidences would they be served by plaintiff,
352 defendant, or newly established as part of a litigation, whatever the data and influencing
353 parameters can be complex. Contradictory debate is key, provided it is served with
354 unbiased transparency and highest competent objectivity; some evidences may prove
355 scientifically opposable, others turn as highlights when to form an honest opinion.

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358 **Acknowledgements**

359

360 This publication is the result of collegial expertise within the French Company of Judicial
361 Environmental Experts (Compagnie Nationale des Experts de Justice en Environnement)
362 along with INEF.

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