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# **Dust Suppression on Wyoming's Coal Mine Haul Roads**

## **Literature Review**

## **Recommended Practices and Best Available Control Measures – BACM**

## **Dust Suppressant Selection Guides**

## **A Manual**

prepared for:  
*Industries of the Future*  
Converse Area  
New Development

October, 2004

by:

Temple Stevenson

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## Introduction

Fugitive dust emissions are increasingly becoming a problem for Wyoming's surface mines located in a windy semi-arid environment where the average wind speed is 12 miles per hour and the average rainfall is a mere 14 inches with some of the highest evaporation rates in the nation. Fugitive dust emissions are a nuisance in coal mines, impairs visibility, affects the health of employees, increases wear and tear of equipment and increases road maintenance and costs. Current drought conditions, elevated wind speeds, compliance with air quality and clarity standards impacted by particulate emissions, a predicted increase in coal production, and increased Coal Bed Methane operations has heightened the concern.

Dust from surface coal mine operations also has the potential to negatively impact Federal Class I Air Quality Areas in the region, such as Badlands and Wind Cave National Parks and the Northern Cheyenne American Indian Area. While no visibility impairment in these Class I areas is currently attributable to any Wyoming source, it

anticipated that strategies to maintain a status of minimal impact will be of notable value to the Western Regional Air Partnership (WRAP) and the State of Wyoming in the development of its Regional Haze SIP (State Implementation Plan), due by Dec 31, 2003. (Wyoming's Long Term Strategy for Visibility Protection: Review Report, 2003).

It is the intent of this report to contribute to a better understanding of fugitive **dust** and its mitigation, so that efficient and effective management strategies for suppressing it can be implemented. The report includes four segments: I. Literature Review; II. Recommended Practices and Best Available Control Measures -BACM; III. **Dust** Control Suppressant Selection Guides; and an Appendix containing a fugitive **dust** bibliography and document examples.

## I. Literature Review: Fugitive Dust and its Control

### Sources and Impact of **Dust** Generated by Surface Coal Mines

Haul roads, over-burden piles, drilling and blasting, coal transfers and loading, and topsoil handling are all contributing factors of **dust** generation in a coal mine. A South African study conducted in an arid climate similar to Wyoming's by Thompson and Visser (2002) titled "*Benchmarking and Management of Fugitive **Dust** Emissions From Surface Mine Haul Roads,*" determined that 93% of the total **dust** emissions from a coal strip mine could be contributed to coal transport or haul roads. Figure 1. illustrates their findings of the contributions of specific sources of fugitive as a percentage of the total fugitive **dust** generated by a surface coal mine.

93% of t  
emission  
strip min  
contribu  
transpor

Fig. 1 Percentage contribution to total dust emissions (Thompson & Visser 2002)

Assessing the source and impact of **dust** to determine the need to increase watering, decrease speed, use **dust** suppressing chemicals (also known as palliatives), or re-graveling is constricted by a lack of problem solving methodology that takes into ac the complexity of various interactions. The interactions include traffic volume, weig climate, and more according to Thompson & Visser (2002). They add, "most surfac mine operators agree that **dust** free roads are desirable, but find it difficult to transp

mine operators agree that dust-free roads are desirable, but find it difficult to translate into cost-effective management and mitigation." This same study found that regular watering and the application of chemical **suppressants** in conjunction with optimal aggregate surfaces is the only effective option for controlling fugitive **dust** emission haul roads.

The most harmful types of fugitive **dust** to the respiratory system are those that are 10 microns in diameter, known as PM<sub>10</sub>'s. Because they are most harmful, they

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most monitored. Another common measurement involves total suspended particulate TSP's. Total suspended particulates refer to the total amount of solid particulates and liquid droplets suspended in the air, regardless of particle size (Ferguson et al., 1995). Wyoming has been monitoring PM<sub>10</sub> emissions to meet Federal standards since before that TSP's were the only monitored emission.

*According to EPA officials, exceedences of the 24 hour standard for particulate matter in southern Campbell County escalated substantially over the last 15 years; from 0 incidents during 1990-2000 to 19 incidents from 2001-03.*

### **Dust Suppression Planning**

When a coal mine is in the process of implementing a **dust** suppression plan, cost always plays a large role in product selection. When looking at a product, an overall cost analysis should be taken into account. According to Bolander and Yamada (1999) in a report for the US Forest Service entitled "*Dust Palliative Selection and Application Guide*," a successful **dust** control program should not only reduce total **dust** emissions, but it should also reduce maintenance costs. Some **dust** control products have proven that they can significantly reduce overall road maintenance costs and thus achieve an overall savings. At the same time additional preparation and a change in maintenance practices must be accounted for. A booklet published by Environment Australia, a branch of the Australian Department of the Environment and Heritage, *Dust Control Best Practice Environmental Management in Mining (1998)*, explains the benefit of a **dust** control plan as "a long view of **dust** control has proven consistently cost effective. Mine planning has a particularly important role to play in **dust** control. Applying controls after the problem



arise is often difficult, impractical or costly."

### *Haul Roads/Unpaved Roads*

Fugitive **dust** is derived from a variety of sources; nonpoint sources such as un-vegetated soils, and specific sources such as haul roads (Environment Australia 1998). **Dust** generation can be defined as the process by which particulate matter becomes airborne. The amount of **dust** that becomes airborne is a function of various factors; including susceptibility of the surface material to wind and water erosion, and the erosive action of haul trucks (Thompson & Visser 2002). If this latter human activity coincides with unfavorable weather conditions, the result can be greatly increased **dust** emissions (Ferguson et al., 1999).

*Haul roads generate significant amounts of dust emissions (EPA Fugitive L 1992; Thompson and Visser, 2002).*

There have been several studies completed to estimate the emission rates of PM on unpaved roads. According to Bolander and Yamada (1999) in the US Forest Service Report, *Dust Palliative Selection and Application Guide*, the following **dust** generation factors should be considered when designing a **dust** control plan:

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#### **Dust Generation Factors:**

- Vehicle Speed
- Number of Wheels Per Vehicle
- Traffic Volume
- Particle Size Distribution of the Aggregate
- Compaction of the Surface Material
- Surface Moisture
- Climate

Researchers from the Desert Research Institute at the University of Nevada determined that a vehicle traveling on a untreated unpaved road at a speed of approximately 25 mph generates between 0.50 to 2.00 lbs of PM<sub>10</sub> emissions per vehicle mile traveled.

generates between 0.29 to 2.00 lbs of  $PM_{10}$  emissions per vehicle miles traveled (Gillies et al. 1999). When that vehicle's speed was increased to 35 mph the emission rates increased to 1.85 to 3.04 lbs.  $PM_{10}$  VMT with an uncertainty of 0.23 lbs. VMT. Other studies have found similar emission results. Flocchini et al. (1994) suggest that reducing vehicle travel speeds on unpaved roads from 40km/hr to 24 km/hr reduces  $PM_{10}$  emissions by 42 + 35%

The Environmental Protection Agency, reporting in *Compilation of Air Pollutants Emission Factors Volume 1 Ch 13 AP-42 (1998)*, found that emission of fugitive dust on haul roads is highly correlated with vehicle weight and silt content of the surface material. The study reported that a silt content mean of 8.4% of fines on a haul road a mean of 24% was found on a freshly graded haul road. This indicates a significant increase in fines after a road has been graded.

In addition to these factors the EPA also suggests that other traffic characteristics should be considered: such as the cornering of trucks, the road's bearing strength, and grade (EPA, 1998, AP-42). They also suggest a complete examination into climate conditions like freeze/thaw cycles and monthly average wind speeds.

Effective dust control on haul roads in the Powder River Basin is complicated by the fact that stretches of road, constructed of less than optimal aggregates, are subject to high traffic volume by heavy haul trucks, which requires continuous grading and the frequent addition of new surface material. Wearing of surface material is related to a number of factors including wind speed at the road surface, traffic volume and tonnage, type of aggregate, compaction of the road, amount of spillage, and climate (Thompson & V 2002).

In addition to haul roads and related travel areas such as truck parking lots, stockpile/reclaim areas also contribute to total dust emissions, but are usually much more difficult to control. (EPA Fugitive Dust, 1992). The EPA has devised numerous equations to estimate emissions both from unpaved roads and from storage piles. The equations can be found in "*Fugitive Dust Background Document and Technical Information Document for Best Available Control Measures*," published by the EPA September of 1992.

In a report by the U.S Army Construction Engineering Research Laboratories Gebh: al.(1999) noted that chemical **suppressants** should be considered as a *secondary source* in controlling **dust**. "A properly maintained road with adequate drainage to create a road surface should be the first step and must be implemented to the greatest extent possible. The best way to avoid a **dust** problem is to properly maintain the surface, that is achieved by grading and shaping for cross sectional crowning which prevents generation caused by excessive road surface wear." It should be noted that this study to contend with heavy vehicles with tracks, such as tanks, which reduced the efficiency and cost effectiveness of any **dust** suppressant.

### Effectiveness of **Dust** Suppressant Measures on Unpaved Roads

When analyzing **dust** control effectiveness it is hard to determine a product's direct impact due to the large number of compounding variables (traffic volume, truck weight and speed, road type, etc.). This is further compounded by the fact that there is not a uniform standard for determining **dust** suppressant effectiveness (North Carolina Department of Environment and Natural Resources Division of Air Quality (2003). Most assessments available are based on qualitative data not quantitative data (Sanders & Addo, 1993). "Without any quantitative **dust** measurement, it is difficult if not impossible to assess the economics and lasting value of **dust** palliation methods," (Sanders & Addo, p.11, 1993). There are generally two areas of study concerning measuring or analyzing **dust**. The first is atmospheric modeling and prediction, and the second is field measurements and quantifications (Sanders & Ad 1993). Field studies are generally more helpful in determining actual effectiveness; however there are numerous factors that need to be considered. Because of the diverse of site characteristics, it is difficult to recommend a suppressant that will work well situations.

Chemical **du** generally pro control effici 80% when ap intervals of t month (EPA, The effective **suppressant** depends on th the applicatic between appl amount, weig traffic, metec conditions, a characteristic

In many instances the only gauge of the effectiveness of a product is either the result from manufacturer's testing or testimonials from previous users (Engle, 2004). Even it is hard to determine if the product is going to work in a particular area with possit different aggregate type.

*The following is a summary of some of the significant studies that have been conducted regarding the relative effectiveness of dust control measures.*

Thomas Sanders, et al. (1997) conducted a study at Colorado State University on unimproved road sections in Larimer County, Colorado to try to determine the relative effectiveness of the three commercially available dust suppressants. These researchers evaluated the effectiveness of lignosulfonate (lignin<sup>1</sup>), calcium chloride ( $\text{CaCl}_2$ ) and magnesium chloride ( $\text{MgCl}_2$ ) against a section left untreated. They based their evaluation on the following fundamental measurements: traffic volume, fugitive dust emissions, and total aggregate loss and used these measurements to calculate a cost analysis.

After taking 15 dust samples over a test period of 4.5 months they found that all three of the treated sections outperformed the untreated section. Total aggregate loss was significantly higher for the untreated section, in fact it was 3 times more than the  $\text{MgCl}_2$ , 2.7 times the lignin<sup>1</sup>, and 2 times the  $\text{CaCl}_2$ . Relative fugitive dust emissions were highest on the untreated section. Based on cost to replace aggregate lost, traffic volume, cost of maintenance, and cost of suppressants they concluded that lignin<sup>1</sup> and  $\text{MgCl}_2$  had an identical cost per mile per year of \$21 per vehicle, while  $\text{CaCl}_2$  was at \$26 and the untreated was up to \$36. They produced the following chart to highlight the cost analysis (ADT is the average daily traffic).

(Sanders, et al. p. 396, 1997)

Based on these results, the group concluded that under high temperature and low relative humidity lignosulfonate appears to lessen the amount of **dust** produced. They also found that lignosulfonate and  $MgCl_2$  had the least total aggregate loss at 1.0 t/mi/yr/vehicle. The study found a 28-42% reduction in annual maintenance cost for the treated sections compared to the untreated sections.

However, during a personal interview with this author on March 30, 2004, Sanders stated that he felt the  $MgCl_2$  was the superior product based on long term effectiveness (Sanders, 2004).

In a laboratory study, Epps and Ehsan (2002) compared aggregates from Wyoming, Texas, and Arizona to determine the effectiveness of water,  $CaCl_2$  and  $MgCl_2$  in controlling **dust**. They used a crushed gravel stone from Wyoming in one segment of the study. This gravel contained approximately 9.9% fines, less than both the Texas and Arizona samples. They prepped the aggregates by allowing them to cure for 2 days at 32°C and 35% relative humidity. They then sprayed the samples with water at a rate of 1.8 L/m<sup>2</sup> to reduce the surface tension and increase the rate of penetration, and then applied magnesium chloride to one sample, calcium chloride to another, and water to another sample. They found that applying chemical palliatives ( $MgCl_2$ ); the Wyoming aggregate had a statistically significant effect on reducing erosion caused by wind. This, they determined, was related to the fact that the chemicals kept the surface wet even in windy conditions. The authors found no real difference between the  $MgCl_2$  and  $CaCl_2$ , but noted that both lose their effectiveness over time.

Next they evaluated the effectiveness of the chemicals in a simulated traffic experiment. They found that a 38% solution of  $CaCl_2$  and a 30% solution of  $MgCl_2$  applied

Wyoming aggregate significantly reduced erosion caused by traffic compared to an aggregate sample that was only treated with water. They concluded that the application of CaCl<sub>2</sub> or MgCl<sub>2</sub> greatly enhanced dust control on unpaved roads in comparison to water or no treatment and that there is not a significant difference between the two chemicals.

Gillies et al. (1999) from the Desert Research Institute at the University of Nevada and the San Joaquin Valley Unified Air Pollution Control District evaluated the effectiveness of four dust suppressants over a 14 month study. The suppressants that were tested included a biocatalyst stabilizer (EMC <sup>2</sup>), a polymer emulsion (Soil Sement), a polymer emulsion with polymer (Choerex PM), and a nonhazardous crude-oil-containing material. The study identified an equation to calculate suppressant control efficiency, which is defined as "the percent reduction in emissions between the treated and untreated sections."

$$\text{Efficiency} = 1 - (\text{treated emission factor} / \text{untreated emission factor})$$

This study determined that estimating suppressant efficiency can be done using some simple methods in place of expensive monitoring. The authors determined that a measurement of the bulk silt loading and the surface strength can provide an effective, inexpensive assessment of a suppressant's effectiveness to reduce PM<sub>10</sub> emissions. A suppressant treated surface that can achieve bulk silt content less than 20 g/m<sup>2</sup> is considered to be 90% effective at suppressing PM<sub>10</sub> emissions. Further, if the surface maintains flexibility (measured by a penetrometer) and can resist brittle failure then the suppressant is predicted to maintain effectiveness longer (Gillies, et al. 1999).

**Effectiveness results** The bio-catalyst (EMC <sup>2</sup>) was only 39% effective after the initial application and 0% effective after 11 months. The acrylic copolymer was 95% effective after one week and approximately 85% after 11 months. The bitumen product was 95% effective after one week, 75% after 11 months, and 53% after 11 months.

The EPA has created an equation to determine the PM<sub>10</sub> emission factor for unpaved roads. This accuracy of this equation, however, is still under some question, particularly related to vehicle speed (Muleski/MRI 2002). Also this equation is designed around

...  
average traffic weight, and does not account for heavier trucks (e.g. haul trucks).

$$E = 2.6 (\text{Silt}/12)^{0.8} (\text{Weight}/3)^{0.4} / (\text{Moisture}/0.2)^{0.3}$$

E = PM<sub>10</sub> unpaved road **dust** emission factor for all vehicle  
Silt = silt content, material less than 75 μm in the surface mater  
Weight = average weight of the vehicle fleet (tons)  
Moisture = surface moisture content (%) (EPA, AP

The addition of moisture into the equation is fairly recent (Countess, 2001). It was based on the recognition that climate and moisture play a large part in overall emissions from unpaved roads. An older version of this equation included variables for the number of wheels and speed, but re-analysis proved the variable not to be statistically significant (Countess, 2001). However, when using this model in an industrial setting it may be important to account for total wheels, traffic volume, and speed as variables. In addition, some feel that the type of aggregate should be included as it can often account for the long term amount of fines in the road surface.

### Dust Suppressants

Road **dust suppressants** have evolved notably. Second and third generation products now solving not only the **dust** problem but also cost efficiency, environmental, and safety issues (Engle, 2004). Positive results are now coming from even the toughest desert drought environments where past products have failed (Engle, 2004). While EPA (AP-42, 1998) testing has shown that chemical **dust suppressants** can be effective (80% reduction when applied at regular intervals) there is not a single, cure-all solution. Some products work better in certain climates, various road surfaces, and under different traffic volumes, and each product comes with various advantages and limitations.

**Dust suppressants** are effective based on the fact that they agglomerate the fine particles in a road surface, binding the surface particles together, and increasing the density of the haul road surface material (Bolander & Yamada, 1999). If fines are lost as **dust** on an unpaved road it leads to the coarse material coming loose and can then be thrown or washed away. This can result in a road full of corrugations and potholes that require expensive maintenance (Sanders & Addo, 1993). "The main goal of a **dust** control is to stabilize the road surface; reducing the rate of aggregate loss and money spent annually on replacement," (Sanders & Addo, 1993).

**Dust** control additives are beneficial not only at reducing **dust** emissions, but they also improve the compaction and stability of the road. According to Epps and Ehsan (2001) there are numerous factors related to the effectiveness of a **dust** palliative including application rate, method of application, moisture content of the surface material during application, palliative concentrations, fines content, mineralogy of the aggregate, and environmental conditions.

Surface treatments to control **dust** emissions fall under two categories, wet suppression and chemical stabilization (EPA, AP-42, 1998). Wet suppression includes watering the application of surfactants that keep the road surface wet. Chemical stabilization involves an attempt to change the physical characteristic of the road. Unlike watering chemical **suppressants** require less reapplication and many act to form a hardened surface (EPA, AP-42, 1998).

The addition of a wetting agent or larger sized particles reduces erodibility only at the interface of the surface and the impact vehicles (Thompson & Visser 2002). **Dust** control measures lose effectiveness on a scale ranging from immediately to weeks. The palliative effects of water decays from 100% to 0% in a matter of hours while chemical applied to control **dust** may decay over several days or weeks so it is important to understand the expected effectiveness of the product that you are working with (Thompson & Visser 2002).

A report issued by the U.S. Department of Transportation and the South Dakota Local Transportation Assistance Program states that in areas of high traffic volume, the cost of **dust** control can more than pay for itself. This is based on the fact that a good **dust** control agent can not only reduce material lost from the road, but also reduce the need for road maintenance (Skoreth & Selim 2000). The same study determined that when a **dust** suppressant is not working well aggregate fines are lost, leaving only gravel size particles on the road, which leads to the formation of a washboard surface, reduced skid resistance and potholes. The addition of agents (water or chemical) to reduce erodibility is based on the principle of increasing binding of the fines and gravel. (Thompson & Visser 2002)

According to "Surface Mine **Dust** Control" by John Organiscak, et al. (2003), the best **dust** control plan should be dependent on the type of aggregate you have on your highway road. Selecting a **dust** suppressant, according to Sanders (1993) should depend not only on its performance characteristics, but also on the type of traffic and volume, road conditions, and the costs involved to achieve the desired level of control.

In the following selection and application guide, Bolander and Yamada (1999) suggest that selecting **suppressants** involves determining not only cost but cost effectiveness. The following are the factors that should be considered



They have devised the following list of beneficial factors that should be considered selecting a **dust** palliative.

#### Palliative Factors

- Coherence of the **Dust** Particles (to themselves or larger parti
- Resistance to Traffic Wear
- Aggregate Retention
- Long-term Effectiveness

*(Bolander & Yamada, 19*

#### *Water*

Water assists in maintaining the compaction and strength of the road aggregate and reduces the potential loss of road material (Thompson & Visser 2002). It is attractive because it is seen as a cost effective alternative, however the cost soon escalates with the addition of expensive equipment and operating costs.

Data from the EPA's *Compilation of Air Pollution Emission Factors Volume Ch 13, AP-42* (1998) shown here in Figure 1.1 suggests that small increases in moisture content (1 to 2 moisture level) initially results in large increases in control efficiency (from 0% to 75%) but beyond which additional efficiency grows slowly with increased watering (requires 2.5x more water to increase effectiveness to 95%) significantly reducing cost effectiveness at the upper

**Figure 1.1      Dust Control Efficiency of Water**

Similarly, a study by Rosbury and Zimmer (1983) found that watering once an hour has an efficiency of 40% in controlling dust, but when that rate is doubled the efficiency increases only by 15% to 55%.

Re-application is required at frequent intervals dependent on environmental conditions. Water retention in the Powder River Basin is generally poor due to high temperatures and wind speeds as well as low relative humidity. Increased

water scarcity and cost adds to the scenario making water a temporary and typically un-economical solution.

Thompson and Visser (2002), based on the context of the arid South African mines, determined the degree of dust control achieved by watering is a function of the amount of water applied, time between applications, traffic volumes, weather conditions, wearing-course material, and the extent of water penetration into

wearing course. They determined that on an average degree of dustiness, a reapplication is required at three hour intervals in the winter and every hour half in the summer. These intervals decrease with the addition of weight per vehicle, number of wheels, traffic volume, and climate conditions.

Thompson and Visser (2002) also found that traffic volume negatively correlated with total dustiness; which they explained based on observation, that higher volumes led to more compaction of the wearing course and the removal of loose material on the sides of the road as well as spillage from the vehicle. They also determined that vehicles lower to the ground with many wheels tend to an increase in **dust** based on the increase in wind shear.

Precipitation can greatly reduce **dust** emissions. Normally a rainfall result in at least 0.1 inch is assumed to suppress all emissions. However during a hot, dry summer's day a rain of that same amount may only reduce emissions for half the opposed to days (Countess, 2001).

### *Chlorides*

Chlorides are salts that act as water attracters and absorbers; as hygroscopic compounds, they draw moisture out of the air to keep the road surface damp although there is no physical binding (Skoreth & Selim 2000).

*Chlorides are the most commonly used products for haul road dust control. A study by Rosbury and Zimmer (1983) showed that the highest control efficiency measured for a chemical dust suppressant (at that time), 82%, was for CaCl<sub>2</sub> two weeks after application then decreased over time. The average during the initial two weeks was approximately 50%. After five weeks, the control efficiency declined to less than 20%.*

The most common salts used to control **dust** are calcium chloride (CaCl<sub>2</sub>) and magnesium chloride (MgCl<sub>2</sub>). When determining which is most effective ability to produce a brine under adverse conditions such as high wind speed, humidity, or high traffic volumes is the best indicator (Sanders, 1993).

### CaCl<sub>2</sub>

Calcium Chloride (CaCl<sub>2</sub>) has been used as a **dust** control and road stabilizing agent for the last century (Epps & Ehsan, 2002). CaCl<sub>2</sub> has deliquescent and hygroscopic properties causing the chemical to ha

high affinity to water; increasing the tension of water molecules between soil particles. When applied the chemical increases the adhesive bond between particles resulting in retention of particles. According to E al.(2002)  $\text{CaCl}_2$  has a wider range of effectiveness in regards to temperature than magnesium chloride and loses its hygroscopic property at a temperature of 25C if the relative humidity drops below 32%.

Calcium Chloride comes in three forms: flake at 77-80% purity, pe 97% purity, and a clear liquid at 35-38% purity (Bolander & Yama 1999). Calcium Chloride is favored over Magnesium Chloride in seasons of higher humidity, but it is not as effective in long dry seasons (Bolander & Yamada, 1999). This chemical can significantly lower the freezing point of a water solution. In fact a 30% solution can have a freezing point of -60F (Larkin Laboratory, 1986). Because of this property several coal mines choose to use  $\text{CaCl}_2$  during the winter.

#### $\text{MgCl}_2$

Magnesium chloride is a by-product of potash production and is available in the liquid form (Ferguson et al., 1999). When determining which chemical is more effective there are contradictory findings; some studies claim  $\text{MgCl}_2$  is more effective than  $\text{CaCl}_2$ , while others claim the opposite. It seems the more recent studies are coming to the conclusion that  $\text{MgCl}_2$  is outperforming  $\text{CaCl}_2$ . According to Epps and Estep (1999)  $\text{MgCl}_2$  is more effective than  $\text{CaCl}_2$  in increasing the surface tension of water molecules. Bolander and Yamada (1999) found that  $\text{MgCl}_2$  is considered to be the best water absorbing product for drier climates because the chemical starts to absorb water from the air at 32% relative humidity regardless of the temperature. The product also increases aggregate surface tension, creating a very hard road when the surface dries, more so than  $\text{CaCl}_2$ .

Both  $\text{CaCl}_2$  and  $\text{MgCl}_2$  are known to be corrosive to metals, because they attract moisture to the surface and thus prolong the period of erosion (Bolander & Yamada, 1999). A positive attribute of both of these chemicals is that each allows a maintenance crew to re-grade and re-compact with little concern for surface moisture loss.

Calhoun et al. (1999) state that these salts provide the most satisfactory blend

Gebhart et al. (1999) state that these salts provide the most satisfactory dust application ease, cost, and **dust** control for semi-arid, semi-humid climates.

### *Organic/Non-Bituminous Chemicals*

Compounds under this category include lignosulfonate, sulphite liquors, tal pitch, pine tar, and vegetable oils. These products generally perform well in environments but are not very effective when applied to aggregate surface material with few fines (Gebhart, et al., 1999). These **dust** control agents ca

very sticky and may harbor an unappealing odor. They often fail after heavy rain due to their water soluble, organic nature (Gebhart, et al., 1999). These products currently appear expensive, but the cost benefit equation continually changes. As a rule, they tend to be environmentally friendly. One compound with some supporting literature is lignosulfonate (lignin').

#### Lignin'

Lignin' or lignosulfonate is a by-product of the paper making process and is regarded to be generally safe environmentally because of the fact that it is an organic product. This product performs very well under arid conditions. It binds particles together to increase the strength of the aggregate and remains effective during long dry spells with low humidity (Baker & Yamada, 1999). One of lignin's weaknesses is that it is highly soluble in water, and its surface binding properties can be destroyed by heat. It also has a tendency to stick to passing vehicles and is difficult to clean from painted surfaces (Frazer, 2003). Lignin is most effective and has the greatest longevity when the road has been scarified and the product has been mixed into the aggregate (Sanders & Addo, 1997). However, this same scarification process that reduces the current use of lignin' on some haul roads, as the perceived costs of the down-time due to scarification and curing appears prohibitive.

A study using lignin' on Pikes Peak's unpaved roads conducted by

Sanders and Addo (1998) revealed that the lignin was 2.7 more effective at suppressing dust than water. After spring snowmelt, 8 months after application, there were indications that the Lignin was still functioning in a good proportion of the test sections.

### *Petroleum Products*

Petroleum products include asphalt emulsions (modified and not), dust oils, fluids, and petroleum resin emulsions. These products may be effective in a variety of climates; however, because they are by-products of petroleum and waste oils, they may contain toxic materials with significant environmental effects, and are not considered safe unless they have been processed to remove toxins (Gebhart, et al., 1999). These products are usually very expensive and the organic products, are very sticky and have a foul smell.

Petroleum products are film forming and dust binding. They coat the dust particles and form a cohesive membrane that attaches each to adjacent particles. This results in a chained bond of large agglomerates that are too heavy to be dislodged by wind (James Informational Media, Inc., 2000).

### Emulsified Asphalts

Emulsified Asphalts work to control dust, but their use is very limited; the product must be applied with specialized equipment (Skorseth & Selim 2000). The soil type and density of the road surface can greatly affect the rate at which a petroleum product penetrates the road. Roads that have been scarified to loosen the aggregate achieve the greatest amount of soil penetration. If the road has not been scarified the use of products with low viscosities will be ineffective (Bolander, Yamada 1999).

### *Polymers*

Polymers such as polyvinyl acrylics and acetates work by binding the surface particles together to form a semi-rigid film on the surface. Polymers are considered suitable for use under a wide range of climate and soil conditions and are most effective in environments that receive 8 to 40 inches of precipitation per year. Generally, a light compaction of the road after application of a polymer is recommended unless the product is mixed into the road surface (Bolander, Yamada 1999). Polymers are considered to be most effective on *lightly trafficked areas*. These types of palliatives are usually non-toxic and environmentally friendly (Gebhart, et al., 1999).

### *Electro-Chemical Stabilizers*

Electro-Chemical stabilizers include sulphonated petroleum, ionic stabilizers and bentonite. They are not likely to leach out and are stated to be very effective at reducing dust emissions in clay or sandy aggregate types. These products perform well under a variety of climate conditions; however, many of these products have not been tested using standard laboratory tests under field conditions. Small scale trials should be performed to determine site specific efficiency prior to large scale usage (Gebhart, et al., 1999).

### Surfactants

Essentially surfactants are additives that make water wetter, reduce surface tension and allow better penetration of the palliative. At least one product (Haul Road Dust Control) claims a cumulative effect, whereby each new application boosts the effectiveness over previous levels.

Several manufacturers of surfactants recommend prewetting of the roadbed, for their products to perform optimally. Similarly, Epps and Ehsan (2002) used prewetting in their laboratory study of aggregates and erosion.

There is a slight trend within mine operations in the Powder River Basin to use highly diluted applications of  $MgCl_2$  and  $CaCl_2$  in all water applications, instead of a

There are environmental concerns associated with the use of certain surfactants. (ref page 17 of this document for a discussion of these impacts)

### *Other Commercial Products*

A list of commercial products is posted by The New Mexico Environment/ Department of Air Quality Bureau, which can be accessed on the web at [http://www.nmenv.state.nm.us/aqb/dust\\_control.html](http://www.nmenv.state.nm.us/aqb/dust_control.html) and in Table 3.1 of this report. There are some products listed here that are not included in this literature review. Classification of every product is not possible in part due to lack of a literature history and to the proprietary nature of the commercial formulas.

### *Mechanical Stabilization*

Mechanical or road stabilization is the mixing of two or more substrate materials to a road surface that has the correct fine gradation and plasticity. This method does not involve the application of chemicals although they can be used in addition to the stabilization. One of the most effective substrate mixtures involves the addition of clay to a gravel and sand aggregate. The clay binds to the fine particles, and improves the road's stability and longevity. "When a gravel road resists lateral displacement during traffic, it is said to be mechanically stable," notes Gebhart, et al. (1999). This resistance is provided by the natural forces of cohesion and internal friction that exist in the soil."

### **Importance of Appropriate Dust Suppressant Application**

Appropriate application of a selected product is key to the overall effectiveness of a control plan. "It can translate either into success or costly wastefulness, failure, and difficult maintenance down the line," according to David Engle (2004), author of "*Maintenance Techniques and Products Have Made Great Strides.*" Engle also emphasizes timing as a critical component to successful application. He suggests an initial application during the narrow window between the spring rains and the start of a summer drought: "Keeping an eye on the weather forecast is critical; many expensive applications have been ruined by rainfall."

Not only is the timing of the application crucial, but the manner in which the product is applied is just as important - if not more so. Sanders and Addo (1993) describe two methods in which suppressants are most typically applied: mixed-in-place and spray methods. The mixed-in-place method involves mixing the suppressants with the road aggregate. When this application procedure is used it not only suppresses dust but it also provides for an improved road surface resulting in reduced maintenance costs. Spraying involves the high pressure application of the material to the road surface. Topical spraying is effective for short periods of time, though, resulting in the need for reapplications.



effective for short periods of time, though, resulting in the need for reapplications throughout the season (Sanders & Addo, 1997). It is usually wise to try a test section to determine how well the product is going to work on a specific gravel, and what type application works best (Skorseth & Selim, 2000).

*Almost all suppressants have a greater longevity and effectiveness when applied to a road that has been properly prepared, scarified, and the suppressant is mixed in with the aggregate and then compacted to a 6-inch thick wearing course (Sanders & Addo, 1997).*

Another key application principle was identified by Bolander and Yamada (1999). They suggest that adequate penetration of the **dust** suppressant into the surface material is imperative. This penetration should be 3/8 to 3/4 of an inch in depth. Proper penetration will reduce the loss of palliative from surface wear and allow the surface to resist leaching. The process imparts cohesion, and resists aging.

Bolander and Yamada (1999) in the *USFS Dust Palliative Selection and Application* provide the following suggestions for applying **dust suppressants**:

#### Application Tips

- Repair unstable surface, grade (to a adequate depth) immediately to application
- Apply **suppressants** (especially salts) immediately after the wet surface
- Apply after a rain, or spray the road before application, to ensure materials are more moist and thus more workable
- Adhere to manufactures recommendations on minimum application rate, compaction and curing time
- Use a pressure distributor to evenly distribute the suppressant
- Water frequently and lightly, not infrequently and heavily

#### Scarifying

Sanders et al. (1997) include scarification of the road surface in their list of important techniques to be considered when applying **dust suppressants** and particularly specify the technique when using lignin. Organiscak et al. (2000) suggest that when using chlorides it is beneficial to loosen 1-2 inches of the aggregate uniformly to allow the chemical to penetrate evenly. And like Bo

and Yamada (1999), the group stresses proper road preparation as a key to the effectiveness of a **dust** palliative, especially creating a good crown and drain when using a chloride. They also state that when using a chloride the road should not be compacted before applying the chemicals and the road should be kept at optimum moisture before application, this allows the product to be absorbed quickly and evenly.

For some **suppressants** it is recommended to keep traffic off the road surface for two to three hours after application to allow the product to absorb and cure (Skorseth & Se 2000). This characteristic is expected to be considered a limitation by mine engineers who would have difficulty justifying the necessary down time involved on mine haul roads (see survey results, Appendix A). Grading after application also partially destroys the effect of many **dust suppressants** (Ferguson et al., 1999). Because of this, grading should be postponed after heavy application of suppressant for as long as possible.

The EPA has recommended that a diluted reapplication be applied periodically (2 weeks to a month) to control loose surface material. They also state that weather related

application schedules should be considered prior to implementing a **dust control program** (EPA Fugitive **Dust**, 1992).

The type of road aggregate is one factor that determines the type of **dust control** that is most effective. Organiscak et al. (2003) recommend effective applications for various road types in their article "Surface Mine **Dust Control**." In road surfaces with poor gradation, water is the only effective solution because chemical **suppressants** (most which are water soluble) cannot compact the surface or form a new surface because they will leach. In sand they recommend bitumens because of the fact that they are not water soluble. On a road with good gradation all chemical **suppressants** can be used, and on a road with too much silt the road should just be rebuilt, as no **dust control** will be effective (Organiscak, et al., 2003). If a haul road is left untreated by a **dust suppressant** aggregate replacement will become necessary over shorter periods of time and maintenance will be required more frequently (Epps & Ehsan, 2002).

## *Education and Training*

In addition to using prescribed application procedures, John Watson and Ju Chow (2000) from the Desert Research Institute suggest that the success of control problem depends on outreach and education programs for contractor public works agencies. In a coal mine, education should be extended to maintenance personnel.

## Environmental Impacts

The major environmental concern when using **dust suppressants** is contamination of ground and surface water. Thomas Piechota, an assistant engineering professor at University of Nevada Las Vegas was quoted in Lance Frazer's "*Down with Road Dust (Innovations)*" as saying it doesn't matter what suppressant is used, there will always be some level of water quality impact (Frazer, 2003). Piechota noted that petroleum compounds were more harmful than **suppressants** such as magnesium chloride. An area of impact he mentioned is the fact that the **suppressants** are creating a somewhat impenetrable road surface, which will increase runoff, which has its own hydrologic impacts.

There is some potential for off-site plant damage during periods of heavy rainfall (Ferguson et al., 1999). All necessary precautions should be followed to ensure that chemicals are kept away from water sources.

The following photo taken in June of 2004 in Larimer County, Colorado between L: and Estes Park strongly suggests runoff from a highway treated with a 30% solution

and ESICs (Arik strongly suggests runoff from a highway treated with a 50% solution Sodium Chloride (rock salt) and sand may be impacting ponderosa and other pines (Anon' CoDOT, 2004).

While no Wyoming coal mines use Sodium Chloride to treat **dust** on haul roads that know of, the expected negative publicity from this environmental impact (near Boul may carry over into other road salts such as  $MgCl_2$  and  $CaCl_2$  which are heavy. There is no scientific evidence yet of the actual cause of the tree damage, but the die appears to be confined to an area within 50' of the roadway for 20 plus miles, strong suggesting road runoff and/or exhaust fumes as contributing factors. Conversely, few Wyoming coal mine haul roads traverse timbered acreage, limiting this specific imp

Surfactants, on the other hand, may pose some environmental concerns. M. Warhur (1995) in a report to Friends of the Earth, England, outlines toxicity concerns with alkylphenol ethoxylate (APEO) surfactants, and calls for a more widespread ban on use (The surfactant is currently banned in several European countries). He recomme the replacement of APEOs with linear alcohol ethoxylate surfactants, which are reat biodegradable according to Consultants in Environmental Sciences Ltd (CES, 1993)

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