



Although I'm sure that some of you have these rules memorized from previous CLU-IN events, let's run through them quickly for our new participants.

Please mute your phone lines during the seminar to minimize disruption and background noise. If you do not have a mute button, press \*6 to mute #6 to unmute your lines at anytime. Also, please do NOT put this call on hold as this may bring delightful, but unwanted background music over the lines and interupt the seminar.

You should note that throughout the seminar, we will ask for your feedback. You do not need to wait for Q&A breaks to ask questions or provide comments. To submit comments/questions and report technical problems, please use the ? Icon at the top of your screen. You can move forward/backward in the slides by using the single arrow buttons (left moves back 1 slide, right moves advances 1 slide). The double arrowed buttons will take you to 1<sup>st</sup> and last slides respectively. You may also advance to any slide using the numbered links that appear on the left side of your screen. The button with a house icon will take you back to main seminar page which displays our agenda, speaker information, links to the slides and additional resources. Lastly, the button with a computer disc can be used to download and save today's presentation materials.

With that, please move to slide 3.











Does anyone feel that having a little fun during the day is too juvenile, like working for reward by answering questions in quizzes?

We try to liven up a dry, dry...dry, dry topic and a long course to keep you interested and awake.

Speak now or forever hold your peace.



## Incremental vs. Composite Sampling Basic Differences

- Goal of incremental sampling is to find an average concentration over some defined area (a DU).
  - Uses 3 or more independent replicates to obtain a UCL
- Usually the goal of composite sampling is to gain information about contaminant spatial distribution.
  - Accurate or conservative estimate of the concentration for the given area (an SU) not needed
  - Typically not use replicates
- Composite usually involves fewer increments than incremental sampling

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• Generally the budget determines how many samples are collected—not a very scientific way to perform a scientific study.

• Often decisions are made on single data points. For example, if just as single analysis gives a result above an action level, the location where that sample came from may be designated a "hot spot."





Here's what we mean by "particle segregation."

- These photos contrast non-segregated soil with segregated soil
- With shaking or jiggling, larger particles migrate to the top while smaller particles settle downward
- Stirring to "mix" is ineffectual to redistribute particles; often makes segregation worse
- If subsampling involves scooping off the top, could predominately get larger particles; but this depends on another factor (see next slide)



• Based on the results of analyses performed on a few grams of soil, decisions are made about whether contamination is present (and at what level) in tens to hundreds to thousands of tons of soil.

• Although a jar of soil containing 100 or more grams of soil is submitted to the lab, routine metals analysis actually analyzes only 0.5, 1 or sometimes 2 gram of soil (depending on the lab) from that jar.

• Organics analysis typically will analyze from 5 to 30 grams (depending on the lab and the analyte).



## Speaker Notes

• This graph plots the data from a study done in the 1970s. It directly measured how different masses of analytical samples (i.e., the sample support) influenced the statistical distribution of the data.

· Measurement units are in nCi/g

• The experiment involved first preparing a large soil sample of about 2 kg from which subsamples of various sizes could be taken. Preparing the large sample involved moderate homogenization efforts involving mild grinding and then sieving to less than 10-mesh.

• A series of 20 subsamples each of different supports were taken from the large prepared sample.

• The subsample supports that were tested included 1-g, 10-g, and 100-g .

•The wider the peak shape, the more variability present in the data set.

• The data set from the 1-q subsamples plots as a statistical distribution that is unsymmetrical and skewed in that the right-hand tail is pulled out.

The 1-g tail does not reach the x-axis until nearly 6 (green subsample with more nuggets than the proportion in the large sample).

• Many samples have low concentrations, reaching down to about 0.25 (blue subsample without any high-load nuggets)

• The width and shape (a low hump) of the curve mean that repeated subsamplings of the large sample will produce data results that are frequently quite low concentration. But sometimes there will be very high concentration results. This variability is also called imprecision. No single result can be trusted to be close to the true mean.

• In contrast to the 1-g subsamples, the 20 10-g subsamples (purple) showed much less skewing of the right tail.

- The right-hand tail reaches the x-axis just past 3.
- The left-hand tail shows fewer samples (than the 1-g data set) with very low results, with the lower range of the distribution ending at about 0.8

The width of the 10-g peak is narrower, reflecting less variability in the 10-g data set

- For the 100-g subsamples (red), the statistical distribution is almost symmetrical, with a high tight peak and the right skewing nearly gone.
  - . The 100-g curve reaches the x-axis on the right at about 2.5
  - On the left, the 100-g curve runs only down to about 1.4
  - The height and narrowness of the 100-g peak indicates that replicate subsamplings of the same jar produce values that are close to each other (precise), and
    most likely close to the true mean for the large sample.

• Not only do small sample supports increase variability, they also contribute to data taking a lognormal or gamma statistical distribution.

So what does this have to do with decision errors?

P.G. Doctor and R.O. Gilbert. 1978. DOE NAEG Report. Two Studies in Variability for Soil Concentrations: with Aliquot Size and with Distance [provided in webinar References]

See also Gilbert, Richard O. and Pamela G. Doctor. 1985. Determining the Number and Size of Soil Aliquots for Assessing Particulate Contaminant Concentrations. Journal of Environmental Quality Vol 14, No 2, pp. 286-292.

## Supplemental Information

See ISM-1 Section 2.4.1.3



- It is known that the true concentration of the large, 2-kg sample is 1.92
- · Measurement units are in nCi/g
- Now suppose 3 is an action level, which is shown as the small vertical blue line on the x-axis.
- Therefore, the true concentration of the large sample is below the action level of 3
- Will the subsample that is analyzed lead to the correct conclusion, or lead the data user astray?

• Look again at the curve representing the 1-g subsamples: Even though the true mean is well below 3, the skewed nature of the data means that some of the data results are going to be higher than 3, as exemplified by the green subsample. Yet many of the 1-g subsamples will have concentrations much lower than the true mean, as exemplified by the blue subsample.

• Look at the curve representing the 10-g subsamples (the purple subsample): Only rarely will a result from a 10-g subsample exceed 3.

• In contrast, look at the 100-g curve (red subsample). Since that curve ends around 2.5, it is very, very unlikely that any single data result would be greater than 3.

• Larger subsamples are more likely to provide data results that are close to the true mean, as evidenced by the tighter peaks of the 10- and 100-g subsamples.

• The bottom line is that decisions that are based on a single sample result are more likely to be in error when subsample supports are small.

• As we talked about before, metals analysis typically uses around 1 gram of soil. Deciding that a few high results represent hotspots could well be decision errors due to the skewed distribution of data from small subsamples. This is why areas initially called hotspots sometimes cannot be found upon repeat sampling.

• Sampling errors operate in the other direction too. A sample from a true hotspot might give a data result biased far lower than the true value (blue subsample) and the hotspot would be missed.

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Gilbert, Richard O. and Pamela G. Doctor. 1985. Determining the Number and Size of Soil Aliquots for Assessing Particulate Contaminant Concentrations. Journal of Environmental Quality Vol 14, No 2, pp. 286-292.



The same principles apply to short-scale sampling error. Recall that this refers to extrapolating a single data point to a large field area without taking heterogeneity into account. Taking the whole targeted soil volume as a single sample for analysis would provide THE concentration for that volume without any sampling error. Of course, that's not possible. That's why we take samples. The trick is to have enough samples to capture field heterogeneity without breaking the bank. This can be done by taking increments of soil from many locations and pooling them together for a single analysis. This both increases sampling density of the area AND increases the sample support of the field sample—both of which help control sampling error. When increments are pooled for this purpose, it's called incremental sampling.



The UCL is a conservative estimate of the mean. The point is not to develop a conservative estimate of the UCL, the point is to develop a conservative estimate of the mean, which is the basis of many decisions (for example, RCRA regs say data should be produced from "representative samples" & a "representative sample" is "...a sample of a universe or whole (e.g., waste pile, lagoon, ground water) which can be expected to exhibit the average properties of the universe or the whole (40 CFR 260.10)."

The UCL is used when the mean is the actual parameter desired, but it is recognized that there is uncertainty in how well the data from the statistical sample accurately represents the statistical population. Data uncertainty in an undesirable thing. The more we can reduce data uncertainty, the more confidence we have in our estimates of population parameters (upon which the decisions are made). Reduced uncertainty in the data set is reflected as a narrowing of the interval between the calculated mean and the UCL. Reducing the UCL means the data is better.

For example, having more samples in the data set lowers the UCL. If we wanted the most conservative UCL we can get, we would limit our data sets to 2 or 3 samples. But we don't because we all know that more data is indeed "better."





The caveat to all sample analysis is that sample processing must be thorough so that analytical subsamples are representative of the incremental/composite sample.









Central Limit Theorum (CLT) states that under certain conditions, the mean of a "sufficiently" large number of independent random variables, each with finite mean and variance, will be approximately normally distributed (Wikipedia, as of 15Feb2012).

Translated to English: Take a population, such as the total number of possible samples in the field. The statistical distribution of that population can be non-normal (such as gamma distributed, lognormally distributed, or nonparametrically distributed). Now, repeatedly sample that population (say 200 times using computer simulations) using a "sufficient" number of samples, and calculate the mean for each repeat sampling event. That will produce a data set of 200 means. Then take that set of 200 means and plot its statistical distribution. That distribution of means will be normal (or close to normal) if a "sufficiently" large number of samples were used to sample the original population. The question is: how many is "sufficient"? It turns out that the sufficient number depends on how non-normal the original population was. The more non-normal the original population, the more samples that need to be taken to get a normal distribution when the means are plotted. But a "rule-of-thumb" that statisticians use is that 30 samples seems to be sufficient for most applications, but more are needed if the variability in the original population is high.

What does this mean for incremental sampling? An incremental sample represents a physical mean of a set of samples, which are actually the increments in our application. If you take 30 increments and make an incremental sample, unless the contamination is highly variable across the DU, most times 30 increments will be enough so that the data set of say, 200 incremental samples (all from the same DU, and each made of 30 increments), will form a normal distribution.

This is important because when we take only 3 replicate incremental samples, there are not enough data points to test what statistical distribution those 3 data points come from. (We need to know that to determine how to calculate the UCL.) But since they are made of 30 increments, we can assume that those 3 incremental samples came from a normal distribution AS LONG AS the contaminant heterogeneity is not too bad across the DU. So if we know that the contaminant heterogeneity is not too bad (for how bad, see the ITRC guidance discussion in Section 4.3.4.1), we can invoke the Central Limit Theorum and calculate a UCL from 3 ISs using the Student's t-distribution. If the contaminant heterogeneity across the DU is pretty bad, or if we don't know how bad it is, we should play it safe and not use the Student's t-distribution to calculate a UCL. Instead we should use the Chebyshev formula to calculate a UCL. A Chebyshev UCL is always more conservative (i.e., higher) than a t-UCL.

## ITRC ISM Tech Reg is at http://www.itrcweb.org/ism-1/

Calculating the Concentration Term – EPA 1992 CALCULATING THE UCL		
	How many samples are necessary to calculate the 95 percent UCL?	
On page 3:	Sampling data from Superfund sites have shown that data sets with fewer than 10 samples per exposure area provide poor estimates of the mean concentration (i.e., there is a large difference between the sample mean and the 95 percent UCL), while data sets with 10 to 20 samples per exposure are provide somewhat better estimates of the mean, and data sets with 20 to 30 samples provide fairly consistent estimates of the mean (i.e., the 95 percent UCL is close to the sample mean). Remember that, in general, the UCL approaches the true mean as more samples are included in the calculation	
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This is a tiered ICS design. The 1<sup>st</sup> DU-ICS sample is formed from a portion from each of the 4 SU-ICS samples. If a UCL is required, 2 replicate DU-incremental samples can be collected. Only 1 of the DU-incremental samples need go through the tiering procedure, since the SU samples are only to indicate where high results are. If done carefully the first time, should not need 3 sets of SU data to indicate high concentration SUs.

So, initially there would be 3 replicates DU-ICSs from which to calculate a UCL on the mean. If the UCL exceeds, then you can go back & analyze the archived SU samples to determine where the concentrations are high. This contrasts with the design on the previous slide where all SU samples are analyzed from the start and the UCL is calculated from the mean and standard deviation of the SU samples (which are not replicates of each other). For a site with contamination only in 1 or 2 areas, the UCL for the non-overlapping composite design can be expected to be higher than the UCL from the tiered design on this slide, because the UCL for the tiered design is generated from 3 estimates of the DU mean (the 3 replicate DU-ICSs). For a site where either there is no contamination, or the contamination is mostly uniformly distributed across the DU, the UCL might be about the same for both the tiered incremental design and the non-overlapping composite design. When the nonoverlapping composite design has more than 3 SUs, its UCL might be lower simply due to the higher n in the UCL equation. (A higher n lowers the UCL when all other inputs are the same.)









For DUs with variable spatial distributions of contamination, the UCL for this replicate DU composite design may be higher than the corresponding UCL for a 3-replicate 30-increment DU-incremental sampling design. This can be true even though the number of replicate ICSs (n in the UCL equations) would be higher for the replicate DU composite design, which would tend to lower the UCL. However, because the number of increments per DU-composite (10 in this example) is less than the number of increments with a full DU-incremental sampling design (usually around 30), there will probably be more variability in the data set from DU-composite replicates (6 data points in this example), thus increasing the UCL.




Quick Review of Random Patterns of Sample Placement (3)								
Systematic Random Sampling								
Random location to start	7	•	•	•	•			
	•	•	•	•	•			
	•	•	•	•	•			
	•	•	•	•	•			
	•	•	•	•	•			
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UTL = upper tolerance level





Here's the distinction between composite averaging and composite searching for the purposes of this presentation.

In the case of composite averaging (figure on the right), we collect multiple samples or soil increments from within a decision unit and then combine them into a composite sample for analysis. Our goal is to determine whether the average concentration within the decision unit is less than some cleanup criterion.

In the case of composite searching (figure on the left), we collect multiple samples or soil increments from either across decision units (as illustrated here) or within decision units and then combine them into a composite sample for analysis. Our goal is to determine whether any of those original increments might have had contamination levels above some specified threshold that would be indicative of the presence of contamination at levels of concern.

The balance of this discussion will focus on composite averaging. Composite searching will be discussed later (also referred to as adaptive compositing).

An important side point: "Dilution" is not a concern for composite averaging. "Dilution" is a concern for composite searching.



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## Adaptive Composite-Searching (cont'd)

- Aggregate samples (discrete or IS) into composites for homogenization and analysis
  - Split each discrete (or IS, as the case may be)
  - Composite 1 set of splits
  - -Archive the other set for re-analysis if necessary
- For the design:
  - Determine appropriate number of samples to composite (see next few slides)
  - Develop decision criteria for composites that indicate when analyses of archived splits are necessary (next)

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## When is Adaptive Compositing Cost-Effective?

- The "spottier" contamination is, the better the performance (in contrast to discrete sampling)
- The greater the difference is between background and the action level, the better the performance
- The greater the difference between the action level and average contamination concentration, the better the performance
- Best case: no composite requires re-analysis
- Worst case: every composite requires re-analysis (will cost more than if the samples were just analyzed as discretes from the start)

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Visual Sample Plan - [VSamp11]						
	Compare Average to Flixed Threshold Compare Average to Flixed Threshold Compare Average to Reference Average Estimate the Mean Construct Confidence Interval on Mean Locate Hot Spots Find UXO Target Areas Assess Degree of Confidence in UXO Presence	Assume no false negative erro Account for false negative erro Dang existing locations	ars ars			
Visual S Here are a few s Dick on the under Vew? Try the Exp What Does VSP I	Sampling within a Building Compare Measurements or UTL to Threshold Combined Average and Individual Measurement Criteria Establish Boundary of Contamination Analyze <u>Wells for Redundancy Detect a Trend Detect a Change in Trend Compare Proportion to Fixed Threshold Compare Proportion to Reference Proportion Estimate the Proportion </u>		Locating a Hot Spot Grid   Hot Spot   Costs Solve For: © Grid Spacing / # of Samples / Total Cost © Probability of Hit © Hot Spot Size Input: © Grid Spacing (see Grid page) © Number of Samples* 381 © Total Cost \$ [13/500.00]			
tow Do I Draw of tow Do I Create VSP req sam	Item Sampling (beta) Non-statistical sampling approach Lat Design has an option to address th uires you to guess how offer ople will give a misleading re	Probability of Hit: 95.00 % False Negative Error Rate: 50.00 % In order to have a 95% probability of flocating a circular hot spot with a raduu of 13.32 feet using point samples having a false negative error rate of 50% arranged in a triangular grid pattern, you need a maximum spacing of 11.35 feet between samples (see diagram on grid page). This would require approximately 361 samples and a budget of \$181,500.00.				
A 2/21/2	2-tiered compositing a	pproach avo	blased on a theoretical sampling area of 44500.00 feet^2.			

## Incremental-Averaging & Composite-Searching Can Be Combined

- Purpose
  - provide area average over larger decision units while effectively detecting hot spots at the same time
- Design
  - A "bottom-tier" of area-averaging is done on a small "local" (collocated) scale within a larger "top tier" strategy (minimizes error due to short-scale heterogeneity…prior example did not)
  - "Top-tier" strategy of incremental-averaging over the whole decision unit
  - Area-wide composite-searching for hot spot/pattern detection
- Provides overall mean estimate for the DU (or portions) while controlling analytical costs 2/21/2012 Clu-In Incremental-Composite Webinar Module 2.3 67




















## Practices that Reduce Within-Sample Heterogeneity

- <u>IF</u> the CSM identifies a particle size less than 10mesh (2 mm) as the population of interest (e.g., an exposure pathway), sieving has the side effect of reducing particle effects.
- Other good practices:
  - Incremental subsampling using a "slabcake procedure" and taking increments to make the analytical sample
  - Increasing the analytical mass (to be digested or extracted)
  - Grinding/milling
  - See ITRC ISM-1 Sections 5 & 6 for complete discussions

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• Unlike routine discrete sampling programs, ISM specifically addresses sample support issues. A project team using ISM <u>must</u> consider the likelihood of nuggets, the analytical subsample's volume and particle size.

• Reducing the overall particle size by grinding prior to subsampling may sometimes be required.

• Increasing the mass of the subsample and incremental subsampling are common ways to reduce subsampling error.

• If a field sample needs to be split, there are specialized equipment and techniques, such as rotary splitters. Choice of technique is heavily dependent on soil properties.

## **Supplemental Information**

See ISM-1 Chapter 6

See also EPA guidance documents:

• "Guidance for Obtaining Representative Laboratory Analytical Subsamples from Particulate Laboratory Samples", EPA/600/R-03/027 (Nov 2003); and

• "RCRA Waste Sampling Draft Technical Guidance", EPA 530-D-02-002 (August 2002), Chapter 6









QC procedures best if performed as part of a pilot study so that sampling and handling design can be perfected BEFORE the main sampling event.





Total variability = sum of the variability for each component/step











