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Permit Guidance Manual on Unsaturated Zone Monitoring for Hazardous Waste Land Treatment Units

For Public Comment

DISCLAIMER

This is a draft manual that is being released by EPA for public comment on the accuracy and usefulness of the information in it. This manual has received extensive technical review, but the Agency's peer and administrative review process has not yet been completed. Therefore, it does not necessarily reflect the views and policies of the Agency. Mention of trade names or commercial products does not constitute endorsement or recommendation for use.

PREFACE

Subtitle C of the Resource Conservation and Recovery Act (RCRA) requires the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) to establish a Federal hazardous waste management program. This program must ensure that hazardous wastes are handled safely from generation until final disposition. EPA issued a series of hazardous waste regulations under Subtitle C of RCRA that is published in 40 Code of Federal Regulations (CFR) 260 through 265, 270 and 124.

Parts 264 and 265 of 40 CFR contain standards applicable to owners and operators of all facilities that treat, store, or dispose of hazardous wastes. Wastes are identified or listed as hazardous under 40 CFR Part 261. The Part 264 standards are implemented through permits issued by authorized States or the EPA in accordance with 40 CFR Part 270 and Part 124 regulations. Land treatment, storage, and disposal (LTSD) regulations in 40 CFR Part 264 issued on July 26, 1982, establish performance standards for hazardous waste landfills, surface impoundments, land treatment units, and waste piles.

This draft manual provides guidance on unsaturated zone monitoring at hazardous waste land treatment units for use by permit applicants and permit writers in developing effective monitoring systems to comply with the Part 264, Subpart M regulations. This manual covers both soil core and soil pore-liquid monitoring, and addresses equipment selection, installation, and operation, sampling procedures, chain of custody considerations, and data evaluation. The installation and sampling procedures are presented in a step-by-step format so that the manual may be more readily used by field personnel.

This manual and other EPA guidance documents do not supersede the regulations promulgated under RCRA and published in the Code of Federal Regulations. They provide guidance, interpretations, suggestions, and references to additional information. Also, this guidance is not intended to mean that other designs might not also satisfy the regulatory standards.

EPA intends to revise this manual based on public comments and new information generated by EPA research studies. Comments on this manual should be addressed to the Docket Clerk, Office of Solid Waste (WH-562), U.S. EPA, 401 M St. SW, Washington, D.C., 20460.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This manual provides guidance on unsaturated zone monitoring at hazardous waste land treatment units. The manual will be useful to both owners or operators of hazardous waste land treatment units and officials in implementing the unsaturated zone monitoring requirements (¶264.278) contained in the hazardous waste land treatment, storage, and disposal regulations (40 CFR 264, July 26, 1982). After summarizing the regulations, the manual identifies other available sources of guidance and data on the subject. Complete descriptions for Darcian and macro-pore flow in the unsaturated zone are given.

Soil core monitoring equipment is divided into hand-held samplers and power-driven samplers. Specific descriptions for screw-type augers, barrel augers, post-hole augers, Dutch-type augers, regular or general purpose barrel augers, sand augers, mud augers, in addition to tube-type samplers, including soil sampling tubes, Veihmeyer tubes, thin-walled drive samplers, and peat samplers, are provided. Power-driven samplers, including hand-held power augers, truck-mounted augers, and tripod-mounted power samplers, are described. Procedures for selecting soil samplers, site selection, sample number, size, frequency and depth, sampling procedures, decontamination, safety precautions, and data analysis and evaluation are presented.

Complete descriptions for soil pore-liquid monitoring are provided. Relationships between soil moisture and soil tension are fully described. Soil pore-liquid sampling equipment, including cup-type samplers, cellulose acetate hollow fiber samplers, membrane filter samplers, and pan lysimeters are presented. Criteria for selecting soil pore-liquid samplers, site selection, sample number, size, frequency and depth, installation procedures, and operation of vacuum-pressure sampling units, are presented. Extensive discussion of special problems associated with the use of suction lysimeters are included. Descriptions are provided for pan lysimeter installation and operation, including trench lysimeters and free drainage block glass samplers. A discussion is provided of soil pore-liquid data analysis and evaluation.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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Dr. William Doucette of TRW, Incorporated, provided an extensive review of the draft document. Several excellent recommendations were made relative to non-Darcian flow.

An earlier draft of this manual (6/83) was distributed to the EPA regional offices for review and comment. In addition, extensive reviews were conducted at the Environmental Monitoring Support Laboratory in Las Vegas and at the University of Oklahoma branch of the Groundwater Research Center.

The assistance and cooperation extended by numerous other individuals, not mentioned above, who were contacted on matters related to this manual, is gratefully acknowledged.

SECTION 1

INTRODUCTION

This document provides guidance on unsaturated zone monitoring at hazardous waste land treatment units. This guidance will be useful to both owners or operators of hazardous waste land treatment units and officials in implementing the unsaturated zone monitoring requirements (§264.278) contained in the hazardous waste land treatment, storage, and disposal regulations (40 CFR Part 264).

This report stresses the selection and application of unsaturated zone monitoring equipment. Both soil core and soil pore-liquid monitoring equipment are highlighted. Sampling protocols, including sampling design, frequency, depth, and sample number, are also presented. These protocols (with minor modifications) are derived from guidance previously issued by EPA (EPA, 1983a; EPA, 1983b). These protocols, which represent interim guidance, are currently being evaluated in EPA's research program.

Land treatment is a viable management practice for treating and disposing of some types of hazardous wastes. Land treatment involves the application of waste on the soil surface or the incorporation of waste into the upper layers of the soil (the treatment zone) in order to degrade, transform, or immobilize hazardous constituents present in hazardous waste. The unsaturated zone monitoring program must include procedures to detect both slow moving hazardous constituents as well as rapidly moving hazardous constituents. This is best accomplished through a monitoring program including both soil core and soil pore liquid monitoring. Both soil core monitoring and soil pore liquid monitoring in the unsaturated zone are discussed in this report. In addition, the unsaturated zone monitoring requirements (§264.278) for background and active portions of land treatment units are briefly reviewed. Procedures for randomly determining the location of soil core and pore-liquid sampling sites in both the background areas and active portions are presented. Sampling depth and frequency are fully evaluated. Soil core monitoring and pore-liquid monitoring equipment are described. Selection criteria for each of the monitoring apparatus are presented. The field implementation and operating requirements for each piece of equipment is presented in a step-by-step format. Sample collection, preservation, storage, chain of custody and shipping are presented.

The unsaturated zone monitoring requirements (§264.278) mentioned above consist of performance-oriented statements and rules, and, as a result, are also general in nature. This provides maximum flexibility to the owner or operator in designing and operating an unsaturated zone monitoring program. However, the permitting official must render a value judgment on the acceptability of the particular monitoring system design proposed for each land treatment unit. The purpose of this document is to provide guidance on essential elements of the unsaturated monitoring program to assist individuals in developing and evaluating these programs. EPA wishes to emphasize that the specifications in this document are guidance, not regulations.

Although not addressed in this document, groundwater monitoring is also required at hazardous waste land treatment units. Requirements pertaining to groundwater monitoring are provided in Subpart F of Part 264.

1.1 BRIEF SUMMARY OF REGULATIONS

Under the authority of Subtitle C of the Resource Conservation and Recovery Act (RCRA), EPA promulgated interim-final regulations for the treatment, storage, and disposal of hazardous waste in land disposal facilities on July 26, 1982 (40 CFR, Part 264). Included in these regulations were standards applicable to hazardous waste land treatment units. Section 264.278 of these regulations requires that all land treatment units have an unsaturated zone monitoring program that is capable of determining whether hazardous constituents have migrated below the treatment zone. Appendix C contains a reprint of the §264.278 regulations and supporting preamble. The monitoring program must include both soil-core and soil-pore liquid monitoring. Monitoring for hazardous constituents must be performed on a background plot (until background levels are established) and immediately below the treatment zone (active portion). The number, location, and depth of soil-core and soil-pore liquid samples taken must allow an accurate indication of the quality of soil-pore liquid and soil below the treatment zone and in the background area. The regulations require that background values for soil-pore-liquid be based on at least quarterly sampling for one year on the background plot, whereas background soil core sampling values may be based on one-time sampling. The frequency and timing of soil-core and soil-pore liquid sampling on the active portions must be based on the frequency, time and rate of waste application, proximity of the treatment zone to groundwater, soil permeability, and amount of precipitation. The Regional Administrator will specify in the facility permit the sampling and analytical procedures to be used. The owner or operator must also determine if statistically significant increases in hazardous constituents have occurred below the treatment zone. The regulations provide the option of monitoring for selected indicator hazardous constituents (or "principal hazardous constituents"), in lieu of all hazardous constituents.

1.2 OTHER AVAILABLE GUIDANCE

Four EPA documents are available which complement the material in this document on unsaturated zone monitoring. <u>Hazardous Waste Land Treatment</u> (SW-874) (EPA, 1983a) provides information on site selection, waste characterization, treatment demonstration studies, land treatment unit design, operation, monitoring, closure, and other topics useful for design and management of land treatment units. <u>Test Methods for Evaluating Solid Waste</u> (SW-846) (EPA, 1982b) provides procedures that may be used to evaluate the characteristics of hazardous waste as defined in 40 CFR Part 261 of the RCRA regulations. The manual encompasses methods for collecting representative samples of solid wastes, and for determining the reactivity, corrosivity, ignitability, and composition of the waste and the mobility of toxic species present in the waste. The <u>RCRA Guidance Document: Land Treatment Units</u> (EPA, 1983b) identifies specific designs and operational procedures that EPA believes accomplish the performance requirements in RCRA Sections 264.272 (treatment demonstration), 264.273 (design and operating requirements), 264.278 (unsaturated zone monitoring), 264.280 (closure and post-closure care).

A state-of-the-art document entitled Vadose Zone Monitoring at Hazardous Waste Sites (Everett et al., 1983) describes the applicability of vadose zone monitoring techniques to hazardous waste site investigations. Physical, chemical, geologic, topographic, geohydrologic, and climatic constraints for vadose zone monitoring are described. Vadose zone monitoring techniques are categorized for premonitoring, active, and post-closure site assessments. Conceptual vadose zone monitoring approaches are developed for specific waste disposal units including waste piles, landfills, impoundments, and land treatment units.

1.3 SOURCES OF DATA

The main source of soils data is the Soil Conservation Service (Mason, 1982). This Federal agency has offices in each county and also has a main office for each state. The soil survey reports that are produced by the agency provide maps, textural, drainage, erosion, and agricultural information. In addition to the soil survey reports, each county office usually has aerial photographs that provide general information on the soils in a particular area. A local soil scientist often can provide detailed information on the area around the site.

A second source of soils data can often be obtained from the agricultural schools in each state. The Agronomy or Soils Departments often have valuable information that is pertinent to the land treatment site. Access to this data can usually be obtained by contacting the department head or by contacting the State Cooperative Extension Service office located on the campus of the university.

A third source of information on soils in an area is found in County and State Engineering Offices and in the Department of Transportation or Highway Departments of the states. Local drillers that have worked on construction projects or have drilled water wells in the area can often provide information on the soils and also on sources of information about an area.

Regardless of the source of historic data, however, a recent detailed assessment of the soils at the particular site should be made by a qualified soil scientist. This will account for any changes that may have occurred at the site over the years, and provide the necessary detail to evaluate local soil conditions.

SECTION 2

UNSATURATED ZONE DESCRIPTION

Monitoring is carried out at hazardous waste land treatment units for two primary reasons: (1) to assess the efficiency of the soil processes that degrade incorporated wastes, and (2) to detect the migration of hazardous constituents beneath the treatment zone. The "treatment zone" refers to the area in which all degradation, transformation, or immobilization must occur (EPA, 1982a). The maximum depth of this zone must be no more than 1.5 m (5 feet) from the initial land surface and at least 1 m (3 feet) above the seasonal high water table (EPA, 1982a).

The geological profile extending from ground surface (including the treatment zone) to the upper surface of the principal water-bearing formation is called the vadose zone. As pointed out by Bouwer (1978), the term "vadose zone" is preferable to the often-used term "unsaturated zone" because saturated regions are frequently present in the vadose zone. The term "zone of aeration" is also often used synonymously. In this report we shall use the term "unsaturated" to be consistent with the terminology used in the regulations. Davis and De Wiest (1966) subdivided the unsaturated zone into three regions designated as: the soil zone, the intermediate unsaturated zone, and the capillary fringe.

2.1 SOIL ZONE

The surface soil zone is generally recognized as that region that manifests the effects of weathering of native geological material. The movement of water in the soil zone occurs mainly as unsaturated flow caused by infiltration, percolation, redistribution, and evaporation (Klute, 1965). In some soils, primarily those containing horizons of low permeability, saturated regions may develop during waste spreading, creating shallow perched water tables (Everett, 1980).

The physics of unsaturated soil-water movement has been intensively studied by soil physicists, agricultural engineers, and microclimatologists. In fact, copious literature is available on the subject in periodicals (Journal of the Soil Science Society of America, Soil Science) and books (Childs, 1969; Kirkham and Powers, 1972; Hillel, 1971, Hillel, 1980; Hanks and Ashcroft, 1980). Similarly, a number of published references on the theory of flow in shallow perched water tables are available (Luthin, 1957; van Schilfgaarde, 1970). Soil chemists and soil microbiologists have also attempted to quantify chemical-microbiological transformations during soil-water movement (Bohn, McNeal, and O'Connor, 1979; Rhoades and Bernstein, 1971; Dunlap and McNabb, 1973).

2.2 INTERMEDIATE UNSATURATED ZONE

Weathered materials of the soil zone may gradually merge with underlying deposits, which are generally unweathered, comprising the intermediate unsaturated zone. In some regions, this zone may be practically nonexistent, the soil zone merging directly with bedrock. In alluvial deposits of western valleys, however, this zone may be hundreds of feet thick. Figure 2-1 shows a geologic cross section through an unsaturated zone in an alluvial basin in California. By the nature of the processes by which such alluvium is laid down, this zone is unlikely to be uniform throughout, but may contain micro- or macrolenses of silts and clays interbedding with gravels. Water in the intermediate unsaturated zone may exist primarily in the unsaturated state, and in regions receiving little inflow from above, flow velocities may be negligible. Perched groundwater, however, may develop in the interfacial deposits of regions containing varying textures. Such perching layers may be hydraulically connected to ephemeral or perennial stream channels so that, respectively, temporary or permanent perched water tables may develop. Alternatively, saturated conditions may develop as a result of deep percolation of water from the soil zone during prolonged surface application. Studies by McWhorter and Brookman (1972) and Wilson (1971) have shown that perching layers intercepting downward-moving water may transmit the water laterally at substantial rates. Thus, these layers serve as underground spreading regions transmitting water laterally away from the overlying source area. Eventually, water leaks downward from these layers and may intercept a substantial area of the water table. Because of dilution and mixing below the water table, the effects of waste spreading may not be noticeable until a large volume of the aquifer has been affected.

The number of studies on water movement in the soil zone greatly exceeds the studies in the intermediate zone. Reasoning from Darcy's equation, Hall (1955) developed a number of equations to characterize mound (perched groundwater) development in the intermediate zone. Hall also discusses the hydraulic energy relationships during lateral flow in perched groundwater. Freeze (1969) attempted to describe the continuum of flow between the soil surface and underlying saturated water bodies. Bear et al. (1968) described the requisite conditions for perched groundwater formation when a region of higher permeability overlies a region of lower permeability in the unsaturated zone.

2.3 CAPILLARY FRINGE

The base of the unsaturated zone, the capillary fringe, merges with underlying saturated deposits of the principal water-bearing formation. This zone is not characterized as much by the nature of geological materials as by the presence of water under conditions of saturation or near saturation. Studies by Luthin and Day (1955) and Kraijenhoff van deLeur (1962) have shown that both the hydraulic conductivity and flux may remain high for some vertical distance in the capillary fringe, depending on the nature of the materials. In general, the thickness of the capillary fringe is greater in fine materials than in coarse deposits. Apparently, few studies have been conducted on flow and chemical transformations in this zone. Taylor and Luthin (1969) reported on a computer model to characterize transient flow in this zone and compared results with data from a sand tank model. Freeze and Cherry (1979) indicated that oil reaching the water table following leakage from a surface source

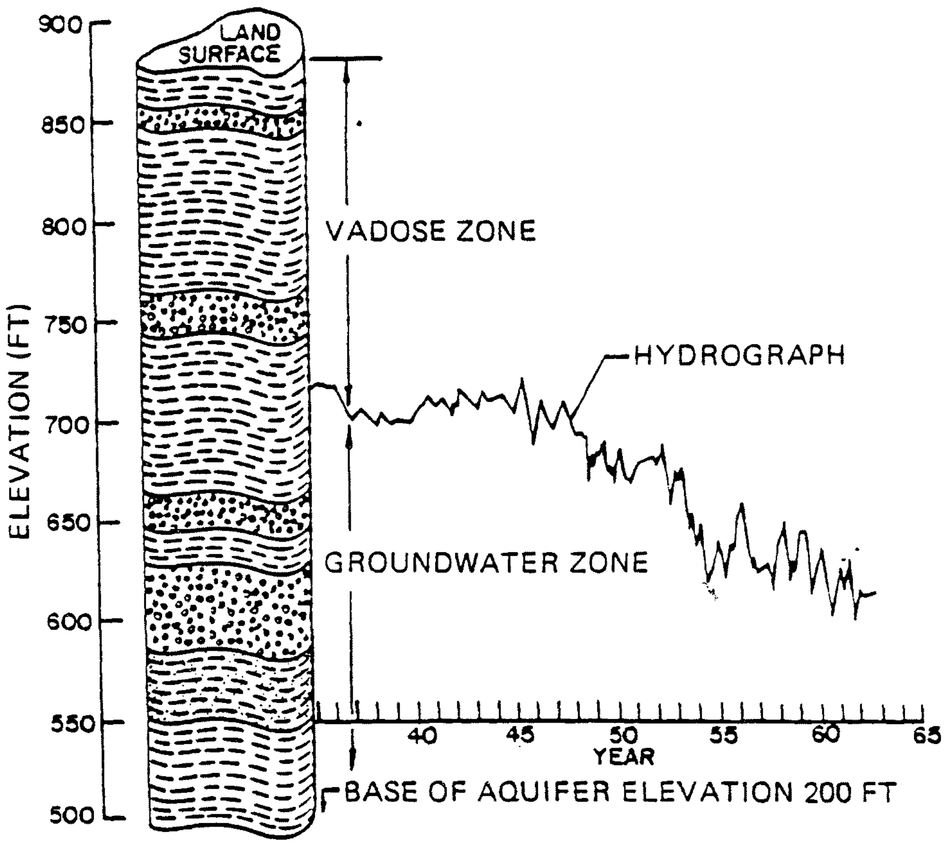


Figure 2-1. Cross section through the unsaturated zone (vadose zone) and groundwater zone (Ayers and Branson, 1973)

flows in a lateral direction within the capillary fringe in close proximity to the water table. Because oil and water are immiscible, oil does not penetrate below the water table, although some dissolution may occur.

The overall thickness of the unsaturated zone is not necessarily constant. For example, as a result of recharge at a water table during a waste disposal operation, a mound may develop throughout the capillary fringe extending into the intermediate zone. Such mounds have been observed during recharge studies (e.g., Wilson, 1971) and efforts have been made to quantify their growth and dissipation (Hantush, 1967; Bouwer, 1978).

As already indicated, the state of knowledge of water movement and chemical-microbiological transformations is greater in the soil zone than elsewhere in the unsaturated zone. Renovation of applied wastewater occurs primarily in the soil zone. This observation is borne out by the well-known studies of McMichael and McKee (1966), Parizek et al. (1967), and Sopper and Kardos (1973). These studies indicate that the soil is essentially a "living filter" that effectively reduces certain microbiological, physical, and chemical constituents to safe levels after passage through a relatively short distance (e.g., Miller, 1973; Thomas, 1973). As a result of such favorable observations, a certain complacency may have developed with respect to the need to monitor only in the soil zone.

Dunlap and McNabb (1973) point out that microbial activity may be significant in the regions underlying the soil. They recommend that investigations be conducted to quantify the extent that such activity modifies the nature of pollutants travelling through the intermediate zone.

For the soil zone, numerous analytical techniques were compiled by Black (1965) into a two-volume series entitled "Methods of Soil Analyses." Monitoring in the intermediate zone and capillary fringe will require the extension of technology developed in both the soil zone and in the groundwater zone. Examples are already available where this approach has been used. For example, Apgar and Langmuir (1971) successfully used suction cups developed for in situ sampling of the soil solution at depths up to 50 feet below a sanitary landfill. J.R. Meyer (personal communication, 1979) reported that suction cups were used to sample at depths greater than 100 feet below land surface at cannery and rock phosphate disposal sites in California.

2.4 FLOW REGIMES

Both soil-core and soil-pore liquid monitoring are required in the unsaturated zone. These two monitoring procedures are intended to complement one another. Soil-core monitoring will provide information primarily on the movement of "slower-moving" hazardous constituents (such as heavy metals), whereas soil-pore liquid monitoring will provide additional data on the movement of fast-moving, highly soluble hazardous constituents. Questions have arisen, however, as to the methods to obtain a soil pore-liquid sample in a highly structured soil, e.g., clay.

Recent studies have demonstrated that soil water movement in the unsaturated zone is considerably more complex than the classical concept and that rapid infiltration to soil depths not predicted by Darcian flow commonly occurs in soils with continuous, structural macropores. Thus, a non-Darcian flow regime capable of transmitting significant quantities of liquid has been recognized in the unsaturated zone. The results of these studies and the occurrence of a macropore flow regime indicate distinct limitations to vacuum operated lysimeters and the potential usefulness of gravity lysimeters for soil-pore liquid monitoring in highly structured soils or soils with numerous and continuous macropores (W. Doucette, 1984, personal communication).

Current literature on soil water movement in the unsaturated zone describes two flow regimes, the classical wetting front infiltration of Bodman and Colman (1943) and a transport phenomena labeled as flow down macropore, non-capillary flow, subsurface storm flow, channel flow, and other descriptive names, but hereafter referred to as macropore flow. The classical concept of infiltration depicts a distinct, somewhat uniform, wetting front slowly advancing in a Darcian flow regime after a precipitation event. The maximum soil moisture content approaches field capacity. Contemporary models combine this classical concept with the macropore flow phenomena.

2.4.1 Darcian Flow

The fundamental principle of unsaturated and saturated flow is Darcy's Law. In 1856 Henry Darcy, in a treatise on water supply, reported on experiments of the flow of water through sands. He found that flows were proportional to the head loss and inversely proportional to the thickness of sand traversed by the water. Considering generalized sand column with a flow rate Q through a cylinder of cross-sectional area A, Darcy's law can be expressed as:

$$Q = KA \frac{hL}{L} \qquad (2\text{-}1)$$

More generally, the velocity

$$v = \frac{Q}{A} = K \frac{dh}{dL} \qquad (2\text{-}2)$$

where dh/dL is the hydraulic gradient. The quantity K is a proportionality constant known as the <u>coefficient of permeability</u>, or <u>hydraulic conductivity</u>. The velocity in Eq. (2-2) is an apparent one, defined in terms of the discharge and the gross cross-sectional area of the porous medium. The actual velocity varies from point to point throughout the column.

Darcy's law is applicable only within the laminar range of flow where resistive forces govern flow. As velocities increase, inertial forces, and ultimately turbulent flows, cause deviations from the linear relation of Eq. (2-2). Fortunately, for most natural groundwater motion, Darcy's law can be applied.

2.4.2 Macropore Flow

The macropore flow phenomena involves the rapid transmission of free water through large, continuous pores or channels to depths greater than predicted by Darcian flow during and/or for a short time period after a precipitation event. The observation that a significant amount of water movement can occur in soil macropores was first reported by Lawes et al. (1882). Reviews of subsequent work are provided by Whipkey (1967) and Thomas and Phillips (1979). Macropore flow can occur in soils at moisture contents less than field capacity (Thomas et al., 1978). The depth of macropore flow penetration is a function of initial water content, the intensity and duration of the precipitation event and the nature of the macropores (Aubertin, 1971; Quisenberry and Phillips, 1976). Macropores need not extend to the soil surface for flow down to occur, nor need they be very large or cylindrical (Thomas and Phillips, 1979). Exemplifying the role of macropores, Bouma et al. (1979) reported that planar pores with an effective width of 90 µm occupying a volume of 2.4% were primarily responsible for a relatively high hydraulic conductivity of 60 cm day^{-1} in a clay soil. Aubertin (1971) found that water can move through macropores very quickly to depths of 10 m or more in sloping forested soils. Liquid moving in the macropore flow regime is likely to bypass the soil solution in intraped or matrix pores surrounding the macropores and result in only partial displacement or dispersion of dissolved constituents (Quisenberry and Phillips, 1978; Wild, 1972; Shuford et al., 1977; Kissel et al., 1973; Bouma and Wosten, 1979; Anderson and Bouma, 1977).

The current concept of infiltration in well structured soils combines both classical wetting front movement and macropore flow. Aubertin (1971) found that the bulk of the soil surrounding the macropores was wetted by radical movement from the macropores sometime after macropore flow occurred. A number of researchers have presented mathematical models in an attempt to explain the macropore flow phenomena (Beven and Germann, 1981; Edwards et al., 1979; Hoogmoed and Bouma, 1980; Skopp et al., 1981).

Thomas and Phillips (1979) listed four consequences of rapid macropore flow:

(i) The value of a rain or irrigation to plants will generally not be so high as anticipated since some of the water may move below the root zone.

(ii) Recharge of groundwater and springs can begin long before the soil reaches field capacity.

(iii) Some of the salts in the surface of a soil will be moved to a much greater depth after a rain or irrigation than predicted by piston displacement. On the other hand, much of the salt will be bypassed and remain near the soil surface.

(iv) Because of this, it is not likely that water will carry a surge of contaminants to groundwater at some time that is predictable by Darcian theory.

The occurrence of macropore flow poses serious implications for unsaturated zone monitoring and the protection of groundwater from the land treatment of hazardous wastes. The first implication is that contaminated water may flow rapidly through the treatment zone and not receive full treatment. Under this short circuit scenario groundwater contamination is probable when a shallow, well structured soil is underlain by creviced bedrock (e.g., limestone solution channels, Shaffer et al., 1979) and/or a high water table (Anderson and Bouma, 1977). The second implication is that hazardous constituents moving with the rapid macropore flow may not be detected using suction lysimetry (W. Doucette, 1984, personal communication).

Only two studies were found to have examined the possibility of suction lysimeter bypass. Shaffer et al. (1979) found that under wet conditions typical of wastewater irrigation operations, suction lysimeters did not sample the majority of water passing the depths of sampler installation. The suction lysimeters did not have the ability to sample rapidly moving water which had either a higher or lower ion concentration than the bulk soil solution. They concluded that vertically installed suction lysimeters are unsuited to test the composition of leachate water when a highly structured soil is kept in a high state of water content. Barbee (1983) found that for structured clay soils in Texas that samples collected by a pan type lysimeter called a 'glass brick' were more consistently available and more representative of a chemical pulse moving in the unsaturated zone than suction lysimeters. In both studies the suction lysimetry deficiencies were associated with the preferential movement of water through macropores at structural unit boundaries. (Note: Soil structural units are called peds, hence, macropore flow will occur in interped spaces). Additionally, the macropore flow bypassing the suction lysimeters was collectable in a pan-type lysimeter. Angular installation of suction lysimeters improves the monitoring efficiency of these devices in structured soils, but pan lysimeters still more effectively collect macropore flow that occurs in these soils.

Because of the above concerns, the extent of macropore flow within the treatment zone of the proposed land treatment site should be fully evaluated in the treatment demonstration, which is required for all land treatment units in §264.272 of the regulations. This may be accomplished through a monitoring program including both suction and pan-type lysimeters. This evaluation will assist in determining the acceptability of the site for land treatment and in defining the most appropriate soil pore-liquid monitoring approach for that site. Owners and operators of sites at which macropore flow is the dominate flow regime may be unable to demonstrate successful treatment within the treatment zone.

SECTION 3

SOIL-CORE MONITORING

The purposes of this section are twofold: (1) to describe representative devices for obtaining soil cores during unsaturated zone monitoring at land-treatment units, and (2) to describe procedures for obtaining soil samples using these devices.

3.1 GENERAL EQUIPMENT CLASSIFICATION

Soil samplers are divided into two general groups, namely: (1) hand-held samplers and (2) power-driven samplers.

3.1.1 Hand-Held Samplers

As suggested by their title, hand-held samplers include all devices for obtaining soil cores using manual power. Historically, these devices were developed for obtaining soil samples during agricultural investigations (e.g., determining soil salinity and soil fertility, characterizing soil texture, determining soil-water content, etc.) and during engineering studies (e.g., determining bearing capacity). For convenience of discussion, these samplers are categorized as follows: (a) screw-type augers, (b) barrel augers, and (c) tube-type samplers. Soil samples obtained using either the screw type sampler or barrel augers are disturbed and not truly core samples as obtained by the tube-type samplers. Nevertheless, the samples are still suitable for use in detecting the presence of pollutants.

3.1.1.1 Screw-Type Augers--

The screw or flight auger essentially consists of a small diameter (e.g., 1½ inch) wood auger from which the cutting side flanges and tip have been removed (Soil Survey Staff 1951). The auger is welded onto a length of tubing or rod. The upper end of this extension contains a threaded coupling for attachment to extension rods (Figure 3-1). As many extension rods are used as required to reach the total monitoring depth. A wooden or metal handle fits into a tee-type coupling, screwed into the uppermost extension rod. During sampling, the handle is twisted manually and the auger literally screws itself into the soil. Upon removal of the tool, the soil is retained on the auger flights.

According to the Soil Survey Staff (1951), the spiral part of the auger should be about 7 inches long, with the distances between flights about the same as the diameter (e.g., 1½ inches) of the auger to facilitate measuring the depth of penetration of the tool. The rod portion of the auger and the extensions are circumscribed by etched marks in even increments (e.g., in 6 inch increments) above the base of the auger.

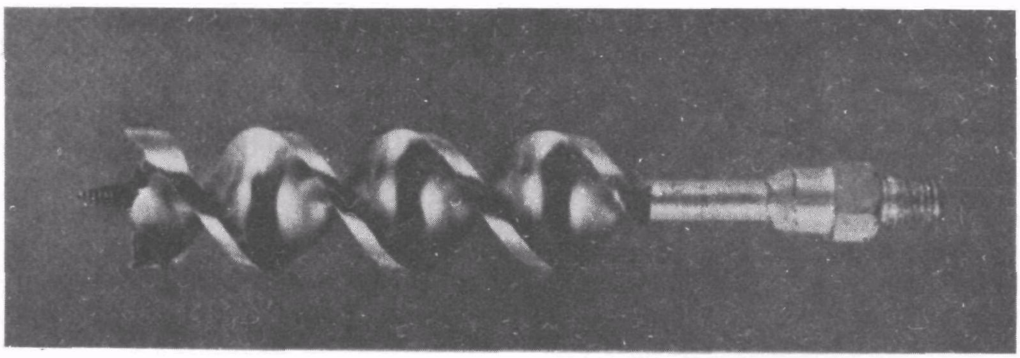


Figure 3-1. Screw-type auger/spiral auger

Screw-type augers operate more favorably in wet rather than dry soils. Sampling in very dry (e.g., powdery) soils may not be possible with these augers.

3.1.1.2 Barrel Augers--

Basically, barrel augers consist of a short tube or cylinder within which the soil sample is retained. Components of this sampler consist of (1) a penetrating bit with cutting edges, (2) the barrel, and (3) two shanks welded to the barrel at one end and a threaded section at the other end (see Figure 3-2). Extension rods are attached as required to reach the total sampling depth. The uppermost extension rod contains a tee-type coupling for attachment of a handle. The extensions are marked in even depth-wise increments above the base of the tool.

In operation, the sampler is placed vertically into the soil surface and turned to advance the tool into the ground. When the barrel is filled, the unit is withdrawn from the soil cavity and the soil is removed from the barrel. Barrel augers generally provide a greater sample size than the spiral type augers.

3.1.1.3 Post-Hole Augers--

The simplest and most readily available barrel auger is the common post-hole auger (also called the Iwan-type auger, see Acker, 1974). As shown in Figure 3-2, the barrel part of this auger is not completely solid and the barrel is slightly tapered toward the cutting bit. The tapered barrel together with the taper on the penetrating segment help to retain soils within the barrel.

3.1.1.4 Dutch-Type Auger--

The so-called Dutch-type auger is really a smaller variation of the post-hole auger design. As shown in Figure 3-3, the pointed bit is attached to two narrow, curved body segments, welded onto the shanks. The outside diameter of the barrel is generally only about 3 inches. These tools are best suited for sampling in heavy (e.g., clay), wet soils.

3.1.1.5 Regular or General Purpose Barrel Auger--

A version of the barrel auger commonly used by soil scientists and county agents is depicted in Figure 3-4. As shown, the barrel portion of this auger is completely enclosed. As with the post-hole auger, the cutting blades are arranged so that the soil is loosened and forced into the barrel as the unit is rotated and pushed into the soil. Each filling of the barrel corresponds to a depth of penetration of about 3 to 5 inches (Soil Survey Staff, 1951). The most popular barrel diameter is 3¼ inches, but sizes ranging from 1½ inches to 5 inches are available (Art's Machine Shop, personal communication, 1983).

The cutting blades are arranged to promote the retention of the sample within the barrel. Extension rods can be made from either standard black pipe or from light-weight conduit or seamless steel tubing. The extensions are circumscribed by evenly-spaced marks to facilitate determining sampling depth.

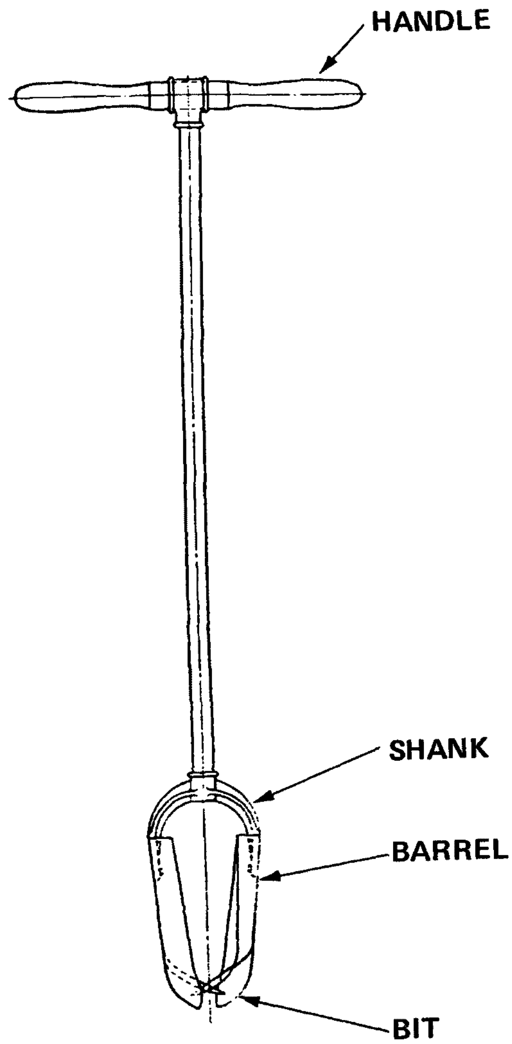


Figure 3-2. Post-hole type of barrel auger

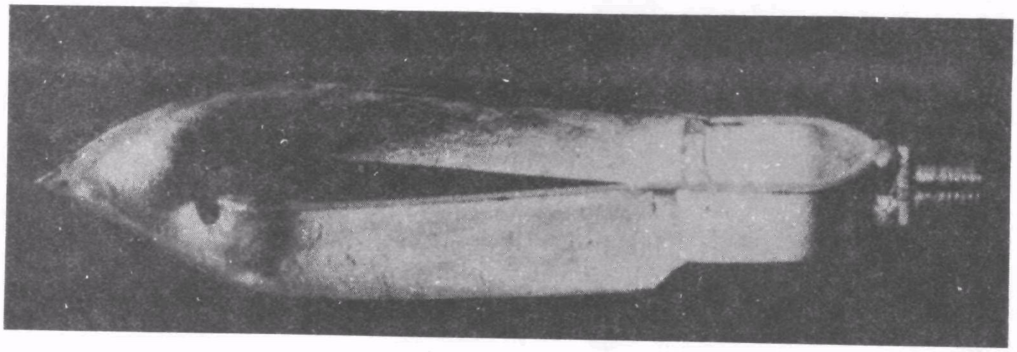


Figure 3-3. Dutch auger (Art's Machine Shop, 1982)

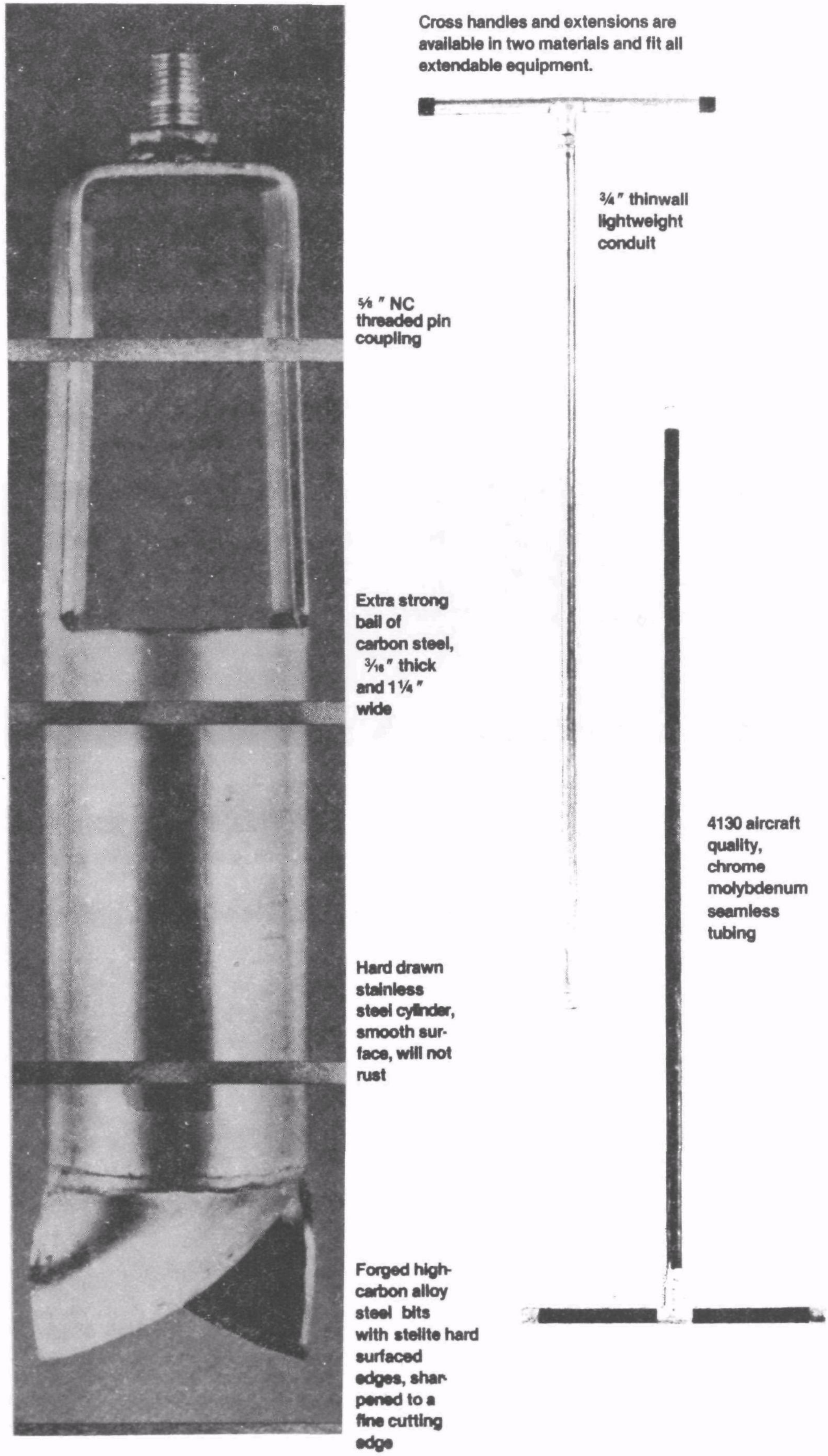


Figure 3-4. Regular auger (Art's Machine Shop, 1982)

3.1.1.6 Sand Augers--

The regular type of barrel auger described in the last paragraphs is suitable for core sampling in loam type soils. For extremely dry sandy soils it may be necessary to use a variation of the regular sampler, which includes a specially-formed penetrating bit to retain the sample in the barrel (Figure 3-5).

3.1.1.7 Mud Augers--

Another variation on the standard barrel auger design is available for sampling heavy, wet soils or clay soils. As shown in Figure 3-6, the barrel is designed with open sides to facilitate extraction of the samples. The penetrating bits are the same as those used on the regular barrel auger (Art's Machine Shop, personal communication, 1983).

3.1.1.8 Tube-Type Samplers--

Tube-type samplers differ from barrel augers in that the tube-type units are generally of smaller diameter and their overall length is generally greater than the barrel augers. These units are not as suitable for sampling in dense, stoney soils as are the barrel augers. Commonly used varieties of tube type samplers include soil-sampling tubes, Veihmeyer tubes (also called King tubes), thin-walled drive samplers, and peat samplers. The tube-type samplers are preferred if an undisturbed sample is required.

3.1.1.8.1 Soil-sampling tubes--As depicted in Figure 3-7, soil-sampling tubes consist of a hardened cutting tip, a cut-away barrel, and an uppermost threaded segment. The tube is attached to sections of tubing to attain the requisite sampling depth. A cross-handle is attached to the uppermost segment.

The cut-away barrel is designed to facilitate examining soil layering and to allow for the easy removal of soil samples. Generally, the tubes are constructed from high strength alloy steel (Clements Associates Inc., 1983). The sampler is available in three common lengths, namely, 12 inches, 15 inches, and 18 inches. Two modified versions of the tip are available for sampling either in wet or dry soils. Depending on the type of cutting edge, the tube samplers obtain samples varying in diameter from 11/16 inches to 3/4 inches.

Extension rods are manufactured from light-weight, durable metal. Extensions are available in a variety of lengths depending on the manufacturer. Markings on the extensions facilitate determining sample depths.

Sampling with these units requires forcing the tube in vertical increments into the soil. When the tube is filled at each depth the handle is twisted and the assembly is then pulled to the surface. Commercial units are available with attachments which allow foot pressure to be applied to force the sampler into the ground.

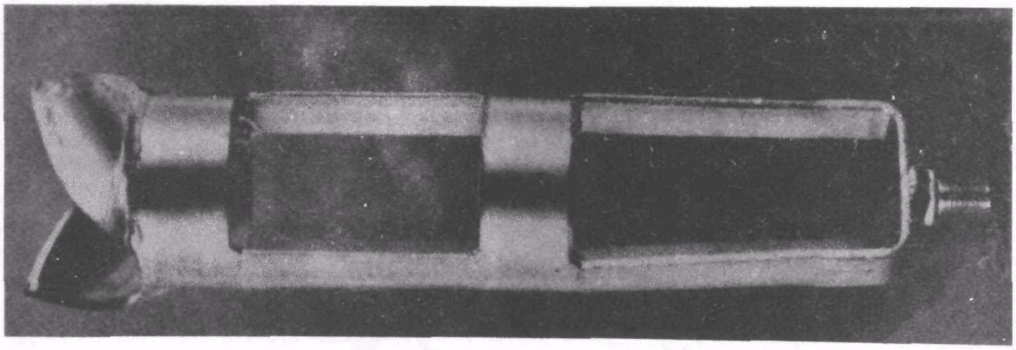


Figure 3-5. Sand auger (Art's Machine Shop, 1982)

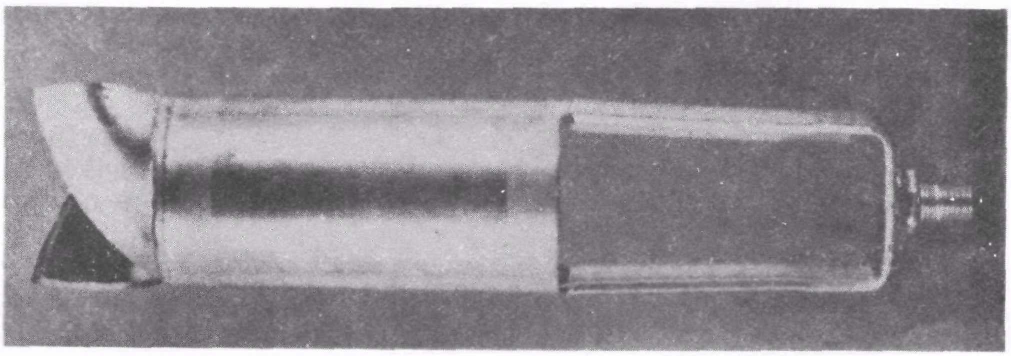


Figure 3-6. Mud auger (Art's Machine Shop, 1982)

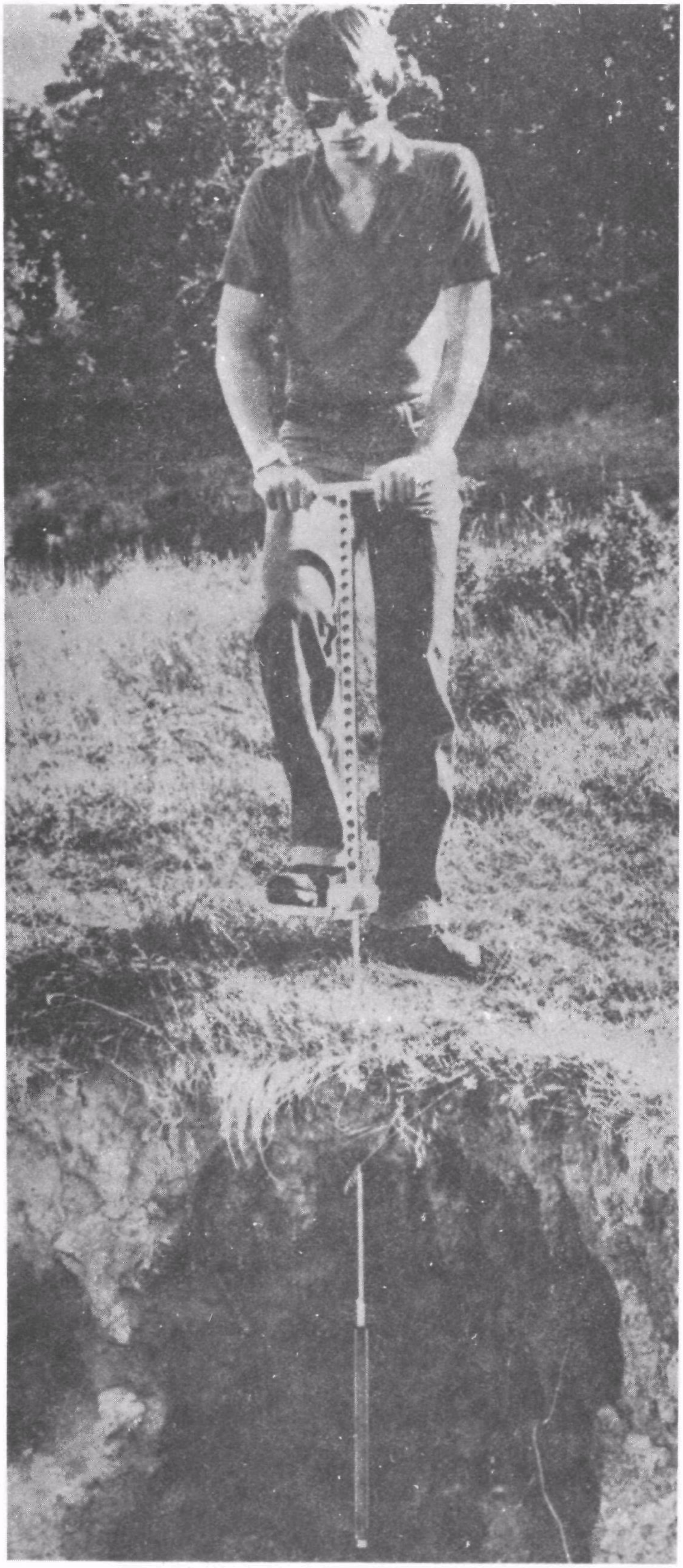


Figure 3-7. Soil sampling tube (Clements Associates, Inc., 1983)

3.1.1.8.2 Veihmeyer tube--In contrast to the soil probe, the Veihmeyer tube consists of a long, solid tube which is driven to the required sampling depth. Components of the Veihmeyer tube are depicted in Figure 3-8. As shown, these units consist of a bevelled tip which is threaded into the body tube. The upper end of the cylinder is threaded into a drive head. A weighted drive hammer fits into the tube to facilitate driving the sampler into the soil. Slots in the hammer head fit into ears on the drive head. Pulling or jerking up on the hammer forces the sampler out of the cavity.

The components of this sampler are constructed from hardened metal. The tube is generally marked in even, depth-wise increments.

3.1.1.8.3 Thin walled drive samplers--In some circumstances, it may be desirable to obtain a relatively "undisturbed" sample from beneath the treatment zone. The sampling tubes described in the previous sections may be suitable in most cases. An alternative method is to use the so-called thin-walled drive samplers. A common variety of these samplers is depicted in Figure 3-9. As shown, the tool consists of a thin-walled seamless steel tube, with a bevelled cutting tip, and a head unit threaded to fit a standard drill rod. The head contains a ball check valve for releasing air from the cylinder during sampling. An alternate version, which facilitates examining and removing the sample, is the split-tube sampler. In this unit the barrel of the sampler is split longitudinally. During sampling, the two halves are placed together and a hardened shoe with a cutting tip is threaded onto one end of the tube and the drive head assembly is screwed onto the other end. Some split-spoon samplers are available with a solid barrel which houses a thin-walled split shell.

The tubes are available in diameters ranging from 2 inches to 5 inches O.D., although 3 inch O.D. seems to be quite popular. Similarly, the most commonly-used tubing length is 18 inches (Acker, 1974).

In operation, these samplers are attached to the drill rod and the assembly is lowered to the base of a cavity excavated by an auger. The tube is then forced into the undisturbed soil. Figure 3-10 illustrates one method for pushing the sampler into the soil using a drive weight. The drive weight can be raised and dropped either by hand using a tripod or pulley arrangement, or by a power-driven hoist.

3.1.1.8.4 Peat sampler--At some sites, the soils may be sufficiently saturated with organics that the Davis peat sampler may be required to extract a sample. This unit consists of a sampling tube and an internal plunger containing a cone-shaped point, which extends beyond the sampling tube, and spring catch at the upper end. Prior to sampling, the unit is forced to the required depth, then the internal plunger is withdrawn by releasing the spring catch via an actuating rod assembly. The next step is to force the cylinder down and the undisturbed soil to the required depth, and then withdrawing the assembly with the collected sample. According to Acker (1974), the sample removed is 3/4 inch diameter and 5½ inches in length.

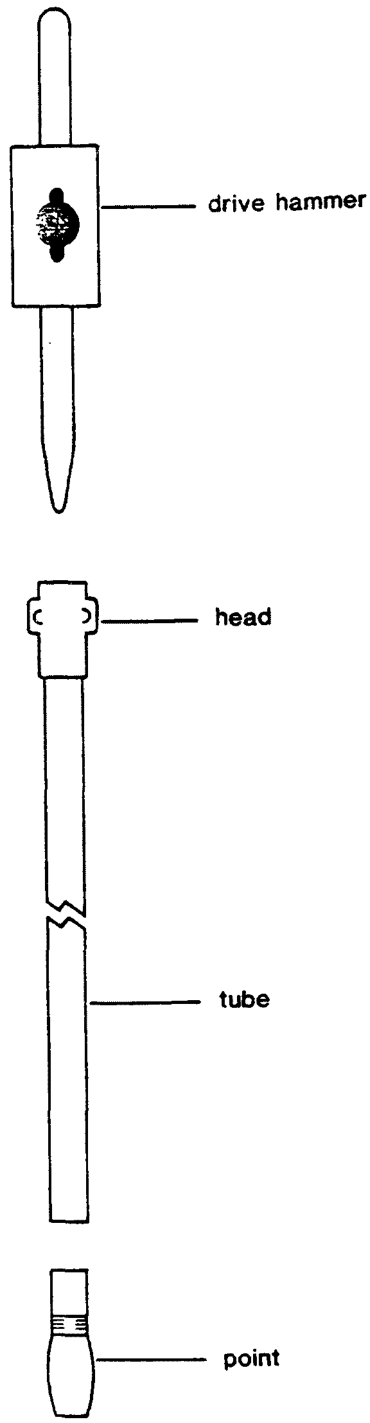


Figure 3-8. Veihmeyer tube

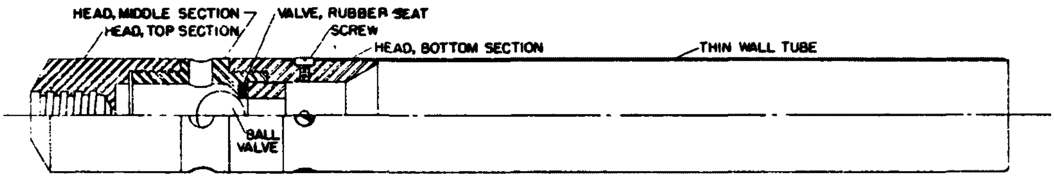


Figure 3-9. Thin-walled drive sampler

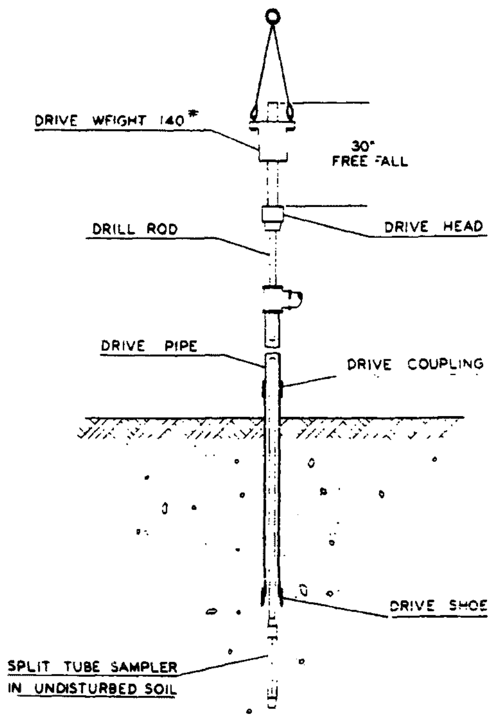


Figure 3-10. Driving sampling (Acker, 1974)

3.1.2 Power-Driven Samplers

Inasmuch as the maximum depth required for soil-core sampling at land-treatment sites is only 6 feet, the hand-held units described in the previous section will probably be adequate in most cases. For some special situations, however, it may be necessary to utilize power-driven augers or hoists.

3.1.2.1 Hand-Held Power Augers--

A very simple, commercially available auger consists of a flight auger attached to and driven by a small air-cooled engine. A set of two handles are attached to the head assembly to allow two operators to guide the auger into the soil. Throttle and clutch controls are integrated into grips on the handles.

3.1.2.2 Truck-Mounted Augers--

Small drill rigs are commercially available for mounting on a pickup truck. Similar units may be constructed in a machine shop (Kelley et al., 1947). The tower which supports the drive head and drill rod folds down into a horizontal position during transport. These units are commonly used with flight augers for sampling, although drive samplers can be obtained using a cathead hoist.

3.1.2.3 Tripod Mounted Power Samplers--

Drive samples can be obtained using a commercially-available motorized cathead hoist (Acker, 1974). This unit consists of an engine mounted near the base of one leg of the tripod and a cathead assembly. One section of a manila rope is wound around the cathead and passed through a pulley attached to the top of the tripod. The end of this section is attached to the drive assembly of the sampler. The other end of the manila rope is used to tighten or release the rope wound around the cathead to raise and lower the sampler unit.

3.2 CRITERIA FOR SELECTING SOIL SAMPLERS

Important criteria to consider when selecting soil-sampling tools for soil monitoring at land treatment units include: (1) capability for obtaining a core sample, (2) suitability for sampling various soil types, (3) suitability for sampling soils under various moisture conditions, (4) accessibility to sampling site during poor on-site surface conditions, (5) relative sample size obtained, and (6) labor requirements. Each of the sampling techniques described in the previous sections were evaluated for these criterion and the results are summarized in Table 3-1. This section briefly reviews each of the selection criteria.

3.2.1 Capability for Obtaining a Core Sample

The RCRA requirements specify soil-core sampling for hazardous waste land treatment units. The intent of the regulations was not to limit the techniques to "cores" just soils which are representative of those below the treatment zone. Strictly speaking, screw-type augers and barrel augers do not obtain soil cores. Nevertheless, provided they obtain representative samples,

TABLE 3-1. CRITERIA FOR SELECTING SOIL SAMPLING EQUIPMENT

Type of Sampler	Obtains Core Sample		Most Suitable Core Types			Operation in Stoney Soils		Most Suitable Soil Moisture Conditions			Access. to Sampl. Sites During Poor Soil Conditions		Relative Sample Size		Labor Req'mts	
	Yes	No	Coh	Coh'less	Eit	Fav	Unfav	Wet	Dry	Inter	Yes	No	Sm	Lg	Sngl	2/More
A. Hand Auger																
1. Screw-Type Augers		X			X		X	X			X		X		X	
2. Barrel Augers																
a. Post-Hole Auger		X	X			X		X			X			X	X	
b. Dutch Auger		X	X			X		X								
c. Regular Barrel Auger		X	X			X				X	X		X		X	
d. Sand Augers		X		X		X				X	X			X	X	
e. Mud Augers		X	X			X		X			X			X	X	
3. Tube-Type Samplers																
a. Soil Probes																
(1) Wet Tips	X				X		X	X			X					
(2) Dry Tips	X				X		X	X			X		X		X	X
b. Veihmeyer Tubes	X				X					X			X		X	
c. Thin-Walled Tube Samplers	X		X				X			X	X			X		X
d. Peat Samplers	X		X				X	X			X			X		X
B. Power Auger																
1. Hand-Held Screw Type Power Auger		X			X	X				X	X			X		X
2. Truck Mounted Auger					X											
a. Screw Type		X			X	X		X				X		X		X
b. Drive Sampler	X		X			X				X		X		X		X
3. Tripod Mounted Drive Sampler	X		X							X		X		X		X

these units can be used to obtain soil samples from the requisite monitoring depth.

3.2.2 Soil Types

Land treatment sites located on soils of intermediate texture (i.e., loams), require the use of regular augers. The soils below the treatment zone may be predominately either cohesive (e.g., clay types) or cohesionless (e.g, sands). For either of these extreme conditions some tools are more effective than others for obtaining and retaining the samples. Alternatively, special tools are available when either of these conditions is encountered. For example, sand augers are a variation of the standard barrel auger designed for sampling in cohesionless soils. Similarly, Dutch augers and mud augers are best suited for cohesive soils.

As described in a later section, special attachments, called core catchers, are available to assist in retaining core samples in thin-walled samplers when dry cohesionless soils are being sampled.

3.2.3 Soil Moisture Content

3.2.3.1 Wet Soils--

It may be difficult to retain soil samples within a sampler in very wet, sticky soils. Hand-held samplers which are particularly suited for such soils include Dutch augers, mud augers, and special soil sampling tubes. Thin-walled drive samplers with built in sampler retainers could also be used.

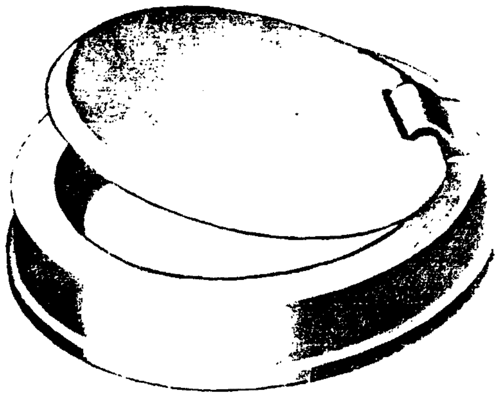
Peat samplers are designed for sampling in wet, organic soils. The operating principles of each of these units were described in previous sections of this chapter.

3.2.3.2 Dry-Cohesionless Soils--

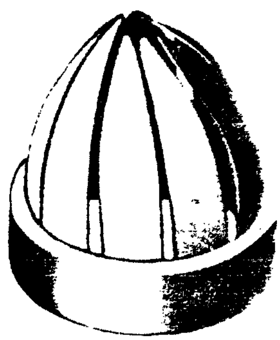
As with saturated samples, it may not be possible to retain samples of very dry, cohesionless soils within a sampler. Sand augers and specially designed soil-sampling tubes are useful for sampling in these soils. Alternatively, thin-walled drive samplers with sample retainers, or "core catchers" could be used. Two types of sample retainers, shown in Figure 3-11, include a one-way solid flap valve, and a segmented, spring-type basket retainer. Core catchers are inserted inside the sampler between the shoe and the sample barrel.

3.2.4 Site Accessibility

Generally, site accessibility refers to the ease of reaching on-field monitoring sites. Specifically, the surface soils at a field may become virtually intractable following liquid waste application or after a heavy rainfall. For such conditions, power-driven units mounted in pickup trucks cannot be used, whereas, an operator may (albeit with difficulty) be able to reach the site on foot with the sampling equipment.



(a)



(b)

Figure 3-11. Soil core retainers for sampling in very wet soils and cohesionless soils. (a) One-way solid flap valve, (b) Spring-type, segmented basket retainer

3.2.5 Relative Sample Size

A review of the discussion on sampling tools will show that the sample size obtained by the different samplers varies. For example, hand-driven screw-type augers generally obtain samples from a bore hole which is less than 2 inches in diameter, whereas, barrel augers are available for obtaining 5 inch cores. The choice of a unit may be based on sample size requirements. The number and kind of analysis to be done on the soil sample will determine the volume of sample required. In addition, in rocky and stoney soils larger units may be necessary to obtain a useable mass of sample once the rocks have been discarded.

3.2.6 Labor Requirements

Generally speaking, it is good practice to send at least two individuals into the field to obtain samples. That is, hand-sampling is often tedious and two individuals can take turns on the sampler. In addition, note-taking and sample labelling is facilitated when two individuals are involved. Strictly speaking, however, the majority of sampling tools only require the presence of one individual, the exception being where power equipment is used.

3.2.7 Sampling in Rocky and Stoney Soils

Rocky or stoney soils in the treatment zone will generally impede the progress of most tools. The problem will be accentuated with small diameter tools such as soil probes. Alternate tools, such as larger diameter barrel augers, may be necessary.

3.3 RANDOM SOIL-CORE MONITORING SITE SELECTION

The RCRA Guidance Document on Land Treatment Units recommends that soil-core monitoring sites be randomly selected (EPA, 1983b). If n random sites are to be selected, a simple random sample is defined as a sample obtained in such a manner that each possible combination of n sites has an equal chance of being selected. In practice, each site is selected separately, randomly, and independently of any sites previously drawn. For soil-core monitoring, each site to be included in the "sample" is a volume of soil (soil core).

It should be recognized that adjacent sampling points on a landscape are more often than not spatially dependent. The theory for spatial dependence, known as regionalized variable theory holds that the difference in value for a specific property depends upon the distance between measurement locations and their orientation in the landscape. Geostatistics, the application of regionalized variable theory, has been employed to demonstrate a number of spatial relationships for both soil chemical and physical properties. For many properties, a geostatistic analysis will indicate an approximate distance between two observations for which those observations are expected to be independent (no co-variance). Observations at a closer spacing are expected to be dependent to some degree. A strictly random sampling scheme as presented by EPA (1983a, 1983b) assumes independence between sample locations. This sampling scheme has been slightly modified in this guidance to maintain the assumption of independence between sampling locations. The following sampling scheme specifies that sample point separations should be in excess of 10 meters.

It is convenient to spot the field location for soil-coring devices by selecting random distances on a coordinate system and using the intersection of the two random distances on a coordinate system as the location at which a soil core should be taken (see Figure 3-12). This system works well for fields of both regular and irregular shape, since the points outside the area of interest are merely discarded, and only the points inside the area are used in the sample.

The location, within a given uniform area of a land treatment unit (i.e., active portion monitoring), at which a soil core should be taken should be determined using the following procedure as described by EPA (1983a, 1983b):

(1) Divide the land treatment unit (Figure 3-12) into uniform areas (aa, bb, cc, dd). A uniform area is an area of the active portion of a land treatment unit which is composed of soils of the same soil series and to which similar wastes or waste mixtures are applied at similar application rates. Swales are treated as a different uniform area and are discussed in Hazardous Waste Land Treatment (EPA, 1983a) under the heading of "hot spots." A qualified soil scientist should be consulted in completing this step.

(2) Map each uniform area by establishing two base lines (O-A and O-B) at right angles to each other which intersect at an arbitrarily selected origin (O), for example, the southwest corner. Each baseline should extend to the boundary of the uniform area.

(3) Establish a scale interval (e.g., 100 m) along each base line. The units of this scale may be feet, yards, miles, or other units depending on the size of the uniform area. Both base lines must have the same scale.

(4) Draw two random numbers from a random numbers table (see Appendix A). Use these numbers to locate one point along each of the base lines.

(5) Locate the intersection of two lines drawn perpendicular to these two base line points. This intersection (•) represents one randomly selected location for collection of one soil core. If this location at the intersection is outside the uniform area (x), or within 10 m of another sampling location, disregard this sampling location and repeat the above procedure.

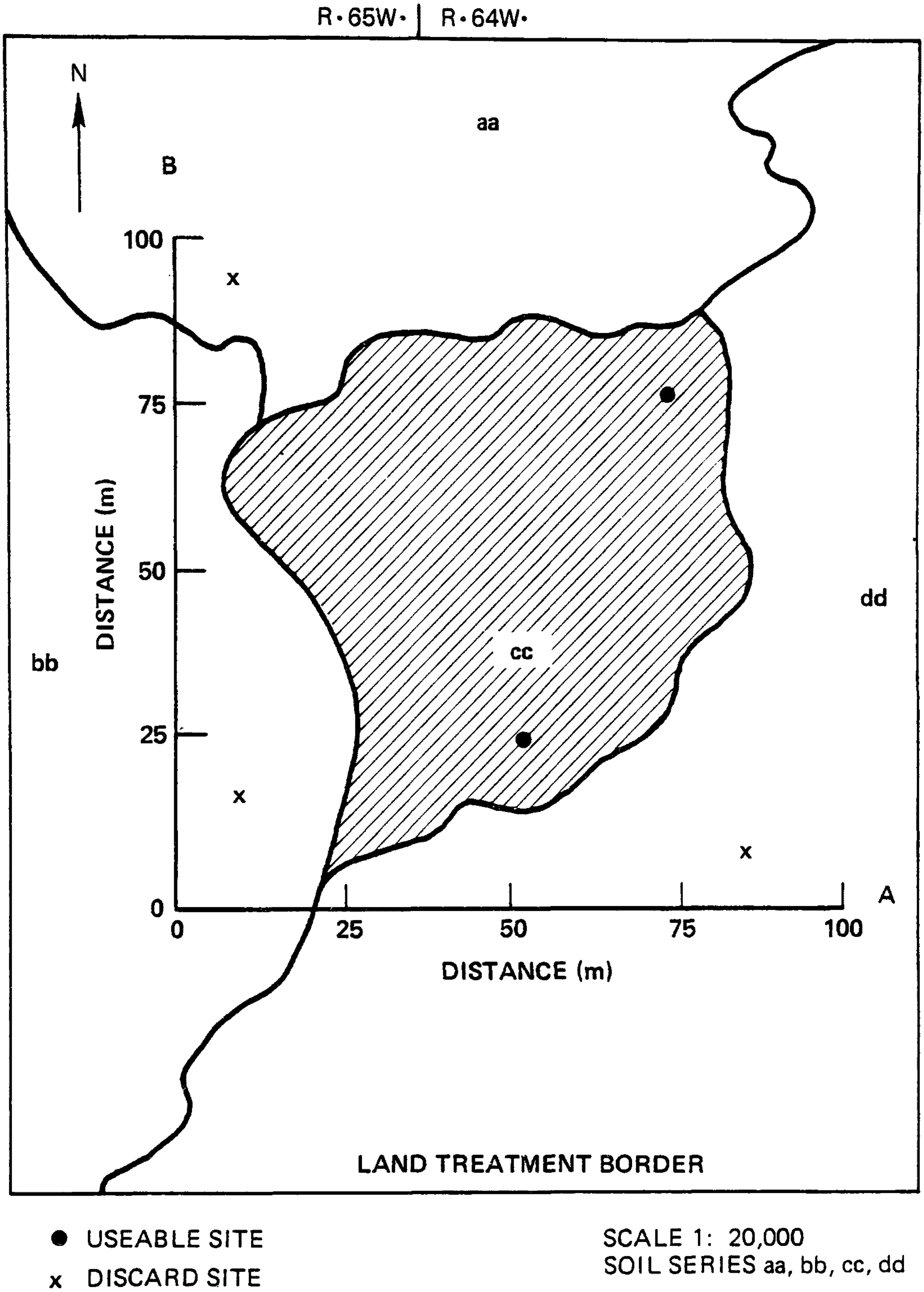


Figure 3-12. Random Site (•) selection example for unit cc

(6) For soil-core monitoring, repeat the above procedure as many times as necessary to obtain six soil coring locations within each uniform area of the land treatment unit. If a uniform area is greater than twelve acres, repeat the above procedure as necessary to provide at least two soil coring locations per four acres. (If the same location is selected twice, disregard the second selection and repeat as necessary to obtain different locations). This procedure for randomly selecting soil coring locations must be repeated at each sampling event (i.e., semi-annually).

Locations for monitoring on background areas should be randomly determined using the following procedure:

(1) Consult a qualified soil scientist in determining an acceptable background area. The background area must have characteristics (i.e., at least soil series classification) similar to those present in the uniform area of the land treatment unit it is representing.

(2) Map an arbitrarily selected portion of the background area (preferably the same size as the uniform area) by establishing two base lines at right angles to each other which intersect at an arbitrarily selected origin.

(3) Complete steps 3, 4, and 5 as defined above.

(4) For soil-core monitoring, repeat this procedure as necessary to obtain eight soil coring locations within each background area (see Table 3-2).

3.4 SAMPLE NUMBER, SIZE, FREQUENCY AND DEPTHS

Sample number in research designs is typically decided based on a liberal estimate of the variance for a constituent as it is distributed spatially, a specified detection increment (e.g., 5 ppb) and a confidence level for the detection increment. The problem in recommending a set number of samples per sampling event is simply that the variance of a sampling event and/or background study may be sufficiently large to preclude an inference that a statistical difference exists with any confidence. A more appropriate and statistically supportable approach is to set the detection increment per hazardous constituent and the confidence level. The applicant would be required to perform a background study of variability as the basis for determining the number of samples per sampling event. Because this approach is still being evaluated by EPA research, EPA has chosen to provide interim guidance based upon the best judgement of scientists familiar with land treatment units. This interim guidance recommends a specified number of samples, size, frequency and depth per sampling event for both the background soil series and the uniform areas of the active land treatment unit (EPA, 1983b). This guidance may be revised when EPA research studies are completed.

Background concentrations of hazardous constituents should be established using the following procedures.

TABLE 3-2. SUMMARY OF SOIL-CORE SAMPLING PROTOCOL FOR BACKGROUND AND ACTIVE LAND TREATMENT AREAS

Sampling Area	Number of Randomly Selected Core Samples	Number of Samples per Composite	Total Number of Composited Samples	Sampling Depth	Sampling Frequency
1. Background, in soils with similar mapping characteristics in active area	8	2	4	within 6-in depth below treatment zone on active zone	one time
2. Active land treatment area					
a. Uniform area less than 5 hectares (12 acres)	6	2	3	Within treatment zone for determination of pH	Semiannually
				Within 6-in region below treatment zone for PHC's	
b. Uniform area greater than 5 hectares (12 acres)	2 per 1.5 hectares (4 acres) 6 per 5 hectares (12 acres)	2	3 per 5 hectares (12 acres)	Within treatment zone for determination of pH	Semiannually
				Within 6-in region below treatment zone for PHC's	

(1) Take at least eight randomly selected soil cores for each soil series present in the treatment zone from similar soils where waste has not been applied. The recommended soil series classification is defined in the 1975 USDA soil classification system (Soil Conservation Service, 1975). The cores should penetrate to a depth below the treatment zone but no greater than 15 centimeters (6 inches) below the treatment zone (Figure 3-13).

(2) Obtain one sample from each soil-core portion taken below the treatment zone.

(3) Composite the soil-core samples from each soil series to form a minimum of four composite samples for each soil series (i.e., randomly composite two soil-core samples to form a composite sample; since eight core samples per soil series were taken, a total of four composite samples will be formed).

The active portion of a land treatment unit can be sampled according to the following procedures:

(1) The owner or operator should take at least six randomly selected soil cores per uniform area, semi-annually. However, if a uniform area is greater than 5 hectares (12 acres), at least two randomly selected soil cores per 1.5 hectares (4 acres) should be taken semi-annually. The cores should penetrate to a depth below the treatment zone but no greater than 15 centimeters (6 inches) below the treatment zone (Figure 3-13).

(2) The pH of the treatment zone in each uniform area should be determined using the following procedure:

   a. Obtain one representative sample from each soil-core portion taken <u>within</u> the treatment zone.

   b. Composite the soil-core samples from each uniform area to form a minimum of three composite samples for each uniform area. However, if a uniform area is greater than 5 hectares (12 acres), a minimum of one composite sample per 1.5 hectares (4 acres) should be formed.

(3) The concentrations of hazardous constituents <u>below</u> the treatment zone in each uniform area should be determined using the following procedure :

   a. Obtain one sample from each soil-core portion taken <u>below</u> the treatment zone (Figure 3-13).

   b. Composite the soil-core samples from each uniform area to form a minimum of three composite samples for each uniform area. However, if a uniform area is greater than 5 hectares (12 acres), a minimum of one composite sample per 1.5 hectares (4 acres) should be formed.

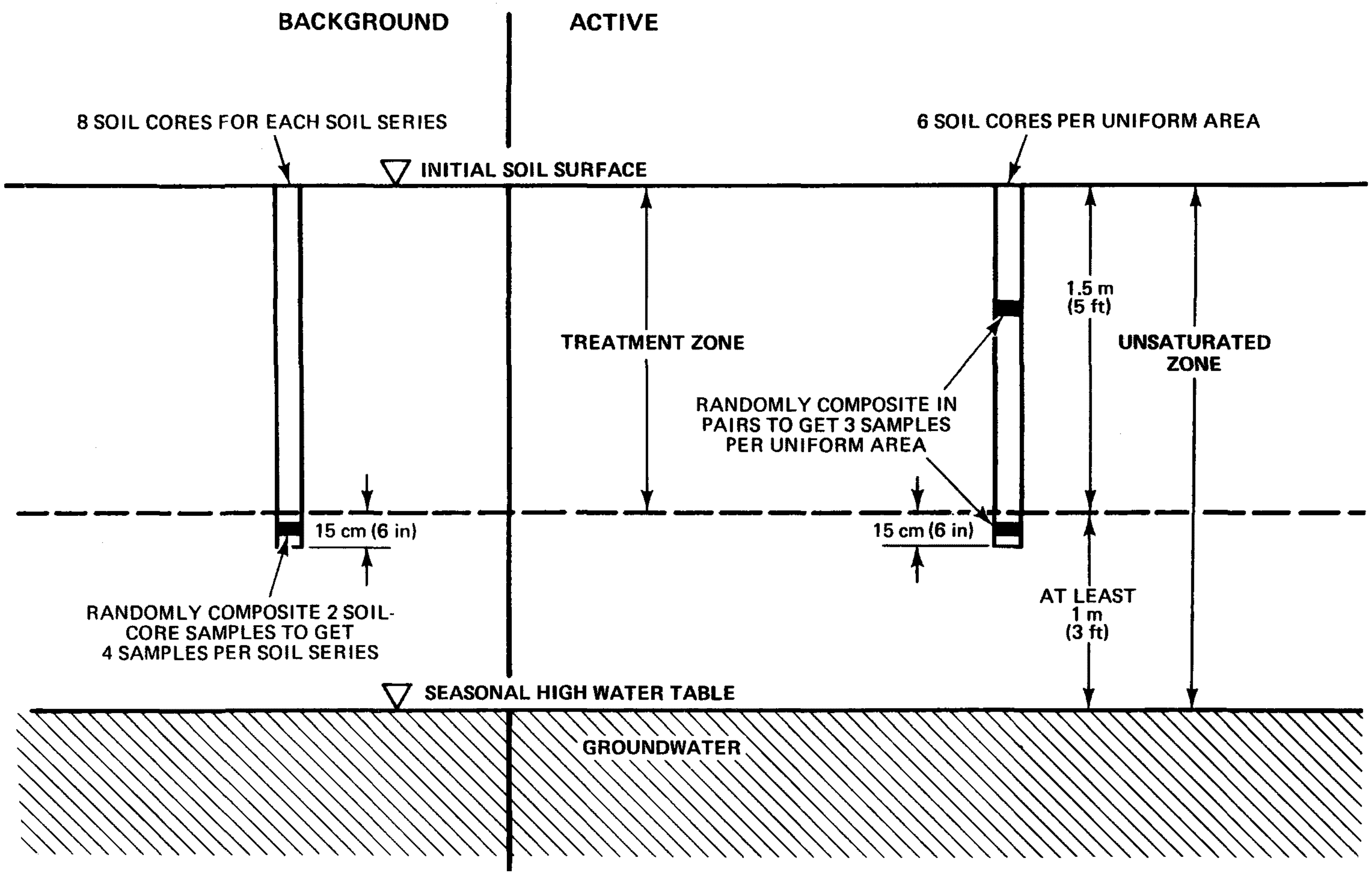


Figure 3-13. Soil core sampling depths

3.4.1 Compositing Samples

The RCRA Guidance Document: Land Treatment Units (EPA, 1983b) specifies the number of composited samples to be collected from background areas and from the active areas on a hazardous waste land treatment facility. The information in this document is summarized in Table 3-1, which specifies: (1) the recommended number of randomly selected samples from background and active areas, (2) number of samples per composite, (3) total number of composited samples, (4) sampling depth, and (5) sampling frequency. The soil samples collected by the techniques described in the previous sections will be used for the composites.

For some of the sampling tools, such as soil probes and Veihmeyer tubes, the sample size is generally small enough that the overall size of the composite is not cumbersome. Other techniques, such as barrel augers, will provide so much sample that a composite will be of much larger mass than required for analysis. In this case the sample size should be reduced to a manageable volume. A simple method is to mix the samples thoroughly by shovel, divide the mixed soil into quarters, and place a sample from each quarter into a sample container. Mechanical sample splitters are also available. EPA (1982b) recommends using the riffle technique. A riffle is a sample splitting device consisting of a hopper and series of chutes. Materials poured into the hopper are divided into equal positions by the chutes which discharge alternately in opposite directions into separate pans (Soiltest Inc., 1976). A modification of the basic riffle design allows for quartering of the samples.

3.4.1.1 Compositing with a Mixing Cloth--

Soil scientists often use a large plastic or canvas sheet for compositing samples in the field (Mason, 1982). This method works reasonably well for dry soils but has the potential for cross contamination problems. Organic chemicals can create further problems by reacting with the plastic sheet. Plastic sheeting, however, is inexpensive and can therefore be discarded after each sampling site.

This method is difficult to describe. It can be visualized if the reader will think of this page as a plastic sheet. Powder placed in the center of the sheet can be made to roll over on itself if one corner is carefully pulled up and toward the diagonally opposite corner. This process is done from each corner. The plastic sheet acts the same way on the soil as the paper would on the powder. The soil can be mixed quite well if it is loose. The method does not work on wet or heavy plastic soils. Clods must be broken up before attempting to mix the soil.

After the soil is mixed, it is again spread out on the cloth to a relatively flat pile. The pile is quartered. A small scoop, spoon or spatula is used to collect small samples from each quarter until the desired amount of soil is acquired (this usually is about 250 to 500 grams of soil but can be less if the laboratory desires a smaller sample). This is mixed and placed in the sample container for shipment to the laboratory. The site material not used in the sample should be disposed of in a safe manner. This is especially important where the presence of highly toxic chemicals is suspected.

3.4.1.2 Compositing with a Mixing Bowl--

An effective field compositing method has been to use large stainless steel mixing bowls. These can be obtained from scientific, restaurant, or hotel supply houses. They can be decontaminated and are able to stand rough handling in the field. Subsamples are placed in the bowls, broken up, then mixed using a large stainless steel scoop. The rounded bottom of the mixing bowl was designed to create a mixing action when the material in it is turned with the scoop. Careful observance of the soil will indicate the completeness of the mixing.

The soil is spread evenly in the bottom of the bowl after the mixing is complete. The soil is quartered and a small sample taken from each quarter. The subsamples are mixed together to become the sample sent to the laboratory. The excess soil is disposed of as waste.

3.5 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

It is assumed that the number and location of sampling sites on the background area and active portion of the land treatment unit have been selected in accordance with the random selection procedure described above. This section describes the following elements of a sampling procedure: (1) preliminary site preparation, and (2) soil sample collection.

3.5.1 Preliminary Activities

In preparation for sample collection, it is strongly suggested that a checklist (Table 3-3) be prepared itemizing all of the equipment necessary, both for sampling and for maintaining quality assurance. Thus all of the tools needed for sampling should be itemized and located in the transporting vehicle. Similarly, all of the documentation accessories, such as field book, maps, labels, etc., should be checked off. A few minutes of preliminary preparation will ensure that all equipment is on hand and that time will not be wasted in returning to base for forgotten items.

Careful site preparation will also take a few minutes but is absolutely necessary to ensure that the samples are representative of in-situ conditions. Specifically, a severe problem with all of the sampling methods described elsewhere in this chapter is that "contamination" of the sample may occur by soil falling in the cavity either from the land surface or from the walls of the borehole. Thus to minimize contamination from surface soils, loose soils and clods should be thoroughly scraped away from each site prior to sampling. A shovel or rake will facilitate this operation.

It is recommended that a soil profile description be taken with each soil core sampling event. The profile description will provide information on the spatial variable properties important to both land treatment functioning and will assist in the interpretation of monitoring results. For instance, it is quite possible that sandy conduits (e.g., stumpholes or root channels) may contain different levels of a hazardous constituent than surrounding soil.

TABLE 3-3. EXAMPLE CHECKLIST OF MATERIALS AND SUPPLIES

- 10 to 12 Oakfield tube samplers, Model 22-g obtained from Soil Test, Inc.
- Borebrush for cleaning.
- 10 to 12 ten-quart stainless steel mixing bowls.
- A U.S. Army Corps of Engineers tube density sampling set with 30 to 40 six-inch sample tubes.
- Safety equipment as specified by safety officer.
- One-quart Mason type canning jars with Teflon liners (order 1.5 times the number of samples. Excess is for breakage and contamination losses.).
- A large supply of heavy-duty plastic trash bags.
- Sample tags.
- Chain-of-custody forms.
- Site description forms.
- Logbook.
- Camera with black-and-white film.
- Stainless steel spatulas.
- Stainless steel scoops.
- Stainless steel tablespoons.
- Caps for density sampling tubes.
- Case of duct tape.
- 100-foot steel tape.
- 2 chain surveyor's tape.
- Tape measure
- Noncontaminating sealant for volatile sample tubes.
- Supply of survey stakes.
- Compass.
- Maps.
- Plot Plan.
- Trowels.
- Shovel.
- Sledge Hammer.
- Ice chests with locks.
- Dry ice.
- Communication equipment.
- Large supply of small plastic bags for samples.

3.5.2 Sample Collection With Hand-Held Equipment

In the following section, step-by-step sample collection procedures are described for each of the major soil-sampling devices.

3.5.2.1 Screw-Type Augers--

(1) Locate tip of auger on the soil surface at exact sampling location.

(2) With the auger and drill stem in an exactly vertical position, turn and pull down on the handle.

(3) When the auger has reached a depth equivalent to the length of the auger head, pull the tool out of the cavity.

(4) Gently tap the end of the auger on the ground or on a wooden board to remove soil from the auger flights. For very wet, sticky soils it may be necessary to remove the soil using a spatula or by hand. In the latter instance, the operator is advised to wear disposable rubber gloves for protection from organic contaminants.

(5) Clean loose soil away from the auger flights and soil opening.

(6) Insert the auger in the cavity and repeat steps (ii) through (v). Keep track of the sampling depth using the marks on the drill rod or by inserting a steel tape in the hole.

(7) When the auger has reached a depth just above the sampling depth, run the auger in and out of the hole several times to remove loose material from the sides and bottom of the hole.

(8) Advance the auger into the soil depth to be sampled.

(9) Remove the auger from the cavity and gently place the head on a clean board or other support. Remove soil from the upper flight (to minimize contamination). Using a clean spatula or other tool, scrape off soil from the other flights into the sample container. Label the sample container pursuant to information presented in Appendix B.

(10) Pour soil back into the cavity. Periodically use a rod to tamp the soil to increase the bulk density. Fill the hole to land surface.

3.5.2.2 Barrel Augers--

The sampling procedures for each of the barrel augers are basically the same with minor variations. Only the procedure for the post-hole auger is presented in detail.

(1) Locate auger bit on soil surface at exact sampling location.

(2) With the auger and extension rod in an exactly vertical position, turn and pull down on the handle (see Figure 3-14).

(3) When the auger has reached a depth equivalent to the length of the auger head, pull the assembly out of the cavity.

(4) Gently tap the auger head on the ground or on a wooden board to remove the soil from the auger. For very wet and sticky soils, it may be necessary to remove the soil using a spatula or rod or by hand. In the latter instance, the operator is advised to wear disposable rubber gloves for protection from organic contaminants.

(5) Remove all loose soil from the interior of the auger and from the soil opening.

(6) Insert the auger back into the cavity and repeat steps (ii) through (v). Keep track of the sampling depth using the marks on the extension rod or by extending a steel tape in the hole.

(7) When the auger has reached a depth just above the sampling depth, run the auger in and out of the hole several times to remove loose material.

(8) Advance the auger into the soil depth to be sampled.

(9) Carefully remove the auger from the cavity and gently place the barrel head on a clean board or other support. Using a clean spatula or other tool, scrape the soil from the control part of the head into the sample container. Discard remaining soil. Label the sample container pursuant to the information presented in the section entitled "Sampling Protocol".

(10) Pour soil back into the cavity. Periodically use a rod to tamp the soil to increase the bulk density. Fill hole to land surface.

3.5.2.3 Tube-Type Samplers: Soil Probe--

The general procedure for soil sampling using soil probes is presented, together with the modified approach when a "backsaver" attachment is used. The basic technique is described first.

(1) Place the sampler tip on the soil surface at the exact sampling location.

(2) With the sampling point and extension rod in an exactly vertical position, push or pull down on the handle to force the sampler into the soil.

(3) When the auger has reached a depth equivalent to the length of the sampling tube, twist the handle to shear off the soil. Pull the tube out of the soil.

Figure 3-14. Barrel auger sampling method (Clements Associates, Inc., 1983)

(4) Gently remove the soil from the tube using a spatula or rod or by hand. If the tool is cleaned by hand, the operator should wear rubber gloves for protection from organic contaminants.

(5) Remove loose soil and soil stuck to the walls of the tool. Similarly, gently remove loose soil around the soil opening.

(6) Insert the probe back into the cavity and repeat steps (ii) through (v). Keep track of the sampling depth using the marks on the rod or by extending a steel tape in the hole. If necessary, screw on an additional extension rod.

(7) When the auger has reached a depth just above the sampling depth, run the probe in and out of the hole several times to remove loose material from the cavity walls.

(8) Advance the auger into the soil depth to be sampled.

(9) Carefully remove the unit from the hole and gently place the tube on a clean board. Scrape the soil out of the tube or force the sample out of the tube by pushing down on the top of the sample. Again, rubber gloves should be used. Using a clean spatula, gently place soil samples into sample containers. Label the sample container pursuant to information presented in the section entitled "Sampling Protocol".

(10) Pour soil back into the cavity, periodically tamping to increase the bulk density. Fill the hole back to land surface.

A modified version of the basic sampling procedure for tube samplers provided with a so-called "back saver" handle is described in Figure 3-15.

3.5.2.4 Tube Type Samplers: Veihmeyer Tubes--

(1) Place the sampler tip on the soil surface at the exact sampling location. Position the tube in an exactly vertical position.

(2) Place the tapered end of the drive hammer into the tube. Place one hand around the tube and the other around the hand grip on the drive hammer. While steadying the tube with one hand, raise and lower the hammer with the other. Eventually a depth will be reached where both hands can be used to control the handle.

(3) Drive the sampler to the desired depth of penetration. For some soils, the tube may be extremely difficult to remove because of wall friction. In such a case, the operator may choose to reduce the depth of penetration during advance of the hole.

HOW DOES THE BACKSAVER HANDLE WORK

Procedure used to pull a soil core with a sampling tube equipped with the "Backsaver Handle" or the "Backsaver N-3 Handle."

(1) Steady the soil probe in a nearly vertical position by grasping the handgrip with both hands. Force the sampling tube into the soil by stepping firmly on the footstep.

(2) Remove the first section of the core by pulling upward on the handgrip. Empty the sampling tube and clean. (see "cleaning of the soil sampling tube")

(3) Place the sampling tube in the original hole and push into the soil until the footstep is within an inch or two of the surface of the ground.

(4) While maintaining a slight pressure on the footstep pull upward on the handgrip, until the footstep has been elevated 6 to 8 inches above the surface of the ground.

(5) Maintain a slight upward pressure on the handgrip and step downward on the footstep. The footstep now grips the rod and the sampling tube can be pushed into the soil until the footstep is within 1 or 2 inches above the ground.

(6) Steps 4 and 5 are repeated until the sampling tube is full. The depth of penetration can be determined by the position of the rod end which can be seen through the viewing holes in the side of the square portion of the Backsaver Handle. It is important not to push the sampling tube into the soil to a depth that exceeds the holding capacity of the tube as this jams the sample and can make removal from the ground extremely difficult.

(7) Remove the full sampling tube by lifting upward on the handgrip. After the sampling tube has been elevated 6 to 8 inches, push downward on the handgrip returning the footstep to within 1 to 2 inches of the surface of the ground.

(8) Empty the sampling tube and clean.

(9) Steps 3 through 8 are repeated until the desired depth is reached.

Procedure used to pull a soil core with a sampling tube equipped with the "Backsaver N-2 Handle."

Same as steps 1 and 2 above.

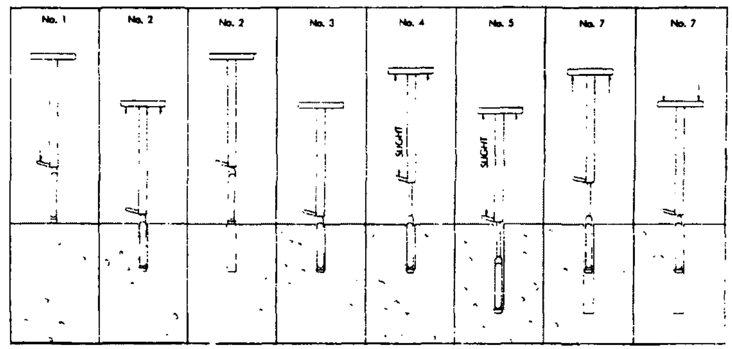


Figure 3-15. Operation of "backsaver" handle with soil sampling tube (Clements Associates, Inc., 1983)

(4) Remove the drive hammer from the tool and place the opening in the hammer above the tube head. Rotate the hammer as required to allow the slots in the opening to pass through the ears on the head. Drop the hammer past the ears and rotate the hammer so that the unslotted opening rests against the ears. Pull the hammer upward to force the tube out of the ground. (In some cases it may be necessary to jar the hammer head against the ears, or have another person pull up on the hammer).

(5) Gently place the side of the tube against a hard surface to remove soil from the tube. If this procedure does not work, it may be necessary to insert a long rod inside the tube to force out the soil.

(6) Scrape off the side of the tube to remove loose soil. Similarly, remove loose soil from the soil cavity.

(7) Insert the tube back into the soil cavity and repeat stops (1) through (6). Keep track of the sampling depth by the marks on the tube or by extending a steel tape in the hole.

(8) When the tip has reached a depth just above the sampling depth, gently run the tube in and out of the hole several times to remove loose material from the cavity walls.

(9) Drive the tube to the depth required for sampling.

(10) Carefully remove the unit from the hole and gently place the tip on a clean board. Force the sample out of the tube using a clean rod or extraction tool. Using a clean spatula, spoon the soil sample into a sample container. As a matter of precaution, the uppermost one or two inches of soil should be discarded on the chance that this segment has been contaminated by soil originating from above the sampling depth. Label the sample container pursuant to information presented in Appendix B.

(11) Pore soil back into the cavity, periodically tamping to increase the bulk density. Fill the hole back to ground surface.

Since the augers, probes and tubes must pass through contaminated surface soils before reaching the sampling depth (1.5 m (5 ft)) cross contamination is a real possibility. Soil is compacted into the threads of the auger and must be extracted with a stainless steel spatula. Probes and tubes are difficult to decontaminate without long bore brushes and some kind of washing facility. One possible way to minimize the cross contamination is to use the auger, probe, or tube to open up a bore hole to the desired depth, clean the bore hole out by repeatedly inserting the auger, probe or tube and finally using a separate, decontaminated auger, probe or tube to take a soil sample through the existing open bore hole.

3.5.2.5. Thin-Walled Tube Samplers--

Generally, in cohesive soils thin-walled samplers are placed into previously excavated cavities, which are augered or dug out to a location just above the sampling depth. These thin-walled samplers have been called Shelby tubes, "Z" tubes, UD tubes (undisturbed), etc. and are customarily used with a hollow stem flight auger. The use of a truck mounted hollow stem auger and a thin-walled sampler, although more difficult to decontaminate, reduces the chance of serious cross contamination in the samplers and, therefore, is the recommended soil sampling technique at hazardous waste land treatment units.

The procedure to follow for extracting a sample includes:

(1) Using a hollow stem auger to drill down to the 1.5 m (5 ft) depth

(2) Detach the head assembly from the auger

(3) With the Shelby tube attached to the head assembly and drive rod, pass the tube down through the hollow stem and into the soil to the required depth (15 cm (6 in)), using the hoist and weight assembly.

(4) Pull the tube sampler out of the soil using the hoist assembly.

(5) Unscrew the tube from the head assembly and place the unit in a core sample extruder (see Figure 3-16). The plunger should be placed in the end of the tube with the cutting tip. If there is no need to examine the sample in the field or if volatile organics are of concern, the sampler can be capped at each end with teflon plugs or some type of sealant and sent to the laboratory.

(6) Gently begin to extrude the sample. Remove and discard the first 2 to 3 inches of the sample.

(7) Extrude the remaining sample into a sample container. Label the sample container.

(8) Pour soil back into the soil cavity, periodically tamping to increase the bulk density. Fill the hole to ground surface.

3.5.2.6 Split Spoon Sampler--

The split spoon sampler is a thick-walled tube 45.7 cm (18 in) or 61 cm (24 in) long which can be split in half longitudinally and is held together on each end by a threaded nozzle cutting edge and a threaded head assembly. The split spoon is used in cohensionless soils or where the structured properties of the soil need to be known.

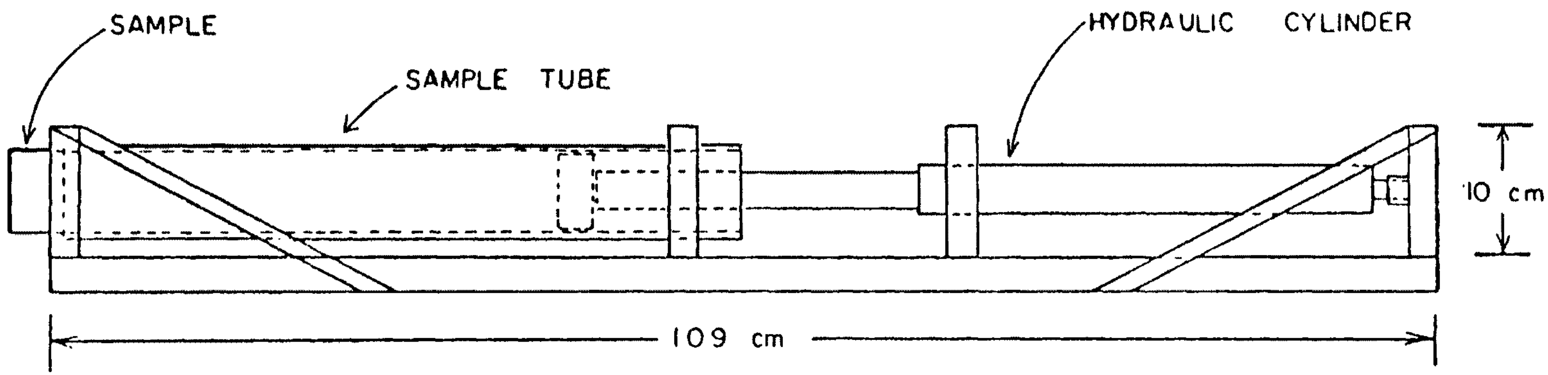


Figure 3-16. Core sample extruding device

A 15.2 cm (6 in) auger is used to drill down to 1.5 m (5 ft). The split spoon is then driven to its sampling depth (15 cm, (6 in)) through the bottom of the augered hole and the core extracted.

In most applications a 63.5 kg (140 lb) hammer is used to drive the split spoon. The hammer is allowed to free fall 76 cm (30 in) for each blow to the spoon. The number of blows required to drive the spoon 15.2 cm (6 in) is counted and recorded. The blow counts are a direct reflection of the density of the soil and can be used to obtain some information on the soil structure below surface. Unless this density information is needed for interpretive purposes, it may not be necessary to record the blow counts. In soft soils the split spoon can often be forced into the ground by the hydraulic drawdown on the drill rig. This is faster than the hammer method and does not require the record keeping necessary to record the blowcounts. Most commercial drilling companies have the equipment and the experience required to conduct this type of sampling with some supervision from the field scientist.

There are several variations for split spoon sampling. Samples collected from soils below the water table or in very soft soils may require the use of split spoons equipped with retainers in the end of the spoon. The retainer is made with flexible fingers that close over the end of the tube as the spoon is retracted from the soil.

Samples collected for the analysis of volatile organic chemicals pose a problem to the environmental scientist. The volatile chemicals can be lost during transport and handling. The option that may offer a solution to this problem is the use of brass, stainless steel or Teflon liners in the split spoon. Brass liners are available from most engineering and agricultural supply houses. The liners are easily removed when the split spoon is opened. The liner tube can be sealed with Teflon plugs and some form of sealant applied over the plug. This system avoids the problems of the loss of chemicals that volatilize into the headspace of the sample jars. The liners can be discarded after analysis if necessary thus reducing the labor costs required to clean the tubes.

3.5.2.7 Peat Sampler--

(1) Place the sampler tip on the soil surface at the exact sampling location.

(2) With the tube in an exactly vertical position, force the sampler into the soil to the desired depth of sampling. (Note: during this stop, the internal plunger is held in-place within the sampling cylinder by a piston attached to the end of the push rods).

(3) Jerk up on the actuating rod to allow the plunger to move upward in the cylinder. (The snap catch will prevent the plunger from moving back downward in cylinder).

(4) Push the assembly downward to force the cylinder into undisturbed soil.

(5) Pull the sampler to the land surface.

(6) Extrude the sample into a clean sample container. Label the container.

(7) Fill in the cavity with soil, tamping to increase the bulk density of the added soil. Fill the hole to ground surface.

3.5.3 Sample Collection With Power Equipment

3.5.3.1 Operation of Power Drilling Equipment--

Personnel safety is of utmost importance when operating power-driven sampling equipment. For this reason it is important to select, and if necessary, train a team of at least two individuals for the sampling program. One member of the team should be assigned full responsibility for operating the equipment, whereas the other individual is basically a helper. In addition to the safety factor, a team approach also expedites the sampling process. For example, the operator is free to operate the equipment while the helper assists in logging the hole, collecting samples, preparing notes, etc.

Power-driven samplers are generally supplied with a set of operating instructions describing how to set up and operate the power train. These instructions should be carefully studied by the operator and the helper before the unit is operated for the first time. In addition, the operator and assistant should be given a demonstration and hands-on training by someone skilled in operating the equipment. The manufacturer's representative or sales personnel should be willing to provide this service.

Other elements of safety include requiring that the team members wear hard hats, gloves, and safety glasses. Depending upon the types of wastes disposed of at the land treatment sites, other precautions may be required, such as having oxygen masks available. Clothing should be snug fitting, and long-sleeved shirts and long pants should be worn. Work boots with steel toes are recommended. Maintaining an uncluttered work area is also recommended to minimize all possibility of the operator or assistant stumbling into moving parts of the rig.

3.5.3.2 Sampling--

As discussed elsewhere in this section, the most common drilling techniques for power sampling are flight augers and drive samplers. Step-by-step procedures for sampling with these tools are identical to those previously presented for their hand-held counterparts, including: (1) preliminary preparation of site, (2) vertical alignment of the tool in the hole, (3) discarding soil from non-sampling horizons, (4) measuring depth of the hole, (5) collecting a soil sample from the tool, and (6) back-filling the hole with soil to prevent vertical leakage of pollutants from the treatment zone.

3.5.3.3 Miscellaneous Tools--

Hand tools such as shovels, trowels, spatulas, scoops and pry bars are helpful for handling a number of the sampling situations. Many of these can be obtained in stainless steel for use in sampling hazardous pollutants. A set of tools should be available for each sampling site where cross contamination is a potential problem. These tool sets can be decontaminated on some type of schedule in order to avoid having to purchase an excessive number of these items.

A hammer, screwdriver and wire brushes are helpful when working with the split spoon samplers. The threads on the connectors often get jammed because of soil in them. This soil can be removed with the wire brush. Pipe wrenches are also a necessity as is a pipe vise or a plumbers vise.

3.6 DECONTAMINATION

One of the major difficulties with soil sampling arises in the area of cross contamination of samples. The most reliable methods are those that completely isolate one sample from the next. Freshly cleaned or disposable sampling tools, mixing bowls, sample containers, etc. are the only way to insure the integrity of the data.

Field decontamination is quite difficult to carry out, but it can be done. Hazardous chemical sampling adds another layer of aggravation to the decontamination procedures. The washing solutions must be collected for disposal at a waste disposal site.

3.6.1 Laboratory Cleanup of Sample Containers

One of the best containers for soil is the glass canning jar fitted with Teflon or aluminum foil liners placed between the lid and the top of the jar. These items are cleaned in the laboratory prior to taking them into the field. All containers, liners and small tools should be washed with an appropriate laboratory detergent, rinsed in tap water, rinsed in distilled water and dried in an oven. They are then rinsed in spectrographic grade solvents if the containers are to be used for organic chemical analysis. Those containers used for volatile organics analysis must be baked in a convection oven at 105°C in order to drive off the rinse solvents.

The Teflon or aluminum foil used for the lid liners is treated in the same fashion as the jars. These liners must not be backed with paper or adhesive.

3.6.2 Field Decontamination

Sample collection tools are cleaned according to the following procedure (Mason, 1982).

- Washed and scrubbed with tap water using a pressure hose or pressurized stainless steel, fruit tree sprayer.

- Check for adhered organics with a clean laboratory tissue.

- If organics are present, rinse with the waste solvents from below. Discard contaminated solvent by pouring into a waste container for later disposal.

- Air dry the equipment.

- Double rinse with deionized, distilled water.

- Where organic pollutants are of concern, rinse with spectrographic grade acetone saving the solvent for use in step 3 above.

- Rinse twice in spectrographic grade methylene chloride or hexane, saving the solvent for use in step 3.

- Air dry the equipment.

- Package in plastic bags and/or pre-cleaned aluminum foil.

The distilled water and solvents are flowed over the surfaces of all the tools, bowls, etc. The solvent should be collected in some container for disposal. One technique that has proven to be quite effective is to use a large glass or stainless steel funnel as the collector below the tools during flushing. The waste then flows into liter bottles for later disposal (use the empty solvent bottles for this). A mixing bowl can be used as a collection vessel. It is then the last item cleaned in the sequence of operations.

The solvents used are not readily available. Planning is necessary to insure an adequate supply. The waste rinse solvent can be used to remove organics stuck to the tools. The acetone is used as a drying agent prior to use of the methylene chloride or hexane.

Steam cleaning might prove to be useful in some cases but extreme care must be taken to insure public and worker safety by collecting the wastes. Steam alone will not provide assurance of decontamination. The solvents will still have to be used.

3.7 SAFETY PRECAUTIONS

Safety problems may arise when operating power equipment and when obtaining soil cores at sites used to dispose of particularly toxic or combustible wastes.

The problem of operator contact with hazardous wastes and the possibility of fires and explosions are not factors of concern when soil-sampling at background sites. However, these items may be of very real concern when sampling active areas. EPA (1983a) review elements of personnel health safety at land treatment areas from the viewpoint of the disposal operators. However, many of these concerns also apply to workers obtaining soil-core samples during a monitoring program. For example, many wastes emit toxic vapors even following land disposal (EPA, 1983a). Such vapors may cause short or prolonged illness in unprotected workers. Long-term direct contact with wastes (e.g., during handling of soil samples) may be considered to be a carcinogenic risk.

Explosive gases may be given off from land treatment areas used to dispose of combustible wastes (EPA, 1983a). For such wastes, extreme caution must be taken when sampling to avoid creating sparks or the presence of open flames. Sparks will be of particular concern when sampling with power-driven equipment. Workers should not be permitted to smoke.

Protective clothing that should be worn during sample collection must be decided on a case-by-case basis. As a guide, the alternative levels of protective equipment recommended by Zirshky and Harris (1982) for use during remedial actions at hazardous waste sites could be employed at land treatment sites used to dispose of highly toxic wastes. Specific items for each level are itemized in Table 3-4. Level 1 equipment is recommended for workers coming into contact with extremely toxic wastes. Such equipment items offer the maximum in protection. Level 2 equipment can be used by supervising personnel who do not directly contact the waste. Level 3 equipment applies primarily to sampling on background areas or on treatment sites used to dispose of fairly innocuous wastes. Level 4 equipment could be used during an emergency situation such as a fire.

OSHA is the principal Federal agency responsible for worker safety. This agency should be contacted for information on safety training procedures and operational safety standards (EPA, 1983a).

3.8 DATA ANALYSIS AND EVALUATION

A critical step in any monitoring program is the proper analysis and evaluation of the data collected. Input from the field scientist is important in this data interpretation. The field scientist should have made observations of field conditions (e.g., weather, unusual waste distribution patterns, soil conditions, etc.) when the samples were taken and noted these in the field log book (see Appendix B). This information will assist in explaining the sampling data and provide insight into potential remedial actions that may be taken in the event they are necessary.

Appendix C provides example sheets for summarizing the analytical and statistical analysis results from unsaturated zone monitoring. Summary sheets, such as these, and the chain of custody documentation described in Appendix B, should be included in the operating record of the facility.

The land treatment regulations (see 40 CFR Part 264) require that the owner or operator determine if hazardous constituents have migrated below the treatment zone at levels that are statistically increased over background levels. The following analysis can be used to make this determination. This analysis can be done on a calculator.

The mean (Eq. 3-1), variance (Eq. 3-2), and a two-sided ($100(1-\alpha)\%$) confidence interval (Eq. 3-3) are first calculated by the following equations:

$$\bar{y} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i/n \qquad (3\text{-}1)$$

TABLE 3-4. PERSONNEL PROTECTIVE EQUIPMENT
(Zirshky and Harris, 1982)

Level	Equipment
1	3-M White Cap with air-line respiration PVC chemical suit Chemical gloves taped to suit, leather gloves as needed Work boots with neoprene overshoes taped to chemical suit Cotton coveralls, underclothing/socks (washed daily) Cotton glove liners Walkie-talkies for communications Safety glasses or face shield
2	Hard hat Air purifying respirator with chemical cartridges PVC chemical suit and chemical gloves Work boots with neoprene overshoes taped to chemical suit Cotton coveralls/underclothing/socks (washed daily) Cotton glove liners Walkie-talkies for communications Safety glasses or face shield
3	Hard hat Disposable overalls and boot covers Lightweight gloves Safety shoes Cotton coveralls/underclothing/socks (washed daily) Safety glasses or face shield
4	Positive pressure self-contained breathing apparatus PVC chemical suit Chemical gloves, leather gloves, as needed Neoprene safety boots Cotton coveralls/underclothing/socks (washed daily) Walkie-talkie for communications Safety glasses or face shield

$$V(\bar{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n}(y_i - \bar{y})^2/n(n-1) \qquad (3\text{-}2)$$

where y_i = ith sample

n = number of samples

$\bar{y}$ = sample mean

$V(\bar{y})$ = estimated variance of the mean

$$L = \bar{y} \pm t_{\alpha/2} \quad V(\bar{y}) \qquad (3\text{-}3)$$

where L = 100(1-α)% confidence interval

$t_{\alpha/2}$ = the $\alpha/2$ percentage value from a t-distribution with (n-1) degrees of freedom

The data for each hazardous constituent or "principal hazardous constituent" (if identified in permit) from the background area can be statistically compared to the data from the appropriate uniform area in the active portion using the Student's t-test. The t-test given in equation 3-4 below (Li, 1959) is used to determine if the mean of the hazardous constituents in the uniform area is greater than that in the appropriate background area. This equation assumes homogeneity of variances which is most often the case in soils work.

For testing if the uniform area (active portion) mean is greater than the background mean (i.e., one-tailed test), compare the calculated t-value (t_c) with the critical value t_α, where t_α is the upper tail value from the t-distribution with $n_1 + n_2 - 2$ degrees of freedom at the α significance level. If $t_c > t_\alpha$, there is a statistically significant increase in the uniform area (active portion) mean over the background area mean.

$$t_c = (\bar{y}_1 - \bar{y}_2) \qquad s^2_p\ (1/n_1 + 1/n_2) \qquad (3\text{-}4)$$

where t_c = calculated t-value

$\bar{y}_k$ = mean for area k

k = 1 for uniform area (active portion);

k = 2 for background area

s^2_p = pooled variance calculated by formula Eq. 3-5

n_k = number of samples in area k

$$s^2_p = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n_1} (y_i - \bar{y}_1)^2 + \sum_{j=1}^{n_2} (y_j - \bar{y}_2)^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2} \qquad (3\text{-}5)$$

SECTION 4

SOIL-PORE LIQUID MONITORING

The sampling of soil-pore liquid was reported in the literature in the early 1900's when Briggs and McCall (1904) described a porous ceramic cup which they termed an "artificial root". The sampling of soil-pore liquid has received increasing attention in more recent years as concern over migration of pollutants in soil has increased. As shown in Figure 4-1, different soils are capable of yielding different levels of water. The unsaturated zone, as described in Section 2, is the layer of soil between the land surface and the groundwater table. At saturation the volumetric water content is equivalent to the soil porosity (see Figure 4-1). In contrast the unsaturated zone is usually found to have a soil moisture content less than saturation. For example, the specific retention curve on Figure 4-1 depicts the percentage of water retained in previously saturated soils of varying texture after gravity drainage has occurred. Suction-cup lysimeters are used to sample pore liquids in unsaturated media because pore liquid will not readily enter an open cavity at pressures less than atmospheric (The Richard's outflow principle).

Suction-cup lysimeters are made up of a body tube and a porous cup. When placed in the soil, the pores in these cups become an extension of the pore space of the soil. Consequently, the water content of the soil and cup become equilibrated at the existing soil-water pressure. By applying a vacuum to the interior of the cup such that the pressure is slightly less inside the cups than in the soil solution, flow occurs into the cup. The sample is pumped to the surface, permitting laboratory determination of the quality of the soil solution in situ.

Although a number of techniques are available for indirectly monitoring the movement of pollutants beneath waste disposal facilities, soil core sampling and suction-cup lysimeters, remain the principal methods for directly sampling pore liquids in unsaturated media. The main disadvantages of soil core sampling are that it is a destructive technique (i.e., the same sample location cannot be used again) and it may miss fast-moving constituents. Lysimeters have been used for many years by agriculturists for monitoring the flux of solutes beneath irrigated fields (Biggar and Nielsen, 1976). Similarly, they have been used to detect the deep movement of pollutants beneath land treatment units (Parizek and Lane, 1970). Inasmuch as lysimeters are the primary tools for soil pore liquid monitoring at land treatment units, understanding the basic principles of lysimeter operation and their limitations is important to owners and operators of such units, as well as those charged with permitting land treatment units. This section will discuss soil moisture/tension relationships, soil pore-liquid sampling equipment, site selection, sampling frequency and depths, installation and operation of the available devices, and sample collection, preservation, storage, and shipping.

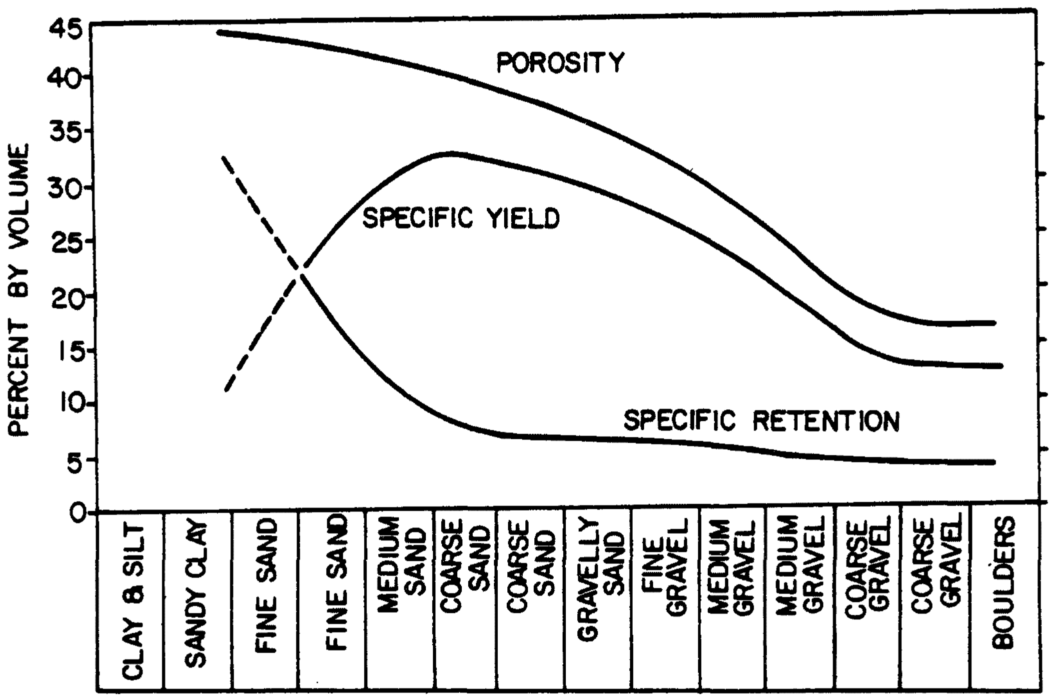


Figure 4-1. Variation of porosity, specific yield, and specific retention with grain size (Scott and Scalmanini, 1978)

It should be recognized, however, that situations may occur where the flow velocities in the unsaturated zone are higher than empirically demonstrated by Darcy's Law. As a result, the wetting front will not be uniform and most of the flow will occur through macropores. This type of gravity flow in highly structured soils will not be sampled effectively by suction lysimeters. The most promising technique for sampling soil pore-liquid in highly structured soils is pan lysimeters (e.g., free drainage glass block samplers). This kind of sampling probably will have its most utility in the treatment demonstration phase of a permit application because structured soils that permit gravity flow may not have sufficient treatment capabilities to satisfy the treatment demonstration. If the treatment demonstration is successfully completed, pan lysimeters may be an important element in the soil pore-liquid monitoring program for the full-scale facility.

4.1 SOIL MOISTURE/TENSION RELATIONSHIPS

Unlike water in a bucket, free, unlimited access to water does not exist in the soil. Soil water or, as it is frequently called, "soil moisture", is stored in the small "capillary" spaces between the soil particles and on the surfaces of the soil particles. The water is attracted to the soil particles, and tends to adhere to the soil. The smaller the capillary spaces between the particles, the greater the sticking force. For this reason, it is harder to get moisture out of fine clay soils than it is from the larger pores in sandy soils, even if the percent of moisture in the soil, by weight, is the same.

Figure 4-2 shows the results of careful research work done with special extractors. As described by the Soilmoisture Equipment Corporation (1983), the graph shows the relationship of the percent of moisture in a soil to the pressure required to remove the moisture from the soil. These are called Moisture Retention Curves. The pressure is measured in bars* which is a unit of pressure in the metric system. Figure 4-2 clearly points out that two factors are involved in determining ease of water sampling: 1) moisture content, and 2) soil type.

Moisture in unsaturated soil is always held at suctions or pressures below atmospheric pressure. To remove the moisture, one must be able to develop a <u>negative</u> pressure or vacuum to pull the moisture away from around the soil particles. For this reason we speak of "Soil Suction". In wet soils the soil suction is low, and the soil moisture can be removed rather easily. In dry soils the Soil Suction is high, and it is difficult to remove the soil moisture.

Given two soils (one clay and one sand) with identical moisture contents, it will be more difficult to extract water from the finer soil (clay) because water is held more strongly in very small capillary spaces in clays.

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*By definition a bar is a unit of pressure equal to 10^6 dyne/cm^2. It is equivalent to 100 kPa (Kilopascals), or 14.5 psi, or approximately 1 atmosphere, or 750 mm of mercury, or 29.6 inches of mercury, or 1,020 cm of water, or 33.5 feet of water.

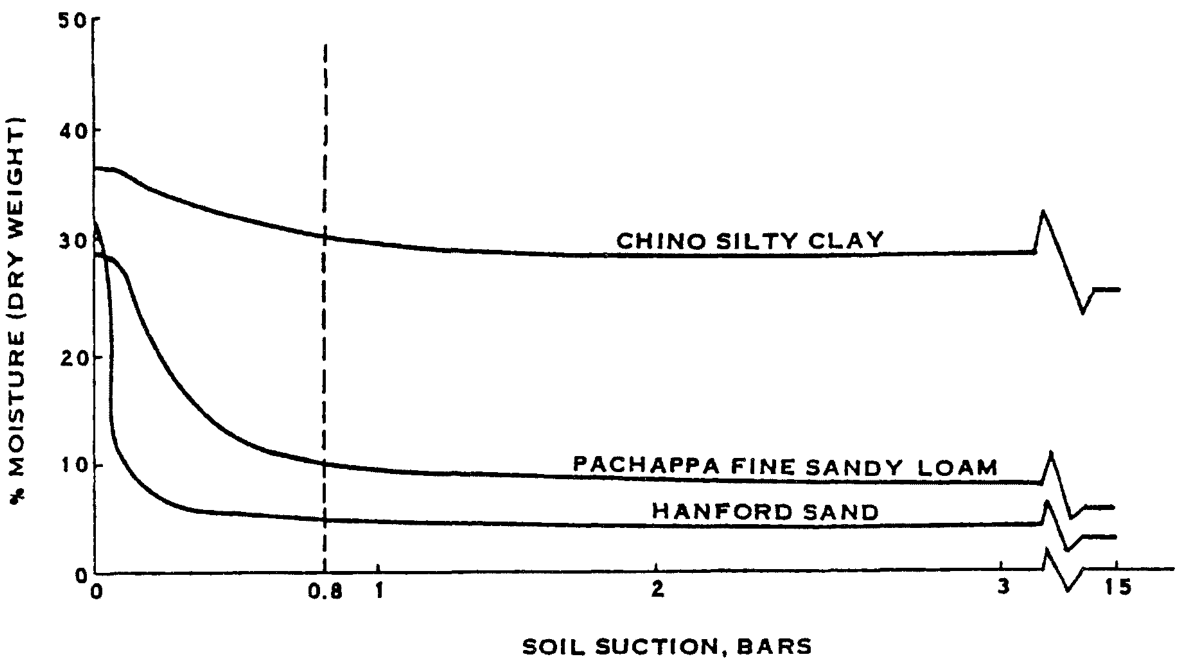

Figure 4-2. Moisture retention curves - three soil types (Soilmoisture Equipment Corp., 1983)

Another fact, brought out by the graphs on Figure 4-2, is that silty clay soil with 30 percent moisture, if placed in contact with a sandy soil with only 10 percent moisture will actually suck moisture out of the sandy soil until the moisture content in the sandy soil is only 5 percent. This is due to the greater soil tension in the fine clay texture.

4.2 PORE-LIQUID SAMPLING EQUIPMENT

Well and open cavities cannot be used to collect solution flowing in the unsaturated zone under suction (negative pressures). The sampling devices for such unsaturated media are thus called suction samplers or lysimeters. Everett et al. (1983) provides an in depth evaluation of the majority of unsaturated zone monitoring equipment. Law Engineering and Testing Company (1982) provides a description of some of the available suction lysimeters (Appendix D). Three types of suction lysimeters are (1) ceramic-type samplers, (2) hollow fiber samplers, and (3) membrane filter samplers.

Because of the potential for macropore flow, pan lysimetry should be employed for soil-pore liquid monitoring in addition to suction lysimetry during the treatment demonstration. While pan lysimeters (e.g., glass block samplers) are not at present commercially available, they are relatively easy to construct and instrument (R.R. Parizek, personal communication, 1984). However, installation will require more skill and effort than suction lysimeters (K. Shaffer, personal communication, 1984).

4.2.1 Ceramic-Type Samplers

Two types of samplers are constructed from ceramic material: the suction cup and the filter candle. Both operate in the same manner. Basically, ceramic-type samplers comprise the same type of ceramic cups used in tensiometers. When placed in the soil, the pores in these cups become an extension of the pore space of the soil. Although cups have limitations, at the present time they appear to be the best tool available for sampling unsaturated media, particularly in the field. The use of teflon for the body tube parts and the porous segment (instead of a porous ceramic) may reduce the chemical interaction between the sampler and the hazardous waste.

Suction cups may be subdivided into three categories: (1) vacuum operated soil-water samplers, (2) vacuum-pressure samplers, and (3) vacuum-pressure samplers with check valves. Soil-water samplers generally consist of a ceramic cup mounted on the end of a small-diameter PVC tube, similar to a tensiometer (see Figure 4-3). The upper end of the PVC tubing projects above the soil surface. A rubber stopper and outlet tubing are inserted into the upper end. Vacuum is applied to the system and soil water moves into the cup. To extract a sample, a small-diameter tube is inserted within the outlet tubing and extended to the base of the cup. The small-diameter tubing is connected to a sample-collection flask. A vacuum is applied via a hand vacuum-pressure pump and the sample is sucked into the collection flask. These units are generally used to sample to depths up to 6 feet from the land surface. Consequently, they are used primarily to monitor the near-surface movement of pollutants from land disposal facilities or from irrigation return flow.

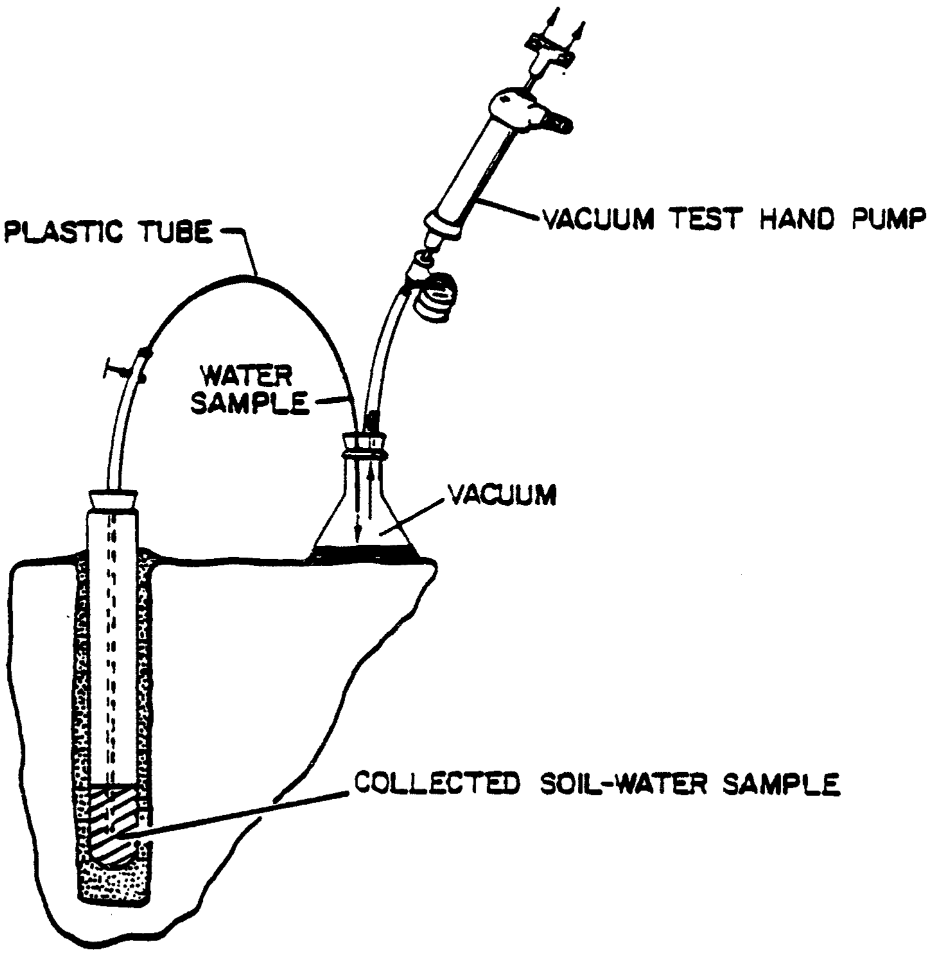

Figure 4-3. Soil-water sampler (courtesy, Soilmoisture Equipment Corp., 1978)

To extract samples from depths greater than the suction lift of water (about 25 feet), a second type of unit is available, the so-called vacuum-pressure lysimeter. These units were developed by Parizek and Lane (1970) for sampling the deep movement of pollutants from a land disposal project in Pennsylvania. The design of the Parizek and Lane sampler is shown in Figure 4-4. The body tube of the unit is about 2 feet long, holding about 1 liter of sample. Two copper lines are forced through a two-hole rubber stopper sealed into a body tube. One copper line extends to the base of the ceramic cup as shown and the other terminates a short distance below the rubber stopper. The longer line connects to a sample bottle and the shorter line connects to a vacuum-pressure pump. All lines and connections are sealed.

In operation, a vacuum is applied to the system (the longer tube to the sample bottle is clamped shut at this time). When sufficient time has been allowed for the unit to fill with solution, the vacuum is released and the clamp on the outlet line is opened. Air pressure is then applied to the system, forcing the sample into the collection flask. A basic problem with this unit is that when air pressure is applied, some of the solution in the cup may be forced back through the cup into the surrounding pore-water system. Consequently, this type of pressure-vacuum system is recommended for depths only up to about 50 feet below land surface. In addition to the monitoring effort of Parizek and Lane, these units were used by Apgar and Langmuir (1971) to sample leachate movement in the vadose zone underlying a sanitary landfill.

Morrison and Tsai (1981) proposed a modified lysimeter design with the porous material located midway up the sampling chamber instead of at the bottom (see Figure 4-5, Morrison and Tsai, 1981). This mitigated the basic problem of sample solution being forced back through the cup when air pressure is applied. Polyethylene with 2.5-micron pores has been substituted for ceramic porous material to provide greater sampler durability and comparable or reduced ion attenuation potential.

Wood (1973) reported on a modified version of the design of Parizek and Lane. Wood's design is the third suction sampler discussed in this subsection. Wood's design overcomes the main problem of the simple pressure-vacuum system; namely, that solution is forced out of the cup during application of pressure. A sketch of the sampler is shown in Figure 4-6. The cup ensemble is divided into lower and upper chambers. The two chambers are isolated except for a connecting tube with a check valve. A sample delivery tube extends from the base of the upper chamber to the surface. This tube also contains a check valve. A second shorter tube terminating at the top of the sampler is used to deliver vacuum or pressure. In operation, when a vacuum is applied to the system, it extends to the cup through the open one-way check valve. The second check valve in the delivery tube is shut. The sample is delivered into the upper chamber, which is about 1 liter (0.26 gallon) in capacity. To deliver the sample to the surface, the vacuum is released and pressure (generally of nitrogen gas) is applied to the shorter tube. The one-way valve to the cup is shut and the one-way valve in the delivery tube is opened. Sample is then forced to the surface. High pressures can be applied with this unit without danger of damaging the cup. Consequently, this sampler can be used to depths of about 150 feet below land surface (Soilmoisture Equipment Corporation, 1978). Wood and Signor (1975) used this sampler to examine geochemical changes in water during flow in the vadose zone underlying recharge basins in Texas.

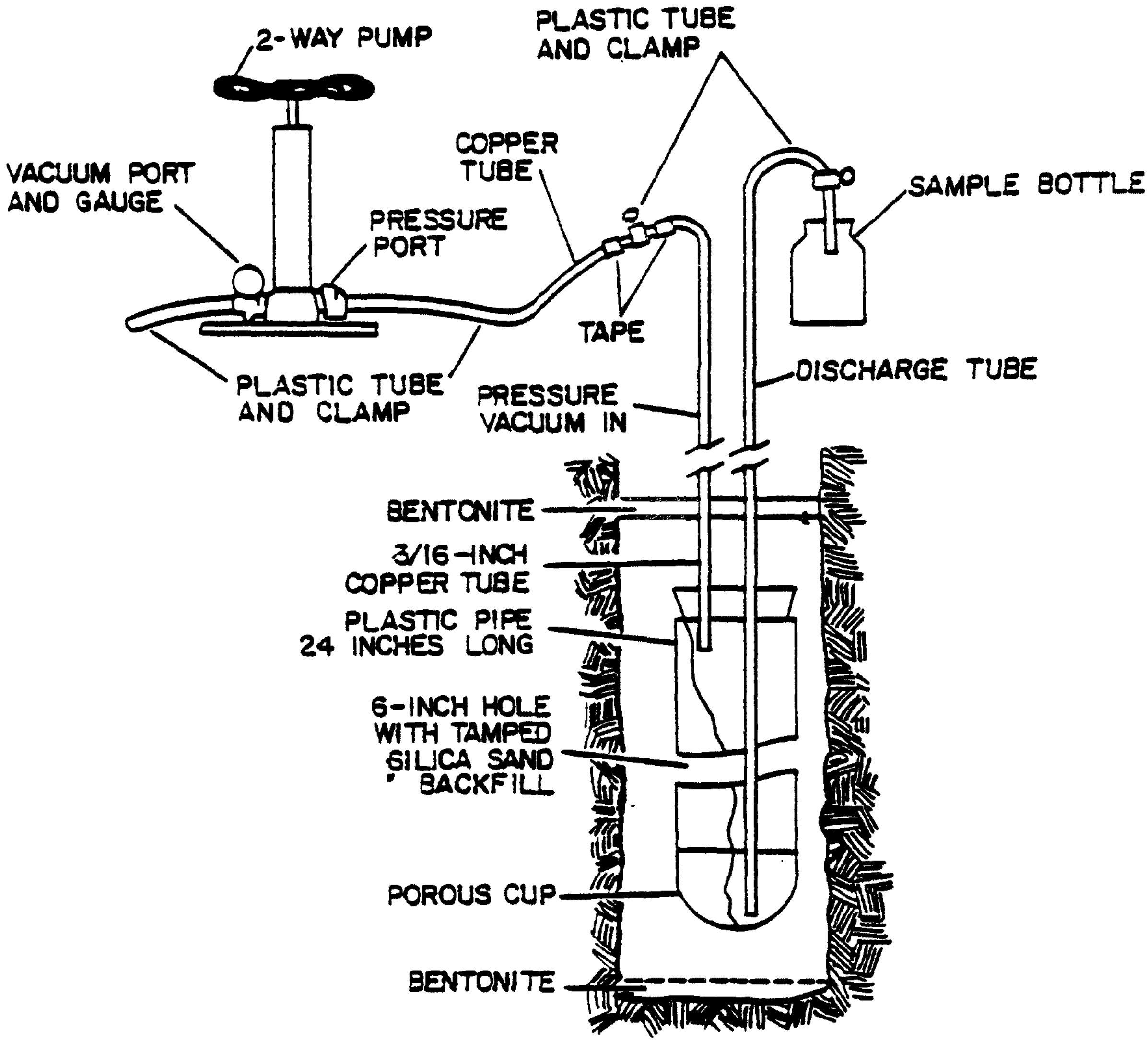

Figure 4-4. Vacuum-pressure sampler (Parizek and Lane, 1970)

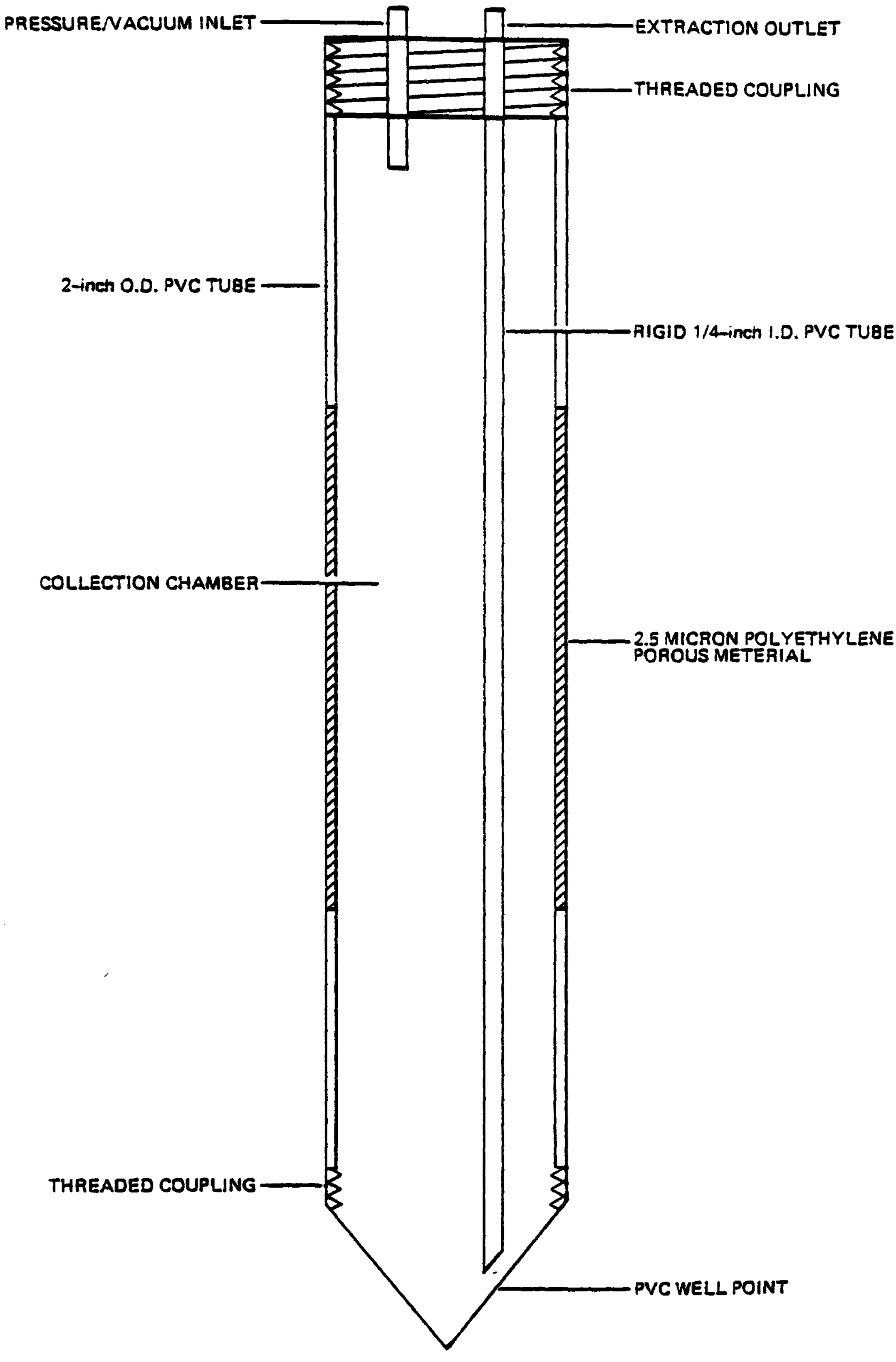

Figure 4-5. Modified pressure-vacuum lysimeter (Morrison and Tsai, 1981).

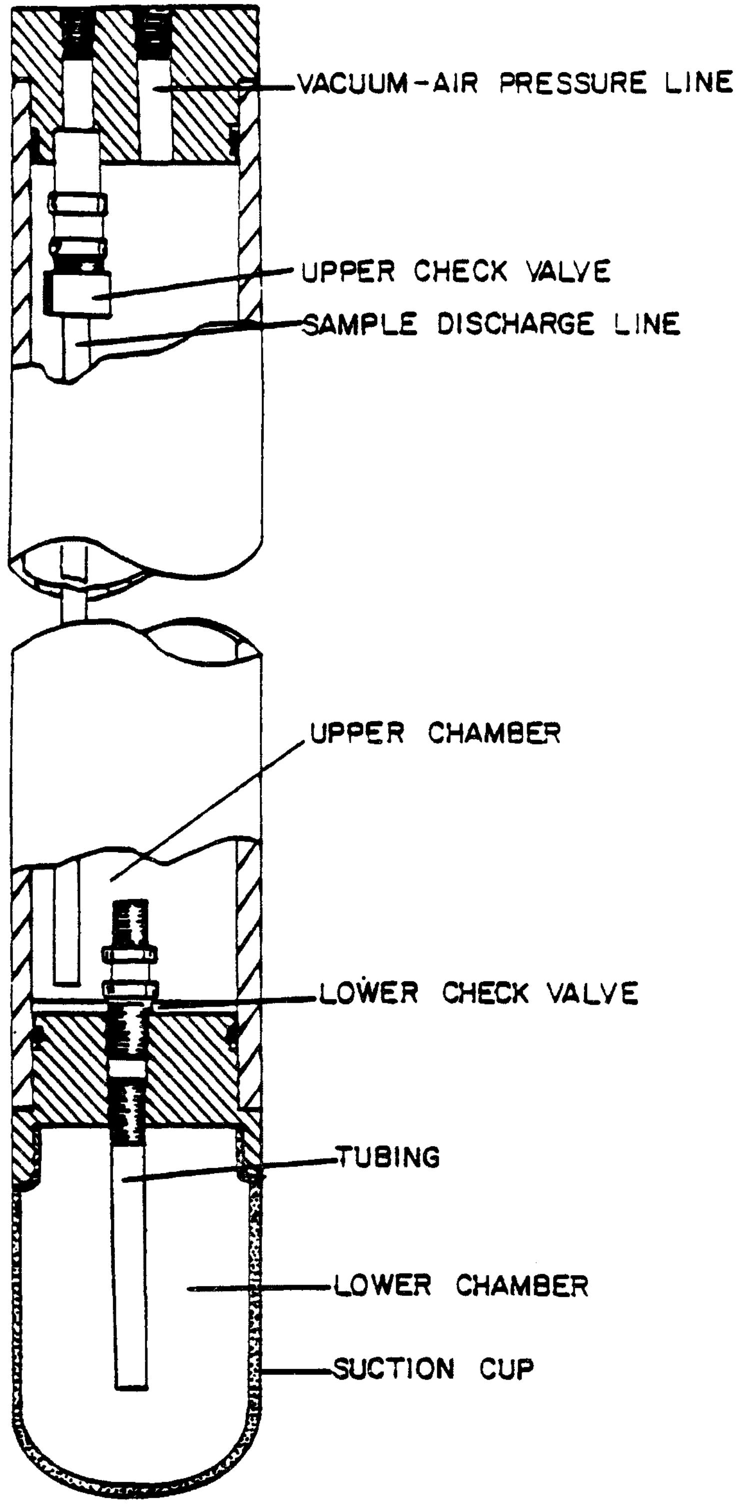

Figure 4-6. "Hi/pressure-vacuum soil-water sampler" (courtesy Soilmoisture Equipment Corp., 1978)

A sampling unit employing a filter candle is described by Duke and Haise (1973). The unit, described as a "vacuum extractor," is installed below plant roots. Figure 4-7 shows an illustrative installation. The unit consists of a galvanized sheet metal trough open at the top. A porous ceramic candle (12 inches long and 1.27 inches in diameter) is placed into the base of the trough. A plastic pipe sealed into one end of the candle is connected to a sample bottle located in a nearby manhole or trench. A small-diameter tube attached to the other end of the candle is used to rewet the candle as necessary. The trough is filled with soil and placed within a horizontal cavity of the same dimensions as the trough. The trough and enclosed filter candle are pressed up against the soil via an air pillow or mechanical jack. In operation, vacuum is applied to the system to induce soil-water flow into the trough and candle at the same rate as in the surrounding soil. The amount of vacuum is determined from tensiometers. Hoffman et al. (1978) used this type of sampler to collect samples of irrigation water leaching beneath the roots of orange trees during return flow studies at Tacna, Arizona.

4.2.2 Cellulose-Acetate Hollow Fiber Samplers

Jackson, Brinkley, and Bondietti (1976) described a suction sampler constructed of cellulose-acetate hollow fibers. These semipermeable fibers have been used for dialysis of aqueous solutions, functioning as molecular sieves. Soil column studies using a bundle of fibers to extract soil solution showed that the fibers were sufficiently permeable to permit rapid extraction of solution for analysis. Soil solution was extracted at soil-water contents ranging from 50 to 20 percent.

Levin and Jackson (1977) compare ceramic cup samplers and hollow fiber samplers for collecting soil solution samples from intact soil cores. Their conclusion is: "... porous cup lysimeters and hollow fibers are viable extraction devices for obtaining soil solution samples for determining EC, Ca, Mg, and PO_4-P. Their suitability for NO_3-N is questionable." They also conclude that hollow fiber samplers are more suited to laboratory studies, where ceramic samplers are more useful for field sampling.

4.2.3 Membrane Filter Samplers

Stevenson (1978) presents the design of a suction sampler using a membrane filter and a glass fiber prefilter mounted in a "Swinnex" type filter holder. Figure 4-8 shows the construction of the unit. The membrane filters are composed of polycarbonate or cellulose-acetate. The "Swinnex" filter holders are manufactured by the Millipore Corporation for filtration of fluids delivered by syringe. A flexible tube is attached to the filter holder to permit applying a vacuum to the system and for delivering the sample to a bottle.

The sampler is placed in a hole dug to a selected depth. Sheets of glass fiber "collectors" are placed in the bottom of the hole. Next, two or three smaller glass fiber "wick" discs that fit within the filter holder are placed in the hole. Subsequently, the filter holder is placed in the hole with the glass fiber prefilter in the holder contacting the "wick" discs. The hole is then backfilled.

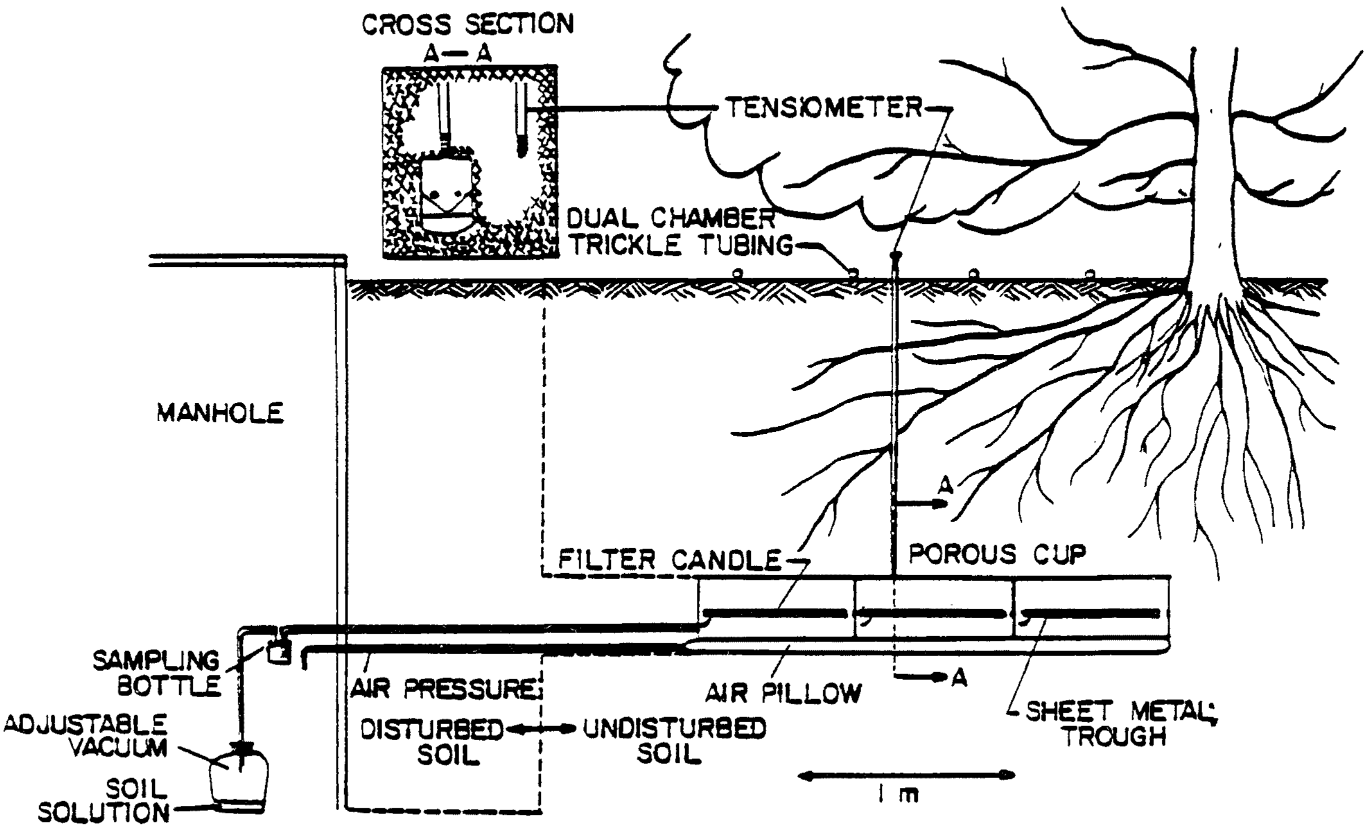

Figure 4-7. Facilities for sampling irrigation return flow via filter candles, for research project at Tacna, Arizona (Hoffman et al., 1978)

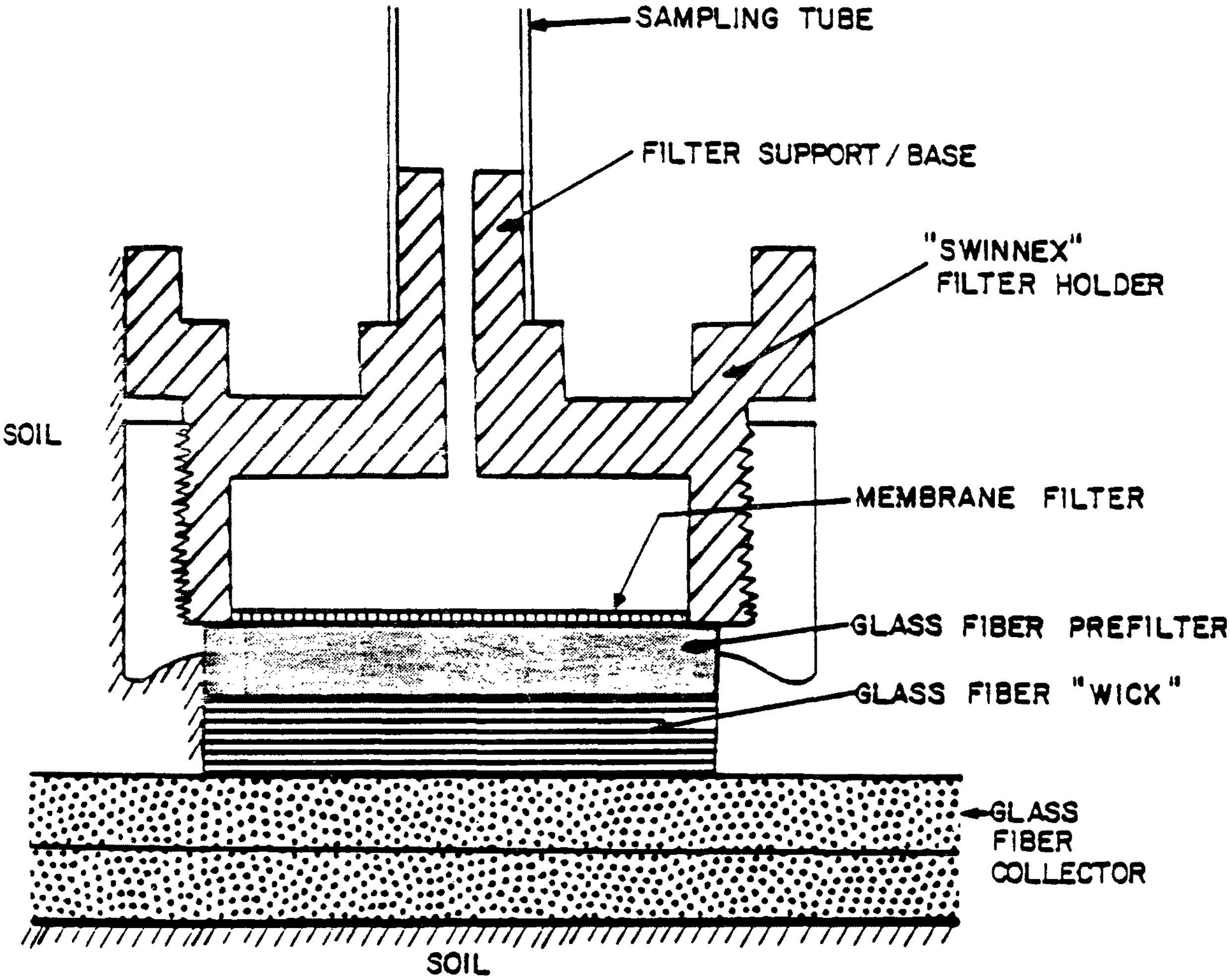

Figure 4-8. Membrane filter sampler (Stevenson, 1978)

In operation, soil water is drawn into the collector system by capillarity. Subsequently, water flows in the collector sheets toward the glass fiber wicks as a result of the suction applied to the filter holder assembly. The glass fiber prefilter minimizes clogging of the membrane filter by fine material in the soil solution.

During field tests with the sampler, it was observed that sampling rates decreased with decreasing soil-water content. The "wick and collector" system provided contact with a relatively large area of the soil and a favorable sampling rate was maintained even when the "collector" became blocked with fine soil. The basic sampling unit can be used to depths of 4 meters.

4.2.4 Pan Lysimeters

The likelihood that bypass of a suction lysimeter will occur should be demonstrated during the treatment demonstration phase for land treatment units located in highly structured soils. It is important to acknowledge the occurrence of macropore flow under certain soil conditions and its significant potential to contaminate groundwater. The most appropriate device for sampling macropore flow is the pan-type lysimeter. The suction lysimeter is unable to effectively sample macropore flow.

There are a number of designs for pan-type lysimeters. Parizek and Lane (1970) constructed a 12x15 inch pan lysimeter (Figure 4-9) from 16 gauge sheet metal. Barbee (1983) employed a perforated 12x12 inch glass brick, the kind used in masonry construction, as a pan lysimeter (Figure 4-10). Shaffer et al. (1979) devised a 20 cm diameter pan lysimeter with a tension plate capable of pulling 6 centibars of tension. A pan lysimeter can be constructed of any non-porous material provided a leachate-pan interaction will not jeopardize the validity of the monitoring objectives. The pan itself may be thought of as a shallow draft funnel. Water draining freely through the macropores will collect in the soil just above the pan cavity. When the tension in the collecting water reaches zero, dripping will initiate and the pan will funnel the leachate into a sampling bottle. The use of a tension plate or a fine sand packing reduces the extent of capillary perching at the cavity face and promotes free water flow into the pan.

4.3 CRITERIA FOR SELECTING SOIL-PORE LIQUID SAMPLERS

In selecting soil-pore liquid sampling equipment, the following criteria should be considered: cost, commercial availability, installation requirements, hazardous waste interaction, vacuum requirements, soil moisture content, soil characteristics and moisture regimes, durability, sample volume, and sampling depth. Fritted glass samplers, for example, are too fragile for field application. Plastic lysimeters require a continuous vacuum and high soil moisture levels. The vacuum extractor is expensive, requires intensive installation procedures and a continuous vacuum. The "Swinnex" sampler has difficult installation procedures and produces too small a sample. Some samplers, such as the aluminum oxide porous cup sampler, are not commercially available. All teflon samplers are more expensive than PVC body parts and ceramic cups. The high pressure-vacuum samplers are not required for the shallow sampling depths at land treatment units. The

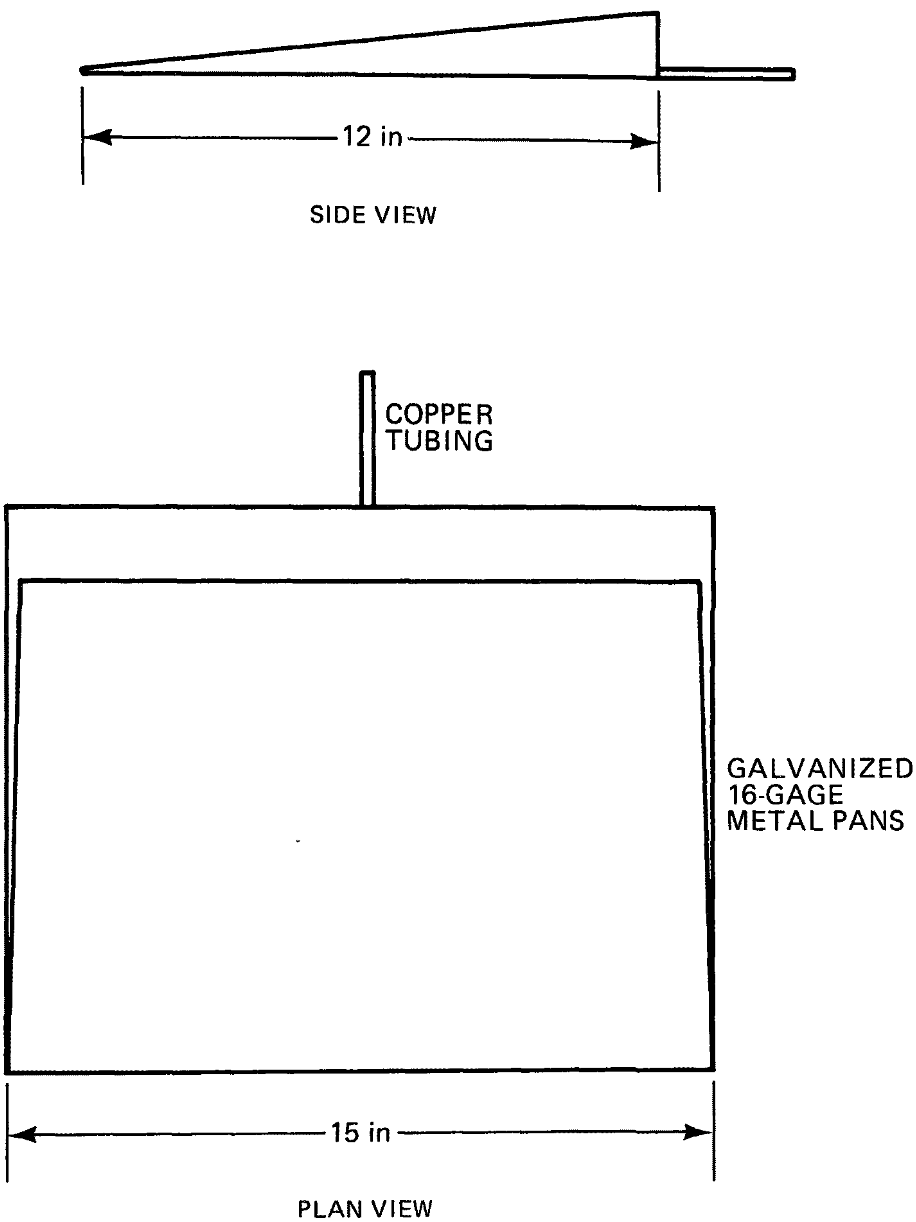

Figure 4-9. Example of a pan lysimeter

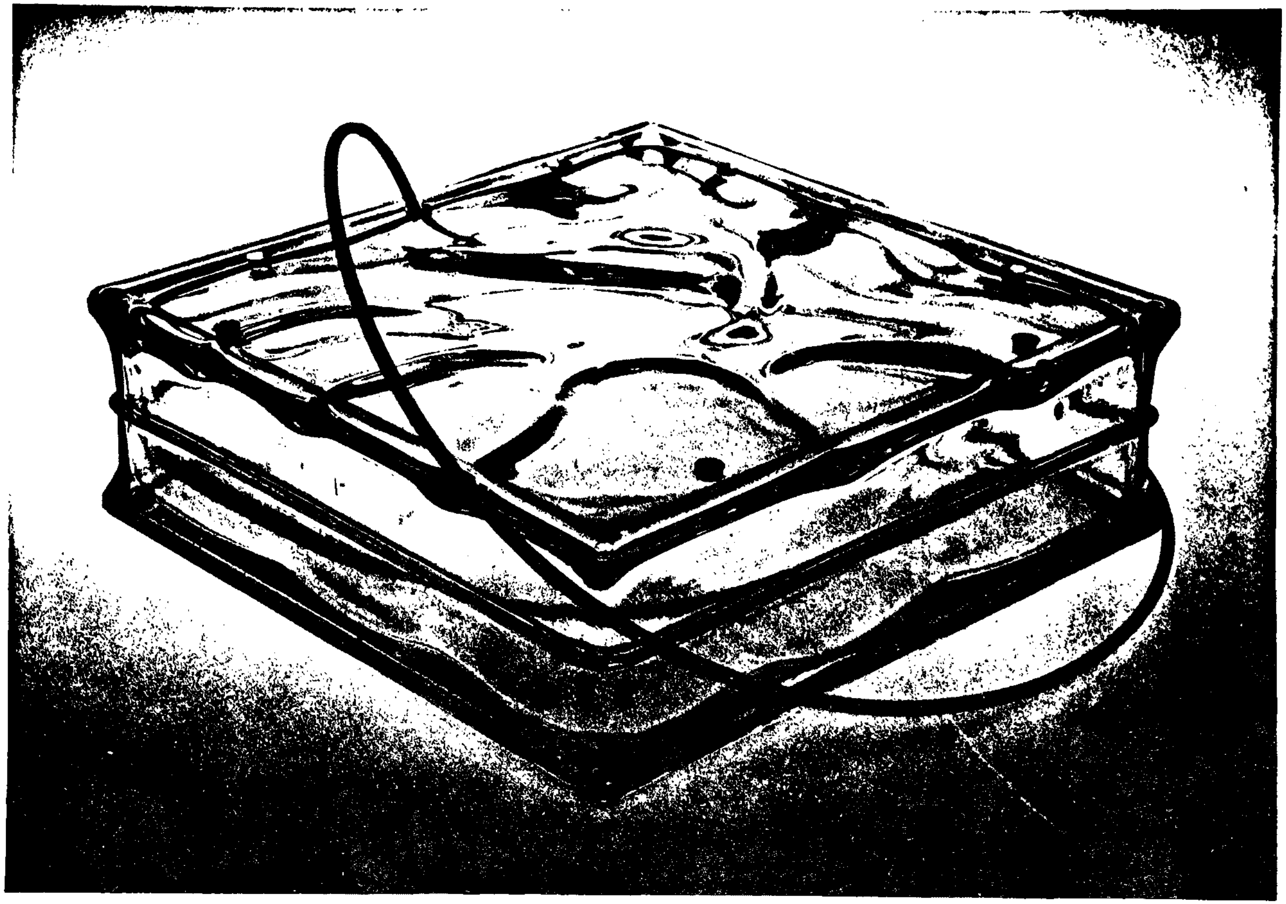

Figure 4-10. Free drainage glass block sampler

simple vacuum lysimeter cannot be used in situ with the sampler totally covered by soil.

In most cases, the lysimeters of choice at land treatment units will be pressure-vacuum ceramic or teflon lysimeters. Both the ceramic and teflon models have certain limitations, which are currently being evaluated in an EPA research project. Most pressure-vacuum lysimeters are reasonably priced, commercially available, and easy to install. In addition, a constant vacuum apparatus is not required. They can be used in situ at depths well within the requirements of land treatment units and can produce a large sample volume. Body tubes of various lengths are available to compliment the volume and sample depth requirements.

Macropore flow may be of concern depending upon the soil structure. In this case, pan lysimeters samplers are able to most efficiently sample a pulsed element input (i.e., large rainfall event) to saturated flow; whereas, the suction sampler samples saturated flow less efficiently and non-saturated flow more efficiently. These results agree with other studies which have shown that pan lysimeters can only sample and thus monitor the movement of gravitational water when precipitation is equal to or greater than field capacity requirements or when there is a large water input into the soil (Parizek and Lane, 1970; Tadros and McGarity, 1976; Fenn et al., 1977). However, in the unsaturated zone of soils, most water movement is in the wet moisture range (0 to -50 kPa soil moisture tensions, Reeve and Doering, 1965), and in well structured soils through macropores (Shaffer et al., 1979), which accounts for the vast majority of the water and chemical constituents that can be lost from the soil by leaching. Thus, a free drainage sampler could have the following advantages over the porous suction cup design:

1) It is a continuously sampling "collection" system without the need for continuous vacuum, thus reducing its cost of operation.

2) Because vacuum is not needed to extract a soil solution sample from the soil, there is less potential for losing volatile compounds in the sample obtained.

3) Its large surface area may enhance sample representativeness, particularly in well structured soils.

4) The method of installation allows monitoring the natural percolation of liquids through the unsaturated zone without alteration of flow.

5) If made of chemically inert materials (i.e., glass), it has less potential for altering the chemical composition of a sample obtained by it.

4.3.1 Preparation of the Samplers

A decision must be made on the size of pressure-vacuum lysimeters to be installed at the site, and the composition of the pressure-vacuum tubing. According to data by Silkworth and Grigal (1981), the larger commercially available units with a 4.8 cm diameter are more reliable than the 2.2 cm diameter units, influence water quality less, and yield a larger volume of sample for analysis. Although various materials have been used for conducting tubing (e.g., polypropylene and copper tubing), it is advisable to select teflon tubing to minimize contamination and interference with the sample.

In order to avoid interferences from chemical substances attached to porous sampling points, it is recommended advisable to prepare each unit using the following procedure described by Wood (1973). Clean the cups by letting approximately 1 liter of 8N Hcl seep through them, and rinse thoroughly by allowing 15 to 20 liters of distilled water to seep through. The cups are adequately rinsed when there is less than a 2 percent difference between the specific conductance of the distilled water input and the output from the cup.

4.4 RANDOM PORE-LIQUID MONITORING SITE SELECTION

The RCRA Guidance Document: Land Treatment Units (EPA, 1983b) includes recommendations on the numbers and locations of pore-liquid samplers for both background and active portions, as well as the specifications for sampling frequency. These specifications are summarized on Table 4-1.

The RCRA guidance document suggests that the pore-liquid monitoring sites be randomly selected. In practice, each site is selected separately, randomly, and independently of any sites previously drawn. For pore-liquid monitoring, each site to be included in the "sample" is a volume of liquid (soil-pore liquid).

The field location for soil-pore liquid devices is obtained by selecting random distances on a coordinate system and using the intersection of the two random distances on a coordinate system as the location at which a soil-pore liquid monitoring device should be installed.

The location, within a given uniform area of a land treatment unit (i.e., active portion monitoring), at which a soil-pore liquid monitoring device should be installed is determined using the following procedure (EPA, 1983b):

(1) Divide the land treatment unit into uniform areas (see Figure 3-12). A qualified soil scientist should be consulted in completing this step.

(2) Map each uniform area by establishing two base lines at right angles to each other which intersect at an arbitrarily selected origin, for example, the southwest corner. Each baseline should extend to the boundary of the uniform area.

(3) Establish a scale interval along each base line. The units of this scale may be feet, yards, miles, or other units depending on the size of the uniform area. Both base lines must have the same scale.

TABLE 4-1. SUMMARY OF GUIDANCE ON PORE-LIQUID SAMPLING

Location	Number of Units	Location of Sampling Portion of Unit	Frequency
Background	2 each on similar soils found on treatment area	With 12 inch depth below treatment zone	Quarterly or whenever liquid is present
Active	a. Uniform area less than 12 acres: 6 units b. Uniform area greater than 12 acres: 2 per 4 acres	With 12 inch depth below treatment zone	Quarterly or within 24 hours of significant waste application

(4) Draw two random numbers from a random numbers table (usually available in any basic statistics book, see Appendix A). Use these numbers to locate one point along each of the base lines.

(5) Locate the intersection of two lines drawn perpendicular to these two base line points. This intersection represents one randomly selected location for installation of one soil-pore liquid device. If this location at the intersection is outside the uniform area or is within 10 m of another location, disregard and repeat the above procedure.

(6) For soil-pore liquid monitoring, repeat the above procedure as many times as necessary to obtain six locations for installation of a soil-pore liquid monitoring device (location) per uniform area, but no less than two devices per 1.5 hectares (4 acres). Monitoring at these same randomly selected locations will continue throughout the land treatment unit life (i.e., devices do not have to be relocated at every sampling event).

(7) If the device must be replaced for some reason, go through the procedure again to get a new location.

One point should be made regarding randomly locating soil-pore liquid monitoring devices in the active portion according to the procedure specified above. In order to prevent operational inconvenience and sampling bias, the monitoring system should be designed and installed so that the above-ground portion of the device is located at least 10 meters (30 feet) from the sampling location. If the above-ground portion of the device is located immediately above the sampling device, the sampling location will often be avoided because of operational difficulties. Thus, samples collected at this location will be biased and not representative of the treated area. The distance may be shorter than 10 m (30 ft) if the operator can ensure no sampling bias (i.e., hazardous waste treatment practices above the sampler will be the same as the rest of the uniform area) due to operational practices.

Locations for monitoring on background areas should be randomly determined using the following procedure:

(1) Consult a qualified soil scientist in determining an acceptable background area. The background area must have characteristics (i.e., at least soil series classification) similar to those present in the uniform area of the land treatment unit it is representing.

(2) Map an arbitrarily selected portion of the background area (preferably the same size as the uniform area) by establishing two base lines at right angles to each other which intersect at an arbitrarily selected origin.

(3) Complete steps 3, 4, and 5 as defined above.

(4) For soil-pore liquid monitoring, repeat this procedure as necessary to obtain two locations for soil-pore liquid monitoring devices within each background area.

4.4.1 Surveying in the Locations of Sites and Site Designations

The exact location of each sampler on the active and background areas should be designated on a detailed map of the treatment area. Subsequently, a surveying crew should be sent into the field to precisely locate the coordinates of the sites in reference to a permanent marker. This step is important to facilitate future recovery of any failed samplers.

For convenience, each sampler location should be given a descriptive designation to facilitate all future activities at the site. For example, this designation should be posted at the sampling station (which will be off the active portion) and should be marked on all collection flasks to facilitate differentiating between samples. Examples of site designations are shown in Figure 4-11. The selection of a designation is purely arbitrary and any convenient or easily recalled symbol could be used.

4.5 SAMPLE NUMBER, SIZE, FREQUENCY AND DEPTHS

Background concentrations of hazardous constituents can be established using the following procedures.

(1) For each soil series present (see Figure 3-12) in the treatment zone, install two soil-pore liquid monitoring devices at randomly selected locations in similar soils (Figure 4-12) where waste has not been applied. The sample collecting portions of the monitoring devices should be placed at a depth no greater than 30 centimeters (12 inches) below the actual treatment zone used at the unit (Figure 4-13).

(2) Collect a sample from each of the soil-pore liquid monitoring devices on at least a quarterly basis for at least one year. If liquid is not present at a regularly scheduled sampling event, a sample should be collected as soon as liquid is present.

(3) Composite the two quarterly samples (from different devices) to form one composite sample for analysis each quarter; a total of four composite samples will be formed over the one year period.

The active portion of a land treatment unit can be sampled using the following procedures:

(1) The owner or operator should install six soil-pore liquid monitoring devices at randomly selected locations per uniform area, but no less than two devices per 1.5 hectares (4 acres). A uniform area is an area of the active portion of a land treatment unit which is composed of soils of the same soil series and to which similar wastes or waste mixtures are applied at similar application rates. The sample collecting portion of the monitoring device should be placed at a depth

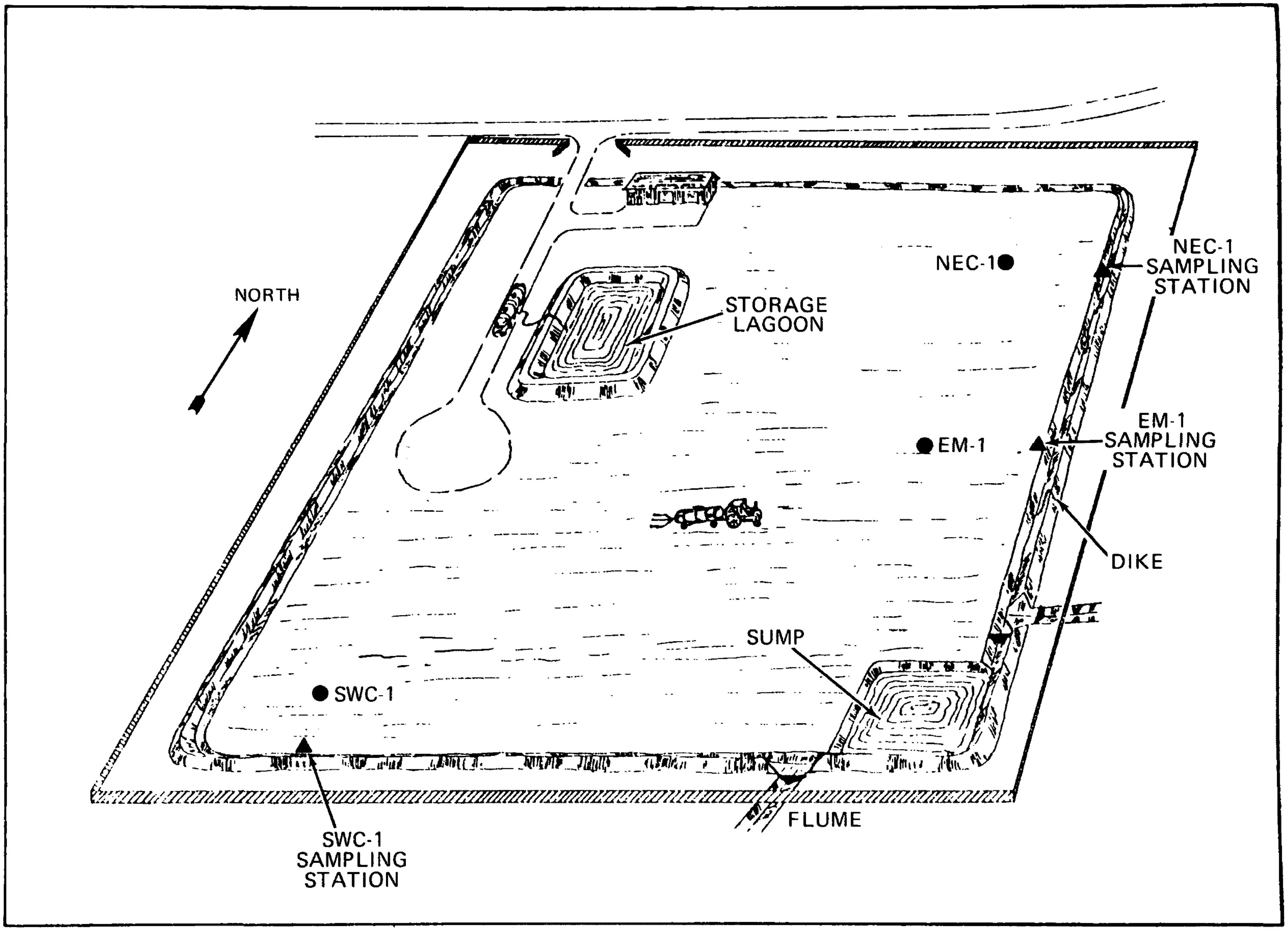

Figure 4-11. Sketch of land treatment site showing designations at pore-liquid sampling sites (SWC1 = southwest corner; NE1 = northeast corner; EM1 = east-middle of field)

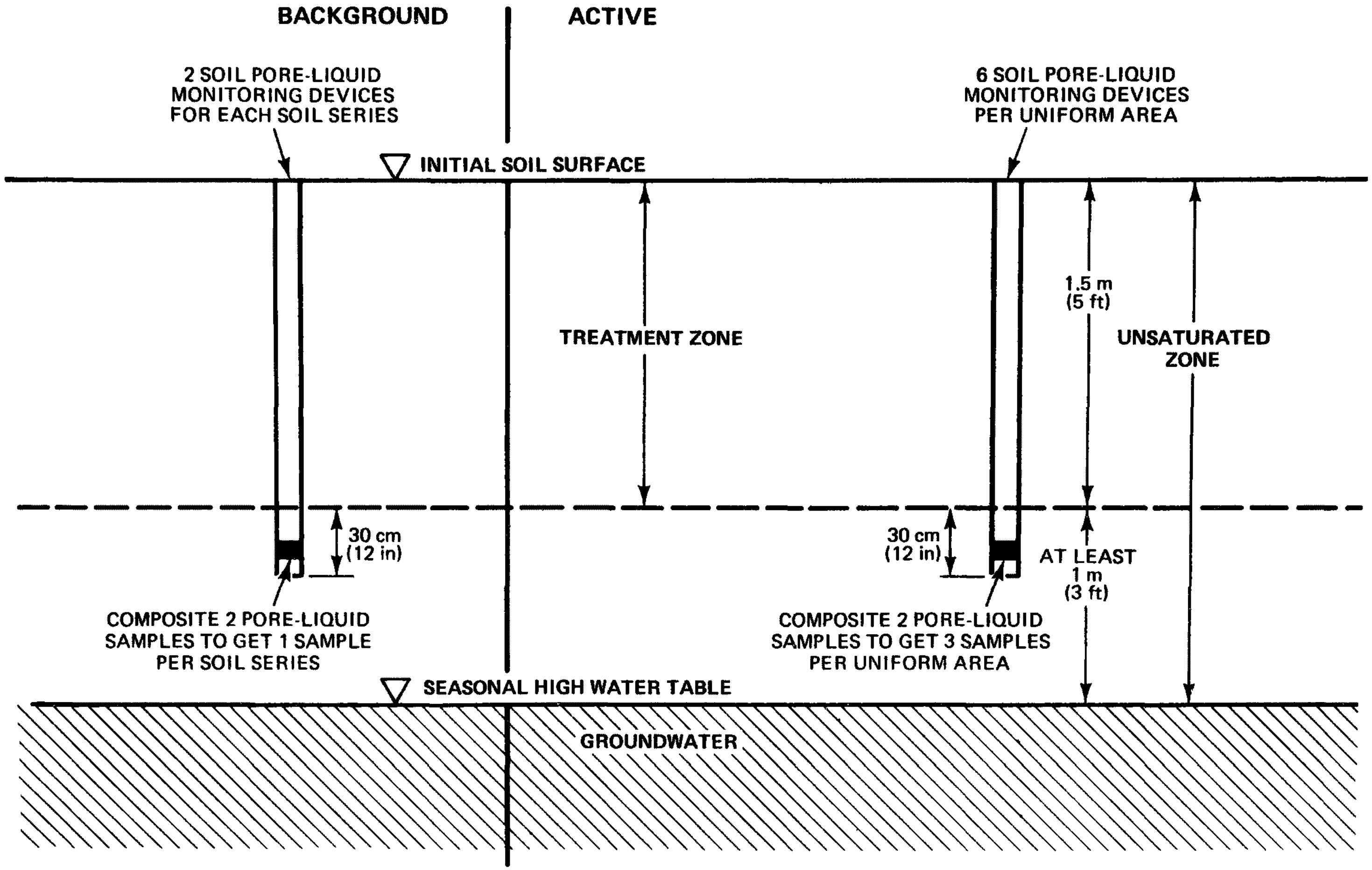

Figure 4-12. Pore liquid sampling depths

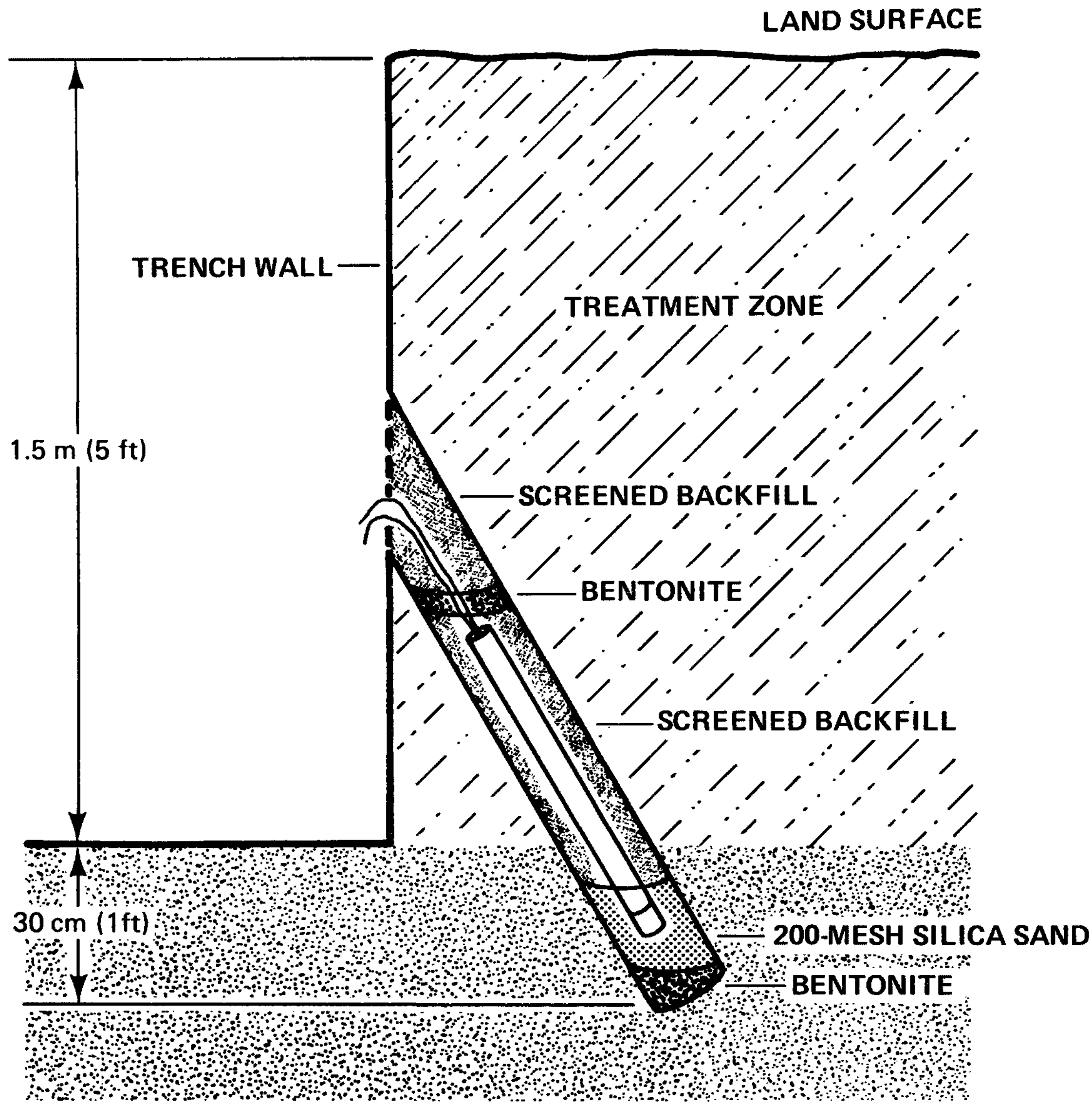

Figure 4-13. Location of suction lysimeters

no greater than 30 centimeters (12 inches) below the treatment zone (Figure 4-13).

(2) Samples from each of the soil-pore liquid monitoring devices should be collected and analyzed at least quarterly unless the wastes are applied very infrequently. If liquid is not present at a regularly scheduled sampling event, the monitoring device should be evacuated prior to and checked within 24 hours following each significant waste application or rainfall event, and a sample drawn when sufficient liquid is present.

(3) Composite the soil pore-liquid samples from each uniform area in pairs to form a minimum of three samples for analysis. However, if a uniform area is greater than 5 hectares, a minimum of one composite sample per 1.5 hectares should be formed.

4.6 INSTALLATION PROCEDURES FOR VACUUM-PRESSURE PORE-LIQUID SAMPLERS

4.6.1 Constructing Trenches and Instrument Shelters

On background areas, samplers may be installed in a borehole excavated by one of the augering methods described in Section 3. Similarly, at such sites, the accessories, such as vacuum-pressure and discharge lines, could be located directly above or adjoining the access hole. Such a simple installation may not be possible for the active portion of the land treatment units because of operational problems and sampling bias. In order to avoid damage to the sampler and access tubes in the active portion, it will be necessary to construct a trench from each unit to bring the lines to a convenient access point out of the active portion. This trench should be constructed to a depth below the operating depths of soil tilling equipment, subsurface injection equipment, or other manipulative equipment.

The sampling unit should be installed on an angle whenever possible in about 30 cm (1 ft) or more of undisturbed soil to the side of the shaft, such as illustrated in Figure 4-14. Using one of the previously described hand augers, a hole should be made at an angle of 30 to 45° from horizontal into the side of the trench. Installed in this manner, an undisturbed soil column will be retained above the sampler. In addition, this angular placement will improve the sampler's ability to collect non-Darcian, macropore flow. Given that the maximum depth at which to locate the sampling point of pore-liquid samplers should be 30 cm (1 ft) below the treatment zone (EPA, 1983b), the maximum total depth of each sampling point (i.e., suction-cup) should be about 1.67 m (5.5 ft) below the land surface.

Construction of a 1.5 m (5 ft) deep trench, which may be up to 10 m (30 ft) in length will require the use of trenching equipment. Available trenching devices in shallow trenches include backhoes and travelling bucket trenches such as the "ditch witch." The exact grade on the bottom of the trench is not critical, but it may be helpful to survey in the total cut required at certain distances along the trench.

Because members of the field crew will be required to stand in the trench for installing the samplers, it is advisable to provide a convenient open working space, such as 1.82 m (6 ft) by 1.82 m (6 ft), at the sampling point. Consequently, a backhoe should be used to construct a shaft with approximate

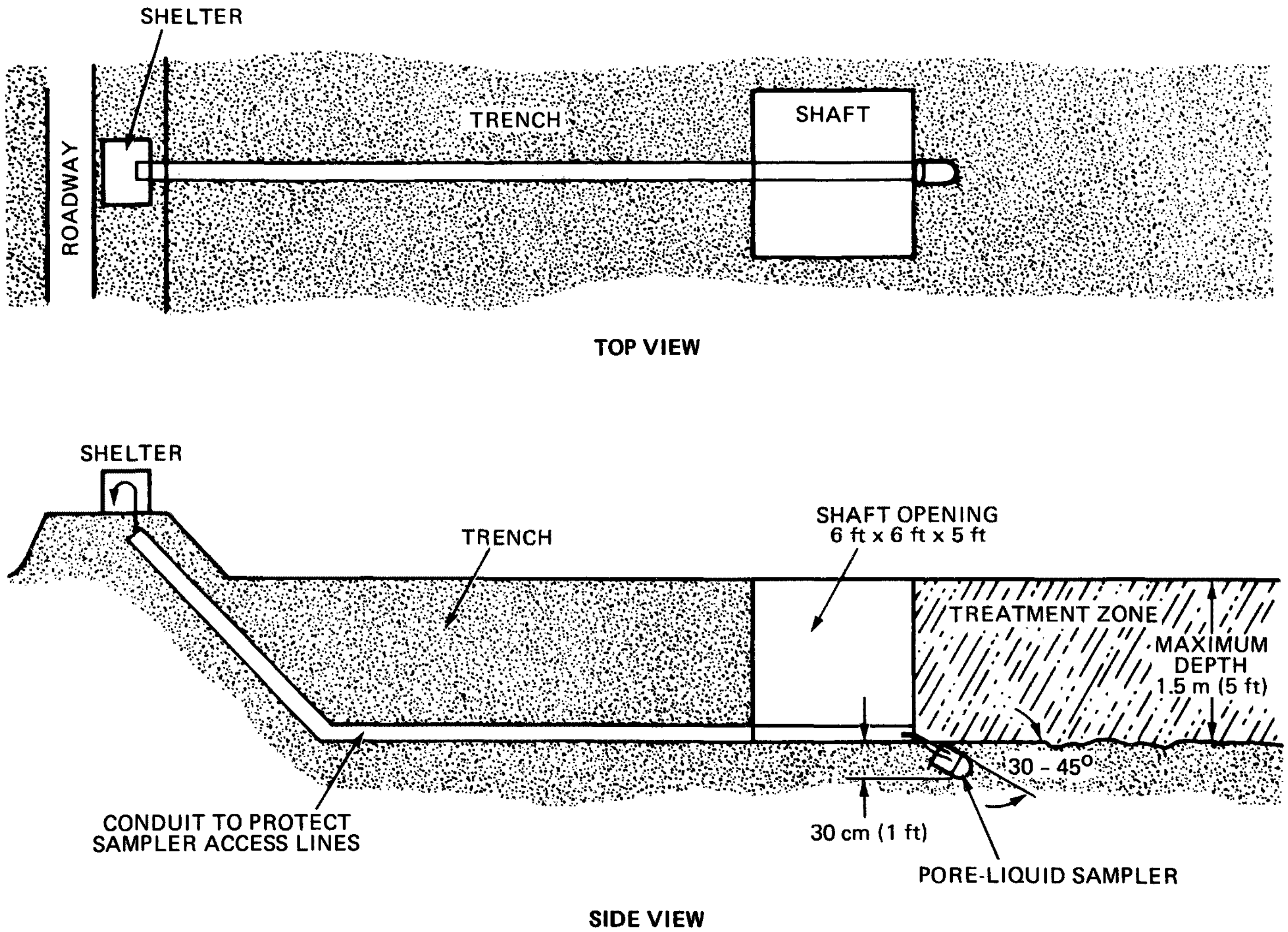

Figure 4-14. Views of trench and access shafts at pore-liquid sampler sites on active land treatment site

dimensions of 1.81 m (6 ft) by 1.81 m (6 ft) by about 1.5 m (5 ft) at each sampling location. Such a shaft will also provide safety of minimizing the possibility of the walls caving in on personnel bent over in the hole. The shaft will be backfilled when installation is complete.

It is highly advisable to locate the terminal components of the sampling units in some type of shelter for protection against poor weather and vandalism. A simple shelter with the sampler leads exposed may be satisfactory. A portable pressure/vacuum hand pump (see Figure 4-4) could be used to pull the sample. Two types of more costly engineered shelters are shown in Figures 4-15 and 4-16. The above-ground shelter consists of a metal plate housing with a metal door secured by a lock. The housing is of large enough dimensions to permit storing sample bottles for as many units as will be terminated in the shelter, plus a space for vacuum and pressure bottles if such bottles are used in lieu of hand pumps.

The below-ground type of housing consists of a metal box buried in the access road, with the lid just below land surface. A hinged metal lid is attached with a locking device. The rationale of this construction is that the unit is out of sight, particularly if the lid is covered with earth. This technique is particularly advantageous where vandalism is a problem. Again, the internal dimensions should be large enough for sample bottles and vacuum/pressure tanks.

The following three stages of installing a vacuum-pressure pore liquid sampler are discussed below: 1) installing vacuum-pressure and discharge lines, 2) installing the sampler into the ground, and 3) backfilling the trench.

4.6.2 Installing Access Lines

The approximate length of the two lines in each sampler should be determined by measuring the distance between the installation point and the above-ground access point (e.g., shelter). The lines should be cut to this length plus an allowance for the distance that the tubes will extend into the sampler. Some excess should be retained at the above-ground access point. It is possible to lay the tubing directly into the trench, however, the tubes may crimp in dry soils. The tubes should be installed into a PVC or metal manifold consisting of small diameter conduit. Although the conduit does provide some structural protection from compression, the main function of the conduit is to discourage rodents, etc., from physically damaging the leads. A convenient method for leading the tubes through the conduit is to first run a cord through the tube, attach the cord to the two lines, and then pull the lines through the conduit. One method for installing the cord is to attach one end to a rubber cork at slightly smaller diameter than the inside diameter of the conduit, then blowing the cork and cord through the conduit using compressed air.

The procedure for installing access tubes (Soilmoisture Equipment Corp., 1983) into the sampler, before placing the unit in a borehole, is as follows:

When installing the tubes, one tube should be pushed through the neoprene plug (see Figure 4-17) so that the end of the tubing reaches almost down to the bottom of the porous ceramic cup. This "discharge" access tube should be marked at the other end in some fashion to identify it. The other

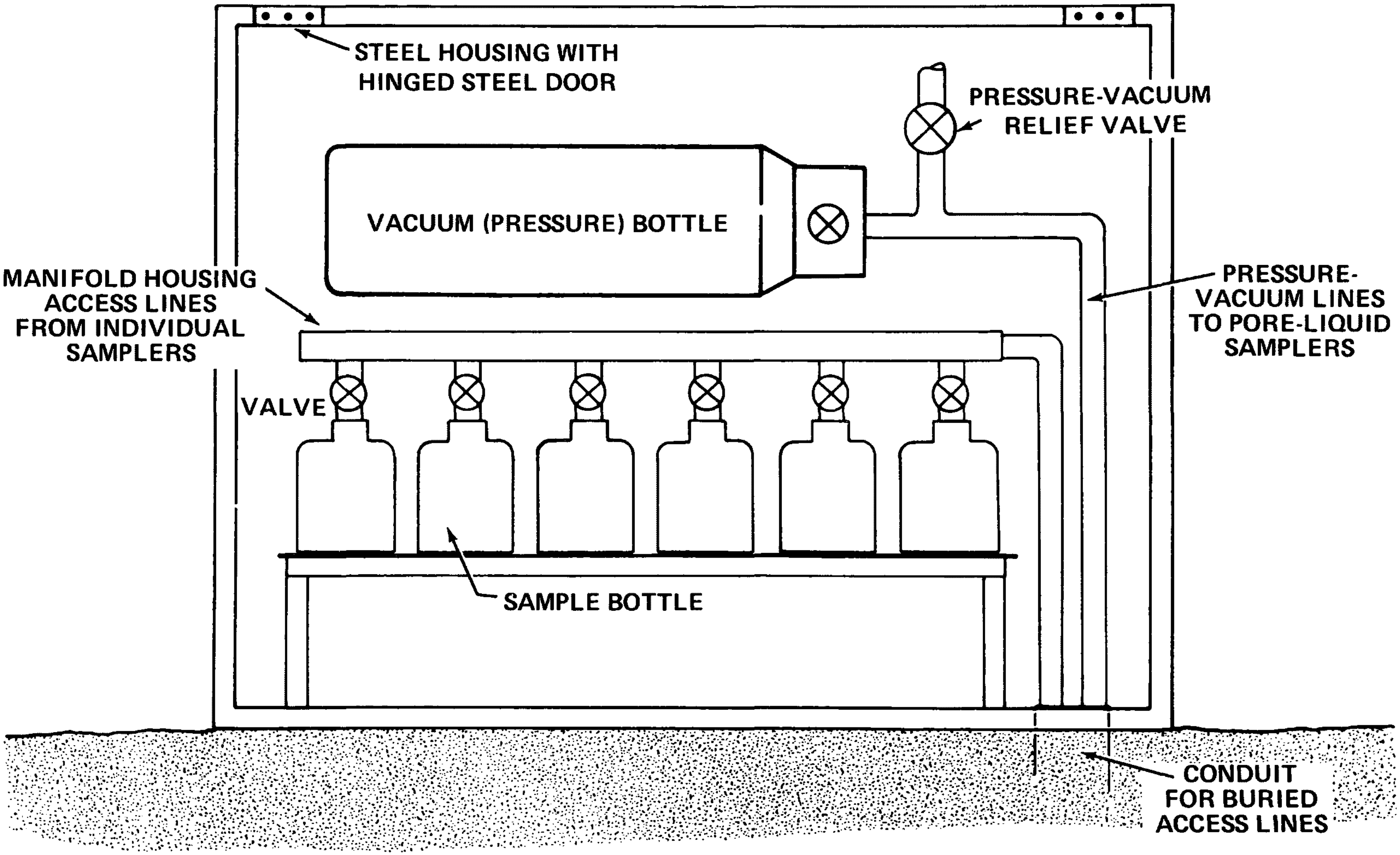

Figure 4-15. Above ground shelter for sample bottles and accessories (side view)

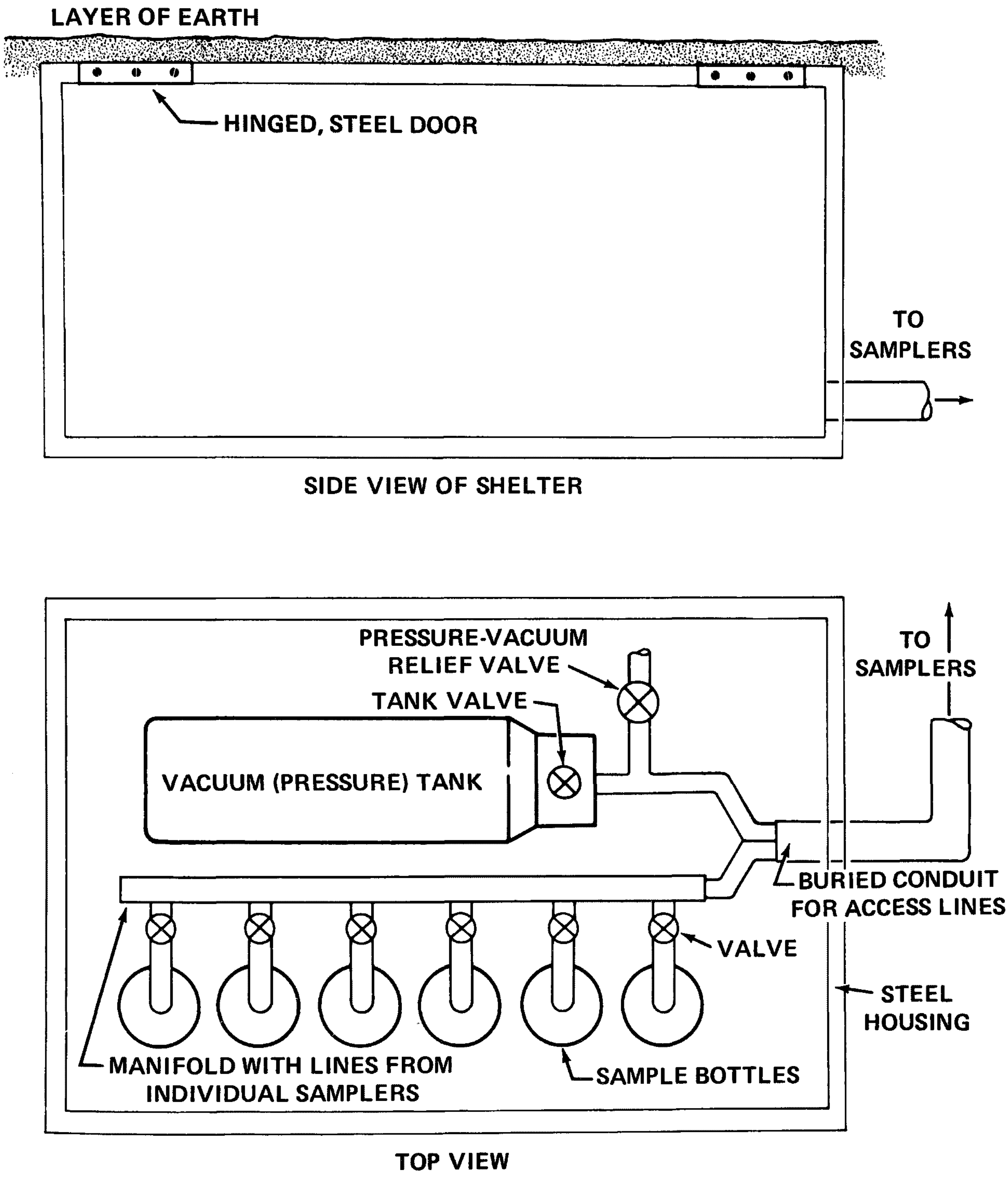

Figure 4-16. Burial shelter for sample bottle and accessories

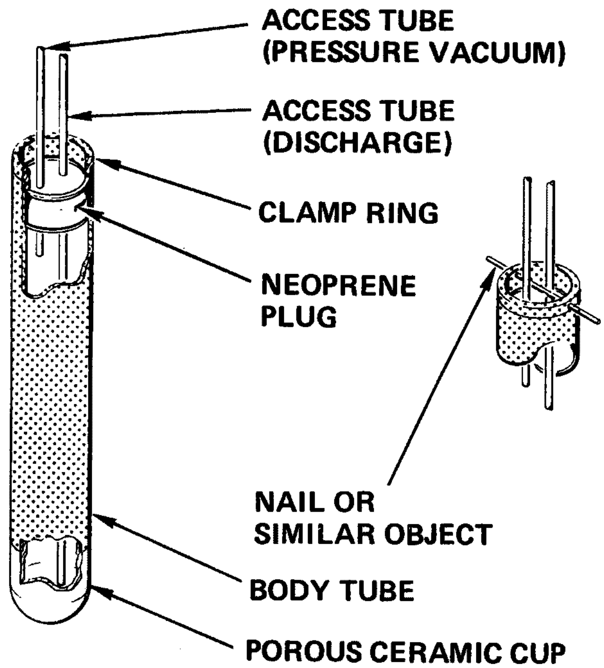

Figure 4-17. Installation of access tubes in a pressure-vacuum pore-liquid sampler (Soilmoisture Equipment Corp., no date)

"pressure-vacuum" access tube should be inserted into the neoprene plug so that it extends through the plug perhaps one inch.

After the tubes are installed (see Figure 4-17b), tighten the ring clamp with a nail or similar object inserted through the holes provided in the clamps ring. Tighten only until it meets the body tube.

4.6.3 Step-by-Step Procedures for Installing Vacuum-Pressure, Pore Liquid Samplers

The procedures included in this section are adapted from the operating procedure for a commercially available vacuum-pressure type sampler. (These procedures are generally applicable to similar types of commercially available units and the ensuing discussion does not constitute an endorsement of this particular sampler.) The procedures are grouped into (a) procedures for preparing the hole, and (b) alternative methods for installing the samplers.

4.6.3.1 Constructing the Hole--

In rock-free uniform soils at shallow depths, use a 5.08 cm (2 in) screw or bucket auger for coring the hole (see Figure 4-14) in the side of the trench. If the soil is rocky, a 10.2 cm (4 in) auger should be used. It should be kept in mind that the depth of hole required for installing units on background areas will be 1.67 m (5.5 ft). However, on the treatment areas the holes will only be about one to three feet deep because of the hole angle and the preliminary excavation.

The soil used to backfill around the bottom of the sampler should then be sifted enough a ¼" mesh screen to remove pebbles and rocks. This will provide a reasonably uniform backfill soil for filling in around the soil water sampler.

4.6.3.2 Sampler Installation Procedure--

The goals of a careful installation procedure are: (1) to ensure good contact between the suction cup portion of the sampler and the surrounding soil, and (2) to minimize side leakage of liquid along the sampler wall. Although numerous installation procedures have been used in the past, the bentonite clay method is recommended as the best choice for achieving both of these goals. This method includes a silica sand layer that ensures good contact with the suction cup and a clay plug that prevents leakage down the core hole and along the sampler wall.

Prior to installation, the lysimeters should be checked for leaks and flushed with distilled water. To check for leaks, the lysimeters are totally immersed in a tank of water. It is preferable to use a glass aquarium so that the location of the leaks (bubbles) can be easily identified. One of the tubes going into the suction lysimeter is clamped shut. A pressure line is attached to the second tube. Slowly increase the pressure within the suction lysimeter to 15 psi. On teflon lysimeters, it is important to check for leaks at all screw fittings. In addition, the teflon cups may bubble at pressures greater than 2 psi. Ceramic units, on the other hand, should not bubble from any location until at least 15 psi. All leaks on teflon lysimeters should be corrected using teflon tape. All leaks on ceramic units should be corrected by increasing the pressure at each of the fittings by screwing the pressure couplings down. At this point it is also assumed that the cups have been prepared and the teflon access tubes have been installed in the sampler. The cups should be installed while they are wet.

4.6.3.3 Bentonite Clay Method--

The following is a step-by-step description of the bentonite clay installation method:

(1) Core hole to desired depth.

(2) Pore in 7.6 cm to 12.7 cm (3 in to 5 in) of wet bentonite clay to isolate the sampler from the soil below (see Figure 4-18).

(3) Pour in a small quantity of 200 mesh silica-sand slurry and insert soil water sampler. (Slurry contains 1 lb of silica per 150 ml of water).

(4) Pour another layer of 200 mesh silica-sand at least six inches deep around the cup of the soil water sampler.

(5) Backfill with native soil to a level just above the soil water sampler and again add 7.6 cm to 12.7 cm (3 in to 5 in) of bentonite as a plug, to further isolate the soil water sampler and guard against possible channeling of water down the hole.

(6) Backfill the remainder of the hole slowly, tamping continuously with a long metal rod. Again backfill should be of native soil free of pebbles and rocks.

4.6.3.4 Backfilling the Trench and Final Survey--

Upon installation of the sampler in the hole, as described above, and the access tubes in the trench, it is time to backfill both the trench and the shaft which were constructed around the sampling point. First, however, it is advisable to survey in the exact location of the sampler to facilitate recovery of the unit at some future time. Surveying in the units in background areas is also recommended. An initial vacuum should be applied to each unit before backfilling to check for leaks and to remove water applied to the slurry. Backfilling should be conducted in stages, using a mechanical tamper to ensure good packing of each layer. Special care is required when packing soil into the large hole excavated at the sampler location. It is preferable to backfill the trench and access shaft on the same day that the excavation is made. Delays of 1-2 days can result in a lost of soil moisture in the excavated material and, consequently, problems may occur with packing the soils, i.e., heavy clays. Although in time the trenches and shafts will return to a natural bulk density, it is preferable to tamp the backfilled material to at least the original bulk density or preferably higher. If the bulk density is not maintained, the trenches and shaft may begin to fill with water. In cases where the bulk density is difficult to maintain, a 25 percent mixture of bentonite and soil should be used in the trenches and shaft. This mixture will preclude any buildup of pooled water in the shaft and trenches.

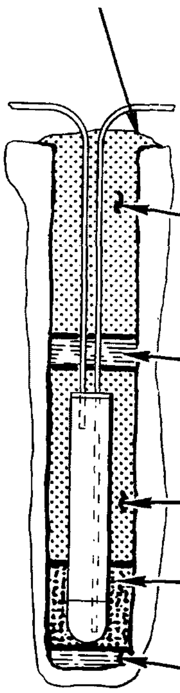

Figure 4-18. Bentonite clay method of installing vacuum-pressure pore-liquid samplers (Soilmoisture Equipment Corp., no date)

4.7 OPERATION OF VACUUM-PRESSURE SAMPLING UNITS

Ideally, persons trained in the operation of pore-liquid samplers should be selected for the sampling program. Individuals with a background in soil science are desirable but not required. It is advisable to select a permanent team of two individuals for the sampling program, with one individual being responsible for the operation and the second individual being a helper. A permanent team ensures uniformity in sample collection and chain of custody procedures.

Prior to obtaining a sample for analysis, good quality control procedures require that the samplers be evacuated 2-3 days ahead of the actual sampling time. By totally removing any fluid that could have accumulated in the suction lysimeter over time, the field technician is subsequently able to obtain a fresh sample from the unsaturated zone. The procedures required to initially evacuate the sampler are identical to the operational procedures identified below.

The stages in operating a vacuum-pressure sampler are as follows: (1) apply a vacuum to the interior of the sampler, via the vacuum-pressure line, (2) maintain the vacuum for a sufficient period of time to collect a sample in the sampler, (3) release the vacuum, and (4) apply a pressure to the vacuum-pressure line and blow the sample through the sample line into a collection flask. Details on each step are included in this discussion.

Two alternatives are available for applying the vacuum and pressure during each collection cycle. The simplest method is to use a vacuum-pressure hand pump, with a vacuum dial. This method is suitable for collecting samples from individual units, such as those on background areas. In cases in which the access lines from several units are brought together into a common shelter, it may be more convenient to use separate vacuum and pressure bottles connected to a common manifold with outlets to the individual access lines.

The procedure described in the following paragraphs was adopted from the operating instructions for a commercially available sampler. Use of this procedure does not constitute an endorsement of this sampler.

(1) Close the pinch clamp on the discharge access tube (see Figure 4-19). All pinch clamps should be tightened with pliers to eliminate the problem of not sealing. Finger-tight pinching of the clamps is not sufficient.

(2) Apply a vacuum to the pressure-vacuum line either by means of a hand pump or by attaching a vacuum bottle. The applied vacuum should be about 60 centibars (18 inches of mercury).

(3) When a steady vacuum is obtained, attach a pinch clamp to the vacuum-pressure line. Alternatively, when a vacuum bottle is used, it may be possible to omit using a pinch clamp in an effort to sustain the requisite vacuum.

(4) After a period of time that is deemed sufficient to collect a sample (a minimum of 24 hours in some cases), attach sample bottles to the discharge line from each unit.

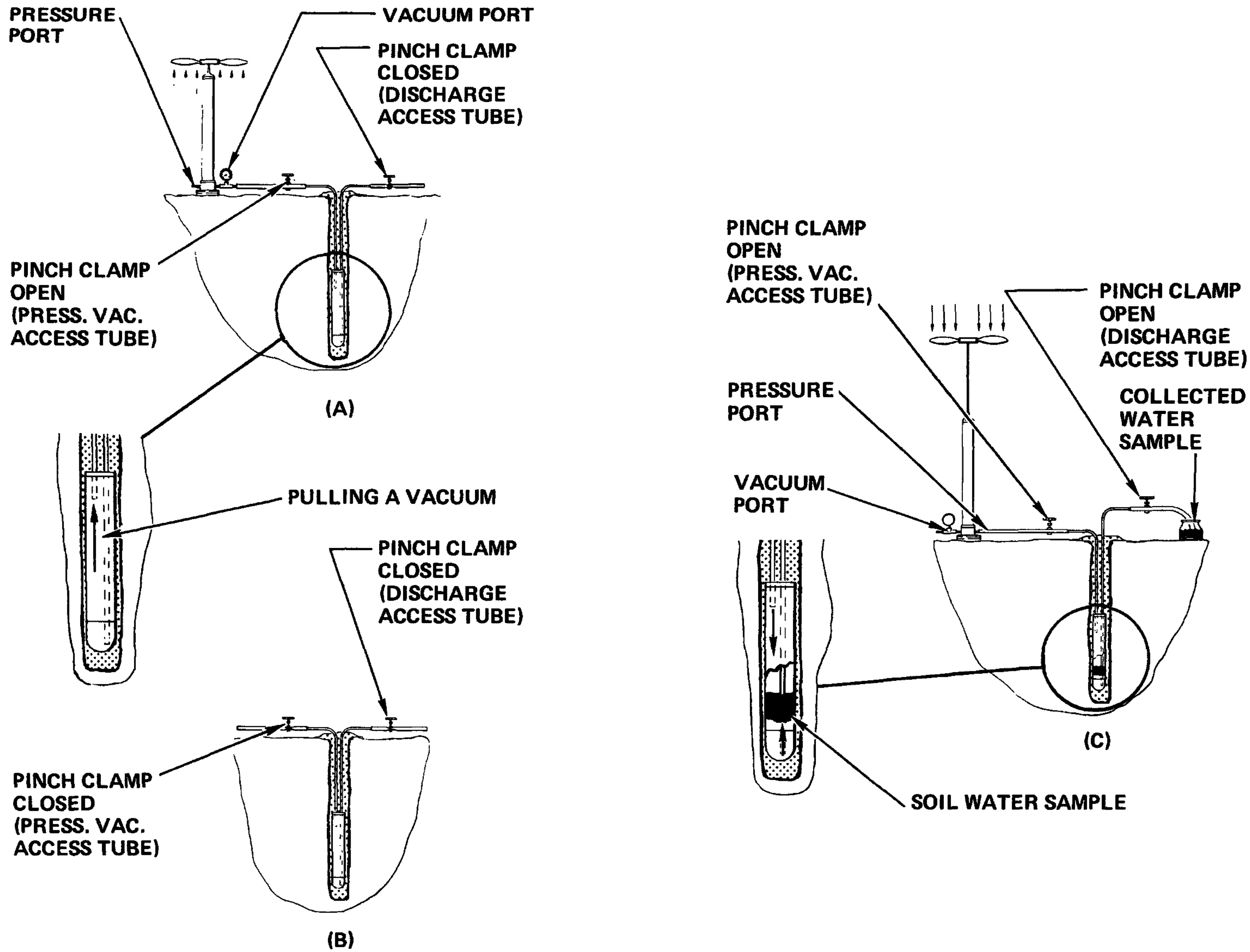

Figure 4-19. Stages in the collection of a pore-liquid sample using a vacuum-pressure sampler (Soilmoisture Equipment Corp., no date)

(5) Release the vacuum by opening the pinch clamp or removing the vacuum bottle.

(6) Apply 1 to 2 atmosphere of air pressure to the pressure-vacuum lines, either by using a hand pump or by installing a container of compressed air, and blow the liquid sample from the sampler into the collection flasks (see Figure 4-19).

(7) Remove and seal the flasks

The volume of sample required is dependent upon the number and kind of analysis to be performed. It may be found during a sampling cycle that the volume of sample obtained from a particular unit or units is not great enough to permit analysis. Alternatively, no sample at all may be obtained. For these cases it will be necessary to repeat each step using a greater vacuum and longer sampling interval.

4.8 SPECIAL PROBLEMS AND SAFETY PRECAUTIONS

The successful operation of pore-liquid samplers may be restricted by any or all of the following factors: (1) hydraulic factors, (2) soil physical properties, (3) cup-wastewater interactions, and (4) climatic factors.

4.8.1 Hydraulic Factors

The most severe constraint on the operation of pore-liquid samplers involves the soil around the porous segment of a sampler becoming so dry that air bubbles enter the cup and further movement of soil water into the unit is restricted.

If the soil is not excessively dry, a usable sample may still be obtained if suction is applied to the cup for a sufficiently long period of time. Nevertheless, because the yield of suction samplers is greatly reduced under very dry conditions, there may be situations in which the time required to obtain a sufficiently large sample exceeds the maximum holding time for analysis. Similarly, there may be cases where the soil is so dry that the units simply will not yield a sample. This may be particularly true in arid regions where rainfall is not great enough to wet up the soil profile. Note that sampling should be timed to occur immediately after a rainfall or significant waste application events which may alleviate this problem in certain cases.

4.8.2 Physical Properties: Soil Texture and Soil Structure

Soil texture refers to the relative proportion of the various soil preparates (particles 2 mm) in a soil (EPA, 1983b). Examples of soil texture classes include silt loam, silty clay, and sand. The successful operation of suction samplers requires a continuity between pore sequences in the porous segment of the sampler and those in the surrounding soils. When soils are very coarse-textured, a good contact between the porous segment of a sampler and the fine pore sequences may be difficult to maintain and the flow continuum may be destroyed. Unlike the problem of sampling in very dry soils, the problem of poor soil contact is mainly an operational problem which can be circumvented by using the recommended method of cup installation (see Figure 4-18). In this method, the porous segment of the sampler is placed in close contact with the silica sand, which in turn contacts a larger area of the surrounding soil. This method helps to maintain a continuity in the flow paths that soil water follows in moving from the soil through the silica sand and porous segment into the interior of the sampler.

Soil structure refers to the aggregation of the textural units into blocks. A well-structured soil has two distinct flow regions for liquids applied at the land surface: (1) through the cracks between blocks, i.e., interpedal flow, and (2) through the finer pore sequences inside the blocks, i.e., interpedal flow. Liquids move more rapidly through the cracks than through the fine pores. Because of the rapid flushing of pollutants through larger interconnected soil openings, the movement of liquid-borne pollutants into the finer pores of the soil blocks may be limited. Inasmuch as suction-cup samplers collect water from these finer pore sequences, the resultant samples will not be representative of the bulk flow.

A primary goal of soil-pore liquid sampling is to detect the presence of fast moving hazardous constituents. This goal may not be realized if samplers are placed in highly structured soils leading to a flow system such as that described in the last paragraph. The structure of a soil profile is best examined by constructing trenches near the proposed monitoring sites to a depth corresponding to the maximum depth at which the sampling segments will be installed. The extent of large interpedal cracks should be documented at each profile. If such cracks appear to be widespread, alternative sites or monitoring techniques (e.g., pan lysimeters) should be examined. However, it should be borne in mind that even large cracks frequently diminish in width in deeper reaches of the profile. If it is found that structural cracks "pinch out" at the monitoring depth, suction samplers could be installed. As mentioned previously, the extent of macropore flow should be examined in the treatment demonstration to determine the appropriate monitoring approach (i.e., suction or pan lysimetry) and to evaluate the acceptability of the site for land treatment.

4.8.3 Cup-Wastewater Interactions

For simplicity, the interactions between pore-liquid samplers and wastewater can be grouped into (1) those affecting the operation of the porous segment, principally by plugging, and (2) those that change the composition of pollutants moving through the porous segment.

4.8.3.1 Plugging--

A basic concern in the use of porous type samples to detect the movement of hazardous waste substances in soils is that the porous segment may become plugged either by particulate matter (e.g., fine silt and clay) moving with the liquid, or because of chemical interactions. The problem of clogging by particulate matter is not as severe as once thought. Apparently, soils have the capacity to filter out the fine material before reaching the porous segments. Several studies have been reported involving the use of suction-type samplers for monitoring pollutant movement at land treatment units. Generally, it appears that the sampling units operated favorably without clogging by particulate matter. An example of such studies include those by (1) Smith and McWhorter (1977), in which ceramic candles were used to sample pollutant movement in soil during the injection of liquid organic wastes; (2) Grier, Burton, Tiwari (1977) involving the use of depth-wise suction samplers on fields used for disposal of animal wastes; and (3) Smith et al. (1977), in which depth-wise suction samples were installed in fields irrigated with wastes from potato processing plants.

Chemical reactions at the surface of a suction sampler may clog the porous network. One type of chemical reaction is precipitation (e.g., of ferric compounds). However, considering the wide variety of chemical wastes which are disposed of at land treatment units, other effects are also possible, leading to the inactivation of suction samplers.

The operator of a land treatment facility may wish to determine the possibility of clogging from either particulates or chemical interactions before installing units in the field. For example, test plots could be employed (e.g., plots intended for the "treatment" demonstration). A cluster of suction samplers should be installed in the monitoring zone at each plot and waste applied at the proposed rate. The yield of each cup should be determined throughout the trial. Devices for measuring the suction of the soil water (e.g., tensiometers) should also be installed to ensure that the soil-water suction is within the operating range of the cups. This will demonstrate that cups fail to operate because of clogging and not because the soil is too dry.

Even though suction samplers may fail because of clogging, the problem may still be an operational difficulty that can be overcome. For example, installing silica sand around the cup may filter out particulate matter. Unless this filter becomes clogged, the samplers should continue to operate. However, this approach may not be sufficient to prevent clogging by chemical interactions.

4.8.3.2 Change in the Composition of Hazardous Constituents During Movement Through Pore-Liquid Samplers--

It is fairly-well established that the porous segments of suction samplers filter out bacteria but not virus. Similarly, a reduction may occur in the metal content of liquids moving into samplers because of interactions within the porous segment. This problem can be reduced by acid leaching the cups before they are installed in the field, as described in another section of this report.

Because a major concern at land treatment areas is the fate of hazardous organic constituents, the amount of organic-cup interactions should be estimated before field installing sampling units. Change in the composition of hazardous constituents during liquid moving through suction samplers can be demonstrated by laboratory studies. Basically, during such studies suction samplers are placed in liquids of known composition contained in beakers. Samples are drawn into the cups and extracted for analysis. The change in composition is then easily calculated. In preparing these tests it is essential that each cup be preconditioned in accordance with recommended practice, i.e., flushing with 8N HCl, followed by rinsing with distilled water.

4.8.4 Climatic Factors

A major factor limiting the operation of suction samplers in very cold climates is that the soil water may become frozen near the cups. This means that a sample cannot be obtained during freezing conditions. Another undocumented problem which conceivably could occur is freezing of samples within the cups and lines, so that the samples cannot be brought to the surface. Since the samplers are located at depths greater than 1.5 m (5 ft), it is unlikely that freezing would occur at this depth. Prior to winter setting in, the lines should be flushed. Inasmuch as land treatment is not recommended during winter months in very cold regions these problems may be academic.

Another effect of freezing temperatures is that some soils tend to heave during freezing and thawing. Consequently, suction samplers may be displaced in the soil profile, resulting in a break in contact. In addition, if the cups are full of liquid when frozen, the cups may be fractured as a result of expansion of the frozen liquid. The extent of these problems, however, has not been determined.

4.8.5 Safety Precautions

Worker safety is of paramount importance when installing systems of pore-liquid samplers in active land treatment sites, and during sample handling. In some cases all contact with the waste and liquid samples should be avoided, and toxic fumes should not be inhaled. Similarly, certain wastes are highly flammable and precautions should be taken to avoid creation of sparks. No smoking should be allowed. The degree of precaution that should be exercised, including the type of protective clothing, must be decided on a case-by-case basis. Further safety precautions are discussed in Section 3.

4.8.6 Lysimeter Failure Confirmation

In the event that a sample cannot be retrieved from an installed suction lysimeter under conditions where the operator knows that the soil suction levels should be high enough to obtain a sample, such as after a major rainfall event, specific procedures should be followed. Adjacent to a suction lysimeter that appears to have failed, a soil suction determination must be made to determine if the available soil moisture is high enough to obtain a sample. Soil suctions are determined using tensiometers. Tensiometers are commercially available and are produced with various designs and lengths.

A tensiometer consists of a tube with a porous ceramic tip on the bottom, a vacuum gauge near the top, and a ceiling cap. When it is filled with water and inserted into the soil, water can move into and out of the tensiometer through the connecting pores in the tip. As the soil dries and water moves out of the tensiometer, it creates a vacuum inside the tensiometer, which is indicated on the gauge. When the vacuum created equals the "soil suction," water stops flowing out of the tensiometer. The dial gauge reading is then a direct measure of the force required to move the water from the soil. If the soil dries further, additional water moves out until a higher vacuum level is reached. When moisture is added to the soil, the reverse process takes place. Moisture from the soil moves back into the tensiometer through the porous tip until the vacuum level is reduced to equal the lower soil suction value, then water movement stops. If enough water is added to the soil so that it is completely saturated, the gauge reading on the tensiometer will drop to zero. Because water can move back and forth through the pores in the porous ceramic tip, the gauge reading is always in balance with the soil suction.

The effective operational range for suction lysimeters is between saturation and 60 centibars of suction as determined by the tensiometer. Above 60 centibars of suction, a ceramic lysimeter will operate. However, the flow rates will be so low that effectively one cannot get a sample. If the tensiometer readings are between 0 and 60 centibars of suction, the suction lysimeter should obtain a sample. If no sample is obtained under these soil suction ranges, the suction lysimeter will be deemed to have failed and should be excavated or abandoned.

Tensiometers can be readily installed in the soil adjacent to the suspect suction lysimeter by using conventional soil sampling tools. The body tube and porous sensing tip of tensiometers are 7/8" (2.2 centimeters) in diameter. Installation must be made so that the porous ceramic sensing tip is in tight contact with the soil. Commercially available insertion tools can be used in rock-free soils. Standard 1/2" (U.S.) steel pipe can also be used to drive a hole into the soil to accept the tensiometer. In rocky soils a soil auger can be used to bore a larger hole and then the soil is sifted and packed around the porous ceramic tip to make good contact before the hole is backfilled. The surface soil is tightly tamped around the body tube to seal surface water from entering. The tensiometers should be installed at a depth of approximately 1.6 meters so that they will be reading soil suction conditions at the depth of the installed suction lysimeter. Tensiometers require 2-3 hours to come into balance with the ambient soil suction. As such, the tensiometers should be read 3 hours after their initial installation. Tensiometers can be left in place in the field over a couple of waste spreading periods to determine if the soil suction is high enough for the suction lysimeters to operate and to obtain a sample.

4.9 PAN LYSIMETER INSTALLATION AND OPERATION

As mentioned above, pan lysimeters are more effective in soils in which macropore flow dominates. The two pan lysimeters which appear to have the most application is the trench lysimeter and the free drainage glass block sampler. Parizek (Parizek and Lane, 1970) is responsible for the majority of the available information on trench lysimeters, while Barbee (1983) is the principle author of the research on glass block samplers. Other devices are being developed (i.e., drum lysimeters) which should be considered as part of a monitoring system.

4.9.1 Trench Lysimeters

Trench lysimeters are lysimeters made of galvanized, 16-gauge metal, with dimensions of 0.305 x 0.45 m (12x15 inches) that are installed in a trench. Parizek and Lane (1970) developed an installation technique for these devices (see Figure 4-20). Their approach includes installing the trench lysimeter in the sidewall of a trench shelter. Copper tubing is soldered to a raised end of the pan to allow soil water to drain into a sample container located inside the sampling pit. The trench shelter is covered with a sloping roof and a ladder is placed at one end of the house to allow access for sampling.

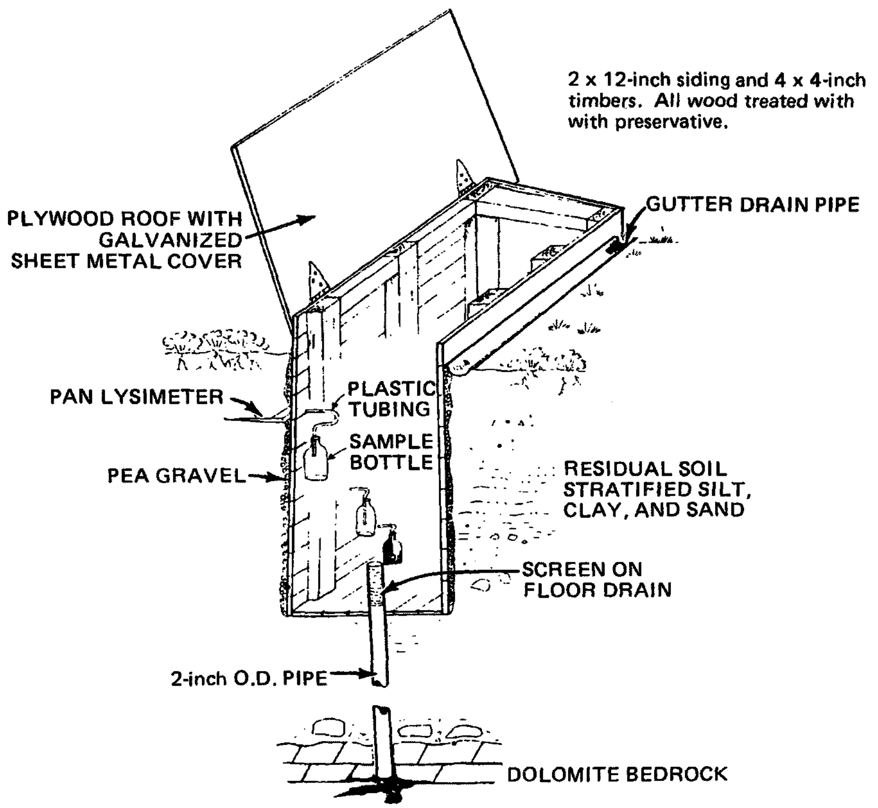

Figure 4-20. Trench lysimeters installed in trench shelter (Parizek and Lane, 1970)

The design by Parisek and Lane (1970), however, introduces a sampling bias problem. If the trench lysimeters are installed close to the side of the trench shelter, as represented in Figure 4-20, the collected sample will be biased. This bias results from the fact that the trench shelters, which project above the land surface, will cause waste application equipment to avoid the actual sampling area to prevent damage to the shelter. To alleviate this problem, a slightly modified installation approach is recommended below.

Figure 4-21 illustrates the recommended installation approach for pan lysimeters, including trench lysimeters and glass block samplers. At a randomly selected site, dig a 1.22 m (4 ft) wide, 3.66 m (12 ft) long trench, excavated to a depth of 2.44 m (8 ft). The trench sidewalls should be temporarily supported with timbers and siding to reduce the risk of cave-ins. The entire seepage face should be inclined 1 to 5 degrees from the vertical.

The trench lysimeter is installed into the sidewall of the trench at a level that is below the treatment zone ($\leq$ 1.5 m from the soil surface), but a significant distance above the trench floor (see Figure 4-21). A discharge line is installed from the trench lysimeter to a discharge point at the surface. The distance between the lysimeter and the discharge point should be at least 10 m (30 ft) to preclude any sampling bias above the lysimeter. When a sample is required, a vaccum is placed on the discharge line and a sample is retrieved.

After the sampling lines are installed, the lysimeter installation trench is backfilled according to the same procedures described below for glass block samplers.

4.9.2 Free Drainage Glass Block Samplers

One technique for measuring gravitational water in the unsaturated zone was developed by Barbee (1983). The hollow glass block free drainage sampler was developed as a technique for improving the capability for monitoring fluid movement in the unsaturated zone.

The free drainage sampler is made from a hollow glass block (obtained from the PPG Company, Houston, Texas 77020) 30 cm by 30 cm by 10 cm deep with a capacity of 5.5 liters (Figure 4-10). A rim, approximately 0.158 cm high around the edge of the upper and lower surfaces, enhances the collecting effectiveness of the blocks. To collect a sample, nine 0.47 cm diameter holes are drilled near the edge around the upper surface of the block. The block is then thoroughly washed with distilled water. A 0.47 cm OD nylon tube is then inserted into the block and coiled on the bottom so that all the accumulated liquid can be removed. A sheet of 0.158 cm thick fiberglass is cut to fit over the upper surface, including the holes, without overhanging the edge. This sheet enhances contact with the overlying soil and also prevents soil from contaminating the sample and plugging the holes.

The sampler is installed by digging a 2.44 m (8 ft) deep trench with a backhoe at a randomly selected site. A tunnel of about 45 cm is then excavated into the side of the trench below the treatment zone ($\leq$ 1.5 m from the soil surface), but a significant distance above the trench floor (see Figure 4-21). The tunnel is correctly sized by using a wood model slightly larger than the glass block. Extreme care is taken to keep the ceiling of the tunnel level and

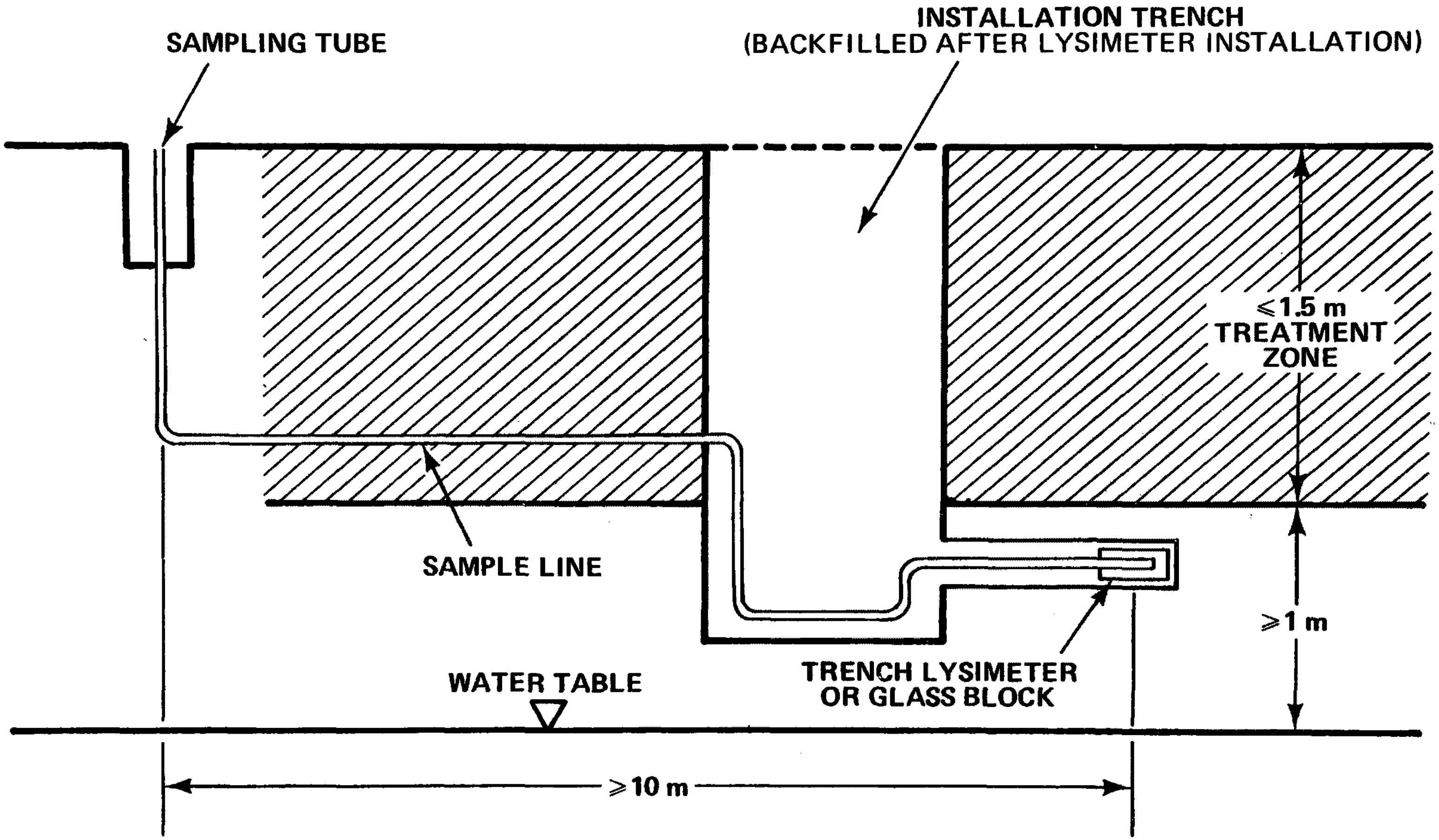

Figure 4-21. Pan lysimeter installation

smooth to ensure water will not run off the block and also to have a smooth surface against which the block can be pressed. Jordan (1968) noted that unless the edges of the free drainage sampler are in firm contact with the soil for the entire perimeter of the sampler, water will tend to run out through spaces between the sampler and soil, particularly if the ceiling of the tunnel has many irregularities. In clay soil it is necessary to use a small knife to lightly score the ceiling of the tunnel because of smearing and compaction of the surface during excavation. One glass block is then carefully placed in the tunnel and then pressed firmly against the ceiling, being held in place by soil packed tightly beneath and to the sides of it.

The sampling lines must be carefully installed to prevent sampling bias. The nylon sampling tube is run underground in a trench approximately 10 m to a sampling location (see Figure 4-21). The trench for the sampling tubes usually need only be approximately three feet (1 meter) deep to prevent damage from operating equipment. The nylon sampling tube is then run to the soil surface and a sample drawn by applying a vacuum.

After installation, the trenches for sampling line and lysimeter installation are backfilled. Prior to backfilling the lysimeter installation trench, aluminum foil, 46 cm wide, should be pressed against the side of the trench into which the lysimeter was installed. The aluminum foil prevents lateral movement of liquid from the backfilled soil into the undisturbed soil above the glass block lysimeter. Any temporary sidewall support structures may be removed prior to backfilling the trench. Careful attention should be paid to properly tamp the soil in the trench after backfilling.

4.10 PAN LYSIMETER LIMITATIONS

Pan lysimeters will only function when the soil moisture is greater than field capacity. This implies that their use must coincide with a continuously wetted soil with most of the flow occurring through macropores (i.e., cracks). This situation could exist at certain land treatment sites at which highly structured soils are present in the treatment zone. If macropore flow is predominant, however, the successful completion of the treatment demonstration may be difficult.

Pan lysimetry will, as noted previously, only sample gravitational water. The timing for sample collection will be within hours of a precipitation event. Because the pan lysimeter is a continuous sampler, the device should be emptied after each precipitation event in order to prevent sample loss. Because of the limited experience with pan lysimetry there is little knowledge of clogging potential or effective operating life. Macropore flow bypass of the treatment zone or suction lysimeter, if it occurs, should be identifiable during initial precipitation events in the treatment demonstration.

4.11 DATA ANALYSIS AND EVALUATION

Appendix B describes the chain of custody documentation and control to identify and trace a sample from sample collection to final analysis. Appendix C provides example summary sheets for the analytical and statistical results from unsaturated zone monitoring. Summary sheets, such as these, should be included in the operating record of the facility.

The statistical evaluation of the pore-liquid sample analysis follows the same procedures as defined in Section 3.8. Details of the methods are not discussed here because standard reference materials and computer packages can be used to conduct the analysis. Using equations 1-3 of Section 3.8, the mean, variance and confidence interval are determined. Using equations 4-5 of that section, the Student's t-test can be applied to determine if hazardous constituent levels below the treatment zone in the active portion are statistically increased over levels in the background area.

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APPENDIX A

Table of Random Units
(Standard Mathematical Tables, 1973)

RANDOM UNITS

Use of Table. If one wishes to select a random sample of N items from a universe of M items, the following procedure may be applied. ($M > N$.)

1. Decide upon some arbitrary scheme of selecting entries from the table. For example, one may decide to use the entries in the first line, second column; second line, third column; third line, fourth column; etc.

2. Assign numbers to each of the items in the universe from 1 to M. Thus, if M = 500, the items would be numbered from 001 to 500, and therefore, each designated item is associated with a three digit number.

3. Decide upon some arbitrary scheme of selecting positional digits from each entry chosen according to Step 1. Thus, if M = 500, one may decide to use the first, third, and fourth digit of each entry selected, and as a consequence a three digit number is created for each entry choice.

4. If the number formed is $\leq M$, the correspondingly designated item in the universe is chosen for the random sample of N items. If a number formed is $> M$ or is a repeated number of one already chosen, it is passed over and the next desirable number is taken. This process is continued until the random sample of N items is selected.

Table of Random Units

Line/Col.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)
1	10480	15011	01536	02011	81647	91646	69179	14194	62590	36207	20969	99570	91291	90700
2	22368	46573	25595	85393	30995	89198	27982	53402	93965	34095	52666	19174	39615	99505
3	24130	48360	22527	97265	76393	64809	15179	24830	49340	32081	30680	19655	63348	58629
4	42167	93093	06243	61680	07856	16376	39440	53537	71341	57004	00849	74917	97758	16379
5	37570	39975	81837	16656	06121	91782	60468	81305	49684	60672	14110	06927	01263	54613
6	77921	06907	11008	42751	27756	53498	18602	70659	90655	15053	21916	81825	44394	42880
7	99562	72905	56420	69994	98872	31016	71194	18738	44013	48840	63213	21069	10634	12952
8	96301	91977	05463	07972	18876	20922	94595	56869	69014	60045	18425	84903	42508	32307
9	89579	14342	63661	10281	17453	18103	57740	84378	25331	12566	58678	44947	05585	56941
10	85475	36857	43342	53988	53060	59533	38867	62300	08158	17983	16439	11458	18593	64952
11	28918	69578	88231	33276	70997	79936	56865	05859	90106	31595	01547	85590	91610	78188
12	63553	40961	48235	03427	49626	69445	18663	72695	52180	20847	12234	90511	33703	90322
13	09429	93969	52636	92737	88974	33488	36320	17617	30015	08272	84115	27156	30613	74952
14	10365	61129	87529	85689	48237	52267	67689	93394	01511	26358	85104	20285	29975	89868
15	07119	97336	71048	08178	77233	13916	47564	81056	97735	85977	29372	74461	28551	90707
16	51085	12765	51821	51259	77452	16308	60756	92144	49442	53900	70960	63990	75601	40719
17	02368	21382	52404	60268	89368	19885	55322	44819	01188	65255	64835	44919	05944	55157
18	01011	54092	33362	94904	31273	04146	18594	29852	71585	85030	51132	01915	92747	64951
19	52162	53916	46369	58586	23216	14513	83149	98736	23495	64350	94738	17752	35156	35749
20	07056	97628	33787	09998	42698	06691	76988	13602	51851	46104	88916	19509	25625	58104
21	48663	91245	85828	14346	09172	30168	90229	04734	59193	22178	30421	61666	99904	32812
22	54164	58492	22421	74103	47070	25306	76468	26384	58151	06646	21524	15227	96909	44592
23	32639	32363	05597	24200	13363	38005	94342	28728	35806	06912	17012	64161	18296	22851
24	29334	27001	87637	87308	58731	00256	45834	15398	46557	41135	10367	07684	36188	18510
25	02488	33062	28834	07351	19731	92420	60952	61280	50001	67658	32586	86679	50720	94953
26	81525	72295	04839	96423	24878	82651	66566	14778	76797	14780	13300	87074	79666	95725
27	29676	20591	68086	26432	46901	20849	89768	81536	86645	12659	92259	57102	80428	25280
28	00742	57392	39064	66432	84673	40027	32832	61362	98947	96067	64760	64584	96096	98253
29	05366	04213	25669	26422	44407	44048	37937	63904	45766	66134	75470	66520	34693	90449
30	91921	26418	64117	94305	26766	25940	39972	22209	71500	64568	91402	42416	07844	69618
31	00582	04711	87917	77341	42206	35126	74087	99547	81817	42607	43808	76655	62028	76630
32	00725	69884	62797	56170	86324	88072	76222	36086	84637	93161	76038	65855	77919	88006
33	69011	65797	95876	55293	18988	27354	26575	08625	40801	59920	29841	80150	12777	48501
34	25976	57948	29888	88604	67917	48708	18912	82271	65424	69774	33611	54262	85963	03547
35	09763	83473	73577	12908	30883	18317	28290	35797	05998	41688	34952	37888	38917	88050
36	91567	42595	27958	30134	04024	86385	29880	99730	55536	84855	29080	09250	79656	73211
37	17955	56349	90999	49127	20044	59931	06115	20542	18059	02008	73708	83517	36103	42791
38	46503	18584	18845	49618	02304	51038	20655	58727	28168	15475	56942	53389	20562	87338
39	92157	89634	94824	78171	84610	82834	09922	25417	44137	48413	25555	21246	35509	20468
40	14577	62765	35605	81263	39667	47358	56873	56307	61607	49518	89656	20103	77490	18062
41	98427	07523	33362	64270	01638	92477	66969	98420	04880	45585	46565	04102	46880	45709
42	34914	63976	88720	82765	34476	17032	87589	40836	32427	70002	70663	88863	77775	69348
43	70060	28277	39475	46473	23219	53416	94970	25832	69975	94884	19661	72828	00102	66794
44	53976	54914	06990	67245	68350	82948	11398	42878	80287	88267	47363	46634	06541	97809
45	76072	29515	40980	07391	58745	25774	22987	80059	39911	96189	41151	14222	60697	59583
46	90725	52210	83974	29992	65831	38857	50490	83765	55657	14361	31720	57375	56228	41546
47	64364	67412	33339	31926	14883	24413	59744	92351	97473	89286	35931	04110	23726	51900
48	08962	00358	31662	25388	61642	34072	81249	35648	56891	69352	48373	45578	78547	81788
49	95012	68379	93526	70765	10593	04542	76463	54328	02349	17247	28865	14777	62730	92277
50	15664	10493	20492	38391	91132	21999	59516	81652	27195	48223	46751	22923	32261	85653

Table of Random Units

Line/Col.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)
51	16408	81899	04153	53381	79401	21438	83035	92350	36693	31238	59649	91754	72772	02338
52	18629	81953	05520	91962	04739	13092	97662	24822	94730	06496	35090	04822	86772	98239
53	73115	35101	47498	87637	99016	71060	88824	71013	18735	20286	23153	72924	35185	43040
54	57491	16703	23167	49323	45021	33132	12544	41035	80780	45393	44812	12515	98931	91202
55	30405	83946	23792	14422	15059	45799	22716	19792	09983	74353	68668	30429	70735	25499
56	16631	35006	85900	98275	32388	52390	16815	69298	82732	38480	73817	32523	41961	44437
57	96773	20206	42559	78985	05300	22164	24369	54224	35083	19687	11052	91491	60383	19746
58	38935	64202	14349	82674	66523	44133	00697	35552	35970	19124	63318	29686	03387	59846
59	31624	76384	17403	53363	44167	64486	64758	75366	76554	31601	12614	33072	60332	92325
60	78919	19474	23632	27889	47914	02584	37680	20801	72152	39339	34806	08930	85001	87820
61	03931	33309	57047	74211	63445	17361	62825	39908	05607	91284	68833	25570	38818	46920
62	74426	33278	43972	10119	89917	15665	52872	73823	73144	88662	88970	74492	51805	99378
63	09066	00903	20795	95452	92648	45454	09552	88815	16553	51125	79375	97596	16296	66092
64	42238	12426	87025	14267	20979	04508	64535	31355	86064	29472	47689	05974	52468	16834
65	16153	08002	26504	41744	81959	65642	74240	56302	00033	67107	77510	70625	28725	34191
66	21457	40742	29820	96783	29400	21840	15035	34537	33310	06116	95240	15957	16572	06004
67	21581	57802	02050	89728	17937	37621	47075	42080	97403	48626	68995	43805	33386	21597
68	55612	78095	83197	33732	05810	24813	86902	60397	16489	03264	88525	42786	05269	92532
69	44657	66999	99324	51281	84463	60563	79312	93454	68876	25471	93911	25650	12682	73572
70	91340	84979	46949	81973	37949	61023	43997	15263	80644	43942	89203	71795	99533	50501
71	91227	21199	31935	27022	84067	05462	35216	14486	29891	68607	41867	14951	91696	85065
72	50001	38140	66321	19924	72163	09538	12151	06878	91903	18749	34405	56087	82790	70925
73	65390	05224	72958	28609	81406	39147	25549	48542	42627	45233	57202	94617	23772	07896
74	27504	96131	83944	41575	10573	08619	64482	73923	36152	05184	94142	25299	84387	34925
75	37169	94851	39117	89632	00959	16487	65536	49071	39782	17095	02330	74301	00275	48280
76	11508	70225	51111	38351	19444	66499	71945	05422	13442	78675	84081	66938	93654	59894
77	37449	30362	06694	54690	04052	53115	62757	95348	78662	11163	81651	50245	34971	52924
78	46515	70331	85922	38329	57015	15765	97161	17869	45349	61796	66345	81073	49106	79860
79	30986	81223	42416	58353	21532	30502	32305	86482	05174	07901	54339	58861	74818	46942
80	63798	64995	46583	09765	44160	78128	83991	42865	92520	83531	80377	35909	81250	54238
81	82486	84846	99254	67632	43218	50076	21361	64816	51202	88124	41870	52689	51275	83556
82	21885	32906	92431	09060	64297	51674	64126	62570	26123	05155	59194	52799	28225	85762
83	60336	98782	07408	53458	13564	59089	26445	29789	85205	41001	12535	12133	14645	23541
84	43937	46891	24010	25560	86355	33941	25786	54990	71899	15475	95434	98227	21824	19585
85	97656	63175	89303	16275	07100	92063	21942	18611	47348	20203	18534	03862	78095	50136
86	03299	01221	05418	38982	55758	92237	26759	86367	21216	98442	08303	56613	91511	75928
87	79626	06486	03574	17668	07785	76020	79924	25651	83325	88428	85076	72811	22717	50585
88	85636	68335	47539	03129	65651	11977	02510	26113	99447	68645	34327	15152	55230	93448
89	18039	14367	61337	06177	12143	46609	32989	74014	64708	00533	35398	58408	13261	47908
90	08362	15656	60627	36478	65648	16764	53412	09013	07832	41574	17639	82163	60859	75567
91	79556	29068	04142	16268	15387	12856	66227	38358	22478	73373	88732	09443	82558	05250
92	92608	82674	27072	32534	17075	27698	98204	63863	11951	34648	88022	56148	34925	57031
93	23982	25835	40055	67006	12293	02753	14827	22235	35071	99704	37543	11601	35503	85171
94	09915	96306	05908	97901	28395	14186	00821	80703	70426	75647	76310	88717	27890	40129
95	50937	33300	26695	62247	69927	76123	50842	43834	86654	70959	79725	93872	28117	19233
96	42488	78077	69882	61657	34136	79180	97526	43092	04098	73571	80799	76536	71255	64239
97	46764	86273	63003	93017	31204	36692	40202	35275	57306	55543	53203	18098	47625	88684
98	03237	45430	55417	63282	90816	17349	88298	90183	36600	78406	06216	95787	42579	90730
99	86591	81482	52667	61583	14972	90053	89534	76036	49199	43716	97548	04379	46370	28672
100	38534	01715	94964	87288	65680	43772	39560	12918	86537	62738	19636	51132	25739	56947

APPENDIX B

Chain of Custody

CHAIN OF CUSTODY CONSIDERATIONS

The previous sections of this report described the sample collection features of a soil-core sampling protocol. The other element of an overall sampling protocol involves chain of custody procedures, essentially for tracing the path of a given sample from the moment of collection through all the intervening processes required to deliver the specimen to an analytical laboratory. (Transmission of the sample through the laboratory involves another host of quality assurance and quality control processes which are beyond the scope of this section.)

Chain of custody procedures are carefully prescribed in the EPA document entitled "Test Methods for Evaluating Solid Wastes" (EPA, 1982). The appropriate sections dealing with solids handling are reproduced below.

Chain of custody establishes the documentation and control necessary to identify and trace a sample from sample collection to final analysis. Such documentation includes labeling to prevent mix up, container seals to prevent unauthorized tampering with contents of the sample containers, secure custody, and the necessary records to support potential litigation.

Sample Labels

Sample labels (Figure B-1) are necessary to prevent misidentification of samples. Gummed paper labels or tags are adequate. The label must include at least the following information:

Name of collector
Date and time of collection
Place of collection
Collector's sample number, which uniquely identifies the sample.

Sample Seals

Sample seals are used to preserve the integrity of the sample form the time it is collected until it is opened in the laboratory. Gummed paper seals may be used for this purpose. The paper seal must include, at least, the following information:

Collector's name
Date and time of sampling
Collector's sample number. (This number must be identical with the number on the sample label.)

The seal must be attached in such a way that it is necessary to break it in order to open the sample container. An example of a sample seal is shown in Figure B-2.

Collector ______________________ Collector's Sample No. ______________

Place of Collection ____

____

Date Sampled ____________________ Time Sampled _____________________

Field Information ____

____

____

____

Figure B-1. Example of sample label (EPA, 1982)

NAME AND ADDRESS OF ORGANIZATION COLLECTING SAMPLES

Person
Collecting Sample ______________________________ Collectors Sample No. ______________
(Signature)

Date Collected ______________________ Time Collected ______________________

Place Collected ____

____

____

Figure B-2. Example of official sample seal (EPA, 1982)

Field Log Book

All information pertinent to a field survey and/or sampling must be recorded in a log book. This must be a bound book, preferably with consecutively numbered pages that are 21.6 by 27.9 cm (8½ x 11 in.). Entries in the log book must include at least the following:

Purpose of sampling (e.g., surveillance, contract number)
Location of sampling point
Name and address of field contact
Producer of waste and address if different than location
Type of process (if known) producing waste
Type of waste (e.g., sludge, wastewater)
Suspected waste composition including concentrations.
Number and volume of sample taken
Description of sampling point and sampling methodology
Date and time of collection
Collector's sample identification number(s)
Sample distribution and how transported (e.g., name of laboratory, UPS, Federal Express)
References such as maps or photographs of the sampling site
Field observations
Any field measurements made (e.g., pH, flamability, explositivity).

Sampling situations vary widely. No general rule can be given as to the extent of information that must be entered in the log book. A good rule, however, is to record sufficient information so that someone can reconstruct the sampling without reliance on the collector's memory.

The log book must be protected and kept in a safe place.

Chain of Custody Record

To establish the documentation necessary to trace sample possession from the time of collection, a chain of custody record must be filled out and accompany every sample. This record becomes especially important when the sample is to be introduced as evidence in a court litigation. An example of a chain of custody record is illustrated in Figure B-3.

The record must contain the following minimum information:

Collector's sample number
Signature of collector
Date and time of collection
Place and address of collection
Waste type
Signatures of persons involved in the chain of possession
Inclusive dates of possession.

Collector's Sample No. ________

CHAIN OF CUSTODY RECORD

Location of Sampling: ___ Producer ___ Hauler ___ Disposal Site

___ Other: ______________________
Sample

Shipper Name: ______________________

Address: ______________________
number street city state zip

Collector's Name ______________________ Telephone: (___) ________
signature

Date Sampled ______________ Time Sampled ________ hours ________

lype of Process Producing Waste ______________________

Field Information ______________________

____

____

Sample Receiver:

1. ______________________
name and address of organization receiving sample

2. ______________________

3. ______________________

Chain of Possession:

1. ______________ ______________ ______________
signature title inclusive dates

2. ______________ ______________ ______________
signature title inclusive dates

3. ______________ ______________ ______________
signature title inclusive dates

Figure B-3. Example of chain of custody record (EPA 1982)

Sample Analysis Request Sheet

The sample analysis request sheet (Figure B-4) is intended to accompany the sample on delivery to the laboratory. The field portion of this form must be completed by the person collecting the sample and should include most of the pertinent information noted in the log book. The laboratory portion of this form is intended to be completed by laboratory personnel and to include at a minimum:

Name of person receiving the sample
Laboratory sample number
Date of sample receipt
Sample collection
Analyses to be performed.

Sample Delivery to the Laboratory

Preferably, the sample must be delivered in person to the laboratory for analysis as soon as practicable--usually within 1 or 2 days after sampling. The sample must be accompanied by the chain of custody record (Figure B-3) and by a sample analysis request sheet (Figure B-4). The sample must be delivered to the person in the laboratory authorized to receive samples (often referred to as the sample custodian).

Shipping of Samples

All material identified in the DOT Hazardous Material Table (49 CFR 171.101) must be transported as prescribed in the table. All other hazardous waste samples must be transported as follows:

1. Collect sample in an appropriately sized glass or polyethylene container with non-metallic teflon-lined screw cap. Allow sufficient ullage (approximately 10% by volume) so container is not liquid full at 54°C Celsius (130°). If sampling for volatile organic analysis, fill container to septum but use closed cap with space to provide an air space within the container. Large quantities, up to 3.785 liters (1 gallon), may be collected if the sample's flash point is equal to or greater than 23°C (73°F). In this case, the flash point must be marked on the outside container (e.g., carton, cooler).

2. Seal sample and place in a 4 ml thick polyethylene bag, one sample per bag.

3. Place sealed bag inside cushioned overpack. If sample is expected to undergo change during shipment, cool using dry or wet ice. Overpack must be designed to prevent water leakage during transport. No other preservatives are allowed.

4. Complete carrier's certification form.

SAMPLE ANALYSIS REQUEST

PART I: FIELD SECTION

Collector ______________ Date Sampled __________ Time _______ hours _____

Affiliation of Sampler ____

Address ____
number street city state zip

Telephone (___) ________ Company Contact ______________________

LABORATORY SAMPLE NUMBER	COLLECTOR'S SAMPLE NO.	TYPE OF SAMPLE*	FIELD INFORMATION

Analysis Requested ____

____

____

Special Handling and/or Storage ______________________________

____

PART II: LABORATORY SECTION**

Received by ____________________ Title ______________ Date _________

Analysis Required ____

____

* Indicate whether sample is soil, sludge, etc.
** Use back of page for additional information relative to sample location

Figure B-4. Example of hazardous waste sample analysis request sheet (EPA, 1982)

5. Samples may be transported by rented or common carrier truck, bus, railroad, and entities such as Federal Express* but not by normal common carrier air transport even on a "cargo only" aircraft.

Receipt and Logging of Sample

In the laboratory, a sample custodian should be assigned to receive the samples. Upon receipt of a sample, the custodian should inspect the condition of the sample and the sample seal, reconcile the information on the sample label and seal against that on the chain of custody record, assign a laboratory number, log in the sample in the laboratory log book, and store the sample in a secured sample storage room or cabinet until assigned to an analyst for analysis.

The sample custodian should inspect the sample for any leakage from the container. A leaky container containing multiphase sample should not be accepted for analysis. This sample will no longer be a representative sample. If the sample is contained in a plastic bottle and the walls show the sample is under pressure or releasing gases, respectively, it should be treated with caution. The sample can be explosive or release extremely poisonous gases. The custodian should examine whether the sample seal is intact or broken, since a broken seal may mean sample tampering and would make analysis results inadmissible in court as evidence. Discrepancies between the information on the sample label and seal and that on the chain of custody record and the sample analysis request sheet should be resolved before the sample is assigned for analysis. This effort might require communication with the sample collector. Results of the inspection should be noted on the sample analysis request sheet and on the laboratory sample log book.

Incoming samples usually carry the inspector's or collector's identification numbers. To further identify these samples, the laboratory should assign its own identification numbers, which normally are given consecutively. Each sample should be marked with the assigned laboratory number. This number is correspondingly recorded on a laboratory sample log book along with the information describing the sample. The sample information is copied from the sample analysis request sheet and cross-checked against that on the sample label.

Assignment of Sample for Analysis

In most cases, the laboratory supervisor assigns the sample for analysis. The supervisor should review the information on the sample analysis request sheet, which now includes inspection notes recorded by the laboratory sample custodian. The supervisor should then decide what analyses are to be performed. The sample may have to be split with other laboratories to obtain the

*These procedures are designed to enable shipment by entities like Federal Express; however, they should not be construed as an endorsement by EPA of a particular commercial carrier.

necessary information about the sample. The supervisor should decide on the sample location and delineate the types of analyses to be performed on each allocation. In his own laboratory, the supervisor should assign the sample analysis to at least one analyst, who is to be responsible for the care and custody of the sample once it is received. He should be prepared to testify that the sample was in his possession or secured in the laboratory at all times from the moment it was received from the custodian until the analyses were performed.

The receiving analyst should record in the laboratory notebook the identifying information about the sample, the date of receipt, and other pertinent information. This record should also include the subsequent testing data and calculations.

APPENDIX C

Example Summary Sheets for Analytical and Statistical Results From Unsaturated Zone Monitoring

EXAMPLE SUMMARY SHEETS FOR ANALYTICAL STATISTICAL RESULTS FROM UNSATURATED ZONE MONITORING

Appendix B provides chain of custody documentation and control to identify and trace a sample from sample collection to final analysis. The documentation includes sample labels, a detailed field log book, a chain of custody record, a sample analysis request sheet, and shipping specifications.

This appendix provides example summary sheets for analytical and statistical results from unsaturated zone monitoring. Once the sample analysis is completed, the analytical results for various background areas and uniform areas (in the active portion) should be entered into summary tables, such as the example tables illustrated. In addition, the results of the statistical analysis should also be included in these tables. These tables should be included in the operating record of the facility, along with the documentation described above. It is essential that the data in these tables (e.g., sample IDs) correspond to the detailed sampling information included in the field log book. The field log book should, for example, clearly identify the location and depth at which individual samples were taken.

The following example sheets should be reproduced to provide enough sheets to tabulate data from several background areas or uniform areas, and many sampling events. The example sheets may need to be modified to make them applicable to given site-specific monitoring designs.

GENERAL INFORMATION

EPA ID: ____________________

Company Name: ____________________

Address: ____________________

____

Person to contact about data: ____________________

Telephone Number: (   ) ____________________

Location of Facility: ____________________

Number of Land Treatment Units at Facility: ____

If more than one identify each: #1 ____________________

#2 ____________________

#3 ____________________

Uniform areas (in active portion) and corresponding background soil series in each land treatment unit:

	Uniform Area	Background Soil Series
LTU#1	____________	____________
	____________	____________
	____________	____________
LTU#2	____________	____________
	____________	____________
	____________	____________
LTU#3	____________	____________
	____________	____________
	____________	____________

BACKGROUND DATA
SOIL CORE MONITORING

Background Soil Series: ____________________

Corresponding Uniform Area(s) in Active Portion: ____________________

Current Date: _______ Initial Analysis _______ (Check one) Date(s) of
Reevaluation _______ Sampling: ______

Parameter (units)[1]	Analytical Results[2]				Statistical Results		Notes
	Sample No. __	Sample No. __	Sample No. __	Sample No. __	Mean	Var	

[1]Hazardous Constituents or Principle Hazardous Constituents (PHCs), and other parameters measured (e.g., pH).

[2]Enter analytical results for each sample. Each sample is a composite from two locations. Field log book must indicate where (location and depth) individual samples were taken (on a site map) and how they were composited. Composite sample no. shown in this table must correspond to the field log book (see Appendix B).

BACKGROUND DATA
SOIL PORE-LIQUID MONITORING

Background Soil Series: ________________

Corresponding Uniform Area(s) in Active Portion: ________________

Current Date: ______ Initial Analysis ______ (Check one) Dates of
Reevaluation ______ Sampling: ______

Parameter (units)[1]	Analytical Results[2] of Quarterly Sampling				Statistical Results		Notes
	Sample No. __	Sample No. __	Sample No. __	Sample No. __	Mean	Var	

[1]Hazardous Constituents or Principle Hazardous Constituents, and any other pertinent parameters.

[2]Each sample is a composite from two lysimeters. Field log book must indicate where (location and depth) individual samples were taken and how they were composited. Composite sample no. shown above in this table must correspond to the field log book (see Appendix B).

ACTIVE PORTION DATA
SOIL CORE MONITORING

Land Treatment Unit: ____________________

Uniform Area: ____________________

Corresponding Background Soil Series: ____________________

Current Date: _______ Date(s) of Sampling: ____________________

Parameter (units)[1]	Analytical Results[2,3]			Statistical Results[4]		Notes
	Sample No. __	Sample No. __	Sample No. __	Mean	Var	

[1]Hazardous Constituents or Principle Hazardous Constituents (PHCs), and any other pertinent parameters (e.g., soil pH).

[2]Each sample is a composite from two locations. Field log book must indicate where (location and depth) individual samples were taken and how they were composited. Composite sample no. shown above in this table must correspond to the field log book (see Appendix B).

[3]If uniform area is greater than 5 ha., more than three composite samples are necessary; therefore, table would have to be expanded in these cases.

[4]Circled parameter means that are found to be statistically signif. increased over background.

ACTIVE PORTION DATA
SOIL PORE-LIQUID MONITORING

Land Treatment Unit: ____________________

Uniform Area: ____________________

Corresponding Background Soil Series: ____________________

Current Date: _______ Date(s) of Sampling: ____________________

Parameter (units)[1]	Analytical Results[2,3]			Statistical Results[4]		Notes
	Sample No. __	Sample No. __	Sample No. __	Mean	Var	

[1]Hazardous Constituents or Principle Hazardous Constituents (PHCs), and any other pertinent parameters.

[2]Each sample is a composite from two lysimeters. Field log book must indicate where (location and depth) individual samples were taken and how they were composited. Composite sample no. shown above in this table must correspond to the field log book (see Appendix B).

[3]If uniform area is greater than 5 ha., more than three composite samples (i.e., from 6 lysimeters) are necessary; therefore, table would have to be expanded in these cases.

[4]Circled parameter means that are found to be statistically signif. increased over background.

APPENDIX D

Regulations on Unsaturated Zone Monitoring

Federal Register, Volume 47, Number 143
July 26, 1982

6. *Unsaturated Zone Monitoring (Section 264.278).* As indicated earlier, the purpose of unsaturated zone monitoring is to provide feedback on the success of treatment in the treatment zone. The information obtained from this monitoring will be used to adjust the operating conditions at the unit in order to maximize degradation, transformation and immobilization of hazardous constituents in the treatment zone.

For example, if a significant increase of a hazardous constituent is detected in unsaturated zone monitoring, the owner or operator will examine more closely the facility characteristics that significantly affect the mobility and persistence of that constituent. These significant facility characteristics may include treatment zone characteristics (*e.g.*, pH, cation exchange capacity, organic matter content), or operational practices (*e.g.*, waste application method and rate). Modifications to one or more of these characteristics may be necessary to maximize treatment of the hazardous constituent within the treatment zone and to minimize additional migration of that constituent to below the treatment zone.

It should be emphasized that unsaturated zone monitoring is not a substitute for ground-water monitoring. Both are required at land treatment units. Ground-water monitoring is designed to determine the effect of hazardous waste leachate on the ground water. Unsaturated zone monitoring cannot perform that function as a general matter. Instead, unsaturated zone monitoring simply gives an indication of whether hazardous constituents are migrating out of the treatment zone.

Likewise, unsaturated zone monitoring is not equivalent to the leak detection monitoring that is used at some other types of disposal units (*e.g.*, double-lined surface impoundments). Leak detection monitoring is used in conjunction with a relatively "closed" design (*e.g.*, two liners with a drainage layer between them) that is designed to pick up any liquid migrating from the unit. EPA believes that such a design can be a substitute for the ground-water monitoring and response program of Subpart F.

Unsaturated zone monitoring, however, operates in an open system that allows liquids to pass through the unsaturated zone. While EPA believes that unsaturated zone monitoring is generally reliable, it cannot provide the same level of certainty about the migration of hazardous constituents from the facility that a double-lined surface impoundment (with a leak detection monitoring program) can provide. Therefore, unsaturated zone monitoring cannot be a substitute for ground-water monitoring.

Some commenters have expressed concern about the reliability and practicality of unsaturated zone monitoring, particularly soil-pore liquid monitoring. EPA believes that adequate technology and expertise is available to develop effective and reliable systems.

The Agency also believes that the inconvenience cited by some commenters can be avoided. Commenters stated that the placing of lysimeters (one type of device for monitoring soil-pore liquid) on the active portion of a land treatment unit would hinder site operations. However, the Agency knows of a number of existing land treatment units with monitoring systems engineered so that the above-ground portion of the device for sampling soil-pore liquid is located off the actual treatment zone. This and other methods can be used to avoid any inconvenience associated with the location of these devices.

The unsaturated zone monitoring program must be designed to determine the presence of hazardous constituents below the treatment zone. Generally this means that the owner or operator must monitor for the hazardous constituents identified for each hazardous waste that is placed in or on the treatment zone.

EPA believes, however, that there may be some situations where this general monitoring burden may be reduced without compromising the objectives of the unsaturated zone monitoring program. Some hazardous constituents will be more difficult to degrade, transform or immobilize than others. Therefore, if the owner or operator monitors for the constituents that are difficult to treat and can demonstrate that such constituents are not migrating from the treatment zone, then EPA can be reasonably certain that other hazardous constituents are being adequately treated.

The Regional Administrator may address this situation by selecting principal hazardous constituents (PHCs) for the unit. A PHC is a hazardous constituent contained in the waste applied at a unit that is difficult to degrade, transform or immobilize in the treatment zone. The owner or operator may ask the Regional Administrator to establish PHCs at the unit if the owner or operator can demonstrate to the Regional Administrator's satisfaction that degradation, transformation or immobilization of the PHCs will assure adequate treatment of the other hazardous constituents in the waste.

The Regional Administrator will be particularly concerned with two factors when deciding whether to establish PHCs. First, he will be concerned with the mobility of the constituent. Since PHCs will be monitored in the area below the treatment zone, the Regional Administrator will want to assure that the PHCs give an early warning of the failure of the treatment process. Therefore, a PHC must be one of the most mobile constituents in the treatment zone. Second, a PHC must be one of the most concentrated and persistent constituents in the treatment zone. This is to assure that the constituent provides a reliable indication of the success of treatment in the treatment zone.

In the selection of principal hazardous constituents, the Regional Administrator will evaluate the results of waste analyses, literature reviews, laboratory tests, and field studies. Waste analyses will be used to identify the hazardous constituents in the waste. Information obtained from literature reviews, laboratory tests, and field studies (including monitoring results for existing units) will be used to assess the relative mobility and persistence of the various hazardous constituents. The extent of data needed to support the selection of one or more principal hazardous constituents for a particular waste will be determined by the Regional Administrator.

Both soil-core and soil-pore liquid monitoring are required in today's rules. These two monitoring procedures are intended to complement one another.

Soil-core monitoring will provide information primarily on the movement of "slower-moving" hazardous constituents (such as heavy metals), whereas soil-pore liquid monitoring will provide essential additional data on the movement of fast-moving, highly soluble hazardous constituents that soil-core monitoring may miss.

The general elements of the unsaturated zone monitoring program are patterned after those required for ground-water monitoring in Subpart F. As in the detection monitoring program, the unsaturated zone monitoring program is designed to determine whether the level of hazardous constituents in the soil or soil-pore liquid below the treament zone shows statistically significant increases over the background levels of those constituents in the soil or soil-pore liquid. In addition, today's regulations include requirements for monitoring systems, sampling frequency and sampling and analysis procedures and methods that are analogous to those in Subpart F. Some modifications of the Subpart F monitoring program must be made, however, to make it compatible with land treatment.

First, the basis for establishing background values differs. In the ground-water monitoring program, background values are based on data taken from upgradient monitoring wells. Such a concept is not applicable to land treatment units. Background values at land treatment units are established by sampling the soil and soil-pore liquid in a background plot. A background plot is generally a segment of the soil near the unit that has characteristics similar to that of the treatment zone and that has not been contaminated by hazardous waste. At a new unit, however, the owner or operator could use the actual treatment zone prior to waste application as the background plot. The key characteristic of the background plot is its similarity to the treatment zone.

Second, the unsaturated zone monitoring program will rely on statistical procedures that are somewhat different than those used for detection monitoring programs under Subpart F. In order to account for seasonal variations in soil-pore liquid quality, background values will be based on one year of quarterly sampling as in the detection monitoring program. Since background soil levels are not likely to change significantly during such a time frame, today's rules allow that background soil levels may be established following a one-time sampling. Unsaturated zone monitoring is similar to compliance monitoring, however, in that there may be several constituents to be monitored. Thus, the probability of an experiment error rate is high. Therefore, the statistical procedures used in the unsaturated zone monitoring program will be based on a narrative standard as used in the compliance monitoring program.

This standard seeks to provide "reasonable confidence" that the migration of hazardous constituents from the treatment zone will be indicated after balancing the risk of false positives and the risk of false negatives. (This preamble discusses the rationale for this standard in Section VII.D.10.) If the number of constituents to be monitored is small, then this standard can be met by the use of the Student's t-test protocol described in § 264.97(h).

While EPA believes that the standard for statistical procedures just described should be adequate for most situations, EPA intends to further analyze the appropriateness of other statistical procedures for unsaturated zone monitoring. For example, EPA is considering whether other factors that might affect background levels of soil pore-water quality should be specifically addressed in devising the monitoring protocols. EPA specifically asks for public comment on this issue.

Third, the unsaturated zone monitoring program does not call for measurements of the flow and direction of ground water. The gradient in the ground water is not relevant to unsaturated zone monitoring and, thus, such information is not necessary.

Fourth, the response to the detection of a statistically significant increase in Subpart M differs from the response required in Subpart F. The results of unsaturated zone monitoring are to be used in the modification of the operating practices at the unit. Thus, the required response is the submission, within 90 days, of a permit modification application that sets forth how the owner or operator will adjust his operating practices (including waste application rates) to maximize degradation, transformation and immobilization of hazardous constituents in the treatment zone. However, an opportunity exists in today's rules for not submitting the permit modification application, but only if the owner or operator can successfully demonstrate to the Regional Administrator that the statistically significant increase results from an error in sampling, analysis, or evaluation. This error demonstration must be submitted to the Regional Administrator within 90 days of the owner or operator's knowledge of the statistically significant increase.

As indicated earlier in this preamble, the appearance of hazardous constituents below the treatment zone does not in itself constitute a violation of the regulations. (This is analogous to the fact that a landfill liner which has been designed not to leak does not violate the design standards if the liner fails at some future time.) Under the regulatory strategy in these regulations, contaminants that are not controlled by the design and operating measures will be addressed by the monitoring and response program in Subpart F.

§ 264.278 Unsaturated zone monitoring.

An owner or operator subject to this subpart must establish an unsaturated zone monitoring program to discharge the following responsibilities:

(a) The owner or operator must monitor the soil and soil-pore liquid to determine whether hazardous constituents migrate out of the treatment zone.

(1) The Regional Administrator will specify the hazardous constituents to be monitored in the facility permit. The hazardous constituents to be monitored are those specified under § 264.271(b).

(2) The Regional Administrator may require monitoring for principal hazardous constituents (PHCs) in lieu of the constituents specified under § 264.271(b). PHCs are hazardous constituents contained in the wastes to be applied at the unit that are the most difficult to treat, considering the combined effects of degradation, transformation, and immobilization. The Regional Administrator will establish PHCs if he finds, based on waste analyses, treatment demonstrations, or other data, that effective degradation, transformation, or immobilization of the PHCs will assure treatment at at least equivalent levels for the other hazardous constituents in the wastes.

(b) The owner or operator must install an unsaturated zone monitoring system that includes soil monitoring using soil cores and soil-pore liquid monitoring using devices such as lysimeters. The unsaturated zone monitoring system must consist of a sufficient number of sampling points at appropriate locations and depths to yield samples that:

(1) Represent the quality of background soil-pore liquid quality and the chemical make-up of soil that has not been affected by leakage from the treatment zone; and

(2) Indicate the quality of soil-pore liquid and the chemical make-up of the soil below the treatment zone.

(c) The owner or operator must establish a background value for each hazardous constituent to be monitored under paragraph (a) of this section. The permit will specify the background values for each constituent or specify the procedures to be used to calculate the background values.

(1) Background soil values may be based on a one-time sampling at a background plot having characteristics similar to those of the treatment zone.

(2) Background soil-pore liquid values must be based on at least quarterly sampling for one year at a background plot having characteristics similar to those of the treatment zone.

(3) The owner or operator must express all background values in a form necessary for the determination of statistically significant increases under paragraph (f) of this section.

(4) In taking samples used in the determination of all background values, the owner or operator must use an unsaturated zone monitoring system that complies with paragraph (b)(1) of this section.

(d) The owner or operator must conduct soil monitoring and soil-pore liquid monitoring immediately below the treatment zone. The Regional Administrator will specify the frequency and timing of soil and soil-pore liquid monitoring in the facility permit after considering the frequency, timing, and rate of waste application, and the soil permeability. The owner or operator must express the results of soil and soil-pore liquid monitoring in a form necessary for the determination of statistically significant increases under paragraph (f) of this section.

(e) The owner or operator must use consistent sampling and analysis procedures that are designed to ensure sampling results that provide a reliable indication of soil-pore liquid quality and the chemical make-up of the soil below the treatment zone. At a minimum, the owner or operator must implement procedures and techniques for:

(1) Sample collection;

(2) Sample preservation and shipment;

(3) Analytical procedures; and

(4) Chain of custody control.

(f) The owner or operator must determine whether there is a statistically significant change over background values for any hazardous constituent to be monitored under paragraph (a) of this section below the treatment zone each time he conducts soil monitoring and soil-pore liquid monitoring under paragraph (d) of this section.

(1) In determining whether a statistically significant increase has occurred, the owner or operator must compare the value of each constituent, as determined under paragraph (d) of this section, to the background value for that constituent according to the statistical procedure specified in the facility permit under this paragraph.

(2) The owner or operator must determine whether there has been a statistically significant increase below the treatment zone within a reasonable time period after completion of sampling. The Regional Administrator will specify that time period in the facility permit after considering the complexity of the statistical test and the availability of laboratory facilities to perform the analysis of soil and soil-pore liquid samples.

(3) The owner or operator must determine whether there is a statistically significant increase below the treatment zone using a statistical procedure that provides reasonable confidence that migration from the treatment zone will be identified. The Regional Administrator will specify a statistical procedure in the facility permit that he finds:

(i) Is appropriate for the distribution of the data used to establish background values; and

(ii) Provides a reasonable balance between the probability of falsely identifying migration from the treatment zone and the probability of failing to identify real migration from the treatment zone.

(g) If the owner or operator determines, pursuant to paragraph (f) of this section, that there is a statistically significant increase of hazardous constituents below the treatment zone, he must:

(1) Notify the Regional Administrator of this finding in writing within seven days. The notification must indicate what constituents have shown statistically significant increases.

(2) Within 90 days, submit to the Regional Administrator an application for a permit modification to modify the operating practices at the facility in order to maximize the success of degradation, transformation, or

immobilization processes in the treatment zone.

(h) If the owner or operator determines, pursuant to paragraph (f) of this section, that there is a statistically significant increase of hazardous constituents below the treatment zone, he may demonstrate that a source other than regulated units caused the increase or that the increase resulted from an error in sampling, analysis, or evaluation. While the owner or operator may make a demonstration under this paragraph in addition to, or in lieu of, submitting a permit modification application under paragraph (g)(2) of this section, he is not relieved of the requirement to submit a permit modification application within the time specified in paragraph (g)(2) of this section unless the demonstration made under this paragraph successfully shows that a source other than regulated units caused the increase or that the increase resulted from an error in sampling, analysis, or evaluation. In making a demonstration under this paragraph, the owner or operator must:

(1) Notify the Regional Administrator in writing within seven days of determining a statistically significant increase below the treatment zone that he intends to make a determination under this paragraph;

(2) Within 90 days, submit a report to the Regional Administrator demonstrating that a source other than the regulated units caused the increase or that the increase resulted from error in sampling, analysis, or evaluation;

(3) Within 90 days, submit to the Regional Administrator an application for a permit modification to make any appropriate changes to the unsaturated zone monitoring program at the facility; and

(4) Continue to monitor in accordance with the unsaturated zone monitoring program established under this section.

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