



Standard Guide for Composite Sampling and Field Subsampling for Environmental Waste Management Activities¹

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1. Scope

1.1 Compositing and subsampling are key links in the chain of sampling and analytical events that must be performed in compliance with project objectives and instructions to ensure that the resulting data are representative. This guide discusses the advantages and appropriate use of composite sampling, field procedures and techniques to mix the composite sample and procedures to collect an unbiased and precise subsample(s) from a larger sample. It discusses the advantages and limitations of using composite samples in designing sampling plans for characterization of wastes (mainly solid) and potentially contaminated media. This guide assumes that an appropriate sampling device is selected to collect an unbiased sample.

1.2 The guide does not address: where samples should be collected (depends on the objectives) (see Guide D 6044), selection of sampling equipment, bias introduced by selection of inappropriate sampling equipment, sample collection procedures or collection of a representative specimen from a sample, or statistical interpretation of resultant data and devices designed to dynamically sample process waste streams. It also does not provide sufficient information to statistically design an optimized sampling plan, or determine the number of samples to collect or calculate the optimum number of samples to composite to achieve specified data quality objectives (see Practice D 5792). Standard procedures for planning waste sampling activities are addressed in Guide D 4687.

1.3 The sample mixing and subsampling procedures described in this guide are considered inappropriate for samples to be analyzed for volatile organic compounds. Volatile organics are typically lost through volatilization during sample collection, handling, shipping and laboratory sample preparation unless specialized procedures are used. The enhanced mixing described in this guide is expected to cause significant losses of volatile constituents. Specialized procedures should be used for compositing samples for determination of volatiles such as combining directly into methanol (see Practice D 4547).

1.4 *This standard does not purport to address all of the safety concerns, if any, associated with its use. It is the*

responsibility of the user of this standard to establish appropriate safety and health practices and determine the applicability of regulatory limitations prior to use.

2. Referenced Documents

2.1 ASTM Standards:

- C 702 Practice for Reducing Samples of Aggregate to Testing Size²
- D 1129 Terminology Relating to Water³
- D 4439 Terminology for Geosynthetics⁴
- D 4547 Practice for Sampling Waste and Soils for Volatile Organics⁵
- D 4687 Guide for General Planning of Waste Sampling⁵
- D 5088 Practice for Decontamination of Field Equipment Used at Nonradioactive Waste Sites⁴
- D 5792 Practice for Generation of Environmental Data Related to Waste Management Activities: Development of Data Quality Objectives⁵
- D 6044 Guide for Representative Sampling for Management of Wastes and Contaminated Media⁵
- E 856 Definitions of Terms and Abbreviations Relating to Physical and Chemical Characteristics of Refuse-Derived Fuel⁵

3. Terminology

3.1 Definitions:

- 3.1.1 *composite sample, n*—a combination of two or more samples. **D 1129**
- 3.1.2 *sample, n*—a portion of material taken from a larger quantity for the purpose of estimating properties or composition of the larger quantity. **E 856**
- 3.1.3 *specimen, n*—a specific portion of a material or laboratory sample upon which a test is performed or which is taken for that purpose. **D 4439**
- 3.1.4 *subsample, n*—a portion of a sample taken for the purpose of estimating properties or composition of the whole sample.
 - 3.1.4.1 *Discussion*—a subsample, by definition, is also a sample.

¹ This guide is under the jurisdiction of ASTM Committee D34 on Waste Management and is the direct responsibility of Subcommittee D34.01.01 on Planning for Sampling.

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² *Annual Book of ASTM Standards*, Vol 04.02.

³ *Annual Book of ASTM Standards*, Vol 11.01.

⁴ *Annual Book of ASTM Standards*, Vol 04.09.

⁵ *Annual Book of ASTM Standards*, Vol 11.04.

4. Summary of Guide

4.1 This guide describes how the collection of composite samples, as opposed to individual samples, may be used to: more precisely estimate the mean concentration of a waste analyte in contaminated media, reduce costs, efficiently determine the absence or possible presence of a hot spot (a highly contaminated local area), and, when coupled with retesting schemes, efficiently locate hot spots. Specific procedures for mixing a sample(s) and collecting subsamples for transport to a laboratory are provided.

5. Significance and Use

5.1 This guide provides guidance to persons managing or responsible for designing sampling and analytical plans for determining whether sample compositing may assist in more efficiently meeting study objectives. Samples must be composited properly, or useful information on contamination distribution and sample variance may be lost.

5.2 The procedures described for mixing samples and obtaining a representative subsample are broadly applicable to waste sampling where it is desired to transport a reduced amount of material to the laboratory. The mixing and subsampling sections provide guidance to persons preparing sampling and analytical plans and field personnel.

5.3 While this guide generally focuses on solid materials, the attributes and limitations of composite sampling apply equally to static liquid samples.

6. Attributes of Composite Sampling for Waste Characterization

6.1 In general, the individual samples to be composited should be of the same mass, however, proportional sampling may be appropriate in some cases depending upon the objective. For example, if the objective is to determine the average drum concentration of a contaminant, compositing equals volumes of waste from each drum would be appropriate. If the objective is to determine average contaminant concentration of the waste contained in a group of drums, the volume of each sample to be composited should be proportional to the amount of waste in each drum. Another example of proportional sampling is estimating the contaminant concentration of soil overlying an impermeable zone. Soil cores should be collected from the surface to the impermeable layer, regardless of core length.

6.2 The principal advantages of sample compositing include: reduction in the variance of an estimated average concentration (1),⁶ increasing the efficiency of locating/identifying hot spots (2), and reduction of sampling and analytical costs (3). These main advantages are discussed in the following paragraphs. However, a principle assumption needed to justify compositing is that analytical costs are high relative to sampling costs. In general, appropriate use of sample compositing can:

6.2.1 Reduce inter-sample variance, that is, improve the precision of the mean estimation while reducing the probability of making an incorrect decision,

6.2.2 Reduce costs for estimating a total or mean value, especially where analytical costs greatly exceed sampling costs (also may be effective when analytical capacity is a limitation),

6.2.3 Efficiently determine the absence or possible presence of hot spots or hot containers and, when combined with retesting schemes, identify hot spots, as long as the probability of hitting a hot spot is low,

6.2.4 Be especially useful for situations, where the nature of contaminant distribution tends to be contiguous and non-random and the majority of analyses are “non-detects” for the contaminant(s) of interest, and

6.2.5 Provide a degree of anonymity where population, rather than individual statistics are needed.

6.3 *Improvement in Sampling Precision*—Samples are always taken to make inferences to a larger volume of material, and a set of composite samples from a heterogeneous population provides a more precise estimate of the mean than a comparable number of discrete samples. This occurs because compositing is a “physical process of averaging.” Averages of samples have greater precision than the individual samples. Likewise, a set of composite samples is always more precise than an equal number of individual samples. Decisions based on a set of composite samples will, for practical purposes, always provide greater statistical confidence than for a comparable set of individual samples.

6.3.1 If an estimated precision of a mean is desired, then more than one composite sample is needed; a standard deviation cannot be calculated from one composite sample. However, the precision of a single composite sample may be estimated when there are data to show the relationship between the precision of the individual samples that comprise the composite sample and that of the composite sample. The precision (standard deviation) of the composite sample is approximately the precision of the individual samples divided by the square root of the number of individual samples in the composite.

6.4 *Example 1*—An example of how a single composite sample can be used for decision-making purposes is given here. Assume a regulatory limit of 1 mg/kg and a standard deviation of 0.5 mg/kg for the individual samples. If the concentration of a site is estimated to be around 0.6 mg/kg, how many individual samples should be composited to have relatively high confidence that the true concentration does not exceed the regulatory limit when only one composite sample is used? Assuming the composite is well mixed, then the precision of a composite is a function of the number of samples as follows:

| Number of Individual Samples in Composite | Precision (standard deviation $\div \sqrt{n}$) of One Composite Sample |
|---|---|
| 2 | 0.35 |
| 3 | 0.29 |
| 4 | 0.25 |
| 5 | 0.22 |
| 6 | 0.20 |

Thus, if six samples are included in a composite, the composite concentration of 0.6 mg/kg is two standard deviations below the regulatory limit. Therefore, if the composite concentration is actually observed to be in the neighborhood of 0.6 mg/kg, we can be reasonably confident (approximately

⁶ The boldface numbers in parentheses refer to a list of references at the end of this guide.

95 %) that the concentration of the site is below the regulatory limit, using only one composite sample.

6.5 Example 2—Another example is when the standard deviation of the individual samples in the previous example is relatively small, say 0.1 mg/kg. Then the standard deviation of a composite of 6 individual samples is 0.04 mg/kg (0.1 mg/kg divided by the square root of 6 = 0.04 mg/kg), a very small number relative to the regulatory limit of 1 mg/kg. In this case, simple comparison of the composite concentration to the regulatory limit is often quite adequate for decision-making purposes.

6.5.1 The effectiveness of compositing depends on the relative magnitude of sampling and analytical error. When sampling uncertainty is high relative to analytical error (as is usually assumed to be the case) compositing is very effective in improving precision. If analytical errors are high relative to field errors, sample compositing is much less effective.

6.5.2 Because compositing is a physical averaging process, composite samples tend to be more normally distributed than the individual samples. The normalizing effect is frequently an advantage since calculation of means, standard deviations and confidence intervals generally assume the data are normally distributed. Although environmental residue data are commonly non-normally distributed, compositing often leads to approximate normality and avoids the need to transform the data.

6.5.3 The spatial design of the compositing scheme can be important. Depending upon the locations from which the individual samples are collected and composited, composites can be used to determine spatial variability or improve the precision of the parameter being estimated. Fig. 1 and Fig. 2 represent a site divided into four cells. Composite all samples with the same number together. The sampling approach in Fig. 1 is similar to sample random sampling, except they are now composite samples. Each composite sample in this case is a representative sample of the entire site, eliminates cell-to-cell variability, and leads to increased precision in estimating the mean concentration of the site. If there is a need to estimate the cell-to-cell variability, then the approach in Fig. 2 is suitable. In addition, if the precision of estimating the mean concentration of the cell is needed, multiple composite samples should be collected from that cell.

6.6 Effect on Cost Reduction—Because the composite samples yield a more precise mean estimate than the same number of individual samples, there is the potential for substantial cost saving. Given the higher precision associated with composite samples, the number of composite samples required to achieve a specified precision is smaller than that required for individual samples. This cost saving opportunity is

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 4 | 3 |
| 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 4 | 2 | 1 | 4 |
| 3 | 1 | 2 | 3 |

FIG. 1 Example of Compositing Across a Site

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 |
| 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 |
| 3 | 3 | 4 | 4 |
| 3 | 3 | 4 | 4 |

FIG. 2 Example of Within Cell Compositing

especially pronounced when the cost of sample analysis is high relative to the cost of sampling, compositing, and analyzing.

6.7 Hot Container/Hot Spot Identification and Retesting Schemes—Samples can be combined to determine whether an individual sample exceeds a specified limit as long as the action limit is relatively high compared with the actual detection limit and the average sample concentration. Depending on the difficulty and probability of having to resample, it may be desirable to retain a split of the discrete samples for possible analysis depending on the analytical results from the composite sample.

6.8 Example 3—One hundred drums are to be examined to determine whether the concentration of PCBs exceeds 50 mg/kg. Assume the detection limit is 5 mg/kg and most drums have non-detectable levels. Compositing samples from ten drums for analysis would permit determining that none of the drums in the composite exceed 50 mg/kg as long as the concentration of the composite is <5 mg/kg. If the detected concentration is >5 mg/kg, one or more drums may exceed 50 mg/kg and additional analyses of the individual drums are required to identify any hot drum(s). The maximum number of samples that can theoretically be composited and still detect a hot sample is the limit of concern divided by the actual detection limit (for example, 50 mg/kg ÷ 5 mg/kg = 10).

6.9 Example 4—Assume background levels of dioxin are non detectable, and the analytical detection limit is 1 µg/kg and the action level is 50 µg/kg. The site is systematically gridded (the most efficient sampling design for detecting randomly distributed hot spots) using an appropriate design, and cores to a depth of 10 cm are collected. Composite samples are collected since analytical costs for dioxin are high. In theory, groups of up to 50 samples could be composited and if the resultant concentration were <1 µg/kg, all samples represented in the composite should be below 50 µg/kg. If the contaminant concentration is >1 µg/kg, one or more spots may exist that exceed 50 µg/kg in the area covered by the composite sample although the precise location and areal extent would not be known without further sampling and analyses. Compositing fewer samples would probably be more practical, however.

6.9.1 The relative efficiency of compositing individual samples to detect a hot spot depends on the probability of a “hot” discrete sample being used to form a composite sample. According to Garner et al. (1), if the probability can be estimated as low, say 1 %, the optimum number of samples to composite is about ten, which would result in a cost saving of about 80 % (assuming there is no detection limit problem). When the probability of collecting a sample from a hot spot rises to 10 %, the optimal number of samples to composite is 4, which results in a 40 % cost savings. By the time the