

PASSIVE SAMPLING TECHNOLOGY UPDATE TEAM

Instructions for ITRC Passive Sampling Technology Update Guidance Document External Review

**(Comments Due on or Before: Tuesday,
April 2, 2024)**

The ITRC Passive Sampling Technology Update team has prepared an update to existing ITRC Passive Sampling Guidance Documents and added to with current and relevant information on Passive Sampling Technologies. Within this work product, are 24 Passive Sampling technologies as well as media, data, and regulatory considerations. The team has also developed several case studies for each technology, included in the external review zip file.



Review/Comment Request: Please focus your comments on the content, thoroughness, and usefulness of the documents. While it is helpful to identify and comment on sections of text that are redundant, confusing, unclear, or unnecessary, it is not necessary to identify and provide comments on typographical errors and general grammar unless those errors have an impact on content understanding; ITRC will use a professional technical editor to review and revise this document for spelling, grammar, and consistency in format

Logistics:

- **Download the Comment Spreadsheet from ITRC Connect [here](#).**
- Contact the Program Advisor (Devin Seckar; Dseckar@ecos.org) with questions, comments, or concerns on accessing or commenting on this document.
- Submit comments using the following link (or the similar link embedded in the Comment Spreadsheet): [Distribution List for Comments on the ITRC Passive Sampling Technology Update Work Products](#)

Thank you again for your time and participation in External Review!

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95 1. INTRODUCTION

96 1.1 Background

97 In previous years, the ITRC Passive Diffusion Sampling team (later the Passive Sampling
98 team) produced four informational and guidance documents (2001, 2004, 2006, and 2007)
99 that explored the function and use of 12 passive groundwater sampling devices. The team
100 sunsetting in 2007. In the ensuing years, emerging concerns about high-profile contaminants,
101 interest in reducing purge water volume, sampling cost reduction (and re-allocation to
102 remediation), and sampling of other media in addition to groundwater has driven interest in
103 passive sampling techniques.

104 This growing interest in the benefits of passive sampling, and the availability of newer
105 devices, has increased the number of requests for regulatory review, approval, and
106 acceptance on project sites. Few, if any, specific regulations addressing the use of passive
107 samplers have been written into promulgated documents. The use and/or approval process
108 varies widely by agency and even by individuals within an agency due, in part, to a general
109 lack of reliable, vetted information on the use and efficacy of passive sampling technologies.

110 The intent of this team is to replace the current ITRC Passive Diffusion Documents with a
111 single new guidance document that will include 12 additional technologies, for a total of 24
112 passive sampling technologies. Devices that sample groundwater, surface water, porewater,
113 sediment, soil gas, indoor air, outdoor air, soil, and non-aqueous phase liquid (NAPL) are
114 included and each technology's use, operation, viability for specific contaminants,
115 development or commercial status, project applicability, advantages and limitations are
116 described. Case studies have been included to demonstrate the use and effectiveness in real-
117 world conditions, and guidance is included to help transition sites to passive sampling,
118 appropriately, bring confidence to the science and enable more sustainable management and
119 monitoring of sites.

120 The inclusion of the following passive sampling technologies in this document does not
121 constitute endorsement or approval from your state. The sampling technologies are provided
122 for informational purposes only and are not all inclusive.

123 1.2 What is Passive Sampling?

124 ITRC defines "passive" sampling as using a device that acquires a sample from a discrete
125 location without inducing active media transport. The passive technologies considered in this
126 document rely on the sampling device being exposed to media in ambient equilibrium during
127 the sampler deployment period. The passive samplers in this document are classified into
128 three technology types based on the sampler mechanism and nature of the collected sample.
129 The three technology types discussed are grab, equilibrium, and accumulation samplers,
130 which are summarized below and further discussed in more detail in Section 5.

131 ❖ **Grab Samplers (Section 5.1):** Devices that recover a sample of the selected medium
132 that represents the conditions at the sampling point, including any chemicals and
133 suspended material present in the sample interval, at the moment of sample collection
134 or a period surrounding sample collection.

135 ❖ **Equilibrium Samplers (Section 5.2):** Devices that rely on diffusion and equilibrium
136 of the chemicals/parameters into the collecting medium for the sampler to reach
137 equilibrium between the sample and the sample medium. Samples are time-weighted

138 toward conditions at the sampling point during the latter portion of the deployment
139 period. The degree of weighting depends on chemical and device-specific diffusion
140 rates.

141 ❖ **Accumulation Samplers (Section 5.3):** Devices that generally rely on diffusion and
142 sorption, absorption, or precipitation to accumulate chemicals/parameters in the
143 sampler. Accumulation devices concentrate the target chemical on a selective
144 collecting medium such as an adsorbent or absorbent solid, a solvent or chemical
145 reagent (ITRC 2023). Target molecules continue to accumulate on the collecting
146 medium during the exposure period and do not come to concentration equilibration
147 with the surrounding medium (ITRC 2023). Samples are a time-integrated
148 representation of conditions at the sampling point over the entire deployment period.
149 The accumulated mass and duration of deployment are used to calculate chemical
150 concentrations in the sampled medium over the exposure period. Accumulation
151 samplers are also sometimes referred to as integrative or kinetic samplers.

152 In addition to the Passive Sampling Technologies this document also discusses the
153 following three Non-Passive Sampling Technologies that are summarized below and
154 further discussed in Section 6. These non-passive samplers do not collect true passive
155 samples because they induce active media transport.

156 ❖ **Syringe Samplers (Section 6.1):** Devices designed to capture a groundwater sample
157 by grabbing a sample of the water and everything in the water at the sample interval
158 and isolating the sample to preserve the conditions at the selected depth. The sample
159 is collected without contact with air by precluding sample aeration and pressure
160 changes at the selected depth of sampling.

161 ❖ **Deep Discrete Interval Samplers (Section 6.2)** Devices designed to obtain
162 representative discrete groundwater samples from a specific sampling zone where the
163 sampler is activated, with limited drawdown and negligible agitation of the water
164 column.

165 ❖ **Horizontal Surface Water Interval Samplers (Section 6.3)** Devices designed to
166 collect surface water samples at a prescribed depth.

167 1.3 Passive Sampling vs. Active Sampling

168 In contrast to the passive sampling methodologies described within this document, active
169 sampling methods rely on the mechanical action of sampling equipment to draw the medium
170 and chemicals into the sampling device, causing deviations from the natural flow or ambient
171 conditions. Active sampling methods are sometime thought of as traditional methods because
172 they have been in use prior to the use of passive sampling methods. Traditional active
173 sampling methods generally require a power source, such as gasoline generator or battery, for
174 the operation and a submersible or peristaltic pump for water sample acquisition. Active
175 methods by nature of changing the conditions in the sampling environment, affect sampling
176 results; utilizing a pump, vacuum, or physical removal method introduces variables (i.e.,
177 pumping rate and duration, criteria for stabilization prior to sample collection, and variability
178 in sampling equipment components between events) into the sample collection sequence that
179 may not be reproducible between sampling events and will influence the results obtained.
180 Passive sampling eliminates many of the active sampling variables by limiting the extent of
181 the sampling method's interaction with media and, thus, the potential to influence sample

182 results. The use of both types of samplers throughout the remedial phases of a project may
183 yield insightful results to understand in greater detail the fate and transport of compounds
184 through the medium under different conditions at a site. Passive sampling may then be used
185 to provide consistent sampling methodology during long-term monitoring programs from an
186 established sampling interval.

187 Passive sampling programs can result in a number of benefits including elimination of a
188 power source, reduction in investigation derived waste (IDW), less equipment, and fewer
189 personnel needed on site. These may also lead to the additional benefit of increased site
190 accessibility.

191 Similar to active sampling methods, passive sampling is a reproducible methodology that can
192 reassure samplers and regulators alike that the data obtained are a result of the environmental
193 conditions present. In addition, appropriate QA/QC procedures should be followed for all
194 sampling methods.

195 2. PASSIVE SAMPLING USE BY MEDIA

196 This ITRC Passive Sampling document details different passive sampling techniques across
197 multiple media. Different types of media require specific considerations and have their own
198 unique complications. The previous ITRC Passive Sampling documents identified passive
199 sampling techniques that were mostly applicable to groundwater. The types of media
200 discussed within this document are groundwater, surface water, porewater, sediment, soil
201 gas, indoor/outdoor air, soil, and NAPL.

202 2.1 Terminology

203 For the purposes of this document each medium is described as follows:

- 204 • **Groundwater** is described as water that can be found in the subsurface in the annular
205 spaces between soil, sand, and rock and is accessed by monitoring wells. While
206 groundwater does exhibit a flow direction, its velocities are typically much slower
207 than surface water.
- 208 • **Surface water** is described as permanent or reoccurring water open to the atmosphere
209 under either high-flow (rivers or streams) or low-flow (ponds, oceans, or lakes)
210 conditions. Surface water features are fed from a collection of sources, such as
211 groundwater exfiltration, upstream tributaries, precipitation, storm water runoff,
212 wastewater, or snowmelt. Surface water features can persist all year long, or in
213 shorter durations, such as seasonally or tidally. Surface water is primarily
214 differentiated from temporary stormwater features because it is not a direct result of a
215 single or short-term precipitation event. While the majority of surface water flows
216 towards oceans, it may also undergo infiltration into groundwater aquifers where the
217 ground surface is higher than the prevailing water table.
- 218 • **Porewater** in this document refers to sediment porewater rather than soil porewater.
219 In the context of this document, porewater is described as water located within the
220 pore spaces between sediment particles that may represent the mobile water
221 interacting between groundwater and surface water within permanent surface water
222 features or intermittently flooded features (such as seasonal streams, intertidal zones,
223 or stormwater swales/basins).

- 224 • **Soil** is described as a solid medium consisting primarily of inorganic particles (but
225 may contain organic matter, water, and air). Soil development involves time and a
226 stable ground surface (bedrock or unconsolidated material), differentiating it from
227 sediment.
- 228 • **Sediment** is described as a medium consisting of primarily solid minerals and/or
229 organic particles that are deposited as a result of water or wind transportation.
230 Sediments may be deposited at the bottom of permanent surface water features (such
231 as rivers or streams) or located along the surface of intermittently flooded features
232 (such as seasonal streams, intertidal zones, or stormwater swales/basins). Sediments
233 may be moved and deposited in new locations over short-term events, differentiating
234 it from soil that remains in one location.
- 235 • **Soil Gas (Soil Vapor)** is described as gaseous elements and chemicals that are
236 located in the spaces between soil particles within the vadose zone. The soil gas may
237 contain chemicals in a gaseous phase that are targeted for environmental
238 investigation.
- 239 • **Indoor Air** is described as the air present within buildings and structures that may be
240 closed or sealed from exterior air.
- 241 • **Outdoor Air** in this document refers to the air present exterior of the buildings and
242 structures or from within structures that cannot be sealed from external sources.
- 243 • **NAPL** is the acronym for Non-Aqueous Phase Liquid and refers to typically organic
244 liquids that are immiscible or not soluble in water. There are two types of NAPL:
245 Light Non-aqueous Phase Liquids (LNAPL), which are less dense than water, and
246 Dense Non-aqueous Phase Liquids (DNAPL), which are denser than water.

247 2.2 Media Conditions affecting Sampling Approach

248 Each medium is described by a specific set of physical conditions that affect the fate and
249 transport of chemicals within the medium. These physical conditions have to be considered
250 when trying to extract a sample that represents the temporal-spatial extent and concentrations
251 of the chemicals of interest. Some of these considerations affect decisions about the method
252 of acquiring a sample. The considerations below serve as examples to encourage
253 thoughtfulness about factors that can affect sample integrity on specific sites.

254 2.2.1 Groundwater Considerations

255 Technical Considerations

256 Groundwater flows directionally, at a slow rate, through a variable granular medium or
257 through cracks and fissures within a solid medium, at some depth below the ground
258 surface, frequently in defined geological strata. Because there is no direct access, a
259 conduit-like structure (i.e., a groundwater well) is typically required to provide access to
260 groundwater.

261 This combination of hydraulic, geologic, and well construction conditions influences the
262 transport of chemicals present in the soil and groundwater and whether a water sample
263 taken from a specific monitoring well represents the water quality in the target aquifer
264 (groundwater) or not. The location of the well casing and screen in relation to the

265 groundwater level, target aquifer, and aquifer flow conditions are factors for
266 consideration. Additionally, water in the blank casing is isolated from aquifer flow,
267 interacts with air in the casing, may further interact with well construction materials over
268 time, and it may be subject to leakage from surface runoff (*USEPA Ground Water Issue,*
269 *EPA/540/S-96/5045, Puls, Robert W., and Barcelona, Michael J., April 1996*).

270 Therefore, to optimize the conditions needed to collect a sample representing the aquifer,
271 the sampling device should be placed within the saturated portion of the screen of a cased
272 well or in the water-bearing interval of an open-borehole well in fractured bedrock
273 aquifers.

274 Allowing a sampling device to remain in the well until the well has returned to natural
275 flow conditions is called the Minimum Residence Time. This accounts for things such as
276 displacement, mixing, and is dependent on the rate of groundwater flow through the well.

277 **Vertical Interval Sampling Considerations**

278 Hydrogeologic conditions may cause variations in flow rates and/or geochemistry at
279 different vertical intervals when groundwater sampling. When hydrogeologic conditions
280 vary vertically within an aquifer it is possible that concentrations of targeted chemicals
281 may also vary with depth.

282 When active sampling methods are used, the concentration of chemicals in the sample
283 collected always represents a flow-weighted average across the length of the saturated
284 open interval (Imbrigiotta and Harte 2020, 202). While this is also generally true of
285 passive samples due to a typical condition of natural mixing within the saturated screen
286 interval, passive samples also can be said to represent the groundwater at the depth of
287 placement in the well (mixed or otherwise). In the case of horizontal flow through the
288 screen at that (passive-sample) interval, then the sample may represent the groundwater
289 at that same depth in the adjacent aquifer.

290 When sampling long-screen wells, known conditions may suggest the use of a vertical
291 flow meter and other geophysical logging tools to evaluate vertical flow and mixing in
292 the open interval and if passive samples may represent specific depths of the adjacent
293 aquifer. In this case, the well may be suitable for vertical profiling to determine optimum
294 sampler placement and to monitor discrete intervals. To determine the geochemical
295 variation over the open or screened interval of a well with longer screens, the ITRC
296 suggests the initial use of multiple passive samplers over the length of the saturated
297 screen to vertically and chemically profile the well. These chemical results, combined
298 with the borehole flow meter and geophysical logging results, can give a better idea of
299 what depth to deploy passive samplers during sampling events. Passive and active
300 samples from wells with shorter screen intervals (e.g., 10 feet or less) are generally
301 expected to provide similar results without the need for vertical profiling.

302 **Site Specific Considerations**

303 Site conditions vary widely and are important to consider prior to, and during,
304 groundwater sampling events because the conditions may affect the ability acquire a
305 representative sample, maintain personnel safety, and minimize the generation of waste
306 for disposal. While there are many additional considerations when setting up any

307 groundwater sampling program, the following are several examples of site-specific
308 conditions that may help determine whether or how to use passive sampling methods;

309 **Site Access:** If there are seasonal conditions, such as snow, ice, swampy, and tidal
310 conditions, that render the wells difficult to access, or limit the equipment that can be
311 delivered to the wells during certain times of the year, passive sampling may be desirable
312 because there can be less equipment involved and the equipment tends to be less bulky or
313 heavy than pumping equipment, making it easier to reach the site. High-traffic sites can
314 cause logistics problems, delays, and safety issues for personnel, so limiting the time and
315 equipment needed at the site by using passive sampling devices is often desirable.

316 **Water Level Changes:** If water levels fall or rise, the installed depth of passive samplers
317 may need to be adjusted so that the zone sampled by the passive device remains within
318 the saturated screen as conditions change. The length of saturated screen should be
319 reviewed to be sure the method can still obtain adequate sample volume. Consideration
320 should also be given to how the vertical change affects the source and flow of water
321 through the well since these may affect sample results. Active sampling methods may
322 produce samples that result in greater blend from a longer screen interval or a more
323 concentrated blend of water from a shorter interval. At sites with nearby pumping wells
324 or major surface water affecting groundwater, localized changes in groundwater flow
325 direction can result. Because passive samplers sample the water flowing through the well,
326 they can provide insights into chemical movement affected by the surrounding
327 conditions. Active sampling methods, like pumping, add another variable to where the
328 sample originates since they induce flow toward the well.

329 **Well Construction:** Will the type of sampling equipment fit within the constraints of the
330 well casing diameter, the depth from which the sample must be recovered, and required
331 sample volume? There are not many options for pumps that will fit wells smaller than 2-
332 inches in diameter, while there are a number of passive samplers that can be used in wells
333 as small as 1-inch diameter. As well sampling depths increase it becomes increasingly
334 difficult for pumps to lift water to the surface and may add to the type and cost of
335 sampling equipment required while most passive sampling methods simply require a
336 longer suspension tether and reel to hold the tether. Since passive samplers are limited to
337 the volume of water in the well and should only sample within the screen interval, the
338 length of saturated screen or water-producing fractured-bedrock interval in open-hole
339 wells should be determined before selecting the sampling method to be sure there is
340 adequate sample volume for the laboratory method. Laboratories should be contacted as
341 part of sampling design to determine the minimum sample volume that meets data quality
342 objectives (DQOs) so that passive samplers may be used, and the benefits may be
343 realized.

344 **Investigative Derived Waste (IDW) Disposal:** Local regulations and site capabilities
345 dictate how purge water from active sampling methods is disposed. If the wastewater is
346 regulated, as in the case of per- and polyfluorinated substances (PFAS), then the local
347 conditions favor using passive methods, which produce little or no contaminated purge
348 water.

349 2.2.2 Surface Water Considerations

350 Careful judgement must be used to balance safety precautions with sampling objectives
351 when developing and implementing surface water sampling strategies. Surface water
352 samples are typically collected by either (1) inserting or placing the sample bottle/jar
353 directly into the water body or (2) decanting water from a clean (i.e., contaminant free)
354 container such as a ladle, scoop, bottle, or bowl. The physical actions needed to collect
355 the sample may seem simple. However, accessing ideal/preferred sampling locations and
356 depth intervals needed to satisfy data objectives can often be dangerous or impractical
357 because of difficult and/or remote site conditions. This is because streams, rivers, and
358 lakes are often secluded and surrounded by uneven surfaces, steep/slippery slopes, steep
359 drop-off points, eroded banks, jagged rock piles, deep soft/muddy areas, sink hole- like
360 conditions, and other dangerous or unnavigable terrain. Water current can be a safety
361 hazard for medium to large rivers and streams. Other hazards may include watercraft
362 traffic, fencing, sharp surfaces or jagged edges from debris or structures, insects, snakes
363 or other wildlife, or property line / trespassing issues. For example, it can be difficult to
364 collect a surface water sample from the middle of a large wastewater settling
365 pond/impoundment that is hundreds of feet long and wide, has steep slippery walls
366 covered with an expensive liner fabric which has to be safeguarded to maintain liner
367 integrity, and the surface of the wastewater is over 30 feet below ground
368 surface/walkways around the pond. In this example, there is no easy or safe way to
369 deploy a boat to collect a sample further out than points along the sides of the
370 impoundment. Even collecting a sample from the water's edge would be a challenge
371 because of the slippery 30-foot drop with no proper footing that would allow samplers to
372 reach the surface of the pond without harnesses and/or attaching the sampling devices to
373 long poles that would increase the difficulty of the sampling task.

374 Other limitations of sampling approaches may be appropriate when sampling slow
375 moving water, fast moving water, or stagnant water. The sampling strategy must be
376 carefully orchestrated to collect samples that are representative of conditions that address
377 the sampling objectives. Logistics need to be planned and executed so that the sampling
378 team can obtain quality samples from various depth intervals and/or representative of
379 upstream/background water quality conditions. When the surface waters being sampled
380 are shallow enough to allow samplers to wade into the water, especially when there is
381 significant flow velocity, sampling should be performed carefully and methodically to
382 reduce disturbance of bottom sediments. If multiple samples are to be collected in a river
383 or stream, it is important to collect downstream locations first and move progressively
384 upstream to collect additional samples so that downstream locations are not affected by
385 suspended/disturbed upstream sediment material. If a river or stream is too deep to wade
386 and/or conditions are deemed unsafe, samples can be collected from an elevated platform
387 (bridge, retaining wall, etc.) or boat utilizing supplemental sampling equipment such as a
388 plastic bucket attached to a rope.

389 The logistics required to collect surface water samples for a particular project and
390 whether the samples collected are used for screening purposes or to obtain quantitative
391 data for site characterization will generally determine the most appropriate sampling
392 devices needed to satisfy the data quality objectives. A strong and dynamic project work
393 plan should identify strategic sampling locations that account for the site-specific
394 conditions and provide enough flexibility to allow field personnel to make changes that
395 account for unanticipated adverse conditions including variations in flow patterns, areas

396 of pooling/stagnant water, point-source discharges from adjacent/upstream locations, and
397 other unforeseen conditions that may influence or impact concentrations within
398 background and downstream locations. It is possible to select a sampling approach that
399 will help simplify the sample collection process and determine how intermediate steps
400 such as adding sample preservatives should be accomplished, thereby saving time, and
401 reducing hazards. There are many sampling devices available, including glass and plastic
402 bottles/containers, various /ladles/scoops, long handled and/or measuring cup type
403 devices, peristaltic pumps with tubing of various materials, and other specialty devices
404 such as Van Dorn samplers.

405 The three non-passive syringes and discrete/interval devices identified in Section 6.1 of
406 this document may be utilized if discrete depth interval sample collection is a priority for
407 a particular project to satisfy certain data objectives. While not considered truly passive,
408 these devices collect water samples without allowing the sample to contact air and
409 without any sort of purging process. Workplan development should consider limitations
410 on volume requirements. HydraSleeve and Snap Samplers can be utilized to obtain
411 representative samples from specific depth intervals in either very low velocity flowing
412 or in standing water conditions. Additionally, there are numerous equilibrium and
413 accumulation type passive sampling technologies that may be used to accomplish various
414 surface water sampling objectives, each with advantages and limitations that need to be
415 examined.

416 **2.2.3 Porewater Considerations**

417 On-site collection of sediment porewater is completed by wading into surface water
418 bodies, deployment by a diver, or from a platform or boat. Water currents and traversing
419 soft sediment surfaces are often primary concerns when wading into shallow water
420 bodies, and consideration should be taken when accessing sampling locations. Additional
421 health and safety considerations related to working in and around water bodies include
422 those described in the surface water section above such as accessing water bodies, boat
423 deployment considerations, biological hazards, and complying with local regulations. In
424 deeper waters, divers may be required for sample collection, but this adds additional
425 concerns for logistics as well as health and safety that are not discussed herein. When
426 wading into surface water bodies or collecting sediment samples, it is important to limit
427 disruption of bottom sediments, which may bias results. Enter the sampling area from a
428 downstream location and proceed upstream during sample deployment and/or collection.

429 In the case of having to revisit a location, whether it be to collect confirmatory samples or
430 retrieval of samplers, additional concerns may need to be addressed. Samplers may be
431 affected by boat traffic or human disturbance in the time between access events. It is
432 recommended that if there is a need to revisit a sampling location, careful consideration
433 be given to appropriate ways to mark the sampling location and protect it from external
434 hazards. It is recommended that an accurate GPS unit be used to record location area in
435 conjunction with flagging or marking of a sample location. Appropriate signage may be
436 used to warn potential visitors of the sampler with contact information.

437 Porewater sample collection may be completed to understand the interaction between
438 surface water and groundwater, to understand the bioavailable fraction of contaminants,
439 and to support ecological evaluations. Groundwater is generally low in dissolved oxygen

440 and enriched in inorganic solutes compared to surface water, so collection of physical and
441 chemical parameters is recommended to compare each aqueous media. A primary
442 consideration during porewater sample collection is surface water intrusion into the
443 sample. This is more of a concern for point samplers as passive samplers have time to
444 integrate ambient conditions over time, but it should be considered in all situations.
445 Surface water may infiltrate the sample if a preferential pathway is provided by the
446 sampling device. Mitigation strategies may be implemented such as use of a sampling
447 flange, especially if the target sampling interval is near the sediment surface. However,
448 investigators should confirm that sampler and flange construction material will not cross-
449 contaminate the sample. Aside from sampler or flange insertion, care should be taken to
450 avoid disturbing the sampling area as much as possible. Quality assurance/quality control
451 samples and background samples are another component of an investigation that should
452 be considered. Identifying locations for background and duplicate samples is a critical
453 part of determining the performance and validity of samplers during investigation or
454 remedial monitoring.

455 Porewater sampling data can be a tool used during an ecological evaluation to understand
456 the bioavailable fraction of contaminants. Typically, this bioavailable fraction provides a
457 stronger relationship (compared to bulk sediment) for predicting contaminant
458 concentrations in benthic receptors. This subsequently can influence cleanup decisions
459 and long-term monitoring at sediment sites.

460 **Ex-Situ vs In-Situ Porewater Sampling**

461 Freely dissolved concentrations (C_{free}) of hydrophobic organic compounds (HOCs) in
462 porewater represent the actual bioavailable fraction of those compounds and provide
463 useful information for risk assessment rather than bulk sediment/soil concentrations
464 (Imbrigiotta and Harte 2020) (USEPA, 2012). Polymeric sampling devices such as low-
465 density polyethylene (LDPE) and solid phase microextraction (SPME) fibers coated with
466 Polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS), and polyoxymethylene (POM) have been used to
467 determine C_{free} of HOCs in porewater. Most of the passive samplers discussed in this
468 document are deployed in environmental media in the field, which is called *in-situ*
469 deployment. For porewater sampling, in-situ deployment is preferred when it is critical to
470 understand the field conditions such as groundwater intrusion, currents, bioturbation,
471 depth-varying chemical concentration profiles, and sediment-water column gradients and
472 fluxes (Ghosh et al., 2014). However, achieving equilibrium by the in-situ approach is
473 often difficult for HOCs since the uptake kinetics of strongly hydrophobic organic
474 compounds to polymeric sampling devices are particularly slow.

475 Polymeric sampling devices can also be deployed under controlled laboratory settings to
476 determine C_{free} of HOCs, which is called *ex-situ* deployment. In the ex-situ deployment
477 approach, field-collected sediments or soils are brought to a laboratory, and polymeric
478 sampling devices are deployed under static or well-mixed conditions to attain equilibrium
479 partially or fully between the polymeric sampling devices and porewater. Ex-situ
480 sampling with well-mixed sediment slurry samples can achieve equilibrium more quickly
481 as compared to in-situ sampling, and it has been accepted for partitioning investigations,
482 treatability testing, and sediment toxicity assessment (Ghosh et al., 2014). Porewater
483 concentrations of HOCs based on in-situ and ex-situ sampling generally agreed within a
484 factor of two to three (Apell and Gschwend, 2016; Reininghaus et al., 2020). The ex-situ

485 deployment approach is simpler to perform but should be carefully planned and designed.
486 Key steps involved in performing ex-situ deployment of polymeric sampling devices are
487 described in detail elsewhere (Ghosh et al., 2014; Burgess et al., 2017; Michalsen et al.,
488 2020; Jonker et al., 2022).

489 Passive samplers described in this document for sediment porewater collection include a
490 variety of equilibration and accumulation samplers.

491 **2.2.4 Sediment Considerations**

492 As described in the above sampling considerations sections for surface water and
493 porewater sampling, similar health and safety concerns are applicable when collecting
494 sediment samples to support environmental investigation or remediation activities.
495 Accessing preferred sampling locations often poses logistical challenges including but
496 not limited to traversing across uneven or unnavigable surfaces, biological hazards,
497 transportation of materials required for sampling, and complying with applicable
498 regulations in and around water bodies. Prior to completion of sediment collection, a
499 formalized health and safety plan as well as a field sampling plan should be prepared to
500 address these considerations.

501 Sediment is often heterogenous, so a variety of factors should be considered when
502 determining appropriate sample depths and locations such as surface water flow rates,
503 tidal influence, physical and chemical properties of the sediments, and co-location of
504 other sampling media such as surface water or porewater. Investigators should also
505 consider project goals when collecting sediments – are targeted discharges or discrete
506 sample depths the focus of investigation versus understanding the greater ecological
507 system?

508 Tidal influences may provide areas of higher contamination due to the presence of
509 depositional or erosional environments, areas of sediment resuspension, and/or changes
510 in chemical solubility resulting from varying salinity in surface water. Coarser media
511 may not be representative of contaminant levels due to the physical properties of the
512 sediments. It is important to confirm with the regulatory agency if there are sediment
513 sample collection requirements such as grain size or total organic carbon analysis.

514 When collecting surface water and sediment concurrently, surface water samples should
515 be collected first to avoid cross-contamination from disturbed sediments during sampling
516 activities. In addition, samples should be collected from the most downstream location
517 first and continue sampling upstream. Care should be taken to minimize sediment
518 disturbance during discrete sample collection to avoid cross-contamination between
519 depths, and appropriate techniques should be chosen to reduce loss of finer-grained
520 sampling media during collection. In addition, sampling personnel should be sure that
521 any aqueous media entering the sample jar or bottle is representative of sediment
522 conditions and has not been “washed” during sample extraction by overlying water.

523 If sediment samples are composited from multiple depths or homogenized as part of
524 collection activities, considerations should include changes in chemical properties during
525 mixing, thorough homogenization of the sample, and appropriate decontamination
526 procedures.

527 The only passive sediment sampler that is described in this guidance document is the Dart
528 sampler, within Section 5.3.10.

529 **2.2.5 Soil Gas Considerations**

530 In assessing vapor intrusion at a site, it is common to complete subsurface soil gas
531 investigations. Whether using passive sampling devices or collecting subsurface vapor in
532 canisters, drilling is required to install a soil vapor point (temporary or extended use)
533 and/or monitoring well. As such, health and safety concerns should be addressed ahead of
534 time to ensure workers' safety and that subsurface utilities are not encountered during the
535 drilling and probe/well installation.

536 The overall costs and length of these investigations are also important considerations for
537 soil gas. Active methods can require well construction to be at least five feet below
538 ground surface (bgs) to ensure enough packing material can be installed and that ambient
539 air is not sampled through short circuiting. The active methods rely on pumps or vacuum
540 pressure from evacuated canisters tubing and fittings, which are susceptible to leakage.
541 Both the construction methods and required sampling equipment can have high costs and
542 take several mobilizations to complete characterization. Passive soil vapor sampling has
543 the potential to complete the lateral delineation of a contaminant plume at a reduced cost
544 and in less time. However, one must also consider vertical delineation of a contaminant
545 plume, for which active soil vapor sampling methods may be more appropriate.

546 The chemicals sampled as part of a site investigation need to be considered when
547 selecting a sampling method for soil gas. Passive samplers often have a much narrower
548 chemical list compared to canister samples. Analytical results obtained from passive
549 samplers require known sampling rates to back calculate soil vapor concentrations.
550 Careful consideration is needed to determine if the passive sampler has known uptake
551 rates for given COCs at a site. Additionally, environmental factors such as temperature,
552 humidity, wind speed, and barometric pressure, can influence sampling rates. These
553 environmental factors can positively or negatively affect sampling rates and thus impact
554 accuracy. It may be necessary to measure these environmental factors in the field to
555 determine if observed site conditions are comparable to laboratory conditions used to
556 develop sampling rates.

557 Compared to canisters, passive samplers are smaller and much easier to store, transport
558 to the field, and ship to a lab for analysis. Additionally, passive samplers are often easier
559 to deploy because they do not require power sources while sampling or field technician
560 oversight during collection.

561 **2.2.6 Indoor Air Considerations**

562 The same passive samplers can be used for soil gas and indoor air investigations,
563 sampler-specific considerations (e.g., chemical selection, cost savings, etc.) identified in
564 *Soil Gas Considerations* also apply to indoor air. Indoor air sampling does, however,
565 pose some unique challenges, including variability of contaminant concentrations, flow
566 and ventilation within a structure, background sources, and the added complication of
567 human tampering.

568 When assessing indoor air, many factors may influence contaminant concentrations
569 within a structure and create significant temporal variability. Temporal variability may

570 exist due to the structure's use by occupants, outside weather conditions, and/or Heating
571 Ventilation and Air Conditioning (HVAC) systems. Passive sampler deployment periods
572 can range from days to weeks, which may help to overcome this variability compared to
573 active/grab sampling methods. However, average concentrations representative of days to
574 weeks may not adequately reflect short-term concentration spikes that could have
575 toxicological significance for chemicals that represent short-term or acute exposure
576 concerns.

577 Similar to *Soil Gas Considerations*, contaminant uptake into passive samplers in an
578 indoor environment is also influenced by temperature, humidity, and air flow. These
579 factors are often influenced by how the building is used by occupants throughout a given
580 day and even an entire season. Changes in the operational use of an HVAC system,
581 frequency of doors and windows being opened, and changes in weather conditions can all
582 influence seasonal variation. Differences can also be observed during varying shifts (i.e.,
583 day versus night shifts) if processes change or even cease between shifts. It is important
584 to understand how these influencing factors may affect the sampling accuracy for the
585 passive sampler throughout the deployment period.

586 Indoor sources of chemicals being targeted may also provide an additional challenge
587 when performing an indoor air survey. Field personnel should always consider the
588 current building uses and perform building surveys that inventory all chemicals that are
589 currently in use at the facility. This can help identify indoor sources prior to sampling.

590 Passive sampling devices are discrete and inconspicuous compared to canisters, which
591 can reduce risk perception and tampering from building occupants. Small devices may go
592 unnoticed by occupants and therefore not cause workplace distractions or elevated risk
593 concerns. The added benefit of the passive sampling devices going unnoticed is that
594 occupants are less likely to tamper with the devices; however, the samplers are cheaper
595 than canisters so missing equipment is less of a cost burden.

596 **2.2.7 Outdoor Air Considerations**

597 Compared to most others, outdoor air is one of the most accessible media to sample.
598 There is no need for entering a structure (i.e., residential, commercial, and/or industrial
599 building), drilling into the subsurface, nor installing a conduit-like structure, like a soil
600 vapor probe or a groundwater monitoring well. In many cases, whether utilizing active or
601 passive sampling methods, all that is required is a sample collection device (i.e., a
602 passivated canister and flow controller for active or a sorbent tube for passive). However,
603 there are several considerations to keep in mind when both planning and collecting
604 outdoor air samples.

605 The primary considerations for outdoor air sampling pertain to the environmental settings
606 for where and when to collect. The three most common are wind direction, season, and
607 weather. One must consider the wind direction to ensure that outdoor air samples are
608 collected from upwind, downwind, and in some cases, crosswind locations. The season
609 should be considered in order to assess variability between the warmer and colder
610 months. Weather conditions may dictate if the sampling device(s) needs to be protected
611 from the elements (i.e., rain or snow), while conditions like barometric pressure may also
612 have an effect on analytical results.

613 When planning and implementing an outdoor air survey, the types of industries at or
614 around the sampling area must also be considered, as they may bias the analytical data.
615 For example, collecting an outdoor air sample in a highly industrial area where there is
616 constant trucking traffic may yield analytical data with higher concentrations of benzene.
617 This consideration should be evaluated in tandem with wind direction, so as to ensure
618 that samples are not being collected downwind of a facility that may release chemicals
619 into the air that could affect the data.

620 Health and safety conditions are another set of considerations that should be evaluated
621 when planning and/or implementing outdoor air sampling. If possible, one should have a
622 clear understanding of the potential hazardous chemicals that may be in the immediate
623 atmosphere at and around the sampling locations and ensure that they have the
624 appropriate PPE. Many outdoor air samples are also collected on the roofs of buildings,
625 for which, the field personnel should consider any additional PPE that may be needed.
626 Additionally, whether using an active or passive sampler, field personnel must make sure
627 to consider public perception and ease any safety concerns. These sampling devices are
628 not common in the everyday lives of most people and may more easily lead to fear and/or
629 curiosity.

630 Another set of considerations one must evaluate when planning and/or implementing an
631 outdoor air survey is the equipment to be used. As mentioned above, in some cases, only
632 an active or passive sampling device is required to collect outdoor air samples. However,
633 many projects require field personnel to collect field screening levels using various
634 monitoring devices (i.e., a photoionization detector or multi-gas meter). When monitoring
635 outdoor air for dust, field meters are typically the primary sampling method. One must
636 ensure that they have the proper monitoring device(s) for the task at hand and that said
637 devices are properly calibrated and charged. Additionally, one may have to consider
638 security equipment to prevent tampering. These may include a chain and lock, a
639 protective container, and simply caution tape. And in the case of inclement weather, field
640 personnel must consider what equipment will be needed to protect the sampling devices
641 from sun, precipitation, or even winds that bring a higher-than normal particulate level.

642 Outdoor air samples are often collected in tandem with indoor air samples to collect data
643 that may prove integral in evaluating vapor intrusion versus outdoor air
644 infiltration/background. It is important to consider the placement of outdoor air samples
645 in relation to the target building. Again, the wind direction becomes important for these
646 projects, as it is common protocol to collect outdoor air samples upwind, downwind, and
647 crosswind from the targeted building.

648 Passive sampling devices are discrete and inconspicuous compared to canisters, which
649 can reduce risk perception and tampering from the public. Small devices may go
650 unnoticed by the public and therefore not cause distractions or elevated risk concerns.
651 The added benefit of the passive sampling devices going unnoticed is tampering is less
652 likely to occur; however, the samplers are cheaper than canisters so missing equipment
653 is less of a cost burden.

654 **2.2.8 Soil Considerations**

655 Commonly, there are three types of soil samples: samples collected on the surface (0-6
656 inches below grade), shallow (up to 2 feet below grade), and samples collected at depth
657 (> 2 feet below grade). Surface soil samples are generally quick to prepare for the sample
658 collection, not as destructive to the site, and less costly. The process of collecting the at-
659 depth soil sample can be very expensive (equipment) and time consuming to prepare for
660 the collection. When planning a soil sampling event considerations such as soil lithology,
661 weather, site constraints, and equipment needed must also be accounted for.

662 Soil can be grouped into four main categories: coarse-grained soils (sands and gravels),
663 fine grained soils (silts and clays), organic soils, and peat. Each group of soil has its own
664 limitations and advantages when collecting surface and at depth soil samples. For
665 example, collecting a deep sample from a fine-grained soil can be difficult because the
666 soil might easily slide away / heave from the soil auger or soil collection sleeve/liner,
667 making collection at the desired depth time consuming and sometimes unlikely.

668 To collect soil at depth certain equipment is needed and site constraints might make this
669 hard to maneuver. Traditional soil sampling at depth would require large equipment like a
670 drill rig. This can make the sampling of certain locations difficult because of the space
671 needed to operate the equipment.

672 **2.2.9 NAPL Considerations**

673 Although passive samplers can be used for NAPL collection, they do not provide a
674 general advantage over non-passive methods, such as bailers. One exception would be
675 collection of NAPL-impacted soil for NAPL characterization testing that requires the
676 preservation of the physical or geochemical properties of the media.

677 For NAPL in soil, an undisturbed section of the soil column would be important to
678 retrieve to complete characterization of the NAPL mobility or transmissivity within the
679 unconsolidated material. While standard soil-collection methods can produce NAPL
680 samples, the collection of soil that has not been disturbed by mechanical forces is
681 important to retain the precise properties observed in situ.

682 There are also passive means of detecting NAPL in boreholes. The Ribbon NAPL
683 sampler can be deployed to boreholes to assist in detecting NAPL. The FLUTE™
684 Profiler can also be used in open boreholes to detect NAPL. However, these technologies
685 are not quantitative and are generally restricted for use in direct sensing during site
686 characterization activities. See ITRC's document [on Advanced site characterization tools \(ASCTs\)](#)
687 for more information on these types of direct sensing tools.

688 When NAPL is present in association with groundwater or surface water, caution should
689 be taken in the use of passive samplers, as is the case with non-passive samplers, due to
690 potential interference/contamination of the sampler or media being tested. Non-passive
691 methods used in the collection of a NAPL sample from a monitoring well or surface
692 water are discussed in **Section 6**.

693 The table below includes a comprehensive list of passive sampling devices, the type of
694 sampling technology and the applicable media.

695

Table 2 1: *Passive Samplers by Media Type*

Sampling Device	Technology Type	Groundwater	Surface Water	Pore-Water	Sediment	Soil Gas	Indoor Air	Outdoor Air	Soil	NAPL
HydraSleeve	Grab	●	●							
Snap Sampler	Grab	●	◐							
Thin-Walled Soil Samplers	Grab								●	◐
Passive Diffusion Bag (PDB)	Equilibration	●	●	●						
Dual Membrane Passive Diffusion Bag Sampler (DMPDB)	Equilibration	●	●	●						
Nylon Screen Passive Diffusion Sampler (NSPDS)	Equilibration	●	●	●						
Peeper Sampler	Equilibration	●	●	●						
Regenerated Cellulose Dialysis Membrane Sampler (RCDM)	Equilibration	●	●	●						
Rigid Porous Polyethylene Sampler (RPPS)	Equilibration	●	◐	◐						
Ceramic Filter	Equilibration	●	●	●						
Polymeric Sampling Devices	Equilibration	●	●	●		●	●	●		
PISCES Sampler	Accumulation		●							
AGI Universal Sampler	Accumulation	●	●	●		●	●	●		
Polar Organic Chemical Integrated Sampler (POCIS)	Accumulation	●	●	●						
Sentinel	Accumulation	●	●	●						
Semipermeable Membrane Devices (SPMD)	Accumulation	●	●	●		●	●	●		
DGT Sampler	Accumulation	●	●	●						
Min Traps	Accumulation	●								
Radiello Sampler	Accumulation	●	◐			◐	●	●		
Waterloo Membrane Sampler	Accumulation					●	●	●		
Beacon Sampler	Accumulation					●	●	●		
Dart Sampler	Accumulation				●				●	●
Fossil Fuel Traps	Accumulation					●				●
Bio-Trap Sampler	Accumulation	●	◐							

696 **Table Key:**697  = Primary application of technology698  =Secondary application of technology

699 *Note These sampling devices are not passive sampling devices because they cause flow toward
700 the sampling device when activated. They are included for discussion because they recover a
701 fixed-volume sample, which, depending on the medium and the sample volume, may meet
702 certain project sampling objectives.

703 **2.2.10 Contaminant Sampling Considerations**

704 As with any sampling method, it is important to keep in mind the compatibility between
705 the chemical and the sampling equipment. It is not uncommon for investigators to have to
706 adapt sampling techniques and materials based on the contaminant of concern. For
707 example, PTFE containing materials should not be used when sampling for PFAS. In
708 situations where certain chemicals may adsorb to the sampler material it is possible that
709 the sample may be biased low. In cases where certain chemicals adsorbing to the sampler
710 could cause cross-contamination, incorporating single-use materials may be a mitigation
711 strategy to reduce that risk.

712 **3. REGULATORY ACCEPTANCE**

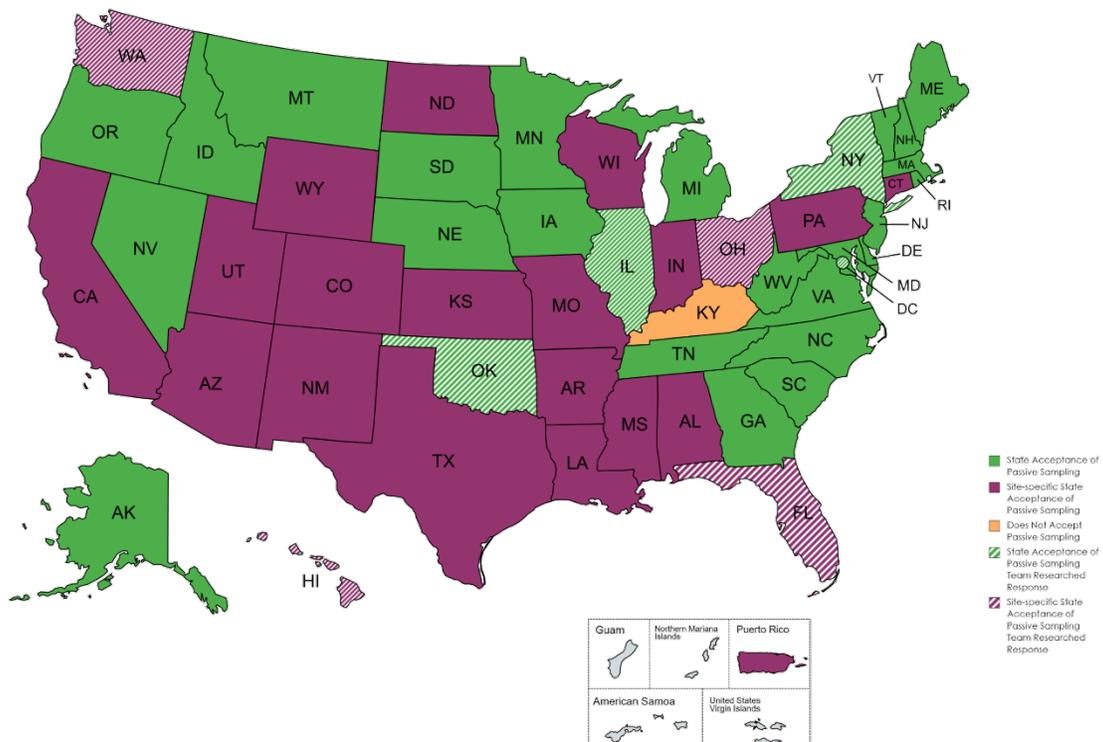
713 Over the past 20+ years, passive sampling technologies have become more commonplace in the
714 United States and other countries as research has advanced and technologies have been used in
715 practical settings. As passive sampling has been adopted more frequently, and with the
716 increasing number of contaminants of emerging concern, there has been an increase in the
717 number and type of passive sampling devices that are commercially available and in use for
718 collecting samples from different media. In the United States, at the federal level, passive
719 sampling data is accepted in decision-making in the U.S. EPA's Superfund Program at
720 contaminated sediment sites. Specifically, passive sampling has been used in several phases of
721 the remediation process at over 20 sediment sites around the United States. In contrast, passive
722 sampling of ground water contaminants at Superfund sites is less developed and its use would
723 require site-specific review and acceptance. Similarly, regulatory acceptance of passive sampling
724 methods varies substantially by state, regulatory group within each state, sampled media, and
725 other factors.

726 Unfamiliarity or misconceptions about the technologies, their use, or the state of the science can
727 lead to a reluctance by regulators and other stakeholders to accept the use of passive sampling
728 technologies in practical applications. Even in states where passive sampling is commonplace
729 within one department or for one application, it may be discouraged, or not allowed for use in
730 others. Lack of information sharing within or between organizations has resulted in a wide
731 disparity in regulatory approaches and requirements for the use of passive sampling
732 technologies. In some cases, limiting regulatory language, often written in previous years, around
733 legacy methods, may even discourage, or altogether disallow, the use of data collected using
734 passive sampling in decision-making processes. As part of preparing this updated guidance,
735 ITRC surveyed state regulators with respect to current regulatory language surrounding passive
736 sampling technology use and deployment.

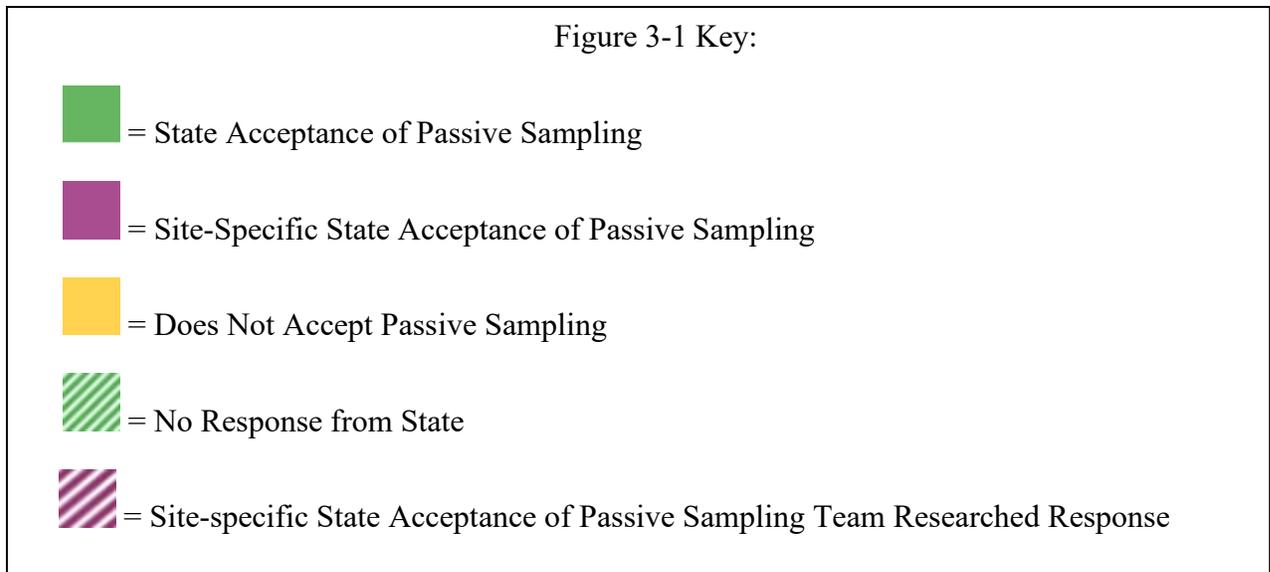
737 Using passive sampling methods can benefit both the regulated community and regulators as
738 well. Passive sampling technology is often more representative of site conditions across multiple
739 media compared with active sampling methods, allows for more efficient high-resolution
740 characterization (interval sampling and rapid data collection), and uses methods that have
741 undergone rigorous review through the scientific community. When deployed for long-term
742 monitoring programs, the ease of use for passive sampling can allow for less variability in results
743 due to small variations in sampling methodology and gives greater confidence that changes in
744 data over time reflect actual changes in conditions rather than sampling variability. For some
745 media, sampling events can be completed more quickly using passive sampling methods,
746 providing a consistent snapshot of site conditions. Additionally, since the use of passive
747 sampling in investigation and long-term monitoring can be more cost-effective and labor
748 efficient than active methods, the regulated community has greater resources available at hand to
749 focus on completing remediation efforts. Incorporating high-resolution sampling, which can be
750 completed using passive sampling programs for some media, allows for defensible and cost-
751 effective remedy development overall.

752 To better understand the need for passive sampling guidance ITRC surveyed state regulators
753 with respect to current regulatory language surrounding passive technology use and whether
754 passive sampling technologies are employed in their states. The results of that survey are
755 summarized below.

756 *Figure 3- 1: Passive Sampling Regulatory Acceptance State Map*



757



758

759 Some of the common concerns among regulators are discussed in the subsections below. To
 760 support state regulators in the decision-making process surrounding passive sampling
 761 technology, Appendix TBD provides answers to a list of frequently asked questions and indicates
 762 where additional detail can be found in this document.

763 3.1 Site Specific Regulatory Program Concerns

764 Compliance monitoring in many states relies upon meeting specific regulatory levels.
 765 Generally, site specific contamination is measured through grab or single point of time
 766 sampling. Many regulatory programs have little to no guidance and/or user experience with
 767 passive sampling technology. Regulatory use of passive samplers can include, but is not
 768 limited to, their use during investigative stages, compliance monitoring and meeting closure
 769 requirements.

770 Some of the common concerns within the regulatory community are discussed below.

- 771 • Whether chemicals effectively move within the medium under natural (passive)
 772 conditions so that a sample taken at one location represents the spatial-temporal
 773 concentrations of target chemicals in the surrounding medium. These concerns tend to
 774 center around contaminant transport, for example, whether natural groundwater flow
 775 through a well carries chemicals.
- 776 • through the well at the same concentrations found in the larger aquifer.
- 777 • Whether the mechanism of the sampler, for example diffusion through a membrane
 778 or grabbing from a column, acquires a representative sample of the specific
 779 chemicals.
- 780 • Less frequently, questions arise about whether external factors, such as biofouling,
 781 scaling, or sediment load, will affect sample validity.
- 782 • When a transition from active methods to passive sampling is proposed for a site,
 783 there can be questions about how to compare results from passive sampling to

784 historical data, or what to expect from results on new sites. For example, how does a
785 flow-weighted average (pumped) sample compare to an instantaneous (grab) sample,
786 or a time weighted average (equilibrated diffusion) sample, or a time integrated
787 (accumulation) passive sample?

788 This document provides guidance based on data from research and case studies to address
789 these concerns, to suggest when, where and how to use passive samplers, and to support
790 the use of passive sampling methods when used appropriately.

791 **3.2 Technology Acceptance**

792 Regulators may be reluctant to accept passive methods due to a perception that the
793 technology is new or untested. Individuals or organizations may apply an unfavorable
794 experience with one passive technology to their views of all passive technologies, perceive a
795 deficiency or uncertainty around sampling results, or have concerns about the consequences
796 of changing methodologies. In reality, each passive sampling technology and specific device
797 has its own history of use and applicability, and many have been in use for more than 20
798 years. Rigorous testing of these technologies has taken place before they become
799 commercially available and, in many cases, examples of their use and data available from the
800 application of passive technologies is readily available.

801 While the data collected using passive sampling devices may differ slightly from data
802 collected using traditional sampling methods, properly designed sampling programs with
803 appropriately deployed devices will result in scientifically valid data demonstrating a level of
804 precision and accuracy to meet performance standards for decision making. This document
805 provides case studies and general use guidelines to support acceptance of passive sampling
806 with the latest information available.

807 **3.3 Acceptance Varies by Media**

808 The interconnection and coordination of environmental regulations across media (e.g., water,
809 soil, sediment, and air etc.) and regulatory groups differ significantly state-to-state. As such,
810 the use of passive sampling technology may vary accordingly for different media and
811 different applications in different places. Regulations governing multi-media investigations
812 and remediation may differ from those governing routine monitoring. Further, the use of
813 passive sampling for these different media can vary greatly, even across regulatory groups.
814 Similarly, regulations for surface water sampling may vary considerably from those
815 governing air or groundwater, each with its own barriers or flexibilities toward passive
816 technology use. This document is intended to support the entire regulatory community,
817 regardless of media or specific application to help provide the technical basis for decision
818 making surrounding the use of passive sampling technology.

819 **3.4 Remedial Phase Acceptance**

820 Passive sampling techniques that are acceptable for collecting data throughout the entire
821 remedial process including site remedial characterization and monitoring, human health or
822 ecological risk assessments, remedial action performance monitoring, long-term monitoring,
823 and site closure activities varies by state. It is best to check your state's guidance and contact
824 the regulatory program when considering passive sampling use for a specific remedial phase.

825 **3.5 Performance Standard Acceptance/Approval**

826 For states where the responsible party and the consultant are required to obtain written
827 approval from regulatory environmental agency prior to the implementation of remedial
828 activities, the environmental consultants typically contact the assigned regulatory case
829 manager for the site and/or the applicable regulatory agency program director to obtain
830 approval to change data collection methods. Further details for regulatory approval are
831 presented in Section 3.6.

832 For states with a regulatory program that is performance and/or voluntary-based, where the
833 regulatory state environmental agency delegates and/or relies on the environmental decision
834 made by a licensed professional in that state, the licensed site professional needs be able to
835 demonstrate that the use of passive sampling technologies meets the states' performance
836 standards during remedial activities. See Section 4 for comparison methods that can be
837 helpful when analyzing and evaluating data from different methods when considering
838 transition. In these states, the regulatory environmental agency typically performs periodic
839 reviews and audits of report submittals certified by the licensed professional and responsible
840 party performing the environmental work, and receives all documents associated with
841 regulatory site closure requests.

842 The licensed professional and/or environmental consultant needs to properly design sampling
843 programs (active and/or passive) with appropriately deployed devices. They should
844 demonstrate that the data collection methods are scientifically valid and defensible, and the
845 level of precision and accuracy commensurate with the intended use and meets performance
846 standards for decision making. The licensed professional and/or environmental consultant
847 can rely on published and unpublished methods, sampling-device manufacturer studies, case
848 studies, and/or site-specific data to demonstrate that passive sampling is representative of site
849 conditions. Prior to the transition to a new method, your state should be consulted if
850 preapproval is required.

851 **3.6 Prior Regulatory Approval**

852 Due to the highly site-specific challenges across environmental sites, it is good practice to
853 contact the state regulatory program when considering passive sampling or switching from
854 active to passive sampling at individual projects. Each regulatory program may have policies,
855 guidance, or standard operating procedures that explain the use (or non-use) of passive
856 sampling technologies within their respective programs. Including the regulatory team early
857 in your project can address any regulatory conditions or approvals that may be required.
858 Depending on the state your project is located in, additional concurrence from the regulatory
859 agency may be required prior to using passive sampling. Some states have little to no
860 restrictions on the use of passive sampling. Other states have some limitations for the
861 application of the data collected from passive sampling devices or restrict the use of devices
862 to certain phases. (See Figure 3-1 for a map of states and their approach to the use of passive
863 sampling.) The regulatory agency may typically require documentation to demonstrate that
864 the data collected by the passive sampling devices are representative of the conditions of the
865 actual media and is better than or comparable to other methods of sampling. The review team
866 may require side-by-side comparisons of both active and passive sampling data, or a review
867 of data collected and criteria for passive sampling data to meet the applicable state regulation
868 performance standard. The data comparison methods (**Section 4.0**) provide guidance on how
869 to present site data to support a change to passive sampling methods.

870 4. DATA COMPARISON METHODS

871 The key concerns when changing site sampling methods are whether the results acquired using
872 the new method will be substantially the same as those acquired by the previously used and
873 accepted method and whether the regulators will accept results acquired by the passive sampling
874 method. Different media can be sampled via passive sampling. Groundwater sampling is subject
875 to the most constraints when evaluating and comparing the data collected. However, many of the
876 considerations and methods described in this section could be applied across all media.

877 4.1 Site Data Quality Objectives

878 Before undertaking an evaluation of the results between sampling methods, the site DQOs
879 should be reviewed to determine how the sampling results are used in site decision making,
880 the key points of comparison between the existing and new method, and what the regulators
881 want to see to allow a change in sampling method. In most cases it is a simple process to
882 discuss the evaluation objectives with the regulators up front so that criteria can be developed
883 prior to beginning an evaluation.

884 4.1.1 Project-Specific Criteria

885 Methods used to compare the data should be based on project objectives. For example:

- 886 • If the groundwater sample data are being used to determine whether, or to what
887 extent, a site has specific chemicals, the comparison may be focused on whether
888 both techniques indicate similar concentrations at low levels across a wide range
889 of chemicals.
- 890 • If the data are part of a long-term monitoring program, the comparison may be
891 specific to whether the different sampling methods lead to the same decision,
892 based on exceedance of regulatory screening levels or criteria for a known set of
893 chemicals.
- 894 • A comparison of monitoring data at an active remediation site may be more
895 directed toward the general changes and trends in the concentration of a limited
896 number of chemicals within a treatment area, rather than having agreement on
897 achieving low levels.

898 4.1.2 Field Data Collection Requirements

899 Field data collected on site can be used to compare and support the method transition.
900 Sampling results should be evaluated in the context of other field factors that can
901 influence your sample results. A project-specific plan should consider site-specific field
902 data and information that will help inform whether data variability may be attributable to
903 factors other than the change in method. Following QA/QC procedures may help account
904 for some of these factors. Factors that should be considered include:

- 905 • Physical factors: groundwater elevation, well/ probe construction details, tidal
906 influences, seasonality, sampling depth, weather conditions
- 907 • Geochemical factors: medium temperature, pH, turbidity, oxidation reduction
908 potential (ORP), aerobic/anaerobic conditions, dissolved gases

- 909 • Other factors: vandalism, user experience, equipment malfunction, equipment
910 fouling.

911 **4.2 Results Comparison Methods**

912 Below are three techniques for comparing results that can be effective when considering
913 changing sampling methods.

914 1. Historical Comparison: Sample using the proposed (passive) technique and compare the
915 results to historical data. This is the least costly method of comparison and may be
916 suitable when there is long-term, consistent, and stable data available.

917 2. Bracketed Comparison: Sample some of the locations by alternating between the
918 proposed (passive) and current (active) sampling methods for three or more rounds of
919 sampling. This strategy provides results from the passive method that are “bracketed”
920 between two active sampling results occurring before and after the passive result. While
921 samples are not taken contemporaneously, changes in detected chemicals or
922 concentration trends may be noted and evaluated. This method takes longer but is less
923 costly than side-by-side evaluations.

924 3. Side-by-side Comparison: The proposed (passive) and the current (active) methods are
925 performed sequentially during a single sampling event to ensure equivalent sample
926 conditions. The passive sampler should be deployed in advance of the scheduled
927 sampling event (to account for sufficient minimum residence time). On the sampling
928 date, the passive sampler is recovered and immediately after, the active method is
929 implemented, and a sample is collected. Due to the collection and analysis of two
930 samples, this comparison method will be more costly. Because of time and cost
931 considerations, side-by-side evaluations for groundwater monitoring are usually
932 employed at a representative set of wells, rather than all the wells.

933 When conducting side-by-side comparisons of active sampling to passive sampling
934 methods, similar results would be expected in wells with 5 to 10-foot screens, unless
935 there were exceptional hydrogeologic differences in the borehole. As screens get longer
936 than 10 feet and the hydrogeologic or geochemical conditions vary, results may vary
937 somewhat between active and passive methods. When site objectives are required, the
938 differences in results can usually be explained by further study of the local hydrogeologic
939 and geochemical conditions.

940 **4.3 Statistical Comparisons**

941 What statistical methods will be employed to compare each data pair?

942 The USGS provides guidance on how to evaluate the data from a side-by-side sampling
943 event, suggesting the following general guidelines for acceptable Relative Percent
944 Differences (RPD) between sample concentrations (Imbrigiotta, T.E., and Harte, P.T.,
945 2020):

- 946 • RPD up to +/- 25% VOCs & trace metal concentrations $\geq 10\mu\text{g/L}$
947 • RPD up to +/- 50% for VOC & trace metal concentrations $< 10\mu\text{g/L}$
948 • RPD up to +/-15% major cations & anions concentrations mg/L range

949 RPD is a common statistical tool used to compare two data points in side-by-side sampling
950 evaluations. Lower RPDs mean the two data points are similar. RPDs begin to fail as a
951 practical comparison when concentrations are low. For example, comparing 2 ug/L to 5 ug/L
952 is only a difference of 3 ug/L, which for many regulated chemicals would not be a significant
953 difference that leads to different site decisions. In this example, the calculated RPD is an
954 unacceptable 86%. Therefore, in these cases of low concentration results, other statistical
955 methods or techniques may be appropriate.

956 The USGS publication also states “one of the more effective ways to compare concentration
957 results” is to plot the data on a 1:1 correspondence on an X-Y plot with the passive results on
958 one axis and the active results on the other axis (Imbrigiotta, T.E., and Harte, P.T., 2020).
959 Additionally, “if the two sampling methods collect the same concentrations, the points will
960 plot on or close to the 1:1 correspondence line” (Imbrigiotta, T.E., and Harte, P.T., 2020).
961 Outliers may represent well-specific anomalies such as turbidity.

962 **4.4 Other Comparison Considerations**

963 There are a few things that should be considered when comparing the results from your
964 sampling events.

- 965 1. Do the data appear to follow the trend from the past several active sampling events?
- 966 2. Are there any field notes, such as “high turbidity” or “well pumped dry” that might
967 point to localized well influences?
- 968 3. Do the passive sampling results lead to the same site decisions as the historical data?
- 969 4. If multiple passive samplers were used to profile a well, are the results from the
970 samplers similar to each other? If not, do the active sampling results fall somewhere
971 between the points? For long-screen wells are additional considerations or analysis
972 needed.
- 973 5. For example, if multiple passive samplers were used to profile a well, are the results
974 from the samplers similar to each other? If not, do the active sampling results fall
975 somewhere between the points?
- 976 6. Were equivalent QA/QC methods employed for all methods being compared?
- 977 7. If comparison of results is favorable, what other practical considerations for the
978 different methods might be relevant to evaluate for your site (i.e., safety,
979 cost/efficiency, equipment and staffing needs, sustainability, IDW management)?

980 **5. PASSIVE SAMPLING TECHNOLOGIES**

981 The passive samplers in the previous ITRC documents (ref) were classified on the basis of
982 sampler mechanism and nature of the collected sample, as follows:

- 983 • Grab sampler: Devices that recover a grab well water sample.
- 984 • Equilibrium sampler: Devices that rely on diffusion of the analytes for the sampler to
985 reach and maintain equilibrium with the sampled medium.
- 986 • Accumulation sampler: Devices that rely on diffusion and adsorption to accumulate
987 analytes in the sampler.

988 Over the last few decades, a variety of passive samplers have been developed and applied to
989 measure chemical concentrations in different media. The classification of passive samplers
990 slightly varies among different documents depending on the focus of the documents. For
991 example, the focus of the previous ITRC documents was on passive sampling of groundwater in
992 monitoring wells. As noted in the Introduction, the scope of this new guidance document is
993 expanded to incorporate passive sampling of other media.

994 In this new guidance document, the three different classification names adopted in the previous
995 ITRC documents are maintained for consistency and simplicity, but their definitions have been
996 slightly modified to be accurate in terms of sampler mechanisms and consistent with other
997 references.

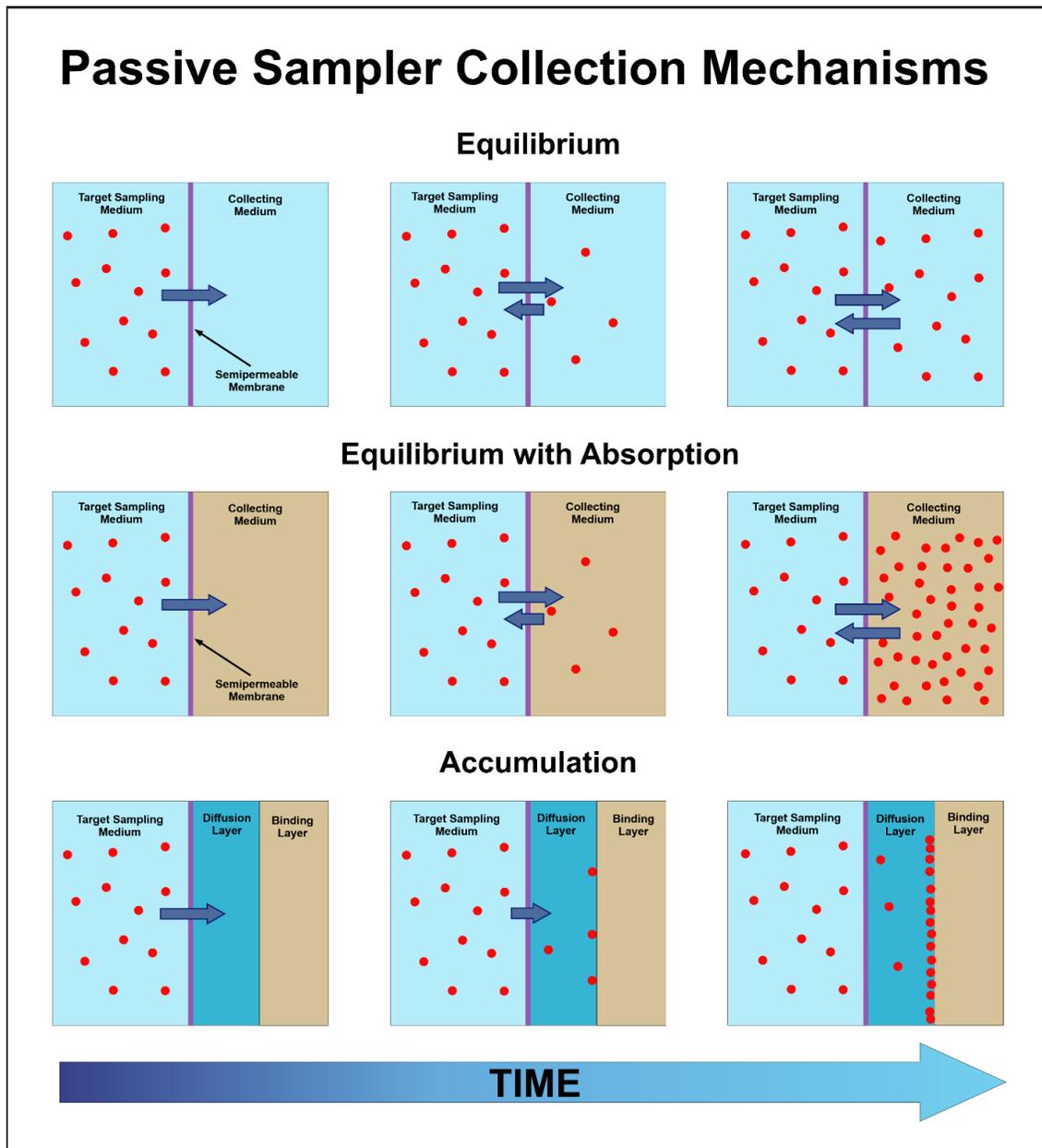
998 **EQUILIBRIUM SAMPLERS**

999 Equilibrium samplers such as the Passive Diffusion Bag (PDBs), Nylon Screen Passive
1000 Diffusion Sampler (NSPDS), Rigid Porous Polyethylene Sampler (RPPS), Regenerated
1001 Cellulose Dialysis Membrane Sampler (RCDM), Dual Membrane PDBs (DMPDBs),
1002 Regenerated Cellulose Dual Membrane PDBs (RC-DMPDBs), and Peepers rely on diffusion of
1003 chemicals from the surrounding water, through a semipermeable membrane(s), into a collecting
1004 medium inside the samplers. In these samplers the collecting medium is deionized water. When a
1005 concentration gradient exists between the water inside the membrane and the water outside the
1006 membrane, diffusion of chemicals through the membrane eventually results in concentration
1007 equilibrium on both sides. Because the collecting medium in the sampler is the same as the
1008 surrounding environment, the concentration of chemicals in the sampler will be equivalent to the
1009 concentration outside the sampler when equilibrium is reached. The selection of membrane type
1010 and pore size determines which chemicals can be successfully sampled. The standard PDB, for
1011 example uses a single LDPE membrane and can only sample for non-polar VOCs.

1012 The equilibrium samplers used to measure inorganic chemicals, metals, and polar organic
1013 compounds in water (e.g., NSPDs, RPPs, RCDMs, DMPDBs, RC-DMPDBs, Peepers) utilize
1014 semipermeable membranes with larger pores or different membrane characteristics than the
1015 LDPE-based PDB. These membranes allow inorganic chemicals, metals, and polar organic
1016 compounds to pass through and diffuse into the water inside the samplers, shown in the top row,
1017 *Equilibrium*, (Figure 5-1). In some devices the pores do not exclude water molecules, allowing
1018 any chemicals in the water, along with suspended material smaller than the pores, to diffuse into
1019 and out of the sampler.

1020

Figure 5- 1: figure used with permission



1021

1022 The deployment periods (residence time) necessary for equilibrium samplers to reach
 1023 concentration equilibrium varies by chemical and by sampled medium. In groundwater
 1024 monitoring wells, allowance is made for the time it takes for the groundwater flow to return to its
 1025 natural flow and refresh the well and for the time it takes for concentration equilibrium to be
 1026 reached. A conservative minimum residence time of 14 days is often recommended for these
 1027 samplers to reach concentration equilibrium in groundwater. Once one of these equilibrium
 1028 samplers reaches concentration equilibrium, it will reflect the chemical concentrations of the
 1029 sampled medium during the previous 1 to 5 days of residence time.

1030 Because equilibrium samplers maintain dynamic equilibration, i.e., they continually adjust to the
1031 surrounding concentration changes, it is common practice to leave the samplers in place beyond
1032 the minimum residence time and collect them at the next sampling event to eliminate a separate
1033 field mobilization for deployment of samplers.

1034 When it is expected that the type of diffusion sampler selected and the deployment time will not
1035 allow the sampler to reach equilibrium, reverse tracers (often referred to as performance
1036 reference compounds (PRCs)) can be used to evaluate the fractional state of equilibrium
1037 achieved during deployment (Equation 1). For example, a bromide tracer is commonly used as a
1038 PRC for NSPDs and Peepers, and the sample collection medium is spiked with the tracer at a
1039 known concentration inside the sampler (Risacher et al., 2023). During the residence time, the
1040 PRCs diffuse out of the sampler at a known rate, sometimes called the dissipation rate, to
1041 correspond to the uptake rate of a target analyte, assuming isotropic exchange kinetics (Ghosh et
1042 al., 2014). For example, when the concentration of a PRC in a NSPD sampler is decreased from
1043 100 mg/L to 50 mg/L during deployment, one can infer that a target chemical reached 50% of
1044 equilibration. The concentration of any known background chemical should be considered if
1045 those background chemicals are the same as the PRC used in the sampler.

1046 PRCs should be analytically noninterfering and have similar diffusivity as target analytes.

Equation 1

$$f_e = 1 - \frac{C_t}{C_0}$$

where:

f_e = fraction of equilibrium (-)

C_t = concentration of PRC in passive sampler at time t

C_0 = initial concentration of PRC in passive sampler

1047

1048 The mechanisms of the equilibrium samplers discussed above are relatively simple and
1049 intuitively understandable. Simply, chemicals diffuse from the surrounding water with higher
1050 concentrations to the water inside the sampler with lower concentrations due to concentration
1051 gradients and eventually reach equilibrium over time between the two aqueous phases.

1052 Other passive equilibrium samplers use a collection medium that is different than the sampled
1053 medium. These may be non-aqueous organic solvents, or solid-phase, polymer materials that
1054 come to equilibrium with the sampled medium over time. A chemical diffuses and is absorbed
1055 into polymer or organic solvent and concentrates in the material until equilibrium is reached.
1056 When different phases are involved, chemical partitioning occurs in which the chemical
1057 concentration in the sampled medium will be different than the chemical concentration in the
1058 sampling medium, at equilibrium. The partitioning coefficient expresses the ratio of
1059 concentrations of a chemical in two different phases at equilibrium. The ratio of target chemical
1060 molecules inside the sampler compared to target chemical molecules in the target medium may

1061 not be 1:1 when the collecting medium is not the same as the sampled medium, though the ratio
1062 will remain constant once equilibrium has been reached.

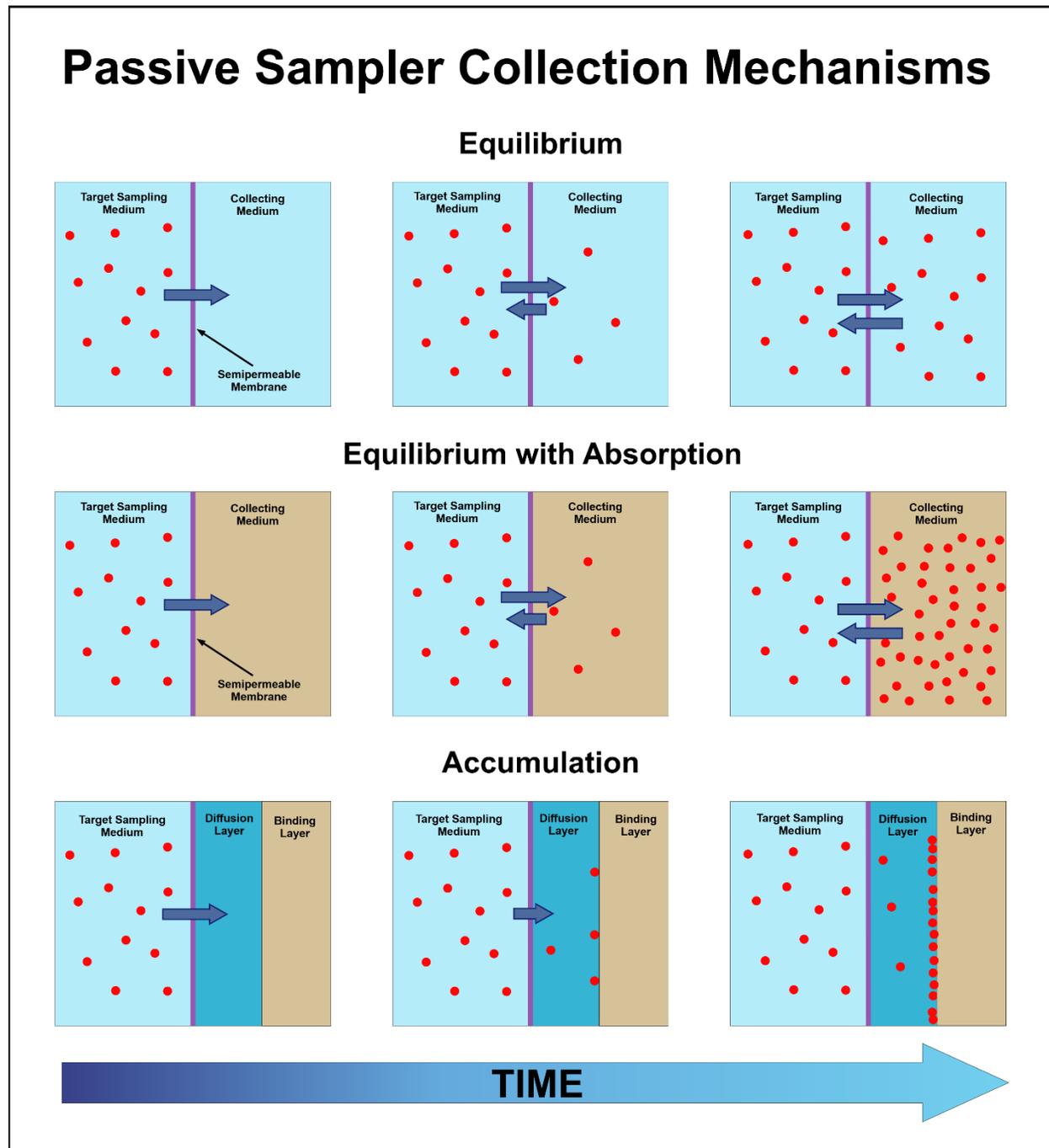
1063 The equilibrium samplers discussed below (i.e., polymeric sampling devices (the LDPE sampler,
1064 POM, and PDMS-coated SPME fiber), SPMD, and PISCES) utilize the partitioning and
1065 equilibration of chemicals, specifically hydrophobic organic compounds (HOCs) such as PAHs,
1066 PCBs, DDX, and dioxin/furans, between water and an organic polymer/solvent or between air
1067 and an organic polymer/solvent. Chemical partitioning between two phases is generally
1068 reversible and driven by intermolecular attraction energies such as the van der Waals force and
1069 the dipole-induced dipole forces. When an organic polymer is used as the collection medium,
1070 hydrophobic organic chemicals present in environmental media partition into the polymer and
1071 the resulting mass of HOC collected in the polymer is used to calculate freely dissolved
1072 concentrations.

1073 The fundamental processes behind all equilibrium samplers are thermodynamically equivalent in
1074 terms of chemical potential and fugacity. Hence, the passive samplers discussed below (i.e.,
1075 polymeric sampling devices, SPMD, and PISCES) have also historically been referred to as
1076 equilibrium samplers (Mayer et al., 2003; Cornelissen et al., 2008; Grundy et al., 2023). While
1077 the driving processes are the same, there is a notable difference in determining the concentration
1078 of the sampled medium. Passive samplers that use a collection medium that is the same as the
1079 sampled medium produce a sample with a partitioning ratio of 1:1 and the concentration in the
1080 sampler directly represents the surrounding medium at equilibrium. Devices that use a collection
1081 medium that is different than the sampled medium have a partitioning ratio that is not 1:1 and the
1082 concentration in the sampler has to be calculated by measuring the collected mass and using the
1083 uptake rate to calculate the concentration.

1084 The second row, *Equilibrium with Absorption*, in the figure below illustrates the chemical uptake
1085 by a passive sampler (Figure 5-1). Generally, equilibrium samplers are deployed into
1086 environmental media for a certain period aiming to nearly or fully achieve chemical equilibrium.

1087

Figure 5- 2: used with permission from NJDEP.



1088

1089 Equilibrium samplers collect samples optimally in the equilibrium sampling media (Figure 5-1).
 1090 However, some also work in kinetic and transient sampling as long as the fraction of equilibrium
 1091 is estimated using PRCs. This is often the case for passive sampling of strongly hydrophobic
 1092 organic compounds (e.g., octanol-water partition coefficient, $\log K_{ow} > 6$) by polymeric
 1093 sampling devices because the partitioning of those compounds to polymeric sampling devices is
 1094 kinetically slow. Polymeric sampling devices are often spiked with isotope-labeled compounds

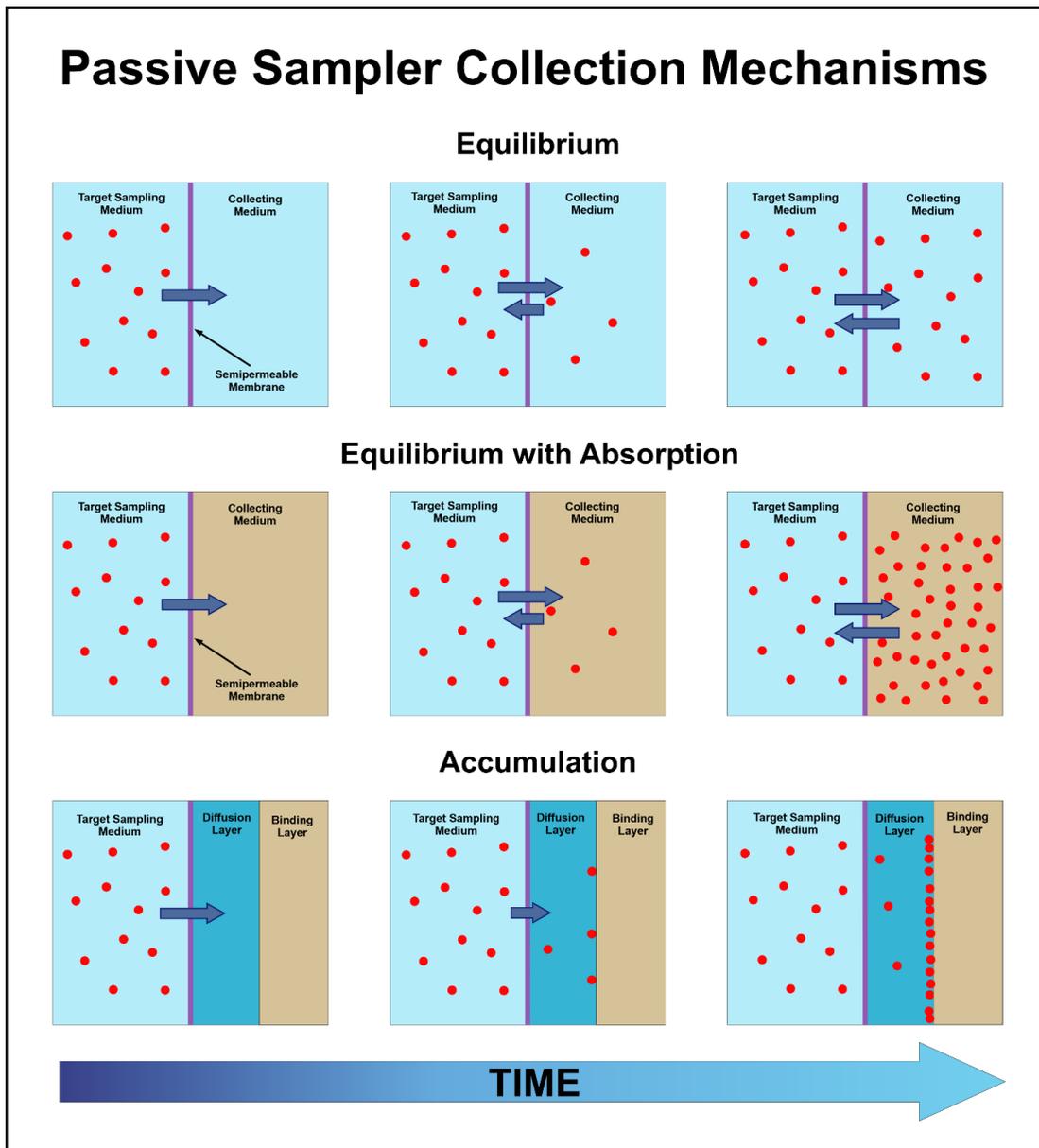
1095 (e.g., deuterated PAHs and ¹³C-labeled PCBs) to determine the fraction of equilibrium for
1096 hydrophobic organic compounds.

1097 **ACCUMULATION SAMPLER**

1098 Accumulation samplers function differently from equilibrium samplers. Accumulation samplers
1099 defined in this document are also called “kinetic samplers,” “transient samplers,” or “integrative
1100 samplers” in other references. Accumulation samplers rely on diffusion and adsorption,
1101 precipitation, or other interfacial accumulation of chemicals on collecting media to concentrate
1102 chemicals in the samplers over time. Reactions occurring in the collecting media are practically
1103 irreversible, in contrast to chemical partitioning in equilibrium samplers in which chemicals
1104 reversibly partition between different phases. In accumulation samplers, reactants in the
1105 collecting media will be eventually used up by reacting with target chemicals. Target chemicals
1106 do not significantly desorb, degrade, or diffuse out from accumulation samplers. Therefore,
1107 accumulation samplers are valid only in the kinetic or transient sampling regimes, as shown in
1108 the bottom row, *Accumulation*, of Figure 5-1. Whereas equilibrium samplers rely on diffusion
1109 and in some cases, absorption to accomplish the intraphase collection of chemicals, accumulation
1110 samplers rely on diffusion and adsorption or precipitation to accomplish the interphase
1111 accumulation of chemicals. Accumulation samplers provide a time-integrative concentration
1112 during the deployment period.

1113

Figure 5- 3: used with permission from NJDEP.



1114

1115 **5.1 Grab Sample Technologies**

1116 A passive grab sampler is defined as one that collects an instantaneous, whole media (the
 1117 media and everything in it, at the interval where collected) sample, by “grabbing” or
 1118 capturing the medium without inducing movement of the medium itself. Two of the grab
 1119 samplers in this document are designed for groundwater sampling because of the unique
 1120 challenges presented by groundwater conditions that may not exist when sampling other
 1121 media (see section 2.2.2).

1122 There are, however, several technologies that do not meet the criteria for passive samplers
 1123 but that may produce a sample with less disturbance than traditional active sampling methods
 1124 where large volumes of water are not acquired. In order to give further representation to

1125 technologies for other media, such as surface water and air, Section 6 includes grab samplers
1126 that do not meet the full criteria for passive samplers but can be considered in cases where it
1127 might be acceptable to induce flow to acquire a small volume sample. Media conditions and
1128 project DQOs should be considered before using non-passive samplers.

1129 Some of the advantages common to all passive grab samplers in groundwater include:

- 1130 • Are relatively easy to use.
- 1131 • Can be deployed in most groundwater wells.
- 1132 • Can be deployed in surface water greater than 3 feet deep.
- 1133 • Can sample multiple discrete intervals in a groundwater well to provide a vertical
1134 contaminant profile.
- 1135 • Reduce field sampling variability, resulting in highly reproducible data.
- 1136 • Decrease field time (sample collection without purging).
- 1137 • Reduce or eliminate IDW.

1138 Table 5 – 1 lists chemical families that can be analyzed using the noted passive sample (USGS,
1139 2020).

1140

1141

Table 5 - 1 (see separate excel to for a user-friendly view)

Passive Grab Sampling Technologies	Hydrasleeve	Snap Sampler	Thin-Walled Soil Samplers
Chemical Constituents and Characteristics			
Field physiochemical characteristics (Temp, pH, SC, DO, ORP)	ALL	ALL	N/A
Major cation and anions (Ca, Mg, Na, K, HCO ₃ , Cl, SO ₄ , F, Br)	ALL	ALL	ALL
Nutrients (NO ₃ , NO ₂ , NH ₄ , PO ₄)	ALL	ALL	ALL
Trace Elements (Metals) (Fe, Mn, Al, Ag, Zn and others)	ALL	ALL	ALL
Perchlorate (ClO ₄)	ALL	ALL	ALL
Organic Carbon (dissolved or total)	ALL	ALL	TOC Only
Dissolved Hydrocarbon Gases (Methane, ethane, ethene)	ALL	ALL	N/A
Volatile Organic Compounds (Chlorinated solvents, BTEX)	ALL	ALL	ALL
Semi-volatile Oranics (1,4-Dioxane, BN, Phenols, PAH, PCB, dioxins, furans)	ALL	ALL	ALL
Pesticides, Herbicides, and Fungicides (organoCl, organoPO ₄)	ALL	ALL	ALL
Explosive Compounds (RDX, HMX, TNT)	ALL	ALL	ALL
Poly- and perfluoroalkyl substances (PFASs)	ALL	ALL	ALL
Pharmaceuticals (Drugs, fragrances, hormones)	ALL	ALL	NT
Minerals (pyrite, mackinawite)	ALL	ALL	ALL
Microbial Population sampling (e.g. Dehalococcoides)	All	Some*	NT

1142

Table Key	
ALL	All compounds are compatible with the sampler
Some	Some compounds are compatible with the sampler
NT	Not tested (no study to support)
N/A	Not applicable

1143

Acronym Key:

[Ca, calcium; Mg, magnesium; Na, sodium; K, potassium; HCO₃, bicarbonate; Cl, chloride; SO₄, sulfate; F, fluoride; Br, bromide; NO₃, nitrate, NO₂, nitrite; NH₄, ammonium; PO₄, phosphate; Fe, iron; Mn, manganese; Al, aluminum; Ag, silver; Zn, zinc; BTEX, benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene and xylene; RDX, 1,3,5-trinitro-1,3,5-triazinane; HMX, 1,3,5,7-tetranitro-1,3,5,7-tetraoctane; TNT, trinitrotoluene; organoCl, organo-chlorine; organoP₀₄, organo-phosphate; PAH, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons; BN, base-neutral organics; PCB, polychlorinated biphenyls; ClO₄, perchlorate; PFOS, perfluorooctane sulfonic acid; PFOA, perfluorooctanoic acid; PFNA, perfluorononanoic acid, NT, not tested]

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5.1.1 Hydrasleeve™

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5.1.1.1 Description and Application

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HydraSleeve groundwater samplers are passive grab-sampling devices that collect water samples from groundwater wells and surface water without purging or mixing fluid from other intervals. The HydraSleeve collects a “whole water” sample of the water flowing through the saturated screen and all chemicals in the water within the sample interval at the instant it is retrieved. Because everything in the water is collected, the HydraSleeve can be used to sample for most groundwater chemicals (e.g., VOCs, SVOCs, metals, pesticides, anions, cations, explosive compounds, perchlorate, 1,4-dioxane, PFAS) and physical parameters (e.g., pH, dissolved oxygen), as long as an adequate volume of sample is recovered for analysis (“HydraSleeve ‘No Purge’ Grab Sampler,” n.d.). In addition, the sampler causes minimal agitation of the water column prior to sample collection.

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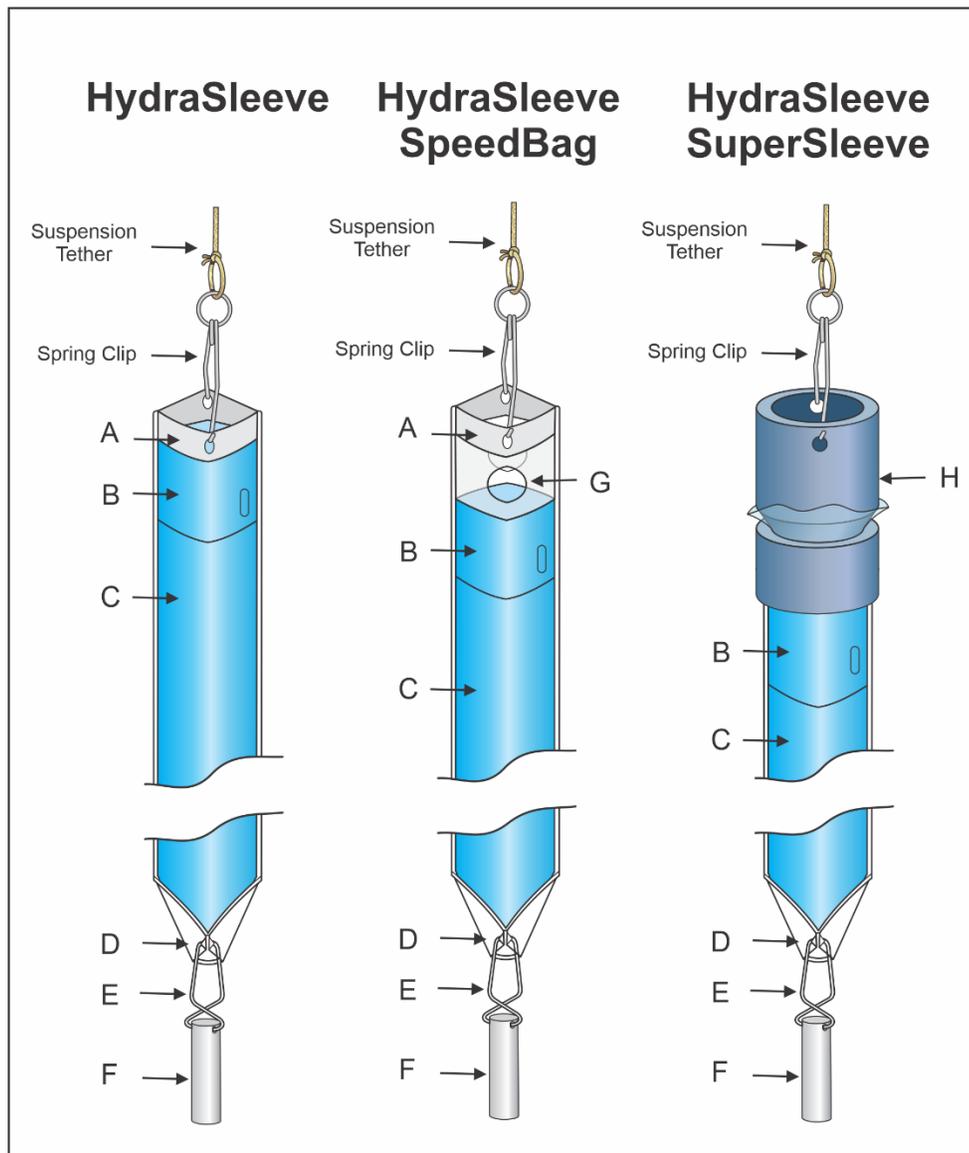
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1166

There are three versions of the HydraSleeve (figure 5-2) that are constructed with the same valve and are operated in the manner described above, but they vary by sampler dimensions, volume capacity, and method of attachment to the tether line. These are the HydraSleeve, the HydraSleeve-SuperSleeve and the HydraSleeve-Speedbag. SuperSleeve samplers have reusable top collars, can be manufactured in longer lengths to hold more volume, and can be made from HDPE, which is an accepted material when sampling for PFAS. SpeedBag samplers have a feature that shortens the wait time required between deployment and retrieval, so they can be used to sample shortly after installation.

1167

Figure 5- 4: used with permission from NJDEP.



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All HydraSleeve samplers are made from a collapsible, flexible tube of low- or high-density polyethylene (LDPE or HDPE) that is sealed at the bottom end and has a self-sealing reed valve at the open top end. The HydraSleeve sampler is installed into the water column within the screen interval of the well, flat, empty, in a ribbon-like form, creating very little displacement or disturbance. Hydrostatic pressure keeps the device closed until it is pulled upward through the water during retrieval, and then the sample seals the valve shut when the HydraSleeve is full, ensuring that only a specific interval is sampled.

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During deployment, one or more HydraSleeves can be attached to a re-usable weighted suspension tether and situated in a well at the chosen sampling intervals or target horizons within the saturated well screen (see section 5.1.1.2 for HydraSleeve placement relative to sample interval).

1181 Following deployment, the samplers are left in place in the monitoring well to allow for
1182 the water surrounding the sampler to restabilize after any minor vertical mixing that
1183 may have occurred during installation. HydraSleeves are installed empty and have a
1184 very thin profile in the water therefore a standard 2-inch diameter HydraSleeve with an
1185 8-ounce weight displaces only about 75ml of water. Because of the very small amount
1186 of displacement, there is very little change in well flow and therefore almost no wait is
1187 required for the well to return to normal flow conditions.

1188 Standard HydraSleeve and HydraSleeve SuperSleeves have a small cup-shaped space
1189 that forms above the check valve, outside the empty sample chamber, when the spring
1190 clip is attached. In a 2-inch diameter HydraSleeve this space fills with about 50ml of
1191 well water as the sampler is lowered into the water. It is recommended to allow a
1192 minimum of 12 hours residence time, before sampling, to allow the water in this space
1193 to equilibrate with the well water at the sample interval, under typical well conditions.
1194 In cases of very low recharge wells, a minimum residence time of 24 hours is
1195 suggested. In some cases of high-flow wells or partially saturated screens, less
1196 residence time may be required. There is no maximum residence time under any
1197 conditions so new HydraSleeves may be installed after one sampling event and left in
1198 place indefinitely before initiating a sample.

1199 The HydraSleeve SpeedBag can be used to collect a sample immediately after
1200 installation with no residence time required. This is because two, 1-inch diameter holes
1201 are fabricated into the sides of the sleeve above the valve so that small volume of water
1202 that entered the space during installation is flushed out the sides of the sleeve before the
1203 valve opens as the SpeedBag is pulled upward to collect a sample. Because of this
1204 feature, SpeedBags require a slightly longer pull distance to fill than do HydraSleeves.
1205 SpeedBags can be used to sample quickly during one-time events such as site
1206 assessments and when advanced installation of the sampler is not possible.

1207 To retrieve the HydraSleeve and acquire the water sample, the device is pulled up by
1208 the tether through the sample zone, at a rate of one foot per second or faster. During
1209 sampling, the sampler moves within the water column without causing or changing
1210 groundwater flow. Once the HydraSleeve is full, the self-sealing reed valve closes,
1211 preventing loss of the sample or the entry of extraneous fluid as the HydraSleeve is
1212 recovered. At the surface, the HydraSleeve is discharged, and the sample transferred to
1213 suitable containers for shipment to the laboratory, where the analysis provides a direct
1214 measure of concentration using standard laboratory methods. As long as there is
1215 sufficient water in the screen above the sleeve at the time of retrieval, the HydraSleeve
1216 will always represent the water in the sample interval at the instant it pulled upward
1217 during retrieval, regardless of when it was deployed.

1218 The HydraSleeve can be made in different lengths, diameters, and materials to
1219 accommodate various well diameters, volume requirements, and chemicals. To test for
1220 vertical stratification within a well, multiple HydraSleeve samplers can be suspended
1221 on the same cable and deployed simultaneously. In short water columns or to sample
1222 as close to the bottom of the well as possible a stainless-steel Top Collar weight may be
1223 used to compress the top of the HydraSleeve or SuperSleeve to within 1 to 2 feet of the
1224 bottom of the well. Double-walled “armored” HydraSleeves are also available for wells
1225 with sharp, jagged casing or screen.

1226 The HydraSleeve performs exactly the same in surface water as groundwater. Just as in
1227 groundwater, the depth of water must be adequate to accommodate the length of the
1228 sampler below the intended sample interval. Top collar weights can be used to
1229 compress the sleeve closer to the bottom of the water body as long as there is a stable
1230 surface at the bottom of the water for the bottom weight to rest so the sleeve can be
1231 compressed from the top down. Because HydraSleeves are lightweight and only require
1232 a rapid upward pull to acquire a sample, they are highly suited for use with drones to
1233 sample ponds, lakes and other water bodies with adequate depth." Adapters are
1234 available to use HydraSleeves for sampling discrete intervals from surface water and to
1235 use HydraSleeves with a drone for remote surface water sampling. Additional
1236 instructions on the use of the HydraSleeve are presented in the *HydraSleeve Field*
1237 *Manual and the HydraSleeve SOP*, available through the vendors.

1238 Individual HydraSleeve volume varies by the diameter and length selected to fit the
1239 available saturated screen. A single HydraSleeve can acquire greater than 2 liters from
1240 a typical 2-inch monitoring well with 10 feet of saturated screen. A single HydraSleeve
1241 sized for a 2-inch well with 5 feet of saturated screen can recover over 1 liter of sample.
1242 Larger diameter HydraSleeves that hold more than 3 liters are available for 4-inch
1243 diameter and larger wells. HydraSleeve samplers are also available for wells as small as
1244 1 inch. Multiple HydraSleeves can be attached to the same suspension tether to add
1245 sample volume or to sample discrete intervals in wells with longer saturated screens.

1246

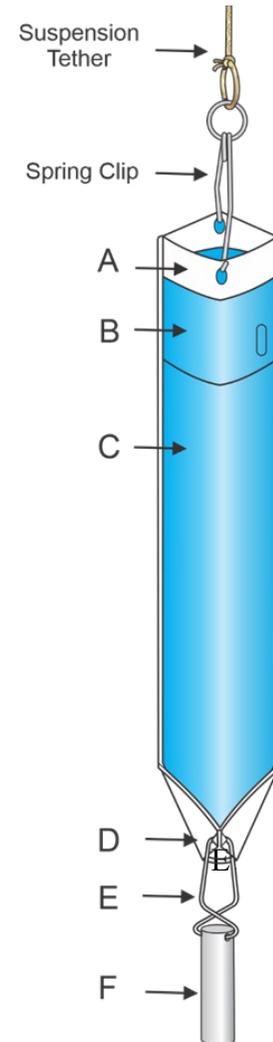
1247 **Illustration of the HydraSleeve**

1248

1249 **The basic HydraSleeve (Figure 5-3) consists of the following components*:**

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- Directly above the self-sealing check valve at the top of the sleeve are two white reinforcing strips with holes (A) to provide attachment points for the spring clip or suspension tether.
 - A reusable spring clip is fixed to a suspension line or tether and attaches to the holes in the white strips to deploy the device into and recover the device from the well.
 - A transparent, self-sealing, reed-type flexible polyethylene check valve (B) is built into the top of the sleeve, preventing water from entering or leaving the sampler when not acquiring the sample.
 - The sample sleeve (C), a long, flexible, 4-mil thick lay-flat polyethylene, is open at the top and sealed at the bottom to form a sample chamber.
 - The bottom of the sample sleeve has two holes (D) to attach the weight clip (E) and weight (F).
 - A reusable stainless-steel weight (F) with clip or disposable zip-tie (E) attaches to the bottom of the sleeve, drawing it down the well to its intended depth in the water column.
 - A reusable stainless-steel weight (F) with clip or disposable zip-tie (E) attaches to the bottom of the sleeve, drawing it down the well to its intended depth in the water column.
 - A discharge tube is included and is used to puncture the HydraSleeve after recovery from the well and then the sample are decanted into sample bottles (not shown).
 - An optional Top Collar Weight (not shown in Figure 1) may be connected to the top of the HydraSleeve to compress the sleeve closer to the bottom of the well.

Figure 5- 5: used with permission from NJDEP.



1280 * *SuperSleeves require two-piece Top Collars, instead of the white reinforcing strips, to attach*
1281 *the sleeve to the spring clip.*

Note: The sample sleeve and the discharge tube are designed for one-time use and disposable. The Spring Clip, Weight, Weight-Clip and factory-built Suspension Tethers are dedicated to the well and may be reused.

1282

1283

5.1.1.2 Installation and Use

1284 The HydraSleeve is first installed to a position just below the intended sample interval.
1285 To retrieve the HydraSleeve and acquire the water sample, use the tether to pull the
1286 device up through the sample zone, at a rate of ~1 ft per second* or faster. As the
1287 sleeve moves upward, the valve at the top opens and the sides of the sleeve expand
1288 around the stationary core of water in the sample interval. The effect is similar to
1289 pulling a sock over a foot, the sock moves around the foot as the sock is pulled upward,
1290 but the foot doesn't move. When the sampler is completely filled with water the valve
1291 automatically closes, sealing the sample inside and preventing entry of water from
1292 overlying zones as the sampler is removed from the well.

1293 The captured sample represents the interval above the starting position of the top of the
1294 HydraSleeve, upward for a distance approximately equal to (or slightly greater than,
1295 depending on the specific sampler and retrieval method) the length of the sampler,
1296 when properly sized to the well diameter. Upon retrieval, the HydraSleeve is punctured
1297 near the bottom with the provided straw and the sample is carefully transferred to the
1298 appropriate containers for laboratory for analysis. A new HydraSleeve can then be
1299 attached to the tether for the next sampling event.

1300 **Installation**

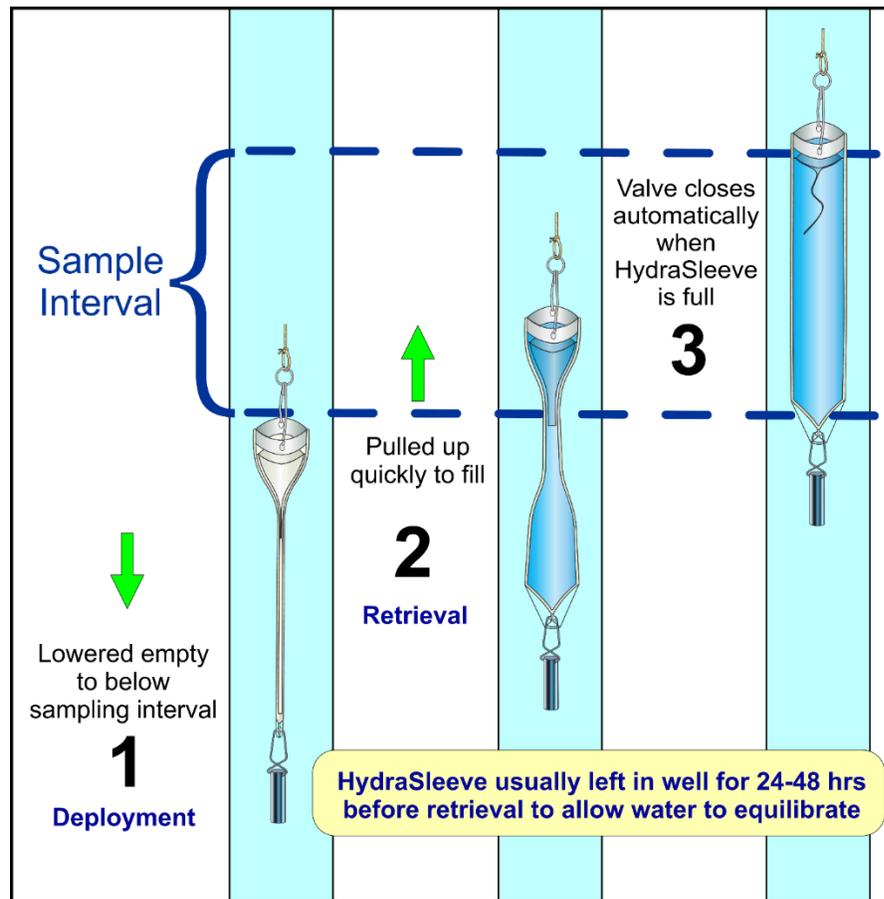
- 1301 1. HydraSleeve is installed empty, on a suspension tether below the sample
1302 interval in the saturated screen (Figure 5-4). Residence time is usually 24 – 48
1303 hours but is dependent on groundwater well flow conditions.
- 1304 2. Left in-place (still empty) until the well restabilizes / equilibrates.
- 1305 3. Return to the site to sample, pull upward rapidly on the tether (~1 ft per sec) to
1306 fill the HydraSleeve.
- 1307 4. The valve at the top automatically closes and seals when HydraSleeve is full.

1308 * *~1 ft per second is about the speed that a person can quickly move their*
1309 *straightened arm in an arc from alongside their leg to over their head. Some have*
1310 *also compared this to the motion used to “set the hook” when fishing.*

1311

1312

Figure 5- 6: HydraSleeve Installation. Figure used with permission from NJDEP.



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Use

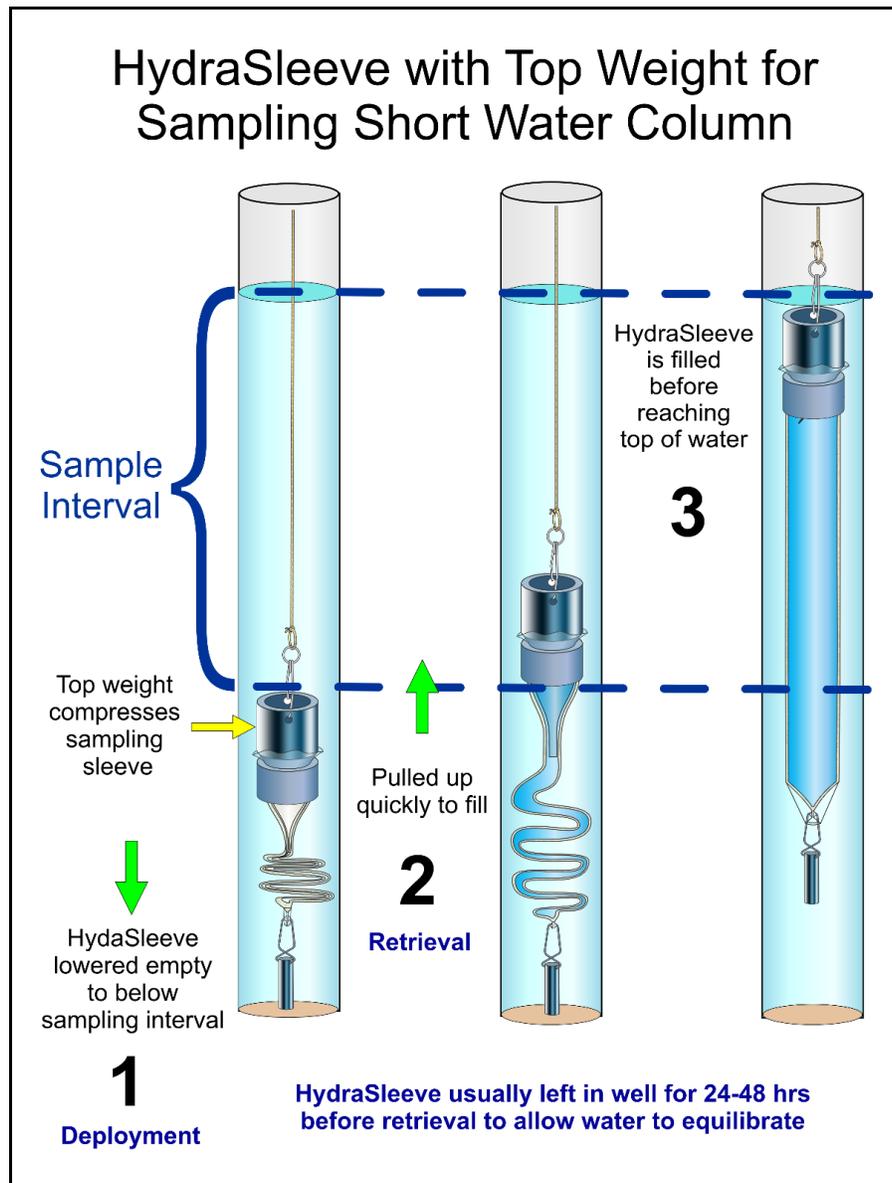
1315 In all cases where the HydraSleeve is used in groundwater, the installed position of the
 1316 top of the HydraSleeve must be in the saturated screen and the length of saturated
 1317 screen above the HydraSleeve must be at least as long as the HydraSleeve, preferably at
 1318 least 6-inches longer**. The sampler needs to fill with water before reaching the top of
 1319 the saturated screen. This will ensure that only water from the screened interval is
 1320 collected in the HydraSleeve (Figure 1-3).

1321 To optimize sample recovery in wells with short saturated screen length (5 feet or less),
 1322 the HydraSleeve should be placed at the very bottom of the well so that the top of the
 1323 HydraSleeve is as close to the bottom of the well screen to leave at least one sampler
 1324 length between the position of the top of the installed sampler and the top of the
 1325 saturated screen. The use of a top-weight on the HydraSleeve to help compress the top
 1326 of the sleeve at the bottom of the well. This allows for sufficient saturated screen to fill
 1327 the sleeve before it reaches the top of the saturated interval of the screen (Figure 5-5).
 1328 In wells where multiple intervals are sampled (profiling) only the bottom HydraSleeve
 1329 is compressed by a top weight.

1330 ** The actual length of saturated screen required to fill a HydraSleeve varies by model
 1331 and method of recovery.

1332

Figure 5- 7: used with permission from NJDEP.



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5.1.1.3 Advantages

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These are advantages that apply to the Hydrasleeve:

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- Shown to be the lowest cost passive sampling method for groundwater (McClellan AFB 2005).

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- Provides the largest sample volume capability of passive samplers for the same saturated screen length.

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- Collects a "Whole-Water" sample containing everything in the water within the sample interval, so no limit to CoCs.

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- Collects an unfiltered sample (this may be an advantage or limitation depending

- 1343 on site DQOs. HydraSleeve samples can be filtered after sample recovery if
1344 needed).
- 1345 • Is suitable for sampling wells for assessment, short-term, and long-term
1346 groundwater monitoring.
 - 1347 • Can be more representative of aquifer water in low-yield wells if purging causes
1348 the well to go dry and/or aerate during the purging or stabilization process.
 - 1349 • Can be used in narrow, constricted, or damaged wells as small as 1-inch
1350 diameter (“OW-63 PFAS Investigation Work Plan” 2022).
 - 1351 • Can be manufactured to custom lengths to fit project-specific screen lengths or
1352 sample volumes.
 - 1353 ▪ HydraSleeve-SuperSleeves have available options for sampling PFAS.
 - 1354 ▪ Can also be used to sample discrete intervals from surface water. A simple
1355 adapter allows using the HydraSleeve with a drone for remote surface
1356 water sampling.

1357 **5.1.1.4 Limitations**

1358 The following limitations apply to the Hydrasleeve samplers:

- 1359 • Collects an unfiltered sample (this may be an advantage or limitation depending
1360 on site DQOs. HydraSleeve samples can be filtered after sample recovery if
1361 needed).
- 1362 • Residence time of the Hydrasleeve is dependent on aquifer and well flow
1363 conditions.
- 1364 • Sample volume may be limited to the amount of water in the saturated screen and
1365 the size of the selected sampler device. For 2-inch wells, the maximum sampling
1366 volume is 1.5 liters; for 4-inch wells, the maximum sampling volume is 2.1 liters.
- 1367 • 2-Liter samplers that are 5 feet long may pose logistical challenges during
1368 retrieval and when filling sample bottles.
- 1369 • Special considerations should be taken when evaluating using at sites with NAPL.
- 1370 • Sampler handling and transfer to sample jars may need two technicians and may
1371 be challenging due to the non-rigid nature of device and spillage.

1372 **5.1.2 Snap Sampler**

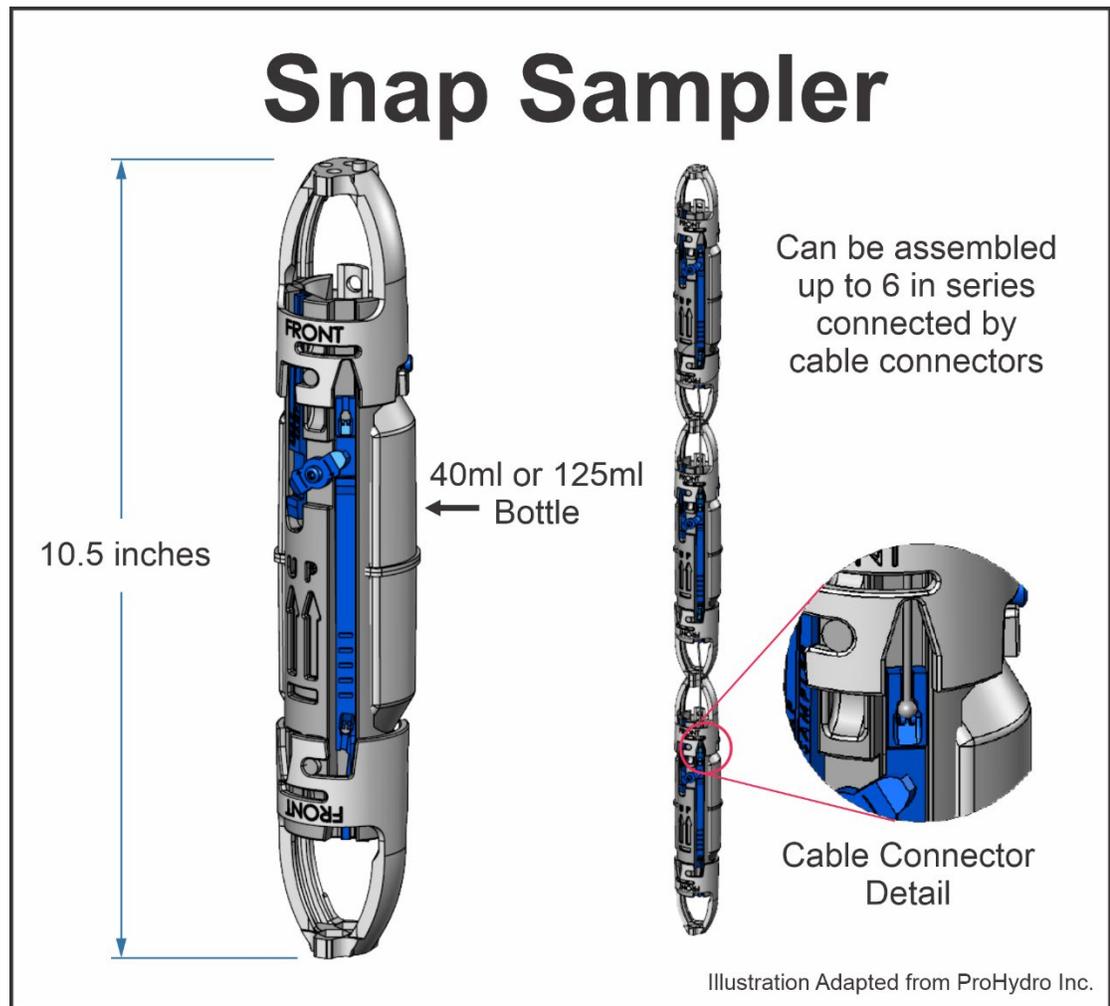
1373 **5.1.2.1 Description and Application**

1374 The Snap Sampler is a grab-sampling device that collects a whole water sample at a
1375 fixed sampling depth up to 2,500 feet below ground surface. The Snap Sampler uses
1376 removable Snap Sample bottles that are open on both ends to allow passive
1377 groundwater movement into and through the bottle. Each bottle contains spring-
1378 activated caps that are set in an open position during deployment. The samplers are
1379 deployed prior to collecting the sample and left in the well to allow the well to
1380 restabilize and the contents of the bottles to come to equilibrium with the surrounding

1381 water after insertion of the device. The sample is collected under in situ conditions,
1382 without purging or moving the device prior to bottle closure. When it is time to collect
1383 the sample, the bottles are triggered to close by a mechanical trigger system or by a
1384 downhole pneumatic actuator initiated at the surface. Multiple samplers can be
1385 connected in series to collect several sample bottles at the same time. After retrieval
1386 from the well, Snap Sampler bottles can be sent directly to the analytical laboratory, in
1387 many cases without transferring samples into separate containers or exposing the
1388 sample to the atmosphere. Alternatively, samples can be transferred to laboratory-
1389 supplied containers if desired or required for transport and storage protocols. The fixed
1390 sampling depth of the Snap Sampler allows the user to collect an undisturbed sample
1391 from a precise depth without the potential for mixing with other depths in the water
1392 column. The in situ sealing feature avoids the surface bottle-filling step and exposure of
1393 the sample to ambient air. The downhole sample bottles are open to the well
1394 environment; thus, the sampler can be used to sample for any chemical, subject to total
1395 sample volume considerations.

1396 Data quality is improved through several features of the Snap Sampler device. The
1397 sample is sealed while submerged, which prevents exposure to ambient air. Differences
1398 in surface handling by different personnel or different weather conditions are
1399 eliminated with containers sealed before collection from the well. Further, the sampling
1400 position is fixed with dedicated trigger system lengths. Samples are collected at the
1401 same fixed position in the well during each sampling event, improving consistency
1402 between events. No disturbance of the water column when bottles are snapped shut also
1403 limits artifacts like turbidity from motion in the water column.
1404

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Figure 5- 8: used with permission from NJDEP.

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5.1.2.2 Installation and Use

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The Snap Sampler is a dedicated sampling device/method where up to six individual bottles are loaded into sampler “modules” designed to hold the specialized double ended bottles in an open position during deployment. Downhole equipment is selected based on well characteristics, depth, and chemicals to be tested.

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There are three types of Snap Sampler modules: a 40ml size that holds the double-ended 40ml glass VOA vial; a 125/250/350ml size that holds 125ml, 250ml, or 350ml double-ended HDPE bottles; and a narrow 250ml size that a single 250ml double-ended HDPE bottle. Two-inch diameter wells are limited to 40ml to 250ml bottles. Four inch or larger wells are not limited to bottle size.

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Single bottles or combinations of varied sizes and types are deployed to collect the chemical suite. Up to six modules can be connected in any combination per well assuming adequate water column in the well. A minimum of 12 inches of water column is required per module. You only collect the water needed for analysis. Normally there

1422 is little or no “extra” water requiring disposal. Bottle selection and chemical lists can
1423 allow the user to collect sufficient water for field parameter measurements.

1424 The equipment setup for a well/site is determined in advance of sampling in order to
1425 have the dedicated equipment assembled and deployed in advance of the first sampling
1426 event. Well construction details—diameter, depth of screen and target sample position,
1427 depth to water, and chemical list—are used to determine the equipment set up. These
1428 details are shared with the equipment vendor to generate the well-specific equipment
1429 specification. Modules and triggering mechanisms are built for the well to assure
1430 samples are collected at the specified fixed position in the well during each event.

1431 Deployment of any type of sampling device into a well will disturb the natural flow
1432 conditions of resident groundwater. As a result, a well re-stabilization period is
1433 recommended for the Snap Sampler for passive deployments. It may take as little as 24
1434 hours to re-stabilize for passive sampling varying on well flow-through conditions and
1435 data objectives. Longer deployments of 90 days or more are also possible, allowing the
1436 user to conduct once-per-sampling-event mobilizations. Retrieval time for simple grab
1437 samples may only be minutes, as the Snap Sampler is open during deployment and
1438 water at the final deployment position can be captured immediately upon triggering.

1439 When ready to collect samples, the user activates the manual or pneumatic trigger
1440 system to release the bottle closure mechanism. The mechanism releases the Snap
1441 Caps, which close on both ends of the Snap Sampler bottle(s). The sampler device is
1442 then retrieved from the well with the closed bottle(s). Individual bottles are removed
1443 from the sampler modules and prepared to go to the laboratory in many cases without
1444 opening or exposing the sample to ambient air. In particular, for the Snap Sampler
1445 VOA, this unique feature prevents VOC loss during sample handling. For example,
1446 different compounds volatilize differently, handling can be variable between
1447 individuals, and ambient conditions change daily and seasonally. VOA vials sealed
1448 downhole avoid variability and artifact associated with such surface handling. This is a
1449 unique feature of the Snap Sampler method.

1450 If preservative is required, the acid or similar compound can be added to the sample
1451 through a specially designed cavity in one of the Snap Caps. Standard septa screw caps
1452 are then placed on each end of the bottle to complete the collection process. In cases
1453 where the sample needs to be transferred to a different container, the Snap Cap is
1454 opened at one end and the sample transferred. Preservatives in this instance can be
1455 contained in the receiving bottle.

1456 The Snap Sampler VOA vial can be used directly in common laboratory auto sampler
1457 equipment, preventing samples from being exposed to ambient air during retrieval,
1458 field preparation, or analysis at the lab (unless manual dilutions or re-analyses are
1459 required) (Belluomini, et al., 2008). Larger capacity HDPE bottles can be used for most
1460 other analytical purposes, either directly or after transfer to lab-supplied containers.

1461 After sample collection, bottles are reloaded into the individual Snap Sampler modules,
1462 the string of samples and trigger system reattached, Snap Caps set into the open
1463 position, and the string redeployed downhole. As such, the system is ready for sampling
1464 at the next event. All equipment is stored within the well assembly.

1465 **5.1.2.3 Advantages**

- 1466 • Collects a whole water sample, allowing analysis for any dissolved or
1467 suspended chemical, including field parameters.
- 1468 • Collects an unfiltered and undisturbed sample in a container sealed at the
1469 moment of bottle closure, largely avoiding sampling artifacts — such as
1470 turbidity or collecting sample inadvertently from a non-target sample position.
- 1471 • Collects from a consistent depth position without sampler motion.
- 1472 • Allows accurate sample point collection from extreme depths.
- 1473 • Open bottles only need to be submerged to collect samples; they can be used to
1474 sample low-yield and short water column wells.
- 1475 • Requires one mobilization for long-term sampling event to both collect and
1476 replace bottles.
- 1477 • Eliminates or reduces IDW.

1478 **5.1.2.4 Limitations**

- 1479 • Must be deployed in wells 2 inches in diameter or larger.
- 1480 • Collects a maximum volume of 1.5L of water with a single string of samplers in
1481 a 2-inch well and 2.1L in a 4-inch well.

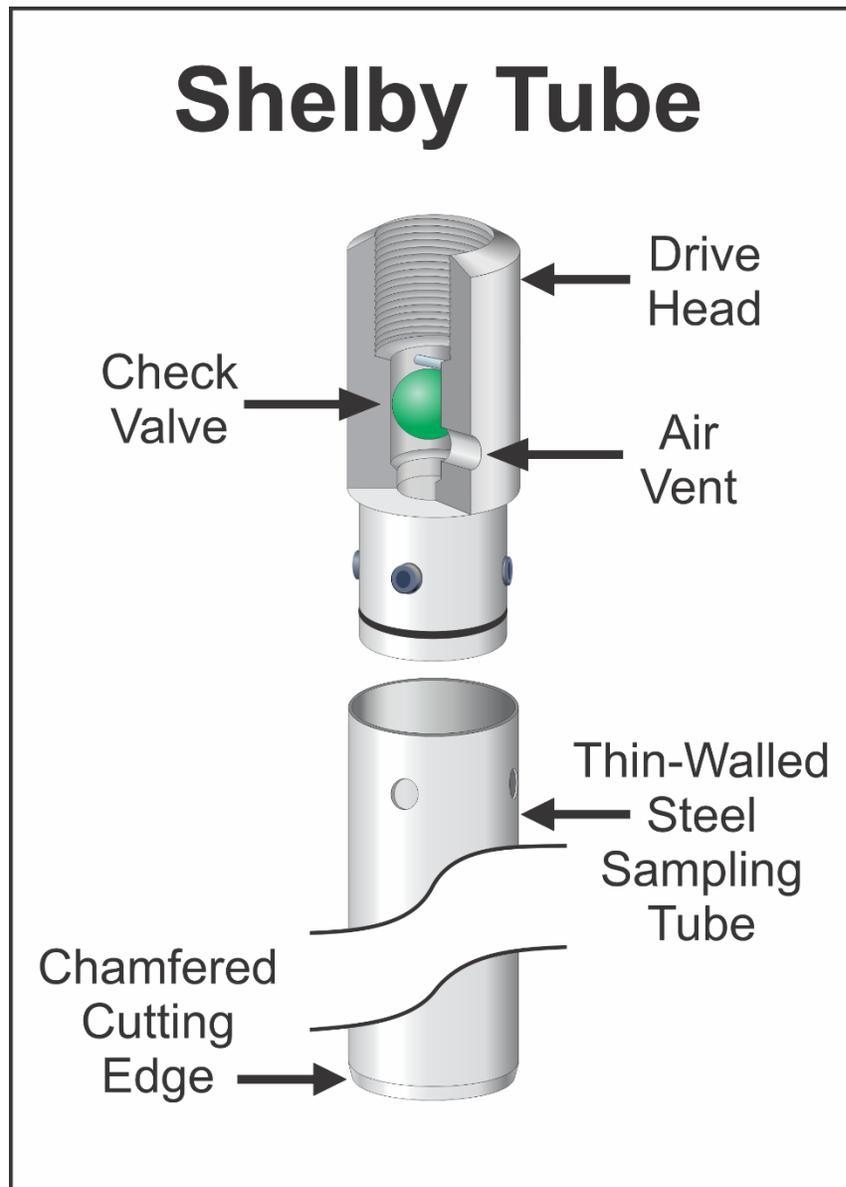
1482 **5.1.3 Thin-Walled Soil Samplers**1483 **5.1.3.1 Description and Application**

1484 Thin-walled soil samplers are designed to collect representative, undisturbed subsurface
1485 soil samples in cohesive soils and clays. These samplers are also known as Shelby tubes
1486 or Acker thin-walled samplers and are made from steel, stainless steel, galvanized steel,
1487 or brass. The thin-walled samplers minimize soil disturbances (e.g., friction,
1488 compaction, and other soil displacements) compared to other types of samplers (e.g.,
1489 auguring, split spoon, or direct push). If used for collecting samples for chemical
1490 analyses, the tube is normally constructed of inert material such as stainless steel.
1491 Acetate liners can be used with the samplers if needed.

1492 Although the use of Shelby tubes is typically associated with geotechnical
1493 investigations, they are also applicable to environmental investigations for purposes
1494 such as NAPL verification and characterization. Some examples include laboratory
1495 testing for NAPL presence and NAPL mobility. Testing for NAPL presence includes
1496 soil core photography with white light for structural information combined with
1497 ultraviolet light for the detection of NAPL impacted locations within the core using an
1498 ultraviolet optical screening tool (UVOST). NAPL mobility/saturation testing is used to
1499 determine the volume of NAPL in the soil at greater than residual saturation levels and
1500 is performed with either centrifuge-based tests or water-drive tests. Providing
1501 undisturbed soil samples is pertinent for such analysis to provide depth-specific results
1502 to assist with determining site risk characterization, remedy selection, and/or remedial
1503 design.

1504

Figure 5- 9: used with permission



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5.1.3.2 Installation and Use

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The Shelby tube is the most common type of thin-walled sampler and is 30 inches in length and comes in variety of outside diameter (OD) dimensions. Tubes with at least a 3-inch OD and 2.875-inch inside diameter (ID) are typically recommended for environmental testing. The downward cutting edge is sharpened and beveled such that its diameter is slightly smaller than the inside of the tube, allowing the sample to slide easily in the tube with little disturbance. The upper end is secured to a drive head, such as direct push tooling or hollow stem auger.

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To deploy the sampler, the tube is fastened to a string of drill rod and is lowered into the borehole to the pre-determined depth. At this point, the sampler is pressed into the undisturbed soil by hydraulic force. The tube is pushed 24 inches with a smooth,

1517 continuous thrust. If it becomes difficult to retrieve the sample, i.e., the sample is
1518 partially or completely unretrievable, then leave the tube in place for approximately 10
1519 to 15 minutes. During this waiting period, the sample should expand slightly to fill the
1520 sampler, increasing the probability of preserving the sample during retrieval. After
1521 retrieval, the tube containing the sample is removed from the drive head. If an acetate
1522 sleeve is used, the sleeve must be removed from the sampler and capped. Doing so
1523 keeps the sample in its relatively undisturbed state, and then it can be shipped to the
1524 appropriate laboratory. The cap may be a sealed plastic cap or a poured hot wax cap
1525 depending on the project specifications. If no sleeve is used, the tube is then capped and
1526 shipped to the laboratory. For more specific instructions on preservation and
1527 transportation process of soil samples, consult with the laboratory to be used. Tubes can
1528 be used multiple times following decontamination. Acetate liners are used on a one-
1529 time basis.

1530 **5.1.3.3 Advantages**

- 1531 • Can sample at discrete depths.
- 1532 • Provides an undisturbed soil and/or NAPL sample.
- 1533 • Provides location and depth specific NAPL verification and characterization.

1534 **5.1.3.4 Limitations**

- 1535 • Limited to soils that can be penetrated by the thin wall of the sampler.
- 1536 • Not recommended for soils containing gravel, larger size soil particles, or hard,
1537 cemented soils.
- 1538 • Very soft and wet soils tend to drop out of the sampler.
- 1539 • The use of fluids is prohibited for many of the tests that use this sampling
1540 method, limiting the collection method.

1541 **5.2 Equilibration Based Passive Samplers**

1542 Equilibrium-based samplers function in aqueous media (groundwater, surface water,
1543 sediment porewater) and gas media where chemicals diffuse, usually through a
1544 semipermeable membrane, to equilibrate in the medium present in the sampler under
1545 naturally occurring conditions during the sampling period.

1546 During equilibration, molecules may continue to move in and out of the sampler, in response
1547 to changing concentrations, to maintain a dynamic equilibrium with the surrounding medium.
1548 Contaminant concentrations are measured directly from the aqueous sample inside an
1549 equilibrium device.

1550 The type of membrane determines which chemicals can be sampled, and different devices
1551 incorporate different membranes and configurations.

1552 Samplers must be in place for at least the Minimum Residence Time, which is the length of
1553 time from installation until equilibrium of the target chemicals can be reasonably achieved.
1554 Residence time for certain samplers and chemicals may be project specific. The minimum
1555 residence time must include the time for the sampling environment to re-stabilize
1556 hydraulically, if it is disturbed when the sampler is placed, and the time it takes for diffusion

1557 of the target molecules to reach chemical equilibrium. Most equilibrium samplers have no
 1558 functional maximum residence time. For example, many groundwater samplers can be left in
 1559 place at one event and recovered at another, eliminating the time and cost of an additional
 1560 mobilization for sampler recovery. Site specific considerations (i.e., loss, vandalism) may be
 1561 evaluated to understand the security and integrity of the sampler. The resulting sample can be
 1562 analyzed by standard lab methods to directly produce a concentration result that represents
 1563 the time-weighted average of the past few days of residence.

1564 Table 5 – 2 lists chemical families that can be analyzed using the noted passive sample
 1565 (USGS, 2020).

1566 *Table 5 - 2(see separate excel to for a user-friendly view)*

Passive Equilibration Sampling Technologies	PDB	Nylon Screen	RCDM	Dual Membrane	RPPS	Ceramic Diffusion Sampler	Peeper	Polymeric	PISCES
Chemical Constituents and Characteristics									
Field physiochemical characteristics (Temp, pH, SC, DO, ORP)	Some	Some	Some	All	Some	Some	Some	N/A	N/A
Major cation and anions (Ca, Mg, Na, K, HCO ₃ , Cl, SO ₄ , F, Br)	N/A	All	All	All	All	N/A	All	N/A	N/A
Nutrients (NO ₃ , NO ₂ , NH ₄ , PO ₄)	N/A	All	All	All	All	N/A	All	N/A	N/A
Trace Elements (Metals) (Fe, Mn, Al, Ag, Zn and others)	N/A	Some	Some	All	Some	N/A	All	N/A	N/A
Perchlorate (ClO₄)	N/A	All	All	All	All	N/A	All	N/A	N/A
Organic Carbon (dissolved or total)	N/A	All	All	All	All	NT	Some (dissolved)	N/A	N/A
Dissolved Hydrocarbon Gases (Methane, ethane, ethene)	All	All	All	All	All	NT	All	N/A	N/A
Volatile Organic Compounds (Chlorinated solvents, BTEX)	Some	Some	Some	All	Some	Some	All	N/A	N/A
Semi-volatile Oranics (1,4-Dioxane, BN, Phenols, PAH, PCB, dioxins, furans)	Some	Some	Some	Some	Some	Some	NT	Some	Some
Pesticides, Herbicides, and Fungicides (organoCl, organoPO ₄)	N/A	NT	NT	Some	NT	NT	NT	NT	Some
Explosive Compounds (RDX, HMX, TNT)	N/A	Some	Some	Some	Some	NT	NT	N/A	N/A
Poly- and perfluoroalkyl substances (PFASs)	N/A	NT	Some	Some	NT	NT	Some	N/A	N/A
Pharmaceuticals (Drugs, fragrances, hormones)	NT	NT	NT	Some	NT	NT	NT	N/A	N/A
Minerals (pyrite, mackinawite)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Microbial Population sampling (e.g. Dehalococcoides)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

1567

Table Key	
ALL	All compounds are compatible with the sampler
Some	Some compounds are compatible with the sampler
NT	Not tested (no study to support)
N/A	Not applicable

1568

Acronym Key:
[Ca, calcium; Mg, magnesium; Na, sodium; K, potassium; HCO ₃ , bicarbonate; Cl, chloride; SO ₄ , sulfate; F, fluoride; Br, bromide; NO ₃ , nitrate, NO ₂ , nitrite; NH ₄ , ammonium; PO ₄ , phosphate; Fe, iron; Mn, manganese; Al, aluminum; Ag, silver; Zn, zinc; BTEX, benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene and xylene; RDX, 1,3,5-trinitro-1,3,5-triazinane; HMX, 1,3,5,7-tetranitro-1,3,5,7-tetrazoctane; TNT, trinitrotoluene; organoCl, organo-chlorine; organoP04, organo-phosphate; PAH, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons; BN, base-neutral organics; PCB, polychlorinated biphenyls; ClO ₄ , perchlorate; PFOS, perfluorooctane sulfonic acid; PFOA, perfluorooctanoic acid; PFNA, perfluorononanoic acid, NT, not tested]

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5.2.1 Passive Diffusion Bag Sampler (PDB)

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5.2.1.1 Description and Application

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Passive diffusion bag (PDB) samplers are a relatively mature passive diffusion technology, having been developed in the late 1990s. The technology has been evaluated against traditional purge sampling techniques in groundwater and has become a widely accepted technique for determining concentrations of VOCs in groundwater, surface water, and sediment porewater. PDB samplers can be used to collect samples for analysis of most non-polar VOCs, in addition to select SVOCs (including naphthalene) and dissolved hydrocarbon gases (methane, ethane, ethene) (USGS 2020).

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PDBs operate using the principles of molecular diffusion across the semipermeable polyethylene membrane. The deionized water in the PDB contains no organic compounds when installed. Therefore, a concentration gradient exists between the compounds in the target aqueous media (groundwater, surface water, or porewater) and the interior of the membrane. Compounds diffuse through the membrane until the concentration between the target media and the water in the sampler equilibrates. The PDB maintains dynamic equilibrium so if chemical concentrations in the target media change, the concentrations in the sampler will adjust accordingly (Ertel et al. 2011). Diffusion rates vary by compound and the sample in the PDB typically represents the concentrations in the target media over the last several days prior to removal (Ertel et al. 2011).

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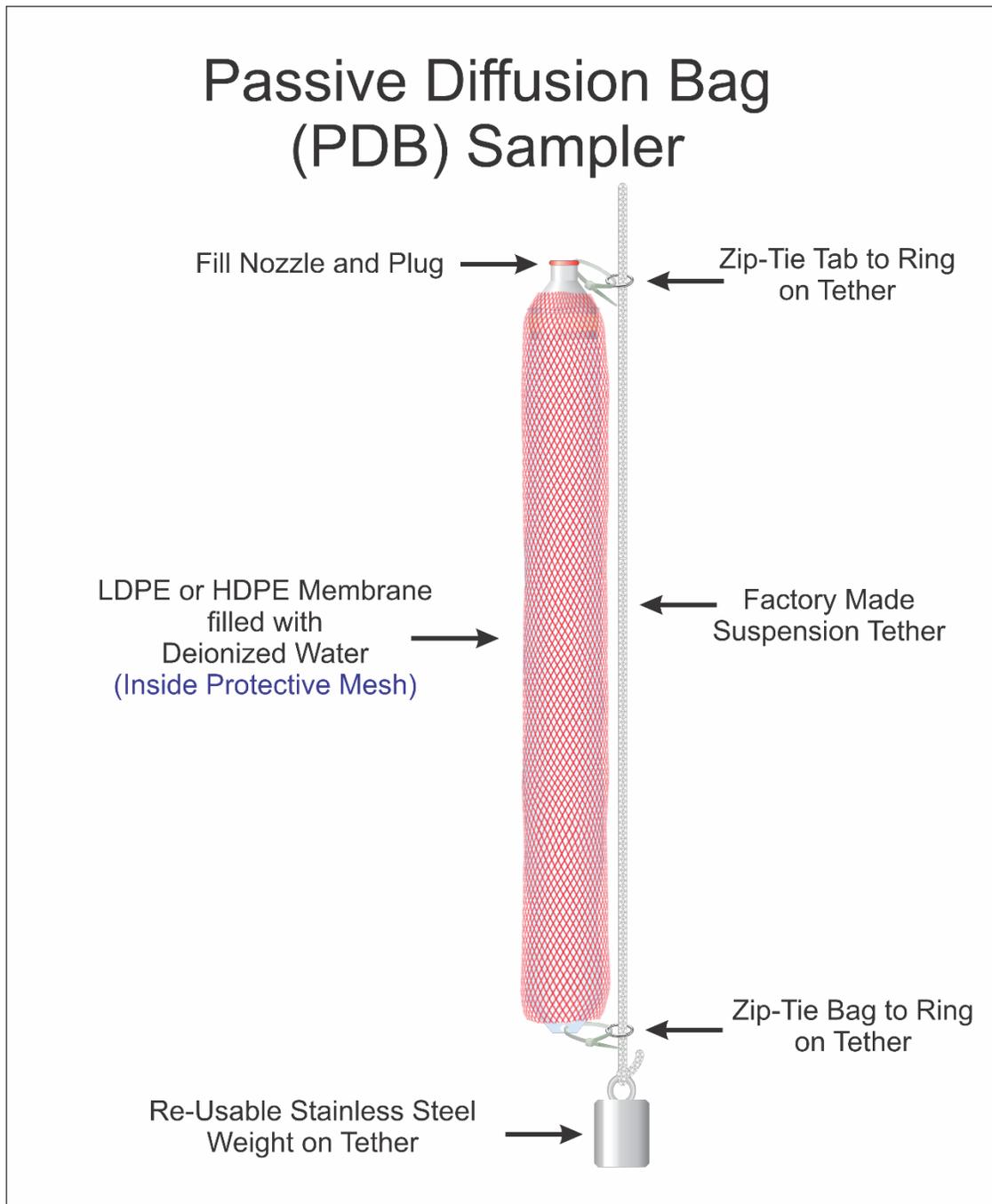
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A PDB sampler consists of a low-density polyethylene (LDPE) sleeve filled with deionized water. The LDPE sleeve (typically 2 to 4 Mil [0.002 - 0.004 inch] in thickness) serves as a semipermeable membrane to allow for molecular diffusion of VOCs from the target media (i.e., groundwater, surface water, or sediment porewater) .

1594 PDB samplers are commercially available, either pre-filled with DI water by the
1595 manufacturer or filled at a laboratory or in the field with a fill port and plug. To prevent
1596 damage during deployment and retrieval, commercially manufactured samplers
1597 typically come in a protective polyethylene mesh sleeve (Figure 5-8). PDB samplers are
1598 typically 12 to 24 inches long and diameters range from 0.75 to 1.75 inches, which
1599 allows deployment into 1-inch diameter or larger monitoring wells (“EON Small
1600 Diameter PDB Samplers (1" & Larger Wells),” n.d.). Sample volumes vary with the
1601 length and diameter of each sampler; for example, a 1-inch diameter and 18-inch-long
1602 sampler provides approximately 230 milliliters of sample (“EON Small Diameter PDB
1603 Samplers (1" & Larger Wells),” n.d.). The standard size PDB for a 2-inch diameter
1604 monitoring well is 1.7-inch diameter and 18 inches long (350 ml). PDB samplers are
1605 deployed on a reusable weighted polypropylene suspension tether that can be
1606 configured and provided by the PDB manufacturer to ensure repeated placement at the
1607 desired depth (“EON Small Diameter PDB Samplers (1" & Larger Wells),” n.d.). Other
1608 tether materials can be used if they meet project DQOs.
1609

1610

Figure 5- 10: used with permission from NJDEP.1611
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5.2.1.2 Installation and Use

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Operating a PDB is straightforward. To deploy the device in monitoring wells, the PDB sampler must first be attached to a premeasured suspension tether and weight. It is then lowered to the predetermined location within the screened interval of the sampling well. For deployment in surface water or sediment (for porewater), PDB samplers are typically placed within protective canisters, which are tethered to a polypropylene or

1619 equivalent line and secured to a stationary object (e.g., onshore) or to a flotation device
1620 to facilitate location and retrieval. Placement of PDBs in surface water and/or sediment
1621 should consider current and future flow and/or tides to ensure the samplers will be
1622 sufficiently inundated with water during the entire deployment period. For surface
1623 water, PDBs should be placed at the desired depth interval. Additional weights and/or
1624 lines can be used to secure the sampler at the desired interval. For sediment porewater,
1625 PDBs are deployed by manually pushing the protective cannister into the sediment (if
1626 soft) to the desired depth. For coarser sediment, a trowel or shovel can be used to gently
1627 lift the sediment to allow the PDB to be inserted. Sediment should be placed back
1628 around the PDB to ensure it is completely covered by sediment. In deeper water, a
1629 push-pole device may be used to push the PDBs into the sediment, although it is
1630 recommended to use video surveillance to verify that the PDB has indeed been
1631 deployed completely. Alternatively, divers may be used to deploy the PDBs.

1632 Equilibration times are well and compound dependent. The recommended minimum
1633 equilibration period for PDBs is 10 to 14 days, although equilibration of many VOCs
1634 may actually occur within 1 to 4 days. Additional time may be required for low-yield
1635 groundwater aquifers. The installation of the sampler can cause the water in monitoring
1636 well to become stratigraphically mixed. To account for this, it is necessary to allot an
1637 appropriate amount of time for the chemical concentrations in the well to re-stratify and
1638 for flow to resume according to the natural conditions (Ertel et al. 2011). Samplers can
1639 be left in monitoring wells between sampling events, then removed and replaced with a
1640 new sampler to abate mobilization and augment efficiency.

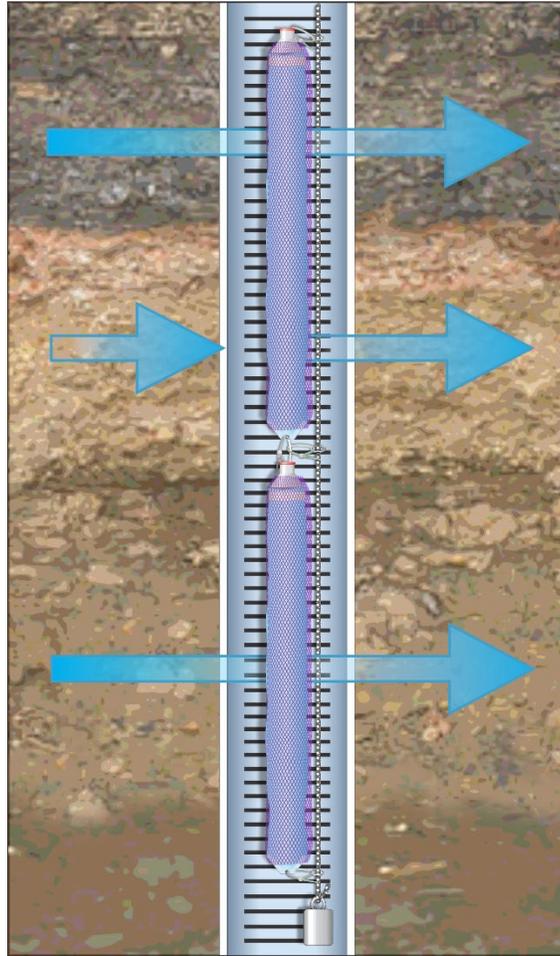
1641 Recovery is a simple matter of pulling the sampler out of the monitoring well, water
1642 column, or sediment and transferring the contents to appropriate containers, typically
1643 VOA vials. Samples can be transferred directly into sample containers by carefully
1644 cutting or slicing the PDB or using discharge “straws” to pierce the membrane. This
1645 needs to be done within minutes of removing the sample from submersion to prevent a
1646 loss of volatiles to the air. Transfer of water from the PDB to sample containers is
1647 required before shipping samples to the laboratory.

1648 In groundwater monitoring wells, PDBs can be installed at one or more intervals in the
1649 well screen and left in place under natural flow conditions (Belluomini, et al., 2008).
1650 Target chemicals in the aquifer are transported into the well through the screen by
1651 natural flow. This technique results in significant cost savings as opposed to purge and
1652 pumping techniques as a result of pumping and purging field times being eliminated
1653 and wastewater disposal reduced.

1654 PDBs also provide depth-specific profiling for compounds and concentrations. The
1655 PDBs’ ability to reflect dissolved target chemicals concentrations at a discrete depth
1656 allows the determination of stratification and vertical concentration gradients of target
1657 chemicals in groundwater. A PDB sampler should not be assumed to represent more
1658 than 5 feet of a saturated well screen unless longer intervals in a given well have been
1659 determined to be homogeneous. Interval target chemical concentrations can be
1660 measured at specific well screen depths by positioning PDB samplers in series, as
1661 shown in Figure 5-9. Hanging the samplers as such can result in the collection of
1662 information about the well’s hydrogeological attributes and determining the correct
1663 positioning of future single PDB samplers.

1664
1665

Figure 5- 11: Deployment of PDB samplers to vertically profile well, used with permission from NJDEP.



1666

1667 PDBs were initially designed to collect representative concentrations of VOCs from
1668 specific intervals in groundwater monitoring wells. In the years since they were
1669 commercially introduced, studies have also successfully used PDBs to collect
1670 representative VOC concentrations from surface water and sediment porewater. Since
1671 polyethylene-based PDBs are semi-permeable, certain compounds are restricted from
1672 diffusing through the membrane. Because the semi-permeable PDB membrane only
1673 allows diffusion of non-polar VOCs, the PDB can be used during active remediation to
1674 screen out non-VOC and oxidizing agents such as potassium permanganate while
1675 allowing residual VOCs, such as PCE, to be collected to measure remediation progress
1676 or effectiveness.

1677 Metals and other non-organics are not generally sampled using a PDB sampler because
1678 they cannot diffuse through the membrane. Compounds with a molecule size less than
1679 10 angstroms, like non-polar VOCs, are recommended.

1680

5.2.1.3 Advantages

1681

- PDB samplers have become a commonly accepted method for establishing

- 1682 concentrations of VOCs in groundwater monitoring wells as well as surface water
1683 and sediment porewater.
- 1684 • PDBs are easy to deploy and retrieve, allowing for rapid installation and sample
1685 collection.
 - 1686 • Sample collection in groundwater monitoring wells does not require purging, which
1687 provides ease of use and reduced labor costs and purge water disposal costs.
 - 1688 • PDBs reduce matrix interference from turbidity due to the small pore size of the
1689 LPDE membrane.
 - 1690 • PDB samplers are commercially available and are inexpensive to purchase or
1691 construct.
 - 1692 • PDB samplers have been manufactured to sample groundwater monitoring wells as
1693 small as 0.75-inch inside diameter.
 - 1694 • The samplers can be deployed indefinitely without degrading.
 - 1695 • Samplers can collect samples from discrete intervals in groundwater monitoring
1696 wells or surface water to produce a vertical contaminant profile.
 - 1697 • Samples have been successfully retrieved at depths over 700 feet below ground
1698 surface.
 - 1699 • The PDB is a disposable sampler, reducing decontamination time.

1700 **5.2.1.4 Limitations**

- 1701 • Because the range of chemicals that are able to diffuse into PDB samplers is
1702 limited, these samplers should not be used for initial investigations where the
1703 chemicals of concern have yet to be identified. PDBs should be deployed mainly at
1704 well characterized sites where the chemicals of concern have been identified as
1705 VOC compounds.
- 1706 • PDBs collect a time-weighted discrete interval sample. These samples are
1707 representative of concentrations over an extended length of time. This is
1708 advantageous in aquifers with low hydraulic conductivity where chemicals migrate
1709 slowly but is limited in capturing contaminant spikes in aquifers with high
1710 hydraulic conductivity (i.e., karst aquifer).
- 1711 • PDBs require a minimum equilibration time of 2 weeks, which may not be suitable
1712 for rapid response situations.

1713 **5.2.2 Dual Membrane Passive Diffusion Bag Sampler (DMPDB™)**

1714 **5.2.2.1 Description and Application**

1715 The Dual Membrane Passive Diffusion Sampler (DMPDB™) is an equilibrium-based
1716 passive diffusion sampler that has been commercially available since 2014 for
1717 monitoring aqueous media, particularly groundwater (“DMPDB,” n.d.). The DMPDB
1718 operates using the same diffusion principles of established PDB sampling, but it uses
1719 two different semipermeable membranes on the same sampler, allowing for the

1720 diffusion of large or polar molecules and the sampling of an expanded list of
1721 compounds and water quality parameters.

1722 The DMPDB consists of two semipermeable membranes wrapped in series around a
1723 frame made of a rigid, perforated polypropylene tube (1.75" diameter), forming a single
1724 sample reservoir. The membrane on the lower section of this tube is made of low- or
1725 high-density polyethylene (LDPE or HDPE), which allows the diffusion of VOCs.
1726 Because the polyethylene portion is hydrophobic, it does not allow water molecules to
1727 pass, forming the reservoir where the sample is held. The membrane on the upper
1728 portion of the tube is made from more porous material that allows the diffusion of large
1729 or polar molecules between the surrounding aqueous media and the DMPDB. The
1730 upper membrane of the standard DMPDB is made of hydrophilic polyamide material
1731 (150 µm pores). The upper membrane porosity allows for field parameters (pH,
1732 Dissolved Oxygen etc.) to be collected. This document primarily refers to this standard
1733 version of the DMPDB. However, custom DMPDB versions have been made with
1734 other upper membrane materials with pores as small as 18 angstroms to meet specific
1735 site or contaminant conditions.

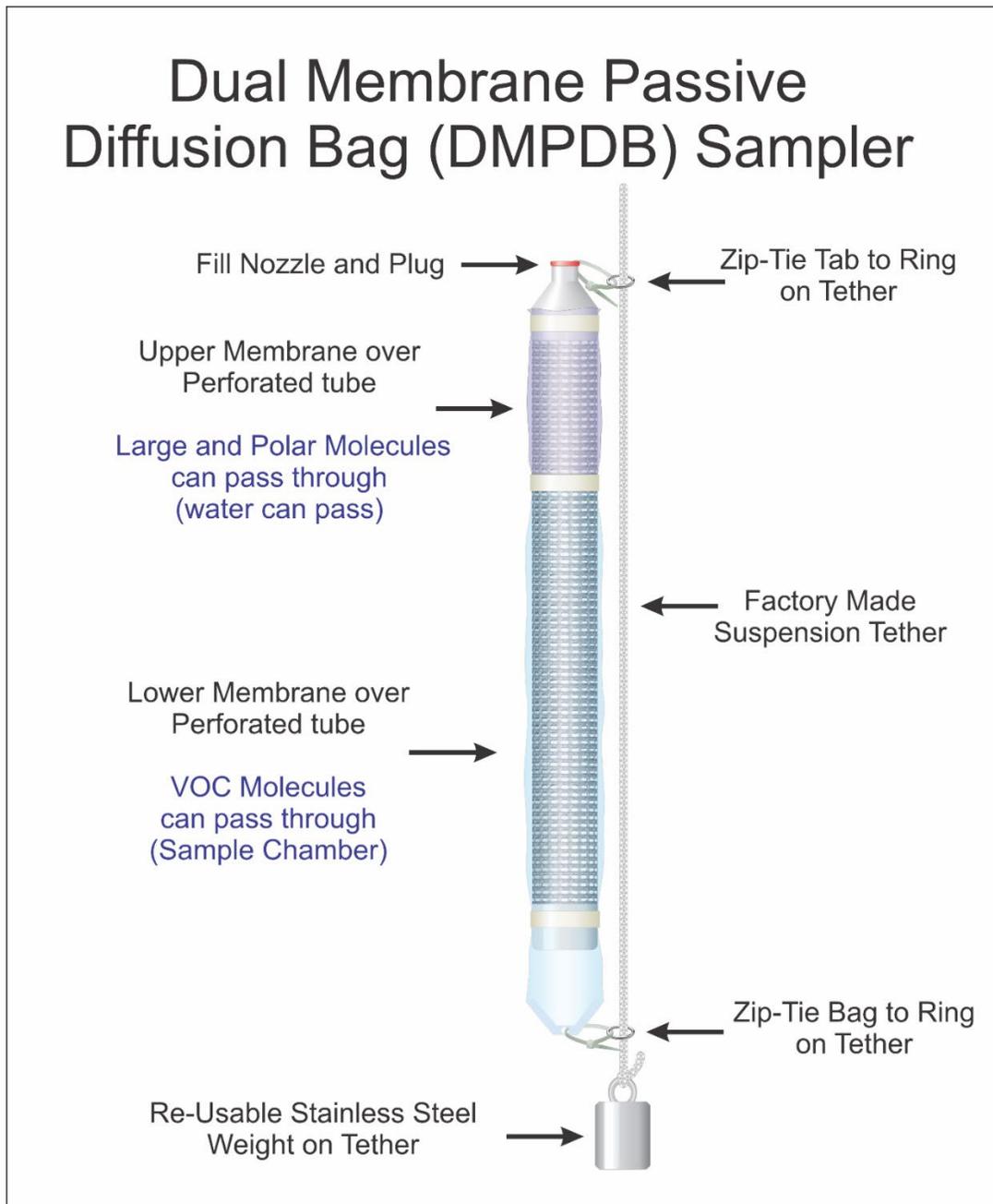
1736 DMPDBs may be used in sampling of aqueous environments including but not limited
1737 to groundwater and sediment porewater. The sampling technique allows for collection
1738 of samples from turbid aqueous media where traditional sampling methods may bias
1739 sample results or produce samples that require additional laboratory steps prior to
1740 undergoing analysis. DMPDBs do not create flow that could mobilize sediments, and
1741 the sampler membranes ensure that the aqueous sample represents only an unfiltered
1742 representation of suspended particulates smaller than the membrane pores.

1743 When using DMPDBs in groundwater, the samplers act similarly to other equilibrium-
1744 based samplers. The DMPDB is deployed into the saturated screen or fractured bedrock
1745 in groundwater monitoring wells, where it is in contact with the natural groundwater
1746 flow through the well. The disturbance created during deployment is minimal, and the
1747 sampler can be used to target a specific interval of groundwater within the well screen.
1748 In cases where contaminant stratification may be present, passive sampling via the
1749 DMPDB allows for targeted interval sampling by deploying multiple samplers on a
1750 single suspension tether at target intervals along the saturated screen. The DMPDB will
1751 provide interval-specific results without mixing that may occur during active purging or
1752 low-flow pumping.

1753 The DMPDB may be deployed in sediment for sampling of porewater through
1754 installation of a screened cannister. Cannisters should be installed to assure the
1755 DMPDB remains submerged for the entirety of the equilibration period and should be
1756 flagged and anchored to ensure they remain in place. Diffusion/deployment times may
1757 be extended on a case-by-case basis for different chemicals.

1758

Figure 5- 12: used with permission from NJDEP.



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5.2.2.2 Installation and Use

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The DMPDB is filled with deionized water during field mobilization and lowered into the interval of interest in the well, on a weighted suspension tether, where it intercepts natural water flow. Molecules enter the DMPDB by diffusing through the membranes into the sample chamber/reservoir. While VOCs are able to enter the sampler through either membrane, larger or polar molecules, including water, as well as background colloids diffuse through the larger pores of the upper membrane. Once inside the

1768 sampler, molecules diffuse throughout the water column in the DMPDB's reservoir
1769 until equilibrium is reached within the sampler and with the surrounding aqueous
1770 media. The recommended minimum residence time for the DMPDB to reach
1771 equilibrium and provide a representative sample is 21 days, which includes time for the
1772 surrounding environment to re-stabilize and return to natural flow conditions after
1773 being disturbed by sampler placement as well as time for individual contaminant
1774 molecules to come to equilibrium within the DMPDB. Actual diffusion time (excluding
1775 surrounding area re-stabilization) ranges from approximately 1 day to 2 weeks,
1776 depending on the diffusion coefficients of the molecules of each contaminant of
1777 concern. Once the minimum residence time is met, the samplers can be left in place
1778 indefinitely and will represent the time-weighted average concentrations of the time
1779 surrounding retrieval. Some compounds, like PFAS and 1,4-Dioxane, equilibrate within
1780 about a week after well stabilization. Others, like most SVOCs, will take longer. There
1781 is no standard maximum residence time for sample accuracy, because the diffusion
1782 process keeps the samplers in a dynamic equilibrium with the surrounding water, and
1783 the DMPDB materials are all chemically resistant to typical chemicals found in
1784 aqueous environments. Site-specific conditions may warrant a maximum residence time
1785 for deployment.

1786 When the DMPDB is retrieved from the well or other casing, water in the upper portion
1787 of the sampler flows out through the pores in the upper membrane as the sampler exits
1788 the water column, leaving the equilibrated sample in the lower reservoir. The
1789 polyethylene sample chamber of the DMPDB is then punctured with a "juice box"-like
1790 straw, and the sample is discharged through the straw directly into laboratory-provided
1791 sample containers. Since there is no maximum deployment time for the DMPDB, it is
1792 common practice at many sites to replace the DMPDB being sampled at the current
1793 event with the sampler for the next event.

1794 Compound-specific information:

- 1795 • Can be used for all VOCs, similar to previous standard PDB technology.
- 1796 • Cations, anions, metals (dissolved and total), nitrate/nitrite, SVOCs
- 1797 • Emerging contaminants: 1,4-dioxane (ITRC doc) and PFAS

1798 Data from DMPDB use for a variety of compounds and water quality parameters is
1799 steadily increasing over time as more side-by-side field and case studies are conducted.
1800 For the most up-to-date information on studies and sampler capabilities, the manufacturer
1801 should be contacted.

1802 Individual DMPDB sample volume varies by the sampler diameter and length selected to
1803 fit the available saturated screen. DMPDBs are approximately 1.7 inches in diameter to
1804 fit 2-inch schedule 40 and larger wells and are available in standard lengths of; 16 inches
1805 (250+ ml), 24 inches (500+ ml), 28 inches (650+ ml), 31 inches (750+ ml), and 40 inches
1806 (1+ L). Custom sizes are available. A single DMPDB can acquire greater than 1 liter
1807 from a 2-inch monitoring well with 5 feet of saturated screen. Multiple DMPDBs can be
1808 attached to the same suspension tether to add sample volume or to sample discrete
1809 intervals in wells with longer saturated screens. Custom installation configuration is
1810 required for a 2-inch schedule 80 wells.

1811 **5.2.2.3 Advantages**

- 1812 • Lab and/or field studies have shown that the DMPDB is effective for sampling a
1813 multitude of chemicals in groundwater, including VOCs, some SVOCs, trace
1814 metals, anions, cations, and contaminants of emerging concern including 1,4-
1815 dioxane and PFAS.
- 1816 • Allows consistency in collection depth over repeated sampling events due to
1817 predetermined sample location (tether for groundwater or sampler housing for other
1818 media).
- 1819 • Allows for easier vertical profiling to investigate stratified contaminant zones,
1820 multiple well screens, and bedrock fracture zones using discrete pre-determined
1821 sample depths.
- 1822 • Allows the collection of field parameters including dissolved oxygen, pH, and
1823 temperature due to upper membrane design.
- 1824 • Constructed of non-biodegradable materials allowing the sampler to remain in place
1825 for extended time periods.
- 1826 • DMPDB samples will include representative background colloids/suspended solids,
1827 without contributing additional, method-induced turbidity. Filtration practices
1828 should be followed if required for specific project and/or lab analysis.
- 1829 • Reduces cross-contamination risk since samplers are single use and are deployed
1830 using systems dedicated to sample locations. (e.g., tethers or sediment canisters)
- 1831 • Eliminates or substantially decreases the generation of IDW.
- 1832 • Sampling apparatus (tether, sediment canister, etc.) is reusable with only the
1833 sampler replaced for each sampling event and eliminates the use of gasoline or
1834 battery-powered sources often required by pumps. Although the DMPDB itself is
1835 single use, it has a smaller material footprint than most single-use bailers and tubing
1836 used for groundwater monitoring.
- 1837 • When retrieved for sampling, the DMPDB can be immediately replaced with a new
1838 DMPDB on the designated tether and can reside in place until the next sampling
1839 event, decreasing labor costs associated with sample collection activities.

1840 **5.2.2.4 Limitations**

- 1841 • Provides limited sample volume, requiring consideration of laboratory sample
1842 volume requirements.
- 1843 • The standard version requires field personnel to fill sampler with deionized water in
1844 the field. Due to the hydrophilic polyamide upper membrane, the sampler cannot be
1845 transported pre-filled and must be handled and deployed upright once filled to
1846 prevent spilling.
- 1847 • Restricted by monitoring well or sampler housing construction, requiring an inner
1848 diameter of at least 2 inches or larger to avoid abrasions if obstructions or rough
1849 edges are encountered.

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- Requires extended deployment time of 2 to 3 weeks for equilibration of some chemicals both into and within the sampler, depending on the type of contaminant and well recharge rates. Investigations requiring shorter sampling frequencies may not be feasible.
 - The standard version does not collect a “dissolved only” sample. Use of a custom upper membrane may provide a dissolved-only sample.
 - Prior to using in environments with exceptionally high solvent concentrations, contact the manufacturer to discuss options for maintaining integrity of sampler materials.

1859 **5.2.3 Nylon Screen Passive Diffusion Sampler (NSPDS)**

1860 **5.2.3.1 Description and Application**

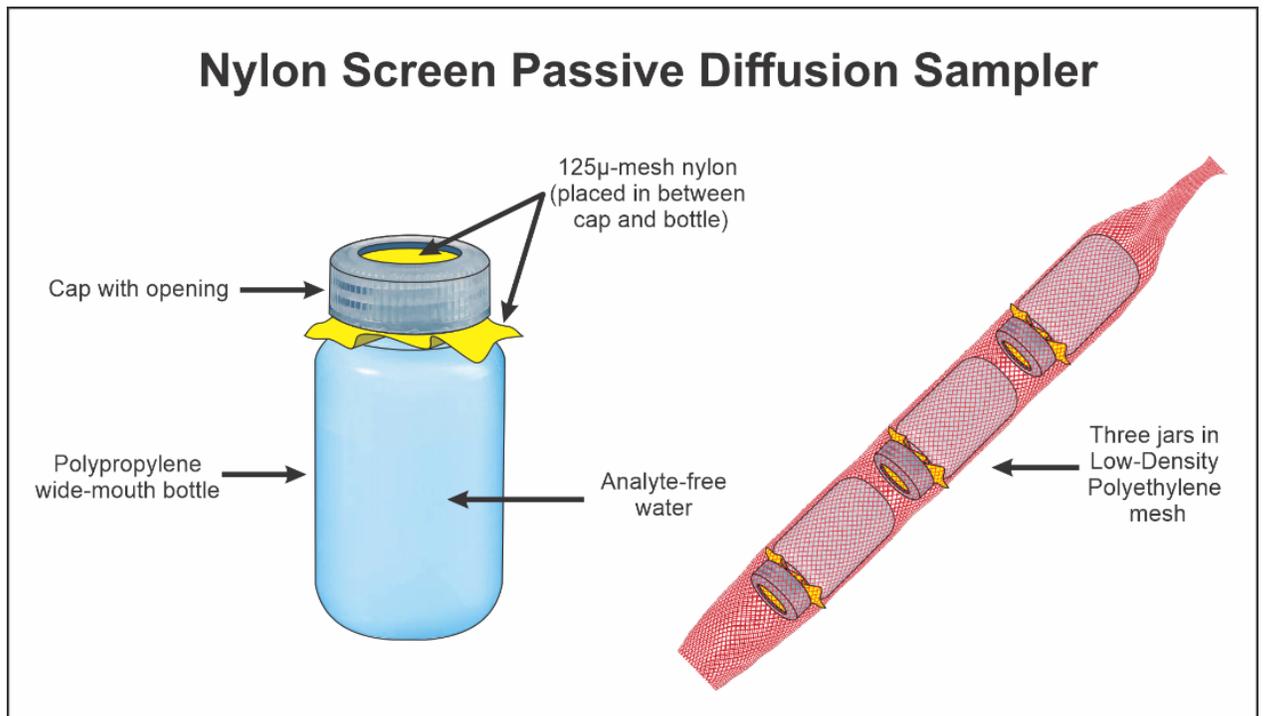
1861 NSPDS, also known as Nylon Screen Diffusion Sampler (NSDS), is a passive
1862 equilibrium sampler for surface and groundwater. NSPDS were developed to sample
1863 for a broader array of analytes than the PDB sampler (Belluomini, et al., 2008). The
1864 NSPDS device is constructed using polypropylene wide-mouth bottles, a ring style cap,
1865 and a square of nylon mesh screen which are typically 125 to 250 micrometers (μm).

1866 The bottles are filled with the appropriate type of deionized water based on the project
1867 goals. A sheet of nylon screen is placed over the mouth, and the cap is screwed on. The
1868 sample bottle can be deployed alone or can be stacked in a polyethylene mesh bag. The
1869 number of bottles is dependent on the required sample volume for the project.

1870 NSPDSs operate using the principles of molecular diffusion across the nylon screen
1871 mesh. The NSPDS bottles are filled with analyte-free deionized water prior to
1872 installation. Therefore, a concentration gradient exists between the compounds in the
1873 target aqueous media (groundwater, surface water, or porewater) and the interior of the
1874 NSPDS bottles. Compounds diffuse through the nylon screen mesh until the
1875 concentration between the target media and the water in the sampler equilibrates. The
1876 NSPDS maintains dynamic equilibrium so that if chemical concentrations in the target
1877 media change, the concentrations in the sampler will adjust accordingly. Diffusion rates
1878 vary by compound, so the sample in the NSPDS bottles typically represents the
1879 concentrations in the target media over the last several days prior to removal.

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Figure 5- 13: used with permission from NJDEP.

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5.2.3.2 Installation and Use

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For deployment in wells, the NSPDS samplers are placed inside a mesh liner, which is attached to the hanging line with zip ties. The samplers can be arranged in stacks depending on the volume of water needed for analyses. The micron nylon mesh of the bottle(s) is faced downward to minimize mixing of water in the samplers with shallower well water during recovery (Vroblesky, Petkewich, and Campbell 2002). If the micron nylon mesh is not facing downward, it is possible that stagnant water from the casing or chemically different water from above the sample interval may be incorporated into the sample through the mesh as the bottle is pulled upward through the screen and casing. Care should be taken so that bottles do not block each other when the samplers are used in series. When the sampler is not submerged, it retains the water as a result of surface tension (between the water and the screen) and the vacuum that develops in the inverted bottle (Imbriotta and Harte, 2020). Over time, chemicals diffuse across the nylon screen and equilibrate with the water inside the sampler. After retrieval, the sampled media needs to be prepared to be sent to the laboratory for analysis by either The content of the sampler is either transferring the sampled media to laboratory sample containers, and sent to the for analysis, or the cutout cap on the sampler that holds the screen is replaced with blank caps, and the sampler bottles are sent for analysis.

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The direction the bottles are facing within the well can also affect their function (Vroblesky, Petkewich, and Campbell 2002). As seen by the work from Webster et al. (1998), samplers facing down in water with a high ionic strength are unsuccessful equilibrating as a result of density differences between the sampler and ambient water

1906 (Vroblesky, Petkewich, and Campbell 2002). It is ideal to orient the sampler so that the
 1907 sampler membrane faces the well screen. According to Vroblesky et al. (2002), bottles
 1908 should be oriented downward in wells with 2-inch diameters where horizontal
 1909 deployment is not possible, and the water is not strongly ionic. The stated purpose of
 1910 this orientation was to minimize mixing of water in the samplers with shallower well
 1911 water during sampler recovery (Vroblesky et al., 2002). In addition, NSPDS placed
 1912 with the screen mesh facing upward in groundwater may risk infiltration of water from
 1913 above the sampling position, possibly water from the casing, as the samplers are pulled
 1914 upward during the recovery process.

1915 In January 2003 Columbia Analytical Services, in cooperation with criteria developed
 1916 by Vroblesky of the USGS, conducted equilibration studies for NSPDS and included
 1917 VOCs such as benzene, tetrachloroethene (PCE), trichloroethene (TCE), and 1,4-
 1918 dioxane; as well as inorganic chemicals such as perchlorate, chloride, arsenic, and iron.
 1919 All chemicals exhibited excellent diffusion from the test jars into the sampler water and
 1920 equilibration was generally achieved in 24 hours. Further studies were conducted by
 1921 Columbia Analytical Services in April of 2003 (Vroblesky, Scheible, and Teall, 2003)
 1922 on a suite of metals, and again, with the exception of silver, the NSPDS showed good
 1923 transfer from test jars into sampler water. Subsequent studies by Columbia in August
 1924 2003 with samplers more suitable for 2-inch diameter wells (30- and 60-mL bottles
 1925 with heights of about 60 mm and volume/area of up to 175) showed poor comparisons
 1926 with water in test jars. Literature searches have been unsuccessful in finding citations
 1927 that reference a nylon screen sampler being used for SVOC collection (“Passive (No
 1928 Purge) Samplers” 2020).

1929 Webster et al. (1998) examined the influence of orientation on bottles having similar
 1930 design factors (however, he used a polysulfone membrane) and found that when
 1931 deployed in saline pore water, bottles oriented with the opening toward the side
 1932 equilibrated significantly quicker than bottles oriented with the opening up or down.

1933 5.2.3.3 Advantages

- 1934 • Good for most analytes.
- 1935 • Eliminates or reduces IDW.
- 1936 • Does not require specialized equipment (e.g., generator, compressed gases).
- 1937 • Can sample at discrete intervals to prevent groundwater mixing.
- 1938 • Can stack devices to profile screen length.
- 1939 • Has a small sampling interval, which provides good profile location for identifying
 1940 contaminant stratification.
- 1941 • Decontamination of the sampler is minimal. A disposable device is common for
 1942 similar types of other passive diffusion samplers.

1943 5.2.3.4 Limitations

- 1944 • These samplers are not commercially available. However, NSPDS samplers can be
 1945 easily constructed with typical laboratory sampling bottles and using mesh
 1946 materials from industrial suppliers.

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- 1948
- Limited sample volume may be a concern if using these devices to test for a wide range of chemicals.
- 1949
- These samplers are better suited to larger wells, where the larger volume samplers may be used. Smaller volume jars used for 2-inch wells have shown inconsistent results.
- 1950
- 1951
- Sampling for reduction-oxidation (redox)-sensitive metals, such as lead, iron, and manganese, is subject to a number of uncertainties and should be approached with caution. When using water-filled diffusion samplers to sample redox-sensitive parameters in a well that maintains anaerobic water in the well bore, one approach to avoid oxidation and precipitation of redox-sensitive metals is to use anaerobic water as the sampler filling solution. Insufficient work has been done to determine whether prefilling with anaerobic water is effective.
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1959 **5.2.4 Peeper Sampler**

1960 **5.2.4.1 Description and Application**

1961 Peeper samplers (i.e., dialysis cells or Hesslein In-Situ Porewater Sampler) are rigid

1962 structures that are equipped with one or more water-filled chambers that are covered

1963 with a semipermeable membrane or mesh and rely on diffusion of chemicals from the

1964 porewater into the water-filled peeper chamber to reach equilibrium. Peeper samplers

1965 were developed for in situ monitoring of dissolved chemicals in saturated sediments

1966 (Hesslein, 1976). The efficiency of peeper samplers depends on equilibration time of

1967 the target chemical(s), which is a function of diffusion coefficient, adsorption-

1968 desorption properties, surrounding ambient-solution temperature, and sediment

1969 porosity. Peeper samplers have advantages over older centrifugation methods including

1970 in situ monitoring of trace elements, quick and efficient sampling times, increased

1971 depth resolution, and minimal temperature and O₂ (g) diffusion effects. The primary

1972 advantage of the peeper sampler is that it measures dissolved fraction, which can be

1973 compared to Risk-Based standards (i.e., RBCA) or Federal/State Cleanup Criteria.

1974 Peeper samplers can be stacked in a specially designed corer to sample discrete depths,

1975 direct driven for near surface (1 to 3 meters) evaluation or placed in a shallow

1976 rectangular array for near surface area distribution determinations. Prior to deployment,

1977 peepers are filled with an appropriate grade of water (e.g., distilled, deionized, or milli-

1978 Q) that can be spiked with a known concentration of PRC). PRCs are typically

1979 compounds that behave conservatively in the environment, meaning they don't have

1980 strong adsorption/reaction qualities, and can be used as simple tracers. Bromide is a

1981 common PRC. Addition of a PRC is useful for calculating percent equilibrium achieved

1982 between the peeper chamber and the porewater when the peeper is retrieved and

1983 sampled. Following deployment, peepers are left in place for a designated amount of

1984 time to achieve equilibrium with the surrounding porewater. Peeper equilibration time

1985 can range from hours to a month, depending on peeper construction, target chemicals,

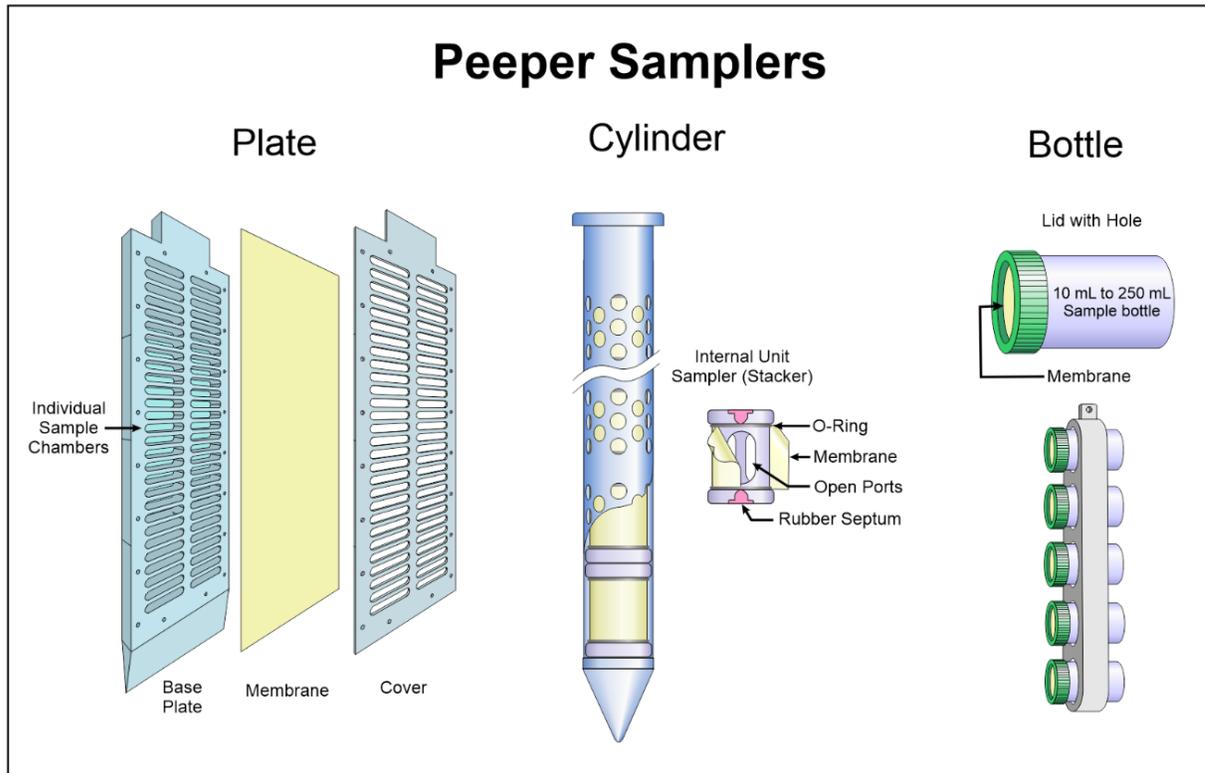
1986 and site-specific soil/sediment properties. Peeper samplers are available commercially

1987 and are also fabricated by universities and other researchers. General and specialized

1988 peeper sampler designs are described in the following sections.

1989

Figure 5- 14: used with permission from NJDEP.



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Table 5- 1

Style	Type	Application	Installation
Plate	Hesslein	shallow sediments	hand-push, slide hammer
	sHRPP	shallow sediments	hand-push, slide hammer
Cylinder	Standard	shallow sediments	hand-push, slide hammer
	HRPP	deep sediments, shallow groundwater	slide hammer, diverless push-pole, dive team, direct-push rig tooling
Bottle	P _s MS	monitoring wells	lower using rope/cable
	Speeper	shallow sediments, monitoring wells	hand-push, diverless push-pole, lower using rope/cable

	PFASsive	shallow sediments, monitoring wells	hand-push, diverless push-pole, lower using rope/cable
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5.2.4.2 Installation and Use

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Typical peeper samplers employ a rigid body with an opening or openings that are covered with a permeable membrane or mesh (Jackson, 2003). Peeper samplers can be constructed of LEXAN®, acrylic, Teflon™, stainless steel or other millable material. Material selection is a function of site-specific characteristics (i.e., target depth and chemicals of interest). Due to the wide range of peeper designs and sizes, individual peeper cell volumes can vary from less than 1 mL to over 100 mL. Common peeper sampler structures can be divided into three categories: plate, cylinder, and bottle (Figure 5-1 and Table 5-3).

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- Plate peepers range from approximately 5 to 100 cm long and approximately 1 to 3 cm thick. A typical plate peeper design resembles a box corer with individual cells milled into the sampler body at approximately 1-cm transects. Plate peeper cell volume ranges from approximately 1 to 20 mL per cell, depending on cell depth and length.

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- Cylinder peeper designs have outer diameters ranging from approximately 1 cm to 7 cm and can be up to 4 meters long. Similar to plate peepers, individual cell volume ranges from approximately 1 to 20 mL per cell, depending on peeper diameter and cell geometry. An example of common cylinder peeper sampler construction is an acrylic cylindrical rod with holes in the side that are fitted with membrane and/or mesh material.

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- A typical bottle peeper design is a LDPE bottle with a membrane secured to the mouth of the bottle using the bottle cap. The bottle cap is perforated or cored to expose the membrane to the porewater. Bottle peeper sample volume is dependent upon the size and number of bottles used, but typically ranges from approximately 10 mL to 250 mL. Specialized modifications of the three traditional peeper designs (plate, cylinder, and bottle) have been developed to address specific needs, such as direct-drive (vs. down-well) deployment beyond near-surface sample depths (> 5 ft bgs), or to evaluate emerging contaminants with stringent sampling protocols (i.e., PFAS).

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A polysulfone membrane sampler (PsMS) is a modification of the bottle peeper sampler that was first implemented as part of a field demonstration of passive groundwater sampling devices performed at McClellan AFB, near Sacramento, California (Parsons 2004). The PsMS samplers constructed for use in the McClellan AFB study were comprised of a rigid 2-inch long, 2-inch outer diameter section of PVC pipe covered on both ends with flexible 0.2-micron polysulfone membrane (Parsons 2005). The volume of each PsMS canister is approximately 108 mL (Parsons 2005). Two canisters are typically deployed at each sample depth to provide adequate sample volume for standard laboratory analysis. The groundwater sample is transferred from

2031 the PsMS to the appropriate sample container by puncturing the membrane with a straw
2032 and pouring the contents from the sampler into the container through the straw.
2033 Considerations regarding the orientation of peeper samplers (Webster et al., 1998) led
2034 to the deployment of the PsMSs in an orientation where the membrane is positioned
2035 horizontally.

2036 The High-Resolution Passive Profiler (HRPP) is a modification of the cylindrical
2037 peeper sampler that was initially developed for direct-drive Geoprobe insertion into
2038 shallow (~30 ft bgs) aquifers to quantify chlorinated volatile organic compound
2039 (CVOC) concentrations, geochemical indicators, CVOC-degrading
2040 microorganisms/genes, and to perform compound specific isotope analysis (CSIA) of
2041 CVOCs and estimate interstitial velocity at < 1 ft resolution (Schneider et al. 2020)
2042 (Garza-Rubalcava et al. 2022). The HRPP design comprises 2.5-inch diameter, 4-foot-
2043 long stainless-steel rods that can be coupled together to achieve the desired sample
2044 interval. The HRPP design consists of three cell types with individual functions that are
2045 repeated over the length of the HRPP (Figure 7-4) (Jackson and Hatzinger 2020). The
2046 three different cell types and corresponding functionalities of the HRPP are:

- 2047 • Equilibrium cells used to quantify contaminant concentrations and geochemical
2048 indicators (e.g., NO₃⁻, NO₂⁻, Cl⁻, Mn, Fe, SO₄²⁻). Equilibrium cells function
2049 similarly to traditional peeper sampling methods.
- 2050 • Velocity cells used to measure multi-directional interstitial velocity (cm/d)
2051 based on mass transfer of a conservative tracer (e.g., bromide). Velocity cells
2052 function similarly to equilibrium cells, but the velocity cells also incorporate
2053 varied ratios of cell volume to surface area that allow the HRPP cells to
2054 equilibrate with the porewater at different rates.
- 2055 • Microbial/CSIA cells used to assess microbial community structure and CSIA
2056 of CVOCs. Microbial/CSIA cells are filled with Bio-Sep® beads that perform a
2057 dual function by serving as a matrix for microbial colonization and subsequent
2058 quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) analysis, and by accumulating
2059 CVOCs for CSIA analysis through adsorption.

2060 The sediment HRPP (sHRPP) is a modified HRPP design that is optimized for
2061 characterization of surface water sediments (vs. shallow aquifers). The sHRPP is a 3-ft-
2062 long, 5-inch-wide stainless-steel modified plate peeper design that includes the same
2063 functionalities as the HRPP but has higher resolution of sample cells (< 1 inch resolution)
2064 relative to the HRPP, appropriate for shallow sediment characterization.

2065 SPeeper™ and PFASsive™ are modified bottle peeper designs comprised of one or more
2066 60-mL LDPE bottles capped with either polyethersulfone (SPeeper™) or polycarbonate
2067 (PFASsive™) membrane (Figure 5-13 and 5-14). SPeeper and PFASsive are distributed
2068 in ready-to-use sample packs and are intended for diverless deployment into shallow
2069 sediments for characterization of water-soluble compounds (SPeeper™) and PFAS
2070 (PFASsive™) in sediment porewater.

2071 *Figure 5- 15: SPeeper™ modified bottle peepers are designed for diverless deployment in*
2072 *sediments.*

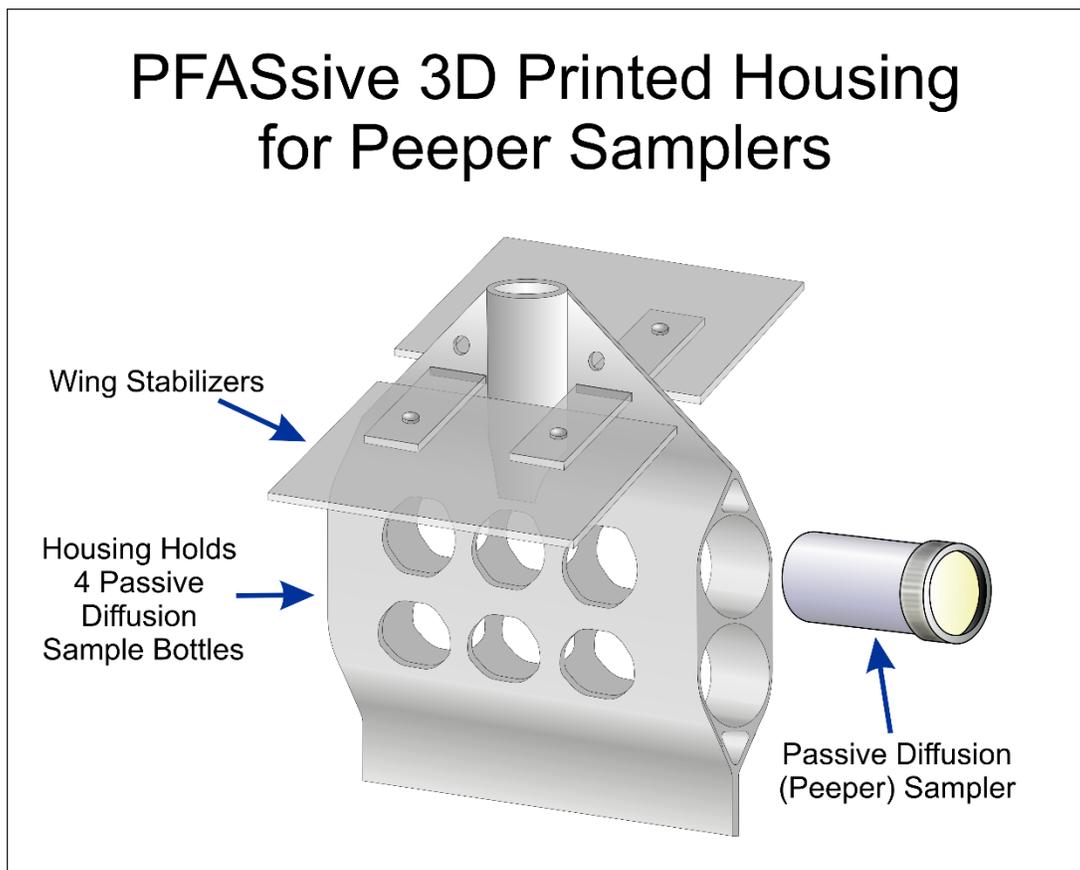
2073 *Photo source: SiREM Labs, used with permission.*



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Figure 5- 16: used with permission from NJDEP.



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5.2.4.3 Advantages

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- Commercially available peepers are relatively low-cost and user-friendly.
- Peeper types that are directly inserted into saturated soil/sediment are more representative of porewater concentrations than more active sampling methods.

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- 2081 • Peeper types that are intended to be deployed in monitoring wells can be deployed
2082 to great depths, and at multiple depth intervals. Deploying multiple peepers in a
2083 monitoring well can be a way to achieve more depth-discrete samples than
2084 traditional low-flow purging and sampling.
- 2085 • The “skeleton” of peeper samplers is reusable if properly decontaminated
- 2086 • HRPP samplers can be a cost-effective alternative to installing groundwater
2087 monitoring wells.
- 2088 • HRPP and sHRPP samplers offer higher vertical resolution than traditional
2089 sampling methods. High-resolution data is beneficial in refining conceptual site
2090 models and optimizing targeted monitoring/remediation, leading to long-term cost
2091 savings.
- 2092 **5.2.4.4 Limitations**
- 2093 • The PsMS is not commercially available. The sampler cost is estimated at \$91 per
2094 sampler per well, based on work associated with the former McClellan AFB
2095 demonstration study.
- 2096 • The equilibration time for peeper samplers and PsMSs can range from hours to a
2097 month depending upon the contaminant of interest, sediment type, peeper sampler
2098 volume, and membrane pore size. A week to 14 days is the most common time
2099 period to allow for chemicals to equilibrate within peeper samplers, which is based
2100 on some unpublished lab testing and results from the field. Theoretical and
2101 experimental analysis of peeper sampler equilibration dynamics can be found in the
2102 publication *Environ. Science & Technology* 32: 1727-1733.
- 2103 • PsMS samplers are typically designed to fit into wells with a minimum inside
2104 diameter of 4 inches. The membrane orientation was only demonstrated in one
2105 direction (perpendicular to horizontal flow). The samplers should be constructed
2106 under water to ensure that the capsule is completely filled with purified water prior
2107 to deployment.
- 2108 • HRPP and sHRPP sampler assembly, deployment, and sampling require training
2109 from experienced users.
- 2110 • The cost to create a custom HRPP or sHRPP sampler can be over \$1,000. A more
2111 cost effective solution is to rent pre-fabricated HRPP and sHRPP designs.
- 2112 • Plate and cylinder peepers typically provide small sample volumes (~10 mL) at
2113 high depth resolution (cm intervals). Cells can be pooled to produce 100-300 ml per
2114 foot. Bottle peepers range in size but typically have a larger sample volume
2115 compared to plate peeper samplers.
- 2116 • The inner membrane(s) cannot be reused.
- 2117 • Samples withdrawn from wetlands or lacustrine environments, via piston or other
2118 coring devices, may be anoxic and would have to be kept anaerobic during transfer
2119 to the laboratory. Otherwise, normal shipping procedures specified by your
2120 laboratory should be followed.

2121 **5.2.5 Regenerated-Cellulose Dialysis Membrane Sampler (RCDM)**

2122 **5.2.5.1 Description and Application**

2123 Regenerated-cellulose dialysis membrane (RCDM) samplers are equilibrium-based
2124 diffusion samplers, developed to sample dissolved inorganic and organic chemicals in
2125 groundwater, porewater, and surface water. RCDM samplers are disposable, so there is
2126 no need for field decontamination, and their use eliminates the possibility of cross-
2127 contamination between wells from the sampling device.

2128 The RCDM sampler is comprised of tube, filled with deionized water, which has two
2129 layers. A high-grade regenerated-cellulose dialysis membrane is contained within a
2130 protective layer of LDPE mesh. The regenerated cellulose diffusion membrane has a
2131 pore size of 0.0018-microns and a molecular weight cut-off (MWCO) of 8000 Daltons.
2132 Particulates from groundwater and surface water samples are not able to pass through,
2133 and therefore, RCDM samplers only collect dissolved chemicals. RCDM samplers have
2134 been constructed using 31.8 mm (1.25 inches) and 63.7 mm (2.5 inches) filled-diameter
2135 membranes.

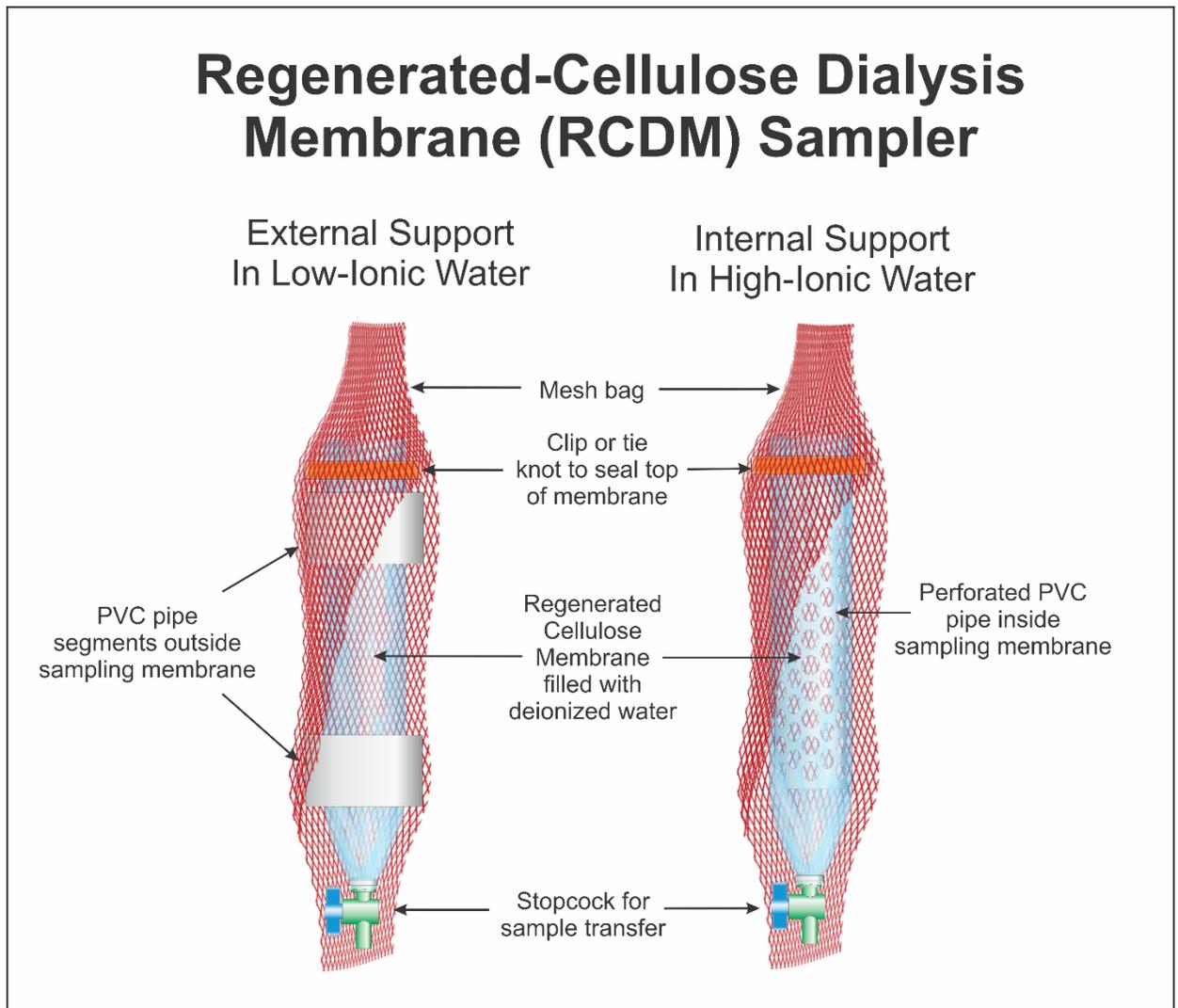
2136 Because the dialysis membrane is hydrophilic, water can diffuse through the
2137 membrane. The sampler may be constructed with or without PVC pipes external to the
2138 dialysis membrane in low-ionic strength waters. In high ionic strength waters, an
2139 internal perforated PVC pipe to support the membrane should be used to help maintain
2140 water volume within the sampler. The sampler may have a stopcock at one end to
2141 facilitate filling with deionized water and emptying the sample.

2142 Fully constructed RCDM samplers are not currently available from any commercial
2143 vendors (Imbrigiotta and Harte 2020). However, precleaned dialysis membranes can
2144 readily be purchased from several manufacturers. Since dry RCDM membranes may
2145 contain trace metals and sulfides, it is recommended that precleaned dialysis membrane
2146 material be purchased to construct RCDM samplers. The preservative that precleaned
2147 RCDM materials come in can easily be removed by rinsing the membranes with
2148 deionized water several times.

2149 The sampler is constructed from materials that can be purchased from vendors. The
2150 regenerated-cellulose membrane can be cut to the desired length based on the sample
2151 volume required. When constructing this sampler, it is important to have a source of DI
2152 water and the user should wear disposable gloves while handling the parts. The
2153 membrane needs to be rinsed thoroughly to remove the preservative the regenerated-
2154 cellulose membrane is shipped in. The LDPE mesh slips around the sampler to protect
2155 the membrane during deployment.

2156 Regenerated-cellulose samplers have been successfully tested in the lab for a variety of
2157 water-quality parameters, including VOCs, major cations and anions, nutrients, trace
2158 metals, specific conductance, total dissolved solids, dissolved organic carbon, dissolved
2159 hydrocarbon gases, sulfide, selected explosive compounds, perchlorate, MTBE, and
2160 some PFAS (Imbrigiotta et al, 2007). RCDM samplers were unsuccessful in sampling
2161 for mercury, tin, and silver in the laboratory over a 4-week equilibration period
2162 (Imbrigiotta et al, 2007). These trace metals may form organic complexes that strongly
2163 sorb to the membrane.

2164

Figure 5- 17: used with permission.

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5.2.5.2 Installation and Use

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RCDM samplers are typically deployed in the saturated interval of the well screen or in the saturated open interval of an open bore hole well at a desired sampling depth consistent with site DQOs. For deployment, the sampler is attached to a weighted suspension-tether, lowered to the intended depth, and the tether secured at the top of the well (Imbrigiotta et al., 2008; Imbrigiotta and Harte, 2020). Multiple RCDMs can be deployed in a single well to sample at discrete intervals to vertically profile the water chemistry in the open interval.

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After deployment, the RCDM sampler(s) must remain in the well for sufficient time (Minimum Residence Time) for (1) hydraulic stabilization of the groundwater flow through the open interval of a well after the introduction of the sampler, and (2) chemical equilibration of the water inside the sampler membrane with the groundwater

2179 flowing past it outside the sampler membrane. Retrieve the dialysis sampler from the
2180 well after the appropriate equilibration time and transfer the samples to standard sample
2181 containers. The containers can be sent to the laboratory for direct analysis of water
2182 concentrations.

2183 Laboratory equilibration testing has shown that RCDM samplers chemically equilibrate
2184 within the times below, not including the time it takes the well to re-stabilize
2185 hydraulically.

2186 • 1–3 days for anions, silica, methane, dissolved organic carbon, all VOCs on the
2187 EPA 8260B list (including MTBE) (Ehlke et al., 2004; Harter and Talozzi, 2004;
2188 Imbrigiotta et al., 2007);

2189 • 3–7 days for most cations and trace elements (Vroblecky et al., 2002; Imbrigiotta et
2190 al., 2007);

2191 • 7–14 days for most explosive compounds and perchlorate (LeBlanc, 2003; Parker
2192 and Mulherin, 2006; Imbrigiotta and Trotsky, 2011).

2193 • Field equilibration testing has shown that RCDM samplers yield concentrations of
2194 VOCs similar to those yield by PDBs and low flow purging and sampling
2195 (Vroblecky et al., 2002; Vroblecky and Pravecek, 2002a and b; Imbrigiotta et al.,
2196 2002; Vroblecky et al., 2003; Parsons, 2005; Imbrigiotta et al., 2007). It has also
2197 been shown that RCDM samplers yield concentrations of most inorganic chemicals,
2198 dissolved organic carbon, and most explosives similar to those collected by low
2199 flow purging and sampling (Imbrigiotta et al, 2007; Imbrigiotta and Trotsky, 2011).
2200 There is also some preliminary evidence that RCDM samplers are able to recover
2201 concentrations of selected PFAS compounds as well as low flow purging also
2202 (Imbrigitotta and Fiore, 2021).

2203 **5.2.5.3 Advantages**

2204 • RCDM samplers provide a sample of dissolved chemicals, keeping out suspended
2205 particles.

2206 • RCDM samplers have been lab and field tested for a wide range of commonly
2207 sampled organic and inorganic chemicals.

2208 • RCDM sampler volume is dependent on diameter and length of sampler. The volume
2209 contained can be easily increased or decreased during construction unlike some other
2210 equilibrium samplers that are volume limited.

2211 **5.2.5.4 Limitations**

2212 • RCDM sampling devices are not commercially available so they must be
2213 constructed by the user, and this requires some training. Regenerated-cellulose
2214 dialysis membranes are readily available for purchase from several vendors. The
2215 price per foot of regenerated cellulose membrane is more costly than polyethylene
2216 membrane, but PDBs cannot be used to sample for inorganics.

2217 • RCDM samplers must be kept hydrated in DI water between the time of
2218 construction and time of deployment to maintain the permeability, flexibility, and
2219 strength of the membrane.

- 2220
- 2221
- 2222
- 2223
- Regenerated-cellulose dialysis membranes can biodegrade within 4 weeks, depending on groundwater temperatures and bacterial populations, resulting in perforations and partial to total sample loss. However, all chemicals successfully sampled by RCDM samplers require equilibration times of only 2-3 weeks
- 2224
- RCDM samplers lose a small percentage of their water volume with time (<3% per week) due to the nature of the dialysis process (Imbrigiotta, et al, 2007). This is not a significant problem in fresh water when RCDM samplers are installed for less than 4 weeks. In saline waters, the water loss can be minimized by installing an internal support inside the dialysis membrane.
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2229 **5.2.6 Rigid Porous Polyethylene Sampler (RPPS)**

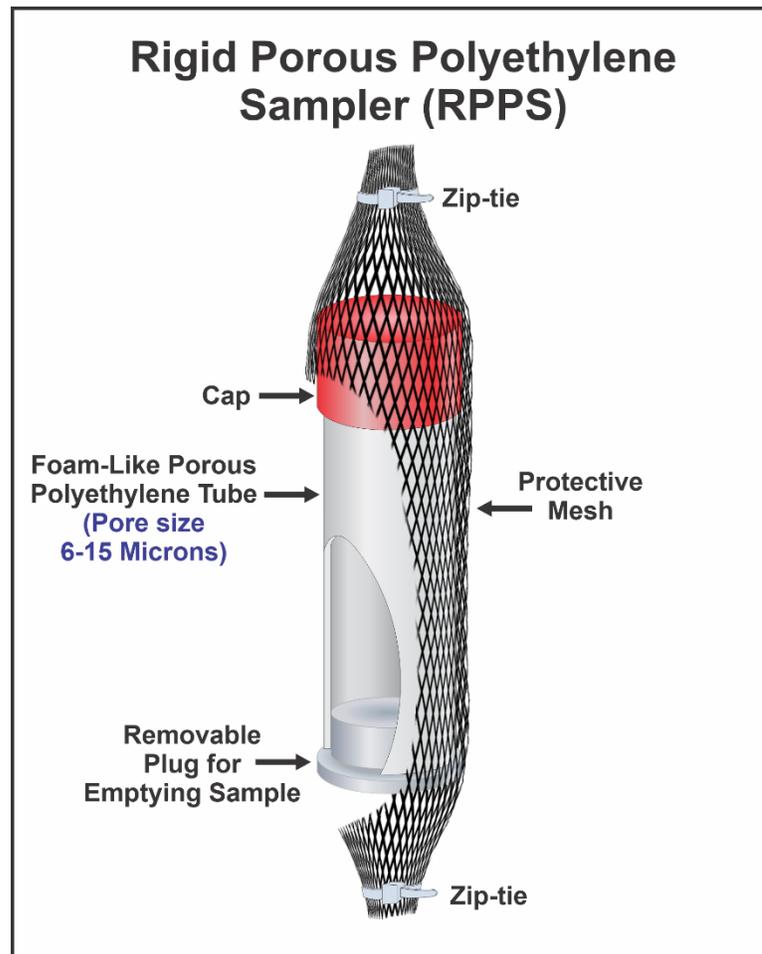
2230 **5.2.6.1 Description and Application**

2231 Rigid porous polyethylene samplers (RPPSs) are diffusion-based samplers that were
2232 developed to sample for a broader range of chemicals than can be collected by the PDB
2233 sampler, including both organic and inorganic chemicals. The RPPS was specifically
2234 designed to collect groundwater samples from a discrete interval in monitoring or water
2235 wells. The RPPS can also be used to collect water from surface water and pore water.

2236 The RPPS that is currently available commercially consists of a 1.5-inch OD, 6-inch-
2237 long, rigid porous polyethylene tube with a plug on one end and a cap on the other end
2238 (Imbrigiotta and Harte 2020). The tube is constructed from thin sheets of foam-like
2239 porous polyethylene with pore sizes of 6 to 15 microns (Imbrigiotta and Harte 2020).
2240 The sampler is filled with DI water, closed at both ends, and additional water added
2241 under pressure to overcome the hydrophobic nature of the material and saturate the
2242 pores. Using care in handling so the sampler will not lose water, the RPPS is inserted
2243 into a polyethylene mesh tube, attached to a weighted suspension tether using cable
2244 ties, and deployed in a well or surface water or sediment environment. Over time,
2245 chemicals diffuse through the water-filled pores of the porous polyethylene and
2246 equilibrate with the water inside the sampler. Upon retrieval, the plug is removed, and
2247 the contents of the sampler are poured into laboratory sample containers. The sampler
2248 may leak water upon retrieval due to the pore size of the polyethylene tubing. While
2249 surface tension of the water can keep most of the sample within the sampler, the RPPS
2250 should be removed with care to avoid disturbing the surface tension within the sampler.
2251 Filtration may be required to achieve a dissolved-only groundwater sample for metal
2252 analysis.

2253 The original, patented RPPS prototype consisted of a 1.5-inch-OD, 6- to 7-inch-long, 2-
2254 mm-thick, rigid polyethylene tube with caps and valves at both ends (Battelle, 2010).
2255 Upon retrieval the original prototype tended to leak sample water through the pores of
2256 the porous polyethylene material (D. A. Vroblesky, personal communication, 2004).
2257 Subsequent designs of shorter lengths using a Delrin plug at the lower end have
2258 significantly reduced leakage. When VOCs are analytes of interest, an additional small
2259 plug is placed in the Delrin plug. Use of this smaller plug minimizes potential loss of
2260 VOCs by any vacuum that might be created when the plug is removed.

2261

Figure 5- 18: used with permission from NJDEP.

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5.2.6.2 Installation and Use

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The RPPSs are shipped in a disposable DI-water-filled sleeve. The RPPS is deployed plug end down in a predetermined interval in a groundwater well and left to equilibrate for at least 14 days (depending on target chemicals) or until the next sampling event.

2266

The maximum deployment period is unknown. The currently available RPPS must be

2267

deployed in a well with an inside diameter of at least 2 inches. When the RPPS is

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retrieved it is inverted, the plug is removed, and the contents poured into the sample

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bottles immediately. Compared to the original design, leakage is minimized and sample

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transfer into the bottles is much quicker.

2271

2272

The RPPS were specifically designed to collect groundwater samples from a discrete

2273

interval in monitoring or water wells. These samplers are capable of monitoring most

2274

compounds (both inorganic and organic) present in dissolved phases in the groundwater

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as the sampler volume allows.

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Previous testing indicated that the maximum feasible sampler length is approximately

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7.5 inches. Use of a longer sampler would result in leakage of sampled water out of the

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sampler walls due to the higher head pressure present in the sampler that overcomes the

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surface tension of the water at the pore interface, forcing water through any pores with

2280 more than about 6-7 inches of head (Vroblesky, 2004). The current 1.5-inch OD RPPS
2281 design contains approximately 110 mL. Larger volumes could be obtained by using a
2282 larger-diameter sampler, when the well diameter allows; however larger diameters are
2283 not currently commercially available. Larger sample volumes can be obtained by using
2284 multiple samplers attached end-to-end or side-by-side (if well diameter allows). The
2285 limited sample volume requires careful consideration of the total sample volume
2286 needed for each individual project. This may include coordination with the laboratory
2287 to address any sample volume limitations.

2288 RPPS devices were included in a field demonstration of multiple passive groundwater
2289 sampling devices at the former McClellan AFB (Sacramento, California) in 2004
2290 (Demonstration of Alternative Groundwater Sampling Technologies at McClellan AFB,
2291 Parsons 2005). According to the field demonstration data, the RPPS performs well at
2292 monitoring for anions, metals, and hexavalent chromium. While performing similarly to
2293 the low-flow purge method for metals and inorganics, the RPPS did not provide results
2294 similar to low-flow purge for some VOCs, SVOCs, and other hydrophobic organic
2295 compounds. It is suspected that such compounds with low recoveries sorbed to the
2296 polyethylene material and there was insufficient time to reach static equilibrium with
2297 the polyethylene material (ITRC 2007). Table 5 - 2 shows general applicability to
2298 chemicals of interest, as found in previous laboratory and field pilots.

2299 When using water-filled diffusion samplers to sample redox-sensitive parameters in a
2300 well that maintains anaerobic water in the well bore, one approach to avoid oxidation
2301 and precipitation of redox-sensitive metals is to use anaerobic water as the sampler
2302 filling solution. This method would require special handling of pre-filled samplers.
2303 However, when oxygenated water is used to fill the RPPS that is deployed in anaerobic
2304 water, the solution within the sampler becomes anaerobic over time by diffusion. Not
2305 enough work has been done yet to define when prefilling with anaerobic water is
2306 necessary or if there will be an effect on equilibration time.

2307 **5.2.6.3 Advantages**

- 2308 • Applicable to inorganic and organic analytes
- 2309 • Is supplied field-ready
- 2310 • Decontamination of the RPPS is not needed because the device is disposable.

2311 **5.2.6.4 Limitations**

- 2312 • The cost of RPPS is at the high end for equilibration samplers.
- 2313 • Multiple samplers may need to be deployed to obtain sufficient volume for
2314 laboratory analysis if testing for a wide range of chemicals. coordination with the
2315 laboratory beforehand can avoid volume limitation as a concern.
- 2316 • Additional testing may be necessary to understand possible chemical limitations for
2317 these samplers (in particular, hydrophobic VOCs and SVOCs).
- 2318 • The samplers fit into wells with a minimum inside diameter of 2.0 inches.

- 2319 • The porous polyethylene sampler pores often hold air even when submerged.
2320 Consequently, the oxygen entrained in the pore space must be removed by sparging
2321 with water and nitrogen prior to deployment.

2322 **5.2.7 Polymeric Sampling Devices (Low Density Polyethylene Sampler (LDPE),**
2323 **Polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS)-coated glass fiber (SPME fiber),**
2324 **Plyoxymethylene (POM))**

2325 **5.2.7.1 Description and Application**

2326 Polymeric sampling devices have been used for several decades to measure freely
2327 dissolved contaminant concentrations of various organic chemicals present in surface
2328 water, groundwater, sediment porewater, and air. Polymeric passive samplers rely on
2329 absorption of certain hydrophobic organic chemicals into the polymer-based material
2330 being utilized for the sampling process. This process relies on the thermodynamic
2331 exchange, or equilibrium partitioning, of a contaminant of interest between water or air
2332 and the polymeric sampler via diffusion.

2333 Polymeric passive samplers require equilibrium conditions, either achieved (through
2334 sufficient exposure time) or partially achieved and corrected (through the use of PRCs),
2335 to obtain an accurate measurement of contaminant concentrations. Achieving
2336 equilibrium is influenced by multiple factors including the contaminant of interest, the
2337 type of sampler used, and other environmental factors. Commonly used PRCs are
2338 deuterated or radiolabeled C13 compounds. These PRCs are pre-loaded into a given
2339 polymeric passive sampler, and the loss of PRCs after deployment are then quantified
2340 and used to correct the concentration when equilibrium is not achieved during the given
2341 exposure period (EPA, 2017). Freely dissolved concentration can be determined
2342 through the equation below:

Equation 2

$$C_w = C_p / K_p - w$$

Where:

C_w = freely dissolved concentration in water (ng/L)

C_p = concentration in polymer (ng/L)

K_{p-w} = Polymer-water partitioning coefficient (L/L)

*polymer coefficient will depend on type of polymer used

2343

2344 Analytical methods require extraction of target analytes from the sampler and yield
2345 concentrations relative to the polymeric passive sampler. Subsequently, the analytical
2346 results can be converted to a concentration relevant to the particular environmental
2347 media being sampled through the application of partitioning coefficients. The use of
2348 polymeric passive samplers provides a time averaged concentration of freely dissolved
2349 organic chemicals at low detection levels without the need for high volume water
2350 collection. The use of polymeric passive samplers provides a measurement of the freely
2351 dissolved porewater concentration for contaminants, which is considered more

2352 representative of the chemical's bioavailable fraction compared to bulk sediment
2353 samples.

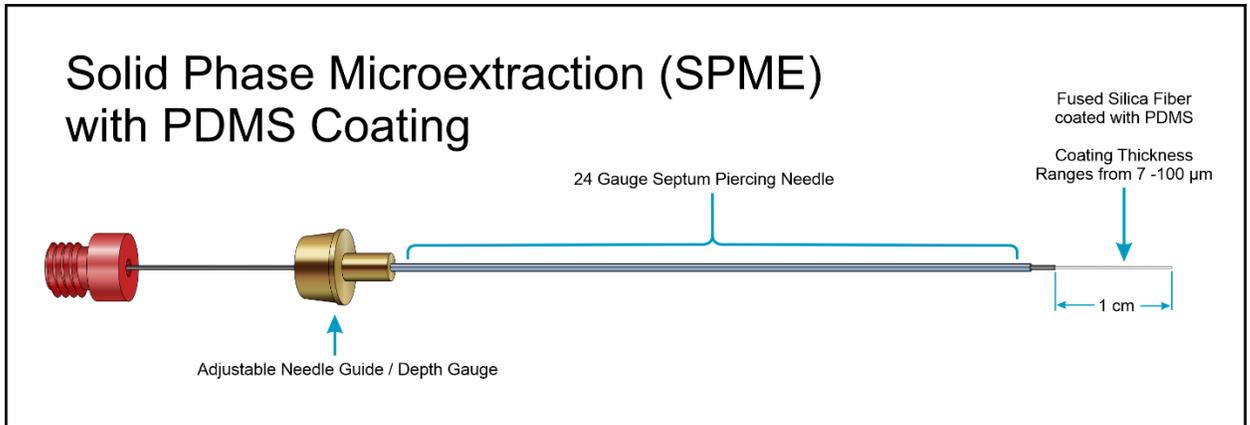
2354 The three polymeric sampling devices have similar, though not identical, sorption
2355 properties, but in different geometries or configurations. POM and LDPE are typically
2356 configured in thin bulk flat sheets (25 to 100 micrometers [μm]), while PDMS-coated
2357 glass fiber is cylindrical shape glass capillaries (100 to 1,000 μm diameter) coated with
2358 a thin PDMS polymer (10 to 30 μm). More recently, advances in polymeric sampling
2359 have resulted in a shift to reliance on low density polyethylene (LDPE) and
2360 polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS)-coated glass fiber (i.e., solid phase microextraction
2361 (SPME) fiber). The focus of this subsection is primarily on LDPE and PDMS-coated
2362 SPME given their prevalence and current use compared to POM samplers. Solid phase
2363 microextraction (SPME) is a sampling technique that usually uses a glass fiber coated
2364 with an extracting phase such as organic polymer and extract/concentrates target
2365 chemicals from a bulk phase such as water and air. The term "SPME" has been most
2366 often applied to the use of PDMS-coated glass fiber; however, POM and LDPE also
2367 essentially involve solid-phase extraction processes.

2368 Both LDPE and PDMS-coated SPME samplers typically require a deployment time of
2369 30 days. However, deployment times can vary depending on sampling conditions, in
2370 situ versus ex situ exposure parameters, and the target analytes being measured. More
2371 hydrophobic compounds, such as PCBs and dioxin/furans, typically require the full
2372 exposure period, along with potential corrections to account for analytes that don't
2373 achieve equilibrium relative to less hydrophobic compounds, such as PAHs.

2374 Numerous guidance documents and tools have been developed to support application of
2375 these types of passive samplers in multiple phases of site investigation and monitoring.
2376 The US EPA published a 2017 User's Manual along with calculator tools for data
2377 analysis available on the US EPA's website. Regulatory acceptance of integrating
2378 passive samplers into site characterization and monitoring has increased in recent years.
2379 While no published standard methods are currently available for polymeric passive
2380 samplers, numerous studies have been conducted to standardize the preparation and
2381 analysis.

2382 POM samplers are pieces of plastic sheeting ranging from 10 to 100 μm in thickness
2383 (U.S. EPA/SERDP/ESTCP 2017) (U.S. EPA, SERDP, and ESTCP 2017). PDMS
2384 samplers are fibers any they can also range in size, from 10 to 100 μm . The most
2385 common thickness frequently used for PDMS is 35 μm . For PDMS-coated SPMEs, the
2386 PDMS coating the glass fiber SPME rods is generally around 30 to 100 μm thick, with a
2387 typical thickness of 35 μm (Michalsen, et.al., 2020). Multiple PDMS coated rods are
2388 typically deployed within the same sampler unit to increase the absorptive capacity and
2389 decrease analytical detection limits. Perforated metal rods, plates, or similar enclosures
2390 are typically utilized to ensure the samplers are protected while maintaining contact
2391 with the surrounding media.

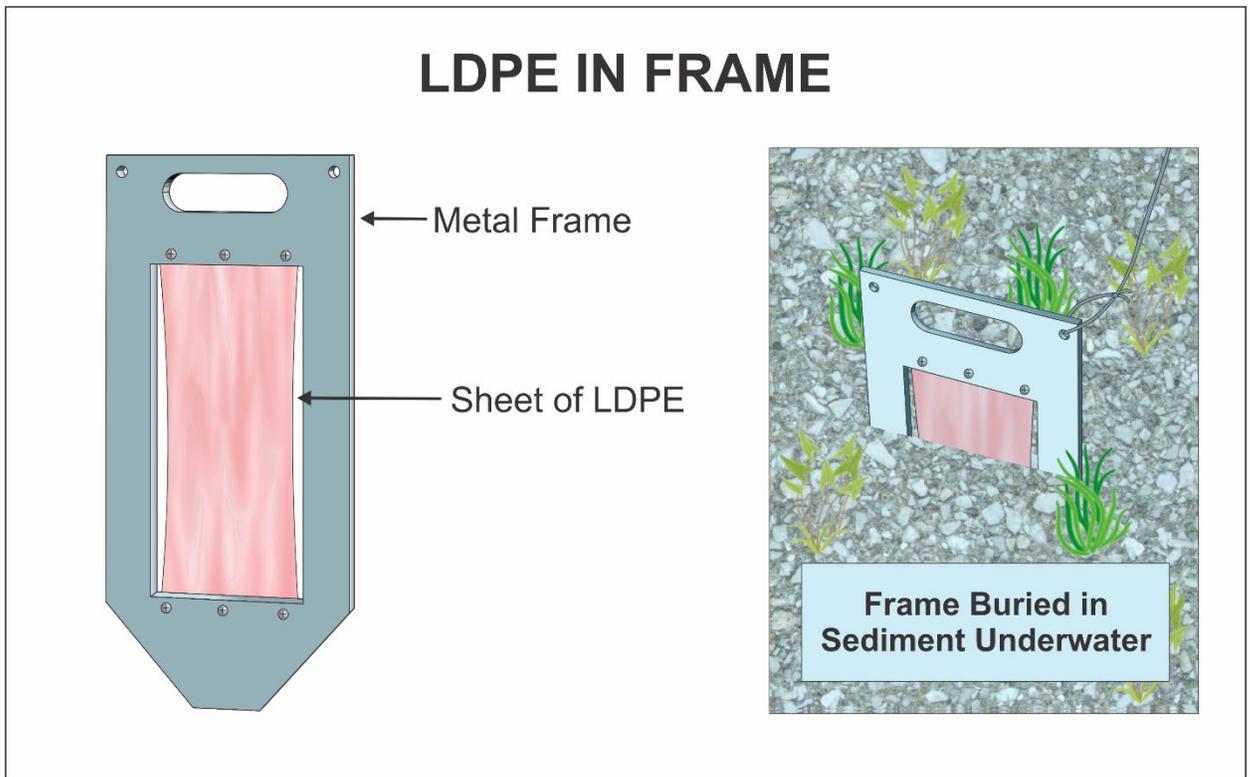
2392 Figure 5- 19: Illustration of a PDMS coated SMPE Samplers. *Figure used with*
2393 *permission from NJDEP.*



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The LDPE samplers consist of a clean, uncoated sheet of LDPE, which can vary in thickness but generally from 13 to 76 μm (U.S. EPA/SERDP/ESTCP 2017) (U.S. EPA, SERDP, and ESTCP 2017). The dimensions of the LDPE can be developed to meet specific project conditions and deployment requirements. They are most typically deployed within an open frame or a metal mesh envelope.

Figure 5- 20: used with permission from NJDEP.



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5.2.7.2 Installation and Use

Polymeric passive samplers are typically deployed within a protective metal mesh sleeve, frame, or perforated metal rod. Samplers deployed within a sediment bed can be segmented and analyzed upon retrieval to obtain stratified discrete concentration

2406 results. Samplers can also be deployed into the sediment bed in such a way that also
2407 captures the near bottom surface water.

2408 These passive samplers can be used for both ex situ and in situ sampling of sediment
2409 porewater, surface water, and groundwater. Under in situ conditions, samplers are
2410 deployed in the field and retrieved after the required deployment timeframe. For ex situ
2411 sampling, the media of interest is collected, brought back to a laboratory setting, and
2412 the samplers are deployed into the collected media. There are advantages and
2413 disadvantages to both in situ and ex situ sampling methods. For in situ, environmental
2414 conditions for the exposure period are maintained and any confounding factors
2415 introduced by moving to the laboratory are eliminated. However, there are logistical
2416 challenges that accompany in situ deployments, including loss of samplers. For ex situ
2417 sampling, exposure conditions can be controlled and time to equilibrium can also be
2418 accelerated through mixing or agitation of the media in a laboratory setting. However,
2419 site specific environmental factors that could influence the concentrations of analytes
2420 could be altered and thus influence results.

2421 For sediment porewater characterization, deployment and retrieval of polymeric passive
2422 samplers is most easily performed in shallow or intertidal environments when done in
2423 situ. Samplers can also be deployed in deeper water, but typically require the use of a
2424 dive team to assist in deployment and retrieval. Ex situ sampling only requires the
2425 collection of sediment using a core or grab.

2426 Compound Specific Information:

- 2427 • Most commonly used for PCBs and PAHs.
- 2428 • Also available for other organic chemicals including dioxins, polybrominated
2429 diphenyl ethers, chlorinated pesticides, pyrethroids.
- 2430 • Recent research in passive sampler technology has provided a form of
2431 polymeric sampling that can measure PFAS. However, this sampler currently
2432 has limited commercial availability.

2433 5.2.7.3 Advantages

- 2434 • Polymeric samplers measure the bioavailable fraction of organic chemicals,
2435 providing a more accurate representation of the fraction of contaminant available
2436 for uptake by benthic and aquatic organisms.
- 2437 • Can be performed in situ or ex situ.
- 2438 • Use of PRCs allows for correction to equilibrium for more hydrophobic
2439 contaminants or time constricted deployments.
- 2440 • Combines water sampling, extraction, and concentration
- 2441 • Measures time-averaged concentrations
- 2442 • Low detection limits for more hydrophobic compounds
- 2443 • Minimal impact on sampling matrix and interferences with dissolved organic matter
- 2444 • High resolution profiling of sediment porewater concentrations

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5.2.7.4 Limitations

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- Limited to hydrophobic contaminants.

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- No published standard method currently available, but numerous studies have been conducted to standardize methods.

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- POM requires extended equilibration time.

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- Commercially available, but on a limited basis. Several academic institutions produce and analyze passive samplers, and commercial availability is anticipated to grow.

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5.2.8 PASSIVE IN-SITU CONCENTRATION EXTRACTION SAMPLER (PISCES)

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5.2.8.1 Description and Application

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The Passive In Situ Concentration Extraction Sampler (PISCES) is intended to sample non-polar or hydrophobic organic chemicals in surface water (Belluomini et al. 1995). The sampler relies on diffusion and absorption to accumulate the target chemicals in the sampling medium (Belluomini et al. 1995). The residence period is compound specific and can range from one day to one month. The rugged construction allows the sampler to be deployed for extended periods of time.

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PISCES consist of a membrane, typically low-density polyethylene (LDPE), covering one end of a metal container filled with an organic solvent, typically hexane or isooctane (2,2,4- trimethylpentane) (Belluomini et al. 1995). Other solvents such as alcohols (methanol, ethanol, propanol) are currently being evaluated for use in this technology. Chemical uptake is propelled by the preferential partitioning of nonionic organic chemicals from water to the solvent (Belluomini et al. 1995). For hydrophobic compounds, partition coefficients are large (greater than 1,000), and sampling continues at a constant rate for weeks to months without approaching equilibrium between the solvent and the water. Sampling rates do not vary from compound to compound, so relative distribution of chemicals in the solvent reflect the relative distribution of these compounds dissolved in the water. The solvent is analyzed by conventional analytical methods. The membrane excludes ionic, high molecular-weight natural organic matter, and particulates, thereby simplifying, and in some cases eliminating, the need for cleanup of samples before analysis.

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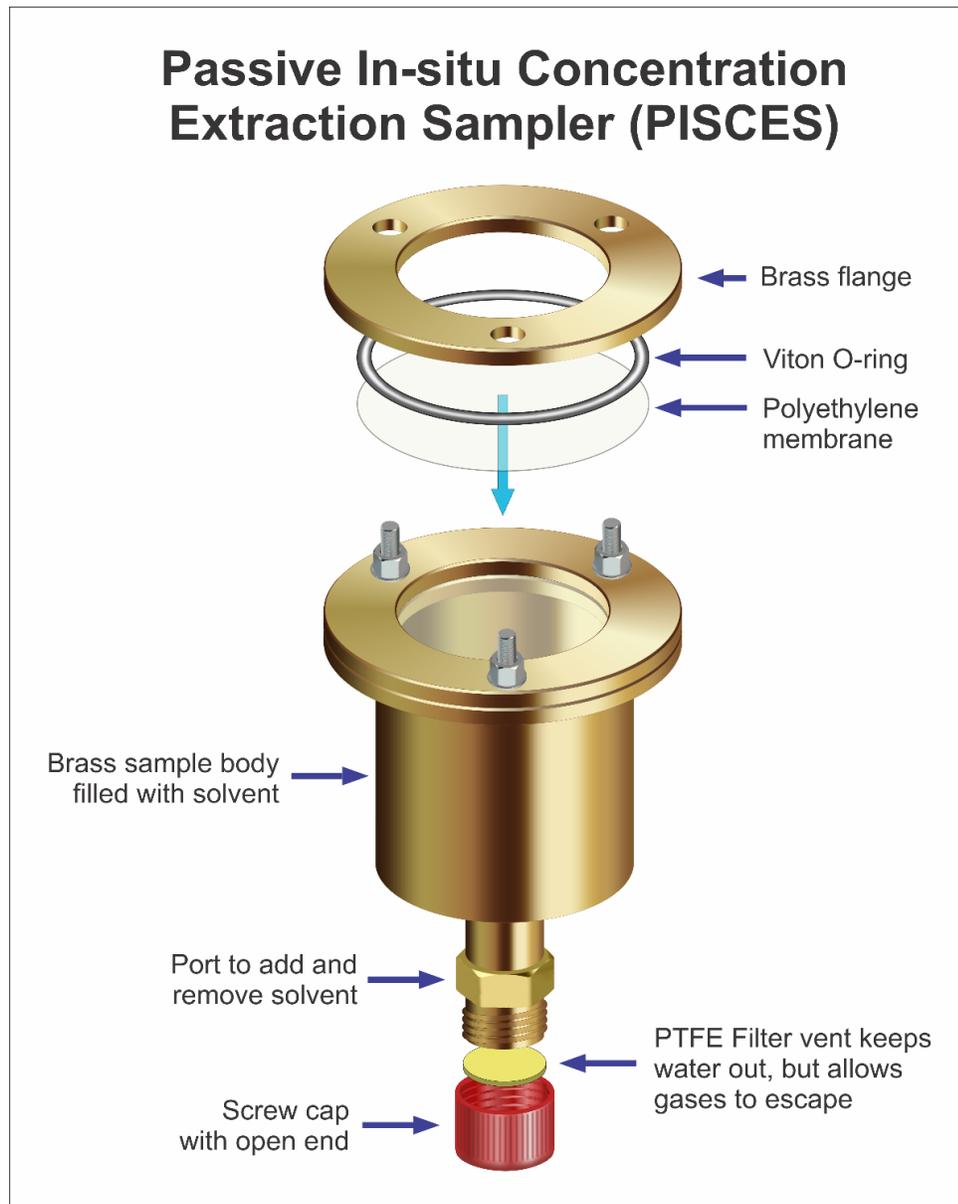
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PISCES are reusable and allow the easy addition and retrieval of the selected organic solvent. The device consists of a brass body where the selected organic solvent is placed. The top cap of the sampler is fitted with a flange and Viton O-ring to retain the LDPE membrane. A port with a screw cap is at the other end to allow addition and removal of solvent. The PTFE vent filter on the top cap prevents the migration of the sample media from entering the sampler but allows gases that may accumulate during deployment to escape. The PISCES is manufactured in two sizes: a 7.6 cm (3 inches) flange diameter (has a membrane area of 21 cm² and can hold 100 mL of solvent), and a 10 cm (4 inches) flange diameter (has a membrane area of 50 cm² and can hold 200 mL of solvent). Both samplers are approximately 9.5 cm (3.75 inches) long.

2487 LDPE membranes typically are between 150 and 700 μm thick (Szlachetka et al. 2021).
2488 The solvents pass through the membrane at an appreciable rate as long as the
2489 membrane is properly mounted and not damaged. Sampling rate does not differ
2490 between these two solvents. Hexane extracts are more easily concentrated by
2491 evaporation, and more volatile compounds can be separated from hexane and analyzed
2492 by gas chromatography; however, hexane is more flammable than isooctane, presenting
2493 a greater hazard to field crews and individuals who might tamper with samplers in the
2494 field. Isooctane extracts are more difficult to concentrate by evaporation, requiring
2495 vacuum distillation if a boiling water bath is used as the heat source. Because of the
2496 lower fire hazard, isooctane is the recommended solvent unless volatile chemicals such
2497 as xylenes are to be analyzed.
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Figure 5- 21: used with permission from NJDEP.

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5.2.8.2 Installation and Use

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Samplers are assembled in the laboratory and transported to the sampling site empty. Samplers are filled with solvent immediately before placing in the water to minimize evaporative loss of solvent through the membrane. Usually, samplers are suspended from an anchored float. Samplers have been deployed as deep as 20 m (66 ft) without problems and can likely be used much deeper. In areas prone to vandalism or other tampering, floats can be anchored below the water surface to make them less visible. In shallow water, samplers can be directly attached to a cinder block and placed on the bottom.

2511 At the end of the deployment, solvent is decanted from the sampler into the laboratory
2512 supplied container at the sampling site and returned to the laboratory for analysis. If
2513 time-series extracts are being collected, the sampler can be refilled with solvent at the
2514 sampling site and placed back in the water.

2515 PISCES are designed as surface water samplers. They are not suitable for air sampling
2516 using hexane or isooctane as solvents because of vaporization of the solvents through
2517 the membrane. Quantitative application can typically be achieved in aqueous media
2518 where the water can be considered a source of chemical concentrations.

2519 The uptake of compounds by PISCES is characterized by the sampling rate. The
2520 sampling rate is the volume of water that is cleared of chemical per unit time. Typical
2521 sampling rates are 1-4 L/day for lakes. Rates increase with membrane area,
2522 temperature, and water agitation and decrease slightly at salinities up to seawater.
2523 Under very turbulent conditions, sampling rates approaching 20 L/day have been
2524 observed in the laboratory.

2525 Typically, over 100 L of water is sampled for a one-month exposure. This yields a 100-
2526 fold decrease in detection limit relative to the traditional approach of grab-sampling and
2527 extraction of a 1-liter water sample.

2528 **5.2.8.3 Advantages**

- 2529 • Samplers can be redeployed without decontamination to same sample location
- 2530 • Lightweight
- 2531 • Reusable
- 2532 • Improved laboratory detection limits
- 2533 • Allow easy addition and retrieval of solvent

2534 **5.2.8.4 Limitations**

- 2535 • Samplers are expensive
- 2536 • Samplers must remain submerged during deployment
- 2537 • Deployment to moving bodies of surface water requires careful consideration to
2538 avoid damage
- 2539 • Samplers may contain solvent that potentially could be released to sampled media,
- 2540 • Some hazardous shipping and handling requirements may apply
- 2541 • Samplers are not widely accepted by laboratories for analysis.

2542 **5.2.9 Ceramic Dosimeter / Ceramic Diffusion Sampler**

2543 **5.2.9.1 Description and Application**

2544 The Ceramic dosimeter is a time-integrative passive sampler designed to measure
2545 VOCs, PAHs, and other organic chemicals in groundwater, surface water, and
2546 porewater (Martin et al., 2003; Bopp et al., 2005; Bopp et al., 2007; and Bonifacio et
2547 al., 2017). Ceramic dosimeter is made of a ceramic tube and solid adsorbent beads or
2548 resins enclosed inside of the tube. A ceramic tube acts as diffusive-controlling barrier

2549 for target organic compounds. Enclosed solid adsorbent inside of the tube can uptake
2550 target organic compounds. The Ceramic dosimeter continuously accumulates target
2551 organic compounds during deployment in water. Solid adsorbent beads are extracted a
2552 few times with organic solvents such as acetone after retrieval to determine the
2553 accumulated mass of a target compound. Once adsorbed, certain chemicals do not
2554 significantly degrade, desorb, or diffuse out of the ceramic dosimeter (Martin et al.,
2555 2003). The ceramic tube is inert, water-wet, and does not adsorb or swell in contact
2556 with target organic compounds. Polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) caps are used to close a
2557 ceramic tube to minimize sorption of target organic compounds, and those caps are
2558 fixed in a stainless-steel holder.

2559 Martin et al. (2003) showed that the relationship between the time-weighted average
2560 concentration of a target chemical and the accumulated mass on the solid adsorbent
2561 beads is based on Fick's first law as follows:

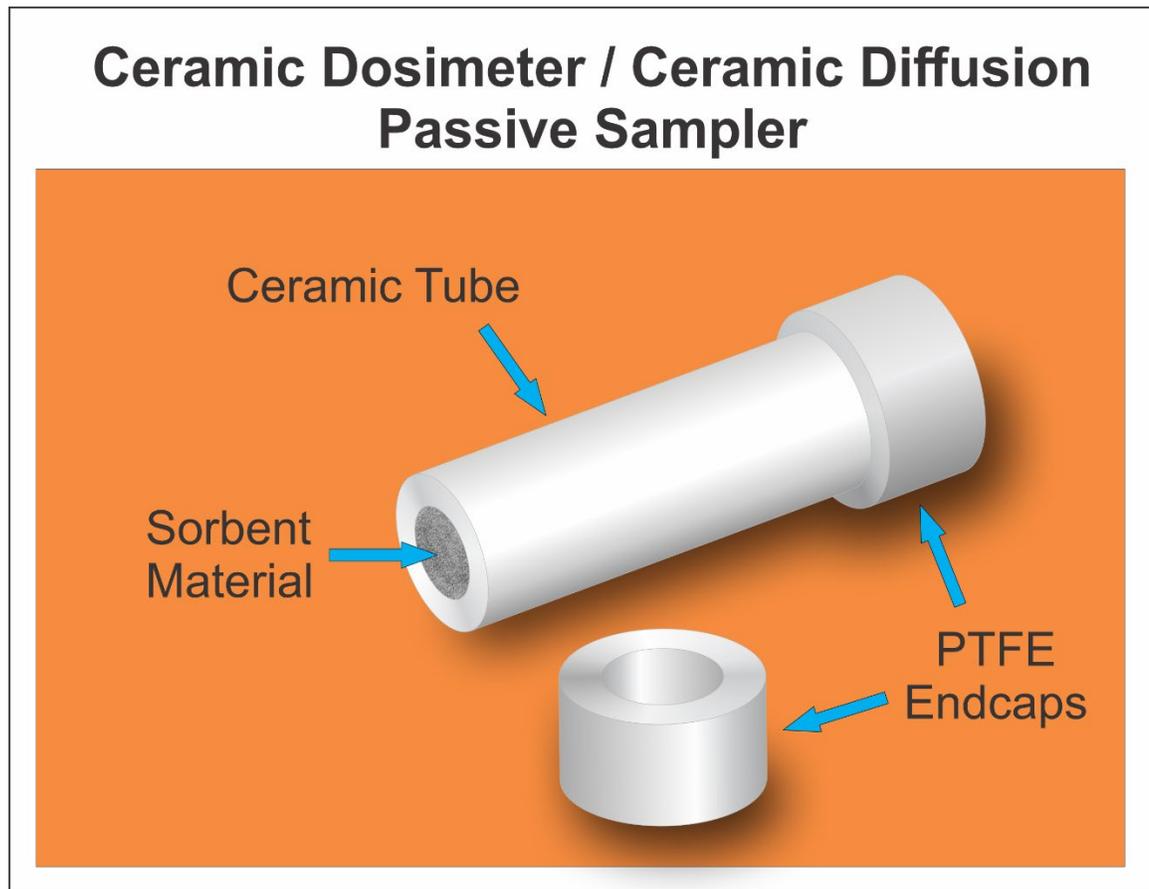
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$$M = F \cdot A \cdot t = D_e \frac{\Delta C}{\Delta x} \cdot A \cdot t \cong D_e \cdot C_W \cdot A \cdot t$$

2563 where M is the accumulated mass of a target chemical [M], F is the mass flux of a
2564 target chemical through the ceramic tube [$M t^{-1} L^{-2}$], A is the ceramic tube surface area
2565 [L^2], t is the deployment time [t], D_e is the effective diffusion coefficient of a target
2566 chemical, and $\Delta C/\Delta x$ is the concentration gradient across the ceramic tube. Maintaining
2567 the concentration of the solute inside the sampler as close to zero as possible will allow
2568 a time weighted concentration to be calculated from the accumulated mass. This is
2569 accomplished through the addition of high-capacity adsorbent beads inside the tube.
2570 These beads ensure the linear uptake of the target compound during the entire
2571 deployment time.

2572 As an example, solid adsorbent beads made of Amberlite IRA-743 from Sigma-Aldrich
2573 and showed its applicability to measure benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene, and xylenes
2574 (BTEX) in groundwater. The comparison between the concentrations derived from
2575 ceramic dosimeters and average concentrations determined by frequent conventional
2576 snap-shot active sampling showed that ceramic dosimeters perform well over up to 90
2577 days of deployment in a contaminated aquifer (Martin et al., 2003).

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Figure 5- 22: used with permission from NJDEP.

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5.2.9.2 Installation and Use

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Research is still in progress for this technology. Different solid adsorbent beads have been used in ceramic dosimeters to measure a variety of organic compounds. This technique has been applied and tested for dioxins (Addeck et al. 2012), flame retardants (Cristale et al., 2013), pharmaceutical compounds (Franquet-Griell et al., 2017), and per- and polyfluoroalkyl substances (PFAS) (Kaserzon et al., 2019) as long as the PTFE end caps are replaced with a PFAS-free material. Ceramic dosimeter can be combined with bioassay and biomonitoring by using a unique solid adsorbent material, which is specifically called a Ceramic Toximeter (Bopp et al., 2007; Addeck et al., 2012). Bonifacio et al. (2017) used a non-porous ceramic tube that excludes the permeation of water but allows only gas-phase diffusion of VOCs to the dry resin inside the ceramic tube and showed its effectiveness to measure VOC concentrations in water.

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Ceramic dosimeter without solid adsorbent beads or resin can be used as an equilibrium passive sampler. Gefell et al (2018) used a ceramic porous cup saturated and filled with reagent water as a diffusion-based equilibrium passive sampler to measure SVOC and PAH concentrations in porewater containing non-aqueous phase liquid (NAPL). A ceramic porous cup is resistant to NAPL entry because of small pore sizes (i.e., a few micrometers) and the non-wetting behavior of NAPL; a ceramic porous cup acts as a

2600 capillary barrier and excludes NAPL from water samples. A ceramic diffusion sampler
2601 can be placed into sediment or groundwater wells to equilibrate by diffusion to measure
2602 SVOCs and PAHs without NAPL impacts. This is a unique feature of this technology
2603 as NAPL exclusion is quite difficult for other passive samplers. For example, polymeric
2604 passive samplers such as LDPE and SPME fibers are preferentially coated and fouled
2605 with NAPL. NAPL surface coating onto polymeric passive samplers can result in
2606 overestimation of freely dissolved concentrations of a target chemical.

2607 **5.2.9.3 Advantages**

- 2608 • Ceramic porous cups and tubes are commercially available.
- 2609 • Ceramic materials can exclude NAPL from water samples.
- 2610 • Ceramic dosimeter can achieve better detection limits for VOCs compared to grab
2611 and equilibrium-based passive samplers because of the accumulation of those
2612 compounds on solid adsorbent beads.
- 2613 • A wide range of organic compounds may be measured by using different solid
2614 adsorbent beads inside a ceramic tube.

2615 **5.2.9.4 Limitations**

- 2616 • Ceramic dosimeter and ceramic equilibrium sampler cannot be used for inorganic
2617 compounds because of uptake by ceramic materials.
- 2618 • Ceramic dosimeter is still in development phase and requires extra steps to
2619 determine aqueous phase concentrations compared to grab or equilibrium passive
2620 samplers.

2621 **5.3 Accumulation Sampling Technologies**

2622 Accumulation (integrative) devices function in liquid and gas media where molecules freely
2623 move about within the medium under naturally occurring conditions of molecular motion,
2624 thermal convection, and flow. They concentrate the target chemical on a selective collecting
2625 medium such as an absorbent or adsorbent solid, a solvent, or chemical reagent (ITRC 2022).

2626 The collecting medium may be in direct contact with the sampled medium. For example,
2627 ambient air being sampled may be in direct contact with the absorptive granular solid
2628 material, like granular activated carbon, in the device. Alternatively, the collecting medium
2629 may be contained within a semipermeable membrane so that only certain molecules are able
2630 to diffuse from the sampled medium, through the membrane, and into contact with the
2631 collecting medium. For example, an absorbent gel may be contained within a hydrophobic
2632 membrane so that when immersed in water the membrane prevents water molecules from
2633 coming in direct contact with the collecting gel but allows diffusion of specific contaminant
2634 molecules through the membrane so that they can be absorbed by the gel.

2635 Target molecules that come in contact with the collecting medium accumulate on the
2636 collecting medium during the exposure period, at compound-specific uptake rates that are
2637 influenced by the temperature, pressure, flow rate past the sampler, and turbulence of the
2638 sampled environment. The target molecules continue to accumulate on the collecting medium
2639 until the medium reaches saturation; therefore, the collecting medium does not come to

2640 concentration equilibration with the surrounding medium. If the target medium becomes
2641 saturated before removal and analysis, the calculation of concentration will be understated.

2642 After the sampler has been recovered, the target molecules are de-sorbed from the collecting
2643 medium at a lab to produce a result of mass of accumulated target molecules. The resulting
2644 sample chemical mass, or flux, is used to calculate a time-weighted average (TWA)
2645 concentration of target compounds chemicals over the exposure period (Huckins, Petty, and
2646 Booji 2006) (Taylor et al. 2021[2559]).

2647 Table 5 – 4 below lists chemical families that can be analyzed using the noted passive
2648 sampling technologies (USGS, 2020).

2649 *Table 5 – 4 (see separate excel to for a user-friendly view)*

Passive Accumulation Sampling Technologies	AGI	POCIS	Sentinel	SPMD	Ceramic Dosimeter	DGT	Min Trap	Radiello	Waterloo	Beacon	Dart	Fossil Fuel	Bio-Trap
Chemical Constituents and Characteristics													
Field physiochemical characteristics (Temp, pH, SC, DO, ORP)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Major cation and anions (Ca, Mg, Na, K, HCO ₃ , Cl, SO ₄ , F, Br)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Nutrients (NO ₃ , NO ₂ , NH ₄ , PO ₄)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Some (NO ₃ , PO ₄)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Trace Elements (Metals) (Fe, Mn, Al, Ag, Zn and others)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	ALL	N/A	N/A	Some (Hg)	Hg	N/A	N/A	N/A
Perchlorate (ClO₄)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Organic Carbon (dissolved or total)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	petrogenic CO ₂ in soil (via measurements of total and modern (based on 14C))	N/A
Dissolved Hydrocarbon Gases (Methane, ethane, ethene)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Volatile Organic Compounds (Chlorinated solvents, BTEX)	All	N/A	N/A	N/A	All	N/A	N/A	ALL	ALL	All	N/A	N/A	N/A
Semi-volatile Oranics (1,4-Dioxane, BN, Phenols, PAH, PCB, dioxins, furans)	Some	N/A	N/A	Some	Some (PAH)		N/A	N/A	Some	Some	Some (PAH)	N/A	N/A
Pesticides, Herbicides, and Fungicides (organoCl, organoPO ₄)	Some	ALL	N/A	Some	NT	Some (organoc PO ₄)	N/A	N/A	N/A	Some	N/A	N/A	N/A
Explosive Compounds (RDX, HMX, TNT)	Some	N/A	N/A	NT	NT	NT	N/A	N/A	N/A	Some	N/A	N/A	N/A
Poly- and perfluoroalkyl substances (PFASs)	NT	Some	Some	NT	Some	Some	N/A	N/A	N/A	Some	N/A	N/A	N/A
Pharmaceuticals (Drugs, fragrances, hormones)	N/A	ALL	N/A	Some	N/A	Some	N/A	N/A	N/A	NT	N/A	N/A	N/A
Minerals (pyrite, mackinawite, iron compounds)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	ALL	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Microbial Population sampling (e.g. Dehalococoides)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Some	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	ALL

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Table Key	
ALL	All compounds are compatible with the sampler
Some	Some compounds are compatible with the sampler
NT	Not tested (no study to support)
N/A	Not applicable

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Acronym Key:

[Ca, calcium; Mg, magnesium; Na, sodium; K, potassium; HCO₃, bicarbonate; Cl, chloride; SO₄, sulfate; F, fluoride; Br, bromide; NO₃, nitrate, NO₂, nitrite; NH₄, ammonium; PO₄, phosphate; Fe, iron; Mn, manganese; Al, aluminum; Ag, silver; Zn, zinc; BTEX, benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene and xylene; RDX, 1,3,5-trinitro-1,3,5-triazinane; HMX, 1,3,5,7-tetranitro-1,3,5,7-tetrazoctane; TNT, trinitrotoluene; organoCl, organo-chlorine; organoP₀₄, organo-phosphate; PAH, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons; BN, base-neutral organics; PCB, polychlorinated biphenyls; ClO₄, perchlorate; PFOS, perfluorooctane sulfonic acid; PFOA, perfluorooctanoic acid; PFNA, perfluorononanoic acid, NT, not tested]

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5.3.1 AGI Universal Sampler (formerly the Gore Sorber)

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5.3.1.1 Description and Application

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The Amplified Geochemical Imaging (AGI) Universal Sampler is a device that relies on diffusion and adsorption to accumulate chemicals on the “passive sorbent collection units (‘sorbent’)” contained within the sampler (or module). These modules yield a chemical mass that can then be correlated with concentrations of said chemicals in water or air. This device can be utilized to sample soil gas in the vadose zone, indoor/outdoor air for vapor intrusion studies, and dissolved organic chemicals in either saturated soils or groundwater monitoring wells. AGI samplers can be used in both fresh and saltwater environments, including marsh sediments, streams, river embankments, and coastal settings (Belluomini et al. 1995).

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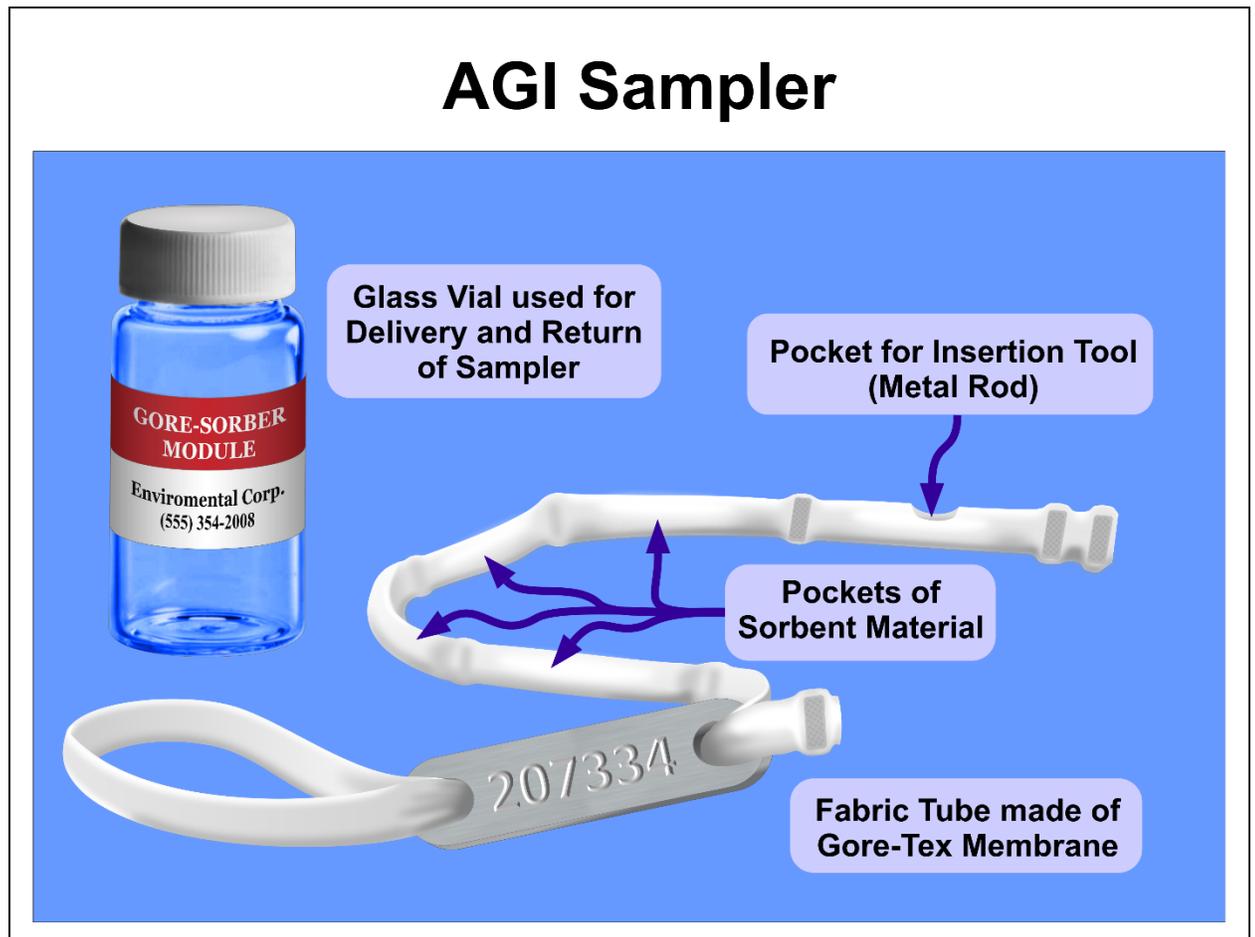
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Each module is approximately ¼ inches in diameter, 13 inches in length, and consists of a polytetrafluoroethylene (GORE-TEX™) membrane tube that contains four connected sorber pockets that contain engineered sorbent material. The Gore-Tex™ membrane is microporous, expandable, and is relatively chemically inert (Imbrigiotta and Harte 2020). A typical sorber pocket is about 25 mm in length, 3 mm in diameter, and contains a granular adsorbent material that is chosen based on the specific target compounds. Hydrophobic carbonaceous and polymeric resins are used for VOCs and SVOCs, but the adsorbent material can be custom designed for other chemicals. Organic compounds dissolved in water partition to the vapor phase (Henry’s Law) and move across the membrane to the sorbent (Imbrigiotta and Harte 2020). The end of the module has a loop with a unique serial number label. For deployment to groundwater monitoring wells, the module can be suspended on a line within the groundwater. A weight must be added to the end of the module in order to keep the module suspended at the desired depth. For the best results, the sampler should be suspended in the screened interval of the well or at the desired sample interval in an open borehole. The modules size also allows deployment to smaller diameter wells (half-inch ID and larger).

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Figure 5- 23: used with permission from NJDEP.

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5.3.1.2 Installation and Use

2685 The AGI Universal Sampler can be used to sample vadose zone soil gas, indoor/
 2686 outdoor air, and dissolved gases in groundwater. The modules arrive clean and
 2687 contained in a sealed glass vial from the manufacturer. The samplers are provided as
 2688 part of a sampling kit that includes additional installation supplies (see photos below)
 2689 such as corks, string, stainless-steel insertion rods, and chains-of-custody. Ensure that
 2690 the field personnel wear gloves (nitrile or latex) when both installing and retrieving the
 2691 samplers in all media. Additionally, for all media, it is important to ensure that the
 2692 serial numbers on the samplers match their glass vials both before deployment and
 2693 upon retrieval. Medium-specific installation and use is as follows:

2694

Soil Gas Sampling

2695 First, the field personnel must drill a vertical boring. This can be completed using a
 2696 slide hammer, rotary hammer drill, metal drive rod and hammer, or direct push drill rig.
 2697 The standard soil gas survey kit provided by AGI is designed assuming a 36-inch
 2698 vertical hole with a 1.2-inch diameter. Should a project's DQO's require deeper

2699 samples, AGI should be consulted during the planning phase of the investigation. Once
2700 the boring is drilled, the field personnel must cut a 72-inch length of string (provided)
2701 and loop it through the eyelet of the cork. The AGI Passive sampler is then removed
2702 from the glass vial, the string is threaded through the looped end, and a knot is tied to
2703 secure it. One of the stainless-steel insertion rods (see photos below) is placed into the
2704 pocket of the sampler and both the rod and sampler are inserted into the boring. Note
2705 that the insertion rod is only used to assist in the sampler insertion process, providing
2706 rigidity to the otherwise flexible sampler. Using the insertion rod, the sampler is then
2707 pushed down to the target depth interval and the rod is detached (ideally by twisting it)
2708 and retrieved. Once the sampler is placed at the target depth interval, the string, which
2709 extends up from the sampler, is tied to the bottom of the cork, which is then used to
2710 seal/plug the boring. The cork is designed to plug a ½-inch diameter hole. Once the
2711 sampler is deployed, and the installation date and time is recorded. The samplers are
2712 then left to passively collect for seven to ten days. To retrieve, the field personnel must
2713 remove the cork (by hand or with a screwdriver) and remove the sampler from the
2714 ground using the string. Once removed, the string is cut, and the sampler is wiped clean
2715 using a clean cloth rag or paper towel and returned to the corresponding glass vial. All
2716 collected samples are then logged on to the chain-of-custody and shipped to AGI's
2717 laboratory for analysis. AGI's internal research has determined that the modules do not
2718 have to be kept cold for shipment (AGI 2016). Therefore, the modules can be kept in
2719 glass vials (without refrigeration) until they are analyzed by the laboratory (typically
2720 within four to seven days).

2721

Figure 5- 24: Used with permission.



2722

2723

Figure 5- 25: Used with permission.

Slide hammer and tile probe

Rotary hammer drill and 36 in (1 m) long,
0.5 in (1 cm) diameter carbide-tipped bitHammer and 36 in (1 m) long, narrow
diameter steel rod

2724

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Figure 5- 26: Used with permission.

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Indoor/Outdoor Sampling

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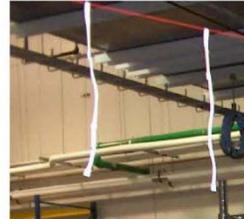
When using this device to collect indoor/outdoor air, the field personnel should decide on the appropriate method for installing the samplers in their desired locations, and have the appropriate supplies ready (i.e., pre-cut pieces of string nails, or pushpins) prior to the sampling event. On the day of sample deployment, the first step is selecting which samplers will be treated as trip blanks. These samplers are left in the kit unopened. Next, at each location, remove the sampler from its jar and re-seal the empty jar. The sampler is then attached to the sample location using the predetermined method. If string is used, tie the string to the sampler loop and then affix to the location. Once deployed, the sampler's serial number, along with the date and time of installation are recorded on the sampling log. Following the installation of all samplers, store the sample box that contains the trip blanks in a clean place, free from potential sources of organic vapors. After the samplers are allowed to passively collect for the desired time (can range from several days to multiple months), each sampler is retrieved, the retrieval date and time recorded, the attachment material disposed of, and the samplers returned to their appropriate vials. The vials are placed

2743 back into the sample box, the samples logged on the chain-of-custody, and the box
 2744 shipped to AGI's laboratory for analysis. The modules do not have to keep cold
 2745 (typically 4° C) for shipment to the laboratory. Therefore, the modules can be kept in
 2746 glass vials (without refrigeration) until they are analyzed by the laboratory (typically
 2747 within four to seven days).

2748 *Figure 5- 27: Used with permission.*



Residential basement



Manufacturing warehouse



Office conference room



Residential crawlspace

Commercial building basement, two AGI Universal Samplers
Suspended, Summa can on floor; heating oil tank and
workbench

2749

2750

Groundwater Sampling

2751 After removing the module from the vial, it is placed down a groundwater well to the
 2752 desired depth (typically in the screened interval). If warranted by a project's DQOs,
 2753 several modules can be placed at varying depths within a single well's screened
 2754 interval. After an exposure period of 15 minutes to 4 hours, the module is retrieved and
 2755 returned to its glass vial, which is then placed in the shipping container. The glass vials
 2756 containing the exposed modules, quality control samples (i.e., trip blanks, equipment
 2757 blanks, and/or duplicates), and Chain-of-Custody (COC) forms are shipped to AGI's
 2758 laboratory, typically via overnight courier. AGI's internal research has determined that
 2759 the modules do not have to be kept cold for shipment (AGI 2016). Therefore, the
 2760 modules can be kept in glass vials (without refrigeration) until they are analyzed by the
 2761 laboratory (typically within four to seven days).

2762

5.3.1.3 Advantages

2763

- Simple to install and retrieve, thereby decreasing field labor costs

2764

- When sampling groundwater, there is no purge water generated

2765

- When sampling soil gas, there is no need for pumps or purging

2766

- Applicable to a wide range VOC and SVOC compounds

- 2767 • Can be placed in NAPL to sample
- 2768 • Sensitive to parts per trillion levels
- 2769 • Minimal handling is required, reducing possible field sampling errors
- 2770 • Single use, no material decontamination needed (the sampling kit provides enough
- 2771 supplies for single use)
- 2772 • Can be used in monitoring wells, sediments, surface water, springs, and other
- 2773 aqueous settings, regardless of their flow or turbidity
- 2774 • Can be used in small-diameter monitoring wells and piezometers
- 2775 • Minimal shipping requirements (do not require ice or coolers) and reduced shipping
- 2776 costs
- 2777 • Short residence period for groundwater
- 2778 • Modules contain duplicate samples
- 2779 • Commercially available
- 2780 • Excellent for evaluating lateral delineation in less mobilizations, primarily for soil
- 2781 gas

2782 **5.3.1.4 Limitations**

- 2783 • When used to measure dissolved gases in groundwater, gives total mass desorbed,
- 2784 therefore requiring calibration with measured concentration in wells.
- 2785 • Single source supplier and laboratory
- 2786 • This technology cannot be used to measure field parameters
- 2787 • This technology cannot be used for inorganics
- 2788 • Compound detection is limited by vapor pressure
- 2789 • Not particularly feasible for vertical delineation in soil gas
- 2790 • Soil gas data may not be accepted for risk assessment purposes in some states

2791 **5.3.2 Polar Organic Chemical Integrative Sampler**

2792 **5.3.2.1 Description and Application**

2793 The Polar Organic Chemical Integrative Sampler (POCIS) is designed to sample water-
2794 soluble (polar or hydrophilic) organic chemicals from aqueous environments. This
2795 device relies on diffusion and sorption to accumulate a total mass of chemicals. The
2796 residence period ranges from weeks to months. This device has no mechanical or
2797 moving parts. The POCIS samples chemicals from the dissolved phase, mimicking the
2798 respiratory exposure of aquatic organisms. The POCIS provides a reproducible means
2799 for monitoring contaminant levels and is unaffected by many environmental stressors
2800 such as dissolved oxygen levels, water quality, and high concentrations of toxic
2801 pollutants that affect biomonitoring organisms. The POCIS also concentrates trace
2802 organic chemicals for toxicity assessments and toxicity identification evaluation (TIE)
2803 approaches.

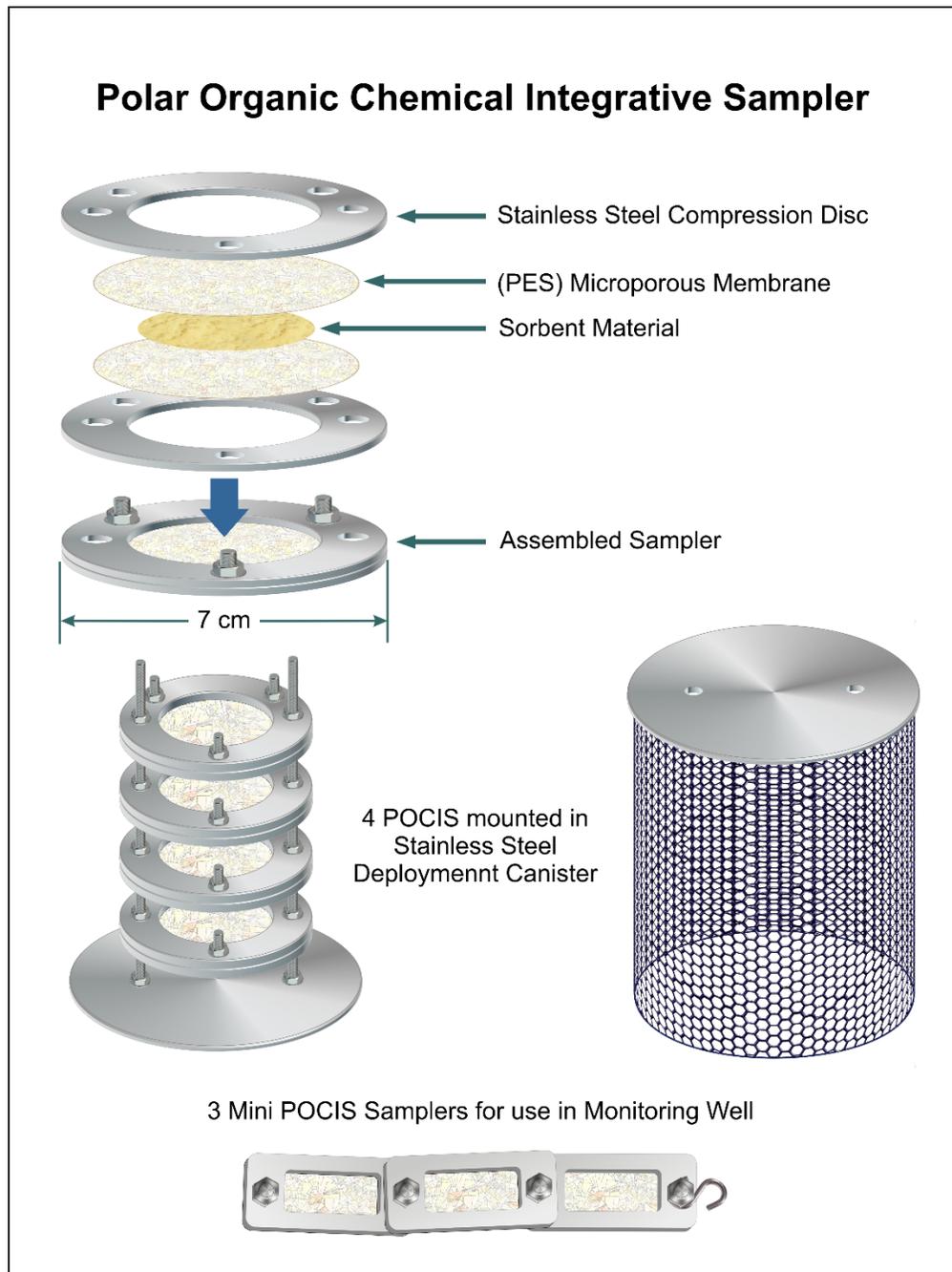
2804 The POCIS consists of a solid material (sorbent) contained between two microporous
2805 polyethersulfone (PES) membranes. The membranes have a pore size of 0.1 μm , which
2806 allows for water and dissolved chemicals to pass through to the sorbent where the
2807 chemicals are trapped (MacKeown et al. 2022). Larger materials, such as sediment and

2808 particulate matter, do not pass through the membrane(D. Alvarez and Huckins 2004).
2809 The build-up of biofilms can be a rate-limiting step in the accumulation of chemicals by
2810 many membrane-based sampling devices. The PES membranes used in the POCIS have
2811 an inherent resistance to the build-up of biofilms, thereby reducing this potential
2812 impediment to uptake. Specific chemicals and chemical classes can be targeted by
2813 using different sorbent types. A standard POCIS has a sampling surface area (surface
2814 area of exposed membrane) to sorbent mass ratio of @ 180 cm²/g (D. Alvarez and
2815 Huckins 2004). Typically when deployed, POCIS can effectively sample a surface area
2816 of 41 cm² (D. Alvarez and Huckins 2004). Figure 12-1 depicts an exploded view of a
2817 single POCIS disk. The PES membranes must be secured with a compression ring
2818 system to prevent loss of sorbent as they are not compatible with standard sealing
2819 techniques (i.e., heat sealing). Compression rings are typically constructed from
2820 stainless steel or another rigid inert material. Individual POCIS can be secured on a
2821 support rod or on a rack system for insertion in a protective deployment canister. The
2822 protective canister, usually made of stainless steel or PVC, deflects debris that may
2823 displace the POCIS array.

2824 The most common sorbent used in the POCIS is Oasis HLB (Waters, Milford, MA).
2825 Depending on the chemicals of interest to be sampled, it may be desirable to use a
2826 different sorbent inside the POCIS. Weak anion exchange and molecularly imprinted
2827 polymers have been used in POCIS as the sequestration medium for specific
2828 applications.

2829

Figure 5- 28: used with permission from NJDEP.



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5.3.2.2 Installation and Use

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Deployment time for POCIS is typically one month but can range from weeks to months depending on the study design. After retrieval, the sorbent is transferred into a chromatography column. Using an organic solvent optimized for the specific sorbent and target chemicals, the sampled chemicals are recovered.

2837 POCIS extracts have been analyzed by various instrumental techniques, including high
2838 performance liquid chromatography (HPLC), GC, GC/MS, and liquid
2839 chromatograph/mass spectrometer (LC/MS) (D. Alvarez and Huckins 2004).
2840 Additionally, bio-indicator tests, such as Microtox® and the Yeast Estrogen Screen
2841 (YES) , have been tested to determine the toxicological significance of the complex
2842 mixture of chemicals sampled by POCIS. POCIS can sample moderately polar to polar
2843 organic chemicals from water under almost any environmental conditions. The
2844 samplers have been successfully used in fresh, estuarine, and marine waters (D. Alvarez
2845 and Huckins 2004). A listing of some of the chemicals identified in POCIS extracts is
2846 shown in Table 5 – 4.

2847 **5.3.2.3 Advantages**

- 2848 • Easily deployable to a variety of different water bodies

2849 **5.3.2.4 Limitations**

- 2850 • Samplers must remain submerged during deployment
- 2851 • Estimation of time-weighted average water concentrations from POCIS
2852 measurements requires the availability of experimentally-derived sampling rates that
2853 may not be available for all chemicals of interest.

2854 **5.3.3 Sentinel™ PFAS Passive Sampler**

2855 **5.3.3.1 Description and Application**

2856 The Sentinel™ passive sampler is a time-integrative passive sampler specifically
2857 designed to measure PFAS in various environmental waters, including groundwater,
2858 surface water, and porewater at concentrations ranging from low nanograms per liter
2859 (ng/L) to high micrograms per liter (µg/L). It was developed with U.S. Department of
2860 Defense funding under Strategic Environmental Research and Development Project
2861 ER20-1127.

2862 The Sentinel passive sampler body (Figure 5-27) is a thin tag-like shape (approximately
2863 2.5 cm wide by 5.0 cm long) constructed of either high-density polyethylene (HDPE)
2864 for water sampling or stainless steel for sediment porewater sampling, with a 1-cm
2865 diameter through-hole to contain sorbent resin. The sorbent resin consists of a modified
2866 organosilica (Osorb®) infused with cross-linked polyethyleneimine and copper ions to
2867 optimize PFAS sorption across a range of chain lengths (Edmiston et al. 2023a). The
2868 resin is emplaced between HDPE mesh screens and is in direct contact with the
2869 environmental water being sampled. The sorbent comes pre-wetted with glycerol from
2870 the manufacturer, which allows the samplers to be placed directly into the
2871 environmental water without pre-treatment steps (“FAQ: Sentinel™ PFAS Passive
2872 Samplers,” n.d.). The sampler has two attachment points (at either end), with one end
2873 sized and tapered to fit into a standard 50 mL centrifuge tube, which reduces handling
2874 during sample collection, transport, and analysis. A small stainless steel weight is
2875 included with the sampler.

2876 During the deployment period, PFAS compounds accumulate on/in the sorbent.
2877 Following retrieval, PFAS compounds are extracted from the sampler in the laboratory,

2878 and the compound mass accumulated on the passive sampler is measured and converted
2879 to the average concentration in the water during the period of deployment. The
2880 samplers may be analyzed using modified versions of standard PFAS methods,
2881 including modified EPA Method 537.1 or modified Draft EPA Method 1633.

2882 The accumulated mass (ng) recovered from the Sentinel passive sampler is converted to
2883 the aqueous phase concentration, C_w (ng/L), using the following equation:

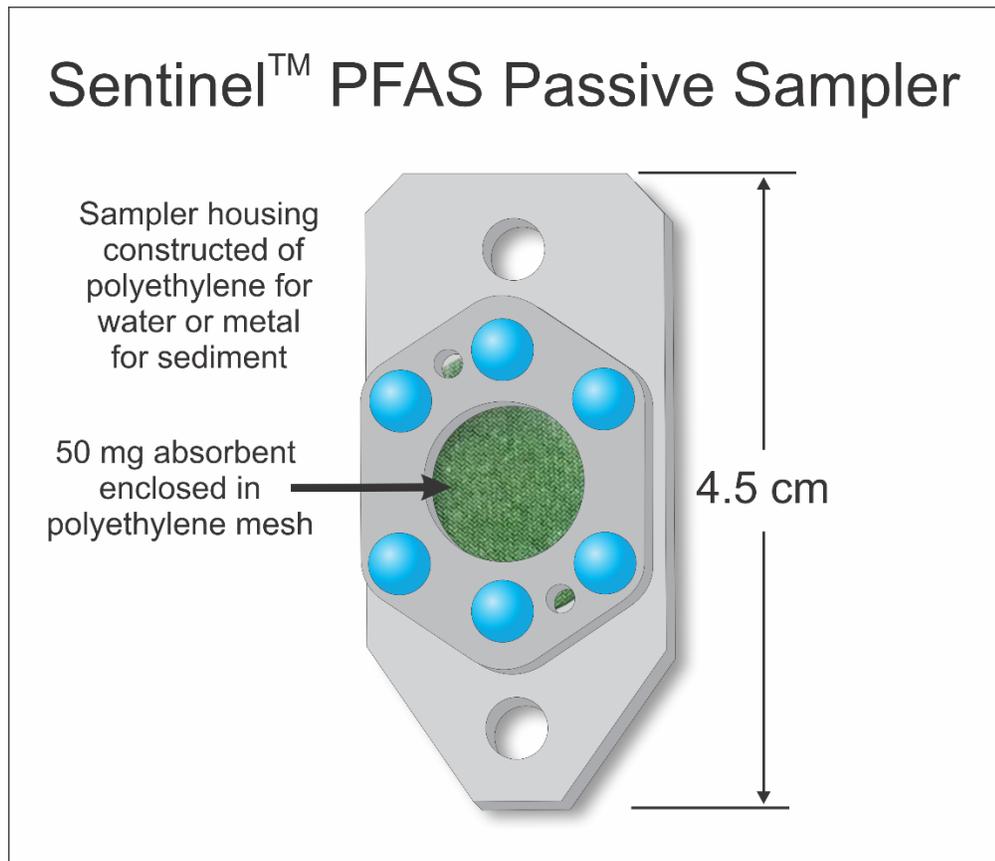
2884
$$C_w = \text{accumulated mass} / (R_s \times t)$$

2885 where R_s is the sampling rate (L/day), and t is the sampling time in days. Sampling
2886 rates (R_s) are experimentally determined in bench-scale measurements for each PFAS
2887 analyte and vary according to flow rate and temperature. Recorded field temperature
2888 and flow rate category (groundwater versus surface water) are incorporated in the
2889 laboratory calculation of the PFAS concentration in the water. R_s values have been
2890 determined for all 40 of the compounds included in Draft EPA Method 1633. As of the
2891 publication date of this report several commercial laboratories offer analysis of the
2892 Sentinel passive sampler.

2893 Experiments have shown that passive sampler uptake rates are relatively constant, even
2894 under a range of temperature, pH, ionic strength and natural organic matter
2895 concentrations, which suggests potential applicability to a wide range of environmental
2896 water types (Hartmann et al. 2021). The Sentinel passive sampler was demonstrated in
2897 the field at deployment durations of several days to several weeks (Edmiston et al.
2898 2023a). Laboratory studies found that deployment duration should generally be limited
2899 to a maximum of 45 days due to the potential for short-chain PFAS to approach
2900 equilibrium at longer deployment times (Edmiston et al. 2023b).

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Figure 5- 29: used with permission from NJDEP.

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5.3.3.2 Installation and Use

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The small size of the Sentinel passive sampler permits a variety of attachment configurations. Most importantly, the Sentinel passive sampler needs to remain submerged within the water column being sampled during the duration of deployment and should not rest within sediment (except for sediment porewater applications). Guidance for groundwater and surface water field applications are available from the SERDP project website (SERDP 2023, [ER20-1127](#)). For groundwater applications, the passive sampler may be attached to a deployment line (e.g., nylon or polypropylene) using cable ties or wire, weighted using the included stainless steel weight, and suspended from the well cap. If additional weight is needed (to overcome buoyancy of deployment line), it should be attached directly to the deployment line. For surface water applications, the passive sampler attachment point (e.g., driven stake, concrete block), should be submerged below the water surface and in a zone of flowing water (if surface water is flowing). Specific guidelines for sediment applications have not been published to date but are the subject of current research (Environmental Security Technology Certification Program [ESTCP] ER23-7696; Lotufo et al. 2023). The passive sampler is shipped inside a 50 mL centrifuge tube. This tube should be retained in a clean sealable bag for shipping the sampler to the laboratory following retrieval. At retrieval, the sampler should be detached from its attachment point. If passive sampler housing / weight contains gross sediment, shake manually, and gently rinse with PFAS-

2924 free deionized water. Return the passive sampler (and weight) to the laboratory in the
2925 clean, labeled centrifuge tube. Samplers should be packed on ice for shipment to the
2926 laboratory. The field team must record the date/time of deployment, date/time of
2927 retrieval, water temperature, and flow category (groundwater, surface water, sediment)
2928 on the chain of custody form to permit calculation of PFAS concentrations.

2929 **5.3.3.3 Advantages**

- 2930 • The Sentinel passive sampler is small, easy to use, and commercially available.
- 2931 • Single-use device limits potential for cross-contamination.
- 2932 • Time-integrative sampler provides average concentration over entire period of
2933 deployment, capturing both spikes and low concentrations.
- 2934 • Broad operating range over ng/L to µg/L in PFAS concentrations. Low detection
2935 limits can be achieved by accumulating PFAS on the sampler over days to weeks.
- 2936 • Method minimizes sample handling, investigation derived waste generation, and
2937 shipping costs.

2938 **5.3.3.4 Limitations**

- 2939 • New to market in 2023 and therefore not yet in widespread use; several commercial
2940 laboratories perform analysis.
- 2941 • Estimation of time-weighted average water concentrations from Sentinel passive
2942 sampler measurements require the availability of experimentally derived sampling
2943 rates that may not be available for all PFAS chemicals of interest. (To date,
2944 sampling rates are available for 40 PFAS listed in EPA Draft Method 1633.)
- 2945 • Samplers must remain submerged during deployment.

2946 **5.3.4 Semipermeable Membrane Devices (SPMDs)**

2947 **5.3.4.1 Description and Application**

2948 Semipermeable Membrane Devices (SPMDs) were developed in the mid-1990s by
2949 personnel at the USGS Columbia Environmental Research Laboratory and designed to
2950 sample hydrophobic organic chemicals in surface water, mimicking the accumulation
2951 of hydrophobic organic contaminants (HOCs) and pesticides into the fatty tissues of
2952 organisms (Huckins et al., 2006). Although SPMDs have been used for sampling both
2953 water and air, they are primarily used in surface water monitoring. SPMDs have also
2954 been adapted to sample HOCs in groundwater in wells (Alvarez, 2010). SPMDs have
2955 been used to determine freely-dissolved (bioavailable) concentrations of HOCs with log
2956 octanol-water partition coefficients (log K_{ow}) greater than 3 such as polycyclic
2957 aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs). Extracts from
2958 SPMDs can also be screened by in vitro and in vivo bioindicator tests to determine the
2959 potential effects on biota from exposure to the complex mixtures of chemicals present
2960 at a site (Imbrigiotta and Harte 2020).

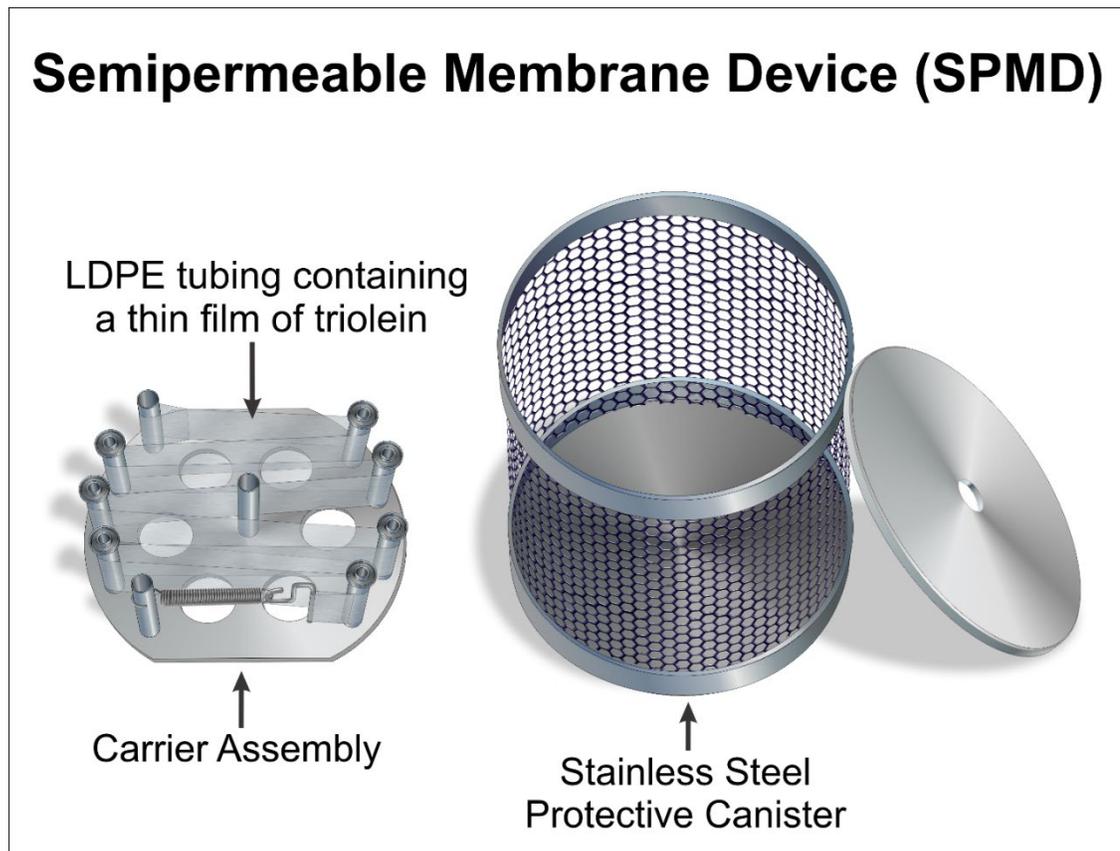
2961 The SPMD is an integrative sampler that accumulates chemical mass over a
2962 deployment period that typically ranges from days to months. The SPMD consists of a

2963 high-purity lipid such as triolein, which serves as a representation of the fatty tissues of
2964 aquatic organisms, and a thin-walled (50-100 μm) non-porous lay-flat polyethylene
2965 membrane tube. The tube allows the nonpolar chemicals to pass through to the lipid
2966 where the chemicals are concentrated. Larger molecules (> 600 Daltons) and materials
2967 such as particulate matter and microorganisms are excluded by the tube.

2968 SPMDs use the PRC approach to account for site-specific environmental factors that
2969 can affect the sampling rates such as water flow, temperature, and the buildup of a
2970 biofilm on the sampler's surface (Tertuliani et al. 2008). The calculated amount of PRC
2971 lost during deployment is used to adjust the laboratory sampling rates at each sampling
2972 location.

2973

Figure 5- 30: used with permission from NJDEP.



2974

2975 *Figure 5- 31 shows the SPMD carrier assembly and triolein film. Photo obtained from Masa*
2976 *Kanematsu, used with permission.*

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Figure 5- 32 shows the SPMD carrier assembly inside the protective cannister. Photo obtained from Masa Kanematsu, used with permission.

2981



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2983 *Figure 5- 33 shows a SPMD device put together before deployment. Photo obtained from Masa*
 2984 *Kanematsu, used with permission.*



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5.3.4.2 Installation and Use

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Compound Specific Information

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Chemicals sampled by SPMDs include HOCs (with log K_{ow}) greater than 3 such as polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), PAHs, organochlorine pesticides, dioxins and furans, selected organophosphate and pyrethroid pesticides, and many other nonpolar organic chemicals.

2992

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- SPMDs must remain submerged in water, but not buried in the sediment during the whole deployment period. It is important to keep SPMDs shaded to prevent photodegradation of some light-sensitive chemicals such as PAHs.

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5.3.4.3 Advantages

- 2996 • SPMDs provide data as a time-weighted average concentration of a chemical within
2997 the whole deployment period (D. A. Alvarez 2010).
- 2998 • Low detection limits can be achieved for HOCs because SPMDs can concentrate
2999 HOCs during the period of deployment.
- 3000 • The concentrations of HOCs measured by SPMDs represent freely-dissolved
3001 (bioavailable) concentrations.

3002 **5.3.4.4 Limitations**

- 3003 • Surface water sampling for HOCs can be done by other commonly used passive
3004 samplers such as low-density polyethylene (LDPE) samplers, which are readily
3005 available. In contrast, the sole commercial vendor of SPMDs in North America is
3006 Environmental Sampling Technologies, Inc. (St. Joseph, Missouri), and they can
3007 also provide standard operating procedures for completing the extractions of SPMD
3008 matrix for laboratory processing and analysis.
- 3009 • Long deployments can result in a substantial buildup of a biofilm, which can inhibit
3010 the ability of the sampler to accumulate chemicals. The use of PRC can improve
3011 quantitation of the target chemicals.
- 3012 • Short deployments will yield smaller volumes of sampled water, which limits some
3013 of the advantages of using a passive sampler.

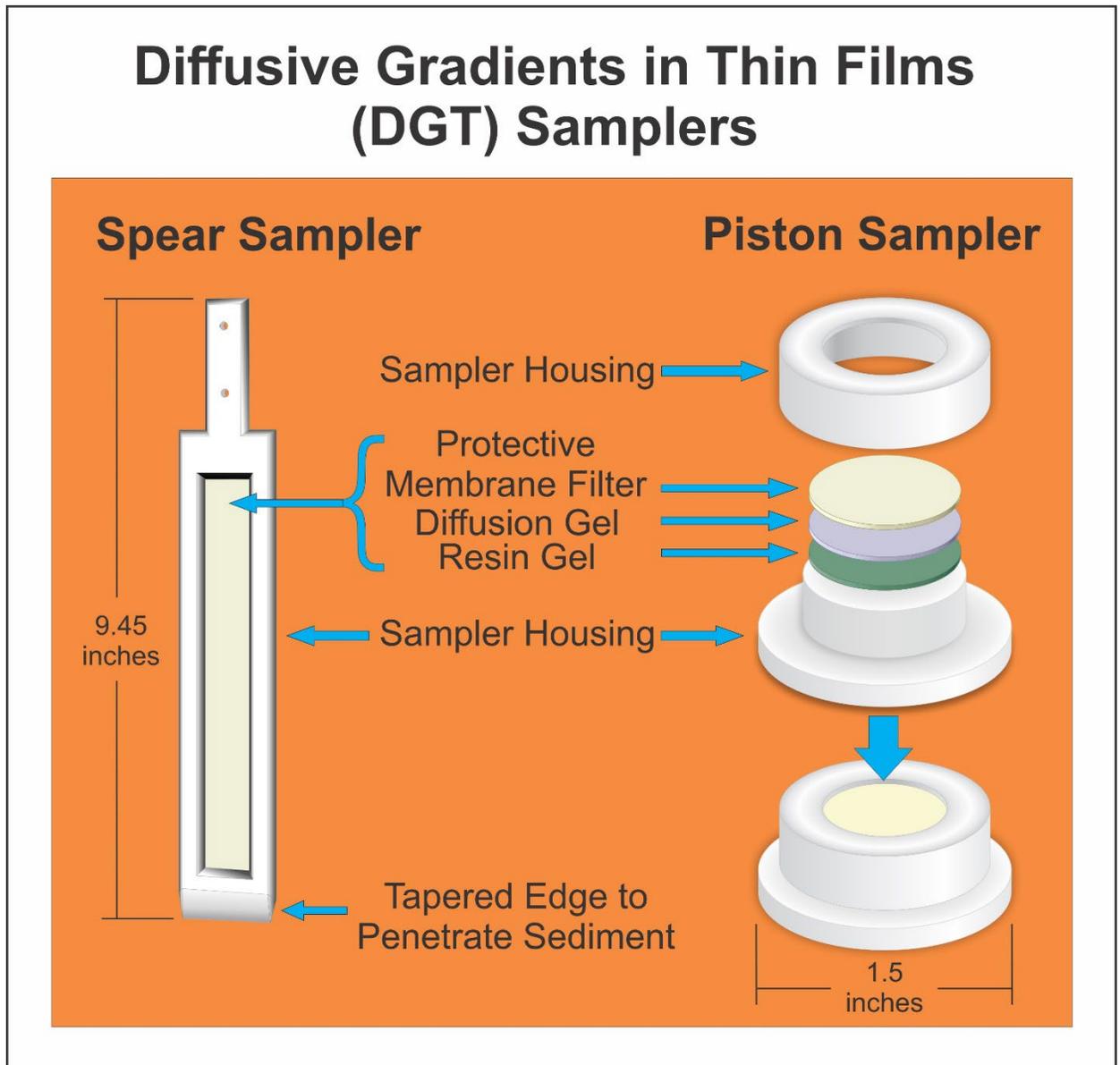
3014 **5.3.5 Diffusive Gradient in Thin Films (DGT) Sampler**

3015 **5.3.5.1 Description and Application**

3016 Diffusive Gradient in Thin Films (DGT) are designed to sample dissolved inorganic
3017 species in aqueous environments, including sediment/soil porewater, surface water, and
3018 groundwater. Since the first development by the researchers at Lancaster University in
3019 1994, the DGT technique has been altered and expanded to include a large number of
3020 chemicals including heavy metals, inorganic nutrients, oxyanions, and radionuclides.
3021 The DGT usually comprises three successive layers of material held together by a
3022 plastic housing. The outer layer is an organic membrane filter that permits only
3023 dissolved inorganic species to interact with the gels and protects the gels inside, while
3024 also preventing influence from surrounding hydrodynamic fluctuations. Below the
3025 organic membrane filter is a diffusion polyacrylamide hydrogel of a known thickness,
3026 through which the inorganic species diffuse at a known rate. Below the diffusion gel is
3027 a binding gel that reacts with the inorganic species diffused through the diffusion gel
3028 and serves as a solute sink. Because the binding gel accumulates a target solute over
3029 time, DGTs can achieve better detection limits after longer deployment times (greater
3030 than 24 hours). Diffusion kinetics in the diffusion hydrogel are well established for
3031 many inorganic species, and a concentration of a target chemical at the surface of the
3032 DGT can be calculated from the mass of the solute accumulated to the binding gel
3033 (U.S. EPA/SERDP/ESTCP 2017). The pore sizes of both the organic membrane filter
3034 (typically 0.45 μm) and the hydrogel effectively exclude inorganic species associated
3035 with particulates and colloids. Therefore, DGT is a suitable technique for in-situ
3036 evaluation of labile fractions and by approximation, bioavailability of inorganic species
3037 in aqueous environments.

3038 DGT binding gel can be saturated when deployed for long duration, which does not
 3039 allow use of the linear diffusion assumption and once saturated, no longer to be used
 3040 for a quantitative sampling.

3041 *Figure 5- 34: used with permission from NJDEP.*



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5.3.5.2 Installation and Use

3045 DGT sampler use, and construction can vary by media including deployment in solid
 3046 phase (dry soils, sediment) and liquid phase (groundwater/surface water). The device
 3047 configuration and type (examples include piston-type samplers for dry soils and flat-
 3048 type probes for sediment) will depend on the environment, deployment strategy, and
 3049 properties of the monitored media. Inserting a DGT sampler by hand into solid material

3050 (pressing) may alter soil characteristics such as density and soil layer thickness, which
3051 may result in altered results (Li et al. 2019). The use of ‘flat-type’ and dual-mode DGT
3052 devices can reduce the effects induced by traditional DGT samplers and have been
3053 utilized for measurement of solutes including metals (Li et al. 2019). Liquid-phase units
3054 are most similar to the ‘piston-type’ arrangement, with the binding agent and diffusion
3055 membrane housed on a base, similar to the diagram above.

3056 More than two dozen binding agents have been documented (Li et al. 2019) for various
3057 target chemicals including metals, radionuclides, nutrients, pesticides, PFAS,
3058 antibiotics, and other organic chemicals. Diffusive phase agents also vary by
3059 application. Each deployment configuration shares the general components of a binding
3060 agent and diffusion layer housed within a protective casing that may be constructed of
3061 plastic, metal, or other materials.

3062 Sulfide measurement in sediment porewater by the DGT technique has been shown to
3063 be very effective in contrast to active porewater collection, in which oxygen may be
3064 introduced.

3065 The DGT techniques have been well used in academic research to measure
3066 “bioavailable” fraction of dissolved inorganic compounds such as metal and nutrients.
3067 The DGT technique has been well established for hydrophobic organic chemicals. The
3068 DGT techniques have been recently studied to measure PFAS in the aqueous phase.

3069 **5.3.5.3 Advantages**

- 3070 • Low detection limits can be achieved since the binding gel accumulates solute over
3071 time.
- 3072 • Allows in situ evaluation of labile fractions and by approximation, bioavailability of
3073 inorganic species in aqueous environments.
- 3074 • A probe-type DGT can be inserted into the sediment or soil vertically to assess the
3075 vertical profile of a target chemical with sub-mm high resolution.

3076 **5.3.5.4 Limitations**

- 3077 • The diffusion kinetics of a chemical can be influenced by competing solutes and
3078 biofilm development after longer deployment.
- 3079 • Laminar flow can influence the diffusive boundary layer in fast-flowing waters.

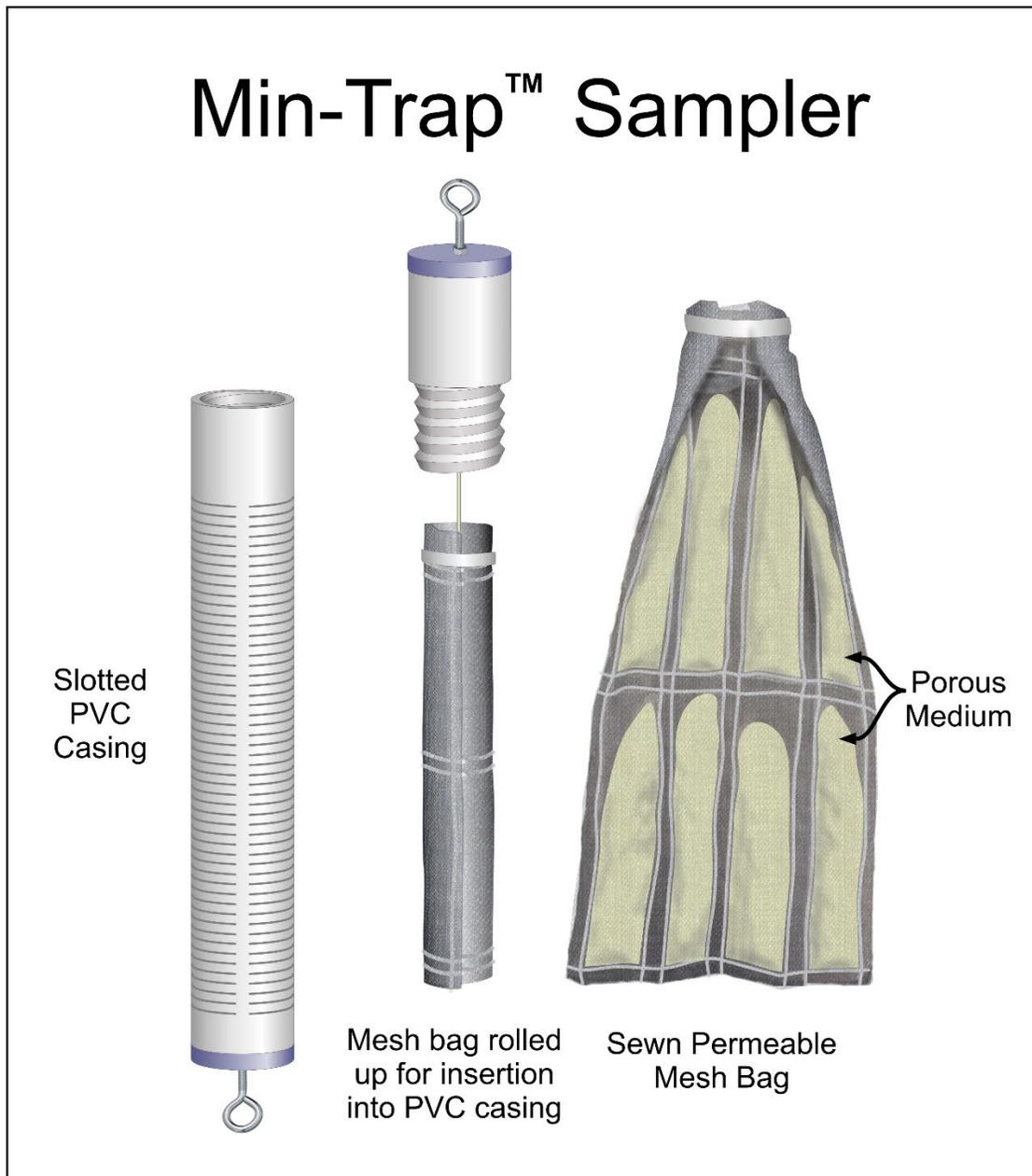
3080 **5.3.6 Mineral Sampler (Min Traps®)**

3081 **5.3.6.1 Description and Application**

3082 The Min-Trap® is a passive sampling device that is deployed within a conventional
3083 monitoring well and allowed to incubate to collect mineral samples for analysis. It
3084 consists of a non-reactive medium (e.g., silica sand), a reactive medium (e.g., iron
3085 oxide sand or site soil), or a combination of both, contained within a water-permeable
3086 mesh, which is housed within a 1.5-inch diameter, 18-inch-long 0.010 slotted polyvinyl
3087 chloride (PVC) casing. The standard Min-Trap has a non-reactive medium that
3088 provides a carrier substrate where target minerals can form passively (Tilton and
3089 Gentile 2019). Alternatively, the Min-Trap can be configured with reactive media to

3090 provide a substrate for mineral transformation processes taking place under the natural
3091 or engineered geochemical conditions in the aquifer. Groundwater flow modeling
3092 results indicate that the hydraulics of the Min-Trap are approximately representative of
3093 flux through an equivalent width of the aquifer (Divine et al. 2020a). The minerals
3094 accumulating in a Min-Trap are representative of minerals forming in the subsurface.
3095 Because Min-Traps are designed to measure minerals that are actively forming, they are
3096 not intended to assess background mineralogy of an aquifer. Min-Traps were
3097 demonstrated for use at chlorinated solvent sites in an ESTCP project (ER19-5190).
3098 The final report highlights an advantage of Min-Traps being that laboratory analysis
3099 (e.g., chemical, microscopic, and spectroscopic) of Min-Trap samples provides direct
3100 evidence of mineral formation, dissolution, and/or transformation processes while
3101 avoiding challenges associated with traditional sampling methods (typically, drilling)
3102 (Divine 2022).

3103

Figure 5- 35: used with permission from NJDEP.

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5.3.6.2 Installation and Use:

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Virtually any in-situ remediation strategy that results in either the precipitation, dissolution, or transformation of a mineral species can be validated, monitored, and assessed with Min-Traps. The Min-Trap approach is particularly applicable to identifying and quantifying the formation of reactive iron minerals for the treatment of chlorinated volatile organic compounds (CVOCs), which is often a target mechanism for in situ chemical reduction (ISCR) and enhanced reductive dichlorination (ERD) strategies.

3113 Min-Traps are attached to a suspension line and deployed within the target monitoring
3114 well screen zone (often at the center of the saturated interval). For wells with long
3115 screens, baffles at the top and bottom of the Min-Trap can be used to reduce the
3116 potential for in-well vertical mixing effects. Eyebolts at the top and bottom of the Min-
3117 Trap allow multiple samplers to be connected in series, if desired. It is recommended in
3118 Divine et al. (2023a,b) that Min-Traps be deployed for at least 30 days to ensure
3119 recovery of detectable amounts of mineral mass; however, they can be deployed for
3120 longer periods depending on project objectives.

3121 At the conclusion of the deployment period, the Min-Trap is retrieved from the well,
3122 the housing opened, and the media “pillows” unrolled for logging and photo
3123 documentation. Care should be taken to process Min-Trap samples as quickly as
3124 possible (within minutes of removal from the well) to minimize exposure to the
3125 atmosphere. The media pillows may be separated with a cutting tool to provide the
3126 needed solid sample mass for desired laboratory analyses. Unused pillows can be
3127 placed back into the Min-Trap housing and redeployed for future sampling, if desired.
3128 The media pillow samples are double-sealed in a manner to minimize oxygen exposure
3129 (e.g., vacuum sealing with a household vacuum sealer). The sealed samples are shipped
3130 on ice to the analytical laboratory. Further detailed descriptions of field deployment,
3131 sampling, and preservation procedures are presented in Divine et al. (2023a).

3132 Min-Trap samples are analyzed using laboratory methods appropriate for soils. Some
3133 relevant analyses include extraction for total metals or characterization of iron sulfide
3134 (FeS, FeS₂) minerals using the Aqueous and Mineral Intrinsic Bioremediation
3135 Assessment (AMIBA) suite [Kennedy et al. 2004]); and spectroscopic analyses such as
3136 scanning electron microscopy with energy dispersive spectral analysis (SEM-EDS) and
3137 x-ray diffraction (XRD) for mineralogical characterization. The applicability of XRD
3138 analysis may be limited due to the relatively high quantity of mineral precipitates
3139 required for detection (typically greater than 1 weight percent).

3140 **5.3.6.3 Advantages:**

- 3141 • Min-Traps provide a reliable and cost-effective method for measuring the formation
3142 of reactive minerals in the subsurface.
- 3143 • The Min-Trap sampling approach can be adapted to monitor the performance of
3144 essentially any treatment remedy where minerals are formed, dissolved, or
3145 transformed, providing direct evidence of treatment without additional drilling.
- 3146 • For CVOC sites, confirmation of the formation of reactive, reduced iron minerals
3147 (e.g., FeS, FeS₂) in-situ can be a key line of evidence to evaluate the synergy
3148 between biological and abiotic processes, support remedy optimization by
3149 indicating the need to increase or decrease injection frequency and provide a basis
3150 for the transition from active treatment to an MNA approach.
- 3151 • For sites where metals treatment via precipitation is the remedy, such as enhanced
3152 precipitation of hexavalent chromium or uranium, data collected from Min-Traps
3153 provide direct confirmation that the target precipitation activity is occurring. Min-
3154 Trap data can also be used to proactively evaluate the ongoing stability of mineral
3155 precipitates once formed without the need for repeated drilling events.

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5.3.6.4 Limitations:

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- The failure to detect minerals that are forming in the aquifer in the Min-Traps (i.e., “false negative”) is the most likely limitation and could be the result of inadequate deployment times and/or elevated mineral detection limits (e.g., typically >1 weight percent for XRD).

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- Degradation of reactive minerals by oxygen during sampling, transport, and analysis may result in lost or misrepresentative data; however, this limitation can be addressed through the use of the recommended sample preservation protocol that includes steps to minimize oxygen exposure during transport. Field testing of this protocol indicated minor loss of target minerals (i.e., iron sulfides) during sampling and short-term storage (Ulrich et al. 2021).

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5.3.7 Radiello Sampler

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5.3.7.1 Description and Application

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Radiello are a trade name of cylindrical, concentration gradient-reliant samplers originally developed by Fondazione Salvatore Maugeri (Padova, Italy) and distributed by Supelco Analytical (Atlanta, Georgia, U.S.), primarily for indoor air quality monitoring. As a diffusive sampler, this device takes in compounds from the surrounding media without the forced movement of air, such as would involve a pump.

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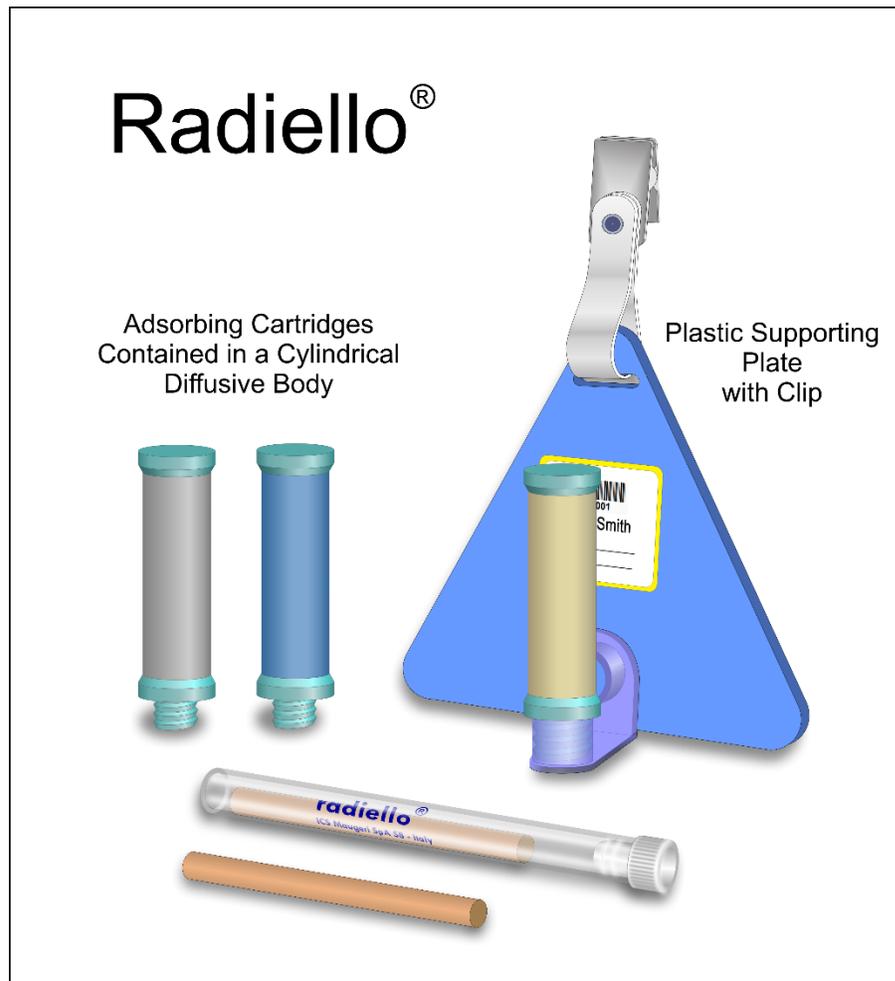
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In addition to indoor air, these samplers can be used to monitor personal breathing zones, industrial workplace air, and outdoor ambient air. The core parts of the Radiello sampling system consist of a sorbent-filled tube (cartridge adsorbent) inserted into a protective housing that allows for air diffusion (diffusive body). Several different cartridge adsorbents are available for different classes of compounds. Compounds that can be sampled include over 70 VOCs, including BTEX, aldehydes, 1,3-butadiene and isoprene, phenols, ozone, ammonia, nitrogen and sulfur dioxides, hydrogen sulfide, hydrochloric acid and hydrofluoric acid.

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Figure 5- 36: used with permission from NJDEP.

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5.3.7.2 Installation and Use

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The minimum requirements of the system include cartridge adsorbent, diffusive body, adhesive labels for sample tracking, support plate for attaching diffusive body-cartridge assembly. The components may be purchased separately, or starter kits may be purchased that contain all the components of one complete sampler plus an additional adsorbent cartridge. Also available for purchase, Radiello ready-to-use diffusive samplers come preassembled with the adsorbent cartridge preloaded into the diffusive body that can be readily snapped into the pre-assembled adaptor and support plate. Available optional accessories include outdoor shelter and in-field thermometer and reader.

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Prior to sampling, the adsorbent cartridge is transferred from storage container into an appropriate diffusive body, then it is screwed onto the triangular support plate (either horizontally or vertically). Start date/time can be documented on sample identification label (with barcode) and inserted into sampler pocket.

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3201 The adsorbent cartridge is selected based on the compound class of interest (refer to
3202 table below, from product manual) and can comprise of a pure adsorbent material or a
3203 chemically coated support. Each adsorbent cartridge is sealed in a glass or plastic tube
3204 which is placed in a transparent, thermally sealed polyethylene bag. The adsorbent
3205 cartridge is loaded into the diffusive body and attached to the support plate. A tethered
3206 clip is used to attach the support plate to a desired location, for example, to hang from a
3207 stand (ambient air monitoring) or clipped to a garment (for breathing zone monitoring).

3208 The diffusive bodies are cylindrical diffusive barriers threaded at one end so they can
3209 be attached to the support plate. Vertical adapters (to orient the diffusive body to be
3210 parallel to the triangular support plate (shown in figure above). When needed, the
3211 diffusive bodies can be reused and cleaned with a mild detergent as they will collect
3212 dust, especially during outdoor sampling. It is generally recommended to replace the
3213 diffusive body after 4-5 washings.

3214 Four different diffusive bodies (white, RAD120; blue, RAD1201; yellow, RAD1202;
3215 and gray, RAD1203) are available, each used for specific adsorbent cartridges and
3216 applications (for example, the yellow diffusive body is indicated for use with thermal
3217 desorption cartridges for sampling of BTEX while the white diffusive body is indicated
3218 for use with solvent desorption cartridges for sampling of BTEX), as specified in the
3219 Radiello Manual.

3220 Once the sampling period is complete, the adsorbent cartridge is transferred from the
3221 diffusive body back into the original sealed glass tube without touching the adsorbent
3222 itself. The end date/time and temperature can be documented on the label. The cartridge
3223 can be stored in polyethylene bag after sampling before desorption/analysis. The
3224 cartridges are desorbed for analysis by chemical (solvent) or thermal extraction,
3225 depending on the specific cartridge. While thermal desorption (TD) cartridge
3226 adsorbents may be used multiple times, the solvent-extracted adsorbent cartridge is
3227 designed for one time use.

3228 **5.3.7.3 Advantages**

- 3229 • These sampling systems are relatively cost effective. At the time of this guidance
3230 development, a package of 20 cartridges specific for detection of BTEX and VOCs
3231 detection with thermal desorption (RAD 130) cost \$1490 while a package of 20
3232 cartridges for detection of BTEX and VOCs for carbon disulfide desorption
3233 (RAD145) cost \$391. The hardware is reusable (e.g., triangular support plate).
- 3234 • These sampling systems are convenient to use, compact in size, lightweight, and
3235 portable. The system requires no supervision, limited technical training to set up and
3236 deploy samplers, are non-flammable, require no energy input for operation, and are
3237 noiseless.
- 3238 • The radial design of the Radiello allows air-borne analytes 360° access to the
3239 diffusive surface and adsorbent material, resulting in a significantly higher uptake
3240 rate and faster sampling compared to traditional passive samplers.
- 3241 • The diffusive body is said to be “touch and chemically inert,” making them easy to
3242 handle. The diffusive body is water repellent and applicable in wet weather.
3243 Available accessories such as the “outdoor shelter” box protects the sampler from
3244 unfavorable weather conditions.

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- Different adsorbents may be used to broaden the application scope of the Radiello system. Higher sampling volumes, greater adsorbent capacity, and higher uptake rate contribute to minimal reverse diffusion and greater uptake rate consistency, which results in highly reproducible results.
 - Uptake rates are the amount of a chemical absorbed to a sorbent material per time. Instead of being calculated, uptake rates are measured under a range of conditions (chemical concentration, temperature, relative humidity, air speed, with and without interfering compounds, etc.) resulting in more precise quantification. The raw materials and each lot of finished products are quality compliance checked to ensure low background contamination noise levels and ensure that performance standards are met. The high uptake rates and high capacity, along with lower detection limits, allow sampling time from 15 minutes to weeks or months (1ppb – 1000 ppm). The time-integrated nature of passive sampling gives an average concentration over a specific sampling period, for example, over a 24 hour or 2-week period.
 - The Radiello system predominantly uses solvent/chemical desorption, and therefore does not require thermal desorption equipment. Thermal desorption and Gas chromatography/Mass Spectrometry (GC/MS) systems are also available for precise and very sensitive measurements.

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5.3.7.4 Limitations

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- Uptake rates can also be obtained by comparison to experimental measurements by other sampling methods (e.g., active sampling or real-time monitoring instruments) or to theoretical models. In a review study, Lutes et al. (2010) compared both thermal and solvent extracted Radiello samplers with TO-15 samples and reported TO-15 results to be overall slightly higher than those from the Radiello samplers. They also reported poor agreement between Radiello samplers and TO-15 samples for polar compounds.
 - To accurately determine chemical concentrations derived from passive samples, uptake rates are needed. These uptake rates are specific for the compound of interest, the sorbent material, and the sampling duration.
 - The uptake rate of passive samplers is affected by environmental parameters such as wind velocity, relative humidity, and temperature. The effective uptake rate under field conditions can differ from the predicted uptake rate obtained under experimental conditions. Therefore, precise measurements of these sampling conditions must be recorded during the sampling period and accounted for when evaluating the measured concentration of analytes. A study published by Saborit and Cano (2007) noted that while the Radiello passive samplers performed comparably to the UV-photometric ozone analyzer in measurements of ground level ozone, one disadvantage was the requirement to determine the effective collection rate of the sampler itself. However, they noted the passive samplers could be calibrated against an automatic sampler as a reference of the collection rate efficiency for each sampling period.
 - Highly variable ambient chemical concentrations may not be predicted by the controlled conditions used to obtain experimental uptake rate. For example, the presence of other chemicals, and at high ambient concentrations may interfere with the adsorption of another.

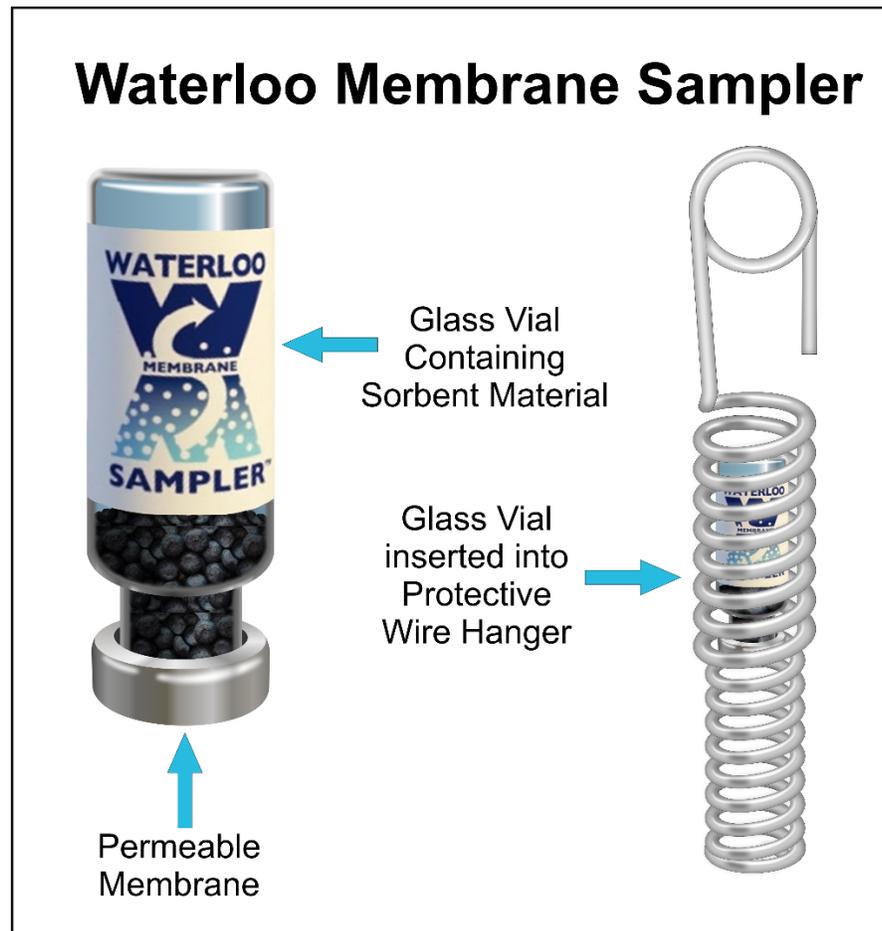
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- Passive uptake of a chemical from media is only linear (constant uptake rate) when the concentration of the chemical on the sampler is low. The uptake rate slows as the chemical concentration on the sampler increases and approaches equilibrium. There is no net uptake onto the passive sampler when the sampler reaches equilibrium.
 - Another review (Wania and Shunthirasingham, 2020) of passive air sampling of semi-volatile organic compounds (SVOCs) suggested that the Radiello diffusive bodies made of polyethylene is itself capable of adsorbing SVOCs and interfere with diffusion into the sorbent. Overall, the review concluded that there was much quantitative uncertainty in passive air sampling of SVOCs
 - Compared to thermal desorption, the solvent desorption method requires additional sample preparation steps with potential for analytical interference from formation of artifacts. The solvent extraction method also has lower desorption efficiency compared to the thermal desorption method. Lack of automation is one drawback for the solvent desorption method.
 - Compared to the solvent desorption method, thermal desorption requires high temperatures for effective release of sorbed compounds, which could lead to degradation of certain compounds and even some sorbent materials. However, the thermal desorption method may be automated, unlike the solvent desorption method.
 - Overall, the smaller air volumes sampled by passive sampling results in higher detection limits compared to active sampling methods.

3310 **5.3.8 Waterloo Membrane Sampler (Solvent-extracted)**

3311 **5.3.8.1 Description and Application**

3312 The Waterloo Membrane Sampler™ (WMS™) is a “tube-style permeation passive
3313 sampler” used for sampling indoor/outdoor air and soil gas and is designed with a thin
3314 hydrophobic polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) membrane placed across the face of a
3315 sorbent-filled vial (EPA 2014). The type of sorbent used can be either a very strong
3316 sorbent requiring solvent extraction (charcoal type) or a weak absorbent amenable to
3317 thermal desorption (graphite carbon black type). Solvent extraction laboratory
3318 preparation methods result in lower analytical sensitivity but longer sample duration
3319 than thermal desorption methods with higher analytical sensitivity but shorter sample
3320 duration. Volatile organic compound (VOC) vapors permeate through the PDMS
3321 membrane and are trapped by the sorbent medium. The mass of each chemical is
3322 determined by gas chromatography–mass spectrometry (GC-MS) and a time-weighted
3323 average concentration can be calculated using experimentally measured uptake rates for
3324 many common VOCs.

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Figure 5- 37: used with permission from NJDEP.

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5.3.8.2 Installation and Use

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The following summary of the instructions on installation and use of the WMS™ were taken from SiREM Lab for collecting indoor and outdoor air samples. Detailed instructions and additional instructions for soil gas sampling are on the SiREM website links below.

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The sampler is shipped in a thermally sealed polycoated aluminum pouch and should not be opened until the sampler is ready for use (Figure 5-37(Fig. 1)) to prevent cross contamination. Within the pouch is: a glass vial that has the WMS™ sampler and a carbon pack “Minipax” (a), a wire hanger (to deploy the sampler) (b), a nylon line (approximately ten feet) to help with deployment (c), and Teflon™ tape for re-sealing the glass vial once the sample has been collected (c) (Figure 5-37(Fig. 2)) (SiREM Lab, n.d.).

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Figure 5- 38 obtained from SiREM Labs, used with permission.**Figure 1:** WMS™ sampler shipping pouch**Figure 3:** Close-up of sampler membrane

Membrane

Do not store/use WMS™ samplers near volatile chemical sources including perfume, felt markers, etc. and avoid touching the WMS™ sampler membrane (Fig 3).

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**Figure 2:** Contents of sampler shipping pouch

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Figure 5- 39 obtained from SiREM Labs, used with permission.**Figure 4:** WMS™ sampler inside 20 mL glass vial**Figure 5:** Aligning WMS™ sampler in wire hanger**Figure 6:** Bending wire to insert WMS™ sampler

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After removing the sampler from the glass vial (Figure 5-38(Fig. 4)), position the sampler upside down (Figure 5-38(Fig. 6)) and insert into the wire hanger (Figure 5-38(Fig. 6)). Hang the sampler at the desired location using the nylon line and wire loops at the top of the wire hanger, with the membrane facing downwards (Figure 5-38(Fig. 7)) (SiREM Lab, n.d.). Once sampling is complete, remove the sampler from the wire hanger (Figure 5-38(Fig. 8)). Next, take out the MiniPax from the 20 mL glass vial and place it in the aluminum pouch. Place the sampler back in the glass vial and seal with the cap and tape, and put the vial in the bubble pack and place in the aluminum pouch and seal (Figure 5-38(Fig. 9)) (SiREM Lab, n.d.).

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Figure 5- 40 obtained from SiREM Labs, used with permission.**Figure 7:** Deployed WMS™ sampler with line**Figure 8:** Removing WMS™ sampler from wire hanger**Figure 9:** Re-packaging

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5.3.8.3 Advantages

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- Easy to use with simple sampling protocols without specialized training.

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- Very small size (discrete to deploy and easy to ship).

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- Leaks in sampling train not a concern compared to active sampling methods.

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- Can effectively handle ranges of moisture and VOC concentrations commonly found in the subsurface.

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- Insensitive to wind velocity (beneficial for outdoor and vent-pipe monitoring).

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- Ability to modify configurations to lower uptake rates to avoid the “starvation effect” when collecting soil gas samples, and to allow for quantitative soil gas sampling in a range of subsurface soil moisture or permeability conditions.

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- Better analytical sensitivity to provide lower reporting limits than conventional canister samples.

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- Longer time-integrated samples (several days to weeks) to provide more representative results.

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- 3368
- Ability to measure a broader range of VOCs than conventional canisters.

3369 **5.3.8.4 Limitations**

- 3370
- Starvation effect where the sampler removes VOC vapors from the subsurface
- 3371 soil gas faster than they are replenished due to low soil air permeability.
- 3372
- Saturation of sampler due to exposure to high chemical concentrations over
- 3373 extended period of time.
- 3374
- Competition between strongly adsorbing VOCs displacing less strongly absorbed
- 3375 VOCs.
- 3376
- Poor retention from use of weak sorbents resulting in back-diffusion losses.
- 3377
- Poor recovery from use of strong sorbent with strongly sorbed compounds that are
- 3378 not completely released from the sorbent during analysis (McAlary 2015)
- 3379
- Unplanned uptake of chemicals during shipping and storage.
- 3380
- Requires calculations to convert sample concentrations from mass to volume to
- 3381 report to a regulatory agency.

3382 **5.3.9 Beacon Sampler**

3383 **5.3.9.1 Description and Application**

3384 Beacon Samplers are a trade name of the passive adsorbent samplers developed and

3385 provided by Beacon Environmental (Bel Air, MD). They can be used for both air and

3386 soil gas sampling, including sewer gas. The samplers contain two pairs of hydrophobic

3387 carbonaceous adsorbents in an inert container with an opening of known dimension that

3388 all VOC vapors pass through at a constant (and known) rate (EPA 2014). The

3389 concentration gradient from the surroundings to the sorbent provides the driving force

3390 for diffusion of VOC vapors into the sampler.

3391 Passive samplers are deployed for a designated sampling period, typically ranging from

3392 days to weeks, and then collected and analyzed by thermal desorption extraction of the

3393 VOCs from the sorbent to measure the sorbed mass of each chemical during the

3394 sampling period. Beacon's passive sampling procedures are in accordance with ASTM

3395 standards D5314 & D7758. As states in EPA 2014, the average concentration over the

3396 sampling period can be calculated as follows:

Equation 3

$$C = M / (UR \times t)$$

Where:

C = time-weighted average air concentration ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)

M = mass of VOC retained by passive sampler (pg)

UR = uptake rate (mL/min, compound specific); also called “sampling rate”

t = sampling duration (min)

3397 Sampling duration can be measured with high levels of accuracy, and the mass of VOC
3398 retained is analyzed by thermal desorption – gas chromatography/mass spectrometry
3399 (TD-GC/MS) following EPA Method 8260D, TO-17, 325B, or TO-15 (O’Neil 2019).
3400 Accordingly, the uptake rate (sampling rate) is the most critical variable for accurately
3401 determining air concentrations when using any passive samplers (EPA 2014).

3402 Uptake rate has units of volume/time, but it is not a flow rate. It is however equivalent
3403 to the flow rate that would be necessary for a pumped adsorptive sample to sorb the
3404 equal mass of a target chemical, with equal sample duration times, when exposed to the
3405 similar chemical concentration (U.S.EPA, 2014).

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Figure 5- 41: used with permission from NJDEP.



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5.3.9.2 Installation and Use

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Passive soil gas (PSG) sampler

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Beacon PSG samplers can be installed to various depths depending on the project

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objectives. A standard approach involves drilling a 1 ½-inch diameter hole to a depth of

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12-14 inches and a ½-inch hole to a depth of 36 inches. A 12-inch length of pipe is then

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installed into the larger hole so that it rests ½ inch below grade. A Beacon PSG sampler

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is next installed open-end down, into the pipe so that it rests at the bottom of the pipe.

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The hole above the pipe is plugged with an aluminum foil ball and covered to grade

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with soil or a thin ¼ inch concrete patch. As an option, a mechanical plug can be used

3419 to seal the hole through impervious surfacing during the sampling period and between
3420 sampling events.

3421 **Passive air sampler**

3422 Cut a piece of string long enough to hang the sampler at the desired height and place
3423 the string within easy reach. Replace the white solid cap on the sampler with a black
3424 sampling cap (a one-hole cap with a screen meshing insert) one of the Beacon samplers
3425 (a glass vial containing two sets of hydrophobic absorbent cartridges) from the sampler
3426 bag. Slide the sampler into the Beacon sampler holder all the way or until it “clicks”
3427 into place, with the sampling cap facing out from the holder. Secure the string.

3428 **Chlorosorber passive sampler**

3429 The ChloroSorber sampler targets a range of chlorinated compounds from vinyl
3430 chloride to tetrachloroethene with low-level detection limits in air or sewer gas. Follow
3431 the installation instructions on Beacon website. To sample air, the storage cap is
3432 removed from the sampling end of the tube and replaced with a diffusion cap that
3433 allows air to enter the tube and the VOCs present to be absorbed onto the sorbent bed
3434 following the principles of diffusion. The sampler is suspended in the air by wire or
3435 string typically within the breathing zone for indoor air samples. Following the
3436 sampling period, the diffusion cap is removed and replaced with the storage cap, which
3437 is tightened to be gas-tight for storage and transport. The sampler is returned to Beacon
3438 for analysis following analytical procedures described in U.S. EPA Method TO-17 and
3439 TO-15. The holding time from sample collection until analysis is 30 days.

3440 **5.3.9.3 Advantages**

- 3441 • Time-weighted average (TWA) concentrations of VOCs are collected over days or
3442 weeks to provide time intergraded measurement and provide an average
3443 measurement over an extended sampling period. There are no pumps or vacuums
3444 used so the reported measurement represents a concentration under ambient
3445 conditions. The sampling protocols are simpler than the traditional sampling
3446 methods, which reduces the cost of sampling and risk of operator error.
- 3447 • Quantitative uptake rates were experimentally determined and validated for the
3448 Beacon Sampler and ChloroSorber in a third-party study which included other
3449 passive samplers with known uptake rates as a reference and were completed over
3450 7-, 14-, and 26- day exposure periods. The experiments were carried out by the
3451 Health and Safety Executive (HSE), United Kingdom, in a standard atmosphere
3452 generator based upon procedures described in ISO 6145-4:20042. HSE’s methods
3453 for the determination of hazardous substances (MDHS) are the source of most of
3454 the published uptake rates in the relevant international standard methods (e.g., ISO
3455 16017-2)3. Quantitative uptake rates for 13 key chlorinated and aromatic VOCs
3456 were determined and verified for the passive samplers. In this six-replicate third-
3457 party study, the devices showed excellent performance with great linearity and
3458 reproducibility.
- 3459 • Simple application and installation. All materials for sampling procedures are
3460 provided in a well-organized sampling kit.

- 3461 • Analyses of all samples is completed by Beacon Environmental following US EPA
3462 Methods and DoD ELAP and/or NELAP accredited procedures.

3463 **5.3.9.4 Limitations**

- 3464 • The detection limits are based on the sampling duration and extended sampling
3465 periods may be required (e.g., 14 days)
- 3466 • Only 13 chlorinated VOCs were tested in the laboratory for validated uptake rates,
3467 and Graham’s Law of gas diffusion is used to calculate the uptake rates for other
3468 VOCs. However, all chlorinated compounds targeted by the ChloroSorber were
3469 included in the uptake rate study.
- 3470 • Sample analysis is performed exclusively by Beacon Environmental’s accredited
3471 laboratory. Third party analysis is not available.

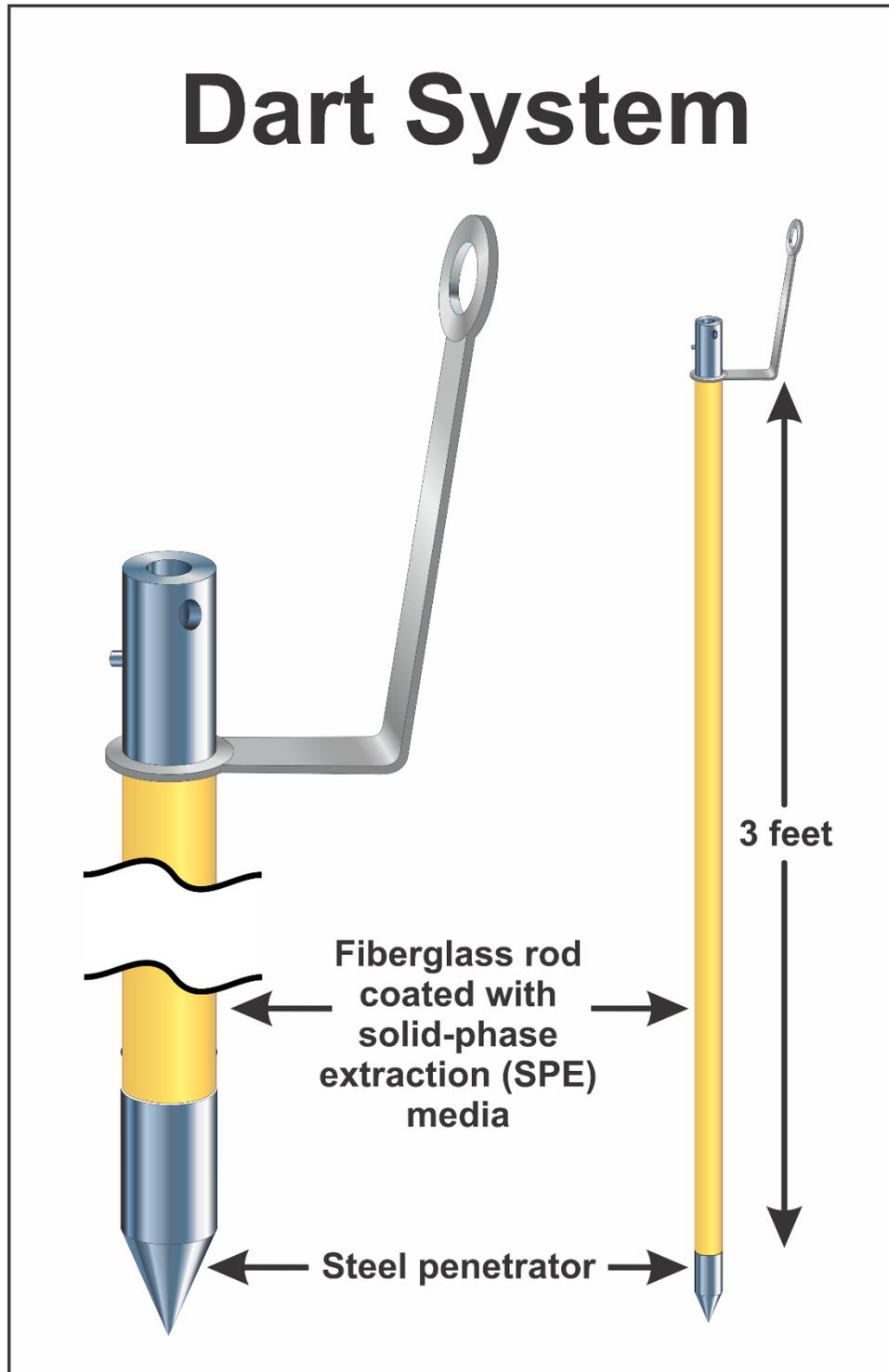
3472 **5.3.10 Dart Sampler**

3473 **5.3.10.1 Description and Application**

3474 The Dart sampler is used to delineate an area of interest for polycyclic aromatic
3475 hydrocarbons (PAHs) in sediments and similar soft soils. The technology is deployed
3476 when traditional mechanized sampling (like laser-induced fluorescence (LIF),
3477 traditional soil borings, etc.) are limited by site constraints, potentially unsafe or
3478 impactable for mechanized sampling. This technique applies to PAHs that exist as a
3479 component of non-aqueous phase liquids (NAPL) in sediments, not the dissolved
3480 phase. Accordingly, the Dart sampler is especially useful for high-resolution NAPL
3481 characterization at sites that can generally be difficult and expensive to profile NAPLs,
3482 like shorelines, marshes, shallow bodies of water adjacent to refineries, or former MGP
3483 or creosote sites. The Dart sampler contains a rod coated with a non-fluorescing solid-
3484 phase extraction (SPE) media, which is also used in labs for EPA-approved cleanup and
3485 pre-concentration of PAHs in traditional grab samples (“Darts,” n.d.). The technique
3486 relies on the fluorescing property of PAHs that have sorbed into the SPE material under
3487 excitation by ultraviolet laser light.

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Figure 5- 42: used with permission from NJDEP.



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5.3.10.2 Installation and Use

3492 The Darts are driven 1 to 20 feet down into the sediments. The target depth depends on
3493 soil conditions or survey need. Three- and six-foot Darts are standard. Once the Darts
3494 are planted, PAHs are attracted to and absorbed into the SPE media because of the
3495 PAHs' high affinity for the SPE material. Typically, 24 to 48 hours of equilibration
3496 time is adequate, after which the Darts are retrieved, wrapped in foil to isolate darts
3497 from each other, packaged, and sent to the manufacturer (Dakota Technologies
3498 (Dakota)) for reading. Once the PAHs have migrated into the Dart's SPE coating,
3499 they're stored in solid solution and remain contained there almost indefinitely without
3500 the need for refrigeration.

3501 The Darts are processed through an LIF reader by Technicians at Dakota. The LIF and
3502 Dakota's ultraviolet optical screening tool (UVOST) are very similar ("Darts," n.d.). A
3503 lathe-like device is used to rotate the Dart while the UVOST system logs a detailed
3504 reading of the PAH fluorescence (in units of %RE) vs. depth, typically at very high
3505 resolution (>100 readings/ft) to "read" the sorbed PAHs' fluorescence along the Darts
3506 entire length and circumference ("Darts," n.d.). The result is a LIF log that looks
3507 approximately identical to a UVOST log. Similar to UVOST, the LIF response
3508 correlates monotonically to the total-available-PAH content of the NAPL in sediment
3509 vs. Depth and distinguishes between different petroleum product types. After
3510 processing, the clients are sent a JPG of the graphical log and high-resolution data files.

3511 **5.3.10.3 Advantages**

- 3512 • Samples don't require ice or low temperature storage after collection.
- 3513 • No waste disposal of soil or groundwater.
- 3514 • Data is digitized.
- 3515 • Provides location and depth specific NAPL verification and characterization.

3516 **5.3.10.4 Limitations**

- 3517 • Lighter end LNAPLs such as kerosene and gasoline don't contain high enough
3518 PAHs to transfer in a convenient (24-48 hour) time span.
- 3519 • Soil matrix effects influence fluorescence results (finer grain soils slow the transfer
3520 rate).
- 3521 • Limits of detection decrease with porosity (grain size).
- 3522 • Units of fluorescence intensity (%RE (%reference emitter)) cannot be directly
3523 converted to concentration levels unless a calibration study of site-specific NAPL
3524 on site-specific sediment is conducted.

3525 **5.3.11 Fossil Fuel (CO₂) Traps**

3526 **5.3.11.1 Description and Application**

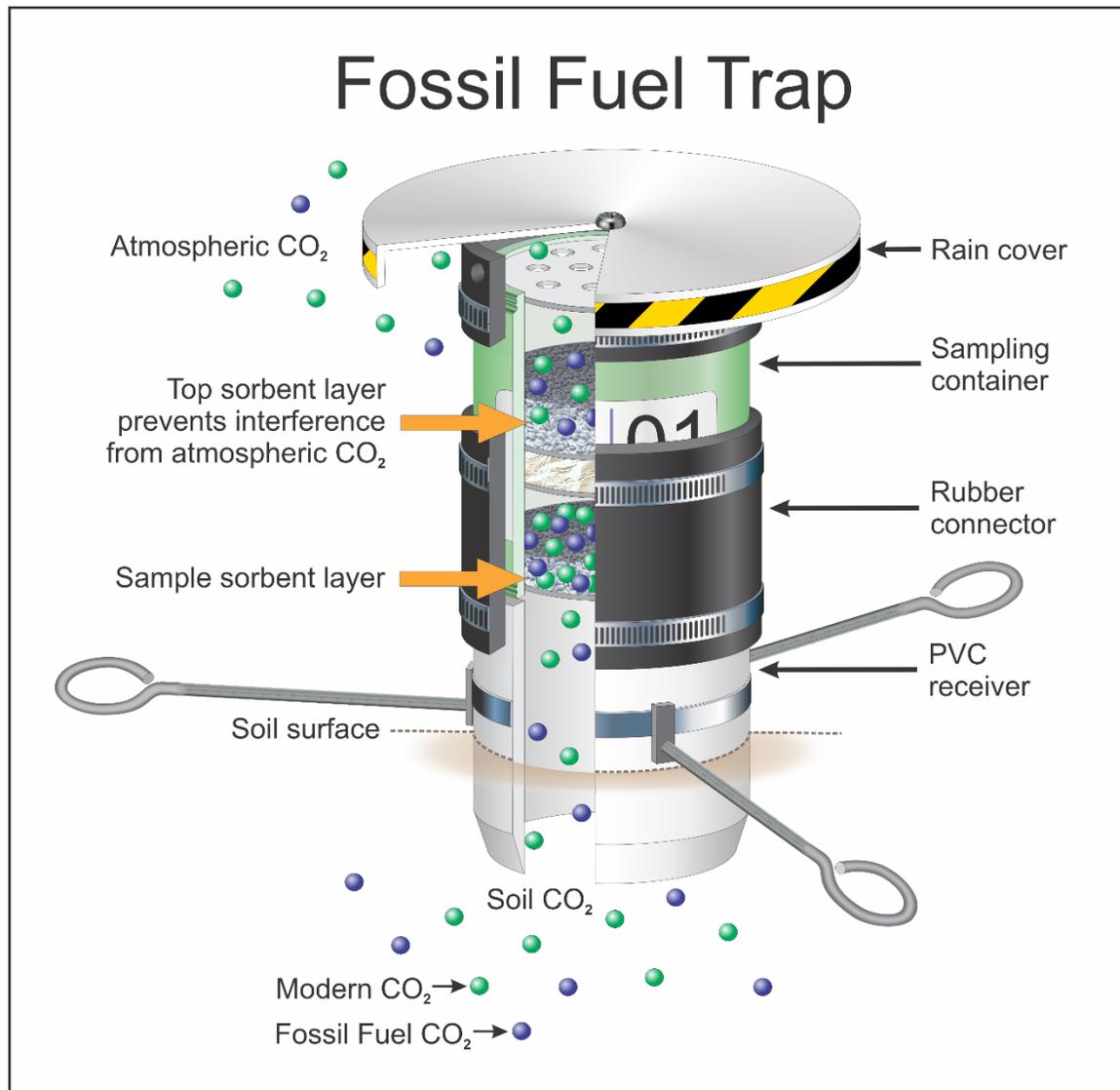
3527 Fossil Fuel Traps (also known as CO₂ Traps) are at-grade passive samplers that
3528 measure time-integrated CO₂ fluxes through the surface at petroleum-contaminated
3529 sites. CO₂ Traps are patented cannisters that contain a strongly basic solid-state sorbent
3530 material, which converts the CO₂ that passes through to stable carbonates that are
3531 retained in the Trap. In addition, the Traps are designed to allow for a "built-in"

3532 location-specific background correction. The CO₂ flux rates are then used to determine
3533 the rate of naturally occurring biodegradation of light non-aqueous phase liquid
3534 (LNAPL), or natural source zone depletion (NSZD) rates. The Traps provide a method
3535 for the comparison of natural LNAPL losses (NSZD) to losses from active remedies.

3536 The CO₂ traps have two layers of sorbent. The first layer, at the top, captures ambient
3537 CO₂, which eliminates ambient interference in the bottom sorbent. The second sorbent
3538 layer is at the bottom and absorbs CO₂ released from the soil. Since the fossil fuel trap
3539 is open to the atmosphere and the CO₂ is captured by the sorbent and does not build up
3540 within the head space, the gas flow is not disturbed, and the diffusion gradient is not
3541 altered (“Fossil Fuel Traps (CO₂ Traps) – a Passive Soil Gas Sampling Method,” n.d.).
3542 CO₂ does not build up in the head space of the fossil fuel trap because it is open to the
3543 atmosphere and the CO₂ absorbs into the sorbent. Consequently, gas flow and the
3544 diffusion gradient are unaffected. Modern CO₂ contributions (i.e., from natural soil
3545 respiration processes) can be significant and need to be subtracted from the net CO₂
3546 flux measurement before an accurate biodegradation rate can be estimated. In some
3547 contexts, modern CO₂ contributions (i.e., from natural soil respiration processes) can be
3548 significant, requiring consideration for estimating an accurate biodegradation rate.
3549 Under these conditions, the modern CO₂ contributions would be subtracted from the net
3550 CO₂ flux measurement (“Fossil Fuel Traps (CO₂ Traps) – a Passive Soil Gas Sampling
3551 Method,” n.d.). However, to eliminate this modern carbon interference, every bottom
3552 layer of the sorbent is precisely analyzed for its radiocarbon (¹⁴C) content (ASTM
3553 D6866-18) (“Fossil Fuel Traps (CO₂ Traps) – a Passive Soil Gas Sampling Method,”
3554 n.d.).

3555

Figure 5- 43: used with permission from NJDEP.



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5.3.11.2 Instillation and Use

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The use of a CO₂ Trap requires installation of a PVC collar provided with the Trap inserted several inches into the ground with the Trap placed on top. Anchors and a rain hood are then added to secure the Trap and protect it from the elements. The standard deployment time for fossil fuel traps is 14 days (although this time frame can be modified within a range of 5-28 days without further modification of the traps) ("Fossil Fuel Traps (CO₂ Traps) – a Passive Soil Gas Sampling Method.," n.d.).

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Following the 2-week sampling period, deployed traps and one undeployed trap (a trip blank) are collected and sent to the manufacturer's laboratory (E-Flux LLC of Fort Collins, CO) for analysis of total CO₂ and petrogenic CO₂ via unstable isotope analysis (14C radiocarbon dating). The unstable isotope 14C is present in modern carbon sources, but due to a half-life of 5,600 years, is not present in fossil fuel carbon sources. This

3569 ‘built-in’ location-specific background correction results in much more reliable petrogenic
3570 CO₂ flux estimation than can reasonably be accomplished via other CO₂ flux methods.
3571 The CO₂ flux is then converted to a depletion rate by multiplying by an appropriate
3572 stoichiometric ratio, which describes the mass relationship between CO₂ and the specific
3573 LNAPL compound of interest. Measuring the total CO₂ flux over an extended period gives
3574 a time averaged estimate of the soil CO₂ flux. This extended period also accounts for
3575 temporal variability including atmospheric pressure fluctuations and weather changes.

3576 **5.3.11.3 Advantages**

- 3577 • Do not require power, so can be deployed in remote locations.
- 3578 • Easy to use and can be installed by local site personnel without specialized training.
- 3579 • Can produce time-integrated average flux measurements, accounting for diurnal and
3580 daily fluctuations.
- 3581 • Capable of ¹⁴C analysis to differentiate fossil fuel-generated CO₂ from modern CO₂
3582 interference, providing location-specific background correction (“Fossil Fuel Traps
3583 (CO₂ Traps) – a Passive Soil Gas Sampling Method,” n.d.).

3584 **5.3.11.4 Limitations**

- 3585 • Cannot be used in areas with impermeable surface cover that limits atmospheric-
3586 soil gas exchange (e.g., asphalt, concrete, or other liners).
- 3587 • Saturated soil (due to recent high precipitation events) can hinder CO₂ mobility to
3588 the surface, thus biasing the results from this method low.
- 3589 • May not be valid at sites where ¹⁴C-enriched chemicals have been used or sites in
3590 the vicinity of nuclear reactors or waste.
- 3591 • Higher cost than other CO₂ flux methods, which may limit the number of traps
3592 used at a site.

3593 **5.3.12 Bio-Trap Samples**

3594 **5.3.12.1 Description and Application**

3595 Bio-Trap® Samplers are passive samplers that collect microbes over time to better
3596 understand biodegradation potential (“Bio-Trap Samplers,” n.d.). Bio-Sep® beads, a
3597 unique sampling matrix, are key to the technology’s approach. The beads are 2–3 mm
3598 in diameter and are constructed from a composite of Nomex® and powdered activated
3599 carbon (PAC) (“Bio-Trap Samplers,” n.d.).

3600

Figure 5- 44: used with permission from NJDEP.

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5.3.12.2 Instillation and Use

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Once deployed in a monitoring well, the beads adsorb chemicals and nutrients present in the aquifer. This effectively creates an in situ microcosm with an exceptionally large surface area (~600 m²/g) that is colonized by subsurface microorganisms (“Bio-Trap Samplers,” n.d.). The Bio-Trap is suspended in the screened interval and left for 30-60 days, depending on study objectives, and then retrieved. Once recovered, DNA, RNA, or PLFA can be extracted from the beads for qPCR, QuantArray or PLFA assays to evaluate the microbial community (“Bio-Trap Samplers,” n.d.). The Bio-Trap is able to produce results that can be integrated over time rather than from a single sampling event (“Bio-Trap Samplers,” n.d.). Numerous Bio-Trap samplers can be confined from one another using a double seal cap assembly.

3613

5.3.12.3 Advantages

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- Integrated view rather than a snapshot.

- 3615 • Organisms colonize the traps in situ selecting for active processes.
- 3616 • Can be analyzed with any molecular tool.
- 3617 • Strong adsorptive capability.
- 3618 • Versatile

5.3.12.4 Limitations

- 3620 • Organisms must actively colonize the trap so it may miss low concentration processes or organisms.
- 3622 • Must leave in the monitoring well for at least 30 days. Need two trips to the field for deployment and retrieval.

6. NON-PASSIVE GRAB SAMPLING TECHNOLOGIES

The following technologies do not meet the technical definition of a passive sampler in this document. The following devices introduce “active media transport” through suction or pressure variations or do not allow the sampled media to equilibrate before sample collection. However, these technologies are presented here since they do offer samplers the collection of a “no-purge” and discrete sample from groundwater or surface water. Many of the common advantages covered in **Section 3.1** also apply to these technologies. The samplers are discussed here to provide readers with additional devices to collect environmental samples to meet the data quality objectives are their respective projects, where a truly passive grab sample is not required.

Table 6- 1: Non-Passive Grab Sampling Technologies by Media Type

Sampling Device	Technology Type	Groundwater	Surface Water	Pore-Water	Sediment	Soil Gas	Indoor Air	Outdoor Air	Soil	NAPL
Syringe Sampler	Grab	●	●	●						●
Deep Discreet Interval Sampler	Grab	●	●							●
Horizontal Water Interval Sampler	Grab		●							

6.1 Syringe Sampler

6.1.1 Description and Application

Syringe samplers are devices designed to capture and preserve a grab water sample by preserving the conditions at the selected depth. The sample is collected without contact with air by precluding sample aeration and pressure changes at the selected depth of monitoring. While these samplers are not truly passive, the sample can be collected without purging or with a minimal amount of purging. A field filter can be used to filter sample for dissolved metals analysis.

The device is constructed of different materials including stainless steel and glass components, or high-density polyethylene (HDPE). Devices constructed with those materials can be used multiple times following decontamination. Another sampler is of

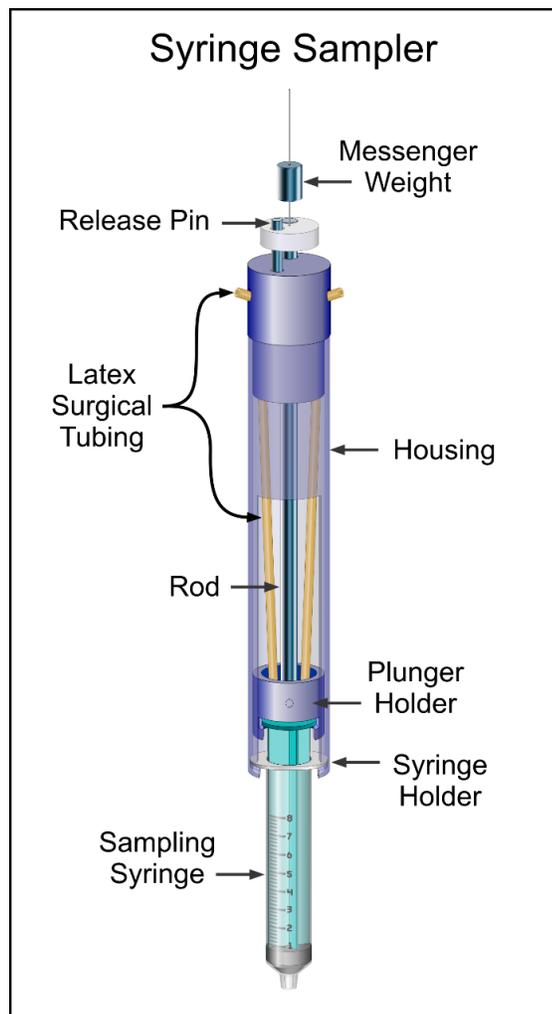
3647 polycarbonate material and can only be used once (NJDEP 2022). The samplers are
3648 designed to be compatible with standard off the shelf medical syringes of varying
3649 volumes (NJDEP 2022). The sample volume can be selected to match the project needs.

3650 Generally, syringe samplers are not widely applicable for general well sampling
3651 monitoring, however they are applicable attempting to collect a discrete, non-purged
3652 sample (NJDEP 2005). This is markedly true when gathering an undisturbed aliquot of
3653 nonaqueous phase liquid (NAPL) from a well or targeting a zone for field analytical
3654 measurement (NJDEP 2005). Certain water quality indicator parameters measured in
3655 discrete or non-pumped samples are more susceptible to bias from changes in
3656 temperature, pressure, turbidity, and concentrations of dissolved gases based on the
3657 location of the sampled well. The DQOs of the project should consider these effects when
3658 sampling a discrete interval.

3659 This apparatus can be used to monitor depth profiles in lakes, to sample pools in creeks,
3660 and to sample groundwater monitoring wells. For groundwater monitoring wells, the
3661 apparatus as specified below is useful for depths/heads of up to 10 feet.

3662

Figure 6- 1: used with permission from NJDEP.



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3664 6.1.2 Installation and Use

3665 The selected syringe is attached to the sampler housing and lowered to the prescribed
3666 sampling depth. When the sampler has reached depth, the release pin is tripped allowing
3667 the plunger to be pulled up. This suction allows the sampling medium to be drawn into
3668 the syringe. Once the desired volume is achieved, the sampler is removed, and the sample
3669 is transferred into the appropriate bottles. The entire apparatus can be decontaminated
3670 and reused again to sample.

3671 6.1.3 Advantages

- 3672 • Can sample at discrete depths.
- 3673 • The interior of sampler is not exposed to the water column.
- 3674 • Can be used as a collection device for field screening techniques.
- 3675 • Collection of NAPL in monitoring wells for fingerprinting without pumping.

3676 6.1.4 Limitations

- 3677 • Difficulty in collecting quality assurance samples.
- 3678 • Use of this device might require regulatory guidance.

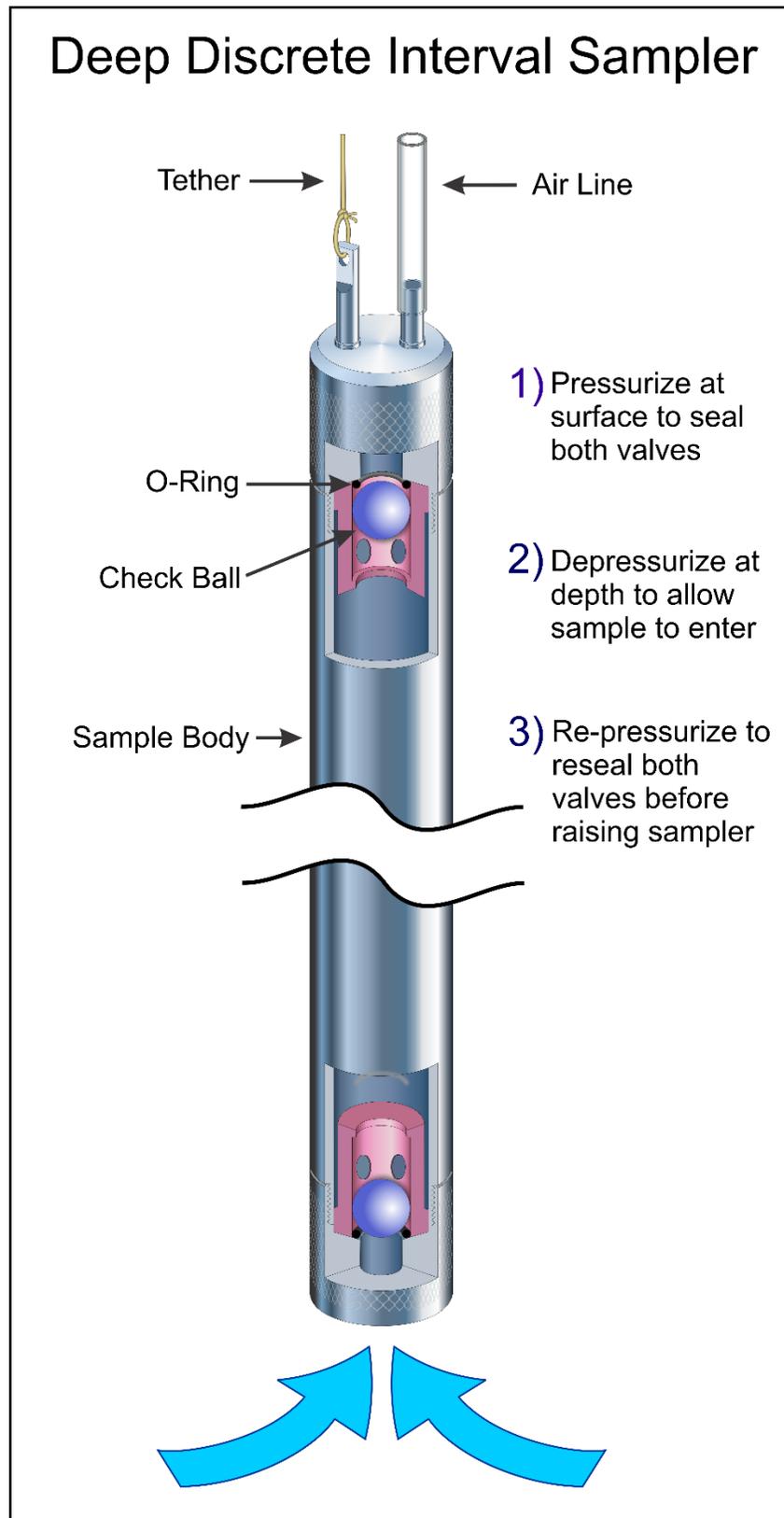
3679 6.2 Deep Discrete Interval Sampler**3680 6.2.1 Description and Application**

3681 The Model 425 Discrete Interval Sampler (DIS) was developed by Solinst Canada Ltd. in
3682 1994. It is designed to acquire representative groundwater samples from a specific
3683 sampling zone without the need for purging. A DIS can is a no-purge sampler that
3684 samples all chemicals including (e.g., VOCs, metals, field parameters, etc.) and can also
3685 be used in open bodies of water. The DIS is excellent at gathering samples of product
3686 layers in or on top of water (LNAPL or DNAPL). A DIS recovers a discrete sample from
3687 a well zone where the sampler is activated, with limited drawdown and negligible
3688 agitation of the water column. The DIS is a stainless steel sampler that is pressure sealed.
3689 It is activated by a high-pressure hand pump that pressurizes the sample chamber to the
3690 pressure of the water column at the intended sample interval, which prevents water from
3691 entering the sampler until activated. Ultimately, this prevents loss of VOCs during
3692 retrieval of the sampler and avoids contamination from other layers during deployment
3693 and retrieval.

3694 The DIS system consists of a stainless-steel sampler with PTFE and Polypropylene check
3695 balls, LDPE (or PTFE or PTFE-lined polyethylene) tubing, a tubing reel, high pressure
3696 hand pump, and a sample release device. The sampler is connected to LDPE airline
3697 tubing, which is mounted on a reel, which has an attachment for a high-pressure hand
3698 pump and a pressure/vent switch that is used to apply and release pressure on the
3699 sampler. There are three sampler diameters available, 1", 1.66" and 2", in 2 foot or 4-foot
3700 lengths. The sampler can be operated by one person but can be difficult to operate if the
3701 well is over 100 feet.

3702

Figure 6- 2: used with permission from NJDEP.



3703

3704 6.2.2 Installation and Use

3705 The DIS is pressurized before being lowered, to prevent water from entering the sampler,
3706 in order to obtain a sample. At the target depth, the pressure is released. Hydrostatic
3707 pressure then fills the sampler with water directly from the sampling zone. Once the
3708 sampler is full it is repressurized and raised to the surface. During this process, check
3709 balls prevent water from entering the tubing. The sample is decanted using the sample
3710 release device, which regulates flow and minimizes degassing of the sample.

3711 Discrete Interval Samplers are suitable for sampling in groundwater or surface water. The
3712 DIS can sample all organic and inorganic chemicals of concern if an adequate volume of
3713 sample is recovered for analysis. The DIS can be used to sample all common chemicals
3714 including but not limited to the following: VOCs, semi-volatile organics, metals, major
3715 cations and anions, dissolved trace metals, dissolved sulfide, dissolved gases
3716 (methane/ethene/carbon dioxide), field parameters, Hex Cr, Oxygenates, MTBE,
3717 explosives, and perchlorate.

3718 6.2.3 Advantages

- 3719 • Effective for collecting water samples of any type of chemicals.
- 3720 • Discrete sampling in wells, boreholes, and open bodies of water.
- 3721 • Collect samples from a narrow depth range with no movement of the sampler position
3722 during collection.
- 3723 • Sample has not been pumped through tubing.
- 3724 • Minimal water disturbance.
- 3725 • Easy to disassemble for decontamination.
- 3726 • Avoids purging and disposal of purge water.
- 3727 • Reduced cost and time to retrieve samples.
- 3728 • No gas or electricity required for operation.
- 3729 • Easy operation and transportation.

3730 6.2.4 Limitations

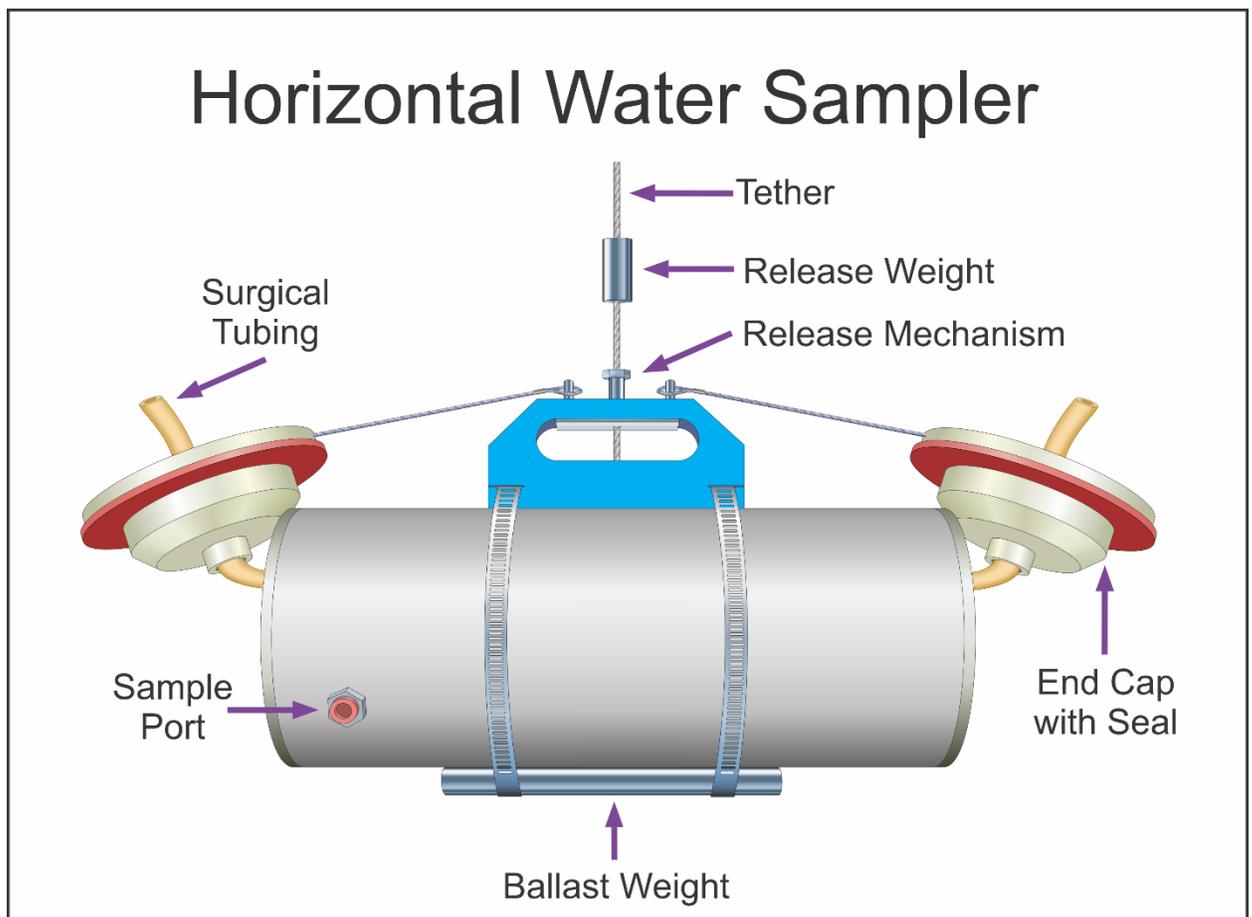
- 3731 • Discrete interval Samplers are designed to sample in wells larger than 1” in diameter,
3732 with no upper limit to well diameter that can be sampled. DIS can also be used to
3733 sample from open bodies of water.
- 3734 • Sampling depth may be a limitation. The Standard Model 425 Discrete Interval
3735 Samplers can sample to depths of 300 feet (90 meters) below water level, regardless
3736 of total depth from surface (“Discrete Interval Samplers: Model 425 & 425-D Data
3737 Sheet” 2021).
- 3738 • Collects a limited sample volume.

3739 6.3 Horizontal Surface Water Interval Sampler**3740 6.3.1 Description and Application**

3741 The Horizontal Surface Water Interval Sampler (also commonly called a Van Dorn
3742 bottle) is a surface water no purge sampling device that was first developed in the 1950s
3743 by Dr. William G. Van Dorn of the Scripps Institute of Oceanography. The sampling
3744 devices have a tube with varying diameter and lengths with a sealable end cap. The
3745 dimensions of the sampling device control the volume of water being sampled. The
3746 sampling devices can be made of varying materials that need to be considered based upon
3747 the chemicals being sampled. The sampler is attached to a calibrated line to ensure the
3748 sampler reaches the prescribed depth. The weight of the sampler ensures a rapid descent
3749 and helps to minimize drift due to currents.

3750

Figure 6- 3: used with permission from NJDEP.



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6.3.2 Installation and Use

3753 Horizontal Surface Water Interval Sampler is a surface water no purge sampling device.
3754 The sampling devices have a water collection tube, sometimes referred to as a bottle or
3755 chamber by different manufacturers, with varying diameter and lengths with a sealable
3756 end cap(s). The dimensions of the sampling device control the volume of water being
3757 sampled. There are different options provided by different manufacturers on the materials
3758 that the bottle/tube is made of and some variation in sampling device sizes. In general,
3759 the sampling devices are cylindrical in shape and generally range between 30 and 45
3760 centimeters in length and about 10 to 15 centimeters in diameter. This range of sizes

3761 usually equate to sample volumes between 1.5 to 5.0 liters. The sample collection
3762 chamber is usually constructed of rigid polyurethane, polycarbonate, acrylic, or durable
3763 impact-resistant PVC. The end caps on these sampling devices are generally lined with
3764 soft rubber, or other materials such as silicone and/or polyethylene around the outer
3765 perimeter to provide a good seal. Depending on selected sampler materials, the samplers
3766 may be suitable for sampling for metals, other inorganics, organics, other water quality
3767 parameters, and biological parameters such as plankton. The water collected by the
3768 sampling device will be transferred to laboratory containers and care should be taken to
3769 eliminate bubbles that may form and could get trapped in the VOC vials. Because the
3770 sampling devices can be made of varying materials the materials need to be considered
3771 based upon the chemicals of interest and the project DQOs. These sampling devices are
3772 marketed as either sampling bottles or sampling kits and typically include a tether line
3773 that is between 15 and 30 meters in length. The tether line provided with these surface
3774 water sampling kits often comes with a handle that can be used for retrieving the sample,
3775 or otherwise winding up the cord to store it. To deploy the sampling device, the sampler
3776 is attached to the tether line, which may be calibrated with depth markers, to ensure the
3777 sampler reaches a specific interval depth. These devices may or may not have a ballast
3778 weight to help the sampler sink when deployed. Generally, these sampling devices weigh
3779 about two pounds, which is enough weight to ensure a rapid descent and help minimize
3780 drift due to currents. When full, the larger styles of devices may be heavy, and use of a
3781 winch may be desired for retrieval.

3782 6.3.3 Advantages

- 3783 • Can be redeployed multiple times after decontamination.
- 3784 • Can collect “grab” sample from relatively thin (10 to 15 cm thick) water column,
3785 which may be desirable for stratified surface water bodies.

3786 6.3.4 Limitations

- 3787 • Can only be used in surface water
- 3788 • Only collects a “grab” sample

3789 7. GLOSSARY

3790 **Accumulation Sampler:** a technology that concentrates the target chemical on a selective
3791 collecting medium such as an absorbent or absorbent solid, a solvent or chemical reagent.

3792 **Active Sampling:** a method that relies on the mechanical action of sampling equipment to
3793 draw the medium and contaminants into the sampling device, causing deviations from the
3794 natural flow or ambient conditions.

3795 **Ambient Air:** for the purpose of this document, ambient air is equivalent to outdoor air.

3796 **Chemical** (*within the parameters of the document*): a generic term referring to an element or
3797 compound that is the target for sampling with the technology in question. This term is used
3798 in place of other common terms such as analyte, constituent, compound, contaminant, or
3799 COC.

3800 **Dalton:** The unit used for the molecular weight cutoff (MWCO) by the manufacturers of
3801 dialysis membranes. It is a measure of what sized molecules will go through or be excluded

3802 by the membrane. 1 Dalton=1 gram/mole, but all dialysis membranes are sold by MWCO
3803 values in Daltons.

3804 **Data Quality Objective (DQO):** a process that is used to systematically plan for collecting
3805 environmental data of a known quality and quantity to support decisions.

3806 **Equilibrium Sampler:** a technology that functions in a selected medium where chemicals
3807 reach concentration equivalence between the medium and the sampler through diffusion.

3808 **Field Parameters:** measurements that provide information about the state and surroundings
3809 of the media in question. Examples include, but are not limited to, pH, temperature,
3810 conductivity, turbidity, dissolved oxygen, etc.

3811 **Grab Sampler:** a device that recovers a sample of the selected medium that represents the
3812 conditions at the sampling point including any chemicals present, at the moment of sample
3813 collection or a period surrounding sample collection

3814 **Groundwater:** water that can be found in the subsurface in the annular spaces between soil,
3815 sand, and rock and is accessed by monitoring wells.

3816 **Indoor Air:** the air present within buildings and structures that may be closed or sealed
3817 from exterior air.

3818 **Media/Medium:** soil, water, air, or any other parts of the environment that may contain
3819 contaminants.

3820 **Minimum Residence Time:** the duration a sampling device remains in the medium for it to
3821 collect a representative sample. For groundwater, this includes well restabilization time.

3822 **Monitoring Well/Probe:** A device constructed in accordance with state or local regulations
3823 to obtain access to media.

3824 **NAPL:** the acronym for Non-Aqueous Phase Liquid and refers to typically organic liquids
3825 that are immiscible or not soluble in water. There are two types of NAPL: Light Non-
3826 aqueous Phase Liquids (LNAPL) which are less dense than water and Dense Non-aqueous
3827 Phase Liquids (DNAPL) which are denser than water.

3828 **Non-passive sampler:** technologies that do not fully meet the definition of active or passive
3829 sampling in this document.

3830 **Outdoor Air:** the air present exterior of the building or from within structures that cannot be
3831 sealed from external sources.

3832 **Passive Sampling:** a method that acquires a sample from a discrete location without
3833 inducing active media transport.

3834 **Polymeric samplers:** a technology that contains a hydrophobic polymer that absorbs
3835 organic compounds present in the media sampled.

3836 **Porewater:** water located within the pore spaces between sediment particles that may
3837 represent the mobile water interacting between groundwater and surface water within
3838 permanent surface water features or intermittently flooded features (such as seasonal
3839 streams, intertidal zones, or stormwater swales/basins). This document primarily references
3840 sediment porewater, however the information may also apply to soil porewater.

3841 **Sediment:** a medium consisting of primarily solid minerals and/or organic particles that are
3842 deposited as a result of water or wind transportation.

3843 **Soil:** unconsolidated material that overlies bedrock.

3844 **Soil Gas (Soil Vapor):** gaseous elements and chemicals that are located in the spaces
3845 between soil particles within the vadose zone.

3846 **Surface Water:** permanent or reoccurring water open to the atmosphere under either high-
3847 flow (rivers or streams) or low-flow (ponds, oceans, or lakes) conditions.

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