APPENDIX A
Example of MARSSIM Applied to a Final Status Survey

A.1 Introduction

This appendix presents the final status survey for a relatively simple example of a radiation site. Portions of this example appear earlier in Chapter 5 and Chapter 8. This appendix highlights the major steps for implementing a final status survey and gathering information needed to prepare a report. The report's format will vary with the requirements of the responsible regulatory agency. The Final Status Survey Checklist given at the end of Section 5.5 serves as a general outline for this appendix—although not every point is discussed in detail. Chapters providing discussions on particular points are referenced at each step. This example presents detailed calculations for a single Class 1 survey unit. Section A.2 addresses the completion of steps 1-4 of the Data Quality Objectives (DQO) Process (see Appendix D, Sections D.1 to D.4). Section A.3 addresses the completion of steps 5-7 of the DQO Process (see Appendix D, Sections D.5 to D.7). Section A.4 covers survey performance. Section A.5 discusses evaluating the survey results using Data Quality Assessment (DQA, see Appendix E).

A.2 Survey Preparations
(Chapter 3- Historical Site Assessment)

The Specialty Source Manufacturing Company produced low-activity encapsulated sources of radioactive material for use in classroom educational projects, instrument calibration, and consumer products. The manufacturing process—conducted between 1978 and 1993—involved combining a liquid containing a known quantity of the radioactive material with a plastic binder. This mixture was poured into a metal form and allowed to solidify. After drying, the form and plastic were encapsulated in a metal holder which was pressure sealed. A variety of radionuclides were used in this operation, but the only one having a half-life greater than 60 days was ^{60}Co. Licensed activities were terminated as of April 1993 and stock materials containing residual radioactivity were disposed using authorized procedures. Decontamination activities included the initial identification and removal of contaminated equipment and facilities. The site was then surveyed to demonstrate that the radiological conditions satisfy regulatory agency criteria for release.

A.2.1 Identify the Radionuclides of Concern
(Section 4.3)

More than 15 half-lives have passed for the materials with a half-life of 60 days or less. Based on radioactive decay and the initial quantities of the radionuclides, the quantities that could remain at the site are negligible. A characterization survey confirmed that no radioactive contaminants, other than ^{60}Co, were present.

A.2.2 Determine Residual Radioactivity Limits (DCGLs)
(Section 4.3)

The objective of this survey is to demonstrate that residual contamination in excess of the release criterion is not present at the site. The $DCGL_W$ for ^{60}Co used for evaluating survey results is 8,300 Bq/m^2 (5,000 dpm/100 cm^2) for surface contamination of structures. The $DCGL_W$ for contamination in soil is 140 Bq/kg (3.8 pCi/g).[1]

A.2.3 Classify Areas Based on Contamination Potential.
(Section 4.4)

This facility consists of one administration/manufacturing building situated on approximately 0.4 hectares (1.0 acres) of land as shown in Figure A.1. The building is a concrete block structure on a poured concrete slab with a poured concrete ceiling. The northern portion of the building housed the manufacturing operations, and consists of a high-bay area of approximately 20 m x 20 m with a 7 m high ceiling. The remainder of the building is single-story with numerous small rooms partitioned by drywall construction. This portion of the building, used for administration activities, occupies an area of approximately 600 m^2 (20 m x 30 m). The license does not authorize use of radioactive materials in this area. Operating records and previous radiological surveys do not identify a potential for residual contamination in this section of the building. Figure A.2 is a drawing of the building.

The property is surrounded by a chain-link security fence. At the northern end of the property, the surface is paved and was used as a parking lot for employees and for truck access to the manufacturing and shipping/receiving areas. The remainder of the property is grass-covered. There are no indications of incidents or occurrences leading to radioactive material releases from the building. Previous surveys were reviewed and the results were determined to be appropriate for planning the final status survey. These surveys identified no radioactive contamination outside the building.

A.2.4 Identify Survey Units
(Section 4.6)

Based on the results of other decommissioning surveys at the site and the operating history, the following survey units were used to design the final status survey. All of the interior survey units consist of concrete surfaces (either poured concrete or cinder block) with the exception of the administration areas which are drywall. The results of previous surveys demonstrated that the same reference area could be used to represent the poured concrete and cinder block surfaces.

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[1] The DCGL values used in this appendix are meant to be illustrative examples and are not meant to be generally applied.

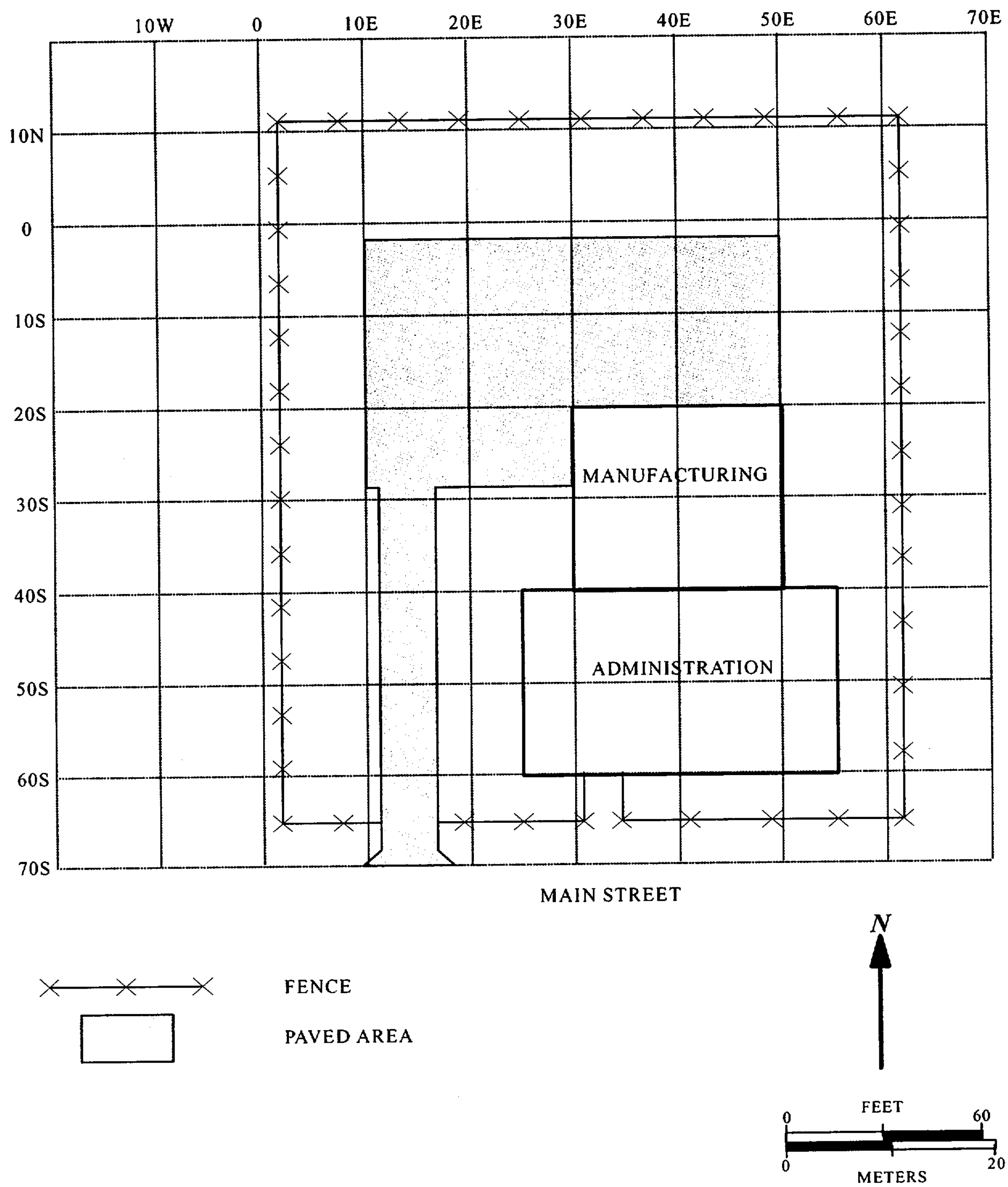


Figure A.1 Plot Plan of the Specialty Source Manufacturing Company

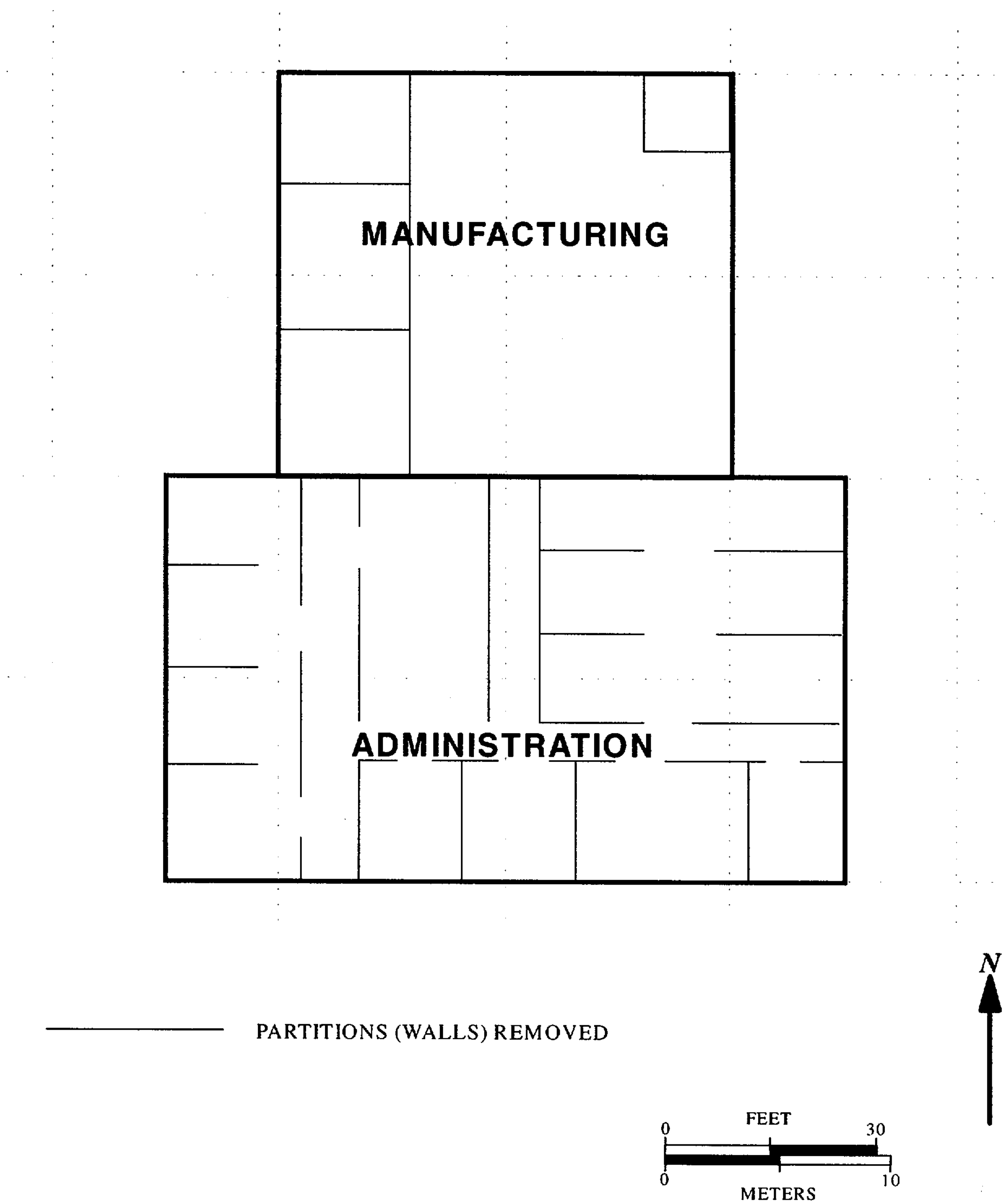


Figure A.2 Building Floor Plan

Structures

Class 1	Floor and lower walls (up to 2 meters above the floor) of manufacturing area - 4 survey units of 140 m^2 each.
Class 2	Upper walls (over 2 meters above the floor) of manufacturing area - 4 survey units of 100 m^2 each. Ceiling of manufacturing area - 4 survey units of 100 m^2 each. Paved area outside manufacturing area roll-up door - 1 survey unit of 60 m^2.
Class 3	Floors and lower walls of administration areas - 1 survey unit. Remainder of paved surfaces - 1 survey unit.

Land Areas

Class 3	Lawn areas - 1 survey unit.

A.2.5 Select Survey Instrumentation and Survey Techniques

(Section 4.7, Chapter 6, Chapter 7, Appendix H, and Appendix M)

For interior surfaces, direct measurements of gross beta activity were made using one minute counts on a gas flow proportional counter with an MDC of 710 Bq/m^2 (425 dpm/100 cm^2). This is actually less than 10% of the DCGL for ^{60}Co. Surfaces were scanned using either a 573 cm^2 floor monitor with an MDC of 6,000 Bq/m^2 (3,600 dpm/100 cm^2) or a 126 cm^2 gas flow proportional counter with an MDC of 3,300 Bq/m^2 (2,000 dpm/100 cm^2).

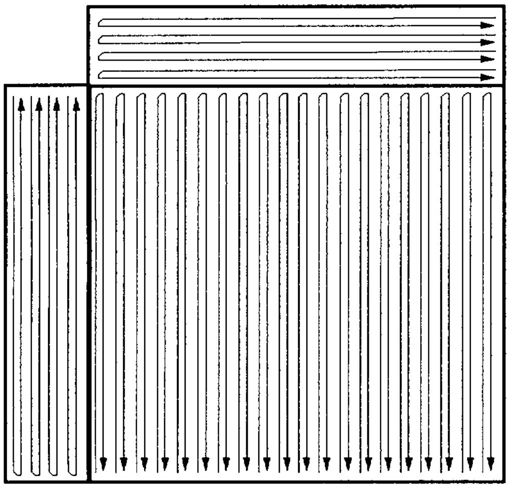
Exterior soil surfaces were sampled and counted in a laboratory using a Ge spectrometer with an MDC of 20 Bq/kg (0.5 pCi/g). This is actually slightly greater than 10% of the DCGL for ^{60}Co. Soil surfaces were scanned using a NaI(Tl) scintillator with an MDC of 185 Bq/kg (5.0 pCi/g) of ^{60}Co.

Examples of scanning patterns used in each of the Class 1, 2, and 3 areas are shown in Figure A.3.

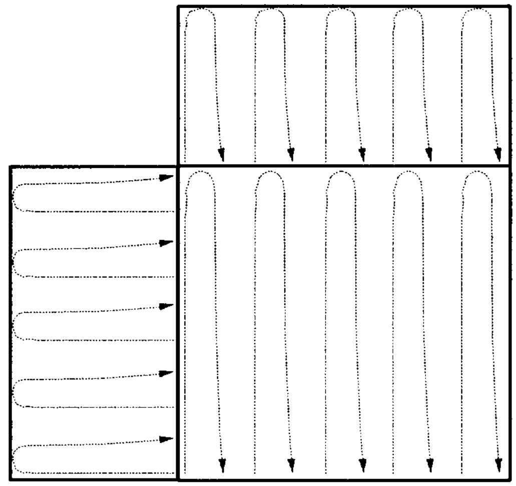
A.2.6 Select Representative Reference (Background) Areas

(Section 4.5)

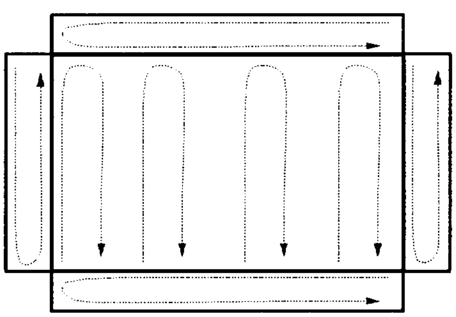
For the purposes of evaluating gross beta activity on structure surfaces, a building of similar construction was identified on the property immediately east of the site. This building served as a reference for surface activity measurements. Two reference areas—one for concrete surfaces and one for drywall surfaces—were required. Because ^{60}Co is not a constituent of background and evaluation of the soil concentrations was radionuclide-specific, a reference area was not needed for the land area surveys.



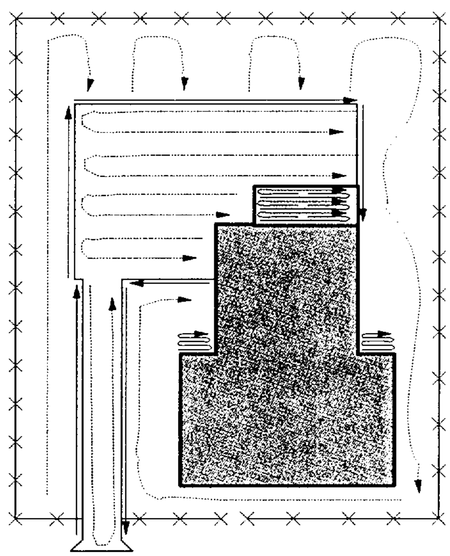
Interior Concrete Survey Units
Class 1 Floors - 100% Scan with Floor Monitor
Class 1 Walls - 100% Scans with Gas Flow Proportional Counter



Manufacturing Area Upper Walls and Ceiling
Class 2 Areas - 25% Scans with Gas Flow Proportional Counter



Administration/Office Areas
Class 3 Floors - 25% Scan with Floor Monitor
Class 3 Walls - 25% Scan with Gas Flow Proportional Counter



Class 2 Paved Area - 100% Scan with Floor Monitor
Class 3 Paved Area - 25% Scan with NaI(Tl)
Class 3 Lawn Area - 100% Scan with NaI(Tl) at Downspouts and Edge of Pavement (Runoff Areas)
10% Scan with NaI(Tl) on Remaining Lawn Area

Figure A.3 Examples of Scanning Patterns for Each Survey Unit Classification

A.2.7 Prepare Area
(Section 4.8)

Prior to the survey, and as part of the decommissioning process, all internal partitions were removed from the manufacturing area. Other items removed include the radioactive material control exhaust system, a liquid waste collection system, and other furnishings and fixtures not considered an integral part of the structure.

A.2.8 Establish Reference Coordinate Systems
(Section 4.8.5)

Land areas were gridded at 10 m intervals along north-south and east-west axes in preparation for the characterization survey as shown in Figure A.1. The grid was checked to verify its use for the final status survey.

Structure surfaces were already gridded at 2 m intervals, incorporating the floors and the lower 2 m of the walls. Figure A.4 is an example of the coordinate system installed for one of the Class 1 interior concrete survey units.

A.3 Survey Design

A.3.1 Quantify DQOs
(Section 2.3, Appendix D)

The null hypothesis for each survey unit is that the residual radioactivity concentrations exceed the release criterion (Scenario A, Figure D.5). Acceptable decision error probabilities for testing the hypothesis were determined to be α=0.05 and β=0.05 for the Class 1 interior concrete survey units, and α=0.025 and β=0.05 for all other survey units.

A.3.2 Construct the Desired Power Curve
(Section 2.3, Appendix D.6, Appendix I.9)

The desired power curve for the Class 1 interior concrete survey units is shown in Figure A.5. The gray region extends from 4,200 to 8,300 Bq/m^2 (2,500 to 5,000 dpm/100 cm^2). The survey was designed for the statistical test to have 95% power to decide that a survey unit containing less than 4,200 Bq/m^2 (2,500 dpm/100 cm^2) above background meets the release criterion. For the same test, a survey unit containing over 17,000 Bq/m^2 (10,000 dpm/100 cm^2) above background had less than a 2.5% probability of being released.

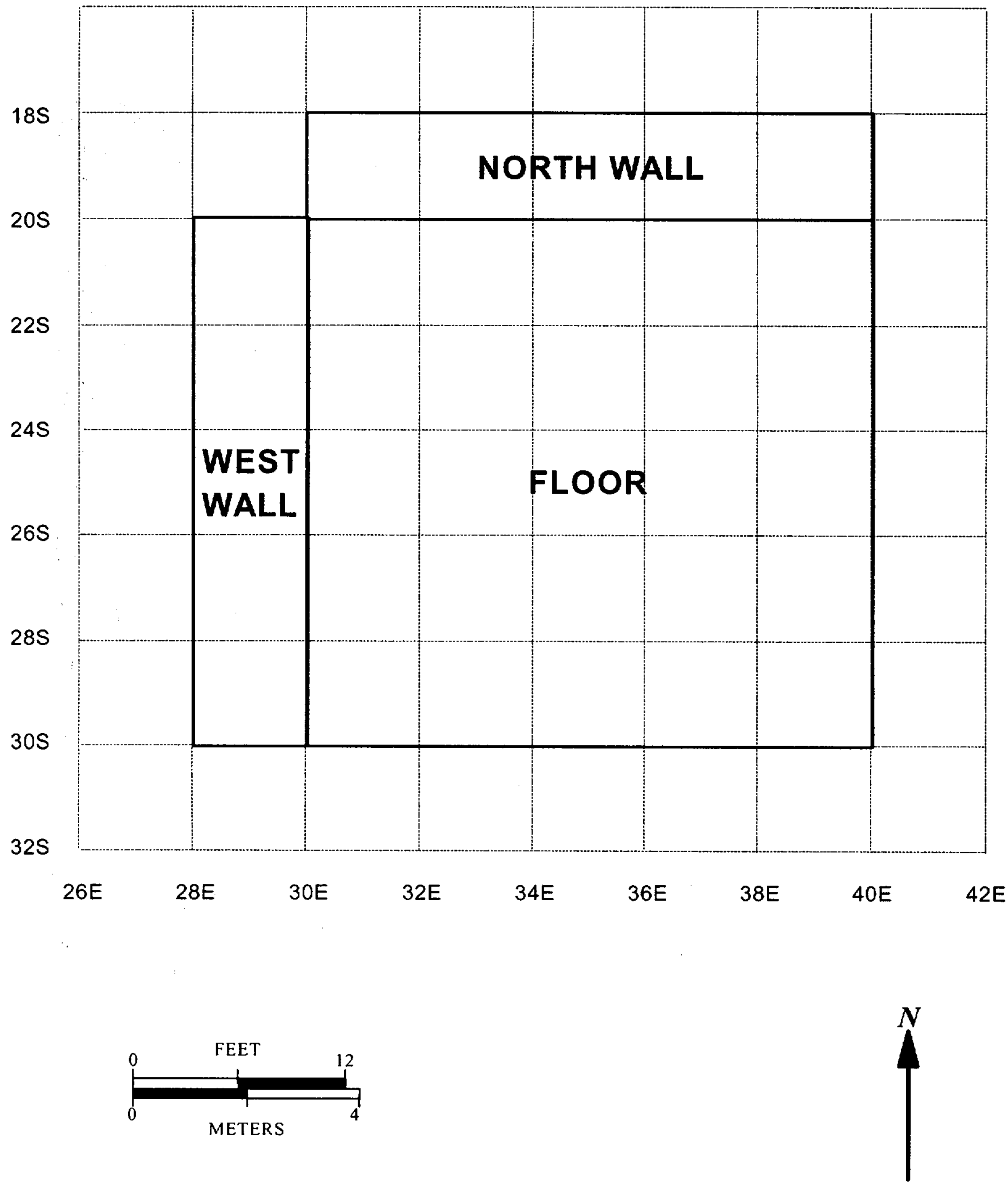


Figure A.4 Reference Coordinate System for the Class 1 Interior Concrete Survey Unit

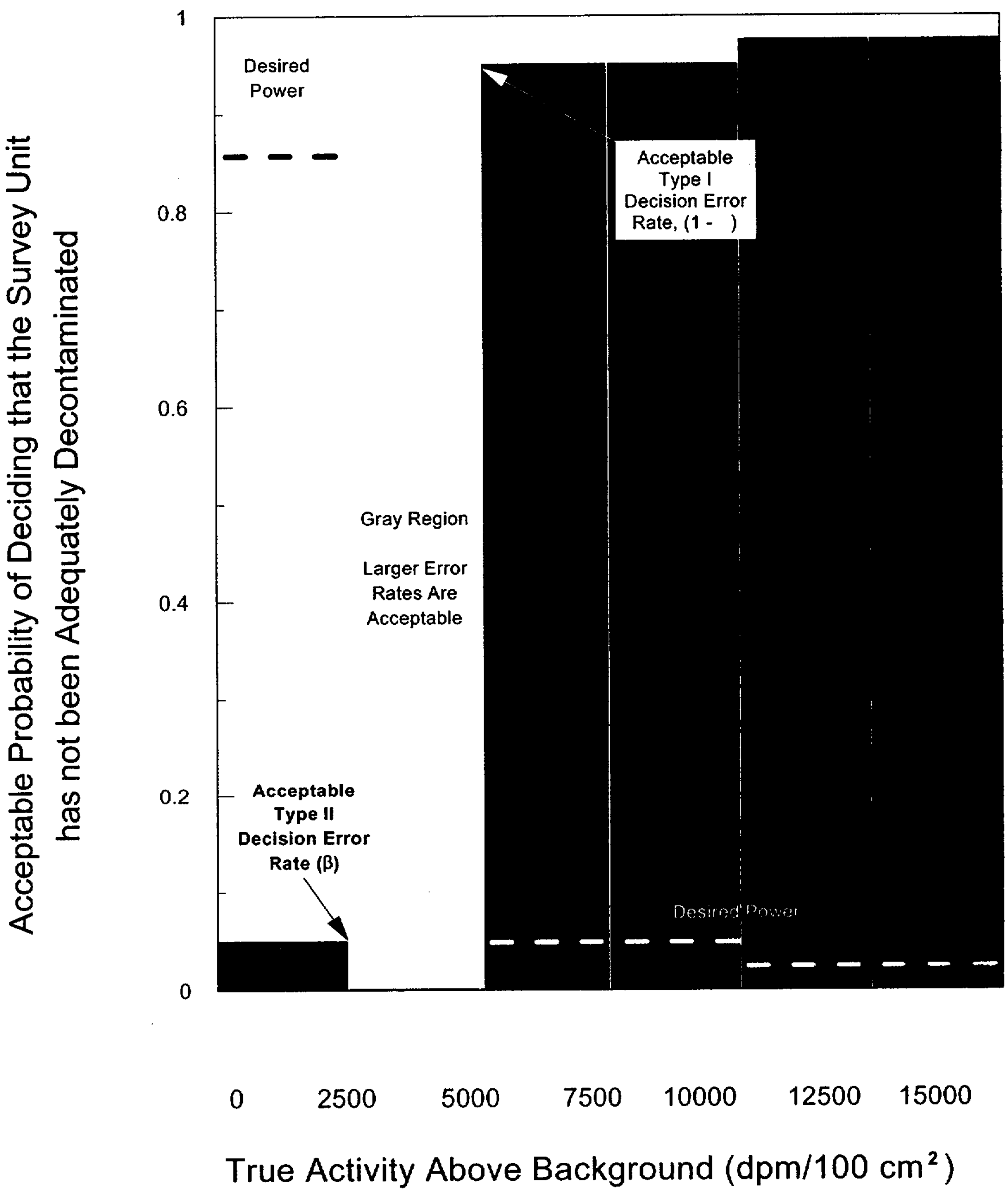


Figure A.5 Power Chart for the Class 1 Interior Concrete Survey Unit

A.3.3 Specify Sample Collection and Analysis Procedures
(Chapter 7)

In the Class 3 exterior survey unit soil cores were taken to a depth of 7.5 cm (3 in.) based on development of DQOs, the conceptual site model, and the assumptions used to develop the DCGLs. Each sample was labeled with the location code, date and time of sampling, sealed in a plastic bag, and weighed prior to shipment to the analytical laboratory. At the laboratory, the samples were weighed, dried, and weighed again. The samples were ground to a uniform particle size to homogenize the samples consistent with the modeling assumptions used to develop the DCGLs. One hundred gram (100 g) aliquots were gamma counted using a germanium detector with multichannel analyzer.

The decision to use radionuclide-specific measurements for soil means that the survey of the Class 3 exterior soil surface survey unit was designed for use with the one-sample Sign test.

A.3.4 Provide Information on Survey Instrumentation and Techniques
(Chapter 6)

A gas flow proportional counter with 20 cm^2 probe area and 16% 4π response was placed on the surface at each direct measurement location, and a one minute count taken. Calibration and background were checked before and after each series of measurements. The $DCGL_W$, adjusted for the detector size and efficiency, is:

$$(5{,}000 \text{ dpm}/100 \text{ cm}^2)\ (0.20)\ (0.16) = 160 \text{ cpm} \qquad \text{A-1}$$

The decision to use total activity measurements for interior surfaces means that the survey of all the interior survey units was designed for use with the two-sample WRS test for comparison with an appropriate reference area.

A.3.5 Determine Numbers of Data Points
(Section 5.5.2.2)

This facility contains 15 survey units consisting of interior concrete surfaces, interior drywall surfaces, exterior surface soil, and exterior paved surfaces.

Concrete Surfaces

The site has 12 interior concrete survey units to be compared with 1 reference area. The same type of instrument and method were used to perform measurements in each area.

The lower bound of the gray region is selected to be one-half the DCGL, and Type I and Type II error values (α and β) of 0.05 were selected. The number of samples/measurements to be obtained, based on the requirements of the statistical tests, was determined using Equation 5-1 in Section 5.5.2.2:

$$N = \frac{(Z_{1-\alpha} + Z_{1-\beta})^2}{3(P_r - 0.5)^2} \qquad \text{A-2}$$

From Table 5.2 it is found that $Z_{1-\alpha} = Z_{1-\beta} = 1.645$ for $\alpha = \beta = 0.05$.

The parameter P_r depends on the relative shift, Δ/σ. The width of the gray region, Δ, in Figure A.5 is 4,200 Bq/m^2 (2,500 dpm/100 cm^2), which corresponds to 80 cpm. Data from previous scoping and characterization surveys indicate that the background level is 45 ± 7 (1σ) cpm. The standard deviation of the contaminant in the survey unit (σ_s) is estimated at ± 20 cpm. When the estimated standard deviation in the reference area and the survey units are different, the larger value should be used to calculate the relative shift. Thus, the value of the relative shift, Δ/σ, is (160-80)/20 or 4.[2] From Table 5.1, the value of P_r is approximately 1.000.

The number of data points for the WRS test of each combination of reference area and survey units according to the allocation formula was:

$$N = \frac{(1.645 + 1.645)^2}{3(1.000 - 0.5)^2} = 14.4 \qquad \text{A-3}$$

Adding an additional 20% and rounding up yielded 18 data points total for the reference area and each survey unit combined. Note that the same result is obtained by simply using Table 5.3 or Table I.2b with $\alpha = \beta = 0.05$ and $\Delta/\sigma = 4$. Of this total number, 9 were planned from the reference area and 9 from each survey unit. The total number of measurements calculated based on the statistical tests was 9 + (12)(9) = 117.

A.3.6 Evaluate the power of the statistical tests against the DQOs.
(Appendix I.9.2)

Using Equation I-8, the prospective power expected of the WRS test was calculated using the fact that 9 samples were planned in each of the survey units and the reference area. The value of σ_s was taken to be 20 cpm, the larger of the two values anticipated for the reference area (7 cpm) and the survey unit (20 cpm). This prospective power curve is shown in Figure A.6.

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[2] Ordinarily Δ/σ would be adjusted to a value between 1 and 3. For this example the adjustment was not made.

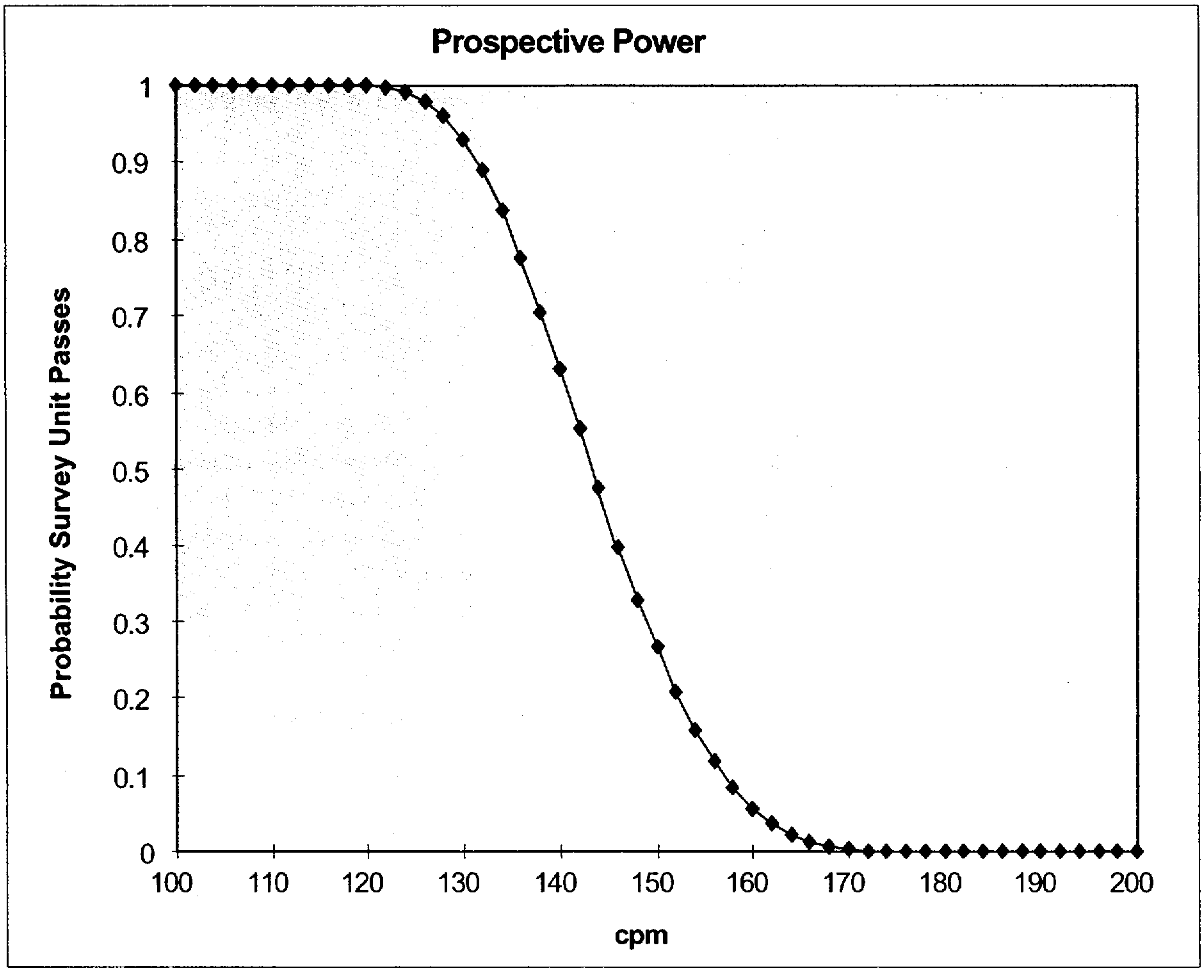

Figure A.6 Prospective Power Curve for the Class 1 Interior Concrete Survey Unit

A.3.7 Ensure that the Sample Size is Sufficient for Detecting Areas of Elevated Activity (Chapter 5.5.2.4)

The Class 1 concrete interior survey units each have an area of 140 m^2 (Figure A.7). The distance between measurement locations in these survey units was:

$$L = \sqrt{\frac{A}{0.866n}} = \sqrt{\frac{140}{0.866\ (10)}} = 4.2\ m \qquad \text{A-4}$$

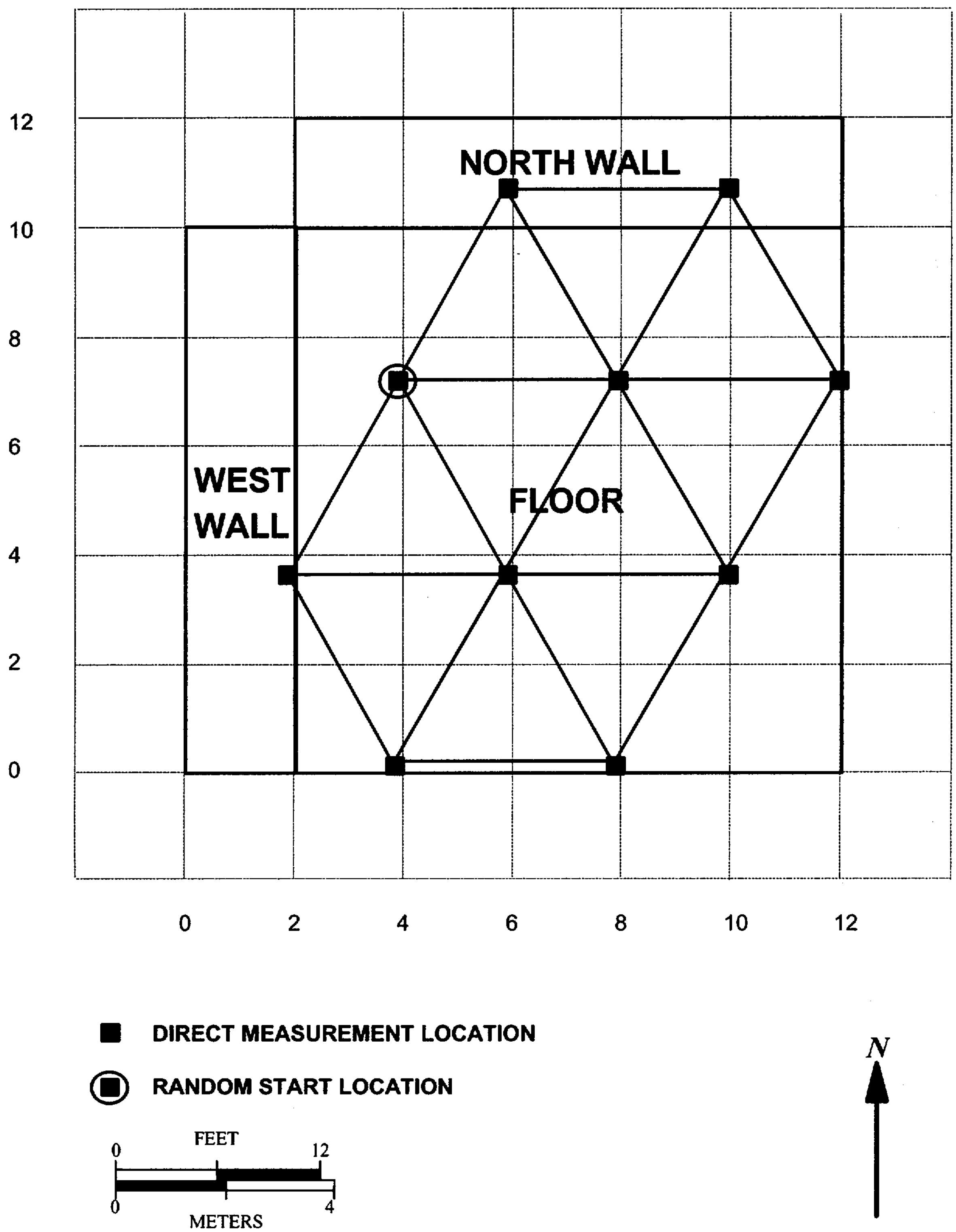

Figure A.7 Measurement Grid for the Class 1 Interior Concrete Survey Unit

The result for L was rounded *down* to the nearest meter, giving L = 4 m. This resulted in an area between sampling points of $0.866L^2 = 13.9\ m^2$. The $DCGL_W$ of 8,300 Bq/m² (5,000 dpm/100 cm²) was well above the scanning MDC of 6,000 Bq/m² (3,600 dpm/100 m²) for the least sensitive of the two scanning instruments (the floor monitor). Therefore, no adjustment to the number of data points to account for areas of elevated activity was necessary.

A.3.8 Specify Sampling Locations
(Chapter 5.5.2.5)

Two random numbers between zero and one were generated to locate the random start for the sampling grid. Using Table I.6 in Appendix I, 0.322467 and 0.601951 were selected. The random start for triangular sampling pattern was found by multiplying these numbers by the length of the reference grid X and Y axes:

$$X = 0.322467 \times 12\ m = 3.9 \qquad \text{A-5}$$
$$Y = 0.601951 \times 12\ m = 7.2 \qquad \text{A-6}$$

The first row of measurement locations was laid out at 4m intervals parallel to one axis of the reference grid. The second row was positioned (0.866)(4) = 3.5 m from the first row, with measurement locations offset by 2 m from those in the first row. The measurement grid is shown in Figure A.7. When the measurement grid was constructed it was found that 10 measurement locations were identified within the boundaries of the survey unit, which is greater than the 9 measurement locations calculated to be required for the statistical test. Because the spacing between the measurements (L) is important for identifying areas of elevated activity, *all* of the identified sampling locations should be used.

A.3.9 Develop Quality Control Procedures
(Section 4.9)

A.3.10 Document Results of Planning into a Quality Assurance Project Plan
(Section 9.2)

A.4 Conducting Surveys

A.4.1 Perform Reference (Background) Area Measurements and Scanning
(Chapter 6)

A.4.2 Collect and Analyze Samples
(Chapter 7)

A.5 Evaluating Survey Results

A.5.1 Perform Data Quality Assessment
(Chapter 8.2)

The data from the one Class 1 interior concrete survey unit and its associated reference area are given in Table A.1. Since ten sampling locations were identified, ten results are listed for the survey unit.[3] The average measurement in the survey unit is 206 cpm, and in the reference area the average is 46 cpm. The means and the medians are nearly equal in both cases. The standard deviations are also consistent with those estimated during the survey design. The survey unit clearly contains residual radioactivity close to the $DCGL_W$ of 160 cpm (calculated using Equation A-1).

Table A.1 Class 1 Interior Concrete Survey Unit and Reference Area Data

	Reference Area (cpm)	Survey Unit (cpm)
	45	205
	36	207
	32	203
	57	196
	46	211
	60	208
	39	172
	45	216
	53	233
	42	209
mean	46	206
standard deviation	9	15.4
median	45	207.5

[3]There are also ten results listed for the reference area. This is only because there were also ten locations identified there when the grid was laid out. Had nine locations been found, the survey would proceed using those nine locations. There is no requirement that the number of sampling locations in the survey unit and reference area be equal. It is only necessary that at least the minimum number of samples required for the statistical tests is obtained in each.

The stem and leaf displays (see Appendix I.7) for the data appear in Table A.2. They indicate that the data distributions are unimodal with no notable asymmetry. There are two noticeably extreme values in the survey unit data set, at 172 and 233 cpm. These are both about 2 standard deviations from the mean. A check of the data logs indicated nothing unusual about these points, so there was no reason to conclude that these values were due to anything other than random measurement variability.

Table A.2 Stem and Leaf Displays for Class 1 Interior Concrete Survey Unit

Reference Area				
30	6	2	9	
40	5	5	6	2
50	7	3		
60	0			

Survey Unit					
170	2				
180					
190	6				
200	5	7	3	8	9
210	1	6			
220					
230	3				

A Quantile-Quantile plot (see Appendix I.8) of this data, shown in Figure A.8, is consistent with these conclusions. The median and spread of the survey unit data are clearly above those in the reference area. The middle part of the curve has no sharp rises. However, the lower and upper portion of the curve both show a steep rise due to the two extreme measurements in the survey unit data set.

A.5.2 Conduct Elevated Measurement Comparison
(Section 8.5.1)

The $DCGL_W$ is 160 cpm above background. Based on an area between measurement locations 13.9 m^2 for L = 4 m, the area factor (from Table 5.7) is approximately 1.5. This means the $DCGL_{EMC}$ is 240 cpm above background. Even without subtracting the average background value of 46, there were no survey unit measurements exceeding this value. All of the survey unit measurements exceed the $DCGL_W$ and six exceed 206 cpm—the $DCGL_W$ plus the average background. If any of these data exceeded three standard deviations of the survey unit mean, they might have been considered unusual, but this was not the case. Thus, while the amount of residual radioactivity appeared to be near the release criterion, there was no evidence of smaller areas of elevated residual radioactivity.

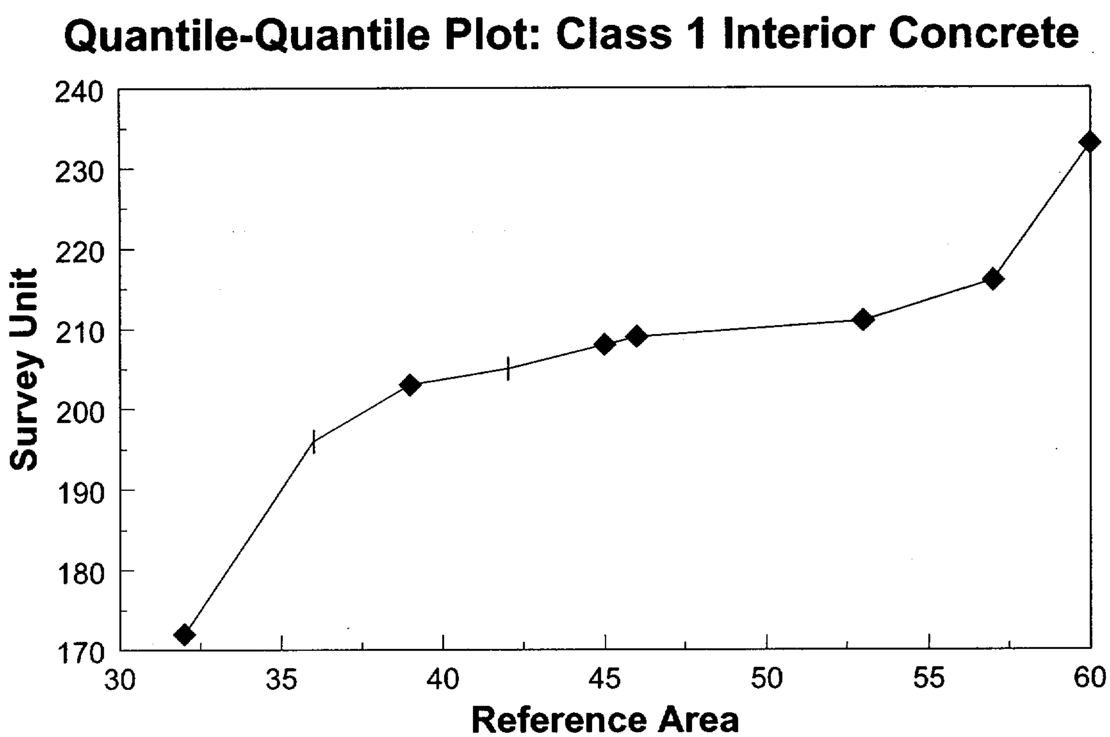

Figure A.8 Quantile-Quantile Plot for the Class 1 Interior Concrete Survey Unit

A.5.3 Conduct Statistical Tests

(Section 8.3, 8.4)

For the Class 1 interior concrete survey unit, the two-sample nonparametric statistical tests of Section 8.4 were appropriate since, although the radionuclide of concern does not appear in background, radionuclide specific measurements were not made. This survey unit was classified as Class 1, so the 10 measurements performed in the reference area and the 10 measurements performed in the survey unit were made on random start triangular grids.

Table A.3 shows the results of the twenty measurements in the first column. The average and standard deviation of the reference area measurements were 46 and 9, respectively. The average and standard deviation of the survey unit measurements were 206 and 15, respectively.

Table A.3 WRS Test for Class 1 Interior Concrete Survey Unit

Data	Area	Adjusted Data	Ranks	Reference Area Ranks
45	R	205	7.5	7.5
36	R	196	4	4
32	R	192	3	3
57	R	217	15	15
46	R	206	9	9
60	R	220	16	16
39	R	199	5	5
45	R	205	7.5	7.5
53	R	213	13	13
42	R	202	6	6
211	S	211	12	0
208	S	208	10	0
172	S	172	1	0
216	S	216	14	0
233	S	233	18	0
209	S	209	11	0
237	S	237	19	0
176	S	176	2	0
253	S	253	20	0
229	S	229	17	0
Sum=			210	86

The analysis proceeded as described in Section 8.6.3. In the "Area" column, the code "R" is inserted to denote a reference area measurement, and "S" to denote a survey unit measurement. In the "Data" column, the data were simply listed as obtained. The Adjusted Data were obtained by adding the $DCGL_W$ to the reference area measurements and leaving the survey unit measurements unchanged. The ranks of the Adjusted Data appear in the "Ranks" column. They range from 1 to 20, since there is a total of 20 (10+10) measurements. The sum of *all* of the ranks is 20(20+1)/2 = 210. It is recommended to check this value as a guard against errors in the rankings.

The "Reference Area Ranks" column contains only the ranks belonging to the reference area measurements. The total is 86. This was compared with the entry in Table I.4 for $\alpha = 0.05$, with $n = 10$ and $m = 10$. This critical value is 127. Thus, the sum of the reference area ranks was *less* than the critical value and the null hypothesis—that the survey unit concentrations exceed the $DCGL_W$—was accepted.

Again, as in Section 8.6.3, the retrospective power curve for the WRS test was constructed as described in Appendix I.9, using Equations I-8, I-9, and I-10, together with the actual number of concentration measurements obtained, N. The power as a function of Δ/s was calculated using the observed standard deviation, $s = 15.4$, in place of σ. The values of Δ/σ were converted to cpm using:

$$\text{cpm} = \text{DCGL}_W - (\Delta/\sigma)(\text{observed standard deviation}) \qquad \text{A-7}$$

The results for this example are plotted in Figure A.9, showing the probability that the survey unit would have passed the release criterion using the WRS test versus cpm of residual radioactivity. This curve shows that the data quality objectives were easily met. The curve shows that a survey unit with less than about 130 cpm above background would almost always pass and that a survey unit with more than about 170 cpm above background would almost always fail.

A.5.4 Estimate Amount of Residual Radioactivity
(Chapter 8.5.2.1)

The amount of residual radioactivity in the survey unit above background was estimated following the WRS test using the difference between the mean measurement in the survey unit and the mean measurement in the reference area: $\delta = 206 - 46 = 160$. This was converted to a surface area activity concentration of 8,300 Bq/m^2 (5,000 dpm/100 cm^2), which is just at the limiting value, DCGL_W.

The difference in the median measurements (207.5 - 45 = 162.5) was converted to a surface activity concentration of 8,500 Bq/m^2 (5,100 dpm/100 cm^2). This slightly exceeds the DCGL_W.

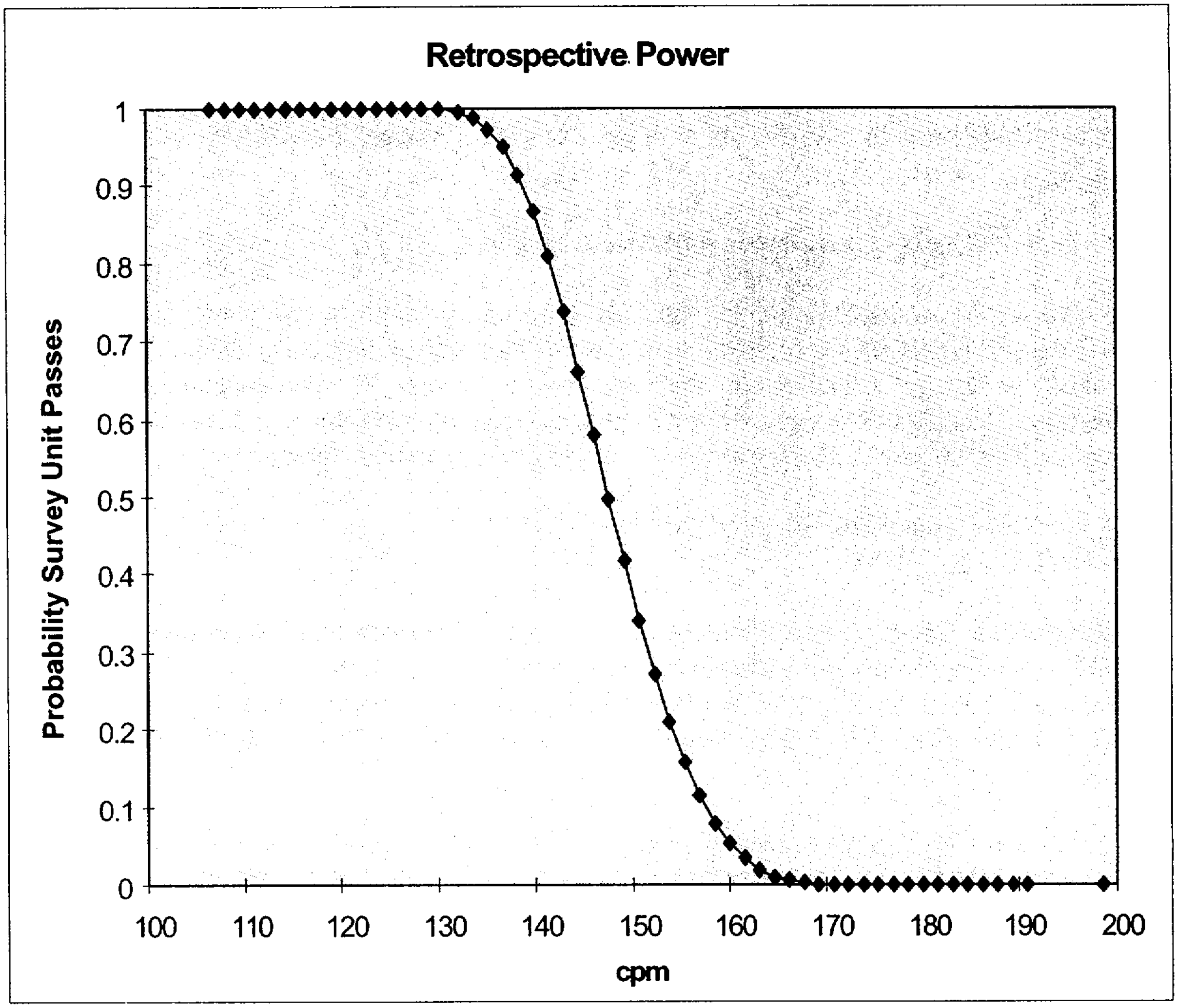

Figure A.9 Retrospective Power Curve for the Class 1 Interior Concrete Survey Unit

APPENDIX B

SIMPLIFIED PROCEDURE FOR CERTAIN USERS OF SEALED SOURCES, SHORT HALF-LIFE MATERIALS, AND SMALL QUANTITIES

A large number of users of radioactive materials may use a simplified procedure to demonstrate regulatory compliance for decommissioning, avoiding complex final status surveys. Sites that qualify for simplified decommissioning procedures are those where radioactive materials have been used or stored only in the form of: non-leaking, sealed sources; short half-life radioactive materials (*e.g.*, $t_{1/2} \leq 120$ days) that have since decayed to insignificant quantities; small quantities exempted or not requiring a specific license from a regulatory authority; or combinations of the above.

The user of a site that may qualify for implementation of a simplified procedure should provide the regulatory authority with a minimum of: (1) a certification that no residual radioactive contamination attributable to the user's activities is detectable by generally accepted survey methods for decommissioning; and (2) documentation on the disposal of nuclear materials, such as the information required in Form NRC-314 (Certification of Disposition of Materials). This minimum information may be used by the regulatory authority to document protection of both the public health and safety and the environment, based on the transfer, decay, or disposal of radioactive material in some authorized manner.

Normally, the absence of radioactive contamination can be demonstrated by: (1) documenting the amounts, kinds and uses of radionuclides as well as the processes involved; (2) conducting a radiation survey of the site; and (3) submitting a report on this survey. More specifically, a user of a qualified site should document from process knowledge and the nature of the use that either no or unmeasurable quantities of radioactive material remain onsite—whether on surfaces, buried, imbedded, submersed, or dissolved. The submittal to the regulatory authority should include possession history, use of the radioactive materials, and, if applicable, results of all leak tests. Where only small quantities or short half-life materials were handled, the regulatory authority may consider the documentation on a case-by-case basis.

For those sites where a simple final status survey is conducted to demonstrate compliance with the release criterion, the following information should be included in the final status survey report:

- basis for selecting the instrumentation used for the survey
- nature of the radionuclides surveyed
- measurement techniques and instruments used, including references for procedures and protocols used to perform the measurements

- minimum detectable concentrations (MDCs) of the instruments and measurement systems used to perform the measurements
- calibration, field testing, and maintenance of the instrumentation
- qualifications of the personnel using the instrumentation
- methods used to interpret the survey measurements
- qualifications of the personnel interpreting the survey measurements
- measurement results and measurement locations including the operator's name, instrument model and serial number, date the measurement was performed, and traceability of the measurement location

The number of measurements in each survey unit and each reference area can be determined using Table 5.3 for sites where the radionuclide of potential interest is present in background. The number of measurements for each survey unit where the radionuclide is not present in background can be determined using Table 5.5. Values for acceptable decision error levels (α and β) and the relative shift (Δ/σ) can be determined as described in Section 5.5.2. For sites where the simplified approach in this appendix is appropriate, reasonably conservative values for these parameters would be $\alpha = 0.05$, $\beta = 0.05$, and $\Delta/\sigma = 1$. After increasing the number of measurements by 20% to ensure adequate power for the statistical tests, Table 5.3 and Table 5.5 list a value of approximately 30 measurements for each survey unit and each reference. Therefore, 30 measurements may be used in place of the guidance in Section 5.5.2 at sites that qualify for the simplified survey design process.

The results of the survey should be compared to derived concentration guideline levels (DCGLs) using an appropriate statistical test, such as the Student's *t* test or Wilcoxon test. If all measurements are less than the $DCGL_W$, then the statistics do not need to be addressed because the conclusions are obvious. If the mean of the measurements exceeds the $DCGL_W$, the survey unit obviously fails to demonstrate compliance and the statistics do not need to be addressed.

Radiation levels and concentrations should be reported as follows:

- For external dose rates, units of:
    - milli-Sieverts (micro-rem) per hour at one meter from surfaces;

- For levels of radioactive materials, including alpha and beta measurements, units of:
    - Bq/m^2 ($dpm/100\ cm^2$, $pCi/100\ cm^2$) (removable and fixed) for surfaces;
    - Bq/L (pCi/mL) for water;
    - Bq/kg (pCi/g) for solids such as soils or concrete.

APPENDIX C
REGULATIONS AND REQUIREMENTS ASSOCIATED WITH RADIATION SURVEYS AND SITE INVESTIGATIONS[1]

C.1 EPA Statutory Authorities

The U.S. Environmental Protection Agency administers several statutes that address various aspects of the cleanup of radioactively contaminated sites. Listed below are the statutes, the implementing regulations, and the responsible EPA offices.

C.1.1 The Office of Air and Radiation (OAR) administers several statutes and implementing regulations:

- Clean Air Act (CAA) as amended (42 U.S.C. 7401-7671 q.): The CAA protects and enhances the nation's air quality through national ambient air quality standards, new source performance standards, and other provisions. Radionuclides are a hazardous air pollutant regulated under Section 112 of the Act.
  - National Emissions Standard for Hazardous Air Pollutants for Radionuclides (40 CFR Part 61, 10 CFR 20.101-20.108)
- Uranium Mill Tailings Radiation Control Act (UMTRCA) of 1978 (42 U.S.C. 2022): UMTRCA requires stabilization and control of byproduct materials (primarily mill tailings) at licensed commercial uranium and thorium processing sites. NRC and DOE implement standards under this Act.
  - Health and Environmental Protection Standards for Uranium and Thorium Mill Tailings (40 CFR Part 192)

    This regulation, along with "Criteria Relating to the Operation of Uranium Mills and the Disposition of Tailings or Wastes Produced by the Extraction or Concentration of Source Material From Ores Processed Primarily for Their Source Material Content" (10 CFR 40, Appendix A), issued by the NRC and EPA, establish technical criteria related to the operation, decontamination, decommissioning, and reclamation of uranium or thorium mills and mill tailings. Both regulations provide design requirements for closure of the mill's waste disposal area.

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[1] The user of this manual should consult the text of the statutes and regulations listed in this Appendix to ensure compliance with all requirements applicable to a specific site and to ensure the use of current versions of applicable statutes and regulations.

The principal radiological hazards from uranium milling operations and mill tailings disposal are due to radon gas emissions originating from uranium and thorium daughters. Release rates to the atmosphere are limited to an average rate of 0.7 Bq (20 pCi) per square meter per second. This rate is applicable to any portion of a licensed or disposal site unless land areas do not contain radium concentrations—averaged over 100 square meters—greater than (i) 185 Bq/kg (5 pCi/g) of radium averaged over the first 15 centimeters below the surface and (ii) 555 Bq/kg (15 pCi/g) of radium averaged over 15 cm thick layers more than 15 centimeters below the surface.

- Atomic Energy Act (AEA) as amended (42 U.S.C. 2011-2296): The AEA requires the management, processing, and utilization of radioactive materials in a manner that protects public health and the environment. This is the principal basis for EPA, NRC and DOE authorities.

  The AEA requires that source, special nuclear, and byproduct materials be managed, processed, and used in a manner that protects public health and the environment. Under the AEA and Reorganization Plan No. 3 of 1970, EPA is authorized to issue federal guidance on radiation protection matters as deemed necessary by the Agency or as mandated by Congress. This guidance may be issued as regulations, given that EPA possesses the authority to promulgate generally applicable radiation protection standards under Reorganization Plan No. 3. For example, under AEA authority EPA promulgated its environmental radiation protection standards for nuclear power operations in 40 CFR Part 190.

  In conjunction with the AEA, EPA presently supports the following:

  - Environmental Radiation Protection Standards for the Management and Disposal of Spent Nuclear, High-Level and Transuranic Radioactive Wastes (40 CFR 191)

- Nuclear Waste Policy Act (NWPA), as amended (Pub. L. 100-507, 42 U.S.C. 10101): The NWPA is intended to provide an orderly scheme for the selection and development of repositories for high-level radioactive waste and spent nuclear fuel.

- Low Level Radioactive Waste Policy Act (LLRWPA), as amended (Pub. L. 99-240, 42 U.S.C. 2021b): LLRWPA assigns States responsibility for ensuring adequate disposal capacity for low-level radioactive waste generated within their borders.

- Indoor Radon Abatement Act of 1988 (15 U.S.C. 2601 Sec. 301-311)

C.1.2 The Office of Emergency and Remedial Response (OERR) administers the Comprehensive Environmental Response, Compensation, and Liability Act (CERCLA) of 1980, as amended (Pub. L. 99-499, 42 U.S.C. 9601-9657)

- CERCLA authorizes EPA, consistent with the National Oil and Hazardous Substances Contingency Plan (NCP, 40 CFR 300) to provide for remedial action in response to releases or substantial threats of releases of hazardous substances into the environment. Hazardous substances are defined as any substance designated or listed under the Clean Air Act, the Federal Water Pollution Control Act, the Toxic Substances Control Act, and the Resource Conservation and Recovery Act. Because the CAA designated radionuclides as a hazardous air pollutant, the provisions of CERCLA apply to radionuclides.

C.1.3 The Office of Solid Waste (OSW) administers the Resource Conservation and Recovery Act of 1976 (RCRA), as amended (Pub. L. 94-580, 42 U.S.C. 6901 *et seq.*)

- RCRA provides for detailed regulation of hazardous waste from generation to final disposal. Hazardous waste generators and transporters must comply with EPA standards. Owners and operators of treatment, storage, or disposal facilities must obtain RCRA permits. Materials defined in the AEA are expressly excluded from the definition of solid waste, and, thus from regulation under RCRA. Naturally occurring and accelerator produced radioactive materials, however, are not excluded.

C.1.4 The Office of Water (OW) administers several statutes and implementing regulations:

- Section 14.2 of the Public Health Service Act as amended by the Safe Drinking Water Act (SDWA) as amended (Pub. L. 93-523, 42 U.S.C. 300f *et seq.*). As amended in 1986, SDWA seeks to protect public water supply systems through protection of groundwater. Any radioactive substance that may be found in water is regulated under the Act (although the current regulations only specify a limited number of individual substances).
    - Maximum Contaminant Levels (includes certain radionuclides). (40 CFR 141.11-141.16)
- Clean Water Act as amended (Pub. L. 92-500, 33 U.S.C. 1251 *et seq.*)
    - Requirements (40 CFR Parts 131, 400-469) established pursuant to sections 301, 302, 303 (including State water quality standards), 306, 307, (including Federal Pretreatment requirements for discharge into a publicly owned treatment works), and 403 of the Clean Water Act.

C.1.5 The Office of Prevention, Pesticides and Toxic Substances administers the Toxic Substances and Control Act (TSCA; 15 U.S.C. 2601)

- TSCA regulates the manufacture, distribution in commerce, processing, use, and disposal of chemical substances and mixtures. Materials defined in the AEA are expressly excluded from TSCA. However, naturally occurring and accelerator produced radionuclides are not excluded.

C.2 DOE Regulations and Requirements

C.2.1 Authorities of the Department of Energy

The Department of Energy Organization Act, which created DOE, the Energy Reorganization Act of 1974, which created the Energy Research and Development Administration, and the Atomic Energy Act of 1954[2] provide the basic authorities of the Department of Energy. The principal DOE statutory authorities and regulations that pertain to radiation protection are shown in Table C.1.

C.2.1.1 Atomic Energy Act of 1954, as amended

The Atomic Energy Act of 1954 established a program of private ownership and use of nuclear materials and nuclear facilities, such as nuclear research reactors, and a program for government regulation of those applications. (Prior to 1954, all source, byproduct, and special nuclear materials were government owned). The Atomic Energy Commission was given both the regulatory authorities and the mission to develop both the peaceful and military uses of atomic energy. The Act also retained the Atomic Energy Commission as the civilian agency responsible for weapons programs production, development and research consistent with the Atomic Energy Act of 1946.

Under the Act, the Atomic Energy Commission was responsible for establishing regulations ensuring the safety of commercial facilities and establishing requirements that ensure public protection from radiation and radioactive materials resulting from or used in its research, development, and production activities.

[2]The Atomic Energy Commission was created by the Atomic Energy Act of 1946, not the 1954 act.

Table C.1

DOE AUTHORITIES, ORDERS AND REGULATIONS RELATED TO RADIATION PROTECTION

Statutes

Atomic Energy Act of 1954, as amended

Energy Reorganization Act of 1974

Uranium Mill Tailings Radiation Control Act of 1978, as amended

Nuclear Non-Proliferation Act of 1978

Department of Energy Organization Act of 1980

West Valley Demonstration Project Act of 1980

Nuclear Waste Policy Act of 1982

Low-Level Waste Policy Act of 1980

Low-Level Waste Policy Amendments Act of 1985

Energy Policy Act of 1992

Waste Isolation Pilot Plant Land Withdrawal Act

Price Anderson Act

DOE Regulations

10 CFR Part 835, "Occupational Radiation Protection"

Executive Orders

Executive Order 12580

DOE Orders

Order 5400.1, "General Environmental Protection Program"
Order 5400.2A, "Environmental Compliance Issue Coordination"
Order DOE 5400.5, "Radiation Protection of the Public and the Environment"
Order DOE 5400.4, "Comprehensive Environmental, Response, Compensation and Liability Act Requirements"
Order DOE 5440.1E, "National Environmental Policy Act Compliance Program"
Order DOE 5480.1B, "Environment, Safety and Health Program for Department of Energy Facilities"
Order DOE 5480.3, "Safety Requirements for the Packaging and Transportation of Hazardous Materials, Hazardous Substances & Hazardous Wastes"
Order DOE 5480.4, "Environment, Safety and Health Protection Standards"
Order DOE 5480.6, "Safety of Department of Energy Owned Nuclear Reactors"
Order DOE 5480.11, "Occupational Radiation Protection"
Order DOE 5480.24, "Nuclear Criticality Safety"
Order DOE 5480.25, "Safety at Accelerator Facilities"
Order DOE 5484.1, "Environmental Protection, Safety and Health Protection Information Reporting Requirements"
Order DOE 5820.2A, "Radioactive Waste Management"

C.2.1.2 Energy Reorganization Act of 1974 (Public Law 93-438 (1974), as amended)

The Energy Reorganization Act of 1974 divided the former Atomic Energy Commission and created the Energy Research and Development Administration (ERDA) and the Nuclear Regulatory Commission. The ERDA was responsible for radiation protection at its facilities, to provide for worker and public health, worker safety, and environmental protection. ERDA was abolished with the creation of the Department of Energy in 1980.

C.2.1.3 Department of Energy Organization Act of 1977 Public Law 95-91

The Department of Energy Organization Act created the Department of Energy (DOE) by combining the Energy Research & Development Administration, the Federal Energy Administration, Federal Power Commission, and part of the Department of Interior.

The DOE was intended to identify potential environmental, health, safety, socioeconomic, institutional, and technological issues associated with the development and use of energy sources. Through this Act, DOE retained the responsibilities and authorities—held by its predecessor agencies—to take actions necessary to protect the public from radiation associated with radioactive materials production, research, and development. DOE established requirements through a directives system that largely used DOE Orders as its regulatory procedures. With the passage of the Price-Anderson Act Amendments of 1990, DOE began converting its health and safety Orders to rules.

C.2.1.4 Uranium Mill Tailings Radiation Control Act of 1978, as amended

The Uranium Mill Tailings Radiation Control Act (UMTRCA) provides a program of assessment and remedial action at active and inactive uranium mill sites to control their tailings in a safe and environmentally sound manner and to reduce radiation hazards to the public residing in the vicinity of these sites. The DOE was directed to complete remedial action at 21 sites of inactive uranium mills.

C.2.1.5 West Valley Demonstration Project Act of 1980

This act authorized DOE to carry out a project at West Valley, New York to demonstrate solidification techniques which could be used for preparing high level radioactive waste for disposal. The Act provides for informal review and project consultation by the NRC.

C.2.1.6 Low-Level Waste Policy Act of 1980

This act established the policy that each State is responsible for providing for the disposal of low-level radioactive waste generated within its borders, except for waste from defense activities of

DOE or Federal research and development activities, and authorized States to enter into compacts to carry out this policy. DOE was required to take actions to assist the States in carrying out this policy.

C.2.1.7 Nuclear Waste Policy Act of 1982 (Public Law 97-425, 1983)

This Act gives DOE the responsibility to develop repositories and to establish a program of research, development, and demonstration for the disposal of high-level radioactive waste and spent nuclear fuel. Title to and custody of commercial low-level waste sites under certain conditions could be transferred to DOE.

C.2.1.8 Low-Level Waste Policy Amendments Act of 1985

This act amends the Low-Level Waste Policy Act of 1980 to improve the procedures for State compacts. It also assigns responsibility to the Federal government for the disposal of low-level waste generated or owned by the DOE, specific other Federally generated or owned wastes, and wastes with concentrations of radionuclides that exceed the limits established by the NRC for class C radioactive waste. The Act provides that all class C radioactive wastes designated as a Federal responsibility—those that result from activities licensed by the NRC—shall be disposed of in a facility licensed by the NRC. The Act also assigns responsibilities to DOE to provide financial and technical assistance to the States in carrying out the Act.

C.2.1.9 Waste Isolation Pilot Plant Land Withdrawal Act

The Waste Isolation Pilot Plant (WIPP) is a repository intended for the disposal of transuranic radioactive waste produced by defense activities. The Act establishes the following:

1) an isolated parcel of land for the WIPP
2) provisions concerning testing and limits on the quantities of waste which may be disposed at the WIPP
3) EPA certification of compliance with disposal standards

C.2.1.10 Price Anderson Act

C.2.2 Executive Orders

Executive Order (E.O.) 12580 delegates to various Federal officials the responsibilities vested in the President for implementing the Comprehensive Environmental Response, Compensation, and Liability Act of 1980 (CERCLA) as amended by the Superfund Amendments and Reauthorization Act of 1986 (SARA).

C.2.3 DOE Regulations and Orders

C.2.3.1 10 CFR Part 835, "Occupational Radiation Protection"

This rule, which became effective on January 13, 1993, provides for the protection of radiation workers at DOE owned facilities. The requirements contained in Part 835 are generally similar to those in Order DOE 5480.11 and those used in NRC Regulations pertaining to the commercial nuclear industry. In addition to the rule, DOE issued a dozen implementation guides, including the "DOE Radiological Control Manual," (DOE/EH-0256T, Rv.1, April 1994).

C.2.3.2 Order DOE 5400.5, "Radiation Protection of the Public and the Environment"

This Order, issued in February 1990, contains DOE's requirements for ensuring the protection of the public from the hazards of radiation. This regulation includes dose limits for protection of the public and environment, plus requirements:

1) to apply the ALARA process—to reduce doses to the public as far below the release criterion as is practicable
2) to apply the best available control technology to liquid effluents
3) for control of property containing residual radioactive material

DOE 5400.5 is supported by numerous guidance documents, including those listed in this section.

DOE 5400.5 is the primary directive relating to the release of property subject to radiological contamination by DOE operations. DOE 5400.5 will be replaced by 10 CFR Part 834 and its guidance will be adopted for Part 834 when it is issued.

Under DOE 5400.5 and the guidance included in this section (C.2.3), DOE established requirements for a case-by-case review and approval for release of real or non-real property containing residual radioactive material. Authorized limits and measurement procedures must be developed by DOE before facilities can release property from their control. The principle requirement is to reduce doses to levels that are as low as practicable using the ALARA process and assuming realistic but conservative use scenarios that are not likely to underestimate dose. This requirement ensures that doses are as far below the primary dose limit (1 mSv/y [100 mrem/y]) as is reasonably achievable. Because the primary dose limit is for doses from all sources and pathways, authorized limits should be selected at levels below a DOE dose constraint of 0.3 mSv/y (30 mrem/y). However, the goal is to reduce doses under likely-use scenarios to a few fractions of a mSv/year or less.

In addition to the requirement to apply ALARA and the dose constraint, DOE also utilizes surface contamination guidelines similar to those in NRC Regulatory Guide 1.86 and the 40 CFR Part 192 soil concentration limits for radium and thorium. The ALARA requirement ensures that the 40 CFR Part 192 limits are appropriately used. DOE also permits the use of supplemental limits for situations where cleanups to authorized limits are not practicable or where the scenarios used to develop the authorized limits are not appropriate. DOE 5400.5 permits the release of property for restricted use and requires procedures to ensure these restrictions are maintained.

Most DOE remedial action and restoration activities are also subject to CERCLA. In such cases, DOE requirements are integrated into the CERCLA process.

The following sections describe the scope and importance of several guidance documents.

A. Residual Radioactive Material Control:

DOE/CH-8901, Manual for Implementing Residual Radioactive Material Guidelines - A Supplement to the U.S. Department of Energy Guidelines for Residual Radioactive Material at FUSRAP and SFMP Sites, Department of Energy, June 1989.

DOE Guidance Memorandum, "Unrestricted Release of Radioactively Contaminated Personal Property," J. Maher, DOE Office of Nuclear Safety, Mar. 15, 1984.

ANL/EAD/LD-2, Manual for Implementing Residual Radioactive Material Guidelines Using RESRAD, Version 5.0, Published by Argonne National Laboratory and prepared by ANL and DOE staff, September 1993.

ANL/EAIS-8, Data Collection Handbook to Support Modeling the Impacts of Radioactive Material in Soil, Argonne National Laboratory, April 1993.

ANL/EAIS/TM-103, A Compilation of Radionuclide Transfer Factors for Plant, Meat, Milk and Aquatic Food Pathways and Suggested Default Values for the RESRAD Code, Argonne National Laboratory, August 1993.

PNL-8724, Radiation Dose Assessments to Support Evaluations of Radiological Control Levels for Recycling or Reuse of Material and Equipment, Pacific Northwest Laboratory, July 1995.

ANL/EAD.LD-3, RESRAD-Build: A Computer Model for Analyzing the Radiological Doses Resulting from the Remediation and Occupancy of Buildings Contaminated with Radioactive Material, Argonne National Laboratory, November 1994.

B. ALARA

DOE Guidance: DOE Guidance on the Procedures in Applying the ALARA Process for Compliance with DOE 5400.5, Department of Energy, Office of Environmental Guidance, March 8, 1991.

ANL/EAD/LD-2, Manual for Implementing Residual Radioactive Material Guidelines Using RESRAD, Version 5.0, Chapters 1 and 5 and App. M, September 1993.

C. Measurement and Data Reporting

DOE Manual for use and Comment, Environmental Implementation Guide for Radiological Survey Procedures, Department of Energy, Office of Environmental Guidance, Nov. 1992.

DOE/EH-0173T, Environmental Regulatory Guide for Radiological Effluent Monitoring and Environmental Surveillance, Department of Energy, Jan. 1991.

D. Dose Factors

DOE/EH-0071, Internal Dose Conversion Factors for Calculation of Dose to the public, DOE, July 1988. DOE currently recommends use of EPA-520-1-88-020, Federal Guidance Report No. 11, Limiting Radionuclide Intake and Air Concentrations and Dose Conversion Factors for Inhalation, Submersion and Ingestion, Environmental Protection Agency, Sept. 1988, as an alternative to DOE/EH-0071.

DOE/EH-0070, External Dose-Rate Conversion Factors for Calculation of Dose to the Public, DOE, July 1988. DOE currently recommends use of EPA 402-R-93-081, Federal Guidance Report No. 12, External Exposure to Radionuclides in Air, Water and Soil, Environmental Protection Agency, Sept. 1993, as an alternative to DOE/EH-0070.

E. Liquid Effluents

Implementation Guidance for DOE 5400.5, Section II.3 (Management and Control of Radioactive Materials in Liquid Discharges and the Phaseout of Soil Columns), DOE Office of Environment, June 1992.

C.2.3.3 Order DOE 5820.2A, "Radioactive Waste Management"

Order DOE 5820.2A establishes the policies, guidelines, and requirements by which the DOE manages its radioactive and mixed waste and contaminated facilities. The Order implements DOE's responsibilities and authorities for prediction of public and worker health and safety and

the environment under the Atomic Energy Act. It contains the requirements for management and disposal of high-level waste, transuranic waste, low-level waste, NARM waste, and for the decommissioning of radioactively contaminated facilities.

A. High-level Waste

The Order specifies: (1) requirements for storage operations including requirements for waste characterization, transfer operations, monitoring, surveillance, and leak detection, and (2) specifies that disposal shall be in accordance with the requirements of the Nuclear Waste Policy Act of 1982.

B. Transuranic Waste

The Order requires waste to be certified in compliance with the Waste Isolation Pilot Plant-Waste Acceptance Criteria and sent to the WIPP. There are requirements for waste classification, waste generation and treatment, waste certification, waste packaging, temporary storage, transportation and shipping, and interim storage. There are provisions for use of the WIPP, and for assessing the disposition of previously buried transuranic-contaminated wastes.

C. Low-level Waste

The Order specifies performance objectives which assure that external exposure waste concentrations of radioactive material—which may be released into surface water, ground water, soil, plants, and animals—result in an effective dose equivalent that does not exceed 0.25 mSv/y (25 mrem/y) to a member of the public. Releases to the atmosphere shall meet the requirements of 40 CFR Part 61. Reasonable efforts should be made to maintain releases of radioactivity in effluents to the general environment as low as is reasonably achievable. Radiological performance assessments are required for the disposal of waste for the purpose of demonstrating compliance with these performance objectives.

For low-level waste, there are also requirements on waste generation, waste characterization, waste acceptance criteria, waste treatment, and long term storage. The Order includes additional disposal requirements concerning disposal facility and disposal site design and waste characteristic, site selection, facility operations, site closure and post closure, and environmental monitoring.

D. NARM Waste

For management of Naturally-Occurring and Accelerator-Produced Radioactive Materials (NARM) and 11(e)(2) byproduct materials (the tailings or wastes resulting from the concentration of uranium or thorium), the order specifies that storage and disposal shall be

consistent with the requirements of the residual radioactive material guidelines contained in 40 CFR 192.

E. Decommissioning of Radioactively Contaminated Facilities

For the decommissioning of contaminated facilities, the order requires DOE organizations to develop and document decommissioning programs which include provisions for surveillance and maintenance. There are requirements for facility design, post-operational activities, characterization, and environmental review.

C.3 NRC Regulations and Requirements

C.3.1 NRC's Mission and Statutory Authority

The mission of the U.S. Nuclear Regulatory Commission (NRC) is to ensure adequate protection of the public health and safety, the common defense and security, and the environment in the use of nuclear materials in the United States. The NRC's scope of responsibility includes regulation of commercial nuclear power reactors; nonpower research, test, and training reactors; fuel cycle facilities; medical, academic, and industrial uses of nuclear materials; and the storage and disposal of nuclear materials and waste.

The NRC is an independent agency created by the Energy Reorganization Act of 1974. This Act abolished the Atomic Energy Commission (AEC), moved the AEC's regulatory function to NRC, and, along with the Atomic Energy Act of 1954, as amended, provides the foundation for regulation of the nation's commercial nuclear power industry.

NRC regulations are issued under the United States Code of Federal Regulations (CFR) Title 10, Chapter 1. Principal statutory authorities that govern NRC's work are:

- Atomic Energy Act of 1954, as amended
- Energy Reorganization Act of 1974, as amended
- Uranium Mill Tailings Radiation Control Act of 1978, as amended
- Nuclear Non-Proliferation Act of 1978
- Low-Level Radioactive Waste Policy Act of 1980
- West Valley Demonstration Project Act of 1980
- Nuclear Waste Policy Act of 1982
- Low-Level Radioactive Waste Policy Amendments Act of 1985
- Diplomatic Security and Anti-Terrorism Act of 1986
- Nuclear Waste Policy Amendments Act of 1987
- Solar, Wind, Waste and Geothermal Power Production Incentives Act of 1990
- Energy Policy Act of 1992

The Atomic Energy Act of 1954, as amended, allows the NRC to issue orders to both licensees and persons not licensed by the NRC. NRC orders may be a means of compelling decommissioning at sites where the license has been terminated or at sites that were not previously licensed but currently contain radioactive material that is under the jurisdiction of the NRC.

The NRC and its licensees share a common responsibility to protect the public health and safety. Federal regulations and the NRC regulatory program are important elements in the protection of the public. NRC licensees, however, have the primary responsibility for the safe use of nuclear materials.

C.3.2 NRC Criteria for Decommissioning

This section of the survey manual contains information on the existing cleanup criteria for decommissioning sites regulated by the NRC. Additional cleanup criteria established by State and local governments may also be applicable at NRC-licensed sites at the time of decommissioning.

NRC's requirements for decommissioning and license termination are contained in 10 CFR 30.36, 40.42, 50.82, 70.38, and 72.54. The radiological criteria for license termination are contained in 10 CFR 20.1401 through 1406 (62 FR 39058, July 21, 1997).

Prior to the adoption of the current regulations on radiological criteria for license termination, the Commission's position on residual contamination criteria, site characterization, and other related decommissioning issues was outlined in a NRC document entitled "Action Plan to Ensure Timely Cleanup of Site Decommissioning Management Plan Sites," which was published in the Federal Register on April 6, 1993 (57 FR 13389). Other documents that were used in the past and which may continue to have some applicability in special cases include:

"Criteria Relating to the Operation of Uranium Mills and the Disposition of Tailings or Wastes Produced by the Extraction or Concentration of Source Material From Ores Processed Primarily for Their Source Material Content" (10 CFR 40, Appendix A) and Health and Environmental Protection Standards for Uranium and Thorium Mill Tailings (40 CFR 192, Subparts D and E)

> These regulations, issued by the NRC and EPA, establish technical criteria related to the operation, decontamination, decommissioning, and reclamation of uranium or thorium mills and mill tailings. Both regulations provide design requirements for closure of the mill's waste disposal area, which requires an earthen cover over tailings or waste piles to control radiological hazards from uranium and thorium tailings for 200 to 1,000 years, according to Technical Criterion 6 of Appendix A to 10 CFR Part 40.

The principal radiological hazards from uranium milling operations and mill tailings disposal are radon from uranium and thorium daughters. The atmospheric release rates of these gaseous radionuclides to the atmosphere are limited to an average rate of 0.7 Bq (20 pCi) per square meter per second. This rate is applicable to any portion of a licensed or disposal site unless land areas do not contain radium concentrations—averaged over 100 square meters—greater than: (i) 0.2 Bq/g (5 pCi/g) of radium averaged over the first 15 centimeters below the surface, and (ii) 0.6 Bq/g (15 pCi/g) of radium averaged over 15-centimeter thick layers more than 15 centimeters below the surface.

Criterion 6 allows radon release rates to be averaged over a period of at least 1 year (but much less than 100 years) to account for the wide variability in atmospheric radon concentrations over short time periods and seasons. In addition, this criterion applies only to emissions from uranium daughters and does not include radon emissions from earthen materials used to cover the tailings piles. If appropriate, radon emissions from cover materials are evaluated when developing a closure plan for each site to account for this additional contribution from naturally occurring radon. However, direct gamma exposure rates from tailings or wastes should be reduced to background levels according to this standard.

C.3.3 NRC Decommissioning Process and Staff Plans for Implementing Survey Procedures in this Manual

NRC licensees are required to conduct radiation surveys of the premises where the licensed activities were conducted and submit a report describing the survey results. The survey process follows requirements contained in 10 CFR 30.36, 40.42, 50.82, 70.38, and 72.54, which pertain to decommissioning of a site and termination of a license. This process leads to the unrestricted release of a site; however, many of the requirements may not be necessary if the licensee demonstrates that the premises are suitable for release in some other manner. Each year, the NRC staff routinely evaluates licensee requests to discontinue licensed operations. The majority of these requests are straightforward, requiring little, if any, site remediation before radiological surveys are conducted and evaluated. However, some NRC sites require substantial remediation because buildings and lands contain nonroutine amounts of radiological contamination. Radiological surveys may also be performed by the NRC at sites where there is not a license.

The NRC decommissioning process for a site requiring substantial remediation can be described by the activities listed below:

- licensee notifies the NRC they intend to decommission all or part of the site
- site characterization, including preparation of the characterization plan and performance of site characterization
- development and submission of decommissioning plan

- NRC review and approval of decommissioning plan
- performance of decommissioning actions described in the plan
- performance of termination survey and submittal of termination survey report
- NRC performance and documentation of confirmatory survey
- NRC termination of license

The NRC staff plans to use the information contained in this manual as primary guidance for conducting radiological surveys of routine licensee requests for license termination and nonroutine license termination requests that require more extensive decommissioning actions. Supplementary guidance may be used by the NRC staff to assist licensees in conducting such surveys or aid the NRC staff in evaluating licensee's survey plans and survey results to determine compliance with decommissioning criteria. Examples of supplementary guidance include NRC Information Notices, Bulletins, Generic Letters, Branch Technical Positions, NUREG reports, Regulatory Guides, and other regulatory documents that transmit NRC requirements and guidance.

C.4 DOD Regulations and Requirements

The Department of Defense (DOD) consists of four primary military services: the United States Air Force, the United States Army, the United States Navy, and the United States Marine Corps.

DOD installations use sources of ionizing radiation and support radiation protection programs for the control of these radioactive materials. As a Federal agency, the DOD complies with all applicable environmental regulations under the Federal Facilities Compliance Act of 1992.

C.4.1 DOD Sources of Ionizing Radiation

DOD's list of radioactive materials includes:

- Special nuclear material such as plutonium or enriched uranium
- Source material such as uranium or thorium
- Byproduct material such as any radioactive material yielded in or made radioactive by exposure to radiation incident to the process of producing special nuclear material
- Naturally occurring or accelerator-produced radioactive material (NARM), such as radium, and not classified as source material
- Materials containing induced or deposited radioactivity

Ionizing Radiation Producing Devices: Electronic devices that are capable of emitting ionizing radiation. Examples are linear accelerators, cyclotrons, radiofrequency generators that use klystrons or magnetrons, and other electron tubes that produce x-rays. These devices may have

components that contain radioactive material or they may induce radioactivity in certain other materials.

C.4.2 Commodities Containing Radioactive Material Within the DOD System

The DOD uses a variety of manufactured items (commodities) incorporating in whole or in part both sealed and unsealed radioactive material. A sealed source is any radioactive material that is permanently bound or fixed in a capsule or matrix designed to prevent the release or dispersal of such material under the most severe conditions encountered in normal use.

Ionizing radiation is used directly in DOD systems as calibration and check sources for RADIAC or other survey-type instruments, as a source of radioluminescence in meters and gauges, as an ionization source in various devices, and as radiographic sources.

Indirectly, ionizing radiation may be emitted from a DOD material system as natural radioactivity or induced radioactivity incorporated into material or a component of the system.

Specific examples of commodities include instrument calibration sources, luminescent compasses and exit signs, certain electron tubes and spark gaps, depleted uranium counterweights and munitions, and magnesium-thorium aircraft components.

C.4.3 Licensed Radioactive Material

Licensed radioactive material is source, special nuclear, or byproduct material received, stored, possessed, used, or transferred under a specific or general license issued by the NRC or an NRC Agreement State.

Radioactive material licensed or controlled by the individual military services:

- The Department of the Air Force has been designated by the NRC, through the issuance of a Master Materials License, regulatory authority for the receipt, possession, distribution, use, transportation, transfer, and disposal of radioactive material at Air Force activities. The Air Force Radioisotope Committee was established to provide administrative control of all radioactive material used in the Air Force except for reactors and associated radioactivity, nuclear weapons, and certain components of weapons delivery systems. Air Force Radioactive Material Permits are used to maintain this control.

- The Department of the Army, through the issuance of NRC specific licenses to Army installations and activity commanders, maintains the regulatory authority for the receipt, possession, distribution, use, transportation, transfer, and disposal of radioactive material

at Army activities. In addition, within the Department of the Army, radioactive material classified as NARM may be used under a Department of the Army Radioactive Material Authorization (DARA) issued by the Army Material Command (AMC) or the Office of The Army Surgeon General. A Department of the Army Radiation Permit is required for use, storage, possession, and disposal of radiation sources by non-Army agencies (including contractors) on Army installations.

- The Department of the Navy is designated by the NRC to have—through the issuance of a Master Materials License—regulatory authority for the receipt, possession, distribution, use, transportation, transfer, and disposal of radioactive material at Navy and Marine Corps activities. The Navy Radiation Safety Committee was established to provide administrative control of all radioactive material used in the Navy and Marine Corps except for nuclear propulsion reactors and associated radioactivity, nuclear weapons, and certain components of weapons delivery systems. Navy Radioactive Material Permits are used to maintain this control.

C.4.4 Other Controlled Radioactive Material

Certain radioactive material on DOD installations may not be controlled or regulated by either the NRC or the DOE. However, during Base Realignment and Closure actions, DOD installation property which is identified to be returned to civilian use may have the potential for radioactive contamination by such material. The DOD complies with applicable State limits, guidelines, and procedures for this material. The methodologies and technical approaches for environmental radiological surveys outlined in this manual will provide guidance for dealing with issues concerning this material.

Naturally Occurring and Accelerator-Produced Radioactive Material

- Naturally occurring and accelerator-produced radioactive material (NARM) is controlled and regulated by the individual military services, as is similarly done by certain States for corporations and other users residing within their boundaries.

Special Nuclear Material Used in Military Applications

- Special nuclear material used in military applications is a unique category of radioactive material. This may be buried as radioactive waste on DOD installations, used in military weapons or utilization facilities, or used in nuclear reactors involving military applications on DOD installations. Radioactive material used or associated with weapons systems or reactors associated with such military applications is exempt from NRC and State regulations under Section 91b, Chapter 9, Military Application of Atomic Energy, Atomic Energy Act of 1954.

C.4.5 DOD Regulations Concerning Radiation and the Environment

The DOD, with its global mission, supports several directives and instructions concerning environmental compliance. The individual military services have regulations implementing these directives and instructions. The documents describing these regulations are used as guidance in developing environmental radiological surveys within DOD.

The DOD and each military service also have specific regulations addressing the use of radioactive sources and the development of occupational health programs and radiation protection programs. These regulations may help in identifying potential locations and sources of radioactive contamination on DOD installations.

C.4.6 DOD Regulations and Requirements

Regulations and Requirements Concerning Development of Environmental Radiological Surveys

1. DOD Directive 4165.60, Solid and Hazardous Waste Management-Collection, Disposal, Resource Recovery, and Recycling Program.
2. DOD Directive 4210.15, Hazardous Material Pollution Prevention.
3. DOD Directive 5100.50, Protection and Enhancement of Environmental Quality.
4. DOD Directive 6050.1, Environmental Effects in the United States of Department of Defense Actions.
5. DOD Directive 6050.7, Environmental Effects Abroad of Major Department of Defense Actions.
6. DOD Directive 6050.8, Storage and Disposal of Non-DOD-Owned-Hazardous or Toxic Materials on DOD Installations.
7. DOD Instruction 4120.14, Environmental Pollution Prevention, Control, and Abatement.
8. DOD Instruction 5100.5, Protection and Enhancement of Environmental Quality.

Regulations and Requirements Concerning Use of Radioactive Sources and Development of Occupational Health Programs and Radiation Protection Programs:

1. DOD Instruction 6055.5-M, Occupational Health Surveillance Manual.
2. DOD Instruction 6055.8, Occupational Radiation Protection Program.

Examples of Air Force Instructions (AFIs):

1. AFI 40-201, Managing Radioactive Materials in the Air Force.
2. AFI 32-7020, Environmental Restoration Program.
3. AFI 32-7066, Environmental Baseline and Close-out Surveys in Real Estate Transactions.

Examples of Army Regulations (ARs):

1. AR 40-5, Preventive Medicine.
2. AR 40-14, Occupational Ionizing Radiation Personnel Dosimetry.
3. AR 40-10, Health Hazard Assessment Program in Support of the Army Materiel Acquisition Decision Process.
4. AR 200-1, Environmental Protection and Enhancement.
5. AR 200-2, Environmental Effects of Army Actions.
6. AR 385-11, Ionizing Radiation Protection (Licensing, Control, Transportation, Disposal, and Radiation Safety).
7. AR 385-30, Safety Color Code Markings and Signs.
8. AR 700-64, Radioactive Commodities in the DOD Supply System.
9. AR 750-25, Army Test, Measurement, and Diagnostic Equipment (TMDE) Calibration and Repair Support Program.
10. TB MED 521, Management and Control of Diagnostic X-Ray, Therapeutic X-Ray, and Gamma Beam Equipment.
11. TB MED 522, Control of Health Hazards from Protective Material Used in Self-Luminous Devices.
12. TB MED 525, Control of Hazards to Health from Ionizing Radiation Used by the Army Medical Department.
13. TB 43-180, Calibration and Repair Requirements for the Maintenance of Army Materiel.
14. TB 43-0108, Handling, Storage, and Disposal of Army Aircraft Components Containing Radioactive Material.
15. TB 43-0116, Identification of Radioactive Items in the Army.
16. TB 43-0122, Identification of U.S. Army Communications-Electronic Command Managed Radioactive items in the Army.
17. TB 43-0141, Safe Handling, Maintenance, Storage, and Disposal of Radioactive Commodities Managed by U.S. Army Troop Support and Aviation Material Readiness Command (Including Aircraft Components).
18. TB 43-0197, Instructions for Safe Handling, Maintenance, Storage, and Disposal of Radioactive Items Managed by U.S. Army Armament Material Command.
19. TB 43-0216, Safety and Hazard Warnings for Operation and Maintenance of TACOM Equipment.
20. TM 3-261, Handling and Disposal of Unwanted Radioactive Material.
21. TM 55-315, Transportability Guidance for Safe Transport of Radioactive Materials.

Examples of Navy Regulations:

1. NAVMED P-5055, Radiation Health Protection Manual.
2. NAVSEA SO420-AA-RAD-010, Radiological Affairs Support Program (RASP) Manual.
3. OPNAV 6470.3, Navy Radiation Safety Committee.

4. NAVSEA 5100.18A, Radiological Affairs Support Program.
5. OPNAV 5100.8G, Navy Safety and Occupational Safety and Health Program.
6. NAVMEDCOM 6470.10, Initial Management of Irradiated or Radioactively Contaminated Personnel.
7. OPNAV 3710.31, Carrying Hazardous Materials; Operational Procedures.
8. NAVSUP 5101.11, Procedures for the Receipt, Storage, and Handling of Radioactive Material Shipments.
9. NAVSUP 5101.6, Procedures for the Requisitioning, Labeling, Handling, Storage, & Disposal of Items Which Contain Radioactive By-Product Material.
10. NAVSUP 4000.34, Radioactive Commodities in the DOD Supply System.
11. NAVSEA 9639.1, Radioluminescent Sources and Radioactively Contaminated Equipment Aboard Inactive Naval Ships and Craft.
12. NAVSUP 4510.28, Special Restrictions on Issue and Disposal of Radiological Control Materials.
13. NAVMED 6470.7, Procedures and Responsibilities for Use of Radioactive Materials at NAVMED Activities.

C.5 State and Local Regulations and Requirements

An Agreement State is a State that has signed an agreement with the NRC allowing the State to regulate the use of radioactive materials—*i.e.*, specifically Atomic Energy Act materials—within that State. Table C.2 lists the Agreement States as of April 15, 2000 (see Appendix L for contacts and addresses). Each Agreement State provides regulations governing the use of radioactive materials that may relate to radiation site investigations.[3] Table C.3 lists the States that regulate naturally occurring radioactive material (NORM) as of January 1, 2000 (PGA 2000). A number of other States are in the process of developing regulations governing the use of NORM. The decision maker should check with the State to ensure compliance with all applicable regulations.

[3] A current list of agreement states, addresses, and contacts can be obtained through the U.S. Nuclear Regulatory Commission on the Internet on the State Program Directory page operated by the Oak Ridge National Laboratory at http://www.hsrd.ornl.gov/nrc/asframe.htm.

Table C.2 Agreement States

Alabama	Louisiana	North Carolina
Arizona	Maine	North Dakota
Arkansas	Maryland	Ohio
California	Massachusetts	Oregon
Colorado	Mississippi	Rhode Island
Florida	Nebraska	South Carolina
Georgia	Nevada	Tennessee
Illinois	New Hampshire	Texas
Iowa	New Mexico	Utah
Kansas	New York	Washington
Kentucky		

Table C.3 States That Regulate Diffuse NORM

Alabama (proposed)	Michigan	Oklahoma (proposed)
Arkansas	Mississippi	Oregon
Colorado (proposed)	New Jersey	South Carolina
Georgia	New Mexico	Texas
Illinois (proposed)	North Dakota	Utah
Louisiana	Ohio	

APPENDIX D

THE PLANNING PHASE OF THE DATA LIFE CYCLE

The planning phase of the Data Life Cycle is carried out using the Data Quality Objectives (DQO) Process. The DQO Process is a series of planning steps based on the scientific method for establishing criteria for data quality and developing survey designs (EPA 1994a, 1987b, 1987c). The level of effort associated with planning is based on the complexity of the survey. Large, complicated sites generally receive a significant amount of effort during the planning phase, while smaller sites may not require as much planning effort.

Planning radiological surveys using the DQO Process can improve the survey effectiveness and efficiency, and thereby the defensibility of decisions. It also can minimize expenditures related to data collection by eliminating unnecessary, duplicative, or overly precise data. The use of the DQO Process assures that the type, quantity, and quality of environmental data used in decision making will be appropriate for the intended application. It provides systematic procedures for defining the criteria that the survey design should satisfy, including when and where to perform measurements, the level of decision errors for the survey, and how many measurements to perform.

The expected output of planning a survey using the DQO Process is a quality assurance project plan (QAPP). The QAPP integrates all technical and quality aspects of the Data Life Cycle, and defines in detail how specific quality assurance and quality control activities will be implemented during the survey.

The DQO Process provides for early involvement of the decision maker and uses a graded approach to data quality requirements. This graded approach defines data quality requirements according to the type of survey being designed, the risk of making a decision error based on the data collected, and the consequences of making such an error. This approach provides a more effective survey design combined with a basis for judging the usability of the data collected.

DQOs are qualitative and quantitative statements derived from the outputs of the DQO Process that:

- clarify the study objective
- define the most appropriate type of data to collect
- determine the most appropriate conditions for collecting the data
- specify limits on decision errors which will be used as the basis for establishing the quantity and quality of data needed to support the decision

The DQO Process consists of seven steps, as shown in Figure D.1. The output from each step influences the choices that will be made later in the Process. Even though the DQO Process is depicted as a linear sequence of steps, in practice it is iterative; the outputs of one step may lead to reconsideration of prior steps as illustrated in Figure D.2. For example, defining the survey unit boundaries may lead to classification of the survey unit, with each area or survey unit having a different decision statement. This iteration is encouraged since it ultimately leads to a more efficient survey design. The first six steps of the DQO Process produce the decision performance criteria that are used to develop the survey design. The final step of the Process develops a survey design based on the DQOs. The first six steps should be completed before the final survey design is developed, and every step should be completed before data collection begins.

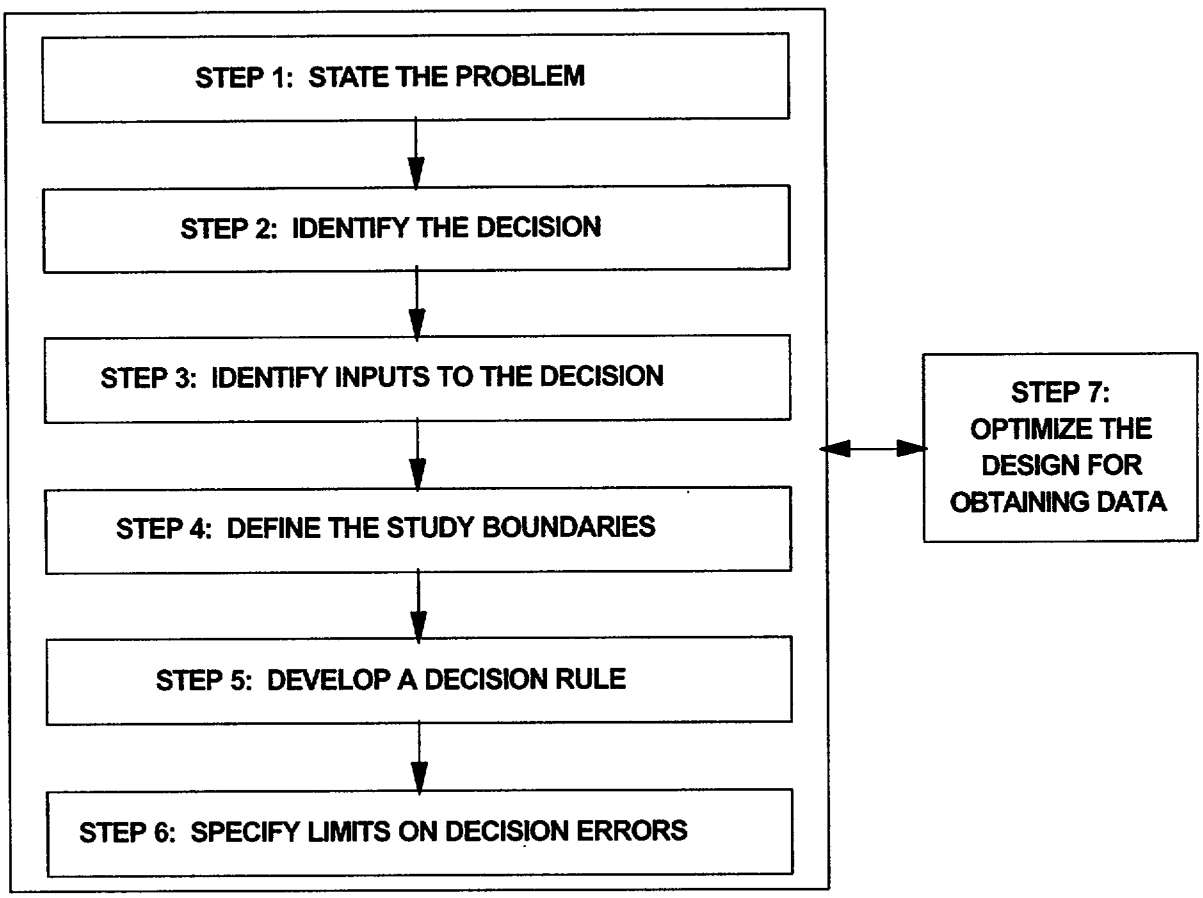


Figure D.1 The Data Quality Objectives Process

When the DQO Process is used to design a survey, it helps ensure that planning is performed properly the first time and establishes measures of performance for the data collector (implementation) and the decision maker (assessment) during subsequent phases of the Data Life Cycle. DQOs provide up-front planning and define decision maker/data collector relationships by presenting a clear statement of the decision maker's needs. This information is recorded in the QAPP.

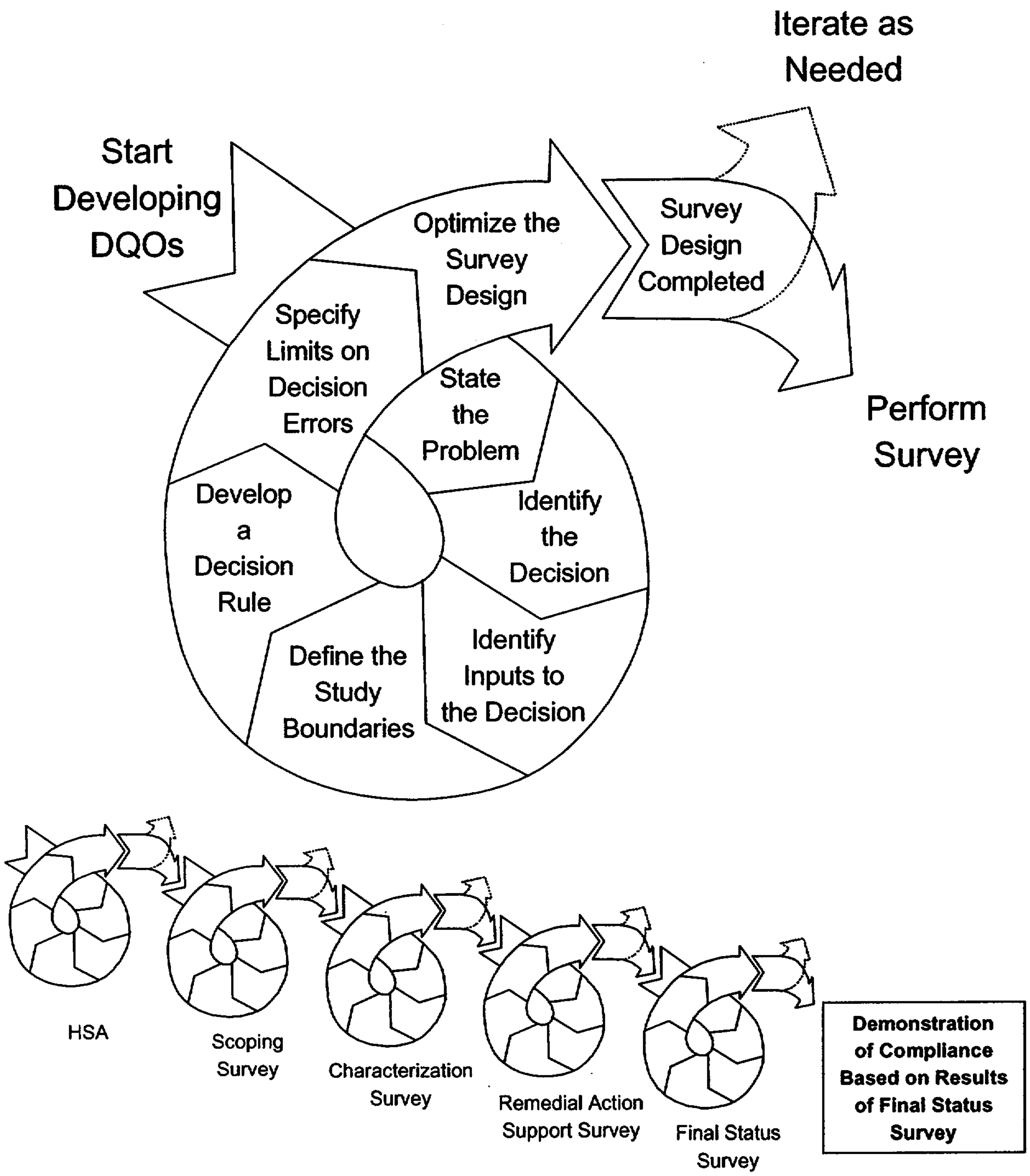


Figure D.2 Repeated Applications of the DQO Process Throughout the Radiation Survey and Site Investigation Process

DQOs for data collection activities describe the overall level of uncertainty that a decision maker is willing to accept for survey results. This uncertainty is used to specify the quality of the measurement data required in terms of objectives for precision, accuracy, representativeness, comparability, and completeness. These objectives are presented in detail in Section 9.3.2 and Appendix N.

The DQO Process is a flexible planning tool that can be used more or less intensively as the situation requires. For surveys that have multiple decisions, such as characterization or final status surveys, the DQO Process can be used repeatedly throughout the performance of the survey. Decisions made early in decommissioning are often preliminary in nature. For this reason, a scoping survey may only require a limited planning and evaluation effort. As the site investigation process nears conclusion the necessity of avoiding a decision error becomes more critical.

The following sections briefly discuss the steps of the DQO Process, especially as they relate to final status survey planning, and list the outputs for each step in the process. The outputs from the DQO Process should be included in the documentation for the survey plan.

D.1 State the Problem

The first step in any decision making process is to define the problem so that the focus of the survey will be unambiguous. Since many sites or facilities present a complex interaction of technical, economic, social, and political factors, the success of a project is critically linked to a complete but uncomplicated definition of the problem .

There are four activities associated with this step:

- identifying members of the planning team and stakeholders
- identifying the primary decision maker or decision-making method
- developing a concise description of the problem
- specifying available resources and relevant deadlines for the study

The expected outputs of this step are:

- a list of the planning team members and identification of the decision maker
- a concise description of the problem
- a summary of available resources and relevant deadlines for the survey

For a final status survey, examples of planning team members and stakeholders are described in Section 3.2. A description of the problem would typically involve the release of all or some portion of a site to demonstrate compliance with a regulation. The resources and deadlines are typically identified on a site-specific basis.

D.2 Identify the Decision

The goal of this step is to define the question that the survey will attempt to resolve and identify alternative actions that may be taken based on the outcome of the survey. The combination of these two elements is called the decision statement. The decision statement would be different for each type of survey in the Radiation Survey and Site Investigation Process, and would be developed based on the survey objectives described in Chapter 5.

There are four activities associated with this step in the DQO Process:

- identifying the principal study question
- defining the alternative actions that could result from resolution of the principal study question
- combining the principal study question and the alternative actions into a decision statement
- organizing multiple decisions

The expected output from this step is a decision statement that links the principal study question to possible solutions to the problem.

For a final status survey, the principal study question could be: "Is the level of residual radioactivity in the survey units in this portion of the site below the release criterion?" Alternative actions may include further remediation, re-evaluation of the modeling assumptions used to develop the DCGLs, re-assessment of the survey unit to see if it can be released with passive controls, or a decision not to release the survey unit. The decision statement may be: "Determine whether or not all the survey units in this portion of the site satisfy the release criterion."

D.3 Identify the Inputs to the Decision

Collecting data or information is necessary to resolve most decision statements. In this step, the planning team focuses on the information needed for the decision and identifies the different types of information needed to resolve the decision statement.

The key activities for this step include:

- Identifying the information required to resolve the decision statement. Ask general questions such as: "Is information on the physical properties of the site required?" or: "Is information on the chemical characteristics of the radionuclide or the matrix required?" Determine which environmental variables or other information are needed to resolve the decision statement.

- Determining the sources for each item of information. Identify and list the sources for the required information.
- Identifying the information needed to establish the action level or the derived concentration guideline level (DCGL) based on the release criterion. The actual numerical value will be determined in Step 5 (*i.e.*, Section D.5).
- Confirming that appropriate measurement methods exist to provide the necessary data. A list of potentially appropriate measurement techniques should be prepared based on the information requirements determined previously in this step. Field and laboratory measurement techniques for radionuclides are discussed in Chapters 6 and 7 of this manual. Information on using field and laboratory equipment, their detection limits and analytical costs are listed in Appendix H. This performance information will be used in Steps 5 and 7 of the DQO Process.

The expected outputs of this step are:

- a list of informational inputs needed to resolve the decision statement
- a list of environmental variables or characteristics that will be measured

For the final status survey, the list of information inputs generally involves measurements of the radioactive contaminants of concern in each survey unit. These inputs include identifying survey units, classifying survey units, identifying appropriate measurement techniques including measurement costs and detection limits, and whether or not background measurements from a reference area or areas need to be performed. The list of environmental variables measured during the final status survey is typically limited to the level of residual radioactivity in the affected media for each survey unit.

D.4 Define the Boundaries of the Study

During this step the planning team should develop a conceptual model of the site based on existing information collected in Step 1 of the DQO Process or during previous surveys. Conceptual models describe a site or facility and its environs, and present hypotheses regarding the radionuclides present and potential migration pathways. These models may include components from computer models, analytical models, graphic models, and other techniques. Additional data collected during decommissioning are used to expand the conceptual model.

The purpose of this step is to define the spatial and temporal boundaries that will be covered by the decision statement so data can be easily interpreted. These attributes include:

- spatial boundaries that define the physical area under consideration for release (site boundaries)

- spatial boundaries that define the physical area to be studied and locations where measurements could be performed (actual or potential survey unit boundaries)
- temporal boundaries that describe the time frame the study data represents and when measurements should be performed
- spatial and temporal boundaries developed from modeling used to determine DCGLs

There are seven activities associated with this step:

- specifying characteristics that define the true but unknown value of the parameter of interest
- defining the geographic area within which all decisions must apply
- when appropriate, dividing the site into areas or survey units that have relatively homogeneous characteristics
- determining the time frame to which the decision applies
- determining when to collect data
- defining the scale of decision making
- identifying any practical constraints on data collection

The expected outputs of this step are:

- a detailed description of the spatial and temporal boundaries of the problem (a conceptual model)
- any practical constraints that may interfere with the full implementation of the survey design

Specifying the characteristics that define the true but unknown value of the parameter of interest for the final status survey typically involves identifying the radionuclides of concern. If possible, the physical and chemical form of the radionuclides should be described. For example, describing the residual radioactivity in terms of total uranium is not as specific or informative as describing a mixture of uraninite (UO_2) and uranium metaphosphate ($U(PO_3)_4$) for natural abundances of ^{234}U, ^{235}U, and ^{238}U.

As an example, the study boundary may be defined as the property boundary of a facility or, if there is only surface contamination expected at the site, the soil within the property boundary to a depth of 15 cm. When appropriate (typically during and always before final status survey design), the site is subdivided into survey units with relatively homogeneous characteristics based on information collected during previous surveys. The radiological characteristics are defined by the area classification (Class 1, Class 2, or Class 3) while the physical characteristics may include structures vs. land areas, transport routes vs. grassy areas, or soil types with different radionuclide transfer characteristics.

The time frame to which the final status survey decision applies is typically defined by the regulation. For example: "The data are used to reflect the condition of radionuclides leaching into ground water over a period of 1,000 years." Temporal boundaries may also include seasonal conditions such as winter snow cover or summer drought that affect the accessibility of certain media for measurement.

For the final status survey, the smallest, most appropriate subsets of the site for which decisions will be made are defined as survey units. The size of the survey unit and the measurement frequency within a survey unit are based on classification, site-specific conditions, and relevant decisions used during modeling to determine the DCGLs.

D.5 Develop a Decision Rule

The purpose of this step is to define the parameter of interest, specify the action level (or DCGL), and integrate previous DQO outputs into a single statement that describes a logical basis for choosing among alternative actions.

There are three activities associated with this step:

- specifying the statistical parameter that characterizes the parameter of interest
- specifying the action level for the study
- combining the outputs of the previous DQO steps into an "if...then..." decision rule that defines the conditions that would cause the decision maker to choose among alternative actions

Certain aspects of the site investigation process, such as the HSA, are not so quantitative that a statistical parameter can be specified. Nevertheless, a decision rule should still be developed that defines the conditions that would cause the decision maker to choose among alternatives.

The expected outputs of this step are:

- the parameter of interest that characterizes the level of residual radioactivity
- the action level
- an "if...then..." statement that defines the conditions that would cause the decision maker to choose among alternative actions

The parameter of interest is a descriptive measure (such as a mean or median) that specifies the characteristic or attribute that the decision maker would like to know about the residual contamination in the survey unit.

The mean is the value that corresponds to the "center" of the distribution in the sense of the "center of gravity" (EPA 1989a). Positive attributes of the mean include: 1) it is useful when the action level is based on long-term, average health effects, 2) it is useful when the population is uniform with relatively small spread, and 3) it generally requires fewer samples than other parameters of interest. Negative attributes include: 1) it is not a very representative measure of central tendency for highly skewed distributions, and 2) it is not useful when a large proportion of the measurements are reported as less than the detection limit (EPA 1994a).

The median is also a value that corresponds to the "center" of a distribution, but where the mean represents the center of gravity the median represents the "middle" value of a distribution. The median is that value such that there are the same number of measurements greater than the median as less than the median. The positive attributes of the median include: 1) it is useful when the action level is based on long-term, average health effects, 2) it provides a more representative measure of central tendency than the mean for skewed populations, 3) it is useful when a large proportion of the measurements are reported as less than the detection limit, and 4) it relies on few statistical assumptions. Negative attributes include: 1) it will not protect against the effects of extreme values, and 2) it is not a very representative measure of central tendency for highly skewed distributions (EPA 1994a).

The nonparametric statistical tests discussed in Chapter 8 are designed to determine whether or not the level of residual activity uniformly distributed throughout the survey unit exceeds the $DCGL_W$. Since these methods are based on ranks, the results are generally expressed in terms of the median. When the underlying measurement distribution is symmetric, the mean is equal to the median. The assumption of symmetry is less restrictive than that of normality because the normal distribution is itself symmetric. If, however, the measurement distribution is skewed to the right, the average will generally be greater than the median. In severe cases, the average may exceed the $DCGL_W$ while the median does not. For this reason, MARSSIM recommends comparing the arithmetic mean of the survey unit data to the $DCGL_W$ as a first step in the interpretation of the data (see Section 8.2.2.1).

The action level is a measurement threshold value of the parameter of interest that provides the criterion for choosing among alternative actions. MARSSIM uses the investigation level, a radionuclide-specific level of radioactivity based on the release criterion that results in additional investigation when it is exceeded, as an action level. Investigation levels are developed for both the Elevated Measurement Comparison (EMC) using scanning techniques and the statistical tests using direct measurements and samples. Section 5.5.2.6 provides information on investigation levels used in MARSSIM.

The mean concentration of residual radioactivity is the parameter of interest used for making decisions based on the final status survey. The definition of residual radioactivity depends on whether or not the contaminant appears as part of background radioactivity in the reference area. If the radionuclide is not present in background, residual radioactivity is defined as the mean

concentration in the survey unit. If the radionuclide is present in background, residual radioactivity is defined as the difference between the mean concentration in the survey unit and the mean concentration in the reference area selected to represent background. The term *1-sample case* is used when the radionuclide does not appear in background, because measurements are only made in the survey unit. The term *2-sample case* is used when the radionuclide appears in background, because measurements are made in both the survey unit and the reference area.

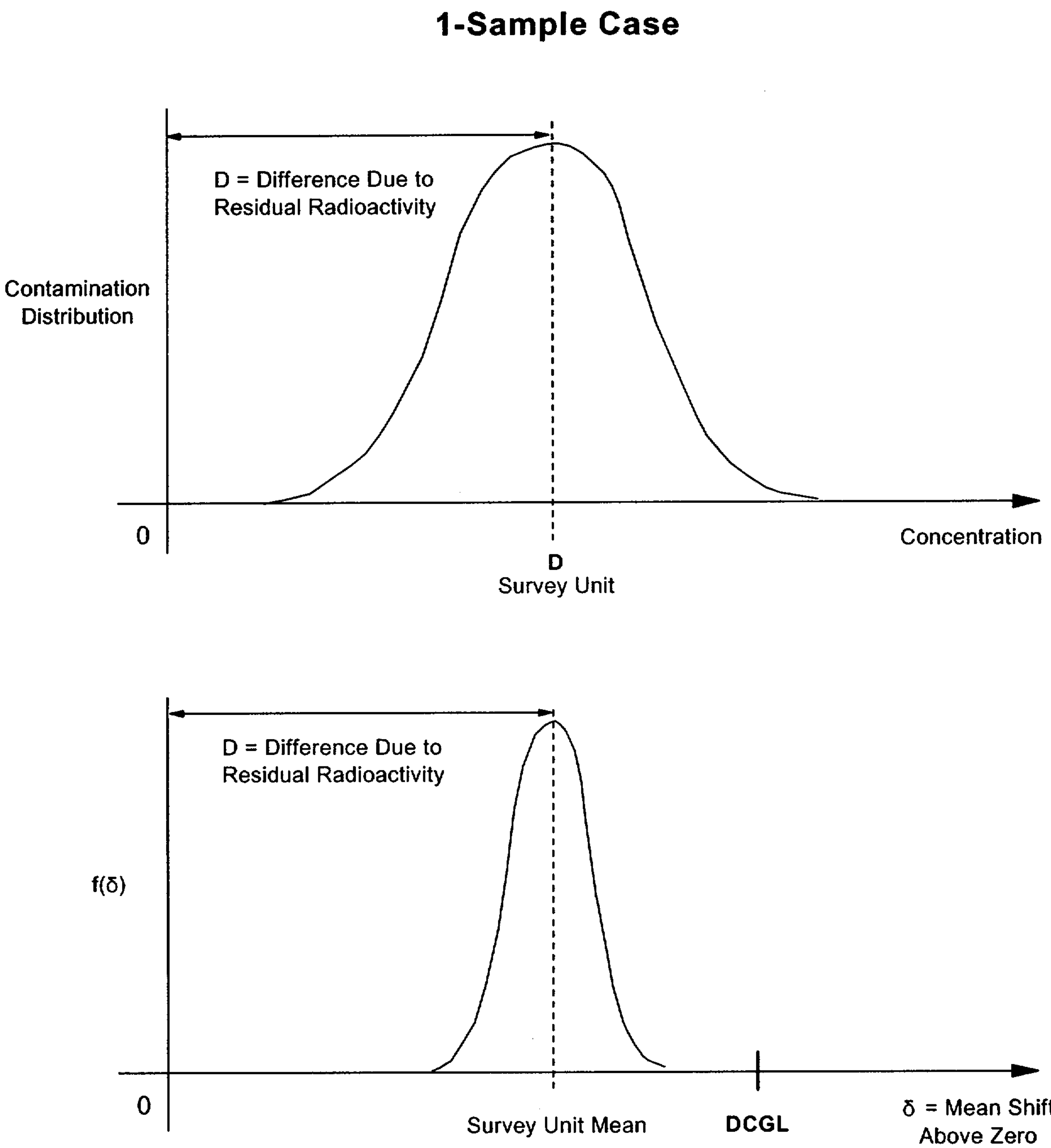
Figure D.3 contains a simple, hypothetical example of the 1-sample case. The upper portion of the figure shows a probability distribution of residual radionuclide concentrations in the surface soil of the survey unit. The parameter of interest is the location of the mean of this distribution, represented by the vertical dotted line and denoted by the symbol D.

The decision rule for the 1-sample case is: "If the mean concentration in the survey unit is less than the investigation level, then the survey unit is in compliance with the release criterion." To implement the decision rule, an estimate of the mean concentration in the survey unit is required. An estimate of the mean of the survey unit distribution may be obtained by measuring radionuclide concentrations in soil at a set of n randomly selected locations in the survey unit. A point estimate for the survey unit mean is obtained by calculating the simple arithmetic average of the n measurements. Due to measurement variability, there is a distribution of possible values for the point estimate for the survey unit mean, δ. This distribution is referred to as $f(\delta)$, and is shown in the lower graph of Figure D.3. The investigation level for the Sign test used in the 1-sample case is the $DCGL_W$, shown on the horizontal axis of the graph.

If $f(\delta)$ lies far to the left (or to the right) of the $DCGL_W$, a decision of whether or not the survey unit demonstrates compliance can be easily made. However, if $f(\delta)$ overlaps the $DCGL_W$, statistical decision rules are used to assist the decision maker. Note that the width of the distribution for the estimated mean may be reduced by increasing the number of measurements. Thus, a large number of samples will reduce the probability of making decision errors.

Figure D.4 shows a simple, hypothetical example of the 2-sample case. The upper portion of the figure shows one probability distribution representing background radionuclide concentrations in the surface soil of the reference area, and another probability distribution representing radionuclide concentrations in the surface soil of the survey unit. The graph in the middle portion of the figure shows the distributions of the estimated mean concentrations in the reference area and the survey unit. In this case, the parameter of interest is the difference between the means of these two distributions, D, represented by the distance between the two vertical dotted lines.

The decision rule for the 2-sample case is: "If the difference between the mean concentration in the survey unit and the mean concentration in the reference area is less than the investigation level, then the survey unit is in compliance with the release criterion." To implement the



f(δ) is the sampling distribution of the estimated survey unit mean.

Figure D.3 Example of the Parameter of Interest for the 1-Sample Case

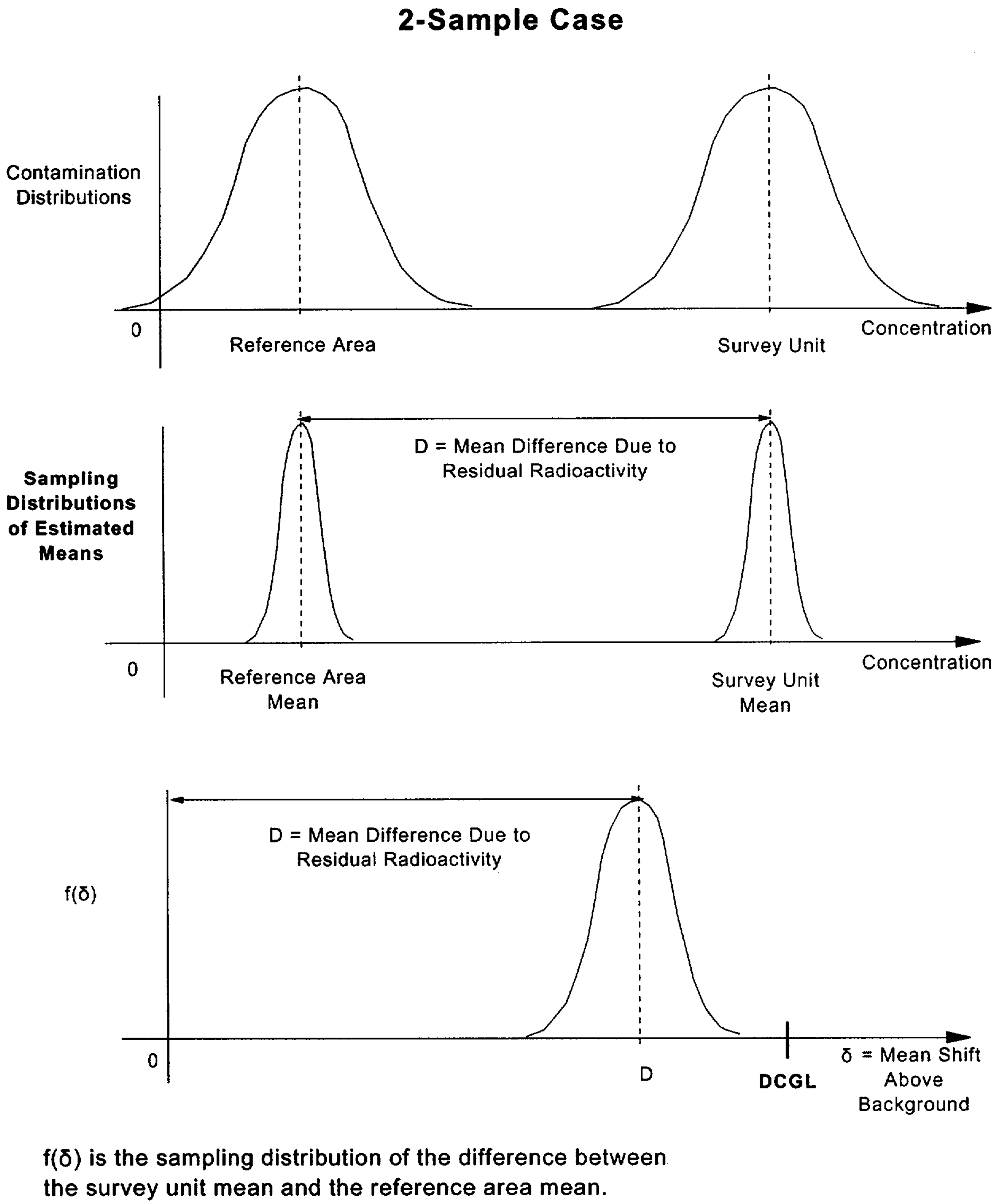


Figure D.4 Example of the Parameter of Interest for the 2-Sample Case

decision rule, an estimate of the difference is required. This estimate may be obtained by measuring radionuclide concentrations at a set of "n" randomly selected locations in the survey unit and "m" randomly selected locations in the reference area. A point estimate of the survey unit mean is obtained by calculating the simple arithmetic average of the n measurements in the survey unit. A point estimate of the reference area mean is similarly calculated. A point estimate of the difference between the two means is obtained by subtracting the reference area average from the survey unit average.

The measurement distribution of this difference, f(δ), is centered at D, the true value of the difference. This distribution is shown in the lower graph of Figure D.4.

Once again, if f(δ) lies far to the left (or to the right) of the $DCGL_W$, a decision of whether or not the survey unit demonstrates compliance can be easily made. However, if f(δ) overlaps the $DCGL_W$, statistical decision rules are used to assist the decision maker.

D.6 Specify Limits on Decision Errors

Decisions based on survey results can often be reduced to a choice between "yes" or "no", such as determining whether or not a survey unit meets the release criterion. When viewed in this way, two types of incorrect decisions, or decision errors, are identified: 1) incorrectly deciding that the answer is "yes" when the true answer is "no", and 2) incorrectly deciding the answer is "no" when the true answer is "yes". The distinctions between these two types of errors are important for two reasons: 1) the consequences of making one type of error versus the other may be very different, and 2) the methods for controlling these errors are different and involve tradeoffs. For these reasons, the decision maker should specify levels for each type of decision error.

The purpose of this section is to specify the decision maker's limits on decision errors, which are used to establish performance goals for the data collection design. The goal of the planning team is to develop a survey design that reduces the chance of making a decision error.

While the possibility of a decision error can never be totally eliminated, it can be controlled. To control the possibility of making decision errors, the planning team attempts to control uncertainty in the survey results caused by sampling design error and measurement error. Sampling design error may be controlled by collecting a large number of samples. Using more precise measurement techniques or field duplicate analyses can reduce measurement error. Better sampling designs can also be developed to collect data that more accurately and efficiently represent the parameter of interest. Every survey will use a slightly different method of controlling decision errors, depending on the largest source of error and the ease of reducing those error components.

The estimate of the standard deviation for the measurements performed in a survey unit (σ_s) includes the individual measurement uncertainty as well as the spatial and temporal variations captured by the survey design. For this reason, individual measurement uncertainties are not used during the final status survey data assessment. However, individual measurement uncertainties may be useful for determining an *a priori* estimate of σ_s during survey planning. Since a larger value of σ_s results in an increased number of measurements needed to demonstrate compliance during the final status survey, the decision maker may seek to reduce measurement uncertainty through various methods (*e.g.*, different instrumentation). There are trade-offs that should be considered during survey planning. For example, the costs associated with performing additional measurements with an inexpensive measurement system may be less than the costs associated with a measurement system with better sensitivity (*i.e.*, lower measurement uncertainty, lower minimum detectable concentration). However, the more expensive measurement system with better sensitivity may reduce σ_s and the number of measurements used to demonstrate compliance to the point where it is more cost effective to use the more expensive measurement system. For surveys in the early stages of the Radiation Survey and Site Investigation Process, the measurement uncertainty and instrument sensitivity become even more important. During scoping, characterization, and remedial action support surveys, decisions about classification and remediation are made based on a limited number of measurements. When the measurement uncertainty or the instrument sensitivity values approach the value of the DCGL, it becomes more difficult to make these decisions. From an operational standpoint, when operators of a measurement system have an *a priori* understanding of the sensitivity and potential measurement uncertainties, they are able to recognize and respond to conditions that may warrant further investigation—*e.g.*, changes in background radiation levels, the presence of areas of elevated activity, measurement system failure or degradation, *etc.*

The probability of making decision errors can be controlled by adopting a scientific approach, called hypothesis testing. In this approach, the survey results are used to select between one condition of the environment (the null hypothesis, H_0) and an alternative condition (the alternative hypothesis, H_a). The null hypothesis is treated like a baseline condition that is assumed to be true in the absence of strong evidence to the contrary. Acceptance or rejection of the null hypothesis depends upon whether or not the particular survey results are consistent with the hypothesis.

A decision error occurs when the decision maker rejects the null hypothesis when it is true, or accepts the null hypothesis when it is false. These two types of decision errors are classified as Type I and Type II decision errors, and can be represented by a table as shown in Table D.1.

A Type I decision error occurs when the null hypothesis is rejected when it is true, and is sometimes referred to as a false positive error. The probability of making a Type I decision error, or the level of significance, is denoted by alpha (α). Alpha reflects the amount of evidence the decision maker would like to see before abandoning the null hypothesis, and is also referred to as the *size* of the test.

Table D.1 Example Representation of Decision Errors for a Final Status Survey

H_0: The Residual Activity in the Survey Unit Exceeds the Release Criterion			
		DECISION	
		Reject H_0 (Meets Release Criterion)	Accept H_0 (Exceeds Release Criterion)
TRUE CONDITION OF SURVEY UNIT	Meets Release Criterion	(No decision error)	Incorrectly Fail to Release Survey Unit (Type II)
	Exceeds Release Criterion	Incorrectly Release Survey Unit (Type I)	(No decision error)

A Type II decision error occurs when the null hypothesis is accepted when it is false. This is sometimes referred to as a false negative error. The probability of making a Type II decision error is denoted by beta (β). The term ($1-\beta$) is the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is false, and is also referred to as the *power* of the test.

There is a relationship between α and β that is used in developing a survey design. In general, increasing α decreases β and vice versa, holding all other variables constant. Increasing the number of measurements typically results in a decrease in both α and β. The number of measurements that will produce the desired values of α and β from the statistical test can be estimated from α, β, the $DCGL_W$, and the estimated variance of the distribution of the parameter of interest.

There are five activities associated with specifying limits on decision errors:

- Determining the possible range of the parameter of interest. Establish the range by estimating the likely upper and lower bounds based on professional judgement.
- Identifying the decision errors and choosing the null hypothesis.
  - a. Define both types of decision errors (Type I and Type II) and establish the true condition of the survey unit for each decision error.
  - b. Specify and evaluate the potential consequences of each decision error.
  - c. Establish which decision error has more severe consequences near the action level. Consequences include health, ecological, political, social, and resource risks.

d. Define the null hypothesis and the alternative hypothesis and assign the terms "Type I" and "Type II" to the appropriate decision error.

- Specifying a range of possible parameter values, a gray region, where the consequences of decision errors are relatively minor. It is necessary to specify a gray region because variability in the parameter of interest and unavoidable imprecision in the measurement system combine to produce variability in the data such that a decision may be "too close to call" when the true but unknown value of the parameter of interest is very near the action level. Additional guidance on specifying a gray region is available in *Guidance for the Data Quality Objectives Process* (EPA 1994a).
- Assigning probability limits to points above and below the gray region that reflect the probability for the occurrence of decision errors.
- Graphically representing the decision rule.

The expected outputs of this step are decision error rates based on the consequences of making an incorrect decision. Certain aspects of the site investigation process, such as the Historical Site Assessment (HSA), are not so quantitative that numerical values for decision errors can be specified. Nevertheless, a "comfort region" should be identified where the consequences of decision errors are relatively minor.

In Section D.5, the parameter of interest was defined as the difference between the survey unit mean concentration of residual radioactivity and the reference area mean concentration in the 2-sample case, or simply the survey unit mean concentration in the 1-sample case. The possible range of values for the parameter of interest is determined based on existing information (such as the Historical Site Assessment or previous surveys) and best professional judgement. The likely lower bound for $f(\delta)$ is either background or zero. For a final status survey when the residual radioactivity is expected to meet the release criterion, and a conservative upper bound might be approximately three times $DCGL_W$.

Hypothesis testing is used to determine whether or not a statement concerning the parameter of interest should be verified. The statement about the parameter of interest is called the null hypothesis. The alternative hypothesis is the opposite of what is stated in the null hypothesis. The decision maker needs to choose between two courses of action, one associated with the null hypothesis and one associated with the alternative hypothesis.

To make a decision using hypothesis testing, a test statistic is compared to a critical value. The *test statistic*[1] is a number calculated using data from the survey. The critical value of the test statistic defines a rejection region based on some assumptions about the true distribution of data in the survey unit. If the value of the test statistic falls within the rejection region, the null

[1] The test statistic is not necessarily identical to the parameter of interest, but is functionally related to it through the statistical analysis.

hypothesis is rejected. The decision rule, developed in Section D.5, is used to describe the relationship between the test statistic and the critical value.

MARSSIM considers two ways to state H_0 for a final status survey. The primary consideration in most situations will be compliance with the release criterion. This is shown as Scenario A in Figure D.5. The null hypothesis is that the survey unit exceeds the release criterion. Using this statement of H_0 means that significant evidence that the survey unit does not exceed the release criterion is required before the survey unit would be released.

In some situations, however, the primary consideration may be determining if any residual radioactivity at the site is distinguishable from background, shown as Scenario B in Figure D.6. In this manual, Scenario A is used as an illustration because it directly addresses the compliance issue and allows consideration of decision errors. More information on Scenario B can be found in the NRC draft report NUREG-1505 (NRC 1995a).

For Scenario A, the null hypothesis is that the survey unit does not meet the release criterion. A Type I decision error would result in the release of a survey unit containing residual radioactivity above the release criterion. The probability of making this error is α. Setting a high value for α would result in a higher risk that survey units that might be somewhat in excess of the release criterion would be passed as meeting the release criterion. Setting a low value for α would result in fewer survey units where the null hypothesis is rejected. However, the cost of setting a low value for α is either a higher value for β or an increased number of samples used to demonstrate compliance.

For Scenario A, the alternative hypothesis is that the survey unit does meet the release criterion. A Type II decision error would result in either unnecessary costs due to remediation of survey units that are truly below the release criterion or additional survey activities to demonstrate compliance. The probability of making a Type II error is β. Selecting a high value for β (low power) would result in a higher risk that survey units that actually meet the release criterion are subject to further investigation. Selecting a low value for β (high power) will minimize these investigations, but the tradeoff is either a higher value for α or an increased number of measurements used to demonstrate compliance. Setting acceptable values for α and β, as well as determining an appropriate gray region, is a crucial step in the DQO process.

In the MARSSIM framework, the gray region is always bounded from above by the DCGL corresponding to the release criterion. The *Lower Bound of the Gray Region* (LBGR) is selected during the DQO process along with the target values for α and β. The *width* of the gray region, equal to (DCGL - LBGR), is a parameter that is central to the nonparametric tests discussed in this manual. It is also referred to as the *shift*, Δ. The absolute size of the shift is actually of less importance than the *relative shift* Δ/σ, where σ is an estimate of the standard deviation of the measured values in the survey unit. The estimated standard deviation, σ, includes both the real spatial variability in the quantity being measured, and the precision of the chosen measurement

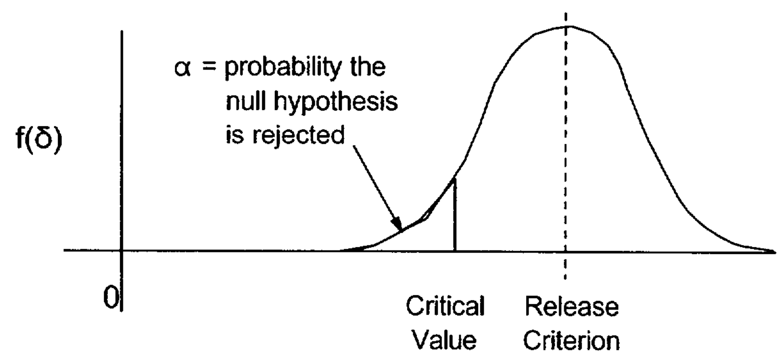
SCENARIO A

Assume as a null hypothesis that the survey unit exceeds the release criterion. This requires significant evidence that the residual radioactivity in the survey unit is less than the release criterion to reject the null hypothesis (and pass the survey unit). If the evidence is not significant at level α, the null hypothesis of a non-complying survey unit is accepted (and the survey unit fails).

HYPOTHESIS TEST

H_0: Survey unit does not meet release criterion
H_a: Survey unit does meet the release criterion

Survey unit passes if and only if the test statistic falls in the rejection region.



This test directly addresses the compliance question.

The mean shift for the survey unit must be significantly below the release criterion for the null hypothesis to be rejected.

With this test, site owners face a trade-off between additional sampling costs and unnecessary remediation costs. They may choose to increase the number of measurements in order to decrease the number of Type II decision errors (reduce the chance of remediating a clean survey unit for survey units at or near background levels.

Distinguishability from background is not directly addressed. However, sample sizes may be selected to provide adequate power at or near background levels, hence ensuring that most survey units near background would pass. Additional analyses, such as point estimates and/or confidence intervals, may be used to address this question.

A high percentage of survey units slightly below the release criterion may fail the release criterion, unless large numbers of measurements are used. This achieves a high degree of assurance that most survey units that are at or above the release criterion will not be improperly released.

Figure D.5 Possible Statement of the Null Hypothesis for the Final Status Survey Addressing the Issue of Compliance

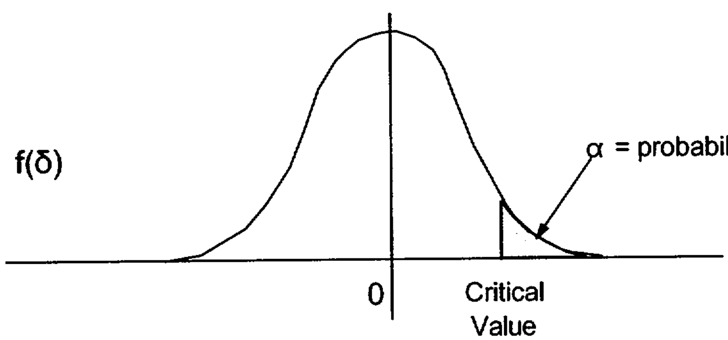
SCENARIO B

Assume as a null hypothesis that the survey unit is indistinguishable from background. This requires significant evidence that the survey unit residual radioactivity is greater than background to reject the null hypothesis (and fail the survey unit). If the evidence is not significant at level α, the null hypothesis of a clean survey unit is accepted (and the survey unit passes).

HYPOTHESIS TEST

H_0: Survey unit is indistinguishable from background
H_a: Survey unit is distinguishable from background

Survey unit passes if and only if the test statistic falls in the rejection region.



Distinguishability from background may be of primary importance to some stakeholders.

The residual radioactivity in the survey unit must be significantly above background for the null hypothesis to be rejected.

Compliance with the DCGLs is not directly addressed. However, the number of measurements may be selected to provide adequate power at or near the DCGL, hence ensuring that most survey units near the DCGL would not be improperly released. Additional analysis, based on point estimates and/or confidence intervals, is required to determine compliance if the null hypothesis is rejected by the test.

A high percentage of survey units slightly below the release criterion will fail unless large numbers of measurements are used. This is necessary to achieve a high degree of assurance that for most sites at or above the release criterion the null hypothesis will fail to be improperly released.

Figure D.6 Possible Statement of the Null Hypothesis for the Final Status Survey Addressing the Issue of Indistinguishability from Background

method. The relative shift, Δ/σ, is an expression of the resolution of the measurements in units of measurement uncertainty. Expressed in this way, it is easy to see that relative shifts of less than one standard deviation, $\Delta/\sigma < 1$, will be difficult to detect. On the other hand, relative shifts of more than three standard deviations, $\Delta/\sigma > 3$, are generally easier to detect. The number of measurements that will be required to achieve given error rates, α and β, depends almost entirely on the value of Δ/σ (see Chapter 5).

Since small values of Δ/σ result in large numbers of samples, it is important to design for $\Delta/\sigma > 1$ whenever possible. There are two obvious ways to increase Δ/σ. The first is to increase the width of the gray region by making LBGR small. Only Type II decision errors occur in the gray region. The disadvantage of making this gray region larger is that the probability of incorrectly failing to release a survey unit will increase. The target false negative rate β will be specified at lower residual radioactivity levels, i.e., a survey unit will generally have to be lower in residual radioactivity to have a high probability of being judged to meet the release criterion. The second way to increase Δ/σ is to make σ smaller. One way to make σ small is by having survey units that are relatively homogeneous in the amount of measured radioactivity. This is an important consideration in selecting survey units that have both relatively uniform levels of residual radioactivity and also have relatively uniform background radiation levels. Another way to make σ small is by using more precise measurement methods. The more precise methods might be more expensive, but this may be compensated for by the decrease in the number of required measurements. One example would be in using a radionuclide specific method rather than gross radioactivity measurements for residual radioactivity that does not appear in background. This would eliminate the variability in background from σ, and would also eliminate the need for reference area measurements.

The effect of changing the width of the gray region and/or changing the measurement variability on the estimated number of measurements (and cost) can be investigated using the DEFT (Decision Error Feasibility Trials) software developed by EPA (EPA 1995a). This program can only give approximate sample sizes and costs since it assumes that the measurement data are normally distributed, that a Student's t test will be used to evaluate the data, and that there is currently no provision for comparison to a reference area. Nevertheless, as a rough rule of thumb, the sample sizes calculated by DEFT are about 85% of those required by the one-sample nonparametric tests recommended in this manual. This rule of thumb works better for large numbers of measurements than for smaller numbers of measurements, but can be very useful for estimating the relative impact on costs of decisions made during the planning process.

Generally, the design goal should be to achieve Δ/σ values between one and three. The number of samples needed rises dramatically when Δ/σ is smaller than one. Conversely, little is usually gained by making Δ/σ larger than about three. If Δ/σ is greater than three or four, one should take advantage of the measurement precision available by making the width of the gray region smaller. It is even more important, however, that overly optimistic estimates for σ be avoided. The consequence of taking fewer samples than are needed given the actual measurement variations will be unnecessary remediations (increased Type II decision errors).

Once the preliminary estimates of Δ and σ are available, target values for α and β can be selected. The values of α and β should reflect the risks involved in making Type I and Type II decision errors, respectively.

One consideration in setting the false positive rate are the health risks associated with releasing a survey unit that might actually contain residual radioactivity in excess of the $DCGL_W$. If a survey unit did exceed the $DCGL_W$, the first question that arises is "How much above the $DCGL_W$ is the residual radioactivity likely to be?" The DEFT software can be used to evaluate this.

For example, if the $DCGL_W$ is 100 Bq/kg (2.7 pCi/g), the LBGR is 50 Bq/kg (1.4 pCi/g), σ is 50 Bq/kg (1.4 pCi/g), $\alpha = 0.10$ and $\beta = 0.05$, the DEFT calculations show that while a survey unit with residual radioactivity equal to the $DCGL_W$ has a 10% chance of being released, a survey unit at a level of 115 Bq/kg (3.1 pCi/g) has less than a 5% chance of being released, a survey unit at a level of 165 Bq/kg (4.5 pCi/g) has virtually no chance of being released. However, a survey unit with a residual radioactivity level of 65 Bq/kg (1.8 pCi/g) will have about an 80% chance of being released and a survey unit with a residual radioactivity level of 80 Bq/kg (2.2 pCi/g) will only have about a 40% chance of being released. Therefore, it is important to examine the probability of deciding that the survey unit does not meet the release criterion over the entire range of possible residual radioactivity values, and not only at the boundaries of the gray region. Of course, the gray region can be made narrower, but at the cost of additional sampling. Since the equations governing the process are not linear, small changes can lead to substantial changes in survey costs.

As stated earlier, the values of α and β that are selected in the DQO process should reflect the risk involved in making a decision error. In setting values for α, the following are important considerations:

- In radiation protection practice, public health risk is modeled as a linear function of dose (BEIR 1990). Therefore a 10% change in dose, say from 15 to 16.5, results in a 10% change in risk. This situation is quite different from one in which there is a threshold. In the latter case, the risk associated with a decision error can be quite high, and low values of α should be selected. When the risk is linear, much higher values of α at the release criterion might be considered adequately protective when the survey design results in smaller decision error rates at doses or risks greater than the release criterion. False positives will tend to be balanced by false negatives across sites and survey units, resulting in approximately equal human health risks.
- The DCGL itself is not free of error. The dose or risk cannot be measured directly, and many assumptions are made in converting doses or risks to derived concentrations. To be adequately protective of public health, these models are generally designed to over predict the dose or risk. Unfortunately, it is difficult to quantify this. Nonetheless, it is probably safe to say that most models have uncertainty sufficiently large such that the true dose or risk delivered by residual radioactivity at the DCGL is very likely to be lower than the

release criterion. This is an additional consideration for setting the value of α, that could support the use of larger values in some situations. In this case, one would prospectively address, as part of the DQO process, the magnitude, significance, and potential consequences of decision errors at values above the release criterion. The assumptions made in any model used to predict DCGLs for a site should be examined carefully to determine if the use of site specific parameters results in large changes in the DCGLs, or whether a site-specific model should be developed rather than designing a survey around DCGLs that may be too conservative.

- The risk of making the second type of decision error, β, is the risk of requiring additional remediation when a survey unit already meets the release criterion. Unlike the health risk, the cost associated with this type of error may be highly non-linear. The costs will depend on whether the survey unit has already had remediation work performed on it, and the type of residual radioactivity present. There may be a threshold below which the remediation cost rises very rapidly. If so, a low value for β is appropriate at that threshold value. This is primarily an issue for survey units that have a substantial likelihood of falling at or above the gray region for residual radioactivity. For survey units that are very lightly contaminated, or have been so thoroughly remediated that any residual radioactivity is expected to be far below the DCGL, larger values of β may be appropriate especially if final status survey sampling costs are a concern. Again, it is important to examine the probability of deciding that the survey unit does not meet the release criterion over the entire range of possible residual radioactivity values, below as well as above the gray region.
- Lower decision error rates may be possible if alternative sampling and analysis techniques can be used that result in higher precision. The same might be achieved with moderate increases in sample sizes. These alternatives should be explored before accepting higher design error rates. However, in some circumstances, such as high background variations, lack of a radionuclide specific technique, and/or radionuclides that are very difficult and expensive to quantify, error rates that are lower than the uncertainties in the dose or risk estimates may be neither cost effective nor necessary for adequate radiation protection.

None of the above discussion is meant to suggest that under any circumstances a less than rigorous, thorough, and professional approach to final status surveys would be satisfactory. The decisions made and the rationale for making these decisions should be thoroughly documented.

For Class 1 Survey Units, the number of samples may be driven more by the need to detect small areas of elevated activity than by the requirements of the statistical tests. This in turn will depend primarily on the sensitivity of available scanning instrumentation, the size of the area of elevated activity, and the dose or risk model. A given concentration of residual radioactivity spread over a smaller area will, in general, result in a smaller dose or risk. Thus, the $DCGL_{EMC}$ used for the elevated measurement comparison is usually larger than the $DCGL_W$ used for the statistical test. In some cases, especially radionuclides that deliver dose or risk primarily via internal pathways,

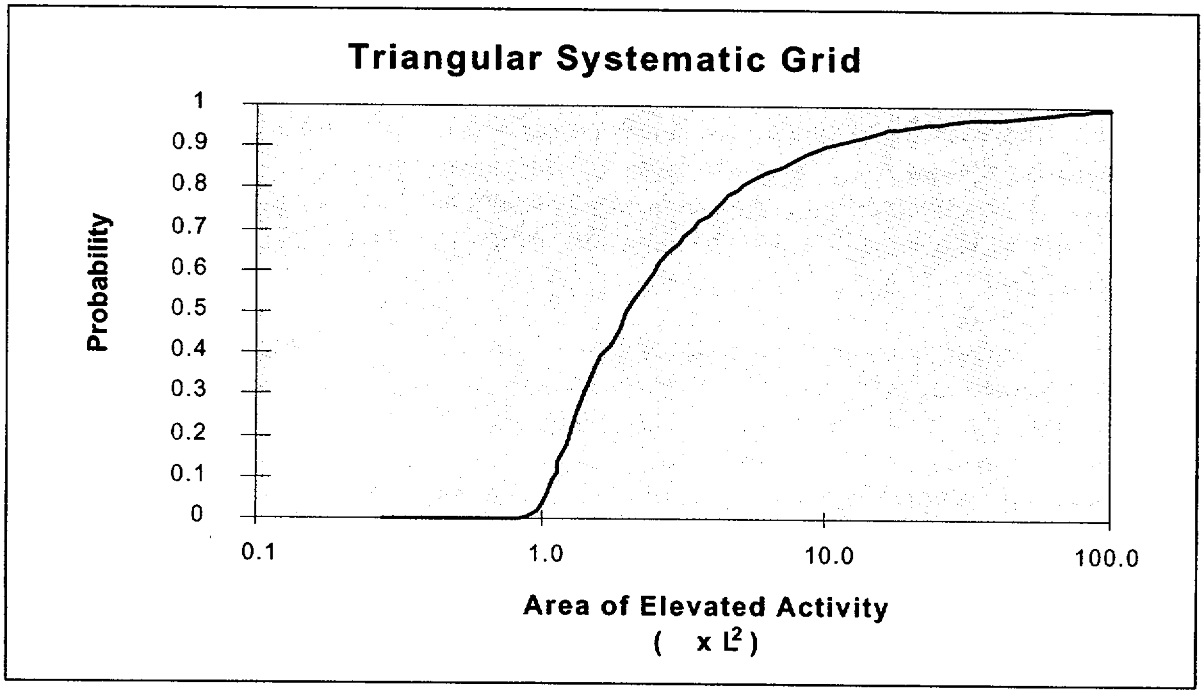
dose or risk is approximately proportional to inventory, and so the difference in the DCGLs is approximately proportional to the areas.

However, this may not be the case for radionuclides that deliver a significant portion of the dose or risk via external exposure. The exact relationship between the $DCGL_{EMC}$ and the $DCGL_W$ is a complicated function of the dose or risk modeling pathways, but area factors to relate the two DCGLs can be tabulated for most radionuclides (see Chapter 5), and site-specific area factors can also be developed.

For many radionuclides, scanning instrumentation is readily available that is sensitive enough to detect residual radioactivity concentrations at the $DCGL_{EMC}$ derived for the sampling grid of direct measurements used in the statistical tests. Where instrumentation of sufficient sensitivity (MDC, see Chapter 6) is not available, the number of samples in the survey unit can be increased until the area between sampling points is small enough (and the resulting area factor is large enough) that $DCGL_{EMC}$ can be detected by scanning. The details of this process are discussed in Chapter 5. For some radionuclides (*e.g.*, ^{3}H) the scanning sensitivity is so low that this process would never terminate—*i.e.*, the number of samples required could increase without limit. Thus, an important part of the DQO process is to determine the smallest size of an area of elevated activity that it is important to detect, A_{min} , and an acceptable level of risk , R_A , that it may go undetected. The probability of sampling a circular area of size A with either a square or triangular sampling pattern is shown in Figure D.7. The ELIPGRID-PC (Davidson 1995) computer code can also be used to calculate these probabilities.

In this part of the DQO process, the concern is less with areas of elevated activity that are found than with providing adequate assurance that negative scanning results truly demonstrate the absence of such areas. In selecting acceptable values for A_{min} and R_A, maximum use of information from the HSA and all surveys prior to the final status surveys should be used to determine what sort of areas of elevated activity could possibly exist, their potential size and shape, and how likely they are to exist. When the detection limit of the scanning technique is very large relative to the $DCGL_{EMC}$, the number of measurements estimated to demonstrate compliance using the statistical tests may become unreasonably large. In this situation an evaluation of the survey objectives and considerations be performed. These considerations may include the survey design and measurement methodology, exposure pathway modeling assumptions and parameter values used to determine the DCGLs, Historical Site Assessment conclusions concerning source terms and radionuclide distributions, and the results of scoping and characterization surveys. In most cases the results of this evaluation is not expected to justify an unreasonably large number of measurements.

A convenient method for visualizing the decision rule is to graph the probability of deciding that the survey unit does not meet the release criterion, *i.e.*, that the null hypothesis of Scenario A is accepted. An example of such a chart is shown in Figure D.8.



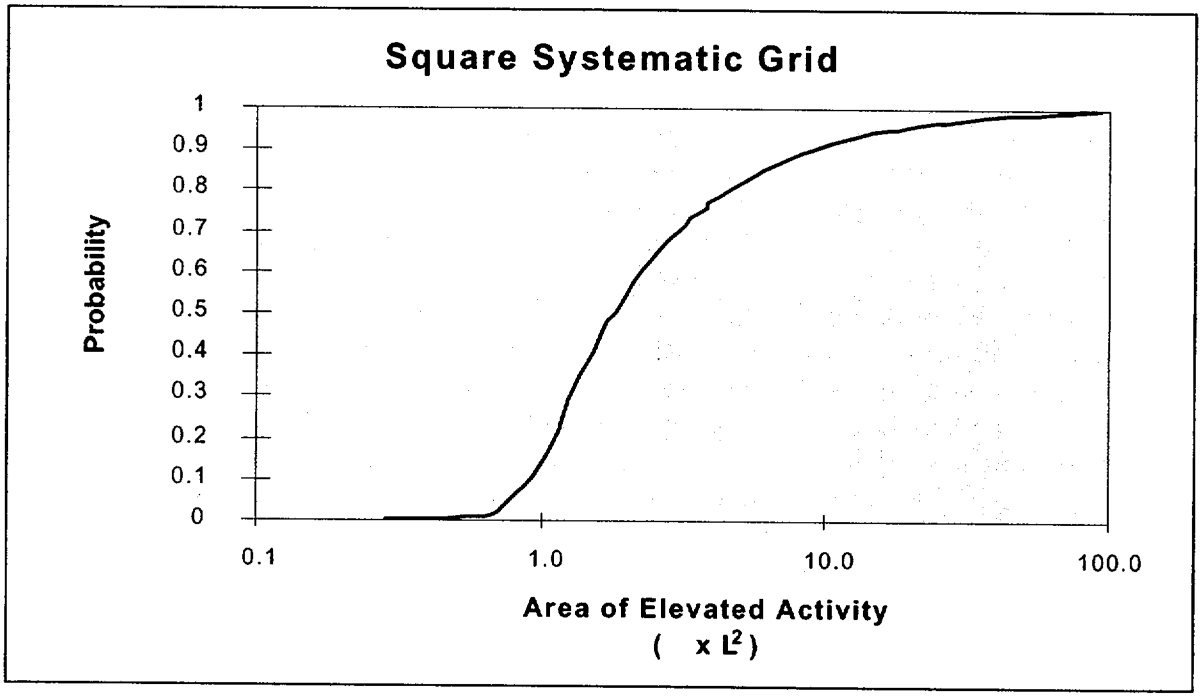


Figure D.7 Geometric Probability of Sampling at Least One Point of an Area of Elevated Activity as a Function of Sample Density with Either a Square or Triangular Sampling Pattern

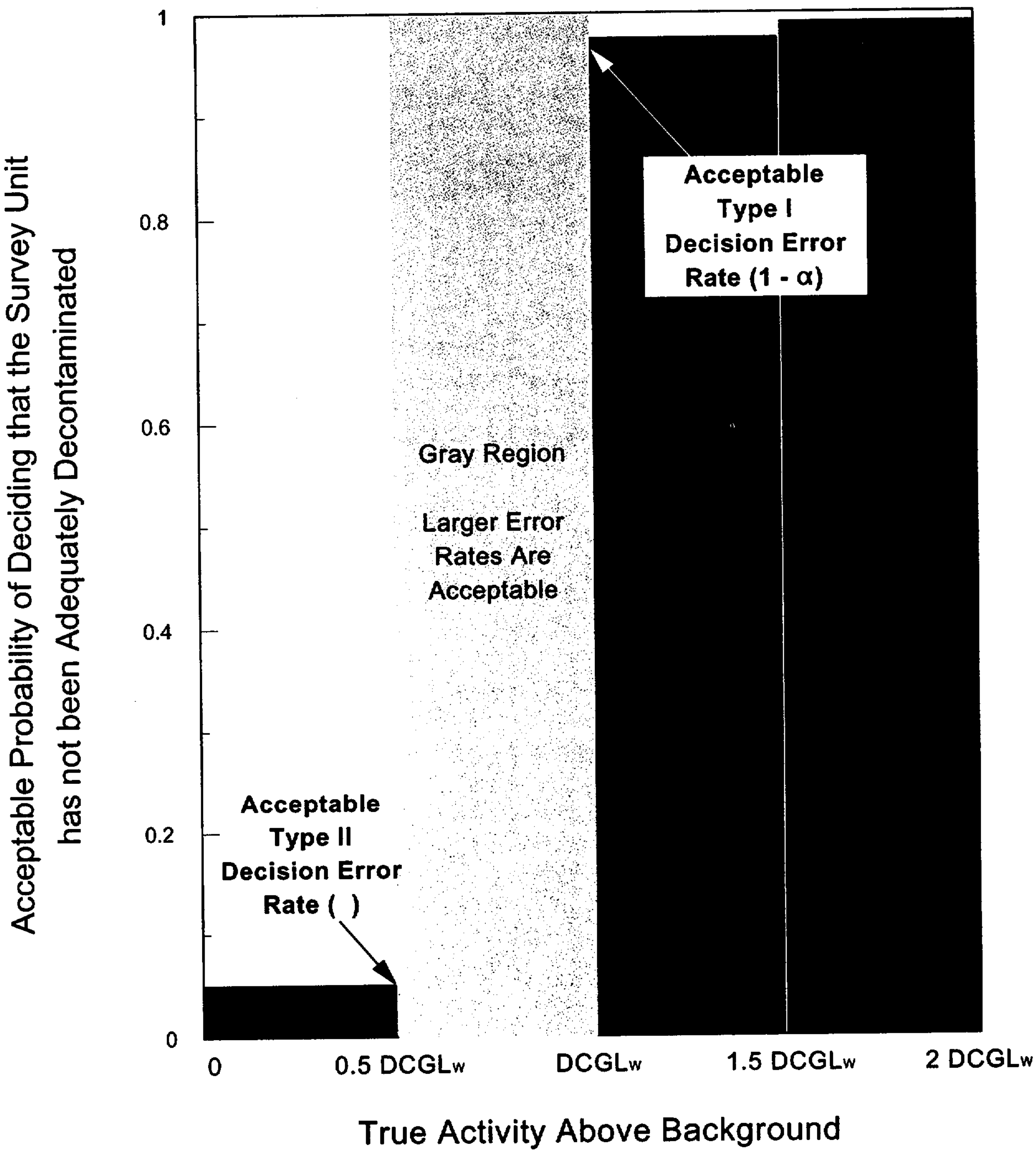


Figure D.8 Example of a Power Chart Illustrating the Decision Rule for the Final Status Survey

In this example α is 0.025 and β is 0.05, providing an expected power (1-β) of 0.95 for the test. A second method for presenting the information is shown in Figure D.9. This figure shows the probability of making a decision error for possible values of the parameter of interest, and is referred to as an error chart. In both examples a gray region, where the consequences of decision errors are deemed to be relatively minor, is shown. These charts are used in the final step of the DQO Process, combined with the outputs from the previous steps, to produce an efficient and cost-effective survey design. It is clear that setting acceptable values for α and β, as well as determining an appropriate gray region, is a crucial step in the DQO Process. Instructions for creating a prospective power curve, which can also be used to visualize the decision rule, are provided in Appendix I.

After the survey design is implemented, the expected values of α and β determined in this step are compared to the actual significance level and power of the statistical test based on the measurement results during the assessment phase of the Data Life Cycle. This comparison is used to verify that the objectives of the survey have been achieved.

EPA QA/G-9 (EPA 1996a) discusses considerations for selecting a particular null hypothesis. Because of the basic hypothesis testing philosophy, the null hypothesis is generally specified in terms of the *status quo* (*e.g.*, no change or action will take place if the null hypothesis is not rejected). Also, since the classical hypothesis testing approach exercises direct control over the Type I (false positive) error rate, this rate is generally associated with the error of most concern. In the case of the null hypothesis in which the residual radioactivity in the survey unit exceeds the release criterion, a Type I decision error would conclude that the residual activity was less than the release criterion when in fact it was above the release criterion. One difficulty, therefore, may be obtaining a consensus on which error should be of most concern (i.e., releasing a site where the residual activity exceeds the release criterion or failing to release a site where the residual activity is less than the release criterion). It is likely that the regulatory agency's public health-based protection viewpoint will differ from the viewpoint of the regulated party. The ideal approach is not only to define the null hypothesis in such a way that the Type I decision error protects human health and the environment but also in a way that encourages quality (high precision and accuracy) and minimizes expenditure of resources in situations where decisions are relatively "easy" (*e.g.*, all observations are far below the threshold level of interest or DCGL).

To avoid excessive expense in performing measurements, compromises are sometimes necessary. For example, suppose that a significance level (α) of 0.05 is to be used. However, the affordable sample size may be expected to yield a test with power (β) of only 0.40 at some specified parameter value chosen to have practical significance. One possible compromise may be to relax the Type I decision error rate (α) and use a value of 0.10, 0.15, or even 0.20. By relaxing the Type I decision error rate, a higher power (*i.e.*, a lower Type II decision error rate) can be achieved. An argument can be made that survey designs should be developed and number of measurements determined in such a way that both the Type I (α) and Type II (β) decision error rates are treated simultaneously and in a balanced manner (i.e., $\alpha = \beta = 0.15$). This approach of

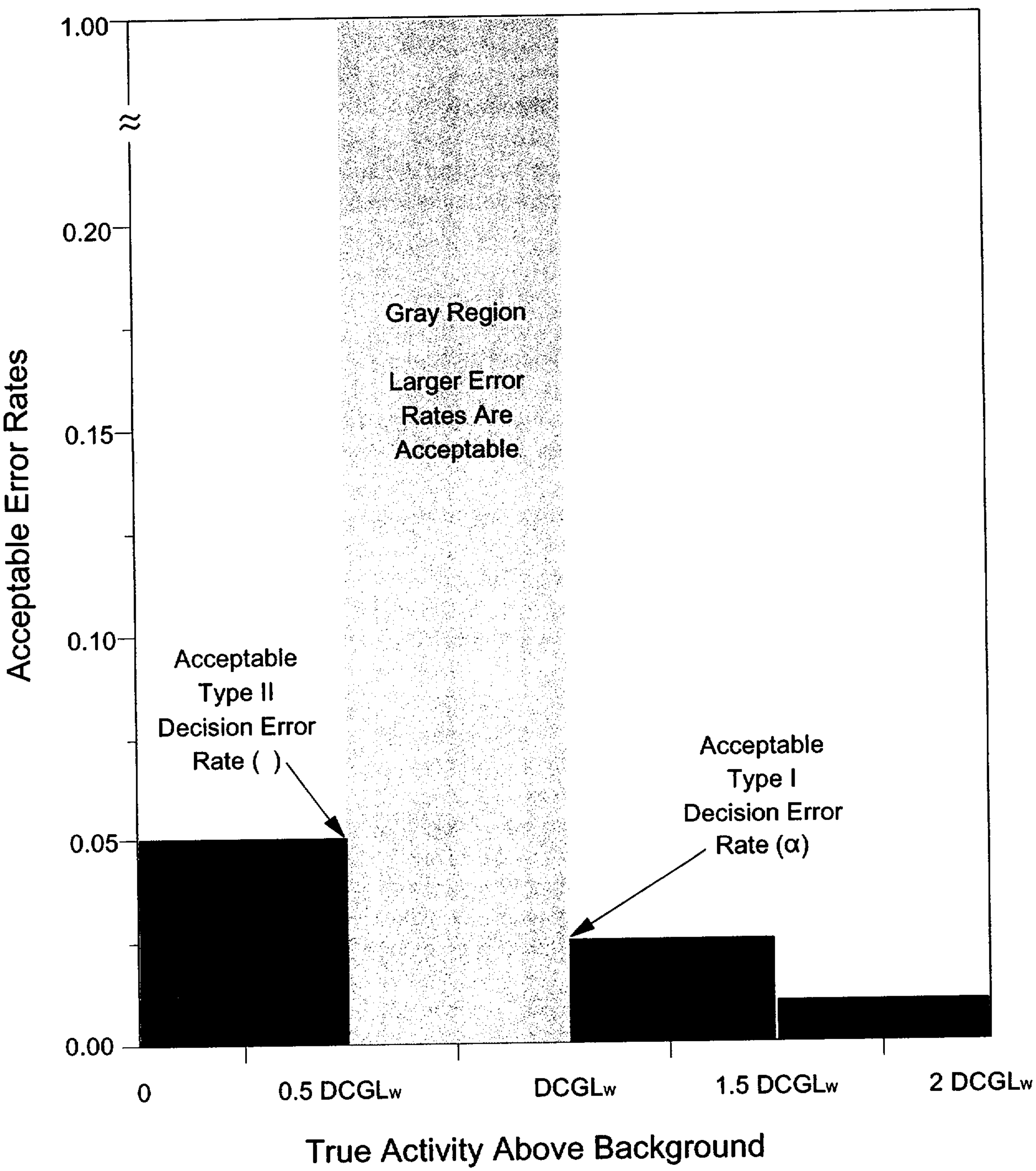


Figure D.9 Example of an Error Chart Illustrating the Decision Rule for the Final Status Survey

treating the Type I and Type II decision error rates simultaneously is taken by the DQO Process. It is recommended that several different values for α and β be investigated before specific values are selected.

D.7 Optimize the Design for Collecting Data

This step is designed to produce the most resource-effective survey design that is expected to meet the DQOs. It may be necessary to work through this step more than once after revisiting previous steps in the DQO Process.

There are six activities included in this step:

- Reviewing the DQO outputs and existing environmental data to ensure they are internally consistent.
- Developing general data collection design alternatives. Chapter 5 describes random and systematic sampling designs recommended for final status surveys based on survey unit classification.
- Formulating the mathematical expressions needed to solve the design problem for each data collection design alternative.
- Selecting the optimal design that satisfies the DQOs for each data collection design alternative. If the recommended design will not meet the limits on decision errors within the budget or other constraints, then the planning team will need to relax one or more constraints. Examples include:
    a. increasing the budget for sampling and analysis
    b. using exposure pathway modeling to develop site-specific DCGLs
    c. increasing the decision error rates, not forgetting to consider the risks associated with making an incorrect decision
    d. increasing the width of the gray region by decreasing the LBGR
    e. relaxing other project constraints—*e.g.*, schedule
    f. changing the boundaries—it may be possible to reduce measurement costs by changing or eliminating survey units that will require different decisions
    g. evaluating alternative measurement techniques with lower detection limits or lower survey costs
    h. considering the use of passive controls when releasing the survey unit rather than unrestricted release
- Selecting the most resource-effective survey design that satisfies all of the DQOs. Generally, the survey designs described in Chapter 5 will be acceptable for demonstrating compliance. Atypical sites (*e.g.*, mixed-waste sites) may require the planning team to consider alternative survey designs on a site-specific basis.

- Documenting the operational details and theoretical assumptions of the selected design in the QAPP, the field sampling plan, the sampling and analysis plan, or the decommissioning plan. All of the decisions that will be made based on the data collected during the survey should be specified along with the alternative actions that may be adopted based on the survey results.

Chapters 4 and 5 present a framework for a final status survey design. When this framework is combined with the site-specific DQOs developed using the guidance in this section, the survey design should be acceptable for most sites. The key inputs to Chapters 4 and 5 are:

- investigation levels and DCGLs for each radionuclide of interest
- acceptable measurement techniques for scanning, sampling, and direct measurements, including detection limits and estimated survey costs
- identification and classification of survey units
- an estimate of the variability in the distribution of residual radioactivity for each survey unit, and in the reference area if necessary
- the decision maker's acceptable *a priori* values for decision error rates (α and β)

APPENDIX E

THE ASSESSMENT PHASE OF THE DATA LIFE CYCLE

The assessment phase of the Data Life Cycle includes verification and validation of the survey data and assessment of quality of the data. Data verification is used to ensure that the requirements stated in the planning documents are implemented as prescribed. Data validation is used to ensure that the results of the data collection activities support the objectives of the survey as documented in the Quality Assurance Project Plan (QAPP), or permit a determination that these objectives should be modified. Data Quality Assessment (DQA) is the scientific and statistical evaluation of data to determine if the data are of the right type, quality, and quantity to support their intended use (EPA 1996a). DQA helps complete the Data Life Cycle by providing the assessment needed to determine that the planning objectives are achieved. Figure E.1 illustrates where data verification, data validation and DQA fit into the Assessment Phase of the Data Life Cycle.

There are five steps in the DQA Process:

- Review the Data Quality Objectives (DQOs) and Survey Design
- Conduct a Preliminary Data Review
- Select the Statistical Test
- Verify the Assumptions of the Statistical Test
- Draw Conclusions from the Data

These five steps are presented in a linear sequence, but the DQA process is applied in an iterative fashion much like the DQO process. The strength of the DQA process is that it is designed to promote an understanding of how well the data will meet their intended use by progressing in a logical and efficient manner.

E.1 Review DQOs and Survey Design

The DQA process begins by reviewing the key outputs from the Planning phase of the Data Life Cycle that are recorded in the planning documents (*e.g.*, the QAPP). The DQOs provide the context for understanding the purpose of the data collection effort. They also establish qualitative and quantitative criteria for assessing the quality of the data set for the intended use. The survey design (documented in the QAPP) provides important information about how to interpret the data.

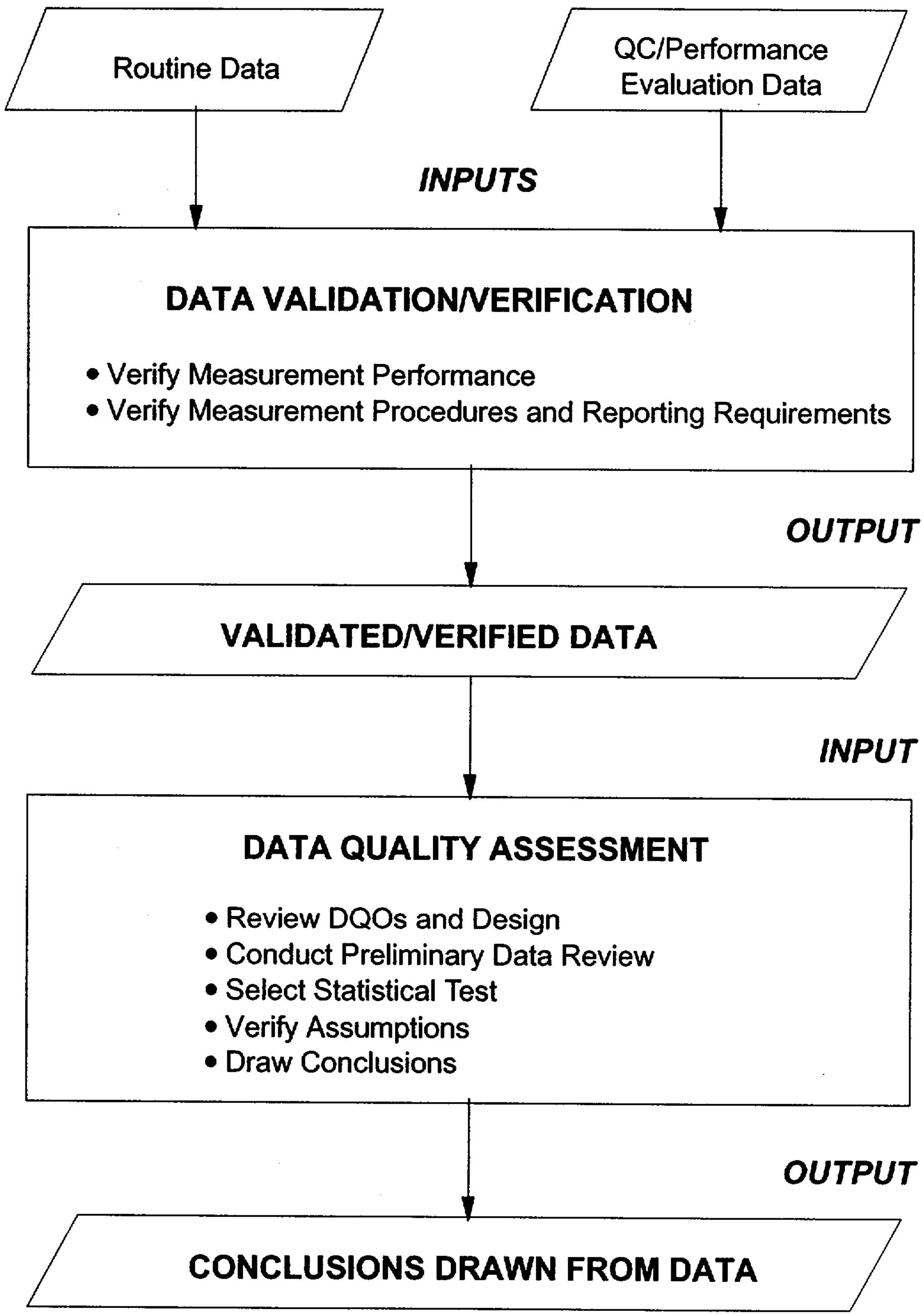


Figure E.1 The Assessment Phase of the Data Life Cycle (EPA 1996a)

There are three activities associated with this step in the DQA process:

- Translating the data user's objectives into a statement of the hypotheses to be tested using environmental data. These objectives should be documented as part of the DQO Process, and this activity is reduced to translating these objectives into the statement of hypotheses. If DQOs have not been developed, which may be the case for historical data, review Appendix D for assistance in developing these objectives.

- Translating the objectives into limits on the probability of committing Type I or Type II decision errors. Appendix D, Section D.6 provides guidance on specifying limits on decision errors as part of the DQO process.

- Reviewing the survey design and noting any special features or potential problems. The goal of this activity is to familiarize the analyst with the main features of the survey design used to generate the environmental data. Review the survey design documentation (*e.g.*, the QAPP) with the data user's objectives in mind. Look for design features that support or contradict these objectives.

For the final status survey, this step would consist of a review of the DQOs developed using Appendix D and the QAPP developed in Chapter 9.

E.2 Conduct a Preliminary Data Review

In this step of the DQA process, the analyst conducts a preliminary evaluation of the data set, calculating some basic statistical quantities and looking at the data through graphical representations. By reviewing the data both numerically and graphically, the analyst can learn the "structure" of the data and thereby identify appropriate approaches and limitations for their use.

This step includes three activities:

- reviewing quality assurance reports
- calculating statistical quantities (*e.g.*, relative standing, central tendency, dispersion, shape, and association)
- graphing the data (*e.g.*, histograms, scatter plots, confidence intervals, ranked data plots, quantile plots, stem-and-leaf diagrams, spatial or temporal plots)

Chapter 8 discusses the application of these activities to a final status survey.

E.3 Select the Statistical Test

The statistical tests presented in Chapter 8 are applicable for most sites contaminated with radioactive material. Chapter 2 discusses the rationale for selecting the statistical methods recommended for the final status survey in more detail. Additional guidance on selecting alternate statistical methods can be found in Section 2.6 and in EPA's DQA guidance document (EPA 1995).

E.4 Verify the Assumptions of the Statistical Test

In this step, the analyst assesses the validity of the statistical test by examining the underlying assumptions in light of the environmental data. The key questions to be resolved are: "Do the data support the underlying assumptions of the test?", and: "Do the data suggest that modifications to the statistical analysis are warranted?"

The underlying assumptions for the statistical tests are discussed in Section 2.5. Graphical representations of the data, such as those described in Section 8.2 and Appendix I, can provide important qualitative information about the validity of the assumptions. Documentation of this step is always important, especially when professional judgement plays a role in accepting the results of the analysis.

There are three activities included in this step:

- Determining the approach for verifying assumptions. For this activity, determine how the assumptions of the hypothesis test will be verified, including assumptions about distributional form, independence, dispersion, type, and quantity of data. Chapter 8 discusses methods for verifying assumptions for the final status survey statistical test during the preliminary data review.

- Performing tests of the assumptions. Perform the calculations selected in the previous activity for the statistical tests. Guidance on performing the tests recommended for the final status survey are included in Chapter 8.

- Determining corrective actions (if any). Sometimes the assumptions underlying the hypothesis test will not be satisfied and some type of corrective action should be performed before proceeding. In some cases, the data for verifying some key assumption may not be available and existing data may not support the assumption. In this situation, it may be necessary to collect new data, transform the data to correct a problem with the distributional assumptions, or select an alternate hypothesis test. Section 9.3 discusses potential corrective actions.

E.5 Draw Conclusions from the Data

The final step of the DQA process is performing the statistical test and drawing conclusions that address the data user's objectives. The procedure for implementing the statistical test is included in Chapter 8.

There are three activities associated with this final step:

- Performing the calculations for the statistical hypothesis test (see Chapter 8).

- Evaluating the statistical test results and drawing the study conclusions. The results of the statistical test will be either accept the null hypothesis, or reject the null hypothesis.

- Evaluating the performance of the survey design if the design is to be used again. If the survey design is to be used again, either in a later phase of the current study or in a similar study, the analyst will be interested in evaluating the overall performance of the design. To evaluate the survey design, the analyst performs a statistical power analysis that describes the estimated power of the test over the full range of possible parameter values. This helps the analyst evaluate the adequacy of the sampling design when the true parameter value lies in the vicinity of the action level (which may not have been the outcome of the current study). It is recommended that a statistician be consulted when evaluating the performance of a survey design for future use.

APPENDIX F

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE RADIATION SURVEY AND SITE INVESTIGATION PROCESS, THE CERCLA REMEDIAL OR REMOVAL PROCESS, AND THE RCRA CORRECTIVE ACTION PROCESS

This appendix presents a discussion of the relationship between the Radiation Survey and Site Investigation Process, the Comprehensive Environmental Response, Compensation, and Liability Act (CERCLA) Remedial or Removal Process, and the Resource Conservation and Recovery Act (RCRA) Corrective Action Process. Each of these processes has been designed to incorporate survey planning using the Data Quality Objectives (DQO) Process and data interpretation using Data Quality Assessment (DQA) using a series of surveys to accomplish the project objectives. At this basic level, MARSSIM is consistent with the other processes.

Figure F.1 illustrates the relationship between the major steps in each of these processes. As shown in Figure F.1, the scope of MARSSIM (Section 1.1) results in steps in the CERCLA Remedial or Removal Process and the RCRA Process that are not directly addressed by MARSSIM (*e.g.*, Feasibility Study or Corrective Measure Study). MARSSIM's focus on the demonstration of compliance for sites with residual radioactivity using a final status survey integrates with the remedial design/remedial action (RD/RA) step of the CERCLA Remedial Process described in Sec. 300.435(b)(1) of Part 40 of the Code of Federal Regulations. However, MARSSIM's focus is not directly addressed by the major steps of the CERCLA Removal Process or the RCRA Corrective Action Process.

Much of the guidance presented in MARSSIM for designing surveys and assessing the survey results is taken directly from the corresponding CERCLA or RCRA guidance. MARSSIM users familiar with the Superfund Preliminary Assessment guidance (EPA 1991f) will recognize the guidance provided on performing the Historical Site Assessment (Chapter 3) for identifying potentially contaminated soil, water, or sediment. In addition, MARSSIM provides guidance for identifying potentially contaminated structures which is not covered in the original CERCLA guidance. The survey designs and statistical tests for relatively uniform distributions of residual radioactivity discussed in MARSSIM are also discussed in CERCLA guidance (EPA 1989a, EPA 1994b). However, MARSSIM includes scanning for radioactive materials which isn't discussed in the more general CERCLA guidance that doesn't specifically address radionuclides. MARSSIM is not designed to replace or conflict with existing CERCLA or RCRA guidance, it is designed to provide supplemental guidance for specific applications of the CERCLA Remedial or Removal Process or the RCRA Corrective Action Process.

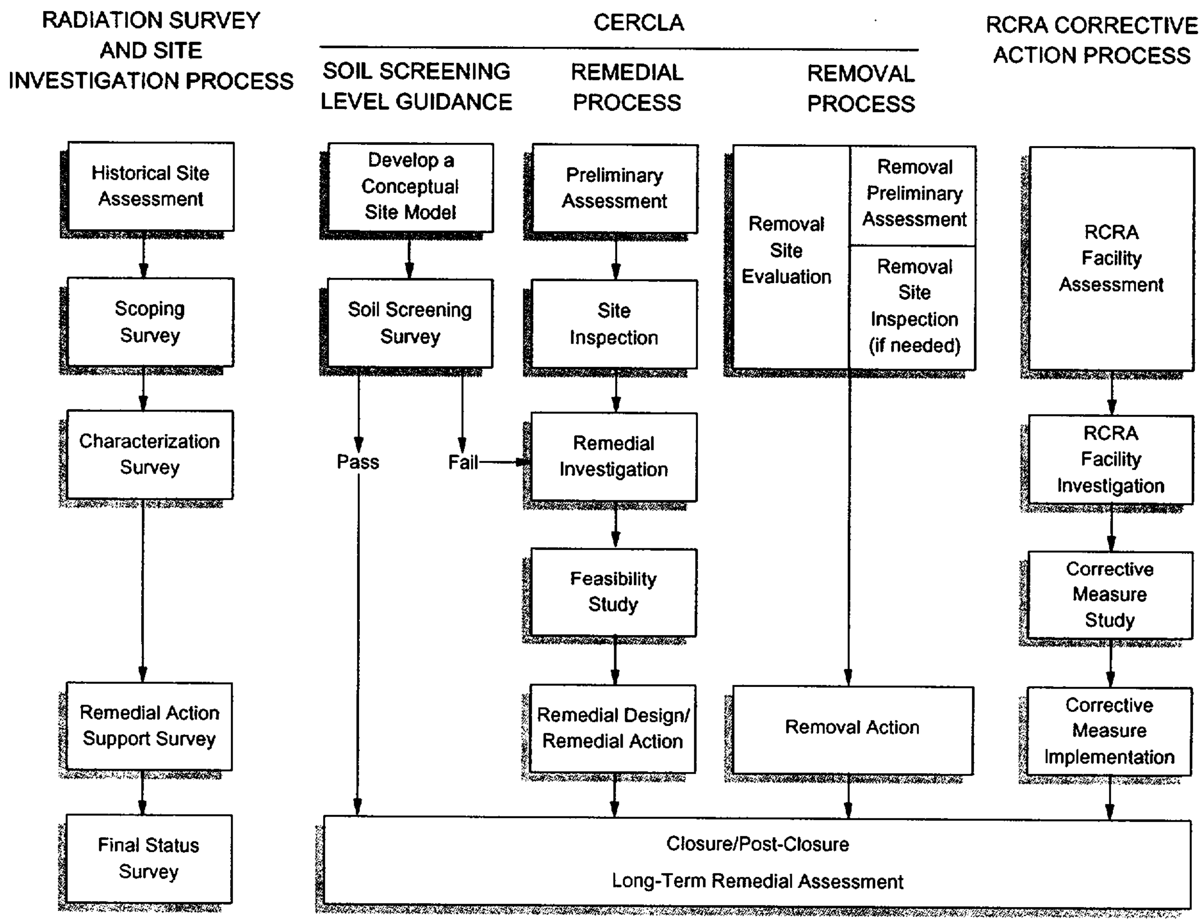


Figure F.1 Comparison of the Radiation Survey and Site Investigation Process with the CERCLA Superfund Process and the RCRA Corrective Action Process

Table F.1 lists the major steps in MARSSIM and other CERCLA and RCRA processes and describes the objectives of each step. This table provides a direct comparison of these processes, and it shows the correlation between the processes. This correlation is the result of carefully integrating CERCLA and RCRA guidance with guidance from other agencies participating in the development of MARSSIM to produce a multi-agency consensus document.

The first step in the CERCLA Remedial Process is the preliminary assessment to obtain existing information about the site and determine if there is a threat to human health and the environment. The next step is the site inspection which includes risk prioritization using the Hazard Ranking System—sites with a score above a certain level are put on the National Priorities List (NPL). Following the site assessment, the remedial investigation (RI) is performed to characterize the

extent and type of release, and to evaluate the risk to human health and the environment. A Sampling and Analysis Plan is constructed as part of the remedial investigation which consists of a Quality Assurance Project Plan, a Field Sampling Plan, a Health and Safety Plan, and a Community Relations Plan. The site feasibility study (FS) is the next step in the CERCLA Remedial Process (although the RI and FS are intended to be done concurrently) which involves an evaluation of alternative remedial actions. For sites listed on the NPL the next action would be to obtain a Record of Decision (ROD) which provides the remedy selected for the site. The remedial design/remedial action (RD/RA), which includes the development of the selected remedy and its implementation, follows development of the ROD. After the RD/RA activities there is a period of operation and maintenance when the site is given a long term remedial assessment followed by closure/post-closure of the site (or removal from the NPL). A removal action may occur at any stage of the CERCLA Remedial Process.

The CERCLA Removal Process is similar to the Remedial Process for the first few steps. 40 CFR 300.400 (NCP Subpart E—Hazardous Substance Response) establishes methods and criteria for determining the extent of response when there is a release into the environment of a hazardous substance or any pollutant or contaminant that may present an imminent and substantial danger to the public health or welfare of the United States. The first step in the Removal Process is a removal site evaluation which includes a removal preliminary assessment and, if warranted, a removal site inspection. A removal preliminary assessment may be based on available information and should include an evaluation of the factors necessary to make the determination of whether a removal is necessary. A removal site inspection is performed, if warranted, in a similar manner as in the CERCLA Remedial Process. If environmental samples are to be collected, a sampling and analysis plan should be developed which consists of a field sampling plan and a quality assurance project plan. Post-removal site controls are those activities necessary to sustain the effectiveness and integrity of the removal action. In the case of all CERCLA removal actions taken pursuant to 300.415, a designated spokesperson will inform the community of actions taken, respond to inquiries, and provide information concerning the release—this may include a formal community relations plan specifying the community relations activities expected during the removal response.

Comparisons have been made between the CERCLA Remedial Process and CERCLA Removal Process (EPA, 1993c). Table F.2 presents the data elements that are common to both programs and those that are generally common to one program rather than the other. Table F.3 shows the emphasis placed on sampling for remedial site assessment versus removal site assessment.

Another guidance document that can be compared to MARSSIM is the Soil Screening Guidance (EPA 1996b, EPA 1996c), which facilitates removing sites from consideration early in the CERCLA Process. Although not written to specifically address radioactive contaminants, the Soil Screening Guidance leads the user from the initial site conceptualization and planning stages through data collection and evaluation to the final testing step. MARSSIM also leads the user through similar planning, evaluation, and testing stages, but the guidance focuses on the final compliance demonstration step.

The Soil Screening Guidance provides a way to calculate risk-based, site-specific, soil screening levels (SSLs) for contaminants in soil. SSLs can be used as preliminary remediation goals (PRGs) if the conditions found at a specific site are similar to the conditions assumed in calculating the SSLs.

Both the Soil Screening Guidance and MARSSIM provide examples of acceptable sampling and analysis plans (SAP) for site contaminants. The Soil Screening Guidance recommended default survey design for surface soils is very specific—recommendations for the grid size for sampling, the number of soil samples collected from each subarea and composited, and data analysis and interpretation techniques are described in detail. MARSSIM provides guidance that is consistent and compatible with the Soil Screening Guidance with respect to the approaches, framework, tools, and overall objectives.

SSLs calculated using the CERCLA Soil Screening Guidance could also be used for RCRA Corrective Action sites as action levels. The RCRA Corrective Action program views action levels as generally fulfilling the same purpose as soil screening levels. Table F.1 shows other similarities between the RCRA Corrective Action Process, CERCLA Remedial or Removal Process, and MARSSIM.

The similarities between the CERCLA Remedial Process and Removal Process have led to a number of streamlined approaches to expedite site cleanups by reducing sampling and preventing duplication of effort. One example of these approaches is the Superfund Accelerated Cleanup Model (SACM) where the concept of integrating the removal and remedial site assessment was introduced (EPA, 1993c). A memorandum from EPA, DOE, and DOD (August 22,1994) discusses guidance on accelerating and developing streamlined approaches for the cleanup of hazardous waste at federal facility sites.

Table F.1 Program Comparison

MARSSIM	CERCLA REMEDIAL PROCESS	CERCLA REMOVAL PROCESS	RCRA
<u>Historical Site Assessment</u> Performed to gather existing information about radiation sites. Designed to distinguish between sites that possess no potential for residual radioactivity and those that require further investigation. Performed in three stages: 1) Site Identification 2) Preliminary Investigation 3) Site Reconnaissance	<u>Preliminary Assessment</u> Performed to gather existing information about the site and surrounding area. The emphasis is on obtaining comprehensive information on people and resources that might be threatened by a release from the site. Designed to distinguish between sites that pose little or no threat to human health and the environment and sites that require further investigation.	<u>Preliminary Assessment</u> Performed in a similar manner as in the CERCLA Remedial Process. The removal preliminary assessment may be based on available information. A removal preliminary assessment may include an identification of the source, nature and magnitude of the release, evaluation by ATSDR of the threat to public health, and evaluation of factors necessary to make the determination of whether a removal is necessary.	<u>Facility Assessment</u> Performed to identify and gather information at RCRA facilities, make preliminary determinations regarding releases of concern and identify the need for further actions and interim measures at the facility. Performed in three stages: 1) Preliminary Review 2) Visual Site Inspection 3) Sampling Visit (if necessary) The RCRA Facility Assessment accomplishes the same objectives as the Preliminary Assessment and Site Inspection under the Superfund Process. The RCRA Facility Assessment often forms the basis for the first conceptual model of the site.
<u>Scoping Survey</u> Performed to provide a preliminary assessment of the radiological hazards of the site. Supports classification of all or part of the site as Class 3 areas and identifying non-impacted areas of the site. Scoping surveys provide data to complete the site prioritization scoring process for CERCLA or RCRA sites.	<u>Site Inspection</u> Performed to identify the substances present, determine whether hazardous substances are being released to the environment, and determine whether hazardous substances have impacted specific targets. Designed to gather information on identified sites in order to complete the Hazard Ranking System to determine whether removal actions or further investigations are necessary.	<u>Site Inspection</u> Performed in a similar manner as in the Remedial Process. A removal site inspection may be performed as part of the removal site evaluation (§ 300.410) if warranted. A removal site inspection may include an perimeter or on-site inspection. If the removal site evaluation shows that removal is not required, but that remedial action under § 300.430 may be necessary, a remedial site evaluation pursuant to § 300.420 would be initiated.	

Table F.1 Program Comparison

MARSSIM	CERCLA REMEDIAL PROCESS	CERCLA REMOVAL PROCESS	RCRA
<u>Characterization Survey</u> Performed to support planning for final status surveys to demonstrate compliance with a dose- or risk-based regulation. Objectives include determining the nature and extent of contamination at the site, as well as meeting the requirements of RI/FS and FI/CMS.	<u>Remedial Investigation</u> Performed to characterize the extent and type of release of contaminants. The RI is the mechanism for collecting data to characterize site conditions, determine the nature of the waste, assess risk to human health and the environment, and conduct treatability testing as necessary to evaluate the potential performance and cost of the treatment technologies that are being considered. EPA guidance presents a combined RI/FS Model Statement of Work. The RI is generally performed in seven tasks: 1) project planning (scoping): - summary of site location - history and nature of problem - history of regulatory and response actions - preliminary site boundary - development of site operations plans 2) field investigations 3) sample/analysis verification 4) data evaluation 5) assessment of risks 6) treatability study/pilot testing 7) RI reporting	<u>Removal Action</u> Performed once the decision has been made to conduct a removal action at the site (under § 300.415). Whenever a planning period of at least six months exists before on-site activities must be initiated, an engineering evaluation/cost analysis or its equivalent is conducted. If environmental samples are to be collected, a sampling and analysis plan is developed to provide a process for obtaining data of sufficient quality and quantity to satisfy data needs. The sampling and analysis plan consists of: 1) The field sampling plan, which describes the number, type, and location of samples and the type of analysis 2) The quality assurance project plan, which describes policy, organization, and functional activities and the data quality objectives and measures necessary to achieve adequate data for use in removal actions.	<u>Facility Investigation</u> Defines the presence, magnitude, extent, direction, and rate of movement of any hazardous wastes and hazardous constituents within and beyond the facility boundary. The scope is to : 1) characterize the potential pathways of contaminant migration 2) characterize the source(s) of contamination 3) define the degree and extent of contamination 4) identify actual or potential receptors 5) support the development of alternatives from which a corrective measure will be selected by the EPA The Facility Investigation is performed in seven tasks: 1) description of current conditions 2) identification of preliminary remedial measures technologies 3) FI work plan requirements - project management plan - data collection QAPP - data management plan - health and safety plan - community relations plan 4) facility investigation 5) investigation analysis 6) laboratory and bench-scale studies 7) reports

Table F.1 Program Comparison

MARSSIM	CERCLA REMEDIAL PROCESS	CERCLA REMOVAL PROCESS	RCRA
<u>DCGLs</u> Residual levels of radioactive material that correspond to allowable radiation dose standards are calculated (derived concentration guideline levels) and provided to the user. The survey unit is then evaluated against this radionuclide-specific DCGL. The DCGLs in this manual are for structure surfaces and soil contamination. MARSSIM does not provide equations or guidance for calculating DCGLs.	<u>PRGs</u> Preliminary remediation goals are developed early in the RI/FS process. PRGs may then be used as the basis for final cleanup levels based on the nine criteria in the National Contingency Plan. Soil Screening Levels (SSLs) can be used as PRGs provided conditions at a specific site are similar to those assumed in calculating the SSLs. SSLs are derived with exposure assumptions for suburban residential land use only. SSLs are based on a 10^{-6} risk for carcinogens, a hazard index quotient of 1 for noncarcinogens (child ingestion assumptions), or MCLGs, MCLs, or HBLs for the migration to groundwater. The User's Guide provides equations and guidance for calculating site-specific SSLs.	<u>Removal Levels</u> The removal level is established by identification of applicable or relevant and appropriate requirements (ARARs), or by health assessments. Concern is for protection of human health and the environment from the immediate hazard of a release rather than a permanent remedy.	<u>Action Levels</u> At certain facilities subject to RCRA corrective action, contamination will be present at concentrations (action levels) that may not justify further study or remediation. Action levels are health- or environmental-based concentrations derived using chemical-specific toxicity information and standardized exposure assumptions. The SSLs developed under CERCLA guidance can be used as action levels since the RCRA corrective action program currently views them as serving the same purpose.

Table F.1 Program Comparison

MARSSIM	CERCLA REMEDIAL PROCESS	CERCLA REMOVAL PROCESS	RCRA
No Direct Correlation (MARSSIM characterization and remedial action support surveys may provide data to the Feasibility Study or the Corrective Measures Study)	<u>Feasibility Study</u> The FS serves as the mechanism for the development, screening, and detailed evaluation of alternative remedial actions. As noted above, the RI and the FS are intended to be performed concurrently. However, the FS is generally considered to be composed of four general tasks. These tasks are: 1) development and screening of remedial alternatives 2) detailed analysis of alternatives 3) community relations 4) FS reporting	No Direct Correlation	<u>Corrective Measures Study</u> The purpose of the CMS is to identify , develop, and evaluate potentially applicable corrective measures and to recommend the corrective measures to be taken. The CMS is performed following an FI and consists of the following four tasks: 1) identification and development of the corrective measures alternatives 2) evaluation of the corrective measures alternatives 3) justification and recommendations of the corrective measures alternatives 4) reports

Table F.1 Program Comparison

MARSSIM	CERCLA REMEDIAL PROCESS	CERCLA REMOVAL PROCESS	RCRA
<u>Remedial Action Support Survey</u> Performed to support remediation activities and determine when a site or survey unit is ready for the final status survey. These surveys monitor the effectiveness of decontamination efforts in reducing residual radioactivity to acceptable levels. Remedial action support surveys do not include routine operational surveys conducted to support remedial activities.	<u>Remedial Design/Remedial Action</u> This activity includes the development of the selected remedy and implementation of the remedy through construction. A period of operation and maintenance may follow the RD/RA activities. Generally, the RD/RA includes: 1) plans and specifications - preliminary design - intermediate design - prefinal/final design - estimated cost - correlation of plans and specifications - selection of appropriate RCRA facilities - compliance with requirements of other environmental laws - equipment startup and operator training 2) additional studies 3) operation and maintenance plan 4) QAPP 5) site safety plan	No Direct Correlation	<u>Corrective Measures Implementation</u> The purpose of the CMI is to design, construct, operate, maintain, and monitor the performance of the corrective measures selected in the CMS. The CMI consists of four activities: 1) Corrective Measure Implementation Program Plan 2) corrective measure design - design plans and specifications - operation and maintenance plan - cost estimate - schedule - construction QA objectives - health and safety plan - design phases 3) corrective measures construction (includes a construction QA program) 4) reporting
<u>Final Status Survey</u> Performed to demonstrate that residual radioactivity in each survey unit satisfies the release criterion.	<u>Long Term Remedial Assessment</u> Closure/Post-Closure NPL De-Listing	<u>Post-Removal Site Control</u> Those activities that are necessary to sustain the integrity of a removal action following its conclusion.	<u>Closure/Post-Closure</u>

Table F.2 Data Elements for Site Visits[a]

Data Elements Common to Both Remedial and Removal Assessment	Generally Remedial Site Assessment Only	Generally Removal Assessment Only
-Current human exposure identification -Sources identification, including locations, sizes, volumes -Information on substances present -Labels on drums and containers -Containment evaluation -Evidence of releases (*e.g.*, stained soils) -Locations of wells on site and in immediate vicinity -Nearby wetlands identification -Nearby land uses -Distance measurements or estimates for wells, land uses (residences and schools), surface waters, and wetlands -Public accessibility -Blowing soils and air contaminants -Photodocumentation -Site sketch	-Perimeter survey -Number of people within 200 feet -Some sensitive environments -Review all pathways	-Petroleum releases -Fire and explosion threat -Urgency of need for response -Response and treatment alternatives evaluation -Greater emphasis on specific pathways (*e.g.*, direct contact) -Sampling

[a]From EPA, 1993c

Table F.3 Comparison of Sampling Emphasis Between Remedial Site Assessment and Removal Assessment[a]

Remedial Site Assessment Emphasis	Removal Assessment Emphasis
-Attribution to the site -Background samples -Ground water samples -Grab samples from residential soils -Surface water sediment samples -HRS factors related to surface water sample locations -Fewer samples on average (10-30) than removal assessment -Strategic sampling for HRS -Contract Laboratory Program usage -Full screening organics and inorganics analyses -Definitive analyses -Documentation, including targets and receptors -Computing HRS scores -Standardized reports	-Sampling from containers -Physical characteristics of wastes -Treatability and other engineering concerns -On-site contaminated soils -Composite and grid sampling -Rapid turnaround on analytical services -Field/screening analyses -PRP-lead removal actions -Goal of characterizing site -Focus on NCP removal action criteria

[a]From EPA, 1993c

APPENDIX G

HISTORICAL SITE ASSESSMENT INFORMATION SOURCES

This appendix provides lists of information sources often useful to site assessment. The lists are organized in two ways:

- Table G.1, beginning on page G-2, identifies information needs by category and lists appropriate information sources for each. The categories are:

  - -- General site information, p. G-2
  - -- Source and waste characteristics, p. G-2
  - -- Ground water use and characteristics, p. G-3
  - -- Surface water use and characteristics, p. G-4
  - -- Soil exposure characteristics, p. G-5
  - -- Air characteristics, p. G- 6

- The reverse approach is provided in Table G.2, beginning on page G-7. Categories of information sources are listed with a brief explanation of the information provided by each source. A contact is provided for additional information. The categories are:

  - -- Databases, p. G-7
  - -- Maps and aerial photographs, p. G-13
  - -- Files, p. G-17
  - -- Expert and other sources, p. G-19

More complete listings of site assessment information sources are available in the *Site Assessment Information Directory* (EPA91e).

Table G.1 Site Assessment Information Sources (Organized by Information Needed)

General Site Information	
Site Location, Latitude/Longitude CERCLIS USGS Topographic Maps State Department of Transportation Maps Site Reconnaissance USGS Global Land Information System U.S. Census Bureau Tiger Mapping Services	*Type of Operation and Site Status* EPA Regional Libraries State Environmental Agency Files Site Reconnaissance
Owner/Operator Information EPA Regional Libraries State Environmental Agency Files Local Tax Assessor	*Environmental Setting, Size of Site* USGS Topographic Maps Aerial Photographs Site Reconnaissance
Source and Waste Characteristics	
Source Types, Locations, Sizes EPA Regional Libraries State Environmental Agency Files Aerial Photographs Site Reconnaissance DOE Field Offices	*Hazardous Substances Present* EPA Regional Libraries State Environmental Agency Files RCRIS Local Health Department Local Fire Department ERAMS Local Public Works Department
Waste Types and Quantities EPA Regional Office Files State Environmental Agency Files RCRIS Local Fire Department Aerial Photographs Site Reconnaissance Aerial Radiation Surveys	

Table G.1 Site Assessment Information Sources (continued)
(Organized by Information Needed)

Ground Water Use and Characteristics	
General Stratigraphy USGS Topographic Maps U.S. Geological Survey State Geological Surveys Geologic and Bedrock Maps Local Experts Local University or College	*Private and Municipal Wells* Local Water Authority Local Health Department Local Well Drillers State Environmental Agency Files WellFax WATSTORE
Karst Terrain USGS Topographic Maps U.S. Geological Survey State Geological Surveys Geologic and Bedrock Maps Local Experts Local University or College	*Distance to Nearest Drinking Water Well* USGS Topographic Maps Local Water Authority Local Well Drillers Local Health Department WellFax WATSTORE Site Reconnaissance
Depth to Aquifer U.S. Geological Survey State Geological Surveys Geologic and Bedrock Maps Local Experts Local Well Drillers WATSTORE	*Wellhead Protection Areas* State Environmental Agency Local Water Authority Local Well Drillers Local Health Department EPA Regional Water Officials

Table G.1 Site Assessment Information Sources (continued)
(Organized by Information Needed)

Surface Water Use and Characteristics	
Surface Water Body Types USGS Topographic Maps State Department of Transportation Maps Aerial Photographs Site Reconnaissance	*Drinking Water Intakes* Local Water Authority USGS Topographic Maps U.S. Army Corps of Engineers State Environmental Agency
Distance to Nearest Surface Water Body USGS Topographic Maps State Department of Transportation Aerial Photographs Site Reconnaissance	*Fisheries* U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service State Environmental Agency Local Fish and Wildlife Officials
Surface Water Flow Characteristics U.S. Geological Survey State Environmental Agency U.S. Army Corps of Engineers STORET WATSTORE	*Sensitive Environments* USGS Topographic Maps State Department of Transportation Maps State Environmental Agency U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service Local Fish and Wildlife Officials National Wetland Inventory Maps Ecological Inventory Maps Natural Heritage Program
Flood Frequency at the Site Federal Emergency Management Agency State Environmental Agency	

Table G.1 Site Assessment Information Sources (continued)
(Organized by Information Needed)

Soil Exposure Characteristics	
Number of People Living Within 200 Feet Site Reconnaissance USGS Topographic Maps Aerial Photographs U.S. Census Bureau Tiger Mapping Service	*Schools or Day Care Within 200 Feet* Site Reconnaissance USGS Topographic Maps Local Street Maps
Number of Workers Onsite Site Reconnaissance Owner/Operator Interviews	*Locations of Sensitive Environment* USGS Topographic State Department of Transportation Maps State Environmental Agency U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service Ecological Inventory Maps Natural Heritage Program

Table G.1 Site Assessment Information Sources (continued)
(Organized by Information Needed)

Air Pathway Characteristics	
Populations Within Four Miles GEMS NPDC USGS Topographic Maps Site Reconnaissance U.S. Census Bureau Tiger Mapping Services	*Locations of Sensitive Environments, Acreage of Wetlands* USGS Topographic Maps State Department of Transportation Maps State Environmental Agency U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service National Wetland Inventory Maps Ecological Inventory Maps Natural Heritage Program
Distance to Nearest Individual USGS Topographic Maps Site Reconnaissance	

Table G.2 Site Assessment Information Sources
(Organized by Information Source)

Databases	
Source:	CERCLIS (Comprehensive Environmental Response, Compensation, and Liability Information System)
Provides:	EPA's inventory of potential hazardous waste sites. Provides site name, EPA identification number, site address, and the date and types of previous investigations
Supports:	General Site Information
Contact:	U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Office of Solid Waste and Emergency Response Office of Emergency and Remedial Response Mike Cullen 703/603-8881 Fax 703/603-9133
Source:	RODS (Records of Decision System)
Provides:	Information on technology justification, site history, community participation, enforcement activities, site characteristics, scope and role of response action, and remedy.
Supports:	General Site Information, Source and Waste Characteristics
Contacts:	U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Office of Solid Waste and Emergency Response Office of Emergency and Remedial Response Mike Cullen 703/603-8881 Fax 703/603-9133

Table G.2 Site Assessment Information Sources (continued)
(Organized by Information Source)

Databases	
Source:	RCRIS (Resource Conservation and Recovery Information System)
Provides:	EPA's inventory of hazardous waste generators. Contains facility name, address, phone number, and contact name; EPA identification number; treatment, storage and disposal history; and date of notification.
Supports:	General Site Information, Source and Waste Characteristics
Contacts:	U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Office of Solid Waste and Emergency Response Office of Solid Waste Kevin Phelps 202/260-4697 Fax 202/260-0284
Source:	ODES (Ocean Data Evaluation System)
Provides:	Information associated with both marine and fresh water supplies with the following programs: •301(h) sewage discharge •National Pollutant Discharge Elimination System (NPDES) •Ocean Dumping •National Estuary Program •403c Industrial Discharge •Great Lakes Remedial Action Program •National Coastal Waters Program Houses a variety of data pertaining to water quality, oceanographic descriptions, sediment pollutants, physical/chemical characteristics, biological characteristics, and estuary information.
Supports:	General Site Information, Source and Waste Characteristics, Surface Water Use and Characteristics
Contact:	U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Office of Water Robert King 202/260-7026 Fax 202/260-7024

Table G.2 Site Assessment Information Sources (continued)
(Organized by Information Source)

Databases	
Source:	EMMI (Environmental Monitoring Methods Index)
Provides:	U.S. Environmental Protection Agency's official methods compendium. Serves as a source of standard analytical methods.
Supports:	General Site Information
Contact:	U.S. Environmental Protection Agency User Support 703/519-1222 Annual updates may be purchased from the National Technical Information Service at 703/487-4650
Source:	WellFax
Provides:	National Water Well Association's inventory of municipal and community water supplies. Identifies public and private wells within specified distances around a point location and the number of households served by each.
Supports:	Ground Water Use and Characteristics
Contact:	National Water Well Association (NWWA) 6375 Riverside Drive Dublin, OH 43017
Source:	Geographic Resources Information Data System (GRIDS)
Provides:	National access to commonly requested geographic data products such as those maintained by the U.S. Geologic Survey, the Bureau of the Census, and the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service.
Supports:	General Site Information, Ground Water Use and Characteristics, Surface Water Use and Characteristics, Soil Exposure Characteristics, Air Pathway Characteristics
Contact:	U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Office of Administration and Resources Management Office of Information Resources Management Bob Pease 703/235-5587 Fax 703/557-3186

Table G.2 Site Assessment Information Sources (continued)
(Organized by Information Source)

Databases	
Source:	National Planning Data Corporation (NPDC)
Provides:	Commercial database of U.S. census data. Provides residential populations in specified distance rings around a point location.
Supports:	Soil Exposure Characteristics, Air Pathway Characteristics
Contact:	National Planning Data Corporation 20 Terrace Hill Ithaca, NY 14850-5686
Source:	STORET (Storage and Retrieval of U.S. Waterways Parametric Data)
Provides:	EPA's repository of water quality data for waterways within the U.S. The system is capable of performing a broad range of reporting, statistical analysis, and graphics functions.
Supports:	Geographic and descriptive information on various waterways; analytical data from surface water, fish tissue, and sediment samples; stream flow data.
Contact:	U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Office of Water Office of Wetlands, Oceans, and Watersheds and Office of Information Resources Management Louie H. Hoelman 202/260-7050 Fax 202/260-7024

Table G.2 Site Assessment Information Sources (continued)
(Organized by Information Source)

Databases	
Source:	Federal Reporting Data System (FRDS)
Provides:	General information on public water supplies, including identification information, noncompliance related events, violations of the State Drinking Water Act, enforcement actions, identification of significant noncompliers, and information on variances, exemptions, and waivers.
Supports:	Ground Water Use and Characteristics, Surface Water Use and Characteristics
Contact:	U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Office of Water Office of Ground Water and Drinking Water Abe Seigel 202/260-2804 Fax 202/260-3464
Source:	WATSTORE
Provides:	U.S. Geological Survey's National Water Data Storage and Retrieval System. Administered by the Water Resources Division and contains the Ground Water Site Inventory file (GWSI). This provides physical, hydrologic, and geologic data about test holes, springs, tunnels, drains, ponds, other excavations, and outcrops.
Supports:	General Site Information, Ground Water Use and Characteristics, Surface Water Use and Characteristics
Contact:	U.S. Geological Surgery or USGS Regional Field Office 12201 Sunrise Valley Drive Reston, VA 22092

Table G.2 Site Assessment Information Sources (continued)
(Organized by Information Source)

Databases	
Source:	ISI (Information Systems Inventory)
Provides:	Abstracts and contacts who can provide information on U.S. Environmental Protection Agency databases.
Supports:	All information needs
Contacts:	U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Office of Information and Resources Management Information Management and Services Division ISI System Manager 202/260-5914 Fax 202/260-3923
Source:	ERAMS (Environmental Radiation Ambient Monitoring System)
Provides;	A direct assessment of the population intake of radioactive pollutants due to fallout, data for developing dose computational models, population exposures from routine and accidental releases of radioactivity from major sources, data for indicating additional measurement needs or other actions required in the event of a major release of radioactivity in the environment, and a reference for data comparison with other localized and limited monitoring programs.
Supports:	Source and waste characteristics
Contact:	U.S. Environmental Protection Agency National Air and Radiation Environmental Laboratory 540 South Morris Avenue Montgomery, AL 36115 Phone 334/270-3400 Fax 334/270-3454

Table G.2 Site Assessment Information Sources (continued)
(Organized by Information Source)

Maps and Aerial Photographs	
Source:	U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) Topographic Quadrangles
Provides:	Maps detailing topographic, geographical, political, and cultural features. Available in 7.5- and 15-minutes series.
Supports:	Site location and environmental setting; latitude/longitude; houses, schools, and other buildings; distances to targets; surface water body types; drainage routes; wetlands and sensitive environments; karst terrain features.
Contacts:	U.S. Geological Survey 12201 Sunrise Valley Drive Reston, VA 22092 or USGS Regional or Field Office
Source:	National Wetland Inventory Maps
Provides;	Maps delineating boundaries and acreage of wetlands.
Supports:	Environmental setting and wetlands locations.
Contact:	U.S. Geological Survey 12201 Sunrise Valley Drive Reston, VA 22092 or U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service 18th and C Street, NW Washington, DC 20240
Source:	Ecological Inventory Maps
Provides:	Maps delineating sensitive environments and habitats, including special land use areas, wetlands, study areas, and native plant and animal species.
Supports:	Environmental setting, sensitive environments, wetland locations and size.
Contact:	U.S. Geological Survey 12201 Sunrise Valley Drive Reston, VA 22092 or U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service 18th and C Streets, NW Washington, DC 20240

Table G.2 Site Assessment Information Sources (continued)
(Organized by Information Source)

Maps and Aerial Photographs	
Source:	Flood Insurance Rate Maps (FIRM)
Provides:	Maps delineating flood hazard boundaries for flood insurance purposes.
Supports:	Flood frequency.
Contact:	Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) Federal Insurance Administration Office of Risk Assessment 500 C Street, SW Washington, DC 20472 or Local Zoning and Planning Office
Source:	State Department of Transportation Maps
Provides:	State maps detailing road systems, surface water systems, and other geographical, cultural, and political features.
Supports:	Site location and environmental setting, distances to targets, wetlands, and sensitive environments.
Contact:	State or Local Government Agency
Source:	Geologic and Bedrock Maps
Provides:	Maps detailing surficial exposure and outcrop of formations for interpreting subsurface geology. Bedrock maps describe depth and lateral distribution of bedrock.
Supports:	General stratigraphy beneath and surrounding the site.
Contact:	U.S. Geological Survey 12201 Sunrise Valley Drive Reston, VA 22092 or USGS Regional or Field Office State Geological Survey Office

Table G.2 Site Assessment Information Sources (continued)
(Organized by Information Source)

Maps and Aerial Photographs	
Source:	Aerial Photographs
Provides:	Black and white and/or color photographic images detailing topographic, physical, and cultural features.
Supports:	Site location and size, location and extent of waste sources, identification of surrounding surficial geology, distances to targets, wetlands and sensitive environments. May provide information on historical site operations, waste quantity, and waste handling practices.
Contact:	State Department of Transportation Local Zoning and Planning Office County Tax Assessor's Office Colleges and Universities (geology or geography departments) EPA's Environmental Monitoring Services Laboratory (EMSL) EPA's Environmental Photographic Interpretation Center (EPIC) U.S. Army Corps of Engineers U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service U.S. Geological Survey
Source:	Global Land Information System (GLIS)
Provides:	An interactive computer system about the Earth's land surfaces information. GLIS contains abstract, description, and search information for each data set. Through GLIS, scientists can evaluate data sets, determine their availability, place online requests for products, or, in some cases, download products. GLIS also offers online samples of earth science data.
Supports:	Site location and environmental setting; latitude/longitude; houses, schools, and other buildings; distances to targets; surface water body types; drainage routes; wetlands and sensitive environments; karst terrain features.
Contact:	Internet: http://mapping.usgs.gov or U.S. Geological Survey 12202 Sunrise Valley Drive Reston, VA 20192, USA

**Table G.2 Site Assessment Information Sources (continued)
(Organized by Information Source)**

Maps and Aerial Photographs	
Source:	Topologically Integrated Geographic Encoding and Referencing (TIGER) System
Provides:	Automates the mapping and related geographic activities required to support the decennial census and sample survey programs of the U.S. Census Bureau starting with the 1990 decennial census. The topological structure of the TIGER data base defines the location and relationship of streets, rivers, railroads, and other features to each other and to the numerous geographic entities for which the Census Bureau tabulates data from its censuses and sample surveys.
Supports:	General Site Information, Soil Exposure Characteristics, Air Pathway Characteristics
Contacts:	http://www.census.gov/geo/www/tiger Public Information Office Room 2705, FB-3 Census Bureau U.S. Department of Commerce Washington, DC 20233

Table G.2 Site Assessment Information Sources (continued)
(Organized by Information Source)

Files	
Source:	Office project files
Provides:	Site investigation reports, logbooks, telecons, references, etc.
Supports:	Information on nearby sites such as town populations, public and private water supplies, well locations, targets, and general stratigraphy descriptions.
Source:	State Environmental Agency files
Provides;	Historical site information, permits, violations, and notifications.
Supports:	General site information and operational history, source descriptions, waste quantities and waste handling practices. May provide results of previous site investigations.

Table G.2 Site Assessment Information Source (continued)
(Organized by Information Source)

Files		
Source:	EPA Regional Libraries	
Provides:	Historical information on CERCLIS sites, permits, violations, and notification. Additionally provides interlibrary loan services.	
Supports:	General site information and operational history, source descriptions, waste quantities and waste handling practices. May provide results of previous site investigations.	
Contact:	USEPA Region 1 Library JFK Federal Building Boston, MA 02203 617/565-3300	USEPA Region 6 Library, 6M-A1 1445 Ross Avenue, Suite 1200 First Interstate Bank Tower Dallas, TX 75202-2733 214/655-6427
	USEPA Region 2 Library 290 Broadway 16th Floor New York, NY 10007-1866 212/264-2881	USEPA Region 7 Information Resources Center 726 Minnesota Avenue Kansas City, KS 66101 913/551-7358
	USEPA Region 3 Information Resources Center, 3PM52 841 Chestnut Street Philadelphia, PA 19107 215/597-0580	USEPA Region 8 Library, 8PM-IML 999 18th Street Suite 500 Denver, CO 80202-2405 303/293-1444
	USEPA Region 4 Library Atlanta Federal Center 61 Forsyth Street, SW Atlanta, GA 30303-8909 404/562-8190	USEPA Region 9 Library, MS:P-5-3 75 Hawthorne Street San Francisco, CA 94105 415/744-1510
	USEPA Region 5 Library 77 W. Jackson Blvd., 12th Floor Chicago, IL 60604-3590 312/353-2022	USEPA Region 10 Library, MD-108 1200 Sixth Avenue Seattle, WA 98101 206/553-1289 or 1259

Table G.2 Site Assessment Information Sources (continued)
(Organized by Information Source)

Expert and Other Sources	
Source:	U.S. Geological Survey
Provides:	Geologic, hydrogeologic, and hydraulic information including maps, reports, studies, and databases.
Supports:	General stratigraphy descriptions, karst terrain, depth to aquifer, stream flow, ground water and surface water use and characteristics.
Contact:	U.S. Geological Survey or USGS Regional or Field Office 12201 Sunrise Valley Drive Reston, VA 22092
Source:	U.S. Army Corps of Engineers
Provides:	Records and data surrounding engineering projects involving surface waters.
Supports:	Ground water and surface water characteristics, stream flow, locations of wetlands and sensitive environments.
Contact:	U.S. Army Corps of Engineers
Source:	State Geological Survey
Provides:	State-specific geologic and hydrogeologic information including maps, reports, studies, and databases.
Supports:	General stratigraphy descriptions, karst terrain, depth to aquifer, ground water use and characteristics.
Contact:	State Geological Survey (Local or Field Office)
Source:	Natural Heritage Program
Provides:	Information on Federal and State designated endangered and threatened plants, animals, and natural communities. Maps, lists and general information may be available.
Supports:	Location of sensitive environments and wetlands.
Contact:	State Environmental Agency

Table G.2 Site Assessment Information Sources (continued)
(Organized by Information Source)

Expert and Other Sources	
Source:	U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service
Provides:	Environmental Information
Supports:	Locations of sensitive environments, wetlands, fisheries; surface water characteristics and stream flow.
Contact:	U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service 18th and C Streets, NW Washington, DC 20240 or U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service Regional office
Source:	Local Fish and Wildlife Officials
Provides:	Local Environmental Information
Supports:	Locations of sensitive environments, wetlands, fisheries; surface water characteristics and stream flow.
Contact:	State or Local Environmental Agency State or Local Game or Conservation Office
Source:	Local Tax Assessor
Provides:	Past and present land ownership records, lot and building sizes, assessors maps. May also provide historical aerial photographs.
Supports:	Name of present and past owners/operators, years of ownership, size of site, and operational history.
Contact:	Local Town Government Office

Table G.2 Site Assessment Information Sources (continued)
(Organized by Information Source)

Expert and Other Sources	
Source:	Local Water Authority
Provides:	Public and private water supply information, including service area maps, well locations and depths, well logs, surface water intake locations, information regarding water supply contamination.
Supports:	Locations and populations served by municipal and private drinking water sources (wells and surface water intakes), pumpage and production, blended systems, depth to aquifer, general stratigraphic descriptions, ground water and surface water characteristics, stream flow.
Contact:	Local Town Government Office
Source:	Local Health Department
Provides:	Information and reports regarding health-related problems that may be associated with a site. Information on private and municipal water supplies, and onsite monitoring wells.
Supports:	Primary/secondary targets differentiation, locations and characteristics of public substances present at the site.
Contact:	Local Town Government Office
Source:	Local Zoning Board or Planning Commission
Provides:	Records of local land development, including historical land use and ownership, and general stratigraphy descriptions.
Supports:	General site description and history, previous ownership, and land use.
Contact:	Local Town Government Office

Table G.2 Site Assessment Information Sources (continued)
(Organized by Information Source)

Expert and Other Sources	
Source:	Local Fire Department
Provides:	Records of underground storage tanks in the area, material safety data sheets (MSDS) for local commercial and industrial businesses, and other information on hazardous substances used by those businesses.
Supports:	Location and use of underground storage tanks and other potential sources of hazardous substances, identification of hazardous substances present at the site.
Contact:	Local Town Government Office
Source:	Local Well Drillers
Provides:	Public and Private water supply information including well locations and depths, well logs, pumpage and production.
Supports:	Populations served by private and municipal drinking water wells, depth to aquifer, general stratigraphic information.
Source:	Local University or College
Provides:	Geology/Environmental Studies departments may have relevant published materials (reports, theses, dissertations) and faculty experts knowledgeable in local geologic, hydrologic, and environmental conditions.
Supports:	General stratigraphic information, ground water and surface water use and characteristics, stream flow.
Source:	Site Reconnaissance
Provides:	Onsite and /or offsite visual observation of the site and surrounding area.
Supports:	General site information; source identification and descriptions; general ground water, surface water, soil, and air pathway characteristics; nearby targets; probable point of entry to surface water.

APPENDIX H

DESCRIPTION OF FIELD SURVEY AND LABORATORY ANALYSIS EQUIPMENT

H.1 INTRODUCTION

This appendix provides information on various field and laboratory equipment used to measure radiation levels and radioactive material concentrations. The descriptions provide general guidance, and those interested in purchasing or using the equipment are encouraged to contact vendors and users of the equipment for specific information and recommendations. Although most of this equipment is in common use, a few specialty items are included to demonstrate promising developments.

The equipment is divided into two broad groupings of field survey and laboratory instruments, and each group is subdivided into equipment that measures alpha, beta, gamma, x-rays, and radon. A single sheet provides information for each system and includes its type of use (field or lab), the primary and secondary radiation detected, applicability for site surveys, operation, specificity/sensitivity, and cost of the equipment and surveys performed.

The Applicability for Site Surveys section discusses how the equipment is most useful for performing site radiological surveys. The Operation section provides basic technical information on what the system includes, how it works, how to use it practically in the field, and its features. The Specificity/Sensitivity section addresses the system's strengths and weaknesses, and the levels of radioactivity it can measure. Information for the Cost section was obtained primarily from discussions with manufacturers, users, and reviews of product literature. The cost per measurement is an estimate of the cost of producing and documenting a single data point, generally as part of a multipoint survey. It assumes times for instrument calibration (primarily if conducted at the time of the survey), use, sample analysis, and report preparation and review. It should be recognized that these values will change over time due to factors like inflation and market expansion.

It is assumed that the user of this appendix has a basic familiarity with field and laboratory equipment. Some of the typical instrument features and terms are listed below and may not be described separately for the individual instruments:

- Field survey equipment consists of a detector, a survey meter, and interconnected cables, although these are sometimes packaged in a single container. **The detector** or probe is the portion which is sensitive to radiation. It is designed in such a manner, made of selected materials, and operated at a high voltage that makes it sensitive to one or more types of radiation. Some detectors feature a window or a shield whose construction material and thickness make the detector more or less sensitive to a particular radiation. The size of the detector can vary depending on the specific need, but is often limited by the characteristics of the construction materials and the physics of the detection process. **The survey meter** contains the electronics and provides high voltage to the detector, processes the detector's signal, and displays the readings in analog or digital fashion. An analog survey meter has a continuous swing needle and typically a manually operated

scale switch, used to keep the needle on scale. The scaling switch may not be required on a digital survey meter. **The interconnecting cables** serve to transfer the high voltage and detector signals in the proper direction. These cables may be inside those units which combine the meter and detector into a single box, but they are often external with connectors that allow the user to interchange detectors.

- Scanning and measuring surveys. In a scanning survey, the field survey meter is operated while moving the detector over an area to search for a change in readings. Since the meter's audible signal responds faster than the meter display, listening to the built-in speaker or using headphones allows the user to more quickly discern changes in radiation level. When a scanning survey detects a change, the meter can be held in place for a more accurate static measurement.

- Integrated readings. Where additional sensitivity is desired, the reading can be integrated using internal electronics or an external scaler to give total values over time. The degree to which the sensitivity can be improved depends largely on the integration time selected.

- Units of measure. Survey meters with conventional meter faces measure radiation levels in units of counts, microRoentgen (μR), millirad (mrad), or millirem (mrem) in terms of unit time, *e.g.*, cpm or μR/hr. Those with SI meter faces use units of microSievert (μSv) or milliGray per unit time, *e.g.*, μSv/hr or mGy/hr.

H.2 FIELD SURVEY EQUIPMENT

H.2.1 Alpha Particle Detectors

System: ALPHA SCINTILLATION SURVEY METER
Lab/Field: Field
Radiation Detected: Primary: Alpha **Secondary**: None (in relatively low gamma fields)

Applicability to Site Surveys: The alpha scintillation survey meter is useful for determining the presence or absence of alpha-emitting contamination on nonporous surfaces, swipes, and air filters, or on irregular surfaces if the degree of surface shielding is known.

Operation: This survey meter uses an alpha radiation detector with a sensitive area of approximately 50 to 100 cm^2 (8 to 16 $in.^2$). The detector has a thin, aluminized window of mylar that blocks ambient light but allows alpha radiation to pass through. The detecting medium is silver activated zinc sulfide, ZnS(Ag). When the discriminator is appropriately adjusted, the meter is sensitive only to alpha radiation. Light pulses are amplified by a photomultiplier tube and passed to the survey meter.

The probe is generally placed close to the surface due to the short range of alpha particles in air. A scanning survey is used to identify areas of elevated surface contamination and then a direct survey is performed to obtain actual measurements. Integrating the readings over time improves the sensitivity enough to make the instrument very useful for alpha surface contamination measurements for many isotopes. The readings are displayed in counts per minute, but factors can usually be obtained to convert readings from cpm to dpm. Conversion factors, however, can be adversely affected by the short range of alpha particles which allows them to be shielded to often uncertain degrees if they are embedded in the surface. Systems typically use 2 to 6 "C" or "D" cells and will operate for 100-300 hours.

Specificity/Sensitivity: When the alpha discriminator is correctly adjusted, the alpha scintillation survey meter measures only alpha radiation, even if there are other radiations present. A scanning survey gives a quick indication of the presence or absence of surface contamination, while integrating the readings provides a measure of the activity on a surface, swipe, or filter. Alpha radiation is easily adsorbed by irregular, porous, moist, or over painted surfaces, and this should be carefully considered when converting count rate data to surface contamination levels. This also requires wet swipes and filters to be dried before counting. The minimum sensitivity is around 10 cpm using the needle deflection or 1 to 2 cpm when using headphones or a scaler. Some headphones or scalers give one click for every two counts, so the manual should be consulted to preclude underestimating the radioactivity by a factor of two.

Cost of Equipment: $1000

Cost per Measurement: $5

System: ALPHA TRACK DETECTOR
Lab/Field: Field and Indoor Surfaces
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** Alpha **Secondary:** None

Applicability to Site Surveys: Alpha track detectors measure gross alpha surface contamination, soil activity levels, or the depth profile of contamination.

Operation: This is a passive integrating detector. It consists of a 1 mm-thick sheet of polycarbonate material which is deployed directly on the soil surface or in close proximity to the contaminated surface. When alpha particles strike the detector surface, they cause microscopic damage centers to form in the plastic matrix. After deployment, the detector is etched in a caustic solution which preferentially attacks the damage centers. The etch pits may then be counted in an optical scanner. The density of etch pits, divided by the deployment time, is proportional to the soil or surface alpha activity. The measurement may be converted to isotopic concentration if the isotopes are known or measured separately. The area of a standard detector is 2 cm^2 (0.3 $in.^2$), but it may be cut into a variety of shapes and sizes to suit particular needs.

Specificity/Sensitivity: Alpha track detectors are relatively inexpensive, simple, passive, and have no measurable response to beta/gamma radiation. They provide a gross alpha measurement where the lower limit of detection is a function of deployment time. For surface contamination it is 330 Bq/m^2 (200 dpm/100cm^2) @ 1 hour, 50 Bq/m^2 (30 dpm/100cm^2) @ 8 hours, and 17 Bq/m^2 (10 dpm/100cm^2) @ 48 hours. For soil contamination it is 11,000 Bq/kg (300 pCi/g) @ 1 hour, 3,700 Bq/kg (100 pCi/g) @ 8 hours, and 740 Bq/kg (20 pCi/g) @ 96 hours. High surface contamination or soil activity levels may be measured with deployment times of a few minutes, while activity down to background levels may require deployment times of 48-96 hours. When placed on a surface, they provide an estimate of alpha surface contamination or soil concentration. When deployed against the side of a trench, they can provide an estimate of the depth profile of contamination. They may also be used in pipes and under/inside of equipment.

For most applications, the devices are purchased for a fixed price per measurement, which includes readout. This requires that the detectors be returned to the vendor and the data are not immediately available. For programs having continuing needs and a large number of measurements, automated optical scanners may be purchased. The cost per measurement is then a function of the number of measurements required.

Cost of Equipment: $65,000

Cost per Measurement: $5 to $10

System: ELECTRET ION CHAMBER
Lab/Field: Field
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** Alpha, beta, gamma, or radon **Secondary:** None
Applicability to Site Surveys: An electret is a passive integrating detector for measurements of alpha- or beta-emitting contaminants on surfaces and in soils, gamma radiation dose, or radon air concentration.

Operation: The system consists of a charged Teflon disk (electret), open-faced ionization chamber, and electret voltage reader/data logger. When the electret is screwed into the chamber, a static electric field is established and a passive ionization chamber is formed. For alpha or beta radiation, the chamber is opened and deployed directly on the surface or soil to be measured so the particles can enter the chamber. For gammas, however, the chamber is left closed and the gamma rays incident on the chamber penetrate the 2 mm-thick plastic detector wall. These particles or rays ionize the air molecules, the ions are attracted to the charged electret, and the electret's charge is reduced. The electret charge is measured before and after deployment with the voltmeter, and the rate of change of the charge is proportional to the alpha or beta surface or soil activity, with appropriate compensation for background gamma levels. A thin Mylar window may be used to protect the electret from dust. In low-level gamma measurements, the electret is sealed inside a Mylar bag during deployment to minimize radon interference. For alpha and beta measurements, corrections must be made for background gamma radiation and radon response. This correction is accomplished by deploying additional gamma or radon-sensitive detectors in parallel with the alpha or beta detector. Electrets are simple and can usually be reused several times before recharging by a vendor. Due to their small size (3.8 cm tall by 7.6 cm diameter or 1.5 in. tall by 3 in. diameter), they may be deployed in hard-to-access locations.

Specificity/Sensitivity: This method gives a gross alpha, gross beta, gross gamma, or gross radon measurement. The lower limit of detection depends on the exposure time and the volume of the chamber used. High surface alpha or beta contamination levels or high gamma radiation levels may be measured with deployment times of a few minutes. Much lower levels can be measured by extending the deployment time to 24 hours or longer. For gamma radiation, the response of the detector is nearly independent of energy from 15 to 1200 keV, and fading corrections are not required. To quantify ambient gamma radiation fields of 10 μR/hr, a 1000 mL chamber may be deployed for two days or a 50 mL chamber deployed for 30 days. The smallest chamber is particularly useful for long-term monitoring and reporting of monthly or quarterly measurements. For alpha and beta particles, the measurement may be converted to isotopic concentration if the isotopes are known or measured separately. The lower limit of detection for alpha radiation is 83 Bq/m^2 (50 dpm/100 cm^2) @ 1 hour, 25 Bq/m^2 (15 dpm/100 cm^2) @ 8 hours, and 13 Bq/m^2 (8 dpm/100 cm) @ 24 hours. For beta radiation from tritium it is 10,000 Bq/m^2 (6,000 dpm/cm^2) @ 1 hour and 500 Bq/m^2 (300 dpm/cm^2) @ 24 hours. For beta radiation from ^{99}Tc it is 830 Bq/m^2 (500 dpm/cm^2) @ 1 hour and 33 Bq/m^2 (20 dpm/cm^2) @ 24 hours.

Cost of Equipment: $4,000 to $25,000, for system if purchased.
Cost per Measurement: $8-$25, for use under service contract

System: GAS-FLOW PROPORTIONAL COUNTER
Lab/Field: Field
Radiation Detected: Primary: Alpha, Beta **Secondary:** Gamma
Applicability to Site Surveys: This equipment measures gross alpha or gross beta/gamma surface contamination levels on relatively flat surfaces like the floors and walls of facilities. It also serves as a screen to determine whether or not more nuclide-specific analyses may be needed.
Operation: This system consists of a gas-flow proportional detector, gas supply, supporting electronics, and a scaler or rate meter. Small detectors (~100 cm^2) are hand-held and large detectors (~400-600 cm^2) are mounted on a rolling cart. The detector entrance window can be <1 to almost 10 mg/cm^2 depending on whether alpha, alpha-beta, or gamma radiation is monitored. The gas used is normally P-10, a mixture of 10% methane and 90% argon. The detector is positioned as close as practical to the surface being monitored for good counting efficiency without risking damage from the detector touching the surface. Quick disconnect fittings allow the system to be disconnected from the gas bottle for hours with little loss of counting efficiency. The detector operating voltage can be set to make it sensitive only to alpha radiation, to both alpha and beta radiation, or to beta and low energy gamma radiation. These voltages are determined for each system by placing either an alpha source, such as ^{230}Th or ^{241}Am, or a beta source, such as ^{90}Sr, facing and near the detector window, then increasing the high voltage in incremental steps until the count rate becomes constant. The alpha plateau, the region of constant count rate, will be almost flat. The beta plateau will have a slope of 5 to 15 percent per 100 volts. Operation on the beta plateau allows detection of some gamma radiation, but the efficiency is very low. Some systems use a spectrometer to separate alpha, and beta/gamma events, allowing simultaneous determination of both the alpha and beta/gamma surface contamination levels.
Specificity/Sensitivity: These systems do not identify the alpha or beta energies detected and cannot be used to identify specific radionuclides. Background for operation on the alpha plateau is very low, 2 to 3 counts per minute, which is higher than for laboratory detectors because of the larger detector size. Background for operation on the beta plateau is dependent on the ambient gamma and cosmic ray background, and typically ranges from several hundred to a thousand counts per minute. Typical efficiencies for unattenuated alpha sources are 15-20%. Beta efficiency depends on the window thickness and the beta energy. For $^{90}Sr/^{90}Y$ in equilibrium, efficiencies range from 5% for highly attenuated to about 35% for unattenuated sources. Typical gamma ray efficiency is <1%. The presence of natural radionuclides in the surfaces could interfere with the detection of other contaminants. Unless the nature of the contaminant and any naturally-occurring radionuclides is well known, this system is better used for assessing gross surface contamination levels. The texture and porosity of the surface can hide or shield radioactive material from the detector, causing levels to be underestimated. Changes in temperature can affect the detectors's sensitivity. Incomplete flushing with gas can cause a nonuniform response over the detector's surface. Condensation in the gas lines or using the quick disconnect fittings can cause count rate instability.
Cost of Equipment: $2,000 to $4,000
Cost per Measurement: $2-$10 per m^2

System: LONG RANGE ALPHA DETECTOR (LRAD)
Lab/Field: Field
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** Alpha **Secondary:** None

Applicability to Site Surveys: The LRAD is a rugged field-type unit for measuring alpha surface soil concentration over a variety of dry, solid, flat terrains.

Operation: The LRAD system consists of a large (1 m x 1 m) aluminum box, open on the bottom side, containing copper plates that collect ions produced in the soil or surface under the box, and used to measure alpha surface contamination or soil concentration. It is attached to a lifting device on the front of a tractor and can be readily moved to new locations. Bias power is supplied by a 300-V dry cell battery, and the electrometer and computer are powered by an automobile battery and DC-to-AC inverter. A 50 cm grounding rod provides electrical grounding. A notebook computer is used for data logging and graphical interpretation of the data. Alpha particles emitted by radionuclides in soil travel only about 3 cm in air. However, these alpha particles interact with the air and produce ions that travel considerably farther. The LRAD detector box is lowered to the ground to form an enclosed ionization region. The copper detector plate is raised to +300V along with a guard detector mounted above the detector plate to control leakage current. The ions are then allowed to collect on the copper plate producing a current that is measured with a sensitive electrometer. The signal is then averaged and processed on a computer. The electric current produced is proportional to the ionization within the sensitive area of the detector and to the amount of alpha contamination present on the surface soil.

Due to its size and weight (300 lb), the unit can be mounted on a tractor for ease of movement. All metal surfaces are covered with plastic to reduce the contribution from ion sources outside the detector box. At each site, a ground rod is driven into the ground. Each location is monitored for at least 5 min. After each location is monitored, its data is fed into a notebook computer and an interpolative graph of alpha concentration produced. The unit is calibrated using standard alpha sources.

Sensitivity/Specificity: The terrain over which this system is used must be dry, to prevent the shielding of alpha particles by residual moisture, and flat, to prevent air infiltration from outside the detector, both of which can lead to large errors. The unit can detect a thin layer of alpha surface contamination at levels of 33-83 Bq/m^2 (20-50 dpm/100 cm^2), but does not measure alpha contamination of deeper layers. Alpha concentration errors are $\pm$74-740 Bq/kg ($\pm$2-20 pCi/g), with daily repeat accuracies of $\pm$370-3,700 Bq/kg ($\pm$10-100 pCi/g), depending on the contamination level. The dynamic measurement range appears to be 370-110,00 Bq/kg (10-3,000 pCi/g).

Cost of Equipment: $25,000 (est. for tractor, computer, software, electrometer, and detector)
Cost per Measurement: $80 (based on 30 min per point and a 2 person team)

H.2 FIELD SURVEY EQUIPMENT

H.2.2 Beta Particle Detectors

System: ELECTRET ION CHAMBER
Lab/Field: Field
Radiation Detected: Primary: Low energy beta (*e.g.* tritium, ^{99}Tc, ^{14}C, ^{90}Sr, ^{63}Ni), alpha, gamma, or radon **Secondary:** None
Applicability to Site Surveys: This system measures alpha- or beta-emitting contaminants on surfaces and in soils, gamma radiation dose, or radon air concentration, depending on how it is configured.
Operation: The system consists of a charged Teflon disk (electret), open-faced ionization chamber, and electret voltage reader/data logger. When the electret is screwed into the chamber, a static electric field is established and a passive ionization chamber is formed. For alpha or beta radiation, the chamber is opened and deployed directly on the surface or soil to be measured so the particles can enter the chamber. For gammas, however, the chamber is left closed and the gamma rays incident on the chamber penetrate the 2 mm-thick plastic detector wall. These particles or rays ionize the air molecules, the ions are attracted to the charged electret, and the electret's charge is reduced. The electret charge is measured before and after deployment with the voltmeter, and the rate of change of the charge is proportional to the alpha or beta surface or soil activity, with appropriate compensation for background gamma levels. A thin Mylar window may be used to protect the electret from dust. In low-level gamma measurements, the electret is sealed inside a Mylar bag during deployment to minimize radon interference. For alpha and beta measurements, corrections must be made for background gamma radiation and radon response. This correction is accomplished by deploying additional gamma or radon-sensitive detectors in parallel with the alpha or beta detector. Electrets are simple and can usually be reused several times before recharging by a vendor. Due to their small size (3.8 cm tall by 7.6 cm diameter or 1.5 in. tall by 3 in. diameter), they may be deployed in hard-to-access locations.
Specificity/Sensitivity: This method gives a gross alpha, gross beta, gross gamma, or gross radon measurement. The lower limit of detection depends on the exposure time and the volume of the chamber used. High surface alpha or beta contamination levels or high gamma radiation levels may be measured with deployment times of a few minutes. Much lower levels can be measured by extending the deployment time to 24 hours or longer. For gamma radiation, the response of the detector is nearly independent of energy from 15 to 1200 keV, and fading corrections are not required. To quantify ambient gamma radiation fields of 10 μR/hr, a 1000 mL chamber may be deployed for two days or a 50 mL chamber deployed for 30 days. The smallest chamber is particularly useful for long-term monitoring and reporting of monthly or quarterly measurements. For alpha and beta particles, the measurement may be converted to isotopic concentration if the isotopes are known or measured separately. The lower limit of detection for alpha radiation is 83 Bq/m^2 (50 dpm/100 cm^2) @ 1 hour, 25 Bq/m^2 (15 dpm/100 cm^2) @ 8 hours, and 13 Bq/m^2 (8 dpm/100 cm^2) @ 24 hours. For beta radiation from tritium it is 10,000 Bq/m^2 (6,000 dpm/cm^2) @ 1 hour and 500 Bq/m^2 (300 dpm/cm^2) @ 24 hours. For beta radiation from ^{99}Tc it is 830 Bq/m^2(500 dpm/cm^2) @ 1 hour and 33 Bq/m^2 (20 dpm/cm^2) @ 24 hours.
Cost of Equipment: $4,000 to $25,000, for system if purchased.
Cost per Measurement: $8-$25, for use under service contract

System: GAS-FLOW PROPORTIONAL COUNTER
Lab/Field: Field
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** Alpha, Beta **Secondary:** Gamma
Applicability to Site Surveys: This equipment measures gross alpha or gross beta/gamma surface contamination levels on relatively flat surfaces like the floors and walls of facilities. It would serve as a screen to determine whether or not more nuclide-specific analyses were needed.
Operation: This system consists of a gas-flow proportional detector, gas supply, supporting electronics, and a scaler or rate meter. Small detectors (~100 cm^2) are hand-held and large detectors (~400-600 cm^2) are mounted on a rolling cart. The detector entrance window can be <1 to almost 10 mg/cm^2 depending on whether alpha, alpha-beta, or gamma radiation is monitored. The gas used is normally P-10, a mixture of 10% methane and 90% argon. The detector is positioned as close as practical to the surface being monitored for good counting efficiency without risking damage from the detector touching the surface. Quick disconnect fittings allow the system to be disconnected from the gas bottle for hours with little loss of counting efficiency. The detector operating voltage can be set to make it sensitive only to alpha radiation, to both alpha and beta radiation, or to beta and low energy gamma radiation. These voltages are determined for each system by placing either an alpha source, such as ^{230}Th or ^{241}Am, or a beta source, such as ^{90}Sr, facing and near the detector window, then increasing the high voltage in incremental steps until the count rate becomes constant. The alpha plateau, the region of constant count rate, will be almost flat. The beta plateau will have a slope of 5 to 15 percent per 100 volts. Operation on the beta plateau allows detection of some gamma radiation, but the efficiency is very low. Some systems use a spectrometer to separate alpha, and beta/gamma events, allowing simultaneous determination of both the alpha and beta/gamma surface contamination levels.
Specificity/Sensitivity: These systems do not identify the alpha or beta energies detected and cannot be used to identify specific radionuclides. Background for operation on the alpha plateau is very low, 2 to 3 counts per minute, which is higher than for laboratory detectors because of the larger detector size. Background for operation on the beta plateau is dependent on the ambient gamma and cosmic ray background, and typically ranges from several hundred to a thousand counts per minute. Typical efficiencies for unattenuated alpha sources are 15-20%. Beta efficiency depends on the window thickness and the beta energy. For $^{90}Sr/^{90}Y$ in equilibrium, efficiencies range from 5% for highly attenuated to about 35% for unattenuated sources. Typical gamma ray efficiency is <1%. The presence of natural radionuclides in the surfaces could interfere with the detection of other contaminants. Unless the nature of the contaminant and any naturally-occurring radionuclides is well known, this system is better used for assessing gross surface contamination levels. The texture and porosity of the surface can hide or shield radioactive material from the detector, causing levels to be underestimated. Changes in temperature can affect the detectors's sensitivity. Incomplete flushing with gas can cause a nonuniform response over the detector's surface. Condensation in the gas lines or using the quick disconnect fittings can cause count rate instability.
Cost of Equipment: $2,000 to $4,000
Cost per Measurement: $2-$10 per m^2

System: GM SURVEY METER WITH BETA PANCAKE PROBE
Lab/Field: Field
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** Beta **Secondary:** Gamma and alpha
Applicability to Site Surveys: This instrument is used to find and measure low levels of beta/gamma contamination on relatively flat surfaces.
Operation: This instrument consists of a flat "pancake" type Geiger-Mueller detector connected to a survey meter which measures radiation response in counts per minute. The detector housing is typically a rigid metal on all sides except the radiation entrance face or window, which is made of Mylar, mica, or a similar material. A steel, aluminum, lead, or tungsten housing surrounds the detector on all sides except the window, giving the detector a directional response. The detector requires approximately 900 volts for operation. It is held within a few cm of the surface to minimize the thickness of air shielding in between the radioactive material and the detector. It is moved slowly to scan the surface in search of elevated readings, then held in place long enough to obtain a stable measurement. Radiation entering the detector ionizes the gas, causes a discharge throughout the entire tube, and results in a single count being sent to the meter. The counts per minute meter reading is converted to a beta surface contamination level in the range of 1,700 Bq/m^2 (1,000 dpm/100 cm^2) using isotope specific factors.

Specificity/Sensitivity: Pancake type GM detectors primarily measure beta count rate in close contact with surfaces to indicate the presence of contamination. They are sensitive to any alpha, beta, or gamma radiation that enters the detector and causes ionization. As a result, they cannot determine the type or energy of that radiation, except by using a set of absorbers. To be detected, beta particles must have enough energy to penetrate through any surface material that the contamination is absorbed in, plus the detector window, and the layer of air and other shielding materials in between. Low energy beta particles from emitters like ^{3}H (17 keV) that cannot penetrate the window alone are not detectable, while higher energy betas like those from ^{60}Co (314 keV) can be readily detected. The beta detection efficiency at a field site is primarily a function of the beta energy, window thickness, and the surface condition. The detection sensitivity can be improved by using headphones or the audible response during scans. By integrating the count rate over a longer period or by counting the removable radioactive material collected on a swipe , the ability to detect surface contamination can be improved. The nominal 2 in. diameter detector can measure an increase of around 100 cpm above background, which equates to 4,200 Bq/m^2 (2,500 dpm/100 cm^2) of ^{60}Co on a surface under the detector or 20 Bq (500 pCi) on a swipe. Larger 100 cm^2 detectors improve sensitivity and eliminate the need to swipe. A swipe's collection efficiency may be below 100%, and depends on the wiping technique, the actual surface area covered, the texture and porosity of the surface, the affinity of the contamination for the swipe material, and the dryness of the swipe. This will proportionately change the values above. The sensitivity to gamma radiation is around 10% or less of the beta sensitivity, while the alpha detection efficiency is difficult to evaluate.

Cost of equipment: $400 to $1,500
Cost per Measurement: $5 to $10 per location

H.2 FIELD SURVEY EQUIPMENT

H.2.3 Gamma Ray Detectors

System: ELECTRET ION CHAMBER
Lab/Field: Field
Radiation Detected: Primary: Low energy beta (*e.g.* tritium, ^{99}Tc, ^{14}C, ^{90}Sr, ^{63}Ni), alpha, gamma, or radon **Secondary:** None
Applicability to Site Surveys: This system measures alpha- or beta-emitting contaminants on surfaces and in soils, gamma radiation dose, or radon air concentration, depending on how it is configured.
Operation: The system consists of a charged Teflon disk (electret), open-faced ionization chamber, and electret voltage reader/data logger. When the electret is screwed into the chamber, a static electric field is established and a passive ionization chamber is formed. For alpha or beta radiation, the chamber is opened and deployed directly on the surface or soil to be measured so the particles can enter the chamber. For gammas, however, the chamber is left closed and the gamma rays incident on the chamber penetrate the 2 mm-thick plastic detector wall. These particles or rays ionize the air molecules, the ions are attracted to the charged electret, and the electret's charge is reduced. The electret charge is measured before and after deployment with the voltmeter, and the rate of change of the charge is proportional to the alpha or beta surface or soil activity, with appropriate compensation for background gamma levels. A thin Mylar window may be used to protect the electret from dust. In low-level gamma measurements, the electret is sealed inside a Mylar bag during deployment to minimize radon interference. For alpha and beta measurements, corrections must be made for background gamma radiation and radon response. This correction is accomplished by deploying additional gamma or radon-sensitive detectors in parallel with the alpha or beta detector. Electrets are simple and can usually be reused several times before recharging by a vendor. Due to their small size (3.8 cm tall by 7.6 cm diameter or 1.5 in. tall by 3 in. diameter), they may be deployed in hard-to-access locations.
Specificity/Sensitivity: This method gives a gross alpha, gross beta, gross gamma, or gross radon measurement. The lower limit of detection depends on the exposure time and the volume of the chamber used. High surface alpha or beta contamination levels or high gamma radiation levels may be measured with deployment times of a few minutes. Much lower levels can be measured by extending the deployment time to 24 hours or longer. For gamma radiation, the response of the detector is nearly independent of energy from 15 to 1200 keV, and fading corrections are not required. To quantify ambient gamma radiation fields of 10 μR/hr, a 1000 mL chamber may be deployed for two days or a 50 mL chamber deployed for 30 days. The smallest chamber is particularly useful for long-term monitoring and reporting of monthly or quarterly measurements. For alpha and beta particles, the measurement may be converted to isotopic concentration if the isotopes are known or measured separately. The lower limit of detection for alpha radiation is 83 Bq/m^2 (50 dpm/100 cm^2) @ 1 hour, 25 Bq/m^2 (15 dpm/100 cm^2) @ 8 hours, and 13 Bq/m^2 (8 dpm/100 cm^2) @ 24 hours. For beta radiation from tritium it is 10,000 Bq/m^2 (6,000 dpm/cm^2) @ 1 hour and 500 Bq/m^2 (300 dpm/cm^2) @ 24 hours. For beta radiation from ^{99}Tc it is 830 Bq/m^2(500 dpm/cm^2) @ 1 hour and 33 Bq/m^2 (20 dpm/cm^2) @ 24 hours.
Cost of Equipment: $4,000 to $25,000, for system if purchased.
Cost per Measurement: $8-$25, for use under service contract

System: GM SURVEY METER WITH GAMMA PROBE
Lab/Field: Field
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** Gamma **Secondary:** Beta

Applicability to Site Surveys: This instrument is used to give a quick indication of gamma-radiation levels present at a site. Due to its high detection limit, the GM survey meter may be useful during characterization surveys but may not meet the needs of final status surveys.

Operation: This instrument consists of a cylindrical Geiger Mueller detector connected to a survey meter. It is calibrated to measure gamma exposure rate in mR/hr. The detector is surrounded on all sides by a protective rigid metal housing. Some units called end window or side window have a hinged door or rotating sleeve that opens to expose an entry window of Mylar, mica, or a similar material, allowing beta radiation to enter the sensitive volume. The detector requires approximately 900 volts for operation. It is normally held at waist height, but is sometimes placed in contact with an item be evaluated. It is moved slowly over the area to scan for elevated readings, observing the meter or, preferably, listening to the audible signal. Then it is held in place long enough to obtain a stable measurement. Radiation entering the detector ionizes the gas, causes a discharge throughout the entire tube, and results in a single count being sent to the meter. Conversion from count rate to exposure rate is accomplished at calibration by exposing the detector at discrete levels and adjusting the meter scale(s) to read accordingly. In the field, the exposure rate is read directly from the meter. If the detector housing has an entry window , an increase in "open-door" over "closed-door" reading indicates the presence of beta radiation in the radiation field, but the difference is not a direct measure of the beta radiation level.

Specificity/Sensitivity: GM meters measure gamma exposure rate, and those with an entry window can identify if the radiation field includes beta radiation. Since GM detectors are sensitive to any energy of alpha, beta, or gamma radiation that enters the detector, instruments that use these detectors cannot identify the type or energy of that radiation, or the specific radionuclide(s) present. The sensitivity can be improved by using headphones or the audible response during scans, or by integrating the exposure rate over time. The instrument has two primary limitations for environmental work. First, its minimum sensitivity is high, around 0.1 mR/hr in rate meter mode or 0.01 mR/hr in integrate mode. Some instruments use a large detector to improve low end sensitivity. However, in many instances the instrument is not sensitive enough for site survey work. Second, the detector's energy response is nonlinear. Energy compensated survey meters are commercially available, but the instrument's sensitivity may be reduced.

Cost of Equipment: $400 to $1,500.

Cost per Measurement: $5 per measurement for survey and report.

System: HAND-HELD ION CHAMBER SURVEY METER
Lab/Field: Field
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** Gamma **Secondary:** None

Applicability to Site Surveys: The hand-held ion chamber survey meter measures true gamma radiation exposure rate, in contrast to most other survey meter/probe combinations which are calibrated to measure exposure rate at one energy and approximate the exposure rate at all other energies. Due to their high detection limit, these instruments are not applicable for many final status surveys.

Operation: This device uses an ion chamber operated at a bias voltage sufficient to collect all ion pairs created by the passage of ionizing radiation, but not sufficiently high to generate secondary ion pairs as a proportional counter does. The units of readout are mR/hr, or some multiple of mR/hr. If equipped with an integrating mode, the operator can measure the total exposure over a period of time. The instrument may operate on two "D" cells or a 9 volt battery that will last for 100 to 200 hours of operation.

Specificity/Sensitivity: Ion chamber instruments respond only to gamma or x-radiation. They have no means to provide the identity of contaminants. Typical ion chamber instruments have a lower limit of detection of 0.5 mR/hr. These instruments can display readings below this, but the readings may be erratic and have large errors associated with them. In integrate mode, the instrument sensitivity can be as low as 0.05 mR/hr.

Cost of Equipment: $800 to $1,200

Cost per Measurement: $5, or higher for making integrated exposure measurements.

System: HAND-HELD PRESSURIZED ION CHAMBER (PIC) SURVEY METER
Lab/Field: Field
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** Gamma **Secondary:** None

Applicability to Site Surveys: The hand-held pressurized ion chamber survey meter measures true gamma radiation exposure rate, in contrast to most other survey meter/probe combinations which are calibrated to measure exposure rate at one energy and approximate the exposure rate at all other energies. Due to their high detection limit, these instruments are not applicable for many final status surveys.

Operation: This device uses a pressurized air ion chamber operated at a bias voltage sufficient to collect all ion pairs created by the passage of ionizing radiation, but not sufficiently high to cause secondary ionization.. The instrument is identical to the ion chamber meter on the previous page, except in this case the ion chamber is sealed and pressurized to 2 to 3 atmospheres to increase the sensitivity of the instrument by the same factors. The units of readout are µR/hr or mR/hr. A digital meter will allow an operator to integrate the total exposure over a period of time. The unit may use two "D" cells or a 9-volt battery that will last for 100 to 200 hours of operation.

Specificity/Sensitivity: Since the ion chamber is sealed, pressurized ion chamber instruments respond only to gamma or X-radiation. They have no means to provide the identity of contaminants. Typical instruments have a lower limit of detection of 0.1 mR/hr, or as low as 0.01 mR in integrate mode. These instruments can display readings below this, but the readings may be erratic and have large errors associated with them.

Cost of Equipment: $1,000 to $1,500

Cost per Measurement: $5, or higher for making integrated exposure measurements.

System: PORTABLE GERMANIUM MULTICHANNEL ANALYZER (MCA) SYSTEM
Lab/Field: Field
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** Gamma **Secondary:** None

Applicability for Site Surveys: This system produces semi-quantitative estimates of concentration of uranium and plutonium in soil, water, air filters, and quantitative estimates of many other gamma-emitting isotopes. With an appropriate dewar, the detector may be used in a vertical orientation to determine, *in situ*, gamma isotopes concentrations in soil.

Operation: This system consists of a portable germanium detector connected to a dewar of liquid nitrogen, high voltage power supply, and multichannel analyzer. It is used to identify and quantify gamma-emitting isotopes in soil or other surfaces.

Germanium is a semiconductor material. When a gamma ray interacts with a germanium crystal, it produces electron-hole pairs. An electric field is applied which causes the electrons to move in the conduction band and the holes to pass the charge from atom to neighboring atoms. The charge is collected rapidly and is proportional to the deposited energy.

The typical system consists of a portable multichannel analyzer (MCA) weighing about 7-10 lbs with batteries, a special portable low energy germanium detector with a built-in shield, and the acquisition control and spectrum analysis software. The detector is integrally mounted to a liquid nitrogen dewar. The liquid nitrogen is added 2-4 hours before use and replenished every 4-24 hours based on capacity.

The MCA includes all required front end electronics, such as a high voltage power supply, an amplifier, a digital stabilizer, and an analog-to-digital converter (ADC), which are fully controllable from a laptop computer and software.

One method uses the 94-104 keV peak region to analyze the plutonium isotopes from either "fresh" or aged materials. It requires virtually no user input or calibration. The source-to-detector distance for this method does not need to be calibrated as long as there are enough counts in the spectrum to perform the analysis.

For *in situ* applications, a collimated detector is positioned at a fixed distance from a surface to provide multichannel spectral data for a defined surface area. It is especially useful for qualitative and (based on careful field calibration or appropriate algorithms) quantitative analysis of freshly deposited contamination. Additionally, with prior knowledge of the depth distribution of the primary radionuclides of interest, which is usually not known, or using algorithms that match the site, the *in situ* system can be used to estimate the content of radionuclides distributed below the surface (dependent, of course, on adequate detection capability.)

Calibration based on Monte Carlo modeling of the assumed source-to-detector geometry or computation of fluence rates with analytical expressions is an important component to the accurate use of field spectrometry, when it is not feasible or desirable to use real radioactive sources. Such modeling used in conjunction with field spectrometry is becoming much more common recently, especially using the MCNP Monte Carlo computer software system.

Specificity/Sensitivity: With proper calibration or algorithms, field spectrometers can identify and quantify concentrations of gamma emitting radionuclides in the middle to upper energy range (*i.e.*, 50 keV with a P-type detector or 10 keV with an N-type detector).

For lower energy photons, as are important for plutonium and americium, an N-type detector or a planar crystal is preferred with a very thin beryllium (Be) window. This configuration allows measurement of photons in the energy range 5 to 80 keV. The Be window is quite fragile and a target of corrosion, and should be protected accordingly.

The detector high voltage should only be applied when the cryostat has contained sufficient liquid nitrogen for several hours. These systems can accurately identify plutonium, uranium, and many gamma-emitting isotopes in environmental media, even if a mixture of radionuclides is present. Germanium has an advantage over sodium iodide because it can produce a quantitative estimate of concentrations of multiple radionuclides in samples like soil, water, and air filters.

A specially designed low energy germanium detector that exhibits very little deterioration in the resolution as a function of count rate may be used to analyze uranium and plutonium, or other gamma-emitting radionuclides. When equipped with a built-in shield, it is unnecessary to build complicated shielding arrangements while making field measurements. Tin filters can be used to reduce the count rate from the ^{241}Am 59 keV line which allows the electronics to process more of the signal coming from Pu or U.

A plutonium content of 10 mg can be detected in a 55 gallon waste drum in about 30 minutes, although with high uncertainty. A uranium analysis can be performed for an enrichment range from depleted to 93% enrichment. The measurement time can be in the order of minutes depending on the enrichment and the attenuating materials.

Cost of Equipment: $40,000

Cost per Measurement: $100 to $200

System: PRESSURIZED IONIZATION CHAMBER (PIC)
Lab/Field: Field
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** Moderate (>80 keV) to high energy photons
Secondary: None

Applicability to Site Surveys: The PIC is a highly accurate ionization chamber for measuring gamma exposure rate in air, and for correcting for the energy dependence of other instruments due to their energy sensitivities. It is excellent for characterizing and evaluating the effectiveness of remediation of contaminated sites based on exposure rate. However, most sites also require nuclide-specific identification of the contributing radionuclides. Under these circumstances, PICs must be used in conjunction with other soil sampling or spectrometry techniques to evaluate the success of remediation efforts.

Operation: The PIC detector is a large sphere of compressed argon-nitrogen gas at 10 to 40 atmospheres pressure surrounded by a protective box. The detector is normally mounted on a tripod and positioned to sit about three feet off the ground. It is connected to an electronics box in which a strip chart recorder or digital integrator measures instantaneous and integrated exposure rate. It operates at a bias voltage sufficient to collect all ion pairs created by the passage of ionizing radiation, but not sufficiently high to amplify or increase the number of ion pairs . The high pressure inside the detector and the integrate feature make the PIC much more sensitive and precise than other ion chambers for measuring low exposures. The average exposure rate is calculated from the integrated exposure and the operating time. Arrays of PIC systems can be linked by telecommunications so their data can be observed from a central and remote location.

Specificity/Sensitivity: The PIC measures gamma or x-radiation and cosmic radiation. It is highly stable, relatively energy independent, and serves as an excellent tool to calibrate (in the field) other survey equipment to measure exposure rate. Since the PIC is normally uncollimated, it measures cosmic, terrestrial, and foreign source contributions without discrimination. Its rugged and stable behavior makes it an excellent choice for an unattended sensor where area monitors for gamma emitters are needed. PICs are highly sensitive, precise, and accurate to vast changes in exposure rate (1 µR/ hr up to 10 R/hr). PICs lack any ability to distinguish either energy spectral characteristics or source type. If sufficient background information is obtained , the data can be processed using algorithms that employ time and frequency domain analysis of the recorded systems to effectively separate terrestrial, cosmic, and "foreign" source contributions. One major advantage of PIC systems is that they can record exposure rate over ranges of 1 to 10,000,000 µR per hour (*i.e.*, µR/hr to 10 R/hr) with good precision and accuracy.

Cost of Equipment: $15,000 to $50,000 depending on the associated electronics, data processing, and telecommunications equipment.

Cost per Measurement: $50 to $500 based on the operating time at each site and the number of measurements performed.

System: SODIUM IODIDE SURVEY METER
Lab/Field: Field
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** Gamma **Secondary:** None
Applicability to Site Surveys: Sodium iodide survey meters can be response checked against a pressurized ionization chamber(PIC) and then used in its place so readings can be taken more quickly. This check should be performed often, possibly several times each day. They are useful for determining ambient radiation levels and for estimating the concentration of radioactive materials at a site.
Operation: The sodium iodide survey meter measures gamma radiation levels in µR/hr (10^{-6} R/hr) or counts per minute (cpm). Its response is energy and count rate dependent, so comparison with a pressurized ion chamber necessitates a conversion factor for adjusting the meter readings to true µR/hr values. The conversion factor obtained from this comparison is valid only in locations where the radionuclide mix is identical to that where the comparison is performed, and over a moderate range of readings. The detector is held at waist level or suspended near the surface and walked through an area listening to the audio and watching the display for changes. It is held in place and the response allowed to stabilize before each measurement is taken, with longer times required for lower responses. Generally, the center of the needle swing or the integrated reading is recorded. The detector is a sodium iodide crystal inside an aluminum container with an optical glass window that is connected to a photomultiplier tube. A gamma ray that interacts with the crystal produces light that travels out of the crystal and into the photomultiplier tube. There, electrons are produced and multiplied to produce a readily measurable pulse whose magnitude is proportional to the energy the gamma ray incident on the crystal. Electronic filters accept the pulse as a count if certain discrimination height restrictions are met. This translates into a meter response. Instruments with pulse height discrimination circuitry can be calibrated to view the primary gamma decay energy of a particular isotope. If laboratory analysis has shown a particular isotope to be present, the discrimination circuitry can be adjusted to partially tune out other isotopes, but this also limits its ability to measure exposure rate.
Specificity/Sensitivity: Sodium iodide survey meters measure gamma radiation in µR/hr or cpm with a minimum sensitivity of around 1-5 µR per hour, or 200-1,000 cpm, or lower in digital integrate mode. The reading error of 50% can occur at low count rates because of a large needle swing, but this decreases with increased count rate. The instrument is quite energy sensitive, with the greatest response around 100-120 keV and decreasing in either direction. Measuring the radiation level at a location with both a PIC and the survey meter gives a factor for converting subsequent readings to actual exposure rates. This ratio can change with location. Some meters have circuitry that looks at a few selected ranges of gamma energies, or one at a time with the aide of a single channel analyzer. This feature is used to determine if a particular isotope is present. The detector should be protected against thermal or mechanical shock which can break the sodium iodide crystal or the photomultiplier tube. Covering at least the crystal end with padding is often sufficient. The detector is heavy, so adding a carrying strap to the meter and a means of easily attaching and detaching the detector from the meter case helps the user endure long surveys.
Cost of Equipment: $2,000
Cost per Measurement: $5

System: THERMOLUMINESCENCE DOSIMETER (TLD)
Lab/Field: Field and lab
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** Gamma **Secondary:** Neutron, beta, x-ray
Applicability to Site Surveys: TLDs can be used to measure such a low dose equivalent that they can identify gamma levels slightly above natural background. TLDs should be placed in areas outside the site but over similar media to determine the average natural background radiation level in the area. Other TLDs should be posted on site to determine the difference from background. Groups should be posted quarterly for days to quarters and compared to identify locations of increased onsite doses.
Operation: A TLD is a crystal that measures radiation dose. TLDs are semiconductor crystals that contain small amounts of added impurities. When radiation interacts with the crystal, electrons in the valence band are excited into the conduction band. Many lose their energy and return directly to the valence band, but some are trapped at an elevated energy state by the impurity atoms. This trapped energy can be stored for long periods, but the signal can fade with age, temperature, and light. Heating the TLD in a TLD reader releases the excess energy in the form of heat and light. The quantity or intensity of the light given off gives a measure of the radiation dose the TLD received. If the TLDs are processed at an off site location, the transit dose (from the location to the site and return) must be determined and subtracted from the net dose. The ability to determine this transit dose affects the net sensitivity of the measurements. The TLD is left in the field for a period of a day to a quarter and then removed from the field and read in the laboratory on a calibrated TLD reader. The reading is the total dose received by the TLD during the posting period. TLDs come in various shapes (thin-rectangles, rods, and powder), sizes (0.08 cm to 0.6 cm (1/32 in. to 1/4 in.) on a side), and materials (CaF_2:Mn, $CaSO_4$:Dy, ^{6}LiF:Mn, ^{7}LiF:Mn, $LiBO_4$, LiF:Mg,Cu,P and Al_2O_3:C). The TLD crystals can be held loosely inside a holder, sandwiched between layers of Teflon, affixed to a substrate, or attached to a heater strip and surrounded by a glass envelope. Most are surrounded by special thin shields to correct for an over response to low-energy radiation. Many have special radiation filters to allow the same type TLD to measure various types and energies of radiation.
Specificity/Sensitivity: TLDs are primarily sensitive to gamma radiation, but selected TLD/filter arrangements can be used to measure beta, x-ray, and neutron radiation. They are posted both on site and off site in comparable areas. These readings are compared to determine if the site can cause personnel to receive more radiation exposure than would be received from background radiation. The low-end sensitivity can be reduced by specially calibrating each TLD and selecting those with high accuracy and good precision. The new Al_2O_3 TLD may be capable of measuring doses as low as 0.1 µSv (0.01 mrem) while specially calibrated CaF_2 TLDs posted quarterly can measure dose differences as low as 0.05 mSv/y (5 mrem/y). This is in contrast to standard TLDs that are posted monthly and may not measure doses below 1 mSv/y (100 mrem/y). TLDs should be protected from damage as the manufacturer recommends. Some are sensitive to visible light, direct sunlight, fluorescent light, excessive heat, or high humidity.
Cost of Equipment: \$5K-\$ 100K (reader), \$25-\$40 (TLD). TLDs cost \$5 to \$40 per rental.
Cost per Measurement: \$25 to \$125

H.2 FIELD SURVEY EQUIPMENT

H.2.4 Radon Detectors

System: ACTIVATED CHARCOAL ADSORPTION
Lab/Field: Field
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** Radon gas **Secondary:** None

Applicability to Site Surveys: Activated charcoal adsorption is a passive low cost screening method for measuring indoor air radon concentration. The charcoal adsorption method is not designed for outdoor measurements. For contaminated structures, charcoal is a good short-term indicator of radon contamination. Vendors provide measurement services which includes the detector and subsequent readout.

Operation: For this method, an airtight container with activated charcoal is opened in the area to be sampled and radon in the air adsorbs onto the charcoal. The detector, depending on its design, is deployed for 2 to 7 days. At the end of the sampling period, the container is sealed and sent to a laboratory for analysis. Proper deployment and analysis will yield accurate results.

Two analysis methods are commonly used in activated charcoal adsorption. The first method calculates the radon concentration based on the gamma decay from the radon progeny analyzed on a gamma scintillation or semiconductor detection system. The second method is liquid scintillation which employs a small vial containing activated charcoal for sampling. After exposure, scintillation fluid is added to the vial and the radon concentration is determined by the alpha and beta decay of the radon and progeny when counted in a liquid scintillation spectrometer.

Specificity/Sensitivity: Charcoal absorbers are designed to measure radon concentrations in indoor air. Some charcoal absorbers are sensitive to drafts, temperature and humidity. However, the use of a diffusion barrier over the charcoal reduces these effects. The minimum detectable concentration for this method ranges from 0.007-0.04 Bq/L (0.2-1.0 pCi/L).

Cost of Equipment: $10,000 for a liquid scintillation counter, $10,000 for a sodium iodide multichannel analyzer system, or $30,000+ for a germanium multichannel analyzer system. The cost of the activated charcoal itself is minimal.

Cost per Measurement: $5 to $30 including canister.

System: ALPHA TRACK DETECTOR
Lab/Field: Field
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** Radon Gas (Alpha Particles) **Secondary:** None
Applicability to Site Surveys: An alpha track detector is a passive, low cost, long term method used for measuring radon. Alpha track detectors can be used for site assessments both indoors and outdoors (with adequate protection from the elements).

Operation: Alpha track detectors employ a small piece of special plastic or film inside a small container. Air being tested diffuses through a filtering mechanism into the container. When alpha particles from the decay of radon and its progeny strike the detector, they cause damage tracks. At the end of exposure, the container is sealed and returned to the laboratory for analysis.

The plastic or film detector is chemically treated to amplify the damage tracks and then the number of tracks over a predetermined area are counted using a microscope, optical reader, or spark counter. The radon concentration is determined by the number of tracks per unit area. Detectors are usually exposed for 3 to 12 months, although shorter time frames may be used when measuring high radon concentrations.

Specificity/Sensitivity: Alpha track detectors are primarily used for indoor air measurements but specially designed detectors are available for outdoor measurements. Alpha track results are usually expressed as the radon concentration over the exposure period (Bq/L-days). The sensitivity is a function of detector design and exposure duration, and is on the order of 0.04 Bq/L-day (1 pCi/L-day).

Cost of Equipment: Not applicable when provided by a vendor

Cost per Measurement: $5 to $25

System: CONTINUOUS RADON MONITOR
Lab/Field: Field
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** Radon gas **Secondary:** None

Applicability to Site Surveys: Continuous radon monitors are devices that measure and record real-time measurements of radon gas or variations in radon concentration on an hourly basis. Since continuous monitors display real-time hourly radon measurements, they are useful for short-term site investigation.

Operation: Continuous radon monitors are precision devices that track and record real-time measurements and variations in radon gas concentration on an hourly basis. Air either diffuses or is pumped into a counting chamber. The counting chamber is typically a scintillation cell or ionization chamber. Using a calibration factor, the counts are processed electronically, and radon concentrations for predetermined intervals are stored in memory or directly transmitted to a printer.

Most continuous monitors are used for a relatively short measurement period, usually 1 to 7 days. These devices do require some operator skills and often have a ramp-up period to equilibrate with the surrounding atmosphere. This ramp-up time can range from 1 to 4 hours depending on the size of the counting chamber and rate of air movement into the chamber.

Specificity/Sensitivity: Most continuous monitors are designed for both indoor and outdoor radon measurements. The limiting factor for outdoor usage is the need for electrical power. In locations where external power is unavailable, the available operating time depends on the battery lifetime of the monitor. The minimum detectable concentration for these detectors ranges from 0.004-0.04 Bq/L (0.1-1.0 pCi/L).

Cost of Equipment: $1,000 to $5,000.

Cost per Measurement: $80+ based on duration of survey.

System: ELECTRET ION CHAMBER
Lab/Field: Field
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** Radon gas (alpha, beta) **Secondary:** Gamma

Applicability to Site Surveys: Electrets are used to measure radon concentration in indoor environments. For contaminated structures, the electret ion chamber is a good indicator of short-term and long-term radon concentrations.

Operation: For this method, an electrostatically charged disk (electret) is situated within a small container (ion chamber). During the measurement period, radon diffuses through a filter into the ion chamber, where the ionization produced by the decay of radon and its progeny reduces the charge on the electret. A calibration factor relates the voltage drop, due to the charge reduction, to the radon concentration. Variations in electret design enable the detector to make long-term or short-term measurements. Short-term detectors are deployed for 2 to 7 days, whereas long-term detectors may be deployed from 1 to 12 months.

Electrets are relatively inexpensive, passive, and can be used several times before discarding or recharging, except in areas of extreme radon concentrations. These detectors need to be corrected for the background gamma radiation during exposure since this ionization also discharges the electret.

Specificity/Sensitivity: Electrets are designed to make radon measurements primarily in indoor environments. Care must be taken to measure the background gamma radiation at the site during the exposure period. Extreme temperatures and humidity encountered outdoors may affect electret voltage. The minimum detectable concentration ranges from 0.007-0.02 Bq/L (0.2 to 0.5 pCi/L).

Cost of Equipment: Included in rental price

Cost per Measurement: $8 to $25 rental for an electret supplied by a vendor

System: LARGE AREA ACTIVATED CHARCOAL COLLECTOR
Lab/Field: Field
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** Radon gas **Secondary:** None

Applicability to Site Surveys: This method is used to make radon flux measurements (the surface emanation rate of radon gas) and involves the adsorption of radon on activated carbon in a large area collector.

Operation: The collector consists of a 10 inch diameter PVC end cap, spacer pads, charcoal distribution grid, retainer pad with screen, and a steel retainer spring. Between 170 and 200 grams of activated charcoal is spread in the distribution grid and held in place by the retainer pad and spring.

The collector is deployed by firmly twisting the end cap into the surface of the material to be measured. After 24 hours of exposure, the activated charcoal is removed and transferred to plastic containers. The amount of radon adsorbed on the activated charcoal is determined by gamma spectroscopy. This data is used to calculate the radon flux in units of Bq m^{-2} s^{-1}.

Specificity/Sensitivity: These collectors give an accurate short-term assessment of the radon gas surface emanation rate from a material. The minimum detectable concentration of this method is 0.007 Bq m^{-2} s^{-1} (0.2 pCi m^{-2} s^{-1}).

Exposures greater than 24 hours are not recommended due to atmospheric and surface moisture and temperature extremes which may affect charcoal efficiency.

Cost of Equipment: Not applicable

Cost per Measurement: \$20 - \$50 including canister

H.2 FIELD SURVEY EQUIPMENT

H.2.5 X-Ray and Low Energy Gamma Detectors

System: FIDLER PROBE WITH SURVEY METER
Lab/Field: Field
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** X-ray **Secondary:** Low Energy Gamma
Applicability to Site Surveys: The FIDLER (Field Instrument for the Detection of Low Energy Radiation) probe is a specialized detector consisting of a thin layer of sodium or cesium iodide which is optimized to detect gamma and x-radiation below 100 keV. It is most widely used for determining the presence of Pu and ^{241}Am, and can be used for estimating radionuclide concentrations in the field.
Operation: The FIDLER consists of a thin beryllium or aluminum window, a thin crystal of sodium iodide, a quartz light pipe, and photomultiplier tube. The probe can have either a 3 in. or 5 in. crystal. The discussion below is applicable to 5 in. crystals. The survey meter requires electronics capable of setting a window about an x-ray or gamma ray energy. This window allows the probe and meter to detect specific energies and, in most cases, provide information about a single element or radionuclide. The window also lowers the background count. Two types of survey meters are generally used with FIDLER probes. One type resembles those used with GM and alpha scintillation probes. They have an analog meter and range switch. The second type is a digital survey meter, which can display the count rate or accumulate counts in a scaler mode for a preset length of time. Both types have adjustable high voltage and window settings. The advantage of the digital meter is that both background and sample counts can be acquired in scaler mode, yielding a net count above background. The activity of a radionuclide can then be estimated in the field.
Specificity/Sensitivity: The FIDLER probe is quite sensitive to x-ray and low energy gamma radiation. Since it has the ability to discriminate energies, an energy window can be set that makes it possible to determine the presence of specific radionuclides when the nature of the contamination is known. If the identity of a contaminant is known, the FIDLER can be used to quantitatively determine the concentration. However, interferences can cause erroneous results if other radionuclides are present. The FIDLER can also be used as a survey instrument to detect the presence of x-ray or low energy gamma contaminates, and to determine the extent of the contamination. FIDLER probes are most useful for determining the presence of Pu and ^{241}Am. These isotopes have a complex of x-rays and gamma rays from 13-21 keV that have energies centered around 17 keV, and ^{241}Am has a gamma at 59 keV. There is an interference at 13 keV from both americium and uranium x-rays. The FIDLER cannot distinguish which isotope of Pu is present. ^{241}Am can be identified based on the 59 keV gamma. Typical sensitivities for ^{238}Pu and ^{239}Pu at one foot above the surface of a contaminated area are 500 to 700 and 250 to 350 counts per minute per µCi per square meter (cpm/µCi/m^2), respectively. Assuming a soil density of 1.5, uniform contamination of the first 1 mm of soil, and a typical background of 400 counts per minute, the MDC for ^{238}Pu and ^{239}Pu would be 370 and 740 Bq/kg (10 and 20 pCi/g), or 1500 and 3000 Bq/m^2 (900 and 1,800 dpm/100 cm^2). This MDC is for fresh deposition; and will be significantly less as the plutonium migrates into the soil. Because the window is fragile, most operations with a FIDLER probe require a low mass protective cover to prevent damaging the window. Styrofoam, cardboard, and other cushioning materials are common choices for a protective cover.
Cost of Equipment: \$4,000 to \$7,000
Cost per Measurement: \$10 to \$20

System: FIELD X-RAY FLUORESCENCE SPECTROMETER
Lab/Field: Field
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** X-ray and low energy gamma radiation
Secondary: None

Applicability to Site Surveys: The system accurately measures relative concentrations of metal atoms in soil or water samples down to the ppm range.

Operation: This system is a rugged form of x-ray fluorescence system that measures the characteristic x-rays of metals as they are released from excited electron structures. The associated electronic and multi-channel analyzer systems are essentially identical to those used with germanium spectrometry systems. The spectra of characteristic x-rays gives information for both quantitative and qualitative analysis; however, most frequently, the systems are only calibrated for relative atomic abundance or percent composition.

Specificity/Sensitivity: This is ideal for cases of contamination by metals that have strong x-ray emissions within 5-100 keV. Application for quantification of the transition metals (in the periodic table) is most common because of the x-ray emissions. Operation of this equipment is possible with only a moderate amount of training. The sensitivity ranges from a few percent to ppm depending on the particular atoms and their characteristic x-rays. When converted to activity concentration, the minimum detectable concentration for ^{238}U is around 1,850 Bq/kg (50 pCi/g) for typical soil matrices.

Cost of Equipment: $15,000 - $75,000 depending on size, speed of operation and auxiliary features employed for automatic analysis of the results.

Cost per Measurement: $200

H.2 FIELD SURVEY EQUIPMENT

H.2.6 Other Field Survey Equipment

System: CHEMICAL SPECIES LASER ABLATION MASS SPECTROMETER
Lab/Field: Field
Radiation Detected: None

Applicability to Site Surveys: Chemical Species Laser Ablation Mass Spectrometry has been successfully applied to the analysis of organic and inorganic molecular species in condensed material with high sensitivity and specificity.

Operation: Solids can be converted into aerosol particles which contain much of the molecular species information present in the original material. (One way this is done is by laser excitation of one component of a solid mixture which, when volatilized, carries along the other molecular species without fragmentation.) Aerosol particles can be carried hundreds of feet without significant loss in a confined or directed air stream before analysis by mass spectrometry. Some analytes of interest already exist in the form of aerosol particles. Laser ablation is also preferred over traditional means for the conversion of the aerosol particles into molecular ions for mass spectral analysis. Instrument manufacturers are working with scientists at national laboratories and universities in the development of compact portable laser ablation mass spectrometry instrumentation for field based analyses.

Specificity/Sensitivity: This system can analyze soils and surfaces for organic and inorganic molecular species, with extremely good sensitivity. Environmental concentrations in the range of 10^{-9} - 10^{-14} g/g can be determined, depending on environmental conditions. It is highly effective when used by a skilled operator, but of limited use due to high costs. It may be possible to quantify an individual radionuclide if no other nuclides of that isotope are present in the sample matrix. Potential MDC's are $4x10^{-8}$ Bq/kg ($1x10^{-9}$ pCi/g) for ^{238}U, 0.04 Bq/kg (10^{-3} pCi/g) for ^{239}Pu, 4 Bq/kg (1 pCi/g) for ^{137}Cs, and 37 Bq/kg (10 pCi/g) for ^{60}Co.

Cost of Equipment: Very expensive (prototype)

Cost per Measurement: May be comparable to laser ablation inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectrometry (LA-ICP-AES) and laser ablation inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (LA-ICP-MS). When using the Atomic Emission Spectrometer, the reported cost is $4,000 per sample, or 80% of conventional sampling and analysis costs. This high cost for conventional samples is partly due to the 2-3 day time to analyze a sample for thorium by conventional methods. When using the mass spectrometer, the time required is about 30 minutes per sample.

System: LA-ICP-AES AND LA-ICP-MS
Lab/Field: Field
Radiation Detected: None

Applicability to Site Surveys: LA-ICP-AES and LA-ICP-MS are acronyms for Laser Ablation-Inductively Coupled Plasma-Atomic Emission Spectrometry or Mass Spectrometry. LA-ICP-AES/MS techniques are used to screen/characterize very small samples of soils and concrete (non-destructively) *in situ* to determine the level of contamination. It is particularly suited to measuring the surface concentration of uranium and thorium. The unit can assess the concentrations at various depths when lower levels are exposed by some means. It has the advantages of not consuming surface material, providing real time response, reducing sampling and analysis time, and keeping personnel clear of the materials being sampled. The information developed can assist in identifying locations for excavation. It is currently being tested.

Operation: Components of the system include a sampling system, fiber optics cables, spectrometer, potable water supply, cryogenic and high-pressure gas supply, a robotics arm, control computers, inductively coupled plasma torch, and video monitor.

Sampling probes have been developed and prototyped that will screen/characterize surface soils, concrete floors or pads, and subsurface soils. The sampling probes, both surface and subsurface, contain the laser (a 50-Hz Nd/YAG laser), associated optics, and control circuitry to raster the laser (ablation) energy across one square inch of sample surface. Either sampling probe is connected by an umbilical, currently 20 m long, to the Mobile Demonstration Laboratory for Environmental Screening Technologies (MDLEST), a completely self-contained mobile laboratory containing the instrumentation to immediately analyze the samples generated by the laser ablation.

A fiber optic cable delivers laser light to the surface of interest. This ablates a small quantity of material that is carried away in a stream of argon gas. The material enters the plasma torch where it is vaporized, atomized, ionized, and electrically excited at about 8,000 K. This produces an ionic emission spectrum that is analyzed on the atomic emission spectrometer.

The analysis instrumentation (ICP-AES/MS) in the MDLEST does not depend on radioactive decay for detection but looks directly at the atomic make up of the elements(s) of interest. A large number of metals including the longer half-life radioactive elements can be detected and quantified. The spectrometer is set up using either hardware, software, or both to simultaneously detect all elements of interest in each sample.

The MDLEST can be set up on site to monitor soil treatment processes. This function enables the remediation manager to monitor, in real time, the treatment processes removing the contaminants and ensure that satisfactory agreement with both regulatory agency and QC/QA requirements is attained.

Specificity/Sensitivity: This system measures the surface or depth concentration of atomic species, and is particularly suited to uranium and thorium analysis. It is highly effective with skilled operators. Some advantages are no contact with the soil, real time results, and no samples to dispose of. The sample results are quickly available for field remediation decisions, with the LA-ICP-AES taking about 10 minutes and LA-ICP-MS taking about 30 minutes. The detection limits for the two spectrometers that have been used are as follows:

1) The AES (atomic emission spectrometer) can see ppm levels for some 70 elements and reportedly detects uranium and thorium concentrations at 1 ppm, or 10 Bq/kg (0.3 pCi/g) for ^{238}U and 0.4 Bq/kg (0.1 pCi/g) for ^{232}Th. However, the technique is only sensitive to elements; it cannot discriminate between the different isotopes of uranium and thorium. This prevents it from being used for assessing lower Z elements that have stable isotopes, or from determining relative abundances of isotopes of any element. This may significantly limit its use at some sites.
2) The MS (mass spectrometer) can see sub-ppb levels and is capable of quantifying the uranium and thorium isotopes. This system has been used to search for ^{230}Th and ^{226}Ra and is reportedly useful in reaching 0.8 ppm or 0.6 Bq/g (15 pCi/g) for ^{230}Th content for remediated soil. It appears to measure uranium and thorium concentration of soil more sensitively than the LA-ICP-AES system.

Cost of Equipment: Very expensive, >$1M.

Cost per Measurement: When using the Atomic Emission Spectrometer, the reported cost is $4,000 per sample. When using the mass spectrometer, a dollar price was not provided.

H.3 LABORATORY INSTRUMENTS

H.3.1 Alpha Particle Analysis

System: ALPHA SPECTROSCOPY WITH MULTICHANNEL ANALYZER
Lab/Field: Lab
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** Alpha **Secondary:** None
Applicability to Site: This is a very powerful tool for accurately identifying and quantifying the activity of multiple alpha-emitting radionuclides in a sample of soil, water, air filters, etc. Methods exist for the analyses of most alpha emitting radionuclides including uranium, thorium, plutonium, polonium, and americium. Samples must first be prepared in a chemistry lab to isolate the radionuclides of interest from the environmental matrix.
Operation: This system consists of an alpha detector housed in a light-tight vacuum chamber, a bias supply, amplifier, analog-to-digital converter, multichannel analyzer, and computer. The bias is typically 25 to 100 volts. The vacuum is typically less than 10 microns (0.1 millitorr). The detector is a silicon diode that is reverse biased. Alpha particles which strike the diode create electron-hole pairs; the number of pairs is directly related to the energy of each alpha. These pairs cause a breakdown of the diode and a current pulse to flow. The charge is collected by a preamplifier and converted to a voltage pulse which is proportional to the alpha energy. It is amplified and shaped by an amplifier. The MCA stores the resultant pulses and displays a histogram of the number of counts vs. alpha energy. Since most alphas will loose all of their energy to the diode, peaks are seen on the MCA display that can be identified by specific alpha energies. Two system calibrations are necessary. A source with at least two known alpha energies is counted to correlate the voltage pulses with alpha energy. A standard source of known activity is analyzed to determine the system efficiency for detecting alphas. Since the sample and detector are in a vacuum, most commonly encountered alpha energies will be detected with approximately the same efficiency, provided there is no self-absorption in the sample. Samples are prepared in a chemistry lab. The sample is placed in solution and the element of interest (uranium, plutonium, *etc.*) separated. A tracer of known activity is added before separation to determine the overall recovery of the sample from the chemical procedures. The sample is converted to a particulate having very little mass and collected on a special filter, or it is collected from solution by electroplating onto a metal disk. It is then placed in the vacuum chamber at a fixed distance from the diode and analyzed. For environmental levels, samples are typically analyzed for 1000 minutes or more.
Specificity/Sensitivity: The system can accurately identify and quantify the various alpha emitting radioactive isotopes of each elemental species provided each has a different alpha energy that can be resolved by the system. For soils, a radionuclide can be measured below 0.004 Bq/g (0.1 pCi/g) . The system is appropriate for all alphas except those from gaseous radionuclides.
Cost of Equipment: $10,000 - $100,000 based on the number of detectors and sophistication of the computer and data reduction software. This does not include the cost of equipment for the chemistry lab.
Cost per Measurement: $250-$400 for the first element, $100-200 for each additional element per sample. The additional element cost depends on the separation chemistry involved and may not always be less. $200-$300 additional for a rush analysis.

System: GAS-FLOW PROPORTIONAL COUNTER
Lab/Field: Lab
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** Alpha, Beta **Secondary:** Gamma
Applicability to Site Surveys: This system can determine the gross alpha or gross beta activity of water, soil, air filters, or swipes. Results can indicate if nuclide-specific analysis is needed.
Operation: The system consists of a gas-flow detector, supporting electronics, and an optional guard detector for reducing background count rate. A thin window can be placed between the gas-flow detector and sample to protect the detector from contamination, or the sample can be placed directly into the detector. Systems with guard detectors operate sample and guard detectors in anticoincidence mode to reduce the background and MDC. The detector high voltage and discriminator are set to count alpha radiation, beta radiation, or both simultaneously. The alpha and beta operating voltages are determined for each system by placing an alpha source, like ^{230}Th or ^{241}Am, in the detector and increasing the high voltage incrementally until the count rate becomes constant, then repeating with a beta source, like ^{90}Sr. The alpha plateau, or region of constant count rate, should have a slope <2%/100V and be >800V long. The beta plateau should have a slope of <2.5%/100V and be >200V long. Operation on the beta plateau will also allow detection of some gamma radiation and bremsstrahlung (x-rays), but the efficiency is very low. Crosstalk between the α-to-β channels is typically around 10% while β-to-α channels should be <1%. The activity in soil samples is chemically extracted, separated if necessary, deposited in a thin layer in a planchet to minimize self absorption, and heated to dryness. Liquids are deposited and dried, while air filters and swipes are placed directly in the planchet. After each sample is placed under the detector, P-10 counting gas constantly flows through the detector. Systems with automatic sample changers can analyze tens to hundreds of planchet samples in a single run.
Specificity/Sensitivity: Natural radionuclides present in soil samples can interfere with the detection of other contaminants. Unless the nature of the contaminant and any naturally-occurring radionuclides is well known, this system is better used for screening samples. Although it is possible to use a proportional counter to roughly determine the energies of alpha and beta radiation, the normal mode of operation is to detect all alpha events or all alpha and beta events. Some systems use a discriminator to separate alpha and beta events, allowing simultaneous determination of both the alpha and beta activity in a sample. These systems do not identify the alpha or beta energies detected and cannot be used to identify specific radionuclides. The alpha channel background is very low, <0.2 cpm (<0.04 cpm guarded), depending on detector size. Typical, 4-pi, efficiencies for very thin alpha sources are 35-45% (window) and 40-50% (windowless). Efficiency depends on window thickness, particle energy, source-detector geometry, backscatter from the sample and holder, and detector size. The beta channel background ranges from 2 to 15 cpm (<0.5 cpm guarded). The 4-pi efficiency for a thin ^{90}Sr/^{90}Y source is >50% (window) to >60% (windowless), but can reduce to <5% for a thick source. MDA's for guarded gas-flow proportional counters are somewhat lower for beta emitters than for internal proportional counters because of the lower backgrounds. Analyzing a high radioactivity sample or flushing the detector with P10 gas at too high a flow rate can suspend fine particles and contaminate the detector.
Cost of Equipment: $4K-$5K (manual), $25K-$30K (automatic)
Cost per Measurement: $30 to $50 plus radiochemistry

System: LIQUID SCINTILLATION SPECTROMETER
Lab/Field: Lab (primarily), field (secondarily)
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** Alpha, beta **Secondary:** Gamma
Applicability to Site Surveys: Liquid Scintillation can be a very effective tool for measuring the concentration of radionuclides in soil, water, air filters, and swipes. Liquid scintillation has historically been applied more to beta emitters, particularly the low energy beta emitters ^{3}H and ^{14}C, but it can also apply to other radionuclides. More recently it has been used for measuring radon in air and water. Initial scoping surveys may be done (particularly for loose surface contamination) with surface swipes or air particulate filters. They may be counted directly in liquid scintillation cocktails with no paper dissolution or other sample preparation.
Operation: The liquid scintillation process involves detection of light pulses (usually in the near visible range) by photo-multiplier tubes (or conceptually similar devices). The detected light pulses originate from the re-structuring of previously excited molecular electron structures. The molecular species that first absorb and then re-admit the visible light are called "liquid scintillators" and the solutions in which they reside are called "liquid scintillation cocktails." For gross counting, samples may be placed directly into a LSC vial of cocktail, and counted with no preparation. Inaccuracies result when the sample itself absorbs the radiation before it can reach the LSC cocktail, or when the sample absorbs the light produced by the cocktail. For accurate results, these interferences are minimized. Interferences in liquid scintillation counting due to the inability of the solution to deliver the full energy pulse to the photo-multiplier detector, for a variety of reasons, are called "pulse quenching." Raw samples that cloud or color the LSC cocktail so the resulting scintillations are absorbed will "quench" the sample and result in underestimates of the activity. Such samples are first processed by ashing, radiochemical or solvent extraction, or pulverizing to place the sample in intimate contact with the LSC cocktail. Actions like bleaching the sample may also be necessary to make the cocktail solution transparent to the wavelength of light it emits. The analyst has several reliable computational or experimental procedures to account for "quenching." One is by exposing the sample and pure cocktail to an external radioactive standard and measuring the difference in response.
Specificity/Sensitivity: The method is extremely flexible and accurate when used with proper calibration and compensation for quenching effects. Energy spectra are 10 to 100 times broader than gamma spectrum photopeaks so that quantitative determination of complex multi-energy beta spectra is impossible. Sample preparation can range from none to complex chemical reactions. In some cases, liquid scintillation offers many unique advantages; no sample preparation before counting in contrast to conventional sample preparation for gas proportional counting. Recent advances in electronic stability and energy pulse shape discrimination has greatly expanded uses. Liquid scintillation counters are ideal instruments for moderate to high energy beta as well as alpha emitters, where the use of pulse shape discrimination has allowed dramatic increases in sensitivity by electronic discrimination against beta and gamma emitters. Additionally, very high energy beta emitters (above 1.5 MeV) may be counted using liquid scintillation equipment without "liquid scintillation cocktails" by use of the Cerenkov light pulse emitted as high energy charged particles move through water or similar substances.
Cost of Equipment: \$20,000 to \$70,000 based on the specific features and degree of automation
Cost per Measurement: \$50 -200 plus cost of chemical separation, if required

System: LOW-RESOLUTION ALPHA SPECTROSCOPY
Lab/Field: Lab (Soil Samples)
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** Alpha **Secondary:**

Applicability to Site Surveys: Low-resolution alpha spectroscopy is a method for measuring alpha activity in soils with a minimum of sample preparation. Some isotopic information can be obtained.

Operation: The system consists of a 2 in. diameter silicon detector, small vacuum chamber, roughing pump, multichannel analyzer, laptop or benchtop computer, and analysis software. Soil samples are dried, milled to improve homogeneity, distributed into 2 in. planchets, loaded into the vacuum chamber, and counted. The accumulated alpha spectrum is displayed in real time. When sufficient counts have been accumulated, the spectrum is transferred to a data file and the operator inputs the known or suspected contaminant isotopes. The analysis software then fits the alpha spectrum with a set of trapezoidal peaks, one for each isotope, and outputs an estimate of the specific activity of each isotope.

Specificity/Sensitivity: This method fills the gap between gross alpha analysis and radiochemical separation/high-resolution alpha spectroscopy. Unlike gross alpha analysis, it does provide some isotopic information. Because this is a low-resolution technique, isotopes with energies closer than ~0.2 MeV cannot be separated. For example, ^{238}U (4.20 MeV) can be readily distinguished from ^{234}U (4.78 MeV), but ^{230}Th (4.69 MeV) cannot be distinguished from ^{234}U.

Because no chemical separation of isotopes is involved, only modest MDC's can be achieved. Detection limits are determined by the background alpha activity in the region of interest of the contaminant of concern, and also by the counting time. Typical MDC's are 1,500 Bq/kg (40 pCi/g) @ 15 min counting time, 260 Bq/kg (7 pCi/g) @ 8 hours, and 185 Bq/kg (5 pCi/g) @ 24 hours. The method does not generate any new waste streams and does not require a sophisticated laboratory or highly-trained personnel.

Cost of Equipment: $11,000

Cost per Measurement: $25-$100

H.3 LABORATORY INSTRUMENTS

H.3.2 Beta Particle Analysis

System: GAS-FLOW PROPORTIONAL COUNTER
Lab/Field: Lab
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** Alpha, Beta **Secondary:** Gamma
Applicability to Site Surveys: This system can determine the gross alpha or gross beta activity of water, soil, air filters, or swipes. Results can indicate if nuclide-specific analysis is needed.
Operation: The system consists of a gas-flow detector, supporting electronics, and an optional guard detector for reducing background count rate. A thin window can be placed between the gas-flow detector and sample to protect the detector from contamination, or the sample can be placed directly into the detector. Systems with guard detectors operate sample and guard detectors in anticoincidence mode to reduce the background and MDC. The detector high voltage and discriminator are set to count alpha radiation, beta radiation, or both simultaneously. The alpha and beta operating voltages are determined for each system by placing an alpha source, like ^{230}Th or ^{241}Am, in the detector and increasing the high voltage incrementally until the count rate becomes constant, then repeating with a beta source, like ^{90}Sr. The alpha plateau, or region of constant count rate, should have a slope <2%/100V and be >800V long. The beta plateau should have a slope of <2.5%/100V and be >200V long. Operation on the beta plateau will also allow detection of some gamma radiation and bremsstrahlung (x-rays), but the efficiency is very low. Crosstalk between the α-to-β channels is typically around 10% while β-to-α channels should be <1%. The activity in soil samples is chemically extracted, separated if necessary, deposited in a thin layer in a planchet to minimize self absorption, and heated to dryness. Liquids are deposited and dried, while air filters and swipes are placed directly in the planchet. After each sample is placed under the detector, P-10 counting gas constantly flows through the detector. Systems with automatic sample changers can analyze tens to hundreds of planchet samples in a single run.
Specificity/Sensitivity: Natural radionuclides present in soil samples can interfere with the detection of other contaminants. Unless the nature of the contaminant and any naturally-occurring radionuclides is well known, this system is better used for screening samples. Although it is possible to use a proportional counter to roughly determine the energies of alpha and beta radiation, the normal mode of operation is to detect all alpha events or all alpha and beta events. Some systems use a discriminator to separate alpha and beta events, allowing simultaneous determination of both the alpha and beta activity in a sample. These systems do not identify the alpha or beta energies detected and cannot be used to identify specific radionuclides. The alpha channel background is very low, <0.2 cpm (<0.04 cpm guarded), depending on detector size. Typical, 4-pi, efficiencies for very thin alpha sources are 35-45% (window) and 40-50% (windowless). Efficiency depends on window thickness, particle energy, source-detector geometry, backscatter from the sample and holder, and detector size. The beta channel background ranges from 2 to 15 cpm (<0.5 cpm guarded). The 4-pi efficiency for a thin ^{90}Sr/^{90}Y source is >50% (window) to >60% (windowless), but can reduce to <5% for a thick source. MDA's for guarded gas-flow proportional counters are somewhat lower for beta emitters than for internal proportional counters because of the lower backgrounds. Analyzing a high radioactivity sample or flushing the detector with P10 gas at too high a flow rate can suspend fine particles and contaminate the detector.
Cost of Equipment: $4K-$5K (manual), $25K-$30K (automatic)
Cost per Measurement: $30 to $50 plus radiochemistry

System: LIQUID SCINTILLATION SPECTROMETER
Lab/Field: Lab (primarily), field (secondarily)
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** Alpha, beta **Secondary:** Gamma
Applicability to Site Surveys: Liquid Scintillation can be a very effective tool for measuring the concentration of radionuclides in soil, water, air filters, and swipes. Liquid scintillation has historically been applied more to beta emitters, particularly the low energy beta emitters ^{3}H and ^{14}C, but it can also apply to other radionuclides. More recently it has been used for measuring radon in air and water. Initial scoping surveys may be done (particularly for loose surface contamination) with surface swipes or air particulate filters. They may be counted directly in liquid scintillation cocktails with no paper dissolution or other sample preparation.
Operation: The liquid scintillation process involves detection of light pulses (usually in the near visible range) by photo-multiplier tubes (or conceptually similar devices). The detected light pulses originate from the re-structuring of previously excited molecular electron structures. The molecular species that first absorb and then re-admit the visible light are called "liquid scintillators" and the solutions in which they reside are called "liquid scintillation cocktails." For gross counting, samples may be placed directly into a LSC vial of cocktail, and counted with no preparation. Inaccuracies result when the sample itself absorbs the radiation before it can reach the LSC cocktail, or when the sample absorbs the light produced by the cocktail. For accurate results, these interferences are minimized. Interferences in liquid scintillation counting due to the inability of the solution to deliver the full energy pulse to the photo-multiplier detector, for a variety of reasons, are called "pulse quenching." Raw samples that cloud or color the LSC cocktail so the resulting scintillations are absorbed will "quench" the sample and result in underestimates of the activity. Such samples are first processed by ashing, radiochemical or solvent extraction, or pulverizing to place the sample in intimate contact with the LSC cocktail. Actions like bleaching the sample may also be necessary to make the cocktail solution transparent to the wavelength of light it emits. The analyst has several reliable computational or experimental procedures to account for "quenching." One is by exposing the sample and pure cocktail to an external radioactive standard and measuring the difference in response.
Specificity/Sensitivity: The method is extremely flexible and accurate when used with proper calibration and compensation for quenching effects. Energy spectra are 10 to 100 times broader than gamma spectrum photopeaks so that quantitative determination of complex multi-energy beta spectra is impossible. Sample preparation can range from none to complex chemical reactions. In some cases, liquid scintillation offers many unique advantages such as no sample preparation before counting in contrast to conventional sample preparation for gas proportional counting. Recent advances in electronic stability and energy pulse shape discrimination has greatly expanded uses. Liquid scintillation counters are ideal instruments for moderate to high energy beta as well as alpha emitters, where the use of pulse shape discrimination has allowed dramatic increases in sensitivity by electronic discrimination against beta and gamma emitters. Additionally, very high energy beta emitters (above 1.5 MeV) may be counted using liquid scintillation equipment without "liquid scintillation cocktails" by use of the Cerenkov light pulse emitted as high energy charged particles move through water or similar substances.
Cost of Equipment: $20,000 to $70,000 based on the specific features and degree of automation
Cost per Measurement: $50 -200 plus cost of chemical separation, if required

H.3 LABORATORY INSTRUMENTS

H.3.3 Gamma Ray Analysis

System: GERMANIUM DETECTOR WITH MULTICHANNEL ANALYZER (MCA)
Lab/Field: Lab
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** Gamma **Secondary:** None
Applicability to Site: This system accurately measures the activity of gamma-emitting radionuclides in a variety of materials like soil, water, air filters, etc. with little preparation. Germanium is especially powerful in dealing with multiple radionuclides and complicated spectra.
Operation: This system consists of a germanium detector connected to a dewar of liquid nitrogen, high voltage power supply, spectroscopy grade amplifier, analog to digital converter, and a multichannel analyzer. P-type germanium detectors typically operate from +2000 to +5000 volts. N-type germanium detectors operate from -2000 to -5000 volts. Germanium is a semiconductor material. When a gamma ray interacts with a germanium crystal, it produces electron-hole pairs. An electric field is applied which causes the electrons to move in the conduction band and the holes to pass the charge from atom to neighboring atom. The charge is collected rapidly and is proportional to the deposited energy. The count rate/energy spectrum is displayed on the MCA screen with the full energy photopeaks providing more useful information than the general smear of Compton scattering events shown in between. The system is energy calibrated using isotopes that emit at least two known gamma ray energies, so the MCA data channels are given an energy equivalence. The MCA's display then becomes a display of intensity versus energy. Efficiency calibration is performed using known concentrations of mixed isotopes. A curve of gamma ray energy versus counting efficiency is generated, and it shows that P-type germanium is most sensitive at 120 keV and trails off to either side. Since the counting efficiency depends on the distance from the sample to the detector, each geometry must be given a separate efficiency calibration curve. From that point the center of each gaussian-shaped peak tells the gamma ray energy that produced it, the combination of peaks identifies each isotope, and the area under selected peaks is a measure of the amount of that isotope in the sample. Samples are placed in containers and tare weighed. Plastic petri dishes sit atop the detector and are useful for small volumes or low energies, while Marinelli beakers fit around the detector and provide exceptional counting efficiency for volume samples. Counting times of 1000 seconds to 1000 minutes are typical. Each peak is identified manually or by gamma spectrometry analysis software. The counts in each peak or energy band, the sample weight, the efficiency calibration curve, and the isotope's decay scheme are factored together to give the sample concentration.
Specificity/Sensitivity: The system accurately identifies and quantifies the concentrations of multiple gamma-emitting radionuclides in samples like soil, water, and air filters with minimum preparation. A P-type detector is good for energies over 50 keV. An N-type or P-type planar (thin crystal) detector with beryllium-end window is good for 5-80 keV energies using a thinner sample placed over the window.
Cost of Equipment: $35,000 to $150,000 based on detector efficiency and sophistication of MCA/computer/software system
Cost per Measurement: $ 100 to $200 (rush requests can double or triple costs)

System: SODIUM IODIDE DETECTOR WITH MULTICHANNEL ANALYZER
Lab/Field: Lab
Radiation Detected: **Primary:** Gamma **Secondary:** None
Applicability to Site Surveys: This system accurately measures the activity of gamma-emitting radionuclides in a variety of materials like soil, water, air filters, etc. with little preparation. Sodium iodide is inherently more efficient for detecting gamma rays but has lower resolution than germanium, particularly if multiple radionuclides and complicated spectra are involved.
Operation: This system consists of a sodium iodide detector, a high voltage power supply, an amplifier, an analog to digital converter, and a multichannel analyzer. The detector is a sodium iodide crystal connected to a photomultiplier tube (PMT). Crystal shapes can vary extensively and typical detector high voltage are 900-1,000 V. Sodium iodide is a scintillation material. A gamma ray interacting with a sodium iodide crystal produces light which is passed to the PMT. This light ejects electrons which the PMT multiplies into a pulse that is proportional to the energy the gamma ray imparted to the crystal. The MCA assesses the pulse size and places a count in the corresponding channel. The count rate and energy spectrum is displayed on the MCA screen with the full energy photopeaks providing more useful information than the general smear of Compton scattering events shown in between. The system is energy calibrated using isotopes that emit at least two gamma ray energies, so the MCA data channels are given an energy equivalence. The MCA's CRT then becomes a display of intensity versus energy. A non-linear energy response and lower resolution make isotopic identification less precise than with a germanium detector. Efficiency calibration is performed using known concentrations of single or mixed isotopes. The single isotope method develops a count rate to activity factor. The mixed isotope method produces a gamma ray energy versus counting efficiency curve that shows that sodium iodide is most sensitive around 100-120 keV and trails off to either side. Counting efficiency is a function of sample to detector distance, so each geometry must have a separate efficiency calibration curve. The center of each peak tells the gamma ray energy that produced it and the combination of peaks identifies each isotope. Although the area under a peak relates to that isotope's activity in the sample, integrating a band of channels often provides better sensitivity. Samples are placed in containers and tare weighed. Plastic petri dishes sit atop the detector and are useful for small volumes or low energies, while Marinelli beakers fit around the detector and provide exceptional counting efficiency for volume samples. Counting times of 60 seconds to 1,000 minutes are typical. The CRT display is scanned and each peak is identified by isotope. The counts in each peak or energy band, the sample weight, the efficiency calibration curve, and the isotope's decay scheme are factored together to give the sample concentration.
Specificity/Sensitivity: This system analyzes gamma-emitting isotopes with minimum preparation, better efficiency, but lower resolution compared to most germanium detectors. Germanium detectors do reach efficiencies of 150% compared with a 3 in. by 3 in. sodium iodide detector, but the cost is around $100,000 each compared with $3,000. Sodium iodide measures energies over 80 keV. The instrument response is energy dependent, the resolution is not superb, and the energy calibration is not totally linear, so care should be taken when identifying or quantifying multiple isotopes. Computer software can help interpret complicated spectra. Sodium iodide is fragile and should be protected from shock and sudden temperature changes.
Cost of Equipment: $6K-$20K
Cost per Measurement: $100-$200 per sample.

EQUIPMENT SUMMARY TABLES

Table H.1 Radiation Detectors with Applications to Alpha Surveys

System	Description	Application	Remarks	Equipment Cost	Measurement Cost
Alpha spectroscopy	A system using silicon diode surface barrier detectors for alpha energy identification and quantification	Accurately identifies and measures the activity of multiple alpha radionuclides in a thin extracted sample of soil, water, or air filters.	Sample requires radiochemical separation or other preparation before counting	\$10K-\$100K	\$250-\$400
Alpha scintillation survey meter	<1 mg/cm^2 window, probe face area 50 to 100 cm^2.	Field measurement of presence or absence of alpha contamination on nonporous surfaces, swipes, and air filters, or on irregular surfaces if the degree of surface shielding is known.	Minimum sensitivity is 10 cpm, or 1 cpm with headphones	\$1000	\$5
Alpha Track Detector	Polycarbonate plastic sheet is placed in contact with a contaminated surface and kept in place	Measures gross alpha surface contamination, soil activity level, or the depth profile of contamination	Alpha radiation produces holes that are enlarged chemically. Density of holes gives a measure of the radioactivity level.		\$5-\$25
Electret ion chamber	A charged Teflon disk in an open-faced ion chamber	Measures alpha or beta contamination on surfaces and in soils, plus gamma radiation dose or radon concentration	The type of radiation is determined by how the electret is employed, *e.g.*, the unit is kept closed and bagged in plastic to measure gammas	\$4,000-\$5,000	\$8-\$25
Long range alpha detector (LRAD)	1m x 1m detector measures ionization inside the box. Attached to tractor for movement. Has location finder and plots graph of contamination.	Measures surface contamination or soil concentration at grid points and plots curves of constant contamination. Intended for large areas.	Alpha detection limit is 20-50 dpm/100 cm^2 or 0.4 Bq/g (10 pCi/g).	\$25,000	\$80

Table H.1 Radiation Detectors with Applications to Alpha Surveys

System	Description	Application	Remarks	Equipment Cost	Measurement Cost
Gas-flow proportional counter (field)	A detector through which P10 gas flows and which measures alpha and beta radiation. < 1-10 mg/cm^2 window, probe face area 50 to 100 cm^2 for hand held detectors; up to 600 cm^2 if cart mounted	Surface scanning, surface activity measurement, or field evaluation of swipes. Serves as a screen to determine if more nuclide-specific analyses are needed.	Natural radionuclides in samples can interfere with the detection of other contaminants. Requires P10 gas	$2K-$4K	$2-$10/m^2
Gas-flow proportional counter (lab)	Windowless (internal proportional) or window <0.1 mg/cm^2, probe face area 10 to 20 cm^2. May have a second or guard detector to reduce background and MDA.	Laboratory measurement of water, air, and swipe samples	Requires P10 gas. Windowless detectors can be contaminated.	$4K-$30K	$50
Liquid scintillation counter (LSC)	Samples are mixed with LSC cocktail and the radiation emitted causes light pulses with proportional intensity.	Laboratory analysis of alpha or beta emitters, including spectrometry capabilities.	Highly selective for alpha or beta radiation by pulse shape discrimination. Requires LSC cocktail.	$20K-$70K	$50-$200

Table H.2 Radiation Detectors with Applications to Beta Surveys

System	Description	Application	Remarks	Equipment Cost	Measurement Cost
GM survey meter with beta pancake probe	Thin 1.4 mg/cm^2 window detector, probe area 10 to 100 cm^2	Surface scanning of personnel, working areas, equipment, and swipes for beta contamination. Laboratory measurement of swipes when connected to a scaler.	Relatively high detection limit making it of limited value in final status surveys.	$400-$1,500	$5-$10
Gas-flow proportional counter (field)	A detector through which P10 gas flows and which measures alpha and beta radiation. < 1-10 mg/cm^2 window, probe face area 50 to 100 cm^2	Surface scanning, surface activity measurement, or field evaluation of swipes. Serves as a screen to determine if more nuclide-specific analyses are needed.	Natural radionuclides in samples can interfere with the detection of other contaminants. Requires P10 gas, but can be disconnected for hours.	$2K-$4K	$2-$10/m^2
Gas-flow proportional counter (lab)	Windowless (internal proportional) or window <0.1 mg/cm^2, probe face area 10 to 20 cm^2. May have a second or guard detector to reduce background and MDA.	Laboratory measurement of water, air, and swipe samples	Requires P10 gas. Windowless detectors can be contaminated.	$4K-$30K	$50
Liquid scintillation counter (LSC)	Samples are mixed with LSC cocktail and the radiation emitted causes light pulses with proportional intensity.	Laboratory analysis of alpha and beta emitters, including spectrometry capabilities.	Highly selective for alpha and beta radiation by pulse shape discrimination. Requires LSC cocktail.	$20K-$70K	$100-$200

Table H.3 Radiation Detectors with Applications to Gamma and X-Ray Surveys

System	Description	Application	Remarks	Cost of Equipment	Cost per Measurement
GM survey meter with gamma probe	Thick-walled 30 mg/cm^2 detector	Measure radiation levels above 0.1 mR/hr.	Its non-linear energy response can be corrected by using an energy compensated probe.	\$400-\$1,000	\$5
Pressurized ion chamber (PIC)	A highly accurate ionization chamber that is rugged and stable.	Excellent for measuring gamma exposure rate during site remediation.	Is used in conjunction with radionuclide identification equipment.	\$15K - \$50K	\$50 - \$500
Electret ion chamber	Electrostatically charged disk inside an ion chamber	Gamma exposure rate	N/A, rented	included in rental price	\$8 - \$25
Hand-held ion chamber survey meter	Ion chamber for measuring higher radiation levels than typical background.	Measures true gamma exposure rate.	Not very useful for site surveys because of high detection limit above background levels.	\$800-\$1,200	\$5
Hand-held pressurized ion chamber survey meter	Ion chamber for measuring higher radiation levels than typical background.	Measures true gamma exposure rate with more sensitivity than the unpressurized ion chamber.	Not very useful for site surveys because of high detection limit above background levels.	\$1,000-\$1,500	\$5
Sodium Iodide survey meter	Detectors sizes up to 8"x8". Used in micro R-meter in smaller sizes.	Measures low levels of environmental radiation.	Its energy response is not linear, so it should be calibrated for the energy field it will measure or have calibration factors developed by comparison with a PIC for a specific site.	\$2K	\$5
FIDLER (Field Instrument for Detection of Low Energy Radiation)	Thin crystals of NaI or CsI.	Scanning of gamma/X radiation from plutonium and americium.		\$6K-\$7K	\$10-\$20

Table H.3 Radiation Detectors with Applications to Gamma and X-Ray Surveys

System	Description	Application	Remarks	Cost of Equipment	Cost per Measurement
Sodium iodide detector with multichannel analyzer (MCA)	Sodium iodide crystal with a large range of sizes and shapes, connected to a photomultiplier tube and MCA.	Laboratory gamma spectroscopy to determine the identity and concentration of gamma emitting radionuclides in a sample.	Sensitive for surface soil or groundwater contamination. Analysis programs have difficulty if sample contains more than a few isotopes.	$6K-$20K	$100 to $200
Germanium detector with multichannel analyzer (MCA)	Intrinsic germanium semiconductor in p- or n-type configuration and without a beryllium window.	Laboratory gamma spectroscopy to determine the identity and concentration of gamma emitting radionuclides in a sample.	Very sensitive for surface soil or groundwater contamination. Is especially powerful when more than one radionuclide is present in a sample.	$35K-$150K	$100 to $200
Portable Germanium Multichannel Analyzer (MCA) System	A portable version of a laboratory based germanium detector and multichannel analyzer.	Excellent during characterization through final status survey to identify and quantify the concentration of gamma ray emitting radionuclides and in situ concentrations of soil and other media	Requires a supply of liquid nitrogen or a mechanical cooling system, as well as highly trained operators.	$40K	$100
Field x-ray fluorescence spectrometer	Uses silicon or germanium semiconductor	Determining fractional abundance of low percentage metal atoms.		$15K-$75K	$200
Thermoluminescence dosimeters (TLDs)	Crystals that are sensitive to gamma radiation	Measure cumulative radiation dose over a period of days to months.	Requires special calibration to achieve high accuracy and reproducibility of results.	$5K-$50K for reader + $25-$40 per TLD	$25-$125

Table H.4 Radiation Detectors with Applications to Radon Surveys

System	Description	Application	Remarks	Equipment Cost	Measurement Cost
Large area activated charcoal collector	A canister containing activated charcoal is twisted into the surface and left for 24 hours.	Short term radon flux measurements	The LLD is 0.007 Bq $m^{-2}s^{-1}$ (0.2 pCi $m^{-2}s^{-1}$).	N/A, rented	$20-$50 including canister
Continuous radon monitor	Air pump and scintillation cell or ionization chamber	Track the real time concentration of radon	Takes 1 to 4 hours for system to equilibrate before starting. The LLD is 0.004-0.04 Bq/L (0.1-1.0 pCi/L).	$1K-$5K	$80
Activated charcoal adsorption	Activated charcoal is opened to the ambient air, then gamma counted on a gamma scintillator or in a liquid scintillation counter.	Measure radon concentration in indoor air	Detector is deployed for 2 to 7 days. The LLD is 0.007-0.04 Bq/L (0.2 to 1.0 pCi/L).	$10K-$30K	$5-$30 including canister if outsourced.
Electret ion chamber	This is a charged plastic vessel that can be opened for air to pass into.	Measure short-term or long-term radon concentration in indoor air.	Must correct reading for gamma background concentration. Electret is sensitive to extremes of temperature and humidity. LLD is 0.007-0.02 Bq/L (0.2-0.5 pCi/L).	N/A, rented	$8-$25 for rental
Alpha track detection	A small piece of special plastic or film inside a small container. Damage tracks from alpha particles are chemically etched and tracks counted.	Measure indoor or outdoor radon concentration in air.	LLD is 0.04 Bq $L^{-1}d^{-1}$ (1 pCi $L^{-1}d^{-1}$).		$5-$25

Table H.5 Systems that Measure Atomic Mass or Emissions

System	Description	Application	Remarks	Cost of Equipment	Cost per Measurement
LA-ICP-AES (Laser Ablation Inductively Coupled Plasma Atomic Emissions Spectrometer)	Vaporizes and ionizes the surface material, and measures emissions from the resulting atoms.	Live time analysis of radioactive U and Th contamination in the field.	Requires expensive equipment and skilled operators. LLD is 0.004 Bq/g (0.1 pCi/g) for ^{232}Th and 0.01 Bq/g (0.3 pCi/g) for ^{238}U.	>$1,000,000	$4,000
LA-ICP-MS (Laser Ablation Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometer)	Vaporizes and ionizes the surface material, then measures the mass of the resulting atoms.	Live time analysis of radioactive U and Th contamination in the field.	Requires expensive equipment and skilled operators. More sensitive than LA-ICP-AES. LLD is 0.6 Bq/g (15 pCi/g) for ^{230}Th.	>$1,000,000	>$4,000
Chemical speciation laser ablation/mass spectrometer	A laser changes the sample into an aerosol that it analyzed with a mass spectrometer.	Analyze organic and inorganic species with high sensitivity and specificity.	Volatilized samples can be carried hundreds of feet to the analysis area.	>$1,000,000	>$4,000

APPENDIX I

STATISTICAL TABLES AND PROCEDURES

I.1 Normal Distribution

Table I.1 Cumulative Normal Distribution Function Φ(z)

z	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.05	0.06	0.07	0.08	0.09
0.00	0.5000	0.5040	0.5080	0.5120	0.5160	0.5199	0.5239	0.5279	0.5319	0.5359
0.10	0.5398	0.5438	0.5478	0.5517	0.5557	0.5596	0.5636	0.5674	0.5714	0.5753
0.20	0.5793	0.5832	0.5871	0.5910	0.5948	0.5987	0.6026	0.6064	0.6103	0.6141
0.30	0.6179	0.6217	0.6255	0.6293	0.6331	0.6368	0.6406	0.6443	0.6480	0.6517
0.40	0.6554	0.6591	0.6628	0.6664	0.6700	0.6736	0.6772	0.6808	0.6844	0.6879
0.50	0.6915	0.6950	0.6985	0.7019	0.7054	0.7088	0.7123	0.7157	0.7190	0.7224
0.60	0.7257	0.7291	0.7324	0.7357	0.7389	0.7422	0.7454	0.7486	0.7517	0.7549
0.70	0.7580	0.7611	0.7642	0.7673	0.7704	0.7734	0.7764	0.7794	0.7823	0.7852
0.80	0.7881	0.7910	0.7939	0.7967	0.7995	0.8023	0.8051	0.8078	0.8106	0.8133
0.90	0.8159	0.8186	0.8212	0.8238	0.8264	0.8289	0.6315	0.8340	0.8365	0.8389
1.00	0.8413	0.8438	0.8461	0.8485	0.8508	0.8531	0.8554	0.8577	0.8599	0.8621
1.10	0.8643	0.8665	0.8686	0.8708	0.8729	0.8749	0.8770	0.8790	0.8810	0.8830
1.20	0.8849	0.8869	0.8888	0.8907	0.8925	0.8944	0.8962	0.8980	0.8997	0.9015
1.30	0.9032	0.9049	0.9066	0.9082	0.9099	0.9115	0.9131	0.9147	0.9162	0.9177
1.40	0.9192	0.9207	0.9222	0.9236	0.9251	0.9265	0.9279	0.9292	0.9306	0.9319
1.50	0.9332	0.9345	0.9357	0.9370	0.9382	0.9394	0.9406	0.9418	0.9429	0.9441
1.60	0.9452	0.9463	0.9474	0.9484	0.9495	0.9505	0.9515	0.9525	0.9535	0.9545
1.70	0.9554	0.9564	0.9573	0.9582	0.9591	0.9599	0.9608	0.9616	0.9625	0.9633
1.80	0.9641	0.9649	0.9656	0.9664	0.9671	0.9678	0.9686	0.9693	0.9699	0.9706
1.90	0.9713	0.9719	0.9726	0.9732	0.9738	0.9744	0.9750	0.9756	0.9761	0.9767
2.00	0.9772	0.9778	0.9783	0.9788	0.9793	0.9798	0.9803	0.9808	0.9812	0.9817
2.10	0.9821	0.9826	0.9830	0.9834	0.9838	0.9842	0.9846	0.9850	0.9854	0.9857
2.20	0.9861	0.9864	0.9868	0.9871	0.9875	0.9878	0.9881	0.9884	0.9887	0.9890
2.30	0.9893	0.9896	0.9898	0.9901	0.9904	0.9906	0.9909	0.9911	0.9913	0.9916
2.40	0.9918	0.9920	0.9922	0.9925	0.9927	0.9929	0.9931	0.9932	0.9934	0.9936
2.50	0.9938	0.9940	0.9941	0.9943	0.9945	0.9946	0.9948	0.9949	0.9951	0.9952
2.60	0.9953	0.9955	0.9956	0.9957	0.9959	0.9960	0.9961	0.9962	0.9963	0.9964
2.70	0.9965	0.9966	0.9967	0.9968	0.9969	0.9970	0.9971	0.9972	0.9973	0.9974
2.80	0.9974	0.9975	0.9976	0.9977	0.9977	0.9978	0.9979	0.9979	0.9980	0.9981
2.90	0.9981	0.9982	0.9982	0.9983	0.9984	0.9984	0.9985	0.9985	0.9986	0.9986
3.00	0.9987	0.9987	0.9987	0.9988	0.9988	0.9989	0.9989	0.9989	0.9990	0.9990
3.10	0.9990	0.9991	0.9991	0.9991	0.9992	0.9992	0.9992	0.9992	0.9993	0.9993
3.20	0.9993	0.9993	0.9994	0.9994	0.9994	0.9994	0.9994	0.9995	0.9995	0.9995
3.30	0.9995	0.9995	0.9995	0.9996	0.9996	0.9996	0.9996	0.9996	0.9996	0.9997
3.40	0.9997	0.9997	0.9997	0.9997	0.9997	0.9997	0.9997	0.9997	0.9997	0.9998

Negative values of z can be obtained from the relationship $\Phi(-z) = 1 - \Phi(z)$.

I.2 Sample Sizes for Statistical Tests

Table I.2a Sample Sizes for Sign Test
(Number of measurements to be performed in each survey unit)

	(α,β) or (β,α)														
	0.01	**0.01**	**0.01**	**0.01**	**0.01**	**0.025**	**0.025**	**0.025**	**0.025**	**0.05**	**0.05**	**0.05**	**0.1**	**0.1**	**0.25**
Δ/σ	**0.01**	**0.025**	**0.05**	**0.1**	**0.25**	**0.025**	**0.05**	**0.1**	**0.25**	**0.05**	**0.1**	**0.25**	**0.1**	**0.25**	**0.25**
0.1	4095	3476	2984	2463	1704	2907	2459	1989	1313	2048	1620	1018	1244	725	345
0.2	1035	879	754	623	431	735	622	503	333	518	410	258	315	184	88
0.3	468	398	341	282	195	333	281	227	150	234	185	117	143	83	40
0.4	270	230	197	162	113	192	162	131	87	136	107	68	82	48	23
0.5	178	152	130	107	75	126	107	87	58	89	71	45	54	33	16
0.6	129	110	94	77	54	92	77	63	42	65	52	33	40	23	11
0.7	99	83	72	59	41	70	59	48	33	50	40	26	30	18	9
0.8	80	68	58	48	34	57	48	39	26	40	32	21	24	15	8
0.9	66	57	48	40	28	47	40	33	22	34	27	17	21	12	6
1.0	57	48	41	34	24	40	34	28	18	29	23	15	18	11	5
1.1	50	42	36	30	21	35	30	24	17	26	21	14	16	10	5
1.2	45	38	33	27	20	32	27	22	15	23	18	12	15	9	5
1.3	41	35	30	26	17	29	24	21	14	21	17	11	14	8	4
1.4	38	33	28	23	16	27	23	18	12	20	16	10	12	8	4
1.5	35	30	27	22	15	26	22	17	12	18	15	10	11	8	4
1.6	34	29	24	21	15	24	21	17	11	17	14	9	11	6	4
1.7	33	28	24	20	14	23	20	16	11	17	14	9	10	6	4
1.8	32	27	23	20	14	22	20	16	11	16	12	9	10	6	4
1.9	30	26	22	18	14	22	18	15	10	16	12	9	10	6	4
2.0	29	26	22	18	12	21	18	15	10	15	12	8	10	6	3
2.5	28	23	21	17	12	20	17	14	10	15	11	8	9	5	3
3.0	27	23	20	17	12	20	17	14	9	14	11	8	9	5	3

Table I.2b Sample Sizes for Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test
(Number of measurements to be performed in the reference area and in each survey unit)

	(α,β) or (β,α)														
	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.025	0.025	0.025	0.025	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.1	0.1	0.25
Δ/σ	0.01	0.025	0.05	0.1	0.25	0.025	0.05	0.1	0.25	0.05	0.1	0.25	0.1	0.25	0.25
0.1	5452	4627	3972	3278	2268	3870	3273	2646	1748	2726	2157	1355	1655	964	459
0.2	1370	1163	998	824	570	973	823	665	440	685	542	341	416	243	116
0.3	614	521	448	370	256	436	369	298	197	307	243	153	187	109	52
0.4	350	297	255	211	146	248	210	170	112	175	139	87	106	62	30
0.5	227	193	166	137	95	162	137	111	73	114	90	57	69	41	20
0.6	161	137	117	97	67	114	97	78	52	81	64	40	49	29	14
0.7	121	103	88	73	51	86	73	59	39	61	48	30	37	22	11
0.8	95	81	69	57	40	68	57	46	31	48	38	24	29	17	8
0.9	77	66	56	47	32	55	46	38	25	39	31	20	24	14	7
1.0	64	55	47	39	27	46	39	32	21	32	26	16	20	12	6
1.1	55	47	40	33	23	39	33	27	18	28	22	14	17	10	5
1.2	48	41	35	29	20	34	29	24	16	24	19	12	15	9	4
1.3	43	36	31	26	18	30	26	21	14	22	17	11	13	8	4
1.4	38	32	28	23	16	27	23	19	13	19	15	10	12	7	4
1.5	35	30	25	21	15	25	21	17	11	18	14	9	11	7	3
1.6	32	27	23	19	14	23	19	16	11	16	13	8	10	6	3
1.7	30	25	22	18	13	21	18	15	10	15	12	8	9	6	3
1.8	28	24	20	17	12	20	17	14	9	14	11	7	9	5	3
1.9	26	22	19	16	11	19	16	13	9	13	11	7	8	5	3
2.0	25	21	18	15	11	18	15	12	8	13	10	7	8	5	3
2.25	22	19	16	14	10	16	14	11	8	11	9	6	7	4	2
2.5	21	18	15	13	9	15	13	10	7	11	9	6	7	4	2
2.75	20	17	15	12	9	14	12	10	7	10	8	5	6	4	2
3.0	19	16	14	12	8	14	12	10	6	10	8	5	6	4	2
3.5	18	16	13	11	8	13	11	9	6	9	8	5	6	4	2
4.0	18	15	13	11	8	13	11	9	6	9	7	5	6	4	2

I.3 Critical Values for the SignTest

Table I.3 Critical Values for the Sign Test Statistic S+

	Alpha								
N	*0.005*	*0.01*	*0.025*	*0.05*	*0.1*	*0.2*	*0.3*	*0.4*	*0.5*
4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	2	2
5	5	5	5	4	4	3	3	3	2
6	6	6	5	5	5	4	4	3	3
7	7	6	6	6	5	5	4	4	3
8	7	7	7	6	6	5	5	4	4
9	8	8	7	7	6	6	5	5	4
10	9	9	8	8	7	6	6	5	5
11	10	9	9	8	8	7	6	6	5
12	10	10	9	9	8	7	7	6	6
13	11	11	10	9	9	8	7	7	6
14	12	11	11	10	9	9	8	7	7
15	12	12	11	11	10	9	9	8	7
16	13	13	12	11	11	10	9	9	8
17	14	13	12	12	11	10	10	9	8
18	14	14	13	12	12	11	10	10	9
19	15	14	14	13	12	11	11	10	9
20	16	15	14	14	13	12	11	11	10
21	16	16	15	14	13	12	12	11	10
22	17	16	16	15	14	13	12	12	11
23	18	17	16	15	15	14	13	12	11
24	18	18	17	16	15	14	13	13	12
25	19	18	17	17	16	15	14	13	12
26	19	19	18	17	16	15	14	14	13
27	20	19	19	18	17	16	15	14	13
28	21	20	19	18	17	16	15	15	14
29	21	21	20	19	18	17	16	15	14
30	22	21	20	19	19	17	16	16	15

Table I.3 Critical Values for the Sign Test Statistic S+ (continued)

	Alpha								
N	*0.005*	*0.01*	*0.025*	*0.05*	*0.1*	*0.2*	*0.3*	*0.4*	*0.5*
31	23	22	21	20	19	18	17	16	15
32	23	23	22	21	20	18	17	17	16
33	24	23	22	21	20	19	18	17	16
34	24	24	23	22	21	19	19	18	17
35	25	24	23	22	21	20	19	18	17
36	26	25	24	23	22	21	20	19	18
37	26	26	24	23	22	21	20	19	18
38	27	26	25	24	23	22	21	20	19
39	27	27	26	25	23	22	21	20	19
40	28	27	26	25	24	23	22	21	20
41	29	28	27	26	25	23	22	21	20
42	29	28	27	26	25	24	23	22	21
43	30	29	28	27	26	24	23	22	21
44	30	30	28	27	26	25	24	23	22
45	31	30	29	28	27	25	24	23	22
46	32	31	30	29	27	26	25	24	23
47	32	31	30	29	28	26	25	24	23
48	33	32	31	30	28	27	26	25	24
49	33	33	31	30	29	27	26	25	24
50	34	33	32	31	30	28	27	26	25

For N greater than 50, the table (critical) value can be calculated from:

$$\frac{N}{2} + \frac{z}{2}\sqrt{N}$$

z is the (1-α) percentile of a standard normal distribution, which can be found on page I-10 or on page 5-28 in Table 5.2.

I.4 Critical Values for the WRS Test

Table I.4 Critical Values for the WRS test

m is the number of reference area samples and n is the number of survey unit samples.

	n =	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
m = 2	α=0.001	7	9	11	13	15	17	19	21	23	25	27	29	31	33	35	37	39	41	43
	α=0.005	7	9	11	13	15	17	19	21	23	25	27	29	31	33	35	37	39	40	42
	α=0.01	7	9	11	13	15	17	19	21	23	25	27	28	30	32	34	36	38	39	41
	α=0.025	7	9	11	13	15	17	18	20	22	23	25	27	29	31	33	34	36	38	40
	α=0.05	7	9	11	12	14	16	17	19	21	23	24	26	27	29	31	33	34	36	38
	α=0.1	7	8	10	11	13	15	16	18	19	21	22	24	26	27	29	30	32	33	35

	n =	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
m = 3	α=0.001	12	15	18	21	24	27	30	33	36	39	42	45	48	51	54	56	59	62	65
	α=0.005	12	15	18	21	24	27	30	32	35	38	40	43	46	48	51	54	57	59	62
	α=0.01	12	15	18	21	24	26	29	31	34	37	39	42	45	47	50	52	55	58	60
	α=0.025	12	15	18	20	22	25	27	30	32	35	37	40	42	45	47	50	52	55	57
	α=0.05	12	14	17	19	21	24	26	28	31	33	36	38	40	43	45	47	50	52	54
	α=0.1	11	13	16	18	20	22	24	27	29	31	33	35	37	40	42	44	46	48	50

	n =	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
m = 4	α=0.001	18	22	26	30	34	38	42	46	49	53	57	60	64	68	71	75	78	82	86
	α=0.005	18	22	26	30	33	37	40	44	47	51	54	58	61	64	68	71	75	78	81
	α=0.01	18	22	26	29	32	36	39	42	46	49	52	56	59	62	66	69	72	76	79
	α=0.025	18	22	25	28	31	34	37	41	44	47	50	53	56	59	62	66	69	72	75
	α=0.05	18	21	24	27	30	33	36	39	42	45	48	51	54	57	59	62	65	68	71
	α=0.1	17	20	22	25	28	31	34	36	39	42	45	48	50	53	56	59	61	64	67

	n =	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
m = 5	α=0.001	25	30	35	40	45	50	54	58	63	67	72	76	81	85	89	94	98	102	107
	α=0.005	25	30	35	39	43	48	52	56	60	64	68	72	77	81	85	89	93	97	101
	α=0.01	25	30	34	38	42	46	50	54	58	62	66	70	74	78	82	86	90	94	98
	α=0.025	25	29	33	37	41	44	48	52	56	60	63	67	71	75	79	82	86	90	94
	α=0.05	24	28	32	35	39	43	46	50	53	57	61	64	68	71	75	79	82	86	89
	α=0.1	23	27	30	34	37	41	44	47	51	54	57	61	64	67	71	74	77	81	84

	n =	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
m = 6	α=0.001	33	39	45	51	57	63	67	72	77	82	88	93	98	103	108	113	118	123	128
	α=0.005	33	39	44	49	54	59	64	69	74	79	83	88	93	98	103	107	112	117	122
	α=0.01	33	39	43	48	53	58	62	67	72	77	81	86	91	95	100	104	109	114	118
	α=0.025	33	37	42	47	51	56	60	64	69	73	78	82	87	91	95	100	104	109	113
	α=0.05	32	36	41	45	49	54	58	62	66	70	75	79	83	87	91	96	100	104	108
	α=0.1	31	35	39	43	47	51	55	59	63	67	71	75	79	83	87	91	94	98	102

Table I.4 Critical Values for the WRS Test (continued)

	n =	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
m = 7	α=0.001	42	49	56	63	69	75	81	87	92	98	104	110	116	122	128	133	139	145	151
	α=0.005	42	49	55	61	66	72	77	83	88	94	99	105	110	116	121	127	132	138	143
	α=0.01	42	48	54	59	65	70	76	81	86	92	97	102	108	113	118	123	129	134	139
	α=0.025	42	47	52	57	63	68	73	78	83	88	93	98	103	108	113	118	123	128	133
	α=0.05	41	46	51	56	61	65	70	75	80	85	90	94	99	104	109	113	118	123	128
	α=0.1	40	44	49	54	58	63	67	72	76	81	85	90	94	99	103	108	112	117	121

	n =	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
m = 8	α=0.001	52	60	68	75	82	89	95	102	109	115	122	128	135	141	148	154	161	167	174
	α=0.005	52	60	66	73	79	85	92	98	104	110	116	122	129	135	141	147	153	159	165
	α=0.01	52	59	65	71	77	84	90	96	102	108	114	120	125	131	137	143	149	155	161
	α=0.025	51	57	63	69	75	81	86	92	98	104	109	115	121	126	132	137	143	149	154
	α=0.05	50	56	62	67	73	78	84	89	95	100	105	111	116	122	127	132	138	143	148
	α=0.1	49	54	60	65	70	75	80	85	91	96	101	106	111	116	121	126	131	136	141

	n =	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
m = 9	α=0.001	63	72	81	88	96	104	111	118	126	133	140	147	155	162	169	176	183	190	198
	α=0.005	63	71	79	86	93	100	107	114	121	127	134	141	148	155	161	168	175	182	188
	α=0.01	63	70	77	84	91	98	105	111	118	125	131	138	144	151	157	164	170	177	184
	α=0.025	62	69	76	82	88	95	101	108	114	120	126	133	139	145	151	158	164	170	176
	α=0.05	61	67	74	80	86	92	98	104	110	116	122	128	134	140	146	152	158	164	170
	α=0.1	60	66	71	77	83	89	94	100	106	112	117	123	129	134	140	145	151	157	162

	n =	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
m = 10	α=0.001	75	85	94	103	111	119	128	136	144	152	160	167	175	183	191	199	207	215	222
	α=0.005	75	84	92	100	108	115	123	131	138	146	153	160	168	175	183	190	197	205	212
	α=0.01	75	83	91	98	106	113	121	128	135	142	150	157	164	171	178	186	193	200	207
	α=0.025	74	81	89	96	103	110	117	124	131	138	145	151	158	165	172	179	186	192	199
	α=0.05	73	80	87	93	100	107	114	120	127	133	140	147	153	160	166	173	179	186	192
	α=0.1	71	78	84	91	97	103	110	116	122	128	135	141	147	153	160	166	172	178	184

	n =	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
m = 11	α=0.001	88	99	109	118	127	136	145	154	163	171	180	188	197	206	214	223	231	240	248
	α=0.005	88	98	107	115	124	132	140	148	157	165	173	181	189	197	205	213	221	229	237
	α=0.01	88	97	105	113	122	130	138	146	153	161	169	177	185	193	200	208	216	224	232
	α=0.025	87	95	103	111	118	126	134	141	149	156	164	171	179	186	194	201	208	216	223
	α=0.05	86	93	101	108	115	123	130	137	144	152	159	166	173	180	187	195	202	209	216
	α=0.1	84	91	98	105	112	119	126	133	139	146	153	160	167	173	180	187	194	201	207

Table I.4 Critical Values for the WRS Test (continued)

	n =	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
m = 12	α=0.001	102	114	125	135	145	154	164	173	183	192	202	210	220	230	238	247	256	266	275
	α=0.005	102	112	122	131	140	149	158	167	176	185	194	202	211	220	228	237	246	254	263
	α=0.01	102	111	120	129	138	147	156	164	173	181	190	198	207	215	223	232	240	249	257
	α=0.025	100	109	118	126	135	143	151	159	168	176	184	192	200	208	216	224	232	240	248
	α=0.05	99	108	116	124	132	140	147	155	165	171	179	186	194	202	209	217	225	233	240
	α=0.1	97	105	113	120	128	135	143	150	158	165	172	180	187	194	202	209	216	224	231

	n =	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
m = 13	α=0.001	117	130	141	152	163	173	183	193	203	213	223	233	243	253	263	273	282	292	302
	α=0.005	117	128	139	148	158	168	177	187	196	206	215	225	234	243	253	262	271	280	290
	α=0.01	116	127	137	146	156	165	174	184	193	202	211	220	229	238	247	256	265	274	283
	α=0.025	115	125	134	143	152	161	170	179	187	196	205	214	222	231	239	248	257	265	274
	α=0.05	114	123	132	140	149	157	166	174	183	191	199	208	216	224	233	241	249	257	266
	α=0.1	112	120	129	137	145	153	161	169	177	185	193	201	209	217	224	232	240	248	256

	n =	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
m = 14	α=0.001	133	147	159	171	182	193	204	215	225	236	247	257	268	278	289	299	310	320	330
	α=0.005	133	145	156	167	177	187	198	208	218	228	238	248	258	268	278	288	298	307	317
	α=0.01	132	144	154	164	175	185	194	204	214	224	234	243	253	263	272	282	291	301	311
	α=0.025	131	141	151	161	171	180	190	199	208	218	227	236	245	255	264	273	282	292	301
	α=0.05	129	139	149	158	167	176	185	194	203	212	221	230	239	248	257	265	274	283	292
	α=0.1	128	136	145	154	163	171	180	189	197	206	214	223	231	240	248	257	265	273	282

	n =	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
m = 15	α=0.001	150	165	178	190	202	212	225	237	248	260	271	282	293	304	316	327	338	349	360
	α=0.005	150	162	174	186	197	208	219	230	240	251	262	272	283	293	304	314	325	335	346
	α=0.01	149	161	172	183	194	205	215	226	236	247	257	267	278	288	298	308	319	329	339
	α=0.025	148	159	169	180	190	200	210	220	230	240	250	260	270	280	289	299	309	319	329
	α=0.05	146	157	167	176	186	196	206	215	225	234	244	253	263	272	282	291	301	310	319
	α=0.1	144	154	163	172	182	191	200	209	218	227	236	246	255	264	273	282	291	300	309

	n =	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
m = 16	α=0.001	168	184	197	210	223	236	248	260	272	284	296	308	320	332	343	355	367	379	390
	α=0.005	168	181	194	206	218	229	241	252	264	275	286	298	309	320	331	342	353	365	376
	α=0.01	167	180	192	203	215	226	237	248	259	270	281	292	303	314	325	336	347	357	368
	α=0.025	166	177	188	200	210	221	232	242	253	264	274	284	295	305	316	326	337	347	357
	α=0.05	164	175	185	196	206	217	227	237	247	257	267	278	288	298	308	318	328	338	348
	α=0.1	162	172	182	192	202	211	221	231	241	250	260	269	279	289	298	308	317	327	336

Table I.4 Critical Values for the WRS Test (continued)

	n =	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
m = 17	α=0.001	187	203	218	232	245	258	271	284	297	310	322	335	347	360	372	384	397	409	422
	α=0.005	187	201	214	227	239	252	264	276	288	300	312	324	336	347	359	371	383	394	406
	α=0.01	186	199	212	224	236	248	260	272	284	295	307	318	330	341	353	364	376	387	399
	α=0.025	184	197	209	220	232	243	254	266	277	288	299	310	321	332	343	354	365	376	387
	α=0.05	183	194	205	217	228	238	249	260	271	282	292	303	313	324	335	345	356	366	377
	α=0.1	180	191	202	212	223	233	243	253	264	274	284	294	305	315	325	335	345	355	365

	n =	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
m = 18	α=0.001	207	224	239	254	268	282	296	309	323	336	349	362	376	389	402	415	428	441	454
	α=0.005	207	222	236	249	262	275	288	301	313	326	339	351	364	376	388	401	413	425	438
	α=0.01	206	220	233	246	259	272	284	296	309	321	333	345	357	370	382	394	406	418	430
	α=0.025	204	217	230	242	254	266	278	290	302	313	325	337	348	360	372	383	395	406	418
	α=0.05	202	215	226	238	250	261	273	284	295	307	318	329	340	352	363	374	385	396	407
	α=0.1	200	211	222	233	244	255	266	277	288	299	309	320	331	342	352	363	374	384	395

	n =	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
m = 19	α=0.001	228	246	262	277	292	307	321	335	350	364	377	391	405	419	433	446	460	473	487
	α=0.005	227	243	258	272	286	300	313	327	340	353	366	379	392	405	419	431	444	457	470
	α=0.01	226	242	256	269	283	296	309	322	335	348	361	373	386	399	411	424	437	449	462
	α=0.025	225	239	252	265	278	290	303	315	327	340	352	364	377	389	401	413	425	437	450
	α=0.05	223	236	248	261	273	285	297	309	321	333	345	356	368	380	392	403	415	427	439
	α=0.1	220	232	244	256	267	279	290	302	313	325	336	347	358	370	381	392	403	415	426

	n =	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
m = 20	α=0.001	250	269	286	302	317	333	348	363	377	392	407	421	435	450	464	479	493	507	521
	α=0.005	249	266	281	296	311	325	339	353	367	381	395	409	422	436	450	463	477	490	504
	α=0.01	248	264	279	293	307	321	335	349	362	376	389	402	416	429	442	456	469	482	495
	α=0.025	247	261	275	289	302	315	329	341	354	367	380	393	406	419	431	444	457	470	482
	α=0.05	245	258	271	284	297	310	322	335	347	360	372	385	397	409	422	434	446	459	471
	α=0.1	242	254	267	279	291	303	315	327	339	351	363	375	387	399	410	422	434	446	458

Reject the null hypothesis if the test statistic (W_r) is greater than the table (critical) value. For n or m greater than 20, the table (critical) value can be calculated from:

$$m(n+m+1)/2 \ + \ z\sqrt{nm(n+m+1)/12} \qquad \text{(I.1)}$$

if there are few or no ties, and from

$$m(n+m+1)/2 \ + \ z\sqrt{\frac{nm}{12}\left[(n+m+1)-\sum_{j=1}^{g}\frac{t_j(t_j^2-1)}{(n+m)(n+m-1)}\right]} \qquad \text{(I.2)}$$

if there are many ties, where g is the number of groups of tied measurements and t_j is the number of tied measurements in the jth group. z is the (1-α) percentile of a standard normal distribution, which can be found in the following table:

α	z
0.001	3.09
0.005	2.575
0.01	2.326
0.025	1.960
0.05	1.645
0.1	1.282

Other values can be found in Table I-1.

I.5 Probability of Detecting an Elevated Area

Table I.5 Risk that an Elevated Area with Length L/G and Shape S will not be Detected and the Area (%) of the Elevated Area Relative to a Triangular Sample Grid Area of 0.866 G^2

	Shape Parameter, S																			
	0.10		0.20		0.30		0.40		0.50		0.60		0.70		0.80		0.90		1.00	
L/G	Risk	Area	Risk	Area	Risk	Area	Risk	Area	Risk	Area	Risk	Area	Risk	Area	Risk	Area	Risk	Area	Risk	Area
0.01	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%
0.02	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%
0.03	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%
0.04	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	0.99	1%	0.99	1%
0.05	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	0.99	1%	0.99	1%	0.99	1%	0.99	1%	0.99	1%
0.06	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	0.99	<1%	0.99	1%	0.99	1%	0.99	1%	0.99	1%	0.99	1%	0.99	1%
0.07	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	0.99	1%	0.99	<1%	0.99	1%	0.99	1%	0.99	1%	0.99	1%	0.98	2%	0.98	2%
0.08	1.00	<1%	1.00	<1%	0.99	1%	0.99	<1%	0.99	1%	0.99	1%	0.98	2%	0.98	2%	0.98	2%	0.98	2%
0.09	1.00	<1%	0.99	1%	0.99	1%	0.99	1%	0.99	1%	0.98	2%	0.98	2%	0.98	2%	0.97	3%	0.97	3%
0.10	1.00	<1%	0.99	1%	0.99	1%	0.99	1%	0.98	2%	0.98	2%	0.97	3%	0.97	3%	0.97	3%	0.96	4%
0.11	1.00	<1%	0.99	1%	0.99	1%	0.98	2%	0.98	2%	0.97	3%	0.97	3%	0.96	4%	0.96	4%	0.96	4%
0.12	0.99	1%	0.99	1%	0.98	2%	0.98	2%	0.97	3%	0.97	3%	0.96	4%	0.96	4%	0.95	5%	0.95	5%
0.13	0.99	1%	0.99	1%	0.98	2%	0.98	2%	0.97	3%	0.96	4%	0.96	4%	0.95	5%	0.94	6%	0.94	6%
0.14	0.99	1%	0.99	1%	0.98	2%	0.97	3%	0.96	4%	0.96	4%	0.95	5%	0.94	6%	0.94	6%	0.93	7%
0.15	0.99	1%	0.98	2%	0.98	2%	0.97	3%	0.96	4%	0.95	5%	0.94	6%	0.93	7%	0.93	7%	0.92	8%
0.16	0.99	1%	0.98	2%	0.97	3%	0.96	4%	0.95	5%	0.94	6%	0.94	7%	0.93	7%	0.92	8%	0.91	9%
0.17	0.99	1%	0.98	2%	0.97	3%	0.96	4%	0.95	5%	0.94	6%	0.93	7%	0.92	8%	0.91	9%	0.90	10%
0.18	0.99	1%	0.98	2%	0.96	4%	0.95	5%	0.94	6%	0.93	7%	0.92	8%	0.91	9%	0.89	11%	0.88	12%
0.19	0.99	1%	0.97	3%	0.96	4%	0.95	5%	0.93	7%	0.92	8%	0.91	9%	0.90	10%	0.88	12%	0.87	13%
0.20	0.99	1%	0.97	3%	0.96	4%	0.94	6%	0.93	7%	0.91	9%	0.90	10%	0.88	12%	0.87	13%	0.85	15%
0.21	0.98	2%	0.97	3%	0.95	5%	0.94	6%	0.92	8%	0.90	10%	0.89	11%	0.87	13%	0.86	14%	0.84	16%
0.22	0.98	2%	0.96	4%	0.95	5%	0.93	7%	0.91	9%	0.89	11%	0.88	12%	0.86	14%	0.84	16%	0.82	18%
0.23	0.98	2%	0.96	4%	0.94	6%	0.92	8%	0.90	10%	0.88	12%	0.87	13%	0.85	15%	0.83	17%	0.81	19%
0.24	0.98	2%	0.96	4%	0.94	6%	0.92	8%	0.90	10%	0.87	13%	0.85	15%	0.83	17%	0.81	19%	0.79	21%
0.25	0.98	2%	0.95	5%	0.93	7%	0.91	9%	0.89	11%	0.86	14%	0.84	16%	0.82	18%	0.80	20%	0.77	23%
0.26	0.98	2%	0.95	5%	0.93	7%	0.90	10%	0.88	12%	0.85	15%	0.83	17%	0.80	20%	0.78	22%	0.75	25%
0.27	0.97	3%	0.95	5%	0.92	8%	0.89	11%	0.87	13%	0.84	16%	0.81	19%	0.79	21%	0.76	24%	0.74	26%
0.28	0.97	3%	0.94	6%	0.91	9%	0.89	11%	0.86	14%	0.83	17%	0.80	20%	0.77	23%	0.74	26%	0.72	28%
0.29	0.97	3%	0.94	6%	0.91	9%	0.88	12%	0.85	15%	0.82	18%	0.79	21%	0.76	24%	0.73	27%	0.69	31%
0.30	0.97	3%	0.93	7%	0.90	10%	0.87	13%	0.84	16%	0.80	20%	0.77	23%	0.74	26%	0.71	29%	0.67	33%

Guidance for using Table I.5 can be found in Gilbert 1987 and EPA 1989a.

Table I.5 Risk that an Elevated Area with Length L/G and Shape S will not be Detected and the Area (%) of the Elevated Area Relative to a Triangular Sample Grid Area of 0.866 G^2 (continued)

	Shape Parameter, S																			
	0.10		0.20		0.30		0.40		0.50		0.60		0.70		0.80		0.90		1.00	
L/G	**Risk**	**Area**	**Risk**	**Area**	**Risk**	**Area**	**Risk**	**Area**	**Risk**	**Area**	**Risk**	**Area**	**Risk**	**Area**	**Risk**	**Area**	**Risk**	**Area**	**Risk**	**Area**
0.31	0.97	3%	0.93	7%	0.90	10%	0.86	14%	0.83	17%	0.79	21%	0.76	24%	0.72	28%	0.69	31%	0.65	35%
0.32	0.96	4%	0.93	7%	0.89	11%	0.85	15%	0.81	19%	0.78	22%	0.74	26%	0.70	30%	0.67	33%	0.63	37%
0.33	0.96	4%	0.92	8%	0.88	12%	0.84	16%	0.80	20%	0.76	24%	0.72	28%	0.68	32%	0.64	36%	0.61	40%
0.34	0.96	4%	0.92	8%	0.87	13%	0.83	17%	0.79	21%	0.75	25%	0.71	29%	0.66	34%	0.62	38%	0.58	42%
0.35	0.96	4%	0.91	9%	0.87	13%	0.82	18%	0.78	22%	0.73	27%	0.69	31%	0.64	36%	0.60	40%	0.56	44%
0.36	0.95	5%	0.91	9%	0.86	14%	0.81	19%	0.76	24%	0.72	28%	0.67	33%	0.62	38%	0.58	42%	0.53	47%
0.37	0.95	5%	0.90	10%	0.85	15%	0.80	20%	0.75	25%	0.70	30%	0.65	35%	0.60	40%	0.55	45%	0.50	50%
0.38	0.95	5%	0.90	10%	0.84	16%	0.79	21%	0.74	26%	0.69	31%	0.63	37%	0.58	42%	0.53	47%	0.48	52%
0.39	0.94	6%	0.89	11%	0.83	17%	0.78	22%	0.72	28%	0.67	33%	0.61	39%	0.56	44%	0.50	50%	0.45	55%
0.40	0.94	6%	0.88	12%	0.83	17%	0.77	23%	0.71	29%	0.65	35%	0.59	41%	0.54	46%	0.48	52%	0.42	58%
0.41	0.94	6%	0.88	12%	0.82	18%	0.76	24%	0.70	30%	0.63	37%	0.57	43%	0.51	49%	0.45	55%	0.39	61%
0.42	0.94	6%	0.87	13%	0.81	19%	0.74	26%	0.68	32%	0.62	38%	0.55	45%	0.49	51%	0.42	58%	0.36	64%
0.43	0.93	7%	0.87	13%	0.80	20%	0.73	27%	0.66	34%	0.60	40%	0.53	47%	0.46	54%	0.40	60%	0.33	67%
0.44	0.93	7%	0.86	14%	0.79	21%	0.72	28%	0.65	35%	0.58	42%	0.51	49%	0.44	56%	0.37	63%	0.30	70%
0.45	0.93	7%	0.85	15%	0.78	22%	0.71	29%	0.63	37%	0.56	44%	0.49	51%	0.41	59%	0.34	66%	0.27	73%
0.46	0.92	8%	0.85	15%	0.77	23%	0.69	31%	0.62	38%	0.54	46%	0.46	54%	0.39	61%	0.31	69%	0.23	77%
0.47	0.92	8%	0.84	16%	0.76	24%	0.68	32%	0.60	40%	0.52	48%	0.44	56%	0.36	64%	0.28	72%	0.20	80%
0.48	0.92	8%	0.83	17%	0.75	25%	0.67	33%	0.58	42%	0.50	50%	0.41	59%	0.33	67%	0.25	75%	0.16	84%
0.49	0.91	9%	0.83	17%	0.74	26%	0.65	35%	0.56	44%	0.48	52%	0.39	61%	0.30	70%	0.22	78%	0.13	87%
0.50	0.91	9%	0.82	18%	0.73	27%	0.64	36%	0.55	45%	0.46	54%	0.37	63%	0.27	73%	0.18	82%	0.09	91%
0.51	0.91	9%	0.81	19%	0.72	28%	0.62	38%	0.53	47%	0.43	57%	0.34	66%	0.25	75%	0.15	85%	0.07	94%
0.52	0.90	10%	0.80	20%	0.71	29%	0.61	39%	0.51	49%	0.41	59%	0.32	69%	0.22	78%	0.13	88%	0.05	98%
0.53	0.90	10%	0.80	20%	0.70	31%	0.59	41%	0.49	51%	0.39	61%	0.29	71%	0.19	82%	0.10	92%	0.03	102%
0.54	0.89	11%	0.79	21%	0.68	32%	0.58	42%	0.47	53%	0.37	63%	0.27	74%	0.17	85%	0.08	95%	0.02	106%
0.55	0.89	11%	0.78	22%	0.67	33%	0.56	44%	0.46	55%	0.35	66%	0.24	77%	0.14	88%	0.06	99%	0.01	110%
0.56	0.89	11%	0.77	23%	0.66	34%	0.55	46%	0.44	57%	0.33	68%	0.22	80%	0.12	91%	0.04	102%	0.00	114%
0.57	0.88	12%	0.77	24%	0.65	35%	0.54	47%	0.42	59%	0.31	71%	0.20	83%	0.10	94%	0.02	106%	0.00	118%
0.58	0.88	12%	0.76	24%	0.64	37%	0.52	49%	0.40	61%	0.29	73%	0.18	85%	0.08	98%	0.01	110%	0.00	122%
0.59	0.87	13%	0.75	25%	0.63	38%	0.51	51%	0.39	63%	0.27	76%	0.16	88%	0.06	101%	0.00	114%	0.00	126%
0.60	0.87	13%	0.74	26%	0.62	39%	0.49	52%	0.37	65%	0.25	78%	0.14	91%	0.04	104%	0.00	118%	0.00	131%
0.61	0.87	13%	0.73	27%	0.60	40%	0.48	54%	0.35	67%	0.23	81%	0.12	94%	0.03	108%	0.00	121%	0.00	135%
0.62	0.86	14%	0.73	28%	0.59	42%	0.46	56%	0.34	70%	0.21	84%	0.10	98%	0.02	112%	0.00	126%	0.00	139%
0.63	0.86	14%	0.72	29%	0.58	43%	0.45	58%	0.32	72%	0.20	86%	0.09	101%	0.01	115%	0.00	130%	0.00	144%
0.64	0.85	15%	0.71	30%	0.57	45%	0.43	59%	0.30	74%	0.18	89%	0.07	104%	0.00	119%	0.00	134%	0.00	149%
0.65	0.85	15%	0.70	31%	0.56	46%	0.42	61%	0.29	77%	0.16	92%	0.06	107%	0.00	123%	0.00	138%	0.00	153%

Table I.5 Risk that an Elevated Area with Length L/G and Shape S will not be Detected and the Area (%) of the Elevated Area Relative to a Triangular Sample Grid Area of $0.866G^2$ (continued)

	Shape Parameter, S																			
	0.10		0.20		0.30		0.40		0.50		0.60		0.70		0.80		0.90		1.00	
L/G	**Risk**	**Area**	**Risk**	**Area**	**Risk**	**Area**	**Risk**	**Area**	**Risk**	**Area**	**Risk**	**Area**	**Risk**	**Area**	**Risk**	**Area**	**Risk**	**Area**	**Risk**	**Area**
0.66	0.84	16%	0.69	32%	0.55	47%	0.40	63%	0.27	79%	0.15	95%	0.05	111%	0.00	126%	0.00	142%	0.00	158%
0.67	0.84	16%	0.68	33%	0.53	49%	0.39	65%	0.25	81%	0.13	98%	0.03	114%	0.00	130%	0.00	147%	0.00	163%
0.68	0.84	17%	0.68	34%	0.52	50%	0.38	67%	0.24	84%	0.12	101%	0.02	117%	0.00	134%	0.00	151%	0.00	168%
0.69	0.83	17%	0.67	35%	0.51	52%	0.36	69%	0.22	86%	0.10	104%	0.01	121%	0.00	138%	0.00	155%	0.00	173%
0.70	0.83	18%	0.66	36%	0.50	53%	0.35	71%	0.21	89%	0.09	107%	0.01	124%	0.00	142%	0.00	160%	0.00	178%
0.71	0.82	18%	0.65	37%	0.49	55%	0.33	73%	0.20	91%	0.08	110%	0.00	128%	0.00	146%	0.00	165%	0.00	183%
0.72	0.82	19%	0.64	38%	0.48	56%	0.32	75%	0.18	94%	0.07	113%	0.00	132%	0.00	150%	0.00	169%	0.00	188%
0.73	0.81	19%	0.63	39%	0.46	58%	0.31	77%	0.17	97%	0.05	116%	0.00	135%	0.00	155%	0.00	174%	0.00	193%
0.74	0.81	20%	0.62	40%	0.45	60%	0.29	79%	0.15	99%	0.04	119%	0.00	139%	0.00	159%	0.00	179%	0.00	199%
0.75	0.80	20%	0.61	41%	0.44	61%	0.28	82%	0.14	102%	0.04	122%	0.00	143%	0.00	163%	0.00	184%	0.00	204%
0.76	0.80	21%	0.61	42%	0.43	63%	0.27	84%	0.13	105%	0.03	126%	0.00	147%	0.00	168%	0.00	189%	0.00	210%
0.77	0.79	22%	0.60	43%	0.42	65%	0.25	86%	0.12	108%	0.02	129%	0.00	151%	0.00	172%	0.00	194%	0.00	215%
0.78	0.79	22%	0.59	44%	0.40	66%	0.24	88%	0.10	110%	0.01	132%	0.00	154%	0.00	177%	0.00	199%	0.00	221%
0.79	0.78	23%	0.58	45%	0.39	68%	0.23	91%	0.09	113%	0.01	136%	0.00	158%	0.00	181%	0.00	204%	0.00	226%
0.80	0.78	23%	0.57	46%	0.38	70%	0.22	93%	0.08	116%	0.00	139%	0.00	163%	0.00	186%	0.00	209%	0.00	232%
0.81	0.77	24%	0.56	48%	0.37	71%	0.20	95%	0.07	119%	0.00	143%	0.00	167%	0.00	190%	0.00	214%	0.00	238%
0.82	0.77	24%	0.55	49%	0.36	73%	0.19	98%	0.06	122%	0.00	146%	0.00	171%	0.00	195%	0.00	220%	0.00	244%
0.83	0.76	25%	0.54	50%	0.35	75%	0.18	100%	0.05	125%	0.00	150%	0.00	175%	0.00	200%	0.00	225%	0.00	250%
0.84	0.76	26%	0.53	51%	0.33	77%	0.17	102%	0.05	128%	0.00	154%	0.00	179%	0.00	205%	0.00	230%	0.00	256%
0.85	0.75	26%	0.52	52%	0.32	79%	0.16	105%	0.04	131%	0.00	157%	0.00	183%	0.00	210%	0.00	236%	0.00	262%
0.86	0.74	27%	0.51	54%	0.31	80%	0.14	107%	0.03	134%	0.00	161%	0.00	188%	0.00	215%	0.00	241%	0.00	268%
0.87	0.74	27%	0.50	55%	0.30	82%	0.13	110%	0.02	137%	0.00	165%	0.00	192%	0.00	220%	0.00	247%	0.00	275%
0.88	0.73	28%	0.50	56%	0.29	84%	0.12	112%	0.02	140%	0.00	169%	0.00	197%	0.00	225%	0.00	253%	0.00	281%
0.89	0.73	29%	0.49	57%	0.28	86%	0.11	115%	0.01	144%	0.00	172%	0.00	201%	0.00	230%	0.00	259%	0.00	287%
0.90	0.72	29%	0.48	59%	0.27	88%	0.10	118%	0.01	147%	0.00	176%	0.00	206%	0.00	235%	0.00	264%	0.00	294%
0.91	0.72	30%	0.47	60%	0.26	90%	0.10	120%	0.01	150%	0.00	180%	0.00	210%	0.00	240%	0.00	270%	0.00	300%
0.92	0.71	31%	0.46	61%	0.25	92%	0.09	123%	0.00	154%	0.00	184%	0.00	215%	0.00	246%	0.00	276%	0.00	307%
0.93	0.71	31%	0.45	63%	0.24	94%	0.08	126%	0.00	157%	0.00	188%	0.00	220%	0.00	251%	0.00	282%	0.00	314%
0.94	0.70	32%	0.44	64%	0.23	96%	0.07	128%	0.00	160%	0.00	192%	0.00	224%	0.00	256%	0.00	288%	0.00	321%
0.95	0.69	33%	0.43	65%	0.22	98%	0.07	131%	0.00	164%	0.00	196%	0.00	229%	0.00	262%	0.00	295%	0.00	327%
0.96	0.69	33%	0.42	67%	0.21	100%	0.06	134%	0.00	167%	0.00	201%	0.00	234%	0.00	267%	0.00	301%	0.00	334%
0.97	0.68	34%	0.41	68%	0.20	102%	0.05	137%	0.00	171%	0.00	205%	0.00	239%	0.00	273%	0.00	307%	0.00	341%
0.98	0.68	35%	0.40	70%	0.19	105%	0.05	139%	0.00	174%	0.00	209%	0.00	244%	0.00	279%	0.00	314%	0.00	348%
0.99	0.67	36%	0.40	71%	0.18	107%	0.04	142%	0.00	178%	0.00	213%	0.00	249%	0.00	284%	0.00	320%	0.00	356%
1.00	0.67	36%	0.39	73%	0.17	109%	0.04	145%	0.00	181%	0.00	218%	0.00	254%	0.00	290%	0.00	326%	0.00	363%

I.6 Random Numbers

Table I.6 1,000 Random Numbers Uniformly Distributed between Zero and One

0.163601	0.647423	0.555548	0.248859	0.259801	0.718368	0.305020	0.812482	0.601951	0.973160
0.934196	0.951102	0.979831	0.132364	0.157808	0.040605	0.997626	0.896462	0.360578	0.443218
0.054552	0.965257	0.999181	0.172627	0.583713	0.852958	0.116336	0.748483	0.058602	0.738495
0.972409	0.241889	0.799991	0.926726	0.585505	0.453993	0.877990	0.947022	0.910821	0.388081
0.556401	0.621126	0.293328	0.984335	0.366531	0.912588	0.733824	0.092405	0.717362	0.423421
0.625153	0.838711	0.196153	0.630553	0.867808	0.957094	0.830218	0.783518	0.141557	0.444997
0.527330	0.124034	0.351792	0.161947	0.688925	0.140346	0.553577	0.890058	0.470457	0.566196
0.826643	0.673286	0.550827	0.885295	0.690781	0.371540	0.108632	0.090765	0.618443	0.937184
0.296068	0.891272	0.392367	0.649633	0.261410	0.523221	0.769081	0.358794	0.924341	0.167665
0.848882	0.083603	0.274621	0.268003	0.272254	0.017727	0.309463	0.445986	0.244653	0.944564
0.779276	0.484461	0.101393	0.995100	0.085164	0.611426	0.030270	0.494982	0.426236	0.270225
0.095038	0.577943	0.186239	0.267852	0.786070	0.208937	0.184565	0.826397	0.256825	0.489034
0.011672	0.844846	0.443407	0.915087	0.275906	0.883009	0.243728	0.865552	0.796671	0.314429
0.215993	0.476035	0.354717	0.883172	0.840666	0.393867	0.374810	0.222167	0.114691	0.596046
0.982374	0.101973	0.683995	0.730612	0.548200	0.084302	0.145212	0.337680	0.566173	0.592776
0.860868	0.794380	0.819422	0.752871	0.158956	0.317468	0.062387	0.909843	0.779089	0.648967
0.718917	0.696798	0.463655	0.762408	0.823097	0.843209	0.368678	0.996266	0.542048	0.663842
0.800735	0.225556	0.398048	0.437067	0.642698	0.144068	0.104212	0.675095	0.318953	0.648478
0.915538	0.711742	0.232159	0.242961	0.327863	0.156608	0.260175	0.385141	0.681475	0.978186
0.975506	0.652654	0.928348	0.513444	0.744095	0.972031	0.527368	0.494287	0.602829	0.592834
0.435196	0.272807	0.452254	0.793464	0.817291	0.828245	0.407518	0.441518	0.358966	0.619741
0.692512	0.368151	0.821543	0.583707	0.802354	0.133831	0.569521	0.474516	0.437608	0.961559
0.678823	0.930602	0.657348	0.025057	0.294093	0.499623	0.006423	0.290613	0.325204	0.044439
0.642075	0.029842	0.289042	0.891009	0.813844	0.973093	0.952871	0.361623	0.709933	0.466955
0.174285	0.863244	0.133649	0.773819	0.891664	0.246417	0.272407	0.517658	0.132225	0.795514
0.951401	0.921291	0.210993	0.369411	0.196909	0.054389	0.364475	0.716718	0.096843	0.308418
0.186824	0.005407	0.310843	0.998118	0.725887	0.143171	0.293721	0.841304	0.661969	0.409622
0.105673	0.026338	0.878006	0.105936	0.612556	0.124601	0.922558	0.648985	0.896805	0.737256
0.801080	0.619461	0.933720	0.275881	0.637352	0.644996	0.713379	0.302687	0.904515	0.457172
0.101214	0.236405	0.945199	0.005975	0.893786	0.082317	0.648743	0.511871	0.298942	0.121573
0.177754	0.930066	0.390527	0.575622	0.390428	0.600575	0.460949	0.191600	0.910079	0.099444
0.846157	0.322467	0.156607	0.253388	0.739021	0.133498	0.293141	0.144834	0.626600	0.045169
0.812147	0.306383	0.201517	0.306651	0.827112	0.277716	0.660224	0.268538	0.518416	0.579216
0.691055	0.059046	0.104390	0.427038	0.148688	0.480788	0.026511	0.572705	0.745522	0.986078
0.483819	0.797573	0.174899	0.892670	0.118990	0.813221	0.857964	0.279164	0.883509	0.154562
0.165133	0.985134	0.214681	0.595309	0.741697	0.418602	0.301917	0.338913	0.680062	0.097350
0.281668	0.476899	0.839512	0.057760	0.474156	0.898409	0.482638	0.198725	0.888281	0.018872
0.554337	0.350955	0.942401	0.526759	0.509846	0.408165	0.800079	0.789263	0.564192	0.140684

Table I.6 1,000 Random Numbers Uniformly Distributed between Zero and One (continued)

0.873143	0.349662	0.238282	0.383195	0.568383	0.298471	0.490431	0.731405	0.339906	0.431645
0.401675	0.061151	0.771468	0.795760	0.365952	0.221234	0.947374	0.375686	0.828215	0.113060
0.574987	0.154831	0.808117	0.723544	0.134014	0.360957	0.166572	0.112314	0.242857	0.309290
0.745415	0.929459	0.425406	0.118845	0.386382	0.867386	0.808757	0.009573	0.229879	0.849242
0.613554	0.926550	0.857632	0.014438	0.004214	0.592513	0.280223	0.283447	0.943793	0.205750
0.880368	0.303741	0.247850	0.341580	0.867155	0.542130	0.473418	0.650251	0.326222	0.036285
0.567556	0.183534	0.696381	0.373333	0.716762	0.526636	0.306862	0.904790	0.151931	0.328792
0.280015	0.237361	0.336240	0.424191	0.192603	0.770194	0.284572	0.992475	0.308979	0.698329
0.502862	0.818555	0.238758	0.057148	0.461531	0.904929	0.521982	0.599127	0.239509	0.424858
0.738375	0.794328	0.305231	0.887161	0.021104	0.469779	0.913966	0.266514	0.647901	0.246223
0.366209	0.749763	0.634971	0.261038	0.869115	0.787951	0.678287	0.667142	0.216531	0.763214
0.739267	0.554299	0.979969	0.489597	0.545130	0.931869	0.096443	0.374089	0.140070	0.840563
0.375690	0.866922	0.256930	0.518074	0.217373	0.027043	0.801938	0.040364	0.624283	0.292810
0.894101	0.178824	0.443631	0.110614	0.556232	0.969563	0.291364	0.695764	0.306903	0.303885
0.668169	0.296926	0.324041	0.616290	0.799426	0.372555	0.070954	0.045748	0.505327	0.027722
0.470107	0.135634	0.271284	0.494071	0.485610	0.382772	0.418470	0.004082	0.298068	0.539847
0.047906	0.694949	0.309033	0.223989	0.008978	0.383695	0.479858	0.894958	0.597796	0.162072
0.917713	0.072793	0.107402	0.007328	0.176598	0.576809	0.052969	0.421803	0.737514	0.340966
0.839439	0.338565	0.254833	0.924413	0.871833	0.480599	0.172846	0.736102	0.471802	0.783451
0.488244	0.260352	0.129716	0.153558	0.305933	0.777100	0.111924	0.412930	0.601453	0.083217
0.488369	0.485094	0.322236	0.894264	0.781546	0.770237	0.707400	0.587451	0.571609	0.981580
0.311380	0.270400	0.807264	0.348433	0.172763	0.914856	0.011893	0.014317	0.820797	0.261767
0.028802	0.072165	0.944160	0.804761	0.770481	0.104256	0.112919	0.184068	0.940946	0.238087
0.466082	0.603884	0.959713	0.547834	0.487552	0.455150	0.240324	0.428921	0.648821	0.277620
0.720229	0.575779	0.939622	0.234554	0.767389	0.735335	0.941002	0.794021	0.291615	0.165732
0.861579	0.778039	0.331677	0.608231	0.646094	0.498720	0.140520	0.259197	0.782477	0.922273
0.849884	0.917789	0.816247	0.572502	0.753757	0.857324	0.988330	0.597085	0.186087	0.771997
0.989999	0.994007	0.349735	0.954437	0.741124	0.791852	0.986074	0.444554	0.177531	0.743725
0.337214	0.987184	0.344245	0.039033	0.549585	0.688526	0.225470	0.556251	0.157058	0.681447
0.706330	0.082994	0.299909	0.613361	0.031334	0.941102	0.772731	0.198070	0.460602	0.778659
0.417239	0.916556	0.707773	0.249767	0.169301	0.914420	0.732687	0.934912	0.985594	0.726957
0.653326	0.529996	0.305465	0.181747	0.153359	0.353168	0.673377	0.448970	0.546347	0.885438
0.099373	0.156385	0.067157	0.755573	0.689979	0.494021	0.996216	0.051811	0.049321	0.595525
0.860299	0.210143	0.026232	0.838499	0.108975	0.455260	0.320633	0.150619	0.445073	0.275619
0.067160	0.791992	0.363875	0.825052	0.047561	0.311194	0.447486	0.971659	0.876616	0.455018
0.944317	0.348844	0.210015	0.769274	0.253032	0.239894	0.208165	0.600014	0.945046	0.505316
0.917419	0.185575	0.743859	0.655124	0.185320	0.237660	0.271534	0.949825	0.441666	0.811135
0.365705	0.800723	0.116707	0.386073	0.837800	0.244896	0.337304	0.869528	0.845737	0.194553
0.911453	0.591254	0.920222	0.707522	0.782902	0.092884	0.426444	0.320336	0.226369	0.377845

Table I.6 1,000 Random Numbers Uniformly Distributed between Zero and One (continued)

0.027171	0.058193	0.726183	0.057705	0.935493	0.688071	0.752543	0.932781	0.048914	0.591035
0.768066	0.387888	0.655990	0.690208	0.746739	0.936409	0.685458	0.090931	0.242120	0.067899
0.052305	0.899285	0.092643	0.058916	0.826653	0.772790	0.785028	0.967761	0.588503	0.896590
0.623285	0.492051	0.644294	0.821341	0.600824	0.901289	0.774379	0.391874	0.810022	0.437879
0.624284	0.308522	0.208541	0.297156	0.576129	0.373705	0.370345	0.372748	0.965550	0.874416
0.853117	0.671602	0.018316	0.095780	0.871263	0.885420	0.919787	0.439594	0.460586	0.629443
0.967796	0.933631	0.397054	0.682343	0.505977	0.406611	0.539543	0.066152	0.885414	0.857606
0.759450	0.768853	0.115419	0.744466	0.607572	0.179839	0.413809	0.228607	0.362857	0.826932
0.514703	0.108915	0.864053	0.076280	0.352557	0.674917	0.572689	0.588574	0.596215	0.639101
0.826296	0.264540	0.255775	0.180449	0.405715	0.740170	0.423514	0.537793	0.877436	0.512284
0.354198	0.792775	0.051583	0.806962	0.385851	0.655314	0.046701	0.860466	0.848112	0.515684
0.744807	0.960789	0.123099	0.163569	0.621969	0.571558	0.482449	0.346358	0.795845	0.207558
0.642312	0.356643	0.797708	0.505570	0.418534	0.634642	0.033111	0.393330	0.105093	0.328848
0.824625	0.855876	0.770743	0.678619	0.927298	0.204828	0.831460	0.979875	0.566627	0.056160
0.755877	0.679791	0.442388	0.899944	0.563383	0.197074	0.679568	0.244433	0.786084	0.337991
0.625370	0.967123	0.321605	0.697578	0.122418	0.475395	0.068207	0.070374	0.353248	0.461960
0.124012	0.133851	0.761154	0.501578	0.204221	0.866481	0.925783	0.329001	0.327832	0.844681
0.825392	0.382001	0.847909	0.520741	0.404959	0.308849	0.418976	0.972838	0.452438	0.600528
0.999194	0.297058	0.617183	0.570478	0.875712	0.581618	0.284410	0.405575	0.362205	0.427077
0.536855	0.667083	0.636883	0.043774	0.113509	0.980045	0.237797	0.618925	0.670767	0.814902
0.361632	0.797162	0.136063	0.487575	0.682796	0.952708	0.759989	0.058556	0.292400	0.871674
0.923253	0.479871	0.022855	0.673915	0.733795	0.811955	0.417970	0.095675	0.831670	0.043950
0.845432	0.202336	0.348421	0.050704	0.171916	0.600557	0.284838	0.606715	0.758190	0.394811

I.7 Stem and Leaf Display

The construction of a **stem and leaf display** is a simple way to generate a crude histogram of the data quickly. The "stems" of such a display are the most significant digits of the data. Consider the sample data of Section 8.2.2.2:

90.7, 83.5, 86.4, 88.5, 84.4, 74.2, 84.1, 87.6, 78.2, 77.6,
86.4, 76.3, 86.5, 77.4, 90.3, 90.1, 79.1, 92.4, 75.5, 80.5.

Here the data span three decades, so one might consider using the stems 70, 80 and 90. However, three is too few stems to be informative, just as three intervals would be too few for constructing a histogram. Therefore, for this example, each decade is divided into two parts. This results in the six stems 70, 75, 80, 85, 90, 95. The leaves are the least significant digits, so 90.7 has the stem 90 and the leaf 0.7. 77.4 has the stem 75 and the leaf 7.4. Note that even though the stem is 75, the leaf is *not* 2.4. The leaf is kept as 7.4 so that the data can be read directly from the display without any calculations.

As shown in the top part of Figure I.1, simply arrange the leaves of the data into rows, one stem per row. The result is a quick histogram of the data. In order to ensure this, the same number of digits should be used for each leaf, so that each occupies the same amount of horizontal space.

If the stems are arranged in increasing order, as shown in the bottom half of Figure I.1, it is easy to pick out the minimum (74.2), the maximum (92.4), and the median (between 84.1 and 84.4).

A stem and leaf display (or histogram) with two peaks may indicate that residual radioactivity is distributed over only a portion of the survey unit. Further information on the construction and interpretation of data plots is given in EPA QA/G-9 (EPA 1996a).

Stem	Leaves
70	4.2
75	8.2, 7.6, 6.3, 7.4, 9.1, 5.5
80	3.5, 4.4, 4.1, 0.5
85	6.4, 8.5, 7.6, 6.4, 6.5
90	0.7, 0.3, 0.1, 2.4
95	

Stem	Sorted Leaves
70	4.2
75	5.5, 6.3, 7.4, 7.6, 8.2, 9.1
80	0.5, 3.5, 4.1, 4.4
85	6.4, 6.4, 6.5, 7.6, 8.5
90	0.1, 0.3, 0.7, 2.4
95	

Figure I.1 Example of a Stem and Leaf Display

I.8 Quantile Plots

A **Quantile plot** is constructed by first ranking the data from smallest to largest. Sorting the data is easy once the stem and leaf display has been constructed. Then, each data value is simply plotted against the percentage of the samples with that value or less. This percentage is computed from:

$$Percent = \frac{100(rank - 0.5)}{(number\ of\ data\ points)} \tag{I-3}$$

The results for the example data of Section I.7 are shown in Table I.7. The Quantile plot for this example is shown in Figure I.2.

The slope of the curve in the Quantile plot is an indication of the amount of data in a given range of values. A small amount of data in a range will result in a large slope. A large amount of data in a range of values will result in a more horizonal slope. A sharp rise near the bottom or the top is an indication of asymmetry. Sudden changes in slope, or notably flat or notably steep areas may indicate peculiarities in the survey unit data needing further investigation.

Table I.7 Data for Quantile Plot

Data:	74.2	75.5	76.3	77.4	77.6	78.2	79.1	80.5	83.5	84.1
Rank:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Percent:	2.5	7.5	12.5	17.5	22.5	27.5	32.5	37.5	42.5	47.5
Data:	84.4	86.4	86.4	86.5	87.6	88.5	90.1	90.3	90.7	92.4
Rank:	11	12.5	12.5	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Percent:	52.5	60.0	60.0	67.5	72.5	77.5	82.5	87.5	92.5	97.5

A useful aid to interpreting the quantile plot is the addition of boxes containing the middle 50% and middle 75% of the data. These are shown as the dashed lines in Figure I.2. The 50% box has its upper right corner at the 75th percentile and its lower left corner at the 25th percentile. These points are also called the Quartiles. These are ~78 and ~88, respectively, as indicated by the dashed lines. They bracket the middle half of the data values. The 75% box has its upper right corner at the 87.5th percentile and its lower left corner at the 12.5th percentile. A sharp increase within the 50% box can indicate two or more modes in the data. Outside the 75% box, sharp increases can indicate outliers. The median (50th percentile) is indicated by the heavy solid line at the value ~84, and can be used as an aid to judging the symmetry of the data distribution. There are no especially unusual features in the example Quantile plot shown in Figure I.2, other than the possibility of slight asymmetry around the median.

Another Quantile plot, for the example data of Section 8.3.3, is shown in Figure I.3.

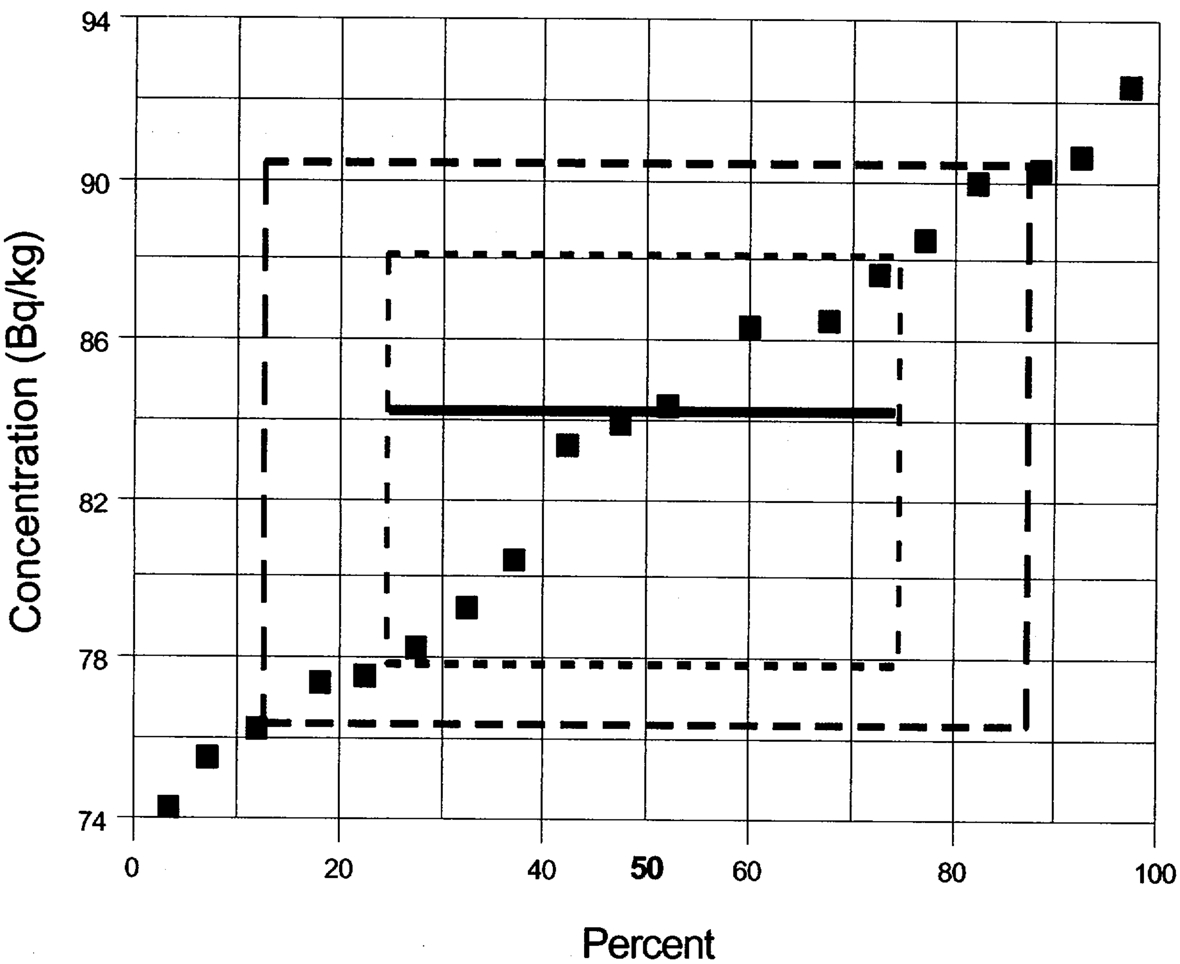


Figure I.2 Example of a Quantile Plot

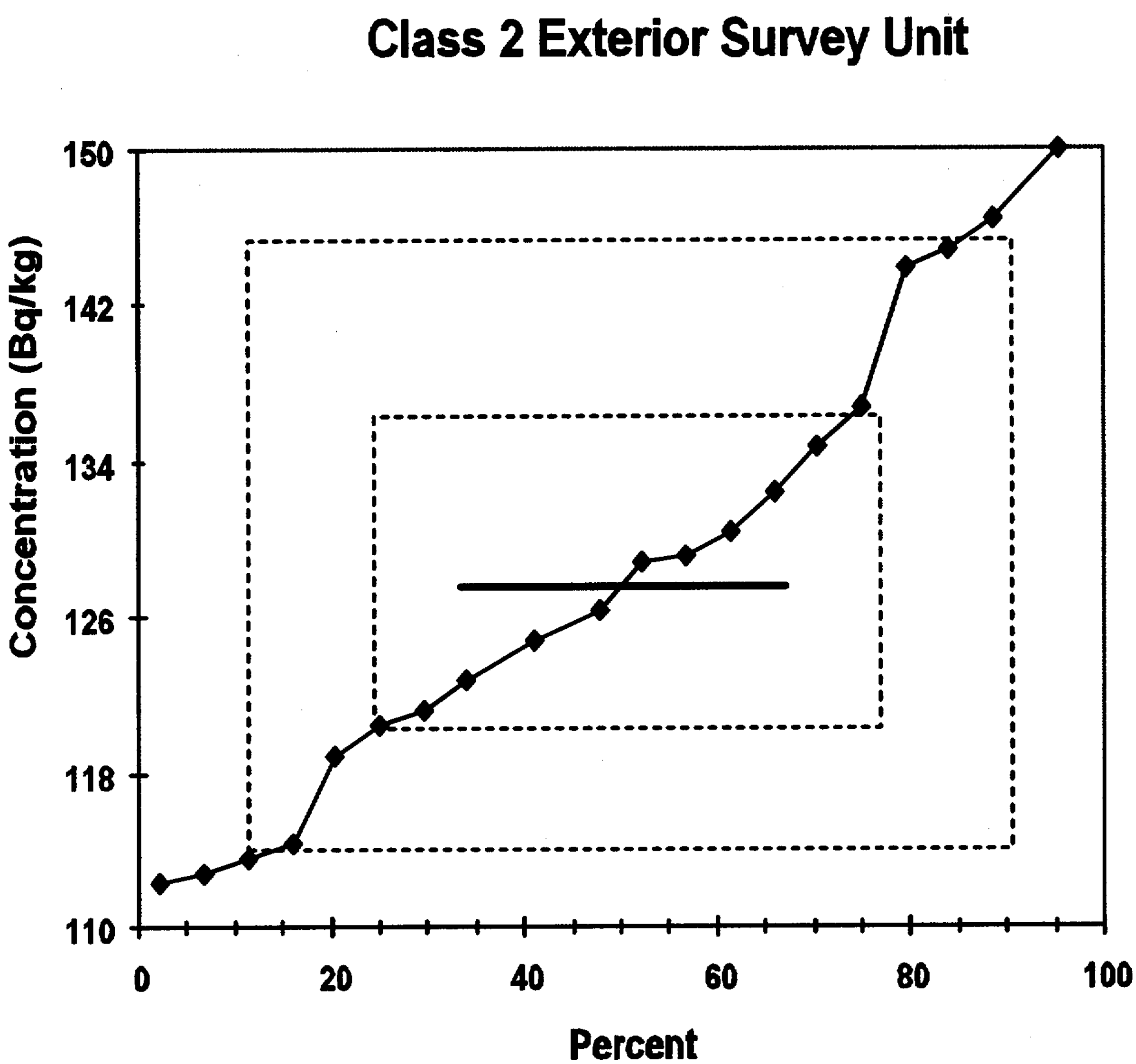


Figure I.3 Quantile Plot for Example Class 2 Exterior Survey Unit of Section 8.3.3.

A **Quantile-Quantile plot** is extremely useful for comparing two sets of data. Suppose the following 17 concentration values were obtained in a reference area corresponding to the example survey unit data of Section I.7:

92.1, 83.2, 81.7, 81.8, 88.5, 82.4, 81.5, 69.7, 82.4, 89.7,
81.4, 79.4, 82.0, 79.9, 81.1, 59.4, 75.3.

A Quantile-Quantile plot can be constructed to compare the distribution of the survey unit data, Y_j, j=1,...n, with the distribution of the reference area data X_i, i=1,... m. (If the reference area data set were the larger, the roles of X and Y would be reversed.) The data from each set are ranked separately from smallest to largest. This has already been done for the survey unit data in Table I.7. For the reference area data, we obtain the results in Table I.8.

Table I.8 Ranked Reference Area Concentrations

Data:	59.4	69.7	75.3	79.4	79.9	81.1	81.4	81.5	81.7	81.8
Rank:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Data:	82.0	82.4	82.4	83.2	88.5	89.7	92.1			
Rank:	11	12.5	12.5	14	15	16	17			

The median for the reference area data is 81.7, the sample mean is 80.7, and the sample standard deviation is 7.5.

For the larger data set, the data must be interpolated to match the number of points in the smaller data set. This is done by computing

$$v_1 = 0.5(n/m) + 0.5 \quad and \quad v_{i+1} = v_i + (n/m) \quad for \ i = 1,...m-1, \qquad \text{(I-4)}$$

where m is the number of points in the smaller data set and n is the number of points in the larger data set. For each of the ranks, i, in the smaller data set, a corresponding value in the larger data set is found by first decomposing v_i into its integer part, j, and its fractional part, g.

Then the interpolated values are computed from the relationship:

$$Z_i = (1\text{-}g)\, Y_j + g\, Y_{j+1}\,. \qquad \text{(I-5)}$$

The results of these calculations are shown in Table I.9.

Table I.9 Interpolated Ranks for Survey Unit Concentrations

Rank	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
v_i	1.09	2.26	3.44	4.62	5.79	6.97	8.15	9.33	10.50	11.68
Z_i	74.3	75.7	76.8	77.5	78.1	79.1	80.9	83.7	84.3	85.8
X_i	59.4	69.7	75.3	79.4	79.7	81.1	81.4	81.5	81.7	81.8

Rank	11	12.5	12.5	14	15	16	17
v_i	12.85	14.03	15.21	16.38	17.56	18.74	19.91
Z_i	86.4	86.5	87.8	89.1	90.2	90.6	92.3
X_i	82.0	82.4	82.4	83.2	88.5	89.7	92.1

Finally, Z_i is plotted against X_i to obtain the Quantile-Quantile plot. This example is shown in Figure I.4.

The Quantile-Quantile Plot is valuable because it provides a direct visual comparison of the two data sets. If the two data distributions differ only in location (*e.g.* mean) or scale (*e.g.* standard deviation), the points will lie on a straight line. If the two data distributions being compared are identical, all of the plotted points will lie on the line Y=X. Any deviations from this would point to possible differences in these distributions. The middle data point plots the median of Y against the median of X. That this point lies above the line Y=X, in the example of Figure 8.4, shows that the median of Y is larger than the median of X. Indeed, the cluster of points above the line $Y = X$ in the region of the plot where the data points are dense, is an indication that the central portion of the survey unit distribution is shifted toward higher values than the reference area distribution. This could imply that there is residual radioactivity in the survey unit. This should be tested using the nonparametric statistical tests described in Chapter 8.

Another Quantile-Quantile plot, for the Class 1 Interior Survey Unit example data, is shown in Figure A.8.

Further information on the interpretation of Quantile and Quantile-Quantile plots are given in EPA QA/G-9 (EPA 1996a).

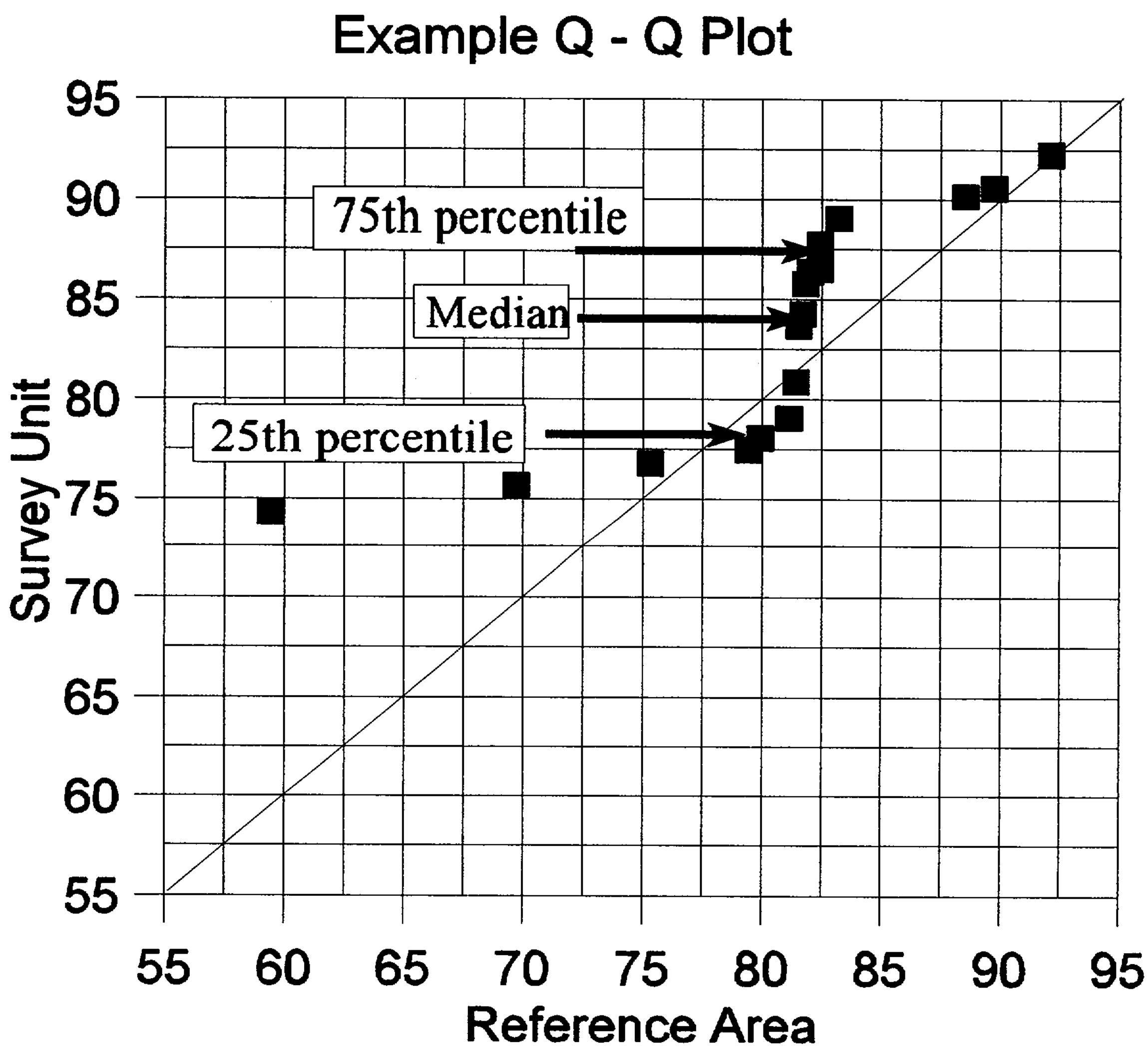


Figure I.4 Example Quantile-Quantile Plot

I.9 Power Calculations for the Statistical Tests

I.9.1 Power of the Sign Test

The power of the Sign test for detecting residual radioactivity at the concentration level LBGR = DGCL - Δ, may be found using equation I-6.

$$1 - \beta = 1 - \sum_{i=0}^{k} \binom{N}{i} [q^*]^i [1-q^*]^{N-i} \approx 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{k - Nq^*}{\sqrt{Nq^*(1-q^*)}}\right) \tag{I-6}$$

with

$$q^* = \Phi(\Delta/\sigma) \tag{I-7}$$

The function Φ(z) is the standard normal cumulative distribution function tabulated in Table I.1. Note that if Δ/σ is large, q^* approaches one, and the power also approaches one. This calculation can be performed for other values, Δ*, in order to construct a power curve for the test. These calculations can also be performed using the standard deviation of the actual measurement data, *s*, in order to construct a retrospective power curve for the test. This is an important step when the null hypothesis is not rejected, since it demonstrates whether the DQOs have been met.

The retrospective power curve for the Sign test can be constructed using Equations I-6 and I-7, together with the actual number of concentration measurements obtained, N. The power as a function of Δ/σ is calculated. The values of Δ/σ are converted to concentration using:

Concentration = $DCGL_W$ - (Δ/σ)(observed standard deviation).

The results for the Class 3 Exterior Survey Unit example of Section 8.3.4 are plotted in Figure I.5. This figure shows the probability that the survey unit would have passed the release criterion using the Sign test versus concentration of residual radioactivity. This curve shows that the data quality objectives were met, despite the fact that the actual standard deviation was larger than that used in designing the survey. This is primarily due to the additional 20% that was added to the sample size, and also that sample sizes were always rounded up. The curve shows that a survey unit with less than 135 Bq/kg would almost always pass, and that a survey unit with more than 145 Bq/kg would almost always fail.

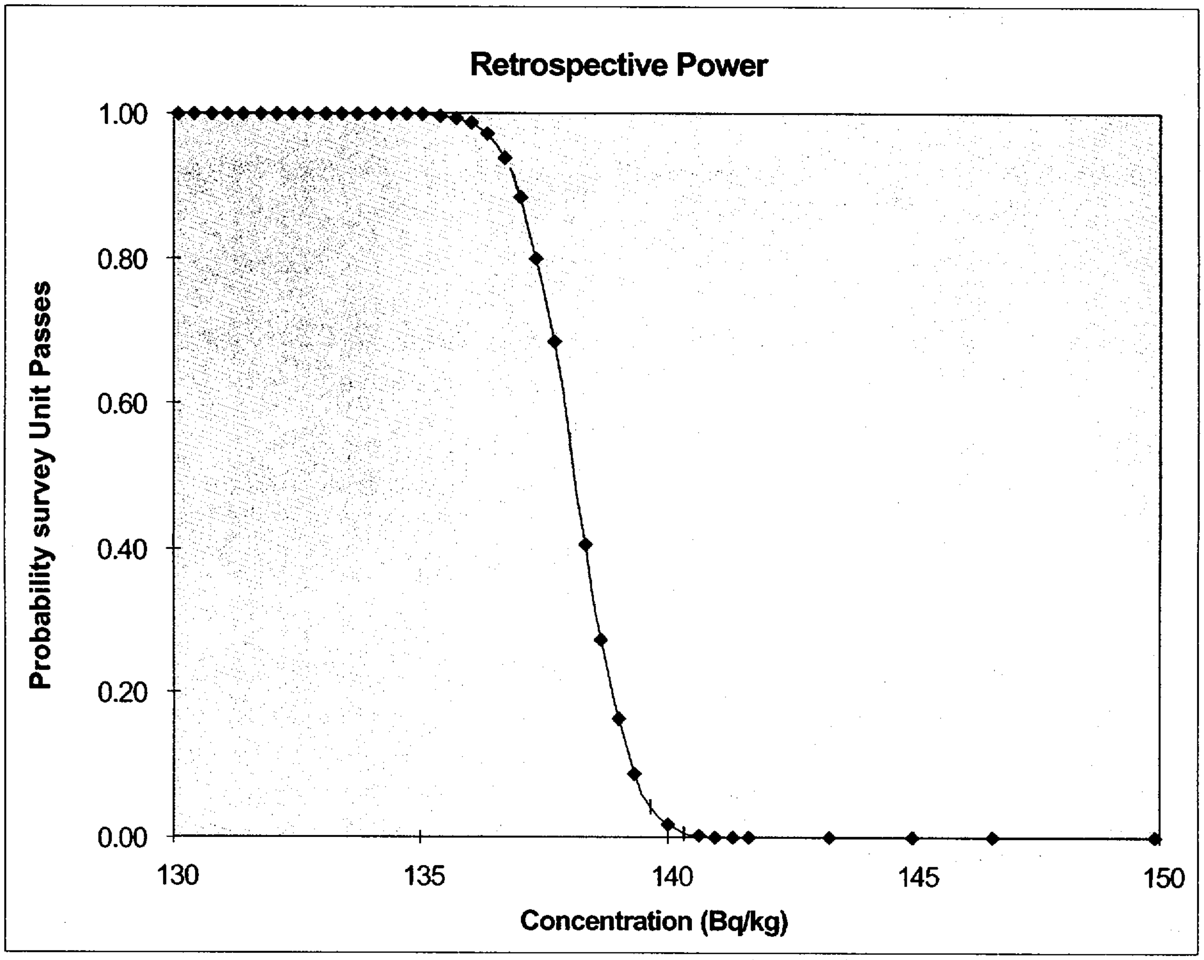


Figure I.5 Retrospective Power Curve for Class 3 Exterior Survey Unit

I.9.2 Power of the Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test

The power of the WRS test is computed from

$$Power = 1 - \Phi\left[\frac{W_c - 0.5 - 0.5m(m+1) - E(W_{MW})}{\sqrt{Var(W_{MW})}}\right] \tag{I-8}$$

where W_c is the critical value found in Table I.4 for the appropriate vales of α, n and m. Values of $\Phi(z)$, the standard normal cumulative distribution function, are given in Table I.1.

$W_{MW} = W_r - 0.5m(m+1)$ is the Mann-Whitney form of the WRS test statistic. Its mean is

$$E(W_{MW}) = mnP_r \tag{I-9}$$

and its variance is

$$\mathrm{Var}(W_{MW}) = mnP_r(1-P_r) + mn(n+m-2)(p_2 - P_r^2) \tag{I-10}$$

Values of P_r and p_2 as a function of Δ/σ are given in Table I.10.

The power calculated in Equation I-8 is an approximation, but the results are generally accurate enough to be used to determine if the sample design achieves the DQOs.

The retrospective power curve for the WRS test can be constructed using Equations I-8, I-9, and I-10, together with the actual number of concentration measurements obtained, N. The power as a function of Δ/σ is calculated. The values of Δ/σ are converted to dpm/100 cm^2 using:

dpm/100 cm^2 = DCGL - (Δ/σ)(observed standard deviation).

The results for this example are plotted in Figure I.6, showing the probability that the survey unit would have passed the release criterion using the WRS test versus dpm of residual radioactivity. This curve shows that the data quality objectives were easily achieved. The curve shows that a survey unit with less than 4,500 dpm/100 cm^2 above background would almost always pass, and that one with more than 5,100 dpm/100 cm^2 above background would almost always fail.

Table I.10 Values of P_r and p_2 for Computing the Mean and Variance of W_{MW}

Δ/σ	P_r	p_2	Δ/σ	P_r	p_2
-6.0	1.11E-05	1.16E-07	0.7	0.689691	0.544073
-5.0	0.000204	6.14E-06	0.8	0.714196	0.574469
-4.0	0.002339	0.000174	0.9	0.737741	0.604402
-3.5	0.006664	0.000738	1.0	0.760250	0.633702
-3.0	0.016947	0.002690	1.1	0.781662	0.662216
-2.5	0.038550	0.008465	1.2	0.801928	0.689800
-2.0	0.078650	0.023066	1.3	0.821015	0.716331
-1.9	0.089555	0.027714	1.4	0.838901	0.741698
-1.8	0.101546	0.033114	1.5	0.855578	0.765812
-1.7	0.114666	0.039348	1.6	0.871050	0.788602
-1.6	0.128950	0.046501	1.7	0.885334	0.810016
-1.5	0.144422	0.054656	1.8	0.898454	0.830022
-1.4	0.161099	0.063897	1.9	0.910445	0.848605
-1.3	0.178985	0.074301	2.0	0.921350	0.865767
-1.2	0.198072	0.085944	2.1	0.931218	0.881527
-1.1	0.218338	0.098892	2.2	0.940103	0.895917
-1.0	0.239750	0.113202	2.3	0.948062	0.908982
-0.9	0.262259	0.128920	2.4	0.955157	0.920777
-0.8	0.285804	0.146077	2.5	0.961450	0.931365
-0.7	0.310309	0.164691	2.6	0.967004	0.940817
-0.6	0.335687	0.184760	2.7	0.971881	0.949208
-0.5	0.361837	0.206266	2.8	0.976143	0.956616
-0.4	0.388649	0.229172	2.9	0.979848	0.963118
-0.3	0.416002	0.253419	3.0	0.983053	0.968795
-0.2	0.443769	0.278930	3.1	0.985811	0.973725
-0.1	0.471814	0.305606	3.2	0.988174	0.977981
0.0	0.500000	0.333333	3.3	0.990188	0.981636
0.1	0.528186	0.361978	3.4	0.991895	0.984758
0.2	0.556231	0.391392	3.5	0.993336	0.987410
0.3	0.583998	0.421415	4.0	0.997661	0.995497
0.4	0.611351	0.451875	5.0	0.999796	0.999599
0.5	0.638163	0.482593	6.0	0.999989	0.999978
0.6	0.664313	0.513387			

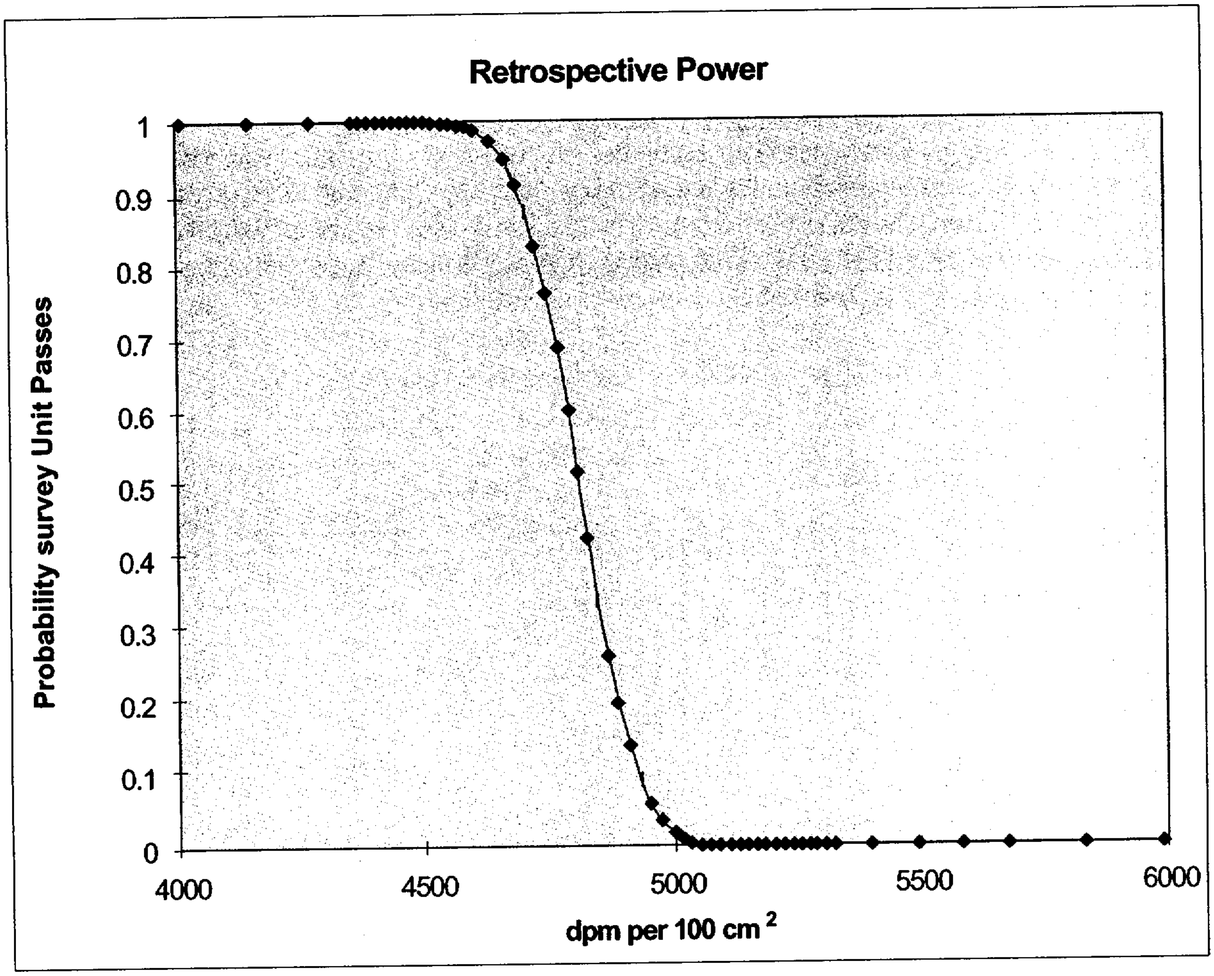


Figure I.6 Retrospective Power Curve for Class 2 Interior Drywall Survey Unit

I.10 Spreadsheet Formulas for the Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test

The analysis for the WRS test is very well suited for calculation on a spreadsheet. This is how the analysis discussed above was done. This particular example was constructed using Excel 5.0™. The formula sheet corresponding to Table 8.6 is given in Table I.11. The function in Column D of Table I.11 calculates the ranks of the data. The RANK function in Excel™ does not return tied ranks in the way needed for the WRS. The COUNTIF function is used to correct for this. Column E simply picks out the reference area ranks from Column D.

Table I.11 Spreadsheet Formulas Used in Table 8.6

	A	B	C	D	E
1	**Data**	**Area**	**Adjusted Data**	**Ranks**	**Reference Area Ranks**
2	49	R	=IF(B2="R",A2+160,A2)	=RANK(C2,$C$2:$C$23,1)+(COUNTIF($C$2:$C$23,C2) - 1) / 2	=IF(B2="R",D2,0)
3	35	R	=IF(B3="R",A3+160,A3)	=RANK(C3,$C$2:$C$23,1)+(COUNTIF($C$2:$C$23,C3) - 1) / 2	=IF(B3="R",D3,0)
4	45	R	=IF(B4="R",A4+160,A4)	=RANK(C4,$C$2:$C$23,1)+(COUNTIF($C$2:$C$23,C4) - 1) / 2	=IF(B4="R",D4,0)
5	45	R	=IF(B5="R",A5+160,A5)	=RANK(C5,$C$2:$C$23,1)+(COUNTIF($C$2:$C$23,C5) - 1) / 2	=IF(B5="R",D5,0)
6	41	R	=IF(B6="R",A6+160,A6)	=RANK(C6,$C$2:$C$23,1)+(COUNTIF($C$2:$C$23,C6) - 1) / 2	=IF(B6="R",D6,0)
7	44	R	=IF(B7="R",A7+160,A7)	=RANK(C7,$C$2:$C$23,1)+(COUNTIF($C$2:$C$23,C7) - 1) / 2	=IF(B7="R",D7,0)
8	48	R	=IF(B8="R",A8+160,A8)	=RANK(C8,$C$2:$C$23,1)+(COUNTIF($C$2:$C$23,C8) - 1) / 2	=IF(B8="R",D8,0)
9	37	R	=IF(B9="R",A9+160,A9)	=RANK(C9,$C$2:$C$23,1)+(COUNTIF($C$2:$C$23,C9) - 1) / 2	=IF(B9="R",D9,0)
10	46	R	=IF(B10="R",A10+160,A10)	=RANK(C10,$C$2:$C$23,1)+(COUNTIF($C$2:$C$23,C10) - 1) / 2	=IF(B10="R",D10,0)
11	42	R	=IF(B11="R",A11+160,A11)	=RANK(C11,$C$2:$C$23,1)+(COUNTIF($C$2:$C$23,C11) - 1) / 2	=IF(B11="R",D11,0)
12	47	R	=IF(B12="R",A12+160,A12)	=RANK(C12,$C$2:$C$23,1)+(COUNTIF($C$2:$C$23,C12) - 1) / 2	=IF(B12="R",D12,0)
13	104	S	=IF(B13="R",A13+160,A13)	=RANK(C13,$C$2:$C$23,1)+(COUNTIF($C$2:$C$23,C13) - 1) / 2	=IF(B13="R",D13,0)
14	94	S	=IF(B14="R",A14+160,A14)	=RANK(C14,$C$2:$C$23,1)+(COUNTIF($C$2:$C$23,C14) - 1) / 2	=IF(B14="R",D14,0)
15	98	S	=IF(B15="R",A15+160,A15)	=RANK(C15,$C$2:$C$23,1)+(COUNTIF($C$2:$C$23,C15) - 1) / 2	=IF(B15="R",D15,0)
16	99	S	=IF(B16="R",A16+160,A16)	=RANK(C16,$C$2:$C$23,1)+(COUNTIF($C$2:$C$23,C16) - 1) / 2	=IF(B16="R",D16,0)
17	90	S	=IF(B17="R",A17+160,A17)	=RANK(C17,$C$2:$C$23,1)+(COUNTIF($C$2:$C$23,C17) - 1) / 2	=IF(B17="R",D17,0)
18	104	S	=IF(B18="R",A18+160,A18)	=RANK(C18,$C$2:$C$23,1)+(COUNTIF($C$2:$C$23,C18) - 1) / 2	=IF(B18="R",D18,0)
19	95	S	=IF(B19="R",A19+160,A19)	=RANK(C19,$C$2:$C$23,1)+(COUNTIF($C$2:$C$23,C19) - 1) / 2	=IF(B19="R",D19,0)
20	105	S	=IF(B20="R",A20+160,A20)	=RANK(C20,$C$2:$C$23,1)+(COUNTIF($C$2:$C$23,C20) - 1) / 2	=IF(B20="R",D20,0)
21	93	S	=IF(B21="R",A21+160,A21)	=RANK(C21,$C$2:$C$23,1)+(COUNTIF($C$2:$C$23,C21) - 1) / 2	=IF(B21="R",D21,0)
22	101	S	=IF(B22="R",A22+160,A22)	=RANK(C22,$C$2:$C$23,1)+(COUNTIF($C$2:$C$23,C22) - 1) / 2	=IF(B22="R",D22,0)
23	92	S	=IF(B23="R",A23+160,A23)	=RANK(C23,$C$2:$C$23,1)+(COUNTIF($C$2:$C$23,C23) - 1) / 2	=IF(B23="R",D23,0)
24			Sum=	=SUM(D2:D23)	=SUM(E2:E23)

I.11 Multiple Radionuclides

There are two cases to be considered when dealing with multiple radionuclides, namely 1) the radionuclide concentrations have a fairly constant ratio throughout the survey unit, or 2) the concentrations of the different radionuclides appear to be unrelated in the survey unit. In statistical terms, we are concerned about whether the concentrations of the different radionuclides are correlated or not. A simple way to judge this would be to make a scatter plot of the concentrations against each other, and see if the points appear to have an underlying linear pattern. The correlation coefficient can also be computed to see if it lies nearer to zero than to one. One could also perform a curve fit and test the significance of the result. Ultimately, however, sound judgement must be used in interpreting the results of such calculations. If there is no physical reason for the concentrations to be related, they probably are not. Conversely, if there is sound evidence that the radionuclide concentrations should be related because of how they were treated, processed or released, this information should be used.

I.11.1 Using the Unity Rule

In either of the two above cases, the unity rule described in Section 4.3.3 is applied. The difference is in how it is applied. Suppose there are *n* radionuclides. If the concentration of radionuclide *i* is denoted by C_i, and its $DCGL_W$ is denoted by D_i, then the unity rule for the *n* radionuclides states that:

$$C_1 / D_1 + C_2 / D_2 + C_3 / D_3 + \cdots + C_n / D_n \leq 1 \qquad \text{(I-11)}$$

This will ensure that the total dose or risk due to the sum of all the radionuclides does not exceed the release criterion. Note that if D_{min} is the smallest of the DCGLs, then

$$(C_1 + C_2 + C_3 + \cdots + C_n)/D_{min} \leq C_1 / D_1 + C_2 / D_2 + C_3 / D_3 + \cdots + C_n / D_n \qquad \text{(I-12)}$$

so that the smallest DCGL may be applied to the total activity concentration, rather than using the unity rule. While this option may be considered, in many cases it will be too conservative to be useful.

I.11.2 Radionuclide Concentrations with Fixed Ratios

If there is an established ratio among the concentrations of the *n* radionuclides in a survey unit, then the concentration of every radionuclide can be expressed in terms of any one of them, e.g., radionuclide #1. The measured radionuclide is often called a *surrogate* radionuclide for the others.

If $C_2 = R_2 C_1, C_3 = R_3 C_1, \ldots, C_i = R_i C_1, \ldots, C_n = R_n C_1$
then

$$\begin{aligned} & C_1 / D_1 + C_2 / D_2 + C_3 / D_3 + \cdots + C_n / D_n \\ &= C_1 / D_1 + R_2 C_1 / D_2 + R_3 C_1 / D_3 + \cdots + R_n C_1 / D_n \\ &= C_1 [1/D_1 + R_2/D_2 + R_3 / D_3 + \cdots + R_n / D_n] \\ &= C_1 / D_{total} \end{aligned} \qquad \text{(I-13)}$$

where

$$D_{total} = 1/ [1/ D_1 + R_2/ D_2 + R_3 / D_3 + \cdots + R_n / D_n] \qquad \text{(I-14)}$$

Thus, D_{total} is the $DCGL_W$ for the surrogate radionuclide when the concentration of that radionuclide represents all radionuclides that are present in the survey unit. Clearly, this scheme is applicable only when radionuclide specific measurements of the surrogate radionuclide are made. It is unlikely to apply in situations where the surrogate radionuclide appears in background, since background variations would tend to obscure the relationships between it and the other radionuclides.

Thus, in the case where there are constant ratios among radionuclide concentrations, the statistical tests are applied as if only the surrogate radionuclide were contributing to the residual radioactivity, with the $DCGL_W$ for that radionuclide replaced by D_{total}. For example, in planning the final status survey, only the expected standard deviation of the concentration measurements for the surrogate radionuclide is needed to calculate the sample size.

For the elevated measurement comparison, the $DCGL_{EMC}$ for the surrogate radionuclide is replaced by

$$E_{total} = 1/ [1/ E_1 + R_2/ E_2 + R_3 / E_3 + \cdots + R_n / E_n] \qquad \text{(I-15)}$$

where E_i is the $DCGL_{EMC}$ for radionuclide i.

I.11.3 Unrelated Radionuclide Concentrations

If the concentrations of the different radionuclides appear to be unrelated in the survey unit, there is little alternative but to measure the concentration of each radionuclide and use the unity rule. The exception would be in applying the most restrictive $DCGL_W$ to all of the radionuclides, as mentioned later in this section.

Since the release criterion is

$$C_1 / D_1 + C_2 / D_2 + C_3 / D_3 + \cdots + C_n / D_n \leq 1 \qquad \text{(I-16)}$$

the quantity to be measured is the *weighted sum,* $T = C_1 / D_1 + C_2 / D_2 + C_3 / D_3 + \cdots + C_n / D_n$. The $DCGL_W$ for T is one. In planning the final status survey, the measurement standard deviation of the weighted sum, T, is estimated by

$$\sigma^2(T) = [\sigma(C_1)/ D_1]^2 + [\sigma(C_2)/ D_2]^2 + [\sigma(C_3)/ D_3]^2 + \cdots + [\sigma(C_n)/ D_n]^2 \qquad \text{(I-17)}$$

since the measured concentrations of the various radionuclides are assumed to be uncorrelated.

For the elevated measurement comparison, the inequality

$$C_1 / E_1 + C_2 / E_2 + C_3 / E_3 + \cdots + C_n / E_n \leq 1 \qquad \text{(I-18)}$$

is used, where E_i is the $DCGL_{EMC}$ for radionuclide i. For scanning, the most restrictive $DCGL_{EMC}$ should generally be used.

When some of the radionuclides also appear in background, the quantity $T = C_1 / D_1 + C_2 / D_2 + C_3 / D_3 + \cdots + C_n / D_n$ must also be measured in an appropriate reference area. If radionuclide i does not appear in background, set $C_i = 0$ in the calculation of T for the reference area.

Note that if there is a fixed ratio between the concentrations of some radionuclides, but not others, a combination of the method of this section with that of the previous section may be used. The appropriate value of D_{total} with the concentration of the measured surrogate radionuclide should replace the corresponding terms in equation I-17.

I.11.4 Example Application of WRS Test to multiple radionuclides

This section contains an example application of the nonparametric statistical methods in this report to sites that have residual radioactivity from more than one radionuclide. Consider a site with both ^{60}Co and ^{137}Cs contamination. ^{137}Cs appears in background from global atmospheric weapons tests at a typical concentration of about 1 pCi/g. Assume that the $DCGL_W$ for ^{60}Co is 2 pCi/g and for ^{137}Cs is 1.4 pCi/g. In disturbed areas, the background concentration of ^{137}Cs can vary considerably. An estimated spatial standard deviation of 0.5 pCi/g for ^{137}Cs will be assumed. During remediation, it was found that the concentrations of the two radionuclides were not well correlated in the survey unit. ^{60}Co concentrations were more variable than the ^{137}Cs concentrations, and 0.7 pCi/g is estimated for its standard deviation. Measurement errors for both ^{60}Co and ^{137}Cs using gamma spectrometry will be small compared to this. For the comparison to the release criteria, the weighted sum of the concentrations of these radionuclides is computed from:

Weighted sum = (^{60}Co concentration)/(^{60}Co $DCGL_W$) + (^{137}Cs Concentration)/(^{137}Cs $DCGL_W$)
= (^{60}Co concentration)/(2) + (^{137}Cs Concentration)/(1.4)

The variance of the weighted sum, assuming that the ^{60}Co and ^{137}Cs concentrations are spatially unrelated is

$$\sigma^2 = [(^{60}\text{Co Standard deviation})/(^{60}\text{Co DCGL}_W)]^2 + [(^{137}\text{Cs Standard Deviation})/(^{137}\text{Cs DCGL}_W)]^2$$
$$= [(0.7)/(2)]^2 + [(0.5)/(1.4)]^2 = 0.25.$$

Thus $\sigma = 0.5$. The $DCGL_W$ for the weighted sum is one. The null hypothesis is that the survey unit exceeds the release criterion. During the DQO process, the LBGR was set at 0.5 for the weighted sum, so that $\Delta = DCGL_W - LBGR = 1.0 - 0.5 = 0.5$, and $\Delta/\sigma = 0.5/0.5 = 1.0$. The acceptable error rates chosen were $\alpha = \beta = 0.05$. To achieve this, 32 samples each are required in the survey unit and the reference area.

The weighted sums are computed for each measurement location in both the reference area and the survey unit. The WRS test is then performed on the weighted sum. The calculations for this example are shown in Table I.12. The $DCGL_W$ (i.e., 1.0) is added to the weighted sum for each location in the reference area. The ranks of the combined survey unit and adjusted reference area weighted sums are then computed. The sum of the ranks of the adjusted reference area weighted sums is then compared to the critical value for $n = m = 32$, $\alpha = 0.05$, which is 1162 (see formula following Table I.4). In Table I.12, the sum of the ranks of the adjusted reference area weighted sums is 1281. This exceeds the critical value, so the null hypothesis is rejected. The survey unit meets the release criterion. The difference between the mean of the weighted sums in the survey unit and the reference area is 1.86 - 1.16 = 0.7. Thus, the estimated dose or risk due to residual radioactivity in the survey unit is 70% of the release criterion.

Table I.12 Example WRS Test for Two Radionuclides

	Reference Area		Survey Unit		Weighted Sum			Ranks	
	^{137}Cs	^{60}Co	^{137}Cs	^{60}Co	*Ref*	*Survey*	*Adj Ref*	*Survey*	*Adj Ref*
1	2.00	0	1.12	0.06	1.43	0.83	2.43	1	56
2	1.23	0	1.66	1.99	0.88	2.18	1.88	43	21
3	0.99	0	3.02	0.56	0.71	2.44	1.71	57	14
4	1.98	0	2.47	0.26	1.41	1.89	2.41	23	55
5	1.78	0	2.08	0.21	1.27	1.59	2.27	9	50
6	1.93	0	2.96	0.00	1.38	2.11	2.38	37	54
7	1.73	0	2.05	0.20	1.23	1.56	2.23	7	46
8	1.83	0	2.41	0.00	1.30	1.72	2.30	16	52
9	1.27	0	1.74	0.00	0.91	1.24	1.91	2	24
10	0.74	0	2.65	0.16	0.53	1.97	1.53	27	6
11	1.17	0	1.92	0.63	0.83	1.68	1.83	13	18
12	1.51	0	1.91	0.69	1.08	1.71	2.08	15	32
13	2.25	0	3.06	0.13	1.61	2.25	2.61	47	63
14	1.36	0	2.18	0.98	0.97	2.05	1.97	30	28
15	2.05	0	2.08	1.26	1.46	2.12	2.46	39	58
16	1.61	0	2.30	1.16	1.15	2.22	2.15	45	41
17	1.29	0	2.20	0.00	0.92	1.57	1.92	8	25
18	1.55	0	3.11	0.50	1.11	2.47	2.11	59	35
19	1.82	0	2.31	0.00	1.30	1.65	2.30	11	51
20	1.17	0	2.82	0.41	0.84	2.22	1.84	44	19
21	1.76	0	1.81	1.18	1.26	1.88	2.26	22	48
22	2.21	0	2.71	0.17	1.58	2.02	2.58	29	62
23	2.35	0	1.89	0.00	1.68	1.35	2.68	3	64
24	1.51	0	2.12	0.34	1.08	1.68	2.08	12	33
25	0.66	0	2.59	0.14	0.47	1.92	1.47	26	5
26	1.56	0	1.75	0.71	1.12	1.60	2.12	10	38
27	1.93	0	2.35	0.85	1.38	2.10	2.38	34	53
28	2.15	0	2.28	0.87	1.54	2.06	2.54	31	61
29	2.07	0	2.56	0.56	1.48	2.11	2.48	36	60
30	1.77	0	2.50	0.00	1.27	1.78	2.27	17	49
31	1.19	0	1.79	0.30	0.85	1.43	1.85	4	20
32	1.57	0	2.55	0.70	1.12	2.17	2.12	42	40
Avg	1.62	0	2.28	0.47	1.16	1.86	2.16	sum = 799	sum = 1281
Std Dev	0.43	0	0.46	0.48	0.31	0.36	0.31		

APPENDIX J

DERIVATION OF ALPHA SCANNING EQUATIONS PRESENTED IN SECTION 6.7.2.2

For alpha survey instrumentation with a background around one to three counts per minute, a single count will give a surveyor sufficient cause to stop and investigate further. Assuming this to be true, the probability of detecting given levels of alpha emitting radionuclides can be calculated by use of Poisson summation statistics.

Discussion
Experiments yielding numerical values for a random variable X, where X represents the number of events occurring during a given time interval or a specified region in space, are often called Poisson experiments (Walpole and Myers 1985). The probability distribution of the Poisson random variable X, representing the number of events occurring in a given time interval t, is given by:

$$P(x;\lambda t) = \frac{e^{-\lambda t}(\lambda t)^x}{x!}, \quad x = 0, 1, 2, \ldots \qquad \text{(J-1)}$$

where:

$P(x; \lambda t)$	=	probability of x events in time interval t
λ	=	Average number of events per unit time
λt	=	Average value expected

To define this distribution for an alpha scanning system, substitutions may be made giving:

$$P(n;m) = \frac{e^{-m} m^n}{n!} \qquad \text{(J-2)}$$

where:

$P(n; m)$	=	probability of getting n counts when the average number expected is m
m	=	λt , average number of counts expected
n	=	x, number of counts actually detected

For a given detector size, source activity, and scanning rate, the probability of getting *n* counts while passing over the source activity with the detector can be written as:

$$P(n;m) = \frac{e^{\frac{-GEd}{60v}}\left[\frac{GEd}{60v}\right]^n}{n!} = \frac{e^{\frac{-GEt}{60}}\left[\frac{GEt}{60}\right]^n}{n!} \qquad \text{(J-3)}$$

where:

G	=	source activity (dpm)
E	=	detector efficiency (4π)
d	=	width of the detector in the direction of scan (cm)
v	=	scan speed (cm/s)
t	=	d/v, dwell time over source (s)

If it is assumed that the detector background is equal to zero, then the probability of observing greater than or equal to 1 count, $P(n \geq 1)$, within a time interval t is:

$$P(n \geq 1) = 1 - P(n = 0) \qquad \text{(J-4)}$$

If it is also assumed that a single count is sufficient to cause a surveyor to stop and investigate further, then:

$$P(n \geq 1) = 1 - P(n = 0) = 1 - e^{-\frac{GEd}{60v}} \qquad \text{(J-5)}$$

Figures J.1 through J.3 show this function plotted for three different detector sizes and four different source activity levels. Note that the source activity levels are given in terms of areal activity values (dpm per 100 cm^2), the probe sizes are the dimensions of the probes in line with the direction of scanning, and the detection efficiency has been assumed to be 15%. The assumption is made that the areal activity is contained within a 100 cm^2 area and that the detector completely passes over the area either in one or multiple passes.

Once a count has been recorded and the surveyor stops, the surveyor should wait a sufficient period of time such that if the guideline level of contamination is present, the probability of getting another count is at least 90%. This minimum time interval can be calculated for given contamination guideline values by substituting the following parameters into Equation J-5 and solving:

$P(\geq 1)$	=	0.9
d/v	=	t
G	=	$\frac{CA}{100}$

where:

C	=	contamination guideline (dpm/100 cm^2)
A	=	Detector area (cm^2)

Giving:

$$t = \frac{13800}{CAE} \qquad \text{(J-6)}$$

Equation J-3 can be solved to give the probability of getting any number of counts while passing over the source area, although the solutions can become long and complex. Many portable proportional counters have background count rates on the order of 5 to 10 counts per minute and a single count will not give a surveyor cause to stop and investigate further. If a surveyor did stop for every count, and subsequently waited a sufficiently long period to make sure that the previous count either was or wasn't caused by an elevated contamination level, little or no progress would be made. For these types of instruments, the surveyor usually will need to get at least 2 counts while passing over the source area before stopping for further investigation. Assuming this to be a valid assumption, Equation J-3 can be solved for $n \geq 2$ as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} P(n \geq 2) &= 1 - P(n=0) - P(n=1) \\ &= 1 - e^{-\frac{(GE+B)t}{60}} - \frac{(GE+B)t}{60} e^{-\frac{(GE+B)t}{60}} \qquad \text{(J-7)} \\ &= 1 - e^{-\frac{(GE+B)t}{60}} \left(1 + \frac{(GE+B)t}{60} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Where:

$P(n \geq 2)$	=	probability of getting 2 or more counts during the time interval t
$P(n=0)$	=	probability of not getting any counts during the time interval t
$P(n=1)$	=	probability of getting 1 count during the time interval t
B	=	background count rate (cpm)

All other variables are the same as in Equation J-3.

Figures J-4 through J-7 show this function plotted for three different probe sizes and three different source activity levels. The same assumptions were made when calculating these curves as were made for Figures J-1 through J-3 except that the background was assumed to be 7 counts per minute.

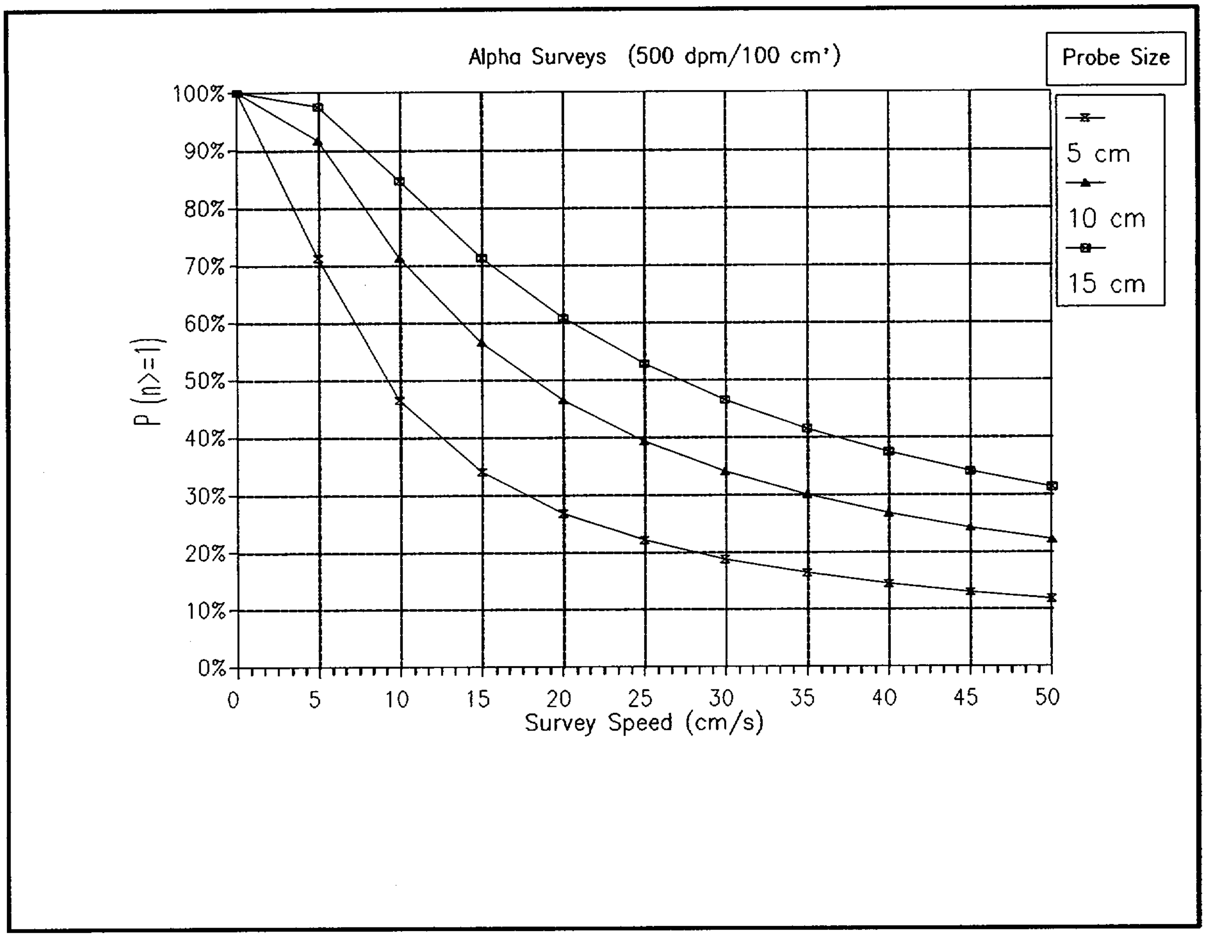


Figure J.1 **Probability (P) of getting one or more counts when passing over a 100 cm^2 area contaminated at 500 dpm/100 cm^2 alpha. The chart shows the probability versus scanning speed for three different probe sizes. The probe size denotes the dimensions of the probes which are in line with the direction of scanning. A detection efficiency of 15% (4π) is assumed.**

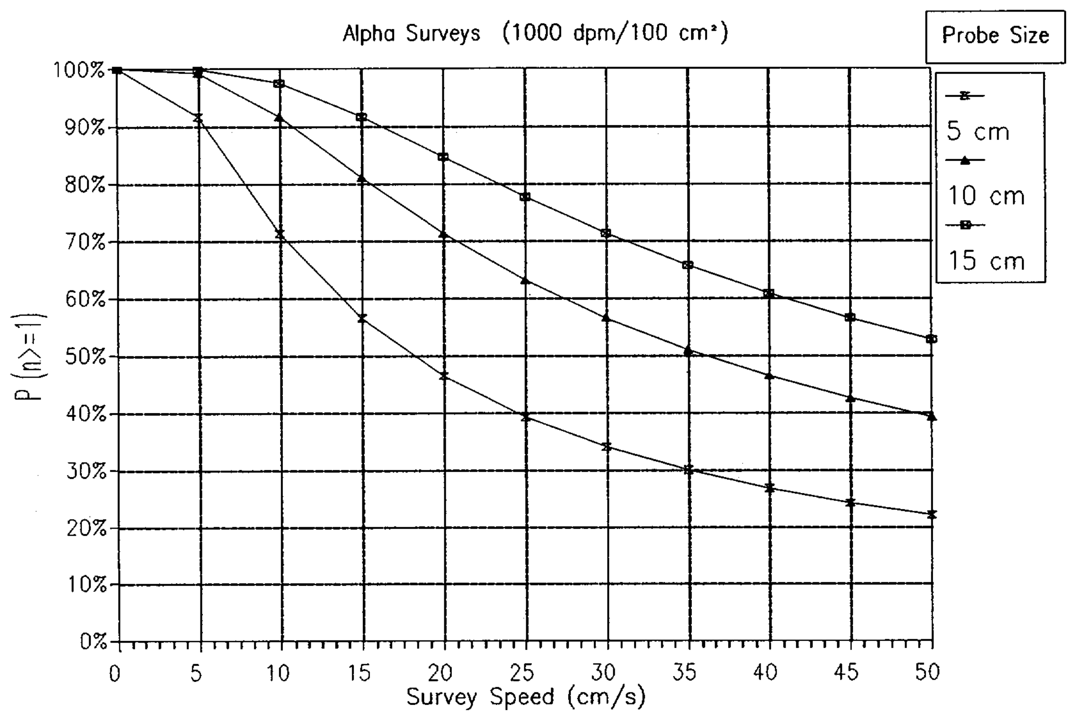


Figure J.2 **Probability (P) of getting one or more counts when passing over a 100 cm² area contaminated at 1,000 dpm/100 cm² alpha. The chart shows the probability versus scanning speed for three different probe sizes. The probe size denotes the dimensions of the probes which are in line with the direction of scanning. A detection efficiency of 15% (4π) is assumed.**

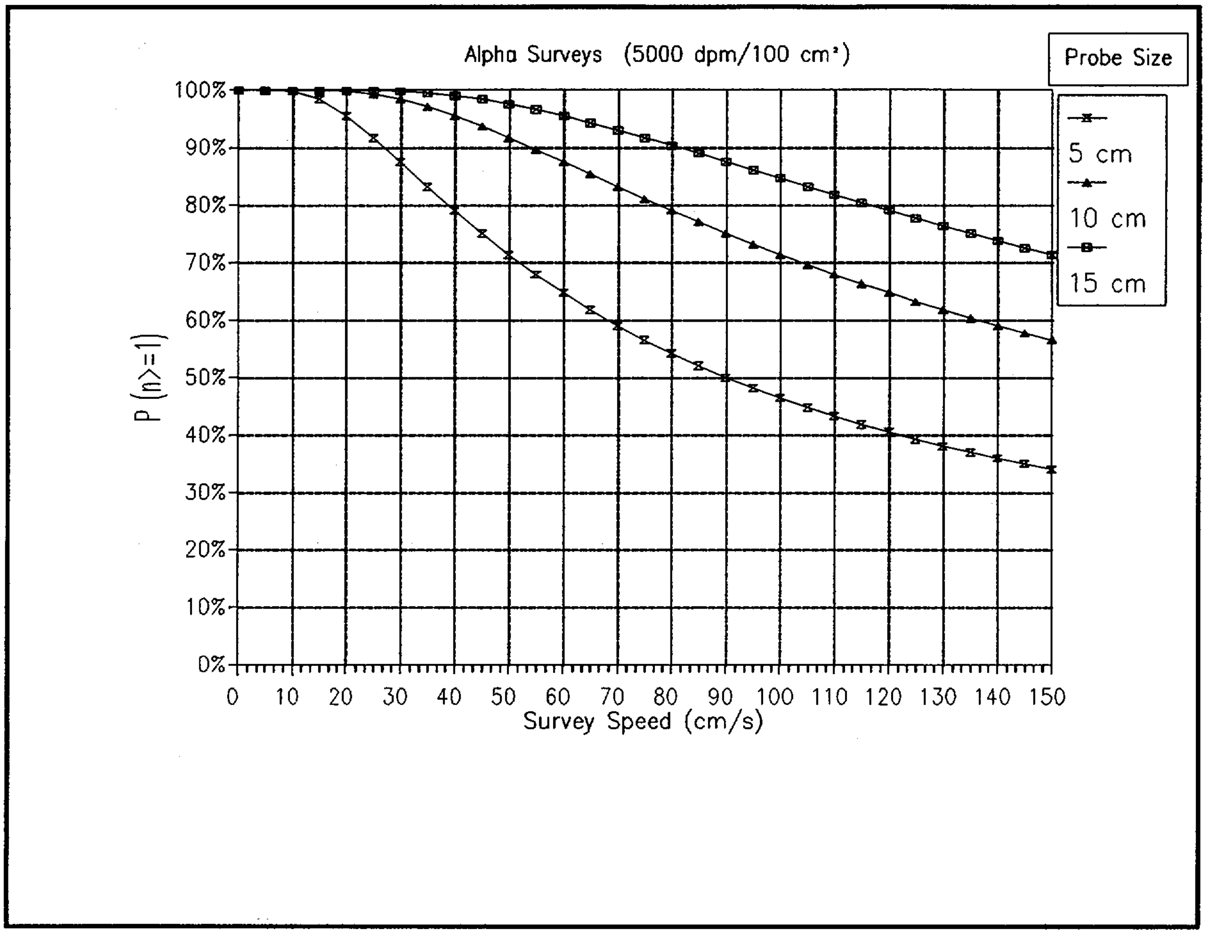


Figure J.3 **Probability (P) of getting one or more counts when passing over a 100 cm^2 area contaminated at 5,000 dpm/100 cm^2 alpha. The chart shows the probability versus scanning speed for three different probe sizes. The probe size denotes the dimensions of the probes which are in line with the direction of scanning. A detection efficiency of 15% (4π) is assumed.**

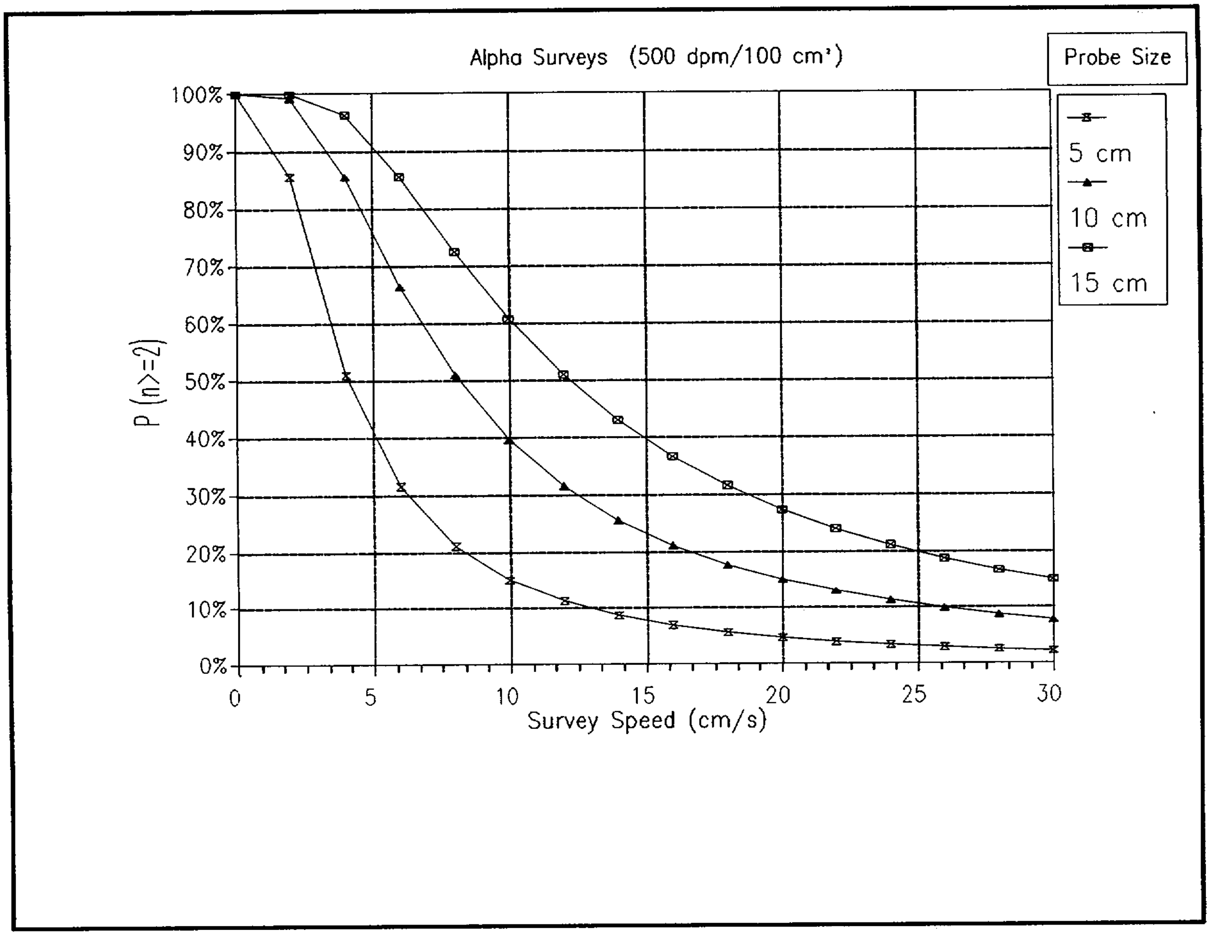


Figure J.4 **Probability (P) of getting two or more counts when passing over a 100 cm² area contaminated at 500 dpm/100 cm² alpha. The chart shows the probability versus scanning speed for three different probe sizes. The probe size denotes the dimensions of the probes which are in line with the direction of scanning. A detection efficiency of 15% (4π) is assumed.**

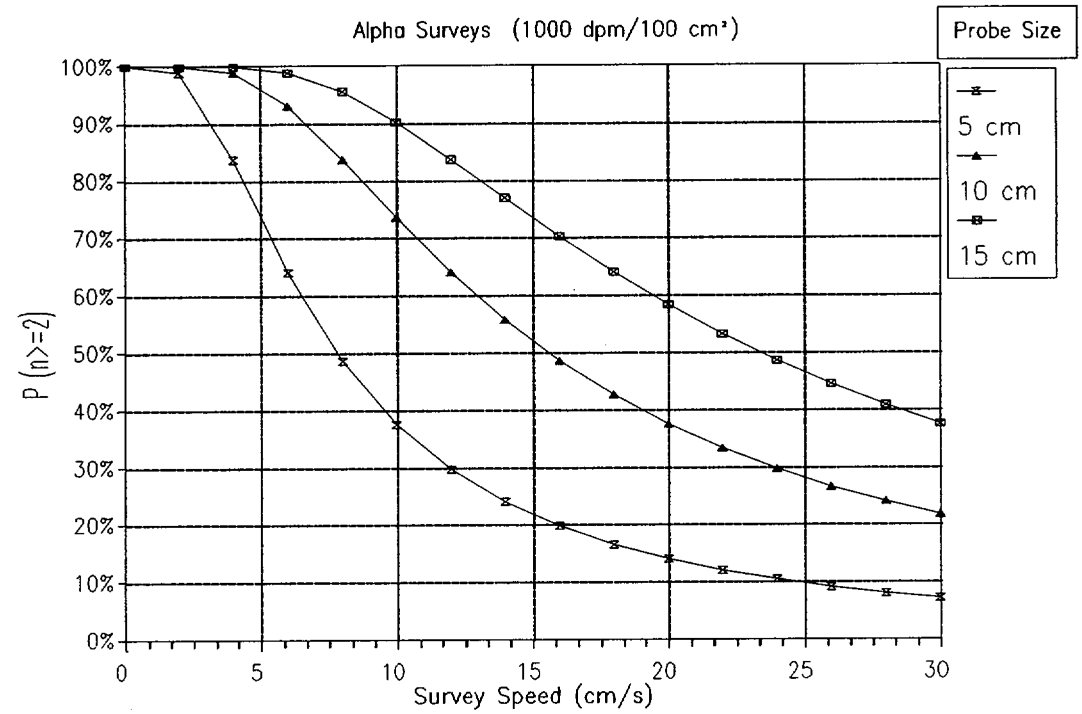


Figure J.5 **Probability (P) of getting two or more counts when passing over a 100 cm^2 area contaminated at 1,000 dpm/100 cm^2 alpha. The chart shows the probability versus scanning speed for three different probe sizes. The probe size denotes the dimensions of the probes which are in line with the direction of scanning. A detection efficiency of 15% (4π) is assumed.**

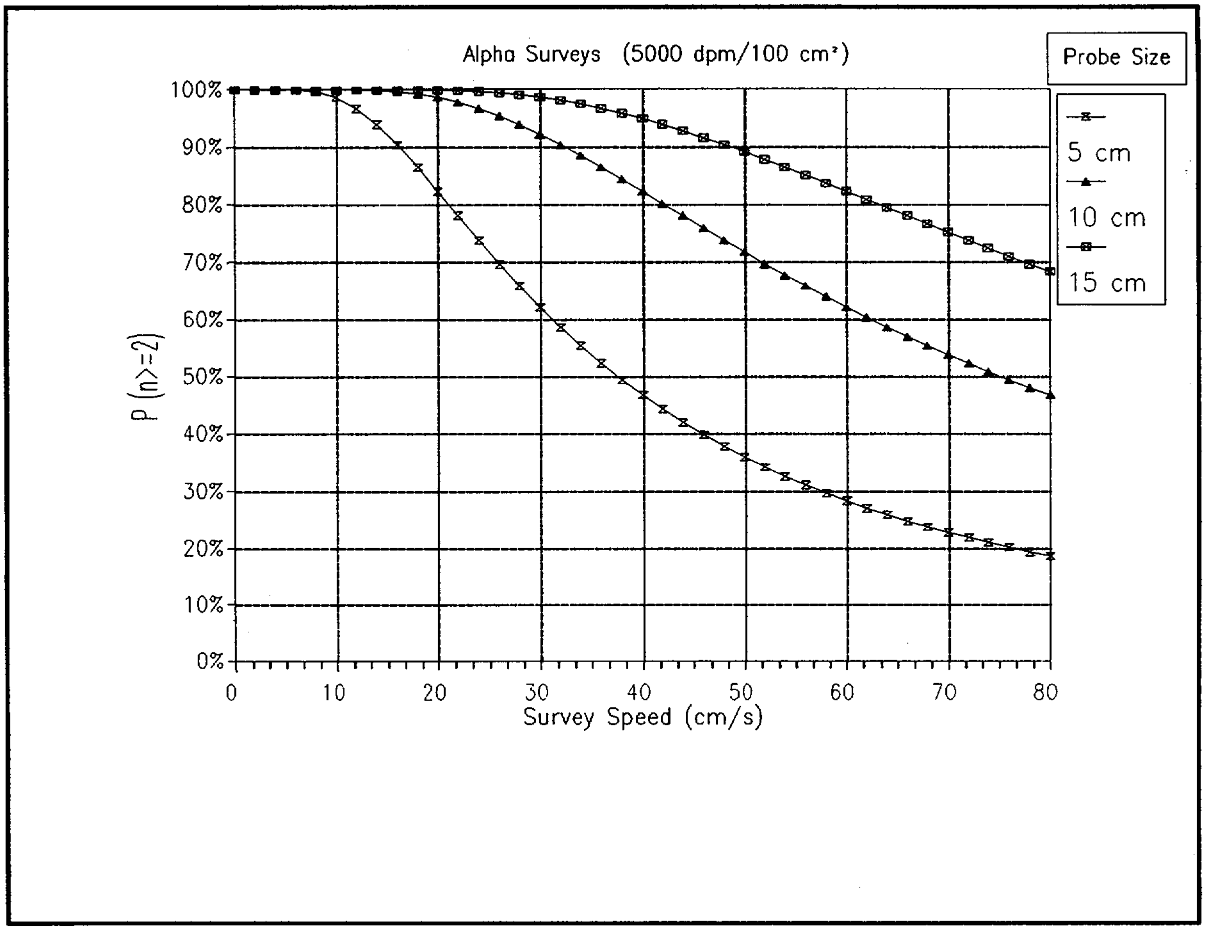


Figure J.6 **Probability (P) of getting two or more counts when passing over a 100 cm^2 area contaminated at 5,000 dpm/100 cm^2 alpha. The chart shows the probability versus scanning speed for three different probe sizes. The probe size denotes the dimensions of the probes which are in line with the direction of scanning. A detection efficiency of 15% (4π) is assumed.**

APPENDIX K

COMPARISON TABLES BETWEEN QUALITY ASSURANCE DOCUMENTS

The comparison tables in this appendix provide a reference for the MARSSIM user who may not be familiar with developing a QAPP based on EPA QA/R-5 (EPA 1994c). The tables relate the basic recommendations and requirements of EPA QA/R-5 and other quality assurance documents the reader may be more familiar with.

Each of the quality assurance documents compared in these tables was developed for a specific industry and scope. For this reason, there is not a direct comparison from one document to another. Rather, the tables are designed to show similarities between different quality assurance documents. In addition, there are topics specific to certain quality assurance documents that do not have a counterpart in these comparison tables.

If there is no section listed as being comparable with a section of EPA QA/R-5, this does not necessarily mean that the topic is not covered by the quality assurance document. In some cases the topic may have been divided up into several subtopics that are distributed between other sections of the particular document.

This appendix is not meant to provide a thorough cross-reference between different quality assurance documents. The purpose of these comparison tables is to demonstrate how the content of QAPPs might be arranged differently and show a user the location of important information concerning radiation surveys and site investigations. This might occur if the QAPP is developed using guidance the reviewer is unfamiliar with.

EPA QA/R-5 is compared with five quality assurance documents in the following tables:

- EPA QAMS-005/80 (EPA 1980d)
- ASME NQA-1 (ASME 1989)
- DOE Order 5700.6c (DOE 1991c)
- MIL-Q-9858A (DOD 1963)
- ISO 9000 (ISO 1987)

Table K.1 Comparison of EPA QA/R-5 and EPA QAMS-005/80

EPA QA/R-5 Elements		EPA QAMS-005/80	
A1	Title and Approval Sheet	1.0	Title Page with Provision for Approval Signatures
A2	Table of Contents	2.0	Table of Contents
A3	Distribution List		
A4	Project/Task Organization	4.0	Project Organization and Responsibility
A5	Problem Definition/Background	3.0	Project Description
A6	Project/Task Description	3.0	Project Description
A7	Quality Objectives and Criteria for Measurement Data	5.0	Quality Assurance Objectives for Measurement Data
A8	Project Narrative		
A9	Special Training Requirements/Certification		
A10	Documentation and Records		
B1	Sampling Process Design	6.0	Sampling Procedures
B2	Sampling Methods Requirements	6.0	Sampling Procedures
B3	Sample Handling and Custody Requirements	7.0	Sample Custody
B4	Analytical Methods Requirements	9.0	Analytical Methods
B5	Quality Control Requirements	11.0	Internal Quality Control Checks and Frequency
B6	Instrument/Equipment Testing, Inspection, and Maintenance Requirements	13.0	Preventive Maintenance Procedures and Schedules
B7	Instrument Calibration and Frequency	8.0	Calibration Procedures and Frequency
B8	Inspection/Acceptance Requirements for Supplies and Consumables		
B9	Data Acquisition Requirements		
B10	Data Quality Management		
C1	Assessments and Response Actions	12.0 15.0	Assessment and Response Actions Corrective Actions
C2	Reports to Management	16.0	Quality Assurance Reports to Management
D1	Data Review, Validation, and Verification Requirements	10.0	Data Reduction, Validation, and Reporting
D2	Validation and Verification Methods	10.0	Data Reduction, Validation, and Reporting
D3	Reconciliation with User Requirements		

Table K.2 Comparison of EPA QA/R-5 and ASME NQA-1

EPA QA/R-5 Elements		ASME NQA-1 Elements	
A1	Title and Approval Sheet		
A2	Table of Contents		
A3	Distribution List		
A4	Project/Task Organization	1.	Organization
A5	Problem Definition/Background		
A6	Project/Task Description	3.	Design Control
A7	Quality Objectives and Criteria for Measurement Data	2.	Quality Assurance Program
A8	Project Narrative	8.	Identification and Control of Items
A9	Special Training Requirements/Certification		
A10	Documentation and Records	4. 6.	Procurement Document Control Document Control
B1	Sampling Process Design	3.	Design Control
B2	Sampling Methods Requirements	5.	Instructions, Procedures, and Drawings
B3	Sample Handling and Custody Requirements	13.	Handling, Storage, and Shipping
B4	Analytical Methods Requirements	5.	Instructions, Procedures, and Drawings
B5	Quality Control Requirements	9. 11.	Control of Processes Test Control
B6	Instrument/Equipment Testing, Inspection, and Maintenance Requirements	10. 12.	Inspection Control of Measuring and Test Equipment
B7	Instrument Calibration and Frequency	14.	Inspection, Test, and Operating Status
B8	Inspection/Acceptance Requirements for Supplies and Consumables	7. 8.	Control of Purchased Items and Services Identification and Control of Items
B9	Data Acquisition Requirements		
B10	Data Quality Management		
C1	Assessments and Response Actions	15. 16. 18.	Control of Nonconforming Items Corrective Action Audits
C2	Reports to Management	17.	Quality Assurance Records
D1	Data Review, Validation, and Verification Requirements		
D2	Validation and Verification Methods		
D3	Reconciliation with User Requirements		

Table K.3 Comparison of EPA QA/R-5 and DOE Order 5700.6c

EPA QA/R-5 Elements		DOE Order 5700.6C Elements	
A1	Title and Approval Sheet		
A2	Table of Contents		
A3	Distribution List		
A4	Project/Task Organization	2	Personnel Training and Qualification
A5	Problem Definition/Background	1	Program
A6	Project/Task Description		
A7	Quality Objectives and Criteria for Measurement Data	1	Program
A8	Project Narrative		
A9	Special Training Requirements/Certification	2	Personnel Training and Qualification
A10	Documentation and Records	4	Documents and Records
B1	Sampling Process Design	6	Design
B2	Sampling Methods Requirements	5	Work Processes
B3	Sample Handling and Custody Requirements		
B4	Analytical Methods Requirements	5	Work Processes
B5	Quality Control Requirements		
B6	Instrument/Equipment Testing, Inspection, and Maintenance Requirements	8	Inspection and Acceptance Testing
B7	Instrument Calibration and Frequency		
B8	Inspection/Acceptance Requirements for Supplies and Consumables	7 8	Procurement Inspection and Acceptance Testing
B9	Data Acquisition Requirements		
B10	Data Quality Management		
C1	Assessments and Response Actions	10	Independent Assessment
C2	Reports to Management	9	Management Assessment
D1	Data Review, Validation, and Verification Requirements		
D2	Validation and Verification Methods		
D3	Reconciliation with User Requirements	3	Quality Improvement

Table K.4 Comparison of EPA QA/R-5 and MIL-Q-9858A

EPA QA/R-5 Elements		MIL-Q-9858A Elements	
A1	Title and Approval Sheet		
A2	Table of Contents		
A3	Distribution List		
A4	Project/Task Organization	3.1	Organization
A5	Problem Definition/Background		
A6	Project/Task Description		
A7	Quality Objectives and Criteria for Measurement Data	3.2	Initial Quality Planning
A8	Project Narrative		
A9	Special Training Requirements/Certification		
A10	Documentation and Records	3.4 4.1	Records Drawings, Documentation, and Changes
B1	Sampling Process Design		
B2	Sampling Methods Requirements	3.3	Work Instructions
B3	Sample Handling and Custody Requirements	6.4	Handling, Storage, and Delivery
B4	Analytical Methods Requirements	3.3	Work Instructions
B5	Quality Control Requirements	6.7	Identification of Inspection Status
B6	Instrument/Equipment Testing, Inspection, and Maintenance Requirements	4.2	Measuring and Test Equipment
B7	Instrument Calibration and Frequency	4.2	Measuring and Test Equipment
B8	Inspection/Acceptance Requirements for Supplies and Consumables	5.0 6.1	Control of Purchases Materials and Material Control
B9	Data Acquisition Requirements		
B10	Data Quality Management	3.4	Records
C1	Assessments and Response Actions	3.5 6.5	Corrective Action Nonconforming Material
C2	Reports to Management	3.6	Costs Related to Quality
D1	Data Review, Validation, and Verification Requirements		
D2	Validation and Verification Methods	6.6	Statistical Quality Control
D3	Reconciliation with User Requirements		
		6.2	Production Processing and Fabrication
		6.3	Completed Item Inspection and Test

Table K.5 Comparison of EPA QA/R-5 and ISO 9000

EPA QA/R-5 Elements		ISO 9000 Elements	
A1	Title and Approval Sheet		
A2	Table of Contents		
A3	Distribution List		
A4	Project/Task Organization	4	Management Responsibility
A5	Problem Definition/Background		
A6	Project/Task Description		
A7	Quality Objectives and Criteria for Measurement Data	5 5.2	Quality System Principles Structure of the Quality System
A8	Project Narrative		
A9	Special Training Requirements/Certification		
A10	Documentation and Records		
B1	Sampling Process Design	8	Quality in Specification and Design
B2	Sampling Methods Requirements	10	Quality in Production
B3	Sample Handling and Custody Requirements	16	Handling and Post Production Functions
B4	Analytical Methods Requirements	10	Quality in Production
B5	Quality Control Requirements	11	Control of Production
B6	Instrument/Equipment Testing, Inspection, and Maintenance Requirements	13	Control of Measuring and Test Equipment
B7	Instrument Calibration and Frequency		
B8	Inspection/Acceptance Requirements for Supplies and Consumables	9 11.2	Quality in Procurement Material Control and Traceability
B9	Data Acquisition Requirements		
B10	Data Quality Management		
C1	Assessments and Response Actions	5.4 14 15	Auditing the Quality System Nonconformity Corrective Action
C2	Reports to Management	5.3 6	Documentation of the Quality System Economics—Quality Related Costs
D1	Data Review, Validation, and Verification Requirements	11.7	Control of Verification Status
D2	Validation and Verification Methods	12	Verification Status
D3	Reconciliation with User Requirements		
		7	Quality in Marketing

APPENDIX L

REGIONAL RADIATION PROGRAM MANAGERS

The following is a directory list of regional program managers in Federal agencies who administer radiation control activities and have responsibility for certain radiation protection activities. The telephone numbers and addresses in this appendix are subject to change without notice. A more complete directory list of professional personnel in state and local government agencies is available from the Conference of Radiation Control Program Directors, Inc. (CRCPD). This directory is updated and distributed yearly. To obtain a copy of this annual publication please write to:

CRCPD
Attn: Ellen Steinberg
205 Capital Avenue
Frankfort, KY 40601
(502) 227-4543

L.1 Department of Energy (DOE)

DOE Home Page http://www.doe.gov

Oak Ridge Operations Office
ORO Public Affairs Office
Post Office Box 2001
Oak Ridge, Tennessee 37831
Telephone: (865) 576-0885
(865) 576-9262
http://www.oakridge.doe.gov/

Savannah River Operations Office
Department of Energy
Post Office Box A
Aiken, South Carolina 29802
Telephone: (803) 725-2889
(803) 725-3966
http://www.srs.gov/

Albuquerque Operations Office
Department of Energy
Post Office Box 5400
Albuquerque, New Mexico 87185-5400
Telephone: (505) 845-6202
(505) 845-5581
http://www.doeal.gov/

Chicago Operations Office
Department of Energy
9800 South Cass Avenue
Argonne, Illinois 60439
Telephone: (630) 252-2013
http://www.ch.doe.gov/

Idaho Operations Office
Department of Energy
Post Office Box 1625
Idaho Falls, Idaho 83415
Telephone: (208) 526-0833
http://www.id.doe.gov/doeid/index.html

Oakland Operations Office
Department of Energy
1301 Clay Street, 180 N
Oakland, California 94612
Telephone: (510) 637-1762
(510) 637-1814
http://www.oak.doe.gov/

Richland Operations Office
Department of Energy
Post Office Box 550, A7-75
Richland, Washington 99352
Telephone: (509) 376-7501
(509) 376-6506
http://www.hanford.gov/

Nevada Operations Office
Department of Energy
PO Box 98518
Las Vegas, NV 89193-8518
Telephone: (702) 295-3521
http://www.nv.doe.gov/

L.2 Environmental Protection Agency (EPA)

EPA Home Page http://www.epa.gov

Region 1	(CT, MA, ME, NH, RI, VT) U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Region 1 1 Congress Street Boston, Massachusetts 02114-2023	Telephone: (617) 723-8928 http://www.epa.gov/region01/
Region 2	(NJ, NY, PR, VI) U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Region 2 290 Broadway New York, New York 10007-1866	Telephone: (212) 637-3000 http://www.epa.gov/Region2/
Region 3	(DC, DE, MD, PA, VA, WV) U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Region 3 1650 Arch Street Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19103-2029	Telephone: (800) 438-2474 (215) 814-5000 http://www.epa.gov/region03/
Region 4	(AL, FL, GA, KY, MS, NC, SC, TN) U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Region 4 Atlanta Federal Center 61 Forsyth Street, SW Atlanta, Georgia 30303-3104	Telephone: (404) 562-9900 (800) 241-1754 http://www.epa.gov/region4/reg4.html
Region 5	(IL, IN, MI, MN, OH, WI) U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Region 5 77 West Jackson Boulevard (AT-18J) Chicago, Illinois 60604-3507	Telephone: (312) 353-2000 (800) 621-8431* http://www.epa.gov/Region5/

* 800 number is only available within the specified EPA Region

Region 6	(AR, LA, NM, OK, TX) U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Region 6 1445 Ross Avenue, Suite 1200 Dallas, Texas 75202-2733	Telephone: (214) 665-2200 (800) 887-6063* http://www.epa.gov/earth1r6/index.htm
Region 7	(IA, KS, MO, NE) U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Region 7 901 North 5th Street Kansas City, Kansas 66101	Telephone: (913) 551-7003 (800) 223-0425 http://www.epa.gov/rgytgrnj/
Region 8	(CO, MT, ND, SD, UT, WY) U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Region 8 999 18th Street, Suite 300 Denver, Colorado 80202-2466	Telephone:(303) 312-6312 (800) 227-8917* http://www.epa.gov/unix0008/
Region 9	(AZ, CA, HI, NV, American Samoa, and Guam) U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Region 75 Hawthorne Street 9 San Francisco, California 94105	Telephone: (415) 744-1702 (415) 744-1305 http://www.epa.gov/region09/
Region 10	(AK, ID, OR, WA) U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Region 10 1200 Sixth Avenue Seattle, Washington 98101	Telephone: (206) 553-1200 (800) 424-4372* http://www.epa.gov/r10earth/

* 800 number is only available within the specified EPA Region

L.3 Nuclear Regulatory Commission (NRC)

NRC Home Page http://www.nrc.gov

Region I
(CT, DC, DE, MA, MD, ME, NH, NJ, NY, PA, RI, VT)
Administrator
U.S. Nuclear Regulatory Commission
475 Allendale Road
King of Prussia, Pennsylvania 19406-1415
Telephone: (610) 337-5299
(610) 337-5000

Region II
(AL, FL, GA, KY, MS, NC, PR, SC, TN, VA, VI, WV, Panama Canal)
Administrator
U.S. Nuclear Regulatory Commission
Atlanta Federal Center, 23 T85
61 Forsyth Street, SW
Atlanta, Georgia 30303-8931
Telephone: (404) 331-4400

Region III
(IA, IL, IN, MI, MN, MO, OH, WI)
Administrator
U.S. Nuclear Regulatory Commission
801 Warrenville Road
Lisle, Illinois 60532-4351
Telephone: (630) 829-9657
(630) 829-9500

Region IV
(AR, CO, ID, KS, LA, MT, NE, ND, NM, OK, SD, TX, UT, WY, AK, AZ, CA, HI, NV, OR, WA, Pacific Trust Territories)
Administrator
U.S. Nuclear Regulatory Commission
611 Ryan Plaza Drive, Suite 400
Arlington, Texas 76011-8064
Telephone: (817) 860-8225
(817) 860-8100

L.4 Department of the Army

The following is a list of key personnel within the Department of the Army who administer radiation control activities and have responsibilities for certain radiation protection activities.

Deputy for Environmental Safety & Occupational Health Office of the Assistant Secretary of the Army (Installations, Logistics, & Environment) 110 Army Pentagon Washington, DC 20310-0110	Telephone: (703) 695-7824
Director of Army Radiation Safety Army Safety Office DACS-SF Chief of Staff 200 Army Pentagon Washington, DC 20310-0200	Telephone: (703) 695-7291
Radiological Hygiene Consultant Office of The Surgeon General Walter Reed Army Medical Center Attn: MCHL-HP Washington, DC 20307-5001	Telephone: (301) 427-5107

L.5 Department of the Navy

The following is a list of key personnel within the Department of the Navy who administer radiation control activities and have responsibilities for certain radiation protection activities.

Navy Radiation Safety Committee
Chief of Naval Operations (N455)
2211 Jefferson Davis Highway
Crystal Plaza #5, Room 678
Arlington, VA 22244-5108
Telephone: (703) 602-2582

Commander (SEA-07R)
Radiological Controls Program
Naval Sea Systems Command
2531 Jefferson Davis Highway
Arlington, VA 22242-5160
Telephone: (703) 602-1252

Officer in Charge
Radiological Affairs Support Office
P.O. Drawer 260
Yorktown, VA 23691-0260
Telephone: (757) 887-4692

L.6 Department of the Air Force

The following is a list of key personnel within the Department of the Air Force who administer radiation control activities and have responsibilities for certain radiation protection activities.

Chief, Materials Licensing
USAF Radioisotope Committee
AFMOA/SGOR
110 Luke Avenue, Room 405
Bolling AFB, DC 20332-7050
Telephone: (202) 767-4313

Chief, Consultant Branch
Radiation Services Division, Armstrong Laboratory
IERA/SDRH
2402 E Street
Brooks AFB, TX 78235-5114
Telephone: (210) 536-3486

APPENDIX M

SAMPLING METHODS: A LIST OF SOURCES

M.1 Introduction

Planning activities associated with field survey work include developing new and compiling or adopting existing sampling methods. The following listing includes documents that represent examples for the types of information one encounters when searching for sampling methods. This listing initially presents references that appear with brief annotations that characterize the information found in each document.

Journal articles and books may list references that lead to still other types of useful information. Depending on survey needs, media being sampled, or site-specific requirements, one may follow these references to resources that describe other types of methods found in original papers or documents that appeared even as specific sampling techniques were first introduced.

The present listing is not exhaustive. Other titles or resources for sampling methods are available through online literature databases; Federal, State, and university libraries; the internet; and other sources.

M.2 List of Sources

Department of Energy (DOE). 1987. *The Environmental Survey Manual.* DOE/EH-0053, Vol. 1 of 4. DOE, Office of the Assistant Secretary for Environment, Safety, and Health, Office of Environmental Audit, Washington, D.C.

- *General Description of Document*: Size: Approximately 188 pages (single sided)—This is the first of a four volume set that amounts to over 4 ins. (total thickness) of documentation related to environmental surveys. The first volume represents the main document, with the remaining three volumes contain eleven appendices.

- *Key Features of This Document*: Unlike a number of other references listed here, this document *does* include information related to radionuclides and considers biota (animal, plant, and related sample types). Flow charts, checklists, planning diagrams, and figures help the reader to visualize a number of topics described in the text of all four volumes. Section 2 of this volume entertains topics related to a survey team's activities and survey reports. Section 3 considers the use of existing data, followed by technical checklists in Section 4 and health and safety issues described in Section 5.

A quick review of this first volume reveals a limited amount of depth to the information presented. There is little descriptive *How To Sample* information given here. However, as an overview, the document is quite comprehensive and this may encourage a survey team to consider obtaining additional information relevant to a particular project need.

Department of Energy (DOE). 1987. *The Environmental Survey Manual: Appendices A, B, and C.* DOE/EH-0053, Vol. 2 of 4. DOE, Office of the Assistant Secretary for Environment, Safety, and Health, Office of Environmental Audit, Washington, D.C.

- *General Description of Document*: Size: Approximately 188 pages (double sided)—This second volume contains three of eleven appendices.

- *Key Features of This Document*: The appendices include: A) Criteria for Data Evaluation, B) Checklists and Lines of Inquiry, and C) Health and Safety Plan for On-Site Survey Activities.

Department of Energy (DOE). 1987. *The Environmental Survey Manual: Appendix D.* DOE/EH-0053, Vol. 3 of 4. DOE, Office of the Assistant Secretary for Environment, Safety, and Health, Office of Environmental Audit, Washington, D.C.

- *General Description of Document*: Size: Approximately 438 pages (double sided)—This single volume is the largest part of the four part set and contains only one appendix: Appendix D - Analytical Methods.

- *Key Features of This Document*: The topics presented here have little to do with sample collection and are mostly concerned with the types of compounds or constituents within a sample. A radiological section covers a number of radionuclides that one may encounter in a number of sample matrices—including in water, air, soil, and sediments. Again, this is an appendix dedicated to sample analysis.

Department of Energy (DOE). 1987. *The Environmental Survey Manual: Appendices E, F, G, H, I, J, and K.* DOE/EH-0053, Vol. 4 of 4. DOE, Office of the Assistant Secretary for Environment, Safety, and Health, Office of Environmental Audit, Washington, D.C.

- *General Description of Document*: Size: Approximately 312 pages (double sided)—This fourth and final volume includes seven appendices.

- *Key Features of This Document*: Appendix E is entitled *Field Sampling Protocols and Guidance*—which offers a number of site scenarios to describe an approach to sampling under varied conditions. Each scenario is followed by a set of sampling procedures appropriate for a particular sample matrix. This appendix is 216 pages in length making this the largest part of Volume 4. Diagrams are included to illustrate scenarios and the appearance of sampling equipment.

  The remaining appendices cover: F) guidelines for preparation of quality assurance plans, G) decontamination guidance, H) data management and analysis, I) sample and document management guidance, J) health and safety guidance for sampling and analysis teams, and K) documents for sampling and analysis program.

Department of Energy (DOE). 1991. *Environmental Regulatory Guide for Radiological Effluent Monitoring and Environmental Surveillance.* DOE/EH-0173T, DOE, Assistant Secretary for Environment, Safety, and Health, Washington, D.C. (DE91-013607)

- *General Description of Document*: Size: approximately 90 pages— This guide covers a number of topics related to radiation and environmental surveillance.

- *Key Features of This Document*: To accomplish environmental surveillance, various sample types—from biotic (animal and plant) to abiotic (air, water, soil, *etc.*)—are considered in Chapter 5 (title: Environmental Surveillance). The basis for taking certain samples appears along with information on sample location and frequency. A brief statement on sampling methods completes each section but procedures or techniques are not given in detail. References to other guidance documents on sampling are cited. The reader is directed to other sources to obtain additional regulatory information or descriptions of specific procedures.

  Chapter 6 provides information on laboratory procedures. Other chapters cover: liquid effluent monitoring, airborne effluent monitoring, meteorological monitoring, data analysis and statistical treatment, dose calculations, records and reports, quality assurance (QA), and reports.

Department of Energy (DOE). 1994. *Decommissioning Handbook.* DOE/EM-0142P. DOE, Office of Environmental Restoration, Germantown, MD

- *General Description of Document*: Size: Approximately 312 pages—The manual is essentially written for those involved in decommissioning a nuclear power facility. While not specifically focused on radiation sampling methods, this document may play a role in

identifying activities or sampling needs related to survey work before or during remediation at some Federal facilities.

- *Key Features of This Document*: Chapter 6 presents information on final project configuration based on planning and as such speaks of site boundaries. Chapter 7 presents topics related to characterization including on-site measurements.

  This document includes discussion and illustrations of robotic devices used in sampling operations. Perhaps only appropriate in extreme situations, the use of a robot for obtaining a sample may apply where radiation levels are high, dust or air quality pose problems, or where technical staff cannot physically reach a sample location due to structural limitations.

Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). 1980. *Samplers and Sampling Procedures for Hazardous Waste Streams*. EPA-600/2-80-018, EPA, Municipal Environmental Research Laboratory, Cincinnati, OH.

- *General Description of Document*: Size: 67 pages—the procedures listed here cover different types of media and include helpful diagrams of sampling devices.

- *Key Features of This Document*: While not specifically geared to radioactive samples, this short manual outlines and presents information in a logical sequence—starting with descriptions of sampling devices, followed by discussion of selecting an appropriate device for various media (including samples taken from various sources; *e.g.*, drum, barrel, waste pile), container types, labels, seals, use of a log book, chain of custody, sample receipt and logging, preservation and storage of samples, and references. The document includes five appendices, covering development of the composite liquid waste sampler, parts for constructing the sampler, checklist of items required in the field for sampling hazardous waste, random sampling, and systematic errors in using the composite liquid waste sampler.

Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). 1982. *Test Methods For Evaluating Solid Waste, Physical / Chemical Methods, 2nd Edition.* EPA, Office of Solid Waste, Washington, D.C. (PB87-120291)

- *General Description of Document*: Size: Approximately 375 pages—composed of chapters and methods that update the first edition of this volume.

- *Key Features of This Document*: Chapter 1 of this manual pulls together information from the first three chapters of the first edition. This includes a Sampling Methodology section that addresses statistics, sampling strategies and examples, implementing a sampling plan, plus tables and figures of sampling devices, *etc.* The main focus is on solid waste including metals and organics. Methods are described with the same format as indicated above in reference 1. As above, the methods include some information relevant to the field component of sampling work, but the remainder of each method essentially is most useful to laboratory personnel.

Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). 1982. *Handbook for Sampling and Sample Preservation of Water and Wastewater.* EPA-600/4-82-029, EPA, Environmental Monitoring and Support Laboratory, Cincinnati, OH. (PB83-124503)

- *General Description of Document*: Size: Approximately 500 pages—composed of information specifically focused on sample collection and preservation. While the document concerns only water sampling, this volume is comprehensive and even includes a chapter on *Sampling Radioactive Materials.*

- *Key Features of This Document*: The handbook is geared to address sampling issues. The scope of the document covers all types or sources of water, including: municipal, industrial, surface, agricultural, ground, and drinking waters. Types of samples are defined and discussed, including grab and composite samples. Diagrams, tables, and forms are provided to illustrate key points raised in the text. Statistical methods and related tables are provided. Each topic is accompanied by references. The chapter on radioactive samples is brief but touches on: background, radioactive decay, detection capability, frequency of sampling, sampling location, sample volume, containers, filtration, preservation, general procedures, radiation safety, and references.

Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). 1984. *Soil Sampling Quality Assurance User's Guide.* EPA 600/4-84-043, EPA, Environmental Monitoring Systems Laboratory, Office of Research and Development, Las Vegas, NV.

- *General Description of Document*: Size: 102 pages—The introduction to this document starts with: "An adequate quality assurance/quality control (QA/QC) program requires the identification and quantification of all sources of error associated with each step of a monitoring program so that the resulting data will be of known quality. the components of error, or variance, include those associated with sampling, sample preparation, extraction, analysis, and residual error."

- *Key Features of This Document*: Because of potential inhomogeneity in soil samples, the authors state this QA/QC document is specifically concerned with soil sampling. The general outline of the document includes: objectives of QA/QC, statistics, exploratory studies, sample number and sample sites, sample collection, sample handling and documentation, analysis and interpretation of QA/QC data, and systems audits and training. References are provided followed by two appendices covering sample number precision and confidence plus tables for use in calculating confidence tolerance limits and judging validity of measurements.

  The sample collection chapter is very brief and does not specifically outline methods or types of equipment. This and the following chapter on sample handling and documentation mention relevant topics in light of QA/QC.

Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). 1986. *Engineering Support Branch Standard Operating Procedures and Quality Assurance Manual.* EPA, Region IV, Environmental Services Division, Athens, GA. (Sections 3 to 5 reviewed)

- *General Description of Document*: Size: approximately 90 pages (single sided)—The introduction states: "The objectives of this section are to present the Branch standard operating procedures for sample identification, sample control and chain of custody, maintenance of field records, and document control.

- *Key Features of This Document*: The basic format of the document is that of a compendium of standard operating procedures bound in one volume. Each Standard Operating Procedure (SOP) is several pages and is dedicated to a specific topic. A five page outline pertaining to sampling procedures presents a brief overview that is a relatively typical treatment of this topic. Sample preservation, for example, is summarized with five bullet points. The next section offers a three page listing of definitions covering grab, composite, split, duplicate, reference or control, and background samples, plus a very brief definition for sample aliquot.

  The document lacks figures but does include descriptive notes for equipment and methods related to taking samples of waste water, surface water (fresh and salt water), ground water, potable water supply, soil, samples from landfills and hazardous waste sites, followed by references. The last part of the guide include information on making flow measurements.

  The document does not appear to focus on radioactive materials, but as with other documents the information can in part be used in conjunction with obtaining radioactive samples.

Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). 1987. *A Compendium of Superfund Field Operations Methods*. EPA/540/P-87/001, EPA, Office of Emergency and Remedial Response, Washington, D.C.

- *General Description of Document*: Size: Approximately 375 pages—the size and title of this document is a clue to the comprehensive nature of this volume. In brief, the text of this document provides a potentially valuable resource to field workers involved with Multi-Agency Radiation Survey and Site Investigation Manual (MARSSIM) surveys. While relatively complete—in that the document covers a broad range of topics—some readers may desire additional depth to the information provided here. Conversely, planners and field personnel might gain added insight by considering the broad range of topics included here before approaching the survey process.

- *Key Features of This Document*: Perhaps the best summary of this compendium is provided by a listing of sections, as follows: 1) Use of the Compendium, 2) Preparation of Project Description and Statement of Objectives, 3) Implementing Field Objectives, 4) Sample Control, Including Chain of Custody, 5) Laboratory Interface, 6) Sample Containers, Preservation, and Shipping, 7) Field Methods for Screening Hazardous Material, 8) Earth Sciences (*i.e.*, drilling, excavations, reconnaissance, geophysics, and ground water), 9) Earth Sciences Laboratory Procedures, 10) Surface Hydrology, 11) Meteorology and Air Quality, 12) Specialized Sampling Techniques (*e.g.*, wipes, human habitation sampling, TCDD, and container sampling), 14) Land Surveying, Aerial Photography, and Mapping, 15) Field Instrumentation (a comprehensive treatment including radiation monitors), 16) data handling, 17) Document Control, 18) Corrective Action, 19) QA Audit Procedures, and 20) QA Reporting.

  That this document serves objectives set forth by Superfund—and is not specifically focused on radionuclide sampling—in no way diminishes the importance of the compendium's complete overview of field sampling equipment and activities.

Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). 1989. *Test Methods For Evaluating Solid Waste Physical / Chemical Methods - Third Edition Proposed Update Package*. EPA, Office of Solid Waste, Washington, D.C. (PB89-148076)

- *General Description of Document*: Size Approximately 500 pages—composed of several updated chapters and 46 methods that are described by text and graphics. Only methods that are updated from 2nd Edition appear in this volume.

- *Key Features of This Document*: Chapters 1, 2, 4, and 7 describe QC, Choosing the Correct Procedure, Organic Analytes, and Regulatory Definitions, respectively. Of primary interest are the 46 methods that are described in what constitutes the bulk of this document. However, as is evident from some of the first methods listed for organics, sample collection techniques are only briefly touched on by a section of Chapter Four. This essentially makes the methods laboratory oriented protocols and the only reference to field methods appears in the text of a short chapter as opposed to part of each method. Some methods do list *Sample Collection, Preservation, and Handling* information with emphasis on use of containers, acidification or refrigeration, or a brief set of points to consider when preparing to go out to the field.

  Each method includes a method number and a title, plus the following information: 1) Scope and Application, 2) Summary of Method, 3) Interferences, 4) Apparatus and Materials, 5) Reagents, 6) Sample Collection, Preservation, and Handling, 7) Procedure, 8) QC, 9) Method Performance, and 10) References. Diagrams, flow charts, and tables follow the initial sequence of sections.

  The listing of methods include Method 9320 for Radium-228, Method 9310 for Gross Alpha & Gross Beta, and Method 9315 for Alpha-Emitting Radium Isotopes. These methods do not appear in the bound volume used for this review and thus no further comment is offered here.

Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). 1991. *Compendium of ERT Surface Water and Sediment Sampling Procedures*. OSWER Directive 9360.4-03, EPA, Office of Emergency and Remedial Response, Washington, D.C. (PB91-921274)

- *General Description of Document*: Size: 31 pages—this document includes three standard operating procedures (SOPs), the first of which is the same as the first SOP listed in the document described below.

- *Key Features of This Document*: The three SOPs included in this document include: 1) Sampling Equipment Decontamination, 2) Surface Water Sampling, and 3) Sediment Sampling. Each SOP is similar in content with sections that cover: scope, method summary, preservation, containers, equipment, apparatus, *etc*.

Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). 1991. *Compendium of ERT Ground water Sampling Procedures*. OSWER Directive 9360.4-06, EPA, Office of Emergency and Remedial Response, Washington, D.C. (PB91-921275)

- *General Description of Document*: Size: 71 pages—this document embodies eight standard operating procedures (SOPs) with a similar format as that described above.

- *Key Features of This Document*: The SOPs covered in this document include sampling equipment decontamination, ground water well sampling, soil gas samples, installing monitor wells, water level measurements, and other topics related to ground water and wells.

Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). 1991. *Compendium of ERT Soil Sampling and Surface Geophysics Procedures*. OSWER Directive 9360.4-02, EPA, Office of Emergency and Remedial Response, Washington, D.C. (PB91-921273)

- *General Description of Document*: Size: 39 pages—this document lists four standard operating procedures (SOPs) for soil sampling—with a similar format as that described above.

- *Key Features of This Document*: The SOPs covered in this document include sampling equipment decontamination, soil sampling, soil gas sampling, and soil sampling and surface geophysics. The SOP for soil sampling is five pages in length. This treatment essentially covers samples collected from the soil surface, to use of augers and tube samplers, a trier, split-spoon (barrel) sampler, and excavation techniques.

Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). 1991. *Environmental Compliance Branch Standard Operating Procedures and Quality Assurance Manual*. EPA, Region IV, Environmental Services Division, Athens, GA.

- *General Description of Document*: Size: Approximately 500 pages (single sided)—This document is presented with seven sections and eleven appendices. The main sections cover standard operating polices and procedures which relates to the Region IV laboratory's administrative functions to SOPs that are specifically focused on sampling activities.

- *Key Features of This Document*: Sections 3 and 4 are of primary importance when thinking of sample control, field record keeping, document control and sampling procedures. Section 4 on sampling procedures is descriptive—without diagrams or figures—and quite comprehensive in that this section touches on a multitude of topics not mentioned in a number of other guides, including: selection of parameters to be measured, holding time, cross contamination, and Data Quality Objectives (DQOs) (described as Level I to V). The sampling of soil, water, and air are covered in this section with many

of the subsections covering topics that are common to other documents reviewed here. A number of example forms are presented, including several that relate to State programs. Section 6 covers field analytical methods and Section 7 describes field physical measurements.

The appendices include helpful information relevant to sampling, including: A) sample containers, preservation, holding times, and permissible sample type, B) standard cleaning procedures, C) shipping procedures, D) standard field analytical methods, E) monitoring wells, F) pump operation procedures, G) air monitoring, H) wastewater field methods, I) saturation monitoring, and K) safety protocols.

Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). 1992. *Characterizing Heterogeneous Waste: Methods and Recommendations*. EPA/600/R92/033, EPA, Environmental Monitoring Systems Laboratory, Office of Research and Development, Las Vegas, NV. (PB92-216894)

- *General Description of Document*: Size: 144 pages—the focus of this document is on all types of waste materials that one might encounter. The base scenario appears to be one where a drum is encountered and the objective is to work to a point when the drum contents are understood. Because a drum may include more than one type of waste, this document provides a review of a wide variety of materials one might expect when surveying a site.

- *Key Features of This Document*: The table of contents reveals that the text attempts to provide a complete picture, from definitions of terms, to planning studies, QA/QC and data assessment, to sample acquisition, and steps that follow to the lab and what makes the characterization process a success. Radioactive waste materials, along with organics, solids, liquids, *etc*., are covered, but in a relatively brief fashion. The model scenario of dealing with wastes in a drum is incorporated into a hypothetical example in an appendix.

Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). 1992. *Preparation of Soil Sampling Protocols: Sampling Techniques and Strategies*. EPA/600/R92/128, EPA, Office of Research and Development, Washington, DC. (PB92-220532)

- *General Description of Document*: Size: 174 pages—this document summarizes various statistical and geostatistical concepts and procedures pertaining to the design, implementation, and data interpretation of appropriate sampling designs.

- *Key Features of This Document*: This document focuses on applying the concept of the Data Life Cycle to soil sampling. The document describes statistical concepts that apply to soil sampling, including particulate sampling theory. Types of samples, numbers of samples, and size of samples as well as methods for sampling soils from conveyor belts and stockpiles are also discussed. A bibliography is provided.

APPENDIX N

Data Validation Using Data Descriptors

Data validation is often defined by six data descriptors:

1) reports to decision maker
2) documentation
3) data sources
4) analytical method and detection limit
5) data review
6) data quality indicators

The decision maker or reviewer examines the data, documentation, and reports for each of the six data descriptors to determine if performance is within the limits specified in the DQOs developed during survey planning. The data validation process should be conducted according to procedures documented in the QAPP.

N.1 Reports to Decision Maker

Data and documentation supplied to the decision maker should be evaluated for completeness and appropriateness and to determine if any changes were made to the survey plan during the course of work. The survey plan discusses the surveying, sampling, and analytical design and contains the QAPP and DQOs. The decision maker should receive all data as collected plus preliminary and final data reports. The final decision on qualifying or rejecting data will be made during the assessment of environmental data. All data, including qualified or rejected data, should be documented and recorded even if the data are not included in the final report.

Preliminary analytical data reports allow the decision maker to begin the assessment process as soon as the surveying effort has begun. These initial reports have three functions.

1) For scoping or characterization survey data, they allow the decision maker to begin to characterize the site on the basis of actual data. Radionuclides of interest will be identified and the variability in concentration can be estimated.

2) They allow potential measurement problems to be identified and the need for corrective action can be assessed.

3) Schedules are more likely to be met if the planning of subsequent survey activities can begin before the final data reports are produced.

N.2 Documentation

Three types of documentation should be assessed: (1) field operation records; (2) laboratory records; and (3) data handling records (EPA 1997a).

N.2.1 Field Operation Records

The information contained in these records documents overall field operations and generally consists of the following:

- *Field measurement records*. These records show that the proper measurement protocol was performed in the field. At a minimum, this documentation should include the names of the persons conducting the activity, measurement identification, measurement locations, measurement results, maps and diagrams, equipment and SOP used, and unusual observations. Bound field notebooks are generally used to record raw data and make references to prescribed procedures and changes in planned activities. Data recording forms might also be used. A document control system should be used for these records to control attributes such as formatting to include pre-numbered pages with date and signature lines.

- *Sample tracking records*. Sample tracking records (*e.g.*, chain-of-custody) document the progression of samples as they travel from the original sampling location to the laboratory and finally to disposal (see Section 7.7).

- *QC measurement records*. QC measurement records document the performance of QC measurements in the field. These records should include calibration and standards' traceability documentation that can be used to provide a reproducible reference point to which all similar measurements can be correlated. QC measurement records should contain information on the frequency, conditions, level of standards, and instrument calibration history.

- *Personnel files*. Personnel files record the names and training certificates of the staff collecting the data.

- *General field procedures*. General field procedures (*e.g.*, SOPs) record the procedures used in the field to collect data and outline potential areas of difficulty in performing measurements.

- *Deficiency and problem identification reports*. These reports document problems and deficiencies encountered as well as suggestions for process improvement.

- *Corrective action reports*. Corrective action reports show what methods were used in cases where general field practices or other standard procedures were violated and include the methods used to resolve noncompliance.

N.2.2 Laboratory Records

The following list describes some of the laboratory-specific records that should be compiled if available and appropriate:

- *Laboratory measurement results and sample data.* These records contain information on the sample analysis used to verify that prescribed analytical methods were followed. The overall number of samples, sample identification, sample measurement results, any deviations from the SOPs, time of day, and date should be included. Sample location information might also be provided.

- *Sample management records*. Sample management records should document sample receipt, handling and storage, and scheduling of analyses. The records will verify that sample tracking requirements were maintained, reflect any anomalies in the samples (*e.g.*, receipt of damaged samples), and note proper log-in of samples into the laboratory.

- *Test methods*. Unless analyses were performed exactly as prescribed by SOPs, this documentation will describe how the analyses were carried out in the laboratory. This documentation includes sample preparation and analysis, instrument standardization, detection and reporting limits, and method-specific QC requirements. Documentation demonstrating laboratory proficiency with each method used could also be a part of the data reporting package, particularly for subcontracted work.

- *QC measurement records*. These include the general QC records, such as initial demonstration of capability, instrument calibration, routine monitoring of analytical performance, calibration verification, *etc.*, considered in Section 7.3 for selecting a radioanalytical laboratory. Project-specific information from the QC checks such as blanks, spikes, calibration check samples, replicates, splits, and so on should be included in these reports to facilitate data quality analysis.

- *Deficiency and problem identification reports*. These reports document problems and deficiencies encountered as well as suggestions for process improvement.

- *Corrective action reports*. Corrective action reports show what methods were used in cases where general laboratory practices or other standard procedures were violated and include the methods used to resolve noncompliance. Corrective action procedures to replace samples violating the SOP also should be noted.

N.2.3 Data Handling Records

Data handling records document protocols used in data reduction, verification, and validation. Data reduction addresses data transformation operations such as converting raw data into reportable quantities and units, using significant figures, calculating measurement uncertainties, *etc.* The records document procedures for handling data corrections.

N.3 Data Sources

Data source assessment involves the evaluation and use of historical analytical data. Historical analytical data should be evaluated according to data quality indicators and not the source of the data (*e.g.*, analytical protocols may have changed significantly over time). Data quality indicators are qualitative and quantitative descriptors used in interpreting the degree of acceptability or utility of data. Historical data sources are addressed during the Historical Site Assessment, and are discussed in Section 3.4.1.

N.4 Analytical Method and Detection Limit

The selection of appropriate analytical methods based on detection limits is important to survey planning. The detection limit of the method directly affects the usability of the data because results near the detection limit have a greater possibility of false negatives and false positives. Results near the detection limit have increased measurement uncertainty. When the measurement uncertainty becomes large compared to the variability in the radionuclide concentration, it becomes more difficult to demonstrate compliance using the guidance provided in MARSSIM.

The decision maker compares detection limits (*i.e.*, minimum detectable concentrations; MDCs) with radionuclide-specific results to determine their effectiveness in relation to the DCGL. Assessment of preliminary data reports provides an opportunity to review the detection limits early and resolve any detection sensitivity problems. When a radionuclide is reported as not detected, the result can only be used with confidence if the MDCs reported are lower than the DCGL.

If the DCGL is less than or equal to the MDC, and the radionuclide is not detected, report the actual result of the analysis. Do not report data as "less than the detection limit." Even negative results and results with large uncertainties can be used in the statistical tests described in Chapter 8. Results reported as "<MDC" cannot be fully used and, for example, complicate even such simple analyses as calculating an average. When the MDC reported for a radionuclide is near the DCGL, the confidence in both identification and quantitation may be low. Information

concerning non-detects or detections at or near MDCs should be qualified according to the degree of acceptable uncertainty.

N.5 Data Review

Data review begins with an assessment of the quality of analytical results and is performed by a professional with knowledge of the analytical procedures. Only data that are reviewed according to a specified level or plan should be used in the quantitative site investigation. Any analytical errors, or limitations in the data that are identified by the review, should be noted. An explanation of data qualifiers should be included with the review report.

All data should receive some level of review. Data that have not been reviewed should be identified, because the lack of review increases the uncertainty in the data. Unreviewed data may lead to Type I and Type II decision errors, and may also contain transcription errors and calculation errors. Data may be used in the preliminary assessment before review, but should be reviewed at a predetermined level before use in the final survey report.

Depending on the survey objectives, the level and depth of the data review varies. The level and depth of the data review may be determined during the planning process and should include an examination of laboratory and method performance for the measurements and radionuclides involved. This examination includes

- evaluation of data completeness
- verification of instrument calibration
- measurement of precision using duplicates, replicates, or split samples
- measurement of bias using reference materials or spikes
- examination of blanks for contamination
- assessment of adherence to method specifications and QC limits
- evaluation of method performance in the sample matrix
- applicability and validation of analytical procedures for site-specific measurements
- assessment of external QC measurement results and QA assessments

A different level or depth of data review may be indicated by the results of this evaluation. Specific data review procedures are dependent upon the survey objectives and should be documented in the QAPP.

N.6 Data Quality Indicators

The assessment of data quality indicators presented in this section is significant to determine data usability. The principal data quality indicators are precision, bias, representativeness, comparability, and completeness (EPA 1997a). Other data quality indicators affecting the RSSI process include the selection and classification of survey units, Type I and Type II decision error rates, the variability in the radionuclide concentration measured within the survey unit, and the lower bound of the gray region (see Section 2.3.1).

Of the six principal data quality indicators, precision and bias are quantitative measures, representativeness and comparability are qualitative, completeness is a combination of both qualitative and quantitative measures, and accuracy is a combination of precision and bias. The selection and classification of survey units is qualitative, while decision error rates, variability, and the lower bound of the gray region are quantitative measures.

The major activity in determining the usability of data based on survey activities is assessing the effectiveness of measurements. Scanning and direct measurements taken during survey activities and samples collected for analysis should meet site-specific objectives based on scoping and planning decisions.

Determining the usability of analytical results begins with the review of QC measurements and qualifiers to assess the measurement result and the performance of the analytical method. If an error in the data is discovered, it is more important to evaluate the effect of the error on the data than to determine the source of the error. The documentation described in Section N.2 is reviewed as a whole for some criteria. Data are reviewed at the measurement level for other criteria.

Factors affecting the accuracy of identification and the precision and bias of quantitation of individual radionuclides, such as calibration and recoveries, should be examined radionuclide by radionuclide. Table N.1 presents a summary of the QC measurements and the data use implications.

N.6.1 Precision

Precision is a measure of agreement among replicate measurements of the same property under prescribed similar conditions. This agreement is calculated as either the range or the standard deviation. It may also be expressed as a percentage of the mean of the measurements such as relative range (for duplicates) or coefficient of variation.

Table N.1 Use of Quality Control Data

Quality Control Criterion	Effect on Identification When Criterion is Not Met	Quantitative Bias	Use
Spikes (Higher than expected result)	Potential for incorrectly deciding a survey unit does not meet the release criterion (Type II decision error)	High	Use data as upper limit
Spikes (Lower than expected result)	Potential for incorrectly deciding a survey unit does meet the release criterion[a] (Type I decision error)	Low	Use data as lower limit
Replicates (Inconsistent)	None, unless analyte found in one duplicate and not the other—then either Type I or Type II decision error	High or Low[b]	Use data as estimate—poor precision
Blanks (Contaminated)	Potential for incorrectly deciding a survey unit does not meet the release criterion (Type II decision error)	High	Check for gross contamination or instrument malfunction
Calibration (Bias)	Potential for Type I or Type II decision errors	High or Low[b]	Use data as estimate unless problem is extreme

[a] Only likely if recovery is near zero.
[b] Effect on bias determined by examination of data for each radionuclide.

For scanning and direct measurements, precision may be specified for a single person performing the measurement or as a comparison between people performing the same measurement. For laboratory analyses, precision may be specified as either intralaboratory (within a laboratory) or interlaboratory (between laboratories). Precision estimates based on a single surveyor or laboratory represent the agreement expected when the same person or laboratory uses the same method to perform multiple measurements of the same location. Precision estimates based on two or more surveyors or laboratories refer to the agreement expected when different people or laboratories perform the same measurement using the same method.

The two basic activities performed in the assessment of precision are estimating the radionuclide concentration variability from the measurement locations and estimating the measurement error attributable to the data collection process. The level for each of these performance measures

should be specified during development of DQOs. If the statistical performance objectives are not met, additional measurements should be taken or one (or more) of the performance parameters changed.

Measurement error is estimated using the results of replicate measurements, as discussed in Chapter 6 for field measurements and Chapter 7 for laboratory measurements. When collocated measurements are performed (in the field or in the laboratory) an estimate of total precision is obtained. When collocated samples are not available for laboratory analysis, a sample subdivided in the field and preserved separately can be used to assess the variability of sample handling, preservation, and storage along with the variability in the analytical process, but variability in sample acquisition is not included. When only variability in the analytical process is desired, a sample can be subdivided in the laboratory prior to analysis.

Summary statistics such as sample mean and sample variance can provide as assessment of the precision of a measurement system or component thereof for a project. These statistics may be used to estimate precision at discrete concentration levels, average estimated precision over applicable concentration ranges, or provide the basis for a continual assessment of precision for future measurements. Methods for calculating and reporting precision are provided in *EPA Guidance for Quality Assurance Project Plans* (EPA 1997a).

Table N.2 presents the minimum considerations, impacts if the considerations are not met, and corrective actions for precision.

N.6.2 Bias

Bias is the systematic or persistent distortion of a measurement process that causes errors in one direction. Bias assessments for radioanalytical measurements should be made using personnel, equipment, and spiking materials or reference materials as independent as possible from those used in the calibration of the measurement system. When possible, bias assessments should be based on certified reference materials rather than matrix spikes or water spikes so that the effect of the matrix and the chemical composition of the contamination is incorporated into the assessment. While matrix spikes include matrix effects, the addition of a small amount of liquid spike does not always reflect the chemical composition of the contamination in the sample matrix. Water spikes do not account for either matrix effects or chemical composition of the contamination. When spikes are used to assess bias, a documented spiking protocol and consistency in following that protocol are important to obtaining meaningful data quality estimates.

Table N.2 Minimum Considerations for Precision, Impact if Not Met, and Corrective Actions

Minimum Considerations for Precision	Impact When Minimum Considerations Are Not Met	Corrective Action
Confidence level as specified in DQOs. Power as specified in DQOs. Minimum detectable relative differences specified in the survey design and modified after analysis of background measurements if necessary One set of field duplicates or more as specified in the survey design. Analytical duplicates and splits as specified in the survey design. Measurement error specified.	Errors in decisions to act or not to act based on analytical data. Unacceptable level of uncertainty. Increased variability of quantitative results. Potential for incorrectly deciding a survey unit does meet the release criterion for measurements near the detection limits (Type I decision error).	For Surveying and Sampling: Add survey or sample locations based on information from available data that are known to be representative. Adjust performance objectives. For Analysis: Analysis of new duplicate samples. Review laboratory protocols to ensure comparability. Use precision measurements to determine confidence limits for the effects on the data. The investigator can use the maximum measurement results to set an upper bound on the uncertainty if there is too much variability in the analyses.

Activity levels for bias assessment measurements should cover the range of expected contaminant concentrations, although the minimum activity is usually at least five times the MDC. For many final status surveys, the expected contaminant concentration is zero or background, so the highest activity will be associated with the bias assessment measurements. The minimum and maximum concentrations allowable in bias assessment samples should be agreed on during survey planning activities to prevent accidental contamination of the environment or an environmental level radioanalytical laboratory.

For scanning and direct measurements there are a limited number of options available for performing bias assessment measurements. Perhaps the best estimate of bias for scanning and direct measurements is to collect samples from locations where scans or direct measurements were performed, analyze the samples in a laboratory, and compare the results. Problems associated with this method include the time required to obtain the results and the difficulty in

obtaining samples that are representative of the field measurement to provide comparable results. A simple method of demonstrating that analytical bias is not a significant problem for scanning or direct measurements is to use the instrument performance checks to demonstrate the lack of analytical bias. A control chart can be used to determine the variability of a specific instrument and track the instrument performance throughout the course of the survey. Field background measurements can also be plotted on a control chart to estimate bias caused by contamination of the instrument.

There are several types of bias assessment samples available for laboratory analyses as discussed in Chapter 7. Field blanks can be evaluated to estimate the potential bias caused by contamination from sample collection, preparation, shipping, and storage.

Table N.3 presents the minimum considerations, impacts if the considerations are not met, and corrective actions for bias.

Table N.3 Minimum Considerations for Bias, Impact if Not Met, and Corrective Actions

Minimum Considerations for Bias	Impact When Minimum Considerations Are Not Met	Corrective Action
Matrix spikes to assess bias of non-detects and positive sample results if specified in the survey design. Analytical spikes as specified in the survey design. Use analytical methods (routine methods whenever possible) that specify expected or required recovery ranges using spikes or other QC measures. No radionuclides of potential concern detected in the blanks.	Potential for incorrectly deciding a survey unit does meet the release criterion (Type I decision error): if spike recovery is low, it is probable that the method or analysis is biased low for that radionuclide and values of all related samples may underestimate the actual concentration. Potential for incorrectly deciding a survey unit does not meet the release criterion (Type II decision error): if spike recovery exceeds 100%, interferences may be present, and it is probable that the method or analysis is biased high. Analytical results overestimate the true concentration of the spiked radionuclide.	Consider resampling at affected locations. If recoveries are extremely low or extremely high, the investigator should consult with a radiochemist or health physicist to identify a more appropriate method for reanalysis of the samples.

N.6.3 Accuracy

Accuracy is a measure of the closeness of an individual measurement or the average of a number of measurements to the true value (EPA 1997a). Accuracy includes a combination of random error (precision) and systematic error (bias) components that result from performing measurements. Systematic and random uncertainties (or errors) are discussed in more detail in Section 6.8.1.

Accuracy is determined by analyzing a reference material of known contaminant concentration or by reanalyzing material to which a known concentration of contaminant has been added. To be accurate, data must be both precise and unbiased. Using the analogy of archery, to be accurate one's arrows must land close together and, on average, at the spot where they are aimed. That is, the arrows must all land near the bull's eye (see Figure N.1).

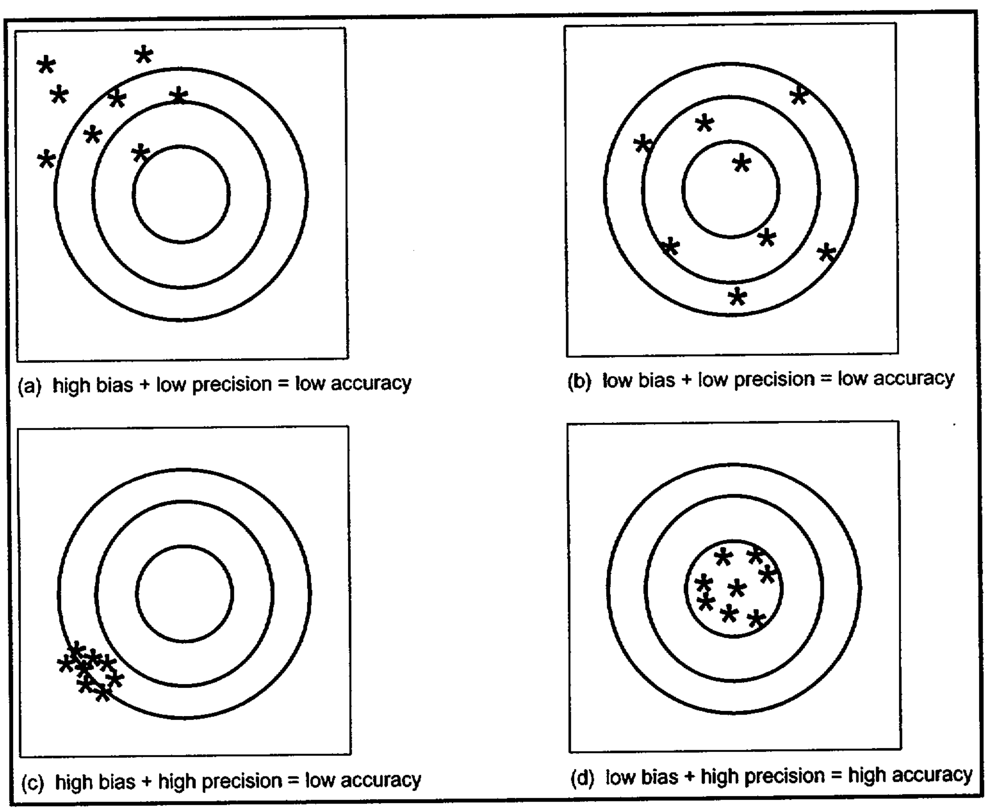


Figure N.1 Measurement Bias and Random Measurement Uncertainty

Accuracy is usually expressed either as a percent recovery or as a percent bias. Determination of accuracy always includes the effects of variability (precision); therefore, accuracy is used as a combination of bias and precision. The combination is known statistically as mean square error. Mean square error is the quantitative term for overall quality of individual measurements or estimators.

Mean square error is the sum of the variance plus the square of the bias. (The bias is squared to eliminate concern over whether the bias is positive or negative.) Frequently it is impossible to quantify all of the components of the mean square error—especially the biases—but it is important to attempt to quantify the magnitude of such potential biases, often by comparison with auxiliary data.

N.6.4 Representativeness

Representativeness is a measure of the degree to which data accurately and precisely represent a characteristic of a population parameter at a sampling point or for a process condition or environmental condition. Representativeness is a qualitative term that should be evaluated to determine whether *in situ* and other measurements are made and physical samples collected in such a manner that the resulting data appropriately reflect the media and contamination measured or studied.

Representativeness of data is critical to data usability assessments. The results of the environmental radiological survey will be biased to the degree that the data do not reflect the radionuclides and concentrations present at the site. Non-representative radionuclide identification may result in false negatives. Non-representative estimates of concentrations may be higher or lower than the true concentration. With few exceptions, non-representative measurements are only resolved by additional measurements.

Representativeness is primarily a planning concern. The solution to enhancing representativeness is in the design of the survey plan. Representativeness is determined by examining the survey plan. Analytical data quality affects representativeness since data of low quality may be rejected for use.

Table N.4 presents the minimum considerations, impacts if the considerations are not met, and corrective actions for representativeness.

N.6.5 Comparability

Comparability is the qualitative term that expresses the confidence that two data sets can contribute to a common analysis and interpolation. Comparability should be carefully evaluated to establish whether two data sets can be considered equivalent in regard to the measurement of a specific variable or groups of variables.

Table N.4 Minimum Considerations for Representativeness, Impact if Not Met, and Corrective Actions

Minimum Considerations for Representativeness	Impact When Minimum Considerations Are Not Met	Corrective Action
Survey data representative of survey unit. Documented sample preparation procedures. Filtering, compositing, and sample preservation may affect representativeness. Documented analytical data as specified in the survey design.	Bias high or low in estimate of extent and quantity of contaminated material. Potential for incorrectly deciding a survey unit does meet the release criterion (Type I decision error). Inaccurate identification or estimate of concentration of a radionuclide. Remaining data may no longer sufficiently represent the site if a large portion of the data are rejected, or if all data from measurements at a specific location are rejected.	Additional surveying or sampling. Examination of effects of sample preparation procedures. Reanalysis of samples, or resurveying or resampling of the affected site areas. If the resurveying, resampling, or reanalyses cannot be performed, document in the site environmental radiological survey report what areas of the site are not represented due to poor quality of analytical data.

Comparability is not compromised provided that the survey design is unbiased, and the survey design or analytical methods are not changed over time. Comparability is a very important qualitative data indicator for analytical assessment and is a critical parameter when considering the combination of data sets from different analyses for the same radionuclides. The assessment of data quality indicators determines if analytical results being reported are equivalent to data obtained from similar analyses. Only comparable data sets can be readily combined.

The use of routine methods (as defined in Section 7.6) simplifies the determination of comparability because all laboratories use the same standardized procedures and reporting parameters. In other cases, the decision maker may have to consult with a health physicist and/or radiochemist to evaluate whether different methods are sufficiently comparable to combine data sets.

There are a number of issues that can make two data sets comparable, and the presence of each of the following items enhances their comparability (EPA 1997a).

- two data sets should contain the same set of variables of interest.
- units in which these variables were measured should be convertible to a common metric.
- similar analytic procedures and quality assurance should be used to collect data for both data sets
- time of measurements of certain characteristics (variables) should be similar for both data sets
- measuring devices used for both data sets should have approximately similar detection levels
- rules for excluding certain types of observations from both samples should be similar
- samples within data sets should be selected in a similar manner
- sampling frames from which the samples were selected should be similar
- number of observations in both data sets should be of the same order of magnitude

These characteristics vary in importance depending on the final use of the data. The closer two data sets are with regard to these characteristics, the more appropriate it will be to compare them. Large differences between characteristics may be of only minor importance depending on the decision that is to be made from the data.

Table N.5 presents the minimum considerations, impacts if they are not met, and corrective actions for comparability.

N.6.6 Completeness

Completeness is a measure of the amount of valid data obtained from the measurement system, expressed as a percentage of the number of valid measurements that should have been collected (*i.e.*, measurements that were planned to be collected).

Completeness for measurements is calculated by the following formula:

$$\%Completeness = \frac{(Number\ of\ Valid\ Measurements)\ x\ 100}{Total\ Number\ of\ Measurements\ Planned}$$

Completeness is not intended to be a measure of representativeness; that is, it does not describe how closely the measured results reflect the actual concentration or distribution of the contaminant in the media being measured. A project could produce 100% data completeness (*i.e.*, all planned measurements were actually performed and found valid), but the results may not be representative of the actual contaminant concentration.

Table N.5 Minimum Considerations for Comparability, Impact if Not Met, and Corrective Actions

Minimum Considerations for Comparability	Impact When Minimum Considerations Are Not Met	Corrective Action
Unbiased survey design or documented reasons for selecting another survey design. The analytical methods used should have common analytical parameters. Same units of measure used in reporting. Similar detection limits. Equivalent sample preparation techniques. Analytical equipment with similar efficiencies or the efficiencies should be factored into the results.	Non-additivity of survey results. Reduced confidence, power, and ability to detect differences, given the number of measurements available. Increased overall error.	For Surveying and Sampling: Statistical analysis of effects of bias. For Analytical Data: Preferentially use those data that provide the most definitive identification and quantitation of the radionuclides of potential concern. For quantitation, examine the precision and accuracy data along with the reported detection limits. Reanalysis using comparable methods.

Alternatively, there could be only 70% data completeness (30% lost or found invalid), but, due to the nature of the survey design, the results could still be representative of the target population and yield valid estimates. The degree to which lack of completeness affects the outcome of the survey is a function of many variables ranging from deficiencies in the number of measurements to failure to analyze as many replications as deemed necessary by the QAPP and DQOs. The intensity of effect due to incompleteness of data is sometimes best expressed as a qualitative measure and not just as a quantitative percentage.

Completeness can have an effect on the DQO parameters. Lack of completeness may require reconsideration of the limits for decision error rates because insufficient completeness will decrease the power of the statistical tests described in Chapter 8.

For most final status surveys, the issue of completeness only arises when the survey unit demonstrates compliance with the release criterion and less than 100% of the measurements are determined to be acceptable. The question now becomes whether the number of measurements is sufficient to support the decision to release the survey unit. This question can be answered by constructing a power curve as described in Appendix I and evaluating the results. An alternative

method is to consider that the number of measurements estimated to demonstrate compliance in Chapter 5 was increased by 20% to account for lost or rejected data and uncertainty in the calculation of the number of measurements. This means a survey with 80% completeness may still have sufficient power to support a decision to release the survey unit.

Table N.6 presents the minimum considerations, impacts if the considerations are not met, and corrective actions for completeness.

Table N.6 Minimum Considerations for Completeness, Impact if Not Met, and Corrective Actions

Minimum Considerations for Completeness	Impact When Minimum Considerations Are Not Met	Corrective Action
Percentage of measurement completeness determined during planning to meet specified performance measures.	Higher potential for incorrectly deciding a survey unit does not meet the release criterion (Type II decision error). Reduction in power. A reduction in the number of measurements reduces site coverage and may affect representativeness. Reduced ability to differentiate site levels from background. Impact of incompleteness generally decreases as the number of measurements increases.	Resurveying, resampling, or reanalysis to fill data gaps. Additional analysis of samples already in laboratory. Determine whether the missing data are crucial to the survey.

N.6.7 Selection and Classification of Survey Units

Selection and classification of survey units is a qualitative measure of the assumptions used to develop the survey plan. The level of survey effort, measurement locations (*i.e.*, random vs. systematic and density of measurements), and the integrated survey design are based on the survey unit classification. The results of the survey should be reviewed to determine whether the classification used to plan the survey is supported by the results of the survey.

If a Class 3 survey unit is found to contain areas of contamination (even if the survey unit passes the statistical tests), the survey unit may be divided into several survey units with appropriate classifications, and additional surveys planned as necessary for these new survey units.

Class 3 areas may only require additional randomly located measurements to provide sufficient power to release the new survey units. Class 2 and Class 1 areas will usually require a new survey design based on systematic measurement locations, and Class 1 areas may require remediation before a new final status survey is performed.

If a Class 2 survey unit is determined to be a Class 1 survey unit following the final status survey and remediation is not required, it may not be necessary to plan a new survey. The scan MDC should be compared to the $DCGL_{EMC}$ to determine if the measurement spacing is adequate to meet the survey objectives. If the scan MDC is too high, a new scan survey using a more sensitive measurement technique may be available. Alternatively, a new survey may be planned using a new measurement spacing or a stratified survey design may be implemented to use as much of the existing data as possible.

N.6.8 Decision Error Rates

The decision error rates developed during survey planning are related to completeness. A low level of completeness will affect the power of the statistical test. It is recommended that a power curve be constructed as described in Appendix I, and the expected decision error rates compared to the actual decision error rates to determine if the survey objectives have been accomplished.

N.6.9 Variability in Contaminant Concentration

The variability in the contaminant concentration (both in the survey unit and the reference area) is a key parameter in survey planning, and is related to the precision of the measurements. Statistical simulations show that underestimating the value of σ (the standard deviation of the survey unit measurements) can greatly increase the probability that a survey unit will fail to demonstrate compliance with the release criterion.

If a survey unit fails to demonstrate compliance and the actual σ is greater than the σ used during survey planning, there are several options available to the project manager. If the major component of variability is measurement uncertainty, a new survey can be designed using a measurement technique with higher precision or a lower MDC to reduce variability. If samples were collected as part of the survey design, it may only be necessary to reanalyze the samples using a method with higher precision rather than collect additional samples. Alternatively, the number of measurements can be increased to reduce the variability.

If the variability is due to actual variations in the contaminant concentration, there are still options available. If there is a high variability in the reference area, it may be appropriate to demonstrate the survey unit is indistinguishable from background. NUREG 1505 (NRC 1997b) provides guidance on determining whether this test is appropriate and performing the statistical tests. If the variability is caused by different contaminant distributions in different parts of the site (*i.e.*, changing soil types influences contaminant concentrations), it may be appropriate to redefine the survey unit boundaries to provide a more homogeneous set of survey units.

N.6.10 Lower Bound of the Gray Region

The lower bound of the gray region (LBGR) is used to calculate the relative shift, which in turn is used to estimate the number of measurements required to demonstrate compliance. The LBGR is initially set arbitrarily to one half the $DCGL_W$. If this initial selection is used to design the survey, there is no technical basis for the selection of this value. This becomes important because the Type II decision error rate (β) is calculated at the LBGR.

For survey units that pass the statistical tests, the value selected for the LBGR is generally not a concern. If the survey unit fails to demonstrate compliance, it may be caused by improper selection of the LBGR. Because the number of measurements estimated during survey planning is based on the relative shift (which includes both σ and the LBGR), MARSSIM recommends that a power curve be constructed as described in Appendix I. If the survey unit failed to demonstrate compliance because of a lack of statistical power, an adjustment of the LBGR may be necessary when planning subsequent surveys.

GLOSSARY

91b material: Any material identified under Section 91b of the Atomic Energy Act of 1954 (42 U.S.C. Section 2121).

A_{min}: The smallest *area of elevated activity* identified using the DQO Process that is important to identify.

action level: The numerical value that will cause the *decision maker* to choose one of the alternative actions. It may be a regulatory threshold standard (*e.g.*, Maximum Contaminant Level for drinking water), a dose- or risk-based concentration level (*e.g.*, *DCGL*), or a reference-based standard. See *investigation level.*

activity: See *radioactivity.*

ALARA (acronym for As Low As Reasonably Achievable): A basic concept of radiation protection which specifies that exposure to ionizing radiation and releases of radioactive materials should be managed to reduce collective doses as far below regulatory limits as is reasonably achievable considering economic, technological, and societal factors, among others. Reducing exposure at a site to *ALARA* strikes a balance between what is possible through additional planning and management, remediation, and the use of additional resources to achieve a lower collective dose level. A determination of *ALARA* is a site-specific analysis that is open to interpretation, because it depends on approaches or circumstances that may differ between regulatory agencies. An *ALARA* recommendation should not be interpreted as a set limit or level.

alpha (α): The specified maximum probability of a *Type I error*. In other words, the maximum probability of rejecting the *null hypothesis* when it is true. *Alpha* is also referred to as the *size of the test*. *Alpha* reflects the amount of evidence the *decision maker* would like to see before abandoning the *null hypothesis*.

alpha particle: A positively charged particle emitted by some radioactive materials undergoing *radioactive decay*.

alternative hypothesis (H_a): See *hypothesis*.

area: A general term referring to any portion of a *site*, up to and including the entire *site*.

area of elevated activity: An *area* over which *residual radioactivity* exceeds a specified value $DCGL_{EMC}$.

area factor (A_m): A factor used to adjust $DCGL_W$ to estimate $DCGL_{EMC}$ and the *minimum detectable concentration* for scanning surveys in *Class 1* survey units—$DCGL_{EMC} = DCGL_W \cdot A_m$. A_m is the magnitude by which the *residual radioactivity* in a small *area of elevated activity* can exceed the $DCGL_W$ while maintaining compliance with the *release criterion*. Examples of *area factors* are provided in Chapter 5 of this manual.

arithmetic mean: The average value obtained when the sum of individual values is divided by the number of values.

arithmetic standard deviation: A statistic used to quantify the variability of a set of data. It is calculated in the following manner: 1) subtracting the arithmetic mean from each data value individually, 2) squaring the differences, 3) summing the squares of the differences, 4) dividing the sum of the squared differences by the total number of data values less one, and 5) taking the square root of the quotient. The calculation process produces the Root Mean Square Deviation (RMSD).

assessment: The evaluation process used to measure the performance or effectiveness of a system and its elements. As used in MARSSIM, assessment is an all-inclusive term used to denote any of the following: audit, performance evaluation, management systems review, peer review, inspection, or surveillance.

attainment objectives: Objectives that specify the design and scope of the sampling study including the radionuclides to be tested, the cleanup standards to be attained, the measure or parameter to be compared to the cleanup standard, and the *Type I* and *Type II* error rates for the selected statistical tests.

audit (quality): A systematic and independent examination to determine whether quality activities and related results comply with planned arrangements and whether these arrangements are implemented effectively and are suitable to achieve objectives.

background reference area: See *reference area.*

background radiation: Radiation from cosmic sources, *naturally occurring radioactive material*, including radon (except as a decay product of *source* or *special nuclear material*), and global fallout as it exists in the environment from the testing of nuclear explosive devices or from nuclear accidents like Chernobyl which contribute to *background radiation* and are not under the control of the cognizant organization. *Background radiation* does not include radiation from *source*, *byproduct*, or *special nuclear materials* regulated by the cognizant Federal or State agency. Different definitions may exist for this term. The definition provided in regulations or regulatory program being used for a site release should always be used if it differs from the definition provided here.

Becquerel (Bq): The International System (SI) unit of activity equal to one nuclear transformation (disintegration) per second. 1 *Bq* = 2.7×10^{-11} *Curies (Ci)* = 27.03 picocuries (pCi).

beta (β): The probability of a *Type II error, i.e.*, the probability of accepting the null hypothesis when it is false. The complement of *beta* (1-β) is referred to as the *power* of the test.

beta particle: An electron emitted from the nucleus during *radioactive decay*.

bias: The systematic or persistent distortion of a measurement process which causes errors in one direction (*i.e.*, the expected sample measurement is different from the sample's true value).

biased sample or measurement: See *judgement measurement*.

byproduct material: Any radioactive material (except *special nuclear material*) yielded in or made radioactive by exposure to the radiation incident to the process of producing or utilizing *special nuclear material*.

calibration: Comparison of a measurement standard, instrument, or item with a standard or instrument of higher accuracy to detect and quantify inaccuracies and to report or eliminate those inaccuracies by adjustments.

CDE (committed dose equivalent): The *dose equivalent* calculated to be received by a tissue or organ over a 50-year period after the intake into the body. It does not include contributions from radiation sources external to the body. CDE is expressed in units of Sv or rem.

CEDE (committed effective dose equivalent): The sum of the committed *dose equivalent* to various tissues in the body, each multiplied by the appropriate weighting factor (W_t). CEDE is expressed in units of Sv or rem. See *TEDE*.

chain of custody: An unbroken trail of accountability that ensures the physical security of samples, data, and records.

characterization survey: A type of *survey* that includes facility or *site* sampling, monitoring, and analysis activities to determine the extent and nature of contamination. *Characterization surveys* provide the basis for acquiring necessary technical information to develop, analyze, and select appropriate *cleanup* techniques.

Class 1 area: An *area* that is projected to require a *Class 1 final status survey*.

Class 1 survey: A type of *final status survey* that applies to *areas* with the highest potential for contamination, and meet the following criteria: (1) *impacted*; (2) potential for delivering a dose above the *release criterion*; (3) potential for small *areas of elevated activity*; and (4) insufficient evidence to support reclassification as *Class 2* or *Class 3*.

Class 2 area: An *area* that is projected to require a *Class 2 final status survey*.

Class 2 survey: A type of *final status survey* that applies to *areas* that meet the following criteria: (1) *impacted*; (2) low potential for delivering a dose above the *release criterion*; and (3) little or no potential for small *areas of elevated activity*.

Class 3 area: An *area* that is projected to require a *Class 3 final status survey*.

Class 3 survey: A type of *final status survey* that applies to *areas* that meet the following criteria: (1) *impacted*; (2) little or no potential for delivering a dose above the *release criterion*; and (3) little or no potential for small *areas of elevated activity*.

classification: The act or result of separating *areas* or *survey units* into one of three designated classes: *Class 1 area*, *Class 2 area*, or *Class 3 area*.

cleanup: Actions taken to deal with a release or threatened release of hazardous substances that could affect public health or the environment. The term is often used broadly to describe various Superfund response actions or phases of remedial responses, such as remedial investigation/ feasibility study. Cleanup is sometimes used interchangeably with the terms *remedial action*, response action, or *corrective action*.

cleanup standard: A numerical limit set by a regulatory agency as a requirement for releasing a *site* after *cleanup*. See *release criterion*.

cleanup (survey) unit: A geographical *area* of specified size and shape defined for the purpose of survey design and compliance testing.

coefficient of variation: A unitless measure that allows the comparison of dispersion across several sets of data. It is often used in environmental applications because variability (expressed as a standard deviation) is often proportional to the mean. See *relative standard deviation*.

comparability: A measure of the confidence with which one data set can be compared to another.

completeness: A measure of the amount of valid data obtained from a measurement system compared to the amount that was expected to be obtained under correct, normal conditions.

composite sample: A sample formed by collecting several samples and combining them (or selected portions of them) into a new sample which is then thoroughly mixed.

conceptual site model: A description of a site and its environs and presentation of hypotheses regarding the contaminants present, their routes of migration, and their potential impact on sensitive receptors.

confidence interval: A range of values for which there is a specified probability (*e.g.*, 80%, 90%, 95%) that this set contains the true value of an estimated parameter.

confirmatory survey: A type of *survey* that includes limited independent (third-party) measurements, sampling, and analyses to verify the findings of a *final status survey*.

consensus standard: A standard established by a group representing a cross section of a particular industry or trade, or a part thereof.

contamination: The presence of *residual radioactivity* in excess of levels which are acceptable for release of a *site* or facility for *unrestricted use*.

control chart: A graphic representation of a process, showing plotted values of some statistic gathered from that characteristic, and one or two control limits. It has two basic uses: 1) as a judgement to determine if a process was in control, and 2) as an aid in achieving and maintaining statistical control.

core sample: A soil sample taken by core drilling.

corrective action: An action taken to eliminate the causes of an existing nonconformance, deficiency, or other undesirable situation in order to prevent recurrence.

criterion: See *release criterion*.

critical group: The group of individuals reasonably expected to receive the greatest exposure to *residual radioactivity* for any applicable set of circumstances.

critical level (L_c): A fixed value of the *test statistic* corresponding to a given probability level, as determined from the sampling distribution of the *test statistic*. L_c is the level at which there is a statistical probability (with a predetermined confidence) of correctly identifying a background value as "greater than background."

critical value: The value of a statistic (t) corresponding to a given significance level as determined from its sampling distribution; e.g., if Pr ($t > t_o$) = 0.05, t_o is the critical value of t at the 5 percent level.

curie (Ci): The customary unit of radioactivity. One *curie* (Ci) is equal to 37 billion disintegrations per second (3.7×10^{10} dps = 3.7×10^{10} *Bq*), which is approximately equal to the decay rate of one gram of ^{226}Ra. Fractions of a *curie, e.g.* picocurie (pCi) or 10^{-12} Ci and microcurie (µCi) or 10^{-6} Ci, are levels typically encountered in *decommissioning*.

cyclotron: A device used to impart high energy to charged particles, of atomic weight one or greater, which can be used to initiate nuclear transformations upon collision with a suitable target.

D: The true, but unknown, value of the difference between the mean concentration of *residual radioactivity* in the *survey unit* and the *reference area.*

DQA (Data Quality Assessment): The scientific and statistical evaluation of data to determine if the data are of the right type, quality, and quantity to support their intended use.

DQOs (Data Quality Objectives): Qualitative and quantitative statements derived from the DQO process that clarify study technical and quality objectives, define the appropriate type of data, and specify tolerable levels of potential decision errors that will be used as the basis for establishing the quality and quantity of data needed to support decisions.

Data Quality Objectives Process: A systematic strategic planning tool based on the scientific method that identifies and defines the type, quality, and quantity of data needed to satisfy a specified use. The key elements of the process include:

- concisely defining the problem
- identifying the decision to be made
- identifying the inputs to that decision
- defining the boundaries of the study
- developing the decision rule
- specifying tolerate limits on potential decision errors
- selecting the most resource efficient data collection design

DQOs are the qualitative and quantitative outputs from the DQO process. The DQO process was developed originally by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, but has been adapted for use by other organizations to meet their specific planning requirement. See also *graded approach.*

data quality indicators: Measurable attributes of the attainment of the necessary quality for a particular decision. *Data quality indicators* include *precision, bias, completeness, representativeness, reproducibility, comparability*, and statistical confidence.

data usability: The process of ensuring or determining whether the quality of the data produced meets the intended use of the data.

DCGL (derived concentration guideline level): A derived, radionuclide-specific activity concentration within a *survey unit* corresponding to the *release criterion*. The *DCGL* is based on the spatial distribution of the contaminant and hence is derived differently for the *nonparametric* statistical test ($DCGL_W$) and the *Elevated Measurement Comparison* ($DCGL_{EMC}$). *DCGLs* are derived from activity/dose relationships through various *exposure pathway* scenarios.

decay: See *radioactive decay*.

decision maker: The person, team, board, or committee responsible for the final decision regarding disposition of the *survey unit*.

decision rule: A statement that describes a logical basis for choosing among alternative actions.

decommission: To remove a facility or *site* safely from service and reduce *residual radioactivity* to a level that permits release of the property and termination of the *license* and other authorization for site operation.

decommissioning: The process of removing a facility or *site* from operation, followed by *decontamination*, and license termination (or termination of authorization for operation) if appropriate. The objective of *decommissioning* is to reduce the *residual radioactivity* in structures, materials, soils, groundwater, and other media at the *site* so that the concentration of each radionuclide contaminant that contributes to *residual radioactivity* is indistinguishable from the *background radiation* concentration for that radionuclide.

decontamination: The removal of radiological contaminants from, or their neutralization on, a person, object or area to within levels established by governing regulatory agencies. *Decontamination* is sometimes used interchangeably with *remediation*, remedial action, and *cleanup*.

delta (δ): The amount that the distribution of measurements for a *survey unit* is shifted to the right of the distribution of measurements of the *reference area*.

delta (Δ): The width of the *gray region*. Δ divided by σ, the *arithmetic standard deviation* of the measurements, is the *relative shift* expressed in multiples of standard deviations. See *relative shift, gray region.*

derived concentration guideline level: See *DCGL.*

design specification process: The process of determining the sampling and analysis procedures that are needed to demonstrate that the attainment objectives are achieved.

detection limit: The net response level that can be expected to be seen with a detector with a fixed level of certainty.

detection sensitivity: The minimum level of ability to identify the presence of radiation or *radioactivity.*

direct measurement: Radioactivity measurement obtained by placing the detector near the surface or media being surveyed. An indication of the resulting radioactivity level is read out directly.

distribution coefficient (K_d): The ratio of elemental (*i.e.*, radionuclide) concentration in soil to that in water in a soil-water system at equilibrium. K_d is generally measured in terms of gram weights of soil and volumes of water (g/cm^3 or g/ml).

dose commitment: The dose that an organ or tissue would receive during a specified period of time (*e.g.*, 50 or 70 years) as a result of intake (as by ingestion or inhalation) of one or more radionuclides from a given release.

dose equivalent (dose): A quantity that expresses all radiations on a common scale for calculating the effective absorbed dose. This quantity is the product of absorbed dose (rads) multiplied by a quality factor and any other modifying factors. Dose is measured in *Sv* or *rem.*

double-blind measurement: Measurements that cannot be distinguished from routine measurements by the individual performing the measurement. See *non-blind measurement* and *single-blind measurement.*

effective probe area: The *physical probe area* corrected for the amount of the probe area covered by a protective screen.

elevated area: See *area of elevated activity.*

elevated measurement: A measurement that exceeds a specified value $DCGL_{EMC}$.

Elevated Measurement Comparison (EMC): This comparison is used in conjunction with the Wilcoxon test to determine if there are any measurements that exceed a specified value $DCGL_{EMC}$.

exposure pathway: The route by which radioactivity travels through the environment to eventually cause radiation exposure to a person or group.

exposure rate: The amount of ionization produced per unit time in air by X-rays or gamma rays. The unit of exposure rate is Roentgens/hour (R/h); for decommissioning activities the typical units are microRoentgens per hour (μR/h), *i.e.*, 10^{-6} R/h.

external radiation: Radiation from a source outside the body.

false negative decision error: The error that occurs when the null hypothesis (H_0) is not rejected when it is false. For example, the false negative decision error occurs when the decision maker concludes that the waste is hazardous when it truly is not hazardous. A statistician usually refers to a false negative error as a *Type II decision error*. The measure of the size of this error is called *beta*, and is also known as the complement of the power of a hypothesis test.

false positive decision error: A false positive decision error occurs when the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected when it is true. Consider an example where the decision maker presumes that a certain waste is hazardous (*i.e.*, the null hypothesis or baseline condition is "the waste is hazardous"). If the decision maker concludes that there is insufficient evidence to classify the waste as hazardous when it truly is hazardous, the decision maker would make a false positive decision error. A statistician usually refers to the false positive error as a *Type I decision error*. The measure of the size of this error is called *alpha*, the level of significance, or the size of the critical region.

Field Sampling Plan: As defined for Superfund in the Code of Federal Regulations 40 CFR 300.430, a document which describes the number, type, and location of samples and the type of analyses to be performed. It is part of the *Sampling and Analysis Plan*.

final status survey: Measurements and sampling to describe the radiological conditions of a site, following completion of decontamination activities (if any) in preparation for release.

fluence rate: A fundamental parameter for assessing the level of radiation at a measurement site. In the case of *in situ* spectrometric measurements, a calibrated detector provides a measure of the *fluence rate* of primary photons at specific energies that are characteristic of a particular radionuclide.

gamma (γ) radiation: Penetrating high-energy, short-wavelength electromagnetic radiation (similar to X-rays) emitted during *radioactive decay.* Gamma rays are very penetrating and require dense materials (such as lead or steel) for shielding.

graded approach: The process of basing the level of application of managerial controls applied to an item or work according to the intended use of the results and the degree of confidence needed in the quality of the results. See *data quality objectives process.*

gray region: A range of values of the parameter of interest for a *survey unit* where the consequences of making a decision error are relatively minor. The upper bound of the gray region in MARSSIM is set equal to the $DCGL_W$, and the *lower bound of the gray region (LBGR)* is a site-specific variable.

grid: A network of parallel horizontal and vertical lines forming squares on a map that may be overlaid on a property parcel for the purpose of identification of exact locations. See *reference coordinate system.*

grid block: A square defined by two adjacent vertical and two adjacent horizontal reference grid lines.

half-life ($t_{1/2}$): The time required for one-half of the atoms of a particular radionuclide present to disintegrate.

Historical Site Assessment (HSA): A detailed investigation to collect existing information, primarily historical, on a *site* and its surroundings.

hot measurement: See *elevated measurement.*

hot spot: See *area of elevated activity.*

hypothesis: An assumption about a property or characteristic of a set of data under study. The goal of statistical inference is to decide which of two complementary hypotheses is likely to be true. The *null hypothesis* (H_0) describes what is assumed to be the true state of nature and the *alternative hypothesis* (H_a) describes the opposite situation.

impacted area: Any *area* that is not *classified* as *non-impacted.* Areas with a possibility of containing *residual radioactivity* in excess of natural background or fallout levels.

independent assessment: An assessment performed by a qualified individual, group, or organization that is not part of the organization directly performing and accountable for the work being assessed.

indistinguishable from background: The term indistinguishable from background means that the detectable concentration distribution of a radionuclide is not statistically different from the background concentration distribution of that radionuclide in the vicinity of the site or, in the case of structures, in similar materials using adequate measurement technology, survey, and statistical techniques.

infiltration rate: The rate at which a quantity of a hazardous substance moves from one environmental medium to another—*e.g.*, the rate at which a quantity of a radionuclide moves from a source into and through a volume of soil or solution.

inspection: An activity such as measuring, examining, testing, or gauging one or more characteristics of an entity and comparing the results with specified requirements in order to establish whether conformance is achieved for each characteristic.

inventory: Total residual quantity of formerly licensed radioactive material at a site.

investigation level: A derived media-specific, radionuclide-specific concentration or activity level of radioactivity that: 1) is based on the release criterion, and 2) triggers a response, such as further investigation or cleanup, if exceeded. See *action level.*

isopleth: A line drawn through points on a graph or plot at which a given quantity has the same numerical value or occurs with the same frequency.

judgment measurement: Measurements performed at locations selected using professional judgment based on unusual appearance, location relative to known contaminated areas, high potential for residual radioactivity, general supplemental information, *etc.* Judgment measurements are not included in the statistical evaluation of the survey unit data because they violate the assumption of randomly selected, independent measurements. Instead, judgment measurements are individually compared to the $DCGL_W$.

karst terrain: A kind of terrain with characteristics of relief and drainage arising from a high degree of rock solubility. The majority of karst conditions occur in limestone areas, but karst may also occur in areas of dolomite, gypsum, or salt deposits. Features associated with karst terrain may include irregular topography, abrupt ridges, sink holes, caverns, abundant springs, and disappearing streams. Well developed or well integrated drainage systems of streams and tributaries are generally not present.

klystron: An electron tube used in television, *etc.*, for converting a stream of electrons into ultra high-frequency waves that are transmitted as a pencil-like radio beam.

less-than data: Measurements that are less than the *minimum detectable concentration.*

license: A license issued under the regulations in parts 30 through 35, 39, 40, 60, 61, 70 or part 72 of 10 CFR Chapter I.

licensee: The holder of a *license.*

license termination: Discontinuation of a *license*, the eventual conclusion to *decommissioning.*

lower bound of the gray region (LBGR): The minimum value of the gray region. The width of the *gray region* (*DCGL-LBGR*) is also referred to as the shift, Δ.

lower limit of detection (L_D): The smallest amount of radiation or radioactivity that statistically yields a net result above the method background. The critical detection level, L_C, is the lower bound of the 95% detection interval defined for L_D and is the level at which there is a 5% chance of calling a background value "greater than background." This value should be used when actually counting samples or making direct radiation measurements. Any response above this level should be considered as above background; *i.e.*, a net positive result. This will ensure 95% detection capability for L_D. A 95% confidence interval should be calculated for all responses greater than L_C.

m: The number of measurements from the reference area used to conduct a statistical test.

magnetron: A vacuum tube in which the flow of ions from the heated cathode to the anode is controlled by a magnetic field externally applied and perpendicular to the electric field by which they are propelled. Magnetrons are used to produce very short radio waves.

measurement: For the purpose of MARSSIM, it is used interchangeably to mean: 1) the act of using a detector to determine the level or quantity of radioactivity on a surface or in a sample of material removed from a media being evaluated, or 2) the quantity obtained by the act of measuring.

micrometeorology: The study of weather conditions in a local or very small area, such as immediately around a tree or building, that can affect meteorological conditions.

minimum detectable concentration (MDC): The minimum detectable concentration (MDC) is the *a priori* activity level that a specific instrument and technique can be expected to detect 95% of the time. When stating the detection capability of an instrument, this value should be used. The *MDC* is the detection limit, L_D, multiplied by an appropriate conversion factor to give units of activity.

minimum detectable count rate (MDCR): The minimum detectable count rate (MDCR) is the *a priori* count rate that a specific instrument and technique can be expected to detect.

missing or unusable data: Data (measurements) that are mislabeled, lost, or do not meet quality control standards. *Less-than data* are not considered to be missing or unusable data. See *R*.

munitions: Military supplies, especially weapons and ammunition.

N: $N = m + n$, is the total number of measurements required from the reference area and a *survey unit*. See *m* and *n*.

n: Number of measurements from a survey unit used to conduct a statistical test.

n_f: The number of samples that should be collected in an *area* to assure that the required number of measurements from that area for conducting statistical tests is obtained. $n_f = n/(1\text{-}R)$.

NARM: Naturally occurring or accelerator-produced radioactive material, such as radium, and not classified as *source material.*

naturally occurring radionuclides: Radionuclides and their associated progeny produced during the formation of the earth or by interactions of terrestrial matter with cosmic rays.

non-blind measurement: Non-blind measurements are measurements that have a concentration and origin that are known to the individual performing the measurement. See *single-blind measurement* and *double-blind measurement.*

nonconformance: A deficiency in characteristic, documentation, or procedure that renders the quality of an item or activity unacceptable or indeterminate; nonfulfillment of a specified requirements.

non-impacted area: Areas where there is no reasonable possibility (extremely low probability) of residual contamination. Non-impacted areas are typically located off-site and may be used as background *reference areas*.

nonparametric test: A test based on relatively few assumptions about the exact form of the underlying probability distributions of the measurements. As a consequence, nonparametric tests are generally valid for a fairly broad class of distributions. The *Wilcoxon Rank Sum test* and the *Sign test* are examples of nonparametric tests.

normal (gaussian) distribution: A family of bell shaped distributions described by the mean and variance.

organization: a company, corporation, firm, government unit, enterprise, facility, or institution, or part thereof, whether incorporated or not, public or private, that has its own functions and administration.

outlier: Measurements that are unusually large or small relative to the rest and therefore are suspected of misrepresenting the population from which they were collected.

p: The probability that a random measurement from the *survey unit* is less than Δ.

p′: The probability that the sum of two independent random measurements from the *survey unit* is less than 2Δ.

P_r: The probability that a measurement performed at a random location in the *survey unit* is greater than a measurement performed at a random location in the *reference area*.

peer review: A documented critical review of work generally beyond the state of the art or characterized by the existence of potential uncertainty. The peer review is conducted by qualified individuals (or organization) who are independent of those who performed the work, but are collectively equivalent in technical expertise (*i.e.*, peers) to those who performed the original work. The peer review is conducted to ensure that activities are technically adequate, competently performed, properly documented, and satisfy established technical and quality requirements. The peer review is an in-depth assessment of the assumptions, calculations, extrapolations, alternate interpretations, methodology, acceptance criteria, and conclusions pertaining to specific work and of the documentation that supports them. Peer reviews provide an evaluation of a subject where quantitative methods of analysis or measures of success are unavailable or undefined, such as in research and development.

performance evaluation: A type of audit in which the quantitative data generated in a measurement system are obtained independently and compared with routinely obtained data to evaluate the proficiency of an analyst or laboratory.

physical probe area: The physical surface area assessed by a detector. The physical probe area is used to make probe area corrections in the activity calculations.

Pitman efficiency: A measure of performance for statistical tests. It is equal to the reciprocal of the ratio of the sample sizes required by each of two tests to achieve the same power, as these sample sizes become large.

power (1-β): The probability of rejecting the *null hypothesis* when it is false. The power is equal to one minus the *Type II* error rate, *i.e.* (1-β).

precision: A measure of mutual agreement among individual measurements of the same property, usually under prescribed similar conditions, expressed generally in terms of the *standard deviation*.

process: A combination of people, machine and equipment, methods, and the environment in which they operate to produce a given product or service.

professional judgement: An expression of opinion, based on technical knowledge and professional experience, assumptions, algorithms, and definitions, as stated by an expert in response to technical problems.

qualified data: Any data that have been modified or adjusted as part of statistical or mathematical evaluation, data *validation*, or data *verification* operations.

quality: The totality of features and characteristics of a product or service that bear on its ability to meet the stated or implied needs and expectations of the user.

quality assurance (QA): An integrated system of management activities involving planning, implementation, assessment, reporting, and quality improvement to ensure that a process, item, or service is of the type and quality needed and expected by the customer.

Quality Assurance Project Plan (QAPP): A formal document describing in comprehensive detail the necessary *QA*, *QC*, and other technical activities that must be implemented to ensure that the results of the work performed will satisfy the stated performance criteria. As defined for Superfund in the Code of Federal Regulations 40 CFR 300.430, the Quality Assurance Project Plan describes policy, organization, and functional activities and the Data Quality Objectives and measures necessary to achieve adequate data for use in selecting the appropriate remedy. The

QAPP is a plan that provides a process for obtaining data of sufficient quality and quantity to satisfy data needs. It is a part of the *Sampling and Analysis Plan.*

quality control (QC): The overall system of technical activities that measure the attributes and performance of a process, item, or service against defined standards to verify that they meet the stated requirements established by the customer, operational techniques and activities that are used to fulfill requirements for *quality*.

quality indicators: Measurable attributes of the attainment of the necessary quality for a particular environmental decision. Indicators of quality include precision, bias, completeness, representativeness, reproducibility, comparability, and statistical confidence.

Quality Management Plan (QMP): A formal document that describes the quality system in terms of the organizational structure, functional responsibilities of management and staff, lines of authority, and required interfaces for those planning, implementing, and assessing all activities conducted.

quality system: A structured and documented management system describing the policies, objectives, principles, organizational authority, responsibilities, accountability, and implementation plan of an organization for ensuring quality in its work processes, products (items), and services. The quality system provides the framework for planning, implementing, and assessing work performed by the organization and for carrying out required QA and QC.

R: The rate of missing or unusable measurements expected to occur for samples collected in *reference areas* or *survey units*. See *missing or unusable data*. See n_f. (Not to be confused with the symbol for the radiation exposure unit Roentgen.)

R_A: The acceptable level of risk associated with not detecting an *area of elevated activity* of area A_{min}.

radiation survey: Measurements of radiation levels associated with a *site* together with appropriate documentation and data evaluation.

radioactive decay: The spontaneous transformation of an unstable atom into one or more different nuclides accompanied by either the emission of energy and/or particles from the nucleus, nuclear capture or ejection of orbital electrons, or fission. Unstable atoms decay into a more stable state, eventually reaching a form that does not decay further or has a very long *half-life*.

radioactivity: The mean number of nuclear transformations occurring in a given quantity of radioactive material per unit time. The International System (SI) unit of radioactivity is the *Becquerel (Bq)*. The customary unit is the *Curie (Ci)*.

radiological survey: Measurements of radiation levels and radioactivity associated with a *site* together with appropriate documentation and data evaluation.

radioluminescence: Light produced by the absorption of energy from ionizing radiation.

radionuclide: An unstable nuclide that undergoes *radioactive decay*.

random error: The deviation of an observed value from the true value is called the error of observation. If the error of observation behaves like a random variable (*i.e.*, its value occurs as though chosen at random from a probability distribution of such errors) it is called a *random error*. See *systematic error*.

readily removable: A qualitative statement of the extent to which a radionuclide can be removed from a surface or medium using non-destructive, common, housekeeping techniques (*e.g.*, washing with moderate amounts of detergent and water) that do not generate large volumes of radioactive waste requiring subsequent disposal or produce chemical wastes that are expected to adversely affect public health or the environment.

reference area: Geographical *area* from which representative reference measurements are performed for comparison with measurements performed in specific *survey units* at remediation site. A site radiological *reference area* (background area) is defined as an area that has similar physical, chemical, radiological, and biological characteristics as the site area being remediated, but which has not been contaminated by site activities. The distribution and concentration of *background radiation* in the *reference area* should be the same as that which would be expected on the *site* if that *site* had never been contaminated. More than one *reference area* may be necessary for valid comparisons if a *site* exhibits considerable physical, chemical, radiological, or biological variability.

reference coordinate system: A *grid* of intersecting lines referenced to a fixed site location or benchmark. Typically the lines are arranged in a perpendicular pattern dividing the survey location into squares or blocks of equal areas. Other patterns include three-dimensional and polar coordinate systems.

reference region: The geographical region from which *reference areas* will be selected for comparison with *survey units*.

regulation: A rule, law, order, or direction from federal or state governments regulating action or conduct. Regulations concerning radioisotopes in the environment in the United States are shared by the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), the U.S. Nuclear Regulatory Commission (NRC), the U.S. Department of Energy (DOE), and many State governments. Federal regulations and certain directives issued by the U.S. Department of Defense(DOD) are enforced within the DOD.

relative shift (Δ/σ): Δ divided by σ, the *standard deviation* of the measurements. See *delta.*

relative standard deviation: See *coefficient of variation.*

release criterion: A regulatory limit expressed in terms of dose or risk.

rem (radiation equivalent man): The conventional unit of *dose equivalent.* The corresponding International System (SI) unit is the *Sievert (Sv)*: 1 Sv = 100 rem.

remedial action: Those actions that are consistent with a permanent remedy taken instead of, or in addition to, removal action in the event of a release or threatened release of a hazardous substance into the environment, to prevent or minimize the release of hazardous substances so that they do not migrate to cause substantial danger to present or future public health or welfare or the environment. See *remedy.*

remediation: Cleanup or other methods used to remove or contain a toxic spill or hazardous materials from a Superfund site.

remediation control survey: A type of survey that includes monitoring the progress of remedial action by real time measurement of areas being decontaminated to determine whether or not efforts are effective and to guide further *decontamination* activities.

remedy: See *remedial action.*

removable activity: Surface activity that is *readily removable* by wiping the surface with moderate pressure and can be assessed with standard radiation detectors. It is usually expressed in units of dpm/100 cm^2.

removal: The cleanup or removal of released hazardous substances, or pollutants or contaminants which may present an imminent and substantial danger; such actions as may be necessary taken in the event of the threat of release of hazardous substances into the environment; such actions as may be necessary to monitor, assess, and evaluate the threat of release of hazardous substances; the removal and disposal of material, or the taking of other such actions as may be necessary to prevent, minimize or mitigate damage to the public health or welfare or the environment.

replicate: A repeated analysis of the same sample or repeated measurement at the same location.

representative measurement: A measurement that is selected using a procedure in such a way that it, in combination with other representative measurements, will give an accurate representation of the phenomenon being studied.

representativeness: A measure of the degree to which data accurately and precisely represent a characteristic of a population, parameter variations at a sampling point, a process condition, or an environmental condition.

reproducibility: The precision, usually expressed as a standard deviation, that measures the variability among the results of measurement of the same sample at different laboratories.

residual radioactivity: Radioactivity in structures, materials, soils, groundwater, and other media at a site resulting from activities under the cognizant organization's control. This includes radioactivity from all sources used by the cognizant organization, but excludes background radioactivity as specified by the applicable regulation or standard. It also includes radioactive materials remaining at the site as a result of routine or accidental releases of radioactive material at the site and previous burials at the site, even if those burials were made in accordance with the provisions of 10 CFR Part 20.

restoration: Actions to return a remediated area to a usable state following decontamination.

restricted use: A designation following *remediation* requiring radiological controls.

robust: A statistical test or method that is approximately valid under a wide range of conditions.

run chart: A chart used to visually represent data. Run charts are used to monitor a process to see whether or not the long range average is changing. Run charts are points plotted on a graph in the order in which they become available, such as parameters plotted versus time.

s: The *arithmetic standard deviation* of the mean.

S+: The *test statistic* used for the *Sign test.*

sample: (As used in MARSSIM) A part or selection from a medium located in a *survey unit* or *reference area* that represents the quality or quantity of a given parameter or nature of the whole area or unit; a portion serving as a specimen.

sample: (As used in statistics) A set of individual samples or measurements drawn from a population whose properties are studied to gain information about the entire population.

Sampling and Analysis Plan (SAP): As defined for Superfund in the Code of Federal Regulations 40 CFR 300.430, a plan that provide a process for obtaining data of sufficient quality and quantity to satisfy data needs. The sampling and analysis plans consists of two parts: 1) the *Field Sampling Plan*, which describes the number, type, and location of samples and the type of analyses; and 2) the *Quality Assurance Project Plan*, which describes policy, organization, functional activities, the Data Quality Objectives, and measures necessary to achieve adequate data for use in selecting the appropriate remedy.

scanning: An evaluation technique performed by moving a detection device over a surface at a specified speed and distance above the surface to detect radiation.

scoping survey: A type of *survey* that is conducted to identify: 1) radionuclide contaminants, 2) relative radionuclide ratios, and 3) general levels and extent of contamination.

self-assessment: Assessments of work conducted by individuals, groups, or organizations directly responsible for overseeing and/or performing the work.

shape parameter (S): For an elliptical area of elevated activity, the ratio of the semi-minor axis length to the semi-major axis length. For a circle, the shape parameter is one. A small shape parameter corresponds to a flat ellipse.

shift: See *delta (Δ)*.

Sievert (Sv): The special name for the International System (SI) unit of *dose equivalent*. 1 Sv = 100 *rem* = 1 Joule per kilogram.

Sign test: A *nonparametric* statistical test used to demonstrate compliance with the release criterion when the radionuclide of interest is not present in background and the distribution of data is not symmetric. See also *Wilcoxon Rank Sum test*.

single-blind measurement: A measurement that can be distinguished from routine measurements but are of unknown concentration. See *non-blind measurement* and *double-blind measurement*.

site: Any installation, facility, or discrete, physically separate parcel of land, or any building or structure or portion thereof, that is being considered for survey and investigation.

site reconnaissance: A visit to the *site* to gather sufficient information to support a site decision regarding the need for further action, or to verify existing site data. Site reconnaissance is not a study of the full extent of contamination at a facility or site, or a risk assessment.

size (of a test): See *alpha*.

soil: The top layer of the earth's surface, consisting of rock and mineral particles mixed with organic matter. A particular kind of earth or ground—*e.g.*, sandy soil.

soil activity (soil concentration): The level of radioactivity present in soil and expressed in units of activity per soil mass (typically Bq/kg or pCi/g).

source material: Uranium and/or Thorium other than that classified as *special nuclear material.*

source term: All residual radioactivity remaining at the *site*, including material released during normal operations, inadvertent releases, or accidents, and that which may have been buried at the site in accordance with 10 CFR Part 20.

special nuclear material: Plutonium, ^{233}U, and Uranium enriched in ^{235}U; material capable of undergoing a fission reaction.

split: A sample that has been homogenized and divided into two or more aliquots for subsequent analysis.

standard normal distribution: A *normal (Gaussian) distribution* with mean zero and variance one.

standard operating procedure (SOP): A written document that details the method for an operation, analysis, or action with thoroughly prescribed techniques and steps, and that is officially approved as the method for performing certain routine or repetitive tasks.

statistical control: The condition describing a process from which all special causes have been removed, evidenced on control chart by the absence of points beyond the control limits and by the absence of non-random patterns or trends within the control limits. A special cause is a source of variation that is intermittent, unpredictable, or unstable.

stratification: The act or result of separating an area into two or more sub-areas so as each sub-area has relatively homogeneous characteristics such as contamination level, topology, surface soil type, vegetation cover, *etc.*

subsurface soil sample: A soil sample that reflects the modeling assumptions used to develop the *DCGL* for subsurface soil activity. An example would be soil taken deeper than 15 cm below the soil surface to support surveys performed to demonstrate compliance with 40 CFR 192.

surface contamination: *Residual radioactivity* found on building or equipment surfaces and expressed in units of activity per surface area (Bq/m^2 or $dpm/100\ cm^2$).

surface soil sample: A soil sample that reflects the modeling assumptions used to develop the *DCGL* for surface soil activity. An example would be soil taken from the first 15 cm of surface soil to support surveys performed to demonstrate compliance with 40 CFR 192.

surveillance (quality): Continual or frequent monitoring and verification of the status of an entity and the analysis of records to ensure that specified requirements are being fulfilled.

survey: A systematic evaluation and documentation of radiological measurements with a correctly calibrated instrument or instruments that meet the sensitivity required by the objective of the evaluation.

survey plan: A plan for determining the radiological characteristics of a *site*.

survey unit: A geographical area consisting of structures or land areas of specified size and shape at a remediated site for which a separate decision will be made whether the unit attains the site-specific reference-based cleanup standard for the designated pollution parameter. *Survey units* are generally formed by grouping contiguous site areas with a similar use history and the same classification of contamination potential. Survey units are established to facilitate the survey process and the statistical analysis of survey data.

systematic error: An error of observation based on system faults which are biased in one or more ways, *e.g.*, tending to be on one side of the true value more than the other.

T+: The *test statistic* for the *Wilcoxon Signed Rank test.*

tandem testing: Two or more statistical tests conducted using the same data set.

technical review: A documented critical review of work that has been performed within the state of the art. The review is accomplished by one or more qualified reviewers who are independent of those who performed the work, but are collectively equivalent in technical expertise to those who performed the original work. The review is an in-depth analysis and evaluation of documents, activities, material, data, or items that require technical verification or validation for applicability, correctness, adequacy, completeness, and assurance that established requirements are satisfied.

technical systems audit (TSA): A thorough, systematic, on-site, qualitative audit of facilities, equipment, personnel, training, procedures, recordkeeping, data validation, data management, and reporting aspects of a system.

TEDE (total effective dose equivalent): The sum of the effective dose equivalent (for external exposure) and the committed effective dose equivalent (for internal exposure). TEDE is expressed in units of Sv or rem. See *CEDE.*

test statistic: A function of the measurements (or their ranks) that has a known distribution if the *null hypothesis* is true. This is compared to the *critical level* to determine if the *null hypothesis* should be accepted or rejected. See $S+$, $T+$, and W_r.

tied measurements: Two or more measurements that have the same value.

traceability: The ability to trace the history, application, or location of an entity by means of recorded identifications. In a calibration sense, traceability relates measuring equipment to national or international standards, primary standards, basic physical constants or properties, or reference materials. In a data collection sense, it relates calculations and data generated throughput the project back to the requirements for quality for the project.

triangular sampling grid: A grid of sampling locations that is arranged in a triangular pattern. See *grid.*

two-sample t test: A parametric statistical test used in place of the *Wilcoxon Rank Sum (WRS) test* if the *reference area* and *survey unit* measurements are known to be *normally (Gaussian) distributed* and there are no *less-than measurements* in either data set.

Type I decision error: A decision error that occurs when the *null hypothesis* is rejected when it is true. The probability of making a *Type I decision error* is called *alpha* (α).

Type II decision error: A decision error that occurs when the *null hypothesis* is accepted when it is false. The probability of making a *Type II decision error* is called *beta* (β).

unity rule (mixture rule): A rule applied when more than one radionuclide is present at a concentration that is distinguishable from background and where a single concentration comparison does not apply. In this case, the mixture of radionuclides is compared against default concentrations by applying the unity rule. This is accomplished by determining: 1) the ratio between the concentration of each radionuclide in the mixture, and 2) the concentration for that radionuclide in an appropriate listing of default values. The sum of the ratios for all radionuclides in the mixture should not exceed 1.

unrestricted area: Any *area* where access is not controlled by a *licensee* for purposes of protection of individuals from exposure to radiation and radioactive materials—including areas used for residential purposes.

unrestricted release: Release of a *site* from regulatory control without requirements for future radiological restrictions. Also known as unrestricted use.

validation: Confirmation by examination and provision of objective evidence that the particular requirements for a specific intended use are fulfilled. In design and development, validation concerns the process of examining a product or result to determine conformance to user needs.

verification: Confirmation by examination and provision of objective evidence that the specified requirements have been fulfilled. In design and development, verification concerns the process of examining a result of given activity to determine conformance to the stated requirements for that activity.

W_r: The sum of the ranks of the adjusted measurements from the reference area, used as the *test statistic* for the *Wilcoxon Rank Sum test.*

W_s: The sum of the ranks of the measurements from the survey unit, used with the *Wilcoxon Rank Sum test.*

weighting factor (W_t): The fraction of the overall health risk, resulting from uniform, whole-body radiation, attributable to specific tissue. The dose equivalent to tissue is multiplied by the appropriate weighting factor to obtain the effective dose equivalent to the tissue.

Wilcoxon Rank Sum (WRS) test: A *nonparametric* statistical test used to determine compliance with the *release criterion* when the radionuclide of concern is present in background. See also *Sign test.*

working level: A special unit of radon exposure defined as any combination of short-lived radon daughters in 1 liter of air that will result in the ultimate emission of $1.3x10^5$ MeV of potential alpha energy. This value is approximately equal to the alpha energy released from the decay of progeny in equilibrium with 100 pCi of ^{222}Ra.

$Z_{1-\Phi}$: The value from the standard normal distribution that cuts off 100 Φ % of the upper tail of the standard normal distribution. See *standard normal distribution.*

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10. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES

11. ABSTRACT *(200 words or less)*

The MARSSIM provides information on planning, conducting, evaluating, and documenting building and surface soil final status radiological surveys for demonstrating compliance with dose or risk-based regulations or standards. The MARSSIM is a multi-agency consensus document that was developed collaboratively by four Federal agencies having authority and control over radioactive materials: Department of Defense (DOD), Department of Energy (DOE), Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), and Nuclear Regulatory Commission (NRC). The MARSSIM's objective is to describe a consistent approach for building and surface soil final status surveys to meet established dose or risk-based release criteria, while at the same time encouraging an effective use of resources.

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