

**EXAMINING THE STATE OF AIR QUALITY
MONITORING TECHNOLOGY**

HEARING

BEFORE THE

**COMMITTEE ON
ENVIRONMENT AND PUBLIC WORKS**

UNITED STATES SENATE

ONE HUNDRED EIGHTEENTH CONGRESS

SECOND SESSION

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COMMITTEE ON ENVIRONMENT AND PUBLIC WORKS

ONE HUNDRED EIGHTEENTH CONGRESS
SECOND SESSION

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EXAMINING THE STATE OF AIR QUALITY MONITORING TECHNOLOGY

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 10, 2024

U.S. SENATE,
COMMITTEE ON ENVIRONMENT AND PUBLIC WORKS,
Washington, DC.

The committee met, pursuant to notice, at 10:03 a.m. in room 406, Dirksen Senate Office Building, Hon. Thomas R. Carper (chairman of the committee) presiding.

Present: Senators Carper, Capito, Markey, Kelly, Padilla, Sullivan.

OPENING STATEMENT OF HON. THOMAS R. CARPER, U.S. SENATOR FROM THE STATE OF DELAWARE

Senator CARPER. Good morning, everyone. I am pleased to call this hearing to order.

Though air pollution can be a complex topic, as we all know, the goal of this hearing is pretty simple. It is to examine the role that low-cost air quality sensors can play in helping us collect more data about the quality of our air so that we can do a better job of protecting public health and engaging communities in those responses. That is really what we are up to.

Today, we will discuss how new air quality sensor technology is making it possible for State and local air quality agencies to work with businesses and with their communities. In particular, we are going to hear about how low-cost sensor technology is supplementing existing data gathering and how the technologies are evolving, as well as how local regulators are incorporating these sensors into their own work.

Low-cost air quality sensors are becoming an important tool in the toolbox of air agencies, but it is important for us to distinguish what their limitations are so that they can be integrated successfully into community-level public health initiatives. As you know, almost anybody can buy one of these sensors, almost anyone. They cost a couple of hundred dollars.

The Environmental Protection Agency refers to these low-cost devices as sensors. They should not be confused with monitors that our States use to regulate air quality under EPA guidance. This distinction between sensors and monitors is important, so let me just repeat it. Today, we are going to be talking about sensors, which are low-cost tools to collect data on specific pollutants. We are not talking about the monitors that States use, our States, my State, and other States here, use for regulation under EPA direction.

Low-cost air quality sensors are not replacing regulatory monitors. Regulatory monitors are far more sophisticated. They cost tens of thousands of dollars and are the backbone of EPA's ability to regulate air quality across this Country of ours.

Many of us already have low-cost air quality sensors in our own homes. Carbon monoxide detectors and smoke detectors "sniff" the air and alert us when a problem is detected. The air quality sensors that we are going to discuss today work pretty much the same way.

As members of this committee have heard me oftentimes say, everything I do, I know I can do better. I think that is true for just about all of us, and it is also true for reducing air pollution. We as a Nation can and must do more to address pollutants in our air. Despite our Nation's significant strides since passing the Clean Air Act of 1970, air pollution still negatively impacts far too many Americans, especially in low-income communities, including communities of color.

The Center for Air, Climate, and Energy Solutions found that people of color are disproportionately exposed to an air pollutant called fine particulate matter, also known to most of us as soot. Exposure to these small but powerful pollutants is linked to lung and heart problems, especially for our kids or people with chronic respiratory diseases. The good news is that low-cost air quality sensors can help detect this kind of pollution, and those sensors are being used appropriately in a growing number of communities.

I believe we have a moral obligation to ensure that all Americans, no matter what their ZIP code might be, are free from the burden of pollution, air pollution in particular. That means equipping communities with tools to improve individuals' access to information about the quality of their air. Sensors help us do that.

Some of you might recall that this committee held a hearing in July 2022 that discussed the risks of living near or downwind of facilities that emit air pollution. Harmful air pollutants disproportionately affect these so-called front-line communities, but many Americans today do not even know they are being exposed to dangerous levels of air pollution. That is why sensors are critical, because they sniff the air and detect pollutants that the human eye or the human nose cannot detect. This technology is getting better and more affordable by the day.

Collecting local air data helps States, it helps tribes, it helps communities find pollution hotspots and identify facilities that may be generating excess pollution. Low-cost sensors also save air agencies money by enabling them to direct resources to where the worst pollution is.

As I often say, find out what works and do more of that. Today, we will hear from one of our witnesses about what is working with low-cost air quality sensors in, among other places, Denver, Colorado, one of the best examples of a local air agency working proactively with health care organizations, with schools, and with neighborhoods.

In other places across our Country, cities and local groups are working with their air regulators at the State level. For example, Utah's Department of Environmental Quality is partnering with the University of Utah, as well as with other State and local orga-

nizations, to stand up a new air quality sensor program on the west side of Salt Lake Valley. This program will provide almost instant local air quality information through air maps and through alerts.

These sensors complement regulatory monitors. For example, during the wildfires last summer in Delaware, the Delaware Department of Natural Resources and Environmental Control, we call it DNREC, used data from 11 regulatory monitors, data from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, and data from low-cost sensors to track air pollution. Using all three sources, DNREC was able to quickly issue public health advisories for vulnerable residents.

In closing, clean air is good for human health. It is good for our economy, and it is good for our planet. It is good for all of us. We look forward to hearing today from our colleagues as they arrive and from our witnesses on the ways in which low-cost air quality sensors can help us reduce air pollution and protect public health.

Before I turn to Senator Capito, I want to thank not just our witnesses for being here and testifying today and preparing for this hearing, I want to thank our staff for helping to find you and to convince you to come today and to share some thoughts and responses to some of our questions. We appreciate the good staff work that has been done.

With that, let me turn to our Ranking Member, Senator Capito, for her opening statement. Senator Capito, you are recognized.

**OPENING STATEMENT OF HON. SHELLEY MOORE CAPITO,
U.S. SENATOR FROM THE STATE OF WEST VIRGINIA**

Senator CAPITO. Thank you, Chairman Carper, and thank you all for being here with us today, and I appreciate the travel, and I appreciate the expertise that you will bring.

I think we can all agree that clean air is vital to the health and well-being of Americans across the Nation. However, I am a bit concerned about the Administration and some of the neglect I have seen in the major flaws in the air monitoring data quality. It seems as though the Administration is prioritizing an agenda while misallocating taxpayers' dollars on projects that have limited benefits to our public health and welfare.

First, I think it is important to acknowledge that Americans enjoy some of the cleanest air in the world and recognize just how much air pollution in the United States has been reduced. According to the EPA, between 1980 and 2022, the combined emissions of criteria air pollutants and precursor pollutants was reduced by 73 percent. Hazardous air pollutant emissions have also similarly declined.

Despite this fact, many Americans are led to believe through inaccurate claims that our air quality is getting worse, when, in fact, air quality has significantly improved and can get better. Congress has made significant investments to support the ambient air quality monitoring network. The Federal Government partners with States, localities, and tribes to build and operate the system. This network is comprised of official stationary air monitors that gather data to inform regulatory decisions and determine regulatory compliance.

While use of these official monitors has been generally successful, deficiencies with one model's accuracy and reliability demonstrate the need to ensure that the monitoring system is maintained at the highest standards and is the most accurate it can be.

One year ago, EPA modified a measurement method on the Teledyne PM Mass Monitory used to track and measure particulate matter. These monitors are crucial to inform potential regulatory actions undertaken by the EPA and the States, including implementation of the National Ambient Air Quality Standards, or the NAAQS.

Peer-reviewed analysis reported that the monitors had led to over-inflated measures of fine particulate matter, or PM 2.5. In other words, the monitors led the EPA and States to believe that the air quality was actually worse than it actually was. These artificially high readings date all the way back to 2017 when they were first deployed. Those Teledyne monitors had a significantly high bias relative to other monitors, including the gold standard reference monitors that the Chairman spoke about.

On February 14th of this year, the EPA issued a proposal to retroactively modify PM 2.5 data reported from the Teledyne monitors from when they were first deployed from the years of 2017 through April 2023. The EPA proposal notes that more than 400 Teledyne monitors in our official ambient air monitoring network were consistently producing PM 2.5 data that was 20 percent higher than the real concentration levels.

To be clear, this level of inaccuracy could be stated as unprecedented. It is absolutely critical that EPA prioritize correcting this unprecedented error, which they are doing, and refocus on high-quality, accurate monitoring data that is relied on for regulatory compliance. This is where the EPA's focus should be in a monitoring context before the agency promotes the use of emerging and less accurate sensors.

Despite the challenges faced by the existing network used for regulatory purposes, there has been a choice to prioritize funding for less-accurate, difficult to use, low-cost monitors. The partisan American Rescue Plan and Inflation Reduction Act funded the use of less accurate and reliable low-cost air quality sensors.

A recent GAO report identified key challenges and data deficiencies associated with use of those low-quality air sensors. GAO found that users face difficulty understanding the capabilities, operations, and maintenance requirements and accuracy of those sensors.

Particularly, GAO noted users often lack the knowledge to select the right sensors or deploy them in a way that best fits their intended use to gain accurate and actionable data. This leads to confusion when the data lacks the high degree of confidence necessary to make regulatory decisions and can cause misunderstandings about the concentration of air pollutants that are affecting our local communities.

Of particular concern, GAO points out that the EPA has not taken basic steps to address issues with sensor use, such as issuing guidance on how to make the sensors more usable for communities. This confusion can undermine confidence in EPA and State regu-

latory actions, as well as cause our communities and residents to panic about their air quality and misallocated resources.

I am concerned that spending more money on new, unproven, and inaccurate monitors that can not be used reliably to direct our regulatory action will at best be a waste of money or a misplaced priority. Instead, we need to make improvements in the existing monitoring network so that we can build on the substantial progress that have made to improve our air quality.

With that, I yield back, Mr. Chair.

Senator CARPER. Thank you, ma'am.

We are now going to turn to our panel of witnesses. I had a chance to meet all of you personally and to welcome you. We are delighted that you were able to come today.

First of all, I am going to start off with Mr. Omar Hammad. Has anyone ever mispronounced your name?

Mr. HAMMAD. Often.

[Laughter.]

Senator CARPER. Okay. We will try not to do that today. Mr. Hammad is an analyst in environmental policy in the Research Science and Industry Division of the congressional Research Service, which does such great service for all of our Country and certainly for folks on this committee. I understand that your work focuses primarily on environmental policy issues, including the Clean Air Act, indoor air quality, the National Environmental Policy Act, and environmental permitting. Before joining CRS, Mr. Hammad worked in the Air Progress Branch at the Environmental Protection Agency in Region 2.

Our second witness is Mr. Bill Obermann. Mr. Obermann, good to see you. He is an Air Program Supervisor at the Denver Department of Public Health and Environment. In this role, I am told that Mr. Obermann manages the Denver Department of Public Health and Environment's Love My Air Program. I love that title, Love My Air Program.

Love My Air is a city-led air quality monitoring program that provides real-time air quality information and education to residents of Denver. Mr. Obermann has been with the City since 2019, but has over 25 years of experience in air quality and transportation planning industries.

Third, last but not least, we are going to hear from Ms. Anne Austin, who I believe is from Austin. This does not happen every day; it is pretty cool. We are going to hear from you, Ms. Austin.

I understand you are the former Principal Deputy Assistant Administrator for the Office of Air and Radiation at the Environmental Protection Agency, and also a former EPA Region 6 Administrator. Prior to joining EPA, Ms. Austin spent her career working for the Texas State government. What did you do, working for the Texas State government?

Ms. AUSTIN. I served at the Texas Commission on Environmental Quality and also the Texas General Land Office.

Senator CARPER. Thank you. We thank all of you again for your preparation. We thank all of you today for your service and for joining us here today to testify and to respond to the questions that we have.

Mr. Hammad, I am going to ask you to please lead us off, our lead-off hitter, and proceed with your statement, if you are ready. Thank you.

STATEMENT OF OMAR HAMMAD, ENVIRONMENTAL POLICY ANALYST, CONGRESSIONAL RESEARCH SERVICE, LIBRARY OF CONGRESS

Mr. HAMMAD. Chairman Carper, Ranking Member Capito, and members of the committee, good morning, and thank you for this invitation to appear before you on behalf of the congressional Research Service.

I am Omar Hammad, and I am an analyst in environmental policy. My testimony draws on my area of specialization at CRS, the Clean Air Act and air quality monitoring.

The U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, or EPA, defines low-cost air sensors as a class of non-regulatory technology that is lower in cost, portable, and generally easier to operate than the air monitors used for regulatory purposes. Some stakeholders have asserted that EPA, State and local air agencies should consider the use of low-cost air sensors in their regulatory regimes due to competitive costs, increasingly better technologies, and expanded coverage.

This testimony summarizes my written statement that I offer for the record and aims to introduce and address the elements of this debate. I will discuss ambient air monitors, also known as regulatory monitors, and their uses; low-cost air sensors and their uses; and the benefits and challenges of both technologies.

Congress recognized the need to address air pollution, establishing the Clean Air Act with the purpose of protecting and enhancing the quality of the Nation's air resources and providing assistance to State and local governments in connection with the Air Pollution Prevention and Control Programs.

Under the Clean Air Act, EPA is to issue national ambient, or outdoor, air quality standards known as the National Ambient Air Quality Standards, or NAAQS for short, for criteria pollutants. There are currently six criteria air pollutants: particulate matter, ozone, nitrogen dioxide, sulfur dioxide, carbon monoxide, and lead.

Establishing NAAQS does not directly limit emissions or compel specific emission controls. Rather, it represents EPA's formal judgment regarding the level of ambient air pollution that will protect public health with an adequate margin of safety.

Ambient air monitoring is the systemic long-term assessment of pollutant levels by measuring the quantity and types of pollutants in the surrounding outdoor air. The Clean Air Act directs EPA to promulgate regulations that establish an ambient air monitoring system throughout the United States.

Regulatory monitoring sites established primarily by State and local air agencies will differ from site to site in the number and type of required monitors and pollutants monitored at each site. These monitors must meet EPA-designated reference or equivalent methods for monitoring.

Regulators, researchers, communities, and others have relied on the network of ambient air monitors to provide the data needed for

studies, source permitting, NAAQS attainment and implementation, air quality alerts, and a host of other applications.

Low-cost air sensors, unlike ambient air monitors, are non-regulatory and relatively low-priced devices, often priced below \$2,500 compared to the regulatory monitors that can reach prices of up to \$50,000. Advancements in technology, micro processing capabilities, and miniaturization have led to an expansion in the availability of low-cost air sensors to measure a variety of air pollutants.

According to the U.S. Government Accountability Office, the use of low-cost air sensors is increasing, driven in part by policy and public interest in air quality stemming from wildfire smoke, neighborhoods near pollution sources, and other concerns.

EPA is involved in the advancement of low-cost air sensor technology, including performance evaluations and best practices for effective use. EPA found that these low-cost air sensors are generally less accurate than their more expensive regulatory counterparts, and stated that data from new air sensor instruments should not be used in a regulatory context at this time, unless those instruments meet all applicable regulatory requirements. EPA did note that they could be used in identifying pollution hotspots, providing local community-scale air monitoring, assisting in the site selection for new or relocated regulatory monitors, and conducting scientific research.

Ambient air monitoring networks have provided reliable air quality data throughout the Country for decades. In recent years, some observers have raised concerns about the increase in cost to establish and maintain regulatory monitors. Some States and local air agencies assert that low-cost air sensors have been successfully used to supplement regulatory monitors and fill data gaps. Some contend the sensors help decisionmakers address specific needs, such as directing limited enforcement resources to achieve emission reductions, saving time and money.

Federal agencies have also made low-cost air sensors available for deployment to wildfire locations upon the request of firefighting agencies. Stakeholders have noted the low-cost sensors have been particularly useful for monitoring wildfire smoke in areas without regulatory monitors.

This concludes my brief remarks. Thank you for the opportunity to testify. I look forward to your questions.

[The prepared statement of Mr. Hammad follows:]



Statement of

Omar M. Hammad
Analyst in Environmental Policy

Before

Committee on Environment and Public Works
U.S. Senate

Hearing on

**“Examining the State of Air Quality
Monitoring Technology”**

April 10, 2024

Congressional Research Service

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Chairman Carper, Ranking Member Capito, and Members of the Committee, good morning. My name is Omar Hammad, and I am an analyst in Environmental Policy for the Congressional Research Services (CRS). On behalf of CRS, I want to thank you for inviting me to testify today. I have been asked by the committee to discuss the state of air quality monitoring sensor technologies, as well as the opportunities and challenges for communities to obtain accurate and reliable information and data about their local air quality.

In serving the U.S. Congress on a nonpartisan and objective basis, CRS does not take positions on legislation and makes no recommendations to policymakers. My testimony draws on my areas of expertise at CRS—the Clean Air Act and air quality monitoring. I work with a team of analysts and attorneys to address related issues for Congress. My CRS colleagues and I remain available to assist the committee in its consideration of air quality monitoring sensor technology issues.

The U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) defines *low-cost air sensors* as a class of nonregulatory technology that is lower in cost, portable, and generally easier to operate than the air monitors used for regulatory purposes. Some stakeholders have asserted that EPA, state, and local air agencies should consider the use of low-cost air sensors in their regulatory regimes due to competitive costs, increasingly better technologies, and expanded coverage. Observers noted certain concerns arise regarding such implementation. My testimony aims to introduce and address the elements of this debate. My testimony will discuss ambient air monitors, low-cost air sensors, their uses, and the benefits and challenges of both technologies.

Introduction

Air quality is a term used to describe how much pollution is in the air. Congress recognized the need to address air pollution, establishing the Clean Air Act (CAA) (42 U.S.C. §§7401 et seq.) with the purposes:¹

- “to protect and enhance the quality of the Nation’s air resources so as to promote the public health and welfare and the productive capacity of its population”;
- “to initiate and accelerate a national research and development program to achieve the prevention and control of air pollution”;
- “to provide technical and financial assistance to State and local governments in connection with the development and execution of their air pollution prevention and control programs”; and
- “to encourage and assist the development and operation of regional air pollution prevention and control programs.”

Air quality management refers to all the activities a regulatory authority may undertake to address the prevention and control of air pollution within its jurisdiction. The process of managing air quality can be illustrated as a dynamic cycle of interrelated elements. The regulatory authority establishes air quality goals, determines the level of emissions reductions needed, develops control strategies, implements programs, and monitors air quality to reevaluate the cycle.²

¹ 42 U.S.C. §7401(b).

² For more information, see EPA, “Air Quality Management Process Cycle,” <https://www.epa.gov/air-quality-management-process/air-quality-management-process-cycle>.

Criteria Air Pollutants and the National Ambient Air Quality Standards

Under Sections 108 and 109 of the CAA,³ EPA is to issue national ambient (outdoor) air quality standards (NAAQS) for certain listed pollutants (1) whose emissions “may reasonably be anticipated to endanger public health or welfare” and (2) whose presence in ambient air “results from numerous or diverse mobile or stationary sources.”⁴ EPA has identified and promulgated NAAQS for six principal pollutants, commonly referred to as *criteria pollutants*:

1. particulate matter (PM),
2. ozone (O₃),
3. nitrogen dioxide (NO₂),⁵
4. sulfur dioxide (SO₂),
5. carbon monoxide (CO), and
6. lead (Pb).

The CAA directs EPA to establish two types of NAAQS:

1. *primary standards*, “the attainment and maintenance of which in the judgment of the [EPA] Administrator ... are requisite to protect the public health” with “an adequate margin of safety”;⁶ and
2. *secondary standards*,⁷ which are necessary to protect *public welfare*,⁸ a broad term that includes visibility impairment as well as damage to crops and vegetation, and effects on soil and nutrient cycling, water, wildlife, property, and building materials, among other things.

Establishment of NAAQS does not directly limit emissions or compel specific emissions controls; rather, it represents EPA’s formal judgment regarding the level of ambient air pollution that protects public health with an adequate margin of safety. In setting the NAAQS, EPA may not consider the costs of implementing the standards.⁹ Promulgation of NAAQS sets in motion a process under which the states and tribes first identify geographic *nonattainment areas* (i.e., those areas failing to meet the NAAQS) based on monitoring and analysis of relevant air quality data. EPA then establishes nonattainment areas in these locations based on the data and recommendations from states and tribes.¹⁰ States with nonattainment areas then submit State Implementation Plans (SIPs) to EPA. The SIPs identify specific state and federal

³ 42 U.S.C. §7408 and §7409.

⁴ For more information regarding the Clean Air Act (CAA) and its major requirements, see CRS Report RL30853, *Clean Air Act: A Summary of the Act and Its Major Requirements*, by Richard K. Lattanzio.

⁵ The national ambient air quality standard (NAAQS) is for nitrogen dioxide (NO₂); nitrogen gases that are ozone precursors are referred to as *nitrogen oxides*, or NO_x.

⁶ 42 U.S.C. §7409(b)(1).

⁷ 42 U.S.C. §7409(b)(2).

⁸ 42 U.S.C. 7602(h). The use of the term *public welfare* in the CAA “includes, but is not limited to, effects on soils, water, crops, vegetation, manmade materials, animals, wildlife, weather, visibility, and climate, damage to and deterioration of property, and hazards to transportation, as well as effects on economic values and on personal comfort and well-being, whether caused by transformation, conversion, or combination with other air pollutants.”

⁹ The D.C. Circuit’s holding on the cost and constitutional issues were appealed to the U.S. Supreme Court. In 2001, the Supreme Court issued a unanimous decision upholding EPA’s position on both the cost and constitutional issues. *Am. Trucking Ass’n v. EPA*, 531 U.S. 457, 465–472, 475–76 (2001); *Am. Trucking Ass’n, Inc. v. EPA*, 283 F.3d 355 (D.C. Cir. 2002).

¹⁰ While CAA Section 107(d) (42 U.S.C. §7407(d)) specifically addresses states, EPA generally follows the same process and schedule for tribes pursuant to CAA Section 301(d) (42 U.S.C. §7601(d)). For more information, see EPA, “Tribal Authority Rule (TAR) Under the Clean Air Act,” <https://www.epa.gov/tribal-air/tribal-authority-rule-tar-under-clean-air-act>.

regulations and emissions control requirements that are to bring areas into compliance, as well as actions for maintaining compliance.¹¹

Air Quality Index

EPA and other agencies have developed tools to measure air quality conditions and alert the public if air pollutants reach a certain level. For example, EPA manages AirNow, a multiagency website that reports air quality based on monitoring data received on a regular basis from state, local, and federal agencies.¹² AirNow contains data in a consistent format and displays it through interactive maps. AirNow reports air quality information using the Air Quality Index (AQI), a nationally uniform index. EPA calculates the AQI for a criteria pollutant based on the ambient concentration of that pollutant.¹³ AQI values range from 0 to 500. The higher the AQI value, the greater the level of air pollution. EPA describes AQI values of 100 or lower as “satisfactory” or “acceptable.” AQI values fluctuate throughout the year, due to a number of factors. For example, ozone levels tend to be higher in the summer months for most states, and particulate pollution is typically affected by winter temperature inversions (in a temperature inversion, cold air at the surface is under a layer of warmer air) and the wildfire season.¹⁴

Figure 1 is an example of the data AirNow provides for an area. EPA relates current hourly readings from ambient air monitors to AQI values for ozone and particle pollution.¹⁵ Also, most state and local air quality agencies issue forecasts for ozone and particle pollution. A few areas also issue forecasts for nitrogen dioxide and carbon monoxide.

¹¹ Under certain circumstances EPA may disapprove a State Implementation Plan (SIP) and promulgate a Federal Implementation Plan (FIP). For information regarding SIPs and FIPs, see CAA Section 110 (42 U.S.C. §7410).

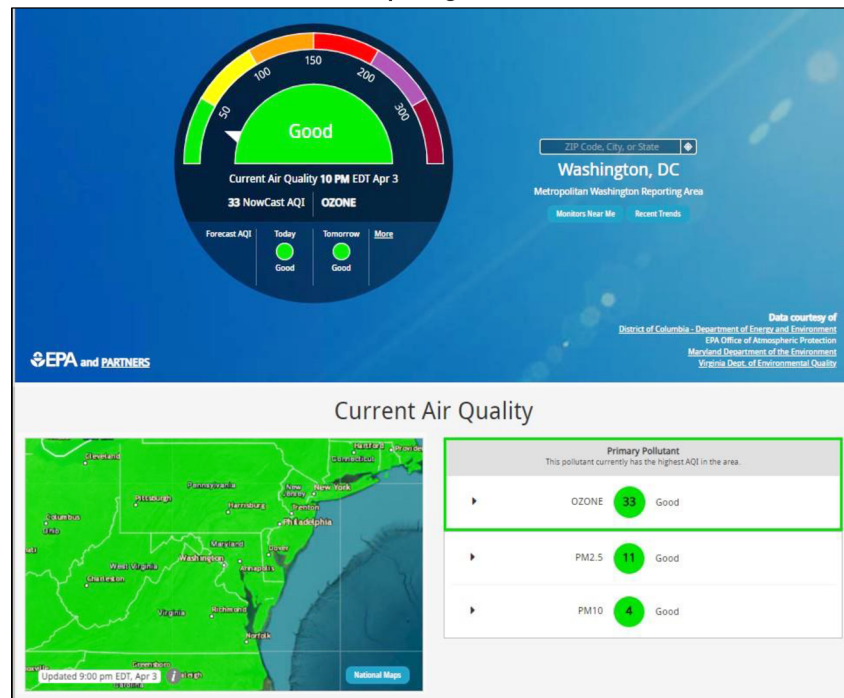
¹² For information on AirNow, see AirNow, “About AirNow,” <https://www.airnow.gov/about-airnow/>. For a list of the participating agencies, see AirNow, “List of Partners,” <https://www.airnow.gov/partners/>.

¹³ The Air Quality Index (AQI) is established for five of the six criteria air pollutants. It is not established for lead (Pb). AirNow, “Air Quality Index (AQI) Basics,” <https://www.airnow.gov/aqi/aqi-basics/>. The AirNow maps provide for the two pollutants of concern particulate matter (PM) and ozone.

¹⁴ For more information on inversions, see EPA, “Inversion,” <https://www.epa.gov/environmental-geophysics/inversion>. For more information on air quality trends, see EPA, “National Air Quality: Status and Trends of Key Air Pollutants,” <https://www.epa.gov/air-trends>.

¹⁵ AirNow current AQI and forecasts are often for ozone and particle pollution, two of the most widespread pollutants in the United States. For more information, see AirNow, “Using the Air Quality Index,” <https://www.airnow.gov/aqi/aqi-basics/using-air-quality-index/>.

Figure 1. AirNow Current Air Quality in the Washington, DC, Metropolitan Washington Reporting Area



Source: CRS, using AirNow, <https://www.airnow.gov/?city=Washington&state=DC&country=USA>.

Notes: AirNow real-time data was obtained on April 3, 2024, at approximately 9:30 PM. Air quality at that time was good or "satisfactory," with an AQI value between 0 to 50 for ozone and particulate air pollution.

Ambient Air Monitoring

Ambient air monitoring is "the systematic, long-term assessment of pollutant levels by measuring the quantity and types of certain pollutants in the surrounding, outdoor air."¹⁶ CAA Section 319 directs EPA to promulgate regulations that establish an ambient air monitoring system throughout the United States which:¹⁷

¹⁶ For more information on EPA's ambient air monitoring, see EPA, "Managing Air Quality - Ambient Air Monitoring," <https://www.epa.gov/air-quality-management-process/managing-air-quality-ambient-air-monitoring>. For information on EPA's air monitoring methods, see EPA, "Air Monitoring Methods—Criteria Pollutants," <https://www.epa.gov/amtic/air-monitoring-methods-criteria-pollutants>.

¹⁷ 42 U.S.C. §7619(a).

- “utilizes uniform air quality monitoring criteria and methodology and measures such air quality according to a uniform air quality index.”
- “provides for air quality monitoring stations in major urban areas and other appropriate areas throughout the United States to provide monitoring such as will supplement (but not duplicate) air quality monitoring carried out by the States required under any applicable implementation plan.”
- “provides for daily analysis and reporting of air quality based upon such uniform air quality index,” and
- “provides for recordkeeping with respect to such monitoring data and for periodic analysis and reporting to the general public by the Administrator with respect to air quality based upon such data.”

In addition, CAA Section 319 directs EPA to develop requirements and guidance for various aspects of these networks.¹⁸ In accordance with Section 319, the ambient air monitoring system required for NAAQS implementation under CAA Section 110 would “utilize the standard criteria and methodology, and measure air quality according to the standard index, established under such regulations.” Most of the ambient air monitoring networks supporting air quality management are designed and operated by tribal, state, and local governments.¹⁹

Criteria Pollutant Ambient Air Monitoring and Monitoring Networks

The national ambient air monitoring system measures air pollution levels at fixed locations across the country.²⁰ EPA, state, and local agencies cooperatively manage this system’s infrastructure. Various methods and instruments are available to measure ambient air pollutants. The selection of the appropriate device is generally based on the application.

Per EPA-established regulations, states, tribes, and local air program managers develop five-year network assessments and annual ambient monitoring network plans. The five-year network assessments are used to determine if the ambient monitoring network is meeting the regulatory objectives. The annual ambient monitoring network plans ensure networks comply with design requirements.²¹ EPA conducts on-site reviews and inspections to assess compliance with the regulations governing the collection, analysis, validation, and reporting of ambient air monitoring data.²²

The number and type of required monitors and pollutants monitored differ at each site. These monitors must meet either a designated reference or an equivalent method for monitoring. The *Federal reference method* (FRM) is a method of sampling and analyzing the ambient air for an air pollutant that EPA has

¹⁸ Requirements related to network monitoring methods are in the appendices to 40 C.F.R. Part 50. Requirements related to monitoring reference and equivalent methods are in 40 C.F.R. Part 53, “Ambient Air Monitoring Reference and Equivalent Methods.” EPA requires monitoring agencies to develop network assessments and annual monitoring network plans that include the information described in 40 C.F.R. Part 58, “Ambient Air Quality Surveillance.”

¹⁹ 42 U.S.C. §7619.

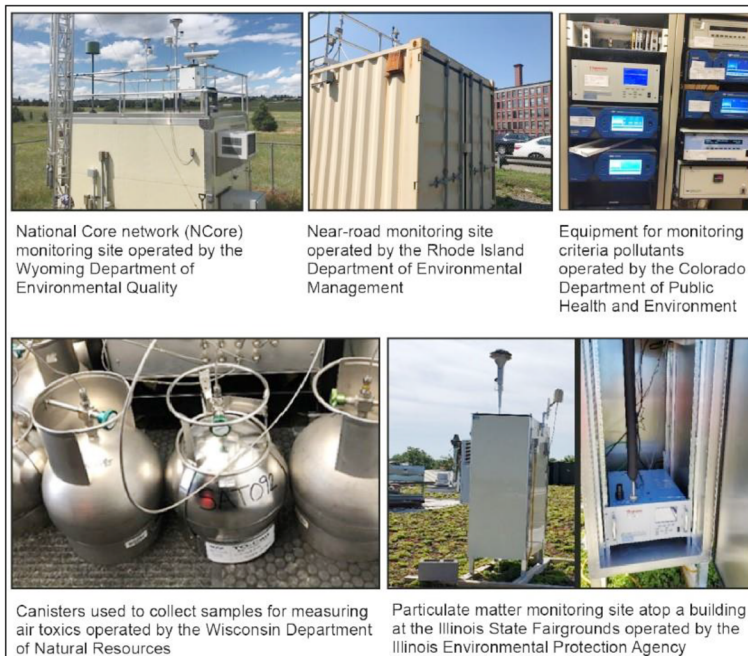
²⁰ Site relocations are subject to EPA approval in accordance with 40 C.F.R. Parts 50, 53, and 58.

²¹ According to 40 C.F.R. 58.10(d) “the state, or where applicable local, agency shall perform and submit to the EPA Regional Administrator an assessment of the air quality surveillance system every 5 years to determine, at a minimum, if the network meets the monitoring objectives defined in appendix D to this part, whether new sites are needed, whether existing sites are no longer needed and can be terminated, and whether new technologies are appropriate for incorporation into the ambient air monitoring network.” According to 40 C.F.R. 58.10(a), the annual monitoring plans “shall include a statement of whether the operation of each monitor meets the requirements of appendices A, B, C, D, and E of this part, where applicable.”

²² For further information on ambient air monitoring and monitoring network requirements, see EPA, “Ambient Monitoring Technology Information Center (AMTIC): Ambient Air Monitoring Networks,” <https://www.epa.gov/amtic/amtic-ambient-air-monitoring-networks>.

specified as a reference method in regulation. FRMs are EPA-accepted standards for analyzing an air pollutant. The *Federal equivalent method* (FEM) is a method for measuring the concentration of an air pollutant in the ambient air that has been designated as an equivalent method in regulation.²³ FEMs are methods that have been approved through regulation to be equivalent to FRMs.²⁴ Figure 2 shows examples of ambient air monitoring sites and monitoring equipment.

Figure 2. Examples of Ambient Air Monitoring Sites and Monitoring Equipment



National Core network (NCore) monitoring site operated by the Wyoming Department of Environmental Quality

Near-road monitoring site operated by the Rhode Island Department of Environmental Management

Equipment for monitoring criteria pollutants operated by the Colorado Department of Public Health and Environment

Canisters used to collect samples for measuring air toxics operated by the Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources

Particulate matter monitoring site atop a building at the Illinois State Fairgrounds operated by the Illinois Environmental Protection Agency

Source: U.S. Government Accountability Office, *Air Pollution: Opportunities to Better Sustain and Modernize the National Air Quality Monitoring System*, GAO-21-38, December 7, 2020, p. 21, <https://www.gao.gov/products/gao-21-38>.

A collection of monitoring sites makes up an air program's monitoring network. Figure 3 illustrates the District of Columbia's air program's existing five-station ambient air monitoring network. These sites collectively make up national ambient air monitoring networks. These networks include:²⁵

- Air Toxics

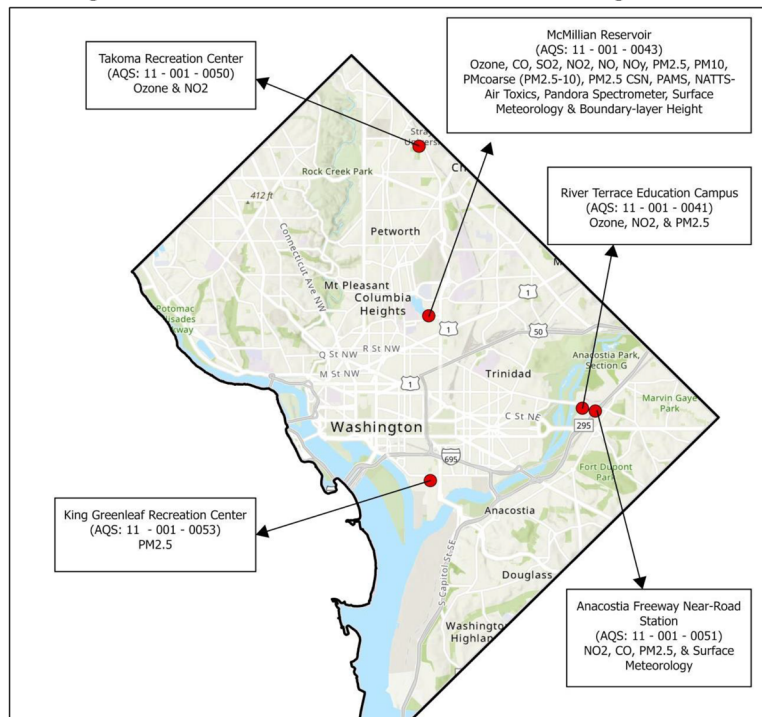
²³ For the full definition of Federal equivalent method (FEM) and Federal reference method (FRM), see 40 C.F.R. § 53.1.

²⁴ In addition to reference and equivalent methods of air monitoring, EPA may approve a non-designated continuous fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) method of air monitoring as an Approved Regional Method (ARM) if it meets the requirements stipulated in 2.02.4 of 40 C.F.R. Appendix C to Part 58.

²⁵ For further information on the various networks listed, see EPA, "Ambient Monitoring Technology Information Center (AMTIC): Ambient Air Monitoring Networks," <https://www.epa.gov/amtic/amtic-ambient-air-monitoring-networks>.

- Lead Monitoring
- National Core Network (NCORE)
- Near-Road Monitoring
- Ozone: Photochemical Assessment Monitoring Stations (PAMS)
- Particulate Matter (PM) Networks
 - Fine Particulate Matter (PM_{2.5})
 - Chemical Speciation Network (CSN)
 - Interagency Monitoring of Protected Visual Environments (IMPROVE)
- Susceptible and Vulnerable Populations—NO₂ Monitoring

Figure 3. The District of Columbia's Ambient Air Monitoring Network



Source: District of Columbia, Department of Energy and Environment (DOEE), "District of Columbia's Calendar Year 2024 Draft Annual Ambient Air Monitoring Network Plan," DOEE, <https://doee.dc.gov/release/public-comment-period-2024-annual-ambient-air-monitoring-network-plan>.

Notes: AQ: Air Quality System, NO₂ = Nitrogen Dioxide, CO = Carbon Monoxide, SO₂ = Sulfur Dioxide, NO = Nitrogen Oxide, NO_y = Nitrogen Oxides.

Air Toxics Ambient Air Monitoring and Monitoring Networks

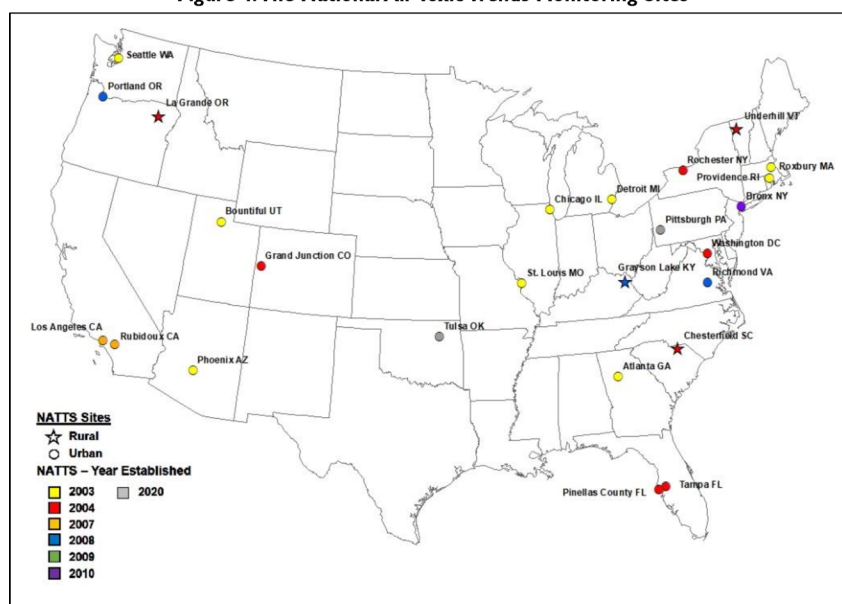
In addition to monitoring the ambient air for criteria air pollutants, EPA monitors for the 188 hazardous air pollutants (HAPs) informally referred to as “air toxics.” Section 112 of the CAA directs EPA to promulgate emission standards for the sources of HAPs that are listed in Section 112(b).²⁶ Ambient air toxics monitoring provides air toxics data, which have a critical role in characterizing HAP concentrations across the country. The monitoring data help support trend analyses across cities, regions, and specific areas of interest over time; provide exposure assessments to help examine the relationships between ambient HAP concentrations, human activities, and the related personal exposures that are used as inputs for HAP modeling; and help HAP model evaluations.

EPA established the National Air Toxics Trends Station (NATTS) Network in 2003. The current network configuration (as illustrated in **Figure 4**) includes 26 sites (21 urban, 5 rural) across the United States. Typically, each NATTS monitors over 100 pollutants; 19 of those are formally required. Target HAPs include volatile organic compounds (VOCs), carbonyls, PM₁₀ metals (PM₁₀ is particulate matter with a diameter smaller than 10 micrometers and greater than 2.5 micrometers), and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs).²⁷

²⁶ 42 U.S.C. §7412. The 1990 CAA amendments specified 189 pollutants. The list has been modified through a series of rulemakings and now includes 188 pollutants. EPA, “Initial List of Hazardous Air Pollutants with Modifications,” <https://www.epa.gov/haps/initial-list-hazardous-air-pollutants-modifications>.

²⁷ For more information on the National Air Toxics Trends Station (NATTS) Network, see EPA, “Air Toxics Ambient Monitoring,” <https://www.epa.gov/amtic/air-toxics-ambient-monitoring>.

Figure 4. The National Air Toxic Trends Monitoring Sites



Source: U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), “Air Toxics Ambient Monitoring,” <https://www.epa.gov/amtic/air-toxics-ambient-monitoring>.

Note: No National Air Toxic Trends Stations (NATTS) are located in Alaska or Hawaii.

Ambient Air Monitoring Regulatory Context

For NAAQS compliance, air monitors must meet regulations promulgated by EPA and any applicable state, tribal, or local regulations. Technical requirements include detailed sampling, siting, and quality assurance requirements. Air monitors used in policymaking and regulatory decisions provide the data needed to calculate *design values*, a statistic that describes the air quality status of a given location relative to the level of the NAAQS.²⁸ For example, NAAQS designations are based on the most recently available design values computed using air quality data reported by state, tribal, and local air monitoring agencies to EPA’s Air Quality System (AQS).²⁹ An area’s attainment and implementation of the NAAQS rely on ambient air monitors.³⁰ An air agency’s permitting decision for new sources of air pollution and

²⁸ For more information on the NAAQS, see EPA, “Criteria Air Pollutants NAAQS Table,” <https://www.epa.gov/criteria-air-pollutants/naaqs-table>.

²⁹ The Air Quality System (AQS) contains ambient air pollution data collected by EPA, state, local, and tribal air pollution control agencies from over thousands of monitors. AQS also contains meteorological data, descriptive information about each monitoring station, and data quality assurance/quality control information. See EPA, “Air Quality System (AQS),” <https://www.epa.gov/aqs>.

³⁰ For further information on the NAAQS implementation process, see EPA, “Process of Working with Areas to Attain and (continued...)”

the levels of source-specific controls or offsets required are determined by the design values established through regulatory ambient air monitoring.³¹ A nonattainment area's level of emission reductions and control requirements, needed to meet nonattainment progress goals or achieve attainment, are partially determined by the design values established through regulatory ambient air monitoring.³²

Low-Cost Air Sensors

EPA defines *low-cost air sensors* as a class of nonregulatory technology that is lower in cost, portable, and generally easier to operate than the air monitors used for regulatory purposes.³³ A low-cost air sensor is a relatively low-priced device that uses one or more sensors and other components to detect, monitor, and report on specific air pollutants like particulate matter (PM) or carbon monoxide (CO) and specific environmental conditions, such as temperature and humidity.³⁴ Depending on the sensor or combination of sensors used, it can detect one or more, or a combination of, pollutants and/or environmental factors.³⁵

Low-cost air sensors typically have a price point below \$2,500, compared to regulatory ambient air monitors that reach price points of up to \$50,000.³⁶ These low-cost air sensors typically provide relatively quick or instant air pollutant concentration measurements, and they allow for the measurement of air quality in more locations.

Many low-cost air sensors fall into one of four types, depending on how they measure air pollution:

1. light scattering (used for PM),
2. electrochemical (gaseous pollutants including O₃, SO₂, NO₂, total volatile organic compounds (VOCs), and CO),
3. metal oxide semiconductor (gaseous pollutants including O₃, CO, NO₂, and total VOCs), and
4. photoionization (total VOCs).³⁷

Advancements in technology, microprocessing capabilities, and miniaturization have led to an expansion in the availability of low-cost air sensors to measure a variety of air pollutants. As these sensors have become more readily available, they have been increasingly used for measuring air quality conditions and thus provide additional low-cost air sensor data sets.³⁸ According to the U.S. Government Accountability

Maintain NAAQS (Implementation Process),” <https://www.epa.gov/criteria-air-pollutants/process-working-areas-attain-and-maintain-naaqs-implementation-process>.

³¹ For further information on CAA permitting, see EPA, “Permitting Under the Clean Air Act,” <https://www.epa.gov/caa-permitting>.

³² For further information on implementation plans and requirements, see EPA, “Air Quality Implementation Plans,” <https://www.epa.gov/air-quality-implementation-plans>.

³³ A. Clements et al., *The Enhanced Air Sensor Guidebook*, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, DC, 2022.

³⁴ Low-cost air sensors have also been referred to as air sensors, air quality sensors, air quality monitors, air pollutant monitors, air pollutant meters or detectors, or low-cost air monitors. This testimony refers to them as low-cost air sensors.

³⁵ For further information on low-cost air sensor technology, see GAO, *Air Quality Sensors: Policy Options to Help Address Implementation Challenges*, GAO-24-106393, March 19, 2024, <https://www.gao.gov/products/gao-24-106393>.

³⁶ While low-cost air sensors may be priced below \$2,500, some multi-pollutant low-cost air sensors can reach price points close to \$10,000. For more information, see A. Clements, et al., *The Enhanced Air Sensor Guidebook*, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, DC, 2022; and EPA, “How to Evaluate Low-Cost Sensors by Collocation with Federal Reference Method Monitors,” https://www.epa.gov/sites/default/files/2018-01/documents/collocation_instruction_guide.pdf.

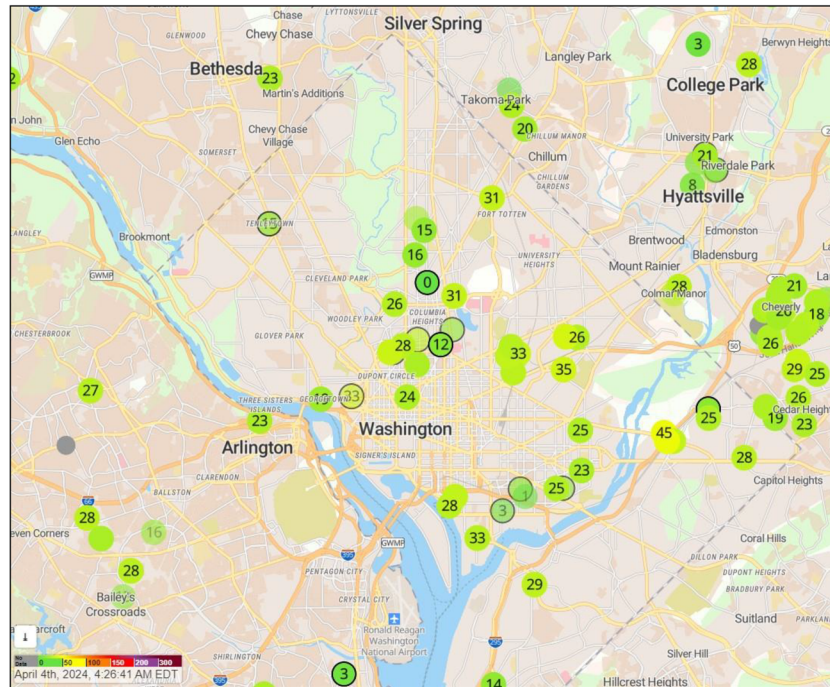
³⁷ GAO, *Air Quality Sensors: Policy Options to Help Address Implementation Challenges*, GAO-24-106393, March 19, 2024, p. 7, <https://www.gao.gov/products/gao-24-106393>.

³⁸ A. Clements, et al., *The Enhanced Air Sensor Guidebook*, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, DC, 2022.

Office (GAO), the use of low-cost air sensors is “increasing, driven in part by policy and public interest in air quality stemming from wildfire smoke, neighborhoods near pollution sources, and other concerns.”³⁹

Figure 5 illustrates the use of low-cost air sensors to measure PM_{2.5} in the District of Columbia by various users of PurpleAir sensors. Community members using the sensors are able to link their sensors and provide data to the mapping tool. The number of regulatory monitors noted in **Figure 3** were five total monitors, four of which monitored PM_{2.5} in the District, compared to the over three dozen nonregulatory low-cost PM_{2.5} PurpleAir sensors.⁴⁰

Figure 5. PurpleAir Low-Cost Air Sensor Map for the District of Columbia
Daily PM_{2.5} AQI Data



Source: CRS, using PurpleAir, <https://map.purpleair.com/1/mAQI/a1440/p604800/c0#10.58/38.9186/-77.0803>.

Notes: Map settings were set to “US EPA PM2.5 AQI,” with an averaging period = “1-day”, and the remaining settings were left at default values.

³⁹ GAO, *Air Quality Sensors: Policy Options to Help Address Implementation Challenges*, GAO-24-106393, March 19, 2024, p. 1, <https://www.gao.gov/products/gao-24-106393>.

⁴⁰ *PurpleAir sensors* are light scattering particle counters for the measurements of PM_{1.0}, PM_{2.5}, and PM₁₀ mass concentrations. Once connected to Wi-Fi, all of these sensors appear on the PurpleAir map, where data can be viewed and shared. For more information, see PurpleAir, “FAQ,” <https://community.purpleair.com/c/faq/27>.

Low-Cost Air Sensor Regulatory Context

EPA is involved in the advancement of low-cost air sensor technology, including performance evaluations of sensor devices and best practices for effective use. EPA evaluated low-cost sensors for how well they measured air pollutants and how easy they were to use. Placing the sensors near a regulatory monitor, EPA collected data on air quality with both technologies. By assessing the data collected under the same air quality and weather conditions, EPA compared how accurate and reliable low-cost technologies were compared to regulatory methods.⁴¹ Based on its assessment of the accuracy of low-cost sensors, in a June 2020 EPA memorandum, EPA stated that “data from new air sensor instruments should not be used in a regulatory context at this time unless those instruments meet all applicable regulatory requirements.”⁴² These requirements would include meeting EPA monitoring-related regulations.⁴³ In the memorandum, EPA recognized that these low-cost air sensors may not meet the requirements for use as regulatory monitors; however, it stated, these sensors “could still be very useful in non-regulatory applications.”⁴⁴

Although EPA found that these low-cost air sensors are generally less accurate than their more expensive regulatory counterparts, GAO noted that they can be deployed in large numbers to supplement information provided by the national ambient air monitoring networks.⁴⁵ Among the possible uses are identifying pollution “hot spots,” providing local community-scale air monitoring, assisting in the site selection for new or relocated regulatory monitors, and conducting scientific research.⁴⁶

EPA announced 132 community air monitoring projects to be conducted by a range of entities, including nonprofits, state and local agencies, and tribes, that would receive \$53.4 million from the American Rescue Plan Act of 2021 (P.L. 117-2) and P.L. 117-169, known as the Inflation Reduction Act of 2022. The majority of the announced projects plan on using low-cost air sensors.⁴⁷ For the announced projects, quality assurance requirements apply to the collection of environmental information.⁴⁸ *Environmental information collections* are any measurements or information that describe environmental processes, locations, or conditions; ecological or health effects and consequences; or the performance of environmental technology.⁴⁹

⁴¹ For more information on EPA’s evaluation of low-cost air sensor technology, see EPA, “Evaluation of Emerging Air Sensor Performance,” <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/evaluation-emerging-air-sensor-performance>.

⁴² Requirements related to network monitoring methods are in the appendices to 40 C.F.R. Part 50. Requirements related to monitoring reference and equivalent methods are in 40 C.F.R. Part 53, “Ambient Air Monitoring Reference and Equivalent Methods.” EPA requires monitoring agencies to develop network assessments and annual monitoring network plans that include the information described in 40 C.F.R. Part 58, “Ambient Air Quality Surveillance.”

⁴³ EPA, “Memorandum on use of air sensor data for NAAQS compliance,” <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/memorandum-use-air-sensor-data-naaqs-compliance>.

⁴⁴ GAO, *Air Quality Sensors: Policy Options to Help Address Implementation Challenges*, GAO-24-106393, March 19, 2024, p. 1-2, <https://www.gao.gov/products/gao-24-106393>.

⁴⁵ An example of research project, the National Park Service (NPS) is working with parks on a smoke monitoring pilot program. For more information, see NPS, “More Parks Can Now Track Air Quality During Wildfires,” at <https://www.nps.gov/articles/smoke-monitoring-pilot.htm>.

⁴⁶ GAO, *Air Quality Sensors: Policy Options to Help Address Implementation Challenges*, GAO-24-106393, March 19, 2024, <https://www.gao.gov/products/gao-24-106393>.

⁴⁷ Funding recipients conducting low-cost air sensor data collection would be required to submit a Quality Assurance Project Plan (QAPP) to EPA per the requirements in 2 C.F.R. §1500.12. A QAPP is a written document that provides a blueprint for the entire project and each specific task to ensure that the project produces reliable data that can be used to meet the project’s overall objectives and goals. For more information, see EPA, “Frequently Asked Questions: Quality Assurance Project Plans,” <https://www.epa.gov/participatory-science/frequently-asked-questions-quality-assurance-project-plans>.

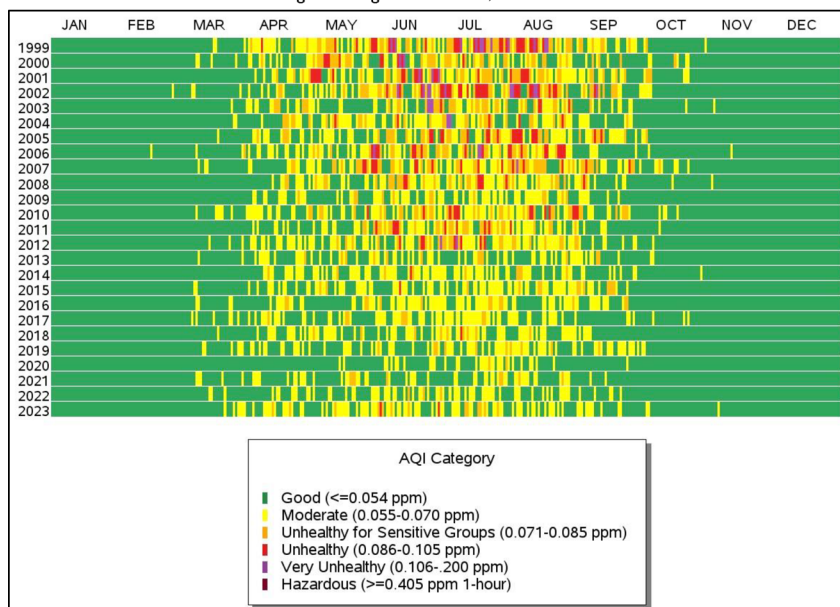
⁴⁸ For more information, see EPA, “Managing the Quality of Environmental Information: Specifications for Non-EPA Organizations,” <https://www.epa.gov/quality/specifications-non-epa-organizations>.

Concluding Observations

Ambient air monitoring networks have provided reliable air quality data throughout the country for decades. The data are standardized and accessible through EPA's AQS and other air quality data tools. Regulators, researchers, communities, and others have relied on the network to provide the data needed for studies, source permitting, NAAQS attainment and implementation, air quality alerts, and a host of other applications.⁴⁹ Figure 6 is an example of one of the visualization tools EPA provides. The figure illustrates the daily AQI in the Washington, DC metro area from 1999 to 2023.

Figure 6. Daily Ozone AQI Values, 1999 to 2023

Washington-Arlington-Alexandria, DC-VA-MD-WV



Source: EPA, "Air Data—Multiyear Tile Plot," <https://www.epa.gov/outdoor-air-quality-data/air-data-multiyear-tile-plot>.

Note: Generated April 4, 2024.

Some observers have raised concerns about the ambient air monitoring networks. In particular, observers have noted the increasing costs to establish and maintain ambient air monitoring networks. For example, according to a 2020 report from GAO, "modern monitoring equipment technology is significantly more expensive than its predecessor technology." In the report, GAO found that the level of funding EPA provided for air quality management programs from 2004 to 2019 remained relatively steady. When

⁴⁹ The air quality data made available by EPA to the general public date back to the 1980s. For more information, see EPA, "Air Data: Air Quality Data Collected at Outdoor Monitors Across the US," <https://www.epa.gov/outdoor-air-quality-data>.

adjusted for inflation, the amount of federal funding declined by an average of \$4 million per year over the same timeframe.⁵⁰ According to the 2020 report:⁵¹

The ambient air quality monitoring system is a national asset that provides standardized information for implementing the Clean Air Act and protecting public health. The Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) and state and local agencies cooperatively manage the system, with each playing different roles in design, operation, oversight, and funding. For example, EPA establishes minimum requirements for the system, and state and local agencies operate the monitors and report data to EPA. Officials from EPA and selected state and local agencies identified challenges related to sustaining the monitoring system. For example, they said that infrastructure is aging while annual EPA funding for state and local air quality management grants, which cover monitoring, has decreased by about 20 percent since 2004 after adjusting for inflation.

While GAO highlighted funding issues associated with regulatory monitoring, EPA noted that ambient air monitoring networks might not properly identify hot spots or community-level air pollution issues if no ambient air monitor is within the direct vicinity to properly characterize the possible air pollution issue.⁵²

Considering these concerns, a question facing policymakers is what role low-cost air sensors could play in support of ambient air monitoring networks. Some state and local air agencies contend that low-cost air sensors have been successfully used to supplement regulatory monitors and fill data gaps. The low-cost sensors help decisionmakers address specific needs. For example, some air agencies have used low-cost air sensors to help direct limited enforcement resources.⁵³ This nonregulatory use of low-cost air sensors may help an air agency ensure it is achieving the maximum emission reductions through its regulatory enforcement actions, saving it time and money. The emission reductions achieved may also be pivotal in maintaining a lower NAAQS design value and maintaining or achieving the attainment of NAAQS.

⁵⁰ The report identified a low of \$190 million in 2007 and a high of approximately \$230 million in 2011 and 2012. GAO, *Air Pollution: Opportunities to Better Sustain and Modernize the National Air Quality Monitoring System*, GAO-21-38, December 7, 2020, p.26, <https://www.gao.gov/products/gao-21-38>.

⁵¹ GAO, *Air Pollution: Opportunities to Better Sustain and Modernize the National Air Quality Monitoring System*, GAO-21-38, December 7, 2020, <https://www.gao.gov/products/gao-21-38>.

⁵² According to EPA, low-cost air sensors could “be very useful in nonregulatory applications such as providing a better understanding of local air quality, helping in the siting of regulatory monitors, or identifying hot spots.” For more information, see EPA, “Memorandum on use of air sensor data for NAAQS compliance,” <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/memorandum-use-air-sensor-data-naaqs-compliance>.

⁵³ For example, the Maryland Department of the Environment (MDE) developed a targeted inspection initiative in Cheverly, MD, where it deployed 22 low-cost air sensors. For more information, see MDE, “Cheverly Targeted Inspection Initiative,” <https://mde.maryland.gov/programs/Air/AirQualityCompliance/Pages/CheverlyTargetedInspectionInitiative.aspx>.

In addition to their support of compliance programs, low-cost sensors have been used in nonregulatory contexts. For example, federal agencies have deployed low-cost air sensors to monitor smoke during wildfires and communicate possible risks to stakeholders.⁵⁴ In addition, some agencies make low-cost air sensors available for deployment to wildland fire locations upon request of firefighting agencies. These low-cost air sensors can help inform firefighting agency decisions on allocating resources.⁵⁵ Low-cost air sensors have been particularly useful for monitoring wildfire smoke in areas without regulatory monitors.

Agencies and stakeholders may need to consider the proper siting, use, and understanding of the data obtained from low-cost air sensors deployed for wildfire smoke initiatives. Furthermore, during a wildfire event, the readiness and availability of low-cost air sensors to be deployed during an emergency is a key feature of the technology, but a sensor's data may be questionable if the device was not previously calibrated with a regulatory monitor.

According to state and local air agencies, one of the challenges with low-cost sensors regards communication with community members to address the limitations and nonregulatory aspects of low-cost air sensors.⁵⁶ This raises questions about how low-cost air sensors and their air quality data are perceived and used by the public.

I thank the committee for its time. I am available to answer any questions you may have about these technologies and their implementation. CRS can assist with any additional research and analysis regarding this issue.

⁵⁴ The National Wildfire Coordinating Group (NWCG) defines *wildland fire* as any nonstructured fire that occurs in vegetation or natural fuels, including prescribed fire and wildfire. NWCG defines *wildfire* as a wildland fire originating from an unplanned ignition, including unauthorized human-caused fires, escaped prescribed fire projects, and all other wildland fires where the objective is to put out the fire. See NWCG, "Glossary of Wildland Fire Terminology," <https://www.nwcg.gov/glossary/a-z>.

⁵⁵ Interagency Wildland Fire Air Quality Response Program (IWFAQRP) was founded by the U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) Forest Service delivers information to people in areas affected by wildland fire smoke. For more information, see USDA Forest Service, "A Continued Success: The U.S. Interagency Wildland Fire Air Quality Response Program," <https://www.fs.usda.gov/research/news/highlights/continued-success-u.s.-interagency-wildland-fire-air-quality-response-program#partnerships>. For further information on IWFAQRP smoke monitoring program, see IWFAQRP, "Smoke Monitoring," <https://www.wildlandfiresmoke.net/home/smoke-monitoring>. Additionally, EPA, with five other federal agencies, established a wildfire sensor challenge. For more information and a list of winning sensors, see EPA, "Winners of the Wildland Fire Sensors Challenge Develop Air Monitoring System Prototypes," <https://www.epa.gov/air-research/winners-wildland-fire-sensors-challenge-develop-air-monitoring-system-prototypes#about>.

⁵⁶ EPA says it recognizes the need for context and guidance related to the interpretation of real-time, nonregulatory sensor data and that the agency will likely be asked to use or respond to streams of nonregulatory data. For more information, see EPA, "Memorandum on use of air sensor data for NAAQS compliance," <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/memorandum-use-air-sensor-data-naaqs-compliance>.



MEMORANDUM

May 8, 2024

To:**From:** Omar M. Hammad, Analyst in Environmental Policy, ohammad@crs.loc.gov, 7-1563**Subject:** **Hearing Entitled “Examining the State of Air Quality Monitoring Technology”
Questions for the Record for Omar Hammad, Congressional Research Service**

On behalf of the Congressional Research Service (CRS), I would like to thank you for the opportunity to have testified before the Senate Committee on Environment and Public Works on Wednesday, April 10, 2024, at the hearing entitled “Examining the State of Air Quality Monitoring Technology.” On April 24, 2024, the Committee asked CRS to respond to questions submitted for the record pertaining to the CRS testimony to the Committee.

This memorandum is in response to the Committee questions and is being submitted for the record. If you need further assistance, please contact me at your convenience.

Chairman Carper:**1. Looking forward, where do you see low cost air quality sensor technologies five years from now, and how do you think they will be used by local and state governments?**

Advancements in technology, microprocessing capabilities, and miniaturization have led to an expansion in the availability of low-cost air sensors to measure a variety of air pollutants. As these sensors have become more readily available, they have been increasingly used for measuring air quality conditions and to provide additional low-cost air sensor datasets.¹ According to the U.S. Government Accountability Office (GAO), the use of low-cost air sensors is “increasing, driven in part by policy and public interest in air quality stemming from wildfire smoke, neighborhoods near pollution sources, and other concerns.”²

Looking forward, potential future uses of low-cost air quality sensors would likely depend on a range of factors, including the state of the technology and whether improvements have been made in the next five years. In addition, their continued or expanded uses may depend on any changes in the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency’s (EPA’s) assessment regarding their capabilities and whether EPA

¹ A. Clements et al., *The Enhanced Air Sensor Guidebook*, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), Washington, DC, 2022.

² U.S. Government Accountability Office (GAO), *Air Quality Sensors: Policy Options to Help Address Implementation Challenges*, GAO-24-106393, March 19, 2024, p. 1, <https://www.gao.gov/products/gao-24-106393>.

determines certain devices would meet the regulatory standards for monitoring.³ Other factors could include the degree of acceptance and understanding regarding their capabilities at the state and local level.

If stakeholders, including local and state governments, continue to use and expand the uses of low-cost air sensors, this may spur further developments. GAO noted stakeholders “would like to have sensors that can reliably measure particle composition or specific air toxics, given that EPA’s 2019 AirToxScreen identified many communities facing elevated health risks.”⁴ Also, the development of low-cost air sensor guidance to help users understand what steps they need to follow to produce actionable data may increase demand. GAO noted that “EPA acknowledged the need for guidance on interpreting sensor data in a way that provides meaningful information to the public; however, the Office of Inspector General stated that the agency had not implemented any guidance to help make community monitoring data more usable, as of September 2023.”⁵

2. Low-cost air sensors have been particularly useful for monitoring wildfire smoke in areas without regulatory monitors.

a. How does the federal government use low-cost sensors and their data to inform citizens about health risks from wildfires?

The Interagency Wildland Fire Air Quality Response Program (IWFAQRP) contributes to wildfire air quality monitoring and communication.⁶ Led by the U.S. Forest Service (USFS), this interagency program was created to address risks posed by wildland fire smoke.⁷ The program has a national cache of smoke monitoring equipment, including low-cost air sensors, and deploys technical specialists—Air Resource Advisors (ARAs)—during large smoke events.⁸ ARAs may provide, install, and operate low-cost air sensors, develop smoke forecasts, and share information with wildfire response teams, air quality regulators, and the public.⁹

³ Requirements related to network monitoring methods are in the appendixes to 40 C.F.R. Part 50. Requirements related to monitoring reference and equivalent methods are in 40 C.F.R. Part 53, “Ambient Air Monitoring Reference and Equivalent Methods.” EPA requires monitoring agencies to develop network assessments and annual monitoring network plans that include the information described in 40 C.F.R. Part 58, “Ambient Air Quality Surveillance.”

⁴ GAO, *Air Quality Sensors: Policy Options to Help Address Implementation Challenges*, GAO-24-106393, March 19, 2024, p. 14, <https://www.gao.gov/products/gao-24-106393>.

⁵ GAO, *Air Quality Sensors: Policy Options to Help Address Implementation Challenges*, GAO-24-106393, March 19, 2024, p. 28, <https://www.gao.gov/products/gao-24-106393>.

⁶ The Interagency Wildland Fire Air Quality Response Program (IWFAQRP) was founded by the U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) Forest Service. It delivers information to people in areas affected by wildland fire smoke. For more information, see USDA Forest Service, “A Continued Success: The U.S. Interagency Wildland Fire Air Quality Response Program,” <https://www.fs.usda.gov/research/news/highlights/continued-success-u.s.-interagency-wildland-fire-air-quality-response-program#partnerships>.

⁷ The National Wildfire Coordinating Group (NWCG) defines *wildland fire* as any nonstructured fire that occurs in vegetation or natural fuels, including prescribed fire and wildfire. NWCG defines *wildfire* as a wildland fire originating from an unplanned ignition, including unauthorized human-caused fires, escaped prescribed fire projects, and all other wildland fires where the objective is to put out the fire. See NWCG, “Glossary of Wildland Fire Terminology,” <https://www.nwcg.gov/glossary/a-z>.

⁸ For further information on the IWFAQRP smoke monitoring program, see IWFAQRP, “Smoke Monitoring,” <https://www.wildlandfiresmoke.net/home/smoke-monitoring>.

⁹ During 2018, more than 45 million people received daily smoke forecasts produced by air resource advisors in coordination with incident command teams. For more information, see USDA Forest Service, “A Continued Success: The U.S. Interagency Wildland Fire Air Quality Response Program,” <https://www.fs.usda.gov/research/news/highlights/continued-success-u.s.-interagency-wildland-fire-air-quality-response-program#partnerships>.

The need for real-time air quality information is critical during wildfires. The frequency of air quality reporting varies, depending on the equipment used. Also, permanent regulatory monitors may not be located near the areas affected by smoke. While temporary low-cost air sensors may be deployed, specialists also use computer modeling to estimate pollution levels.

EPA, USFS, other agencies, and stakeholders are exploring emerging technologies, including low-cost air sensors, to improve air quality monitoring during wildfire events. For example, the AirNow Sensor Data Pilot adds air pollution data from low-cost air sensors to the Fire and Smoke Map, which also uses regulatory monitors and satellite imagery to track smoke.¹⁰ EPA researchers developed a mathematical equation, called a “correction equation,” to adjust the low-cost air sensor data, making the data comparable to the regulatory monitors, giving the AirNow Fire and Smoke Map the ability to utilize crowdsourced data from nearly 13,000 low-cost air sensors.¹¹ Federal agencies caution that such data should be considered supplemental to existing resources, given uncertainties about the accuracy of the low-cost air sensor data.¹²

3. While low-cost sensors and their data cannot be used for federal regulatory purposes, sensors can be used to help local air regulators and communities address concentrated pollution, also known as “hotspots.”

a. How are communities and local air regulators using low-cost sensors to identify hotspots that need more resources from air and public health agencies?

Low-cost air sensors serve many purposes, including, but not limited to, providing the public with information on air quality, education, identifying an air pollutant of concern (e.g., hotspot identification), and conducting research.¹³ EPA noted that ambient air monitoring networks might not properly identify hotspots or community-level air pollution issues if no ambient air monitor is within the direct vicinity to properly characterize the possible air pollution issue.¹⁴

Some state and local air agencies contend that low-cost air sensors have been successfully used to supplement regulatory monitors and fill data gaps in air quality monitoring. The low-cost air sensors help decisionmakers address specific needs. Some air agencies have used low-cost air sensors to help identify hotspots and direct limited enforcement resources. For example, the Maryland Department of the

¹⁰ AirNow is a multiagency partnership that reports air quality based on monitoring data received on a regular basis from state, local, and federal agencies. For information on AirNow, see AirNow, “About AirNow,” <https://www.airnow.gov/about-airnow/>. For a list of participating agencies, see AirNow, “List of Partners,” <https://www.airnow.gov/partners/>. For more information on the AirNow Sensor Data Pilot, see AirNow, “May 5: Citizen Science & Sensors,” <https://www.airnow.gov/qaaw-2021/citizen-science-sensors/>. For more information on the AirNow Fire and Smoke Map, see AirNow, “Fire and Smoke Map,” <https://fire.airnow.gov/>.

¹¹ For more information on the use of low-cost air sensors for the AirNow Fire and Smoke Map, see EPA, “EPA Research Improves Air Quality Information for the Public on the AirNow Fire and Smoke Map,” <https://www.epa.gov/sciencematters/epa-research-improves-air-quality-information-public-airnow-fire-and-smoke-map>.

¹² AirNow, “Wildfire Smoke: A Guide for Public Health Officials,” <https://www.airnow.gov/publications/wildfire-smoke-guide/wildfire-smoke-a-guide-for-public-health-officials/>.

¹³ EPA defines a *hotspot* as “an area of localized, increased pollutant concentrations (e.g., a congested roadway intersection).” For more information, see A. Clements et al., *The Enhanced Air Sensor Guidebook*, EPA, Washington, DC, 2022.

¹⁴ According to EPA, low-cost air sensors could “be very useful in nonregulatory applications such as providing a better understanding of local air quality, helping in the siting of regulatory monitors, or identifying hot spots.” For more information, see EPA, “Memorandum on Use of Air Sensor Data for NAAQS Compliance,” <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/memorandum-use-air-sensor-data-naaqs-compliance>.

Environment developed a targeted inspection initiative in Cheverly, MD, where it deployed 22 low-cost air sensors throughout the community to help determine potential air pollution hotspots and what type of activities may be contributing to those hotspots.¹⁵

4. What are some of the ways that states and communities can collaborate in order to maximize the effectiveness of their respective air monitoring and public health responsibilities? For example, how can regulatory monitors be used to calibrate and confirm sensor data?

Regulatory air monitors need periodic checks to ensure they are functioning correctly. Federal, state, and local air agencies, which are responsible for operating regulatory monitors, routinely calibrate them using approved methods.¹⁶ Low-cost air sensors also need periodic checks and calibration, but often cannot be calibrated in the same way as a regulatory monitor. As an alternative, many low-cost air sensors are collocated or operated side-by-side with a regulatory monitor to see if they produce comparable data.¹⁷

States and local air agencies could collaborate with communities to help calibrate low-cost air sensors, train users, and assist community projects. GAO noted that some state and local air agencies struggle to accommodate increasing demands to train and assist community members, because they may not have dedicated funding to support community efforts or may not have enough staff to assist community low-cost air sensor projects.¹⁸

Additionally, states and communities could collaborate on better communication and the interpretation of real-time, low-cost air sensor data. According to state and local air agencies, one of the challenges with low-cost air sensors regards communication with community members to address the limitations and nonregulatory aspects of low-cost air sensors.¹⁹ This raises questions about how low-cost air sensors and their air quality data are perceived and used by the public.

¹⁵ For more information, see the Maryland Department of the Environment, “Cheverly Targeted Inspection Initiative,” <https://mde.maryland.gov/programs/Air/AirQualityCompliance/Pages/CheverlyTargetedInspectionInitiative.aspx>.

¹⁶ Requirements related to monitoring reference and equivalent methods are in 40 C.F.R. Part 53, “Ambient Air Monitoring Reference and Equivalent Methods.” EPA requires monitoring agencies to develop network assessments and annual monitoring network plans that include the information described in 40 C.F.R. Part 58, “Ambient Air Quality Surveillance.”

¹⁷ Collocation involves checking the performance of an air sensor(s) by placing it near or beside a reference instrument and operating them at the same time and place under real-world conditions. For more information, see A. Clements et al., *The Enhanced Air Sensor Guidebook*, EPA, Washington, DC, 2022.

¹⁸ GAO, *Air Quality Sensors: Policy Options to Help Address Implementation Challenges*, GAO-24-106393, March 19, 2024, p. 26, <https://www.gao.gov/products/gao-24-106393>.

¹⁹ EPA says it recognizes the need for context and guidance related to the interpretation of real-time, nonregulatory sensor data and that the agency will likely be asked to use or respond to streams of nonregulatory data. For more information, see EPA, “Memorandum on Use of Air Sensor Data for NAAQS Compliance,” <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/memorandum-use-air-sensor-data-naaqs-compliance>.

Senator CARPER. Mr. Hammad, we thank you for your testimony. We look forward to asking you some questions in a couple of minutes, but let us now turn to Mr. Obermann.

Mr. Obermann, please proceed. Welcome.

STATEMENT OF WILLIAM OBERMANN, AIR PROGRAM SUPERVISOR, DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC HEALTH AND ENVIRONMENT, CITY AND COUNTY OF DENVER

Mr. OBERMANN. Thank you. Good morning, Chairman Carper, Ranking Member Capito, and members of the committee and fellow panelists. My name is Bill Obermann, I go by Bill. I am an Air Program Supervisor at the Denver Department of Public Health and Environment.

I manage the Denver Love My Air Program, and it is a program that uses air quality sensors to generate real-time pollution measurements for the residents of Denver.

Denver has been in nonattainment of the EPA's standard for ozone since the early 1990's. Add in our population growth, wildfires, and the unique geography of our city up against the mountains, and you have a persistent ozone pollution issue, as well as other pollutants like PM 2.5, which is fine particulate matter 2.5 millionths of a meter in diameter, as you know.

Ozone and PM 2.5 drive our air quality index in Denver and the alert system that is then operated by the State. It is as common to check the air quality index and scan for air quality alerts as it is the weather on a typical summer day in Denver.

This is the context in which the Love My Air Program exists today. It is an example of how local governments are responding to educate the public about health and air quality. We take real-time data from our sensors and display it on TV screens in 33 Denver public schools. We also have a smartphone app and public website for any member of the public.

Our information is easy to consume and timely. For example, nurses use our information when caring for asthmatic children on high air pollution days. Our program started in the schools, and what we learned is the most responsive population were the nurses. It is best to use these trusted partners to help build more awareness around air quality and health. Today, we are expanding our program into three local health clinics, because they too are trusted partners in health.

Here we are at a pivotal point. Sensors are providing more information on air quality and the official air monitoring equipment by EPA in State agencies is also becoming more affordable and ready for real-time display. The big questions are, how can these monitoring technologies be used to improve health outcomes? From our perspective, there are two ways that Congress can help.

The first way is to direct EPA to establish how air quality monitoring data from programs like ours can be used to complement State analysis and decisions on where to further reduce air pollution, especially in ozone and PM 2.5 nonattainment areas.

EPA has been issuing guidance, as Mr. Hammad said, on how to operate sensor technologies and networks and performance testing of different sensor technologies, and all that assistance has been

very helpful. Denver corrects its sensor data using the State monitoring network and using some of those EPA protocols.

We agree with the GAO report that there is clearly an emerging need to take the next steps in clarifying how our data can be used in a regulatory context. This is even more relevant with the EPA's newly revised annual standard for PM 2.5.

Second, we need to understand how local air quality data captured near large industrial facilities, like refineries, can be used. EPA has guidance that details how this data needs to be collected so it can complement, but not replace, air monitoring conducted by State and Federal agencies.

Today, our air sensor data would not be considered high enough quality to use in an enforcement setting, and we agree with that conclusion. We use our data almost exclusively today as a public health education tool.

These monitoring technologies are constantly improving, and we will continue to get pressure from our residents on how to take action with this data in a regulatory context. We are only a few short years away from collecting high-quality data at a large scale in our neighborhoods and neighborhoods all over the Country, particularly those adjacent to industrial sources of air pollution.

I want to reiterate that EPA has been a great partner thus far by establishing data quality standards by publishing things like the Air Sensor Toolbox online available for everyone. We ask that the EPA continue to work directly with us and States to start to answer how sensor data can be used in air quality planning and assessing facility compliance.

EPA should continue to support the local level by providing monitoring equipment and even helping us install it on the ground and help us validate our data. The EPA resources could be increased here as more communities start to use this technology and more of them become available on the market.

Thank you for this opportunity to testify today. I look forward to your questions.

[The prepared statement of Mr. Obermann follows:]

Written Testimony of Bill Obermann
Air Program Supervisor
Denver Department of Public Health and Environment
On
“Examining the State of Air Quality Monitoring Technology”
Before the
Senate Committee on Environment and Public Works

April 10, 2024

Chairman Carper, Ranking Member Capito, and members of the Committee, thank you for the opportunity to testify on the topic of air quality monitoring technology today. My name is Bill Obermann, and I am the Air Program Supervisor of the “Love My Air” sensor-based air pollution program at the Denver Department of Public Health and Environment in Denver, Colorado. I have worked for Denver since 2019 and have seen our program grow from an initial grant-funded pilot to a full-fledged city-funded program with dozens of low-cost air monitoring sensors providing real-time air quality information and education to schools, community groups, and museums. This year, we are expanding our work to health clinics through a grant from the Kaiser Foundation Health Plan of Colorado. I am honored to lead such a unique program and we’re excited to bring our experience to you today.

The Air Pollution Context in Denver

Concerns about air quality have rapidly increased in the last 10 years. Now on a typical summer day in Denver, checking the daily Air Quality Index, or “AQI”, is as common as checking the weather. In fact, both the outdoor temperature and the AQI are combined into widely used weather smartphone apps.¹ The meteorologists at our local news channels discuss the weekly forecast and the daily AQI in the same morning segment.

Layer on top of that wildfires, and the public attention is at a fever pitch. The AQI as a public information tool becomes urgent during major wildfires affecting Denver. Nationally, six of the largest wildfires **ever** have occurred in the last seven years. One of those fires, the 2020 Bay Area Fire, at one point burned an area the size of Washington DC every 24 hours.²

The Response in Air Monitoring Technology

These new realities dramatically increase the need for public information on air quality and the market has responded by making air pollution monitoring data more affordable and accessible than ever. In the past ten years, many companies have emerged producing low-cost monitoring technologies that can monitor particle pollution as well as other pollutants (mostly those already regulated by EPA such as ozone, nitrogen dioxide, and carbon monoxide) and make that information available real-time. These “sensors” are so named to distinguish their technology from traditional “regulatory monitoring” systems

¹ A sample of popular smartphone apps with AQI data include [the Weather Channel](#), [AccuWeather](#), and [WeatherBug](#).

² 17 Largest Wildfires in US History: <https://earth.org/worst-wildfires-in-us-history/>

that are much more expensive to purchase, must conform to specific siting requirements, and require a great deal of expertise and power to run continuously and accurately. These more sophisticated monitoring systems have been used for decades by air pollution control agencies to assess compliance with the Clean Air Act's National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS). The NAAQS are standards for the ambient air concentrations of ozone, particulate matter, carbon monoxide, nitrogen dioxide, sulfur dioxide, and lead; in other words, the standards for key health-related pollutants in the air we all breathe.

Sensors are marketed to a wide variety of potential customers, including local, tribal, and state governments, neighborhood organizations, environmental nonprofits, and large industrial facilities as well as individual residents and homeowners. The needs of this customer base are very diverse, and therefore the specifications and features such as data quality and assurance vary widely. So do aspects like power requirements (many sensors are solar powered), cell data connectivity, data refresh speed, and how the data is displayed via apps or websites. Each organization has a distinct purpose or concern that underlies purchasing low-cost sensors, and therefore the market responds with an array of technologies.

Government has also responded in important and supportive ways, especially the EPA. The EPA's AirNow Fire and Smoke Map³ is the public go-to source of data on smoke conditions when major events impact large urban areas like San Francisco, New York City and Washington DC. The data used by EPA largely comes from low-cost air pollution monitoring technologies. Many low-cost air sensors are purchased by individual people and installed on their own properties, and the data is streamed and then collected and broadcast by agencies such as EPA.

Denver's Love My Air Program

Our public health department is responding with the Love My Air program. When this program launched in 2018 with the backing of a Bloomberg Cities Mayor's Challenge Grant⁴, we installed air quality sensors at 40 Denver Public Schools and displayed that information, real time, into school lobbies. At that time, the sensors and these communication approaches were new. The purpose of this grant was to improve student health outcomes, especially related to asthma, so we paired that installation with school-based outreach programming such as nurse and administrator trainings, in-classroom education, school community events, and offering air quality science curriculums. Today we continue to operate sensors at 33 schools and have expanded our programming into community and neighborhood groups as well as healthcare clinics.

The sensors provide real-time data on particulate matter with a diameter of 2.5 microns (one micron = one millionth of a meter), otherwise known as "PM2.5". This particulate matter is invisible to the naked eye but very impactful to public health because the particles themselves can be composed of many toxic chemicals and compounds (nitrates, sulfates, metals, organic chemicals, etc.), some of which are known carcinogens or negatively impact health. The primary sources of PM2.5 are combustion-related, such as vehicles, industrial boilers and heaters, home fireplaces, agricultural burning practices, and other

³ EPA's Fire and Smoke Map is available at: <https://fire.airnow.gov/>

⁴Bloomberg Cities Network. September 22, 2021. *How Denver is empowering students to take action on air quality.* <https://bloombergcities.ihp.edu/news/how-denver-empowering-students-take-action-air-quality>

anthropogenic combustion events.⁵ To a much lesser extent it is also composed of dust and other natural sources (e.g., pollen). Increasingly, PM2.5 is also emitted during wildfires, which can be transported thousands of miles.

When we breathe in PM2.5, the particulates are so small they can travel deep into our lungs and can even enter directly into the bloodstream. So PM2.5 is a concern not only for pulmonary issues like asthma and bronchitis, but also cardiovascular disease, such as cardiac arrhythmias and heart attacks, even premature death.⁶ We already know PM2.5 worldwide is a major issue related to premature death, but the more research investigates the impacts of PM2.5, the more we understand there is no “safe” level of PM2.5 and all levels of government need to be involved in monitoring this pollutant and implementing programs to reduce it.

How New Air Monitoring Approaches Benefit Public Health

A key lesson from implementing Love My Air in schools is that the most engaged parties were the school **nurses**. In some of our schools up to 25% of the student population presents asthma-like symptoms or have been diagnosed with asthma. Therefore, nurses are on the front lines with asthmatic students and provide emergency medical assistance when necessary.

Importantly, nurses are also an example of **trusted partners** in a child’s health and the community in general. Nurses find the data from our air sensors helpful in their daily care for children, and that use alone legitimizes our program.

Using this experience, we’ve learned to build and use trusted relationships to bring the Love My Air program to communities in Denver and beyond. Whether it is a nurse, a community-level organization, or a health-care clinic, we are more successful when we partner with individuals and organizations to bring awareness about air quality, how it impacts your health, and what you can do about it. There is much distrust of government organizations, especially in disadvantaged communities, so this link to trusted entities to introduce us and help form relationships is key.

Love My Air is headed in very exciting directions over the next two years. We are expanding our program into the healthcare setting by developing public health and air quality interactive kiosks for deployment in local community clinics, and we are frequently training nurses, teachers, administrators and community leaders about air pollution and public health. We purposefully take a small group approach to our outreach, focusing on the groups that want to engage and have a conversation. For example, we perform trainings with groups of nurses, host outreach events at public health-related events, employ teachers to train other teachers, and present air pollution trends from our monitoring network at community based nonprofit events. We also use some mass-communication approaches, such as our department’s Twitter and Facebook accounts to provide information about our program. Importantly, we do not use these accounts to push air quality alert notifications from our sensor network. It is the State’s responsibility to determine when there is an official public health alert due to air quality, and they do a

⁵ EPA. *What is PM, and how does it get into the air?*

<https://www.epa.gov/pm-pollution/particulate-matter-pm-basics#PM>

⁶ EPA. *Health and Environmental Effects of Particulate Matter (PM)*

<https://www.epa.gov/pm-pollution/health-and-environmental-effects-particulate-matter-pm>

very thorough job through social media and mainstream communications to push information on ozone alert days or other times when air quality conditions are poor. It has been and should remain the state's responsibility to issue these alerts.

In summary, our partners like the Colorado Department of Public Health and the Environment, the EPA and technology companies are broadcasting air quality data and real-time information to millions of people. Our fit as a public health department is to explain what this data means to people who care about it the most – particularly students, clinic patients, and health practitioners in Denver.

Emerging Monitoring Technology

It's key to note that the low-cost PM2.5 sensors Love My Air uses are not the only technology that is new in the evolving air pollution monitoring industry. We are also purchasing air quality monitors recently approved by EPA to provide high quality regulatory monitoring data, and for the first time they are priced reasonably. These monitors are distinctly different from our sensors because they are made by companies that have historically manufactured regulatory-grade monitors but now they have new, smaller instruments that can collect measurements at the same level of quality. For example, if the State of Colorado wanted to purchase these same smaller monitors to deploy in its regulatory monitoring network, they could. The main point is these monitors are available today at a fraction of the price they were only five years ago.

Recommendations for Action

1. Provide A Path to Turn Sensor Data into Regulatory Action

The next phase of monitoring through low-cost air sensor networks is understanding how the data can be used with regulatory-level monitoring data to act. Regardless of how the data is produced, there is an unprecedented level of air quality data being collected today. As a result, Denver and other local governments are being asked how this data is being used to improve air quality conditions, especially in neighborhoods disproportionately impacted by pollution.

The time is now for clearly communicating what level of data quality is acceptable for use in agency decision making and regulatory settings. This is especially pertinent for EPA and state-level air quality agencies since they hold the majority of the authority in regulating and enforcing air pollution limits at industrial facilities and ensuring that our ambient air quality standards are protected.

Our Love My Air program specialists and our stakeholders appreciate tremendously EPA's work thus far in evaluating sensor technologies, issuing testing protocols and performance targets for sensors, guidance on siting and installing sensors, and methods to correct sensor data by collocating and correcting data against higher quality ambient air monitoring data. Our program has been following these methods, and since it was one of the first in the nation, we also have been providing data and insight into these EPA tools for quite some time.

However, the biggest steps for EPA are yet to come. There are urgent needs to use sensor data to inform new policy and also to assess facility compliance. The conversation emerging is **how** to use sensor data in

air quality planning, especially for regions in nonattainment of federal air quality standards for ozone, particulate matter (PM2.5), and other pollutants. With the new annual PM2.5 standard just promulgated by the EPA,⁷ many urban areas like Denver will have a challenge meeting attainment, and PM2.5 is generally the most popular pollutant to measure with low-cost sensors.

An equally important next step is how to use this data to evaluate facility compliance against state or federal air rules, regulations, and permits. For example, are sensors accurate enough to use along a fence line as a basis for enforcement at an industrial facility? The answer today from EPA is no, but we know that, over time, the sensor technology will improve, and higher quality measurements will become more affordable.

The State of Colorado stands out here because our state has taken initial steps in requiring air quality monitoring from sensor technologies. In response to 2021 state legislation, the Colorado Air Quality Control Commission adopted new rules in May 2023 that establish requirements for large facilities to conduct enhanced air monitoring in communities disproportionately impacted by air pollution. The Colorado Department of Public Health and Environment is now in the early stages of implementing this rule. Discussions include evaluations of the available air monitoring technologies today, air monitor placement and operational requirements, data collection and transmission processes, and reporting and sharing requirements for air pollution data. This is one example of how air sensor technology is starting to be introduced into state-level stationary source air permitting processes, and EPA can learn from this experience.

To summarize, the two biggest needs we have from EPA in this space are:

- How high-quality air quality data collected by local governments that follows EPA guidance and/or protocols can be used in air quality planning, especially for ozone and PM2.5 in nonattainment areas; and
- How local air quality monitoring along facility fence lines and in adjacent neighborhoods can be used to augment air compliance oversight by local, state and federal agencies.

2. *Provide Air Monitoring Equipment and Software, Analysis, and Education Directly to Local Communities*

While sensor equipment is “low-cost” in comparison to regulatory grade monitoring instruments, implementing an air sensor network program is not cheap. The complexity of installing, maintaining, and operating sensors, as well as the large volume of data they produce, is a significant challenge and learning curve for most local governments and smaller organizations, especially in historically polluted, disadvantaged communities.

This is another area where EPA can provide significant assistance. Oftentimes the organizations that would benefit the most from air quality monitoring programs are organizations that will have a very steep learning curve in implementation. The typical EPA grant process competitively selects an organization to pilot a sensor program, awards a grant, establishes a contract, and then requires the

⁷ 89 FR 16202. *Reconsideration of the National Ambient Air Quality Standards for Particulate Matter*
<https://www.federalregister.gov/documents/2024/03/06/2024-02637/reconsideration-of-the-national-ambient-air-quality-standards-for-particulate-matter>

program to implement and report progress. In our experience, many of these grantees have never implemented an air monitoring program before. Therefore, even developing quality control plan around data collection is difficult, which is just one of the first steps in establishing a monitoring program. Siting the monitor, maintaining the equipment and power, analyzing the data, transmitting it real time, and educating the public are also all significant challenges. In response, these groups contract many of these needs to private firms, diverting much of the funding from building capacity at the local government or community level to paying for consulting and sensor technology companies.

A new alternative would be EPA staff, or their contracted consultants, providing and installing monitoring equipment and their supporting database systems at the local level and educating local agencies and community health groups on how to use the data. With this support would come technical staff to install the network, connect the database, clean and process data, and ensure the network is maintained over the project period. Staff would also be onsite to educate community partners on data analysis results and how it could be used to improve oversight, rules, or requirements on local air pollution sources.

This is a different model than the traditional grant model used by EPA today, where the administration of a federal grant can be a barrier to entry for many small governments and organizations. This is also a different model than many granted entities hiring consultants to implement a program once EPA awards funds. Instead of granting money to small organizations, a competitive selection process could select organizations for participation in this program, but these resources could be supplied by EPA through either staff or their contracted vendors, of whom EPA would have oversight.

The Bay Air Center is an emerging example of such a program. The Center is funded by the Bay Area Air Quality Management District in San Francisco. This service is free of charge and helps implement community monitoring programs by providing services such as cleaning and analyzing data, developing informational materials and reports, and hosting educational seminars and trainings for community members on air pollution science and policy. This type of assistance connects experts in air pollution directly with the community groups and health professionals that are using air sensors. It's a key bridge to strengthen the validity and impact of these programs. EPA could take from this example and provide these services as well as equipment, database management systems, and data validation services.

Conclusion

As I made clear in my opening statement, Denver's Love My Air program is fortunate to have dedicated city funding to hire staff and operate our sensor network. We pursue grants to supplement expansion, but our core program is city-funded and we are unique in that respect. My team is composed of education experts, public health graduates, and monitoring technology professionals. Denver is fortunate to have this dedicated team that I get to represent today. But most local governments do not have the resources to staff this kind of program, even though the need is there. I believe what I have outlined as potential roles for EPA can help make programs like Love My Air grow in other cities where the resources and expertise are not available.

Thank you for this opportunity to testify and I look forward to your questions.

Senate Committee on Environment and Public Works
Hearing Entitled “Examining the State of Air Quality Monitoring Technology”
April 10, 2024
Questions for the Record for Bill Obermann

Chairman Carper:

1. If other cities are interested in starting a program similar to the Love My Air program, to whom should they reach out in your program or elsewhere?

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 101 W. Colfax Ave, Suite 800
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 720-865-8952

2. If health clinics and school nurses in other jurisdictions were interested in learning about how to work with sensors, are there resources, in addition to your office, they could contact?

Yes, they can contact Jim Garcia at the Tepeyac Community Health Center:

Jim Garcia, MPA
 Chief Executive Officer and Founder
 Tepeyac Community Health Center
 Administration
 4725 High St.
 Denver, CO 80216

 720-274-2941
JGarcia@tepeyachealth.org
www.tepeyachealth.org

3. While low-cost sensors and their data cannot be used for federal regulatory purposes, sensors can be used to help local air regulators and communities address concentrated pollution, also known as “hotspots.”
 - a. Have low-cost sensors helped the city of Denver in identifying pollution hotspots? If so, how do they make such information “actionable?”

Denver does not use the PM2.5 network to detect real-time “hotspots” in an automatic or routine fashion and then alert the community about those incidents through our App or messaging efforts.

Denver’s primary use of the sensor network is to provide residents with real-time air pollution conditions near their location, whether or not the pollution is a “hotspot” in our network or not. Most of the time the air pollution is low, which is also displayed in our system.

If there is a high level of pollution at a particular location, a student viewing our TV monitor in a school or a nurse using our App near that location may see that information. But we do not scan our network continuously for hotspots and then alert community when we see a level above a threshold number.

That being said, we do know our PM2.5 sensor network can detect hotspot events. For example, in May 2022 there was a large fire at a metal recycling plant, and we were able to track this event clearly with our PM2.5 sensor network as the smoke plume traveled through many areas of the city where we have our school sensors installed. We have seen other events related to road construction, firework displays, and refinery upsets. But these are typically high pollution events in a localized area. Every day we see variation in our sensor network with PM2.5 concentrations across the city, but it’s not common to see large hotspot events with dramatically higher pollution concentrations in one section of the city versus others.

When we refer to our information being “actionable”, it is related to the health information we provide on days when air quality is poor. The poor air quality could be the result of localized activity, but much more commonly there are multiple neighborhoods experiencing high air pollution and several school sensors are sensing moderate or poor air quality. In this case, our TV displays and App provide actions individuals can take during periods of poor air quality to protect their health. These actions include limiting intense activity near busy roadways, limiting activity if you have asthma, adhering to local burning bans, considering indoor alternatives for recreation, stop idling your vehicle, etc. At a school-wide level, nurses use this information to pay close attention to students with asthma and administrators have limited outdoor activity in the past, but that is on a school-by-school basis.

4. Low-cost sensors help address the disproportionate burden borne by underserved communities. Communities that suffer from local air pollution are often exposed to not just one pollutant, but often to multiple pollutants from different sources, which results in cumulative health impacts.
 - a. How has your program been received in such communities in Denver and how have you and your colleagues reached out to engage and train them?

Denver works with numerous local nonprofit organizations in communities that experience poor air quality. Our program has been very well received because we help these

organizations teach community members about the impacts of poor air quality and how they can be involved to improve air quality rules and regulations. These community groups, like [Greenhouse Connections Center](#), [Cultivando](#), and [Black Parents United Foundation](#), frequently sponsor events to raise awareness about air pollution and other environmental concerns. We are invited to speak at these events, provide flyers, provide Spanish translation, and provide staff to answer questions and follow-up with resources. The real-time air sensor network builds awareness of air pollution and an opportunity to build deeper relationships with community members. In 2023, community groups mobilized for the first time as a registered party in an air quality rulemaking at the state level to advocate for stronger rules in their neighborhoods. They are very involved in the state legislature, and that will continue to increase. It's a long-term, multi-year process to improve air quality in these neighborhoods and we are supporting them with a city program that has full-time, dedicated staff.

The cumulative health impacts of multiple air pollutants are also an emerging theme in regulatory policy in Colorado. There are several state-level air quality rules recently adopted that use screening tools to determine if an area is cumulatively impacted by pollution. If the area is cumulatively impacted, tighter air pollution standards apply. The Love My Air program is installing and operating air pollution monitors that monitor multiple air pollutants (up to 9 different pollutants) in these neighborhoods cumulatively impacted by pollution. Denver will be a key local government understanding how to inform the public about multiple pollutant issues, and we hope to collaborate with public health research organizations to understand the health effects of multiple pollutants and advance new policy forward.

5. Looking forward, where do you see low-cost air quality sensor technologies five years from now, and how do you think they will be used by local and state governments?

Air quality monitoring technology is becoming more affordable and more available. Monitors (not just sensors) are even getting small enough to be solar powered, database systems can stream information very quickly, and Apps are emerging that can summarize this information instantly. So, the opportunity from a technology standpoint has arrived.

Five years from now, many more organizations, governments, and individual residents will be installing air monitoring equipment and streaming this information to the public. There is great need to understand how this data could be used all together to improve air rules, regulations, and enforcement. We also have federal air quality standards that are tightening the levels of pollution allowed in ambient air, particularly ozone and PM_{2.5}. So, as those rules get more stringent on what the levels of air pollution can be, more monitoring networks will be emerging to really know if an entire city is in compliance with those new standards. The State of Colorado's Department of Public Health and Environment is going to be pressured to use this data to ensure we are attaining national standards. They will need to provide guidance and standards on how multiple types of monitoring data can be used in a regulatory setting, either to trigger a closer look at a facility's compliance or develop new air quality rules and regulations.

6. Low-cost air sensors have been particularly useful for monitoring wildfire smoke in areas without regulatory monitors.
 - a. With wildfires becoming more frequent and damaging, how important is sensor technology in Western communities?

PM2.5 air sensors are hugely important for western communities. There is enough evidence to show the severity and size of wildfires will continue well into our future. In the last 6 years, our nation has experienced the largest wildfires ever. In 2020, the Bay Area fire in California burned the equivalent of the urban area of Washington DC in 24 hours. That alone shows the scale of wildfires, and the need for air pollution monitoring in western cities as well as rural areas.

This is a different scenario for sensors than how the Love My Air program uses this technology for general public health awareness or strengthening regulatory policy. In the case of wildfires, sensors are a critical mechanism to distribute alerts to limit activities outside or shut them down completely. In the LA region, schools use sensors to monitor air quality and if conditions are very poor, schools cancel outdoor activities and even cancel school. Sensors are already being used by local governments and school districts to make decisions based on the impacts of wildfire smoke. We expect this use to increase.

7. What gaps can sensor technology fill, including in rural areas?

Rural areas are another big opportunity for sensors. The requirements for where regulatory monitors are located have largely been left to the states, and Colorado prioritizes areas with high population and areas where air pollution problems exist (such as our ozone nonattainment area). They do have regulatory monitors in our rural areas, but only a handful.

The affordability of sensors could allow local governments and other organizations in rural areas to gather an indication of the air quality in their regions, especially if significant events occur such as wildfires, open agricultural burning, dust storms, or oil and gas activities (particularly construction of wellpads).

Much of the time the air quality in rural areas is very good, so sensors would be a better fit here for triggering local air quality alerts when air quality is poor or very poor. In the absence of a regulatory monitoring network, sensors could be used to alert the community of a poor air quality day, but only when the air quality is truly very poor. Regulatory monitoring networks are expensive to maintain and have complex siting and data verification protocols, which is why they cannot be installed everywhere in a dense network. But air sensors should not be relied upon to send alerts when air quality is moderate, like the regulatory monitoring network. Sensors are not accurate enough and should not be held to the same data quality standards. But they are accurate enough to send alerts when air quality is poor or very poor. If there are local burning activities, wildfires, or even emergency fires (e.g., a residential structural fire or fire at a commercial business), the sensor network could be of great value to communicate alerts.

Senator CARPER. You bet. Thanks again for joining us. Thanks for those words, and thanks for what you do with your life, serving our Country.

Mr. OBERMANN. Thank you.

Senator CARPER. We are now going to hear from Ms. Anne Austin, who is from Austin. I do not think we have ever had, in the years that I have been chairing, someone who has a name that just rings a bell like that. That is great.

We are happy you are here. Please feel free to go ahead with your statement, and we will ask some questions once you are finished. Thank you. Welcome.

STATEMENT OF ANNE AUSTIN, FORMER PRINCIPAL DEPUTY ASSISTANT ADMINISTRATOR FOR THE OFFICE OF AIR AND RADIATION, U.S. ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION AGENCY

Ms. AUSTIN. Chairman Carper, Ranking Member Capito, and members of the committee, thank you very much for the opportunity to testify on the topic of air quality monitoring technology. It is a pleasure to be with you here today and in such good company with my fellow panelists.

As you know, the U.S. has experienced dramatic progress in air quality in recent years, and these improvements have spanned Presidential Administrations and hold true for criteria air pollutants such as ozone and PM, greenhouse gases like CO₂ and methane, and hazardous air pollutants like formaldehyde and benzene.

As envisioned by Congress and embedded in the Clean Air Act, this progress is built on cooperative federalism between the USEPA and its State, local, and tribal partners, as well as a backbone of high quality, regulatory-grade monitors. It is important to note that as our air quality has improved, and while the NAAQS have become more stringent, the contribution of air pollution from forest fires and international transport have grown in significance. This makes a high-quality monitoring network and the ability of EPA and its State and local partners to provide regulatory relief through Clean Air Act tools like exceptional events even more important.

Consequently, nonattainment designations for areas that cannot meaningfully address the background, fire-related, or international contributions will not address the remaining air quality issues in our Country, and this raises the important issue of the current State of technology with respect to air monitors and sensors and where low-cost, portable air sensors fit into the picture.

As you know, EPA, State, local, and tribal partners have long relied on a robust monitoring network which complies with quality control and quality assurance measures and data quality specifications that conform to Federal reference methods and Federal equivalent methods used for regulatory purposes. These monitors are subject to Federal regulations, and in short, they are carefully tested, very carefully calibrated, and carefully maintained because of the important role the data generated from the monitoring networks plays in the regulatory decisionmaking at the local, State, tribal, and Federal levels.

The appeal of low-cost air sensors is readily understandable, as they are widely accessible to individuals, as well as interested parties. They are good tools with which to explore one's local environ-

ment and to learn more about air quality and perhaps may even have a role to play with respect to identifying local air quality issues that merit further monitoring and analysis by a regulatory agency.

However, and among other things, the personal air sensors lack quality control and quality assurance measures. They have not been subjected to the same rigorous FRM, Federal Reference Method, and FEM, Federal Equivalent Methods, testing and analysis, and they may have high levels of variability between the different instruments.

In short, they are certainly an air quality tool, and they have their place in that toolbox, but the technology has not yet been subjected to the same level of rigorous testing and analysis that the existing monitoring network has stood up to for years, albeit with its own shortcomings. Therefore, low-cost sensors may not quite be ready for prime time when it comes to being fully incorporated into the Clean Air Act required network utilized for agency regulatory, permitting attainment, and enforcement decisions.

Instead, it would be worthwhile to refocus our attention, energy, and resources to Clean Air Act programs focused on the most pressing air quality issues grounded in cooperative federalism and focused on a robust, high-quality regulatory monitoring network. For one, how Federal funds are directed via intergovernmental organizations and State and local and tribal agencies. All of those organizations have raised longstanding concerns about the relative lack of resources for building and maintaining that robust monitoring network for criteria and hazardous air pollutants.

Furthermore, EPA has repeatedly proposed to shift Federal resources for PM 2.5 monitoring to a different part of the Clean Air Act, which would limit Federal funds, require a 40 percent cost share for States, and potentially divert State and local resources from other priorities. Fortunately, these proposed shifts have yet to be implemented.

Third, you have also seen the reduction of key State, local, and tribal experts on EPA air quality programs and with respect to the science advisory boards. This should also be reversed to ensure that the proper perspective and leveraged expertise is provided when these decisions are being made at EPA.

Fourth, there is a significant need to address comparability issues between FRM and FEM standards to mitigate challenges for future PM NAAQS attainment designations. Fifth, as Ranking Member Capito highlighted, there is a clear and present need to address positive biases identified in the EPA's air quality system. This is critical, given the recently updated PM 2.5 primary standards and the tight timeline under which States much provide initial area designations and subsequently craft State implementation plans.

In conclusion, while personal air sensors can be useful tools to better understand our air quality, and they may be useful indicators, they are not dispositive. The existing air monitoring network which we rely upon for regulatory decisionmaking deserves our far greater focus, energy, and resources now and in the future.

Thank you for the opportunity to provide testimony, and I stand by for your questions.

[The prepared statement of Ms. Austin follows:]

**Written Testimony of Anne Austin,
Former Principal Deputy Assistant Administrator of the U.S.
Environmental Protection Agency's Office of Air and Radiation**

On

“Examining the State of Air Quality Monitoring Technology”

**Before the
Senate Committee on Environment and Public Works**

April 10, 2024

Chairman Carper, Ranking Member Capito, and members of the Committee, thank you for the opportunity to testify on the topic of air quality monitoring technology today. My name is Anne Austin and I am a former principal deputy assistant administrator for the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency's (EPA) Office of Air and Radiation. I also previously served as EPA's Region 6 Administrator and in the State of Texas at the Texas Commission on Environmental Quality and at the Texas General Land Office. Since leaving the public sector I have been a partner at Pillsbury Winthrop Shaw Pittman and now at Austin Legal and Public Affairs, practicing environmental law.

By way of background, the U.S. has experienced dramatic progress in air quality in recent years, and these improvements have taken place across Presidential administrations and hold true for traditional, “criteria” pollutants like ozone and particulate matter, greenhouse gases like CO₂ and methane, and hazardous air pollutants like formaldehyde and benzene. As envisioned by Congress, and embedded in the Clean Air Act, this progress is built on a cooperative federalist model between U.S. EPA and its state, local, and tribal partners as well as a backbone of high quality, regulatory-grade monitors.

As a result, the U.S. has among the lowest population-weighted fine particulate matter levels in the world, over five times less than the global average or concentrations in China (and more than 30 percent below levels in France and Germany). According to EPA's most recent trend data (after removing monitors with data quality issues), fine particulate matter in the U.S. has dropped by 42 percent since the year 2000. Regional trends show that this progress has been driven by the Southeast, Ohio Valley, Midwest, and Northeast, with catastrophic wildfire contributions limiting improvements in the Northwest, Southwest, and Mountain West.

Furthermore, over the last two decades, human emissions of nitrogen oxides, a key precursor to particulate matter and ozone, have dropped by over 70 percent from over 25 million tons per year to below 8 million tons.

Lastly, from 2000 to 2021, the United States reduced energy-related carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions by 16 percent while experiencing a 38 percent increase in total energy

production, according to recent data from the U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA).

It is important to note that as our air quality has improved and national ambient air quality standards have been tightened, the contribution of air pollution from forest fires and international transport have grown in significance. This makes a high-quality monitoring network and the ability of EPA and its state/local partners to provide regulatory relief through Clean Air Act tools like Exceptional Events designations (section 316 of the Clean Air Act), international transport (section 179B), and rural transport areas (Section 182(h)) even more important. Consequently, “nonattainment” designations for areas that cannot meaningfully address the background, fire-related, or international contributions will not address remaining air quality issues in our country.

Which raises the important issue of the current state of technology with respect to air sensors and where low-cost, portable personal air sensors fit into the picture.

As you know, EPA, state, local, and tribal partners have long relied on a robust monitoring network which complies with quality control and quality assurance measures and data quality specifications that conform to the Federal Reference Method (FRM) and Federal Equivalent Method (FER) used for regulatory purposes. These monitors are subject to Section 103 of the Clean Air Act and Title 40, Part 53 of the Code of Federal Regulations. In short, they are carefully tested, calibrated, and maintained because of the important role the data generated from the monitoring network plays in regulatory decision-making at the local, state, tribal, and federal levels.

The appeal of low-cost, portable personal air sensors is readily understood, as they are widely accessible to individuals and interested parties. They are good tools with which to explore one’s local environment and learn more about air quality, and perhaps may have a role to play with respect to identifying local air quality issues that may merit further monitoring and analysis by a regulatory agency. However, among other things, the personal air sensors lack quality control and quality assurance measures, have not been subjected to rigorous FRM/FEM testing and analysis, and may have high levels of variability between instruments.

Given their deficiencies, do personal air sensors have a role to play as we strive to improve our air quality across the country? As any attorney would tell you, it depends.

Yes, they may help augment citizen science and may identify local air quality issues that merit greater attention and resources. But it is critical to note the significant limitations of personal air sensors. They are certainly a tool, and have their place in the toolbox, but the technology has not been subjected to the same level of rigorous testing and analysis that the existing monitoring network has stood up to for years, albeit with its own faults.

So no, personal air sensors may not be ready for “prime time” when it comes to being fully incorporated into the Clean Air Act-required network utilized for agency regulatory, attainment, and enforcement decisions. In the interest of time, I would like to refer those interested to the recent GAO report on *Air Quality Sensors: Policy*

Options to Help Address Implementation Challenges (March 2024) which ably lays out the weaknesses and strengths of the technology to date with response to personal air sensors.

Instead, it would be worthwhile to refocus our attention, energy, and resources to Clean Air Act programs focused on the most pressing air quality issues, grounded in cooperative federalism and a robust, high-quality regulatory monitoring network.

For one, intergovernmental organizations and state/local/tribal agencies have raised longstanding concerns about the relative lack of resources for building and maintaining a robust monitoring network for criteria pollutants and hazardous air pollutants.

For example, just last week, EPA Administrator Regan announced *\$20 billion* in taxpayer-funded grants to non-governmental and financial institutions under the Inflation Reduction Act's National Clean Investment Fund and Clean Communities Investment Accelerator. It is worth comparing these sums to the resources provided for core, high-grade regulatory monitoring networks overseen of state, local, and tribal agencies. In 2024, all state, local, and tribal air quality management grants – of which just a fraction is dedicated for air monitoring - for the entire U.S. were funded at less than \$275 million (pg. 1267-1269 of EPA's March 2024 F2025 Congressional Justifications).

In other words, each year, the primary state/local/tribal stewards of our critical air monitors received more than 75 times less federal money than these 20 financial institutions.

Furthermore, in some cases EPA has added monitoring requirements to local, state, and/or tribal entities without providing additional funds to manage and meet these requirements. For example, EPA has required that some state and local agencies implement enhanced monitoring of ozone and its precursors to improve understanding of ozone transport issues but has not provided additional funding to do so.

Second, EPA has also repeatedly proposed to shift federal resources for fine particulate matter monitoring to a different part of the Clean Air Act, which would limit federal funds and potentially divert state/local resources from other priorities. Fortunately, these proposed shifts have resulted in strong objections from intergovernmental organizations like the Environmental Council of the States and have not been implemented.

Third, the reduction of key state/local/tribal expert advisors for EPA air quality programs. For example, the Clean Air Scientific Advisory Committee (CASAC) was established by the Clean Air Act to provide critical advice to EPA on the NAAQS program including related to research efforts required “to appraise the adequacy and basis of existing, new, or revised” NAAQS, “the relative contribution to air pollution concentrations of natural as well as anthropogenic activity,” and “any adverse public health, welfare, social, economic, or energy effects which may results from various strategies for attainment and maintenance” of the NAAQS, with Congress recognizing

the need for advisors “representing State air pollution control agencies.” Through 2020, EPA’s 7-member CASAC included four state and local air quality experts. The current CASAC only includes a single member from a state, local, or tribal agency. As a result, EPA is missing key perspectives from experts with particular knowledge around air monitoring and NAAQS implementation.

Fourth, the need to address comparability issues between FRMS and FEMS to mitigate challenges for future PM NAAQS attainment designations. Agencies have struggled mightily, despite limited resources, to maintain FRM monitors to meet collocation requirements and in response to known concerns over significant differences observed in the data collected from collocated FRM and FEM monitors. This fundamental issue highlights the need for EPA to prioritize engagement and feedback from air agencies regarding historical data impacted by instrument bias. Additionally, EPA may want to strongly consider granting air agencies the authority to correct, qualify, or even exclude affected data before it is used to inform attainment designations.

And fifth, to address positive biases identified in the EPA’s Air Quality System (AQS). As you may know EPA has a Proposed Update for PM_{2.5} Data from T640/T640X PM Mass Monitors to retroactively apply the Network Data Alignment equation to all the hourly unaligned T6409 and T640X PM_{2.5} concentrations in the EPA’s Air Quality System (AQS) for data beginning in 2017. As highlighted in AAPCA comments (submitted 3/15/2024), “Approval of the FEM designation for these continuous monitors led to between six and seven years of data that needs bias corrected. Releasing the Network Data Alignment equation publicly will allow the agencies that operate these monitors to better review the changes to the data they manage and use to make regulatory decisions, develop SIPs, and inform local communities.”

In conclusion, while personal air sensors can be useful tools to better understand our air quality and perhaps even direct regulatory resources to areas of concern, the existing air monitoring network, which we rely upon for regulatory decision-making, deserves our far greater focus, energy, and resources now and in the future.

I thank the committee for the opportunity to provide my testimony and for its valuable time. I appreciate your consideration and remain available to answer your questions.

Senate Committee on Environment and Public Works
Hearing Entitled “Examining the State of Air Quality Monitoring Technology”
April 10, 2024
Questions for the Record for Anne Austin

Ranking Member Capito:

1. Effective and appropriate communication regarding the accuracy of monitoring data and potential limitations associated with technologies is essential when disseminating air quality information to the public. Air quality monitoring technologies vary in accuracy and quality and, according to the Government Accountability Office and witness testimony from the hearing, low-cost sensors are generally less accurate than Federal Reference Monitors and Federal Equivalent Monitors.
 - a. What potential negative side effects might state agencies face, with regard to risk-communication or public trust, that result from third-party groups or municipalities publishing inaccurate monitoring data?

Warren Buffett is attributed with saying, “It takes twenty years to build a reputation and five minutes to ruin it.” This axiom certainly holds true for the public sector, which is why it is crucial for state agencies to maintain a strong level of trust and confidence when it comes to their vital responsibility to provide unbiased, timely, and technically robust information to the public. This responsibility requires significant resources (i.e. budget allocations, staff time, planning, etc.) and thoughtful engagement with the public, which is deliberately built and fostered over time.

If third-party groups or municipalities (i.e. not authorized regulatory entities) publish inaccurate monitoring data, a state regulatory entity is placed between a rock and hard place. At a minimum, the public will expect the agency to provide an informed, timely response to the question(s) that arise under the circumstances. This can be very challenging if the agency is without fundamental information related to the air sensor technology used against the regulatory monitors, such as the following:

1. How sophisticated is the sensor technology?
2. Where was the sensor sited and why? Was it sited to manufacturer specifications?
3. Is the sensor data format comparable to the monitor data format?
4. Is the sensor metadata available to account for environmental conditions or correction factors?
5. Was it calibrated properly? Was it calibrated recently?

Furthermore, this tricky risk-communication situation may be further negatively compounded if the discrepancies between the sensor and monitor data sets are notable. Either way, agencies are then balancing the need to fulfil their ongoing regulatory and operational obligations while simultaneously addressing the ever-moving risk-communication targets. Over time, a state agency runs the risk that the public’s trust and confidence in it may erode.

- b. What actions can the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) take to ensure public confidence in the air quality information provided by state agencies?

First, EPA can address the misallocation of resources to state, local, and tribal partners. For example, intergovernmental organizations and state/local/tribal agencies have raised longstanding concerns about

the relative lack of resources for building and maintaining a robust monitoring network for criteria pollutants and hazardous air pollutants. The recent massive influx of grants and other extramural funds for climate and community monitoring under the Inflation Reduction Act, bipartisan infrastructure law, and American Rescue Plan underscores the failure to prioritize these foundational air quality investments with EPA's key governmental partners.

In addition to raising concerns about waste, fraud, and abuse around these enormous sums of taxpayer resources going to entities with little track record as stewards of federal monies, these decisions represent a missed opportunity to fully support trusted EPA partners in a manner that could more directly address the air quality and health concerns of the American people.

EPA has also repeatedly proposed to shift federal resources for fine particulate matter monitoring to a different part of the Clean Air Act, which would limit federal funds and potentially divert state/local resources from other priorities. Fortunately, these proposed shifts have resulted in strong objections from intergovernmental organizations like the Environmental Council of the States and have not been implemented.

Ranking Member Capito's broader question and the issue of resource allocation also applies to the questions posed by Senator Kelly (AZ) during the Committee hearing; specifically what types of costs are associated with developing regional airshed models and why modeling for ozone pollution is so challenging? To be comprehensive in my response to Senator Kelly, I contacted Dr. Jim Boylan (Air Protection Branch Chief at the George Environmental Protection Department), who shared the following:

Regional Airshed Models

Regional airshed models typically are not "developed" (i.e., writing of the computer code behind the model) by the end users (e.g., state air pollution control agencies). Instead, most users run regional airshed models (e.g., CAMx and CMAQ) that are developed by others (including EPA) and are available to download at no cost. However, there can be significant costs associated with developing modeling scenarios with a regional airshed model. Developing modeling scenarios typically includes the following steps: (1) download the model and associated libraries, (2) set-up the model inputs (often, over 10 TB of data), (3) run the model, and (4) analyze the results for base year and control scenarios. The cost associated with running the regional airshed models can be broken down into two categories: (1) employee work hours and (2) computer resources.

The first cost category is full-time employee (FTE) work hours for the modelers performing the model simulations. Regional airshed modelers are hard to train, and training takes a long time. That's why many regional airshed modelers in the field have a M.S. and/or Ph.D. degree and performed regional airshed modeling in graduate school. Salaries for modelers range from \$75,000 - \$150,000/year depending on the employer and modeling experience. The number of FTEs required will depend on the scope of the modeling project and the number of modeling runs required. A typical modeling project might look at a base year simulation and ten control strategy simulations. While each model simulation might take 1-2 months to run, most of the modeler's time is spent setting up the model inputs and more importantly, analyzing the results of the model scenarios. This example would require two FTEs for twelve months (salary cost of \$150,000 - \$300,000 per year).

The second cost category is computing resources. While computing power has improved, air quality models have become more complex each year. Therefore, the use of computing resources has increased. Modelers can purchase in-house computer servers or use cloud computing services. Currently, the use of cloud computing services is typically more economical than purchasing in-house servers. To run the modeling scenarios described above on the cloud computing services, the cost would be approximately \$100,000 per year.

Modeling Ozone Pollution

Modeling ozone pollution is challenging in several ways. Photochemical models used to simulate ozone solve the atmospheric diffusion equation, which is a partial differential equation that accounts for emissions, advection (wind speed and wind direction), diffusion, chemistry (formation and destruction), and deposition (wet and dry). In order to perform an annual simulation on the Eastern U.S. with 12x12 km grids, 25 vertical layers, and 100 pollutants, the computer would need to solve 5.7 trillion partial differential equations: $(269 * 242 \text{ horizontal grid cells}) \times (25 \text{ vertical layers}) \times (100 \text{ pollutants}) \times (4 \text{ time step/hour}) \times (24 \text{ hours/day}) \times (365 \text{ days/year})$. As a result, a single annual simulation can take 1-2 months to complete.

In addition to the time it takes to set-up and run the model, there are a number of challenges related to analysis of the modeling results:

1. Ozone is a secondary pollutant which means it is not directly emitted into the atmosphere. Instead, it is formed through complex photochemical reactions that involve nitrogen oxides (NOx) and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) in the presence of sunlight and other ozone-conducive conditions such as low winds, high temperatures, and low humidity. In addition, ozone interacts with other pollutants, such as PM_{2.5} and PM_{2.5} precursors. This means that the model requires a comprehensive representation of atmospheric chemistry, including ozone and PM_{2.5}. However, due to various limitations, such as computational resources, ozone and PM_{2.5} formation in a model is often simplified leading to high levels of uncertainty.
2. Ozone formation varies in space and time due to non-linear chemistry. Depending on the abundance of ozone precursors, ozone concentrations may not be reduced even if one of the precursors is reduced. In fact, there are situations where reducing NOx can increase ambient ozone concentrations.
3. In many areas, background ozone contributes a large portion (i.e., more than 50%) of the total ozone concentrations. The background ozone contributions are usually due to international sources, regional sources that are outside the area's jurisdiction, and stratospheric ozone intrusion. In ozone modeling, accounting for these background sources is critical. However, accurately modeling all these sources are challenging because ozone and the precursor emissions from these sources are not fully understood and can be transported long distances (e.g., Canada and Mexico) leading to large uncertainties.
4. Many processes, such as meteorology and emissions, are involved in ozone modeling. Sometimes, the contribution from one process can be underestimated while the contribution from another process can be overestimated. Consequently, these compensating errors may result in modeled ozone concentrations that match observations. However, control strategy results based on a model that contains compensating errors can result in policy decisions that will not work when applied in the real world.

Second, there has been an evisceration of key state/local/tribal expert advisors for EPA air quality programs, a practice that should be reversed immediately. Unfortunately, as part of Administrator Regan's "reset" of key EPA scientific advisory bodies, the Agency has lost expert state, local, and tribal advice to inform its Clean Air Act standard-setting, monitoring, and implementation.

For example, the Clean Air Scientific Advisory Committee (CASAC) was established by the Clean Air Act to provide critical advice to EPA on the NAAQS program including related to research efforts required "to appraise the adequacy and basis of existing, new, or revised" NAAQS, "the relative contribution to air pollution concentrations of natural as well as anthropogenic activity," and "any adverse public health, welfare, social, economic, or energy effects which may result from various strategies for attainment and maintenance" of the NAAQS, with Congress recognizing the need for advisors "representing State air pollution control agencies." Through 2020, EPA's 7-member CASAC included four state and local air quality experts. Unfortunately, the current CASAC only includes a single member from a state, local, or tribal agency. As a result, EPA is missing key perspectives from experts with particular knowledge around monitoring and NAAQS implementation.

In May 2023, Dr. Jim Boylan, the head of air quality for the state of Georgia and a member of CASAC through last year, raised concerns that CASAC lacked balanced perspectives and that "EPA should make a conscious decision to appoint CASAC members and panel members with a balance of positions and broad perspectives from a variety of backgrounds, including additional representatives from state/local air pollution control agencies and industry. While it is nice to try to achieve unanimous consensus, it is even more important to include a fair balance of scientific viewpoints so that the Administrator can make an unbiased and informed decision on the adequacy of the standards."

Third, EPA should stop utilizing precautionary risk values outside of a transparent regulatory framework, which creates considerable challenges for state, local, and tribal entities. Unfortunately, EPA has recently moved in the direction of relying on extremely low toxicity values for key chemicals and pollutants, often below ambient background levels or the levels of detection for the most advanced monitoring technology, as the basis for Agency actions and often outside of an open notice-and-comment regulatory process. In addition to diverting EPA, state, and local resources from important priorities, these actions have undermined confidence in cooperative risk communication and resulted in heavy-handed actions that lack stakeholder buy-in that results from the robust monitoring and regulatory process that should be the goal of the Agency.

For example, EPA's Integrated Risk Information System (IRIS), a program established by EPA in the 1980s but never authorized by Congress, generates hazard and dose-response assessments of chemicals as a basis for future regulatory actions. However, despite significant criticism from states, unimplemented recommendations from the Government Accountability Office, rejection of its assessments as not being "best available science" by other parts of EPA, and peer review concerns from bodies like the National Academy of Sciences for the program, EPA is increasingly using the resulting toxicity values from IRIS as the primary basis for Agency action.

Recent IRIS assessments of chloroprene, ethylene oxide, and formaldehyde, which suggest toxicity values at or below background levels or below detection limits, have driven EPA emergency actions under Section 303 of the Clean Air Act, claims that Louisiana is in violation of Title VI of the 164 Civil Rights Act, determinations under the Toxic Substances Control Act that could result in bans or

unachievable workplace standards, and EPA pressure to shutter medical sterilization facilities during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Additionally, EPA's changes to risk evaluation and risk management rules for priority existing chemicals under the Toxic Substances Control Act pose additional challenges. While the Assistant Administrator of EPA's Chemicals Office testified to this Committee in late January that the Agency would not establish "existing chemical exposure limits" that were below background levels or that could not be achieved, the proposed or final occupational standards for every chemical reviewed since 2000 has resulted in standards that are: at or near background levels; below detection limits for monitoring; and tens-to-thousands of times more stringent than equivalent standards overseen by OSHA or the European Union. For example, EPA's March 15, 2024 draft risk evaluation of formaldehyde establishes a potential workplace standard of 11 parts per billion, a value that is, according to the American Chemistry Council, "30 times below the recently updated European Union occupational limits of 300 parts per billion, lower than levels that can be detected, and below levels measured in ambient urban air and U.S. residences."

2. The EPA's soon-to-be finalized rulemaking pursuant to the Inflation Reduction Act's (IRA) methane tax, *Greenhouse Gas Reporting Rule: Revisions and Confidentiality Determinations for Petroleum and Natural Gas Systems* (40 CFR 98 subpart W), largely does not allow for the use of advanced methane monitoring technologies despite explicit direction in the IRA. How can EPA ensure that the subpart W revisions incentivize innovation and investment in advanced methane monitoring technology?

EPA can build upon the significant work done and information already gathered by EPA's Office of Air and Radiation (OAR) in the recently finalized Standards of Performance for New, Reconstructed, and Modified Sources and Emissions Guidelines for Existing Sources: Oil and Natural Gas Sector Climate Review. More specifically, the rulemaking solicited considerable input on alternative test methods and advanced technologies; and OAR's Air Emission Measurement Center (EMC) will soon launch a portal accepting applications for the Advanced Methane Detection Program under subpart OOOOb (40 CFR Part 60). In other words, further EPA action that incentivizes the development for new technologies and measurement methods would build upon existing interest and galvanize further research and development.

To that end, EPA could quickly issue an Advanced Notice of Proposed Rulemaking (ANPRM) that solicits information related to advanced measurement approaches (as discussed in the soon-to-be finalized rulemaking) and/or initiate Notice for Proposed Rulemaking (NPRM) addressing how advanced measurement approaches and technologies can be used for subpart W reporting. Either option would provide a strong signal to experts and stakeholders that EPA is serious about its interest to help incentivize further development of the technology and measurement approaches to quantify annual emissions. This commitment would be further demonstrated if an ANPRM and/or NPRM were included in the upcoming Spring or Fall 2024 Unified Agenda of Regulatory and Deregulatory Actions.

In short, there is no need for EPA to reinvent the wheel and there is every reason for the agency to encourage technological innovation that can be certified through an established EPA process to ensure high-quality data is being generated and relied upon.

Senator CARPER. Thanks very much.

I am going to telegraph my pitch. I am going to give you an idea of what I am going to ask next, but first, I am going to ask a question about FRM and FEM standards.

Before I do that, one of the things we try to do in this committee is look for consensus. Sometimes, it is not that hard to find. Other times, it is pretty hard and we have to work at it especially diligently.

The question I am going to ask you after I ask you to talk to us about it, FRM and FEM standards, the question I am going to ask you is where do you think there is agreement among the three of you? Where do you think there is agreement among the three of you and the relevant issues before us? Where do you think there is disagreement, and how might we reduce that disagreement?

First of all, Ms. Austin, FRM and FEM standards, not everybody knows what we are talking about. Just give us a quick primer.

Ms. AUSTIN. I would be happy to. Thank you for the question, Senator Carper.

FRM standards, the Federal Reference Method, is considered the gold standard by EPA as it relates to monitoring networks. Very rigorous testing and analysis is required for that label to be attached to a monitor. FEM is an equivalent method that EPA can also designate to monitoring technology when new ones come on-line and as technology continues to innovate.

Then, you have the more recent advent of the low-cost air sensors, which are not subject to those two types of federally recognized and required methods of analysis and data collection.

The FRMs and FEMs are standardized. The low-cost air sensors are not at that place yet, and quite frankly, understandably so. I think one thing that everybody on the panel could agree on is that technology innovation within this space is a good thing. We want to continue to innovate.

The better data, better technology that is at a lower cost is good for the public. It is good for the U.S. taxpayer. At the same time, rushing lower cost technology for the cost of something new does not necessarily put us in the right position from a regulatory standpoint to ensure that we have maintained that public trust and confidence that, when regulatory decisions are made, it is on correct data that is going to be durable.

I hope that helps.

Senator CARPER. It does.

Let me ask you the same question, just for your thoughts on this, Mr. Obermann, and then Mr. Hammad.

Mr. OBERMANN. Sure, thank you, Mr. Chairman.

I believe Ms. Austin is correct. We do have a problem with our air monitoring network, the regulatory monitoring network. It is in need of attention.

Our State programs maintaining these pieces of equipment, some of them decades old, there is need for funding there and attention, no doubt about it. We are on those monitoring locations co-locating our air sensors to ensure that our sensors are reading correctly. I see that equipment a lot in the field.

The need for those programs to be fully funded, especially as we are now in Denver and other cities looking very carefully at the

new annual PM 2.5 standards, those regulatory monitors will be depended on more than ever. I think there is some consensus there.

Are there other questions I can answer for you there?

Senator CARPER. No, that is good. Thank you.

Mr. Hammad, same issue. Anything you would like to add or take away?

Mr. HAMMAD. I will just say, according to EPA, the Federal reference methods are designed to provide the most fundamentally sound and scientifically defensible concentration measurements, so they serve as the basis of comparison upon which to judge all other measurements.

The FEMs are intended to use innovation and innovative technology to provide comparable levels of monitoring as FRMs. FRMs and FEMs will differ from low-cost air sensors because they will undergo technical and administrative reviews. A lot of quality assurance is going to go into them; a lot of testing is going to go into them.

Low-cost air sensors, there are no standard methods for testing, data collecting, or siting. They provide data that is non-uniform, non-standardized. Again, depending on who is using it and for what the data is being used, they could provide insights into further information that might be needed.

However, we do not differ in terms of what the FRMs and FEMs are meant to do and their use and benefits, and we can agree all on that.

Senator CARPER. How would you explain that to your grandmother if she was on this panel, sitting up here with us? Seriously, how would you explain it to your grandmother? Is your grandmother still alive?

Mr. HAMMAD. They passed away.

Senator CARPER. Well, that is too bad. They are listening.

Mr. HAMMAD. If I was going to explain it to my grandmothers, I would tell them that there is, for regulatory purposes, the government is going to use for their monitoring monitors that they have checked, double-checked, and triple-checked, assess the network, assess how they are laid out, assess how they collect the information. They co-locate monitors to make sure that they are operating the way they are supposed to operate. They make sure that the data they are getting from these are useful and accurate to a degree where, if there is something off, they can assess what is off and correct it, as well.

They have important uses and purposes. They last for decades. The information we get from them is a very important and reliable source of data.

Low-cost air sensors, like other emerging technologies, my grandmothers saw the advent of cell phones, and they saw how they came to be, but like all technology, with the advancements in micro processing and the miniaturization of data and technology, these low-cost air sensors have become smarter. They have become better tools to do what they are meant to do.

Senator CARPER. All right. Well, I am sure that your grandmothers are looking down and saying, that is our boy. Thank you for that response.

Now, Senator Capito.

Senator CAPITO. Thank you. My first question was going to be to Mr. Hammad, but I think you have already answered it, and that is the difference in the technology and quality. I think we have established that, on the Federal reference monitors, and then the portable low-cost. I think we pretty much understand what that is. It is a licensing thing; it is an accuracy thing.

I brought up, Ms. Austin, in my comments about the Teledyne. I am a bit confused, because everybody is saying that these low-cost air monitors are not being used in a regulatory environment. I have a map here that shows the regulatory monitors and then, in the blue, it has the Teledyne monitors, which are meant to augment, I think, what is going on with the regulatory monitors.

Are you telling me that these blue dots do not really have any effect in terms of finding data for regulatory purposes?

Ms. AUSTIN. My understanding is that they do, in fact, have and have been used for regulatory purposes. As I am sure you all know, the EPA recently proposed an update for the PM 2.5 data from T640 and T640-X PMS monitors manufactured by Teledyne, and have proposed to actually retroactively apply the network data alignment equation to all of the hourly, unaligned monitors in EPA's air quality system.

Senator CAPITO. Let me just stop you there.

Ms. AUSTIN. Sorry. Yes, it is a lot.

Senator CAPITO. Thinking about the grandmothers, and I am thinking, what that is saying is what I think I said in my opening statement, is that they have to recalibrate their data because it was inaccurate.

Ms. AUSTIN. Yes. That is correct, going back to 2017. The reason why that is so important is because, as you are looking at a NAAQS designation and whether or not an area falls in or out of attainment or stays in attainment is critical to States.

Senator CAPITO. Okay.

Ms. AUSTIN. The reason for that being, and if you do not mind, I will use the State of West Virginia as an example. As I understand it, you have some monitors that are showing that you have 9.1, 9.2 micrograms per cubic meter of PM concentration in different parts of the State.

Well, if those monitors are Teledyne monitors and are one of the two models that have been used and need to have that information retroactively corrected for the high positive biases that have been recorded over the past six to 7 years, that could make the difference, potentially, whether or not those areas fall into nonattainment or are considered attainment areas. That has subsequent regulatory and economic repercussions that could be rather significant.

Senator CAPITO. Right, right. Okay, so that is the point, is, and thank you for that clarification.

This concerns me, because as we see this NAAQS or the PM 2.5 moving down, those that are on the edge or close to the edge, it is going to have a big impact if there was inaccurate data. They will be correcting that. I think it does go to, it is going to impact regulatory. I do not think we can say that these low-cost monitors are impacting any regulatory data. Is that a true statement?

Ms. AUSTIN. Yes, I would say that they certainly inform. EPA would not go through the process of seeking to correct the data inaccuracies, which I think they do a very solid job laying out the rationale for making that correction.

Senator CAPITO. Right, thank you.

Mr. Obermann, what is the Denver, what is your particulate matter? Where are you measuring right now?

Mr. OBERMANN. Where are we measuring in our concentrations of PM 2.5?

Senator CAPITO. Yes.

Mr. OBERMANN. We are just below that 9 micrograms per, it depends on what years you are looking at.

Senator CAPITO. So, 8.9, or 8.5, or are you way below?

Mr. OBERMANN. No, we are, I would say, in between 8.5 and 9.

Senator CAPITO. Okay. What impacts is that going to have on Denver's ability to do new projects, economic development, manufacturing? Is this going to have some impacts on that as that moves down and you are close to the nonattainment area?

Mr. OBERMANN. There will certainly be much planning in process if we actually become nonattainment for PM 2.5. We do not have that clearly stated yet, that is not a formal declaration that has been made for the Denver area. It could be multiple counties. It depends on which counties would become non-attainment, potentially, for PM 2.5.

Would there be impacts to business in, say, Denver County if that happened? Yes. Yes, absolutely. There would be control technologies, most likely, that would be implemented at certain types of facilities that are high emitters of PM 2.5, and we would go through an extensive regulatory process at the State level, which we do today, it is why I know so much about it, with ozone, to bring reductions down, not only from industry, but also transportation from even other practices that generate air pollution that are not just at an industry.

Senator CAPITO. There are, agriculture, yes. Right, yes. Yes, I think that is a good point. This will have a lot of impacts on economic development, so we have to get accurate data, certainly at the minimum, accurate data.

When you were talking about your citizens' use of the index, I was thinking back to maybe 6 months ago when we had the Canadian wildfires. I was following every day what the index is on this, so I really see what the public health implications are to be able to access that.

I just pulled up the Weather Channel, actually, when we were talking, to see if they have it still on there since we are not in a crisis kind of thing. It is all right there, so you can see it.

Would those measurements be on a regulatory measure, or are those on low-cost measurers, or do we know?

Mr. OBERMANN. Yes, I appreciate that question. The air quality index that you are viewing through your smartphone, while I do not know exactly which one or app you are using, is most likely based on the regulatory monitoring network, the FEM-FRM network.

Senator CAPITO. It is? Yes.

Mr. OBERMANN. Love My Air, for example, in that city program, we do not push air quality alerts out to smartphone apps or anything like that.

Senator CAPITO. You do not?

Mr. OBERMANN. We do have our own AQI, Air Quality Index, generated for our school program, where when you walk in the school building, it is the conditions outside of the school that has an air sensor on it. Those students, that community, does see our AQI calculation, which is based on EPA's, but the mass communication of AQI and air quality alerts in Denver is all handled by the State, and that is based on their reference network.

Senator CAPITO. Yes, Okay. All right. Thank you.

Senator CARPER. You bet. We have been joined, as I am sure you noticed, by a couple of Senators who thought a lot about these issues and have been very much involved with them, particular Senator Markey. I will recognize you, and then Senator Padilla. Welcome. Thanks for joining us.

Senator MARKEY. Yes, thank you so much, Mr. Chairman. We are well into a new information era, but our air quality monitoring systems can be seen to be stuck in the stone age. Black, brown, low-income communities that live in the shadow of air pollution deserve better. They deserve to know what they are breathing, and they deserve to have regulators do something about it.

To tackle this problem, I introduced the Technology Assessment for Air Quality Management Act, cosponsored by 11 of my Senate colleagues, which would report on air quality monitors and sensors that provide a holistic understanding of local air pollutant measurements. It would also support additional staff at the Environmental Protection Agency who would provide accessible information advice and resources to communities about how to use air quality tools and, importantly, the data which they produce.

Mr. Obermann, do you agree that low-cost, local air quality sensors can complement regulatory monitors, finding pollution in fence line communities that these monitors might miss?

Mr. OBERMANN. Absolutely.

Senator MARKEY. Mr. Obermann, can this information be used to spur action that addresses air pollution in fence line communities and other pollution-burdened communities?

Mr. OBERMANN. Yes.

Senator MARKEY. Thank you. That information could support decisions to issue alerts to wear an N-95 mask, to use mass transit, to halt outdoor activities, all across the board. It could be used for that purpose, sir?

Mr. OBERMANN. Yes, I think it could be used for that purpose if we had more clarification and understanding with EPA on how to use that data for mass air quality alerts through the State's existing system.

Senator MARKEY. Yes. I would welcome my colleagues' support for my legislation to provide more access to and information on these important technologies. Just getting the information then requires a response to it, but we first have to have the information.

As the author of the Environmental Justice Air Quality Monitoring Act, last Congress, I fought for the inclusion of funding for air quality monitors and sensors in the Inflation Reduction Act, in-

cluding \$3 million just for low-income and disadvantaged communities. That funding is already being put to work with \$2.1 million heading to Massachusetts. I thank the Chairman for all his work on that issue. The Mystic River Watershed Association received \$500,000 for a new network of air quality monitors in Charlestown, East Boston, Everett, and my hometown of Malden.

I grew up breathing dirty air. I lived in an environmental sacrifice ward in Malden, Massachusetts, where there was just a big black cloud. The Malden River was completely polluted. The Malden River was three blocks from my house. My mother used to say, Eddie, whatever you do, do not swim in the Malden River, because it was kind of black with a pre-Jimi Hendrix purple haze over it. When your mother says do not swim in the Malden River, you know that you are not growing up on the Mississippi like Tom Sawyer.

Senator CARPER. Did you say purple haze?

Senator MARKEY. Purple haze.

Senator CARPER. Thank you.

Senator MARKEY. Thank you so much, and thank you for maybe actually being one of the only people who remember that great song, long ago and far away.

Mr. Obermann, in your experience, with Denver's Love My Air Program, was it important to have outcomes for communities beyond just a collection of data?

Mr. OBERMANN. Yes. I would say, in the future, we are looking at how this data can be used for more outcomes than just public health education and awareness, which is how we are using it today. A big reason we are only using it at that level today is, one, the sensor technology is not robust enough to bring it into a regulatory context, but that technology is improving. We are about to buy six high-quality monitors. They have come down in price dramatically.

They are FEM monitors, so they are that higher-grade of monitoring technology. Here we are in this city, able to buy them and deploy them. As we deploy those pieces of equipment at health clinics in front-line communities, we will absolutely be looking for how can this data be used in the policy and regulatory space.

Senator MARKEY. Thank you. Thank you, Mr. Obermann.

Thank you, Mr. Chairman. Thank you.

Senator CARPER. Thank you. Thanks for all of your work in these fields.

Before I turn to our next questions from Senator Padilla, I am going to ask unanimous consent to enter into the record materials on the differences between sensors and regulatory air quality monitors. Is there objection? Hearing none, so ordered.

[The referenced information follows:]



UNITED STATES ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION AGENCY
WASHINGTON, D.C. 20460

June 22, 2020

OFFICE OF
AIR AND RADIATION

MEMORANDUM

SUBJECT: Air Sensors
FROM: Anne L. Idsal
Principal Deputy Assistant Administrator
TO: EPA Regional Administrators
Regions I - X

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Anne L. Idsal", is written over the printed name and title of the sender.

PURPOSE:

The purpose of this memorandum is to address recent questions from state and local air agencies regarding EPA's position on the use of air sensor data for National Ambient Air Quality Standard (NAAQS) compliance and describe steps the Agency is taking to better understand the data quality, interpretation, and management of sensor data in the ambient environment.

DISCUSSION:

For NAAQS compliance, instruments, including sensors, must meet the applicable requirements in the Code of Federal Regulations (CFR) - Part(s) of Title 40, Protection of Environment or other state environmental regulations (see, e.g. 40 CFR Parts 50, 53, and 58). Technical requirements include detailed sampling, siting, and quality assurance requirements. Data from new air sensor instruments should not be used in a regulatory context at this time unless those instruments meet all applicable regulatory requirements. While such rigor is needed to ensure the quality of data used for policy making and regulatory decisions, we recognize that certain data streams may likely never meet these requirements but could still be very useful in non-regulatory applications such as providing a better understanding of local air quality, helping in the siting of regulatory monitors, or identifying hot spots. However, many data quality, data interpretation, and data management questions remain. To address these questions, EPA, states, tribes, and local air agencies have taken a collaborative approach in developing and implementing recommendations for advanced monitoring.

Through E-Enterprise for the Environment – a model for collaborative leadership among environmental co-regulators – EPA, state, and tribal representatives have identified three key areas of focus for air sensors: data quality; data interpretation; and data management. Each area is intended to address uncertainties in the current state of air sensor measurements and identify steps toward understanding new data streams in a systematic way. Uncertainties related to the key focus areas include, but are not limited to, the accuracy of measurements under various meteorological conditions, the appropriateness of data algorithm assumptions, how well real-time measurements meet basic data quality indicators of performance (e.g., precision, accuracy), how well a device performs over time, how to interpret short-term values, and data privacy and ownership issues.

In order to systematically characterize air sensor measurements, EPA is supporting research on sensor performance including the development of non-regulatory performance targets and testing protocols for supplemental and informational monitoring applications that complement – but do not replace – existing regulatory programs and requirements. These efforts are intended to provide regulators, outside parties, and the public alike with streamlined, unbiased assessments of sensor performance in the near-term and into the future.

Further, EPA recognizes the need for context and guidance related to the interpretation of real-time, non-regulatory sensor data. Communication of real-time information should be grounded in both health and measurement science. For example, while sensor data may indicate episodic spikes in pollutant concentrations, the health science often does not tell us what short term (e.g., one minute) exposures mean for an individual. To ensure that air sensor data can help meaningfully inform the public's ability to reduce potentially harmful exposure to poor air quality, EPA will continue to provide information on the interpretation and display of disparate datasets, recognizing that each pollutant will require individual considerations.

Finally, EPA recognizes that it will likely be asked to use or respond to streams of non-regulatory data. The Agency will continue to facilitate conversations with interested parties on the issues identified above as well others relating to data ownership, standardized data formats, information security, privacy, and proprietary algorithms.

The Agency remains committed to promoting innovation and advancing technology. EPA will take an agile approach in setting priorities, developing materials or programs, and working with partners to conduct the necessary research to ensure that current and future efforts support the continued understanding of new measurement and information technologies.



The Enhanced Air Sensor Guidebook



Office of Research and Development
Center for Environmental Measurement and Modeling

The Enhanced Air Sensor Guidebook

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Disclaimer

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

AAPCA	Association of Air Pollution Control Agencies
AMTIC	Ambient Monitoring Technology Information Center
API	Application Programming Interface
AQI	Air Quality Index
AQMD	Air Quality Management District
AQ-SPEC	Air Quality Sensor Performance Evaluation Center
AQS	Air Quality System
ATSDR	Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry
b	intercept
BC	black carbon
BTEX	benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene, and xylene
CAA	Clean Air Act
CARB	California Air Resources Board
CEMM	Center for Environmental Measurement and Modeling
CEN	European Committee for Standardization
CFR	Code of Federal Regulations
CH ₄	methane
cm ³	cubic centimeter
CO	carbon monoxide
CO ₂	carbon dioxide
CSN	Chemical Speciation Network
CV	coefficient of variation
°C	degrees Celsius
DIY	Do-it-Yourself
DMS	Data Management System
EC	electrochemical
EU	European Union
FAQs	Frequently Asked Questions
FEM	Federal Equivalent Method
FRM	Federal Reference Method
GPS	global positioning system
GMI	Global Methane Initiative
H ₂ S	hydrogen sulfide
HAPs	hazardous air pollutants
HEI	Health Effects Institute
Hg	mercury
ID	identification
IMPROVE	Interagency Monitoring of Protected Visual Environments
IQ	intelligence quotient
ISA	Integrated Science Assessment
IRIS	Integrated Risk Information System
IT	information technology
JRC	Joint Research Centre
LoRa	Low-power Wide Area Network
m	slope
MAE	mean absolute error
MBE	mean bias error
MEE	China Ministry of Ecology and Environment
MeHg	methylmercury
MOS	metal oxide sensors



N	number of data points
NAAQS	National Ambient Air Quality Standards
NACAA	National Association of Clean Air Agencies
NATTS	National Air Toxics Trends Stations
NCORE	National Core Multipollutant Monitoring Network
NH ₃	ammonia
NIOSH	National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health
NO ₂	nitrogen dioxide
NO _x	oxides of nitrogen
NSIM	non-regulatory supplemental and informational monitoring
NSRDB	National Solar Radiation Database
NTAA	National Tribal Air Association
OAQPS	Office of Air Quality Planning and Standards
ORD	Office of Research and Development
O ₃	ozone
PAHs	polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons
Pb	lead
PID	photoionization detector
PM	particulate matter
PM _{1.0}	particles with diameters generally less than 1.0 micrometers
PM _{2.5}	particles with diameters generally less than 2.5 micrometers; also called fine particulate matter or fine PM
PM ₁₀	particles with diameters generally less than 10 micrometers
ppb	parts per billion
ppm	parts per million
QA	quality assurance
QAAPP	Quality Assurance Project Plan
QC	quality control
R ²	coefficient of determination
RETIGO	REal Time GeOspatial Data Viewer
RH	relative humidity
RMSE	root mean square error
SD	standard deviation
SIP	State Implementation Plan
SLAMS	State and Local Air Monitoring Station
SO ₂	sulfur dioxide
SO _x	sulfur oxides or oxides of sulfur
SOP	standard operating procedure
T	temperature
tVOC	total volatile organic compounds
UFP	ultrafine particles; particles with diameters generally less than 0.1 micrometers
UL	Underwriters Laboratories
UV	ultraviolet
µg/m ³	micrograms per cubic meter
µm	micrometers
U.S.	United States
U.S. EPA	United States Environmental Protection Agency
USGS	United States Geological Survey
VOCs	volatile organic compounds
WHO	World Health Organization



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Executive Summary

In 2014, the United States Environmental Protection Agency (U.S. EPA) published the original *Air Sensor Guidebook* to help those interested in using sensors to collect air quality measurements and interpret sensor data. The Air Sensor Guidebook has been one of the most popular resources on the U.S. EPA's [Air Sensor Toolbox](#) website. The guidebook was intended to provide basic foundational knowledge on topics including:

- Background information on common air pollutants and air quality
- Selecting appropriate sensors for different applications
- Data quality considerations, and
- Sensor performance for different applications

The initial target audience for the *Air Sensor Guidebook* was limited to participatory scientists and sensor manufacturers/developers. Since 2014, the sensor user community has grown to include individuals, communities, schools, researchers, environmental agencies (e.g., air quality, environmental quality, natural resources, health), industry, medical professionals, emergency responders, technology developers, data integrators, and more.

Recognizing the ever-increasing availability of sensors, expanding scientific knowledge, and availability of best practices to support sensor use, the U.S. EPA significantly updated the 2014 Guidebook. The refreshed version, *The Enhanced Air Sensor Guidebook*, includes updated content and new topics that incorporate best practices, current knowledge, and recommendations on sensors.

The goal of the enhanced Guidebook is to support users in planning and collecting air quality measurements using air sensors. This Guidebook can help sensor users:

- Learn the basics of air quality, air pollution monitoring, and air sensors
- Plan and conduct an air quality monitoring study
- Select, setup, and use air sensors
- Analyze, interpret, communicate, and act on results
- Understand the basics of air sensor performance

The enhanced Guidebook also contains expanded resources and content in the Appendices including: 1) *General resources* (e.g., air quality information, air sensor performance, data analysis tools), 2) a list of '*Questions to Consider when Planning, Collecting, and Sharing Your Data*' to prepare sensor users for questions to expect from others, 3) *Checklists* for quickly determining how to select sensors, items to look for in a user manual, and maintaining air sensors, 4) information on *data handling* and the *Air Quality Index*, 5) education on *Interpreting Sensor Performance Evaluation Results*, and 6) a *glossary* of terms used in the guidebook.

While this guidebook may not exhaustively answer every question air sensor users may have, it is provided as a resource to help support the user community in effectively using this class of technology to support their air quality monitoring needs.





Chapter 1

Introduction to Air Sensors and the Guidebook

This new and expanded Air Sensor Guidebook empowers communities, environmental agency officials, researchers, students, educators, and others to plan for, select, and operate air sensors to meet specific needs.

This chapter provides:

- Background information about air sensors,
- Our purpose in providing this Enhanced Air Sensor Guidebook,
- Key differences between the 2014 Guidebook and this enhanced version, and
- The intended audience of the guidebook.

1.1 Background on Air Sensors

Air sensors are a class of non-regulatory technology that are lower in cost, portable, and generally easier to operate than monitors used for regulatory monitoring purposes. Air sensors and regulatory monitors differ in that regulatory monitors are the gold standard and are designed to meet strict performance requirements for use in regulatory monitoring. These differences are discussed in more detail in [Chapter 2](#).

Air sensors typically provide relatively quick or instant air pollutant concentration measurements and allow for measurement of air quality in more locations. The term air sensor often describes an integrated set of hardware and software that uses one or more sensing elements (sometimes called sensors or other terms) to detect or measure pollutant concentrations. Figure 1-1 shows the typical air sensor components, which vary from one manufacturer to another. Most air sensors include a power source, components to detect air pollutants and weather parameters, electronics to transmit data (e.g., cellular), and a microprocessor to control the devices. Some air sensors may include a battery, display screen, and a global positioning system (GPS) component to determine location. Sensors that transmit data may connect to cloud servers that store, process, and provide access to data. Additionally, data may be displayed on maps or graphical plots.

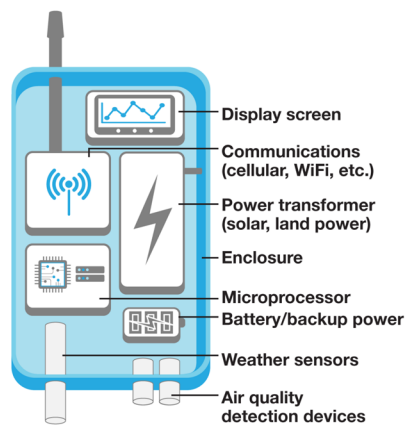


Figure 1-1. Typical Air Sensor Components

Advancements in microprocessors and miniaturization have led to a rapid expansion in the availability of air sensors to measure a variety of air pollutants. As air sensors have become more accessible worldwide, there has been a dramatic increase in their use for measuring air quality conditions and there is greater access to publicly available sensor data sets.

The United States Environmental Protection Agency (U.S. EPA) has identified that a primary use of air sensors is for non-regulatory supplemental and informational monitoring (NSIM) applications. Table 1-1 summarizes examples of these applications. Other potential applications for air sensors include mobile monitoring, personal exposure monitoring, indoor air monitoring, among others. [Figure 1-2](#) shows examples of how air sensors may be used for NSIM and other applications.

Table 1-1. Overview of Non-Regulatory Supplemental and Informational Monitoring Applications (NSIM) for Air Sensors

Category	Description	Common Examples
Spatiotemporal Variability	Characterizing a pollutant concentration over a geographic area and/or time. <i>Is pollution higher in the morning at a location?</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Daily trends • Gradient studies • Air quality forecasting • Participatory science* • Education
Comparison	Analyzing differences and/or similarities in air pollution characteristics against a threshold value or between different networks, locations, regions, time periods, etc. <i>Does a location show high pollution levels, but other locations do not?</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hotspot detection • Data fusion • Emergency response • Supplemental monitoring
Long-term Trend	Characterizing changes in pollutant concentrations over a long time. <i>How did pollution concentrations change at a location over a 5-year period?</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Long-term changes • Epidemiological studies • Model verification

*Participatory science is also referred to as citizen science, community science, volunteer monitoring, or public participation in scientific research (Source: <https://www.epa.gov/participatory-science>).



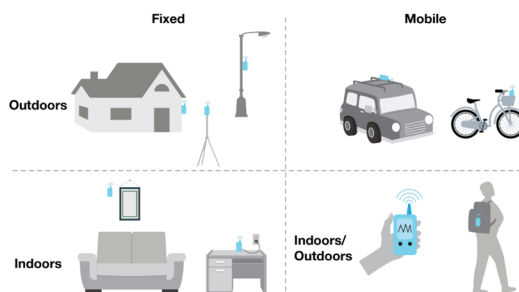


Figure 1-2. Examples of How Users Can Deploy Air Sensors

1.2 Purpose of this Enhanced Guidebook

This Guidebook provides information on air quality monitoring using air sensors. When sited, installed, configured, and operated properly, maintained carefully, and with thoughtful project planning, air sensors can provide useful information for a range of air quality applications. The purpose of this Guidebook is to provide information to those interested in using air sensors, including the basics of air quality, planning and conducting air monitoring, selecting air sensors, considerations for sensor performance, and more.

The Guidebook identifies the best practices for using air sensors and provides recommendations for planning and implementing a study to save time, effort, and money and ultimately help users collect useful data. This Guidebook also offers resources to help you with the many tasks needed to produce, correct, use, and interpret air sensor data, including sensor selection, operating procedures, illustrated figures, checklists, and links to external resources.

1.3 Differences Between the 2014 Guidebook and the Enhanced Version

This *Enhanced Air Sensor Guidebook* reflects information gathered from more recent studies, best practices, and scientific literature for rapidly evolving air sensor technologies that have become more available since U.S. EPA released the 2014 Guidebook. This Guidebook includes input from the air quality community, air quality agencies and experts, and U.S. EPA scientists and technical experts.

The U.S. EPA updated [Chapter 2](#) with the latest air quality and health science and expanded air monitoring network and instrument descriptions.

We added new topics or significantly updated existing Guidebook information to incorporate best practices, current knowledge, and recommendations as follows:

- **Monitoring Using Air Sensors ([Chapter 3](#))**
 - **Planning and Conducting an Air Quality Monitoring Study** identifies all tasks involved in monitoring air quality successfully.
 - **Determining the Purpose for Monitoring** helps develop an objective for monitoring and matching the air sensor technology to that objective.
- **Sensor Performance Guidance ([Chapter 4](#))** provides information about why sensor performance evaluations are necessary and how they are conducted, where results can be found, and how those results can be used to make informed purchasing decisions.

Changes to Appendices include:

- Expanded [Appendix A](#), which lists **Resources** including air quality information, sources of real-time and historical data, air sensor performance, data analysis tools, health effect resources, resources for educators, and economic impacts of air pollution.
- Expanded [Appendix B](#), which contains a list of **Questions to Consider when Planning, Collecting, and Sharing Your Data** to anticipate questions to expect from others. Answering these questions helps you plan, ensure credibility in your data and results, and allows others to use your data.
- Added the new [Appendix C](#) containing checklists for quickly determining 1) **What to Look for in an Air Sensor**, 2) **What to Look for in a User Manual**, and 3) **How to Maintain Air Sensors**.
- Added the new [Appendix D](#) to provide information on **Data Handling and Air Quality Index (AQI) Calculations**.
- Added the new [Appendix E](#) which provides education on **Interpreting Sensor Performance Evaluation Results**.
- Added the new [Appendix F](#) which is a **Glossary** of definitions for commonly used terms in *this document*.

Lastly, a [List of Abbreviations](#) is provided at the beginning of the document for easy reference.



1.4 Intended Audience

The target audience for the **2014 Air Sensor Guidebook** was primarily participatory scientists (i.e., citizen science, community science, volunteer monitoring, and public participation in scientific research) and sensor manufacturers/developers. Since 2014, air sensors are more available, and the number and types of applications continue to expand rapidly. The intended audience for this enhanced Guidebook includes participatory scientists, environmental agency officials, researchers, health professionals, emergency responders, technology developers, educators, and the public.

Resources for More Information

- **U.S. EPA's Air Sensor Toolbox**
 - Information and resources for topics related to air sensors; includes links to other organizations and resources that sensor users may find helpful
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox>





Chapter 2

Air Quality 101

Air quality is a complex subject as it involves emission of air pollutants, chemical and physical transformation of pollutants, and atmospheric conditions which can move or trap pollutants and affect the speed of chemical reactions. Air quality is measured in a variety of ways. The impacts of air quality on health and the environment vary based on concentration and pollutant type.

This chapter provides:

- Basic knowledge of outdoor air quality,
- Summary of the health and environmental impacts of select air pollutants,
- Overview of the different types of air quality monitoring approaches,
- A review of air quality regulations and indices, and
- Specific information about the Air Quality Index (AQI).

2.1 Overview of Outdoor Air Quality and Air Pollution

Air quality is a term used to describe how much pollution is present in the air (Figure 2-1). We care about air quality because air pollutants can affect our health and our environment. As indicated by the World Health Organization (WHO), air pollution is a leading cause of death. Several [scientific studies](#) (e.g., epidemiologic, exposure) link air pollution to a range of health problems including decreased lung function, aggravation of respiratory and cardiovascular diseases, increased asthma incidence and severity and premature mortality, among many other effects. In



Figure 2-1. Poor Versus Good Air Quality

addition to causing adverse health effects, air pollutants can also cause adverse environmental effects such as reduced visibility and damage to plant and animal life. Acidic pollutants deposited on the ground, predominantly from rain, harm both land and water ecology and even structures. Furthermore, some pollutants also affect the Earth's energy balance, impacting [global climate conditions](#). See [Section 2.2](#) for further discussion of health and environmental effects.

Air pollution consists of a complex mixture of different chemicals in the form of solid particles (in a range of sizes), liquid droplets, and gases. Air pollution is produced as a result of human-made (i.e., anthropogenic) and naturally occurring pollutant sources. Examples of anthropogenic sources include electricity-generating power plants, cars and trucks, and oil and gas production facilities. Natural pollutant sources include wildfires, dust storms, volcanic activity, and biogenic sources (e.g., plants, soils).

Some of these pollutants are short-lived in the atmosphere (i.e., hours to days), while others are long-lived (i.e., years). Like the weather, air quality changes from day to day, or even hour to hour. The amount of time that a particular pollutant remains in the atmosphere depends on its reactivity with other substances and its tendency to deposit on a surface (also called deposition). These factors are governed by the type of pollutant and weather conditions, including temperature, sunlight, precipitation, humidity, and wind speed. Strong winds can decrease concentrations by diluting or dispersing pollutants over a larger geographic area, whereas stagnant air (e.g., having no air flow) can lead to pollutant concentrations that gradually increase.

One of the most common causes of stagnant air is a temperature inversion, illustrated in Figure 2-2, which occurs when a layer of cooler air is trapped close to the ground by a layer of warmer air above. Inversions most commonly form overnight when clear skies allow air at the surface to cool faster than the air above. An inversion can last all day, or even for several days. When the air cannot rise, pollution at the surface is trapped and can accumulate, leading to higher concentrations of pollution near the surface.

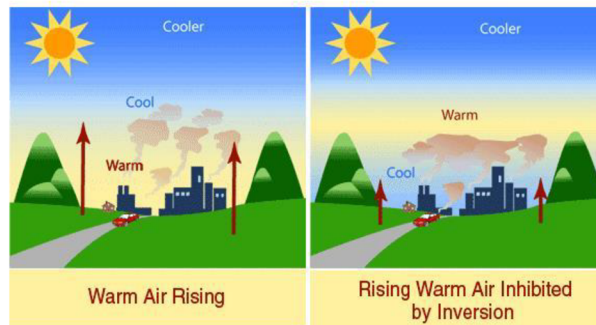


Figure 2-2. Typical Movement of Warm Air in the Atmosphere Versus Warm Air Trapped by a Temperature Inversion

Understanding how weather conditions can influence pollutant concentrations and measurement of pollution is important for gathering accurate information and interpreting trends in data. [Figure 2-3](#) summarizes how conditions in the atmosphere can impact pollutant concentrations.

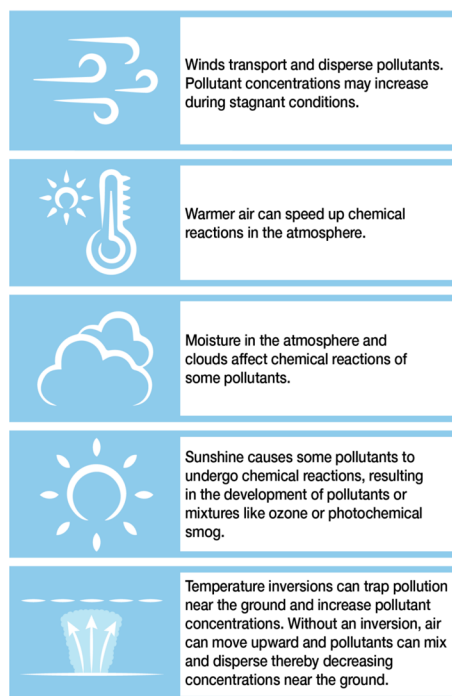


Figure 2-3. Atmospheric Conditions and Their Impacts on Pollutant Concentrations

Air pollutants are generally characterized as either primary or secondary pollutants, as shown in [Figure 2-4](#). **Primary pollutants** are emitted directly from a source. **Secondary pollutants** are formed in the atmosphere by chemical reactions after release from an emission source and, in the outdoor environment, are often found downwind from a source. Pollutant concentrations can vary significantly over space and time because of variations in local emissions, proximity to pollutant sources, chemical reactions, and weather conditions.

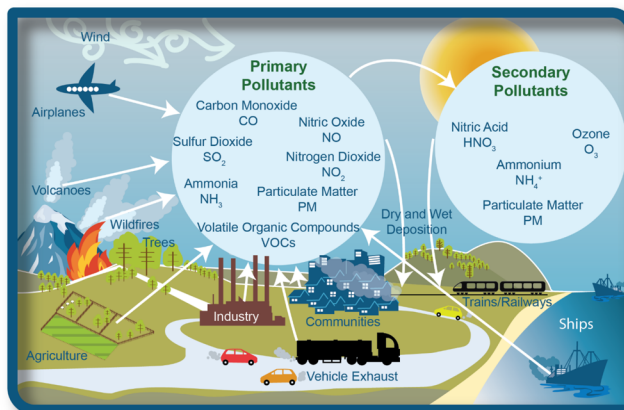


Figure 2-4. Sources of Primary and Secondary Pollutants (Adapted from: <https://www.mrgscience.com/ess-topic-63-photochemical-smog.html>)

Concentration is the metric for reporting the amount of a pollutant in the air and represents the weight or number of molecules of a pollutant in a volume of air. Common units include micrograms per cubic meter ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), parts per million (ppm), and parts per billion (ppb). Less common units include number of particles per cubic centimeter (#particles/ cm^3). For example, a concentration of $43 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ is the weight of 43 micrograms (a microgram is one millionth of a gram) per cubic meter of air, and parts per billion is the number of units of mass of a pollutant per 1 billion units of the total mass of the air. Units of $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ are often used for particulate matter (PM) pollution and ppm and ppb are often used for gaseous pollution.

Common pollutants of concern in outdoor air include PM (see Figure 2-5), ground-level ozone (O_3), sulfur dioxide (SO_2), nitrogen dioxide (NO_2), carbon monoxide (CO), lead (Pb), ammonia (NH_3), volatile organic compounds (VOCs), mercury (Hg), airborne particles, and more. Table 2-1 lists these and other common air pollutants, sources, and the range expected in the outdoor air. While PM can range in size, it is typically characterized into one of two groups: PM_{10} and $PM_{2.5}$. PM_{10} particles have diameters that are generally less than 10 micrometers (μm) while $PM_{2.5}$ (also called "fine particulate matter" or "fine PM") have diameters generally less than 2.5 μm (see Figure 2-5).

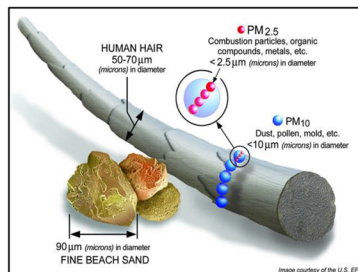


Figure 2-5. Particulate Matter Size Ranges

Table 2-1. Common Air Pollutants, Their Sources, and Concentration Ranges to Expect in Outdoor Air

Pollutant (Abbreviation)	Examples of Outdoor Sources	Typical Hourly Outdoor Concentration Range to Expect within the U.S.
Ammonia (NH_3)	Agriculture, animal husbandry, fertilizers, and mobile sources	0 to 3 $\mu g/m^3$
Benzene	Gasoline, evaporative losses from above-ground storage tanks, and mobile sources	0 to 7 $\mu g/m^3$ (0.03 to 2.3 ppb)
Black Carbon (BC)	Biomass burning and mobile sources	0 to 15 $\mu g/m^3$
Carbon Dioxide (CO_2)	Fuel combustion from electric utilities and mobile sources	350 to 600 ppm
Carbon Monoxide (CO)	Incomplete fuel combustion from mobile sources and industrial processes	0 to 0.3 ppm
Hydrogen Sulfide (H_2S)	Natural sources (e.g., volcanoes, hot springs, bacterial breakdown of organic matter) and industrial sources (e.g., refineries, natural gas plants, petrochemical plants, food processing, tanneries)	0 to 20 ppm

Pollutant (Abbreviation)	Examples of Outdoor Sources	Typical Hourly Outdoor Concentration Range to Expect within the U.S.
Lead (Pb)*	Smelting, aviation gasoline, waste incinerators, electric utilities, and lead-acid batteries	0 to 0.1 µg/m ³
Mercury (Hg)	Combustion of coal, oil, and wood	0.001 to 0.17 µg/m ³
Methane (CH ₄)	Industry (e.g., natural gas operations), agriculture, and waste management	1,500 to 2,000 ppb
Nitrogen Dioxide (NO ₂)*	Fuel combustion from mobile sources and electric utilities	0 to 50 ppb
Ozone (O ₃)*	Formed via ultraviolet (UV) radiation in sunlight and the presence of other key pollutants (e.g., nitrogen oxides, volatile organic compounds)	0 to 125 ppb
Particulate Matter (PM _{2.5})*	Fuel combustion (mobile sources, electric utilities, industrial processes), dust, agriculture, fires, and formation in the atmosphere due to chemical reactions	0 to 40 µg/m ³ (100 to 1,000 µg/m ³ near wildfires)
Particulate Matter (PM ₁₀)*	Dust (e.g., agriculture, roads, construction), brake/tire and engine wear from mobile sources, and fires	0 to 100 µg/m ³ (500 to 1,000* µg/m ³ in dust storms)
Sulfur Dioxide (SO ₂)*	Fuel combustion from electric utilities, refineries, and industrial processes	0 to 100 ppb (100 to 5,000 ppb near active volcanoes)
Ultrafine Particles (UFP)	Fuel combustion (mobile sources, industries), gasoline evaporation, and solvent usage	3,000 to 200,000 particles/cubic centimeter (cm ³)
Volatile Organic Compounds (VOCs)	Fuel combustion (mobile sources, industries), gasoline evaporation, solvents, and consumer products	5 to 100 µg/m ³

*Criteria pollutant regulated by the U.S. EPA (see [Section 2.4](#))



VOCs are not a single gas species but are comprised of thousands of chemicals. Total VOC (tVOC) measurement is an estimated concentration of several different VOC species. VOCs are commonly found in commercial products (e.g., paints, refrigerants, fuels), consumer products (e.g., cleaning supplies, deodorants, hair products), and used in industrial processes (e.g., chemical production, petroleum refining, fuel combustion) that evaporate into the air. VOCs occur [indoors and outdoors](#). Some common VOCs include:

What are mobile sources?

Mobile sources include vehicles on the road (i.e., on-road) like motorcycles, passenger cars and trucks, and commercial trucks and buses. Mobile sources also include vehicles not on roads (i.e., non-road) like excavators, aircraft, locomotives, marine vessels, other heavy equipment, recreation vehicles (e.g., snowmobiles, all-terrain vehicles), and small engines and tools (e.g., lawnmowers).

- **Benzene, Toluene, Ethylbenzene, and Xylene (BTEX)** are four VOCs that are normally grouped as they are often found together. The primary sources of BTEX are on-road and non-road gasoline vehicles and engines, petroleum transport/storage, and solvent usage.
- **Biogenic VOCs** are emissions created by some type of biological activity. Examples include emissions resulting from trees, vegetation, and microbial activity in soils. Emissions from biogenic sources can react in the atmosphere to form O₃ and PM pollutants.
- **Formaldehyde** is a colorless, flammable gas at room temperature that has a strong odor. [Formaldehyde](#) is a byproduct of combustion (e.g., emission gas stoves, kerosene space heaters, cigarette smoke). Some commercial products (e.g., glues, paints, building materials) also release formaldehyde.

Sometimes, concerns about new and emerging pollutants arise as researchers and scientists identify links with adverse health effects or environmental impacts. Some examples of emerging pollutants include:

- **Black carbon (BC)** is a type of particle produced from incomplete combustion and is emitted from sources such as diesel engines and wildfires. BC is almost entirely made of carbon and is strongly light absorbing. BC absorbs solar radiation and may lead to heating in the atmosphere (i.e., radiative forcing).
- **Methane (CH₄)**, the simplest hydrocarbon consisting of one carbon atom and four hydrogen atoms, accounts for approximately 10 percent of all U.S. greenhouse gas emissions from human activities, including leaks from natural gas systems and raising of livestock.



- Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs)** are a class of chemicals that occur naturally in coal, crude oil, and gasoline and diesel fuel. They are also produced by combustion of coal, oil, gas, wood, garbage, and tobacco, and by high-temperature cooking of meat and other foods. PAHs are a concern because they persist in the environment for long periods of time.

2.1.1 The Pollutant Lifecycle

After being emitted from a natural or anthropogenic source, air pollutants are transported in the atmosphere and can ultimately impact the environment and human population, as shown in [Figure 2-6](#). Many processes throughout this lifecycle can make it challenging to understand pollution and its sources.

While in the atmosphere, pollutants can undergo chemical reactions with other gases and particles. Atmospheric conditions can affect these chemical reactions (e.g., sunlight is needed to create O₃) and weather controls the movement and dispersion of pollutants from upwind locations (where air moves through before it goes over an area of interest) to downwind locations (where air goes after moving over an area of interest). Local geography can channel and direct the air pollutants to locations that can impact people and the environment. Eventually pollutants are removed from the atmosphere by deposition onto earth's surface or as people breathe in pollution. One of the biggest challenges in air quality monitoring is determining the origin of a measured pollutant, which requires an understanding of all factors—weather, atmospheric chemistry, and geography—that affected the pollutants on their journey from the original source to the measurement location.

What are the Typical Characteristics of Traffic Emissions?

Pollutants directly emitted from cars, trucks and other mobile sources are found in higher concentrations near major roads. Examples of directly emitted pollutants include PM, CO, oxides of nitrogen (NO_x), and benzene, though hundreds of chemicals are emitted by motor vehicles. Motor sources also emit compounds that lead to the formation of other pollutants in the atmosphere, such as NO₂, which is found in elevated concentrations near major roads, and O₃, which forms further downwind. Beyond vehicle tailpipe and evaporative emissions, roadway traffic also emits brake and tire debris and can throw road dust into the air. Individually and in combination, many of the pollutants found near roadways have been associated with adverse health effects.



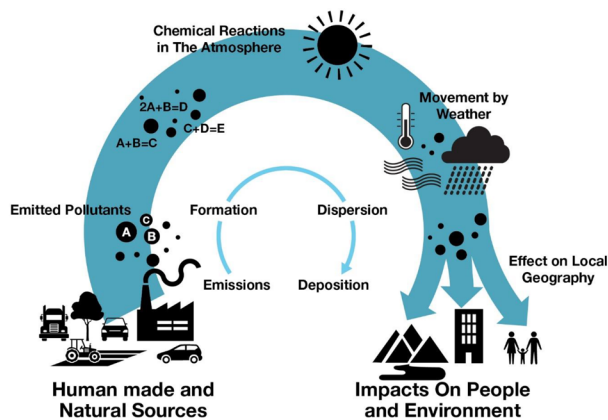


Figure 2-6. The Pollutant Lifecycle from Source to Impact on People and the Environment

2.1.2 Differences in Pollutant Concentrations Over Time

Pollutant concentrations may vary significantly depending on the time of day, day of the week, and season. These differences can be attributed to changes in emissions patterns, atmospheric conditions (e.g., mixing height, temperature, sunlight), the source's activity schedule (e.g., daily traffic rush hour patterns), and chemical reactions.

As shown in [Figure 2-7](#), O_3 typically varies slowly on an hour-to-hour basis but often undergoes a diurnal change (i.e., daily cycle) from low concentrations at night to higher concentrations during the day. The day-to-day difference in emissions of O_3 precursors (e.g., vehicle emissions) can produce lower O_3 concentrations on weekends than weekdays. As sunlight and heat help convert emissions into O_3 , concentrations are usually higher during summer.

PM_{2.5} can change more rapidly on an hour-to-hour basis, even on a minute-to-minute basis, due to local sources and atmospheric conditions (see Figure 2-7 and Figure 2-3). PM_{2.5} concentrations are generally higher at night and in the morning due to calm winds and pollution trapped below a nighttime temperature inversion. From day to day, PM_{2.5} concentrations can build up and then change rapidly due to increasing winds or air mass changes (e.g., cold front passage). Lastly, PM_{2.5} concentrations can vary based on season. For instance, wintertime concentrations may be high due to residential wood-burning activities in cold climates. Summertime concentrations may be high due to secondary particle formation in the Southeast U.S., seasonal crop burning, agricultural activities, or wildfire smoke.

Tip: Consider variations in pollutant concentrations when developing an air monitoring plan

Knowing the daily, weekly, and seasonal variations in pollutant concentrations can help you develop a plan for conducting air monitoring. This information can help guide the time and conditions under which measurements should be taken. See Chapter 3 for more information on monitoring using air sensors.

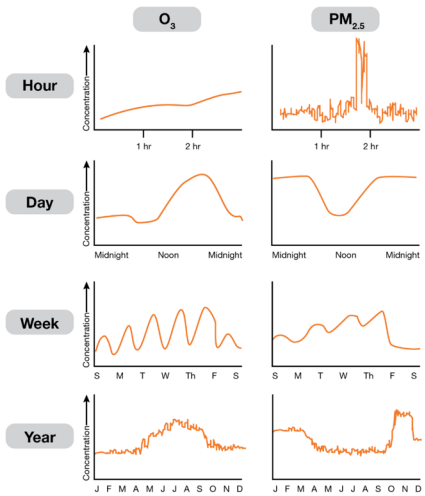


Figure 2-7. Typical Concentrations for O₃ and PM_{2.5} During Different Time Periods

Resources for More Information

- **U.S. EPA Air Quality Planning and Standards Website**
 - Provides additional information regarding air quality and pollutants
 - <https://www3.epa.gov/airquality/>
- **U.S. EPA National Air Quality – Status and Trends of Key Air Pollutants Website**
 - Provides air quality trends, reports, and summaries for criteria air pollutants
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-trends>
- **U.S. EPA AirNow Website**
 - Provides a variety of resources on air quality including air quality information at local, state, national, and world views, air quality and health, maps and data, educational resources, and more
 - <https://www.airnow.gov/>
- **Wildfire Smoke: A Guide for Public Health Officials**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Air Quality Planning and Standards, EPA-452/R-19-901, August 2019
 - Document provides guidance to tribal, state, and local public health officials, and other interested groups (e.g., health professionals, air quality officials, public) in preparing for wildfire smoke events and in communicating health risks and taking measures to protect the public during smoke events
 - <https://www.airnow.gov/sites/default/files/2021-05/wildfire-smoke-guide-revised-2019.pdf>
- **U.S. EPA Mobile Source Pollution and Related Health Effects Website**
 - Overviews mobile sources of air pollution, summarizes health effects associated with exposure to mobile source emissions, provides data and modeling resources, and information on programs to reduce mobile source pollution
 - <https://www.epa.gov/mobile-source-pollution>
- **U.S. EPA Near-Roadway and Other Near-Source Pollution Website**
 - Overview of research on near-roadway pollution from cars, trucks, and other mobile sources and frequently asked questions about near-roadway air pollution and health effects
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-research/research-near-roadway-and-other-near-source-air-pollution>



- **Near-Roadway Air Pollution and Health: Frequently Asked Questions**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Transportation and Air Quality, EPA-420-F-14-044, August 2014
 - Document provides U.S. EPA's responses to frequently asked questions received from the public regarding exposure to near-roadway air pollution
 - <https://nepis.epa.gov/Exe/ZyPDF.cgi/P100NFFD.PDF?Dockey=P100NFFD.PDF>
- **Report to Congress on Black Carbon**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA-450/R-12-001, March 2012
 - Document summarizes available scientific information on the current and future impacts of black carbon (BC) and evaluates the effectiveness of available BC mitigation approaches and technologies
 - <https://nepis.epa.gov/Exe/ZyPURL.cgi?Dockey=P100EIJZ.txt>
- **U.S. EPA Integrated Science Assessments (ISAs) for Criteria Air Pollutants Website**
 - Reports that summarize scientific information that is the foundation for reviewing the National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) for criteria pollutants; ISAs are an important resource for state and local health agencies, other federal agencies, and international health organizations
 - <https://www.epa.gov/isa>

2.2 Pollutant Effects on Health and the Environment

A broad range of health and environmental effects have been observed following exposure to air pollutants or mixtures of air pollutants. Health effects vary by the type of pollutant or mixture of pollutants, concentration, and exposure time, which can be short term (hours to weeks) or long term (months to years). Potential health effects associated with air pollution exposures include decreased lung function, aggravation of respiratory and cardiovascular diseases, and increased asthma incidence and severity, among a variety of other effects. Table 2-2, provided by EPA's Office of Air Quality Planning and Standards Health and Environmental Impacts Division, summarizes the health and environmental effects of common air pollutants.

Table 2-2. Health and Environmental Effects of Select Common Air Pollutants

Pollutant	Health Effects	Environmental Effects
Ammonia (NH ₃)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can cause severe irritation of the skin, eyes, nose, and throat 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Precursor to secondary particulate formation • Contributes to acid deposition of soils and surface waters
Benzene, Toluene, Ethylbenzene,	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Known human carcinogen • Short-term exposure can cause drowsiness, dizziness, headaches, 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can contribute to formation of ground-level O₃

Pollutant	Health Effects	Environmental Effects
and Xylene (BTEX)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> and irritation to the eyes, skin, and respiratory tract Long-term exposure can cause blood disorders and adverse effects to the reproductive system 	
Black Carbon (BC)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A component of PM (see health effects of PM) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A component of PM (see environmental effects of PM) Contributes to climate change causing changes in patterns of rain and clouds As BC deposits in the Arctic, the particles cover the snow and ice, decreasing the Earth's ability to reflect warming rays of the sun, while absorbing heat and hastening melting
Carbon Monoxide (CO)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Breathing air with a high concentration reduces the amount of oxygen that can be transported in the blood stream to critical organs like the heart and brain At very high levels, which are possible indoors or in other enclosed environments, CO can cause dizziness, confusion, unconsciousness, and death Short-term exposure to elevated CO may result in reduced oxygen to the heart accompanied by chest pain (also known as angina) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There is no secondary standard as the concentrations that would have any effect on flora or fauna are many times higher than what might occur in outdoor air
Ground-level Ozone (O ₃)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Elevated concentrations cause respiratory effects and can: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Trigger responses such as throat irritation or burning sensation in the airways, coughing, difficulty breathing, and airway inflammation Reduce lung function and harm lung tissue Aggravate bronchitis, emphysema, and asthma, increasing the risk of asthma attacks and associated outcomes in affected individuals 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Elevated concentrations can: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Affect sensitive vegetation and ecosystems, including in parks and wilderness areas, by reducing photosynthesis and slowing growth Increase sensitive plants' risk from other stressors such as disease or insects Cause blemishes or stippling on leaves of sensitive plants O₃ is a greenhouse gas, with associated potential for effects on climate
Lead (Pb)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Elevated exposures can adversely affect the nervous system, kidney function, immune system, reproductive and developmental systems, and the cardiovascular system Elevated exposure can also affect the oxygen carrying capacity of the blood The effects most likely to be encountered in current populations are neurological effects in children. Infants and young children are especially sensitive to lead 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Elevated Pb in the environment can result in effects on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Terrestrial and aquatic animal behavior, reproduction, development, and survival Plant growth

Pollutant	Health Effects	Environmental Effects
	<p>exposures, which may contribute to behavioral problems, learning deficits, and lowered intelligence quotient (IQ)</p>	
Mercury (Hg)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exposure to methylmercury (MeHg) occurs when people eat fish and fish products with high levels of MeHg • The primary effect is damage to the central nervous system: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ At very high exposures, symptoms may include blurred vision, malaise, speech difficulties, and constriction of the visual field ◦ For infants born to pregnant people with high levels of methylmercury, effects such as mental retardation, ataxia, constriction of the visual field, blindness, and cerebral palsy. At lower MeHg concentrations, effects such as developmental delays and abnormal reflexes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Deposits to soil and bodies of water • MeHg can accumulate in fish which are then consumed by birds, mammals, and predators and, at very high concentrations, cause effects in animals that include: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Death ◦ Reduced reproduction ◦ Slower growth and development ◦ Abnormal behavior
Methane (CH ₄)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not generally considered a toxic gas • Very high exposures can cause headaches, dizziness, nausea, vomiting, and, in severe cases, respiratory problems and loss of consciousness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Greenhouse gas that contributes to climate change, particularly warming of the Earth
Nitrogen Dioxide (NO ₂)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exposure to high concentrations of NO₂ can irritate airways in the respiratory system • Exposure to elevated concentrations over short periods of time can aggravate respiratory diseases, particularly asthma, leading to respiratory symptoms (e.g., coughing, wheezing, difficulty breathing) • Longer exposures to elevated concentrations may contribute to the development of asthma and potentially increase susceptibility to respiratory infections • Contributes to the formation of ground-level O₃ and PM (see health effects of PM) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • NO₂ and other oxides of nitrogen (NO_x) interact with water, oxygen, and other chemicals in the atmosphere to form acid rain, which can harm sensitive ecosystems such as lakes and forests • Can contribute to nutrient pollution in coastal waters • Contributes to the formation of ground-level O₃ and PM (see environmental effects of PM)



Pollutant	Health Effects	Environmental Effects
Particulate Matter (PM _{2.5} and PM ₁₀)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Exposure can affect both the lungs and the heart. Numerous scientific studies have linked particle pollution to a variety of problems, including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Premature death in people with heart or lung disease Nonfatal heart attacks Irregular heartbeat Aggravated asthma Decreased lung function Increased respiratory symptoms, such as irritation of the airways, coughing, or difficulty breathing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can reduce visibility (create haze) Can be carried over long distances by wind and then settle on ground or water. Depending on its chemical composition, the effects of this settling may include: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Acid rain-like effects, such as making lakes and streams acidic Effects on the nutrient balance in coastal waters and large river basins or in soils, with related effects on sensitive forests, ecosystems, and farm crops Can have effects on climate, including radiative forcing Can stain and damage stone and other materials
Sulfur Dioxide (SO ₂)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Short-term exposure to elevated concentrations can harm the respiratory system and make breathing difficult Contributes to the formation of PM (see health effects of PM) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> At high concentrations, gaseous sulfur oxides (SO_x) can harm trees and plants by damaging foliage and decreasing growth SO₂ and other SO_x interact with water, oxygen, and other chemicals in the atmosphere to form acid rain, which can harm sensitive ecosystems such as lakes and forests Contributes to the formation of PM (see environmental effects of PM)
Ultrafine Particles (UFP)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Included in PM_{2.5} mass (see health effects of PM) There is some evidence associated with respiratory, cardiovascular, and nervous system effects, but research on UFP-associated health effects is still emerging 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Included in PM_{2.5} mass (see environmental effects of PM)
Volatile Organic Compounds (VOCs)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Some are air toxic pollutants that cause cancer and/or other serious health effects Contributes to the formation of ground-level O₃ and PM (see health effects of PM) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Contributes to the formation of ground-level O₃ and PM (see environmental effects of PM)

Resources for More Information

- U.S. EPA Criteria Air Pollutants Website**
 - Provides detailed information on the six criteria pollutants including basic information, health and environmental effects, technical documents, setting and reviewing the standards, implementing the standards, and current air quality designations
 - <https://www.epa.gov/criteria-air-pollutants>



- **Health Effects of Ozone (O₃) Pollution Website**
 - Provides detailed information on health effects of breathing air containing O₃
 - <https://www.epa.gov/ground-level-ozone-pollution/health-effects-ozone-pollution>
- **Health and Environmental Effects of Particulate Matter (PM) Website**
 - Provides detailed information on health and environmental effects of PM
 - <https://www.epa.gov/pm-pollution/health-and-environmental-effects-particulate-matter-pm>
- **Basic Information about Nitrogen Dioxide (NO₂) Website**
 - Provides basic information on NO₂ including health and environmental effects
 - <https://www.epa.gov/no2-pollution/basic-information-about-no2#Effects>
- **Basic Information about Sulfur Dioxide (SO₂) Website**
 - Provides basic information on SO₂ including health and environmental effects
 - <https://www.epa.gov/so2-pollution/sulfur-dioxide-basics#effects>
- **Basic Information about Carbon Monoxide (CO) Outdoor Air Pollution Website**
 - Provides basic information on CO including health and environmental effects
 - <https://www.epa.gov/co-pollution/basic-information-about-carbon-monoxide-co-outdoor-air-pollution#Effects>
- **Basic Information about Lead (Pb) Air Pollution Website**
 - Provides basic information on Pb including health and environmental effects
 - <https://www.epa.gov/co-pollution/basic-information-about-carbon-monoxide-co-outdoor-air-pollution#Effects>
- **Report on the Environment – Volatile Organic Compounds (VOCs) Emissions Website**
 - Provides detailed information on sources, health and environmental effects, and emissions estimates of VOCs
 - <https://cfpub.epa.gov/roe/indicator.cfm?i=23#1>
- **Definition of VOC Website**
 - Provides a detailed information on the definition of VOCs as outlined in air pollution regulations
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-emissions-inventories/what-definition-voc>
- **Health Effects of Exposures to Mercury Website**
 - Provides detailed information on health effects of exposure to mercury
 - <https://www.epa.gov/mercury/health-effects-exposures-mercury>



- **Integrated Risk Information System (IRIS) Methylmercury (MeHg) Summary Website**
 - Provides health assessment information on MeHg based on review of toxicity data
 - https://cfpub.epa.gov/ncea/iris2/chemicalLanding.cfm?substance_nmbr=73
- **Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR) Public Health Statement for Benzene Website**
 - Provides information about benzene and effects of exposure to it
 - <https://wwwn.cdc.gov/TSP/PHS/PHS.aspx?phsid=37&toxid=14>
- **Integrated Risk Information System (IRIS) Benzene Summary Website**
 - Provides health assessment information on benzene based on review of toxicity data
 - https://cfpub.epa.gov/ncea/iris2/chemicalLanding.cfm?substance_nmbr=276
- **Global Methane Initiative (GMI) Website**
 - Provides information on GMI, description of methane and mitigation approaches, methane sites around the globe, and more
 - <https://www.epa.gov/gmi>
- **Report to Congress on Black Carbon**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA-450/R-12-001, March 2012
 - Report provides summary on black carbon, health and environmental effects, emissions, mitigation overview, and more
 - <https://nepis.epa.gov/Exe/ZyPURL.cgi?Dockey=P100EIJZ.txt>
- **Integrated Science Assessment (ISA) for Particulate Matter**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA/600/R-19/188, December 2019
 - ISA provides detailed information on particulate matter including sources, ambient levels, health and environmental effects, and more
 - <https://www.epa.gov/isa/integrated-science-assessment-isa-particulate-matter>
- **Traffic-Related Air Pollution: A Critical Review of the Literature on Emissions, Exposure, and Health Effects**, HEI Panel on the Health Effects of Traffic-Related Air Pollution, HEI Special Report 17, Health Effects Institute (HEI), January 2010
 - Report provides a summary and synthesis of information on air pollution from traffic and its health effects
 - <https://www.healtheffects.org/publication/traffic-related-air-pollution-critical-review-literature-emissions-exposure-and-health>



2.3 Outdoor Air Pollution Monitoring

Air pollution monitoring is the detection of pollutant levels by measuring the quantity and types of certain pollutants in the outdoor air. Different methods and instruments are used to measure pollutants and it is critical to match a specific application's measurement needs with a device that provides sufficient accuracy, reliability, and traceability.

Some common measurement approaches for monitoring air quality from fixed locations and mobile platforms (e.g., a vehicle) are shown in [Figure 2-8](#). Several categories of measurement methods are described in more detail below.

- **Reference monitors** are used to determine compliance with the National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS; see [Section 2.4](#)) and are designated as either Federal Reference Method (FRM) or Federal Equivalent Method (FEM) monitors. These monitors must meet strict operating and performance requirements, as outlined in the U.S. Code of Federal Regulations (40 CFR Parts 50, 53, and Part 58). Reference monitors produce very high quality, accurate data. PM FRM samplers collect particles on a filter over a period of time (typically 24 hours), whereas continuous FEM monitors detect pollutant concentrations on a more frequent basis (e.g., continuously every hour). See the [U.S. EPA's Ambient Monitoring Technology Information Center](#) (AMTIC) for a list of designated FRM/FEM monitors. Precise operation, siting, and quality assurance and quality control (QA/QC) are necessary to ensure that reference monitors produce accurate data.
- **Research instruments** describe a wide range of technologies ranging from lower-cost air sensor technologies to mid-range prototype instruments to high-end laboratory-type instruments modified for use in the field. These instruments are often built or designed for specific applications. They may be designed to explore a specific research question or as prototypes designed to measure pollutants that do not have an existing measurement method. These instruments are most often operated by experts to achieve the performance needs for their application. After demonstrating strong comparability with FRM/FEM instruments, they can be used as a reference monitor if/when it is not feasible to deploy an FRM/FEM. For example, an instrument like an E-BAM may be considered a near-reference instrument because it has comparable performance to FRM/FEM instruments, but it is designed to be operated outdoors and designed to be portable so that it can be quickly deployed to measure wildfire smoke in more rugged terrain. It does not have an FEM designation, but has many of the features of an FEM, and when operated by trained staff can provide valuable data for this application.
- **Remote sensing** is a method for measuring pollutants at a distance without physical contact (e.g., by measuring reflected or emitted light). Remote sensing can be useful for detecting PM, gaseous criteria pollutants, and some VOCs. Remote sensing can be deployed aboard aircraft, satellite-based platforms in orbit, or at ground-based sites.



- Air sensors** are a class of technology that are lower in cost, more portable, and generally easier to operate than reference monitors or research instruments. Air sensors can measure some, but not all, air pollutants including PM and gases. However, the accuracy, lifetime, and reliability of sensors varies due to the underlying measurement technology, quality of different air sensor components, environmental conditions, and methods of operation. Table 2-3 summarizes the main differences between air sensors and reference monitors.

	Reference (Certified)		Remote Sensing		Air Sensor
	Sampler	Continuous	Ground-based	Space-based	
Accuracy	High	High	High	Varies	Varies
Complexity	High	High	High	High	Low
Measurement Frequency	Daily	Sub hourly to hourly	Sub hourly	Hourly to Daily	Sub hourly
Relative Cost	\$\$	\$\$\$	\$\$\$\$	\$\$\$	\$

Figure 2-8. Common Types of Air Monitoring Instruments and Their Characteristics

Table 2-3. Comparison Between Reference Monitors and Air Sensors

Consideration	Reference Monitors	Air Sensors
Typical Purchase Cost	\$15,000 to \$40,000 (U.S. Dollars)	\$100 to \$5,000 (U.S. Dollars)
Staff Training for Operation	Highly trained technical staff	Little or no training (user guide/manual may help)
Operating Expense	Expensive – need for shelter, technical staff, maintenance, repair, quality assurance	Less expensive – need for device replacement or repair, data streaming, data management
Siting Location	Fixed location (building/trailer needed)	More portable (with basic weather protection)
Data Quality	Known and consistent quality in a variety of conditions	Unknown and may vary from sensor to sensor in different weather conditions and pollution environments
Operating Lifetime	10 years or more (calibrated and operated to maintain accuracy)	Short (pollutant dependent; <1-3 years) (may become less accurate over time)
Used for Regulatory Monitoring	Yes	No

The concentration of many pollutants varies over long or even short distances, therefore deciding where to place instruments is very important. The location of where pollutants are measured determines what is measured. As shown in Figure 2-9, air monitoring can occur in different locations and represent different conditions.

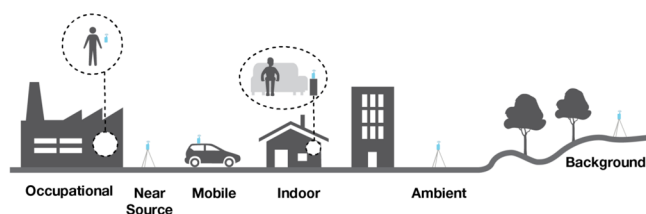


Figure 2-9. Different Air Monitoring Locations for Outdoor Air (Near Source, Mobile, Ambient, and Background) and Indoor Air (Occupational and Residential)

Concentrations for most pollutants will almost always be highest near the source, decreasing rapidly within the first few hundred feet away from the source. If multiple sources are widely distributed within a given area, pollutant concentrations may be more similar, but will still be different from location to location. Other factors, including geography and local atmospheric conditions will also influence concentrations.

Tip: Carefully consider where to locate air sensors when conducting an air monitoring study

Carefully locating an air sensor will play a significant role in determining whether the data collected represent the location and are useful. [Section 3.5](#) provides further discussion regarding where and how to properly place air sensor devices.

An **air pollution monitoring network** is a collection of sites equipped with instrumentation for measuring one or more pollutants. Monitoring networks are designed and operated for specific purposes and objectives and use instruments that can meet the goals necessary for the objective (e.g., use of FRM or FEM for monitoring the NAAQS as required by the Clean Air Act, CAA) because of the stringent needs for accuracy and completeness. [U.S. EPA's AirData Air Quality Monitors website](#) ([Figure 2-10](#)) provides an interactive display of air monitoring locations and monitor-specific information for the different regulatory air monitoring networks using the AirData Map.

Tip: You can access outdoor air monitoring data in several ways

Current conditions and forecast data are available through [AirNow.gov](https://airnow.gov). Historical data are available as pre-generated data files, through the AQS API, or through AirData reports and visualizations.

Within the United States (U.S.), Puerto Rico, and the U.S. Virgin Islands, ambient (outdoor) concentrations of criteria air pollutants are measured at more than 4,000 monitoring stations owned and operated by tribal, state, local, or environmental agencies. Each of these sites measures one or more of the criteria air pollutants [O₃, PM (PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀), CO, NO₂, SO₂, Pb] using

instruments that have been designated as FRMs or FEMs. In managing these instruments, agencies follow stringent siting criteria, extensive operational plans, and quality assurance procedures (e.g., calibration, maintenance, audits, data validation) to ensure that they produce high quality data. [EPA's QA Handbook](#) further describes these procedures.

Agencies send quality assured hourly or daily measurements of pollutant concentrations to EPA's database called the Air Quality System (AQS). AirData retrieves the air quality data from AQS and provides the public with easy access to daily and annual data summaries.

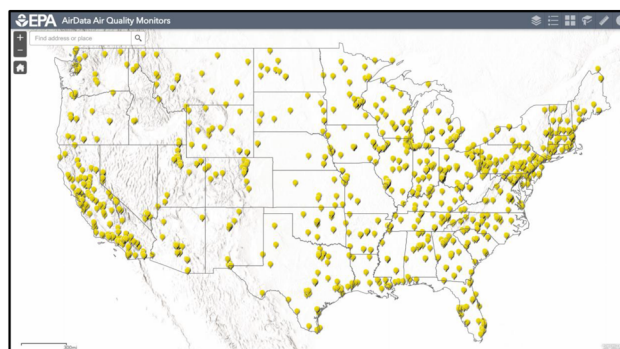


Figure 2-10. U.S. EPA's [AirData Air Quality Monitors website](#) – Active PM_{2.5} Continuous Monitoring Stations (as of 9/30/2022)

Several other air monitoring networks serving other needs also exist within the U.S. including

- **National Air Toxics Trends Stations (NATTS)** which are set up across the U.S. to monitor air toxics. Under the Clean Air Act (CAA), U.S. EPA regulates a list of 187 hazardous air pollutants (HAPs), also called air toxics. The principal objective of the NATTS network is to provide long-term monitoring data across representative areas of the country to establish overall trends for priority pollutants such as benzene, formaldehyde, 1,3-butadiene, hexavalent chromium, PAHs, and others.

- The **Interagency Monitoring of Protected Visual Environments (IMPROVE)** monitoring program which was initiated in response to the CAA and Regional Haze Rule to establish current visibility and aerosol conditions, identify chemical species and anthropogenic emission sources responsible for visibility impairment, and document long-term trends for assessing progress toward visibility goals for national parks and wilderness areas. The IMPROVE network uses identical reference samplers to collect 24-hour PM filters every three days that are analyzed for chemical components in PM.
- The **Chemical Speciation Network (CSN)** which collects PM_{2.5} filter samples that are analyzed for chemical components in PM (e.g., metals, ions, carbon). These data are collected to assess trends, link health effects to PM_{2.5} constituents, characterize annual and seasonal spatial variation of PM_{2.5}, and other applications.
- The **National Core Multipollutant Monitoring Network (NCore)** which is a network that integrates several advanced measurement systems for PM, gaseous pollutants, and meteorology. NCore sites collect data to track long-term trends, support long-term health assessments, support scientific studies, and other applications.

Resources for More Information

- **U.S. EPA Ambient Monitoring Technology Information Center (AMTIC) Website**
 - Contains technical information regarding ambient air monitoring programs, including the networks of state and local air monitoring stations (SLAMS), monitoring methods, and QA/QC procedures
 - <https://www.epa.gov/amtic>
- **U.S. EPA Ambient Air Monitoring Website**
 - Overviews the reasons for why monitoring ambient air quality is important and provides links to U.S. EPA's AMTIC, Air Quality System (AQS), Air Data, AirNow, and AirNow International websites
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-quality-management-process/managing-air-quality-ambient-air-monitoring>
- **Overview of the Clean Air Act (CAA) Website**
 - Provides an in-depth overview of the CAA including history and requirements, role of science and technology, role of state, local, tribal and federal government, and more
 - <https://www.epa.gov/clean-air-act-overview>



- **Videos on Sources of Air Quality Information and Air Sensor Measurements, Data Quality, and Interpretation**
 - Educational videos, in both English and Spanish, that can be used to learn how U.S. EPA collects and uses air quality data, how air quality health risks are communicated, and how to interpret data collected using air sensors
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/videos-air-sensor-measurements-data-quality-and-interpretation>
- **Understanding Air Quality and Monitoring Video**, South Coast Air Quality Management District (South Coast AQMD), Air Quality Sensor Performance Evaluation Center (AQ-SPEC), September 2021
 - Educational video providing background on air quality, criteria pollutants, pollutant sources and health effects, air quality monitoring technologies, and the role of air sensors
 - <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2r0XxQm50IE>
- **California Air Resources Board (CARB) Outline of Measurement Technologies**
 - Online resource that discusses air monitoring applications, applicable measurement technologies, and their relative availability and cost developed by CARB to support community air monitoring conducted under California Assembly Bill 617
 - <https://ww2.arb.ca.gov/capp-resource-center/community-air-monitoring/outline-of-measurement-technologies>
- **Hazardous Air Pollutants (HAPs) Website**
 - Provides detailed information on HAPs including the list of HAPs, health and environmental effects, sources and exposures, data, and more
 - <https://www.epa.gov/haps>
- **Regional Haze Program Website**
 - Provides information on the Regional Haze Rule and Program, list of the national parks and wilderness areas covered by the program, and more
 - <https://www.epa.gov/visibility/regional-haze-program>

2.4 Air Quality Standards and Indices

Determining the health implications of air quality measurements is complex. Fortunately, there are ways to put air quality measurements into context. Government agencies conduct extensive analyses of the research on health effects of air pollutants (e.g., U.S. EPA's [Integrated Science Assessments](#), the [2021 Air Quality in Europe report](#) prepared by the European Union). This research and high-quality data are used to establish the standards and indices to protect public health. Many countries set their own air quality standards. In addition, the [WHO](#) has established air quality standards.



Major U.S. air quality standards and indices include:

- National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS).** The CAA, which was last amended in 1990, requires the U.S. EPA to set NAAQS for air pollutants considered harmful to public health and the environment. The CAA identifies two types of NAAQS: primary and secondary standards. Primary standards provide public health protection, including protecting the health of "sensitive" populations such as asthmatics, children, and the elderly. Secondary standards provide public welfare protection, including protection against decreased visibility and damage to animals, crops, vegetation, and buildings. The U.S. EPA has set [NAAQS for six principal pollutants](#), called **criteria air pollutants**: PM (PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀), O₃, CO, SO₂, NO₂, and Pb. As required by the CAA, the U.S. EPA reviews and revises the standards, if appropriate, every 5 years. The NAAQS are summarized in [Table 2-4](#).
- Air Quality Index (AQI).** The AQI was established by the U.S. EPA as a method to translate pollution measurements into potential health effects. The AQI is a numeric scale for reporting air quality that describes how clean or polluted the air is at a given location, and any associated health effects that may result from exposure to the air. [Section 2.5](#) and [Appendix D](#) provide more information on the AQI and how it is calculated.
- National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH).** NIOSH has established guidelines and recommendations for preventing work-related injury and illness, including exposure to air pollutants. In general, these guidelines often represent shorter time periods because they relate to occupational locations and schedules (e.g., workdays).

Why Aren't there NAAQS for all Air Pollutants?

Other common air pollutants shown in [Table 2-1](#) (e.g., CH₄, VOCs, benzene, Hg, NH₃, BC, UFP) are not criteria pollutants; therefore, the U.S. EPA has not established NAAQS for these pollutants.

How are NAAQS and NIOSH Guidelines Different?

NIOSH guidelines are established for some of the pollutants shown in [Table 2-1](#) and some additional pollutants as well. NIOSH concentration levels are different than the NAAQS because they are established for occupational exposures only.



Table 2-4. U.S. EPA National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS; current as of 9/30/2022)

Air Pollutant	Primary or Secondary Standard ¹	Averaging Time	Concentration Level	Form ^{**}
Carbon Monoxide (CO)	Primary	8 hours	9 ppm	Not to be exceeded more than once per year
		1 hour	35 ppm	
Lead (Pb)	Primary and Secondary	Rolling 3 month average	0.15 µg/m ³	Not to be exceeded
Nitrogen Dioxide (NO ₂)	Primary	1 hour	100 ppb	98 th percentile of 1-hour daily maximum concentrations, averaged over 3 years
	Primary and Secondary	1 year	53 ppb	Annual mean
Ozone (O ₃)	Primary and Secondary	8 hours	70 ppb	Annual fourth-highest daily maximum 8-hour concentration, averaged over 3 years
Particulate Matter (PM _{2.5})	Primary	1 year	12.0 µg/m ³	Annual mean, averaged over 3 years
	Secondary	1 year	15.0 µg/m ³	Annual mean, averaged over 3 years
	Primary and Secondary	24 hours	35 µg/m ³	98 th percentile, averaged over 3 years
Particulate Matter (PM ₁₀)	Primary and Secondary	24 hours	150 µg/m ³	Not to be exceeded more than once per year on average over 3 years
Sulfur Dioxide (SO ₂)	Primary	1 hour	75 ppb	99 th percentile of 1-hour daily maximum concentrations, averaged over 3 years
	Secondary	3 hours	0.5 ppm	Not to be exceeded more than once per year

The *primary standard* provides public health protection, including protecting the health of sensitive populations such as asthmatics, children, and the elderly. The *secondary standard* provides public welfare protection, including protection against decreased visibility and damage to animals, crops, vegetation, and buildings.

^{**}See the [AQS data dictionary](#) for the definitions and calculations of these forms.

In the U.S. only data from properly operated, cited, and maintained FRM and FEM instruments are used to determine compliance with the NAAQS. When comparing air quality measurements to these standards, it is important to ensure that the measurements align with the standard. Every standard has an associated concentration level for a specified averaging time period (e.g., 1 hour, 24 hours, 1 year) and a location (e.g., ambient, occupational). For example, [Table 2-4](#) shows the related averaging time period, and concentration level for each criteria air pollutant for the NAAQS.

How Can I Compare Air Sensor Measurements to the NAAQS or AQI for Informational Purposes?

When comparing measurements from an air sensor to the NAAQS or AQI, it is important to remember that air sensors may over- or under-estimate pollutant concentrations (see [Section 3.6](#)). Therefore, sensor data must be cleaned and corrected and then averaged to match the time average specified for the pollutant and air quality standard or index. For example, to compare O₃ air sensor measurements provided every minute to the 8-hour NAAQS for O₃ of 70 ppb, you would need to clean and correct the O₃ sensor data and then calculate an 8-hour average from the 1-minute sensor measurements before comparing.

What Happens if an Air Pollutant Measurement is Above the NAAQS Concentration Level for the Specified Averaging Period?

Each NAAQS has a 'form' (see [Table 2-4](#)) which is a criterion for how many times the standard may be exceeded in a certain timeframe. Even though a measured concentration may exceed the NAAQS (called an **exceedance**), it does not constitute a NAAQS violation. So, what is a NAAQS **exceedance** vs. a NAAQS **violation**?

A NAAQS **exceedance** occurs when a measured concentration exceeds the concentration level for the averaging period specified by the NAAQS. For example, an exceedance of the short-term (24-hour) PM_{2.5} NAAQS occurs when the PM_{2.5} concentration measured at a regulatory air monitoring location is greater than 35 µg/m³.

Air monitoring agencies must report NAAQS exceedances to the public.

A NAAQS **violation** occurs when a measured concentration level exceeds the concentration level for the specified NAAQS averaging period for specific criteria over a specified timeframe. For example:

A **violation** of the 24-hour PM_{2.5} NAAQS occurs when the 3-year average of the annual 98th percentile 24-hour concentration is greater than 35 µg/m³

A **violation** of the 1-year PM_{2.5} NAAQS occurs when the annual mean averaged over 3 years is greater than 12 µg/m³

An area that has a NAAQS **violation** for any given criteria air pollutant, can potentially be designated as **nonattainment** (not meeting the NAAQS) for that pollutant and may need to address in State Implementation Plans (SIPs) how they will reach attainment.

Resources for More Information

- **WHO National Air Quality Standards Tool**
 - An interactive tool providing an international map of current national air quality standards for criteria pollutants for various averaging times
 - <https://www.who.int/tools/air-quality-standards>
- **Air Quality in Europe 2021**
 - An annual assessment of recent air quality trends at both European and national levels
 - <https://www.eea.europa.eu/publications/air-quality-in-europe-2021>
- **Air Quality System Data Dictionary**
 - The AQS Data Dictionary describes the fields typically encountered by AQS users and are listed in alphabetical order; field definitions and calculation algorithms are provided as appropriate
 - https://aqs.epa.gov/aqsweb/documents/AQS_Data_Dictionary.htm
- **U.S. EPA National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) Table**
 - A webpage detailing the NAAQS for six criteria pollutants which includes details from [Table 2-4](#) but is a resource that will be updated if the standards change
 - <https://www.epa.gov/criteria-air-pollutants/naaqs-table>
- **The National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH)**
 - The Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970 established NIOSH as a research agency focused on the study of worker safety and health, and empowering employers and workers to create safe and healthy workplaces
 - <https://www.cdc.gov/niosh/index.htm>
- **Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) National Environmental Public Health Tracking – Air Quality**
 - CDC works closely with the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Association (NOAA), and the National Weather Service to provide air quality data on the Tracking Network and to better understand how air pollution affects our health
 - <https://www.cdc.gov/nceh/tracking/topics/AirQuality.htm>



- **Greenbook: Nonattainment Areas for Criteria Pollutants**
 - The EPA Green Book provides detailed information about area National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) designations, classifications and nonattainment status
 - <https://www.epa.gov/green-book>

2.5 The Air Quality Index (AQI)

As previously described, air pollution can have a number of serious health impacts. For all criteria pollutants except Pb, U.S. EPA has established the [AQI](#). The AQI scale runs from 0 to 500, with higher AQI values indicating greater levels of air pollution and associated health concerns (Table 2-5). For example, an AQI value of 50 or below represents “Good” air quality, while an AQI value over 300 represents “Hazardous” air quality.

Table 2-5. The Air Quality Index (AQI) Levels of Health Concern, Numerical Values, and Meanings

Daily AQI Color	Levels of Concern	Values of Index	Description of Air Quality
Green	Good	0 to 50	Air quality is satisfactory, and air pollution poses little or no risk.
Yellow	Moderate	51 to 100	Air quality is acceptable. However, there may be a risk for some people, particularly those who are unusually sensitive to air pollution.
Orange	Unhealthy for Sensitive Groups	101 to 150	Members of sensitive groups may experience health effects. The general public is less likely to be affected.
Red	Unhealthy	151 to 200	Some members of the general public may experience health effects; members of sensitive groups may experience more serious health effects.
Purple	Very Unhealthy	201 to 300	Health alert: The risk of health effects is increased for everyone.
Maroon	Hazardous	301 and higher	Health warning of emergency conditions: everyone is more likely to be affected.

The AQI is divided into six color-coded categories, as shown in Table 2-5, with each category corresponding to a different level of health concern. The color coding allows the public to quickly determine whether air quality is reaching unhealthy levels in their communities. The specific [concentration breakpoints](#) for each of the six levels vary by pollutant.



For each pollutant, an AQI value of 100 generally corresponds to an ambient air concentration equal to the level of the short-term NAAQS for protection of public health. AQI values at or below 100 are generally considered to be satisfactory. AQI values above 100 are considered to be unhealthy for sensitive groups of people (see Table 2-6), then unhealthy for everyone as AQI values reach higher levels.

Table 2-6. Pollutant-Specific Sensitive Groups for the AQI Greater than 100
(Additional information available on the [AirNow website](#))

Pollutant	At-Risk Populations
Carbon Monoxide (CO)	People with heart disease
Nitrogen Dioxide (NO ₂)	People with asthma, children, and older adults
Ozone (O ₃)	People with lung disease, children and teenagers, older adults, people who are active outdoors (including outdoor workers), people with certain genetic variants, and people with diets limited in certain nutrients
Particulate Matter (PM _{2.5})	People with heart or lung disease, older adults, children, and people of low socioeconomic status
Particulate Matter (PM ₁₀)	
Sulfur Dioxide (SO ₂)	People with asthma, children, and older adults

U.S. EPA calculates the AQI values based on air pollution data that is averaged over 1, 8, or 24 hours, depending on the pollutant (see [Table 2-4](#)). The reason for the different averaging times is that different pollutants affect the human body in different ways. For example, O₃ can cause coughing, sore or scratchy throat, inflamed airways, or difficulty breathing within hours to a day after exposure. On the other hand, SO₂ can cause breathing difficulty, wheezing, and chest tightness within 5 minutes. The variation in symptom offset is due to the specific way that the body reacts to exposure.

The AQI uses a formula to convert the averaged measurements (e.g., 24-hour average for PM_{2.5}, 8-hour average for O₃) to the corresponding AQI value. For real-time data, the U.S. EPA developed a method to estimate AQI from short-term averages called the [NowCast AQI](#). The NowCast AQI shows air quality for the most current hour available by using a calculation that involves multiple hours of past data. The NowCast AQI uses longer averages during periods of stable air quality and shorter averages when air quality is changing rapidly, such as during a wildfire event. Easy-to-use online calculators are available that allow users to either calculate AQI values from measured concentrations or vice versa.



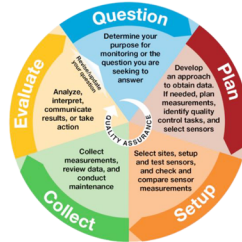
Resources for More Information

- **AirNow Air Quality Index (AQI) Website**
 - Provides information on AQI basics, air pollutants, action days, and other resources
 - <https://www.airnow.gov/aqi/>
- **Technical Assistance Document for Reporting of Daily Air Quality – the Air Quality Index (AQI)**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Air Quality Planning and Standards, EPA 454/B-18-007, September 2018
 - Document provides guidance to aid local agencies in calculating and reporting the AQI as required in the Code of Federal Regulations (CFR)
 - <https://www.airnow.gov/publications/air-quality-index/technical-assistance-document-for-reporting-the-daily-aqi/>
- **AirNow AQI Calculator**
 - Online tool that converts user-specified AQI values into an equivalent concentration or converts concentration into AQI values. The tool also provides the corresponding AQI Category (e.g., good, moderate), health effects, and cautionary statements
 - <https://www.airnow.gov/aqi/aqi-calculator/>
- **AirNow – Using the Air Quality Index Website**
 - Provides an overview of the AQI, AQI forecasts, and the NowCast AQI and how to use these tools to assess local air quality and plan for outdoor activities; links on the page provide technical information about NowCast algorithms and leads to a github code library for calculating the NowCast for O₃
 - <https://www.airnow.gov/aqi/aqi-basics/using-air-quality-index/>
- **Air Quality Index: A Guide to Air Quality and Your Health**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Air Quality Planning and Standards, EPA-456/F-14-002, February 2014
 - Booklet that discusses the importance of air quality and provides an overview of the AQI; health effects of exposure to ozone (O₃), particulate matter (PM), carbon monoxide (CO), and sulfur dioxide (SO₂); and suggested actions to reduce exposure to unhealthy air for each AQI Category
 - https://www.airnow.gov/sites/default/files/2018-04/aqi_brochure_02_14_0.pdf



- **Air Quality Guide for Nitrogen Dioxide (NO₂)**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Air and Radiation, EPA-456/F-11-003, February 2011
 - Booklet that overviews actions to reduce exposure NO₂ near roadways for each AQI category, provides an overview of NO₂ sources and health effects, and provides tips for reducing NO₂ emissions
 - <https://www.airnow.gov/sites/default/files/2018-06/no2.pdf>
- **Air Quality Guide for Ozone (O₃)**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Air and Radiation, EPA-456/F-15-006, August 2015
 - Booklet that overviews actions to reduce exposure to O₃ for each AQI category, provides an overview of O₃ sources and health effects, and provides tips for reducing pollution from O₃
 - https://www.airnow.gov/sites/default/files/2021-03/air-quality-guide_ozone_2015.pdf
- **Air Quality Guide for Particle Pollution**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Air and Radiation, EPA-456/F-15-005, August 2015
 - Booklet overviews the actions to reduce exposure to particle pollution for each AQI category, provides an overview of pollution sources, and overviews health effects and tips for reducing particle pollution
 - https://www.airnow.gov/sites/default/files/2021-03/air-quality-guide_pm_2015.pdf





Chapter 3

Monitoring Using Air Sensors

Air quality monitoring, whether deploying a single air sensor or a network of sensors, requires planning. There are many steps involved in planning and conducting an air monitoring study and this chapter walks through each of those steps and will include information, considerations, and advice for each. This chapter focuses on monitoring projects which use a sensor(s) in a stationary, outdoor environment. Additional considerations may be important if you are using sensors in other applications (e.g., mobile monitoring, personal exposure, indoor air monitoring).

This chapter provides an overview of the steps involved in planning a monitoring study including:

- **Question:** determining a purpose for monitoring
- **Plan:** developing a monitoring plan including guidance for selecting a sensor to support the plan which measures the target pollutant with the general features required
- **Setup:** locating a monitoring site(s), install a sensor(s), designing a sensor network(s), and planning and conducting a collocation to determine how to interpret the sensor data
- **Collect:** reviewing data collection activities, common quality control and assurance checks, and how a data management system can support these tasks
- **Evaluate:** analyzing, interpreting, communicating, and acting on your monitoring results

3.1 Planning and Conducting Air Monitoring

Air monitoring using sensors can be complicated and requires advance planning to be successful. This planning is a critical component of **quality assurance (QA)** and is necessary to produce useful and high-quality data. The planning steps and activities outlined in this section enable users to collect quality data, build trust in the data, and allow others to use the data, as applicable.

As shown in Figure 3-1, there are five key steps in planning for air monitoring. This advance planning will save time and money and ensure that useful measurement data are collected or that the purpose of the data collection is met. The amount of time spent on each step in Figure 3-1 depends on your purpose. If deploying a single air sensor to seek knowledge for educational purposes, you can quickly consider some of the details outlined in this section to select, deploy, and operate your sensor. A more complex project requires spending time on each step and addressing the topics and recommendations presented in each section.

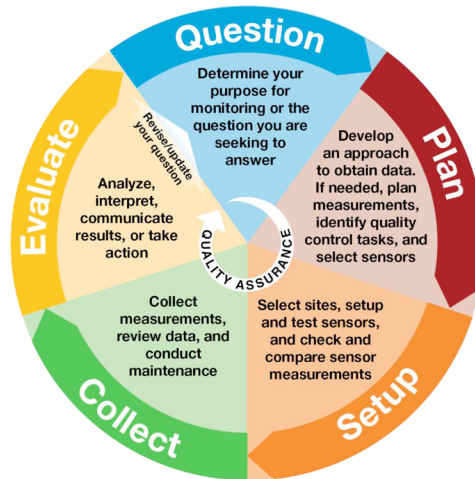


Figure 3-1. Five Steps Recommended for Planning Air Monitoring Projects Using Air Sensors



The recommended steps for monitoring include the following:

1. **Question.** It is essential to take the time to establish and document the question or questions to be answered by the air monitoring study before developing a plan to collect measurements. A simple question such as, "Are ozone (O₃) concentrations in my neighborhood higher during the afternoon than in the morning?", can help you get started. See [Section 3.2](#) for more guidance and tips on determining a monitoring purpose.
2. **Plan.** With the question posed, develop a detailed plan for how to obtain the measurements. The plan is the foundation for collecting quality data and provides a roadmap with information about staffing, sensor selection and deployment, data processing, data validation, quality control (QC) tasks, and more. See [Section 3.3](#) for details on the components to include in a plan. [Section 3.4](#) describes how to select an air sensor.
3. **Setup.** To ensure useful results, you should select a monitoring location(s) to measure the atmosphere or source of interest with minimal interference from the surroundings (e.g., buildings, trees). A well-placed site is key for obtaining representative data of the area being monitored. See [Section 3.5](#) for tips on placing air sensors. Setup will often include a site where sensors can be operated side-by-side with a reference instrument, also known as collocation, to collect data useful for checking sensor operation and for developing data correction equations. See [Section 3.6](#) for guidance on checking sensors via collocation and data correction activities.
4. **Collect.** With a measurement plan clearly defined and sensors properly located, it is time to collect data. Measuring air quality is not as easy as just turning on the sensor and collecting measurements. Periodically checking sensors throughout the course of a project is important to make sure they are functioning properly and collecting quality data. See [Section 3.7](#) for details on collecting, managing, and quality-controlling data.
5. **Evaluate.** The approach for analyzing and presenting data is critical to successfully communicating the results and, ultimately, achieving your

Do all Air Sensor Projects Need to Follow the Five Steps in the Planning Wheel (Figure 3-1)?

No. Although most sensor projects would benefit from following the five steps in the planning wheel, there are some situations where sensor data is used for educational or informational purposes only. For example, you may be interested in using a sensor to understand when the air quality is better or worse in your neighborhood. An accurate pollutant concentration may not be needed. This type of use case does not require as much planning.



objective(s) for collecting air quality data. [Section 3.8](#) provides details about analyzing and interpreting data and communicating results.

You may find that during or after evaluating your data, some unanswered questions remain. As shown in [Figure 3-1](#), you may need to **Revise/Update Your Question** and adjust your plan and monitoring activities accordingly. **Quality Assurance (QA)** includes all the steps you perform to plan and manage the project and to collect, assess, and review data. Completing these steps increases the likelihood of collecting credible and useful data.

3.2 Question: Determining a Purpose for Monitoring

It is essential for air sensor users to ask questions and to provide a clear monitoring goal before beginning data collection. Asking what data may already exist and why new air quality data are needed is important before purchasing an air sensor. Defining questions to be answered will help identify the pollutant of interest, the field conditions likely to be encountered, the data collection period, the type of measurements needed (e.g., short-term vs. long-term, stationary measurements), and the desired quality of these measurements. All of these data collection characteristics will determine the air sensor(s) best suited for your purpose.

As you consider your monitoring purpose, you should also consider what you will do with the information collected. Are there specific people, groups, organizations, or companies with whom you will share your findings? Are there actions that you hope to inform and inspire in yourself or others? What are some of those potential actions? These intentions may shape your question, help you recruit team members, and inform your data quality needs. Do not wait until data has been collected to determine how you will use it!

There are many purposes for monitoring with air sensors, including, but not limited to, general interest in air quality, education, and participatory science engagement; identifying an air pollutant of concern (e.g., hotspot identification); supplementing reference instruments; and conducting research. Consider the following to help identify a question that defines why monitoring air pollution might be needed:

- What is my air quality concern or suspicion?
- What do I already know about the air quality concern (being as specific as possible about when, where, and what)?
- What is not known about the situation that I want to understand?
- What do I think may have caused the situation? What are other possible causes?
- What are my desired outcomes for monitoring?
- Where are the nearest reference instruments and what pollutants do those instruments measure?
- Do the pollutants measured by nearest reference instruments reflect the sources that are of concern (see [Table 2-1](#))?



Developing a good question is a process of a well-defined path to achieving the desired monitoring objective. Some users may start with curiosity or concern, a hunch, or suspicion about air quality, as well as ideas about the outcome(s). A good question has the following characteristics:

- It seeks to understand.
- It addresses a concern or suspicion.
- It can be answered using available resources (e.g., time, budget, skills).

You may need to modify the initial question to make it more specific and detailed as possible, as shown in Figure 3-2. Several attempts may be necessary to develop a question that has these characteristics. This upfront work helps ensure that the project achieves the desired outcome.

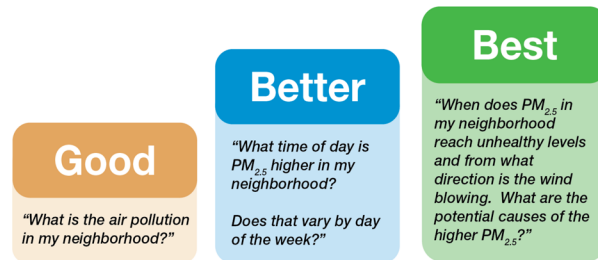


Figure 3-2. Example of Adding Details to Your Question or Objective

Resources for More Information

- **Handbook for Citizen Science Quality Assurance and Documentation**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA 206-B-18-001, March 2019
 - Handbook that covers common expectations for quality assurance and documentation and best management practices for organizations that train and use volunteers in the collection of environmental data
 - https://www.epa.gov/sites/default/files/2019-03/documents/508_csqapphandbook_3_5_19_mmedits.pdf
- **Guidebook for Developing a Community Air Monitoring Network: Steps, Lessons, and Recommendations from the Imperial County Community Air Monitoring Project**, Tracking California, October 2018
 - Outlines the process and considerations for creating an air monitoring network using air sensors
 - <https://trackingcalifornia.org/cms/file/imperial-air-project/guidebook>
- **Community in Action: A Comprehensive Guidebook on Air Quality Sensors**, South Coast Air Quality Management District (South Coast AQMD), Air Quality Sensor Performance Evaluation Center (AQ-SPEC), September 2021
 - Guidebook for community organizations that covers planning for monitoring using sensors; sensor deployment, use, and maintenance; and data handling, interpretation, and communication
 - <http://www.aqmd.gov/aq-spec/special-projects/star-grant>
- **Air Sensor Stories**, University of Rochester, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, University of Texas Medical Branch, Columbia University, and WE ACT for Environmental Justice, 2018
 - Workshop guide and supporting materials to assist diverse audiences understand the potential of air sensors in addressing community concerns about particulate matter pollution; includes an air monitoring action plan worksheet to help groups think through key questions
 - <https://www.urmc.rochester.edu/environmental-health-sciences/community-engagement-core/projects-partnerships/air-sensor-stories-workshop.aspx>
- **Appendix B: Questions to Consider When Planning for and Collecting Air Sensor Data, and Sharing Your Results** (*this document*)
 - Provides a list of questions for consideration to help sensor users better plan, collect, and share data



3.3 Plan: Developing a Plan

A plan should include details on the pollutant(s) and environmental parameters [e.g., temperature (T), relative humidity (RH), wind speed, wind direction] to be monitored, where the data will be collected, and how the data collection will be conducted. Whether mounting a single sensor on the side of a house to monitor air pollutants in wildfire smoke or deploying an air sensor network to assess air quality across a community (e.g., neighborhood, town, city, region) a detailed plan will help ensure that all tasks are completed and all sensors and supporting instruments (e.g., reference monitors, weather instruments) are collecting useful data for the desired application.

Creating a plan is a valuable process that can help minimize complications later. Developing a specific monitoring plan will also allow air sensor users to share the project design with others before investing time and money. Plans can vary in complexity as needed for a project and the intended use of the data. If possible, air sensor users should share their plan with an expert(s) (e.g., local air monitoring agency, university professor, environmental consultant) who is willing to provide ideas and constructive feedback. Air sensor users should also consider sharing their plan with the audience for whom the results are intended. A plan can help air sensor users identify potential problems at an early stage. Such an effort is worthwhile because it is likely that end users will need some or all of this information to answer questions about measurements when presenting results.

What is a Quality Assurance Project Plan (QAPP)?

A QAPP is a written document that explains how organizations ensure, using quality assurance (QA) and quality control (QC) activities, that the data collected can be used for its intended purpose. A QAPP gives more confidence that the data collected will meet the project objectives and help others understand the data quality.

As shown in [Table 3-1](#), a plan can include many topics that encompass all steps for air monitoring. If you deploy a single sensor, the plan could simply guide you to consider the topics in the table. However, a detailed plan is necessary for more extensive air sensor networks, typically involving more people, organizations, and resources. In this case, the plan becomes a critical tool for success.



Table 3-1. Common Topics and Information Included in an Air Monitoring Plan

Topic	Information to Include
<i>Purpose and Organizational Topics</i>	
Purpose for monitoring	State the specific environmental topic/problem that is to be investigated, the decision to be made, or the outcome to be achieved using the sensor data. (See Section 3.2)
Project/task organization	Determine the roles and responsibilities of all key players in the project.
Engagement with local partners	Solicit insights from tribal/state/local/ air quality or health agencies, universities, research organizations, or others. Engage them early and discuss the project and desired outcomes. (See Appendix B)
Project/task description	Summarize the work, objectives, schedule (timeline), and expected outcomes.
Data quality objectives and criteria	Define: 1) Why data are needed? 2) Does this data already exist? 3) What measurements are needed and what do they need to represent? 4) Is there a certain level of accuracy needed? (See Section 3.2)
Contingency planning	Determine backup plans if something changes during the project (e.g., What happens if staff depart? How to deal with sensors that fail? What happens if my site or equipment are vandalized?). Prepare for various potential outcomes and plan troubleshooting plans.
Training and experience	Identify any training and/or certification requirements (e.g., sensor operation, programming courses through Coursera).
Documentation and records	Determine how air monitoring activities will be documented. This could include standard operating procedures (SOPs), quality assurance/quality control (QA/QC) forms, site logbooks, etc.
<i>Setup Topics</i>	
Measurement methods	Describe equipment and measurement methods used in the monitoring network. (See Section 2.3)
Siting criteria	Discuss the criteria for placing air sensors also considering site security/safety. (See Section 3.5.1)
Monitoring location(s)	Discuss the monitoring location or locations (for a network) selected and rationale. (See Section 3.5)
Instrument/equipment testing and inspection	Identify and describe how you will select the air sensor(s) and test and inspect them to determine that they are working properly. (See Section 3.4)
Instrument/equipment calibration and/or correction	Determine collocation locations and establish the calibration and/or collocation and data correction methods. (See Section 3.6)

Topic	Information to Include
Other data needed	Identify types of data that originate from other sources that may be used in the analysis. These data could include nearby reference monitor data, weather data, and/or traffic counts.
Collection Topics	
Maintenance and operations	List the methods or procedures that will be used to maintain and operate air sensors, including site visits, routine maintenance, emergency maintenance, daily data reviews, periodic collocation, etc. (See Appendix C)
Quality control (QC)	Describe the types of QC checks performed. (See Section 3.7.2)
Data processing and access	Understand how the data are processed, stored, and adjusted. Decide how you will access the data and who will own the data. (See Section 3.7.3 and Appendix C)
Verification and validation methods	Describe the methods or procedures that will be used to verify and validate data during the collection period. (See Section 3.7.2)
Data management	Determine how the air monitoring data will be managed, tracing the path of data generation in the field to the final data use and end storage. (See Section 3.7.3 and Appendix C)
Evaluation Topics	
Data analysis methods and visualization	Describe the methods or steps used to answer question(s) (e.g., data processing needs, visualization software needs). (See Section 3.8)
Compare results with original objective(s)	Describe how the results obtained from this project will be reconciled with the project's data quality objective(s). (See Section 3.2)
Evaluation, communication, and action	Describe how the results of the air monitoring project will be used. (See Section 3.8)



Resources for More Information

- **Guidance for Quality Assurance Project Plans (QA/G-5)**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA/240/R-02/009, December 2002
 - Provides guidance on developing a Quality Assurance Project Plan (QAPP), which is an important part of the planning process for air quality monitoring projects
 - <https://www.epa.gov/sites/default/files/2015-06/documents/g5-final.pdf>
- **Examples for Citizen Science Quality Assurance and Documentation**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA 206-B-18-001, March 2019
 - Collection of examples that provide tools and procedures to help community science organizations properly document the quality of data
 - https://www.epa.gov/sites/default/files/2019-03/documents/508_csqappexamples3_5_19_mmedits.pdf
- **Templates for Citizen Science Quality Assurance and Documentation**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA 206-B-18-001, March 2019
 - Templates that provide tools and procedures to help properly document the quality of data
 - https://www.epa.gov/sites/default/files/2019-03/documents/508_csqapptemplates3_5_19_mmedits.pdf
 - *Editable templates:* <https://www.epa.gov/citizen-science/quality-assurance-handbook-and-guidance-documents-citizen-science-projects>
- **Community Science Air Monitoring**
 - Guidance, provided by the New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection Division of Air Quality – Air Monitoring, on using air sensors for community projects; includes approaches to using sensors, types of sensors available, interpreting sensor data, four types of sensor projects and data quality assurance plan templates for each, and other helpful links
 - <https://www.nj.gov/dep/airmon/community-science.html>



- **Air Quality Agencies**
 - Websites that provide a list of state, local, and/or tribal agencies that manage air quality
 - U.S. Environmental Protection Agency: <https://www.epa.gov/aboutepa/health-and-environmental-agencies-us-states-and-territories>
 - National Tribal Air Association (NTAA): <https://www.ntaatribalair.org/>
 - National Association of Clean Air Agencies (NACAA): <https://www.4cleanair.org/agencies/>
 - Association of Air Pollution Control Agencies (AAPCA): <https://cleanairact.org/about/>

3.4 Plan: Selecting an Air Sensor

Before purchasing an air sensor, evaluating specific criteria will help you match air sensors to your application of interest and purpose for collecting data. [Figure 3-3](#) provides an overview of six important questions to ask before purchasing an air sensor. The key sensor selection criteria are discussed in additional detail below.



Six Questions to Ask Before You Buy a Lower-Cost Air Sensor

What is the purpose?

- Education and information
- Hotspot identification
- Personal exposure
- Participatory science

How much do lower-cost air sensors typically cost?

- \$150-\$1,500 (1-2 pollutants)
- \$500-\$2,500 (1-3 pollutants)
- \$2,500-\$10,000 (4 or more pollutants or 1 pollutant)

What pollutant or pollutants do you want to measure?

- Particulate matter
- A gas (ozone, nitrogen dioxide)
- Total volatile organic compounds (VOCs)

What should you look for in a user manual?

- Type of pollutants measured
- General operating instructions
- How to store and recover data
- Conditions of operation
- Expected performance
- Customer service support

What are some of the features you should consider?

- Size, weight, and portability
- Demonstrated accuracy in the real-world
- Weatherproof
- Power source
- Storage capacity and wireless transmission
- Maintenance requirements


How can you check the performance of your lower-cost air sensor?

- Compare results to a nearby regulatory monitor
- Conduct periodic quality control checks

Learn more about how to select and use an air sensor:

Air Sensor Toolbox -- <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox>

Air Sensor Guidebook -- <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/how-use-air-sensors-air-sensor-guidebook>






Figure 3-3. Questions to Consider Before Purchasing an Air Sensor

3.4.1 Target Pollutant and Sensor Performance

Selecting a target pollutant. The target pollutant(s) to be measured by the sensor will depend on the question asked and the purpose for monitoring. Consult [Tables 2-1](#) and [2-2](#), which identify common sources and health effects of various pollutants. It is important to keep in mind that a sensor's cost may depend on the types and number of pollutants selected. For each target pollutant, consider the other factors below (e.g., detection limit, measurement range, accuracy) to determine if a sensor will meet your monitoring needs.

How Do Air Sensors Work?

Sensor design and performance is an active area of research and innovation. New methods may be introduced over time.

PM (PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}) sensors: Currently, PM is typically measured using an optical approach where light scattered by a particle(s) is used to estimate the particle mass concentration. The amount of light scattered can vary due to the size, shape, and chemical composition of the particles. This method can only detect a narrow range of particle sizes. Over time, particles may build up within the sensor causing changes in performance. Lifetimes vary but are often between 1 to 4 years. PM sensors are typically useful for outdoor, indoor, and smoke monitoring applications. Currently, many sensors will not detect PM₁₀ or dust.

Gas (O₃, NO₂, CO, SO₂) sensors: Currently, most gas pollutants are measured using either electrochemical (EC) or metal oxide sensors (MOSs). They may respond to the target pollutant, changes in T or RH, or other interferent gases. Sensors may lose sensitivity over time whether in use or not and should be collocated at least seasonally. Lifetimes may be between 6 months and 2 years. Measurements at low concentrations are often difficult and the most successful application for some sensors may be near sources.

Total VOC (tVOC) sensors: Currently, most tVOC sensors are MOS or photoionization detector (PID) sensors. They detect a wide variety of VOCs but do not measure all VOCs and are more responsive to some compounds than others. Therefore, the reported concentration cannot be attributed to a specific compound or even the sum of several compounds. Sensors may also respond to changes in T, RH, other interferent gases. Currently, the most successful applications match upwind and downwind measurements near a source to look for spikes which may indicate a VOC emission event. Lifetimes may be months to a year for PID sensors and longer for MOS.

Measurement range and detection limit. Air pollutants can often be present at very low or very high concentrations in the ambient air. The *measurement range* refers to the lowest and highest pollutant concentrations that a device can measure. A sensor will be most useful when it measures a target pollutant over the full range of concentrations commonly found in the atmosphere (consult [Table 2-1](#) under "Range to Expect" for each pollutant). Depending on proximity to a pollution source, the sensor's ability to measure either very low or very high concentrations is essential. The *detection limit* is the lowest concentration



Users should be aware that a sensor's accuracy, precision, and bias can change over time. For example, exposure to warm temperatures or humid air may lead to a gradual increase in sensor bias. Ozone (O_3) sensors, in particular, can become less sensitive over time either because of age or fluctuations in temperature and humidity. Particulate matter (PM) sensor bias may change if pollutant source, particle type, or particle size changes. The sensor may also experience interference from other pollutants in the atmosphere, leading to inaccurate concentration measurements (see [Section 3.7.2](#)). Some sensor manufacturers provide an expiration date, after which the sensor measurements are no longer likely to be accurate.

Air sensor data are called "noisy" when the data fluctuates from one value to another. *Noise* in the data can be caused by multiple factors including electrical interferences, sensor precision, rapid weather changes, and averaging period. To reduce the noise, air sensor data are often averaged over longer time periods to make it easier to see trends in the data. For example, 1-minute $PM_{2.5}$ data can oscillate rapidly from one minute to the next. Averaging 60 of these 1-minute data points to create a 1-hour average will reduce the noise in the data. Figure 3-5 shows an example of noisy versus less noisy data.

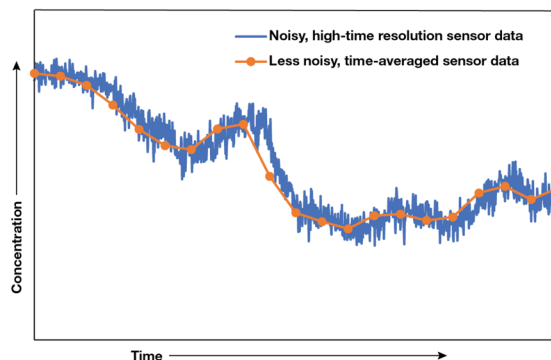


Figure 3-5. Example of Noisy Measurement Data

Calibration or collocation and data correction. *Calibration* is a procedure that checks and adjusts an instrument's settings so that the measurements produced are comparable to a certified standard. *Collocation* is the process of checking the performance of an air sensor by installing and operating a sensor in close proximity to a reference instrument(s). *Data correction* involves adjusting the air sensor data to increase its accuracy relative to a known reference value. [Section 3.6](#) provides guidance on calibration, collocation, and correction. Before purchasing a sensor, users should determine whether the manufacturer

has calibrated or corrected the sensor. In addition, users should fully understand when and how collocation should be performed and how to correct the air sensor's measurements. Talk to the sensor manufacturer about the method, frequency, and any additional costs for the calibration or collocation and correction services.

Response time. A sensor may be quick or slow to detect changing pollutant concentrations in the air. A sensor that responds quickly (i.e., high time resolution) may be useful for mobile monitoring and observing very rapid (e.g., seconds to minutes) changes in pollutant concentrations at fixed sites (such as near roadways with heavy traffic), as shown in Figure 3-6. A sensor that responds slowly (i.e., low time resolution) may be more suited to stationary monitoring where pollutant concentrations often change more gradually (e.g., minutes to hours). Specific data collection goals and purposes will determine which type of sensor is best.

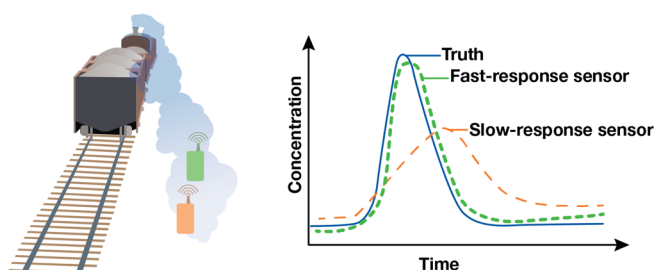


Figure 3-6. Example of an Air Sensor's Response Time

3.4.2 General Features of a Sensor

Durability. Sensors vary in size, shape, durability, and quality of construction. *Durability* refers to an air sensor's ability to be shipped, moved, and to endure wear and tear and continue to perform. For example, sensors are often tossed around during shipping and some components or parts could dislodge inside causing anything from communication or data logging issues to complete destruction. Sensors that are worn by the user or are deployed for mobile monitoring on vehicles might be shaken, hit against other objects, or dropped and must be designed to handle these impacts. All sensors measuring outdoor air quality are likely to be exposed to variable weather conditions such as wind, heat, cold, moisture, and dust and should be built to handle this exposure. A user manual or manufacturer's specification sheet should provide details on the general durability of the sensor.

Enclosure. An *enclosure* is a case or structure that contains the sensor and its components and protects the components from water, light, temperature variations (e.g., by adding heaters or cooling fans), and electromagnetic noise. The sensor enclosure must allow air to reach the sensing components while shielding the components from weather effects. The materials, design of the enclosure, and sensor orientation (e.g., air inlet location, air flow path) may affect measured pollutant concentration levels and response time. For example, certain types of plastics and coatings might react with the pollutant of interest or release the pollutant, interfering with the air sensor's measurements. In addition, the enclosure may impact the internal T or RH, potentially also impacting the air sensor's measurements. Sensors that are exposed to ambient conditions for an extended period of time may experience a build-up of dust, dirt, ice/snow, and other debris near the sensor inlet. This may alter the accuracy and bias of the sensor, and users should ensure that a sensor's inlet remains clear of obstruction.

Ease-of-use. A wide variety of people with different levels of experience may use an air sensor and it is important to understand how easy or difficult it is to operate a sensor. Everyone, especially less experienced users, appreciate sensors that are easier to use. Determine whether any special expertise (e.g., technician, programmer) or tools (e.g., ladders, computers with specific software, special screwdrivers) are needed to operate or maintain the sensor both in the short term and long term.

Power. Power requirements vary for sensors and include plug-in, battery, or solar power. The choice of power options will depend on a user's application. Some sensors may alter their sampling frequency depending on the type of power supply used. This may result in some sensors logging data at intervals spaced longer apart when configured for battery or solar-powered operation. Plug-in devices are best suited for stationary monitoring applications with access to a wall power outlet; however, users need to ensure that power is available and easily accessible at the installation site. Battery-powered devices are often suitable for mobile applications or short-term data collection activities, although users should be aware of how long the battery lasts after charging and at what point the charge is too low to fully operate the sensor. For solar-powered devices, users should consult the manufacturer to ensure proper sizing of the solar components for the device and the available sunlight at the monitoring location (e.g., latitude, longitude, season) and information about proper placement, orientation, and maintenance. If you need to design your own solar option, some commercial solar kits may be available which contain solar panels and batteries. Consult the supplier to learn more about proper sizing, including a margin of error for hours without adequate sunlight (e.g., cloudy or smoky days, overnight). Keep in mind that a solar power solution can be costly.

Display. Some sensors do not include a data display and require users to visit a website or use an app to view data instead. Others feature a screen or display allowing users to view sensor information, real-time data, and/or view historical data. Some sensors include lights which indicate power or may change color depending on pollutant concentration and these lights may be paired with a data screen or be the only form of display. Consider whether a display is necessary for your project.



Data transmission. There are several options available for data transmission. Options vary from sensor to sensor and include, but are not limited to, cellular, WiFi, Bluetooth, satellite, and low-power wide-area network (LoRa). Some sensors store data on the unit itself (e.g., local on-board storage, memory card) and data must be transferred manually. When selecting sensors, users should consider their application and whether the sensor's data transmission methods will suit their needs, cost constraints (e.g., subscription costs associated with cellular services), and will work in their desired monitoring location.

Data access. There are a variety of data storage options available that may influence data access options. Sensors with on-board data storage require physical data download. Other sensors communicate data to central servers and data can be accessed by remote download or call from an Application Programming Interface (API). Users should consider how the data can be accessed, who has permission to access, who has data ownership rights, and how long the data will be available. Once data can be accessed, users will need to fully understand the data format, data analysis, and visualization options. For devices that share information with the public, carefully consider what information is shown as there may be privacy concerns (e.g., sharing a specific address).

Data handling. Conversion of information from the raw sensor signal to the final reported pollutant concentration happens in a variety of ways but often involves some kind of mathematical equation or model. These methods may depend only on data collected on-board the sensor or may include other data (e.g., nearby weather station). Users should ask manufacturers to describe how data is processed and any of these other data dependencies to understand whether that data will be available in their study area. Sensor manufacturers may choose to make their data handling methods public or keep them proprietary.

Cost. A sensor's cost may vary greatly depending on the pollutant measured and degree of accuracy and sensitivity needed. Even for sensors measuring the same pollutant, the costs can vary depending on the device's features. Some sensor manufacturers offer different purchasing options, including buy, lease, or rent. Users should be aware that there are upfront costs (e.g., purchasing the sensor and sensor components) and long-term costs that can include, but are not limited to, repair or replacement of the sensor and their components, calibration services, data transmission charges (e.g., cellular service), or data hosting and storage fees (e.g., cloud storage on a manufacturer server or other server). Additionally, other potential costs (or time) could include data analysis, interpretation, and communication of air sensor data. Of course, costs increase if more sensors are needed (e.g., sensor networks).



Resources for More Information

- **[Chapter 4: Sensor Performance Guidance](#) (*this document*)**
 - Provides an overview of laboratory and field sensor performance evaluations; performance characteristics needed for spatiotemporal variability, comparison, and long-term trend NSIM applications; and U.S. EPA's recommendations for sensor testing protocols, performance metrics, and targets
- **[Appendix C: Choosing Air Sensors](#) (*this document*)**
 - Provides checklists for: (1) what to look for in a sensor before buying, (2) what to look for in a sensor user manual, and (3) sensor maintenance to ensure proper functionality and reliable performance
- **Performance Testing Protocols, Metrics, and Target Values for Ozone Air Sensors – Use in Ambient, Outdoor, Fixed Site, Non-Regulatory Supplemental and Informational Monitoring Applications**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA/600/R-20/279. February 2021
 - Provides recommended testing protocols (field and laboratory), performance metrics (parameters used to describe sensor data quality), and target levels to evaluate ozone air sensors
 - https://cfpub.epa.gov/si/si_public_record_Report.cfm?dirEntryId=350784&Lab=CEMM
- **U.S. EPA's Performance Targets and Testing Protocols Website**
 - Summary of the U.S. EPA's research on recommended testing protocols, metrics, and target values for evaluating the performance of air sensors
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>
- **Air Quality Sensor Performance Evaluation Center (AQ-SPEC) of the South Coast Air Quality Management District (South Coast AQMD) Website**
 - Website for the AQ-SPEC program which conducts laboratory and field evaluations of air sensors and provides information to the public regarding actual sensor performance and the advantages and potential limitations of using air sensors. AQ-SPEC is operated by South Coast AQMD
 - <http://www.aqmd.gov/aq-spec>



- **The National Solar Radiation Data Base (NSRDB)**, Sengupta, M., Y. Xie, A. Lopez, A. Habte, G. Maclaurin, and J. Shelby. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews* 89 (2018): 51-60
 - Paper reviews the complete package of surface observations, models, and satellite data used for the NSRDB – an open dataset of solar radiation and meteorological data over the United States and regions of the surrounding countries
 - <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S136403211830087X>

3.5 Setup: Locating Sites for Air Sensors

Finding locations to set up air sensors, whether a single air sensor or a network of sensors (and other instruments), is a critical task. Finding suitable sites enables air sensors to collect useful data representing the surrounding conditions, ensures the sensor has power (and internet access, if needed), provides security for the sensor, allows easy access for maintenance, and adds credibility to the data.

[Section 3.5.1](#) provides recommendations for placing an air sensor at a specific site. [Section 3.5.2](#) provides information on designing a network of air sensors (i.e., multiple air sensors placed at different locations). This entire process, including evaluating logistics like site access and security, can be time consuming so users should start early to find suitable locations.

Tip: Start the process of locating sites for air sensors as early as possible

Locating sites for air sensors is time consuming with lots of logistics. It is best to start early to find good locations. A simple flyer about the project and sensor details (e.g., power, size, weight, access needs) may help you communicate with owners of potential sites at homes and businesses.

What is an Example of How you Would Select Monitoring Locations Based on Your Purpose for Monitoring?

Let's say your study **question** is "What are the typical particulate matter concentrations in my city? Where are concentrations highest?"

Here are some potential **monitoring locations** based on the study **question**:

- Where people live/work
- Near locations where many people gather
- Near susceptible and sensitive populations (e.g., schools, hospitals)
- Between gaps in an existing regulatory monitoring network
- A background site (e.g., an area not impacted by the suspected pollution source)
- Near the actual (or expected) maximum concentration
- At or near emissions source(s) of concern
- Upwind/downwind of emissions source(s)
- Next to a site with reference monitors for collocation/correction activities



3.5.1 Installing Air Sensors

Users should carefully place a sensor or instrument in a location where it can reliably and safely measure the ambient air or source of interest with minimal interference from the location's surroundings. A well-placed sensor yields data that are representative of the air quality in the area being monitored.

Air pollution concentrations can be affected considerably by local sources (e.g., fire pit, grill), buildings, and structures, among other factors. These factors may vary based on the target pollutant or monitoring goal and users should consider the potential effects of these factors when choosing a monitoring location. The data will be most useful if the sensor can measure the pollutant of interest with little impact from other sources at the site. Figure 3-7 provides eight key considerations when placing an air sensor at a specific location.



Figure 3-7. Logistical Considerations and Tips for Installing an Air Sensor

Location. Before setting up a sensor, it is useful to consider your monitoring goals since they can impact your ideal location selection. For example, a sensor that will be used to monitor for emissions from idling buses may be setup in a different location than one used to estimate the local ambient air quality index (AQI).

Access. Although easy to use, air sensors are generally not something you can "set up and forget." You will want to access your site to install and periodically check on the sensor. If you do not control the site, you will want to determine permissions, access requirements, and any limitations on access frequency or timing during the planning stage. Some users have found formal access agreements helpful in explicitly defining these conditions.

Power. Air sensors may need to be plugged in, may have solar panels, or may offer both options. Some sensors that offer power options may operate differently depending on which option is used (e.g., the data reporting frequency may change). Be sure to consult the sensor manufacturer to understand the implications. It can be expensive and time consuming to deliver power to a location that does not have the existing infrastructure. Available outlets should be tested rather than assuming they work. Consider using a surge protected power strip so that others can also use the outlet without unplugging your sensor. Extension cords may be needed for optimal sensor placement safety (e.g., trip hazard, fire risk). Water and electricity don't mix so be sure to consider electrical safety and water proofing for all connections. Solar panels may not be adequate if your location does not get enough sun and they will need periodic maintenance to remove dust. Areas that experience public safety power shutoffs may benefit from solar power to prevent monitoring interruptions.

Communications. Sensors may communicate data to a cloud-based interface using a variety of technologies (e.g., cellular, WiFi, LoRa). Some sensors may offer just one option, while other sensors may provide multiple options. Be sure to consult the manufacturer to understand specific requirements such as network limitations (e.g., 2G, 5G), carrier limitations (e.g., Verizon, AT&T), area coverage (U.S. and international), and signal strength needs. If supplying your own mobile hotspot, you may also want to know the typical data use to properly estimate costs and if the sensor settings can be adjusted to reduce data use.

Security. Sensors and their peripheral equipment (such as solar panels) are subject to tampering and theft. A small sign describing your project and the device may help. Users will want to consider placing sensors in secure locations. Ideas include mounting a sensor overhead out of arms reach, in an inconspicuous location, or behind a locked gate or fence. When considering secure locations, keep in mind that sensors need a free flow of air, and consider your physical safety when visiting the area or even while climbing a ladder or stepstool for installation or maintenance.

Placement. It is ideal to place sensors near the typical breathing zone height (3-6 feet). Sensors should be placed away from pollutant sources (e.g., fire pit, grill) or pollution sinks (e.g., trees, shrub barrier) to get a more representative measure of air quality within the local area. Sensors should also be located to allow for free air flow to the sensor. Avoid placing sensors near high voltage power lines, which may create electronic interferences. Consider what hardware might be needed to mount the sensor (e.g., tripods, poles). Note that some locations (e.g., on top of buildings) may have specific engineering requirements to withstand wind, etc.

Tip: Also consider time-based factors when locating monitoring sites

Sensors are commonly used to monitor air quality before and after implementation of emission reduction programs (e.g., anti-idling campaigns), changes in land use, and changes in industry. Don't forget that collecting measurements before AND after will be useful to understand air quality impacts. Also consider collecting measurements during different seasons (e.g., summer vs. winter).

Photos. Photos of the sensor deployment may assist you with data interpretation later. Be sure to photograph nearby features that may impact the sensor readings. Outdoors, this may be nearby buildings, roadways, or landscapes. Indoors, this may be building features like windows, doors, and exhaust vents. The photos should also capture the typical use of an area or room where the sensors are placed. Make sure to have written or verbal consent when taking photos of anyone in the community, especially children.

Additional Documentation. A deployment log can assist you in recording notes about sensor placement (e.g., location, height, date of installation) and maintenance (e.g., cleaning, component replacement). It's easiest to track or tag this information by assigning each sensor an ID (e.g., serial number, user given name). You may also want to capture more information about how the area is used. Also consider that temporary activities (e.g., road work, construction activities, cleaning, cooking) may impact the area and confuse data interpretation, so keep notes while the sensor is in use.

3.5.2 Specifics for Designing a Network of Air Sensors

An **air sensor network** is made up of two or more sensors placed at several different locations in an area to gain more information about variations in pollutant concentrations. Examples of a network include deploying air sensors throughout a neighborhood to gather general knowledge of air pollution levels or, designing a monitoring network to locate the potential source of pollution impacting a location.

Selecting general locations for an air sensor network may seem daunting at first. This section outlines considerations to help users design a successful and purposeful sensor network.



Start by answering some questions about why and where to collect measurements, such as:

- What types of changes in air quality do I expect in the area?
- How do I expect one site to be different than another?
- Where should I put sensors to measure and show these differences?
- What is the typical or prevailing wind flow in the area and how might winds transport pollutants?
- Do I need meteorological data to interpret the air quality data?
- Could I use data from existing air monitoring networks?
- What is my budget for air sensors and approximately how many can I afford? (Some air sensors may fail, so plan for extras or replacements.)





Identify the general locations on a map to place air sensors. Consider the following tips:

- Spread out the deployment locations to get good spatial coverage.
- Avoid hyperlocal sources (e.g., smoking stations, grills) and locations where winds can channel and trap pollutants unless that is your specific research question.
- If there is an area of concern (e.g., pollutant source, area of suspected higher concentrations), locate sensors near/inside the area of concern AND upwind and downwind of the area (see [Section 2.1](#) and [Figure 3-8](#)) so that meaningful comparisons can be made.
- Account for factors that affect safety when installing and maintaining the sensors that include access to facility, security, signage, weather conditions (e.g., lightning), etc.
- Locate a reference instrument for future collocation activities (see [Section 3.6](#)).



Seek input from your local air quality agency, a university professor, environmental consultant, or other experts who are useful resources to help design effective sensor networks.

- Contact your tribal, [state](#), or [local](#) air quality agency.
- Contact professors in academic institutions with expertise in air quality such as environmental studies, engineering, atmospheric science, or other sciences.

Air sensor networks may have different scales depending on the purpose for collecting measurements. [Figure 3-8](#) shows examples of air sensor networks of different scales for three examples.



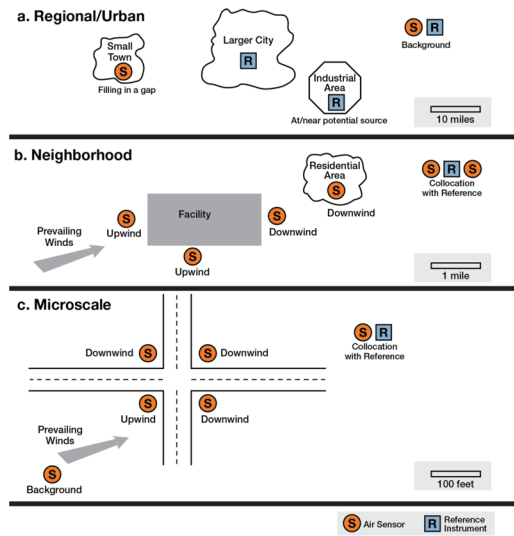


Figure 3-8. Example Maps for Placing Air Sensors for Networks of Different Scales Depending on the Purpose: a) Regional/Urban Network, b) Neighborhood Network, and c) Microscale, Small Area Network

In each panel, Figure 3-8 identifies an optimal sensor collocation site. Generally, collocation is recommended for any monitoring activity to make sure the air sensor is reporting accurate data (see [Section 3.6.1](#) for more information). The examples for the different scales of sensor networks and potential collocation approaches are described below.

Figure 3-8a shows an example of using an air sensor to fill in an air monitoring gap. This regional and urban network consisting of reference instruments located in a larger city, an industrial area, and a background site. Air sensors can fill in the gap in this network by providing air quality information for a small town that does not have existing reference monitors. In this case, the air quality at the background site is most similar to that of the small town experiencing similar meteorological conditions (e.g., T, RH), pollutants, and pollutant concentrations. The pollution sources would be different, and the pollutant concentrations would likely be higher, at the other two reference sites. Thus, in this example the collocation is conducted at the background site collocating a sensor with the reference instrument at that location.

[Figure 3-8b](#) shows an example sensor network for a neighborhood or residential area concerned about pollutant emissions from a nearby facility. The network measures air quality around the facility (both upwind and downwind) and in the residential area located downwind. The network also includes two air sensors collocated next to a reference instrument. The collocation provides data to assess the accuracy of the sensors and develop corrections for the other sensors in the network (see [Section 3.6](#) for more details about collocation and correction). The two collocated sensors provide replicate measurements which allows for some additional quality assurance because the measurements can be compared.

In [Figure 3-8b](#), users can potentially determine the impact on air quality due to the facility of concern by comparing the upwind and downwind pollutant concentrations. For this type of example network, knowledge of the prevailing wind direction is critical and users will likely need to place air sensors at several locations to make upwind and downwind measurements under a variety of wind conditions. Locations upwind of the facility represent the background air quality conditions before the air flows over the area of concern. The locations downwind of the facility represent the air quality after winds pick up pollutant contributions from the facility. In this case, wind speed and wind direction measurements would be helpful for data interpretation.

[Figure 3-8c](#) shows an example of a microscale (small area) network using air sensor measurements to assess the contributions to air pollution due to vehicle traffic at an intersection. A background sensor measures the general air quality in the area outside of the intersection of concern. An upwind air sensor measures the air quality before the air flows through the intersection, and downwind air sensors measure the air quality after the intersection. Comparing the upwind and downwind concentrations allows users to evaluate the traffic's contribution to air quality. As with the neighborhood network in [Figure 3-8b](#), users will need to consider the direction of prevailing winds to determine appropriate background, upwind, and downwind sensor locations. In this case, sensors can be collocated at a nearby reference site which experiences similar pollutant concentrations and meteorological conditions and is also impacted by nearby traffic sources.

For networks where the objective is to compare sensor measurements collected at different sites, it is critical to first evaluate the **precision**, or agreement of the measurements made by all the sensors. This can be accomplished by **collocating** all air sensors to evaluate the precision and bias of each air sensor's data and then using that relationship (e.g., equation) to apply **correction(s)** to all the sensors used in the network so that the data from all of the sensor are more comparable (see [Section 3.6.2](#) for more information including additional considerations and tips). By taking this one step further and collocating the air sensors with a reference instrument, a correction equation can be developed to make the sensor data more comparable with the reference data thereby allowing comparisons to be made among both the sensor and reference instruments.



In summary, a wide range of networks can be designed to provide general air quality information in an area, collect data for specific research questions, and more. Collocation is highly recommended to make sure the air sensor(s) is reporting accurate data.

Resources for More Information

- **U.S. Code of Federal Regulations (CFR), Title 40 (Protection of Environment), Chapter 1 (Environmental Protection Agency), Subchapter C (Air Programs), Part 58 (Ambient Air Quality Surveillance)**
 - Specifies the regulatory requirements for the U.S. ambient air quality monitoring network including quality assurance procedures for operating air quality monitors and handling data; methodology and operating schedules for monitoring instruments; criteria for siting monitoring instruments; and air quality data reporting requirements
 - https://www.ecfr.gov/current/title-40/chapter-I/subchapter-C/part-58#ap40.6.58.0000_0nbspnbspnbsp.e
- **Quality Assurance Handbook for Air Pollution Measurement Systems, Volume II, Ambient Air Quality Monitoring Program, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA-454/B-17-001, January 2017**
 - Handbook provides additional information and guidance (including pollutant-specific spatial scale characteristics) to assist tribal, state, and local monitoring organizations in developing and implementing a quality management system for the Ambient Air Quality Surveillance Program described in 40 CFR Part 58
 - https://www.epa.gov/sites/default/files/2020-10/documents/final_handbook_document_1_17.pdf
- **Air Quality Agencies**
 - Websites provide a list of state, local, and/or tribal agencies that manage air quality
 - U.S. Environmental Protection Agency: <https://www.epa.gov/aboutepa/health-and-environmental-agencies-us-states-and-territories>
 - National Tribal Air Association (NTAA): <https://www.ntaatribalair.org/>
 - National Association of Clean Air Agencies (NACAA): <https://www.4cleanair.org/agencies/>
 - Association of Air Pollution Control Agencies (AAPCA): <https://cleanairact.org/about/>
- **Blueprint for the Development and Implementation of Distributed Sensor Networks, U.S. National Institute of Standards and Technology Global Cities Team Challenge Transportation SuperCluster**

- Blueprint that summarizes lessons learned, best practices, and research questions for developing and implementing sensor networks
- https://static1.squarespace.com/static/5967c18bff7c50a0244ff42c/t/5ad7c41c758d464041c7e58a/1524089886422/Distributed_Sensor_Networks_Recommendations.pdf
- **U.S. EPA Guide to Siting and Installing Air Sensors**
 - Information and considerations for locating an air sensor in both outdoor and indoor locations
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/guide-siting-and-installing-air-sensors>
- **South Coast Air Quality Management District - Sensor Siting and Installation Guide**
 - *Guidance on how to locate and install air sensors:* <http://www.aqmd.gov/aq-spec/resources/related-documents>
 - *English:* [http://www.aqmd.gov/docs/default-source/aq-spec/resources-page/aaq-spec-sensor-siting-and-installation-guide_v1-0-\(english\).pdf](http://www.aqmd.gov/docs/default-source/aq-spec/resources-page/aaq-spec-sensor-siting-and-installation-guide_v1-0-(english).pdf)
 - *Spanish:* [http://www.aqmd.gov/docs/default-source/aq-spec/resources-page/sensor-siting-and-installation-guide_v1-0-\(spanish\).pdf](http://www.aqmd.gov/docs/default-source/aq-spec/resources-page/sensor-siting-and-installation-guide_v1-0-(spanish).pdf)
- **U.S. EPA Air Sensor Toolbox – Air Sensor Research Grants and Challenges Website**
 - Website provides information on grants and challenges related to air research and air sensors
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-research-grants-and-challenges>

3.6 Setup: Collocation and Correction

Air monitoring instruments need periodic checks to ensure they are functioning correctly and generating high-quality data. Environmental agencies, which are responsible for operating reference monitors, routinely **calibrate** the instruments by testing them with certified and known concentration standards. They then use the **calibration** results to adjust the instrument settings to match the certified or known concentration. This process is regularly repeated and monitored to ensure highly accurate data.

What are Some Commonly Used Terms for Reference Instruments?

- Reference Monitor
- Federal Reference Method (FRM)
- Federal Equivalent Method (FEM)
- FRM/FEM Monitors



Air sensors also need periodic checks but often cannot be calibrated in the same way as reference monitors. Instead, many air sensors are **collocated** or operated side-by-side with a reference monitor to see if they produce comparable data. Instead of adjusting instrument settings, which is often not possible for sensors, the raw data produced by a sensor may need to be adjusted (such as applying a multiplier and additive factor to the sensor raw data) to improve accuracy. This data adjustment, also called a **correction**, allows the sensor data to better match the reference monitor data. The **Collocation-Correction** process of collecting data and adjusting sensor measurements is described in the following sections.

What are Key Definitions Related to the Collocation-Correction Process?

Calibration – procedures for checking and adjusting a reference instrument's settings so that the measurements produced are comparable to a certified standard value.

Collocation – checking the performance of an air sensor by installing and operating the air sensor close to a reference instrument.

Correction – adjusting air sensor data to increase its accuracy relative to a known reference value.

****Important Note:** Sometimes these terms are used interchangeably but they have different and distinct meanings.



3.6.1 Air Sensor Collocation

Collocation involves checking the performance of an air sensor(s) by placing it near or beside a reference instrument and operating them at the same time and place under real-world conditions. Collocations may take place at existing air quality monitoring sites around the U.S. but require developing relationships with tribal, state, or local air monitoring agencies who may have varying constraints for allowing collocations (e.g., space or power limitations, access requirements, liability issues). Alternatively, it may be possible to work with academic partners or contractors to set up and operate a reference instrument specifically for your project. Be sure to follow established quality control and assurance procedures when operating the reference instruments. Ideally, sensors would be setup within about 20 meters of horizontal distance and 1 meter or vertical distance from the reference instrument. However, air flow to the reference instrument and sensors must be unobstructed.

As shown in [Figure 3-9](#), a range of potential collocation options exist to meet various logistical and budgetary constraints. A combination of approaches can be used depending on the length of the project, the desired data quality, and other project constraints or needs.

What if a Reference Instrument is Unavailable?

Dependent on resources, it is possible to work with an experienced partner to setup and operate a reference instrument.

Alternatively, all sensors can be collocated together even without a reference instrument to better understand how well their measurements compare. With this information, you can conduct an air monitoring study making comparisons within your network of sensors. But, you'll have less confidence in the concentrations reported and be less able to compare results with other studies or data sources.











Key	Collocation Strategy			
				
	Periodic All Sensors	Continuous Subset	Reference Transfer	Sensor Transfer
All air sensors operate next to a reference instrument for short periods before and after the study and/or periodically.		Some air sensors are continuously operated next to a reference instrument while others are deployed to other locations.	A reference instrument visits each air sensor for a short period(s).	An air sensor collocated with a reference instrument, with known performance characteristics, visits each sensor location for a short period(s).
Continually check sensor performance	X	~	X	X
Capture a wide range of weather & pollution conditions	~	✓	~	~
All sensors tested at the same time	✓	~	X	X
All sensors tested against reference instrument	✓	✓	✓	X
All sensors tested at their sites	X	X	✓	✓
Additional equipment costs	\$	\$	\$\$\$	\$\$
Frequent operator maintenance				

Figure 3-9. Different Types of Air Sensor Collocation Strategies

Periodic All Sensor Strategy. All sensors are collocated with a fixed reference instrument at the beginning and end of the monitoring study. Depending on the length of the study, the collocation may happen periodically (e.g., seasonally, every 6 months, annually) throughout the study.

Strengths:

- All sensors are tested at the same time letting you know how they compare.
- All sensors are compared to a reference instrument for a limited time.
- There are no additional equipment costs if you can use an existing reference instrument.
- Sensors from smaller networks can be moved without major effort.

Weaknesses:

- Weather and air pollution conditions during the collocation may not be representative of the actual conditions encountered by the sensors when deployed at their sites.
- It will be more difficult to detect subtle changes in sensor performance over time or changes in performance due to a unique or short-term pollution events (e.g., short-lived seasonal dust storm) because a sensor is not permanently located next to the reference instrument.



- Moving sensors back and forth between the collocation site and their permanent sites can be labor intensive and increase the likelihood of damage.
- For large networks, there may not be enough space or power available at the collocation site for all of the sensors to be collocated at once.

Continuous Subset Strategy. All sensors are first collocated at a reference site. Then, some sensors are continuously operated next to a reference instrument while others are deployed to a different location(s).

Strengths:

- Because some sensors remain collocated with a reference instrument, sensors are tested under a wide range of weather and pollution conditions and you can detect performance changes over time. However, this approach assumes that all sensors perform similarly to one(s) that are continuously collocated.
- All sensors are tested at the same time letting you know how they compare.
- All sensors are compared to a reference instrument; some only for a limited time.
- There are no additional equipment costs if you can use an existing reference instrument.
- Sensors from smaller networks can be moved without major effort.

Weaknesses:

- Moving sensors between the collocation site and their permanent sites can be labor intensive and increase the likelihood of damage.
- For large sensor networks, there may not be enough space or power available at the site for all of the sensors to be collocated at once.
- If the collocated sensor fails and needs to be replaced, you no longer know how the new sensor's performance compared to the other sensors in the network. You might consider leaving several sensors collocated with the reference instrument.

Potential Modification:

- Space and power constraints may dictate that not all sensors can be collocated at the reference site at once. Alternatively, sensors can be collocated in batches. Or the sensors can be collocated elsewhere to understand how the sensors compare to one another and only the small subset then goes on to be collocated at the reference site.
- A sensor network may grow with time or portions of the network may need to be replaced due to sensor age. In these cases, batches of sensors could be collocated just before the network is expanded/replaced.

Reference Transfer Strategy. A reference instrument visits each sensor for a short period of time. This strategy can be useful for characterizing the performance of a network of sensors over the course of the long-term study.



Strengths:

- All sensors are compared to a reference instrument for a limited time; both the sensor and reference instrument experience the same pollution sources and concentrations and weather conditions during collocation.
- Sensors do not need to be moved to another location after their initial deployment, thereby minimizing the chances of damage.

Tip: Collocate sensors in a setting similar to where they are deployed

Make sure that the collocation site has similar characteristics to where the sensors are deployed. For example, do not collocate sensors near a road and then apply those results to a sensor network in a rural area.

Weaknesses:

- Weather and air pollution conditions or sensor performance may change between collocation periods.
- Does not test all sensors at the same time, under the same conditions.
- Can be costly to obtain, operate, move, and maintain a reference instrument(s).
- Some sensor sites may not be able to accommodate a collocated reference instrument (e.g., the sensor is mounted on a pole or in an unsecured area).

Sensor Transfer Strategy. A sensor, or research grade instrument, with known performance characteristics, is brought to each location where a sensor is deployed. In order to best know the sensor performance characteristics, sensors used in this strategy are usually left collocated with a reference instrument when not being moved around the network.

Strengths:

- All sensors are compared to a sensor or research grade instrument with known performance for a limited time; both experience the same pollution source and concentrations and weather conditions during collocation.
- It is less costly and labor intensive to transport a sensor or research grade instrument around the network.

Weaknesses:

- Assumes that the performance of the traveling sensor or research grade instrument does not change when moved from site to site which may not be true if pollution sources or concentrations change.
- Difficult to detect subtle changes in performance over time.
- The deployed sensors are not tested against a reference instrument, which makes it more difficult to quantify the accuracy of each sensor.
- Sensors are not tested at the same time, so you cannot determine how one sensor compares to another.



Collocation involves some critical questions to consider such as:

1. What reference instrument should I use?
2. How frequently should I collocate the sensors? Continuously (e.g., every day) or periodically (e.g., different seasons)?
3. How long should I collocate the sensors to measure enough variation in the full range of weather conditions (e.g., T, RH), and the full range of pollutant concentrations?
4. Should I collocate all sensors simultaneously at one central location or move a reference instrument to each air sensor site (i.e., test each sensor in its surroundings)?
5. Where should I collocate sensors so that the location resembles my sensor deployment area?
6. How much effort and what type of equipment (or access to it) is involved?

Some general tips for collocation include:

- **Collocate for an adequate number of days** to characterize a sensor's response over a range of weather and pollutant concentration conditions. Some suggested number of collocation days for data collected at different time intervals include:
 - 24-hour data: About 30 days of collocation
 - 1-hour data: About 14 days of collocation
 - 5-minute data: About 7 days of collocation
- **Locate the sensor as close to the reference instrument as possible** so that the devices are measuring the same air quality. If you are using an existing air quality monitoring site, you will need to work closely with your tribal, state, or local environmental agency to access their reference instruments and data repository. Keep in mind that some agencies may not allow the general public to collocate sensors at their sites.
- **Measure meteorological conditions** (T, RH, wind speed, wind direction) because the sensor performance may be affected by weather conditions. The tribal, state, or local, environmental agency may measure these at their air monitoring site. Measurements may also be available from a nearby airport or national weather service or similar data service.
- **Consider using analytical tools** to help you evaluate your collocation data (e.g., U.S. EPA's [Macro Analysis Tool](#)).

Tip: Collocate sensors during different times to understand the full range of environmental conditions

If you cannot capture the full range of conditions (e.g., full range of temperatures) from one collocation period, plan to re-check at a different time.

See U.S. EPA's [Air Sensor Collocation Guide](#) for additional information.



3.6.2 Correction of Sensor Data

The collocation results can be used to **correct** the sensor data to more closely match the data from the reference instrument. This **correction** process helps account for known bias and unknown interferences from weather and other pollutants and is typically done by developing an algorithm. An algorithm can be a simple equation or more sophisticated process (e.g., set of rules, machine learning) that is applied to the sensor data. This section further discusses the process of **correcting** sensor data.

The first step in correcting sensor data is to compare the collocation data obtained from the sensors and reference monitor, making sure to align the sampling times and averaging periods for the two data sources. Be sure to note the time zones and whether daylight savings time is used. For example, to compare 1-minute air sensor data to 1-hour reference data, users will need to calculate a 1-hour average of the sensor data (i.e., the average of 60, 1-minute values). Users should ensure that the averaging methods match for both sensor and reference data. Averages may be time-beginning (e.g., a 1-hour average computed from measurements collected between 12:00 and 12:59 is assigned to the 12:00 hour) or time-ending (e.g., a 1-hour average computed from measurements collected between 12:00 and 12:59 is assigned to the 13:00 hour).

Sensor and reference monitor data can be compared by creating a scatter plot to visualize the relationship. [Figure 3-10](#) shows an example scatter plots. In this Figure, data from the reference instrument, in this case the T640x, is shown along the horizontal x-axis and sensor data is shown on the vertical y-axis. Each dot shown in the Figure represents a measurement taken at some point in time. By drawing lines vertically and horizontally from each dot, you can find the reference concentration and sensor concentration reported at each time interval. If the sensor and reference measurements perfectly agreed with one another, all of the dots would lie along the 1:1 line shown in grey. Often, there is disagreement and you find that the sensor may always measure a little higher or lower than the reference instrument. This disagreement is called bias (see [Section 3.4.1](#)) and sometimes an algorithm can be created to correct the sensor data and eliminate the bias.

You may see that the dots cluster along a line or curve. If so, it may be possible to create an algorithm or equation that describes the relationship between the air sensor and reference data. The most common, and often suitable, correction equation is the ordinary least-squares linear regression equation. A function for determining a linear regression equation is well established in many software packages (e.g., Excel, R) and available using the U.S. EPA Excel-based [Macro Analysis Tool](#) as well.



What is the Ordinary Least-Squares Regression Equation?

A common correction algorithm is the "best-fit" line equation derived using the **ordinary least-squares regression**:

$$y = mx + b$$

Where:

y = the sensor measurement

m = the slope of the regression line

x = the reference monitor measurement

b = the y-intercept of the regression line

Slope (m), which can be positive or negative, shows how similar the sensor measurements are to the reference measurements. The closer "m" is to 1, the more the sensor responds like the reference instrument. **Intercept (b)** shows what the sensor measurement will be, on average, when the reference instrument measures zero concentration. Together the intercept and the slope describe the sensor **bias**.

Linear regression equations also include the **coefficient of determination (R^2)**, ranging from 0 to 1. R^2 measures the amount of data scatter and how closely the data points are to the "best fit" line. R^2 values nearer to 1 indicate stronger correlations or less data scatter.

In Figure 3-10 panel A, the slope is > 1 ($m = 2.02$) and sensor measurements are higher than reference monitor measurements when concentrations are above $8.5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. This is an example of a sensor that overestimates pollutant concentrations. In panel B, the slope is < 1 ($m = 0.22$) and all sensor measurements are less than the reference monitor measurements. This is an example of a sensor that underestimates pollutant concentrations. A slope equal to 1 would indicate perfect agreement between sensor and reference data.

A measure of how close the data points are to the slope-intercept line, represented by R^2 , is called the coefficient of determination. This value describes the amount of scatter in the data.

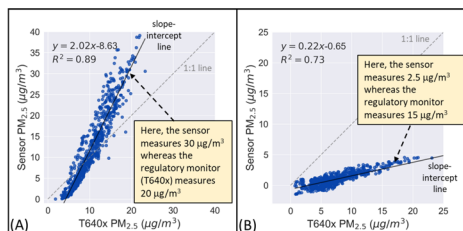


Figure 3-10. Example of the Ordinary Least-Squares Regression

R^2 ranges from 0 and 1, where values closer to 1 indicate stronger correlation, or agreement, between the sensor and reference data. A value closer to 0 indicates a lack of agreement.

Some sensors, like the example shown in Figure 3-11, may not show strong agreement with the reference instrument (R^2 closer to 0). Sometimes scatter plots look like a scatter of points rather than a grouping of points that resemble a line. This often means that an ordinary least-squares linear regression equation is not appropriate for correcting the sensor data. This can mean that the data is not correctable or useable but, sometimes it can mean that a more complex algorithm or equation may be needed. For instance, a user may choose to apply a multi-linear regression because the sensor response is related not only to pollutant concentration but also another variable like RH or the concentration of another pollutant.

Developing correction algorithms is an active research area with new approaches and methods likely to evolve over time. Some research has applied multi-linear regressions, polynomial fits, more complex models, and even machine learning. Understanding the correction algorithm is essential for ensuring traceability from raw to corrected data and for understanding the factors that influence the measurement. Complex or “black box” algorithms may sound promising, but often simple, understandable algorithms are preferred.

Note that an air sensor may respond differently over the full concentration range. For example, Figure 3-12 shows a linear response relative to the reference data at lower concentrations and a non-linear response above this concentration. Thus, a single type of correction equation may not apply over the full range of concentrations.

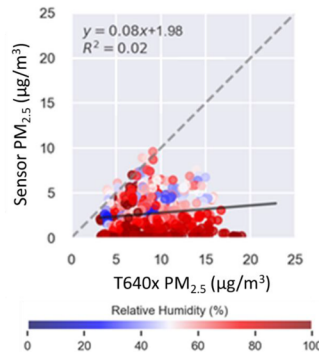


Figure 3-11. Example of a Sensor That Shows No Agreement with the Reference Instrument

Are There Other Metrics That Describe Sensor Performance?

Error is a measure of the disagreement between the pollutant concentrations reported by the sensor and the reference instrument (see [Appendix F](#)).

Several metrics are used to describe error including Root Mean Square Error (RMSE), Mean Bias Error (MBE), and Mean Absolute Error (MAE), among others. Each metric has a slightly different definition and calculation.

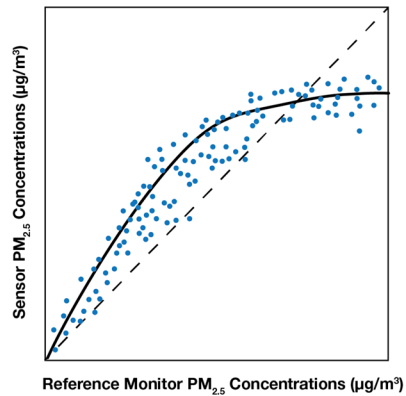


Figure 3-12. Scatter Plot Showing that an Air Sensor has a Linear Response at Lower Concentrations and a Non-linear Response at Higher Concentrations

[Figure 3-13](#) presents an example correction using a linear regression equation derived from sensor and reference data. In this example, the corrected sensor measurements are obtained by rearranging the "best fit" line equation (i.e., $y = mx + b$) to solve for "x", where "x" equals the corrected sensor measurement. Users can correct sensor data using the algorithm so that it more closely matches the reference data. Note that some sensor manufacturers apply data corrections on-board the sensor or in the cloud. Also, some data management systems (see [Section 3.7.3](#)) can apply a correction. In either of these cases, it is good practice to ask the manufacturer about any corrections performed on the data and to fully understand how the air sensor data are corrected.

$$\text{Corrected Sensor Data} = \frac{\text{Measured Sensor Data} - b}{m}$$

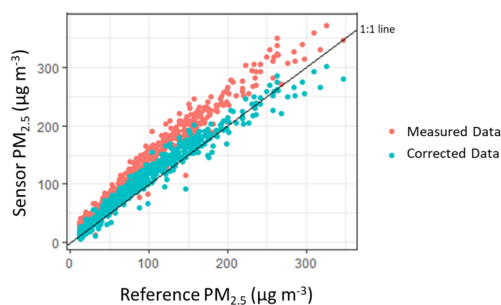


Figure 3-13. Examples of Air Sensor Data Corrections

Sometimes scatter plots may resemble the examples shown in this section but have just a few data points that appear far away from the linear regression line. These points are referred to as **outliers**. Sometimes these data points can significantly change the results and instead of the linear regression line passing through the middle of most of the data points, it can seem to move off to one side. This indicates that those suspected outliers should be investigated a little further before interpreting the results. Creating a **time series plot**, or a plot of the sensor and reference instrument concentrations as a function of time, may show **data spikes** (data points with higher concentrations) from one or more of the instruments. Users may want to examine these spikes to consider if they are real or not. Some spikes may represent elevated pollutant concentrations outdoors. For instance, particulate matter (PM) concentrations may go up for a short period of time because of nearby mowing activities. Other spikes may not reflect real changes in pollutant concentrations and may instead indicate that something is wrong with the device like a data logging or device error. If the spikes are believed to be false, users may consider if there is a routine way of detecting and removing the false data that will not accidentally remove the good data. If a routine method can be developed, it should be documented or written out so that the method can be communicated, and all data will be treated similarly. Using a routine method to identify and remove false spikes is a process commonly called **data cleaning**. After cleaning the data, the linear regression can be recalculated and applied to the remaining data to complete the data correction.

Resources for More Information

- **U.S. EPA Air Sensor Collocation Instruction Guide**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Research and Development

- Resource provides background information, links to web-based supporting materials, and instructions for evaluating the performance of air sensors by comparing the measurements made by collocated sensors and reference instruments
- <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-collocation-instruction-guide>
- **U.S. EPA Air Sensor Collocation Macro Analysis Tool**
 - Excel-based tool that helps users compare data from air sensors to data from reference instruments
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-collocation-macro-analysis-tool>
- **Community in Action: A Comprehensive Guidebook on Air Quality Sensors**, South Coast Air Quality Management District (South Coast AQMD), Air Quality Sensor Performance Evaluation Center (AQ-SPEC), September 2021
 - Guidebook for community organizations that covers planning for monitoring using sensors; sensor deployment, use, and maintenance; and data handling, interpretation, and communication
 - <http://www.aqmd.gov/aq-spec/special-projects/star-grant>
- **South Coast AQMD Low-Cost Sensor Data Analysis Guide**
 - Guide that provides some brief instructions to help community scientists interact with the data they are collecting as well as some questions to help guide their analysis
 - <http://www.aqmd.gov/docs/default-source/aq-spec/star-grant/air-quality-sensor-data-analysis-guide.pdf?sfvrsn=6>

3.7 Collect: Data Collection, Quality Assurance/Quality Control, and Data Management

With a question well-posed, a plan created, and sensors properly set up after collocation, it is time to collect data. There are many activities involved in data collection beyond simply turning on the sensor and collecting measurements. Users will need additional preparation before and during data collection activities to ensure that useful data are collected.

This section discusses various data collection activities, quality assurance/quality control (QA/QC) checks, and typical components of data management systems (DMSs).



3.7.1 Data Collection Activities

Collecting good quality, complete, and ultimately useable data will require attention to several oversight tasks after the air sensors begin operating. These tasks include:



Frequent data review. Reviewing data frequently (e.g., daily, weekly) lets you detect problems early, notice trends in the data, ensure that maintenance activities are completed, and become familiar with recurring patterns. For instance, plotting the data, whether in a time series (i.e., a plot with the pollutant concentrations on the y-axis and the date and time on the x-axis) or another form can be a good place to start (see [Section 3.8](#) for plotting options). You might see typical patterns, such as low concentrations during the morning hours or identify when high pollution episodes occur. These data reviews help you develop a general sense of air quality in an area under different conditions. When typical conditions are known, it becomes easier to identify times when sensor readings are atypical and why these atypical readings are occurring (e.g., Is an air sensor malfunctioning? Is wildfire smoke present? Is a weather pattern responsible for higher levels?).

What are the Benefits of Frequent Data Review?

- Identify and resolve problems quickly
- Minimize data loss
- Learn what normal patterns look like
 - Detect real, high-pollution events early
 - Understand how air quality changes:
 - During the day
 - Weekend vs. weekday



Maintenance. Like most other forms of technology, air sensors require preventive maintenance to ensure proper functionality and reliable data collection. Maintenance activities are necessary for both short- and long-term operations. Air sensor maintenance can include regularly scheduled cleaning of surfaces or inlets to prevent the buildup of bugs or dust, replacing filters, or replacing sensor detector components as they age. Maintenance can also include examining site conditions for any changes (e.g., vandalism, overgrown trees).

By properly maintaining an air sensor device, you can reduce errors in data collection, extend the device's operating life, and save money that would otherwise be spent on replacement parts and repair services. Typical air sensor maintenance activities are listed in [Appendix C](#) and may also be provided by the manufacturer.



Troubleshooting. Problems with air sensors (e.g., failing to report data) will likely occur and may require troubleshooting to resolve the problem and to continue collecting data. Troubleshooting might include visiting the sensor, contacting the manufacturer, seeking guidance from other air sensor users, or other activities. User manuals may also provide tips on troubleshooting.



Quality control (QC) checks. It is important to frequently review the data for problems such as outliers (e.g., data that are significantly different from other data values), drift, etc. Some sensor manufacturers may offer a software package or online user interface that offers some automated checks of the data to assist in this process. Note that automated checks may not catch subtle problems (e.g., a gas sensor slowly degrading and losing its response) or may flag a real-life event or very high concentrations (e.g., high PM_{2.5} concentrations from wildfire smoke) as bad data. Do not solely rely on automatic QC checks to identify issues with the data—always review the data frequently. Section 3.7.2 discusses additional QA and QC checks.



Periodic collocation. Collocation can help quantify the accuracy of a sensor while periodic checks can help ensure that accuracy is not changing over time or in different conditions. Users should develop a collocation approach or use the manufacturer’s recommendation to conduct a periodic collocation to check the quality of the air sensor’s measurements. [Section 3.6](#) provides information on the process of collocation and how to correct data to make it more accurate.

3.7.2 Checks to Ensure Quality Assurance and Quality Control

Quality assurance (QA) and **quality control (QC)** are essential components of a project that will ensure that credible and useful data are collected (Figure 3-14). QA consists of planned steps to manage the project and collect, assess, and review the data. An example of QA is developing a plan for air monitoring (see [Section 3.3](#)) to ensure identification of all tasks or steps to review air sensor data and confirm the sensor is operating properly. QC includes steps taken to reduce error from the instruments or measurements during a project. QC procedures are activities that include collocation, correction of data, maintenance, automatic data checks, and data review. Essentially, QA is the planning and QC is the action taken to produce high-quality data. QA/QC are important components of a project that will help ensure that credible and useful data are collected.

Regardless of whether the user presents the results as a written report, oral presentation, or in conversation, users should clearly describe the approach, the measurements obtained, the QA/QC checks in place, and the interpretation of the data. If any of these components are missing or not well executed, your data’s credibility will diminish.

[Table 3-2](#) shows the recommended QC checks that can be performed on an air sensor and its data. The checks are designed to catch problems early, correct them, and produce a useful, high-quality data set.

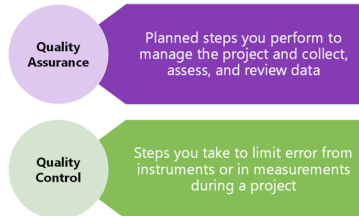


Figure 3-14. Definitions of Quality Assurance and Quality Control



Tip: Check sensor data and compare to nearby reference data after setup, and review data frequently.

Issues with reporting time and units in data files are common problems that can be identified by checking the data as soon as air sensors are set up and reporting measurements. Also, immediately after setup, users should carefully review and compare the data collected against nearby reference instruments to ensure the data appear reasonable. It is highly recommended that users review data frequently (e.g., daily, weekly) to identify problems quickly and to determine if the data are normal or abnormal.

Table 3-2. Common Quality Control (QC) Checks

QC Check	Description
Units	Check that the sensor reports data in the correct units of measure.
Time	Check that the sensor reports data at the correct time and in the right time zone. Check times after any seasonal time changes (e.g., daylight savings time).
Timestamp	Determine the timestamp, which is the time when data are stamped (i.e., tagged) by an instrument. Measurements and data averages will have times that either represent the beginning of the time period (time beginning) or the end of the period (time ending).
Matching Timestamps	Check the time zones and timestamps for each dataset to make sure they are similar when comparing measurements made by different instruments.
Data Review	Check data frequently (e.g., daily, weekly) to detect problems early, identify trends in the data, ensure that maintenance activities were completed, and become familiar with recurring patterns (see Section 3.7.1).
Data Completeness	Completeness measures the amount of data a sensor collects compared to the amount of data that was possible to collect if the sensor operated continuously, without data outages, during a period (e.g., 1-hour, 1-day). A 75% completeness level is a useful criterion to meet as the averaged data is generally representative of that time period. For example, at least 45, 1-minute measurements are needed to make a valid 1-hour average at 75% completeness.
Automatic Data Checks	<p>Software can check data for problems and outliers. Check your data management system for these and other data checks. Note that some data checks may not catch subtle problems (e.g., a gas sensor degrading and slowly losing its response) or may flag an infrequent event or very high concentrations (e.g., high PM_{2.5} concentrations from wildfire smoke) as bad data. Do not solely rely on automatic QC to check data quality; always do frequent manual data reviews.</p> <p>Common automatic checks include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Range. Check the minimum and maximum concentrations expected and recognize some air sensors may report slightly negative values. • Rate of Change. Check the difference in data values from an air sensor between two consecutive time periods (e.g., hours). Flag the data if the difference, or rate of change, exceeds the value set by the user. For example, it is unusual for PM_{2.5} concentrations to jump by more than 100 µg/m³ from one hour to the next unless a significant source such as wildfire smoke or fireworks is present. Thus, if the

QC Check	Description
	<p>value for the rate of change check is set to 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, an increase from 70 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ to 200 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ between consecutive hours would exceed the rate-of-change check.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sticking. Check if data values are "stuck" at the same value for a specified number of hours. Establish criteria for the number of consecutive hours for which data can be reported at the same value. For example, it is uncommon for PM_{10} concentrations to remain at the same concentration for several consecutive hours. If the number of concentration hours is set to three, and the PM_{10} concentration is the same value for more than three consecutive hours, that could indicate a stuck value. • Duplicate sensor comparison. Some sensors incorporate two identical sensing components inside which provide two separate pollutant concentration measurements. Check the agreement between the readings and flag data if the difference exceeds an acceptable threshold. • Buddy System. Check the difference between data values obtained from a single location and the average data values obtained from other nearby locations. • Parameter-to-Parameter. Check two or more pollutants for known or expected physical or chemical relationships. For example, $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ should be less than PM_{10} measured at the same site and time, and NO_2 and O_3 concentrations are often inversely correlated (i.e., when O_3 is high, NO_2 is typically lower).
Manual Data Validation	Evaluate the data quality during the collection phase of the project to identify and correct potential problems that may arise. To accomplish this, analyze data to identify seasonal, day/night, and weekday/weekend patterns and weather changes. An absence of expected patterns may indicate a problem with the sensor or with the measurement approach.

Many of the QC checks in [Table 3-2](#) will help evaluate the quality of the data obtained during the collection phase to identify and fix common problems found in air sensor data. Common problems in the data are described below.

- **Drift** refers to a gradual positive or negative change in a sensor's response over time due to various reasons (e.g., aging of the sensor component). Drift may lead users to incorrectly conclude that concentrations have increased or decreased over time. Some ways to reduce drift include frequently performing a collocation-correction process (see [Section 3.6](#)) or conducting frequent maintenance on the sensor.
- **Interferents and Influences** include factors that hinder, obstruct, or impede the sensor's ability to provide high quality measurements. Other pollutants that interfere with the measurement of the target pollutant are sometimes referred to as cross-sensitivities. For example, oxidants (e.g., O_3) in the air can interfere with electrochemical sensors used to measure NO_2 and high moisture content (e.g., above 85 percent RH) can cause PM air sensors using optical technologies to overestimate PM concentrations. Debris, dirt, and insects can also impact sensor performance. Interferents and influences may alter sensor accuracy, and a sensor

can be impacted by several different factors simultaneously. Manufacturers sometimes disclose which pollutants and weather conditions may impact sensor performance, but manufacturers may not describe how much the sensor will be affected. Before using a sensor to measure air quality, consider whether the possible sensor interferences will be present in the air to be sampled and check with the manufacturer about potential interferences and how to minimize their effects, if possible.

- **All measured parameters may not be reported** in a dataset. Many sensors report several pieces of data including pollutant concentration(s), temperature (T), relative humidity (RH), and more. Because data may come from several components within the device (e.g., pollutant concentration come from one component, T/RH from another), it is possible pieces of the data stream may be missing while others are present. Be sure to review each parameter separately to ensure all components are reporting properly.
- **Unexpected downtime** due to for example, power loss and power surges, can affect air sensor performance by causing sensors to shut down, restart, or interrupt data transmission. For example, an air sensor that has a longer warm-up period may show data gaps or inconsistent data when power loss occurs. Data gaps and significant data loss associated with unexpected downtime may prevent users from collecting a complete, valid data set.
- **Unexpected problems** can occur in many monitoring instruments, air sensors, and other electronic equipment. In some cases, a concentration spike (e.g., data spike, outlier) may be caused by electronic or other device-related issues; however, a spike could be a valid measurement and it can sometimes be difficult to tell the difference. Local observations may help to interpret the data. For example, observing someone smoking near a PM sensor and a seeing a corresponding short-term increase in PM concentrations would indicate that this is a valid measurement (i.e., the sensor responded to the smoke), even though the measurement does not represent the general air quality conditions at that time.

How do I Verify That my Sensor is Working Properly if There are No Reference Monitors Nearby?

Although we recommend that users carefully review and compare the sensor data collected against nearby reference instruments to ensure the data appear reasonable, there are situations and locations where this comparison is difficult because there are no reference monitors nearby.

Based on resources (e.g., money, equipment, expertise), users could

- Setup a reference instrument nearby
- Setup a sensor which was recently collocated with a reference monitor and shown to provide comparable results
- Compare trends and concentrations with several nearby sensors and consider whether similarities/differences are expected or surprising.

In summary, having QA/QC checks in place for a project is important as they help ensure data quality and allow you to address common problems if they arise. Having QA/QC information available is also important if it is requested by anyone who wants to use the data.

3.7.3 Data Management System

Air sensors produce a large amount of data that must be routinely tracked and managed to access, review, and use the data effectively. A data management system (DMS) is a collection of procedures and software needed to acquire, process, and distribute data. A DMS helps streamline data processing, provides QC and review tools, maintains digital records and backups of the data, and displays, reviews, and facilitates sharing the data. These features make it easier to use air sensor data and to identify instrument errors or other problems early. A DMS also makes it easier to operate and manage a network of multiple sensors simultaneously.

Figure 3-15 shows the key components and functions of a DMS. Note that a DMS may be bundled with a sensor (e.g., manufacturer offered cloud data portal), purchased as a third-party system, or be available as open-source software. Each of the functions shown in Figure 3-15 play an essential role in operating either a single sensor or network of air sensors and collecting useful data.

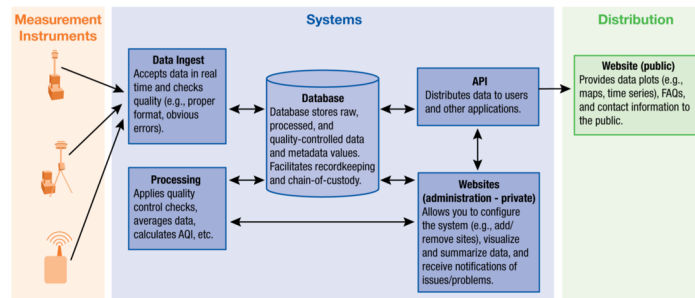


Figure 3-15. Major Components and Functions of a Data Management System (DMS)

The basic DMS functions consist of the following:

- **Ingest data.** A DMS acquires and reformats data. The DMS can either pull data from an air sensor system or sensors can push data to the DMS. Think carefully about data format as these choices can impact data storage volume and how easy it is to use existing code to process and visualize the data.

- **Store data and metadata.** After acquiring and reformatting data, the DMS needs to store data and metadata (e.g., site locations, configurations, unit identifiers). The storage system could be a spreadsheet, a file-based system, or a relational database (i.e., database structured to recognize relations among data). These options provide different levels of flexibility and scalability and may or may not require a license agreement. Storing data can also include tracking changes to the data and metadata (i.e., chain of custody) to help ensure data integrity.
- **Process data.** After collected data are stored, the DMS needs to process and QC data. This consists, for example, of applying data correction algorithms, creating data averages (e.g., 1-hour, 8-hour, 24-hour), calculating summary statistics, converting data to an Air Quality Index ([AQI](#)) for health messaging, or other data processing and visualization needs. QC checks (see [Table 3-2](#)) are a necessary part of data management and should be included to identify outliers and problems with the data.
- **Monitor network health.** Features that help you quickly and easily identify problems within a network of sensors are highly desirable especially when your network consists of many sensors or when sensors are spread out over a large geographical area. At a minimum, this feature should help identify sensors that are not reporting data so that they can be repaired or replaced. More advanced features may identify sensors that often fail the QC checks (see [Table 3-2](#)) or even help diagnose problems for faster troubleshooting or repair (e.g., pinpoint the external component that needs to be replaced).
- **Control of the system.** It is highly useful for users to have the ability to control the DMS. System control features might include the ability to change system settings (e.g., add/remove sites or users, change time zones), set or change QC criteria, edit and correct data, generate statistical summaries and reports, and visualize data. These types of control features enable users to oversee and adjust the DMS to meet project needs.
- **Distribute data:** Retrieving and distributing the data is another important function of a DMS. These activities can range from very simple ways to export data to more sophisticated software called **Application Program Interfaces (APIs)**. An API allows interactions between the DMS and other remote software systems. The API defines the kinds of calls or data requests, how to make them, the appropriate data formats and conventions to follow, and so on. The API also allows other websites and data systems on the internet to access data within the DMS.

Other recommended features of a DMS include:

- **Data security.** The ability to keep data safe from hacking, altering, or other unwanted activities is important for data integrity.
- **Data redundancy (backups).** Given the potential for situations that can cause data loss, data backups are critical to ensure that users can recover data.
- **Cloud-based software that can be accessed from any location.** It is ideal to have software that can allow users to view data and/or instrument status remotely no matter where a user is located. This will allow users to check monitor instruments for



any problems, change instrument settings if needed, frequently review data, or carry out other activities to manage a project.

- **Version control features for tracking changes to the data.** Manufacturers may change the firmware or other settings on a device that can impact the data. Having a way to document these changes will allow users to better understand their data.
- **Data ownership terms and usage rights.** Detailed information about who owns the data, who has access, and if there are terms and conditions on its use will help users determine if the DMS is acceptable for their proposed project.
- **Tools for data QC, data review, and visualization.** These tools can allow users to frequently check the data to identify any issues and quickly look at trends in the data.
- **AQI calculations and formulas.** AQI may be calculated differently using different formulas. If users want to directly compare the AQI to the U.S. AQI, for example, knowledge on how the AQI is calculated is important.
- **Public website that includes data displays (e.g., maps, time-series plots, and tables), responses to frequently asked questions, and health information.** A public DMS can help communities quickly view data for trends, health information, and answer their questions about the data.
- **Email or text alerts for missing data, high values, and other events.** Instrument problems, air quality events, or other issues can always occur in a monitoring project. The ability to know when these events occur can help users troubleshoot and resolve issues during a project.

Selecting a DMS that meets your current and future needs involves several considerations. First, consider the size of the network. The larger the network of sensors and volume of data generated, the greater the management challenge, and a DMS with automated procedures can help minimize effort. You will also need to consider security elements like who can access the DMS and other special information technology (IT) requirements such as the physical location of the cloud software. Some systems are easy to use, yet may not allow customization, while others are fully customizable and require software programming experience. You will also need to consider your budget for software, licenses, and recurring (e.g., monthly) fees. Make sure to ask about fees associated with adding more network sites or parameters, and other cost drivers such as who will be responsible for customizing and maintaining the software.

Tip: A DMS can add costs to a project, so budget wisely

A DMS can be highly valuable for sensor project, but it is important to recognize that these systems can add additional costs to a project. Depending on the provider, pricing can vary and be a one-time, monthly, or annual fee. Having a good understanding of these costs and pricing plans is important.



A range of options exist for a DMS based on your specific needs:

- **Spreadsheets** can be used as a DMS to handle a small amount of data collected over a limited time period. Although a spreadsheet is easy to create, it can be challenging to automate processes and scale the system for larger sensor networks.
- **Cloud-based systems** are widely available to handle data. Many large technology companies provide generic solutions to manage data. Although not always explicitly designed for air quality applications, these cloud-based systems offer many of the basic DMS functions discussed above; however, they may need to be customized to suit your needs.
- **Sensor manufacturer DMS solutions** are offered by some air sensor companies and perform the functions shown in [Figure 3-15](#). In addition, systems offered by some companies can ingest data from other sensor and reference monitors. You will need to assess the capabilities of their systems, understand how much customization is possible (if any), and consider any additional costs.
- **Commercial, air-quality focused systems** are used by many air quality agencies and other professionals that collect and manage air quality data. These systems are highly customized to meet the needs of air quality monitoring, and the vendors typically understand air quality concepts. Vendors usually charge a software license and/or recurring fee to use their DMS and additional features.
- **Open-source, air quality-focused systems** can provide another solution for data management. They may not have licensing costs, but there could be costs associated with hosting the software. This approach allows for scaling up as a sensor network becomes larger but may require experience with open-source software to install, operate, and customize the system.

Whichever DMS approach is used, consider the following best practices for data management:

- **Plan how you will manage** the data before deploying any air sensor – it takes considerable time and effort to manage the data.
- **Contact other organizations** that are operating air sensors or sensor networks and ask about what type of DMS they use and any recommendations they may have.
- **Check with the air sensor manufacturer/vendor** for DMS solutions they offer or if they can recommend other DMS solutions that are compatible with their products.
- **Check with your internal information technology (IT) department** before purchasing, contracting, or designing a DMS to ensure that it meets data security needs and that the correct settings can be enabled on networks and computers.
- **Look for an automated DMS** to streamline routine tasks (e.g., data ingestion, QC, data reporting).



Resources for More Information

- **AirSensor and DataViewer Tools (R package)**
 - AirSensor is an open-source R package that allows users to access historical data, add spatial metadata, and visualize community monitoring data through maps and plots
 - DataViewer is an interactive web application that incorporates the functionality and data plotting functions of the AirSensor for interpreting and communicating community data collected by sensor networks
 - <https://github.com/MazamaScience/AirSensor/tree/version-0.5>
 - <https://github.com/MazamaScience/AirSensorShiny>
 - These papers summarize the development and enhancements of the AirSensor and DataViewer tools:
 - Feenstra et al, 2020 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsoft.2020.104832>
 - Collier-Oxandale et al, 2022 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsoft.2021.105256>
- **Data Policies for Public Participation in Scientific Research: A Primer**, DataONE Public Participation in Scientific Research Working Group, August 2013
 - Guide that introduces data policies in the context of public participation in scientific research or community science, provides examples, and best practices for implementing data policies in community science projects
 - https://safmc.net/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/Bowseretal2013_DataPolicyPrimer.pdf
- **Handbook for Citizen Science Quality Assurance and Documentation**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA 206-B-18-001, March 2019
 - Handbook that covers common expectations for quality assurance and documentation and best management practices to level the playing field for organizations that train and use volunteers in the collection of environmental data
 - https://www.epa.gov/sites/default/files/2019-03/documents/508_csqaphandbook_3_5_19_mmedits.pdf
- **Data Management Guide for Public Participation in Scientific Research**, DataONE Public Participation in Scientific Research Working Group, February 2013
 - Guide that provides best practices and other considerations for data management along the life cycle of community science projects
 - <https://www.dataone.org/sites/all/documents/DataONE-PPSR-DataManagementGuide.pdf>



- **USGS Guide to Data Management**
 - United States Geological Survey (USGS) website that provides guidance, best practices, and tools for data management including in-depth training modules and numerous data management example scenarios
 - <https://www2.usgs.gov/datamanagement>
- **Survey Report: Data Management in Citizen Science Projects**, Chade S and Tsinarakis C., Publications Office of the European Union, JRC101077, 2016
 - Report summarizes the findings from a Joint Research Centre (JRC) survey of community science projects completed primarily in European Union (EU) countries
 - <https://publications.jrc.ec.europa.eu/repository/handle/JRC101077>
- **Citizenscience.gov Website**
 - Government website that promotes crowdsourcing and citizen science across the U.S. government; website catalogs government supported community science projects, provides a toolkit to assist with project design and maintenance, and serves as a gateway for community science practitioners and coordinators across the government
 - <https://www.citizenscience.gov/#>
- **U.S. EPA Guidance on Environmental Data Verification and Data Validation**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA/240/R-02/004, November 2002
 - Guidance document that specifies the agency-wide program for environmental data QA and includes practical advice to individuals implementing data verification and data validation
 - <https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2015-06/documents/g8-final.pdf>

3.8 Evaluate: Analyzing, Interpreting, Communicating, and Acting on Results

Understanding air sensor data is as important as selecting and operating an air sensor. You should plan early for how to process, analyze, and interpret the data and how you will share and communicate the results. Do not wait until data have been collected to determine how you will use the data. Evaluating the results may reveal unanswered questions that revise or update your questions or other steps in your plan, as shown in [Figure 3-1](#).

There are many methods to analyze, evaluate, and share results, but the choice of which approach to use depends on the questions you are seeking to answer. Some analysis and interpretation can be relatively simple, while others that involve complex evaluations and in-depth interpretation can be a challenge to communicate. For example, a PM_{2.5} air sensor outside a home can measure local concentrations and help users determine the times of



day when $PM_{2.5}$ levels are lowest. However, deploying an air sensor network consisting of many sensors to detect areas of higher or lower concentrations will require much more detailed data analyses and interpretation. Again, users should plan how they will analyze, evaluate, and communicate their results in advance. The remainder of this section provides guidance on methods and techniques for accomplishing these tasks and resources for getting started.

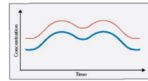
3.8.1 Analyze and Interpret Data

Data analysis is generally comprised of processing, then visualizing the data. Processing the data typically includes the following steps:

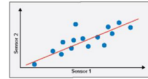
1. **Data cleaning** to prepare the data for analysis. Cleaning includes: a) QC checks and validation of the data to remove problems (e.g., large negative values, high values caused by sensor failure) and outliers, and b) checking timestamps and units.
2. **Documenting** any adjustments or changes to the data.
3. **Acquiring data from other sources** needed for the analysis. These data could include corresponding meteorological data, traffic data, emissions information, and/or other sources.
4. **Averaging data** to evaluate the "big picture" signals in the data.
5. **Grouping data** to summarize the data, or group or filter data to explore more details. Some examples include grouping data by time of day, day of week, location, and/or meteorological conditions.
6. **Correlating data** to begin evaluating the relationships between the air sensor data and other data values. For example, correlating $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations and wind speed can show how different weather conditions are related to $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations.
7. **Comparing data** to evaluate the air sensor data against different air quality standards and indices like the AQI.

Air sensors produce a large amount of data, so visualizing these data can help you understand what they mean. Many different types of visualizations can be used to explore air sensor data. [Figure 3-16](#) presents some of the most common visualization tools.





Time Series Plots show changes in one or more parameters with time. Useful in comparing trends (pollutants, temperature, multiple sites, etc.).



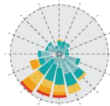
Scatter Plots show the relationship between two parameters. Color coding the dots can indicate a different variable (humidity, temperature, etc.).



Calendar Plots give a big picture look at quality over a month or longer period. Dates can be colored to indicate higher or lower concentrations.



Maps show the spatial patterns of data across a region. Plotting other data such as traffic count or locations of emissions sources can help explain changes in the data.



Wind and Pollution Roses show the frequency of wind direction and can be colored to show pollutant concentrations or wind speed. Useful in showing where higher pollutant concentrations come from.

Figure 3-16. Common Visualization Methods for Air Quality Data

Whether interpreting data in a table or graph, users should ask questions about what they can see in these visual plots. Some questions to ask include:

- Where and when do high (or low) concentrations occur?
- Are there certain characteristics (e.g., weather conditions, emissions patterns, days of the week, season) that lead to high concentrations?
- How do pollutant concentrations change during the day? Are they lower or higher during nighttime, and why?
- What are the prevailing wind directions during a period of interest (e.g., the occurrence of high $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations), and where did the air originate?
- How do measured concentrations compare to concentrations from nearby reference stations?
- How do measured concentrations compare to health indices like the AQI?

3.8.2 Communicating Results

Sensor users may wish to communicate their findings to a variety of different audiences including members of their community, government officials, regulators, industry, or others. The approaches taken (e.g., brief or detailed summary, technical details) and methods used (e.g., social media, presentations, written materials) may need to be tailored to each audience to most effectively communicate information. Communicating the data and results in an open and transparent way can help sensor users build trust in newer and rapidly changing sensor technology. Consider the following elements when seeking to communicate data:

1. **State your purpose or objective.** This information can help you communicate why you conducted the study and why you made some of your decisions. It is crucial to describe how air sensors provided sufficient data quality to meet the project objective(s). Results should be tailored to answer your monitoring question.
2. **Describe the monitoring setup and data.** Providing a clear description of where sensors were located and the data collected allows others to gain confidence in the data and results. Make sure your study files/reports include information about sensor locations, site photographs, QC checks, time stamps, units, formulas for calculated values, etc. Some of this information can be documented in a *data dictionary* which is a description of the parameters collected. It is useful to retain these records for some time beyond the study time frame because it may be necessary to retroactively adjust data as more information regarding sensor performance or data correction becomes available.
3. **Describe the data processing and analysis.** When communicating data and results, it is recommended that information on the following topics be addressed and clearly documented:
 - Data cleaning and corrections/data adjustments
 - QC checks
 - Data analysis and interpretation, including software/methods used
 - Maintenance and operations
 - Limitations of the data and air sensors
4. **Visualize the data and share the results.** There are many ways to visualize data (e.g., graphs, tables, animations). How you chose to display your data may be based on your project objective and/or the audience you are sharing your results with. Some suggestions include:



- **Graphs:** Time series plots that show sensor data compared to regulatory monitor data; time series plots that show how concentrations change over time; maps that show how concentrations differ in space (see [Figure 3-16](#)).
- **Tables:** Show numerical sensor data at different locations or at different time to show areas where/when concentrations were elevated.
- **Animations:** Video-like images that show pollutant concentrations as they change in time and/or space.

Tip: Know your audience before presenting your results!

When presenting results, know your audience. Having knowledge of who is in your audience can help you determine how much information they want and what type of visuals may work best for sharing results. For example, a scientist may want technical details on a project while others may want a big picture summary. Be sure to include the main take-aways and call to action or next steps for your project.

3.8.3 Take Action

One advantage of air sensors is that allow for measurement of air quality often in real-time in more locations. This local information can empower a variety of decisions, specifically behavioral changes to reduce emission of pollutants and to reduce your exposure to pollutants. Both these actions can improve the air quality and improve your health. Here are some examples of ways to take action based on air sensor data:

- **Adjust your outdoor activities** (e.g., walking, exercising, running errands) biking, gardening,) if sensors measure higher pollution levels. Carry out your activities when pollution levels are lower.
 - Schools choose to have an activity indoors rather than outdoors or move an activity indoors when sensors show that air pollution is high on a given day.
 - Avoid a busy road and use a different route if sensors are measuring higher pollution on a given day.
- **Adjust your indoor activities** if sensors measure higher pollution levels. Consider ways to adjust your habits or to clean the space to reduce pollution levels.
 - Grill outside or open windows to increase ventilation to reduce indoor pollution from cooking.
 - Choose cleaning products with fewer VOCs and fragrances.
 - Reduce smoking and candle, incense or wood (fireplace) burning indoors to eliminate a pollution source.
 - More frequently clean pet hair or dust to reduce indoor PM_{2.5} concentrations.
 - Run a mechanical (e.g., device with a filter) or low-ozone producing electronic air cleaner if an indoor sensor measures elevated pollutant



- concentrations. The California Air Resources Board (CARB) provides a list of certified air cleaning devices.
- o [Build a DIY air cleaner](#) if a nearby air sensor indicates elevated levels of PM_{2.5} due to wildfire smoke.
 - **Look for improvements in air quality after implementing a pollution reduction strategy.**
 - o Anti-idling programs at schools may reduce measured concentrations of NO₂ and PM_{2.5} in drop-off and pick-up areas.
 - o A vegetative barrier installed along a roadway may reduce the amount of pollution impacting a populated area nearby.
 - o Fireplace change out programs or burn bans may reduce PM concentrations.

Ways to use air sensor data to change behavior is an active area of research and is likely to evolve as air sensors become more accurate and deployments more widespread. Air sensor technologies may significantly shape how individuals and communities perceive and respond to information about their air quality. Given the complexity of the science of air pollution and rapidly evolving air sensor technology (e.g., improvements in ease-of-use, data quality, interpretation), how individuals and communities use air sensor data for personal action can depend on many factors, as shown in Figure 3-17.

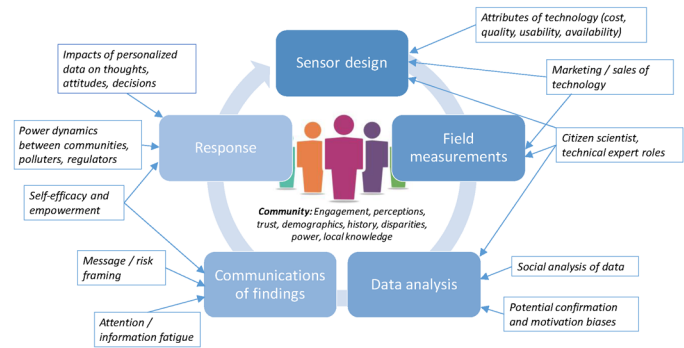


Figure 3-17. Factors that Can Contribute to how Individuals or Communities use Air Sensor Data for Personal Action (Source: [Understanding social and behavioral drivers and impacts of air quality sensor use](#))

Resources for More Information

- **Personal Strategies to Minimize Effects of Air Pollution on Respiratory Health: Advice for Providers, Patients and the Public**, Carlsten C., S. Salvi, G.W.K. Wong, K.F. Chung. *European Respiratory Journal* 55(6), 2020
 - Paper provides guidance based on findings from published literature to assist health care providers, patients, public health officials, and the public to reduce exposure to indoor and outdoor air pollution
 - <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC7270362/>
- **The AirSensor Open-source R-package and DataViewer Web Application for Interpreting Community Data Collected by Low-cost Sensor Networks**, Feenstra B., A. Collier-Oxandale, V. Papapostolou, D. Cocker, and A. Polidori. *Environmental Modelling & Software* 134, 2020
 - Paper summarizes the development of two software systems to assist in visualizing and understanding air sensor data collected by community networks. *AirSensor* is an open-source R package that allows users to access historical data, add geospatial metadata, and visualize community monitoring data using maps and plots. *DataViewer* is an interactive web application that incorporates the functionality and data plotting functions of *AirSensor* for interpreting and communicating community data collected by low-cost sensor networks
 - <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1364815220308896>
- **AirSensor v1.0: Enhancements to the Open-Source R Package to Enable Deep Understanding of the Long-Term Performance and Reliability of PurpleAir Sensors**, Collier-Oxandale A., B. Feenstra, V. Papapostolou, and A. Polidori. *Environmental Modelling & Software* 148, 2022
 - Paper describes the enhancements made to the open-source R package *AirSensor* (version 1.0) and the web application *DataViewer* (version 1.0.1) to support data access, processing, analysis, and visualization for the PurpleAir PA-II sensor. The paper also demonstrates how the enhancements help track and assess the health of air sensors in real-time and historically
 - <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S136481522100298X>



- **Understanding Social and Behavioral Drivers and Impacts of Air Quality Sensor Use**, Hubbell B.J., A. Kaufman, L. Rivers L, K. Schulte, G. Hagler, J. Clougherty, W. Cascio, and D. Costa. *Science of the Total Environment* 621 (2018): 886-894
 - Paper discusses the social science research conducted on air sensor use and identifies: (1) research opportunities between the social and environmental sciences and the entities involved in developing, testing, and deploying air sensor technologies; (2) the challenges associated with sensor data generation, interpretation, and analysis; and (3) collaboration opportunities for communities and organizations to better understand the reasons and approaches for using sensors and how technological innovations may improve the ability to reduce exposures to air pollution
 - <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC6705391/>
- **A Visual Analytics Approach for Station-Based Air Quality Data**, Du, Y., C. Ma, C. Wu, X. Xu, Y. Guo, Y. Zhou, and J. Li. *Sensors* 17(1), 2016
 - Paper proposes a comprehensive visual analysis system (*AirVis*) for air quality analysis that integrates several visual methods, such as map-based views, calendar views, and trends views, to analyze multi-dimensional spatiotemporal air quality data
 - <https://www.mdpi.com/1424-8220/17/1/30/htm>
- **AtmoVis: Visualization of Air Quality Data**, Powley, B., Master of Science Thesis, Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand, 2019
 - Document discusses the results from a search of literature regarding systems and methods for visualizing and evaluating air pollution and presents AtmoVis – a web-based system that includes visualizations for site view, line plot, heat calendar, monthly rose, monthly averages, and data comparisons
 - https://homepages.ecs.vuw.ac.nz/~djp/files/MSc_BenPowley_2019.pdf
- **Openair – An R Package for Air Quality Data Analysis**, Carslaw, D.C. and K. Ropkins. *Environmental Modelling & Software* 27-28, 2012
 - *Openair* is an R package used extensively in academia and in the public and private sectors that analyzes air quality data and atmospheric composition data
 - <https://davidcarslaw.github.io/openair>
 - https://bookdown.org/david_carslaw/openair/
- **U.S. EPA Real Time Geospatial Data Viewer (RETIGO)**
 - REal Time GeOspatial Data Viewer (RETIGO) is a free, web-based tool that can be used to explore stationary or mobile environmental data that you have collected; nearby public air quality and meteorological data can be added to the display
 - <https://www.epa.gov/hesc/real-time-geospatial-data-viewer-retigo>



- **U.S. EPA AirData: Air Quality Data Collected at Outdoor Monitoring Stations Across the U.S.**
 - A website providing tools and access to recent and historical air quality information for the U.S., Puerto Rico, and the U.S. Virgin Islands; view data on an interactive mapping application; obtain information about each monitor; and download daily and annual concentration data, AQI data, and speciated particle pollution data (primarily from U.S. EPA's Air Quality System database)
 - <https://www.epa.gov/outdoor-air-quality-data>
- **Community in Action: A Comprehensive Guidebook on Air Quality Sensors**, South Coast Air Quality Management District (South Coast AQMD), Air Quality Sensor Performance Evaluation Center (AQ-SPEC), September 2021
 - Guidebook for community organizations that covers planning for monitoring using sensors; sensor deployment, use, and maintenance; and data handling, interpretation, and communication
 - <http://www.aqmd.gov/aq-spec/special-projects/star-grant>
- **California Air Resources Board (CARB) List of CARB-Certified Air Cleaning Devices**
 - A website providing a table of CARB-certified air cleaning devices, a description of the difference between mechanical and electronic air cleaners, and resources to help you select a safe and effective air cleaner
 - <https://ww2.arb.ca.gov/list-carb-certified-air-cleaning-devices>
- **U.S. EPA Research on Do-It-Yourself (DIY) Air Cleaners to Reduce Wildfire Smoke Indoors**
 - A website providing an overview of EPA research conducted to evaluate the safety and effectiveness of DIY air cleaners; includes a summary and links to the Underwriters Laboratories (UL) safety report findings, answers to frequently asked questions, and links to helpful resources
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-research/research-diy-air-cleaners-reduce-wildfire-smoke-indoors>





Chapter 4

Sensor Performance Guidance

Choosing an air sensor that is most appropriate for an intended application can be challenging. Because air sensor data quality is highly variable, sensor data is compared with data from a reference instrument to describe sensor performance. Reviewing available performance information can help users select a sensor that is appropriate for their intended use.

This chapter provides:

- An overview of sensor performance guidance,
- Information about sensor performance evaluations,
- Approaches used to evaluate sensor performance, and
- Information about how to select sensors based on evaluation reports and other information

4.1 Overview of Sensor Performance

There are many air sensors available to the public and new options continue to become available to meet the growing demand for affordable air monitoring technologies. Choosing an air sensor that best fits your application of interest can be challenging. The quality of sensor data can vary, with some sensors producing reliable and interpretable data and others generating numbers that are not related to pollution concentrations. Because of these differences, it is important to consider how a sensor performs before purchasing a device. **Sensor performance** is a term used to describe how well a sensor works relative to a reference instrument to determine how much confidence we should have in the data produced by a sensor. Having an understanding of the approaches used to determine sensor performance, where to find that information, and how to interpret the information can help users select a sensor that best suits their application.

4.2 Sensor Performance Evaluations

A **sensor performance evaluation** is a test that compares sensor data to reference instrument data (see example setup in Figure 4-1). Reference instruments are used as they provide highly accurate measurements and are the "gold standard". Sensor performance evaluations are needed because air sensor data quality is highly variable. Sensors and the way their data is processed is constantly changing and improving, which can also impact performance. Sensor performance evaluations can address common concerns of sensors as summarized in [Figure 4-2](#). This information can also help sensor users in the planning phase of a project to select a sensor (see [Section 3.4](#) and [Figure 3-3](#)).



Figure 4-1. Air Sensors on Tripods (in foreground) with Reference Instruments (in the background) to Evaluate Sensor Performance. Photo Credit: South Coast Air Quality Monitoring District (AQMD)

Ability to measure pollutant of interest	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Does the sensor measure the pollutant of interest accurately and reliably within the expected concentration range of the application?
Performance under different environmental conditions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> How do factors such as relative humidity, temperature, and different pollutant concentrations and types impact sensor measurements?
Ability to measure target pollutant in a pollutant mixture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Will the sensor measure the target pollutant in a mixture of other pollutants?
Performance over time	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> How does the sensor response change over time? When do the sensor readings become inaccurate or unreliable?
Performance out-of-the-box	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> How does the sensor perform out-of-the-box? Are corrections or adjustments needed to provide more accurate data?
Useful Lifetime	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Does how long a sensor runs change how the sensor responds? Is the lifetime of the sensor impacted by concentration range or whether the sensor is in use or not?

Figure 4-2. Common Concerns Related to Sensor Performance

A number of sensor performance evaluations have been conducted and results are publicly available from many testing organizations, both within the U.S. and internationally, including:

- U.S. EPA Office of Research and Development (ORD)
- South Coast Air Quality Management District (South Coast AQMD) Air Quality Sensor Performance Evaluation Center (AQ-SPEC)
- European Commission Joint Research Centre (JRC)
- Airparif AIRLABS Microsensors Challenge
- Academic researchers
- Sensor manufacturers

We expect that additional evaluation centers, laboratories, or organizations may launch in the coming years.

Sensor users should keep in mind that not all sensors, including do-it-yourself (DIY) sensors, have performance evaluations. For evaluations that are available, perspective users should check whether the test conditions were similar to their intended study area or whether changes have been made to the product hardware or firmware since the evaluation was conducted. Additionally, while a sensor may have a performance evaluation, it is important to understand if the evaluation is unbiased and objective. In other words, did the organization that conducted the evaluation do so in a fair and impartial manner.

Although testing organizations, like those previously mentioned, evaluate sensors in different locations and can give users an idea of how a sensor is expected to perform, there might be a need to do an evaluation on your own. If this is not feasible due to resources (e.g., funding, equipment, expertise) or other reasons, you may consider doing the following:

- Ask a testing organization if they have already conducted a sensor evaluation for a device you are interested in. Sometimes evaluations have been conducted but the results have not been shared yet publicly.
- Ask a testing organization if they are planning to evaluate a sensor you are interested in using or if they might be willing to conduct an evaluation.

Sensor users should remember to check and evaluate a sensor's performance within the study area ideally before, during, and after a study if possible. This check is referred to as **collocation** (see [Section 3.6](#)) and is a necessary part of any sensor project.

What is the Difference Between a Sensor Performance Evaluation and Collocation?

Sensor performance evaluations provide information about how well a sensor performs relative to a reference instrument.

A performance evaluation, at the core, is a collocation. However, it is a collocation conducted by an objective testing organization for the specific purpose of informing others about how well the sensor agrees with reference instruments under the test conditions. Manufacturers may use the results to improve their sensor products. Potential sensor users may use the results to decide what sensor(s) to buy for a project.

It is a best practice to collocate air sensors with reference instruments after purchase, as discussed in [Section 3.6](#), to check their performance under outdoor conditions in the desired monitoring location.

Resources for More Information

- **U.S. EPA Air Sensor Performance Evaluations**
 - Collection of results for field and laboratory evaluations of air sensors conducted by U.S. EPA Office of Research and Development
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/evaluation-emerging-air-sensor-performance>
- **South Coast Air Quality Management District (South Coast AQMD) Air Quality Sensor Performance Evaluation Center (AQ-SPEC)**
 - Field and laboratory evaluations of commercially available air sensors conducted by AQ-SPEC
 - <http://www.aqmd.gov/aq-spec>



- **European Commission Joint Research Centre (JRC)**
 - Results for field and laboratory evaluations of air sensors primary in the form of scientific journal articles and reports
 - <https://publications.jrc.ec.europa.eu/repository/>
- **AirParif AIRLABS Microsensors Challenge**
 - Results from an international challenge that promotes innovation and helps inform users on the performance of air sensors in different applications
 - <http://www.airlab.solutions/en/projects/microsensor-challenge>

4.3 Approaches Used to Evaluate Sensor Performance

There are two main approaches for evaluating air sensor performance: **field evaluations** and **laboratory evaluations**. Table 4-1 briefly summarizes these approaches and their purpose in more detail.

Table 4-1. Common Approaches for Evaluating Air Sensor Performance

Evaluation Approach	Description	Purpose
Field	Sensors evaluated in the field at an ambient (outdoor) fixed site	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gives information on how a sensor performs in real-world, outdoor conditions • Gives users information on how they might expect a sensor to perform in similar outdoor conditions
Laboratory	Sensors evaluated in a controlled laboratory setting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allows us to study a range of conditions that may be more difficult to come across outdoors • Allows us to better understand certain performance parameters that are difficult to test outdoors

Field evaluations typically involve collocating one or more sensors side-by-side with a reference instrument(s) for an extended period of time (e.g., days, months, years) outdoors. In field evaluations, sensors experience typical changes in pollutant concentrations and daily swings in temperature (T) and relative humidity (RH). Sensors may also experience typical weather conditions (e.g., rain, fog, snow, high winds) that may impact how a sensor performs. When operating outdoors, sensors will also experience different pollutant mixtures which can test how well a sensor can detect the target pollutant. One downside of a field evaluation is that outdoor conditions cannot be controlled. This means that it will be impossible to understand how a sensor will perform under conditions that are not present. For example, an evaluation during the summer will not tell you how a sensor may perform in colder temperatures. Additionally, it can be difficult to figure out if changes in the



pollutant concentration level, pollutant mixture, or environmental conditions are affecting sensor performance, especially when these conditions change at the same time.

Laboratory evaluations are typically short-term evaluations (e.g., hours) conducted in an environmentally controlled chamber. One or more sensors and the inlet(s) of a reference instrument(s) are placed in the chamber and exposed to different test conditions (e.g., high or low temperatures, high or low humidity, target and interferent pollutant concentrations and types) and the measurements are compared. Laboratory evaluations are useful as they can provide information on how sensors perform in specific environmental conditions that may commonly or rarely happen outdoors. However, an environmental chamber can only mimic specific real-world, outdoor environmental conditions. For example, a laboratory cannot simulate the size and chemical composition of particles in the outdoor air nor conditions like fog. While laboratory evaluations are extremely useful, they are more expensive because they require complex equipment and skilled staff to run the tests. In addition, the results represent sensor performance for a specific set of conditions which may or may not occur outdoors.

As discussed, there are pros and cons associated with each sensor performance evaluation approach. This is often why both approaches are recommended since they complement each other, and the information collected overall is useful to better understand sensor performance. Based on the purpose for monitoring, sensor users will need to decide what performance evaluation approaches can best inform what sensors are selected for a project. This decision may depend on the availability of resources (e.g., funding, knowledge, expertise) and access to field sites and/or laboratory testing facilities. Ideally, at a minimum, field testing in the location where sensors will be used is recommended.



4.3.1 U.S. EPA Recommendations on Evaluating Sensor Performance

What is the Difference Between EPA's Recommendations for Evaluating Sensors and Sensor Standards/Certification Programs?

U.S. EPA's recommended protocols are entirely voluntary and testing results that meet some or all of the targets does not constitute certification. Further, U.S. EPA does not endorse or recommend any specific product.

Setting **sensor standards** is a voluntary process where technology testing methods are agreed upon by authorities, manufacturers, customers, and others invested in the performance of the technology.

Certification is a process where an organization carries out an agreed upon test methods set by standards to make sure tests are conducted in the same way every time. The certification process often results in a certificate or specific label.

Recognizing the need for a consistent approach for evaluating air sensor performance, the U.S. EPA published reports (herein called 'Targets Reports') that provide recommendations on how to evaluate air sensors that measure criteria pollutants. The U.S. EPA's recommendations provide a standardized, objective, and streamlined approach for evaluating air sensor performance. The U.S. EPA based its recommendations on the current state-of-the-science, literature reviews, findings from other sensor evaluation organizations, sensor standards/certification programs (both existing and in development) by other organizations, and the U.S. EPA expertise in sensor evaluation. The Targets Reports include the following:

- **Testing protocols** – step-by-step instructions for setting up instruments, testing instruments, and collecting data
- **Performance metrics** – parameters used to describe data quality and details on how to calculate them
- **Target values** – recommended values that provide a benchmark to understand sensor performance

The evaluations include both field testing (called **base testing**) and laboratory testing (called **enhanced testing**). At minimum, base testing is recommended. The testing protocols are specifically designed for sensors used in ambient, outdoor, fixed site environments for non-regulatory supplemental and informational monitoring (NSIM) applications (see [Section 1.1](#), [Table 1-1](#)). As a brief summary, NSIM categories and specific examples of applications include:

- **Spatiotemporal Variability** – daily trends, gradient studies, air quality forecasting, participatory science, education
- **Comparison** – hotspot detection, data fusion, emergency response, supplemental monitoring
- **Long-term Trend** – Long-term changes, epidemiological studies, model verification



As part of the Targets Reports, the base and enhanced testing protocols have a reporting template to encourage testers to present evaluation results using a similar format. Information on how to interpret these reports is provided in [Appendix E](#). Additionally, an EPA-developed Python code library called *sensortoolkit* is available to help testing organizations calculate the performance metrics and generate the evaluation report using the reporting template. Links to the reports, reporting templates, and Python code library are all available from [EPA's Air Sensor Toolbox](#) webpage.

The intended audience for U.S. EPA's Targets Reports includes testing organizations (e.g., routine evaluation organizations, sensor manufacturers); although, sensor users may also choose to perform the testing protocols. Conducting the protocols is entirely voluntary. Additionally, the results from the evaluations do not constitute certification or endorsement by the U.S. EPA. The testing results are meant to inform sensor users.

4.3.2 Guidance from other Organizations on Evaluating Sensor Performance

A number of organizations have developed or are in the process of developing guidance on conducting sensor performance evaluations, sensor targets/standards, or sensor certification programs. Examples of these organizations include:

- **ASTM International** – developing standards of practice and test methods for field and laboratory evaluations of ambient and indoor air sensors measuring common air pollutants.
- **European Union/European Committee for Standardization (EU/CEN)** – developing field and laboratory certification procedures for multiple tiers of sensor applications.
- **China Ministry of Ecology and Environment (MEE)** – developed field and laboratory test procedures and performance standards for air sensors.

Resources for More Information

- **U.S. EPA Performance Testing Protocols, Metrics, and Target Values for Air Sensors – Use in Ambient, Outdoor, Fixed Site, Non-Regulatory Supplemental and Informational Monitoring Applications**
 - Reports that provide recommended testing protocols (field and laboratory), performance metrics (parameters used to describe sensor data quality), and target levels to evaluate air sensors that measure criteria air pollutants
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>



- **ASTM WK64899 “New Practice for Performance Evaluation of Ambient Air Quality Sensors and Other Sensor-Based Instruments”**
 - Provides information on a practice for evaluating the performance of air quality sensors in ambient air
 - <https://www.astm.org/workitem-wk64899>

- **EU/CEN/TC 264/WG 42 “Air quality – Performance evaluation of air quality sensor systems – Part 1: Gaseous pollutants in ambient air”**
 - Outlines testing procedures and requirement for classifying performance of air quality sensors for the monitoring of gaseous pollutants
 - <https://www.en-standard.eu/pd-cen-ts-17660-1-2021-air-quality-performance-evaluation-of-air-quality-sensor-systems-gaseous-pollutants-in-ambient-air/>

- **Air Quality Sensor Performance Evaluation Center (AQ-SPEC) of the South Coast Air Quality Management District (South Coast AQMD) Website**
 - Website for the AQ-SPEC program which describes how field and laboratory tests are conducted
 - Field Evaluation Protocol and Reports: <http://www.aqmd.gov/aq-spec/evaluations/field>
 - Laboratory Evaluation Protocol and Reports: <http://www.aqmd.gov/aq-spec/evaluations/laboratory>

4.4 How to Select Sensors Based on Evaluation Reports or Information

Reviewing sensor performance evaluation reports and related information can help you select an appropriate sensor for your project. Some questions to ask when reviewing an evaluation report and determining whether a sensor would be suitable for your monitoring project application include:

- **Trends:** How well do the changes in sensor measurements mimic the change in pollutant concentrations that are measured by the reference instrument?
- **Precision:** How consistent are the concentration measurements obtained by sensors of the same make, model, and firmware version that are operated under the same field conditions?



- **Bias:** How closely do the sensor measurements agree with measurements made by a collocated reference instrument?
- **Concentration Range:** Does the operating range of the sensor cover the range of pollutant concentrations expected at the desired monitoring location?
- **Meteorology:** Is the sensor response affected by meteorological conditions (e.g., RH, T)?
- **Specificity:** Does the sensor measure the target pollutant? Are the sensor measurements affected by an interferent(s)?
- **Drift:** Is the sensor response to pollutant concentrations stable over time?

What are the Definitions of Precision, Bias, and Drift?

Bias: The systematic or persistent disagreement between concentration reported by the sensor and reference instrument.

Precision: The variation around the mean (average) of a set of measurements obtained at the same time from two or more sensors of the same type collocated under the same environmental conditions.

Drift: A change in the response or concentration reported by a sensor when challenged by the same pollutant concentration over an operating timeframe.

Going over the objectives of your project (see [Section 3.2](#)) and your plan for obtaining measurements (see [Section 3.3](#)), will help you decide on which information is most important to consider when reviewing performance evaluation results. Let's consider two examples:

- **Example #1: You would like to setup a network of sensors for a long-term deployment in a community to supplement an existing regulatory monitoring network.** For this case, you are likely most interested in a **quantitative measurement** of pollutant concentrations. Therefore, you would be most concerned with a sensor's precision, bias, and response to meteorology (i.e., T and RH). The sensors should provide an acceptable degree of agreement between the network of sensors (precision) and between the sensors and reference instrument measurements (bias) to allow you to confidently compare sensor data to the regulatory monitoring network and to air quality and health standards. Because the sensors need to provide reasonable measurements under all meteorological

What is the Difference Between Quantitative and Qualitative Measurements?

Quantitative measurements can be expressed using numbers. For example, a pollutant concentration expressed in parts per billion (ppb).

Qualitative measurements are descriptive, based on concepts, and often expressed in words. For example, pollutant concentrations described as "higher" or "lower".



conditions expected over the deployment period, you may be interested in knowing if the sensor was tested under similar meteorological conditions and whether bias changes as RH changes.

- **Example #2: You would like to use one sensor to measure an air pollutant in your backyard to determine when air quality is best for outdoor activities.** In this case, you are likely interested in a **qualitative measurement**. In other words, a sensor that reliably provides information about the relative difference between high and low pollutant concentrations (trends) might be sufficient.

[Figure 4-3](#) provides a flow chart with considerations on how to select sensors based on their performance. As mentioned in [Section 4.1](#), many organizations and manufacturers themselves conduct sensor performance evaluations. These can normally be found on the organization or manufacturers' webpages or in scientific publications (e.g., presentations, journal articles).



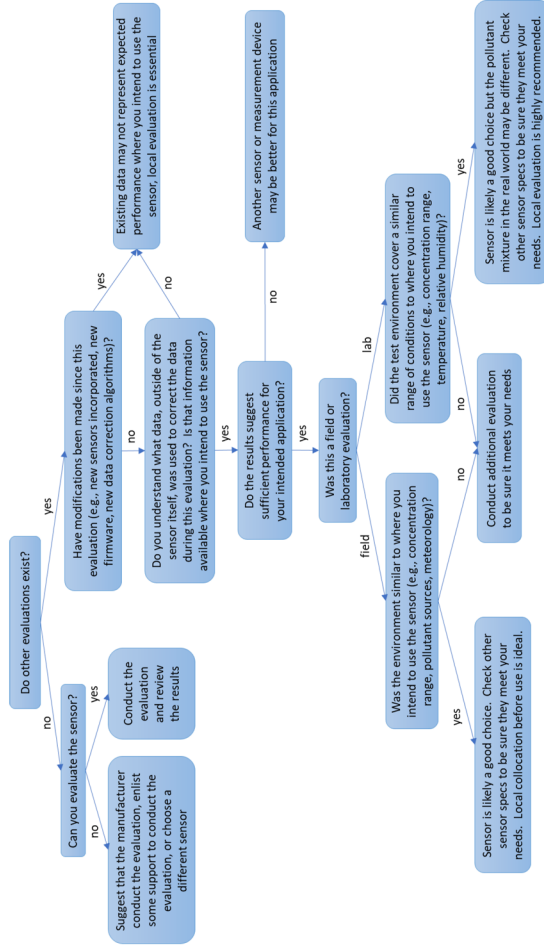


Figure 4-3. Flow Chart for Considering an Air Sensor Based on Performance

As you review sensor performance evaluations across different testing organizations, look for as much information as possible to understand the performance of a device. Remember that the level of detail and transparency can be different from one evaluation to the next. Below are some important notes to keep in mind and questions to ask about the evaluations to help you better understand the testing and results:

1. **Evaluation protocols/procedures may be similar but not identical.** Those conducting the tests may have different protocols, laboratory test pollutant concentrations, or report different performance metrics. Graphs or plots describing performance may look similar but may be generated or plotted differently. The terminology used and how the performance metric(s) is calculated may vary. For example, precision might be calculated as either the standard deviation, relative standard deviation, or relative percent difference. Evaluations may use different types of reference instruments. Use of a FRM/FEM instrument(s) will provide greater confidence in actual pollutant concentrations than the use of another mid to lower-cost sensor. There can be some differences in the results depending on which FRM/FEM is used.
 - Were both field and laboratory evaluations conducted?
 - Was an FRM/FEM instrument used? Which one?
 - Do you understand the performance metrics and how they were calculated?
2. **Locations are not widespread.** Generally, evaluations are conducted at a limited number of locations which may or may not be similar to the environment where you want to use the sensor. The evaluation results may not represent how a sensor performs in the environment you will use them in if that environment is very different (e.g., different pollutant concentration, composition, or sources).
 - Where was the test conducted?
3. **Environmental conditions are limited.** Consider whether the sensor was tested in an environment similar to where you will be using the sensor. Generally, sensor evaluations are conducted outdoors where T, RH, and other weather conditions vary. These conditions may not be similar to the environment where you want to place the sensor(s). Similarly, evaluation results may not represent sensor performance in the environment you will use them in if that environment is very different (e.g., T and RH often outside of the tested range).

Tip: Find performance evaluations that match the conditions you expect in your monitoring study

To the extent possible, find performance evaluations for the type of sensor and deployment conditions (e.g., pollutant concentration, RH, T) anticipated in your monitoring study.



- Was the test conducted in an environment similar to where you will be using the sensor?
4. **Sensor performance is variable.** It is a standard practice to test 3 or more identical sensors at the same time because it provides information on the variation in performance that can occur among identical sensors. Performance can vary based on the make, model, and firmware version of the device and even among devices of the same type. Past evaluation efforts have shown that two sensor packages that use the same internal component can perform differently. These differences can be a result of how the components are arranged, how they sample the air, or due to a build up of heat inside of the sensor housing. Additionally, manufacturers may use a mathematical equation or model to convert the output from the sensor into a pollutant concentration. Differences in data processing can change sensor performance. Firmware changes can also impact sensor performance.
- Did all sensors tested perform similarly?
 - Did the sensors tested have the same make, model, configuration, and firmware as the sensors you intend to use?
5. **Evaluations are conducted for a finite amount of time.** Typically, sensor performance evaluations are conducted for 30 days or more as it allows for more variation in pollutant concentrations and environmental conditions. Shorter evaluations may not be able to capture these variations. Longer evaluations may be needed to understand how sensor performance changes over time and sensor lifetime. Unexpected events such as power outages, equipment failure or damage, inclement or severe weather (e.g., thunderstorms, hurricanes), or pollution episodes (e.g., fireworks, dust storms, volcanic eruption) can influence evaluation results or cause missing data.
- How long was the evaluation (e.g., 7 days, 30 days, 1 year)?
6. Were there any difficulties or anomalies encountered during the test that might influence the results? **The evaluation may not represent your intended application.** A sensor may have been tested near a source (e.g., roadway, industry) where pollutant concentrations are much higher than where you intend to use the sensor.
- Was the sensor performance evaluation conducted in an environment similar to your application of interest?



Resources for More Information

- **U.S. EPA Performance Testing Protocols, Metrics, and Target Values for Air Sensors – Use in Ambient, Outdoor, Fixed Site, Non-Regulatory Supplemental and Informational Monitoring Applications**
 - Reports that provide recommended testing protocols (field and laboratory), performance metrics (parameters used to describe sensor data quality), and target levels to evaluate air sensors that measure criteria air pollutants
 - Appendices of the Targets Reports provide standardized reporting templates
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>
- **U.S.-EPA developed *sensortoolkit* python code library**
 - Code library for evaluating air sensor data collocated with reference instruments; code can be used to calculate performance metrics
 - GitHub: <https://github.com/USEPA/sensortoolkit>
 - PyPI: <https://pypi.org/project/sensortoolkit/>
- **U.S.-EPA PM_{2.5} Continuous FEM Monitor Comparability Assessments**
 - Tool providing a one-page technical report that assesses the comparability of a PM_{2.5} continuous FEM monitors when collocated with an FRM sampler
 - <https://www.epa.gov/outdoor-air-quality-data/pm25-continuous-monitor-comparability-assessments>
- **Air Quality Sensor Performance Evaluation Center (AQ-SPEC) of the South Coast Air Quality Management District (South Coast AQMD) Website**
 - Website for the AQ-SPEC program which describes how field and laboratory tests are conducted
 - Field Evaluation Protocol and Reports: <http://www.aqmd.gov/aq-spec/evaluations/field>
 - Laboratory Evaluation Protocol and Reports: <http://www.aqmd.gov/aq-spec/evaluations/laboratory>



Appendix A: Resources

A.1 Introduction to Air Sensors

- **U.S. EPA's Air Sensor Toolbox**
 - Information and resources for topics related to air sensors; includes links to other organizations and resources that sensor users may find helpful
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox>

A.2 Air Quality 101

A.2.1 Outdoor Air Quality and Air Pollution

- **U.S. EPA Air Quality Planning and Standards Website**
 - Provides additional information regarding air quality and pollutants
 - <https://www3.epa.gov/airquality/>
- **U.S. EPA National Air Quality – Status and Trends of Key Air Pollutants Website**
 - Provides air quality trends, reports, and summaries for criteria air pollutants
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-trends>
- **U.S. EPA AirNow Website**
 - Provides a variety of resources on air quality including air quality information at local, state, national, and world views, air quality and health, maps and data, educational resources, and more
 - <https://www.airnow.gov/>
- **Wildfire Smoke: A Guide for Public Health Officials**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Air Quality Planning and Standards, EPA-452/R-19-901, August 2019
 - Document provides guidance to state, tribal, and local public health officials and other interested groups (e.g., health professionals, air quality officials, public) in preparing for wildfire smoke events and in communicating health risks and taking measures to protect the public during smoke events
 - <https://www.airnow.gov/sites/default/files/2021-05/wildfire-smoke-guide-revised-2019.pdf>



- **U.S. EPA Mobile Source Pollution and Related Health Effects Website**
 - Overviews mobile sources of air pollution, summarizes health effects associated with exposure to mobile source emissions, provides data and modeling resources, and information on programs to reduce mobile source pollution
 - <https://www.epa.gov/mobile-source-pollution>

- **U.S. EPA Near-Roadway and Other Near-Source Pollution Website**
 - Overview of research on near-roadway pollution from cars, trucks, and other mobile sources and frequently asked questions about near-roadway air pollution and health effects
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-research/research-near-roadway-and-other-near-source-air-pollution>

- **Near-Roadway Air Pollution and Health: Frequently Asked Questions**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Transportation and Air Quality, EPA-420-F-14-044, August 2014
 - Document provides U.S. EPA's responses to frequently asked questions received from the public regarding exposure to near-roadway air pollution
 - <https://nepis.epa.gov/Exe/ZyPDF.cgi/P100NFFD.PDF?Dockey=P100NFFD.PDF>

- **Report to Congress on Black Carbon**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA-450/R-12-001, March 2012
 - Document summarizes available scientific information on the current and future impacts of black carbon (BC) and evaluates the effectiveness of available BC mitigation approaches and technologies
 - <https://nepis.epa.gov/Exe/ZyPURL.cgi?Dockey=P100EIJZ.txt>

- **U.S. EPA Integrated Science Assessments (ISAs) for Criteria Air Pollutants Website**
 - Reports that summarize scientific information that is the foundation for reviewing the NAAQS for criteria pollutants; ISAs are an important resource for state and local health agencies, other federal agencies, and international health organizations
 - <https://www.epa.gov/isa>



A.2.2 Health And Environmental Effects of Air Pollution

- **U.S. EPA Criteria Air Pollutants Website**
 - Provides detailed information on the six criteria pollutants including basic information, health and environmental effects, technical documents, setting and reviewing the standards, implementing the standards, and current air quality designations
 - <https://www.epa.gov/criteria-air-pollutants>
- **Health Effects of Ozone (O₃) Pollution Website**
 - Provides detailed information on health effects of breathing air containing O₃
 - <https://www.epa.gov/ground-level-ozone-pollution/health-effects-ozone-pollution>
- **Health and Environmental Effects of Particulate Matter (PM) Website**
 - Provides detailed information on health and environmental effects of PM
 - <https://www.epa.gov/pm-pollution/health-and-environmental-effects-particulate-matter-pm>
- **Basic Information about Nitrogen Dioxide (NO₂) Website**
 - Provides basic information on NO₂ including health and environmental effects
 - <https://www.epa.gov/no2-pollution/basic-information-about-no2#Effects>
- **Basic Information about Sulfur Dioxide (SO₂) Website**
 - Provides basic information on SO₂ including health and environmental effects
 - <https://www.epa.gov/so2-pollution/sulfur-dioxide-basics#effects>
- **Basic Information about Carbon Monoxide (CO) Outdoor Air Pollution Website**
 - Provides basic information on CO including health and environmental effects
 - <https://www.epa.gov/co-pollution/basic-information-about-carbon-monoxide-co-outdoor-air-pollution#Effects>
- **Basic Information about Lead (Pb) Air Pollution Website**
 - Provides basic information on Pb including health and environmental effects
 - <https://www.epa.gov/co-pollution/basic-information-about-carbon-monoxide-co-outdoor-air-pollution#Effects>
- **Report on the Environment – Volatile Organic Compounds (VOCs) Emissions Website**
 - Provides detailed information on sources, health and environmental effects, and emissions estimates of VOCs
 - <https://cfpub.epa.gov/roe/indicator.cfm?i=23#1>



- **Definition of VOC Website**
 - Provides a detailed information on the definition of VOCs as outlined in air pollution regulations
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-emissions-inventories/what-definition-voc>
- **Health Effects of Exposures to Mercury Website**
 - Provides detailed information on health effects of exposure to mercury
 - <https://www.epa.gov/mercury/health-effects-exposures-mercury>
- **Integrated Risk Information System (IRIS) Methylmercury (MeHg) Summary Website**
 - Provides health assessment information on MeHg based on review of toxicity data
 - https://cfpub.epa.gov/ncea/iris2/chemicalLanding.cfm?substance_nmbr=73
- **Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR) Public Health Statement for Benzene Website**
 - Provides information about benzene and effects of exposure to it
 - <https://www.cdc.gov/TSP/PHS/PHS.aspx?phsid=37&toxid=14>
- **Integrated Risk Information System (IRIS) Benzene Summary Website**
 - Provides health assessment information on benzene based on review of toxicity data
 - https://cfpub.epa.gov/ncea/iris2/chemicalLanding.cfm?substance_nmbr=276
- **Global Methane Initiative (GMI) Website**
 - Provides information on GMI, description of methane and mitigation approaches, methane sites around the globe, and more
 - <https://www.epa.gov/gmi>
- **Report to Congress on Black Carbon**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA-450/R-12-001, March 2012
 - Report provides summary on black carbon, health and environmental effects, emissions, mitigation overview, and more
 - <https://nepis.epa.gov/Exe/ZyPURL.cgi?Dockey=P100EIJZ.txt>
- **Integrated Science Assessment (ISA) for Particulate Matter**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA/600/R-19/188, December 2019
 - ISA provides detailed information on particulate matter including sources, ambient levels, health and environmental effects, and more
 - <https://www.epa.gov/isa/integrated-science-assessment-isa-particulate-matter>



- **Traffic-Related Air Pollution: A Critical Review of the Literature on Emissions, Exposure, and Health Effects**, HEI Panel on the Health Effects of Traffic-Related Air Pollution, HEI Special Report 17, Health Effects Institute (HEI), January 2010
 - Report provides a summary and synthesis of information on air pollution from traffic and its health effects
 - <https://www.healtheffects.org/publication/traffic-related-air-pollution-critical-review-literature-emissions-exposure-and-health>

A.2.3 Air Pollution Monitoring

- **U.S. EPA Ambient Monitoring Technology Information Center (AMTIC) Website**
 - Contains technical information regarding ambient air monitoring programs, including the networks of state and local air monitoring stations (SLAMS), monitoring methods, and QA/QC procedures
 - <https://www.epa.gov/amtic>
- **U.S. EPA Ambient Air Monitoring Website**
 - Overviews the reasons for why monitoring ambient air quality is important and provides links to U.S. EPA's AMTIC, Air Quality System (AQS), Air Data, AirNow, and AirNow International websites
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-quality-management-process/managing-air-quality-ambient-air-monitoring>
- **Overview of the Clean Air Act (CAA) Website**
 - Provides an in-depth overview of the CAA including history and requirements, role of science and technology, role of state, local, tribal and federal government, and more
 - <https://www.epa.gov/clean-air-act-overview>
- **Videos on Sources of Air Quality Information and Air Sensor Measurements, Data Quality, and Interpretation**
 - Educational videos, in both English and Spanish, that can be used to learn how U.S. EPA collects and uses air quality data, how air quality health risks are communicated, and how to interpret data collected using air sensors
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/videos-air-sensor-measurements-data-quality-and-interpretation>
- **Understanding Air Quality and Monitoring Video**, South Coast Air Quality Management District (South Coast AQMD), Air Quality Sensor Performance Evaluation Center (AQ-SPEC), September 2021



- Educational video providing background on air quality, criteria pollutants, pollutant sources and health effects, air quality monitoring technologies, and the role of air sensors
- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2r0XxQm50IE>
- **California Air Resources Board (CARB) Outline of Measurement Technologies**
 - Online resource that discusses air monitoring applications, applicable measurement technologies, and their relative availability and cost developed by CARB to support community air monitoring conducted under California Assembly Bill 617
 - <https://ww2.arb.ca.gov/capp-resource-center/community-air-monitoring/outline-of-measurement-technologies>
- **Hazardous Air Pollutants (HAPs) Website**
 - Provides detailed information on HAPs including the list of HAPs, health and environmental effects, sources and exposures, data, and more
 - <https://www.epa.gov/haps>
- **Regional Haze Program Website**
 - Provides information on the Regional Haze Rule and Program, list of the national parks and wilderness areas covered by the program, and more
 - <https://www.epa.gov/visibility/regional-haze-program>

A.2.4 Air Quality Standards and Indices

- **WHO National Air Quality Standards Tool**
 - An interactive tool providing an international map of current national air quality standards for criteria pollutants for various averaging times
 - <https://www.who.int/tools/air-quality-standards>
- **Air Quality in Europe 2021**
 - An annual assessment of recent air quality trends at both European and national levels
 - <https://www.eea.europa.eu/publications/air-quality-in-europe-2021>
- **Air Quality System Data Dictionary**
 - The AQS Data Dictionary describes the fields typically encountered by AQS users and are listed in alphabetical order; field definitions and calculation algorithms are provided as appropriate
 - https://aqs.epa.gov/aqsweb/documents/AQS_Data_Dictionary.html



- **U.S. EPA National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) Table**
 - A webpage detailing the NAAQS for six criteria pollutants which includes details from [Table 2-4](#) but is a resource that will be updated if the standards change
 - <https://www.epa.gov/criteria-air-pollutants/naaqs-table>
- **The National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH)**
 - The Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970 established NIOSH as a research agency focused on the study of worker safety and health, and empowering employers and workers to create safe and healthy workplaces
 - <https://www.cdc.gov/niosh/index.htm>
- **Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) National Environmental Public Health Tracking – Air Quality**
 - CDC works closely with the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Association (NOAA), and the National Weather Service to provide air quality data on the Tracking Network and to better understand how air pollution affects our health
 - <https://www.cdc.gov/nceh/tracking/topics/AirQuality.htm>
- **Greenbook: Nonattainment Areas for Criteria Pollutants**
 - The EPA Green Book provides detailed information about area National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) designations, classifications and nonattainment status
 - <https://www.epa.gov/green-book>

A.2.5 The U.S. Air Quality Index (AQI)

- **AirNow Air Quality Index (AQI) Website**
 - Provides information on AQI basics, air pollutants, action days, and other resources
 - <https://www.airnow.gov/aqi/>
- **Technical Assistance Document for Reporting of Daily Air Quality – the Air Quality Index (AQI)**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Air Quality Planning and Standards, EPA 454/B-18-007, September 2018
 - Document provides guidance to aid local agencies in calculating and reporting the AQI as required in the Code of Federal Regulations (CFR)
 - <https://www.airnow.gov/publications/air-quality-index/technical-assistance-document-for-reporting-the-daily-aqi/>



- **AirNow AQI Calculator**
 - Online tool that converts user-specified AQI values into an equivalent concentration or converts concentration into AQI values. The tool also provides the corresponding AQI Category (e.g., good, moderate), health effects, and cautionary statements
 - <https://www.airnow.gov/aqi/aqi-calculator/>
- **AirNow – Using the Air Quality Index Website**
 - Provides an overview of the AQI, AQI forecasts, and the NowCast AQI and how to use these tools to assess local air quality and plan for outdoor activities; links on the page provide technical information about NowCast algorithms and leads to a github code library for calculating the NowCast for O₃
 - <https://www.airnow.gov/aqi/aqi-basics/using-air-quality-index/>
- **Air Quality Index: A Guide to Air Quality and Your Health**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Air Quality Planning and Standards, EPA-456/F-14-002, February 2014
 - Booklet that discusses the importance of air quality and provides an overview of the AQI; health effects of exposure to ozone (O₃), particulate matter (PM), carbon monoxide (CO), and sulfur dioxide (SO₂); and suggested actions to reduce exposure to unhealthy air for each AQI Category
 - https://www.airnow.gov/sites/default/files/2018-04/aqi_brochure_02_14_0.pdf
- **Modified Air Quality Index, Improving Accessibility for People with Color Vision Deficiencies**, South Coast Air Quality Management District (South Coast AQMD), May 2022
 - Press release sharing South Coast AQMD's work to develop a modified version of the AQI that accommodates individuals with color vision deficiencies while still being similar to the traditional AQI color scale; the scale was tested against eight common color impairments and remains distinguishable in grayscale
 - <http://www.aqmd.gov/docs/default-source/news-archive/2022/south-coast-aqmd-modified-AQI-05022022>
- **Air Quality Guide for Nitrogen Dioxide (NO₂)**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Air and Radiation, EPA-456/F-11-003, February 2011
 - Booklet that overviews actions to reduce exposure NO₂ near roadways for each AQI category, provides an overview of NO₂ sources and health effects, and provides tips for reducing NO₂ emissions
 - <https://www.airnow.gov/sites/default/files/2018-06/no2.pdf>



- **Air Quality Guide for Ozone (O₃)**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Air and Radiation, EPA-456/F-15-006, August 2015
 - Booklet that overviews actions to reduce exposure to O₃ for each AQI category, provides an overview of O₃ sources and health effects, and provides tips for reducing pollution from O₃
 - https://www.airnow.gov/sites/default/files/2021-03/air-quality-guide_ozone_2015.pdf
- **Air Quality Guide for Particle Pollution**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Air and Radiation, EPA-456/F-15-005, August 2015
 - Booklet overviews the actions to reduce exposure to particle pollution for each AQI category, provides an overview of pollution sources, and overviews health effects and tips for reducing particle pollution
 - https://www.airnow.gov/sites/default/files/2021-03/air-quality-guide_pm_2015.pdf

A.3 Monitoring Using Air Sensors

A.3.1 Question: Determining a Purpose For Monitoring

- **Handbook for Citizen Science Quality Assurance and Documentation**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA 206-B-18-001, March 2019
 - Handbook that covers common expectations for quality assurance and documentation and best management practices for organizations that train and use volunteers in the collection of environmental data
 - https://www.epa.gov/sites/default/files/2019-03/documents/508_csqaphandbook_3_5_19_mmedits.pdf
- **Guidebook for Developing a Community Air Monitoring Network: Steps, Lessons, and Recommendations from the Imperial County Community Air Monitoring Project**, Tracking California, October 2018
 - Outlines the process and considerations for creating an air monitoring network using air sensors
 - <https://trackingcalifornia.org/cms/file/imperial-air-project/guidebook>
- **Community in Action: A Comprehensive Guidebook on Air Quality Sensors**, South Coast Air Quality Management District (South Coast AQMD), Air Quality Sensor Performance Evaluation Center (AQ-SPEC), September 2021
 - Guidebook for community organizations that covers planning for monitoring using sensors; sensor deployment, use, and maintenance; and data handling, interpretation, and communication
 - <http://www.aqmd.gov/qa-spec/special-projects/star-grant>



- **Air Sensor Stories**, University of Rochester, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, University of Texas Medical Branch, Columbia University, and WE ACT for Environmental Justice, 2018
 - Workshop guide and supporting materials to assist diverse audiences understand the potential of air sensors in addressing community concerns about particulate matter pollution; includes an air monitoring action plan worksheet to help groups think through key questions
 - <https://www.urmc.rochester.edu/environmental-health-sciences/community-engagement-core/projects-partnerships/air-sensor-stories-workshop.aspx>
- **Appendix B: Questions to Consider When Planning for and Collecting Air Sensor Data, and Sharing Your Results** (*this document*)
 - Provides a list of questions for consideration to help sensor users better plan, collect, and share data

A.3.2 Plan: Developing a Plan

- **Guidance for Quality Assurance Project Plans (QA/G-5)**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA/240/R-02/009, December 2002
 - Provides guidance on developing a Quality Assurance Project Plan (QAPP), which is an important part of the planning process for air quality monitoring projects
 - <https://www.epa.gov/sites/default/files/2015-06/documents/g5-final.pdf>
- **Examples for Citizen Science Quality Assurance and Documentation**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA 206-B-18-001, March 2019
 - Collection of examples that provide tools and procedures to help community science organizations properly document the quality of data
 - https://www.epa.gov/sites/default/files/2019-03/documents/508_csqappexamples3_5_19_mmedits.pdf
- **Templates for Citizen Science Quality Assurance and Documentation**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA 206-B-18-001, March 2019
 - Templates that provide tools and procedures to help properly document the quality of data
 - https://www.epa.gov/sites/default/files/2019-03/documents/508_csqapptemplates3_5_19_mmedits.pdf
 - *Editable templates*: <https://www.epa.gov/citizen-science/quality-assurance-handbook-and-guidance-documents-citizen-science-projects>



- **Community Science Air Monitoring**
 - Guidance, provided by the New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection Division of Air Quality – Air Monitoring, on using air sensors for community projects; includes approaches to using sensors, types of sensors available, interpreting sensor data, four types of sensor projects and data quality assurance plan templates for each, and other helpful links
 - <https://www.nj.gov/dep/airmon/community-science.html>
- **Air Quality Agencies**
 - Websites that provide a list of state, local, and/or tribal agencies that manage air quality
 - U.S. Environmental Protection Agency: <https://www.epa.gov/aboutepa/health-and-environmental-agencies-us-states-and-territories>
 - National Tribal Air Association (NTAA): <https://www.ntaatribalair.org/>
 - National Association of Clean Air Agencies (NACAA): <https://www.4cleanair.org/agencies/>
 - Association of Air Pollution Control Agencies (AAPCA): <https://cleanairact.org/about/>

A.3.3 Plan: Selecting an Air Sensor

- **Chapter 4: Sensor Performance Guidance (this document)**
 - Provides an overview of laboratory and field sensor performance evaluations; performance characteristics needed for spatiotemporal variability, comparison, and long-term trend NSIM applications; and U.S. EPA's recommendations for sensor testing protocols, performance metrics, and targets
- **Appendix C: Choosing Air Sensors (this document)**
 - Provides checklists for: (1) what to look for in a sensor before buying, (2) what to look for in a sensor user manual, and (3) sensor maintenance to ensure proper functionality and reliable performance
- **Performance Testing Protocols, Metrics, and Target Values for Ozone Air Sensors – Use in Ambient, Outdoor, Fixed Site, Non-Regulatory Supplemental and Informational Monitoring Applications.** U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA/600/R-20/279. February 2021
 - Provides recommended testing protocols (field and laboratory), performance metrics (parameters used to describe sensor data quality), and target levels to evaluate ozone air sensors
 - https://cfpub.epa.gov/si/si_public_record_Report.cfm?dirEntryId=350784&Lab=CEMM



- **U.S. EPA's Performance Targets and Testing Protocols Website**
 - Summary of the U.S. EPA's research on recommended testing protocols, metrics, and target values for evaluating the performance of air sensors
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>
- **Air Quality Sensor Performance Evaluation Center (AQ-SPEC) of the South Coast Air Quality Management District (South Coast AQMD) Website**
 - Website for the AQ-SPEC program which conducts laboratory and field evaluations of air sensors and provides information to the public regarding actual sensor performance and the advantages and potential limitations of using air sensors. AQ-SPEC is operated by South Coast AQMD
 - <http://www.aqmd.gov/aq-spec>
- **The National Solar Radiation Data Base (NSRDB)**, Sengupta, M., Y. Xie, A. Lopez, A. Habte, G. Maclaurin, and J. Shelby. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews* 89 (2018): 51-60
 - Paper reviews the complete package of surface observations, models, and satellite data used for the NSRDB – an open dataset of solar radiation and meteorological data over the United States and regions of the surrounding countries
 - <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S136403211830087X>

A.3.4 Setup: Locating Sites for Air Sensors

- **U.S. Code of Federal Regulations (CFR), Title 40 (Protection of Environment), Chapter 1 (Environmental Protection Agency), Subchapter C (Air Programs), Part 58 (Ambient Air Quality Surveillance)**
 - Specifies the regulatory requirements for the U.S. ambient air quality monitoring network including quality assurance procedures for operating air quality monitors and handling data; methodology and operating schedules for monitoring instruments; criteria for siting monitoring instruments; and air quality data reporting requirements
 - https://www.ecfr.gov/current/title-40/chapter-I/subchapter-C/part-58#ap40.6.58.0000_0nbspnbspnbsp.e
- **Quality Assurance Handbook for Air Pollution Measurement Systems, Volume II, Ambient Air Quality Monitoring Program**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA-454/B-17-001, January 2017
 - Handbook provides additional information and guidance (including pollutant-specific spatial scale characteristics) to assist tribal, state, and local



monitoring organizations in developing and implementing a quality management system for the Ambient Air Quality Surveillance Program described in 40 CFR Part 58

- https://www.epa.gov/sites/default/files/2020-10/documents/final_handbook_document_1_17.pdf
- **Air Quality Agencies**
 - Websites provide a list of state, local, and/or tribal agencies that manage air quality
 - U.S. Environmental Protection Agency: <https://www.epa.gov/aboutepa/health-and-environmental-agencies-us-states-and-territories>
 - National Tribal Air Association (NTAA): <https://www.ntatribalair.org/>
 - National Association of Clean Air Agencies (NACAA): <https://www.4cleanair.org/agencies/>
 - Association of Air Pollution Control Agencies (AAPCA): <https://cleanairact.org/about/>
- **Blueprint for the Development and Implementation of Distributed Sensor Networks**, U.S. National Institute of Standards and Technology Global Cities Team Challenge Transportation SuperCluster
 - Blueprint that summarizes lessons learned, best practices, and research questions for developing and implementing sensor networks
 - https://static1.squarespace.com/static/5967c18bff7c50a0244ff42c/l/5ad7c41c758d464041c7e58a/1524089886422/Distributed_Sensor_Networks_Recommendations.pdf
- **U.S. EPA Guide to Siting and Installing Air Sensors**
 - Information and considerations for locating an air sensor in both outdoor and indoor locations
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/guide-siting-and-installing-air-sensors>
- **South Coast Air Quality Management District - Sensor Siting and Installation Guide**
 - Guidance on how to locate and install air sensors: <http://www.aqmd.gov/aq-spec/resources/related-documents>
 - English: [http://www.aqmd.gov/docs/default-source/aq-spec/resources-page/aq-spec-sensor-siting-and-installation-guide_v1-0-\(english\).pdf](http://www.aqmd.gov/docs/default-source/aq-spec/resources-page/aq-spec-sensor-siting-and-installation-guide_v1-0-(english).pdf)
 - Spanish: [http://www.aqmd.gov/docs/default-source/aq-spec/resources-page/sensor-siting-and-installation-guide_v1-0-\(spanish\).pdf](http://www.aqmd.gov/docs/default-source/aq-spec/resources-page/sensor-siting-and-installation-guide_v1-0-(spanish).pdf)



- **U.S. EPA Air Sensor Toolbox – Air Sensor Research Grants and Challenges Website**
 - Website provides information on grants and challenges related to air research and air sensors
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-research-grants-and-challenges>

A.3.5 Setup: Collocation and Correction

- **U.S. EPA Air Sensor Collocation Instruction Guide**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Research and Development
 - Resource provides background information, links to web-based supporting materials, and instructions for evaluating the performance of air sensors by comparing the measurements made by collocated sensors and reference instruments
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-collocation-instruction-guide>
- **U.S. EPA Air Sensor Collocation Macro Analysis Tool**
 - Excel-based tool that helps users compare data from air sensors to data from reference instruments
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-collocation-macro-analysis-tool>
- **Community in Action: A Comprehensive Guidebook on Air Quality Sensors**, South Coast Air Quality Management District (South Coast AQMD), Air Quality Sensor Performance Evaluation Center (AQ-SPEC), September 2021
 - Guidebook for community organizations that covers planning for monitoring using sensors; sensor deployment, use, and maintenance; and data handling, interpretation, and communication
 - <http://www.aqmd.gov/air-spec/special-projects/star-grant>
- **South Coast AQMD Low-Cost Sensor Data Analysis Guide**
 - Guide that provides some brief instructions to help community scientists interact with the data they are collecting as well as some questions to help guide their analysis
 - <http://www.aqmd.gov/docs/default-source/air-spec/star-grant/air-quality-sensor-data-analysis-guide.pdf?sfvrsn=6>



A.3.6 Collect: Data Collection, Quality Assurance/Quality Control, and Data Management

- **AirSensor and DataViewer Tools (R package)**
 - AirSensor is an open-source R package that allows users to access historical data, add spatial metadata, and visualize community monitoring data through maps and plots
 - DataViewer is an interactive web application that incorporates the functionality and data plotting functions of the AirSensor for interpreting and communicating community data collected by sensor networks
 - <https://github.com/MazamaScience/AirSensor/tree/version-0.5>
 - <https://github.com/MazamaScience/AirSensorShiny>
 - These papers summarize the development and enhancements of the AirSensor and DataViewer tools:
 - Feenstra et al, 2020 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsoft.2020.104832>
 - Collier-Oxandale et al, 2022 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsoft.2021.105256>
- **Data Policies for Public Participation in Scientific Research: A Primer**, DataONE Public Participation in Scientific Research Working Group, August 2013
 - Guide that introduces data policies in the context of public participation in scientific research or community science, provides examples, and best practices for implementing data policies in community science projects
 - https://safmc.net/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/Bowseretal2013_DataPolicyPrimer.pdf
- **Handbook for Citizen Science Quality Assurance and Documentation**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA 206-B-18-001, March 2019
 - Handbook that covers common expectations for quality assurance and documentation and best management practices to level the playing field for organizations that train and use volunteers in the collection of environmental data
 - https://www.epa.gov/sites/default/files/2019-03/documents/508_csqapphandbook_3_5_19_mmedits.pdf
- **Data Management Guide for Public Participation in Scientific Research**, DataONE Public Participation in Scientific Research Working Group, February 2013
 - Guide that provides best practices and other considerations for data management along the life cycle of community science projects
 - <https://www.dataone.org/sites/all/documents/DataONE-PPSR-DataManagementGuide.pdf>



- **USGS Guide to Data Management**
 - United States Geological Survey (USGS) website that provides guidance, best practices, and tools for data management including in-depth training modules and numerous data management example scenarios
 - <https://www2.usgs.gov/datamanagement>
- **Survey Report: Data Management in Citizen Science Projects**, Chade S and Tsinarakis C., Publications Office of the European Union, JRC101077, 2016
 - Report summarizes the findings from a Joint Research Centre (JRC) survey of community science projects completed primarily in European Union (EU) countries
 - <https://publications.jrc.ec.europa.eu/repository/handle/JRC101077>
- **Citizenscience.gov Website**
 - Government website that promotes crowdsourcing and citizen science across the U.S. government; website catalogs government supported community science projects, provides a toolkit to assist with project design and maintenance, and serves as a gateway for community science practitioners and coordinators across the government
 - <https://www.citizenscience.gov/#>
- **U.S. EPA Guidance on Environmental Data Verification and Data Validation**, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA/240/R-02/004, November 2002
 - Guidance document that specifies the agency-wide program for environmental data QA and includes practical advice to individuals implementing data verification and data validation
 - <https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2015-06/documents/q8-final.pdf>

A.3.7 Evaluate: Analyzing, Interpreting, Communicating, and Acting on Results

- **Personal Strategies to Minimise Effects of Air Pollution on Respiratory Health: Advice for Providers, Patients and the Public**, Carlsen C., S. Salvi, G.W.K. Wong, K.F. Chung. *European Respiratory Journal* 55(6), 2020
 - Paper provides guidance based on findings from published literature to assist health care providers, patients, public health officials, and the public to reduce exposure to indoor and outdoor air pollution
 - <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC7270362/>



- **The AirSensor Open-source R-package and DataViewer Web Application for Interpreting Community Data Collected by Low-cost Sensor Networks**, Feenstra B., A. Collier-Oxandale, V. Papapostolou, D. Cocker, and A. Polidori. *Environmental Modelling & Software* 134, 2020
 - Paper summarizes the development of two software systems to assist in visualizing and understanding air sensor data collected by community networks. *AirSensor* is an open-source R package that allows users to access historical data, add geospatial metadata, and visualize community monitoring data using maps and plots. *DataViewer* is an interactive web application that incorporates the functionality and data plotting functions of *AirSensor* for interpreting and communicating community data collected by low-cost sensor networks
 - <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1364815220308896>
- **AirSensor v1.0: Enhancements to the Open-Source R Package to Enable Deep Understanding of the Long-Term Performance and Reliability of PurpleAir Sensors**, Collier-Oxandale A., B. Feenstra, V. Papapostolou, and A. Polidori. *Environmental Modelling & Software* 148, 2022
 - Paper describes the enhancements made to the open-source R package AirSensor (version 1.0) and the web application DataViewer (version 1.0.1). to support data access, processing, analysis, and visualization for the PurpleAir PA-II sensor. The paper also demonstrates how the enhancements help track and assess the health of air sensors in real-time and historically
 - <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S136481522100298X>
- **Understanding Social and Behavioral Drivers and Impacts of Air Quality Sensor Use**, Hubbell B.J., A. Kaufman, L. Rivers L, K. Schulte, G. Hagler, J. Clougherty, W. Cascio, and D. Costa. *Science of the Total Environment* 621 (2018): 886-894
 - Paper discusses the social science research conducted on air sensor use and identifies: (1) research opportunities between the social and environmental sciences and the entities involved in developing, testing, and deploying air sensor technologies; (2) the challenges associated with sensor data generation, interpretation, and analysis; and (3) collaboration opportunities for communities and organizations to better understand the reasons and approaches for using sensors and how technological innovations may improve the ability to reduce exposures to air pollution
 - <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC6705391/>



- **A Visual Analytics Approach for Station-Based Air Quality Data**, Du, Y., C. Ma, C. Wu, X. Xu, Y. Guo, Y. Zhou, and J. Li. *Sensors* 17(1), 2016
 - Paper proposes a comprehensive visual analysis system (*AirVis*) for air quality analysis that integrates several visual methods, such as map-based views, calendar views, and trends views, to analyze multi-dimensional spatiotemporal air quality data
 - <https://www.mdpi.com/1424-8220/17/1/30/htm>
- **AtmoVis: Visualization of Air Quality Data**, Powley, B., Master of Science Thesis, Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand, 2019
 - Document discusses the results from a search of literature regarding systems and methods for visualizing and evaluating air pollution and presents AtmoVis – a web-based system that includes visualizations for site view, line plot, heat calendar, monthly rose, monthly averages, and data comparisons
 - https://homepages.ecs.vuw.ac.nz/~djp/files/MSc_BenPowley_2019.pdf
- **Openair – An R Package for Air Quality Data Analysis**, Carslaw, D.C. and K. Ropkins. *Environmental Modelling & Software* 27-28, 2012
 - *Openair* is an R package used extensively in academia and in the public and private sectors that analyzes air quality data and atmospheric composition data
 - <https://davidcarslaw.github.io/openair>
 - https://bookdown.org/david_carslaw/openair/
- **U.S. EPA Real Time Geospatial Data Viewer (RETIGO)**
 - REal Time GeOspatial Data Viewer (RETIGO) is a free, web-based tool that can be used to explore stationary or mobile environmental data that you have collected; nearby public air quality and meteorological data can be added to the display
 - <https://www.epa.gov/hesc/real-time-geospatial-data-viewer-retigo>
- **U.S. EPA AirData: Air Quality Data Collected at Outdoor Monitoring Stations Across the U.S.**
 - A website providing tools and access to recent and historical air quality information for the U.S., Puerto Rick, and the U.S. Virgin Islands; view data on an interactive mapping application; obtain information about each monitor; and download daily and annual concentration data, AQI data, and speciated particle pollution data (primarily from U.S. EPA's Air Quality System database)
 - <https://www.epa.gov/outdoor-air-quality-data>



- **Community in Action: A Comprehensive Guidebook on Air Quality Sensors**, South Coast Air Quality Management District (South Coast AQMD), Air Quality Sensor Performance Evaluation Center (AQ-SPEC), September 2021
 - Guidebook for community organizations that covers planning for monitoring using sensors; sensor deployment, use, and maintenance; and data handling, interpretation, and communication
 - <http://www.aqmd.gov/qa-spec/special-projects/star-grant>
- **California Air Resources Board (CARB) List of CARB-Certified Air Cleaning Devices**
 - A website providing a table of CARB-certified air cleaning devices, a description of the difference between mechanical and electronic air cleaners, and resources to help you select a safe and effective air cleaner
 - <https://ww2.arb.ca.gov/list-carb-certified-air-cleaning-devices>
- **U.S. EPA Research on Do-It-Yourself (DIY) Air Cleaners to Reduce Wildfire Smoke Indoors**
 - A website providing an overview of EPA research conducted to evaluate the safety and effectiveness of DIY air cleaners; includes a summary and links to the Underwriters Laboratories (UL) safety report findings, answers to frequently asked questions, and links to helpful resources
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-research/research-diy-air-cleaners-reduce-wildfire-smoke-indoors>

A.4 Sensor Performance Guidance

A.4.1 Sensor Performance Evaluations

- **U.S. EPA Air Sensor Performance Evaluations**
 - Collection of results for field and laboratory evaluations of air sensors conducted by U.S. EPA Office of Research and Development
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/evaluation-emerging-air-sensor-performance>
- **South Coast Air Quality Management District (South Coast AQMD) Air Quality Sensor Performance Evaluation Center (AQ-SPEC)**
 - Field and laboratory evaluations of commercially available air sensors conducted by AQ-SPEC
 - <http://www.aqmd.gov/qa-spec>



- **European Commission Joint Research Centre (JRC)**
 - Results for field and laboratory evaluations of air sensors primary in the form of scientific journal articles and reports
 - <https://publications.jrc.ec.europa.eu/repository/>
- **AirParif AIRLABS Microsensors Challenge**
 - Results from an international challenge that promotes innovation and helps inform users on the performance of air sensors in different applications
 - <http://www.airlab.solutions/en/projects/microsensor-challenge>

A.4.2 Approaches Used to Evaluate Sensor Performance

- **U.S. EPA Performance Testing Protocols, Metrics, and Target Values for Air Sensors – Use in Ambient, Outdoor, Fixed Site, Non-Regulatory Supplemental and Informational Monitoring Applications**
 - Reports that provide recommended testing protocols (field and laboratory), performance metrics (parameters used to describe sensor data quality), and target levels to evaluate air sensors that measure criteria air pollutants
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>
- **ASTM WK64899 “New Practice for Performance Evaluation of Ambient Air Quality Sensors and Other Sensor-Based Instruments”**
 - Provides information on a practice for evaluating the performance of air quality sensors in ambient air
 - <https://www.astm.org/workitem-wk64899>
- **EU/CEN/TC 264/WG 42 “Air quality – Performance evaluation of air quality sensor systems – Part 1: Gaseous pollutants in ambient air”**
 - Outlines testing procedures and requirement for classifying performance of air quality sensors for the monitoring of gaseous pollutants
 - <https://www.en-standard.eu/pd-cen-ts-17660-1-2021-air-quality-performance-evaluation-of-air-quality-sensor-systems-gaseous-pollutants-in-ambient-air/>



- **Air Quality Sensor Performance Evaluation Center (AQ-SPEC) of the South Coast Air Quality Management District (South Coast AQMD) Website**
 - Website for the AQ-SPEC program which describes how field and laboratory tests are conducted
 - Field Evaluation Protocol and Reports: <http://www.aqmd.gov/aq-spec/evaluations/field>
 - Laboratory Evaluation Protocol and Reports: <http://www.aqmd.gov/aq-spec/evaluations/laboratory>

A.4.3 Summarizing Sensor Performance Evaluation Results using U.S. EPA's Targets Reports

- **U.S. EPA Performance Testing Protocols, Metrics, and Target Values for Air Sensors – Use in Ambient, Outdoor, Fixed Site, Non-Regulatory Supplemental and Informational Monitoring Applications**
 - Reports that provide recommended testing protocols (field and laboratory), performance metrics (parameters used to describe sensor data quality), and target levels to evaluate air sensors that measure criteria air pollutants
 - Appendices of the Targets Reports provide standardized reporting templates
 - <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>
- **U.S.-EPA developed *sensortoolkit* python code library**
 - Code library for evaluating air sensor data collocated with reference instruments; code can be used to calculate performance metrics
 - GitHub: <https://github.com/USEPA/sensortoolkit>
 - PyPI: <https://pypi.org/project/sensortoolkit/>
- **U.S.-EPA PM_{2.5} Continuous FEM Monitor Comparability Assessments**
 - Tool providing a one-page technical report that assesses the comparability of a PM_{2.5} continuous FEM monitors when collocated with an FRM sampler
 - <https://www.epa.gov/outdoor-air-quality-data/pm25-continuous-monitor-comparability-assessments>



Appendix B: Questions to Consider When Planning for and Collecting Air Sensor Data, and Sharing Your Results

Getting input from others before you start collecting measurements will help you better plan and collect data to meet your purpose. Below we provide a list of the types of questions to consider. While this list is by no means exhaustive, answering these questions helps you plan and ensures credibility in your data and results. These questions can also help you respond to inquiries from others if you decide to share your plans, data, and results.

B.1 Planning (see [Section 3.3](#))

- What is the purpose of the project and the question you want to answer?
- What existing research and data are available to help answer your question?
- What actions might you take depending on the research, data, or air monitoring results?
- What pollutants will you measure? If you are interested in a particular source of air pollution, have you checked that your selected pollutant is relevant to that source (see [Table 2-1](#))?
- Have you developed a plan for your monitoring activities (see [Section 3.3](#))?
- What are the expected levels for the pollutant in the location of interest, including background and peak concentrations, seasonal and day/night trends, and spatial variability?
- Do you have procedures and instructions so that measurements are taken in a consistent way (e.g., develop standard operating procedures)?
- Have you established clear roles and responsibilities for those involved in your monitoring activities?

B.2 Working with Governmental Officials (see [Section 3.3](#) and [Section 3.8.2](#))

- Will you contact the state/local/tribal air monitoring agency during the planning phase to obtain their input and recommendations?
- Will you consider alternative ways to answer the questions using other data sources besides air sensors (e.g., traffic counts, health data, existing monitoring data)?
- Have you clearly defined your purpose for monitoring and expected outcomes? Is collecting air sensor data the best way to achieve these outcomes?
- Are you expecting any agencies (local/state/federal/tribal) to use your data or results? Have you spoken with the agencies to understand if that is possible?
- Have you filed a formal complaint with your state/local/tribal air quality agency or other responsible organization (e.g., the department of health, fire department)?



B.3 Setting up Monitoring Locations (see [Section 3.5](#))

- Where will you collect the measurements?
- What will be the location of the sensor(s) (e.g., latitude, longitude, elevation, and height of the sensor from ground level)?
- Will any obstructions nearby affect the airflow around the sensor?
- How will you select the site? What criteria or guidelines will you use?
- What nearby emission sources (e.g., roadways, industrial facilities) might affect the sensor measurements?
- Are there other potential local sources near your site (e.g., dust from unpaved roads, parking areas, street-sweeping activity) that might affect your measurements?
- Might anyone nearby be smoking (e.g., cigarettes, cigars) when and where you are collecting the measurements?
- Will there be any periodic events (e.g., construction, fireworks, fires) that could affect the data?
- What type of conditions will the measurements represent (e.g., outdoor, indoor, occupational – see [Section 2.3](#))?

B.4 Collecting Data (see [Section 3.7](#))

- What instrument/sensor will you use (i.e., manufacturer, model, etc.)? Will these be new devices, older, or refurbished?
- How long will you make your measurements (e.g., two weeks, two months)?
- Will you take the measurements at a fixed site or mobile platform (e.g., on a car, on a person)? What type of environmental conditions will they represent?
- Will you receive adequate training on operating the device, maintaining it, and troubleshooting any issues?
- Will you use a lab notebook, log sheets, or check lists to record instrument set up, maintenance, and other additional data? Will these be in paper or electronic formats? Where will this information be stored and who will have access?
- Will you collocate (i.e., place nearby) your sensor near reference monitors or other trusted measurement systems to evaluate their performance? If so, where will you collocate and how will you process and show your results?
- Will you make any adjustments, corrections, or calibrations to the data after collection? Will you document the methods and techniques used?
- How will you estimate the precision and bias of your air sensor data?
- Will you read the data from the screen or store it in an electronic format?
- If applicable, how will you name the data files so that you can keep track of where and when they were collected? How will you keep and protect raw, unedited data from the sensors? How will you document how data was processed or corrected? How will you track the data if you transfer it to others to analyze?
- What, if any, additional local data or observations will you collect (e.g., wind measurements, site photos, global positioning system (GPS) coordinates, activity logs, event logs, health information)?



- What, if any, additional data sources will you draw from (e.g., meteorological data from the National Weather Service, regulatory air monitoring data from a state/local/tribal air monitoring agency)? Where will those data come from and how will they be integrated with the measurements you are making?
- What type of file or database will you use to store the data?
- How will you ensure that each parameter has the correct units?
- How will you document the time standard [e.g., local standard time (LST), Coordinated Universal Time (UTC)]?

B.5 Conducting Quality Control (see [Section 3.7.2](#))

- What procedures will you use to ensure that the sensors measure high-quality data?
- Will you develop quality control (QC) criteria that the sensor data must meet?
- Will you have Standard Operating Procedures (SOPs) (i.e., detailed written instructions and directions on how to perform a technical activity so that measurements are obtained in a consistent way)?
- Will you average the data, and if so, how? How will you account for missing data, negative values, and extreme outliers?
- What software will you use to process and QC your data (e.g., Microsoft Excel)?
- How will you correct or adjust the air sensor data?
- How will you document any changes or adjustments to the data?
- Will you use consistent data qualifiers to “flag” data that do not meet QC criteria?
- Will you document if there are any persistent problems with the data or significant downtime?
- How will you record and resolve any data problems?

B.6 Evaluating Data (see [Section 3.8](#))

- Do you need software to analyze the data (e.g., Microsoft Excel, R, Matlab, Python)? Does someone on your team have the skills needed to use the required software?
- How will you analyze the data (e.g., create a scatterplot, create a time series plot, compare with meteorological measurements)?
- How will you differentiate the source you are trying to measure from the background pollutant concentrations?
- Will you publish your results or create any public communication materials?

B.7 Other

- Do you have any interaction (past, present, or future) with the entity potentially responsible for creating the emissions?
- Will there be any limitations or restrictions for using your data?
- Who will be the primary contact if others have questions about the data?
- Is there additional support that would be helpful (e.g., data analysis or interpretation support, collocation assistance)?



Appendix C: Checklists

C.1 What to Look for in an Air Sensor?

Before buying an air sensor, use this checklist to help make sure you are purchasing a sensor that meets your needs and produces data suitable for your application.

Sensor accuracy

Look for a sensor with demonstrated and documented performance under similar environments and operating conditions that you anticipate encountering in your monitoring application. Accuracy consists of precision and bias (see [Section 3.6](#) and [Chapter 4](#)).

Pollutants of interest

Purchase sensors that can accurately detect the pollutants of interest with limited interferences from weather conditions or other pollutants (see [Section 3.4](#), [Table 2-1](#), and [Table 2-2](#)).

Detects high and low concentrations

Because pollutant concentrations can vary greatly, you will need to determine if a sensor can detect a pollutant at the low-end of the concentration range and the range's high end. See [Table 2-1](#) for typical pollutant concentration ranges.

Reliability

The sensor(s) you select should be able to operate for extended periods with no or minimal maintenance. Consider the warranty and replacement policy of the manufacturer to ensure uninterrupted operation.

Instructions or user guide

Operation and maintenance instructions from the manufacturer enable you to set up, conduct routine maintenance, fix and repair, and replace the sensors as needed. Instructions may also be provided for zeroing or calibrating the sensor or for quality assuring, correcting, or processing of the data. Instructions should also include how to access both real-time and historical data.

Power

Give careful consideration to the power requirements of the sensor. Power requirements vary from plug-in, battery, or solar power and will depend on a user's application. Plug-in devices are best suited for stationary monitoring applications; however, make sure power is available and easily accessible. Battery-powered devices are best for mobile applications or short-term data collection activities. Solar-powered devices require proper size (of the solar panel and battery) and adequate



orientation to sunlight. The choices and logistics are involved – plan enough time to ensure that you can identify a solution that meets your needs.

Data Transmission

Many options exist for air sensor data communication from the sensor to the sensor data repository and include cellular, WiFi, Bluetooth, satellite, low-power wide-area network (LoRa), or other methods. Remember that you may want to test the communications at the actual site and inquire about ongoing costs associated with communicating data via cellular and other protocols. Ensure that you have the ability to enable the necessary settings on your computer and/or WiFi network to allow you to use the selected data transmission option (if applicable).

Transparent data processing

Sensor data often undergo processing, correction or adjustments, and averaging to improve quality. Look for sensor manufacturers that provide descriptions of the methods and approaches they use to process sensor data, especially related to sensor data correction (sometimes called calibration) techniques. [Section 3.6](#) discusses the calibration and correction methods and procedures.

Customer service

Seek to understand how responsive and knowledgeable the company will be to your questions and needs. Consider the company's location (e.g., time zone), contact methods (e.g., phone, email), and specific services they offer.

Ease-of-use

Look for intuitive and easy-to-use sensors and software to manage the data the air sensor produces. Match the sensor's features with your needs. These features could include weatherproofing, durability for handheld and mobile sensors, on-sensor display (e.g., lights or digital readout), data management capabilities, etc.

Data Handling and Access

Determine how data processes and where it is stored and in what format. Identify the data management system used to ingest, process, visualize, and distribute data. Determine who can access the data, who has ownership rights of the data, privacy terms, how long will the data be available.

Cost

The cost of sensor technology may vary greatly depending on the pollutant measured and the degree of accuracy and sensitivity the user needs. Consider the initial purchase price and the long-term operational costs, such as data transmission and storage, maintenance, calibration services, data ownership, and repairing or replacing sensor components.



C.2 What to Look for in a User Manual?

A user manual should be comprehensive and clear and effectively describe the installation, operation, and maintenance activities needed so that you can set up and run the sensor optimally. Without a good user manual, you may have to spend more time figuring out how to operate, troubleshoot, and/or repair your sensor. Request a user manual before purchasing a sensor to ensure the device meets your needs. The following are recommended items to look for in a user manual:

Performance specifications

The manual should include details about the sensor's accuracy, range of measurement, minimum and maximum detection limits, sampling frequency, ambient temperature range, power requirements, response time (i.e., how quickly the sensor responds to changing conditions), sensor lifespan or expiration date, etc. Demonstrations of sensor performance in real-world applications (ideally, independent reports or scientific articles discussing sensor evaluation test results) are also very important. [Chapter 4](#) provides more details about air sensor performance.

Installation instructions

The manual should provide the procedures that describe where and how to install the sensor and check that it is operating correctly.

Operating instructions

Details about how to ensure the sensor is running correctly and how to access its data are critically important for a user manual.

Maintenance requirements

The manual should include a list of the activities, requirements, and specific frequencies or schedule at which they must be performed. See [Appendix C.3](#) for more information regarding sensor maintenance.

Correction (sometimes called Calibration)

The manual should provide details about the process and method used to adjust or correct data. Providing more information about the data correction helps build trust and confidence in the data and the air sensor.

Data access

Look for details about how to view real-time and historical data, access backup raw and processed data, and share data with other organizations. A user manual should identify any data ownership terms and conditions and data privacy terms.



Interferences

The manual should clearly describe the known (and potential) interferences from weather conditions (e.g., high humidity) and other pollutants in the air.

 Customer service

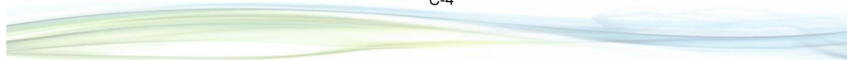
Look for support information with contact details (e.g., methods, hours of operation) and what is covered (or not covered) with customer support.

 Limitations

The manual should describe restrictions or limitations of the sensors and its operation and explicitly identify what is covered by the warranty.

 Hazard Warnings

Check to see if the user manual provides any warnings concerning any hazards or potential hazards that might be present during installation, calibration, operation, maintenance, or troubleshooting of the sensor.



C.3 How to Maintain Your Air Sensor?

Like most other forms of technology, air sensors require maintenance to ensure proper functionality and reliable performance. These preventative actions associated with maintenance are necessary for both short- and long-term operations. By properly caring for an air sensor, you can reduce errors in data collection, extend the operating life of the device, and save money that would otherwise be spent on replacement parts and repair services.

Check with the air sensor manufacturer for protocols to maintain your device so it operates properly and produces good data. Typical routine maintenance processes include:

- Cleaning of internal and external surfaces and components to prevent the buildup of bugs, dust, pollen, etc.
- Replacement of filters and other consumables.
- Replacement of the sensor when it fails or reaches the end of its service lifespan.
- Replacement of rechargeable batteries.
- Cleaning off dust and dirt from solar panels.
- Collocation and correction of sensor data to improve data quality (see [Section 3.6](#)).
- Visual inspection of data to identify odd patterns, a decrease in overall response, drift in the baseline, and other unusual features. Instrument problems tend to produce data that often look too regular and repeatable, or that change too abruptly to be due to natural atmospheric phenomena.
- Inspection of the sensor placement location to ensure that no significant changes have occurred (e.g., tree growth, building changes, new local sources of pollutants).
- Development and maintenance of a logbook to ensure maintenance occurs at regular intervals.



Appendix D: Data Handling and Air Quality Index (AQI) Calculations

D.1 Data Processing

Working with data consists of reviewing and calculating values from the data to produce meaningful information. With air sensors, data processing can be a very time-consuming process because sensors can produce lots of data. For example, an air sensor network of 10 sites, with each site measuring two pollutants every minute, can produce over 5.3 million data values over a one-year period. In contrast, a similar size network producing hourly data only generates about 220,000 data values. Thus, it takes time to process the data to glean insights, meaning, and information from the results. Software and planning can help you efficiently and effectively process data. This section provides some tips for processing data by harmonizing and aggregating the data.

When harmonizing data, you ensure that the data is of good quality and complete and are comparable to other datasets. By aggregating (e.g., averaging, compiling) data, you can notice the big-picture trends and see patterns in the data. For example, if you want to review 1 week of air sensor data, you might want to aggregate the 1-minute values by making hourly averages and viewing those data to see the trends. This aggregation results in reviewing 168 hourly averaged data points instead of over 10,000 1-minute data points. Once you see the "big picture," you can start looking at the details in the 1-minute data.

What are Some Important Definitions Related to Data Processing?

Data management is a collection of procedures needed to acquire, process, and distribute data.

Data harmonization is the process of reviewing data for quality and completeness, and then combining the data for querying and viewing.

Data aggregation is the process of compiling information to prepare combined datasets for data processing.

When deciding how to view the data, consider your monitoring question. Some averages will be more relevant to your investigation than others. For example, a project interested in changes in air pollution before, during, and after school drop-off may find 5 or 10-minute averages useful. A project focused on seasonal changes in air quality (e.g., residential wood burning) may find weekly or monthly averages helpful.

When you compare data with standards, you will need to aggregate the data similar to the aggregation required by the standard. For example, for fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) data, you will need to calculate a 24-hour average from the hourly data before comparing it to the 24-hour National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS).



D.1.1 Data Quality Assurance (QA)

Data harmonization consists of the steps to prepare data for aggregation and subsequent data analysis. Air sensor data may have issues that need data cleaning. By reviewing the data and addressing these problems, your data will be more trustworthy and resulting analyses and conclusions will be more robust. Here are some suggestions to help harmonize your data:

1. **Quality control check and validate** data by reviewing it using time series plots, spatial plots, and statistical summaries to identify questionable data. Section [3.7.1](#) and [3.7.2](#) of this Guidebook discusses data review and quality control checks you can apply.
2. **Identify outliers** or data points that are significantly different from other data values. Outliers are typically easy to see in a time series plot of data ([Figure D-1](#)). It is typically easier to find outliers in higher-time resolution data (e.g., 1-minute) rather than averaged data (e.g., 1-hour and 24-hour averages). Identify these outliers and decide whether or not to include them from data aggregation and analysis steps.
3. **Address negative values** which can occur because air sensors and instruments have uncertainty, and at near-zero concentrations, you might see some slightly negative values (e.g., $-0.5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). These slightly negative values may be valid and you may wish to retain these values (consult the sensor manufacturer for guidance). However, significant or persistent negative values likely indicate a problem with the air sensor or instrument, and you should flag these values and exclude them from subsequent data processing and analysis.
4. **Address missing data** which may occur when air sensors do not collect data due to power outages, sensor malfunctions, loss of communications, etc. Some missing data is common when using air sensors, but too much missing data means the data and averages of the data will not represent actual air quality conditions. It is recommended that you do not replace or fill in missing data with estimated values (e.g., interpolated or extrapolated concentrations). Instead, seek to understand and fix the problem causing the missing data.
5. **Evaluate data completeness** to ensure that enough data exist to represent air quality conditions during that monitoring period. Completeness is a measure of the amount of valid data obtained from a sensor compared to the amount expected to be obtained under correct, normal conditions. Generally, at least 75 percent of the data are needed to make a valid average (e.g., at least 45, 1-minute measurements are needed to make a valid 1-hour average). When the 75 percent completeness criterion is met, the resulting aggregation is usually considered representative of that monitoring period.



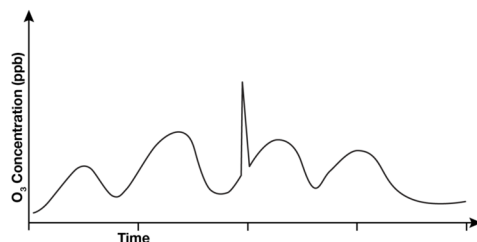


Figure D-1. Time Series of Ozone (O₃) Concentrations Showing a “Spike” in Concentration that is an Outlier in the Data

D.1.2 Data Aggregation

Data aggregation helps with the analysis and assessment of data by averaging, counting, or filtering data. This process allows you to see the more prominent trends in your data and enables you to compare the aggregated values to standards and indexes. The most common aggregation methods include:

- Averages of air quality data are typically calculated over a time period that ranges from minutes to a year. There are several types of averages, as shown in [Figure D-2](#).
 - a. **Block average** is a technique to reduce data points to a particular period by computing the mean. For example, 24 hourly measurements of PM_{2.5} can be averaged into a single 24-hour value that represents the mean PM_{2.5} concentration during that period. This type of averaging helps reduce the number of data values you need to examine and can enable comparison to standards like the NAAQS.
 - b. **Rolling (moving) average** is a technique to obtain an overall idea of the trends in a data set and “smooth” some of the rapid changes. You can calculate it for any period that corresponds to a standard or index (e.g., Air Quality Index, AQI). Typically, rolling average periods are 24 hours for PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀, 8 hours for ozone (O₃), and 3 months for lead (Pb).

A 24-hour rolling average on 1-hour data would result in 24 rolling averages over a 24-hour period, while block averaging would result in only 1 block average.



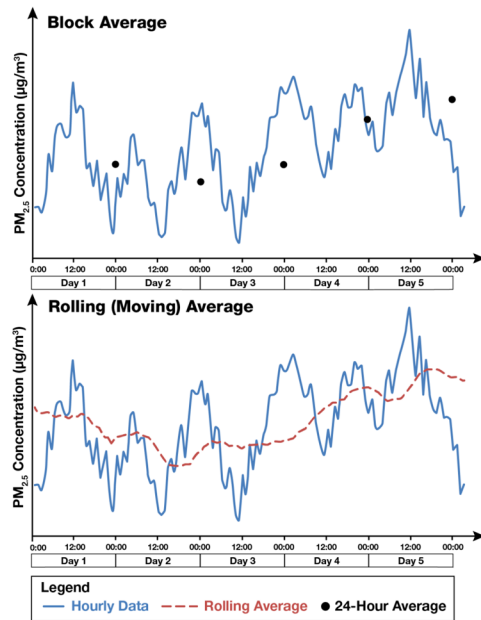


Figure D-2. Time Series Showing Raw $PM_{2.5}$ Data with Block and Rolling Averages

- Counting** is a method to characterize air quality conditions by summarizing the number of "events" that occur above a threshold. For example, you might want to count the number of days where the 8-hour average O_3 concentrations are above 70 ppb, which is "Unhealthy for Sensitive Groups" on the AQI scale. You could also count the number of days when $PM_{2.5}$ averages fall within a specific category of the AQI (e.g., number of "Good" days). The exact counting method will depend on your application, but could include counting the number of hours, days, or sites above a specific concentration.

- **Filtering or stratifying data** is a method to subset data by time or location. This type of filtering allows you to see differences in aggregations that might result from factors such as weather or emission events (e.g., high traffic times, wildfires). You might also consider filtering by time (e.g., hour, day, weekday/weekend, season). For example, comparing averages of nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) concentrations by the hour of the day and by weekday and weekend may show the effect of traffic activity on local pollution conditions.

Tip: Consider ways that can make data processing less time-consuming and easier

Plan ahead as processing data can be very time-consuming. This planning will save you effort and reduce the chances that data need to be re-measured or reprocessed.

Match the aggregation methods (e.g., averaging period) when comparing air sensor data to other datasets, standards, or indices.

Use software to facilitate data processing. Consider the costs of software. Some software is free, whereas other software is not. A data management system (see [Section 3.7.3](#) of this Guidebook) and other analysis software (see [Section 3.8](#) of this Guidebook) can help process data.

D.2 AQI Calculations

D.2.1 Background

The [Air Quality Index \(AQI\)](#) is U.S. EPA's index for communicating daily air quality. It provides statements for each category that tell you about air quality in your area, which groups of people may be affected, and steps you can take to reduce your exposure to air pollution. The AQI is calculated for five of the six criteria pollutants: O₃, PM (including PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀), CO, NO₂, and SO₂.

The AQI scale runs from 0 to 500, with higher AQI values indicating more hazardous levels of air pollution and associated health concerns. For each pollutant, an AQI value of 100

generally corresponds to an ambient air concentration equal to the level of the short-term NAAQS for protection of public health. AQI values at or below 100 are generally considered to be satisfactory. For example, an AQI value of 50 or below represents "Good" air quality, while an AQI value over 300 represents "Hazardous" air quality.

Are There Other Air Quality Indices in Different Countries?

Yes! Other countries have established different air quality indices. Some examples include:

- Air Quality Health Index (Canada)
- Air Quality and Health Risk Index (Mexico)
- Air Pollution Index (Malaysia)
- Pollutant Standards Index (Singapore)
- European Air Quality Index (European Union)



The AQI is divided into six color-coded categories, as shown in [Table 2-5](#), with each category corresponding to a different level of health concern. The color-coding allows the public to quickly determine whether air quality is reaching unhealthy levels in their communities. The specific [concentration breakpoints](#) for each of the six levels vary by pollutant.

Although the AQI color scale is required by law [[40 Code of Federal Regulations \(CFR\) Part 58.50](#) and [40 CFR Appendix G to Part 58](#)], it is recognized that the colors may not be accessible to all people. The South Coast Air Quality Management District (AQMD) developed a [modified version of the AQI color scale](#) that accommodates individuals with color vision deficiencies. The modified scale was tested against eight common color impairments and remains distinguishable in grayscale. Currently, the modified colors are being piloted under the "View More Accessible AQI Colors" option on [South Coast AQMD's real-time air quality map](#) and the ColorVision Assist option on the [AirNow Fire and Smoke Map](#).

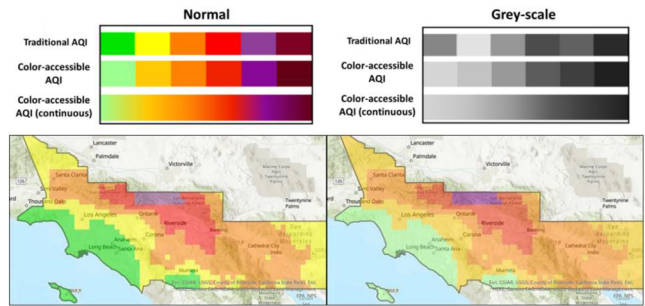


Figure D-3. Comparison of the Traditional AQI and Color-Accessible AQI Color Scale Presented in Color, Grey-Scale, and on a Map of the South Coast Air Basin ([South Coast AQMD Press Release – May 2022](#))



D.2.2 Computing the AQI

This section explains how to calculate the AQI. Figure D-4 shows a flowchart of the process for computing the AQI.

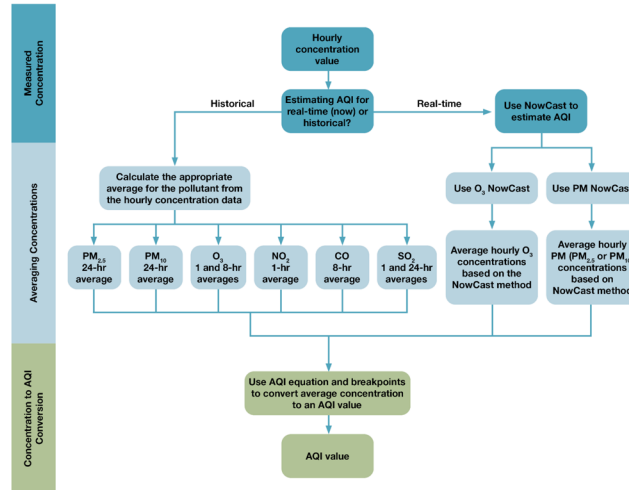


Figure D-4. Flow Chart Showing How to Compute the AQI

There are several important considerations when calculating the AQI using air sensor data:

- 1. Sensor data must first be corrected to be more comparable to FRM/FEM reference instruments.** The Clean Air Act requires air quality to be monitored nationally within the U.S., using Federal Reference Method (FRM) or Federal Equivalent Method (FEM) instruments. Sensor data must first be harmonized (discussed above) and corrected (see [Section 3.6.2](#)) so that the data will be more comparable to the ambient air quality network.

2. **Data is averaged to correspond to the NAAQS.** For historical data (i.e., not real-time), the U.S. EPA calculates the AQI values from air data averages over 1, 8, or 24 hours using the AQI equation (see #3 below). The reason for the different averaging times is that different pollutants affect the human body in different ways as presented in [Table 2-2](#).

Tip: Be aware that reference instrument data is the only data that determines NAAQS compliance

3. **NowCast AQI is used for PM and O₃.** For current air quality conditions, the U.S. EPA calculates the AQI values using a method called [NowCast](#) to estimate short-term averages that are then converted using the AQI formula (see below). Note that the NowCast AQI is only calculated for O₃ and PM because these pollutants commonly drive the AQI. The NowCast calculations for PM and O₃ are different as these pollutants behave differently in the atmosphere and have different NAAQS averaging times. For example, the NowCast AQI for PM shows air quality for the most current hour available by using a calculation that involves multiple hours of past data. The NowCast uses longer averages during periods of stable air quality and shorter averages when air quality changes rapidly, such as during a wildfire event.
4. **Online tools are available to calculate the AQI.** Once you have calculated an average concentration, use the following equation to compute the AQI for a given pollutant. An [online AQI calculator](#) is available to help with this conversion.

$$AQI = \left[\frac{(AQI_{Hi}) - (AQI_{Lo})}{(Conc_{Hi}) - (Conc_{Lo})} \times (Conc_i) - (Conc_{Lo}) \right] + (AQI_{Lo})$$

Where:

Conc_i = Truncated concentration for a given pollutant
 Conc_{Lo} = Concentration breakpoint that is less than or equal to Conc_i
 Conc_{Hi} = Concentration breakpoint that is greater than or equal to Conc_i
 AQI_{Lo} = AQI value/breakpoint corresponding to Conc_{Lo}
 AQI_{Hi} = AQI value/breakpoint corresponding to Conc_{Hi}

You can find the latest AQI-Concentration breakpoints [here](#) and the rules for truncating concentrations are:

O₃ (ppm) – truncate to 3 decimal places
 PM_{2.5} (µg/m³) – truncate to 1 decimal place
 PM₁₀ (µg/m³) – truncate to integer
 CO (ppm) – truncate to 1 decimal place
 SO₂ (ppb) – truncate to integer
 NO₂ (ppb) – truncate to integer



For example, using an average PM_{2.5} value of 35.9 µg/m³ and the PM_{2.5} breakpoints in Table D-1 results in an AQI of 102:

$$\left[\frac{(150) - (101)}{(55.4) - (35.5)} \times (35.9) - (35.5) \right] + (101) = 102$$

Table D-1. Example Breakpoints for PM_{2.5}

AQI Category	AQI Color	PM _{2.5} Conc _{Lo} (µg/m ³)	PM _{2.5} Conc _{Hi} (µg/m ³)	AQI _{Lo}	AQI _{Hi}
Good	Green	0.0	12.0	0	50
Moderate	Yellow	12.1	35.4	51	100
Unhealthy For Sensitive Groups	Orange	35.5	55.4	101	150
Unhealthy	Red	55.5	150.4	151	200
Very Unhealthy	Purple	150.5	250.4	201	300
Hazardous	Maroon	250.5	500.4	301	500



Appendix E: Interpreting Sensor Performance Evaluation Results

As mentioned in [Section 4.3.1](#), the U.S. EPA's Targets Reports provide templates to encourage a similar format for reporting sensor evaluation results. This Appendix will walk you through a performance evaluation report for base testing (field evaluation) as this testing is recommended, at a minimum. Using the reporting template as an example, this Appendix will review the types of information that testing organizations are being asked to report, why this information might be important to sensor users, and how sensor users should use and interpret the information provided.

The base testing reporting template for fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) sensors is shown in [Figures E-1, E-2, and E-3](#). Page 1 ([Figure E-1](#)) includes deployment details and several graphs where testers can visually summarize sensor performance. Page 2 ([Figure E-2](#)) contains tables for all of the calculated performance metrics and performance statistics. There is also space for additional scatterplots so that a separate graph can be displayed for each evaluated sensor. Page 3 ([Figure E-3](#)) includes a table where testers can share what additional documentation is included with the evaluation report that would be helpful for sensor users in interpreting the results. Testers can choose to attach additional information or write a short description of that information in the table.

An example of a filled in reporting template is provided here using results from one of the U.S. EPA's field evaluations of the AirBeam2 sensor compared to the T640x reference instrument. The AirBeam2 is no longer available for purchase and has been chosen for illustration purposes only.



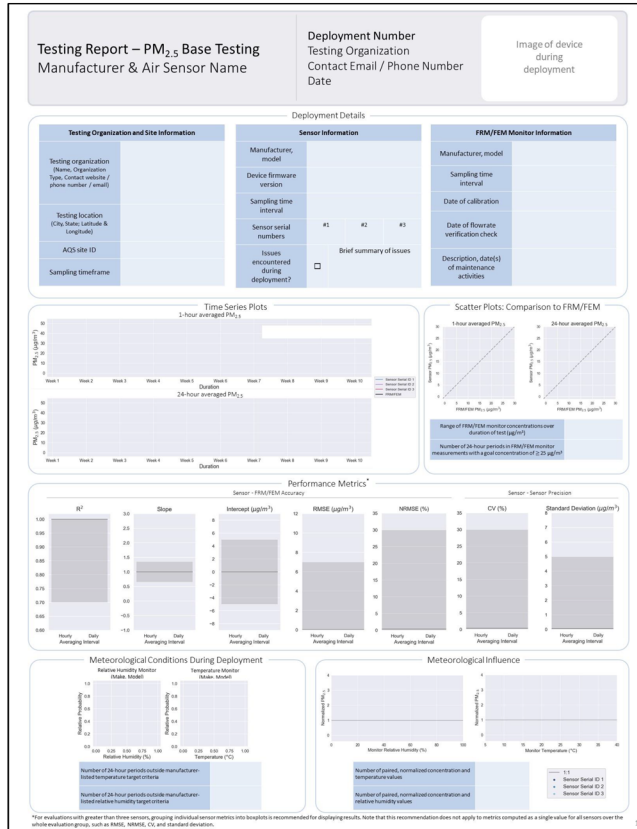


Figure E-1. Page 1 of U.S. EPA's Base Testing Reporting Template for PM_{2.5} Sensors – Deployment Details and Visual Plots of Sensor Performance



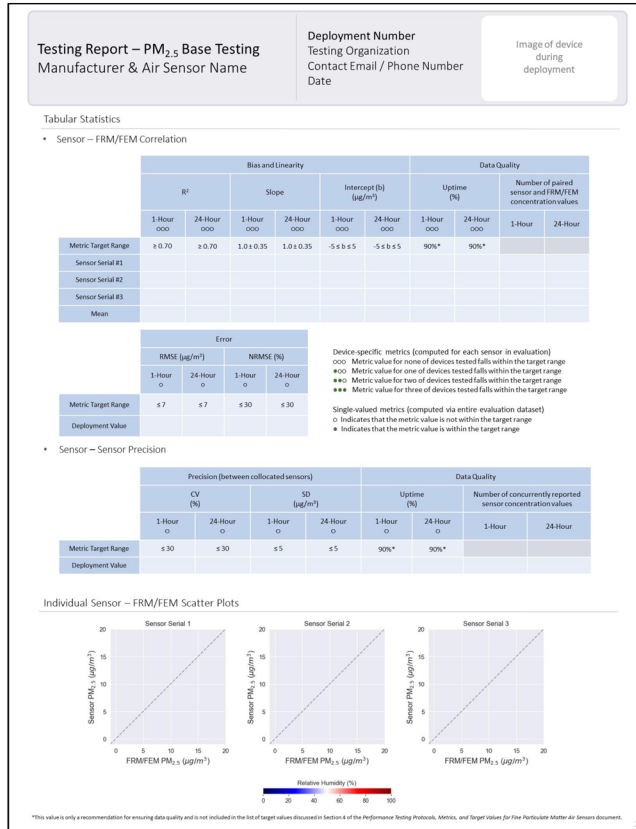


Figure E-2. Page 2 of U.S. EPA's Base Testing Reporting Template for PM_{2.5} Sensors – Tables and Graphs Summarizing Sensor Performance



Testing Report – PM_{2.5} Base Testing Manufacturer & Air Sensor Name		Deployment Number Testing Organization Contact Email / Phone Number Date	Image of device during deployment
Supplemental Information			
Additional documentation may be attached or linked to digital versions alongside this report. Such documentation may include field reports and observations during the testing period, maintenance logs for sensors and FRM/FEM monitors, standard operating procedures, and other documentation relevant to this testing report (see below for examples).			
Supplemental Documentation	Attached	Description & URL or file path to documentation	
Field observations	<input type="checkbox"/>		
Maintenance logs	<input type="checkbox"/>		
Standard operating procedure(s)	<input type="checkbox"/>		
Photos of equipment setup and testing	<input type="checkbox"/>		
Product specification sheet(s)	<input type="checkbox"/>		
Product manual(s)	<input type="checkbox"/>		
Deployment issues	<input type="checkbox"/>		
Data storage and transmission method	<input type="checkbox"/>		
Data correction approach	<input type="checkbox"/>		
Data analysis/correction scripts and version	<input type="checkbox"/>		
Air Monitoring Station QA/P	<input type="checkbox"/>		
Summary of FRM/FEM monitor QC checks	<input type="checkbox"/>		
Other documents	<input type="checkbox"/>		

Figure E-3. Page 3 of U.S. EPA's Base Testing Reporting Template for PM_{2.5} Sensors – Table Documenting Supplemental Materials and Information



E.1 Deployment Details

In the reporting template, you will find a summary of the testing organization name and type, test site, air sensors, and reference instrument used (see [Figures E-1](#), [E-4](#), [E-5](#), and [E-6](#)).

Testing Organization and Site Information.

The first box includes the testing organization and site information (Figure E-4) which is designed to give users easy access to information on who conducted the test, and where and when the test was conducted.

Test organization gives users a point of contact if they have questions about the evaluation. Users can view the testing organization name and type (e.g., manufacturer, routine testing facility, government agency, academic institution). This information can give users an idea of the background (e.g., level of experience, objectivity of the tester) and the credentials of the tester.

Testing location provides the site name, city and state, and latitude/longitude of the testing site. This information may allow users to identify whether the climate at the testing location(s) is similar to where they intend to use sensors. If the test is conducted at an existing air monitoring site within the United States (U.S.), the report may list the U.S. EPA's Air Quality System (AQS) Site ID. This ID is a nine-digit number which uniquely identifies the testing location and helps connect the reference instrument data within the AQS database. For tests conducted in other countries, a similar ID or other identifier may be provided that links the reference data to a database. Keep in mind that an AQS ID may not be available if a testing organization sets up their own test site.

Testing Organization and Site Information	
Testing organization (Name, Organization type, Contact website)	U.S. Environmental Protection Agency - Office of Research and Development Federal Government Air Sensor Toolbox U.S. EPA Website
Testing location (City, State, Latitude and Longitude)	Ambient Monitoring Innovative Research Station (AIRS) RTP, NC 35.88951, -78.874572
AQS site ID	37 - 063 - 0099
Sampling timeframe (MM-DD-YY)	06-09-21 to 07-02-21
Sensor data source	weekly downloads from the AirCasting website
Reference data source	OAQPS file transfer

Figure E-4. Testing Organization and Site Information Details of the Reporting Template



Sampling timeframe lists the start and end date/time of the sensor evaluation. This information may allow users to identify whether the climate conditions during the test is similar to the climate where they intend to use sensors. This information may also help users identify whether climate (e.g., rainy seasons) or seasonal sources (e.g., seasonal dust source, seasonal woodsmoke from home heating) may have impacted the test results.

Sensor data source describes how the sensor data was obtained. For example, data may have been collected from an on-board microSD card or through the manufacturer’s cloud server. Some sensors provide multiple ways of obtaining the data and there may be differences within the data files depending on how they were obtained (e.g., different time resolution, data processing method). Documenting the data source makes it easier to access the data source especially in cases where issues are identified later.

Reference data source describes how the reference instrument data was obtained. For example, data may have been transferred directly from an air monitoring agency that collected it, downloaded from AirNow or AirNowTech, or downloaded from AQS. These data sources have unique characteristics. For example, data downloaded from AirNow is collected in real-time and several automated quality control (QC) checks are performed before the data is posted. On the other hand, data downloaded from AQS has undergone more quality assurance (QA) review and is certified quarterly. Therefore, it is possible for the AirNow dataset to contain data that is later flagged as invalid and removed from the AQS database. Documenting the data source makes it easier to access the data and can help explain differences between similar analyses using different data sources.

Sensor Information. The sensor information column (Figure E-5) is designed to give users a quick overview of the sensor equipment tested and if there were any issues with the equipment during the evaluation.

Manufacturer, model applies to commercially available sensors. Testers are asked to list the manufacturer and model of the sensor device. This is important because improvements or changes to the components of the sensor or how those components are configured within a device can impact sensor performance.

Device firmware version is also requested. As mentioned previously, it is extremely important to have a sense of how the data are processed from the raw sensor output

Sensor Information			
Manufacturer, model	HabitatMap AirBeam2		
Device firmware version	Unknown (purchased Nov 2019)		
Sampling time interval	1-minute		
Sensor serial numbers	56C	63B	546
Issues encountered during deployment?	<input type="checkbox"/>	Issues with deployment	

Figure E-5. Sensor Information Details of the Reporting Template



into pollutant concentrations. This may happen on the device itself or within a manufacturer’s cloud-based data platform. Since manufacturers may change the processing of data on-board, it is important that a performance evaluation includes the configuration and data processing details. Testers can share supplemental information on the firmware and data processing at the end of the reporting template.

Sampling time interval varies among sensors. Many sensors on the market provide data very quickly (e.g., a new data point every minute). Some devices produce data at a steady time interval (i.e., consistently every minute exactly on the minute) while others do not. The sampling time interval box shows how often the sensor produces data. Whatever the sampling time interval is, the data can be averaged to produce longer time averages.

Sensor serial numbers capture the unique IDs for each device tested. EPA’s Targets Reports recommend testing at least 3 sensor devices simultaneously. This approach allows users to better understand how sensor performance varies among identical sensors. Recording the serial numbers helps testers connect the data files with the sensor device being tested. For sensors that have remote data viewing platforms, manufacturers often track the data and sensor configuration by the serial number. This is also useful information for users when viewing graphs of the data or identifying which sensors had issues during the testing.

Issues encountered during deployment allows testers to record any problems during the testing. It is possible for something to go wrong during testing (e.g., sensor loses power, a wasp makes a nest inside the sensor affecting result). If there were issues, testers can indicate these by checking the box on the left. Additional information on these issues can be described in more detail in the supplemental information section in the reporting template.

FRM/FEM Information. The FRM/FEM information column (Figure E-6) is designed to give users a quick overview of the reference instruments used during testing.

Manufacturer and model of the reference instrument can be used to confirm that the instrument has been designated as a FRM/FEM by the U.S. EPA. The manufacturer’s website provides details on how the pollutant concentration measurement is made. This may help users in interpreting similarities or differences in testing results if the same sensor device was tested with a different FRM/FEM monitor.

FRM/FEM Information	
Manufacturer, model, designation	Teledyne Advanced Pollution Instrumentation T640x FEM
Sampling time interval	1-hour averaging
Date of calibration	As required by 40 CFR Part 58 and the Burdens Creek QAAPP maintained by OAGPS
Date of flowrate verification check	Monthly as required by 40 CFR Part 58 Appendix A
Description, date(s) of maintenance activities	No maintenance activities recorded during testing

Figure E-6. FRM/FEM Information Details of the Reporting Template



Sampling time interval shows how often the FRM/FEM monitor produces data. Reference instruments for some pollutants may return data quickly (e.g., every minute) while monitors for other pollutants may return data less frequently (e.g., every hour).

Date of calibration, date of flowrate verification check, and description, dates of maintenance activities captures information on routine quality control (QC) procedures. To maintain proper operation and high data quality, FRM and FEM monitors undergo routine QC procedures such as calibration checks, flowrate checks, and regular maintenance. If the regular schedule of maintenance and checks is ignored, data quality can suffer. These activities are conducted routinely at existing air monitoring sites within the U.S. but may not be as routine in other locations or at temporary sites set up for a limited number of evaluations. While this section is designed to capture a snapshot of information, testers can provide additional information in the supplemental section of the reporting template or by citing an approved site monitoring plan and checklist.

How Do I Find Which Instruments are Designated as FRM/FEM Monitors?

Instruments designated as FRM/FEM monitors can be found on U.S. EPA's Ambient Monitoring Technology Information Center (AMTIC) on the following webpage:
<https://www.epa.gov/amtic/air-monitoring-methods-criteria-pollutants>

The list of FRM/FEM monitors is typically updated twice a year.

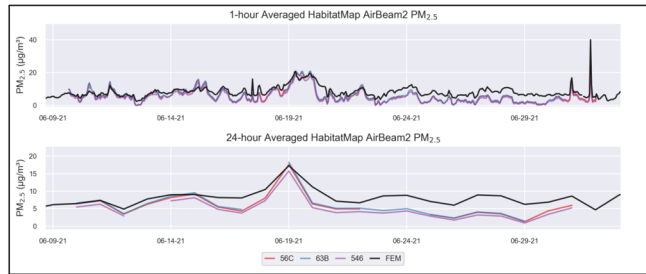


Figure E-7. Time Series Plots in the Reporting Template

E.2 Time Series Plots

The Targets Reports ask testers to create a time series plot (see example in Figure E-7) which shows the data from each of the three identical sensors alongside data from the reference monitor as a function of time. The purple, blue, and red lines represent the




sensors and the black line represents the reference monitor. Some reports, like the example in [Figure E-7](#), may include more than one plot, showing data at different averaging intervals (e.g., 1-hour, 8-hour, 24-hour). All averages should represent the time period they describe. A data completeness level of at least 75% is recommended when calculating these averages (see [Section 3.7.2](#) and [Table 3-2](#)). Testers are asked to share how they calculate data averages if they do not follow the recommendation in the Targets Reports.

Do other Testing Organizations Provide Details on the Instruments Evaluated and Testing Conditions in their Evaluation Reports?

Yes! Most testing organizations document these details, but they may not be presented all in one place. Some details may be held in private files, within longer reports, or within various locations in a testing report. Here is one example report from AQ-SPEC where similar information is presented within a draft field evaluation report.

Background

- From 07/20/2018 to 09/19/2018, three **HabitatMap AirBeam2** (hereinafter AirBeam2) sensors were deployed at a SCAQMD stationary ambient monitoring site in Rubidoux and were run side-by-side with three reference instruments measuring the same pollutants
- **AirBeam2 (3 units tested):**
 - Particle sensor (optical; non-FEM)
 - PM sensor: Plantower PMS7003
 - Each unit measures: PM_{1.0}, PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ (µg/m³) Temperature (°F), Relative Humidity (%) (measures T and RH inside of sensor)
 - Unit cost: ~\$250
 - Time resolution: 1-min
 - Units IDs: F4F1, 6FE0, 63CC
 - Differences from 1st Generation:
 - Different hardware (temp/RH sensor, PM sensor) and design
 - Firmware: 3.19.18 AirBeam2
 - Wi-Fi and cellular capabilities
 - Different microcontroller
 - Measures PM_{1.0}, PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ mass conc. only
- **MetOne BAM (reference instrument):**
 - Beta-attenuation monitor (FEM PM_{2.5} & PM₁₀)
 - Measures PM_{2.5} & PM₁₀ (µg/m³)
 - Unit cost: ~\$20,000
 - Time resolution: 1-hr
- **GRIMM (reference instrument):**
 - Optical particle counter (FEM PM_{2.5})
 - Measures PM_{1.0}, PM_{2.5}, and PM₁₀ (µg/m³)
 - Cost: ~\$25,000 and up
 - Time resolution: 1-min
- **Teledyne API T640 (reference instrument):**
 - Optical particle counter (FEM PM_{2.5})
 - Measures PM_{2.5} & PM₁₀ (µg/m³)
 - Unit cost: ~\$21,000
 - Time resolution: 1-min



2

The primary purpose of the time series plot(s) is to show how measurements change over time. These plots help users determine if the sensors capture the same variation in measurements (trends) as the reference monitor over the testing period. If some time periods show poor agreement, users should review the supplemental information in the reporting template to understand if there were any issues during those time periods that may have influenced sensor performance.

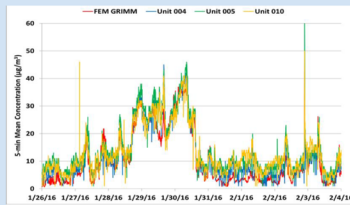
The time series plots may also give users insight into whether sensors over- or underestimate pollutant concentrations. When sensor measurements are lower than the reference instrument measurements, that is referred to as **underestimating** concentrations. When sensor measurements are higher than the reference monitor measurements, that is referred to as **overestimating** concentrations. Some sensors may show a combination of underestimating and overestimating concentrations.

Lastly, the time series plots may show **data spikes**, or data points with higher concentrations, from one or more of the instruments. Users may want to pay close attention

to these spikes. Some spikes may represent elevated pollutant concentrations outdoors. For example, particulate matter (PM) concentrations may go up for a short period of time because of nearby mowing activities. Other spikes may not reflect real changes in pollutant concentrations and may instead indicate that something is wrong with the device. Past sensor evaluation efforts have found several sensors that report false information occasionally as a result of incorrectly logged data or a device error. Users should check the supplemental information in the testing report to identify if any of the data spikes were removed from the dataset. If this information is not available, users should contact the testing organization.

Are All Time Series Plots Similar?

Yes and no. Time series plots always show time along the horizontal x-axis and pollutant concentration along the vertical y-axis. There may be differences in the colors used, time averaging interval, and number of sensors plotted. The image example below shows an example from an [AQ-SPEC report](#). Occasionally you might also see a secondary vertical y-axis if pollutant concentrations are reported in different units or if multiple pollutants are plotted on one graph.



E.3 Scatter Plots

The next part of the reporting template asks testers to create a scatter plot (see example in [Figure E-8](#)) which graphs data from the sensors against data from the reference monitor. In [Figure E-8](#), 1-hour or 24-hour averaged data are shown. The Targets Reports recommend making this plot with the sensor data on the y-axis and the reference data on the x-axis. Other testing organizations may plot the data differently so be careful to note which axis the data is plotted on when interpreting these plots. The scatter plot includes the slope-intercept line calculated using the ordinary least-squares regression equation (see [Section 3.6.2](#)). As a reminder, the slope and intercept describe the **bias** in the sensor data. If the slope is greater than 1, this means that the sensor measurements are higher than reference instrument measurements (i.e., the sensor **overestimates** concentrations). If the slope is less than 1, this means that the sensor measurements are lower than the reference measurements (i.e., the sensor **underestimates** concentrations).

In the reporting template, testers are asked to include the scatter plot for one of the three sensors against the reference instrument data. Testers are encouraged to include plots for each individual sensor in the supplemental information in the reporting template. Users should check this information to understand how the other identical sensors compared to the reference instrument.

The data points in some scatter plots may have different colors that represent another parameter [e.g., temperature (T), relative humidity (RH)]. The purpose for this is to give users more insight into data. The legend should describe what the colors represent. For example, RH is known to affect the performance of some fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) sensors. In [Figure E-8](#), the data points in the scatter plot have different colors based on the RH levels (red points represent higher RH levels and blue points represent lower RH levels). If RH affects the performance of a sensor, users may see red dots in one area and blue dots in another.



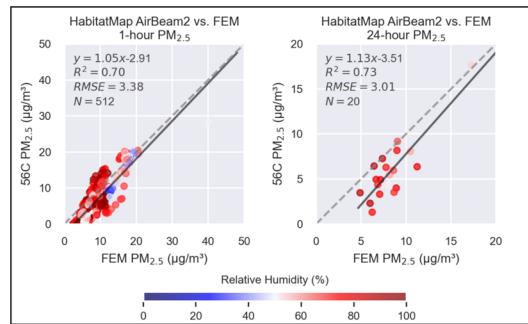


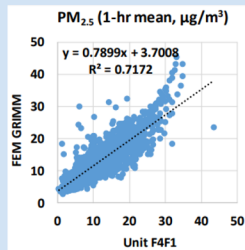
Figure E-8. Scatter Plot in the Reporting Template

Some scatter plots, like those shown in Figure E-8, may include more details or statistics about the data that is plotted. For example, the plot includes the number of data points (N) plotted, and the root mean square error (RMSE), which is a measure of error in the sensor measurements.

Although this scatter plot uses a linear regression to describe the relationship between the sensor and reference data, some sensors or pollutant types may need more complicated function such as a multilinear regression to describe the relationship. A multilinear regression includes two or more variables to predict the outcome of another variable.

Do Some Testing Organizations Choose to Make Scatterplots Differently?

Yes. The recommendations provided by the U.S. EPA are voluntary and testing organizations may choose to plot data differently. Some have chosen to plot reference data on the y-axis and sensor data on the x-axis instead. For example, the plot below is from a [draft field evaluation](#) conducted by AQ-SPEC from 2020. This makes the bias interpretation different. More explicitly, because the axes are switched, a slope less than 1 means that the sensor is overestimating concentrations. For simplicity, users can pick a point on the graph and use the x and y coordinates to determine if the sensor reads higher or lower than the reference measurement.



E.4 Performance Evaluation Metrics and Target Values

The Targets Report ask testers to plot the calculated performance metrics (see [Figure E-9](#)). A series of plots are included which have dark gray shaded regions that indicate the target value ranged. The plots can help users quickly identify whether a sensor meets the target value for each metric, how close the sensor is to meeting the target value (if the target is not met), and the total number of target values that the sensor meets.

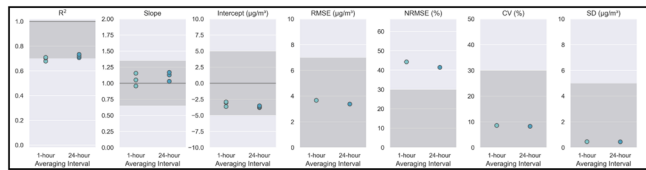
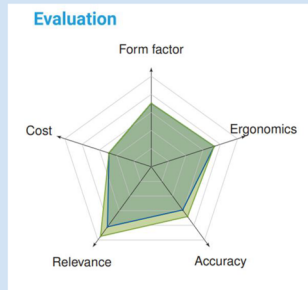


Figure E-9. Performance Metrics in the Reporting Template

When viewing this figure, dots in the light gray space indicate that the sensor does not meet the target whereas dots in the dark gray space indicate that the sensor meets the target. The numerical values for each performance metric are also shown in a table on the second page of the report (see [Figure E-10](#)). Target values are included again within the table for easy reference.

Do All Evaluations Use the Same Performance Metrics and Target Values?

No. U.S. EPA's Targets Reports list specific performance metrics, give detailed calculations for each metric, and include target values for those metrics. Testers using other protocols developed by other organizations may report different performance metrics. As an example, the image below shows a [report from AIRLAB](#) which uses different metrics and visualizations. If needed, users should ask the testing organization to explain the performance metric calculations and interpretation of results.



Tabular Statistics											
Sensor-FRM/FEM Correlation											
	Bias and Linearity						Data Quality				
	R ²		Slope		Intercept (µg/m ³)		Uptime (%)		Number of paired sensor and FRM/FEM concentration values		
	1-Hour	24-Hour	1-Hour	24-Hour	1-Hour	24-Hour	1-Hour	24-Hour	1-Hour	24-Hour	
Metric Target Range	≥ 0.70	≥ 0.70	1.0 ± 0.35	1.0 ± 0.35	-5 ≤ b ≤ 5	-5 ≤ b ≤ 5	75%*	75%*	-	-	
Sensor 56C	0.70	0.73	1.05	1.13	-2.91	-3.51	95	87	512	20	
Sensor 63B	0.68	0.71	1.15	1.17	-3.63	-3.80	90	83	485	19	
Sensor 546	0.71	0.72	0.96	1.03	-3.01	-3.69	96	91	515	21	
Mean	0.70	0.72	1.05	1.11	-3.18	-3.66	93	87	504	20	

	Error			
	RMSE (µg/m ³)		NRMSE (%)	
	1-Hour	24-Hour	1-Hour	24-Hour
Metric Target Range	≤ 7.0	≤ 7.0	≤ 30.0	≤ 30.0
Deployment Value	3.7	3.4	44.3	41.5

Device-specific metrics (computed for each sensor in evaluation)

- Metric value for none of devices tested falls within the target range
- Metric value for one of devices tested falls within the target range
- Metric value for two of devices tested falls within the target range
- Metric value for three of devices tested falls within the target range

Single-valued metrics (computed via entire evaluation dataset)

- ⊖ Indicates that the metric value is not within the target range
- ★ Indicates that the metric value is within the target range

Sensor-Sensor Precision											
	Precision (between collocated sensors)						Data Quality				
	CV (%)		SD (µg/m ³)		Number of concurrent sensor concentration pairs						
	1-Hour	24-Hour	1-Hour	24-Hour	1-Hour	24-Hour					
Metric Target Range	≤ 30.0	≤ 30.0	≤ 5.0	≤ 5.0	-	-					
Deployment Value	8.6	8.3	0.5	0.4	492	19					

Figure E-10. Tabular Summary of Sensor Performance Metrics on Page 2 of the Reporting Template

E.5 Meteorological Conditions During the Evaluation

The Targets Reports ask testers to create plots describing the meteorological conditions during the testing period (see example in Figure E-11). The relative probability graphs describe how much data was collected in each T or RH range over the course of the testing period.



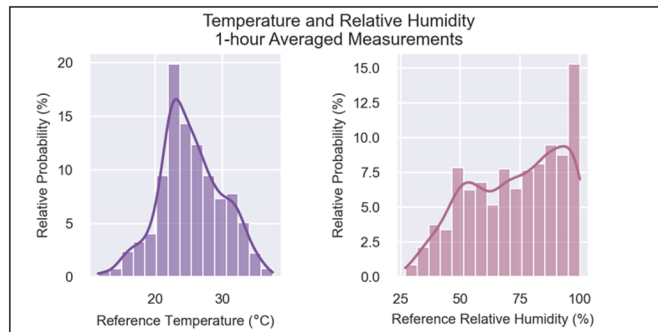


Figure E-11. Meteorological Conditions in the Reporting Template

These graphs can help users understand how similar or different the RH and T evaluation conditions were compared to where they would like to use the sensor. Users should keep in mind that if the meteorological conditions are very different, sensors may perform differently.

Evaluation reports may have additional graphs that show how meteorology impacts sensor performance. The graphs may vary based on the sensor and/or pollutant type.

Appendix F: Glossary

A – B – C – D – E – F – G – H – I – J – K – L – M – N – O – P – Q – R – S – T – U – V – W – X – Y – Z

-A-

accuracy:

A measure of the agreement between the pollutant concentrations reported by the sensor and the reference instrument. This includes a combination of random error (precision) and systematic error (bias) components which are due to sampling and analytical operations. One way to measure this agreement is by calculating the root mean square error. See [Section 3.4.1](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>

aerosol:

Solid or liquid droplets suspended in air originating from biogenic sources (e.g., sea salt spray, volcanoes) and from anthropogenic sources (e.g., fossil fuel combustion, biomass burning). Aerosols can also form in the atmosphere from reactions of chemical precursors (e.g., reaction of ammonia, sulfur dioxide, and water vapor to form ammonium sulfate). See [Section 2.3](#).

Source: <https://earthobservatory.nasa.gov/features/Aerosols>

air quality:

A relative measure of the amount of pollution present in the air. Good air quality means less air pollution, while poor air quality means more air pollution. See [Section 2.1](#).

Source: <https://www3.epa.gov/airquality/cleanair.html>

Air Quality Index (AQI):

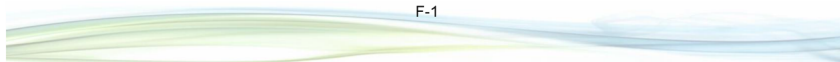
U.S. EPA's index for reporting daily air quality that characterizes air pollution levels and associated health effects that might be of concern. EPA calculates the AQI for five criteria pollutants. AQI values range from 0 to 500; the higher the AQI value, the greater the level of air pollution and the greater the health concern. AQI values at or below 100 are generally thought of as satisfactory. When AQI values are above 100, air quality is unhealthy: at first for certain sensitive groups of people, then for everyone as AQI values get higher. See [Sections 2.4 and 2.5](#).

Source: <https://www.airnow.gov/aqi/aqi-basics/>

Air Quality System (AQS):

An electronic repository of ambient air pollution data collected by the U.S. EPA, state, local, and tribal air pollution control agencies from over thousands of monitors. The AQS also contains meteorological data, descriptive information about each monitoring station (including its geographic location and its operator), and data quality assurance/quality control information. See [Section 2.3](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/aqs>



air sensor:

A class of non-regulatory technology that is lower in cost, portable, and generally easier to operate than regulatory monitors. Air sensors often provide relatively quick or instant air pollutant concentrations (both gas-based and particulate matter) and allow air quality to be measured in more locations. The term 'air sensor' often describes an integrated set of hardware and software that uses one or more sensing elements (also sometimes called sensors) to detect or measure pollutant concentrations. See [Section 1.1](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>

air toxics:

See [hazardous air pollutants](#).

anthropogenic emissions:

Emissions that originate from human activities or result from natural processes that have been affected by human activities (e.g., fuel combustion, solvent use, biomass burning). See [Section 2.1](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2021-02/documents/us-ghg-inventory-2021-main-text.pdf>

-B-**benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene, and xylene (BTEX):**

Mixture of four volatile organic compounds (benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene, and xylene) that are normally grouped as they are often found together. Primary sources of BTEX include on-road and non-road gasoline vehicles and engines, petroleum transport/storage, and solvent usage. See [Section 2.1](#).

Source:

<https://mde.maryland.gov/programs/LAND/OilControl/Documents/BTEX%20Fact%20Sheet%202.12.07%202%20pgs.pdf>

bias:

The systematic (non-random) or persistent disagreement between the concentrations reported by the sensor and reference instrument. It is often determined using the linear regression slope and intercept of a simple linear regression, fitting sensor measurements (y-axis) to reference measurements (x-axis). See [Section 3.4.1](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>

biogenic emissions:

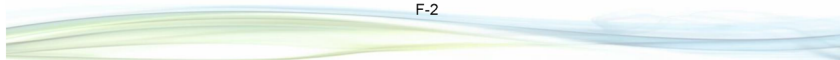
Air emissions that originate from a natural source such as vegetation, soils, volcanic emissions, lightning, sea salt, etc. Also called *natural sources*. See [Section 2.1](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-emissions-modeling/biogenic-emission-sources>

black carbon (BC):

Most strongly light-absorbing component of particulate matter (PM) that is formed by the incomplete combustion of fossil fuels, biofuels, and biomass. BC is emitted directly into the atmosphere in the form of fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}). BC is the most effective form of PM, by mass, at absorbing solar energy – per unit of mass in the atmosphere, BC can absorb a million times more energy than carbon dioxide (CO₂). BC is a major component of 'soot', a complex light-absorbing mixture that also contains some organic carbon (OC). See [Section 2.1](#).

Source: <https://www3.epa.gov/airquality/blackcarbon/basic.html>



-C-**calibration:**

A procedure for checking and adjusting an instrument's settings so that the measurements produced are comparable to a certified standard value. See [Section 3.6](#).

Source: <https://www3.epa.gov/ttnamti1/files/ambient/pm25/qa/vol2sec12.pdf>

certification:

A process where an organization carries out an agreed upon test method(s) set by standards to make sure tests are conducted in the same way every time. The certification process often results in a certificate or specific label [e.g., ENERGY STAR label, Underwriter Laboratories (UL) listing]. See [Section 4.3.1](#).

citizen science:

See [participatory science](#).

Code of Federal Regulations (CFR):

The codification of the general and permanent rules published in the Federal Register (a daily publication of the U.S. Federal Government that issues proposed and final administrative regulations of federal agencies) by the executive departments and agencies of the U.S. Federal Government. CFR is divided into 50 titles that represent broad areas subject to Federal regulation, and each title is divided into chapters typically bearing the name of the issuing agency. Each chapter is further subdivided into parts (and subparts, where needed) that cover specific regulatory areas. See [Section 2.3](#).

Source: <https://www.archives.gov/federal-register/cfr/about.html>

collocation:

The process by which a sensor and a reference instrument are operated at the same time and place under real world conditions. The siting criteria (e.g., proximity and height of the sensor and the reference monitor) should follow procedures outlined in 40 CFR Part 58 as closely as possible. For example, sensors should be placed within 20 meters horizontal of the reference instrument, positioned such that the sample air inlets for the sensors are within a height of ± 1 meter vertically of the sample air inlets of the reference instrument, and placed as far as possible from any obstructions (e.g., trees, walls) to minimize spatial and wind turbulence effects on sample collection. See [Section 3.6](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>

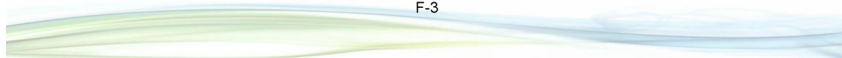
community science:

See [participatory science](#).

comparability:

The level of overall agreement between two separate data sets. This term is often used to describe how well sensor data compares with reference instrument data. Comparability is a combination of accuracy, precision, linearity, and other performance metrics. See [Section 3.4.1](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>



completeness:

In determining averages, completeness describes the amount of valid data obtained relative to the averaging period. The purpose of the completeness threshold is to make sure that the average is representative of the concentrations observed within the averaging period. For example, if a sensor collects measurements every 5 minutes, it can return 12 measurements every hour. To obtain 75 percent data completeness for a calculated hourly average, at least 9 valid measurements are needed (i.e., $9/12 * 100$ percent = 75 percent). See [Section 3.7.2](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>

concentration:

The metric for reporting the amount of a pollutant in the air. Concentration represents the weight or number of molecules in a volume of air. Common units include microgram per cubic meter ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), parts per million (ppm), and parts per billion (ppb). For example, a concentration of $43 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ is the weight of 43 micrograms (a microgram is one millionth of a gram) per cubic meter of air. Parts per billion is the number of units of mass of a pollutant per 1 billion units of the total mass of the air. See [Section 2.1](#).

Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Air_pollutant_concentrations

correction:

The adjustments to sensor measurement data to more closely match the measurement data collected by a reference monitor. See [Section 3.6](#).

criteria pollutant:

A group of six widespread and common air pollutants for which EPA established National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) under the Clean Air Act. The criteria pollutants include carbon monoxide (CO), lead (Pb), ground-level ozone (O_3), nitrogen dioxide (NO_2), particulate matter ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and PM_{10}), and sulfur dioxide (SO_2). See [Section 2.3](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/criteria-air-pollutants>

cross-sensitivity:

Other pollutants that interfere with the measurement of the target pollutant. See [Section 3.7.2](#).

-D-**data aggregation:**

The process of compiling information to prepare combined datasets for data processing. See [Appendix D](#).

data dictionary:

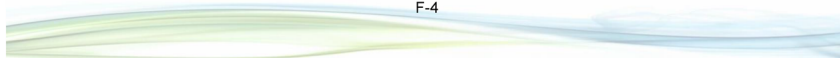
Detailed description of names and definitions of parameters collected in a database. See [Section 3.8.2](#).

data handling:

The process of collecting, storing, processing, and presenting or reporting data. See [Section 3.4.2](#).

data management system (DMS):

A collection of procedures and software needed to acquire, process, and distribute data. See [Section 3.7.3](#).



data quality objectives (DQO):

Quantitative acceptance criteria for the quality and quantity of data to be collected, relative to the ultimate use of the data. See [Section 3.3](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/sites/default/files/2015-06/documents/q5-final.pdf>

data spikes:

Data points with higher concentrations from one or more instruments. See [Section 3.6.2](#).

data transmission:

Sending or receiving data using a wireless or cable-based relay system. See [Section 3.4.1](#).

data validation:

A pollutant- and sample-specific process that extends the evaluation of data beyond method, procedural, or contractual compliance (i.e., data verification) to determine the analytical quality of a specific data set. See [Section 3.7.2](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/sites/default/files/2015-06/documents/q5-final.pdf>

deployment:

The placement or arrangement of air sensors or instruments for a specific monitoring purpose or objective. See [Section 3.5](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>

detection limit:

The lowest concentration that can be determined as being above zero by a single measurement at a stated level of certainty. There are many types of detection limits, such as the Method Detection Limit (MDL) which is typically defined as 99% confidence that the measurement is not instrument noise. See [Section 3.4.1](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/sites/default/files/2015-06/documents/q5-final.pdf>

detection range:

The lowest and highest pollutant concentration that an air sensor can reliably measure. Also called measurement range. See [Section 3.4.1](#).

downtime:

The period of time for which an air sensor or instrument is unavailable for use (e.g., during power interruption or maintenance). See [Section 3.7.2](#).

downwind:

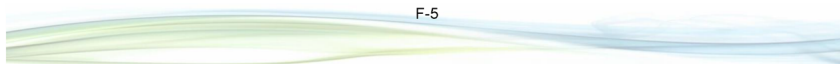
Where air goes after moving over an area of interest. See [Section 2.1](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/interstate-air-pollution-transport/what-interstate-air-pollution-transport>

drift:

A change in the response or concentration reported by a sensor when challenged by the same pollutant concentration over a period during which the sensor is operated continuously and without adjustment. See [Section 3.7.2](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>



-E-**electrochemical sensor:**

A type of air sensor where the target gas interacts with an electrode thereby producing an electrical current that is proportional to the concentration of the target gas. See [Section 3.7.2](#).

Source: <https://nepis.epa.gov/Exe/ZyPDF.cgi/P100F2G5.PDF?Dockkey=P100F2G5.PDF>

error:

A measure of the disagreement between the pollutant concentrations reported by the sensor and the reference instrument. One way to measure error is by calculating the root mean square error (RMSE). Additional ways include calculating the mean bias error (MBE), mean absolute error (MAE), among others. See [Section 3.4.1](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>

exposure:

Contact of a chemical, physical, or biological agent (e.g., ozone) with the outer boundary of an organism. Exposure is quantified as the concentration of the agent in the medium in contact integrated over the time duration of that contact. See [Section 2.5](#).

Source: https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2014-11/documents/guidelines_exp_assessment.pdf

exceedance:

Occurs when a measured concentration of a criteria pollutant exceeds the concentration level for the averaging period specified by the National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS). A NAAQS exceedance does not constitute a NAAQS violation. See [Section 2.4](#).

-F-**Federal Equivalent Method (FEM):**

A method for measuring the concentration of an air pollutant in the ambient air that has been designated as an equivalent method in accordance with 40 CFR Part 53. A FEM does not include a method for which an equivalent method designation has been canceled in accordance with 40 CFR Parts 53.11 or 53.16. See [Section 2.3](#).

Source: <https://www.ecfr.gov/current/title-40/chapter-I/subchapter-C/part-53>

Federal Reference Method (FRM):

A method of sampling and analyzing the ambient air for an air pollutant that is specified as a reference method in 40 CFR Part 50, or a method that has been designated as a reference method in accordance with 40 CFR Part 53. A FRM does not include a method for which the U.S. EPA has cancelled a reference method designation in accordance with 40 CFR Parts 53.11 or 53.16. See [Section 2.3](#).

Source: <https://www.ecfr.gov/current/title-40/chapter-I/subchapter-C/part-53>

fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}):

See [PM_{2.5}](#).

firmware:

A type of computer software or set of instructions programmed on a hardware device (e.g., an air sensor). See [Section 3.7.3](#).

Source:

<https://www.techopedia.com/definition/2137/firmware#:~:text=Firmware%20is%20a%20type%20of%20tasks%20and%20functions%20as%20intended>

-H-**hotspot:**

An area of localized, increased pollutant concentrations (e.g., a congested roadway intersection). See [Section 3.2](#).

Source: <https://www.greenfacts.org/glossary/abc/air-pollution-hot-spot.htm>

hazardous air pollutants (HAPs):

Also called *air toxics*. Air pollutants that are known or expected to cause cancer or other serious health effects, such as reproductive effects or birth defects, or adverse environmental and ecological effects. Examples of toxic air pollutants include benzene (found in gasoline), perchloroethylene (emitted from some dry-cleaning facilities), and methylene chloride (used as a solvent by a number of industries). Example of other listed air toxics include dioxin, asbestos, toluene, and metals such as cadmium, mercury, chromium, and lead compounds. See [Section 2.3](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/haps>

hyperlocal emissions source:

An emissions source that releases brief, but high pollutant concentrations that can influence the air quality of nearby locations but are not representative of the larger area. See [Section 3.5.2](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/guide-siting-and-installing-air-sensors>

-I-**interferent:**

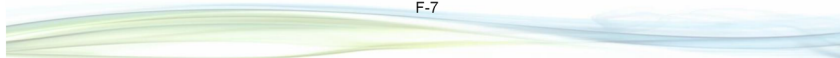
Any non-target pollutant(s) that might skew or influence a sensor's response to the target pollutant. Interferents may have a positive or negative effect on a sensor signal. See [Section 3.7.2](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>

-L-**linear regression:**

Also called *simple linear regression* or *least-squares regression*. A common statistical approach that models the relationship between one variable as a function of another variable. Linear regression estimates the equation: $y = mx + b$ (where "b" is the y-intercept and "m" is the slope) by finding values for the parameters for "b" and "m" that minimize the sum of the squared deviations between the observed responses and the linear equation. See [Section 3.6.2](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>



linearity:

A measure of the extent to which the measurements reported by a sensor can explain the concentrations reported by the reference instrument. It is often quantified by the coefficient of determination (R^2) obtained from the simple linear regression fitting sensor measurements (y-axis) to reference instrument measurements (x-axis) with values closer to 1 generally indicating better linearity. In some cases, sensor measurements can be linear with a near perfect R^2 but may differ significantly from the reference instrument measurements. For example, a linear regression can result in an R^2 of 0.99 and slope of 5. This indicates that the reported sensor measurement is always 5 times higher than the reference instrument measurements. See [Section 3.6.2](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>

long-term:

A time period covering months to years. See [Section 2.2](#).

-M-**maintenance:**

Preventative actions taken to maintain sensor performance and deployment site conditions over the measurement period. Maintenance can include regularly cleaning of internal surfaces to prevent the buildup of bugs or dust, replacing filters, and examining site conditions for any changes (e.g., vandalism or overgrown trees). Manufacturers may also provide air sensor maintenance activities. See [Section 3.7.1](#).

measurement frequency:

The number of measurements collected per unit of time. See [Section 2.3](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-emissions-monitoring-knowledge-base/basic-information-about-air-emissions-monitoring>

micrometer:

One millionth of a meter. See [Section 2.1](#).

multilinear regression

A statistical approach that describes the relationship among two (2) or more variables to predict the outcome of another variable. See [Appendix E](#).

-N-**National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS):**

Standards established by the U.S. EPA that apply to outdoor air throughout the United States. The Clean Air Act (CAA) establishes two types of NAAQS. Primary standards set limits to protect public health, including the health of "sensitive" populations such as asthmatics, children, and the elderly. Secondary standards set limits to protect public welfare, including protection against decreased visibility and damage to animals, crops, vegetation, and buildings. EPA has set NAAQS for the six criteria pollutants. See [Section 2.4](#).

Source: <https://epa.gov/naaqs>

near-reference instrument:

An instrument that does not have a Federal Equivalent Method (FEM) designation but has many of the features of an FEM, and when operated by trained staff, can provide air pollution data with sufficient accuracy and quality. See [Section 2.3](#).

non-regulatory supplemental and informational monitoring (NSIM):

A term used by the U.S. EPA that describes monitoring applications conducted for purposes other than demonstrating compliance with local, state, or federal air quality regulations. There are three NSIM categories including spatiotemporal variability (e.g., daily trends, gradient studies, air quality forecasting, participatory science, education), comparison (e.g., hotspot detection, data fusion, emergency response, supplemental monitoring), and long-term trend (e.g., long-term changes, epidemiological studies, model verification). See [Section 1.1](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>

-O-**optical technology:**

A type of technology used in some particulate matter air sensors. A light receptor detects light scattered by particles and the amount of light scattering (or absorption) is converted into particle count and mass concentration values. See [Section 3.7.2](#).

Source: <http://www.aqmd.gov/aq-spec/resources/operational-principles>

overestimate:

Sensor measurements are higher than the reference instrument measurements. Also called *over-report*. See [Section 3.6.2](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>

-P-**parameter:**

Any of a set of physical properties whose values determine the characteristics or operation of an air sensor or instrument. See [Section 3.4.2](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>

participatory science:

Activity that engages the public in advancing scientific knowledge by formulating research questions, collecting data, and interpreting results. Other terms include citizen science, community science, volunteer monitoring, or public participation in scientific research. See [Section 1.1](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/participatory-science>

performance evaluation:

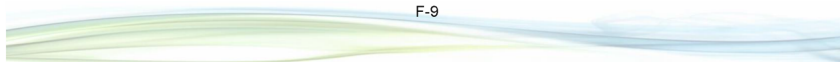
A test that compares sensor data to reference instrument data. Reference instruments are used as they provide highly accurate measurements and are the "gold standard". See [Section 4.2](#).

Source: <http://www.aqmd.gov/aq-spec/home>

performance metric:

A parameter used to describe the data quality of a measurement device. See [Section 3.4.2](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>



performance targets:

Numeric benchmarks for assessing the measurement performance of an air sensor. See [Section 3.4.2](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>

personal exposure monitoring:

Measurements of an individual's exposure or contact with a health hazard. See [Section 1.1](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/expobox/exposure-assessment-tools-approaches-direct-measurement-point-contact-measurement>

PM_{1.0}:

Particles with diameters generally less than 1 micrometer (µm). See [Section 2.1](#).

PM_{2.5}:

Also called *fine particulate matter*. Fine inhalable particles, with diameters generally less than 2.5 micrometers (µm). See [Section 2.1](#).

PM₁₀:

Inhalable particles, with diameters generally less than 10 micrometers (µm). See [Section 2.1](#).

polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs):

A group of over 100 different chemicals that are formed during the incomplete burning of coal, oil and gas, garbage, or other organic substances like tobacco or charbroiled meat. PAHs are usually found as a mixture containing two or more of these compounds, such as soot. Some PAHs are manufactured. These pure PAHs usually exist as colorless, white, or pale yellow-green solids. PAHs are found in coal tar, crude oil, creosote, and roofing tar, but a few are used in medicines or to make dyes, plastics, and pesticides. See [Section 2.1](#).

Source: https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2015-04/documents/walter_atcdr_pahs.pdf

precision:

Variation around the mean of a set of measurements obtained concurrently by two (2) or more sensors of the same type collocated under the same sampling conditions. The consistency in measurements from identical sensors is often quantified by standard deviation (SD) or the coefficient of variation (CV), with lower values indicating a more precise measurement. See [Section 3.4.1](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>

primary air pollutant:

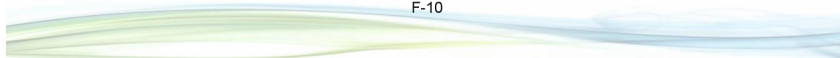
A pollutant that is emitted into the atmosphere directly from a source such as construction sites, unpaved roads, smokestacks, or fires. See [Section 2.1](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/pmcourse/what-particle-pollution#where>

primary standard:

A type of national ambient air quality standards (NAAQS) that provides public health protection, including protecting the health of "sensitive" populations such as asthmatics, children, and the elderly. See [Section 2.4](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/criteria-air-pollutants/naaqs-table>



-Q-**qualitative measurement:**

A measurement that is descriptive, conceptual, and often expressed in words. For example, pollutant concentrations described as "higher" or "lower". See [Section 4.4](#).

quality assurance (QA):

Planned steps performed to manage a project and collect, assess, and review data to ensure that measurements meet the data quality needed for the monitoring objective. An example QA activity is developing a plan for air monitoring. See [Section 3.7.2](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/sites/default/files/2015-06/documents/q5-final.pdf>

quality assurance project plan (QAPP):

A plan that describes the activities of a monitoring project involved with the acquisition of environmental information whether generated from direct measurements activities, collected from other sources, or compiled from computerized databases and information systems. The QAPP documents the results of a project's technical planning process, providing in one place a clear, concise, and complete plan for the environmental data operation and its quality objectives and identifying key project personnel. The QAPP communicates the specifications for implementation of the project design to all parties and ensures that the quality objectives are achieved for the project. See [Section 3.3](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/sites/default/files/2015-06/documents/q5-final.pdf>

quality control (QC):

Steps performed to limit error from instruments or in measurements during a project. Examples of QC activities include collocation, correction of data, maintenance, automatic data checks, and data review. See [Section 3.7.1](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/sites/default/files/2015-06/documents/q5-final.pdf>

quantitative measurement:

A measurement which can be expressed using numbers. For example, a pollutant concentration expressed in parts per billion (ppb) or micrograms per cubic meter ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). See [Section 4.4](#).

-R-**radiative forcing:**

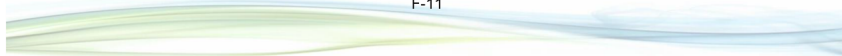
A heating effect caused by greenhouse gases in the atmosphere. Radiative forcing is calculated in watts per square meter, which represents the size of the energy imbalance in the atmosphere. See [Section 2.2](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/climate-indicators/climate-change-indicators-climate-forcing>

regulatory monitoring:

Monitoring conducted for the purposes of demonstrating compliance with the local, state, or federal air quality regulations. See [Section 3.7.1](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/amtic/regulations-guidance-and-monitoring-plans>



remote sensing:

The process of detecting and monitoring the physical characteristics of an area by measuring its reflected and emitted energy or radiation from a distance (e.g., from satellite-based or aircraft-based instruments). See [Section 2.3](#).

Source: https://www.usgs.gov/faqs/what-remote-sensing-and-what-it-used?qt-news_science_products=0#qt-news_science_products

representativeness:

A description of how closely a sample reflects the characteristics of the whole. Although challenging to verify, effort should be made to ensure that a sample is representative using techniques such as thorough mixing to obtain homogeneity, duplicate analyses, etc. For example, the data completeness threshold suggested in this report is meant to ensure that measurements averaged to longer time intervals are as representative as possible by covering at least 75% of the time period. See [Section 3.7.2](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>

response time:

The amount of time required for a sensor to respond to a change in concentration. See [Section 3.4.1](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>

-S-**scatter plot:**

A plot that shows the relationship between two variables, one on the x-axis and one on the y-axis. For sensor data, scatter plots can help explore the relationship between two parameters of interest, understand how a sensor compares to a regulatory monitor, or understand if a sensor overestimates or underestimates pollutant concentrations. See [Section 3.6.2](#).

Source: https://cfpub.epa.gov/si/si_public_record_report.cfm?dirEntryId=354208

secondary air pollutant:

A pollutant that is formed when other primary air pollutants react in the atmosphere. An example of a secondary pollutant is ground-level ozone (O₃), which forms from chemical reactions involving airborne nitrogen oxides (NO_x), airborne volatile organic compounds (VOCs), and sunlight. See [Section 2.1](#).

Source: <https://www.mrgscience.com/ess-topic-63-photochemical-smog.html>

secondary standard:

A type of national ambient air quality standards (NAAQS) that provides public welfare protection, including protection against decreased visibility and damage to animals, crops, vegetation, and buildings. See [Section 2.4](#).

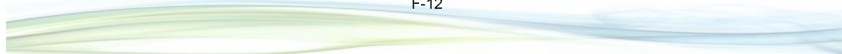
Source: <https://www.epa.gov/criteria-air-pollutants/naaqs-table>

sensor lifespan:

The time period during which the air sensor is designed to function normally. See [Appendix C](#).

sensor network:

Two (2) or more air sensors that collect pollutant concentration or other data (e.g., relative humidity, temperature) from different locations and transmit the measurements to a central repository. See [Section 3.3](#).



sensor node:

An individual sensor within a sensor network. See [Section 1.1](#).

short-term:

A time period covering seconds to weeks. See [Section 2.2](#).

specification sheet:

A document that presents the detailed technical aspects and characteristics of an item or product. See [Section 3.4.1](#).

specificity:

The ability of a sensor to measure the pollutant of interest (*target pollutant*). See [Section 4.4](#).

standard operating procedure (SOP):

A set of written instructions that detail the one-time and repetitive activities to be conducted or followed within an organization. An SOP provides individuals with the information to perform a job properly, which facilitates consistent conformance to technical and quality system requirements and supports data quality. See [Appendix B](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2015-06/documents/g6-final.pdf>

standards:

As related to sensors, a voluntary process where technology testing methods are agreed upon by authorities, manufacturers, customers, and others invested in the performance of the technology. See [Section 4.3.1](#).

State Implementation Plan (SIP):

A collection of regulations and documents used by a state, territory, or local air district to implement, maintain, and enforce the National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS), and to fulfill other requirements of the Clean Air Act. See [Section 2.4](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-quality-implementation-plans/basic-information-about-air-quality-sips>

supplemental monitoring:

An application where sensors are placed in locations that do not have an existing regulatory monitor(s). Typically, the goal is to fill in gaps in areas where there are no or limited regulatory monitors or to identify sources of interest or locations requiring further study and/or monitoring. See [Section 1.1](#).

Source: https://cfpub.epa.gov/si/si_public_record_report.cfm?dirEntryId=354208

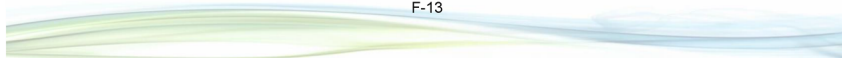
-T-**target pollutant:**

A pollutant of interest for a measurement. See [Section 3.4.1](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>

time averaging interval:

The time period over which raw measurements are averaged. See [Appendix E](#).



-U-**ultrafine particles (UFP):**

Particles in the atmosphere that have diameters generally less than 0.1 micrometer (μm). UFP are created by combustion processes and chemical reactions in the atmosphere. See [Section 2.1](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/pmcourse/particle-pollution-exposure>

underestimate:

Also referred to as *under-report*. Sensor measurements are lower than the reference monitor measurements. See [Section 3.6.2](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/air-sensor-toolbox/air-sensor-performance-targets-and-testing-protocols>

upwind:

Where air moves through before it goes over an area of interest. See [Section 2.1](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/interstate-air-pollution-transport/what-interstate-air-pollution-transport>

-V-**violation:**

Occurs when a measured concentration of a criteria pollutant exceeds the concentration level for the averaging period specified by the National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) for specific criteria over a specified timeframe. See [Section 2.4](#).

visibility:

The degree of perceived clarity (e.g., contrast, coloration, and texture elements) when viewing objects at a distance. Visibility can be impaired by haze caused by air pollutant emissions from numerous sources distributed over a wide geographic area. See [Section 2.1](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2015-05/documents/1999hazefacts.pdf>

volatile organic compounds (VOCs):

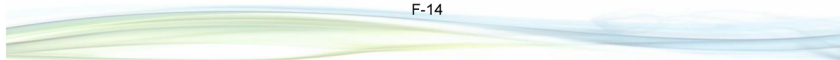
VOCs include a variety of chemicals that have a high vapor pressure and low water solubility. Many VOCs are human-made chemicals that are used and produced in the manufacture of paints, pharmaceuticals, and refrigerants. VOCs typically are industrial solvents, such as trichloroethylene; fuel oxygenates, such as methyl tert-butyl ether (MTBE); or by-products produced by chlorination in water treatment, such as chloroform. VOCs are often components of petroleum fuels, hydraulic fluids, paint thinners, and dry-cleaning agents. See [Section 2.1](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/indoor-air-quality-iaq/what-are-volatile-organic-compounds-vocs>

verification:

The process of evaluating the completeness, correctness, and conformance/compliance of a specific data set against the method, procedural, or contractual requirements. See [Section 3.3](#).

Source: <https://www.epa.gov/sites/default/files/2015-06/documents/q5-final.pdf>





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Senator CARPER. Senator Padilla, how are you doing? Good morning.

Senator PADILLA. I am doing well, Mr. Chairman.

Senator CARPER. Welcome. Good to see you.

Senator PADILLA. Thank you. Thank you for organizing this hearing today and the opportunity to discuss the air quality monitoring technology, something that the State of California has more than 50 years of experience with. We have maintained one of the most extensive air monitoring networks in the world, actually, not just in the Nation, but around the world, which allows us to track progress and identify opportunities to act decisively to protect public health. It is both about air quality, but also about public health.

Mr. Obermann, I want to thank you for your leadership in Denver. As you know and as you mentioned in your testimony, in California, we have a lot of experience with this, especially in the South Coast Air Quality Management District, the Bay Area Air Quality Management District, where they have worked diligently to deploy low-cost air monitoring sensors in impacted communities.

My first question for you is, how can we best share these experiences and best practices across jurisdictions and certainly across State lines?

Mr. OBERMANN. Yes, thank you for the question. We are sharing information between the air quality management districts, for example, in California frequently. They are definitely great partners, and there is actually an international conference on sensor technology starting April 30th through May 4th. I know both the air quality management districts will be there presenting. They have great staff and stories to tell about how they have been using sensors in those communities, and they serve as a model, really, for the rest of the Country.

We share information just between agencies on occasion, and we also, there are several conferences nationally where we present on our sensor programs to each other.

Senator PADILLA. Just to be clear, specific, and intentional here, the information sharing, it is not just data that is collected or how it may be interpreted, analyzed, acted upon, but also just evolving technologies and practices, programmatic information exchange?

Mr. OBERMANN. Yes, we definitely exchange information around what technologies we are using, how that data is corrected against the regulatory monitoring network, for example, and how we use it in our public health and awareness programs.

Senator PADILLA. Great. You have spoken well and eloquently about the need to maintain this as a priority.

I appreciate the Chairman's leadership and the work of, frankly, Democrats in Congress when we were very intentional in crafting the American Rescue Plan and the Inflation Reduction Act to include significant resources to help disadvantaged communities who are disproportionately impacted by poor air quality and tend to have less monitoring capabilities, less ability to obtain accurate air quality data, et cetera.

Recent EPA awards have gone to California applicants like the Pala Band of Mission Indians to enhance air monitoring on their tribal reservation. Another recipient has been the Comité Civico del Valle organization to upgrade real-time air monitoring networks in

the Salton Sea area of California. I think the recent influx of funding will enhance monitoring to other underserved communities.

Mr. Obermann, next question for you is, what can the Federal Government do to make it easier for local or tribal jurisdictions to lessen the learning curve in implementation of low-cost air quality sensors?

Mr. OBERMANN. Yes, thank you for that question. It is to provide boots-on-the-ground assistance. It is for EPA and other technical experts, consultants that they have oversight over, to be in those communities helping them not only stand up the sensors, and that is critically important because where is the sensor located, or even higher quality monitoring equipment that they could buy. It might not be a low-cost air sensor.

Like I mentioned, Denver is purchasing monitors that are higher quality. Some of those grants could absolutely go toward purchasing higher quality monitors. They are not each \$50,000 anymore.

Where do you site those? How do you power them correctly? How do you compile the data, and then even some assistance on what does that data mean for your health? There is a lot more assistance that EPA and the States could provide at the local level to show communities what this data really means, especially as higher quality data is collected.

Senator PADILLA. Can you speak to any specific or additional efforts needed to help avoid improper sensor selection, for example, or incorrect data interpretation so we can actually just make sure the program is effective, but we build the trust and support from communities that rely on it?

Mr. OBERMANN. That is an important point. I think, with the EPA's first round of community air monitoring grants, while Denver did not receive one, I do know that there is a quality assurance plan that they require from those grantees, meaning if you are going to implement this type of sensor in this type of context, what is the quality assurance? What is the quality of the data that you are planning to collect?

I think that is a really good requirement EPA has put in there to answer that question, so that we know what the quality is of these different sensors when they are used in these programs.

Senator PADILLA. Thank you very much. Keep up the good work.

Thank you, Mr. Chairman. One last note, I am eagerly awaiting your Earth Day playlist.

Senator CARPER. One of the songs might have "purple" in it. We will see.

I have several more questions, but I am going to yield to Senator Capito. Thanks very much for joining us. See you later.

Senator CAPITO. Yes, thank you, Mr. Chairman. I have to scoot after I have asked my final question here.

Mr. Hammad, the low-cost sensors have been known, obviously, we have talked about this, inaccurately high pollution levels while operating in high humidity or smoky or other less-than-ideal circumstances. Are there negative side effects that State agencies face with regard to risk communications or public trust that could result if publishing inadvertent high pollution levels, what kind of impacts would that have in terms of trust and communication?

Mr. HAMMAD. Thank you, Senator. I will point out that the Teledyne monitors that you were pointing to earlier, those are regulatory monitors. They are not low-cost air sensors.

Senator CAPITO. Right, Okay. Thanks for that distinction. They are inaccurate?

Mr. HAMMAD. Those are the ones that need the corrections. Those are FEMs, not FRMs, but FEMs and FRMs are both combined regulatory monitors. FEMs use innovative technology like light and lasers to check optically how much particulate matter is in there, whereas a reference method monitor for PM would use something like a filter that you would send to a laboratory to test.

Senator CAPITO. Do you happen to know, this is not the question I was going to ask, but now that we are on this, do you happen to know how that discrepancy was discovered by the EPA?

Mr. HAMMAD. The State air agencies had been pointing to this since roughly 2019, 2020 to some of these discrepancies that they were finding, because they have co-located. Again, they do not have just one PM monitors or two PM monitors. Oftentimes, three or four air monitors are in their monitoring site. They will have several of them, and they will run them to ensure that they are getting accurate measurements.

The FRMs are what we base, in this Country, EPA bases everything off of the FRMs. The FRMs do not give you real-time data, but they will give you sometimes 24 hour or 3 day, you pull it through a filter, and then you send that filter to the laboratory, and it will tell you how much particulate matter of a certain size exists. You use that to then make sure that your Federal equivalence method, your FEM regulatory monitor, is reading correctly.

In the T640, T640-X corrections that were noted earlier, EPA pointed to the fact that there had been, according to temperature variations, humidity variations, wildfire smoke issues, there have been issues where, with low temperatures and high humidity, these monitors, the equivalent monitors, the FEMs, which are still regulatory, were reading abnormal data that wasn't correlating to the FRMs. Based on the weather data and all the other sensor data that is available at these regulatory monitoring stations, EPA is able to go in and make the corrections based on the location of where your monitoring station is.

Senator CAPITO. The other data that they have. This has been in front of the EPA since 2019 with State monitoring agencies, and they are just now getting around to figuring this out?

Mr. HAMMAD. Well, they needed to then formulate the actual correction equations with Teledyne to figure out, well, how do they adjust based on location, based on the technical expertise of the people who manufacture the monitors along with EPA's expertise. They lay it out in their technical support document that they published in that February 14 Federal register, but they had to work with Teledyne and the scientists that EPA had to figure out how, based on your location and how to correct this.

Senator CAPITO. How to do it. Did they put a date on that, like when they would complete that?

Mr. HAMMAD. The corrections, they proposed the corrections on February 14th. The comment period closed March 14th. They will finalize it; I do not know when. Once it gets finalized is when they

will push out the correction, but they have the equations ready to roll out. They will work with the State agencies to perform those corrections.

Senator CAPITO. Well, it would be very timely with this new regulation coming out to make sure that we are dealing with correct data. I think we would all agree with that.

Thank you all very much. Thank you.

Senator CARPER. Senator Capito, thank you. Thank you very much.

I understand Senator Kelly is trying to join us today, but hopefully he will arrive while we are all still here.

I have a question for Mr. Obermann. The term Love My Air Program. I love that. That is really a cool way to label a program, make it alive and real. Where did that come from? Words actually matter, and I like the choice of those words.

Mr. OBERMANN. Sure, yes, thank you for the question, Chairman. Our program name came from our own staff from within our department. We were working with our communications group and when through several options and came up with Love My Air. It is not a very exciting story, but that is really where it came from.

Senator CARPER. I was just thinking, maybe in our respective States, we could come up with something like Love My Senator.

[Laughter.]

Senator CARPER. I do not know if we could get away with that. Probably not.

Mr. Obermann, seriously now, the city of Denver is a pretty clear example of how local governments are using low cost air sensor data to educate the public about health and about air quality. My question, and I will have a followup to this as well, but my question is: in addition to informing students about whether to stay indoors or play outside, how else does the Love My Air Program benefit public health?

Mr. OBERMANN. Yes, thank you for that question. The ways that Love My Air benefits public health is much more than just sensors displaying information in a public school or even emerging now into health clinics. It is not just about the data; it is what does that data mean for students, for the community, for whoever we are streaming that data to.

We accompany our data with a lot of education, and our education is very group and small group focused. It is not broadcast to the millions of Denver residents. It is working in classrooms. It is doing teacher trainings. It is doing nurse trainings about air pollution and health.

It is working at an individual level, and we find that is a really successful way to have a dialog about what this information means and how it is important to either their own personal health or the care that they administer to others, such as nurses. Really, our air pollution monitoring and the sensor network, it is an introduction to a discussion about air quality, and I would say we probably spend 75 percent of our time actually working with individuals to understand air pollution and health.

Senator CARPER. Good, thank you.

Do you know if there are any other cities that are replicating the efforts that you all have taken in Denver with your Love My Air Program?

Mr. OBERMANN. Yes, there are. Yes, thank you for that question. There are several others that are replicating our programs. We even licensed that name, Love My Air. There is an entity in Wisconsin that is implementing a Love My Air program in Milwaukee public schools. Some of our adjacent counties in Denver along Denver's front range are also replicating the Love My Air Program and using that same name.

The emergence of these programs, particularly in public health departments, is rapid. Not only with the EPA grant funding to help start many of those programs, as you are all well aware of, but also, I will say this: our Love My Air Program is not EPA funded. It never has been.

Our program was funded initially by a generous grant from the Bloomberg Foundation in 2018, and now, we are expanding into health clinics through another grant from the Kaiser Permanente Foundation. There is a lot of interest even from grant-making entities other than EPA to fund these types of programs from a public health standpoint.

Senator CARPER. I am going to ask you for the record, if you could just give us some idea of what other cities that are interested in replicating what you are doing in Denver, who might they contact and how might they contact that person or persons. You do not have to respond right now. You can just respond for the record.

Mr. OBERMANN. Some of the other people in other cities that are replicating?

Senator CARPER. If someone wanted to reach out to you all in Denver.

Mr. OBERMANN. Oh, that can be myself. Yes, Bill Obermann at the Denver Department of Public Health and Environment.

Senator CARPER. All right, that is good. I like to say find out what works, do more of that, right?

I will go ahead and ask, because I think we have sort of asked this already, but the city of Denver is a pretty clear example of how local governments are using low-cost air sensor data to educate the public about health and air quality.

I think you may have already addressed this, but I will ask it again, anyway. In addition to informing students about whether to stay indoors or play outdoors, is there anything else that the Love My Air Program does to benefit public health that you want to mention?

Mr. OBERMANN. Love My Air is engaged in a number of policy contexts at the State level. I want to be clear: we do not use our sensor data today in any policy settings like at State air quality rulemakings, but I am involved there quite a bit. Knowing the information that comes from our sensor network, plus all the dialog, like I mentioned before, 75 percent of our time is spent in dialog with communities, hearing their stories, knowing those front line communities, bringing their stories, and bringing them to air policy convenings at the State is critical, and Love My Air has a big role to play there.

While we do not use our data today in those policy settings, we certainly bring the voices of those communities that are experiencing that air quality.

Senator CARPER. Okay, thank you.

Mr. Hammad, in your written testimony, I believe you mentioned that low-cost air sensors have been particularly useful for monitoring wildfire smoke in areas without regulatory monitors. Question, how does the Federal Government use low-cost sensors and their data to inform citizens about healthcare risks from wildfires?

Mr. HAMMAD. Thank you, Chairman. Led by the United States Forest Service, the Interagency Wildland Fire Air Quality Response Program was created to address risks posed by wildfire smoke. The program has a national cache of air sensors and other equipment and deploys technical specialists called air resource advisors during large smoke events.

Air resource advisors may provide, install, and operate low-cost air sensors and other equipment. It is portable in nature. They develop smoke forecasts and share the information with wildfire response teams, air quality regulators, and the public.

They also have, as I mentioned in my statement, they have air sensors that they will loan out to firefighting agencies upon request, as well.

Senator CARPER. Thanks.

Beyond Denver, how are other communities and local air regulators using low-cost sensors to identify hotspots that need more resources?

Mr. HAMMAD. Some local air agencies have used non-regulatory low-cost air sensors to help direct their regulatory enforcement resources. They use them to locate hotspots and then implement targeted inspection initiatives. This can be to go after truck idling or to inform regulatory inspections that might happen less than frequently in one location or another.

Senator CARPER. All right.

We have been joined by Senator Kelly. Senator Kelly, good morning. How are you doing?

Senator KELLY. Thank you, Mr. Chairman. Sorry I am late.

Senator CARPER. No, you are right on time.

Senator KELLY. I deferred my time to Senator Rosen, so I had to go to the back of the line in Armed Services.

Thank you to all of our witnesses for being here today. I want to start with Mr. Obermann. Air quality, obviously, a pressing issue in the west, in Arizona, but really throughout the western United States. As I imagine has already been discussed, worsening wildfires, interstate and international air emissions have also had real impacts in the State of Arizona, especially when it comes to particulate matter and ozone pollution.

Right now, in the Phoenix metro area, we are seeing ozone concentrations increase even as the region's emissions of ozone precursors, the chemicals that contribute to ozone, are going down. The chemicals are going down, but ozone concentration is still going up. This means that a region is being pushed into a more serious classification of nonattainment without having a full understanding of what steps can be taken to bring the concentrations back down.

What leaders in Arizona have been calling for is a renewed commitment by EPA, both at the regional and headquarters level, to focus on the data and science to help understand these new challenges. That is what I think makes this hearing important today.

Mr. Obermann, I know that the Denver region is also in non-attainment for ozone pollution. Can you speak to some of the regional issues like wildfires in western States, like Arizona and Colorado, and how this makes air quality attainment more challenging and why?

Mr. OBERMANN. Sure, thank you for that question, Senator Kelly. Wildfires are a persistent and major impact to air quality. We have experienced that in Denver, much like other western cities.

With the new PM 2.5 annual standard, I think the pressing need to understand how wildfires qualify as exceptional events will be very important. Whether it is called an exceptional event though, for nonattainment area planning and conformity with the Clean Air Act, it is still a public health issue. Wildfires are really, I believe, one of the principal reasons we are here today talking about air sensors, because the public is more aware of air quality through the wildfires we have experienced and through the response of the sensor network than ever before.

The need for understanding how that data can be relayed to people and relayed timely and accurately is more important than ever. The nonattainment issues around ozone that we have had in Denver since the early 1990's, we agree that much of that pollution is also transported. It is not due specifically to wildfires, since we know that wildfires are really emitting precursor emissions to ozone, as you mentioned, but ozone is transported, certainly, from States upwind of ours.

The more research we do in ozone pollution, the more we find that that transport, we have little control over, so what kind of things can we do on the ground that would actually reduce emissions that admit the precursor pollutants of ozone. We are working very hard on that in the Denver region. We will continue doing so through the next decade.

Senator KELLY. How many of these low-cost sensors do you have deployed?

Mr. OBERMANN. We have them deployed in 33 schools, Denver public schools, and several others just really for reference, network, and QA-QC, Quality Assurance/Quality Control.

Senator KELLY. They give you both ozone concentration and precursor chemicals?

Mr. OBERMANN. No, they only read PM 2.5, particulate matter 2.5. They do not read ozone, and they do not read other, what we would call precursor pollutants, like NO₂ to ozone.

Senator KELLY. Is that because they are, are there sensors available that do?

Mr. OBERMANN. Yes. The reason we use PM 2.5 is partly the age of our program. At the time our program was implemented, PM 2.5 sensors were some of the best technology on the market, the most reliable technology. We can correct it against the reference monitoring network that is operated by the State.

It is not to say that we wouldn't monitor ozone in the future or emissions, pollutants like nitrogen dioxide. We could, and we actu-

ally will be in those higher quality monitoring stations that we are going to be buying this year and next.

Senator KELLY. What would an ideal system look like of monitoring? What would you want if you could get all the data? How many would you deploy in a city the size of Denver?

Mr. OBERMANN. Yes, thank you for that question. The ideal monitoring system we would deploy would monitor multiple pollutants at the same time, and that is what we are purchasing. Much of the air sensor technology available today really monitors one or two pollutants. That is what makes it more affordable.

The city can purchase multiple monitors that they put in one box, and we can purchase up to 10 of those over the next several years and disperse them throughout the city. In a city the size of Denver, about 10 is a good number, and that is partly because some of these pollutants we monitor do not vary tremendously location by location. PM 2.5 does not vary tremendously location by location.

Ozone is a regional pollutant, so there is not really a need to monitor that on every block. There are other pollutants like black carbon, nitrogen dioxide, certainly other pollutants that we can monitor today that do vary tremendously location to location.

Senator KELLY. When a pollutant like nitrogen dioxide or black carbon varies location to location, can you then infer some kind of vector from it, and say, well, since we have this variation, we can say that it is coming from a certain location, or at least a direction?

Mr. OBERMANN. We, today, do not look at our data at that short of a time period. We look at trends over, say, the last month or the last year. Do we see hotspots in our network, even our PM 2.5 sensor network, when we look at a day-to-day? Yes, but I wouldn't say that there are persistent hotspots that we see from our PM 2.5 network today.

We do not know if we are going to see that when we start to implement our NO₂ monitoring that I mentioned we are going to be purchasing in the future here. The answer is, we do not really know yet if we would see a lot of variation in those pollutants, but we are going to find out.

Senator KELLY. Thank you, and Mr. Chairman, can I have a few more minutes, or are you ready to wrap it up?

Senator CARPER. I am ready to hear more from you. Go right ahead.

Senator KELLY. Ms. Austin, I appreciate the comments in your testimony about how the EPA and the need to invest in more resources to help regions track regulated pollutants. I think another important aspect of this issue is developing region-specific models to help air quality officials understand what needs to be done to improve air quality.

Can you expand a bit on what kind of costs are involved in developing these regional airshed models, and can you explain why modeling for ozone pollution is challenging?

Ms. AUSTIN. I would be happy to get back to you on the cost related to regional airshed modeling. I do not have that information before me now, but I would be happy to get it to you after the hearing.

I would say that some of the general challenges related to regional air modeling and the State of Arizona's, State of Colorado, most western States, for something like ozone, do present unique challenges, given the seasons in which ozone are traditionally higher. Your topography and geography can play significant roles in how that modeling is done and how it is captured, and ultimately, how that is reflected in the data.

An ozone challenge in the eastern part of the United States, say, down in the Carolinas or even Virginia, which is right next door, will present probably very differently than it would out in the west. Those are important considerations for EPA to be able to take into consideration when it is promulgating policy, when it is recommending changes, when it is reviewing State implementation plans.

I definitely think that those are the types of issues that EPA endeavors to in a way accordingly and appropriately and consider recognizing that a one-size-fits-all approach, especially with something like ozone, is not appropriate, just given the chemistry.

Senator KELLY. Thank you. Thank you, Mr. Chairman.

Senator CARPER. You are quite welcome. Thank you for joining us.

I have a question for Ms. Austin, but I am going to delay it until we have heard from Senator Sullivan. Welcome. Good to see you.

Senator SULLIVAN. Thank you, Mr. Chairman.

Senator CARPER. You bet.

Senator SULLIVAN. I want to thank the witnesses. I appreciate your focus on this important issue.

I wanted to kind of get to the PM 2.5, particulate matter, issue. We have a real challenge in the interior part of Alaska. We have a nonattainment area in interior Alaska, the Fairbanks area.

The challenge there is 60 to 80 percent of the pollution putting Fairbanks over the standard comes from wood-burning stoves in people's homes. We have a unique environment, winter environment, there. Fairbanks is kind of in a bowl, and if you have been to interior Alaska, it is really cold, 50 below zero in the winter. You have this kind of inversion challenge.

The community has been working really hard to reduce emissions, really hard. The EPA in back-to-back actions in 2023 has started to initiate sanctions against the community for its inability to meet the existing PM 2.5 standard and has concurrently proposed to lower emissions.

Then, really badly, in my view, worked with an outside environmental group, I think it was the Sierra Club, without coordinating with the State or the congressional delegation to get an agreement with some far-left environmental group on what Alaskans should do. Really bad approach from the EPA that myself and my congressional colleagues have written them about, like hey, you have to check in with the people who are in charge of the State.

I would like any and all, why do not we start with you, Ms. Austin, to discuss how a one-size-fits-all approach to monitoring PM 2.5 can be very challenging but fail community-specific needs. Like I said, the extreme winter environment, the use of woodstoves to address sub-zero climate conditions, these kind of create a real challenging situation where, in Alaska, a lot of times, one-size-fits-

all approaches from D.C. just do not work. They do not fit, and we end up spending an enormous amount of time trying to address that.

Do you have any thoughts? I will just go to each of the witnesses. It is really my only big question, but it is a really important one. This is just a specific example where we have been putting an enormous amount of work and effort into trying to reduce these emissions. We understand the importance of doing that, and yet, the unique elements of what goes on in Alaska, particularly in the winter, make it a challenge.

Ms. AUSTIN. Senator Sullivan, thank you very much for the question. I think your characterization of a one-size approach fits all is unfortunately but understandably, to some degree. EPA is there to set national standards, but you look back to the Clean Air Act, which has that cooperative federalism approach deliberately embedded in it.

Senator SULLIVAN. A lot of times, EPA forgets about that cooperative federalism approach, right, where the States are in the lead. A lot of people do not know that that is the law.

Ms. AUSTIN. What I would say to that is, I think one area where EPA has striven to really do more and should continue to do and probably up the ante a bit is engage with States. Engage, engage, engage.

Senator SULLIVAN. When they like, with a national environmental group, and do a consent decree without bringing the State of Alaska or the congressional delegation in, you would call that a foul in terms of engaging with the States?

Ms. AUSTIN. I would posit that that is not the way to move forward and actually find a path forward to environmental improvement to benefit public health.

Senator SULLIVAN. Yes, I agree with that. Thank you.

Mr. Obermann, do you have a view on this, in general?

Mr. OBERMANN. Sure, thank you for the question. Yes, I am not just familiar with the context in Alaska, but I can say PM 2.5 pollution due to wood-burning stoves is an issue in Denver, too.

Senator SULLIVAN. Yes. You guys have kind of the inversion thing with the mountain.

Mr. OBERMANN. Yes, Salt Lake City, where I grew up, actually does as well.

There are State rules, and there may be in Alaska as well, I am not familiar with the regulatory context there, that require certain types of stoves that are EPA-certified to be burned.

The air pollution sensor network that we have in Denver can be a great complement to the public health that those individuals are experiencing in your community. They can look at their property's air pollution level and say, what does that mean for my health today? If I am asthmatic, or if my grandmother is asthmatic, what does that mean?

Honestly, in the context from my perspective, what we hear is people need to know what the air pollution is in those communities and why they potentially feel off that day. Programs like ours can help people just get quicker information and understand what that means for their health and even have resources to understand

more about air pollution and health, if say, they go to our website or other means of communication.

Senator SULLIVAN. Good. Thank you.

Mr. Hammad, do you have a view on this, given your CRS perch?

Mr. HAMMAD. Yes, thank you, Senator Sullivan.

First, the State of Alaska and Fairbanks in particular have made strides in their Change Out Program, and that is where they change out the wood-burning stoves, and they have developed the program, been leaders across the Nation in developing that program.

Senator SULLIVAN. You know, the EPA is supposed to be certifying those stoves, and they have not done a very good job at that. I do not know what the issues in Denver are, but in Alaska, they have not done a good job on certifying the stoves.

Mr. HAMMAD. The certification program works for the manufacturers and the retailers of the stoves, and Alaska joined the northeast States in their recent litigation action against EPA for their certification program. They just have some disagreements about the way, the method, that EPA is completing those certifications.

Senator SULLIVAN. Would you agree that the EPA is kind of failing in that certification process, just from the CRS perspective?

Mr. HAMMAD. I will say that the States feel that EPA is failing them. Alaska and the northeast States did file suit. CRS is going to give you the facts on that, and that is what we will give you. The States do feel that EPA needs to update their certification methods for that Change Out Program.

It is the method in which the wood is burned in the oven that they disagree on, and the organization real-world applications versus a test location are not the same. That is where the disagreement and discord happens.

Senator SULLIVAN. Good. Well, I appreciate that.

Thank you, Mr. Chairman. I am sorry I went over time there, but it is an important issue particularly in interior Alaska.

Senator CARPER. It is Okay. Yes, we are glad you could join us.

Senator SULLIVAN. Thank you.

Senator CARPER. Ms. Austin, I promise we are not going to forget you here. I am going to have at least one question just for you.

I think you agreed that sensor technology is improving fairly rapidly. Do you support even more work by EPA to improve the integration of sensor data into EPA's work?

Ms. AUSTIN. Yes, I do, but with the caveat that those resources not be diverted from otherwise maintaining, updating, and correcting the reference monitor network.

Senator CARPER. Would any of our other witnesses want to comment as well on that issue? Anything you want to add, take away?

Mr. OBERMANN. Yes, the air pollution monitoring technologies for our criteria air pollutants like Mr. Hammad mentioned earlier, the six criteria air pollutants, are actually more affordable than ever. I believe there is a path to help States continue their regulatory monitoring efforts, as well as also help local communities and governments implement air sensor programs on the ground. I think there is space for both.

Senator CARPER. Okay, thank you.

Mr. Hammad?

Mr. HAMMAD. The potential future uses of low-cost air sensors and where it goes from here depends, I think, on a range of factors, including the State of the technology, whether the improvements have been made and such. The leaps in the technology that we have seen in the last few years have shown that there have been a lot of advancements.

In addition, their continued or expanded use may depend on any changes in EPA assessment regarding their capabilities and whether EPA can determine certain devices would meet any regulatory standards for monitoring. I think that would change the landscape for low-cost air sensors and where they go from here.

Senator CARPER. Okay, thank you. I have another question, Mr. Hammad, for you. It is one that deals with funding from Congress.

As you know, Congress has provided funding for EPA to administer community air quality monitoring grants through the American Rescue Plan and through the Inflation Reduction Act. In November of, I think it was 2022, EPA selected over 100, maybe a 130-some air monitoring projects across some 37 States to receive this funding.

My question is, in your testimony, you discuss how low-cost air sensor projects that have received funding or will receive Federal funding, how can federally funded sensor projects ensure a high quality of data? I will say that again: how can federally funded sensor projects ensure a high quality of data?

If you would, just please elaborate on the process for projects to undergo quality assurance. In your answers, just, if you would, please also describe the type of entities that received this funding and for what types of projects.

Mr. HAMMAD. Thank you, Chairman Carper. According to GOA, there are 132 community air projects that will be conducted by groups including nonprofits, States, local air agencies, tribes, and more than half these projects plan to use sensors. I included that in my testimony, and the funding recipients conducting low-cost air sensor data collection would be required to submit a quality assurance project plan. EPA refers to these as QAPPs, quality assurance project plan.

Senator CARPER. As what?

Mr. HAMMAD. QAPPS.

Senator CARPER. What does that stand for?

Mr. HAMMAD. Quality assurance project plan, QAPP.

Senator CARPER. Thank you. An acronym for everything.

Mr. HAMMAD. That is the government.

Senator CARPER. Thank you.

Mr. HAMMAD. Per the requirements of the CFR, the quality assurance project plan is a written document that provides a blueprint for the entire project and each specific task to ensure that the project produces reliable data that can be used to meet the project's overall objectives and goals. It provides the who, what, when, where, why, and how of the project, and according to EPA, a quality assurance project plan, a QAPP, aims to ensure the credibility of information collected or used by the community air project itself.

Senator CARPER. Okay. Thank you.

I have a question, one more question, that I think I will ask for all of you to respond to, if you would. Ms. Austin, if we could just start with you.

The question is, in closing, would each of you take a moment or two and tell us where you see common ground with your fellow witnesses? If the answer is that we are farther apart than we started, that would be too bad, but I hope you can identify maybe some areas where you already had some common ground and now it is maybe more or less, but just be really honest with us, and that will be helpful.

If you could go first?

Ms. AUSTIN. Chairman Carper, thank you. I certainly see common ground where technology innovation is going to further reduce costs. Data quality will improve with respect to air sensors. I think that is a very exciting place to, frankly, be as a Country. We have seen it in various other technology applications that affect us and make our lives easier in everyday life. I think air sensors are certainly on that train and it is moving in the right direction.

I think we can also agree that when it comes to the reference and regulatory monitors, that more need to be done and that those should continue to serve as the backbone for any regulatory decisionmaking at State air agencies and at the Federal level.

Perhaps 1 day, the air sensors will catch up, they will get to a level where they are equally robust. I look forward to that day. I hope it gets there, but alas, I do not think today is that day. I think there is a lot to look forward to in both contexts.

Senator CARPER. Good. Thank you. I like that note of optimism. Thanks so much.

Mr. Obermann, please, same question, common ground.

Mr. OBERMANN. Thank you for the question, Mr. Chairman.

I agree that our reference air quality monitoring network run by the EPA and the States needs a lot of support and help. It needs to innovate over time as these new technologies become available that are reference quality.

We know of several vendors in Colorado that have gotten that stamp of approval from EPA to use their monitors as reference-level monitors, and that is the same process that other makers like Teledyne have used for a long time. We know that there is a need, and I agree to support that monitoring network.

The reality is there are many, many areas in our Country where we will never be able to cover it with a regulatory-grade monitoring network. The sensors that are available on the market today help fill in those voids, and there are some big voids out there, especially in areas where they are prone to wildfires.

I think an area where we can agree is that that sensor network can absolutely help inform where some of our air pollution challenge is changing. If in some of our more rural communities, air pollution is actually increasing due to things like wildfires, we can know that through the air sensor network so that perhaps we can bring regulatory air monitoring there in the future.

I believe there is a lot of agreement here on the panel about sensors broadening that awareness and perhaps for attention with regulatory air monitoring in the future.

Senator CARPER. Mr. Hammad?

Mr. HAMMAD. Thank you, Chairman Carper.

I think we do agree on the current State of our regulatory monitors and their importance and the information that they have been able to provide the Country for the past few decades has been invaluable.

Where low-cost air sensors are and how they fill these data gaps and help identify opportunities for regulatory agencies to direct their resources, I think we also agree on that.

Where the technology goes from now, again, depends on the level of investments and the capacity for EPA to review and continue to review these technologies and to provide further guidance on their use and the data collection and the handling and proper siting of them. Like my co-panelists, I think I agree in saying, you know, hopefully 1 day they do reach the capacity to be used in a regulatory purpose.

Senator CARPER. Okay. Thank you.

I think we are going to close here. We had one or two other colleagues that are trying to get here, but there are a bunch of committees that are meeting at the same time, and it is, we got a pretty good bipartisan cross-section that was able to be here. I had hoped that we might get one or two more, but I do not think we are.

I am going to go ahead and begin to close this.

I just want to thank you all for coming today and for the time you put into actually coming here in person and really for the work you do with your lives and what you do for your own communities and for your States and our Country and our planet. We thank you for that.

I want to thank members of our staff for the very good work that they do week after week after week. I have always surrounded myself with people smarter than me. My wife says it is not hard to find them. We have some smart cookies behind me.

The other thing that we have going for us is they sort of like each other and they work well together. You all heard of something called "trickle-down theory." I believe in that. I think Senator Capito does, as well. We, for the most part, I think, work really well together, and I think that is a positive influence on the members of our staff.

I want to maybe mention one or two other things, but I think that we can all pretty much agree that folks in this day and age should not have to worry about whether the air that they breathe is safe for them and for their families, whether young or old, yet far too many communities are exposed to harmful air pollution, even despite all of our efforts to reduce those threats.

Fortunately, as we have learned today, the advancements in low-cost air quality sensors equip a lot of communities with knowledge about their air quality, and this knowledge is helping local policy-makers make evidence-based decisions in order to improve public health further.

Before we adjourn, I am going to ask unanimous consent to submit for the record materials relating to today's hearing. This is my favorite part of the hearing, when I get to ask, make a unanimous consent request, and there is no one here to object, no other Sen-

ators. Hearing no objection, I am going to move on to some house-keeping.

[The referenced information follows:]

April 19, 2024

The Honorable Tom Carper
Chair
U.S. Senate Environment & Public Works Committee

The Honorable Shelley Moore Capito
Ranking Member
U.S. Senate Environment & Public Works Committee

Dear Chairman Carper and Ranking Member Capito,

On behalf of Tall Timbers, we thank the Committee for holding this hearing examining the state of air quality monitoring technology. We are deeply invested in making sure air quality technologies are available to states, Tribes, and private landowners, especially in light of the EPA PM 2.5 rule which will limit the availability of prescribed fire on public and private lands.

Tall Timbers is a non-governmental organization with over 60 years of experience utilizing fire science to solve conservation and land management issues. We work closely with the federal government on fire science research and implementation and have been encouraged by the Forest Service and Interior Agencies' commitments to expand prescribed fire. That's why we were surprised and disheartened to see the EPA's proposed rule to modify the NAAQS PM 2.5 rule. As a conservation organization, we support clean air and reducing human-induced pollutants for human health benefits. However, the proposed PM 2.5 rule is an overly simplistic approach to a complex situation that could *result in more emissions into the atmosphere* if it hinders the use of prescribed fire.

Prescribed fire and wildfire each burn approximately 10 million acres annually in the US. Wildfires cause vastly disproportionate emissions and dramatically affect human population centers. We know prescribed fire is a critical tool to mitigate out-of-control wildfires. We also know that reducing the use of prescribed fire will undoubtedly result in continued increases in wildfires that are more difficult to suppress and more damaging to our air, water and broader environmental quality.

We are supportive of increased resources to air quality technologies to help monitor all particulate matter, including smoke, in order for state air quality departments to monitor and apply for exemptions for use of prescribed fire in nonattainment zones. Tall Timbers has been working closely with the EPA, USFS, private landowners, and state air quality districts to ensure the technologies exist to continue conducting prescribed fire in nonattainment zones. While we are encouraged by the work of EPA to meet these concerns, we are deeply concerned that the smoke monitoring, modeling, and exemption requirements will be far too onerous for many states – much less private landowners – to comply. We also are concerned that, without additional resources to state air quality districts, states with fewer resources will fall far behind will fall far behind and, as a result, suffer from greater wildfire emissions.

We appreciate your attention to this important issue. Please look to Tall Timbers as a partner in ensuring the many benefits of prescribed fire remain viable across the country so that we can maintain a healthy environment.

Sincerely,
J. Morgan Varner, PhD
Director of Research
Tall Timbers



April 9, 2024

The Honorable Tom Carper
Chair
U.S. Senate Environment & Public Works
Committee

The Honorable Shelley Moore Capito
Ranking Member
U.S. Senate Environment & Public Works
Committee

Re: The Stewardship Project Testimony for the Environment & Public Works Committee
Hearing on Examining the State of Air Quality Monitoring Technology

Dear Chairman Carper and Ranking Member Capito,

On behalf of the Stewardship Project, we would like to thank you for the opportunity to submit testimony regarding the state of air quality monitoring technology. The Stewardship Project is a collaboration of leading academics and cultural fire practitioners supported by the Climate & Wildfire Institute. This new initiative is intended to promote greater use of active stewardship in the United States to address the wildfire crisis, and in particular, to highlight the importance of and promote the use of beneficial fire¹ undertaken by Tribal entities, including Tribes, Tribal organizations, and cultural fire practitioners.

Beneficial fire is our greatest tool to combat the wildfire crisis: by reducing the fuel load in our forests and wildlands, beneficial fire reduces the severity of wildfire. These activities protect communities from the direct impacts of wildfire, as well as the deleterious impacts of wildfire smoke on the public health and wellbeing. While thinning and other fire surrogates are also useful tools, beneficial fire alone replicates the processes on which ecosystem resilience depends. It is critical to realign federal policies in a non-partisan way to prioritize scientifically sound practices and to facilitate the use of beneficial fire to promote public health, community safety, and ecological resilience.

Wildfire smoke is one of the most significant contributors to increasing levels of PM_{2.5} emissions, especially in the western United States. Scientific and public health experts agree that a significant increase in the use of beneficial fire practices is the best tool at our disposal to combat this crisis, and thus essential to reduce PM_{2.5} pollution and improve public health.

By reducing the frequency and severity of wildfires, beneficial fire projects reduce total emissions and allow more effective mitigation. Though beneficial fires produce smoke, studies have demonstrated that beneficial fires produce fewer, less harmful emissions than wildfires, and in

¹ We use the term beneficial fire to broadly mean prescribed fire, cultural burning, and wildfire managed for resource benefit, in line with the recommendations of the Biden-Harris Wildland Fire Mitigation and Management Commission.

particular, the severe megafires that have become increasingly common in the western United States. And as beneficial fires are planned in advance, smoke impacts can be mitigated to reduce community exposure, such as limiting burns to days with favorable weather conditions, and engaging with communities to provide filtration, clean air spaces, or temporary relocation out of smoke-impacted areas.

Despite the critical nature of beneficial fire, beneficial fire itself causes emissions, so restrictions used to meet NAAQS for particulate matter and ozone—absent other mechanisms to enable beneficial fire use—can perversely result in less beneficial fire use and ultimately and more wildfire smoke events in the long term.

Planning, decision-making, and complying statutory and regulatory requirements may involve extensive air quality data monitoring and technical analysis. Ensuring that air agencies, Tribes, Indigenous cultural burn practitioners, and other beneficial fire practitioners have access to air quality monitoring technology and technical analytical support, is necessary to promote beneficial fire use.

- I. Unless accompanied by additional policy changes, the EPA's recent reductions in the PM_{2.5} NAAQS will inhibit beneficial fire use.

The recent reduction of the annual PM_{2.5} NAAQS will result in new nonattainment areas or increase the severity of nonattainment.² Accordingly, States and Air Districts in those areas will be tasked with identifying mechanisms for reaching the new standard. Many of these areas are concentrated in California, where the state has identified the need to treat tens of millions of acres with fuel reduction projects, specifically including beneficial fire.

If existing limits are kept in place for sources such as industrial pollution, more stringent limitations will need to be imposed on other sources to ensure the areas can reach attainment. Beneficial fire advocates and practitioners are concerned that this will result in denials of smoke management permits by air agencies attempting to avoid exceedances of the new PM_{2.5} NAAQS.³ In this way, the Clean Air Act creates a perverse incentive, where agencies are disincentivized from leveraging one of the best tools for long-term wildfire smoke mitigation, which will ultimately harm the public health and wellbeing.

The EPA and others have suggested that the Exceptional Events Rule can adequately address this issue, but the current Exceptional Events Rule, adopted in 2016, has failed to live up to its goal of facilitating beneficial fire. Under the Clean Air Act, emissions caused by exceptional events such as wildfires and high wind dust events may be excluded from air quality monitoring

² Congressional Research Service, *Air Quality: EPA's 2023 Proposed Changes to the Particulate Matter (PM) Standard (2023)*, at Figure 2.

³ See summary in Congressional Research Service, *Air Quality: EPA's 2023 Proposed Changes to the Particulate Matter (PM) Standard (2023)*.

data. Pursuant to that statutory language, the EPA adopted the Exceptional Events Rule. The Exceptional Events Rule defines an "exceptional event" as one that "affects the air quality," "is not reasonably controllable or preventable," "is caused by human activity that is unlikely to recur at a particular location or a natural event," and is determined by the EPA to be an exceptional event.⁴

The Exceptional Events Rule requires agencies to prepare expensive and technical submission to demonstrate to the EPA that an exceptional event caused the emissions and to prove the event meets all regulatory criteria. Exceptional Events demonstrations are onerous for air agencies to prepare: it requires extensive technical analyses which are expensive and time consuming to prepare. As a result, air agencies have no incentive to approve beneficial fire use, as the current regulations make it easier to deny requested approvals for prescribed or cultural burns, rather than approve the burn and run the risk of needing to prepare an Exceptional Events demonstration. Indeed, in the U.S. Government Accountability Office's 2023 report *Wildfire Smoke: Opportunities to Strengthen Federal Efforts to Manage Growing Risks*, the EPA confirmed that no air regulators have ever successfully used the Exceptional Events Rule for beneficial fires.⁵ The EPA's most recent PM2.5 NAAQS rulemaking left the Exceptional Events Rule unmodified.

Modifying the NAAQS without finding a pathway for increased beneficial fire use is contrary to the policies and actions planned by federal, state, local, and Tribal entities to address the wildfire crisis and ultimately, to reduce harmful PM2.5 emissions and impacts by reducing wildfire smoke.

- II. Congress and EPA must take further, immediate action to facilitate prescribed fire in the face of the existing regulatory framework.

Congress could help provide procedural ease and reduce the perverse incentives in a few different ways. First, Congress could adopt legislation to revise the Clean Air Act, or direct the EPA to issue additional regulations, to recognize that smoke from beneficial fire is part of "natural" or "background" conditions, expressly allow such burning to occur, and allow states to more easily remove such emissions when determining exceedances or violations of the NAAQs. Support for this approach comes from the Western Regional Air Partnership, Policy for Categorizing Fire Emissions (November 15, 2001), which recognizes that ecosystems have evolved with Indigenous and other burning, and require such burning to maintain resilience. Such legislation should recognize and account for the reality that as land managers work to return fuel loads to more characteristic

⁴ 42 U.S.C. § 7619(b)(1)(A).

⁵ We are aware of the Exceptional Event Demonstration for an Exceedance of the 2012 Annual PM2.5 NAAQS at Grass Valley, California on April 20, 2021 due to Smoke from a Prescribed Fire, which is currently under development with the EPA, the U.S. Forest Service, the State of California, the Placer County Air Pollution Control District, and the Northern Sierra Air Quality management District. While we are pleased to see the regulatory entities work through the process of preparing an Exceptional Event Demonstration for prescribed fire, we were alarmed to hear that the analysis took months of time by two experienced EPA staff to put together, especially for a single day of burning.

conditions, these “natural” or “background” levels may be higher than would be expected under more characteristic conditions, but lower than would result from wildfire.

Second, Congress could modify the Clean Air Act’s statutory provisions regarding Exceptional Events to more explicitly account for beneficial fire and create streamlined pathway to exclude emissions from beneficial fire from air quality monitoring data. As noted above, despite the EPA’s position that the current Exceptional Events Rule regulations create a pathway to facilitate use of beneficial fire, it has failed to accomplish this goal. The Exceptional Events Rule requires air agencies to make an exceptional events demonstration, which requires extensive technical analysis which is expensive and time consuming. Under the tightened PM2.5 NAAQS, states will now have to conduct more complex modeling and reporting in order for the states, Tribes, and private landowners to conduct beneficial fire. Promoting access to air quality monitoring technology and technical analytic services, and streamlining requirements for monitoring and analysis could help to alleviate the burden on air agencies, Tribes and Indigenous cultural burning practitioners, and private landowners. Providing clearer statutory directives regarding beneficial fire would ensure the regulations account for, incentivize, and facilitate beneficial fire. This could include, for example, requiring that State Implementation Plans demonstrate how they account for beneficial fire use and enable beneficial fire programs. We are grateful that EPA has turned its attention to how to make the Exceptional Event Rule work for beneficial fire use, however, Congress should carefully monitor whether these actions are sufficient to meet the overwhelming and pressing needs.

In order to meet the directive of the Clean Air Act to protect the public health and welfare, the government must enable significantly greater use of beneficial fire, rather than continuing to treat it commensurate with industrial pollution sources. We appreciate that the Committee is looking at the importance of air quality technologies and hope to partner with you on this important issue.

Thank you,

Don Hankins, Scott Stephens, and Sara Clark
Project Leads
The Stewardship Project



THE STEWARDSHIP PROJECT IS SUPPORTED BY THE:

CLIMATE & WILDFIRE INSTITUTE

Senator CARPER. Senators will be allowed to submit written questions for the record through the close of business on Wednesday, April 24th. We will compile those questions. We are going to send them to our witnesses, and we are going to ask you all to reply, if you would, by Wednesday, May the 8th.

With that, I think we will just declare this hearing adjourned. Thanks so much.

[Whereupon, at 11:48 a.m., the hearing was adjourned.]

