

RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT HIGHLIGHTS:
**MOBILE SENSORS AND APPLICATIONS
FOR AIR POLLUTANTS**



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NOTATION

(This list includes acronyms and abbreviations used in this report and the companion master table that summarizes sensor information from the literature reviewed; these notations include abbreviations used to streamline those summaries. Selected acronyms and abbreviations that are only used in limited tables are defined within those tables.)

| | |
|--------------------------------|--|
| ac | acute |
| ACGIH | American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists |
| AEGL | acute exposure guideline level (National Research Council) |
| AFC | automated fare collection |
| Ag | silver |
| AI | ambient intelligence |
| a-IGZO | amorphous indium gallium zinc oxide |
| AIHA | American Industrial Hygiene Association |
| AL | action level |
| Al | aluminum |
| Al ₂ O ₃ | aluminum oxide |
| Alg/Mod | algorithm/modeling |
| ANL | Argonne National Laboratory |
| API | application programming interface |
| app | application |
| AQI | Air Quality Index |
| AR | augmented reality |
| As | arsenic |
| A/SR | activity/speech recognition |
| ATSDR | Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry |
| Au | gold |
| avg | average |
| AVS | automated voltammetric system |
| AZO | aluminum-doped zinc oxide |
| | |
| BaP | benzo[a]pyrene |
| BC | black carbon |
| BTEX | benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene, xylene(s) |
| BTX | benzene, toluene, xylene(s) |
| | |
| C | ceiling (OSHA PEL value) |
| °C | degree(s) centigrade (Celsius) |
| C8-MPN | n-octanethiolate-monolayer-protected gold nanoparticle(s) |
| C8-PBP | Pt ₂ Cl ₄ (1,3-butadiene)(pyridine) ₂ |
| CA | context awareness |
| CAA | Clean Air Act |
| CAAQS | California Ambient Air Quality Standards (California EPA) |
| CAFO | concentrated animal feeding operation |
| CalEPA | California Environmental Protection Agency |
| CAS RN | Chemical Abstracts Service Registry Number |
| CEAS | cavity enhanced absorption spectroscopy |
| CEGL | continuous exposure guideline level(s) |
| CEL | continuous exposure limit |
| CEMS | continuous emissions monitoring system(s) |

NOTATION (Cont'd.)

| | |
|---------------------------------|---|
| CH ₄ | methane |
| C ₂ H ₂ | acetylene |
| C ₂ H ₄ | ethylene |
| C ₄ H ₆ | 1,3-butadiene |
| C ₆ H ₆ | benzene |
| CH ₂ O | formaldehyde |
| C ₂ H ₄ O | acetaldehyde |
| C ₃ H ₄ O | acrolein |
| chr | chronic |
| Cl ₂ | chlorine |
| cm | centimeter(s) |
| cm ³ | cubic centimeter(s) |
| CNT | carbon nanotube(s) |
| CO | carbon monoxide |
| CO ₂ | carbon dioxide |
| COCl ₂ | cobalt(II) chloride |
| concn | concentration |
| COSPEC | correlation spectroscopy |
| CPB | cell phone-based |
| Cr | chromium |
| Cr(VI) | hexavalent chromium |
| CSA | camphor sulfonic acid |
| CTL | cataluminescence |
| Cu | copper |
| CVD | chemical vapor deposition |
| 1-D | one-dimensional |
| 3-D | three-dimensional |
| d | day(s) |
| DAQ | data acquisition |
| DARPA | Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency |
| DB | data broadcasting |
| dBm | decibel-milliwatt |
| DC | direct current |
| DCE | dichloroethylene |
| D/DM | database/data mining |
| DDP | distributed data processing |
| DFB | distributed feedback (laser) |
| DHHS | U.S. Department of Health and Human Services |
| DHS | U.S. Department of Homeland Security |
| DIY(er[s]) | do-it-yourself(er[s]) |
| DNA | deoxyribonucleic acid |
| DNT | dinitrotoluene |
| DoD | U.S. Department of Defense |
| DOE | U.S. Department of Energy |
| DOT | U.S. Department of Transportation |
| DRIFT | diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform (spectroscopy) |
| DTRA | Defense Threat Reduction Agency |

NOTATION (Cont'd.)

| | |
|--------------------------------|---|
| <i>E. coli</i> | <i>Escherichia coli</i> |
| EA | exposure assessment |
| EEGL | emergency exposure guidance level |
| EEL | emergency exposure limit |
| EIS | embedded/integrated sensor |
| e-nose | electronic nose |
| EPA | U.S. Environmental Protection Agency |
| ERPG | emergency response planning guideline |
| ET-O | economic trade-offs |
| eV | electron volt(s) |
| EVS | Environmental Science Division (DOE/Argonne) |
| FAA | Federal Aviation Administration |
| FBAR | (thin-)film bulk acoustic resonator |
| FDMS | filter dynamics measurement system |
| FEHWCVD | field-enhanced hot wire chemical vapor deposition |
| FID | flame ionization detector |
| F/S-PSU | fixed/semi-portable sensor unit |
| ft | foot (feet) |
| FTIR | Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy |
| Ga | gallium |
| GaN | gallium nitride |
| GC | gas chromatograph(y) |
| GF | cyclosarin |
| GHG | greenhouse gas |
| GPRS | general packet radio service |
| GPS | global positioning system |
| GSM | global system for mobile communications |
| H ₂ | hydrogen |
| HAP | hazardous air pollutant(s) |
| HBCD(s) | hexabromocyclododecane(s) |
| HC | hydrocarbon(s) |
| HCl | hydrogen chloride, or hydrochloric acid |
| HCN | hydrogen cyanide |
| HDI | hexamethylene diisocyanate |
| HF | hydrogen fluoride |
| Hg | mercury |
| HI | hazard index |
| hr | hour(s) |
| H ₂ S | hydrogen sulfide |
| H ₂ SO ₄ | hydrogen sulfate, sulfuric acid |
| HWCVD | hot wire chemical vapor deposition |
| HWG | hollow waveguide |
| Hz | hertz |
| ICT | information and communication technology(ies) |
| i.d. | internal diameter |

NOTATION (*Cont'd.*)

| | |
|--------------------------------|--|
| ID | identifier |
| IDE | interdigitated electrode |
| IDLH | immediately dangerous to life or health (NIOSH) |
| IDT | interdigitated transducer |
| IGZO | indium gallium zinc oxide (also InGaZnO ₄) |
| in. | inch(es) |
| In ₂ O ₃ | indium oxide |
| IOM | Institute of Medicine |
| IP | ionization potential |
| IR | infrared |
| IRIS | integrated risk information system (EPA) |
| ITO | indium-tin oxide |
| IUR | inhalation unit risk (EPA) |
| | |
| JS | Java script |
| | |
| K | Kelvin |
| keV | kiloelectronvolt(s) |
| kg | kilogram(s) |
| kHz | kilohertz |
| km | kilometer(s) |
| kV | kilovolt(s) |
| | |
| LA | location awareness |
| La-Sr-FeO ₃ | lanthanum-strontium-iron oxide |
| LB | Langmuir-Blodgett |
| lb | pound(s) |
| LCD | liquid crystal display |
| LDA | linear discriminant analysis |
| LDL | lower detection limit |
| LED | light-emitting diode |
| LEL | lower explosive limit |
| LIBS | laser-induced breakdown spectroscopy |
| LIDAR | light detection and ranging |
| LPAS | laser photoacoustic spectroscopy |
| LPG | liquefied petroleum gas |
| | |
| m | meter(s) |
| m ³ | cubic meter(s) |
| mA | milliampere(s) |
| max | maximum |
| MEG | military exposure guideline (DoD) |
| MEK | methyl ethyl ketone |
| MEMS | microelectromechanical system(s) |
| mg | milligram(s) |
| mg/m ³ | milligram(s) per cubic meter (air) |
| MgO | magnesium oxide |
| μg | microgram(s) |
| μg/m ³ | microgram(s) per cubic meter (air) |

NOTATION (*Cont'd.*)

| | |
|----------------------|---|
| μm | micron(s) |
| μs | microsecond(s) |
| MIM | metal-insulator-metal |
| min | minute(s) |
| MIR | mid-infrared (spectroscopy) |
| mL | milliliter(s) |
| MLIAS | multiple-line integrated absorption spectroscopy |
| mm | millimeter(s) |
| Mn | manganese |
| mo | month(s) |
| MoO_3 | molybdenum trioxide |
| MOS | metal oxide semiconductor(s) |
| MoS | mobile sensing |
| MPa | megapascal |
| MRL | minimal risk level (ATSDR) |
| MS:MMP | mountable sensor: micro- and miniature-scale platform |
| M-SS | multi-sensor system |
| mW | milliwatt(s) |
| MW | molecular weight |
| MWCNT | multi-walled carbon nanotube(s) |
| | |
| N | nitrogen atom (nitride) |
| N_2 | nitrogen gas |
| NAAQS | National Ambient Air Quality Standard(s) (EPA, CAA) |
| NASA | National Aeronautics and Space Administration |
| NATA | National-Scale Air Toxics Assessment (EPA) |
| NEMA | National Electrical Manufacturers Association |
| NH_2 | amine |
| NH_3 | ammonia |
| NH_4 | ammonium |
| Ni | nickel |
| Ni-Cr | nickel-chromium |
| NIH | National Institutes of Health |
| NiMH | nickel-metal hydride (battery) |
| NIOSH | National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health |
| NIST | National Institute of Standards and Technology |
| nm | nanometer(s) |
| NO | nitric oxide |
| N_2O | nitrous oxide |
| NO_2 | nitrogen dioxide |
| NO_x | nitrogen oxide(s) |
| NRC | National Research Council |
| NSF | National Science Foundation |
| NST | nanoscale technology |
| | |
| O_2 | oxygen |
| O_3 | ozone |
| OEHHA | Office of Environmental Health Hazard Assessment (CalEPA) |
| OEL | occupational exposure level |

NOTATION (Cont'd.)

| | |
|-------------------|---|
| OP | organophosphate(s) |
| OPC | optical particle counters |
| ORD | Office of Research and Development (EPA) |
| OSHA | U.S. Occupational Safety and Health Administration |
| PAAEMA | poly(2-(acetoacetoxy)ethyl methacrylate) |
| PAC | protective action criteria (DOE) |
| PAH | polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon(s) |
| PANi | polyaniline |
| Pb | lead |
| PBDE | polybrominated diphenyl ether(s) |
| PC | personal computer |
| PCA | principal component analysis |
| PCB | polychlorinated biphenyl(s) |
| PCP | pentachlorophenol(s) |
| P/CS | participatory/citizen sensing |
| Pd | palladium |
| PDA | personal digital assistant |
| PDMS | polydimethylsiloxane |
| PEGL | permissible exposure guidance level (NRC/DoD) |
| PEL | permissible exposure limit (OSHA) |
| PFC | perfluorocarbon(s) |
| pg | picogram(s) |
| PH ₃ | phosphine |
| PID | photoionization detector |
| p-i-n | diode with semiconductor stack of p-type, intrinsic, and n-type materials |
| p-IUR | provisional inhalation unit risk (EPA) |
| PM | particulate matter |
| PM ₁ | PM with an aerodynamic diameter of a nominal 1 micron or less |
| PM _{2.5} | PM with an aerodynamic diameter of a nominal 2.5 microns or less |
| PM ₁₀ | PM with an aerodynamic diameter of a nominal 10 microns or less |
| PMTFPS | poly[methyl(3,3,3-trifluoropropyl)siloxane] |
| PO | project officer |
| PoANIS | poly(o-anisidine) |
| PPB | photonic pass band |
| ppb | part(s) per billion |
| PPEGL | permissible public exposure guidance level (NRC/DoD) |
| ppm | part(s) per million |
| PPRTV | provisional peer reviewed toxicity value (EPA) |
| ppt | part(s) per trillion |
| PPy | polypyrrole |
| p-RfC | provisional reference concentration (EPA) |
| PS | prediction service |
| Pt | platinum |
| PtCl ₂ | platinum(II) chloride |
| PTR-LIT | photon-transfer reaction linear ion trap |
| QCL | quantum cascade laser(s) |
| QCM | quartz crystal microbalance |

NOTATION (*Cont'd.*)

| | |
|------------------|--|
| R&D | research and development |
| RBC | risk-based concentration (EPA) |
| REL | recommended exposure limit (NIOSH) |
| REL | reference exposure level (CalEPA) |
| resp | response (time) |
| RfC | reference concentration (EPA) |
| RFID | radio frequency identification |
| RS | radar system |
| RSC | risk-specific concentration (EPA) |
| RSL | Regional screening level(s) (EPA Regions) |
| RS/M | remote sensor/monitoring |
| RSS | received signal strength |
| RTR | reel-to-reel |
| sec | second(s) |
| SAW | surface acoustic wave |
| SC | sensor calibration |
| SD | secure digital |
| SEM | scanning electron microscope |
| SF | slope factor |
| Si | silicon |
| SMAC | spacecraft maximum allowable concentration (NRC/NASA) |
| SN/C | social networking/computing |
| SnO ₂ | tin dioxide |
| SnO _x | tin oxide |
| SO ₂ | sulfur dioxide |
| SO ₄ | sulfate |
| SO _x | sulfur oxide(s) |
| SOA | service-oriented architecture |
| SNS | social networking services |
| SPME | solid phase micro-extraction (fiber) |
| STEL | short-term exposure limit (OSHA) |
| subc | subchronic |
| SVOC | semivolatile organic compound(s) |
| SWCNT | single-walled carbon nanotube(s) |
| SWV | square wave voltammetry |
| TCE | trichloroethylene |
| TD | thermal desorption |
| TD-FTIR-HWG | thermal desorption Fourier transform infrared hollow waveguide |
| TDI | 2,4-toluene diisocyanate |
| TDLAS | tunable diode laser absorption spectroscopy |
| temp | temperature |
| TEOM | tapered element oscillating microbalance |
| Ti | titanium |
| TiO ₂ | titanium dioxide |
| TLV | threshold limit value (ACGIH) |
| TNT | trinitrotoluene |
| TWA | time-weighted average |

NOTATION (*Cont'd.*)

| | |
|------------------|--|
| ubicom | ubiquitous computing |
| UEL | upper explosive limit |
| UF | uncertainty factor |
| UFFI | urea-formaldehyde foam insulation |
| UFP | ultrafine particle(s) |
| UPSIDE | unconventional processing of signals for intelligent data exploitation |
| UR | unit risk (EPA) |
| USB | Universal Serial Bus |
| USDA | U.S. Department of Agriculture |
| UTL | upper tolerance limit |
| UV | ultraviolet |
| UV abs | ultraviolet absorption |
| UV vis | ultraviolet visible |
| UVNS | ultraviolet non-solarizing (e.g., optical fiber) |
| | |
| V | volt(s) |
| VA | volt-ampere(s) |
| VAC | volt(s) alternating current |
| VDC | volt(s) direct current |
| VMU | vehicle-mounted unit |
| VOC | volatile organic compound(s) |
| VP | vapor pressure |
| VR | virtual reality |
| VR/S | virtual reality/sensing |
| VS | visual sensing |
| | |
| W | watt(s) |
| W-B | Web-based |
| wk | week(s) |
| WO ₃ | tungsten trioxide |
| WSN | wireless sensor network |
| wt % | weight percent |
| | |
| XML5 | Extensible Markup Language 5 |
| XRF | X-ray fluorescence |
| | |
| yr | year(s) |
| YSZ | yttria-stabilized zirconia |
| | |
| ZnO | zinc oxide |
| ZrO ₂ | zirconium dioxide |

CONVERSION TABLE 1 Units of Area, Length, Mass, and Volume

| Multiply | By | To Obtain |
|--|------------|--|
| <i>English/Metric Equivalents</i> | | |
| acre (ac) | 4,047 | square meter (m ²) |
| cubic foot (ft ³) | 0.02832 | cubic meter (m ³) |
| cubic yard (yd ³) | 0.7646 | cubic meter (m ³) (= 10 ⁶ cm ³) |
| foot (ft) | 0.3048 | meter (m) |
| inch (in.) | 2.540 | centimeter (cm) |
| inch (in.) | 25,400 | micron (μm, or micrometer) |
| mile (mi) | 1.609 | kilometer (km) |
| ounce (oz.) | 28.35 | gram (g) |
| pound (lb) | 0.4536 | kilogram (kg) |
| short ton (tons) | 907.2 | kilogram (kg) |
| short ton (tons) | 0.9072 | metric ton (t) |
| square foot (ft ²) | 0.09290 | square meter (m ²) |
| square yard (yd ²) | 0.8361 | square meter (m ²) |
| square mile (mi ²) | 2.590 | square kilometer (km ²) |
| yard (yd) | 0.9144 | meter (m) |
| <i>Metric/English Equivalents</i> | | |
| centimeter (cm) | 0.3937 | inch (in.) |
| cubic meter (m ³) | 35.31 | cubic foot (ft ³) |
| cubic meter (m ³) | 1.308 | cubic yard (yd ³) |
| gram (g) | 0.03527 | ounce (oz.) |
| kilogram (kg) | 2.205 | pound (lb) |
| kilogram (kg) | 0.001102 | short ton (tons) |
| kilometer (km) | 0.6214 | mile (mi) |
| meter (m) | 3.281 | foot (ft) |
| meter (m) | 1.094 | yard (yd) |
| micron (μm, or micrometer) | 0.00003937 | inches (in.) |
| milliliter (mL) | 0.0002642 | gallon (gal) |
| square kilometer (km ²) | 0.3861 | square mile (mi ²) |
| square meter (m ²) | 0.0002471 | acre (ac) (1 ac = 43,560 ft ²) |
| square meter (m ²) | 10.76 | square foot (ft ²) |
| square meter (m ²) | 1.196 | square yard (yd ²) |

CONVERSION TABLE 2 Gas Concentration Equivalents in Air^a

| Pollutant | Concentration | | |
|------------------|---------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| | <i>ppm</i> | <i>mg/m³</i> | <i>µg/m³</i> |
| Acetaldehyde | 1 | 1.801 | 1,801 |
| Acrolein | 1 | 2.291 | 2,291 |
| Ammonia | 1 | 0.696 | 696 |
| Benzene | 1 | 3.193 | 3,193 |
| 1,3-Butadiene | 1 | 2.211 | 2,211 |
| Carbon monoxide | 1 | 1.145 | 1,145 |
| Formaldehyde | 1 | 1.227 | 1,227 |
| Hydrogen sulfide | 1 | 1.393 | 1,393 |
| Methane | 1 | 0.656 | 656 |
| Nitrogen dioxide | 1 | 1.880 | 1,880 |
| Ozone | 1 | 1.962 | 1,962 |
| Sulfur dioxide | 1 | 2.619 | 2,619 |

^a Values are at 25°C (or 298.15 K), and 1 atmospheric pressure (or 1013.25 millibars).

This relationship can be expressed as: $\text{mg/m}^3 = (\text{molecular weight}/24.5) \times \text{ppm}$.

For other temperatures and pressures, the following equation can be used:

$$\text{concentration in mg/m}^3 = \frac{\text{pressure (millibar)} \times \text{molecular weight (g/mole)}}{83.144621 \times \text{temperature (K)}} \times \text{concentration in ppm}$$

(Note that standard temperature and pressure (STP) conditions are 0° Celsius (273 K) rather than 25°C. However, using standard pressure (1 atm) and a reference temperature of 25°C is commonly accepted practice in the air monitoring community.)

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

ES.1 STUDY CONTEXT

The public has long been interested in understanding what pollutants are in the air they breathe so they can best protect their environmental health and welfare. The current air quality monitoring network consists of discrete stations with expensive equipment operated by state and local agencies. Because both the number of stations and the pollutants they measure are limited, location-specific data are relatively sparse. Thus, actual concentrations to which individuals are exposed each day are generally unknown. Significant advances in mobile sensors and software applications offer unique opportunities for citizen-based sensing that could ultimately help fill these gaps. The Innovation Team of the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) Office of Research and Development (ORD) is leading an initiative to understand the state of progress for mobile sensors and applications for air pollutants. Key objectives are to identify opportunities for strengthening current monitoring programs and to catalyze and facilitate community-based monitoring.

ES.2 APPROACH

Literature Review

A review of selected literature was conducted to support the EPA initiative for next-generation air monitoring. This review began in late 2011 and primarily focused on the period from 2010 to early 2012. More than 1,000 information sources were evaluated in pursuing relevant data, including patent database entries, journal articles, abstracts and papers in conference and workshop proceedings, meeting presentations available online, and organizational web pages. The latter were particularly useful as gateways to recent sensor and app developments, as were compilations from recent meetings. Nearly half the resources reviewed contained relevant information, notably for technologies, sensing techniques, and architectures and infrastructures.

Study Pollutants

More than 100 measurands were identified from the literature review. To further focus the assessment, 14 pollutants were selected for targeted study. This set was determined based on an evaluation of the most recent National-Scale Air Toxics Assessment (NATA) and inputs from EPA Program and Regional Offices that reflected community interests. Consisting of a dozen gases plus particulate matter (PM) and lead (Pb), this set reflects several key emission sources and pollutants of interest for fence-line communities, children, and personal health protection.

- Six criteria pollutants: carbon monoxide (CO), lead, ozone (O₃), nitrogen dioxide (NO₂), PM, and sulfur dioxide (SO₂).
- Five hazardous air pollutants (HAPs): acetaldehyde, acrolein, benzene, 1,3-butadiene, and formaldehyde.
- Three indicator pollutants: ammonia (NH₃), hydrogen sulfide (H₂S), and methane (CH₄).

Target Concentrations

Two types of concentrations were compiled for the study pollutants, to serve as practical targets for comparing reported sensor detection levels. The first category consists of health-based

benchmarks that have been established by EPA and other organizations to protect human health under various conditions, ranging from one-time (acute) to daily (chronic) exposures. These benchmarks can be organized into three exposure situations or conditions:

- Emergency response guides established for the general public (including sensitive subgroups such as children) for exposures lasting up to one day, commonly 8 hours or less.
- Ambient air quality standards and guidelines established for the general public, as above, for continuous exposures that extend over a lifetime.
- Occupational standards and guidelines established for the workforce: Noncontinuous exposures (e.g., discrete work shifts with evening and weekend breaks) that extend over an adult working life (decades).

The second set of comparison concentrations consists of example pollutant concentrations that have been reported for various settings and time intervals. The settings cover both indoor to outdoor air, including for specific conditions such as freeway tunnel exits and forest fires. The time intervals reflected include discrete measurements and annual averages. Together these established exposure benchmarks and example reported concentrations provide anchors for assessing sensor detection capabilities, toward identifying related gaps and opportunities to inform targeted research investments.

ES.3 FINDINGS

Selected insights from the review of recent literature for mobile sensors and apps are highlighted below.

Sensing Techniques and Technology

- The sensing techniques reflected in the literature reviewed can be grouped into three categories: chemistry, spectroscopy, and ionization. These categories are listed in order of their prominence, with chemistry and spectroscopy dominating the research and development highlighted for mobile sensors.
- Nanotechnology, which is grouped within the chemistry technique, is a major research theme. From a limited follow-on check of subsequent literature extending into 2013, this trend appears to be sustained. Advances include development of nanomaterials of different compositions, shapes, and sizes that can function as stand-alone sensing materials or can be added to other sensor components (e.g., films or electrodes) to improve sensitivity, selectivity, and sensor response time.
- Relatively few studies were found to reflect ionization techniques such as mass spectrometry and gas chromatography systems with photoionization and flame ionization detectors in mobile sensors or systems.

Pollutant Coverage

- Mobile sensors identified from both the targeted (study set) and broader literature review appear to emphasize gases, notably the criteria pollutants.

- Chemical-specific particle sensors appear to constitute a current gap. No research sensors were found for Pb in air; laser-induced breakdown spectroscopy (LIBS) may represent a potential opportunity area for this pollutant.
- The relatively few PM sensors identified are expensive, and they are generally mass-based rather than chemical species-specific. Microelectromechanical systems (MEMS) may represent a potential opportunity area for a broadly affordable, mobile PM sensor. Nanoelectromechanical systems are also being pursued.
- Novel systems that use commercial sensors (or commercial systems alone) are prevalent for a number of the study pollutants, including several criteria pollutants. This finding is not unexpected given the long-standing regulatory status of those pollutants.
- Although research sensors or novel systems with commercial sensors were identified for several of the study HAPs, sensors for acrolein and 1,3-butadiene appear limited. Opportunities exist for developing lower-cost mobile sensors for these (and other) pollutants, with general interest in such pollutants potentially increasing in the near term due to emerging emission sources such as natural gas (notably shale gas) development and biomass conversion facilities.
- Lower-cost sensors for benzene also represent an important area for research and development, to fill this sensor gap and address practical information needs.
- Sensor systems that address multiple pollutants have commonly been modular, with individual plug-ins to measure one pollutant at a time. Sensor arrays integrated into mobile systems represent an expanding opportunity area for all-in-one multipollutant sensing.

Detection Levels

In addition to the limitations for particle sensors indicated above, pollutant-specific insights from the comparison of detection capabilities to target concentrations for the study gases follow.

- Current reported detection capabilities may not be sufficient to address the suite of health-based benchmarks and example concentrations identified for the range of settings and conditions considered in this evaluation.
- The detectability of illustrative values identified in this review is unknown for several study pollutants, including acrolein. In part, this situation reflects a reporting issue, because the detection range and/or maximum concentration tested is often missing from the research literature, notably for contaminants beyond the gaseous criteria pollutants. (The reported capability of a sensor to detect a relatively low concentration does not necessarily translate to the same ability at a higher concentration, and vice versa.) In addition, research results commonly reflect controlled conditions that may not directly translate to field applications. More complete reporting of research sensor detection ranges and field validation of these capabilities would improve detectability determinations.

- In terms of standards and guidelines, the reported sensor information indicates that most health-based concentrations are potentially detectable by various research sensors or novel systems that use commercial sensors, particularly for the criteria pollutants. However, the relatively low (protective) guideline concentrations for continuous lifetime exposures for certain HAPs may not be readily detected (including for acrolein; note similar limitations apply to commercial sensors for this compound).
- Regarding detection limits, it is important for sensors to be able to measure environmentally relevant pollutant concentrations, recognizing the range of concentrations to which people are exposed under various circumstances. For example, sensors would need to measure background levels in evaluating the protectiveness of routine or chronic exposures or in assessing baseline conditions for natural settings. Approaches to increase sensitivity such as via nanomaterials in films, coatings, or other reactive surfaces of chemical sensors represent an ongoing opportunity.
- Relatively simple spectroscopic approaches may be well suited for situations in which the detection level needed is relatively high, such as during emergency or episodic high-pollution events, including wildfires, or in urban areas with chronic high emissions from traffic or industrial facilities.

Architecture/Infrastructure

- General architecture: Portable, handheld and vehicle-mounted architectures are relatively common; less common are wearable sensors. Sensor systems that leverage existing infrastructure components (such as fixed and mobile elements of transportation systems from the local to the national level) represent an opportunity for continued advancements. (To illustrate, the City of San Francisco outlined an initiative that involves attaching sensors to fixed infrastructure to assess exposures to pollutants from vehicle exhaust, while cross-country trucks outfitted with simple sensors are collecting data along their routes.) With regard to whether such initiatives would be broadly sustainable, issues include who would pay and what advantages would be conferred.
- Devices: Sensor components are commonly integrated with mobile phones, tapping Bluetooth/wireless networks. The trend toward increased use of other devices such as tablets represents a further opportunity for mobile sensors and systems.
- Supporting infrastructure: Traditional field monitors are commonly supported by substantial infrastructure to assure environmental controls. Reducing and eliminating such housing and other support infrastructure while assuring reliable, automated operation under a range of environmental conditions (with humidity and other interferences) represents a continuing opportunity area for mobile sensors.
- Size and mobility: Mindful of the trade-off between size and sensitivity (which is affected by the detection area), the trend is toward increasingly miniature sensors from centimeter- to millimeter-scale and below. Spectroscopic and ionization sensors are currently limited to a few cm, even with mirrors in cell pathways. Where larger sensors are warranted, although they may not be suited for cell phones or wearable accessories (e.g., watch or clip), they can be mounted to vehicles or other features/infrastructure to support monitoring at the neighborhood level to community and metropolitan scales.

- **Sensitivity:** Research to improve sensitivity includes the use of nanomaterial coatings to increase reactive surface areas for chemical sensors. For spectroscopic and ionization sensors, measures to increase sensitivity (i.e., lower the detection limits) include use of pre-concentrators and tailored light sources as well as optimized light path designs.
- **Selectivity and specificity:** Chemical-specific measurement is a common issue, notably in variable field conditions with multiple pollutants and interferents (e.g., high relative humidity). Improvements being pursued in recent research include filtration mechanisms and highly selective sorption media, with multiple-sensor arrays or electronic noses also representing opportunities in this area.
- **Response time:** A number of studies are focusing on reducing the sensor response time, both to reduce power consumption and to facilitate real-time measurements, which are particularly important in dynamic environments. While nanomaterials are being used to reduce response times for chemical sensors (by increasing reactive surface areas), this increased reactivity can translate to a longer recovery time or can limit the sensor to a single use. Similarly, although pre-concentrators can reduce response times for spectroscopic and ionization sensors, the lag time required to accumulate a concentration of pollutant sufficient to initiate the rapid response phase remains an issue. Thus, improving response time represents an ongoing opportunity area for mobile sensor research.
- **Power consumption:** Power requirements can be reduced by implementing a periodic sampling approach, e.g., rather than sampling continuously, taking measurements only when the sensor is in motion or at targeted times of the day when pollutants or concentrations are expected to be changing or to be relatively high. Energy can also be conserved by conducting passive versus active sampling campaigns. An evaluation of novel detection techniques related to energy conservation indicates that reducing operational temperatures, warm-up periods, and sampling times can reduce power consumption as well as associated maintenance needs (and costs).
- **Cost:** Lower-cost mobile sensors are commonly qualitative or semiquantitative, such as those relying on colorimetric techniques to indicate the presence of a pollutant or class but not a specific concentration. More expensive sensor systems (such as those with combined fixed and mobile architectures) may be indicated when data quality needs are high (e.g., for enforcement purposes). Reducing system costs while maintaining high-quality data represents an ongoing opportunity area.
- **Energy sources:** Novel energy sources (including human) and optimized sampling regimens (e.g., targeted spatiotemporal campaigns guided by pollutant behaviors and fate) offer opportunities for lower power use and more broadly affordable systems.
- **Accuracy, precision, reliability and durability:** Accurate and precise measurements under dynamic field conditions across a wide variety of climatic and meteorological conditions represent a continuing opportunity area for lower-cost mobile sensors. Extensive sensor networks and saturation-sampling approaches (via concurrent deployment of a large number of sensors) can facilitate comparisons across multiple readings to assess sensor drift and link appropriate calibration and other maintenance needs. Combined fixed and mobile sensor systems and advances such as Web 4.0/Internet of things represents opportunities for autocalibration. Opportunity areas

for improved durability include reducing replacement or tuning needs for sensing media and developing less expensive, reliable environmental controls (e.g., to address such factors as humidity and other interferents).

Data Quality, Sharing, Management, and Analysis

- Algorithms and approaches for consistent data processing, quality assurance and control, and data scrubbing (an error correction technique), transformation, integration, visualization, and analysis represent active research areas.
- Fit for purpose is a key consideration for the type and quality of sensor data. With anticipated needs ranging from compliance assessment and enforcement to establishing environmental baselines and informing personal health decisions, the nature of the data quality requirements differ across applications. The fit-for-purpose design of mobile sensors and associated data systems represents an evolving opportunity area, to align the technologies and software infrastructure to user needs across a variety of existing programs and initiatives.
- Advances such as cloud computing and visualization tools are facilitating the development and implementation of extensive networks for data upload, storage, integration, display, and evaluation over time, including the ability to conduct comparisons across readings. Tools highlighted in the research literature reviewed include CaliBree (a self-calibration system for mobile sensor networks), Quintet (share sensing resources among sensor devices), and Halo (facilitate the rendezvous of mobile sensors with static infrastructure).
- Core protocols and platforms that underlie data collection, integration, sharing, storage, and other data management systems represent ongoing opportunity areas. Frameworks adaptable to multiple data sources, types, and uses (from facility compliance reporting and enforcement to establishing environmental baselines and personal health management) are being pursued to help strengthen the sharing, integration, and quality assurance efforts for massive data sets.
- Privacy is a key concern related to citizen sensing. Tools for stripping data of identifiers and other anonymizing techniques represent active research areas.
- Increasing automation and interconnectivity offer potential opportunities for increased data coverage and integrated analyses, including collective autocalibration and self repair (e.g., via the Internet of Things/Web 4.0, which has been described as an entire web as a single operating system with information flowing from any point to any other).

Mobile Applications

- Only a limited number of mobile apps have been established for air quality, so this area represents a key opportunity for research and development.
- Pollutants addressed by the existing apps are limited, reflecting the general lack of data for pollutants other than the standard criteria set. Spatial coverage is also relatively sparse per existing data limitations. Data availability often lags behind the collection period. Recognizing the underlying limitations, development needs for mobile apps

include addressing a much larger set of pollutants and providing real-time, high-resolution spatial coverage across community, neighborhood, and individual scales.

- Computing advances indicated above provide opportunities for enhancing mobile apps to accommodate real-time data upload, integration, distribution, display, and interpretation. Providing context for that interpretation would increase the overall usefulness of these apps. Considerations include links to existing standards and guidelines as well as to previous data for that setting and similar settings (ranges and averages), in addition to local, regional, and national trends. Beyond links to comparison values, explanations would also be important (such as the exposure duration addressed by a given standard or guideline, or the time frame represented by an historical average).
- Indicators such as smart tags, alarms, and other notifications or warning features triggered by measured pollutant levels also represent a research opportunity area for mobile apps. A number of questions underlie this development area, including who would define the warnings, on what basis, and for which pollutants.
- User interface design and programming components are active research areas toward developing reliable interfaces that are stable across devices, that can accommodate the rapid evolution of mobile phones and tablets, and that can be adapted to individual user preferences.

Leveraging

- Do-it-yourselfers (DIYers) illustrate the evolving landscape of opportunity for citizen participation in environmental monitoring.
- Leveraging the many organizations supporting related research and citizen capital represents an opportunity for significantly increasing the characterization of air quality nationwide. Collateral programmatic benefits including baselining for climate change and adaptation planning, as well as exposure monitoring for environmental health initiatives.
- Extending beyond integrated arrays for multipollutant sensing, links to biosensors (e.g., per personalized medicine applications) combined with insights from sensors for other measurands offer opportunities for multipurpose sensing systems.
- Effective and efficient data and knowledge management approaches are being pursued, with an eye toward common standards, infrastructure, and software for reporting, accessing, sharing, storing/archiving, and maintaining data, considering both raw and transformed data and topical syntheses and reports.
- Opportunity areas for mobile apps include providing high-resolution spatial coverage (including at community and local scales) with displays for a full suite of pollutants.

These and other insights from recent research highlighted in this report and the companion summary table are offered to help frame the EPA ORD roadmap for next-generation air monitoring.

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1 INTRODUCTION

This report was prepared as part of the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) Office of Research and Development (ORD) initiative on mobile sensors and apps for air pollutants. A key goal is to enhance community awareness and citizen involvement in environmental monitoring and health protection programs. Additional goals are to facilitate compliance and enforcement activities to improve and maintain air quality. The need underlying this initiative is summarized in Section 1.1, the purpose and scope of this report are described in Section 1.2, and the report organization is outlined in Section 1.3.

1.1 TRADITIONAL AIR POLLUTION MONITORING AND CURRENT OPPORTUNITY

A substantial number of air pollutants have been linked with adverse health effects, including those associated with releases ranging from vehicle exhaust to industrial processes. Understanding pollutant exposures is key to developing and implementing effective health protection programs. The current standard system for monitoring air pollutants consists of discrete stations with large, fixed sensors that are too expensive to be feasible for citizen-based monitoring. These standard systems focus on a limited set of pollutants, in particular the six criteria pollutants for which National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) have been established. Because both the number of these stations and the pollutants they measure are limited, spatial and chemical coverage is relatively sparse.

For this reason, the pollutant levels to which individuals and communities are exposed is largely unknown. Human exposures are dynamic and local variations are large because they are affected by personal behaviors and activity levels as well as proximity to sources, the nature of airborne releases, local meteorology, land use/land cover, and other factors. Thus, measurements from regional metropolitan stations are unable to represent exposure levels at the local scale. Pollutant concentrations at the neighborhood and individual levels constitute key information needed to advance the development of practical health protection measures.

Recent advances in mobile sensing and related software applications (apps) provide a valuable opportunity for addressing this need. Emerging detection technologies and techniques hold significant promise for future cheap, mobile sensors that could fill in a network of air quality data across the country. Concurrent developments in sensor architectures and information/communication technologies (ICT), including apps, translate to opportunities for integrated systems such as distributed sensor networks that can complement the existing monitoring programs and facilitate community involvement.

1.2 PURPOSE AND SCOPE OF THIS REPORT

The purpose of this report is to provide an overview of recent research relevant to mobile sensing of air pollution. The objective is to identify gaps as well as opportunities, to guide investments toward making low-cost mobile sensors available to a wide variety of prospective users, including individual citizens.

The science and technology literature on sensing technologies and techniques for air pollutants is vast and growing. Because the purpose of this review is to indicate recent trends for mobile sensors, rather than provide a comprehensive evaluation of current literature, the scope was focused by several key considerations, as follows.

- *Size*: Small, portable devices are the primary target. In some cases, larger sensors are included to consider technologies that might present an opportunity for development of more mobile devices in the future.
- *Development phase*: Sensors in an early stage of research and development to those nearing deployment are the main focus. Commercial sensors incorporated into novel sensor systems are also included.
- *Time frame*: The main emphasis is on literature information from 2010 to early 2012. Some earlier publications are also included, for trends and other relevant context.
- *Pollutant*: An illustrative set was selected to guide the more detailed literature search.

The scope also includes practical context for assessing sensor detection capabilities. This context is provided by two types of concentration values:

- *Exposure benchmarks*: Many agencies have established standards and guidelines for chemicals in air as part of implementing specific health and safety programs. These values range from emergency response guidelines to workplace standards and reference concentrations considered safe for the general public over a lifetime of exposures. Referred to as exposure benchmarks, these values serve as points of comparison for assessing detection capabilities and opportunities for *situation-specific* applications.
- *Measured concentrations*: A number of pollutants have been measured in a variety of settings over different time periods. These include indoor and outdoor air, in urban and rural areas that include settings where pollutants are markedly elevated, such as fires and busy freeways. Some data reflect snapshot measurements while others reflect systematic, long-term sampling programs. These illustrative concentrations provide practical context for *setting-specific* applications.

Finally, sensing technologies and techniques are a key emphasis of this report. Information on architectures and infrastructures for mobile sensors, including associated software, are also included. Additional details are presented in supporting tables compiled separately from this report (Raymond et al. 2013).

1.3 REPORT ORGANIZATION

This report is organized as follows:

- Chapter 2 summarizes the approach for conducting the literature search, developing the candidate set of pollutants, and organizing the data.
- Chapter 3 provides results of the literature search, including the pollutant sets, main categories of sensor technologies/techniques, and highlights of associated architectures/infrastructures and apps. Also included are figures (graphical arrays) that compare reported sensor detection levels to exposure benchmarks and example measured concentrations.

- Chapter 4 describes gaps and opportunities for mobile sensors and apps for air pollutants.
- Chapter 5 gives a brief summary that highlights key findings of this report.
- Chapter 6 acknowledges contributors to this report.
- Chapter 7 lists selected information resources reviewed for this report.
- Appendix A offers additional information about the literature search.
- Appendix B presents an overview of exposure benchmarks and information sources.
- Appendix C illustrates the role of environmental fate for air pollutants in air, to illustrate the type of setting-specific information (such as relative humidity) and associated fate products that can be used guide the development of integrated sensor systems.
- Appendix D presents example concentrations of selected pollutants, organized in tables designed to support data compilations for specific locations or regions of interest.
- Appendix E provides supporting details about the sensors in Chapter 3 graphical arrays.
- Appendix F briefly describes the sensing technologies and techniques reflected in this report.
- Appendix G presents an evaluation of selected air quality apps.

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2 APPROACH

The approach used to conduct the literature search is outlined in Section 2.1, development of the candidate pollutant set is described in Section 2.2, and the general process for organizing the information retrieved is summarized in Section 2.3. The general approach for searching and reviewing the literature is illustrated in Figure 2-1, and supporting details are presented in Appendix A.

2.1 LITERATURE SEARCH

Recognizing the extent of science and technology research relevant to mobile sensors and apps, the purpose of this literature search is to identify general trends rather than provide a comprehensive review. For this reason, the search focused primarily on information available online. Information resources include:

- Journal articles, research reports, and other technical publications;
- Conference proceedings, presentations, and other meeting highlights;
- Patent databases, application and granting summaries;
- Organizational websites, including Federal, state, and international, agencies; academic, national laboratory, and other research organizations; industry; and communities.

This search was conducted in two phases. The first phase was initiated in fall 2011 and involved a broad search targeting abstracts and summaries, not limited to specific chemicals. Its objectives were three-fold. First, an open approach would limit inadvertent omissions of key technologies or techniques and avoid skewing suggested trends. Second, capturing a variety of sensed parameters could offer additional insights into promising detection techniques for related pollutants. Third, the measurands identified in a broader search would help guide selection of the representative set of pollutants to be assessed in more detail.

The second phase of the literature search focused on a smaller set of pollutants, determined from inputs by EPA ORD, Program and Regional scientists, combined with insights from Phase I. This phase involved pursuing further details for sensing technologies/techniques, architectures/infrastructures, exposure benchmark, and illustrative concentrations in air by accessing full papers, reports, presentations, and other documentation. The information compiled included details about the size, stage of development, and cost, as well as automation and network capabilities, power requirements, response time, interferences, and other operating conditions. In some cases, additional information was obtained from the individual researchers. Most of this phase was conducted in winter to early spring 2012. Targeted follow-on searches continued through 2013.

2.2 CANDIDATE POLLUTANTS

More than 40 pollutants of interest were identified during the early framing stage of this project. These candidate pollutants reflected the following considerations:

- Criteria pollutants, i.e., those for which National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) have been established.

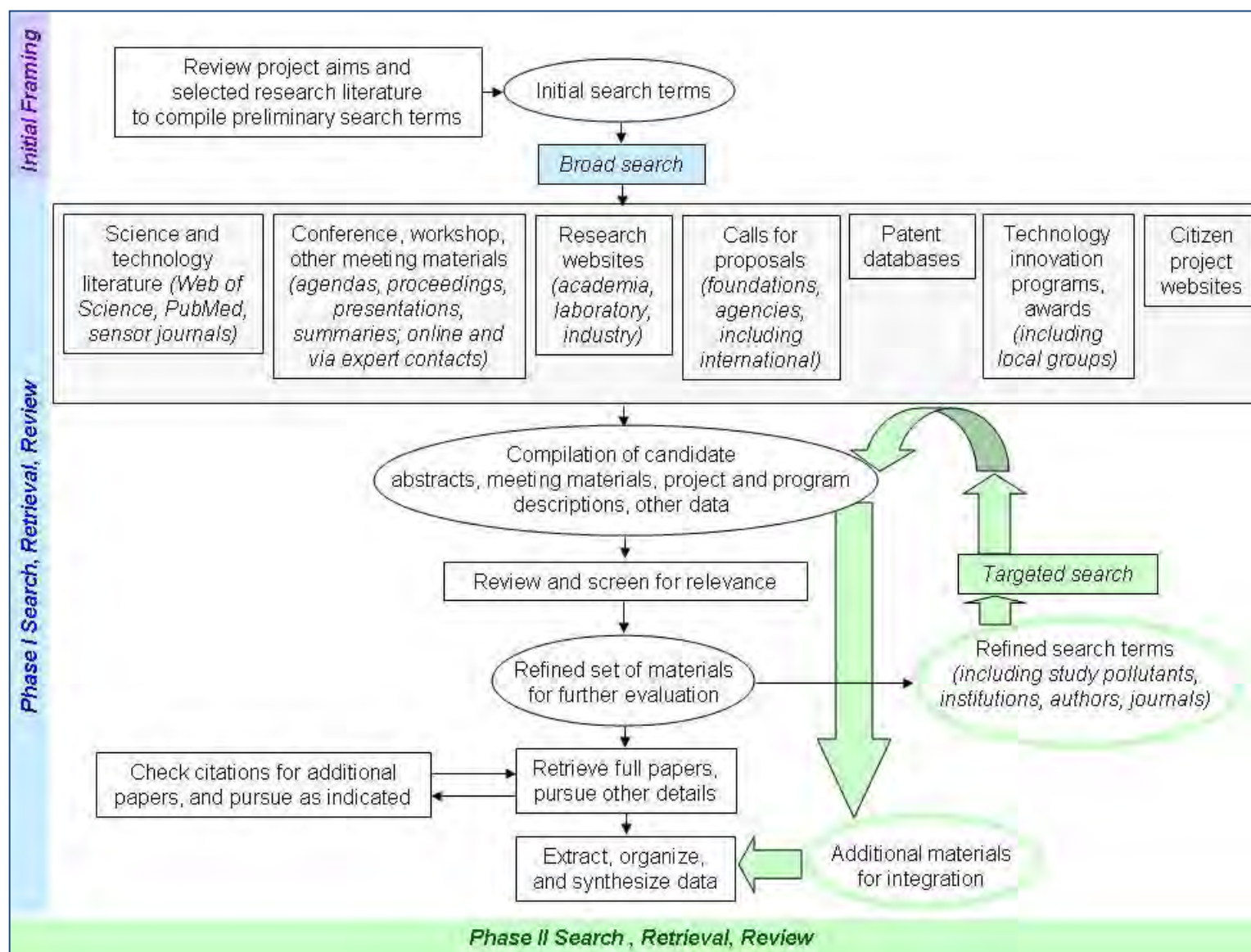


FIGURE 2-1 Literature Search Approach

- Key pollutants from the National-Scale Air Toxics Assessment (NATA) study (EPA 2011), notably those identified as risk drivers and contributors. This set includes chemicals listed as Hazardous Air Pollutants (HAPs) pursuant to the Clean Air Act Amendments of 1990 and the subset subsequently evaluated as urban air toxics.
- Pollutants of potential interest to fenceline communities.
- Selected pollutants of interest to the EPA Children's Health Program.

These candidate pollutants are summarized in Tables 2-1 through 2-4. Tables 2-2 and 2-3 offer two ways of summarizing the categories EPA used to identify key pollutants for the 2005 NATA assessment (EPA 2011). "Drivers" and "contributors" are largely based on the magnitude of the risk estimate and the number of people affected. The two types of health effects considered are: incremental risk of getting cancer over a lifetime, and the hazard index, which represents the potential for noncancer effects (as the ratio of the exposure level to a "safe" daily level).

2.3 DATA COMPILATION

Results of the initial literature search were first compiled by information resource (e.g., patent database or Ubicomp conference proceedings) then organized by common topic. The three main topics are:

- Pollutants and other measured parameters (collectively referred to as measurands), such as temperature and relative humidity.
- Sensor technologies and techniques.
- System architecture and infrastructure approaches, and associated apps.

Two additional themes are:

- Exposure benchmarks
- Example concentrations in air.

A number of data compilations were developed and refined during the literature review process, as illustrated in the appendices. For example, Appendix A presents early tables that illustrate data extraction and summary compilations. Similarly, details underlying the compilation of exposure benchmarks are presented in Appendix B. Practical context that integrates environmental fate considerations is presented in Appendix C, to illustrate how such information can help frame the development of multi-pollutant sensors. Example outlines for compiling measurement data for specific locations or regions are presented in Appendix D. In compiling a summary of the original search results, entries were coded with identifiers (IDs) to facilitate topical sorts, e.g., by pollutant or sensing technique. The master summary table is organized alphabetically by measurand, and within that by sensor technology/technique (Raymond et al. 2013). A smaller subset table provides information for sensors considered for the graphical arrays that compare detection levels to exposure benchmarks and example concentrations in air; that table is presented in Appendix E. Results of limited additional check searches are also presented in Appendix E. These "working" tables reflect the technology/ technique groupings described in Appendix F. An overview of selected air quality apps is included in Appendix G.

TABLE 2-1 Key Pollutants from the 2005 National-Scale Air Toxics Assessment^a

| Health Risk Driver | | Health Risk Contributor | |
|--------------------|---|-------------------------|---------------------|
| National | Regional | National | Regional |
| Acrolein | Benzene | Acetaldehyde | 1,3-Dichloropropene |
| Formaldehyde | Chlorine | Acrylonitrile | Methylene chloride |
| | Diesel particulate matter (PM) | Arsenic compounds | Nickel compounds |
| | Hexamethylene diisocyanate (HDI) | 1,3-Butadiene | |
| | Hydrochloric acid | Carbon tetrachloride | |
| | Manganese compounds | Chromium compounds | |
| | Naphthalene | Coke oven emissions | |
| | Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) | 1,4-Dichlorobenzene | |
| | 2,4-Toluene diisocyanate (TDI) | Ethylbenzene | |
| | | Ethylene oxide | |
| | | Tetrachloroethylene | |

^a Source: EPA (2011). Lighter font is used to indicate that the health effect characterization for the given chemical or category of chemicals is based on a noncancer effect; regular font is used to indicate that the basis is cancer risk.

TABLE 2-2 Risk Characterization Categories Used to Identify Main Pollutants^a

| Number of People Exposed (or more) | Cancer Risk | | | Noncancer Hazard Index (HI) >1.0 |
|------------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|----------------------|----------------------------------|
| | $\geq 10^{-4}$ | $\geq 10^{-5}$ | $\geq 10^{-6}$ | |
| 25 million | | National driver | National contributor | National driver |
| 1 million | | Regional driver | | |
| 10,000 | Regional driver | | | Regional driver |

TABLE 2-3 Estimated Risks and Number of People Exposed per Pollutant Category^a

| Risk Characterization Category | National Scale | | Regional Scale | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------|-------------|----------------|-------------|-----------|
| | Driver | Contributor | Driver | Contributor | |
| Cancer | | | | | |
| Risk exceeds: | 10^{-5} | 10^{-6} | 10^{-5} | 10^{-4} | 10^{-6} |
| Number exposed (or higher): | 25 million | 25 million | 1 million | 10,000 | 1 million |
| Noncancer | | | | | |
| Hazard index (HI) exceeds: | 1.0 | | 1.0 | | |
| Number exposed (or higher): | 25 million | | 10,000 | | |

^a Tables 2-2 and 2-3 offer two ways of summarizing the characterization categories EPA used to identify key pollutants from the 2005 NATA assessment (EPA 2011). As defined in the overview of that assessment:

- Cancer risk represents the upper-bound lifetime cancer risk (i.e., a plausible upper limit to the true probability that an individual will contract cancer over a 70-year lifetime as a result of a given hazard, such as exposure to a toxic chemical). This risk can be measured or estimated in numerical terms (e.g., one chance in a million).
- HI = sum of hazard quotients for substances that affect the same target organ or system. Because different pollutants may cause similar adverse health effects, it is often appropriate to combine hazard quotients associated with different substances to understand the potential health risks associated with aggregate exposures to multiple pollutants.

More information regarding the bases for determining drivers and contributors can be found in EPA (2011).

TABLE 2-4 Candidate Pollutants for the Review of Recent Research Sensors^a

| Air Pollutant | Children's Health | Region 6 Fenceline Communities | NATA | | Criteria Pollutant (NAAQS) | EPA (2008) Detection Report |
|---|-------------------|--------------------------------|----------|-----------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| | | | <i>c</i> | <i>nc</i> | | |
| Acetaldehyde | | | <i>N</i> | | | |
| Acrolein | | | | N | | |
| Acrylonitrile | | | <i>N</i> | | | |
| Arsenic compounds | | | <i>N</i> | | | x |
| Benzene | | x | R | | | x |
| 1,3-Butadiene | | x | <i>N</i> | | | x |
| Carbon monoxide (CO) | | | | | x | |
| Carbon tetrachloride | | | <i>N</i> | | | |
| Chlorine | | | | <i>R</i> | | x |
| Chromium compounds | | | <i>N</i> | | | |
| 1,4-Dichlorobenzene | | | <i>N</i> | | | |
| 1,1-Dichloroethylene (1,1-DCE) | | x | | | | |
| 1,3-Dichloropropene | | | <i>R</i> | | | |
| Ethylbenzene | | x | <i>N</i> | | | x |
| Ethylene oxide | | | <i>N</i> | | | x |
| Formaldehyde | | | N | | | x |
| Hexabromocyclododecanes (HBCDs) | x | | | | | |
| Hexamethyl diisocyanate | | | | <i>R</i> | | |
| Hydrochloric acid | | | | <i>R</i> | | x |
| Hydrogen sulfide | | x | | | | x |
| Lead | x | | | | x | |
| Manganese compounds | | x | | <i>R</i> | | |
| Mercury | x | | | | | (HgCl ₂ -Hg) |
| Methane | | x | | | | |
| Methylene chloride | | | <i>R</i> | | | |
| Naphthalene | | | R | | | |
| Nickel compounds | | | <i>R</i> | | | |
| Nitrogen oxides/dioxide (NO _x /NO ₂) | | | | | x | x |
| Ozone | | | | | x | x |
| Particulate matter (PM) | | | | | x | |
| Coke oven emissions | | | <i>N</i> | | | |
| Diesel PM | | | | <i>R</i> | | |
| Perchlorate | x | | | | | |
| Perfluorocarbons (PFCs) | x | | | | | |
| Phthalates | x | | | | | |
| Polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDEs) | x | | | | | |
| Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) | x | | | | | x |
| Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) | | | R | | | |
| Sulfur oxides/dioxide (SO _x /SO ₂) | | | | | x | x |
| Tetrachloroethylene | | | <i>N</i> | | | |
| Trichloroethylene | | x | | | | |
| Toluene | | | | | | x |
| 2,4-Toluene diisocyanate | | x | | <i>R</i> | | |
| Xylene | | x | | | | x |

^a This list reflects inputs from EPA staff in the Children's Health Program and Region 6, the criteria pollutants, and key pollutants from NATA (EPA 2011) – including risk or hazard **drivers (bold font)**, and risk or hazard *contributors (in italics)*; *c* = cancer risk (*not assessed for diesel PM*), *N* = national risk (driver or contributor), NAAQS = National Ambient Air Quality Standards, NATA = National-Scale Air Toxics Assessment, *nc* = noncancer hazard (driver or contributor), *R* = regional risk contributor. EPA (2008) served as a resource for benchmarks and fate context.

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3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 INITIAL LITERATURE SEARCH

More than 400 sensors and systems were identified in the literature reviewed. Some of these are novel sensors, while others are novel devices that incorporate commercial sensors. Together, these sensors and systems address more than 100 pollutants and other measurands (objects of measure), as highlighted in Table 3-1.

Non-pollutant measures include location, acceleration, temperature, and relative humidity. Both temperature and humidity provide important context for assessing pollutant transformations and subsequent fate products in air, as well as operating constraints that can affect sensor suitability. (Additional information regarding the role of chemical fate in guiding potential development of multi-pollutant sensors is presented in Appendix C.) Further details on the sensors and measurands are available in the supporting master table compiled from the overall literature review (Raymond et al. 2013).

3.2 STUDY POLLUTANTS

The initial candidate list of more than 40 pollutants that were identified from the NATA report (EPA 2011) and inputs from EPA Regional and Program staff was winnowed to 14 pollutants, based on further context gained from the initial literature search. In selecting a representative study set, it was important to include both gases and particles because respective sensing techniques differ. Additional factors considered included the types of activities, events, and processes that led to their presence; their prevalence; and implications for human health and welfare. Example emission sources for the study pollutants are included in Table 3-2.

The fourteen pollutants that comprise the study set comprise:

- Six *criteria pollutants*: carbon monoxide (CO), lead (Pb), ozone (O₃), nitrogen dioxide (NO₂), particulate matter (PM), and sulfur dioxide (SO₂).
- Five *hazardous air pollutants* (HAPs): acetaldehyde, acrolein, benzene, 1,3-butadiene, and formaldehyde.
- Three *indicator pollutants*: ammonia (NH₃), hydrogen sulfide (H₂S), and methane (CH₄).

The latter three are indicators of various airborne releases, including:

- Emissions from *nuisance* sources: For example, ammonia, hydrogen sulfide, and methane are nuisance indicators of landfill and livestock operations.
- *Greenhouse gas* (GHG) emissions: Methane is a key GHG indicator.
- Emissions from specific *activities, events, or processes*: For example, benzene, methane, and hydrogen sulfide may be indicators of natural gas exploration.

Regarding their physical state in air, lead and PM are particles and the other twelve are gases.

TABLE 3-1 Air Pollutants and Other Measurands^a

| I. Gas (<i>in air</i>) | | II. Particle | |
|--|---|--|-----------------------------|
| A. Criteria Pollutants | | | |
| Compliance Priority | Also of Interest | Compliance Priority | Also of Interest |
| Carbon monoxide (CO) | Carbon dioxide (CO ₂) | Lead | Further PM: |
| Nitrogen dioxide (NO ₂) | | Particulate matter, PM | Aerosol, nanoaerosol |
| Nitric oxide (NO) | | PM ₁₀ | Dust |
| Nitrogen oxides (NOx) | | PM _{2.5} | Exhaust-auto, vehicle |
| Ozone (O ₃) | | PM ₁ | Exhaust-diesel |
| Sulfur dioxide (SO ₂) | | PM-black carbon, elemental carbon | Exhaust-gasoline |
| Sulfur oxides (SOx) | | PM-ultrafine particle | Exhaust-tailpipe |
| | | PM-nanoparticle | Mass-vehicle exhaust |
| B. Other Air Pollutants | | | |
| Risk Priority | Also of Interest | Risk Priority | Also of Interest |
| Acetaldehyde | Acetone | Arsenic compounds | Ammonium (NH ₄) |
| Acrolein | Amine | Chromium compounds | Benzo(a)pyrene (BaP) |
| Acrylonitrile | Benzaldehyde | Coke oven emissions (<i>also see PM</i>) | Cyclosarin (GF) |
| Ammonia (NH ₃ , NH ₃ -N) | n-Butanol | Hexabromocyclododecanes (HBCDs) | Dinitrotoluene (DNT) |
| Benzene | Chloroform | Lead | Trinitrotoluene (TNT) |
| 1,3-Butadiene | Decane | Manganese compounds | Sarin |
| Carbon dioxide | Diethyl ether | Mercury | Soman |
| Carbon tetrachloride | Ethanol | Nickel compounds | |
| Chlorine | Ethyl acetate | Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons | |
| 1,4-Dichlorobenzene (p-) | Exhaust gas (S) | Perchlorate | |
| 1,1-Dichloroethylene (-DCE) | Hexane | Phthalates | |
| 1,3-Dichloropropene | Isobutene | Polybrominated diphenyl ethers | |
| Ethylbenzene | Isopropanol | Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) | |
| Ethylene oxide (oxirane) | Mercury vapor | | |
| Formaldehyde | Methanol | | |
| Hexamethyl diisocyanate | Methyl ethyl ketone | | |
| Hydrochloric acid (HCl) | Oxygen | | |
| Hydrogen sulfide (H ₂ S) | Phenol | | |
| Methane (CH ₄) | Propane | | |
| Methylene chloride | Sulfur, sulfide | | |
| Naphthalene | 1,1,1-Trichloroethane | | |
| Perfluorocarbons (PFCs) | Trimethylamine | | |
| Tetrachloroethylene | 1,2,4-Trimethylbenzene | | |
| Toluene | | | |
| Trichloroethylene | | | |
| Xylene | | | |
| Toluene | | | |
| C. Other Chemicals | | | |
| Beer, wine, vodka | Mixture: NO ₂ -NH ₃ | Chemical explosives | |
| Chemical agents | Odor | Hydrocarbons | |
| Gas-combustible | Organic vapors | Organophosphates (OPs) | |
| Gas-liquid petroleum | VOCs | Pesticides (other) | |
| Gas-natural | Vehicle exhaust (S) | Smoke | |
| Mercaptans | | | |

| TABLE 3-1 (Cont'd.) | |
|--|---|
| D. Physical and Environmental Parameters | E. Biological/Physiological Parameters |
| Altitude, elevation | Blood gas |
| Illumination, light (visible, including light pollution) | Cotinine (nicotine metabolite) |
| Motion, acceleration (including earthquake) | Electrolytes |
| Noise, sound, voice | Glucose |
| Position, location | Hormone residues |
| Pressure-air, barometric | Nicotine |
| Radiofrequency, RSS (received signal strength) | pH |
| Rainfall | F. Microbial Agents, Seasonal Events |
| Relative humidity | Biological agent |
| Solar radiation | <i>E. coli</i> |
| Temperature | Viruses |
| Ultraviolet light | Phenology (bud burst) |
| Wind speed, wind direction | Bird migration |

^a This table highlights selected measurands identified from the Phase I literature review. "Compliance priority" indicates criteria pollutants. "Risk priority" indicates importance based on the 2005 National-Scale Air Toxics Assessment (EPA 2011), Regional inputs for fence-line communities, and the EPA children's health program. Polybrominated diphenyl ethers are commonly abbreviated as PBDEs, and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons are commonly abbreviated as PAHs. The Phase I literature search results covered many of these priority chemicals. Note that several biological/physiological parameters and microbial agents/seasonal events identified from the literature search are listed in Sections E and F, respectively. Because the current effort focuses on sensors for air pollutants, such measures are not discussed further in this report.

TABLE 3-2 Pollutant Study Set^a

| Pollutant | Formula or Abbreviation | Air Pollutant Category and Type | | |
|------------------------|---------------------------------|--|----------------|------------------|
| | | Criteria | HAP | Indicator |
| 1. Acetaldehyde | C ₂ H ₄ O | | Gas | |
| 2. Acrolein | C ₃ H ₄ O | | Gas | |
| 3. Ammonia | NH ₃ | | | Gas |
| 4. Benzene | C ₆ H ₆ | | Gas | |
| 5. 1,3-Butadiene | C ₄ H ₆ | | Gas | |
| 6. Carbon monoxide | CO | Gas | | |
| 7. Formaldehyde | CH ₂ O | | Gas | |
| 8. Hydrogen sulfide | H ₂ S | | (see footnote) | Gas |
| 9. Lead | Pb | Particle | | |
| 10. Methane | CH ₄ | | | Gas |
| 11. Nitrogen dioxide | NO ₂ | Gas | | |
| 12. Ozone | O ₃ | Gas | | |
| 13. Particulate matter | PM | Particle | | |
| 14. Sulfur dioxide | SO ₂ | Gas | | |

^a Pollutants are listed with their primary category. The criteria pollutants are the six for which NAAQS have been established. HAPs (hazardous air pollutants) were identified in the 1990 amendments to the Clean Air Act. Hydrogen sulfide was inadvertently included in that original list and subsequently removed, but it is still subject to accidental release provisions; it is also an indicator for various emission sources. Regarding indicators, ammonia, methane, and hydrogen sulfide are nuisance indicators of sources such as landfills and livestock facilities; methane and hydrogen sulfide are indicators for natural gas development; and methane is a key greenhouse gas (GHG) indicator.

The number of sensors found for each study pollutant in the literature reviewed is shown in Figure 3-1. Criteria pollutants are common sensor targets, as are several volatile organic compounds (VOCs). Carbon monoxide was most frequently sensed (addressed by 63 sensors overall), followed by nitrogen dioxide, PM, ammonia, sulfur dioxide, benzene, formaldehyde, ozone, hydrogen sulfide, acetaldehyde, methane, acrolein, and 1,3-butadiene.

No sensors were found for atmospheric lead particulates. Although limited information was found for sensing lead ions in water, this report focuses on air pollutants so that research is not included in this report.

For the HAPs in the study set (all of which are VOCs), two of the top NATA cancer risk drivers (see Table 2-1) are addressed by more than a dozen sensors each. These two pollutants are benzene (a regional risk driver) and formaldehyde (a national risk driver). Eleven sensors were found for one of the two national risk contributors, acetaldehyde. In contrast, only two sensors each were identified for the other national risk driver, acrolein, and for the other national risk contributor, 1,3-butadiene.

3.2 EXPOSURE BENCHMARKS

Exposure benchmarks are standards and guidelines established for chemicals in air by a number of organizations under specific health and safety programs. Included in this set are the air quality regulations established by EPA for six criteria pollutants in outdoor air, i.e., the NAAQS. The overall suite of benchmarks covers different exposure durations for various situations and in some cases different health effect levels, thus serving as practical points of comparison for the detection levels reported for research sensors. That is, the range of established benchmarks helps frame which technologies and techniques may be suited for a given situation or not, for example, to assess whether a certain sensor is "fit for purpose" among the range of purposes addressed by these benchmarks. Another aspect of this is proper comparison by the device (e.g., to avoid false alarms when a 24-hr benchmark is exceeded by a 1-hour value). These health and safety benchmarks can be organized into three categories that reflect the target group and situation or setting addressed:

- Emergency response (general public): Typically a single exposure lasting up to 8 hours.
- Outdoor air (general public): Continuous exposures, extending to a lifetime (70 years).
- Occupational exposure (adult workers): Workplace noncontinuous exposures (per breaks between work shifts) over the work life (decades).

Federal and state agencies and several national organizations have established standards and guidelines for chemicals in air to address specific program responsibilities and needs. These agencies include U.S. EPA, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR); U.S. Department of Labor, Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA); U.S. Department of Defense, Department of the Army, Army Public Health Command; California EPA (CalEPA); National Academies, National Research Council (NRC); National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH); American Industrial Hygiene Association (AIHA); and American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists (ACGIH). A benchmark overview is given in Table 3-3, and further information is provided in Section 3.5.1 and Appendix B.

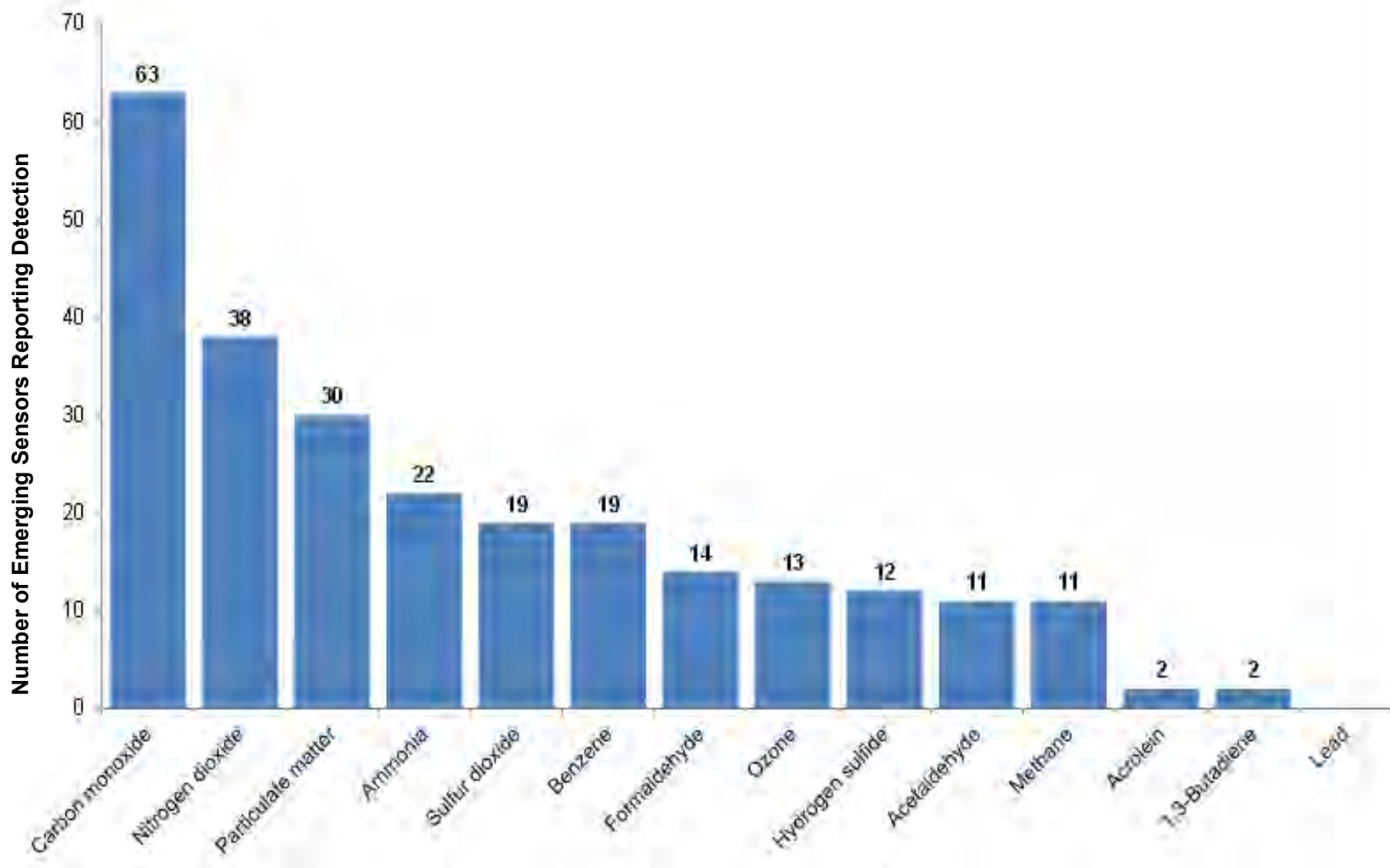


FIGURE 3-1 Number of Sensors Reported to Detect the Study Pollutants

(Counts include sensors that indicate the study pollutant, including systems involving novel architecture and infrastructure approaches.)

TABLE 3-3 Overview of Selected Inhalation Benchmarks^a

| Benchmark and Organization | Summary Description | Target Group | Exposure Duration |
|--|--|-----------------------------|---|
| AEGL: Acute Exposure Guideline Level (NRC/EPA, DOE) | Limits for acute airborne exposure to guide emergency planning and response; targets single release/exposure | General public | 10 min, 30 min, 1 hr, 4 hr, 8 hr |
| CEGL: Continuous Exposure Guidance Level (NRC/DoD) | Ceiling concentrations for continuous exposures to avoid adverse health effects, immediate or delayed | Submarine personnel | 90 d |
| EEGL: Emergency Exposure Guidance Level (NRC/DoD) | For rare emergency, ceiling to not cause irreversible harm or prevent performance of essential tasks | Submarine personnel | 15 min, 1 hr, 6 hr |
| IDLH: (level) Immediately Dangerous to Life or Health (NIOSH) | Maximum airborne concentration from which a worker could escape after a short exposure without harm or irreversible side effects | Worker | 30 min |
| MEG: Military Exposure Guideline (DoD Army) | Concentration for intakes in moderate and arid climates to produce minimal to no adverse effects (can adjust for the general public by scaling intake) | Deployed military personnel | 1 hr 8 hr 1 to 14 d 1 yr |
| MRL: Minimal Risk Level (ATSDR) | Concentration based on no adverse noncancer effects from continuous exposures (note duration terms differ from EPA definitions) | General public | Chronic (≥ 1 yr) Intermediate (15-364 d) Acute (1-14 d) |
| PEGL: Permissible Exposure Guidance Level (NRC/DoD) | Repeated exposure of personnel during military training exercises | Military personnel | 8 hr/d, 1, 2, 5 d/wk |
| PEL: Permissible Exposure Limit (OSHA) | Enforceable worker standard; can be a time-weighted average (TWA, 8 hr), short-term limit (STEL, 15 min), ceiling (C, to not exceed; if direct monitoring is not sufficient, ceiling assessed as 15-min TWA) | Worker | 8 hr/d, 40 hr/wk, yrs |
| PPEGL: Permissible Public Exposure Guidance Level (NRC/DoD) | Repeated accidental exposure of the public living or working near a military training facility | General public | 8 hr/d, 1, 2, 5 d/wk |
| PPRTV: Provisional Peer-Reviewed Toxicity Value (EPA ORD) | Similar derivation process as for reference concentration and unit risk, for provisional RfC (p-RfC) and inhalation unit risk (p-IUR) | General public | Chronic/lifetime |
| RBC or RSC: Risk-Based or Risk-Specific Concentration (EPA ORD) | Concentration corresponding to a given target risk level (10^{-4} , 10^{-5} , or 10^{-6}), calculated from the inhalation unit risk (IUR) | General public | Chronic/lifetime |
| REL: Recommended Exposure Limit (NIOSH) | Guideline recommended for substances or conditions that may be hazardous in the workplace; TWA, STEL, and/or ceiling | Worker | 10 hr/d, 40 hr/wk, yrs |

TABLE 3-3 Overview of Selected Inhalation Benchmarks^a

| Benchmark and Organization | Summary Description | Target Group | Exposure Duration |
|--|--|----------------|---|
| RfC: Reference Concentration (EPA ORD) | Estimate of continuous daily inhalation exposure concentration likely to be without appreciable risk of adverse noncancer effect over lifetime, including for sensitive groups | General public | Chronic/lifetime (limited set for shorter durations, e.g., acute, 24 hr) |
| REL: Reference Exposure Level (Cal EPA OEHHA) | Concentration associated with no adverse effect, considering cancer and noncancer | General public | Chronic/lifetime Acute/1 hr, 8 hr |
| RSL: Regional Screening Level (EPA Regions) | Risk-based concentrations based on generic exposure assumption, used as initial screening concentration for contaminated sites (e.g., Superfund) | General public | Chronic/lifetime |
| SMAC: Spacecraft Maximum Allowable Concentration (NRC/NASA) | Limits that monitor and control traces of gas in a spacecraft cabin, to avoid noncancer effects | Astronauts | 1 hr, 24 hr 7 d, 30 d, 180 d |
| TLV: Threshold Limit Value (ACGIH) | Health-based concentration for the workplace, designed for exposures without experiencing adverse health effects; can be a TWA, STEL and/or ceiling | Worker | 8 hr/d, 40 hr/wk, throughout working yrs |
| UR: Unit Risk (EPA ORD; used to calculate RBC, RSC) | Plausible upper-bound probability of developing cancer from the exposure over lifetime; assumes continuous exposure at a unit concentration (e.g., 1 µg/m ³) | General public | Chronic/lifetime |

^a These benchmarks are listed alphabetically; shading indicates the application category: rose = emergency response; blue = occupational; green = ambient (continuous exposures that extend to a lifetime). Note that benchmarks for the general public include sensitive subpopulations. In deriving these values, the standard adult is taken to be 70 kg, and inhalation rates assumed for occupational and public (residential) exposures are generally 10 m³ and 20 m³/d, respectively.

For benchmarks that address less-than-lifetime exposures, depending on the chemical and the underlying study, some shorter-duration values may also be relevant for longer exposure durations, e.g., where the underlying study(ies) addresses the longer period. Conversely, benchmarks for shorter durations can also provide useful context for longer exposures (considering time scaling, depending on the nature of the effect), and they can also serve as bounding indicators. Note many of the guideline values undergo regular review to keep pace with evolving scientific knowledge.

In addition to benchmarks for the general public, occupational exposure levels (OELs) can also provide useful context for assessing sensor detection capabilities and potential opportunities. This context is not only with regard to considering "fit-for-purpose" opportunities for such settings, these values may also be considered in assessing some public exposures (e.g., as illustrated following the World Trade Center disaster, for pollutants without public benchmarks.)

3.3 EXAMPLE CONCENTRATIONS IN AIR

Pollutant concentrations in air result from a wide variety of releases, and Table 3-4 highlights common emission sources for the study pollutants. Illustrative concentrations for the study pollutants are shown in Table 3-5, together with example emission sources.

TABLE 3-4 Pollutant Study Set and Associated Emission Sources^a

| Pollutant | Example Sources | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------------|-----------------|--|----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|----------------------|-----------|------------------------|--------------------|--|---------------|
| | Vehicle exhaust | Oil and gas production, petroleum facilities | Fossil fuel mining, power plants | Metal smelting, refining facilities | Pulp and paper mills | Landfills | Agriculture, livestock | Waste incinerators | Biodiesel production, biomass combustion | Tobacco smoke |
| 1. Acetaldehyde | ✓ | | | | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| 2. Acrolein | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | | | | | | ✓ | ✓ |
| 3. Ammonia | | | | | | ✓ | ✓ | | | |
| 4. Benzene | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | | ✓ | | | | | ✓ |
| 5. 1,3-Butadiene | ✓ | ✓ | | | | | | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| 6. Carbon monoxide | ✓ | | ✓ | ✓ | | | | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| 7. Formaldehyde | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | | ✓ | | | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| 8. Hydrogen sulfide | | ✓ | ✓ | | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | | |
| 9. Lead | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | | | | ✓ | | |
| 10. Methane | | ✓ | ✓ | | | ✓ | ✓ | | ✓ | |
| 11. Nitrogen dioxide | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | | ✓ | | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| 12. Ozone | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | | | | | | |
| 13. Particulate matter | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| 14. Sulfur dioxide | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | | ✓ | | ✓ |

^a Criteria pollutants (in bold font) are those for which National Ambient Air Quality Standards have been established. (Note that vehicle exhaust was a source of sulfur dioxide in the past, less so today). Of the remaining eight, six (all but ammonia and methane) were in the original list of HAPs (hazardous air pollutants) from the 1990 amendments to the Clean Air Act. Hydrogen sulfide was inadvertently included in the original list and subsequently removed, but it is still subject to accidental release provisions. All three indicators (ammonia, hydrogen sulfide, and methane) are nuisance pollutants associated with livestock operations. Hydrogen sulfide and methane are also indicators for natural gas development (as is the HAP benzene), and methane is a key greenhouse gas (GHG) indicator.

Example sources: Some are indirect; e.g., ozone is formed by the reaction of precursors, VOCs and nitrogen oxides (such as from vehicle exhaust) in sunlight; similarly, photochemical oxidation of hydrocarbon combustion products forms formaldehyde. See Table 3-5 for supporting data and information sources. Note that many of these pollutants are also emitted in indoor environments (e.g., homes and workplaces), in some cases in higher concentrations than in outdoor air.

TABLE 3-5 Example Airborne Concentrations and Emission Sources for the Study Pollutants^a

| Pollutant <i>(concn unit)</i> | National Ambient Air Quality Standards | | Illustrative Concentrations | | Example Emission Sources | Selected Information Resources |
|---|---|-------|-----------------------------|--|---|---|
| | Averaging Time | Concn | Concn | Context | | |
| Criteria Pollutants | | | | | | |
| Carbon monoxide <i>(ppm by volume)</i> | 8 hr <i>(not to be exceeded more than once a yr)</i> | 9 | 0.12 | Northern hemisphere | Vehicle exhaust (dominant source), with smaller amounts possibly from petroleum refineries, petrochemical plants, gas and coal-burning power plants, coke oven plants, biomass combustion, wildfires and controlled burns <i>(incomplete combustion)</i> | ATSDR (2012) (ToxGuide) http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/toxguides/toxguide-201.pdf ATSDR (2012) (Toxicological Profile) http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/ToxProfiles/tp201-c6.pdf EPA (2000) (Air Quality Criteria) http://cfpub.epa.gov/ncea/cfm/recordisplay.cfm?deid=18163 |
| | | | 0.04 | Southern hemisphere | | |
| | 1 hr <i>(not to be exceeded more than once a yr)</i> | 35 | 5 | Busy traffic conditions | | |
| | | | 0.5-5 | Home without gas stove | | |
| | | | 5-15 | Home with gas stove | | |
| Lead <i>(µg/m³)</i> | 3 mo <i>(rolling average)</i> <i>(not to be exceeded)</i> | 0.15 | 0.015 | 2010 per annual maximum 3-month average | Lead smelting and refining facilities, steel welding and cutting operations, battery manufacturing plants, radiator repair shops, rubber and plastic production facilities, printing facilities, waste incinerators, leaded gasoline combustion, firing ranges, and construction activities | EPA (2012) (Air Trends) http://www.epa.gov/airtrends/lead.html ATSDR (2007) (ToxGuide) http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/toxguides/toxguide-13.pdf ATSDR (2007) (Toxicological Profile) http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/toxprofiles/tp13-c6.pdf |
| | | | <0.05 | 2002 ambient air | | |
| | | | 0.11 | Mean for indoor air, per EPA Region 5 survey | | |

| Pollutant (concn unit) | National Ambient Air Quality Standards | | Illustrative Concentrations | | Example Emission Sources | Selected Information Resources |
|---|--|-------|-----------------------------|---|--|--|
| | Averaging Time | Concn | Concn | Context | | |
| Nitrogen dioxide (ppb) | Annual (mean) | 53 | 10 | 2012 annual mean | Vehicle exhaust, coal-burning power plants, petroleum and metal refining facilities, wood burning | EPA (2012) (Air Trends) http://www.epa.gov/airtrends/nitrogen.html EPA (2012) (Our Nation's Air) http://www.epa.gov/airtrends/2011/ EPA (2008) (Integrated Science Assessment for Oxides of Nitrogen) http://www.epa.gov/ncea/isa/ |
| | 1 hr (98 th percentile averaged over 3 yr) | 100 | 530 | Busy traffic conditions; hourly average | | |
| Ozone (ppm) | 8 hr (annual 4 th highest daily maximum 8-hr concn averaged over 3 yr) | 0.075 | 0.07 | 2010 mean, per annual 4 th maximum 8-hr average | Vehicle exhaust, power plants, refineries, chemical plants, industrial boilers (formed by reaction of volatile organic compounds and nitrogen oxides with sunlight) | EPA (2012) (Ground Level Ozone FAQ) http://www.epa.gov/glo/faq.html#where EPA (2012) (Air Trends) http://www.epa.gov/airtrends/ozone.html |
| PM_{2.5} ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) | Annual (primary and secondary means, averaged over 3 yr) | 12 | 10 | 2010 mean, per seasonally weighted annual average | Vehicle exhaust, fossil fuel combustion, industrial processes, wood burning, agricultural operations, construction and demolition activities | EPA (2012) (Air Trends) http://www.epa.gov/airtrends/pm.html EPA (2010) (Report on the Environment) http://cfpub.epa.gov/eroe/index.cfm?fuseaction=detail.viewInd&lv=list.listbvalpha&r=231331&subtop=341 EPA (2004) (Looking at Trends) http://www.epa.gov/air/airtrends/aqtrnd04/pmreport03/pmlooktrends_2405.pdf |
| | 24 hr (98 th percentile, averaged over 3 yr) | 35 | | 2006-2008 mean, per annual average | | |
| PM₁₀ ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) | 24 hr (not to be exceeded more than once a yr on average over 3 yr) | 150 | 51 | 2009 mean, 24-hr average | | |
| | | | 63 | 2010 mean, per annual 2 nd maximum 24-hr average | | |

| Pollutant <i>(concn unit)</i> | National Ambient Air Quality Standards | | Illustrative Concentrations | | Example Emission Sources | Selected Information Resources |
|----------------------------------|--|-------|-----------------------------|--|---|---|
| | Averaging Time | Concn | Concn | Context | | |
| Sulfur dioxide <i>(ppb)</i> | 1 hr <i>(99th percentile of 1-hr daily maximum concn averaged over 3 yr)</i> | 75 | 2.2 | 2010 mean, annual arithmetic average | Power generation, fuel combustion, industrial processes such as refining and smelting, volcanoes | EPA (2012) (Air Trends) http://www.epa.gov/airtrends/sulfur.html ATSDR (1998) (Toxicological Profile) http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/ToxProfiles/tp116-c5.pdf |
| | 3 hr <i>(not to be exceeded more than once a yr)</i> | 500 | 600-3,000 | Breathing zone of forest fires | | |
| Additional Study Pollutants | | | | | | |
| Acetaldehyde <i>(ppb)</i> | Not applicable | | 0-0.8 | Rural regions (Point Barrow, Alaska; Whiteface Mountain, New York) | Cigarette smoke, incomplete combustion processes (tailpipe exhaust and fires), photochemical oxidation of hydrocarbons, agricultural burning, wildfires, fireplaces, woodstoves, cooking, building materials, nail polish remover | CalEPA Air Resources Board (1993) http://www.oehha.org/air/toxic_contaminants/html/acetaldehyde.htm NTP (2011) (Report on Carcinogens) http://ntp.niehs.nih.gov/ntp/roc/twelfth/profiles/Acetaldehyde.pdf EPA (1992, 2000) (Hazard Summary) http://www.epa.gov/ttnatw01/hlthef/acetalde.html |
| | | | 1.6-2.8 | South Coast Air Basin (California), 24-hr sample averages | | |
| | | | 2.8 (5 µg/m³) | Ambient air, average | | |
| | | | 32 | Los Angeles, ambient | | |
| | | | 3-15 | Indoor, California | | |
| | | | 113 | Indoor, with smokers, California | | |
| | | | 28-3,600 (0.05-6.4 mg/m³) | Diesel exhaust | | |
| | | | 780-4,900 (1.4-8.8 mg/m³) | Gasoline exhaust | | |
| Acrolein | Not applicable | | 0.5-3.2 | Outdoor air | Vehicle exhaust, biomass | ATSDR (2007) (ToxGuide) |

| Pollutant (concn unit) | National Ambient Air Quality Standards | | Illustrative Concentrations | | Example Emission Sources | Selected Information Resources |
|-------------------------------|--|-------|-----------------------------|--|--|--|
| | Averaging Time | Concn | Concn | Context | | |
| (ppb) | | | <0.02-12 | Indoor residential air | conversion and biodiesel production facilities, heating fats, tobacco smoke | http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/toxguides/toxguide-124.pdf |
| Ammonia (ppb) | Not applicable | | 0.3-6 | Global average | Fertilizer production plants, household cleaning products (and production facilities), animal excreta and decaying organic matter, volcanoes | ATSDR (2004) (ToxGuide) http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/toxguides/toxguide-126.pdf |
| Benzene (ppb) | Not applicable | | 0.58 | Metropolitan areas | Vehicle exhaust, gas stations, tobacco smoke, natural gas development | ATSDR (2007) (ToxGuide) http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/toxguides/toxguide-3.pdf |
| | | | 0.36-1.4 | Ambient outdoor air, annual mean, 2009 (10 th -90 th percentile range) | | ENVIRON (2012) (Hydrofracking: Air Issues and Community Exposure) http://lawweb.colorado.edu/law/centers/nrlc/events/hottopics/Kaden%20PPT%20(1-27-12).pdf |
| 1,3-Butadiene (ppb) | Not applicable | | 0.04-1 | Cities and suburban areas | Vehicle exhaust, manufacturing plants, burning rubber or plastic, burning wood, forest fires, tobacco smoke | ATSDR (2012) (ToxGuide) http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/toxguides/toxguide-28.pdf |
| | | | 0.1 | Outdoor air (Texas 2003 annual average; excluding point source downwind monitors) | | Texas (2007) http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17011534 |

| Pollutant (concn unit) | National Ambient Air Quality Standards | | Illustrative Concentrations | | Example Emission Sources | Selected Information Resources |
|------------------------------|--|-------|--|--|--|--|
| | Averaging Time | Concn | Concn | Context | | |
| Formaldehyde (ppb) | Not applicable | | 0.4 | Mean, natural background | Photochemical oxidation of hydrocarbon combustion products (88%), power plants, incinerators, unvented gas or kerosene heaters, carpets and permanent press fabrics, wood product manufacturing (plywood, furniture), automobile exhaust, cigarette smoke, latex paints, varnishes, fingernail polish and remover, preserved specimens | ATSDR (1999) (Toxicological Profile) http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/toxprofiles/tp111.pdf EPA (2007) (Technology Transfer Network, Air Toxics Web site) http://www.epa.gov/ttnatw01/hlthef/formaldehyde.html#ref1 CalEPA OEHHA (2001) (Children's Environmental Health Protection Act) http://www.oehha.org/air/toxic_contaminants/pdf_zip/formaldehyde_final.pdf EPA (2012) (Introduction to Indoor Air Quality) http://www.epa.gov/iaq/formaldehyde.html WHO (2001) (Air Quality Guidelines) http://www.euro.who.int/_data/assets/pdf_file/0014/123062/AQG2ndEd_5_8Formaldehyde.pdf |
| | | | 0.2-6 | Rural and suburban areas | | |
| | | | 1-20 | Urban areas | | |
| | | | 21-98 | California, monitored classrooms (mean-max) | | |
| | | | 20-4,000 | Indoor air | | |
| | | | 83 (100 µg/m ³) | Conventional homes (mean, Southern California) | | |
| | | | 0.8 (0.5, 0.1) | Odor threshold (lower reflects sensitive noses) | | |
| | | | 9.1 | Heavy traffic, inversions (short-term peaks) | | |
| | | | 45 (≤83) | Manufactured homes (mean, mobile homes) | | |
| | | | <100 (mean ≤50; 25-60 µg/m ³) | Homes without urea-formaldehyde foam insulation (UFFI) | | |
| | | | >300 | Homes with substantial pressed wood products | | |

| Pollutant (concn unit) | National Ambient Air Quality Standards | | Illustrative Concentrations | | Example Emission Sources | Selected Information Resources |
|----------------------------------|--|-------|-----------------------------|---|---|--|
| | Averaging Time | Concn | Concn | Context | | |
| Hydrogen sulfide (ppb) | <i>Not applicable</i> | | 0.11-0.33 | Ambient air | Pulp and paper mills, petroleum refineries, natural gas production plants, geothermal power plants, coke oven plants, iron smelters, food processing plants, swine containment facilities and other CAFOs, manure handling, wastewater treatment facilities, swamps, stagnant water, volcanoes, natural gas development | ATSDR (2006) (ToxGuide) http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/toxguides/toxguide-114.pdf ENVIRON (2012) (Hydrofracking: Air Issues and Community Exposure) http://lawweb.colorado.edu/law/centers/nrlc/events/hottopics/Kaden%20PPT%20(1-27-12).pdf Purdue Extension (2007) (CAFOs) http://www.extension.purdue.edu/extmedia/ID/cafo/ID-358-W.pdf |
| | | | <1 | Urban air | | |
| | | | 0.4-2.4 | Homes near concentrated animal feeding operations (CAFOs) | | |
| | | | >90 | Homes near industrial facilities | | |
| Methane (ppm) | <i>Not applicable</i> | | 2.2 | Natural atmosphere | Fossil fuel mining and distribution (including natural gas and petroleum systems), livestock, landfills, biomass burning (including wildfires), wetlands, rice cultivation, stationary and mobile combustion, natural gas development | New England Waste Services of Vermont, Inc. (2006) http://www.anr.state.vt.us/DEC/wastediv/solid/documents/NEWSVTAttachF.pdf Alberta Environmental Protection, CH2M Gore and Storrie Limited (1999) http://www.environment.gov.ab.ca/info/library/5847.pdf |
| | | | 600,000 | Unlined landfills (average) | | |

^a These illustrative concentrations represent data from an online search to indicate the variety of concentrations to which people could be exposed in different types of settings and over different time frames (e.g., short-term peaks to annual averages). The values in this table are generally rounded to two significant figures. Similar summaries of example concentrations in air for selected pollutants are provided in Appendix D. Those tables illustrate how data inputs from EPA Regional staff and others interested in region- and setting-specific compilations could be organized to inform community-based initiatives. National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) are only established for six criteria pollutants. Values for lead, nitrogen dioxide (annual mean), ozone, PM_{2.5} (24-hour), and PM₁₀ are joint primary-secondary standards. Carbon dioxide, nitrogen dioxide (1-hour), PM_{2.5} (annual mean of 12 µg/m³), and sulfur dioxide (1-hour) are primary standards, while PM_{2.5} (annual mean of 15 µg/m³), and sulfur dioxide (3-hour) are secondary standards. Primary standards are defined to protect public health, including sensitive populations; secondary standards protect public welfare, including protecting against decreased visibility and damage to animals, crops, vegetation and buildings. The NAAQS entries (concentrations and averaging times) do not correspond to the example ambient levels in the adjacent column. Additional resources for methane include: EPA (2013) (Methane Emissions); <http://epa.gov/climatechange/ghgemissions/gases/ch4.html>, and EPA (2013) (Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks: 1990-2010); <http://www.epa.gov/climatechange/ghgemissions/usinventoryreport.html>.

As evident from Table 3-5, selected pollutant measurements are available for a number of settings and time periods, including for areas with common ambient emission sources (e.g., vehicle exhaust) as well as emergency response-related settings (e.g., breathing zone of forest fires). Given the variety of community interests across different regions, companion tables are provided in Appendix D to facilitate the organization of pollutant measurement data for locations of interest to specific communities.

Also included in Table 3-5 are the regulatory standards for the criteria pollutants, as points of comparison for their example measurements. As described in the preceding section, like ambient measurements, the NAAQS and other exposure benchmarks provide practical context for assessing sensor detection capabilities. Both benchmark concentrations and example concentrations in air are plotted with sensor detection levels in the graphical arrays for each study pollutant presented in Section 3.5, to facilitate comparisons and frame the evaluation of gaps and opportunities for different settings and situations.

3.4 SENSOR TECHNOLOGIES AND TECHNIQUES

3.4.1 Sensing Categories

The sensors highlighted in this report are organized into three main categories based on the underlying detection technique: chemical interaction (hereafter referred to as chemistry or chemical techniques), spectroscopy, and ionization. A brief description of these categories and underlying sensing principles follows, additional information is provided in Appendix F. The numbers of sensors identified in these categories from the literature reviewed is presented in Table 3-6.

Chemistry

This sensing technique involves contact-based chemical interactions. This category includes solid-state sensors with a chemical film that reacts with a gas to produce a signal, e.g., due to a change in mass or electrical properties. That signal is then analyzed to indicate the presence and/or concentration of the given pollutant. Sensors in this category are divided into four groups in this report to help highlight active research areas:

- Electrochemical sensors – typically an electrochemical cell with a solid or liquid electrolyte; the chemical reaction of an incoming substance at the working electrode creates an electrical potential difference between that electrode and the reference electrode. Metal oxide semiconductors (MOS), also referred to as chemiresistors, and electrochemical membranes account for most entries in this category.
- Nanotechnology-based sensing materials – including nanocrystalline metal oxides, carbon nanotubes (CNTs), and organic nanocomposites; these materials can be used as stand-alone sensing films and can also be incorporated into other sensor systems.
- Polymer films – including hybrid films, with thin-film organic polymers providing conductive or fluorescent surfaces.
- Surface acoustic wave (SAW) sensors – with a chemical film that selectively adsorbs a gas, producing a change in mass, detected by a change in surface-propagating waves.

TABLE 3-6 Technologies/Techniques Reflected in Research Sensors and Systems^a

| Technology/Technique | Number | Pollutants |
|--|-----------|---|
| Chemistry | 73 | |
| Electrochemical (notably MOS and membrane sensors) | 30 | Acetaldehyde, acetone, alcohols, ammonia, benzene, CO, carbon dioxide, formaldehyde, NO ₂ , NO _x , phenolate, PM, VOCs |
| Nanotechnology-based | 28 | Acetaldehyde, ammonia, benzene, CO, carbon dioxide, formaldehyde, hydrogen sulfide, methane, NO ₂ , oxygen, SO ₂ , VOCs |
| Polymer film | 10 | Acetaldehyde, ammonia, CO, formaldehyde, trinitrotoluene |
| Surface acoustic wave | 5 | Hydrogen sulfide, NO _x |
| Spectroscopy | 57 | |
| Absorption | 19 | Ammonia, benzene, CO, NO ₂ , SO ₂ , explosives |
| Emission | 18 | Acrolein, ammonia, hydrogen sulfide, SO ₂ , VOCs |
| Laser absorption | 15 | Acrolein, BTEX, CO, NO ₂ , PM, VOCs |
| LIDAR | 4 | Ammonia, hydrogen sulfide, NO ₂ , O ₃ , PM |
| Light scattering | 1 | PM |
| Ionization | 5 | |
| Mass spectrometry | 3 | PM-ultrafine particles (UFPs), VOCs |
| Gas chromatography | 2 | BTEX, other VOCs |
| Other | 3 | PM |

^a The numbers in bold font represent the totals for each of the four categories. Counts include duplicates because some devices/technologies contain components that cross multiple categories. Also, these values reflect a number of pollutants/parameters reported in the literature reviewed, not just those comprising the study set; for example, trinitrotoluene (TNT) and others are included in this summary. Sensors using the LIDAR technique were found as part of the literature review and are included in this table; however, they are not generally considered to be portable and are not included in subsequent count figures. Note that metal oxide semiconductors (MOS) and electrochemical membrane sensors dominate within the electrochemical group.

Spectroscopy

Spectroscopic techniques rely on chemical-specific emission and/or absorption spectra that result from molecules interacting with an energy source such as light. Commonly referred to as optical sensors, these devices identify pollutants based on their absorption or emission characteristics. These sensors can be further grouped as follows:

- Absorption spectroscopy – based on absorption peak patterns and intensities using infrared (IR), ultraviolet (UV), or visible light.
- Laser absorption spectroscopy – including quantum cascade lasers (QCLs), tunable diode lasers, and organic microlasers that operate at a specific light frequency range.
- Emission spectroscopy.
- Light scattering, or nephelometry.

Light detection and ranging (LIDAR) is another spectroscopic technique identified in the literature search; this sensing technique is based on back-scattered light from interaction with a laser or other light source. Although LIDAR detectors are not currently used in mobile sensing

(thus are not reflected in the accompanying figure), they could potentially represent an opportunity for future research. Laser-induced breakdown spectroscopy (LIBS) is another technique that might represent a future opportunity, although it was not reflected as such in the literature reviewed. This technique uses a high-power, pulsed laser beam to induce a plasma that vaporizes, atomizes, and excites the sample gas, and the identity and concentration of the substance are then determined from the intensities of the resulting atomic emissions.

Ionization

This sensing technique involves identifying pollutants on the basis of their ions. A gas chromatograph (GC) is frequently placed in front of ionization detectors for selective separation, and some mass spectrometers also use front-end chromatography to achieve selection. Three groups of sensing techniques within this category are:

- Photoionization detection – which measures the ionization potential (IP) of gases at or below the frequency of light emitted from an ultraviolet (UV) lamp. Concentrations are determined by the extent of ion deposition on the collecting electrode resulting from photon absorption. Photoionization detectors (PIDs) often serve as detectors in GC systems. (Note that PIDs, including commercial sensors, are not reflected in the sensors highlighted in Table 3 6.)
- Flame ionization detection – which involves mixing a sample gas with hydrogen then introducing a flame, and collecting the released electrons at electrodes where the energy is converted to electrical output signals. Flame ionization detectors (FIDs) commonly serve as detectors in GC systems.
- Mass spectrometry – which consist of an ion source, analyzer, detector, and data recorder; several aspects of these systems can be changed to address the specific chemical species to be measured. Major ion formation techniques include electron impact ionization, chemical ionization, fast atom bombardment, electroscopy ionization, and matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization. Analyzers include magnetic, electrostatic, quadrupole, ion trap, time of flight, and Fourier transform ion cyclotron resonance. Detector components include secondary electron multipliers, photomultipliers, and multi-channel plates.

3.4.2 Technology/Technique Trends for Mobile Sensors

Of the 138 studies reviewed that focus on research sensors: spectroscopic and chemical techniques dominate for the selected set of pollutants (see Table 3-6 and Figure 3-2). Chemical techniques are reflected in 73 studies while 57 reflect spectroscopy, five reflect ionization, and three use other methods such as microelectromechanical systems (MEMS). Note that nano-electromechanical systems are also being developed. Counts for subcategories within the three main categories are also included in Figure 3-2. Electrochemical and nanotechnology-based sensors (grouped with chemical techniques) lead the subcategories. Chemical techniques are most common across all measurands and also for the study set, as shown in Figure 3-3. Insights from this limited set indicate no broad-spectrum sensor exists, i.e., no single technology/technique can detect all 14 (see Figure 3-3). However spectroscopic techniques are reported for all but one (lead), and chemical techniques apply to all but three (acrolein, lead, and ozone). Many commercial sensors are available for ozone, including electrochemical sensors; but this review focuses on research sensors and novel systems, and these were not found for ozone. Three pollutants are sensed by all three techniques: PM, benzene, and 1,3-butadiene.

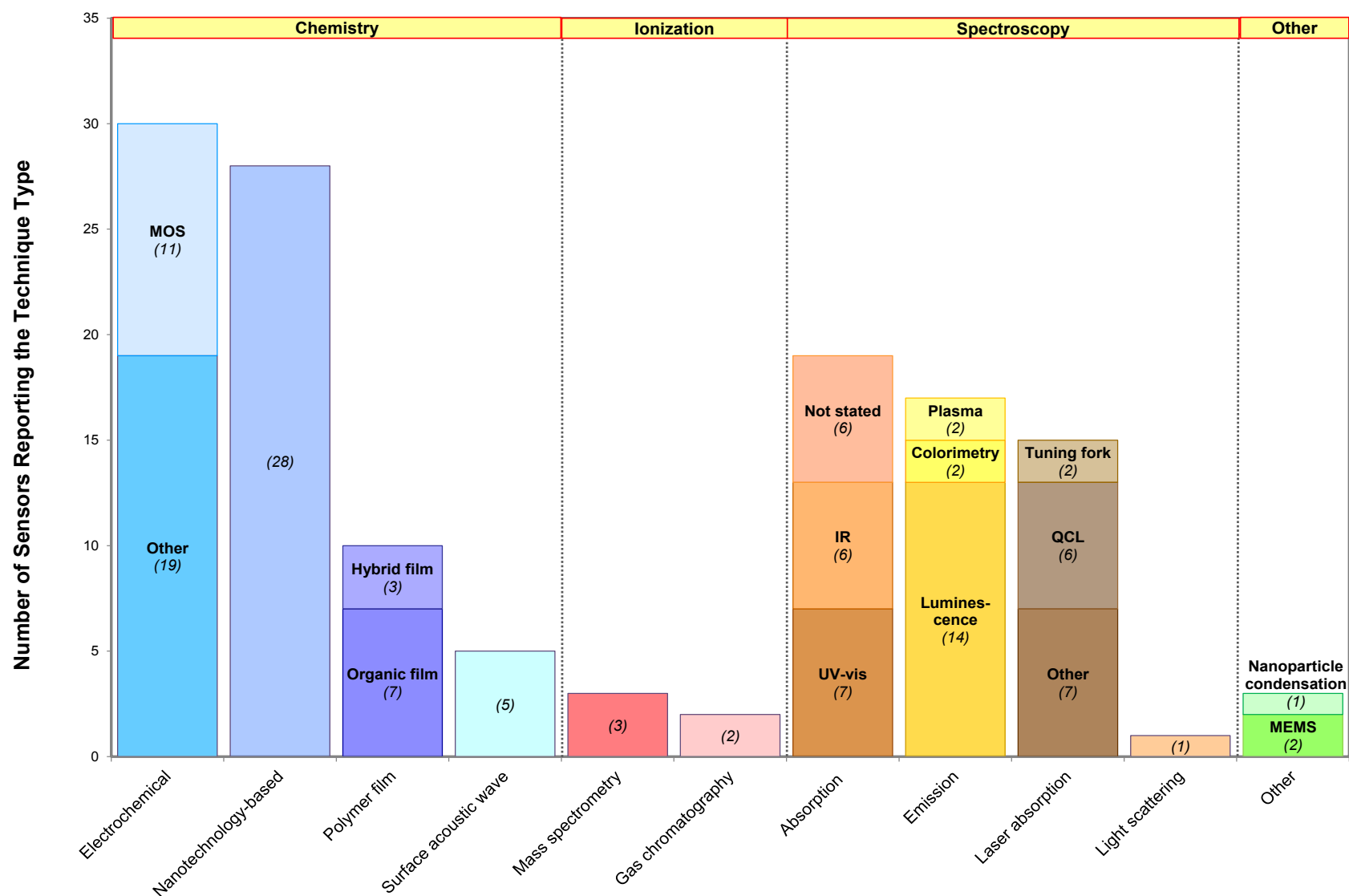


FIGURE 3-2 Detection Techniques Highlighted in Recent Research Literature

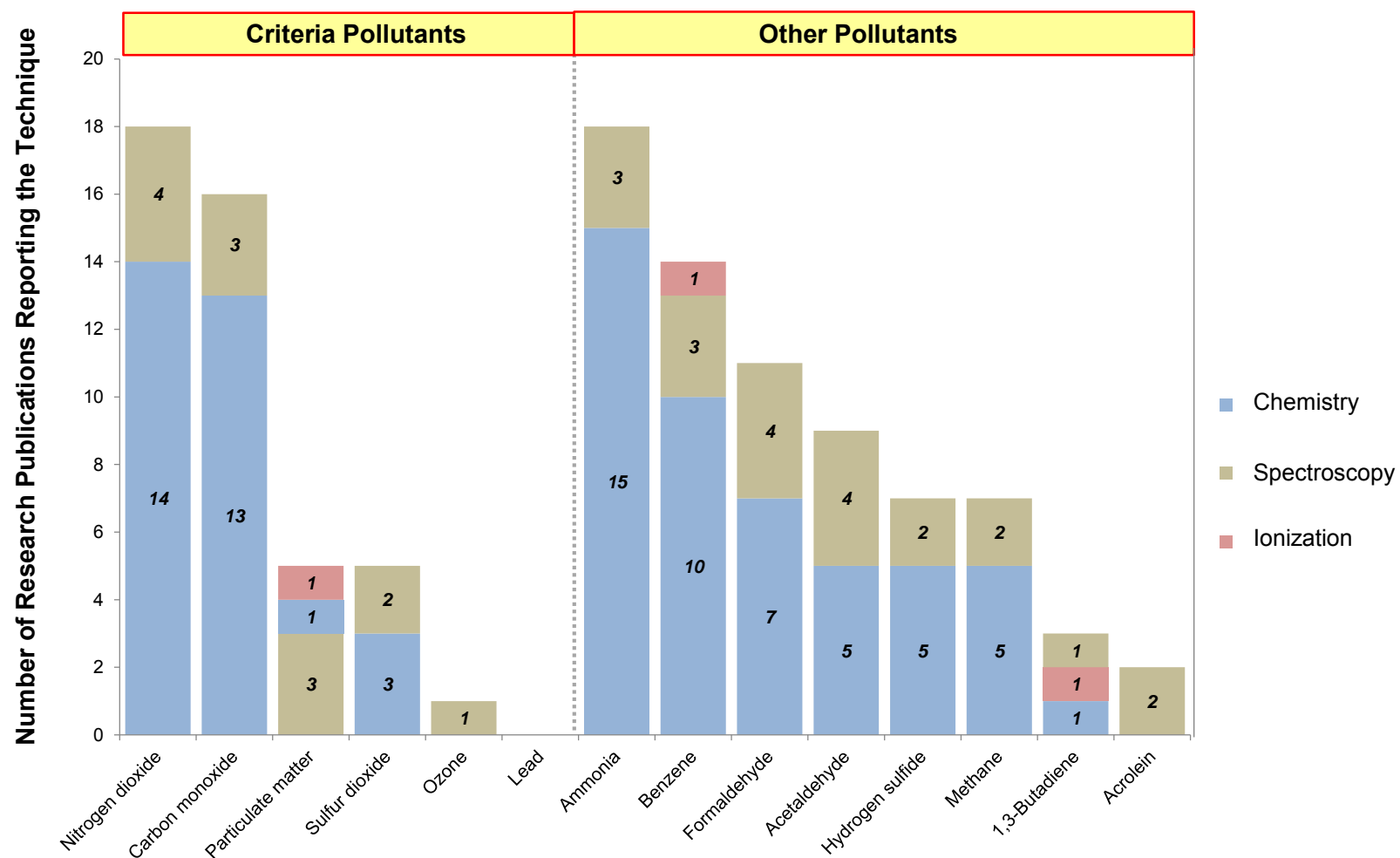


FIGURE 3-3 Detection Techniques Reflected in Sensors and Systems for the Study Pollutants

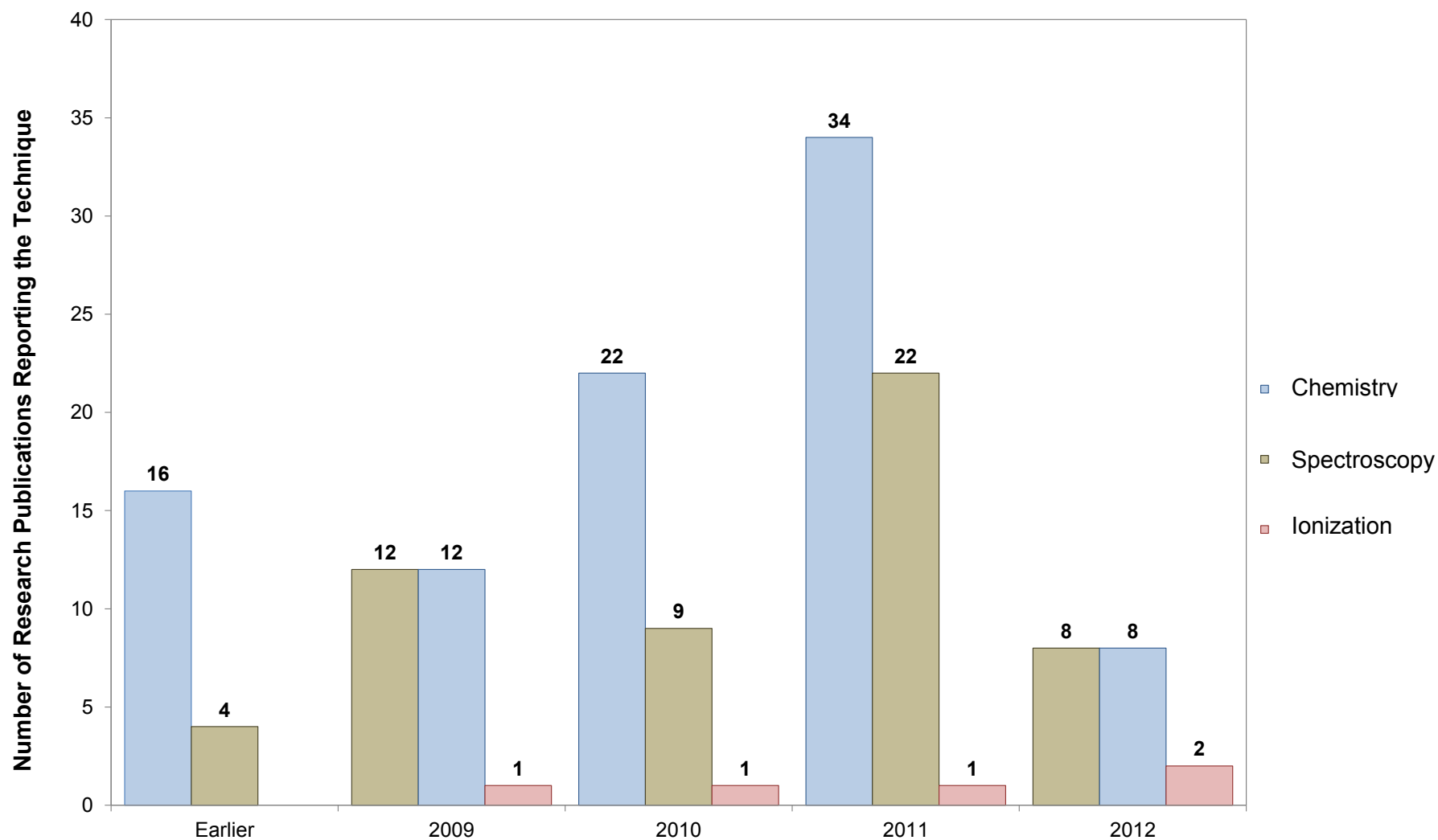


FIGURE 3-4 Technology/Technique Counts by Year (2010 to early 2012)

To assess recent trends, the number of research studies distributed across the three main sensing techniques is plotted by year in Figure 3-4. Publications for sensors focusing on chemical techniques increased substantially in 2011 and have continued to increase since then. Note that this figure only reflects publications from the beginning of 2012; subsequent checks of selected literature through 2012 confirm this trend, with nanotechnology also continuing to play a prominent role. Similar results are indicated for spectroscopic techniques. Most of the recent research focuses on refining existing technologies and techniques to gain improvements such as smaller size, greater sensitivity, and lower power consumption, rather than developing wholly new approaches. For example, nanoparticle coatings are being added and light frequencies are being altered to increase the sensitivity of various devices, and many spectroscopic sensors are incorporating nanotechnology to improve portability.

3.5 DETECTION CAPABILITIES

From the literature reviewed, nearly 170 sensors were reported to detect at least one of the 14 air pollutants studied. These include research sensors as well as novel systems that incorporate commercial sensors. Summary information for these sensors and systems is tabulated in Appendix E (Tables E-1 and E-2), which also includes reference levels for commercial sensors that were selected to represent standard sensors for those pollutants. Of these sensors, more than 70% (118 of 166) identify the sensing technique. About half (87) report a lower detection limit (LDL) or similar value (i.e., minimum tested concentration), and less than a quarter (37) include an upper limit of quantitation or maximum tested concentration. The sensing techniques for each pollutant are summarized in Table 3-7 together with the LDLs where available. The lowest (most protective) benchmark concentration is included with the pollutant (in the first column) as context for this overview of potential detection capabilities. (Note this lowest benchmark is also included with others in graphical arrays to facilitate comparisons, as described in Section 3.5.1.) The LDLs that achieve this lowest benchmark are shaded green, the others are shaded blue. When no LDL was identified, an 'x' is used to signify that technique is reported for the given pollutant. A blank cell indicates the technique was not identified for that pollutant (e.g., see the row for lead, for which no research sensors were found). The only commercial sensors included in this table are those used in novel sensor systems. Information from studies that only addressed sensor architectures and infrastructures is presented in Section 3.6 (also see Raymond et al. [2013]).

3.5.1 Graphical Arrays of Exposure Benchmarks and Reported Sensor Detection Levels

Graphical arrays have been created for each of the study pollutants to compare reported sensor detection levels with established exposure benchmarks. Array elements are described below.

Selected Benchmarks

Benchmarks have been established by EPA and other agencies to protect the health and safety of the general public and workers under various conditions. The selected benchmarks presented in the arrays are organized according to four time periods (labeled at the top of each array) to reflect the exposure durations addressed: acute, short term, subchronic, and chronic. The symbols plotted on these arrays identify the concentration of the benchmark (y-axis) for the given exposure duration (x-axis). Shading indicates the benchmark category: (1) rose signifies emergency response levels for the general public, only lasting up to a day (primarily to 8 hr); (2) green signifies continuous ambient exposures for the general public, extending over a lifetime; and (3) blue indicates occupational noncontinuous exposures for adult workers over a working life.

TABLE 3-7 Detection Capabilities for Selected Sensing Technologies/Techniques
 (concentrations are ppm for gases, $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ for particles)^a

| Pollutant (concentrations are as ppm except as noted, for lead and PM) | Sensing Technology/Technique | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|------------------------------|----------------|----------------------|-----|---------------------------|--------------------|-----------------|---------------|--------------------------|-------|--------------------------|
| | Chemistry | | | | Ionization | | Spectroscopy | | | | |
| | Electro- chemi- cal | Nano- based | Poly- mer film | SAW | Mass spec- trometry | GC ele- ment | Absorp- tion | Emis- sion | Laser absorp- tion | LIDAR | Light scat- tering |
| Acetaldehyde RBC: 0.000278 | x | 0.01 | 0.025 | | | | | 0.25 | x | | |
| Acrolein RfC: 8.73E-7 | | | | | | | | x | 0.003 | | |
| Ammonia MRL chronic: 0.1 | x | 3.1 | 20 | | | | 1 | | | x | |
| Benzene RBC: 0.0004 | x | 0.05 | 17100 | | | 0.1 | 0.001 | x | 0.00235 | | |
| 1,3-Butadiene RBC: 1.36E-5 | | 9.5 | | | | 0.5 | 0.0095 | 0.001 | | | |
| Carbon monoxide NAAQS (8-hr av): 9.0 | 0.2 | 100 | 80 | | | | x | | 10 | | |
| Formaldehyde RBC: 6.5E-5 | 0.05 | 0.01 | | | | | 0.106 | 0.001 | | | |
| Hydrogen sulfide RfC: 0.001 | | 0.002 | | x | | | x | 0.001 | | x | |
| Lead CalEPA IUR/RBC: 0.0833 µg/m³ | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Methane MEG-negligible effect (1 hr): 2,830 | | 125 | | | | | 5 | | | | |
| Nitrogen dioxide NAAQS (as annual avg): 0.053 | 0.02 | 0.01 | x | | | | x | | 0.12 | 0.001 | |
| Ozone NAAQS (as 8-hr avg): 0.075 | | | | | | | | | | 0.001 | |
| Particulate matter NAAQS (annual avg):12 µg/m³ | x | | | | x | | | | x | x | x |
| Sulfur dioxide NAAQS (as 1-hr avg): 0.075 | | 0.01 | | | | | 0.4 | 0.001 | | | |




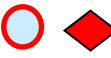


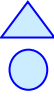

^a This table reflects LDLs reported for these techniques and pollutants in the research literature reviewed. (While commercial sensors may have lower LDLs, this report focuses on research sensors so data for commercial sensors alone were not pursued for this compilation.) The lowest exposure benchmark is included for comparison (the IRIS RBCs correspond to the 10^{-6} risk level; concentrations are ppm for gases and mass-based for lead and PM. The LDLs that achieve this lowest benchmark are shaded green, the others are shaded blue. An x (with yellow shading) indicates the technique has been reported to detect the pollutant but the concentration was not identified. An empty cell indicates the technique has not been identified for that pollutant (e.g., none were found for lead in air).

Gas chromatography (GC) is reflected as a selective element of the sensor system; the main detector could be a photoionization, flame ionization or mass spectrometry detector. LDLs shown here for benzene and 1,3-butadiene are for a system that uses GC to separate the two gases, which are then detected by a commercial MOS sensor.

It is important to clarify that this report focuses on research sensors and novel systems, rather than commercial sensors. Thus, many commercial sensors exist that are not included in the figures and tables of this report. For example, a variety of commercial sensors are available for ozone, including a number of electrochemical sensors, yet the chemistry entries for ozone are blank in this table. This simply means no research and development sensors or novel sensor systems were found for ozone in the literature review.

The graphical arrays that compare exposure benchmarks to detection levels are presented for the pollutants in alphabetical order in Figures 3-5 through 3-18. An interpretation guide for the symbols and shading used in these arrays is provided in Table 3-8. The symbol color indicates the effect severity for benchmarks with tiered effects (e.g., acute exposure guideline levels, AEGLs). A dashed line indicates the benchmark concentration applies across that indicated. Where a series of concentrations have been established for different exposure durations for a given benchmark (e.g., 10-min, 30-min, 1-hr, 4-hr, and 8-hr values for certain emergency response values), the corresponding symbols are connected by a line of the same color.

TABLE 3-8 Guide to Distinguishing Types of Benchmarks in the Graphical Arrays

| Shape | Target Group and Setting | Nature of Exposure |
|---|---|---|
|  | General public, emergency response | Discrete exposures lasting up to 8 hr |
|  | General public, routine ambient | Continuous exposures, to lifetime (70 yr) |
|  | Adult worker, occupational | Noncontinuous exposures (work shifts over working life (e.g., 25+ yr)) |
| Shading- Outline | Health Effect Level / Nature | Effect Notes |
|  | Above this level, effect could be severe | Examples: AEGL-3, IDLH |
|  | Above this, effect could be serious, irreversible | Example: AEGL-2 |
|  | Above this, effect could be mild, reversible | Example: AEGL-1 |
|  | Occupational, OSHA regulatory standard Occupational, other/recommended limit | Not all permissible exposure limits (PELs) are strictly health based (some reflect technical feasibility) |
|  | Level considered safe for the general public | Includes downward adjustments to assure safe margin of exposure across general population including sensitive subgroups |

To illustrate how this is represented on a graphical array, see the lines connecting multiple-duration benchmark concentrations for acetaldehyde AEGL values in Figure 3-5. The AEGL-1 values remain constant across these 5 time intervals, as seen from the flat gold line through the gold diamonds. In contrast, while the AEGL-2 and AEGL-3 values are the same for the first two intervals (as indicated by the flat orange line between the orange diamonds plotted at 10 min and 30 min, and the flat red line between the parallel red diamonds), the benchmark

concentrations for the AEGL-2 and AEGL-3 decrease over the next three intervals as indicated by the angled line connecting those respective diamonds. Not all guidelines are shown on these graphical arrays. For example, additional guidelines exist for many of the pollutants, notably OELs established for military personnel and specialized exposure settings (e.g., spacecraft and submarines). Those benchmarks are only tapped for methane because the more common health-based benchmarks (available for the other pollutants) have not been established for this compound. (See the introductory text of Appendix B for further information regarding the methane benchmarks.) Complementary figures are provided in Section 3.5.2 to compare sensor detection levels with illustrative concentrations in air for eleven study pollutants. Few example concentrations were found for the other three – ammonia, benzene, and 1,3-butadiene. Thus, these examples are included in the graphical arrays for exposure benchmarks (Figures 3-7 through 3-9) to streamline those presentations.

Selected Sensors

The sensors listed in the graphical arrays are primarily from studies that focus on sensing technology/technique; a few are from studies that focus on the architecture/infrastructure approach and incorporate a commercial sensor in a novel system. In addition, one or two commercial sensors (depending on the pollutant) that are considered to represent a standard accepted sensor for that pollutant are included on the arrays as points of reference, to guide the assessment of needs and opportunities. (For example, if a commercial detector already cost-effectively measures CO at the concentration of interest, or if another commercial sensor can measure a nuisance indicator at the odor threshold, then research investments would not be expected to target sensor development for those pollutants.) Further details about the sensors shown on these arrays are presented in Appendix E (Table E-1). A brief interpretation guide for the sensors plotted on the graphical arrays is provided below.

- Each sensor is identified with a small label. This label lies on a relatively thick horizontal line, which represents the reported LDL or minimum tested concentration, where reported. Its position is not related to the data recording time or instrument response time.
- The vertical line extending up from this label indicates the reported range of detection (where available). This vertical line ends at the upper limit of quantification or greatest tested concentration, which is represented by a short horizontal bar.
- The identifier number in the sensor label corresponds to the number in the summary table in Appendix E (Table E-1), where further information is provided for each plotted sensor.
- The font and line colors for the research sensors are darker than those for systems involving commercial sensors, so these primary sensors will stand out on the arrays.
- Devices that involve use of a commercial sensor in a novel system are distinguished by a lower-case "c" next to the identifier number. The font and lines used for these devices are a bit lighter than for the research sensors.
- Standard commercial sensors are also included in most arrays to provide further context for assessing detection gaps and opportunities. These reference sensors are denoted with an upper-case "C" next to the identifier number, as well as a star in that sensor box; the font and line colors for these standard commercial sensors are the lightest of all the sensors plotted on the arrays.
- An asterisk following the technique type or device name denotes the sensors for which the response time is reported to be 5 minutes or less. (See Appendix E for additional information regarding specific response times, where available.)

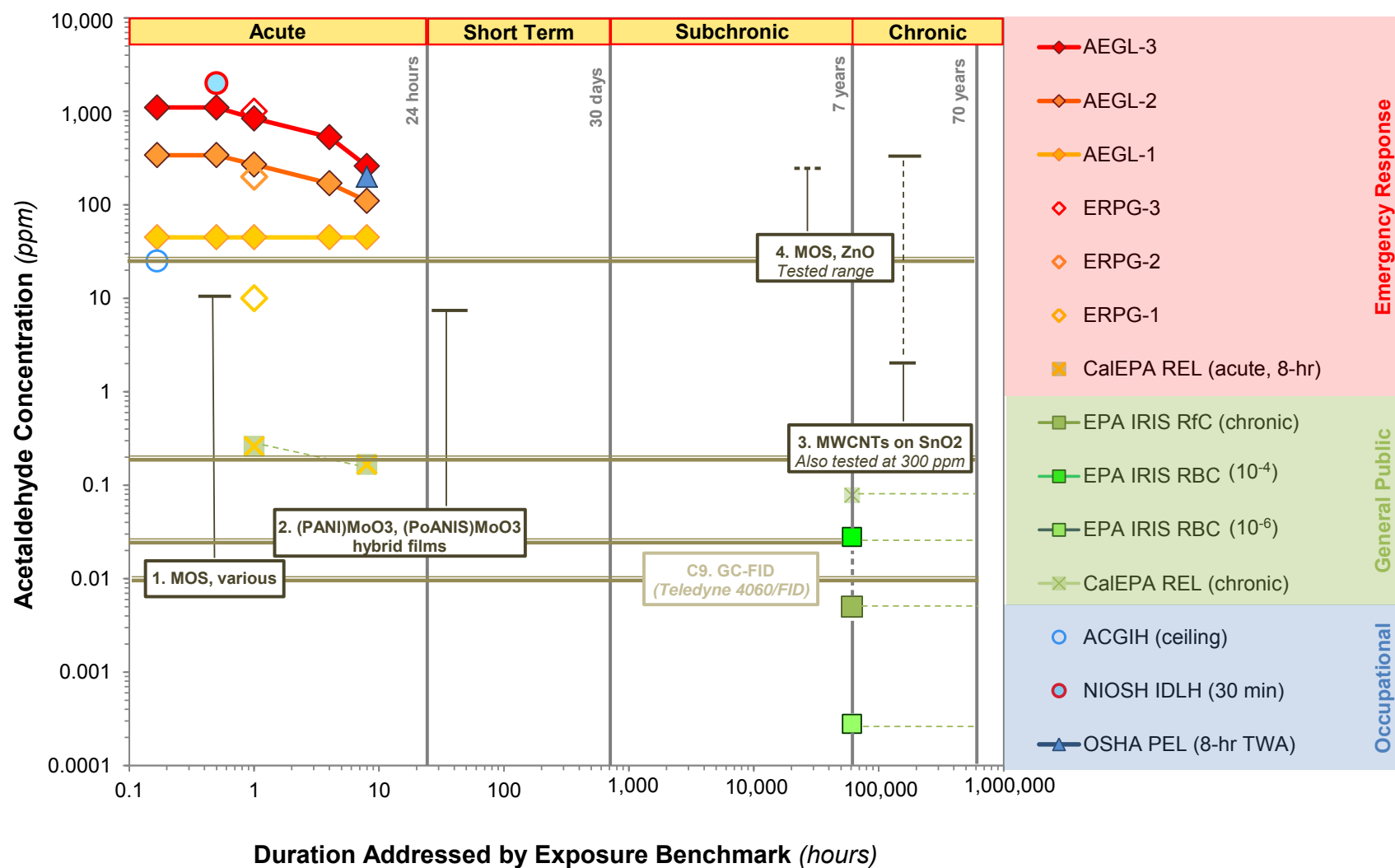


FIGURE 3-5 Acetaldehyde: Comparison of Detection Levels to Exposure Benchmarks

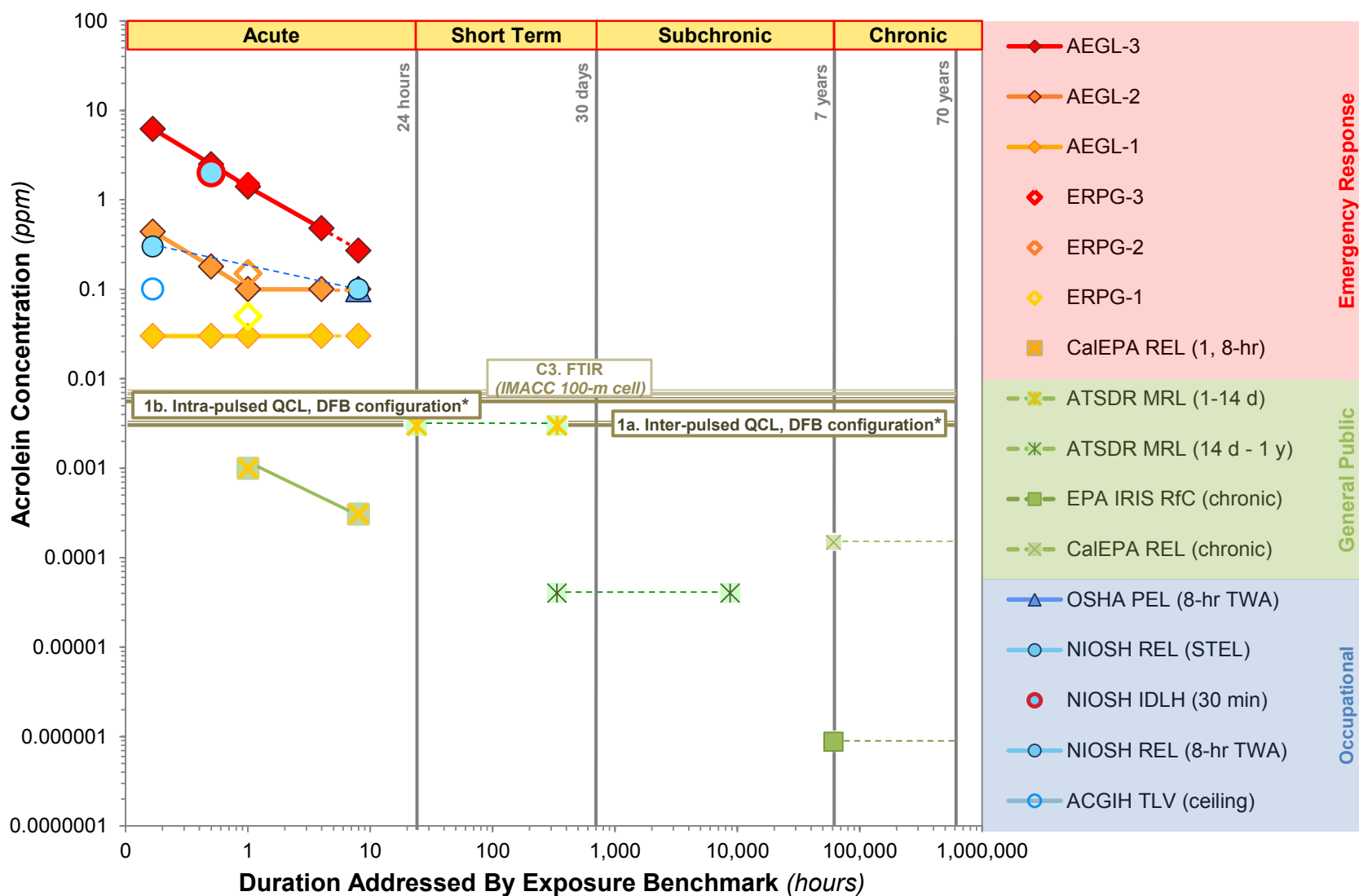
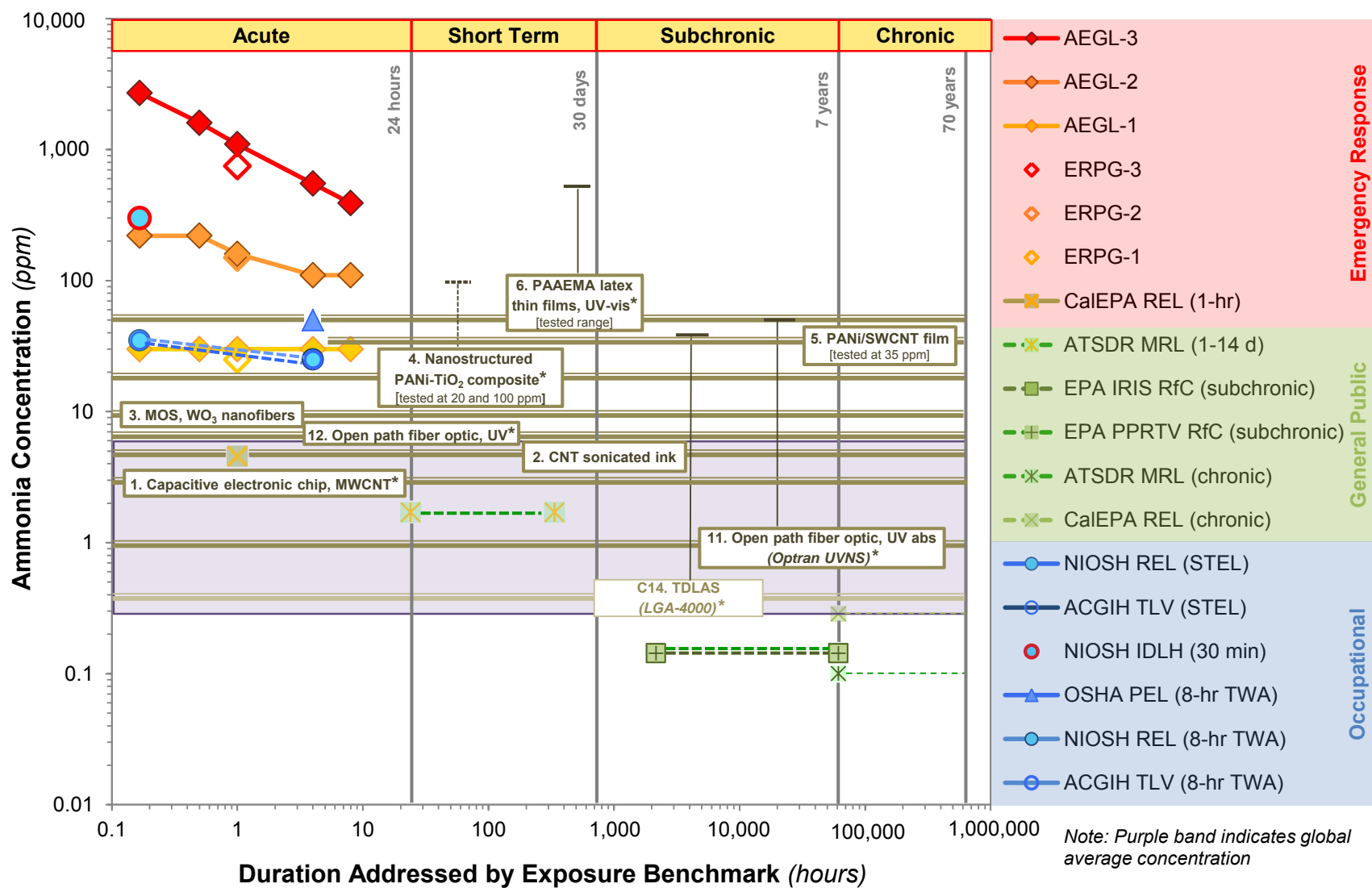


FIGURE 3-6 Acrolein: Comparison of Detection Levels to Exposure Benchmarks



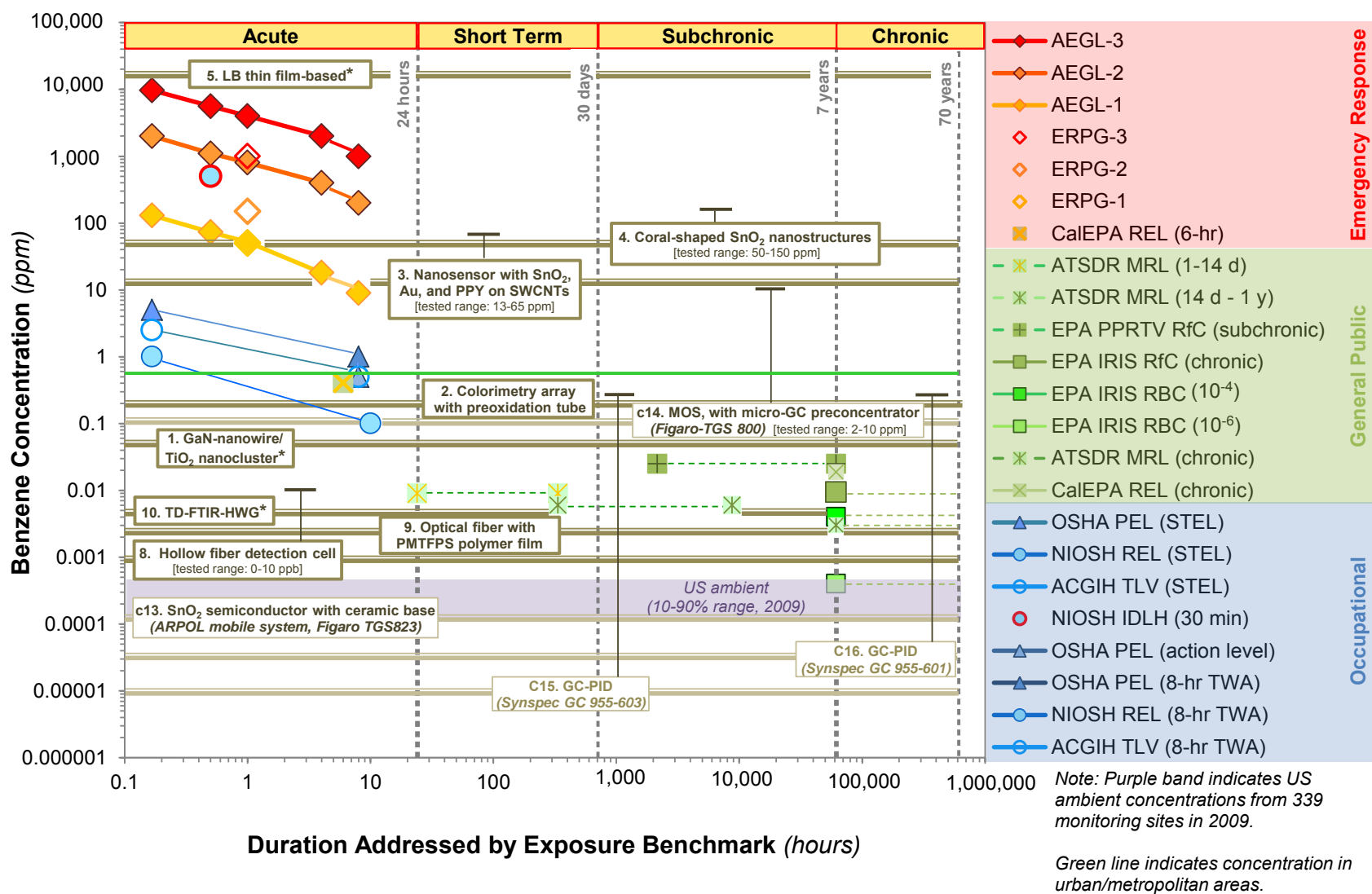


FIGURE 3-8 Benzene: Comparison of Detection Levels to Exposure Benchmarks and Example Concentrations

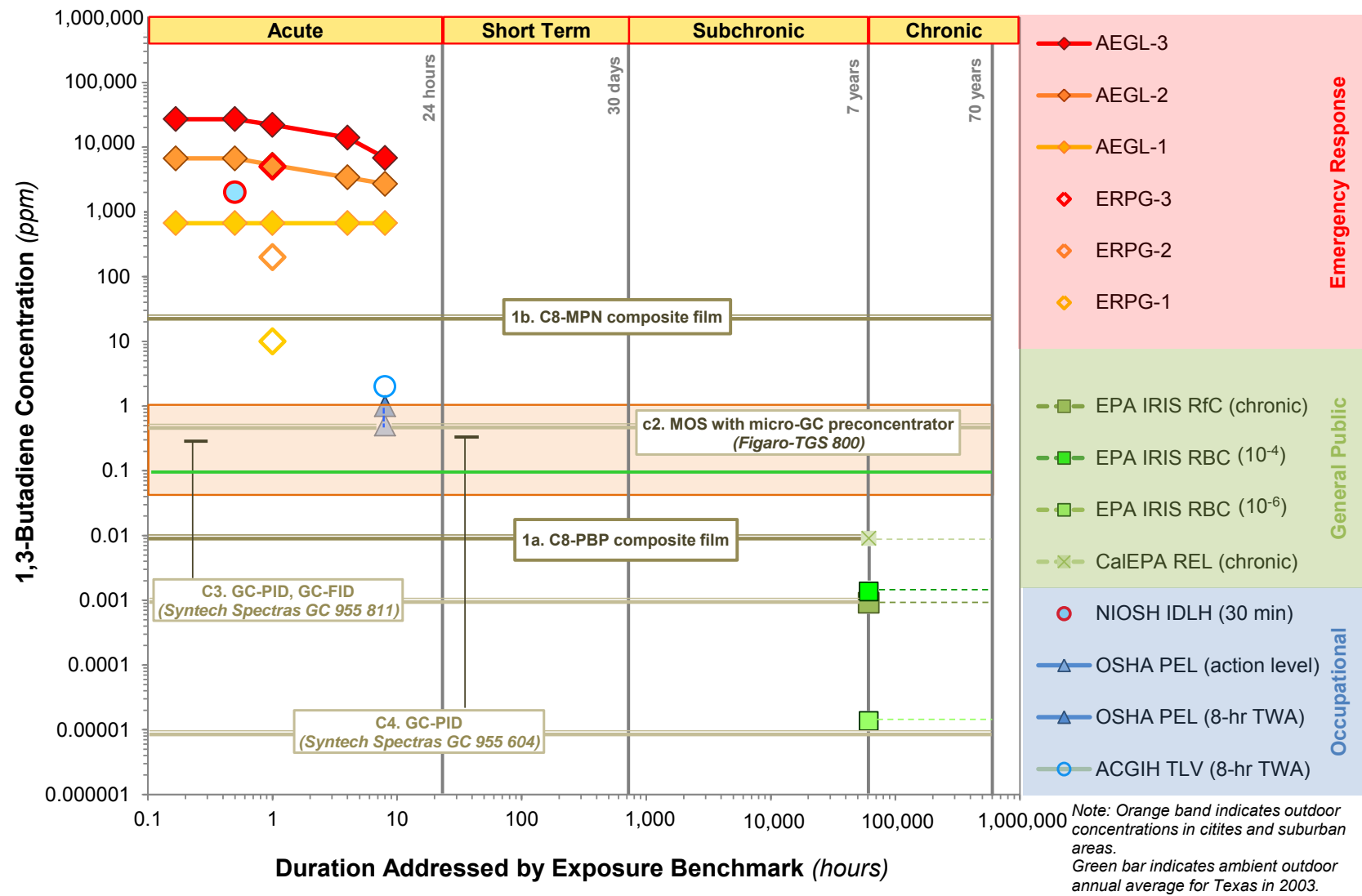


FIGURE 3-9 1,3-Butadiene: Comparison of Detection Levels to Exposure Benchmarks and Example Concentrations

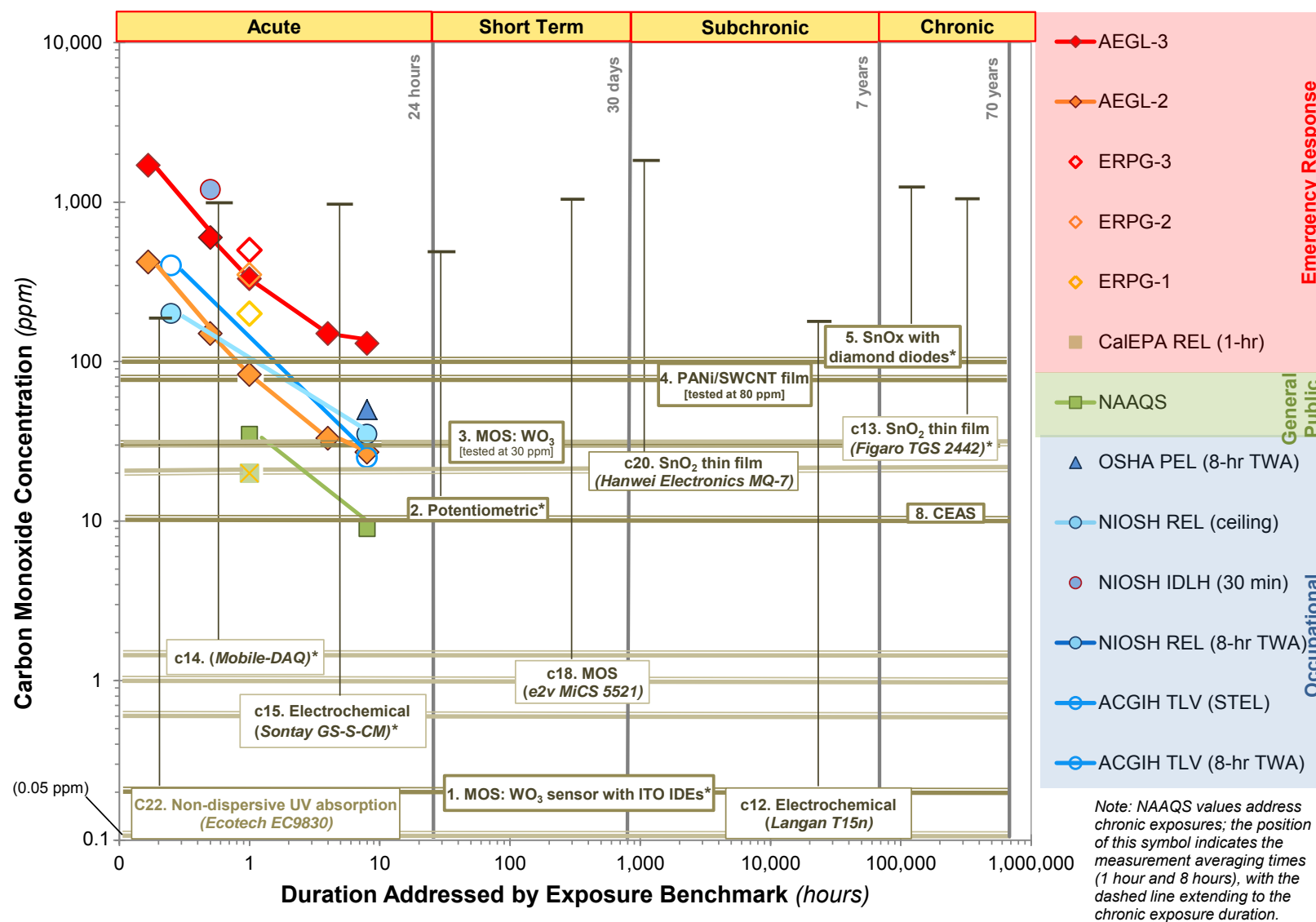


FIGURE 3-10 Carbon Monoxide: Comparison of Detection Levels to Exposure Benchmarks

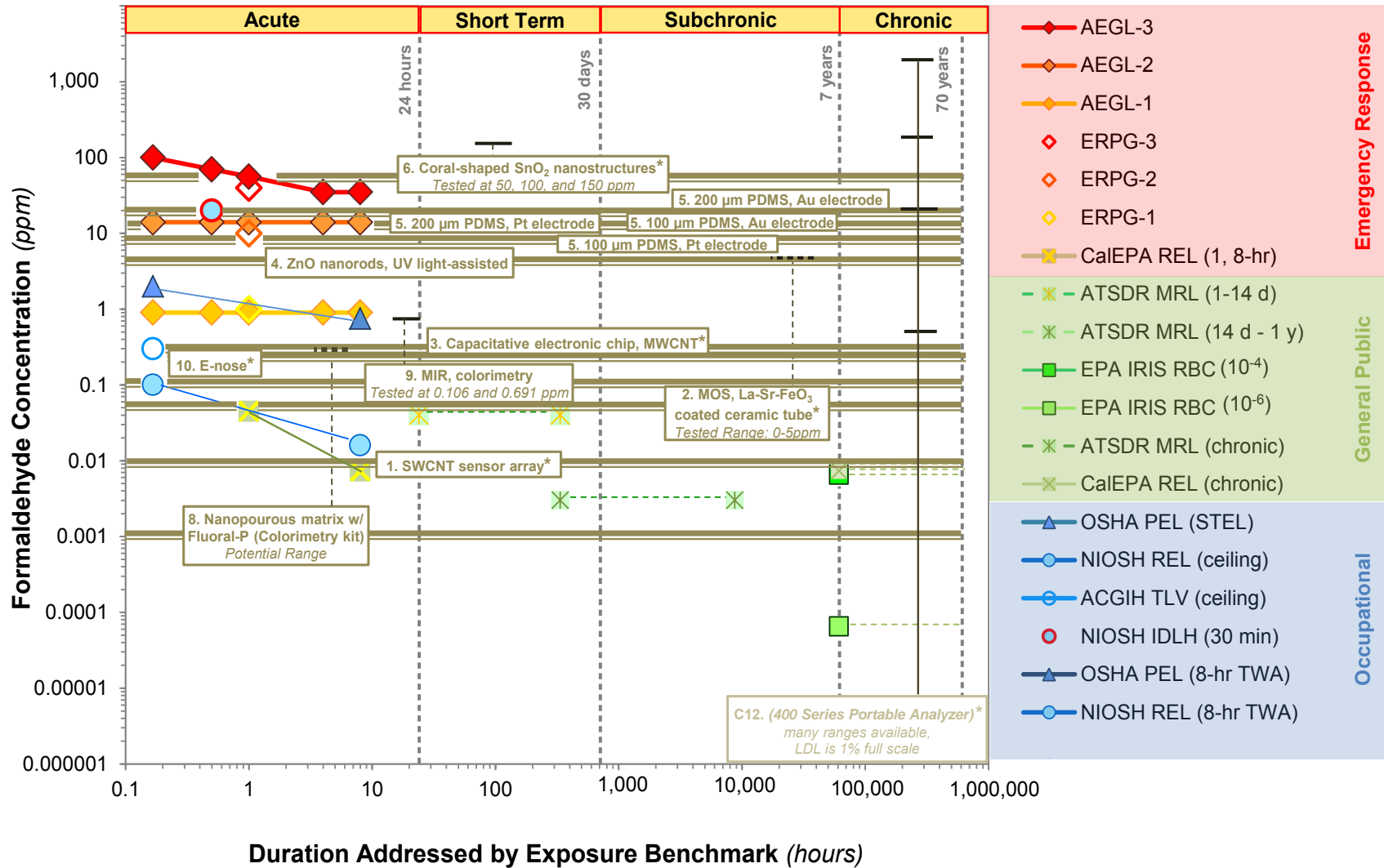


FIGURE 3-11. Formaldehyde: Comparison of Detection Levels to Exposure Benchmarks

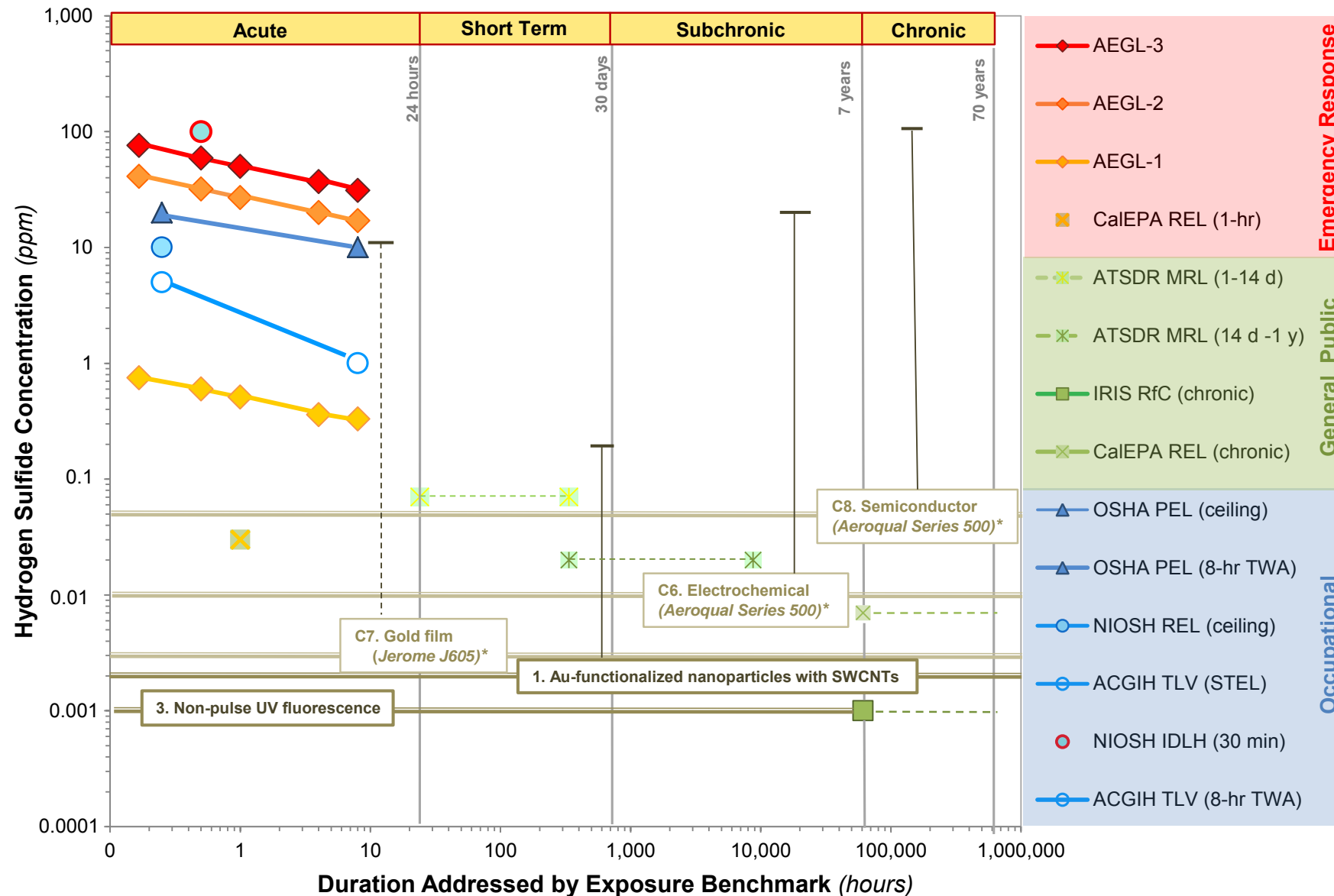


FIGURE 3-12 Hydrogen Sulfide: Comparison of Detection Levels to Exposure Benchmarks

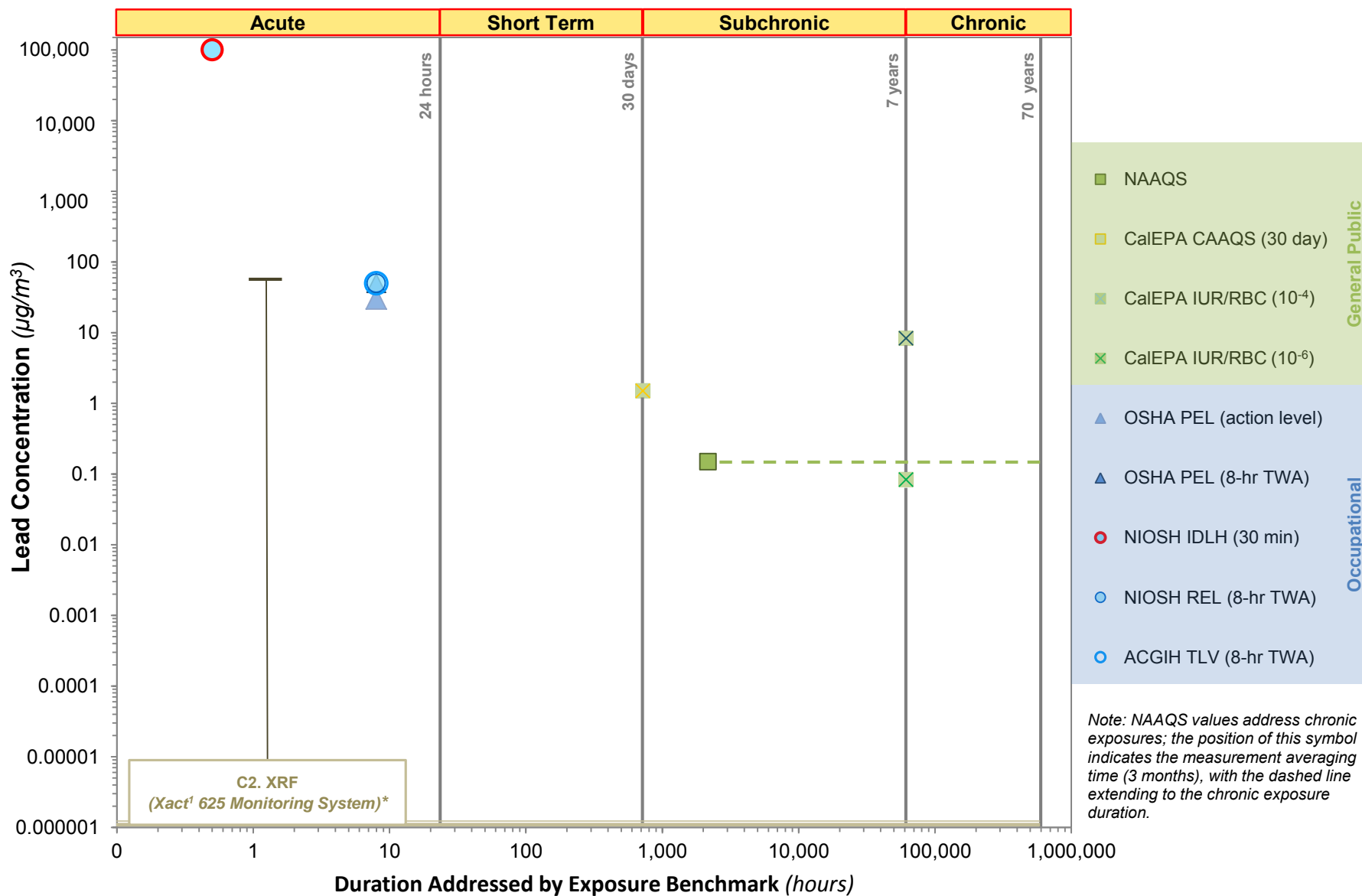


FIGURE 3-13 Lead: Comparison of Detection Levels to Exposure Benchmarks

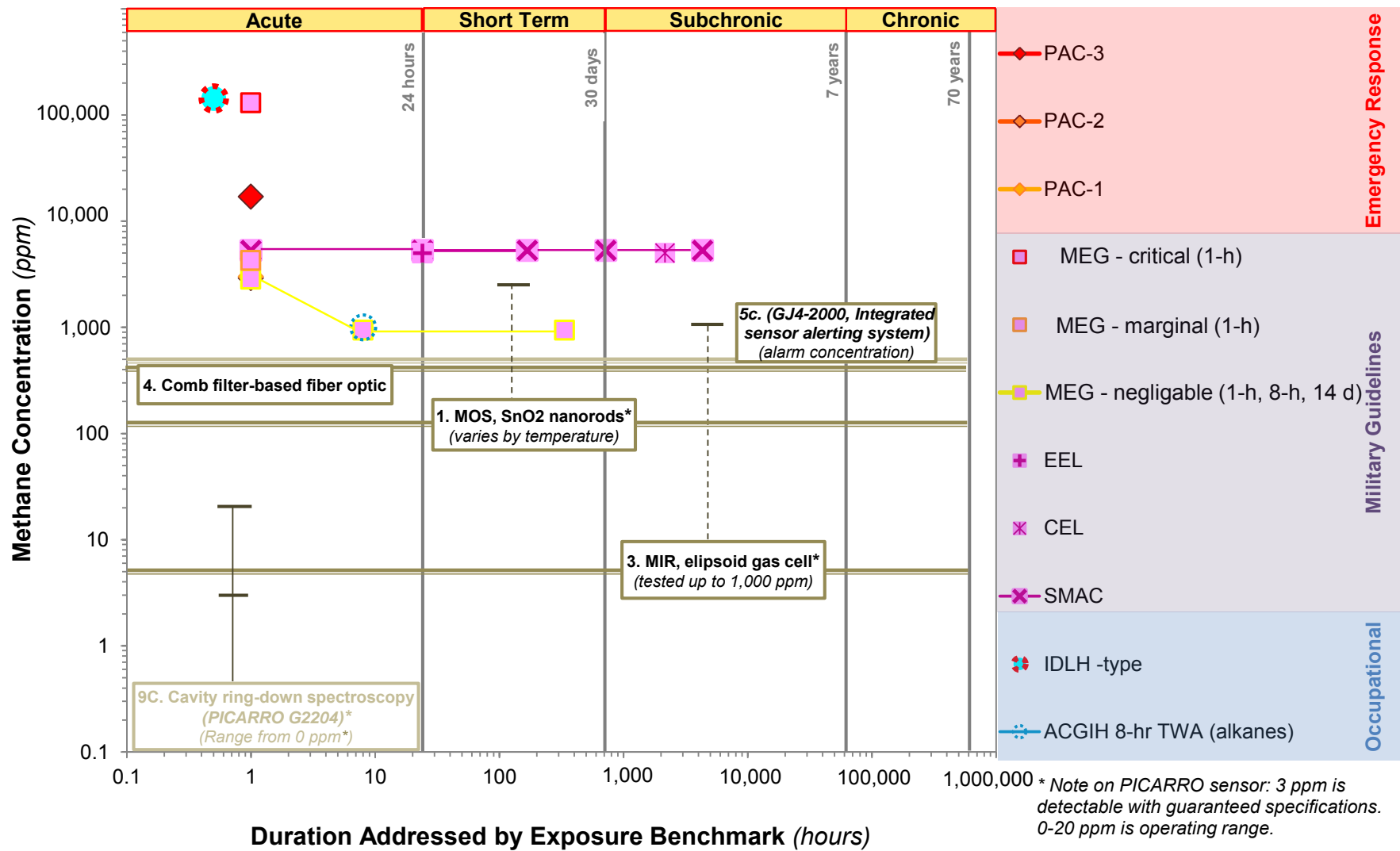


FIGURE 3-14 Methane: Comparison of Detection Levels to Exposure Benchmarks

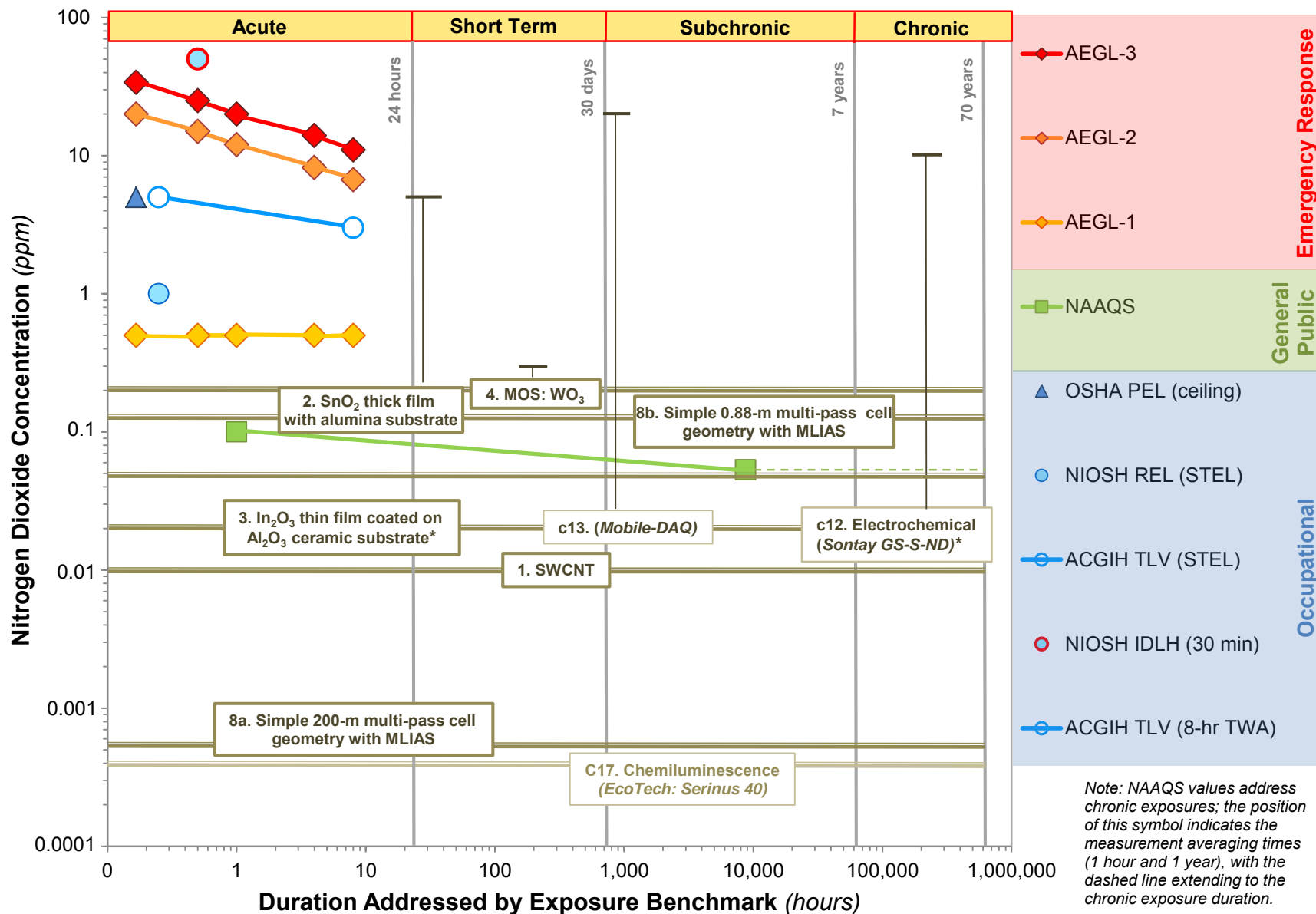


FIGURE 3-15 Nitrogen Dioxide: Comparison of Detection Levels to Exposure Benchmarks

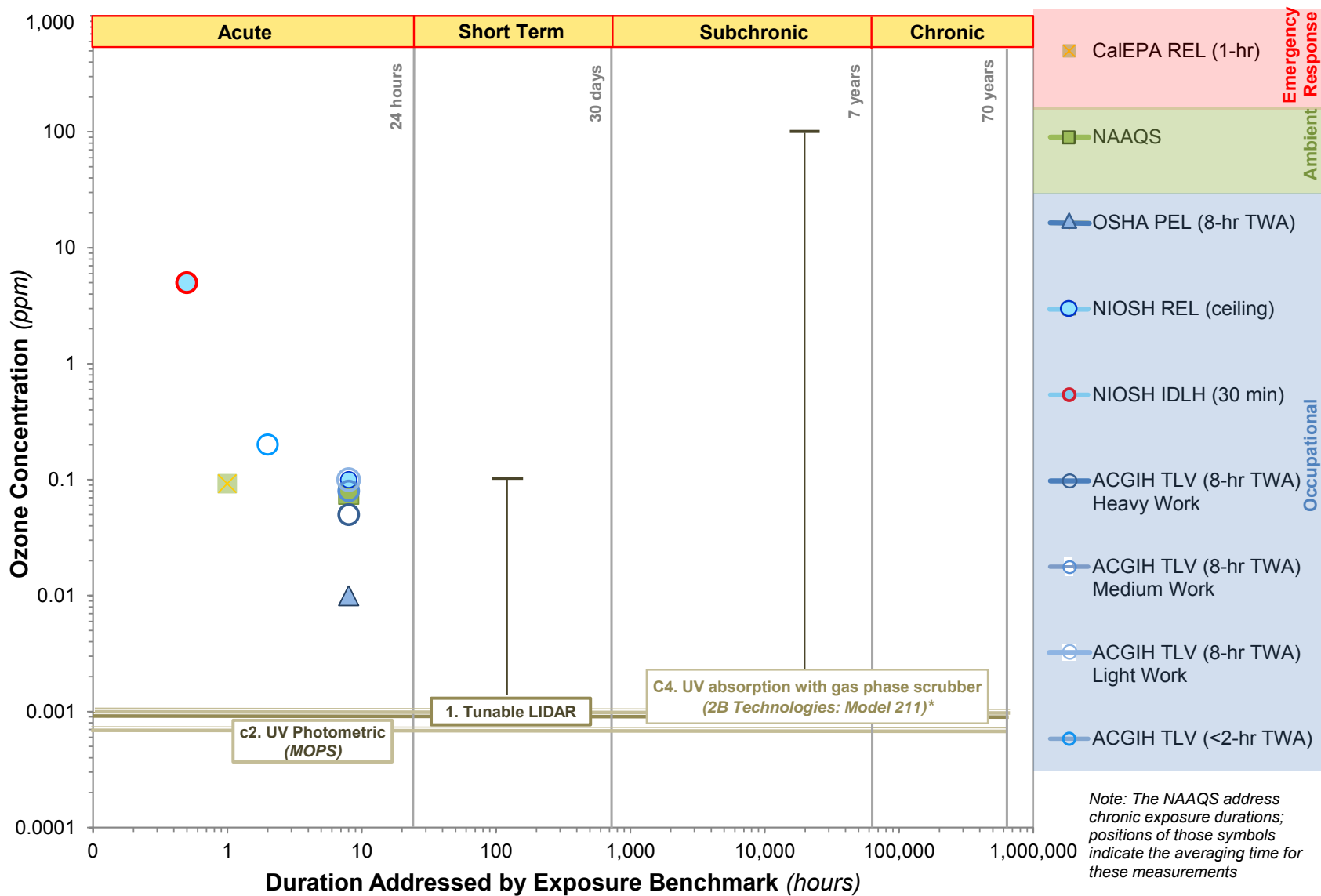


FIGURE 3-16 Ozone: Comparison of Detection Levels to Exposure Benchmarks

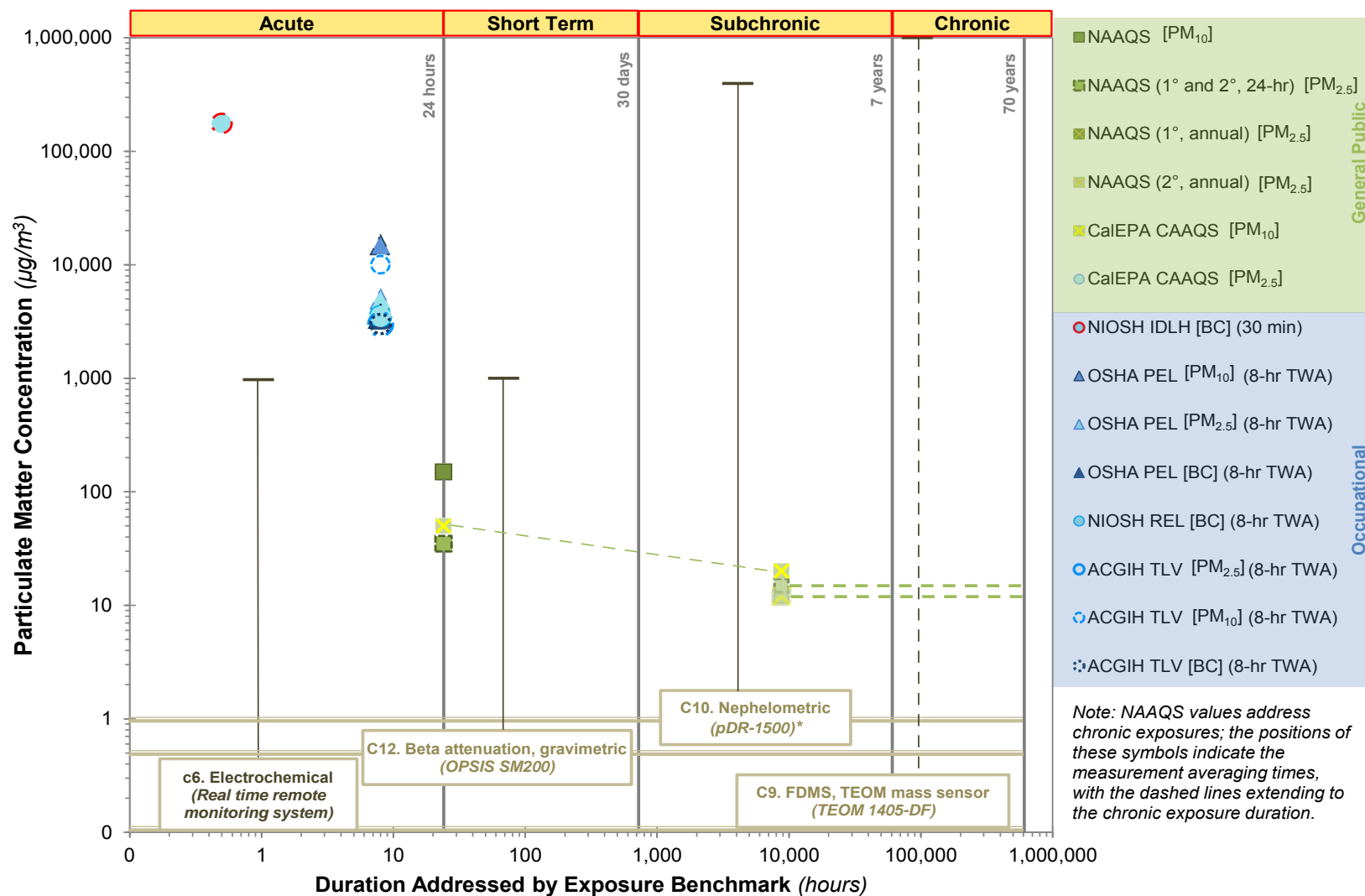


FIGURE 3-17 Particulate Matter: Comparison of Detection Levels to Exposure Benchmarks

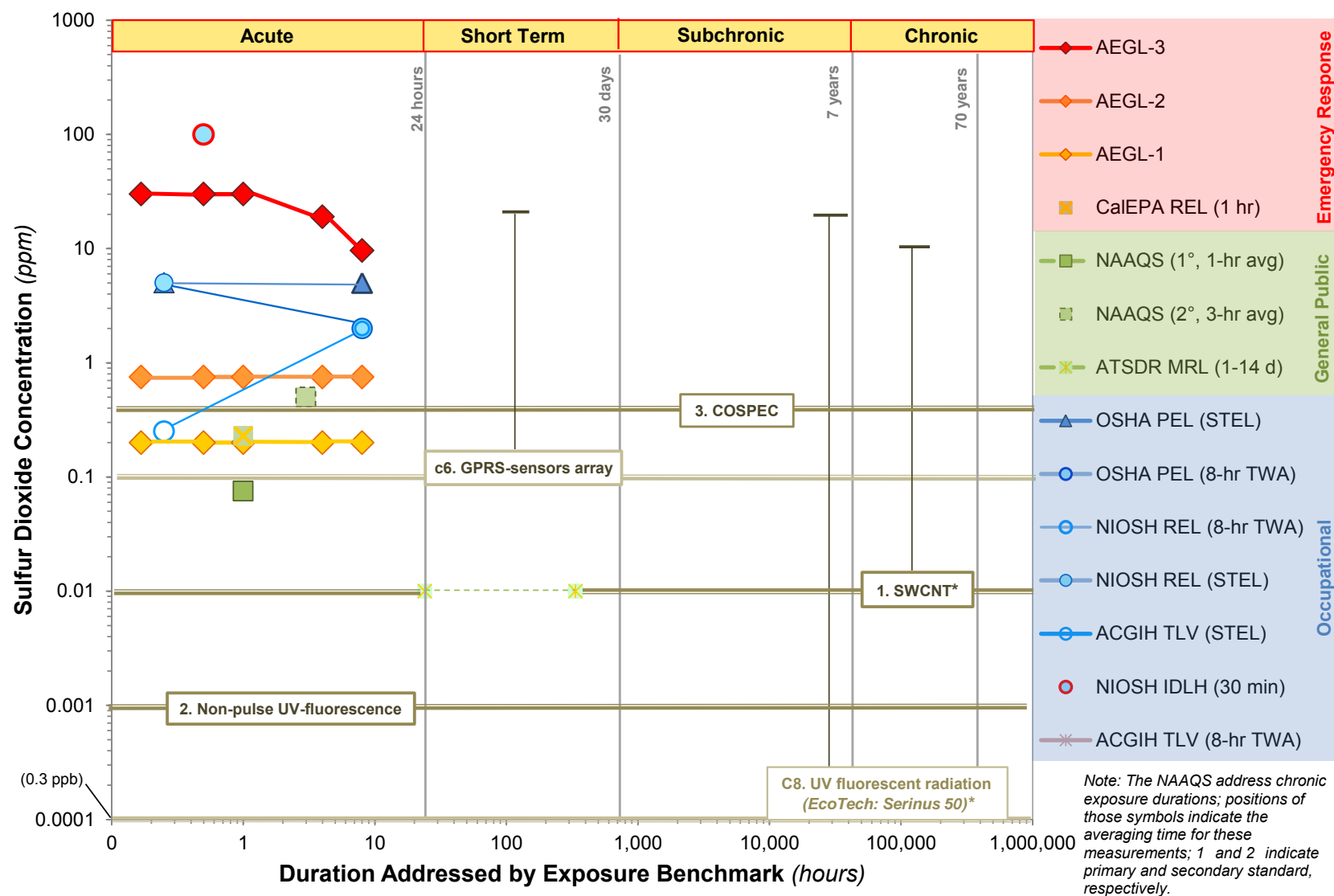


FIGURE 3-10 Sulfur Dioxide: Comparison of Detection Levels to Exposure Benchmarks

From the information evaluated in this report, it appears that the criteria pollutant gases can be detected across the range of existing health-based benchmarks. Some electrochemical sensors are appearing to show promise for some gases, such as ozone and nitrogen dioxide, at the part per billion (ppb) level. However, rarely do current technologies achieve concentrations in that range (or in the ppm range for carbon monoxide), and that capability has long been a critical need for epidemiologists, in order to reduce some of the high uncertainty in the exposure estimates used for those studies. The same need to characterize individual exposures also applies to emerging personalized medicine studies.

Beyond the challenge of reliably detecting low concentrations, interferences also represent a difficult issue for gas sensors. Almost all will respond to interferences, and in some cases the response can be quite dramatic. Thus, not only do emerging sensors need to demonstrate detection capabilities in the low ppb range and lower, they must also demonstrate specificity, to be able to detect the pollutant gas of interest over a wide range of temperatures and environmental conditions, including in the presence of interferences. Many sensors have difficulty separating the target pollutant from interfering gases, which can result in high readings. See Chapter 4 for additional discussion of interferences.

Similar to the needs described above for the criteria pollutant gases, lead poses a substantial gap, and detection capabilities for this pollutant are quite limited. Thus, opportunities exist for developing smaller, less expensive, reliable, accurate sensors for all criteria pollutants over a range of temperatures and environmental conditions, including under high humidity and in the presence of interferences such as other gases. Because of the concern that even very low concentrations of lead can produce adverse health effects, research and development needs for sensors that can detect lead at sufficiently low levels are particularly pressing.

Several other pollutants may not be detectable across the range of health-based benchmarks, particularly at concentrations established for lifetime exposures. Only three pollutants were reported to be detected by a research or commercial sensor at the concentration corresponding to an incremental lifetime cancer risk of 10^{-4} and/or reference concentration (RfC) that represents a safe level for noncancer effects. These pollutants are benzene and 1,3-butadiene (HAPs) and hydrogen sulfide (indicator pollutant). (Regarding 1,3-butadiene, CalEPA [2013] recently proposed new reference exposure levels, notably 297 ppb for acute (1-hr) exposures, 13 ppb for 8-hr exposures, and 3 ppb for chronic exposures, which is lower than the extant value shown in Figure 3-9.)

Four pollutants – acetaldehyde, acrolein, ammonia, and formaldehyde – are potentially detectable at concentrations corresponding to 10^{-4} risk but not at the lower concentration corresponding to an incremental risk of 10^{-6} (point of departure) and/or at the RfC established to protect against adverse noncancer effects. (As a note for formaldehyde, the commercial sensor reflected on the graphical array can detect concentrations ranging from 0 to 20, 200, or 2000 ppm, with a minimum of 1.0% full scale).

Regarding benchmarks for higher concentrations, such as emergency response or occupational levels, it appears that these levels could potentially be detected but this cannot actually be determined without further information in some cases. Sensor response time is an important aspect of sensing capabilities, and that is not accounted for in the arrays; thus, the "effective detection capability" for short-duration benchmarks is not known. For example, even if a sensor could detect a concentration at or below a level established for the 10-minute emergency response level or a 15-minute ceiling value for the workplace, the sensor response and recovery time may not be sufficient for that concentration to be measured during the target time interval.

To illustrate, if the response time were 20 minutes or the device needed 20 minutes to refresh between sampling, then the pollutant could easily be missed during that measurement period even if the concentration were high.

A second important qualification for the initial findings is that for some sensors, because of incomplete reporting, it is not known whether certain pollutant concentrations could be detected or not. That is, the detection range is missing from many research publications, and in others the range only reflects the predetermined concentrations tested. Furthermore, many of the sensor capabilities reported in these research highlights have not been validated, including many LDLs, detection ranges, and accuracies. Without that information, no definitive statements can be made regarding sensor capabilities, including whether a given sensor can detect relatively high concentrations such as for emergency response situations. In fact, for a number of sensing technologies/techniques, high concentrations could potentially overwhelm the sensing substrate (such as a film), thus making it difficult to assure that the pollutant would be detected during the short intervals addressed by those guidelines.

3.5.2 Plots of Example Concentrations and Sensor Detection Levels

As complements to the graphical arrays (which compare reported sensor detection levels to exposure benchmarks), additional plots were developed to compare reported detection levels to example pollutant concentrations listed in various studies, to help frame the evaluation of gaps and opportunities. These further practical comparisons are shown in Figures 3-19 through 3-30. (As noted in Section 3.5.1, because little information was found to suggest illustrative concentrations for ammonia, benzene, and 1,3-butadiene, the example concentrations for these pollutants are included in their graphical arrays, see Figures 3-7 through 3-9.)

The following observations are offered from the comparison of reported sensor detection capabilities for the study pollutants and example concentrations across a variety of settings, as illustrated in Figures 3-19 through 3-30.

Acetaldehyde: Sensors can potentially detect the higher concentrations shown in Figure 3-19, such as those identified for gasoline and diesel exhaust, ambient Los Angeles air; and smoking households. However, the example ambient average and illustrative concentrations for the California air basin and regions in New York and Alaska fall below the reported detection levels, so many concentrations across the U.S. may not be addressed.

Acrolein: The sensors identified (inter- and intra-pulsed QCL) might be able to detect the higher example concentrations shown for indoor and outdoor air, but they would not be able to detect other concentrations shown in this range. In any case, even the concentrations reported here must be considered somewhat uncertain, given the continuing difficulties involved in accurately measuring this chemical in air.

Ammonia: Several research sensors can potentially detect the concentration range indicated for the global ambient average (see Figure 3-7).

Benzene: Two commercial sensors (GC-PIDs) and a novel system that incorporates a commercial sensor can potentially detect benzene concentrations in the example range represented on Figure 3-8 (U.S. ambient levels for 2009). However, the detection levels reported for the sensors found for this report lie above that range.

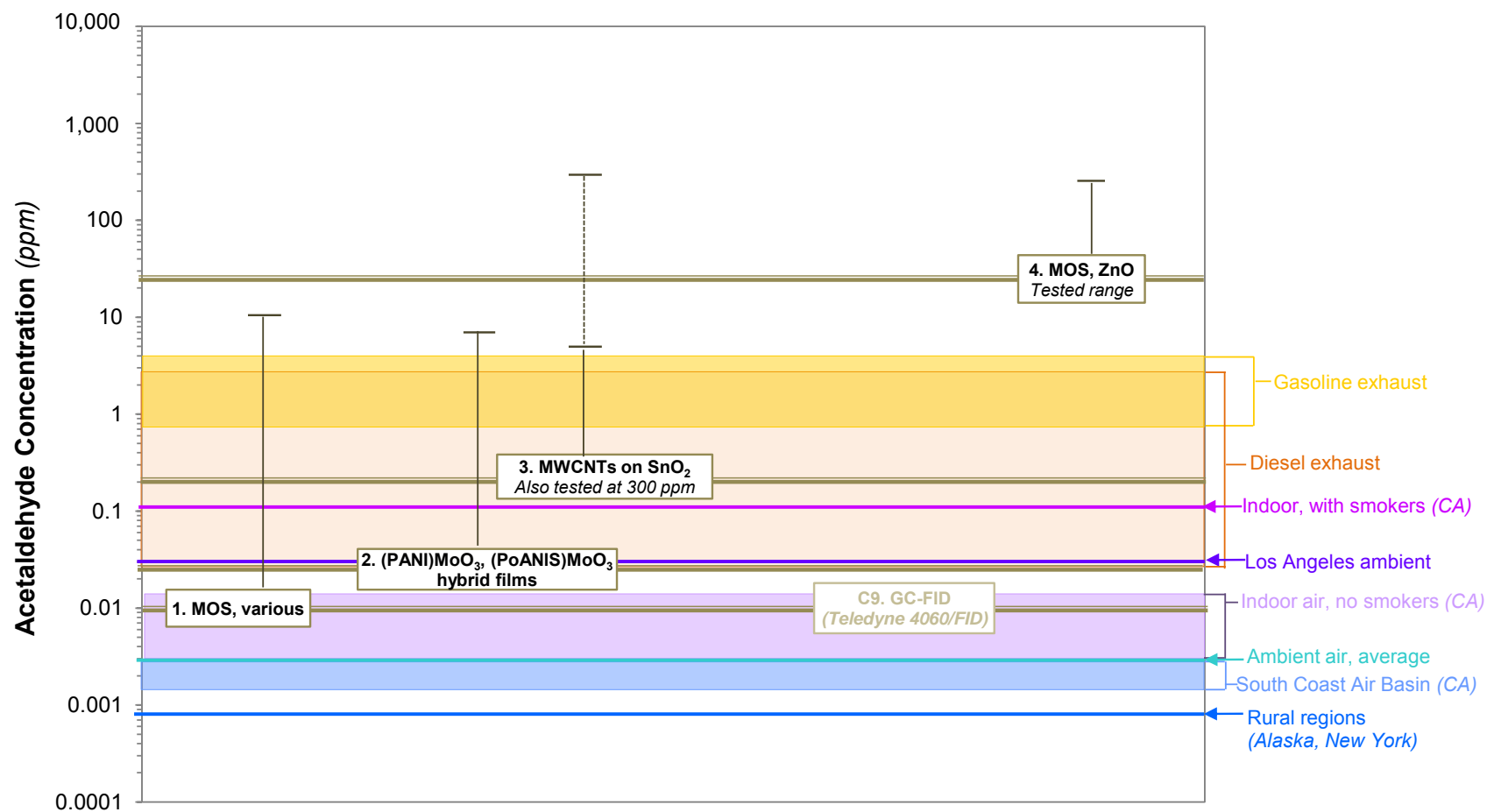


FIGURE 3-19 Acetaldehyde: Comparison of Detection Levels to Example Concentrations

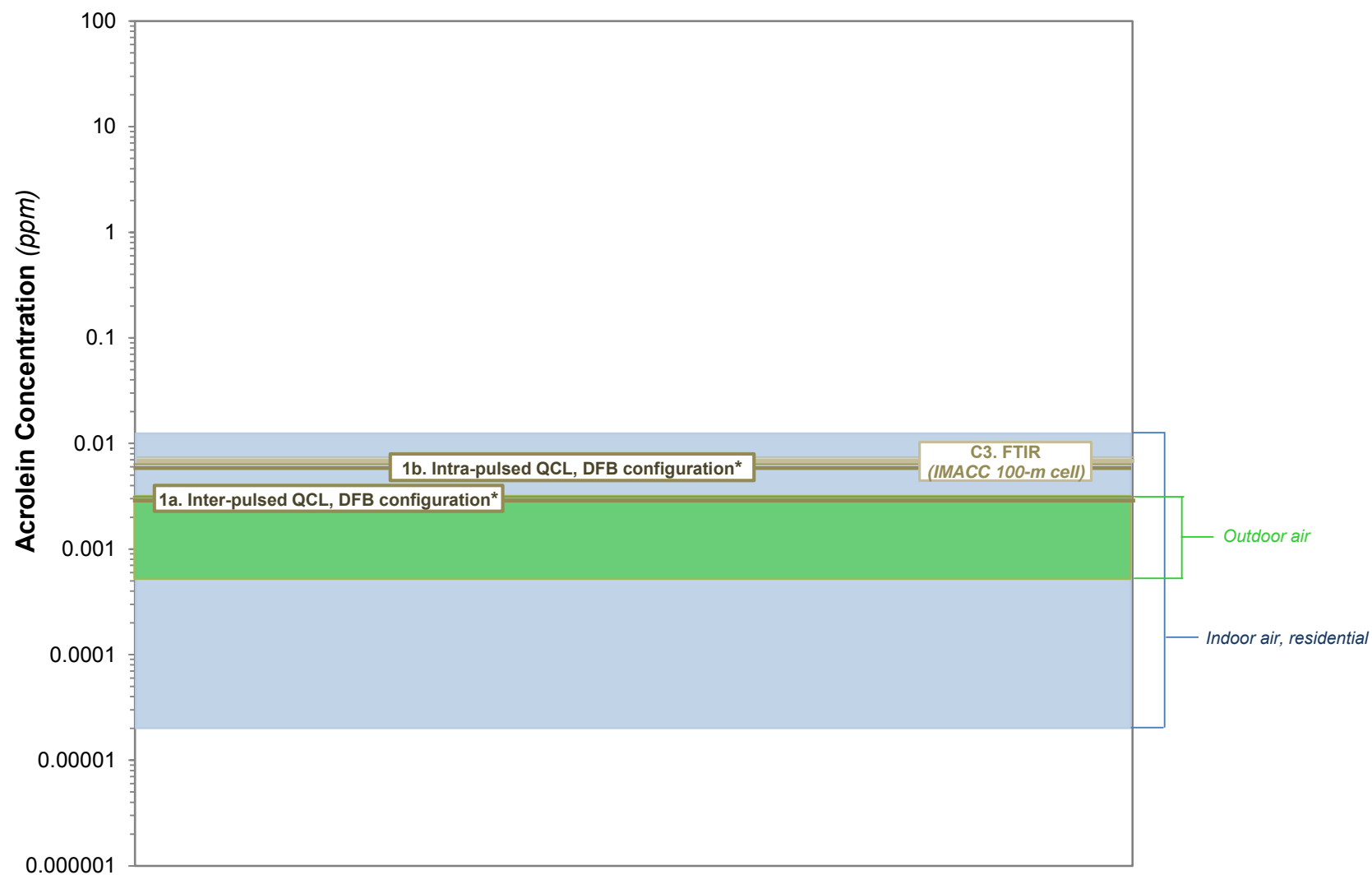


FIGURE 3-20 Acrolein: Comparison of Detection Levels to Example Concentrations

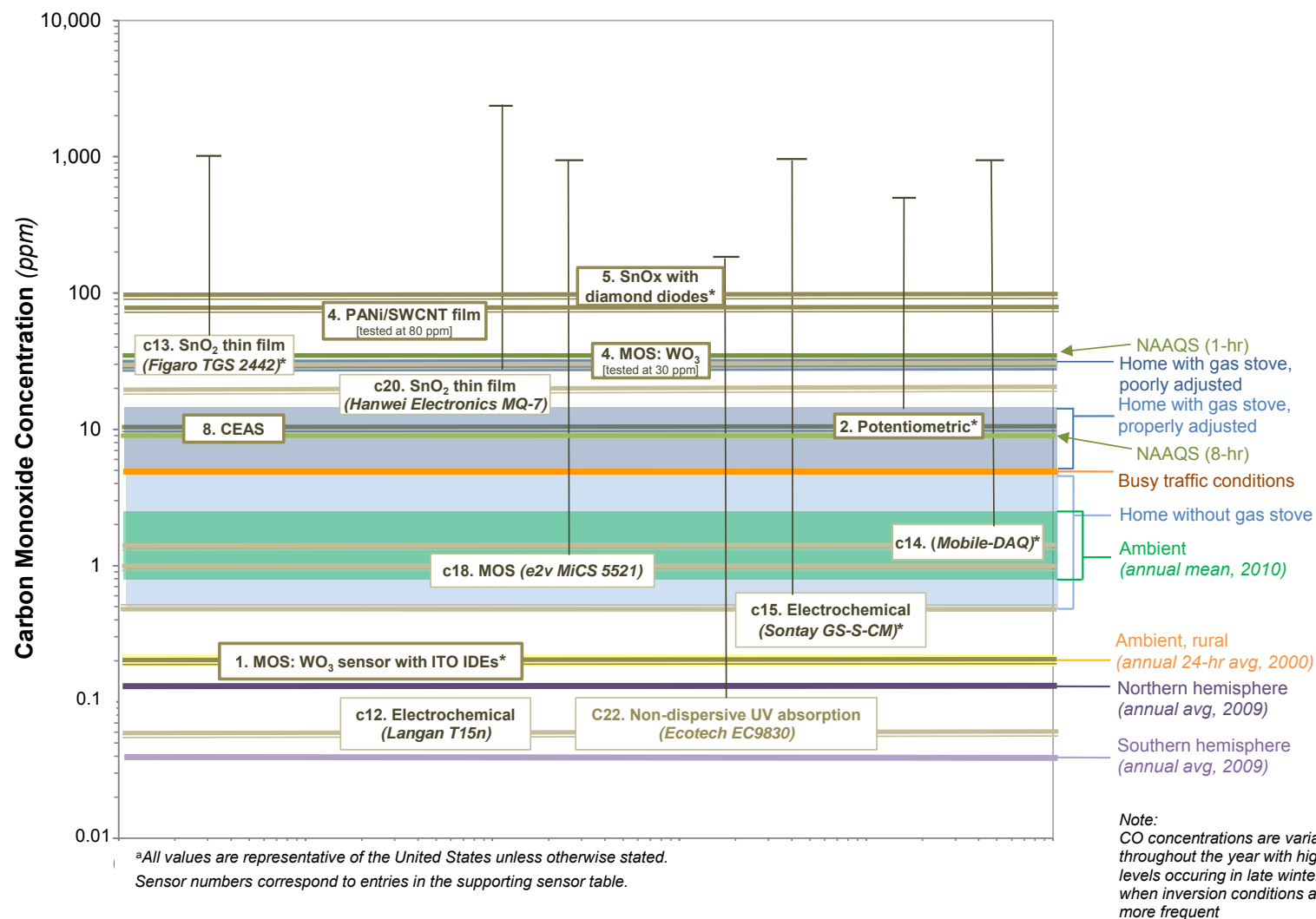
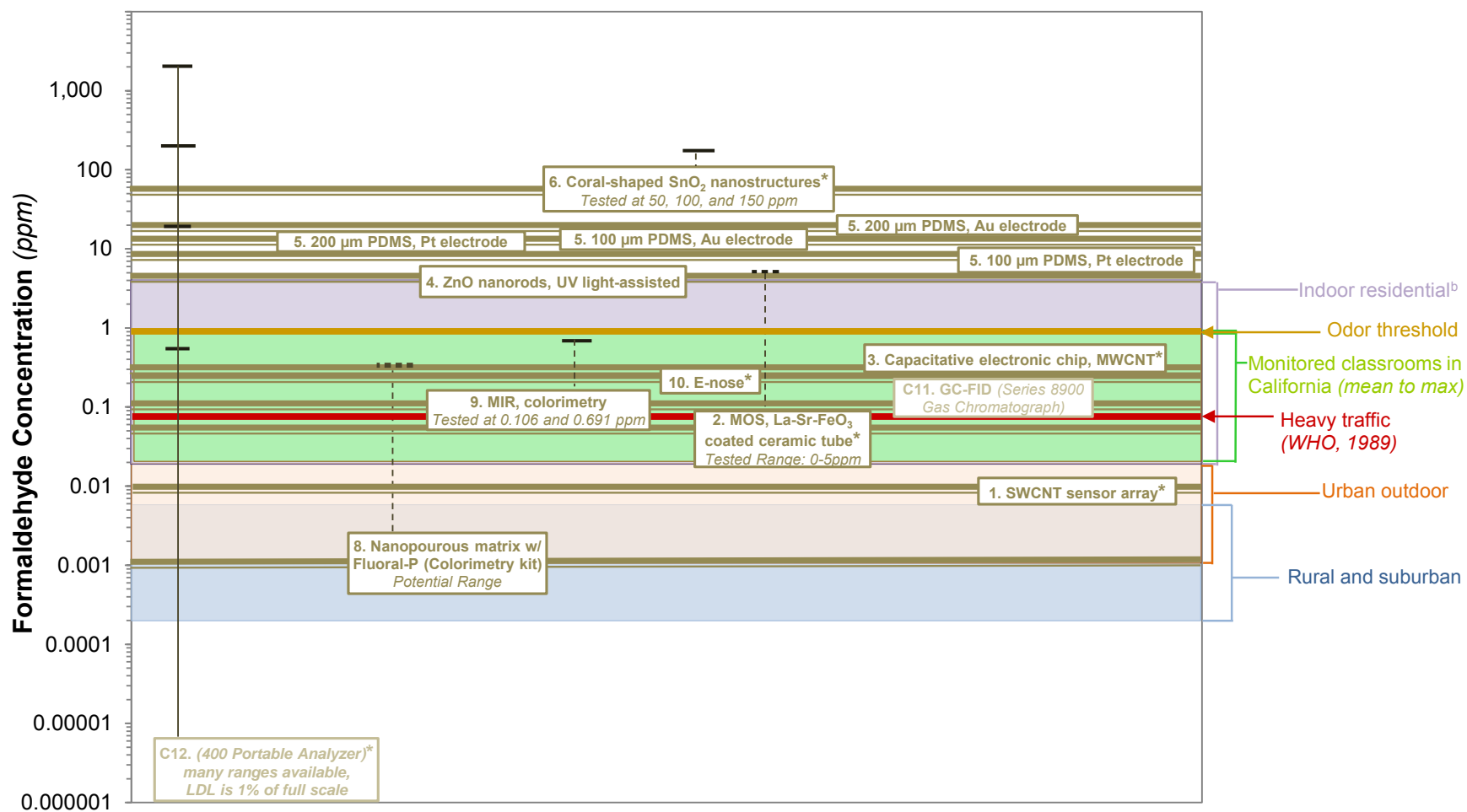


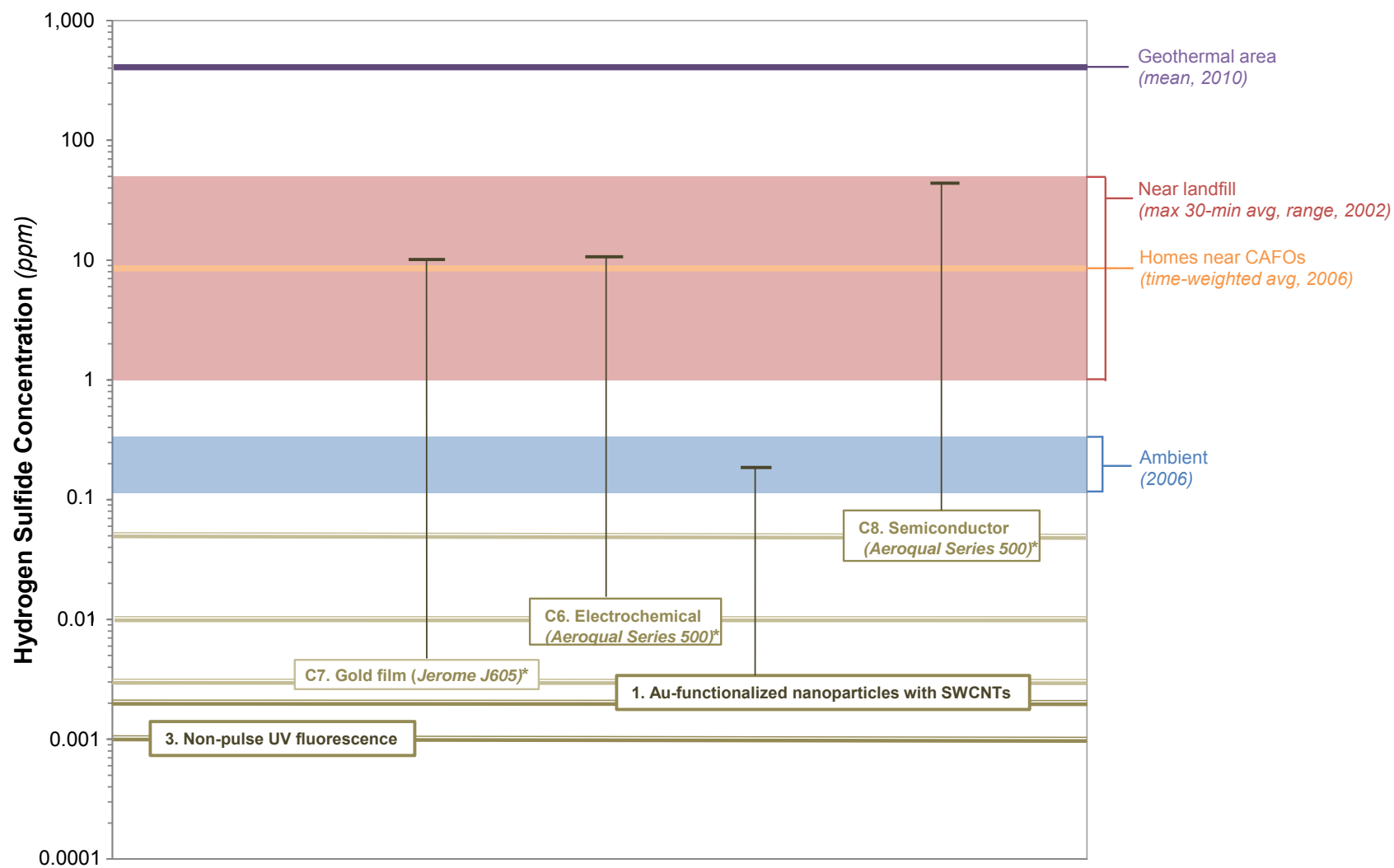
FIGURE 3-21 Carbon Monoxide: Comparison of Detection Levels to Example Concentrations

(Note that the Langan T15n can reasonably detect concentrations of 0.1 ppm, but values below that level are considered uncertain.)



^a All values are representative of the United States unless otherwise stated
Sensor numbers correspond to entries in the supporting sensor table.

^b Indoor residential concentrations vary widely due to differences in room sizes, air exchange rates, and emission sources (such as gas space heaters, gas stoves with or without pilot lights, and fireplaces).



*All values are representative of the United States unless otherwise stated.

Sensor numbers correspond to entries in the supporting sensor table.

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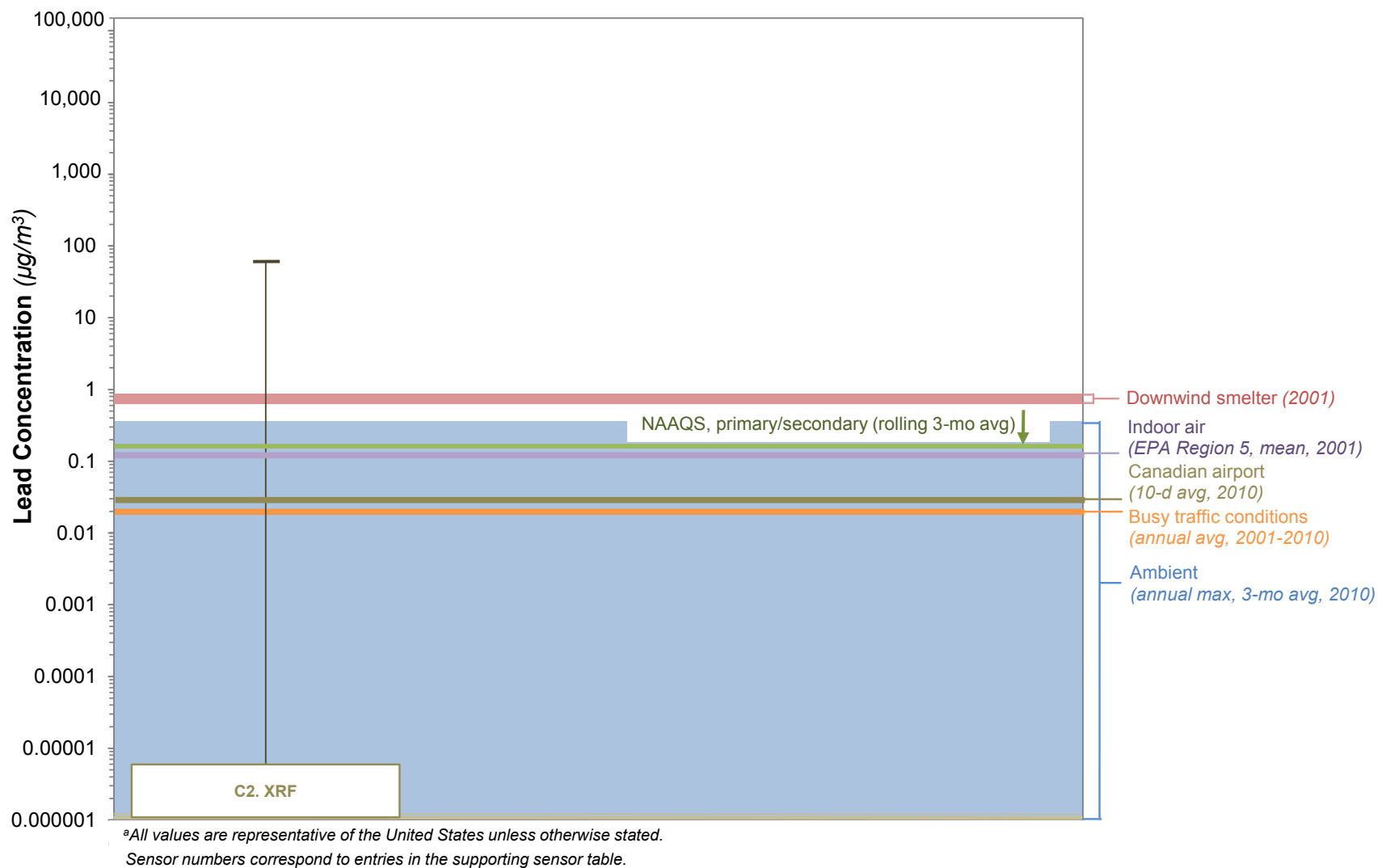
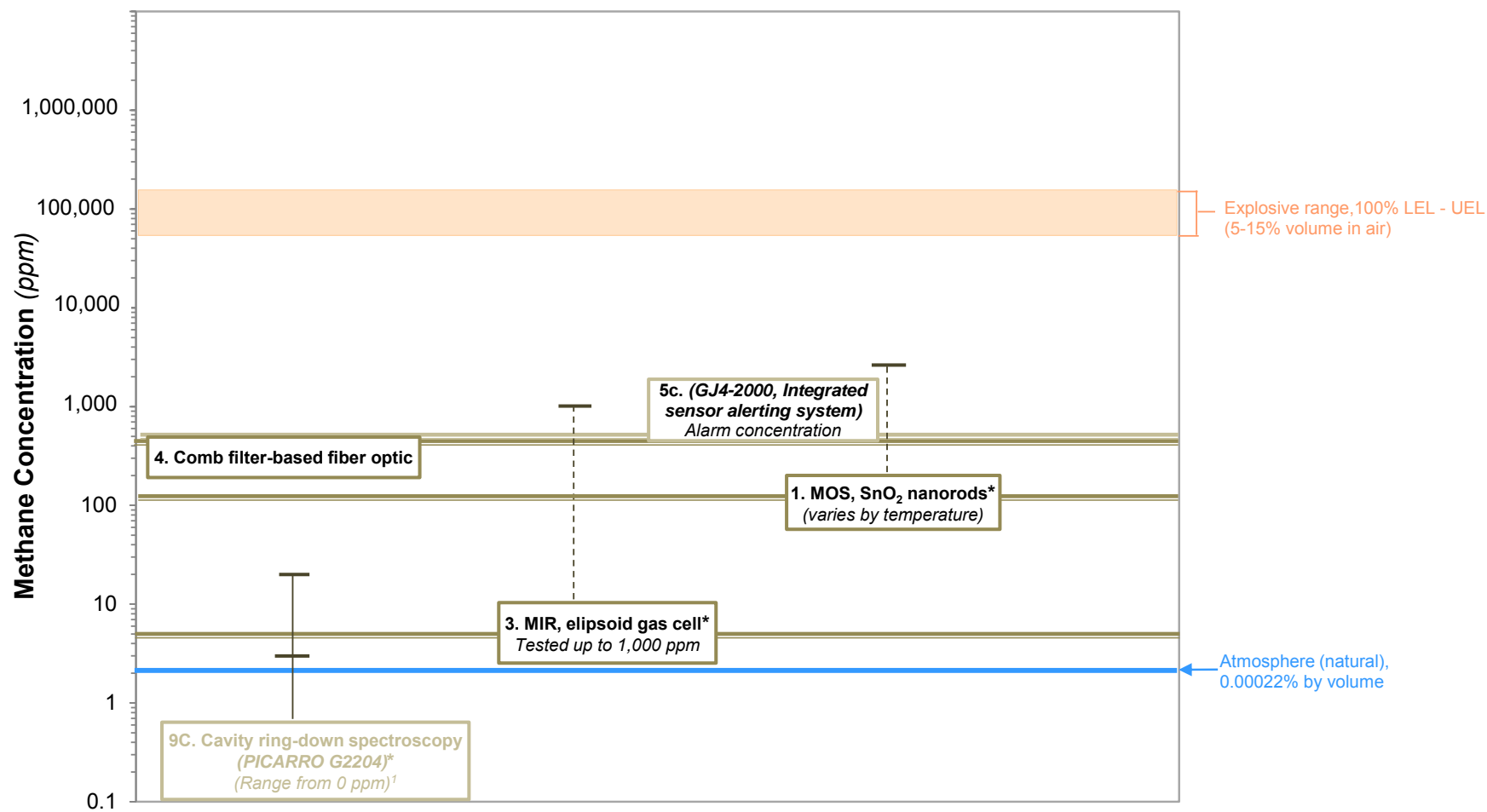


FIGURE 3-24 Lead: Comparison of Detection Levels to Example Concentrations



¹3 ppm is detectable with guaranteed specifications; 0-20 ppm is operating range.

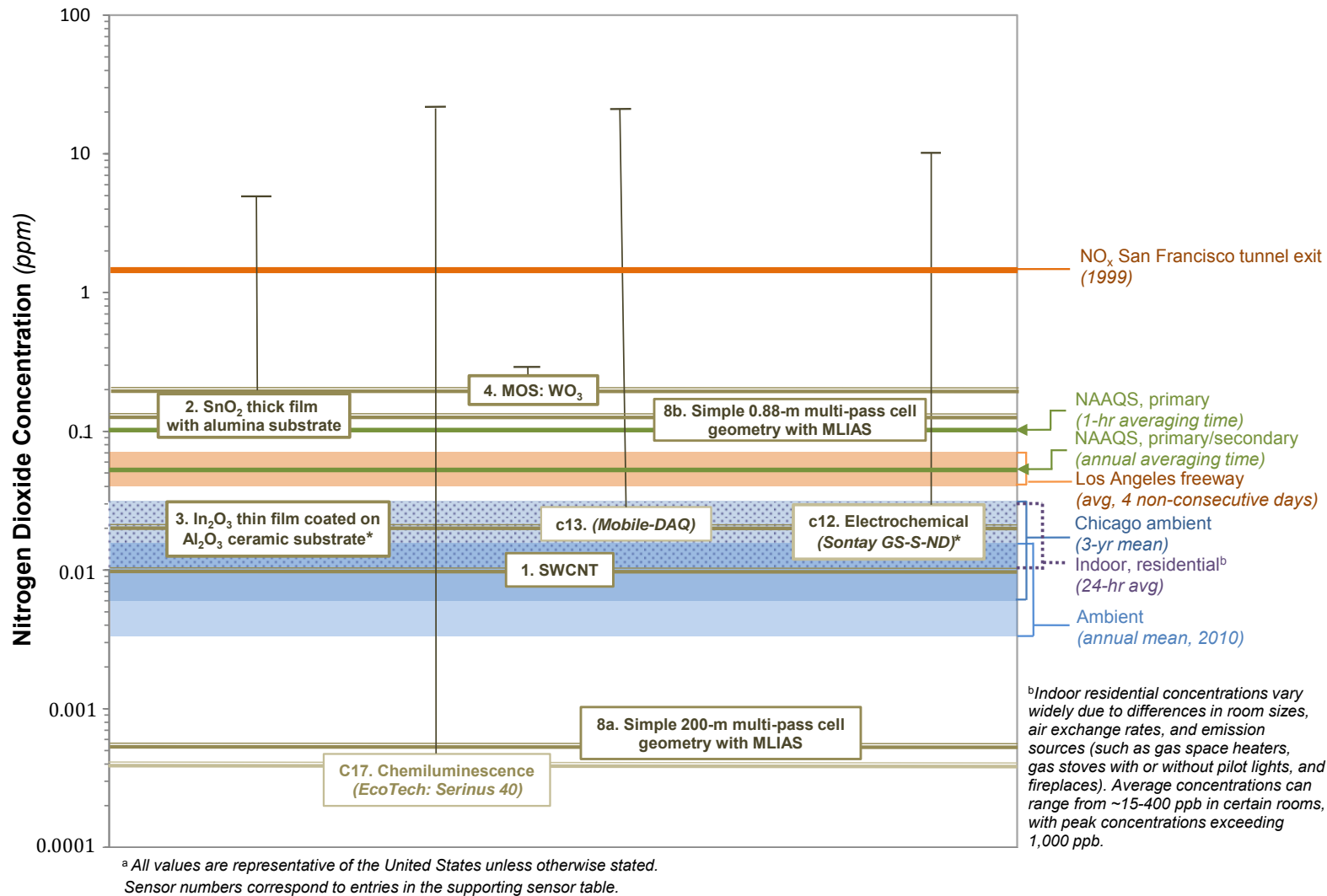


FIGURE 3-26 Nitrogen Dioxide: Comparison of Detection Levels to Example Concentrations

(Note that some electrochemical sensors appear to show promise at the ppb level for some gases, like NO₂ and ozone.)

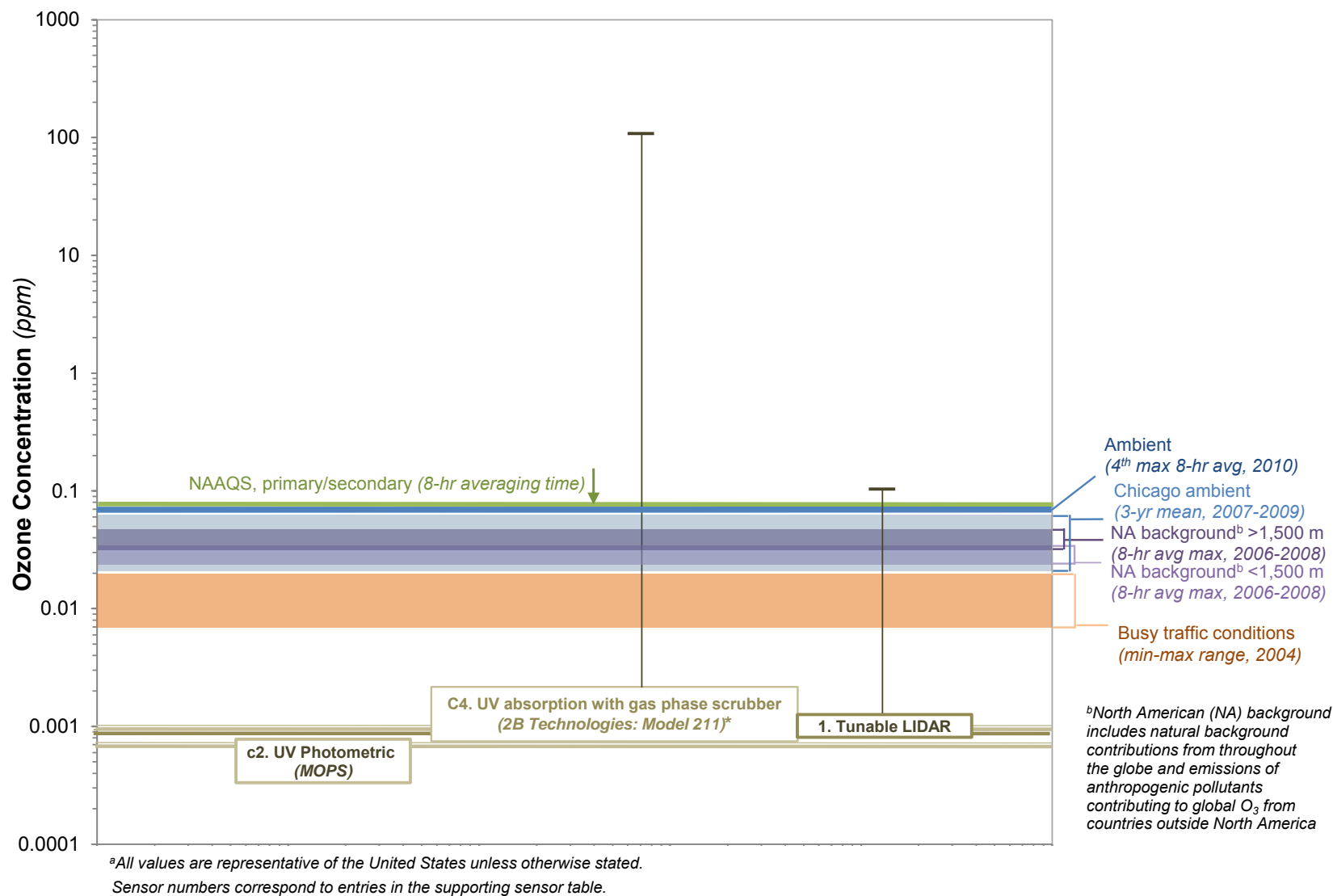


FIGURE 3-27 Ozone: Comparison of Detection Levels to Example Concentrations

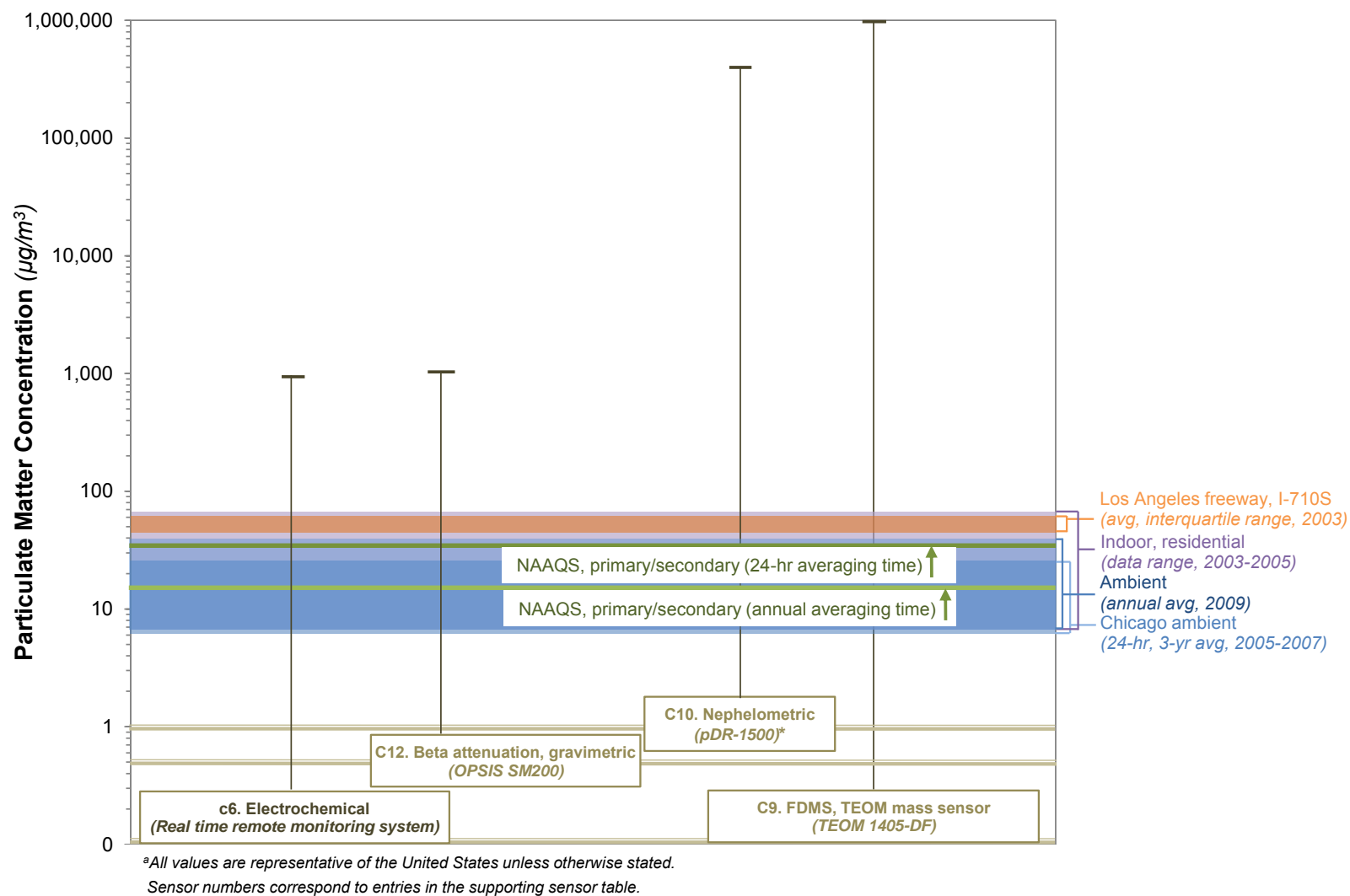


FIGURE 3-28 PM_{2.5}: Comparison of Detection Levels to Example Concentrations

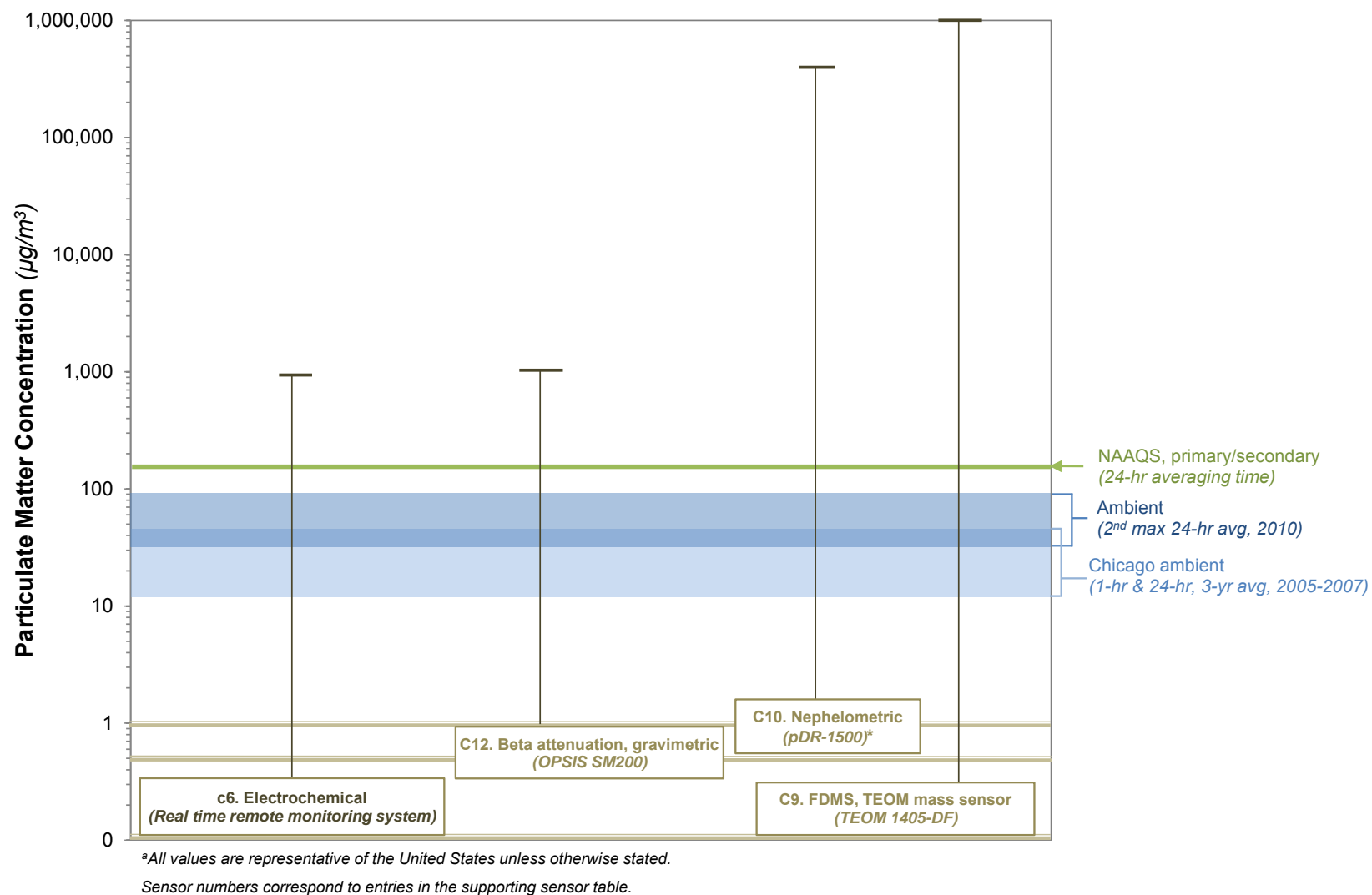
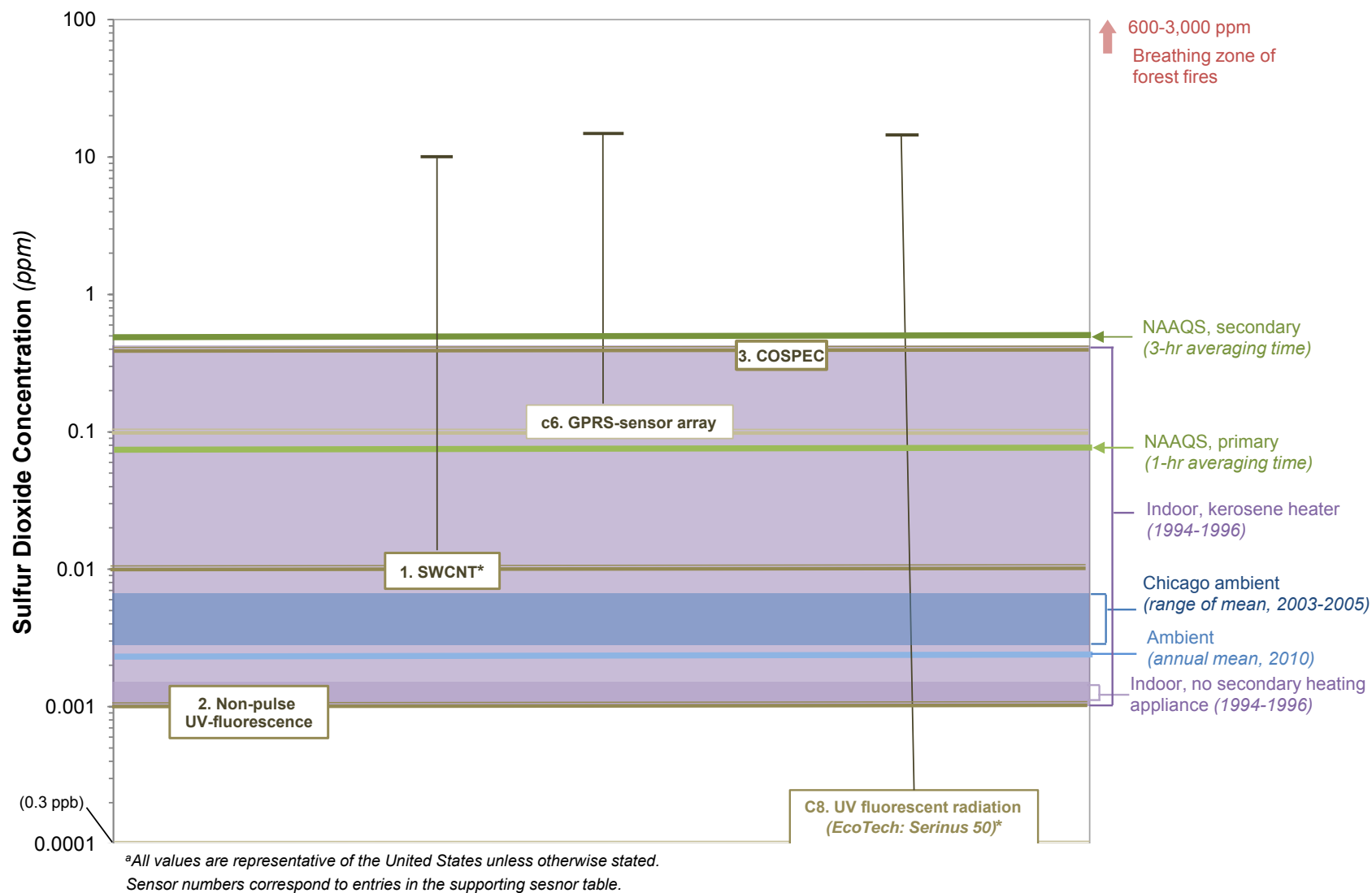


FIGURE 3-29 PM₁₀: Comparison of Detection Levels to Example Concentrations



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1,3-Butadiene: Two commercial sensors (GC-PID and GC-FID) can detect concentrations in the range identified for outdoor concentrations for cities and suburban areas, as well as the outdoor annual average for Texas reported for 2003 (see Figure 3-9). The reported detection level for one novel system that uses a commercial sensor (MOS with micro-GC pre-concentrator) also lies within the range for cities and urban areas. However, it is not clear whether the composite film research sensor can detect those levels (the LDL lies below that ambient range but no detection range is identified). A companion research sensor based on the same technique lies well above the example concentration range for cities and urban areas.

Carbon monoxide: Commercial sensors can detect the example concentrations reported for this compound, as can a novel system that uses a commercial electrochemical sensor. Note that this sensor (Langan) can detect concentrations to about 1 ppm, but below that level the values are highly uncertain. As with many sensors and systems being developed or refined, the device can report a value, but whether it should (per validity) is a different matter. Some research sensors could potentially detect the higher example concentrations shown. They might also be able to detect some of the lower concentrations (the LDL lies below those ranges), but this is not known because the detection range was not reported.

Formaldehyde: Reported detection levels for several research sensors lie within the example concentration ranges identified for several settings, including residential homes and classrooms (California), as well as in urban areas, heavy traffic zones, and the upper range of rural and suburban outdoor concentrations.

Hydrogen sulfide: Commercial sensors can potentially detect this pollutant at the example concentrations shown. One research sensor (based on gold-functionalized nanoparticles with carbon nanotubes) might also be able to detect concentrations represented by the general ambient U.S. level from 2006. It is not clear whether a second research sensor (non-pulse UV fluorescence) can also potentially measure that level, because the reported LDL is much lower and no detection range was reported for that sensor.

Lead: The one commercial sensor identified for lead in air can detect the example concentrations shown, including the ambient U.S. concentration from 2010.

Methane: The reported LDLs of the research sensors for methane are higher than the natural atmospheric concentration, but least two could potentially detect this compound below its alarm concentration and explosive level. A novel system that uses a commercial sensor can also potentially detect methane at the alarm level.

Nitrogen dioxide: Research sensors can potentially detect this compound at the example ambient concentrations reported both for Chicago and the United States; the same finding applies for a commercial sensor that uses chemiluminescence and a novel sensor system that uses a commercial electrochemical sensor.

Ozone: A research sensor (using a tunable LIDAR technique) can potentially be used to measure ozone at the example concentrations reported, and the same finding applies for a commercial sensor that uses UV absorption. It is not clear if the novel sensor system that uses a UV photometric commercial sensor can detect these ambient levels, because the reported LDL lies below the example concentrations and no detection range was reported for that sensor.

Particulate matter: Commercial sensors (gravimetric and mass-based) are reported to detect PM at the example concentrations identified, and a novel system using a commercial (electrochemical) sensor designed for real-time remote monitoring can also potentially detect those levels.

Sulfur dioxide: Sensors can potentially detect indoor concentrations reported for homes with certain heating appliances; however, they may not be well suited to detecting the high example concentrations reported, such as in the breathing zone of forest fires.

3.6 ARCHITECTURE AND INFRASTRUCTURE APPROACHES AND APPS

The status of architecture and infrastructure for research sensors covers all stages of research and development, extending to patent applications, and commercially available products. The architectures/infrastructures can be organized into three general categories: (1) physical devices, (2) user interface design/programming, and (3) other approaches – such as data broadcasting and distributed data processing. These categories are further subdivided and described in the following sections. The number of sensing devices that reflect these architecture/infrastructure categories is summarized in Table 3-9 and illustrated in Figure 3-31. Note that not all subgroups in this section directly apply to sensors and apps for air pollutants. Nevertheless, having been included in relevant workshops and meetings (notably for ubiquitous computing), they provide a glimpse of related aspects of this active research area that may offer "cross-training" insights for the development and implementation of citizen sensor systems.

3.6.1 Physical Devices

Cell phone-based sensing (27) – The cell phone group of devices utilize mobile phones as mobile sensing units. This group includes sensors mounted directly in/on mobile phones, downloadable apps, user interfaces, and imbedded processing technology. In general, these devices are typically used to collect data and/or detect environmental pollutants; transmit and share data across wireless networks; and process and analyze data, match outcomes, and interpret results from either a source database or sensor network within the user's proximity to enable real-time monitoring. Location is also commonly recorded by cell phone devices. The few detection methods or techniques that were identified for the cell phone-based sensor group include: colorimetrics, vibration, ultrasound, global positioning system (GPS), participatory sensing, user generated content, classification algorithms, and signal processing. The devices cover most stages of development from the research phase through commercial availability. Air pollutants detected by these mobile devices, as identified in the records, primarily include vehicle emissions and greenhouse gases, such as CO, CO₂, O₂, NO_x, SO_x, and PM. Other chemicals and parameters that can be measured include: formaldehyde, black carbon, temperature, humidity, UV radiation, activity, noise, location, and weeds.

Embedded/integrated sensor (7) – This group of sensors is embedded or integrated in something another object for a new or novel application, such as a musical instrument for respiratory therapy, thin flexible substrate applied to a floor to detect the presence and whereabouts of users using electromagnetic radiation sensing, animated fabric for multi-sensory communication, or cell phone for smart home management. In general, these devices detect sound, gestures, and movement, including pressure, vibration, acceleration, and gyroscope data. However, another device in this group combines multiple separate gas sensors into a single integrated sensor for detection of airborne gases, including CO, CO₂, NO₂, H₂S, and CH₄. These embedded or integrated sensors cover most stages of development from the research phase through design prototype.

TABLE 3-9 Categories and Counts for Architecture/Infrastructure^a

| Category for Architecture/Approach | Number |
|---|--------|
| <i>Physical Device</i> | |
| Cell phone-based sensing | 27 |
| Embedded/integrated sensor | 7 |
| Fixed/semi-portable sensor unit | 66 |
| Handheld sensor | 51 |
| Mountable sensor | 59 |
| Nanoscale technology | 50 |
| Robotics | 8 |
| Vehicle-mounted unit | 44 |
| Wearable sensor | 23 |
| <i>User Interface Design/Programming</i> | |
| Activity/speech recognition | 16 |
| Algorithm/modeling | 38 |
| Ambient intelligence | 6 |
| Augmented reality | 5 |
| Context awareness | 10 |
| Database/data mining | 5 |
| Location awareness | 23 |
| Mobile sensing | 11 |
| Multi-sensor system | 9 |
| Participatory/citizen sensing | 23 |
| Remote sensing/monitoring | 11 |
| Sensor calibration | 1 |
| Social networking/computing | 13 |
| Ubiquitous computing | 14 |
| Virtual reality sensing | 5 |
| Visual sensing | 11 |
| Web-based system | 10 |
| Wireless sensor network (WSN) | 54 |
| <i>Other</i> | |
| Data broadcasting | 3 |
| Distributed data processing | 1 |
| Economic tradeoffs | 2 |
| Exposure assessment | 8 |
| Prediction service | 1 |
| Radar system | 1 |

^a These entries are organized alphabetically within each of the three general groups. See Figure 3-31 for the display organized by total counts. Note that these categories and subgroups are not exclusive, so the numbers include duplicate or multiple counts.

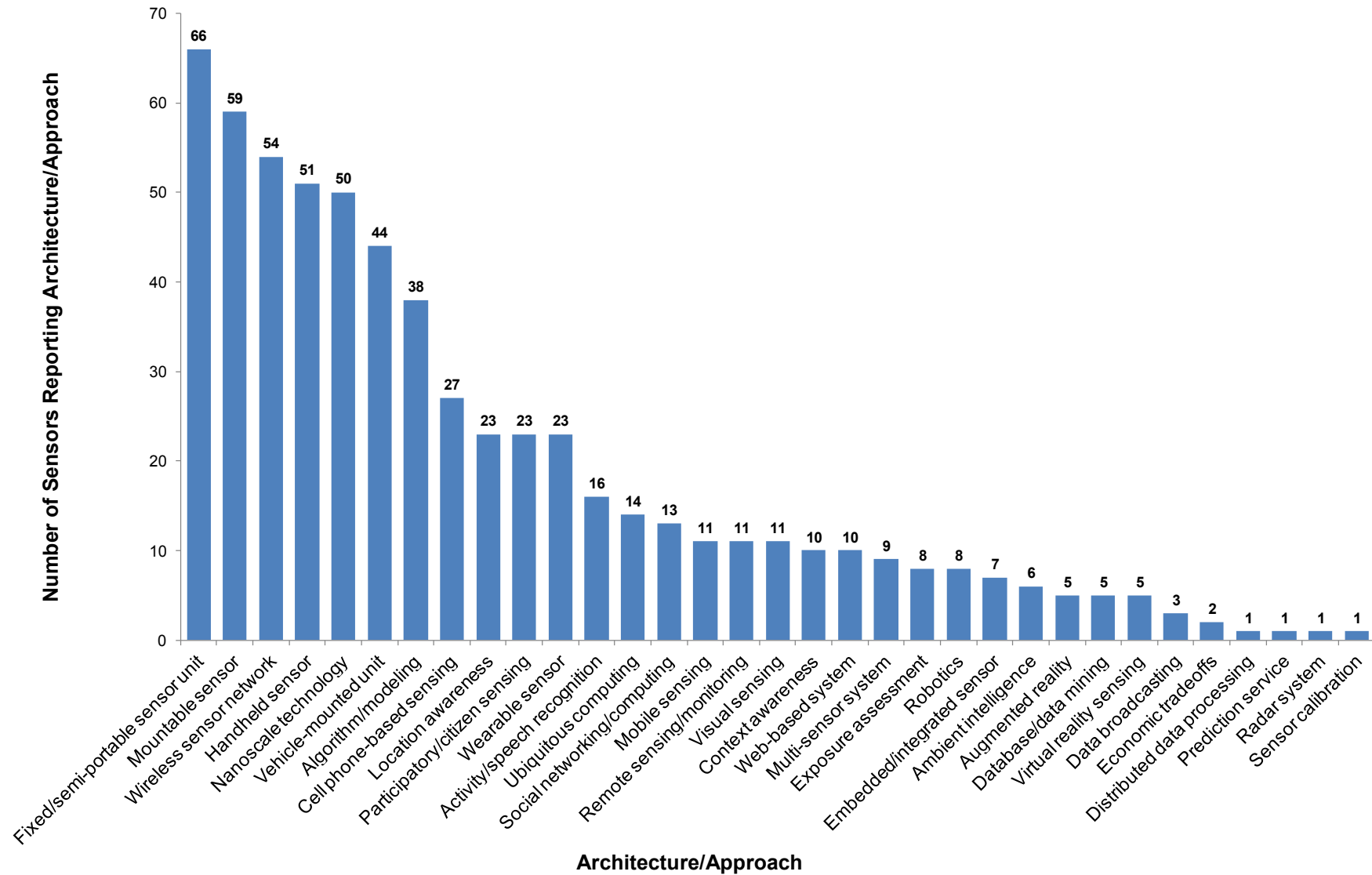


FIGURE 3-31 Number of Sensors Using Selected Architecture/Infrastructure Approaches

Fixed/semi-portable sensor unit (66) – The primary purposes identified for the fixed/semi-portable sensor units are environmental pollutant detection, air quality monitoring, emissions identification, concentration estimation, and data collection. A number of these devices also have the capability to simultaneously measure for multiple pollutant gases, store data, compare measurements against standards, perform modeling, and output data and information to a display unit. In addition, some units have the potential for wireless communication and Bluetooth network connection. These devices range from shoebox, to suitcase, to table/bench top, to refrigerator size; they cover most stages of development from the research phase through commercial availability.

In general, sampling is done a variety of ways, including automated active air sampling, continuous monitoring, and ambient air diffusion, and measure pollutants with and without filter collection. The detection methods or techniques identified for the fixed/semi-portable sensor group include: colorimetrics, photonics, UV fluorescence, laser-induced fluorescence, spectroscopy, refractometry, diffuse illumination, IR, optics, thermography, ion chromatography, gravimetrics, capacitance, semiconductance, resonance, potentiometrics, acoustics, photoacoustics, olfactometry, biosensing, immunoassay, polymerase chain reaction, differential absorbance, optical absorbance, UV absorbance, participatory sensing, and accelerometry.

Some examples of applications in which fixed/semi-portable sensor units have been used include: traffic and vehicle emissions studies; filtering and removal of pollutants; electronic nose for detecting odorous gases; pollution hotspots identification and dispersion modeling of pollution clouds; alarms in industrial settings to warn workers when potentially dangerous of unusual situations are detected; soil gas and penetration studies to detect emission from soil to the atmosphere or leaks from underground storage facilities; monitoring practices at landfills; and earthquake location and magnitude detection.

Fixed/semi-portable sensor units are used to detect numerous greenhouse and exhaust gases, including: CO, CO₂, O₃, NO₂, N₂O, NH₃, H₂S, SO₂, SO_x, CH₄, VOCs, HCs, PM, PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}, and PM₁. They are also identified in the records as being able to detect a wide variety of other chemicals: acrolein, formaldehyde, acetone, BTEX, chloroform, p-dichlorobenzene, ethanol, ethyl acetate, MEK, phenol, phenolate, isopropanol, styrene, 1,1,1-trichloroethane, 1,2,4-trimethylbenzene, water pollutants, pesticides, hormone residue, phosphate, chemical and biological agents, and chemical explosives. Many of the devices can also measure temperature, pressure, UV, humidity, odors, acceleration, power consumption, and movement.

Handheld sensor (51) – In general, the handheld devices detected or monitored for air pollutants, chemicals, environmental contaminants, and/or other various compounds (e.g., explosives, allergens, *E. coli* bacteria). Some of the sensor units identified the potential for wireless/Bluetooth connectivity. Where identified, these devices ranged from the size of a thumb to that of a shoe box. The devices cover most stages of development from the research phase through commercial availability.

The detection methods or techniques identified for the handheld sensor group include: colorimetrics, photonics, photoionization, spectroscopy, thermography, IR, optics, interferometry, electrochemistry, electromagnetism, conductance, resonance, harmonics, olfactometry, bioluminescence, gas chromatography, and absorbance.

The handheld sensors primarily measure airborne pollutants, including: CO, CO₂, O₂, O₃, NO, NO₂, NO_x, NH₃, SO₂, SO_x, H₂, H₂S, VOCs, hydrocarbons (HCs), and UFPs (ultrafine particles). Other chemicals specifically identified include: Cl₂, COCl₂, methylene chloride, black carbon, formaldehyde, chloroform, 1,3-butadiene, n-butanol, alcohol, ethylene, methanol, acetic acid, acrylic acid, dichloromethane, pentane, propane, styrene, hydrogen cyanide (HCN), phosphine (PH₃), pentachlorophenol (PCP), perchloroethylene, trichloroethylene, solvent fumes (BTEX, chlorinated VOCs, solvents used in adhesives, paint and paint strippers, and varnishes), Cr(VI), explosives (e.g., TNT and dinitrotoluene, DNT), amine, odorant, and chemical warfare agents (such as sarin, soman, or GF). Other parameters measured include: temperature, humidity, noise, odors, blood sugar, allergens, and molds.

Mountable sensor: micro- and miniature-scale platforms (59) – Sensors in the mountable micro- and miniature-scale platform group have been used to sense environmental pollutants, including to monitor air quality and detect nanoparticles. The traditional (primary) application has been in vehicles (e.g., within automobile exhaust systems), for which a wide variety of electrochemical sensors has been used. A subgroup of these devices can detect motion and position to enable learning, track movement, and facilitate augmented reality. Micro-scale detectors and monitoring devices commonly use sensor arrays, remote sensing, WSNs, and service-oriented architecture (SOA).

These sensors are generally smaller than the handheld sensors but larger than the nano-scale ones, and are commonly designed to be affixed to a mobile device (e.g., chip or circuit board size), such as MP3 players and cell phones, for personal monitoring. Some benefits identified related to micro- and miniature-scale sensor units include: small, inexpensive, low power, sustainable (e.g., could use solar cells or power-scavenging and energy-harvesting techniques). The devices cover most stages of development from the research phase through prototype development and testing. In general, research continues to improve sensor detection range, efficiency, baseline stability, sensing properties, and understanding of the sensing mechanism.

The detection methods or techniques identified for the mountable micro- and miniature-scale sensor group include: photonics, luminescence, fluorescence, spectroscopy, spectrophotometry, diffuse illumination, thermography, thermoelectrics, optics, X-ray diffraction, energy dispersive X-ray analysis, scanning electron microscope (SEM), optoelectrics, electrochemistry, magnetism, electrometry, resistance, conductance, semiconductance, capacitance, impedance, thick and thin film microelectronics, voltammetry, acoustics, olfactometry, GPS, gas chromatography, amperometry, absorbance, accelerometry, radio frequency identification (RFID), and classification algorithms.

Micro- and miniature-scale mountable sensors are commonly used to detect air pollutants and components of exhaust gas, including: CO, CO₂, O₂, NO₂, NO_x, NH₃, H₂S, SO_x, CH₄, VOCs, HCs, PM, and PM₁. Other chemicals also identified in the records include formaldehyde, benzaldehyde, acetaldehyde, decane, isobutene, acetone, BTEX, chloroform, amine, trimethylamine, alcohol, methanol, ethanol, isopropanol, benzo[a]pyrene (B[a]P), trichloroethylene, and trace explosives. In addition, many of these sensors can also measure temperature, humidity, odors, biomarkers (e.g., glucose, blood gas, pH, and electrolytes), sound, voice, position, and movement.

Nanoscale technology (50) – In general, the purposes of nanoscale sensors are to detect a specific chemical or environmental pollutant, notably with higher sensitivity (i.e., lower detection limits). The detection methods or techniques identified for the nanosensor group include: colorimetrics, photonics, spectroscopy, optics, chemiluminescence, electrochemistry,

resistance, chemoresistance, conductance, transconductance, capacitance, resonance, amperometry, absorbance, and adsorbance.

For the sensor element architecture, nanoparticles are typically made into nano-sized crystals, tubes, wires, thin films, porous matrixes, sensor pads, or sensor arrays, which are used as the detector element. These nanotechnology-based sensor elements are then typically integrated into wearable, handheld, or mobile detectors and monitoring devices. Nanotechnology is reflected in a number of sensors in the research, prototype development, and testing phases.

The nanoscale sensors identified in this literature review are able to detect a wide variety of air pollutants, including: CO, CO₂, O₂, NO, NO₂, NH₃, H₂S, SO₂, VOCs, HCs, PM, PM₁, and nanoparticles. These technologies are also identified as capable of detecting many other chemicals, such as: acrolein, formaldehyde, decane, hexane, styrene, MEK, acetone, ethyl acetate, BTEX, chloroform, phenol, ethanol, isopropanol, diethyl ether, organophosphates, p-dichlorobenzene, 1,1,1-trichloroethane, 1,2,4-trimethylbenzene, mercury vapor (elemental Hg), Cr(VI), chemical warfare agents (e.g., sarin, soman, or GF), explosives (e.g., TNT and DNT), and microbes such as *E. coli*. Such sensors have also been designed to measure light and odors.

Robotics (8) – Robots are used in conjunction with sensor systems to collect data and/or carry out specific tasks based on the results of the data collection and monitoring. The robotic units found in the records are identified as being able to detect air pollutants, such as CO, PM, natural gas, liquid petroleum gas, smoke, and RFID tags. For example, an autonomously navigating robot used for disaster management that is equipped with air quality sensors and the ability to search for disaster survivors; a robot vacuum cleaner linked to a monitoring unit that is wirelessly signaled to turn on when cleaning is deemed necessary; robots outfitted with an electronic noses to collect environmental data while completing urban hygiene tasks (e.g., cleaning pedestrian areas and collecting garbage); or an autonomous robot capable of searching an area for RFID-tagged items and uploading the location information into a database. These units cover most stages of development from the research phase through design prototype and patent application.

Vehicle-mounted unit (44) – This group includes sensors mounted on baby carriages, shopping carts, bicycles, cars, airplanes, and public transportation vehicles (e.g., buses). Position of these units generally includes placement in or near a: bicycle basket, bicycle helmet, car window control unit, vehicle exhaust system, and vehicle roof. The devices are generally used to measure, collect, monitor, and analyze real-time environmental pollutant and related parameter data (e.g., emissions levels, temperature, humidity, wind speed, and traffic density) inside and outside the vehicle. Some units are used to filter air for the user (e.g. baby in a carriage). The detection methods or techniques identified for vehicle mounted sensor units include: spectroscopy, IR, electrochemistry, selective catalytic reduction, impedance, microwaves, ultrasound, pressure, depth, weight, GPS, participatory sensing, and user generated content.

Information gathered is commonly linked to spatial attribute data (e.g., time, date, and GPS coordinates) that can be combined with web-based applications to track and map results over specific areas. Many of these vehicle mounted units use wireless sensor networks (WSNs) to facilitate information exchange between users; transmit data to a central database for querying, processing, and storage; and allow online access by the public. The devices cover most stages of development from the research phase through commercial availability.

Vehicle mounted sensors primarily measure airborne pollutants, including vehicle exhaust and many greenhouse gases, as identified: CO, CO₂, O₃, NO₂, NO_x, NH₄, NH₃, SO₂, SO_x, H₂S, CH₄, VOCs, non-methane HCs, black carbon, PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}, PM₁, and UFPs. Other chemicals and parameters specifically identified include: benzene, formaldehyde, natural gas, propane, temperature, pressure, humidity, wind speed, noise, location, and traffic density.

Wearable sensor (23) – In general, the purposes of wearable sensors are for monitoring personal air quality, location, and/or movement. Sensors are typically placed in or on wearable items, such as a shirt, mask, hat, eyeglasses, necklace, or ring. The devices cover most stages of development from the research to prototype phase.

The wearable sensors identified primarily measure airborne pollutants, including CO, CO₂, O₃, NO₂, NO_x, SO_x, H₂S, CH₄, VOCs, PM, and UFPs (ultrafine particles). Other chemicals and parameters specifically identified include metal oxide gas, black carbon, contagious viruses, temperature, pressure, humidity, light, UV radiation, location, and movement.

3.6.2 User Interface Design and Programming

Activity/speech recognition (16) – Systems that use activity and/or speech recognition detect a wide variety of information. Some of this data are physical parameters, such as motion, gestures, pressure, vibration, electromagnetic radiation, speech, and audio level; other information is virtual, such as computer activity and application use. Applications include: activity and sound recognition; location detection; position classification; proximity sensing; occupancy sensing and prediction; eye movement analysis; gesture recognition and interaction; speech and gesture enabled multi-modal user interface; 3-D cell phone interaction; object manipulation; availability sharing systems; cell phone ringtone interaction system.

Algorithm/modeling (38) – Records in the algorithm/modeling group cover research and developed applications that define, build, and present various algorithms and models for: data tracking, management, processing and exchange; information extraction, retrieval, and presentation; image analysis; data mining and fusion; location identification; outcomes prediction; voice, speech, and sound detection; optimization analysis; and data visualization and mapping. Some specific examples include: air quality analysis and monitoring; pollutant/contaminant detection, source identification, concentration distribution, and dispersion; and multi-sensor data systems control. In general, applications utilize both collected and historic data, and can leverage WSNs, Bluetooth, and data acquired from smartphones.

Algorithms specifically identified include: heuristic algorithms; classification algorithms for pattern matching and voice activator detection; authentication and encryption algorithms to protect communication over wireless networks; change detection algorithms to identify suspicious user activity and potential threats; dimensionality reduction algorithm to retrieve and present information. Models specifically identified include the: integer programming model; two-dimensional stochastic model; two-level hybrid fusion model; spatiotemporal model; three-dimensional mapping; multi-component model; user activity model; and relevant context mode.

Ambient intelligence (6) – In general, ambient intelligence refers to electronic environments and/or devices that are sensitive and responsive to the presence of people and work in concert to support people in carrying out their everyday life. Examples identified include: a lambent display on a shopping trolley intended to "nudge" (or induce) people when choosing what to buy; a digital appliance that encourages the act of smiling; a way to communicate with the public

beach conditions; an item recommendation based on customer interests and past behavior; a way to inform and communicate with field security and law enforcement personnel.

Augmented reality (5) – Augmented reality (AR) is a live, direct or indirect, view of a physical, real-world environment whose elements are augmented by computer-generated sensory input such as sound, video, graphics or GPS data. The records identified in this research area specifically discuss: a multi-level visualization system based on the distance between the user and sensor nodes, to support end-user management of WSN status information; a novel terminal (e.g., eyeglasses) that can supply AR service and allow users to carry on hand-free operations (e.g., cell phone, or wheelchair control); a system that connects people in different locations through enriched multi-sensory communication using gesture-based screen interaction, ambient pictures on an animated tablecloth, and message transmission; a system that expands projected augmentations in wide area by using visible light communication and wireless RFID technology; and how and where to use sensors to maximize their efficiency and ensure only the most relevant data are used and presented visually.

Context awareness (10) – In general, context awareness in computing can be defined as the use of information that characterizes a situation related to the interaction between humans, applications, and the surrounding environment, and provide task-relevant information and/or services to a user. The efforts in this area leverage smartphones, Bluetooth technologies, and WSNs. Context-aware applications and research included: user grouping methods; contextual and personalized recommendations without any explicit user input; activity and device position recognition; online/offline tracking and integration; location detection; usage pattern tracking; creation of narrative events for status updates; adaptive duty-cycling of the sensor activity; investigation of intelligibility for uncertain context-aware applications; user activity modeling; aid to field security and law enforcement personnel; and travel assistant application for special needs passengers in public transit environments.

Database/data mining (5) – The database/data mining group contains records that involve the compilation, organization, analysis, or extraction of data. In general, the databases presented are designed to be user-friendly, making it easy for users to access, locate, and share of data.

Location awareness (23) – Location awareness refers to devices, such as cell phones, that can passively or actively determine their location. The location data, which is also often link to time, is then commonly correlated with air pollution data, environmental conditions (e.g. to estimate exposure), geographical context (e.g., maps), traffic patterns and density, and social networks. Other research in this area relates to privacy protection and control of a user's location data.

Mobile sensing (11) – Mobile sensing involves the use of mobile devices (e.g., cell phones or vehicles) to measure, gather, process, characterize, and communicate information. The data gathered by these devices relates to a variety of matters, including: location, traffic patterns, activity, motion, sound, social mechanisms, interpersonal relationships, query history, and privacy protection.

Multi-sensor system (9) – Multi-sensor systems combine two or more sensor technologies in a single device to collect data, monitor conditions, and potentially feed into intelligent control systems. A few examples that use these types of systems, as identified: intelligent environmental control system for a greenhouse that collects and stores real-time parameters that can be fused with historical data; air quality monitoring system for an automobile that correlates the impact of gas temperature and flow rate on SO₂ monitoring; intelligent indoor air

quality control system for health care centers that allows for continuous monitoring of air in multiple rooms and is capable of detecting hazardous gas leaks; human lifestyle indicators recorder that collects and compiles data (e.g., temperature, humidity, illumination intensity, presence of people, lights on or off, and open or closed doors) to identify wasted resources; urban scanning systems that acquire mass quantities of real-time information (e.g., traffic estimation data, real-time energy efficiency, calculation of optimal travel routes, and pollution maps) from multiple sources of different types of data and make it available on a cloud network; soil erosion and non-point source pollution monitoring system for a reservoir area; and heterogeneous long-term water monitoring system that collects and stores real-time water quality parameters such as pH, temperature, conductivity, turbidity, and dissolved oxygen.

Participatory/citizen sensing (23) – Participatory sensing is the concept of using members of the public to collect data and information, typically through the use of mobile devices, to form a body of knowledge. The identified records indicated numerous topics for which of information gathered: pollutants; air and water quality; environmental conditions (e.g., temperature, humidity); energy consumption; galaxies; plant phenology; and weeds.

Remote sensing/monitoring (11) – Remote sensors and/or monitoring involve the acquisition of data and information about an object or phenomenon, without making physical contact with the object or area being investigated. Research and applications utilizing this type of sensing, as identified in the records, include: air pollution monitoring; vehicle emissions analysis; and facility monitoring (e.g., gases released from CAFOs).

Sensor calibration (1) – The single record that discussed sensor calibration addresses the question of whether low-cost sensors can be calibrated to provide sufficiently accurate information about levels of pollution to support further scientific investigation.

Social networking/computing (13) – In general, social computing can be broadly defined as computational facilitation of social studies and human social dynamics, as well as the design and use of information and communication technologies that consider social context (e.g., social networks). The records identified in this group discuss a variety of applications, including: research on energy-use and energy conservative behaviors of consumer individuals; mobile-phone based social and behavioral sensing system that combines extremely rich data collection in terms of signals, dimensionality, and throughput, together with the ability gain insights on intricate social mechanisms and to conduct targeted experimental interventions (e.g., increasing physical activity) with study populations. Also included are mobile social network aggregators that integrate social networking services into the mobile device user interface and recommends new content that is likely to be interesting to the user; mobile social service for an office environment that is used to record a user's position and allow users to efficiently manage office resources and connect other colleagues; and a smart makeup system that helps users find new makeup methods for use with their daily cosmetics. Additional topics include location-based information fusion for mobile navigation that leverages static public online information with users' location-based social network resources to provide real-time exploration in novel environments; a study of three visualization types (text-, map-, and time-based) for social sharing of past locations; research related to targeted location-sharing privacy attacks; and modeling social and geographical context based on co-location networks in human mobility datasets. Further applications include use of context-based awareness cues in status updates, especially in SNSs (Social Networking Services); new method for public communication about ambient water conditions through investigation of novel ways to measure ambient quality and make this information available as a public resource; and research exploring which features of

interpersonal relationships influence personal information sharing with friends and social groups.

Ubiquitous computing (14) – Ubiquitous computing (ubicmp) is a method of information processing based on the fact that computers have been thoroughly integrated and embedded into everyday objects and activities, making them effectively invisible to the user, but able to collect and communicate information. The research in this area leverages smartphone and Bluetooth technologies. Specific research and applications identified in the records that utilize ubicmp involve: new perspective on everyday biomarkers that utilize the lens of organic and non-digital sensing to reflect on current sensing paradigms; the design of personal informatics tools that effectively assists people's reflection on collected data; a zero-configuration spatial localization system for networked devices based on ambient sound sensing; mapping interaction qualities identified in private and work contexts; transferring information from mobile devices to personal computers by using vibration and an accelerometer; supplying AR service and allow users to carry on hand-free operations; a line of prototypical products for future homes that simulate and stimulate emotion; using a mobile application to assist in the capture of the contextual information for diabetics using self-care devices; the design and evaluation of school-based ubicmp that treats the school as a social institution; exploration on the extent that data, recorded by automated fare collection (AFC) systems of public transport authorities, offers the possibility to both build and measure future of travel-based ubicmp applications; research to establish the theoretical foundations for the design of mechanisms for forgetting and develop and evaluate the framework and its interfaces for users to control these mechanisms; the design systems that rely on sensing and recording, but also account for privacy concerns of users; a persuasive sleep application that involves self-monitoring and feedback features to help people be aware of their sleep habits; and new modes of collaborative human navigation.

Virtual reality sensing (5) – Virtual reality (VR) is a term that applies to computer-simulated environments that can simulate physical presence in places in the real world, as well as in imaginary worlds. The records identified in this research area specifically discuss: the creation and study of haptic (i.e., tactile feedback) devices for both blind and sighted people that provide sensory augmentation; the electrical stimulation of the gustation (e.g., sense of taste) for a human; a technique that enables controlling of CD ratio by finger height and movement above the touch surface for multi-scale navigation tasks; and an availability sharing system designed to balance the costs and benefits between the interrupter and the interruptee.

Visual sensing (11) – Visual sensing involves the use of visual images to extract, characterize, and interpret information and data about the three-dimensional world. Applications utilizing this type of sensing, as identified in the records, include: real-time roadway emissions estimation using visual traffic measurements; airflow and light monitoring devices; air quality evaluation and modeling using surveillance data; colorimetric detection of a contaminant, which can activate an alert system; smile recognition to encourage the act of smiling; use of thermal imaging to track disaggregated appliance usage; and item location finder.

Web-based system (10) – The web-based category contains records that use an accessible web portal to submit, access, manage, analyze, and monitor data and results. Areas that were identified as using a web interface: air quality, emissions, mapping and visualization, route planning, personal health, water consumption, plant phenology, and web history.

Wireless sensor network (WSN) (54) – Wireless sensor networks (WSNs) generally consist of a collection of spatially distributed autonomous sensor nodes for data acquisition, transmission, and distribution, which is monitored and controlled at a central management point. These

networks are used in and for a variety of applications, including and as identified in the records: air, noise, and water pollution monitoring; traffic conditions indication; travel route calculation; weather and monitoring of environmental conditions; hazard identification; exposure; asthma management; data visualization and identification of gaps; geographic location and mapping; jamming attack model; energy consumption; power charging; parking management; and voice activation.

3.6.3 Other Systems and Data Features

Data broadcasting (3) – In general, data broadcasting is the transmittal and distribution of data over a wide area by means of digital signals (e.g. radio waves). The records in this category discuss applications for digital signage systems and mobile phones.

Distributed data processing (1) – The single record for distributed data processing discussed a tool that boosts the data handling and trial-and-error process of the signal processing.

Economic tradeoffs (2) – The studies in this group discuss a link between sensor use and money. One of the studies uses sensor technology to investigate the value of sensor information enhancing the control of perishable goods to decrease waste, thus increasing profit (and consequently reducing greenhouse gases). The other study evaluated economic micro-incentive compensation for participants wearing sensors in high-burden studies (e.g. extended durations) and how these strategies affect compliance with study protocol, data quality, and participant retention.

Exposure assessment (8) – A number of research studies looked at the use of portable and personal monitors to measure and monitor pollutant concentrations, as well as to address exposure. The devices in this category are located outside and inside of schools, at bus stops, on and along roadways, and on individual persons. Specific pollutants detected by this group of devices include: UFP, CO, CO₂, O₃, PM, vehicle exhaust, benzene, black carbon, nicotine, cotinine, and PAHs.

Prediction service (1) – The single record included in this category described a service that provides household water usage data, consumption projection, and regional demand forecasting for both short-term and med-term.

Radar system (1) – The research under this category involves space-based surveillance and detection and sensor development for missile defense that focuses on electronic attack and protection techniques, tracing and sensor fusion, vulnerability analysis, space-time adaptive processing.

3.7 HIGHLIGHTS OF RECENT FEDERAL RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

Sensor research is ongoing at a number of federal agencies and national laboratories. Especially significant is the Exposure Biology Research Program in the National Institutes of Health (NIH), National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences (NIEHS). This \$20 million research effort is pursuing technologies and assays to precisely measure human exposures and modifying factors, toward producing sensitive, high-throughput, potentially portable systems that can measure exposures to environmental agents and their impacts on human biology. (See <http://www.niehs.nih.gov/research/supported/dert/sphb/programs/sbir/topics/ebp/index.cfm>.) On a much smaller scale, highlights of selected recent research at several laboratories and other agencies are presented in Tables 3-10 and 3-11.

TABLE 3-10 Highlights of Recent Sensor Research Led or Funded by Federal Agencies

| Agency | Research (with publication year or weblink) | Selected Highlights |
|---|--|--|
| DOE Office of Biological and Environmental Research | Self-calibrating Balloon-Borne Methane Gas Sensor (<i>Southwest Sciences, Inc.</i> , 2011, grant renewed 2013) http://www.sbir.gov/sbirsearch/detail/373544 | Research to develop a self-calibrating, low mass, greenhouse gas sensor to be deployed on meteorological balloons to cover wide geographic areas; a similar methane-only sensor is also being developed. |
| | Diode laser sensor for methane detection on an unmanned aerial vehicle (<i>Southwest Sciences, Inc.</i> , 2013) http://science.energy.gov/~media/sbir/pdf/awards%20abstracts/fy13/FY13-Phase-1-Release-1Final.pdf | Research to develop a small, light-weight diode laser sensor for methane (3300 nm range) that can be deployed on an unmanned aerial vehicle. |
| | Isotopic CO ₂ Instrumentation for UAV Measurements (<i>Southwest Sciences, Inc.</i> , 2013) http://science.energy.gov/~media/sbir/pdf/awards%20abstracts/fy13/FY13-Phase-1-Release-1Final.pdf | Research for rapid and precise measurement of isotopic carbon dioxide for unmanned aerial vehicles. |
| | Lightweight Integrated Optical Sensor for Atmospheric Measurements on Mobile Platforms (<i>Physical Sciences Inc.</i> , 2013) http://science.energy.gov/~media/sbir/pdf/awards%20abstracts/fy13/FY13-Phase-1-Release-1Final.pdf | Research to develop a sensor for materials of national security interest, environmental monitoring, and industrial manufacturing. |
| | Airborne Sensor for Aerosol Precursors (<i>Vista Photonics, Inc.</i> , 2013) http://science.energy.gov/~media/sbir/pdf/awards%20abstracts/fy13/FY13-Phase-1-Release-1Final.pdf | Research to develop an airborne sensor for monitoring ammonia at atmospheric concentrations. |
| | Infrared Laser Direct Absorption Spectroscopy for Carbon Isotope Measurements from UAVs (<i>Aerodyne Research, Inc.</i> , 2013) http://science.energy.gov/~media/sbir/pdf/awards%20abstracts/fy13/FY13-Phase-1-Release-1Final.pdf | Research to develop light-weight infrared laser spectrometer to measure isotopologues of carbon dioxide and methane. |
| | Highly sensitive, low-power, and low-weight gas analyzer for UAVs (<i>Mesa Photonics, Llc</i> , 2013) http://science.energy.gov/~media/sbir/pdf/awards%20abstracts/fy13/FY13-Phase-1-Release-1Final.pdf | Research to develop a light-weight, compact sensor for greenhouse gases that can be deployed on unmanned aerial vehicles. |

| Agency | Research (with publication year or weblink) | Selected Highlights |
|--|--|---|
| DOE Office of Biological and Environmental Research (cont'd.) | Compact QCL spectrometer for carbon isotopologue measurements from Small UAVs (<i>Physical Sciences Inc.</i> , 2013) http://science.energy.gov/~media/sbir/pdf/awards%20abstracts/fy13/FY13-Phase-1-Release-1Final.pdf | Research to develop a highly sensitive sensor for monitoring stable isotopes of carbon dioxide. |
| | Low Cost Small Sample Volume High Precision Carbon Dioxide Analyzer (<i>Li-cor Biosciences</i> , 2013) http://science.energy.gov/~media/sbir/pdf/awards%20abstracts/fy13/FY13-Phase-1-Release-1Final.pdf | Research to develop a high-precision, low-cost sensor for carbon dioxide in the atmosphere. |
| National Aeronautics and Space Administration | DISCOVER – AQ (2011), http://www.nasa.gov/mission_pages/discover-aq/news/DAQ-20110622.html | Research to improve methods for aerial pollution monitoring via aircraft; ideally, the data collected will be combined with ground-collected measurements to provide a more complete picture of air quality. |
| | TEMPO (Tropospheric Emissions: Monitoring of Pollution) (2012), http://www.nasa.gov/home/hqnews/2012/nov/HQ_12-390_TEMPO_Instrument.html | Research in collaboration with the Smithsonian Astrophysical Observatory, to accurately measure tropospheric pollution concentrations of ozone, nitrogen dioxide, sulfur dioxide, formaldehyde, and aerosols with high resolution in North America using a space-based instrument attached to a satellite. (Completion of the structure is expected in 2017.) |
| | JPL E-nose (2013), http://www.nasa.gov/mission_pages/station/research/experiments/32.html | Research to train this device to identify and quantify various pollutants at concentrations from one-third to three times the 24-hr spacecraft maximum allowable concentration value. |
| National Science Foundation | Various projects funded in 2013 (these and others can be found via the award search engine using keyword “sensor”) | Research themes include mobile sensors, carbon dioxide sensors, sensors for combustion applications, data quality and cloud infrastructures, health monitoring, radiation monitoring, and energy harvesting. Awards since 2010 include miniaturization attempts, sensor network development, greenhouse gas detection, data analysis methods, wearable sensors, and sensors aimed to improve fuel efficiency. |
| U.S. Department of Agriculture | Development of optical fiber sensors and sensor array for continuous monitoring of ammonia spatial distribution in animal feedlots (<i>West Texas A&M University</i> , 2013) | Research to develop optical chemical sensor (evanescent wave absorption) networks for in-situ, real-time, long-term continuous monitoring for ammonia distribution in CAFOs, to inform air quality research as well as site emission control and measurement activities. |

TABLE 3-11 Highlights of Selected Research Activities at DOE National Laboratories

| Laboratory | Research (<i>publication year or weblink</i>) | Selected Highlights |
|-------------------|--|---|
| Ames | Microwave and terahertz sensing using slab-pair-based metamaterials (2012) | Testing metamaterial structure that can be used to measure gas concentrations by evaluating the electrical permittivity of the material between a pair of metamaterial slabs. Tested materials include silicon, and low-density polyethylene. |
| Argonne | Sensors and materials research (http://www.anl.gov/security/sensors-materials) | Mobile sensors to detect nuclear and radiological materials, chemical and biological agents, and explosives. Recent developments include millimeter-wave systems that track biometrics and detect chemicals, gases, and radiation as well as carbon-based nanomaterials and nanostructures that enhance the performance of nanoscale devices. |
| | Photoacoustic spectroscopy (PAS) system for remote detection of explosives, chemicals, and special nuclear materials (2012) | PAS can be used to remotely sense chemicals in an open environment; gases can be detected several meters from the target. |
| | NOx/O ₂ Sensors for High Temperature Applications (http://web.anl.gov/eesa/pdfs/success_stories/49_NOX-O2_Sensors_v4.pdf) | Simultaneously measures NOx and O ₂ in vehicle engines; the sensor has a self-contained reference gas system, is compact, cheap, and easy to produce. |
| Brookhaven | In-situ spectro-microscopy on organic films: Mn-phthalocyanine on Ag(100) (2013) | Research on metal phthalocyanines for potential use in chemical sensors. |
| Idaho | Instrumentation, control, and intelligent systems; sensors (https://inlportal.inl.gov/portal/server.pt?open=514&objID=5325&mode=2&) | Research on sensors that use advanced mass spectrometry and ion mass spectrometry modeling software to detect trace explosives, as well as sensors for high-temperature tests, and portable isotopic neutron spectroscopy used for handheld detection of concealed bulk explosives as part of munitions inspections. |
| Lawrence Berkeley | Low power, fast, selective nanoparticle-based hydrogen sulfide gas sensor (2012) | Small, low-cost, low-power, nanomaterial-based gas sensor with high selectivity for hydrogen sulfide and no significant cross sensitivity for hydrogen, water, or methane. |
| | Available technologies for licensing and further R&D (http://www.lbl.gov/Tech-Transfer/techs/lbnl1850.html ; http://www.lbl.gov/Tech-Transfer/techs/lbnl2689.htm ; http://www.lbl.gov/Tech-Transfer/techs/lbnl2349.html) | Miniature airborne particle mass monitor: power need of <100 mW, can measure picogram of material, prototype costs \$100. Compact microchip gas sensor: hydrogen microchip sensor for real-time detection and analysis of hazardous gas levels. Membrane and receptors for highly selective gas-phase sensing: insensitive to humidity changes, portable and low cost. |

| Laboratory | Research (<i>publication year or weblink</i>) | Selected Highlights |
|--------------------|---|--|
| Lawrence Livermore | NOx sensor development (2012) | Impedance metric sensor to measure NOx in vehicle exhaust at <5-100 ppm; low cost, close to commercial development, licensed by EmiSense Technologies. |
| | A block-based MC-SURE algorithm for denoising sensor data streams (2012) | Algorithm to denoise real sensor streaming data; enables blind optimization of the denoising parameter of a wide class of filters. |
| Los Alamos | MotionCast for mobile wireless networks (2013) | Research on mobile ad-hoc networks for use used when infrastructure for communication are limited (e.g., for mobile air quality sensors carried by citizen scientists); the emphasis is on capacity and connectivity. |
| | Sensors: Theory, algorithms, and applications (2012) | Highlights recent advances, current work, and future needs; investigates information patterns obtained by sensor measurements, mathematical approaches encompassing dynamic systems and statistical techniques, application specific approaches, and other related research. |
| | Routing for wireless multi-hop networks (2013) | Generic routing model to use as a foundation for wireless multi-hop routing protocol analysis and design. |
| Oak Ridge | Sensors and controls research (http://www.ornl.gov/sci/ees/mssed/sst/projects.shtml) | Very low power, wireless microsensor array (to measure CO ₂ , humidity, temperature, occupancy); also, in-situ fuel cells to measure temperature and humidity, vehicle exhaust (ammonia, nitrogen oxides, and oxygen), harsh environment sensing (inductive noise thermometry), and others; recent research is on perovskite oxides for use in electrochemical sensors. |
| Pacific Northwest | NOA: A scalable multi-parent clustering hierarchy for WSNs (2012) | Tool to reduce the amount of data sent to sinks, which reduces the cost of overhead by reducing the cost of network setup. |
| Sandia | Microelectronics, sensors, MEMS, and photonics research (https://ip.sandia.gov/category.do/category/D=20) | Research on microsystems and constituent components, including chemical sensors, microelectronics, displacement sensors, hybrid microsystems, and others. |
| Savannah River | Sensors development research (http://srnl.doe.gov/sens_dev.htm) | Research emphasizes modifying available instruments for particular situations and building robust systems that can operate for years in harsh environments. Technology research areas include fiber-optic sensors, remote chemical analysis, Sol-Gel indicator sensors, remote robotic sensor systems, and environmental sensors which are used to measure environmental pollutants and various chemical concentrations or physical properties including ammonia, hydrogen, temperature, and humidity. |

4 GAPS AND OPPORTUNITIES

Gaps and opportunities for mobile sensors and apps have been identified from a review of recent literature, illustrated by a targeted evaluation of fourteen representative air pollutants. These gaps and opportunities are organized into two main topics: (1) sensing technologies and techniques; and (2) architecture and infrastructure approaches, including software applications.

4.1 SENSOR TECHNOLOGIES AND TECHNIQUES

4.1.1 Specific Pollutants

Most portable sensors are designed for gases, so particles represent a substantial gap. No mobile research sensors were found for lead. Techniques for this metal and others are primarily lab-based, with associated time lags and costs. LIBS represents an opportunity technique for lead, but the ability to detect low concentrations is not known. Similar constraints apply for PM, and current methods are expensive (\$1,000 to \$20,000 and higher). Furthermore, they are non-specific (e.g., mass-based via filtration), so chemical identities are not determined. A MEMS based on the acoustic-wave microbalance sensing principle represents an opportunity area. The cost might be less than \$100.

Among the gases, acrolein represents a key gap for mobile sensors. Few were found to address this HAP, which is a national risk driver per NATA and is also associated with emerging emission sources such as biodiesel production. Health-based concentrations established for lifetime exposures are difficult to reliably measure, even with large, fixed systems. Thus, further research and development to produce mobile sensors for this compound would be useful. A second gas that could benefit from targeted research and development is 1,3-butadiene. Relatively few sensors (and only one research sensor initiative) are identified for this chemical. Given its status as a national risk contributor per NATA and the nature of its emission sources (including from emerging natural gas development), further research to pursue mobile sensors for this compound could also be broadly beneficial.

A practical needs assessment to prioritize pollutant targets, seeking inputs from parties ranging from agencies to industry and citizen groups, could help guide investments for targeted research. Cross-walking the results with ongoing research collaborations to identify leveraging opportunities would expedite progress. A good example of a needs assessment can be found in the recent EPA NCEA initiative for nanotechnology/nanomaterials risk assessment. Using a comprehensive environmental assessment (CEA) approach, knowledge gaps and research needs have been identified and prioritized with interesting tools that may be useful, particularly structured techniques for soliciting and incorporating input from experts with diverse backgrounds. (See <http://cfpub.epa.gov/ncea/CFM/nceaQFind.cfm?keyword=Nanomaterials>.)

4.1.2 Detection Levels

Gaps in sensor detection levels compared with exposure benchmarks are summarized in Table 4-1. (A blank cell indicates the benchmark has not been established; an "x" indicates the concentration may be detected; a "?" indicates it is not known if the benchmark concentration can be detected, e.g., absent a reported detection range; and dark shading indicates a gap for that detection capability.) This summary indicates that gaps may exist for concentrations established as safe for continuous lifetime exposures for four of the fourteen study pollutants. Three are HAPs – acetaldehyde, acrolein, and formaldehyde, and the fourth is an indicator pollutant – ammonia.

TABLE 4-1 Reported Ability to Detect Exposure Benchmark Concentrations^a

| Pollutant | Emergency Response | | | | | | General Public | | | | | | | | | | | | Occupational | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|--------------------|---|---|------|---|---|----------------|-------|------------------|------------------|-----|------|-----|------------|------|-----|-------|-------|--------------|-----|-----------|------|------|-----|------|------|
| | AEGL/PAC | | | ERPG | | | RfC | | RBC | | MRL | | | CalEPA REL | | | NAAQS | CAAQS | IDLH | PEL | NIOSH REL | | | TLV | | |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 3 | IRIS | PPRTV | 10 ⁻⁴ | 10 ⁻⁶ | ac | subc | chr | ac | subc | chr | | | | | C | STEL | 8-hr | C | STEL | 8-hr |
| Acetaldehyde | x | ? | ? | x | x | ? | | | x | | | | | x | | x | | | ? | x | | | | x | | |
| Acrolein | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | | | | | x | | | | | | | | ? | ? | | ? | ? | ? | | |
| Ammonia | x | x | ? | x | x | ? | | | | | x | | | x | | | | | x | x | | x | x | | x | x |
| Benzene | ? | ? | ? | x | ? | ? | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | | | ? | x | | x | x | | x | x |
| 1,3-Butadiene | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | x | | | x | x | | | | | x | | | ? | x | | | | | | ? |
| Carbon monoxide | x | x | x | x | x | x | | | | | | | | x | | | x | | x | x | x | | x | | x | x |
| Formaldehyde | x | x | x | x | x | x | | | | x | x* | x | x | x | x | | x | | x | x | x | | x | x | | |
| Hydrogen sulfide | x | x | x | | | | x | | | | | x | x | | x | | x | | x | x | x | | | | x | x |
| Lead | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | x | x | ? | x | | | x | | | x |
| Methane | ? | ? | ? | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Nitrogen dioxide | x | x | ? | | | | | | | | | | | | | | x | | ? | x | | x | | | x | x |
| Ozone | | | | | | | | | | | | | | x | | | x | | x | x | x | | | | | x |
| Particulate matter | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | x | x | x | x | | | x | | | x |
| Sulfur dioxide | x | x | ? | | | | | | | | x | | | x | | | x | | ? | x | | x | x | | x | x |

^a An empty cell indicates the benchmark is not available. Dark (red) shading indicates a benchmark exists but the concentration has not been reported as detected. An 'x' in green shading indicates the concentration could potentially be detected by a research or commercial sensor either at a reported LDL or within the reported detection range. The "?" in yellow shading indicates it is not clear from the information reviewed whether the concentration can be detected or not; for example, if an LDL is below the benchmark but the detection range is not identified, higher concentrations/interference may limit detection at the higher level. Risk-based concentrations (RBCs) correspond to the target risk levels shown. Note the CalEPA RBC for lead (not shown here) can be detected. For exposure durations, general public: ac = acute, chr = chronic, subc = subchronic. Note the acute MRL which extends multiple days, is grouped with "emergency" values on the arrays. Lead and PM entries reflect commercial sensors only. For methane, the entries reflect protective action criteria; the entries for other pollutants in the first three columns reflect AEGLs. For ozone, 8-hr TLVs (as TWA) are available for light, medium, and heavy work; a 2-hr TWA is also available.

An underlying gap involves basic data reporting. That is, a number of research studies indicate a given pollutant is sensed by the technology/technique but do not report a detection level or range. Thus, some gaps could be addressed by improving the rigor of scientific reporting.

Detection capability gaps are not limited to mobile sensors, as even fixed commercial systems can experience difficulties in measuring health-based concentrations identified as protective for continuous, chronic exposures. To illustrate, in aiming to detect a much higher concentration than the RfC, the NIOSH method for acrolein notes the accuracy limitation (i.e., it does not meet the criterion for a valid method; note the NIOSH REL-TWA is 0.1 ppm and the STEL is 0.3 ppm). Similarly, the standard OSHA method targets a detection level that is orders of magnitude higher than the RfC. Further monitoring context can be gained by considering chemical fate in air. With a half-life of less than a day (and fate products including CO and formaldehyde, also in the pollutant study set), real-time monitoring would be useful, and the nature of the emissions would help guide the appropriate detection target (e.g., ongoing emissions would align with continuous chronic exposures). Integrating fate context in such a way provides an opportunity to guide multi-pollutant sensing considerations (see Section 4.2).

Opportunity areas for acrolein involve techniques that move beyond the standard absorbent-desorption to gas chromatograph method, such as:

- Proton-transfer reaction linear ion trap (PTR-LIT) mass spectrometer.
- Fluorescence, using polyfluorophore sensors built on a DNA scaffold.

4.1.3 Response Time

Response time affects utility of mobile sensors for real-time data collection and has an impact on power consumption. Use of nanomaterials has helped improve response time, as has the addition of pre-concentration techniques to GC systems, for example, as sensors generally respond faster when concentration is higher. However, this improvement may be offset by the lag time for the pre-concentrator to gather enough of the pollutant to trigger a response (as an example, the concentration time identified for a spectroscopic sensor was three minutes).

Benefits of a faster response time include:

- Lower power consumption (e.g., a quick response would allow MOS sensors that require internal heating devices to operate for short intervals, thus conserving energy).
- Ability to capture conditions in real time, particularly important for dynamic conditions.

4.2 ARCHITECTURE AND INFRASTRUCTURE APPROACHES AND AIR QUALITY APPS

4.2.1 Size/Mobility

Relatively little quantitative information was found for the size of research sensors and systems. Although specific measurements are provided for a handful of devices, in most cases the characterization is qualitative (e.g., "small" or "very small"); for those, photos or other images were pursued to provide more descriptive information where possible. Reported and inferred sizes range from nanoscale; to micro and miniature scale; to thumb, bar of soap, shoe box, and suitcase-sized; to refrigerator and mobile laboratory-sized.

In terms of implications for sensing techniques, research efforts in each of the three main technique categories acknowledge the need for mobile sensors with a similar degree of sensitivity and reliability as established fixed sensing units. Sensors based on chemical techniques, especially those using nanomaterials, are particularly amenable to small sensor size. For a sensor to be practical, the smallest sensing material size has been estimated to be about 1 cubic centimeter (cm^3) (Honicky 2011). However, the decreased size of these sensing materials corresponds to a smaller reactive surface area which results in a lower sensitivity. Nearly two-thirds of the literature reviewed reflects research and/or development for handheld or very small sensing units, or the use of nanoscale materials to increase sensitivity.

Spectroscopy-based sensors are also affected by size constraints. Even with the use of reflective mirrors, detection cell paths may need to be at least a few centimeters in length to ensure proper laser pathlines (Honicky 2011). Similar to chemical absorption- or reaction-based sensors, the decreased size results in higher LDL values (i.e., decreased sensitivity). About one-third of this literature reviewed reports advancements in developing small handheld devices and/or use of nanoscale materials with this sensing technique.

4.2.2 Power Requirements

Power consumption is a key contributor to sensor costs, so energy conservation is an active research area. The driver for power consumption is the length of time the monitoring will be performed. For example, if only spot measurements were needed throughout the day (e.g., totaling less than 4 to 8 hours), then existing batteries such as a common cell phone ion battery would be more than adequate. However, if 24-hour continuous measurements were needed, then an alternative power supply would be required or additional capacity (more batteries) would need to be added to the system (and regularly replaced).

The substantial power requirements of electrochemical techniques are widely recognized, including the high operational temperatures required for MOS sensing. For this reason, a number of researchers are working to develop techniques that would allow room-temperature operation, in order to reduce power consumption and also potentially reduce response time. These techniques include doping existing MOS sensing films with functional layers and developing novel polymer films operable at room temperature (Nomani et al. 2011; He et al. 2012). Note that rapid response would also allow for a very brief "on" period, resulting in less energy consumption; it would facilitate periodic (pulse, burst, or intermittent) sampling that could be optimized for the setting, target pollutant, and energy use. As another example, UV-induced room-temperature sensing has been found useful for low-power operation, longer sensor lifetime, and fast on/off capabilities (Aluri et al. 2011).

Emerging opportunities for novel power sources range from photovoltaic films to biological and mechanical sources, including energy transfer from humans (e.g., footsteps and heartbeat). That is, in addition to pursuing low power-consumption components, opportunities are being pursued for novel power sources and self-powered devices. Recent nanotechnology research efforts have illustrated the potential to successfully harvest ambient energy from solar, mechanical, biomechanical, and thermal sources. "Nanogenerators" that can convert these sources of energy to electrical energy in real time have been used to power small LEDs or LCDs. Hybrid nanogenerators capable of harvesting energy from more than one source to increase the feasibility and reduce environmental limitations are being pursued, as is the development of self-charging power cells in which the nanogenerator and battery are hybridized into a single component (Wang et al. 2012).

Air velocity or wind is one of the sources of ambient energy being studied for harvesting to power mobile sensors. Research on a self-powered, battery-free, air velocity and temperature sensing system indicated such a system could be used for short-range monitoring, with airflow velocities as low as 3 m/s in an air duct (Sardini and Serpelloni 2011). These systems could potentially be modified for mobile or mounted sensing units (e.g., on a bicycle or vehicle). A key condition for self-powered units is that the power needed to run all individual units must be less than the power harvested from the environment, which drives the need for low-power components.

4.2.3 Sensitivity, Selectivity, and Multiple-Pollutant Sensing

To offset the reduced sensitivity that accompanies a smaller sensor size, researchers have been investigating methods for increasing sensor surface area. These include adding nanoscale materials (e.g., nanoparticles and SWCNTs) that can react with the desired pollutant to a previously established sensing film. Recent research activities pursuing electrochemical techniques that can detect components of a gas mixture have identified modified polymer films as potential candidates for select chemicals; however the overviews of two studies on this topic did not appear to include concentration measurements (Yang 2010; Kim et al. 2010). Thus, this area constitutes both a gap and opportunity.

The development of customizable sensor arrays (sometimes referred to as electronic noses or e-noses) is also an active research area. Selecting specific, small gas sensors that can be operated in a single handheld device would make it possible to detect a range of gases, customized to a given location and pollutants suite. While this would be more convenient, one challenge is assuring sound mechanisms for addressing interference to prevent false readings. To illustrate, selected examples of pre-concentration techniques that facilitate detection at lower concentrations, as well as potentially boosting selectivity (based on media used) include:

- Spectroscopic technique with pre-concentration and thermal desorption; concentration cells: Materials are selected for placement into a separate cell into which the sample air is initially drawn; these materials are specifically chosen to promote selective adsorption. After some interval (e.g., three minutes), the selected gas is desorbed by a heating process and travels to the detection cell. Because all the target gas is released at once, the concentration measured in the detection cell at any one time is increased.
- Chemical technique, semiconductor: pre-oxidation tube increases sensitivity to formaldehyde.

4.2.4 Cost

Bridging the gap between traditional, very expensive pollutant monitors to widely affordable, portable sensors is central to the current sensor initiative. Striking progress has already been made in producing mobile sensors for reasonable cost. For example, simple systems can be easily assembled for on the order of \$100 or less using materials readily available from local hardware stores and online. (Examples include the Air Quality Egg, light-up detectors built into \$4 weather balloons, and more.)

Replacing expensive system components with affordable alternatives is an ongoing research theme. As an example, researchers at the Korea Institute of Science and Technology found that using conductive electrodes in MOS sensors in place of the traditional platinum sensors increased sensor response and decreased fabrication costs (Shim et al. 2011). Others have

investigated using absorption at low-irradiation light intensities to address the issue of increased cost of photoelectric gas sensor (Peng et al. 2011).

Although MOS sensors are relatively inexpensive, this generally translates to lower sensitivity than alternate spectroscopy or ionization techniques (which are typically more bulky and costly). Batch and microfabrication and 3-D printing are among the opportunity areas being pursued to improve sensing capabilities while reducing costs.

Some sensor systems, such as those using GC-PID, are sensitive to external environmental factors including relative humidity and temperature. Required climate control features add both capital costs and operation and maintenance costs to the sensor system, including related to power consumption. One aim of the current initiative is to identify opportunities for developing lower-cost, reliable mobile sensors and systems that do not require such infrastructure support, by limiting the control elements needed without a corresponding power drop.

4.2.5 Field Performance

Gap areas and opportunities include:

- Reliability and durability of sensors and systems in field conditions – with opportunities including replacement, regeneration and reuse of sensor components, and extension of maintenance schedules.
- Long-term stability and autocalibration represent current gaps – with opportunities including self-healing and autocalibration networks, such as via Web 4.0/Internet of Things, and tapping physical infrastructure for joint fixed-mobile sensor calibration hubs.
- Operator training – mobile sensing provides an opportunity for a new "operator corps" to effect widespread participatory sensing with much more user-(operator-)friendly monitoring devices; in tandem with greatly reduced operating complexity compared to traditional monitoring systems, resources such as e-learning, social media, educational programs (e.g., in the GO3 model), and DIY networks create a strong opportunity for addressing the "trained operators" issue for mobile sensing.

Technology/technique and architecture/infrastructure gap and opportunity areas discussed in Sections 4.1 and 4.2 are highlighted in Tables 4-2 and 4-3, with an illustration comparing commercial and research sensors for carbon monoxide presented in Table 4-4. Supporting context for Tables 4-2 through 4-4 is provided as follows.

Cost: Depending on the monitoring needs for a given situation (including detection level), relatively cheap technologies are increasingly available, such as metal oxide versus spectroscopic sensors. Incorporating novel sensor components into existing hardware (such as smartphones) to harness associated data analysis and transmission capabilities can reduce system costs.

Mobility: Trade-offs between sensor mobility-size and accuracy-precision are common. Automatic calibration networks and integrated/hybrid systems represent opportunity areas for research. Hybrid systems could involve joint fixed and mobile sensors (including sensors affixed to existing infrastructure); they could also involve handheld portable sensors combined with vehicle-mounted larger devices with higher precision/accuracy, such as BikeNet (sensors mounted on bicycles), CommonSense (sensors mounted on street sweepers), or sensors mounted on taxi cabs.

TABLE 4-2 Highlights of Sensor Gaps/Limitations and Opportunities^a

| Feature | Gaps | Potential Solutions / Advances | Issues / Research Opportunities |
|--------------------|--|---|---|
| Cost | Affordability for widespread use | <p>Pursue cheaper technologies (e.g., metal oxide vs. spectroscopic sensors).</p> <p>Use less expensive materials (e.g., coated glass electrodes vs. platinum electrodes; low vs. high light irradiation sources).</p> <p>Mass produce to reduce cost; note the sensors should not require expensive infrastructure to function properly.</p> | <p>Increase sensing capabilities of cheaper technologies.</p> <p>Could potentially reduce sensing capabilities.</p> <p>Mass production could follow public demand for personal exposure information, for example (especially if easy to use, e.g., integrated into popular devices such as a mobile phones).</p> |
| Mobility | Easy to carry | <p>Pursue portable/handheld devices, recognizing some technologies are more amenable to miniaturization than others (e.g., chemical vs. spectroscopic and ionization sensors).</p> <p>Leverage for hybrid systems, supplement with larger mounted sensors (e.g., on cars, bikes).</p> | <p>Typical trade-off between size and sensing capabilities.</p> <p>Not amenable to indoor applications, location limitations for vehicle-mounted sensors.</p> |
| Energy consumption | Sustained energy conservation (e.g., to increase battery life between charges) | <p>Reduce sampling time, reduce warmup period.</p> <p>Non-continuous sampling: select times for discrete vs. continuous sampling (e.g., when air quality is expected to be poorer or conditions change, or when in transit vs. stationary); can be useful when pollutant patterns are known (e.g., when concentrations are likely elevated).</p> <p>Delay data upload (GPS/concentration) to optimize energy-efficiency (e.g., upload while charging the device).</p> <p>Decrease operational temperature (e.g., for MOS).</p> <p>Use passive vs. active sensing to reduce energy associated with drawing air into the sensor.</p> <p>Integrate energy-producing devices that use textile fibers to harvest mechanical, vibrational and hydraulic energy and convert to electrical energy to power nanodevices.</p> | <p>Capture real-time, daily air pollutant concentration spectrum, optimize pulse vs. continuous sampling based on pollutant and setting characteristics and data use/decision needs and objectives.</p> <p>Facilitate real-time data upload (applies to charged units, not battery-powered devices).</p> <p>Nanomaterials can continue to be explored (e.g., the operational temperature was reduced to 300°C in one case, still much higher than room temperature operation for polymer-film sensors).</p> <p>Tap ongoing innovative research on novel energy sources and energy harvesting.</p> |

TABLE 4-2 Highlights of Sensor Gaps/Limitations and Opportunities^a

| Feature | Gaps | Potential Solutions / Advances | Issues / Research Opportunities |
|-------------------------|--|---|--|
| Sensitivity-selectivity | High sensitivity and selectivity is a current gap for lower-cost sensors | Add hardware and software to account for interferences (including humidity, temperature, air flow, barometric pressure). | Additional components typically increase cost and energy consumption; might be accommodated by mass fabrication. |
| | | Choose pre-concentration materials chosen based on composition for selectivity of target substances and ability to deliver molecules to sensing elements in more concentrated bursts to increase sensitivity. | Time to reach desired pre-concentration rates may be increased if the concentration is low, resulting in increased sampling and response times. |
| | | Use multiple sensing elements (e.g., sensor arrays, e-noses). | Possible increased maintenance needs, cost. |
| | | Pursue humidity-assisted gas sensing to improve selectivity. | Has been applied to SO ₂ /NO ₂ differentiation. More research is needed for application to other pollutants of interest. |
| | Interference control | Use chemical coatings that only allow certain particles (based on electric potentials) to reach the sensing device. | |
| | | Use front-end filter/screen interferences. | |
| Sensor drift | Sensor drift | Harness super-sampling and automated sensor calibration networks; software tools include CaliBree, Quintet, and Halo. | Adding components typically increases cost and energy consumption; a possible cost reduction from mass fabrication would be at least somewhat offset by additional software. |
| | | Increase desorption rate of chemicals and interferents such as water molecules from reactive chemical films. | |

TABLE 4-2 Highlights of Sensor Gaps/Limitations and Opportunities^a

| Feature | Gaps | Potential Solutions / Advances | Issues / Research Opportunities |
|---------------------------------------|--|---|---|
| Response, recovery, and analysis time | Identification of exposure context (e.g., environmental setting, concurrent activity) | Include technology that "hears" ambient noise and classifies its spectral features to identify the measurement environment. Include an accelerometer. Enhance software, e.g., building on Intel's Place Lab or MIT's Cricket Indoor Locator (note Place Lab requires a radio beacon to estimate position, so although this example is not practical for general use it illustrates the basic concept). | Continued research and development is indicated for such technologies; adding components to sensor systems can increase cost and/or energy consumption, depending on the component (note a common 3-axis accelerometer is about \$10). Typically governed by energy constraints, sensor technology and sampling preferences. |
| | Response time | Depends on specific application needs, constraints, and preferences. Can increase reactive surface area in chemical sensors; could be achieved using nanoparticles. | Hazardous and unreliable purification techniques (dissolving in solutions such as dichlorobenzene) for CNTs results in increased cost of production. Use of other materials has been successful. Increasing reactive surface typically greatly increases recovery time. Added cost is also an issue. |
| | Recovery time | Expose to UV light or heating elements. Increase chemical desorption rates. | |
| Climate control | Reliable field operation (without a relatively large climate control infrastructure) | Pursue technologies that do not require climate control and/or include components that account for environmental factors (e.g., sensors in which the current in metal oxide filaments is altered per temperature and humidity; such as for the Air Quality Egg). | Technology changes to improve field operations typically come at the expense of other capabilities; additional components can increase cost and/or energy consumption. |

^a Information resources include:

Place Lab: Intel, http://www.intel-research.net/Publications/Seattle/100220061038_340.pdf: estimates location (ubiquitously) by scanning for fixed radio beacons (802.11 access points [WiFi or Bluetooth] and GSM cell towers). Works indoors and outdoors, and can run on laptops, PDAs, and cell phones. Privacy addressed by not needing any network connection or server-based infrastructure. Less accurate than GPS (can estimate location within 15 to 20 meters if three distinct beacons are seen in a 10-s window), but can cover nearly all user locations. Developed in tandem BeaconPrint, a program used for place learning (the location cannot be estimated without a beacon database).

Cricket: MIT, <http://cricket.csail.mit.edu/>.

Air quality egg: <http://airqualityegg.wikispaces.com/AirQualityEgg>.

CNT hazards and costs: <http://scitechdaily.com/mit-team-uses-carbon-nanotubes-to-draw-gas-sensors/>; <http://www.azonano.com/article.aspx?ArticleID=3107>.

Quintet and Halo: Eisenman (2008): People-Centric Mobile Sensing Networks; <http://www.ists.dartmouth.edu/library/440.pdf>.

TABLE 4-3 Highlights of Advantages and Limitations for Selected Technologies-Techniques^a

| Sensing Technology/ Technique | Advantages | Limitations |
|---|---|--|
| Electrochemical | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. User-friendly 2. Requires very little power to operate; operates at ambient temperature 3. Linear response over a wide concentration range 4. Relatively sensitive (very sensitive to diverse VOCs) 5. Very fast sampling | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Noise and drift in electronics can impact accuracy and precision of measurements 2. Smallest practical sensor = 1 cm³ 3. Larger = more precise and accurate 4. Can be sensitive to temperature and extreme humidity 5. Have short life spans (1-2 years) |
| Spectroscopic | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Laser can be tuned to measure one or more specific gases 2. Accuracy can be very high 3. Can detect relatively inert compounds (does not rely on chemical reactions) | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Typically at least a few centimeters long (minimum distance required for laser), and difficult to improve upon existing detection limits (limited by optical cross section, absorption cross section, and other factors) 2. Components are typically more expensive for spectroscopic sensors than electrochemical and MOS sensors |
| Metal oxide | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Available off the shelf 2. Low cost 3. Very small 4. Good for identifying relative concentration changes | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Better for reasonably reactive gases, not for inerts 2. Requires high power to heat metal oxide (250-500°C) 3. Very sensitive to environmental factors 4. Requires extensive calibration 5. Have short life spans (1-2 years) |
| MEMS with resonator technology (e.g., FBAR) | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Detects PM 2. Very, very small 3. Manufacturing process is already tuned for high volume, low cost; currently used in some mobile phones (note FBAR represents the technique whereby mechanical stress is converted to an electrical signal) | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Still under research (one feature under study is high power air pump for controlled flow rate resulting in high energy consumption) 2. Does not detect gases |

^a MEMS: microelectromechanical systems; FBAR is a thin-film, bulk acoustic resonator technology.

TABLE 4-4 Example Comparison of Limitations and Opportunities for Three CO Sensors^a

| Feature | Commercial Sensor System: <i>Ecotech Serinus 30</i> | R&D Sensor System: <i>Solid electrolyte sensor</i> | Household Sensor: <i>Kidde Digital CO</i> |
|--|--|--|--|
| Cost <i>Opportunity</i> | Relatively high <i>Could potentially lower, e.g., via large-scale manufacturing-marketing</i> | (Not identified) <i>≤ to household sensor price</i> | ~\$30 Decrease cost |
| Mobility <i>Opportunity</i> | Yes, but ~40 lbs <i>Reduce system size (to handheld)</i> | Setup could be miniaturized <i>Reduce system size</i> | Mounted in outlet; 13 in. width Pursue portability, reduce size |
| Energy consumption <i>Opportunity</i> | 99-132 VAC, 198-264 VAC 47-63 Hz <i>Decrease, optimize</i> | (Not identified) | 120 VAC |
| Sensitivity-selectivity <i>Opportunity</i> | 0.04-200 ppm (LDL 20 ppb) – highly selective for CO <i>Increase sensitivity</i> | 10-500 ppm (detection limit: 0.5 ppm); also detects VOCs & hydrocarbons; high selectivity <i>Increase sensitivity</i> | 30-999 ppm (+/- 20%); also detects smoke |
| Analysis/response time <i>Opportunity</i> | Response time: 60 seconds <i>Reduce warmup, response times</i> | Response time: <1 min; continuous <i>Reduce response/warmup times (noncontinuous)</i> | Continuous sampling/readout |
| Other operating factors <i>Opportunity</i> | 0-40°C; regular calibration <i>Decrease maintenance requirements</i> | <i>Pursue autocalibration (e.g., via network)</i> | 7-year life |
| Operator type <i>Opportunity</i> | Trained <i>Make user friendly for general public</i> | Trained <i>Make user friendly for general public</i> | General public |

^a The first two sensors have networking capabilities and concentration displays; the household sensor includes the latter but no networking.

R&D Sensor-System: Information highlighted from Kida et al. (2010). *Application of a Solid Electrolyte CO₂ Sensor for the Analysis of Standard Volatile Organic Compound Gases*. *Analytical Chemistry*, 82(8):3315-3319, <http://pubs.acs.org/doi/full/10.1021/ac100123u> (Kyushu University, Fukuoka Japan; Dept. Energy and Materials Sciences). Note: this represents a relatively early stage of research so information for some table entries is not yet known; it has only been tested in the laboratory (not the field).

Energy consumption: Reducing sample acquisition time can significantly reduce energy consumption. Moving from continuous sampling to discontinuous (pulse) sampling within longer time intervals or during specific times of the day could conserve energy. Opportunities for energy conservation include reducing the duration of each measurement and decreasing warmup times. Some sensor technologies such as those based on metal oxides require a high power heater for operation. Transmitting collected data from the sensor to the network database also consume energy. Delaying data upload until the sensor is being charged can help reduce that consumptions (e.g., for situations where real-time data are not needed).

Sensitivity-selectivity/interferences: Interferences are a common problem for research sensors, including from other chemicals, humidity, temperature, barometric pressure, and air flow rate. Performance can be enhanced by either keeping key interferents constant or otherwise accounting for variability. Hardware options exist to address some sources of interference, but at a cost. Precision can also be increased by super-sampling approaches, which would involve deploying a large number of mobile sensors (e.g., hot spots where people frequently congregate would offer an opportunity for super-sampling and collective calibration).

Analysis/response time: Because mobile sensors take measurements in many places, context needs to be attributed to each sample for data to be useful. Research opportunities being pursued include incorporating capabilities into the device that provide this context across multiple setting. For example, audiosensing for ambient noise with classification of the spectral features is being used to indicate the sampling environment. Accelerometers are being used to indicate the level of activity during data collection (common for sensors embedded in cell phones). Response time is related to energy consumption; warmup times differ by technology, and different sensors take samples over different intervals. Note the emphasis for response time is not so much taking as many samples as quickly as possible but rather what type of sampling regimen is well suited and most efficient for purpose of the given monitoring. It is very important for sensor readouts to place the concentration in context of the exposure benchmark. For example, a 1-minute value that exceeds an 8-hour or 24-hour standard might not produce adverse health effects and could cause unnecessary concern if the readout is separated from that key information context.

Other operating factors: Calibration/data quality is one of the most important issues for mobile sensors. Minimal drift over a long time is desired. For some situations, such as super-sampling (in which sensors are close to each other), tools exist for manually calibrating the sensors within a large network so sampling results can be compared across sensors and drift can be assessed (e.g., with CaliBree). Also described in research literature are tools to tap other sensing resources from nearby devices and to rendezvous with static infrastructure, such as Quintet and Halo, respectively (Eisenman 2008). Because ambient concentrations are typically low, even a slight drift can produce unreliable results. Software advancements are needed to detect malfunctioning sensors to avoid throwing off the automatic calibration system (or including those data). Also, incorporating hardware that can account for changes in humidity and temperature reduces the extensive climate-control infrastructure needs. Sensors need to have the ability to be interference-free or take such changes into account, including changes in humidity and temperature.

4.2.6 Mobile Applications

An overview of several online air quality resources (including EPA 2012b) and free mobile applications is presented in Appendix G, together with a demonstration of selected Android apps (Temple [2012]). Also included in Appendix G are user comments that have been posted online for three apps, reflecting inputs from more than 60 users reported from April 2012 to February 2013 (Table G-1, tapping Aesthetikx [2012], ALA [2013], and EPA [2013c]). These comments are ordered within three main topic areas (value, data coverage, and user interface), first in order of the user rating (e.g., comments rated highest are grouped first within a category), and then in order of the comment date. (Note the date provides some context for progressive versions of the apps, as the version and the mobile device used are not reported in all cases.)

The example demonstration of air quality apps in Appendix G indicates several issues for current mobile apps:

- Data coverage: Limited to a fixed monitoring station from the nearest urban center, and data are only available for major cities. Without further information to fill in current spatial gaps, it cannot be known if such data are representative across community, neighborhood, and individual scales.
- Pollutant coverage: Limited to two pollutants: PM_{2.5} and ground-level ozone. The air quality index (AQI) map application does not differentiate between the two. (Note in most cases, the air quality is represented by a number associated with the AQI.)
- Update frequency: The frequency of AQI updates varied for certain areas and monitors. Forecasting is affected in those areas for which data are updated less frequently.
- User interface, and inconsistencies.

Online reviews and ratings indicate many of the same concerns. The value of the app concept is highly regarded (collective rating of 4.5 out of 5), which affirms that mobile apps represent a clear opportunity area. The main gaps are associated with data coverage (collective rating of 1.4) and the user interface (collective rating of 2.3).

4.2.7 Data Quality and Data Management

Quality and quantity are key issues for data collected by mobile sensors, in terms of both practical utility and the management approaches and systems needed for the enormous amounts of data generated. Regarding the first issue, data quality objectives are key – as the purpose for which the data are collected drives the quality expectations (to assure they are "fit for purpose"). Regulatory requirements and guidance exist for data quality for specific enforcement or compliance purposes, including guidance for ambient air quality data. For example, the recent list of designated reference and equivalent methods for criteria pollutants (EPA 2012a) emphasizes the importance of using each method "in strict accordance with its associated operation or instruction manual and with applicable quality assurance procedures."

Recognizing that substantial amounts of data are used for many other purposes beyond regulatory programs, it is useful to consider the nature of the data warranted for various uses. For example, the quality of data needed to guide an individual's plan for outdoor activities (e.g., to avoid strenuous activities when a given pollutant concentration is high) would be much

different than that for reporting facility emissions and fence-line concentrations under specific state or federal compliance programs. In many cases, qualitative or semiquantitative data (such as may result from a low-cost colorimetric approach) will be sufficient for the intended purpose. Thus, tiered approaches (or "banding") for indicating appropriate data quality and management standards and tools are expected to play an important role in addressing air quality for data from mobile sensors. It is vital to assure that readouts are compared to appropriate benchmarks so that measured values are not compared to benchmarks with much different averaging times.

Big data represents an emerging research area, as a number of agency, national laboratory, industry, and other research efforts aim to develop and implement effective ways of dealing with the explosion of data being generated (e.g., as illustrated by the open government initiative, see data.gov). With continuing advances in high-performance computing, a new breed of smart supercomputers is being tapped to tackle the enormous amounts of data being generated; for air quality alone, the volume of data (which is already extremely large) will markedly increase under the vision of widespread mobile sensing. New statistical approaches including scalable and parallelizable numerical algorithms are being developed to address the much more complex data analytics challenges created by massive data sets. Parallel advancements in data storage and access approaches and systems, such as cloud computing, also provide opportunities for addressing the vast scale of data to be generated by mobile sensors.

In the age of ubiquitous computing, ongoing internet advances provide a strong opportunity for addressing the huge amounts of air quality data envisioned. In less than twenty years, the evolution of the world wide web has been remarkable – beginning with the "web of cognition" (1.0) and morphing to a web of communication (2.0), cooperation (3.0), and integration (4.0) (Aghaei et al. 2012). As described by Larson (2012), Web 1.0 was content creation by the few, with software on local machines and reliance on desktop computers. The Web 2.0 era saw content creation by the many, emergence of social technologies and both local and web-based software, and the use of mobile phones and tablets. With Web 3.0, content was being created by the majority, web participation was common, and software was in the cloud. In the current era, Web 4.0, meaning is being created by the majority, operating systems are in the cloud, desktop computers, mobile phones, and tablets have been joined by iTV, and augmented data layers are common. Sustained advancements will continue to provide strong opportunities for uploading, distributing, sharing, visualizing, storing, and maintaining data from mobile sensors.

A further important consideration for citizen-based sensing relates to privacy/ethics, such as issues related to location tagging and human subject constraints. Approaches for addressing these issues include tools that can decouple, aggregate, anonymize and otherwise transform data to provide appropriate protection.

4.3 PARTNERSHIPS

4.3.1 Funding Sources: Leveraging

Many U.S. and international organizations have funded research relevant to mobile sensors and apps for air pollutants. Funding agencies include the U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA); Department of Defense (DoD), including the Air Force Office of Scientific Research and Army Research Office, Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (DARPA), Defense Threat Reduction Agency (DTRA); Department of Energy (DOE); Department of Homeland Security (DHS); Department of Transportation (DOT), including Federal Aviation Administration (FAA); EPA, National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA); Department of Health and Human Services (DHHS), including NIH, NIEHS ; National Science Foundation (NSF) and other

foundations; and U.S. Department of Commerce, National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST). For example, EPA ORD has been very active in promoting and leveraging partnerships, including through several recent workshops in Research Triangle Park, NC, and Washington, DC; NIEHS has also hosted workshops and webinars to convene researchers active in this area, and both agencies are collaborating on these efforts.

Private-sector funding sources include Motorola, Exxon Mobil, Microsoft, Nokia, Intel, and others. As an indication of new opportunities, individual citizens are also playing a role in funding mobile sensor initiatives, including via crowdsourcing platforms such as Kickstarter. Leveraging is being pursued at multiple levels including via agency work group, researcher collaborations, research-community initiatives, and community-centered projects with DIYers. Programs such as *AIRNow* and the *Weather Underground* serve as examples for expanded collaboration, including internationally. Topics being addressed include harmonization and open source approaches for standards, protocols, platforms, and networks.

4.3.2 Education and Participation Initiatives

Student-centered programs have played an important role in promoting awareness of mobile sensing for air pollutants that is expected to continue and increase. Programs such as the G03 project (focused on schoolchildren awareness of atmospheric pollution) and Air Quality Egg provide a strong foundation for related initiatives. Similar successes include the Bucket Brigade (developed to assist fenceline communities), Common Sense, and AIR by Preemptive Media. Such community-centered sensing projects have demonstrated extensive networking capabilities with associated integration and visualization of air quality data contributed by citizen users.

The DIY community is increasingly active. A number of online resources are available to facilitate mobile sensing projects. For example, step-by-step instructions can be found for a wide variety of projects via Explore Instructables.com and SparkFun.com. Tutorials and product information can be found for an extensive suite of DIY projects, including air and weather sensors. The SparkFun Inventor's Kit for Arduino is an example of a resource that guides beginners through the construction of 14 basic circuits and can be modified to include individual pollutant sensors. Basic materials for DIYers include an Arduino board (a platform compatible with a number of sensor inputs) and small sensor units that can be purchased preassembled or in parts for hands-on activities. Individual "plug-and-play" pollutant-specific sensors can be purchased through SparkFun or directly from standard manufacturers such as Hanwei and Figaro. The nonprofit AirCast initiative is a nice example of active engagement, with citizens building their own sensor devices using information and materials from a common source for the DIY community, including (remote) international participants.

Opportunities for increased awareness and creative citizen involvement are tapped via open challenges (e.g., My Air, My Health; C3: Collect, Construct, Change) and gamifying approaches. A key aim of the mobile sensors and apps initiative is to facilitate participatory sensing, and a number of successful programs serve as examples, from Project BudBurst to NightSky. Additional lessons can be learned from citizen-based sensing associated with incidents such as Fukushima. Insights gained from a wide variety of recent participatory sensing projects frame opportunities for enhancing the citizen involvement element of the current EPA initiative for next-generation air monitoring.

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5 SUMMARY

This report highlights recent research relevant to mobile sensors and apps for air pollutants.

Study Pollutants

Fourteen pollutants (two solids and twelve gases) provided context for practical applications:

- Criteria pollutants: Carbon monoxide, lead, nitrogen dioxide, ozone, particulate matter, and sulfur dioxide.
- HAPs: Acetaldehyde, acrolein, benzene, 1,3-butadiene, and formaldehyde.
- Indicators: Ammonia, hydrogen sulfide, and methane.

Sensor Targets

- Most mobile sensors detect gases; criteria pollutant gases appear to be adequately covered.
- No mobile sensors were found for lead; particulate matter (PM) options are also limited.
- Research sensors or novel systems with commercial sensors exist for the indicator pollutants and most of the HAPs, but sensors for acrolein and 1,3-butadiene are limited.

Sensing Technology/Technique

- Technique: These can be grouped into three main categories: chemical, spectroscopic, and ionization techniques (in order of prominence per the selected literature reviewed); the first two are most active and growing.
- Technology: Nanotechnology is a dominant theme in recent air pollutant sensor research.

Detection Capabilities

- Health-based guidelines: Most levels appear to be detectable based on reported sensor capabilities, except for the lower (protective) concentrations for four pollutants: acetaldehyde, acrolein, ammonia, and formaldehyde.
- Ambient measurements: Acrolein, lead, and methane are among the pollutants for which common ambient levels could be difficult to detect.
- Commercial sensors and novel systems that use commercial sensors dominate over strictly research sensors for many of the chemicals.

Architecture/Infrastructure and Apps

- Architecture: Portable, handheld and vehicle-mounted architectures are relatively common; less common are wearable sensors. The trend is increasingly small and mobile.
- Infrastructure: Sensor components are increasingly integrated with mobile phones, tapping Bluetooth/wireless network links. User interface design and programming components are highly active research areas, and a limited set of air quality apps exist.

Gaps

- Particle sensors, including chemical-specific sensors, are generally lacking; multipollutant sensors in a single small, affordable system (rather than modular plug-ins) are needed.
- Detection capabilities are not sufficiently low to address the full range of benchmarks and example air concentrations for the pollutants studied (or others of interest to communities).
- Field reliability and durability of sensors/systems are not yet assured over a range of environmental conditions (including less expensive measures for addressing drift, interferences and local climatic conditions).
- Algorithms and approaches are needed for consistent data processing, quality assurance and control, and data scrubbing, transformation, integration, visualization, and analysis.
- Effective and efficient data and knowledge management approaches are needed, including standards and protocols, infrastructure, and software for reporting, accessing, sharing, storing/archiving, and maintaining data, considering both raw and transformed data and topical syntheses.
- Apps that provide high-resolution spatial coverage for community, local, and individual scales are needed, with displays for a full suite of pollutants. Also needed are reliable user interfaces across multiple devices, extending beyond mobile phones to include tablets and other emerging systems, as well as supporting content for data interpretation (e.g., links to health-based standards and other measurements relevant to that setting).

Opportunities

- Nanotechnology-based advancements in sensing technologies/techniques and sensor systems provide a strong opportunity for increasingly mobile sensors.
- Integrated sensor arrays for multi-pollutant sensing, as well as links to biosensors (e.g., personalized medicine applications) combined with insights from sensors for other measurands, offer opportunities for multipurpose systems.
- Novel energy sources (including human) and optimized sampling regimens (e.g., super sampling and targeted sampling guided by pollutant behaviors and fate) offer opportunities for lower power use and more affordable systems.
- Hybrid fixed-mobile systems that leverage existing infrastructure represent opportunities for practical field applications.
- Greater automation and expanding networks also offer opportunities for higher performance, including autocalibration and self repair (e.g., Internet of Things/Web 4.0).
- Real-time data collection, upload, integration, distribution, display, and interpretation via user-friendly apps represent opportunities for platforms that extend beyond smartphones. Ongoing advances in cloud computing and related systems offer opportunities for more efficient data sharing and management.
- Leveraging systems, organizational resources, and citizen capital represents an opportunity for achieving the goal of nationwide air quality data coverage and context for guiding environmental health management measures from personal to regional and national scales. Collateral programmatic benefits including intermediate baselining for climate change and adaptation planning, increased awareness of personal exposure and health, and other related environmental health and impact analyses programs.

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7 SELECTED INFORMATION RESOURCES

(A number of information resources are also provided in individual tables and supporting notes.)

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APPENDIX A:
SUPPORTING DETAILS FOR THE LITERATURE SEARCH APPROACH

APPENDIX A: SUPPORTING DETAILS FOR THE LITERATURE SEARCH APPROACH

A.1 INITIAL FRAMING ACTIVITIES

A.1.1 Pollutants

As part of initial framing for the literature search, early inputs from EPA Program and Region staff regarding pollutants of interest were compiled in Table A-1.

TABLE A-1 Program and Regional Inputs to the List of Candidate Pollutants^a

| Air Pollutant | Basis |
|---|---|
| Acrolein | National Air Toxics Assessment (NATA), national hazard driver |
| Benzene | NATA regional risk driver |
| 1,3-Butadiene | NATA national risk contributor |
| Carbon monoxide (CO) | Criteria pollutant |
| 1,1-Dichloroethylene | Risk driver, soil vapor intrusion |
| Ethylbenzene | Risk driver, soil vapor intrusion; NATA national risk contributor |
| Formaldehyde | NATA national risk driver |
| Hexabromocyclododecanes (HBCDs) | Children's health program, flame retardant |
| Hydrogen sulfide | Emissions indicator |
| Lead | Children's health program; criteria pollutant |
| Mercury | Children's health program |
| Methane | Emissions indicator |
| Nitrogen oxides/dioxide (NO _x /NO ₂) | Criteria pollutant |
| Ozone | Criteria pollutant |
| Particulate matter (PM) | Criteria pollutant; from NATA: diesel PM, coke oven emissions |
| Perchlorate | Children's health program |
| Perfluorocarbons (PFCs) | Children's health program |
| Phthalates | Children's health program |
| Polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDE) | Children's health program, flame retardant |
| Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) | Children's health program |
| Sulfur oxides/dioxide (SO _x /SO ₂) | Criteria pollutant |
| Toluene | Children's health program |
| Trichloroethylene | Risk driver, soil vapor intrusion |
| Xylene | Children's health program |

^a This list includes inputs provided by EPA Program and Regional staff to the ORD innovation team for air pollutant sensors and apps. In addition to these candidates, other hazardous air pollutants (HAPs) are also expected to be of interest across multiple programs and projects. Supporting context provided with selected Regional input for several compounds, included risk-based concentrations in parts per billion by volume (ppbv) corresponding to a 10⁻⁵ risk (probability of getting cancer over a lifetime, per an assumed continuous exposure using current toxicity values and default residential exposure assumptions for that screening evaluation). Those concentrations were considered as part of the evaluation of sensor detection levels presented in Chapter 3.

A.1.2 Search Terms

Early framing searches were conducted to identify terms for the broader literature search. Candidate terms identified at this early stage are presented below (Table A-2). Core terms include air, quality, toxics, contaminant, hazardous, pollutant/pollution, HAP, measurement, monitoring, citizen, community; mobile, portable, miniature, sensor; technology, smartphone.

TABLE A-2 Candidate Search Terms

| | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|
| Actuator(s) | Configuration | Electronic |
| Aerosol (sensor) | Criteria air pollutant(s) | Embed(ded) |
| Air/emissions | Crowd source(d)/sourcing | ENS/embedded network |
| Air pollutant/pollution | Cumulative exposure | sensing |
| Air quality | Cumulative risk | Engineer/ed/ing |
| Air toxic(s) | | Environment |
| Airborne contaminant | Data access | Environmental app |
| Ambient air monitoring | Data aggregation | Environmental contaminant |
| Ambient air quality | Data analysis | Environmental |
| Analyzer (portable) | Data collection | contamination |
| Android | Data curation/curator | Environmental data |
| App, application | Data delivery | Environmental informatics |
| Architecture (mobile | Data distribution | Environmental measurement |
| sensor, access point, | Data download | Environmental monitoring |
| back end) | Data flow | Environmental |
| Automate(d)/automatic | Data format | observation(s) |
| Autonomous (semi-) | Data infrastructure | Environmental pollutant |
| | Data management | Environmental pollution |
| Background (noise) | Data processing | Equipment |
| Badge (sensor) | Data push | Eye on earth |
| Biosensor | Data quality | |
| Blackberry | Data refresh/reload | Fenceline community |
| Browser | Data sharing | Fenceline monitor |
| BZ (breathing zone) | Data storage/storing | Fenceline sensor |
| monitor | Data stream(ing) | Field demonstration |
| | Data structure | Field deployment |
| Chemical (pollutant, | Data update (updating) | Field detection/detector |
| sensor) | Data upload(ing) | Field implementation |
| Chip | Data validation | Field measure/ment |
| Citizen science/scientist | Data verification | Field monitor/ing |
| Cloud (computing, | Data visualization | Field sensing/sensor |
| services) | Demonstration/demo | Film (sensor) |
| Colorimetric (array) | Deploy/deployment | Filter (noise) |
| Commercial sensor | Detection level/limit | Fixed sensor |
| Commercial product | Detector | Flash |
| Communication | Device (end device) | Fluorescent (fluorescence) |
| Community | Digital (imaging) | |
| Community-led/-based | Distributed control | Gamify |
| Compact | Distributed network | Gas (sensor) |
| Components (sensor) | Download (app, data) | Geoprocessing |
| Computer (-aided, | Dynamic | Geo-reference(d) |
| -assisted) | | GeoRSS feed |

(TABLE A-2, Cont'd.)

| | | |
|--|---|-------------------------------------|
| Geospatial | Mobile monitor(ing) | Recognizer (recognition, voice) |
| Geostatistics | Mobile phone | Record |
| GIS/geographic information system(s) | Mobile sensor | Real-time (data collection) |
| GO3 | Monitoring data | Real-time (feedback) |
| Google earth | Multiple air pollutants | Real-time (monitor/monitoring) |
| GPS/global positioning system | Multiple exposures | Replacement |
| Graphics | Multiple sensors | |
| | Multiple toxics | |
| Handheld (hand-held) | NAAQS/ National Ambient Air Quality Standard(s) | Self-configuring/ed (system) |
| Hardware | Nanosensor | Sensing/sensor |
| HAP(s) | Network sensing | Sensor accuracy |
| Hazardous air pollutant(s) | Noise (filter) | Sensor array |
| Hazardous chemical(s) | | Sensor capability/capabilities |
| | Observations & measurements (O&M) | Sensor component |
| ICT/ information and communication technology(ies) | Open data (linked) | Sensor cost |
| Image/imaging | Open database license | Sensor deployment |
| Industry/industrial | Open platform, system | Sensor-enabled |
| Informatics | Operating/operation(s) | Sensor performance |
| Infrastructure | Optimum/optimize | Sensor platform |
| Innovation/innovative | | Sensor precision |
| Install(ation) (app) | Palm | Sensor requirements |
| Interface (graphical, web) | Participation/participatory (sensing) | Sensor sensitivity |
| Internet | Personal device | Sensor size |
| Interoperability | Personal/personnel monitor | Sensor system |
| Ionization (ionizer) | Personal exposure assessment | Sensor technology |
| Iphone | Personal exposure monitoring | Sensor validation |
| | Photo (electric, ionization) | Shake (function) |
| Laser | Pilot (project, study) | Signal |
| Localized algorithm(s) | Platform (cross-, hardware) | Signal (processing) |
| Locational | Plug-in | Small-scale |
| Luminescent, luminescent(nce) | Pollutant(s)/pollution | Smartphone |
| | Portable | Smart sensors |
| Maintenance | Position(al) (sensors) | Social media |
| Manufacture(r)(ing) | Product, production (cost) | Software |
| Map(s) | Prototype | Spatial data |
| Mashup | | Spectroscopy/spectroscopic |
| MEMS /microelectromechanical | QA, QA/QC | |
| Micro | Quality assurance | Tag(ging) |
| Microsensor | Quality control | Technology(ies) |
| Miniature/miniaturized | R&D/research & development | Test (demonstration, field) |
| Mobile app | Rapid (analyzer, analysis) | TIC(s)/toxic industrial chemical(s) |
| Mobile aware | Raw data | Toxic(s)/toxicant |
| Mobile measurement | | Trace(r) |
| | | Track(er)(ing) |
| | | Unified (sensor) |
| | | Untethered (wireless) |
| | | Usablenet |

(TABLE A-2, Cont'd.)

VGI/volunteered geographic
information

Visualization/visualize

Wearable (sensor, monitor)

Web 2.0 / 3.0

Web app

Web-based information
system(s)

Web-enabled

Web processing service

Web service interface

Wireless

A.2 PHASE I SEARCH

A broad online search of recent literature was initiated in late 2011 and continued into early 2012. Its focus was mobile sensor technologies and associated architecture/infrastructures and applications.

A.2.1 Scope

The search focused on the following considerations:

- Sensor size: Small, handheld
- Portability: Mobile / easy to carry
(Note: Fixed sensors are considered when part of a combined system or if transition to a portable system is indicated in the near term.)
- Stage: Research and development, to prototype
(Note: Commercial sensors are included when they are part of a novel sensing device or system.)
- Cost: Low
(Note: Per the research and development focus, it is recognized that this information will not be available in many cases; ultimate goal: \$10 or less.)
- Detection limit: ppb or lower (recognizing many will be ppm)
- Date: 2010-2012
- Language: English preferred (others not excluded)

A.2.2 Online Resources

A number of standard searches were conducted during this initial phase, tapping online databases via Web of Science, Web of Knowledge, PubMed, and others, using tools such as RefMan. Further searches ranged from general Google searches (including for paper retrievals) to targeted searches of specific journals, institutions, and researchers as identified from initial reviews.

INSPEC/Physics Abstracts

This heavily indexed database covers the fields of physics, electrical engineering and electronics, computers and control, information technology and mechanical and production engineering, as well as cross-disciplinary subjects such as materials science and nanotechnology. Two initial searches conducted in Phase I (not limited by language) were:

1. Classification Codes covering “sensor” AND indexed keywords for air pollution; search limited to records from 2010-present.

Year Published=(2010-2012) AND Classification=(B7230 OR B6250K OR A0670D OR A8280T OR C3240 OR A8780B) AND Topic=((environment* or (air pollution) or (air quality) or (air toxic*) or (air and emission*) or (airborne contaminant*) or (air pollutant*) or (air monitor*))) AND (Uncontrolled Index=((environment* or (air pollution*))) OR Controlled Index=((environment* or (air pollution*))))

2. Classification Codes covering “air pollution” AND indexed keywords for sensors; this search was limited to records from 2010-present.

Year Published=(2010-2012) AND Classification=(A8670L OR A9260T OR B7720 OR C3310G) AND Topic=((sensor or sensors or microsensor* or nanosensor* or biosensor* or detector*))

Results of Set 1 and Set 2 were combined and screened for those with words and synonyms for portable/miniature.

Topic=((portable or mobile or (low cost) or (small size*) or (miniature*) or (micro-portable) or wireless or handheld or (hand held) or personal or (small scale) or smartphone or app or wearable or (citizen science) or (citizen scientist*) or fenceline))

These results were further limited by keywords in the controlled index or uncontrolled index fields:

UI=((air pollution) or (air quality) or (air toxic*) or (air and emission*) or (airborne contaminant*) or (air pollutant*) or (air monitor*) or (toxic gas*)) OR CIX=((air pollution) or (air quality) or (air toxic*) or (air and emission*) or (airborne contaminant*) or (air pollutant*) or (air monitor*) or (toxic gas*))

UI = Uncontrolled Index
CIX = Controlled Index

Classification codes considered include:

| | |
|--------|---|
| A0670D | Sensing and detecting devices |
| A8280T | Chemical sensors |
| A8670L | Measurement and control techniques and instrumentation in environmental science |
| A8780B | Biosensors |
| A9260T | Air quality and air pollution |
| B6250K | Wireless sensor networks |
| B7230 | Sensing devices and transducers |
| B7720 | Pollution detection and control |
| C3240 | Transducers and sensing devices |
| C3310G | Pollution control |

Chemical Abstracts, Scifinder

A general search for air pollution sensors was conducted for the past two years. Scifinder identifies relevant Chemical Abstracts records, including journal articles, worldwide patents and patent applications.

Web of Science

The Web of Science (WoS) / Science Citation Index covers all the core peer-reviewed scientific literature. Because the indexing is minimal, records appear quickly in the WoS database. This database was searched for relevant 2011-2012 records as a check, to catch papers that may have been missed by the INSPEC and Chemical Abstracts searches.

The WOS does not include all the further indexing available in some other databases so records can be incorporated into the database much more quickly than other database publishers. (This search duplicates some results from Physics and Chemical Abstracts searches.)

Full publications were pursued via the Argonne library system (access to most IEEE articles and AIP conference papers).

Patent Searches

Additional searches were conducted to complement the Chemical Abstracts search using free tools available via the internet, including the Google database and others highlighted below. (Further patent data could be obtained by a patent searcher tapping commercial patent databases.)

1. WIPO – Patentscope, www.wipo.int. This resource was searched for mentions of air pollution sensor in patent documents and international patent applications (PCT) for 2011.
2. US Patent & Trademark Office USPTO. This resource was searched for recent patents and patent applications for air pollution sensors.
3. Espacenet. This resource includes European patents, WIPO patents and Japanese patents. It was searched using "smart search" for recent patents and patent applications for air pollution sensors.

Additional Conference Searches

Simple searches were conducted for "portable or mobile or handheld or miniature" and "air pollution" and "sensors." Engineering Index results were reasonably productive, as those keywords were included in the controlled vocabularies.

Results included abstracts from a search on the Engineering Index platform, and a compilation with links and references to presentations at recent (2009-2011) professional society conferences.

In many cases, relevant abstracts or session descriptions were culled from the websites because formal proceedings volumes were not available. (Note some conferences encourage participants to submit their research to peer-reviewed journals, so some of these presentations are expected to be addressed via other searches designed to tap journals.)

A.3 PHASE II SEARCH

Results of the broad initial search served as the foundation for the more extensive search and retrieval activities in Phase II. These searches followed a similar approach as for Phase I, tapping similar databases and other online resources.

A.3.1 Targeted Searches

Phase II involved a number of targeted searches, including pollutant-specific searches that focused on the study set determined from collaborator inputs and insights from Phase I.

Searches also targeted specific authors, organizations, journals, conferences, and projects that were identified during Phase I as particularly promising.

A.3.2 Secure Searches

Active research is being conducted in support of homeland security-related applications, to support intelligence, security, and defense applications. A targeted search was conducted in a secure facility at Argonne. Results were similar to those from the search of the open literature so they are not discussed further in this report.

A.3.3 Expert Contacts

Colleagues and other experts were contacted during this phase to obtain selected materials not available online (including several conference presentations and proceedings). For example, electronic and hard copy proceedings were obtained for recent ICT conferences (e.g., Ubicomp and Pervasive) to support the compilations and evaluations for research on architecture/infrastructure and application.

A.4 RETRIEVAL, EXTRACTION, AND DATA COMPILATION

Information from the literature search was reviewed, research reports and other publications retrieved, and summary data extracted. The data were then organized and compiled into summary tables to facilitate topical searches and sorts (e.g., by pollutant or by sensing technology/technique).

To illustrate, an example table compiled early in Phase II from journals and organizational websites is provided as Table A-3. Shading indicates results for a pollutant-specific search of to identify sensors for benzene. An example data summary from a patent search prior to compilation in a summary table is presented in Table A-4.

The combined iterative searches and data reviews, extractions, and compilations produced a master sensor table (Raymond et al. 2013) and topical subsets, including those prepared from pollutant-specific sorts. As an example, a subset table is presented in Appendix E to provide summary details for the sensors considered in creating the graphical arrays presented in Section 3.5.

A similar process of search, retrieval, extraction, and compilation was followed to prepare the companion summary table for architecture/infrastructure including software apps.

TABLE A-3 Preliminary Data Compilation for Research Sensors Highlighting the Subset for Benzene^a

| # | Research Organization (authors, funding) | Weblink/ Citation, Year | Detection Technique | Size | Stage | Cost (\$K) | Device | Network Capability | Automated | Pollutant/Parameter | Detection/Sensitivity | Operation-Application Notes |
|----|---|--|--|--|-----------|------------|---|--------------------|-----------|------------------------------------|-----------------------|---|
| 20 | Duke University Yang, Chang-Heng (Masters thesis, funding source not identified but refers to "NASA needs") | http://dukespace.lib.duke.edu/dspace/bitstream/handle/10161/3060/D_Yang_Chang%20Heng_a_2010.pdf?sequence=1 [July 2010] | Nanosensors made of conducting polypyrrole (PPy) and tin dioxide (SnO ₂) on single-walled nanotubes (SWNTs) | | Re-search | | | | | VOCs: benzene, MEK, hexane, xylene | | Fast and sensitive for individual chemicals, but not found in this study to be successful for mixtures. |
| 29 | Guangzhong University, Environmental Science and Engineering Institute (China) Cao, X., Tao, Y., Li, L., Liu, Y., Peng, Y., Li, J. (Funding: National Natural Science Foundation of China, Natural Science Foundation of Guangdong Province, Science and Technology Project Foundation of Guangdong Province) | http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/bio.1174/full [2009, Luminescence, 26:5-9] | Cataluminescence (CTL, type of chemoluminescence produced by catalytic oxidation reactions on surface of solid catalyst) | 5 mm ceramic heating tube within 12 mm quartz tube | Re-search | | Y ₂ O ₃ nanoparticle sensor (Y ₂ O ₃ coated on ceramic heating tube; catalytic reaction when exposed to ethyl acetate, resulting CTL intensity is measured) | Not indicated | Yes | Ethyl acetate | 500 ppb | Sensitivity in presence of other vapors; interference caused by formic acid, <i>n</i> -hexane, toluene, acetic acid, benzene, formaldehyde, and ethanol at respective % levels of 0.52, 5.75, 8.63, 0.46, 2.81, 1.03, 21.1. |

| # | Research Organization (authors, funding) | Weblink/ Citation, Year | Detection Technique | Size | Stage | Cost (\$K) | Device | Network Capability | Automated | Pollutant/Parameter | Detection/Sensitivity | Operation-Application Notes |
|----|---|---|--|------|-----------|------------|--|--------------------|-----------|---|---|--|
| 74 | University of Bahkesir (Turkey) Departments of Physics and Chemistry <i>Acikbas, Y., Capan, R., Erdogan, M., and Yukruk, F.</i> | http://pdn.sciencedirect.com/science?ob=MiamiImageURL&cid=271353&user=1722207&pii=S0925400511006551&check=y&origin=browse&zone=rslt_list_item&coverDate=2011-12-15&wchp=dGLzVlk-zSkzV&md5=0388683803395c4afcf870fed42e0795/1-s2.0-S0925400511006551-main.pdf [2011, <i>Sensors and Actuators B</i> , 160:65-71] | Fluorescence (mass change using a quartz crystal microbalance [QCM] measurement system during influence of gas molecules adsorbed on or diffusing into a thin film surface, deposited on glass or quartz crystal substrate by Langmuir-Blodgett [LB] thin film deposition technique) | | Re-search | | Solid-state fluorescence sensing device with perylene bisimides acting as a fluorescence probe, using a novel perylene molecule (perylene-dimide [FY1] material) | | | Chloroform, isopropyl alcohol Also tested: benzene, toluene, and ethyl alcohol | Chloroform 3.9 x 10 ⁻⁴ Hz/ppm (at 1.5 x 10 ⁴ ppm) | Large, fast, reproducible results for these two chemicals. |

| # | Research Organization (authors, funding) | Weblink/ Citation, Year | Detection Technique | Size | Stage | Cost (\$K) | Device | Network Capability | Automated | Pollutant/Parameter | Detection/Sensitivity | Operation-Application Notes |
|----|---|--|---|--|----------|------------|--|--------------------|-----------|---|--|--|
| 94 | University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign <i>Hengwei, L., Jang, M., Suslick, K.S.</i> (Funding: NIH Genes, Environment, and Health Initiative) | http://www.scs.illinois.edu/suslick/documents/jacs.2011.preox.pdf [Oct. 2011] | "Optoelectronic nose" using disposable colorimetric sensor array and pre-oxidation tube packed with chromic acid on silica (nanoporous pigments with pre-oxidation technique) | Bench-top (tube and array); flatbed scanners used for imaging; prototype handheld array is under development | Research | | Laboratory (in addition to work on a handheld prototype, work is under way on a wearable device for fast, cheap, highly sensitive personal monitoring of VOC vapors) | | Yes | Phenol, others 20 VOCs tested, including acetone, BTEX, chloroform, p-dichlorobenzene, ethanol, ethyl acetate, formaldehyde, MEK, phenol, isopropanol, styrene, 1,1,1-trichloroethane, 1,2,4-trimethylbenzene | Limits of detection improved to an average 1.4% of respective permissible exposure limit concentrations (improved sensing of less-reactive VOCs) | Color changes of array are concentration-dependent, provides semiquantitative analysis; changes in relative humidity (a problem for prior electronic nose technologies) do not generally affect the response even at low analyte concentrations. |

| # | Research Organization (authors, funding) | Weblink/ Citation, Year | Detection Technique | Size | Stage | Cost (\$K) | Device | Network Capability | Automated | Pollutant/Parameter | Detection/Sensitivity | Operation-Application Notes |
|-----|--|---|--|----------|---------------------|------------|-------------------|----------------------------------|------------|--|-----------------------|--|
| 103 | University of Michigan, Department of Environmental Health Sciences Kim, S.K., Chang, H., Zellers, E.T. (Funding: DoD ESTCP and NSF Engineering Research Centers Program; devices fabricated in Lurie Nanofabrication Facility, part of NNI Network supported by NSF) | http://www.chem.ntnu.edu.tw/~chemweb/download/ac201788g.pdf [2011, Analytical Chemistry, 83(18):7198-7206] | Gas chromatography (field microsystem) | Portable | Re-search prototype | | Microsensor array | Autonomous operation with laptop | Via laptop | Trichloroethylene among 11 VOCs tested Also shows promise for BTEX (with modification of pretrap for transfer from atmosphere to sampler) | 11 ppb TCE | A pump brings in and scrubs air, which is then heated and transferred to two micro-columns for analyte separation and VOC detection by microsensors. |

| # | Research Organization (authors, funding) | Weblink/ Citation, Year | Detection Technique | Size | Stage | Cost (\$K) | Device | Network Capability | Automated | Pollutant/Parameter | Detection/Sensitivity | Operation-Application Notes |
|-----|--|---|---|------|-------|------------|---|--------------------|-----------|--|--|---|
| 109 | University of Sheffield, Department of Physics and Astronomy <i>AlQahtani, Hadi, and colleagues</i> King Saud University (Saudi Arabia), Department of Physics (AIQ, H.) (Funding: King Saud University, UK Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council [doctoral training and post-doctoral fellowship], and European Commission Experienced Research Marie Curie fellowship under the 'FlexSmel' Training Network) | http://pdn.sciencedirect.com/science?_ob=MiamicImageURL&cid=271353&_pii=S0925400511007222&_check=y&_origin=browse&_zone=rslt_list_item&_coverDate=2011-12-15&wchp=dGLzVlk-zSkzV&md5=a9b2a8baaf63a476c64f548981a8d09d/1-s2.0-S0925400511007222-main.pdf [2011, <i>Sensors and Actuators B</i> , 160:399-404] | Resistance (with resulting current driven into a virtual ground by a current/voltage converter) | | | | Gold core/shell nanoparticle (Au-CSNP) film on glass substrate (processed by the Langmuir-Schäfer [LS] printing method) | | | Decane (for odor detection relative to the lower explosive limit, LEL) (the response is weaker but still significant for toluene and xylene) | 15 ppm (about 1/600th the LEL of 8,000 ppm) | Resistance is weakly dependent on temperature |

| # | Research Organization (authors, funding) | Weblink/ Citation, Year | Detection Technique | Size | Stage | Cost (\$K) | Device | Network Capability | Automated | Pollutant/Parameter | Detection/Sensitivity | Operation-Application Notes |
|---|--|---|---|-----------------|----------|------------|--|---------------------|-----------|---------------------------------------|-----------------------|---|
| 7 | Ben-Gurion University of the Negev (Israel) <i>Eltzov, E., Pavluchkov, V., Burstin, M., Marks, R.S.</i> | http://pdn.sciencedirect.com/science?_ob=MamiImageURL&cid=271353&user=1722207&pii=S092540051100089X&check=y&origin=article&zone=toolbar&coverDate=20-Jul-2011&view=c&originContentFamily=serial&wchp=dGLbVlk-zSkzS&md5=6c590f4c870ff04f6f44961ad25eab1/1-s2.0-S092540051100089X-main.pdf [2011, <i>Sensors and Actuators B</i> , 155:859-867] | Bioluminescence (bacteria on end face of fiber optic) | Field biosensor | Research | | Bioluminescent bacteria, <i>E. coli</i> strains (notably TV1061) immobilized on the end face of a portable fiber optic biodetector | Online capabilities | | Chloroform Toluene was also tested | 6.65 ppb chloroform | Bacteria are immobilized in alginate layers on the fiber optic. |

| # | Research Organization (authors, funding) | Weblink/ Citation, Year | Detection Technique | Size | Stage | Cost (\$K) | Device | Network Capability | Automated | Pollutant/Parameter | Detection/Sensitivity | Operation-Application Notes |
|----|---|---|--|------------|-----------|------------|---|--------------------|-----------|------------------------------------|---|--|
| 14 | Chinese Academy of Sciences, Research Center for Biomimetic Functional Materials and Sensing Devices, Institute of Intelligent Machines Meng, Fan-Li, Huang, Zing-Jiu, and colleagues, also at Anhui Polytechnic University (Funding: One Hundred Person Project of the Academy, National Natural Science Foundation of China, National Basic Research Program of China, and Anhui Provincial Natural Science Foundation) | http://pdn.sciencedirect.com/science?_ob=MiamiImageURL&cid=271353&_pii=S092540051000818X&_check=y&_origin=search&_zone=rslt_list_item&_coverDate=2011-03-31&wchp=dGLzVBA-zSkzV&md5=ff0be4989bfbde8f28e9d5daeb7bfae9/1-s2.0-S092540051000818X-main.pdf [2011, Sensors and Actuators B, 153:103-109] | Capacitance response; chip with a dielectric medium (silica and gases) and two electrodes, one of Si and gold (Au) and the other of MWCNT and Au | Very small | Re-search | | Paper film-based capacitive electronic chip by spray-casting MWCNT suspension; also with self-oriented carbon nanotube on top surface of gold electrode | Not indicated | | Formaldehyde ammonia toluene | Formaldehyde: 300 ppb ammonia: 3.1 ppm toluene: 7.4 ppm | Liquid samples placed in sample chamber, nitrogen used as carrier gas to flow through the chamber. |

| # | Research Organization (authors, funding) | Weblink/ Citation, Year | Detection Technique | Size | Stage | Cost (\$K) | Device | Network Capability | Automated | Pollutant/Parameter | Detection/Sensitivity | Operation-Application Notes |
|----|--|--|--|-----------------|-----------|------------|---|--------------------|-----------|---|--|---|
| 72 | Universiti Putra, Malaysia Electrical and Electronic Department Abadi, M.H.S., Hamidon, M.N., Shaari, A.H., Abdullah, N., Wagiran, R., Misron, N. | [2011, <i>Sensors & Transducers Journal</i> , 125(2):76-88] | Metal oxide semiconductor | | Research | | Array gas sensor formed by semiconductor oxides; SnO ₂ nanopowder with different weight % platinum powders | Not indicated | | Alcohols: ethyl, isopropanol, and methanol; hydrocarbons (xylene, isobutene), acetone; exhaust gas components | Sensitive to sub ppm of applied species, very sensitive to gases above 10 ppm | |
| 17 | FLIR Systems, Inc. | http://www.epa.gov/etv/vt-ams.html (Nov. 2010) | IR imaging (temperature/emissivity differences between natural IR radiation and thermal emission or absorption of leaking gas) | Portable camera | Available | 65-80 | FLIR GasFindIR Midwave (MW) Camera (passive IR camera) | Not indicated | | 1,3-butadiene acetic acid acrylic acid benzene methylene chloride (dichloromethane) ethylene methanol pentane propane styrene | Minimum, g/hr: 1,3-butadiene 1.3; acetic acid <0.02; acrylic acid 0.92; benzene 0.35; ethylene 0.35; methanol 0.28; MeCl 4.9; pentane <0.28; propane <0.44; styrene 0.35 | ETV field test conducted in Freeport TX |

| # | Research Organization (authors, funding) | Weblink/ Citation, Year | Detection Technique | Size | Stage | Cost (\$K) | Device | Network Capa- bility | Auto- mated | Pollutant/ Parameter | Detection/ Sensitivity | Operation- Application Notes |
|----|---|--|------------------------|-----------------|-----------|---------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------|----------------|-------------------------|--|------------------------------------|
| 18 | Gas Imaging Technologies, LLC | http://www.epa.gov/etv/vt-ams.html (Nov. 2011) | Imaging spectrometry | Portable camera | Available | 89 | Sherlock VOC (passive IR camera) | Not indicated | | As above | Minimum, g/hr: 1,3-butadiene 8.0; acetic acid 1.7; acrylic acid 0.92; benzene 3.2; ethylene 3.3; methanol 2.1; methyleneCl >70; pentane 0.83; propane 0.88; styrene 15 | |

| # | Research Organization (authors, funding) | Weblink/ Citation, Year | Detection Technique | Size | Stage | Cost (\$K) | Device | Network Capability | Automated | Pollutant/Parameter | Detection/Sensitivity | Operation-Application Notes |
|----|---|---|---|------------|-----------|------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------|---|-----------------------|--|
| 12 | Dräger Safety Inc. (Gas Detection Systems) 505 Julie Rivers Suite 150 Sugarland, TX 784-78-28471 800-230-5029 | http://www.draeger.us/PublishingImages/Dr%20Bio-Check%20Form%20aldehyde/indoor%20pollutants_br_9044567_en.pdf | Collection tube (sample sent to lab for analysis) | Small tube | Available | | Dräger Bio-Check Solvents | Not indicated (personal home use) | | Solvents: "Different solvents can be detected simultaneously." Overview infers BTEX (petrol stations or traffic fumes), chlorinated VOCs (dry cleaners), as well as solvents used in adhesives, paint and paint strippers, and varnishes. | | Collection tube sent to Dräger for lab analysis. |

TABLE A-4 Example Data Retrieval: Selected Results of a Targeted Patent Search *(prior to compilation in a summary table)***A hybrid separation and detection device for chemical detection and analysis**

By: Tao, Nongjian; Forzani, Erica; Iglesias, Rodrigo; Tsow, Francis; Assignee: Arizona State University, USA; Patent Information Mar. 17, 2011, WO 2011031500, A2; Application: Aug 25, 2010, WO 2010-US46702; Priority: Sep 14, 2009, US 2009-242256P; Source: PCT Int. Appl., 39pp., Patent, 2011, CODEN: PIXXD2 Accession Number: 2011:327719, CAN 154:342741, CAPLUS; Language: English

Abstract

The present invention provides a device that makes it possible to perform real-time detection and anal. of BTEX components in real samples using an inexpensive and miniaturized hybrid specific binding-sepn. device.

The device may be used in occupational health and safety applications as well as for toxicol. population studies to det. the presence of org. volatile components in an air sample. Priority Application: US 2009-24225 6P

A portable sensor system for air pollution monitoring and malodours olfactometric control

Suriano, D.1; Rossi, R.1; Alvisi, M.1; Cassano, G.1; Pfister, V.1; Penza, M.1; Trizio, L.2; Brattoli, M.2; Amodio, M.2; De Gennaro, G.2 Source: Lecture Notes in Electrical Engineering, v 109 LNEE, p 87-92, 2012, Sensors and Microsystems, AISEM 2011 Proceedings; ISSN: 18761100, E-ISSN: 18761119; ISBN-13: 9781461409342; DOI: 10.1007/978-1-4614-0935-9_15; Conference: 16th Conference on Italian Association of Sensors and Microsystems, AISEM 2011, February 7, 2011 - February 9, 2011; Publisher: Springer Verlag; Author affiliations: 1 ENEA, Brindisi Technical Unit for Technologies of Materials, Brindisi, Italy; 2 Department of Chemistry, University of Bari, Lenviros Srl, Bari, Italy

Abstract: A portable sensor-system based on solid-state gas sensors has been designed and implemented as proof-of-concept for environmental air-monitoring applications and malodours olfactometric control. Commercial gas sensors (metal-oxides, n-type) and nanotechnology sensors (carbon nanotubes, p-type) are arranged in a configuration of array for multisensing and multiparameter devices. Wireless sensors at low-cost are integrated to implement a portable and mobile node, that can be used as early-detection system in a distributed sensor network. Real-time and continuous monitoring of hazardous air-contaminants (e.g., NO₂, CO, SO₂, BTEX, etc.) has been performed by in-field measurements. Moreover, monitoring of landfill gas generated by fermentation of wastes in a municipal site has been carried out by the portable sensor-system. Also, it was demonstrated that the sensor-system is able to assess the malodours emitted from a municipal waste site and remarkably compared to the olfactometry method based on a trained test panel. © 2012 Springer Science+Business Media, LLC. (12 refs.);

Database: Compendex

Title: Gas Nanosensor Design Packages Based on Tungsten Oxide: Mesocages, Hollow Spheres, and Nanowires

Author(s): Nguyen Duc Hoa; El-Safty, S.A.

Source: Nanotechnology Volume: 22 Issue: 48 Pages: 485503 (10 pp.) Published: 2 Dec. 2011

Treatment: Practical, Experimental

Abstract: Achieving proper designs of nanosensors for highly sensitive and selective detection of toxic environmental gases is one of the crucial issues in the field of gas sensor technology, because such designs can lead to the enhancement of gas sensor performance and expansion of their applications. Different geometrical designs of porous tungsten oxide nanostructures, including the mesocages, hollow spheres and nanowires, are synthesized for toxic gas sensor applications. Nanosensor designs with small crystalline size, large specific surface area, and superior physical characteristics enable the highly sensitive and selective detection of low concentration (ppm levels), highly toxic NO₂ among CO, as well as volatile organic compound gases, such as acetone, benzene, and ethanol. The experimental results showed that the sensor response was not only dependent on the specific surface area, but also on the geometries and crystal size of materials. Among the designed nanosensors, the nanowires showed the highest sensitivity, followed by the mesocages and hollow spheres-despite the fact that mesocages had the largest specific surface area of 80.9 m² g⁻¹, followed by nanowires (69.4 m² g⁻¹), and hollow spheres (6.5 m² g⁻¹). The nanowire sensors had a moderate specific surface area (69.4 m² g⁻¹) but they exhibited the highest sensitivity because of their small diameter (~5 nm), which approximates the Debye length of WO₃. This led to the depletion of the entire volume of the nanowires upon exposure to NO₂, resulting in an enormous increase in sensor resistance.

Controlled Indexing: air pollution; gas sensors; nanosensors; nanowires; organic compounds; porous materials; toxicology; tungsten compounds

Uncontrolled Indexing: Debye length; nanowire sensor; ethanol; benzene; acetone; organic compound gas; low concentration detection; specific surface area; crystalline size; porous nanostructure; environmental toxic gas sensor application; hollow sphere; mesocages; gas nanosensor design packaging; WO_3

Classification Codes: A8280T Chemical sensors; A0710C Micromechanical and nanomechanical devices and systems; B7230L Chemical sensors; B7230M Microsensors and nanosensors; B0580 Powders and porous materials (engineering materials science); B7720 Pollution detection and control

Chemical Indexing: WO_3 /int O_3 /int O /int W /int WO_3 /bin O_3 /bin O /bin W /bin

International Patent Classification: B82B1/00

Author Address: Nguyen Duc Hoa; El-Safty, S.A.; Nat. Inst. for Mater. Sci. (NIMS), Tsukuba, Japan.

Publisher: IOP Publishing Ltd., UK

Title: Mesoporous SnO_2 sensor prepared by carbon nanotubes as template and its sensing properties to indoor air pollutants

Author(s): Li, HH (Li, Huihua); Meng, FL (Meng, Fanli); Sun, YF (Sun, Yufeng); Liu, JY (Liu, Jinyun); Wan, YT (Wan, Yuteng); Sun, B (Sun, Bai); Liu, JH (Liu, Jinhuai)

Editor(s): Li M; Yu D

Source: 2010 SYMPOSIUM ON SECURITY DETECTION AND INFORMATION PROCESSING **Book Series:** Procedia Engineering **Volume:** 7 **Pages:** 172-178 **DOI:** 10.1016/j.proeng.2010.11.026 **Published:** 2010

Cited Reference Count: 23

Abstract: An effort has been made to develop a kind of mesoporous SnO_2 gas sensor for detecting indoor air pollutants such as ethanol, benzene, meta-xylene. Mesoporous SnO_2 material has been prepared by sol-gel method joined into multiwall carbon nanotubes as template. The field emission scanning electron microscope (FSEM) was used to characterize the samples, by which the mesoporous structure of SnO_2 was obviously observed. The investigation results suggest that the as-prepared mesoporous SnO_2 has a good response and reversibility to indoor environmental air pollutants. At last, the selectivity of the mesoporous sensor was investigated.

Document Type: Proceedings Paper

Conference: 2010 Symposium on Security Detection and Information Processing PEOPLES R CHINA 2010

Conference Title: 2010 Symposium on Security Detection and Information Processing

Conference Location: PEOPLES R CHINA

Author Keywords: mesoporous SnO_2 ; gas sensor; indoor air pollutants

Keywords Plus: NANOWIRES; GROWTH; NANOPARTICLES; BATTERY

Addresses: [Li, HH; Meng, FL; Sun, YF; Liu, JY; Wan, YT; Sun, B; Liu, JH] Chinese Acad Sci, Inst Intelligent Machines, Res Ctr Biomimet Funct Mat & Sensing Devices, Hefei 230031, Peoples R China

Subject Category: Engineering

IDS Number: BTK27

ISSN: 1877-7058

29-char Source Abbrev.: PROCEDIA ENGINEER

APPENDIX B:
OVERVIEW OF EXPOSURE BENCHMARKS

APPENDIX B: OVERVIEW OF EXPOSURE BENCHMARKS

This appendix supplements the information given in Section 3.2. Exposure benchmarks are standards and guidelines for chemicals in air that have been established by a number of organizations for specific health and safety programs. These concentrations serve as useful points of comparison for the detection levels reported for research sensors. A number of benchmarks were compiled to serve as a practical foundation for assessing sensor gaps and opportunities. An overview description of these benchmarks is provided in Table B-1, together with the set of study pollutants for which they have been established (as reflected in the graphical arrays in Section 3.5).

The primary sources of health-based benchmarks are EPA databases, including toxicity values for continuous exposures from the Integrated Risk Information System (IRIS) database (EPA 2013a), and related benchmarks in the Provisional Peer Reviewed Toxicity Value (PPRTV) database (EPA 2013b). Similar benchmarks for the general public such as minimal risk levels (MRLs) established by the Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR 2013) and reference exposure levels from California Office of Environmental Health Hazard Assessment (OEHHA) (CalEPA 2012) are also reflected in the tables and figures in Chapter 3.

Additional health-based values include concentrations defined for acute and short-term exposures to guide emergency response measures for the general public. Such values include acute exposure guideline levels (AEGs) established by the National Research Council (NRC). Further health-based guides recommended by the NRC for continuous exposures over weeks to months include spacecraft maximum allowable concentrations (SMACs) as well as continuous exposure guideline levels (CEGLs) for submarines. Benchmark values recommended by the NRC and the chemicals for which they have been developed are summarized in Table B-2. Additional information is included at the end of that table for occupational benchmarks established by the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) and U.S. Army; information is also provided for selected CalEPA reference exposure levels established for the general public.

Occupational exposure levels (OELs) also provide useful context for assessing sensor detection capabilities and potential opportunities. (For example, such limits were considered in assessing health risks associated with the World Trade Center collapse, notably for pollutants for which other reference values were not available.) Table B-3, which was prepared during the initial phase of this project when the candidate set was still being developed, highlights OELs for selected pollutants and illustrates the range of limits available within this benchmark category alone. Illustrative bar graphs of benchmarks for the general public and for workers established for arsenic and benzene are presented in Figures B-1 and B-2.

For methane, standard health-based guidelines have not been developed for the general public because it is biologically inert, although it can be an asphyxiant as well as explosive at high concentrations. Loss of consciousness can result when methane concentrations are high enough to displace oxygen in air below a certain level. Military guidelines for confined spaces are based on oxygen displacement and explosive characteristics, while ACGIH classifies methane as a simple asphyxiant and does not establish a TLV. In evaluating methane for the SMAC, the NRC suggests 5,300 ppm based on 0.1% of the lower explosive limit and the expectation that consciousness would be maintained at oxygen levels above 18%. To displace oxygen below that threshold, methane would need to be 14.3% by volume in air, or 143,000 ppm; this concentration is used as an IDLH-equivalent value on the graphical array.

TABLE B-1 Overview of Exposure Benchmark Bases and Selected Pollutants

| Benchmark | Organization | Definition | Duration | Study Pollutants | Reference |
|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| General Public: Emergency Response, Acute Exposures (up to 8 hours) | | | | | |
| AEGL: Acute Exposure Guidance Level | National Research Council (NRC), in coordination with / U.S. EPA and U.S. Department of Defense (DoD) | Threshold exposure concentrations for rare, emergency exposures to airborne chemical releases, divided into three levels of increasing severity for each exposure time duration. 1 = Non-disabling and reversible mild discomfort, irritation, or asymptomatic nonsensory effects. 2 = Irreversible or serious long lasting adverse health effects. 3 = Life-threatening health effects or death. | 10 min 30 min 1 hr 4 hr 8 hr | Acrolein, ammonia, benzene, 1,3-butadiene, carbon monoxide, formaldehyde, hydrogen sulfide, nitrogen dioxide, sulfur dioxide | NRC 2009 (and others) |
| ERPG: Emergency Response Planning Guideline | Emergency Response Planning Committee of the American Industrial Hygiene Association (AIHA) | Maximum airborne concentration to which the general public could be exposed for 1 hour in rare, emergency releases without experiencing or developing the following (based on severity level) : 1 = Adverse health effects. 2 = Irreversible or serious health effects 3 = Life-threatening effects. | 1 hr | Acrolein, ammonia, benzene, 1,3-butadiene, carbon monoxide, formaldehyde, | AIHA 2011 |
| PAC: Protective Action Criteria | U.S. Department of Energy (DOE); Subcommittee on Consequence Assessment and Protective Actions (SCAPA) | PACs are reported as AEGL, ERPG, or TEEL values (hierarchy preference order), as available and appropriate. The three benchmark levels are defined as followed, each associated with increasing severity of health effects and higher levels of exposure. 1 = Mild, transient health effects 2 = Irreversible or serious health effects which may impair ability to take protective action measures (e.g., escape) 3 = Life-threatening effects | 1 hr | Methane | DOE 2012 (PAC Database, Revision 27) |

| Benchmark | Organization | Definition | Duration | Study Pollutants | Reference |
|--|---|---|---|---|--------------------------------|
| General Public: Ambient Exposures (continuous, 1 day to a lifetime) | | | | | |
| NAAQS: National Ambient Air Quality Standards | U.S. EPA | Outdoor air concentrations not to be exceeded for six criteria pollutants. Primary standards are meant for public health protection including for sensitive populations. Secondary standards are meant for protection of public welfare, including against decreased visibility and damage to animals, crops, vegetation, and buildings. | Chronic (averaging times include: 1 hr, 2 hr, 3 hr, 8 hr, 24 hr, 3 mo, annual) | Carbon monoxide, lead, nitrogen dioxide, ozone, particulate matter (PM ₁₀ , PM _{2.5}), sulfur dioxides | U.S. EPA 2012 (last updated) |
| EPA IRIS RBC: Risk-Based Concentration | U.S. EPA | Based on cancer risk: Concentration associated with a target risk level of 10 ⁻⁴ or 10 ⁻⁶ for carcinogenic effects (calculated from the inhalation unit risk, IUR). | Chronic (7 yr-lifetime) | Benzene, 1,3-butadiene, formaldehyde | U.S. EPA 2013, IRIS database |
| EPA IRIS RfC: Reference Concentration | U.S. EPA | Based on noncancer effects: An estimate (with uncertainty spanning perhaps an order of magnitude) of a continuous inhalation exposure to the human population (including sensitive subgroups) that is likely to be without an appreciable risk of deleterious, noncarcinogenic (for most substances) effects during a lifetime. | Subchronic (2-7 yr) Chronic (7 yr-lifetime) | Acrolein, ammonia, benzene, 1,3-butadiene, hydrogen sulfide | U.S. EPA 2013, IRIS database |
| EPA PPRTV RfC: Provisional Peer-Reviewed Toxicity Value RfC | U.S. EPA | As described above for the IRIS RfC. (PPRTVs reflect a similar derivation process as the IRIS values, while the extent of external peer review differs.) | As above | Ammonia, benzene | U.S. EPA 2013 (PPRTV database) |
| ATSDR MRL: Minimal Risk Level | Agency for Toxic Substance and Disease Registry (ATSDR) | Estimate of daily human exposure likely to be without appreciable risk of adverse non-cancer effect over given exposure duration, based on target organ/most sensitive effect; set below levels that might cause adverse health effects in people most sensitive to such substance-induced effects, based on current information; intended as screening levels for hazardous waste sites, for target organ/most sensitive effect. | Acute (1-14 d) Intermediate (15-365 d) Chronic (>365 d) | Acrolein, ammonia, benzene, formaldehyde, hydrogen sulfide | ATSDR 2013, MRL list |
| CalEPA REL: Reference Exposure Level | CalEPA Office of Environmental Health Hazard Assessment (OEHHA) | Concentration at or below which no adverse health effects are anticipated; based on most sensitive, relevant, adverse effect reported in medical and toxicological literature; designed to protect the most sensitive individuals in the population by inclusion of margins of safety; since margins of safety are incorporated to address data gaps and uncertainties, exceeding the REL does not automatically indicate an adverse health impact. | 1 hr 6 hr 8 hr Chronic | Acrolein, ammonia, benzene, 1,3-butadiene, formaldehyde, hydrogen sulfide, ozone | CalEPA OEHHA 2013 |

| Benchmark | Organization | Definition | Duration | Study Pollutants | Reference |
|---|---|---|---------------------------|--|-----------------|
| CAAQS California Ambient Air Quality Standard | CalEPA, OEHHA | Maximum allowable concentration in ambient air without threatening the health of the public, including sensitive populations. | Similar to NAAQS | Lead, PM ₁₀ , PM _{2.5} | CalEPA ARB 2009 |
| Occupational: Workplace Exposures (noncontinuous, work shifts extending over a work life) | | | | | |
| PEL: TWA, STEL, C, AL Permissible Exposure Limit: Time-Weighted Average, Short-Term Exposure Limit, Ceiling, and Action Level | Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) | The TWA is a time-weighted average concentration for an 8-hour workday during a 40-hour workweek. (Levels must not be exceeded during any 8-hour workshift during a 40-hour workweek.) A STEL is a 15-minute TWA exposure and should not be exceeded at any time during a work day. A ceiling should not be exceeded at any time during a work day. | 8 hr | Acrolein, ammonia, benzene, 1,3-butadiene, carbon monoxide, formaldehyde, hydrogen sulfide, lead, ozone, PM ₁₀ , PM _{2.5} (and black carbon), sulfur dioxide | OSHA 2006 |
| REL: TWA, STEL, C Recommended Exposure Limit (same categories as for the PEL above) | National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) | As described above for the PELs, except that the REL TWA is a time-weighted average concentration for up to a 10-hour workday during a 40-hour workweek. (A STEL is a 15-minute TWA exposure and should not be exceeded at any time during a work day. A ceiling REL should not be exceeded at any time.) | 10 hr 10 min 15 min | Acrolein, ammonia, benzene, carbon monoxide, formaldehyde, hydrogen sulfide, lead, nitrogen dioxide, ozone, black carbon (PM), sulfur dioxide | NIOSH 1994 |
| IDLH: Immediately Dangerous to Life or Health | NIOSH | Exposure level below which a person should be able to escape without loss of life or accrual of delayed irreversible health effects, including impairment of vision which may prevent or delay escape. This value was established to ensure employee escape given failure of a respiration device. IDLH values have been established for 85 substances meeting the OSHA definition of a potential occupational carcinogen. | 30 min | Acrolein, ammonia, benzene, 1,3-butadiene, carbon monoxide, formaldehyde, hydrogen sulfide, lead, nitrogen dioxide, ozone, black carbon (PM) | NIOSH 2010 |

| Benchmark | Organization | Definition | Duration | Study Pollutants | Reference |
|--|---|--|---------------------------------------|--|-------------|
| TLV: TWA, STEL, C Threshold Limit Value | American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists (ACGIH) | Time-weighted average concentration to which most workers may be exposed daily without adverse health effects. For ozone, values are available for three work activity levels: light, medium, and heavy. | 2 hr 8 hr 15 min | Acrolein, ammonia, benzene, 1,3-butadiene, carbon monoxide, formaldehyde, hydrogen sulfide, lead, methane (representing alkanes), nitrogen dioxide, ozone, PM ₁₀ , PM _{2.5} , black carbon, sulfur dioxide | ACGIH 2011 |
| Occupational: Special Environments (Army Field Deployment, Submarine, and Spacecraft) | | | | | |
| MEG Military Exposure Guideline | US Army Public Health Command (USAPHC) | Concentration for intakes in moderate and arid climates, with the lowest guidelines designed to result in negligible/minimal or no adverse effects for deployed military personnel. | 1 hr 8 hr 14 d 1 yr | Methane | USAPHC 2010 |
| EEGL, CEGL Emergency and Continuous Exposure Guidance Levels | National Research Council (National Academies) | Exposure levels for confined work space, for exposures continuing 1 day to 3 months, for submarines. | 24 hr 90 d | Methane | NRC 1984 |
| SMAC Spacecraft Maximum Allowable Concentration | NRC / National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) | Limit for traces of substance in the closed-loop atmosphere of a spacecraft cabin, continuous exposure; to not compromise performance of specific tasks during emergency conditions (short term: 1 to 24 hr) or cause serious or permanent toxic effects, for continuous exposures extending 7 to 180 d (long term). | 1 hr 24 hr 7 d 30 d 180 d | Methane | NRC 1994 |

^a The "study pollutants" column identifies those pollutants for which the indicated benchmark has been established (and is reflected in the graphical array).

Note typical health-based benchmarks are not available for methane, so Army and other benchmarks for the specialized occupational environments are included for this compound, as well as the PAC value for emergency response (because no AEGLs have been established).

TABLE B-2 Exposure Benchmark Sources**I. National Research Council**

(National Academies of Science)

A. AEGLs**Volume 1 (2000)**http://books.nap.edu/catalog.php?record_id=10043

Aniline

Arsine

Monomethylhydrazine

Dimethylhydrazine

Volume 2 (2002)http://books.nap.edu/catalog.php?record_id=10522

Phosgene

Propylene glycol dinitrate

1,1,1,2-Tetrafluoroethane (HFC-134A)

1,1-Dichloro-1-fluoroethane (HCFC-141B)

Hydrogen cyanide

Volume 3 (2003)http://books.nap.edu/catalog.php?record_id=10672

Nerve agents GA, GB, GD, GF, and VX

Sulfur mustard

Methyl isocyanate

Diborane

Volume 4 (2004)http://books.nap.edu/catalog.php?record_id=10902

Chlorine

Hydrogen chloride

Hydrogen fluoride

Toluene 2,4- and 2,6-diisocyanate

Uranium hexafluoride

Volume 5 (2007)http://books.nap.edu/catalog.php?record_id=11774

Chlorine dioxide

Chlorine trifluoride

Cyclohexylamine

Ethylenediamine

Hydrofluoroether-7100 (H 7100)

(40% methyl nonafluorobutyl ether,

60% methylnonafluoroisobutyl ether)

Tetranitromethane

Volume 6 (2008)http://www.nap.edu/catalog.php?record_id=12018

Allylamine

Ammonia

Aniline

Arsine

Crotonaldehyde, trans and cis-trans

Dimethylhydrazine

Iron pentacarbonyl

Monomethylhydrazine

Nickel carbonyl

Phosphine + 8 metal phosphides

Volume 7 (2009)http://books.nap.edu/catalog.php?record_id=12503

Acetone cyanohydrin

Carbon disulfide

Monochloroacetic acid

Phenol

Volume 8 (2010)http://books.nap.edu/catalog.php?record_id=12770

Acrolein

Carbon monoxide

1,2-Dichloroethene (cis, trans, cis-trans)

Ethyleneimine

Fluorine

Hydrazine

Peracetic acid

Propylenimine

Sulfur dioxide (subsequently revisited)

Volume 9 (2010)http://books.nap.edu/catalog.php?record_id=12978

Bromine

Ethylene oxide

Furan

Hydrogen sulfide

Propylene oxide

Xylenes (m-, o-, p-)

PBPK modeling white paper

Volume 10 (2011)http://books.nap.edu/catalog.php?record_id=13247

N,N-Dimethylformamide

Jet propellant fuels 5 and 8

Methyl ethyl ketone

Perchloromethyl mercaptan

Phosphorus oxychloride

Phosphorus trichloride

Sulfuryl chloride

TABLE B-2 (Cont'd.)

(I. NRC, A. AEGLs, Cont'd.)

Volume 11 (2012)

http://books.nap.edu/catalog.php?record_id=13374

bis-Chloromethyl ether
 Chloromethyl methyl ether
 Selected chlorosilanes
 Nitrogen oxides: Nitric oxide
 Nitrogen dioxide
 Nitrogen tetroxide
 Vinyl chloride

Volume 12 (2012)

http://www.nap.edu/catalog.php?record_id=13377

Butane
 Chloroacetaldehyde
 Chlorobenzene
 Chloroform
 Methyl bromide
 Methyl chloride
 Propane
 Metal phosphides (see Volume 6):
 Aluminum phosphide
 Calcium phosphide
 Magnesium phosphide
 Magnesium aluminum phosphide
 Potassium phosphide
 Sodium phosphide
 Strontium phosphide
 Zinc phosphide

Chlorosilanes (see Volume 11):

Monochlorosilanes:

Dimethyl chlorosilane
 Methyl chlorosilane
 Trimethyl chlorosilane

Dichlorosilanes:

Dichlorosilane
 Diethyl dichlorosilane
 Dimethyl dichlorosilane
 Diphenyl dichlorosilane
 Methyl dichlorosilane
 Methylvinyl dichlorosilane

Trichlorosilanes:

Allyl trichlorosilane
 Amyl trichlorosilane
 Butyl trichlorosilane
 Chloromethyl trichlorosilane
 Dodecyl trichlorosilane
 Ethyl trichlorosilane
 Hexyl trichlorosilane
 Methyl trichlorosilane
 Nonyl trichlorosilane
 Octadecyl trichlorosilane

(AEGLs Volume 12, Cont'd.)

Octyl trichlorosilane
 Propyl trichlorosilane
 Trichloro(dichlorophenyl)silane
 Trichlorophenylsilane
 Trichlorosilane
 Vinyl trichlorosilane
 Tetrachlorosilane

Volume 13 (2013)

http://www.nap.edu/catalog.php?record_id=15852

Boron trifluoride
 Bromoacetone
 Chloroacetone
 Hexafluoroacetone
 Perchloryl fluoride
 Piperidine
 Trimethoxysilane and tetramethoxysilane
 Trimethylbenzenes

Volume 14 (2013)

http://www.nap.edu/catalog.php?record_id=18313

Agent BZ (3-quinuclidinyl benzilate)
 Ethyl phosphorodichloridate
 n-Hexane
 Methanesulfonyl chloride
 Nitric acid
 Propargyl alcohol,
 Vinyl acetate

(Note: Additional chemicals and updated information for a number of those listed above can be found in interim reports via the National Academies website, e.g., see links via: <http://dels.nas.edu/Report/Acute-Exposure-Guidelines-Levels-Selected/12018>. The National Academies website can also be searched, e.g., for “interim report of committee on acute exposure guideline levels”)

TABLE B-2 (Cont'd.)

I. (NRC, Cont'd.)**B. SMACs****Volume 1 (1994)**

http://www.nap.edu/catalog.php?record_id=9062

Acetaldehyde (75-07-0)
 Ammonia (7664-41-7)
 Carbon monoxide (630-08-0)
 Formaldehyde (50-00-0)
 Freon 113 (76-13-1)
 Hydrogen (1333-74-0)
 Methane (74-82-8)
 Methanol (67-56-1)
 Octamethyltrisiloxane (107-51-7)
 Trimethylsilanol (1066-40-6)
 Vinyl chloride (75-01-4)

Volume 2 (1996)

http://www.nap.edu/catalog.php?record_id=5170

Acrolein (107-02-08)
 Benzene (71-43-2)
 Carbon dioxide (124389)
 2-Ethoxyethanol (110-80-5)
 Hydrazine (302-01-2)
 Indole (120-72-9)
 Mercury (7439-97-6)
 Methylene chloride (75-09-2)
 Methyl ethyl ketone (78-93-3)
 Nitromethane (75-52-5)
 2-Propanol (67-63-0)
 Toluene (108-88-3)

Volume 3 (1996)

http://www.nap.edu/catalog.php?record_id=5435

Bromotrifluoromethane (75-63-8)
 1-Butanol (71-36-3)
 tert-Butanol (75-65-0)
 Diacetone alcohol (123-42-2)
 Dichloroacetylene (7572-29-4)
 1,2-Dichloroethane (ethylene diCl) (107-06-2)
 Ethanol (64-17-5)
 Ethylbenzene (100414)
 Ethylene glycol (107-21-1)
 Glutaraldehyde (111-308)
 Trichloroethylene (79-01-6)
 Xylene (95476)

Volume 4 (2000)

http://www.nap.edu/catalog.php?record_id=9786

Acetone (67641)
 C3 to C8 Aliphatic saturated aldehydes
 - Propanal (propionaldehyde) (171426-73-6)
 - Butanal (n-butyraldehyde) (171339-76-7)

(SMACs Volume 4, cont'd.)

- Pentanal (n-valeraldehyde) (110-62-3)
 - Hexanal (caproaldehyde) (66-25-1)
 - Heptanal (n-heptaldehyde) (111-71-7)
 - Octanal (caprylaldehyde) (124-13-0)
 Hydrogen chloride (7647-01-1)
 Isoprene (78-79-5)
 Methylhydrazine (60-34-4)
 Perfluoropropane/other aliphatic perfluoroalkanes
 - Perfluoropropane (PFA3) (76-19-7)
 Polydimethylcyclotrisiloxanes
 - Hexamethylcyclotrisiloxane (541-05-9)
 - Octamethylcyclotetrasiloxane (556-67-2)
 - Decamethylcyclopentasiloxane (541-02-6)
 Dichlorofluoromethane (Freon 21) (75-43-4)
 Chlorodifluoromethane (Freon 22) (75-45-6)
 Triichlorofluoromethane (Freon 11) (75-69-4)
 Dichlorodifluoromethane (Freon 12) (75-71-8)
 4-Methyl-2-pentanone (108-10-1)
 Chloroform (67-66-3)
 Furan (110-00-9)
 Hydrogen cyanide (74-90-8)

Volume 5 (2008)

http://books.nap.edu/catalog.php?record_id=12529

Acrolein (107-02-08) (Vol 2)
 C3 to C8 Aliphatic saturated aldehydes (Vol 4)
 Ammonia (7664-41-7) (Vol 1)
 Benzene (71-43-2) (Vol 2)
 n-Butanol (71-36-3) (Vol 3)
 C2-C9 Alkanes
 - Ethane (C2) (78-84-0)
 - Propane (C3) (74-98-6)
 - Butane (C4) (106-97-8)
 - Pentane (C5) (109-66-0)
 - Hexane (C6) (110-54-3)
 - Heptane (C7) (142-82-5)
 - Octane (C8) (111-65-9)
 - Nonane (C9) (111-84-2)
 Carbon dioxide (124389) (Vol 2)
 Carbon monoxide (630-08-0) (Vol 1)
 1,2-Dichloroethane (EDC) (107-06-2) (Vol 3)
 Dimethylhydrazine (57-14-7)
 Ethanol (64-17-5) (Vol 3)
 Formaldehyde (50-00-0) (Vol 1)
 Limonene (5989-27-5)
 Methanol (67-56-1) (Vol 1)
 Methylene chloride (75-09-2) (Vol 2)
 Propylene glycol (57-55-6)
 Toluene (108-88-3) (Vol 2)
 Trimethylsilanol (1066-40-6) (Vol 1)
 Xylenes (Vol 1)

TABLE B-2 (Cont'd.)**I. (NRC, Cont'd.)****C. EEGs and CEGs**

(Emergency and Continuous Exposure Guidance Levels)

Volume 1 (2007)http://books.nap.edu/catalog.php?record_id=11170

Acrolein (107-02-8)
 Carbon dioxide (124-38-9)
 Carbon monoxide (630-08-0)
 Formaldehyde (50-00-0)
 Hydrazine (302-01-2)
 Methanol (67-56-1)
 Monoethanolamine (141-43-5)
 Nitric oxide (10102-43-9)
 Nitrogen dioxide (10102-44-0)
 Oxygen (7782-44-7)

Volume 2 (2008)http://books.nap.edu/catalog.php?record_id=12032

Ammonia (7664-41-7)
 Benzene (71-43-2)
 2,6-Di-tert-butyl-4-nitrophenol (728-40-5)
 Freon 12 (difluorodichloromethane) (75-71-8))
 Freon 114 (dichlorotetrafluoroethane)
 (76-14-2)
 Hydrogen (1333-74-0)
 2190 Oil mist/turbine oil (2190 TEP)
 (64742-54-7)
 Ozone (7782-44-7)
 Surface lead (7439-92-1)
 Toluene (108-88-3)
 Xylene (1330-20-7)
 - m-Xylene (108-38-3)
 - o-Xylene (95-47-6)
 - p-Xylene (106-42-3)

Volume 3 (2009)http://books.nap.edu/catalog.php?record_id=12741

Acetaldehyde (75-07-0)
 Hydrogen chloride (7647-01-0)
 Hydrogen fluoride (7664-39-3)
 Hydrogen sulfide (7783-06-4)
 Propylene glycol dinitrate (6423-43-4)

(Additional information resources for exposure benchmarks are listed on the following page.)

TABLE B-2 (Cont'd.)

II. NIOSH

A. Emergency Response Safety and Health Database (includes AEGLs and OELs) <http://www.cdc.gov/niosh/ershdb/about.html> (page last updated February 2012)

Includes:

Aluminum phosphide (7803-51-2)
 Ammonia (7664-41-7)
 Arsenic oxide (1303-28-2)
 Benzene (71-43-2)
 BZ (6581-06-2)
 Chlorine (7782-50-5)
 Hydrogen cyanide (AC) (74-90-8)
 Hydrogen fluoride (7664-39-3)
 Mercury (elemental) (7439-97-6)
 Methyl alcohol (67-56-1)
 Tear gas (2-chloroacetophenone) (532-27-4)

B. NIOSH Pocket Guide (includes PELs, RELS, and IDLHs) <http://www.cdc.gov/niosh/npg/default.html> (page last reviewed January 2012)

Includes an extensive number of chemicals:

III. U.S. Department of Defense (DoD)/Army

Technical Guide 230, Environmental Health Risk Assessment and Chemical Exposure Guidelines for Deployed Military Personnel (July 2010)
<http://phc.amedd.army.mil/PHC%20Resource%20Library/TG230.pdf>

Includes a considerable number of chemicals

IV. Ca/EPA OEHHA

Reference Exposure Levels (RELs)
<http://oehha.ca.gov/air/allrels.html>

Includes:

Acetaldehyde (75-07-0)
 Acrolein (107-02-8)
 Acrylic acid
 Acrylonitrile (107-13-1)
 (and many others)

TABLE B-3 Example Occupational Exposure Limits for Selected Pollutants of Interest^a

| Pollutant | CAS RN | Concentration Limit ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ or as listed) | Benchmark Type | Notes |
|--|-----------|--|----------------|--|
| Arsenic (As, inorganic, including trivalent) | 7440-38-2 | 10 | PEL | Ceiling value; NIOSH also indicates a half-mask air-purifying respirator with high-efficiency filter, or a half-mask supplied air respirator, is needed at 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ 0.003 ppm |
| | | 2 | REL-C | |
| | | 10 | TLV | |
| | | 1.1 | MEG air, 1 yr | |
| Benzene | 71-43-2 | 3,200 | PEL | 1 ppm |
| | | 320 | REL | 0.1 ppm (conversion 3.19 mg/m^3); identified as one of the RELs based primarily on technical factors (feasibility, detection limit) |
| | | 1,600 | TLV | 0.5 ppm (half the PEL, 5 times the REL) |
| | | 8,000 | TLV-STEL | 2.5 ppm |
| | | 55 | MEG air, 1 yr | |
| Carbon dioxide | 124-38-9 | 9,000,000 | PEL | 5,000 ppm (0.5%); note EPA OPP (1991) indicated chronic intermittent exposures to 1.08% or 1,000 ppm for brewery workers, compared to the natural concentration of 0.03% or 300 ppm |
| | | | REL | |
| | | | TLV | |
| | | 54,000,000 | TLV-STEL | |
| | | 14,000,000 | CEGL, 90 d | |
| | | 2,200,000 | MEG air, 1 yr | 30,000 ppm |
| Carbon monoxide | 630-08-0 | 55,000 | PEL | 50 ppm |
| | | 40,000 | REL | 35 ppm (given as 40 mg/m^3 , with a conversion factor of 1.15 mg/m^3) |
| | | 29,000 | TLV | 25 ppm (half the PEL and 5/7 the REL) |
| | | 140,000 | CEGL, 90 d | |
| | | 7,000 | MEG air, 1 yr | |
| Chlorine | 7782-50-5 | 3,000 | PEL-C | 1 ppm (3 mg/m^3) |
| | | 1,500 | REL-C | 0.5 ppm (half the PEL ceiling) |
| | | | TLV | |
| | | 2,900 | TLV-STEL | 1 ppm |
| | | 290 | MEG air, 14 d | |
| | | 4 | MEG air, 1 yr | |
| 1,2-Dichloroethane (ethylene dichloride) | 107-06-2 | 200,000 | PEL | 50 ppm |
| | | 40,000 | TLV | 10 ppm |
| | | 4,000 | REL | 1 ppm (4 mg/m^3) |

TABLE B-3 Example Occupational Exposure Limits for Selected Pollutants of Interest^a

| Pollutant | CAS RN | Concentration Limit ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ or as listed) | Benchmark Type | Notes |
|--|-----------|--|----------------|--|
| 1,2-Dichloroethane (ethylene dichloride) <i>cont'd.</i> | | 8,000 | REL-STEL | 2 ppm |
| | | 180 | MEG air, 1 yr | |
| | | 50 | TLV | As inhalable fraction and vapor |
| Diesel engine exhaust (for some as carbon black, with PAHs; see notes) | 1333-86-4 | 3,500 | PEL | For carbon black |
| | | | TLV | |
| | | 100 | REL | C black in the presence of PAHs |
| | | 3.4 | MEG air, 1 yr | For diesel engine emissions |
| Ethylbenzene | 100-41-4 | 440,000 | PEL, REL | 100 ppm (435 mg/m^3), rounded to two significant figures here |
| | | 87,000 | TLV | 20 ppm |
| | | 545,000 | REL-STEL | 125 ppm |
| | | 100,000 | TLV-STEL-C | For aerosol |
| | | 2,100 | MEG air, 1 yr | |
| | | 500,000 | MEG air, 1 hr | Minimal effect (negligible value) |
| Ethylene oxide (Oxirane) | 75-21-8 | 1,800 | PEL | 1 ppm; conversion given as 1.8 mg/m^3 |
| | | 180 | REL | 0.1 ppm; REL is identified as one of those based primarily on technical factors (feasibility, detection limit) |
| | | 9,000 | PEL-STEL | 5 ppm |
| | | 48 | MEG air, 1 yr | |
| | | 2,000 (1,600) | TLV | 1 ppm, 10 times the 0.1 ppm PEL, REL (at 1.55 mg/m^3 per ppm) |
| | | 440 | MEG air, 14 d | |
| Formaldehyde | 50-00-0 | 900 | PEL | 0.75 ppm |
| | | 20 | REL | 0.016 ppm; one of those based primarily on technical factors (feasibility, detection limit) |
| | | 360 | TLV -C | Short-term exposure limit ceiling is 0.3 ppm (40% of the PEL) |
| | | 2,500 | PEL-STEL | 2 ppm (2.46 mg/m^3), rounded |
| | | 140,000 | CEGL, 90 d | |
| | | 25 | MEG air, 1 yr | |
| n-Hexane | 110-54-3 | 1,800,000 | PEL | 500 ppm (10 times the REL and TLV) |
| | | 180,000 | REL | |
| | | | TLV | 50 ppm (180 mg/m^3) |
| | | 1,400 | MEG air, 1 yr | |

TABLE B-3 Example Occupational Exposure Limits for Selected Pollutants of Interest^a

| Pollutant | CAS RN | Concentration Limit ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ or as listed) | Benchmark Type | Notes |
|--|------------|--|----------------|---|
| Hydrogen chloride (HCl) | 7674-01-0 | 7,000 | PEL-C, REL-C | Ceiling values, 5 ppm (7 mg/m ³); conversion given as 1.49 mg/m ³ |
| | | 3,000 | TLV-STEL-C | 2 ppm; short-term exposure limit ceiling |
| | | 14 | MEG air, 1 yr | |
| | | 400 | TLV | As F, given as 0.5 ppm (1/6 the PEL and REL of 3 ppm) |
| | | 1,500 | MEG air, 14 d | |
| Hydrogen sulfide | 7783-06-4 | 30,000 | PEL-C | 20 ppm is a ceiling value, as a 10-min maximum peak |
| | | 15,000 | REL-C | 10 ppm is a ceiling value, as a 10-min maximum peak |
| | | 1,400 | TLV | listed as (10 ppm), which is the same as the REL-C1 ppm |
| | | 7,000 | TLV-STEL | 5 ppm |
| | | 14 | MEG air, 1 yr | |
| Mercuric chloride, as mercury (inorganic) (for some, CAS is 7439-97-6, as metal) | 7487-94-7 | 100 | PEL-C | Ceilings are 0.1 mg/m ³ (the REL-TWA for mercury vapor is half that, at 0.05 mg/m ³) |
| | | | REL-C | |
| | | 25 | TLV | For elemental and inorganic forms, as mercury |
| Nitrogen dioxide (NO ₂) | 10102-44-0 | 9,000 | PEL-C | 5 ppm; ceiling |
| | | 1,800 | REL-STEL | 1 ppm; short-term exposure limit |
| | | 380 | TLV | 0.2 ppm |
| | | 860 | CEGL, 90 d | |
| | | 940 | MEG air, 1 yr | |
| Nitrogen (nitric) oxide (NO) | 10102-43-9 | 30,000 | PEL, REL, TLV | 25 ppm |
| | | 3,700 | CEGL, 90 d | |
| | | 3,700 | MEG air, 1 yr | Same value for 14 d |
| Ozone | 10028-15-6 | 200 | PEL | 0.1 ppm (note (the TLV below is half the PEL, also as a TWA) |
| | | | REL-C | Ceiling value |
| | | 100 | TLV | Listed is the lowest value, 0.05 ppm for heavy work; TLV is 0.2 ppm for 2 hr or less |
| | | 39 | MEG air, 1 yr | |
| Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), as Aroclors 1242 and 1254) | 53469-21-9 | 1,000 | PEL | REL also applies to other PCBs, including Aroclor 1254 (below) |
| | | | TLV | Same as the PEL, for chlorodiphenyl, 42% chlorine (skin) |
| | | 1 | REL | |
| | | 340 | MEG air, 1 yr | |

TABLE B-3 Example Occupational Exposure Limits for Selected Pollutants of Interest^a

| Pollutant | CAS RN | Concentration Limit ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ or as listed) | Benchmark Type | Notes |
|-------------------------|------------|--|----------------|---|
| PCBs (<i>cont'd.</i>) | 11097-69-1 | 500 | PEL | |
| | | | TLV | Same as the PEL, for chlorodiphenyl, 54% chlorine |
| | | 1 | REL | REL also applies to other PCBs, including Aroclor 1254 |
| | | 170 | MEG air, 1 yr | Aroclor 1254 |
| | 53469-21-9 | 340 | MEG air, 1 yr | Aroclor 1242 |
| Sulfur dioxide | 7446-09-5 | 13,000 | PEL | 5 ppm |
| | | 5,000 | REL | 2 ppm |
| | | 650 | TLV-STEL | 0.25 ppm |
| | | 520 | MEG air, 14 d | |
| Sulfuric acid | 7664-93-9 | 1,000 | PEL, REL | |
| | | 3,000 | PEL-STEL | |
| | | 200 | TLV | For sulfuric acid as the thoracic fraction |
| | | 49 | MEG air, 1 yr | Same value for 14 d |
| Toluene | 108-88-3 | 750,000 | PEL | 200 ppm (750 mg/m ³) |
| | | 380,000 | REL | 100 ppm (375 mg/m ³ , rounded here) |
| | | 75,000 | TLV | 20 ppm |
| | | 560,000 | REL-STEL | 150 ppm |
| | | 3,400 | MEG air, 1 yr | |
| Xylenes | 1330-20-7 | 440,000 | PEL, REL | PEL and REL are 100 ppm (435 mg/m ³ , rounded here) for m-, o-, p-xylene (CAS 108-38-3, 95-47-6, and 106-42-3, respectively) |
| | | | TLV | 100 ppm (for combined and the 3 isomers) |
| | | 651,000 | TLV-STEL | 150 ppm |
| | | 270 | MEG air, 1 yr | For mixed o-, m-, and p-xylenes, and individually |

^a This table was developed at an early stage of the evaluation process to provide an example compilation for selected pollutants from the candidate set. See Table 3-2 for additional information regarding these benchmarks, including the application context.

C = ceiling; CAS RN = Chemical Abstracts Service Registry Number; CEGL = continuous exposure guidance level; MEG = military exposure guideline; NIOSH = National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health; PEL = permissible exposure limit; REL = recommended exposure limit; STEL = short-term exposure limit; TLV = threshold limit value.

Arsenic Concentration Limits

31 October 2013

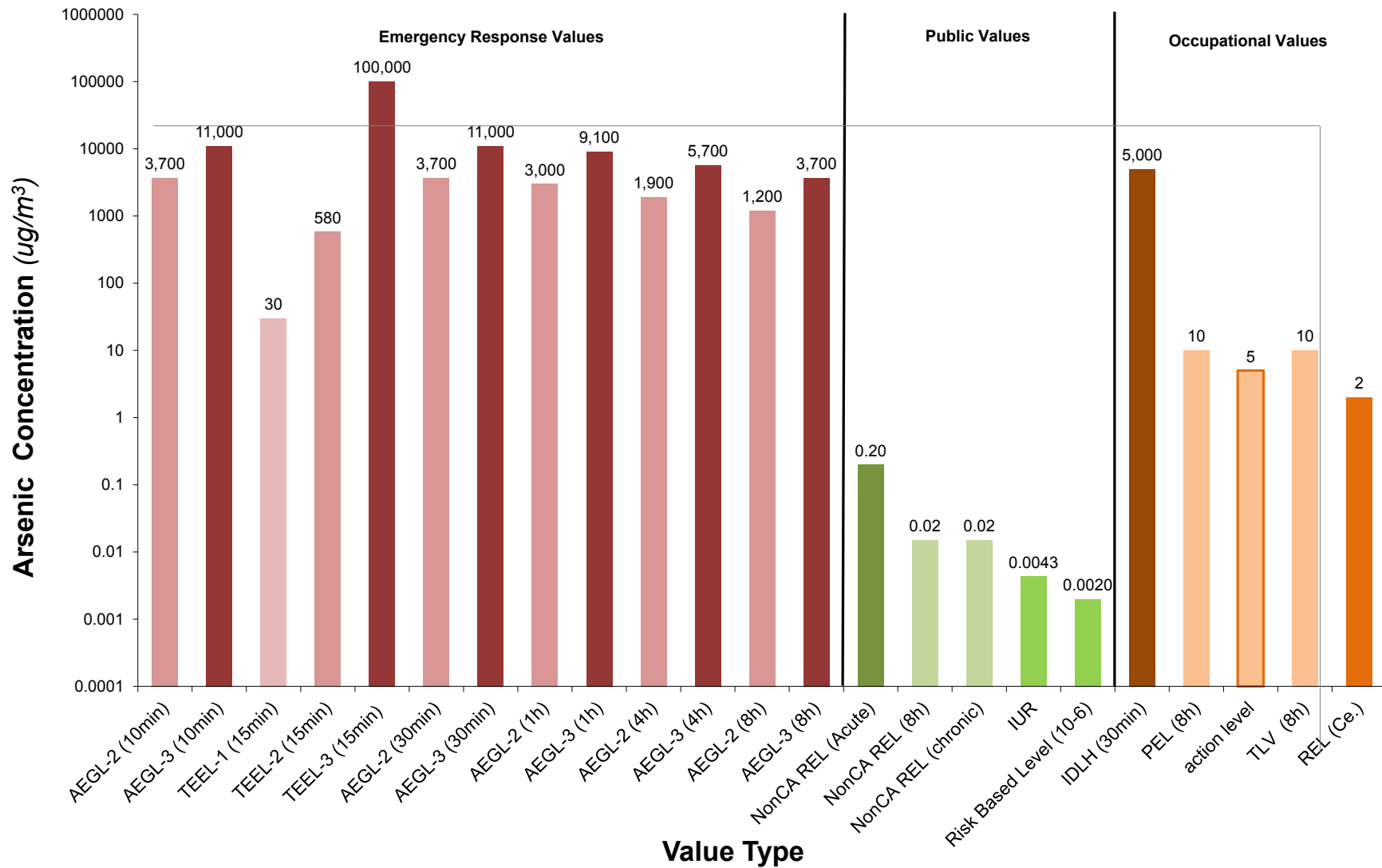


FIGURE B-1 Example Display of Selected Exposure Benchmark Values for Arsenic in Air

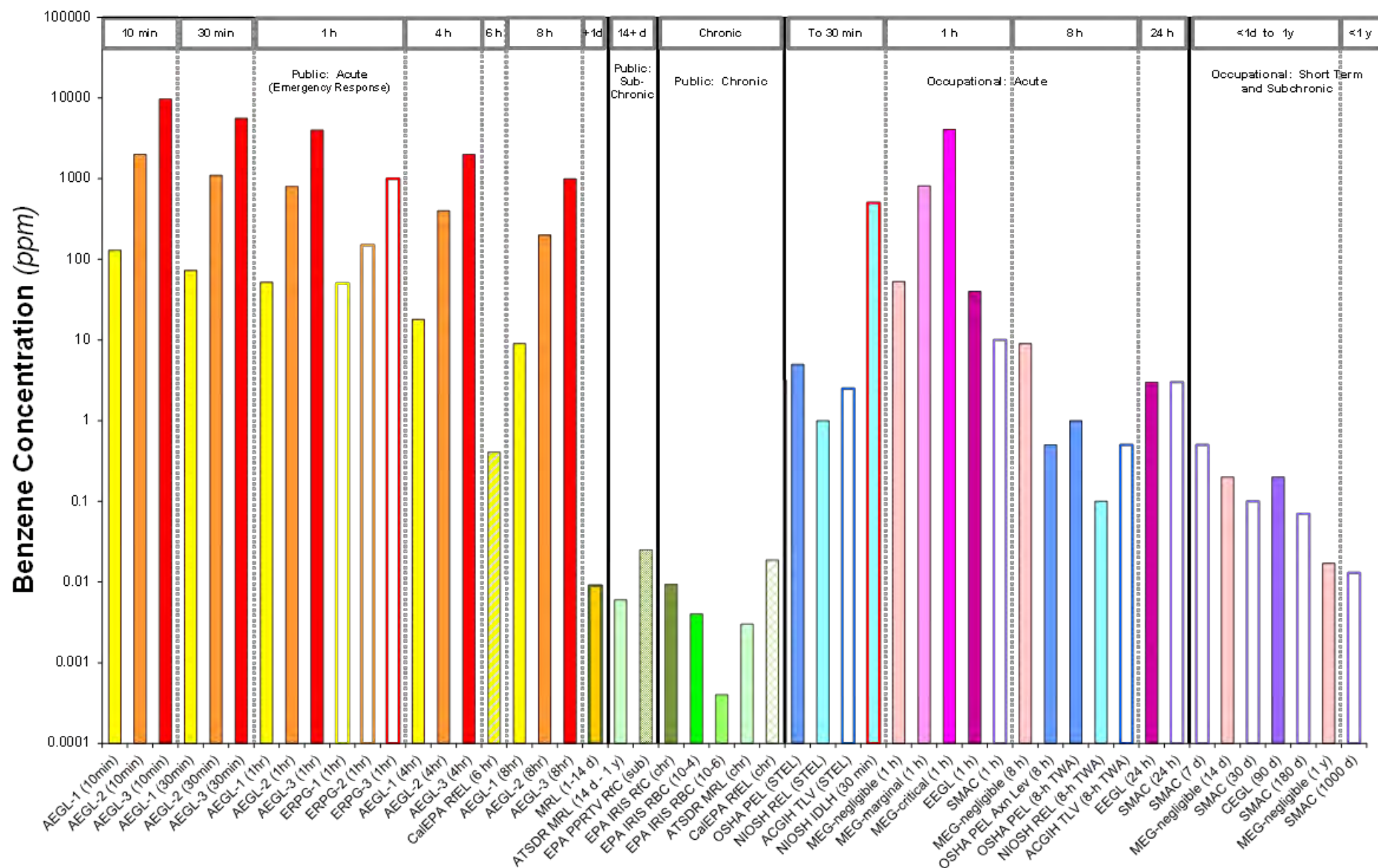


FIGURE B-2 Example Display of Benchmarks for Exposures to Benzene in Air

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APPENDIX C:
CONTEXT FOR CHEMICAL FATE IN AIR

APPENDIX C: CONTEXT FOR CHEMICAL FATE IN AIR

Chemical fate in air plays an important role in pollutant detection, for both discrete and continuous releases. Understanding this role can help guide research activities toward practical mobile sensors for air pollutants, including integrated multi-pollutant sensor systems. Supporting context is provided in this appendix.

Many chemicals (including a number of organic compounds) transform to other chemicals when released to air, in some cases within minutes to hours. As an indicator of how long a parent chemical would be expected to remain following a release, persistence is represented by its atmospheric half-life (the time it takes an initial amount to decrease by half).

Persistence can be affected by many factors, including physical state (e.g., gas, liquid, or particulate), chemical and physical reaction mechanisms, and setting-specific physical-chemical conditions such as temperature, relative humidity, sunlight, and the presence of other substances, including hydroxyl radicals (per their oxidizing potential). In many cases, different persistence intervals have been identified for a given chemical; these reflect the range of conditions addressed. For this reason, the example persistence intervals in this appendix are generally presented as ranges (e.g., “seconds to hours” or “days to weeks”).

In addition to persistence, ambient conditions affect specific fate processes. Common processes include hydroxyl radical reaction and wet and dry deposition. The latter are the processes by which species are removed from the atmosphere and deposited on the Earth’s surface. In wet deposition, chemical species are scavenged by hydrometeors, such as rain, fog, cloudwater, snow, and sleet. Dry deposition is primarily affected by the level of atmospheric turbulence, the chemical properties of the depositing species, and the nature of the surface itself (Seinfeld and Pandis 1996). For wet and dry deposition, where quantitative data were not found for this illustrative compilation, a general default of days is indicated. Depending on the compound and local/regional conditions, this could be hours (e.g., for highly reactive VOCs and short-chain alkanes) or weeks (for longer-chain alkanes). Dry deposition is much slower than wet, so the latter is more important for semivolatile compounds. Basic physicochemical properties considered in evaluating environmental fate (including volatilization from surface water to air) are described as follows.

- *Molecular weight (MW)* is the sum of the weights of the atoms present in a given compound, based on its formula. For this study, the MW (and formula) indicates the size (and complexity) of a given compound and can also indicate other properties such as vapor pressure (VP) and physical state at ambient temperatures, when those more specific measures are not known. The MW is also used to convert from parts per million (ppm) to mg/L or µg/L, or to mg/m³ or µg/m³, as indicated. For example, a value given as ppm in air can be multiplied by the MW and divided by 24.5 to convert it to mg/m³ under standard temperature (25°C) and pressure (1 atmosphere) conditions. (Note that gases are presented as volume per volume of air, e.g., ppm, and particles are presented as mass per volume of air, e.g., µg/m³).
- *Henry’s law constant (K_H)* provides a measure of how a chemical partitions between the liquid and gas phases at equilibrium in a closed system (ratio of to water solubility to a chemical’s volatility). A chemical with a high Henry’s law constant has a low tendency to volatilize and will stay in the water phase (when units are expressed as water

concentration over air concentration; note that K_H can also be expressed with the inverse units). The K_H indicates how much of a chemical may be released into the gas phase above the water compared with the amount dissolved in the aqueous phase. Even though this constant applies to a closed system at equilibrium, it can offer useful context for understanding the tendency of a chemical to evaporate, particularly in an open system, such as a water treatment basin, or in a home when the faucet is turned on. The K_H can be used to compare this tendency of a chemical to volatilize from water and to model partitioning for static or dynamic conditions. Chemicals with a K_H less than 1×10^{-5} atm-m³/mole (or greater than 100 mole/L-atm) and a MW above 200 g/mole are considered unlikely to pose an inhalation hazard as a result of volatilization from drinking water in a residential setting (Andelman 1990).

- **Vapor pressure (VP)** is the pressure exerted by a chemical's vapor in equilibrium with its solid or liquid form at a given temperature. This can be used to calculate how fast the chemical will volatilize from the water surface or to estimate a Henry's law constant for chemicals that are not very soluble in water. The higher the VP, the greater the tendency for the chemical to form a gas. The VP can offer useful context regarding the tendency of a given chemical to volatilize from water to air. (Note that the K_H is a more useful value to predict partitioning from water to air.)
- **Atmospheric OH rate constant** is an indicator of the tropospheric lifetime of a given chemical (τ_c). It is controlled by reaction with the hydroxyl (OH) radical, $\tau_c = (k_{OH} [OH])^{-1}$, where k_{OH} is the first-order rate constant for the reaction of the OH radical with the chemical of interest, and $[OH]$ is the concentration of the OH radical. Chemicals that react more rapidly with the OH radical have a larger atmospheric OH rate constant and a shorter lifetime in the troposphere. Chemicals with smaller k_{OH} values would have a longer atmospheric residence time than those with higher values.

These parameters are illustrated in Tables C-1 through C-3. Table C-2 illustrates values for selected physicochemical properties for the study pollutants, and Table C-3 illustrates the range of values for other chemicals.

TABLE C-1 General Categories for Parameters that Can Influence Chemical Fate in Air^a

| Parameter | General Categories and Examples | | |
|---|---------------------------------|--|-----------------------|
| | Low | Medium | High |
| Octanol-water partition coefficient: K_{ow} | <100 | 100 to 10,000 | >10,000 |
| Henry's constant: K_H (mole/L-atm) | <0.01 to 1 | 1 to 1000 | >1000 |
| Vapor pressure: VP (mmHg) | <0.001 | 0.001 to 1 | >1 |
| Solubility product: K_{sp} | < 1×10^{-50} | 1×10^{-10} to 1×10^{-50} | > 1×10^{-10} |
| Water solubility: S_w (ppm) | <10 | 10 to 1000 | >1000 |
| Vapor pressure: VP (mmHg) | <0.001 | 0.001 to 1 | >1 |
| Melting point : MP (°C) | <0 | 0 to 100 | >100 |
| Boiling point: BP (°C) | <50 | 50 to 300 | >300 |

^a K_{ow} is the partition constant between water and octanol, which represents a generic "organic" phase; this coefficient is commonly used for organic chemicals (i.e., those containing carbon).

K_H is the distribution constant for a chemical between air and water phases, based on the partial pressure of the gas above the solution to its dissolved concentration; the extent to which a given gas dissolves in solution (here, water) is proportional to its pressure (Henry's law), and K_H is the proportionality constant for this relationship.

K_{sp} is the solubility product of inorganic compounds, which describes the equilibrium between the (excess) solid form and dissolved (or solvated) ions; it is used to determine if a solid is readily soluble in water and is a function of the water solubility, S_w .

VP is the pressure exerted by a vapor in equilibrium with its solid or liquid phase, typically used for a vapor in contact with its liquid (so it would represent the vapor-phase pressure of the pure liquid).

BP and MP, the boiling and melting points, are simple physical constants.

The values shown here simply illustrate the principles outlined above; other values could also be applied (e.g., example, a K_{sp} of 10^{-5} could be used as a delineator for "readily soluble" for one-molar electrolyte solutions, while formal water solubilities <0.003 mole/liter could indicate the compound is "not readily soluble").

TABLE C-2 Illustrative Parameter Values for the Study Pollutants^a

| Chemical | K_{ow} (unitless) | K_H (mole/L-atm) ^a | S_w (ppm) ^a | VP (mmHg) ^a | MP (°C) | BP (°C) |
|------------------|------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|---------------------------|------------|------------|
| Acetaldehyde | 0.457 | 15 | 1×10^6 | 902 | -123 | 20.1 |
| Acrolein | 0.977 | 8.197 | 2.12×10^5 | 274 | -87.7 | 52.6 |
| Ammonia | 1.698 | 62.5 | 310,000 | 7,752 | -77.7 | -33.35 |
| Benzene | 134.9 | 0.182 | 1,880 | 94.8 | 5.5 | 80.1 |
| 1,3-Butadiene | 97.7 | 0.0135 | 735 | 2,110 | -108.97 | -4.5 |
| Carbon monoxide | 60.256 | 9.62×10^{-4} | 23,000 @20°C | 1.55×10^8 | -205 | -191.5 |
| Formaldehyde | 2.239 | 3,058 | 4×10^5 @20°C | 3,883 | -92 | -19.1 |
| Hydrogen sulfide | 1.698 | 0.12 | 4,100 @20°C | 15,600 | -85.49 | -60.33 |
| Lead | | | Insoluble | 1.77 @ 1000°C | 327.5 | 1,740 |
| Methane | 12.303 | 1.52×10^{-3} | 22 | 4.66×10^5 | -182.4 | -161.5 |
| Nitrogen dioxide | 0.263 | 0.01 | Reacts with H ₂ O | 900 | -9.3 | 21.15 |
| Ozone | 0.135 | 0.0113 | f(P,T,pH); 1,060 at 0°C and pH 3.5 | 41,257 @ -12°C | -193 | -111.9 |
| Sulfur dioxide | 0.0063 | 1.235 | 1.13×10^5 @20°C | 3,000 | -72.7 | -10 |

^a These values are at 25°C (77°F) unless otherwise noted. Shading indicates the entry is not applicable/not available.

Particulate matter is not included in this table because it consists of a many species from both natural and anthropogenic sources, thus has no fixed physical or chemical properties (i.e., PM composition and associated properties vary by location and time).

Sources: ATSDR (2013); Kroschwitz (2004); NIH (2013); NOAA (2013); Seinfeld and Pandis (1996); SRC Inc. (2013).

TABLE C-3 Illustrative Parameter Values for Other Example Chemicals^a

| Chemical | K_{ow} (unitless) | K_H (mole/[L-atm]) | K_{sp} (unitless) | S_w (ppm) | VP (mmHg) | MP (°C) | BP (°C) |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| Benzo(a)pyrene | 1,300,000 | 2,200 | | 0.001 | 5×10^{-9} | 176.5 | 311 |
| Dioxin (2,3,7,8-TCDD) | 6,300,000 | 20 | | 0.0002 | 1.5×10^{-9} | 305 | |
| Lead chloride (PbCl ₂) | | | 1.6×10^{-5} | 3,300 | | | |
| Mercury (Hg) | 4.2 | 0.12 | | 0.06 | 0.002 | -39 | 357 |
| Mercury sulfide (HgS) | | | 1.6×10^{-52} | 2×10^{-21} | | | |
| PCBs | 12,600,000 | 2.4 | | 0.7 | 0.0005 | | |
| Pentachlorophenol | 132,000 | 40,800 | | 14 | 0.0001 | 174 | 309 |
| Phenol | 29 | 3,000 | | 83,000 | 0.35 | 40.9 | 182 |
| Toluene | 540 | 0.15 | | 526 | 28 | -95 | 111 |
| Trichloroethylene | 260 | 0.1 | | 1,280 | 69 | -84.7 | 87.2 |

^a Shading indicates the entry is not applicable/not available. Values are taken from various data sources; setting-specific information should be used to determine the appropriate value for a given assessment.

Three additional tables are included to illustrate how physicochemical properties and other technical information can be used to guide monitoring and detection efforts to address pollutant releases to air. Table C-4 highlights key fate processes and chemical products that could form in air following a given release. This table and the two that follow illustrate fate context for example chemicals beyond the initial study set. The initial entry for each parent chemical indicates the interval during which the initial fate process is expected, such as hydrolysis or hydroxyl radical oxidation. Subsequent intervals capture further fate processes as indicated. When the half-life information shown represents only a removal process (such as wet or dry deposition from air) rather than a change from the parent, that process is indicated without a fate product.

When no transformation is identified for a given chemical, removal is generally assumed to occur by deposition with a half-life of days to weeks; the actual time frame would depend on the physicochemical characteristics of the compounds and the particles onto which they sorb (including size), as well as location-specific meteorology and other factors. In many cases, the nature of the reaction is known but the specific fate product is not (common for many hydroxyl radical reactions), so fate products are not always available. Finally, for some chemicals, the hydrolysis half-life is similar to that for persistence in air. Thus in certain cases, hydrolysis products are included to indicate fate products that could be formed in moist (humid) air.

An overview of the fate and persistence context for these example chemicals in air is also illustrated in Table C-5, without the time component. This information can be combined with qualitative health information to provide context for detection levels (e.g., for mobile sensors) considering different methods and time frames, as illustrated in Table C-6. (The relative toxicity indicated in the right-most column of this table is based on EPA chronic toxicity values.)

TABLE C-4 Highlights of Persistence and Fate per Time Frame for Example Chemicals^a

| Contaminant | Persistence (Half-Life) and Key Fate/Removal Processes | | | |
|-------------------------------------|--|---|---|---------------------------|
| | Seconds-Hours | Days-Weeks | Weeks-Months | Months-Years |
| Arsenic (inorganic) | | Deposition (arsenate, arsenite) | | Arsenic (inorganic) |
| Benzene | Photooxidation: phenol, nitrophenols, nitrobenzene, formic acid, peroxyacetyl nitrate | Hydroxyl radical oxidation; deposition | | |
| Chlorine | Atomic chlorine, hydrogen chloride, chlorinated hydrocarbons; and in moist air: hydrochloric and hypochlorous acids | Deposition | | |
| 1,2-Dichloroethane | | Deposition | Hydroxyl radical oxidation | |
| Diesel engine exhaust | <i>Minutes to extended periods (e.g., years), depending on specific compound</i> | | | |
| Ethylbenzene | Oxidation | Oxidation and deposition | | |
| Ethylene oxide (Oxirane) | | In moist air: ethylene glycol | Hydroxyl radical oxidation | |
| Formaldehyde | Formic acid, hydrogen gas, carbon monoxide and dioxide, H radical, HCO radical | Deposition | | |
| Hydrogen chloride (HCl) | | Deposition | | |
| Hydrogen sulfide (H ₂ S) | | Sulfur dioxide, sulfates; deposition | | |
| Mercuric chloride | | Deposition | | Multiple compounds |
| Nitric acid | In moist air: hydrogen and nitrate ions, NO ₂ and NO | Deposition | | |
| Nitrogen oxides, as NO ₂ | | | Nitrous and nitric acids, nitrite and nitrate salts | |
| Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) | | Hydroxyl radical oxidation, deposition | Hydroxyl radical oxidation, deposition | |
| Sulfur dioxide | | Sulfurous acid, sulfur trioxide, sulfuric acid, and associated salts | | |
| Sulfuric acid | | Deposition | | Sulfuric acid, sulfate |
| Toluene | Toluene-O ₂ complex, ozone, nitrotoluene, peroxyacetylnitrate, peroxybenzoylnitrate, cresol, benzaldehyde, simple hydrocarbons | Same as first entry (at left), deposition | Same as first entry | |
| Xylenes | Glyoxal, methylglyoxal, other hydroxyl radical oxidation products | Deposition | | |

TABLE C-5 Summary of Key Fate Products and Processes for Example Chemicals^a

| Chemical | Fate Products | Fate Processes |
|--|--|--|
| Arsenic (including trivalent) | Arsenate, arsenite | Deposition |
| Benzene | Phenol, nitrophenols, nitrobenzene, formic acid, and peroxyacetyl nitrate | Hydroxyl radical oxidation, reaction with ozone and nitrate radicals |
| | | Deposition (including wet) |
| Carbon monoxide | Carbon dioxide (note CO also accelerates the rate of ozone formation and the oxidation of nitric oxide to nitrogen dioxide) | Hydroxyl radical oxidation |
| Chlorine | Hydrochloric acid | Hydrolysis (in moist air) |
| | Hypochlorous acid | |
| | Atomic chlorine | Photolysis |
| | Hydrogen chloride | Reactions with atomic chlorine |
| | Chlorinated hydrocarbons | |
| 1,2-Dichloroethane (ethylene dichloride) | Formyl and monochloroacetyl chloride | Hydroxyl radical oxidation |
| | Hydrogen chloride | |
| | Carbon monoxide | |
| | Carbon dioxide | |
| Ethylbenzene | Ethylphenols, benzaldehyde, acetophenone, and m- and p-nitroethylbenzene | Reaction with hydroxyl radicals and nitrogen radicals; deposition, notably wet/precipitation |
| Ethylene oxide (Oxirane) | Methane, ethane, water, carbon dioxide, simple aldehydes | Hydroxyl radical oxidation |
| | 1,2-Ethanediol (ethylene glycol) | Hydrolysis (in moist air) |
| Formaldehyde | Hydrogen (gas) | Photolysis |
| | Carbon monoxide (CO) | |
| | Hydrogen radical (H·) | |
| | Formyl radical (HCO·) | |
| | Carbon dioxide (CO ₂ from CO) | Oxidation |
| | Formic acid | Hydroxyl radical, nitrate oxidation |
| n-Hexane | Peroxyl radical | Hydroxyl radical reaction (also reaction with nitrate radicals) |
| | Aldehydes, ketones, nitrates | |

| Chemical | Fate Products | Fate Processes |
|--|--|---|
| Hydrogen chloride | Hydrochloric acid | Incorporated in cloud, rain, and fog water Deposition (wet and dry) |
| Hydrogen sulfide (H ₂ S) | Sulfur dioxide | Hydroxyl radical oxidation |
| | Sulfates | |
| Mercuric chloride | Elemental mercury | Exchange reaction |
| | | Reduction (in moist air), deposition |
| Nitrogen oxides | Nitric oxide | Deposition, photooxidation, natural cycling |
| | Nitrogen dioxide (NO ₂) | |
| Ozone | Oxygen | Natural decay, chemical instability, oxidation with organic materials, reaction with bacteria |
| Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) | 2-hydroxybiphenyl intermediate | Hydroxyl radical oxidation |
| | Chlorinated benzoic acid | Deposition |
| Sulfate <i>(also see sulfur oxides, sulfuric acid)</i> | Various sulfate ions | Deposition (wet, dry) |
| Sulfur oxides, sulfur dioxide <i>(also see above and next entry)</i> | Sulfur trioxide (combines with water to form sulfuric acid), sulfurous acid | Deposition (wet, dry) Photooxidation, e.g., in presence of hydrocarbons |
| | Sulfuric acid, sulfate | Catalytic oxidation in presence of PM containing iron or manganese compounds Reaction with ammonia |
| Sulfuric acid/hydrogen sulfate <i>(also see sulfate, sulfur oxides)</i> | Hydrogen ion, bisulfate, sulfate ions | Dissociation |
| | | Deposition |
| Toluene | Cresol, benzaldehyde | Hydroxyl radical reaction Reaction with peroxy radicals (alkyl, aryl groups), ozone, and atomic oxygen |
| | Ring cleavage to simple hydrocarbons Nitrotoluene, benzyl nitrate, ozone, peroxyacetylnitrate, and peroxybenzoylnitrate | Deposition Photolysis/reaction with NO _x in air |
| Xylenes | Glyoxal (C ₂ H ₂ O ₂) and methylglyoxal Carbon dioxide and water (ultimately) | Photooxidation, hydroxyl radical reaction |

^a Successive transformation products are indicated by indenting. The identities of specific fate products are often not available (e.g., disappearance is noted, rather than new chemical produced).

TABLE C-6 Combined Persistence, Fate, and Toxicity Indicators for Example Chemicals^a

| Chemical | CAS RN | Formula or Symbol | Molecular Weight | General Persistence | Key Fate Process | Toxicity Indicator |
|--------------------------------|------------|--|------------------|---------------------|---|--------------------|
| Arsenic, inorganic | 7440-38-2 | As | 74.9 | Days | Deposition | Very high |
| Benzene | 71-43-2 | C ₆ H ₆ | 78.1 | Hours to days | Hydroxyl radical oxidation, nitrate and ozone radical oxidation, photooxidation, deposition | Moderate |
| Carbon monoxide | 630-08-0 | CO | 28.0 | Weeks | Oxidation; also naturally cycles | Very low |
| Chlorine | 7782-50-5 | Cl ₂ | 70.9 | Sec to minutes | Chemical reactivity | High |
| 1,2-Dichloroethane | 107-06-2 | C ₂ H ₄ Cl ₂ | 99.0 | Weeks to months | Hydroxyl radical oxidation | Moderate |
| Diesel engine exhaust | Multiple | Various | Various | Minutes to years | Multiple (deposition, oxidation) | Moderate |
| Ethylbenzene | 100-41-4 | C ₈ H ₁₀ | 106.2 | Hours to days | Oxidation and deposition | Low |
| Ethylene oxide (Oxirane) | 75-21-8 | C ₂ H ₄ O | 44.1 | Weeks to months | Hydroxyl radical oxidation | Moderate |
| Formaldehyde | 50-00-0 | CH ₂ O | 30.0 | Hours to days | Photolysis, hydroxyl radical oxidation, deposition | Moderate |
| Gasoline (CAS is for vapors) | 8006-61-9 | C ₅ to C ₁₂ hydrocarbons | (72.1 to 170.3) | Hours to months | (Depends on specific compound) | Low |
| n-Hexane | 100-54-3 | C ₆ H ₁₄ | 86.2 | Days | Hydroxyl radical oxidation | Low |
| Hydrogen chloride | 7647-01-0 | HCl | 36.5 | Days | Deposition | Moderate |
| Hydrogen sulfide | 7783-06-4 | H ₂ S | 34.1 | Days | Hydroxyl radical oxidation, deposition | High-mod |
| Mercuric chloride | 7487-94-7 | HgCl ₂ | 271.5 | Days | Deposition | High |
| Methanol | 67-56-1 | CH ₄ O | 32.0 | Days to weeks | Hydroxyl radical oxidation, deposition | Very low |
| Nitrogen dioxide | 10102-44-0 | NO ₂ | 46.0 | Days to weeks | Deposition, oxidation | Mod-low |
| Ozone | 10028-15-6 | O ₃ | 48.0 | Minutes | Conversion, oxidation | Mod-low |
| Polychlorinated biphenyls | 1336-36-3 | from C ₁₂ H ₉ Cl to C ₁₂ Cl ₁₀ | 186.7 to 498.7 | Days to months | Deposition, hydroxyl radical oxidation | High-mod |
| Sulfate | 14808-79-8 | SO ₄ ⁻² | 96.1 | Days | Deposition | Moderate |
| Sulfur dioxide | 7446-09-5 | SO ₂ | 64.1 | Days | Photooxidation, deposition | Mod-low |
| Sulfuric acid/hydrogen sulfate | 7664-93-9 | H ₂ SO ₄ | 98.1 | Days | Dissociation, deposition | High-mod |
| Toluene | 108-88-3 | C ₇ H ₈ | 92.1 | Hours to days/mo | Hydroxyl radical oxidation, deposition | Very low |
| Xylenes | 1330-20-7 | C ₈ H ₁₀ | 106.2 | Hours | Free radical oxidation | Mod-low |

Notes for Table C-6:

^a This table highlights fate and persistence information for selected contaminants (including fate products) for which risk-based concentrations were identified from benchmarks relevant to chronic public exposures. The molecular weight represents the weight of one mole in grams (for compounds, this is the sum of the atomic weights of their components). The general formula for PCBs is $C_{12}H_{10-x}Cl_x$; the molecular weight shown here is from a representative range for these compounds.

For persistence and fate context, see companion tables. For some chemicals, several persistence values were found, reflecting differences in the conditions assessed by the underlying studies. In those cases, a range is given for the general persistence indicator (e.g., days to weeks). Long-term persistence indicators for compounds that are part of a natural biogeochemical cycle (e.g., nitrogen dioxide) are represented as years.

Qualitative toxicity indicators are included to indicate how fate, persistence, and toxicity can be integrated to help identify priority pollutants to be considered for air quality monitoring in a given setting; the relative toxicity context is based on EPA chronic toxicity values (see EPA 2013a, 2013b).

Additional important context for mobile sensing of air pollutants are seasonal and diurnal patterns. These patterns could be used to help guide planning for discrete vs. continuous sampling designed to reduce overall power consumption, by considering periods when pollutant concentrations are anticipated to be higher or to vary substantially. General information regarding seasonal and diurnal patterns for selected pollutants is offered below.

Gaseous air pollutants consist of primary and secondary pollutants. Primary pollutants are those released directly from a source into the air; carbon monoxide (e.g., from vehicle exhaust) is one example. In contrast, secondary pollutants are formed through chemical reactions of primary and/or other secondary pollutants in the atmosphere; ozone (formed by photochemical reaction with nitrogen oxides and VOCs) is an example. Spatial and temporal distributions of ambient concentrations depend on various factors such as the location and emission strength of the sources, chemical reactivity, wet and dry deposition, and meteorological conditions, such as wind speed and mixing heights. In most cases, ambient concentration levels tend to be proportional to the distance from the emission source. For example, emissions from onroad traffic such as carbon monoxide or benzene are higher along the roadways, and concentrations of sulfur dioxide and nitrogen oxides are higher around and downwind of coal-fired power plants.

Air pollutants with low or medium chemical reactivity are ubiquitous, i.e., they can be found near and far from their sources. As a rough guide, if emission strengths and depositions are constant diurnally and seasonally, ambient concentrations are a function of the variation in mixing height. Higher concentrations occur at night when a temperature inversion prevails, while lower concentrations occur during the day when vigorous mixing occurs up to the higher elevation. Typically, mixing height is highest in the early afternoon and lowest around sunrise.

Emissions and related ambient concentrations for most gaseous air pollutants are closely linked to energy use by the transportation sector, which peaks around early morning, decreases as the day proceeds, and peaks again in late afternoon. This behavior leads to the most commonly observed pattern of high ambient concentrations in the morning and evening hours for primary pollutants, and high concentrations during the afternoon hours for secondary pollutants, which are photochemically produced in the atmosphere from the primary pollutants.

Ozone is commonly known as a summertime pollutant. Seasonal and diurnal patterns of ozone are distinct compared with other air pollutants. The conditions conducive to high ozone concentrations typically include high temperature, low wind speed, intense solar radiation, and an absence of precipitation (NRC 1992). However, high temperature is not a necessary

condition, as evidenced by high-ozone episodes in winter.¹ In most central or downtown urban settings, ozone concentrations have been found to vary over a diurnal cycle with a minimum in the early morning hours before dawn and a maximum in the afternoon (typically from noon to 5 p.m.), but areas downwind of those settings have experienced daily maximum concentrations late afternoon and in the evening on occasion. At night, air pollutants are trapped in the shallow mixing layer caused by ground-based temperature inversion. In areas near large sources of nitrogen oxide, the nighttime minimum for ozone can be quite pronounced because of the rapid titration reaction between ozone and nitrogen oxides. In many urban areas, the nitrogen oxide source is strong enough to cause the complete nighttime disappearance of ozone, while concentrations close to background levels of 20 to 40 ppb have been reported for remote areas without nitrogen oxide emissions.

In contrast, carbon monoxide is a typical winter pollutant. Atmospheric levels are typically highest during the winter, because vehicles burn fuel less efficiently in cold weather, and with longer nighttime hours, a stronger inversion layer develops in the atmosphere that traps pollutants near the ground and prevents mixing with cleaner air above. Accordingly, the overnight buildup of carbon monoxide combined with morning rush-hour traffic emissions often result in exceedance (violations) of the ambient air quality standard in a limited area near intersections with heavy traffic volumes during the winter months.

Methane can be a pollutant of particular interest in certain locations, such as near concentrated animal feeding operations or areas of natural gas development. On the national to global scale, methane is the second most prevalent greenhouse gas among anthropogenic emissions, and pound for pound, it is estimated to be about 21 times more potent at warming the atmosphere than carbon dioxide. Its chemical lifetime in the atmosphere is estimated to be about 12 years. Methane sources are primarily continental (rather than oceanic), and because most of the world's land mass is in the northern hemisphere, the largest sources are there. Due to its relatively long atmospheric lifetime, methane has a nearly constant mixing ratio around the globe, with only a slight change in abundance across the intertropical convergence zone (ITCZ) near the equator.

¹ Recently, high ozone concentrations have been observed in several western rural areas during winter months, even when temperatures are below freezing. Sublette County, Wyoming, is the area in which wintertime high ozone levels were first identified. Daily maximum 8-hour ozone levels there have frequently exceeded the NAAQS level of 0.075 ppm in winter, mostly during January to March. The number of O₃ exceedance days is comparable to or higher than those in major U.S. metropolitan areas. These wintertime high ozone occurrences have been found at high-elevation monitoring sites, such as in southwest Wyoming, northeast Utah, and northwest of Colorado. Air quality modeling indicated that these high-ozone incidents during wintertime result from several factors: high solar radiation due to high elevation enhanced by high albedo caused by snow cover; shallow mixing height below temperature inversion; no or few clouds; stagnant or light winds; and abundant ozone precursors (such as NO_x and VOCs) from existing oil and gas development activities (Kotamarthi and Holdridge 2007; Morris et al. 2009). In particular, snow cover plays a crucial role in ultraviolet reflection and insulation from the ground, which reduces the surface heating that promotes the breakup of temperature inversions. Recent observations corroborate that the level of snow cover is closely related to high-ozone occurrences. Interestingly, ozone exceedances during the summer ozone season (lasting from spring to early fall) are rare in this area.

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APPENDIX D:
EXAMPLE CONCENTRATION SUMMARIES TO GUIDE REGIONAL AND LOCAL INPUTS

APPENDIX D: EXAMPLE CONCENTRATION SUMMARIES TO GUIDE REGIONAL AND LOCAL INPUTS

Summary tables are presented in Chapter 3 for example concentrations of the study pollutants in air, to provide a practical basis for assessing reported sensor detection levels.

Complementary tables are presented in this appendix, organized to facilitate data inputs by EPA Regional scientists and others interested in compiling selected location- or setting-specific summaries.

Example summaries for criteria pollutants are provided in Table D-1, including EPA Region-specific summaries for carbon monoxide, nitrogen dioxide, ozone, and particulate matter (both PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5}). Example summaries for acrolein, ammonia, benzene, 1,3-butadiene, and hydrogen sulfide are provided in Table D-2.

TABLE D-1 Illustrative Concentrations of Criteria Pollutants in Air^a

| Information Basis (location, time frame) | Criteria Pollutant (concentration unit) | | | | | | | Notes |
|---|---|------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------|---|
| | CO (ppm) | Lead (µg/m³) | NO ₂ (ppb) | O ₃ (ppb) | PM ₁₀ (µg/m³) | PM _{2.5} (µg/m³) | SO ₂ (ppb) | |
| EPA Regions | | | | | | | | |
| Region 1 | 1.8 | | 15 | 81 | 35 | 25 (9.4) | | For EPA Region-specific data: CO: annual average for 2009; NO ₂ : annual average for 2009; O ₃ : 3-yr average for 2007-2009; PM ₁₀ : 24-hour, annual average for 2009; PM _{2.5} : 24-hour, 3-year average for 2007-2009 (with annual average concentrations in parentheses) |
| Region 2 | 1.3 | | 17 | 76 | 52 | 28 (11) | | |
| Region 3 | 1.7 | | 12 | 77 | 42 | 30 (12) | | |
| Region 4 | 1.7 | | 8 | 74 | 36 | 26 (11) | | |
| Region 5 | 1.4 | | 13 | 73 | 41 | 30 (12) | | |
| Region 6 | 1.7 | | 11 | 75 | 53 | 22 (10) | | |
| Region 7 | 1.6 | | 8 | 65 | 41 | 25 (11) | | |
| Region 8 | 2.2 | | 16 | 73 | 76 | 28 (8.5) | | |
| Region 9 | 1.9 | | 16 | 77 | 63 | 33 (11) | | |
| Region 10 | 2.0 | | | 60 | 51 | 31 (8.8) | | |
| Other examples | | | | | | | | |
| Ambient, annual means: | | | | | | | | From EPA reports: <i>Air Trends</i> and <i>Report on Environment</i> |
| 2012 | | | | | | | | |
| 2010 | 1.6 (0.8-2.5) | 0.11 (0-0.37) | 10 (3.4-18) | 72 (62-81) | 63 (31-90) | 10 (6.8-13) | 2.2 (0.44-4.7) | |

| Information Basis (location, time frame) | | Criteria Pollutant (concentration unit) | | | | | | Notes | |
|---|----------|---|---------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|-------------|---|
| | | CO (ppm) | Lead (µg/m³) | NO ₂ (ppb) | O ₃ (ppb) | PM ₁₀ (µg/m³) | PM _{2.5} (µg/m³) | | SO ₂ (ppb) |
| 2009 | | 1.8 (1.0-2.6) | 0.09 (0.01-0.18) | 14 (7-22) | | 51 (28-80) | | | CO: annual avg; Pb: annual avg; NO ₂ : annual avg; PM ₁₀ : annual mean per 24-hr avg |
| 2007-2009 | | | | | 75 (64-85) | | | | O ₃ : 3-yr avg |
| 2006-2008 | | | | | | | 11.5 (7.8-15) | | PM _{2.5} : 3-yr avg |
| 2002 | | | <0.05 | | | | | | Pb: from 2007 ATSDR ToxGuide |
| Regional | | | | | | | | | |
| Mid-Atlantic | | | | | | | | 3.3 | SO ₂ : mean ambient 2003-2005 |
| Midwest | | | | | | | | 2.3 | SO ₂ : mean ambient 2003-2005 |
| Northeast | | | | | | | | 1.2 | SO ₂ : mean ambient 2003-2005 |
| Southeast | | | | | | | | 1.3 | SO ₂ : mean ambient 2003-2005 |
| Annual | | | | | | 25 (16-35) | 12 (8-16) | 4 (1-8) | PM ₁₀ : 24-hr and 1-hr data, 3 yr avg period, 2005-2007, no seasonal weighting; PM _{2.5} : 24-hr, 3-yr avg, 2005-2007, no seasonal weighting; SO ₂ : mean, metropolitan area, with 2003-2005 averages |
| 24-hour concentration | | | | | 29 (14-45) | 26 (9-46) | 12 (4-23) | 4 (1-10) | O ₃ : mean, 24-hr avg, 2007-2009; PM ₁₀ : 24-hr and 1-hr data, 3-yr avg, 2005-2007, no seasonal weighting; PM _{2.5} : 3-yr avg, 2005-2007, no seasonal weighting; SO ₂ : mean, metropolitan area, with 2003-2005 avgs |
| 8-hour concentration | | | | | 41 (23-60) | | | | O ₃ : mean, 8-hr daily max, 2007-2009 |
| 1-hour concentration | | | | | 29 (6-51) | 27 (6-51) | 10 (2-21) | 4 (1-10) | O ₃ : mean, 1-hr avg, 2007-2009; PM ₁₀ : 1-hr data, 3-yr avg period, 2005-2007, no seasonal weighting; PM _{2.5} : 3-yr avg, 2005-2007, no seasonal weighting; SO ₂ : mean, metropolitan area, with 2003-2005 avgs |
| Northern hemisphere | | 0.12 | | | | | | | |
| Southern hemisphere | | 0.04 | | | | | | | |
| North America background | <1,500 m | | | | 29 ± 8 | | | | O ₃ : March-August 2006-2008, per daily 8-hr avg, max (U.S.-only average is indicated as about 1 to 3 ppb higher) |
| | >1,500 m | | | | 40 ± 8 | | | | |

| Information Basis (location, time frame) | Criteria Pollutant (concentration unit) | | | | | | | Notes |
|---|---|------------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------------|--|---|--------------------------|---|
| | CO (ppm) | Lead (µg/m ³) | NO ₂ (ppb) | O ₃ (ppb) | PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³) | PM _{2.5} (µg/m ³) | SO ₂ (ppb) | |
| Geothermal | | | | | | | 3.9 | SO ₂ : mean concentration in geothermal area among regions of metropolitan Taipei (low traffic density areas) |
| Forest fires | | | | | | | 600-3,000 | SO ₂ : breathing zone of forest fires |
| Urban background | | 0.01 | | | | | 0.34-2 | SO ₂ : Alberta communities, 7-day avg range, 5-wk sampling period |
| Example city (urban) | | | 6-30 | 37 (19-57) | 26 (11-45) | 14 (6-25) | 2.4-6.7 | NO ₂ : Chicago, 3-yr mean (2008); O ₃ : Chicago, mean, 8-hr daily max, 2007-2009; PM ₁₀ : 24-hr and 1-hr data, 3 yr avg period, 2005-2007, no seasonal weighting; PM _{2.5} : 24-hr, 3-yr avg, 2005-2007, no seasonal weighting; SO ₂ : Chicago, range of mean, 2003-2005 |
| Rural ambient | | | | 47 (<1500m) 60 (>1500m) | | | 0.08-0.88 | O ₃ : Great Smoky Mountain NP, median; SO ₂ : Alberta communities, 7-day avg range, 5-wk sampling period |
| Busy traffic | 5 | 0.02 | 40-70 | 15 (7.3-19) | | 54 (44-60) | | Pb: 2001-2010 annual avg; NO ₂ : Los Angeles freeway, nonconsecutive 4-day avg; O ₃ : Toronto roadway, 1-wk, August 2004, mean [min-max]; PM _{2.5} : freeway I-710S, mean, 4 days in spring, 2003 [avg interquartile range] |
| Tunnel | | | 1,500 | | | | | NO ₂ : NO _x , San Francisco tunnel exit, 1999 |
| Airport | | 0.03 | | | | | | Pb: 10-day avg, Canadian airport, 2000 (0.30 max) |
| Neighborhood adjacent to airport | | 0.03-0.05 | | | | | | Pb: Santa Monica neighborhood, 155 m downwind |
| Downwind smelter | | 0.63-0.88 | | | | | | |
| Indoor air | | 0.11 | 10-30 | | | 20 (6.8-75) | | Pb: 2001, mean from EPA Region 5 survey; NO ₂ : 24-hr avg; PM _{2.5} : two consecutive 3- to 4-day measurements collected biannually from urban homes (lower socioeconomic status) [data range] |
| Schools | | | 15.5 | | | | | NO ₂ : Australia, 12 wks, 6-hr/day, winter, electric or flued heater |
| Single-family home | | | 10 | | | | | NO ₂ : 2-wk mean |
| Multi-family home | | | 23 | | | | | NO ₂ : 2-wk mean |
| Home with electric stove | | | 9 | | | | | NO ₂ : 2-wk mean |

| Information Basis (location, time frame) | Criteria Pollutant (concentration unit) | | | | | | | Notes | | | |
|--|---|-----------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------|--|----------|------|--|
| | CO (ppm) | Lead (µg/m³) | NO ₂ (ppb) | O ₃ (ppb) | PM ₁₀ (µg/m³) | PM _{2.5} (µg/m³) | SO ₂ (ppb) | | | | |
| Indoor air, residential (by heating source) | | | | | | | | NO ₂ , SO ₂ : median, one heating season (October-April) between 1994-1996, w/out heaters 1, 2-wk sampling period, w/ heaters 3-6, 2-wk sampling periods | | | |
| Kerosene heater | | | 17.7 (3.3-84) | | | | 6.4 (0.0-44) | | | | |
| Gas space heater | | | 54.8 (13-147) | | | | 0.9 (0.0-9.1) | | | | |
| Fireplace | | | 9.3 (2.8-80) | | | | 0.4 (0.0-7.2) | | | | |
| Wood stove | | | 11.2 (2.2-52) | | | | 0.3 (0.0-16) | | | | |
| Without heaters above | | | 13.5 (2.7-41) | | | | 0.2 (0.0-1.3) | | | | |
| Home without gas stove | 0.5-5 | | | | | | | | | | |
| Home with proper gas stove | 5-15 | | 26 | | | | | CO: gas stove properly adjusted; NO ₂ : 2-wk mean, does not indicate if stove was properly adjusted | | | |
| Home with improper stove | ≥30 | | | | | | | Gas stove not properly adjusted | | | |
| Standards comparison | | | | | | | | | | | |
| National Ambient Air Quality Standard | 9 | 35 | 0.15 | 53 | 100 | 0.075 | 150 | 15 | 35 | 75 | |
| measurement averaging time | 8 hr | 1 hr | rolling 3 mo | ann mean | 1 hr | 8 hr | 24 hr | ann mean 3-yr | 24 hr | 1 hr | |

^a This table was prepared to support regional and community inputs, e.g., to facilitate data compilation by EPA Regional staff and others (via entries provided in the upper portion of the table, with illustrative context for further comparisons provided in the rest of the table). CO = carbon monoxide; NO₂ = nitrogen dioxide; O₃ = ozone; PM₁₀ = particulate matter ≤10-micron in diameter; PM_{2.5} = PM ≤2.5-micron in diameter; SO₂ = sulfur dioxide.

The examples concentrations shown here represent U.S. values unless otherwise indicated; most ambient annual averages from the EPA Air Trends report are rounded to two significant figures; values in parentheses represent the 90th percentile range unless otherwise stated.

National Ambient Air Quality Standards are provided at the end of this table for comparison with the example concentrations shown for these criteria pollutants. The standards listed here reflect primary standards established for human health protection (averaging times for the measurements are given in parentheses beneath the concentration value); in some cases the primary standard also applies as the secondary standard – i.e., the NAAQS for lead, ozone, PM, and the

annual mean for nitrogen dioxide are joint primary-secondary standards. Not shown here is the separate secondary standard for sulfur dioxide (500 ppb); secondary standards are established to protect public welfare, including protecting against decreased visibility and damage to animals, crops, vegetation and buildings. Selected information sources are indicated below and in the companion Table D-2 (which presents example concentrations in air for selected pollutants beyond the six criteria pollutants); also see Table 3-5.

Carbon monoxide (CO)

- ATSDR (2009). *ToxGuide* (<http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/toxguides/toxguide-201.pdf>).
 ATSDR (2009). *Toxicological Profile (Draft)* (<http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/ToxProfiles/tp201-c6.pdf>).
 EPA (2009). *Report on the Environment, Ambient Concentrations of Carbon Monoxide* (<http://cfpub.epa.gov/eroe/index.cfm?fuseaction=detail.viewInd&lv=list.listbyalpha&r=231329&subtop=341>).
 EPA (2000). *Air Quality Criteria* (<http://cfpub.epa.gov/ncea/cfm/recordisplay.cfm?deid=18163>).

Lead (Pb)

- EPA (2012). *Integrated Science Assessment: Lead (Draft)* (<http://cfpub.epa.gov/ncea/isa/recordisplay.cfm?deid=235331>).
 Levin, R., M.J. Brown, M.E. Kashtock, D.E. Jacobs, E.A. Whelan, et al. (2008). *Lead Exposures in U.S. Children, 2008: Implications for Prevention*. *Environ Health Perspect* 116(10):1285-1293 (<http://ehp03.niehs.nih.gov/article/info%3Adoi%2F10.1289%2Fehp.11241>).
 Also: Choel et al. (2006); Sabin et al. (2006).

Nitrogen dioxide (NO₂)

- EPA (2008). *Integrated Science Assessment: Oxides of Nitrogen* (<http://www.epa.gov/ncea/isa/>).
 EPA (2009). *Report on the Environment, Ambient Concentrations of Nitrogen Dioxide* (<http://cfpub.epa.gov/eroe/index.cfm?fuseaction=detail.viewInd&ch=46&subtop=341&lv=list.listByChapter&r=231330>).
 Triche, E., K. Belanger, et al. (2005). *Indoor Heating Sources and Respiratory Symptoms in Nonsmoking Women*. *Epidemiology*, 16(3):377-384.
 Also: Westerdahl et al. (2005); Pilotto et al. (2004); Belanger et al. (2006); Strien et al. (2004).

Ozone (O₃)

- EPA (2012). *Integrated Science Assessment: Ozone (Draft)* (<http://www.epa.gov/ncea/isa/ozone.htm>).
 Also: Beckerman et al. (2008); Zhang et al. (2011).

Particulate matter (PM)

- EPA (2009). *Report on the Environment, Ambient Concentrations of Particulate Matter* (<http://cfpub.epa.gov/eroe/index.cfm?fuseaction=detail.viewInd&ch=46&subtop=341&lv=list.listByChapter&r=231331>).
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 Fruin, S. (2008). *Measurements and Predictors of On-Road Ultrafine Particle Concentrations and Associated Pollutants in Los Angeles*. *Atmospheric Environment*, 42(2):207-219 (<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S135223100700859X>).

Sulfur dioxide (SO₂)

- EPA (2008). *Integrated Science Assessment: Sulfur Oxides – Health Criteria* (<http://www.epa.gov/ncea/isa/soxnox.htm>).

Kindzierski and Sembaluk (2001). In: *Review of the Health Risks Associated with Nitrogen Dioxide and Sulfur Dioxide in Indoor Air, Report to Health Canada* (<https://circle.ubc.ca/bitstream/handle/2429/938/IAQNO2SO2full.pdf?sequence=8>).

Triche, E., Belanger, K., et al. (2005). *Indoor Heating Sources and Respiratory Symptoms in Nonsmoking Women*. *Epidemiology*, 16(3):377-384.

TABLE D-2 Illustrative Concentrations of Five Hazardous Air Pollutants (ppb)^a

| Concentration Context | Acrolein | Ammonia | Benzene | 1,3-Butadiene | Hydrogen sulfide | Notes |
|-------------------------------|----------|---------|--------------------|---------------|------------------|--|
| Area of interest | | | | | | |
| EPA Region | | | | | | |
| Community-based area | | | | | | |
| Example Concentrations | | | | | | |
| Ambient/outdoor air | 0.5-3.2 | | 0.85 (0.36-1.4) | 0.1 | 0.11-0.33 | Benzene: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, annual mean, 2009 (10 th -90 th percentile range); 1,3-Butadiene: 2003 annual avg, Texas; excludes monitors downwind of point sources |
| Urban/metropolitan areas | | | 0.58 | | <1 | |
| Ambient, cities & suburbs | | | | 0.04-1 | | |
| Homes near CAFOs | | | | | 0.4-2.4 8.4 | Hydrogen sulfide: 2006, time-weighted avg (8.42 ppb), dominated by swine containment areas |
| Geothermal area | | | | | 400 | Hydrogen sulfide: mean concentration in geothermal area among regions of metropolitan Taipei |
| Indoor residential air | <0.02-12 | | | | | |
| Near landfill | | | | | 1-14 | Hydrogen sulfide: Maximum 30-min rolling avg range, 2002 (2-wk, 15-min avg measurements) near Norridgewock landfill, Maine |
| Near industrial facilities | | | | 3.1 | >90 | 1,3 -Butadiene: 5-yr avg, 1999-2003, downwind industrial point source, Milby Park monitor in Houston, Texas |
| Global average | | 0.3-6 | | | | |

^a This table was prepared to facilitate inputs from EPA Region staff and other interested parties to assess regional or local air quality data, with open entries at the top and example comparison values below. Values are as ppb and reflect U.S. data except as otherwise indicated. Selected information resources include:

Hydrogen sulfide (H₂S): Iowa (2006), *Modeling Hydrogen Sulfide Concentrations near CAFOs* (8.42ppb) (<http://www.public-health.uiowa.edu/icash/research/H2S-near-CAFOs.html>); Maine (2006), *Ambient Air Guidelines for Hydrogen Sulfide* (near landfill). (<http://www.maine.gov/dep/waste/publications/documents/ambientairguidelines.pdf>); Taipei (2010), Geothermal: sulfur-rich geothermal emissions elevate acid aerosol levels in metropolitan regions (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20561610>); California (1999), Odor detection threshold, geometric mean, 8 ppb (geometric standard deviation of 4) (Cal EPA).

1,3-Butadiene: Texas (2007), ambient and downwind of point source (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17011534>). (For others, also see Table 3-5.)

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APPENDIX E:
SUMMARY OF SENSORS REPRESENTED ON THE GRAPHICAL ARRAYS

APPENDIX E:

SUMMARY OF SENSORS REPRESENTED ON THE GRAPHICAL ARRAYS

The plots in Chapter 3 include small boxes listing example sensors that indicate where their detection levels fall compared with exposure benchmarks and illustrative concentrations in air for each pollutant. Supporting information for these sensors is summarized in Table E-1, as excerpted from the much larger master table that includes additional pollutants and other parameters (see Raymond et al. 2013).

Because gas and particle sensor technologies and techniques differ, the first level of organization for Table E-1 is by pollutant type: first gases, then particles. Within the gases, the criteria pollutants are listed first (carbon dioxide, nitrogen dioxide, ozone, and sulfur dioxide), followed by the other eight gases (acetaldehyde, acrolein, ammonia, benzene, 1,3-butadiene, formaldehyde, hydrogen sulfide, and methane). The two particulate criteria pollutants (PM and lead) are presented at the end.

Within each pollutant, the research sensors with new or modified detection techniques are listed first, grouped by detection principle (e.g., chemical, spectroscopy, and ionization), beginning with the lowest reported lower detection level (LDL) within each of these categories.

Where relevant, the research sensors that reflect a sensor system architecture incorporating a commercial sensor are listed next, again ordered by increasing reported LDL. The commercial sensors are listed last within each pollutant section.

The identifier (ID) listed in the first column corresponds to the numbers listed in the sensor boxes on the graphical arrays. An "np" in the ID column indicates that sensor was not plotted on the graphical array because no detection level or range was reported. A "c" indicates a commercial sensor used in a novel detection system; a C denotes a standard commercial sensor included for comparison.

A subsequent targeted literature search for chemical-based sensors conducted in early 2013 produced results summarized in Table E-2. This table is organized in a similar manner as Table E-1.

A number of acronyms and abbreviations are defined within the tables; the notation section at the front of this report includes additional definitions.

TABLE E-1 Detectors Displayed on Graphical Arrays for Detection Levels, Benchmarks, and Ambient Levels^a

| ID | Organization <i>Author (Funding)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|--------------------------------|--|--|----------------------------------|--|--|---|------------------------------------|-------------|--|---|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| Carbon Monoxide | | | | | | | | | | |
| Detection Technique: Chemistry | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | Korea Institute of Science and Technology (Republic of Korea) <i>Shim, Y.-S., Yoon, S.-J., et al.</i> (Funding: Core Technology Materials Research & Development Program of Korea Ministry of Intelligence and Economy, and KIST Research Program) | <i>Transparent conducting oxide electrodes for novel metal oxide gas sensors</i> [Aug. 2011, Sensors and Actuators B, 160:357-363] http://pdn.sciencedirect.com/science?_ob=MasImageURL&_cid=271353&_user=1722207&_pii=S0925400511007155&_check=y&_origin=broker&_zone=rsit_list_item&_coverDate=2011-12-15&wchp=dGLzVlk-zSkzV&md5=96ca5099839c0ba48523ae38a59c54ac/1-s2.0-S0925400511007155-main.pdf | Metal oxide semi-conductor (MOS) | Thin film with transparent conducting oxide electrodes, tungsten trioxide (WO ₃) and tin dioxide (SnO ₂) thin-film (200 nm) sensors with indium-tin oxide (ITO) and Al-doped zinc oxide (AZO) films (200 nm) on glass substrates, 20-μm spacing of interdigitated electrodes | CO | Sub-ppm, limit 200 ppb (high transmittance, exceeds 75% of sensors at visible wavelengths) | ~240 sec | Very small | Not indicated (This column also includes brief notes related to the general sensor category, e.g., mountable.) | Designed to replace traditional platinum (Pt) electrodes. Required annealing time of 53.3 hours; In ₂ O ₃ and others doped with other ions (e.g., aluminum-doped zinc oxide and ITO) reduce cost. The work functions of Pt electrodes and ITO were 5.65 electron volts (eV) and 4.6 eV, respectively, with operating temperatures of 200-500°C. |
| 2 | Kyushu University, Fukuoka Japan Department of Energy and Materials Sciences <i>Kida, T., et al.</i> | <i>Application of a solid electrolyte CO₂ sensor for the analysis of standard volatile organic compound gases</i> [2010, Analytical Chemistry, 82(8):3315-3319] http://pubs.acs.org/doi/full/10.1021/ac100123u | Electrochemical, potentiometric | Solid electrolyte CO ₂ sensor using NASICON (Na ₃ Si ₂ Zr ₂ PO ₄ ; Na ⁺ conductor) as the solid electrolyte and binary carbonate (Li ₂ CO ₃ -BaCO ₂) as the sensing layer | VOCs: ethanol, formaldehyde, and toluene), CO, and hydrocarbons | Measures 10-500 ppm, standard gases; detection limited to around 0.5 ppm CO ₂ | <1 min | | Computer-recorded electrometer readings (operating temperature of the CO ₂ sensor) (Mountable) | VOCs are decomposed to CO ₂ due to catalytic combustion, and the CO ₂ is then detected using a solid-state CO ₂ sensor; the operating temperature is 500°C. |
| 3 | University College London <i>Varsani, P., et al.</i> University of Auckland (New Zealand) <i>Binions, R.</i> (Funding: EPSRC, Wolfson Trust, Royal Society, Dorothy Hodgkin fellowship) | <i>Zeolite-modified WO₃ gas sensors – Enhanced detection of NO₂</i> [2011, Sensors and Actuators B, 160:475-482] http://pdn.sciencedirect.com/science?_ob=MasImageURL&_cid=271353&_user=1722207&_pii=S0925400511007374&_check=y&_origin=broker&_zone=rsit_list_item&_coverDate=2011-12-15&wchp=dGLzVlk-zSkzV&md5=da16648f4b92533eb17ae36c6fe2c0ad/1-s2.0-S0925400511007374-main.pdf | MOS | Solid-state metal oxide screen printed WO ₃ sensors modified by addition of acidic and catalytic zeolite layers | NO ₂ ; also tested: CO, mixture of NO ₂ and CO, acetone at 5 ppm | CO tested at 30 ppm | 30-min response with 1-hr recovery | (Mountable) | Highly selective to NO ₂ , including in the mixture; potential for use in electronic nose technology for environmental monitoring. Zeolite layers were added to increase selectivity. The sensor operates at 350°C. | |

| ID | Organization Author (Funding) | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|---------|---|---|---|---|--|---|----------------------------|--|---|--|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| 4 | Shinwoo Electronics Co., Ltd. Kim, I. Korea University (S. Korea) Dong, K.Y., Ju, B.K. Yonsei University (S. Korea) Choi, H.H. | <i>Gas sensor for CO and NH₃ using polyaniline/CNTs composite at room temperature</i> [2010, IEEE, International Conference on Nanotechnology Joint Symposium with Nano Korea] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=5697782&isnumber=5697724 | Polymer film, organic | Polyaniline (PANI)/single-walled carbon nanotube (SWCNT) film dispersed in sodium dodecyl sulfate and applied over titanium/gold (Ti/Au) electrodes of an interdigitated electrode (IDE) by photolithography | CO, NH ₃ ; also benzene and NO ₂ | Indicates ppm levels (CO tested at 80 ppm, NH ₃ at 35 ppm) | Fast response and recovery | 5 mm x 17 mm, 480 µm thick | | Demonstrates the use of PANI/SWCNT composite-based sensor for mixed gas detection. The change in resistance of the sensor determines the presence of a single gas or mixture of gases. This composite has a large surface-to-volume ratio which makes it a good candidate for new gas sensors. The sensor operates at room temperature. |
| 5 | VLSI Technology Laboratory, National Cheng Kung University (Taiwan) Juang, F.-R., Chiu, H.-Y., Fang, Y.K., Cho, K.-H., and Chen, Y.C. (Funding: National Science Council) | <i>An n-SnO₂/i-diamond/p-diamond diode with nanotip structure for high-temperature CO sensing applications</i> [2012, IEEE] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=6183505 | Nano-based, chemical vapor deposition (CVD) | Palladium (Pd)/n-tin oxide (SnO ₂)/i-diamond/p-diamond diodes prepared by field-enhanced hot-wire CVD (FEHWCVD) system on silicon substrate with nanotip structures on SnO ₂ sensing layer | CO; also CO ₂ , ethanol, NO | 100 ppm ambient (91%), saturated above 1,200 ppm | ~2 sec | | | Addresses emerging diamond-filmed nanostructures for more sensitivity to CO in ambient conditions under high temperatures. The p-i-n diamond diode was reported to have more sensing applications. The use of diamond tips instead of MOS sensors allows for lower operation temperatures (material band gap of 5.47 eV). |
| 6 np | University of California San Diego Sailor, M.J. (Funding: NSF and Air Force Office of Scientific Research) | [Feb. 2003] http://sailorgroup.ucsd.edu/research/gassensors.html | Nano-based | Crystal made from nano-structured porous silicon (Si) film, detects shifts in Fabry-Perot fringes or resonance; nano-structured porous Si sensor pad | Chemical warfare agents, VOCs, CO, CO ₂ , O ₂ , and hydrocarbons | | | Portable, quarter-sized sensor pad for multiple chemical detection | (Handheld) | Porous Si sensor pad engineered to be green in presence of air then turn red in presence of the target chemical. Developer envisioned producing thousands of miniature sensor pads on a silicon chip the size of a quarter to quickly identify a wide range of chemical toxins. |
| 7 np | Solapur University, Materials Research Laboratory (India) Bhabha Atomic Research Centre (India) Pawar, S.G., Chougule, M.A., Patil, V.B. | <i>Development of nanostructured polyaniline-titanium dioxide gas sensors for ammonia recognition</i> [2012, Journal of Applied Polymer Science, 125(2): 1418-1424], http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/app.35468/full | Polymer film, hybrid | Nanostructured PANi-TiO ₂ thin film deposited on glass substrate (1 mm-wide strips) | NH ₃ , CO | | 41 sec | | (Fixed/semi-portable) | No response at room temperature for 20 ppm NH ₃ using TiO ₂ nanoparticles alone; needed to be operated at 200° C. Pure PANi composite showed little response, while the PANi-TiO ₂ composite was the most responsive at room temperature. Response time decreased as NH ₃ concentration increased, but so did recovery time (possibly due to lower desorption rate). |

| ID | Organization <i>Author (Funding)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|-----------------------------------|--|--|---|---|--|-------------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------|--|--|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| Detection Technique: Spectroscopy | | | | | | | | | | |
| 8 | Yanshan University (China) <i>Zhang, J., Cao, S., Guan, L.</i> | <i>Carbon monoxide gas sensor based on cavity enhanced absorption spectroscopy and harmonic detection</i> http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=5230315&isnumber=5230050 [2009, IEEE] | Laser absorp- tion | Harmonic detection, cavity enhanced absorption spectroscopy (CEAS); absorption detected at 1567 nm for CO | CO | 10 ppm | 5-hr cycle detec- tion | | (Handheld) | Uses enhanced absorption spectroscopy and harmonic detection techniques in a fiber CO gas sensor. This system increases the distance of interaction between light and CO from that typically seen in a standard gas cell. Possible applications include increased sensing capabilities in mines, industrial settings, and homes. Reported power usage is 3.63 decibel-milliwatt (dBm). |
| 9 np | Tianjin University (China) <i>Nan, G., Zhen-hui, D., Xue-hong, Z., Yan, W.</i> <i>(Funding: National High Technology Research and Development Program of China and the Natural Science Foundation of Tianjin)</i> | <i>Tunable diode laser absorption spectroscopy for sensing CO and CO₂ of vehicle emissions based on temperature tuning</i> [2011] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=5914237&isnumber=5914233 | Laser absorp- tion | Tunable diode laser absorption spectroscopy (TDLAS), 1580 nm distributed feedback (DFB) laser with thermoelectric cooler. | CO, CO ₂ (vehicle emissions) | | | | (Remote sensor) | Explores a broad-spectrum temperature tuning method by controlling the thermoelectric cooler in the laser diode. Temperature ranged from -7.6°C to 30.8°C, allowing a wavelength range of 4 nm. This method increased response speed and allows for the simultaneous detection of CO and CO ₂ . Applicable for remote detection of vehicle emissions. |
| 10 np | Imperial College London <i>Polak, J., and others (including at Universities of Cambridge, Leeds, Newcastle, and Southampton)</i> <i>(Funding: Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council and Department of Transport)</i> | [2009] http://www.wired.co.uk/news/archive/2009-06/30/pedestrians-and-cars-turned-into-pollution-sensors | Ultraviolet absorp- tion (UV abs) | Supported by ultrasound technology for traffic count | NO _x , SO _x , CO (up to 5 traffic pollutants) | | 5-sec interval | Pocket size | Data transmitted to base using mobile phones, locations tagged using Google Maps (Wearable and vehicle-mounted units) | 12 static and 6 mobile sensors, 3 of which were on vehicles and 3 were carried by pedestrians. |

| ID | Organization <i>Author (Funding)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|---|---|--|-------------------------------------|--|--|---|-----------------------|----------|---|--|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| Novel Sensor Systems Using Commercial Sensors | | | | | | | | | | |
| c 11 | Jackson State University <i>Anjaneyulu, Y.</i> Jawaharlal Nehru Technological University <i>Jayakumar, I., Bindu, V.H.</i> Andhra Pradesh Pollution Control Board <i>Ramani, K.V.</i> Spectrochem Instruments <i>Rao, T.H.</i> | <i>Real time remote monitoring of air pollutants and their online transmission to the web using internet protocol</i> [2007, Environ Monit Assess, 124:371-381] http://cardiff.academia.edu/AGARESWARGUMMENENI/Papers/922566/ | Electro-chemical various commercial | (Real Time Remote Monitoring System) | SO ₂ , NO, NO ₂ , CO, O ₃ , H ₂ S, PM ₁₀ , PM _{2.5} , hydrocarbons, mercaptans | Varies per pollutant, within 0-200 ppm, or 0-50 µg/m ³ (mercaptans) CO: Range: 0-100 ppm | 30 or 60 min | | Ethernet network module, uploading to webpage (Remote sensor) | This device is a remotely monitored detection system that can be run on a 12-volt (12V) battery. The sensors can be set to collect data every 30 or 60 minutes, depending on user preference and weather conditions. Also measures environmental parameters (including temperature and humidity). |
| c 12 | University of Canterbury (New Zealand) <i>Pattinson, W.</i> | <i>Cyclist exposure to traffic pollution: microscale variance, the impact of route choice and comparisons to other modal choices in two New Zealand cities</i> [2009] http://ir.canterbury.ac.nz/handle/10092/3687 ; http://ir.canterbury.ac.nz/bitstream/10092/3687/1/thesis_fulltext.pdf | Commercial sensors | Mobile sampling using 4 portable kits with sampling instruments; logging software Specifically used: Langan T15n for CO; GRIMM Dust Monitor (1.101, 1.107, 1.108) for PM; TSI 2007 Condensation Particle Counter for UFP, and Kestrel 4500 for meteorological data | CO, PM ₁₀ , PM _{2.5} , PM ₁ and UFP | CO: range: 0-200 ppm resolution: 0.05 ppm | | | (Portable, vehicle-mounted units) | This outdoor study examined exposure to pollutants in various settings. The focus was on cars and bikes in urban settings. The study assessed cyclist exposures, with the kits in the front baskets of the bikes. |
| c 13 | American University of Sharjah, Sharjah, UAE <i>Al Ali, A.R., Zualkernan, I., Aloul, F.</i> (Funding/resources: Computer Science and Engineering Department, American University of Sharjah, UAE) | <i>A mobile GPRS-sensors array for air pollution monitoring</i> [2010, IEEE Sensors Journal, 10(10):1666-1671] http://www.aloul.net/Papers/faloul_sensors10.pdf | Sensor array (assume commercial) | 24 sensors and 10 routers in a single-chip microcontroller (GPRS-sensors array) | CO, NO ₂ , SO ₂ | CO: range: 0-1,000 ppm resolution: <1.5 ppm | <25 sec | Shoebbox | Online capabilities, single chip microcontroller and global position system (GPS) to locate air pollution readings on Google Maps. (Vehicle-mounted unit) | Proposes an integrated system composed of a single-chip microcontroller, sensors for CO, NO ₂ , and SO ₂ , a general packet radio service (GPRS)-modem, and a GPS module. Public mobile networks are used to upload data to the Pollution Server, which is interfaced with Google maps; was deployed on the American University of Sharjah campus. |

| ID | Organization Author (Funding) | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|---------|---|---|---|--|--|--|-----------------------|--|--|--|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| c 14 | Bharath University Giri, R.K. | <i>An Itinerant GPRS-GPS and sensors integration for atmospheric effluence screening</i> [2011, IJTES 2(2):152-157] http://www.sensaris.com/wp-content/uploads/old/2011/09/India-bus-GPRS-GPS-Air-sensing.pdf | Sensor array (assume commercial) | Several air pollution sensors (Mobile-DAQ) | CO, NO ₂ , SO ₂ | CO: range: 0-1,000 ppm resolution: <1.5 ppm | <25 sec | Mobile-DAQ unit roughly book size, sensor is 20 mm diameter and server is a laptop | Public mobile network; fixed internet-enabled monitoring server (pollution server) is interfaced to Google Maps to display real-time pollutant levels and locations in a metropolitan area (24 hr/7 d) (Vehicle-mounted unit) | System is composed of a single-chip microcontroller, air pollution sensors for CO, NO ₂ , and SO ₂ , GPRS-Modem, and GPS device. Data is transmitted to the Pollution Server, which is interfaced with Google Maps. Device was mounted on a bus, which was driven around the Bharath University of Chennai campus. |
| c 15 | Universidade da Coruña (Spain) Lopez-Pena, F., Varela, G., Paz-Lopez, A., Duro, R.J. Universidad de Vigo (Spain) Gonzalez-Castano, F.J. (Funding: Ministerio de Fomento of Spain) | <i>Public transportation based dynamic urban population monitoring system</i> [2010, Sensors & Transducers, 8:13-25] http://www.sensorsportal.com/HTML/DIGEST/february_2010/P_SI_100.pdf (CO sensor link: http://mkwheatingcontrols.co.uk/download/GS-S-CM.pdf) | Commercial sensors (by Sontay, GS-S-CM CO sensor) | | CO ₂ , CO, NO ₂ , SO ₂ , temp and relative humidity | CO: sub-ppm (ppb) Sontay: operating range: 0-100 or 1,000 ppm resolution: 0.5ppm | <30 sec | Desktop (from photos) | Bluetooth GPS; mobile sensing network includes distributed software to acquire, integrate, and geolocate sensor data; linked to Google Maps application programming interface (API) (WSN) (Vehicle-mounted unit) | Public transportation buses were used as mobile sensing units to measure urban pollution; the device runs on two 12V batteries at an operating temperature between -30 and 60°C, with a life expectancy of 2 years. This research reflects the second stage, which follows the single sensor pilot study (using a car-mounted sensor) in Vigo. |
| c 16 | University of South Florida and Universidad de Oviedo (Spain) Mendez, D., et al. | <i>P-Sense: A participatory sensing system for air pollution monitoring and control</i> [2011, IEEE Work in Progress Workshop at PerCom 2011] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=5766902 (Commercial sensor link: http://www.figarosensor.com/products/5042pdf.pdf) | Electro-chemical (by Figaro and Sensirion) | (P-Sense) | CO ₂ , CO, combustible gases, air quality; also: temp and relative humidity | CO: range: 0 to 10,000 ppm baseline offset: +/- 10 ppm | <60 sec | | Data transmitted to first-level integrator device, P-Sense; integrates digital and analog sensors with Bluetooth-capable AVR-based board; WSN, mobile sensing network includes application server and PRO200 Sanyo cellular phone with GPS, Bluetooth. | Potential for citizen sensing applications. Challenges noted for broader implementation include: privacy (protection), security (need simple and energy-efficient mechanism), data validity (e.g., user could fake reading to avoid fine), data visualization (with gaps in location and time; consider Gandin Interpolation or optimal interpolation technique), and incentives (why participate?). Output current of 1.2~2.4 nA/ppm and an operating temperature range between -40 and 70°C. |

| ID | Organization <i>Author (Funding)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|---------------|--|---|----------------------------|---|--|---|-----------------------|---|---|--|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| c 17 | University of Cambridge <i>Kanjo, E.</i> (Sponsors: O ₂ , Nokia, Symbian, Outspoken, Cambridge city Council, Thales) | <i>Mobile phones as sensors</i> (presentation) http://www.admin.cam.ac.uk/offices/research/documents/local/events/downloads/sw/4.2-Kanjo.pdf | | (MobGeoSen) | CO ₂ , CO, noise | CO: indicated limit: 0.5 ppm | | Cell phone | Wireless communication network uses GPS coordinates (Cell phone- based) | This system uses mobile technology to obtain accurate readings both indoors and outdoors. It would run while the mobile device was active and could show the user their exposure as they traveled, via a Google Earth overlay. |
| c 18 | Vanderbilt University, Institute for Software Integrated Systems <i>Völgyesi, P., et al.</i> | <i>Air quality monitoring with sensorMap</i> (2008, IEEE, and Int'l Conf on Info Processing in Sensor Networks) http://www.google.com/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=microsoft%20research%20sensors%20air%20pollutant&source=web&cd=8&ved=0CF0QFjAH&url=http%3A%2F%2Fciteseerx.ist.psu.edu%2Fviewdoc%2Fdownload%3Fdoi%3D10.1.1.157.1544%26rep%3Drep1%26type%3Dpdf&ei=D0YgT7aCBail2gXbtZWBDw&usg=AFQjCNFgTjs-go6sStpL48YV-Ru3BOqEMg | MOS | Commercial MiCS-5521 analog sensor (MAQUMON-mobile air quality monitoring network) | O ₃ , NO ₂ , and CO/VOC Also: temp and relative humidity | CO: indicated range: 1 to 1,000 ppm | | Hand- held (infer from picture) | Measurements uploaded to server when car is in a WiFi hotspot, processed, then published on SensorMap portal (as contours, with time series data for given sensor and/or location); integrated Bluetooth module provides wireless interface for laptops or PDAs. (WSN) (Vehicle- mounted unit) | This vehicle-mounted sensor takes measurements every minute while the car is in motion (less often when stationary). Battery lasts a few hours, but the system can be constantly powered by the cigarette lighter when the car is moving, and power-intensive elements such as GPS, Bluetooth, and gas sensors can be turned off when the 2-axis MEMS accelerometer indicates the system is not in motion. |
| c 19 np | Northwestern University <i>Otto, J.S., Rula, J.P., Bustamante, F.E.</i> | [April 2009] http://www.aqualab.cs.northwestern.edu/publications/JOTTO09C3R-TR.pdf <i>C3R-Participatory urban monitoring from your car</i> [April 2009] http://www.eecs.northwestern.edu/docs/techreports/2009_TR/NWU-EECS-09-10.pdf (MQ7 CO gas sensor manufacturer page: http://hwsensor.en.alibaba.com/product/285416574-209771110/MQ7_CO_carbon_monoxide_gas_sensor.html) | MOS (SnO ₂) | Modified Hanwei Electronics MQ-7 CO sensor (C3R) | CO, temp, humidity. | CO: indicated range: 10- 10,000 ppm (unmodified sensor) | 90 sec | Shoebox | Communicates with other vehicles and agencies; each C3R node maintains a detailed air quality map that is shared with the driver, other vehicles, and public agencies. (Vehicle-mounted unit, participatory/ citizen sensing) | This is an outdoor vehicular networking system. This system uses 760 mW of power mostly for heating the sensing device. Interference may occur if wind or other factors cool the sensor below a necessary temperature. It takes 48 hr for the sensor to warm up, and it runs on a 90-sec cycle, with intermittent 60-sec purge cycles. |

| ID | Organization Author (Funding) | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|---------------------------------------|--|--|--|---|---|---|-----------------------|------------------|--|---|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| c 20 | Amrita University (India) <i>Freeman, J.D., Omanan, V., Ramesh, M.V.</i> | <i>Wireless integrated robots for effective search and guidance of rescue teams</i> [2011, IEEE] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=5872919&isnumber=5872911 | Infrared (IR) (by Hanwei Elec- tronics Co. Ltd.) | (MQ-7, MQ-4, MQ-2, MQ-6 (all manufactured by Hanwei Electronics CO., Ltd.) | CO, natural gas, liquid petroleum gas, smoke | CO: indicated range: 20-2000 ppm | | | Wireless sensor network, (WSN) precise location (GPS) Robot platform: ATMEGA328P microcontroller (Robotics) | Explores the application and technology required for a wireless sensor network for disaster management by use of autonomously navigating robots equipped with air quality sensors and the ability to search for disaster survivors. The search team's network is formed between two fixed nodes. |
| c 21 np | Sungkyunkwan University Foundation for Corporate Collaboration <i>Kim, W.J.</i> | <i>Bicycle navigation having air pollution measurement sensors, a method for storing the air pollution measurement (and more)</i> http://www.wipo.int/patentscope/search/en/detail.jsf?docId=KR10525661&recNum=1&docAn=1020090005097&queryString=FP:(1020090005097)&maxRec=1 | | Bicycle navigation system with air pollution measure- ment sensors, a method for storing the measurement, and a method for locating the road, to enable a mobile equipment user to find less polluted route (patent appl.) | CO, NO ₂ , SO ₂ | | | Mobile device | Unit transmits the measured data and GPS position to a storage server. (Vehicle-mounted unit) | A GPS navigation system for bicycles with embedded sensors that measure and transmit CO, NO ₂ , SO ₂ concentrations along with GPS data. |
| Reference Commercial Sensor | | | | | | | | | | |
| C 22 | Ecotech | http://www.ecotech.com/gas-analyzers/co-analyzer | Non- disper- sive UV abs) | (EC9830 CO analyzer) | CO | Indicated range: 0-200 ppm; indicated limit: 50 ppb | | | Data access via RS232, USB interface, or Ethernet connector | Optional internal 12V direct current (DC) power supply allows sensor to be operated from a battery- or solar-powered source. |
| Nitrogen Dioxide | | | | | | | | | | |
| Detection Technique: Chemistry | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | Sungkyunkwan University (Korea) <i>Yao, F., Lee, Y.H., et al.</i> <i>(Funding: STAR- faculty program and World Class University program through KRF funded by MEST)</i> | <i>Humidity-assisted selective reactivity between NO₂ and SO₂ gas on carbon nanotubes</i> [2011, J. Materials Chemistry, 21:4502-4508] http://nanotube.skku.ac.kr/data/paper/Humidity-assisted_Fei%20Yao.pdf | Nano- based | Random-network SWCNTs in electrodes made with dip-pen method, with dichloroethane solution on Pt IDEs. Varying humidity level allows for selective gas detection | NO ₂ , SO ₂ | 0.01 ppm | 10 min | Small | Cites earlier results: NO ₂ 100 ppt with polymer-coated CNT SO ₂ 10 ppb with SWCNT, spectro- scopic analysis) | Pollutant diluted with other ambient air, added humidity, and transported to testing chamber. A 0.1V current is passed through the device. Sensor has an operating temperature of 150°C. |

| ID | Organization Author (Funding) | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|----|---|---|-------------------|--|--|---|--|------|--|--|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| 2 | Silpakorn University (Thailand), and others <i>Robert, O.P.; others</i> (Funding: <i>Thailand Research Fund; also supported by Office of the Higher Education Commission and others; e.g., Petro- Instruments Corp., Ltd. for sensor calibrations; NASA</i>) | <i>SnO₂ gas sensors and geo-informatics for air pollution monitoring</i> [2011, JOAM (J Optoelectronics and Advanced Materials), 13(5):560-564] http://modis.gsfc.nasa.gov/sci_team/pubs/abstract.php?id=04314 ; joam.inoe.ro/download.php?idu=2778 | Nano- based | Nanotechnology- based SnO ₂ gas sensor. SnO ₂ thick film with alumina substrate from E2V Technologies; Pt electrodes | NO ₂ | Sensitivity <0.05-5 ppm (85% accuracy) | | | Data transferred to pocket PC linked via Bluetooth and GPS. Minnesota Mapserver 2009 used to monitor, view, retrieve NO ₂ concentrations in real time. (Wearable, participatory/ citizen sensing) | Research goal is low-cost, simple, reliable, portable, real-time air pollution monitoring system for central Bangkok area. |
| 3 | University of South Carolina, <i>Nomani, Md.W.K., et al.</i> SENS4, LLC <i>James, J.</i> (Funding: <i>NSF, Army Research Office, and SENS4, LLC [through an NSF grant]</i>) | <i>Highly sensitive and multidimensional detection of NO₂ using InO₃ thin films</i> [Aug. 2011, Sensors and Actuators B, 160:251-259] http://pdn.sciencedirect.com/science?_ob=MiamiImageURL&_cid=271353&_user=1722207&_pii=S0925400511006861&_check=y&_origin=brokse&_zone=rsit_list_item&_coverDate=2011-12-15&wchp=dGLzVlk-zSkzV&md5=a9efb7781a0624784753f0979694f6951-s2.0-S0925400511006861-main.pdf | MOS | Fabricated sensor chip using In ₂ O ₃ thin films (from Thinfilms, Inc.) as functionalization layers coated on an Al ₂ O ₃ ceramic substrate, interdigitated metal fingers, 100 µm apart of Ti (5 nm)/ Au (50 nm) deposited atop the thin film | NO ₂ ; also assessed: mixture of NO ₂ , NH ₃ | 20 ppb (20% reduction in conductivity at this level) | A few sec | | (Mountable) | 20% reduction in conductivity at 20 ppb, normal temperature (20°C); in a vacuum, In ₂ O ₃ nanowires indicated sensitivity of 5 ppb; per an average ambient/ background level of 11 ppb, the concentration differential of 9 ppb is identified as responsible for the conduction change (indicating even more impressive sensitivity to the authors); the system can monitor minute deviations from the general average background value (30–50 mV) at a frequency of 1 kHz, at an operating temperature of >150°C. |
| 4 | University College London <i>Varsani, P., et al.</i> University of Auckland (New Zealand) Queen Mary, University of London <i>Binions, R.</i> (Funding: <i>EPSRC, Wolfson Trust, Royal Society, Dorothy Hodgkin fellowship</i>) | <i>Zeolite-modified WO₃ gas sensors – Enhanced detection of NO₂</i> [2011, Sensors and Actuators B, 160:475-482] http://pdn.sciencedirect.com/science?_ob=MiamiImageURL&_cid=271353&_user=1722207&_pii=S0925400511007374&_check=y&_origin=brokse&_zone=rsit_list_item&_coverDate=2011-12-15&wchp=dGLzVlk-zSkzV&md5=da16648f4b92533eb17ae36c6fe2c0ad/1-s2.0-S0925400511007374-main.pdf | MOS | Solid-state metal oxide screen printed WO ₃ sensors modified by addition of acidic and catalytic zeolite layers | NO ₂ ; also tested: CO, 30 ppm, and mixture of NO ₂ and CO, acetone at 5 ppm | NO ₂ : indicated range: 200-300 ppb (tested 50-400 ppb) in dry air | 30- min re- sponse with 1-hr re- covery | | (Mountable) | Highly selective to NO ₂ , including in the mixture; potential for use in electronic nose technology for environmental monitoring. Zeolite layers were added to increase selectivity. Sensor operates at 350°C. |

| ID | Organization <i>Author (Funding)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|---------|--|--|-------------------|---|---|---|--|-------------------------------------|---|--|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| 5 np | Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (Republic of Korea) <i>Cho, N.G., Kim, I.-D.</i> (Funding: Korea Ministry of Research, Israel Ministry of Science & Technology) | <i>NO₂ gas sensing properties of amorphous InGaZnO₄ submicron- tubes prepared by polymer fiber templating route</i> [Aug. 2011, Sensors and Actuators B, 160:499- 504] http://pdn.sciencedirect.com/science?_ob=MiImageURL&cid=271353&_user=1722207&_pii=S0925400511007404&_check=y&_origin=brokse&_zone=rslt_list_item&_coverDate=2011-12-15&wchp=dGLzVlk-zSkzV&md5=7220341a4a8ff1059a32e198b06fec69/1-s2.0-S0925400511007404-main.pdf | Nano-based | Semiconducting amorphous InGaZnO ₄ submicron, thin wall hollow tubes | NO ₂ | 100, 200, 400, 800 ppb (and higher) | "Varies" | Very small | Not indicated | Higher sensitivity may be due to much reduced interface area between sensing film and substrate, enhanced surface-depletion areas, and effective gas diffusion through porous tube networks; simple and versatile synthesis method indicates opportunities to control tube morphology, for a new class of building blocks for these gas sensors. 20 kV was applied to the sensor, which operates at 300°C. |
| 6 np | Brno University of Technology (Czech Republic) <i>Hrdy, R., Vorozhtsova, M., Drbohlavova, J., Prasek, J., Hubalek, J.</i> (Funding: Czech Ministry of Education and Grand Agency of Czech Republic) | <i>Electrochemical transducer utilizing nanowires surface</i> [2010, IEEE, 33 rd Int. Spring Seminar on Electronics Technology] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=5547340&isnumber=5547245 | Nano-based | TiO ₂ modified Au nanowires applied to surface of sensing electrode | CO ₂ , NO ₂ , O ₂ , NH ₃ | | | | (Mountable) | Operated at 5–30 keV in high vacuum mode. Sensor operates in a range between 300 and 400°C. |
| 7 np | Shinwoo Electronics Co., Ltd. <i>Kim, I.</i> Korea University (S. Korea) <i>Dong, K.Y., Ju, B.K.</i> Yonsei University (S. Korea) <i>Choi, H.H.</i> | <i>Gas sensor for CO and NH₃ using polyaniline/CNTs composite at room temperature</i> [2010, IEEE, International Conference on Nanotechnology Joint Symposium with Nano Korea] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=5697782&isnumber=5697724 | Polymer film | PANI/SWCNTs film dispersed in sodium dodecyl sulfate and applied over Ti/Au electrodes of an IDE by photolithography | CO, NH ₃ (also benzene and NO ₂) | | Fast re- sponse. and re- covery | 5 mm x 17 mm, 480 µm thick | | This research demonstrates the use of PANi/SWCNTs composite-based sensor for mixed gas detection. The changes in resistance of the sensor determine the presence of a single gas or mixture of gases. This composite has a large surface-to-volume ratio which makes it a good candidate for new gas sensors. |

| ID | Organization <i>Author (Funding)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|--|---|---|---|--|--|---|-----------------------|-------------------|---|---|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| Detection Technique: Spectroscopy | | | | | | | | | | |
| 8a 8b | Adelphi University <i>Roa, G.N., Karpf, A.</i> | <i>A trace gas sensor at ppb sensitivity based on multiple line integration spectroscopy techniques</i> [2010, IEEE] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=5499863&isnumber=5499482 | Laser absorption multiple-line integrated absorption spectroscopy (MLIAS) | MLIAS with a multi-pass cell (12.5 cm and others) and pulsed quantum cascade laser (QCL) (from Daylight Solutions) | NO ₂ | 8a: 530 ppt (200-m path) 8b: 120 ppb (0.88-m path) | | Compact, portable | (Mountable) | Technology designed to be compact and portable, easy to operate, and low cost. Detector can monitor in real time. Explores use of QCLs to enhance detection sensitivity, varied cell sizes, and multi-pass geometry to increase sensitivity of NO ₂ gas detection. |
| 9 np | University of Mississippi <i>Uddin, W.</i> (Funding: DOT) | [2001] http://www.ncrste.msstate.edu/archive/projects/um/UM-CAIT-Laser-Year-1-Report-Final.pdf | Light detection and ranging (LIDAR) | Tunable LIDAR measure wavelengths between 2,500-11,000 Angstroms | O ₃ or NO ₂ | 1-100 ppb, at a range of several km | | | (Remote sensing) | In this study, the system was mounted in a plane and used to analyze traffic pollution in different areas of Mississippi. |
| 10 np | Bogor Agricultural University (Indonesia) <i>Rustami, E., Azis, M., Maulina, W., Rahmat, M., Alatas, H., Seminar, K.B.</i> (Funding: Beasiswa Unggulan Terpadu – Education Ministry of Republic of Indonesia, Bogor Agricultural University) | <i>An integrated optical instrumentation for measuring NO₂ gas using one-dimensional photonic crystal</i> [2011, IEEE, International Conference on Instrumentation, Communication, Information Technology, and Biomedical Engineering, (Indonesia)] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=6108658&isnumber=6108578&tag=1 | UV-visible (UV-vis) absorption | Integrated optical sensor with 1-D photocrystal, LED, and photodiode operating in NO ₂ absorption range | NO ₂ | | | | (Mountable) | A signal conditioning circuit consisting of a current to voltage converter, voltage follower, active low pass filter, and instrumentation amplifier was designed to better measure the output signal. Millivolt range |
| 11 np | Bogor Agricultural University, Bogor Indonesia <i>Maulina, W., Rahmat, M., Rustami, E., et al.</i> (Funding: Beasiswa Unggulan Terpadu – Education Ministry of Republic of Indonesia, Bogor Agricultural University Departments) | <i>Fabrication and characterization of NO₂ gas sensor based on one-dimensional photonic crystal for measurement of air pollution index</i> [2011, IEEE, International Conference on Instrumentation, Communication, IT, and Biomedical Engineering (Indonesia)] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=6108657&isnumber=6108578&tag=1 | UV-vis absorption | Photonic crystal fabricated by electron beam evaporation with photonic pass band (PPB) at 533 nm wavelength | NO ₂ (dissolved in reagent) | | | | (Fixed/semi-portable unit) | Device may be deployed as a sensor in an air pollution index measurement system. Sensor has an operating temperature of 300°C. |

| ID | Organization <i>Author (Funding)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|---|---|--|--|---|---|---|-----------------------|---|---|--|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| Novel Sensor Systems Using Commercial Sensors | | | | | | | | | | |
| c 12 | Universidade da Coruña (Spain) <i>Lopez-Pena, F., Varela, G., Paz-Lopez, A., Duro, R.J.,</i> Universidad de Vigo (Spain) <i>Gonzalez-Castano, F.J.</i> <i>(Funding: Ministerio de Fomento of Spain)</i> | <i>Public transportation based dynamic urban population monitoring system</i> [2010, Sensors & Transducers, 8:13-25] http://www.sensorsportal.com/HTML/DIGEST/february_2010/P_SI_100.pdf <i>(CO sensor link: http://mkwheatingcontrols.co.uk/download/GS-S-CM.pdf)</i> | Com- mercial sensors (by Sontay, GS-S-CM CO sensor) | | CO ₂ , CO, NO ₂ , SO ₂ ; also temp and relative humidity | NO ₂ : 0-10 ppm (<0.02 ppm) | <30 sec | Desktop (inferred from photos) | Bluetooth GPS; mobile sensing network includes distributed software to acquire, integrate, and geolocate data from sensors; linked to GoogleMaps API for data visualization. (WSN) (Vehicle-mounted unit) | Public transportation buses were used as mobile sensing units to measure urban pollution; the device runs on two12V batteries and operates between -30 and 60°C. The device is reported to have a life expectancy of 2 years. This research reflects the second stage, which follows the single sensor pilot study (using a car-mounted sensor) in Vigo. |
| c 13 | American University of Sharjah, Sharjah, UAE <i>Al Ali, A.R., Zualkernan, I., Aloul, F.</i> | <i>A mobile GPRS-sensors array for air pollution monitoring</i> [2010, IEE Sensors Journal, 10(10):1666-1671] http://www.aloul.net/Papers/faloul_sensors10.pdf | Sensor array (assume commer- cial) | 24 sensors and 10 routers in a single-chip microcontroller <i>(GPRS-sensors array, Mobile-DAQ)</i> | CO, NO ₂ , SO ₂ | NO ₂ : range: 0-20 ppm limit: <0.02 ppm | | Shoebox | Online capabilities, uses a single chip microcontroller and a GPS system to locate air pollution readings on Google Maps. (Vehicle-mounted unit) | Proposes an integrated system composed of a single-chip microcontroller, air pollution sensors for CO, NO ₂ , and SO ₂ , a GPRS-modem, and a GPS module. Public mobile networks are used to upload data to the Pollution Server, which is interfaced with Google maps; was deployed on the American University of Sharajah campus. |
| c 14 | Bharath University, Department of Computer Science and Engineering <i>Giri, R.K.</i> | <i>An itinerant GPRS-GPS and sensors integration for atmospheric effluence screening</i> [2011, IJTES 2(2):152-157] http://www.sensaris.com/wp-content/uploads/old/2011/09/India-bus-GPRS-GPS-Air-sensing.pdf | Sensor array (assume commer- cial) | Several air pollution sensors | CO, NO ₂ , SO ₂ | NO ₂ : range: 0-20 ppm resolution: <0.02 ppm | | Mobile DAQ: book size, sensor: 20 mm | Public mobile network; fixed internet-enabled monitoring server (pollution server) is interfaced to Google Maps to display real-time pollutant levels and locations in a metropolitan area (24 hr/7 d) (Vehicle-mounted unit) | System is composed of a single-chip microcontroller, air pollution sensors for CO, NO ₂ , and SO ₂ , GPRS-Modem, and GPS device. Data is transmitted to the Pollution Server, which is interfaced with Google Maps. Device was mounted on a bus, which was driven around the Bharath University of Chennai campus. |

| ID | Organization <i>Author (Funding)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|--|---|---|---|--|--|--|-----------------------|-----------------------------|--|--|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| c 15 np | Sungkyunkwan University Foundation for Corporate Collaboration <i>Kim, W.J.</i> | http://www.wipo.int/patentscope/search/en/detail.jsf?docId=KR10525661&recNum=1&docAn=1020090005097&queryString=FP:(1020090005097)&maxRec=1 | | Bicycle navigation system (GPS) with air pollution measurement sensors | CO, NO ₂ , SO ₂ | | | Mobile device | Unit transmits the measured data and GPS position to a storage server. (Vehicle-mounted unit) | A bicycle GPS navigation system with embedded sensors that measure and transmit CO, NO ₂ , SO ₂ concentrations along with GPS data. |
| c 16 np | Jackson State University <i>Anjaneyulu, Y.</i> Jawaharlal Nehru Technological University <i>Jayakumar, I., Bindu, V.H.</i> Andhra Pradesh Pollution Control Board <i>Ramani, K.V.</i> Spectrochem Instruments <i>Rao, T.H.</i> | <i>Real time remote monitoring of air pollutants and their online transmission to the web using internet protocol</i> [2007, Environ Monit Assess, 124:371-381] http://cardiff.academia.edu/SAGARESWARGUMMENENI/Papers/922566/ | Electro-chemical various commercial sensors | <i>(Real Time Remote Monitoring System)</i> | SO ₂ , NO, NO ₂ , CO, O ₃ , H ₂ S, PM ₁₀ , PM _{2.5} , hydrocarbons, mercaptans | Varies per pollutant, within 0-200 ppm, or 0-50 µg/m ³ (mercaptans) | 30 or 60 min | | Ethernet network module, uploading to webpage (Remote sensing) | This device is a remotely monitored detection system. It can be run on a 12V battery and operates between 55 and 125°C. The pollution sensors can be set to collect data every 30 or 60 minutes depending on user preference and weather conditions. Also measures environmental parameters such as temperature and humidity, as well as sound. (Meteorological monitoring system, Bruel and Kjaer sound level measurement system.) |
| Reference Commercial Sensor | | | | | | | | | | |
| C 17 | EcoTech | http://www.ecotech.com/gas-analyzers/nox-analyzer | Chemiluminescence | <i>(EcoTech: Serinus 40)</i> | NO, NO ₂ , NO _x | Indicated range: 0-20 ppm LDL: <0.4 ppb | | | | Indicates several system components to improve system integrity, power usage, and carbon footprint (99-132 volts alternating current (AC), 198-264 VAC 47-63 Hz). |
| Ozone | | | | | | | | | | |
| Detection Technique: Spectroscopy | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 np | University of Mississippi, Center for Advanced Infrastructure Technology <i>Uddin, W.</i> (Funding: DOT) | [2001] http://www.ncrste.msstate.edu/archive/projects/um/UM-CAIT-Laser-Year-1-Report-Final.pdf | LIDAR | Tunable LIDAR can measure wavelengths between 2,500-11,000 Angstroms | O ₃ or NO ₂ | 1-100 ppb, at a range of several km | | System was mounted in plane | (Remote sensing, vehicle-mounted unit) | Analyzed traffic pollution in different areas of Mississippi. |

| ID | Organization <i>Author (Funding)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|---|---|---|------------------------------------|---|--|--|-----------------------|---------------------------|---|--|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| Novel Sensor Systems Using Commercial Sensors | | | | | | | | | | |
| c2 | Pennsylvania State University <i>Cazorla, M., Brune, W.H.</i> | <i>Measurement of ozone production sensor</i> [2009, Atmospheric Measurement Techniques Discussion, 2:3339-3368] http://atmos-meas-tech-discuss.net/2/3339/2009/amt-d-2-3339-2009.pdf | UV photo-metric, commercial sensor | 11.3 L UV-transmitting Teflon film chambers, NO ₂ to O ₃ converting unit, and modified ozone analyzer (Thermo Scientific, Model 49i with ozone scrubber removed and temperature stabilization) <i>(MOPS: Measurement of Ozone Production Sensor)</i> | O ₃ (measures production rate, can also study sensitivity of O ₃ production to NO, using the NO convertor) | Indicated limit 0.67 ppb/hr for a 10-min average measurement | | | Not indicated (Fixed/semi-portable unit) | Compares O ₃ production in one chamber with ambient air/normal conditions, and in a second chamber with O ₃ production inhibited. |
| c3 np | Jackson State University <i>Anjaneyulu, Y.</i> Jawaharlal Nehru Technological University <i>Jayakumar, I., Bindu, V.H.</i> Andhra Pradesh Pollution Control Board <i>Ramani, K.V.</i> Spectrochem Instruments <i>Rao, T.H.</i> | <i>Real time remote monitoring of air pollutants and their online transmission to the web using internet protocol</i> [2007, Environ Monit Assess, 124:371-381] http://cardiff.academia.edu/AGARESWARGUMMENENI/Papers/922566/ | Electro-chem, various commercial | Tapered element oscillating microbalance <i>(Real Time Remote Monitoring System)</i> | SO ₂ , NO, NO ₂ , CO, O ₃ , H ₂ S, PM ₁₀ , PM _{2.5} , hydrocarbons, mercaptans | Ozone: Indicated range: 0-10 ppm; varies per pollutant, within 0-200 ppm | 30 to 60 min | | Ethernet network module, uploading to webpage (Remote sensing) | This device is a remotely monitored detection system that can be run on a 12V battery. The pollution sensors can be set to collect data every 30 minutes or every 60 minutes depending on user preference and weather conditions. Operates between -55 and 125°C. (Also measures temperature, pressure, rainfall, relative humidity, wind speed and direction, and sound; per meteorological monitoring system, Bruel and Kjaer sound level measurement system.) |
| Reference Commercial Sensor | | | | | | | | | | |
| C4 | 2B Technologies <i>(an InDevR company)</i> | http://www.twobtech.com/model_106.htm | UV abs | Absorbs at 254 nm <i>(Ozone monitor model 106-L)</i> | O ₃ | Indicated range 0-100 ppm; resolution: 1 ppb precision and accuracy: higher of 2 ppb or 2% of reading | 10 sec | Shoebbox, laptop (4.5 lb) | USB and RS-232 output of time/date, O ₃ concentration, internal temperature, pressure; internal data logger, on-board microprocessor. (Fixed/semi-portable unit) | Intended for industrial settings, was used in the GO3 project. Unit requires 12V (500 mA, 6 W) of power (can be battery operated) and has a long-life pump (15,000 hr). Data can be averaged over 1 min, 5 min, and 1 hr. Available in standard or NEMA enclosure; components mounted on one printed circuit board. |

| ID | Organization <i>Author (Funding)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|-----------------------------------|--|--|---|--|-----------------------------------|--|-----------------------|-------|---|--|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| Sulfur Dioxide | | | | | | | | | | |
| Detection Technique: Chemistry | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | Sungkyunkwan University (Korea) Yao, F., Lee, Y.H., et al. (Funding: STAR-faculty program and World Class University program through KRF funded by MEST) | Humidity-assisted selective reactivity between NO ₂ and SO ₂ gas on carbon nanotubes [2011, J. Materials Chemistry, 21:4502-4508] http://nanotube.skku.ac.kr/data/paper/Humidity-assisted_Fei%20Yao.pdf | Nano-based | Random-network SWCNTs in electrodes made with dip-pen method, with dichloroethane solution on Pt IDEs; varying humidity level allows for selective gas detection | NO ₂ , SO ₂ | SO ₂ : indicated range: 0.01-10 ppm | 4 sec | Small | Cites earlier results: NO ₂ 100 ppt with polymer-coated CNT SO ₂ 10 ppb with SWCNT, spectroscopic analysis) | Pollutant diluted with other ambient air, added humidity, and transported to testing chamber. A 0.1V current is passed through the device and the sensor operates at 150°C. |
| Detection Technique: Spectroscopy | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2 | Wuhan Huali Environment Protection Science Technology Co., Ltd. Wan, Y., Dai, B. | Atmospheric pollution monitoring gas sensor using non-pulse ultraviolet fluorescence method [2010] http://worldwide.espacenet.com/publicationDetails/biblio?FT=D&date=20101208&DB=worldwide.espacenet.com&locale=en_EP&CC=CN&NR=201666873U&KC=U&ND=4 | Fluorescence | Non-pulse UV fluorescence method | H ₂ S, SO ₂ | 1 ppb as lowest level of detection | | | (Fixed/semi-portable unit) | Continuous monitoring of real-time concentrations of H ₂ S and SO ₂ in air. Sensor reduces noise and has high anti-interference capability, which greatly improves the measurement accuracy and leads to more stable data. |
| 3 | Harbin Institute of Technology (China) Lou, X.T., Somesfalean, G., Zhang, Z.G., Svanberg, S. | Sulfur dioxide measurements by correlation spectroscopy using an ultraviolet light-emitting diode [2009, IEEE] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=5196268&isnumber=5191447 | Spectroscopy (correlation spectroscopy, CO-SPEC) | LED and UV range absorption | SO ₂ | 0.4 ppm | | | (Fixed/semi-portable unit) | Demonstrates the use of LEDs with structureless emission in the UV region as sources for gas absorption measurements when combined with the COSPEC technique. Tested system is immune from interfering gases, pressure variations, and light intensity fluctuations. |

| ID | Organization <i>Author (Funding)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|---|---|---|--|---|--|--|-----------------------|---|---|---|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| Novel Sensor Systems Using Commercial Sensors | | | | | | | | | | |
| c4 | Jackson State University <i>Anjaneyulu, Y.</i> Jawaharlal Nehru Technological University <i>Jayakumar, I., Bindu, V.H.</i> Andhra Pradesh Pollution Control Board <i>Ramani, K.V.</i> Spectrochem Instruments <i>Rao, T.H.</i> | <i>Real time remote monitoring of air pollutants and their online transmission to the web using internet protocol</i> [2007, Environ Monit Assess, 124:371-381]] http://cardiff.academia.edu/SAGARESWARGUMMENENI/Papers/922566/ | Electro-chemical various commercial | Tapered element oscillating microbalance <i>(Real Time Remote Monitoring System)</i> | SO ₂ , NO, NO ₂ , CO, O ₃ , H ₂ S, PM ₁₀ , PM _{2.5} , hydrocarbons, mercaptans | SO ₂ : indicated limit: 0.05 ppm | 30 to 60 min | | Ethernet network module, uploading to webpage (Remote sensing) | This device is a remotely monitored detection system that can be run on a 12V battery. The pollution sensors can be set to collect data every 30 minutes or every 60 minutes depending on user preference and weather conditions. Operates between -55 and 125°C. (Also measures temperature, pressure, rainfall, relative humidity, wind speed and direction, and sound, per meteorological monitoring system, Bruel and Kajaer sound level measurement system.) |
| c5 np | Bharath University, Department of Computer Science and Engineering <i>Giri, R.K.</i> | <i>An itinerant GPRS-GPS and sensors integration for atmospheric effluence screening</i> [2011, IJTES 2(2):152-157] http://www.sensaris.com/wp-content/uploads/old/2011/09/India-bus-GPRS-GPS-Air-sensing.pdf | Sensor array (assume commercial sensors) | | CO, NO ₂ , SO ₂ | SO ₂ : indicated range: 0-20 ppm resolution: <0.02 ppm | | Mobile-DAQ unit is book size, sensor is 20 mm diameter and server is a laptop | Public mobile network; fixed internet-enabled monitoring server (pollution server) is interfaced to Google Maps to display real-time pollutant levels and locations in a metropolitan area (24 hr/7 d) (Vehicle-mounted unit) | System is composed of a single-chip microcontroller, air pollution sensors for CO, NO ₂ , and SO ₂ , GPRS-Modem, and GPS device. Data is transmitted to the Pollution Server, which is interfaced with Google Maps. Device was mounted on a bus, which was driven around the Bharath University of Chennai campus. |
| c6 np | American University of Sharjah, Sharjah, UAE <i>Al Ali, A.R., Zulkernan, I., Aloul, F.</i> <i>(Funding/resources: Computer Science and Engineering Department, American University of Sharjah, UAE)</i> | <i>A mobile GPRS-sensors array for air pollution monitoring</i> [2010, IEEE Sensors Journal, 10(10):1666-1671] http://www.aloul.net/Papers/faloul_sensors10.pdf | Sensor array (assume commercial) | 24 sensors and 10 routers in a single-chip microcontroller <i>(GPRS-sensors array)</i> | CO, NO ₂ , SO ₂ | SO ₂ : indicated range: 0-20 ppm (<0.1 ppm) | | Shoebbox | Online capabilities, uses a single chip microcontroller and a GPS system to locate air pollution readings on Google Maps. (Vehicle-mounted unit) | Proposes an integrated system composed of a single-chip microcontroller, air pollution sensors for CO, NO ₂ , and SO ₂ , a GPRS-modem, and a GPS module. Public mobile networks are used to upload data to the Pollution Server, which is interfaced with Google maps; was deployed on the American University of Sharjah campus. |

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|---------------------------------------|---|---|-------------------------------------|--|-------------------------------------|--|-----------------------|---|--|---|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| c7 np | Xi'an University of Posts and Telecommunications (China) <i>Xiaoqiang, Z., Zuhou, Z.</i> | <i>Development of remote waste gas monitor system</i> [2010, International Conference on Measuring Technology and Mechanics Automation] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=5460346&isnumber=5458485 | Electro- chemical | Solid electrolyte layer, Au electrodes, Pt, Pb, heater, porcelain tube, double-layer stainless (steel) net, Ni- and Cu-plated ring, Bakelite, Ni- and Cu-plated pin. | CO ₂ , SO ₂ , | SO ₂ : indicated range: <1-2,000 ppm (<0.1) sensitivity: 400- 700 nA/ppm in 10 ppm SO ₂ | | | GPS, GSM, Global System for Mobile Communications wireless transmission, secure digital (SD) memory (Remote sensing) | This research explores a system in which chimneys are monitored for several pollutant outputs and collected data are used to alert users/monitors of unhealthy emission levels. Collected data would be compared with national standards and alerts would go out if emission levels exceeded warning levels. |
| Reference Commercial Sensor | | | | | | | | | | |
| C8 | EcoTech | http://pdf.directindustry.com/pdf/ecotech/serinus-50-sulfur-dioxide-analyzer/50178-143935.html | UV fluores- cent radiation | (Serinus 50 SO ₂ Analyzer) | SO ₂ | Indicated range: 0-20 ppm LDL: <0.3 ppb | 60 sec to 95% | 440 x 178 x 620 mm, bench 18.1 kg, rack 13.1 kg | USB port, data logging | This system requires 99-132 VAC, 198-264 VAC 47-63 Hz and can operate in 0-40°C range. The sample flow rate is 675 cc/min, and the user can select the displayed concentration units. |
| Acetaldehyde | | | | | | | | | | |
| Detection Technique: Chemistry | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | University of Ferrara (Italy) <i>Giberti, A., Carotta, M.C., Fabbri, B., Gherardi, S., Guidi, V., Malagu, C.</i> (Funding/support: Programma Operativo FESR, Spinner Regione Emilia-Romagna) | <i>High-sensitivity detection of acetaldehyde.</i> [2012, Sensors and Actuators B, 174:402-405] | Nano- based | Set of nanostructured single and mixed metal oxides, including ZnO, SnO, TiO, and W ₃ O-SnO type. Created on alumina plates with gold contacts as a heater | Acetalde- hyde | 0.1-10 ppm LDL: 10 ppb (0.010 ppm) | | 2 mm x 2 mm, 20-30µm thick | | Sensors were tested in both dry and wet air at various temperatures to determine optimal operating conditions. Optimal range was 450-500°C for all sensors, with ZnO performing the best. Wet air was reported to negatively affect reactions between acetaldehyde and sensing material. Sensors consume 0.6-1.0 W at working temperature and have the potential to be operated by grid connection or alkaline batteries. Each unit was tested 3 times and was reported to have good reproducibility. |

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|----|--|---|----------------------------|--|---|--|-----------------------|-------|---|--|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| 2 | National Institute of Advanced Industrial Science and Technology (Japan) <i>Itoh, T., Matsubara, I., Shin, W., Izu, N., Nishibori, M.</i> (Funding: New Energy and Industrial Technology Development Organization) | <i>Preparation of layered organic-inorganic nanohybrid thin films of molybdenum trioxide with polyaniline derivations for aldehyde gases sensors of several tens ppb level.</i> [2008, Sensors and Actuators B, 128:512-520] | Polymer film, hybrid | MoO ₃ with PANi and MoO ₃ with PoANIS (poly(o-anisidine)) thin film organic- inorganic hybrid on LaAlO ₃ /SiO ₂ /Si substrate with gold comb-type electrodes | Acetalde- hyde, formalde- hyde | LDL: 25-400 ppb, (0.025-0.4 ppm Up to 7 ppm (acetalde- hyde) | | ~1 cm | | Study aim is to create a sensing film appropriate for applications to ventilation systems in buildings that can detect at ppb level (instead of ppm). (PANi) MoO ₃ film was reported to have the strongest response to formaldehyde, while (PoANIS)MoO ₃ showed equal response to both. Baseline drift due to difficulties of gas desorption remained a problem, especially with acetaldehyde; the authors aim to address this limitation in future research. |
| 3 | University of Tehran (Iran) <i>Ahmadnia- Feyzabad, S., Khodadadi, A.A., Vesali-Naseh, M., Mortazavi, Y.</i> | <i>Highly sensitive and selective sensors to volatile organic compounds using MWCNTs/SnO₂</i> [2012, Sensors and Actuators B, 166-167:150-155] | Nano- based | 0.05 wt% and 0.10 wt% MWCNTs on SnO ₂ , screen printed on the surface of alumina substrate with gold electrodes | Acetalde- hyde, acetone, ethanol, toluene, TCE | All tested at 300 ppm, acetalde- hyde also tested: 0.2-5 ppm | | | | Gases were tested over a range of temperatures at 300 ppm. Optimal response for acetaldehyde was reported to be at 200°C. The addition of MWCNTs increased sensor selectivity by 2.4 times for acetaldehyde with significant responses to sub-ppm concentrations. |
| 4 | Chonbuk National University (South Korea) <i>Rai, P., Yu, Y.-T.</i> (Funding: Post-BK21 Program Ministry of Education and Human- Resource Development and the National Research Foundation) | <i>Citrate-assisted hydrothermal synthesis of single crystalline ZnO nanoparticles for gas sensor applications</i> [2012, Sensors and Actuators B, 173:58-65] | Nano- based | ZnO nanoparticles synthesized via hydrothermal method | Acetalde- hyde, CO, NO ₂ , ethanol | Tested ranges: CO: 10-1000 ppm ethanol and acetaldehyde 25-250 ppm NO ₂ : 5-100 ppm | | | | Gases were tested over a range of temperatures (27-250°C) and concentrations. The maximum response for acetaldehyde was recorded at 250 ppm and 400°C. Response decreased with decreasing temperature. Recovery time for ethanol and acetaldehyde was poor when compared to that of CO. |

| ID | Organization <i>Author (Funding)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|-----------------------------------|---|--|--|--|---|---|-----------------------|------|---|---|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| Detection Technique: Spectroscopy | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5 np | Institute of Environmental Pollution and Health, School of Environmental and Chemical Engineering, University Shanghai <i>Huang, J, Feng, Y L, Xiong, B, Fu, J.M., Sheng, G.Y.</i> | <i>Ambient levels of carbonyl compounds in Shanghai, China</i> [2009] http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19927828 | High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)-UV | | Formaldehyde, acetaldehyde, acetone, 2-butanone | | | | (Multisensor system) | HPLC-UV was used to separate acrolein from acetone |
| 6 np | National Research Council of Canada, Institute for Research in Construction (Canada) <i>Deore, B., Diaz-Quijada, A., Wayner, D. D.M., Stewart, D., Won, D.Y., Waldron, P.</i> <i>(Funding: NRC of Canada, ICT sector)</i> | <i>An electronic nose for the detection of carbonyl species</i> [2011, ECS Transactions, 35(7):83-88] http://www.nrc-cnrc.gc.ca/obj/irc/doc/pubs/nrc54483.pdf | Luminescence, polymer | Solution casting polymer (polyaniline and polypyrrole derivatives) at a given doping level on a glass substrate with or without four Au lines (electrodes) with respective pads to align with commercial probe head) | Formaldehyde; also tested acetaldehyde | 250 ppb formaldehyde at 44% relative humidity (“real world” conditions) | 5-60 sec | | Not indicated (Mountable) | Polyaniline and polypyrrole derivatives interact with a carbonyl group to produce measureable changes in resistivity, which can be used for e-nose (electronic nose) sensing of carbonyls (reaction between carbonyl and nitrogen spurs molecular recognition). |
| 7 np | Science and Engineering services Inc., <i>Prasad, C.R., Lei, J.</i> Mass Tech Inc. <i>Shi, W., Li, G.</i> Pranalytica Inc. <i>Dunayevskiy, I., Patel, C.K.N.</i> | <i>Laser photoacoustic sensor for air toxicity measurements</i> [2012, Advanced Environmental, Chemical, and Biological Sensing Technologies IX, Society of Photoelectric engineers] http://proceedings.spiedigitallibrary.org/mobile/proceeding.aspx?articleid=1353801 | Spectroscopy, laser | Laser photoacoustic spectroscopy (LPAS) sensor, broadband measurement with one or more tunable laser sources, infrared (IR) QCL, external cavity grating tuner | HAPS (benzene, formaldehyde, acetaldehyde) simultaneously | A few ppb | 3 min | | Not indicated | This technology is reported as being capable of simultaneously measuring several HAPs (per preliminary spectral pattern recognition algorithm). |

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|--|--|---|--|---|--|--|-----------------------|------|---|---|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| 8 np | Yong-Hui, L., Xiao-An, C., Fu-Gao, C., et al. | <i>A gaseous acrolein sensor based on cataluminescence using ZrO₂/MgO composite</i> [2011, Chinese Journal of Analytical Chemistry, 39(8):1213-1217] | Cataluminescence (CTL), nano-composite | Nanosized ZrO ₂ /MgO composite | Acrolein Also tested: acetaldehyde, methanol, benzene, toluene, dimethylbenzene | Indicated limit: 1.65 mL/m ³ | | | | Optimal temperature was reported to be 269°C. Optimal gas flow was found to be 200 mL/min. Optimal wave length was reported to be 425 nm. |
| Reference Commercial Sensor | | | | | | | | | | |
| 9C | Teledyne Technologies | http://www.teledyne-ai.com/products/4060.asp | Gas chromatograph-flame ionization detector (GC-FID) | (4060/FID) | Acetaldehyde | Indicated limit (per vendor input): 10 ppb | | | | Real time data including chromatograms which can be superimposed to verify repeatability. Gas chromatography allows sensing of single or multiple components from an air stream which may include interferents. |
| Acrolein | | | | | | | | | | |
| Detection Technique: Spectroscopy | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1a 1b | University of Alberta, Edmonton (Canada). Department of Chemistry, Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering Manne, J., Lim, A., Tulip, J., Jager, W. (Funding: Canada Foundation for Innovation, Natural sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada, and an Alberta Ingenuity Postdoctoral Fellowship) | <i>Sensitive detection of acrolein and acrylonitrile with a pulsed quantum cascade laser</i> [2011, Applied Physics B., 107: 441-447] http://www.springerlink.com/content/tk0w6v2k3v3t0208/fulltext.pdf | QCL, inter- and intra-pulsed, spectroscopy | Inter-pulse: 5-10 ns, 2.3 cm ⁻¹ frequency scan Intra-pulse: up to 500 ns, 2.2 cm ⁻¹ spectral window; multipass Herriot cell configuration with a 250-m path length | Acrolein, acrylonitrile | Inter-pulsed: acrolein limit: 3 ppb; intra-pulsed: acrolein limit: 6 ppb | ~10 sec | | (Fixed/semi-portable unit) | Uses a pulsed, distributed feedback QCL to detect acrolein. Using a room-temperature mercury-cadmium-telluride detector resulted in a cryogen-free spectrometer. |

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| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| 2 np | Yong-Hui, L., Xiao-An, C., Fu-Gao, C., et al. | <i>A gaseous acrolein sensor based on cataluminescence using ZrO₂/MgO composite</i> [2011, Chinese Journal of Analytical Chemistry, 39(8):1213-1217] | Luminescence | Nanosized ZrO ₂ /MgO composite | Acrolein and others | Indicated limit: 1.65 mL/m ³ | | | | Optimal temperature was reported to be 269°C. Optimal gas flow was reported to be 200 mL/min. Optimal wave length was reported to be 425 nm. |
| Reference Commercial Sensor | | | | | | | | | | |
| C3 | Industrial Monitor and Control Corporation | http://www.ftirs.com/Products/Services/ExtractiveMonitoring.aspx | Extractive Fourier transform (FT) IR cell | 100 meter cell | Acrolein and others | Acrolein: limit: 7 ppb | | 100 m (towed behind trailer) | (Fixed/semi-portable unit) | Cells can be heated to >200°C; intended for industrial monitoring and process control; may be customized per consumer needs. |
| Ammonia | | | | | | | | | | |
| Detection Technique: Chemistry | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | Chinese Academy of Sciences Meng, F.-L., Huang, Z.-J., and colleagues, also at Anhui Polytechnic University (Funding: One Hundred Person Project of the Academy, National Natural Science Foundation of China, and others) | <i>Electronic chip based on self-oriented carbon nanotube microelectrode array to enhance the sensitivity of indoor air pollutants capacitive detection</i> [2011, Sensors and Actuators B, 153:103-109] http://pdn.sciencedirect.com/science?_ob=MiamiImageURL&_cid=271353&_user=1722207&_pii=S092540051000818X&_check=y&_origin=search&_zone=rsit_list_item&_coverDate=2011-03-31&wchp=dGLzVBA-zSkzV&md5=ff0be4989bfbde8f28e9d5daeb7bfae9/1-s2.0-S092540051000818X-main.pdf | Nano-based | Compares nanotube-based electronic chip (Si dielectric medium, Au and Si electrodes) with self-oriented MWCNTs microelectrode array | Formaldehyde ammonia toluene | Ammonia: 3.1 ppm | <10 sec | Very small | Not indicated (Mountable) | Response time is limited by the time it takes to load and remove analyte from the chip. Liquid samples placed in sample chamber, nitrogen used as carrier gas to flow through the chamber. |
| 2 | Georgia Tech (GT) University Tentzeris, M. Naishadham, K. (Funding: NSF) | http://www.gtri.gatech.edu/casestudy/paper-based-wireless-sensors ; http://www.gtri.gatech.edu/casestudy/polymer-coated-optical-sensor-explosives-detection | Nano-particle | Sonicated ink containing functionalized CNTs with silver (Ag) nanoparticles in emulsion on paper via inkjet printer | NH ₃ (for trace explosives, chemical is attracted to polymer coating) | Indicated limit: 5 ppm | | Compact | (Mountable) | Can potentially be used to detect explosives at distance. Wireless sensor nodes need relatively little power; could use thin-film batteries, solar cells or power-scavenging and energy-harvesting techniques; GT Research Institute is investigating passive operation with no power consumption. |

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|----|---|--|--|---|--|--|---|-------------------------------------|---|---|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| 3 | Hanyang University, (South Korea) <i>Nguyen, T.-A.; Kim, Y. S.; and others, including at Pusan National University</i> | <i>Polycrystalline tungsten oxide nanofibers for gas- sensing applications</i> [Aug. 2011, Sensors and Actuators B 160:39-45] http://pdn.sciencedirect.com/science?_ob=MasImageURL&cid=271353&user=1722207&pii=S0925400511007519&check=y&_origin=brokse&_zone=rsit_list_item&_coverDate=2011-12-15&wchp=dGLzVlk-zSkzV&md5=220df24b26528d3d69cd1fb06c53dc98/1-s2.0-S0925400511007519-main.pdf | Nano- particle | WO ₃ nanofibers (40-nm diameter) Si wafer stuck to Al foil with pair of comb- shaped (interdigitated) Au electrodes formed on SiO ₂ /Si substrate, sensing area is 3 x 10 mm ² with electrode gap of 300 µm | NH ₃ | Indicated limit: 10 ppm | >1 hr | Stick of gum | Not indicated | Study analyzed the practicality of electrospun tungsten oxide nanofibers for NH ₃ detection. It was reported that the optimal operating temperature for this device is 300°C because at this temperature the response times are at their lowest and sensing is most accurate. |
| 4 | Solapur University, Materials Research Laboratory (India) Bhabha Atomic Research Centre (India) <i>Pawar, S.G., Chougule, M.A., Patil, V.B.</i> | <i>Development of nanostructured polyaniline-titanium dioxide gas sensors for ammonia recognition</i> [2012, Journal of Applied Polymer Science, 125(2): 1418-1424], http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/app.35468/fullpdf | Polymer film, hybrid | Nanostructured 0-50% PANi-TiO ₂ (fabricated by spin coating technique) thin film deposited on glass substrate (1 mm wide strips) | NH ₃ , ethanol, methanol, NO ₂ , H ₂ S | NH ₃ : 20 ppm and 100 ppm tested Others tested at 100 ppm | 72 sec at 20 ppm NH ₃ ; 41 sec at 100 ppm NH ₃ | | (Fixed/semi- portable unit) | No response at room temperature for 20 ppm NH ₃ using TiO ₂ nanoparticles alone; needed to be operated at 200° C. Pure PANi composite showed little response, while the PANi-TiO ₂ composite was the most responsive at room temperature. Response time decreased as NH ₃ concentration increased, but so did recovery time (possibly per lower desorption rate). |
| 5 | Shinwoo Electronics Co., Ltd. <i>Kim, I.</i> Korea University (S. Korea) <i>Dong, K.Y., Ju, B.K.</i> Yonsei University (S. Korea) <i>Choi, H.H.</i> | <i>Gas sensor for CO and NH₃ using polyaniline/CNTs composite at room temperature</i> [2010, IEEE, International Conference on Nanotechnology Joint Symposium with Nano Korea] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=56977782&isnumber=5697724 | Polymer film | PANi/SWCNTs film dispersed in sodium dodecyl sulfate and applied over Ti/Au electrodes of an IDE by photolithography | CO, NH ₃ (also benzene and NO ₂) | ppm level (CO tested at 80 ppm, NH ₃ at 35 ppm) | Fast re- sponse and re- covery | 5 mm x 17 mm, 480 µm thick | | Demonstrates the use of PANi/SWCNTs composite-based sensor for mixed gas detection. The changes in resistance of the sensor determine the presence of a single gas or mixture of gases. This composite has a large surface-to-volume ratio which makes it a good candidate for new gas sensors. |
| 6 | The Hong Kong University of Science and Technology (China), <i>He, J., Zhang, T.-Y., Chen, G.</i> | <i>Ammonia gas-sensing characteristics of fluorescence-based poly(2-(acetoacetoxy)- ethyl methacrylate) thin films</i> [2012, Journal of Colloid and Interface Science, 373: 94-101] | Organic polymer film (also spectros- copy: fluores- cence) | PAAEMA latex thin films cast onto quartz discs; UV-Vis spectra emitted (275 nm) | NH ₃ | Tested range: 54-540 ppm | 80 sec at 54 ppm <30 sec at 540 ppm | | | Response time increases as concentration of NH ₃ decreases. Operates at room temperature. |

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| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| 7 np | University of South Carolina, <i>Nomani, Md.W.K., et al.</i> SENS4, LLC <i>James, J.</i> (Funding: NSF, Army Research Office, and SENS4, LLC [through an NSF grant]) | <i>Highly sensitive and multidimensional detection of NO₂ using InO₃ thin films</i> [Aug. 2011, Sensors and Actuators B, 160:251-259] http://pdn.sciencedirect.com/science?_ob=MiamiImageURL&_cid=271353&_user=1722207&_pii=S0925400511006861&_check=y&_origin=brokse&_zone=rsit_list_item&_coverDate=2011-12-15&wchp=dGLzVlk-zSkzV&md5=a9efb7781a0624784753f0979694f695/1-s2.0-S0925400511006861-main.pdf | MOS | Interdigitated metal fingers, 100 µm, a part of Ti (5 nm)/ Au (50 nm) deposited on In ₂ O ₃ thin film (from Thinfilms Inc.) coated on Al ₂ O ₃ ceramic substrate | NO ₂ ; also assessed: mixture of NO ₂ , NH ₃ | | A few sec | | (Mountable) | 20% reduction in conductivity at 20 ppb, normal temperature (20°C); in a vacuum, In ₂ O ₃ nanowires indicated sensitivity of 5 ppb; per an average ambient/ background level of 11 ppb, the concentration differential of 9 ppb is identified as responsible for the conduction change (indicating even more impressive sensitivity to the authors); the system can monitor minute deviations from the general average background value (30–50 mV) at a frequency of 1 kHz, at an operating temperature of >150°C. |
| 8 np | University of Bayreuth <i>Schönauer, D.; Sichert, I., Moos, R.</i> | <i>Vanadia doped-titania SCR catalysts as functional materials for exhaust gas sensor applications</i> [2011, Sensors and Actuators B, 155:199-205] http://pdn.sciencedirect.com/science?_ob=MiamiImageURL&_cid=271353&_user=1722207&_pii=S0925400510009159&_check=y&_origin=searh&_zone=rsit_list_item&_coverDate=2011-07-05&wchp=dGLbVIV-zSkzS&md5=5e39e5ec94296bcd2c2177384bd57895/1-s2.0-S0925400510009159-main.pdf | MOS | Selective catalytic reduction catalyst; materials are based on vanadia-doped tungsten-titania gas sensing films | NH ₃ (tested with gas containing NO _x) | | | Small | Not indicated (Mountable) | Reported to provide accurate results for ammonia detection around 500°C. NO ₂ sensitivity is - 17%; in the presence of CO and H ₂ , 8% sensitivity; when water concentration increases from 0-3%, 3% sensitivity |
| 9 np | Brno University of Technology (Czech Republic) <i>Hrdy, R., Vorzhtsova, M., Drbohlavova, J., Prasek, J., Hubalek, J.</i> (Funding: Czech Ministry of Education and Grand Agency of Czech Republic) | <i>Electrochemical transducer utilizing nanowires surface</i> [2010, IEEE, 33 rd Int. Spring Seminar on Electronics Technology] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=5547340&isnumber=5547245 | Nano- based | TiO ₂ modified Au nanowires applied to surface of sensing electrode | CO ₂ , NO ₂ , O ₂ , NH ₃ | | | | (Mountable) | Operated at 5–30 keV in high vacuum mode with an operating temperature range between 300 and 400°C. |

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|--|---|--|-------------------|--|---|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|---|---|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| 10 np | Linköping University <i>Pearce, R., Soderlind, F., Hagelin, A., Kall, P.O., Yakimova, R., Spetz, A.L.</i> Chalmers University of Technology <i>Becker, E., Skoglundh, M.</i> | <i>Effect of water vapour on gallium doped zinc oxide nanoparticle sensor gas response</i> [2009, IEEE Sensors, Conference] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=5398276&isnumber=5398121 | Nano-based | Gallium (Ga)-doped ZnO nanoparticle sensor, resistor type | O ₂ , NO, NO ₂ , H ₂ , CO, NH ₃ | | | ~10 mm (per image) | | Investigated effects of background water vapor and oxygen on the response of nanoparticle Ga-doped ZnO resistive sensors in high temperature applications to detect O ₂ , NO, NO ₂ , H ₂ , CO, and NH ₃ . The presence of water vapor increased the response and recovery rates and improved baseline stability. Responsiveness was reported to decrease in humid environments as the gas concentration increased, thought to be caused by competing reaction mechanisms. These mechanisms require more studies using DRIFT spectroscopy to determine surface species. Operates at 500°C. |
| Detection Technique: Spectroscopy | | | | | | | | | | |
| 11 | University of Limerick (Ireland) <i>O'Keeffe, S., Manap, H., Dooly, G., Lewis, E.</i> | <i>Real-time monitoring of agricultural ammonia emissions based on optical fibre sensing technology</i> [2010, IEEE Sensors Conference] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=5690821 | UV absorption | 2 ultraviolet nonsolarizing (UVNS) optical fibers (644 nm), 60-cm stainless steel gas cell, HR2000 spectrometer (Ocean Optics) | NH ₃ | Indicated range: 1-50 ppm | 4 sec | | (Fixed/semi-portable unit) | This system is used in confined areas to determine the amount of ammonia in the space with real-time measurements by using an optical fiber sensor system that detects in the UV absorption region. |
| 12 | University of Limerick (Ireland) <i>Manap, H., Dooly, G., Muda, R., O'Keeffe, S., Lewis, E.</i> <i>(Funding: Higher Education Authority, PRTL cycle 4 for Environmental and Climate change, University of Malaysia, Ministry of Higher Education)</i> | <i>Cross sensitivity study for ammonia detection in ultra violet region using an optical fibre sensor</i> [2009, Third International Conference on Sensor Technologies and Applications] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=5210951&isnumber=5210828 | UV absorption | 200-230 nm UV range | NH ₃ | Indicated limit: 7 ppm (estimated) | <3 sec | | (Fixed/semi-portable unit) | Investigates the use of UV light sources to detect NH ₃ in an optical fiber sensor. Using UV as a light source reduces sensor sensitivity to other gases (namely water vapor) in the ambient air. A computer using SpectraSuite software enables acquisition of spectrometer data in real time. Future studies on this technique plan to include finding the lowest concentration detectable by the sensor and the integration of a commercial NH ₃ sensor for more accurate concentration verification. |

| ID | Organization Author (Funding) | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|---------------------------------------|---|--|---------------------------------|--|---|--|---|-------------------|--|--|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| 13 np | Utah State University, University of Iowa; (Iowa); Space Dynamics Laboratory (SDL) (Utah) <i>Hipps, L., Silva, P., (UT State); Zavyalov, V.V., Wilkerson, T., Bingham, G.E. (SDL), others</i> (Funding: USDA) | http://www.sdl.usu.edu/programs/aglite ; http://www.ars.usda.gov/is/AR/archive/aug06/ames0806.pdf | LIDAR | Scanning 3-color LIDAR FTIR (<i>Ag-lite</i>) | PM and gases, including NH ₃ , H ₂ S, NO _x | | | Large suitcase | (Remote sensing) | Has been used to monitor an entire CAFO facility (e.g., swine finishing) and other sources, including multiple diffuse source dairy, cotton gin, and almond harvesting. The goal is to measure amount of CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O, and other greenhouse gases released from soil into the atmosphere and determine how different crop- and soil-management methods affect these exchanges. |
| Reference Commercial Sensor | | | | | | | | | | |
| C 14 | Teledyne Technologies | http://www.teledyne-ai.com/pdf/lga-4000.pdf | Laser absorp- tion, TDLAS | Transmitter: diode laser, laser driver, HMI modules, realizing diode laser driving, spectrum data processing; receiver: photo-electric sensor, signal processing and purge control modules (<i>Process LaserGas Analysis System, Model LGA-4000</i>) | O ₂ , CO, CO ₂ , water, H ₂ S, HF, HCl, HCN, NH ₃ , CH ₄ , C ₂ H ₂ , C ₂ H ₄ | NH ₃ : Indicated limit: 0.4 ppm Indicated range: 0-40 ppm (other pollutant info provided via link) | <1 sec | | RS485/GPRS/ Bluetooth digital interface (Fixed/semi-portable unit) | Useful in almost any environment, including high temperatures, pressures, dust densities, and corrosion; requires a 24 volts direct current (VDC) (220 VAC optional, <20 W), as well as 0.3-0.8 MPa, 99.99% N ₂ purging gas; is operable between -30 and 60°C (ambient temp); calibration and maintenance recommended <twice yearly depending on application. No cross interference reported from other gas species, dust or gas parameter fluctuations. Real-time, in-situ and continuous measurement options. |
| Benzene | | | | | | | | | | |
| Detection Technique: Chemistry | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | National Institute of Standards and Technology and others <i>Aluri, G.S., Motayed, A., Davydov, A.V., Oleshko, V.P., et al.</i> (Funding: NSF, NIST) | <i>Highly selective GaN-nanowire/TiO₂-nanocluster hybrid sensors for detection of benzene and related environment pollutants</i> [2011, Nanotechnology, 22(29)] http://iopscience.iop.org/0957-4484/22/29/295503/pdf/0957-4484_22_29_295503.pdf | Nano- particles | Hybrid chemical sensors with functionalized gallium nitride (GaN) nanowires with TiO ₂ nanoclusters; UV-induced sensing | Benzene, related aromatics | Benzene: Indicated limit: 50 ppb | ~60 sec for ppm levels, ~180 sec for ppb levels | | | UV-induced room-temperature sensing allows for low-power operation, longer lifetime, and fast on/off capabilities Hybrid sensor technology for standard microfabrication techniques. A devised mechanism that could qualitatively explain the observed sensing behavior. Operates at temperatures greater than 150°C. |

| ID | Organization Author (Funding) | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|----|---|---|-----------------------------|--|--|---|-----------------------|----------|---|--|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| 2 | University of Illinois at Urbana- Champaign Hengwei, L., Jang, M., Suslick., K.S. (Funding: NIH Genes, Environment, and Health Initiative) | <i>Preoxidation for colorimetric sensor array detection of VOCs</i> [2011, JACS, 133:16786-16789] http://www.scs.illinois.edu/suslick/documents/jacs.2011.preox.pdf | Pre- oxidation | Vapor stream passes through chromic acid and silica-coated pre- oxidation tube before colorimetric array | Phenol and others, including benzene; 20 VOCs | Benzene: 0.20 ppm within 1.4% of OSHA PEL | | Benchtop | (Fixed/semi- portable unit) | Optimum response was reported using a disposable 2-cm by 3-mm i.d. Teflon tubing with 30 mg of chromic acid on silica. The pre- oxidation agent must be newly prepared for each testing cycle. VOC vapors were produced by bubbling nitrogen through the pure compound. Color changes of the array are concentration-dependent and provide semi-quantitative analysis; changes in relative humidity were not reported to generally affect the response even at low analyte concentrations. |
| 3 | Duke University Yang, C.-H. | <i>Development of nanosensor to detect mercury and volatile organic vapors</i> [July 2010, thesis] http://dukespace.lib.duke.edu/dspace/bitstream/handle/10161/3060/D_Yang_Chang%20Heng_a_2010.pdf?sequence=1 | Nano- based (various) | Nanosensor with SnO ₂ , Au and polypyrrole (PPy) on SWCNTs | Hg, VOCs: benzene, methyl ethyl ketone (MEK), hexane, xylene | Indicated as ppb; benzene: sensitivity -2% in 13-65 ppm range | | | | Fast and sensitive for individual chemicals, but not found in this study to be successful for mixtures. |
| 4 | Chinese Academy of Sciences Y. Wan, H. Li, J. Liu, F. Meng, Z. Jin, L. Kong, and J. Liu (Funding: "973" State Key Project of Fundamental Research for Nano science and Nanotechnology, the National Natural Science Foundation of China, and others) | <i>Sensitive detection of indoor air contaminants using a novel gas sensor based on coral-shaped tin dioxide nanostructures</i> [2012, Sensors and Actuators, 165:24-33] http://ac.els-cdn.com/S0925400512001062/62/1-s2.0-S0925400512001062-main.pdf?_tid=601aeea1c25ade4743a4b104952fcec2&acdnat=1339604316_9f65193ca1a171af77fb721afc87e2dc | Nano- based | Coral-shaped SnO ₂ nanostructures, prepared by hydrothermal/ annealing processes coated on Al ₂ O ₃ tubes, Ni-Cr heater wire | Benzene, formal- dehyde, toluene and acetone | Benzene: tested range: 50-150 ppm | | | | Real-time gas sensing used to detect contaminants in indoor air; coral-shaped receptacles gave faster results. Response to gases is increased when particle size is reduced. Operates between 350 and 400°C. |

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|---------|---|--|----------------------|---|---|--|---|-------------------------------------|---|---|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| 5 | University of Bahkesir, Department of Physics and the Department of Chemistry (Turkey) <i>Acikbas, Y., Capan, R., Erdogan, M., Yukruk, F.</i> | <i>Thin film characterization and vapor sensing properties of a novel perylene diimide material</i> [2011, Sensors and Actuators B, 160(1):65- 71] http://ac.els- cdn.com/S0925400511006551- 51/1-s2.0- S0925400511006551- main.pdf?_tid=2d70fc366b81 a28413614e0ef142fb98&acd nat=1338392430_f688fab1cb 35779ecbf302d5582f45f | Polymer thin film | LB thin film-based, N,N'-(glycine t- butylester)-3,4,9,10- perylene diimide) thin film deposition, QCM, Au electrodes | Chloro- form, benzene, toluene, ethyl alcohol and isopropyl alcohol | Chloroform: Indicated limit: 15,300 ppm; benzene: Indicated limit: 17,100 ppm; toluene: Indicated limit: 18,600 ppm | 3 sec re- sponse, 4 sec recov- ery | | (Mountable) | Requires a 4-sec recovery period. Absorbance was measured over many Langmuir–Blodgett (LB) thin films. Operates at room temperature. |
| 6 np | Dalian University of Technology (China) <i>Wang, J.; Wu, W.; and colleagues (Chen, X.R., Yao, P.J., Ji, M., Qi, J.Q.) (Funding: National Natural Science Foundation of China)</i> | <i>Detection of indoor formaldehyde concentration using LaSrFeO₃-doped SnO₂ gas sensor</i> [2010, Key Engineering Materials, 437:349-353] http://www.ets.ifmo.ru:8101/t omasov/konferenc/AutoPlay/ Docs/Volume%203/6_51.pdf | MOS | MOS SnO ₂ (2 wt % doped with La-Sr- FeO ₃ as ceramic tube coating, electrodes and sensors then affixed | Formalde- hyde (also tested: ethanol, methanol, and benzene) | | 120 sec | Very small | Not indicated (Mountable) | Evaluated with N vapor in testing chamber. Highest response occurred when the sensor reached a temperature of 370°C. The response of this sensor to alcoholate gases was higher than the response to formaldehyde and will be improved by integrating sensor arrays and neural networks. For the described experiment the sensors were aged at 5V for 240 hr and operate at 370°C. |
| 7 np | Shinwoo Electronics Co., Ltd. <i>Kim, I.</i> Korea University (S. Korea) <i>Dong, K.Y., Ju, B.K.</i> Yonsei University (S. Korea) <i>Choi, H.H.</i> | <i>Gas sensor for CO and NH₃ using polyaniline/CNTs composite at room temperature</i> [2010, IEEE, International Conference on Nanotechnology Joint Symposium with Nano Korea] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/sta mp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber =56977762&isnumber=56977 24 | Polymer film | PANI/SWCNTs film dispersed in sodium dodecyl sulfate and applied over Ti/Au electrodes of an IDE by photolithography | CO, NH ₃ (also benzene and NO ₂) | | Fast re- sponse and recov- ery | 5 mm x 17 mm, 480 µm thick | | This research demonstrates the use of PANi/SWNTs composite- based sensor for mixed gas detection. The changes in resistance of the sensor determine the presence of a single gas or mixture of gases. This composite has a large surface-to-volume ratio which makes it a good candidate for new gas sensors. |

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| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| Detection Technique: Spectroscopy | | | | | | | | | | |
| 8 | NIT Microsystem Integration lab, Microsensor Research Group (Japan) <i>Camou, S., Horiuchi, T., Haga, T.</i> | <i>Ppb level benzene gas detection by portable BTX sensor based on integrated hollow fiber detection cell</i> [2006, IEEE Sensors] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?arnumber=04178603 | UV-vis absorp- tion | SBA16 mesoporous silica as pre- concentrator, two pumping systems, Al-coated hollow fiber inside glass cell, with optical fibers | Benzene, BTX (benzene, toluene, xylene) | Benzene: Indicated limit: 1 ppb (concentra- tion range tested: 0-10 ppb) | ~20 min (until precon- centra- tor satura- tion) | Portable | | Benzene is diluted in nitrogen carrier gas. Originally tested for indoor usage so the benzene could be isolated. It is not known if it will work with other ambient particles in the air. |
| 9 | University of Aveiro (Portugal) and ISEIT/Viseu-Instituto Piaget, Estrada do Alto do Gaio (Portugal) <i>Silva, L.I.B., Rocha- Santos, T.A.P., Duarte, A.C.</i> <i>(Funding: FCT [Portugal] for project, and Ph.D. grant)</i> | <i>Remote optical fibre microsensor for monitoring BTEX in confined industrial atmospheres</i> [2009, Talanta, 78(2):548-552] http://ac.els-cdn.com/S003991400800886-86/1-s2.0-S0039914008008886-main.pdf?_tid=123fc547c2b1754bf3971075f3d0ba6e&acdnat=1337968655_7377646dee760377c14ed17841fa094b | Laser absorp- tion (optical fiber) | Monomode optical fiber coated with nanometric poly[methyl(3,3,3- trifluoropropyl)siloxa ne] (PMTFPS) polymer film | Benzene, BTEX (benzene, toluene, ethylben- zene, xylene) | Indicated limit: 0.00235 ppm | A few sec per sub- stance; 9 min total for all | Portable, compact | (Handheld) | Applied to air monitoring in a confined industrial environment at 150°C. Allows for <i>in situ</i> and real- time remote (60-m maximum) monitoring. Performance compared to that of a GC-FID device. |
| 10 | Georgia Institute of Technology Young, C.R., Menegazzo, N., et al. from Exxon Mobile and the University of Ulm (Germany) <i>(Funding/support: Exxon Mobil and Engineering Company, Exxon Mobil Biomedical Sciences, Inc.)</i> | <i>Infrared hollow waveguide sensors for simultaneous gas phase detection of benzene, toluene, and xylenes in field environments</i> [2011, Anal. Chem., 83:6141-6147] http://pubs.acs.org/doi/pdfplus/10.1021/ac1031034 | Thermal desorp- tion (TD)- FTIR- hollow wave- guide (HWG) | TD as a pre- concentration step, HWG to propagate mid-infrared (MIR) radiation from light source and serves as a miniaturized cell. | BTX | Indicated limit: 5 ppb | ~43 sec | | (Fixed/semi- portable unit) | Direct and selective real-time detection of BTX using thermal desorption. Results validated by GC-FID and compared to commercially available prototypes. |

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|--|---|---|--------------------------------|---|--|---|-----------------------|------------|---|---|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| 11 np | Arizona State University Tsow, F., Forzani, E., Rai, A., Wang, R., and others (Funding: NIH/NCI, Motorola, Arizona State University) | <i>A wearable & wireless sensor system for real-time monitoring of toxic environmental volatile organic compounds</i> [2009, IEEE Sensors Journal, 9(12):1734-1740] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/xpls/abs_all.jsp?arnumber=5291983 | Laser absorption (tuning fork) | Array of polymer-modified quartz crystal tuning fork, custom built filter, frequency change detection circuit | VOCs, BTEX | "Beyond OSHA's requirement for benzene" | | Cell phone | Bluetooth technology, wireless, graphic user interface software with Visual Studio (Microsoft) in cell phone (Wearable) | Uses sensor cartridge, sample delivery and conditioning components, electronic circuits for signal processing, and wireless communication chip; allows for upgrades and easy disposal of old tuning forks. Studies were performed to demonstrate capabilities with interfering chemicals such as perfume and a BTEX gas mixture; 5-minute exposure cycles require 10- to 15-minute purging periods. |
| 12 np | Yong-Hui, L., Xiao-An, C., Fu-Gao, C., et al. | <i>A gaseous acrolein sensor based on cataluminescence using ZrO₂/MgO composite</i> [2011, Chinese Journal of Analytical Chemistry, 39(8):1213-1217] | Cataluminescence | Nanosized ZrO ₂ /MgO composite | Acrolein Also tested: acetaldehyde, methanol, benzene, toluene, dimethylbenzene | | | | | Optimal temperature was reported to be 269°C. Optimal gas flow was reported to be 200 mL/min. Optimal wave length was reported to be 425 nm. |
| Novel Sensor Systems Using Commercial Sensors | | | | | | | | | | |
| c 13 | Gdansk University of Technology, with ARMAAG Foundation (Poland) Kaulski, R., et al. (Funding: Environmental Protection and Water Management Fund of Gdansk Province) | <i>Mobile system for on-road measurements of air pollutants</i> [2010, AIP Review of Scientific Instruments, 81(4)] http://rsi.aip.org/resource/1/rsin/v81/i4/p045104_s1?view=fulltext | MOS (by Figaro) | SnO ₂ MOS with ceramic base in ARPOL system | Benzene, NO ₂ , NO _x , CO, CO ₂ | Benzene: Indicated limit: 0.0125 ppb | | Mobile | Uploads to webpage (Vehicle-mounted unit) | Results collected over several 24-hour cycle test periods. |

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|--|---|--|--|---|--|---|-----------------------|------|---|--|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| c 14 | Universitat Rovira I Virgili (Spain), Universite de Franche Comte (France), Universite de Lorraine Lahlou (France), and the Gas Sensors Group with the National Centre of Microelectronics (Spain) <i>Lahlou, H., Sanchez, J.B., Mohsen, Y., Vilanova, X., et. Al</i> | <i>A planar micro-concentrator/injector for low power consumption microchromatographic analysis of benzene and 1,3-butadiene</i> [2012, Microsyst Technol, 18: 489-495] <i>Towards a GC-based microsystem for benzene and 1,3-butadiene detection: Pre-concentration characterization</i> [2011, Sensors and Actuators B, 156: 680-688] | GC, pre-concentrator | Commercial sensor with low power consumption GC microsystem | Benzene, 1,3-butadiene | Benzene Indicated limit: 0.1 ppm; 1,3-butadiene Indicated limit: 0.5 ppm; tested range: 2-10 ppm | | | | This pre-concentrator was tested in the presence of benzene and 1,3-butadiene concentrations normally too low for the commercial sensor to detect. 1.02 mW/°C power consumption level. Operates at 25°C. |
| Reference Commercial Sensors | | | | | | | | | | |
| C 15 | Synspec | http://www.synspec.nl/pdf/GC955-600_Bu_Be.pdf | Photoionization detector (PID), GC | (GC 955-603 Benzene and 1,3-butadiene sensor) | Benzene and 1,3-butadiene | Benzene indicated range: 9.4 ppb to 0.3 ppm | 15-min cycle time | | (F/S-PSU) | Meant for ambient air sensing with a 15-minute cycle time (220 VAC, 100 volt-amperes (VA); 110 VAC available). |
| C 16 | Synspec | http://www.synspec.nl/pdf/GC955-600_BT_X.pdf | PID, GC | (GC 955-601 Benzene/BTEX analyzer) | Benzene, BTEX | Indicated range: 0.032 ppb to 0.3 ppm | 15-min cycle time | | (Fixed/semi-portable unit) | Meant for ambient air sensing with a 15-minute cycle time (230 VAC, 100 VA; 115 VAC available). |
| 1,3-Butadiene | | | | | | | | | | |
| Detection Technique: Electrochemistry | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1a 1b | University of Michigan, Ann Arbor <i>Rowe, M.P., Steinecker, W.H., Zellers, E.T.</i> | <i>Exploiting charge-transfer complexation for selective measurement of gas-phase olefins with nanoparticle-coated chemiresistors</i> [2007, Analytical Chemistry, 79: 1164-1172] http://pubs.acs.org/doi/pdfplus/full/10.1021/ac061305k | Nano-based, chemoresistor, polymer, UV-vis | Charge-transfer mediated olefin selective sensing system with chemiresistors coated in composite films of C8-MPN and PtCl ₂ complexes. | Ethane, ethylene, n-butane, 1,3-butadiene, ethylbenzene, styrene, n-octane, 1-octene | a. C8-PBP : Indicated limit 9.5 ppb b. C8-MPN: Indicated limit 24,000 ppb | 5 min exposure period | | IMACC Software Suite includes FTIR control and data server, scripting engine and editor, quantization method development tools, configurable FTIR monitor UI, and a synthetic to background tool. | 5-minute exposure period is mentioned (see article for more detection capabilities) Additional modules are available to integrate data and alarms to external systems. |

| ID | Organization <i>Author (Funding)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|---|--|--|--|---|------------------------------------|--|---|------|---|--|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| Novel Sensor Systems Using Commercial Sensors | | | | | | | | | | |
| c2 | Universitat Rovira I Virgili (Spain), Universite de Franche Comte (France), Universite de Lorraine Lahlou (France), and the Gas Sensors Group with the National Centre of Microelectronics (Spain) <i>H., Sanchez, J.B., Mohsen, Y., Vilanova, X., Berger, F., et. al.</i> | <i>A planar micro-concentrator/injector for low power consumption microchromatographic analysis of benzene and 1,3-butadiene</i> [2012, Microsyst Technol,18: 489-495] <i>Towards a GC-based microsystem for benzene and 1,3-butadiene detection: Pre-concentration characterization</i> [2011, Sensors and Actuators B, 156: 680-688] http://www.springerlink.com/content/428336485jlm3822/fulltext.pdf | Com- mercial sensor, GC micro- system | Planar micro- concentrator/ injector | Benzene, 1,3- butadiene | Benzene: Indicated limit: 0.1 ppm; 1,3-butadiene Indicated limit: 0.5 ppm; tested: 2.5-10 ppm | | | | This pre-concentrator was tested in the presence of benzene and 1,3-butadiene concentrations normally too low for the commercial sensor to detect; requires low amounts of power. 1.02 mW/°C power consumption level. Operates at 400°C. |
| Reference Commercial Sensors | | | | | | | | | | |
| C3 | Synspec | http://www.synspec.nl/pdf/GC955-600-800_POCP.pdf | FID, PID | (GC 955-811 Ozone Precursors Fraction C2-C5) | 1,3- butadiene and others | 1,3- butadiene: Indicated range: 1-300 ppb | Semi- con- tinuous 30-min cycle | | Chromatograms are stored on PC hard disk and can be transferred by network and modem connection. Output options are available for communication with other data logging systems. (Fixed/semi-portable unit) | This sensor can be used to analyze hydrocarbons emitted by traffic as well as those in industrial or household processes. Hydrocarbons are concentrated on a cooled trap, allowing low detection levels, and the PID detects unsaturated compounds while the FID detects saturated compounds (220 VAC, 200 VA; 110 VAC available). |
| C4 | Synspec | http://www.synspec.nl/pdf/GC955-600_Bu_Be.pdf | PID, GC | (GC 955-603 Benzene and 1,3-butadiene sensor) | Benzene and 1,3- butadiene | 1,3- butadiene: Indicated range: 9.05 ppt to 0.3 ppm | 15-min cycle | | (Fixed/semi-portable unit) | Meant for ambient air sensing with a 15-minute cycle time (220 VAC, 100 VA; 110 VAC available). |

| ID | Organization <i>Author (Funding)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|--------------------------------|--|--|-------------------|--|---|---|-----------------------|------------|---|--|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| Formaldehyde | | | | | | | | | | |
| Detection Technique: Chemistry | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | NASA Ames Research Center (CA) <i>Lu, Y., Meyyappan, M., Li, J.</i> (Funding: NASA) | <i>A carbon-nanotube-based sensor array for formaldehyde detection</i> [2011, Nanotechnology 22(5)] http://iopscience.iop.org/0957-4484/22/5/055502/pdf/0957-4484_22_5_055502.pdf | Nano-based | 32 sensor array of SWCNTs including Pd-doped, Rh-loaded, ZnO- and nanoAu-coated, and polyethylene-imine functionalized | Formaldehyde | 10 ppb | 18 sec | | Not indicated | Response time of seconds, room temperature operation; research to create an e-nose for crew in the International Space Station. 200 to 400°C operating temperature. |
| 2 | Dalian University of Technology (China) <i>Wang, J.; Wu, Wei; and colleagues (Chen, X.R., Yao, P.J., Ji, M., Qi, J.Q.)</i> (Funding: National Natural Science Foundation of China) | <i>Detection of indoor formaldehyde concentration using LaSrFeO₃-doped SnO₂ gas sensor</i> [2010, Key Engineering Materials, 437:349-353] http://www.ets.ifmo.ru:8101/tomasov/konferenc/AutoPlay/Docs/Volume%203/6_51.pdf | MOS | MOS SnO ₂ (2 wt% doped with La-Sr-FeO ₃ as ceramic tube coating, electrodes and sensors then affixed | Formaldehyde (also tested alcohols: ethanol, methanol, and benzene) | Formaldehyde indicated limit: 50 ppb (tested in range of 0-5 ppm) (limits not given for others) | 120 sec | Very small | Not indicated (Mountable) | Evaluated with N vapor in testing chamber. Response was highest when the sensor reached 370°C. The response of this sensor to alcoholate gases was higher than the response to formaldehyde and will be improved by integrating sensor arrays and neural networks. For the described experiment the sensors were aged at 5V for 240 hr and operate at 370°C. |
| 3 | Chinese Academy of Sciences <i>Meng, F.-L., Huang, Z.-J., and colleagues, also at Anhui Polytechnic University</i> (Funding: One Hundred Person Project of the Academy, National Natural Science Foundation of China, National Basic Research Program of China, and Anhui Provincial Natural Science Foundation) | <i>Electronic chip based on self-oriented carbon nanotube microelectrode array to enhance the sensitivity of indoor air pollutants capacitive detection</i> [2011, Sensors and Actuators B, 153:103-109] http://pdn.sciencedirect.com/science?_ob=MamImageURL&_cid=271353&_user=1722207&_pii=S092540051000818X&_check=y&_origin=search&_zone=rsit_list_item&_coverDate=2011-03-31&wchp=dGLzVBA-zSkzV&md5=ff0be4989bfbde8f28e9d5daeb7bfae9/1-s2.0-S092540051000818X-main.pdf | Nano-based | Compares electronic chip (Si dielectric medium, Au and Si electrodes) with self-oriented MWCNTs microelectrode array | Formaldehyde ammonia toluene | Formaldehyde: 300 ppb | <10 sec | Very small | Not indicated (Mountable) | Response time is limited by the time it takes to load and remove analyte from the chip. Liquid samples placed in sample chamber, nitrogen used as carrier gas to flow through the chamber. |

| ID | Organization Author (Funding) | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|----|---|--|--|---|---|---|-----------------------|------|---|---|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| 4 | Hunan Cultural University (China), and others <i>Peng, Liang, and others</i> (Funding: National Natural Science Foundation of China, Start Foundation of Hunan Agricultural University, National Science and Technology Major Projects, and National Environmental Protection Public Welfare Program) | <i>Improvement of formaldehyde sensitivity of ZnO nanorods by modifying with Ru(dcbpy)₂(NCS)₂</i> [2011, Sensors and Actuators B, 160:39-45] http://pdn.sciencedirect.com/science?_ob=MiamiImageURL&_cid=271353&_user=1722207&_pii=S0925400511006381&_check=y&_origin=browse&_zone=rsit_list_item&_coverDate=2011-12-15&wchp=dGLzVlk-zSkzV&md5=6a80f667c84fe21eee0fe4a4be2ff8d3/1-s2.0-S0925400511006381-main.pdf | Nano-based | UV light-assisted gas sensor made of ZnO nanorods dispersed in ETOH and dripped on ITO, modified with RuN3 | Formaldehyde; also tested: ethanol, diethyl ether; responses were lower, indicating more accessible oxidation of formaldehyde | 5 ppm | | | | Ambient (room temperature) conditions. Response decreases with increasing relative humidity. (Absorption is at low irradiation light intensity; addresses the issue of increased cost of the photoelectric gas sensor with high irradiation light intensity.) |
| 5 | Gdansk University of Technology, Gdansk, Poland <i>Gebicki, J.</i> | <i>A prototype of electrochemical sensor for measurements of carbonyl compounds in air</i> [2011, Electroanalysis, 23(8):1958-1966] http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/elan.201100164/abstract | Electrochemical, square wave voltammetry (SWV) | Composed of Pt and Au electrodes, ionic liquid 1-hexyl, 3-methylimidazolium bis(trifluoromethane sulfonyl)imide as an electrolyte and a PDMS membrane | Benzaldehyde, formaldehyde | LOQ (200 um thickness, Pt and Au electrodes respectively) = 37 and 61 ppm LOQ (100 um thickness, Pt and Au electrodes, respectively) = 29 and 40 ppm <i>Limit of Quantification (LOQ) = 3 LOD</i> | | | Not indicated (Mountable) | Prototype of an electrochemical sensor for measuring selected VOCs; square wave voltammetry using a low quantification limit due to elimination of capacity current. 50 mV amplitude, 10 Hz frequency and a scan step of 5 mV. Sensor materials functioned for 3 months in a reproducible manner with a 5% standard deviation in results. |

| ID | Organization Author (Funding) | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|--|--|--|-------------------------------|---|--|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------|---|---|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| 6 | Chinese Academy of Sciences Y. Wan, H. Li, J. Liu, F. Meng, Z. Jin, L. Kong, and J. Liu (Funding: "973" State Key Project of Fundamental Research for Nano Science and Nanotechnology, the National Natural Science Foundation of China, and others) | <i>Sensitive detection of indoor air contaminants using a novel gas sensor based on coral-shaped tin dioxide nanostructures</i> [2012, Sensors and Actuators, 165:24-33] http://ac.els-cdn.com/S0925400512001062/1-s2.0-S0925400512001062-main.pdf?_tid=601aeea1c25ade4743a4b104952fcec2&acdnat=1339604316_9f65193ca1a171af77fb721afc87e2dc | Nano-based | Coral-shaped nanostructures, prepared by hydrothermal/annealing processes coated on Al ₂ O ₃ tubes, Ni-Cr heater wire. Energy bandgap of 3.62 eV at 300°K | Benzene, formaldehyde, toluene and acetone | Tested at 50, 100, and 150 ppm | <30 sec for 50 ppm | | | Real-time gas sensing used to detect contaminants in indoor air; coral-shaped receptacles gave faster results. Response to gases is increased when particle size is reduced. Operates between 350 and 400°C (optimal temperature of 200°C). Smaller particulate size was reported to be correlated with higher sensor response. |
| 7 np | Beijing Yadu Air Pollution Tre Feng Jiang; Dongfang Liu; Xiaocong Ma | <i>Patent application for a formaldehyde gas sensor</i> [Application number: CN21011104419 20100201] http://worldwide.espacenet.com/publicationDetails/biblio?FT=D&date=20100714&DB=worldwide.espacenet.com&locale=en_EP&CC=CN&NR=101776640A&KC=A&ND=4 | Electro-chemical | Composed of gas inlet shell, filter layer, supporting shell, MEC, and electrodes. | Formaldehyde | | | | (Fixed/semi-portable unit) | Sensor detects formaldehyde gas under the normal temperature, while reducing the affection of other gases in the air, so the detection result is more accurate. |
| Detection Technique: Spectroscopy | | | | | | | | | | |
| 8 | Francis Perrin Laboratory (France) Mariano, S., Wang, W., Brunelle, G., Tran-Thi, T.H., Start-up Ethera, Minatec Enterprises (France) Bigay, Y. | <i>Colorimetric detection of formaldehyde: sensor for air quality measurements and a pollution-warning kit for homes</i> [2010, IEEE, 1st International Conference on Sensor Device Technologies and Applications] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=5632112&isnumber=5632098&tag=1 | Colorimetry, electro-chemical | Colorimetry kit with nanoporous matrix doped with Fluoral-P | Formaldehyde | Potentially 1-250 ppb | Exposed for 10-30 min | 12x5x2 mm | (Visual) | Sensor could be applied to a wide range of concentrations by varying the exposure flux (to be addressed in further studies). For a duration of 1620 minutes, only 0.068% of Fluoral-P (4-amino-3-penten-2-one) was consumed, meaning a few hundred measurements could be obtained with starting materials. |

| ID | Organization Author (Funding) | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|------------------|---|--|----------------------------|---|---------------------------------------|---|--|--------------------------------|--|--|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| 9 | Tokai University (Japan) Sekine, Y., Katori, R. | <i>Indoor air quality monitoring via it network colorimetric monitoring of formaldehyde in indoor environment using image transmission of mobile phone</i> [2009, ICROS-SICE International Joint Conference (Japan)] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=5333246&isnumber=5332438 | MIR, Colorimetry detection | Reagent grade HCl, NaOH, ZnO, KIO ₄ , AHMT, HCHO solution and agar powder | Formaldehyde | Tested at 0.85 and 0.13 mg/m ³ (0.691 and 0.106 ppm, respectively) | Decreases when concentration increases | ~Size of a quarter (per photo) | Image transmission via mobile phone (Visual, cell phone-based) | Colorimetric detection of formaldehyde expresses concentrations as variances in degree of color change of the colorimetric reagent. These results may be interpreted differently from user to user and leads to uncertainty and inconsistent data collection. This project investigates a system in which a mobile phone may be used to take and send pictures of the color change to a laboratory where a laboratory operator would determine the proper interpretation of colorimetric test results. |
| 10 | National Research Council of Canada, Institute for Research in Construction (Canada) Deore, B., Diaz-Quijada, A., Wayner, D. D.M., Stewart, D., Won, D.Y., Waldron, P. (Funding: NRC of Canada, ICT sector) | <i>An electronic nose for the detection of carbonyl species</i> [2011, ECS Transactions, 35(7):83-88] http://www.nrc-cnrc.gc.ca/obj/irc/doc/pubs/nrc54483.pdf | Luminescence, polymer | Solution casting polymer (polyaniline and polypyrrole derivatives) at a given doping level on a glass substrate with or without four Au lines (electrodes) with respective pads to align with commercial probe head | Formaldehyde also tested acetaldehyde | 250 ppb formaldehyde at 44% relative humidity ("real world" conditions) | 5-60 sec | | Not indicated (Mountable) | Polyaniline and polypyrrole derivatives interact with a carbonyl group to produce measureable changes in resistivity, which can be used for e-nose (electronic nose) sensing of carbonyls (reaction between carbonyl and nitrogen spurs molecular recognition). |
| 11 ^{np} | Universiti Teknologi Mara (Selangor) Masrie, M., Adnan, R. Universiti Industry Selangor (Selangor) Ahmad, A. | <i>A novel integrated sensor system for indoor air quality measurement</i> [2009, IEEE, 5 th International Colloquium on Signal Processing and Its Applications] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=5069260&isnumber=5069167 | Spectroscopy, IR | 3 MIR LEDs, detection by photodiode (lambda 3600 nm) and photoresistor (4300 nm) | CO ₂ , CO, formaldehyde | Abstract states 1ppm, but detailed results given only for CO ₂ | | | (Embedded/integrated sensor) | Used for indoor air quality measurement. |

| ID | Organization <i>Author (Funding)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
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| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| Reference Commercial Sensors | | | | | | | | | | |
| C 12 | Interscan Corporation | http://www.gasdetection.com/wp-content/uploads/hcho_monitoring_instruments_and_systems.pdf | | 400 Series Portable Analyzer | Formaldehyde | Minimum: 1.0% of full scale Accuracy: ±1.0% of full scale Range options (for portable analyzers): 0-1999 ppm, 0-199.9 ppm, 0-19.99 ppm, and 0-0.5 ppm. | Lag time: >1 sec 30 sec to 90%, 8 sec to 50% of final value. 30 sec to 10% original value | Portable analyzer: 7" x 8.875" x 4" (4.5 lbs) | Full data acquisition, archiving, and reporting capabilities available | Company claims this unit can withstand the toughest of field conditions and is "reliable for decades." Many different variations are available. Flexible features include: detection range, continuous monitoring, multi-point systems, rack mounting, alarm systems, and more. The company also provides a chart detailing estimated concentrations of interfering gases required to cause a 1 ppm deflection on the analyzer. Sensor drift reported as less than ±2.0% of full scale (24 hr). Sampling rate is adjustable from once per second to once every 10 hours. |
| Hydrogen Sulfide | | | | | | | | | | |
| Detection Technique: Chemistry | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | University of California-Riverside <i>Mubeen, S. et al. (Funding: NIH Genes, Environmental and Health Initiative, and the Fundamental R&D Program for Core Technology of Materials funded by the Ministry of Knowledge Economy, Republic of Korea)</i> | <i>Gas sensing mechanism of gold nanoparticles decorated single walled carbon nanotubes</i> [2011, Electroanalysis, 23(11): 2687-2692.] http://deshusses.pratt.duke.edu/files/deshusses/u31/pdf/ja87.pdf | Nano-based | Hybrid Au-functionalized SWCNT nanostructures on gold electrode (working electrode), Pt wire and chlorinated Ag wire as reference electrode, 100 nm thick SiO2 as dielectric layer | H2S | Indicated range: 2-200 ppb | | | | Sensitivity for H2S depends on the number of gold nanoparticles;, the sensing function was independent of the extra nanoparticles. |

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|--|--|--|--------------------------------------|---|---|---|-----------------------|---|---|---|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| 2 np | University of Malaya (Malaysia) Moghavvemi, M., Attaran, A. | <i>Design of a low voltage 0.18 um CMOS surface acoustic wave gas sensor</i> [2011, Sensors and Transducers, 125(2):22-29] http://www.sensorsportal.com/HTML/DIGEST/february_2011/P_747.pdf | Surface acoustic wave (SAW) | IDT antennas coated with thin film WO ₃ . Frequency shifts from 300-500 MHz | H ₂ S | Potentially detects H ₂ S change at a 100 ⁻¹² g/cm ² change in mass | | Shoebox | (Mountable) | Two interdigitated transducers (IDT) on a substrate, which determines the wavelength. 1.8V power requirement. |
| Detection Technique: Spectroscopy | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3 | Wuhan Huali Environment Protection Science Technology Co., Ltd. Y. Wan; B. Dai | <i>Atmospheric pollution monitoring gas sensor using non-pulse ultraviolet fluorescence method</i> [2010, Patent application] http://worldwide.espacenet.com/publicationDetails/biblio?FT=D&date=20101208&DB=worldwide.espacenet.com&locale=en_EP&CC=CN&NR=201666873U&KC=U&ND=4 | UV fluor- escence | Gas sensor optical platform, electronic measuring control system, gas reforming device, peripheral interface | H ₂ S, SO ₂ | H ₂ S indicated LDL: 1 ppb | | | (Fixed/semi- portable unit) | Continuous monitoring of real-time concentrations of H ₂ S and SO ₂ in air. Sensor reduces noise and has high anti-interference capability, which greatly improves the measurement accuracy and leads to more stable data. |
| 4 np | Utah State University, University of Iowa; US Department of Agriculture/Agricultur e Research Service, National Soil Tilth Laboratory (Iowa); Space Dynamics Laboratory (SDL) (Utah) Hipps, L., Silva, P., (UT State); Zavyalov, V.V., Wilkerson, T., Bingham, G.E. (SDL), et al. (Funding: USDA) | http://www.sdl.usu.edu/programs/aglite ; http://www.ars.usda.gov/is/AR/archive/aug06/ames0806.pdf | Spectros- copy | Scanning 3-color LIDAR Fourier Transform Spectrometer (Aglite) | PM and gases, including NH ₃ , H ₂ S, NO _x | | | Vehicle- portable, (from photos, main elements appear to be roughly the size of a large suitcase) | (Remote sensing) | Has been used to monitor entire CAFO facility (e.g., swine finishing) and others, including multiple diffuse source dairy, cotton gin, and almond harvesting. (Goal is to measure amount of CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O, and other greenhouse gases released from soil into the atmosphere and determine how different crop- and soil-management methods affect these exchanges.) |

| ID | Organization <i>Author (Funding)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
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| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| Novel Sensor Systems Using Commercial Sensors | | | | | | | | | | |
| c5 | Jackson State University <i>Anjaneyulu, Y.</i> Jawaharlal Nehru Technological University <i>Jayakumar, I., Bindu, V.H.</i> Andhra Pradesh Pollution Control Board <i>Ramani, K.V.</i> Spectrochem Instruments <i>Rao, T.H.</i> | <i>Real time remote monitoring of air pollutants and their online transmission to the web using internet protocol</i> [2007, Environ Monit Assess, 124:371-381]] http://cardiff.academia.edu/SAGARESWARGUMMENENI/Papers/922566/ | Various commercial | Tapered element oscillating microbalance <i>(Real Time Remote Monitoring System)</i> | SO ₂ , NO, NO ₂ , CO, O ₃ , H ₂ S, PM ₁₀ , PM _{2.5} , hydrocarbons, mercaptans | H ₂ S: 0-10 ppm | 30 to 60 min | | Ethernet network module, uploading to webpage (Remote sensing) | This device is a remotely monitored detection system. It can be run on a 12V battery. The pollution sensors can be set to collect data every 30 minutes or every 60 minutes depending on user preference and weather conditions. Also measures environmental parameters such as temperature and rainfall, and sound, per meteorological monitoring system, Bruel and Kajaer sound level measurement system.) |
| Reference Commercial Sensors | | | | | | | | | | |
| C6 | Aeroqual | http://www.gas-sensing.com/aeroqual-hydrogen-sulfide-sensor-0-10-ppm-eh.html | Electrochemical | Gas sensitive electrochemical <i>(Aeroqual Hydrogen Sulfide Sensor Head 0-10 ppm)</i> | H ₂ S | Indicated range: 0-10 ppm, minimum: 0.01 ppm, max: 20 ppm; res: 0.01 ppm | <60 sec | Hand-held | (Handheld) | Uses diffusion sampling method and operates in the temperature range of -20-40° C. Sensor head is compatible with any Series-200, -300 or -500 Aeroqual monitor. |
| C7 | Arizona Instrument LLC | http://www.azic.com/downloads/brochures/Jerome%20J605%20Brochure.pdf | Electrochemical | Gold film <i>(Jerome J605)</i> | H ₂ S | Indicated range: 3 ppb-10 ppm, resolution: 20 ppt | Varies, 12-52 sec | 11 ft x 6 ft x 6.5 ft | On-board data logging, USB interface, data storage capability of 20,000 samples | This device has an internal battery (rechargeable NiMH), AC power supply/charger, and external battery pack or car accessory cable of 12 VCD; JEROME requires a 0-40° C operational environment free of condensation and explosives. The company recommends annual factory calibrations and intermittent user checks with the functional test module. |

| ID | Organization Author (Funding) | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|---------------------------------------|---|---|--------------------|--|-------------------------|---|---|---------------------------------------|--|---|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| C8 | Aeroqual | http://www.gas-sensing.com/aeroqual-hydrogen-sulfide-sensor-0-50-ppm-ht.html | Semicon- ductor | Gas sensitive semiconductor (Aeroqual Hydrogen Sulfide Sensor Head 0-50 ppm) | H ₂ S | Indicated range: 0-50 ppm, minimum: 0.05 ppm, maximum: 100 ppm; res: 0.01 ppm | <60 sec | Hand-held | Data interface to PC/ onboard data logging and direct to PC (Handheld) | Uses diffusion sampling method and operates in the temperature range of -20-40°C. Sensor head is compatible with any Series-200, -300 or -500 Aeroqual monitor. |
| Methane | | | | | | | | | | |
| Detection Technique: Chemistry | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | NASA Glenn Research Center <i>Biaggi-Labiosa, A., Lebron-Colon, F., Evans, L.J., Xu, J.C., Hunter, G.W., Berger, G.M., Gonzalez, J.M.</i> | <i>A novel methane sensor based on porous SnO₂ nanorods: room temperature to high temperature detection.</i> [Oct. 2012, Nanotechnology, 23] | Nano-based | Porous SnO ₂ nanorods (~5 nm) synthesized using MWCNTs as templates | CH ₄ | 0.25% CH ₄ in air, 125-2500 ppm (depends on temperature of operation. 100-500°C capable of entire range, 25°C capable of 2500 ppm only) | 5-50 sec Note response time decreases as concentration increases | Micro-sensor | | Authors consider this the first of its type for methane; operated at room temperature and exhibited a wide temperature range (25-500°C). Optimal sensitivity reported at 300°C. Authors note sensor may be used for personal health and environmental monitoring. Sensor reported to have low power consumption, be easy to use and cheap to produce in batch fabrication. (Sensitivity: ratio of sensor conductance in presence of the gas minus the baseline conductance measured in air.) |
| 2 np | Shanxi University, Tatyuan (China), Hong Kong Baptist University <i>Li, Z., Zhang, J., Zhou, Y., Shuang, S., Dong, C., Choi, M.M.F.</i> (Funding: Hundred Talent Programme of Shanxi Province, Shanxi International S&T Cooperation Program, National Natural Science Foundation, Shanxi Scholarship Council) | <i>Electrodeposition of palladium nanoparticles on fullerene modified glassy carbon electrode for methane sensing</i> [May 2012, Electrochimica Acta] | Nano-based | Nanocomposite of Pd nanoparticles-modified fullerene by electrodeposition on a glassy carbon electrode | CH ₄ | 0.19-0.55% | | 3 mm diameter glassy carbon electrode | | Reported to have higher sensitivity and selectivity compared to bare glassy carbon electrodes, pristine C60 modified glassy carbon electrodes, and palladium nanoparticle-modified glassy carbon electrodes. Stable and demonstrated reproducible results. Operation at room temperature is preferred, to prolong sensor life and minimize explosion risk. CO and CO ₂ were not found to interfere with measurements, while H ₂ and NH ₃ did interfere slightly. |

| ID | Organization <i>Author (Funding)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|---|--|--|--|---|---|--|-----------------------|--|---|---|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| Detection Technique: Spectroscopy | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3 | Jilin University, State Key Laboratory on Optoelectronics, College of Electronic Science and Engineering, College of Material Science and Engineering Zheng, C-T, Wang, Y-D., et al. (Funding: Science and Technology Council of China, National Natural Science Foundation of China, Science and Technology Department of Jilin Province) | <i>Performance enhancement of a mid-infrared CH₄ detection sensor by optimizing an asymmetric ellipsoid gas-cell and reducing voltage-fluctuation: Theory, design and experiment</i> [Aug. 2011, Sensors and Actuators B, 160(1):389-398] http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0925400511007210 | Spectroscopy, MIR, asymmetric ellipsoid gas cell | Asymmetric ellipsoid light-collector gas cell (ALCGC) as absorption pool, light collector, MIR wire source, and dual-channel detector (multi-pass) | CH ₄ | 5 ppm minimum detection limit 6-7 ppm sensitivity range under 1,000 ppm concentration level Improvements are expected to lower this to 1 ppm and below | <6 sec | Sensing 3.8 cm / 1.5 cm | (Mountable) | |
| 4 | Huazong University of Science and Technology (China), Nanyang Technological University (Singapore) Liu, D., Fu, S., Tang, M., Shum, P. | <i>Comb filter-based fiber-optic methane sensor system with mitigation of cross gas sensitivity</i> [Oct. 2012, IEEE, 30(19):3103-3109] | Spectroscopy, gas cell | Polarization-maintaining photonic crystal fiber-based Sagnac loop filter, gas cell with multiple reflections, p-i-n photodetector; fiber optical sensor | CH ₄ | 450 ppm | | Range of component sizes (largest is DVD player sized) | | Designed to remotely monitor methane in a coal mine, the sensor system has three parts: host machine with all signal processing functions, gas cell, and alarm device. An optical fiber links the host machine to the remote gas cell. The alarm device is activated when CH ₄ reaches explosive levels. |
| Novel Sensor Systems Using Commercial Sensors | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5c | Changzhou Institute of Technology (China) Guan, J., Wang, X | <i>Application of integrated sensor in gas alert system of coal mine</i> [2009, IEEE] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=5072745&isnumber=5072599 | | Integrated sensor alerting system (MSP430) JHAT-FM-CO JHAT-FM- H ₂ S 3011-CO ₂ GJ4-2000-CH ₄ Chip: 430149 | CO, H ₂ S, CO ₂ , CH ₄ , NO ₂ , and marsh gas | Voice alerts are set at: CH ₄ : 500 ppm H ₂ S: 50 ppm CO ₂ : 500 ppm | | Small, fit in mining helmet | (Embedded/integrated sensor) | Design combines 4 separate gas sensors into single integrated sensor small enough to be installed in a mining helmet for real-time monitoring (deployed in coal mine). When concentrations of any monitored gas exceeds specified levels, the wearer would hear a voice alert reminding of proper safety precautions and procedures. Sensor contains a location device as a further safety element. |

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|----------|--|--|---|---|---|---|-----------------------|-------------------------------|---|---|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| 6c np | Polytechnic University of Bucharest (Romania) <i>Tudose, D.S., Patrascu, T.A., Voinescu, A., Tataroiu, R., Tapus, N.</i> | <i>Mobile sensors in air pollution measurement</i> http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=5961035&isnumber=5960999 | Thick film metal oxide semi- conductor sensors (from Figaro) | (Mobile Unit) | CO, NO _x , hydrocarb ons, NH ₄ , H ₂ S, gasoline and diesel exhaust, natural gas, propane, CH ₄ , CO ₂ | CO ₂ : 350-10,000 ppm (1.5 min) NO _x : 0.3-10 ppm (30 sec) CO, HC: 10-10,000 ppm (30 sec) NH ₄ : 50-300 ppm (2 min) | 30-120 sec | Portable, car interface | Users are able to select different gases and view concentrations overlaying a map of the city. Publicly accessible through on-line web interface. GPRS connection for computer transfer. GPS capable. Temporary memory buffer periodically relayed to a central on-line repository. Real- time web-interface (Vehicle-mounted unit) | This unit is meant to be embedded in a car and relies on the car's power supply. Information on current pollution readings could be provided to the driver. Various sensor 'plugs' would be available to attach to the device based on user preference. Device can be connected to any commercially available memory card via a SD card Interface. |
| 7c np | Dublin City University (Ireland) <i>Beirne, S., Kiernan, B., Fay, C., Foley, C., Corcoran, B., Smeaton, A.F., Diamond, D.</i> (Funding: Environmental Protection Agency, Ireland, and SFI) | <i>Autonomous greenhouse gas measurement system for analysis of gas migration on landfill sites</i> [2009, IEEE] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=5439422&isnumber=5439372 | Spectros- copy, IR | Sensors from Dynament Ltd. CO ₂ = IRCEL-CO ₂ , CH ₄ = IRCEL-CH ₄ , Humidity sensor from Honeywell (HIH-4000-001), Temperature sensor from Thermometrics (DKF103N5) | CH ₄ , CO ₂ | 0-100% volume | | | Fully automated. Short range: communication to laptop Long range: Bluetooth. Data are sent in SMS format Yes (Fixed/semi- portable unit) | Investigates an autonomous gas sensing platform prototype for monitoring gases as an alternative to current manual monitoring practices at landfills. IR gas sensors integrated into a bespoke platform are fully automated and take measurements twice daily from borehole wells. The sampling chamber contains four sensors: IR gas sensors for CO ₂ and CH ₄ , a humidity sensor, and a temperature sensor. The system was not yet optimized for energy efficiency. Because of the connection to Bluetooth network, landfill operators can be alerted if CH ₄ or CO ₂ concentration flares occur. Powered by a 12V 7Ah lead acid battery (system sustained for 7 wks, with 2 sampling cycles/day). |

| ID | Organization Author (Funding) | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|--|---|---|--|--|------------------------------------|---|--|---|--|--|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| 8c np | Dong-Eui University Industry-Academic Cooperation Foundation Yun Sik Yu; Jae Cheon Sohn | <i>Apparatus for Measuring Methane Gas Emission Amount in Case of Ruminant Respiration</i> http://www.wipo.int/patentscope/search/en/detail.jsf?docId=KR30060407&recNum=1&docAn=1020090104099&queryString=FP:(1020110047462)&maxRec=1 | | | CH ₄ | | | Mask | (Wearable) | Mask comprised of a methane gas detection module and a volume meter for measuring the amount of air emitted during ruminant respiration. Detection module is comprised of an inlet and outlet, with a gas sensor mounted in between. |
| Reference Commercial Sensor | | | | | | | | | | |
| 9C | Picarro | https://picarro.box.com/shared/zsg6r84mka | Cavity ring-down spec- troscopy | <i>PICARRO G2204 Methane and Hydrogen Sulfide Analyzer</i> | CH ₄ , H ₂ S | (requires air-like matrix) Precision (5.0 s): 2 ppb Range: 0-3 ppm specifications guaranteed; 0-20 ppm operating range | Interval: 5 sec Rise/ fall: <5.0 sec | 17" w x 7" h x 17.5" d, 46 lbs and separate external pump: 7.5" w x 4" h x 11" d, 10 lbs | Delivers real-time data to Google Earth plume maps. Reported to identify plume origins down to specific buildings. | This sensor can be benchtop or rack-mounted. Operational temperature is 10-35°C, and storage temperature is -10-50°C. Sensor power requirements are as follows: 10-240 VAC, 47-63 Hz (auto-sensing), <260 w start-up (total); 110 W (analyzer), 35 W (pump) at steady state. Maximum drift over 8 hours is reported as <4 ppb. Reported to take continuous readings at 65 mph with 30 readings per minute. |
| Lead | | | | | | | | | | |
| Novel Sensor System Using Commercial Sensor | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) Harper, M., Pacolay, B., Hintz, P., Bartley, D.L., Slaven, J.E., Andrew, M.E. | http://www.cdc.gov/niosh/mining/pubs/pdfs/pxaoo.pdf | X-ray fluores- cence (XRF) | X-ray fluorescence analyzer | Pb | 0-5,000 µg/m ³ | 4 min | Portable | | Airborne lead is collected on sample filters that are then presented to the XRF analyzer; this system has been tested in industrial environments, including mining, manufacturing, and recycling. |
| Reference Commercial Sensor | | | | | | | | | | |
| C2 | Pall Corporation | http://www.pall.com/main/OEM-Media-Membranes-and-Materials/Product.page?id=54709 | Reel- to-reel (RTR), XRF | <i>(Xact 625 Monitoring System - Fence-Line Monitor (FLM))</i> | Pb | 10 pg/m ³ to 57 µg/m ³ | ~20 sec | 2 ft x 2 ft x 4 ft | (Fixed/semi- portable unit) | Continuous sensing, designed for use near fencelines of industrial facilities and in complex urban environments; power requirement: 120 VAC/60 Hz at 20 amps. |

| ID | Organization <i>Author (Funding)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|--|--|---|----------------------------------|--|---|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|--|---|--|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| Particulate Matter (PM) | | | | | | | | | | |
| Detection Technique: Chemistry | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 np | United States Patent Application Publication US 2012/0059598 A1 Yokoi, S., Sakurai, T. | Particulate matter detection device [2012, Patent application] http://www.freepatentsonline.com/y2012/0059598.html | Electro-chemical, potentiometric | Measuring ion current of charged particulate matter using a pair of electrodes by applying voltage signal and measuring electric characteristics (Particulate Matter Detection Device) | PM | | | | | Detects particulate matter in air/exhaust. |
| Detection Technique: Nanoparticle Condensation | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2 np | University of Cincinnati Son, S.Y. | Water vapor uptake on aerosol particles – determination of condensation coefficient of water on nanoparticles under forced convection conditions [2011] http://aaarabstracts.com/2011/viewabstract.php?paper=568 | Nano-particles | Promotes droplet growth by heterogeneous condensation on nanoparticles. | PM ₁ | | | | Not indicated (Mountable) | Water kept at an elevated temperature forms supersaturated conditions inside a porous chamber, where an air stream carries through nanoparticles. The nanoparticles are exposed to the supersaturated conditions and grow, and can then be accounted for using numerical investigations. |
| Detection Technique: Spectroscopy | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3 np | University of Nevada – Reno, College of Science; with Desert Research Institute; commercialized by Droplet Measurement Technology of Boulder, CO Arnott, P., Arnold, I. | TTO licenses Arnott's next-gen air quality monitor [March 2011] http://www.unr.edu/nevada-today/news/2011/tto-licenses-arnotts-next-gen-air-quality-monitor | Photo-acoustic | System includes lasers, mirrors, flexible tubes, and wires (Photoacoustic Extinctionmeter (PAX)) | PM, aerosols relevant for climate change and visibility | | | Suitcase size, 20 lb (down from 80 lb) | (Fixed/semi-portable unit) | Beta-versions are in use by researchers at LBL and Bay Area Air Quality District, Max Planck Institute for Chemistry in Europe, and Mexico City; Droplet aims to produce many more that will be a fraction of the cost to users. (Researchers are working on developing a “truly miniature device that may find use as an on-board sensor for real-time black carbon air pollution emission control”.) |

| ID | Organization <i>Author (Funding)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|--|---|---|--|---|---|--|-----------------------|----------|---|---|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| 4 np | Utah State University, University of Iowa; Space Dynamics Laboratory (SDL) (Utah) <i>Hipps, L., Silva, P., (UT State); Zavyalov, V.V., Wilkerson, T., Bingham, G.E. (SDL), and others (Funding: USDA)</i> | http://www.sdl.usu.edu/programs/aglite ; http://www.ars.usda.gov/is/AR/archive/aug06/ames0806.pdf | LIDAR | Scanning 3-colorlidar LIDAR FTIR (Aglite) | PM and gases, including NH ₃ , H ₂ S, NO _x | | | Suitcase | (Remote sensing) | Has been used to monitor an entire CAFO facility (e.g., swine finishing) and others sources, including multiple diffuse source dairy, cotton gin, and almond harvesting. The goal is to measure the amount of CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O, and other greenhouse gases released from soil into the atmosphere and determine how different crop- and soil-management methods affect these exchanges. |
| 5 np | Thermo Scientific <i>K. Goohs, J. Hiss, M. Rossmesl, D. Kita</i> | <i>A hybrid method for PM CEMS</i> AAAR Conference 2009 (presentation) http://stratusllc.com/uploads/PM_CEMS_White_Paper.pdf | Light scattering | | PM | | | | (Fixed/semi-portable unit) | Introduces a light-scattering configuration with continuous mass referencing for source emissions and ambient air monitoring applications. Light scattering demonstrates potential for continuous PM monitoring because it can configure to measure an angle relative to the applicable light source and it is sensitive enough to measure most size particles within a plume. |
| Novel Sensor Systems Using Commercial Sensors | | | | | | | | | | |
| c6 | Jackson State University <i>Anjaneyulu, Y.</i> Jawaharlal Nehru Technological University <i>Jayakumar, I., Bindu, V.H.</i> Andhra Pradesh Pollution Control Board <i>Ramani, K.V.</i> Spectrochem Instruments <i>Rao, T.H.</i> | <i>Real time remote monitoring of air pollutants and their online transmission to the web using internet protocol</i> [2007, Environ Monit Assess, 124:371-381] http://cardiff.academia.edu/AGARESWARGUMMENENI/Papers/922566/ | Electro-chemical, PM analyzer various commercial | R&P series 1400a TEOM (Real Time Remote Monitoring System) | SO ₂ , NO, NO ₂ , CO, O ₃ , H ₂ S, PM ₁₀ , PM _{2.5} , hydrocarbons, mercaptans CO: Indicated range: 0-100 ppm | Varies per pollutant, within 0-200 ppm, or 0-50 µg/m ³ (mercaptans) | 30 or 60 min | | Ethernet network module, uploading to webpage (Remote sensing) | This device is a remotely monitored detection system. It can be run on a 12V battery. The pollution sensors can be set to collect data every 30 or 60 minutes depending on user preference and weather conditions. Also measures environmental parameters such as temperature and humidity. |

| ID | Organization Author (Funding) | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|-------------------------------------|---|---|---------------------------|--|---|---|-----------------------|---------|---|---|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| c7 | Bogor Agricultural University (Indonesia) <i>Azis, M., Rustami, E., Maulina, W., Rahmat, M., Alatas, H., Seminar, K.</i> (Funding/support: <i>Beasiswa Unggulan Terpadu – Education Ministry of Republic of Indonesia, and various Departments in Bogor Agricultural University</i>) | <i>Measuring air pollutant standard index (ISPU) with photonics crystal sensor based on wireless sensor network (WSN)</i> [2011, IEEE, International Conference on Instrumentation, Communication, Information Technology, and Biomedical Engineering, (Indonesia)] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=6108656&isnumber=6108578 | Optical, photonic crystal | (Sensor developed from previous research at this institution) | CO, SO ₂ , NO ₂ , O ₃ , PM ₁₀ | | | | WSN, desktop and web applications to display data in real time and non-real time. (Fixed/semi-portable unit) | Investigates use of information systems of the air pollutant standard index and photonics crystal sensors to monitor air pollution and collect data by wireless communication. |
| c8 np | NASA-Glenn Research Center <i>Greenberg, P.S., Hyatt, M.J.</i> | <i>Instrumentation and sensor technologies for the measurement and detection of lunar dust</i> [2009, IEEE] http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=4839566&isnumber=4839294&tag=1 | | | PM (lunar dust) | | | | (Mountable) | Study conducted because appropriate sensor and detection technologies for lunar dust are unavailable. |
| c9 np | Stanford University <i>Acevedo-Bolton, V. Klepeis, N.E., Jiang, R. Cheng, K., Ott, W.R., Hildemann, L.M.</i> | <i>Employee and patron exposure to pollutants in a Northern California casino</i> ISES 2009 (poster) | | Stationary sensors and portable sensors place on different employees | PM _{2.5} , real-time PM _{2.5} , nicotine, cotinine, PAH, ultrafine particles, CO ₂ | | | | | Sensors tracked the amount of contaminants in the air of a California casino and used gathered data and patron counts to estimate the air change rates over time. A mass balance model was used to evaluate how the data on nicotine correlated with the indoor PM _{2.5} measurements. |
| Reference Commercial Sensors | | | | | | | | | | |
| C 10 | Thermo Fisher Scientific | http://thermoscientific.com/ecom/servlet/productsdetail_11152_L11036_89583_11961321_-1 | Gravimetric | (<i>pDR-1500, personal DataRAM Aerosol Monitor</i>) | PM particle size of maximum response 0.1-10 µm | Indicated range: 0.001 to 400 mg/m ³ | 1 sec | Shoebox | (Fixed/semi-portable unit) | Requires 70 to 450 mA in run mode, 32 mA in ready mode. |

| ID | Organization <i>Author (Funding)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Re- sponse Time | Size | Automation and Network Capability | Application and Operation Notes |
|---------|---|---|---|---|--|---|-----------------------|--------------------------|---|---|
| | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | | | |
| C 11 | Thermo Scientific | http://www.thermo.com/eThermo/CMA/PDFs/Product/productPDF_3275.pdf | Filter dynamics measurement system (FDMS), tapered element oscillating micro-balance (TEOM) mass sensor | (<i>Thermo Scientific Ambient Particulate Monitor TEOM® 1405-DF</i>) | PM ₁₀ and PM _{2.5} | 0 to 1,000,000 µg/m ³ resolution: 0.1 µg/m ³ , precision: 2.0 µg/m ³ (1-hr avg), 1.0 µg/m ³ (24-hour avg), accuracy for mass measurement 0.75% | 6 min | 17 in. x 19 in. x 55 in. | (Fixed/semi-portable unit) | This device is made for indoor and commercial readings of ambient PM concentrations even in the presence of volatile materials. It requires between 47 and 63 Hz of power to operate. |
| C 12 | Enviro Technology Services plc | http://www.et.co.uk/products/air-quality-monitoring/particulate-monitoring/opsis-sm200-beta-attenuation-particulate-monitor-gravimetric-sampler/ | Geiger counter | (<i>OPSIS SM200 Beta-attenuation Particulate Monitor / Gravimetric Sampler</i>) | PM ₁₀ and PM _{2.5} | 0.5 µg/m ³ to 1,000 µg/m ³ | 1-24 hr | | (Fixed/semi-portable unit) | Primarily used for modern monitoring stations. Uses 800 W of power and has a long cycle period of sampling. |

^a This table highlights sensor technologies/techniques reported in selected conference proceedings, poster abstracts, peer-reviewed journals, and university and other organization (e.g., company) web pages; at the time of the publications reviewed, these sensors were in the research and development stage. Also included are two types of commercial sensors: (a) those that are part of a novel sensing system ("Sensor Systems Using Commercial Sensors" as appropriate), and (b) representative standard sensors that serve as points of comparison ("Reference Commercial Sensor"). Research focused only on networks, architecture, or mobile applications for mobile sensors that do not identify a specific sensor or technology/technique are not included in this table.

The table is organized by pollutant, starting with the four criteria pollutant gases (shaded green), followed by four additional gases (shaded pink), and then the two particulate criteria pollutants (shaded yellow). This organization results in some sensors being repeated because they can detect multiple pollutants. Within each pollutant section, the entries are further grouped by general detection technique, in order of decreasing sensitivity (i.e., most sensitive listed first). Sensors without reported detection capabilities are listed at the end of the technology category.

The ID (identifier) in the left column corresponds to the sensor boxes plotted on the benchmark-sensor arrays. Note that only sensors with reported detection levels appear on those arrays; np = not plotted. c = commercial sensor used in a novel detection system; C = standard commercial sensor included for comparison.

A number of acronyms and abbreviations are defined within the entries; others are provided in the notations section at the front of this report.

TABLE E-2 Additional Recent Literature for Mobile Sensors for Air Pollutants^a

| # | Sort Codes | | | Organization <i>Author (Sponsor)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Response/ Recovery Time | Application and Operation Context |
|--------------|------------------------------|------------|---|---|--|----------------------------|--|--|-------------------------------------|--|---|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | |
| Acetaldehyde | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | ac eta lde hy de | C | | Universidade de Sao Paulo (Brazil) <i>Li, R.W.C., et al. (FAPESP and CNPq)</i> | <i>Low cost selective sensor for carbonyl compounds in air based on a novel conductive poly(p-xylene) derivative</i> [2009, Materials Science and Engineering C. 29(1):426-429] | Conduc- ting polymer | Poly(p-xylene) (PPX) doped with CSA (camphor sulfonic acid) | Acetaldehyde, benzaldehyde, acetone, butanone (shows good discrimination) | | Response: 2 sec recovery: <10 sec | No significant drift of the background conductance after several exposures. Power consumption: <1 μW. Demonstrated good reproducibility over 20 repetitive exposure/recovery cycles. Sensors have been tested for more than 3 months and still respond well. No change in conductance in the presence of humidity (due to hydrophobic characteristics of the polymer). Total sensor cost: <\$1. Operates at room temperature. |
| E-nose | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | ac eta lde hy de | e- nose | | Semiconductor Physics Institute (Lithuania), University of Brescia (Italy) <i>Setkus, A., et al. (WOUNDMONITOR)</i> | <i>Analysis of the dynamic features of metal oxide sensors in response to SPME fiber gas release</i> [2010, Sensors and Actuators B. 146(2):539-544] | MOS | Metal oxide (MOx) sensor array | VOCs, specifically those emitted from infected wounds (acetone, acetic acid, acetaldehyde, and butyric acid) | 3-4 ppm | | Time-dependent release of VOCs from a solid phase micro-extraction (SPME) fiber. |
| Acetic acid | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | ac eti c aci d | C | | Ehime University (Japan), National Institute for Materials Science (Japan) <i>Mori, M., et al. (Japan Science and Technology Agency)</i> | <i>Detection of sub-ppm level of VOCs based on a Pt/YSZ/Pt potentiometric oxygen sensor with reference air</i> [2009, Sensors and Actuators B. 143(1):56-61] | Potential- metric | Pt/YSZ/Pt (platinum/yttria-stabilized zirconia/platinum) structure | VOCs, specifically acetic acid, methyl ethyl ketone, ethanol, benzene, toluene, o- and p-xylene | Sub-ppm | Ethanol response: 4-204 sec (quickest for 0.5 ppm at 500°C) recovery: 190-480 sec (quickest for 1 ppm at 500°C) | 400-500°C, highest response at 400°C. Increased temperatures decreased sensitivity but modified response and recovery times. Analysis of multidimensional plots of sensor output at various temperatures suggests possible selective sensing of different VOCs. |

| # | Sort Codes | | | Organization <i>Author (Sponsor)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Response/ Recovery Time | Application and Operation Context |
|----------|-------------|--------|---|--|--|-------------------|---|--|-------------------------------------|--|---|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | |
| E-nose | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | acetic acid | e-nose | | Semiconductor Physics Institute (Lithuania), University of Brescia (Italy) <i>Setkus, A., et al. (WOUNDMONITOR)</i> | <i>Analysis of the dynamic features of metal oxide sensors in response to SPME fiber gas release</i> [2010, Sensors and Actuators B. 146(2):539-544] | Metal oxide | MOx sensor array | VOCs, emitted from infected wounds (acetone, acetic acid, acetaldehyde, and butyric acid) | 3-4 ppm | | Time dependent release of VOCs from a SPME fiber. |
| Acetone | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | acetone | C | | Donghua University (China), Leibniz Institute of Polymer Research Dresden (Germany) <i>Fan, Q., et al. (Shanghai Pujiang Program, State Key Laboratory of Chemical Fibers and Polymer Materials, Doctorate Innovation Foundation of Donghua University, and the National Natural Science Foundation for Distinguished Young Scholar of China)</i> | <i>Vapor sensing properties of thermoplastic polyurethane multifilament covered with carbon nanotube networks</i> [2011, Sensors and Actuators B. 156(1):63-70] | Nano-materials | Thermoplastic polyurethane multifilament – carbon nanotubes (TPU-CNTs) composite (conductive polymer) | VOCs, specifically benzene, toluene, CHCl ₃ , THF, ethanol, acetone, and methanol | | Response: 10 sec to 50% max relative resistance recovery: begins 3-5 sec after injection of dry air | |

| # | Sort Codes | | | Organization <i>Author (Sponsor)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Response/ Recovery Time | Application and Operation Context |
|---|-----------------|---|---|---|--|-------------------------------|--|--|-------------------------------------|--|---|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | |
| | ac eto ne | C | | Islamic Azad University (Iran), K. N. Toosi University of Technology (Iran) <i>Amini, A., Ghafarinia, V.</i> | <i>Utilizing the response patterns of a temperature modulated chemoresistive gas sensor for gas diagnosis</i> [2011, IOP Conf. Ser.: Mater. Sci. Eng. 17 012408] | Commer- cial (modified) | Staircase heating voltage waveform applied to micro-heater for SnO ₂ gas sensor. | Acetone, 1-butanol, ethanol, methanol | Tested: 50-1700 ppm | | Operation between 50 and 400°C yielded unique vectors for methanol, ethanol, 1-butanol, and acetone, suggesting potential for selectivity. The sensor was exposed for five 40-sec segments. |
| | ac eto ne | C | | Shivaji University (India), Chonnam National University (South Korea), Solapur University (India) <i>Pawar, R.C., et al. (University Grants Commission, New Delhi)</i> | <i>Surfactant assisted low temperature synthesis of nanocrystalline ZnO and its gas sensing properties.</i> [2010, Sensors and Actuators B. 151(1):212-218] | Nano- materials | Vertically aligned ZnO nanorods on glass (MOS) | Acetone, ammonia, liquefied petroleum gas (LPG), ethanol | Tested: 2000 ppm | | High sensitivity for acetone. Low operating temperature (tested 200-450°C). Optimal sensitivity and response time at 275°C. |
| | ac eto ne | C | | University of Massachusetts Lowell <i>Li, X., et al. (National Science Foundation)</i> | <i>Fabrication and integration of metal oxide nanowire sensors using dielectrophoretic assembly and improved post-assembly processing</i> [2010, Sensors and Actuators B. 148(2):404-412] | MOS nanowires | Metal oxide nanowires (indium, tin, and indium-tin). Dielectrophoretic (DEP) assembly onto interdigitated micro-electrodes | Acetone, chloroform, ethanol, methanol, propanol, and benzene. | 1 ppm (potentially ppb) | Response: 10 sec recovery: 8-10 min | Good repeatability, however, recovery time increases when exposed to greater concentrations of substance. No response to 1500 ppm was observed below 200°C; performance was enhanced when 440°C was reached. Determined that further optimization of ITO composition may improve sensitivity and selectivity of the sensors. Oxygenated organic compounds cause a higher response than aromatic or chlorinated compounds. |

| # | Sort Codes | | | Organization <i>Author (Sponsor)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Response/ Recovery Time | Application and Operation Context |
|---------------|-----------------|------------|---|---|--|----------------------------|---|---|-------------------------------------|--|---|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | |
| | ac eto ne | C | | Universidade de Sao Paulo (Brazil) <i>Li, R.W.C., et al.</i> (FAPESP and CNPq) | <i>Low cost selective sensor for carbonyl compounds in air based on a novel conductive poly(p- xylene) derivative</i> [2009, Materials Science and Engineering C. 29(1):426-429] | Conduc- ting polymer | Poly(p-xylene) (PPX) doped with CSA | Acetaldehyde, benzaldehyde, acetone, butanone (shows good discrimination) | | Response: 2 sec recovery: <10 sec | No significant drift of the background conductance was observed after several exposures. Power consumption: <1 µW. Good reproducibility over 20 repetitive exposure/recovery cycles. Sensors have been tested for more than 3 months and still respond well. No change in conductance in the presence of humidity (due to hydrophobic characteristics of the polymer). Total sensor cost: <\$1. Operates at room temperature. |
| E-nose | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | ac eto ne | e- nose | | Saratov State Technical University (Russia), Southern Illinois University at Carbondale, Northeastern University <i>Sysoev, V.V., et al.</i> (Fullbright scholarship and RFBR grant and NSF) | <i>The electrical characterization of a multi-electrode odor detection sensor array based on the single SnO₂ nanowire</i> [2011, Thin Solid Films. 520(3):898-903] | e-nose | SnO ₂ wedge-like nanowire, multielectrode odor detection sensor array; functionalized by deposition of Pd nanoparticles | Acetone, 2-propanol, CO, and H ₂ | | | Fabricating metal oxide single crystals in shape of nanowires is cost effective. |
| | ac eto ne | e- nose | | Semiconductor Physics Institute (Lithuania), University of Brescia (Italy) <i>Setkus, A., et al.</i> (WOUNDMONIT OR) | <i>Analysis of the dynamic features of metal oxide sensors in response to SPME fiber gas release</i> [2010, Sensors and Actuators B. 146(2):539-544] | e-nose | MOx sensor array | VOCs, specifically those emitted from infected wounds (acetone, acetic acid, acetaldehyde, and butyric acid) | 3-4 ppm | | Time-dependent release of VOCs from a SPME fiber. |

| # | Sort Codes | | | Organization <i>Author (Sponsor)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Response/ Recovery Time | Application and Operation Context |
|----------|------------|---|---|---|--|-------------------|---|---|---|--|---|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | |
| Ammonia | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | NH 3 | C | | ENEA (Italy) <i>Penza, M., et al.</i> | <i>Functional characterization of carbon nanotube networked films functionalized with tuned loading of Au nanoclusters for gas sensing applications</i> [2009, Sensors and Actuators B. 140(1):176-184] | Chemi-resistor | Gold functionalized CNTs | NO ₂ , NH ₃ , CO, N ₂ O, H ₂ S, SO ₂ | Sub-ppm: NO ₂ , H ₂ S and NH ₃ 200 ppb NO ₂ Negligible response for CO, N ₂ O, and SO ₂ | | Operational temperature range is 20-250°C. |
| | NH 3 | C | | Hanoi University of Science and Technology <i>Van Quy, N., et al.</i> | <i>Gas sensing properties at room temperature of a quartz crystal microbalance coated with ZnO nanorods</i> [2011, Sensors and Actuators B. 153(1):188-193] | Nano-materials | Quartz crystal microbalance coated with ZnO nanorods | Ammonia | Tested at 50, 100, and 200 ppm | Response: 226-239 sec recovery: 294-398 sec | High selectivity to NH ₃ over LPG, N ₂ O, CO, NO ₂ , and CO ₂ . Mechanism appears reversible when flushed with air. Good reproducibility (same response over 3 cycles) and high stability are reported. |
| | NH 3 | C | | Kyushu University (Japan), Japan Society for the Promotion of Sciences (Japan) <i>Plashnitsa, V.V., et al.</i> <i>(MEXT, The Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research on Priority Area, Nanoionics)</i> | <i>Zirconia-based electrochemical gas sensors using nano-structured sensing materials aiming at detection of automotive exhausts</i> [2009, Electrochimica Acta. 54(25):6099-6106] | Potentiometric | YSZ-based planar sensors using nano-structured sensing electrodes | Ammonia, NO ₂ , CO, CH ₄ , C ₃ H ₈ , C ₃ H ₆ , NO | Highly selective at 20-200 ppm | | This sensor may be appropriate for harsh environments (600°C) such as automotive exhausts. Sensing characteristics (sensitivity, response time, recovery time) are dependent on sputtering time of Au sensing electrodes. |

| # | Sort Codes | | | Organization <i>Author (Sponsor)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Response/ Recovery Time | Application and Operation Context |
|---------------|------------|-----------|---|--|--|-------------------|---|--|-------------------------------------|--|--|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | |
| | NH 3 | c | | Shivaji University (India), Chonnam National University (South Korea), Solapur University (India) <i>Pawar, R.C., et al. (University Grants Commission, New Delhi)</i> | <i>Surfactant assisted low temperature synthesis of nanocrystalline ZnO and its gas sensing properties.</i> [2010, Sensors and Actuators B. 151(1):212-218] | Nano-materials | Vertically aligned ZnO nanorods on glass (MOS) | Acetone, ammonia, LPG, ethanol | Tested: 2000 ppm | | High sensitivity for acetone. Low operating temperature (tested 200-450°C). Best sensitivity and response achieved at 275°C. |
| | NH 3 | C | | Solid State Physics Laboratory (India) <i>Raj, V.B., et al. (University Grants Commission, DST and Defense Research and Development Organization)</i> | <i>Cross-sensitivity and selectivity studies on ZnO surface acoustic wave ammonia sensor</i> [2010, Sensors and Actuators B. 2(3):517-524] | SAW | ZnO coated one-port SAW | Ammonia (cross sensitivity analyzed for VOCs) | Tested: 590-120,000 ppm | 90% response in 20 sec | Ammonia can be distinguished from other tested gases by examining the direction of frequency shift (positive for ammonia and negative for the rest of the test gases). Good sensitivity, selectivity, reversibility, and repeatability. Tested sensor detected ammonia in humid environments without degrading sensor performance. |
| E-nose | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | NH 3 | enos e | | Chinese Academy of Sciences (China), Anhui Polytechnic University (China) <i>Meng, F.-L., et al. (Chinese Academy of Sciences, National Natural Science Foundation of China, National Basic Research Program of China, Anhui Provincial Natural Science Foundation)</i> | <i>Electronic chip based on self-oriented carbon nanotube microelectrode array to enhance the sensitivity of indoor air pollutants capacitive detection</i> [2011, Sensors and Actuators B. 153(1):103-109] | e-nose | Electronic chip with self-oriented CNT microelectrode array | Formaldehyde (best response), toluene (lowest response), ammonia | | Response: "tens of seconds" recovery: slowest for toluene | Use of self-oriented CNTs reduces noise and less response to water (weak adsorption between CNTs and water molecules). |

| # | Sort Codes | | | Organization <i>Author (Sponsor)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Response/ Recovery Time | Application and Operation Context |
|----------|------------|---|---|--|--|-------------------|---|---|-------------------------------------|--|---|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description <i>(Name)</i> | | | | |
| Benzene | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | benzene | C | | Donghua University (China), Leibniz Institute of Polymer Research Dresden (Germany) <i>Fan, Q., et al. (Shanghai Pujiang Program, State Key Laboratory of Chemical Fibers and Polymer Materials, Doctorate Innovation Foundation of Donghua University, and the National Natural Science Foundation for Distinguished Young Scholar of China)</i> | <i>Vapor sensing properties of thermoplastic polyurethane multifilament covered with carbon nanotube networks</i> [2011, Sensors and Actuators B. 156(1):63-70] | Nano-materials | Thermoplastic polyurethane multifilament – carbon nanotubes (TPU-CNTs) composite (conductive polymer) | VOCs, specifically benzene, toluene, CHCl ₃ , THF, ethanol, acetone, and methanol | | Response: 10 sec to 50% max relative resistance recovery: begins 3-5 sec after injection of dry air | |
| | benzene | C | | Ehime University (Japan), National Institute for Materials Science (Japan) <i>Mori, M., et al. (Japan Science and Technology Agency)</i> | <i>Detection of sub-ppm level of VOCs based on a Pt/YSZ/Pt potentiometric oxygen sensor with reference air</i> [2009, Sensors and Actuators B. 143(1):56-61] | Potentiometric | Pt YSZ Pt structure | VOCs, specifically acetic acid, methyl ethyl ketone, ethanol, benzene, toluene, o- and p-xylene | Sub-ppm | Ethanol response: 4-204 sec (quickest for 0.5 ppm at 500°C) recovery: 190-480 sec (quickest for 1 ppm at 500°C) | 400-500°C, highest response at 400°C. Increased temperatures decreased sensitivity and modified response and recovery times. Analysis of multidimensional plots of sensor output at various temperatures suggests possible selective sensing of different VOCs. |

| # | Sort Codes | | | Organization <i>Author (Sponsor)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Response/ Recovery Time | Application and Operation Context |
|---------------------|--------------|---|---|---|--|-----------------------|--|---|-------------------------------------|--|---|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | |
| | benzene | C | | University of Massachusetts Lowell <i>Li, X., et al. (National Science Foundation)</i> | <i>Fabrication and integration of metal oxide nanowire sensors using dielectrophoretic assembly and improved post-assembly processing</i> [2010, Sensors and Actuators B. 148(2):404-412] | MOS nanowires | Metal oxide nanowires (indium, tin, and indium-tin). Dielectrophoretic (DEP) assembly onto interdigitated micro-electrodes | Acetone, chloroform, ethanol, methanol, propanol, and benzene. | 1 ppm (potentially ppb) | Response: 10 sec recovery: 8-10 min | Good repeatability, however, recovery time increases when exposed to greater concentrations of substance. No response to 1500 ppm was observed below 200°C; performance was enhanced when 440°C was reached. Further optimization of ITO composition may improve sensitivity and selectivity of the sensors. Oxygenated organic compounds cause a higher response than aromatic or chlorinated compounds. |
| Benzaldehyde | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | benzaldehyde | C | | Universidade de Sao Paulo (Brazil) <i>Li, R.W.C., et al. (FAPESP and CNPq)</i> | <i>Low cost selective sensor for carbonyl compounds in air based on a novel conductive poly(p-xylylene) derivative</i> [2009, Materials Science and Engineering C. 29(1):426-429] | Conducting polymer | Poly(p-xylylene) (PPX) doped with CSA | Acetaldehyde, benzaldehyde, acetone, butanone (shows good discrimination) | | Response: 2 sec recovery: <10 sec | No significant drift of the background conductance after several exposures. Power consumption: <1 µW. Good reproducibility over 20 repetitive exposure/ recovery cycles. Sensors have been tested for more than 3 months and still respond well. No change in conductance in the presence of humidity (due to hydrophobic characteristics of the polymer). Total estimated sensor cost: <\$1. Operates at room temperature. |
| 1-Butanol | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 1-butanol | C | | Islamic Azad University (Iran), K. N. Toosi University of Technology (Iran) <i>Amini, A., Ghafarinia, V.</i> | <i>Utilizing the response patterns of a temperature modulated chemoresistive gas sensor for gas diagnosis</i> [2011, IOP Conf. Ser.: Mater. Sci. Eng. 17 012408] | Commercial (modified) | Staircase heating voltage waveform applied to micro-heater for SnO ₂ gas sensor. | Acetone, 1-butanol, ethanol, methanol | Tested: 50-1700 ppm | | Operation between 50 and 400°C yielded unique vectors for methanol, ethanol, 1-butanol, and acetone, suggesting potential for selectivity. The sensor was exposed for five 40-sec segments. |

| # | Sort Codes | | | Organization <i>Author (Sponsor)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Response/ Recovery Time | Application and Operation Context |
|-----------------|--------------|--------|---|--|--|--------------------|-------------------------------------|--|---|--------------------------------------|---|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description <i>(Name)</i> | | | | |
| Butanone | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | butanone | C | | Universidade de Sao Paulo (Brazil) <i>Li, R.W.C., et al. (FAPESP and CNPq)</i> | <i>Low cost selective sensor for carbonyl compounds in air based on a novel conductive poly(p-xylene) derivative</i> [2009, Materials Science and Engineering C. 29(1):426-429] | Conducting polymer | Poly(p-xylene) (PPX) doped with CSA | Acetaldehyde, benzaldehyde, acetone, butanone (shows good discrimination) | | Response: 2 sec recovery: <10 sec | No significant drift of the background conductance after several exposures. Power consumption: <1 µW. Good reproducibility over 20 repetitive exposure/ recovery cycles. Sensors have been tested for more than 3 months and still respond well. No change in conductance in the presence of humidity (due to hydrophobic characteristics of the polymer). Total sensor cost: <\$1. Operates at room temperature. |
| Butyric acid | | | | | | | | | | | |
| E-nose | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | butyric acid | e-nose | | Semiconductor Physics Institute (Lithuania), University of Brescia (Italy) <i>Setkus, A., et al. (WOUNDMONITOR)</i> | <i>Analysis of the dynamic features of metal oxide sensors in response to SPME fiber gas release</i> [2010, Sensors and Actuators B. 146(2):539-544] | Metal oxide (MOx) | MOx sensor array | VOCs, specifically those emitted from infected wounds (acetone, acetic acid, acetaldehyde, and butyric acid) | 3-4 ppm | | Time-dependent release of VOCs from a SPME fiber. |
| Carbon monoxide | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | CO | C | | ENEA (Italy) <i>Penza, M., et al.</i> | <i>Functional characterization of carbon nanotube networked films functionalized with tuned loading of Au nanoclusters for gas sensing applications</i> [2009, Sensors and Actuators B. 140(1):176-184] | Chemiresistor | Gold functionalized CNTs | NO ₂ , NH ₃ , CO, N ₂ O, H ₂ S, SO ₂ | Sub-ppm: NO ₂ , H ₂ S and NH ₃ 200 ppb NO ₂ negligible response for CO, N ₂ O, and SO ₂ | | Operational temperature: 20-250°C. |

| # | Sort Codes | | | Organization <i>Author (Sponsor)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Response/ Recovery Time | Application and Operation Context |
|---|------------|---|---|---|---|-------------------|--|---|--|--|---|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | |
| | C | C | | Korea University (Republic of Korea) <i>Kim, Y.-S., et al.</i> | <i>CuO nanowire gas sensors for air quality control in automotive cabin</i> [2008, Sensors and Actuators B. 135(1):298-303] | Nano-materials | CuO nanowires grown by thermal oxidation of Cu foil. P-type oxide semiconductor | CO, NO ₂ | Tested: 10, 50, 100 ppm CO; 1-5 ppm, 10, 50 and 100 ppm NO ₂ | | Sensor resistance was reported to decrease with NO ₂ concentrations between 30 and 100 ppm, and increase with NO ₂ concentrations between 1 and 5 ppm. Resistance increased with exposure to 10, 50, and 100 ppm of CO. Sensor was tested at 300°C and 370°C, using 300 mW and 400 mW of power, respectively. |
| | C | C | | Kyushu University (Japan), Japan Society for the Promotion of Sciences (Japan) <i>Plashnitsa, V.V., et al.</i> (MEXT, The Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research on Priority Area, Nanoionics) | <i>Zirconia-based electrochemical gas sensors using nano-structured sensing materials aiming at detection of automotive exhausts</i> [2009, Electrochimica Acta. 54(25):6099-6106] | Potentiometric | YSZ-based planar sensors using nano-structured sensing electrodes | Ammonia, NO ₂ , CO, CH ₄ , C ₃ H ₈ , C ₃ H ₆ , NO | Highly selective at 20-200 ppm | | This sensor may be appropriate for harsh environments (600°C) such as automotive exhausts. Sensing characteristics (sensitivity, response time, recovery time) seem to be dependent on sputtering time of Au sensing electrodes. |
| | C | C | | Rosemount Analytical Inc., Kurt-Schwabe Institute for Measuring Sensor Technology (Germany) <i>Shuk, P., et al.</i> (German Federal Ministry of Economics and Rosemont Analytical Inc.) | <i>New advanced in situ carbon monoxide sensor for the process application</i> [2009, International Journal of Ionics. 15(2):131-138] | Potentiometric | Mixed potential solid electrolyte with sensing electrodes based on composite with various semi-conducting oxides | CO (interferents analyzed: CO ₂ , H ₂ O, O ₂ , SO ₂) | ~5 ppm | Response: 25-30 sec at 550°C; 15-20 sec at 650°C | Good reproducibility and stability in hazardous combustion environment (tested at power plant). Sensor demonstrated little to no cross sensitivity to H ₂ O, and no cross sensitivity to CO ₂ ; however, there was cross sensitivity to O ₂ +/-15 ppm. After exposure to 1,000 ppm SO ₂ , CO sensor sensitivity increased by 50%, but response was stable and reproducible. |

| # | Sort Codes | | | Organization <i>Author (Sponsor)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Response/ Recovery Time | Application and Operation Context |
|---------------|------------|--------|---|--|---|-------------------|---|---|---|---------------------------------------|---|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | |
| | C | C | | Shiraz University (Iran), Persian Gulf University (Iran) <i>Javadpour, S., et al.</i> | <i>Morpholine doped poly(3,4-ethylenedioxy) thiophene-poly(styrene-sulfonate) as a low temperature and quick carbon monoxide sensor</i> [2009, Sensors and Actuators B. 142(1):152-158] | Polymer film | Poly(3,4-ethylenedioxy) thiophene-poly(styrene-sulfonate) (PEDOT/PSS thin films). Fe, Al, and morpholine were added | CO | | Response: 5 sec | This thin film was reported to produce a better response and reversibility time than other tested polymer sensing films (PANi or polypyrrole). Un-doped sensor responds more to general air than it does to just CO (50% vs. 2%). Mixture of air and CO results in a better response, but doping appears to improve the sensing capabilities. Combining the polymer with the Fe-Al-morpholine as a doping compound reduced the effect of moisture and improved response to CO (only 5% unstable increase in the resistance). |
| | C | C | | Universitat de Barcelona (Spain), Ecole Nationale Supérieure de Mines de Saint-Etienne (France), Propriétés et Modélisations des Solides (France) <i>Morata, A., et al.</i> | <i>Development and characterisation of a screen-printed mixed potential gas sensor</i> [2008, Sensors and Actuators B. 130(1):561-566] | Potentiometric | Screen printing | CO (in the presence of O ₂ and NO ₂) | Tested: 10, 15, 50, 100, 150, and 200 ppm for CO; 3, 5, 7, and 10 ppm for NO ₂ | 0-3000 sec depending on concentration | Baseline drifts slightly for lower working temperatures. Results show that NO ₂ has a very small effect on the sensors response to CO when both species are introduced together. Sensor response does not vary appreciably after 20 hours of continuous operation. Tested at temperatures ranging from 530 to 580°C. |
| E-nose | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | C | e-nose | | CNR-IMM-Istituto per la Microelettronica ed i Microsistemi, University Campus (Italy), ITC-irst – Microsystems Division, (Italy) <i>Francioso, L., et al.</i> | <i>Linear temperature microhotplate gas sensor array for automotive cabin air quality monitoring</i> [2008, Sensors and Actuators B. 134(2):660-665] | e-nose | MOS, MEMS | CO, NO ₂ , SO ₂ | | | Investigates a temperature gradient electronic nose for increasing sensitivity. Total power consumption below 130 mW with power supplied to voltage heater. Temperature was increased in a 100°C-wide temperature window. Sensor exhibited faster response times for higher temperatures (300-400°C) and higher gas concentrations. Signal was lost when sensor was operated below 280°C. Sensor was exposed to injected gas for 30 minutes, followed by 90 minutes of recovery in dry air. Principal component analysis (PCA) was used to identify and analyze patterns in data. |

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|-------------------------|------------------|--------|---|--|--|-------------------|--|---|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------|--|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | |
| | co | e-nose | | Saratov State Technical University (Russia), Southern Illinois University at Carbondale, Northeastern University Sysoev, V.V., et al. (Fullbright scholarship and RFR grant and NSF) | <i>The electrical characterization of a multi-electrode odor detection sensor array based on the single SnO₂ nanowire</i> [2011, Thin Solid Films. 520(3):898-903] | e-nose | SnO ₂ wedge-like nanowire, multielectrode odor detection sensor array; functionalized by deposition of Pd nanoparticles | Acetone, 2-propanol, CO, and H ₂ | | | Fabricating metal oxide single crystals in shape of nanowires may be cost effective. |
| Carbonyl sulfide | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | carbonyl sulfide | c | | Matheson Tri-Gas Inc. Chase, D., et al. | <i>Pyrolysis-electrochemical sensor for monitoring carbonyl sulfide levels in ambient air</i> [July 1, 2010] http://www.electroiq.com/articles/sst/print/volume-53/issue-7/features/ehs/pyrolysis-electrochemical-sensor.html | Commercial | Honeywell Analytics | Carbonyl sulfide | Tested: 50-100 ppm | | Typical response ranged from 12-14% of the gas depending on humidity. 15% increase in response was observed as relative humidity increased from 1 to 100%. This commercial sensor is typically used to monitor process tools, gas cabinets, valve manifold boxes, ambient air and other areas where gases are generated. |

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|------------|------------------------|---|---|--|--|-------------------|--|--|-------------------------------------|--|---|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | |
| Chloroform | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | chl oro for m | C | | Donghua University (China), Leibniz Institute of Polymer Research Dresden (Germany) <i>Fan, Q., et al. (Shanghai Pujiang Program, State Key Laboratory of Chemical Fibers and Polymer Materials, Doctorate Innovation Foundation of Donghua University, and the National Natural Science Foundation for Distinguished Young Scholar of China)</i> | <i>Vapor sensing properties of thermoplastic polyurethane multifilament covered with carbon nanotube networks</i> [2011, Sensors and Actuators B. 156(1): 63-70] | Nano-materials | Thermoplastic polyurethane multifilament – carbon nanotubes (TPU-CNTs) composite (conductive polymer) | VOCs, specifically benzene, toluene, CHCl ₃ , THF, ethanol, acetone, and methanol | | Response: 10 sec to 50% max relative resistance recovery: begins 3-5 sec after injection of dry air | |
| | chl oro for m | C | | University of Massachusetts Lowell <i>Li, X., et al. (National Science Foundation)</i> | <i>Fabrication and integration of metal oxide nanowire sensors using dielectrophoretic assembly and improved post-assembly processing</i> [2010, Sensors and Actuators B. 148(2):404-412] | MOS nanowires | Metal oxide nanowires (indium, tin, and indium-tin). Dielectrophoretic (DEP) assembly onto interdigitated micro-electrodes | Acetone, chloroform, ethanol, methanol, propanol, and benzene. | 1 ppm (potentially ppb) | Response: 10 sec recovery: 8-10 min | Good repeatability, however, recovery time increases when exposed to greater concentrations of substance. No response to 1500 ppm was observed below 200°C; performance was enhanced when 440°C was reached. Further optimization of ITO composition may improve sensitivity and selectivity of the sensors. Oxygenated organic compounds seem to cause a higher response than aromatic or chlorinated compounds. |

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|----------|------------|---|---|--|--|-------------------|---|---|-------------------------------------|--|---|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description <i>(Name)</i> | | | | |
| Ethanol | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | ethanol | C | | Donghua University (China), Leibniz Institute of Polymer Research Dresden (Germany) <i>Fan, Q., et al. (Shanghai Pujiang Program, State Key Laboratory of Chemical Fibers and Polymer Materials, Doctorate Innovation Foundation of Donghua University, and the National Natural Science Foundation for Distinguished Young Scholar of China)</i> | <i>Vapor sensing properties of thermoplastic polyurethane multifilament covered with carbon nanotube networks</i> [2011, Sensors and Actuators B. 156(1):63-70] | Nano-materials | Thermoplastic polyurethane multifilament – carbon nanotubes (TPU-CNTs) composite (conductive polymer) | VOCs, specifically benzene, toluene, CHCl ₃ , THF, ethanol, acetone, and methanol | | Response: 10 sec to 50% max relative resistance recovery: begins 3-5 sec after injection of dry air | |
| | ethanol | C | | Ehime University (Japan), National Institute for Materials Science (Japan) <i>Mori, M., et al. (Japan Science and Technology Agency)</i> | <i>Detection of sub-ppm level of VOCs based on a Pt/YSZ/Pt potentiometric oxygen sensor with reference air</i> [2009, Sensors and Actuators B. 143(1):56-61] | Potentiometric | Pt YSZ Pt structure | VOCs, specifically acetic acid, methyl ethyl ketone, ethanol, benzene, toluene, o- and p-xylene | Sub-ppm | Ethanol response: 4-204 sec (quickest for 0.5 ppm at 500°C) recovery: 190-480 sec (quickest for 1 ppm at 500°C) | 400-500°C, highest response at 400°C. Increased temperatures decreased sensitivity but modified response and recovery times. Analysis of multidimensional plots of sensor output at various temperatures suggests possible selective sensing of different VOCs. |

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|---|------------|---|---|---|--|-----------------------|--|--|-------------------------------------|--|---|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | |
| | ethanol | C | | Islamic Azad University (Iran), K. N. Toosi University of Technology (Iran) <i>Amini, A., Ghafarinia, V.</i> | <i>Utilizing the response patterns of a temperature modulated chemoresistive gas sensor for gas diagnosis</i> [2011, IOP Conf. Ser.: Mater. Sci. Eng. 17 012408] | Commercial (modified) | Staircase heating voltage waveform applied to micro-heater for SnO ₂ gas sensor. | Acetone, 1-butanol, ethanol, methanol | Tested: 50-1700 ppm | | Operation between 50 and 400°C yielded unique vectors for methanol, ethanol, 1-butanol, and acetone, suggesting potential for selectivity. The sensor was exposed for five 40-sec segments. |
| | ethanol | C | | Shivaji University (India), Chonnam National University (South Korea), Solapur University (India) <i>Pawar, R.C., et al. (University Grants Commission, New Delhi)</i> | <i>Surfactant assisted low temperature synthesis of nanocrystalline ZnO and its gas sensing properties</i> [2010, Sensors and Actuators B. 151(1): 212-218] | Nano-materials | Vertically aligned ZnO nanorods on glass (MOS) | Acetone, ammonia, LPG, ethanol | Tested: 2000 ppm | | High sensitivity for acetone. Low operating temperature (tested 200-450°C). High sensitivity and fast response at 275°C. |
| | ethanol | C | | University of Massachusetts Lowell <i>Li, X., et al. (National Science Foundation)</i> | <i>Fabrication and integration of metal oxide nanowire sensors using dielectrophoretic assembly and improved post-assembly processing</i> [2010, Sensors and Actuators B. 148(2):404-412] | MOS nanowires | Metal oxide nanowires (indium, tin, and indium-tin). Dielectrophoretic (DEP) assembly onto interdigitated micro-electrodes | Acetone, chloroform, ethanol, methanol, propanol, and benzene. | 1 ppm (potentially ppb) | Response: 10 sec recovery: 8-10 min | Good repeatability, however, recovery time increases when exposed to greater concentrations of substance. No response to 1500 ppm was observed below 200°C; performance was enhanced when 440°C was reached. Further optimization of ITO composition may improve sensitivity and selectivity of the sensors. Oxygenated organic compounds seem to cause a higher response than aromatic or chlorinated compounds. |

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|--------------|--------------|-------|---|--|--|-------------------|---|--|-------------------------------------|--|--|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | |
| E-nose | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | ethanol | C | | University of Southern California <i>Chen, P.-C., et al. (National Science Foundation)</i> | <i>A nanoelectronic nose: a hybrid nanowire/carbon nanotube sensor array with integrated micromachined hotplates for sensitive gas discrimination</i> [2009, Nanotechnology. 20(12)] | e-nose | Chemical sensor array composed of individual In ₂ O ₃ nanowires, SnO ₂ nanowires, ZnO nanowires, and SWCNTs with integrated micro-machined hot plates for sensitive gas discrimination | H ₂ , ethanol, NO ₂ | | | Sensor was exposed to three gas injection pulses of different concentrations and compositions, both at room temperature and at 200°C (avoids complications due to moisture interference). The bending energy induced by adsorption is different for different materials, which could allow for gas discrimination in an e-nose system. Sensor behavior was reproducible with small (<1%) error bars. |
| Formaldehyde | | | | | | | | | | | |
| E-nose | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | formaldehyde | enose | | Chinese Academy of Sciences (China), Anhui Polytechnic University (China) <i>Meng, F.-L., et al. (Chinese Academy of Sciences, National Natural Science Foundation of China, National Basic Research Program of China, Anhui Provincial Natural Science Foundation)</i> | <i>Electronic chip based on self-oriented carbon nanotube microelectrode array to enhance the sensitivity of indoor air pollutants capacitive detection</i> [2011, Sensors and Actuators B. 153(1):103-109] | e-nose | Electronic chip with self-oriented CNT microelectrode array | Formaldehyde (best response), toluene (lowest response), ammonia | | Response: "tens of seconds" recovery: slowest for toluene | Use of self-oriented CNTs reduces noise and less response to water (weak adsorption between CNTs and water molecules). |

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|----------|------------|--------|---|--|--|-------------------|--|---------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------|---|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | |
| Hydrogen | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | H2 | C | | Los Alamos National Laboratory, ESL ElectroScience Sekhar, P.K., et al. (DOE office of Vehicle Technologies, DOE Hydrogen Fuel Cell and Infrastructure Programs) | Application of commercial automotive sensor manufacturing methods for NOx/NH3 mixed potential sensors for on-board emissions control [2010, Sensors and Actuators B. 144(1): 112-119] | Potentiometric | ITO/YSZ/Pt configuration (indium tin oxide/yttria-stabilized zirconia/platinum) | H2 | Tested: 1,000-20,000 ppm | Response: 3-7 sec | Responds in real-time to varying concentrations of H2 (1000-20,000 ppm). Cross sensitivity to C3H6 (propylene), but not to NO, NO2, NH3, or CO. Lower power consumption, compact, simple operation, fast response, direct voltage read out, conducive to commercialization. Sensitivity varied between 0.135 and 0.167 V. Baseline signal ranged from 0-0.04 V. |
| E-nose | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | H2 | e-nose | | Saratov State Technical University (Russia), Southern Illinois University at Carbondale, Northeastern University Sysoev, V.V., et al. (Fullbright scholarship and RFBR grant and NSF) | The electrical characterization of a multi-electrode odor detection sensor array based on the single SnO2 nanowire [2011, Thin Solid Films. 520(3):898-903] | Nano-materials | SnO2 wedge-like nanowire, multielectrode odor detection sensor array; functionalized by deposition of Pd nanoparticles | Acetone, 2-propanol, CO, and H2 | | | Fabricating metal oxide single crystals in shape of nanowires may be cost effective. |

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|-------------------------|---------------------|---|---|--|---|-------------------|---|---|--|--|--|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | |
| | H ₂ | C | | University of Southern California <i>Chen, P.-C., et al. (National Science Foundation)</i> | <i>A nanoelectronic nose: a hybrid nanowire/carbon nanotube sensor array with integrated micromachined hotplates for sensitive gas discrimination</i> [2009, Nanotechnology. 20(12)] | e-nose | Chemical sensor array composed of individual In ₂ O ₃ nanowires, SnO ₂ nanowires, ZnO nanowires, and SWCNTs with integrated micro-machined hot plates for sensitive gas discrimination | H ₂ , ethanol, NO ₂ | | | Sensor was exposed to three gas injection pulses of different concentrations and compositions, both at room temperature and at 200°C (avoids complications due to moisture interference). The bending energy induced by adsorption is different for different materials, which could allow for gas discrimination in an e-nose system. Sensor behavior was reproducible with small (<1%) error bars. |
| Hydrogen sulfide | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | H ₂ S | C | | ENEA (Italy) <i>Penza, M., et al.</i> | <i>Functional characterization of carbon nanotube networked films functionalized with tuned loading of Au nanoclusters for gas sensing applications</i> [2009, Sensors and Actuators B. 140(1): 176-184] | Chem-resistor | Gold functionalized CNTs | NO ₂ , NH ₃ , CO, N ₂ O, H ₂ S, SO ₂ | Sub-ppm: NO ₂ , H ₂ S and NH ₃ 200ppb NO ₂ Negligible response for CO, N ₂ O, and SO ₂ | | Operational temperature: 20-250 °C. |
| | H ₂ S | C | | JiLin University <i>Liang, X., et al. (Natural Science Foundation of China and National Science Fund for Distinguished Young Scholars of China)</i> | <i>Solid-state potentiometric H₂S sensor combining NASICON with Pr₆O₁₁-doped SnO₂ electrode</i> [2007, Sensors and Actuators B. 125(2):544-549] | Potentiometric | Sodium super ionic conductor (NASICON) and Pr ₆ O ₁₁ -doped SnO ₂ sensing electrode | H ₂ S | 5-50 ppm at 200-400 °C | Response: 4-8 sec recovery: 12-30 sec | This sensor demonstrated good linear relationship between EMF and the logarithm of H ₂ S concentration. The results were an improvement over those obtained for pure SnO ₂ . Sensor demonstrates selectivity against SO ₂ , NO ₂ , CH ₄ , and CO. |

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|-----------------------------|------------------|---|---|---|---|-------------------|---|--------------------------------|--|--|---|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | |
| | H ₂ S | C | | Tongji University (China), Hunan University (China) <i>Zhang, F., et al.</i> | <i>CuO nanosheets for sensitive and selective determination of H₂S with high recovery ability</i> [2010, J. Phys. Chem. 114:19214-19219] | Nano-materials | CuO leaf-like nanosheet (p-type semiconductor properties) | H ₂ S | LOD: 2 ppb Linear Range: 20 ppb – 1.2 ppm | Response: 4 sec recovery: 9 sec | Results suggest that sensitivity and recovery time are highly dependent on the working temperature (optimum reported to be 240°C). Negligible responses reported for 100-fold higher concentrations of N ₂ , O ₂ , NO, CO, NO ₂ , and H ₂ . |
| Liquid petroleum gas | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | LP G | c | | Shivaji University (India), Chonnam National University (South Korea), Solapur University (India) <i>Pawar, R.C., et al. (University Grants Commission, New Delhi)</i> | <i>Surfactant assisted low temperature synthesis of nanocrystalline ZnO and its gas sensing properties</i> [2010, Sensors and Actuators B. 151(1):212-218] | Nano-materials | Vertically aligned ZnO nanorods on glass (MOS) | Acetone, ammonia, LPG, ethanol | Tested: 2000 ppm | | Demonstrated good sensitivity for acetone at a low operating temperature (tested 200-450°C). Best sensitivity and fast response reported at 275°C. |
| Methane | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | methane | C | | Beijing University of Chemical Technology (China), Case Western Reserve University <i>Chen, A., et al. (National Natural Science Foundation of China and Beijing Natural Science Foundation)</i> | <i>Methane gas-sensing and catalytic oxidation activity of SnO₂-In₂O₃ nanocomposites incorporating TiO₂</i> [2008, Sensors and Actuators B. 135(1):7-12] | Chemi-resistive | InO _{1.5} – SnO ₂ nanocomposites incorporating TiO ₂ | methane | | | Concluded that the selectivity of the MOS may have been aided by addition of more metal oxides. Overall performance depended on composition and operational temperatures. Addition of TiO ₂ was reported to improve the response to methane and better select against CO. |

| # | Sort Codes | | | Organization <i>Author (Sponsor)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Response/ Recovery Time | Application and Operation Context |
|---|-----------------|---|---|--|--|----------------------|---|---|--|---|--|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | |
| | me tha ne | c | | Jadavpur University (India) <i>Basu, P.K., et al.</i> | <i>Low temperature methane sensing by electro- chemically grown and surface modified ZnO thin films</i> [2008, Sensors and Actuators B. 135(1): 81-88] | Thin film | Planar resistive and metal- insulator-metal sensors using electro- chemically grown nano- crystalline- nanoporous ZnO thin films modified by dipping in an aqueous solution of PdCl ₂ | Methane | 1% methane in nitrogen and 1% methane in air | Response: planar: 5 sec, metal- insulator- metal (MIM): 2.7 sec recovery: planar: 22.7 sec, MIM:16 sec | Operational temperatures were reduced to 70 and 100°C for each of the two configurations. |
| | me tha ne | C | | Kyushu University (Japan), Japan Society for the Promotion of Sciences (Japan) <i>Plashnitsa, V.V., et al.</i> (MEXT, The Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research on Priority Area, Nanoionics) | <i>Zirconia-based electrochemical gas sensors using nano-structured sensing materials aiming at detection of automotive exhausts</i> [2009, Electrochimica Acta. 54(25):6099-6106] | Potential- metric | YSZ-based planar sensors using nano- structured sensing electrodes | Ammonia, NO ₂ , CO, CH ₄ , C ₃ H ₈ , C ₃ H ₆ , NO | Highly selective at 20-200 ppm | | This sensor is appropriate for harsh environments (600°C) such as automotive exhausts. Sensing characteristics (sensitivity, response time, recovery time) are dependent on sputtering time of Au sensing electrodes. |

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|----------|------------------|---|---|--|---|-----------------------|---|--|-------------------------------------|--|---|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description <i>(Name)</i> | | | | |
| Methanol | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | me tha nol | C | | Donghua University (China), Leibniz Institute of Polymer Research Dresden (Germany) <i>Fan, Q., et al. (Shanghai Pujiang Program, State Key Lab of Chemical Fibers and Polymer Materials, Doctorate Innovation Foundation of Donghua University, & National Natural Science Foundation for Distinguished Young Scholar of China)</i> | <i>Vapor sensing properties of thermoplastic polyurethane multifilament covered with carbon nanotube networks</i> [2011, Sensors and Actuators B. 156(1):63-70] | Nano-materials | Thermoplastic polyurethane multifilament – carbon nanotubes (TPU-CNTs) composite (conductive polymer) | VOCs, specifically benzene, toluene, CHCl ₃ , THF, ethanol, acetone, and methanol | | Response: 10 sec to 50% max relative resistance Recovery: begins 3-5 sec after injection of dry air | |
| | me tha nol | C | | Islamic Azad University (Iran), K. N. Toosi University of Technology (Iran) <i>Amini, A., Ghafarinia, V.</i> | <i>Utilizing the response patterns of a temperature modulated chemoresistive gas sensor for gas diagnosis</i> [2011, IOP Conf. Ser.: Mater. Sci. Eng. 17 012408] | Commercial (modified) | Staircase heating voltage waveform applied to micro-heater for SnO ₂ gas sensor | Acetone, 1-butanol, ethanol, methanol | Tested: 50-1700 ppm | | Operation between 50 and 400°C yielded unique vectors for methanol, ethanol, 1-butanol, and acetone, suggesting potential for selectivity. The sensor was exposed for five 40-sec segments. |

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|----------------------------|------------------|---|---|---|---|----------------------|---|---|-------------------------------------|--|---|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | |
| | me tha nol | C | | University of Massachusetts Lowell <i>Li, X., et al. (National Science Foundation)</i> | <i>Fabrication and integration of metal oxide nanowire sensors using dielectrophoretic assembly and improved post- assembly processing</i> [2010, Sensors and Actuators B. 148(2):404-412] | MOS nanowires | Metal oxide nanowires (indium, tin, and indium-tin). Dielectro- phoretic (DEP) assembly onto interdigitated micro- electrodes | Acetone, chloroform, ethanol, methanol, propanol, and benzene | 1 ppm (potentially ppb) | Response: 10 sec recovery: 8-10 min | Good repeatability, however, recovery time increases when exposed to greater concentrations of substance. No response to 1500 ppm was observed below 200°C; performance was enhanced when 440°C was reached. Further optimization of ITO composition may improve sensitivity and selectivity of the sensors. Oxygenated organic compounds cause a higher response than aromatic or chlorinated compounds. |
| Methyl ethyl ketone | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | M EK | C | | Ehime University (Japan), National Institute for Materials Science (Japan) <i>Mori, M., et al. (Japan Science and Technology Agency)</i> | <i>Detection of sub- ppm level of VOCs based on a Pt/YSZ/Pt potentiometric oxygen sensor with reference air</i> [2009, Sensors and Actuators B. 143(1):56-61] | Potential- metric | Pt YSZ Pt structure | VOCs, specifically acetic acid, methyl ethyl ketone, ethanol, benzene, toluene, o- and p-xylene | Sub-ppm | Ethanol response: 4-204 sec (quickest for 0.5 ppm at 500°C) recovery: 190-480 sec (quickest for 1 ppm at 500°C) | 400-500°C, highest response at 400°C. Increased temperatures decreased sensitivity but modified response and recovery times. Analysis of multidimensional plots of sensor output at various temperatures suggests possible selective sensing of different VOCs. |

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|------------------|------------|---|---|---|---|-------------------|--|--|---|--|--|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description <i>(Name)</i> | | | | |
| NOx | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | N Ox | C | | The Ohio State University <i>Yang, J.-C., Dutta, P.K.D. (DOE NETL)</i> | <i>Promoting selectivity and sensitivity for a high temperature YSZ-based electrochemical total NOx sensor by using a Pt-loaded zeolite Y filter</i> [2007, Sensors and Actuators B. 125(1):30-39] | Potentiometric | Study examines Pt electrode covered with Pt containing zeolite Y (PtY) and WO3 as electrode materials | NOx (interferents: CO, propane, NH3, CO2, O2, and H2O) | | | WO3 is used as sensing electrode due to its poor reactivity with NOx (assumes that and unmodified NOx species will reach the WOx/YSZ to produce a more sensitive response). |
| Nitrogen dioxide | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | N O2 | C | | <i>Achhab, M., Shanack, H., Schierbaum, K.</i> | <i>NO2 sensing properties of WO3 nanorods grown on mica</i> [2011, Physica Status Solidi A. 208(6):1229-1234] | Nano-materials | One-dimensional WO3 nanostructures with gold electrodes | NO2 | ~0.1 ppm (transient WO3 needles) | Response: "quick" recovery: slow, 10,000 sec using mica substrate | Sensor is more sensitive towards NO2 with increased humidity, up to 40%. Maximum operation temperature was reported to be 260°C, due to limited gold contact stability. A drift was observed at concentrations over 0.4 ppm which may be attributed to temperature effects from the internal heater. |
| | N O2 | C | | Chiang Mai University (Thailand), National Electronics and Computer Technology Center (Thailand) <i>Kruefu, V., et al.</i> | <i>Selectivity of flame-spray-made Nb/ZnO thick films towards NO2 gas</i> [2011, Sensors and Actuators B. 156(1):360-367] | Nano-materials | Unloaded ZnO and niobium (Nb)/ZnO nanoparticles for the detection of NO2 (semiconducting gas-sensing behavior) | NO2 | Tested: 0.1-4 ppm Limit: 20 ppb (est.) | Response: 27 sec with 4 ppm NO2 at 300°C | Detection limit is estimated to be 20 ppb, however testing is limited to 100 ppb due to gas mixing capability of the system. Sensor recovers to within 10% of baseline value after several NO2 exposures. Selectivity to NO2 was tested with C2H5OH, CO, and acetone. Authors reported good selectivity to 4 ppm NO2 concentration at 350°C. Niobium enhances NO2 adsorption reaction. |

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|---|---------------------|---|---|---|--|-------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | |
| | N O ₂ | C | | ENEA (Italy) <i>Penza, M., et al.</i> | <i>Functional characterization of carbon nanotube networked films functionalized with tuned loading of Au nanoclusters for gas sensing applications</i> [2009, Sensors and Actuators B. 140(1):176-184] | Chemiresistor | Gold functionalized CNTs | NO ₂ , NH ₃ , CO, N ₂ O, H ₂ S, SO ₂ | Sub-ppm: NO ₂ , H ₂ S and NH ₃ 200 ppb NO ₂ Negligible response for CO, N ₂ O, and SO ₂ | | Operational temperature: 20-250°C. |
| | N O ₂ | C | | Korea University (Republic of Korea) <i>Kim, Y.-S., et al</i> | <i>CuO nanowire gas sensors for air quality control in automotive cabin</i> [2008, Sensors and Actuators B. 135(1):298-303] | Nano-materials | CuO nanowires grown by thermal oxidation of Cu foil. P-type oxide semiconductor | CO, NO ₂ | Tested: 10, 50, 100 ppm CO; 1-5 ppm, 10, 50 and 100 ppm NO ₂ | | Sensor resistance was reported to decrease with NO ₂ concentrations between 30 and 100 ppm, and increase with NO ₂ concentrations between 1 and 5 ppm. Resistance increased with exposure to 10, 50, and 100 ppm of CO. Sensor was tested at 300°C and 370°C, using 300 mW and 400 mW of power, respectively. |
| | N O ₂ | C | | Kyushu University (Japan), Japan Society for the Promotion of Sciences (Japan) <i>Plashnitsa, V.V., et al.</i> <i>(MEXT, The Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research on Priority Area, Nanoionics)</i> | <i>Zirconia-based electrochemical gas sensors using nano-structured sensing materials aiming at detection of automotive exhausts</i> [2009, Electrochimica Acta. 54(25):6099-6106] | Potentiometric | YSZ-based planar sensors using nano-structured sensing electrodes | Ammonia, NO ₂ , CO, CH ₄ , C ₃ H ₈ , C ₃ H ₆ , NO | Highly selective at 20-200 ppm | | This sensor is appropriate for harsh environments (600°C) such as automotive exhausts. Sensing characteristics (sensitivity, response time, recovery time) are dependent on sputtering time of Au sensing electrodes. |
| | N O ₂ | C | | University of Leeds <i>Xiong, W., and Kale, G.M.</i> | <i>Electrochemical NO₂ sensor using a NiFe_{1.9}Al_{0.1}O₄ oxide spinel electrode</i> [2007, Anal. Chem.. 79(10):3561-3567] | Solid state | (Sc ₂ O ₃) _{0.08} (ZrO ₂) _{0.92} (ScSZ) electrolyte solid and NiFe _{1.9} Al _{0.1} 4 oxide spinel electrode | NO ₂ | | Response: 8 sec recovery: 10 sec | Sensor response is rapid, reproducible at 703°C and 740°C (appropriate for automobile applications), and selective against O ₂ , CO, and CH ₄ . |

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|---------------|---------------------|--------|---|--|---|-------------------------|---|---|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------|--|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | |
| | N O ₂ | C | | University of Massachusetts Lowell <i>Surwade, S.P., et al. (University of Massachusetts Lowell, MTC-funded Nanomanufacturing Center for Excellence, NSF)</i> | <i>Nitrogen dioxide vapor detection using poly-o-toluidine</i> [2009, Sensors and Actuators B. 143(1): 454-457] | Conducting polymer film | Doped thin film conducting polymer (poly-o-toluidine) deposited on plastic substrates | NO ₂ | Tested: 10-100 ppm | | Reaction on polymer film can be reversed with UV irradiation for <2 minutes if exposed to concentrations between 10 and 100 ppm. Without UV exposure, recovery took 45-90 minutes. |
| E-nose | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | N O ₂ | e-nose | | CNR-IMM-Istituto per la Microelettronica ed i Microsistemi, University Campus (Italy), ITC-irst – Microsystems Division, (Italy) <i>Francioso, L., et al.</i> | <i>Linear temperature microhotplate gas sensor array for automotive cabin air quality monitoring</i> [2008, Sensors and Actuators B. 134(2): 660-665] | e-nose | MOS, MEMS | CO, NO ₂ , SO ₂ | | | Investigates a temperature gradient electronic nose for increasing sensitivity. Total power consumption below 130 mW with power supplied to voltage heater. Temperature was increased in a 100°C-wide temperature window. Sensor exhibited faster response times for higher temperatures (300-400°C) and higher gas concentrations. Signal was lost when sensor was operated below 280°C. Sensor was exposed to injected gas for 30 minutes, followed by 90 minutes of recovery in dry air. PCA was used to identify and analyze patterns in data. |
| | N O ₂ | C | | University of Southern California <i>Chen, P.-C., et al. (National Science Foundation)</i> | <i>A nanoelectronic nose: a hybrid nanowire/carbon nanotube sensor array with integrated micromachined hotplates for sensitive gas discrimination</i> [2009, Nanotechnology. 20(12)] | e-nose | Chemical sensor array composed of individual In ₂ O ₃ nanowires, SnO ₂ nanowires, ZnO nanowires, and SWCNTs with integrated micro-machined hot plates for sensitive gas discrimination | H ₂ , ethanol, NO ₂ | | | Sensor was exposed to three gas injection pulses of different concentrations and compositions, both at room temperature and at 200°C (avoids complications due to moisture interference). The bending energy induced by adsorption is different for different materials, which could allow for gas discrimination in an e-nose system. Sensor behavior was reproducible with small (<1%) error bars. |

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|--------------|------------|---|---|--|--|-------------------|--|---|---|----------------------------------|--|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description <i>(Name)</i> | | | | |
| Nitric oxide | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | N | O | C | Florida International University, Inje University (Republic of Korea) <i>Verma, V.P., et al. (Dissertation Year Fellowship from University Graduate School, Florida International University)</i> | <i>Nitric oxide gas sensing at room temperature by functionalized single zinc oxide nanowire</i> [2010, Materials Science and Engineering. 171(1-3): 45-49] | Nano-materials | Cr nanoparticle decorated single ZnO nanowire sensor | NO | 46% sensitivity for 10 ppm. LOD: 1.5 ppm | Recovery: 20 sec using UV light | In this system, Cr particles act as a catalyst to transform NO into NO ₂ , which can then be detected at room temperature. The sensor is reported to be selective for NO when tested with N ₂ , CO and CO ₂ gases. Sensor functioned well even after 10 days. |
| | N | O | C | I-Shou University (Taiwan) <i>Wang, S.-H., et al. (National Science Council)</i> | <i>A nitric oxide gas sensor based on Rayleigh surface acoustic wave resonator for room temperature detection</i> [2011, Sensors and Actuators B. 156(2): 668-672] | SAW | Rayleigh SAW resonator with polyaniline/ tungsten oxide nano-composite thin film | NO (selective against NO ₂ and CO ₂) | 1.2ppm frequency shift when exposed to 138 ppb | Response and recovery: 20-80 sec | Exhibited reversibility and repeatability. Room temperature operation. |
| | N | O | C | Kyushu University (Japan), Japan Society for the Promotion of Sciences (Japan) <i>Plashnitsa, V.V., et al. (MEXT, The Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research on Priority Area, Nanoionics)</i> | <i>Zirconia-based electrochemical gas sensors using nano-structured sensing materials aiming at detection of automotive exhausts</i> [2009, Electrochimica Acta. 54(25): 6099-6106] | Potentiometric | YSZ-based planar sensors using nano-structured sensing electrodes | Ammonia, NO ₂ , CO, CH ₄ , C ₃ H ₈ , C ₃ H ₆ , NO | Highly selective at 20-200 ppm | | This sensor is appropriate for harsh environments (600°C) such as automotive exhausts. Sensing characteristics (sensitivity, response time, recovery time) are dependent on sputtering time of Au sensing electrodes. |

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|------------------|------------------|--------|---|--|---|-------------------|--------------------------|--|--|--|--|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | |
| N ₂ O | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | N ₂ O | C | | ENEA (Italy) <i>Penza, M., et al.</i> | <i>Functional characterization of carbon nanotube networked films functionalized with tuned loading of Au nanoclusters for gas sensing applications</i> [2009, Sensors and Actuators B. 140(1): 176-184] | Chemi-resistor | Gold functionalized CNTs | NO ₂ , NH ₃ , CO, N ₂ O, H ₂ S, SO ₂ | Sub-ppm: NO ₂ , H ₂ S and NH ₃ 200ppb NO ₂ Negligible response for CO, N ₂ O, and SO ₂ | | Operational temperature: 20-250 °C. |
| Octane | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | octane | C, SAW | | Instituto de Fisica Aplicada, CSIC (Spain) and Fundacion Inasmet, Mikeletegi (Spain) <i>Sayago, I., et al (Spanish MEC)</i> | <i>Surface acoustic wave gas sensors based on polyisobutylene and carbon nanotube composites</i> [2011, Sensors and Actuators B, 1(10): 1-5] | SAW | | Octane, toluene, H ₂ , CO, NO ₂ , NH ₃ (selective for VOCs) | | Response: 30 sec recovery: 30 sec | Sensor was tested in a controlled environment (temp 23°C, dry air, constant flow rate) and was reported to be reversible over the course of the 45 day continuous testing period. Addition of nanotubes in higher percentages was not seen to increase response, and made the response worse in most cases. Sensor response frequency was not reported to be modified by the presence of NO ₂ , NH ₃ , H ₂ , or CO, indicating a sensor selective for VOCs. |

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| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | |
| Propanol | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | pro pa nol | C | | University of Massachusetts Lowell <i>Li, X., et al.</i> <i>(National Science Foundation)</i> | <i>Fabrication and integration of metal oxide nanowire sensors using dielectrophoretic assembly and improved post- assembly processing</i> [2010, Sensors and Actuators B. 148(2):404-412] | MOS nanowires | Metal oxide nanowires (indium, tin, and indium-tin). Dielectro- phoretic (DEP) assembly onto interdigitated micro- electrodes | Acetone, chloroform, ethanol, methanol, propanol, and benzene. | 1 ppm (potentially ppb) | Response: 10 sec recovery: 8-10 min | Good repeatability, however, recovery time increases when exposed to greater concentrations of substance. No response to 1500 ppm was observed below 200°C; performance was enhanced when 440°C was reached. Determined that further optimization of ITO composition may improve sensitivity and selectivity of the sensors. Oxygenated organic compounds cause a higher response than aromatic or chlorinated compounds. |
| 2-Propanol | | | | | | | | | | | |
| E-nose | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 2- pro pa nol | e- nose | | Saratov State Technical University (Russia), Southern Illinois University at Carbondale, Northeastern University <i>Sysoev, V.V., et al.</i> <i>(Funding: Fullbright scholarship and RFBR grant and NSF)</i> | <i>The electrical characterization of a multi-electrode odor detection sensor array based on the single SnO₂ nanowire</i> [2011, Thin Solid Films. 520(3):898-903] | e-nose | SnO2 wedge-like nanowire, multielectrode odor detection sensor array; functionalized by deposition of Pd nanoparticles | Acetone, 2-propanol, CO, and H ₂ | | | Fabricating metal oxide single crystals in shape of nanowires may be cost effective. |

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| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | |
| Sulfur dioxide | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | SO ₂ | C | | ENEA (Italy) <i>Penza, M., et al.</i> | <i>Functional characterization of carbon nanotube networked films functionalized with tuned loading of Au nanoclusters for gas sensing applications</i> [2009, Sensors and Actuators B. 140(1):176-184] | Chemi-resistor | Gold functionalized CNTs | NO ₂ , NH ₃ , CO, N ₂ O, H ₂ S, SO ₂ | Sub-ppm: NO ₂ , H ₂ S and NH ₃ 200 ppb NO ₂ Negligible response for CO, N ₂ O, and SO ₂ | | Operational temperature: 20-250 °C. |
| | SO ₂ | C | | JiLin University (China) <i>Liang, X., et al. (Natural Science Foundation of China)</i> | <i>Solid-state potentiometric SO₂ sensor combining NASICON with V₂O₅-doped TiO₂ electrode</i> [2008, Sensors and Actuators B. 134(1):25-30] | Potentiometric | based on NASICON (sodium super ionic conductor) and V ₂ O ₅ -doped TiO ₂ sensing electrode | SO ₂ | 1-50 ppm at 200-400 C | Response: 10 sec recovery: 35 sec | A small amount of V ₂ O ₅ doping may promote catalytic activity of sensing electrode and increases sensitivity (using more increased response time and decreased the catalytic ability, >10% weight). Appears to be selective against NO, NO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, NH ₃ , and CO ₂ . |
| E-nose | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | N O ₂ | e-nose | | CNR-IMM-Istituto per la Microelettronica ed i Microsistemi, University Campus (Italy), ITC-irst – Microsystems Division, (Italy) <i>Francioso, L., et al.</i> | <i>Linear temperature microhotplate gas sensor array for automotive cabin air quality monitoring</i> [2008, Sensors and Actuators B. 134(2):660-665] | e-nose | MOS, MEMS | CO, NO ₂ , SO ₂ | | | Investigates a temperature gradient electronic nose for increasing sensitivity. Total power consumption below 130 mW with power supplied to voltage heater. Temperature was increased in a 100°C-wide temperature window. Sensor exhibited faster response times for higher temperatures (300-400°C) and higher gas concentrations. Signal was lost when sensor was operated below 280°C. Sensor was exposed to injected gas for 30 minutes, followed by 90 minutes of recovery in dry air. PCA was used to identify and analyze patterns in data. |

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|-----------------|------------|---|---|--|--|-------------------|---|--|-------------------------------------|--|-----------------------------------|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description <i>(Name)</i> | | | | |
| Tetrahydrofuran | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | TH F | C | | Donghua University (China), Leibniz Institute of Polymer Research Dresden (Germany) <i>Fan, Q., et al. (Shanghai Pujiang Program, State Key Laboratory of Chemical Fibers and Polymer Materials, Doctorate Innovation Foundation of Donghua University, and the National Natural Science Foundation for Distinguished Young Scholar of China)</i> | <i>Vapor sensing properties of thermoplastic polyurethane multifilament covered with carbon nanotube networks</i> [2011, Sensors and Actuators B. 156(1):63-70] | Nano-materials | Thermoplastic polyurethane multifilament – carbon nanotubes (TPU-CNTs) composite (conductive polymer) | VOCs, specifically benzene, toluene, CHCl ₃ , THF, ethanol, acetone, and methanol | | Response: 10 sec to 50% max relative resistance recovery: begins 3-5 sec after injection of dry air | |

| # | Sort Codes | | | Organization <i>Author (Sponsor)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Response/ Recovery Time | Application and Operation Context |
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| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | |
| Toluene | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | tol ue ne | C | | Donghua University (China), Leibniz Institute of Polymer Research Dresden (Germany) <i>Fan, Q., et al. (Shanghai Pujiang Program, State Key Laboratory of Chemical Fibers and Polymer Materials, Doctorate Innovation Foundation of Donghua University, and the National Natural Science Foundation for Distinguished Young Scholar of China)</i> | <i>Vapor sensing properties of thermoplastic polyurethane multifilament covered with carbon nanotube networks</i> [2011, Sensors and Actuators B. 156(1):63-70] | Nano-materials | Thermoplastic polyurethane multifilament – carbon nanotubes (TPU-CNTs) composite (conductive polymer) | VOCs, specifically benzene, toluene, CHCl ₃ , THF, ethanol, acetone, and methanol | | Response: 10 sec to 50% max relative resistance recovery: begins 3-5 sec after injection of dry air | |
| | tol ue ne | C | | Ehime University (Japan), National Institute for Materials Science (Japan) <i>Mori, M., et al. (Japan Science and Technology Agency)</i> | <i>Detection of sub-ppm level of VOCs based on a Pt/YSZ/Pt potentiometric oxygen sensor with reference air</i> [2009, Sensors and Actuators B. 143(1):56-61] | Potentiometric | Pt YSZ Pt structure | VOCs, specifically acetic acid, methyl ethyl ketone, ethanol, benzene, toluene, o- and p-xylene | Sub-ppm | Ethanol response: 4-204 sec (quickest for 0.5 ppm at 500°C) recovery: 190-480 sec (quickest for 1 ppm at 500°C) | 400-500°C, highest response at 400°C. Increased temperatures decreased sensitivity but modified response and recovery times. Analysis of multidimensional plots of sensor output at various temperatures suggests possible selective sensing of different VOCs. |

| # | Sort Codes | | | Organization <i>Author (Sponsor)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Response/ Recovery Time | Application and Operation Context |
|---------------|------------|--------|---|--|--|-------------------|---|--|-------------------------------------|--|--|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description (Name) | | | | |
| | toluene | C, SAW | | Instituto de Fisica Aplicada, CSIC (Spain) and Fundacion Inasmet, Mikeletegi (Spain) <i>Sayago, I., et al (Spanish MEC)</i> | <i>Surface acoustic wave gas sensors based on polyisobutylene and carbon nanotube composites</i> [2011, Sensors and Actuators B, 1(10):1-5] | SAW | | Octane, toluene, H ₂ , CO, NO ₂ , NH ₃ (selective for VOCs) | | Response: 30 sec recovery: 30 sec | Sensor was tested in a controlled environment (temp 23°C, dry air, constant flow rate) and was reported to be reversible over the course of the 45-day continuous testing period. Addition of nanotubes in higher percentages was not reported to increase response, rather diminished the response in most cases. The sensor response frequency was not found to be modified by the presence of NO ₂ , NH ₃ , H ₂ , or CO, indicating a sensor selective for VOCs. |
| E-nose | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | toluene | enose | | Chinese Academy of Sciences (China), Anhui Polytechnic University (China) <i>Meng, F.-L., et al. (Chinese Academy of Sciences, National Natural Science Foundation of China, National Basic Research Program of China, Anhui Provincial Natural Science Foundation)</i> | <i>Electronic chip based on self-oriented carbon nanotube microelectrode array to enhance the sensitivity of indoor air pollutants capacitive detection</i> [2011, Sensors and Actuators B. 153(1):103-109] | e-nose | Electronic chip with self-oriented CNT microelectrode array | Formaldehyde (best response), toluene (lowest response), ammonia | | Response: "tens of seconds" recovery: slowest for toluene | Use of self-oriented CNTs reduces noise and less response to water (weak adsorption between CNTs and water molecules). |

| # | Sort Codes | | | Organization <i>Author (Sponsor)</i> | Abbreviated Citation | Sensor Technology | | Pollutant/ Parameter | Reported Detection Capability | Response/ Recovery Time | Application and Operation Context |
|----------|-------------|------------|---|---|---|-------------------|------------------------------|---|---|--|---|
| | P | T | A | | | Type | Description <i>(Name)</i> | | | | |
| VOCs | | | | | | | | | | | |
| E-nose | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | VO Cs | e- nose | | University of Nevada, Reno <i>Je, C.-H., et al.</i> | <i>Development and application of a multi-channel monitoring system for near real-time VOC measurement in a hazardous waste management facility</i> [2007, Science of the Total Environment. 382(2-3):364-374] | e-nose | Array of PID sensors | VOCs | | “Real time” | Setting: walk-in hood in a hazardous waste management facility. System consists of an array of PID sensors and a networked control program providing operational schematic diagrams, performs data analysis, and illustrates real-time graphical displays. Shows that real-time monitoring system may be effective for early warning detection of hazardous chemicals and for predicting the performance of adsorption filters used for VOC removal. |
| | VO Cs | e- nose | | University of Pune (India) <i>Botre, B.A., et al.</i> | <i>Embedded electronic nose and supporting software tool for its parameter optimization</i> [2010, Sensors and Actuators B. 146(2):453-459] | e-nose | MOS sensors by Figaro | VOCs | Resolution: 250 ppm; Alcohol ID = 100%, concentration estimation 98%, mixture analysis 95% | | Supporting software extracts unique characteristics from sensor array response patterns to various odors and allows for easy identification. The data acquisition virtual instrument allows user to specify specific sensor parameters (e.g., heater, on/off period, odor pulse period, selection of number of gas sensors in the array, sampling rate, and data acquisition time). The VOCs tested in this study were alcohols, separately and mixed with water. |
| Xylenes | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chemical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | xyl enes | C | | Ehime University (Japan), National Institute for Materials Science (Japan) <i>Mori, M., et al.</i> <i>(Japan Science and Technology Agency)</i> | <i>Detection of sub-ppm level of VOCs based on a Pt/YSZ/Pt potentiometric oxygen sensor with reference air</i> [2009, Sensors and Actuators B. 143(1):56-61] | Potentiometric | Pt YSZ Pt structure | VOCs, specifically acetic acid, methyl ethyl ketone, ethanol, benzene, toluene, o- and p-xylene | Sub-ppm | Ethanol response: 4-204 sec (quickest for 0.5 ppm at 500°C) recovery: 190-480 sec (quickest for 1 ppm at 500°C) | 400-500°C, highest response at 400°C. Increased temperatures decreased sensitivity but modified response and recovery times. Analysis of multidimensional plots of sensor output at various temperatures suggests possible selective sensing of different VOCs. |

^a This table highlights sensor technologies/techniques reported in selected conference proceedings, poster abstracts, peer-reviewed journals, and university and other organization (e.g., company) web pages; at the time of the publications reviewed, these sensors were in the research and development stage. The publications reflected in this table were gathered as part of a later literature review conducted in early 2013 that specifically targeted chemical detection techniques and electronic noses (e-noses).

The table is organized by pollutant in alphabetical order with the targeted study subset shaded green and additional pollutants shaded grey. Sensors reported to detect more than one pollutant are repeated across the respective pollutant sections. The entries are further grouped by sensing technique, and then by research institution (in alphabetical order).

APPENDIX F:
OVERVIEW OF SENSING TECHNOLOGIES/TECHNIQUES

APPENDIX F: OVERVIEW OF SENSING TECHNOLOGIES AND TECHNIQUES

Brief descriptions of selected sensing technologies and techniques discussed in this report are presented in this appendix, together with associated architecture/infrastructure approaches from the recent literature. These technologies and techniques are grouped according to three basic sensing principles: chemistry, ionization, and spectroscopy.

F.1 CHEMISTRY

Chemical sensors typically contain a sensing substrate, usually a metal or polymer film, that interacts with a pollutant to produce measurable changes in physical properties of the substrate (such as electrical resistivity or mass). Several types of chemical sensors are highlighted below.

F.1.1 Electrochemical Gas Sensors

Electrochemical sensors are typically composed of an electrochemical cell containing an electrolyte (solid or liquid) and electrodes, one referred to as the working electrode and the other as the reference or counter electrode. An incoming gas reacts at the working electrode and creates a measurable difference in electrical potential between the working and reference/counter electrodes proportional to the target gas concentration (Capone et al. 2003).

Recent research in this area includes the use of nanoscale materials. A common research focus is on improving sensitivity, selectivity, and cost efficiency of sensors by varying electrolyte or electrode composition.

Architecture and infrastructure approaches reported for these electrochemical sensors include fixed/semi-portable units and mountable sensors with micro- and miniature-scale platforms.

F.1.2 Metal Oxide Semiconductors (MOS)

These metal oxide sensors, also frequently referred to as chemiresistors, typically consist of an *n*-type or *p*-type oxide thick, thin or porous film, metal electrodes, and an internal heating device to increase the reaction rate. The incoming gas or pollutant adsorbs to the film, typically transition or heavy metal oxides such as SnO₂, WO₃, or ZnO (research summaries also note In₂O₃, BaTiO₃-CuO, TiO₂ and others) deposited on a thin layer of silicon, where it then undergoes catalytic oxidation. The oxidation produces a change in resistance of the sensing material, which is generally proportional to the concentration of the gas or pollutant present (Capone et al. 2003).

Recent research indicates active investigation of various *n*-type or *p*-type oxide film compositions, electrode composition, and internal heating temperature to create more sensitive, responsive and cost-effective sensing systems. Nanoscale materials represent an active research area, using wires, rods, particles, and carbon nanotubes (CNTs) with sensing substrates in order to increase reactive surface area, thus increasing sensitivity and decreasing reaction time. Room temperature operation is also being studied for MOS sensors (operational temperatures for these sensors have typically ranged from 200 to 500°C).

Architecture and infrastructure approaches reported for MOS sensors include fixed/semi-portable sensor units, mountable sensors with micro- and miniature-scale platforms, and wearable sensors for participatory sensing.

F.1.3 Polymer Films (*organic and hybrid*)

Organic polymer films are being used as sensing materials, with thin-film polymers providing conductive or fluorescent surfaces that are often highly sensitive. Advantages of using organic films over inorganic films include the ability to operate at room temperature. Thin-film polymers identified from the review of recent sensor literature include poly(2-(acetoacetoxy)ethyl methacrylate) (PAAEMA), polyaniline (PANi), polypyrrole (PPy), and N,N'-(glycine t-butylester)-3,4,9,10-perylene-3,4,9,10-tetracarboxylic diimide. These films are sometimes modified with nanomaterials such as single walled carbon nanotubes (SWCNTs) to increase sensitivity.

As grouped for this report, this category also includes hybrid films composed of inorganic oxides and organic materials. For these hybrids, the limited chemical reactivity of inorganic oxides is balanced by the high specific reactivity of the organic substances. Similarly, the limited thermal stability of the organic material is balanced by the thermally stable inorganic oxides. Hybrid films have many additional advantages, including ease of fabrication, controllable porosity and surface characteristics, high thermal stability, and good flexibility in sensor reactivity and specificity (Bescher 1999).

Architecture and infrastructure approaches reported for polymer film sensors include mountable sensors with micro- and miniature-scale platforms, fixed/semi-portable units, handheld devices, and visual sensing systems.

F.1.4 Surface Acoustic Wave

These sensors contain a chemical film that selectively adsorbs the gaseous analyte to produce a measurable change in mass, which is detected by change in surface propagating waves (Kryshtal and Medved 2002). Recent research for these piezoelectric-type sensors has focused on the use of various sensing materials and methods to reduce power consumption.

Architecture and infrastructure approaches reported for these sensors include mountable systems with micro- and miniature-scale platforms.

F.1.5 Nanotechnology-Based Sensors

While this category is cross-cutting, it is grouped here because many of the sensors that use nanotechnology involve chemical techniques.

Nanotechnology advances are prominent in recent sensor research, as nanocrystalline metal oxides, carbon nanotubes (CNTs), organic nanocomposites, and other nanomaterials and coatings are being used to develop increasingly small-scale sensors. Some nanoscale materials are being tapped as stand-alone sensing films, while others are incorporated into integrated systems to improve sensing characteristics via increased surface area.

A variety of architectures and approaches are reported for sensor systems using nanotechnology, as reflected in the other summaries within this appendix.

F.2 IONIZATION

These sensors have traditionally existed as fixed, non-portable sensors; however, some sensors such as the photoionization detector and mass spectrometer are being modified to

make them more portable and cost efficient. Research highlights relevant to portable systems in which ionization is a primary detection principle are presented below.

F.2.1 Mass Spectrometry

Mass spectrometers consist of an ion source, analyzer, detector, and data recorder. Several elements of these systems can be changed to address specific chemical species. Major ion formation techniques include electron impact ionization, chemical ionization, fast atom bombardment, electrospray ionization, and matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization. Analyzers include magnetic, electrostatic, quadrupole, ion trap, time of flight, and Fourier transform ion cyclotron resonance. Detector components include secondary electron multipliers, photomultipliers, and multi-channel plates. Architecture and infrastructure approaches reported for sensors that use mass spectrometry include handheld and other portable devices.

F.2.2 Gas Chromatography

In traditional gas chromatography (GC) systems, the gas sample (pure or mixed) is injected into a chromatograph where it is selectively dissolved or absorbed in a solid or syrup-like substrate-lined flow column. The components of the gas sample interact with the absorbing agent at different rates as they travel through the column, allowing for selective separation. A computer chart is generated depicting the rate at which various components of the gas sample exit the column. The general rate peaks are associated with specific chemicals or chemical species. In systems that use GC for selective separation, photoionization and flame ionization detectors (PIDs and FIDs) and mass spectrometers are the detectors typically used.

Recent research relevant to portable sensors involves the addition of gas pre-concentrators to improve detection levels. Architecture and infrastructure approaches reported for gas chromatography detection techniques include handheld and larger portable systems.

F.2.3 Photoionization Detector (PID)

Photoionization detectors capitalize on substance-specific ionization potentials (IP). The core component of this system is an ultraviolet (UV) lamp which emits a specific light frequency (measured in electron volts, eV). Gases with IPs less than or equal to that of the lamp are detectable. Concentrations of these gases are measured based on the amount of ions (resulting from absorption of photons from the UV lamp) deposited on a collecting electrode. Nearly twenty years ago, PIDs were identified as 'go to' devices for detecting VOCs (EPA 1994). Note that costs can be relatively high (e.g., several thousand dollars).

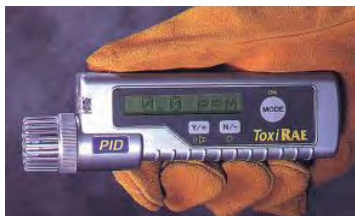


Image source: <http://www.intlsensor.com/pdf/photoionization.pdf>.

F.2.4 Flame Ionization Detector (FID)

Flame ionization detectors are commonly part of gas chromatography systems. Incoming gas samples are mixed with hydrogen before being introduced to a flame, which causes the release of electrons. The electrons are collected at electrodes and converted into electrical output signals. Sensitivity is influenced by gas flow rates (before and after flame ionization), flame jet exit diameter, positioning of components, and detector temperature (Hinshaw 2005).

F.3 SPECTROSCOPY

Spectroscopic techniques involve examining the substance-specific emission and/or absorption spectra resulting from the interaction between molecules and an energy source, such as light. This technique operates on the principle that chemical substances absorb light at specific frequencies. This category includes, and is often referred to as, optical-based sensing techniques.

F.3.1 Broadband Molecular Absorption Spectroscopy

Molecular absorption spectroscopy techniques function on the principle that bonds of organic compounds absorb different frequencies of light. Currently in broadband molecular absorption spectroscopy, infrared, UV, and visible light sources can be used to selectively detect some specific chemicals. A light source is directed at the target gas sample and resulting light absorption patterns are observed. Absorption peak patterns are analyzed to identify of the compound, while the intensity of the peaks are analyzed to identify the concentration of the compound. Research in this area includes nanoscale technologies and multiple-line integrated absorption spectroscopy (MLIAS), a technique that combines many different spectroscopic readings to obtain a greater degree of sensitivity and accuracy.

Architecture and infrastructure approaches reported for sensors using absorption spectroscopy include fixed/semi-portable units, handheld sensors, mountable sensors with micro- and miniature-scale platforms, wearable sensors, and vehicle-mounted units.

F.3.2 Laser Absorption Spectroscopy

This method covers a variety of lasers, including quantum cascade lasers (QCLs), tunable diode lasers, and organic micro-lasers adjusted to operate at, or within, a specific light frequency range. Thus, pollutant-specific sensors can be fabricated based on the knowledge of corresponding light absorption spectra. Some devices using this technology may also include optical fibers, a detection path or cell, and a photodetector. One investigated component of these systems is the tuning fork. Efforts are focused on developing more responsive polymer coatings and polymer nanowires in order to increase sensitivity of sensors. Research is also focused on the development and optimization of laser systems, as well as increased portability of sensors. Specific techniques under further development include cavity enhanced absorption spectroscopy (CEAS) and tunable diode laser absorption spectroscopy (TDLAS).

Architecture and infrastructure approaches reported for sensors using laser absorption spectroscopy include fixed/semi-portable units, handheld devices, mountable sensors with micro- and miniature-scale platforms, remote sensor/monitoring units, wearable sensors, and wireless sensor networks.

F.3.3 Molecular and Atomic Emission Spectroscopy

Luminescence

Luminescence is a form of 'cool body' radiation, meaning reactions are not induced by a heat source. Emissions occur after a sample gas has absorbed energy from a source (such as radiation or chemical reaction), leaving it in an unstable excited state. As the substance undergoes the transition back to the preferred ground state, the absorbed energy is released as light. Because only a small percentage of reacting molecules emit light, these sensors can be

chemical specific. The techniques in this category include bioluminescence, cataluminescence, chemiluminescence, and fluorescence.

Architecture and infrastructure approaches reported for these sensors include fixed/semi-portable units, handheld devices, mountable sensor with micro- and miniature-scale platforms, and visual sensing systems.

Laser-Induced Breakdown Spectroscopy (LIBS)

This technique uses a high-power, pulsed laser beam to produce laser-induced plasma which then vaporizes, atomizes, and excites the atoms of the gas sample. The resulting emission intensities and frequencies are used to determine the identity and concentration of the substance.

Architecture and infrastructure approaches reported for LIBS sensors include fixed/semi-portable units, handheld units, and vehicle mounted units

F.3.4 Light Scattering (Nephelometry)

Light scattering or nephelometric techniques measure the irradiance of scattered light resulting from contact with particulates within a specified volume or area defined by an intersection of a light beam and the field of view of an optical detector. The resulting electrical signal is proportional to the concentration of particulates present. This technique is very responsive to rapid changes in particulate concentrations, but it is only responsive to substances with constant optical properties.

Architecture and infrastructure approaches reported for light-scattering sensors include fixed/semi-portable sensor systems.

F.3.5 Light Detection and Ranging (LIDAR)

This detection technique can be applied to multiple spectroscopy sensing systems, including laser absorption and fluorescence emission. A laser or other light source is used to illuminate the target gas sample. The backscattered light is recorded and analyzed to determine sample composition and concentration. Infrastructure requirements are substantial (and these translate to substantial costs).

Architecture and infrastructure approaches reported for LIDAR sensors include mounted sensors with micro- and miniature-scale platforms, remote sensing/monitoring, and vehicle mounted units.

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APPENDIX G:
EVALUATION OF SELECTED AIR QUALITY APPS

APPENDIX G: EVALUATION OF SELECTED AIR QUALITY APPS

Several organizational websites were reviewed to evaluate air quality resources available to the general public relevant to mobile phone apps and data representations. The objective was to assess gaps underlying existing apps, to frame potential opportunities for investments in this area. The online resources considered include:

- AIRNow, AirData, and Envirofacts (EPA)
- State of the Air (American Lung Association)
- Air Quality Forecast (National Weather Service, National Ocean and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA))
- The Weather Channel
- Power Plant Pollution Risk (Clean Air Task Force)

A number of free mobile phone apps compatible with Android smartphones were found. Of these, the AIRNow and State of the Air mobile phone apps were selected for a brief comparison. Screen captures were taken for both apps every morning for two weeks; examples are shown in Figures G-1 and G-2.

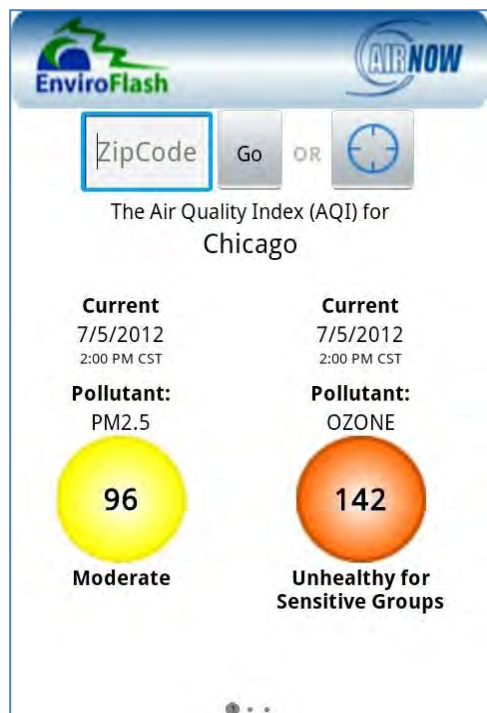


FIGURE G-1 AIRNow Mobile Phone App, Screen Capture for Chicago, 7-5-12
(Source: Temple 2012.)



FIGURE G-2 State of the Air Mobile Phone App, Screen Capture for Washington DC, 7-6-12
(Source: Temple 2012.)

The average rating from 36 reviews posted online for the State of the Air App is 3.4. Twelve gave it 1 star, and seventeen gave it 5 stars, reflecting different expectations and indicating opportunities for improvement.

The air quality data collected from these two mobile phone applications were plotted to illustrate how conditions in Chicago and Washington, DC, could be compared. The PM_{2.5} comparison is presented in Figure G-3, and the ground-level ozone comparison is presented in Figure G-4.

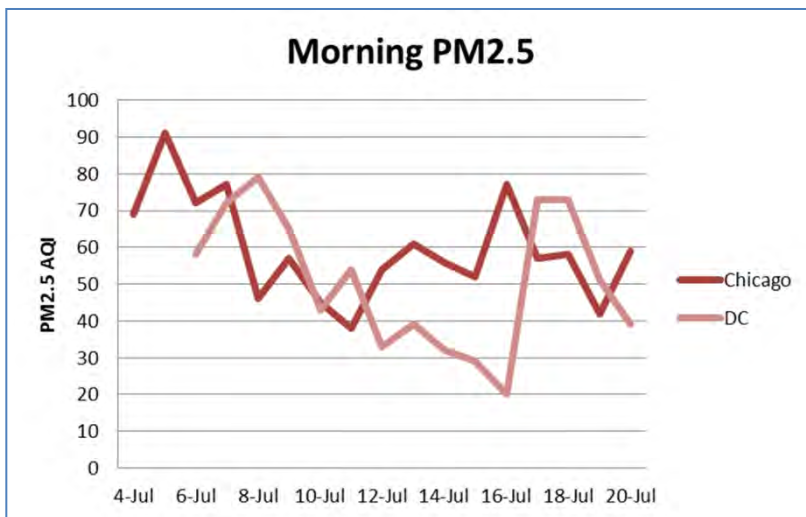


FIGURE G-3 Morning AQI Data for Ozone, 4-20 July 2012 (Source: Temple 2012.)

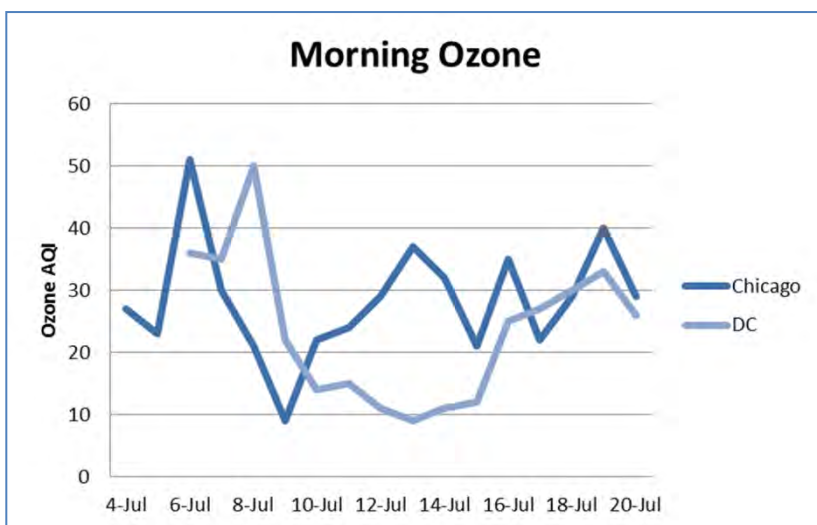


FIGURE G-4 Morning AQI Data for PM2.5, 4-20 July 2012 (Source: Temple 2012.)

A third mobile phone app, Air Quality by Aesthetikx, also provides information for these criteria pollutants. Data representations include color-coded overlays on geographic maps, as illustrated in Figure G-5. Note that the average rating from nine online reviewers was 3.2 out of 5, which indicates an opportunity for improvement. (Three reviewers gave this app 1 star and one reviewer gave it a rating of 2, while four gave it 5 stars and one person who gave it 4 stars. Only 5 reviews are available online; the reviewer who gave the 4-star rating indicated the map was "awesome" but they wished for more detailed descriptions.)

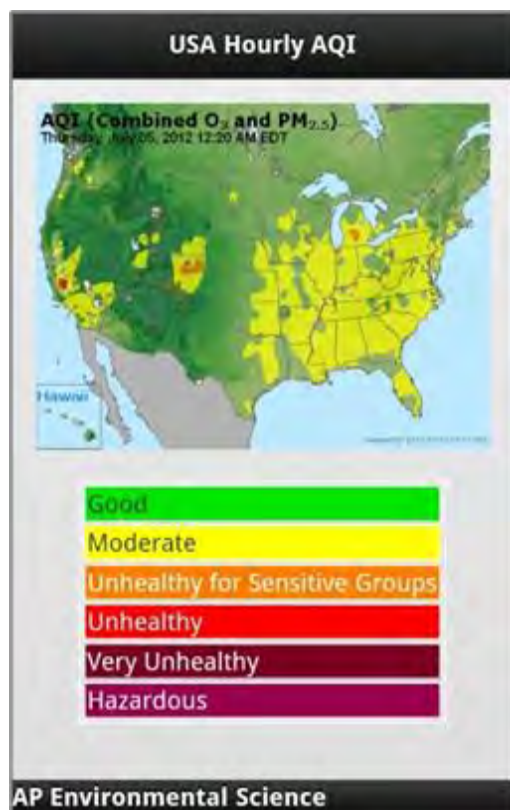


FIGURE G-5 Air Quality Mobile Phone App.
Screen Capture of U.S. AQI Map, 7-5-12
 (Source: Temple 2012.)

A variety of air quality data and resources are available online. The EPA AirData website (EPA 2012) provides links to resources and data summaries, including daily AQI plots, time series concentration plots, an interactive map, and AQI reports. The link for "monitor values" (http://www.epa.gov/airdata/ad_rep_mon.html) provides access to a tool for user-selected reports for data from monitoring stations available in the user-selected area. Additional information resources available through AirData include educational materials for school children.

The findings of this focused review of air quality apps are highlighted as follows. Of ten air quality-related mobile apps initially identified, three provide relevant air quality monitoring data. Both EPA's AIRNow app and the American Lung Association's (ALA) State of the Air app supply hourly and forecasted AQI for PM_{2.5} and ozone at the nearest urban center. The State of the Air app also provides air quality alerts as issued.

Gaps identified from the evaluation of selected mobile phone apps include the following.

- Data coverage

Limited to a fixed monitoring station from the nearest urban center, and data are only available for major cities. Such data are clearly not representative across community, neighborhood, and individual scales.

- Pollutant coverage

Essentially limited to just two: PM_{2.5} and ground-level ozone. The AQI map application does not differentiate between the two. (Note in most cases, the air quality is represented by a number associated with the AQI.)

- Update frequency

The frequency of AQI updates varied for certain areas and monitors. Forecasting is affected in those areas for which data are updated less frequently.

- User interface, and inconsistencies

Air Quality by Aesthetikx supplies animated AQI maps of the U.S. and local areas. The animation characteristics depend on the data connection speed for the phone. Using a 3G Android smartphone with limited service in many areas led to restricted performance of the app. With limited data connection, the app provided an AQI map of the requested area taken many hours earlier (12:20 that morning). Presumably, this feature would work better with a 4G connection and/or greater data coverage. (This issue resulted in inconsistencies due to data access, coverage, and other limitations.)

Other user reviews for the three free apps evaluated here have been posted online. Comments and overall ratings that reflect inputs from more than 60 users are presented in Table G-1. (Note the inputs address progressive versions of the apps in some cases, so the comments are ordered within each main topic first in order of rating and then in order of date posted.) The comments are grouped by main category, and topical ratings are provided for those with multiple comments, per app. (Ratings are on a scale of 1 to 5, in order of increasing satisfaction.) Overall ratings were modest, ranging from 3.1 (AIRNow) to 3.4 (State of the Air).

Most users commented on the ALA State of the Air app – more than double the number commenting on EPA's AIRNow app, and four times the number commenting on the Air Quality app by Aesthetikx. High regard for the concept (collective rating of 4.5) affirms that mobile apps represent a clear opportunity area. The main gaps are associated with data coverage (collective rating of 1.4) and the user interface (collective rating of 2.3).

The data coverage limitations (locations and pollutants) reflect limitations in the data available, not in the apps themselves. That underlying data limitation represents one of the drivers for this initiative, toward facilitating participatory sensing that can contribute to the overall state of knowledge for air quality. The insights from existing free apps can help frame research and development investments toward future mobile apps that enhance citizen involvement.

TABLE G-1 Online User Reviews of Three Mobile Apps for Air Quality^a

| App / Issue | Online Reviewer Comments | Rating |
|---------------------------------|---|------------|
| Air Quality (Aesthetikx) | (Overall rating from 9 user reviews; 5 available online) | 3.2 |
| Concept value | Awesome. The map is awesome. I wish there were more detailed descriptions. (V1.0, Motorola Droid X2; April 12, 2012) | 4 |
| Data coverage | Not helpful. Only informative if you are looking for one of the major cities. The US map time laps goes too fast. Uninstalling, useless. (HTC Thunderbolt; Aug. 9, 2012) | 1 |
| User interface (1.3) | No N.M. Radar. It force-closes when you turn phone sideways. (V1.0; June 2, 2012) | 2 |
| | No map. Maps not showing, useless. Uninstalling. (Samsung Galaxy S; July 15, 2012) | 1 |
| | LoI. Closes if I turn my phone. (Galaxy S2 Skyrocket; July 16, 2012) | 1 |
| AIRNow (EPA) | (Overall rating from 16 user reviews, 10 available online) | 3.1 |
| Concept value | Thank you! Helps me monitor air in Nashville. (V. 1.0; June 14, 2012) | 5 |
| Data coverage | Nah. Gives air quality for white plains, 30 minutes away, instead of the bronx, which is 2 blocks from my house. (V1.0, HTC G2; June 13, 2012) | 3 |
| (1.8) | Needs more features. It's a decent app for finding out what air quality is like in areas around you but because of a lack of air quality reporting in many areas, the results are generally irrelevant. It would be better for the app to let the user know that there is little to no air quality information for their specific location and then show information for nearby areas. Searching by city name would also be nice to have. (Galaxy S2 Skyrocket; Jan. 24, 2013) | 3 |
| | Great idea. Needs more sources. push an air quality add on national Weather Service stations. (V1.0, Samsung Galaxy S3; Sep. 27, 2012) | 2 |
| | Won't locate. App can't display anything about my zipcodes or Geo location. (V1.0, Samsung Galaxy Nexus; July 8, 2012) | 1 |
| | Coverage sucks. Doesn't work in my area. (Samsung Galaxy S; Sep. 25, 2012) | 1 |
| | Vog. Nothing on vog on Oahu. (Samsung Galaxy Nexus; Oct.4, 2012) | 1 |
| User interface (1.7) | Good but needs favorite locations! This is more convenient than the website. It needs a favorites list to save time. A way to search by city would be great. V1.0; July 8, 2012) | 3 |
| | Worthless. I use web page all the time but can't get this to work for gsp area of sc which is a metro area..... (HTC Thunderbolt; July 1, 2012) | 1 |
| | Doesn't work. I have a droid and whenever I type in my zipcode it won't show me any results. Highly disappointed. (Feb. 7, 2013) | 1 |

| App / Issue | Online Reviewer Comments | Rating |
|------------------------------------|--|------------|
| State of the Air (ALA) | (Overall rating from 36 user reviews, 26 available online) | 3.4 |
| Concept value | Great. Have little kids, air quality is essential. <i>(HTC Thunderbolt; June 20, 2012)</i> | 5 |
| (4.5) | Love it! It's definitely the best air quality alert app out there. It helps give me an idea of whether I should run outside or hit the gym. <i>(V1.0, Motorola Droid X2; June 18, 2012)</i> | 5 |
| | Great app! Helps protect my kids. This is a very useful app to monitor air quality in my community. Helps me make sure I know if it's safe for my kids to go outside. <i>(V1.0, Motorola Droid X; June 18, 2012)</i> | 5 |
| | Works on Galaxy SII. Wonderful app I will use to schedule my outdoor activities. Adding an hourly forecast would raise this to 5 stars. <i>(Samsung Galaxy S2; June 23, 2012)</i> | 4 |
| | State of the air. Only app w air pollution forecast. Includes ozone. Needs to show alert time window. <i>(V1.3, Samsung Infuse 4G; Aug. 3, 2012)</i> | 4 |
| | Hi. It's good to be able to tell when to breath outside. <i>(V1.3, HTC Sensation 4G; Aug. 16, 2012)</i> | 4 |
| Consistency with other information | Does exactly what it says, accurately! Thank you! I see a number of reviewers complaining about inaccurate information in this app. When I compare this app's data to actual readings in my community, they are dead on. You can get confused if you expect the apps real time readings to match the daily FORECAST - they don't. Real time readings are not the same as the forecast (much like the weather.) To see real time readings, I go into my state's Department of Environmental Quality site and go to the MONITORING page, NOT the forecast page. That shows me a map of several monitoring sites, some monitoring particulates (PM2.5), some monitoring ozone, and some monitoring carbon monoxide (CO). The readings vary slightly by site, but I have figured out which sites are the local sources of this app's readings, and IT IS VERY ACCURATE. Right now, the air quality forecast for today is 50 for PM2.5, but the reading at the monitoring site is only 28, which is exactly what is displayed on this app on my phone. Of course, it can only report data from WHERE THERE ARE MONITORING SITES. No sites, no data. Before you criticize this app for being inaccurate, educate yourself! This app does exactly what it claims. Those who say it doesn't are confused. <i>(V1.3, Sep. 7, 2012)</i> | 5 |
| (4.0) | Spot on for Cincinnati's air quality. <i>(V1.3, HTC myTouch 4G; Dec. 8, 2012)</i> | 5 |
| | Not sure if this works. Just downloaded. live in slc we have lots of smog. Wanted to see what the air quality was right now because i wanted to go on a Bike ride. tons of smog probably half visibility but the app says its green and low pollution. Hard to trust that. <i>(V1.3, Motorola Droid RAZR; Sep. 17, 2012)</i> | 2 |

| App / Issue | Online Reviewer Comments | Rating |
|-----------------------------------|---|--------|
| State of the Air (Cont'd.) | | |
| Data coverage | No data for my zipcode. Lame. <i>(Samsung Galaxy Note; Aug. 29, 2012)</i> | 2 |
| (1.1) | Uninstall. The app gives me data of a location that's 46 miles away. What good is that for me? <i>(V1.3, HTC Droid Incredible; June 21, 2012)</i> | 1 |
| | This app is useless. I live in Long Beach NOT South Coastal LA. Only ... This app is useless. I live in Long Beach NOT South Coastal LA. Only gives you a general area that spans 50-100 miles and several climates. <i>(V1.1, HTC myTouch 3G Slide; June 21, 2012)</i> | 1 |
| | Data not available. I don't live near a big city so this is worthless. Neat idea but only ideal if you live in a major city. <i>(Droid Bionic; June 23, 2012)</i> | 1 |
| | Almost worthless. info given does not seem to be zip code specific but regional for a metro area. 30 miles away in the burbs same information. <i>(V1.1, HTC Evo 4G; June 24, 2012)</i> | 1 |
| | This is the worst! The app is not accurate. Asthmatics need to know what the air quality is each day. Having a mobile app that shows the air quality using GPS is a great idea. But the worst thing that could happen is an air quality app that says the air quality is Green when it is Yellow or some other color. I checked their website for my location and it shows the Ozone = Yellow but the app shows the Ozone = Green. How sad, how irresponsible. <i>(V1.3; July 9, 2012)</i> | 1 |
| | Doesn't locate. When i typed in my zip it put a city that's over four hours away. How can it say that's my areas air quality when it doesn't even locate my area within a reasonable distance. Also i know where i live has horrid air quality. I live in factory district. This app needs more pinpoint accuracy. <i>(LG Optimus One; Sep. 21, 2012)</i> | 1 |
| | Needs more coverage. Doesn't cover where I live. <i>(Samsung Galaxy S; Sep. 25, 2012)</i> | 1 |
| User interface | Thank you! This is so helpful and easy to use. <i>(V1.1, Samsung Galaxy S2; June 19, 2012)</i> | 5 |
| (2.8) | Very useful app!! The air alerts and ability to contact Congress are great! <i>(June 19, 2012)</i> | 5 |
| | You Need This App. I plan to use this app every morning as part of my daughter's asthma management plan. So glad the Lung Association has made this tool so easy to use. <i>(June 19, 2012)</i> | 5 |
| | Great. I downloaded the same app for my ipod and my android phone and it works great. <i>(June 29, 2012)</i> | 5 |
| | Doesn't work. After the opening screen, it goes blank/dark and does nothing. <i>(V1.1, HTC Rezound; June 20, 2012)</i> | 1 |
| | Doesn't Work for Me. It opens to a black screen and does nothing. <i>(HTC Rezound, June 20, 2012)</i> | 1 |
| | Disappointed Force closes at opening every time. Was excited about it too as my one yr old has severe lung disease, PH and BPD. <i>(V1.2, Samsung Sidekick 4G; June 22, 2012)</i> | 1 |
| | Force closes. Not working. Infuse. <i>(Samsung Infuse 4G; June 23, 2012)</i> | 1 |
| | Ergh. This app has never worked for me. Even after refreshing and reopening, still gives me nothing. <i>(V1.3, Samsung Galaxy S; Sep. 9, 2012)</i> | 1 |

^a Sources: Aesthetikx (2012), ALA (2013), EPA (2013). ALA = American Lung Association; "V" indicates the app version, where reported; the mobile device is also identified where reported. (A few comments reflect minor editing, e.g., for spelling.) Topical ratings are shown in column 1.

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