



# Stationary and Portable Multipollutant Monitors for High Spatiotemporal Resolution Air Quality Studies including Online Calibration

Colby Buehler<sup>1,2</sup>, Fulizi Xiong<sup>1,2</sup>, Misti Levy Zamora<sup>2,3</sup>, Kate M. Skog<sup>1</sup>, Joseph Kohrman-Glaser<sup>4</sup>, Stefan Colton<sup>4</sup>, Michael  
5 McNamara<sup>5</sup>, Kevin Ryan<sup>5</sup>, Carrie Redlich<sup>6,7</sup>, Matthew Bartos<sup>8</sup>, Brandon Wong<sup>8</sup>, Branko Kerkez<sup>8</sup>, Kirsten Koehler<sup>2,3</sup>, Drew R.  
Gentner<sup>1,2,9,\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Department of Chemical & Environmental Engineering, Yale University, School of Engineering and Applied Science, New Haven, Connecticut 06511, USA

<sup>2</sup> SEARCH (Solutions for Energy, Air, Climate and Health) Center, Yale University, New Haven, CT, USA

10 <sup>3</sup> Department of Environmental Health and Engineering, Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health, Baltimore, MD, 21205, USA

<sup>4</sup> Department of Mechanical Engineering, Yale University, School of Engineering and Applied Science, New Haven, Connecticut, 06511, USA

15 <sup>5</sup> Department of Electrical Engineering, Yale University, School of Engineering and Applied Science, New Haven, Connecticut, 06511, USA

<sup>6</sup> Department of Internal Medicine, Yale University, School of Medicine, New Haven, Connecticut, 06510, USA

<sup>7</sup> Department of Environmental Health Sciences, Yale University, School of Public Health, New Haven, Connecticut, 06511, USA

20 <sup>8</sup> Civil and Environmental Engineering, University of Michigan, 2350 Hayward St, G.G. Brown Building, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA

<sup>9</sup> Max Planck Institute for Chemistry, Mainz 55128, Germany.

*Correspondence to:* Drew R. Gentner (drew.gentner@yale.edu)

**Abstract.** The distribution and dynamics of atmospheric pollutants are spatiotemporally heterogeneous due to variability in  
25 emissions, transport, chemistry, and deposition. To understand these processes at high spatiotemporal resolution and their  
implications for air quality and personal exposure, we present custom, low-cost air quality monitors that measure  
concentrations of contaminants relevant to human health and climate, including gases (e.g. O<sub>3</sub>, NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, CO, CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, and  
SO<sub>2</sub>) and size-resolved (0.3–10 μm) particulate matter. The devices transmit sensor data and location via cellular  
communications, and are capable of providing concentration data down to second-level temporal resolution. We produce two  
30 models; one designed for stationary (or mobile platform) operation, and a wearable, portable model for directly measuring  
personal exposure in the breathing zone. To address persistent problems with sensor drift and environmental sensitivities (e.g.  
relative humidity and temperature), we present the first online calibration system designed specifically for low-cost air quality  
sensors to calibrate zero and span concentrations at hourly to weekly intervals. Monitors are tested and validated in a number  
of environments across multiple outdoor and indoor sites in New Haven, CT, Baltimore, MD, and New York City. The



35 evaluated pollutants ( $O_3$ ,  $NO_2$ ,  $NO$ ,  $CO$ ,  $CO_2$ , and  $PM_{2.5}$ ) performed well against reference instrumentation (e.g.  $r=0.66-0.98$ )  
in urban field evaluations with fast e-folding response times ( $\leq 1$  min), making them suitable for both large-scale network  
deployments and smaller-scale targeted experiments at a wide range of temporal resolutions. We also provide a discussion of  
best practices on monitor design, construction, systematic testing, and deployment.

## 1 Introduction

40 Exposures to air pollution are associated with elevated health risks such as cardiorespiratory inflammatory responses and  
oxidative stress (Brauer et al., 2012; Chuang et al., 2007; Pope and Dockery, 2006). Each year outdoor air pollution leads to  
approximately 4.2 million premature deaths worldwide and is the fifth highest mortality risk factor in the Global Burden of  
Disease Study 2015 (Cohen et al., 2017; Forouzanfar et al., 2016). Assessment of public health risks and regulatory standards  
requires accurate measurement of air pollution levels. However, traditional analytical techniques for air pollutant  
45 measurements—such as spectroscopy, chemiluminescence, and mass spectrometry—are expensive, which limits the  
deployment of instruments to sparsely-located state and federal air quality monitoring sites and targeted research campaigns.  
As a result, the spatiotemporal variations in urban human exposure caused by localized combustion sources (e.g. motor  
vehicles, cooking) and other sources are not well understood (Kheirbek et al., 2013).

The need for better geospatial coverage in air quality monitoring has resulted in multiple studies that utilize low-cost sensors  
50 to measure a range of pollutants in portable and stationary configurations (Bigi et al., 2018; Castell et al., 2017; Cross et al.,  
2017; Hagan et al., 2018; Lewis et al., 2016; Mead et al., 2013; Popoola et al., 2016; Thorson et al., 2019; Zimmerman et al.,  
2018). Wearable devices containing sensors to measure real-time gas-phase air pollutants such as nitric oxide ( $NO$ ), nitrogen  
dioxide ( $NO_2$ ), carbon dioxide ( $CO$ ), carbon dioxide ( $CO_2$ ) and ozone ( $O_3$ ) have been developed, but proper calibration still  
poses a challenge (Cao and Thompson, 2016; Mead et al., 2013). For example, Piedrahita et al. (2014) developed wearable air  
55 quality monitors (M-Pods) from primarily metal oxide semiconductor sensors. They demonstrated an ability to quantify  
ambient concentrations of  $CO$ ,  $NO_2$ ,  $CO_2$ , and  $O_3$ , and found that field calibrations, given a wider range of environmental  
conditions, performed better than laboratory calibrations.

On a larger scale, environmental compliance and policymaking require an understanding of the air pollutant sources and their  
transport processes, and long-term high-density stationary monitoring networks are needed to fulfill this purpose. In 2010,  
60 Mead et al., (2013) deployed 46 sensor nodes in the Cambridge (UK) area for 2.5 months to measure  $NO$ ,  $NO_2$  and  $CO$ . This  
study demonstrated the feasibility of using low-cost sensors to obtain environmental data at high spatiotemporal resolution. A  
more recent deployment of two Aerodyne ARISense systems collocated with state air quality stations was described by Cross  
et al., (2017). This study reported mixed performance of Alphasense electrochemical  $NO$ ,  $CO$ ,  $NO_2$  and  $O_x$  ( $r^2=0.88$ ,  $0.84$ ,  
 $0.69$ , and  $0.39$ ) sensors at a 5 min temporal resolution. Numerous state, federal, and international programs continue to evaluate  
65 emerging sensor technologies (e.g. South Coast Air Quality Sensor Performance Evaluation Center (AQ-SPEC), EPA Air



Sensor Toolbox, and the World Meteorological Organization (WMO)). While low-cost sensors have great potential to provide air quality data at higher spatiotemporal resolution and complement existing monitoring sites, multiple studies have reported measurement biases caused by sensor drift due to environmental variables and aging (Borrego et al., 2016; Cross et al., 2017; Lewis et al., 2016; Mead et al., 2013; Zimmerman et al., 2018). Hence, careful sensor characterization, calibration and data processing are important to ensure measurement accuracy.

In this study, we design and evaluate custom stationary and portable multipollutant monitors as part of the SEARCH (Solutions for Energy, AiR, Climate and Health) Center at Yale-Johns Hopkins, which will deploy the multipollutant monitors in a long-term, city-wide network in Baltimore, MD. Specifically we: (a) describe the physical hardware design, sensors employed, and relevant testing with a focus on overcoming historical limitations; (b) describe and demonstrate the first online calibration system for low-cost monitors; (c) present laboratory tests and field measurements with our monitors to demonstrate real-world performance; (d) compare the performance of the multipollutant monitor to other low-cost monitor deployments; and (e) provide best practices for monitor design to enable future research.

## 2. Materials & Methods

### 2.1 Instrument Design

#### 2.1.1 Incorporated Sensors

A suite of sensors is built into the SEARCH multipollutant stationary monitors to measure the concentration of CO, NO<sub>2</sub>, NO, CO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, methane (CH<sub>4</sub>), size-resolved particulate matter (PM), and, when applicable, sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>). It also collects relative humidity (RH) and temperature (T) data to correct for RH/T influences on sensor response during field deployment with changing environmental conditions. Manufacturers and part numbers for the selected sensors are listed in Table 1. Due to size limitations, either a NO or SO<sub>2</sub> sensor is included in the multipollutant monitor based on the application. The monitors evaluated in this study contain NO sensors to better characterize urban NO<sub>x</sub> (NO and NO<sub>2</sub>) pollution. Monitors with SO<sub>2</sub> sensors will be applied specifically in targeted emissions studies or future locations with higher SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. The CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> sensors are integrated to evaluate greenhouse gas emissions. The portable monitor integrates sensors for CO, CO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, and PM to evaluate personal exposure in a space-efficient package.

Measurements of CO, NO<sub>2</sub>, NO, O<sub>x</sub>, and SO<sub>2</sub> are made using the 4-electrode electrochemical ppb-level A4 series sensors from Alphasense (<http://www.alphasense.com>). Different models of electrochemical sensors manufactured by Alphasense have been tested in previous studies (e.g. Hagan et al. (2018), Mead et al. (2013), Zimmerman et al. (2018)) and demonstrate promise for ambient measurements with careful calibration and system design. For O<sub>x</sub>, we use the updated B431 model. The 4-electrode configurations were chosen over the 3-electrode sensors because the extra auxiliary electrode (AE), which has the same



95 functionality as the working electrode (WE) but is not exposed to the analyte, provides a background electrode response. When coupled together with the WE, this reduces the influences of RH/T on sensor signals.

The Alphasense NDIR sensor measures CO<sub>2</sub>, having an estimated limit of detection (LOD) of 1 ppm (Hodgkinson et al., 2013). The NDIR sensor has a broadband light source, and two bandpass filters centered at 4.26 μm and 3.95 μm. The 4.26 μm filter coincides with the CO<sub>2</sub> absorption band centered at 4.2 μm. The 3.95 μm light is not absorbed by CO<sub>2</sub> and works as a reference  
100 to account for potential drift in light intensity caused by lamp aging and power supply change. The CO<sub>2</sub> sensor has similar dimensions as the A4 electrochemical sensors.

CH<sub>4</sub> measurements are made using the Figaro TGS2600 gas sensor. Field evaluations of this sensor were performed by Eugster and Kling (2012) in Alaska. More recently, van den Bossche et al. (2017) conducted a systematic laboratory evaluation of a similar Figaro model. Both groups reported measurement agreement between the sensor and a reference technique after  
105 correcting for RH and temperature interferences. The Figaro TGS2600 is also sensitive to analytes such as CO, hydrogen (H<sub>2</sub>), and volatile organic compounds (VOCs), such as ethanol and isobutane (manufacturer's specification). The cross sensitivity from CO can be corrected in the multipollutant monitor by using the onboard CO sensor. We remove the VOC interference by adding a layer of activated charcoal-impregnated cloth on top of the sensor to filter VOCs. The implementation and performance of this setup is detailed in Sect. 2.1.3.

110 For the stationary multipollutant monitor, the MiCS-2614 sensor measures O<sub>3</sub> due to its proven past performance, low cost, and small size (5 mm x 7 mm x 1.55 mm). This sensor was built into a portable ozone monitor by Cao and Thompson (2016) where they found it agreed with 2B Technologies' ozone monitor in the range of 20 ppb to 100 ppb, with over-measurement under 20 ppb and under-measurement above 100 ppb. Note: at the time of this publication, this sensor is not being manufactured.

115 PM is measured with a miniature PM sensor PMS A003 produced by Plantower (<http://www.plantower.com>). The sensor has an internal laser and uses scattered light to count particles and differentiate particle size. The device reports mass concentrations in PM<sub>1</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and PM<sub>10</sub> with precision of 1 μg/m<sup>3</sup>, as well as particle number concentrations for particle sizes bins: 0.3 μm, 0.5 μm, 1 μm, 2.5 μm, 5 μm, and 10 μm. Levy-Zamora et al. (2019) demonstrated the ability of the sensor to perform under laboratory and ambient settings. With environmental correction factors, the sensor had an overall accuracy of 93% and an  
120 overall precision error of 10%.

### 2.1.2 Electrical System

The electronics for the multipollutant monitor are designed to have modularized functions on each individual circuit board. Each sensor has its designated analog circuitry to supply power, amplify signals, and filter noise. The analog signals are fed to analog-to-digital converters (ADC) on the daughter boards to minimize noise pick-up in the wiring or other circuitry.



125 The Alphasense electrochemical sensors are powered with potentiostatic circuitries with zero bias for the CO, NO<sub>2</sub>, and SO<sub>2</sub>  
sensors, and a 200 mV bias for the NO sensor. Special care was taken to match the input impedance for the NO potentiostatic  
circuit to minimize noise. The circuit amplification is designed to output an analog signal of approximately 1 volt per 100  
ppb NO, SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and 10 ppm CO. The onboard ADC sequentially converts the amplified and filtered signals generated by  
the AE and the WE. The AE voltage is recorded as the background signal, and the differential signal between WE and AE  
130 voltages is used as the sensor signal for calibration and measurement purposes.

The CO<sub>2</sub> sensor is driven with a 2 Hz 5V 50% duty cycle waveform clocked by a MEMS (Micro-Electro-Mechanical Systems)  
oscillator. The outputs of the CO<sub>2</sub> sensor are two DC-biased sinusoidal waves from the reference and active channels, and  
subsequent circuitries are implemented to remove the DC offset and amplify the signals. Two peak detection circuits are  
applied to sample and hold the peak heights of the two amplified sinusoidal waves to be read sequentially by the ADC. This  
135 design uses significantly less processing resources, in comparison with continuous sampling and peak detection through  
software.

The CH<sub>4</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> circuitries are placed on one circuit board to conserve space and accommodate mechanical requirements (Sect.  
2.1.3). These two sensors function by changing their resistances when exposed to their corresponding analytes. Hence, voltage  
dividers with low temperature coefficient load resistors were applied, and the sensor resistances can be derived by sampling  
140 the voltages across the load resistors through ADCs.

The humidity/temperature (RH/T) sensor is placed on a separate small circuit board and towards the front of the inlet to  
minimize the influence of heat generated by the voltage drop across circuit board traces in the presence of other components.  
The PM sensor is equipped with a circuit board to convert from its 1 mm pitch connection to a more convenient 2.54 mm pitch  
connection to facilitate assembly. The RH/T sensor and the PM sensor both output digital signals, and the signals are acquired  
145 by the microcontroller directly. Daughter boards for the portable multipollutant monitor are combined or miniaturized versions  
of the stationary design in order to reduce the amount of wiring and required space.

A central control board generates sensor input voltages, powers components on/off (such as solenoid valves to perform  
calibration and background measurement), powers a piezoelectric blower (to circulate ambient air for the gas sensors), and  
reads, processes, stores and transmits sensor data. The control processes use the Cypress 68-pin PSoC 51p microcontroller,  
150 which interfaces with sensors through digital communication peripherals (I2C and UART). The data acquisition frequencies  
are set as following: the NO<sub>2</sub>, NO, SO<sub>2</sub>, and CO sensors are sampled every 160 ms, with AE and WE signals each taking up  
80 ms sequentially; the CH<sub>4</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> sensors are sampled every 160 ms, utilizing only one signal channel; the RH/T sensor is  
sampled every 160 ms for either RH data and temperature data sequentially, making their actual sampling period 320 ms; the  
CO<sub>2</sub> sensor is sampled with 2 Hz frequency in accordance with the input drive frequency for both the active and reference



155 channels; and the PM sensor is sampled every 640 ms, to accommodate its low data output rate relative to the other components.  
See Table S1 for more information regarding the electronic system.

### 2.1.3 Mechanical Design

The sampling manifold is designed to isolate the sensing areas of the gas sensors in a small active flow area separated from the rest of the device components (Fig. 1, S3). The manifold is 3D-printed with WaterShed XC11222 resin through  
160 stereolithography (SLA), which prints materials with a dense, gas-tight finish. Other 3D printing materials such as acrylonitrile butadiene styrene (ABS) and polylactic acid (PLA) were also tested. These materials are often printed with the fused deposition modeling (FDM) method, creating porous parts that need surface treatment of acetone to be gas-tight. To minimize the potential shape deformation resulting from post-printing treatment, we use the SLA method to print the manifold and other 3D printed parts of the device. O-ring grooves are incorporated in the manifold to secure and provide an air-tight seal for the sensors. To  
165 minimize potential ozone loss, the ozone sensor is placed closest to the manifold inlet. In our testing with a 2B-Tech reference ozone monitor, the ozone loss rate is 4–12% for XC11222 resin, versus 7–22% for ABS. To further reduce losses of reactive analyte, a PTFE liner is inserted into the inlet of the XC11222 manifold to reduce contact between the sampling air and the manifold material. The outlet of the manifold is connected to the piezoelectric blower that sampled at an average flow rate of 0.6 standard liters per minute (SLPM). To optimize monitor response time, the pollutant exchange rate in the manifold is  
170 maximized with high flow rates and a small internal volume of ~9 ml, producing an estimated 1 s residence time in the manifold. The ambient air entering the manifold is first pulled through a filter holder with a 2  $\mu\text{m}$  thick, 47 mm diameter Teflon filter to keep the inside of the manifold clean of particles and collect filter samples for offline analysis.

The  $\text{CH}_4$  sensor inside the manifold is covered by a layer of activated carbon-impregnated cloth (Zorflex® Double Weave), which is secured by a 3D-printed PLA cylindrical shell. It is then wrapped in Teflon tape in order reduce pollutant interactions  
175 with PLA inside of the manifold. This charcoal cloth layer is effective in filtering out VOC interference for the sensor. For instance, when covered by the charcoal cloth, the  $\text{CH}_4$  sensor did not respond to ethanol concentrations as high as 2%. Even after continuous exposure to outdoor VOC for 3 months, with the charcoal cloth cover, the  $\text{CH}_4$  sensor did not respond to ethanol vapor when an open vial was placed near it. For comparison, when the  $\text{CH}_4$  sensor with the used charcoal cloth was placed directly above an open vial of ethanol, sensor resistance dropped by approximately 5 k $\Omega$ , equivalent to 0.3 ppm  
180 methane. While such highly concentrated ethanol vapors are less common in the ambient environment, the activated carbon filter is also likely effective for other VOCs at lower concentrations. Here, ethanol is specifically tested as the challenge compound because the sensor is known to be highly responsive to ethanol and activated carbon is a known, effective hydrocarbon filter for a wide range of VOCs.

Inlet and outlet enclosures are designed for the PM sensor to direct air flow (Fig.1). Specifically, the inlet enclosure contained  
185 an SLA 3D-printed Watershed XC11222 holder to support the sensor and an aluminum inlet, through which sample air flows



190 into the sensor inlet. Aluminum was chosen over 3D-printed plastic material as the inlet duct and grounded to the motherboard to avoid electrostatic particle losses due to static charges on a non-metallic surface. The front of the aluminum duct is covered with an aluminum disk placed 30 mm above it, between which a 32 x 32 mesh stainless steel wire cloth is installed to block insects and large dust particles. Ambient air flows through the screen and enters the aluminum channel to reach the sensor inlet. The aluminum disk is placed above the inlet to block light, which was shown to interfere with normal operation and cause the sensor to output PM mass concentrations above 3000  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ . To reduce the intrusion of light and water, the device is installed with both the gas and particle inlets pointed downwards.

195 The portable monitor makes all measurements immediately adjacent to the breathing zone with all sensors contained in a small custom shoulder-mountable housing that is 3-D printed and easily attachable to a bag, backpack, purse, or other strap (Fig. 1c–d). A small auxiliary enclosure (23 cm x 12 cm x 6.5 cm; 1 kg including battery) is required to house the re-chargeable battery and main circuit board. The design of the gas sensor manifold is similar to that of the stationary monitor with a piezoelectric blower promoting fast air exchange rates in a minimal volume manifold with PM removed at the inlet via a 23 mm PTFE filter in a PTFE housing. PM is measured via a separate minimal inlet with a light shield.

#### 2.1.4 Online Calibration and Zero System

200 All monitors undergo multi-point calibrations under variable, realistic RH/T conditions in an environmental chamber prior to field installation. To improve data quality during field deployment and to better track and correct for sensor drift, the stationary monitor includes a laboratory tested span calibration and zero system. These systems are not incorporated into the portable model to conserve space and minimize weight. However, portable monitors will be periodically calibrated in the environmental chamber over the course of the SEARCH project.

205 The calibration process has either two or three calibration functions depending on the configuration, with the ability to change the temporal frequency at which each occurs. Each stationary monitor has zeroing functions for both the PM sensor and the gas sensor suite while half of the monitors for the SEARCH deployment also have a gas span calibration function using a miniaturized standard cylinder (dependent upon cylinder composition). In the SEARCH project, the PM and gas zeroing functions are scheduled to occur twice a week and the gas span calibration once a week. Depending on the inclusion of the  
210 standard gas cylinder, two or three 3-way solenoid valves are placed in the system to direct flows and alternate normal ambient sampling with PM zero, gas zero, and gas span calibration functions (flow diagram shown in Fig. S4).

For the PM zero, the exhaust from the piezoelectric blower of the gas system, in which particles have been filtered out by a Teflon filter, is directed to the aluminum inlet of the PM sensor. This results in an overflow to the PM inlet due to the higher flow rate of the gas system relative to the particle system, producing a mass concentration of zero.





215 Zero concentrations for the gas sensors are obtained using either a filtering “zero trap” or via their absence from the calibration  
cylinder, which is primarily nitrogen and specifically useful for compounds that do not have room-temperature filtration  
options available for the zero trap. A series of scrubbing materials are used to remove select gas-phase analytes: soda lime for  
CO<sub>2</sub> and activated carbon and stainless-steel wool for O<sub>3</sub>. To obtain the zero-concentration signals with the zero trap, the  
exhaust of the piezoelectric blower is passed through the packed materials directed to the gas sensors through a side port on  
220 the manifold near the inlet. The flow rate through the packed tube is 50 standard cubic centimeters per minute (sccm). With  
the 9 ml internal volume, the air inside the manifold is re-circulated and passed through the packed tube 16 times in 3 min to  
ensure complete analyte removal. At the time of writing, we were unable to find materials to effectively remove CH<sub>4</sub>, CO,  
NO<sub>2</sub>, and NO at ambient temperatures. Therefore, their zero-concentration signals are determined in the laboratory with zero  
air prior to field deployment and are checked routinely with the balance of zero air in the calibration cylinder (with the  
225 exception of CO and CH<sub>4</sub>, which are calibrated via the CO present in the cylinder).

The standard gas delivery system is designed to overflow the manifold with known concentrations of gas standard from a  
miniature stainless steel gas cylinder (2” OD x 5.5”, Swagelok) that is filled with 5 ppm CO and 2000 ppm CO<sub>2</sub> to 1500 psig  
in a balance of nitrogen from a primary authentic cylinder (Airgas). Prior to installation, the pressure regulator (Tescom) is  
adjusted, in combination with a 0.006”–0.007” ID PEEK constriction (1/16” OD), to deliver >30 sccm of standard gas flow  
230 into the manifold through the exhaust port of the piezoelectric blower with the blower off. Delivery at or above that flowrate  
is used to ensure constant overflow conditions regardless of cylinder pressure.

A water permeation setup is included in the standard gas delivery line to maintain a minimum humidity inside the manifold  
during calibration and prevent unrealistically dry conditions that skew electrochemical sensor response. The water permeation  
device includes a 3/8” diameter PTFE membrane (0.001” thick, McMaster-Carr) installed in a stainless steel tee (Swagelok)  
235 where the membrane separates the standard gas flow from a reservoir of deionized water. The PTFE membrane restricts direct  
water flow but allows for sufficient permeation of H<sub>2</sub>O molecules to raise the humidity of the dry standard gas to a level (>40%  
in this study) that allows for acceptable calibration conditions. Furthermore, with field operation, RH conditions during  
calibration can be routinely monitored using the RH/T sensor reporting via the data network.

### 2.1.5 Cellular Communications and Data Storage

240 All raw sensor data is written to a local SD card at sub-second frequency. Every 10 s the data is averaged and transmitted to a  
database hosted on a cloud server through an onboard 4G Telit LE910C1-NS cellular module. To achieve fast and continuous  
sensor data collection while maintaining simultaneous cellular data transmission, a task preemptive scheduler implemented  
within the microcontroller firmware tracks the status of the sensors and cellular module and executes core processes (e.g. read,  
write, send, and receive) at pre-set time intervals. This ensures that all sensor measurements are prioritized over other operating  
245 system tasks.





The data streams stored on the SD card and the cloud server include differential, working, and/or auxiliary channels for electrochemical and NDIR sensors, resistances for metal oxide sensors, size-resolved PM mass and number concentration, power supply voltage, and diagnostic information for calibration processes. The InfluxDB time-series database ([www.influxdata.com](http://www.influxdata.com)) is used to store, receive and serve sensor data from field-deployed monitors. To maximize data  
250 availability, the database is hosted on an Amazon Web Services Elastic Compute Cloud (AWS EC2) instance ([aws.amazon.com](http://aws.amazon.com)). The open-source data visualization platform Grafana ([grafana.com](http://grafana.com)) allows users and stakeholders to see real-time field-deployed monitor data remotely through a web browser (see Fig. S5 for screenshots of these data platforms).

## 2.2 Instrument Evaluation

Our multipollutant monitor undergoes two phases of evaluation in this study: laboratory chamber experiments and ambient  
255 co-location with reference instruments. The laboratory experiments provide an isolated environment for characterizing sensor performance and establishing signal-response-to-concentration calibration curves. Outdoor ambient co-location experiments with reference instrumentation test the performance of the monitors over extended periods of time under a variety of real environmental conditions.

For laboratory calibration experiments at Johns Hopkins University, multipollutant monitors are placed inside a custom-built  
260 steel chamber (0.71 m x 1.35 m x 0.89 m). Environmental conditions range from 5–85% humidity (most occurring around 30–50%) and 20–40°C. Each gas pollutant is introduced into the chamber through filtered air inlets and diluted to a variety of concentrations above and below typical urban ambient levels using zero air (see Table 2). PM<sub>1</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and PM<sub>10</sub> are evaluated using the methodology presented in Levy-Zamora et al. (2019). Online calibration system tests and other sensor response tests at Yale University involve supplying authentic gas standards (Airgas) to the multipollutant monitor inlet or a similar sensor  
265 housing. See the SI for linear calibration data (Fig. S6–7) examples and information on how concentration values are calculated for electrochemical sensors.

Field evaluation took place at 3 different locations, dependent on the availability of reference instruments for inter-comparison. They included near an arterial roadway on Yale's campus in New Haven, CT (Wall St.; 3/26/2018–4/7/2018); Baltimore, MD at the State of Maryland Department of the Environment Oldtown site (Oldtown Fire Station, 1100 Hillen St.; 5/18/2017–  
270 6/7/2017, 11/2017–12/2017, and 6/14/2018–7/12/2018); as well as in New York, NY (6/23/2018) and Baltimore, MD (3/2/2019) for separate tests of the portable monitor.

The temporal resolution of the comparison between the multipollutant monitor and reference instrumentation is primarily limited by the reference instrument. For NO<sub>2</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and CO<sub>2</sub> evaluations made at the Oldtown site in MD, the lowest temporal resolution of the reference is 1 hr. For the New Haven, CT field evaluations we use an on-site 2B-Tech (model 202) for O<sub>3</sub>  
275 and Thermo Scientific Model 48i for CO and are able to show comparisons at finer time resolution; 1 min for O<sub>3</sub> and 10 min for CO. For comparison to the other sensors and literature, O<sub>3</sub> and CO are also reanalyzed at a 1 h average. In New Haven, 1



h NO reference data is used from the Connecticut Department of Energy and Environmental Protection (DEEP) Criscoolo Park site.

Common metrics for evaluating the performance of sensor configurations include linear regression parameters between RH/T corrected sensor data and reference instrument data such as the coefficient of correlation ( $r$ ), coefficient of determination ( $r^2$ ), slope ( $m$ ), and intercept ( $b$ ). Ideal sensor performance would show strong correlation ( $r=1$  or  $-1$ ,  $r^2=1$ ) as well as minimal over- or under estimation of the true concentration ( $m=1$ ,  $b=0$ ). Statistical error tests such as the mean bias error (MBE), mean absolute error (MAE), and root mean square error (RMSE) are also commonly used. The MBE represents the tendency for the sensor to over- or under-estimate the reference, although positive and negative errors can cancel each other out. To get around that limitation, the MAE is similar to the MBE but looks only at the average absolute difference between the sensors. Finally, the RMSE represents how narrow the error distribution is by penalizing large measurements errors. All tests are reported in concentration units which allows for physical interpretation of sensor performance. They are calculated as following:

$$MBE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (C_i^{MPM} - C_i^{ref}), \quad (1)$$

$$MAE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |C_i^{MPM} - C_i^{ref}|, \quad (2)$$

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (C_i^{MPM} - C_i^{ref})^2}, \quad (3)$$

where  $n$  is the total number of co-location data points,  $C^{MPM}$  is the concentration value of the multipollutant monitor, and  $C^{ref}$  is the concentration value of the reference monitor.

## 3 Results and Discussion

### 3.1 Stationary Monitor Field Results

**3.1.1 Particulate Matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>):** Comparison of the Plantower PM sensor at the Oldtown site (Baltimore, MD) shows strong correlation ( $r=0.91$ ,  $m=1.0$ ) for PM<sub>2.5</sub> with a 1 h averaging window over the span of 4 weeks. Figure 2a shows a clear overestimate in raw PM<sub>2.5</sub> by the Plantower sensor at higher concentrations as reported in Levy-Zamora et al. (2019), where we derive a laboratory RH/T-correction equation to reduce bias and error (in this study:  $MBE=+0.9 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ,  $RMSE=4.3 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ). At a separate New Haven, CT deployment, our PM<sub>2.5</sub> measurements are well-correlated ( $r=0.94$ – $0.98$ ,  $m=1.01$ – $1.33$ ) between five different multipollutant monitors at a 10 min resolution (Fig. 2b). See Fig. S8 for the time series data from Fig. 2b.

**3.1.2 Nitrogen Dioxide:** The NO<sub>2</sub> sensor exhibited strong correlation ( $r=0.88$ ,  $m=0.93$ ) at the Oldtown site at hourly resolution. The monitor tracked with the reference well during both clean periods and periods of pollution maxima ( $MBE=+0.8$  ppb,  $RMSE=5.3$  ppb), with concentrations ranging from near zero to over 50 ppb during the deployment (Fig. 3a). Correlation



values between the raw multipollutant monitor data and the reference are significantly improved using a RH/T correction (Fig. 3b; see SI for RH/T-correction procedures). In addition, 35% of data points fall within 10% of the reference instrument and 70% fall within 30% (Fig. 3c). The NO<sub>2</sub> sensor is known to be cross sensitive to O<sub>3</sub>, but the NO<sub>2</sub> sensors are manufacturer-equipped with an O<sub>3</sub> filter rated to withstand 500 hours at 2 ppm (or longer at lower concentrations). While the NO<sub>2</sub> sensor did not exhibit cross sensitivity during the Oldtown deployment due to low ozone concentrations, future deployments should take the rating of the ozone filter into consideration and routinely monitor for biases due to ozone.

**3.1.3 Carbon Monoxide:** The CO sensor demonstrated strong correlation ( $r=0.92$ ,  $m=1.2$ ) in a week-long deployment in New Haven, CT at 10 min resolution. Figure 4a shows good tracking of pollution events and background shifts where concentrations exceeded 400 ppb but a noticeable underreporting relative to the reference during these relatively clean periods (<200 ppb). These deviations coincided with elevated temperatures inside the monitor (>15°C) which is consistent with the zero temperature dependence listed by the manufacturer (Alphasense CO-A4 Data Sheet). To correct some of this offset, two sets of temperature corrections were used: a linear fit for all readings above 18°C and a linear fit for all readings below 18°C. Logarithmic and quadratic fits were tested for the high temperature relationship, but the best fit was linear. See Fig. S9 for the low and high temperature data points. Figure 4b shows that even with the correction factors, the overall trend and error (MBE=+5 ppb, RMSE=59 ppb) remain similar to the raw data. After these corrections 43% of data points were within 10% of the reference and 88% were within 30% at a 10 min resolution (Fig. 4c).

**3.1.4 Carbon Dioxide:** CO<sub>2</sub> showed moderate correlation ( $r=0.66$ ,  $m=0.59$ ) with the NIST North-East Corridor Project's NEB tower site over a three-week deployment at a 1 h resolution. While not a direct co-location (2.7 km apart), the NEB site is used as a reference to examine city-wide CO<sub>2</sub> levels and trends while acknowledging that spatial differences from local sources may limit the inter-comparison due to vertical or horizontal variance. Figure 5a shows the monitor trends well with the reference after temperature-correction, although the monitor occasionally exceeds the reference concentration by 10-20 ppm (MBE=+3.4 ppm, RMSE=11 ppm). This is consistent with the reported accuracy of ~15 ppm shown in the manufacturer data sheet at 400 ppm in laboratory testing (Alphasense IRC-A1 Data Sheet). Possible lags in regional pollution episodes can be observed in the time series data (e.g. 6/30, 7/1, 7/7) leading to a lower correlation value than other presented pollutants. Despite this, 70% of readings were within 2.5% of the reference instrument (~10 ppm) and 98% were within 7.5% (~30 ppm).

**3.1.5 Ozone:** The O<sub>3</sub> sensor exhibited strong correlation ( $r=0.97$ ,  $m=0.99$ ) at a high temporal resolution of 1 min in New Haven, CT. The raw sensor resistance followed the ozone concentration measured by the 2B monitor with an exponential relationship (Fig. 6b). With this fitted exponential curve, the ozone concentration from sensor measurement was derived, and compared to the 2B monitor results to evaluate the sensor's performance and dependency on environmental factors (MBE=-0.2 ppb, RMSE=3.3 ppb). We found that at low ozone concentrations (<10 ppb), there is considerable measurement discrepancy between the two devices (Fig. 6c-d). This is consistent with the sensor manufacturer's 10-1000 ppb rating for the device's measurement range (Table 1). For ozone concentrations higher than 10 ppb, 67% of the data points agree within 10%,



and 99% within 30% of the reference (Fig. 6e). It is worth noting that the sensor output was not significantly affected by changes in RH during the study, despite large variation in these environmental conditions (Fig. 6d). The temperature effect is more significant with the concentration ratio for our monitor to the reference (for data >10 ppb), following the relationship  $0.85 + 0.70 \exp(-0.11T)$ . Still, the sensor's temperature biases are minor here as Fig. 6e presents non-temperature-corrected results.

**3.1.6 Nitric Oxide:** Without an immediately co-located reference NO monitor, we compared the NO sensor performance against the near-road DEEP Criscuolo Park site (1.6 km away from sampling location in downtown New Haven). The sensor had higher error terms than other low ppb-level sensors (MBE=+1.6, RMSE=16 ppb) likely due to the distance difference and deviations due to local dynamics, but still showed good agreement (Fig. 7) and reasonable correlation ( $r=0.74$ ,  $m=0.86$ ; Fig. S11) at a 1 h resolution. We also leverage O<sub>3</sub> and CO measurements during the same sampling window to understand NO concentrations as NO readily reacts with O<sub>3</sub> and is often co-emitted with CO during combustion. The two-week campaign shows the effect of high NO concentrations on O<sub>3</sub> abundances due to the reaction  $\text{NO} + \text{O}_3$ , and CO enhancements coincide with elevated NO concentration levels (Fig. 7). NO concentrations at 1 h resolution during the New Haven deployment range from 0 to 160 ppb with three major concentration enhancements. Each buildup occurred overnight and dissipated around mid-morning, potentially owing to periods of decreased ventilation and the accumulation of NO from nighttime traffic emissions in the nocturnal boundary layer without any photochemistry. A 1 h time lag relative to the reference site is observed on some NO spikes which is also observed in the CO data, and is likely due to differences in sampling location. During the three periods when NO concentrations exceeded 100 ppb for an extended period of time, O<sub>3</sub> concentrations decreased to ~0 ppb and CO concentrations exceeded 600 ppb. It is worth noting that the NO sensor used does not have significant cross-response to O<sub>3</sub> or CO (Alphasense NO-A4 Data Sheet).

**3.1.7 Others:** Other pollutants not discussed in detail here include CH<sub>4</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub>. The Figaro TGS2600 methane sensor demonstrated high linearity in signal response in the laboratory (Fig. S7) and effective VOC filtration, but a reference monitor was not available and future testing is planned. While the multipollutant monitors field-tested in this paper do not include the SO<sub>2</sub> sensor, and it is not planned for the SEARCH deployment, our laboratory results (Fig. S6) and past work (Hagan et al., 2018) suggest it is suitable for measurements in locations with SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations higher than typical urban levels (>15 ppb).

### 3.2 Portable Monitor Field Testing

Personal exposure data was collected using our shoulder-mounted portable monitor in Manhattan, New York City (Fig. 8), and Baltimore, MD (Fig. 9). These results are discussed in brief with a focus on PM<sub>2.5</sub>. In New York City, PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations reached a maximum of 210  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  at a restaurant where the average was 34  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  while inside. Several closely occurring spikes with PM<sub>2.5</sub> maxima at 30–175  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  occurred in an area with food carts on Broadway Ave. between 34th and 57th St., including open flame meat cooking, small power generators, and cigarette smoking. An average concentration of  $9 \pm 21 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  was encountered across the 6 h period that included a mix of indoor and outdoor environments, and a mix of parks



and streets. Concentrations while in parks were lower than when walking along streets. The average concentrations across the southern transect of Central Park (5:45 pm) and Madison Square Park (7:30 pm) were  $0.5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  and  $1.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , respectively, compared to  $3.9 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  while on the streets before and after. Coupling the high sampling rate of one measurement per second with RH/T correction factors, the portable monitor has the ability to capture high-temporal resolution events (i.e., 10–20 s) for  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ .  $\text{PM}_1$  had similar trends, with a  $\text{PM}_{2.5}/\text{PM}_1$  ratio of 1.44 at the restaurant, 1.48 at the parks, and 1.44 for the entire study period. Due to the lack of a robust RH/T correction factor for  $\text{PM}_1$ , we report only the ratio for  $\text{PM}_{2.5}/\text{PM}_1$  in the raw data.

A day-long deployment in Baltimore shows  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  concentrations vary widely across locations and transportation modes (Fig. 9) and can be mapped within a city via GPS. Elevated levels of  $35 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  occurred in the morning at a restaurant before reaching consistent values of less than  $10 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  for most of the day. There were occasional concentration spikes, such as walking through a commercial store (see purple symbols at 11:00am) where measurements rapidly rose from  $\sim 0$  to  $30 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ . In the afternoon, concentrations spiked to above  $110 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  while driving during rush hour with the windows closed. GPS functionality was maintained throughout the study and accurately depicted the path of the participant, yet some path information in Fig. 9 is not depicted during vehicle transport due to averaging to 1 min intervals.

### 3.3 Sensor Response Time

A key performance characteristic of any field-deployed analytical instrument is its response time to changes in pollutant concentrations, especially in dynamic urban environments where concentrations change rapidly with source proximity or microenvironments. This response time is a function of air exchange rates within the sampling system and the individual sensor response times, which are inherently limited in some sensors involving electrochemical processes. A useful metric to examine this is the e-folding time (i.e. a decrease to a signal of  $1-1/e$  or  $\sim 63\%$ ) of sensor signals due to abrupt changes in pollutant concentration. A long e-folding time indicates a sluggish sensor, while a short e-folding time indicates a responsive sensor that can respond to a dynamic environment and distinguish changes at higher-temporal resolution. To characterize the sample delivery systems, Fig. 10 shows the response of several sensors in the multipollutant monitor and their e-folding times.  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  has the shortest e-folding time of roughly 10 s ( $\text{PM}_1$  and  $\text{PM}_{10}$  are similar) due to its optical sensing technique (in a separate sampling inlet). CO and  $\text{CO}_2$  have similar e-folding times of 20 s, demonstrating an ability to capture changes at under 1 min resolution (see Fig. S10 for analysis of 20 s  $\text{PM}_1$  and CO roadside plumes). NO and  $\text{NO}_2$  take longer to respond, 50 and 65 s respectively, but are still capable of capturing urban dynamics at a 5–10 min resolution.

### 3.4 Online Calibration Processes

**3.4.1 Standard Gas Cylinder Delivery:** A laboratory test of the gas cylinder delivery system is shown in Fig. 11a delivering known concentrations of CO and  $\text{CO}_2$  in a balance of nitrogen for a span check as well as zero concentration signals for other sensors (e.g.  $\text{NO}_2$ , NO). With the small internal volume of the manifold flushed by 30 sccm of standard gas, it quickly reaches stabilized signals within the 3 min calibration periods, consistent with expectations based on Fig.10. Five repeated runs at a



400 delivery pressure of 35 psig (prior to the constriction tubing that substantially reduces pressure to near 1 atm) demonstrated consistent behavior and is representative of initial performance in field tested units. Expected shifts in RH are observed (and can be used in-field to evaluate RH sensitivity), but the permeation device maintains humidity at relevant conditions despite a completely dry standard gas.

**3.4.2 Zero Trap:** Figure 11b shows the effective removal of CO<sub>2</sub> using the gas zeroing function, while stable concentrations are observed for non-zeroed gases. Changes in NO concentrations (and less so for NO<sub>2</sub>) occur due to the observed changes in 405 RH. During long-term field deployment, RH changes occurring both during the use of the calibration gas cylinder and the zero trap are also useful indicators to check in-field RH-dependent changes in response factors and zero signals, respectively, when occurring under stable concentrations. Similarly, differences in temperature between zeroing periods can be used to check temperature-related variations for sensors with significant temperature response. Figure 11b does not include O<sub>3</sub> data as the levels in the laboratory were too low for sensor response to move off the baseline. Experiments at higher concentrations 410 indicate that stainless steel is an effective scavenger of O<sub>3</sub> (see Fig. S12).

**3.4.3 PM Zero:** Field testing of the PM zero method was conducted near food cart vendors in New Haven, CT. Ambient concentrations ranged between 3 and 48 μg/m<sup>3</sup> with rapid changes due to moderate wind levels and proximity to active sources. After switching the valves, PM levels were effectively zeroed for two minutes and rose back immediately to higher concentrations and saw large spikes after the zero ended (see Fig. S13). For monitors in very close proximity to highly- 415 concentrated plumes (e.g., >250 μg/m<sup>3</sup>), longer zero periods or scheduling during low activity periods may be necessary to fully flush the inlet and avoid/isolate bias from concentrated plumes.

### 3.5 Comparison with Literature

To contextualize the performance of our monitors, Table 3 shows a summary of co-location statistical data with several recent literature field deployments. For a more extensive comparison, see Karagulian et al. (2019). The presented performance metrics 420 are specific to the region and conditions they were evaluated in, and differences in sampling locations, environmental conditions, pollutant mixtures, and testing durations should be considered in future applications. For NO<sub>2</sub>, our multipollutant monitor had a higher r<sup>2</sup> (0.77) than other studies except for Bigi et al. (2018) (r<sup>2</sup>=0.80), with our MAE and RMSE lower by 2.1 and 3 ppb, respectively. The NO sensor shows lower correlation than other studies such as Cross et al. (2017) in terms of r<sup>2</sup> (their r<sup>2</sup> of 0.84 compared to our 0.54) and error terms (their RMSE of 4.52 ppb compared to our 16 ppb), though we are 425 comparing against a reference instrument located 1.6 km away with evident localized dynamics (see Sect. 3.1.6). For CO, the multipollutant monitor performed similarly to other studies using Alphasense electrochemical sensors, such as Zimmerman et al. (2018), where our r<sup>2</sup> and MAE were lower by 0.11 and 3 ppb, respectively. To our knowledge this work is the first low-cost urban air sensor network implementation of the Alphasense IRC-A1 sensor. Zimmerman et al. (2018) measured CO<sub>2</sub> using an SST CO2S-A, but no reference instrument was available for their co-location study. One study that did report CO<sub>2</sub> co-





430 location results was Spinelle et al. (2017), which showed higher  $r^2$  (0.51–0.79) but similar slope values after using an artificial  
neural network for calibration. For  $O_3$ , the deployments used for comparison primarily utilized a form of the Alphasense Ox-  
B4 sensor (in tandem with  $NO_2$  electrochemical sensors). Our MiCS sensor performed well compared to other co-locations in  
regards to  $r^2$  and  $m$  values, with only Zimmerman et al. (2018) (using the same updated Ox-B431 which we employ in our  
portable monitors) reporting similar MBE. Ripoll et al. (2019) used both an Alphasense Ox-B431 and MiCS-2614 sensor and  
435 found that both exhibited strong performance, similar to our results. For  $PM_{2.5}$ , we compare our sensors primarily with selected  
results from AQ-SPEC testing (i.e. five highest  $r^2$  values) from Feenstra et al. (2019).  $PM_{2.5}$  sensors saw a wide range of  $r^2$   
values being reported (0.73–0.95) with the highest coming from the PurpleAir PA-II which uses a Plantower sensor and the  
two next highest being Plantower A003 sensors from this study. To summarize the performance distribution of our pollutant  
measurements, Fig. S14 compares the values from Table 3 to the “best selection region” defined by Karagulian et al. (2019).

### 440 3.6 Best Practices

The field of low-cost air quality sensors is rapidly improving, and new generations of monitoring devices should strive to  
further improve accuracy and precision. Here we present a list of lessons learned, obstacles faced, and recommendations for  
future design, fabrication, and deployment. Careful consideration of electronic design and sensor selection can eliminate  
complications later in the process. We make the following recommendations: choose low noise components where applicable  
445 to enhance precision and improve detection limits; transform signals from analog to digital near to the sensor to preserve signal;  
utilize ADCs of sufficiently high resolution for the application to achieve the resolution necessary for the pollutant  
measurement application; use electronic shielding on sensitive sensing or signal transmission components; monitor power  
delivery in real time and report back auxiliary and supply signals; and measure RH/T dependent channels where applicable  
(e.g. auxiliary electrode on Alphasense sensors).

450 Good design should take into account sensor-to-sensor performance and practice good quality assurance and quality control  
(QA/QC) of sensors, both prior to installation and for a trial period after installation. For some of the sensors used in the  
multipollutant monitor, there was more deviation from lot-to-lot than anticipated which requires careful laboratory calibration  
to correct. To minimize the impact of sensor variability on field measurements, characterize sensors before installation and  
deployment for supplemental quality control purposes. If possible, compare new sensors against typical response patterns  
455 found in the deployment already in order to gauge whether a sensor or circuit board may be malfunctioning early on. With a  
large network, some amount of automation will be necessary to quickly determine malfunctioning monitors. Also, carefully  
consider the position within the manifold and implement measures to keep the sensors clean and away from interferences, such  
as upstream particle filtration for gas-phase sensors or positioning the NDIR  $CO_2$  sensor last to reduce the influence of waste  
heat, respectively.





460 Active flow is critical and allows us to achieve high temporal resolution measurements with e-folding times below one minute  
for most pollutants. In urban settings and for personal exposure studies this provides additional data points to identify rapidly  
changing emissions and environmental conditions. When deploying the monitors: use a water-tight enclosure with inlets  
pointed downwards to avoid light and water intrusion; shade them from direct sunlight if possible at a given site to reduce  
temperature swings that exacerbate temperature-dependent calibration changes; implement mesh to the inlets to prevent insects  
465 from entering; and be mindful of point source emissions nearby to reduce undesired bias. Additionally, check for flow balance  
consistently during construction and then periodically in the field (during deployment or servicing) to (i) confirm high active  
flow rates, (ii) verify that measurements are not being compromised with air from within the enclosure, and (iii) ensure that  
on-board calibrations perform properly. Additionally, in order to better assess issues remotely, choice of wireless connectivity  
should be evaluated. Cell connections are convenient and allow for the monitor to be placed nearly anywhere but can be spotty  
470 at times and can be more expensive to operate than a WiFi-based approach. Protocols for remote access into the monitors to  
address problems and prompt a restart are desirable to minimize wasted travel time to sites.

#### 4 Conclusions

Our multipollutant monitors advance the state of the field by monitoring 9+ gas and size-resolved PM pollutant data streams  
simultaneously in an optimized fast-response active flow system. The stationary monitor includes a novel on-board calibration  
475 system and the portable shoulder-mountable monitor samples in the breathing zone. We implement low-noise electronic  
design, GPS tracking, and cellular communications to communicate ambient and calibration data in real-time—all to enable  
more accurate and precise cost-effective monitor networks for stationary or mobile platforms. The calibration system is flexible  
and can be adjusted for a variety of analytes of interest via tuning of the calibration gas or zero trap. Additionally, a greater  
range of RH/T points can be gained by increasing calibration frequency with strategic timing of calibration functions across  
480 the day. Still, there is a need for continual improvement of laboratory and field calibration procedures, effects from RH/T, and  
comparisons to reference instrumentation through permanent and temporary co-location. With most pollutants achieving high  
correlation in urban field evaluations, these systems are ready for large-scale network deployments and smaller scale targeted  
measurements.

#### Data Availability

485 Data will be made available by the authors upon request.

#### Supporting Information

Figures S1–14 and Table S1 are available in the Supporting Information (PDF), available free of charge online.



### Author Contributions

490 FX, MLZ, BK, KR, KMS, JKG, KK, and DRG conceptualized the multipollutant monitor mechanical design, electronics, and/or online calibration system. CB, FX, MLZ, JKG, SC, MM, and DRG designed and constructed the multipollutant monitors or tested their components. CB, FX, MM, and MLZ performed calibration testing. CB, FX, MLZ, CR, and DRG performed co-location experiments and/or collected data. CB, FX, and MLZ performed data analysis. MB, BW, and BK helped design and develop electronics, cellular communications, data management. KR also provided guidance on the electronic design and best practices. CB, FX, and DRG prepared of the original manuscript. All authors have reviewed the paper.

### 495 Competing Interests

DRG has externally-funded projects on low-cost air quality monitoring technology (EPA, HKF Technology), where the developed technology has been licensed by Yale to HKF Technology.

### Acknowledgements

We thank HKF Technology, the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, and The Heinz Endowments for funding the research.  
500 C.B., D.R.G., K.K., B.K., and M.L.Z. acknowledge support from the Assistance Agreement No. RD835871 awarded by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency to Yale University. It has not been formally reviewed by EPA. The views expressed in this document are solely those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect those of the Agency. EPA does not endorse any products or commercial services mentioned in this publication. C.B. is supported by the National Science Foundation Graduate Research Fellowship Program under Grant No. DGE1752134. Any opinions, findings, and conclusions or recommendations  
505 expressed in this material are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily reflect the views of the National Science Foundation. M.L.Z. was also supported by the National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences of the National Institutes of Health under awards number 1K23ES029985-01 and K99ES029116. The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the National Institutes of Health. The authors thank the Maryland Department of the Environment Air and Radiation Management Administration for allowing us to colocate our sensors with their  
510 instruments. For their assistance, we thank the Yale Center for Engineering Innovation and Design (CEID); Jordan Peccia (Yale); the following Yale undergraduates for their assistance: Kevin Truong, Hannah Nesser, Patrick Wilczynski, Genevieve Fowler, Mieke Scherpbier, Jonathan Chang, Christian White, Marissa Huiling Foo, Reese Roberts, Bohan Lou, Christian Mendez, Tori Hass-Mitchell, Jinny Van Doorn, Pulith Peiris; and Amir Bond and Ethan Weed (Peabody EVolutions). We thank Alphasense for their help with sensor integration and signal processing.

515



## References

- Alphasense Ltd.: IRC-A1 Carbon Dioxide Infrared Sensor Data Sheet, [online] Available from: <http://www.alphasense.com/WEB1213/wp-content/uploads/2018/04/IRC-A1.pdf>, 2018.
- Alphasense Ltd.: CO-A4 Carbon Monoxide Sensor Data Sheet, [online] Available from: <http://www.alphasense.com/WEB1213/wp-content/uploads/2019/09/CO-A4.pdf>, 2019a.
- Alphasense Ltd.: NO-A4 Nitric Oxide Sensor Data Sheet, [online] Available from: <http://www.alphasense.com/WEB1213/wp-content/uploads/2019/09/NO-A4.pdf>, 2019b.
- Bigi, A., Mueller, M., Grange, S. K., Ghermandi, G. and Hueglin, C.: Performance of NO, NO<sub>2</sub> low cost sensors and three calibration approaches within a real world application, *Atmos. Meas. Tech.*, 11(6), 3717–3735, doi:10.5194/amt-11-3717-2018, 2018.
- Borrego, C., Costa, A. M., Ginja, J., Amorim, M., Coutinho, M., Karatzas, K., Sioumis, T., Katsifarakis, N., Konstantinidis, K., De Vito, S., Esposito, E., Smith, P., André, N., Gérard, P., Francis, L. A., Castell, N., Schneider, P., Viana, M., Minguillón, M. C., Reimringer, W., Otjes, R. P., von Sicard, O., Pohle, R., Elen, B., Suriano, D., Pfister, V., Prato, M., Dipinto, S. and Penza, M.: Assessment of air quality microsensors versus reference methods: The EuNetAir joint exercise, *Atmos. Environ.*, 147(2), 246–263, doi:10.1016/j.atmosenv.2016.09.050, 2016.
- van den Bossche, M., Rose, N. T. and De Wekker, S. F. J.: Potential of a low-cost gas sensor for atmospheric methane monitoring, *Sensors Actuators, B Chem.*, 238(2), 501–509, doi:10.1016/j.snb.2016.07.092, 2017.
- Brauer, M., Amann, M., Burnett, R. T., Cohen, A., Dentener, F., Ezzati, M., Henderson, S. B., Krzyzanowski, M., Martin, R. V., Van Dingenen, R., Van Donkelaar, A. and Thurston, G. D.: Exposure assessment for estimation of the global burden of disease attributable to outdoor air pollution, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 46(2), 652–660, doi:10.1021/es2025752, 2012.
- Cao, T. and Thompson, J. E.: Personal monitoring of ozone exposure: A fully portable device for under \$150 USD cost, *Sensors Actuators, B Chem.*, 224, 936–943, doi:10.1016/j.snb.2015.10.090, 2016.
- Castell, N., Dauge, F. R., Schneider, P., Vogt, M., Lerner, U., Fishbain, B., Broday, D. and Bartonova, A.: Can commercial low-cost sensor platforms contribute to air quality monitoring and exposure estimates?, *Environ. Int.*, 99, 293–302, doi:10.1016/j.envint.2016.12.007, 2017.
- Chuang, K. J., Chan, C. C., Su, T. C., Lee, C. Te and Tang, C. S.: The effect of urban air pollution on inflammation, oxidative stress, coagulation, and autonomic dysfunction in young adults, *Am. J. Respir. Crit. Care Med.*, 176(4), 370–376, doi:10.1164/rccm.200611-1627OC, 2007.
- Cohen, A. J., Brauer, M., Burnett, R., Anderson, H. R., Frostad, J., Estep, K., Balakrishnan, K., Brunekreef, B., Dandona, L., Dandona, R., Feigin, V., Freedman, G., Hubbell, B., Jobling, A., Kan, H., Knibbs, L., Liu, Y., Martin, R., Morawska, L., Pope, C. A., Shin, H., Straif, K., Shaddick, G., Thomas, M., van Dingenen, R., van Donkelaar, A., Vos, T., Murray, C. J. L. and Forouzanfar, M. H.: Estimates and 25-year trends of the global burden of disease attributable to ambient air pollution: an analysis of data from the Global Burden of Diseases Study 2015, *Lancet*, 389(10082), 1907–1918, doi:10.1016/S0140-



- 6736(17)30505-6, 2017.
- 550 Cross, E. S., Williams, L. R., Lewis, D. K., Magoon, G. R., Onasch, T. B., Kaminsky, M. L., Worsnop, D. R. and Jayne, J. T.: Use of electrochemical sensors for measurement of air pollution: Correcting interference response and validating measurements, *Atmos. Meas. Tech.*, 10(9), 3575–3588, doi:10.5194/amt-10-3575-2017, 2017.
- Eugster, W. and Kling, G. W.: Performance of a low-cost methane sensor for ambient concentration measurements in preliminary studies, *Atmos. Meas. Tech.*, 5(8), 1925–1934, doi:10.5194/amt-5-1925-2012, 2012.
- 555 Feenstra, B., Papapostolou, V., Hasheminassab, S., Zhang, H., Boghossian, B. Der, Cocker, D. and Polidori, A.: Performance evaluation of twelve low-cost PM<sub>2.5</sub> sensors at an ambient air monitoring site, *Atmos. Environ.*, 216(August), 116946, doi:10.1016/j.atmosenv.2019.116946, 2019.
- Forouzanfar, M. H., Afshin, A., Alexander, L. T., Biryukov, S., Brauer, M., Cercy, K., Charlson, F. J., Cohen, A. J., Dandona, L., Estep, K., Ferrari, A. J., Frostad, J. J., Fullman, N., Godwin, W. W., Griswold, M., Hay, S. I., Kyu, H. H., Larson, H. J.,  
560 Lim, S. S., Liu, P. Y., Lopez, A. D., Lozano, R., Marczak, L., Mokdad, A. H., Moradi-Lakeh, M., Naghavi, M., Reitsma, M. B., Roth, G. A., Sur, P. J., Vos, T., Wagner, J. A., Wang, H., Zhao, Y., Zhou, M., Barber, R. M., Bell, B., Blore, J. D., Casey, D. C., Coates, M. M., Cooperrider, K., Cornaby, L., Dicker, D., Erskine, H. E., Fleming, T., Foreman, K., Gakidou, E., Haagsma, J. A., Johnson, C. O., Kemmer, L., Ku, T., Leung, J., Masiye, F., Millea, A., Mirarefin, M., Misganaw, A., Mullany, E., Mumford, J. E., Ng, M., Olsen, H., Rao, P., Reinig, N., Roman, Y., Sandar, L., Santomauro, D. F., Slepak, E. L., Sorensen,  
565 R. J. D., Thomas, B. A., Vollset, S. E., Whiteford, H. A., Zipkin, B., Murray, C. J. L., Mock, C. N., Anderson, B. O., Futran, N. D., Anderson, H. R., Bhutta, Z. A., Nisar, M. I., Akseer, N., Krueger, H., Gotay, C. C., Kisseon, N., Kopec, J. A., Pourmalek, F., Burnett, R., Abajobir, A. A., Knibbs, L. D., Veerman, J. L., Lalloo, R., Scott, J. G., Alam, N. K. M., Gouda, H. N., Guo, Y., McGrath, J. J., Jeemon, P., Dandona, R., Goenka, S., Kumar, G. A., Gething, P. W., Bisanzio, D., et al.: Global, regional, and national comparative risk assessment of 79 behavioural, environmental and occupational, and metabolic risks or clusters  
570 of risks, 1990–2015: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2015, *Lancet*, 388(10053), 1659–1724, doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(16)31679-8, 2016.
- Hagan, D. H., Isaacman-Vanwertz, G., Franklin, J. P., Wallace, L. M. M., Kocar, B. D., Heald, C. L. and Kroll, J. H.: Calibration and assessment of electrochemical air quality sensors by co-location with regulatory-grade instruments, *Atmos. Meas. Tech.*, 11(1), 315–328, doi:10.5194/amt-11-315-2018, 2018.
- 575 Hodgkinson, J., Smith, R., Ho, W. O., Saffell, J. R. and Tatam, R. P.: Non-dispersive infra-red (NDIR) measurement of carbon dioxide at 4.2  $\mu\text{m}$  in a compact and optically efficient sensor, *Sensors Actuators, B Chem.*, 186, 580–588, doi:10.1016/j.snb.2013.06.006, 2013.
- Karagulian, F., Barbieri, M., Kotsev, A., Spinelle, L., Gerboles, M., Lagler, F., Redon, N., Crunaire, S. and Borowiak, A.: Review of the performance of low-cost sensors for air quality monitoring, *Atmosphere (Basel)*, 10(9),  
580 doi:10.3390/atmos10090506, 2019.
- Kheirbek, I., Wheeler, K., Walters, S., Kass, D. and Matte, T.: PM<sub>2.5</sub> and ozone health impacts and disparities in New York City: Sensitivity to spatial and temporal resolution, *Air Qual. Atmos. Heal.*, 6(2), 473–486, doi:10.1007/s11869-012-0185-4,



- 2013.
- 585 Levy-Zamora, M., Xiong, F., Gentner, D., Kerkez, B., Kohrman-Glaser, J. and Koehler, K.: Field and Laboratory Evaluations of the Low-Cost Plantower Particulate Matter Sensor, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 53(2), 838–849, doi:10.1021/acs.est.8b05174, 2019.
- Lewis, A. C., Lee, J. D., Edwards, P. M., Shaw, M. D., Evans, M. J., Moller, S. J., Smith, K. R., Buckley, J. W., Ellis, M., Gillot, S. R. and White, A.: Evaluating the performance of low cost chemical sensors for air pollution research, *Faraday Discuss.*, 189, 85–103, doi:10.1039/c5fd00201j, 2016.
- 590 Mead, M. I., Popoola, O. A. M., Stewart, G. B., Landshoff, P., Calleja, M., Hayes, M., Baldovi, J. J., McLeod, M. W., Hodgson, T. F., Dicks, J., Lewis, A., Cohen, J., Baron, R., Saffell, J. R. and Jones, R. L.: The use of electrochemical sensors for monitoring urban air quality in low-cost, high-density networks, *Atmos. Environ.*, 70, 186–203, doi:10.1016/j.atmosenv.2012.11.060, 2013.
- Piedrahita, R., Xiang, Y., Masson, N., Ortega, J., Collier, A., Jiang, Y., Li, K., Dick, R. P., Lv, Q., Hannigan, M. and Shang, 595 L.: The next generation of low-cost personal air quality sensors for quantitative exposure monitoring, *Atmos. Meas. Tech.*, 7(10), 3325–3336, doi:10.5194/amt-7-3325-2014, 2014.
- Pope, C. A. and Dockery, D. W.: Health effects of fine particulate air pollution: Lines that connect, *J. Air Waste Manag. Assoc.*, 56(6), 709–742, doi:10.1080/10473289.2006.10464485, 2006.
- 600 Popoola, O. A. M., Stewart, G. B., Mead, M. I. and Jones, R. L.: Development of a baseline-temperature correction methodology for electrochemical sensors and its implications for long-term stability, *Atmos. Environ.*, 147, 330–343, doi:10.1016/j.atmosenv.2016.10.024, 2016.
- Thorson, J., Collier-Oxandale, A. and Hannigan, M.: Using A Low-Cost Sensor Array and Machine Mixtures and Identify Likely Sources, *Sensors*, 19, 3723, 2019.
- 605 Zimmerman, N., Presto, A. A., Kumar, S. P. N., Gu, J., Hauryliuk, A., Robinson, E. S., Robinson, A. L. and Subramanian, R.: A machine learning calibration model using random forests to improve sensor performance for lower-cost air quality monitoring, *Atmos. Meas. Tech.*, 11(1), 291–313, doi:10.5194/amt-11-291-2018, 2018.



610 **Table 1: Technical specifications concerning the pollutant and environmental sensors used.**

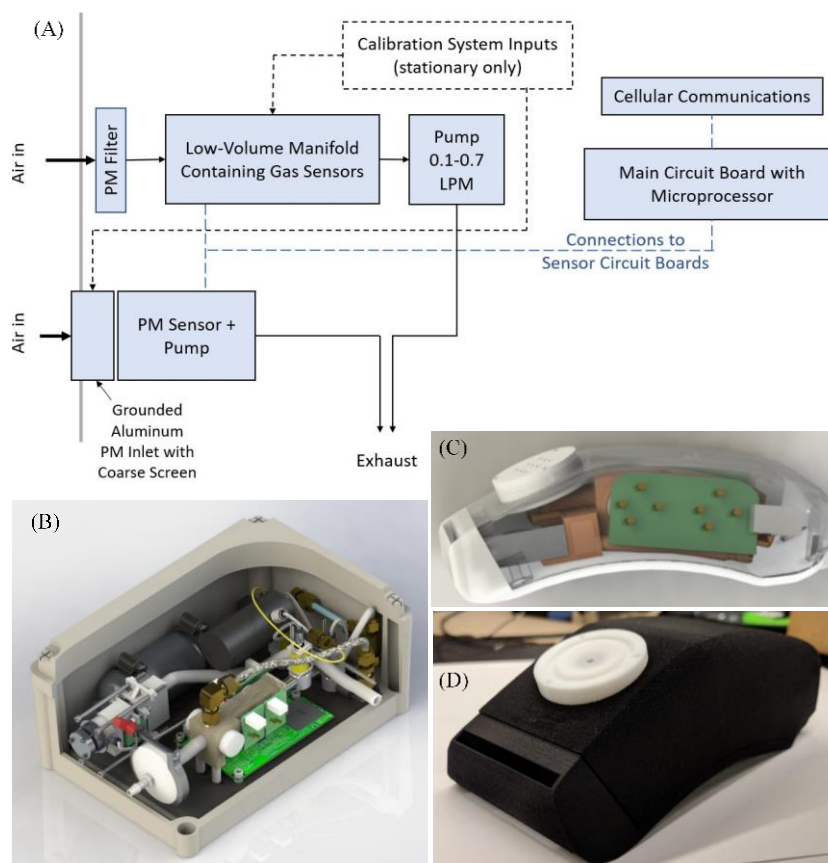
Sensor Target	Manufacturer and Part Number	Method	Observed LOD
CO	Alphasense CO-A4	4-electrode electrochemical	20 ppb
NO	Alphasense NO-A4	4-electrode electrochemical	3 ppb
NO <sub>2</sub>	Alphasense NO2-A43F	4-electrode electrochemical	1 ppb
SO <sub>2</sub>	Alphasense SO2-A4	4-electrode electrochemical	15 ppb
O <sub>3</sub>	Alphasense OX-A431	4-electrode electrochemical	1 ppb
CO <sub>2</sub>	Alphasense IRC-A1	Infrared, pyroelectric	<sup>a</sup>
CH <sub>4</sub>	Figaro TGS 2600	Metal oxide resistance	<sup>a</sup>
O <sub>3</sub>	MiCS-2614	Metal oxide resistance	10 ppb
PM <sub>1</sub> , PM <sub>2.5</sub> , PM <sub>10</sub>	Plantower A003	Optical particle counter	1 µg/m <sup>3</sup>
RH & T	Sensirion SHT25	-	0-100 %, 0-120 °C <sup>b</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Below background concentrations. <sup>b</sup>From manufacturer data sheet.

**Table 2: Lab calibration procedure and environmental condition ranges for gases. Each non-zero gas concentration is maintained for 90 minutes.**

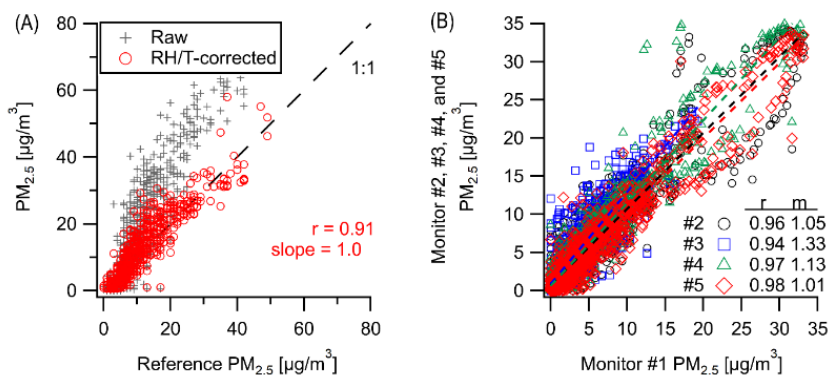
Gas	Concentrations/Ranges
NO	0, 5, 10, 30, 50 ppb
CO	0, 1, 2, 3, 4 ppm
O <sub>3</sub>	10, 20, 50, 75, 100 ppb*
NO <sub>2</sub>	0, 5, 10, 30, 50 ppb
CH <sub>4</sub>	1, 1.5, 2, 2.5 ppm
CO <sub>2</sub>	400, 500, 700 ppm
RH	5-85 %
T	20-40 °C

\*Denotes that each concentration is repeated



615

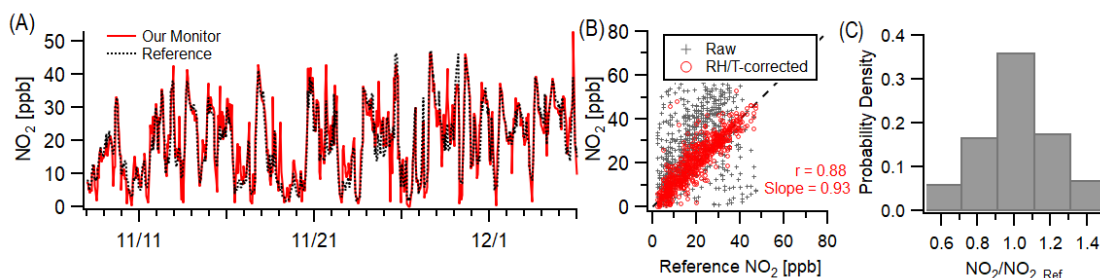
**Figure 1:** Monitor designs shown as (a) simplified flow and electronics diagram, which is used in the (b) stationary (28 x 18 x 14 cm) and (c-d) portable (15 x 6.5 x 5 cm) versions of the multipollutant monitoring device. Panels b-c are solidworks renderings, and d is a photo. See Fig. S3 for additional photos.



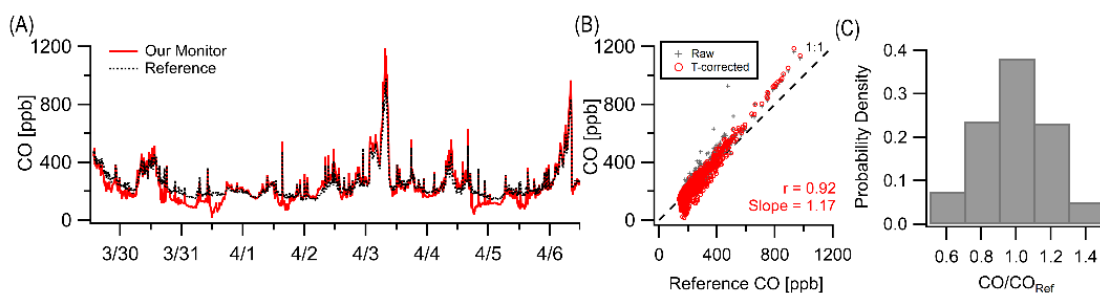
620

**Figure 2:** Comparison of  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations between (a) our monitor and the Baltimore Oldtown site reference measurements and (b) an intercomparison of 5 co-located 5 PM sensors over 2.5 weeks in New Haven where there is a high degree of correlation with measurements even at 10-min resolution (time series data can be found in Fig. S8).

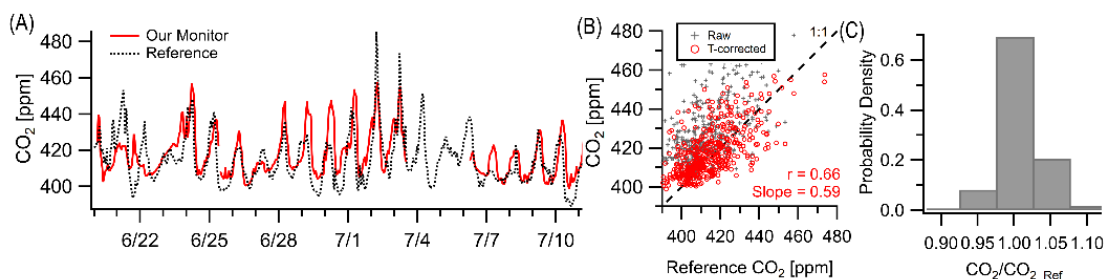




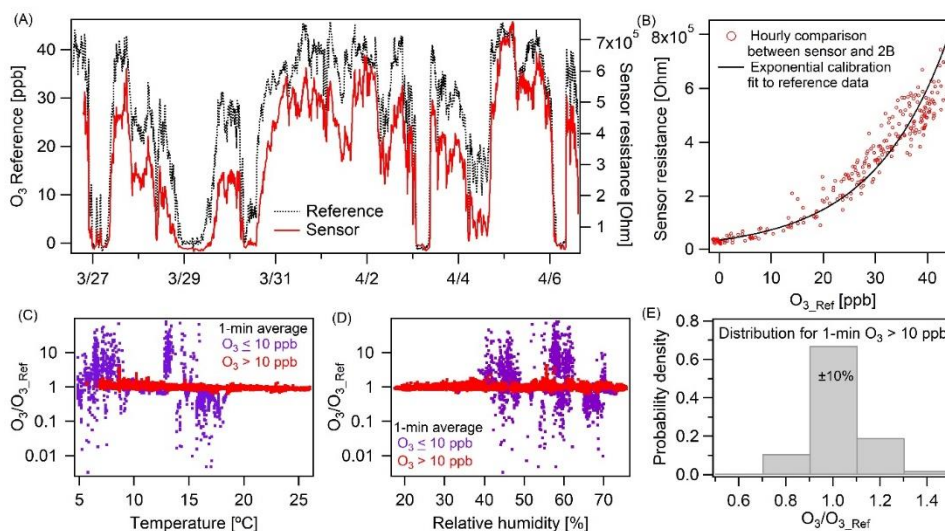
625 **Figure 3: Outdoor ambient monitor comparison of NO<sub>2</sub> from Baltimore, MD (Oldtown site). (a–b) With RH/T correction factors the data achieves good correlation. (c) Over 35% of the measurements are within 10% of the reference site.**



**Figure 4: (a) Outdoor ambient monitor comparison of CO from New Haven, CT. (b) Minimal overall effects from RH/T were observed (although the effect of T could be amplified at higher ambient levels, see Fig. S9). (c) At a 10-min resolution 38% of data points within 10% of the reference and 85% within 30%.**



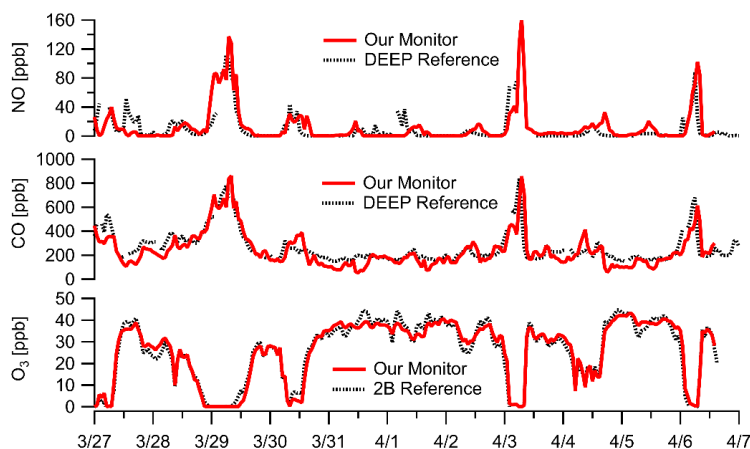
630 **Figure 5: (a–b) Outdoor ambient monitor comparison of CO<sub>2</sub> from Baltimore, MD. The monitor was located at the OWLETS campaign while the reference data came from the NIST NEB site (2.7 km away). Occasional lags in pollution episodes, potentially due to the displacement of the monitor from the reference, are seen (e.g. 6/30, 7/1, 7/7) leading to a lower correlation coefficient than other pollutants. (c) Despite this, 70% of data points fall within 2.5% of the reference.**



635

**Figure 6: Ozone calibration performance and evaluation (a) over 2 weeks in New Haven, CT shown and (b) calibrated against a 2-B Tech reference monitor (note panel A shows sensor resistance, not concentration). (c-d) The ratio of our calibrated vs. reference measurement for concentrations greater and less than 10 ppb over the range of RH and temperatures observed, with no dependence on RH and a slight temperature dependence. (c-d) At concentrations greater than 10 ppb our measurements are much more accurate, (E) with 70% of the 1 min average data falling within  $\pm 10\%$ .**

640



**Figure 7: Ambient data at 1 h resolution in New Haven, CT near construction shows large NO enhancements. The presence of NO is confirmed by both the titration of O<sub>3</sub> (i.e. NO+O<sub>3</sub> reaction) to zero and large enhancements in CO (a combustion co-pollutant). The near-road DEEP Criscuolo Park site (1.6 km away from sampling location in downtown New Haven) is used for comparison. Note: our NO sensor does not have significant cross-response to O<sub>3</sub> or CO. (See Fig. S11 for additional NO comparisons.)**

645

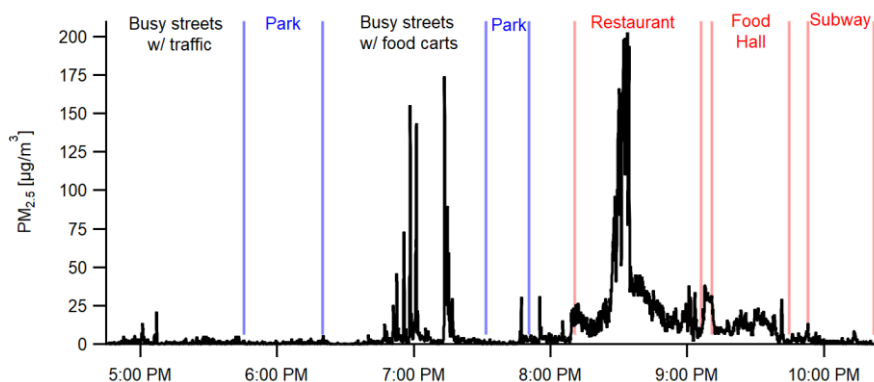
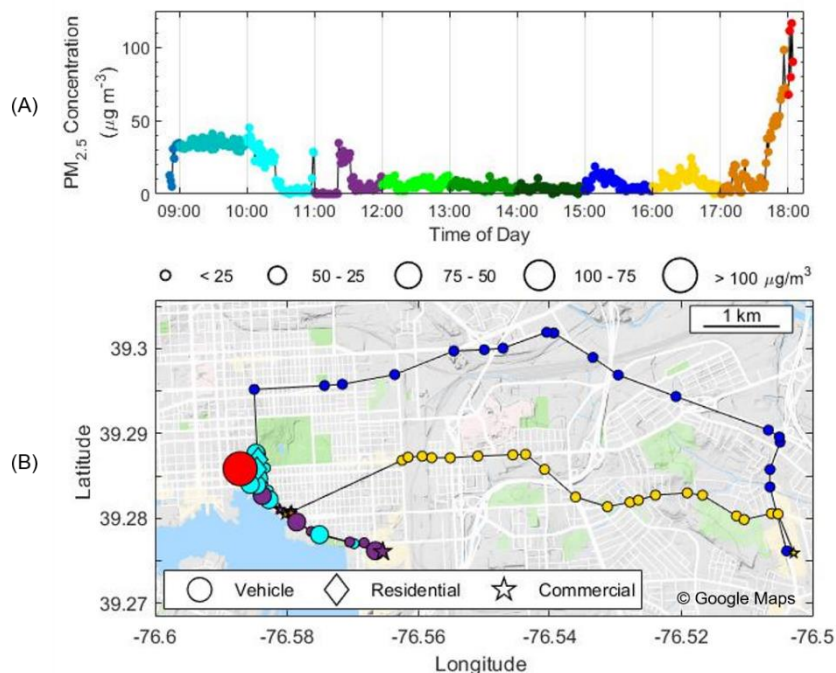


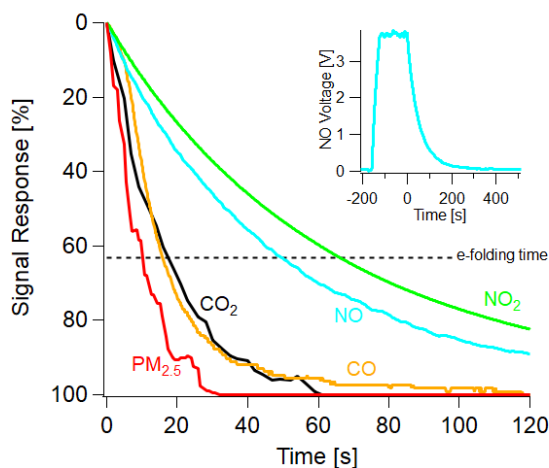
Figure 8: Portable personal monitor data for  $PM_{2.5}$  from New York City with labeled events, locations, and nearby sources. Data is shown at 1-sec resolution (with RH/T correction factors) capturing rapidly changing microenvironments such as emissions from individual food carts (6:45–7:15 PM).



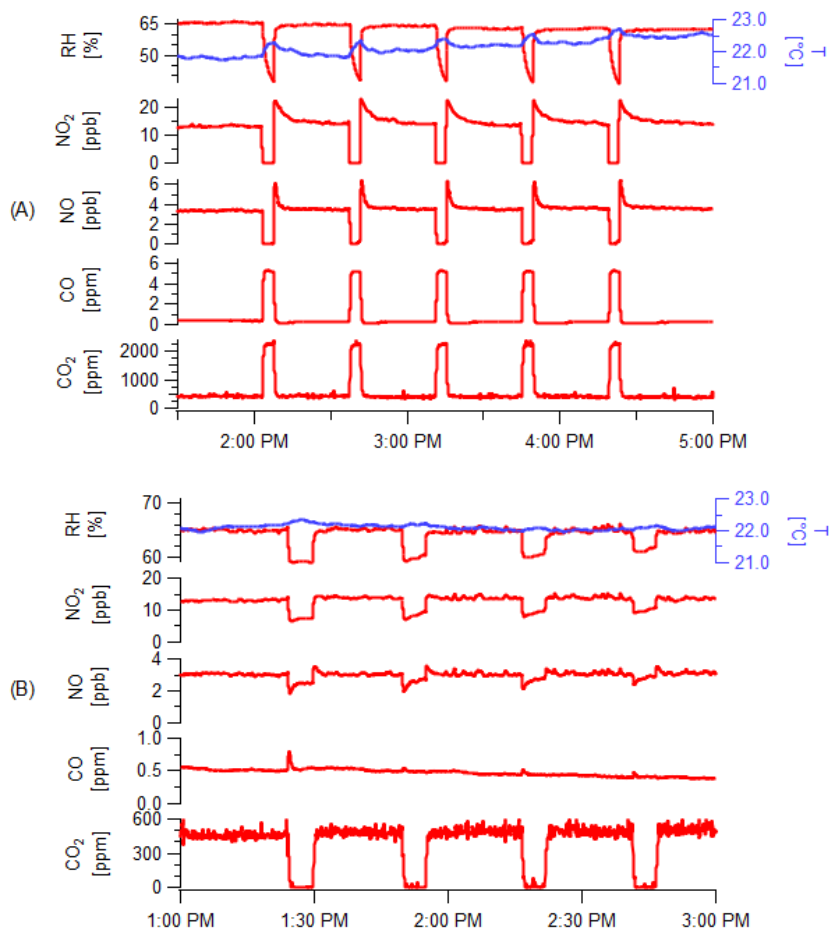
650

Figure 9:  $PM_{2.5}$  mass concentration ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ) as a function of (a) time and (b) mapped with GPS coordinates. The color of the dots in both panels change each hour to represent the time in Panel B. The background colors in Panel A and shapes in Panel B indicates microenvironment, i.e., residential (diamond), commercial (star), and vehicular (circles). The size of the points in (B) corresponds to the mass concentration.

655



660 **Figure 10:** Instrument response times shown as the normalized signal response of various sensors in the stationary monitor to a step change in target pollutant concentration and their respective e-folding times. Insert shows a typical step change of calibration gas and the sensor response. Time zero indicates when the multipollutant monitor switched to sampling zero air after reaching a steady state response to the pollutant. Gas sensor response times vary due to the individual sensors' diffusive or electrochemical timescales.



665 **Figure 11: Performance of the on-board calibration system over sequential cycles (for demonstration) showing (a) the span gas delivery for CO and CO<sub>2</sub> (and zero air to provide zero concentrations for NO and NO<sub>2</sub>) over 5 repeated cycles and (b) the zeroing function for CO<sub>2</sub> over 4 cycles where other signals are shown to illustrate minimal changes with zero trap (NO<sub>x</sub> changes are due to shown RH changes). PM zeroing function results are shown in Fig. S13.**

670

**Table 3. Summary of statistics and comparison of the SEARCH stationary multipollutant monitor to several recent literature field studies.**

Pollutant	Sensor Type	Temp. Res.	Unit	m	r	r <sup>2</sup>	MBE	MAE	RMSE	Reference
NO <sub>2</sub>	Alphasense NO <sub>2</sub> -B4	10 min	ppb			0.80		5.8	8.3	Bigi et al., 2018 <sup>d</sup>
	Alphasense NO <sub>2</sub> -B43F	15 min	ppb	0.64		0.67	-0.4	3.48		Zimmerman et al., 2018
	Alphasense NO <sub>2</sub> -B43F	5 min	ppb	0.81		0.69	1.2	3.45	4.56	Cross et al., 2017
NO	Alphasense NO <sub>2</sub> -B4	15 min	ppb	0.38 <sup>a</sup>	0.49		13.3	26.23	30.27	Castell et al., 2017
	<b>Alphasense NO<sub>2</sub>-A43F</b>	<b>1 hr</b>	<b>ppb</b>	<b>0.93</b>	<b>0.88</b>	<b>0.77</b>	<b>0.8</b>	<b>3.7</b>	<b>5.3</b>	<b>This work</b>
	Alphasense NO-B4	10 min	ppb			0.94		2.26	3.54	Bigi et al., 2018 <sup>d</sup>
CO	Alphasense NO-B4	5 min	ppb	0.94		0.84	0.97	2.83	4.52	Cross et al., 2017
	Alphasense NO-B4	15 min	ppb	0.93 <sup>a</sup>		0.86	-0.54	12.48	16.35	Castell et al., 2017
	<b>Alphasense NO-A4</b>	<b>1 hr</b>	<b>ppb</b>	<b>0.86</b>	<b>0.74</b>	<b>0.54</b>	<b>1.6</b>	<b>8.5</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>This work</b>
CO <sub>2</sub>	Alphasense CO-B4	15 min	ppb	0.86		0.91	0.1	38		Zimmerman et al., 2018
	Alphasense CO-B4	5 min	ppb	0.94		0.88	-10.4	24.8	32.9	Cross et al., 2017
	Alphasense CO-B4	15 min	ppb	0.88 <sup>a</sup>	0.6		-147.21	149.35	170.99	Castell et al., 2017
O <sub>3</sub>	<b>Alphasense CO-A4</b>	<b>10 min</b>	<b>ppb</b>	<b>1.2</b>	<b>0.92</b>	<b>0.84</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>41</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>This work</b>
	<b>Alphasense CO-A4</b>	<b>1 hr</b>	<b>ppb</b>	<b>1.2</b>	<b>0.96</b>	<b>0.92</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>This work</b>
	Gascard NG & S-100H	1 hr	ppm	0.48-0.67		0.51-0.79				Spinelle et al., 2017 <sup>b</sup>
PM <sub>2.5</sub>	<b>Alphasense IRC-A1</b>	<b>1 hr</b>	<b>ppm</b>	<b>0.59</b>	<b>0.66</b>	<b>0.44</b>	<b>3.4</b>	<b>8.7</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>This work</b>
	Alphasense Ox-B431	15 min	ppb	0.82		0.86	-0.14	3.36		Zimmerman et al., 2018
	Alphasense Ox-B421	5 min	ppb	0.47		0.39	0.78	7.34	9.71	Cross et al., 2017
PM <sub>2.5</sub>	Alphasense Ox-B421	15 min	ppb	0.26 <sup>a</sup>	0.54		6.76	19.87	22.2	Castell et al., 2017
	Alphasense Ox-B431	1 hr	ppb	0.91		0.89				Ripoll et al., 2019
	MICS-2614	1 hr	ppb	0.87		0.88				Ripoll et al., 2019
PM <sub>2.5</sub>	<b>MICS-2614</b>	<b>1 min</b>	<b>ppb</b>	<b>0.99</b>	<b>0.97</b>	<b>0.94</b>	<b>-0.2</b>	<b>2.7</b>	<b>3.3</b>	<b>This work</b>
	<b>MICS-2614</b>	<b>1 hr</b>	<b>ppb</b>	<b>1.01</b>	<b>0.98</b>	<b>0.96</b>	<b>-0.2</b>	<b>2.4</b>	<b>2.9</b>	<b>This work</b>
	TSI AirAssure	1 hr	µg/m <sup>3</sup>	1.06		0.73	3.9	5.6	7.8	Feenstra et al., 2019 <sup>c</sup>
PM <sub>2.5</sub>	SainSmart P3	1 hr	µg/m <sup>3</sup>	1.48		0.76	3.9	5.4	7.8	Feenstra et al., 2019 <sup>c</sup>
	Aeroyal AQY	1 hr	µg/m <sup>3</sup>	0.98		0.79	-3.1	4.6	6.1	Feenstra et al., 2019 <sup>c</sup>
	Shinyei PM Eval. Kit	1 hr	µg/m <sup>3</sup>	1.11		0.74	0.2	4.4	6.4	Feenstra et al., 2019 <sup>c</sup>
PM <sub>2.5</sub>	PurpleAir PA-II	1 hr	µg/m <sup>3</sup>	1.63		0.95	4.8	6.8	10.1	Feenstra et al., 2019 <sup>c</sup>
	AQMesh	15 min	µg/m <sup>3</sup>		0.51		-0.03	3.08	5.57	Castell et al., 2017
	<b>Plantower A003</b>	<b>1 hr</b>	<b>µg/m<sup>3</sup></b>	<b>1.0</b>	<b>0.91</b>	<b>0.82</b>	<b>0.9</b>	<b>3.1</b>	<b>4.3</b>	<b>This work</b>

<sup>a</sup> Slope and intercept value from unit 688150 in Table 2. <sup>b</sup> From correlation using an Artificial Neural Network calibration. <sup>c</sup> Top five performing (by  $r^2$ ) monitors. <sup>d</sup> Taken from Fig. 11 from SU009.

