Spatial Temporal Air Pollution Prediction Through Fixed Devices

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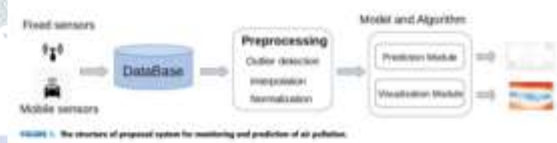
ABSTRACT- There has been a growing global concern about air pollution in the past decade, especially in major urban areas. Quality-measuring and estimating air quality research has recently grown in importance. Due to the Internet of Things (IoT) being applied in various sectors, monitoring pollution levels becomes simpler. Fixed sensors are insufficient to provide a complete view of air pollution around people, as the sensors must be situated far away from the focus of the pollution source. We're using both stationary and mobile sensors to study the air quality. With our methodology, we can collect and measure air quality in all parts of the spectrum. We show that our approach is viable by successfully measuring and predicting air quality with out-of-of-of-the-the-the-box creativity After conducting an investigation, we believe we've found In a smart city, this may be a promising technology for air quality monitoring. A "time series prediction" combined with "air quality measurement".

I. INTRODUCTION

Many urban and industrialized nations around the world face a major pollution problem Air pollution has now become a danger to the public's everyday activities as well as a threat to public health. for example, Beijing and Delhi, have extremely polluted weather., people wear a face mask before going out. Aside from that, the daily air quality limits how outdoor activities are conducted. Air pollution occurs because of the variety of pollutants in the air. Nitrogen dioxide (NO2), carbon monoxide (CO) and ozone (O3) are the primary air pollutants. Also known as PM (PM). PM2.5 and PM10 is a measure of particulate matter that is most important to the general public, which is defined as having a diameter of less than 2.5 μm. There are many kinds of respiratory and cardiovascular diseases caused by these particles Many cities therefore have set up their own monitors and publish the real-time information as frequently as well. It is important to measure the air quality in people's immediate environment as the threat from air pollution grows, which helps them know when it is safe to exercise, so they can find better paths to reach their destinations. The traditional way is to use monitoring stations that are positioned at fixed locations. While building such a fixed sensor-based monitoring system presents no real problem, it also presents a few challenges. There is a big outlay of money in and substantial time invested in the deployment of units over a wide area. It is highly sensitive to its surroundings, and thus less effective further away. Fine details in vehicles polluting the air across areas as short as ten to one hundred feet (three to thirty metres) can lead to accurate pollution data. Furthermore, air quality information, which can be collected in a less costly and more dynamic way, is required. The new platform should have Internet-connected sensors to help with these issues, and the sensors could be made more mobile by using the Internet of Things (IoT). Let's say, for example, using sensors on vehicles that are in motion or aircraft will do the trick. Our goal was to assess air quality through the Internet of Things (IoT) in this project. Air pollution measurements were collected on a vehicle and made as we moved around the city of Incheon, South Korea. The server takes this information and processes it before it is saved to a database. It provides the very first ambient air pollution data for a moving vehicle. There is, of course, the additional benefit of increasing geographic diversity and the ability to add local sensors to the existing IoT network. While a stationary sensor feeds continuously, a particular locations are hard to track. However, though this can be done by using multiple sensors and devoting smaller areas to each sensor, this can be mitigated by: Within this design, we're looking to use both static sensors as well as IoT devices to track the air quality. In this way, static sensors have a broader view of the situation because they can give a constant stream of information. Another advantage is that they can provide more precise data as opposed to static sensors, thus reducing the margin of error. Here we build a model to predict the air quality based on the collected data, and provide immediate predictions for them. as well as developed a visual tool to assist both experts and everyday people in better analyzing and understanding the air quality. Over the course of this past year, the main points of our work have been listed as follows: We came up with a hybrid solution for combining fixed and mobile sensors to monitor and predict the quality of the environment. We developed a tool to visualize the concentration of air pollutants with a person can breathe, such as PM10 and PM2.5. It follows that the rest of our paper will be laid out as follows: Section 2 is concerned with different measurement methods for the characteristics of air quality. Section 3 details how IoT sensors and data processing grows in value The section on models and algorithms describes our accomplishments. The results are found in Section 5, and the experiment is documented in the analysis in the following Section 6. In conclusion, we summarize our work in Sections 7 and 8.

II. RELATED WORK

Several monitoring techniques have been used to measure the air quality. they rely on the public and a private list of public and social media websites as well as well as real-time data for their weather and air quality forecasting unmanned aircraft are utilized as a tool for counting microscopic particulate matter in Alvarado et alexperiments .'s IoT devices are already proving to be very useful in determining real-time air quality, traffic patterns, road traffic flow, and traffic congestion. IoT devices, in turn, are predicted to be able to measure air quality Notably, buses and other public vehicles have been put to use for collecting air quality data as well There is one project whose entire community is collecting data and is also referred to as crowd sourcing, which utilizes an online system for air quality monitoring. In his work, Hasenfratz [12] used sensors to design a thousand models with various ages. All of these aforementioned approaches are expensive or both, respectively. We're interested in the usage of fixed and mobile sensors for IoT predictions that have not been thoroughly studied yet. Much interest in building interconnected sensors that can answer citizens' queries on the current quality of the air in real time and enabling them to respond quickly to pollution. The authors Garzón et al. delivered an air quality alert. They have a constantly running test that determines the level of one type of matter that exceeds the defined concentration, and alerts the user. Ma et al. (see reference below) proposed a multi-pesticul platform using wearable, inexpensive sensors. with both fewer sensors and less demand for computation, our new approach can perform a similar task to end users. When people make predictions about air quality, they commonly use regression models. predicting PM2.5 from other gaseous pollutants such as NOx, CO, and O3 The term "deep learning" has gained in popularity and is being applied to several applications, so numerous time series of air pollution data have been created from different network models. A number of unsupervised models such as Long Short-Term Memory (LTM) and Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU) have shown to be useful for air quality forecast predictions [17] A spatial dispersion network was proposed by Yi et al. [in 18] to identify all relevant factors that could have an impact on air quality and apply them to its prediction. The foregoing technology designs allow for flexibility but usually fail to deliver insight into the unquantifiable aspects of the system. Furthermore, they have not demonstrated consistently superior performance to classical regression models under a variety of circumstances [20] There are studies regarding how to mimic and predict pollutants, as well We use linear regression models as our baseline methods, which yields better computation efficiency, because of the small data set we had to work with.



III. IMPLEMENTATION

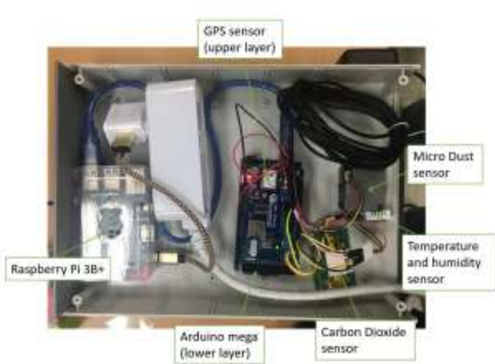
the design and implementation of our IoT sensor design We've staged the deployment and collection of our data in Songdo, which is intended to be a smart city. To finish the data preparation, we then go on to describe the initial processing and transmission of the acquired raw data. Then, we use the collected data to present the user interface. A diagram showing the architecture of our proposed system is shown in Figure 1.

A. IOT Sensor Instrument Design

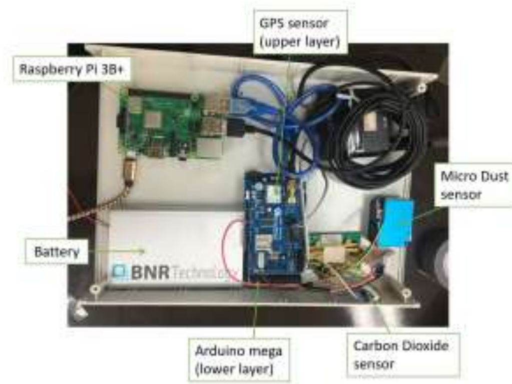
Fixed-location sensors can be used in situations where you don't need to constantly know the car's exact location, while moving sensors are preferable when your concern is keeping track of its location over time and speed. in total, we developed six IoT sensors, of which three are fixed, and three on self-driven vehicles. Fig. 3 shows the subsystems of the air quality monitoring devices, and sensors show the functions in Figure 2.

• **Temperature and humidity sensor:** To measure both temperature and humidity, we have a single sensor. While the temperature sensor gives a temperature error of 0.5 degrees Centigrade, the humidity sensor is only off by 2 percent. There are thermometers in the vials with a range of 0 to 100 degrees and -40 to 80 degrees. To detect both the temperature and the humidity, we have a single sensor. With respect to its surroundings, the humidity sensor has an accuracy of 2 percent, while the temperature sensor provides a margin of error of 0.5 percent. Where 0 to 100% means zero to 40% below zero, and 80 to 120% means 40 to 120 degrees below zero.

• **Micro Dust sensor:** This sensor measures both fine particulate matter and coarse particulate matter There is a scale from 0 to 999 micrograms per cubic metre. Korea classifies PM2.5 and PM 3.5 averages above 35 µg/m 3/m 3 as extremely hazardous to the public health. thus, so our micro-particle sensor covers the entire human health spectrum. .



(a) Fixed Sensing IoT Device.



(b) Mobile Sensing IoT Device.

FIGURE 2. Two types of air quality monitoring IoT sensor modules.

• **Carbon Dioxide sensor:** The accuracy of our carbon dioxide sensor can go as low as 5ppm and as high as 2000ppm. In a non-manmade situation, this level of accuracy is sufficient."

• **Raspberry Pi 3B+:** Using a dongle, the Raspberry Pi is currently connected to LTE. It performs the primary function of processing

(a) Deployment at a fixed location.

(b) Deployment on a moving vehicle.

FIGURE 3. Deployment at fixed as well as moving scenario. The first deployment is on the window of a building. The second deployment is on top of a car.

• **Arduino mega:** It is a step-by-by-step procedure for transmitting data across the VoLTE network.

• **GPS sensor:** The accuracy of this GPS sensor is less than a metre.

• **Battery:** Capacity: We use a 7,000 mAh battery pack. In general, our setup uses no more than 1A of power. We will not be short of electricity, thus, our system is capable of running continuously for around 7 hours.

B. Software Development And Pre-processing of Acquired Data

the system uses software systems designed to collect and transmit sensor data over a network In addition, we provide additional software and database services that help to prepare processed data for presentation.

•**Communication Software:** For data collection purposes, we've employed a wireless communication and GPS technology. Once per second, GPS information from the microcontroller's memory is transmitted to our central data store in Songdo via long-term evolution (VoTE).

• **Database:** We plan to store real-time and static sensor values in the database. Fig. 5 illustrates the collected data fields: 1) time, 2) GPS location, 3) temperature, 4) humidity, and 5) CO_2, and 6) PM10. It's nice to imagine that there was a happier life after the first blush of love, but there is usually not such a (b). In every romantic love affair, the 'there's always a spark', the first initial rush is what most people remember. Underground and indoors, we derive the GPS readings by extrapolation. While the preprocessing is going on, we discard out-of-of-range data.

• **Cloud Server and Data Mapping:** Our system uses a cloud server to manage data, which handles everything The analyzer may allow a user to obtain information on the real pollution values via the date picker It allows us to decide on the number of sensors and other parameters. a marketing tool and a productivity tool .

(1) The parameters must have different durations when applied to different categories of data, marked with minimum and maximum values.

(2) The Google Map API is integrated into the website to allow for visualization of the cars' trajectories during the time period of your choice (b). Since every car followed a different route, no one was where they needed to be when they were supposed to be. Everything you have stored in the database can be loaded into a spreadsheet and later on analyzed.

(a) UI Design.

(b) The Real UI interface on phone.

FIGURE 4. User Interface of our developed application WeAir.

• **User Interface (UI):** To make it easy for our customers to have the APP registered to their accounts, we also created the user interface (UI) application so they can log in and see the environmental data around them. Fig. 4 shows how the AIR QUALITY could be used to gather real-time air quality measurements, and present them as a chart.

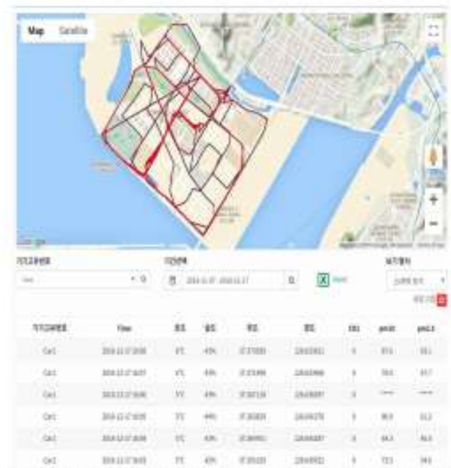
C. Pre-processing of Acquired data

Because the data we acquired was full of noise, incomplete, and without any pattern, we needed to pre-process it before developing a robust model. We use the following techniques to perform data pre-processing prior to the presentation.

• **Outlier detection:** An outlier is most often manifested when significant variation occurs over the timeline. To detect these outliers, we calculated the discrete differences in the sensor readings. that is, we would remove all discrete values that are not from the range [−0.5, 2]

• **Interpolation:** In this instance, Gaussian process regression (GPR) is appropriate. Throughout the course of this study, we will determine the effect of different interpolation methods in making the best estimates and use these estimates to evaluate the methods. Because data are measured on different scales, we use the formula shown in Equation 1 to equalise measurements Thus, we are able to use the models developed on the stabilised dataset .

(a) Details of the collected data in a selected day, which shows the exact value of time, temperature, humidity, CO_2, PM_{10}, $PM_{2.5}$, latitude and longitude.



(b) Trace of the selected patrolling car in a selected day, which shows the areas our collected data covers.

figure 5: An interface for aggregators to inspect cloud-saved values.

The only difference between “max-min” and “median” is that in the mathematical definition of max-min, you are required to know the whole as well as well as just one of the part. When x has been normalized, it is known as dataset and x∗

IV. PREDICTION ALGORITHMS AND MODEL DEVELOPMENT

The purpose of this section is to introduce our prediction model and provide a brief descriptions of the algorithms we've used. Random forest (RF) and support vector machine are among the most popular machine learning classifiers, so we used this combination to predict air quality. In the following sections, we thought about various creative approaches and additional details.

A. SUPPORT VECTOR REGRESSOR (SVR)

The aim of SVR is to find a hyper-plane in the feature space generated by training data and use it to minimize all samples. Consider the training data {(x, y, . .,(x, m) ∈ R, x ∈ 2, y), (x,y, 2, . .,(x)∀i ∈ R), where m is the number of training data, X2wk = minimum f (x, I − y), 1) It'll only set you back your reputation if you buy a putter from this pawn shop, since they're likely to resell it to others and offer a worse price. You might get more of a deal if you go somewhere else. This store has great potential, as they'll resell to you if you buy a putter. It has high potential, as they have the propensity to resell. Here C (x) is a constant, f (x) represents the hyper-plane in Eq. 2: C = w·x + b The absolute value of a negative number z is up to three, and z itself can't be less than zero. 2 +3, which means basically, the equations build a zone of two with a width 2 centred on f's log base 2 (f+3) (x). The feature vector x contains information on time, longitude, and latitude values taken from sensors, while the value vector y contains CO2, PM10, and PM2.5 and PM10 measurements from air sensors.

B. RANDOM FOREST REGRESSOR (RFR)

With a large number of input variables, RFR is a highly responsive, and can produce high-quality results. unweighted (or non-pruned) growth: generates random RF samples from the original dataset with replacement, and combines their results to obtain a final unweighted growth estimate: h(4) = 1x and x, and θ(x) is a vector of tree predictors that characteristics the kth RF tree (x, y). Also, x represents time information measured from sensors, and y represents a value calculated from the amount of CO2, PM5, and PM2.5 and PM10 concentrations.

TABLE 1. Details of the dataset collected from our three mobile IoT sensor boxes.

Date	Time Span (Car 0)	Time Span (Car 1)	Time Span (Car 2)	No. of Instances
20181210	10:21 – 14:40 17:09 – 19:22	/	/	598
20181211	10:12 – 17:26	/	/	432
20181212	10:23 – 18:44	13:48 – 16:37 17:18 – 20:58	14:40 – 23:59	1261
20181213	13:19 – 18:23 22:01 – 22:31	09:21 – 10:37 13:19 – 17:50	00:00 – 23:59	1867
20181214	09:17 – 21:00 14:33 – 15:40	10:29 – 15:26	09:40 – 09:50 13:16 – 15:41	614
20181217	09:43 – 16:39	09:13 – 11:28 14:08 – 16:09	09:27 – 18:19	1075
20181218	09:50 – 11:00 16:29 – 16:31	10:31 – 11:41 14:29 – 17:47	09:56 – 15:47	666
20181219	09:52 – 13:32 13:08 – 15:20	12:02 – 17:56	09:37 – 11:18 14:23 – 18:16	966

C.GRADIENTBOOSTINGREGRESSOR (GBR)

The gradient descent technique aims to get near the minimum of a function by moving in the opposite direction of the gradient. The boosting method is commonly used to increase prediction. It uses an iterative technique to further reduce the constructed cost function. Here f (x) = 1 X m=1 βh(x; am), where h(x; am) is the simpler representation of the variable x that have one or two parameters, and β are the expansion coefficients that represent variables in the equation, respectively. Regression trees are included in our model to compute basic functions. Just like all previous models, the features in our dataset are being used in x and y.

V. EXPERIMENT

The experiment was also done in the geographic area of Songdo, Korea, which is considered one of the Smart Cities in the country. Figure 6 depicts 100 regions, which are divided into zones, represented by red dots in the latitude range of 126. and longitude 37. 348 to 37. to 37. 348 with stationary and mobile sensor collection points indicated Also, with the addition of more sensors, we can enlarge the area into more grids which will enable higher resolution. The yellow stars have been applied to three of fixed sensors in the map. Due to the density of fixed sensors, data collection is significantly greater. 3 vehicles covered all of the Songdo area from Dec. 10th to Dec. 14, 2018, and Dec. 17 to

Dec. 19. Every day, all the sensors are calibrated prior to deployment and at the end of the mission completion of the mission. The relevant details are shown in Table 1, and we differentiate between the three different mobile sensors using the names Car0, Car1, and Car2.

A. DATASET

They get the same set of facts in the same way, regardless of whether they are in fixed or mobile locations. air quality data is collected from three yellow stars in the picture in Figure 6 Essentially, for each fixed sensor, we have several measurement periods over the course of the day, spanning from the start of the day to its sunset. Compared to the stationary sensors, however, the mobile sensors only have the capacity to collect short time-limited data, but the whole dataset covers all of a day's air pollution data. These sensors are located in figure 6, with each icon representing a location. To grant equal size squares of land on each side of the equator and in longitude, the horizontal and vertical lines are marked at equal distances south and north from the equator. Every data instance is made up of the sensor box's longitude and latitude, time of collection, temperature, and concentration of PM2.5 and CO and PM10 (particulate matter with a diameter of 10 μm or less). fig. 7 shows the time series of PM10 and PM2.5 for the entire region shown in figure 7 We took data over time from all the sensors that were moving, as well as from all those that were still. down the X-axis is time, and down the Y-axis is the monitor axis is PM10 or PM2.5, the observed value.

B. PERFORMANCE METRIC

Yesterday's ground truth is based on satellite data from mobile sensors, so we measure the prediction model by Root Mean Square Error (RMSE), which is equal to Eq. 6:

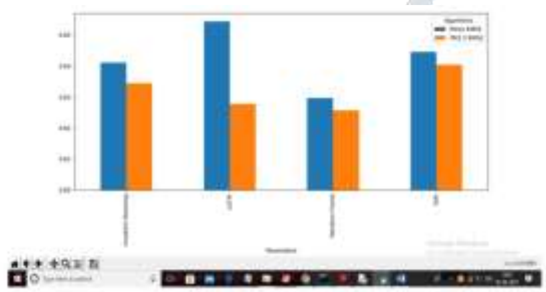
$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(|y_i - \hat{y}_i|)^2}. \qquad (6)$$

VI. RESULTS

In total, three fixed sensors and three mobile sensors generated 13,128 measurements from Dec. 12th, 2018 to Dec. 19th, 2018. The entire dataset is divided into non-overlapping two parts for training and test, while the time intervals in the training and test datasets varies from task to task.

A. Overall Performance Comparisons With Different Prediction Algorithms

For this section, we used RFR, SVR, and GBR to check our overall model's performance. An example is given to show how splitting the entire dataset into eight non-overlapping subsets of dates forms a separate training and test set forms. Table 2 shows how the various regression algorithms perform under different test conditions. Results with values in bold represent the best prediction on a given day. RFR and SVR had marginally better predictive ability in the one or two days examined, as shown in Table 2 Results for different time periods are shown in Fig. 8. More notable trends emerge from the findings. Here, we find that PM10 has a higher values than PM2.5, as shown in Figure 7 indicates Although expected, PM2.5 is present in the environment at lower concentrations than PM10. Second, the predicted high-quality days usually outdo the polluted conditions. For example, the real significance of the fine particles are present in Figure 8 (c) and (d). may also indicates that the value on Dec. 16th is higher than on other dates. It is when three sensors are active that we get the most accurate readings. as shown in Table 2, they are 15.8 for PM2.5 and 21.6 for PM10 Finally, GB seems to be the most responsive to abrupt changes. while SVR and RFR offer valuable long-term predictions, they are insufficient for accurate short-term forecasting.



In the screenshot above, the name of the algorithm is shown on the X-axis and the PM2.5 result on the Y-axis. Based on the above diagram, we can conclude that random forest produced lower root mean squared error than other algorithms.

B. Accuracy performance with different number of grids

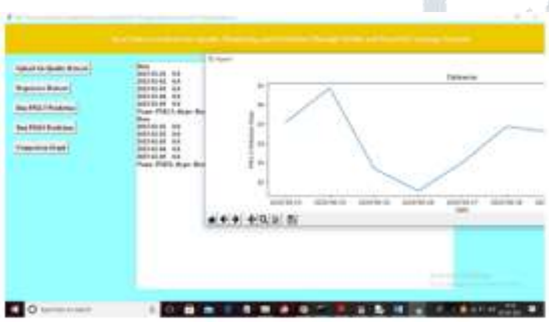
We use data from December 10, 2018 to December 18, 2018 for evaluation and data from Dec. 10 to December 10, 2018 to December 10, 2018 for training. PM2.5 and PM10 are of primary interest to us, so we are most concerned with prediction accuracy. As is presented in Table 3, we took the total number of samples and divided it into six intervals: 0 through 10, 11 through 20, 20 through 50, 50, 50 through 100, 100 through 200, and above 200, and so on and so on. and using this method, we discovered the total number of grids in each prediction category, as well as each grid's RMSE, was [made] Finally, we combined all the specific category grids and calculated the RMSE. In terms of RMSE, an increase in training samples lead to a decrease in error, so we can infer that the model's generalisation performance improves. Since this is proof of our methods, we can safely conclude that air quality prediction will get better with more data. In like manner, we saw a similar outcome for carbon dioxide.

(X axis: Actual vs. predicted value; the green line: numbers: number of days) The numbers shown in the graph were determined using gradient boosting, SVR, and an LSTM-based classifier. Above, LSTM computed expected to be close to the actual values. Now click the bar above to view the image on the screen.

C. Performance with different interpolation methods

As previously discussed, the collected data is only for a specific geographic area and temporal grids have been inadequate. Therefore, all the different types of missing air pollution data are filled with alternate interpolation methods in our models. To see whether our prediction is strengthened, we implement three different approaches and see which ones lead to the most predictions (no interpolation).

since it shares the same mean and confident interval, we opt for the linear interpolation with Gaussian Process Regression (GPR) and pick a kernel (Cauchy) different from Gaussian (GPK) The results of the training and validation are essentially the same as previously discussed. The overall results in Table 4 show how the different interpolation methods (a Linear Fit, a, GPR+, and a Gaussian Kernel) compare to the un-adjusted baseline prediction. Observed improvements are most evident in Table 4 over the time course of training Backbending/flatbendering exercises. The GPR+Gaussian kernel is able to outperforms both the Cauchy and linear interpolation for measuring PM10 and PM5 results in the final results.



I can see that all the values are considered as NAN on the graph above graph and 0 on the vertical axis, PM2.5 values for the last 10 days are shown in green. Now run ‘PM2.5 prediction' on all four algorithms, and then click the "apply" button to calculate the RMSE for the next 30-sec window. Below the results will be listed for each algorithm for the next 30 days.

D. Performance On Integrating Moving IOT Sensors

We tested both the fixed sensors and our hybrid approach in monitoring air quality (our approach). for use in the qualitative and quantitative research, we used GBR as the analysis tool and assessed the performance on 4 separate datasets selected from the entirety of the data The data from the preceding two days is employed as part of the training for the current test. to obtain the final PM2.5-5 and average the results shown in Table 5, we calculated and then compared the prediction results from all the PM2.5 and PM10 grids over the four days to them. presented in Table 5, where the predictions using the hybrid sensors exceeded those with the baseline (only fixed) sensors on all days of the tests With the fixed-sensor/ hybrid-sensor method's predicted accuracy increase in value marked with "precision", it is clear that the hybrid sensor results average 7.0% better than using fixed sensors for PM2.5 To this end, our approach has increased the air quality forecast capabilities.

E. VISUALIZATION

Visually evaluating air quality data is difficult because the sensors are constantly moving. Generally, graphical representation of air quality is to draw a contour map on top of the geographic map. Not much information is given about where pollution sources are located, and the patterns in the contour map is clear. asidealizing the different sources of pollution, the area's air quality is estimated. We researched the pollution distribution of the various pollutants in Songdo and used that information to create a heat map to discover the correlations between location and air quality in the general area. The map shown in Fig. 9 is in a rectangle-like shape. And in this way, we got a 1,000 × 1,000 pixel image for the heat map. We assign a colour to each point on the map soiled pixel based on the pollution level at that particular geographic location. This is done in three stages: using our proposed method, we can measure the ground truth using fixed sensors. At this point, the linear regression is then applied to every pixel in the 1,000-by-pixel image to obtain the air quality value. Finally, each pixel is assigned a colour based on its relative air quality. The colouring of the map indicated the different ranges rather than the absolute values. As shown in Figure 9(b), these pollutants were measured in PM 2.5/hour/square mile/24 hours on December 3, 2018. The colour gradient is used to show the distribution of values on the map. It's in the middle of the stars, the faces, and the boxes where the moving sensors are located. When we compare the visualization results, we find that the air pollutant factors in the upper right has higher concentration. This is because the upper regions are closer to the factories and commercial areas.

VII. DISCUSSIONS AND LIMITATIONS

A more interesting discoverable feature of Table 4 and 5 are the errors. Since we only have data from Dec. 10 to Dec. 14 in our data set, the patterns of air pollution are drastically different on weekends. It can be seen on December 16th in Table 2 as well. Looking into the ground truth shows that generally, weekend pollution levels are higher. Considering that the fluctuations in the air pollution levels that take place during the weekdays as well as the weekends, it is critical to develop an improved model. Classification and regression tasks are commonplace in deep learning today. We've found that deep learning performed poorly due to a small amounts of data, but a simpler models worked better. Now that we have more data, we will perform numerous experiments using deep learning and alternative features to improve the prediction.

VIII. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we used fixed and mobile sensors to explore a new approach to predict personal air quality. Our distributed fixed sensor and IoT system for air quality forecasting appears to be an accurate in human environments. Additionally, we believe it can be realised using technology such as sensors that can be installed on public transportation, like buses, which don't even need to be incorporated into the vehicle itself. We've calculated that our system's predicted air quality can be applied to several plans, such as planning for outside activities.

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