

- - - Working Review Draft Report #1 - - -
March 9, 2006

EPA-SAB-RAC-06-xxx

The Honorable Stephen L. Johnson
Administrator
U.S. Environmental Protection Agency
1200 Pennsylvania Avenue, N.W.
Washington, DC 20460

Subject: Review of Agency Draft entitled “*Expansion and Upgrade of the RadNet Air Monitoring Network, Vol. 1 &2, Concept and Plan,*”
2005

Dear Administrator Johnson:

The Radiation Advisory Committee’s (RAC) RadNet Review Panel of the Science Advisory Board has completed its review of the Agency’s draft entitled “*Expansion and Upgrade of the RadNet Air Monitoring Network, Vol. 1 &2, Concept and Plan,*” dated 2005.

The Panel commends the Agency (continue)

The Panel recommends (continue)

The Panel finds that there is a need to(continue)

Text to be provided at a later date.

In summary, the SAB finds that the draft entitled “*Expansion and Upgrade of the RadNet Air Monitoring Network, Vol. 1 &2, Concept and Plan,*” dated 2005 is an important document that(continue).....

The Panel appreciates the opportunity to review this draft document. We hope that the recommendations contained herein will enable EPA to enhance the RadNet Air Monitoring Network and ensure its essential service to the public. We look forward to your response to the recommendations contained in this Advisory, and in particular to the items raised in this letter to you.

Sincerely,

Dr. M. Granger Morgan
Chair
Science Advisory Board

Dr. Jill Lipoti
Chair, RAC RadNet Review Panel
Science Advisory Board

NOTICE

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13

This report has been written as part of the activities of the EPA Science Advisory Board (SAB), a public advisory group providing extramural scientific information and advice to the Administrator and other officials of the Environmental Protection Agency. The SAB is structured to provide balanced, expert assessment of scientific matters related to problems facing the Agency. This report has not been reviewed for approval by the Agency and, hence, the contents of this report do not necessarily represent the views and policies of the Environmental Protection Agency, nor of other Agencies in the Executive Branch of the Federal government, nor does mention of trade names of commercial products constitute a recommendation for use. Reports of the SAB are posted on the EPA website at <http://www.epa.gov/sab>.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45

U.S. Environmental Protection Agency
Science Advisory Board
Radiation Advisory Committee (RAC) RadNet Review Panel

CHAIR

Dr. Jill Lipoti, Director, Division of Environmental Safety and Health, New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection, Trenton, NJ

MEMBERS

Dr. Bruce Boecker, Scientist Emeritus, Lovelace Respiratory Research Institute, Albuquerque, NM

Dr. Antone L. Brooks, Professor, Radiation Toxicology, Washington State University Tri-Cities, Richland, WA

Dr. Gilles Y. Bussod, Chief Scientist, New England Research, Inc., White River Junction, VT

Dr. Brian Dodd, Consultant, Las Vegas, NV

Dr. Shirley A. Fry, M.B., B. Ch., MPH, Consultant, Indianapolis, IN

Dr. William C. Griffith, Associate Director, Institute for Risk Analysis and Risk Communication, Department of Environmental and Occupational Health Sciences, University of Washington, Seattle, WA

Dr. Helen Ann Grogan, Cascade Scientific, Inc., Bend, OR

Dr. Richard W. Hornung, Director of Biostatistics and Data Management, Cincinnati Children’s Hospital Medical Center, Division of General and Community Pediatrics, Cincinnati, OH

Mr. Richard Jaquish, Health Physicist, (Retired), Washington State Department of Health Statistics, Richland, WA

Dr. Janet A. Johnson, Past Chair RAC, Senior Technical Advisor, MFG, Inc., Carbondale, CO

Dr. Bernd Kahn, Professor Emeritus, School of Nuclear Engineering and Health Physics, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA

Dr. Jonathan M. Links, Johns Hopkins University, Bloomberg School of Public Health, Baltimore, MD

1 **Dr. Gary M. Sandquist**, Professor, Mechanical Engineering/Nuclear Engineering
2 Department, College of Engineering, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, UT

3
4 **Dr. Richard J. Vetter**, Head, Radiation Safety Program, Mayo Clinic, Rochester, MN

5
6 **Ms. Susan Wiltshire**, Vice President Emeritus, JK Research Associates, Inc., S.
7 Hamilton, MA

8
9 **SCIENCE ADVISORY BOARD STAFF**

10 **Dr. K. Jack Kooyoomjian**, Designated Federal Officer, US EPA, Science Advisory
11 Board (1400F), 1200 Pennsylvania Avenue, NW, Washington, DC, 20460

12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11

**U.S. Environmental Protection Agency
Science Advisory Board**

CHAIR

Dr. M. Granger Morgan, Carnegie Mellon University, Pittsburgh, PA

SAB MEMBERS

[NOTE: This space is reserved for listing the Charter Board members - - - KJK].

TABLE OF CONTENTS

[NOTE: To be Generated , but see below for current format and subject titles - - - KJK.]

1. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

2. INTRODUCTION

- 2.1 Background
- 2.2 Charge to the RAC RadNet Review Panel
- 2.3 Acknowledgement and Overview

3. PROPOSED UPGRADES AND EXPANSION OF RadNet MONITORING NETWORK

- 3.1 Issues with respective role of fixed and deployable monitors
- 3.2 Issues with the monitors themselves
- 3.3 Potential sampling biases in the fixed air monitor
- 3.4 Measurement of external photon radiation fields
- 3.5 Measurement of alpha emitters at fixed stations
 - 3.6 Need for numerical clarity and transparency
 - 3.6.1 Value of the Protective Action Guide (PAG)
 - 3.6.2 Relation of the EPA-specified MDA value to the PAG for fixed-location monitor
 - 3.6.3 Calculation of the MDA values for the fixed-location monitor

4. REASONABLENESS OF OVERALL APPROACH FOR SITING MONITORS

- 4.1 Issues with siting
- 4.2 Issues with data analysis and management
- 4.3 Issues with communication of RadNet output
 - 4.3.1 Communication with decision makers
 - 4.3.2 Communication with the public
 - 4.3.3 Units for communication
 - 4.3.4 Communicating risk
 - 4.3.5 Other factors that complicate accurate communication
 - 4.3.6 Preparing for communications in an emergency
- 4.4 Issues with analysis and testing of the RadNet Plan
- 4.5 Other Issues

5. OVERALL APPROACH FOR SITING MONITORS

- 5.1 Background
- 5.2 Charge Question #2
 - 5.2.1 Population-based vs geographic-based siting
 - 5.2.2 Fixed vs deployable monitor networks
- 5.3 Charge Question #2a
 - 5.3.1 Meteorological constraints

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45

TABLE OF CONTENT: CONTINUED

- 5.3.2 Gaps in coverage
- 5.3.3 Uncertainty in number of near-term fixed monitors
- 5.3.4 Mission priority
- 5.3.5 Integration with existing networks
- 5.3.6 Other questions
- 5.4 Charge Question #2b
 - 5.4.1 Model requirements
 - 5.4.2 Practical issues
 - 5.4.3 Vertical siting
 - 5.4.4 Effective use of resources
- 5.5 Charge Question #2c
 - 5.5.1 Mobile unit storage
 - 5.5.2 Pre-Deployment
 - 5.5.3 Personnel training
 - 5.5.4 Flexible response to incident scenarios
 - 5.5.5 Other concerns
- 5.6 Charge Question #2d
 - 5.6.1 Near-term network shortage
 - 5.6.2 Scenario dependence

6. OVERALL PROPOSALS FOR DATA MANAGEMENT

- 6.1 Overview response to Charge Question #3
 -
 -
 -
- 6.4 Response to Charge Question #3c
 - 6.4.1 Review and evaluation of data
 - 6.4.2 Communication to decision makers and the public
 - 6.4.3 Communication with decision makers
 - 6.4.4 Communication with the public
 - 6.4.5 Units for communication
 - 6.4.6 Communicating risk
 - 6.4.7 Other factors that complicate accurate communication
 - 6.4.8 Preparing for communication in an emergency
- 6.5 Response to Charge Question #3d

REFERENCES

APPENDIX A – Description of the SAB Process

- A-1 Request for EPA Science Advisory Board (SAB) Review
- A-2 Panel Formation
- A-3 Panel Review Process and Review Documents

SAB Working Review Draft Report dated March 9, 2006 for RAC RadNet Review Panel Edits – Do Not Cite or Quote. This working review draft is a work in progress, does not reflect consensus advice or recommendations, has not been reviewed or approved by the RAC's RadNet Review Panel or the Chartered SAB, and does not represent EPA policy.

1

2 **APPENDIX B – BIOSKETCHES**

3

4 **APPENDIX C - ACRONYMS**

1
2
3
4
5
6

1. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

[NOTE: To be generated - - - KJK]

2. INTRODUCTION

2.1 Background

RadNet is the nation’s only comprehensive radiation monitoring network, with more than 200 sampling stations located throughout the United States. Since its inception in 1973, RadNet has continuously monitored multiple media, including air precipitation, surface water, drinking water, and milk. EPA is proposing a plan for upgrading and expanding the air monitoring component of RadNet. The plan is designed to go beyond the original mission for just providing information on nuclear or radiological accidents. The mission now includes homeland security concerns and the special problems posed by possible intentional releases of radiation to the nation’s environment.

EPA’s plan proposes new air monitoring equipment, more monitoring stations, more flexible responses to radiological and nuclear emergencies, significantly reduced response time, and much improved processing and communication of data. The ultimate goal of RadNet air monitoring is to provide timely, scientifically sound data and information to decision makers and the public.

It is important to note that formal planning for RadNet began in the mid 1990’s when the Office of Radiation and Indoor Air (ORIA) initiated a comprehensive assessment of RadNet to determine if the system was meeting its objectives and if the objectives were still pertinent to EPA’s mission. The first Radiation Advisory Committee advisory, in 1995, concentrated on an ORIA proposed preliminary design for a RadNet reconfiguration plan. The second RAC advisory, in 1997, examined the reconfiguration plan for RadNet that was developed, in large part, based in the guidance from the previous advisory.

In 1999 and 2000, three events took place that placed the RadNet national air monitoring component on emergency status, and confirmed some lessons on limitations in the existing system. The three events were the Tokaimura, Japan criticality incident, the fire near the DOE’s Los Alamos National Laboratory, and the fire near the DOE’s Hanford Reservation. The Tokaimura incident highlighted the fact that the air system was not designed to detect noble gases. The two fires underscored the limitations of having low sampling density and the relatively slow system response time. Air filters had to be shipped to NAREL for analyses, and it took several days for definitive data to reach decision makers and the public.

In 2001, well before September 11, 2001 (9/11), ORIA began working on a new vision for national radiation monitoring. In August of 2001, the design team announced their goals, and was well along in their planning. The terrorist attacks on the United States on September 11, 2001 expedited and strongly influenced the subsequent planning for updating and expanding RadNet. The design team decided to concentrate on the air monitoring portion of RadNet, and came up with the idea to have a series of deployable

1 monitors that could be positioned flexibly to augment the fixed locations and to add real-
2 time monitoring capability to the fixed locations.

3
4 Since deployable monitors had already been planned prior to September 11, 2001
5 and they could be procured more quickly, the first available homeland security funding
6 (late in 2001) was committed to the acquisition. OIRA then turned its attention to the
7 system of fixed monitors with testing of a prototype in 2002. By 2003, EPA had decided
8 that the prototype had demonstrated the technical feasibility of adding real time gamma
9 and beta monitoring capability to the fixed air monitoring stations. A proposal was
10 submitted to the capital budget for upgrading and expanding the fixed air monitoring
11 station component of RadNet, and, after evaluation by the Office of Management and
12 Budget, was funded in the FY 04 budget. An actual purchase was made in 2005.

13
14 The RadNet project is currently in the early implementation phase. The first fixed
15 monitor has been received, tested, and is installed at Montgomery. A set of deployable
16 monitors has been acquired and 20 have been delivered to ORIA labs in Montgomery and
17 20 in Las Vegas. The information technology infrastructure is in place for handling real-
18 time data.

19
20 The next steps include the national siting plan (where to put the fixed monitors),
21 how to distribute and operate the deployables under emergency conditions, and the best
22 protocols for dissemination of verified RadNet data during emergencies. EPA requested
23 that the Radiation Advisory Committee (RAC) provide input for these next steps.

24 25 26 **2.2 Charge to the RAC RadNet Review Panel**

27
28 The Agency’s Office of Radiation and Indoor Air is requesting that the EPA
29 Science Advisory Board review and provide advice on a draft document entitled
30 “*Expansion and Upgrade of the RadNet Air Monitoring Network, (Volume 1&2) Concept*
31 *and Plan,*” dated October 2005. EPA seeks comments on the following specific charge
32 questions:

33
34 **Charge Question 1:** *Are the proposed upgrades and expansion of the RADNET air*
35 *monitoring network reasonable in meeting the air network’s objectives?*

36
37 **Charge Question 2:** *Is the overall approach for siting monitors appropriate and*
38 *reasonable given the upgraded and expanded system’s objectives?*

39
40 2a) *Is the methodology for determining the locations of the fixed monitors*
41 *appropriate given the intended uses of the data and the system’s objectives?*

42
43 2b) *Are the criteria for the local siting of the fixed monitors reasonable given the*
44 *need to address both technical and practical issues?*

- 1 2c) *Does the plan provide sufficient flexibility for placing the deployable monitors*
- 2 *to accommodate different types of events?*
- 3 2d) *Does the plan provide for a practical interplay between the fixed and*
- 4 *deployable monitors to accommodate the different types of events that would*
- 5 *utilize them?*

6

7 **Charge Question 3:** *Given that the system will be producing near real-time data, are the*

8 *overall proposals for data management appropriate to the system’s objectives?*

9

10 3a) *Is the approach and frequency of data collection for the near real-time data*

11 *reasonable for routine and emergency conditions?*

12

13 3b) *Do the modes of data transmission from the field to the central database*

14 *include effective and necessary options?*

15

16 3c) *Are the review and evaluation of data efficient and effective considering the*

17 *decision making and public information needs during an emergency?*

18

19 3d) *Given the selected measurements systems are the quality assurance and*

20 *control procedures appropriate for near real-time data?*

21

22

23 **2.3 Acknowledgement and Overview**

24

25 The RAC RadNet Review Panel met in Montgomery, AL at the National Air and

26 Radiation Environmental Laboratory (NAREL) on December 14 –16, 2005 to consider

27 these charge questions. The location was important to facilitate discussion of the system

28 since members could see (and touch) the prototype fixed monitor and the deployable

29 monitors. RAC members were able to maximize the interaction with staff that had been

30 involved in the project at NAREL since they were all available at the meeting. This face

31 to face interaction was integral to the RAC RadNet Review Panel’s understanding of the

32 thought processes during design of the system. The hands-on aspect of being able to

33 directly experience the fixed and deployable monitors was also essential. RAC RadNet

34 Review Panel members even commented on the noise associated with the monitors in

35 operation as part of the siting criteria. The RAC RadNet Review Panel wishes to express

36 their sincere thanks to the NAREL staff in accommodating their needs during the meeting

37 and making the meeting as productive as possible.

38

39 The RAC RadNet Review Panel wishes to commend ORIA on the planning that

40 went into this meeting. The document “*Expansion and Upgrade of the RadNet Air*

41 *Monitoring Network (Volume 1&2) Concept and Plan,*” 2005 was well-written and

42 provided much needed background to the RAC’s RadNet Review Panelists. During the

43 meeting, the staff worked hard to augment this excellent document with additional pieces

44 of information that the committee members felt were necessary to assist with the review.

45 The staff took extreme care to honor all of the RAC’s requests and demonstrated their

46 patience as RAC RadNet Review Panel members struggled to understand all that went

1 into the decisions on equipment, siting and deployment strategies, and anticipated data
2 uses.

3 **3. PROPOSED UPGRADES AND EXPANSION OF RadNet**
4 **MONITORING NETWORK**

5 **Charge Question 1: *Are the proposed upgrades and expansion of the RadNet air***
6 ***monitoring network reasonable in meeting the air network’s objectives?***

7 In its briefing document, EPA stated the mission and objectives of the expanded
8 and upgraded RadNet monitoring network as (in paraphrased form):

- 9 • Provide data on baseline levels of radiation in the environment;
- 10 • To the extent practicable, maintain readiness to respond to emergencies by
11 collecting information on ambient levels capable of revealing trends;
- 12 • During events, provide credible information to public officials (and the public)
13 that evaluates the immediate threat and the potential for long-term effects; and
- 14 • Ensure that data generated are timely and are compatible with other sources.

15
16 *We believe, in general, that the proposed expansions and upgrades significantly*
17 *enhance the ability of the RadNet monitoring network to meet this mission and*
18 *objectives. However, in making this statement, we are concerned about a number of*
19 *specific issues, which are detailed below.*
20
21

22 **3.1 Issues with respective roles of fixed and deployable monitors**
23

24 Current plans for the upgraded RadNet system of air monitoring instruments call
25 for a system comprising 180 fixed samplers and 80 deployable samplers. The 80
26 deployable units have been purchased and are available for deployment from the National
27 Air and Radiation Environmental Laboratory (NAREL) in Montgomery and the
28 Radiation and Indoor Environments National Laboratory (RIENL) in Las Vegas.
29 Procurement of the fixed monitors is in progress, but the full complement of 180
30 samplers is not projected to be completed for a number of years. Both types of units will
31 be needed in response to a major airborne release of radionuclides. It is planned that the
32 deployable units will be used to expand the sampling network of interest around the site
33 of a known airborne release. As discussed below, deployable units could also be used
34 routinely in the near future to expand the fixed station network until more fixed sampling
35 units can be obtained.
36

37 The objectives above identify two basic operational scenarios: “routine” and
38 “emergency” (i.e., a radiological ‘incident,’ whether accidental or intentional). In

1 practice, the necessary monitoring data to characterize the radioactivity/radiation
2 ‘environment’ in these two basic scenarios exists at multiple levels of scale or
3 “resolution.” For the sake of simplicity, we identify three levels: large (multi-state; 100s
4 to 1000s of miles), regional (10s to 100s of miles), and local (miles).

5
6 Routine (also called baseline) monitoring is predominately a large-scale activity.
7 The purpose of this monitoring is to characterize, on an on-going basis, the ambient
8 radiation environment in space and time. For this purpose, air monitoring needs to be
9 supplemented with existing other RadNet-based media sampling, including water and
10 milk sampling.

11
12 Emergency monitoring requires data inputs at all three levels of scale. Large- and
13 regional-scale data are used to track major releases, typically from nuclear power plant
14 accidents or detonation of an improvised nuclear device (rather than from a Radiological
15 Dispersion Device, RDD). Local data are most relevant for RDD events, and help
16 determine evacuation vs. shelter-in-place decisions. For such decision-making, real-time
17 data are critical.

18
19 *Of major importance, while our view of the expanded and upgraded RadNet*
20 *network’s capabilities to meet EPA objectives is essentially consistent with EPA, our*
21 *view of the respective roles of the fixed and deployable monitors is significantly different*
22 *than that of EPA, and is a major factor in the responses and recommendations in this*
23 *report.*

24
25 Routine monitoring relies virtually exclusively on the fixed monitor network.
26 Here, real-time monitoring is not as important as expanded coverage. In this regard, the
27 major benefit of the expansion and upgrade plan is the addition of up to 180 new
28 monitoring sites. Here, the fixed monitors provide large-scale data, the deployable
29 monitors provide regional and (to a complementary extent) local level data. (Local scale
30 data are also provided by portable monitors representing local and state assets.)

31 32 33 **3.2 Issues with the monitors themselves**

34
35 Because of timing and resource issues, there are some differences in the design
36 and operation of the two types of monitors. The fixed and deployable units are both
37 capable of sampling air at high volumetric rates (35-75 m³/hr) through a 4"-dia. glass-
38 fiber filter. The deployable unit also has a second sampling head operated at a lower
39 sampling rate (0.8-7 m³/hr) suitable for sampling radioactive gases. The sampling heads
40 are located in different places in the two types of monitors. The two sampling heads on
41 the deployable units are located on extensions several feet above the system’s equipment
42 enclosure, whereas the sampling head in the fixed unit is located in the top portion of the
43 system’s enclosure along with two radiation detectors that provide periodic in-place
44 measurements of the accumulation of radionuclides on the filter medium. These
45 detectors are a 2"x2" NaI detector to measure gamma emissions and a 600 mm² ion-
46 implanted silicon detector to measure alpha and beta emissions from radionuclides on the

1 filter sample periodically during the sampling cycle. These radiation results can be
2 transmitted via satellite to NAREL.

3
4 The deployable unit has no built-in capability for monitoring either the high
5 volume or low-volume filters in place, so they must be counted and analyzed at NAREL
6 or in a mobile laboratory brought near the area of interest. Another difference between
7 the deployable and fixed units is the ability of the deployable units to provide
8 measurements of the external gamma radiation field at the sampling site. Results from
9 two GM detectors can be transmitted to NAREL via satellite transmission. The fixed
10 sampling unit has no comparable capability for quantifying external photon radiation
11 fields.

12
13 *Because both the fixed and deployable sampling units will be used to provide*
14 *important information to decision makers, it is imperative that both the similarities and*
15 *differences between these two monitoring systems be understood and quantified so that*
16 *the resulting data will be of high quality and consistency.*

17 18 19 **3.3 Potential sampling biases in the fixed air monitor**

20
21 The configuration of the detector and filter in the fixed air sampler may result in
22 bias in collection of larger particles due to impaction on the detector or associated support
23 surfaces. The EPA report should include a drawing that shows, with dimensions, the
24 locations of the two detectors relative to the filter, and indicates the expected air flow
25 path. *The impact of this geometrical arrangement on the deposition of airborne particles*
26 *should be evaluated by an experienced professional using laboratory or field tests.* Is
27 particle deposition on the filter uniform across the filter? Does a significant fraction of
28 particles deposit on the surfaces of the two detectors to contaminate them? Are there
29 sampling biases related to different particle-size regions? While large particles (greater
30 than 10 µm AMAD) are not of significance with regard to inhalation, they may be of
31 concern in evaluating the potential for soil and surface water impacts. Also, depending
32 on the type of incident that results in generation of air particulates, NAREL should
33 consider whether “hot particles” might be in the larger size range and thus not be
34 collected on the filter in proportion to their presence in the airborne material.

35
36 From the materials we were provided, *it is not clear whether the currently-*
37 *designed instruments have been tested for the collection efficiency of airborne*
38 *particulates as a function of the wind speed and direction at which they arrive at the*
39 *sampler, and how the sampling efficiency versus particle size might also be impacted.* A
40 wind tunnel would be a good place to conduct such tests. It is better to know these
41 characteristics now, than to learn that there might be a problem later. This seems to be
42 particularly critical for the new fixed samplers where many things are around and near
43 the actual sampling area.

44
45 One of the arguments for large particles not being of major concern for RadNet is
46 the expectation that an event that results in airborne dust generation will occur at a

1 considerable distance from the sampler. Thus, the large particles would fall out before
2 the plume reached the detector. This would be true for most of the fixed samplers for a
3 single event, but the fixed samplers are located in the population centers where the
4 probability of a terrorist incident involving release of radioactive material is the greatest.
5 A sampler in the vicinity of the incident is of primary importance in such a case and
6 should be capable of representative sampling of airborne dust.

9 **3.4 Measurement of external photon radiation fields**

11 The deployable sampling units use GM detectors to provide near real-time data on
12 gamma exposure rates, but no similar measurements can currently be made with the fixed
13 monitors. If it is assumed that the near real-time collection of these gamma exposure
14 measurements is an important function of the deployable units, then *consideration should*
15 *be given to making similar gamma exposure measurements on the fixed sampling units as*
16 *well.* It seems inconsistent to have this capability only on the deployable units.

18 It is unclear how the count rates from the GM detectors accurately reflect dose
19 rate in rem or sieverts. GM detector response is highly energy-dependent. While the
20 detectors are “compensated” (presumably for energy dependence), they are apparently
21 calibrated against unattenuated Cs-137 gamma radiation. While Cs-137 may be the most
22 important gamma-emitting radionuclide in the event of a nuclear incident, Co-60 – with
23 gamma photons twice the energy of the Cs-137 photons – may be of equal or greater
24 importance for a “dirty bomb” event. It is also important to note that the GM detector
25 response to scattered Cs-137 gamma radiation may be different from the response to the
26 unattenuated Cs-137 radiation. While it might be impractical to cross-calibrate each
27 deployable system against a pressurized ion chamber (PIC), *NAREL should consider*
28 *cross-calibrating the prototype using a series of different energy gamma emitters,*
29 *including naturally occurring thorium with its relatively high energy gamma Tl-208*
30 *decay product and uranium with its lower average energy decay products.*

32 Cross-calibration would afford a degree of assurance that the GM detectors are
33 accurately measuring exposure when a variety of different gamma energies are present.
34 Said another way, the EPA report should address the following aspects of detector
35 response:

- 36 • the pattern of the energy response in the form of a curve or tabulated values from
37 the low-energy cutoff to about 3,000 keV;
- 38 • the standard deviation of measured exposure rates for the full claimed range of 2
39 *R/h to 1 R/h ; and
- 40 • the response to beta-particles and associated Bremsstrahlung.

41 The use of the terms Sv and rem for the output of the GM detectors is a bit
42 misleading since a GM detector measures counts per unit time. With appropriate cross-
43 calibration against a PIC, the output could be converted to roentgens. However, if the
44 terms Sv and rem are being used in the sense that they represent effective dose, the one-

1 to-one ratio of roentgen to rem may not be appropriate. The conversion from exposure in
2 roentgen to effective dose in Sv or rem depends on both the receptor (e.g., adult or child)
3 and the energy of the gamma radiation.
4
5

6 **3.5 Measurements of alpha emitters at fixed stations**

7

8 The description of major components of the fixed air monitoring stations on p.25
9 of the EPA report includes "Instruments for measuring gamma and beta radiation
10 emanating from particles collected on the air filter media." Measurements of alpha
11 emissions is not mentioned on p. 25, but the detailed specification sheet we were given
12 mentions the capability to measure both low- and high- energy alpha particles. During
13 our meeting at NAREL, we were told that a complicated algorithm is needed to sort out
14 alpha emissions measured in the fixed monitor from the alpha emissions from naturally
15 occurring Rn progeny. *It is important that this capability be perfected because other*
16 *alpha emitters besides Am-241 may become important in assessing potential terrorist*
17 *threats.*
18

19 **3.6 Need for numerical clarity and transparency**

20 **3.6.1 Value of the Protective Action Guide (PAG)**

21

22 The PAG is stated in the EPA report to be the committed effective dose
23 equivalent (CEDE) of 1 rem that results from inhaling a specified radionuclide
24 continuously during a 4-d period (p.24, para. 5). The measurement requirements,
25 including the minimum detectable activity (MDA), specified in the EPA report for
26 selected radionuclides, are related to this value.
27

28 *The selected 1-rem value appears to be reasonable, but the authors should*
29 *indicate whether it is accepted by other responsible Federal agencies, such as DHS,*
30 *DOE, and NRC. If the appropriate PAG has not yet been decided upon, the proposed*
31 *values, or at least a range of values, should be stated, so that the corresponding*
32 *measurements required for radionuclides or radiation can be calculated.*
33
34

35 **3.6.2. Relation of the EPA-specified MDA value to the PAG for fixed-location** 36 **monitor**

37

38 The MDA values (at the 95% confidence level) are given in terms of nanocuries
39 (nCi) for each of 7 radionuclides on a filter to be counted for no more than 1 h with the
40 specified NaI(Tl) detector and spectrometer (p. 27, para. 1). Of the 7 radionuclides, Am-
41 241, Cs-137, Co-60, and Ir-192 were considered to be important because of their
42 availability in large quantity (p.24, para. 3). An MDA value also is given for Sr-90
43 counted with the silicon detector and spectrometer (p.27, para.2).
44

1 *The EPA report should include the nCi value on the filter that corresponds to the*
2 *selected limit on intake related to the PAG (see part A) for each of the 8 radionuclides.*
3 The purpose is to confirm that the MDA is (1) suitably lower than specified by the PAG
4 to permit reliable measurement results, and (2) not unreasonably low compared to the
5 PAG.

6
7 This information can be extracted from the two tables that were distributed by
8 EPA staff in response to a request at the meeting. One table is a list of radionuclide
9 concentrations (in pCi/m³) that correspond to the PAG for 1 rem by inhalation during 4 d
10 (and fractions of this PAG) for 5 of the 8 radionuclides. The other table is a list of nCi
11 for a 30 m³ sample related to deaths per nCi inhaled given in Federal Radiation Guide
12 #13, for all 8 radionuclides (and 2 others). The EPA staff should decide which data set is
13 appropriate, apply the selected factors for m³ collected on the filter for counting and m³
14 inhaled in the 4-d period, and discuss the appropriateness of the specified MDA values.

17 **3.6.3 Calculation of the MDA values for the fixed-location monitor**

18
19 Calculation of the MDA for radionuclides detected by the NaI(Tl) detector is
20 addressed in a separate document, “MDA for the EPA’s fixed Radnet monitors”, WSRC-
21 TR-2005-00527 (12/16/05) that was distributed at the meeting. The value of the MDA is
22 related to the standard deviation, *, by $MDA = (2.8 + 4.65*)/constant$.

23
24 The constant relates counts accumulated for this study in 10 minutes to nCi.
25 Values of * were obtained by measuring the counts recorded with the detector in the
26 regions of interest for various radionuclide standards and obtaining the counting
27 efficiency for these measurements. The Westinghouse Savannah River Company (WSRC)
28 report notes that the calculation of * is more complex than shown if background peaks
29 intrude on the regions of interest for a radionuclide, as is the case of radon progeny
30 intruding on Am-241 and Cs-137. The radon-progeny background on filters is stated in
31 the EPA report to fluctuate from 0.3 to 30 nCi (p.26, para.6). The calculated MDA
32 values based on measurements that do not include radon-progeny fluctuation range from
33 12.3 to 1.1 nCi for the 7 radionuclides. The MDA value for Am-241 is above the
34 specified MDA for the 10-min count but equals it for the expected 60-min count; the
35 MDA for each of the other radionuclides is 1 – 3 orders of magnitude below the EPA-
36 specified MDA value.

37
38 *The calculated MDA values reported in the WSRC report should be inserted into*
39 *the EPA report with an explanation of the reasons for the much larger EPA-specified*
40 *MDA values (p.27, para. 1), except for Am-241. If one reason is the indicated radon-*
41 *progeny fluctuation, the extent of increase in MDA values over those calculated in the*
42 *WSRC report should be tested in a field study. Relative to the EPA-specified MDA*
43 *values, however, the fluctuation appears to be significant only for Am-241.*

44
45 *Before inserting the WSRC data in the EPA report, some improvements in the*
46 *WSRC report are recommended. Calculation of * should be explicitly shown, with*

1 counts and background counts tabulated for each region of interest. Apparent errors
2 made in the sample calculation for Cs-137 should be corrected in calculations of
3 MDA(cps), MDA(dps), and MDA(nCi).

4
5 The MDA calculation for Sr-90 measured by the silicon detector should be shown
6 for the direct beta-particle count and counter background, and for the influence of radon-
7 progeny fluctuation. Any difference between these values and the EPA-specified MDA
8 should be explained.

9
10 *The implications of the change in the silicon-detector window thickness (from*
11 *thick to thin) that was reported by EPA staff at the meeting should be discussed in the*
12 *EPA report.* If the alpha-particle spectra that now can be measured are useful to
13 compensate for radon-progeny fluctuations, the appropriate calculations and test results
14 should be presented. Conversely, any detrimental effects of cross-talk on Sr-90 counting
15 sensitivity should be reported.

16

4. REASONABLENESS OF OVERALL APPROACH FOR SITING MONITORS

4.1 Issues with siting

In planning the distribution of monitors, EPA used the following assumptions. Modelers want a well-spaced network, and want (non-zero) readings in contaminated areas and zero readings in non-contaminated areas (to validate model predictions). Decision-makers want monitors where more people are located, and need data for other reasons, too (e.g., food production sites). The public wants monitors where more people are located. Other relevant concerns include agriculture (monitoring of areas that are otherwise unpopulated or geographically “uninteresting”), business and tourism areas, and border coverage for plumes from other countries. In order to address these needs, EPA took an approach that is both population-based and geographically-based:

- Start with the largest cities (population-based);
- Remove the “over” clustering of monitors in certain areas; and
- Fill in the gaps (geographically-based).

There are some tricky issues involved in siting, and the plan cannot be evaluated in a vacuum. There are at least two important additional considerations that are highly relevant to the discussion:

- 1) whether or not other monitoring networks (fixed and portable; e.g., Radiological Emergency Response Team, RERT), complementary to RadNet, will also be providing similar data; and
- 2) the sampling requirements of the mathematical models used to estimate environmental distributions in space and time.

Siting based on a combination of "population" and "cluster density" – as EPA is proposing – may or may not make sense depending on the answers to the 2 additional considerations above. For example, the models may require or be optimally served by, as input data, more uniform geographic sampling, or a (non-uniform) sampling scheme that is driven by geographic/geologic and meteorological factors (in 3 dimensions) rather than population or sampling density per se.

In practice, the sampling requirements of the specific model used to predict the space and time distribution of radioactivity determine the optimum siting plan. *Ideally, then, the siting plan would evolve from modeling considerations, rather than be determined beforehand. Given the current approach to siting, at a minimum, post-hoc confirmatory modeling (i.e., siting plan validation) should be used.*

The following approach is offered by way of example. Model 3-5 different, plausible scenarios, using one or more mathematical models, including that/those to be used by IMAAC, with extremely dense (over-) sampling (e.g., simulating the availability

1 of input from thousands of monitors). This initial run establishes the ground truth space
2 and time distribution. Then, perform a sensitivity analysis in which a number of monitors
3 are “removed” (e.g., to reduce the total number to 180 or 180 + 20 or + 40), and the
4 model rerun. This sensitivity analysis would both illustrate the optimum deployment of
5 180 (+ 40) monitors, and provide comparison of this optimum monitor distribution (or
6 limited monitor sampling scheme) to the actual siting plan.

7
8 The approaches discussed above focus on the selection of 180 “optimum” cities
9 (or geographic sites throughout the country) without regard to either technical or practical
10 issues, but only based on sampling considerations, either from a population and clustering
11 basis or in the context of modeling. *The actual selection of sites, however, must also be*
12 *driven by technical and practical issues.* These include the availability of the appropriate
13 electrical power, an accessible yet secure place to site the system, and (of particular
14 importance, according to EPA) the availability of appropriate volunteers to maintain and
15 “operate” the system.

16
17 A key issue that needs further specification and refinement is the vertical location
18 of the fixed monitors. A rooftop location may be the preferred (and potentially
19 standardizable) location, to avoid the “canyon effect” that might otherwise be present,
20 especially in large cities.

21
22 The EPA proposes to house the deployable systems in its two main detector R&D
23 lab sites (Las Vegas and Montgomery). EPA believes that it is important to do so, in
24 order to be able to provide continuing maintenance, and to deploy the monitors with
25 trained staff. As an alternative, however, it may make more sense to store the systems at
26 a more diverse set of regional locations, where they could be potentially deployed more
27 rapidly in the event of an emergency.

28
29 EPA’s plan does not include routinely using the deployable monitors (i.e., in the
30 absence of an emergency). *A key question is whether or not the systems could be*
31 *systematically deployed for “routine” monitoring to supplement the fixed monitors,*
32 *thereby increasing their utility, and still be as readily deployable in an emergency.* A
33 related issue is the utility or desirability of pre-deployment (e.g., within a region to keep
34 the deployable monitors readily available) in anticipation of significant terrorist targets
35 (i.e., specific events).

36
37 There are also some practical operational issues that need resolving. How (and by
38 whom) will the (acute) siting of the deployable monitors be determined? In practice, how
39 long will it take to deploy the monitors relative to the start of an event, and how does this
40 lag time influence the desirability of pre-deployment?

41 42 43 **4.2 Issues with data analysis and management**

44
45 A fundamental issue raised by the briefing document is the need for and use of
46 “zero” readings. A closely related issue is the portrayal of ‘not distinguishable from

1 background' values, and their dissemination to incident commanders, policy makers, and
2 the public. *We recommend the use of PAGs, not simply MDAs, for definition of trigger*
3 *levels.*

4
5 EPA staff explained that hourly data for the 7 regions of interest of the gamma-
6 ray spectrometer, and Sr-90 by the alpha/beta particle spectrometer, at 180 fixed
7 sampling stations will be telemetered to a central group for collection and analysis. The
8 resulting radionuclide concentration data will be stored, promptly distributed to
9 appropriate government agencies, and made available to the public.

10
11 Two important aspects of evaluating these approximately 35,000 data points per
12 day related just to radionuclide levels are:

- 13 1) rapid identification of elevated levels to identify locations of concern; and
14 2) avoidance of false positives that misdirect concern.

15
16 *The EPA report should consider limiting the information distributed by the*
17 *central analysis group to results that exceed a critical value selected for each*
18 *radionuclide. The critical value should be selected to be significantly greater than the 2**
19 *MDA, but well below the limit on intake by inhalation. By selecting a 2* limit, 2.3% of*
20 *null values – about 800 data points per day – would randomly exceed the limit and*
21 *become the focus of concern. This leads to the suggestion that, because even at a 3.1**
22 *limit, 0.1% of null values or about 3 per day, still will be above the limit, a data-pattern*
23 *recognition program should be instituted and controlled by an experienced radiological*
24 *professional at the central location.*

25 26 27 **4.3 Issues with communication of RadNet output**

28
29 The presentation of data in a manner that accurately conveys technical
30 information must vary for different events and for users with varying needs and levels of
31 technical expertise. The method of presenting the data to decision-makers does not need
32 to be the same as the methods used to present the data to the public. Routine data from
33 the fixed monitors can be supplied in raw form to either of the groups, and needs to be
34 made available in an easy to access form as soon as the data has had proper QA/QC
35 evaluation, as has been done in the past. The handling and release of the data in
36 emergencies has different requirements which need to be carefully considered.

37 38 39 **4.3.1 Communication with decision makers**

40
41 In an emergency, the EPA's responsibility is to get accurate and reliable data to
42 IMAAC as soon as possible, so that models can be adequately developed to help
43 understand the dose, distribution and direction of the plume. As soon as the data have
44 been conveyed to IMAAC and properly evaluated, IMAAC needs to convey the models
45 along with all other information on the event to FERMAC.

1 Immediately following the recognition of a radiation incident, local Incident
2 Command will be established to direct local responders in their rescue and treatment of
3 people who are directly affected and to protect the public who are not affected. Incident
4 Command will make decisions on the basis of the information at hand. These decisions
5 must be informed by data that describe the nature and significance of any potential
6 radiation exposure. Very early qualitative data will be collected locally and provide
7 information for early decisions but historical and quantitative data collected by EPA,
8 including RadNet data, should be forwarded through channels as soon as possible.
9 Because data need to be reviewed to assure quality, there will be some delay. *Everything*
10 *possible should be done during emergencies to minimize the time necessary to review the*
11 *data and forward it on to inform local Incident Command as soon as possible.*
12
13

14 **4.3.2 Communication with the public**

15
16 In the event of an emergency, FRMAC, rather than EPA, has the initial
17 responsibility for releasing information to the public. *It is important that the flow of data*
18 *from the event to the public be restricted to this line of communication (EPA to IMMAAC*
19 *to FRMAC), so that the messages the public receives are consistent, accurate and useful*
20 *as possible.* For example, it is important that there is not one message reporting activity
21 in dpm and another suggesting some type of radiation dose. After communication from
22 FRMAC has occurred, EPA should then make every effort to rapidly supply the validated
23 raw data in a form that is easy for the public to understand.
24
25

26 **4.3.3 Units for communication**

27
28 During all the processing of the data and in the preparation of documentation,
29 such as the “*Expansion and Upgrade of the RadNet Air Monitoring Network,*”(*Volume 1*
30 *and 2) Concept and Plan,*” care needs to be taken to use proper international units to
31 express activity, radiation exposure, dose and risk. This was not the case in the
32 document. This may be related to the fact that international units were adopted and came
33 into wide spread use after much of the monitoring data were derived by the systems that
34 have been replaced by RadNet. From this time forward, *all data should be re-evaluated*
35 *using the proper S.I. units with the older units put in parenthesis, i.e. Bq (pCi) or rem*
36 *(Sv) etc.* Such consistency is the first step in helping the decision makers and public
37 understand the meaning of the data.
38
39

40 **4.3.4 Communicating risk**

41
42 Great care needs to be taken in converting raw data from counts per minute, to
43 exposure, dose and risk. Raw counting data is very site, detector, nuclide, isotope,
44 particle size, chemical form and population specific. Thus, without much additional
45 information and analysis, the raw data (counts per minute) cannot be used to make even
46 the crudest estimates of risk. In conveying the raw data to the public, it is important that

1 the message does not convey an improper perception of the risk from any event. For
2 example, Figure B.1 page B-2 in the report records the level of activity as Monthly
3 Maximum Gross Beta Concentration (pCi/m³) over a 13 year time period. It shows that
4 the activity during this time varies by more than 100,000 times. Conveying such raw
5 data to the public would suggest that the risk had changed by a very large amount.
6 Historical data suggest that these large changes in activity in the air resulted in minimal
7 non-detectable changes in background cancer frequency in the U.S. This is of course
8 related to the high background frequency of cancer in the population and the low risk
9 from radiation related cancer.

12 **4.3.5 Other factors that complicate accurate communication**

14 The difficulty in communicating raw data from RadNet is further complicated by
15 the wide range of background radiation and radioactive materials in the environment.
16 *Information on background radiation and its variability also needs to be communicated*
17 *to the public relative to the changes measured by RadNet.* It would be important for
18 information on the range of background radiation to be quantified and made available
19 with any report to the public.

21 The current public fear of radiation and the perception that an increase in
22 radiation-induced cancer frequency will result following any level of exposure adds
23 another difficulty in communication with the public. The difference between “calculated
24 risk” and “measured increases in cancer frequency” following low dose radiation
25 exposures of large populations needs to be further established and discussed in a
26 framework that the public can understand. The small magnitude of the radiation-related
27 cancer risk compared to the background cancer risk without radiation exposure needs to
28 be properly communicated in any releases to the public. *Care should be taken to avoid*
29 *calculation of the number of excess cancers in large populations exposed to very low*
30 *doses of radiation. This is a calculation that should not be done by EPA or from data*
31 *derived from RadNet.*

34 **4.3.6 Preparing for communication in an emergency**

36 The committee recommends that when RadNet data are used in exercises on mock
37 releases, EPA makes efforts to design public release statements associated with the
38 “data” derived from the models and activities generated during these exercises. These
39 statements can be prepared ahead of time, and need to be related to exposure, activity,
40 dose and risk. *Such statements must be carefully reviewed by both physical and social*
41 *scientists and communications experts to be sure that the messages are understandable*
42 *and accurate.*

44 The messages derived from the mock release exercises also need to be discussed
45 with decision makers associated with the area where the exercise is conducted. These
46 decision makers should include individuals like the Governors, City Managers, Mayor,

1 Media managers, Chief of Police and Fire Chief. The decision makers should be asked to
2 respond to the information provided and let EPA, IMAAC, and FERMAC know what
3 information that they need to make decisions and how the data and messages supplied
4 would influence the decisions that they must make in the time of a real event or
5 emergency. Studies of this type will help to develop useful, understandable and accurate
6 messages that can be used to convey the data derived from RadNet following an event
7 involving radiation dispersal devices or improvised nuclear weapons.

8
9 It will be especially important to have these messages developed well ahead of
10 time and defined for rapid use in the case of a real event. Such messages will need to be
11 modified to be specific for each real event. They must provide a foundation that will help
12 the public understand if they were exposed, the levels of the exposure, the radiation doses
13 associated with the exposure and the level of damage or risk associated with the
14 exposure. This will provide a rational basis for any action or sacrifice that the public are
15 asked to make by the decision makers.

16 17 18 **4.4 Issues with analysis and testing of the RadNet plan**

19
20 The discussions presented to us about methods to provide Quality Assurance/
21 Quality Control (QA/QC) of the data showed that the plans for ensuring the quality of the
22 data were adequate. In addition, the automatic and computerized methods currently in
23 place to determine if the equipment is working properly and that data are accurate were
24 well thought out.

25
26 *Standard operating procedures (SOP) should be in place and accompany all the*
27 *QA/QC plans to insure that the data handling is reproducibly done prior to any release*
28 *and that information from the system is accurate and reliable. The QA/QC system should*
29 *be tested over an extended period of time with “dry runs” to determine if the methods can*
30 *insure that the equipment is operating properly at both the fixed and deployable stations.*
31 *In the rare case when one of the fixed stations has a reading that is outside the*
32 *predetermined range of acceptability, everything possible must be done to expedite the*
33 *QA/QC process to validate the readings. Even in an emergency, it is essential that the*
34 *proper QA and QC be done on the data before it is released; the time-table for releasing*
35 *the data should not be compressed in any way that may jeopardize data quality.*

36
37 The air monitoring and data management/transmission system have only recently
38 been delivered to NAREL, and have not been completely tested. The discussion of data
39 in the Concept and Plan document is brief, and provides only a conceptual plan for data
40 management. We did not see complete raw data sets or data in the form that it will be
41 provided to users, including the public. The NAREL proposal for data management
42 appears to be adequate, but it cannot be conclusively stated that it is appropriate to the
43 system’s objectives until the data management procedures are developed and tested.

44 45 46 **4.5 Other Issues**

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30

If RadNet is *the* nation-wide environmental radiation monitoring network, feeding into IMAAC modeling, why use the word “assist” in the objectives? How do the other ‘assets’ factor into a unified modeling scheme? It seems likely that local and state assets will not be able to be readily incorporated; the same is likely true of other federal assets (e.g., data from RERT systems). This is because of issues of cross-calibration, and potential problems with the accurate input of location data, etc.

How did the mileage radii for de-clustering and gap-filling arise? How is “proximity” defined? How, if at all, does the spatially varying distribution of background (especially radon) influence the siting, the MDA, and the modeling? (The temporal variation in radon background is also important, but of less influence on the siting.)

Filter changing frequency depends on the radionuclide and particle concentration (and particulate matter will significantly increase after an explosion).

Is giving the public access to the data a good thing? Are there any national security issues in providing public access? What about the (counter-productive) possibility of second guessing by unaffiliated “experts”?

Reassurance re ‘no danger’ must be on a regional, not local, basis – because at the local level, at best, only one RadNet monitor would be available. Should routine (non-peri-emergency) reporting via the RadNet website be real-time values or lab-based (longer integration time) values?

Meteorological monitoring on the fixed monitors is desirable in some cases, and should be decided on a site-specific basis, based on 2 considerations: (a) no “canyon effect” exists, and (b) no alternative “close” meteorological monitoring exists (where “close” still needs to be defined).

1 **5. OVERALL APPROACH FOR SITING MONITORS**
2
3

4 Charge Question #2: *Is the overall approach for siting monitors appropriate and*
5 *reasonable given the upgraded and expanded system’s objectives?*
6

- 7 2a. *Is the methodology for determining the locations of the fixed monitors*
8 *appropriate given the intended uses of the data and the system’s*
9 *objectives?*
10 2b. *Are the criteria for the local siting of the fixed monitors reasonable given*
11 *the need to address both technical and practical issues?*
12 2c. *Does the plan provide sufficient flexibility for placing the deployable*
13 *monitors to accommodate different types of events?*
14 2d. *Does the plan provide for a practical interplay between the fixed and*
15 *deployable monitors to accommodate different types of events that would*
16 *utilize them?*
17
18
-

19
20
21 **5.1 Background**
22

23 In its briefing document (U.S. EPA. 2005), EPA stated the RadNet mission and
24 objectives of the expanded and upgraded RadNet monitoring network as (in paraphrased
25 form):
26

- 27 • Provide assessment data and baseline levels of radiation in the environment to
28 modelers, scientists and the public;
29
30 • To the extent practicable, maintain readiness to respond to emergencies by
31 collecting information on ambient levels capable of revealing trends;
32
33 • During events, provide credible information to public officials (and the public)
34 that evaluates the immediate threat and the potential for long-term effects; and
35
36 • Ensure that data generated are timely and are compatible with other sources.
37

38 Due to the limited number of monitors, the ultimate decisions for siting are based
39 on practicalities concerning operators, resources and the number of effective monitors
40 available at a given time. The system proposed is consequently receptor-based with focus
41 on national impact, and not a source-based early warning system.
42

43
44 **5.2 Charge Question # 2**
45

1 *Is the overall approach for siting monitors appropriate and reasonable given the*
2 *upgraded and expanded system’s objectives?*

3
4 *We believe, in general, that the proposed EPA approach for siting fixed and*
5 *deployable monitors significantly enhances the ability of the RadNet monitoring network*
6 *to meet mission objectives. Nevertheless we are concerned about a number of specific*
7 *issues that are detailed below.*

8
9 Given the limited resources the difficulties in designing the siting plan stems from
10 two seemingly contradictory drivers: population- vs. geography-based. The siting plan
11 proposed is therefore the result of a compromise between monitoring people and
12 spanning the nation, or between socio-political considerations and mission requirements.
13 There is an apparent discrepancy between the stated RadNet objectives in the context of
14 EPA responsibilities, and the interplay and use of deployable vs. fixed monitors. This is
15 reflected in a lack of clarity in the usage of deployable monitors: What are the decision-
16 making processes and prioritizations used to accommodate different types of events from
17 long term monitoring deficiencies to the response to catastrophic incidents? Are the
18 objectives for the usage of deployable monitors strictly identical to those for the fixed
19 monitors?

20 21 22 **5.2.1 Population-based vs. geographic-based siting**

23
24 Even though the siting plan is not intended to monitor a city-based incident, it has
25 been designed to accommodate one monitor per city. For populated Eastern and Western
26 coastline areas (e.g., Los Angeles basin and the New York metropolitan area) this results
27 in an anonymously high density of fixed monitors compared to other regions, notably the
28 US-Canadian boarder, Central Northern United States, Central and Eastern Nevada and
29 Eastern Oregon.

30
31 From these considerations and the limited resources available, we suggest that a
32 more aggressive declustering of fixed monitors be considered initially, particularly in the
33 vicinity of the Los Angeles and New York metropolitan areas, and that local and regional
34 meteorological models be used along with other considerations, to pare down and
35 redistribute fixed monitors. This will result in better geographic coverage consistent with
36 the primary decisions for siting a ‘receptor-based system’ with a focus on national
37 impact. This approach is also more flexible in terms of adapting to limited resources and
38 the deployment of a lesser amount of fixed monitors than the eventual 180 planned for.
39 A related concern includes: How did the mileage radii for de-clustering and gap-filling
40 arise, and how is “proximity” defined?

41 42 43 **5.2.2 Fixed vs. deployable monitor networks**

44
45 It is unclear whether the proposed deployment of mobile monitors in predicated
46 solely on the RadNet objectives outlined for the deployment of fixed monitors: the

1 collection of environmental data within the context of a National scope, and for the sole
2 purpose of monitoring, assessment and baseline data collection. Given the limited
3 resources and possible limitations on the number of fixed monitors deployed in the near-
4 term, it appears that at least some of the mobile units could be used to fill coverage gaps
5 identified through modeling. To the degree to which mobile units are actually a response
6 to EPA’s new monitoring responsibilities as outlined in the post 9/11
7 *Nuclear/Radiological Incident Annex* document, *National Response Plan (NRP)*, then
8 this should be specifically included in the siting discussion and reviewed in that context.
9 Specifically the mission of the RadNet Air Network includes providing “data for
10 radiological emergency response assessments in support of homeland security and
11 radiological accidents.” This objective is vague and brings into question responsibility
12 and chain of command. Under most circumstances, EPA is not the lead but a supporting
13 organization to the Coordinating Agency (CA). This may also preclude the pre-
14 deployment of mobile monitoring stations by the EPA and requires the integration of
15 what then becomes two separate systems associated each with deployable and fixed
16 monitoring Networks.

17
18 To avoid future implementation failures and the loss of key data, this apparent
19 discrepancy needs to be specifically addressed in the report, integrated and planned for by
20 EPA, the Federal Radiological Monitoring and Assessment Center (FRMAC) and the end
21 user IMAAC that generates the plume projections.

22 23 24 **5.3 Charge Question # 2a**

25
26 *Is the methodology for determining the locations of the fixed monitors appropriate given*
27 *the intended uses of the data and the system’s objectives?*

28
29 *We strongly suggest that the declustering of high density population areas be*
30 *more aggressive and involve the use of model constraints and meteorological forecast*
31 *predictions. To this end we support the use of sensitivity analyses and confirmatory*
32 *transport modeling proposed by EPA, in conjunction with Savannah River National*
33 *Laboratory, the US Weather Bureau, IMAAC and/or other partners.*

34
35 Overall we believe that the methodology for determining the locations of the fixed
36 monitors is appropriate with some reservations: There appear to be a few gaps in the
37 proposed siting methodology for fixed monitors, resulting from (1) the apparent lack of
38 local and regional meteorological constraints; (2) possibly significant gaps in geographic
39 coverage; (3) deficiencies in siting scenarios in the context of uncertainty in the near term
40 number of operational fixed monitors, and (4) RadNet mission priorities; (5) integration
41 with current EPA monitoring responsibilities; and (6) other.

42 43 44 **5.3.1 Meteorological constraints**

1 The proposed EPA scheme for adapting fixed monitor locations to both
2 population density and land coverage achieved about 50% population coverage and about
3 82 % land coverage. With the constraint of 180 independent stations this appears
4 satisfactory as an initial siting basis. However, meteorological and natural background
5 radiation conditions (e.g., radon) may demand adjustments of this distribution as
6 experience is gained with actual operation of the system and results from preliminary
7 models are considered. The data from the RadNet Air Monitoring Network should
8 eventually be combined with a standard US Weather Bureau computer code for
9 projecting variations in the local geological and meteorological conditions in the area of
10 the monitor and regional atmospheric conditions and trends. Meteorological monitoring
11 associated with the fixed monitor Network is desirable in some cases, and should be
12 decided on a site-specific basis, based on 2 considerations: (a) no “canyon effect” exists,
13 and (b) no alternative “close” meteorological monitoring exists (where “close” still needs
14 to be defined). In this way, elevated radiation conditions and their atmospheric transport
15 could then be predicted and their significance assessed with respect to natural and/or
16 man-made anomalies.

17 18 19 **5.3.2 Gaps in coverage**

20
21 The fixed monitor siting plan proposed is the result of a compromise between
22 monitoring people and spanning the nation. As a consequence, even though the siting
23 plan is not intended to monitor a city-based incident it allows for one monitor per city.
24 For populated Eastern and Western coastline areas (e.g., Los Angeles basin and the New
25 York metropolitan area) this results in an anonymously high density of fixed monitors
26 compared to other regions, notably the US-Canadian boarder, Central Northern United
27 States, Central and Eastern Nevada and Eastern Oregon. Some of this concern may be
28 addressed through joint US-Canadian operations. At a minimum, NAREL should note
29 the locations of Canadian monitoring facilities to indicate if the coverage is better than it
30 appears from the US maps alone. In addition, we suggest that initially a more aggressive
31 declustering of fixed monitors be considered in the vicinity of the largest population
32 centers (i.e., Los Angeles and New York metropolitan areas) and that local and regional
33 meteorological models be used along with other considerations, to pare down and
34 redistribute fixed monitors on a physical geography basis. This will result in improved
35 geographic coverage consistent with the primary decisions for siting receptor-based
36 system with a focus on national impact.

37 38 39 **5.3.3 Uncertainty in number of near-term fixed monitors**

40
41 Given the limited resources and possible limitations on the number of fixed
42 monitors deployed in the near-term, it appears that scenarios with less than 180 fixed
43 monitors be examined in terms of immediate impact of system response. In addition at
44 least some of the mobile units could be used to fill coverage gaps identified through
45 modeling. This approach has the advantage of being more flexible and responding to
46 changing environmental conditions. It requires a thorough study in terms of costs and

1 added complexity in the event that deployable systems are required in response to an
2 unanticipated radiological incident.

3
4
5 **5.3.4 Mission priority**

6
7 In keeping with EPA responsibilities and the continuity of the RadNet mission,
8 the most important function of the fixed monitors is the continued and improved routine
9 evaluation of the ambient radiation environment. In the context of the new RadNet
10 network, this involves continued coordination of the air monitoring Network with the
11 other current EPA networks involving water and milk monitoring, even in the context of
12 a later evaluation and update of those systems. This again emphasizes that population
13 density is not necessarily the main driver but that isolated areas that involve many rural
14 communities also support the monitoring infrastructure of the Nation. In view of the
15 resource limitations to the new RadNet system, NAREL should not lose sight of the EPA
16 function that involves tracking the transfer of ambient air-borne radiological conditions to
17 Nation’s food supply.

18
19
20 **5.3.5 Integration with existing networks**

21
22 Even though RadNet is a receptor-based system, it should strive on leveraging
23 any and all additional monitoring stations by working with other existing systems, such
24 as those in individual States and around Nuclear Power Plants and other source areas.
25 Moreover, there should be a mechanism established for entities such as States or Cities
26 who may use their own funds to purchase stations that are in compliance with the
27 standards to become full-fledged ‘members’ of the network. There also appears to be a
28 lack of coordination with Canadian monitoring networks. Specifically, the US southern
29 border seems to be well covered by the proposed siting plan, whereas monitors along the
30 northern Canadian border appear scarce. Health Canada maintains monitoring stations in
31 Edmonton, Calgary, Saskatoon, and Regina and perhaps elsewhere but the EPA does not
32 appear to have engaged Health Canada and there is no mention of the monitoring
33 capabilities or planned joint coordination efforts between the US and Canada.

34
35
36 **5.3.6 Other questions**

37
38 *A further question regarding siting is how EPA will respond to socio-political factors*
39 *that could derail the siting scenario?*

40
41
42 **5.4 Charge Question #2b**

43
44 *Are the criteria for the local siting of the fixed monitors reasonable given the need to*
45 *address both technical and practical issues?*

1 *Ideally, the siting plan would evolve from modeling considerations, rather than be*
2 *determined beforehand. Given the current approach to siting, at a minimum, post-hoc*
3 *confirmatory modeling (i.e., siting plan validation) should be used.*

4
5 *Additionally, siting criteria based on a combination of "population" and "cluster*
6 *density" – as EPA is proposing – may or may not make sense depending on the answers*
7 *to the 2 additional considerations (a) and (b) below.*

8
9 There are complex and non-intuitive issues involved in siting monitors, and the
10 plan cannot be evaluated in a vacuum. At least two important additional considerations
11 are highly relevant to the discussion:

12
13 (a) Whether or not other fixed and portable monitoring networks complementary to
14 RadNet (e.g., RERT) will also be providing similar and/or compatible data; and

15
16 (b) What are the sampling requirements for the mathematical models used to
17 estimate environmental distributions in space and time?

18
19 In planning the distribution of fixed monitors, EPA used the following
20 assumptions. In order to validate model predictions modelers and planners require a
21 well-spaced network that include ‘non-zero’ readings in contaminated areas and ‘zero’
22 readings in non-contaminated areas. Decision-makers require monitors where large
23 population centers are located, as well as other (e.g., food production sites). The public
24 also demands that monitors exist where they are located although other relevant concerns
25 include agriculture (monitoring of areas that are otherwise unpopulated or geographically
26 “uninteresting”), business and tourism areas, and border areas that anticipate plumes from
27 other countries.

28
29 In order to address these needs, EPA took an approach that is both population-
30 based and geographically-based:

- 31 ○ Start with the largest cities (population-based);
32 ○ Remove the “over” clustering of monitors in certain areas; and
33 ○ Fill in the gaps (geographically-based).

34
35 In addition to the points covered in the report, we strongly encourage that several
36 be either added or reconsidered:

37
38 (1) **Siting needs based on model requirement.** Given that the models will be
39 used for rapid decision making and analysis, it follows that criteria satisfying
40 required model inputs be prioritized so that the results are quantitative and the
41 model predictions are robust;

42
43 (2) **Practical considerations** involving siting protocols based on monitoring
44 station security and operation must be specified and prioritized;

- 1 (3) **Vertical siting considerations need attention** in view of the role of possible
- 2 monitoring obstructions, different sampling environments (e.g., monitors at
- 3 different elevations sampling different plume horizons), etc...; and,
- 4 (4) **The effective use of other existing resources** that could benefit rapid
- 5 detection and analysis of a radioactive plume.

6

7

8 **5.4.1 Model requirements**

9

10 Models may best be served by input data that require more uniform geographic

11 sampling, or a non-uniform sampling scheme that is driven by geographic/geologic and

12 meteorological factors in three dimensions, rather than by a population or sampling

13 density scheme. For quantitative analysis and understanding of the Network data, optimal

14 siting is therefore the product of simulation requirements, anticipated scenarios, and

15 variations within each. In practice, the sampling requirements are also model specific

16 and as different models come into play, optimizing the siting plan involves integration of

17 several results that together stochastically predict the space and time distribution of

18 radioactive plume in three dimensions.

19

20 The following approach is offered by way of example:

21

22 **Step 1:** Model 3-5 different, plausible scenarios, using one or more mathematical

23 models, including any used by IMAAC. The initial tests should involve a dense

24 monitoring coverage or over-sampling (e.g., simulating the availability of input from

25 thousands of monitors), thereby establishing the ‘ground truth’ space and time

26 distribution;

27

28 **Step 2:** Use a preferred model to simulate a case with 180 monitoring stations as

29 proposed in the RadNet siting plan and vary the siting density distribution using proposed

30 EPA siting plan(s);

31

32 **Step 3:** Perform a sensitivity analysis in which a number of monitors are

33 “removed” from a “preferred RadNet siting configuration” to reduce the total number of

34 stations from 180 to [180 – 20] or [180- 40];

35

36 **Step 4:** Compare all model run results. This sensitivity analysis could render (i)

37 the optimum deployment for 180 fixed monitors; (ii) provide a comparison of the

38 preferred monitor distribution to an optimal siting scenario involving a greater or ideal

39 number of monitors (>>180); (iii) optimize the use of a resource-limited monitor

40 sampling scheme (<180 stations); and (iv) help in the design of portable station

41 deployment either as temporary stations to offset perceived coverage gaps or for use in

42 rapid deployment scenarios and effective integration with other networks, including fixed

43 RadNet monitors.

44

45

46 **5.4.2 Practical issues**

1
2 The approaches discussed above focus on the selection of 180 “optimum” cities
3 (or geographic sites throughout the country) without regard to either technical or practical
4 issues, but based only on sampling considerations, either from a population- and
5 clustering-basis, or in the context of modeling. *The actual selection of sites, however,*
6 *must also be driven by technical and practical issues.* These include:

- 7 (i) The availability of the appropriate electrical power;
8
9 (ii) An accessible and secure place to site the system; and
10
11 (iii) The availability of appropriate volunteers to maintain and “operate” the
12 system.
13

14 **5.4.3 Vertical siting**

15
16
17 A key issue that needs further specification and refinement is the vertical location
18 of the fixed monitors. A rooftop location may be the preferred (and potentially
19 standardizable) location, to avoid the “canyon effect” that might otherwise be present,
20 especially in large cities. We suggest that the “2-meter rule” be amended or redefined in
21 the context of tall buildings or large vertical structures.
22

23 **5.4.4 Effective use of resources**

24
25
26 A complete inventory of all existing, functional radiation equipment should be
27 performed by EPA to determine available non-EPA resources, which may include the
28 environmental radiation equipment at nuclear power plants, resources at universities,
29 federal, state, and industrial laboratories, or medical facilities. In the event of a major
30 incident within a given region the EPA could rapidly assess national needs and enlist
31 these resources for extended coverage.
32

33 **5.4 Charge Question #2c**

34
35
36 *Does the plan provide sufficient flexibility for placing the deployable monitors to*
37 *accommodate different types of events?*
38

39 *A key question is whether or not the systems could be systematically deployed for*
40 *“routine” monitoring to supplement the fixed monitors, thereby increasing their utility,*
41 *and still be as readily deployable in an emergency.*
42

43 This question requires resolution of the apparent discrepancy noted earlier
44 between the stated RadNet objectives and the interplay and use of deployable vs. fixed
45 monitors. Both the RadNet document and the EPA RadNet presentations bring
46 uncertainty as to the ultimate objectives for the usage of deployable monitors. EPA’s plan

1 to date does not include routinely using the deployable monitors (i.e., in the absence of an
2 emergency). To the degree to which mobile units are actually a response to EPA’s new
3 monitoring responsibilities as outlined in the post 9/11 *Nuclear/Radiological Incident*
4 *Annex* document (*NRP*), then the flexibility of the deployment depends on the mobile
5 Network ability to adapt to rapid response times and deployment requirements. This can
6 only be accomplished if the siting is ‘pre-planned’ by incident type, regardless of
7 location. This in turn requires that the deployment scenarios be tied to ‘realistic’ model
8 renditions of different scenarios and that both model and siting plan be responsive to the
9 input of new incident boundary conditions in a timely and effective way. At present, this
10 is not the case and we urge the EPA to take measures in this direction and lead the way to
11 the use of the RadNet database.

12
13 Other considerations are the practical effective deployment requirements within
14 the framework of limited resources. These issues include (1) Storage; (2) Pre-
15 Deployment, (3) Personnel Training, (4) Flexible Response to Incident Scenarios, and (5)
16 Other Concerns.

17 18 19 **5.5.1 Mobile unit storage**

20
21 The EPA proposes to house the deployable systems in its two main detector R&D
22 lab sites (Las Vegas and Montgomery). EPA believes that it is important to do so, in
23 order to be able to provide continuing maintenance, and to deploy the monitors with
24 trained staff. As an alternative, however, it may make more sense to store the systems at
25 a more diverse set of regional locations, where they could be potentially deployed more
26 rapidly in the event of an emergency.

27 28 29 **5.5.2 Pre-Deployment**

30
31 Under certain circumstances and in response to a DHS request, if a pre-
32 deployment option for the mobile stations were envisaged, it would drastically change the
33 nature of the RadNet mission and can make it much more of an event detection and early
34 warning response system. In view of the possibility the EPA would be requested to pre-
35 deploy its portable air monitors, the criteria for pre-deployment should be clearly
36 addressed and carefully established. There are a large number of gatherings of large
37 numbers of people where there may well be pressure to pre-deploy the monitors. Fairly
38 routine pre-deployments have positive and negative aspects. On the positive side it
39 enables operators to become familiar with shipping and setting up the systems. It also
40 increases the probability that they will be in place when needed. On the negative side,
41 apart from the cost, routine pre-deployments increases the probability that they will be in
42 some other location when they are needed to be used post-event or need to be re-
43 deployed due to environmental changes. There needs to be further discussion of how
44 such situations will be handled and how operator safety would be addressed.

1
2 **5.5.3 Personnel training**
3

4 The large number of deployable monitors ideally permits rapid deployment and
5 operation of field monitors where and when required to meet specific situations. Since
6 the tactics and location of a radiological based terrorist attack may not be know, the
7 deployable monitors must permit rapid response to a given situation in ‘real time.’
8 Because of the variety of potential radiological terrorist attacks that are not significantly
9 transported by the atmosphere, a small inventory of specialized monitors (e.g., noble gas,
10 alpha spectrometers, C-14 detectors) should be available for rapid deployment. However,
11 in relation to the use of deployable monitors the EPA states that the “information
12 concerning the exact location of each monitor relative to buildings, terrain level changed,
13 other obstacles, along with a description of the surface terrain (for surface roughness
14 determination), will need to be relayed to meteorologists so they can determine the value
15 of the data prior to use.”
16

17 EPA relies on volunteers to deploy their portable monitors and bring flexibility to
18 the deployment scenario. Without training or experience it is difficult to imagine the
19 success of this enterprise in the light of a National emergency, where potential risks to
20 personnel safety are to be envisioned. EPA needs to clarify how these untrained
21 individuals will know how to adequately provide the required terrain descriptions in a
22 timely and accurate manner before starting the sampling activities; and assure themselves
23 of the robustness of their deployment plan in view of recent incidents during hurricane
24 Katrina where major defections of police and emergency personnel occurred.
25
26

27 **5.5.4 Flexible response to incident scenarios**
28

29 The overall plan for the deployment of the RadNet portable monitors seems to rely
30 on the occurrence of a single radiation incident and does not consider multiple near-
31 simultaneous incidents. Based on the history of the 9-11 attack, where three to four
32 locations were targeted simultaneously, the single incident assumption is inadequate.
33 Simultaneous, coordinated dirty bomb or nuclear device attacks on several cities (e.g.,
34 Boston, New York, Miami, Chicago, and Los Angeles) are as plausible as a single event
35 scenario. ORIA should therefore revisit its deployable siting plan and determine the
36 effectiveness of the proposed methodology if only five to ten mobile stations are
37 available for deployment at each of several locations instead of the 20 to 40 monitoring
38 stations per site they depict in the Report.
39

40 As discussed in the Charge Question 2b answer, the deployment and siting of
41 mobile air monitoring stations would be greatly improved by a modeling exercise where
42 the siting is closely tied to model scenarios involving different types of incidents (e.g.,
43 dirty bombs vs. nuclear devices), as well as different areas (e.g., large cities vs. industrial
44 or military centers).
45
46

1
2 **5.5.5 Other concerns**
3

4 There are also some practical operational issues that need resolving. How and by
5 whom will the siting of the deployable monitors be determined? In practice, how long
6 will it take to deploy the monitors relative to the start of an event, and how does this lag
7 time influence the desirability of pre-deployment?
8

9 The RadNet siting plan provides flexibility for placing deployable monitors for
10 different types of events; however, the role of the deployables is not totally clear. Are the
11 deployables for monitoring the edge of a plume or are they to provide assurance to
12 populated areas not covered by fixed monitors, that they have not been affected? The
13 deployables are a flexible, well designed system, but the locations where they will be
14 placed relative to where the contaminated plume is located needs better definition.
15

16 The air concentration and external gamma radiation data from the RERT teams
17 and the deployables should be integrated. This should be the easiest data to integrate
18 since it is collected by the same organization and provide an extra safeguard to the
19 operators.
20

21 In the early phase, the deployable monitors are to provide gamma radiation and
22 airborne radioactive particulate data to modelers to assist in validation of model output
23 or adjustment of input parameters (page 16). But the deployment scheme is to place the
24 monitors outside of the contaminated area. To assist the modelers, the monitors may
25 have to be placed inside the plume to measure gamma or airborne above background.
26

27 The scheme for siting deployable monitors is to put them where they will measure
28 background or pick up resuspension. Decision-makers will be looking for more data on
29 the impacted areas, particularly from monitoring stations that can send data remotely
30 without exposing personnel, except for short timeframes to change filters. Have we
31 really worked out the correct mission for the deployables? Is there a short term strategy
32 to use the deployables in the location of a fixed monitor on a temporary basis as part of
33 the testing program? We suggest that EPA explore this strategy.
34
35

36 **5.6 Charge Question #2d**
37

38 *Does the plan provide for a practical interplay between the fixed and deployable*
39 *monitors to accommodate different types of events that would utilize them?*
40

41 *While our view of the expanded and upgraded RadNet Air Network’s capabilities*
42 *to meet EPA objectives is essentially consistent with EPA objectives, our view of the*
43 *respective roles of the fixed and deployable monitors is significantly different than that of*
44 *EPA, and is a major factor in determining what constitutes an effective interplay between*
45 *fixed and deployable monitors.*
46

1 Concerning the interplay between fixed and deployable monitors, EPA proposes
2 in essence, to treat the data from the two types of monitors in a similar fashion. Yet, the
3 fixed stations do not include exposure rate measurements, and the deployable monitors
4 do not include gamma spectrometry. In addition, the collection filters (for air sampling)
5 are different on the two systems. These differences lead to a number of issues. How will
6 the fixed and deployable data be integrated (e.g., in the context of modeling), especially
7 given the different gamma-ray detectors? How will cross-calibration of the systems,
8 considering the use of different air sampling filters, be accomplished?
9

10 These questions lead to more fundamental questions. Why is exposure rate
11 measurable on the deployable, but not on the fixed, monitors? In this regard, what is the
12 purpose of the exposure rate monitoring on the deployable monitors? Finally the EPA
13 needs to address foreseen shortcomings in the RadNet program in the near term: (1)
14 Shortage of fixed monitoring stations and (2) Scenario dependence of the interplay
15 between fixed and deployable stations.
16
17

18 **5.6.1 Near-term network shortage**

19

20 Current plans for the upgraded RadNet system of air monitoring instruments call
21 for a system comprising 180 fixed samplers and 80 deployable samplers. The 80
22 deployable units have been purchased and are available for deployment from NAREL in
23 Montgomery and RIENL in Las Vegas. Procurement of the fixed monitors is in progress,
24 but the full complement of 180 samplers is not projected to be completed for a number of
25 years. However the projections made by EPA in the RadNet report are based on full
26 deployment of 180 fixed monitors and the availability of 80 deployable monitors. Both
27 types of units will be needed in response to a major airborne release of radionuclides.
28

29 It is planned that the deployable units will be used to expand the sampling
30 network of interest around the site of a known airborne release. In light of the near-term
31 limitations to the Network discussed above, it is important that the interplay between both
32 types of monitors include a scenario where deployable units be used routinely in the near
33 future to expand the fixed station network until more fixed sampling units can be
34 obtained.
35

36 **5.6.2 Scenario dependence**

37

38 The objectives associated with the interplay of fixed and deployable monitors will
39 be specific to the two basic operational scenarios: (a) “routine” and (b) “emergency” (i.e.,
40 a radiological ‘incident,’ whether accidental or intentional). In practice, the necessary
41 monitoring data to characterize the radioactivity/radiation ‘environment’ in these two
42 basic scenarios exists at multiple scales of detection or “resolution.” For the sake of
43 simplicity, we can identify 3 scales: National- or Interstate-scale (multi-state; 10^2 to 10^3
44 mile radius), Regional-scale (10^1 to 10^2 mile radius), and Local-scale (1 to 10^{mile} radius).
45
46

- 1 a) ‘Routine’ or ‘baseline’ monitoring is predominately an Interstate-scale
2 activity. Routine monitoring relies virtually exclusively on the fixed monitor
3 network: in this case, real-time monitoring is not as important as expanded
4 coverage. The major benefit of the expansion and upgrade plan is the addition
5 of up to 180 new monitoring sites. Fixed monitors provide Interstate-scale
6 data, the deployable monitors provide Regional- and (to a complementary
7 extent) Local-scale data. Local-scale data are also supplemented by portable
8 monitors representing local- and state-assets. The purpose of this monitoring
9 is to characterize, on an on-going basis, the ambient radiation environment in
10 space and time. For this purpose, air monitoring needs to be supplemented
11 with other existing monitoring Networks, including water and milk
12 monitoring/sampling. The interplay with deployable monitors will depend on
13 the ability of the fixed network to fulfill coverage requirements on the
14 National scale. Deployables could be used to supplement that coverage; and
15
- 16 b) ‘Emergency’ monitoring requires data inputs at all 3 scales. Interstate- and
17 Regional-scale data are used to track transport of major releases, typically
18 from nuclear power plant accidents, the detonation(s) of improvised nuclear
19 device(s) (rather than from an RDD). Local-scale data are most relevant for
20 smaller RDD events, and help determine evacuation vs. shelter-in-place
21 decisions. However, in addition, EPA should also address the pros and cons
22 of ‘routinely’ pre-deploying the monitors to places where “intel” suggests that
23 they may be needed (e.g., Times Square NYC during New Year’s eve, Super
24 Bowl game, World Series, Olympics, Mardi Gras, etc.) For such decision-
25 making, real-time data are critical and deployables must be well integrated
26 with fixed Networks in terms of data integration and immediate availability to
27 the key decision making agencies FRMAC and the end user IMAAC that
28 generates the plume projections. For small events the best interplay between
29 monitor types would factor in all of the monitors in the Nation in spite of data
30 quality variability, for state, local, utility, DOE and others.

1 **6. OVERALL PROPOSALS FOR DATA MANAGEMENT**
2
3

4 **Charge Question 3:** *Given that the system will be producing near real-time data, are the*
5 *overall proposals for data management appropriate to the system’s objectives?*
6

7 3a) *Is the approach and frequency of data collection for the near real-time data*
8 *reasonable for routine and emergency conditions?*

9 3b) *Do the modes of data transmission from the field to the central data base*
10 *include effective and necessary options?*
11

12 **6.1 Overview response to Charge Question #3**

13 This charge question deals primarily with the tiered communication approach
14 available for the field stations to transmit the data to NAREL where the central base is
15 maintained. The tiered approach involves four automated methods of data transmission of

- 16 • Telephone hardware modem;
17 • Cellular phone modem;
18 • Ethernet ; and
19 • LandSat Satellite transceiver.

20 The system will automatically switch to alternate communications methods if a
21 particular resource is not available and the order of preference is programmable. In
22 addition there are other methods for manually downloading the data at the field stations.
23 These methods of data transmission from the field appear to offer a reasonable and
24 effective set of options for collection of data from the field. The degree of redundancy
25 also appears to be necessary because of the uncertainties about how various methods of
26 data transmission and communication may be crippled during an emergency.
27

28 Emergencies may cause various communication systems to fail due to use beyond
29 the capacity of a system or actual physical damage to a system. This particular mix of
30 communication methods provides alternatives that utilize independent systems.
31 The particular mix of communication methods will require an ongoing evaluation of their
32 effectiveness in two ways. First is the obvious need to evaluate new technologies and to
33 consider whether they offer preferable alternatives in cost or reliability compared to the
34 existing communication methods. The second aspect is to review the continuing viability
35 of the existing methods.
36

37 Even though a communication technology may not change in terms of its
38 technical specifications, other factors may have a detrimental or beneficial effect on the
39 existing technology. An example would be when a form of communication becomes
40 more popular can the existing infrastructure deal with the volume of use during an

1 emergency? Also there should be an ongoing evaluation of the degree of independence of
2 the alternative communications methods—are infrastructure changes causing two
3 previously independent communication methods become dependent on the same
4 resources.

5
6 The present plan provides multiple modes of transmission as the solution to the
7 problem of failure of one or more communications links. There is the need to consider
8 how decisions should be made with incomplete transmission of the data because of
9 partial failure of all of the communication methods. If you could only receive partial
10 information from the field stations how would you prioritize the data available to you?
11 Should you change your decision rules when you have incomplete data or information
12 with larger variability than you anticipated?

13
14 The charge question dealt with the transmission of data from the field to the
15 central data base at NAREL. The evaluation and interpretation of RADNET data also
16 involves other communication links that are critical to the process of providing high-
17 quality information to decision makers and other stakeholders. The vulnerability of these
18 communication links should also be considered in any evaluation of the RADNET
19 system. In order for RADNET data to be effectively interpreted it requires modeling at a
20 center remote from NAREL—what alternative communication methods are available to
21 link to this center? Similar concerns arise over communication of results to decision
22 makers since for many scenarios the decision makers are likely to be located at the site of
23 the emergency where communication methods may not be working. FRMAC and
24 coordinating agencies also need to have alternative communication methods. Also if we
25 consider the field stations, NAREL, modeling center, FRMAC, agencies, and decision
26 makers as a communications system to provide information to the public in an emergency
27 then there is a need to consider not only the communication links between the parts of the
28 system but also the need for alternative sites such as the modeling center to preserve the
29 communication system to the public.

30
31 Evaluation of some of the questions proposed here probably require more
32 resources than are available to RADNET and go beyond decisions that can be made by
33 NAREL. These will require coordination with FRMAC and other agencies. For this type
34 of review to meet the needs of RADNET the specifications for the communication needs
35 of RADNET that may be different or unique to RADNET should be made a formal part
36 of the review process.

37
38
39 **Draft from Brian Dodd:**

40
41 Generally, the modes appear to be satisfactory. There are a variety of backup
42 systems for communicating data including modem backup to the satellite telemetry. The
43 panel liked the idea of using the PDA for getting information from the data-logger. All
44 of the systems appear to be based on existing technology and the panel felt that the EPA
45 should keep abreast of future improvements as the systems are deployed and employ
46 them as needed. Some panelists felt that it was premature to conclude that the data

1 systems were appropriate because it seems that the system had only been tested for a few
2 days. Modifications to the system and its options will probably become clear once there
3 has been much more testing of multiple data streams over longer periods.

4
5 The panel expressed some concern with regard to the operators being a weak link
6 in some aspects of the transmission of data. While understanding the plan to use non-
7 radiological personnel for such tasks, it is believed that there are sufficient trained
8 radiation safety personnel available to be able to use some of them for this role. For
9 example, there could be many volunteers from the Health Physics Society who are
10 unlikely to have a formal role in an emergency that would be willing to help. In addition,
11 radiation safety staff from other, unaffected States may be called upon through mutual aid
12 agreements. This becomes important if the role of the deployable monitors is revised in
13 line with other panel recommendations. If the deployables are used in areas where there
14 are measurable radiation or contamination levels non-radiological personnel may not
15 respond appropriately.

16
17 The panel believes that the revised mission of deployable monitors has a number
18 of other impacts. It makes it important to have a direct read-out of radiation levels on the
19 monitor itself. It is felt that being able to download a local dose rate to a PDA and then
20 read it would not be satisfactory. Similarly, there is likely to be more need for electrical
21 generators than has been planned for up to this point as well as a greater need for security
22 of the deployables once positioned.

23
24 The panel felt that only having one person from each lab responsible for 20
25 systems was too few. A span of control of about 5 teams to one lab expert would be
26 much better.

27
28 Support is needed for deployable exercises so that there can be an evaluation of
29 the SOPs for: set-up; criteria for siting; evaluation of data transmission; data QA; data
30 presentation; use of data by incident management; as well as message evaluation on data
31 interpretation.

32 33 34 **6.4 Response to Charge Question #3c**

35
36 *Are the review and evaluation of data efficient and effective considering the decision-*
37 *making and public information needs during an emergency?*

38 39 40 **6.4.1 Review and evaluation of data**

41
42 The discussions presented to the Radiation Advisory Committee (RAC) about
43 methods to provide Quality Assurance/Quality Control (QA/QC) of the data showed that
44 the plans for ensuring the quality of the data were adequate. In addition, the automatic
45 and computerized methods currently in place to determine if the equipment is working
46 properly and that data are accurate were well thought out.

1
2 The Committee notes that standard operating procedures (SOP) should be in place
3 and accompany all the QA/QC plans to insure that the data handling is reproducibly done
4 prior to any release and that information from the system is accurate and reliable. The
5 QA/QC system should be tested over an extended period of time with “dry runs” to
6 determine if the methods can insure that the equipment is operating properly at both the
7 fixed and deployable stations.

8
9 In the rare case when one of the fixed stations has a reading that is outside the
10 predetermined range of acceptability, everything possible must be done to expedite the
11 QA/QC process to validate the readings. Even in an emergency, it is essential that the
12 proper QA and QC be done on the data before it is released; the time table for releasing
13 the data should not be compressed in any way that may jeopardize data quality.

14
15 The air monitoring and data management/transmission system have only recently
16 been delivered to NAREL and have not been completely tested. The discussion of data in
17 the Concept and Plan document is brief and provides only a conceptual plan for data
18 management. The review panel did not see complete raw data sets or data in the form that
19 it will be provided to users, including the public. The NAREL proposal for data
20 management appears to be adequate, but it cannot be conclusively stated that it is
21 appropriate to the system’s objectives until the data management procedures are
22 developed and tested.

23 24 25 **6.4.2 Communication to decision makers and the public**

26
27 The presentation of data in a manner that accurately conveys technical
28 information must vary for different events and for users with varying needs and levels of
29 technical expertise. The method of presenting the data to decision-makers does not need
30 to be the same as the methods used to present the data to the public.

31
32 Routine data from the fixed monitors can be supplied in raw form to either of the
33 groups and needs to be made available in an easy to access form as soon as the data has
34 had proper QA/QC evaluation, as has been done in the past. The handling and release of
35 the data in emergencies has different requirements which need to be carefully
36 considered.

37 38 39 **6.4.3 Communication with decision makers**

40
41 In an emergency, the EPA’s responsibility is to get accurate and reliable data to
42 National Atmospheric Release Advisory Center (NARAC) Interagency Modeling and
43 Atmospheric Assessment Center (IMAAC) at Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory
44 as soon as possible so that models can be adequately developed to help understand the
45 dose, distribution and direction of the plume. As soon as the data has been conveyed to
46 IMAAC and properly evaluated, IMAAC needs to convey the models along with all other

1 information on the event to Federal Radiological Monitoring and Assessment Center
2 (FRMAC).
3

4 Immediately following the recognition of a radiation incident, local Incident
5 Command center will be established to direct local responders in their rescue and
6 treatment of people who are directly affected and to protect the public who are not
7 affected. Incident Command will make decisions on the basis of the information at hand.
8 These decisions must be informed by data that describe the nature and significance of any
9 potential radiation exposure. Very early qualitative data will be collected locally and
10 provide information for early decisions but historical and quantitative data collected by
11 EPA, including RadNet data, should be forwarded through channels as soon as possible.
12 Because data need to be reviewed to assure quality, there will be some delay. Everything
13 possible should be done during emergencies to minimize the time necessary to review the
14 data and forward it on to inform local Incident Command as soon as possible.
15

16 17 **6.4.4 Communication with the public** 18 .

19 In the event of an emergency, FRMAC, rather than EPA, has the initial
20 responsibility for releasing information to the public. It is important that the flow of data
21 from the event to the public be restricted to this line of communication (EPA to IMAAC
22 to FRMAC), so that the messages the public receives are consistent, accurate and useful
23 as possible. For example it is important that there is not one message reporting activity
24 in dpm and another suggesting some type of radiation dose. After communication from
25 FRMAC has occurred, EPA should then make every effort to rapidly supply the validated
26 raw data in a form that is easy for the public to understand.
27

28 29 **6.4.5 Units for communication** 30 .

31 During all the processing of the data and in the preparation of documentation,
32 such as the *“Expansion and Upgrade of the RadNet Air Monitoring Network,” Vol 1 and*
33 *2, Concept and Plan,”* care needs to be taken to use proper international units to express
34 activity, radiation exposure, dose and risk. This was not the case in the document. This
35 may be related to the fact that international units were adopted and came into wide spread
36 use after much of the monitoring data were derived by the systems that have been
37 replaced by RadNet. From this time forward, all data should be re-evaluated using the
38 proper S.I. units with the older units put in parenthesis, i.e. Bq (pCi) or rem (Sv) etc.
39 Such consistency is the first step in helping the decision makers and public understand
40 the meaning of the data.
41

42 43 **6.4.6 Communicating risk** 44 .

45 Great care needs to be taken in converting raw data from counts per minute, to
46 exposure, dose and risk. Raw counting data is very site, detector, nuclide, isotope,

1 particle size, chemical form and population specific. Thus, without much additional
2 information and analysis, the raw data (counts per minute) cannot be used to make even
3 the crudest estimates of risk. In conveying the raw data to the public, it is important that
4 the message does not convey an improper perception of the risk from any event. For
5 example Figure B.1 page B-2 in the report records the level of activity as Monthly
6 Maximum Gross Beta Concentration (pCi/m³) over a 13 year time period. It shows that
7 the activity during this time varies by more than 100,000 times. Conveying such raw
8 data to the public would suggest that the risk had changed by a very large amount.
9 Historical data suggest that these large changes in activity in the air resulted in minimal
10 non-detectable changes in background cancer frequency in the U.S. This is of course
11 related to the high background frequency of cancer in the population and the low risk
12 from radiation related cancer.

13 14 15 **6.4.7 Other factors that complicate accurate communication**

16
17 The difficulty in communicating raw data from RadNet is further complicated by
18 the wide range of background radiation and radioactive materials in the environment.
19 Information on background radiation and its variability also needs to be communicated to
20 the public relative to the changes measured by RadNet. It would be important for
21 information on the range of background radiation to be quantified and made available
22 with any report to the public.

23
24 The current public fear of radiation and the perception that an increase in
25 radiation induced cancer frequency will result following any level of exposure adds
26 another difficulty in communication with the public. The differences between
27 “calculated risk” and “measured increases in cancer frequency” following low dose
28 radiation exposures of large populations needs to be further established and discussed in a
29 framework that the public can understand. The small magnitude of the radiation-related
30 cancer risk compared to the background cancer risk without radiation exposure needs to
31 be properly communicated in any releases to the public. Care should be taken to avoid
32 calculation of the number of excess cancers in large populations exposed to very low
33 doses of radiation. This is a calculation that should not be done by EPA or from data
34 derived from RadNet.

35 36 37 **6.4.8 Preparing for communication in an emergency**

38
39 The Panel recommends that when RadNet participants in exercises on mock
40 releases they also make efforts to design public release statements associated with the
41 “data” derived from the models and activities generated during these exercises. These
42 statements can be prepared ahead of time and need to be related to exposure, activity,
43 dose and risk. Such statements must be carefully reviewed by social scientists and
44 communications experts to be sure that the messages are understandable and accurate.
45 The messages derived from the mock release exercises also need to be discussed with
46 decision makers associated with the area where the exercise is conducted. These decision

1 makers should include individuals like the Governors, City Managers, Mayor, Media
2 managers, Chief of Police and Fire Chief. The decision makers should be asked to
3 respond to the information provided and let EPA, IMAAC, and FERMAC know what
4 information that they need to make decisions and how the data and messages supplied
5 would influence the decisions that they must make in the time of a real event or
6 emergency. Studies of this type will help to develop useful, understandable and accurate
7 messages that can be used to convey the data derived from RadNet following an event
8 involving radiation dispersal devices or improvised nuclear weapons. It will be
9 especially important to have these messages developed well ahead of time and defined
10 for rapid use in the case of a real event. Such messages will need to be modified to be
11 specific for each real event. They must provide a foundation that will help the public
12 understand if they were exposed, the levels of the exposure, the radiation doses
13 associated with the exposure and the level of damage or risk associated with the
14 exposure. This will provide a rational basis for any action or sacrifice that the public are
15 asked to make by the decision makers.

16
17 **Richard Jaquish--My comment on question 3c is the following:**

18
19 The air monitoring and data management/transmission system have only recently
20 been delivered to NAREL and has not been completely tested. The discussion of data in
21 the Concept and Plan document is brief and provides only a conceptual plan for data
22 management. The review panel did not see complete raw data sets or data in the form that
23 it will be provided to users, including the public. The NAREL proposal for data
24 management appears to be adequate, but it cannot be conclusively stated that it is
25 appropriate to the system's objectives until the data management procedures are
26 developed and tested.

27
28
29 **6.5 Response to Charge Question #3d**

30
31 *Given the selected measurements systems, are the quality assurance and control*
32 *procedures appropriate for near real-time data?*

33
34
35 **SANDQUIST RESPONSE:**

36
37 It is EPA policy that all EPA environmental programs observe 48 CFR 46 and
38 comply fully with the American National Standard ANSI/ASQC E4-1994 for the agency-
39 wide Quality System. 48 CFR 46 and ANSI/ASQC E4-1994 provide the regulatory and
40 operational basis for QA/QC procedures and appear appropriate and adequate for the
41 RadNet Air Monitoring Network. However, given the extensive array of requirements
42 and activities provided in these regulations and standards, important issues regarding the
43 RadNet Air Monitoring Network include the following:

- 1 • The specific EPA QA System established to assure that environmental data from
2 the RadNet Air Monitoring Network used to support federal, state, and local
3 decisions are of adequate quality and usability for their intended purposes;
- 4 • Are all organizations and individuals under direct contract to EPA for RadNet Air
5 Monitoring related activities providing their services, products, deliverable items,
6 personnel training, and work in full conformance with 48 CFR 46 and
7 ANSI/ASQC E4-1994?;
- 8 • Has EPA audited and documented that the required quality and performance of
9 these services, products, deliverable items, personnel training, personnel training,
10 and work is adequate and demonstrated for other interested parties?;
- 11 • Annual assessments (as documents available to appropriate agencies) of the
12 effectiveness of each quality system component associated with the RadNet Air
13 Monitoring Network are required to demonstrate conformance to the minimum
14 specifications of ANSI/ASQC E4-1994; and
- 15 • Because the integrity and accuracy of the data measured, gathered, processed and
16 disseminated is essential to the successful mission of the RadNet Air Monitoring
17 Network, a controlled testing and periodic assessment of the overall performance
18 of the system is essential for national security and confidence in the network.

REFERENCES

[NOTE: To be provided by RAC’s RadNet Review Panel. DFO has provided references to ERAMS I, ERAMS II, etc. below, and will provide others, including relevant ER notices if needed. - - - KJK]

U.S. EPA ORIA. 2005. *Expansion and Upgrade of the RadNet Air Monitoring Network, Vol. 1 & 2, Concept and Plan*, Prepared for the Radiation Advisory Committee RadNet Review Panel, Science Advisory Board, U.S. EPA, Prepared by the Office of Radiation and Indoor Air, U.S. EPA

U.S. EPA SAB. 1996. “*Radiation Advisory Committee (RAC) Advisory on Environmental Radiation Ambient Monitoring System (ERAMS)*,” EPA-SAB-RAC-ADV-96-003, April 5, 1996

U.S. EPA SAB. 1998. “*An SAB Advisory: Environmental Radiation Ambient Monitoring System (ERAMS) II, An Advisory by the Radiation Advisory Committee (RAC)*,” EPA-SAB-RAC-ADV-98-001, August 28, 1998

APPENDIX A – Description of the SAB Process

[NOTE: Will be further edited as appropriate and provided here or in introduction. - - - KJK]

A-1 Request for EPA Science Advisory Board (SAB) Review

The EPA Office of Radiation and Indoor Air (ORIA) requested the SAB to provide advice on the National Monitoring System (NMS) upgrade, formerly known as the Environmental Radiation Ambient Monitoring System (ERAMS). The Radiation Advisory Committee (RAC) held a public conference call meeting on February 28, 2005 to receive briefings from ORIA about this request, to receive public comments and to discuss its plan for the coming year (see *FR*, Vol. 70, No. 19, January 31, 2005, pp. 4847-4848).

A-2 Panel Formation

The Panel (Radiation Advisory Committee’s (RAC) RadNet Review Panel) was formed in accordance with the principles set out in the 2002 commentary of the SAB, *Panel Formation Process: Immediate Steps to Improve Policies and Procedures: An SAB Commentary* (U.S. EPA SAB. 2002). A notice offering the public the opportunity to nominate qualified individuals for service on the Panel was published, where the SAB Staff Office requested nominations of experts to augment expertise to the SAB’s Radiation Advisory Committee (RAC) for SAB review of RadNet’s air radiation network, a nationwide system to track environmental radiation (see *FR*, Vol. 70, No. 56, March 24, 2005, pp. 15083-15084). The SAB Staff Office sought individuals who have radiation expertise and knowledge of ERAMS in the following areas:

- 1) Instrumentation (especially air monitors and detection equipment involving fixed and deployable monitors, sodium iodide crystals, and gamma exposure instruments);
- 2) Statistics (especially involving data interpretation, identification of abnormalities during normal operations, monitor siting plans, baseline data and data trends analysis, data coverage issues, and data interpretation);
- 3) Modeling (especially involving validating and refining source terms, dispersion modeling, meteorological assumptions and estimates);
- 4) Risk assessment (with particular experience and expertise in population dose reconstruction, health data interpretation, and health effects); and
- 5) Risk communication.

The SAB Staff Office Director, in consultation with SAB Staff, including the Designated Federal Officer (DFO), the SAB Ethics Advisor, and the Chair of the SAB’s Chartered Board, selected the final Panel. Selection criteria included: excellent qualifications in terms of scientific and technical expertise; the need to maintain a balance with respect to qualifying expertise, background and perspectives, willingness to

1 serve and availability to meet during the proposed time periods, and the candidate’s prior
2 involvement with the topic under consideration. The final Panel includes persons with
3 expertise advertised in the ***Federal Register*** as outlined above. The Panel members, in
4 addition to having new persons to serve, also include individuals who are experienced
5 SAB consultants familiar with the Agency. The final panel determination memo was
6 signed on November 22, 2005 and posted prior to the December 1, 2005 conference call
7 meeting of the Panel.
8
9

10 **A-3 Panel Review Process and Review Documents**

11
12 The RAC’s RadNet Review Panel first met via conference call on December 1,
13 2005 to be briefed by the Agency staff on the draft document to be reviewed, to clarify
14 the charge to the Panel, and to assign specific charge questions to the individual Panelists
15 in preparation for the face-to-face meeting. The actual face-to-face meeting of the RAC’s
16 RadNet Review Panel to conduct a peer review of the Agency’s draft document entitled
17 “*Expansion and Upgrade of the RadNet Air Monitoring Network, Vols. 1 & 2 Concept*
18 *and Plan,*” dated October, 2005 was held on December 19 and 20, 2005 in the Agency’s
19 NAREL in Montgomery, AL where many of the Agency ORIA Staff implementing and
20 managing RadNet are housed (see ***FR***, Vol. 70, No. 220, November 16, 2005, pp. 69550-
21 69551).
22

23 The RAC’s RadNet Review Panel scheduled three (3) additional public
24 conference calls to reach closure on their draft report in critique of the Agency’s RadNet
25 draft document dated October, 2005. The meetings that are scheduled include March 20,
26 2006, April 10, 2006, and June 12, 2006. (see ***FR***, Vol. 71, No. 40, March 1, 2006, pp.
27 10501-10502).
28

29
30 (KJK will briefly summarize the public conference call meetings as they occur, as well
31 as a briefly summarize the Chartered Board’s Quality Review process when that is
32 complete. - - - KJK).
33
34

1 sources and internally deposited radioactive materials. He has used both molecular, cell
2 and whole animal research to help define these effects. His current research is focused at
3 developing a scientific basis for radiation risk estimates following low-dose radiation
4 exposure. He has done extensive work to define energy barriers for radiation-induced
5 cellular effects, has characterized cell and molecular responses that result in bystander
6 effects, adaptive responses and genomic instability. His current focus is to understand
7 how these new observations result in paradigm shifts that may impact the shape of
8 radiation dose-response relationships in the low dose region. A major current focus is
9 developing better tools to communicate the results of radiation science including a web
10 site, <http://lowdose.tricity.wsu.edu>. Dr. Brooks has served as a member of the NAS
11 BEIR VI Committee on Health Effects of Exposure to Radon. He is a member of the
12 National Council on Radiation Protection and measurements (NCRP) and is on the Board
13 of Directors of the NCRP. He is currently serving on the EPA Science Advisory Board
14 (SAB) as a member of the Radiation Advisory Committee (RAC). He is a member of the
15 Editorial Board of the International Journal of Radiation Biology and the International
16 Journal of Low Radiation.

17
18
19 **Dr. Gilles Y. Bussod, dipl H. Sci., Ph.D.**
20

21 Dr. Gilles Y. Bussod is Chief Scientist with New England Research, Inc. in White River
22 Junction, VT, and an Adjunct Professor in Earth Sciences at The University of Vermont
23 in Burlington, VT. He also holds an appointment as Professor Candidat aux Universités
24 de France, a Doctorate in Geophysics from the Université de Paris VII, France, and a
25 PhD in Geology from the University of California, Los Angeles. He has recently served
26 on the Faculty of Science at the International Research Center of the Catholic University
27 of Leuven, Campus Kortrijk in Belgium and was employed as President of Science
28 Network International, Inc., in Santa Fe, NM. Previously he was a staff Hydrogeologist
29 and Geochemist at Los Alamos National Laboratory, Los Alamos, NM, and a Science
30 Fellow at both the Bayerisches Geoinstitut in Bayreuth, Germany, and the Lunar and
31 Planetary Institute, Houston, TX. He also served as a National Laboratory
32 Representative to the Middle East, and a Delegation Member to the U.S. Secretary of
33 State Madeleine Albright, at the Economic Summit Conference in Doha, Qatar. As the
34 Los Alamos National Laboratory Project Leader and technical manager for the Yucca
35 Mountain Project, he received several Achievement Awards and Patents. Dr. Bussod's
36 research is centered on Environmental Restoration of contaminated DoD and DOE sites,
37 specializing in the design and implementation of integrated laboratory and field studies
38 on radionuclide transport, the remobilization of "legacy waste" in the environment, and
39 the effect of subsurface heterogeneities on modeling transport phenomena and upscaling.
40 He was PI for the Underground Unsaturated Zone Transport Test, Busted Butte, NV, and
41 The Cerro Grande Subsurface Remediation Project, Los Alamos, NM. He holds
42 authorship or co-authorship in over 60 publications involving geochemical flow and
43 transport and related phenomena, as well and over 30 invited oral
44 presentations dealing with unsaturated zone modeling, high pressure and high
45 temperature research in experimental rock physics and petrology, novel drilling methods,

1 rock melting drilling systems, deformation mechanisms, energy extraction techniques,
2 high pressure experimental seismic velocity measurements and related topics.

3
4
5 **Dr. Brian Dodd:**

6
7 Dr. Brian Dodd is originally from the U.K. where he worked at Imperial College and the
8 Royal Naval College in Greenwich. He and his family moved to the USA in 1978, taking
9 up citizenship in 1993. Until February 2004, Dr. Dodd was Head of the International
10 Atomic Energy Agency’s Radiation Source Safety and Security Unit, managing the
11 IAEA’s efforts in dealing with orphan sources and the potential use of radioactive
12 sources for radiological terrorism. He is currently ‘retired’ from the managerial burdens
13 of work, but is still pursuing the technical aspects as BDConsulting in Las Vegas. Prior
14 to joining the IAEA he was at Oregon State University for 20 years, most recently as the
15 Director of its Radiation Center as well as a Professor of Health Physics and Nuclear
16 Engineering. Dr. Dodd has been involved with the Health Physics Society for many
17 years, including terms of office on the Board of Directors and as treasurer. He is
18 currently (2005-6) the President-Elect of the HPS as well as Treasurer of the International
19 Radiation Protection Association. His fields of expertise include safety and security of
20 radioactive sources, transportation of radioactive material, emergency response, training
21 and research reactors. Brian Dodd has authored or co-authored a number of IAEA/UN
22 publications on security of radioactive sources, safe transport of radioactive materials,
23 management of radiation protection, quality aspects of research reactor operations and
24 related topics. He has authored or co-authored over 100 publications in technical
25 journals, conference proceedings, reports and others dealing broadly with the above
26 topics. Dr. Dodd has a B.S. in Nuclear Engineering and Ph.D. in Reactor Physics from
27 Queen Mary College, London University.

28
29
30 **Dr. Shirley A. Fry, M.B., B. Ch., MPH:**

31
32 Dr. Shirley A. Fry is a self-employed consultant in radiation health effects. She holds a
33 medical degree from the University of Dublin, Trinity College, Ireland, and a master's
34 degree in epidemiology in the School of Public Health, University of North Carolina,
35 Chapel Hill. She was on the staff of the Medical Sciences Division (MSD) of Oak Ridge
36 Associated Universities (ORAU) from 1978 until her retirement in 1995. At ORAU she
37 was member of MSD’s Radiation Emergency Assistance Center/Training Site’s
38 (REAC/TS) clinical staff, teaching faculty and response team (1978-1995); director of its
39 Center for Epidemiologic Research (1984-1991) and its assistant director (1991-1995).
40 Subsequently she was a member of the Scientific Advisory Council and later the
41 scientific director of the International Consortium for Radiation Health Effects Research,
42 a Washington, DC.-based consortium of research groups at academic institutions in the
43 US, Belarus, Russian Federation and Ukraine established to conduct collaborative
44 epidemiological studies among groups potentially exposed to radiation as the result of the
45 1986 Chernobyl reactor accident. She continued a part-time association with ORAU until
46 November 2005. Her areas of scientific interest are in the acute and chronic health

1 effects of radiation, specifically in the long term follow-up of individuals and populations
2 previously accidentally exposed or at risk of occupational exposure to radiation,
3 including workers employed by US Department of Energy, its predecessor agencies and
4 their contractors, and in the US radium dial painting industry. Dr. Fry is the author or co-
5 author of a number of publications on topics relating to these groups. She has served on
6 national and international committees concerned with radiation health effects, including
7 the Institute of Medicine’ Medical Follow-up Agency (IOM/MFUA’s) Committee on
8 Battlefield Exposure Criteria and the National Academies of Sciences/ National
9 Research Council ‘s Board of Radiation Effects Research (NAS/NRC’s BEAR)
10 Committee on the Assessment of the Scientific Information for the Radiation
11 Exposure, Screening and Education Program, the Health Studies Group of the US/USSR
12 Joint Commission on Chernobyl Nuclear Reactor Safety and the International Agency for
13 Research on Cancer's International Study Group on Cancer Risk Among Nuclear
14 Workers.

15
16
17 **Dr. William C. Griffith:**
18

19 Dr. William C. Griffith was trained as a biostatistician and has collaborated for over three
20 decades in studies of the dosimetry and health effects of radiation and other toxicants.
21 His work has included design, data collection and analysis of laboratory and field based
22 studies. In particular he has extensive experience in estimation of doses from internally
23 deposited radionuclides and estimation of dose response in terms of age specific
24 incidence rates and prevalence. He has also been active in translating his experience into
25 models that are useful for health protection through is participation in committees of the
26 National Council for Radiation Protection. More recently he has analyzed how these
27 models are applied in environmental cleanup of the Department of Energy’s Hanford site,
28 and he has worked extensively with committees of the Hanford Advisory Board. Most
29 recently he has been funded as part of the Department of Energy’s Low Dose Radiation
30 Program to translate laboratory results into mathematical models that will be useful for
31 future regulation of radiation. Dr. Griffith also has experience in the study of non-
32 radioactive toxicants. He was part of the team at the Lovelace Inhalation Toxicology
33 Research Institute that was the first to prove that diesel exhausts are pulmonary
34 carcinogens in laboratory animals. For the last five years at the University of
35 Washington he has been Director of the Risk Characterization Core for the Child Health
36 Center funded by the Environmental Protection Agency and the National Institute of
37 Environmental Health Science. As director he has designed and developed statistical
38 methods for analysis of a community based randomized intervention to test the
39 effectiveness of educating farm workers about how they can decrease the accidental
40 exposures of their children from pesticides they bring home on their clothes. Dr. Griffith
41 has also collaborated with EPA Region 10 by lecturing frequently on how to apply
42 statistical methods to superfund cleanup decisions. This year he organized 8 workshops
43 on the application of new genomic and proteonomic methods in collaboration with EPA-
44 ORD for EPA regions, state and tribal environmental offices.

1 **Dr. Helen Ann Grogan:**
2

3 Dr. Helen Ann Grogan is a member of the SAB’s Radiation Advisory Committee. She is
4 employed as an independent consultant who has her own consulting firm, Cascade
5 Scientific, which has been subcontracted by Risk Assessments Corporation (RAC) to
6 work on a variety of projects, including an independent assessment of the risks to the
7 public from the 2002 Cerro Grande Fire for the New Mexico Environment Department,
8 development of a risk-based screening for historical radionuclide releases to the
9 Columbia River from the Hanford Nuclear Facility in Washington under contract to the
10 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), and two dose reconstruction projects
11 (Rocky Flats near Denver, CO and Savannah River in So. Carolina). Her work for the
12 Rocky Flats site emphasized quantifying cancer risk and its uncertainty following
13 exposure to plutonium from inhalation and ingestion. Dr. Grogan is currently working
14 with other RAC contractors on the RACER project to develop a process and tool that can
15 be used to guide the efforts to reduce public health risk and ecological impact from
16 radionuclides and chemicals originating at the Los Alamos National Laboratory. DR.
17 Grogan has assisted in the development of an International Features Events and
18 Processes (FEP) database for the Nuclear Energy Agency (NEA) Organization for
19 Economic Cooperation and Development(OECD) in France to be used in the
20 performance assessment of radioactive waste disposal systems. In addition, she was also
21 involved with the Swiss National Cooperative for the Disposal of Radioactive Waste
22 (Nagra), specifically in modeling the biosphere for repository performance assessment,
23 and in development of scenario analyses for the Nagra Kristallin I and Wellenberg
24 projects and development of supporting data bases that identify important phenomena
25 (FEPs -features, events and processes) that need to be accounted for in repository
26 performance assessment. She was actively involved in the Biospheric Model Valuation
27 Study - Phase I and II BIOMOVs study (Biospheric Model Validation Study), which is
28 an international cooperative effort to test models designed to quantify the transfer and
29 accumulation of radionuclides and other trace substances in the environment. Dr.
30 Grogan’s doctoral thesis title is “Pathways of radionuclides from soils into crops under
31 British field conditions.” She has authored or co-authored several dozen publications,
32 and technical reports dealing with the role of microbiology modeling the geological
33 containment of radioactive wastes, plant uptake of radionuclides, laboratory modeling
34 studies of microbial activity, models for prediction of doses from the ingestion of
35 terrestrial foods (with a focus on radionuclides), long-term radioactive waste disposal
36 assessment, modeling of radionuclides in the biosphere, quantitative modeling of the
37 effects of microorganisms on radionuclide transport from a High Level Waste repository
38 and related topics. She received her Bachelor of Science Degree in Botany with honors
39 from the Imperial College of Science and Technology at the University of London, and
40 her Ph.D. from that same university.

41
42
43 **Dr. Richard W. Hornung :**
44

45 Dr. Richard W. Hornung is a member of the Radiation Advisory Committee (RAC) since
46 FY 2001. He recently (2005) became Director of Biostatistics and Data Management of

1 Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center, Division of General and Community
2 Pediatrics. He headed the Statistical Working Group of the RAC's Multi-Agency
3 Radiological Laboratory Analytical Protocols (MARLAP) Review Panel. He served as a
4 consultant to the RAC (March, 1999), and participated in the SAB's advisory on Radon
5 Risk. He was Senior Research Associate and Director of the Division of Biostatistical
6 Research and Support in the Institute for Health Policy and Health Services Research at
7 the University of Cincinnati Medical Center in Cincinnati, Ohio. He has served since
8 1996 as a member of the White House Committee on Revisions to the Radiation
9 Exposure Compensation Act. Since 1990, he has served as an advisor on the National
10 Research Council. He received numerous awards, including the U.S. Public Health
11 Service award for "Sustained High Level Performance in the Field of Biostatistics." He
12 was a consultant to the National Academy of Science Committee on the Biological
13 Effects of Ionizing Radiation (BEIR IV). He is a reviewer for a dozen scientific journals.
14 His peer-reviewed publications deal with exposure assessment methods, lung cancer risk
15 in Uranium miners, dose assessments, dose reconstruction, development of models for
16 use in estimating exposures to a number of pollutants, including diesel exhaust, benzene,
17 ethylene oxide, lung cancer in shipyard workers and other related topics. In the area of
18 radiation research, he is currently funded under contract to the University of Kentucky to
19 serve as the scientific director of an occupational epi study of workers at the Paducah
20 Gaseous Diffusion Plant. He is also funded by NIOSH as the biostatistician on a study of
21 radiation related cancers among residents living near the Fernald plant in Southwestern
22 Ohio. Dr. Horning has a B.S. in Mathematics from the University of Dayton, an M.S. in
23 Statistics from the University of Kentucky, and a Ph.D. in Biostatistics from the
24 University of North Carolina.

25
26
27 **Mr. Richard Jaquish:**
28

29 Mr. Richard Jaquish has over 40 years experience in environmental radiation
30 surveillance. He was the Director of the Technical Support Laboratory of the EPA
31 National Environmental Research Center in Las Vegas which provided laboratory
32 services for the analysis of samples from underground nuclear testing and plowshare
33 programs. Analytical procedures were developed for unique radionuclides and media
34 resulting from nuclear tests. In 1980 he became a senior research engineer with Battelle
35 Memorial Institute in Richland, WA where he was manager of the environmental
36 radiation program for the Hanford site. He was later the manager of the Office of
37 Hanford Environmental that managed the programs in environmental surveillance,
38 groundwater monitoring, meteorology, and wildlife resources. In 1995 he took a position
39 with the Washington Department of Health as an advisor in environmental radiation and
40 Hanford cleanup activities.

41
42 Hands on monitoring experience in unique environments included six months of
43 monitoring radioactivity in Antarctica, monitoring fallout in Eskimos in Alaska, and
44 regularly serving on a flight crew for aerial monitoring of radioactive plumes on and
45 around the Nevada Test Site. He was a regular member of emergency response teams at

1 Battelle and the State of Washington and responded to several unusual occurrences
2 including the 2000 Hanford fire.

3
4 Mr. Jaquish served two terms on the American Public Health Committee on Laboratory
5 Standards and Practices. He was a member of the National Council on Radiation
6 Protection and Measurements (NCRP) Committee 64 (1994-2000) on Environmental
7 Radiation and Waste Issues and is currently a member of NCRP Committee 64-22 that is
8 preparing a guide on “Design of Effective Effluent Monitoring and Environmental
9 Surveillance Programs.” Mr. Jaquish has a B.S. degree in Civil Engineering from
10 Washington State University and an M.S. in Engineering and Applied Physics from
11 Harvard University. He has over 20 publications in environmental radioactivity.

12
13
14 **Dr. Janet A. Johnson:**

15
16 Dr. Janet A. Johnson is currently employed by MFG, Inc. in Fort Collins, CO as a Senior
17 Radiation Scientist with expertise in health physics, radiation risk assessment, and
18 environmental health. MFG, Inc., a Tetratech Company, provides environmental
19 engineering consulting services to industry including the mining sector. She holds a BS
20 in Chemistry from the University of Massachusetts, an MS in Radiological Physics from
21 the University of Rochester School of Medicine and Dentistry, and a PhD degree in
22 Microbiology (Environmental health) from Colorado State University. Dr. Johnson was
23 formally employed by Colorado State University as Interim Director of Environmental
24 Health Services in Fort Collins, Colorado. She is a certified industrial hygienist (CIH,
25 radiological aspects) and is also certified in the comprehensive practice of health physics
26 by the American Board of Health Physics. She is an active member of a number of
27 radiation and health-oriented professional organizations, and is a Fellow of the Health
28 Physics Society (HPS), as well as a former member of the Board of Directors of the HPS.
29 She has served on the Colorado Radiation Advisory Committee since 1988 and was a
30 member of the Colorado Hazardous Waste Commission (1992-1997). Dr. Johnson’s
31 primary consulting work focuses on the mining industry with emphasis on uranium
32 recovery facilities. She is also involved in developing technical basis documents for the
33 National Institutes of Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) dose reconstruction
34 project under the Energy Employees Occupational Illness Compensation Program Act
35 (EEOICPA). Dr. Johnson is a former chair of the Radiation Advisory Committee. In
36 addition, she chaired the ERAMS II advisory (EPA-SAB-RAC-ADV-98-001, August 28,
37 1998).

38
39
40 **Dr. Bernd Kahn:**

41
42 Dr. Bernd Kahn is Head of the Environmental Radiation Branch since 1974
43 (formerly the Environmental Resources Center) and now Professor Emeritus of the
44 Nuclear and Radiological Engineering and Health Physics Programs at Georgia Institute
45 of Technology (GIT). He received his B.S. in Chemical Engineering from Newark
46 College of Engineering (Now New Jersey Institute of Technology), M.S. in Physics from

1 Vanderbilt University and Ph.D. in Chemistry from the Massachusetts Institute of
2 Technology. He was Adjunct Professor of Nuclear Engineering at the University of
3 Cincinnati (1970-1974), Chief of the Radiological & Nuclear Engineering Facility at the
4 U.S. EPA's National Environmental Research Center (1970-1974), undertaking research
5 in environmental, medical, and biological radiological programs, including studies of
6 radioactive fallout in food, radionuclide metabolism in laboratory animals, and SR-90
7 balances in human infants; an Engineer/Radiochemist with the U.S. Public Health
8 Service (1954-1970), evaluating the treatment of low-and intermediate-level radioactive
9 wastes; and a Health Physicist and Radiochemist with Union Carbide Corporation (1951-
10 1954).

11
12 Dr. Kahn has served on a number of distinguished committees, panels and
13 commissions, including the National Research Council committees on decontamination
14 and decommissioning of uranium enrichment facilities, buried transuranium waste, single
15 shell tank wastes, Panel on Sources and Control Technologies, Committee on Nuclear
16 Science, and Subcommittee on the Use of Radioactivity Standards. Dr. Kahn serves on
17 the U.S. EPA SAB's Radiation Advisory Committee, having been on the RAC reviews of
18 both ERAMS I and ERAMS II, the predecessor systems to RadNet, as well as the
19 MARLAP review on laboratory radiation measurement protocols. He has served on the
20 National Council on Radiation Protection and Measurements (NCRP) Scientific
21 Committees as Chair of the Scientific Committee 64-22 for Effluent and Environmental
22 Monitoring, Chair of the Task Group 5 on Public Exposure from Nuclear Power, member
23 of the Scientific Committee 84 on Radionuclide Contamination, member of the Scientific
24 Committee 64 on Environmental Issues, member of the Scientific Committee 63-1 on
25 Public Knowledge About Radiation Accidents, member of the Scientific Committee 38 on
26 Accident-Generated Waste Water, member of the Scientific Committee 18A on
27 Radioactivity Measurement Procedures, and member of the Scientific Committee 35 on
28 Environmental Radiation Measurements.

29
30 Dr. Kahn is widely published with over 160 publications on the topics of radiation
31 measurements, monitoring and protocols, fate of radionuclide discharges, critical
32 pathways for radiation and population exposure, radiochemical analyses for
33 environmental studies, airborne radiation in buildings , emergency response to accidents
34 involving radioactive materials, airborne fallout, sources, fate and occurrences and health
35 effects of radionuclides in the environment, surveillance of radionuclides in the food
36 chain, integrated environmental measurement, germanium detectors and other devices,
37 decommissioning procedures and radiation-related topics.

38
39
40 **Dr. Jonathan M. Links:**

41
42 Dr. Jonathan M. Links is Professor of Environmental Health Sciences at the Johns
43 Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health, with joint appointments in Radiology and
44 Emergency Medicine at the Johns Hopkins School of Medicine. He is a medical
45 physicist, with a B.A. in Medical Physics from the University of California, Berkeley,
46 and a Ph.D. in Environmental Health Sciences (with a concentration in Radiation Health

1 Sciences) from Johns Hopkins University. Dr. Links’ expertise is in radiation physics
2 and dosimetry, medical imaging instrumentation, radiation-based biomarkers, and
3 terrorism preparedness and response. Dr. Links is a member of the Delta Omega
4 National Public Health Honor Society, and is a past president of the Society of Nuclear
5 Medicine, a 16,000 member professional medical society. Dr. Links is currently Director
6 of the Johns Hopkins Center for Public Health Preparedness, and is Baltimore City’s
7 radiation terror expert, working with the Health, Fire, and Police Departments. He is a
8 current member of the EPA SAB’s Radiation Advisory Committee.

9
10
11 **Dr. Jill A. Lipoti:**
12

13 Dr. Jill A. Lipoti was recently reappointed by the Administrator to serve a second two-
14 year term as Chair of the SAB’s Radiation Advisory Committee (RAC). She was
15 recently appointed (2005) as Director, Division of Environmental Safety & Health for the
16 New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection (NJ DEP) in Trenton, NJ. From
17 1989 until late 2005, she held the position of Assistant Director of Radiation Protection
18 Programs of the NJ DEP. This program administers licensing and inspection of radiation
19 sources, certification of technologists, radon public awareness, certification of radon
20 testing and mitigation firms, low level radioactive waste siting issues, nuclear emergency
21 response, oversight of nuclear power plant activities for environmental releases, and non-
22 ionizing radiation. She has also held positions of Chief of the NJ DEP Bureau of
23 Hazardous Substances Information (6/88 to 4/89), as well as Supervisor of
24 Communication/ Outreach in the NJ DEP Bureau of Hazardous Substances Information
25 (7/87 to 6/88). Dr. Lipoti served as a Hazardous Materials Specialist with the NY/NJ
26 Port Authority (9/84 to 6/87), as an Assistant Instructor in the Department of
27 Environmental Science at Rutgers University in New Brunswick, NJ (6/79 to 9/84), and
28 as an Adjunct Professor of Chemistry at Middlesex County College in Edison, NJ (9/79
29 to 6/80, and 9/83 to 6/84). Dr. Lipoti’s funding comes from the NJ DEP as a State
30 employee. A modest portion of the funding as a state employee is charged to her time
31 spent on and EPA Grant for the NJ Radon Program, as well as for NJ DEP activities
32 related to the four Nuclear Power Plants in the State of New Jersey.

33
34 She has publications and proceedings in a broad range of topical areas, such as
35 diagnostic radiology quality assurance, certification of radiation risks from high-dose
36 fluoroscopy, nuclear power plant and X-Ray program redesign, reduced emissions from
37 mammography, public confidence in nuclear regulatory effectiveness, the linear non-
38 threshold regulation, similarities and differences in radiation risk management,
39 partnerships between state regulators and various other organizations, electromagnetic
40 fields from transformers located within buildings, community Right-to-Know, identifying
41 individuals susceptible to noise-induced hearing loss, community noise control, safety for
42 supervisors - an updated manual for training of supervisors at the Port Authority, and a
43 variety of other topics.

44
45 Dr. Lipoti holds numerous appointments to boards and councils. For instance, she
46 currently serves as Chair of the Committee on Public Information on Radiation Protection

1 and as Liaison to the American College of Radiology, as well as Liaison to the American
2 Association of Physicists in Medicine. She has served as Chairman of the Conference of
3 Radiation Control Program Directors (1997-98), the Board of Directors and Chair of of
4 the Environmental Nuclear Council (1992-95), Chair of the Transportation Committee
5 (1991-93) and is a member of the National Council on Radiation Protection and
6 Measurement (NCRP). She is a member of the Health Physics Society, the American
7 College of Radiology, the Science Advisory Board’s Radiation Advisory Committee and
8 other organizations. She is the State of New Jersey Representative to the U.S. Nuclear
9 Regulatory Commission (NRC), the Interagency Steering Committee on Radiation
10 Standards (ISCORS), and served as a member of the Technical Electronic Products
11 Radiation Safety Standards Committee for the U.S. Food and Drug Administration
12 (FDA).

13
14 Dr. Lipoti has provided expert testimony on a variety of radiation-related topics.
15 She has provided comments on the revised oversight program for nuclear power plants,
16 and orphan source recovery, and licensee’s accountability programs before the U.S.
17 NRC. She has also provided comments to various Congressional committees and
18 subcommittees, such as comments on the Radon Disclosure and Awareness Act in a joint
19 hearing before the United States House of Representatives Subcommittee on
20 Transportation and Hazardous Materials and the Subcommittee on Health and the
21 Environment, and comments on the Indoor Radon Abatement Reauthorization Act of
22 1993 in a hearing before the U.S. Senate Committee in Environment and Public Works,
23 Subcommittee on Clean Air Nuclear Regulations.

24
25 Dr. Lipoti holds a Ph.D and M.S. in Environmental Science from Rutgers
26 University, and a B.S. in Environmental Science from Cook College in New Brunswick,
27 NJ.

28
29
30 **Dr. Gary M. Sandquist:**

31
32 Dr. Gary M. Sandquist is currently a Professor of Mechanical Engineering and
33 former Director of the Graduate Nuclear Engineering Program at the University of Utah.
34 Previously he was a Distinguished Visiting Professor in Physics and Civil and
35 Mechanical Engineering Departments at the U.S. Military Academy at West Point, where
36 he supported and trained Army personnel in Functional Area 52 activities (Nuclear
37 operations). He has a B.S. in Mechanical Engineering, M.S. in Engineering Science,
38 Ph.D. in Mechanical and Nuclear Engineering, MBA, was a Post Doctoral Fellow at
39 MIT, and served a Sabbatical at ben Gurion University in Beer Sheva, Israel. He is a
40 Registered Professional Engineer in Utah and New York (Mechanical) and California
41 (Nuclear), a Board Certified Health Physicist, a Diplomate in Environmental Engineering,
42 a Certified Quality Auditor, and a retired U.S. Naval Reserve Commander with an
43 Intelligence Designator. The Reactor Supervisor and U.S. Nuclear Regulatory
44 Commission (NRC) Licensed Senior Reactor Operator for a TRIGA research reactor, he
45 served as a short mission expert in nuclear science and safeguards for the International
46 Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) and as Technical Training Director for the joint DOE,

1 EPA, DRI Community Radiation Monitoring Program at the Nevada Test Site. Dr.
2 Sandquist’s principal scientific interests include risk assessment; radiation transport,
3 analytical detection and measurement; assessment and decontamination of chemical and
4 radioactive hazards; design and execution of characterization and final status surveys
5 using Multi-Agency Site Survey and Investigation Manual (MARSSIM); and design and
6 operation of heating, ventilation and air-conditioning (HVAC) systems. He is a Fellow
7 of the American Society of Mechanical Engineering (ASME) and American Nuclear
8 Society (QUANS). He has authored or co-authored 500 publications including 5 books
9 and book chapters, 180 refereed papers, 325 technical reports, developed 17 major
10 technical computer codes and participated in over 200 technical meetings, conferences,
11 workshops and government hearings.

12
13
14 **Dr. Richard J. Vetter**

15
16 Dr. Richard J. Vetter is Radiation Safety Officer for Mayo Clinic and Professor of
17 Biophysics in the Mayo College of Medicine in Rochester, Minnesota, and Director of
18 Safety for Mayo Foundation. His major areas of interest include biological effects and
19 dosimetry of ionizing and nonionizing radiation and public policy of radiation
20 applications. Dr. Vetter is certified by the American Board of Health Physics and the
21 American Board of Medical Physics and the American Board of Medical Physics. He is
22 former Health Physics Society President and has served as Editor-in-Chief of the Health
23 Physics Journal, as well as the Board of Directors of the Minnesota Safety Council. He
24 currently serves as a member of the National Council on Radiation Protection and
25 Measurements Board of Directors and a member of the Nuclear Regulatory Commission
26 Advisory Committee on Medical Use of Isotopes. He is a member of the American
27 Association of Physicists in Medicine, the Radiological Society of North America, the
28 Society of Nuclear Medicine, the American Academy of Health Physics, and the
29 International Radiation Protection Association. He has served in numerous capacities on
30 the Mayo Clinic Activities, such as the Radiation Safety Committee, the Mayo
31 Foundation Radiation Safety Committee, the Safety Council, and the Foundation
32 Environmental Health and Safety Committee. He has participated in a number of
33 professional activities at the state level, such as the Governor’s Task Force on Low Level
34 Radioactive Waste. He is or has been a reviewer for the American Council on Science
35 and Health, the Health Physics Journal, Radiation Research and numerous other
36 publications. He is author or co-author of more than 200 publications in health physics
37 and related areas. He received his B.S. and M.S. in Biology from South Dakota State
38 University in Brookings, SD and his Ph.D. in Health Physics from Purdue University in
39 West Lafayette, IN.

40
41
42 **Ms. Susan Wiltshire:**

43
44 Susan Wiltshire is a former Vice President of the consulting firm JK Research
45 Associates, Inc. Her areas of expertise include radioactive waste management, public
46 involvement in policy and technical decisions, and risk communication. She has planned

1 and facilitated citizen involvement, moderated multi-party discussions and assisted with
2 the peer review of technical projects and written and spoken extensively about the
3 public’s role in the formulation of public policy. Ms. Wiltshire’s wrote the 1993 version
4 of the League of Women Voters’ “A Nuclear Waste Primer,” the 1985 revision of which
5 she coauthored.

6
7 Ms. Wiltshire has served on a number of committees of the National Academies
8 National Research Council including the Board on Radioactive Waste Management, the
9 Committee on Technical Bases for Yucca Mountain Standards, and the Committee on
10 Risk Perception and Communication. She chaired both the Committee to Review New
11 York State’s Siting and Methodology Selection for Low Level Radioactive Waste
12 Disposal and the Committee on Optimizing the Characterization and Transportation of
13 Transuranic Waste Destined for the Waste Isolation Pilot Plant. Ms. Wiltshire is a Vice
14 President and member of the Board of the National Council on Radiation Protection and
15 Measurements (NCRP) and serves as Chairman of that organization's Committee on
16 Public Policy and Risk Communication. She is a former member of the U.S.
17 Environmental Protection Agency Advisory Committee on Radiation Site Cleanup
18 Regulation and its committee on the Waste Isolation Pilot Plant (WIPP), which she has
19 chaired.

20
21 Ms. Wiltshire served two terms as member and Chairman of the elected
22 Board of Selectmen, the chief executive body of the Town of Hamilton, Massachusetts,
23 and of the Town’s appointed Finance Committee. She is former Chairman of the Board
24 of Northeast Health System, Beverly, Massachusetts and of Beverly Hospital. Ms.
25 Wiltshire was formerly President of the League of Women Voters of Massachusetts. She
26 graduated Phi Bete Kappa with High Honors from the University of Florida, receiving a
27 BS in Mathematics.

APPENDIX C –ACRONYMS

1		
2		
3		
4	AL	Alabama
5		
6	Am	Americium (Am-141 isotope)
7		
8	AMAD	Activity Median Aerodynamic Diameter (Reference to particle size)
9		
10	AMADF	Activity Median Aerodynamic Diameter Factor (Reference to particle
11		size)
12		
13	ANSI	American National Standards Institute
14		
15	ASQC	American Society for Quality Control (also American Society for Control
16		of Quality (ANSI/ASQC)
17		
18	Be	Becquerel
19		
20	C-14	Carbon 14
21		
22	CA	Coordinating Agency
23		
24	CEDE	Committed Effective Dose Equivalent
25		
26	CFR	Code of Federal Regulations
27		
28	Ci	Curie
29		
30	Co	Cobalt
31		
32	cps	Counts Per Second
33		
34	Cs	Cesium (Cs-137 isotope)
35		
36	DFO	Designated Federal Officer
37		
38	DHS	Department of Homeland Security (U.S. DHS)
39		
40	DOD	Department of Defense (U.S. DOD)
41		
42	DOE	Department of Energy (U.S. DOE)
43		
44	dpm	Disintegrations Per Minute
45		
46	dps	Disintegrations Per Second

1		
2	EPA	Environmental Protection Agency (U.S.EPA)
3		
4	FERMAC	Federal Emergency Radiological Monitoring and Assessment Center
5		
6	FRMAC	Federal Radiological Monitoring and Assessment Center
7		
8	GM	Geiger Mueller (Detector)
9		
10	hr	Hour
11		
12	IMAAC	Inter-Agency Modeling and Atmospheric Assessment Center
13		
14	IMMAAC	
15		
16	Ir	Iridium (Ir-192 isotope)
17		
18	keV	kiloelectron volts
19		
20	MDA	Minimum Detectable Activity
21		
22	MGBC	Maximum Gross Beta Concentration
23		
24	MMGBC	Monthly Maximum Gross Beta Concentration
25		
26	mm ²	Square Millimeter
27		
28	m ³	Cubic Meter
29		
30	µm	micrometer
31		
32	NaI	Sodium Iodide
33		
34	NaI (TI)	Sodium Iodide Thallium (Crystal/Detector)
35		
36	NARAC	National Atmospheric Release Advisory Center
37		
38	NAREL	National Air and Radiation Environmental Laboratory (U.S.
39		EPA/ORIA/NAREL, Montgomery, AL)
40		
41	NIST	National Institute of Standards and Technology
42		
43	NRP	National Response Plan
44		
45	nCi	nanocuries
46		

1	NYC	New York City
2		
3	ORIA	Office of Radiation and Indoor Air (U.S. EPA/ORIA)
4		
5	PAG	Protective Action Guide
6		
7	pCi	picocuries
8		
9	PIC	Pressurized Ion Chamber
10		
11	QA	Quality Assurance
12		
13	QC	Quality Control
14		
15	QA/QC	Quality Assurance/Quality Control
16		
17	R	Roentgen
18		
19	RAC	Radiation Advisory Committee (U.S. EPA/SAB/RAC)
20		
21	RadNet	Radiation Network, a Nationwide System to Track Environmental
22		Radiation
23		
24	RDD	Radiological Dispersion Device
25		
26	R & D	Research and Development
27		
28	Rem	Rad (Roentgen) Equivalent Man (1 rem = 0.01 Sv)
29		
30	RERT	Radiological Emergency Response Team
31		
32	RIENL	Radiation and Indoor Environments National Laboratory (U.S.
33		EPA/ORIA/RIENL, Las Vegas)
34		
35	R/h	Roentgen/hour
36		
37	Rn	Radon
38		
39	SAB	Science Advisory Board (U.S. EPA/SAB)
40		
41	SI	International System of Units (from NIST ,as defined by the General
42		Conference of Weights & Measures in 1960)
43		
44	SOP	Standard Operating Procedures
45		
46	Sr	Strontium (Sr-90)

1		
2	Sv	Sievert (1 rem = 0.01 Sv)
3		
4	Tl	Thallium (Tl-208 isotope)
5		
6	TR	Toxicological Review
7		
8	US	United States
9		
10	WSRC	Westinghouse Savanna River Company (contractors for Savanna River)
11		
12		
13		
14		
15		
16		
17		
18		
19		
20		
21		
22	End of Document	