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**--- Working Review Draft Report #2 ---
April 6, 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

Dr. Jill Lipoti

SAB Working Review Draft Report dated April 6, 2006 for RAC RadNet Review Panel Edits – Do Not Cite or Quote.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.

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|---|------------------------|--------------------------------|
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| 2 | Science Advisory Board | Science Advisory Board |

NOTICE

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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>.

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Radiation Advisory Committee (RAC) RadNet Review Panel**

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3
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6
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9
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11 **Dr. K. Jack Kooyoomjian**, Designated Federal Officer, US EPA, Science Advisory
12 Board (1400F), 1200 Pennsylvania Avenue, NW, Washington, DC, 20460

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1. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

[NOTE: To be generated - - - KJK]

2. INTRODUCTION

2.1 Background

RadNet is the United States’ only comprehensive network for monitoring radioactivity and ionizing radiation in the environment with more than 200 sampling stations nationwide. Since its inception in 1973, RadNet (formerly known as the Environmental Radiation Ambient Monitoring System (ERAMS)) 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 of 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 additional and updated air monitoring equipment with more monitoring stations, both of which will provide greater flexibility in responses to radiological and nuclear emergencies, significantly reduced response time, and 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.

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 (RAC) 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 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 and the fires near the Department of Energy’s (DOE)’s facilities at Los Alamos National Laboratory, and the Hanford Reservation. The Tokaimura incident highlighted the fact that the existing air monitoring 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 early 2001, ORIA began working on a new vision for a nation-wide radiation monitoring system. 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

1 expanding RadNet. The design team decided to concentrate on the air monitoring portion
2 of RadNet, and elected to have a series of deployable monitors that could be positioned in
3 an emergency to augment the fixed monitors positioned in predetermined locations and to
4 add real-time monitoring capability to the system.

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

16
17 The RadNet upgrade and expansion project is currently in the early
18 implementation phase. The first prototype fixed monitor has been received, tested, and is
19 installed at ORIA’s laboratory in Montgomery. A set of 40 deployable monitors has been
20 acquired, 20 of which have been delivered to each of ORIA’s labs in Montgomery and
21 Las Vegas. The information technology infrastructure is in place for handling real-time
22 data.

23
24 The next steps include the national siting plan (where to put the fixed monitors),
25 how to distribute and operate the deployables under emergency conditions, and the best
26 protocols for dissemination of verified RadNet data during emergencies. EPA plans to
27 acquire and deploy the fixed monitors at the rate of five (5) per month. EPA requested
28 that the Radiation Advisory Committee (RAC) provide input for these next steps.

29 30 31 **2.2 Charge to the RAC RadNet Review Panel**

32
33 The Agency’s Office of Radiation and Indoor Air requested that the EPA Science
34 Advisory Board review and provide advice on a draft document entitled “*Expansion and*
35 *Upgrade of the RadNet Air Monitoring Network, (Volume 1&2) Concept and Plan,*”
36 dated October 2005. EPA requested response to the following specific charge questions:

37
38 **Charge Question 1:** *Are the proposed upgrades and expansion of the RADNET air*
39 *monitoring network reasonable in meeting the air network’s objectives?*

40
41 **Charge Question 2:** *Is the overall approach for siting monitors appropriate and*
42 *reasonable given the upgraded and expanded system’s objectives?*

43
44 2a) *Is the methodology for determining the locations of the fixed monitors*
45 *appropriate given the intended uses of the data and the system’s objectives?*
46

1 2b) *Are the criteria for the local siting of the fixed monitors reasonable given the*
2 *need to address both technical and practical issues?*

3
4 2c) *Does the plan provide sufficient flexibility for placing the deployable monitors*
5 *to accommodate different types of events?*

6 2d) *Does the plan provide for a practical interplay between the fixed and*
7 *deployable monitors to accommodate the different types of events that would*
8 *utilize them?*

9
10 **Charge Question 3:** *Given that the system will be producing near real-time data, are the*
11 *overall proposals for data management appropriate to the system’s objectives?*

12
13 3a) *Is the approach and frequency of data collection for the near real-time data*
14 *reasonable for routine and emergency conditions?*

15
16 3b) *Do the modes of data transmission from the field to the central database*
17 *include effective and necessary options?*

18
19 3c) *Are the review and evaluation of data efficient and effective considering the*
20 *decision making and public information needs during an emergency?*

21
22 3d) *Given the selected measurements systems are the quality assurance and*
23 *control procedures appropriate for near real-time data?*

26 **2.3 Acknowledgement and Overview**

27
28 The RAC RadNet Review Panel (the Review Panel) met on December 19-21,
29 2005 in Montgomery, AL at the National Air and Radiation Environmental Laboratory
30 (NAREL) to consider these charge questions. The meeting location was important to
31 facilitate discussion of the system since members could see (and touch) the prototype
32 fixed and deployable monitors. Review Panel members were able to maximize the
33 interaction with staff involved in the project at NAREL since they were all available at
34 the meeting. This face-to-face interaction was integral to the Review Panel’s
35 understanding of the thought processes during design of the system. The hands-on aspect
36 of being able to directly experience the fixed and deployable monitors was also essential.
37 Review Panel members even commented on the noise associated with the monitors in
38 operation as a consideration in establishing the siting criteria. The Review Panel wishes
39 to express their sincere thanks to the NAREL staff in accommodating their needs during
40 the meeting and for making it as productive as possible.

41
42 The Review Panel wishes to commend ORIA on the planning that went into this
43 meeting. The document “*Expansion and Upgrade of the RadNet Air Monitoring*
44 *Network (Volume 1&2) Concept and Plan,*” 2005 was well-written and provided much
45 needed background to the RAC’s RadNet Review Panelists. During the meeting, the
46 staff worked hard to augment this excellent document with additional pieces of

- 1 information that the committee members felt were necessary to assist with the review.
- 2 The staff took extreme care to honor all the Review Panel's requests and demonstrated
- 3 their patience as Panel members struggled to understand all that went into the decisions
- 4 on equipment, siting and deployment strategies, and anticipated data uses.

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3. RESPONSE TO CHARGE QUESTION #1

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

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

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

The Review Panel believes, in general, that the proposed expansions and upgrades significantly enhance the ability of the RadNet monitoring network to meet this mission and objectives. However, in making this statement, the Review Panel is concerned about a number of specific issues that are detailed below.

3.1 Issues with respective roles of fixed and deployable monitors

Current plans for the upgraded RadNet system of air monitoring instruments call for a system comprising 180 fixed samplers and 40 deployable samplers. The 40 deployable units have been purchased and are available for deployment from the National Air and Radiation Environmental Laboratory (NAREL) in Montgomery and the Radiation and Indoor Environments National Laboratory (RIENL) in Las Vegas. Procurement of the fixed monitors is in progress, but procurement of the full complement of 180 samplers is not projected to be completed for a number of years. Both types of units will be needed in response to a major airborne release of radionuclides. It is planned that the deployable units will be used to expand the sampling network of interest around the site of a known airborne release. As discussed below, deployable units could also be used routinely in the near future to expand the fixed station network until more fixed sampling units can be obtained.

The objectives above identify two basic operational scenarios: “routine” and “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 scenarios exist at multiple levels of scale or “resolution.” For
3 the sake of simplicity, the Review Panel identifies three levels: large (multi-state; 100s to
4 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 other existing 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 the Panel’s view of the expanded and upgraded*
20 *RadNet network’s capabilities to meet EPA objectives is essentially consistent with EPA,*
21 *its view of the respective roles of the fixed and deployable monitors is significantly*
22 *different than that of EPA and is a major factor in the responses and recommendations in*
23 *this report.*

24
25 Routine monitoring relies almost exclusively on the fixed monitor network.
26 Expanded coverage is most important for meeting the mission of the routine monitoring.
27 In this regard, the major benefit of the expansion and upgrade plan is the addition of up to
28 180 monitoring sites. Here, the fixed monitors provide large-scale data; the deployable
29 monitors can (if deployed) provide regional trends and (to a complementary extent) local
30 level data. (Local scale data are also provided by portable monitors representing local
31 and state assets.)

32 33 34 **3.2 Issues with the monitors themselves**

35
36 Because of timing and resource issues, there are some differences in the design
37 and operation of the fixed and deployable types of monitors selected by ORIA. The
38 design of the deployable units was in response to the fires at Hanford and Low Alamos.
39 Procurement of these units began before the conceptual design of the fixed monitors was
40 complete. Additionally, practical considerations dictated that the deployable units be
41 sturdy enough to withstand damage from repeated shipping and handling.

42
43 Both types of monitors are capable of sampling air at high volumetric rates (35-75
44 m³/hr) through a 4"-dia. filter. The fixed stations use a polyester filter, while the
45 deployable units use a glass fiber filter. The deployable unit also has a second sampling
46 head operated at a lower sampling rate (0.8-7 m³/hr) suitable for sampling radioactive

1 gases. The sampling heads are located in different places in the two types of monitors.
2 The two sampling heads on the deployable units are located on extensions several feet
3 above the system's equipment enclosure, whereas the sampling head in the fixed unit is
4 located in the top portion of the system's enclosure along with two radiation detectors that
5 provide periodic in-place measurements of the accumulation of radionuclides on the filter
6 medium. These detectors are a 2"x2" NaI detector to measure gamma emissions and a
7 600 mm² ion-implanted silicon detector to measure alpha and beta emissions from
8 radionuclides on the filter sample periodically during the sampling cycle. These radiation
9 measurements can be transmitted via satellite to NAREL for analysis and storage.

10
11 The deployable unit has no built-in capability for monitoring either the high
12 volume or low-volume filters in place, so the filters must be counted and analyzed at
13 NAREL or in a mobile laboratory brought near the area of interest. Another difference
14 between the deployable and fixed units is the ability of the deployable units to provide
15 measurements of the external gamma radiation field at the sampling site. Measurements
16 from two compensated GM detectors also can be transmitted to NAREL via satellite.
17 The fixed sampling unit has no comparable capability for quantifying external photon
18 radiation fields.

19
20 *Because both the fixed and deployable sampling units will be used to provide*
21 *important information to decision makers, it is imperative that both the similarities and*
22 *differences between these two monitoring systems be understood and quantified so that*
23 *the resulting data will be of high quality and consistency.*
24
25

26 **3.3 Potential sampling biases in the fixed air monitor**

27

28 The configuration of the detector and filter in the fixed air sampler may result in
29 bias in collection of larger particles due to impaction on the detector or associated support
30 surfaces. The EPA report should include a figure that shows, with dimensions, the
31 locations of the two detectors relative to the filter and indicates the expected air flow
32 path. *The impact of this geometrical arrangement on the deposition of airborne particles*
33 *should be evaluated by an experienced professional using laboratory or field tests that*
34 *address, among other questions:*
35

- 36 • Is particle deposition on the filter uniform across the filter?
- 37
- 38 • Does a significant fraction of particles deposit on the surfaces of the two detectors
- 39 to contaminate them?
- 40
- 41 • Are there sampling biases related to different particle-size regions?
- 42

43 While large particles (greater than 10 µm AMAD) are not of biological significance with
44 regard to inhalation by humans, they may be of concern in evaluating the potential for
45 soil and surface water impacts. Also, depending on the type of incident that results in
46 generation of air particulates, NAREL should consider whether “hot particles” might be

1 in the larger size range and thus would not be collected on the filter in proportion to their
2 presence in the airborne material.

3
4 *The currently-designed instruments have not been tested for the collection*
5 *efficiency of airborne particulates as a function of the wind speed and direction at which*
6 *they arrive at the sampler. The sampling efficiency versus particle size might also be*
7 *impacted and should be tested.* A wind tunnel would be a good place to conduct such
8 tests. It is better to know these characteristics now, than to learn that there might be a
9 problem later. This seems to be particularly critical for the new fixed samplers where
10 local siting criteria allow the sampler to be located no closer than 2 meters from walls, 5
11 meters from building ventilation exhausts and intakes, 20 meters from a tree drip line, 50
12 meters from streets and highways, etc. All of these factors can impact the
13 representativeness of the measurements to ambient air.

14
15 One of the arguments for large particles not being of major concern for RadNet is
16 the expectation that an event that results in airborne dust generation will occur at a
17 considerable distance from the sampler. Thus, the large particles would fall out before
18 the plume reached the detector. This would be true for most of the fixed samplers for a
19 single event, but not for the fixed samplers that are located in the population centers
20 where the probability of a terrorist incident involving release of radioactive material is
21 the greatest. A sampler in the vicinity of the incident is of primary importance in such a
22 case and should be capable of representative sampling of airborne dust.

23 24 25 **3.4 Measurement of external photon radiation fields**

26
27 The deployable sampling units use GM detectors to provide near real-time data on
28 gamma exposure rates, but no similar measurements can currently be made with the fixed
29 monitors. If it is assumed that the near real-time collection of these gamma exposure
30 measurements is an important function of the deployable units, then *consideration should*
31 *be given to making similar gamma exposure measurements on the fixed sampling units as*
32 *well.* It seems inconsistent to have this capability only on the deployable units.

33
34 Certain quality assurance efforts are needed for the radiation exposure data
35 collected by the GM detectors with the portable monitors. These data may contribute
36 significantly to the evaluation of a radiological incident and needs to be trustworthy. The
37 following aspects should be considered:

- 38
39 1. Results are reported (on p.60) to be accurate within 15% at the low end of the
40 scale at 2 μ R/h, and 10% at the high end of 1 R/h. Is this information certified by
41 the manufacturer? In any case, EPA should test reliability initially and at intervals
42 for selected monitors by comparison to a direct exposure-rate detector such as a
43 pressurized ionization chamber.
- 44
45 2. The instruments are reported to have been calibrated with Cs-137 and to have an
46 energy response within 20% between 60 keV and 1,000 keV. Does the

1 manufacturer certify this information? EPA should test instruments for energy
2 dependence by exposing selected detectors to point or extended sources. For
3 example, radionuclides may be selected that emit single gamma rays of
4 approximately 30, 60, 120, 300, 600, and 1,200 keV, of which one should be Cs-
5 137 at 661 keV. Such sets also can be used for intercomparison with monitors by
6 cooperating organizations, such as state agencies.

- 7
- 8 3. QC considerations for exposure-rate measurements, discussed on p.90, should
9 include specific actions such as the ones suggested above.
- 10
- 11 4. The international unit equivalent to 1 R is 2.58×10^{-4} C/kg, not 10 mSv, as shown
12 on p.60. The decision to convert R to mSv should be left to the organization
13 responsible for assigning radiation dose.
- 14

15 While Cs-137 may be an important gamma-emitting radionuclide in the event of a
16 nuclear incident, Co-60 – with gamma photons twice the energy of the Cs-137 photons –
17 may be of equal or greater importance for a “dirty bomb” event. It is also important to
18 note that the GM detector response to scattered Cs-137 gamma radiation may be different
19 from the response to the unattenuated Cs-137 radiation. While it might be impractical to
20 cross-calibrate each deployable system against a pressurized ion chamber (PIC), *NAREL*
21 *should consider cross-calibrating the prototype using a series of different energy gamma*
22 *emitters*, including naturally occurring thorium with its relatively high energy gamma Th-
23 208 decay product and uranium with its lower average energy decay products.

24

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

- 29
- 30 • the pattern of the energy response in the form of a curve or tabulated values from
31 the low-energy cutoff to about 3,000 keV;
 - 32 • the standard deviation of measured exposure rates for the full claimed range of 2
33 *R/h to 1 R/h ; and
 - the response to beta-particles and associated Bremsstrahlung.

34 The use of the radiation measurement units Sv and rem for the output of the GM
35 detectors is somewhat misleading since a GM detector measures counts per unit time.
36 With appropriate cross-calibration against a Pressurized Ion Chamber (PIC), the output
37 could be converted to roentgens. However, if the units Sv and rem are being used in the
38 sense that they represent effective dose, the one-to-one ratio of roentgen to rem may not
39 be appropriate. The conversion from exposure in roentgen to effective dose in Sv or rem
40 depends on both the receptor (e.g., adult or child) and the energy of the gamma radiation.

41

1 **3.5 Measurements of alpha emitters at fixed stations**

2
3 The description of major components of the fixed air monitoring stations on p.25
4 of the EPA report includes "Instruments for measuring gamma and beta radiation
5 emanating from particles collected on the air filter media." Measurements of alpha
6 emissions are not mentioned on p. 25, but the detailed specification sheet provided
7 mentions the capability to measure both low and high energy alpha particles. During the
8 December 19-21,2005 meeting, NAREL staff told the Review Panel that a complicated
9 algorithm is needed to distinguish alpha emissions measured in the fixed monitor from
10 the measurements of alpha emissions of naturally-occurring radon (Rn) progeny. *It is*
11 *important that this capability be perfected because other alpha emitters besides Am-241*
12 *may become important in assessing potential terrorist activities.*
13

14 **3.6 Need for numerical clarity and transparency**

15 **3.6.1 Value of the Protective Action Guide (PAG)**

16
17 In the EPA report the PAG is stated to be the committed effective dose equivalent
18 (CEDE) of 1 rem that results from inhaling a specified radionuclide continuously during
19 a 4- day period (p.24, para. 5). The measurement requirements, including the minimum
20 detectable activity (MDA) for selected radionuclides specified in the EPA report, are
21 related to this value.
22

23 While the instruments provide the output in Roentgens, it is expected that EPA
24 will do the necessary conversion to provide the information in rem to the decision-makers
25 so that they can compare it to the PAG. The Review Panel was not asked to comment on
26 the appropriateness of the PAG, however, it is necessary to point out that the assumptions
27 for conversion from R to rem should be explicit in the documentation so that the
28 conversion can be replicated at a later time.
29
30

31 **3.6.2 Relation of the EPA-specified MDA value to the PAG for fixed-location** 32 **monitor**

33
34 The MDA values (at the 95% confidence level) are given in terms of nanocuries
35 (nCi) for each of 7 radionuclides on a filter to be counted for no more than 1 h with the
36 specified NaI(Tl) detector and spectrometer (p. 27, para. 1). Of the 7 radionuclides, Am-
37 241, Cs-137, Co-60, and Ir-192 were considered to be important because of their
38 availability in large quantity (p.24, para. 3). An MDA value also is given for Sr-90
39 counted with the silicon detector and spectrometer (p.27, para.2).
40

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

1 PAG, e.g. not so sensitive that very high readings will be produced by very low exposure
2 levels.

3
4 This information can be extracted from the two tables that were distributed by
5 EPA staff in response to a request at the meeting. One table is a list of radionuclide
6 concentrations (in pCi/m³) that correspond to the PAG for 1 rem by inhalation during 4 d
7 (and fractions of this PAG) for 5 of the 8 radionuclides. The other table is a list of nCi
8 for a 30 m³ sample related to estimated risk per nCi inhaled given in Federal Radiation
9 Guide #13, for all 8 radionuclides (and 2 others). The EPA staff should decide which
10 data set is appropriate, apply the selected factors for m³ collected on the filter for
11 counting and m³ inhaled in the 4-d period, and discuss the appropriateness of the
12 specified MDA values.

13 14 15 **3.6.3 Calculation of the MDA values for the fixed-location monitor**

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

21
22 The constant relates counts accumulated for this study in 10 minutes to nCi.
23 Values of * were obtained by measuring the counts recorded with the detector in the
24 regions of interest for various radionuclide standards and obtaining the counting
25 efficiency for these measurements. The Westinghouse Savannah River Company (WSRC)
26 report notes that the calculation of * is more complex than shown if background peaks
27 intrude on the regions of interest for a radionuclide, as is the case of radon progeny
28 intruding on Am-241 and Cs-137. The radon-progeny background on filters is stated in
29 the EPA report to fluctuate from 0.3 to 30 nCi (p.26, para.6). The calculated MDA
30 values based on measurements that do not include radon-progeny fluctuation range from
31 12.3 to 1.1 nCi for the 7 radionuclides. The MDA value for Am-241 is above the
32 specified MDA for the 10-min count but equals it for the expected 60-min count; the
33 MDA for each of the other radionuclides is 1 – 3 orders of magnitude below the EPA-
34 specified MDA value.

35
36 *The calculated MDA values reported in the WSRC report should be inserted into*
37 *the EPA report with an explanation of the reasons for the much larger EPA-specified*
38 *MDA values (p.27, para. 1), except for Am-241. If one reason is the indicated radon-*
39 *progeny fluctuation, the extent of increase in MDA values over those calculated in the*
40 *WSRC report should be tested in a field study. Relative to the EPA-specified MDA*
41 *values, however, the fluctuation appears to be significant only for Am-241.*

42
43 *Before inserting the WSRC data in the EPA report, some improvements in the*
44 *WSRC report are recommended. Calculation of * should be explicitly shown, with*
45 *counts and background counts tabulated for each region of interest. Apparent errors*

1 made in the sample calculation for Cs-137 should be corrected in calculations of
2 MDA(cps), MDA(dps), and MDA(nCi).

3
4 The MDA calculation for Sr-90 measured by the silicon detector should be shown
5 for the direct beta-particle count and counter background, and for the influence of radon-
6 progeny fluctuation. Any difference between these values and the EPA-specified MDA
7 should be explained.

8
9 *The implications of the change in the thickness (from thick to thin) of the silicon-*
10 *detector window reported by EPA staff at the meeting should be discussed in the EPA*
11 *report. If the alpha-particle spectra that now can be measured are useful to compensate*
12 *for radon-progeny fluctuations, the appropriate calculations and test results should be*
13 *presented. Conversely, any detrimental effects of cross talk on Sr-90 counting sensitivity*
14 *should be reported.*

15 16 17 **3.7 Other Issues**

18
19 The Review Panel found that the compilation of other radiation monitoring
20 systems in the United States presented in Appendix C was incomplete. However, it is an
21 indication of the importance that is placed on radiation monitoring that all of these
22 systems were developed, largely independently of the RadNet or formerly, ERAMS
23 systems. Given the degree of interest in monitoring and the extensive development work
24 that ORIA put into RadNet, the Panel members surmised that other entities would
25 consider purchasing fixed monitoring systems and request that they be tied in to RadNet.
26 In anticipation of these requests, the Panel suggests that ORIA consider under what basis
27 they would accept such additions to the RadNet and what inherent constraints they have
28 in increasing the number of stations. Additionally, ORIA should give some thought to
29 the issues of cross-calibration, costs for analysis of particulate filters, and other
30 operational concerns that may arise in contemplating expansion on an ad hoc basis.

4. OVERALL APPROACH FOR SITING MONITORS

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

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

4.1 Response to Charge Question # 2

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

The Review Panel believes, in general, that the proposed EPA approach for siting fixed and deployable monitors significantly enhances the ability of the RadNet monitoring network to meet mission objectives. Nevertheless, the Review Panel is concerned about a number of specific issues that are detailed below.

Given the limited resources the difficulties in designing the siting plan stems from two seemingly contradictory drivers: population- vs. geography-based. The siting plan proposed is therefore the result of a compromise between monitoring people and spanning the nation, or between socio-political considerations and mission requirements. There is an apparent discrepancy between the stated RadNet objectives in the context of EPA responsibilities, and the interplay and use of deployable vs. fixed monitors. This is reflected in a lack of clarity in the usage of deployable monitors: What are the decision-making processes and prioritizations used to accommodate different types of events from long term monitoring deficiencies to the response to catastrophic incidents? Are the objectives for the usage of deployable monitors strictly identical to those for the fixed monitors? Given that any incident response plan or EPA decision based on RADNET will depend on analyses from models that integrate data from a wide range of sources, it is essential that the RADNET network be optimized in terms of these models. These process-oriented environmental models are typically underdetermined as they contain more uncertain parameters than the state variables available to them for calibration. Therefore we strongly advocate the use of sensitivity analyses in the siting of future

1 monitor stations (fixed and deployable). This represents a necessary step to optimize the
2 value of collected monitoring data to the decision makers.

3 4 5 **4.1.1 Population-based vs. geographic-based siting**

6
7 Even though the siting plan is not intended to monitor a city-based incident, it has
8 been designed to accommodate one monitor per major city. For populated Western and
9 Eastern coastline areas this results in an anomalously high density of fixed monitors at
10 the expense of other regions, notably the US-Canadian boarder, Central Northern United
11 States, Central and Eastern Nevada and Eastern Oregon. We feel that there should be a
12 better balance between between physical deployment schemes and modeling
13 requirements for effective environmental assessment, data interpretation and decision
14 making.

15
16 From these considerations and the limited resources available, the Review Panel
17 suggests at a minimum that a more aggressive declustering of fixed monitors be
18 considered initially, particularly in the vicinity of the Los Angeles and New York
19 metropolitan areas, and that local and regional meteorological models be used along with
20 other considerations, to pare down and redistribute fixed monitors. We also suggest that
21 model sensitivity analyses be performed on siting configurations and distribution
22 densities so as to optimize the placement of fixed monitoring stations in terms of the
23 limited resources available to meet EPA goals (see comments above). This will result in
24 better geographic coverage consistent with the primary decisions for siting a ‘receptor-
25 based system’ with a focus on national impact. This approach is also more flexible in
26 terms of adapting to limited resources and the deployment of a lesser amount of fixed
27 monitors than the eventual 180 planned for. A related concern includes: How did the
28 mileage radii for de-clustering and gap-filling arise, and how is “proximity” defined?

29 30 31 **4.1.2 Fixed vs. deployable monitor networks**

32
33 It is unclear whether the proposed deployment of mobile monitors is predicated
34 solely on the RadNet objectives outlined for the deployment of fixed monitors: the
35 collection of environmental data within the context of a National scope, and for the sole
36 purpose of monitoring, assessment and baseline data collection. Given the limited
37 resources and possible limitations on the number of fixed monitors deployed in the near-
38 term, it appears that at least some of the mobile units could be used to fill coverage gaps
39 identified through modeling. To the degree to which mobile units are actually a response
40 to EPA’s new monitoring responsibilities as outlined in the post 9/11
41 *Nuclear/Radiological Incident Annex* document, *National Response Plan (NRP)*, then
42 this should be specifically included in the siting discussion and reviewed in that context.
43 Specifically the mission of the RadNet Air Network includes providing “data for
44 radiological emergency response assessments in support of homeland security and
45 radiological accidents.” This objective is vague and brings into question responsibility
46 and chain of command. Under most circumstances, EPA is not the lead but a supporting

1 organization to the Coordinating Agency (CA). This may also preclude the pre-
2 deployment of mobile monitoring stations by the EPA and requires the integration of
3 what then becomes two separate systems each associated with both deployable and fixed
4 monitoring Networks.

5
6 To avoid future implementation failures and the loss of key data, this apparent
7 discrepancy needs to be specifically addressed in the report, integrated and planned for by
8 EPA, the Federal Radiological Monitoring and Assessment Center (FRMAC) and the end
9 user IMAAC that generates the plume projections.

12 **4.2 Response to Charge Question # 2a**

13
14 *Is the methodology for determining the locations of the fixed monitors appropriate given*
15 *the intended uses of the data and the system’s objectives?*

16
17 *The Review Panel strongly suggests that the declustering of high density*
18 *population areas be more aggressive and involve the use of model constraints and*
19 *meteorological forecast predictions. To this end the Review Panel supports the use of*
20 *sensitivity analyses and confirmatory transport modeling proposed by EPA, in*
21 *conjunction with Savannah River National Laboratory, the US Weather Bureau, IMAAC*
22 *and/or other partners.*

23
24 Overall, the Review Panel considers that the methodology for determining the locations
25 of the fixed monitors is appropriate with some reservations: There appear to be a few
26 gaps in the proposed siting methodology for fixed monitors, resulting from (1) the
27 apparent lack of recognition of local and regional meteorological constraints; (2) possibly
28 significant gaps in geographic coverage; (3) deficiencies in siting scenarios in the context
29 of uncertainty in the near term number of operational fixed monitors, and (4) RadNet
30 mission priorities; and (5) integration with current EPA monitoring responsibilities.

33 **4.2.1 Meteorological constraints**

34
35 The proposed EPA scheme for adapting fixed monitor locations to both
36 population density and land coverage achieved about 50% population coverage and about
37 82 % land coverage. With the constraint of 180 independent stations this appears
38 satisfactory as an initial siting basis. However, meteorological and natural background
39 radiation conditions (e.g., radon) may demand adjustments of this distribution as
40 experience is gained with actual operation of the system as it is deployed over a number
41 of years and results from preliminary models are considered. The data from the RadNet
42 Air Monitoring Network should eventually be combined with a standard US Weather
43 Bureau computer code for projecting variations in the local geological and
44 meteorological conditions in the area of the monitor and regional atmospheric conditions
45 and trends. Meteorological monitoring associated with the fixed monitor Network is
46 desirable in some cases, and should be decided on a site-specific basis, based on 2

1 considerations: (a) no “canyon effect” exists, and (b) no alternative “close”
2 meteorological monitoring exists (where “close” still needs to be defined). In this way,
3 elevated radiation conditions and their atmospheric transport could then be predicted and
4 their significance assessed with respect to natural and/or man-made anomalies.
5
6

7 **4.2.2 Gaps in coverage [duplicates 5.2.1]**

8
9 The fixed monitor siting plan proposed is the result of a compromise between
10 monitoring people and spanning the nation. As a consequence, even though the siting
11 plan is not intended to monitor a city-based incident it allows for one monitor per city.
12 For populated Eastern and Western coastline areas (e.g., Los Angeles basin and the New
13 York metropolitan area) this results in an anomalously high density of fixed monitors
14 compared to other regions, notably the US-Canadian boarder, Central Northern United
15 States, Central and Eastern Nevada and Eastern Oregon. Some of this concern may be
16 addressed through joint US-Canadian operations. At a minimum, NAREL should note
17 the locations of Canadian monitoring facilities to indicate if the coverage is better than it
18 appears from the US maps alone. In addition, the Review Panel suggests that initially a
19 more aggressive declustering of fixed monitors be considered in the vicinity of the largest
20 population centers (i.e., Los Angeles and New York metropolitan areas) and that local
21 and regional meteorological models be used along with other considerations, to pare
22 down and redistribute fixed monitors on a physical geography basis. This will result in
23 improved geographic coverage consistent with the primary decisions for siting receptor-
24 based system with a focus on national impact.
25
26

27 **4.2.3 Uncertainty in number of near-term fixed monitors**

28
29 Given the limited resources and possible limitations on the number of fixed
30 monitors deployed in the near-term, it appears that scenarios with less than 180 fixed
31 monitors be examined in terms of immediate impact of system response. In addition at
32 least some of the mobile units could be used to fill coverage gaps identified through
33 modeling. This approach has the advantage of being more flexible and responding to
34 changing environmental conditions. It requires a thorough study in terms of costs and
35 added complexity in the event that deployable systems are required in response to an
36 unanticipated radiological incident.
37
38

39 **4.2.4 Mission priority**

40
41 In keeping with EPA responsibilities and the continuity of the RadNet mission,
42 the most important function of the fixed monitors is the continued and improved routine
43 evaluation of the ambient radiation environment. In the context of the new RadNet
44 network, this involves continued coordination of the air monitoring Network with the
45 other current EPA networks involving water and milk monitoring, even in the context of
46 a later evaluation and update of those systems. This again emphasizes that population

1 density is not necessarily the main driver but that isolated areas that involve many rural
2 communities also support the monitoring infrastructure of the Nation. In view of the
3 resource limitations to the new RadNet system, NAREL should not lose sight of the EPA
4 function that involves tracking the transfer of ambient air-borne radiological conditions to
5 Nation’s food supply.

8 **4.2.5 Integration with existing networks**

10 Even though RadNet is a receptor-based system, it should strive to leverage any
11 and all additional monitoring stations by working with other existing systems, such as
12 those in individual States and around Nuclear Power Plants and other source areas.
13 Moreover, there should be a mechanism established for entities such as States or cities
14 who may use their own funds to purchase stations that are comply with the standards for
15 becoming full-fledged ‘members’ of the network. There also appears to be a lack of
16 coordination with Canadian monitoring networks. Specifically, the US southern border
17 seems to be well covered by the proposed siting plan, whereas monitors along the
18 northern Canadian border appear scarce. Health Canada maintains monitoring stations in
19 Edmonton, Calgary, Saskatoon, and Regina and perhaps elsewhere but the EPA does not
20 appear to have engaged Health Canada and there is no mention of the monitoring
21 capabilities or planned joint coordination efforts between the US and Canada.

24 **4.2.6 Other questions**

26 A further question regarding siting is how EPA will respond to socio-political factors that
27 could derail the siting scenario.

29 *Do the plans for storing, deploying and siting the deployable monitors include sufficient*
30 *flexibility to effectively respond to simultaneous potential or real radiological events) in*
31 *a timely manner and /or in the absence of viable infrastructure (e.g. key and appropriately*
32 *and adequately trained support personnel, communications, electrical power,*
33 *transportation routes and modes. Plans addressing these issues were mentioned by EPA*
34 *staff during the meeting with the Review Panel but there is little evidence in the report*
35 *that such contingencies have been more than summarily thought through or provided for.*

38 **4.3 Response to Charge Question #2b**

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

43 Ideally, the siting plan would evolve from modeling considerations, rather than be
44 determined beforehand.. Given the current approach to siting, at a minimum, sensitivity
45 analyses and a post-hoc confirmatory modeling (i.e., siting plan validation) should be
46 used. The sensitivity analyses will help focus limited resources on those siting

1 configurations that are most optimal to RADNET objectives, and help identify to which
2 state variables the models are most sensitive and less certain in terms of their formulation
3 and/or parameterization for a given siting geometry. The analysis will also help reduce
4 uncertainty by identifying any potential interactions or variables that exert the greatest
5 influence on the variability of model outcomes and interpretation.

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

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

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

17
18 (b) What are the sampling requirements for the mathematical models used to
19 estimate environmental distributions in space and time? For example, the models may
20 require or be optimally served by, more uniform geographic sampling, or conversely, a
21 non-uniform sampling scheme that is driven by geographic/geologic and meteorological
22 factors (in 3 dimensions) rather than population or sampling density per se.

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

32
33 In order to address these needs, EPA took an approach that is both population-
34 based and geographically-based:

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

38
39 In addition to the points covered in the report, the Review Panel strongly
40 encourages that several additional points be either added or reconsidered:

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

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

3
4 (3) **Vertical siting considerations need attention** in view of the role of possible
5 monitoring obstructions, different sampling environments (e.g., monitors at
6 different elevations sampling different plume horizons), etc...; and,

7 (4) **The effective use of other existing resources** that could benefit rapid
8 detection and analysis of a radioactive plume.

9
10
11 **4.3.1 Model requirements**

12
13 Models may best be served by input data that require more uniform geographic
14 sampling, or a non-uniform sampling scheme that is driven by geographic/geologic and
15 meteorological factors in three dimensions, rather than by a population or sampling
16 density scheme. For quantitative analysis and understanding of the Network data, optimal
17 siting is therefore the product of simulation requirements, anticipated scenarios, and
18 variations within each. In practice, the sampling requirements are also model specific
19 and as different models come into play, optimizing the siting plan involves integration of
20 several results that together stochastically predict the space and time distribution of
21 radioactive plume in three dimensions.

22
23 The following approach is offered by way of example:

24
25 **Step 1:** Model 3-5 different, plausible scenarios, using one or more mathematical
26 models, including any used by IMAAC. The initial tests should involve a dense
27 monitoring coverage or over-sampling (e.g., simulating the availability of input from
28 thousands of monitors), thereby establishing the ‘ground truth’ space and time
29 distribution;

30
31 **Step 2:** Use a preferred model to simulate a case with 180 monitoring stations as
32 proposed in the RadNet siting plan and vary the siting density distribution using proposed
33 EPA siting plan(s);

34
35 **Step 3:** Perform a sensitivity analysis in which a number of monitors are
36 “removed” from a “preferred RadNet siting configuration” to reduce the total number of
37 stations from 180 to [180 – 20] or [180- 40];

38
39 **Step 4:** Using a realistic number of monitoring stations, change the geometry of
40 their distribution so as to capture model sensitivity to site geometry and distribution.

41
42 **Step 5:** Compare all model run results. This sensitivity analysis could render (i)
43 the optimum deployment for 180 fixed monitors; (ii) provide a comparison of the
44 preferred monitor distribution to an optimal siting scenario involving a greater or ideal
45 number of monitors (>>180); (iii) optimize the use of a resource-limited monitor
46 sampling scheme (<180 stations); and (iv) help in the design of portable station

1 deployment either as temporary stations to offset perceived coverage gaps or for use in
2 rapid deployment scenarios and effective integration with other networks, including fixed
3 RadNet monitors.

6 **4.3.2 Practical issues**

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 based only on sampling considerations, either from a population- and
11 clustering-basis, or in the context of modeling. *The actual selection of sites, however,*
12 *must also be driven by technical and practical issues.* These include:

- 14 (i) The availability of the appropriate electrical power;
- 16 (ii) An accessible and secure place to site the system; and
- 18 (iii) The availability of appropriate volunteers to maintain and “operate” the
19 system.

22 **4.3.3 Vertical siting**

23
24 A key issue that needs further specification and refinement is the vertical location
25 of the fixed monitors. A rooftop location may be the preferred (and potentially
26 standardizable) location, to avoid the “canyon effect” that might otherwise be present,
27 especially in large cities. This in turn introduces the 3 dimensionality of the siting
28 problem which will need to be taken into consideration when comparing different sites.
29 The Review Panel suggests that the “2-meter rule” be amended or redefined in the
30 context of tall buildings or large vertical structures.

33 **4.3.4 Effective use of resources**

34
35 A complete inventory of all existing, functional radiation equipment should be
36 performed by EPA to determine available non-EPA resources, which may include the
37 environmental radiation equipment at nuclear power plants, resources at universities,
38 federal, state, and industrial laboratories, or medical facilities. In the event of a major
39 incident within a given region the EPA could rapidly assess national needs and enlist
40 these resources for extended coverage.

43 **4.4 Response to Charge Question #2c**

44
45 *Does the plan provide sufficient flexibility for placing the deployable monitors to*
46 *accommodate different types of events?*

1
2 *A key question is whether or not the systems could be systematically deployed for*
3 *“routine” monitoring to supplement the fixed monitors, thereby increasing their utility,*
4 *and still be as readily deployable in an emergency.*

5
6 This question requires resolution of the apparent discrepancy noted earlier
7 between the stated RadNet objectives and the interplay and use of deployable vs. fixed
8 monitors. Both the RadNet document and the EPA RadNet presentations bring
9 uncertainty as to the ultimate objectives for the usage of deployable monitors. EPA’s plan
10 to date does not include routinely using the deployable monitors (i.e., in the absence of an
11 emergency). To the degree to which mobile units are actually a response to EPA’s new
12 monitoring responsibilities as outlined in the post 9/11 *Nuclear/Radiological Incident*
13 *Annex* document (*NRP*), then the flexibility of the deployment depends on the mobile
14 Network ability to adapt to rapid response times and deployment requirements. This can
15 only be accomplished if the siting is ‘pre-planned’ by incident type, regardless of
16 location. This in turn requires that the deployment scenarios be tied to ‘realistic’ model
17 renditions of different scenarios and that both model and siting plan be responsive to the
18 input of new incident boundary conditions in a timely and effective way. At present, this
19 is not the case and the Review Panel urges the EPA to take measures in this direction and
20 lead the way to the use of the RadNet database.

21
22 Other considerations are the practical effective deployment requirements within
23 the framework of limited resources. These issues include (1) Storage; (2) Pre-
24 Deployment, (3) Personnel Training, (4) Flexible Response to Incident Scenarios, and (5)
25 Other Concerns.

26 27 28 **4.4.1 Mobile unit storage**

29
30 The EPA proposes to house the deployable systems in its two main detector R&D
31 lab sites (Las Vegas and Montgomery). EPA believes that it is important to do so, in
32 order to be able to provide continuing maintenance, and to deploy the monitors with
33 trained staff. As an alternative, however, it may make more sense to store the systems at
34 a more diverse set of regional locations, where they could be potentially deployed more
35 rapidly in the event of an emergency.

36 37 38 **4.4.2 Pre-Deployment**

39
40 Under certain circumstances and in response to a DHS request, if a pre-
41 deployment option for the mobile stations were envisaged, it would drastically change the
42 nature of the RadNet mission and can make it much more of an event detection and early
43 warning response system. In view of the possibility the EPA would be requested to pre-
44 deploy its portable air monitors, the criteria for pre-deployment should be clearly
45 addressed and carefully established. There are a large number of gatherings of large
46 numbers of people where there may well be pressure to pre-deploy the monitors. Fairly

1 routine pre-deployments have positive and negative aspects. On the positive side it
2 enables operators to become familiar with shipping and setting up the systems. It also
3 increases the probability that they will be in place when needed. On the negative side,
4 apart from the cost, routine pre-deployments increases the probability that they will be in
5 some other location when they are needed to be used post-event or need to be re-
6 deployed due to environmental changes. There needs to be further discussion of how
7 such situations will be handled and how operator safety would be addressed.

10 **4.4.3 Personnel training**

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

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

33
34 Are there sufficient cross-trained key personnel and appropriately- trained volunteers to
35 effect a response in the event that the core groups are not available for whatever
36 reasons??

37
38 How are ‘volunteers’ credentialed?

41 **4.4.4 Flexible response to incident scenarios**

42
43 The overall plan for the deployment of the RadNet portable monitors seems to rely
44 on the occurrence of a single radiation incident and does not consider multiple near-
45 simultaneous incidents. Based on the history of the 9-11 attack, where three to four
46 locations were targeted simultaneously, the single incident assumption is inadequate.

1 Simultaneous, coordinated dirty bomb or nuclear device attacks on several cities (e.g.,
2 Boston, New York, Miami, Chicago, and Los Angeles) are as plausible as a single event
3 scenario. ORIA should therefore revisit its deployable siting plan and determine the
4 effectiveness of the proposed methodology if only five to ten mobile stations are
5 available for deployment at each of several locations instead of the 20 to 40 monitoring
6 stations per site they depict in the Report.

7
8 As discussed in the Charge Question 2b answer, the deployment and siting of
9 mobile air monitoring stations would be greatly improved by a modeling exercise where
10 the siting is closely tied to model scenarios involving different types of incidents (e.g.,
11 dirty bombs vs. nuclear devices), as well as different areas (e.g., large cities vs. industrial
12 or military centers).

13 14 15 **4.4.5 Other concerns**

16
17 There are also some practical operational issues that need resolving. (i) How (and
18 by whom) will the (acute) siting of the deployable monitors be determined? (ii) In
19 practice, how long will it take to deploy the monitors relative to the start of an event, and
20 how does this lag time influence the desirability of pre-deployment? (iii) Finally are the
21 deployable monitors considered fixed stations once positioned or will they be
22 remobilized to track possible contaminant plume movements?

23
24 The RadNet siting plan provides flexibility for placing deployable monitors for
25 different types of events; however, the role of the deployables is not totally clear. Are the
26 deployables for monitoring the edge of a plume or are they to provide assurance to
27 populated areas not covered by fixed monitors, that they have not been affected? The
28 deployables are a flexible, well designed system, but the locations where they will be
29 placed relative to where the contaminated plume is located needs better definition.

30
31 The air concentration and external gamma radiation data from the RERT teams
32 and the deployables should be integrated. This should be the easiest data to integrate
33 since it is collected by the same organization and provide an extra safeguard to the
34 operators.

35
36 In the early phase, the deployable monitors are to provide gamma radiation and
37 airborne radioactive particulate data to modelers to assist in validation of model output
38 or adjustment of input parameters (page 16). But the deployment scheme is to place the
39 monitors outside of the contaminated area. To assist the modelers, the monitors may
40 have to be placed inside the plume to measure gamma or airborne above background.

41
42 The scheme for siting deployable monitors is to put them where they will measure
43 background or pick up resuspension. Decision-makers will be looking for more data on
44 the impacted areas, particularly from monitoring stations that can send data remotely
45 without exposing personnel, except for short timeframes to change filters. Has the
46 correct mission for the deployables been identified? Is there a short term strategy to use

1 the deployables in the location of a fixed monitor on a temporary basis as part of the
2 testing program? The Review Panel suggests that EPA explore this strategy.

3
4 Finally, the RADNET report should also reference and when possible follow the
5 guidance provided by the *Environmental Engineering Committee’s Modeling Resolution*
6 (U.S. EPA SAB, 1989) and the *Guidance on the Development, Evaluation, and*
7 *Application of Regulatory Environmental Models and Models Knowledge Base* (U.S.
8 EPA SAB, *Quality Review Draft: 02.24.2006*). Even though these reports do not
9 specifically address the use model sensitivity analysis in the optimization of the design
10 for siting monitoring instruments, many fundamental model requirements are presented
11 in the context of data integration and interpretation in the context of a regulatory decision
12 making environment and information dissemination.

13 14 15 **4.5 Response to Charge Question #2d**

16
17 *Does the plan provide for a practical interplay between the fixed and deployable*
18 *monitors to accommodate different types of events that would utilize them?*

19
20 *While the Review Panel’s view of the expanded and upgraded RadNet Air*
21 *Network’s capabilities to meet EPA objectives is essentially consistent with EPA*
22 *objectives, the Review Panel’s view of the respective roles of the fixed and deployable*
23 *monitors is significantly different than that of EPA, and is a major factor in determining*
24 *what constitutes an effective interplay between fixed and deployable monitors.*

25
26 Concerning the interplay between fixed and deployable monitors, EPA proposes
27 in essence, to treat the data from the two types of monitors in a similar fashion. Yet, the
28 fixed stations do not include exposure rate measurements, and the deployable monitors
29 do not include gamma spectrometry. In addition, the collection filters (for air sampling)
30 are different on the two systems. These differences lead to a number of issues. How will
31 the fixed and deployable data be integrated (e.g., in the context of modeling), especially
32 given the different gamma-ray detectors? How will cross-calibration of the systems,
33 considering the use of different air sampling filters, be accomplished?

34
35 These questions lead to more fundamental questions. Why is exposure rate
36 measurable on the deployable, but not on the fixed, monitors? In this regard, what is the
37 purpose of the exposure rate monitoring on the deployable monitors? Finally the EPA
38 needs to address foreseen shortcomings in the RadNet program in the near term: (1)
39 Shortage of fixed monitoring stations and (2) Scenario dependence of the interplay
40 between fixed and deployable stations.

41 42 43 **4.5.1 Near-term network shortage**

44
45 Current plans for the upgraded RadNet system of air monitoring instruments call
46 for a system comprising 180 fixed samplers and 80 deployable samplers. The 80

1 deployable units have been purchased and are available for deployment from NAREL in
2 Montgomery and RIENL in Las Vegas. Procurement of the fixed monitors is in progress,
3 but the full complement of 180 samplers is not projected to be completed for a number of
4 years. However the projections made by EPA in the RadNet report are based on full
5 deployment of 180 fixed monitors and the availability of 80 deployable monitors. Both
6 types of units will be needed in response to a major airborne release of radionuclides.

7
8 It is planned that the deployable units will be used to expand the sampling
9 network of interest around the site of a known airborne release. In light of the near-term
10 limitations to the Network discussed above, it is important that the interplay between both
11 types of monitors include a scenario where deployable units be used routinely in the near
12 future to expand the fixed station network until more fixed sampling units can be
13 obtained.

14 15 16 **4.5.2 Scenario dependence**

17
18 The objectives associated with the interplay of fixed and deployable
19 monitors will be specific to the two basic operational scenarios: (a) “routine”
20 and (b) “emergency” (i.e., a radiological ‘incident,’ whether accidental or
21 intentional). In practice, the necessary monitoring data to characterize the
22 radioactivity/radiation ‘environment’ in these two basic scenarios exists at
23 multiple scales of detection or “resolution.” For the sake of simplicity, three
24 scales can be identified: National- or Interstate-scale (multi-state; 10^2 to 10^3
25 mile radius), Regional-scale (10^1 to 10^2 mile radius), and Local-scale (1 to 10
26 mile radius).

- 27
28 a) ‘Routine’ or ‘baseline’ monitoring is predominately an Interstate-scale
29 activity. Routine monitoring relies virtually exclusively on the fixed monitor
30 network: in this case, real-time monitoring is not as important as expanded
31 coverage. The major benefit of the expansion and upgrade plan is the addition
32 of up to 180 new monitoring sites. Fixed monitors provide Interstate-scale
33 data, the deployable monitors provide Regional- and (to a complementary
34 extent) Local-scale data. Local-scale data are also supplemented by portable
35 monitors representing local- and state-assets. The purpose of this monitoring
36 is to characterize, on an on-going basis, the ambient radiation environment in
37 space and time. For this purpose, air monitoring needs to be supplemented
38 with other existing monitoring Networks, including water and milk
39 monitoring/sampling. The interplay with deployable monitors will depend on
40 the ability of the fixed network to fulfill coverage requirements on the
41 National scale. Deployables could be used to supplement that coverage; and
42
43 b) ‘Emergency’ monitoring requires data inputs at all 3 scales. Interstate- and
44 Regional-scale data are used to track transport of major releases, typically
45 from nuclear power plant accidents, the detonation(s) of improvised nuclear
46 device(s) (rather than from an RDD). Local-scale data are most relevant for

1 smaller RDD events, and help determine evacuation vs. shelter-in-place
2 decisions. However, in addition, EPA should also address the pros and cons
3 of ‘routinely’ pre-deploying the monitors to places where “intel” suggests that
4 they may be needed (e.g., Times Square NYC during New Year’s eve, Super
5 Bowl game, World Series, Olympics, Mardi Gras, etc.) For such decision-
6 making, real-time data are critical and deployables must be well integrated
7 with fixed Networks in terms of data integration and immediate availability to
8 the key decision making agencies FRMAC and the end user IMAAC that
9 generates the plume projections. For small events the best interplay between
10 monitor types would factor in all of the monitors in the Nation in spite of data
11 quality variability, for state, local, utility, DOE and others.

5. OVERALL PROPOSALS FOR DATA MANAGEMENT

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

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

3b) Do the modes of data transmission from the field to the central database include effective and necessary options?

3c) Are the review and evaluation of data efficient and effective considering the decision making and public information needs during an emergency?

3d) Given the selected measurements systems are the quality assurance and control procedures appropriate for near real-time data?

5.1 Issues with data analysis and management

A fundamental issue raised by the briefing document is the need for and use of “zero” readings. A closely related issue is the portrayal of ‘not distinguishable from background’ values, and their dissemination to incident commanders, policy makers, and the public. *The Review Panel recommends the use of PAGs, not simply MDAs, for definition of trigger levels.*

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

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

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

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

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5.2 Response to charge question #3a

Is the approach and frequency of data collection for the near real-time data reasonable for routine and emergency conditions?

The answer to this question depends to some extent on how the data will be interpreted in relation to the multiple objectives outlined for RadNet. The approach and frequency of collection of near real time data appears to be reasonable for deciding during an emergency that an area is not likely to be effected by a particular event or events. The data in this case would be used by a decision maker in determining whether a PAG might be exceeded with a recommendation for evacuation. The decision would revolve around a relatively high exposure rate compared to the normal exposure rate so the outlined approach and frequency appear to be reasonable. As emphasized in the ORIA presentations, the primary objective is to identify areas that do not need to be evacuated during an emergency based upon a PAG. The frequency of collection appears to be a reasonable length for what is needed after an emergency.

Routine collection of information needs to have the same approach and frequency to (1) be continuously monitored so that the system is continuously ready for an emergency and (2) provide comparable background or baseline information for comparison. For these purposes the approach and frequency of near real time data collection appear to be reasonable. However, if routine collection will also be used to detect events then a better analysis of how this will occur is needed. Because a large volume of data will be collected in routine operation careful thought needs to be given to the types of decision rules used to test whether a particular set of data represents an increase above background. During routine operation of the fixed monitors consideration of how frequently false positives can be tolerated that would trigger an immediate data review. Immediate data review requires a commitment of valuable human resources that can come at any hour of the week, night or day. Hypothetically, if there were 10 ROI’s for 168 hours each week in 180 monitors it would require performing about 300,000 statistical tests per week with perhaps 300 significant at the $p=0.001$, or 1 in a thousand, level each week, a number that is probably much greater than could be reviewed. Careful development of decision rules will require much thought and collaboration among all members of the RadNet team and their partner agencies. In developing these rules it is also necessary to balance the desire to actually being able to determine when a plume may be first seen by a monitor. It would be tragic to set decision rules for triggering a review at too high a level and to miss the early evidence of an event. The optimization of decision rules should also take into account the number of monitors and their physical locations. This means that the rules would have to change over time as the RadNet system is expanded. There does not appear to be a process in place for deriving optimal decision rules for RadNet.

When an actual event occurs, a different type of decision criteria is needed because it now becomes important to detect a different type of event, that is “when the monitor detects the plume” rather than the question of “dose a plume exist”. At this stage

1 the concern is not about false positives but about false negatives. At the same time, filters
2 will be counted more frequently and more detailed data on spectra become available
3 which will alter how you make decisions. At later stages of the emergency, decision rules
4 will be needed designed specifically for areas along the boundaries of the plume. There
5 are a number of additional uses outlined for RadNet such as identification of
6 resuspension events that will require different decision rules.

7
8 One issue that should be considered when designing decision rules is the type of
9 terrorism events that might occur. Most of the events considered seem to center around
10 single large releases or explosions. Some actual terrorism events in this country
11 involving nonradioactive materials have used contamination over a longer period of time
12 at lower concentrations (chlordane in Wisconsin). Although it is hard to imagine an
13 event of this type involving an airborne release that would be dispersed over a wide
14 enough area that RadNet could detect, it probably deserves consideration when decision
15 rules are being built. For example could an actual event be missed because an adjustment
16 was made for an apparent “trend” in background?

19 **5.3 Response to Charge Question #3b**

20 *Do the modes of data transmission from the field to the central data base include*
21 *effective and necessary options?*

22 Generally, the modes appear to be satisfactory. There are a variety of backup
23 systems for communicating data including modem backup to the satellite telemetry. The
24 panel liked the idea of using the PDA for getting information from the data-logger. All
25 of the systems appear to be based on existing technology and the panel felt that the EPA
26 should keep abreast of future improvements as the systems are deployed and employ
27 them as needed. Some panelists felt that it was premature to conclude that the data
28 systems were appropriate because it seems that the system had only been tested for a few
29 days. Modifications to the system and its options will probably become clear once there
30 has been much more testing of multiple data streams over longer periods.

31
32 Even though a communication technology may not change in terms of its
33 technical specifications, other factors may have a detrimental or beneficial effect on the
34 existing technology. An example would be when a form of communication becomes
35 more popular can the existing infrastructure deal with the volume of use during an
36 emergency? Also there should be an ongoing evaluation of the degree of independence of
37 the alternative communications methods—are infrastructure changes causing two
38 previously independent communication methods become dependent on the same
39 resources.

40
41 The present plan provides multiple modes of transmission as the solution to the
42 problem of potential failure of one or more communications links. There is the need to
43 consider how decisions should be made with incomplete transmission of the data because
44 of partial failure of all of the communication methods. If only partial information was

1 received from the field stations, how would available data be prioritized? Should
2 decision rules be changed when data are incomplete or information has larger variability
3 than anticipated?
4

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

22 The panel expressed some concern with regard to the operators being a weak link
23 in some aspects of the transmission of data. While understanding the plan to use non-
24 radiological personnel for such tasks, it is believed that there are sufficient trained
25 radiation safety personnel available to be able to use some of them for this role. For
26 example, there could be many volunteers from the Health Physics Society who are
27 unlikely to have a formal role in an emergency that would be willing to help. In addition,
28 radiation safety staff from other, unaffected States may be called upon through mutual aid
29 agreements. This becomes important if the role of the deployable monitors is revised in
30 line with other panel recommendations. If the deployables are used in areas where there
31 are measurable radiation or contamination levels non-radiological personnel may not
32 respond appropriately.
33

34 The panel believes that the revised mission of deployable monitors has a number
35 of other impacts. It makes it important to have a direct read-out of radiation levels on the
36 monitor itself. It is felt that being able to download a local dose rate to a PDA and then
37 read it would not be satisfactory. Similarly, there is likely to be more need for electrical
38 generators than has been planned for up to this point as well as a greater need for security
39 of the deployables once positioned.
40

41 The panel felt that only having one person from each lab responsible for 20
42 systems was too few. A span of control of about 5 teams to one lab expert would be
43 much better.
44

45 Support is needed for deployable exercises so that there can be an evaluation of
46 the SOPs for: set-up; criteria for siting; evaluation of data transmission; data QA; data

1 presentation; use of data by incident management; as well as message evaluation on data
2 interpretation.

5 5.4 Response to Charge Question #3c

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

11 5.4.1 Review and evaluation of data

13 The presentations on methods to provide Quality Assurance/Quality Control
14 (QA/QC) of the data showed that the plans for ensuring the quality of the data were
15 adequate. In addition, the automatic and computerized methods currently in place to
16 determine if the equipment is working properly and that data are accurate were well
17 thought out. Given that any incident response plan or EPA decision based on RADNET
18 will depend on analyses from models that integrate data from a wide range of sources, it
19 is essential that the RADNET network be optimized in terms of these models. These
20 process-oriented environmental models are typically underdetermined as they contain
21 more uncertain parameters than the state variables available to them for calibration.
22 Therefore we strongly advocate the use of sensitivity analyses in the siting of future
23 monitor stations (fixed and deployable). This represents a necessary step to optimize the
24 value of collected monitoring data to the decision makers.

26 *The Review Panel notes that standard operating procedures (SOP) should be in*
27 *place and accompany all the QA/QC plans to insure that the data are handled*
28 *reproducibly prior to any release and that information from the system is accurate and*
29 *reliable. The QA/QC system should be tested over an extended period of time with “dry*
30 *runs” to determine if the methods can insure that the equipment is operating properly at*
31 *both the fixed and deployable stations.*

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

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

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5.4.2 Communication to decision makers and the public

The presentation of data in a manner that accurately conveys technical information must vary for different events and for users with varying needs and levels of technical expertise. The method of presenting the data to decision-makers does not need to be the same as the methods used to present the data to the public. Data collected routinely from the fixed monitors can be supplied in raw form to either of these groups. They need to be made available in an easy-to-access form as soon as they have been appropriately evaluated for quality assurance and control (QA/QC), as has been done in the past. The handling and release of the data in emergencies has different requirements which need to be carefully considered

5.4.3 Communication with decision makers

In an emergency, the EPA’s responsibility is to provide accurate and reliable data to National Atmospheric Release Advisory Center (NARAC) Interagency Modeling and Atmospheric Assessment Center (IMAAC) at Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory as soon as possible so that models can be adequately developed to help understand the dose, distribution and direction of the plume. As soon as the data have been conveyed to IMAAC and properly evaluated, IMAAC needs to convey the models along with all other information on the event to Federal Radiological Monitoring and Assessment Center (FRMAC).

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

5.4.4 Communication with the public

In the event of an emergency, FRMAC, rather than EPA, has the initial responsibility for releasing information to the public. It is important that the flow of data from the event to the public be restricted to this line of communication (EPA to IMAAC to FRMAC), so that the messages the public receives are consistent, accurate and useful as possible. For example it is important that there is not one message reporting activity

1 in dpm and another suggesting some type of radiation dose. After communication from
2 FRMAC has occurred, EPA should then make every effort to rapidly supply the validated
3 raw data in a form that is easy for the public to understand.
4
5

6 **5.4.5 Units for communication**

7 .

8 The Review Panel was concerned that in the preparation of documentation, such
9 as the “*Expansion and Upgrade of the RadNet Air Monitoring Network*,”(*Volume 1 and*
10 *2) Concept and Plan*,” the appropriate international units to express activity, radiation
11 exposure, dose and risk were not used. This may be related to the fact that international
12 units were adopted and came into wide spread use after much of the monitoring data were
13 derived by the systems that have been replaced by RadNet. The Review Panel
14 considered a strong recommendation that all data should be re-evaluated using the
15 appropriate S.I. units with the corresponding older units in parenthesis, i.e. Bq (pCi) or
16 rem (Sv) etc. However, convincing arguments were presented that instrumentation
17 commonly used by first responders do not use appropriate S.I units, nor is their training
18 presented in these units. The Review Panel was convinced that clarity of communication
19 and comprehension was more important than international conformity at this time, so the
20 recommendation has been softened to suggest that S.I. units may be presented in
21 parenthesis in preparation for a transition in the future.
22
23

24 **5.4.6 Communicating risk**

25 .

26 Great care needs to be taken in converting raw data from counts per minute, to
27 exposure, dose and risk. Raw counting data are very site, detector, nuclide, isotope,
28 particle size, chemical form and population specific. Thus, without much additional
29 information and analysis, the raw data (counts per minute) cannot be used to make even
30 the crudest estimates of risk. In conveying the raw data to the public, it is important that
31 the message does not convey an improper perception of the risk from any event. For
32 example, Figure B.1 page B-2 in the report records the level of activity as Monthly
33 Maximum Gross Beta Concentration (pCi/m³) over a 13 year time period. It shows that
34 the activity during this time varies by more than 100,000 times. Conveying such raw
35 data to the public would suggest that the risk had changed by a very large amount.
36 Historical data suggest that these large changes in activity in the air have resulted in non
37 detectable changes in the frequency of cancer among the U.S. population This is finding
38 related to the high frequency of spontaneously or naturally-occurring cancer (all types) in
39 the population (approximately 4 in 10 persons will develop some form of cancer during
40 their lifetime) and the relatively low additional risk of cancer associated with exposure
41 to ionizing radiation.
42

1
2 **5.4.7 Other factors that complicate accurate communication**
3

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

10
11 The difference between “calculated risk” based on estimates of radiation doses to
12 populations or individuals and “measured increases in cancer frequency” based on
13 observations of the number of cancer cases in epidemiological studies following low dose
14 radiation exposures of large populations needs to be further established and discussed in a
15 framework that the public can understand. The magnitude of the risk of radiation-
16 induced cancer compared to the risk of developing cancer in the absence of prior
17 radiation exposure (i.e. spontaneously) needs to be *correctly and clearly* communicated
18 using appropriate language in any releases to the public. *Care should be taken to avoid*
19 *the estimation of the number of excess cancers in large populations exposed to very low*
20 *doses of radiation. This is a calculation that should not be done by EPA or from data*
21 *derived from RadNet.*

22
23
24 **5.4.8 Preparing for communication in an emergency**
25

26 The Review Panel recommends that ORIA develop standard messages for use in
27 press releases and emergency broadcast messages. These statements should be part of
28 any exercise with RadNet participation. Statements should be devised from mock These
29 statements need to be related to exposure, activity, dose and risk utilizing a range which
30 would encompass those typically found from mock “data”. *Such statements must be*
31 *carefully reviewed by social scientists and communications experts to be sure that the*
32 *messages are understandable and accurate.*

33
34 The messages derived for use in exercises also need to be discussed with decision
35 makers associated with the area where the exercise is conducted. These decision makers
36 should include individuals like the Governors, City Managers, Mayor, Media managers,
37 Chief of Police and Fire Chief. The decision makers should be asked to respond to the
38 information provided and let EPA, IMAAC, and FRMAC know what information that
39 they need to make decisions and how the data and messages supplied would influence the
40 decisions that they must make in the time of a real event or emergency. Studies of this
41 type will help to develop useful, understandable and accurate messages that can be used
42 to convey the data derived from RadNet following an event involving radiation dispersal
43 devices or improvised nuclear weapons.

44
45 It will be especially important to have these messages developed well ahead of
46 time and defined for rapid use in the case of a real event. Such messages will need to be

1 modified to be specific for each real event. They must provide a foundation that will help
2 the public understand if they were exposed, the levels of the exposure, the radiation doses
3 associated with the exposure and the level of damage or risk associated with the
4 exposure. This will provide a rational basis for any action or sacrifice that the public are
5 asked to make by the decision makers.

6 7 **5.5 Response to Charge Question #3d**

8
9 *Given the selected measurements systems, are the quality assurance and control*
10 *procedures appropriate for near real-time data?*

11
12 It is EPA policy that all EPA environmental programs observe 48 CFR 46 and
13 comply fully with the American National Standard ANSI/ASQC E4-1994 for the agency-
14 wide Quality System. 48 CFR 46 and ANSI/ASQC E4-1994 provide the regulatory and
15 operational basis for QA/QC procedures and appear appropriate and adequate for the
16 RadNet Air Monitoring Network. However, given the extensive array of requirements
17 and activities provided in these regulations and standards, important issues regarding the
18 RadNet Air Monitoring Network include the following:

- 19 • The specific EPA QA System established to assure that environmental data from
20 the RadNet Air Monitoring Network used to support federal, state, and local
21 decisions are of adequate quality and usability for their intended purposes;
- 22 • Are all organizations and individuals under direct contract to EPA for RadNet Air
23 Monitoring related activities providing their services, products, deliverable items,
24 personnel training, and work in full conformance with 48 CFR 46 and
25 ANSI/ASQC E4-1994?;
- 26 • Has EPA audited and documented that the required quality and performance of
27 these services, products, deliverable items, personnel training, personnel training,
28 and work is adequate and demonstrated for other interested parties?;
- 29 • Annual assessments (as documents available to appropriate agencies) of the
30 effectiveness of each quality system component associated with the RadNet Air
31 Monitoring Network are required to demonstrate conformance to the minimum
32 specifications of ANSI/ASQC E4-1994; and
- 33 • Because the integrity and accuracy of the data measured, gathered, processed and
34 disseminated is essential to the successful mission of the RadNet Air Monitoring
35 Network, a controlled testing and periodic assessment of the overall performance
36 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]

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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 **APPENDIX B- BIOSKETCHES**

2
3 **U.S. ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION AGENCY**
4 **SCIENCE ADVISORY BOARD**
5 **RADIATION ADVISORY COMMITTEE (RAC) RadNet REVIEW PANEL**
6

7
8 **Biosketches of the RAC RadNet Review Panel**
9

10 **Dr. Bruce B. Boecker:**
11

12 Dr. Bruce B. Boecker: is a Scientist Emeritus of the Lovelace Respiratory Research
13 Institute, Albuquerque, New Mexico. He is a Diplomate of the American Board of health
14 Physics, a Certified Health Physicist, and a Fellow of the Health Physics Society (HPS).
15 He has served on numerous committees especially for the National Council Council on
16 Radiation Protection and Measurements, NCRP, International Commission on
17 Radiological Protection, ICRP, and the National Academy of Science/National Research
18 Council, NAS/NRC, dealing with the intake, internal doses, bioassays, epidemiology,
19 radiobiology and risk of radionuclides. He has been elevated to honorary member of the
20 NCRP. He was a consultant to develop a Federal strategy for research into the biological
21 effects of ionizing radiation. He currently serves as a Technical Staff Consultant with the
22 NCRP dealing with various Homeland Security topics. Dr. Boecker’s research interests
23 have been manily in tow broad areas, namely (1) inhalation toxicology and (2) dose-
24 response relationships for long-term biological effects produced by internally deposited
25 radionuclides. He has been particularly involved in the conduct of animal
26 experimentation to develop information to support predictions of consequences of
27 accidental exposure of man or to establish standards to ensure the safe and orderly
28 conduct of activities that might result in release of toxic agents to man’s environment.
29 His personal research efforts have been associated primarily with the radiobiology and
30 toxicology of airborne material associated with different activities in the nuclear fuel
31 cycle. This research has spanned broadly from studies of aerosol characteristics as they
32 may influence patterns of deposition, retention, and dosimetry on through to risk
33 assessments for different nuclear energy systems. Dr. Boecker holds a Ph.D. and M.S. in
34 Radiation Biology from the University of Rochester and a B.A. in Physics from Grinnell
35 College.

36
37
38 **Dr. Antone L. Brooks**
39

40 Dr. Antone L. Brooks is a radiation biologist, Senior Scientist and Professor of Radiation
41 Toxicology in the Environmental Science Department at Washington State University.
42 Dr. Brooks received an associate’s degree in Chemistry from Dixie Junior College in St.
43 George, Utah, a B.S. in Experimental Biology and an M.S. in Radiation Biology from the
44 University of Utah in Salt lake City. He received his Ph.D. in Physical Biology and
45 Genetics from Cornell University in Ithaca, New York. Dr. Brooks has conducted
46 extensive research on health effects of radiation exposure from both external radiation

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:**

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:**

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

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

14
15
16 **Dr. William C. Griffith:**

17
18 Dr. William C. Griffith was trained as a biostatistician and has collaborated for over three
19 decades in studies of the dosimetry and health effects of radiation and other toxicants.
20 His work has included design, data collection and analysis of laboratory and field based
21 studies. In particular he has extensive experience in estimation of doses from internally
22 deposited radionuclides and estimation of dose response in terms of age specific
23 incidence rates and prevalence. He has also been active in translating his experience into
24 models that are useful for health protection through is participation in committees of the
25 National Council for Radiation Protection. More recently he has analyzed how these
26 models are applied in environmental cleanup of the Department of Energy’s Hanford site,
27 and he has worked extensively with committees of the Hanford Advisory Board. Most
28 recently he has been funded as part of the Department of Energy’s Low Dose Radiation
29 Program to translate laboratory results into mathematical models that will be useful for
30 future regulation of radiation. Dr. Griffith also has experience in the study of non-
31 radioactive toxicants. He was part of the team at the Lovelace Inhalation Toxicology
32 Research Institute that was the first to prove that diesel exhausts are pulmonary
33 carcinogens in laboratory animals. For the last five years at the University of
34 Washington he has been Director of the Risk Characterization Core for the Child Health
35 Center funded by the Environmental Protection Agency and the National Institute of
36 Environmental Health Science. As director he has designed and developed statistical
37 methods for analysis of a community based randomized intervention to test the
38 effectiveness of educating farm workers about how they can decrease the accidental
39 exposures of their children from pesticides they bring home on their clothes. Dr. Griffith
40 has also collaborated with EPA Region 10 by lecturing frequently on how to apply
41 statistical methods to superfund cleanup decisions. This year he organized 8 workshops
42 on the application of new genomic and proteonomic methods in collaboration with EPA-
43 ORD for EPA regions, state and tribal environmental offices.

44
45
46 **Dr. Helen Ann Grogan:**

1
2 Dr. Helen Ann Grogan is a member of the SAB’s Radiation Advisory Committee. She is
3 employed as an independent consultant who has her own consulting firm, Cascade
4 Scientific, which has been subcontracted by Risk Assessments Corporation (RAC) to
5 work on a variety of projects, including an independent assessment of the risks to the
6 public from the 2002 Cerro Grande Fire for the New Mexico Environment Department,
7 development of a risk-based screening for historical radionuclide releases to the
8 Columbia River from the Hanford Nuclear Facility in Washington under contract to the
9 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), and two dose reconstruction projects
10 (Rocky Flats near Denver, CO and Savannah River in So. Carolina). Her work for the
11 Rocky Flats site emphasized quantifying cancer risk and its uncertainty following
12 exposure to plutonium from inhalation and ingestion. Dr. Grogan is currently working
13 with other RAC contractors on the RACER project to develop a process and tool that can
14 be used to guide the efforts to reduce public health risk and ecological impact from
15 radionuclides and chemicals originating at the Los Alamos National Laboratory. DR.
16 Grogan has assisted in the development of an International Features Events and
17 Processes (FEP) database for the Nuclear Energy Agency (NEA) Organization for
18 Economic Cooperation and Development(OECD) in France to be used in the
19 performance assessment of radioactive waste disposal systems. In addition, she was also
20 involved with the Swiss National Cooperative for the Disposal of Radioactive Waste
21 (Nagra), specifically in modeling the biosphere for repository performance assessment,
22 and in development of scenario analyses for the Nagra Kristallin I and Wellenberg
23 projects and development of supporting data bases that identify important phenomena
24 (FEPs -features, events and processes) that need to be accounted for in repository
25 performance assessment. She was actively involved in the Biospheric Model Valuation
26 Study - Phase I and II BIOMOVs study (Biospheric Model Validation Study), which is
27 an international cooperative effort to test models designed to quantify the transfer and
28 accumulation of radionuclides and other trace substances in the environment. Dr.
29 Grogan’s doctoral thesis title is “Pathways of radionuclides from soils into crops under
30 British field conditions.” She has authored or co-authored several dozen publications,
31 and technical reports dealing with the role of microbiology modeling the geological
32 containment of radioactive wastes, plant uptake of radionuclides, laboratory modeling
33 studies of microbial activity, models for prediction of doses from the ingestion of
34 terrestrial foods (with a focus on radionuclides), long-term radioactive waste disposal
35 assessment, modeling of radionuclides in the biosphere, quantitative modeling of the
36 effects of microorganisms on radionuclide transport from a High Level Waste repository
37 and related topics. She received her Bachelor of Science Degree in Botany with honors
38 from the Imperial College of Science and Technology at the University of London, and
39 her Ph.D. from that same university.

40
41
42 **Dr. Richard W. Hornung :**

43
44 Dr. Richard W. Hornung is a member of the Radiation Advisory Committee (RAC) since
45 FY 2001. He recently (2005) became Director of Biostatistics and Data Management of
46 Cincinnati Children’s Hospital Medical Center, Division of General and Community

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

24
25
26 **Mr. Richard Jaquish:**

27
28 Mr. Richard Jaquish has over 40 years experience in environmental radiation
29 surveillance. He was the Director of the Technical Support Laboratory of the EPA
30 National Environmental Research Center in Las Vegas which provided laboratory
31 services for the analysis of samples from underground nuclear testing and plowshare
32 programs. Analytical procedures were developed for unique radionuclides and media
33 resulting from nuclear tests. In 1980 he became a senior research engineer with Battelle
34 Memorial Institute in Richland, WA where he was manager of the environmental
35 radiation program for the Hanford site. He was later the manager of the Office of
36 Hanford Environmental that managed the programs in environmental surveillance,
37 groundwater monitoring, meteorology, and wildlife resources. In 1995 he took a position
38 with the Washington Department of Health as an advisor in environmental radiation and
39 Hanford cleanup activities.

40
41 Hands on monitoring experience in unique environments included six months of
42 monitoring radioactivity in Antarctica, monitoring fallout in Eskimos in Alaska, and
43 regularly serving on a flight crew for aerial monitoring of radioactive plumes on and
44 around the Nevada Test Site. He was a regular member of emergency response teams at
45 Battelle and the State of Washington and responded to several unusual occurrences
46 including the 2000 Hanford fire.

1
2 Mr. Jaquish served two terms on the American Public Health Committee on Laboratory
3 Standards and Practices. He was a member of the National Council on Radiation
4 Protection and Measurements (NCRP) Committee 64 (1994-2000) on Environmental
5 Radiation and Waste Issues and is currently a member of NCRP Committee 64-22 that is
6 preparing a guide on “Design of Effective Effluent Monitoring and Environmental
7 Surveillance Programs.” Mr. Jaquish has a B.S. degree in Civil Engineering from
8 Washington State University and an M.S. in Engineering and Applied Physics from
9 Harvard University. He has over 20 publications in environmental radioactivity.

10
11
12 **Dr. Janet A. Johnson:**
13

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

36
37
38 **Dr. Bernd Kahn:**
39

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

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

9
10 Dr. Kahn has served on a number of distinguished committees, panels and
11 commissions, including the National Research Council committees on decontamination
12 and decommissioning of uranium enrichment facilities, buried transuranium waste, single
13 shell tank wastes, Panel on Sources and Control Technologies, Committee on Nuclear
14 Science, and Subcommittee on the Use of Radioactivity Standards. Dr. Kahn serves on
15 the U.S. EPA SAB’s Radiation Advisory Committee, having been on the RAC reviews of
16 both ERAMS I and ERAMS II, the predecessor systems to RadNet, as well as the
17 MARLAP review on laboratory radiation measurement protocols. He has served on the
18 National Council on Radiation Protection and Measurements (NCRP) Scientific
19 Committees as Chair of the Scientific Committee 64-22 for Effluent and Environmental
20 Monitoring, Chair of the Task Group 5 on Public Exposure from Nuclear Power, member
21 of the Scientific Committee 84 on Radionuclide Contamination, member of the Scientific
22 Committee 64 on Environmental Issues, member of the Scientific Committee 63-1 on
23 Public Knowledge About Radiation Accidents, member of the Scientific Committee 38 on
24 Accident-Generated Waste Water, member of the Scientific Committee 18A on
25 Radioactivity Measurement Procedures, and member of the Scientific Committee 35 on
26 Environmental Radiation Measurements.

27
28 Dr. Kahn is widely published with over 160 publications on the topics of radiation
29 measurements, monitoring and protocols, fate of radionuclide discharges, critical
30 pathways for radiation and population exposure, radiochemical analyses for
31 environmental studies, airborne radiation in buildings , emergency response to accidents
32 involving radioactive materials, airborne fallout, sources, fate and occurrences and health
33 effects of radionuclides in the environment, surveillance of radionuclides in the food
34 chain, integrated environmental measurement, germanium detectors and other devices,
35 decommissioning procedures and radiation-related topics.

36
37
38 **Dr. Jonathan M. Links:**

39
40 Dr. Jonathan M. Links is Professor of Environmental Health Sciences at the Johns
41 Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health, with joint appointments in Radiology and
42 Emergency Medicine at the Johns Hopkins School of Medicine. He is a medical
43 physicist, with a B.A. in Medical Physics from the University of California, Berkeley,
44 and a Ph.D. in Environmental Health Sciences (with a concentration in Radiation Health
45 Sciences) from Johns Hopkins University. Dr. Links’ expertise is in radiation physics
46 and dosimetry, medical imaging instrumentation, radiation-based biomarkers, and

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

7
8
9 **Dr. Jill A. Lipoti:**

10
11 Dr. Jill A. Lipoti was recently reappointed by the Administrator to serve a second two-
12 year term as Chair of the SAB’s Radiation Advisory Committee (RAC). She was
13 recently appointed (2005) as Director, Division of Environmental Safety & Health for the
14 New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection (NJ DEP) in Trenton, NJ. From
15 1989 until late 2005, she held the position of Assistant Director of Radiation Protection
16 Programs of the NJ DEP. This program administers licensing and inspection of radiation
17 sources, certification of technologists, radon public awareness, certification of radon
18 testing and mitigation firms, low level radioactive waste siting issues, nuclear emergency
19 response, oversight of nuclear power plant activities for environmental releases, and non-
20 ionizing radiation. She has also held positions of Chief of the NJ DEP Bureau of
21 Hazardous Substances Information (6/88 to 4/89), as well as Supervisor of
22 Communication/ Outreach in the NJ DEP Bureau of Hazardous Substances Information
23 (7/87 to 6/88). Dr. Lipoti served as a Hazardous Materials Specialist with the NY/NJ
24 Port Authority (9/84 to 6/87), as an Assistant Instructor in the Department of
25 Environmental Science at Rutgers University in New Brunswick, NJ (6/79 to 9/84), and
26 as an Adjunct Professor of Chemistry at Middlesex County College in Edison, NJ (9/79
27 to 6/80, and 9/83 to 6/84). Dr. Lipoti’s funding comes from the NJ DEP as a State
28 employee. A modest portion of the funding as a state employee is charged to her time
29 spent on and EPA Grant for the NJ Radon Program, as well as for NJ DEP activities
30 related to the four Nuclear Power Plants in the State of New Jersey.

31
32 She has publications and proceedings in a broad range of topical areas, such as
33 diagnostic radiology quality assurance, certification of radiation risks from high-dose
34 fluoroscopy, nuclear power plant and X-Ray program redesign, reduced emissions from
35 mammography, public confidence in nuclear regulatory effectiveness, the linear non-
36 threshold regulation, similarities and differences in radiation risk management,
37 partnerships between state regulators and various other organizations, electromagnetic
38 fields from transformers located within buildings, community Right-to-Know, identifying
39 individuals susceptible to noise-induced hearing loss, community noise control, safety for
40 supervisors - an updated manual for training of supervisors at the Port Authority, and a
41 variety of other topics.

42
43 Dr. Lipoti holds numerous appointments to boards and councils. For instance, she
44 currently serves as Chair of the Committee on Public Information on Radiation Protection
45 and as Liaison to the American College of Radiology, as well as Liaison to the American
46 Association of Physicists in Medicine. She has served as Chairman of the Conference of

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

11
12 Dr. Lipoti has provided expert testimony on a variety of radiation-related topics.
13 She has provided comments on the revised oversight program for nuclear power plants,
14 and orphan source recovery, and licensee’s accountability programs before the U.S.
15 NRC. She has also provided comments to various Congressional committees and
16 subcommittees, such as comments on the Radon Disclosure and Awareness Act in a joint
17 hearing before the United States House of Representatives Subcommittee on
18 Transportation and Hazardous Materials and the Subcommittee on Health and the
19 Environment, and comments on the Indoor Radon Abatement Reauthorization Act of
20 1993 in a hearing before the U.S. Senate Committee in Environment and Public Works,
21 Subcommittee on Clean Air Nuclear Regulations.

22
23 Dr. Lipoti holds a Ph.D and M.S. in Environmental Science from Rutgers
24 University, and a B.S. in Environmental Science from Cook College in New Brunswick,
25 NJ.

26
27
28 **Dr. Gary M. Sandquist:**

29
30 Dr. Gary M. Sandquist is currently a Professor of Mechanical Engineering and
31 former Director of the Graduate Nuclear Engineering Program at the University of Utah.
32 Previously he was a Distinguished Visiting Professor in Physics and Civil and
33 Mechanical Engineering Departments at the U.S. Military Academy at West Point, where
34 he supported and trained Army personnel in Functional Area 52 activities (Nuclear
35 operations). He has a B.S. in Mechanical Engineering, M.S. in Engineering Science,
36 Ph.D. in Mechanical and Nuclear Engineering, MBA, was a Post Doctoral Fellow at
37 MIT, and served a Sabbatical at Ben Gurion University in Beer Sheva, Israel. He is a
38 Registered Professional Engineer in Utah and New York (Mechanical) and California
39 (Nuclear), a Board Certified Health Physicist, a Diplomate in Environmental Engineering,
40 a Certified Quality Auditor, and a retired U.S. Naval Reserve Commander with an
41 Intelligence Designator. The Reactor Supervisor and U.S. Nuclear Regulatory
42 Commission (NRC) Licensed Senior Reactor Operator for a TRIGA research reactor, he
43 served as a short mission expert in nuclear science and safeguards for the International
44 Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) and as Technical Training Director for the joint DOE,
45 EPA, DRI Community Radiation Monitoring Program at the Nevada Test Site. Dr.
46 Sandquist’s principal scientific interests include risk assessment; radiation transport,

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

10
11
12 **Dr. Richard J. Vetter**

13
14 Dr. Richard J. Vetter is Radiation Safety Officer for Mayo Clinic and Professor of
15 Biophysics in the Mayo College of Medicine in Rochester, Minnesota, and Director of
16 Safety for Mayo Foundation. His major areas of interest include biological effects and
17 dosimetry of ionizing and nonionizing radiation and public policy of radiation
18 applications. Dr. Vetter is certified by the American Board of Health Physics and the
19 American Board of Medical Physics. He is former Health Physics Society President and
20 has served as Editor-in-Chief of the Health Physics Journal, as well as the Board of
21 Directors of the Minnesota Safety Council. He currently serves as a member of the
22 National Council on Radiation Protection and Measurements Board of Directors and a
23 member of the Nuclear Regulatory Commission Advisory Committee on Medical Use of
24 Isotopes. He is a member of the American Association of Physicists in Medicine, the
25 Radiological Society of North America, the Society of Nuclear Medicine, the American
26 Academy of Health Physics, and the International Radiation Protection Association. He
27 has served in numerous capacities on the Mayo Clinic Activities, such as the Radiation
28 Safety Committee, the Mayo Foundation Radiation Safety Committee, the Safety
29 Council, and the Foundation Environmental Health and Safety Committee. He has
30 participated in a number of professional activities at the state level, such as the
31 Governor’s Task Force on Low Level Radioactive Waste. He is or has been a reviewer
32 for the American Council on Science and Health, the Health Physics Journal, Radiation
33 Research and numerous other publications. He is author or co-author of more than 200
34 publications in health physics and related areas. He received his B.S. and M.S. in
35 Biology from South Dakota State University in Brookings, SD and his Ph.D. in Health
36 Physics from Purdue University in West Lafayette, IN.

37
38
39 **Ms. Susan Wiltshire:**

40
41 Susan Wiltshire is a former Vice President of the consulting firm JK Research
42 Associates, Inc. Her areas of expertise include radioactive waste management, public
43 involvement in policy and technical decisions, and risk communication. She has planned
44 and facilitated citizen involvement, moderated multi-party discussions and assisted with
45 the peer review of technical projects and written and spoken extensively about the
46 public’s role in the formulation of public policy. Ms. Wiltshire’s wrote the 1993 version

1 of the League of Women Voters’ “A Nuclear Waste Primer,” the 1985 revision of which
2 she coauthored.

3

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

17

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