

1 The Review Panel discussed the flexibility of the placement of the deployable
2 monitors in response to different types of hypothetical events. A key question for the use
3 of the deployable monitors is whether or not the monitors could be systematically
4 deployed for “routine” monitoring to supplement the fixed monitors, thereby increasing
5 the utility of the deployables. The Review Panel agrees that use of the deployable
6 monitors for augmenting the fixed monitoring capability must not impact their
7 availability for an emergency or incident. The Review Panel questions whether the
8 correct mission for the deployables has been identified.

9
10 There does not appear to be a process in place for deriving optimal decision rules
11 for RadNet. Because a large volume of data will be collected during routine operation,
12 the Review Panel finds that there is a need for carefully tailored decision rules used to
13 test whether a particular set of data is above background.

14
15 The modes of data transmission from the field to the central database appear to be
16 satisfactory, with a variety of backup systems. The evaluation and interpretation of
17 RadNet data also involves other communication links that are critical to the process of
18 providing high-quality information to decision makers and other stakeholders. The
19 Review Panel found that NAREL’s plans for QA/QC were adequate. The Review Panel
20 fully supports the need for exercises that would test the standard operating procedures for
21 set up, siting, data transmission, data QA, data presentation, use of the data by incident
22 management, as well as message evaluation.

23
24 The Review Panel commends EPA for including stakeholders in the Agency’s
25 ongoing planning to aid in understanding the requirements and preferences of various
26 groups. EPA should consider developing sample messages with the aid of social science
27 experts for use during an emergency and testing those messages during disaster drills.

28
29 In summary, the SAB finds that the draft dated 2005 and entitled “*Expansion and*
30 *Upgrade of the RadNet Air Monitoring Network, Vol. 1 &2, Concept and Plan,*” is an
31 important document that details a critical step in the enhancement of our national security
32 through effective radiation monitoring and emergency response to radioactive releases.

33
34 The Review Panel appreciates the opportunity to review this draft document. We
35 hope that the recommendations contained herein will enable EPA to improve the RadNet
36 Air Monitoring Network and ensure its essential service to the public. We look forward
37 to your response to the recommendations contained in this Advisory, and in particular to
38 the items raised in this letter to you.

39
40 Sincerely,

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43 Dr. M. Granger Morgan
44 Chair
45 Science Advisory Board

43 Dr. Jill Lipoti
44 Chair, RAC RadNet Review Panel
45 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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Science Advisory Board (SAB)
Radiation Advisory Committee (RAC) RadNet Review Panel**

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1. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

RadNet is the United States’ only comprehensive network for monitoring radioactivity and ionizing radiation in the environment. 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. The Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) proposed to upgrade and expand the air monitoring component to address homeland security concerns, as well as to meet the original mission to provide information on nuclear or radiological accidents. When implementation is complete, RadNet will consist of 180 fixed monitors augmented by 40 deployable monitors with real-time monitoring capability. EPA’s Office of Radiation and Indoor Air (ORIA) requested that the Science Advisory Board review and provide advice on the expansion and upgrade of the RadNet air monitoring network.

The Review Panel believes, in general, that the proposed expansions and upgrades significantly enhance the ability of the RadNet monitoring network to meet the mission and objectives of the EPA. However, the Review Panel presents a somewhat different view with respect to the roles of the fixed and deployable monitors in routine and emergency operations.

For routine monitoring, EPA views the fixed monitor network as establishing baseline values; the Panel agrees with this view. The major benefit of the expansion and upgrade plan is the addition of up to 180 monitoring sites. Since acquisition of 180 fixed monitors is not projected until 2012, the Review Panel recommends that the EPA consider placing some of the deployable monitors temporarily in the locations chosen for the fixed monitors to fill in geographic sampling gaps and provide more regional baseline data. In the event of an emergency, EPA anticipates that the fixed monitor network would mainly be used to reassure people in population centers that are not impacted, so EPA placed fixed monitors in high population centers, with only a secondary concern for broad geographic coverage. The Review Panel strongly believes that in an emergency situation, the output of modeling is significantly more useful and important than the output of individual monitors. Therefore, the Review Panel recommends aggressive declustering of the fixed monitors guided by modeling requirements, to gain greater geographical coverage for interstate-scale monitoring.

Because both the fixed and deployable sampling monitors will be used to provide important information to decision makers, it is imperative that both the similarities and differences between these two monitoring systems be understood and quantified so that interpretation of the resulting data will be of high quality and consistency. The Review Panel recommends that issues related to potential sampling biases in the fixed monitor be evaluated. The EPA should examine whether near real-time gamma exposure measurement capability should be added to the fixed monitors as is present on the deployable monitors. Consideration of cross-calibration using a series of different energy gamma emitters or against a pressurized ion chamber would add to the EPA’s understanding of the performance of the monitors. The Review Panel suggests that the

1 EPA perfect the capability to distinguish among alpha emitters because that may be
2 important in assessing potential terrorist activities, as well as distinguishing alpha
3 emissions of naturally occurring radon progeny.
4

5 The Review Panel recommends that the EPA create a simple table of nCi values
6 for radionuclides deposited on the filter that correspond to the selected limit on intake
7 related to Protective Action Guidelines (PAGs). This would confirm that the Minimum
8 Detectable Activity (MDA) is suitably lower than the PAG to permit reliable
9 measurement results, but not so sensitive so as to produce very high readings from very
10 low exposure levels. Calculation of the MDA should be inserted into the EPA report
11 including a calculation of the standard deviation with counts and background counts
12 tabulated for each region of interest.
13

14 The Review Panel believes that, in general, the proposed EPA approach for siting
15 fixed and deployable monitors significantly enhances the ability of the RadNet
16 monitoring network to meet mission objectives. Nevertheless, the Review Panel is
17 concerned about the interplay and use of deployable vs. fixed monitors. The Review
18 Panel believes that there should be a better balance and interplay between physical
19 deployment schemes and modeling requirements for effective environmental assessment,
20 data interpretation and decision-making.
21

22 The Review Panel provided some guidance to the EPA for determining the
23 locations of the fixed monitors involving the use of model constraints and meteorological
24 forecast predictions. The Review Panel’s concern with under representation of the fixed
25 monitors in low population areas was compounded by the concern that due to limited
26 resources, the number of fixed monitors may be less than 180. The Review Panel
27 suggests leveraging additional monitoring stations by working with other existing
28 systems such as those in individual States and around nuclear power plants. The Review
29 Panel suggests that there should be a mechanism established for entities, such as States or
30 cities, who wish to use their own funding to purchase stations and who agree to comply
31 with EPA standards, to become full-fledged “members” of the network. Coordination
32 with Canadian and Mexican authorities for coverage near the northern and southern
33 borders of the U.S. is also needed.
34

35 The Review Panel strongly encourages that EPA optimize the fixed monitor siting
36 plan by integrating the results of several models and performing several sensitivity
37 analyses for different numbers of fixed monitors, siting density, and geometry of
38 distribution. The actual physical location of the monitors can then be determined based
39 on such practical considerations as access to electrical power, security, and availability of
40 appropriate volunteers to maintain the system.
41

42 The Review Panel discussed the flexibility of the placement of the deployable
43 monitors in response to different types of hypothetical events. A key question for the use
44 of the deployable monitors is whether or not the monitors could be systematically
45 deployed for “routine” monitoring to supplement the fixed monitors, thereby increasing
46 the utility of the deployables. The Review Panel agrees that use of the deployable

1 monitors for augmenting the fixed monitoring capability must not adversely impact the
2 availability of the deployables if an emergency occurred. In view of the possibility the
3 EPA would be requested to pre-deploy its deployable air monitors, the criteria for pre-
4 deployment should be carefully established.

5
6 The EPA envisions using volunteers to deploy the monitors in an emergency
7 situation. The Review Panel expressed concern about the training for these volunteers,
8 and the availability of these untrained individuals in a situation where there may be risks
9 to their personal safety. EPA must identify a sufficient cadre of cross-trained key
10 personnel and appropriately trained volunteers to implement a response in the event that
11 the core groups are not available.

12
13 The RadNet siting plan provides flexibility for placing deployable monitors for
14 different types of events; however, the role of the deployables is not totally clear. Are the
15 deployables limited to monitoring the edge of a deposition area? Are they available to
16 provide assurance to populated areas not covered by fixed monitors? Since decision-
17 makers will be looking for more data on impacted areas, should monitoring stations that
18 can transmit data without exposure to personnel (except to change filters) be used? The
19 Review Panel suggests that EPA consider whether the correct mission for the deployables
20 has been identified. The effective interplay between the fixed and deployable monitors is
21 dependent on clarification of the respective roles.

22
23 The Review Panel had suggestions on data management. Data that will be
24 collected includes approximately 35,000 data points per day from the fixed stations alone
25 and related only to radionuclide levels. It is important that these data be used for rapid
26 identification of elevated levels, while avoiding false positives that misdirect concern.
27 The approach and frequency of data collection of near real time data appears to be
28 reasonable for deciding during an emergency that an area is not likely to be affected by a
29 particular event.

30
31 There does not appear to be a process in place for deriving optimal decision rules
32 for RadNet. Careful development of decision rules will require collaboration among all
33 agencies involved in radiological emergency response. Because a large volume of data
34 will be collected in routine operation, careful thought needs to be given to the types of
35 decision rules used to test whether a particular set of data represents an increase above
36 background. The optimization of decision rules should also take into account the number
37 of monitors and their physical locations, which means the rules have to change over time
38 as the RadNet system is expanded.

39
40 The modes of data transmission from the field to the central database appear to be
41 satisfactory. There are a variety of backup systems for communicating data including
42 modem backup to the satellite telemetry. The Review Panel recommended that ORIA
43 keep abreast of improvements in the technology as well as other factors that may have a
44 detrimental or beneficial effect.

1 The evaluation and interpretation of RadNet data also involves other
2 communication links that are critical to the process of providing high-quality information
3 to decision makers and other stakeholders. Since the field stations, NAREL, IMAAC,
4 and all of the agencies at FRMAC are part of the communication system that provides
5 information to the public in an emergency, there is also a need to consider the
6 communication links among these nodes as well.

7
8 Since the Review Panel proposed a revised mission for the deployable monitors, it
9 may be necessary to have a direct read-out of radiation levels on the monitor itself, rather
10 than relying on the download of local dose rate to a PDA.

11
12 The Review Panel found that NAREL’s plans for QA/QC were adequate, but
13 notes that the standard operating procedures should be in place and accompany all of the
14 QA/QC plans to ensure that the data are handled reproducibly prior to any release and
15 that information from the system is accurate and reliable. The Review Panel fully
16 supported the need for exercises that would test the standard operating procedures for set-
17 up, siting, data transmission, data QA, data presentation, use of data by incident
18 management, as well as message evaluation.

19
20 The Review Panel commends EPA for including stakeholders in the Agency’s
21 ongoing planning to aid in understanding the requirements and preferences of various
22 “customer” groups such as modelers, decision makers, and the public. EPA should
23 consider developing sample messages with the aid of social science experts for use
24 during an emergency and testing those messages during disaster drills. Information on
25 background radiation and its variability also needs to be communicated to the public
26 relative to the changes measured by RadNet. Care should be taken to avoid the
27 estimation of the number of excess cancers in large populations exposed to very low
28 doses of radiation.

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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 radioactive material to the nation’s environment.

EPA’s plan proposes additional and updated air monitoring equipment and more monitoring stations, that 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’s predecessor (ERAMS) 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 (U.S. EPA SAB. 1996.). 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 (U.S. EPA SAB. 1998.).

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 (**References? - - - KJK**). 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; 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 its 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. As a result, the design team decided to concentrate on the air
2 monitoring portion of RadNet, and elected to have a series of deployable monitors that
3 could be positioned in an emergency to augment the fixed monitors positioned in
4 predetermined locations and to 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 their 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 National Air and Radiation Environmental Laboratory (NAREL) in
20 Montgomery, Alabama. A set of 40 deployable monitors has been acquired, 20 of which
21 have been delivered to each of ORIA’s labs in Montgomery and Las Vegas. The
22 information technology infrastructure is in place for handling real-time data.
23

24 The next steps include determining the national siting plan (where to put the fixed
25 monitors), how to distribute and operate the deployables under emergency conditions,
26 and the best protocols for dissemination of verified RadNet data during emergencies.
27 EPA plans to acquire and deploy the fixed monitors at the rate of five (5) per month.
28 EPA requested that the Science Advisory Board’s (SAB) Radiation Advisory Committee
29 (RAC) provide input for these next steps.
30
31

32 **2.1.1 Request for EPA Science Advisory Board (SAB) Review**

33

34 The EPA Office of Radiation and Indoor Air (ORIA) requested the SAB to
35 provide advice on the National Monitoring System (NMS) upgrade, formerly known as
36 the Environmental Radiation Ambient Monitoring System (ERAMS). The Radiation
37 Advisory Committee (RAC) held a public conference call meeting on February 28, 2005
38 to receive briefings from ORIA about this request, to receive public comments and to
39 discuss its plan for the coming year (see FR, Vol. 70, No. 19, January 31, 2005, pp.
40 4847-4848).
41
42

43 **2.1.2 Panel Formation**

44

45 The Review Panel (Radiation Advisory Committee’s (RAC) RadNet Review
46 Panel) was formed in accordance with the principles set out in the 2002 commentary of

1 the SAB, *Panel Formation Process: Immediate Steps to Improve Policies and*
2 *Procedures: An SAB Commentary* (U.S. EPA SAB. 2002). A notice offering the public
3 the opportunity to nominate qualified individuals for service on the Review Panel was
4 published, where the SAB Staff Office requested nominations of experts to augment
5 expertise to the SAB’s Radiation Advisory Committee (RAC) for SAB review of
6 RadNet’s air radiation network, a nationwide system to track environmental radiation
7 (see *FR*, Vol. 70, No. 56, March 24, 2005, pp. 15083-15084).

8
9 The SAB Staff Office Director, in consultation with SAB Staff, including the
10 Designated Federal Officer (DFO), the SAB Ethics Advisor, and the Chair of the SAB’s
11 Chartered Board, selected the final Review Panel. Selection criteria included: excellent
12 qualifications in terms of scientific and technical expertise; the need to maintain a
13 balance with respect to qualifying expertise, background and perspectives, willingness to
14 serve and availability to meet during the proposed time periods, and the candidate’s prior
15 involvement with the topic under consideration. The final Review Panel includes persons
16 with expertise in instrumentation, statistics, modeling, risk assessment, or risk
17 communication as advertised in the *Federal Register*. The Review Panel members, in
18 addition to having new persons to serve, also include individuals who are experienced
19 SAB consultants familiar with the Agency. The final panel determination memo was
20 signed on November 22, 2005 and posted prior to the December 1, 2005 conference call
21 meeting of the Review Panel.

22 23 24 **2.1.3 Panel Review Process and Review Documents**

25
26 The RAC’s RadNet Review Panel first met via conference call on December 1,
27 2005 to be briefed by the Agency staff on the draft document to be reviewed, to clarify
28 the charge to the Review Panel, and to assign specific charge questions to the individual
29 Panelists in preparation for the face-to-face meeting. The actual face-to-face meeting of
30 the RAC’s RadNet Review Panel to conduct a peer review of the Agency’s draft
31 document entitled “*Expansion and Upgrade of the RadNet Air Monitoring Network,*
32 *Vols. 1 & 2 Concept and Plan,*” dated October, 2005 (U.S. EPA ORIA. 2005.) was held
33 on December 19 and 20, 2005 in the Agency’s NAREL in Montgomery, AL where many
34 of the Agency ORIA Staff implementing and managing RadNet are housed (see *FR*, Vol.
35 70, No. 220, November 16, 2005, pp. 69550-69551).

36
37 The RAC’s RadNet Review Panel scheduled three (3) additional public
38 conference calls to reach closure on their draft report in critique of the Agency’s RadNet
39 draft document dated October, 2005. The meetings were held on March 20, 2006, April
40 10, 2006, and June 12, 2006. (see *FR*, Vol. 71, No. 40, March 1, 2006, pp. 10501-
41 10502). The March 20, 2006 meeting focused on the responses to charge questions 1 and
42 2. The April 10, 2006 meeting focused on reducing redundancy in the report, and the
43 response to charge question 3. During the interval between the April 10 meeting and
44 June 12, 2006, the executive summary and letter to the administrator were drafted, so that
45 the June meeting could focus on making sure the Review Panel had reached consensus on
46 the issues of most importance.

1
2
3 **2.2 Charge to the RAC RadNet Review Panel**
4

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

10
11 **Charge Question 1:** *Are the proposed upgrades and expansion of the RadNet air*
12 *monitoring network reasonable in meeting the air network’s objectives?*

13
14 **Charge Question 2:** *Is the overall approach for siting monitors appropriate and*
15 *reasonable given the upgraded and expanded system’s objectives?*

16
17 2a) *Is the methodology for determining the locations of the fixed monitors*
18 *appropriate given the intended uses of the data and the system’s objectives?*

19
20 2b) *Are the criteria for the local siting of the fixed monitors reasonable given the*
21 *need to address both technical and practical issues?*

22
23 2c) *Does the plan provide sufficient flexibility for placing the deployable monitors*
24 *to accommodate different types of events?*

25
26 2d) *Does the plan provide for a practical interplay between the fixed and*
27 *deployable monitors to accommodate the different types of events that would*
28 *utilize them?*

29
30 **Charge Question 3:** *Given that the system will be producing near real-time data, are the*
31 *overall proposals for data management appropriate to the system’s objectives?*

32
33 3a) *Is the approach and frequency of data collection for the near real-time data*
34 *reasonable for routine and emergency conditions?*

35
36 3b) *Do the modes of data transmission from the field to the central database*
37 *include effective and necessary options?*

38
39 3c) *Are the review and evaluation of data efficient and effective considering the*
40 *decision making and public information needs during an emergency?*

41
42 3d) *Given the selected measurements systems are the quality assurance and*
43 *control procedures appropriate for near real-time data?*
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2.3 Acknowledgement and Overview

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

The Review Panel wishes to commend ORIA on the planning that went into this meeting. The document “*Expansion and Upgrade of the RadNet Air Monitoring Network (Volume 1&2) Concept and Plan,*” 2005 was well written and provided much needed background to the RAC’s RadNet Review Panelists. During the meeting, the staff worked hard to augment this excellent document with additional pieces of information that the Review Panelists felt were necessary to assist with the review. The staff took extreme care to honor all the Review Panel’s requests and demonstrated their patience as Review Panel members struggled to understand all that went into the decisions on equipment, siting and deployment strategies, and anticipated data uses.

1 be needed in response to a major airborne release of radionuclides. It is planned that the
2 deployable monitors will be used to expand the sampling network of interest around the
3 site of a known airborne release. As discussed below, deployable monitors could also be
4 used routinely in the near future to expand the fixed station network until more fixed
5 sampling monitors can be obtained.

6
7 The objectives associated with the interplay of fixed and deployable monitors are
8 specific to the two basic operational scenarios: a) “routine” and b) “emergency” (i.e., a
9 radiological ‘incident,’ whether accidental or intentional). In practice, the necessary
10 monitoring data to characterize the radioactivity/radiation ‘environment’ in these two
11 scenarios exist at multiple levels of scale or “resolution.” For the sake of simplicity, the
12 Review Panel identifies three scales: national- or interstate-scale (multi-state; 100s to
13 1000s mile radius), regional-scale (10s to 100s of mile radius), and local-scale (1-10 mile
14 radius).

- 15
16 a) “Routine” monitoring is predominately an interstate-scale activity. Of major
17 importance, in routine monitoring, the measurements from individual
18 monitors are intrinsically useful, and represent the primary data of interest.
19 The purpose of this monitoring is to characterize, on an on-going basis, the
20 ambient radiation environment in space and time. For this purpose, air
21 monitoring needs to be supplemented with other existing RadNet-based media
22 sampling, including water and milk sampling. Routine monitoring is not
23 expected to provide the first indication of a radiological event.
24
25 b) “Emergency” monitoring requires data inputs at all three scales. Interstate-
26 and regional-scale data are used to track transport of major releases, typically
27 from nuclear power plant accidents, the detonation(s) of improvised nuclear
28 device(s) (rather than from a Radiological Dispersion Device, RDD). Local-
29 scale data are most relevant for smaller RDD events, and help determine
30 evacuation vs. shelter-in-place decisions. However, in addition, EPA should
31 address the pros and cons of “routinely” pre-deploying the monitors to places
32 where intelligence information suggests that they may be needed (e.g., Times
33 Square NYC during New Year’s eve, Super Bowl game, World Series,
34 Olympics, Mardi Gras). For such decision-making, real-time data are critical
35 and deployable monitors must be well integrated with fixed Networks in terms
36 of data integration and immediate availability to the key decision making
37 agencies, FRMAC and the end user, IMAAC, which generates the plume
38 projections. For small events the best interplay between monitor types would
39 factor in all of the monitors in the Nation in spite of data quality variability,
40 for state, local, utility, DOE and others.

41
42
43 In the event of an emergency, EPA anticipates that the fixed monitor network
44 would mainly be used to reassure people in population centers that are not expected to be
45 impacted by the event that no protective action is warranted. That is, EPA views the
46 measurements from individual monitors as the primary data of interest in an emergency,

1 as they do for routine monitoring. As a result, EPA’s fixed monitor siting approach
2 primarily focuses on adequate population coverage, by placing fixed monitors in high
3 population centers, with only a secondary concern for broad and uniform area or
4 geographic coverage. The Review Panel views things differently. The Review Panel
5 strongly believes that, in an emergency situation, the output of modeling is significantly
6 more useful and important than the output of individual monitors; this situation is
7 strikingly different from the case for routine monitoring.

8
9 In the event of an emergency, EPA anticipates deploying the deployable monitors
10 locally (and perhaps regionally) around the event site, so that deployable monitor
11 measurements can be rapidly used to complement measurements from the fixed monitors.
12 The Review Panel agrees that the deployable monitors (if appropriately deployed in an
13 emergency) can provide regional trends, but believes it is unrealistic to think that the
14 deployables can be sited with enough sampling density to provide useful local level data.
15 Local scale data will be provided by portable monitors representing local, state, and other
16 assets.

17
18 For routine monitoring, EPA views the fixed monitor network, and the deployable
19 monitors (if pre-deployed), as establishing baseline values; the Review Panel agrees with
20 this view. In this regard, the major benefit of the expansion and upgrade plan is the
21 addition of up to 180 monitoring sites. Here, the fixed monitors will provide large-scale
22 data; the deployable monitors can (if appropriately pre-deployed) fill in geographic
23 sampling gaps and provide more regional baseline data (if some clustering of the
24 deployables is possible).

25
26 Because of the Review Panel’s view of the central importance of modeling in an
27 emergency (a view that possibly differs from that of EPA), the geographic distribution of
28 the fixed and deployable monitors (the “sampling” as input data to the model) becomes
29 critical. Accordingly, some of the Review Panel’s strongest recommendations below
30 deal with more aggressive declustering of the fixed monitors and pre-deployment of the
31 deployable monitors. As noted above, these recommendations stem from an intrinsically
32 different view of the use of data from the fixed and deployable monitors, in both routine
33 and emergency situations.

34
35 **The Review Panel recommends aggressive declustering of the fixed monitors**
36 **to gain greater geographical coverage for interstate-scale monitoring. The Review**
37 **Panel further recommends that EPA consider placing some of the deployable**
38 **monitors temporarily in the locations chosen for the fixed monitors to bridge the**
39 **time interval until the fixed monitors are purchased and deployed.**

40 41 42 **3.2 Issues with the Monitors Themselves**

43
44 Because of timing and resource issues, there are some differences in the design
45 and operation of the fixed and deployable types of monitors selected by ORIA. The
46 design of the deployable monitors was in response to the fires at Hanford and Los

1 Alamos (A reference(s) would be helpful here - - - KJK). Procurement of these monitors
2 began before the conceptual design of the fixed monitors was complete. Additionally,
3 practical considerations dictated that the deployable monitors be sturdy enough to
4 withstand damage from repeated shipping and handling.

5
6 Both types of monitors are capable of sampling air at high volumetric rates (35-75
7 m³/hr) through a 4"-dia. filter. The fixed stations use a polyester filter, while the
8 deployable monitors use a glass fiber filter. The deployable monitor also has a second
9 sampling head operated at a lower sampling rate (0.8-7 m³/hr) utilizing a charcoal filter
10 suitable for sampling radioactive gases, including I-131. The sampling heads are located
11 in different places in the two types of monitors. The two sampling heads on the
12 deployable monitors are located on extensions several feet above the system's equipment
13 enclosure, whereas the sampling head in the fixed monitor is located in the top portion of
14 the system's enclosure along with two radiation detectors that provide periodic in-place
15 measurements of the accumulation of radionuclides on the filter medium. These
16 detectors are a 2"x2" sodium iodide (NaI) detector to measure gamma emissions and a
17 600 mm² ion-implanted silicon detector to measure alpha and beta emissions from
18 radionuclides on the filter sample periodically during the sampling cycle. These radiation
19 measurements can be transmitted via satellite to NAREL for analysis and storage.

20
21 The deployable monitor has no built-in capability for monitoring either the high
22 volume or low-volume filters in place, so the filters must be counted and analyzed at
23 NAREL or in a mobile laboratory brought near the area of interest. Another difference
24 between the deployable and fixed monitors is the ability of the deployable monitors to
25 provide measurements of the external gamma radiation field at the sampling site.
26 Measurements from two compensated Geiger-Mueller (GM) detectors also can be
27 transmitted to NAREL via satellite. The fixed monitor has no comparable capability for
28 quantifying external photon radiation fields.

29
30 **Because both the fixed and deployable monitors will be used to provide**
31 **important information to decision makers, it is imperative that both the similarities**
32 **and differences between these two monitoring systems be understood and quantified**
33 **so that interpretation of the resulting data will be of high quality and**
34 **consistency.** (For further discussion see Section 4.5.)

35 36 37 **3.3 Potential Sampling Biases in the Fixed Air Monitor**

38
39 The configuration of the detector and filter in the fixed air sampler may result in
40 bias in collection of larger particles due to impaction on the detector or associated support
41 surfaces. The EPA report should include a figure that shows, with dimensions, the
42 locations of the two detectors relative to the filter and indicates the expected airflow
43 path. **The impact of this geometrical arrangement on the deposition of airborne**
44 **particles should be evaluated by an experienced professional using laboratory or**
45 **field tests that address, among other questions:**
46

- 1 • Is particle deposition on the filter uniform across the filter?
- 2
- 3 • Does a significant fraction of particles deposit on the surfaces of the two detectors
- 4 to contaminate them?
- 5
- 6 • Are there sampling biases related to different particle-size regions?
- 7

8 While large particles (greater than 10 μm Activity Median Aerodynamic Diameter
9 (AMAD)) may not be of biological significance with regard to inhalation by humans,
10 they may be of concern for ingestion of swallowed particles and in evaluating the
11 potential for soil and surface water impacts. Also, depending on the type of incident that
12 results in generation of air particulates, NAREL should consider whether “hot particles”
13 might be in the larger size range and thus would not be collected on the filter in
14 proportion to their presence in the airborne material.

15
16 **The currently designed instruments have not been tested for the collection**
17 **efficiency of airborne particulates as a function of the wind speed and direction at**
18 **which they arrive at the sampler. The sampling efficiency versus particle size might**
19 **also be impacted and should be tested.** A wind tunnel would be a good place to
20 conduct such tests. It is better to know these characteristics now, than to learn that there
21 might be a problem later. This seems to be particularly critical for the new fixed
22 samplers where local siting criteria include, but are not limited to, allowing the sampler to
23 be located no closer than 2 meters from walls, 5 meters from building ventilation
24 exhausts and intakes, 20 meters from a tree drip line, and 50 meters from streets and
25 highways. All of these factors can impact the representativeness of the measurements to
26 ambient air.

27
28 One of the arguments for large particles not being of major concern for RadNet is
29 the expectation that an event that results in airborne dust generation will occur at a
30 considerable distance from the sampler. Thus, the large particles would fall out before
31 the plume reached the detector. This would be true for most of the fixed samplers for a
32 single event, but not for the fixed samplers that are located in the population centers
33 where the probability of a terrorist incident involving release of radioactive material is
34 the greatest. A sampler in the vicinity of the incident is of primary importance in such a
35 case and should be capable of representative sampling of airborne dust.

38 **3.4 Measurement of External Photon Radiation Fields**

39

40 The deployable monitors use GM detectors to provide near real-time data on
41 gamma exposure rates, but no similar measurements can currently be made with the fixed
42 monitors. **If it is assumed that the near real-time collection of these gamma exposure**
43 **measurements is an important function of the deployable monitors, then**
44 **consideration should be given to making similar gamma exposure measurements on**
45 **the fixed monitors as well.** The NaI detectors on the fixed monitors can also be used as

1 dosimeters by weighting each of the recorded regions of interest for energy response and
2 summing the result. This capability should be further explored.

3
4 Certain quality assurance efforts are needed for the radiation exposure data
5 collected by the GM detectors with the deployable monitors. These data may contribute
6 significantly to the evaluation of a radiological incident and need to be accurate and
7 credible. The following aspects should be considered:

- 8
9 a) Results are reported (on p.60) to be accurate within 15% at the low end of the
10 scale at 2 μ R/h, and 10% at the high end of 1 R/h. Is this information certified by
11 the manufacturer? In any case, EPA should test reliability initially and at intervals
12 for selected monitors by comparison to a direct exposure-rate detector such as a
13 pressurized ionization chamber (PIC).
14
15 b) The instruments are reported to have been calibrated with Cs-137 and to have an
16 energy response within 20% between 60 keV and 1,000 keV. Does the
17 manufacturer certify this information? EPA should test instruments for energy
18 dependence by exposing selected detectors to point or extended sources. For
19 example, radionuclides may be selected that emit single gamma rays of
20 approximately 30, 60, 120, 300, 600, and 1,200 keV, of which one should be Cs-
21 137 at 661 keV. Such sets also can be used for intercomparison with monitors by
22 cooperating organizations, such as state agencies.
23
24 c) QC considerations for exposure-rate measurements, discussed on p.90, should
25 include specific actions such as the ones suggested above.
26
27 d) The international unit equivalent (SI) to 1 roentgen (R) is 2.58×10^{-4} C/kg dry air,
28 not 10 mSv, as shown on p.60. The decision to convert R to mSv should be left to
29 the organization responsible for estimating radiation dose.
30

31 While Cs-137 may be an important gamma-emitting radionuclide in the event of a
32 nuclear incident, Co-60 – with gamma photons twice the energy of the Cs-137 photons –
33 may be of equal or greater importance for a “dirty bomb” event. It is also important to
34 note that the GM detector response to scattered Cs-137 gamma radiation may be different
35 from the response to the unattenuated Cs-137 radiation. **While it might be impractical
36 to cross-calibrate each deployable system against a PIC, NAREL should consider
37 cross-calibrating the prototype using a series of different energy gamma emitters,
38 including naturally occurring thorium with its relatively high energy gamma Th-208
39 decay product and uranium with its lower average energy decay products.**
40

41 While the Review Panel understands that the GM detectors are energy
42 compensated, cross-calibration would afford a degree of assurance that the GM detectors
43 are accurately measuring exposure when a variety of different gamma energies are
44 present. Said another way, the EPA report should address the following aspects of
45 detector response:

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

6 The use of the radiation measurement units sievert (Sv) and rem for the output of
7 the GM detectors is somewhat misleading since a GM detector measures counts per unit
8 time. With appropriate cross-calibration against a PIC, the output could be converted to
9 roentgens. However, if the units Sv and rem are being used in the sense that they
10 represent effective dose, the one-to-one ratio of roentgen to rem may not be appropriate.
11 The conversion from exposure in roentgen to effective dose in Sv or rem depends on both
12 the receptor (e.g., adult or child) and the energy of the gamma radiation. **The Review**
13 **Panel recommends the use of roentgens.** (Further discussion on this issue is in Section
14 5.4.5 regarding communication of results to the public.)
15
16

17 **3.5 Measurements of Alpha Emitters at Fixed Monitors**

18
19 The description of major components of the fixed air monitoring stations on p.25
20 of the EPA report includes "Instruments for measuring gamma and beta radiation
21 emanating from particles collected on the air filter media." Measurements of alpha
22 emissions are not mentioned on p. 25, but the detailed specification sheet provided
23 mentions the capability to measure both low and high energy alpha particles. During the
24 December 19-21, 2005 meeting, ORIA staff told the Review Panel that a complicated
25 algorithm is needed to distinguish alpha emissions measured in the fixed monitor from
26 the measurements of alpha emissions of naturally-occurring radon (Rn) progeny. **It is**
27 **important that this capability be perfected because other alpha emitters besides**
28 **Am-241 may become important in assessing potential terrorist activities.**
29

30 **3.6 Need for Numerical Clarity and Transparency**

31 **3.6.1 Value of the Protective Action Guide (PAG)**

32
33 In the EPA report the PAG is stated to be the committed effective dose equivalent
34 (CEDE) of 1 rem that results from inhaling a specified radionuclide continuously during
35 a 4- day period (p.24, para. 5). The measurement requirements, including the minimum
36 detectable activity (MDA) for selected radionuclides specified in the EPA report, are
37 related to this value.
38

39 While the instruments provide the output in roentgens (R), it is expected that EPA
40 will do the necessary conversion to provide the information in rem to the decision-makers
41 so that they can compare it to the PAG. The Review Panel was not asked to comment on

1 the appropriateness of the PAG, however, it is necessary to point out that the assumptions
2 for conversion from R to rem should be explicit in the documentation so that the
3 conversion can be replicated at a later time.

6 **3.6.2 Relation of the EPA-specified MDA Value to the PAG for Fixed Monitor**

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

15 **The EPA report should include the nCi value on the filter that corresponds**
16 **to the selected limit on intake related to the PAG (see part A) for each of the 8**
17 **radionuclides. The purpose is to confirm that the MDA is (1) suitably lower than**
18 **specified by the PAG to permit reliable measurement results, and (2) not**
19 **unreasonably low compared to the PAG, e.g. not so sensitive that very high readings**
20 **will be produced by very low exposure levels.**

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

32 **3.6.3 Calculation of the MDA Values for the Fixed Monitor**

34 Calculation of the MDA for radionuclides detected by the NaI(Tl) detector is
35 addressed in a separate document, “MDA for the EPA’s fixed RadNet monitors”, WSRC-
36 TR-2005-00527 (12/16/05) that was distributed at the meeting. The value of the MDA is
37 related to the standard deviation, δ , by $MDA = (2.8 + 4.65 \delta)/\text{constant}$.

39 The constant relates counts accumulated for this study in 10 minutes to nCi.
40 Values of δ were obtained by measuring the counts recorded with the detector in the
41 regions of interest for various radionuclide standards and obtaining the counting
42 efficiency for these measurements. The Westinghouse Savannah River Company (WSRC)
43 report notes that the calculation of δ is more complex than shown if background peaks
44 intrude on the regions of interest for a radionuclide, as is the case of radon progeny
45 intruding on Am-241 and Cs-137. The radon-progeny background on filters is stated in
46 the EPA report to fluctuate from 0.3 to 30 nCi (p.26, para.6). The calculated MDA

1 values based on measurements that do not include radon-progeny fluctuation range from
2 12.3 to 1.1 nCi for the 7 radionuclides. The MDA value for Am-241 is above the
3 specified MDA for the 10-min count but equals it for the expected 60-min count; the
4 MDA for each of the other radionuclides is 1 – 3 orders of magnitude below the EPA-
5 specified MDA value.

6
7 **The calculated MDA values reported in the WSRC report should be inserted**
8 **into the EPA report with an explanation of the reasons for the much larger EPA-**
9 **specified MDA values (p.27, para. 1), except for Am-241.** If one reason is the
10 indicated radon-progeny fluctuation, the extent of increase in MDA values over those
11 calculated in the WSRC report should be tested in a field study. Relative to the EPA-
12 specified MDA values, however, the fluctuation appears to be significant only for Am-
13 241.

14
15 **Before inserting the WSRC data in the EPA report, some improvements in**
16 **the WSRC report are recommended.** Calculation of Σ should be explicitly shown,
17 with counts and background counts tabulated for each region of interest. Apparent errors
18 made in the sample calculation for Cs-137 should be corrected in calculations of
19 MDA(cps), MDA(dps), and MDA(nCi).

20
21 The MDA calculation for Sr-90 measured by the silicon detector should be shown
22 for the direct beta-particle count and counter background, and for the influence of radon-
23 progeny fluctuation. Any difference between these values and the EPA-specified MDA
24 should be explained.

25
26 **The implications of the change in the thickness (from thick to thin) of the**
27 **silicon-detector window reported by EPA staff at the meeting should be discussed in**
28 **the EPA report.** If the alpha-particle spectra that now can be measured are useful to
29 compensate for radon-progeny fluctuations, the appropriate calculations and test results
30 should be presented. Conversely, any detrimental effects of cross talk on Sr-90 counting
31 sensitivity should be reported.

32
33

1
2 **4. RESPONSE TO CHARGE QUESTION 2: OVERALL**
3 **APPROACH FOR SITING MONITORS**
4
5

6 **4.1 Response to Charge Question # 2**
7

8 *Is the overall approach for siting monitors appropriate and reasonable given the*
9 *upgraded and expanded system’s objectives?*
10

11 **The Review Panel believes that, in general, the proposed EPA approach for**
12 **siting fixed and deployable monitors significantly enhances the ability of the RadNet**
13 **monitoring network to meet mission objectives. Nevertheless, the Review Panel is**
14 **concerned about a number of specific implementation issues and underlying**
15 **assumptions that are detailed below.**
16

17 Given the limited resources, there are difficulties in designing the siting plan
18 stemming from two seemingly contradictory drivers: a plan based on population density
19 vs. one based on geographic location. The siting plan proposed is therefore the result of a
20 compromise between monitoring people and spanning the nation, or between socio-
21 political considerations and EPA mission requirements. This apparent discrepancy is
22 reflected in the dichotomy between the stated RadNet objectives in the context of EPA
23 responsibilities and the interplay and use of deployable vs. fixed monitors. It is the view
24 of the Review Panel that this results in a lack of clarity in the usage of deployable
25 monitors.
26

27 For the purpose of clarifying key underlying assumptions the following questions
28 must be addressed:
29

- 30 a) What decision-making processes and prioritizations are used to
31 accommodate different types of events from long term monitoring
32 deficiencies to the response to catastrophic incidents?
33
34 b) Are the objectives for the usage of deployable monitors strictly identical to
35 those for the fixed monitors?
36

37 Given that any emergency response plan or EPA decision based on RadNet will
38 depend on analyses from models that integrate data from a wide range of sources, it is
39 essential that the RadNet network be optimized in terms of these models. These process-
40 oriented environmental models are typically underdetermined as they contain more
41 uncertain parameters than the state variables available to them for calibration. **Therefore**
42 **the Review Panel strongly advocates the use of sensitivity analyses in the siting of**
43 **monitors (both fixed and deployable). This represents an effective and necessary**
44 **step to optimize the value of collected monitoring data to the decision makers.**
45
46

1
2
3 **4.1.1 Population-based vs. Geographic-based Siting**
4

5 Although the siting plan is not intended to monitor a city-based incident, it has
6 been designed to accommodate one monitor per major city. For populated Western and
7 Eastern coastline areas this results in an anomalously high density of fixed monitors at
8 the expense of other regions, notably the US-Canadian border, Central Northern United
9 States, Central and Eastern Nevada and Eastern Oregon. Some of these concerns could
10 be addressed by including monitoring results from other agencies (such as that performed
11 in Nevada) or through cooperation with the Canadian authorities. **The Review Panel**
12 **believes that there should be a better balance and interplay between physical**
13 **deployment schemes and modeling requirements for effective environmental**
14 **assessment, data interpretation and decision making.**

15
16 Based on these considerations and the limited resources currently available, **the**
17 **Review Panel suggests that:**

- 18
19 a) **A more aggressive declustering of fixed monitors should be considered**
20 **initially, particularly in the vicinity of the Los Angeles and New York**
21 **metropolitan areas, and that local and regional meteorological models be**
22 **used along with other considerations, to reduce the density and redistribute**
23 **fixed monitors.**
24
25 b) **Model sensitivity analyses should be performed on siting configurations and**
26 **distribution densities so as to meet EPA goals and optimize the placement of**
27 **fixed monitoring stations in terms of the limited resources available.**
28

29 This approach will result in better geographic coverage consistent with the
30 primary decisions for siting a ‘receptor-based system’ with a focus on national impact.
31 This approach will also provide more flexibility to adapt to limited resources and the
32 deployment of fewer fixed monitors than the 180 currently planned.
33

34
35 **4.1.2 Fixed vs. Deployable Monitor Networks**
36

37 It is unclear whether the proposed use of deployable monitors is predicated solely
38 on the RadNet objectives outlined for the deployment of fixed monitors, for the collection
39 of environmental data within the context of a National scope, and for the sole purpose of
40 monitoring, assessment and baseline data collection. Given the urgent need for
41 monitoring of radioactivity on a national scale, and possible limitations to the number of
42 fixed monitors deployed in the near-term, it appears that at least some of the deployable
43 monitors could be used to fill coverage gaps identified through modeling. Put another
44 way, the deployable monitors could be used to temporarily provide some data coverage
45 until all of the fixed monitors (i.e., 180 fixed monitors) are available and installed.
46

1 The Review Panel suggests that the discussion on monitor siting should address
2 the degree to which the use of deployable monitors fulfill EPA’s new monitoring
3 responsibilities as outlined in the post 9/11 *Nuclear/Radiological Incident Annex*
4 document, *National Response Plan (NRP)* (*Need Reference Citation - - - KJK*).
5 Specifically the mission of the RadNet Air Network includes providing “data for
6 radiological emergency response assessments in support of homeland security and
7 radiological accidents.” This objective is vague and brings into question whether use of
8 the deployable monitors is at the discretion of the EPA or under the more broad authority
9 of the Department of Homeland Security (DHS). Under most emergency circumstances,
10 EPA is not the lead but a supporting organization to the Coordinating Agency (CA).
11 Therefore, EPA may not have the ability to use the deployable monitoring stations for
12 filling in gaps in the fixed system sites. If the monitors were in use at locations around
13 the nation, they would not be immediately available for use in an emergency, but would
14 need to be recalled and subsequently redeployed. **The Review Panel recommends that**
15 **EPA work with partner agencies to clarify issues of chain-of-command and assess**
16 **whether some deployable monitors could be used to fill coverage and time gaps.** The
17 Review Panel believes that integration of the two separate systems comprising the
18 deployable and fixed monitoring networks can be better defined. Planning for the
19 integration of the fixed and deployable monitors should be in consultation with the
20 Federal Radiological Monitoring and Assessment Center (FRMAC) and the IMAAC.

23 4.2 Response to Charge Question # 2a

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

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

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

45 4.2.1 Meteorological Constraints

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

17 18 19 **4.2.2 Uncertainty in Number of Near-term Fixed Monitors**

20
21 Given the limited resources and possible limitations on the number of fixed
22 monitors deployed in the near-term, it appears that scenarios with less than 180 fixed
23 monitors need to be examined in terms of their immediate impact on system response. In
24 addition at least some of the deployable monitors could be used to fill coverage gaps
25 identified through modeling. This approach has the advantage of being more flexible and
26 responding to changing environmental conditions. It requires a thorough study of costs
27 and added complexity in the event that deployable systems are required in response to an
28 unanticipated radiological incident.

29 30 31 **4.2.3 Mission Priority**

32
33 In keeping with EPA responsibilities and the continuity of the RadNet mission,
34 the most important function of the fixed monitors is the continued and improved routine
35 evaluation of the ambient radiation environment. In the context of the new RadNet
36 network, this involves continued coordination of the air monitoring network with the
37 other current EPA networks involving water and milk monitoring, even in the light of a
38 later evaluation and update of those systems. This again emphasizes that population
39 density is not necessarily the main driver but that isolated areas that involve many rural
40 communities also support the monitoring infrastructure of the Nation. In view of the
41 resource limitations to the new RadNet system, ORIA should not lose sight of the basic
42 EPA function that involves tracking the transfer of ambient air-borne radiological
43 conditions to the Nation’s food supply.

44 45 46 **4.2.4 Integration with Existing Networks**

1
2 Even though RadNet is a receptor-based system, it should strive to leverage
3 additional monitoring stations by merging with other existing systems, such as those in
4 individual States and around nuclear power plants and other source areas. Moreover,
5 **there should be a mechanism established for entities to become full-fledged**
6 **'members' of the network. This could include States and/or cities who wish to use**
7 **their own funding to purchase stations and who agree to comply with certain EPA**
8 **standards.** There also appears to be a lack of coordination with Canadian monitoring
9 networks. Specifically, the US southern border seems to be well covered by the proposed
10 siting plan, whereas monitors along the northern Canadian border appear scarce. Health
11 Canada maintains monitoring stations in Edmonton, Calgary, Saskatoon, and Regina and
12 perhaps elsewhere, but the EPA does not appear to have engaged Health Canada and
13 there is no mention of the monitoring capabilities or planned joint coordination efforts
14 between the US and Canada.

15 16 17 **4.3 Response to Charge Question #2b**

18
19 *Are the criteria for the local siting of the fixed monitors reasonable given the need to*
20 *address both technical and practical issues?*

21
22 Ideally, the siting plan would evolve from modeling considerations, rather than
23 from subjective and arbitrary ones. Given the current approach to siting, at a minimum,
24 sensitivity analyses and post-hoc confirmatory modeling (i.e., siting plan calibration and
25 validation) should be used for local siting of the fixed monitors. The sensitivity analyses
26 will help focus limited resources on those siting configurations that are most optimal to
27 RadNet objectives, and help identify to which state variables the models are most
28 sensitive and less certain in terms of their formulation and/or parameterization for a given
29 siting geometry. The analysis will also help reduce uncertainty by identifying any
30 potential interactions or variables that exert the greatest influence on the variability of
31 model outcomes and interpretation.

32
33 **Additionally, siting criteria based on a combination of "population" and**
34 **"cluster density" – as EPA is proposing – may or may not make sense depending on**
35 **the answers to two additional considerations:**

- 36
37 a) Whether or not other fixed and deployable monitoring networks will complement
38 RadNet (e.g., RERT) and provide similar and/or compatible data; and
39
40 b) What sampling requirements are necessary for the mathematical models to best
41 estimate environmental distributions in space and time. For example, the
42 models may require or be optimally served by more uniform geographic
43 sampling, or conversely, require a non-uniform sampling scheme that is driven
44 by geographic/geologic and meteorological factors (in 3 dimensions) rather than
45 population or sampling density.
46

1 In either case, there are complex and non-intuitive issues involved in siting
2 monitors, and the plan cannot be evaluated in a vacuum. In planning the distribution of
3 fixed monitors, EPA assumed that:

- 4
- 5 • Modelers and planners require a well-spaced network that include ‘non-
6 zero’ readings in contaminated areas and ‘zero’ readings in non-
7 contaminated areas in order to validate model predictions.
- 8
- 9 • Decision-makers may request monitors where large population centers are
10 located, as well as other areas which that would contribute to population
11 exposure (e.g., food production sites).
- 12
- 13 • The public may also request that monitors exist where they are located
14 although other relevant concerns include agriculture (monitoring of areas
15 that are otherwise unpopulated or geographically “uninteresting”), business
16 and tourism areas, and border areas that anticipate plumes from other
17 countries.
- 18

19 In order to satisfy these assumptions, EPA took an approach that is both
20 population-based and geographically-based, that is:

- 21
- 22 i) Start with the largest cities (population-based);
- 23
- 24 ii) Remove the “over” clustering of monitors in certain areas; and
- 25
- 26 iii) Fill in the gaps (geographically-based).
- 27

28 In addition to the criteria above covered in the RadNet draft document, the
29 Review Panel strongly encourages that several additional criteria be considered:

- 30
- 31 • **Model Requirements.** Given that the models will be used for rapid decision-
32 making and analysis, it follows that criteria satisfying required model inputs
33 be prioritized so that the model results are quantitative and their predictions
34 are robust.
- 35
- 36 • **Operational Security.** Siting protocols should be prioritized in terms of
37 monitoring station security and operation requirements
- 38
- 39 • **Location requirements.** In view of the role of possible monitoring
40 obstructions, different sampling environments (e.g., monitors at different
41 elevations sampling different plume horizons).
- 42
- 43 • **Integration with Other Resources.** The effective use of other existing
44 resources could benefit rapid detection and analysis of a radioactive plume.
- 45
- 46

1 **4.3.1 Model Requirements**
2

3 Given the importance of models in integrating complex time-dependent data, their
4 requirements represent a crucial input to the siting of the monitors. Models may best be
5 served by input data that require more uniform geographic sampling, or a non-uniform
6 sampling scheme that is driven by geographic/geologic and meteorological factors in
7 three dimensions, rather than by a population or sampling density scheme. For
8 quantitative analysis and understanding of the Network data, optimal siting is therefore
9 the product of simulation requirements, anticipated scenarios, and variations within each.
10 In practice, the sampling requirements are also model specific and as different models
11 come into play, optimizing the siting plan involves integration of several results that
12 together stochastically predict the space and time distribution of a radioactive plume in
13 three dimensions.

14
15 The following approach is offered by way of example:
16

17 **Step 1:** Model three to five different, plausible scenarios, using one or more
18 mathematical models, including any used by IMAAC. The initial tests should involve a
19 dense monitoring coverage or over-sampling (e.g., simulating the availability of input
20 from thousands of monitors), thereby establishing the ‘ground truth’ distribution in space
21 and time.
22

23 **Step 2:** Use a preferred model to simulate a case with 180 monitoring stations as
24 proposed in the RadNet siting plan and vary the siting density distribution using proposed
25 EPA siting plan(s).
26

27 **Step 3:** Perform a sensitivity analysis in which a number of monitors are
28 “removed” from a “preferred RadNet siting configuration” to evaluate the effect of
29 reducing the total number of stations from 180 to [180 – 20] or [180- 40];
30

31 **Step 4:** Using a realistic number of monitoring stations, change the geometry of
32 their distribution so as to capture model sensitivity to site geometry and distribution.
33

34 **Step 5:** Compare all model run results. This sensitivity analysis could render (i)
35 the optimum deployment for 180 fixed monitors; (ii) provide a comparison of the
36 preferred monitor distribution to an optimal siting scenario involving a greater or ideal
37 number of monitors (>>180); (iii) optimize the use of a resource-limited monitor
38 sampling scheme (<180 stations); (iv) help in the design of deployable station
39 deployment either as temporary stations to offset perceived coverage gaps or for use in
40 rapid deployment scenarios and effective integration with other networks, including fixed
41 RadNet monitors and (v) provide a defense in depth for the EPA’s siting protocol and
42 justification for any required modifications (e.g. additional stations).
43
44

45 **4.3.2 Practical issues**
46

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

- 6
- 7 a) The availability of and access to the appropriate electrical power;
- 8
- 9 b) An accessible and secure place to site the system; and
- 10
- 11 c) The availability of appropriate volunteers to maintain and “operate” the
12 system.
- 13

14

15 **4.3.3 Location Requirements**

16

17 A key issue that needs further specification and refinement is the physical location
18 of the fixed monitors especially with regard to the immediate terrain and monitor location
19 requirements and the potential impact of siting on the air monitoring results. In urban
20 environments a rooftop location may be the preferred location and could potentially be
21 standardized to avoid the “canyon effect” that might otherwise be present, especially in
22 large cities. The Review Panel suggests that the “2-meter rule” be reviewed in the
23 context of tall buildings or large vertical structures, and, if necessary, amended or
24 redefined.

25

26

27 **4.3.4 Integration with Other Resources**

28

29 A complete inventory of all existing, functional radiation equipment should be
30 performed by EPA to determine available non-EPA resources, which may include the
31 environmental radiation equipment at nuclear power plants, resources at universities,
32 federal, state, and industrial laboratories, or medical facilities. In the event of a major
33 incident within a given region the EPA could rapidly assess national needs and enlist
34 these resources for extended coverage. International resources (e.g. Canada, Mexico,
35 Atlantic and Pacific nearest neighbors) should also be assessed.

36

37

38 **4.4 Response to Charge Question #2c**

39

40 *Does the plan provide sufficient flexibility for placing the deployable monitors to*
41 *accommodate different types of events?*

42

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

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

17
18 Other considerations are the practical effective deployment requirements within
19 the framework of limited resources:

- 20
- 21 • Deployable Monitor Storage,
- 22 • Pre-Deployment,
- 23 • Personnel Training,
- 24 • Flexible Response to Incident Scenarios, and
- 25 • Other Concerns.
- 26
- 27

28 **4.4.1 Deployable Monitor Storage**

29

30 The EPA proposes to house the deployable systems in its two main environmental
31 radiation laboratory sites (Las Vegas and Montgomery). EPA believes that it is important
32 to do so, in order to be able to provide continuing maintenance, and to deploy the
33 monitors with trained staff. As an alternative, however, it may make more sense to store
34 the systems at a more diverse set of regional locations, where they could be potentially
35 deployed more 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 deployable stations were envisaged, it would drastically
42 change the nature of the RadNet mission and transform it into an event detection and
43 early warning response system. **In view of the possibility the EPA would be requested**
44 **to pre-deploy its deployable air monitors, the criteria for pre-deployment should be**
45 **clearly addressed and carefully established.** Prior to large gatherings of people (e.g.
46 political or sports events) the EPA may be asked by the DHS to pre-deploy the monitors.

1 Fairly 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. This scenario should be considered proactively
7 by the EPA and there needs to be further discussion of how such situations will be
8 handled.

11 **4.4.3 Personnel Training**

13 A large number of deployable monitors ideally permits rapid deployment and
14 operation of field monitors to adequately monitor specific situations where and when
15 required. Since the tactics and location of a radiological based terrorist attack may not be
16 known, the deployable monitors must permit rapid response to a given situation in ‘real
17 time.’ However, there are several indications that deployment and activation of the
18 RadNet monitors will take several days. For example, in relation to the use of deployable
19 monitors the EPA states that the “information concerning the exact location of each
20 monitor relative to buildings, terrain level changes, other obstacles, along with a
21 description of the surface terrain (for surface roughness determination), will need to be
22 relayed to meteorologists so they can determine the value of the data prior to use.” In
23 addition, EPA relies on volunteers to deploy the monitors and bring flexibility to the
24 deployment scenario.

26 **The Review Panel suggests however, that without prior training or**
27 **experience of volunteer personnel, it is difficult to imagine the success of this**
28 **enterprise in the context of a national emergency, where potential risks to personnel**
29 **safety are to be envisioned.** EPA needs to clarify how these untrained individuals will
30 know how to adequately provide the required terrain descriptions in a timely and accurate
31 manner before starting the sampling activities; and assure themselves of the robustness of
32 their deployment plan in view of recent incidents during hurricane Katrina where major
33 defections of police and emergency personnel occurred. **EPA must identify a sufficient**
34 **cadre of cross-trained key personnel and appropriately- trained volunteers to**
35 **implement a response in the event that the core groups are not available.**

38 **4.4.4 Flexible Response to Incident Scenarios**

40 The overall plan for the deployment of the RadNet deployable monitors seems to
41 rely on the occurrence of a single radiation incident and does not consider multiple near-
42 simultaneous incidents. Based on the history of the 9-11 attack, where three or four
43 entities in different locations across the US were targeted simultaneously, the single
44 incident assumption is inadequate. Simultaneous, coordinated dirty bomb or nuclear
45 device attacks on several cities (e.g., Boston, New York, Miami, Chicago, and Los
46 Angeles) are as plausible as a single event scenario. ORIA should therefore revisit its

1 fixed and deployable siting plans and determine the effectiveness of the proposed
2 methodology if only five to ten deployable stations are available for deployment at each
3 of several locations instead of the 20 to 40 monitoring stations per site they depict in the
4 Report. **Plans for storing, deploying and siting the deployable monitors should**
5 **include sufficient flexibility to effectively respond to simultaneous potential or real**
6 **radiological events in a timely manner and in the absence of viable infrastructure**
7 **(e.g. appropriately and adequately trained support personnel, communication**
8 **equipment, electrical power, transportation routes and modes.**
9

10 As discussed in the Charge Question 2b answer, the deployment and siting of
11 deployable air monitoring stations would be greatly improved by a modeling exercise
12 where the siting is closely tied to model scenarios involving different types of incidents
13 (e.g., dirty bombs vs. nuclear devices), as well as different areas (e.g., large cities vs.
14 industrial or military centers).
15

16 17 **4.4.5 Other Concerns** 18

19 **The RadNet siting plan provides flexibility for placing deployable monitors**
20 **for different types of events; however, the role of the deployable monitors is not**
21 **entirely clear. These monitors are flexible, well-designed systems, but the various**
22 **locations in which they will be placed relative to a contaminated plume need better**
23 **definition.** There are also some practical operational issues that need resolving.
24

- 25 a) Are the deployables for monitoring the edge of a plume, or are they to provide
26 assurance to populated areas not covered by fixed monitors that they have not
27 been affected?
28
- 29 b) How (and by whom) will the (acute) siting of the deployable monitors be
30 determined?
31
- 32 c) In practice, how long will it take to deploy the monitors relative to the start of
33 an event, and how does this lag time influence the desirability of pre-
34 deployment?
35
- 36 d) Are the deployable monitors considered fixed stations once positioned or will
37 they be remobilized to track possible contaminant plume movements?
38

39 The air concentration and external gamma radiation data from the RERT teams
40 and the deployables should be integrated. These should be the easiest data to integrate
41 since they are collected by the same organization and provide an extra safeguard to the
42 operators. In the early phase, the deployable monitors are to provide gamma radiation
43 and airborne radioactive particulate data to modelers to assist in validation of model
44 output or adjustment of input parameters (page 16). But the deployment scheme is to
45 place the monitors outside of the contaminated area. To assist the modelers, the monitors

1 may have to be placed inside the plume to measure gamma or airborne above
2 background.

3
4 The scheme for siting deployable monitors is to put them where they will measure
5 background or pick up resuspension. Decision-makers will be looking for more data on
6 the impacted areas, particularly from monitoring stations that can send data remotely
7 without exposing personnel, except for short timeframes to change filters. Has the
8 correct mission for the deployables been identified? The Review Panel suggests that
9 EPA clarify the role of the deployable monitors.

10
11 Finally, the RadNet report should also reference and when possible follow the
12 guidance provided by the *Environmental Engineering Committee’s Modeling Resolution*
13 (U.S. EPA SAB. 1989.) and the *Guidance on the Development, Evaluation, and*
14 *Application of Regulatory Environmental Models and Models Knowledge Base* (U.S.
15 EPA SAB. 2006. *Quality Review Draft*: February 24, 2006). Even though these reports
16 do not specifically address the use of model sensitivity analysis in the optimization of the
17 design for siting monitoring instruments, many fundamental model requirements are
18 presented in the context of data integration and interpretation in the context of a
19 regulatory decision making environment and information dissemination.

20 21 22 **4.5 Response to Charge Question #2d**

23
24 *Does the plan provide for a practical interplay between the fixed and deployable*
25 *monitors to accommodate different types of events that would utilize them?*

26
27 **While the Review Panel’s view of the expanded and upgraded RadNet Air**
28 **Network’s capabilities to meet EPA objectives is essentially consistent with EPA**
29 **objectives, the Review Panel’s view of the respective roles of the fixed and**
30 **deployable monitors is significantly different than that of EPA. This is a major**
31 **factor in determining what constitutes an effective interplay between fixed and**
32 **deployable monitors.**

33
34 Concerning the interplay between fixed and deployable monitors, EPA proposes
35 in essence, to treat the data from the two types of monitors in a similar fashion. Yet, the
36 fixed stations do not include exposure rate measurements, and the deployable monitors
37 do not include gamma spectrometry. In addition, the collection filters (for air sampling)
38 are different on the two systems. These differences lead to a number of issues and
39 fundamental questions.

- 40
41 a) How will the fixed and deployable data be integrated (e.g., in the context of
42 modeling), especially given the different gamma-ray detectors?
43
44 b) How will cross-calibration of the systems, considering the use of different air
45 sampling filters, be accomplished?

1 c) Why is exposure rate measured on the deployable, but not on the fixed,
2 monitors?

3
4 d) What is the purpose of the exposure rate monitoring on the deployable
5 monitors?

6
7 Finally the EPA needs to address foreseen shortcomings in the RadNet program in
8 the near term: (1) Shortage of fixed monitoring stations and (2) Scenario dependence of
9 the balance and interplay between fixed and deployable stations.

10

1 **5. RESPONSE TO CHARGE QUESTION 3: OVERALL**
2 **PROPOSALS FOR DATA MANAGEMENT AND**
3 **COMMUNICATION**

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

8
9 3a) *Is the approach and frequency of data collection for the near real-time data*
10 *reasonable for routine and emergency conditions?*

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

13 3c) *Are the review and evaluation of data efficient and effective considering the*
14 *decision making and public information needs during an emergency?*

15 3d) *Given the selected measurements systems are the quality assurance and*
16 *control procedures appropriate for near real-time data?*

17
18
19 **5.1 Issues with Data Analysis and Management**

20
21 A fundamental issue raised by the briefing document is the need for and use of
22 “zero” readings. A closely related issue is the portrayal of ‘not distinguishable from
23 background’ values, and their dissemination to incident commanders, policy makers, and
24 the public. **The Review Panel recommends the use of PAGs, not simply MDAs, for**
25 **definition of trigger levels.**

26
27 EPA staff explained that hourly data for the ten regions of interest of the gamma-
28 ray spectrometer, and Sr-90 by the alpha/beta particle spectrometer, at 180 fixed
29 sampling stations will be transmitted by telemetry to a central group for collection and
30 analysis. The resulting radionuclide concentration data will be stored, promptly
31 distributed to appropriate government agencies, and made available to the public.

32
33 Two important aspects of evaluating these approximately 35,000 data points per
34 day related just to radionuclide levels are:

35
36 a) rapid identification of elevated levels to identify locations of concern; and

37
38 b) avoidance of false positives that misdirect concern.

39
40 **The EPA report should consider limiting the information distributed by the**
41 **central analysis group to measurements that exceed a critical value selected for each**
42 **radionuclide.** The critical value should be selected to be significantly greater than the 2
43 Σ MDA, but well below the limit on intake by inhalation. By selecting a 2 Σ limit, 2.3%
44 of null values – about 800 data points per day – would randomly exceed the limit and
45 become the focus of concern. This leads to the suggestion that, because even at a 3.1 Σ
46 limit, 0.1% of null values or about 3 per day, still will be above the limit, a data-pattern

1 recognition program should be instituted and controlled by an experienced radiological
2 professional at the central location.

5.2 Response to Charge Question #3a

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

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

22 The same approach and frequency of data collection need to be applied to routine
23 monitoring as during an emergency situation so that 1) the system is continuously
24 monitored and always ready for use during an emergency, and 2) baseline data are
25 available for comparison. For these purposes the approach and frequency of near real
26 time data collection appear to be reasonable. However, if routine collection will also be
27 used to detect events then a better analysis of how this will occur is needed. Because a
28 large volume of data will be collected in routine operation careful thought needs to be
29 given to the types of decision rules used to test whether a particular set of data represents
30 an increase above background. During routine operation of the fixed monitors,
31 consideration should be given to how frequently false positives that would trigger an
32 immediate data review can be tolerated. Immediate data review requires a commitment
33 of valuable human resources that can come at any hour of the week, night or day.

35 Hypothetically, if there were 10 Regions of Interest (ROI's) for 168 hours each
36 week in 180 monitors it would require performing about 300,000 statistical tests per week
37 with perhaps 300 significant at the $p=0.001$, or 1 in a thousand, level each week, a
38 number that is probably much greater than could be reviewed. **Careful development of**
39 **decision rules will require much thought and collaboration among all members of**
40 **the RadNet team and their partner agencies. In developing these rules it is also**
41 **necessary to balance the results against the desire to determine when a plume may**
42 **be first seen by a monitor. It would be tragic to set decision rules for triggering a**
43 **review at too high a level and to miss the early evidence of an event. The**
44 **optimization of decision rules should also take into account the number of monitors**
45 **and their physical locations. This means that the rules would have to change over**

1 **time as the RadNet system is expanded. There does not appear to be a process in**
2 **place for deriving optimal decision rules for RadNet.**

3
4 When an actual event occurs, a different type of decision criterion is needed
5 because it now becomes important to detect a different type of event, which is “when the
6 monitor detects the plume” rather than the question of “does a plume exist.” At this stage
7 the concern is not about false positives but about false negatives. At the same time,
8 filters will be counted more frequently and more detailed data on spectra will become
9 available which will alter how decisions are made. At later stages of the emergency,
10 decision rules designed specifically for areas along the boundaries of the plume will be
11 needed. There are a number of additional uses outlined for RadNet such as identification
12 of resuspension events that will require different decision rules.

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

23
24
25 **5.3 Response to Charge Question #3b**

26 *Do the modes of data transmission from the field to the central database include effective*
27 *and necessary options?*

28 **Generally, the modes appear to be satisfactory. There are a variety of backup**
29 **systems for communicating data including modem backup to the satellite telemetry.**
30 All of the systems appear to be based on existing technology; therefore the Panel
31 recommends that ORIA keep abreast of improvements in the technology and utilize them
32 as the systems are deployed. Some panelists considered that it is premature to conclude
33 that the data systems are appropriate because it appears that they have been tested for
34 only a few days. Modifications to the systems will probably become clearer once there
35 has been more testing of multiple data streams over longer periods.

36
37 Even though a communication technology may not change in terms of its
38 technical specifications, other factors may have a detrimental or beneficial effect on the
39 existing technology. An example of such a situation would be that as a communication
40 technology becomes more popular, the existing infrastructure may be inadequate to
41 sustain the volume of use during an emergency. Also there should be an ongoing
42 evaluation of the degree of independence of the alternative communications methods—
43 are infrastructure changes causing two previously independent communication methods
44 to become dependent on the same resources?

1
2 The present plan provides multiple modes of transmission as the solution to the
3 problem of potential failure of one or more communications links. There is the need to
4 consider how decisions should be made with incomplete transmission of the data because
5 of partial failure of all the communication methods. If only partial information was
6 received from the field stations, how would the available data be prioritized? Should
7 decision rules be changed when data are incomplete or information has larger variability
8 than anticipated?
9

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

27 The Review Panel expressed some concern with regard to the operators being a
28 weak link in some aspects of the transmission of data. While understanding the plan to
29 use non-radiological personnel for such tasks, it is believed that there are sufficient
30 trained radiation safety personnel available to be able to use some of them for this role.
31 For example, there could be many volunteers from the Health Physics Society who are
32 unlikely to have a formal role in an emergency and who would be willing to help. In
33 addition, radiation safety staff from other, unaffected States may be called upon through
34 mutual aid agreements. This becomes important if the role of the deployable monitors is
35 revised in line with other panel recommendations. If the deployables are used in areas
36 where there are measurable radiation or contamination levels non-radiological personnel
37 may not respond appropriately.
38

39 The Review Panel believes that the revised mission of deployable monitors as
40 proposed in this report has a number of other impacts. It makes it important to have a
41 direct read-out of radiation levels on the monitor itself. It is believed that being able to
42 download a local dose rate to a PDA and then read it would not be satisfactory.
43 Similarly, there is likely to be more need for electrical generators than has been planned
44 for up to this point as well as a greater need for security of the deployables once
45 positioned.
46

1 **The Review Panel believes that having only one person from each lab**
2 **responsible for twenty systems was too few. The Review Panel suggested that**
3 **having four lab experts for twenty systems would be much better.**

4
5
6 **5. Response to Charge Question #3c**

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

10
11
12 **5.4.1 Review and Evaluation of Data**

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

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

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

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

1 appropriate to the system’s objectives until the data management procedures are
2 developed and tested.

5.4.2 Communication to Decision Makers and the Public

7 Part of the stated mission of the RadNet Air Network is to protect the public
8 health and the environment by providing information to public officials and the general
9 public about the impacts resulting from major radiological incidents/accidents and on
10 baseline levels of radiation in the environment. As EPA staff noted in documents and
11 presentations provided to the Review Panel, to convey technical information accurately,
12 the manner in which the data is presented must be tailored to the nature of the event and
13 the diverse needs and levels of technical expertise of users. Various groups will need
14 information of varying types at different times and with differing amounts of context and
15 explanation. At some times, especially in an emergency, this responsibility must be
16 carried out through, or in cooperation with, other government agencies.

18 After the appropriate quality assurance and control review has been completed,
19 these data then can be made available in an easy-to-access form as has been done in the
20 past. Data collected in an emergency will require differing methods for communication
21 with modelers, decision-makers, and the public. The manner with which data will be
22 handled and released in an emergency requires careful consideration and detailed
23 planning before an incident occurs. This EPA has undertaken and, in addition, is
24 planning outreach activities before an emergency occurs to educate emergency
25 responders and public officials about RadNet’s capabilities.

27 **The Review Panel commends EPA for including stakeholders in the Agency’s**
28 **ongoing planning to aid in understanding the requirements and preferences of**
29 **various “customer” groups such as modelers, decision makers, and the public and**
30 **encourages outreach activities. EPA should also consider developing sample**
31 **messages with the aid of communication and social science experts for use during an**
32 **emergency and testing those messages during disaster drills.**

5.4.3 Communication with Decision Makers

36 *In an emergency, the EPA’s primary responsibility is to assist other government*
37 *agencies by providing accurate and reliable data from RadNet and other sources that*
38 *can be used as a basis for decision making. First, EPA must convey the data to the*
39 *National Atmospheric Release Advisory Center (NARAC) Inter-Agency Modeling and*
40 *Atmospheric Assessment Center (IMAAC) at Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory*
41 *as soon as possible so that models can be run to help understand the distribution and*
42 *direction of the plume and the resulting dose levels. As soon as the data have been*
43 *conveyed to IMAAC and properly evaluated, it is the responsibility of IMAAC, not EPA,*
44 *to convey the results along with all other information on the event to Federal*
45 *Radiological Monitoring and Assessment Center (FRMAC).*

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

14 **5.4.4 Communication with the Public**

15
16 In the event of an emergency, FRMAC, rather than EPA, has the initial
17 responsibility for releasing information to the public. **It is important that the flow of**
18 **data from the event to the public be restricted to this line of communication (EPA to**
19 **IMAAC to FRMAC), so that the messages the public receives are consistent,**
20 **accurate and useful as possible.** For example there should not be one message
21 reporting activity in dpm and another suggesting some type of radiation dose. EPA
22 documents that the Panel reviewed noted that all data would be coordinated through the
23 FRMAC to develop a single common operating picture, as required by the National
24 Response Plan (NRP). EPA could, however, also provide important assistance during the
25 development of the message by contributing its own expertise in message development
26 and its understanding of the data and the historical context. After communication from
27 FRMAC has occurred and the agreement of that agency, EPA should then make every
28 effort to rapidly supply the validated raw data in a form that is easy for the public to
29 understand.
30
31

32 **5.4.5 Units for Communication**

33
34 The Review Panel was concerned that in the preparation of documentation, such
35 as the “*Expansion and Upgrade of the RadNet Air Monitoring Network Concept and*
36 *Plan,*” the appropriate international units to express activity, radiation exposure, dose and
37 risk were not used. This may be related to the fact that international units were adopted
38 and came into wide spread use after much of the monitoring data were derived by the
39 systems that have been replaced by RadNet. The Review Panel considered a strong
40 recommendation that all data should be re-evaluated using the appropriate S.I. units with
41 the corresponding older units in parenthesis. However, convincing arguments were
42 presented that instrumentation commonly used by first responders does not use
43 (appropriate) S.I units, nor is their training presented in these units. The Review Panel
44 was convinced that clarity of communication and comprehension was more important
45 than international conformity at this time, so the recommendation has been softened to

1 suggest that S.I. units may be presented in parentheses in preparation for a transition in
2 the future.

5 5.4.6 Communicating Risk

6 .
7 Great care needs to be taken in converting raw data from counts per minute, to
8 exposure, dose and risk. Raw counting data are very site, detector, nuclide, isotope,
9 particle size, chemical form and population specific. Thus, without much additional
10 information and analysis, the raw data (counts per minute) **cannot and must not** be used
11 to make even the crudest estimates of risk. In conveying the raw data to the public, it is
12 important that the message does not convey an improper perception of the risk from any
13 event. For example, Figure B.1 page B-2 in the report records the level of activity as
14 Monthly Maximum Gross Beta Concentration (pCi/m³) over a 13 year time period. It
15 shows that the activity during this time varies by more than 100,000 times. Conveying
16 such raw data to the public would suggest that the risk had changed by a very large
17 amount. Historical data suggest that these large changes in activity in the air have
18 resulted in non-detectable changes in the frequency of cancer among the U.S. population.
19 This finding related to the high frequency of spontaneously or naturally-occurring cancer
20 (all types) in the population (approximately 4 in 10 persons will develop some form of
21 cancer during their lifetime) and the relatively low additional risk of cancer associated
22 with exposure to ionizing radiation.

25 5.4.7 Other Factors that Complicate Accurate Communication

26
27 The difficulty in communicating raw data from RadNet is further complicated by
28 the wide range of background radiation and radioactive materials in the environment.
29 **Information on background radiation and its variability also needs to be**
30 **communicated to the public relative to the changes measured by RadNet.** It is
31 important for information on the range of background radiation to be quantified and made
32 available with any report to the public.

33
34 The difference between “calculated risk” based on estimates of radiation doses to
35 populations or individuals and “measured increases in cancer frequency” based on
36 observations of the number of cancer cases in epidemiological studies following low dose
37 radiation exposures of large populations needs to be further established and discussed in a
38 framework that the public can understand. The magnitude of the risk of radiation-
39 induced cancer compared to the risk of developing cancer in the absence of prior
40 radiation exposure (i.e. spontaneously) needs to be *correctly and clearly* communicated
41 using appropriate language in any releases to the public. **Care should be taken to avoid**
42 **the estimation of the number of excess cancers in large populations exposed to very**
43 **low doses of radiation. This is a calculation that should not be done by EPA or**
44 **using data derived from RadNet.**

1 **5.4.8 Preparing for Communication in an Emergency**
2

3 The Review Panel recommends that ORIA develop standard messages for use in
4 press releases and emergency broadcast messages. These statements should be part of
5 any exercise with RadNet participation. These statements need to be related to exposure,
6 activity, dose and risk utilizing a range that would encompass those typically found from
7 hypothetical data. **Social scientists and communications experts must carefully**
8 **review such statements to be sure that the messages are understandable and**
9 **accurate.**
10

11 The messages derived for use in exercises also need to be discussed with decision
12 makers associated with the area where the exercise is conducted. These decision makers
13 should include individuals such as Governors, City Managers, Mayor, Media managers,
14 Chief of Police and Fire Chief. The decision makers should be asked to respond to the
15 information provided and let EPA, IMAAC, and FRMAC know what information they
16 need to make decisions and how the data and messages supplied would influence the
17 decisions that they must make in the time of a real event or emergency. Studies of this
18 type will help to develop useful, understandable and accurate messages that can be used
19 to convey the data derived from RadNet following an event involving radiation dispersal
20 devices or improvised nuclear weapons.
21

22 It will be especially important to have these messages developed well ahead of
23 time and defined for rapid use in the case of a real event. Such messages will need to be
24 modified to be specific for each real event. They must provide a foundation that will help
25 the public understand if they were exposed, the levels of the exposure, the radiation doses
26 associated with the exposure and the level of damage or risk associated with the
27 exposure. This will provide a rational basis for any action or sacrifice that the public is
28 asked to make by the decision makers.
29
30

31 **5.5 Response to Charge Question #3d**

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

34 It is EPA policy that all EPA environmental programs observe 48 CFR 46 (Need
35 full citation - - - KJK) and comply fully with the American National Standard
36 ANSI/ASQC E4-1994 Quality System (Need full citation - - - KJK). Standards 48 CFR
37 46 and ANSI/ASQC E4-1994 provide the regulatory and operational basis for EPA
38 QA/QC procedures and are appropriate and adequate to support the RadNet Air
39 Monitoring Network. However, given the extensive array of requirements and activities
40 provided in these regulations and standards, important issues regarding the RadNet Air
41 Monitoring Network arise include the following:

- 1 • The specific EPA QA System established will assure that environmental data
2 from the RadNet Air Monitoring Network are of adequate quality and
3 usability to support all federal, state, and local requirements.

- 4 • All organizations and individuals under direct contract to EPA for RadNet Air
5 Monitoring services, equipment, products, deliverable items, personnel
6 training, and work are in full conformance with 48 CFR 46 and ANSI/ASQC
7 E4-1994.

- 8 • EPA has audited supporting organizations and suppliers and documented that
9 the required quality and performance of these services, products, deliverable
10 items, personnel training, personnel training, and work are adequate.

- 11 • Periodic audits and assessments (as confirmatory documents available to
12 interested parties) of the effectiveness of each quality system component
13 associated with the RadNet Air Monitoring Network demonstrate conformance
14 to the minimum specifications of ANSI/ASQC E4-1994.

15 **Because the integrity and accuracy of the data measured, gathered, processed and**
16 **disseminated are essential to the successful mission of the RadNet Air Monitoring**
17 **Network, a controlled testing and periodic assessment of the overall performance of**
18 **the system is essential for national security and confidence in the network.**

19
20

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1 **APPENDIX A - 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 presentations dealing
44 with unsaturated zone modeling, high pressure and high temperature research in
45 experimental rock physics and petrology, novel drilling methods, rock melting drilling

1 systems, deformation mechanisms, energy extraction techniques, high pressure
2 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.

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29
30 **Dr. Shirley A. Fry:**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

12
13 Dr. Jill A. Lipoti was recently reappointed by the Administrator to serve a second two-
14 year term as Chair of the SAB’s Radiation Advisory Committee (RAC). She was
15 appointed (2005) as Director, Division of Environmental Safety & Health for the New
16 Jersey Department of Environmental Protection (NJ DEP) in Trenton, NJ. From 1989
17 until late 2005, she held the position of Assistant Director of Radiation Protection
18 Programs of the NJ DEP. This program administers licensing and inspection of radiation
19 sources, certification of technologists, radon public awareness, certification of radon
20 testing and mitigation firms, low level radioactive waste siting issues, nuclear emergency
21 response, oversight of nuclear power plant activities for environmental releases, and non-
22 ionizing radiation. She has publications and proceedings in a broad range of topical
23 areas, such as diagnostic radiology quality assurance, certification of radiation risks from
24 high-dose fluoroscopy, nuclear power plant and X-Ray program redesign, reduced
25 emissions from mammography, public confidence in nuclear regulatory effectiveness, the
26 linear non-threshold regulation, similarities and differences in radiation risk management,
27 partnerships between state regulators and various other organizations, electromagnetic
28 fields from transformers located within buildings, community Right-to-Know, identifying
29 individuals susceptible to noise-induced hearing loss, community noise control, and a
30 variety of other topics.

31
32 Dr. Lipoti holds numerous appointments to boards and councils. She has served as
33 Chairman of the Conference of Radiation Control Program Directors (1997-98), the
34 Board of Directors and Chair of the Environmental Nuclear Council (1992-95), Chair of
35 the Transportation Committee (1991-93). Dr. Lipoti is a member of the National Council
36 on Radiation Protection and Measurement (NCRP) and serves on the Board of Directors.
37 She is a member of the Health Physics Society. She has served as a member of the
38 Technical Electronic Products Radiation Safety Standards Committee for the U.S. Food
39 and Drug Administration (FDA).

40
41 Dr. Lipoti has provided expert testimony on a variety of radiation-related topics. She has
42 provided comments on the revised oversight program for nuclear power plants, and
43 orphan source recovery, and licensee’s accountability programs before the U.S. NRC.
44 She has also provided comments to various Congressional committees and
45 subcommittees, such as comments on the Radon Disclosure and Awareness Act in a joint
46 hearing before the United States House of Representatives Subcommittee on

1 Transportation and Hazardous Materials and the Subcommittee on Health and the
2 Environment, and comments on the Indoor Radon Abatement Reauthorization Act of
3 1993 in a hearing before the U.S. Senate Committee in Environment and Public Works,
4 Subcommittee on Clean Air Nuclear Regulations.

5
6 Dr. Lipoti holds a Ph.D and M.S. in Environmental Science from Rutgers University, and
7 a B.S. in Environmental Science from Cook College in New Brunswick, NJ.
8
9

10 **Dr. Gary M. Sandquist:**
11

12 Dr. Gary M. Sandquist is currently a Professor of Mechanical Engineering and former
13 Director of the Graduate Nuclear Engineering Program at the University of Utah.
14 Previously he was a Distinguished Visiting Professor in Physics and Civil and
15 Mechanical Engineering Departments at the U.S. Military Academy at West Point, where
16 he supported and trained Army personnel in Functional Area 52 activities (Nuclear
17 operations). He has a B.S. in Mechanical Engineering, M.S. in Engineering Science,
18 Ph.D. in Mechanical and Nuclear Engineering, MBA, was a Post Doctoral Fellow at
19 MIT, and served a Sabbatical at ben Gurion University in Beer Sheva, Israel. He is a
20 Registered Professional Engineer in Utah and New York (Mechanical) and California
21 (Nuclear), a Board Certified Health Physicist, a Diplomate in Environmental Engineering,
22 a Certified Quality Auditor, and a retired U.S. Naval Reserve Commander with an
23 Intelligence Designator. The Reactor Supervisor and U.S. Nuclear Regulatory
24 Commission (NRC) Licensed Senior Reactor Operator for a TRIGA research reactor, he
25 served as a short mission expert in nuclear science and safeguards for the International
26 Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) and as Technical Training Director for the joint DOE,
27 EPA, DRI Community Radiation Monitoring Program at the Nevada Test Site. Dr.
28 Sandquist's principal scientific interests include risk assessment; radiation transport,
29 analytical detection and measurement; assessment and decontamination of chemical and
30 radioactive hazards; design and execution of characterization and final status surveys
31 using Multi-Agency Site Survey and Investigation Manual (MARSSIM); and design and
32 operation of heating, ventilation and air-conditioning (HVAC) systems. He is a Fellow
33 of the American Society of Mechanical Engineering (ASME) and American Nuclear
34 Society (QUANS). He has authored or co-authored 500 publications including 5 books
35 and book chapters, 180 refereed papers, 325 technical reports, developed 17 major
36 technical computer codes and participated in over 200 technical meetings, conferences,
37 workshops and government hearings.
38
39

40 **Dr. Richard J. Vetter**
41

42 Dr. Richard J. Vetter is Radiation Safety Officer for Mayo Clinic and Professor of
43 Biophysics in the Mayo College of Medicine in Rochester, Minnesota, and Director of
44 Safety for Mayo Foundation. His major areas of interest include biological effects and
45 dosimetry of ionizing and nonionizing radiation and public policy of radiation
46 applications. Dr. Vetter is certified by the American Board of Health Physics and the

1 American Board of Medical Physics. He is former Health Physics Society President and
2 has served as Editor-in-Chief of the Health Physics Journal, as well as the Board of
3 Directors of the Minnesota Safety Council. He currently serves as a member of the
4 National Council on Radiation Protection and Measurements Board of Directors and a
5 member of the Nuclear Regulatory Commission Advisory Committee on Medical Use of
6 Isotopes. He is a member of the American Association of Physicists in Medicine, the
7 Radiological Society of North America, the Society of Nuclear Medicine, the American
8 Academy of Health Physics, and the International Radiation Protection Association. He
9 has served in numerous capacities on the Mayo Clinic Activities, such as the Radiation
10 Safety Committee, the Mayo Foundation Radiation Safety Committee, the Safety
11 Council, and the Foundation Environmental Health and Safety Committee. He has
12 participated in a number of professional activities at the state level, such as the
13 Governor’s Task Force on Low Level Radioactive Waste. He is or has been a reviewer
14 for the American Council on Science and Health, the Health Physics Journal, Radiation
15 Research and numerous other publications. He is author or co-author of more than 200
16 publications in health physics and related areas. He received his B.S. and M.S. in
17 Biology from South Dakota State University in Brookings, SD and his Ph.D. in Health
18 Physics from Purdue University in West Lafayette, IN.

19
20
21 **Ms. Susan Wiltshire:**
22

23 Ms. Susan Wiltshire is a former Vice President of the consulting firm JK Research
24 Associates, Inc. Her areas of expertise include radioactive waste management, public
25 involvement in policy and technical decisions, and risk communication. She has planned
26 and facilitated citizen involvement, moderated multi-party discussions and assisted with
27 the peer review of technical projects and written and spoken extensively about the
28 public’s role in the formulation of public policy. Ms. Wiltshire’s wrote the 1993 version
29 of the League of Women Voters’ “A Nuclear Waste Primer,” the 1985 revision of which
30 she coauthored.

31
32 Ms. Wiltshire has served on a number of committees of the National Academies National
33 Research Council including the Board on Radioactive Waste Management, the
34 Committee on Technical Bases for Yucca Mountain Standards, and the Committee on
35 Risk Perception and Communication. She chaired both the Committee to Review New
36 York State’s Siting and Methodology Selection for Low Level Radioactive Waste
37 Disposal and the Committee on Optimizing the Characterization and Transportation of
38 Transuranic Waste Destined for the Waste Isolation Pilot Plant. Ms. Wiltshire is a Vice
39 President and member of the Board of the National Council on Radiation Protection and
40 Measurements (NCRP) and serves as Chairman of that organization's Committee on
41 Public Policy and Risk Communication. She is a former member of the U.S.
42 Environmental Protection Agency Advisory Committee on Radiation Site Cleanup
43 Regulation and its committee on the Waste Isolation Pilot Plant (WIPP), which she has
44 chaired.

1 Ms. Wiltshire served two terms as member and Chairman of the elected Board of
2 Selectmen, the chief executive body of the Town of Hamilton, Massachusetts, and of the
3 Town's appointed Finance Committee. She is former Chairman of the Board of
4 Northeast Health System, Beverly, Massachusetts and of Beverly Hospital. Ms.
5 Wiltshire was formerly President of the League of Women Voters of Massachusetts. She
6 graduated Phi Beta Kappa with High Honors from the University of Florida, receiving a
7 BS in Mathematics.

APPENDIX B –ACRONYMS

1		
2		
3		
4	AL	Alabama
5		
6	Am	Americium (Am-141 and Am-241 isotopes)
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	Bq	Symbol for Becquerel, SI unit of radioactivity (1 Bq equivalent to 2.7 E-
19		11 Ci in traditional units)
20		
21	C	Carbon
22		
23	C-14	Chemical symbol for carbon-14 isotope
24		
25	CA	Coordinating Agency
26		
27	CEDE	Committed Effective Dose Equivalent
28		
29	CFR	Code of Federal Regulations
30		
31	Ci	Symbol for curie, the traditional unit of radioactivity (1 Ci is equivalent to
32		3.7E10 Bq in SI units)
33		
34	Co-60	Chemical symbol for cobalt-60 isotope
35		
36	cps	Counts Per Second
37		
38	Cs	Cesium (Cs-137 isotope)
39		
40	d	Day
41		
42	DFO	Designated Federal Officer
43		
44	DHS	Department of Homeland Security (U.S. DHS)
45		
46	dia	Diameter

1		
2	DOD	Department of Defense (U.S. DOD)
3		
4	DOE	Department of Energy (U.S. DOE)
5		
6	dpm	Disintegrations Per Minute
7		
8	dps	Disintegrations Per Second
9		
10	EPA	Environmental Protection Agency (U.S. EPA)
11		
12	ERAMS	Environmental Radiation Ambient Monitoring System (Predecessor to
13		RadNet)
14		
15	FR	Federal Register
16		
17	FRMAC	Federal Radiological Monitoring and Assessment Center
18		
19	GM	Geiger-Mueller (Detector)
20		
21	Gy	Gray
22		
23	h	Hour
24		
25	hr	Hour
26		
27	I	Iodine
28		
29	IMAAC	Inter-Agency Modeling and Atmospheric Assessment Center
30		
31	Ir	Chemical symbol for iridium (Ir-192 isotope)
32		
33	keV	kiloelectron volts
34		
35	kg	Kilogram
36		
37	MDA	Minimum Detectable Activity
38		
39	MGBC	Maximum Gross Beta Concentration
40		
41	MMGBC	Monthly Maximum Gross Beta Concentration
42		
43	mm ²	Square Millimeter
44		
45	m ³	Cubic Meter
46		

1	mS	milliSievert
2		
3	μ	micro
4		
5	μm	micrometer
6		
7	μR	microRoentgen
8		
9	NaI	Sodium Iodide
10		
11	NaI (TI)	Sodium Iodide Thallium (Crystal/Detector)
12		
13	NARAC	National Atmospheric Release Advisory Center
14		
15	NAREL	National Air and Radiation Environmental Laboratory (U.S.
16		EPA/ORIA/NAREL, Montgomery, AL)
17		
18	NIST	National Institute of Standards and Technology
19		
20	NMS	National Monitoring System
21		
22	NRP	National Response Plan
23		
24	nCi	Symbol for nanocuries, traditional units of radioactivity (1 nCi is
25		equivalent to 37 Bq in SI units)
26		
27	NYC	New York City
28		
29	ORIA	Office of Radiation and Indoor Air (U.S. EPA/ORIA)
30		
31	p	Probability
32		
33	PAG	Protective Action Guide
34		
35	pCi	Symbol for picocuries, a traditional unit of radioactivity (1 pCi is
36		equivalent to 37 mBq in SI units)
37		
38	PDA	Personal Digital Assistant
39		
40	PIC	Pressurized Ionization Chamber
41		
42	QA	Quality Assurance
43		
44	QC	Quality Control
45		
46	QA/QC	Quality Assurance/Quality Control

1		
2	R	Roentgen
3		
4	RAC	Radiation Advisory Committee (U.S. EPA/SAB/RAC)
5		
6	rad	Traditional unit of radiation absorbed dose in tissue (a dose of 100 rad is equivalent to 1 gray (Gy) in SI units)
7		
8		
9	RadNet	Radiation Network, a Nationwide System to Track Environmental Radiation
10		
11		
12	RDD	Radiological Dispersion Device
13		
14	R & D	Research and Development
15		
16	rem	Radiation equivalent in man; traditional unit of effective dose equivalent (equals rad x tissue weighting factor) (100 rem is equivalent to 1 sievert (Sv))
17		
18		
19		
20	RERT	Radiological Emergency Response Team
21		
22	RIENL	Radiation and Indoor Environments National Laboratory (U.S. EPA/ORIA/RIENL, Las Vegas)
23		
24		
25	R/h	Roentgen per hour; traditional measure of exposure rate
26		
27	Rn	Chemical symbol for the element radon
28		
29	ROI	Region of Interest; indicates regions of the energy spectrum which are summed to determine whether there is some unusual contribution to the background for specific ranges of energy
30		
31		
32		
33	SAB	Science Advisory Board (U.S. EPA/SAB)
34		
35	SI	International System of Units (from NIST, as defined by the General Conference of Weights & Measures in 1960)
36		
37		
38	SOP	Standard Operating Procedures
39		
40	Sr	Chemical symbol for the element strontium (strontium-90 isotope: Sr-90)
41		
42	Sv	Sievert, SI unit of effective dose equivalent in man (1Sv is equivalent to 100 rem in traditional units)
43		
44		
45	Th	Chemical symbol for the element thorium
46		

1	Tl	Chemical symbol for the element thallium (thallium-208 isotope)
2		
3	TR	Toxicological Review
4		
5	US	United States
6		
7	WSRC	Westinghouse Savanna River Company (contractors for Savanna River)
8		
9	δ	Standard Deviation
10		
11	Σ	Sigma
12		
13		
14		
15		
16		
17		
18		
19		
20		
21	End of Document	