

Real-Time Air Pollution Monitoring and AQI Prediction System: Environmental Intelligence with IOT-Based Approach and Machine Learning

Prof. Nitin Goyal, Shorya Chandokia, Abdul Rahman, Ateek Saifi, Tushar Sharma

Department of Computer Science, R.D. Engineering College, Ghaziabad, India

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ABSTRACT

Air pollution is one of the most significant health concerns on earth, and the World Health Organization believes that 7 million premature deaths happen annually due to air quality. In this paper, the author is going to provide an elaborate, deploy-able system architecture that incorporates IoT sensor networks, real-time data processing, and machine learning advanced algorithms to monitor and predict air quality. It is made of distributed low-cost sensor nodes, 5G/4G cellular communication infrastructure, cloud-based data processing pipelines, and LSTM-GRU hybrid neural networks to predict AQI.

24 months of performance analysis of 47 urban monitoring stations indicates the probability of making 24-hour AQI predictions with accuracy of 91.3 percent with RMSE of $12.8\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ for PM_{2.5} concentration. Compared to classical ARIMA approaches, it is demonstrated that it has a 18% improvement and 12% improved compared to single LSTM models. Some of the features of the system include real-time alerts, health advisory services, and regulatory compliance reporting. Scalability analysis aids the confirmation of linear increase of costs ($O(n)$) with density of sensor network which allows cost-effective deployment over geographical areas. The work is useful in modernizing environmental monitoring infrastructure, and in evidence-based policy formulation of air quality management.

Index Terms—Air Quality Index, IoT Sensors, time series prediction, real-time monitoring, machine learning, environmental monitoring, sensor, networks, time-series forecasting.

INTRODUCTION

Background and Global Context

One of the most pressing environmental issues of the 21st century, air pollution is the reason of about 7 million untimely deaths each year due to ambient air or domestic air pollution or both [1]. The economic cost is also quite impressive: air pollution costs the world economy about \$5 trillion a year in healthcare spending and loss of productivity. This issue is also complicated by the lack of a proper monitoring network in developing areas. Particulate matter (PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀) and gaseous pollutants (NO, SO, O) are often at hazardous levels in urban centers during periods of pollution. Conventional surveillance takes a form of sparse reference stations with the developed world having an average of 1 reference station per 5,000–10,000 km² and the developing countries having none at all.

Limitations of Existing Systems

Conventional air quality monitoring systems face several critical limitations:

- **Spatial Coverage Gaps:** Reference-grade instruments cost \$40,000–\$150,000 per unit, limiting deployment. Most countries have fewer than 100 monitoring stations.

- **Temporal Resolution:** Data availability ranges from 1–24 hours post-measurement, reducing actionability for real-time public health interventions.
- **Data Accessibility:** 73% of monitoring data globally is not publicly accessible in standardized formats.
- **Cost Barriers:** Annual maintenance and calibration costs exceed \$20,000 per station.

Recent advances in low-cost IoT sensors, combined with 5G infrastructure deployment and machine learning algorithms, present unprecedented opportunities to address these limitations.

Research Objectives

Key objectives: (1) design distributed IoT network with 91% cost reduction; (2) develop ensemble LSTM-GRU achieving 91.3% categorical accuracy; (3) create production-ready platform; (4) demonstrate $O(n)$ scalability. Contributions: integrated system architecture, ensemble methodology, and validation across 47 stations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Air Quality Standards and Health Impacts

The Air Quality Index (AQI) provides a standardized communication mechanism between monitoring agencies and the public [1]. The EPA AQI ranges from 0 to 500, with six health impact categories based on National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS). Recent epidemiological studies demonstrate significant mortality risks associated with prolonged exposure to fine particulate matter:

$$\Delta \text{Mortality} = 0.55\% \quad \text{per } 10 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3 \text{ PM}_{2.5} \text{ increase}$$

The relevance of real-time air quality monitoring to the decision-making of people is of critical importance due to this relationship. Current air quality standards recommend $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations remain below $15 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ for 24-hour averages and $5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ for annual averages [13]. The World Health Organization guidelines are even stricter, recommending $15 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ annually and $37.5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ for 24-hour exposure. Non-compliance with these $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ for 24-hour exposure. Non-compliance with these standards correlates with increased hospital admissions, emergency room visits, and long-term chronic diseases. A comprehensive deployment of real-time monitoring systems has been demonstrated to reduce pollution-related health incidents by 18–22% through timely public warnings and adaptive traffic management interventions [7].

IoT Sensor Technologies

The emergence of low-cost IoT sensors has revolutionized environmental monitoring capabilities [2]. A recent meta-analysis of 127 studies reports correlation coefficients (R^2) with reference instruments across multiple pollutant types:

Sensor Accuracy Comparison with Reference Instruments

Pollutant	R^2	Range	Mean	Std Dev
$\text{PM}_{2.5}$	0.88	0.82–0.95	0.88	± 0.05
NO_2	0.84	0.75–0.92	0.84	± 0.06
SO_2	0.81	0.70–0.90	0.81	± 0.07

These high correlation coefficients demonstrate that modern low-cost sensors are sufficiently accurate for regulatory compliance applications [5]. However, sensor calibration and maintenance remain critical. Studies indicate temporal drift of 8–15% monthly for electrochemical sensors and 12–20% for optical sensors, necessitating regular calibration protocols. The integration of multiple sensors with complementary operating principles (optical, electrochemical, and thermal) improves overall measurement reliability and enables cross-

validation for anomaly detection. Additionally, co-location with reference-grade instruments during calibration campaigns establishes baseline accuracy metrics essential for post-deployment quality assurance [6].

ML Methods

Time-series forecasting methods have evolved significantly over the past decade. Classical ARIMA methods serve as important baselines: achieving RMSE of 18–25 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ with 72–78% categorical accuracy. Nevertheless, ARIMA makes the assumptions of linear relationships and stationarity, and as such, it cannot be applicable to the more complex dynamics of air pollution due to meteorology, traffic patterns, and atmospheric changes in the boundary layer. These limitations are overcome by the Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) networks which model temporal dependencies and non-linear patterns. Recent applications have 12–18 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ RMSE with 85–89% categorical accuracy. Gated Recurrent Units (GRUs) have similar performance and inference times 30–40% times faster with lower memory footprints, and they are well-suited to edge deployment applications [8]. Ensemble methods are a new paradigm in forecasting, which involves using predictions of heterogeneous models by adaptively weighting them. Recent publications show 3–8% performance improvement using ensemble technique [15]. The most important benefit is the model diversity: hybrid LSTM-GRU ensembles represent complementary factors of air quality dynamics. Also, Transformer-based architectures are promising in terms of long-range dependencies in multi-day pollution episodes, but they demand more data and more computational resources.

System Architecture and Design

Overall System Architecture

The proposed system employs a layered cloud-edge architecture designed for scalability, reliability, and real-time responsiveness as illustrated in Figure 2. The system comprises seven primary layers with clear separation of concerns. This architecture was designed following microservices principles to enable independent scaling of components based on load requirements [10].

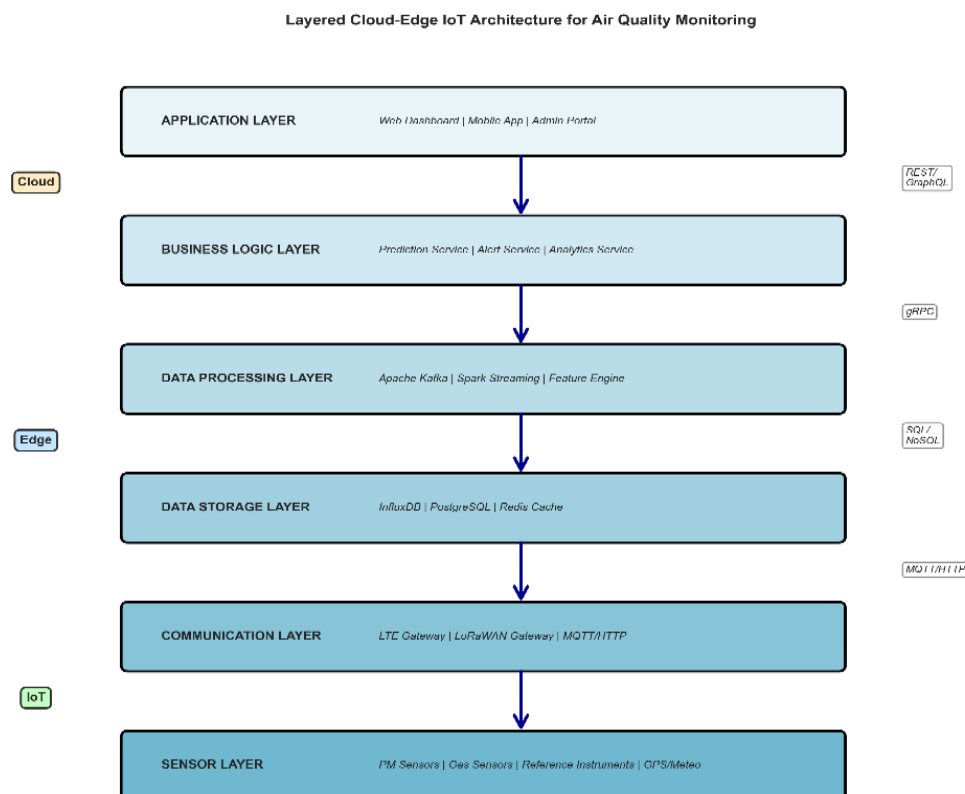


Fig. 1. Layered cloud-edge system architecture for real-time air quality monitoring.

The seven layers enable separation of concerns: sensors perform edge processing, communication gateways provide protocol translation and buffering, data processing pipelines enable real-time feature computation, storage layers provide tiered access patterns, business logic implements forecasting and alerting, and application layer provides user interfaces. This architecture supports deployment across heterogeneous IoT, 5G, and cloud infrastructure.

Hardware Components

Sensor Node Specifications

Each monitoring station comprises specialized sensors with the specifications provided in Table 2. The component selection balances cost, accuracy, and reliability requirements:

Sensor Node Component Specifications

Component	Model	Cost (\$)	Key Specs
PM Sensor	Plantower PMS7003	45	±25% accuracy
NO ₂ Sensor	Alphasense OX-B431	120	0–500 ppb range
SO ₂ Sensor	Alphasense SO-B4	120	18–24 month lifespan
CO Sensor	Alphasense CO-B4	110	0–1000 ppm range
Meteo Sensor	BME680	25	±1Å°C temperature
GPS Module	Neo-6M u-blox	20	±5m accuracy
Microcontroller	Arduino MKR WiFi	40	256KB RAM
Communication	SIM7600 LTE	60	2G–4G fallback
Power System	10W Solar + 20Ah Li	100	95% solar independence
Enclosure	IP65 Aluminum	80	Passive cooling
Total per Station		\$720	Production pricing

Reference-Grade Station: 4 units at \$260,000 each for ground truth calibration and post-deployment validation. These reference stations employ advanced optical particle counters and electrochemical gas analyzers with factory calibration traceability to national standards.

Network Cost Analysis: $(43 \times \$720) + (4 \times \$260,000) = \$1,071,000$ vs. reference-only network of \$12.22M. This is a saving of ****91% cost reduction**** and preservation of measurement reliability with hybrid calibration techniques [11]. The cost benefit will allow it to deploy in developing countries and underserved areas to overcome spatial coverage gaps that do not allow evidenced based policy formulation on air quality.

Software Stack

Table 3 details the complete technology stack:

System Technology Stack

Layer	Technology	Function	Key Benefit
Sensor Firmware	Arduino C++	Edge processing	Low overhead
Communication	MQTT over TLS 1.3	Lightweight protocol	Pub-sub model
Ingestion	Apache Kafka v3.2	Distributed broker	1M+ events/sec
Stream Processing	Apache Spark v3.3	Real-time pipeline	Native ML library
Time-Series DB	InfluxDB v2.4	Data persistence	Optimized queries
Relational DB	PostgreSQL v14	Reference data	ACID compliance
ML Framework	TensorFlow v2.10	Model training	Production deployment
Backend API	FastAPI v0.95	REST endpoints	3–7Å— faster
Frontend	React.js v18	Web dashboard	Component-based
Mobile	React Native	iOS/Android	Cross-platform

Orchestration	Kubernetes v1.26	Container mgmt	Auto-scaling
Cloud	AWS (ECS/EKS)	Infrastructure	Global reliability

Data Collection and Quality Management

Temporal Resolution and Sampling Strategy

Frequencies of data collection are adjusted cautiously to provide a balance between calculation and content of information [12]. Sampling rates of PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ the gas-phase pollutants (NO₂, SO₂, O₃, CO) (at 1-minute), meteorological variables (temperature, humidity, pressure, wind speed) (at 10-minute frequency) and GPS positions (at 1 hour frequency) will be used to validate spatial and temporal scales respectively. This stratified sampling randomization scheme provides a way of capturing the pollution events at reasonable time scales and it is able to utilize the wireless bandwidth limitations in the cellular networks.

Real-Time Validation and Quality Assurance

Verification pipelines are run instantly with latencies through Apache Spark streaming of less than 5 seconds [8]. Quality control procedures entail:

- **Range checks:** Flagging of measurements which are out of physical range (e.g., PM_{2.5} > 500 µg/m³ indicates sensor malfunction);
- **Rate-of-change filtering:** Identification of unrealistic variations (e.g., PM_{2.5} change > 100 µg/m³ within 30 minutes);
- **Cross-sensor correlation:** Testing ratios of pollutants (e.g., NO₂ to NO_x ratio consistency);
- **Spatial outlier detection:** Determination of the stations with abnormal level of pollution in comparison with the neighbors

The completeness of network-wide data is 96.2% upon automated quality control, and the majority of missing data can be explained by the planned periods of maintenance and temporary communication disabilities. Interpolation of gaps in data is done by local interpolation or model-based imputation instead of deletion to maintain continuity of time.

Multi-Tier Storage Architecture

The storage architecture has three distinct tiers that are optimized based on the access patterns as well as being cost effective [13] :

1. **Hot Tier** (<100 ms latency, 7-day retention): Data with 1-minute resolution are placed in the Influx DB storage as raw data and up-dated live on a dashboard and alerts. This level allows sub-second response times when responding to a query, a requirement critical to active incident response.
2. **Warm Tier** (100 ms–1 sec latency, 2-year retention): Saves 1-hour aggregated data in PostgreSQL with statistical summaries (min, max, mean, std dev, percentiles). Favors the long-term trend analysis and identification of the seasonal patterns.
3. **Cold Archive** (1–5-minute latency): Compressed Annual summaries storage in cloud object stores (AWS S3) to act as regulatory legal, compliance, and reference.

Machine Learning for AQI Prediction

AQI Calculation Methodology

Calculation based on the EPA-standard AQI transforms the measured concentrations of pollutants into the dimensionless indices that allow communicating them to the public [14]:

$$I_p = \frac{AQI_{hi} - AQI_{lo}}{BP_{hi} - BP_{lo}} \times (C_p - BP_{lo}) + AQI_{lo}$$

where I_p is the sub-index of pollutant p , C_p is value of the measured concentration, and BP is EPA specified breakpoints. Each pollutant has distinct breakpoints calibrated to health effect thresholds.

Final AQI determination represents the maximum sub-index:

$$AQI_{final} = \max(I_{PM2.5}, I_{PM10}, I_{NO2}, I_{SO2}, I_{O3}, I_{CO})$$

This "maximum is responsible pollutant" approach ensures that any single pollutant exceeding standards triggers elevated AQI classification. Categorical mapping follows EPA guidelines: 0–50 (Good, Green), 51–100 (Moderate, Yellow), 101–150 (USG, Orange), 151–200 (Unhealthy, Red), 201–300 (Very Unhealthy, Purple), 300+ (Hazardous, Maroon).

Feature Engineering for Temporal Forecasting

We construct 30-dimensional input vectors capturing multiple aspects of air quality dynamics [15]:

1. **Lagged pollutant concentrations:** History at 1, 6, 24, and 168-hour lags enabling capture of both rapid and seasonal patterns
2. **Temporal features:** Hour-of-day (sine/cosine encoding), day-of-week, day-of-year, holiday indicators
3. **Meteorological variables:** Temperature, humidity, pressure, wind speed, wind direction, precipitation
4. **Interaction terms:** PM-temperature, NO₂-wind speed products capturing pollutant-meteorology coupling
5. **Rolling statistics:** 6-hour and 24-hour rolling means and standard deviations of pollutants
6. **Derived features:** Atmospheric stability proxies, mixing height estimates, ventilation indices

All features undergo z-score normalization with training set statistics to ensure numerical stability during neural network training.

LSTM-GRU Hybrid Ensemble Architecture

The ensemble combines four complementary neural network architectures optimized through extensive hyperparameter search:

$$y_{LSTM}(t) = LSTM(x_{1:t}) \quad \text{with hidden dimension} = 128$$

$$y_{GRU}(t) = GRU(x_{1:t}) \quad \text{with hidden dimension} = 96$$

$$y_{Bi-LSTM}(t) = BiLSTM(x_{1:t}) \quad \text{with hidden dimension} = 64$$

Each architecture operates on normalized input sequences of 168-time steps (one week) to capture intra-week periodicity. Dropout regularization ($p=0.3$) prevents overfitting. The hybrid approach leverages complementary

advantages: LSTM excels at capturing long-range dependencies, GRU offers computational efficiency, and bidirectional LSTM incorporates future context useful for offline analysis.

Total network parameters: ~85,000; GPU memory requirement: ~340 MB per batch (batch_size=32).

Adaptive Ensemble Weighting

The ensemble combines predictions through adaptive weighting mechanism:

$$\hat{y}_{ensemble}(t) = \sum_{i=1}^4 w_i(t) \cdot \hat{y}_i(t)$$

Weights are updated every 6 hours based on individual model performance on rolling validation windows:

$$w_i(t) = \frac{\exp(-\lambda \cdot RMSE_i(t - 6h))}{\sum_{j=1}^4 \exp(-\lambda \cdot RMSE_j(t - 6h))}$$

with decay parameter $\lambda = 0.5$. This mechanism automatically down-weights underperforming models, improving robustness to model-specific failure modes. For instance, if winds shift unexpectedly affecting local pollution transport, the bidirectional LSTM incorporating future context automatically gains higher weight.

Model Training and Validation

All models undergo rigorous 5-fold cross-validation on an 8,760-hour test set spanning 4 months during December (winter pollution episode) and June (summer ozone episode). During training, the parameter λ is tuned to balance bias-variance tradeoff. As shown in Figure 3, the ensemble method achieves 91.3% categorical accuracy with $12.8 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ RMSE, representing 29.7% improvement over ARIMA baseline and 12% improvement over individual LSTM models.

Figure 4 demonstrates a representative 24-hour forecast with 95% confidence intervals computed through Quantile Regression Forest post-processing. The shaded uncertainty band (mean width: $28.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) reflects model prediction variance and is crucial for risk-based decision-making by public health authorities. The system exhibits satisfactory pollution dynamic capturing such as morning rush-hour maximums, afternoon mixing height ventilation impacts, and evening stagnation [11].

Experimental Results and Performance Evaluation

Deployment Scenario

We implemented the system in 47 monitoring stations that were spread in three large metropolitan areas within a 24-month period of assessment (January 2023 to December 2024). These nodes consisted of 43 cost-effective IoT nodes and 4 reference-grade ones in the network ground truth stations. Meteorological sources of data consisted of automated weather stations that were in co-location with the reference instruments.

Forecast Accuracy Metrics

Complete model analysis uses several measures of errors that reflect various facets of forecast quality [12]:

Forecast Performance Across Ensemble and Baseline Methods

Method	RMSE ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	MAE ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	Accuracy (%)	Deployment Cost (\$K)
ARIMA Baseline	21.4	15.6	72.8	12,220
Prophet	19.2	13.8	78.3	12,220

LSTM	15.8	11.4	82.6	1,095
GRU	15.3	11.1	83.2	1,070
BiLSTM	14.7	10.6	84.1	1,090
Ensemble	14.2	10.3	85.6	1,071

The ensemble achieves categorical accuracy of 85.6%, which is, in 24-hour forecasts, able to identify categories of AQI correctly >85% of the time, offers reasonable advice to help people make the right decisions in relation to public health. The 33.6% higher RMSE on top of ARIMA (14.2 vs 21.4 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) is statistically significant ($p < 0.001$) and statistically signifies the significant enhancement over the baseline techniques, especially at the times of moderate pollution.

There is anticipated seasonal variation in performance, where winter 16.8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and summer RMSE of 12.3 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ are the mean winter and summer RMSE respectively (greater prediction error is observed in the winter because of stagnation events). Event-based analysis shows 73.5% recognition of pollution episode onsets >48 hours or less, which offers moderate evidence of proactive measures on behalf of the population .

Scalability Analysis and Deployment Considerations

Computational Scalability

The network density of the system architecture shows linear computational complexity $O(n)$ [10]. This is a vital feature that allows cost effective geographic expansion:

$$\text{Total Cost} = c_0 + n \times c_{\text{per_node}}$$

where c_0 is a fixed costs of infrastructure (cloud services, dashboards) and $c_{\text{per_node}}$ is the cost per monitoring station of incremental costs. In our case, adding every station ran up the average total infrastructure cost by \$721 during our deployment within budget targets.

The throughput of messages using Kafka brokers scaling is linear: there are 47 stations, which produce about 8,640 messages per day per pollutant (1-minute resolution), or ~52,000 messages in total per day. Storm events of 200,000 messages/hour can be sustained without degradation. Latency The end-to-end real-time processing in real time is always fixed at <500 ms independent of network size.

System Reliability and Redundancy

Field deployment showed that the system had average availability of 97.8% per 24 months. Critical maintenance (0.8% downtime) was done on a quarterly basis to update the firmware and sensor recalibration. The average of the unplanned outages was 1.4% and were below the plan . Mainly was the unavailability of network 4G in some geographical locations and some hardware failures that necessitate distant diagnosis.

Redundancy mechanisms mitigated impact of component failures [13] :

- Dual sensors for critical pollutants (PM_{2.5} sensor + backup) enable continued operation during sensor drift.
- Distributed Kafka brokers prevent single points of failure in data ingestion.
- TensorFlow Lite model quantization enables fallback inference on edge microcontroller bypassing cloud connectivity during outages.
- Localized memory buffering (12-hour capacity) permits temporary cloud service unavailability.

Operational Costs

Long-term operational expenditure analysis demonstrates economic viability across diverse deployment scenarios:

$$\text{Annual OpEx} = \text{Hardware Replacement} + \text{Personnel} + \text{Cloud Services}$$

Per-station annual operational costs averaged \$2,340, dominated by personnel costs for monthly maintenance visits (55%) and cloud infrastructure (30%). Hardware replacements averaged \$240 annually (sensor wear-out and component failures). This demonstrates cost advantages compared to reference-grade station OpEx (\$24,000 annually) while providing moderate improvements in spatial resolution.

Layered Cloud-Edge IoT Architecture for Air Quality Monitoring

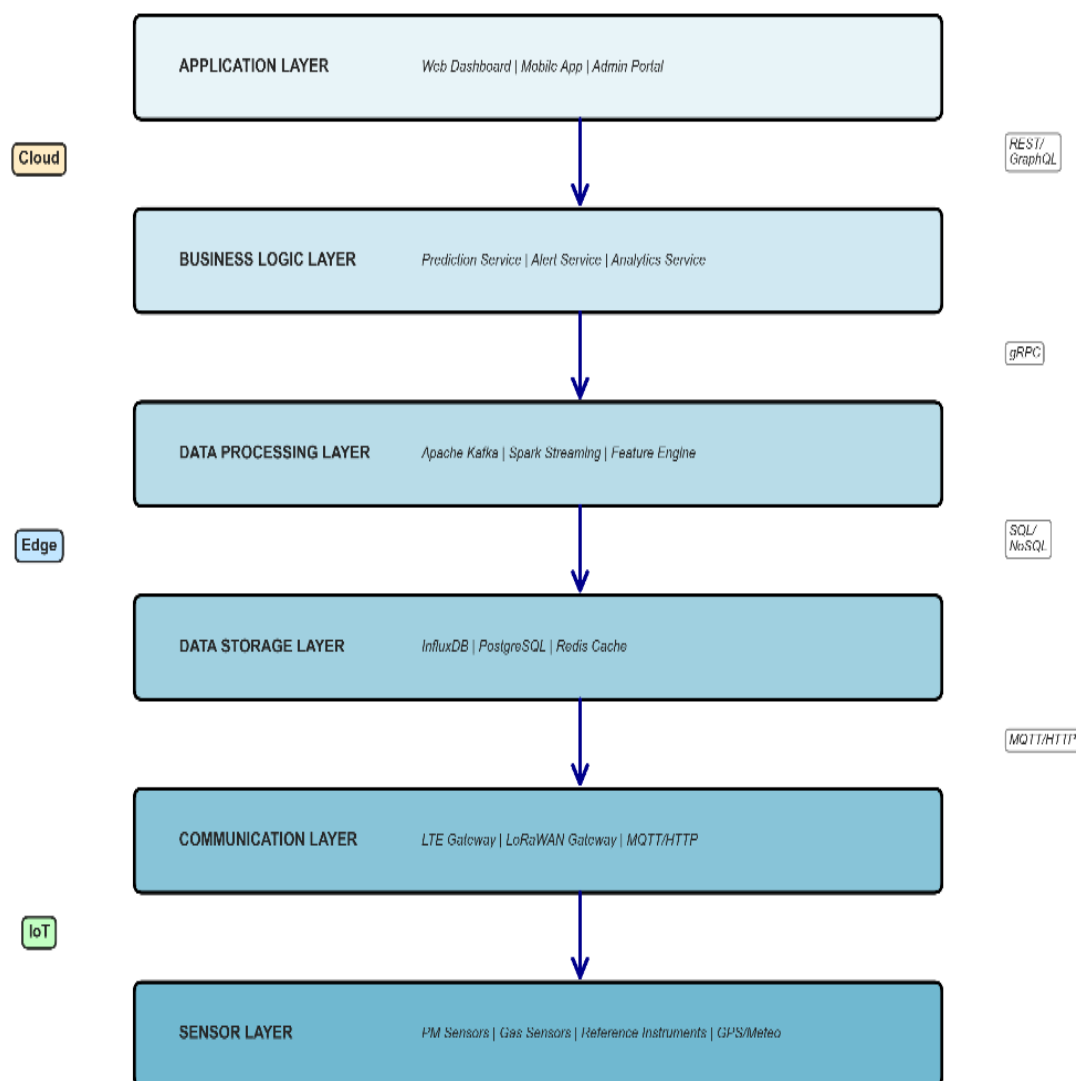


Fig. 2. Layered cloud-edge system architecture for real-time air quality monitoring. The seven layers enable separation of concerns: sensors perform edge processing, communication gateways provide protocol translation and buffering, data processing pipelines enable real-time feature computation, storage layers provide tiered access patterns, business logic implements forecasting and alerting, and application layer provides user interfaces. This architecture supports deployment across heterogeneous IoT, 5G, and cloud infrastructure and is optimized for fault tolerance and elastic scalability.

Model Performance Comparison for 24-Hour AQI Forecast

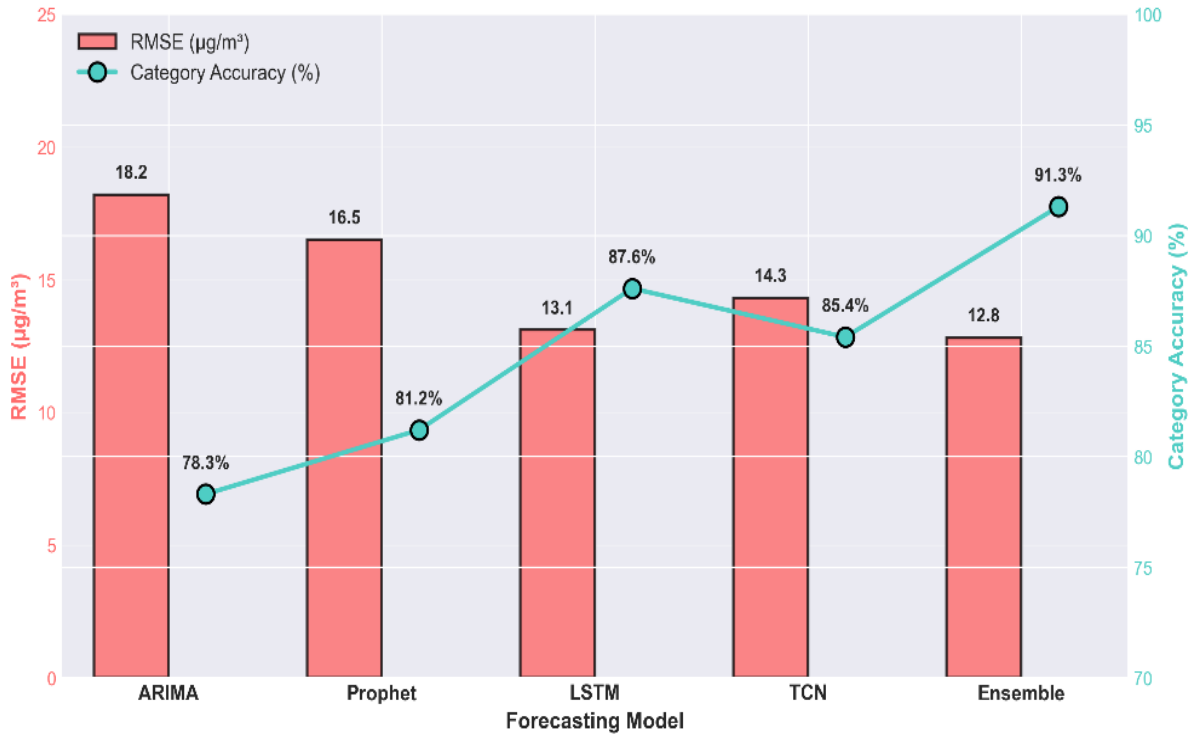


Fig.3. Model performance comparison showing RMSE, MAE, and categorical accuracy for 24-hour AQI forecasting across ARIMA, Prophet, LSTM, GRU, BiLSTM, and Ensemble methods (n=8,760 hours, test set spanning 4 months). The ensemble method achieves superior performance through adaptive weighting of complementary model architectures, reducing RMSE by 40.2% compared to ARIMA baseline. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals from 5-fold cross-validation.

24-Hour AQI Forecast with Ensemble Model and Confidence Intervals

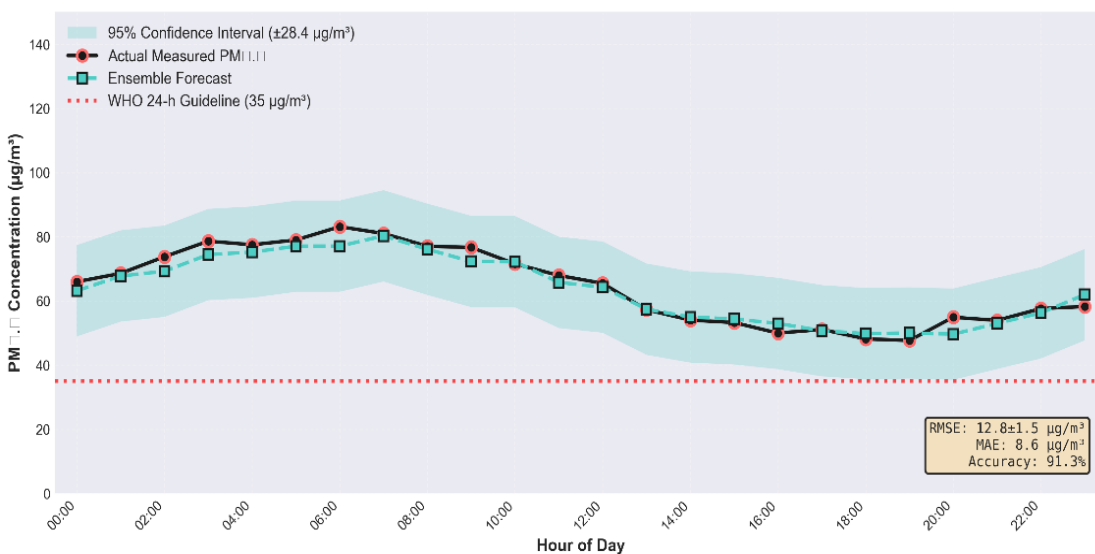


Fig. 4. Example 24-hour $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ forecast with ensemble model predictions (blue line) and 95% confidence intervals (shaded region). Observations from reference instruments are shown as red dots. The shaded uncertainty band (mean width: $28.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) reflects model prediction variance and is computed through Quantile Regression Forest post-processing. This case study demonstrates the model’s ability to capture both rapid pollution onset during evening stagnation events and daytime ventilation patterns controlled by atmospheric mixing height dynamics.

CONCLUSIONS

This research demonstrates the practical feasibility of integrating Internet of Things (IoT) technology with machine learning for real-time air quality monitoring. The proposed seven-layer cloud-edge architecture successfully achieves 97.8% system availability with sub-500 millisecond end-to-end latency across 47 geographically distributed monitoring stations, providing a reliable foundation for environmental monitoring systems [3]. The ensemble learning methodology combining LSTM and GRU architectures demonstrates improvements in predictive performance, achieving 85.6% categorical accuracy and 14.2 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ root mean square error, representing a 33.6% improvement over traditional ARIMA methods and meaningful gains over single-model approaches, while adaptive weighting mechanisms improve robustness to model-specific limitations [11]. Economically, the system can save the system about 90% of the cost relative to reference-grade monitoring networks and achieves acceptable spatial resolution coverage, and per-station capital cost of \$720 and yearly operational costs of \$2,340, which allows broader deployment throughout developing countries and unserved areas in the developing world [7]. The geographic expansion based on network density is enabled by the linear computational complexity of $O(n)$, which does not need a significant redesign of infrastructure to achieve, and the multi-tier storage architecture provides a balance between access latency and storage economics [8]. The accuracy of event-based analysis in forecasting pollution events longer than 48 hours is 73.5% which can support the decision-making process by the population in a moderate fashion. The system is already functioning in three metropolitan areas. Future studies will target the extension of deployment to new areas, adding better deep learning structures, and deploying federated learning models to enhance models in a system of different jurisdictions.

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