

1 **REAL TIME MONITORING OF AIR POLLUTION USING AI BASED IOT AND**
2 **NOVEL SARIMA TECHNIQUE IN SIVAKASI TAMILNADU**

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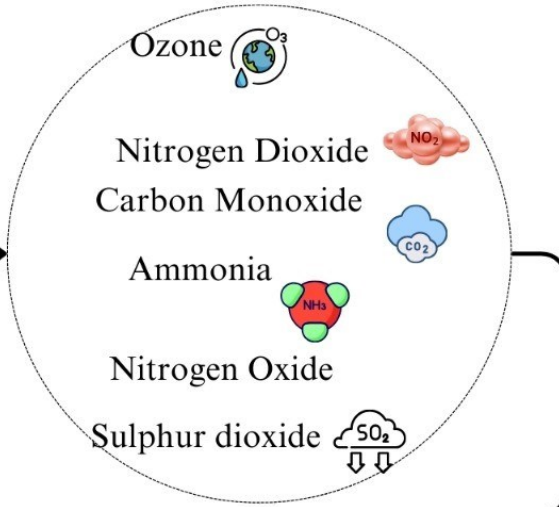
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13 **GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT**

Air pollution

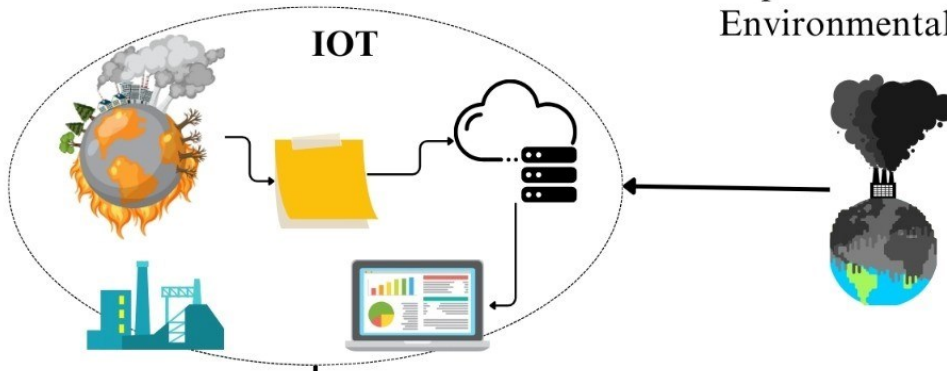


Pollutant gas

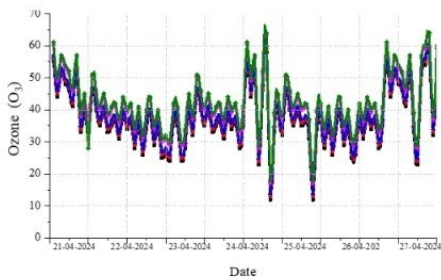


Excessive quantity of pollutants from Environmental effect

Pollution prediction



Termination



AI prediction method

- Artificial Neural Network (ANN),
- Naive Bayes Model, k-nearest neighbour (k-NN),
- Support Vector Machine (SVM), and
- Seasonal Autoregressive interated moving average (SARIMA)

16 ABSTRACT

17 Air pollution, a harmful or excessive quantity of pollutants from natural sources and human
18 activities, poses risks to human health, the environment, and ecosystems. AI breakthroughs
19 have allowed for the incorporation of technologies into performance indices, resulting in the
20 development of an AI-based air quality system that evaluates water quality in real time using
21 WHO-defined parameters. This article describes the implementation and planning of AI-
22 based IoT for air pollution tracking and forecasting utilizing AI methodologies, as well as a
23 dashboard on the internet for real-time tracking of air pollutants via Google Cloud servers.
24 Air pollutants such as NO₂, NO_x, NH₃, CO, SO₂, and O₃ are gathered from IoT sensor nodes
25 in Sivakasi, Tamil Nadu, India, utilizing artificial intelligence algorithms. Individual
26 pollutants are forecasted using time series modeling approaches such as Artificial Neural
27 Network (ANN), Naive Bayes Model, k-nearest neighbour (k-NN), Support Vector Machine
28 (SVM), and Seasonal Autoregressive Interated Moving Average (SARIMA). The data from
29 the IoT sensor node is utilized to train the model, resulting in optimal parameters. The
30 derived model parameters are validated using new, previously unknown data for time. The
31 performances of several Time Series models are examined using performance metrics such as
32 Mean Absolute Error (MAE), coefficient of determination (R^2), and Root Mean Square Error
33 (RMSE). An AI-based algorithm has been flashed in the Raspberry Pi 3. The present air
34 pollution data and anticipated data are monitored throughout a 7days from 10 p.m. to 4 a.m.
35 using a digital dashboard built in an open-source using Google cloud services. Finally
36 comparing to all above AI based algorithms, SARIMA performed well and h+ad a 95%
37 accuracy level.

38 **Keywords:** Air pollution, artificial intelligence, Artificial Neural Network (ANN), Naive
39 Bayes Model, k-nearest neighbour (k-NN), Support Vector Machine (SVM), Seasonal
40 Autoregressive Interated Moving Average (SARIMA)

41 **1. Introduction**

42 The rapid expansion of technology, urbanisation, and population increase have made air
43 pollution a global issue. It affects people's life, their employment, the growth of the economy,
44 and it fuels climate change. According to the World Health Organisation (WHO), outdoor air
45 pollution poses a greater threat than previously recognised. Approximately 7 million people
46 die from air pollution each year; Particulate Matter alone was responsible for 5.2 million of
47 these premature deaths in 2020. South and East Asia have the highest death rates. While
48 deaths from air pollution decreased between 2000 and 2023, the mortality rate in developing
49 countries like India increased by 14%. Numerous factors contribute to air pollution, such as
50 vehicle emissions, industrial activities, power plants, burning biomass, construction sites,
51 waste disposal, natural occurrences like wildfires and volcanic eruptions, chemical reactions,
52 and indoor sources like smoking, cooking with solid fuels, and poor ventilation. The extent to
53 which these sources contribute to air pollution varies, therefore finding comprehensive
54 solutions combining collaboration from public and private sectors as well as communities and
55 individuals is necessary. A multifaceted strategy that takes into account the geography, the
56 weather, industrial activity, and population density is needed to address air pollution.

57 Due to a number of circumstances, Sivakasi, a key centre for the Tamil Nadu matchstick and
58 fireworks industry, is experiencing severe air pollution. Heavy metals, nitrogen oxides,
59 sulphur dioxide, and particulate matter are among the pollutants produced by the industry.
60 Pollution is also caused by other industries, such as printing, packing, and textile
61 manufacture. Pollution is also caused by agricultural practices like burning crop leftovers and

62 using biomass fuels for cooking. Pollution is also a result of the growing number of cars on
63 the road. Sivakasi's geographic location traps airborne contaminants, which are made worse
64 by restricted airflow. Government agencies, business associations, and the neighbourhood
65 must collaborate to enact more stringent laws, support greener production techniques, employ
66 cleaner fuels, and embrace environmentally friendly waste disposal strategies in order to
67 solve the problem. One international organisation in charge of combating air pollution is the
68 World Health Organisation (WHO). It creates regulations and standards for air quality and
69 offers suggestions for acceptable pollution levels to safeguard the general public's health.

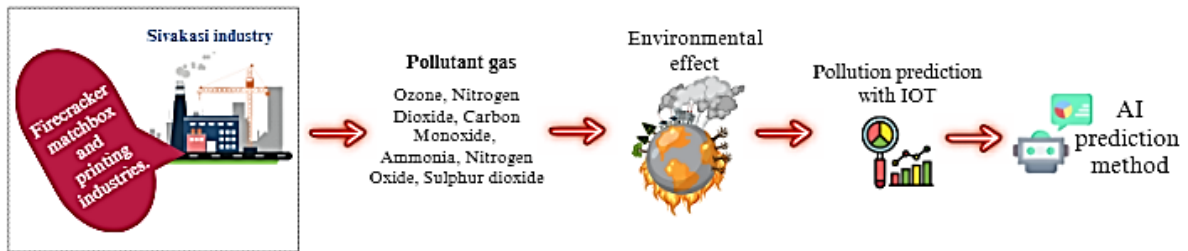
70 The World Health Organisation (WHO) also collects and performs epidemiological studies,
71 health impact assessments, and other research on the impacts of air pollution on human
72 health. Through influencing and public campaigns, the World Health Organisation (WHO)
73 increases public awareness of the health effects of air pollution. The World Health
74 Organisation (WHO) works in partnership with governments, stakeholders, and other
75 international organisations to devise and execute global air pollution mitigation initiatives. In
76 order to combine resources and expertise in the fight against air pollution, the WHO also
77 forms alliances with governments, non-governmental organisations, academic institutions,
78 business, and civil society. Figure 1 shows the frames work of the present study.

79

80 Air pollution from firework factories affects plant metabolism in Sivakasi. A study tracking
81 plant metabolism through enzymatic and biochemical measures found significant impacts on
82 *Ficus bengalensis*, highlighting the alarming rise in air pollution and deterioration of air
83 quality in the region (Thambavani et al., 2009). This underscores the urgent need for
84 pollution control measures to safeguard both the environment and human health. Further
85 emphasizing the importance of pollution control, another study investigated public opinion
86 and awareness of air pollution and control strategies in Sivakasi Taluk, Virudhunagar district
87 (Manikandan et al., 2016). This research sheds light on community perspectives and attitudes

88 toward environmental issues, advocating for informed policy decisions to mitigate air
89 pollution's adverse effects. These studies collectively emphasize the critical need for
90 proactive measures to address air pollution in Sivakasi, aiming to preserve environmental
91 quality and public health in the region.

92



93

94

Figure 1: Framework of Air pollution

95 By continuously monitoring carbon dioxide levels in real-time, this innovative system aims to
96 assess pollution levels in urban and industrial settings. It utilizes data from CO2 sensors,
97 temperature readings, and air quality metrics through IoT technology. An alert mechanism
98 triggers when air quality thresholds are exceeded, promptly notifying traffic management and
99 environmental authorities via GSM communication. This proactive approach enables users to
100 make informed decisions about their travel plans (Raj et al., 2017).

101 This study introduces an IoT-based system for monitoring and predicting air pollution in
102 specific locations. Employing Long Short Term Memory (LSTM) machine learning, the
103 system forecasts and analyzes air quality trends (Ayele & Mehta, 2018). IoT facilitates a
104 network of smart devices capable of sensing and communicating with their surroundings
105 globally. Proposing a three-phase air pollution monitoring setup utilizing gas sensors,
106 Arduino IDE, and Wi-Fi modules, the solution addresses the global challenge of air pollution.
107 Deployable in urban areas, the system collects real-time air quality data accessible via the
108 IoT-Mobair Android application. It not only measures current pollution levels but also
109 predicts future air quality indices (Dhingra et al., 2019).

110 An Internet of Things (IoT) based real-time air pollution monitoring and forecasting system
111 designed to save hardware costs and enhance environmental protection. Using neural network
112 technology, the device may be installed over wide areas and foresee changes in air pollution.
113 It also improves the effectiveness of traditional air automated monitoring systems by
114 permitting focused emergency disposal actions to reduce losses in real-world applications
115 (Xiaojun et al., 2015). In addition to reviewing IoT-based air quality monitoring systems, this
116 research suggests an intelligent platform for pollution reduction. It makes recommendations
117 for online administration, cloud-based decision making, information tracking, and
118 comprehensive network connectivity while contrasting RFID, M₂M, and sensor networks.
119 The study also looks at how well IoT ambient air quality control platforms function and are
120 available in different scenarios (Zhao et al., 2020).

121 This study introduces the Environmental Toxicology for Air Pollution Monitoring System
122 powered by artificial intelligence and enabled by the Internet of Things (ETAPM-AIT),
123 aimed at advancing human health. The system employs a sensor array within the Internet of
124 Things to detect eight contaminants, with collected data transmitted to a cloud server for
125 comprehensive analysis.

126 For efficient categorization and prediction of air quality, the model integrates an Elman
127 Neural Network (ENN) enhanced by Artificial Algae Algorithms (AAA). According to
128 findings from simulation tests, these cutting-edge methodologies demonstrate robust
129 performance under various conditions (Asha et al., 2022) In addition, a novel approach using
130 Internet of Things (IoT) technology for air quality monitoring incorporates edge computing
131 capabilities. This system gathers real-time data through sensors that promptly transmit
132 information to nearby computing nodes for immediate processing and analysis. By
133 employing a strategy that balances local data processing with battery-powered sensing nodes,
134 the model effectively reduces computational burdens. Moreover, algorithms are employed to
135 address cross-sensitivity issues and minimize potential inaccuracies, resulting in a data

136 accuracy rate between seventy-five to eighty percent. Furthermore, through automated
137 sensor calibration, the system achieves enhanced efficiency while reducing power
138 consumption by up to 23%. Experimental evaluations validate the operational effectiveness
139 of this approach (Idrees et al., 2018).

140 In this case the effects of air pollution on the environment and human health are covered in
141 this overview, with an emphasis on machine learning and artificial intelligence techniques. It
142 focuses on hybrid models for predicting climate change, chronic respiratory conditions, and
143 significant pollutants. Using performance evaluation error measures such as R^2 , RMSE,
144 MAE, and MAPE, the study emphasises the higher performance of hybrid models over single
145 AI models (Subramaniam et al., 2022). In Consequence, Several machine learning methods
146 have been proposed by researchers to forecast PM2.5 levels in contaminated urban areas. In
147 Python 3.7.3, the experiment was conducted using Jupyter Notebook. The findings indicated
148 that the models XGBoost, AdaBoost, random forest, and KNN were more accurate in
149 forecasting PM2.5 and air quality levels. With lower error rates, the suggested models
150 performed better than the current ones (Kothandaraman et al., 2022).

151 The Air Quality Index (AQI), which measures the cleanliness or contamination of the air, is a
152 tool used by the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) to monitor pollutants such as
153 ozone, sulphur dioxide, particulates matter, carbon monoxide, and nitrogen dioxide (Cordova
154 et al., 2021). The populace becomes more vulnerable as the AQI rises. At more than 4000
155 locations, the US Environmental Protection Agency keeps an eye on six pollutants: lead, O₃,
156 PM10, PM2.5, NO₂, and SO₂. These pollutants correlate to various air quality criteria
157 (Schürholz et al., 2020).

158 This study explores the application of SARIMA models specifically in forecasting air
159 pollution levels. It discusses how seasonal ARIMA models can be used to analyze historical
160 air quality data and predict future trends, taking into account the seasonality and other

161 temporal patterns of air pollutants. The paper likely provides insights into methodology, data
162 preprocessing, model selection, and validation techniques relevant to using SARIMA for air
163 quality prediction (Gupta et al 2020).

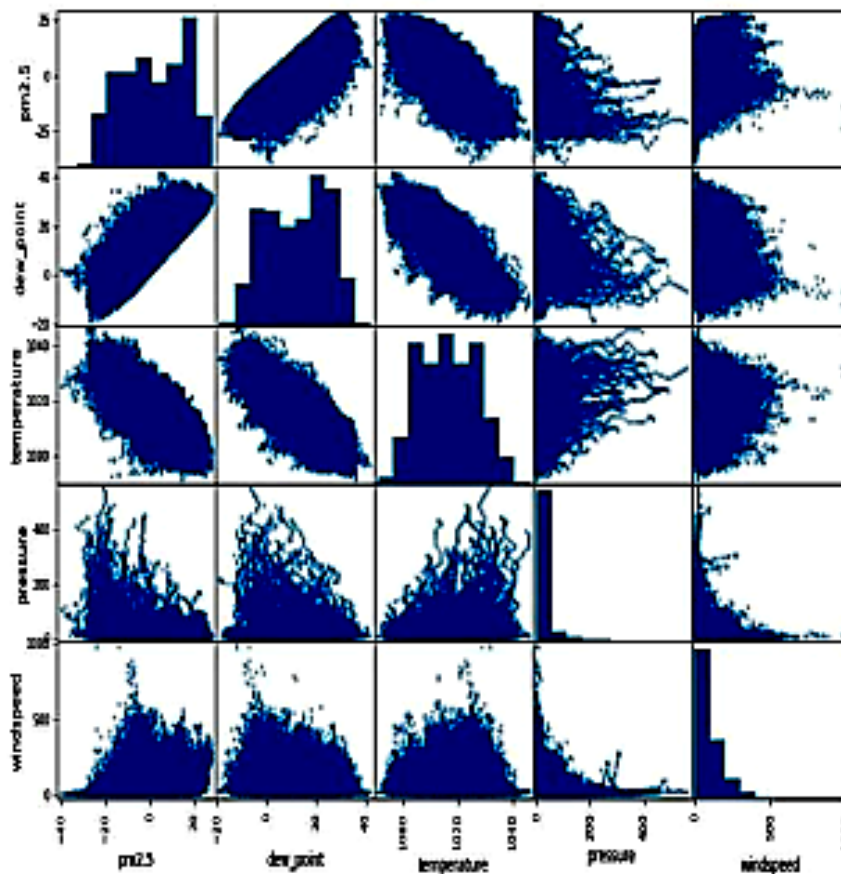
164 The primary causes of air pollution, which are combustion processes, traffic, industry, and
165 agriculture, are threats to ecosystems and biodiversity. Using low-emission fuels, green
166 technology, and legal restrictions have the potential to cut air pollutants by at least 40% since
167 1990 (Abd Rahman et al., 2013). The three air pollutants that have the biggest effects on
168 human health in Germany are ground-level ozone (O₃), nitrogen dioxide (NO₂), and
169 particulate matter (PM). These are the pollutants that the European Environmental Agency
170 concentrates on (Asghari et al., 2016). Reducing air pollution through appropriate measures
171 is the goal of environmental agencies and municipal authorities. It is difficult to predict and
172 simulate air pollution concentrations because of the intricate interactions that exist between
173 contaminants and outside variables like weather, transportation, and land use (Yarragunta et
174 al., 2021). Providing dependable data on air pollution variability to local decision-makers in
175 transportation, urban, and environmental planning is essential (Ren et al., 2022).

176 Moreover, a mobile pollution sensor platform for enhanced data accuracy, visualisation tools
177 for personalised health, travel, and pollution alerts, a clinical experiment to ascertain the
178 causal relationships between personal pollutants and health perception, and an AI and big
179 data framework for high-resolution, real-time air quality estimation (Geetha Mani et al.,
180 2021). The method is cross-disciplinary and readily adaptable to different fields and nations
181 (Li et al. , 2021). In order to address public health problems, this book examines Internet of
182 Things options for indoor air quality monitoring. It offers case studies and innovative
183 techniques, such as reasonably priced sensors. In this multidisciplinary field, the writers talk
184 about cutting edge technology, applications, algorithms, systems, and future prospects (Saini

185 et al., 2022). With case studies and review questions, it is intended for advanced
186 undergraduate and graduate courses. The book covers issues including emissions, climate
187 change, and ozone profiles and is easily readable by both novice and expert readers (Tiwari,
188 2018). Finally, With an emphasis on solid waste management, transportation, and healthcare
189 systems, the guide covers the usage of IoT devices in pollution control and health
190 applications. In addition to providing strategies for controlling and reducing pollution
191 sources, it addresses the role of IoT in monitoring industrial pollution, solid waste, and
192 healthcare (Roy et al., 2023).

193 2. Proposed Research Methodology

194 2.1 Data collection



195

196

Figure 2 Scatter plot for the relation among attributes

197

198 Data is acquired from the UCI AI repository using PM2.5 concentrations. The data set was
199 collected between April 21, 2024 and April 27, 2024 from 10PM to 4AM in Sivakasi,
200 TamilNadu, India as well as from <https://www.windy.com/-Menu/menu?21.997,79.001,5>.
201 The data set's major characteristics are time, date, hour, NO₂, NO_x, NH₃, CO, SO₂,
202 O₃, pressure, temperature, combined wind direction, and cumulative wind speed. Each
203 recorded sample has a length of one hour (Figure 2). By identifying and removing redundant
204 values throughout preparation stages, the performance of proposed models is assessed using
205 the UCI AI repository data set.

206 *2.2 Data measurement*

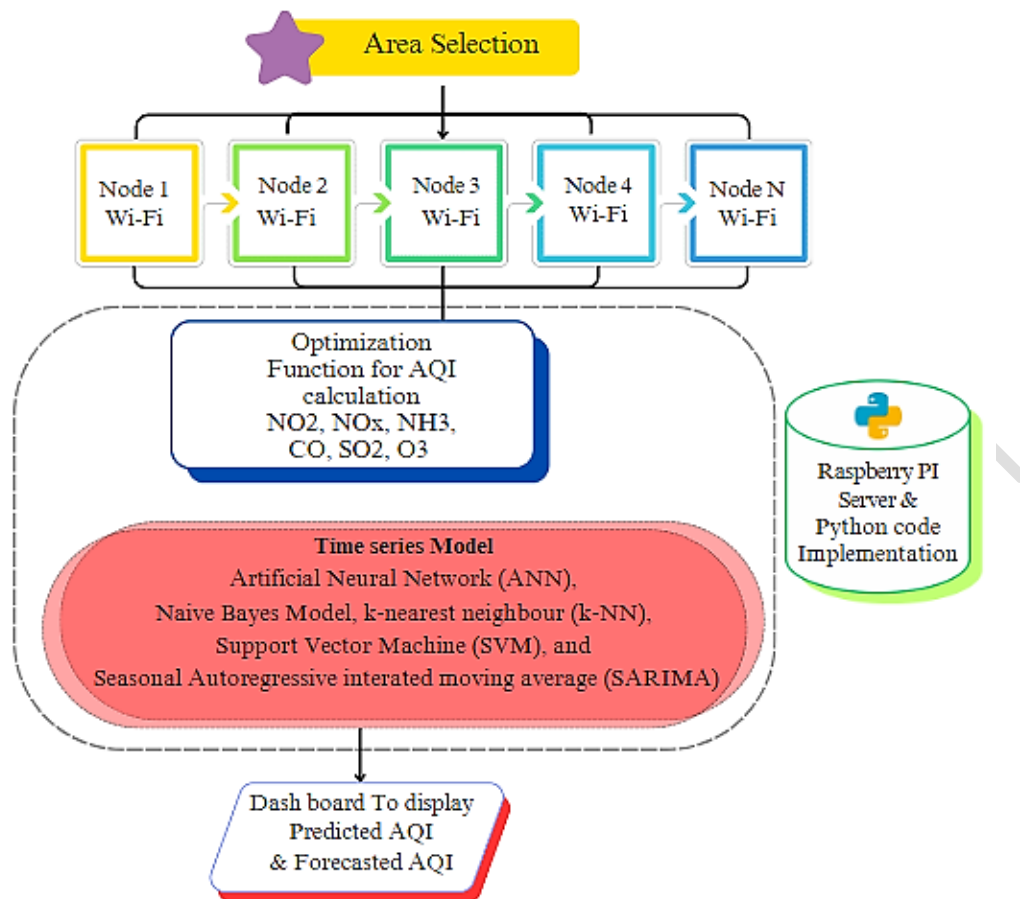
207 An Internet of Things-based Air Quality Index (AQI) system monitors and measures air
208 quality in real time. The following steps describe the data measurement of IoT-based AQI,
209 which is examined in this study.

- 210 1. At first, Sensors are deployed across different locations to measure pollutants and
211 environmental parameters.
- 212 2. Data is collected and transmitted to a central server or cloud platform via wireless
213 communication protocols such as wifi, Bluetooth and so on.
- 214 3. Real-time data processing and analysis using algorithms, often with artificial
215 intelligence and machine learning techniques, detect patterns, trends, and anomalies.
- 216 4. An AQI value is calculated using standardized formulas or algorithms, providing a
217 numerical or color-coded scale indicating the overall air quality level. The calculated

218 AQI values are presented to users through user-friendly interfaces, such as mobile
219 apps, websites, or dashboards. In case of poor air quality conditions or when AQI
220 thresholds are exceeded, alerts are sent to relevant stakeholders.

221 5. Data collected from IoT devices can be shared with other systems for decision-
222 making and policy formulation. This system enables proactive measures to mitigate
223 air pollution and protect public health, empowering individuals, communities, and
224 authorities to make informed decisions regarding outdoor activities, transportation,
225 and environmental policies.

226 These data measures, obtained from monitoring stations strategically located across Sivakasi,
227 can give useful insights into air quality trends, pollutant sources, and possible health hazards
228 connected with air pollution in the area. Continuous surveillance and evaluation of these
229 indicators are required for successful air quality management and the deployment of
230 mitigation strategies. Figure 3 demonstrates the present architectures of the research.



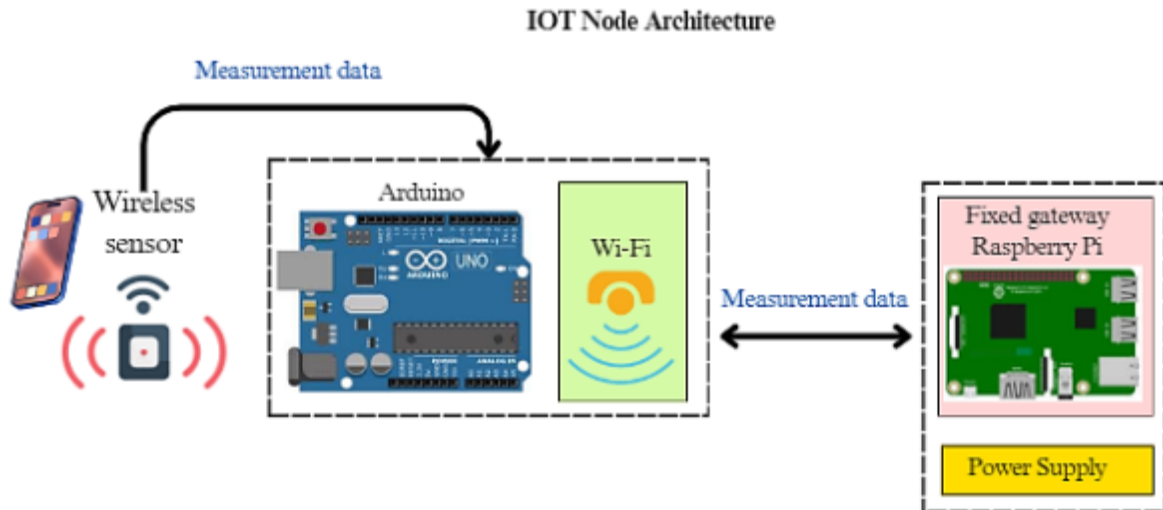
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232

Figure 3. Proposed Model

233 *2.3 IoT node architecture*

234 As shown in figure 4, the IoT Node was set up using three sensors that were linked to an
 235 Arduino and calibrated using the Arduino. The data was wirelessly transferred to a Raspberry
 236 Pi 3, which works as both a local server and an edge computing device for data storage. On
 237 the Raspberry Pi, techniques for artificial intelligence and data preprocessing were
 238 implemented using Python code. To create an air pollution monitoring system using a
 239 Raspberry Pi 3 Model B, Arduino Uno board, and gas sensor modules, it needs the following
 240 hardware components: a Raspberry Pi 3 Model B board, microSD card, power supply,

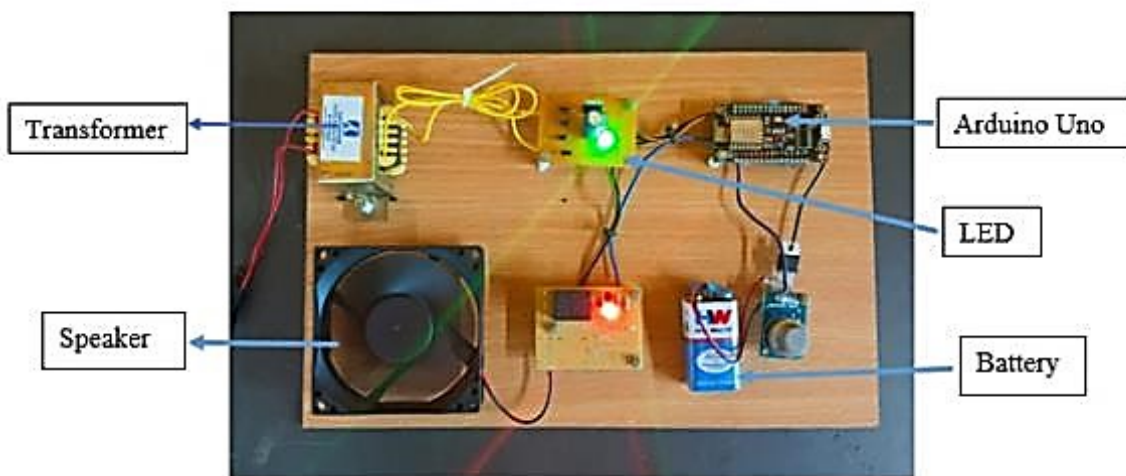


241

242

Figure 4. Iot node architecture

243 HDMI cable, monitor, Arduino Uno board, USB cable, and gas sensor modules. Wiring and
 244 connectors include jumper wires, board or perfboard, stable power supply, waterproof
 245 enclosure, communication interface, computer with development environment, optional
 246 components like LCD display, LEDs, resistors, and capacitors. Mounting hardware ensures
 247 secure placement of sensors and boards. Follow safety precautions and calibration routines
 248 for accurate data collection (Figure 5).



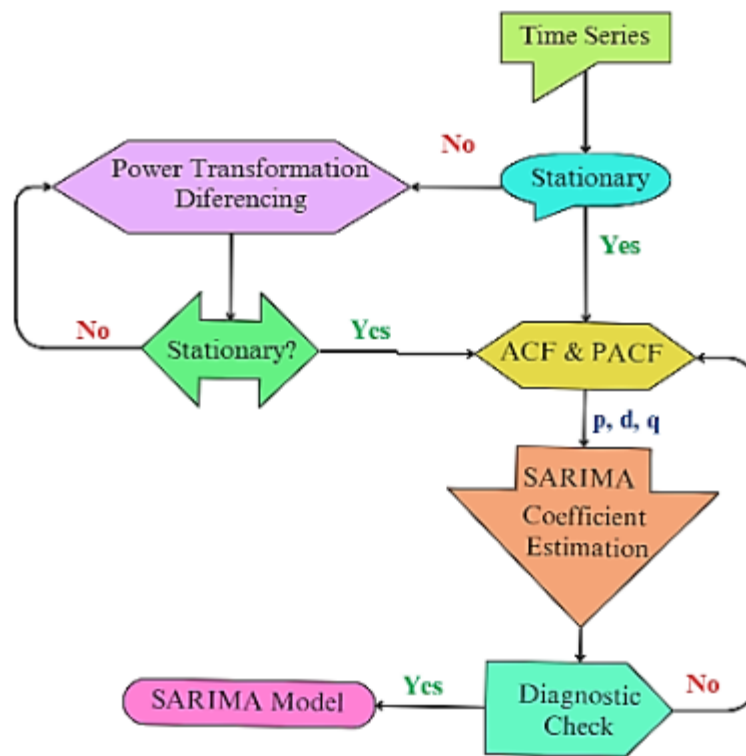
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Figure 5. Hardware set up

251 2.4 Seasonal Autoregressive Integrated Moving Average (SARIMA)

252 Using time-series data, the Seasonal Autoregressive Integrated Moving-Average (SARIMA)
253 model is a technique for identifying air pollution. It entails gathering, preparing, and
254 examining data to look for patterns and seasonal variances. Plots of the autocorrelation
255 function and partial autocorrelation function are used to identify the model, and methods such
256 as maximum likelihood estimation are used to estimate it. Metrics including accuracy,
257 coefficient, mean absolute error, and root mean square error are used to assess its predictions.



258

259

Figure 6 SARIMA Model

260 The trained model is used to forecast future air pollution levels, considering both short-term
261 and long-term trends. An alerting system is set up to notify stakeholders when pollution
262 levels exceed certain thresholds or when the forecast indicates deteriorating air quality. The
263 model is regularly updated to improve accuracy and adapt to changing patterns. It is

264 integrated with IoT-based air quality monitoring systems to automate data collection and
 265 analysis. This approach allows for the development of robust tools for detecting air pollution
 266 trends, making informed decisions, and implementing effective pollution control measures.
 267 Table 1 contains a record of the model parameters. Figure 6 shows the block diagram for the
 268 time-series Analysis-ARIMA model.

269

270

271

Table 1 SARIMA model coefficient

Model coefficients	Auto regressive model(p)	Differencing model(d)	Moving average (q)
Values	6	4	2

272

273 *2.5 PM2.5 level prediction of pollutants (NO₂, NO_x, NH₃, CO, SO₂, O₃) using AI based*
 274 *algorithms*

275 Predicting PM2.5 levels based on other pollutant concentrations (NO₂, NO_x, NH₃, CO, SO₂,
 276 O₃) using various AI models such as Naive Bayes, Artificial Neural Network, Support Vector
 277 Machine, k-Nearest Neighbors can be applied to this task:

278 **3. Model Training and Evaluation:**

279 *3.1 Naive Bayes:*

280 The process of predicting PM2.5 levels using Naive Bayes involves several steps. First,
 281 historical data on PM2.5 levels and pollutants is collected from various sources. Data is

282 preprocessed to clean, handle missing values, and transform into a suitable format for
283 analysis. Relevant features are selected, such as pollutant concentrations (NO₂, NO_x, NH₃,
284 CO, SO₂, O₃), to predict PM_{2.5} levels. The Naive Bayes classifier is trained on the training
285 data once the dataset is split into training and testing sets. The model is used to forecast new
286 pollutant concentrations and its performance is assessed using testing data and metrics such
287 as MAE and MSE.

288 *3.2 Artificial Neural Network (ANN):*

289 There is a step-by-step method for utilising an Artificial Neural Network (ANN) to estimate
290 PM_{2.5} levels depending on pollutant concentrations. The first step in the process is gathering
291 data, which includes past information on PM_{2.5} concentrations and other pollutants. The next
292 step is data preparation, which cleans and formats the data so that it can be analysed. After
293 that, features are chosen with the concentrations of contaminants serving as the primary
294 features. The architecture of the ANN, comprising of the number of neurons, layers,
295 activation functions, and other hyperparameters, is designed. The model is trained using the
296 training data once the dataset has been split into two sets: testing and training. The testing
297 data is used to evaluate the model's performance and can be applied to forecast new data.

298 *3.3 Support Vector Machine*

299 Support Vector Machine (SVM) is a popular supervised learning technique for forecasting
300 PM_{2.5} levels using on pollutant concentration. To use SVM, gather historical data on PM_{2.5}
301 levels and pollutants, prepare it by cleaning, handling missing values, and transforming it into
302 a suitable format for analysis. Select relevant features from the dataset, such as pollutant
303 concentrations, to predict PM_{2.5} levels. A dataset that has been split into training and testing
304 sets is used to train the SVM model, and metrics like MSE, R-squared, and MAE are used to
305 assess the model's performance. With fresh data, the model can forecast contaminants; its

306 kernel and hyperparameters are tuned according to the features and performance demands of
307 the dataset.

308 *3.4 k-Nearest Neighbors*

309 The k-Nearest Neighbors (k-NN) approach is a classification algorithm that detects air
310 pollution. It entails gathering historical information on pollutant concentrations and
311 accompanying pollution levels. The data is preprocessed to remove errors, manage missing
312 numbers, and convert it to an appropriate format for analysis.

313 The training data is used to train the k-NN classifier, which is then assessed using the testing
314 data. Accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score are some of the most used assessment
315 measures for classification tasks. Once trained and assessed, the model may be used to
316 forecast new data using pollutant concentrations as input. This approach provides a step-by-
317 step guidance to applying k-NN in air pollution detection. By following these steps and
318 considerations, you can develop predictive models to estimate PM2.5 levels based on other
319 pollutant concentrations using Naive Bayes, Artificial Neural Network, Support Vector
320 Machine, and k-Nearest Neighbors algorithms.

321 *3.5 Performance Indices*

322 Each created model's performance measure is evaluated using the statistical criteria
323 of RMSE, coefficient of determination (R^2), and MAE.

324 *3.5.1 MAE*

325 MAE is the average of expected and actual errors, determined via an equation.

326
$$MAE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{l=1}^n |x_l - \hat{x}_l|$$

327

328

329 3.5.2 Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE).

330 The Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) is a statistical measure that compares predicted values
331 to actual values, with a smaller number indicating better performance, and is calculated using
332 Equation .

333

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{l=1}^N (X_1 - \widehat{X}_2)^2}$$

334 3.5.3 Coefficient of determination (R^2)

335 The coefficient of determination (R) is a statistical metric used to evaluate a regression
336 model's fit, reflecting the proportion of variation in the dependent variable that can be
337 predicted from the independent variables. It is especially important in air pollution prediction,
338 as R^2 reflects the model's ability to forecast PM2.5 levels based on pollutant concentrations.

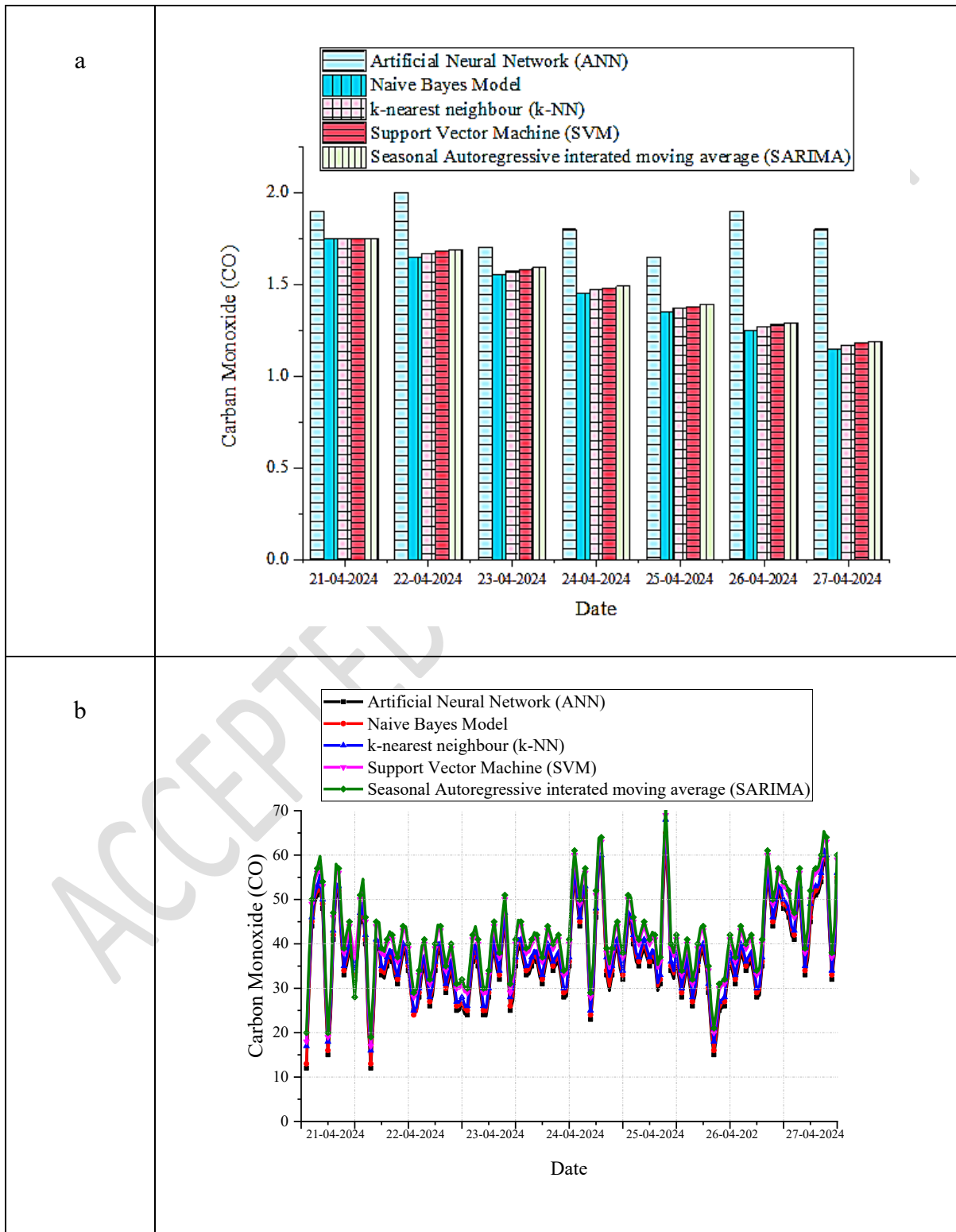
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$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{SS_{res}}{SS_{tot}}$$

340 4. Results and Discussion

341 The study uses Raspberry Pi for data collection and forecasting using Python programs and
342 time series models. Artificial Neural Network (ANN), Naive Bayes Model, Support Vector
343 Machine (SVM), k-nearest neighbor (k-NN), and Seasonal Autoregressive Interacted Moving
344 Average (SARIMA) calculations are trained using training data. Results are anticipated for
345 one hour every seven days. To ensure model correctness, anticipated information is compared
346 to test data. Performance indices are used to validate the outcomes. The results reveal that the

347 SARIMA algorithm is more accurate at estimating CO levels. Table 2 and Figures 7 (a) and
348 (b) show the model performance metrics for test data, together with the 95% confidence
349 intervals.



350

Figure 7 Prediction of CO (a) Training Data (b) Test Data

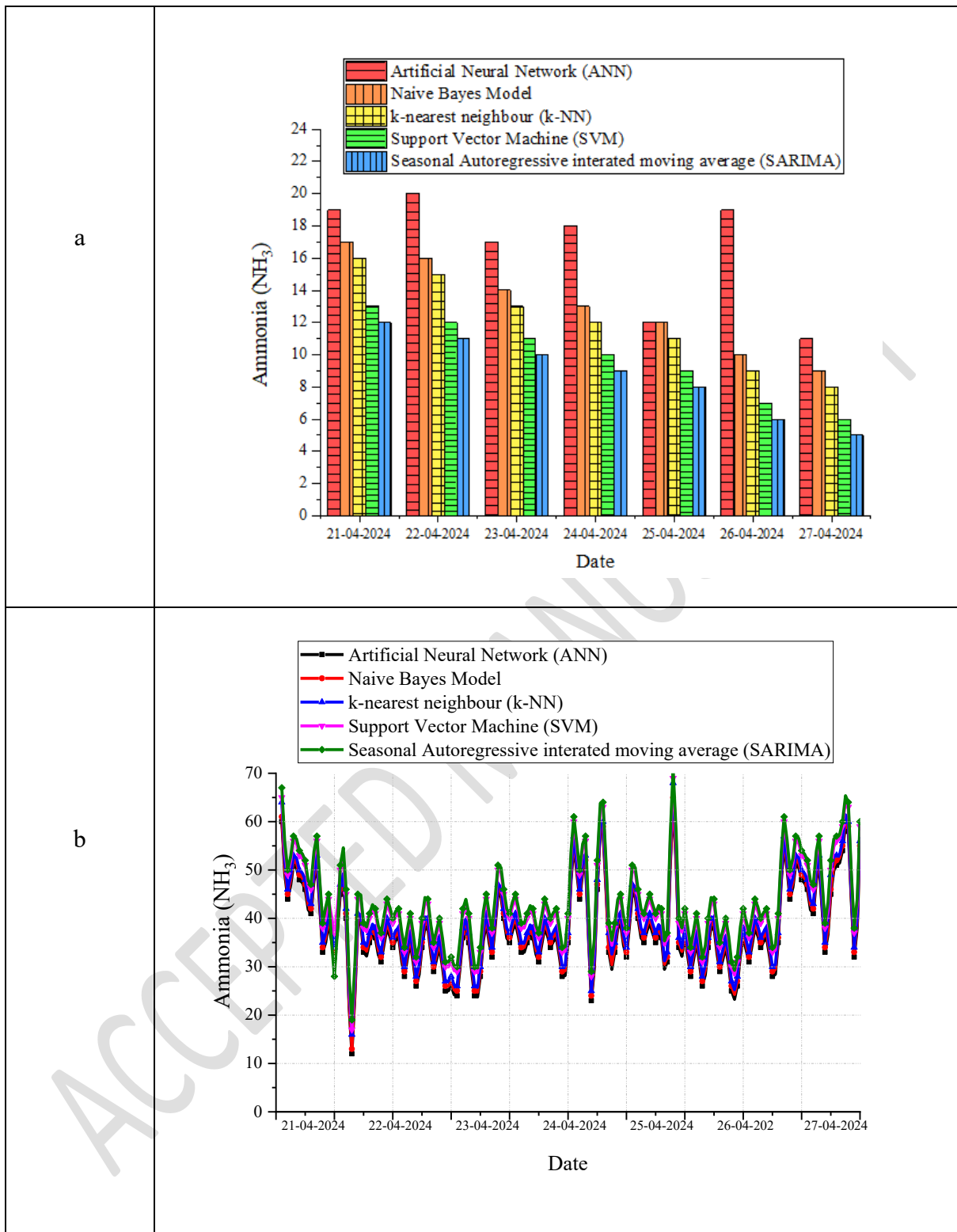
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Table 2. Performance metrics of CO

Performance Indices	MAE	RMSE	Coefficient of determination (R^2)
Artificial Neural Network (ANN)	0.3343	0.4677	0.6565
Naive Bayes Model	0.3569	0.3344	0.6232
k-nearest neighbour (kNN)	0.3679	0.3659	0.6785
Support Vector Machine (SVM)	0.3869	0.3783	0.5673
Seasonal Autoregressive interated moving average (SARIMA)	0.3876	0.3862	0.5452

352

353 The study compares the performance of various AI based algorithms and time series
 354 forecasting models for predicting ammonia (NH_3) levels in the air which is displayed in
 355 figure 8 (a) and (b). Data collection involves gathering historical data, preprocessing it, and
 356 feature engineering. A larger portion of the dataset is used for training, and the dataset is split
 357 into testing and training phases. Model selection and training include k-NN, SVM, SARIMA,
 358 Naive Bayes, and neural network model design and training. For NH_3 levels, the optimal
 359 model is chosen through performance evaluation.



360

361

Figure 8. Prediction of NH_3 (a) Training Data (b) Test Data

362 Table 3 shows that the SARIMA method has greater accuracy in forecasting NH₃, with
363 minimum MAE, R², and RMSE, as well as a 95% confidence range for test data.

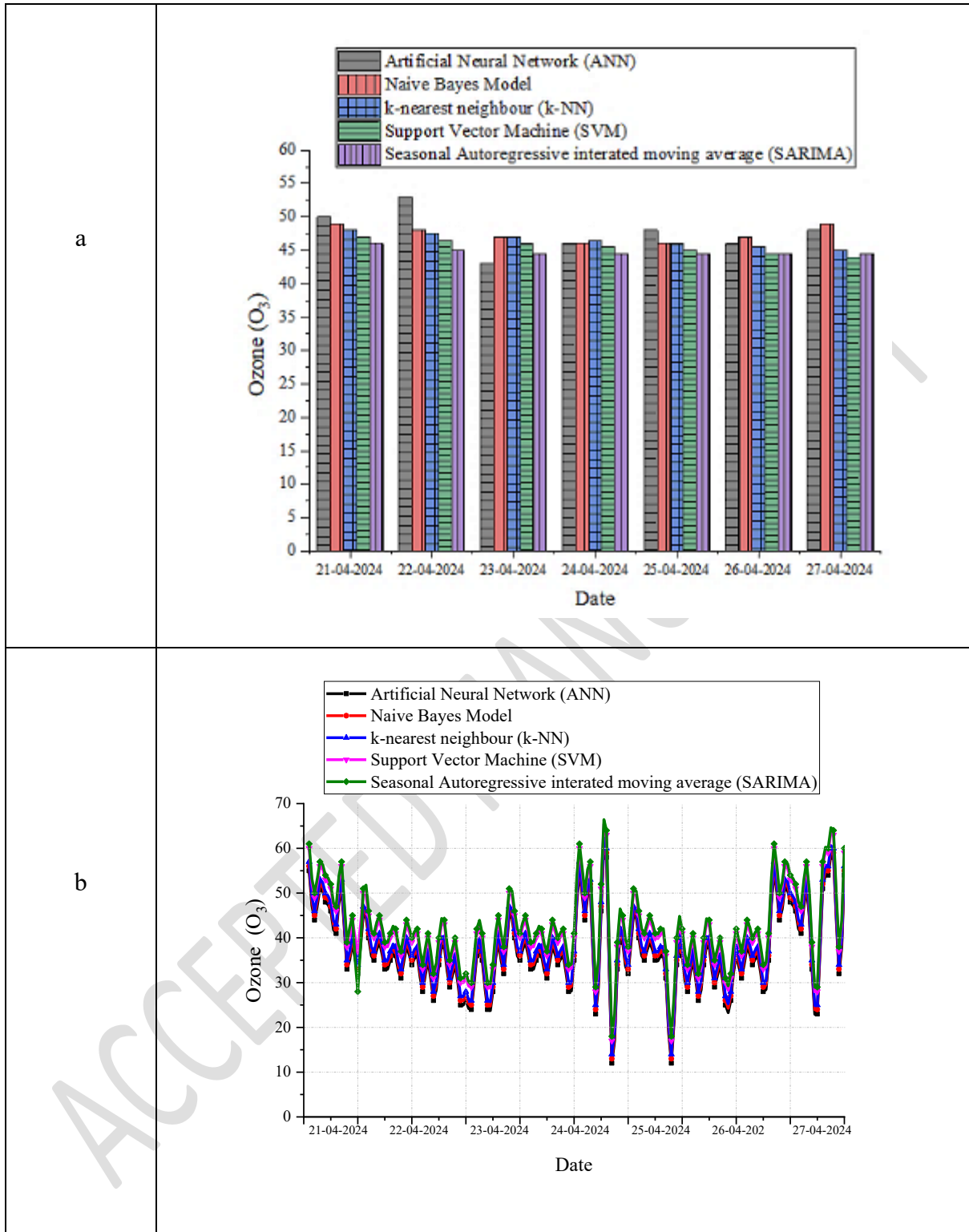
364 **Table 3.** Performance metrics of NH₃

Algorithm	MAE	RMSE	Coefficient of determination (R ²)
Artificial Neural Network (ANN)	3.4539	3.6465	3.4567
Naive Bayes Model	1.4545	1.8342	1.8642
k-nearest neighbour (kNN)	1.4631	1.9753	1.7867
Support Vector Machine (SVM)	1.3426	1.3446	1.8986
Seasonal Autoregressive interated moving average (SARIMA)	1.3467	1.7865	1.4758

365

366 Figures 9 (a) and (b) illustrates a comparison of the performance of O₃ forecasting throughout
367 the training and testing periods. The study collects data on Raspberry Pi and forecasts it using
368 Python scripts and time series models. Three different detector data is separated into training
369 and test data. AI-based algorithms and Seasonal Autoregressive Interacted Moving Average
370 (SARIMA) computations are trained using training data. The results are anticipated for one
371 hour every seven days from 21-04-2024 to 27-04-2024. The predicted data is compared to
372 test data to ensure model correctness. Performance indicators are computed to validate the
373 findings. The results reveal that the SARIMA algorithm is more accurate for O₃ forecasting.

374



375

376

Figure 9 Prediction of O₃ (a) Training Data (b) Test Data

377 The collected data show that the SARIMA algorithm is more accurate in forecasting O₃.
378 Table 4 displays the various models' performance metrics for the O₃ test data. The confidence
379 interval is 95%.

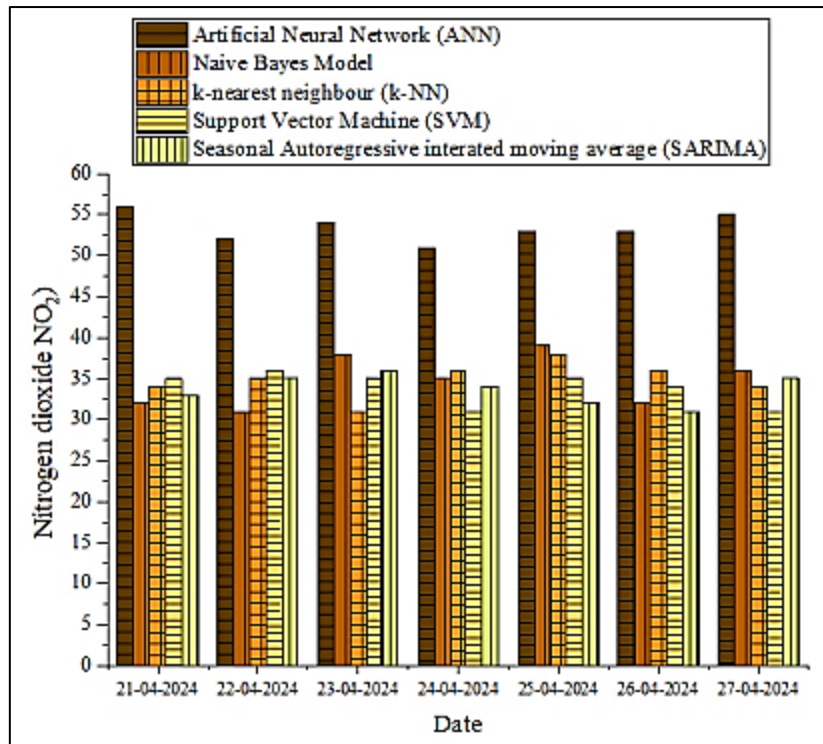
380 **Table 4** Performance metrics of O₃

Performance Indices	MAE	RMSE	Coefficient of determination (R ²)
ANN	1.5783	1.9759	2.3521
Naive Bayes Model	1.5045	1.8454	2.2758
kNN	1.4755	1.8075	2.2276
SVM	1.4755	1.7565	2.1875
Seasonal Autoregressive interated moving average (SARIMA)	1.3854	1.7784	2.1758

381

382 4.1 NO₂

383 The study compares the performance of AI-based algorithms in predicting NO₂ levels in air
384 pollution during training and testing phases. These algorithms use machine learning and
385 statistical techniques to gather historical data and analyze it to predict future ozone
386 concentrations. The data is then analyzed to understand its distribution and relationships
387 between variables. The most effective SARIMA model is selected for real-time NO₂ forecasts
388 and integrated into an operational system for ongoing monitoring and decision-making,
389 providing timely and accurate information for air quality management. The prediction of
390 training data of NO₂ was shown in figure 10.



391

392

Figure 10 Prediction of training data of NO₂

393

The SARIMA algorithm is found to have superior accuracy in forecasting NO₂, with a

394

confidence interval of 86%, as indicated by the performance indices in Table 5.

395

Table 5 Performance metrics of NO₂

Performance Indices	MAE	RMSE	Coefficient of determination (R ²)
Artificial Neural Network (ANN)	2.6546	1.9356	3.2654
Naive Bayes Model	2.2184	1.8645	3.0645
k-nearest neighbour (kNN)	2.1545	1.7466	2.9892
Support Vector Machine (SVM)	2.0548	1.6659	2.8464
Seasonal Autoregressive interated moving average (SARIMA)	2.0259	1.5268	2.5165

396

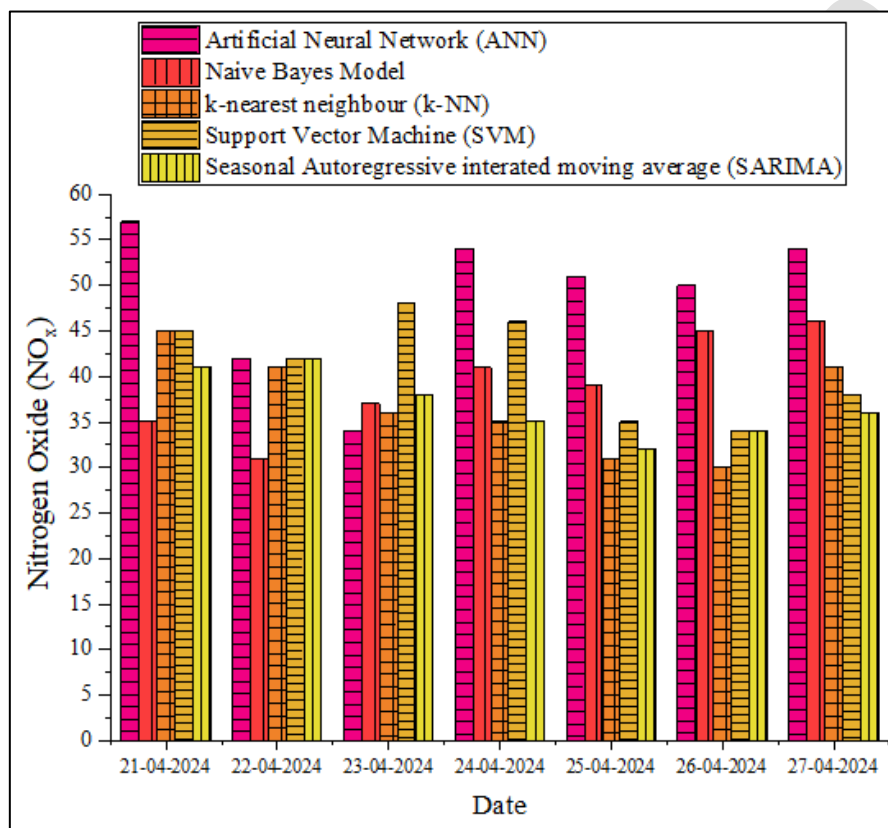
397 **4.2 NO_x,**

398 Figures 11 demonstrate the performance analysis of NO_x forecasting during training phases.

399 Nitrogen oxides (NO_x) are reactive gases from combustion processes in vehicles, industrial

400 facilities, and power plants, detected using SSRIMA and AI algorithms. Controlling NO_x

401 emissions is crucial for improving air quality.



402

403

Figure 11 Prediction of NO_x Test Data

404 The SARIMA algorithm is found to have superior accuracy in forecasting NO_x, with a

405 confidence interval of 87%, as indicated by the performance indices in Table 6.

406

407

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Table 6 Performance metrics of NO_x

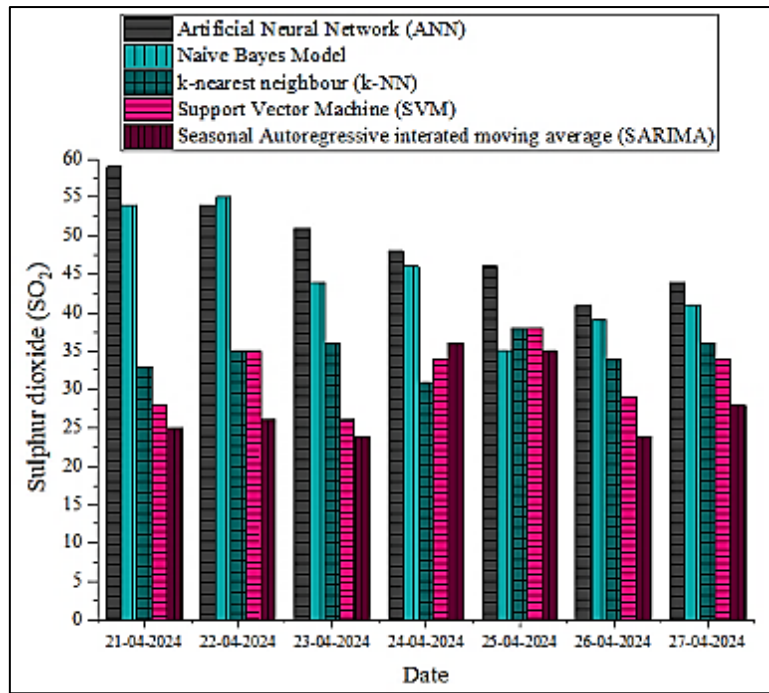
409

Performance Indices	MAE	RMSE	Coefficient of determination (R ²)
Artificial Neural Network (ANN)	3.9496	3.0651	3.0549
Naive Bayes Model	3.5164	2.8161	2.9169
k-nearest neighbour (k-NN)	2.6292	2.6469	2.6695
Support Vector Machine (SVM)	2.15489	2.4265	2.1989
Seasonal Autoregressive interated moving average (SARIMA)	1.9469	1.9466	1.9466

410

411 **4.3 SO₂**

412 SO₂ data metrics are essential for assessing air quality, identifying pollution sources, and
 413 evaluating regulatory compliance. Key metrics include concentration (ppb or µg/m³),
 414 temporal trends (changes over time), spatial distribution (locations within a region), and
 415 pollution episodes (short-term spikes above regulatory standards). These metrics help identify
 416 hotspots, pollution sources, and areas with elevated levels, guiding mitigation efforts and
 417 regulatory enforcement. Monitoring these metrics helps assess the severity of air pollution
 418 events and issue public health advisories or alerts. The training phase of SO₂ prediction was
 419 shown in figure 12.



420

421

Figure 12 Prediction of SO₂ Test Data

422 The SARIMA algorithm is found to have superior accuracy in forecasting SO₂, as indicated
 423 by the performance indices in Table 7 with a confidence interval of 80%.

424

Table 7 Performance metrics of SO₂

Performance Indices	MAE	RMSE	Coefficient of determination (R ²)
Artificial Neural Network (ANN)	1.5654	1.9416	2.9652
Naive Bayes Model	1.4265	1.5164	2.5165
k-nearest neighbour (k-NN)	1.2194	1.0265	2.4649
Support Vector Machine (SVM)	1.0564	0.9846	2.0659
Seasonal Autoregressive interated moving average (SARIMA)	0.9126	0.9466	1.8465

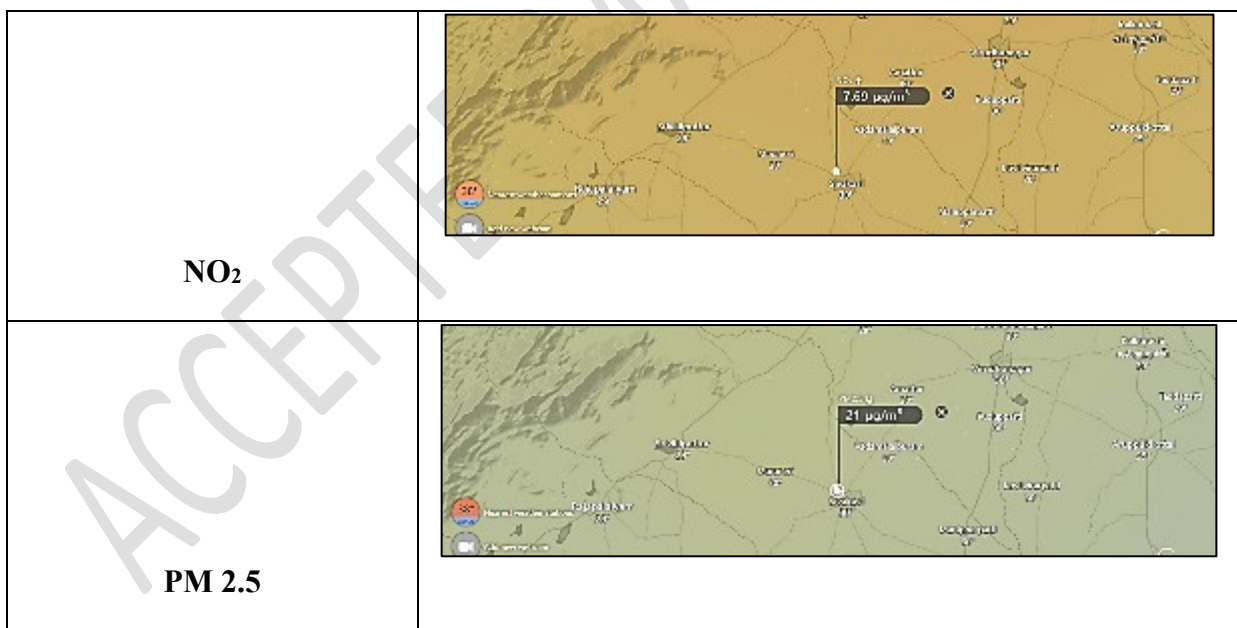
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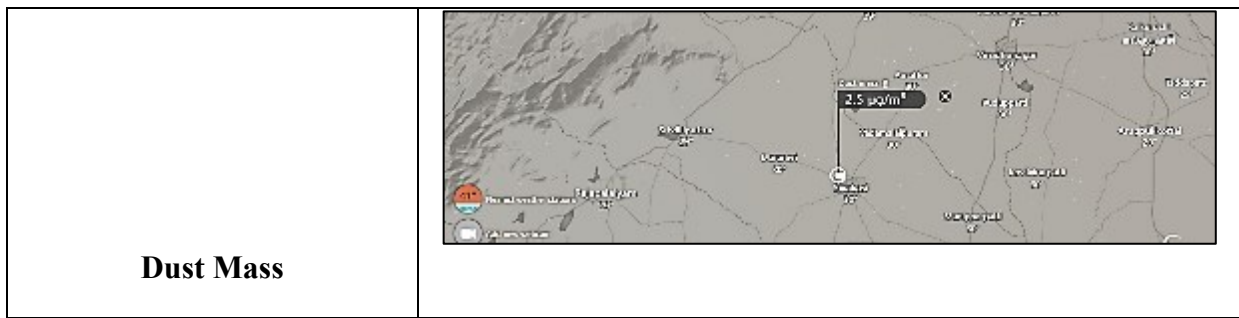
427 *4.4 Air pollutants monitoring in online*

428 Online monitoring of air pollutants involves real-time measurement and analysis of air
429 quality parameters using a network of stations equipped with sophisticated sensors and
430 instruments. These stations are strategically located in urban, industrial, and residential areas,
431 and each station is equipped with sensors for specific pollutants. Data collected is transmitted
432 to a central database or monitoring center, allowing immediate access to information and
433 timely response to pollution events. Regular calibration and maintenance of monitoring
434 equipment ensure data accuracy and reliability, displayed on the website for online
435 monitoring of air pollutants such as NO₂, PM_{2.5}, aerosol, ozone layer, SO₂, CO and dust
436 mass from anywhere in the world and it is clearly illustrated in figure 13.

437



<p>Aerosol</p>	
<p>Ozone Layer</p>	
<p>SO₂</p>	
<p>Surface Ozone</p>	
<p>CO Concentration</p>	



438 **Figure 13.** Website that monitors air quality

439 Data analysis and visualization tools are used to present the data in an easily understandable
 440 format. Online monitoring systems can be integrated with alert systems to notify authorities
 441 and the public about air quality issues. Figure 14 described about the air pollution level in
 442 Sivakasi district, TamilNadu, India.



443 **Figure 14.** View of location selection

445 5. Conclusion

446 An IoT based AI technique was developed to provide realistic real-time air quality tracking
 447 and monitoring from any location. An IoT-based hardware prototype was created to test the
 448 functioning of the suggested approach. The acquired data is evaluated and measured using the
 449 built AI based and time series models. The numerous time-series models are developed and

450 used to forecast particular air pollutants such as NO₂, NO_x, NH₃, CO, SO₂, and O₃. it was
451 collected in Sivakasi, Tamilnadu India. First, the models are trained using training data and
452 then tested using previously unknown test data. The values for the next four hours were
453 predicted with an 87% confidence interval by all of the AI methods that were used, including
454 Artificial Neural Network (ANN), Naive Bayes Model, k-nearest neighbour (k-NN), and
455 Support Vector Machine (SVM). Using test data, it was found that the performance indices of
456 the selected models were sufficient. The findings show that, with a 95% accuracy level,
457 SARIMA is more accurate than the other three techniques in all case studies and has the
458 lowest MAE, coefficient of determination, and RMSE values. As a result, the SARIMA
459 model was identified as a more appropriate forecasting approach for predicting future air
460 pollution values.

461 Evaluating the Air Pollution Index (API) with the aid of technology represents a significant
462 advancement in understanding and managing environmental health. Utilizing sophisticated
463 technologies such as Internet of Things (IoT) sensor arrays and artificial intelligence (AI),
464 modern systems can monitor a wide range of pollutants in real-time. These sensors collect
465 continuous data on air quality parameters, which are then transmitted to centralized servers
466 for comprehensive analysis. AI algorithms, such as neural networks and machine learning
467 models, process this data to generate accurate and timely assessments of the API. By
468 leveraging technology, API evaluations become more precise and responsive to dynamic
469 environmental conditions. This capability enables authorities and communities to make
470 informed decisions regarding public health interventions, urban planning, and pollution
471 control measures. Moreover, the integration of IoT and AI reduces reliance on traditional
472 monitoring methods that may be slower or less adaptable to rapid changes in air quality. As a
473 result, technology-driven API evaluations not only enhance our understanding of air pollution

474 but also empower proactive strategies to mitigate its adverse effects on human health and the
475 environment.
476

Abbreviations and Nomenclature

ANN	- Artificial Neural Network	R^2	- Coefficient Of Determination
k-NN	- k-nearest neighbour	O_3	- Ozone
SVM	- Support Vector Machine	NO_2	- Nitrogen Dioxide
SARIMA	- Seasonal Autoregressive Interated Moving Average	CO	- Carbon Monoxide
MAE	- Mean Absolute Error	NH_3	- Ammonia
RMSE	- Root Mean Square Error	NO_x	- Nitrogen Oxide
WHO	- World Health Organisation	SO_2	- Sulphur dioxide
LSTM	- Long Short Term Memory		
IOT	- Internet of Things		
ENN	- Elman Neural Network		
AAA	- Artificial Algae Algorithms		
PM	- Particulate Matter		
AQI	- Air Quality Index		

477 Competing interests

478 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

479 Authors contribution

480 **R.Nirmalan** conceptualized the study, designed the research methodology, and
481 implementation of the proposed work. **P. Thendral** conducted data collection, preprocessing,
482 and model training. **S.Karukuzhali** performed data analysis, interpretation and validation of
483 results. All authors contributed to the drafting and revision of the manuscript and approved
484 the final version for submission.

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