

Forecasting the Ammonia Concentration and Color Level in Reclaimed Water using Machine Learning

by

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This is to certify that I have examined the above MPhil thesis
and have found that it is complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the thesis examination committee have been made.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Title Page	i
Authorization Page	ii
Signature Page	iii
Acknowledgments	iv
Table of Contents	v
List of Figures	vii
List of Tables	viii
Abstract	ix
Chapter 1 Introduction	1
1.1 Background	1
1.2 Objectives	2
1.3 Organization of the thesis	2
Chapter 2 Literature Review	3
2.1 Introduction to water quality control	3
2.1.1 Automated system for water quality control	3
2.1.2 Artificial Intelligence	5
2.1.3 Machine learning and deep learning	6
2.2 Water quality control with machine learning	7
2.2.1 Drinking water treatment plants	7
2.2.2 Wastewater treatment plants	10
2.2.3 Reclaimed water system and water body	13
2.3 Tools and techniques for enhancing the performance of machine learning modeling	14
2.3.1 Programming languages	14
2.3.2 Data preprocessing	14
2.3.3 Feature engineering	14
Chapter 3 Methods and Materials	15
3.1 Wastewater treatment plant description	15
3.1.1 Treatment processes	15
3.1.2 Reclaimed water standard	16
3.2 Data collection and preparation	16
3.2.1 Ammonia data monitoring and collection	16
3.2.2 Color data monitoring and collection	16
3.2.3 Metrics for model evaluation	16

3.2.4	Data cleaning and pre-processing	16
3.2.4.1	Data smoothing with Savitzky-Golay filter	17
3.2.4.2	Exponentially Weighted Moving Average	17
3.2.4.3	Outlier Removal	17
3.2.5	Data transformation	17
3.3	Architecture design of the selected baseline models	17
3.3.1	Random Forest	17
3.3.2	LSTM	17
3.3.3	RNN	17
3.3.4	GRU	17
3.4	Implementation of regularization	17
3.4.1	Scheduler	17
Chapter 4	Results and Discussion	18
4.1	Baseline performance of ammonia concentration and colour level forecasting models	18
4.1.1	Machine learning vs deep learning	18
4.2	Improved performance on forecasting models using data pre-processing techniques	18
4.3	Data enrichment via feature engineering based on effluent quality pattern	18
4.4	Design of model architecture through analyzing wastewater composition in sewer system	18
Chapter 5	Conclusion	19

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

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Abstract

Water scarcity is a global challenge. One of the promising ways to mitigate the water resource crisis is via wastewater reclamation. Chlorine is commonly used for reclaimed water disinfection and requires precise dosing to satisfy endorsed quality standards. Ammoniacal nitrogen (NH_3N) and colour exist in the reclaimed water at concentrations between 0.23 – 5.44 mg N/L and 80 – 150 Hazen units, respectively, and can affect the chlorine demand. Forecasting the reclaimed water quality enables a feedback control system over the disinfection process by predicting the exact chlorine dose required which secures sufficient time to respond to sudden surges in color and ammonia levels. This study developed time-variant models based on machine learning to predict the NH_3N concentration and colour three hours into the future in the reclaimed water. The NH_3N data was collected by an online analyzer, and colour data was collected by a customized auto-sampling spectrophotometer, both are installed in the reclaimed water treatment plant in Hong Kong. Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) was found to be the most effective architecture for training NH_3N and colour forecasting models. In the training processes, we applied data pre-processing methods and feature engineering, a technique to select or create relevant variables in raw data to enhance predictive model performance. From feature engineering, we discovered that the daily fluctuation in NH_3N and colour has correlations with the urban water consumption patterns. This finding further enhanced the NH_3N and colour forecasting model performance by 4.9% and 5.4% compared to baseline models. This research work offers novel methods and feature engineering pro-

cesses for NH_3N concentration and colour forecasting in reclaimed water for treatment optimization.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

AI technologies have been successfully applied to different DWT processes, such as the prediction of the coagulant dosage, discrimination of the DBP formation potential, advanced control of membrane fouling, membrane preparation and optimization, and water quality prediction. Li et al. (2021)

Forecasting models play an important roles in water quality control in drinking water treatment plants (DTPs) and wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs). The need of using forecasting models are becuase the unpredictable nature of water quality, and the treatment operations are subjected to the change of water quality to prodcue effluent complied the government regulation Chen et al. (2003)

Forecasting models can also be called time series model becuase the data is consisted of the values and the time (need to be further revised). For the well-know time series models are for example, RNN, ... These are used to replace the theory-based models, for example Activated Sludge Model (ASM). The difference between these two models are, machine learning based models require to learn from historic data, while the thoery-based models only need to enter the basic operational parameters (e.g., influent flow, tempearture, and pH, etc).

Despite the promising usage and performance of machine learning models, the collection of the data became the most difficult tasks. Many small scale or old treatment plants do not have the capital or the available environment for the set-ups of the online sensors to collect data. Although these are the major issues, it's still possible to train a forecasting model with one input, which is also called a self-prediction model. Although the accuracy or stability compared to multi-input models, the forecasted results can be used at some cases. To increase the model performance, there are several ways. Paper included weather data, or perform data-preprocessing methods to improve the model performance.

These solutions (data preprocessing, feature engineering) are not well discussed in this field, also the potential of using univariate models are under estimated.

1.2 Objectives

The specific objectives of this thesis work are:

- (1) To build baseline univariate forecasting models using machine learning and deep learning models.
- (2) To develop data preprocessing methods for enhancing model forecasting performance.
- (3) To extract features and hidden relations of water parameters in MBR effluent by analyzing the wastewater collected upstream of the WWTPs.
- (4) To develop methods for improving performance of forecasting models using the hidden features and relations of the water parameters.

1.3 Organization of the thesis

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction to water quality control

2.1.1 Automated system for water quality control

Programmable logic controller (PLC) is an industrial computer system designed for any process requiring a series of devices and equipment operates cohesively to achieve multiple purposes in manufacturing or treatment processes. The main components of PLC include a center process unit (CPU), input modules and output modules (I/O). CPU is responsible to process digital signals from input modules and send commands through output modules based on the control logics programmed on the PLC. For chemical dosing control in water treatment plants (WTPs), PLC system receives readings from turbidity and pH sensors and uses pumps to dose aluminum solution automatically (Andhare and Palkar, 2014). The PLC system with the capability of producing real-time output commands in response to the input signals also makes it widely used in the wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs). For oxygen concentration control in the aeration tank, PLC system receives signals of dissolved oxygen (DO) detectors and transmits signals to open or close the electric butterfly valves to further alter the DO concentration (Zhu and Qiu, 2017). Although PLC systems are the most used system across industries for its easy programming and reliable control, PLC system is merely a device that can be programmed to control operative devices with on-off logic (i.e., a logic control with two states) and the capability of complex control is compromised. In reality, many WTPs or WWTPs have the need of precise control of the treatment processes. Being aware of the limitations of the PLC systems, a more advanced controller called proportional–integral–derivative (PID) controller for receiving analog signals was developed to obtain more sophisticated controls over the operative devices.

To react to rapidly-changing process conditions, a PID controller generates an output value based on continuous calculation of an error value $e(t)$ as the difference between a desired setpoint (SP) and a measured process variable and applies a correction based on

proportional, integral, and derivative terms. The use of the "P", "I", and "D" allows the system to quickly reach steady state with a feedback control system (i.e., the system output is returned to the system input which is included in the decision making process in PID controller). Generally speaking, a PID controller is a technology (i.e., a specialist algorithm) for controlling a single device with more complex logics, while a PLC system is a physical system consists of different modules and capable of controlling dozens of devices only with two-state logic. In addition, A PID controller can be designed to operate on PLC device and provide a more precise control strategy to a designated device. In WWTPs, a single-variable feedback analog control loop in PID can be used to control the temperature in the activated sludge treatment by stabilizing the system temperature in a shorter time (Bados and Morejon, 2020). The feedback control scheme is also applied in WTPs to adjust the addition of chlorine dosage (i.e., also known as the disinfection process, chlorination, or postchlorination) to reach the target concentration of free chlorine residual (FRC) (Wang and Xiang, 2019). Disinfection process is carried out in a chlorine contact tank which provides sufficient time for chlorine to disinfect pollutants. Since the chlorine added by the dosing device requires time to travel from the entry to the exit, the system output can only reflect the changes of water quality in a delayed time of 30 minutes (i.e., the designed time for water to travel in chlorine contact tank is usually 30 minutes or longer). In the case of chlorination, the lag of time makes feedback control difficult (Kobylinski et al., 2006) as the system is delayed in responding to any sudden surge of the pollutants when it can only receive output at the end of the disinfection process. PID controllers in WWTPs also encounter similar challenges as the increasing complexity of water quality and stricter regulations on the discharged water quality.

To tackle the difficulties encountered in process control system, many control strategies are proposed, such as feed forward-feedback control, linearized and optimal control, model-predictive control, and fuzzy control, etc (Demir and Woo, 2014). Among the algorithms used in control strategies, Artificial Intelligence (AI) modeling has gained the most attentions in recent years compared to modeling based on mathematical models or empirical formulas. In WTPs or WWTPs, to fully understand the physical, biological, and chemical interactions in the treatment plants is very difficult. The unpredictable behaviors during the water treatment can be the significant changes of influent flow rate, fluctuations of water quality, the complexity of biological treatment process, and the large time delay exists between this control variable and the process input, etc. Therefore, AI

modeling shows a great potential in dealing with the highly complex conditions in the treatment process (Li et al., 2021). In the next sections, the applications of different AI modeling methods will be discussed.

2.1.2 Artificial Intelligence

Artificial intelligence (AI) can perform cognitive tasks with the development of computational solutions. The concepts of AI are usually confused, in fact, AI is a very broad term and any kind of algorithms or models which involved in decision-making with computation fall in the domain of AI. For example, fuzzy logic and optimization algorithm are formulated with human design and computer decision making process. There are another subset of AI called machine learning (ML), but the process of generating a ML model is different to generating a fuzzy logic model. ML uses learning algorithms to generate a model via learning from historical or large amount of data without being explicitly programmed. ML algorithms can be classified into three categories, which are Supervised, Unsupervised, and Reinforcement learning. In the training process of supervised learning, input variable (x) and output variable(Y) we will provided, and model will learn from the provided dataset to map the x to the Y . A trained supervised model can generate a prediction for the response to the new data (i.e., also called the unseen data). Unsupervised learning is when the dataset is not labelled, the model can learn to infer patterns in the dataset without reference to the known outputs. This type of algorithm can find similarities and differences in the data. In reinforcement learning, models are designed to constantly interact with the environment in a try-and-error way and recieved rewards and punishments based on the purpose of the tasks. Generating a optimal action to achieve lowest penalties is the main function of a reinforcement learning model. In process control, supervised learning are frequently used in many senarios.

Regression is a supervised machine learning technique used to predict continuous values. A regression model can estimate the relationship between the input variables in the system and the output target from a given dataset, and then use the nonlinear relationship to map the unseen input data to a predicted output data. This type of application is sutiable for water quality prediction (Librantz et al., 2018), and sensor fault detection (Cecconi and Rosso, 2021), etc.

Fuzzy logic (FL) control is still an effective strategy for process control, and this type

of AI modeling is called reasoning. Fuzzy logic is described as an interpretative system in which objects or elements are related with borders not clearly defined, granting them a relative membership degree and not strict, as is customary in traditional logic. The typical architecture of a fuzzy controller, shown in Figure 3, consists of a fuzzifier, a fuzzy rule base, an inference engine, and a defuzzifier. Santín et al. (2015) proposed a hybrid control system comprised of FL controller and model predictive control using optimization model to control the chlorine dosing in a WTP. FL controller and optimization model fall in the domain of AI, which is excluded from the subset of ML.

Fuzzy logic (FL), a method based on multi-valued logic, uses fuzzy sets to study fuzzy judgement, which allows FL-based fuzzy inference systems to simulate the human brain to implement natural inference [40]. The adaptive fuzzy neural inference system (ANFIS) composed of FL and ANN with an inference mechanism has high interpretability compared to common ANN. The combined model has been used to control coagulant dosing systems [41,42].

2.1.3 Machine learning and deep learning

In machine learning, popular models which are frequently used by the researchers for training predictive models are Supporting Vector Machine (SVM), Random Forest (RF), and Artificial Neural Networks (ANN). Librantz et al. (2018) trained a RF model to predict the free residual chlorine concentration (FRC) in a WTP, and Xu et al. (2021) built a RF-based model to predict total nitrogen concentration in water bodies. Guo et al. (2015) compared the reliability and accuracy of an ANN model and a SVM model in predicting 1-day interval T-N concentration in a WWTP, and the results showed that RF model has higher accuracy while ANN model is more reliable for assisting decision-making process.

As the computing power doubled every 18 months according to Moore's law. A subset of ML, Deep Learning (DL) becomes more accessible for solving everyday issues. In simplicity, DL models can be defined as neural networks with more than two hidden layers (i.e., the model complexity increased and required more computing power to calculate). In DL, there are various types of architectures designed based on the type of problems. For image processing, Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) is designed to extract important features from the image vectors. Another popular DL architecture is Recurrent Neural

Network (RNN), which is powerful in solving time series-related applications and Natural Language Processing (NLP) tasks (Li et al., 2018). Although each architecture has their strength in tackling different types of problems, both architectures can be used for a single task Li et al. (2022) built a regression CNN-RNN model for rainfall-runoff prediction. DL can be extremely powerful when multiple architectures are fused into a single model to perform a specific task, which cannot be realized by machine learning models. That being said, DL can achieve higher model performance in terms of the prediction accuracy compared to ML.

2.2 Water quality control with machine learning

2.2.1 Drinking water treatment plants

A drinking water treatment plant (DWTPs) produces potable (i.e., drinking water) water for human consumptions by removing contaminants from the source water, such as lake or stream, or from an underground aquifer. The raw water enters DWTPs and goes through treatment units of coagulation, flocculation, sedimentation, filtration, and disinfection in sequence as the primary treatment scheme in the conventional DWTPs (Li et al., 2021).

1.8.1 Drinking Water Treatment Drinking water treatment plant could be classified into: – Disinfection plant which is used for high-quality water source to ensure that water does not contain pathogens – Filtration plant: this is usually used to treat surface water – Softening plant which is used to treat groundwater Typical filtration plant is shown in Fig. 5 which is designed to remove odors, color, and turbidity as well as bacteria and other contaminants. Filtration plant employs the following steps: a.Rapid mixing : where chemicals are added and rapidly dispersed through the water b.Flocculation : Chemicals like alum (aluminum sulfate) are added to the water both to neutralize the particles electrically and to make them come close to each other and form large particles called flocs that could more readily be settled out c.Sedimentation : During sedimentation, floc settles to the bottom of the water supply, due to its weight d.Filtration: Once the floc has settled to the bottom of the water supply, the clear water on top will pass through filters of varying compositions (sand, gravel, and charcoal) and pore sizes in order to remove fine particles that were not settled, such as dust, parasites, bacteria, viruses, and chemicals

e. Disinfection : involves the addition of chemicals in order to kill or reduce the number of pathogenic organisms

During the treatment process, colloids, suspended matter, pathogenic microorganisms and organic matter are removed to meet the regulated standard. However, the quality of raw water isn't always stable, and corresponding actions are required to be promptly adopted when events like the surge of pollutants or the large variability of the influent flow. In any event, the treated water from DWTPs should generate drinking water which complies the World Health Organization's Guidelines (WHO's guideline) for drinking water quality. Otherwise, the treated drinking water should either be discharged and result in the short term outage of water supply to the downstream cities or the users will receive contaminated drinking water which can potentially transmit diseases and cause illness.

Turbidity is one of the critical water quality indicators, which can be defined as the "optical quality" of water, and the unit to describe the turbidity is called Nephelometric Turbidity Unit (NTU). High levels of turbidity in raw water can impede the effectiveness of filtration and chlorination processes, and potentially cause short-term outages of water supply. Heavy rainfall and fissures within the aquifer can also lead to turbidity events are mostly likely to cause high turbidity (World Health Organization, 2017). The challenge in event of high turbidity in raw water is it occurs rapidly and mitigating activities must be actionable immediately. To address sudden event of such, Stevenson and Bravo (2019) trained forecasting models based on general linear model (GLM) and RF to predict the time when the turbidity reaches higher than 7 NTU. The results indicate both model can successfully predict the events (i.e., with accuracy between 0.81 and 0.86), and RF model is found to have higher precision due to its ability to capture the nonlinear relationship between rainfall (mm) and turbidity (NTU).

To maintain operational costs and water quality in the coagulation process, the amount of coagulant, which is mainly subject to the turbidity and alkalinity in the raw water, is traditionally determined through manually sampling and analysis. Jar test is designed to find out the optimal chemical dosage for coagulation to remove the turbidity in raw water, and the entire process includes on-site sampling and up to more than 40 minutes of laboratory works (Gani et al., 2017). To replace the laborious procedure of jar tests, Wang et al. (2022) proposed using principal component regression (PCR), support vector regression (SVR), and long short-term memory (LSTM) neural network to build predictive

models for outputting daily estimated chemical dosage. Compared with linear PCR model, nonlinear SVR and LSTM models captures more relationship between the chemical dose (e.g., ferric sulfate) and the raw water quality based on a higher R-squared value of 0.70.

Disinfection is the last step of water treatment processes in drinking water treatment plants to generate safe potable water. In this step, one or more chemical disinfectants like chlorine, chloramine, or chlorine dioxide are added into the water to inactivate any remaining pathogenic microorganisms. However, the chlorination process requires precise dosing of disinfectant—too high will lead to the formation of disinfection byproducts (DBPs), and too low will result in insufficient levels of the residual disinfectant concentration. In both scenarios, the treated drinking water can pose health threats to the end users. The aforementioned PID controller can achieve automatic dosing of disinfection, however, Wang et al. (2020) found out that the accuracy of the predicted disinfectant dosage using (i.e., chlorine is used in this paper) a Support Vector Regression (SVR) model outperformed a PID controller in both simulation and experimental conditions. An Artificial Neural Network based model also shows a more satisfied cost reduction in a chlorination dosing control system compared to PID controller (Librantz et al., 2018).

The invariability of the raw water quality is always a big issue for disinfection. For instance, chlorine dose can be excessive dosed when the treated water contains less pollutants (e.g., non-organic matters and ammonia nitrogen). Excessive addition of chlorine results in the problem of wasting chemicals which is reflected on the increase operational cost and potentially generate undesired disinfection by-products (e.g., trihalomethanes (THMs), which are carcinogenic to human) due to the chemical reaction between pollutants and overly dosed chlorine. Xu et al. (2022) trained an ANN model for predicting the occurrence of THMs in tap water using simple and easy water quality parameters (e.g., pH, temperature, $UV_{A_{254}}$ and residual chlorine (Cl_2)). Despite the results showed a good model accuracy in predicting for THMs (i.e., T-THMs, TCM and BDCM), the applications of the model is largely limited in reality due to the lack of dataset regarding the quantity and quality. In fact, lack of high quality dataset for training ML models is a common issue, which explains up until recently, mathematical or empirical based AI models like fuzzy logic (Gamiz et al., 2020; Godo-Pla et al., 2021) is still widely used for process control in WTPs.

2.2.2 Wastewater treatment plants

Human activities produce wastewater and discharge from homes, businesses, factories and commercial activities to the sewage systems which connect to wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs). The function of a WWTP is to remove contaminants from sewage and water so that the treated water can be returned to the natural water body without endangering any living beings reside in the ecosystem. Undertreated wastewater can lead to harmful algal blooms or cause oxygen deficit in the water (i.e., low oxygen content can kill the fishes). The steps for treating municipal wastewater involve three major categories—primary treatment, secondary treatment and tertiary treatment. The pollutants which will either float or settle will be removed in primary treatment; next, secondary treatment is mainly responsible for removing BOD₅ in the biological processes; in the final tertiary treatment, membrane filtration, adsorption by activated carbon and addition of disinfectant can be applied optionally to further eliminate the undesired pollutants in the water.

Wastewater can be defined as the flow of used water discharged from homes, businesses, industries, commercial activities and institutions which is transported to treatment plants via pulch sewer system or engineered network of pipes. This wastewater is further categorized and defined according to its sources of origin. Domestic wastewater refers to water discharged from residential sources generated by kitchen wastewater, cleaning and personal hygiene. Industrial/commercial wastewater is generated and discharged from manufacturing and commercial activities, such as textile industry and food and beverage processing wastewater. Institutional wastewater characterizes wastewater generated by large institutions such as hospitals and educational facilities. Regardless of the source of the wastewater, WWTPs have to achieve at least three sustainability targets: environmental protection (i.e., low pollutants discharge), social acceptance (i.e., human sanitary protection) and economic development (i.e., feasible operational and management costs) (Mannina et al., 2019). To effectively achieve these goals, process control is required to reduce energy consumption, improve on effluent quality, and save costs in plant operation and management. The focus of this study is on discussing the development of using process control for treatment operation and management.

Under known operational conditions of a WWTP, machine learning models can be trained to assist the plant operators optimize treatment processes to improve effluent

quality . Wang et al. (2021) proposed a machine learning framework, utilizing a model based on Random Forest to predict the effluent Total Suspended Solid (TSS) and phosphate (PO_4). This study features using collected data from six on-line sensors (i.e., flow rate, TSS, pH, PO_4 , temperature, and total solids (TS) meters) across the treatment line to train the RF model. The results indicated that the influent temperature is the most influential variable for both TSS and PO_4 in the effluent, and PO_4 depends strongly on the TSS in aeration basins, etc. It has been suggested that the combined use of RF model and analytical tools allows the author to pinpoint the critical factors influencing on the effluent quality, and this seems to be a innovative approach. However, there are several major drawbacks hindering such model developments using on-line sensors to collect training data. Many of the existing WWTPs and DWTPs are not equipped with on-line sensors, and lack of automation and instrumentation is common. One of the examples that lack of data from on-line sensor is an emerging technology called aerobic granular sludge (AGS) in secondary treatment (i.e., biological treatment). In addition, Wilén et al. (2018) claimed that the complex nonlinear relationships between the sludge, wastewater quality and operational conditions makes the operation and management of AGS difficult. Awarig the high complexity of the AGS and the unavailabilities of on-line sensors, Zaghloul et al. (2021) attempted to address the issues by collecting data from lab-based reactors and training machine learning models. Considering the intricacy of operation conditions and the AGS system, the author claimed that with the use of feature selection and ensemble model, which is train with three different ML models, overfitting can be prevented. Given that the findings in this study provided good model performance in predicting Chemical Oxygen Demand (COD) and other sludge-related parameters, the results stating the fact of reducing overfitting using ensemble learnings should be treated with caution. Similar to the AGS system, electrocoagulation reactor is also an complex system that the operation and management are based on pH value, the current density, flow rate and the initial concentration of heavy metal ions, etc. Interestingly, instead of using an ensemble model to prevent the overfitting issue claimed by Zaghloul et al. (2021), Zaghloul et al. (2021) used a deep learning Long and Short-term model (LSTM) and a error compensate Autoregressive Integrated Moving Average model (ARIMA) to predict the removal rate of heavy metal ion concentration in wastewater. A LSTM-ARIMA model has strengthened the model performance compared to solely used LSTM or ARIMA model in predicting removal rate shown by the Results. A possible rationalization of using as LSTM model

without worrying model overfitting is that deep learning is sophisticated enough for learning the nonlinear patterns in complex system while machine learning model like RF might fail to capture the intricate relationships, resulting in overfitting.

The advancement in technology allows the easy access to real-time water quality data via on-line sensors. The collected real-time data can be used to train predictive models and assist the plant operation and management. Despite the advantages of what on-line sensors are capable of, the pitfalls can jeopardize the quality of predictive models or even induce wrong decisions for plant operation, ultimately deteriorate treatment efficiency in WWTPs. Haimi et al. (2015) suggested that reliable and moderately-priced real-time sensors are not always available, in addition, sensor malfunctions (i.e., fouling) and maintainance can cause the down-time of the sensors. For the unavailable sensors (i.e., "hard-to-measure" or expensive sensors), many research works have proposed building "soft sensorS". Instead of using hardware sensors to measure the water parameters, soft sensor generates real-time values through a machine learning model, which is trained by other easy-to-measure water quality data. In the works of Wang et al. (2019), easy-to-measure variables such as, pH, flow rate, TSS, and ammonium nitrate ($\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$) are input to machine learning models to predict hard-to-measure water quality parameters of COD and total phosphate (TP). Pattnaik et al. (2021) also used DO, pH, conductivity, turbidity, and temperature to train a model to predict BOD. It's believed that both research works can solve the issue of the unavailability of certain water quality sensors, the down-time issue still remains and requires innovative approach. Examples..... ?

(Luttmann et al., 2012) and electronics (Liukkonen et al., 2012). Data derived soft-sensors have also been developed for biological wastewater treatment processes. As for the municipal WWTPs, the most typical methods used for designing soft-sensors based on operation data are multivariate statistical (e.g., Rosen and Olsson, 1998; Rosen and Lennox, 2001; Moon et al., 2009) and artificial neural network (e.g., Bongards, 2001; Hong et al., 2003; Lee et al., 2008) techniques. The majority of the data derived soft-sensors that have been proposed for the biological wastewater treatment concern estimation of variables associated with the content of organic matter or nitrogen compounds (Haimi et al., 2013). One example of data derived soft-sensors for predicting the contents of a nitrogen compound in a municipal WWTP has been presented in our earlier works

DSSs can be applied to WWTPs in order to predict the effluent quality under known

WWTP operational conditions (Nadiri et al., 2018). For example, it is possible to adopt DSSs in view of calculating treatment efficiency and evaluating the removal of substances even prior to initiate the treatment under different operational conditions, implemented processes and influent features (Hamed et al., 2004; Sonaje and Berlekar, 2015).

Improve on effluent quality analyses was developed and used to model WWTP processes and investigate how operational variables influence effluent quality.

The importance of BOD5 modeling stems from the extensive laboratory procedures performed to measure the BOD5 concentration, as these tests require approximately five days.

The above soft sensor is expected to decrease the five-day period of the BOD5 measurement to several hours, which will allow the use of online control systems. (Alsulaili and Refaie, 2021)

Disinfection in a water- and wastewater-treatment plant is the process by which microorganisms and viruses are killed or inactivated, mainly with chlorine-based disinfectants [64]. While chlorination is effective as a disinfectant, it also poses human health hazards [65]. Beyond its ability to cause acute toxicity in humans, chlorine is also known to interact with bromide and organic matter naturally found in water systems to form what is known as disinfection by-products. Disinfection by-products (DBPs) are suspected human carcinogens and reproductive disruptors, and have received increased scrutiny from regulators all over the world [66]. DBPs mainly belong to two larger subcategories: trihalomethanes (THMs) and haloacetic acids (HAAs). THMs are regarded as the most common form of DBPs as their formation is associated with chlorine disinfectants [67]. Haloacetic acids are commonly tested for five or nine common haloacetic acids and are commonly referred to as HAA5 or HAA9. The entire mechanism behind the formation of DBPs in drinking water is not known, making their prediction and mitigation an ideal candidate for ML technologies. When learning has been achieved, mitigation through control using AI methods is possible.

2.2.3 Reclaimed water system and water body

In this study the new control objectives for the reclaimed water system in Shek Wu Hui Effluent Polish Plant have been established: to monitor color and ammonia concentration in the MBR effluent and at the same time provide a predictive model to assist

the disinfection control strategy for disinfecting the MBR effluent to meet the endorsed reclaimed water standard.

From many of the literatures proposing using AI models to build predictive models, we can observe that nonlinear models (e.g., Random Forest and Support Vector Regression) outperform the linear model (e.g., General Linear Model and Principal Component Regression). In

Model Predictive Control (MPC) regardless of using AI models or ML models, both showed the superior performance over the PID controller. Despite the use of ML models has proved to outperformed the AI models in other industries, ML and AI models seem to be equally good in the process control in WTPs. Based on the scenario, non-linear ML models don't always outperform linear AI models, and there is even a hybrid model (i.e., neuro-fuzzy inference systems (ANFIS)) developed to solve control issues in aerobic granular sludge reactors (Zaghloul et al., 2021).

2.3 Tools and techniques for enhancing the performance of machine learning modeling

2.3.1 Programming languages

2.3.2 Data preprocessing

2.3.3 Feature engineering

The main factors affecting the removal rate of the electrocoagulation reactor are comprehensively considered and analyzed, and find out the input variables of the prediction model, and the input variables of the prediction model are found out. In addition, in order to facilitate the network to analyze and learn the overall trend of the data, and to predict the reactor removal rate more accurately, the change gradient value of the historical removal rate at two adjacent times of the reactor is extracted as the feature value to reflect the change trend of the removal rate. (Zaghloul et al., 2021)

CHAPTER 3

METHODS AND MATERIALS

3.1 Wastewater treatment plant description

3.1.1 Treatment processes

The MBR is a process that integrates biodegradation of contaminants by activated sludge, with direct solid-liquid separation by membrane filtration, i.e. through a MF or UF membrane. The MBR technology is currently widely used. The use of MBR has been attributed to its notable advantages, such as high quality of produced water, high biodegradation efficiency of contaminants, and an overall smaller footprint (Judd and Judd, 2011). This technology permits bioreactor operation with considerably higher mixed liquor suspended solids (MLSS) concentration than CAS systems, which are limited by sludge settling phenomena. The process in MBR is typically operated at MLSS in the range of 8–12 g/L, while CAS is operated in the range of 2–3 g/L (Melin, 2006). The MBR process allows the generation of slow-growing bacteria, which have the ability to degrade certain biologically-recalcitrant organics (Clouzet et al., 2011). Therefore, despite not being designed to remove organic and inorganic micropollutants, MBRs may provide effective removal of some of the CEC. Early studies reported improved CEC removal with MBRs compared to CAS, as MBRs operate at a higher SRT than CAS, thus enhancing contaminant biodegradability (Holbrook et al., 2002; Stephenson et al., 2007). However, when MBRs and CAS were compared under similar operating conditions (i.e., SRT, temperature) in the removal of CEC, no significant differences were observed (Melin, 2006; Bouju et al., 2009; Weiss and Reemtsma, 2008; Abegglen et al., 2009). Therefore, it was postulated that MBR performs similarly as long as the same operating conditions are provided, although MBRs may outperform CAS at higher SRT. This is because CEC are generally highly soluble and relatively small compounds, typically below 1000 Da, which can freely pass through the membranes used in MBR systems, thereby indicating that those membranes have no direct impact on the removal of CEC (Snyder et al., 2007). Other studies have also shown that MBRs can effectively remove CEC (Radjenovic et al., 2009; Luo et al., 2014). (Krzeminski et al., 2019)

3.1.2 Reclaimed water standard

3.2 Data collection and preparation

Most AI techniques were modeled using experimental data to simulate, predict confirm, and optimize contaminant removal in wastewater treatment processes. Experimental data set were either divided into three parts (training, validation, and testing) or two parts (training and testing). The training set was used to develop the model, the validation data set was used to optimize the model, and the testing data set was used to test the model in the prediction stage.

3.2.1 Ammonia data monitoring and collection

3.2.2 Color data monitoring and collection

3.2.3 Metrics for model evaluation

AI methods have been demonstrated to be effective in controlling chlorination, while ML models are effective in modeling DBP concentrations, as well as modeling important parameters for adsorption and membrane-filtration processes. The results are often evaluated using various statistical measures including the coefficient of correlation (R), the coefficient of determination (R²), the mean average error (MAE), the mean square error (MSE), the root mean square error (RMSE), and relative error (RE).

3.2.4 Data cleaning and pre-processing

However, the raw high-resolution data from each meter were compressed by averaging over 10-minute periods to obtain time series with temporal resolutions of 10 min.

The original data were embedded in multiple matrices and were very messy, with missing values, bad data cells, and unnecessary information. Therefore, the Python modules Numpy (Oliphant, 2006) and Pandas (McKinney, 2010) were used to prepare an organized ‘clean’ dataset for analysis. This dataset contained 105,861 samples (data points) with 34 variables, giving a matrix size of $105,861 \times 34$. The samples were organized in time series with 10min intervals.

3.2.4.1 Data smoothing with Savitzky-Golay filter

3.2.4.2 Exponentially Weighted Moving Average

3.2.4.3 Outlier Removal

3.2.5 Data transformation

Split of Train/valid/test dataset

3.3 Architecture design of the selected baseline models

3.3.1 Random Forest

F can be described as an ensemble method in which the final result is obtained by aggregating (through averaging in the case of regression) results from multiple weak learners known as Classification and Regression Trees (CARTs) (Breiman, 2017). Each weak learner (tree) is trained on the bootstrap set, which is obtained by sampling with replacement from the original training set. For trees, the input variables are used to generate nodes. These variables are selected partially and randomly as a subset in every split, then the variable contributing to the smallest sum of impurity of two child nodes at a certain split point is chosen as the split variable. This is done repeatedly until the trees don't need to split anymore. The regression impurity of a particular node is defined by Eqs. (2), (3) and (4), (Wang et al., 2021)

3.3.2 LSTM

3.3.3 RNN

3.3.4 GRU

3.4 Implementation of regularization

3.4.1 Scheduler

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Baseline performance of ammonia concentration and colour level forecasting models

4.1.1 Machine learning vs deep learning

RF is used in this work as a representative tree-based modeling strategy because RF models have some major advantages over alternative tree-based models; notably, they require fewer hyperparameters for tuning, their performance is robust to hyperparameter changes, and they are less likely to suffer from overfitting (Breiman, 2001; Breiman, 2002 ;Chen and Guestrin, 2016; Fawagreh et al., 2014 ;Ke et al., 2017).

4.2 Improved performance on forecasting models using data pre-processing techniques

4.3 Data enrichment via feature engineering based on effluent quality pattern

4.4 Design of model architecture through analyzing wastewater composition in sewer system

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

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