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1 **Social network community detection and hybrid optimization for the Battle of the**
2 **Water Networks DMA (BWNDMA)**

3 PhD Bruno Brentan, PhD Enrique Campbell, MSc Thaisa Goulart³, MSc Daniel Manzi⁴, MSc
4 Gustavo Meirelles⁵, PhD Manuel Herrera⁶, PhD Joaquín Izquierdo⁷ and PhD Edevar Luvizotto Jr⁸

5 ¹Computational Hydraulic Laboratory, University of Campinas, Campinas, (Brazil)

6 ²Berliner Wasserbetriebe, Berlin (Germany)

7 ³Computational Hydraulic Laboratory, University of Campinas, Campinas, (Brazil)

8 ⁴Computational Hydraulic Laboratory, University of Campinas, Campinas, (Brazil)

9 ⁵Computational Hydraulic Laboratory, University of Campinas, Campinas, (Brazil)

10 ⁶EDEn, University of Bath, Bath (UK)

11 ⁷FluIng-IMM, Universitat Politècnica de València, Valencia, (Spain)

12 ⁸Computational Hydraulic Laboratory, University of Campinas, Campinas, (Brazil)

14 ¹brunocivil08@gmail.com, ²enrique.campbell@bwb.de,

15 ³a.m.herrera.fernandez@bath.ac.uk, ⁴jizquier@upv.es

16 **Abstract:** Water supply utilities need to properly manage their systems to guarantee a
17 quality supply. One way to manage large systems is through division into district metered areas
18 (DMAs). Graph clustering with an unknown number of subdivisions, as in social network theory,
19 has proven highly efficient in this sectorization problem. Several physical and hydraulic features
20 may easily be used as criteria to suitably divide the network. In this work, we use social network
21 community detection algorithms to define several DMA scenarios. Configurations mainly depend
22 on nodal demand and elevation, but adaptations may be needed to guarantee full supply in future
23 scenarios related to system growth – and rehabilitation actions may also be required. The problem
24 associated with pipes and valves is first solved with three optimization methods. The best
25 solutions then enter a new optimization process, where tank dimensions and valve set points are
26 defined. This complex optimization-segregation approach enables an improvement in the

27 hydraulic efficiency of the E-town network at an affordable cost, and this approach also
28 determines the measures needed to meet the dry season requirements.

29 **Key-words:** water distribution networks, DMA definition, rehabilitation, PSO, GA, soccer
30 league competition

31

32 **INTRODUCTION**

33 Water supply systems (WSSs) have a fundamental function in urban design: guaranteeing
34 citizens access to safe drinking water (Di Nardo et al. 2013). Management of WSSs becomes more
35 complex when future demand challenges are taken into account. Segregating water distribution
36 networks into district metered areas (DMAs) enables better management by improving efficiency
37 and safety through strategic rule implementations.

38 To establish a suitable DMA configuration, several aspects must be considered
39 simultaneously, including: topology; elevation; size; loop configuration; costs; and resilience –
40 and this makes any manual/empirical approach unfeasible (Diao et al. 2012). Several automatic
41 approaches, such as the graph decomposition theory applied to DMA divisions (Swamee and
42 Sharma, 2008), or multiple source decomposition with pre-located influence zones (Tzatchkov et
43 al. 2008) have been implemented in the last decade and demonstrated better performances than
44 empirical approaches. Following in the wake of neural networks and other machine learning tool
45 applications, Herrera et al. (2010) propose the use of semi-supervised learning methods with
46 information on different supply constraints and gathering the reality of hydraulic zones in a single
47 matrix. Accordingly, spectral clustering is applied to obtain the DMA configuration. Diao et al.
48 (2012) present an automatic DMA boundary selection method based on a social network

49 community detection algorithm. In a similar line, Di Nardo et al. (2013) present a social network
50 analysis based on complex system decomposition.

51 However, division into DMAs is not the end of the story. The status of the boundary valves
52 and their location at DMA entrances must be optimized to eventually achieve a reliable
53 configuration. The main constraint is supplying the required quality and quantity, as well as the
54 satisfaction of service pressure (nominal pressure) and the control of tank levels. Meta-heuristic
55 optimization methods have been broadly used to find the optimal solution for several water supply
56 network problems (Montalvo et al., 2014, Marchi et al., 2014). The problem of optimal valve
57 placement and optimal operation has been highlighted (Nicolini et al., 2009, Brentan et al., 2017).

58 A fully automatic water network partitioning algorithm requires the use of a method to
59 identify the DMAs and an optimization procedure to identify the boundaries and entrances of each
60 DMA. Di Nardo et al. (2014) present a hybrid algorithm that links graph partition methods with
61 genetic algorithms (GAs) to create an automatic method for DMA design. De Paola et al. (2014)
62 define DMAs using the shortest path concept from the graph theory domain in a combination with
63 the NSGA-II algorithm to carry out an optimization procedure in which topological and
64 operational aspects are considered. Brentan et al. (2017) present a set of hydraulic criteria
65 implemented in a hybrid algorithm compound by a social network community detection algorithm
66 and particle swarm optimization (PSO).

67 For the task using the Battle of Water Network District Metered Areas (BWNDMA)
68 considered in this work, we present an alternative to achieve a solution for the DMA configuration
69 problem of the E-Town network that takes into account future demands and pipe rehabilitation.

70 Our approach has two main phases. In the first phase, the distribution network is decoupled
71 from the trunk network through a process based on the shortest path concept derived from graph

72 theory. DMAs are then defined over the distribution network by means of a community detection
73 algorithm and a herein proposed community recursive merging process. Once the DMAs are
74 defined, a set of entrances and boundary valves, and the set points of the pressure reducing valves
75 (PRV) located at the entrance(s) of each DMA, are defined using a multilevel optimization
76 approach. In this phase, the rehabilitation of the network, including pipe duplication and/or
77 replacement and installation of new tanks, is also considered. Such a process is based on three
78 algorithms: GAs, PSO, and soccer league competition (SLC).

79 Our approach relies on several advantages, the first being the use of a community detection
80 algorithm that can efficiently deal with extremely large networks (even of millions of nodes). A
81 second advantage is the optimization process itself, which is conducted using a multi-level
82 approach, splitting the problem into smaller and better manageable subproblems.

83 **PROBLEM AND APPROACH DESCRIPTION**

84 **BWNDMA description**

85 The BWNDMA was a water distribution analysis competition proposed by the Water
86 Distribution System Analysis Congress 2016. The main objective of the challenge was to improve
87 the management of the system of the E-town network for a future scenario, creating DMAs in a
88 water network with more than 11,000 nodes and about 14,000 pipes. E-town is supplied by three
89 water sources (Cuzca, Bochica and Bachue) which can cope with the supply during the rainy
90 season (from March to May and from September to November). However, for the dry season
91 (December to February and June to August) the capacity of the sources is reduced and the use of
92 aquifer sources is necessary.

93 The problem should be solved for the rainy season and the operational changes (valve
94 closures) must be defined to reach a feasible scenario for the dry season. For the rainy solution, the

95 number of DMAs, pressure uniformity (*PU*), demand similarity (*DS*), implementation costs, and
96 water quality are used as parameters to evaluate the quality of the solutions. To find feasible
97 solutions, some structural improvements are allowed, namely: pipe replacements or duplication;
98 PRV installations; and the construction of new tanks.

99 **Algorithm's overview**

100 The proposed methodology can be divided into two phases: the DMA design phase and the
101 optimization phase. Firstly, the hydraulic and topological data should be prepared. The water
102 network model is built and then the trunk network is identified. The trunk network transports
103 water from the sources to distribution networks. This identification is important to facilitate pipe
104 replacement and duplication. Once the trunk network is identified, the DMA design core searches
105 for the best configuration of node clusters when considering hydraulic and topological criteria. In
106 this step, the *Walktrap* community detection algorithm (Pons and Latapy, 2006) is applied to
107 identify the nodes with similar features, which will eventually integrate the communities. During
108 this process, several communities are fused to generate new communities until a set of criteria is
109 met. Data preparation and DMA configuration correspond to the step of defining DMAs in the
110 distribution network. Together with the DMAs, the boundary pipes are also identified. With this
111 information, it is possible to start the optimization steps.

112 The optimization core is responsible for achieving a feasible scenario, taking into account
113 the constraints of the problem. The methodology used for the optimization core divides the
114 problem into three levels to reduce the dimensionality of the problem. The first level
115 (Optimization level 1) uses GAs, PSO, and SCL to find the best implementation of PRVs and new
116 pipes, minimizing the cost and the *PU* parameter. To guarantee the water supply for the future
117 scenario with the increase of consumption, the optimal installation of new tanks is tackled in the
118 second level (Optimization level 2). Finally, the operational points of PRVs and flow control

119 valves (FCV) are adjusted to improve the operation of the system, thus minimizing the *PU*. For
120 each level of the optimization process, a solution vector must be defined (Optimization level 3)
121 Figure 1 presents a flowchart of the full algorithm, which considers both the sectorization and the
122 multi-level optimization processes.

123

124 **SECTORIZATION PROCEDURE**

125 In the computer domain, social networks are graphs intended to represent relations among
126 social actors through a set of dyadic ties. Topologically speaking, a social network and a water
127 supply network are equivalent (both are formed by nodes connected by links), the latter can be
128 represented as a social network, and all the algorithms/concepts derived from the social network
129 theory field of study can be implemented over water supply networks. In this work, we use the
130 “shortest path” concept and a “community detection” algorithm.

131 Depending on the network topology, the sectorization is conducted in one of two ways: if
132 the network has many sources (and these sources are located within the meshing space) the DMAs
133 can be established around these sources; in contrast, when the number of sources is limited and/or
134 are located outside the meshing area, the network must be supplied by a main conduction system
135 (or trunk network) and, therefore, the DMAs must be established around the latter. Once the trunk
136 network is defined, it is uncoupled from the distribution network, and communities of nodes are
137 detected in this distribution network. Such communities are recursively merged in a fusion process
138 herein proposed until a partition is found, in which each DMA satisfies the predefined set of
139 constraints.

140 **Trunk Network Detection Algorithm**

141 As described above, in a WSS, the trunk network corresponds to a group of continuously
 142 connected pipes (a stem) that transports water from the sources to the pipes in the distribution
 143 network. The appropriate distinction of the latter from the distribution network is a key aspect in a
 144 sectorization design, as the closure of at least one pipe of the trunk network could dramatically
 145 affect the resilience of the entire system. There are several general criteria to distinguish the trunk
 146 network from the distribution network, such as: diameters, connections, and locations. In general,
 147 the connection to the trunk network is restricted to medium and large diameter pipes. However, in
 148 some cases, especially in the case of WSSs with multiple sources, the span of the trunk network is
 149 not so clear. Therefore, graph theory concepts can be used to distinguish the level of importance of
 150 each pipe in the supply of the network.

151 The core idea is to generate a ranking of pipes. Such ranking is based on the role of each
 152 pipe in the supply of the entire network. To assess the role of each pipe, a hydraulic simulation is
 153 conducted with EPANET (Rossman, 2000) for the most critical scenario (the instant of highest
 154 demand). The direction of the flow in each pipe is then retrieved and stored in a square matrix (see
 155 Equation 1). This matrix enables calculating the number of nodes/pipes that can be reached from
 156 each node, this being the accumulated shortest path value (ASPV).

$$\begin{matrix}
 157 & & Node_1 & Node_2 & \dots & Node_n \\
 & Node_1 & \left(\begin{array}{cccc}
 0 & & & \\
 & 0 & & \\
 & & 0 & \\
 & & & 0
 \end{array} \right) & & & \\
 158 & Node_2 & & & & \\
 & \vdots & & & & \\
 & Node_n & & & &
 \end{matrix} \quad (1)$$

159 The entries of this matrix are calculated as follows, where *IN* stands for initial node and *EN* stands
 160 for end node:

- 161 • If $IN = EN \rightarrow 0$
- 162 • If IN cannot reach $EN \rightarrow \infty$
- 163 • In any other case \rightarrow nodes in the shortest path

164 The flow in each pipe is then multiplied by its corresponding ASPV (the result is
165 represented by ASPV*). The trunk network is expected to be formed by pipes with high and less
166 frequent AVSP* values, whereas the pipes in the distribution network are expected to have low
167 and highly frequent AVSP* values (Campbell et al., 2016).

168 **Community detection algorithm**

169 Community detection algorithms based on the social network theory are aimed at revealing
170 structural network modules based on a modularity index proposed by Newman (2006). One of
171 these algorithms corresponds to the *Walktrap* algorithm, which is based on the mathematical
172 concept known as a random walk. In comparative terms, with respect to other community
173 detection algorithms, the tests performed by Kesiban Orman et al. (2011) classify this algorithm as
174 the second best algorithm for graph community detection, just after the Infomap algorithm
175 (Rosvall & Bergstrom, 2008). In contrast, results obtained by Savić et al. (Newman & Girvan,
176 2004) when comparing the *Walktrap* algorithm with other algorithms, namely propagation
177 (Raghavan, 2007) and greedy modularity optimization (Clauset et al., 2004), show that the former
178 has significant advantages in terms of quality and evolutionary stability.

179 This algorithm corresponds to a stochastic process where the position of a given particle at
180 a certain instant relies solely on its position at a previous instant and on a random variable (which
181 determines its subsequent direction and step length). If random walks of a given length are
182 performed over a graph, the resulting Markov matrix reflects the probability of going from one
183 node to another in a given number of steps. These probabilities gather enough information about
184 the topology of the network, and reveal a multiple arrangement of communities with different
185 values of modularity. All these arrangements are located in a hierarchy of partitions, from which
186 any particular partition may be selected. It is noticeable that the partition of maximum modularity
187 can generate extremely small communities, whose implementation could be economically

210 condition in BWNDMA. Considering the possibility of installing parallel pipes, the trunk network
 211 is omitted in this first optimization process.

212 The initial topology configuration of the E-town network does not fulfill the future demand
 213 scenario, which makes the 168-hour simulation process extremely difficult from the computational
 214 viewpoint. To reduce the processing time, this optimization step was performed with only
 215 maximum and minimum demands, both with 60% water volume in all tanks. With this procedure,
 216 it is expected that minimum and maximum pressure constraints during the entire 168-hour period
 217 almost match desirable pressures. In this first step, pressure uniformity is also considered in the
 218 objective function (Eq. 3) to define the best PRV characteristics.

$$F_1 = \left(\sum_i^{NP} L_i \cdot C_{D_i} + \sum_j^{NV} K_{D_j} + \sum_i^{NP} L_i \cdot C_{D_i}^{Par} \right) \cdot Pen_{min} \cdot Pen_{neg} \cdot Pen_{max} \cdot Pen_{VRP} \cdot PU \quad (3)$$

219 F_1 - objective function of the initial network design;

220 NP - number of new pipes installed;

221 C_{D_i} - new pipe replacement cost associated to its diameter, D_i ;

222 $C_{D_i}^{Par}$ - new parallel pipe installation cost associated to its diameter, D_i ;

223 L_i - length of new pipe;

224 NV - number of PRVs installed;

225 K_{D_j} - PRV cost associated to its diameter, D_j ;

226 Pen_{min} - penalty for pressure below 15 m in demand nodes;

227 Pen_{neg} - penalty for negative pressure in nodes without demand;

228 Pen_{max} - penalty for pressure above 60 m;

229 Pen_{VRP} - penalty for exceeding the maximum number of PRVs in a DMA (two in this study);

230 PU - network pressure uniformity.

231 Moosavian and Roodsari (2014) and Mora-Meliá et al. (2015) present comparisons among
232 bio-inspired algorithms, where they observe that their effectiveness depends on the problem
233 characteristics. Therefore, PSO, GA, and SLC algorithms are used to obtain their best solutions,
234 merging the results of each to achieve a better solution.

235 At this level, the problem was codified using mixed binary and discrete variables. Each
236 solution vector contains information about the status of the boundary pipes and a discrete number
237 that correspond to available pipe diameters. For the binary positions, if the value of a position is 1,
238 it means that the corresponding boundary pipe is open and requires the installation of a control
239 device. A similar procedure is used for the installation of new pipes or for the replacement of
240 pipes. The position of the solution vector corresponding to an index pipe contains a discrete value
241 that corresponds to an available diameter for this pipe in the set of candidate diameters. With this
242 mixed vector of decision variables it is possible to calculate the terms in the objective function F_1
243 that corresponds to the implementation costs.

244 Usually, bio-inspired algorithms are unable to treat constrained problems and require the
245 use of constraint-handling, such as the common approach of penalty functions (Mezura-Montes
246 and Coelho, 2011; Coelho, 2002) in transforming these problems into unconstrained problems.
247 Following the general proposal by Parsapoulos and Vrahatis (2002), the penalty function can be
248 written as:

$$Pen = \sum_{i=1}^{N_c} \beta_i \cdot |x_i^s - x_i^{lim}|^k. \quad (4)$$

249 Here β_i and k are the two penalty factors to adjust the variable x_i^s to meet the constraint limit x_i^{lim}
 250 in a problem with N_c constraints.

251 Pressure uniformity is used to evaluate the quality of the network partition process, since it
 252 measures the difference between the nodal pressure and both the minimal required value and the
 253 average hourly value, as in (5). Based on an equation by Alhimiary et al. (2007):

$$PU = \sum_{j=1}^M \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{(P_{i,j} - P_{min})}{P_{min}} + \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{(P_{i,j} - P_{avj})^2}{N}}}{P_{avj}} \right], \quad (5)$$

254 where $P_{i,j}$ is the nodal pressure at time step j at node i for a network with N demand nodes
 255 simulated during M time steps. P_{min} is the minimal required pressure for demand nodes (15 m)
 256 and P_{avj} is the average network pressure at time step j .

257 At the end of this first step, the results of the three methods are evaluated and the best
 258 method is chosen to feed the following steps. Since the simulation is carried out with PRVs
 259 installed in all boundary pipes, an accurate analysis is necessary to define, from among the open
 260 valves, which will effectively operate.

261 As a first approach, the PRVs with higher flows in each DMA are selected, and a
 262 simulation is made to evaluate the results. This simulation aims to identify DMAs with high
 263 pressure zones, and where pipes must be closed to achieve the pressure constraints.

264 While the steady-state simulation helps define PRV locations and the pipes to be replaced
 265 or candidates for parallel installation, this hydraulic approach cannot show the influence of level
 266 oscillations in the tanks, thus hampering a full rehabilitation evaluation.

267 Therefore, the second optimization level is made on a 24-hour basis, considering the
 268 addition of adjacent tanks, pipe closures, and a new setting for PRVs and FCVs. Since the demand
 269 pattern repeats through the week (168 hours), it is necessary that the initial tank level remains the
 270 same at the end of the simulation. Eq. (6) presents the objective function for this second
 271 optimization level.

$$F_2 = \left(\sum_{tq=1}^{Ntq} C_{V_{tq}} \right) \cdot Pen_{min} \cdot Pen_{neg} \cdot Pen_{max} \cdot Pen_{lv} \quad (6)$$

272 where:

273 F_2 - objective function of the final rainy season configuration;

274 Ntq - number of new tanks installed;

275 $C_{V_{tq}}$ - cost of new tank tq associated with its volume;

276 Pen_{lv} - penalty for the difference between initial and final tank levels;

277 The new tanks should be considered to enable the full supply of the water network in a
 278 future demand horizon (2022). The need to expand the storage capacity (thus guaranteeing better
 279 quality of water service) is associated with increasing demand and with the daytime oscillation
 280 level. The adjusted result obtained in the first stage is submitted to the second optimization level,
 281 which will define the final modifications of the network topology.

282 In this step, a mixed approach of discrete and continuous variables is used. The discrete
 283 variables of the solution vector correspond to positions in a list reflecting the available volume for
 284 the new tanks, while the continuous variables correspond to the set points of PRVs and FCVs. To
 285 solve this optimization problem, GA, PSO and SLC are once again applied to achieve the optimal
 286 solution.

287 After this optimization, the final configuration for the rainy season is achieved. However,
288 the topology of the network changes from the rainy to the dry season. Water sources reduce their
289 capacity and two wells are activated to guarantee the water supply.

290 The final level of the optimization process achieves the new settings for PRVs and FCVs,
291 and defines opening/closure of pipes for the dry season. The solution vector is programmed with
292 mixed binary and continuous variables. The binary variables correspond to the status of pipes and
293 valves, and the continuous variables correspond to the new set points for the valves. The objective
294 function (7) minimizes the change of pipe statuses and valve settings, allowing easier maneuvers
295 and thus fulfilling the operational constraints.

$$F_3 = \left(\sum_{lk}^{Nlk} Op_{lk} \right) \cdot Pen_{min} \cdot Pen_{neg} \cdot Pen_{max} \cdot Pen_{lv} \quad (7)$$

296 Here

297 F_3 - objective function of the dry season optimization;

298 Op_{lk} – the operational change at the link lk ;

299

300 **Optimization algorithms**

301 The use of bio-inspired algorithms to solve optimization problems in water distribution
302 problems has gained space in the scientific literature. For the sake of robustness, this work applies
303 two classical bio-inspired algorithms from among the many developed: namely, PSO (Eberhart
304 and Kennedy, 1995), based on the behavior of a flock of birds or a school of fish searching for
305 food; and GA (Goldberg and Holland, 1988), based on the evolutionary competition of species.
306 Also applied is a recent proposal by Moosavian and Roodsari (2013), a SLC optimization
307 methodology based on the competitive environment among teams and players in soccer leagues.

308 GAs and PSO are widely applied in water distribution problems: and SLC is already highly
309 promising in this field despite its relative newness. The results produced by the three algorithms
310 were equivalent in all the cases, what enhances the robustness and reliability of the obtained
311 results.

312 The implementation of PSO for the first level is made with 300 particles. This value is
313 selected considering the number of variables (number of valves and pipes to be replaced). The
314 second level is developed with 150 particles, since the number of variables is lower than the first
315 level. Finally, only 50 particles are used to optimize the tank diameters. The maximum number of
316 iterations is 2000 for the three levels. Regarding GAs, the population size for the first optimization
317 level is 480 individuals, the second level uses 240 individuals, and the last level uses 80
318 individuals. For all levels, the algorithm ran 1000 generations with an elitism rate of 10%. The
319 implementation of SLC for the BWNDMA optimization problem follows the same proportions
320 shown for PSO and GA. The first level is conducted with 60 teams, the second level with 30
321 teams, and the last level with 10 teams. For all levels, each team has eight main and eight reserve
322 players.

323

324 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

325 **Sectorization and trunk network identification**

326 The uniform distribution of demands among the DMAs and the uniformity of pressure in
327 the network requirements, elevation, and demand at each node of the DMA are considered in the
328 sectorization process. As a first approach, the trunk network is defined and uncoupled, thus
329 disconnecting the pipes which are linked with this network and generating isolated DMAs. This

330 procedure presents hydraulic and management problems, such as water supply disruption and
331 micro-DMA creation, given the spatial distribution of the nodes.

332 However, the importance of the trunk network is linked to the capacity of water transport
333 from the water source to consumers. This structure has a specific treatment in the first step of the
334 optimization process, where the possibility of installing parallel pipes is considered. Figure 2a
335 shows the defined trunk network in red, and Figure 2b presents the nodal elevation for the E-town.
336 The analysis of these figures enables us to identify a certain trend about the level of the trunk
337 network. Given the low efficiency of the sectorization without the trunk network, the entire
338 network is used, reaching the goal of 15 DMAs as defined by the social community method.
339 Figure 3a presents the DMA configuration results in colors, while Figure 3b shows a block
340 diagram for DMA interconnection.

341 With the communities defined through the social community method, the entrance and exit
342 of each DMA must be defined. Since boundary pipes are considered to have a PRV installed, the
343 settings of each are optimized to reach the constraints with minimum costs. In addition, an initial
344 dimensioning of the network pipes is also made.

345 With this initial solution, the entrances of each DMA are established manually, considering
346 the flow through each PRV as a decision parameter, and using a 24-hour period to evaluate the
347 configuration. This procedure shows the necessity to improve the capacity of the Bochica and
348 Cuza pipelines. Therefore, the trunk network obtained in the sectorization study is duplicated so
349 that all demand nodes can be satisfied with minimal pressure.

350 This configuration of the entrance and exit of each DMA is achieved only after an analysis
351 of the hydraulic performance of the system for a 24-hour period. Note that DMA #3 involves the
352 trunk network. Therefore, this is the main DMA of the system and from where all distribution

353 occurs. In addition, DMA #3 is the only DMA capable of supplying DMAs #0, #1, #2 and #14.
354 The other DMAs configure a distribution loop, thus reinforcing water supply reliability.

355 Table 1 shows the DMA characteristics (demand, average elevation, and entrances)
356 obtained once the segregation and the first optimization process are finished. The importance of
357 the DMA#3 as a supplier for eight DMAs is noteworthy. This is produced by the architecture of
358 DMA#3, which corresponds to the trunk network with a small distribution network (see Figure
359 3a).

360 **Network optimization for rehabilitation and operation in the rainy season**

361 With the final configuration of DMAs, the tank levels are evaluated for the week horizon.
362 It is observed that some tanks are emptying while others are overflowing. This happens because
363 the capacity of the three water sources are not fully used, thus overloading the tanks. To solve this
364 problem, a third pipeline is created from the Cuza reservoir, and its flow capacity is increased
365 almost to the maximum allowed (1600 l/s in the rainy season).

366 The most important tank in this DMA configuration is Tank #1, placed in DMA #3. The
367 importance of this tank is related to the most elevated end nodes of this sector, which, in turn,
368 require more capacity from the tank. The periodic oscillation of this tank can improve the water
369 quality of several DMAs and contribute to the pressure control in the network. Figure 4 shows the
370 oscillation of the Tank #1 level during the week.

371 Despite most tanks oscillating during the week and returning to the initial level, with this
372 configuration, Tanks #2 and #1 drain. Tank #2 recovers its level in low consumption periods, but
373 not enough to restore its initial level. The most critical situation is in Tank #11. This tank has the
374 highest elevation and so the network pressure must be high to feed it suitably. Since only 164
375 nodes (1.5% of the original network) are supplied from this tank, its level control was neglected.

376 Figure 5 shows the level oscillation for these two tanks (Tank #11 – red line and Tank #2 – green
377 line) during the week.

378 The configuration obtained in this second optimization level meets minimum pressure
379 constraints for the 168-hour period. However, the maximum pressure limit violation remains a
380 problem. Therefore, a final evaluation for PRV settings and pipe closures was made, thus
381 achieving a plausible solution for the rainy season. Table 2 shows the evolution in pressure
382 constraints and pressure uniformity of the network and considering only maximum and minimum
383 consumption periods.

384 This table points to the efficiency of the optimization-segregation approach when
385 compared with the initial configuration of the E-town network. It is important to note the increase
386 in negative pressure nodes between the original network and the sectorized network. This happens
387 mainly because of high demand values in a network with many closed pipes, thus guiding the flow
388 to non-optimized pipes.

389 The installation of parallel pipes (duplicating the trunk and third Cuza pipeline)
390 considerably decreases the negative pressure in the network, since this action reduces hydraulic
391 head loss in the trunk network. However, with this action mainly occurring at low elevation nodes,
392 the available hydraulic head increases the pressure, thus inducing high pressure values for nodes
393 above 60 m, despite most of these nodes being placed in the trunk network.

394 Finally, an aspect regarding pressure uniformity (PU) in the network can be highlighted.
395 The sectorized network without optimization is unable to deliver all the demands, since some
396 nodes become disconnected. This prevents PU calculation at this stage. Similar values are found if
397 the PU value is compared between the original network and the final network with defined PRVs
398 and pipe closures. However, the final network has a better hydraulic performance.

399 More than the hydraulic performance of the final network, a quality analysis of the E-town
400 network is required. This analysis is made considering the water age at nodal demands. The age
401 map in Figure 6 presents the state at hour 168 (the end of the simulation and the most critical
402 moment for water age). It is possible to observe that most nodes are under 30 hours, enabling us to
403 affirm the high performance of the DMA partition and tank use. Only 6% of the water network is
404 older than 60 hours (the maximum allowed). Furthermore, the comparison between the original
405 water network and the optimized network points to a substantial improvement in the water quality.

406 The total costs of rehabilitation for future demand are presented in Table 3. It is very
407 important to highlight that the main costs are associated with the pipes (implantation and
408 replacement) while only two tanks should be built. Also the low cost of valve implantation can be
409 observed, corresponding to the maximal efficiency of the DMA entrance definition (which is able
410 to satisfy most constraints at a low cost).

411 **Network optimization for rehabilitation and operation in the dry season**

412 The topological changes during the dry season require new statuses for pipes and set points
413 of valves. Pressure distribution and water age are affected by this new network configuration.
414 While for the rainy season, the DMA configuration can supply all nodes with pressure above that
415 required for the dry season (even after the optimization process) a feasible solution that meets
416 pressure constraints was not achieved.

417 The reduction in the water source availability induces the network to lower pressures and
418 the use of two pump stations is required. Even with these two new water sources, DMA #8 is
419 disconnected from the network for 24 hours. This occurs because the high elevation of this area
420 prevents guaranteed demand fulfillment by feeding the tanks. Figure 7 shows the level variation of
421 Tank #1 (the most important supply tank). It can be seen how its draining during 168 hours harms

422 the supply process during the week. In addition, high pressure in the lower area of the trunk
423 network harms water pumping, since the pump station near this pipeline cannot work at full
424 power, thus reducing the water availability.

425

426 **GENERAL DISCUSSION**

427 The relation between DMA segregation and the optimal rehabilitation of large water
428 distribution networks is shown in this work. The high performance of the optimization process is
429 closely linked to DMA definition. This is because the increase in demand of the existing
430 infrastructure is unable to supply all nodes, and the disconnection of nodes or links significantly
431 impairs the hydraulic simulation.

432 A previous optimization process, using the maximal and minimal demand to determine the
433 entrance and exit of each DMA and the new diameters for pipe replacement, is an interesting
434 approach to reduce the computational effort. Furthermore, the previous identification of the trunk
435 network enables the initialization of the first solution of the optimization methods with larger
436 diameters, thus facilitating hydraulic simulations.

437 Despite the steady state defining new diameters or PRV placement, this approach is not
438 useful to evaluate the tank level behavior and, consequently, is not useful to determine the need
439 for new tanks. The use of extended period simulation for 24 hours, considering the initial and final
440 tank levels as a problem constraint, is useful and guarantees high optimization performance.
441 Moreover, the extended period simulation enables the PRV and FCV set point definition and pipe
442 statuses to find the topology with the lowest constraint violation.

443 Finally, changes of season require a new evaluation of the network without diameter
444 changes. This makes the optimization process difficult because the change of pipe or valve
445 statuses slows the convergence when compared with the pipe replacement problem.

446

447 **CONCLUSIONS**

448 The Battle of Water Networks District Metered Area (BWNDMA) presents a large DMA
449 creation problem jointly with the rehabilitation of the network to fulfill future demand. The
450 importance of DMA creation coupled with optimal pipe replacement or new pipe installation, as
451 well as PRV placement and new tank dimensioning, is evidenced by the reduction in the constraint
452 violations presented in this work.

453 The community detection algorithm can congregate nodes by distance, elevation, and
454 demand criteria. The high performance of this method when applied to DMA creation problems is
455 the strong point of this work, since network partition using this technique generates important and
456 not obvious divisions of the network.

457 While the optimization process presented in this work was unable to satisfy all the
458 constraints (especially maximum pressure) the complex approach of the optimization-segregation
459 process enables DMA creation with good indicators for pressure and demand uniformity.

460 **Acknowledgments**

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462 Pérez García, who recently passed away. The use of English has been supervised by John Rawlins.

463

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537

Table 1 - DMA final configuration: hydraulics and topology of each DMA

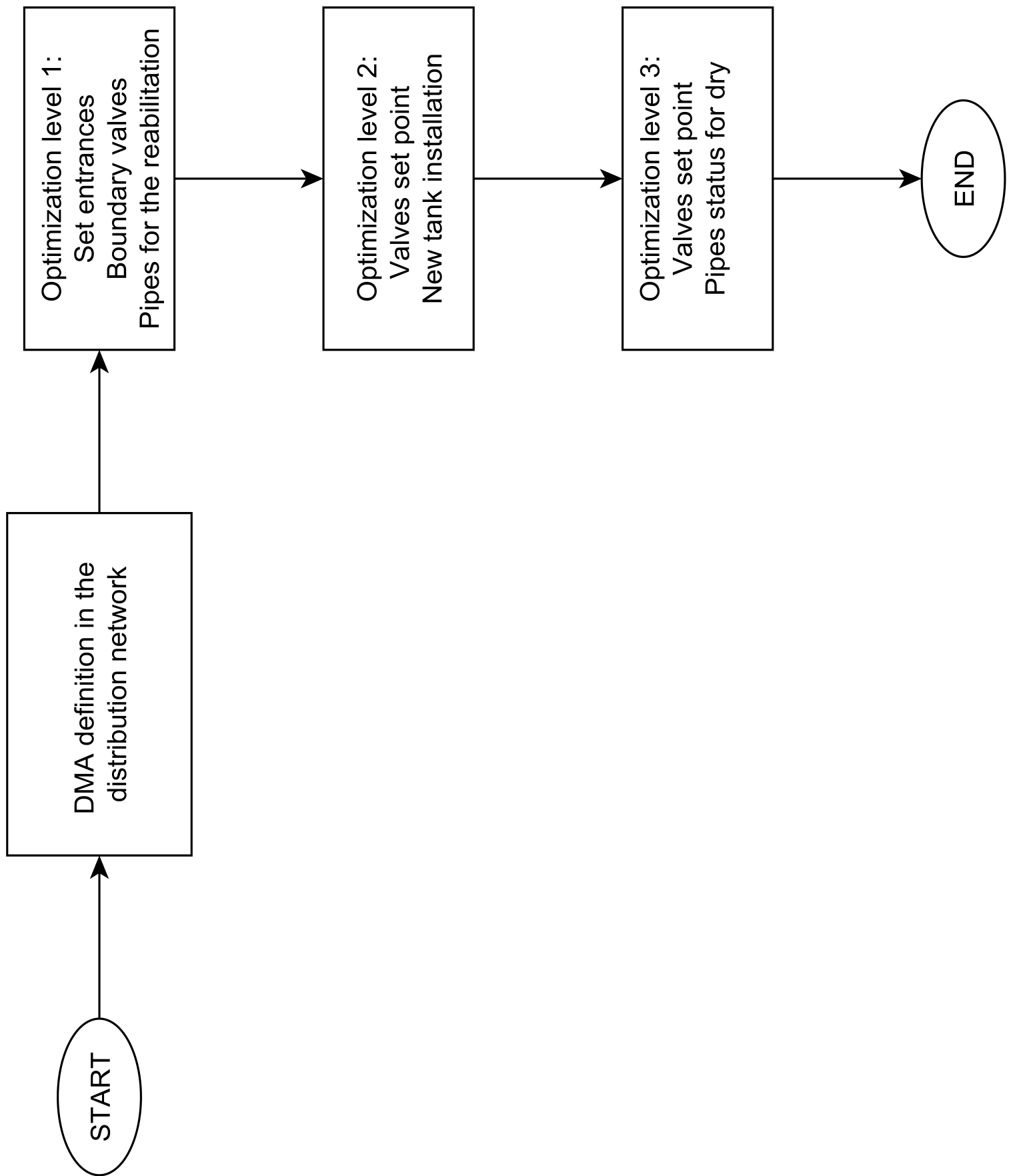
DMA	Number of nodes	Demand [l/s]	Average Elevation [m]	DMA entrance	DMA exit	Number of PRVs
0	344	103.86	0.91	2	-	1
1	1614	123.84	9.90	3	-	2
2	1052	148.44	2.30	3	0	2
3	2780	133.65	14.39	14	1, 2, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14	1
4	1364	165.53	2.82	10, 6	7	2
5	638	132.69	0.92	8	-	1
6	1514	98.30	5.83	9	4	2
7	508	139.95	1.14	4	-	1
8	2872	175.37	13.29	10	5	2
9	1622	122.13	7.33	3, 13	6, 13	2
10	2230	137.62	5.10	3, 11	4, 8, 12	2
11	1740	116.78	14.54	3, 12	10	2
12	1065	83.90	10.12	3, 10	11	2
13	1712	102.30	11.30	3, 9	9	2
14	1115	132.93	20.24	3	3	1

Table 2 - Hydraulic constraints evolution during the segregation-optimization process

	Original Network	Sectorized Network	Duplicated Trunk Network	Third Cuza Pipeline	Final PRV settings and Pipe Closure
Demand nodes with pressure under 15 m	445	8815	95	146	143
Nodes with negative pressure	79	2420	6	0	0
Nodes with pressure above 60 m	3304	1003	6072	6123	4763
Minimum pressure	-22.93	-	-8.92	0	0
Maximum pressure	91.72	117.35	92.32	101.23	103.48
Pressure uniformity	3.6	-	4.17	4.23	3.98

Table 3- Costs obtained for network rehabilitation

Implementation Costs	
Pipes	12,896,666
Tanks	814,742
Valves	159,614
Total	13,871,022



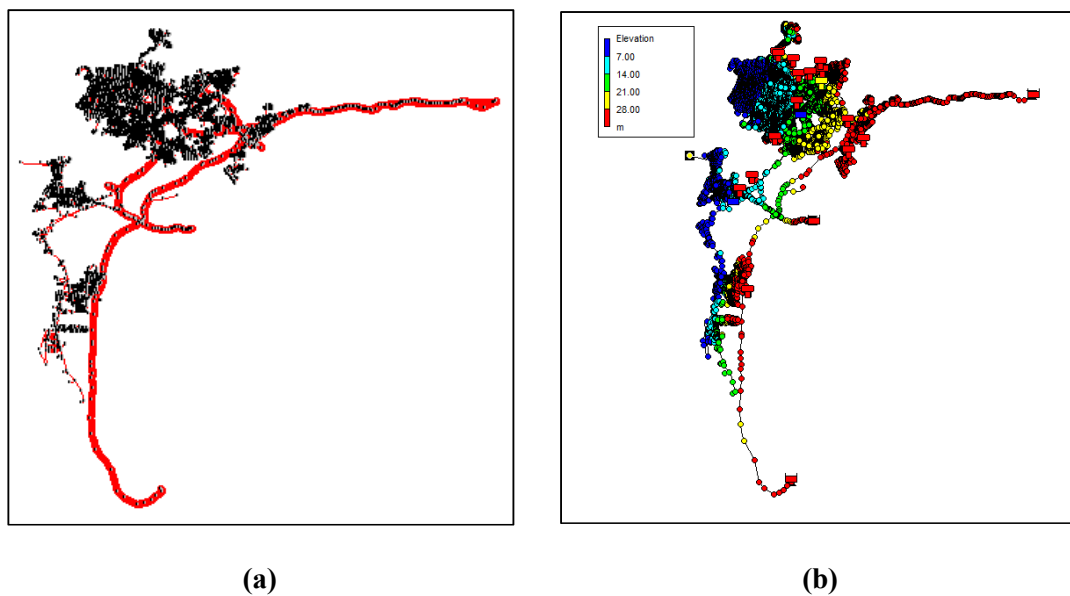


Figure 2 - E-town map a) WDN highlighting the trunk network. b) Nodal elevation

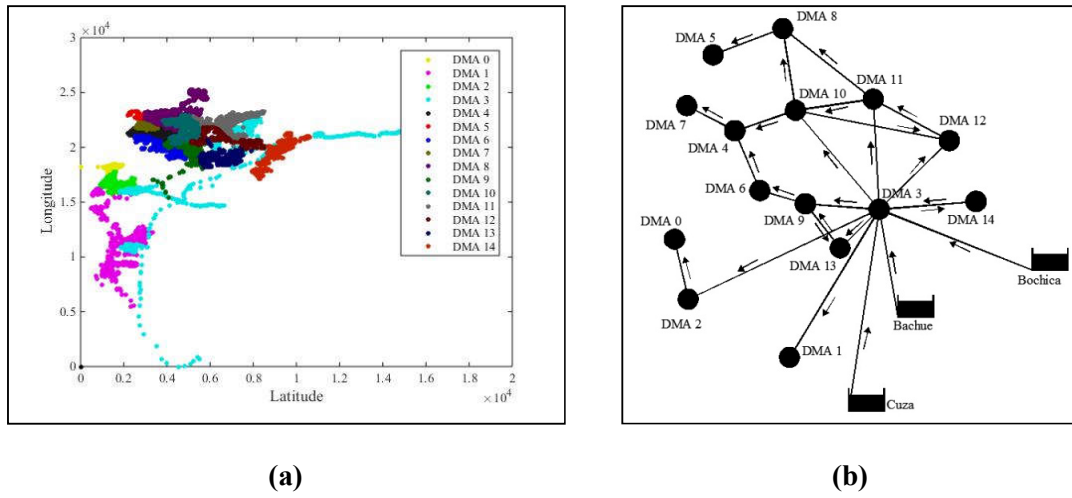


Figure 3 - DMA distribution: a) Geographical distribution; b) Block diagram

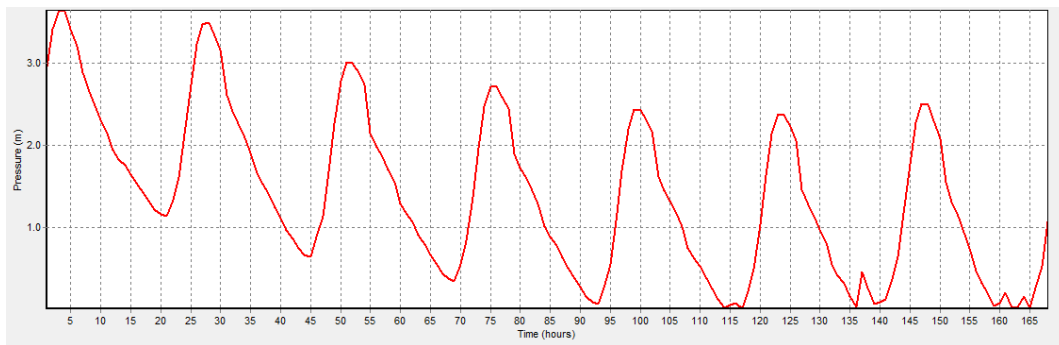


Figure 4 - Level fluctuation during a week in Tank #1

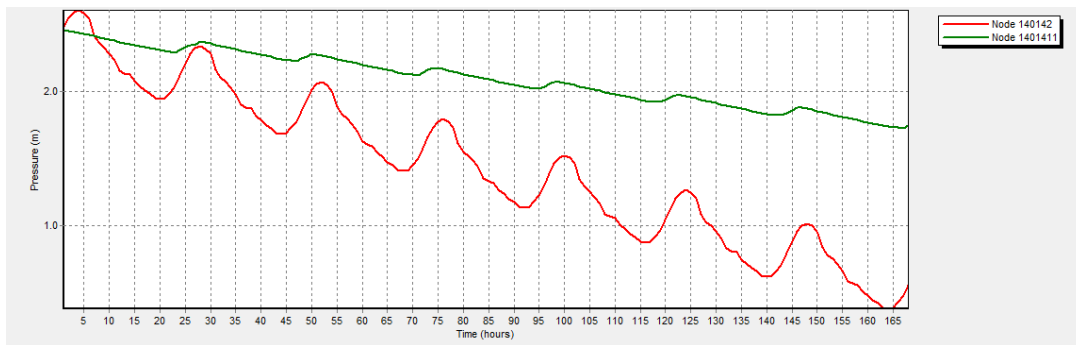


Figure 5 - Level decreasing during a week in Tanks #11 and #2

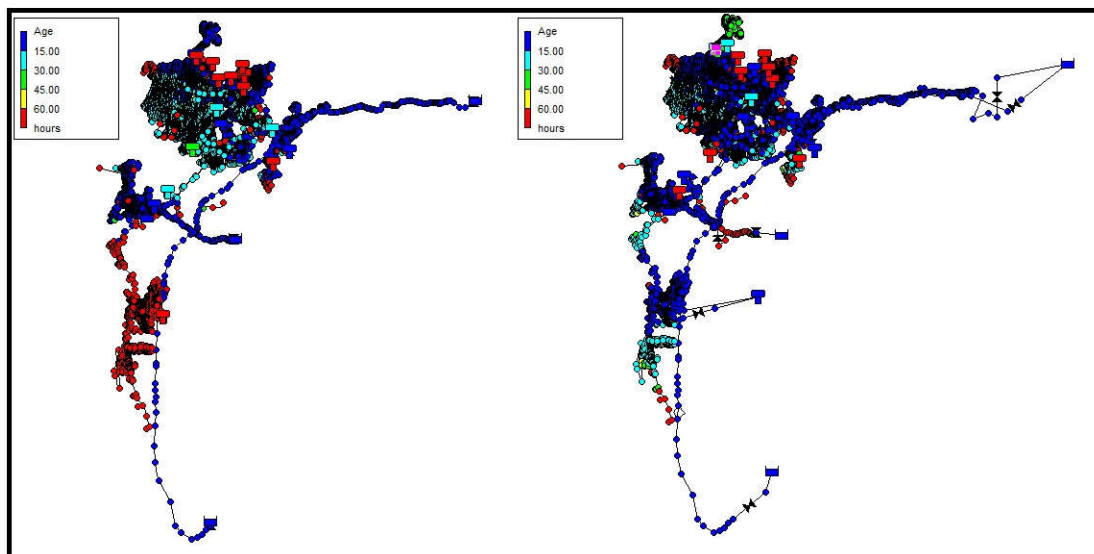


Figure 6 - Age map for the original water distribution network (left) and the final optimized network (right)

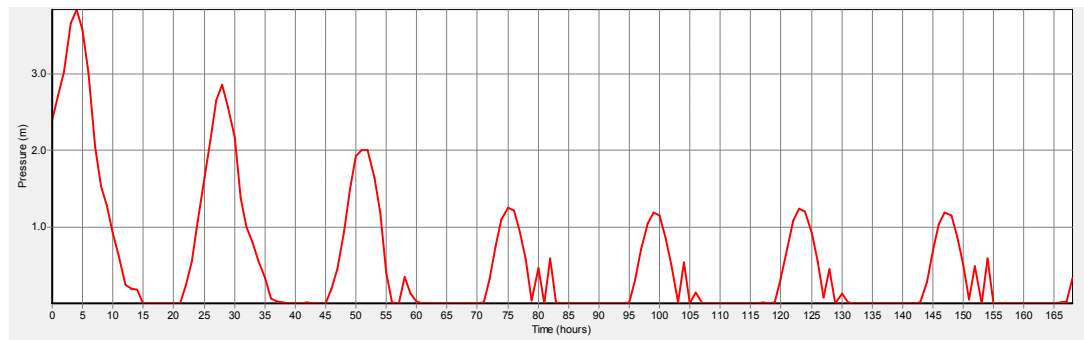


Figure 7 - Tank level for Tank #1 during one week

TABLE CAPTION LIST

Table 1 - DMA final configuration: hydraulics and topology of each DMA

Table 2 - Hydraulic constraints evolution during the segregation-optimization process

Table 3 - Hydraulic constraints evolution during the segregation-optimization process

FIGURE CAPTION LIST

Figure 1 - Flowchart with complete optimization procedure.

Figure 2 - E-town map a) WDN highlighting the trunk network. b) Nodal elevation

Figure 3 - DMA distribution: a) Geographical distribution; b) Block diagram

Figure 4 - Level fluctuation during a week in Tank #1

Figure 5 - Level decreasing during a week in Tanks #11 and #2

Figure 6 - Age map for the original water distribution network (left) and the final optimized network (right)

Figure 7 - Tank level for Tank #1 during one week