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Assessing optimal water quality monitoring network in road construction using 2 integrated information-theoretic techniques

3 Mehrdad Ghorbani Mooselu^{1*}, Helge Liltved², Mohammad Reza Nikoo³, Atle Hindar⁴, Sondre Meland⁵

4 Abstract

5 The environmental impacts of road construction on the aquatic environment necessitate the 6 monitoring of receiving water quality. The main contribution of the paper is developing a 7 feasible methodology for spatial optimization of the water quality monitoring network 8 (WOMN) in surface water during road construction using the field data. First, using the 9 Canadian Council of Ministers of the Environment (CCME) method, the water quality index (WQI) was computed in each potential monitoring station during construction. Then, the 10 11 integrated form of the information-theoretic techniques consists of the transinformation 12 entropy (TE), and the value of information (VOI) were calculated for the potential stations. To 13 achieve the optimal WQMNs, the Non-dominated Sorting Genetic Algorithm II and III 14 (NSGA-II, and III) based multi-objective optimization models were developed considering 15 three objective functions, including i) minimizing the number of stations, ii) maximizing the 16 VOI in the selected network, and iii) minimizing redundant information for the selected nodes. 17 Finally, three multi-criteria decision-making models, including Technique for Order 18 Preference by Similarity to Ideal Solution (TOPSIS), Preference Ranking Organisation Method 19 for Enrichment Evaluations (PROMETHEE), and Analytical Hierarchy Process (AHP) were 20 utilized for choosing the best alternative among Pareto optimal solutions considering various 21 weighing scenarios assigned to criteria. The applicability of the presented methodology was

¹ Ph.D. Research Fellow, Department of Engineering Sciences, University of Agder, Norway, mehrdad.g.mooselu@uia.no. (Corresponding Author).

² Professor, Department of Engineering Sciences, University of Agder, Norway.

³ Associate Professor, Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran.

⁴ Norwegian Institute for Water Research (NIVA), Gaustadalléen 21, 0349 Oslo, Norway.

⁵ Norwegian Institute for Water Research (NIVA), Gaustadalléen 21, 0349 Oslo, Norway; Norwegian University of Life Sciences (NMBU), Faculty of Environmental Sciences and Natural Resource Management, PO 5003, 1432 Ås, Norway.

assessed in a 22 km long road construction site in southern Norway. The results deliver
 significant knowledge for decision-makers on establishing a robust WQMN in surface water
 during road construction projects.

25

Keywords: Water quality monitoring network, CCME-WQI, Value of information,
Transinformation entropy, NSGA-II and NSGA-III, Multi-criteria decision-making models.

28

29 1. Introduction

30 Road construction makes physical, chemical, and biological impacts on receiving aquatic 31 environments. The spatiotemporal impacts of road construction may cause acute alterations 32 (Vikan and Meland, 2013). Hence, it is vital to assess the receiving water quality during road 33 construction. Water quality monitoring networks (WQMN) are designed for quantitative data 34 on the spatiotemporal variation of water quality. The provided information is applied by 35 decision-makers for reliable assessment of water quality and supporting adopted policies for 36 protecting the water resources (Alfonso and Price, 2012; Behmel et al., 2016). The importance 37 of surface water in delivering water demands with adequate quality and the significant 38 economic burden of the monitoring systems necessitates an optimum design of WQMN. 39 Optimization of WQMN balances the fiscal burden of monitoring networks while a sufficient 40 source of qualitative information is provided (Alizadeh et al., 2018; Alilou et al., 2019). This 41 optimization will allow decision-makers to check deviations from set water quality standards 42 in national and international water regulations (Pourshahabi et al., 2018a; Maymandi et al., 43 2018). The design of a robust WQMN is still a debatable topic, in which the selection of optimal 44 locations for stations is crucial (Alilou et al., 2019).

45 Several studies focused on the difficulties in determining the sampling objectives, water quality
46 parameters to be monitored, location of stations (Alilou et al., 2018, and 2019), and variations

47 in sampling frequency (Karamouz et al., 2009; Zeng et al., 2016; Khorshidi et al., 2018). The 48 optimization process is a key step towards a comprehensive monitoring program in which every 49 element of the existing WQMN is evaluated, and the monitoring objectives are met (Behmel 50 et al., 2016; Pourshahabi et al., 2018b). Utilizing an optimized monitoring system has been 51 extensively considered in water resources management owing to their better performance 52 compared to opinion- and rule-based methods (Khorshidi et al., 2018). A review of previous 53 studies indicates the lack of knowledge on the optimization of the WQMN in surface water 54 during road construction. Hence, in this paper, two information-theoretic techniques, including 55 Value of Information (VOI) and Transinformation Entropy (TE), were integrally (Pourshahabi 56 et al., 2018a; Khorshidi et al., 2020) used for the optimal design of WQMN in a road 57 construction project.

58 Information obtained from stations in receiving streams may provide diverse signals with 59 different values to the decision-maker. Therefore, an information theory-based method (the concept of VOI) was applied to design an optimized WQMN with the highest value for 60 61 qualitative information from the stations (maximum VOI), which could provide a reasonable 62 view of the whole system. On the other hand, monitoring networks with the same number of 63 stations (but separate locations) and comparable VOI, may bring in a different level of information redundancy. Thus, the TE method was employed for minimizing the mutual 64 65 (redundant) information in the selected monitoring network. As an example, the spatial 66 distance of monitoring stations can affect the TE level in any pair of potential stations. 67 Therefore, minimizing the TE value would, in this case, result in a monitoring network with a 68 more spatial distribution of monitoring sites and, subsequently, a better understanding of water 69 quality variations (Khorshidi et al., 2018). Very few works have been published using the 70 combination of VOI and TE. In these, optimum sensor placement (Khorshidi et al., 2018) and 71 optimum WQMN in reservoirs (Pourshahabi et al., 2018; Maymandi et al., 2018) were

explored. However, the lack of an integrated method, capable of taking the advantages of both methods in surface water quality is quite apparent. Also, one of the most significant challenges related to the application of information theory in surface water quality monitoring is related to the type of applied data for computing prior and posterior probabilities. Therefore, in this study, using the sampling data from the field, a hybrid form of information-theoretic techniques was proposed for the optimum design of a WQMN in surface water, and a road construction project.

79 The Non-dominated Sorting Genetic Algorithm II and III (NSGA-II and NSGA-III) were then 80 developed according to three objectives, including 1) minimizing the number of monitoring 81 stations; 2) minimizing redundant information among monitoring stations; and 3) maximizing 82 VOI in the selected WQMN. Finally, three different multi-criteria decision-making (MCDM) 83 models, including Technique for Order Preference by Similarity to Ideal Solution (TOPSIS), 84 Preference Ranking Organisation Method for Enrichment Evaluations (PROMETHEE), and 85 Analytical Hierarchy Process (AHP) were used to achieve the best alternative on the Pareto-86 optimal solutions. The paper contributes to filling the knowledge gap in the following cases, 87 which have not been adequately attended in previous assessments:

1) Computing the prior and posterior probabilities in the information theory based on waterquality data from the field sampling and experimental analyses

2) Application of the Canadian Council of Ministers of the Environment (CCME) Water
 Quality Index (WQI) in surface water for optimization of WQMN during the road
 construction project

3) Utilizing NSGA-III for optimization of the WQMN in surface water and road project

4) Proposing a feasible framework consists of a water quality index, an integrated form of

95 information theory techniques, efficient optimization, and decision-making models for

96 monitoring network in surface water.

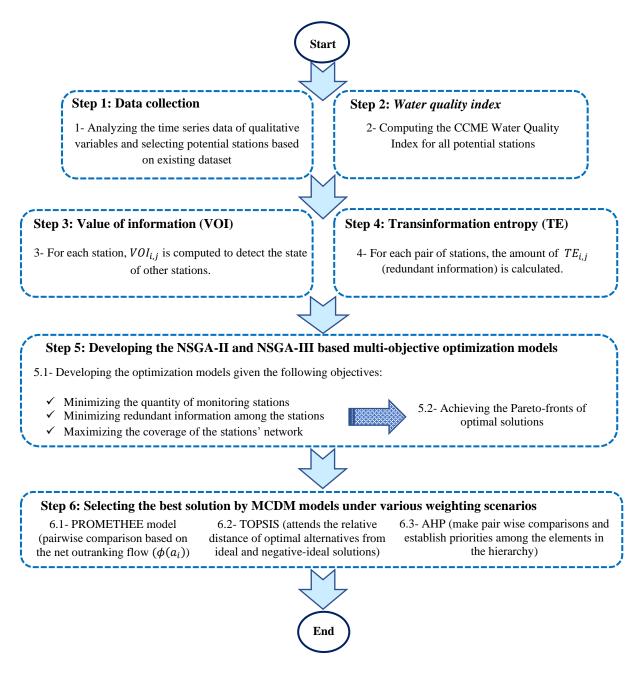
97 The feasibility of the proposed framework was assessed over a 22 km length of a new highway

98 in southern Norway.

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100 2. Material and Methods

- 101 For optimization of the WQMN, a six-step approach (outlined in Fig. 1) is developed by coding
- 102 in Matlab *ver. R2016b*.



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Fig.1 The proposed methodology for optimization of the WQMN in surface water

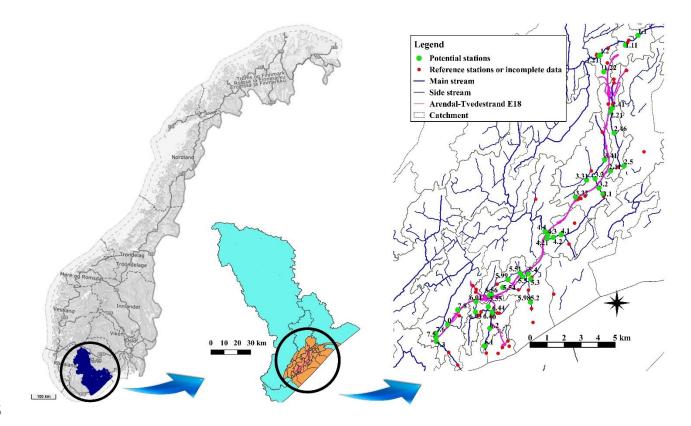
106 The first step is to select potential stations based on existing datasets. Notably, the dataset 107 consists of a) pre-construction monitoring and b) monitoring during the construction phase. 108 However, the methodology is developed based on the latter part, including 42 measurements 109 for each station. For all stations, the water quality index (step 2), the value of information (step 110 3), and the transinformation entropy (step 4) are calculated. Thereafter, the NSGA-II and III 111 based optimization models were developed (step 5), and finally, the best solution was chosen 112 using the MCDM models (step 6). In the next sub-sections, the applied methods are explained 113 in more detail.

114

115 2.1 Data collection

116 The study area was the construction site of the new 22 km long highway (E18) from Arendal 117 to Tvedestrand in the southern part of Norway (Fig. 2 includes a map of the area). The 118 construction area consisted of seven catchments (the first digit in the number of stations shows 119 the number of discharge area, see Fig. 2). There are different main streams and side streams 120 that are connected. The construction activities (e.g., excavation, drilling, and blasting, 121 transport, tunnel, and bridge construction) and the resulted runoff is the main source of 122 pollution in surface water during road construction. Several monitoring stations were 123 irregularly established on receiving main streams and side streams to assess spatiotemporal 124 variation of surface water quality due to construction activities (Fig. 2). The location of stations 125 is not dependent on the hydrological aspects in the catchment. Hence, the water flow in these 126 streams and the amount of road construction runoff are not the subjects of the proposed 127 methodology and consequently are not simulated. Samples for analysis were collected 128 regularly throughout the pre-construction (2015-2016) and construction phase (2017-2019). 129 The parameters included general water quality parameters (pH, alkalinity, conductivity, Fe,

Mn, Na, Cl, Ca, Mg, K, Al and SO₄²), trace elements (As, Ba, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Ni, Mo, Pb, Hg,
and Zn), nutrients (NH₄-N, NO₃-N, total-N, total-P), organic matter parameters (color,
chemical oxygen demand, total organic carbon), particulate matter parameters (suspended
solids and turbidity) and organic micropollutants (polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons; the
PAH₁₆EPA-group).



136

137 **Fig.2** The E18 highway (Arendal-Tvedestrand) and the established monitoring stations

Of the time series from all established stations, the stations with relatively complete time series over the total sampling period were selected, which are shown by green circles in Fig. 2 (hereafter called potential monitoring stations). Reference stations, which were not affected by road construction activities, were not included as potential monitoring stations. The red circles in Fig. 2 show both reference stations and the stations with relatively incomplete time series.

145 2.2 Water quality index (WQI)

146 Monitoring programs provide detailed qualitative data, including many water quality variables, 147 and it is challenging to evaluate the experienced water quality for sensitive aquatic organisms 148 (Nikoo et al., 2011). The Canadian Council of Ministers of the Environment (CCME) Water 149 Quality Index (WQI), see Khan et al., (2005) and Nikoo et al., (2011), is a useful management 150 tool for producing a meaningful interpretation of qualitative data, i.e. for evaluation of water 151 quality (Terrado et al., 2010; Nikoo et al., 2011; Munna et al., 2013), classification of water 152 quality (Boyacioglu 2009; Nikoo and Mahjouri, 2013), and water management (Khan et al., 153 2005). Since optimization of WQMN given a specific water quality variable may not be 154 necessarily reliable in terms of other qualitative variables, the CCME-WQI was utilized to get 155 a more comprehensive view of the water quality in receiving streams.

156 The CCME index operates according to different end-use objectives and is thereby flexible in 157 selecting suitable parameters (Nikoo et al., 2011). The index allows site-specific reference 158 objectives and standards to be integrated into the rankings process (Khan et al., 2005). 159 Therefore, this index can be developed based on different national water quality criteria and 160 limits (Nikoo et al., 2011). The CCME-WQI incorporates three variance values (scope, 161 frequency, and amplitude) to achieve the overall water quality state in the form of a unitless 162 number between 0 and 100. There are five categories based on the values of CCME-WQI, including poor (≤44), marginal (45-64), fair (65-79), good (80-94), and excellent (95-100). The 163 164 application of the CCME-WQI necessitates water quality guidelines or water quality objectives 165 (Mahagamage and Manage, 2014). Hence, in this study, the water quality regulations set by 166 the discharge permit for the construction phase of E18 Arendal-Tvedestrand, released by the 167 Environment Department of Agder County, Norway, was applied for every single station (see 168 Table A1). In this permit, regarding the location of stations, each one has specific limits for 169 water quality parameters. More information related to CCME-WQI is presented in Appendix170 1.

171 The CCME-WQI was applied to determine the water quality at the potential monitoring stations 172 based on five categories (excellent, good, fair, marginal, poor), as prior and posterior 173 probabilities and define the "Value Matrix" that shows the cost (value or damage) of decision-174 makers' act given the various states in each station.

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176 2.3 Value of information (VOI)

177 The VOI technique was developed by Grayson (1960) to evaluate the importance of obtained 178 new information in the decision-making process. Over the past few decades, the VOI technique 179 has been widely used for time-series analysis in water-related topics, including optimal 180 monitoring network in reservoirs (Maymandi et al., 2018), design of groundwater quality 181 monitoring networks (Hosseini and Kerachian, 2017), designing contamination warning 182 system (Roberts et al., 2009; Khorshidi et al., 2018), and impact assessment and flood 183 monitoring (Verkade and Werner, 2011; Alfonso and Price, 2012; and Alfonso et al., 2016). Each monitoring station might have different states (e.g., excellent, good, fair, marginal, and 184 185 poor) and can contribute with relevant water quality information (message) to other stations.

by measuring at a potential monitoring station, prior probabilities could be corrected (using Baye's theorem). The VOI theory evaluates the importance of new information and updates the earlier probability, p(s), about the state of a system (Alfonso and Price, 2012; Pourshahabi et al., 2018a). In Bayes' theorem, the posterior (updated) probability considering the new information is represented as Eq. 1 (Khorshidi et al., 2018):

Each message (of water quality from each station) affects the decision about the state of the

system, and if it is true or false, the message can be of value or damage, respectively. Therefore,

$$P(s|m) = \frac{P(m|s). P(s)}{P(m)}$$
(1)

193 where,

- p(s) Earlier probability for being in state "s",
- p(m) Probability for receiving message "m", (given new data),
- p(m|s) Conditional probability of receiving the message "m" when the system is in state "s",
- p(s|m) The posterior (updated) probability for state of system following the delivery of message "m" (given new data).

When new information appears, if the message "m" from station "i" is sent for the decisionmaker to sense the state "s" in station "j", the VOI of the station "i" for this process is calculated by Eq. 2 (Alfonso and Price, 2012):

$$VOI_{(i,j)} = \sum_{m} p(m) \left[\max_{a} \left(\sum_{s} C(a,s) p(s \mid m) \right) - \max_{a} \left(\sum_{s} C(a,s) p(s) \right) \right]$$
(2)

197 Where, C(a, s) shows the value (cost) of the action "a" chosen among available alternatives to 198 coupe up with the state "s" in the monitoring station "j". The action "a" is valued by its distance to the state "s". The closer it is to "s", the more valuable the action "a" is (Pourshahabi et al., 199 200 2018a). The C(a, s) is defined through the "Value Matrix", in which arrays are the differences 201 between the mid values of five categories in CCME-WQI (see section 2.2), and show the cost 202 (value or damage) of each action regarding the various states in potential stations. The arrays 203 of "Value Matrix" have an active role in computing the $VOI_{i,j}$. Hence, the matrix should be 204 determined based on a valid standard, which in this study is CCMW-WQI. The applied "Value 205 Matrix" is presented in Table 1.

Table 1 The "Value matrix" for calculation of the VOI_{i,i}

	C(a, s), (the cost (damage) of action a , when the station has the state of "s")							
_	Poor	Marginal	Fair	Good	Excellent			
Poor	1	-32.5	-50	-65	-75			
Marginal	-32.5	1	-17.5	-32.5	-42.5			
Fair	-50	-17.5	1	-15	-25			
Good	-65	-32.5	-15	1	-10.5			
Excellent	-75	-42.5	-25	-10.5	1			

208 *Raws*: Decision-maker's actions and *Columns*: stations' states

209

Because all arrays in Table 1 show damage, they are negative values. The rows represent the 210 activities (a) of decision-maker according to their belief about the water quality at the 211 212 monitoring station, and columns indicate the various states of the monitoring station (s), that 213 may occur. For example, if the water quality at the station *i* is in "Good" condition (WQI value 214 80-94, and the mid-value of this category is 87) and the decision-maker declares it to be "Poor" (WQI value 0-44 and the mid-value of this category is 22), this wrong decision will lead to (87-215 216 22=65) 65 units of damage (cost) in the scale of CCME-WQI. Considerably, the arrays on the 217 matrix diameter, are set to one instead of zero, to keep the probabilities multiplied by the matrix 218 diameters and play their role in VOI calculation.

219

220 2.4 Transinformation entropy (TE)

The core idea behind the theory of entropy is the evaluation of the information content for a series of data (Shannon 1948). In this method, TE quantifies the mutual (redundant) information between two variables (or dataset) (Pourshahabi et al., 2018b). The entropy method can also predict the probabilities of possible water quality levels at upstream stations based on observed variation in quality levels of a downstream location (Karamouz et al., 2009). Different functional forms of this method have also been effectively utilized for qualitative analyses, management, and network design in groundwater (Mogheir et al., 2009; Masoumi and Kerachian, 2010; Owlia et al., 2011; Mondal and Singh, 2012; Alizadeh and Mahjouri, 2017;
Keum et al., 2017; Hosseini and Kerachian, 2017), reservoirs (Lee et al., 2014; Nikoo et al.,
2016; Maymandi et al., 2018), rivers (Jha and Singh, 2008; Karamouz et al., 2009; Mahjouri
and Kerachian, 2011; Memarzadeh et al., 2013; Pourshahabi et al., 2018a, b), and rainfall and
streamflow monitoring networks (Krstanovic 1992a, b; Stosic et al., 2017).

233 A new monitoring station provides more qualitative information and consequently reduces the 234 uncertainty in the water quality evaluation. The additional value of each new station may vary, 235 however. TE can show the redundant information in a WQMN, which is mainly because of 236 spatiotemporal correlation among the qualitative variables. Therefore, TE is efficiently 237 applicable to the optimization of WQMN design (Karamouz et al., 2009). In the proposed 238 framework, the concept of TE is employed to achieve the amount of mutual information between stations and help to identify essential and unnecessary stations. In most of the 239 240 WQMNs, many qualitative variables are measured, which their time series have non-normal (asymmetrical) probability distribution function and necessitates applying the discrete form of 241 242 entropy theory for evaluating the efficiency of the monitoring system. (Memarzadeh et al., 243 2013; Alizadeh et al., 2018). There are different basic ways to measure information according 244 to entropy, including marginal, joint, conditional, and transinformation entropies. (Karamouz et al., 2009). Given a discrete random variable x, the marginal entropy is defined by H(x) as 245 246 Eq. 3:

$$H(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} p(x_i) \log p(x_i)$$
(3)

Where *N* characterizes the number of events such as x_i with the probability of $p(x_i)$ (i = 1, ..., N). The joint (total) entropy for two independent random variables (e.g., x and y) is the

probability of accruing both of them simultaneously and expressed as the sum of their marginalentropies.

$$H(x, y) = H(x) + H(y)$$
 (4)

251 Conditional entropy of x given y is the uncertainty remaining in x when y is known, and vice 252 versa:

$$H(x \mid y) = H(x, y) - H(y)$$
 (5)

Transinformation entropy calculates the mutual (redundant) information between each pair of
stations (e.g., *x* and *y*) and is calculated by the following equation (Pourshahabi et al., 2018a,
b) (Khorshidi et al., 2020):

$$TE(x,y) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} p(x_i, y_j) \ln\left[\frac{p(x_i, y_j)}{p(x_i)p(y_j)}\right]$$
(6)

where,

n The number of stations

 $p(x_i)$ The occurrence probability of x_i ,

 $p(y_i)$ The occurrence probability of y_j ,

 $p(x_i, y_j)$ The joint probability for x_i and y_j .

In this study, the amount of transformed information was determined for each pair of potentialmonitoring stations.

259

260 2.5 Optimization models

The NSGA-II (Deb et al., 2002) algorithm utilizes non-dominant sorting, and crowded comparison approaches in a single-objective form of the genetic algorithm to evaluate variety between non-dominated options. On the other hand, the Non-Dominating Sorting Genetic Algorithm III (NSGA-III) is a multi-objective algorithm with the basic structure similar to the NSGA-II, which maintains diversity based on reference points (Deb & Jain, 2014). NSGA-III does not require additional parameters compare to NSGA-II and eliminates the weaknesses of NSGA-II considering the lack of uniform diversity and absence of lateral diversity preserving operator among the current best non dominated solutions (Deb & Jain, 2014; Jain & Deb, 2014).

The NSGA-II and III based optimization models were developed according to the three following objectives: *i*) minimizing the number of potential monitoring stations (U_1) , *ii*) maximizing the VOI in the selected network (U_2) , and *iii*) minimizing redundant information among the selected stations (U_3) . Hence, VOI and TE were determined for all pairs of potential stations in a WQMN and resulted in two square matrices, in which the arrays in *ith* row and *jth* column define $VOI_{i,j}$ and $TE_{i,j}$, respectively. Accordingly, the optimization models were formulated as in Eqs. (7-10) to achieve an optimal WQMN.

$$Minimize \ U_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{M_P} \rho_i \tag{7}$$

$$Maximize \ U_2 = \sum_{\forall j} \max_i (\rho_i \times VOI_{i,j})$$
(8)

$$Minimize \ U_3 \ = \sum_{i=1}^{M_P} \sum_{\forall j \neq i} \left(\frac{TE_{(i,j)} - TE_{min(i)}}{TE_{max(i)} - TE_{min(i)}} \right)$$
(9)

$$\sum_{i=1}^{M_P} \rho_i = M_{opt} \tag{10}$$

where:

U _i	The values for the utility functions of the objectives,
M_{opt}	The optimized number of monitoring stations,
M_P	The number of potential monitoring stations,
0.	Binary variable (0 if potential station i is not selected as a monitoring station,
$ ho_i$	otherwise 1),
VOI _{i,j}	Value of information in i^{th} station for detecting the state of j^{th} monitoring station,
$TE_{i,j}$	The transinformation entropy between station i and station j .
$TE_{\min(i,j)}$	The minimum transinformation entropy between station i and other stations

 $TE_{\max(i,j)}$ The maximum transinformation entropy between station *i* and other stations

278

The characteristics of the best structure for the NSGA-II and III algorithms, including population size and the number of generations, were achieved over a sensitivity analysis. The optimization models deliver the Pareto front (trade-off curve) between objectives (Alizaseh et al., 2017; Mooselu et al., 2020), which consists of the right answers for the optimization problem. So, the MCDMs (next paragraph) are required for the decision-maker to get the best solution.

285

286 2.6 Multi-criteria decision-making models

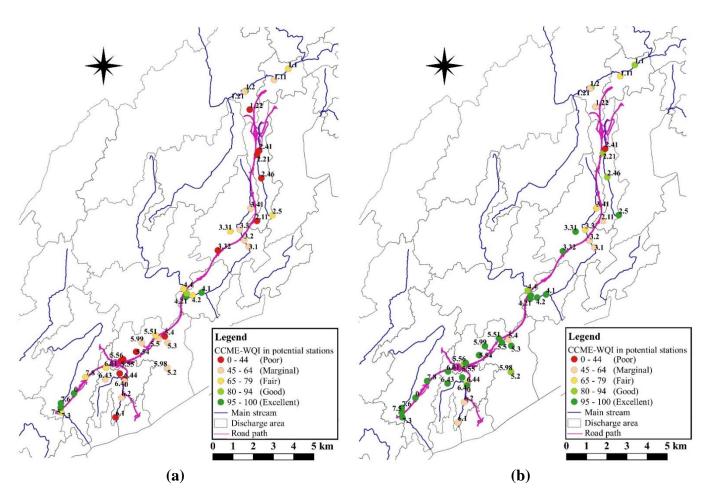
In this study, three MCDM models, including TOPSIS (Hwang and Yoon, 1981), PROMETHEE (Mareschal et al., 1984), and AHP (Saaty 1988) were utilized to reach the best WQMN among the alternatives on the trade-off curve. Besides, to evaluate the effects of weighing scenarios on results, different weighting scenarios were assigned to objectives by experts. 292 TOPSIS model attends the alternatives' distance from ideal and negative-ideal solutions, which 293 both are achieved by normalizing the alternatives in the decision matrix and then weighing 294 them based on the assigned weights to decision criteria. The best solution in this method has 295 the lowest distance from the ideal solution (Mooselu et al., 2019). Also, PROMETHEE, as a 296 flexible and straightforward decision-making model, is extensively applied in water resources 297 management (Kuang et al., 2015; Pourshahabi et al., 2018a; Sapkota et al., 2018; Mooselu et 298 al., 2019). PROMETHEE focuses on pairwise comparison in the ranking process. In this study, 299 complete ranking (PROMETHEE-II) was employed, which ranks a set of alternatives A =300 $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$ given a set of criteria $\mathbb{Z} = \{z_1, z_2, \dots, z_m\}$ in four steps (Zhang et al., 2009). First, the weighting of the criteria by expert's opinions that show their relative importance 301 302 compared to one another. Then, preference function is adopted that conveys the priority of each 303 pair of alternatives (e.g., a_i, a_j) in comparison to each other based on a single criterion such as z_i . In this study, the "V-shape with indifference preference function" was utilized, which 304 provides a sensible pairwise comparison between alternatives. In the third step, for any pair in 305 306 the set of alternatives (A) the global preference index, $\pi(a_i, a_i)$, is defined and indicates the 307 preference of a_i over a_i . The higher value for $\pi(o_i, o_i)$, the more preference of a_i compared to 308 a_i . In the final step named outranking flows, for ranking the a_i among other alternatives in the set of alternatives (A), the positive outranking flow or $\varphi^+(a_i)$ (the values of preference of a_i) 309 and negative outranking flow or $\varphi^{-}(a_i)$ (not preferring of a_i over the other alternatives) have 310 to be computed. The alternative with the highest value of the net outranking flow ($\varphi(a_i) =$ 311 $\varphi^+(a_i) - \varphi^-(a_i)$ is selected as the best solution. More applications and information about 312 313 PROMETHEE are provided by (Pourshahabi et al., 2018a; Mooselu et al., 2019).

314 AHP is a suitable method for multi-objective analyses in discrete mode, which can enter 315 qualitative and quantitative factors (criteria) in the decision model. It derives priorities among 316 criteria and alternatives and simplifies preference ratings among decision criteria using pairwise comparisons (Satty 1988). The basic procedure in AHP consists of three steps,
including 1) Developing the scores for each decision alternative for each criterion 2)
Determining the weights of criteria and 3) Calculating the weighted average rating for each
decision alternative. The details of AHP is presented in (Satty 1988).

321

322 3. Results and discussion

The CCME-WQI was computed for all potential monitoring stations and for all time steps during the construction period (2017-2019). The states of the potential monitoring stations in two different random time steps are presented in Fig. 3.



327 Fig. 3 The CCME-WQI values in all potential monitoring stations for a) Oct.2017, and b) Nov.2018

328 This figure clearly shows that a single station could have different states in various time steps, 329 depending on different reasons such as weather situation (e.g., sampling conducted after a rain episode or after a longer dry period), and the type of activity being performed at the station. 330 Hence, these issues will affect the water quality, and consequently, the prior probabilities 331 332 resulting from CCME-WQI. Given the five categories in CCME-WQI (poor, marginal, fair, 333 good, excellent), the value matrix was calculated, which is highly influential on the final results 334 of the VOI method. Accordingly, VOI and TE were computed for all pairs of the potential monitoring stations, and the results were two square matrices (44×44) of $VOI_{i,j}$ and $TE_{i,j}$. 335

Fig. 4a provides a graphical interpretation for $VOI_{i,j}$, in which the normalized values of VOI in station 4.4 ($VOI_{4,4,j}$) for detecting the state of all other potential monitoring stations is mapped. Besides, Fig. 4b demonstrates the redundancy of information given station 4.4 against all other potential monitoring stations ($TE_{4,4,j}$). Figure 4 clearly shows the concept of spatial distribution for TE and VOI given each monitoring station (here, station 4.4).

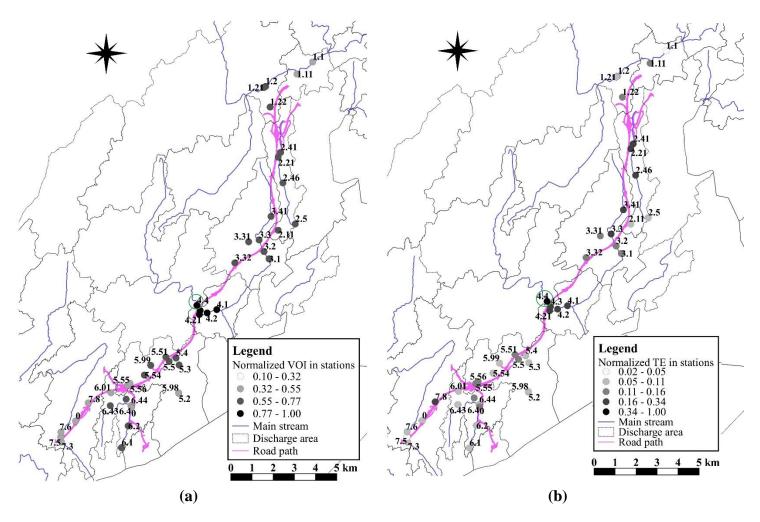
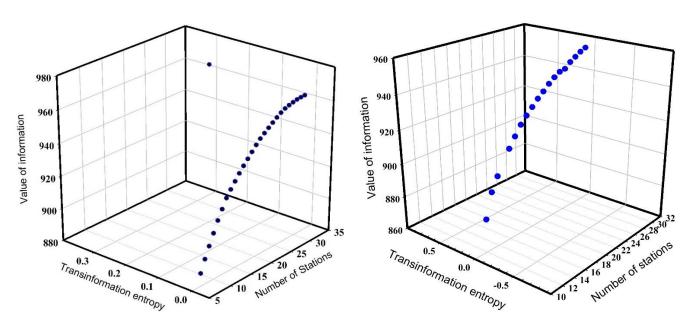


Fig. 4 The spatial distribution of normalized a) VOI, and b) TE values given station 4.4

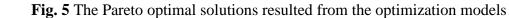
 $TE_{i,j}$ is measured between an origin station (*i*) and a goal station (*j*) and shows that how much information from station *j* is achievable by the station *i*. The closer the values of normalized $TE_{i,j}$ to 1, the more accessible the information of the station *j* through station *i*. By moving away from station 4.4, the VOI obtained from this station to determine the quality status of other stations will be reduced. The spatial distribution of TE in station 4.4 shows that for other stations in the same catchment area (e.g., 4.1, 4.2, 4.21, and 4.3), the amount of mutual information is more than other stations. After that, running the optimization models for three objectives led to the trade-off curves composed of 27 and 18 optimal solutions for NSGA-II and NSGA-III, which are the best match for the selected objectives (Fig. 5).

354



Pareto optimal solutions of NSGA-II model

Pareto optimal solutions of NSGA-III model



356

355

357 NSGA-II uses crowding distance to keep uniform coverage of Pareto solutions, while NSGA-III takes advantage of the reference point mechanism as its selection operator to look at the 358 solution space and preserve diversity (Deb & Jain, 2014). Comparing the results of the 359 360 optimization models, the NSGA-II based optimization model provides optimal solutions with 361 higher VOI and broader range for the number of stations in the WQMN. In contrast, NSGA-III based optimization model delivers more solutions with a minimum value of redundant 362 information. From a decision-making perspective, it seems that NSGA-II is more applicable 363 364 since it can offer more optimized alternatives to decision-makers. The values of normalized 365 transinformation entropy in some of the optimal solutions (both NSGA-II and III) were zero. It is mainly because the third objective function of the optimization model is defined to 366

367	minimize the summation of the normalized TE values between the selected stations in the
368	optimized network (Eq. 9). Consequently, by selecting the minimum values for $TE_{i,j}$, the final
369	value of this objective function would be zero. Therefore, the optimal solutions (selected set of
370	stations) meet the objective of the problem (minimizing the redundancy between stations).
371	However, the outlier point in the Pareto-front of NSGA-II model shows the optimal solutions
372	that have a different value of $TE_{i,j}$. Both optimization models showed acceptable performance
373	by providing the solutions that meet the selected criteria. The optimum alternative on the
374	Pareto-front space was obtained by three different MCDM models, including TOPSIS,
375	PROMETHEE, and AHP, for different weighing scenarios, which are assigned to criteria based
376	on experts' opinions. In fact, the weighting scenarios show the priority of objectives in order to
377	achieve optimum WQMN. Table 2 shows various weighing scenarios and corresponding
378	solutions selected by TOPSIS and PROMETHEE models. Due to TE values in optimal
379	solutions, which in the majority of the optimal solution is zero and shows the high performance
380	of the model in minimizing the transinformation entropy, in most of the listed weighing
381	scenarios, the assigned weight to this objective was adopted less than other two objectives.

Table 2 Different weighing scenarios and selected solution by MCDM models

Weighing scenario	The weights of objectives [*]			Selected	solution on the Pa NSGA-II	reto of	Selected solution on the Pareto of NSGA-III			
	$\mathbf{W}^{**}{}_1$	W_2	W ₃	TOPSIS	PROMETHEE	AHP	TOPSIS	PROMETHEE	AHP	
1	0.40	0.10	0.50	4	11	14	1	9	9	
2	0.30	0.10	0.60	2	10	4	1	3	3	
3	0.45	0.10	0.45	4	18	18	1	6	12	
4	0.35	0.30	0.35	14	18	18	15	9	15	
5	0.30	0.20	0.50	14	7	4	1	9	9	
6	0.40	0.20	0.40	4	18	18	1	9	9	
7	0.50	0.10	0.40	14	18	18	1	9	9	
8	0.60	0.10	0.30	14	6	7	1	5	8	
9	0.50	0.20	0.30	14	8	4	1	9	3	
10	0.30	0.40	0.30	14	18	18	15	9	9	

 $3\overline{83}$ *Objectives: 1) the number of stations, 2) the VOI, and 3) normalized TE. W_i ** is the assigned weight to the *i*th objective

385 As can be seen, for the results of the NSGA-II, if the objective function 1 (number of 386 monitoring stations) receives more importance (e.g., weighing scenarios of 7, 8, and 9), 387 TOPSIS selects solution #14 with 33 monitoring stations, while PROMETHEE and AHP pick 388 three different solutions. When the first and third objective functions have the same importance 389 (e.g., weighing scenarios of 3, 4, 6, and 10), PROMETHEE and AHP certainly chose the 390 solution #18 with 28 monitoring stations, and TOPSIS has two different choices (solutions #14 391 and #4). If the experts prioritize the VOI as the most significant objective (e.g., weighing 392 scenarios of 1, 2, and 5), all MCDM models deliver different solutions, depending on the 393 assigned weights. Finally, solution #14, and #18 were recognized as the preferable solutions 394 by MCDM models, respectively. For the Pareto optimal solutions of the NSGA-III based 395 optimization model, the performance of MCDMs was different from that for the NSGA-II 396 based model. In most of the weighing scenarios, TOPSIS selected solution #1 with 30 stations 397 in the network, while PROMETHEE, as well as AHP, picked the solution #9 with 29 stations. 398 The objective values in the selected solutions are presented in Table 3.

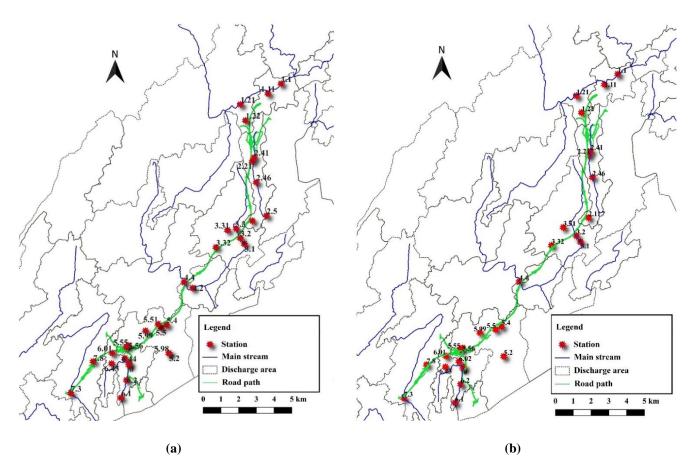
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- 400

Table 3 The objective values of the selected alternative by MCDM models

Optimization model	Solution number	The value of objectives						
		No. of stations	Value of information (Eq. 8)	Normalized transinformation entropy (Eq. 9)				
NSGA-II	14	33	963.80	0.29				
	18	28	962.70	0.00				
NSGA-III	1	30	955.56	0.00				
	9	29	954.08	0.00				

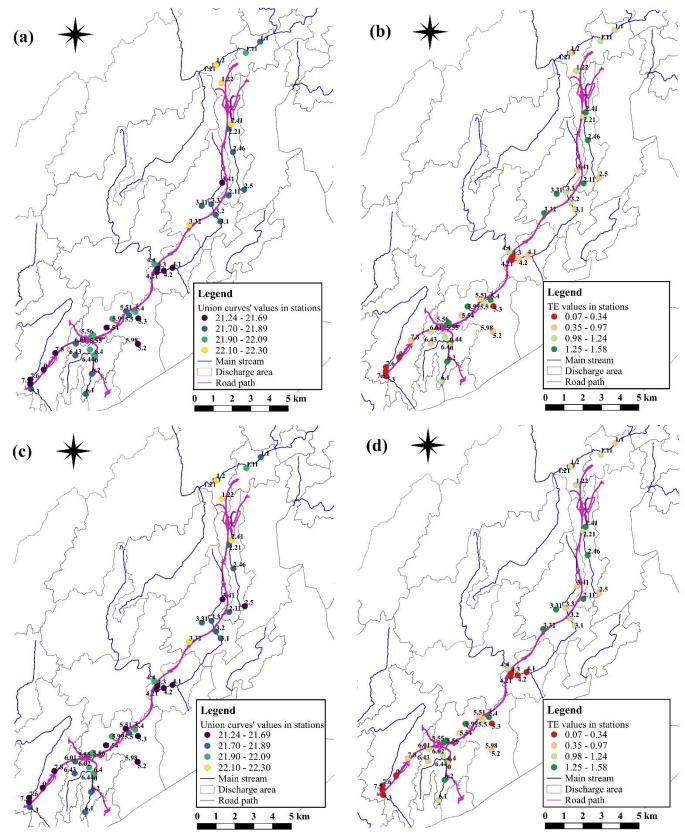
402	The selected solutions provided the optimum WQMN during road construction, with the
403	optimum number of stations and minimum redundant information among stations, while
404	maximizing the value of information for the monitoring stations in WQMN. This network
405	facilitates the situation for decision-makers to update their judgment about the quality of water

- in the road construction area. As an example, the selected WQMNs from the solutions of the
 NSGA-II model (solutions #14 and #18) are presented in Fig. 6.
- 408



409 Fig. 6 The selected monitoring networks from NSGA-II model a) solution #14, b) #18, (the
410 first digit of the station labels shows the catchment area)

It is vivid that both WQMNs have a reasonable spatial distribution over the seven catchment areas, which provides a reliable evaluation of the impact of road construction activities on receiving streams. However, the reference stations were not considered in selected stations, and only affected potential stations were attended. In order to analyze the selected solutions based on provided VOI and TE, the union of the VOI_i curves in the selected WQMNs, and TE among the selected stations in both optimum solutions (#14 and #18), are presented in Fig. 7 a,b and Fig. 7 c,d, respectively.





420 Fig. 7 The union of the *VOI_i* curves for solution number 14 (a) and 18 (c), and TE for
421 solution number 14 (b) and 18 (d).

The best state of the monitoring system regarding the value of information is achieved by having all the potential stations in the final WQMN. Maximizing the value of VOI guarantees that the selected WQMN (with fewer stations) is approached to having the monitoring station in all potential points. However, the locations of the selected stations could have different distributions. Therefore, minimizing the TE secures that the selected stations have the best spatial distribution over the catchment areas.

As shown, both solutions have almost the same status in satisfying the objectives (VOI_i and 429 430 TE). Consequently, the same situation given VOI_i and TE provides a suitable condition for the 431 decision-maker to confidently select the best solution based on the number of stations. Hence, 432 solution # 18, with 28 stations distributed in all seven catchment areas, is the final WOMN. With the same logic for the selected WQMNs from the NSGA-III, solution # 9, with 29 well-433 434 distributed stations, is the ultimate solution. The optimized WQMNs are the cost-effective 435 solutions (with fewer monitoring stations) in comparison with the current monitoring program 436 while provides reliable information on the water quality along the construction site.

437

438 4 Summary and Conclusion

439 This study proposed an applicable methodology for spatial multi-objective optimization of 440 WQMN during a road construction project. Included are the CCME-WQI, the information-441 theoretic approaches (VOI and TE), NSGA-II and III, and MCDM models. The approach was 442 applied to a monitoring program consisting of 44 potential monitoring stations in seven 443 catchment areas, which received runoff from the construction of a 22 km long E18 highway in 444 southern Norway. CCME-WQI was determined considering qualitative parameters in the time series dataset over the construction period. There were three main objectives, including i) 445 446 minimizing the number of monitoring stations, *ii*) maximizing the value of information among

447 stations, and *iii*) minimizing TE (redundant information) in the selected WQMN. Accordingly, 448 the NSGA-II and NSGA-III based optimization models were utilized to achieve the Pareto-449 front of optimal solutions. Then, given different weighting scenarios (selected by experts' 450 opinion) for objective functions, the best solution was found using the TOPSIS, PROMETHEE, 451 and AHP multi-criteria decision-making methods. The application of the proposed 452 methodology for optimizing WQMN during road construction provides feasible knowledge 453 regarding the surface water quality and contributes to filling the information gap in utilizing 454 CCME-WQI, a hybrid VOI-TE method, and NSGA-III, for optimization of the WQMN during 455 the road construction project.

456 The resulting extent of measurements has minimum redundancy and maximum value for the 457 decision-making process. Having optimized the spatial part of WQMN (the distribution of 458 monitoring stations), a temporal optimization and selection of an optimal sampling frequency 459 could be the next steps. Besides, the Bayesian Maximum Entropy (BME) method (Hosseini 460 and Kerachian, 2017) can be applied to get a reliable spatiotemporal fit of WQI. Also, the 461 uncertainty in determining the WQI could be analyzed by interval number programming (Nikoo et al., 2013; Nikoo et al., 2016). CCME WQI needs the same time series for all 462 463 qualitative parameters in each assessment, which in practice leads to a decrease in the number of parameters examined. Hence, the results of this study (using the CCME index) could be 464 465 compared with other water quality indices such as the EU Water Framework Directive (WFD) 466 or leachate pollution index (LPI).

467

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473 Appendix 1. CCME-WQI

474 CCME-WQI was developed to facilitate the process of transmitting the qualitative data into
475 qualitative information and then knowledge (Khan 2005). This index combines three measures
476 of variance (scope; frequency; amplitude) to indicate the overall water quality as follow:

477 – Scope (F_1) : the number of variables that violate the standards

$$F_{1} = \left(\frac{Number of failed variables}{Total number of variables}\right) \times 100$$
1A

478 – Frequency (F_2) : the number of times that violation happens

$$F_2 = \left(\frac{Number \ of \ failed \ tests}{Total \ number \ of \ tests}\right) \times 100$$

479 – Amplitude (F_3) : the magnitude of the violation. In order to compute F_3 , first, the excursion,

480 which is the number of times by which an individual concentration is greater than (or less than),

481 the water quality objective must be determined as follow:

482 when i^{th} test value must not exceed the respective guideline (objective):

$$Excursion_i = \left(\frac{failed \ test \ value_i}{guideline_i}\right) - 1$$
3A

483 when i^{th} test value must not fall below the respective guideline (objective):

$$Excursion_i = \left(\frac{guideline_i}{failed \ test \ value_i}\right) - 1 \tag{4A}$$

484 Then, the Normalized Sum of Excursions (NSE) is calculated by Eq. 5A.

$$NSE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} excursion_{i}}{Total number of tests}$$
 5A

485 After that, by scaling the NSE to the range of 0–100 (Eq. 6A), the amplitude (F_3) is

486 calculated:

$$F_3 = \left(\frac{NSE}{0.01NSE + 0.01}\right) \times 100$$
 6A

487 Finally, the CCME-WQI is achieved by utilizing Eq. 7A:

$$CCME_{WQI} = 100 - (\frac{\sqrt{F_1^2 + F_2^2 + F_3^2}}{1.732})$$
7A

The computed values of CCME-WQI are then transformed into rankings through the index categorization schema, which makes five categories of poor (0-44), marginal (45-64), fair (65-79), good (80-94), and excellent (95-100).

In this study, considering the length of the time series for the measured parameters, four parameters including Fe (iron), Turbidity, Suspended Solids (SS), and pH, which had a complete time series during the construction period were selected for the rest of analysis. The water quality regulations set by the discharge permit for the construction phase of E18 Arendal-Tvedestrand, released by the Environment Department of Agder County, Norway, was applied for every single station (see Table A1).



Table A1 The water quality objectives in different stations

	Station ID	Water quality objectives			Catabara	Gi d'	Water quality objectives				
Catchment		Fe (µg/l)	pН	SS (mg/l)	Turbidity (FNU)	Catchme nt	Station ID	Fe (µg/l)	pН	SS (mg/l)	Turbidity (FNU)
	1.10	500	7.5	100	2		5.30	500	7.5	100	4
	1.11	900	8	100	8		5.40	500	7.5	100	4
1	1.20	500	7.5	100	2		5.50	500	7.5	100	4
	1.21	900	8	100	8		5.51	900	8	100	4
	1.22	900	8	100	8	5	5.54	900	8	100	4
	2.11	500	7.5	100	4		5.55	900	8	100	4
	2.21	500	7.5	100	4		5.56	900	8	100	4
2	2.41	900	8	100	2		5.98	500	7.5	100	6
	2.46	500	7.5	100	5		5.99	500	7.5	100	6
	2.50	500	7.5	100	5		6.01	900	8	100	8
	3.10	500	7.5	100	5	6	6.02	900	8	100	8
	3.20	500	7.5	100	4		6.10	500	7.5	100	4
2	3.30	500	7.5	100	5		6.20	500	7.5	100	4
3	3.31	900	8	100	4		6.40	500	7.5	100	4
	3.32	500	8	100	4		6.43	900	7.5	100	4
	3.41	900	8	100	4		6.44	900	7.5	100	1
	4.10	500	7.5	100	2	7	AF01-V	900	8	100	8
	4.20	500	7.5	100	2		7.30	500	7.5	100	4
4	4.21	500	7.5	100	2		7.50	500	8	100	4
	4.30	500	7.5	100	2		7.60	500	8	100	4
	4.40	500	7.5	100	1		7.7B	500	7.5	100	4
5	5.20	500	7.5	100	4		7.80	500	8	100	4

498

499 CCME-WQI was calculated for 42 measurements in each station. The result was a matrix of 500 42×44 , which applied for computing the value of information and the transinformation entropy.

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