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OPTIMAL ALLOCATION OF EFFLUENT CHARGES IN RÉGIONAL WATER RESOURCE SYSTEMS

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES THROUGH THE DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL ENGINEERING IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF APPLIED SCIENCE AT THE UNIVERSITY OF WINDSOR

ΒY

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C Mohamed El-Mougy Ahmed 1979

ABSTRACT

Environmental resources play a major role in economic systems through the service they provide to assimilate or carry away the residuals of production processes. As water resources have become scarce to offer their service to the growing number of population, urbanization, and economic activities, the optimal allocation of their assimilative capacities among the users can be achieved through the forces of the market system. The effluent charges strategy attains this objective. The strategy, in effect, imposes a price on the use of the water resource and thus provides an incentive to the polluters to seek the most efficient waste treatment methods.

A mathematical model is developed to determine, within the framework of a regional water quality management system, the optimal effluent charge rates to be levied against all polluters in a river basin. In addition, the model determines the optimal treatment policy for each polluter such that the required water quality standards in the basin are satisfied at a minimum total cost.

The formulation of the model reflects the presence of a large number of factors which account for the variations in stream characteristics as well as in plant performance at each pollution source. The factors interact with each other through complex, nonlinear transfer functions. Consequently, the objective function and constraints are highly nonlinear

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in nature, which calls for a nonlinear optimization method to find the solution. The Sequential Unconstraint Minimization Technique (SUMT) has been used for this purpose.

Two main features distinguish the present model from previous works. First, the attainment of water quality standards throughout the basin is ensured by explicitly specifying the appropriate constraints in the model. Second, the model determines the effluent charges as a set of nonlinear rates as opposed to a set of uniform rates obtained by the existing models.

The model is applied to two different cases, and the results are interpreted in the context of the complex interractions among all the factors involved. The results point out the importance of developing complex mathematical models in order to deal with complicated problems of environmental pollution.

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I wish to dedicate this work to

my parents

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LIST OF	NOTATIONS

	•		
•	BOD		Biochemical oxygen demand
•	C	-	Concentration level of dissolved oxygen, mg/l
	CS	-	Saturation concentration level of DD, mg/L
	CU	-	Upstream concentration level of DO, mg/L
	DO	-	Dissolven oxygen
	EP '	_	Phosphorus concentration level, mg/2
	F,	-	Total value of the objective function
_	FC		Charge cost function
· · ·	FT	-	Waste treatment cost function
	Fl	-	A conversion factor; $\frac{day.ft^3.mg}{sec.lb.l}$
	G <u>`</u>		Constraint function
	ĸ _l .	-	Biological oxidation rate coefficient; day ⁻¹
•	к2	-	Rearation rate coefficient; day ⁻¹
	к _{з -}	-	Sedimentation or absorption rate coefficient of
			BOD; day ⁻¹ -
	L	-	Concentration level of biochemical oxygen demand, mg/ℓ
	La	-	Local BOD runoff rate; mg/l/day
	LB	. –	Maximum BOD content at the beginning of the zone,
			mg/l
	LE	-	Stream BOD content at the end of the zone, mg/l
	LU	-	Upstream concentration of BOD, mg/l
	MAXBOD	-	Maximum allowable BOD level in the river, mg/l
	MAXPHR	-	Maximum allowable phosphorus in the river, mg/l
	MDO	-	Minimum DO concentration level in the river, mg/l
	MGD	-	Million gallons per day
	MINDO	-	Minimum allowable DO level in the river, mg/l

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•	P	- Modified objective function in SUMT formulation
. •	PH	- Maximumephosphorus content in the river, mg/ l
-	<p-r></p-r>	- Rate of photosynthesis minus the rate of
•	•	respiration, mg/l/day
	PU	- Upstream phosphorus concentration, mg/L
-	Q.	- Stream flow rate; cfs
1	Q (- Average daily flow of the plant, MGD
	QU	- Upstream flow rate, cfs
	· r	- Constant value in SUMT formula
	Т	- Stream temperature, ^O K
	WB	- Amount of organic waste produced at pollution
		source, lb/day
	WP	- Amount of phosphorus wàste produced at pollution
		source, lb/day
•	х	- BOD treatment level applied in the theoretical
ł	•	functions
	У	- Effluent charge rate, \$/1b of BOD
``,	Z	- Phosphorus treatment level applied to the
		empirical functions
	θ_{1}, θ_{2}	- Parameter coefficient for effluent charge rate
	τ.	- Residence time, in days from source of pollution

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Economic Aspects of Environmental Pollution

The quality of water, air, and soil, is affected by the economic activities of human beings to the extent that most researchers consider the pollution problem as a phenomenon related to production and consumption processes, (Dales, 1968). This relationship can be clearly shown by tracing the pollution to its primary sources.

Men, through their daily activities, take from the environment a wide variety of materials, agricultural products, and animal materials. They transform them into many varieties of economic goods. During the transformation processes, many unwanted materials - solid, liquid or gaseous - are generated and discarded into the environment as residuals. Some of these residuals are harmful (toxic chemicals, for example) and could damage the environment; some others are harmless, but they could react chemically with other substances or with each other in the air or water in a damaging way (as in the sunlight). On the other hand, the final economic goods are eventually consumed, a process during which they undergo physical or chemical transformation and become unwanted materials. Sooner or later they will be discarded again.

If the environmental capacity to absorb or to carry away all the residuals was unlimited, there would be no pollution problem and residuals could be discharged into

water, air, or soil without limit. In earlier days, a smaller; more dispersed population, and a much lower level of economic activity did not generally impose a real load on the capacity of the environment to assimilate residuals. Environmental resources were in such abundance that they seemed to have an unlimited capacity to assimilate the wastes. Most economists at that time were considering these common resources as perfect examples of free goods. But, as population, urbanization, and economic activity have grown, what were once plentiful environmental resources have become increasingly scarce, and can no longer be fully available to the increasing number of users.

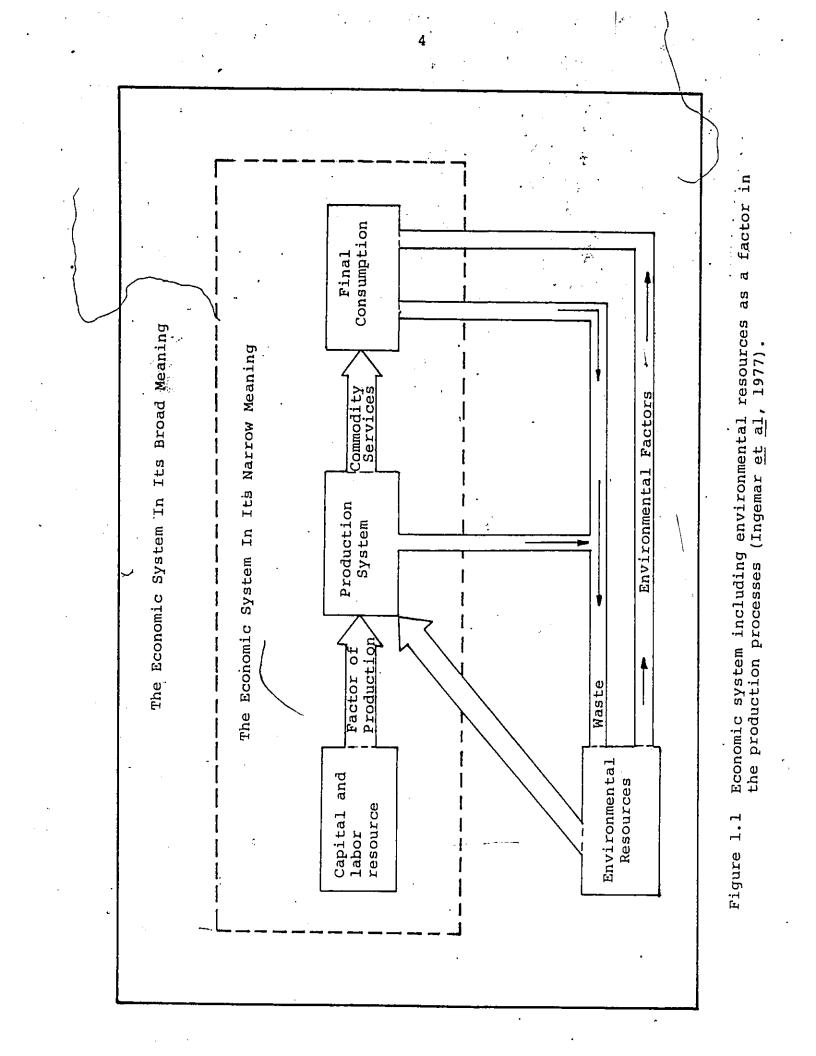
It is clear that the amount of discarded waste depends on two factors: number of people in the economy (population density), and per capita consumptions of materials. Environmental degradation, therefore, will increase with increasing population and economic growth. Assuming the society has no intention to halt or decrease the economy's growth, it has only one alternative left to control pollution, that is to seek new technical methods of pollution abatement to decrease the rate of waste residuals per throughput of raw materials.

On the other hand, eliminating the discarded wastes, which are unwanted residuals with no value, will cost the society at large. The dischargers, however, are under no obligation to incur this cost or even economize in their use of natural resources as waste receptors. This has created a situation in which the costs of production and the prices

of goods and services diverge, in different degrees, from the true costs of production. Such divergence not only leads to a misallocation of the employed resources, but can also result in a deteriorating environmental quality (Ralph, 1963).

Two points emerge from this analysis. First, the environmental resources play an important role in the economic system through the service they offer to the production processes to carry away or assimilate rssiduals. The concept of the economic system should be broadened to include these resources as a counterpart to such other factors in the production processes as capital, labour, and materials, (Ingemar et al, 1977). Figure 1.1 diagramatically depicts this concept. Second, any real effort to control pollution would have to provide a set of strong economic incentives to persuade dischargers to seek these new, technical methods of pollution abatement.

In order to alleviate this situation, environmental quality management should be considered as a resource allocation problem; that is, environmental resources, like all other scarce resources, should be optimally allocated among the different competing users so as to maintain a desired level of environmental quality. Although the free market system provides the mechanism for optimal allocation of resources, in the case of environmental resources it could fail. The failure may be due to either the lack of property rights, or the public good nature of these resources.



To overcome the market failure for the environmental resources, some form of governmental intervention is suggested for maintaining the desired environmental quality levels, and achieving the optimal allocation of resources among different users (Kneese, 1964). The government agency may use the strategy it deems best to fullfil its responsibility. Such methods as the regulation enforcement and subsidies have been widely used in the past one-and-a-half The regulation enforcement strategy imposes disdecades. charge levels on firms and municipalities, whereas the subsidies method provides monetary grants for constructing waste treatment facilities. In spite of these efforts, both strategies have failed to bring about the desired levels of environmental quality (Alexander, 1976). The reason lies in the fact that both strategies have two charactéristics which render them costly and ineffective. First they rely greatly on detailed information and procedures which are difficult to obtain and apply. Second, they lack economic incentives to realize the social cost of degrading the environment.

The effluent charge strategy is an alternative control policy, and it has the potentiality to overcome the drawbacks inherent in the other two methods. The strategy requires that those who use the environmental resources pay for them at a price that reflects their scarcity. Pricing the environmental resource tends to establish, among the different users, an optimal allocation pattern of these resources. The strategy is simple and applicable; besides,

it places greater reliance on the self-motivation of dis-. chargers to reduce their waste.

1.2 The Purpose and Plan of Study

The primary purpose of this investigation is to develop a mathematical model of water pollution control, which would determine the optimal effluent charge rates to be levied against all the polluters in a river basin system, such that the desired water quality levels in the basin are maintained at a minimum total cost.

In Chapter I, the pollution problem has been embedded in an economic framework; since the problem has arisen in the context of economic activities, its solution may be found in economic theory.

Chapter II presents the technical aspects of the water pollution problem. The competing uses of water resources, are discussed and the sources of pollution and pollutant types are presented. The measures of water quality used in the study are discussed next. Finally, the technical options for water pollution control are exhibited, emphasizing conventional waste treatment methods.

Chapter III is devoted to an evaluation of the effluent charges strategy as an alternative control method The role played by the price mechanism, through the market function, to solve the problem of resource allocation is discussed. The reasons for market failure in the case of the environmental resources, and the use of effluent charges to overcome this failure are explained. A comparison

is made between the effluent charge strategy and the other two strategies .with respect to three important criteria: effectiveness, flexibility, and efficiency. Finally, the criticisms of, and the misunderstanding about, the strategy are evaluated.

In Chapter IV, the historical evolution of the effluent charge strategy is presented in two parts. In the first part, works carried out to date on the development of theoretical bases for the strategy are discussed. The second part offers a survey of the studies dealing with applications of the strategy within framework of water quality management models.

In Chapter V, the mathematical model of the river basin system is developed. The river is divided into a number of zones, each receiving wastes from municipal and/ or industrial sources located along the river. Water quality measures are defined and a modified form of the Streeter-Phelps equations, as suggested by Dobbins (1964) are employed to predict the behaviour of these measures at various points of a zone. The model's objective function consists of the treatment costs as well as the effluent charges levied against the untreated portion of the The constraints of the model define the allowable wastes. levels of water quality measures in each zone. The model is highly nonlinear in nature, calling for a nonlinear optimization method to find the solution.

Chapter VI considers the application of the optimi-

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zation model in two different cases. The first assumes that the river receives waste from municipal sources. The cost function employed in this example are derived from actual data collected, during the period 1975-1977, from municipal wastewater treatment plants in Southern Ontario The second example assumes that the river receives waste from different municipal and industrial sources. The cost functions employed are based on the current information on the cost of industrial and municipal waste treatment.

Chapter VII is devoted to discuss the results of the optimization model as it is applied in the two cases. The discussion is followed by drawing a number of conclusions for the present investigation . Proposals are made, at the end of the report, for further research and studies.

CHAPTER II

TECHNICAL ASPECTS OF THE WATER POLLUTION PROBLEM

2.1 Introduction

For the water to be useable, it should possess certain quality levels. Over the years, highly technological treatment methods have been developed to improve the quality of water in rivers and streams. Yet, there are some questions regarding the effectiveness of these methods to cope with increasing problem of water resource pollution.

The chapter discusses, first, the various uses of water resources; second, it identifies the different categories of waste discharges, and explains the measures of water quality. Some technological options for reducing the amount of waste discharge without a decrease in economic growth are presented. Finally, the conventional waste treatment methods - primary, secondary and tertiary - are briefly discussed.

2.2 Importance of Water Resources

The importance of water resources (e.g., streams, rivers, and lakes) can be assessed through the values of their three main services:

 Value in Use: Water is withdrawn from the stream to satisfy domestic, industrial, and agricultural needs.

2) Value in Commerce and Recreation: The stream

serves as a means of transportation, a source of power, or 'a place to fish, boat or swim; it contributes to the environment, which makes a community a pleasant place to live in.

3) Value as a Waste Carrier: Stream flow may be used to carry waste materials away from their sources.

The first two functions compete with the third. If the amount of waste discharged into the stream is greater than the capacity of the stream to assimilate it, pollution problem will arise, and the value of the water course for its other two uses will reduce (Lee, 1970).

The threat to water quality arises mainly from discharging wastes from domestic, industrial, agricultural, and recreational activities into the water. These wastes can be grouped in various ways. One common classification differentiates between non-degradable and degradable wastes: Non-Degradable Wastes: The sources of non-degradable substances are mainly inorganic chemicals such as chlorides, synthetic organic chemicals and inorganic suspended solids. Some industrial wastes contain inorganic or metallic salts and synthetic organic chemicals. Domestic water use results in a small increase in the content of chlorides and other dissolved salts. The return flow from irrigation is generally significantly higher in dissolved salts than the inflow water. Also, some other discharges from mines may contain copper, zinc, and uranium. Many of these nondegradable wastes may be toxic or corrosive. Some of them

may impart color or taste to the water. Suspended materials and colloidal matter cause turbidity in surface waters. This not only makes water less attractive, but can also damage fish life, and inhibit the growth of some aquatic plants such as algae which may or may not be desirable. Non-degradable-wastes are usually diluted and may be changed in form, but they are not appreciably reduced in weight in the receiving water (Kneese, 1964).

ii) Degradable_Wastes: Degradable wastes include thermal wastes and organic wastes which come mainly from domestic, industrial and agricultural operations. These types of waste are subsequently decomposed into harmless substances by the stream's natural biological, chemical, or physical processes, which result in a significant weight reduction of the waste load. The concentration of a degradable waste, . however, is much more difficult to be determined than a non-degradable waste because the capacity of the stream to decompose (or to assimilate) the waste is determined by many factors such as stream flow, stream temperature, and the physical and biological properties of the stream that affect the rates of settling and reaeration (Lee, 1970) Thermal loads are classified as degradable waste since the heat is dissipated in receiving waters, primarily by evaporation and conduction in ground waters. The primary sources of thermal wastes are the generation of electrical energy and the cooling operations in many industries (Fan, et al, 1973).

2.3 Water Quality Measures

A measure of organic waste load is Biochemical Oxygen Demand (BOD), which is a measure of the amount of oxygen needed to oxidize a unit of organic waste material into relatively harmless components. The amount of oxygen demanded and the rate at which it is drawn upon are mainly functions of the quality of the waste, its chemical characteristics, as well as the temperature of the receiving water. For example, toxic substances may appreciably reduce the rate of decomposition by inhibiting bacterial At higher temperatures, where the oxygen saturation action. level of water is relatively low, bacterial action is accelerated, and dissolved oxygen in the water is drawn upon more rapidly (Davidson and Bradshaw, 1967). The imbalance between available oxygen and oxygen demand may proceed to the point of depleting the oxygen level in the stream completely (anaerobic conditions). Such conditions are most likely to occur in the summer, when streamflows tend to be low and temperatures high. All the efforts to control water quality have to avoid such conditions. fact, the rate at which "BOD" is depleted (which depends on the amount of waste at the point of discharge) combined with the rate at which oxygen is restored, determines the level of Dissolved Oxygen (DO) in the stream.

The combined effect of organic waste discharged at a specific location and reaeration in the stream results first in a decrease and then in an increase in DO as the waste is carried or moved downstream. This phenomenon is illustrated by a characteristic curve known as the "oxygen sag" curve. In Figure 2.1, the variations in BOD concentration and the associated oxygen sag curves for two different levels of waste load discharge are presented. In Figure 2.1(a) the waste load is below the river's assimilative capacity, and thus a minimum level of "DO" is maintained throughout the stream. However, if the receiving waters are loaded excessively such as in Figure 2.1(b), the process of degradation will proceed anaerobically by the action of bacteria not utilizing free oxygen. Anaerobic processes produce hydrogen sulfide and other gases which have an annoying odor. These, combined with floating materials and sewage solids, are likely to be unpleasant from aesthetic and recreational view points. The bacteria content also makes the stream unsafe for water sports. However, the most direct impact of an excessive organic waste load in the stream is its effect of reducing the amount of /"DO" to the point where most species of fish are unable to survive (Kneese and Bower, 1968).

Among the factors contributing to the degradation of water quality are plant nutrients, primarily phosphorus. Although nutrients themselves are not harmful to the water (except when they are present in excessive amounts) they can lead to intense algae growth, or "eutrophication", which, in general, is detrimental to aquatic life (Bishop, 1975). This is of particular importance in quiet waters

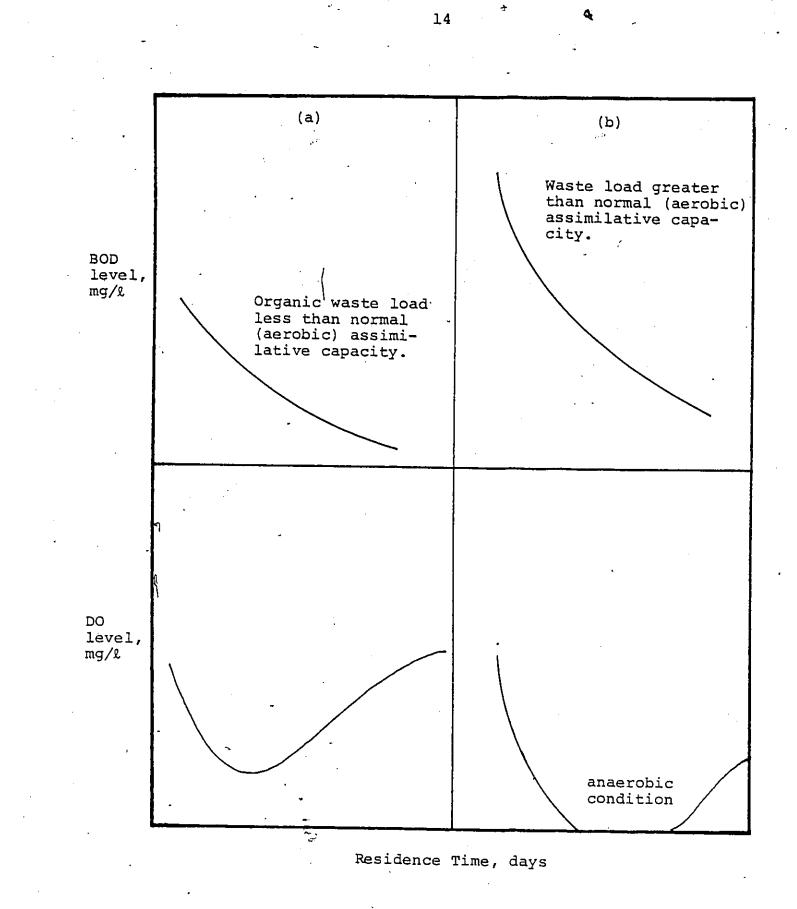


Figure 2.1.

Schematic diagram of oxygen sag for two different levels of organic waste load, [Kneese, 1964]. such as lakes, bays, and estuaries. Since most lakes are considered as sinks for rivers, the maximum level of phosphorus substances in rivers should be controlled to prevent eutrophication processes, not only in rivers, but also in lakes.

2.4 <u>Technological Options for Water Pollution Control</u>

The quality of water resources can be improved in two ways (separately, or in combination): first, by making better use of the stream's assimilative capacity, and second, by reducing waste load discharges (Kneese and Bower, 1968).

As far as the first option is concerned, assimilative capacity can be enhanced in various ways. For instance, since the effect of waste discharge depends on the time and/ or place of discharge, any change in one or both factors could affect pollution concentration. Some locations along the stream are better suited for carrying away and assimilating the waste than others. Alternatively, discharges can be timed to coincide with periods of maximum stream flow rate, and to avoid periods of high temperature. The assimilative capacity can also be increased by means of artificial reaeration, or by constructing dams to store and release water to dilute wastes during periods of low flow (low flow augmentation).

As for the second option, the reduction of waste load discharges can be accomplished in two broad ways:

(i) by reducing the generation of wastes per unit output,

(ii) by modifying the residual waste after generation.

Within these two broad categories a variety of techniques are available. In the first category, waste generation per unit output could be reduced by changing the types of raw material inputs or by modifying production processes in such a way as to increase the technical efficiency of materials used, which eventually results in less waste. Another possibility is to shift the economic activities toward more durable products. In the second category, the waste reduction could be accomplished either by material recovery or by waste treatment. Material recovery is now technologically possible for most types of material, such as paper, metal, and glass.

Water pollution can also be reduced by various techniques of waste treatment. There are a number of advanced waste treatment methods, capable of significantly reducing the harmful effects of waste discharge. However, the costs entailed in achieving such treatment levels are usually high, compared to other methods, which in many cases embody also a more effective means of waste reduction (Kneese & Schultze, 1975). Nevertheless, most policies have rested almost exclusively on the waste treatment approach to water pollution control. This may be due to the fact that waste treatment is the only general method for reducing waste discharges from different sources, e.g., households, industries, and mines. On the other hand, the absence of an

adequate incentive to motivate the firms to search for alternative methods of waste reduction (such as recycling or material recovery) may also have contributed to this exclusive dependence on waste treatment techniques. In the next section, a brief discussion regarding the conventional treatment methods of domestic and industrial wastes and their economies will be given.

2.5 Conventional Methods of Waste Treatment

Conventional treatment of domestic and industrial wastes is a comparatively standardized process that can greatly reduce, but not eliminate, BOD level. The process involves the following steps:

i) <u>Primary Treatment</u>: In this stage the large solids are removed by screening and sedimentation processes. This step usually produces a wet, difficult-to-handle sludge which is usually digested in heated anaerobic tanks before final disposal. When waste treatment plants are operated adequately, the primary treatment of an influent containing organic wastes can reduce the first stage BOD by 35% to 45% (Kneese, 1964).

ii) <u>Secondary Treatment</u>: This stage is biological in character and essentially controls and accelerates the oxidation processes. Two major techniques are presently used, with various modifications. One is the trickling filter in which a biological film is grown on rocks or some type of plastic medium, and waste is applied intermittently, allowing air contact with the surface of the film. The

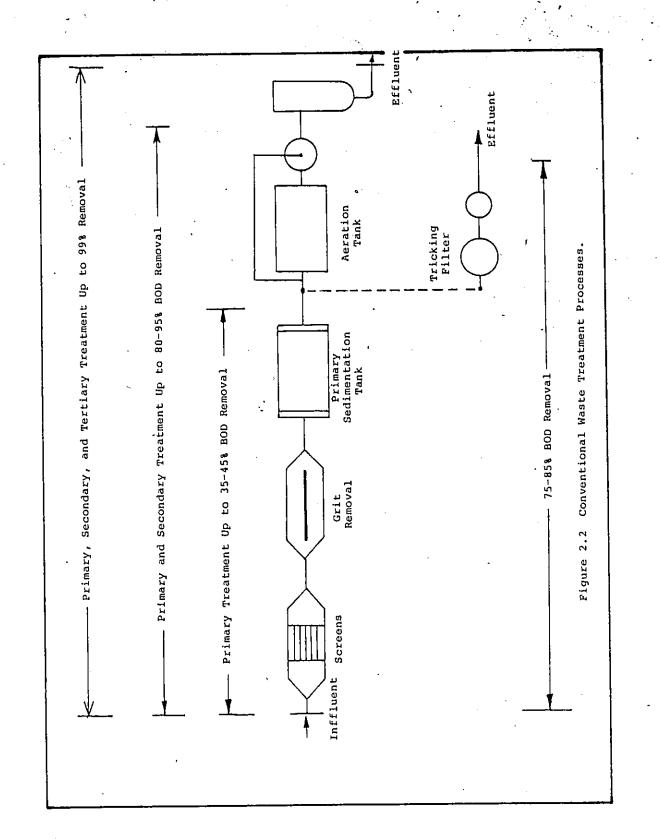
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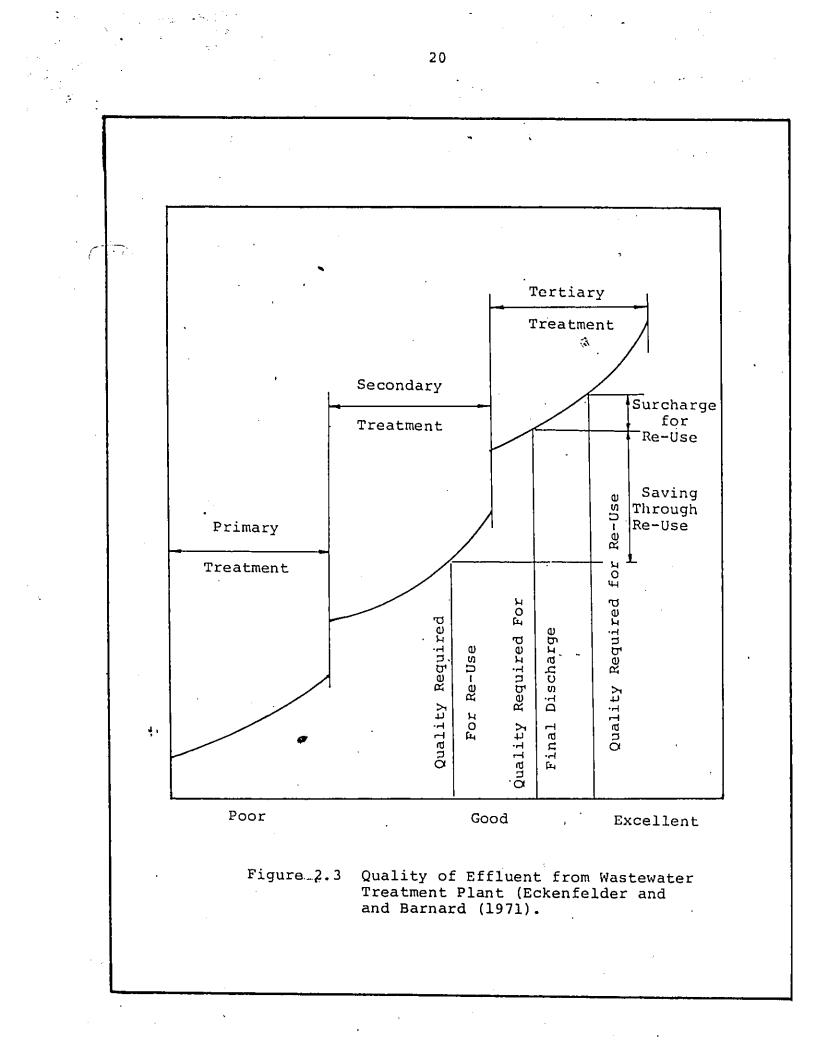
other technique is the activated sludge process, in which air or oxygen is forced into a tank containing a mixture of waste and actively feeding biota. Part of the settled sludge containing the biota is recirculated and mixed with the entering waste in the aeration chamber.

Primary and secondary treatments combined usually can reduce BOD by between 80% and 95% (Kneese, 1964).

iii) Tertiary Treatment: Secondary treatment plant effluents can create some undesidable conditions in receiving streams through adverse effects on the dissolved oxygen levels, which result in unwanted changes in the living organisms of the stream and the possible excess growth of algae and other aquatic plants. To arrest these conditions, an advanced type of "tertiary" treatment is being developed as a third stage to follow conventional secondary treatment processes for further reduction of BOD as well as nutrients (such as phosphorus substances) which algae utilize for growth. This third stage can usually reduce the BOD level. up to 99%; however, there is no typical tertiary treatment form. This third stage must be adapted to the particular needs of the receiving water concerned. Figure 2.2 illustrates the three conventional treatment stages.

Treatment costs in any plant increase rapidly as the removal of BOD is pushed upward, (Fig. 2.3). This has been confirmed by studies of many industries and different kind of pollutants. Kneese and Schultz (1975) demonstrated the relationship between the percentage of pollutants already

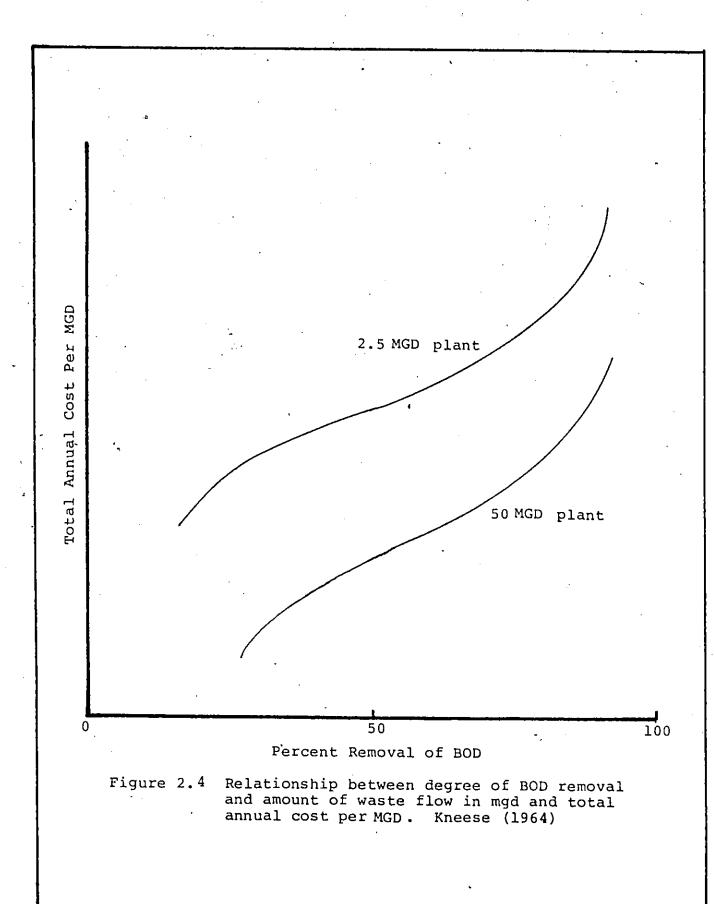




removed and the cost of removing an additional unit. The examples included beet sugar industry, meat-processing plants, and the petroleum refining industry, see Figure 2.4. These examples also illustrate another aspect of the pollution control costs, namely, that they differ widely from industry to industry; the incremental cost of removing pollutants above the 90 percent level is \$0.05 per pound of BOD in beet sugar industry, \$0.60 per pound for meat processing plants, and \$0.22 per pound for petroleum refining industry.

On the other hand, within the same industry, individual firms may incur quite different treatment costs, depending on the magnitude of the waste flow they are handling. The studies given by Shah (1970), and Michel (1970) indicate that as the amount of waste flow increases, the per unit costs of capital invested plus operation and maintenance decreases, see Figure 2.4. This result is valid for both municipal and industrial waste treatment plants.

The differential between the pollution removal costs of municipal and industrial plants underlines a significant feature that a flexible pollution control policy should possess. That is, these policies must recognize and exploit these cost differentials so as to encourage the largest reduction in pollution from the firms with the smallest removal costs. This tends to minimize the total cost of pollution control by a greater amount than if uniform regulations of reduction were imposed on discharger, Kneese and Schultze (1975).



CHAPTER III

THE EFFLUENT CHARGE AND WATER POLLUTION CONTROL

3.1 Introduction

Water resources have served as free goods and been considered as infinite sinks for the purpose of waste disposal. In an economic sense, goods or services are not free (scarce) when all users cannot be fully satisfied at Zero price (Beckerman, 1975). Neverthelëss, when a firm, for example, discharges its pollutants into a stream, it is depriving the community, surround the waterway, of the benefits of clean water. If the community could always provide itself, free of charge, with unlimited amounts of clean water, the use of the stream by the polluters would not be an issue. However, the fact is that there is always a value attached to enjoying clean water.

Accordingly, water resources should no longer be considered as free, and their scarce services should be optimally allocated among different users in order to maintain the quality of the environment.

Economic theory states that the market system, when functioning properly, can solve the problem of scarcity by allocating resources in an efficient way through price mechanism (Stigler, 1960). The market system, however, could fail in its function for many reasons. The phenomenon of market failure is particularly pertinent to the environmental resources due to the nature of these resources as "public goods". To overcome this failure a measure of

public intervention has been suggested. There are many different forms of intervention, one of which is the effluent charge strategy.

The objective of this chapter is two-fold. First, to present the idea of the market system and to discuss the reasons that have led to market failure in water resources planning; second, to evaluate various forms of public intervention, emphasizing the effluent charge strategy.

3.2 Market System and Resource Allocation

According to the theory of welfare economics, a resource is optimally allocated among all users when the welfare of society would decrease more by taking a unit of resource away from one user than it would gain by giving it to some other (Mishan, 1967). The value to society of employing the last unit of a resource in a certain way (i.e., marginal social value) is usually taken as the price. Therefore, if the output of all goods and services was pushed to the point where the benefit loss to society of producing the last unit (marginal social cost) was just equal to its price (marginal social value), resources would be optimally distributed among different uses and the pattern of output would have maximum value to society.

Analogously, the resource is optimally allocated among different uses when the marginal cost of producing the last unit of goods (i.e., marginal private cost) equals its price. Therefore, when the marginal social cost equals

the marginal private cost, and they both equal the unit price of the resource, then the resource will be optimally allocated.

Price in this sense reflects the relative importance of goods and resources in different uses. Usually, prices are determined in a free market through the forces of supply and demand. The perfect market should provide decision makers (producers and consumers) with information (in the form of prices) covering the relative profits and costs of using the resources at hand in different ways. Where all goods and resources pass through free market, and where there is perfect knowledge and resource mobility, prices serve to guide resources to their most beneficial use.

If there is no market, however, for some valuable resources, or if the market does not function properly, the resulting resource allocation will not be optimal. In this case, it is said that market failure has occurred.

The phenomenon of market failure is particularly pertinent to the environmental resources for three main reasons. First, there is lack of property rights. For the market to function properly, the ownership of the resource must be clearly definable and enforceable so that the owner can prevent others from using, benefiting from, or damaging his resource. Since environmental ownership is not established, polluters do not have to either pay the owner for using it or compensate him for the damages

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caused.

The second reason relates to the "public goods" nature of the environmental resources. Public goods, once supplied to an individual, are by their very nature freely available to all; it is not practical to exclude some people from using them. Since other users cannot be excluded because of non-payment, producers of public goods are unable to collect revenues from beneficiaries. This situation could induce the producers to provide such goods in lessthan-optimal amounts*. Clean water and air are typical examples of public goods. Suppose a single firm is granted exclusive property rights to waterways in a region. The firm has the right to sell clean water (that is, water reduced in pollution) to buyers willing to pay. But if pollution is reduced for one user, it will be reduced for all the users in the region, whether or not they have to Since the firm cannot collect from all beneficiaries pay. the total cost of the clean water, it will have little or no incentive to curtail pollution.

The third reason for the failure of the market system to reach an optimal pattern of resource allocation has to do with the externality effects.

^{*} The optimal quantity of a good is that amount at which marginal value (social cost) equals marginal cost (private cost). In a case where the marginal value of a good is greater than the marginal cost, production of goods should be expanded as long as there is an opportunity to capture such gain. But where a characteristic of the good is its public nature, the producer may not be able to capture the full marginal value and hence lacks the incentive to expand output to the optimal level.

There is a class of economic activities characterized by what is called "externalities", of which pollution output is a prime example. In these activities, optimal output does not result through market function because some of the costs generated by these activities are not borne by those responsible for them. Externalities in using water resources, for example, can occur when upstream users discharge their waste into the stream at no cost to themselves, inflicting damage and costs on downstream users. These costs will not normally enter into the calculations or accounts of the upstream users; they are "external" to such calculations. At the same time, downstream users have no power to ask upstream users forcompensation.

The externality effects of water pollution will result in the misallocation of water resources as well as the production of socially undesirable patterns of output. In the absence of any obligation to properly dispose of their wastes, polluters will be encouraged to enhance the amount of their production, which is artificially cheap. This tends to induce the over-production and over-consumption of some products which may have the socially undesirable result of under production and under consumption of other products.

Kneese & Schultze (1975) brought attention to . the fact that a society that allows waste dischargers to neglect the compensation costs of their waste disposal, is

encouraging them to produce too much waste without any concern for social needs. This results in a misallocation of water resource services and a considerable deterioration of water quality.

3.3 Economic Incentives For Water Pollution Control

As discussed before, water resources are broadly regarded as public goods. Managing these resources, therefore, is largely a matter of applying the general principles of public goods management. This is achieved through public intervention in order to account for externalities (Kneese, 1964). The public authority responsible for this intervention is required, at first, to establish an acceptable policy regarding water quality standards. These standards are not rigid, and they can be changed according to any circumstances. Once the quality standards are established, the public authority need only seek the best method of implementing the policy. Although a number of methods have been suggested over the years, the following three have received the most attention, both theoretical and practical:

i) Regulation Enforcement Strategy - This is the most widely used control strategy, and it can be viewed as a two-step process. First, the authority establishes allowable quantities and compositions of discharges for each polluter, as well as the time and place of discharge. Second, the authority legally enforces such regulations, i.e., it can impose sanctions when violations are detected.

. The strategy could succeed in optimally determining

the amount of waste discharge at each pollution source, provided that the public authority has all the information regarding the time of discharge, the amount of waste, the type of waste treatment technology used, the treatment cost, etc., for every polluter in the region (Dales, 1968; Freeman and Haveman, 1972).

Subsidies Strategy - The public authority may ii) decide to subsidize municipalities or industries on a portion of their expenditures on pollution treatment so as to keep the amount of waste down to the level that it has established (Dales, 1968). The subsidy may take different forms, such as payments for building municipal treatment plants and allowing industries to divert their wastes to these plants at costs below normal, or giving firms grants and loans to set up their own pollution control facilities (Dales, 1968). The subsidy may also be offered in the form of a bonus of a certain number of dollars per unit of treatment achieved. For example, a certain sum may be offered for each percentage reduction of BOD level in a In such a case, assuming that the authority has set river. the tolerable pollution limit, by one way or another, at a certain level " \bar{Q} ", the subsidy should be set equal to the marginal benefit of the unit increase associated with a unit decrease in pollution at the "Q" level. The polluter therefore will have an incentive to increase treatment up to the "Q" level as long as his marginal cost is less than the per unit subsidy, but not beyond that level.

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Effluent Charge Strategy - This strategy re-(iii) quires that anyone discharging waste into a waterway has to pay the public authority a certain sum (effluent charge) per unit of discharged waste. The method was originally suggested by Kneese (1964), then developed and rationalized by many others such as Dales (1968), Baumal and Oates (1971) and Tietenberg (1973 (a), (b)). The method proposes to bring the limited assimilative capacities of watercourses under the effect of the market function by charging those who would use these common resources a certain price. Each user is led to compare the cost of using the resources for discharging waste with the cost of handling his waste disposal problem in some other ways. His only guide is the relative cost of alternative procedures, one of which is discharging the waste into the environment untreated, and paying the charge.

This method provides incentive for the efficient use of the environment, similar to the incentives which induce efficiency in the use of labour, capital, and land (Freeman, 1971). The waste dischargers will realize the cost of degrading the environment through paying effluent charges. This could bring the firm's private costs (including the charges) into equality with the social costs, resulting in an optimal pattern of water resources allocation.

3.4 Evaluation of Effluent Charges Strategy

Choosing appropriately among the above three strategies is not a straightforward task, since the pollution

problem itself has many socio-economic effects on such things as industrial location preferences, income distribution, and desired production patterns, population distribution, and standards of living (Solow, 1971). Kneese and Schultze (1975), however, have mentioned three criteria that should at least be met for the chosen strategy to be successful; the strategy should be: (i) effective enough to cope with the complex relationships of the pollution problem (ii) flexible enough to achieve the social need of pollution reduction, and (iii) efficient enough to achieve the least costly means of pollution reduction.

Apparently, the regulation enforcement strategy, which is the most widely used method, has failed to achieve the required reduction at reasonable cost to society. study issued by the Environmental Conservation Agency of Vermont (1972) gave two reasons for this failure. First is the little attention that has been given, in all legislations concerning water quality management, to the issue of economic incentives. Second is the neglect of the economic value of the waste assimilative capacity of watercourses. Since the early 1970's there has been a growing interest in investigating alternative policies. The effluent charges was one of these alternatives that has received great attention and a interest from environmentalists, and from most economists as This interest apparently stems from the common view well. that establishing a price for the water resources would work as an economic incentive to correct and adjust the malprac-

tices of dischargers. The strategy, however, is facing some criticisms and misconceptions. In what follows, the effluent charges strategy is critically evaluated in the light of the above three criteria.

Effectiveness - It is most likely that a monetary incentive will be more effective for reducing water pollution than any legal penalty. The monetary incentives are the essence of the effluent charge strategy. The regulation-enforcement strategy, however, does not provide such incentives; rather, it enforces the regulation through legal penalties which are difficult to administer because of the problems involved in detecting violations (Freeman, 1971). On the other hand, under ideal conditions the regulations could provide enough incentives for the dischargers to just meet the standards, while in the effluent charges strategy, the dischargers would have a continuing incentive to devote research and engineering talent to finding less costly ways of achieving further reductions from the standard requirements, since a charge must be paid for every unit of pollution released.

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As for the effectiveness of the subsidies strategy it could generate results entirely opposite to those it is expected to achieve. For example, a large waste-producing industry may be able to reduce its waste at a cost per ton that is less than the subsidy it earns per ton by doing so. The industry may expand its production in order to engage in the profitable business of producing waste and then

treating it.

Flexibility - Since the techniques and costs of removing pollution_vary widely from case to case, control policies that emphasize one particular appraoch, or impose specific limitations on all polluters are bound to be rigid, and to result in inefficiency (Kneese and Schultze, 1975). The effluent charges strategy seems to offer the greatest flexibility, in the sense that it does not specify how to deal with pollution; the choice is left to the dischargers who have a wide range of options. They may be able to undertake treatment of part or all of the residuals, they may change the process to reduce residuals per unit of output, or they may find that recycling and material recovery is less expensive than either treating the waste or paying the charge. In any case the dischargers are led to compare the cost of handling their waste disposal problem with the cost of using the river as a waste receptor. The strategy, moreover, does not need detailed and accurate information, especially regarding the treatment cost for every discharger in the region (Freeman & Haveman, 1972). 'It is sufficient to start with a little information; then, once charge value is known each polluter makes his own cost calculations and responds to the public authority by reporting the amount of pollution he will discharge. Using this information, the authority can calculate a new schedule of effluent charges. The procedure continues in this way until it forms an optimum schedule of charges for the attainment of the given

quality standards.

On the contrary, in the case of the regulationenforcement and subsidies strategies, detailed information about the treatment costs and discharge points must be available to the authorities (Baumol & Oates, 1971). These represent a massive administrative problem, and it would be difficult and expensive to collect such information.

Efficiency - Due to the flexibility of the effluent charge strategy's management of pollution control, dischargers, are more likely to seek efficient and least costly methods of pollution reduction. An efficient method requires that different firms reduce pollution by different amounts, depending on the cost of reduction. Moreover, each firm - in addition to applying conventional waste treatment techniques - should take advantage of a wide range of control alternatives: modifying its production processes, recycling its byproduct wastes, and using the varieties of its products which cause less pollution. Efficiency, in this sense, is more inherent in the effluent charges strategy than in the other two.

In spite of the clear advantages of the effluent charges approach, the strategy has been misunderstood and criticized by various groups of environmentalists, businessmen, and economists. It is important, in the course of evaluation of the strategy, to put the more substantive of these criticisms into proper perspective, and to correct any misconceptions:

The main criticism, raised by some environmental groups, is that the strategy is an open invitation for the polluter to purchase the right to degrade the environ-It is important, in evaluating this argument, to ment. recognize the natural capacity of watercourses to assimilate waste loads. It would be unreasonable to neglect the economic value of the waste assimilative service. The effluent charge strategy, like any other economic strategy, makes proper allowances for this within the limits of water quality established by the authorities. The argument, however, could make sense if the required payment of the charge fails to maintain the desired quality limits or to induce dischargers to search for new treatment methods in order to reduce liability to the charge. Nevertheless, these situations can be managed if the charge is set above the costs of the highest treatment level, in order to induce the profit-maximizing firms to search for cheaper methods to reduce their pollution, at least to the specified limits (Kneese & Schultze, 1975).

Another criticism has been advanced by business groups, who argue that the effluent charges would hinder industries' ability to reduce pollution and finance pollution control equipment. They maintain that firms will find it more expensive to reduce pollution by a given amount, because in addition to the real cost of waste treatment they will also have to pay the effluent charge on their residual wastes. By contrast, it is argued that if they were obliged to reduce pollution by direct regulation, for example, they would incur only the real cost of the treatment.

In order to counter the above criticisms, one might put forward two economically-based arguments in favour of the original proposition. First, in the ideal situation, authorities would choose the method which will be cheapest for the economy as a whole, not for the firms only. Beckerman (1975) has argued that, on the national economic scale, the only real cost of pollution treatment is the cost of real resources used by the firms to reduce pollution, that is, the cost of labor and raw materials employed in the treatment processes. Efluent charges, or the effects of the charges, must be excluded in calculating the actual treatment costs, since the charges are considered as transfer payments rather than resource costs. It is assumed that the collected charges must be transferred to other public expenditures or be offset by reduction in other governmental tax revenues. Therefore, the only real cost of pollution control is the total cost of the resources used by the firms.

Second, the proposition of the business groups suggests that the main effect of any decrease in profits would be to reduce expenditures for the treatment of residues. without appropriate incentives, however, it is probable that businesses do give low priority to investment in pollution control. It is the purpose of the effluent charge strategy to alter these priorities and to put more pressure on firms to seek efficient methods of pollution treatment.

The third criticism came from some economists, primarily from Coase (1960). Coase argued that any form of

taxation such as effluent charges is likely to lead to a misallocation of resources. He argued that private negotiation between the two parties may work as an optimum method. There are, however, three main barriers which prevent greater reliance on this approach. First is the size of the environmental units in which property rights must be vested. A major river system, for example, is inherently indivisible. To secure the economic benefits, based on creation of property rights, control over the whole system must be granted to a single entity (Freeman III, 1971). Yet Coase's approach would require the establishment of a large number of entities to own the system, a case which is quite difficult to arrange.

The second barrier is the presence of public good attributes, in many environmental services, which could not exclude users who have not paid for the services provided.

The third barrier is the cost associated with the pargaining processes. The processes are costly in the sense that it takes time to gather information, evaluate other alternatives, and execute the transaction. Because many parties are involved in the environmental negotiations, this cost tends to be high. Freeman (1971) realized that the cost of government action for administration and enforcement of effluent charge strategy is smaller in comparison to the private transaction costs when the bargaining processes are taking place.

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In conclusion, the effluent charge strategy seems to be promising as an economic instrument for controlling water pollution. This stand relies on three main considerations. First, imposition of effluent charges encourages a pattern of waste management among different firms and municipalities that tends to minimize the cost of control for the river system as a whole. Second, the charges provide a continuing incentive to adopt improved technology as it becomes available. Third, this strategy is much more likely to be enforceable than the other alternatives.

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CHAPTER IV

EVOLUTION OF EFFLUENT CHARGE STRATEGY -A LITERATURE SURVEY

4.1 Introduction

Early in the 1960's, research began on the conceptual design of, and rationalization for effluent charges as a strategy for pollution control. Unfortunately, the research progress in this area has been relatively slow. The strategy, at that time, faced opposition and misunderstanding from different industrial, political, and environmental groups. However, the growing awareness, in the early 1970's, of the failure of present control strategies to cope effectively with the pollution problem, has contributed significantly to the willingness of examining other alternatives, particularly the effluent charge strategy.

During the last few years there has been some work to develop both the theoretical basis of effluent charges, and to pave the road toward their practical application. These efforts have successfully produced two theories for establishing charging methods by means of the market system. Yet, little has been done to put these methods into practice.

This chapter presents first, a survey of the works which have been carried out to date on the development of the theory of effluent charges; second, a summary of the studies which have used the strategy within a framework of a water quality management model.

4.2 Theoretical Development of Effluent Charge Strategy

The theoretical foundations of the strategy have been set forth by Kneese (1964). He suggested that a uniform charge rate be levied against all the polluters in a region equal to the dollar value of the marginal damage caused by waste discharge. Kneese realized that a charge equal to the marginal pollution damages will lead to efficient allocation of the water resources. People discharging waste will try to minimize their own costs by equating their marginal costs of waste reduction with the effluent charge.

At that time, the main difficulty with Kneese's proposal lay in obtaining a reasonable estimate of the monetary value of the marginal damage cost of pollution. This difficulty was due to the fact that the number of activities involved and the number of persons affected. by the damage were so large that it would be difficult to collect adequate information regarding the damage cost with a reasonable degree of accuracy. In addition, the intangible nature of many of the consequences - damage to health, and the aesthetic costs - added to these difficul-However, later on Kneese & Bower (1968) reported ties. some promising work constituting a first step towards a monetary estimation of the pollution damages. But the study included the costs due to the loss in recreational benefits only.

To overcome the difficulty entailed in Kneese's proposition, two variant methods for determining the

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appropriate charge level have been devised. In the first method, Dales (1968) suggested that the government can control the demand on water resources when it is used as a waste receptor. According to Dales the government then issues a number of "pollution Rights", each Right giving whoever buys it, the right to discharge one equivalent ton of waste into the river. The Right holder can also sell this Right or buy it from any other Right holder. Because transferable and full property rights always command an explicit price, the establishment of such Rights makes it easy to establish a free market for them. In turn & the buying and selling of Rights in an open market results, theoretically, in an efficient allocation of the water resources among different users. On the other hand, as time goes on, we could expect the growth of population and industry to result in an increase in the demand for Rights. Since the number of Rights issued cannot be increased, the price of the Rights will move upward, thereby stimulating the incentive of waste dischargers to treat or reduce their waste in order to decrease the number of Rights they must purchase.

In the second method, Baumol and Oates (1971) argued that the call for imposing a charge on polluters equal to the marginal damage costs has rarely proved feasible. They suggested, instead, that the government could establish, at first, a set of somewhat arbitrary standards of environmental quality levels. Then they could impose



a set of uniform charge rates on waste emissions rather than attempt to base them on the unknown values of marginal damage. They recommended that the charge should be high enough to attain the environmental quality standards. The appropriate charge rates that yield the desirable level of pollution control at total minimum cost, can be reached by the process of trial and error. If after the first trial, the level of pollution is found to be higher than the desired level, the charge rates can be increased to force dischargers to reduce their pollution level, and vice versa. This method is known as "The Pricing and Standard System".

Since the effluent charge strategy has been set up, some decision and law makers, especially the economists, have expressed their acknowledgement of the strategy. Many papers have been published to clarify the rationality of using it, to defend its theoretical and practical basis, and to explain the merits of the strategy. Boyd (1971) supported the strategy on the basis that the charges collected would be used to reimburse the public authorities for the cost of constructing and operating dams, aeration devices, etc., in order to expand the waste-receiving capacity of the river. At the same time the water quality requirement would be attained. Solow (1971) appreciated the strategy for three main reasons. First, the fact that the strategy attains the desired abatement level of pollution; second, that it provides enought incentive for the polluters to search for cheaper methods of waste abatement; and finally, the authorities need little information regarding the quantity, cost, and timing of pollution.

Freeman & Haveman (1972), in their defence against the strategy, made a comparison between Regulation Enforcement and effluent charge strategies. The comparison was based on the effects of each strategy with respect to factors of: inflation, resource misallocation in the presence of monolopy, administrative problems, hindering of industrial abatement, and the cost of attaining environmental quality levels. They concluded that the effluent charges is far more advantageous than the other strategy with respect to the above factors.

Ruff (1970) in his comparison between pollution Rights and The Pricing and the Standard System noted that the two methods will lead to the same results, as long as the authorities succeed in establishing correctly either the amount of pollution Rights, or the starting charge level. Tietenberg (1973,a), on the other hand, realized that the Pricing and Standards System is easier and least costly to administer than the pollution Right method.

Tietenberg, however, disagreed with the notion of ty proposing a uniform charge rate for all the polluters in the region. To demonsrate this, he employed an abstract model for controlling pollution, using effluent charges as a basis for addressing the issue of whether or not the pricing and standard system is a sufficient means for a government to

efficiently allocate environmental resources, assuming that consumers, producers, and the government are acting noncooperatively in their own self interest. The model described the relationship of pollution with consumers through their utility functions, with producers through the production functions, and with society through a social welfare function. The analysis showed that the superiority of this control system depended on imposing a set of non-uniform charge rates on the polluters in order to attain the minimum cost advantage. The charge rates should differ according to geographic, temporal and spatial factors. Similar conclusions have been reached by Ackerman (1973), who concluded that the charge rates should be based on the effect of an emission on the community, and not necessarily on the amount generated.

Baumol & Oates agreed with Tietenberg's proposition in their recent work (1975) which dealt with different economic policies for environmental resources control. Brumm and Dick (1976) also concluded that, from a practical standpoint, the Pricing and Standard System has considerable appeal in terms of overcoming the problem of lack of information regarding the treatment cost functions in order to set up optimal charge rates. Orr (1976) realized that the greatest advantage of the effluent charges was in their provision of decentralized incentives for technological change in wastewater treatment methods. Magat (1978) also appraised the effect, in a dynamic world, of the effluent charges and regulation enforcement strategies on both the rate and the direction of

technical advance for effluent abatement technology and output technology. The results demonstrated that, under certain conditions (easy labor substitutability), constant effluent charge induced the firm to allocate effective research and development efforts to effluent abatement technology. On the other hand, using constant standard policy induced the firm to allocate more efforts to the output production technology.

In addition to technical advance, the constant level of effluent charge was found to fail in limiting the increases in the effluent discharge rates. In other words, for a typical polluting firm, a rising charge rate is needed to halt growth in the effluent level with advancing technology. Regarding this result, Magat realized that, in order to reach a given goal for environmental quality, the iterative process suggested by Baumol & Oates (1971) would never converge to a fixed charge level. Magat therefore suggested that, in order to maintain the environmental quality goal, government would have to either inform polluters that the initial charge level would rise over time at some unspecified rate, or initially announce a rising charge function. The author, however, is in favor of the former approach.

4.3 Practical Application of Effluent Charges

In the realm of practical applications of the strategy, the study given by Johnson (1967) is considered to be one of the pioneer studies in this respect. The study aimed, in general, at gaining some practical experience in the estimation of effluent charge levels in the Delaware Estuary. It was found that the cost of waste treatment, induced by a charge level, will approach the least costly treatment plan. The study concluded that effluent charges should be seriously considered as a method of attaining water quality management. The study, however, simply formulated the computational model as a linear one.

Upton (1968) presented a linear model of water quality management in order to find the optimal amounts of waste discharge that minimized the total treatment cost incurred by all the polluters and the cost of low flow augmentation, such that the water quality levels should be maintained. The control of waste load discharges by the charging method has been shown to be preferable to the regulation control method under some conditions. The study showed that an optimal set of charges existed which would induce the polluters to discharge optimal amounts of waste.

Hass (1970) suggested a decentralized, decisionmaking scheme, for obtaining the optimal treatment configuration for meeting water quality standards along a river basin, simultaneously determining optimal pollution taxes to achieve this configuration. It was assumed that the authority knew the quality standards desired and the cost of low flow augmentation, and that polluters knew the individual treatment cost functions. The problem confronted by the authority was to find the combination of

each polluter's treatment plans and the level of flow augmentation, which minimizes the cost of achieving the standard imposed upon the river at the end of each reach. The authority wished to have each polluter treat waste to the point at which the marginal cost to society of disposing waste was equal to the marginal cost to the polluter. Hass formulated the objective function and constraints of his problem in the form of a linear programming problem.

The implications of Hass' study is that authority can, through a planning process involving proposed charge rates and polluter responses, determine a set of nearoptimal pollution charges without complete knowledge of treatment cost functions. Disregarding the linearity assumptions in Hass' model, there is no guarantee that the solution is optimal since the polluters have no incentive to be honest in their responses. In fact, it is in their interest to understate their discharges to lower the resulting effluent charges.

In 1972, Agency of Environmental Conservation in the State of Vermont conducted a comprehensive study regarding various methods of establishing effluent charges and the feasibility of their application. Six methods were reported: (1) charges based upon the monetary estimate of the magnitude of pollution damages, (2) a uniform charge to all polluters, (3) uniform charge rate weighted by stream classification or zone, (4) a charge rate based on dilution factors or population equivalents (a composite

index derived from the concentrations of several residual pollutants), (5) charges based upon annual cost of treatment, and finally, (6) charges based upon stream quality degradation.

Each of these methods was evaluated according to six criteria: (1) Efficiency of resource allocation, (2) Relation of charges to instream economic damages, (3) Equity, i.e., whether an effluent charge system would result in any impairment of existing "rights" or "privileges" without some form of compensation, (4) Incentive effects on dischargers, (5) Administrative and technical feasibility and (6) Income potential generated by effluent charges.

The main purpose of the study was to discuss the problems of selecting and implementing the best method, among the six alternatives, which would suit the state of Vermont's water pollution control objectives. In view of the above assessment, the charge method based on discharger's annualized cost of treatment was found to be the most appropriate to the pattern of water quality management set by the state.

Elliot & Seagraves (1972) studied the impact of surcharges on industrial waste, using a sample of 198 observations from 34 cities. The study showed a substantial impact following the imposition of a moderate waste charge. It was indicated that a 45% reduction in waste load would follow from the imposition of a modest surcharge of 2.7¢/lb. of BOD.

Taylor (1973) presented a model for planning an efficient water quality program within a river basin. The control

method, called "rent allotment control", combined the effluent charge with the waste allotment or "Pollution Right" suggested by Dales (1968). It was implemented through a bargaining process between the authority and the waste dischargers that may be characterized as an "N-person prisoner's dilemma". The polluter was asked to respond with an alloument to which he would be willing to adhere and with which he would be willing to pay the effluent charge at the end of a prescribed planning If the noted charge was levied, violations of period. this agreed allotment would not be permitted. Furthermore, the polluter was told, if the allotment response was not low enough, although no indication was given of what "low enough" meant, the effluent charge would be raised and a new request for bids sent out.

The bargaining process, therefore, provides the authority with information about individual waste treatment costs, and terminates in a set of agreements on rents and allotments which depend upon the bidding strategies adopted by each polluter. Through successive iterations of bidding for waste, allotment, the authority would reach an optimal situation where each polluter bids for an allotment such that the marginal cost of additional withheld waste is equal to the effluent charge. In fact, the main merit of this method is that it would overcome the dishonest reporting of information by some polluters. The method, however, might fail when all the N polluters

collude and underbid for the allotment.

Ferrar (1973) realized that it was not consistent to establish a static effluent charge rate to account for a situation of dynamic demand on water resources as a waste receptor. He therefore suggested a non-linear, progressive effluent charge scheme to account for the dynamic phenomenon of growing demand in a region. To establish his effluent charge scheme for meeting a specified level of regional environmental quality, he applied the "internal point penalty function" method, suggested by Fiacco & McCormick (1968) such that at any time the polluter will pay a charge directly proportional to the rate of increase The scheme, however, requires a public in his demand. authority to request from polluters the total and marginal costs of present treatment activity. Therefore, such an approach could fail to deal adequately with the problem caused by firms supplying misleading information," particularly cost information, to the public authority.

O'Sullivan (1974), in his survey of the measures taken by common market countries to curb discharge of industrial effluents to waterways, stated that the basis of charging for both community and industrial discharges is the pollution equivalent (P.E.) oxygen demand. This is a measure of the average daily discharge of oxygendemand substances per head of population. The charge per P.E. of pollution discharge varies according to the area of the country, the total load burden of the receiving water, and whether the discharge enters large or small rivers. In general, the charge, as O'Sullivan mentioned, varies from \$2.00 per P.E. to about \$7.00. However, the charge scheme of toxic wastes has not been developed yet.

The study given by Wenders(1975) analyzed the impact of improvement in pollution abatement technology on the cost of a firm working under three alternative methods of pollution control. The methods were: effluent charge, subsidy, and regulation-enforcement strategy. It was shown that the cost reduction would be greatest if the firm was operating under the effluent charge strategy. In addition, the incentive to improve pollution abatement technology would be greater if effluent charges were used to control pollution.

However, Nielson and Hwang (1975) reached a different conclusion when they studied the interaction between the incentives offered by the charge, and the individual polluters choice of waste water treatment technology. They concluded that increasing the charge might both fail to improve environmental quality, and increase production costs.

Marin (1978), in his search for the best control method of pollution, concluded that effluent charges seemed to be suitable for controlling river pollution more than air pollution (controlling sulphur dioxide) due to the advantages of: governing the number of polluters involved, monitoring pollution emissions, and the existence, somehow of a relationship between inputs and emissions.

Oates and Strassmann (1978) realized that the compelling case for the use of effluent charges to control polluting activities, as.it seems to most of the researchers, proceeds from the assumption of profit maximizing behaviour by polluters. Since profit maximization is not presumably the primary objective of public organization, Oates and Strassmann studied the effectiveness of using the effluent charges to control the public sector sources of pollution. He employed the Niskanen model of bureaucratic behaviour (Niskanen, 1971) to investigate this issue. The Niskanen model operates on two basic premises: first, when the objective of the bureaucrat is to maximize the size of his budget, in order to serve as a proxy variable for the prestige, power, prerequisites, etc. of the bureau. This indicates the presence of "fat" in the bureau's budget, and the bureau is said to be demand constrained; second, when the bureaucrat works under shortage, i.e., the cost of providing output exceeds the bureau's budget. The objective of the bureaucrat is cost minimization, and the bureau is said to be budget constrained.

The study considered the two cases. It was found that the effluent charges can induce significant reduction in pollution activities when the bureau is budget constrained. This is because where there exists a less polluting technology such that the abatement costs are less than the effluent charges, the bureaucrat will shift to alternative technology, since the bureaucrat is a cost minimizer. The study found, however, that the response of the demand constrained bureaucrat to the effluent charges is not clear. This is because

most likely the bureau can absorb the charges with some of its surplus budget with need to search for less costly methods for abatement, unless the charges are sufficiently high to push the bureau from a demand constrained to a budget constrained situation.

In fact, this study is important, since public sector ' sources of pollution represent a major source of waste emissions (approximately 57% of BOD accounts for the emissions coming from municipal discharges). However, more practical experimentation for the use of the charges is clearly needed.

Rinaldi, et al (1979) studied the possibility of achieving a stable and efficient taxation scheme in regional environmental management systems. Motivated by the concepts of the game theory, the scheme comprises a set of rules which, given a set of polluters, their profits and costs, and a central authority for environmental control, generates taxes to be levied on the waste emissions. The most important aspect of the scheme is its stability which refers to the possibility of overall cooperation between all the polluters. The study demonstrates that, if the damages to the environment are not negligible and if these damages must be refunded by the users of the resource, it is very unlikely that efficient and stable taxation schemes can be found if the regional authority acts as a non-profit corporation. The results also state that if the damages to the environment are neglected, or in other words, if the total benefits of the firms instead of the social benefit is maximized, the efficiency and stability are easily obtained. Incréased

public awareness, however, makes this solution no longer feasible. The alternative is to achieve stability and efficiency by letting the regional authority get a profit by the sale of emission rights. The higher the environmental congestion, the greater must be this profit. But if ethical or political attitudes are against this kind of solution, there is no way to maximize the social benefit without generating friction among the polluters.



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CHAPTER V

DEVELOPMENT OF AN EFFLUENT CHARGE OPTIMIZATION MODEL

5.1 Introduction

The mathematical model presented in this chapter has been developed to obtain the optimal effluent charge rates to be levied against polluters using the river system as a waste receptor. The model is formulated within the framework of a water quality management system. The modified transfer equations of Streeter-Phelps (1925), as suggested by Dobbins (1964), are employed to predict the values of BOD and DO along the river. The model's assumptions, and the limitations of its applicability, are discussed first. A description of the model's structure, including the objective function and the constraints, is next exhibited. Finally, the formulation of the model is presented.

5.2 Model's Assumptions

The assumptions involved in the development of the model are as follows:

1) The model is limited to stream and river basins as main receptors of waste. The model establishes different zones along the river at points of discontinuity. A point of discontinuity arises whenever the existing conditions violate the assumptions of the transfer equations, of changes in water quality standards, or of boundaries determined by law that place a region under separate jurisdiction. Examples of discontinuity that require establishing a new zone are:

i) organic and/or thermal inputs,

ii) a change in the flow regime such as changes in stream width or depth,

iii) increase in the flow due to tributary input,
 iv) changes in water quality standards as the
 river crosses a provincial line, (Shojalashkari,
 1974).

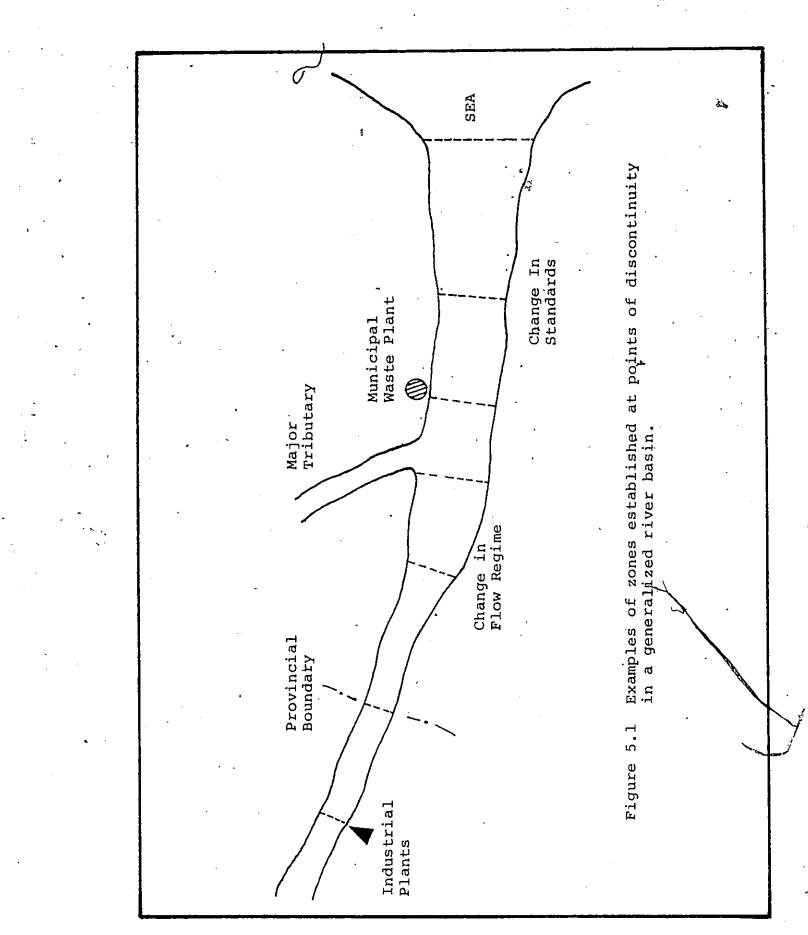
Figure 5.1 schematically depicts such points.

The establishment of zones along the river facilitates the modelling process. Specifically, the complex nature of pollution interaction at various discharge points causes difficulty in the application of the transformation equations along the entire river if it is considered as one zone. However, by dividing the river into a number of segments or reaches, adequate results would be obtained by applying the equations, independently, to each segment.

2) Since municipal and industrial waste treatment plants are the major polluters of waterways, the model considers them as the main sources of pollution. The largest portion of waste released from these sources is degradable (Kneese, 1964); hence, the model is developed to deal mainly with this type of waste.

3) The most common measures of pollution intensity are the dissolved oxygen (DO) content of water, the biological oxygen demand (BOD), and the phosphorus concentration (PO_4) . These measures are used as pollution indices in the development of the model.

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4) The model assumes that the phosphorus has no chemical or biological interaction with the organic load and that its concentration level remains constant along the river as long as there is no change in the flow rate.

5) There are two major one-dimensional models which describe the concentrations of BOD and DO with respect to the distance from discharge source. The first is the mixed model, which predicts the BOD and DO levels along the river by assuming a complete mixing of pollutants with the water .body. This mixing becomes appreciable if the stream velocity is low, as in estuaries or streams with dams. The second, or pfug flow model is applicable to streams with a high flow rate and comparatively negligible mixing effects. This situation is more likely to occur in most rivers and streams, especially in upstream sections (Fan, et al, 1973).

Since the study is limited to streams and river basins, it is appropriate to employ the plug flow model, represented by a modified version of the Streeter-Phelps equations (1925), as suggested by Dobbins (1964). The modified model considers the following:

- i) the sedimentation effect to remove BOD,
- ii) local runoff effect to add BOD,
- iii) photosynthetic action of plankton and plants
 to add oxygen,
- iv) the respiration of plankton and plants to remove oxygen from the river.

According to the modified Streeter-Phelps equations, the BOD concentration L, and DO concentration C vary with

time according to the following relationships:

$$\frac{dL}{d\tau} = -(K_1 + K_3) * L + L_a$$
(5.1)

$$\frac{dC}{d\tau} = -K_1 L + K_2 (C_s - C) + (P - R)$$
 (5.2)

where:

 $\tau = \text{residence time, in days, from source of pollution}$ $K_1 = the biological oxidation rate coefficient, day⁻¹$ $K_2 = the rearation rate coefficient, day⁻¹$ $K_3 = the sedimentation or absorption rate coefficient$ for BOD, day⁻¹

 $L_a = 10cal BOD runoff rate, mg/l/day$

 $C_s = the saturation DO concentration, mg/l$

 $\langle P - R \rangle$ = the rate of photosynthesis minus the rate of respiration, mg/l/day.

The values of the parameters K_1 , K_2 , C_s , and $\langle P - R \rangle$, which are temperature-dependent, may be given as follows, (Davidson and Bradshaw, 1967):

$$K_1 = 2.35 \times 10^{-7} \exp(0.0464T)$$
 (5.3)

$$K_{2} = 0.43 * Exp(0.025(T - 273))$$
 (5.4)

$$C_{-} = 4000.0 * Exp(-0.021T)$$
 (5.5)

$$\langle P - R \rangle = \frac{\pi - \alpha}{\pi (1 - \alpha)} \star (25 - 0.028 (T - 303)^2)$$
 (5.6)

where:

 α = a constant between 1 and 0 T = stream temperature in degree Kelvin π = 3.14 6) The present study assumes that the temperature of waterways may change from zone to zone, but is constant within the same zone. This assumption is applicable in some situations. For example, when the river is long enough to flow through different climatic zones, (e.g., the river Nile in Africa where it starts at the middle of the continent, ends at far north in the Mediterranean, and passes through different climatic zones). This causes a temperature rise at some zones and a drop at some others.

7) The model considers the amount of pollutants, measured in pounds of BOD per day, as the basis for calculating the effluent charge. It seems that this method creates more incentive for dischargers to reduce the strength of their waste than if it was based on measurement of volume, for example (Maystre and Geyer, 1970).

The effluent charge, y, itself is set to be inversely proportional to the percentage BOD treatment, x, so that the dischargers are motivated to increase their treatment level and avoid the high charge. The inverse relationship may take several forms, such as:

Linear Form: $y = \theta_1 - \theta_2 * x$ (5.7.1)

Nonlinear Form: $y = \theta_1 \star (\frac{1}{x} - 1)^{\theta_2}$ (5.7.2)

Exponential Form:
$$y = \theta_1 * \exp(\frac{-\theta_2}{1-x})$$
 (5.7.3)

where θ_1 and θ_2 are parameters, whose optimal values are to be determined.

The first form is simple and straightforward. The second requires an upper bound constraint to limit the charge rate from approaching infinity when x approaches zero. The third, which is used in this study is a self-bounded form, see Figure 5.2.

5.3 Development of the Model

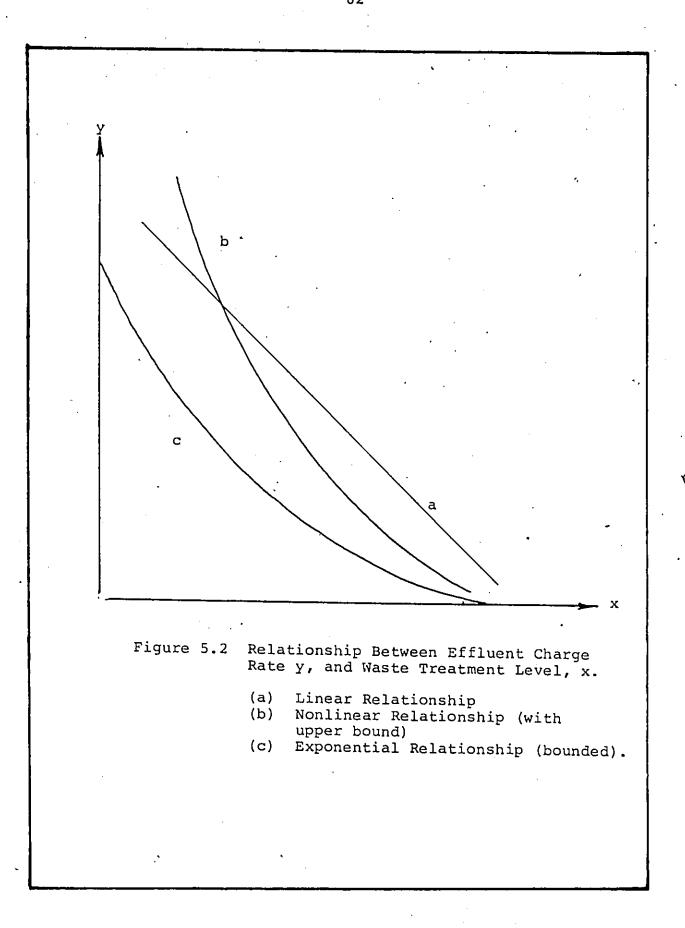
In the development of the water quality management model, a river basin which is divided into a number of zones according to the criteria discussed before is considered. Each zone receives pollutants from different municipal and/ or industrial sources, located along the river. The objective of the model is to determine the optimal values of the effluent charge rates, as well as the treatment configuration for each source, such that the desired water quality levels are maintained at a minimum total cost to all the polluters.

The objective function of the model describes the total costs which consist of the waste treatment cost incurred by all dischargers and the effluent charges paid on the untreated portion of their waste discharges. The constraints of the model represent, for each zone, the water quality constraints, and structural and non-negativity constraints for the variables involved.

In the following sections, the objective function and the constraints are developed in detail.

5.3.1 The Objective Function

The costs incurred by each polluter includes one or both of the following components: (1) the cost of cleaning



up that portion of the waste decided to be treated, and (2) effluent charges on the remaining part of the waste that is discharged untreated. The objective function includes all such costs for the N polluters in the region.

Consider zone i, the treatment cost in this zone, FT_i , which covers only the operating and maintenance cost of the waste treatment plants, is a function of:

- (i) Waste loads, measured in lb /day, of BOD,WB, and of phosphorus, WP;
- (ii) Percentage treatment of BOD, x_i, and of phosphorus, z_i.
- (iii) Average waste flow, \overline{Q}_i , measured in million gallons per day (MGD).

The effluent charge cost, FC_i , is directly related to the amount of waste load discharged, WB_i , and the effluent charge rate, y_i , which is inversely related to the treatment level of BOD, x_i .

The objective function can thus be mathematically expressed as follows:

Minimize
$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} \{FT_{i}(WB_{i}, WP_{i}, x_{i}, z_{i}, \overline{Q}_{i}) + FC_{i}(WB_{i}, y_{i}, x_{i})\}$$
(5.8)

5.3.2 The Constraints

The model is subject to two sets of constraints; the first accounts for the desired water quality limits, defined by the maximum concentration of BOD, the minimum concentration of DO, and the maximum concentration of phosphorus. The second set is of a structural type, accounting for the maximum and minimum limits of effluent charge rates y_i , BOD treatment level x_i , and phosphorus treatment level, z_i . The following are descriptions of these constraints.

1) Water Quality Constraints

(i) Maximum Concentration of BOD:

Assuming that LB_i is the maximum BOD content in zone i due to waste discharge, this can be represented as follows:

 $LB_i < MAXBOD_i$, i = 1, 2, ..., N (5.9) where MAXBOD_i is the maximum allowable level of BOD in zone i.

To explain how this is related to waste discharge level, the following analysis can be considered:

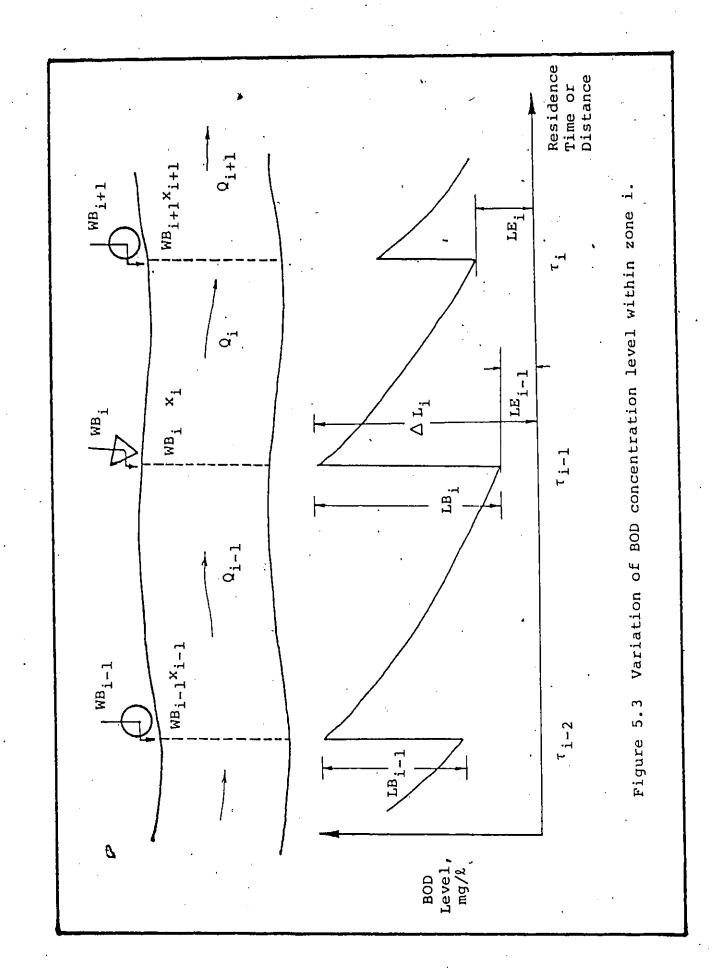
The amount of organic load, WB_i, of BOD in lbs/day is discharged at the beginning of zone i, causing a rise in BOD level at the discharge point, and at subsequent points downstream, as shown in Figure 5.3.

Assuming that x_i percent of the waste load is treated, then the increased amount of BOD, in mg/l, at the discharge point can be calculated as:

$$\Delta L_{i} = \left(\frac{1 \cdot 0 - x_{i}}{1 \cdot 0}\right) \star \frac{F1 \star WB_{i}}{Q_{i}}$$
(5.10)

where:

Fl = a conversion factor = 0.185405 $\frac{\text{day} \cdot \text{ft}^3 \cdot \text{mg}}{\text{sec} \cdot \text{lb} \cdot \ell}$ Q_i = stream flow rate in zone i, cfs ΔL_i = increase in BOD level at the beginning of zone i, mg/l



. 65 As is shown in Figure 5.3, the maximum BOD content, LB_i , occurs at the discharge point. Therefore, we have:

$$LB_{i} = LE_{i-1} + \Delta L_{i}$$
 (5.11)

where:

mg/l

For determining LE_{i-1} , note that the BOD concentration at the end of a zone is equal to the BOD content at the beginning of that zone plus the variation of the BOD along that zone. The variation of BOD can be calculated according to Equation (5.1). LE_i can be determined as follows:

$$LE_{i} = LB_{i} + \tau_{i-1}^{\tau_{i}} \left[-(K_{1,i} + K_{3,i}) * LB_{i} + L_{a,i} \right] d\tau ;$$

$$i = 1, 2, \dots, N \qquad (5.12)$$

For the first zone, i = 1, $LE_0 = LU$ and thus:

 $LB_{1} = LU + \Delta L_{1}$ (5.13)

where:

LU = upstream concentration of BOD, mg/l

(ii) Minimum Concentration of DO

Assuming that MDO, is the minimum DO concentration level at zone i, the constraint states that:

$$MDO_{i} > MINDO_{i}, \quad i = 1, 2, ..., N$$
 (5.14)

where MINDO, is the minimum level of DO allowed in zone i.

The minimum concentration of DO within the zone can occur anywhere within that zone, and not necessarily at the boundaries, Figure 5.4. Therefore a search process is required to locate the point corresponding to the minimum DO at each zone.

Assuming C_i as the DO concentration at the end of zone i, this is equal to the DO concentration at the end of the previous zone, C_{i-1} , plus the variations of the DO content (according to Equation(5.2)) \cdot This can be expressed ... as follows:

$$C_{i} = C_{i-1} + \int_{\tau_{i-1}}^{\tau_{i-1}} \{-K_{1}, i \ LB_{i} + K_{2}, i \ C_{s,i} - C_{i-1}(\tau)\} + \langle P - R \rangle_{i} \} d\tau \qquad (5.15)$$

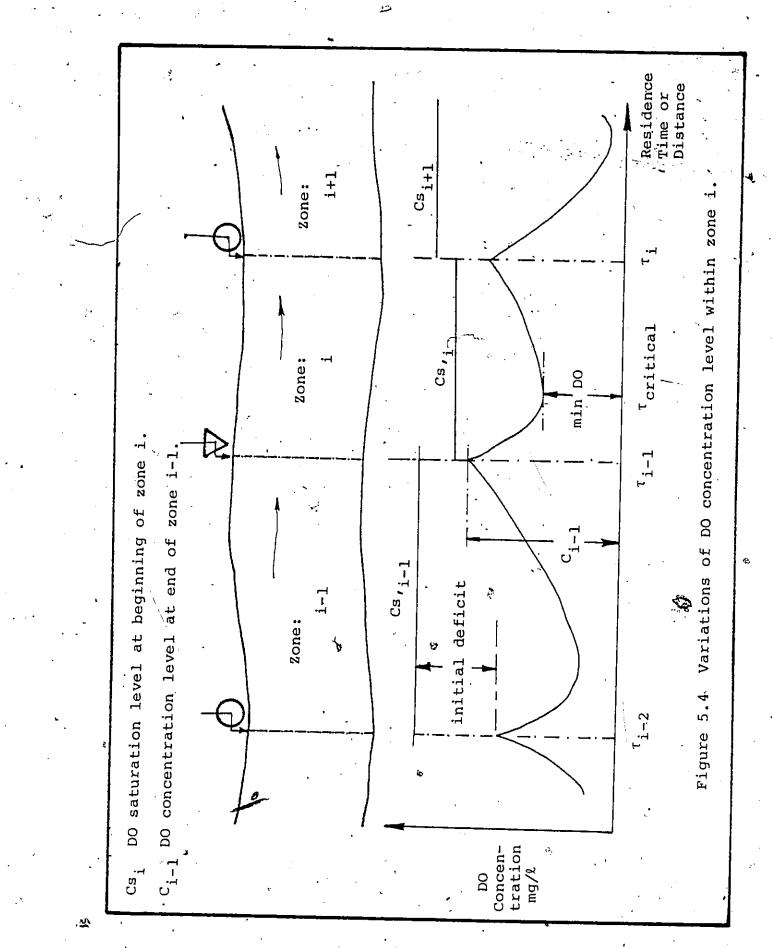
To determine the distribution of DO concentration in the ith zone, the above expression is evaluated through numerical integration. The minimum DO concentration and its location within the zone then are determined during the course of integration, (See Appendix A). This constraint can now be formulated as:

 $MDO = \min\{C_{i-1} + \int_{\tau_{i-1}}^{\tau_i} -K_{1,i}LB_i + K_{2,i}(C_{s,i} - C_{i-1}(\tau))$

ð

 $+ \langle P - R \rangle_{i} d\tau$ MINDO_i, i=1,2,...,N . (5.16)

(iii) <u>Maximum Concentration of Phosphorus</u> Assuming PH, is the maximum phosphorus content at



zone i due to waste discharge, this can be represented as:

 $PH_{i} \leq MAXPHR_{i}$, i = 1, 2, ..., N (5.17) where $MAXPHR_{i}$ is the maximum allowable level of phosphorus in zone i.

The maximum concentration occurs at the point of discharge, and remains at a constant level throughout the zone as long as there is no change in flow rate, since the variation in phosphorus concentration level is due to dilution processes. This phenomenon is shown in Figure 5.5.

The maximum concentration level at the discharge point can be calculated as follows: Assume the produced amount of phosphorus waste load is WP_i in lbs/day. If z_i percent is the treatment level to reduce the phosphorus pollutant level in the influents, then the phosphorus concentration, EP_i, in the effluents, measured in mg/2, can be given as:

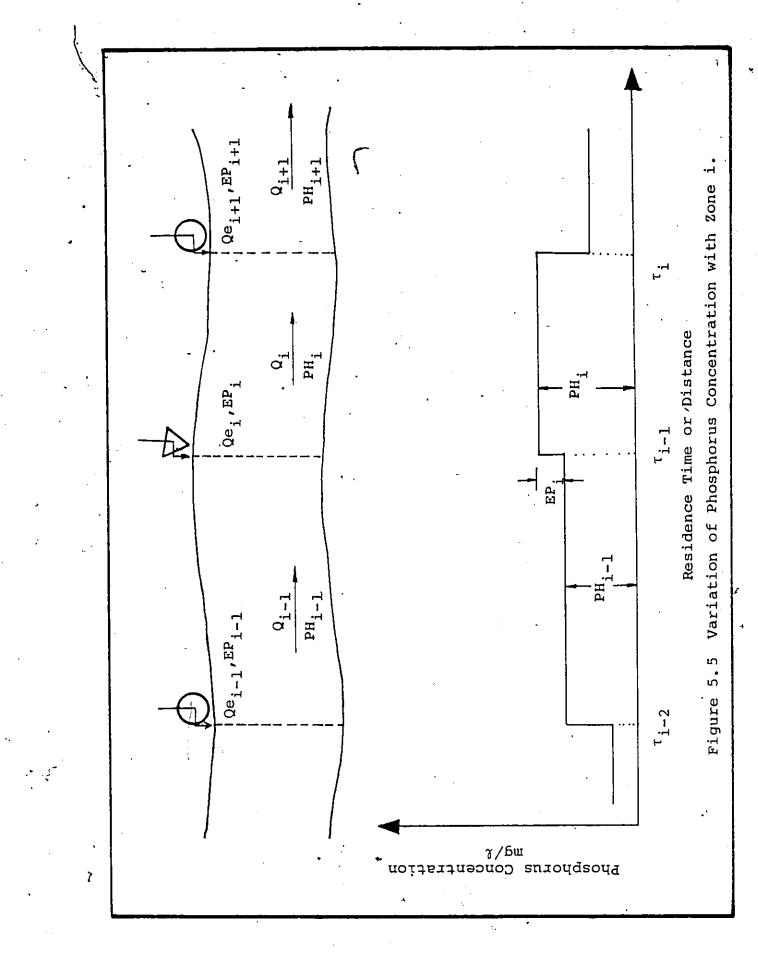
$$EP_{i} = \left(\frac{1 \cdot 0 - z_{i}}{1 \cdot 0}\right) * \frac{F1 * WP_{i}}{Qe_{i}}$$
(5.18)

where:

Qe; = the effluent rate, cfs

F1 = the conversion factor, $\frac{day \cdot ft^3 \cdot mg}{sec \cdot lb \cdot \ell}$

If it is assumed that the flow of the stream at the end of zone i-l has a phosphorus concentration level PH_{i-1} , in mg/L, due to the accumulated waste effluent discharged at previous zones, then the total phosphorus concentration



 PH_i , in mg/L, at the beginning of zone i would be:

$$PH_{i} = \frac{EP_{i} \cdot Qe_{i} + Q_{i-1} \cdot PH_{i-1}}{Qe_{i} + Q_{i-1}}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad (5.19) - 1$$

where for the first zone:

 $PH_0 = PU$, the upstream phosphorus concentration in mg/l.

 $Q_0 = QU$, the upstream flow rate, cfs.

2) Structural Constraints

(i) The parameters θ_1 , and θ_2 of the effluent charge rate (Equations (5.7.1) to (5.7.3)) are non-negative, thus:

$$\theta_{1,i} > 0$$

$$\theta_{2,i} > 0;$$

 $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$ (5.20)

(ii) The treatment levels of BOD and phosphorus, i.e., x_i , and z_i respectively, take values between zero and 100 percent, thus:

 $0 < x_i < 1.$

$$i = 1, 2, \dots, N$$
 (5.21)

The model can now be comprehensively formulated to consider simultaneously municipal and/or industrial pollution sources at each zone as follows:

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(3) To account for maximum level of phosphorus:

$$PH_{1} = \frac{EP_{1,1} \cdot Qe_{1,1} + EP_{1,2} \cdot Qe_{1,2} + PU \cdot QU}{Qe_{1,1} + Qe_{1,2} + QU} \leq MAXPHR_{1}$$

1

$$PH_{2} = \frac{EP_{2,1} \cdot Qe_{2,1} + EP_{2,2} \cdot Qe_{2,2} + PH_{2} \cdot Q_{1}}{Qe_{1,1} + Qe_{1,2} + Q_{1}} \leq MAXPHR_{2}$$

$$PH_{N} = \frac{EP_{N,1} \cdot Qe_{N,1} + EP_{N,2} \cdot Qe_{N,2} + PH_{N-1} \cdot Q_{N-1}}{Qe_{N,2} + Qe_{N,2} + Qe_{N-1}} \leq MAXPHR_{N}$$

(4) Constraints on parameters of effluent charge rate equations:

$$^{\theta}$$
1,1,i ; $^{\theta}$ 1,2,i > 0

$$\theta_{2,1,i}$$
; $\theta_{2,2,i} > 0$; $i = 1, 2, ..., N$

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(5) Boundary conditions on treatment levels:

$$1 \geqslant x_{i,1} \geqslant 0$$

$$1 \geqslant x_{i,2} \geqslant 0 ; i = 1,2,...,N$$

$$1 \geqslant z_{i,1} \geqslant 0$$

$$1 \geqslant z_{i,2} \geqslant 0 ; i = 1,2,...,N$$

5.4 Solution Approach

The objective function and the constraints of the model are highly nonlinear; therefore, a nonlinear optimization technique, is required to solve the problem. In this study, the sequential unconstrained Minimization Technique (SUMT) of Fiacco and McCormick (1968) which is one of the simplest and most efficient nonlinear optimization techniques, is employed. The idea of the technique is to use the original objective function and the constraints to form a sequence of modified unconstrained objective functions which could be minimized by using any appropriate unconstrained multivariate optimization technique. In the context of the model developed in Section 5.3, the problem is first stated as follows:

Minimize:

$$F = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{2} \left[FT_{ij} (WB_{ij}, WP_{ij}, x_{ij}, z_{ij}, Q_{ij}) + FC_{ij} (WB_{ij}, Y_{ij}, x_{ij}) \right]$$

Subject to:

$$G_{i} = LE_{i} + \frac{F_{1}}{Q_{i}} \sum_{j=1}^{2} \left(WB_{ij} \frac{(1 \cdot 0 - x_{ij})}{1 \cdot 0} \right) + MAXBOD_{i} \ge 0;$$

$$i = 1, 2, \dots, N$$

$$G_{k} = \min\{C_{i-1} + \tau_{i} \int_{1}^{\tau_{i}} -K_{1,i} \cdot LB_{i} + K_{2,i} (C_{s} - C_{i-1}(\tau))$$

$$+ \langle P - R \rangle_{i} d\tau - MINDO_{i} \geq 0;$$

k = N+1, ..., 2N

$$G_{\ell} = \frac{EP_{i,1} \cdot Qe_{i,1} + EP_{i,2} \cdot Qe_{i,2} + PH_{i-1} Q_{i-1}}{Qe_{i,1} + Qe_{i,2} + Q_{i-1}}$$

$$+ MAXPH_{i} \ge 0; \qquad \ell = 2N+1, \dots, 3N$$

$$G_{r} = x_{ij} \ge 0; \qquad r = 3N+1, \dots, 5N$$

$$G_{s} = 1 - x_{ij} \ge 0; \qquad s = 5N+1, \dots, 7N$$

$$G_{t} = z_{ij} \ge 0; \qquad t = 7N+1, \dots, 9N$$

$$G_{u} = 1 - z_{ij} \ge 0; \qquad u = 9N+1, \dots, 11N$$

$$G_{v} = \theta_{1,ij} \ge 0; \qquad v = 11N+1, \dots, 13N$$

$$G_{q} = \theta_{2,ij} \ge 0; \qquad q = 13N+1, \dots, 15N$$

where j=1,2 indicates number of pollution source at each zone, and $i=1,2,\ldots,N$, where N is the number of zones in the river.

The modified objective function, P, is next formulated in terms of the original objective function, F, and a penalty term. This is expressed as follows:

$$P = F + r \sum_{t=1}^{15N} \frac{1}{G_{t}}, \qquad (5.22)$$

where r is a positive real number which is re-evaluated to form a monotonically decreasing sequence $r_1 > r_2 > ... > 0$. The penalty term is designed so as to insure that the solution is always located in the interior of the constrained region by avoiding to cross the boundaries of the

feasible region

The study has employed the Hooke and Jeeves technique (1961) to solve the modified unconstrained problem. The technique is based on direct search and requires no derivatives. Since the technique assumes a unimodal function, several sets of starting values had to be tried to find the global minimum. For a detailed description of SUMT, and its computational procedures, the interested reader is referred to Appendix B at the end of this report.

CHAPTER VI

APPLICATION OF THE OPTIMIZATION MODEL

6.1 Introduction

The validity of the developed model has been verified by applying it to a hypothetical river basin in two different cases. In the first case (Example 1), three municipal waste treatment plants are considered, which discharge different waste boads into the river. Accordingly, the river is divided into three zones. It is assumed that three plants have the same treatment cost function.

In the second case (Example 2), five pollution sources (two municipal sources, and three industrial sources) are assumed to discharge different amounts of waste in the river which is divided into three zones. The treatment cost function of the industrial source is different from that of the municipal source.

An empirical treatment cost function for municipal sources has been derived and employed in the study. The function is based on the data collected, for the period 1975 - 1977, on municipal wastewater treatment plants in Southern Ontario. The cost function employed for industrial sources is based on the current information for the treatment cost of particular chemical industrial wastes, adopted from literature (e.g., Cost Engineering Journal, 1971).

This chapter is divided into two main parts; in the first part, the treatment cost functions for both municipal and industrial sources are presented. In the case of

municipal waste treatment cost function, the data are examined and the development of the cost model is discussed. In the case of industrial waste treatment cost function, the cost models for primary, secondary and tertiary treatment are given.

The second part of this chapter is devoted to a discussion of the input data used in each example (i.e., the river characteristics, types and amounts of waste, water quality standards in each zone, etc.), followed by a detailed presentation of the optimization models for both examples.

It is assumed that municipal sources produce organic and phosphorus waste loads, while industrial sources produce organic loads only. This assumption is based on the fact that most of the phosphorus wastes discharged into rivers originate from domestic activities, (Donald , and Bishop, 1975).

The water quality limits in the first example are held constant throughout the river, whereas they are set differently at each zone in the second example. The water quality limits, in both examples, have been chosen to fall within the acceptable ranges of water quality for public service supplies, (e.g., Guides and Criteria for Water Quality Management in Ontario, Ministry of Environment, June, 1973).

6.2 Development of Waste Treatment Cost Functions

The costs of waste water treatment plants may generally be divided into two main categories: i) capital costs, and ii) operating and maintenance costs (O & M). The capital costs include the cost of land purchases, equipment or

structure, installation, and engineering contracting fees. Such costs are generally paid in installments over the useful life of the plant or over an accelerated depreciation period. This cost is usually represented as a fixed part of the cost accounts, (Shah and Reid, 1971). The O & M costs, on the other hand, are the expenses incurred in the day-to-day operation and upkeep of the treatment facilities. This part of the costs is not fixed, but varies with the amount of waste flow, percentage of the treatment required, characteristics of the waste, and other factors. The O & M costs can be divided into: (i) direct costs which include the costs of mainenance, plant chemical supplies, labour and supervision, and utilities; (ii) indirect costs which include the costs of depreciation, insurance, and other general overhead.

Tihansky (1974) indicated that most of the derived functions for operating and maintenance costs pertain only to direct costs, since indirect costs, in most cases, do not constitute a large share of the total operating and maintenance costs. The treatment cost functions, related to municipal and industrial wastes, employed in the present study, are concerned only with the direct portion of operating and maintenance costs.

6.2.1 Cost Function for Municipal Waste Treatment

<u>Plants</u>

The derived function of operating and maintenance costs for municipal wastewater treatment plants are based on data collected for 33 municipal wastewater treatment plants in Southern Ontario for the period of 1975-1977. The data

include, for each plant, two sets of information. The cost data, such as total salaries, wages, employee benefits, repair and maintenance costs, chemicals, utilities, and other miscellaneous expenses. The details of cost information for each plant are shown in Appendix Cl. The technical information regarding the hydraulic capacity, the produced amount of organic and phosphorus waste loads, and the performance of each plant is shown in Appendix C2.

<u>Analysis of Data</u> The collected data presented some diversity regarding the percentages of BOD reduction. The percentages were generally higher than normally expected, particularly at primary and secondary levels. In the course of examining the data, it was found that the estimation for the reduction percentages of BOD are based on calculating the average differences of BOD in samples withdrawn, randomly, from the plant's influent and effluent respectively. Improper sampling methods, or bias regarding the method and/or time of taking the observations might be the reason for such diversity. It was decided, however, to omit such extreme values from the analysis.

Since the data are extended over a four-year period it is important to keep the observations unaffected from the influence of factors extraneous to the cost relationship itself, (Johnston, 1960). For example, observations of the cost values should not be influenced by the variations, from year-to-year, in the prices paid for production factors such

as labour and raw materials. A price index is used to diminish such influences. There are many up-to-date price indices available for most production factors of many typical industries (Statistics of Canada, Cat.#62). It is difficult, however, to find an aggregated measure to represent all the variations in prices paid for the factors constituting the operating and maintenance costs of wastewater treatment Therefore, a price 'index has been extablished based plants. on the collected cost data using the year 1977 as the base year. Only those plants that did not undergo any changes in design capacity or in the method of treatment during the fouryear period are considered in the price indices calculation. This is necessary to insure that the variations in costs are only due to variations in prices paid for the operating and maintenance factors. The details of the derivation of the price indices are shown in Appendix C3.

<u>Cost Model</u> The most important factors used to establish operating and maintenance cost functions for municipal wastewater treatment plants have been reported in many studies. (Shah 1970, Michel 1970, and Marsden, et al, 1973). According to these studies, three independent variables are considered in the derivation of the present models: (i) the hydraulic capacity of the plant, \overline{Q} , measured in terms of the average daily flow of influents in millions of gallons per day (MGD). (ii) the amount of reduction in BOD, which is a function of the percentage treatment level of BOD, X, and the organic waste load, WB, measured in lbs/day; (iii) the amount

of reduction in phosphorus load which, in turn, is a function of the percentage treatment level, Z, , and the phosphorus waste load, WP, measured in lb /day.

The three independent variables were plotted against the annual operating and maintenance cost, the dependent variable, in order to determine the type of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. Identifying these relationships helps in proposing the form of the cost model. Figures 6.1, 6.2 and 6.3 depict these relationships; in each case an exponential relationship may be inferred.

Marsden, et.al (1973) suggested three functional forms that may be used in characterizing cost models:

(i) General Exponential (GE): This form is expressed as follows:

$$c = f_1(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = e^{\beta_0} \prod_{j=1}^{k} x_j^{\beta_j}; x_j > 0$$
 (6.1)

(ii) Generalized Quadratic (GQ): This form is expressed as follows:

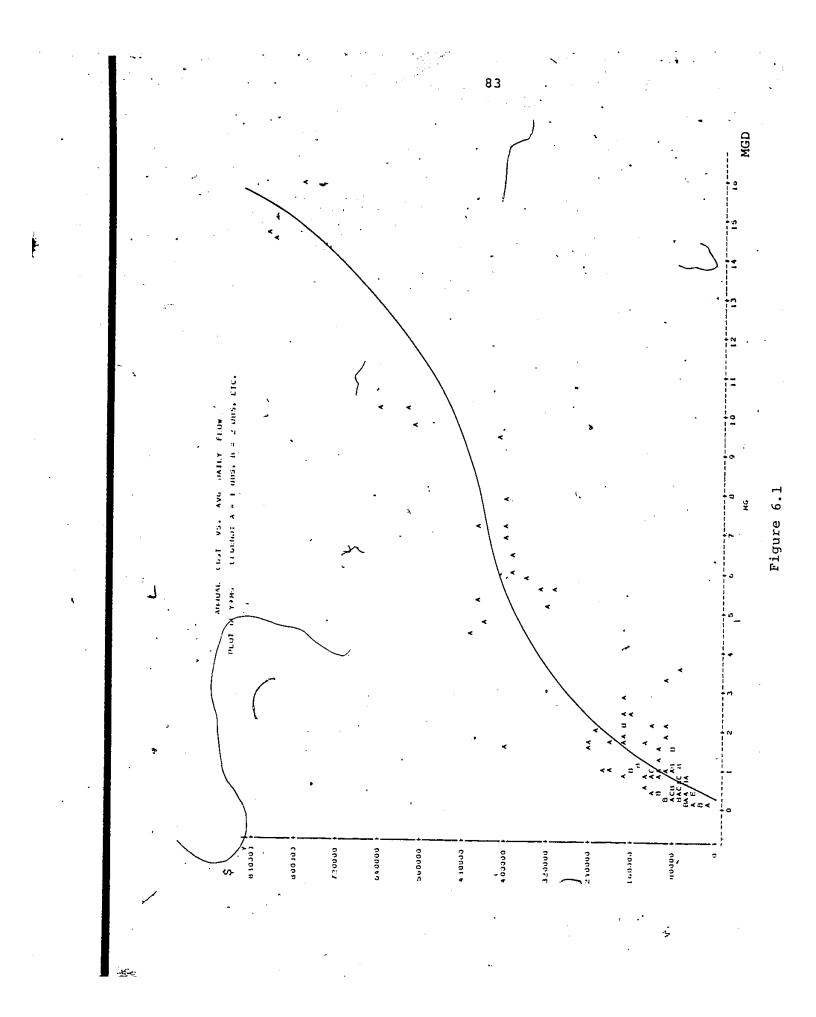
$$f_{2} = f_{2}(x_{1}, x_{2}, \dots, x_{n}) \stackrel{\text{'}}{=} A(\prod_{j=1}^{k} x_{j}^{2}) \sum_{j=1}^{k} \frac{\beta_{j}}{x_{j}} \sum_{j=1}^{k} x_{j}^{4}$$

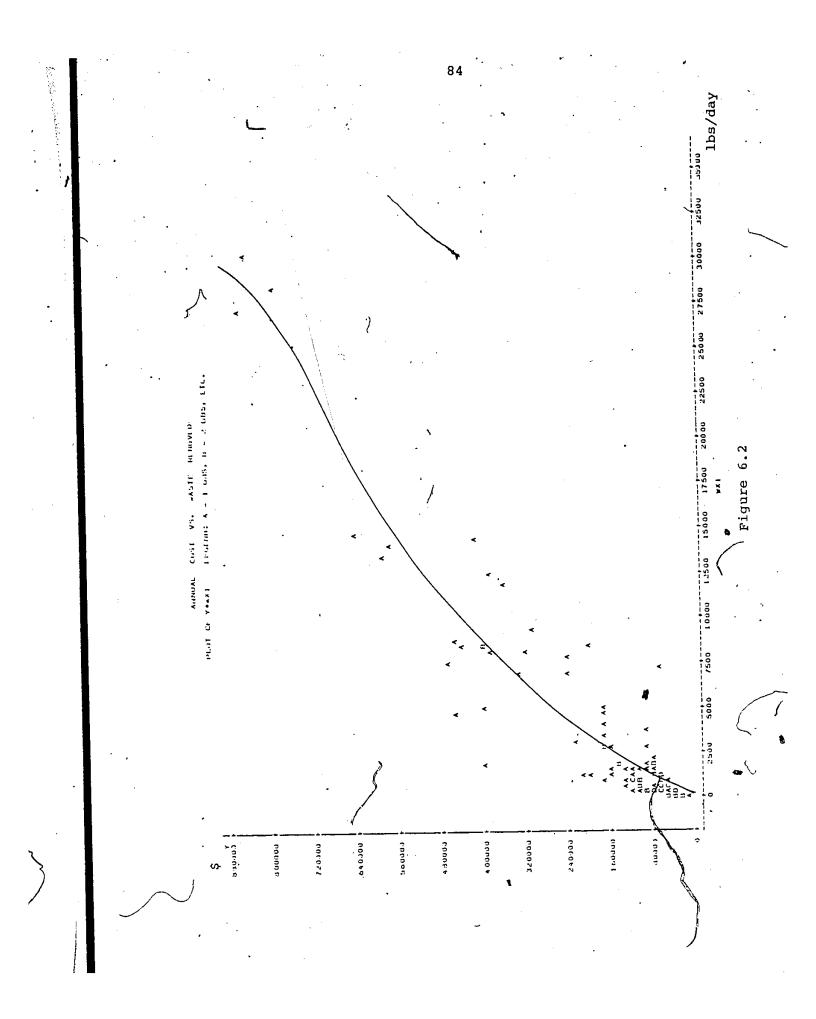
$$(6.2)$$

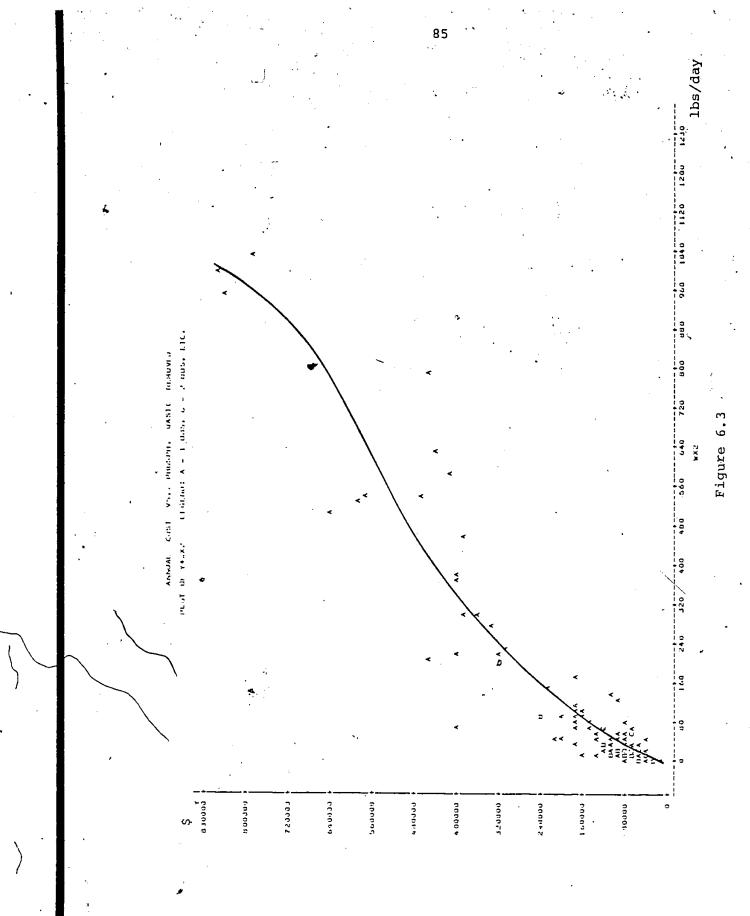
(iii) Constant Cost Elasticity of Substitution (CCES): This form is expressed as follows:

$$c = f_{3}(x_{1}, x_{2}, \dots, x_{n}) = A \begin{bmatrix} n & x_{1} & -B \\ 1 = 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1/B}$$

$$x_{1} > 0, A > 0, B > -1$$
(6.3)







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and,

where,

c = a cost measure;

x; = cost factor measures;

e = exponential constant;

 α_i , B, A, β_i = parameters of the various functions.

The General Exponential form is easier than the other two forms to deal with for estimation purposes. It is easily transformed into a log-linear form to estimate the parameters involved. Direct, ordinary least-squares method can be applied in this case. Functions in the other two forms may be estimated using nonlinear least-square techniques, or one of several step-wise procedures. These techniques require, however, the evaluation of the derivatives of the dependent variable with respect to function's parameters, which, most of the time, are difficult to obtain.

The General Exponential form has been chosen in the print study to represent the cost function. The function contains the three independent variables given above, and takes the following formulation:

 $c = e^{10.1125} * \bar{Q}^{0.3495} * (WB*X)^{0.1778} * (WP*Z)^{0.0685}$ (6.4)

The computer program, results, and statistical analysis for the derivation of the cost model are exhibited in Appendix D.

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 $\alpha_{i} > 0 \ (i=1,...,n)$

6.2.2 Cost Function for a Typical Chemical Industrial

<u>_____</u>____

Plant

At present, the available literature on industrial waste treatment costs is not complete because of the diversity of industries in general, and of technological abatement methods, in particular. The Cost Engineering Journal is the main publication devoted exclusively to present cost estimations and cost functions for industrial wastes. The function presented here pertains to chemical industrial plants as reported by Eckenfelder and Barnard (1971). It represents the biological treatment costs at the primary, secondary and tertiary stages as follows:

Primary Treatment Cost Function

 $FT = 909 + 2273 (1.1/MGD)^{0.5}$

Secondary Treatment Cost Function

$$FT = 2700 + 2500/(MGD)^{0.67}$$

+ UNITS(0.02 - 0.0001*MGD) (6.6)

(6.5)

Tertiary Treatment Cost Function

 $FT = 1500 + 6450 (1/MGD)^{0.63}$ (6.7)

where,

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FT = Annual operating and maintenance costs in \$/MGD.

MGD = Average flow rate of influents in millions of gallons per day

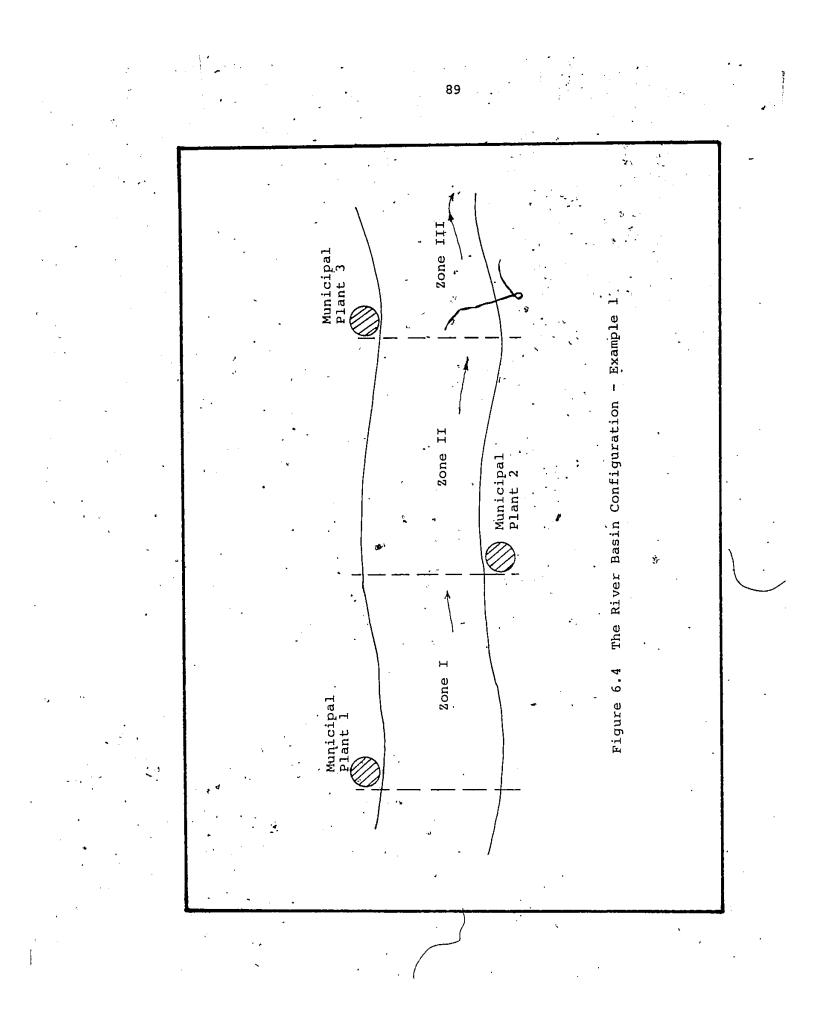
UNITS = Amount of power consumption in kw.hr/day.

The three cost relationships are functions of the average daily flow of the plant. In addition, the secondary treatment cost function is formulated in terms of the amount of power consumption in kw.hr. The cost functions for the three stages, however, are not formulated so as to include other relevant factors which reflect the strength of the waste. Nevertheless, these functions are satisfactory for the purpose of demonstrating how the model can handle situations involving wastes generated at industrial and municipal sources.

6.3 Model Description for Example 1

6.3.1 Input Data Description

The river basin, in this example, is assumed to receive both organic and phosphorus wastes from three municipalities located along the river. The river basin is thus divided into three zones, as depicted in Figure The hydraulic characteristics of the river and 6.4. parameter values used in the transfer equations (5.1) and (5.2) are given in Table 6.1. It is assumed that the water at the upstream portion is relatively clean. The upstream concentration levels of DO, BOD, and phosphorus are 6,5, and 0.05 mg/L respectively. The local BOD flow rate as well as the stream temperature are assumed constant throughout the segment of the river under consideration. The stream flow rate is 500 cfs, while the stream temperature is 290°K. The residence time at the first, second, and third zone are 1, 1.2, and 1.5 days, respec-



tively.

The operating conditions of the waste treatment plants in terms of the average daily flow, and the organic and phosphorus waste loads are shown in Table 6.2. The plant at zone 1 has an average daily flow of 4 MGD, an organic waste load of about 0.2 x 10^5 lb /day, a phosphorus waste load of 0.8 x 10^3 lb /day. The second plant has an average daily flow of 5 MGD, an organic waste load of 0.22 x 10^5 lb /day, a phosphorus waste load of 0.9 x 10^3 lb /day. The corresponding . figures for the third plant are 5 MGD, 0.1 x 10^5 lb /day, and 0.7 x 10^3 lb/day.

The water quality standards are given in Table 6.3. The maximum allowable BOD concentration in all three zones is 15 mg/l. The minimum allowable DO concentration in all three zones, is 5 mg/l, and the maximum allowable concentration of phosphorus in all the three zones is 0.1 mg/l.

6.3.2 Model Description

In this section, the SUMT formulation of Example 1 is described. The objective function is to minimize:

 $f(XB_{1}, XB_{2}, XB_{3}; XP_{1}, XP_{2}, XP_{3}; \theta_{11}, \theta_{21}; \theta_{12}, \theta_{22}; \theta_{13}, \theta_{23}) = \\ \frac{3}{\Sigma} \left[e^{10.1125} * \overline{Q}_{1}^{0.3495} * (WB_{1}, *X_{1}) e^{0.1778} * (WP_{1}, *Z_{1}) e^{0.0685} \right]$ source i=1

$$(1 - x_{i}) * WB_{i} * \theta_{1i} * e^{-\theta_{2i}/(1 - x_{i})}$$

(6.8)

C. S. C.

Subject to the following constraints:

(a) BOD Constraints:

i=1

 $g_i = -LB_i + 15.0 \ge 0$; i=1,2,3

Table 6.1

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Characteristics of the River and the Parameter Values of the Model for Example 1

Description Numerical Value	BOD Concentration 5.0 mg/2	DO Concentration 6.0 mg/l	Phosphorug Concentration 0.05 mg/8	BOD Runoff Rate 0.20 mg/2	Flow Rate 500 CFS for Zone 1 500 CFS for Zone 2 500 CFS for Zone 3	he Constant in Photosynthesis espiration Expression	Time 1 day for Zone 1 1.2 day for Zone 2 1.5 day for Zone 3	nperature 290 ⁰ K for Zone 1 290 ⁰ K for Zone 2 290 ⁰ K for Zone 3	otion and Sedimentation 0.1 day ⁻¹ . It
Parameter D	Upstream	CU Upstream DO	PU Upstream Pho	La · Local BOD Ru	Q Stream Flow	α The Constant Respiration	T Residence Ti	T Stream Temperature	K ₃ BOD Adsorption and Coefficient

\mathbf{T}	ab	le	6.	2

Operating	Conditions	of	Wastewater	Treatment	Plants	-
		Exa	ample 1			

•	·	·	•	
Plant #	Average Daily Flow MGD	• Waste Load in lbs/day		
	F IOW MGD	Organic Waste	Phosphorus Waste	
1	- 4	0.20 x 10 ⁵	0.8 x 10 ³	
2	· 5	0.22 x 10 ⁵	0.7×10^{3}	
 3	, 2 . 5	0.10 x 10 ⁵	0.6×10^{3}	

-, *i*

Table 6.3

Water Quality Standards - Example 1

•	Zone	The Desired Water Quality Limits mg/L				
5	20ne	BOD	DO	Phosphorus		
	l	15.0	5.0	0.1		
	2	15.0	5.0	0.1		
	3	15.0	5.0	0.1		

where LB_i is given by Equation (5.11). (b) DO Constraints:

$$F_{k} = MDO_{i} - 5.0 \ge 0$$
; k=4,5,6

where MDO, is given by Equation (5.16).

(c) Phosphorus Constraints:

$$g_{\ell} = -PH_{1} + 0.1 \ge 0 ; \ell = 7, 8, 9$$

where HP_i is given by Equation (5.19).

(d) .Boundary Conditions on X;:

(1) $g_r = x_i$	<pre>≥ 0 ; r=10,11,12</pre>
(2) $g_{s} = 1 - X_{i}$	≥0 ; s=13,14,15

(e) Boundary Conditions on Z_i:

(1) $g_t = Z_i$ $\geqslant 0$; t=16,17,18 (2) $g_u = 1 - Z_i$ $\geqslant 0$; u=19,20,21 (f) Non-Negativity Conditions on θ_{1j} and θ_{2j} : $g_v = \theta_{1i}$ $\geqslant 0$; v=22,23,24

 $g_{q} = \theta_{2i} > 0 ; q=25,26,27$

and i = 1, 2, 3

The above optimization model consists of twelve decision variables and twenty-seven constraints. The decision variables represent the BOD treatment levels at the three plants (X_1, X_2, X_3) , the phosphorus treatment levels (Z_1, Z_2, Z_3) , and the coefficients of the effluent charge formula $(\theta_{11}, \theta_{21}; \theta_{12}, \theta_{22}; \theta_{13}, \theta_{23})$. The constraints represent, for each zone, the maximum allowable BOD concentration (3 constraints), the minimum DO concentration (3 constraints), and the maximum limits for phosphorus concentration (3 constraints). The next twelve constraints account for the boundary conditions on the variables representing the organic and phosphorus waste treatment levels, and the remaining six constraints account for the nonnegativity of the effluent charge rate coefficients.

The problem has been solved on an IBM 370/3031 computer in 3.31 minutes of CPU time, after 13 iterations of the SUMT procedure. The last iteration represents the final optimum obtained at the required accuracy limit of 10^{-6} , see Appendix . The optimal policy corresponds to a total annual cost of \$1,223,334, which includes the effluent charges as well as the treatment costs for all polluters in: the basin. The optimal effluent charges are 7.17, 5.37 and 3.18 ¢/lb of BOD discharged in the first, second and third zone, respectively.

The optimal treatment levels of organic waste in the three zones are 58.07%, 68.0% and 78.0%, respectively. The corresponding levels of phosphorus waste treatment in the three zones are 88.9%, 98.9%, and 91%.

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6.4 Model Description for Example 2

6.4.1 Input Data Description

This example considers a river basin which receives wastes from both municipal and industrial sources located along the river. It is assumed that the industrial sources generate only organic wastes, while the municipal sources generate not only organic wastes, but also a considerable amount of phosphorus waste, originating mainly from residential areas. Two industrial, and three municipal waste sources are considered, which according to their relative locations, necessitate the division of the river into three zones. Figure 6.5. shows the geographical locations of the plants along the river. The first zone receives wastes from a municipal and an industrial source located across the river from one another. The second zone receives waste from only one municipal source, whereas, the third zone receives wastes from an industrial and a municipal source located across the river from one another.

The hydraulic characteristics of the river, as well as the parameters values used in the transfer equations are given in Table 6.4. The upstream water quality levels are assumed to be 5 mg/l of BOD, 6 mg/l of DO, and 0.05 mg/l of phosphorus. The stream flow rate is 1500 cfs throughout the segment of the river under consideration. The stream temperature, however, has been assumed to change from zone to zone; it is 290° K in zone 1, 295° K in zone 2, and 300° K in zone 3. The residence times are assumed to be 2.5, 2,

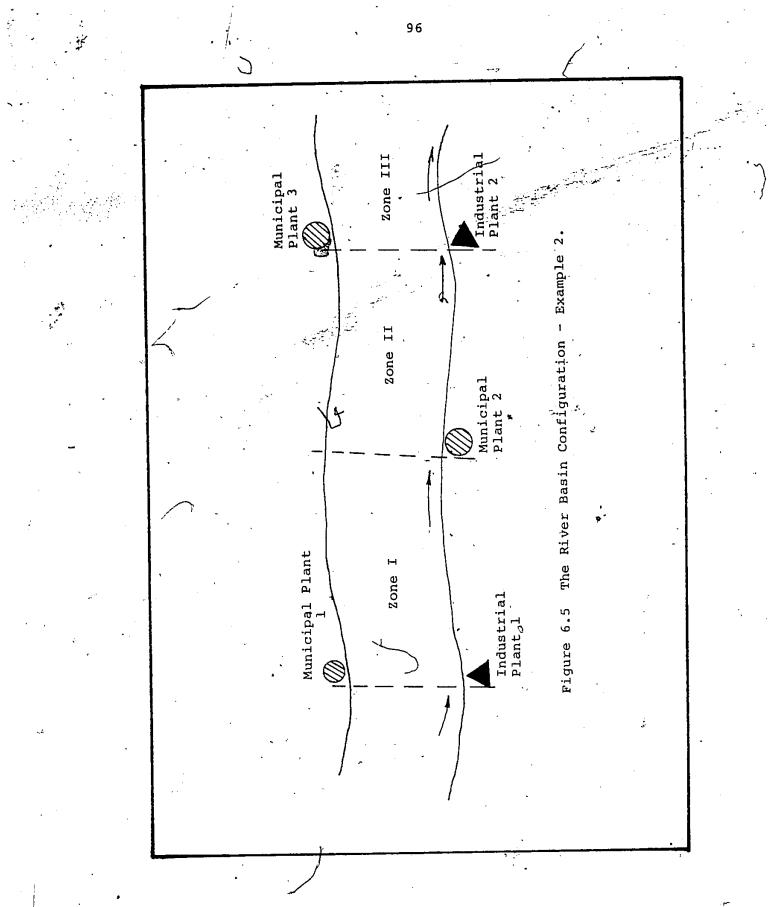


Table 6.4

the Model for Example Characteristics of the River and the Parameter Values of

-		-				DO Concentration	
					tream Phosphorus Concentration 0.05 mg/L	DU CONCENTIALION Phosphorus Concentration	-
0.20 mg/8						Local BOD Runoff Rate 0.2	
1500 cfs for Zone 1500 cfs for Zone 1500 cfs for Zone		1500 1500	1500 1500	1500 1500	1500 1500		1500 1500
0 0 0 1 1 2						ynthesis	
n Tabi	on not not not not not not not not not n	riocosyncineara	L III FILOCONJIICHENTS Expression	tion Expression	piration Expression	Respiration Expression	Respiration Expression
2.5 day 1			pression	pression	pression		pression
		•	ime	ce Time	idence Time	Residence Time	Residence Time
	uo	ression	Expression ime	tion Expression ce Time	piration Expression idence Time	Respiration Expression Residence Time	Respiration Expression Residence Time
lesis	osynthesis on	Photosynthesis ression	t in Photosynthesis Expression ime	stant in Photosynthesis tion Expression ce Time	Constant in Photosynthesis piration Expression idence Time	The Constant in Photosynthesis Respiration Expression Residence Time	The Constant in Photosynthesis Respiration Expression Residence Time
	e osynt on	f Rate e Photosynt ression	unoff Rate Rate t in Photosynt Expression ime	OD Runoff Rate Flow Rate stant in Photosynt tion Expression ce Time	al BOD Runoff Rate eam Flow Rate Constant in Photosynt piration Expression idence Time	Local BOD Runoff Rate Stream Flow Rate The Constant in Photosynt Respiration Expression Residence Time	Local BOD Runoff Rate Stream Flow Rate The Constant in Photosynt Respiration Expression Residence Time

and 3 days at the corresponding zones.

The operating conditions of the municipal and industrial sources, as well as their waste loads, are given in Table 6.5. At the first zone, the municipal source has an average daily flow of 10 MGD, an organic waste load of 0.2 $x 10^{5}$ lb/day, and a phosphorus waste load of 8.7 x 10^{3} lb/day. The industrial source has a daily flow of 6 MGD, and about 0.1×10^5 lb/day of organic waste. At the second zone, the municipal source has an average daily flow of 3 MGD, an organic waste load of 0.4 x 10^{4} lb/day, and a phosphorus waste load of 0.6×10^3 lb/day. At the third zone, the municipal source has an average daily flow of 4 MGD, an organic waste load of 0.75 x 10^4 lb/day, and a phosphorus waste load of 0.65 x 10³1b/day. The industrial source in the same zone has 8 MGD average daily flow, and 0.3 x 10^{5} lb/day of organic waste. The water quality standards are given in Table 6.6. The maximum allowable BOD level are 15, 12 and 15 mg/t at the first, second and third zone, respectively. The corresponding figures for DO concentration are 4.5, 5 and 4 mg/l, and for phosphorus is 0.1 mg/l at the three zones.

6.4.2 Model Description

In this section, the SUMT formulation of the objective function and constraints,¹ for the second example is described. The objective function is to minimize:

 $f(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}, X_{4}, X_{5}; Z_{1}, Z_{2}, Z_{3}; \theta_{11}, \theta_{21}; \theta_{12}, \theta_{22}; \theta_{13}, \theta_{23};$ $\theta_{14}, \theta_{24}; \theta_{15}, \theta_{25}) =$ $g_{14} = \left[e^{10.1125} \cdot \overline{Q}_{1}^{0.3495} \cdot (WB_{1} \cdot X_{1})^{0.1778} \cdot (WP_{1} \cdot Z_{1})^{0.0685} \right]$ municipal source i=1

Ta	ble	6.	. 5	

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Operating	Conditions o	of Municipa	<u>l</u> and	Industrial	Wastewater
	Tr	reatment Pl	ants -	- Example 2	

Zone	Source	Average Daily	Waste Loa	d in lb /day
		Flow MGD	Organic Waste	Phosphorus Waste
1	Municipal	10	0.2 *10 ⁵	0.70*10 ³
	Industrial	6	0.10*10 ⁵	
2	Municipal	3	0.40*10 ⁴	0.60*10 ³
[°] 3	Municipal	4	0.75*104	0.65*10 ³
	Industrial	8	0.3 *10 ⁵	

Table 6.6

Water Quality Standards - Example 2

	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		
Zone	The Desi:	red Water Quali	ty Limits mg/L
	BOD	DO	Phosphorus
1.	15.0	4.5	0.1
2	12.0	5.0	0.1
3	. 15.0	4.0	0.1

1

$$+ \frac{5}{\Sigma} \left\{ \begin{array}{c} 909.0 + 2273(1.1/\tilde{0}g^{0.5}] : 0 < x_{j} < 0.4 \\ \text{or} \\ \left\{ 2700 + (2500.0/\tilde{0}_{j}^{0.67}) \\ + 1000.0(0.02 - 0.0001 + \tilde{0}_{j}) \right] ; \\ . 4 < x_{j} < 0.9 \\ \text{or} \\ \left[1500 + 6450(1/\tilde{0})^{0.63} \right] : .9 < x_{j} < 1.0 \end{array} \right\}$$

$$+ \frac{5}{\Sigma} \left\{ \begin{array}{c} (1-x_{k}) * WB_{k} * \theta_{1k} * e^{-\theta_{2k'}(1-x_{k})} \\ + industrial \\ source k=1 \end{array} \right.$$

$$(6.9)$$
Subject to the following constraints:
$$(a) \text{ BOD constraints:} \\ g_{1} = -LB_{1} + 15.0 \ge 0 \\ g_{2} = -LB_{2} + 12.0 \ge 0 \\ g_{3} = -LB_{3} + 15.0 \ge 0 \\ g_{5} = MD0_{1} - 4.5 \ge 0 \\ g_{5} = MD0_{2} - 5.0 \ge 0$$

where LB_i and MDO_i ; i = 1,2,3 are given by Equation (5.13) and (5.16) respectively.

 $g_6 = MDO_3 - 4.0 \ge 0$

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(c) Phosphorus Constraints: $g_{\ell} = -PH_{i} + 0.1 \ge 0$ where i=1,2,3; $\ell=7,8,9$; PH_{i} is given by Equation (5.19). (d) Boundary Conditions on X_{j} : (1) $g_{r} = X_{j} \ge 0$ (2) $g_{s} = 1 - X_{j} \ge 0$ where j=1,2,...,5; r=10,11,...,15; s=16,17,...,19. (e) Boundary Conditions on Z_{j} : (1) $g_{t} = Z_{i} \ge 0$ (2) $g_{u} = 1 - Z_{i} \ge 0$ where i=1,2,3; t=20,21,22; u=23,24,25 (f) Non-Negativity Constraints on θ_{1j} and θ_{2j} :

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 $g_{v} = \theta_{1j} \ge 0$ $g_{q} = \theta_{2j} \ge 0$ where j=1,2,...,5; v=26,27,...,30; q=31,32,...,35.

The optimization model of Example 2 consists of eighteen decision variables, and thirty-five constraints. The decision variables represent the BOD treatment levels at all municipal and industrial sources $(X_1 \text{ through } X_5)$, the phosphorus treatment levels at the three municipal sources $(Z_1 \text{ through } Z_3)$, and the coefficients of the effluent charge formula $(\theta_{11} \text{ through } \theta_{25})$. The constraints represent for each zone, the maximum allowable BOD concentration (3 constraints),

the minimum allowable concentration of DO (3 constraints), and the maximum limits for phosphorus constraints (3 constraints). The next sixteen constraints account for the boundary conditions on the variables, representing the organic and phosphorus treatment levels at the three zones, and the remaining ten constraints account for the nonnegativity of the charge rate coefficients.

The problem has been solved on the same IBM 370/3031 computer, in 6.5 minutes of CPU time. The SUMT procedure converged to the optimal solution in twelve iterations at the specified accuracy limits of 10^{-6} . The computer output illustrating the final results of the SUMT procedure is given in Appendix E

The optimal treatment policy has been obtained at a total annual cost of \$2,685,790, of which \$2,452,890 is the total treatment costs, and \$232,900 is the total effluent charges paid to the river basin authority. The optimal rates of the effluent charge levied against the municipal sources in the first, second, and third zone are 2.98, 4.29, and 6.06 ¢/lb of BOD, respectively. The charge rates levied against the industrial sources in the first, and third zones are 2.95, and 2.98 ¢/lb of BOD, respectively.

The optimal treatment levels of organic waste loads in the first zone are 77.7% for the municipal source, and 64.2% for the industrial source. The municipal source in zone 2 is required to treat 60.7% of its waste. Finally, the required treatment levels in zone 3 are 62.7% for the municipal source, and 82.7% for the industrial source. As for the phosphorus wastes, the optimal treatment levels for the three municipal sources at the first zone are 98.5%, 90.5% at the second, and 92.0% at the third zones.

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The description of the computer program and the results for the two examples are presented in Appendix E.

CHAPTER VII

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

7.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the results of the two applications of the optimization model. The discussion emphasizes the relationships between the effluent charge rates, on one hand, and waste treatment levels, amount and intensity of the discharged wastes, treatment cost functions, and water quality standards; on the other hand. On the basis of the results of the present investigation, a number of conclusions are drawn, and proposals are made, at the end, for further researchs and studies.

7.2 Discussion of Results - Example (1)

This example deals with three municipal waste sources located at three different zones in a river basin. The sources discharge various amounts of organic and phosphorus waste into the river. However, it is assumed that the same treatment cost function applies at each source. The water quality standards are also assumed to be uniform in all three zones.

In Table 7.1, the results of the optimization of the model in Example 1 are presented. In column (1), the total waste load at each zone is given. The optimal treatment level at each source is given in column (2), and the amount of waste treated at each source is calculated in column (3). The cost of treatment, which is based on the amount indicated in column (3) is computed in column (4). The effluent

• •						105		•		4.	
6 g			(11)	Grand Total Cost (4)+(7)	• •	500850	456387	266097		.	
		LOAD	(10)	Amount of Waste Treated (8)•(9)	lb /day	0,77*10 ³	0.88*10 ³	0.63#10 ³			
	· · · · ·	PHOSPHORUS WASTE LOAD	(6) (Optimal. Treatment Level		6 . 98	6.86	6.06 .		<u></u> .	
. ·		ASOHA	(8)	Total Load	lb /day	0.8×10 ³	0.9*10 ³	0.7*10 ³		. '	
	el for Example		(2)	Total Effluent Charge Cost	\$/year	219604	137973	-, 25565			
	<u>Table 7.1</u> ization of Model		(9)	Effluent Charge Rate	¢/1Þ	7.17	5.37	3.18		•	
	Table 7.1 ts of the Optimization of	٨D	(5)	Amount of Waste Untreated (1)-(3)	lb /day	0.084*10 ⁵	0.071*10 ⁵	0.03 *10 ⁵	•		
х ЭЭ	. Results of	ORGANIC WASTE LOAD	(4)	Annual Cost of Treatment	\$/year	281246	318414	240532		·	5 <u>5</u>
. N		ORGA	(٤)	Amount of Waste Treated (1)x(2)	lb /day	0.116*10 ⁵	0.149*10 ⁵	0.01 *10 ⁵	4	•	
	1		(2)	Optimal Treatment Level X i		58.07	68.00	• 78.00			
,			(5)	Total Load WBi	Yeb/ di	0.20*10 ⁵	0.22*10 ⁵	0.10×10 ⁵	•		
			. >	2one No.			2				

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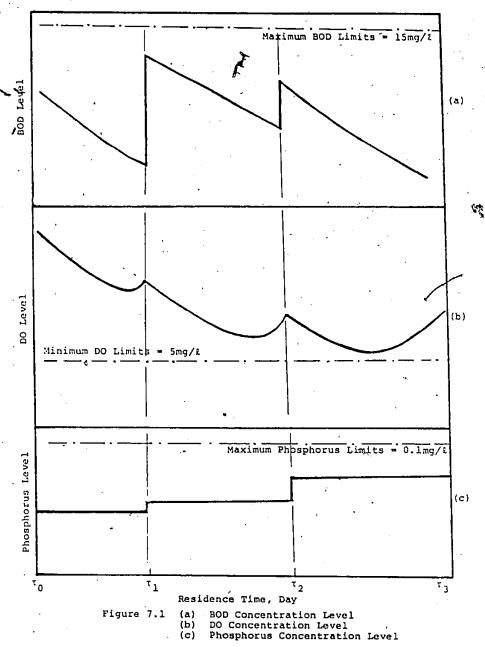
charges apply to the untreated portion of waste (column (5)) and are computed in column (7). It is noted that the highest treatment cost, for example, corresponds to the second source with the highest amount of waste treatment, whereas the lowest level of effluent charges corresponds to the third source, which discharges the least amount of untreated waste. This result is mainly due to the fact that the three sources have the same treatment cost function. The results do not indicate that the concerned relationship follows a general pattern, since the operating conditions at each source, such as the average daily flow, the amount of waste, etc., are different.

The optimal treatment configurations for the organic and phosphorus waste loads are given in columns (2), and (9), respectively. About 58% of the organic load generated at the first source should be treated in order to satisfy the waste quality standards in the first and subsequent zones. At the second source, which has the highest amount of organic waste, the required treatment level is 68%. The corresponding figure for the third source, which generates the least amount of organic waste, is 78%.

The behaviour of the BOD, DO and phosphorus concentrations along the river basin is shown in Figures 7.1(a), (b), and (c), respectively. It is interesting to note that, although the BOD levels in all three zones are below the stipulated standard of 15 mg/ ℓ (Figure 7.1(a)), treatment of the organic waste is still necessary due to the stringent standard on DO (5 mg/ ℓ) as it is depicted in Figure 7.1(b).



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The behaviour of the phosphorus concentration along the river basin is depicted in Figure 7.1(c), which shows that the phosphorus concentration level changes in step-wise manner.

The effluent charge rates are found to be consistent with the above results. They are also in agreement with the nature of the conditions imposed on the basin system, such as the quality requirements at each zone, the nature of the cost function for each source, and the amount of waste generated at each source. The optimal effluent charge rates for each source are given in column (6) of Table 7.1. The results show that the effluent charge rate for the first zone is 7.17 ¢/lb of BOD discharged. This represents the highest charge rate among the three zones. For the second and third zones, the charges are 5.37 and 3.18 ¢/lb of BOD, respectively. The effluent charge rates are inversely related to the BOD treatment level. The highest charge rate corresponds to the lowest BOD treatment level at the first zone, whereas the lowest charge rate corresponds to the highest treatment level at the third zone.

7.3 Discussion of Results - Example (2)

This example demonstrates the application of the model to a more general case. At each zone in the river, two pollution sources, industrial and/or municipal, are considered. Furthermore, the waste treatment cost functions at various sources are assumed to be different. One or both sources simultaneously discharge their wastes into each zone in the river. Each zone requires different quality limits.

The results of the optimization of the model are presented in Table 7.2. The optimal policy is obtained at the minimum annual cost of \$2,685,790. This includes the effluent charge and the treatment cost for each discharger in the basin. In column (11) of Table 7.2, the breakdown of the total cost among different dischargers is given. It is noticed, in this example, that the treatment costs for industrial sources are higher than those for municipal sources. Also, as can be seen from column (7), the effluent charges for industrial sources are less than those for municipal sources. These results will be explained in detail during the course of the discussion.

The optimal treatment configurations for organic and phosphorus wastes at the five pollution sources are given in columns (2), and (9), respectively. The results indicate that the municipal and industrial sources in the first zone have to treat 77.7% and 64.2% of their organic wastes, respec-

			ORGANI	IC WASTE LOAD	G	•		PITOSP	PITOSPILORUS WASTE LOAD	LOAD	
	(1)	(2)	· (3)	(4)	(5)	(9)	(2)	(8)	. (9)	(10)	(11)
Zone	Total Load	Optimal Treatment Level	Amount of Waste Treated	Annual Cost of Treatment	Amount'of Waste Untreated (1)-(3)	Effluent Charge Rate	Total Effluent Charge Cost	Total Load	Optimal Treatment Level	Amount of Waste Treated (8) x(9)	Grand Total Cost (4)+(7)
	WB 1b/dầy	× ø	lb/day	\$/year	1b/day	¢/1b	(5)×(6) \$/year	WP1 1b/day	zí.	1b/day	
1 (M) ^{†'}	0.2*10 ⁵	7.77	0.155*10 ⁵	479884.5	0.045+10 ⁵	2.986	48443.4	0.70*10 ³	98.5	0.689*10 ³	528327.9
1 (1) x	0.1*10 ⁵	64.2	0.064.10 ⁵	641432.4	0.036*10 ⁵	2.958	38576.8	: : :	•		680009.2
2 (н) [†]	0.4.10 ⁴	60.7	0.024*10 ⁵	227533.7	0.016*10 ⁵	4.293	27665.9	0.60.10 ³	, 2.0è	0.543*10 ³ "255199.6	255199.6
з (н) [†]	0.75*10 ⁴	62.7	0.047*10 ⁵	278950.6	0.028 * 10 ⁵	.6.067	61839.7	0.65.10 ³	92.0	0.598*10 ³	340790.3
3(I)	0.3*10 ⁵	82.7	0.248*10 ⁵	825088.7	0.052*10 ⁵	2.987	56374.3	- 	, , ,	1	881463.0
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N.B. † Indicates Municipal (M)

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x Indicates Industrial (I)

Table 7.2

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Results of the Optimization of Model for Example 2

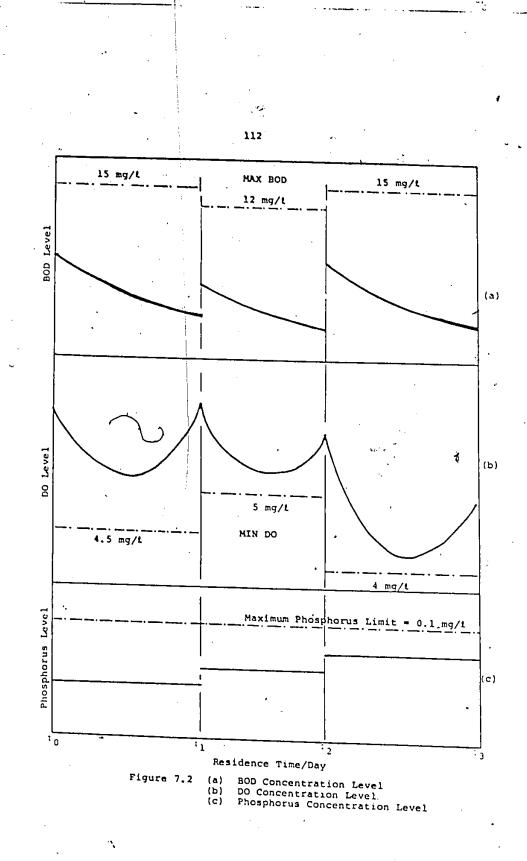
tively. The treatment level for the municipal source is higher than that for industrial source, because the former has a more concentrated waste (199.8 mg/ ℓ) than the latter (166.5 mg/ ℓ). In order to satisfy the water quality standards in the first and subsequent zones, the municipal source, therefore has to treat its waste at a higher level than the industrial source.

The municipal source in the second zone, is the sole pollution source in the zone, and is required to treat about 60.7% of its organic waste.

The optimal organic waste treatment levels for the municipal and industrial sources in the third zone are 62.7% and 82.7%, respectively. The high concentration of BOD at the industrial source (374.7 mg/k) is the reason for the correspondingly high treatment level at this source, relative to the municipal source which has a waste concentration of 187.3 mg/k only.

The behaviours of BOD and DO along-the river basin are depicted in Figure 7.2(a) and (b). Again, it is noticed that, although the BOD concentration in all three zones is below the maximum allowable level (15 mg/ ℓ), the strict DO concentration requirements (4.5 mg/ ℓ in zone 1, 5 mg/ ℓ in zone 2, and 4 mg/ ℓ in zone 3) necessitate the treatment of the organic waste in all three zones.

As for the phosphorus treatment levels (column (9)), the results indicate that the phosphorus concentration standard in the first zone is attained at a high treatment level of 98.5%. The corresponding standards in zones 2 and 3



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are attained at treatment levels of 90.5%, and 92.0% for both municipal sources located at the second and third zones, respectively. The high level of phosphorus treatment at the first source is due to the upstream conditions, i.e., the phosphorus concentration of 0.05 mg/L upstream. The behaviour of phosphorus concentration level in the river is shown in Figure 7.2(c), indicating the familiar step-wise variation.

The effluent charge rates to be levied against all the dischargers in the basin are given in column (6). As is evident from these results, dischargers in the same zone may be subject to different charge rates; the municipal source in the first zone, for example, is required to pay 2.98¢/lb of BOD discharged into the river, whereas the industrial source in the same zone is required to pay 2.95¢/lb. The variation in the charge rates, within the same zone, is due to differences in the marginal treatment costs incurred by each source to treat its wastes. To illustrate, while the industrial source at the first zone incurs \$641,432.4 annually to treat about 0.1*10⁵ lb/day of BOD, the municipal source incurs less cost (\$479,884.5 per year) to treat more waste (0.2*10⁵ lb/day). The allocation of effluent charges between the two sources, therefore, is in agreement with the idea of imposing a higher rate on the source which incurs smaller treatment cost (Kneese & Schultze, 1975). This tends to encourage such dischargers to treat a larger portion of their wastes than they normally do in the absence of effluent charges.

The municipal source in the second zone is required to pay 4.29 ¢/lb of BOD. In the third zone, the effluent charge rate for the municipal source is 6.06¢/lb of BOD, which is higher than the rate for industrial source which is 2.95 ¢/lb. The difference between the two effluent charge rates may be explained in the same way as was given for the first zone.

7.4 Conclusions

The evaluation of the available literature on water pollution control methods, presented in this study, indicates that the effluent charges strategy is an effective, flexible, and efficient approach to deal with the complicated phenomenon of water pollution. In the present work, the strategy has been incorporated within the framework of a water quality management model, which aims at allocating, optimally, the effluent charge rates among all the polluters using the river basin as waste receptor.

There are two features in the present model which distinguish it from other works seeking the same objective (e.g., Hass (1970) and Taylor (1973)). First, the attainment of the water quality standards throughout the river basin is ensured by explicitly specifying the appropriate constraints in the model's formulation. Moreover, these water quality constraints represent non-linear relations. In previous works, either the water quality constraints have not been explicitly considered, or they have been approximated into linear forms. In both cases, however,

there is no guarantee that the required water quality standards are met. This is because the estimation of the optimal effluent charge rates is carried out through an iterative procedure. If water quality standards are not achieved under a given set of effluent charges, the basin authority revises them accordingly. The revised values of effluent charges are transmitted to the polluters in the basin, and then the water quality measures are monitored. The process, which depends entirely on the accuracy of the polluters' response to the charge rates, may take several iterations before it converges on the optimal set of effluent charges. In contrast, the present model determines the effluent charges as well as the levels of waste treatment directly.

Second, the present model determines the effluent charges as a set of non-linear rates as opposed to a set of uniform rates obtained by existing models.

Imposing uniform charge rates on all polluters does not lead to optimal allocation of water resources. For example, a firm which has decided to treat its effluent wastes and/or the incoming water supply for its production processes should, in an efficient resource allocation, face a lower charge rate than a firm which has chosen not to do so. As Tietenberg (1973(a),(b)) has pointed out, theoretically, non-uniform charge rates, rather than uniform rates, constitute the least costly approach to water pollution control.

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It is noted that the nonlinearity of the effluent charges is a consequence of the presence of a large number

factors which have to be considered in the development of the water of water quality management. These factors may be classified into two categories: (1) factors which describe the variations in stream characteristics (e.g., stream flow rate, stream width and depth, water quality standards, etc.) at different points, and (2) factors which describe the variations in plant performance (e.g., waste treatment costs, amount and intensity of the discharged wastes, levels of waste treatments, etc.) at each pollution source. The consideration of the factors in the first category necessitates the establishment of different zones in the river, so that the model can deal with each zone independently, and determine the optimal charge rate for that zone. On the other hand, consideration of the factors in the second category is reflected in the formulation of the model's objective function and constraints.

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The present model, therefore, is developed to account for the complex interactions among the factors mentioned above, and for the nonlinearity of the effluent charges. Accordingly, the results obtained from the applications of the model are to be interpreted in accordance with these interactions. In the first application, for example, the marginal treatment costs for all the polluters as well as the prevailing stream characteristics in all three zones were the same, but the charge rates (7.17, 5.37, and 3.418 ¢/lb of BOD, at the first, second, and third zone, respectively) were different. To interpret these results, one must focus on the overall picture representing the problem, and considering such factors as the intensity of the pollutants generated at each source, the treatment levels at each source, etc. Also, it is noted that in the second applications, not only are the effluent charge rates different in different zones, there may even be different rates applied to a number of polluters in the same zone. These results, which are not obvious beforehand, should be interpreted in the light of the complex interactions among the factors involved. This points to the importance of developing complex mathematical models in order to deal with such complicated problems as environmental pollution control.

The model developed in this study provides a vehicle for the basin authority to determine, for any given set of conditions, the optimal effluent charges. The model is flexible in the sense that any adjustment to input data can 'easily be implemented. In addition, the data preparations and set up are kept to a minimum, so as to make the computer program easy to use.

7.5 <u>Suggestions</u> for Further Studies

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(1) The present model is static in nature, in the sense that it does not consider the effect of time on various parameters under consideration. For instance, it is assumed that the waste discharges at various sources do not vary with time; or, that the flow rate in the river basin

is constant. While such assumptions may not represent the situation realistically, they could be conceived of as representing either the average conditions, or the extreme conditions existing in the river basin.

If the model is based on the average conditions prevailing in the river basin, then the results would be adequate in most cases except when extreme conditions exist. It is, however, possible to run the model under these conditions and determine the corresponding optimal policy.

If, on the other hand, the model is based on the extreme conditions that may prevail in the basin, then the results are applicable in all cases. Nevertheless, the obtained results would place a burden, in different degrees, on the dischargers according to the prevailing feasible conditions. The burden is represented in terms of paying more effluent charges or increasing the levels of the treatment.

To alleviate these shortcomings, a dynamic version of the model may be considered which takes into the account the time-dependency of the model's parameters, hydraulic. conditions of stream, and waste discharges. However, the set of partial differential equations that result, are too complicated to handle. Some work for the single-stage model have been developed using the concepts of the maximum principal and optimal control theory (Fan, et al 1973; Fan and Hong, 1972). It is suggested that the application of these concepts to multi-stage models be investigated.

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(2) The degradation of water resources is caused, not only by the discharge of organic and inorganic waste, but also by the discharge of "waste heat" in the form of heated water discharges from the cooling processes of various industries, notably the power generation stations. Although the present model does not deal with thermal effects of waste discharges, however, it could be expanded to include the effect of varying temperature on BOD and DO along the river.

(3) It is understood that the phosphorus pollutants have a direct, adverse effect on lakes rather than on rivers. Since lakes are the natural destination of many rivers, in order to halt or decrease their enrichment with plant nutrients (eutrophication process), which accelerates in the presence of phosphorus wastes, the concentration levels of these pollutants in the rivers must be kept within acceptable limits. The present model has recognized this process by imposing a set of control limits on the phosphorus concentration in the river. The model, however, could be extended to include effluent charges to be levied on each unit of the phosphorus waste discharged into the river.

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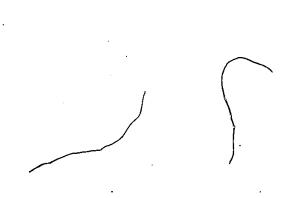
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APPENDICES

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APPENDIX A

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NUMERICAL SOLUTION OF DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS (RUNGE-KUTTA METHOD)

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NUMERICAL SOLUTION OF DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS USING THE RUNGE-KUTTA METHOD

An approximate solution could be obtained, for the two differential equations (5.1), and (5.2) given in Chapter V, through a numerical integration method. The Runge-Kutta method is considered one of the most accurate procedures used in such cases. The solution is obtained in the form of a set of values for the dependent variables corresponding to given values of the independent variables (N.G. Bakhoom, 1962). The method can be described as follows:

Assume two simultaneous differential equations:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x,y,z) ; \frac{dz}{dx} = g(x,y,z)$$
(1)

with initial conditions:

 $x = x_0, y = y_0, z = z_0$

where it is required to find y and z for a given value of x.

The Algorithm

(1) Let h: denote the increment in x

k: denote the increment in y

l: denote the increment in z

(2) Compute K and L according to the following expressions:

$$k = \frac{1}{6}k_{1} + \frac{1}{3}k_{2} + \frac{1}{3}k_{3} + \frac{1}{6}k_{4};$$

$$\ell = \frac{1}{6}\ell_{1} + \frac{1}{3}\ell_{2} + \frac{1}{3}\ell_{3} + \frac{1}{6}\ell_{4};$$

(3) Compute k_1 , k_2 , k_3 , and k_4 as follows: $k_1 = h * f(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ $k_2 = h * f(x_0 + \frac{1}{2}h, y_0 + \frac{1}{2}k_1, z_0 + \ell_1)$ $k_3 = h * f(x_0 + \frac{1}{2}h, y_0 + \frac{1}{2}k_2, z_0 + \frac{1}{2}\ell_2)$ $k_4 = h * f(x_0 + h, y_0 + k_3, z_0 + \ell_3)$ (4) ℓ_1 , ℓ_2 , ℓ_3 , and ℓ_4 are sequentially computed as follows: $\ell_1 = h * g(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ $\ell_2 = h * g(x_0 + \frac{1}{2}h, y_0 + \frac{1}{2}k_1, z_0 + \frac{1}{2}\ell_1)$ $\ell_3 = h * g(x_0 + \frac{1}{2}h, y_0 + \frac{1}{2}k_2, z_0 + \frac{1}{2}\ell_2)$ $\ell_4 = h * g(x_0 + h, y_0 + k_3, z_0 + \ell_3)$ (5) The solution at the new point $x_1 = x_0 + h$ is:

(5) The solution at the new point $x_1 = x_0 + h$ is: $y_1 = y_0 + k$

 $z_1 = z_0 + \ell$

(6) Set the new value of x such that:

$$x_2 = x_1 + h_1$$

and repeat the procedure from step (2) to step (6) for all points in the domain of x variable.

Application of the Runge-Kutta Method to Solve the Two Simultaneous Differential Equations of the Transformation Equations

The transform equations are expressed as follows:

$$\frac{dC}{d\tau} = g(C, L, T)$$
 (2)

$$\frac{dL}{d\tau} = f(L,T)$$
(3)

where C = DO concentration level; mg/l

- L = BOD concentration level; mg/L
- oĸ T = Temperature level;
- τ = Residence time; days

Assume: 1) T is constant throughout the zone

2) # The initial conditions are $L = L_0^+, C = C_0^+, at$

 $\tau = \tau_0$. 3) ΔC is the increment in C; AL is the increment in L; $\Delta \tau$ is the increment in τ .

Then:

$$\Delta C = \frac{1}{6}D_1 + \frac{1}{3}D_2 + \frac{1}{3}D_3 + \frac{1}{6}D_4$$
$$\Delta L = \frac{1}{6}B_1 + \frac{1}{3}B_2 + \frac{1}{3}B_3 + \frac{1}{6}B_4$$

where:

$$D_{1} = \Delta \tau * g(L_{0}, C_{0}, T_{0})$$

$$D_{2} = \Delta \tau * g(L_{0} + \frac{B_{1}}{2}, C_{0} + \frac{D_{1}}{2}, T_{0})$$

$$D_{3} = \Delta \tau * g(L_{0} + \frac{B_{2}}{2}, C_{0} + \frac{D_{2}}{2}, T_{0})$$

$$D_{4} = \Delta \tau * g(L_{0} + B_{3}, C_{0} + D_{3}, T_{0})$$

and

$$B_{1} = \Delta \tau * f(L_{o}, T_{o})$$

$$B_{2} = \Delta \tau * f(L_{o} + \frac{B_{1}}{2}, T_{o})$$

$$B_{3} = \Delta \tau * f(L_{o} + \frac{B_{2}}{2}, T_{o})$$

$$B_{4} = \Delta \tau * f(L_{o} + \frac{B_{3}}{2}, T_{o})$$

The solution at the new point $\tau = \tau_0 + \Delta \tau$

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 $L_1 = L_0 + \Delta L$ $C_1 = C_0 + \Delta C$ ···

APPENDIX B

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SEQUENTIAL UNCONSTRAINED MINIMIZATION TECHNIQUE (SUMT)

SEQUENTIAL UNCONSTRAINED MINIMIZATION TECHNIQUE (SUMT)

The sequential unconstrained minimization technique (SUMT) solves the constrained minimization problem with nonlinear or linear objective function. The technique was originally proposed by Carroll(1959, 1961), and developed further by Fiacco and McCormick (1964 (a),(b), 1965, 1966, 1968).

The general nonlinear programming problem with nonlinear inequality constraints is to choose x to:

minimize f(x),

subject to:

.. (1)

 $g_{i}(x) \ge 0$, i = 1, 2, ..., m

where x is an n-dimensional column vector $(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)^T$. If the variables are required to be non-negative, each constraint is included in the g_i 's.

To solve problem (1), function P can be defined as follows:

$$P(x,r_{K}) = f(x) + r_{K} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{g_{i}(x)}$$
 (2)

where r_{K} is a positive constant. Subscript K indicates the number of times P function has been set up to solve the problem given by Equation (1). The conditions imposed on the P function are as follows:

1) r_{K} , K = 1, 2, ..., is a positive real number and $r_{1} > r_{2} > ... > r_{K}$... >0. This indicates that $\{r_{K}\}$ is

a strictly monotonic decreasing sequence and $r_{\kappa} + 0$ as $K + \infty$.

2) $R^{O} = \{x | g_{i}(x) \ge 0, i = 1, 2, ..., m\}$ is a non-empty set. This condition indicates that at least one point must exist within the interior of the feasible region.

3) The functions f(x), $g_i(x)$,..., $g_m(x)$ are twice continuously differentiable.

4) The function f(x) is convex.

5) The functions $g_i(x), \ldots, g_m(x)$ are concave.

6) For every finite K, $\{x \mid f(x) \leq K; x \in R\}$ is a bounded set, where $R = \{x \mid g_i(x) \ge 0; i = 1, 2, ..., m\}$.

7) The function $P(x,r_K) = f(x) + r_K \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{g_i(x)}$, is, for each r > 0, strictly convex for $x \in \mathbb{R}^0$. This also indicates that either f(x) is strictly convex or one of g_i, \dots, g_m is strictly concave.

Practical experience indicates that the problem given by Equation (1) can be solved even when these conditions are not met. The three conditions which are absolutely required to obtain any useful results are conditions (1), (2), and (6). Condition (1) guarantees that the sequential minimization of the P function will eventually lead to the solution of minimization of function f(x). Condition (2) eliminates problems with equality constraints. Condition (6) eliminates problems having local minimum at infinite points.

The characteristics of the P function are as follows:

1)
$$\lim_{K \to \infty} \left[r_{K} \xrightarrow{\Sigma}_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{g_{i}(x)} \right] = 0;$$

2) $\lim_{K \to \infty} f[x(r_K)] = u^*$; where $x(r_K)$ is the value of vector x obtained at iteration K, and u* is a

finite value.

3) Lim
$$P[x(r_K), r_K] = u^*;$$

4) {f $x(r_{K})$ } is a monotonically decreasing sequence.

5) $\sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{g_i(x)}$ is a monotonically increasing sequence. The proofs of these characteristics are presented in detail in Fiacco and McCormick (1968).

Intuitive Concept of P Function

The problem is now transformed from a constrained one to an unconstrained problem which can be solved by any of the search techniques. This can be explained as follows:

The term $r_{K} = \frac{m}{2} \frac{1}{g_{1}(x)}$ in P function of Equation (2) can be considered as a penalty factor attached to the objective function f(x). By adding the penalty term, the minimization of P function will assure a minimum to be in the interior of the inequality constrained region by avoiding crossing the boundaries of the feasible region. Since the feasible boundary is defined by one or more of the $g_{1}(x)=0$, $i=1,\ldots,m$, the value of $r_{K} = \frac{m}{2} \frac{1}{g_{1}(x)}$ will approach infinity as the value of x approaches one of the boundary lines. Hence the value of x will tend to remain inside the inequality-constrained region.

Computational Procedure

- (1) Select the initial value of r_o arbitrarily.
- (2) Select a feasible starting point $x^{O} = (x_{1}^{O}, x_{2}^{O}, \dots, x_{n}^{O})$. 'If the feasible point cannot be easily obtained, select x^{O} arbitrarily. The computer program can search for a feasible one.

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(3) Minimize the P function for the current value of r_K by using the second order optimum gradient method.
 (4) Check if a stopping criterion such as:

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$$\frac{f[x(r_K)]}{G[x(r_K)]} - 1 < \varepsilon$$
(3)

is satisfied. The solution is the optimal one if the criterion is satisfied; otherwise, go to step 5. The dual value, $G \times (r_K)$, is defined as:

$$G[x(r_{K})] = f[x(r_{K})] - r_{K} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{g_{i}[x(r_{K})]}$$
(4)

(5) Set K = K + 1 and $r_{K+1} = r_K/c$ where c > 1. Repeat the iteration from step (3).

APPENDIX C

COLLECTED DATA

Cl - Operating and Maintenance Cost

C2 - Performance of the Plants

C3 - Calculation of Index Numbers

TABLE C1(1)

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Total Operating and Maintenance Costs For Municipal Wastewater Treatment Plants - 1975.

	137	
Other Transactions	8783 8783 15501 1680 2804 269 2038 17186 32760 351 2315 2315	
Total Chemicals And Utilities And Other Supplies	31852 31852 12031 201873 52720 81027 10124 10124 10124 10615 14406 33386 33386 33386 4404 45285 4404 117133 117133	
Total Repair And Maintenance And Other Services	10020 5432 5432 114538 7733 91020 151 14444 4558 4558 4558 23537 23537 5107 11197 11197 11197 11197 11197	
Total Transportation And Communication	1591 1439 1439 1455 1455 3828 3828 1455 1080 1080 1079 2926 2175 2175 2175 1141	-
Total Salaries And Employee Benefits	36969 285624 285624 285624 64076 107730 333461 333461 333461 333592 17422 17422 17422 17422 17422 17422 17422 17422 17422 129528 1295283 1295283 1295283	dollars
Grand Total	80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80	are
Plant. Site		N.B. All units

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	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	138	``
•	Other Transactions	3105 835 3045 737 737 737 737 737 737 737 737 737 73	
\$	Total Chemicals And Utilities And Other Supplies	28469 47144 15287 17922 17922 5856 32856 32856 32856 177098 177098 177098 133707 17500 133707 133707 133707 133707 133707 133707	
,	Total Repair And Maintenance And Other Services	8243 5416 5416 2874 2874 2109 2109 2109 2109 17532 17532 17532 17532 13948 13943 13943 13943 13943 13943 13943 13943 13943 13943 13943 13053 13043 13043 13055 13055 13055 13055 100555 100555 100555 1005555 1005555 1005555 10055555 100555555	
-	Total Transportation And Communication	1339 1079 1079 177 177 1883 177 1883 1873 1889 1889 1889 1889 1889 1889 1889 188	
- - -	Total Salaries And Employee Benefits	29388 72903 26540 26540 29982 16718 30369 30369 187256 187256 38442 38442 38442 38442 17665 187256 17665 17665 107495 107495 25612 25014	-
CONTINUED	Grand Total	127558 45780 45780 50306 50306 74592 74592 118902 866300 341959 118902 88630 38132 122443 122443 122443 122443 122443 177549 177549	
Table Lu(1) CO	Plant Site	Sturgeon Falls Valley East Point Edward Port Dover Espanola Prescott Trenton Chatham Ingersoll St. Mary's Tillsonburg Van Astra Wallaceburg Brantford Galt Preston Delhi	

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Table Cl(1) Continued

TABLE C1(2)

Total Operating and Maintenance Costs for Municipal Wastewater Treatment Plants - 1976 &

	ı ———	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
	Other Transactions	860 1834 1834 825 4582 3088 179 4314 473 3047 3047	•
	Total Chemicals And Utilities And Other Supplies	16898 20074 20074 66525 437313 43729 137313 43729 137313 43729 137313 43759 1563300 78768 78768 78768 1563300 78768 78768 20528 20528	
	Total Repair And Maintenance And Other Services	4652 2302 5215 37520 13681 7372 19768 239554 30855 30855 30855 10191 21749 10191 20164	
	Total Transportation And Communication	1101 1101 1152 1152 1152 1152 1152 1145 1145 114	
-	Total Salaries And Employee Benefits		lars.
	Grand Total	5326 5326 53266 53266 7946 7946 11046 110466 117272 50060 1206057 2006031 10435 10455 100455 100455 100455 100455 100455 100455 100555 100555 100555 100555 100555 100555 1000	s are dol
,	Plant Site	oint Edward ort Dover rescott spanola hatham ingersoll it. Mary's illsonberg an Astra fallaceburg rantford alt reston elhi wunville	N.B., All units

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TABLE C1(2) Continued

Other Transactions	9390 9390 9092 2852 3950 3950 2853 16284 1428 2853
Total Chemicals And Utilities And Other Supplies	25635 19357 58313 58313 192926 18465 28886 13372 28086 13372 26888 13372 26886 13372 26801 52264 52019 55019 55019 55019 44366
Total Repair And Maintenance And Other Services	29989 6918 154037 16514 87071 4577 77449 10309 10309 10309 21570 21570 21570 2123 912 77720 912 5124
Total Transportation And Communication	1082 431 431 869 4869 4889 4889 12655 3035 2599 2300 2300 2300 1149 1149 15107
Total Salaries And Employee Benefits	34122 34122 308387 308387 36059 121217 34863 3478 49637 50703 49637 76443 166023 166023 157006 47053 56069
Grand Total	90328 50515 668682 151755 325801 55170 72308 42277 72837 100494 77726 333530 151942 151942 151942 15561 355286 151942 15561 151942 155561 355286
Plant Site	Caledonia Hagersville Kitchener Simcoe Waterloo Elmira Burlington DL Burlington EG Campbellford Halton Hills Huntsville Belleville Belleville Belleville Kingston Twp. North Bay Sturgeon Falls Valley East

TABLE C1 (3)

Total Operating And Maintenance Costs For Municipal Wastewater Treatment Plants - 1977

		Total Salaries	Total Transportation	Total Repair And	Total Chemicals	•	<u> </u>
Plant	Grand	And	And	Maintenance	And	Other	_
Site	Total	Employee	Communication	And *	Utilities	Transactions	
		Benefits		Other Services	And Other		
{					Supplies		
Point Edward	54322	255	728	3014	16815	1207	
Port Dover	67546	302		2860	· 31719		<u> </u>
Prescott /	79513	ഹ	1722	6887	29341	2105	
anola	42861	e e e	. 849	1772	10408	1700	
Chatham	447057	76	73	. 76146	149193		
Ingersoll	149479	48	63	16309	44199	4852 7	
Mary's	78664	6	02	10472	22886		
Tillsonburg	116697	62374	1919	12416	40056	. 68	•
Van Astra	39739	36	24	1782	8516	2027	
laceburg	216880	71	08	58720	59104	12252	
Intford	573841	96	91	36826	199658	14	
Galt	314736	3561	19	67884	103745	m	
Preston	203572	1 2	39	42405	60178	-	_
lhi	29910	5	2	7961	22448	•	
					•		
N.B. All units	are	dollars.					

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Continued
CI (3)
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Other Transactions					. 6030		6358	1856	•	2841	11711	ഹ	04				18347	7953	3227
Total Chemicals And Utilities And Other Supplies	18864	18213	24144	16509	268944	60321	130688	14239	24806	20305	49657	43619	137775	58401	8080	36609	115260	39940	36
Total Repair And Maintenance And Other Services	17401	8883	39	5130	219238	38963	91253	6744	12356	9619	• 25660	10410	73793	27531	473	6321	с С	7	843
Total Transportation And Communication	1196	1221	2606	561	5025	182	. 10519 .	6746	481	2132	3342	6029	- 1092	2258	1040	1124	7575	1000	1741
Total Salaries And Employee Benefits	55624	31164	41476	23525	337149	76241	123927	36051	43650	50648	76037	53077	164649	79409	551	24	194	41355	73445
Grand Total	117062	59481	75616	44603	836386.	175343	362745	65635	81233	85546	166407	116687	400354	167599	25110	87297	398466	101191	156464
Plant Site	Dunnville	Fergus	Caledonia	Hagetsville	Kitchener	Simcoe	Waterloo		Burlington DL	Campbellford	Halton Hills	Huntsville	Belleville	Kingston Twp.	Sidney Twp.	Trenton	North Bay	Sturgeon Falls	Valley East

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TABLE C2(1)

Plant Loading and Performance For Municipal Wastewater Treatment Plants - 1975

Hydrauli
Averade Dailv
MGD
0.27
0.84
0.47
0.90
. 2.2
4.4
. 0 . 1
0.45
0.87
0.17
0.82
10.1
1.5
6E 0
0.93
0.67
14.6
1.9
5.8
0.52
1.80
1.1
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TABLE C2(1) Continued

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•	•	
Load	Effluent mg/l	5.24 7.22 7.24 7.22 7.24 7.22 7.22 7.22 7
Phosphorus Load	Influent mg/l	7.4 7.7 7.7 7.7 7.8 3.1 8.7 6.7 6.7
đ.	Po4 1b/đay	73.80 203.45 122.87 644.36 136.91 4.33 1.12.7
Organic Load	Reduction Percentage	0.91 0.85 0.86 0.86 0.86 0.88 0.88 0.88 0.88 0.88
Orgar	BOD lb/day	320 1300 3500 2000 6000 3400 3400 8300 790 360
Hydraulic Load	Average Daily Flow MGD	0.35 1.0 2.0 7.1 0.14 0.14 0.34 0.34 0.38
	Plant Site	Huntsville Markham Newmarket Richmond Hill Belleville Kingston Twp. Sidney Twp. Nickel Center North Bay Sturgeon Falls Valley East

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Plant Loading and Performance for Municipal Wastewater Treatment Plants - 1976

•	• , •					-				•		••							
Load	Effluent mg/l	2.7 1.0	1.7 3.8		1.3 1.3	•	•	•	1.2	•	٠	•	1.3			1.3	- 0.4	1.2	•.
Phosphorus Load	Influent mg/l	16.4 6.8	4.1 6.2	14.4	۰. 4.9	7.3		٠	ه س م	٠	•	4.4	•	٠	•	•	5.8	•	
I	Po4 1b/day	68.69 74.6	38.44 29.68	4.9	1.5 1	6.2	4.7	51.86	ച	106.81	7.7		8.5	2.6	4.3	36.8	2	~	
Organic Load	Reduction Percentage	90	0.62 0.65	6	0.95 0.97	<u>б</u>	æ '	<u>م</u> ،	<u>,</u> ,	ം	0.92	۰	۰,	0.85	°.	0.86	۰	0.95	
Orgai	BOD 1b/đay	600 2700	6000 600	0006	2000	800	70	1300		8000	500	· 1100	1000	400	200	33000	4200	13000	
Hydraulic Load	Average Daily Flow MGD	0.42 1.1	0.94 0.48		1.2 0.55		0.16	1.0	T.01	1.7	.4	.96		.36		15.9	2.1	6.0	
	Plant - Site	Point Edward Port Dover	Prescott Fenanola	Chatham	Ingersoll c+ Marv's	Tillsonburg	Van Astra	Wallaceburg	Brantford	Preston	Delhi	Dunnville	Ferqus	Caledonia	Hagersville	Kitchener	Simcoe .	Waterloo	

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TABLE C2(2) Continued

	Hydraulic Load	Orgai	Organic Load		Phosphorus Load	Load
Plant Site	Average Daily Flow MGD	BOD Ib/day.	Reduction Percentage	Po4 1b/day	Influent mg/l	Effluent mg/l
a, im Lu	0.57	0006	0.91	33.54	5.9	2.5
Burlindton DI.	1.50	2000	0.92	106.21	7.1	3°3
Burlindton RG	0.86	006	0.88	55.75	6.5	9•6
Cambbe Tford		400	0.65	16.46	1.1	0.9
cumpocritor Halton Hills	2.1	2000	0.85	123.57	. 5,9	2.5
Huntsville	0.32	300	0.88	44.64	14.3	I.3
Belleville	7.9	6000	0.84	323.03	4.1	1.3
Kindston	2.12	3000	0.93	103.6	4.9	1.0
the second s	0.13	80	0.91	5.19	4.0	0.9
NOTTH BAV	6.4	9000	• 0.89	527.7	8-3	1.2
sturgen Falls		1000	06.0	171.14	13.2	2.9
Valley East	0.52	006	06.0	48.75	9.4	6.1

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TABLE C2(3)

1977 Plant Loading and Performance for Municipal Wastewater Treatment Plants -

	Hydraulic Load	Organic	nic Load	1	Phosphorus	Load
Plant . Site	Average Daily Flow MGD	BOD 1b/day	Reduction Percentage	Po4 1b/day	Influent mg/l	Effluent mg/l
Point Edward	0.41	652	•	0.2	•	•
Port Dover	0.66	1900	5.	9.9	•	٠
Prescott Fenanola	0.96	530	0.57	30.16 30.16	ດ ຕ າ ຜ	4.2
Chatham	5.30	9500	ъ.	5.7	٠	
Indersoll	1.12	006T	۰	9.4	•	•
St. Mary's	0.54	1500	۰,	2.8	•	
Tillsonburg	1.01	1100	ġ,	0.5	٠	
Van Astra	0.17	88	،	5.0	•	•
Wallaceburg	0.99	1200	و.	55.2	. •	•
Brantford	9.7	15000	۰.	7.5	٠	
Galt	5.2	8800	م	26.7	٠	•
Preston	1.7	8800	6.	01.7	• '	
Delhi	0.43	540	e e	8.7	٠	٠
Dunnville	0.98	1400	<u>م</u>	•	٠	0.8
Fergus	0.67	770	<u>.</u>	3.4	٠	•
Caledonia	0.29	250		9.5	٠	٠
Hagersville	0.37	380	<u>.</u>	19.9	٠	٠
Kitchener	14.4	33000	<u>•</u>	.	٠	1.1
Simcoe	2.3	5000	<u>و</u>	89.8	٠	٠
Waterloo	5.9	13000		53.0	٠	

Continued	
C2 (3)	
TABLE	

1	· .													1
oad	Effluent mg/l	2 5	1.0	1.1	1.7	1.3	0.7	1.7	1.0] ;	1.1	0.6	7.3	
Phosphorus Load	Influent mg/l	6.5	5,9	2.9	6.2	7.1	6.0	5.6	4.8		6.4	с. С.	8.7	
	Po4 1b/day	35_65	94.15	35.0	148.4	25.49	424.85	134.04	5.74		440.41	49.37	. 88.5	
Organic Load	Reduction Percentage	0 93	16.0	0.88	0.93	0.89	0.89	0.87	0.75	0.84	0.84	0.90	0.87	
Organ	BOD lb/day		2300	834	2900	380	9500	3800	64	3500	10000	1100	1300	
Hydraulic Load	Average Daily Flow MGD	2 2 2		1.21	2.4	0.36	7,1	2.4	0.12	3.28	6.90	1.50	1.02	
	Plant Site		ם דיוורק מטלאמין (אוום	ramphellford	Halton Hills	Huntsville	Belleville	Kingston Twp.	Sidney	Trenton	North Bav	Sturgeon Falls	Valley East	

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TABLE (C.3)

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THE DATA USED FOR CALCULATING THE INDEX NUMBERS FOR MAINTENANCE AND OPERATING COSTS OF THE MUNICIPAL WASTEWATER TREATMENT PLANTS

			:						14	9		_	·																
	er	77		Ч -	Ч	1	н	Ч	1	٦	Ч	н т	Ч	Ч	Ļ	Ļ	н	Ч	Ч	Н	ŗ	-	ņi	Ч			- -	Ч	г
	Index Number	. 76			1.22 I	0	N.	Γ.	2	٩.	7	σ	æ	m	2	1.15	×	-	1	9.	ະຄຸ	"	0	Ч.	9		Ч.	4	L.
	Inde	75	1.3		1.27				(N •	Γ.	4	- -		•	<u>-</u>	<u></u>	2	2	<u>ه</u>	5	4	5	2	2	-	2	4	2	1.38
	977	Design Capacity MGD	4.5	2	0.85	•	ч.	٠	•	•	•	•	٠	•	. · •			•			0	50	8	2.24	Ч.	ω		2.5	
	19	Annual Cost	44705	947	78664	1669	688	7384	1476	0357	599]	706	948	561	16	538	7534	L29	554	6640	568	0171	0035	6759	11	9846	19	5646	
	976	Design Capacity MGD	4.5	·2	0.85	•	•	•			•		•							υ.	.	·	8	2.42	г.	8		2.5.	-
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STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF THE COST MODEL

APPENDIX D

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STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF THE COST MODEL

The proposed cost model has been transformed into a Log-Linear form before the direct ordinary least-square method was applied to estimate the parameters of the model β_0 , β_1 , β_2 and β_3 . The estimation process was carried out using the General Linear Model (GLM) computer routine, which was developed at North Carolina State University (1976), and which is part of the SAS (Statistical Analysis System) Library. The procedure uses the principle of the least squares to fit a fixed effect linear model to any type of data.

The statistical results of the GLM procedure are exhibited in the following three tables. Table D.1 exhibits the parameter values of the model and the statistical 'T' test for the estimated mean value of each parameter. The null hypothesis of the test is:

 H_0 : $\beta_j = 0$; j = 0,1,2,3that is, the estimated value of the parameter, β_j does not differ significantly from zero. The test rejects the null -hypothesis for β_0 , β_1 , and β_2 at a high level of significance ($\alpha = 0.01$), but accepts the hypothesis for the third parameter β_3 at $\alpha = 0.1$

Table D.2 indicates the results of the 'F' test for the individual effects of the variables in explaining the model. The three variables \overline{Q} , (X * WB), (Z * WB) are shown to be significant in explaining the model.

Table D.3 indicates the combined effect of the three independent variables as a whole is shown to be highly sig-

nificant (at $\alpha = 0.001$) to explain the model. The third variable, the amount of treated phosphorus (Z * WP), has a small coefficient value, β_3 , as indicated by the 'T' test. However, the variable itself is highly significant in explaining the model, as it indicated in Tables D.2 and D.3. It was decided, therefore, to keep the third variable in the model.

Table D.1

k

Parameter Estimates and the Statistical Significance Model For $c = e^{\beta 0} * Q^{\beta 1} * (XB*WB)^{\beta 2} * (XP*WP)^{\beta 3}$

Ś of Estimate STD Error 0.4535 0.0668 0.0668 0.0955 • $\Pr\left\{\frac{\beta-0}{\alpha} > |T|\right\}$ ∼ 0.3078 0.0091 0.0001 0.0004 : . T Value For $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ 1.03 22.30 3.66 2.66 الحباد Estimate 10.1125 0.3495 0.1778 0.0685 , . Parameters β2 β₀ в Э β

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Table D.2

The ANOVA Table for Individual Effects of Model's Parameters

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	PR F	0.0001	0.0008	0.0004		
	F Value	367.57	12.08	13.39		
	Mean Square	52.39122	1.7216	1.9085	0.142533	
	Sum Of Squares	52.39122	1.7216	. 1.9085	13.6831	69.7046
. 'a	ен. С		-	 	96	,
	Source Of Variation	۱۵	XB*WB	XP*WP	ERROR	CORRECTED TOTAL

Table D.3

The ANOVA Table for Combined Effect of Model's Parameters

	, 	-		
	PR F	1000.0		
	F Value	131.01	•	
· (Mean Square	18.6780	0.1425	•
	Sum of Squares	56.02140	13.6831	69.7046
	D.F.	m	96	66
	Source of Variation	Model's Parameters	Error	Corrected Total

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APPENDIX E

DESCRIPTION OF THE COMPUTER PROGRAM

- (1) Program Description
- (2) Flow Chart
- (3) Program List
- (4) Program Set-Up and Results For Example (1)
- (5) Program Set-Up and Results For Example (2)

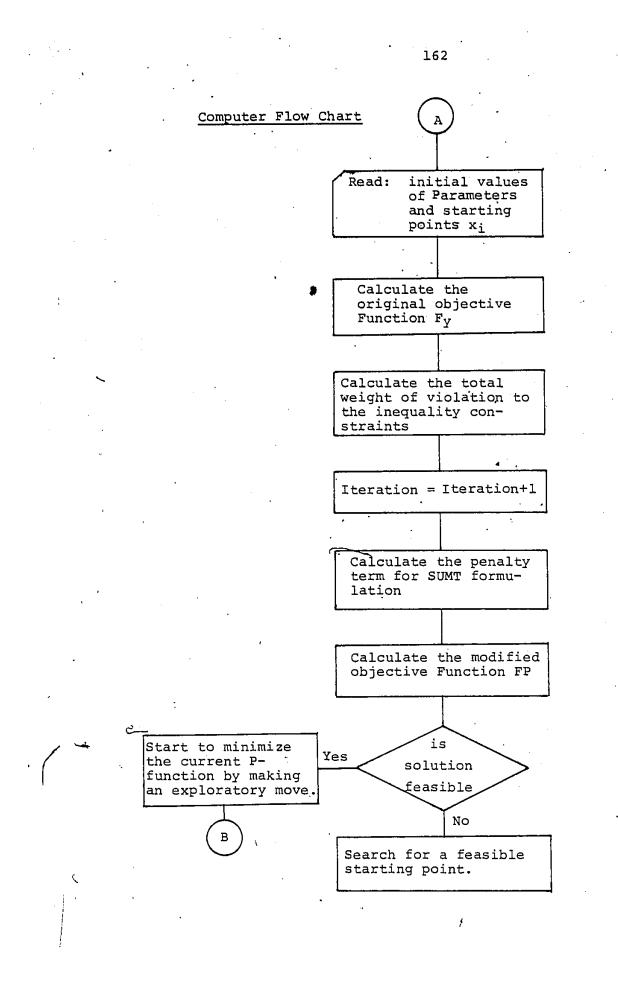
DESCRIPTION OF THE COMPUTER PROGRAM

The computer program used in this study has been developed to determine the optimal charge rates as well as the optimal treatment configuration at each source of pollution. The computer program consists of a main program, three special-purpose subroutines, and five user-supplied subroutines. The main program contains the optimization algorithm, which is based on the search developed by Hooke and Jeeves (1961). It performs the minimization procedure on the unconstrained objective function, supplied to it by the SUMT procedure. The following three special-purpose subroutines transform the constrained optimization problem into an unconstrained one:

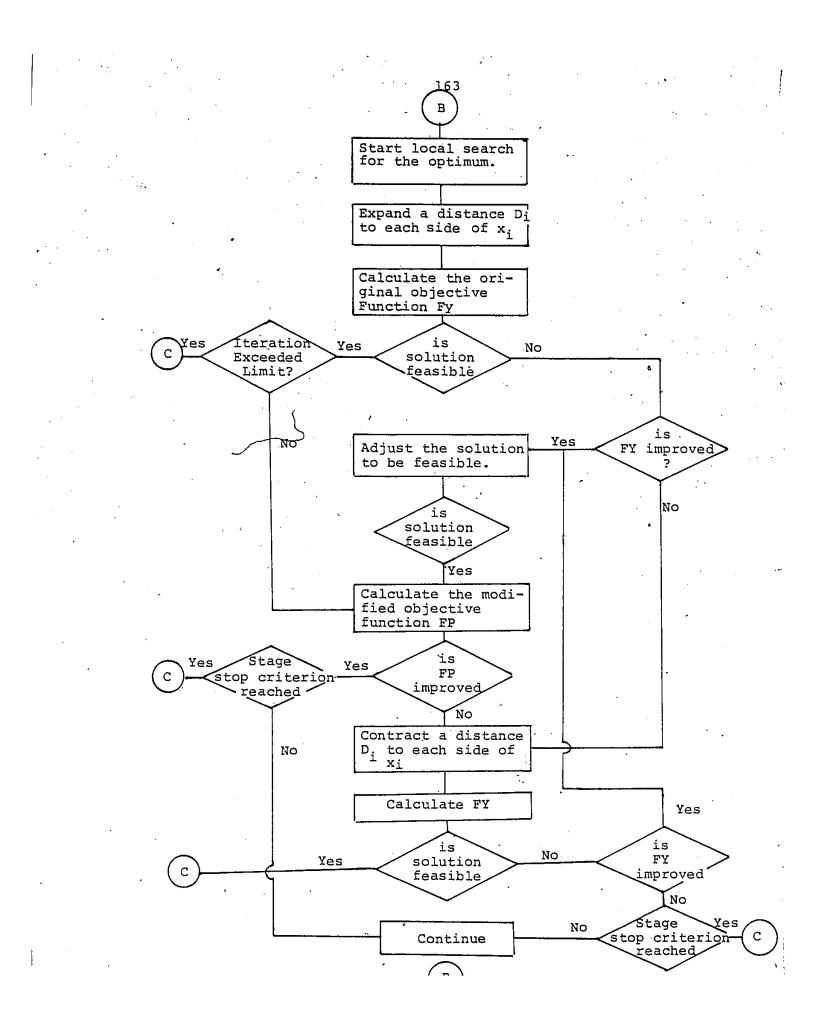
- SUBROUTINE WEIGH is used to compute, for the initial solution, the total weigh of violation to the inequality constraints. The weigh is used to adjust the initial solution to be located in the interior of the constrained region. The search procedure for the global minimum, therefore, starts at a feasible point.
- (2) SUBROUTINE PENAT is used to calculate the penalty term for the modified objective function in the SUMT for-/ mulation.
- (3) SUBROUTINE BACK is a huristic program used to pull the current infeasible solution back into the feasible region during the search procedure.

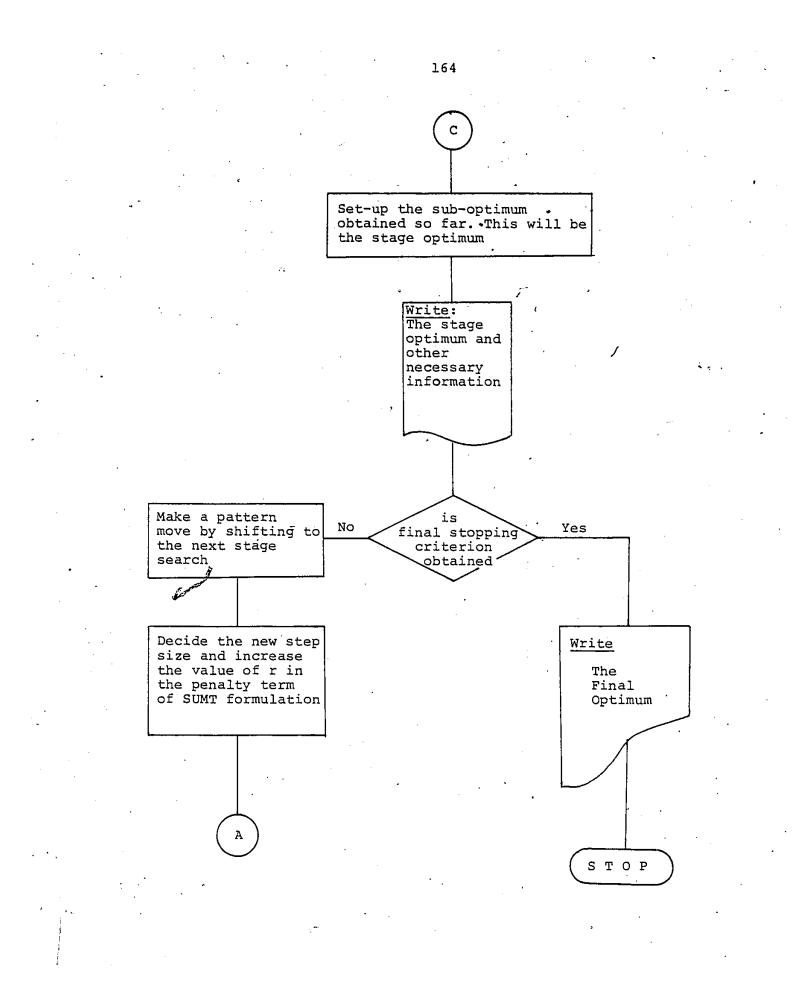
The five user-supplied subroutines are:

- (1) SUBROUTINE READIN which reads any additional data necessary for the computation purpose.
- (2) SUBROUTINE OUTPUT which is used to print out any additional information at any stage of the search procedure.
- (3) SUBROUTINE OBRES which contains the objective function,F, and the problem constraints G(I).
- (4) SUBROUTINE NUMERIC which is developed to numerically compute the variations of the BOD concentration in each zone, the minimum level of DO concentration and its location in each zone, and the maximum concentration of phosphorus level in each zone.
- (5) SUBROUTINE COST which is developed to calculate both the treatment and effluent charge costs for each pollution source at any zone. The output of this subroutine is directly supplied to the objective function, F, in SUBROUTINE OBRES. The following is the flow chart for the computer program used. The program listing follows the flow chart.



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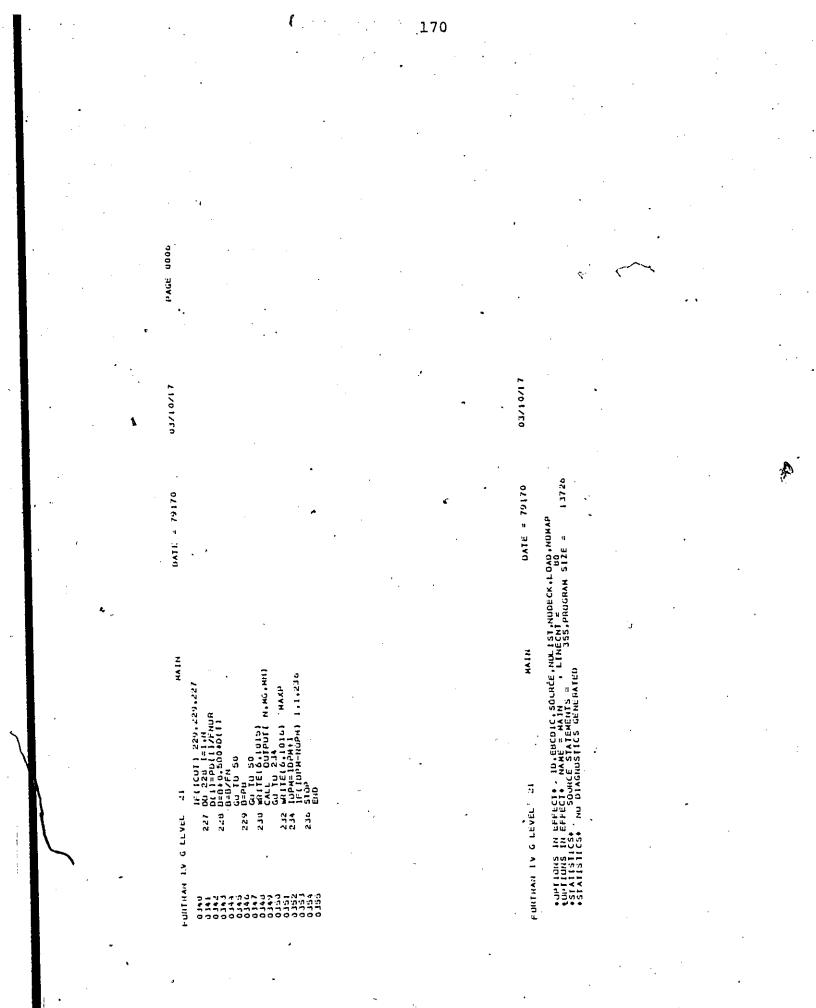
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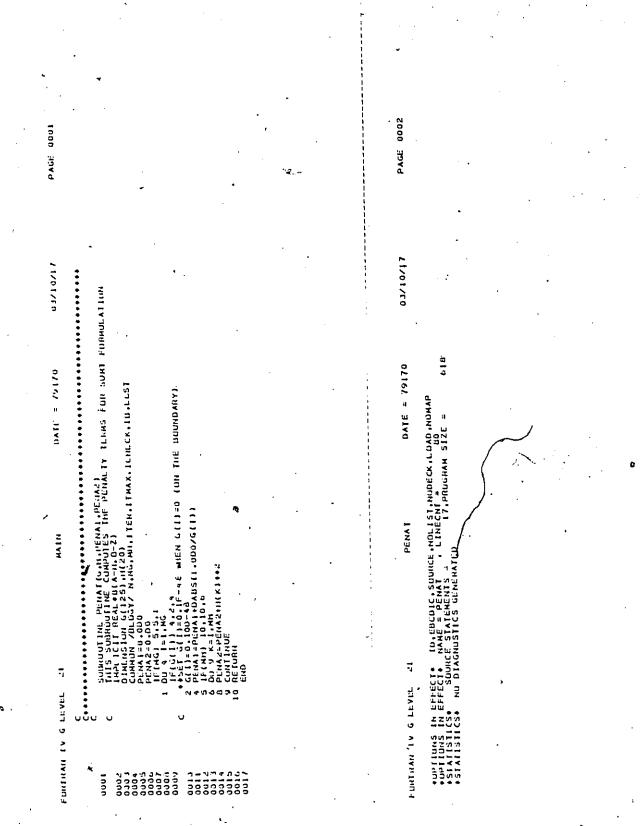
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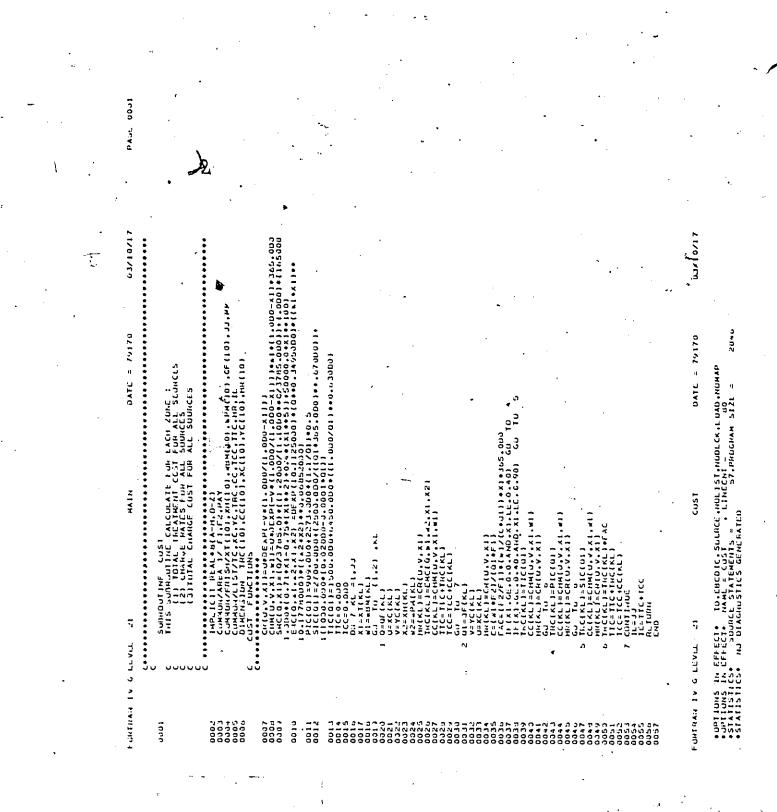
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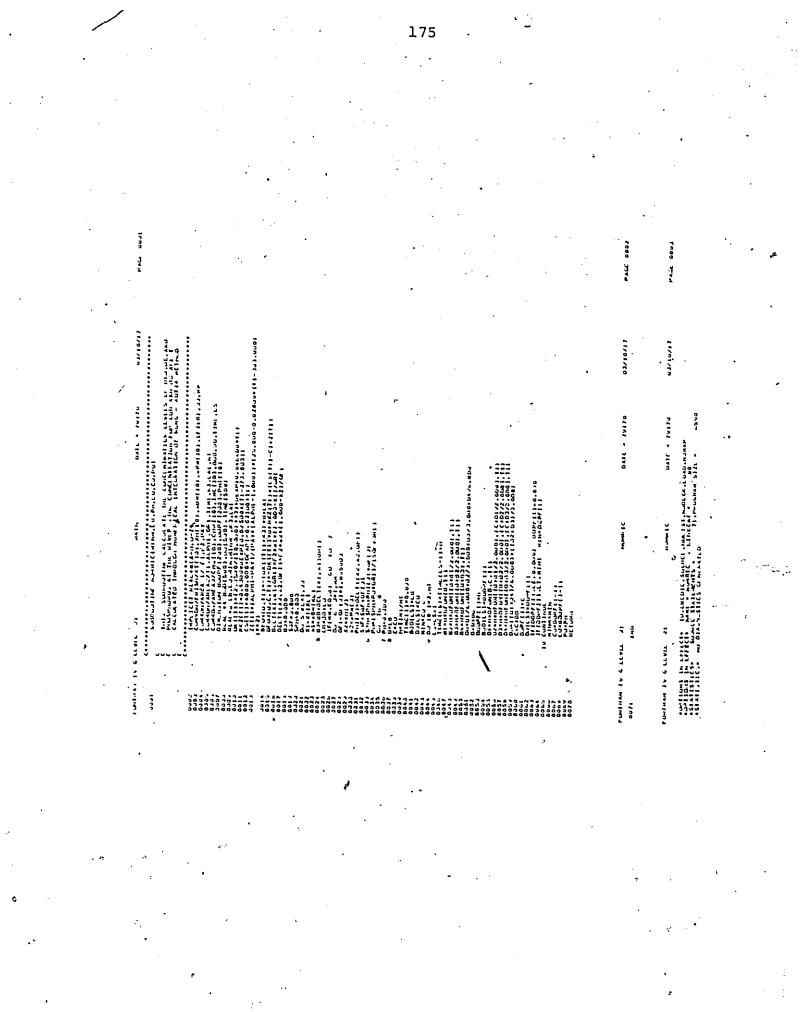


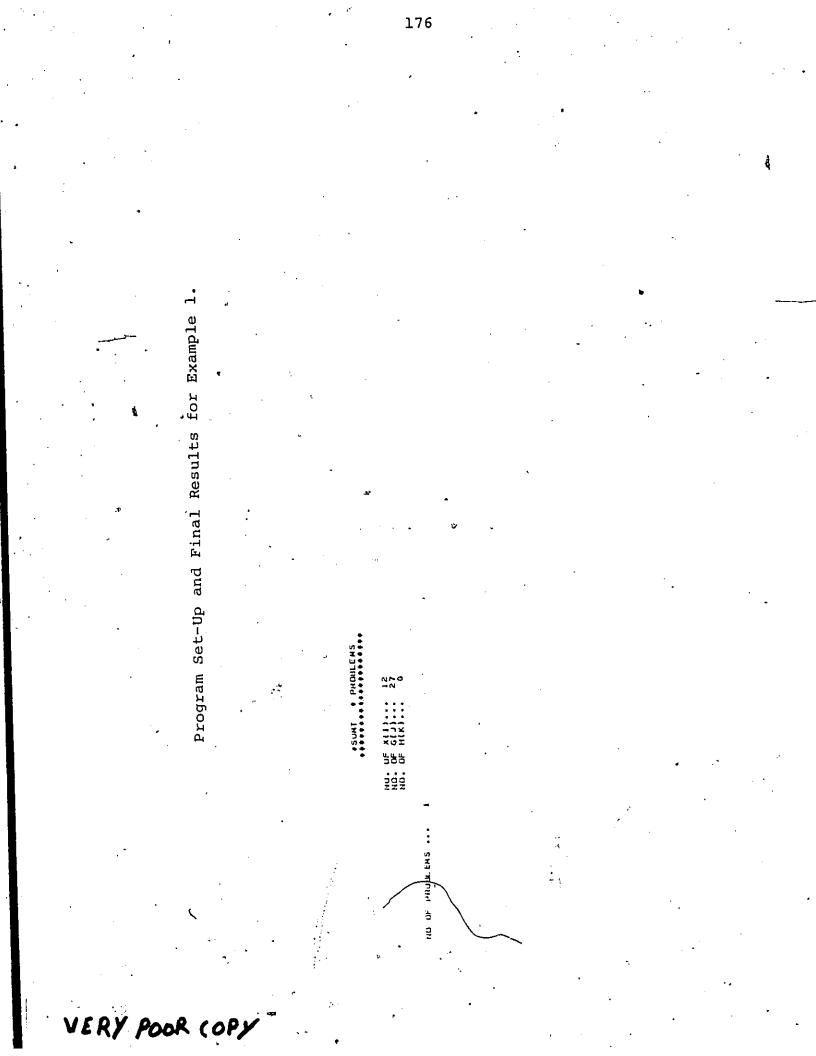
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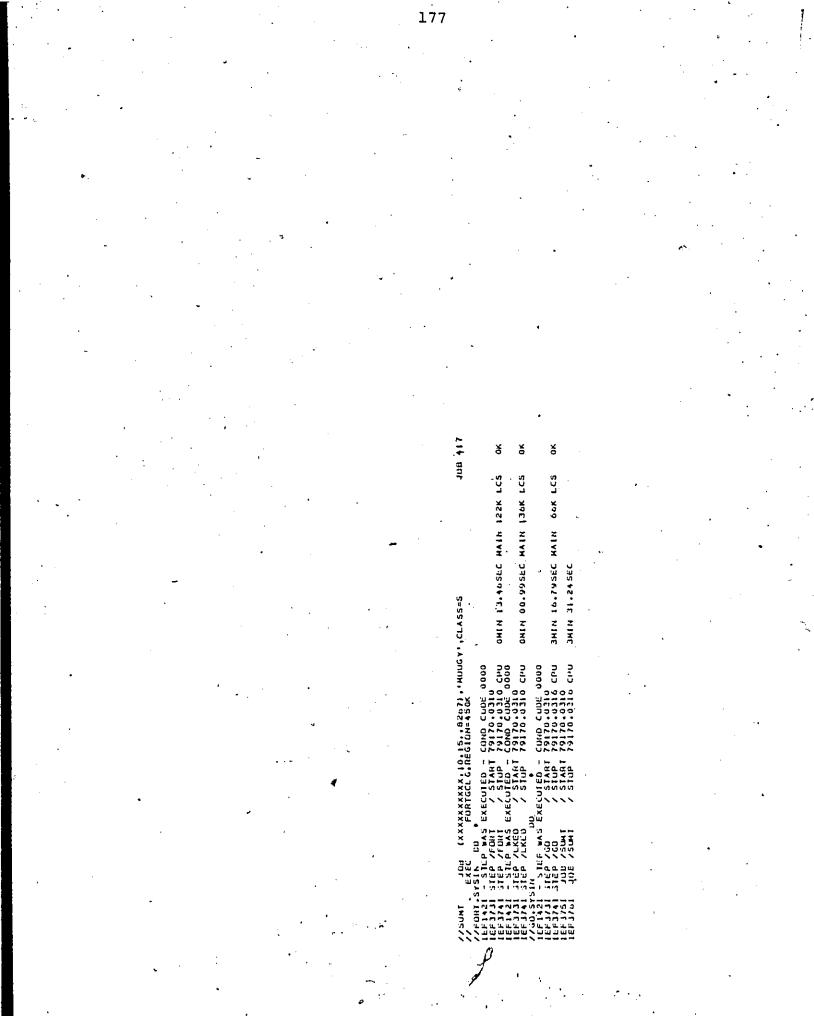
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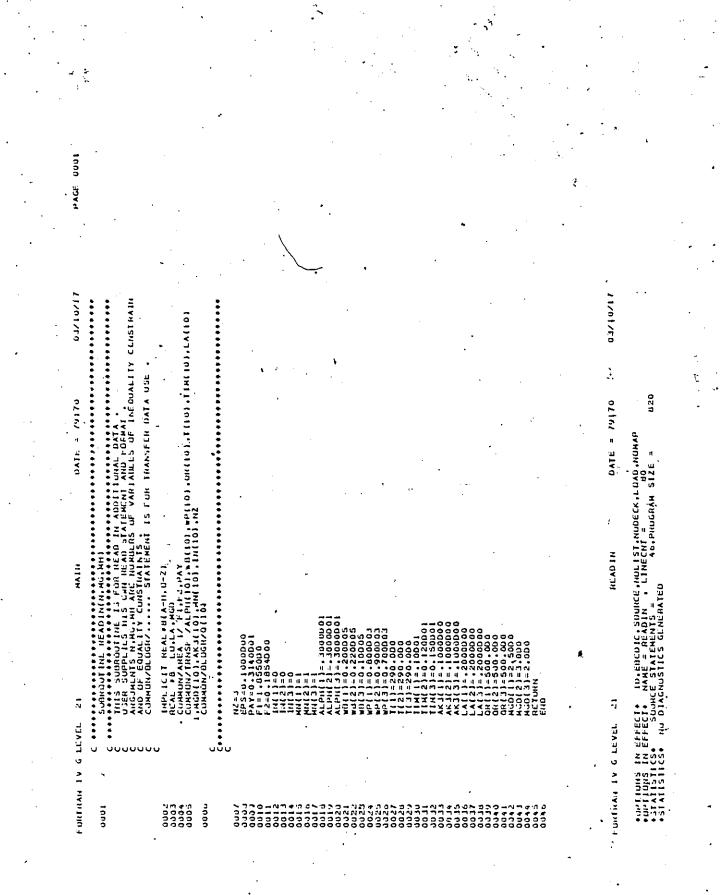
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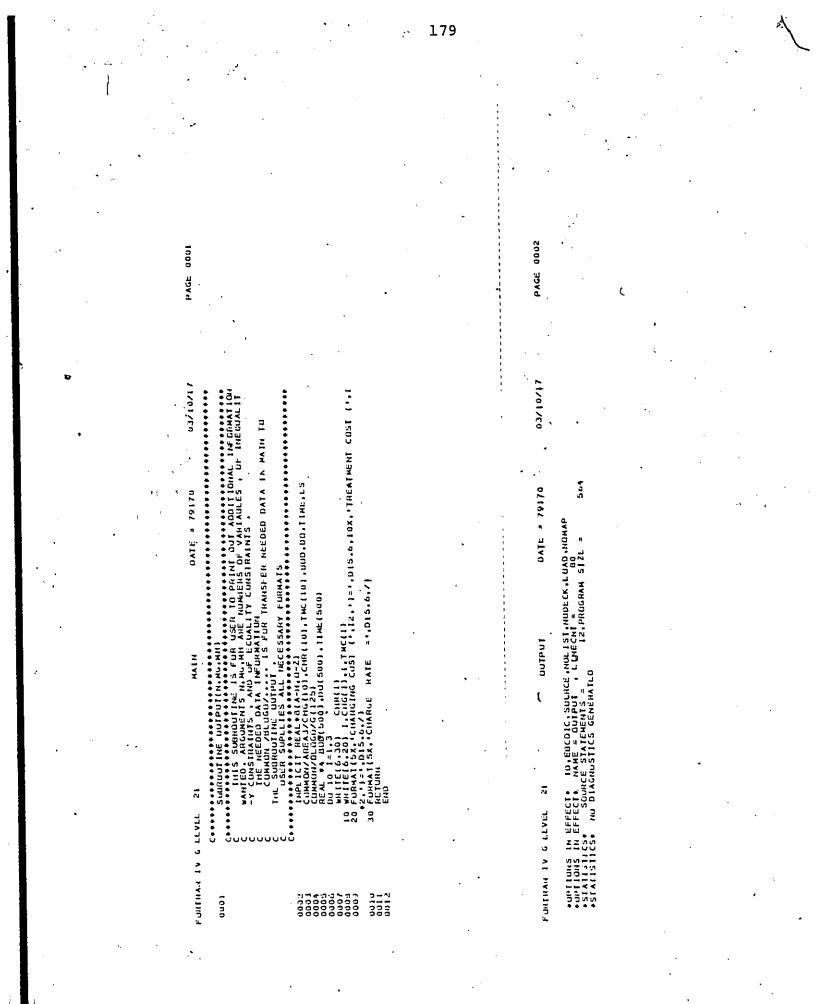








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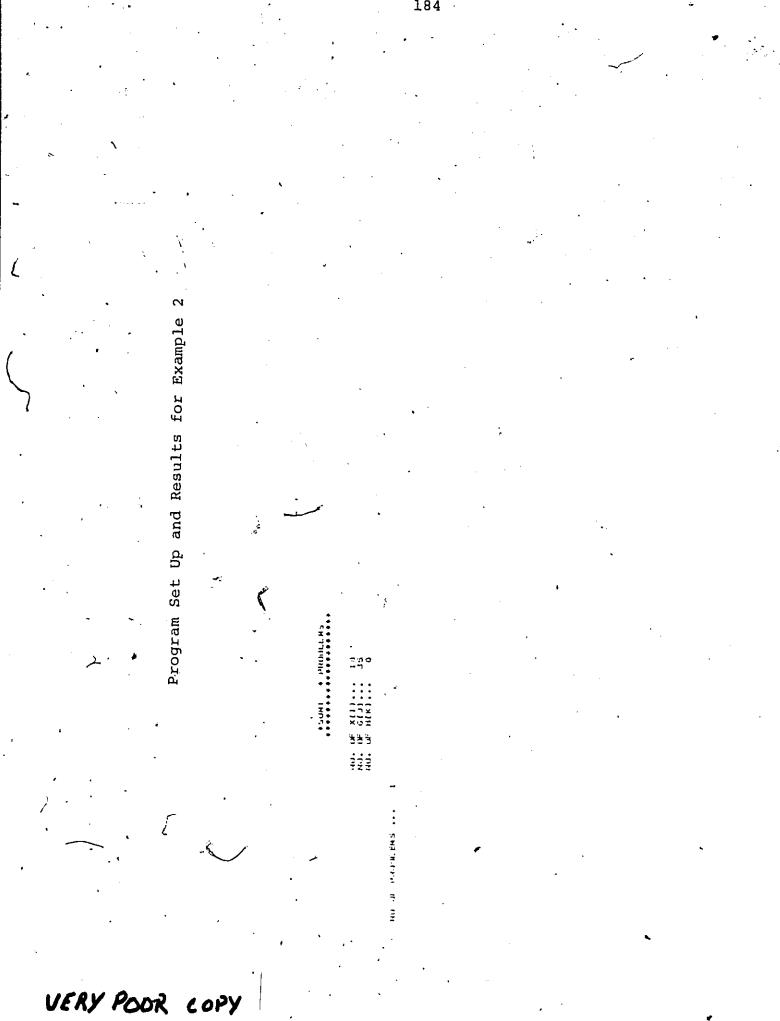
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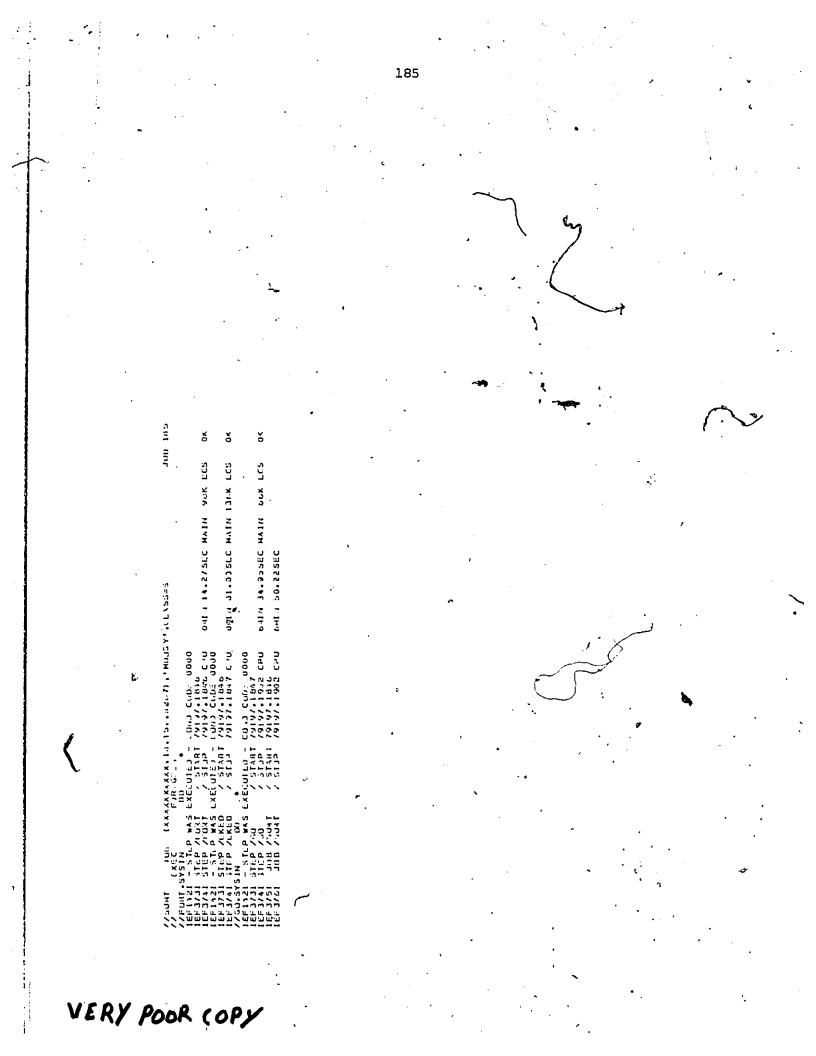
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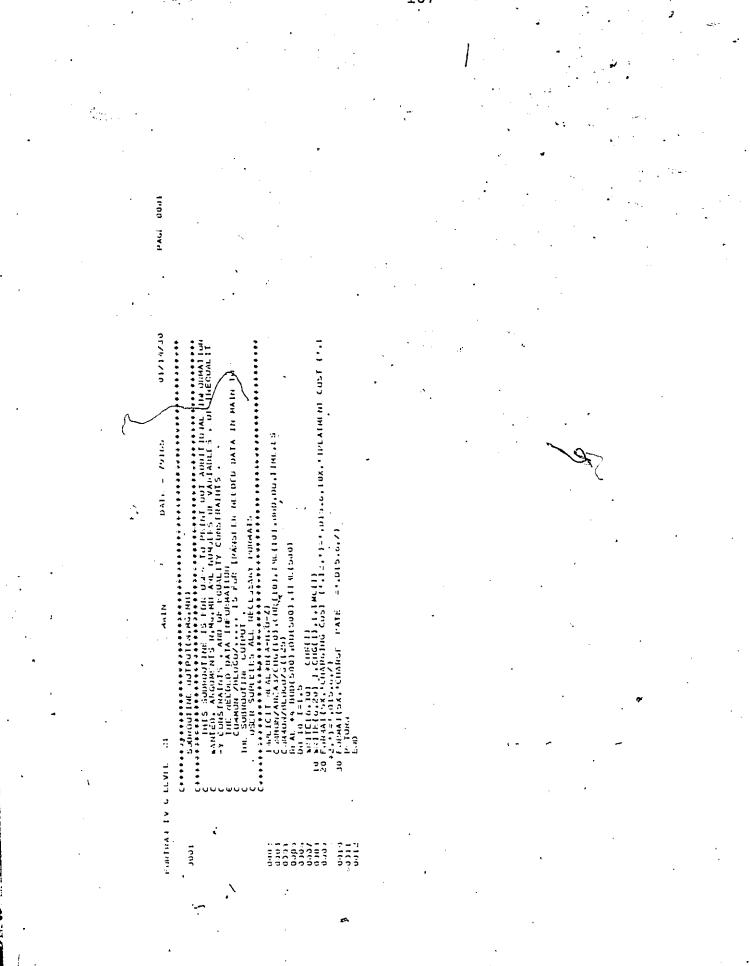
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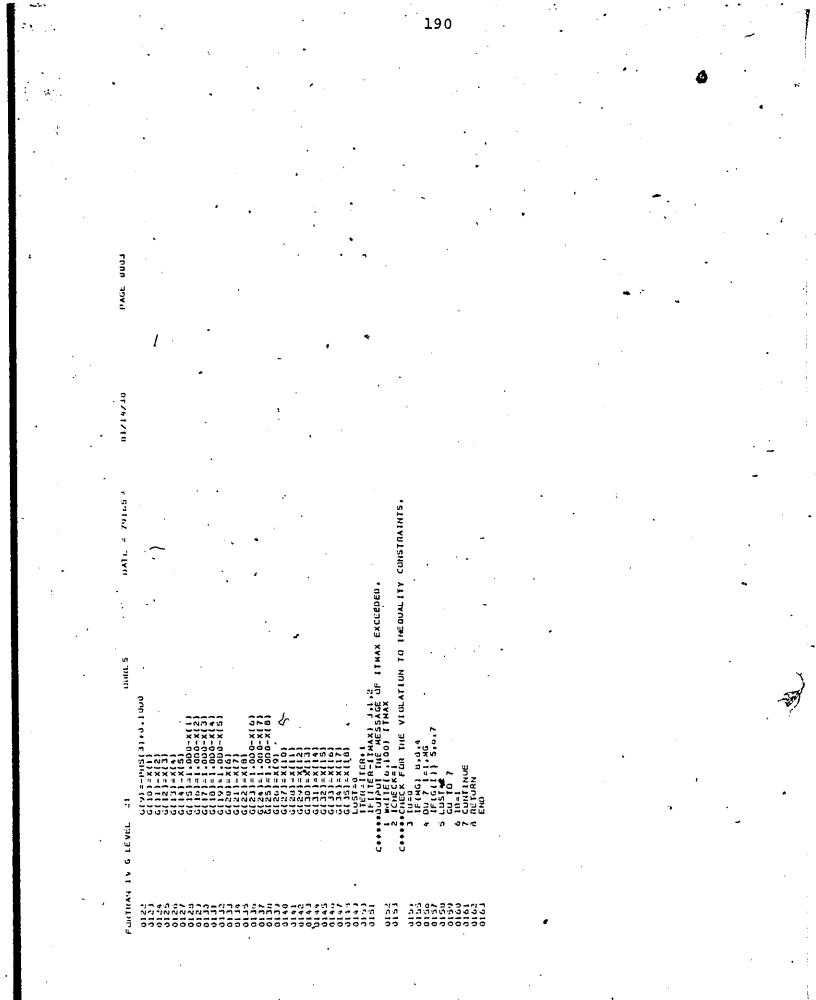


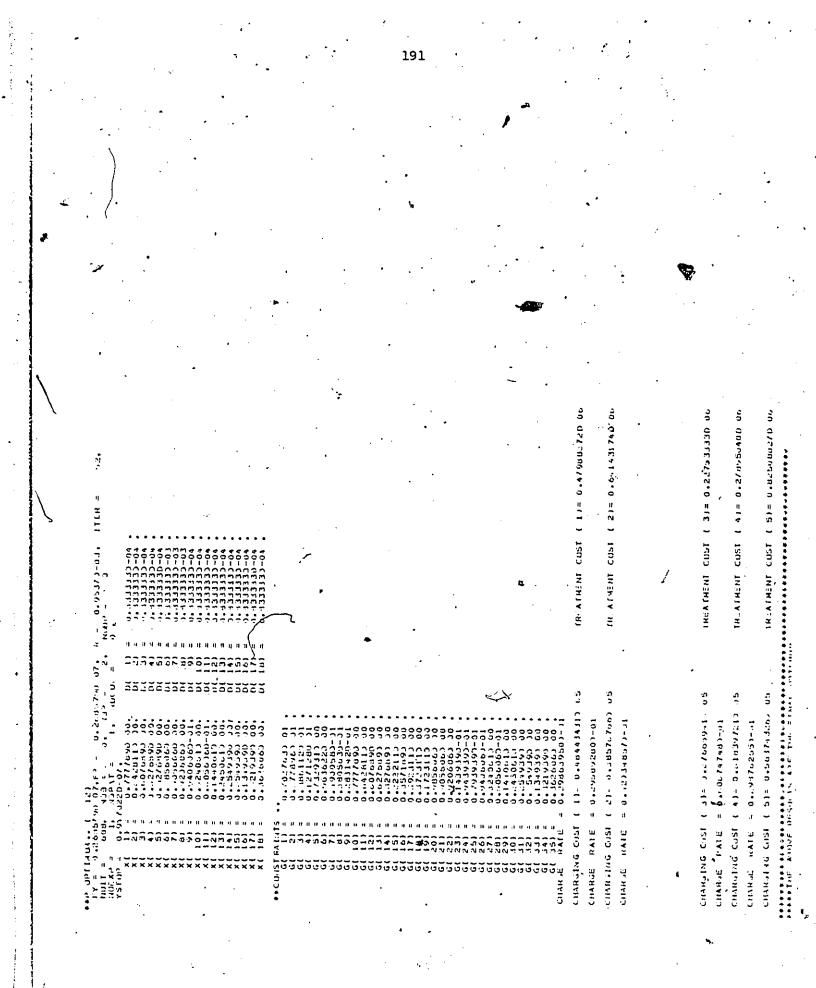
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VITA AUCTORIS

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1946 Born on December 23rd, Mansoura, Egypt. 1968 Graduated from Cairo University, Egypt with Bachelor Degree of Science in Mechanical Engineering. 1968 Worked as Production Engineer at the Imperial British Tobacco Company, Giza, Egypt. 1974 Received Diploma in Mathematical Statistics from Cairo University, Egypt. 1975 Completed Degree of Master of Science in Production Engineering from Cairo Ó University, Egypt. 1976 Held a teaching and research assistantship at the University of Windsor, Ontario. ÷ 1978 Employed as an Indüstrial Engineer, with Pyramid Homes Company, Windsor, Ontario. 1979

Candidate for Master of Applied Science Degree in Industrial Engineering.

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