Predict-then-Optimise Strategies for Water Flow Control

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– Abstract 11

A pressure sewer system is a network of pump stations used to collect and manage sewage from 12 individual properties that cannot be directly connected to the gravity driven sewer network due 13 14 to the topography of the terrain. We consider a common scenario for a pressure sewer system, where individual sites collect sewage in a local tank, and then pump it into the gravity fed sewage 15 network. Standard control systems simply wait until the local tank reaches (near) capacity and 16 begin pumping out. Unfortunately such simple control usually leads to peaks in sewage flow in 17 the morning and evening, corresponding to peak water usage in the properties. High peak flows 18 require equalization basins or overflow systems, or larger capacity sewage treatment plants. In this 19 paper we investigate combining prediction and optimisation to better manage peak sewage flows. 20 We use simple prediction methods to generate realistic possible future scenarios, and then develop 21 optimisation models to generate pumping plans that try to smooth out flows into the network. The 22 solutions of these models create a policy for pumping out that is specialized to individual properties 23 and which overall is able to substantially reduce peak flows. 24

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1 Introduction

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A Pressure Sewer System (**PSS**) is a network of pump stations used to collect and manage 34 sewage from individual properties that cannot be directly connected to the classic gravity 35 sewer network due to the topography of the terrain (gravity limitation). The sewerage 36 gravitates to the pump station and is then pumped through a pressure main to a main sewer 37 and on to wastewater treatment plants. This is illustrated in Figure 1a. A PSS is often 38 composed of intermediate, bigger pump stations between sub parts of the whole network 39 (Figure 1b). Pump stations collect household sewage from a sub part of the network and 40 pump it to the main. Our focus in this paper is to optimise the operation of individual 41 pump stations to balance the overall load at the treatment plant. In this paper, we only 42 consider an existing network managed by our industry partner South East Water. The 43 network that we consider is free of intermediate pump stations. Extending the approach to 44



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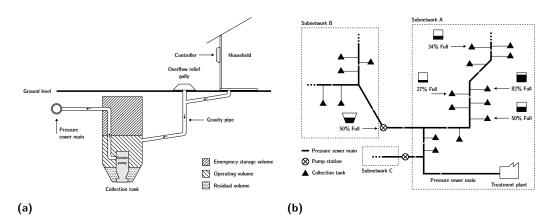


Figure 1 (a) Pressure sewer unit. (b) Pressure sewer network.

handle intermediate pump stations would require adding constraints to ensure the capacity
of the pump station is not violated at any time.

We consider a classic scenario for PSS where volumes at the residential level are released 47 without optimised control. When the collection tanks reach their capacity, water is released 48 entirely into the network. This represents a considerable amount of sewage conveyed through 49 the sewer network that must be handled by the treatment plant, resulting in stress on the 50 treatment processes and increased capital costs of upsized pipe and pump networks. This 51 simple control policy does not make good use of the network. Volumes can be retained 52 in pressure sewer tanks at the residential level and selectively released in a way that can 53 optimise the flows to provide network capacity increases for the current network, and improve 54 operations of the downstream treatment plant. 55

Most of the water usage occurs in the morning and the evening peak loads, when people 56 are home. This results in two, identifiable peaks of activity in the network. This sudden 57 surge in activity represents a challenge for the water treatment processes that follow. Huge 58 amounts of resources need to be deployed at the treatment plant at these times to cope with 59 the volumes to be treated and the associated unpredictability. South East Water would like 60 to flatten the input flow at the treatment plant to achieve greater plant operational efficiency. 61 This is possible by leveraging the buffer capabilities of the collection tanks, assuming that 62 each tank can be controlled individually. 63

Current operational strategy. The water industry has yet to integrate data-driven 64 models and optimisation techniques to facilitate and control their processes in a more efficient 65 and systematic way. Most water companies rely on operators' knowledge and experience 66 to parameterise and control their network. In current operation each tank fills until it 67 reaches its capacity (cut-in setpoint) and then fully (until cut-off setpoint) empties the 68 tank. In a previous approach to tackling the problem of reducing maximum outflows on 69 the network we investigated simply modifying the (cut-in) set points of the tanks to try 70 to reduce homogeneous behaviour but this was not really successful. Without adjustment 71 the tanks quickly reached a steady state where the usual morning and evening peak inflows 72 again resulted in high outflow. Due to the location of the network in a holiday zone the set 73 points needed to be adjusted frequently as usage behaviour fluctuated rapidly over weekends, 74 summer etc. 75

⁷⁶ In this paper we define an optimisation based approach to controlling the maximum ⁷⁷ outflow, by deciding in which time periods to empty the tanks. In order to flatten out ⁷⁸ peaks we need to have some idea of the future inflows into the tanks. Because patterns of ⁷⁹ water usage are quite distinct generating realistic time series of inflows is challenging with ⁸⁰ machine learning models. Hence we use simple historical sampling to generate plausible ⁸¹ future inflows. We show how combining (simplistic) prediction models with an optimisation ⁸² model to determine when to release sewage into the network from individual properties, can ⁸³ substantially reduce the peak flows in the network.

2 Problem Description

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We model the problem of controlling a PSS system to reduce peak flows as a MIP. We 85 discretize the control problem by working over a finite time horizon of n discrete time steps, 86 which for our experiments are always 1 hour long. Note that this discretization is fine enough 87 that none of our historical data has examples where a tank is filled from empty in under 88 an hour. Finer discretization would allow some further reduction in peak outflows, but we 89 expect that we capture most of the possible reduction using 1 hour discretization. The 90 parameters for the water flow control model are shown in Table 1. In each time step we 91 decide whether to empty the tank at a particular site. In the default control mechanism, 92 when we decide to pump out of a tank, we empty it. This has the least wear and tear on the 93 pumping and control mechanism. 94

Table 1 Parameters for the water flow control model.

Description	Parameter
Time horizon	T = 1n
Set of tanks	S
Capacity of tank at site s (cut-in setpoint)	C_s
Minimum amount of water to be pumped out	m
Inflow to tank at site s during time period t	$i_{s,t}$
Tank level of site \boldsymbol{s} tank at the beginning of the first time period	$l_{s,0}$

95 2.1 Direct Formulation

In this section, we propose a direct MIP formulation for the PSS problem, over a given set of tank sites S and time horizon T. The control systems for the tanks have simple functionality, we can (re-)set minimum and maximum tank levels, or initiate a pump out of the tank, but not control exactly how much volume is pumped out of the tank. This leads to the important decision we must make — for each tank s at what times t should it be emptied? $X_{s,t} \in \{0,1\}$. The model makes use of auxiliary variables: $l_{s,t}$ the level of tank s at (the end of) time t; and $o_{s,t}$ the volume of water pumped out of tank s during time period t. The model is:

103	$\operatorname{minimize} \max_{t \in T} \qquad \sum_{s \in S} o_{s,t}$		
104	$l_{s,t} = (l_{s,t-1} + i_{s,t}) * (1 - X_{s,t}),$	$\forall s \in S, t \in T$	(1)
105	$l_{s,t} \le c_s,$	$\forall s \in S, t \in T$	(2)
106	$o_{s,t} = (l_{s,t-1} + i_{s,t}) * X_{s,t},$	$\forall s \in S, t \in T$	(3)

$$\begin{aligned} & X_{s,t} = (v_{s,t-1} + v_{s,t}) + X_{s,t}, & \forall s \in S, t \in T \\ & X_{s,t} = 1 \to o_{s,t} \ge m, & \forall s \in S, t \in T \end{aligned}$$

108 $X_{s,t} \in \{0,1\}, \quad \forall s \in S, t \in T$

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where Equation (1) computes the level $l_{s,t}$ in each tank s at the end of time period t (previous level plus inflows, unless emptied); Equation (2) ensures that each tank's level remains below tank capacity; Equation (3) computes the outflow $o_{s,t}$ from tank s at time t; and Equation (4) ensures that if the tank is emptied there is a minimum volume present (to prevent accelerated wear and tear on the infrastructure). The objective is to minimize maximum outflow across the period considered. Note that each of the constraints, and the objective are linear or easy to linearise.

116 2.2 Packing Formulation

The model above straightforwardly models the problem, but can become challenging to solve as the problem size grows. Next we instead consider the inflow to tank s at time t as a fixed amount of flow, we then decide when this should be pumped out. By precomputation we can then specify simple constraints to enforce that the capacity of tank is not exceeded. This leaves a packing problem, deciding when each chunk of water is pumped into the network.

The tank inflows are aggregated by hours and constitute the items of the problem. We 122 require that the inflows are pumped out in order of inflow. The inflow at time $t, i_{s,t}$, must 123 124 $n, \sum_{t \le i \le t'} i_{s,i} \ge c_s \} \cup \{n\}$) which would mean the tank capacity was exceeded, since no later 125 flows can be pumped out before $i_{s,t}$. Note that we treat the starting tank level $l_{s,0}$ as an 126 inflow at time 0, $i_{s,0} = l_{s,0}$. We can also define the last inflow that must be pumped out 127 in the considered time period, $last(s) = \min\{t \mid \sum_{t \leq i \leq n} i_{s,i} \leq c_s\} - 1$. And for each tank and time define $below(s,t) = \max\{t' \mid t \leq t' < latest(s,t), \sum_{t < i \leq t'} i_{s,i} < m\}$ to be the latest 128 129 time t' such that if the tank is emptied at time t the sum of inflows after it up to t' is too 130 small to empty. 131

The new decision variables $p_{s,t,t'}$ determine the time t' when the inflow to s at time t is pumped out (including the original tank volume t = 0). The model is defined by:

¹³⁴ minimize
$$\max_{t \in T} \sum_{s \in S, t' \leq t} p_{s,t',t} \times i_{s,t}$$

¹³⁵ $\sum_{t \leq i \leq latest(s,t)} p_{s,t,i} = 1$ $s \in S, t \in 0..last(s)$ (5)

$$p_{s,0,0} = 0 \qquad s \in S$$
 (6)

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$$\sum_{t \le i \le t'} p_{s,t,i} \ge p_{s,t+1,t'}, \qquad \forall s \in S, t \in 1..n, t' \in t+1..latest(s,t)$$
(7)

$$X_{s,t'} = 1 \rightarrow \sum_{t \le i \le t'} p_{s,t,i} \ge 1, \qquad s \in S, t \in T, t' \in t..latest(s,t)$$
(8)

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$$\sum_{\substack{t' \le t \le latest(s,t')}} p_{s,t',t} \ge 1 \to X_{s,t} = 1, \qquad s \in S, t \in T$$

(9)

(10)

$$X_{s,t} = 1 \to \sum_{t < i \le below(s,t)} X_{s,i} \le 0, \qquad \forall s \in S, t \in T$$

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$$X_{s,t} \in \{0,1\}, \qquad \forall s \in S, t \in T$$

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$$p_{s,t,t'} \in \{0,1\}, \qquad \forall s \in S, t \in 0..n, t' \in t..latest(s,t)$$

where Equation (5) enforces we pump out each inflow (before last(s)) exactly once; Equation (6) enforces that nothing is pumped out at time 0; Equation (7) enforces that the inflow to tank s at time t is pumped out no later than the time the inflow at time t + 1 is pumped out,

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i.e. the inflows are pumped out in order; Equation (8) connects the emptied variables to the pump out variables by requiring that if tank s is emptied at time t' then each inflow before t'is pumped out by time t'; Equation (9) connects them in the other direction requiring that if any inflow is pumped out of tank s at time t then tank s is emptied at time t; and Equation (10) enforces that if tank s is emptied at time t then it is not emptied again until at least munits of flow have entered the tank. The objective minimizes maximum outflow, computed from the pumped out variables. Again the entire model is easy to linearise.

3 Predicted Water Usage Generation

Online optimisation problems can be augmented with a predictor that informs the model on future instances. Simple predictors can sample the inputs or sample the distribution of the inputs. More complex Machine Learning based predictors can learn from the distribution of the inputs as the online problem is being solved. Research [5, 1, 2, 3] has demonstrated that sampling the distribution of the inputs or providing estimates can significantly improve the quality of the solution. In practice, not all optimisation problems have access to the distribution of the inputs.

We wish to generate water usage predictions for each site. The collected water usage comes from diverse households exhibiting different behavioural patterns. Care must be taken when building a predictor to capture the seasonality and cycles in the data. Because of these properties, building an individual predictor for each site and time instance is unlikely to produce realistic distributions of water usage.

¹⁶⁶ 3.1 Historical Sampling

We use *historical sampling* as described by Bent and Van Hentenryck [4]. This generates 167 samples from past subsequences in the historical data. Despite its simplicity, historical 168 sampling captures the structure of the sequence while providing fast outcomes compared to 169 ML techniques that require training during the online algorithm. We adapt the algorithm to 170 sample historical data while preserving the structural periodic information of our samples. In 171 particular, we "retrieve" a prediction sequence on inflows for tank s for times T = 1..n from 172 the historical data sequence S of inflows for tank s including d days of data, by randomly 173 selecting starting position t' which is the start of some day (since our experiments always 174 commence from the first hour of a day) in S, where S[l..u] returns the slice of sequence S 175 from index l to u inclusive.

Algorithm 1 Historical sampling

1 historicalSample(S, n)

$$\mathbf{2} \quad d \leftarrow |S| \text{ div } 24$$

3 $t' \leftarrow 24 \times RANDOM([0, \bar{d} - 1]) + 1$

4 return
$$S[t'..t'+n-1]$$

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177 **4** Experimental Evaluation

¹⁷⁸ In this section, we present the results of using proposed models on a set of benchmark ¹⁷⁹ instances. The models are implemented in MiniZinc [8], a high-level and solver-independent ¹⁸⁰ modelling language, allowing for fast experimentation across existing solvers (OR-tools,

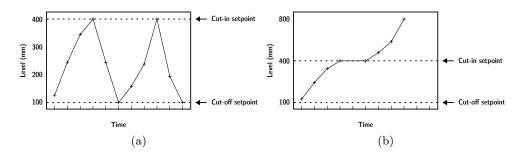


Figure 2 (a) Original level data available from the SCADA system, and (b) the reconstructed level (from where we compute inflow data)

Gurobi, CPLEX) without compromising on efficiency. All experiments were run on the same
machine which has an Apple M1 Pro 3.22 GHz CPU with 10 cores and 16 GB of RAM. All
approaches were given a time limit of one hour per instance. The solver used was Gurobi
version 9.5.2.

185 4.1 Benchmark Instances

The data is provided by our industry partner, South East Water, and corresponds to pressure sewer readings. This catchment has been selected as it is of reasonable scale and is free of infiltration. The data is collected, through a series of scripts, from the SCADA server and corresponds to 3 years (2019-2021) of historical readings from approximately 4200 individual households. A range of attributes can be extracted from the readings; we focus on the water level and pump activation. The network is free of intermediate pump stations.

In order to make different decisions, we first need to rollback any previous decisions to obtain the original system inputs. The tanks are not equipped with water meters to measure the inflows but have level sensors. From the water level, we can derive the inflows to be the difference between two positive consecutive readings. This is illustrated in Figures 2(a) and 2(b). We generated inflow data for each site for each hour of the day in the periods used for instance generation.

We cluster similar sites using the *k*-means algorithm where distance is defined as the sum of absolute differences over their inflow data. We observe the average inflow for each cluster. We determined four identifiable water usage profiles amongst the households: two diurnal/bimodal (with a morning and afternoon peak) and two uni-modal usages (with just a a morning peak), at a time translation respectively. We combined the bimodal and uni-modal sites respectively. The average inflow for each cluster is shown in Figure 4 in the supplementary material.

We created 6 problem instances from our industry partner. These instances represent 205 different levels of complexity. To ensure they are different we choose different kinds of flows. 206 For each instance we pick |S| sites to use, either from the unimodal clusters, the bimodal 207 clusters, or the complete set of clusters. We choose a number of hours n to solve over and a 208 uniform capacity C for each tank. For each instance we create 30 scenarios, corresponding to 209 different date ranges for the actual flow, and generate different historical sampling predictions 210 for each site in each of the scenarios. Details of the problem instances are shown in Table 2. 211 We consider scenarios of 24 and 48 hours length, the 48 hour instances allow water to be 212 kept overnight in the tanks in order to smooth the outflows. We also briefly explored longer 213 scenarios of 1 week but they did not lead to much greater peak outflow reductions than 48 214 hour scenarios. 215

Table 2 Statistics of the 6 difference problem instances giving: the kinds water usages: unimodal (only using tanks that have a single peak in usage), bimodal (only using tanks that have bimodal water usage) and complete (using all types of tanks); number of tanks |S|; number of periods n; and the peak capacity of each tank C.

Inst.	Types of usage	S	n	C
I1 I2 I3 I4 I5 I6	unimodal unimodal bimodal bimodal complete complete	$ \begin{array}{r} 1250 \\ 1250 \\ 1250 \\ 2500 \\ 2500 \\ 2500 \\ 2500 \\ \end{array} $	$24 \\ 48 \\ 24 \\ 48 \\ 24 \\ 24 \\ 48$	$500 \\ 500 \\ 500 \\ 500 \\ 500 \\ 500 \\ 500 \\ 500$

4.2 Alternative approaches to controlling outflow

Because we only have a prediction of the future, the decisions made by the optimisation models may not be implementable with the actual inflows. Thus we implement out decisions as a "policy" for the tank to follow. If $X_{s,t} = 1$ then tank s will empty only if there is sufficient volume in the tank $(\geq m)$, and if $X_{s,t} = 0$ then the tank will still empty if the level would reach capacity c_s . This means that the decisions always lead to operation of the tank within specification. We denote this approach as HS (historical sampling).

The current operational approach and baseline is that a tank s only empties when it reaches capacity. We can understand this as a set of decisions where $X_{s,t} = 0, \forall s \in S, t \in T$, since emptying only happens when capacity is reached. We denote this policy [0, 0].

An alternate baseline strategy is to set $X_{s,t} = 1, \forall s \in S, t \in T$, this guarantees to empty each tank as soon as it has more than the minimal capacity. While unattractive in practice, since it induces significant wear and tear on the pumps, this may reduce peak outflows. We denote this policy [1, 1].

We also consider a random policy by counting the average proportion of pump out periods prop_s for each site s using the baseline [0, 0] policy. We draw a random number in [0..1) for each site, and try to pump out if it is below $prop_s$. The random policy is defined as $X_{s,t} = 1 \rightarrow RANDOM([0..1)) \leq prop_s, \forall s \in S, t \in T.$

Only using a single historical scenario is not robust, although since we are sampling for 234 many tanks, certainly some of the variance of the problem is considered. We can make more 235 robust plans by sampling for each tank s instead k scenarios, and computing the plan that 236 leads to the minimum average maximum outflow across the scenarios (the deterministic 237 equivalent). But the models are already slow, and this would substantially increases solve 238 time. Instead we construct an artificial worst case scenario w, by in each time period defining 239 the $i_{s,t}^w = \max\{i_{s,t}^i \mid i \in 1..k\}$, that is, the maximum inflow over all the k scenarios. This has 240 the same size, and hence solving difficulty, as a single scenario. We denote this approach as 241 WHS (worst case historical sampling) where we use k = 7. 242

243 4.3 Results

The direct formulation while asymptotically smaller, O(|S||T|), is challenging to solve for the size of problem we tackle. On instances with 2500 sites it struggles to find solutions quickly. The packing formulation which is ostensibly $O(|S||T|^2)$ but since latest(s,t) - t is either small, or there are many time periods where $i_{s,t} = 0$ which do not require any pumped out decision variables, the actual size grows as O(|S||T|), and the constraints are much simpler and hence faster to solve. For the remainder of the paper, we only report results for

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Table 3 (Maximum mean outflow/standard deviation of outflow) for each problem instance and method across 30 scenarios.

	[0,0]	[1,1]	random	clairvoyant	HS	WHS
I 1	(13,793/223)	(14, 444/170)	(10,858/204)	(8,596/169)	(8,998/170)	(9,514/173)
I2	(13,793/223)	(14, 444/170)	(11, 408/209)	(8, 110/206)	(8,702/205)	(8, 592/202)
I3	(12,176/254)	(12, 425/217)	(11, 156/236)	(10,859/212)	(11, 387/221)	(10, 877/213)
I4	$(12,176/254) \\ (24,438/303)$	(12, 425/217)	(11,042/239)	(9,717/272)	(10,382 /241)	(10,865/237)
I5	(24, 438/303)	(25, 165/273)	(19,578/284)	(18, 446/261)	(18,793 /276)	(20,309/270)
I6	(24, 438/303)	(25, 165/273)	(19, 225/285)	(17,035/281)	(17, 314/290)	$(17,\!368/287)$

²⁵⁰ the packing formulation.

Our proposed methods are compared against the current operational strategy [0,0] and an alternate base line [1,1]. In order to see how close to optimal we get we also compare against the *clairvoyant* approach which is running the optimisation model with the actual inflow data for the tested time period. This computes the minimal maximum outflow possible.

Figure 3 shows the behavior of the models running on instance I5. The clairvoyant approach illustrates that there is a significant reduction in peak outflow available if we make wise emptying decisions. The historical sampling approach actually gets quite close to the best solution on average but it is clear that the variance is large, often well over the clairvoyant solution. The worst case approach pays some penalty, it is unable to reduce the peak flow as well, but still is not that far from the clairvoyant solution, and its standard deviation is much smaller.

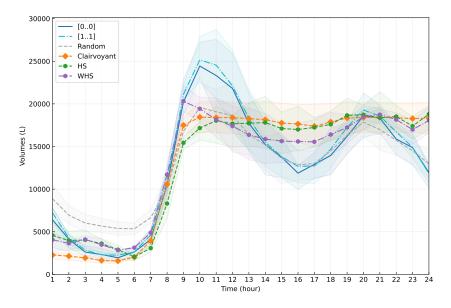


Figure 3 Mean total outflows in each hour of the day for different approaches applied to instance I5. The shaded regions show the 25% - 75% confidence interval, across the 30 scenarios.

Table 3 gives the summary results across the 6 instances. First note that the current baseline [0,0] is much better at reducing mean peak outflow then the alternative [1,1] of always pumping out when possible, but the standard deviation of the second method is much lower. The clairvoyant method shows that there is considerable reduction in peak available compared to the current baseline. The historical sampling optimisation approach

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HS is able to capture much of the available reduction in peak outflow and while the standard 267 deviation is larger than the clairvoyant approach it is not that much larger and considerably 268 better than the current baseline. The worse case WHS approach also beats the baseline, 269 and for some instances can be better than HS, its main strength is that usually reduces the 270 standard deviation compared to HS. The random policy performs well for 24 period instances 271 comparatively to 48 period instances. The HS and WHS approaches consistently perform 272 better at reducing the peak flow when considering larger periods. The random policy is able 273 to use the morning buffer capability of the tanks that is overlooked by the other approach for 274 24 period instances. For larger periods instances, the HS and WHS approaches systematically 275 beat the random policy. This suggests a potential performance gain for CP based approach 276 for larger period instances. 277

278 **5** Conclusion

In this work, we introduced a novel practical problem from the water industry, controlling a pressure sewer system to reduce peak outflow. We proposed a direct MIP formulation and a packing formulation to solve practical scenarios. We provide an extensive experimental study on challenging and realistic instances of considerable size. The results show an optimisation model can significantly reduce the peak outflow of the system compared to the current operational approach.

So far we have only considered the most simple prediction approach, we plan to investigate 285 forecasting models such as LSTM and LightGBM, to see whether they can produce realistic 286 future flows. Ideally we would also extend the forecast to take into account parameters that 287 affect the likely inflows, such as day of the week, season, and weather (the PSS we study is in 288 a holiday zone, so inflow patterns change significantly on weekends, during summer, and when 289 the weather is hot). It would be interesting to investigate Predict+Optimise approaches [6, 7]290 applied to the problem, but seeing that the predictions are for individual tanks and the 291 objective results from considering all tanks simultaneously this appears challenging. While 292 the simple optimisation approach we use here works we also plan to investigate decomposition 293 approaches such as Benders or column generation, since the tanks are only weakly coupled 294 by the objective. As future work, we plan to take into account more of the real features of 295 the network such as the distance of tanks from the sewer treatment plant, the full topology 296 of the network, and the inclusion of intermediate pump stations. 297

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323 A Clusters

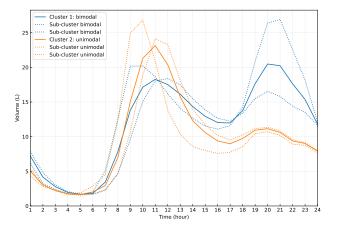


Figure 4 Inflows (averaged) for the two types of flow: unimodal and bimodal. Cluster 1 shows a diurnal water usage (morning and evening peak). Cluster 2 shows a unique morning peak. Each consists of 2 sub clusters where the peaks are time shifted.