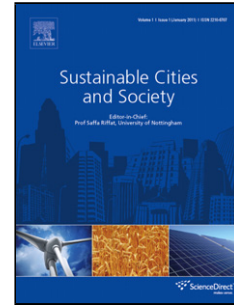


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1 Enhancing water system models by integrating big data

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7 Abstract

8 The past quarter century has witnessed development of advanced modeling
9 approaches, such as stochastic and agent-based modeling, to sustainably manage
10 water systems in the presence of deep uncertainty and complexity. However, all
11 too often data inputs for these powerful models are sparse and outdated, yield-
12 ing unreliable results. Advancements in sensor and communication technologies
13 have allowed for the ubiquitous deployment of sensors in water resources systems
14 and beyond, providing high-frequency data. Processing the large amount of het-
15 erogeneous data collected is non-trivial and exceeds the capacity of traditional
16 data warehousing and processing approaches. In the past decade, significant
17 advances have been made in the storage, distribution, querying, and analysis of
18 big data. Many tools have been developed by computer and data scientists to
19 facilitate the manipulation of large datasets and create pipelines to transmit the
20 data from data warehouses to computational analytic tools. A generic frame-
21 work is presented to complete the data cycle for a water system. The data cycle
22 presents an approach for integrating high-frequency data into existing water-
23 related models and analyses, while highlighting some of the more helpful data
24 management tools. The data tools are helpful to make sustainable decisions,
25 which satisfy the objectives of a society. Data analytics distribution tool Spark
26 is introduced through the illustrative application of coupling high-frequency de-
27 mand metering data with a water distribution model. By updating the model
28 in near real-time, the analysis is more accurate and can expose serious misin-
29 terpretations.

31 *Keywords:*

32 water systems, modeling, big data, automation, Hadoop, Apache Spark, cloud
33 computing

34 1. Introduction

35 The water resources community relies on computer models to conceptualize
36 and reproduce behavior of systems, aiding in planning, design, and analysis.

37 The use of computer models is growing due to the need for deeper insights into
38 water systems and providing sustainable solutions for smart cities [1]. Models
39 are formulated by developing a set of mathematical equations and rules, which
40 mimic the real behavior of the system and decisions of stakeholders, and can be
41 executed in an iterative fashion. These equations represent universal laws while
42 parameters represent local systems. Parameters are typically characterized us-
43 ing averages, probability distributions to specify the likelihood of parameters at
44 different states, and assumptions. Model parameters are updated to best reflect
45 the actual system, often done manually when results deviate from field data.
46 This fashion of updating models is time-consuming. Further, due to the speed
47 at which some spatially heterogeneous variables (e.g. water demands and pre-
48 cipitation) change, it is nearly infeasible to manually update with fine resolution.

49
50 Engineering advances in sensor and communication devices allow for the
51 continuous monitoring of many systems including water systems. The purposes
52 of these devices are to record and relay time series data with high frequency.
53 Pertinent parameters measured by such devices include flow, quality, and stage;
54 all of which are *in situ*. Technological advancements allow many sites to be
55 monitored in near real-time with very little oversight. This type of measure-
56 ment creates so-called big data, which relates to the collection in the data cycle
57 – also including, storage, purification, and analysis of large-size data sets [2, 3].

58
59 The technological advances in acquisition, processing, and storage of this
60 big data, are poised to greatly advance water systems modeling. The efforts
61 to update models in real-time using large datasets require engineering involve-
62 ment and discretization. The typical practice is to acquire and format new
63 data so that model parameters can be updated. This two-step practice is time-
64 consuming, insufficient and may introduce many errors that subsequently in-
65 crease the computational efforts to calibrate these models [4, 5, 6]. In this
66 process, the term *real-time* modeling is overused. Truly real-time models auto-
67 mate the entire process from remote sensing to model output, completing the
68 data cycle.

69
70 The authors describe a more thorough integration of high-frequency data
71 with water simulation models. The benefits and challenges are discussed along
72 with examples of integrating big data and models. This work emphasizes the
73 necessity for the collaboration of industry and academic sectors in developing
74 such processes. A generic framework is proposed for the processing of large-size
75 data, collecting valuable information from data, and furthermore, using data
76 to enhance water computer models. Done correctly, these automated models
77 can form the *nervous system* for smart resource management; addressing the
78 resiliency and reliability of water systems in near real-time. This study envisions
79 the process of integrating big data with models and discussing the challenges
80 along with the benefits.

81

82 2. Big Water Data

83 Big data is systematically characterized with three parameters: *Volume*, *Ve-*
84 *locity*, & *Variety* [3]. Water data possess these three characteristics. Big water
85 data is being generated constantly at unprecedentedly high temporal and spa-
86 tial resolutions by ubiquitous sensors embedded in the environment, from smart
87 water meters in our houses to satellite-based spectrometer in Earth's orbit.

88
89 Millions of smart meters are already deployed, with many more to come ac-
90 cording to the reported projections. IHS Markit estimates that over 2 million
91 units were shipped globally in 2015, and this number is projected to double by
92 2022 [7]. Many utilities are considering or already have plans to install smart
93 meters, such as the City of San Diego, which revamps the master plan to install
94 more than 200,000 meters during the next three years [8]. With these massive
95 number of smart meters and sensors sending measurements of flow, pressure,
96 and many other parameters every second, minute, or hour, water utilities have
97 already begun to have large amounts of data at their disposal.

98
99 Other water resources domains have seen similar trends of collecting more
100 data. NOAA alone generates tens of terabytes of hydro-climatic data everyday
101 day from satellites, planes, ships, and other sources [9], which represents a sig-
102 nificant untapped opportunity for water resources researchers and professionals.
103 To better manage the challenges of collection and analyses of big water data,
104 NOAA established a new National Water Center in the University of Alabama.
105 Further, NASA's Moderate Resolution Spectroradiometer (MODIS) generates
106 new data at 1.2 MB/s rate, the National Centers for Environmental Information
107 stores more than 25 petabytes of data, and water data are generated at diverse
108 spatiotemporal scales by many separate entities, monitoring different variables
109 [3].

110 Advanced technologies facilitate processes to store data [10], to mine big
111 data [11, 12], and to make analytical conclusions about the status quo of sys-
112 tems [13]. To process collected data, database technologies were developed to
113 store relational (e.g., SQL) and non-relational (e.g., Hadoop Distributed File
114 System – hdfs) datasets and execute analytics on data using a distributed and
115 non-distributed computational features. In addition to data collection capabil-
116 ities, machine learning technologies were developed and embedded to facilitate
117 analytical workflows and integrating with cluster computing platforms such as
118 Apache Spark to run analytics at scale [12].

120 3. Benefits

121 Integrating big data into water systems introduces technical challenges but
122 we argue these challenges are outweighed by the following benefits:
123

124 *3.1. Big Data Reduces Model Assumptions*

125 In the most basic terms, big data leads to more information about systems
126 and increase the insight towards the system. Big data can close a number of
127 existing knowledge gaps about the system. In recent years, our understanding
128 about the water systems has been discontinuous such that the stakeholders typ-
129 ically observe systems at the time of planning. Collecting data at the real-time
130 basis using big data techniques enables stakeholders to understand the trend of
131 the systems and make decisions accordingly. Following benefits illustrates the
132 benefit of using big data to reduce model assumptions such as:

133
134 1. The conservation polices and regulations, such as rebate programs and
135 water tariff changes, influence water use behavior of individual citizens based
136 on their social attributes such as income and education. Studies addressed the
137 water conservation policies by understanding the social behavior and creating
138 meaningful statistical and mathematical linkages between water usages and so-
139 cial attributes. Using the hourly water consumptions can remove making unnec-
140 essary assumptions for designing the water conservation strategies. For example,
141 the Singapore's National Water Agency gains insight into the comparative ef-
142 fectiveness of its engagement strategies, ranging from traditional water tariffs
143 to modern gamification methods, by analyzing the high-resolution water usage
144 data collected by its new advanced metering infrastructure [14]. Such insights
145 and business intelligence may not be obtained using accumulated monthly usage
146 numbers provided by traditional meters. Using traditional meters, the utility
147 had to make assumptions about the water usage response of customers to new
148 tariffs. However, with the benefit of the new technology, the utility was able to
149 adjust water tariff policies as the water is consumed to meet water usage goals.

150
151 2. Managing ecological systems requires identifying and understanding underly-
152 ing significant factors, in addition to creating a model to represent the systems.
153 The Great Lakes ecosystem was studied by collecting the wind speed and water
154 temperature accurately. The high spatiotemporal variability and the sparsity
155 of the in-situ sensors [15] leveraged an unprecedented collection of one million
156 unique measurements made by volunteer ships on the Great Lakes from 2006
157 to 2014 to obtain the high spatiotemporal variability and the sparsity of these
158 factors. Using these datasets, they were able to fill some gaps that have not
159 been observed before the study.

160
161 With more data, engineers can reduce model assumptions (such as the ef-
162 fectiveness of water conservation strategies) and better determine boundary
163 conditions (such as the nodal demands in an hydraulic models of a water net-
164 work). These benefits come from three types of high-resolution data: spatial,
165 temporal, and unstructured. High-resolution spatial data (e.g., DEM, LiDAR)
166 allow for the heterogeneity of physical features to be considered. Temporal
167 data aids in the ability to consider variables that are in constant flux such as
168 temperature, precipitation, and user demands. Many models account for some
169 temporal changes using patterns or distributions, but also assume longer term

170 stationarity. These models fail to capture changes in land use, climate, and hu-
171 man impacts [16]. In water systems, physical properties such as pipe roughness,
172 flow (rate and uniformity), and channel depth are in constant flux but are often
173 assumed static. Integrating streaming sensor data into models allows engineers
174 to forgo stationary assumptions.

175

176 *3.2. Big Data Helps to collect social data*

177 In the world of social science, it is a common practice to collect social at-
178 tributes by conducting surveys. What if the social attributes can be derived by
179 processing unstructured data. The unstructured data refers to data sources that
180 are neither spatial nor temporal, such as human-generated data on social me-
181 dia. Use of social media posts as a means of crowd-sourcing, data acquisition,
182 and uncertainty reduction is already under investigation in many disciplines,
183 such as for water quality data crowd-sourcing using the iPhone camera [17],
184 real-time description of urban emergency events [18], earthquakes detection and
185 notification using twitter posts [19], spatiotemporal evolution understanding of
186 super-storms [20]. Social media posts offer the advantages of being abundant
187 and accessible, but their lack of official legitimacy could introduce new uncer-
188 tainties to the models, possibly resulting in misleading results. However, in
189 certain applications, mining social media posts would provide timely, valuable
190 information. Such as in the event of a possible water-related outbreak, when
191 the tracking of observations and complaints posted on social media by affected
192 populations might provide the decision makers with more information about the
193 likelihood, scale, and severity of the possible incident.

194

195 In addition to social media, with the help of Internet of Things (IoT), new
196 information can be collected as sensors measure environmental factors that con-
197 tribute to households and environment. For example, it is foreseeable to collect
198 the indoor temperature to relate with the water usage with. It becomes more
199 plausible to sense the type of water usages in each household by deploying smart
200 devices such as Amazon Echo.

201

202 *3.3. Big data reduces risk and increases resilience*

203 Risk is directly related to uncertainty. Risk is higher in a more uncertain
204 environment, whether this uncertainty be in possible failure scenarios, loads,
205 capacities, or consequences [21]. Therefore, the reduction in the uncertainties
206 achieved by the integration of high-resolution data in models and decision sup-
207 port systems leads into lower risks and more informed decisions. For instance,
208 the use of high-resolution hydro-climatic data resulted in a realistic simulation
209 of the average discharge regime in the Upper Danube [22]. A narrower flood
210 intensity probability distribution derived using more data, consequently, results
211 in a lower, more accurate failure probability for a given flood control system
212 capacity, and therefore, a lower risk [23]. A design study for flood diversion sys-
213 tem of Bakhtiari Dam in Iran demonstrates how the availability of more data

214 enables achieving lower risk for a fixed construction budget [23].

215

216 Big data can reduce risk by revealing system weaknesses and enabling allo-
217 cation of limited resources to the critical weaknesses. In the event of a failure,
218 big data also can accelerate and improve response and selection of mitigation
219 strategy by elucidating the state of emergency and the effectiveness of alternate
220 scenarios to the decision makers. Collection of adequate data in timely fashion
221 leads into a proper selection of response strategy as decision trees are typically
222 developed off-line and require critical data to select the right decision, for ex-
223 ample, to flush contaminated water during a water pollution event, the water
224 quality sensor data are valuable information to effectively flush the network
225 [24, 25]

226

227 During and aftermath of the super-storm Sandy in 2013, Stafford Town-
228 ship, New Jersey, water utility was able collect and analyze real-time data from
229 various smart sensors and gain a critical view of a utility's infrastructure for
230 strategizing recovery efforts [26]. Smart meters, for example, helped the util-
231 ity identify, locate, and repair widespread pipes breaks and leakages promptly.
232 Given the fact that many people still had not returned to their property, this
233 success would have been very difficult or impossible to achieve in the absence of
234 the high-resolution data provided autonomously by the ubiquitous smart sen-
235 sors.

236

237 The Las Vegas Valley Water District provides another example of using data
238 to increase resilience. By integrating real-time, high-resolution data with their
239 water distribution model, they improved response times during planned and
240 emergency outages by reducing the time spent setting the model boundary con-
241 ditions [27]. The hydraulic model is set up with all current operating conditions
242 and pumping schedules and this allows immediate what-if analysis. Emergency
243 outage situations do not conform to the norm of the system, in which the bound-
244 ary conditions of the model (e.g., consumer nodes' demands) are traditionally
245 set to a handful of generic demand profiles. But with high-resolution, real-time
246 data feed integrated with the hydraulic model, a true image of the current sys-
247 tem conditions and its projections under different possible response and recovery
248 scenarios is provided.

249

250 In addition, as rivers may become polluted after storms due to new long-
251 term hydrologic regime, identifying the source of a river's pollution is a great
252 concern for decision-makers. To address this concern in the city of Newburgh,
253 the city benefited from a big data application and was able to characterize 13.1
254 million gallons of overflow at a site over a three-month period by deploying a
255 real-time, high-resolution level monitoring system [28]. Remote field units pro-
256 vided accurate start time, stop time, and overflow volume of combined sewer
257 overflows, reducing the pollution sources uncertainties caused by the combined
258 sewer outfalls being submerged in the Hudson River.

259

260 *3.4. Big data enables advanced modeling*

261 Human populations are in constant and intertwined interaction with natural
 262 and built water systems [29, 30, 31]. A complex adaptive simulation model [32]
 263 that couples the human and water systems, therefore, has the immense potential
 264 to provide a more accurate image of the reality, as have been proven on mod-
 265 eling drinking water contamination emergencies [33, 34], hydrological systems
 266 [35, 36, 37], flood warning [38], amongst others.

267
 268 Relaxing the unrealistic homogeneity, stationarity, and independency as-
 269 sumptions made possible by the complex adaptive models, nevertheless, has
 270 the side effects of the models becoming data-intensive and computationally-
 271 expensive. For instance, in a water contamination research study, simulation of
 272 a single sociotechnical simulation required 600 seconds, whereas a single engi-
 273 neering simulation took 15 seconds [39].

274
 275 The advent of big data analytics platforms and the increasing availability
 276 of high-resolution data helps resolving both of the data and computation chal-
 277 lenges. Researchers have already succeeded to substantially reduce the runtime
 278 of sociotechnical models by using Hadoop clusters; for example, from 42 days
 279 on desktop computers down to just 2 hours for a large-scale socio-hydrological
 280 simulation [13, 40]. Advances in computational social science [41] together with
 281 the increased availability of behavioral data from sensors [42], surveys [43], and
 282 social media [44, 45] enable quantifying heterogeneity in human behaviors in
 283 coupled human-water systems models. Commercial products are already rolled
 284 out by companies like WaterSmart Software and Advizzo that interface with the
 285 public and harness the power of behavioral data for enhancing consumers satis-
 286 faction, water conservation, and beyond. As agent-based modeling has provided
 287 the platform for integrated modeling [46, 47, 34], big data stands to replace the
 288 agents behavioral assumptions with more accurate profiles of individuals.

289
 290 **4. Challenges**

291 The benefits gained by automating the integration of big data with models
 292 are not realized without overcoming some challenges:

293
 294 *4.1. Data may contain gaps or errors*

295 The quality of data that is stored and transmitted to different databases
 296 is a concern in big data. Errors can be introduced and propagated by in-situ
 297 sensors and processes that store, reshape, and transmit data among databases.
 298 Malfunctioning of advanced technologies– including hardware, firmware, and
 299 communication devices– in sensors increase likelihood of having gaps in time
 300 series data. Missing-data imputation is not guaranteed to recapture the status
 301 of transient data.

302

303 *4.2. Data heterogeneity necessitates advanced warehousing*

304 Environmental sources of data are heterogeneous, which creates complexities
305 in storage and retrieval. A number of studies have been performed by leading
306 technology companies on the effect of data heterogeneity on databases [48]. Data
307 warehouses require significant engineering efforts to store and purge data, tune
308 the computation system, and to maintain the database. The traditional data
309 warehouses are not effective with real-time data, as they are defined by static
310 structures of their schema and relationships between data. The synchroniza-
311 tion between transactional data and data warehouses should be redefined for
312 real-time data to support any dynamics in their structure and contents [49]. As
313 more data from heterogeneous sources and dependencies are incorporated into
314 the models, the potential for time lags to affect data currency becomes more
315 prevalent. These challenges are being addressed by computer scientists. How-
316 ever, efforts are necessary to minimize the knowledge gap among civil engineers
317 when real-time water models are deployed.

318

319 *4.3. Data is prone to confidentiality, integrity, and availability attacks*

320 The proliferated dependency on cloud and network-based assets demands
321 vast, constant temporal and spatial accessibility. This leaves the cyber-infrastructure
322 open to malicious penetration and data manipulation, introducing new risks
323 [50]. A malevolent attempt to sabotage data and compromise its integrity may
324 be staged at any point from data acquisition to deployment in the data cycle.
325 An outsider attack may compromise chlorine sensors to report lower-than-real
326 concentrations, misleading the network's feed-back disinfection controller, and
327 consequently cause potable water over-chlorination and public poisoning [51].
328 Additionally, data manipulation by insiders has been observed, as evidenced by
329 the Walkerton E. coli Outbreak [52]. Therefore, along with data confidentiality
330 and availability, a data-reliant water system must be safeguarded against data
331 integrity attacks that might be staged.

332

333 **5. Proposed framework**

334 Utilizing sensing and computation, engineers have greatly improved the mod-
335 eling and management of water systems. The current state of the flow of data is
336 illustrated in Figure 1 as the white objects. Sensors are deployed in the environ-
337 ment; data are collected, cleaned, then used as inputs for models. Engineers and
338 decision makers can manipulate the models to receive information, understand
339 state of the environment and, using scenario analysis, make decisions concerning
340 the future. The most valuable piece of the process is the interaction with the
341 model to better inform decisions. However, the preceding steps are very time-
342 consuming when done manually. The gray objects represent the proposed data
343 infrastructure that should be adopted to facilitate automated data integration
344 into models.

345

346 *5.1. Water Data Lake*

347 The Water Data Lake, Figure 1A, stores data from every step in the pro-
348 cess. This data lake should be distributed and redundant in order to facilitate
349 quick querying and reduce data loss. Hadoop-based technologies, along with a
350 handful of components and applications, provide the necessary framework for
351 storing big data. [Hadoop is a distributed computing environment that supports](#)
352 [the processing and storage of large data sets. A Hadoop-based technology is a](#)
353 [customized process that uses the Hadoop environment to perform an applica-](#)
354 [tion.](#)

356 *5.2. Analytics*

357 Analytical tools (Fig. 1B) are connected to the data lake. The purpose of
358 these tools are to scrub data, fill in missing values, and filter out bad data. Addi-
359 tional analytics can be performed at this step such as statistical summaries and
360 forecasting. Today these processes are often done manually. However, studies
361 show the advantages of automated analytics for scientific discoveries [53, 54, 55].
362 As the amount of data continues to increase, we will need to employ automated
363 methods. In conjunction with the distributed nature of the data lake, software
364 which allows for distributed computation, such as Apache Spark, should be
365 employed to make computationally-expensive analytics and simulations possi-
366 ble. Scenario analysis for short-term predictive control decisions, for instance,
367 requires next-day hourly demand forecast for the all tens or hundreds of thou-
368 sands of endpoints in a city to be available for the simulation model. Given the
369 computational expense of accurate time-series forecast methods, such extent of
370 computation easily exceeds the capacity of centralized computers, demanding
371 distributed computing tools.

372 The Analytics box in Figure 1, therefore, hosts two separate but interfaced li-
373 braries: 1) an algorithms library, which acts as a repository for all the data
374 transform functions (e.g., ARIMA for forecast), and 2) a distribution library,
375 which hosts a distribution tool (e.g., Spark) for distributing a collection of in-
376 dependent data transform tasks on a computer cluster.

377
378 Apache Spark is a general-purpose platform for distributing independent
379 tasks on a cluster. It has emerged as a popular open-source engine since its in-
380 ception in 2010 [11]. It provides API's in Java, Scala, Python, and R, and also
381 has a rich set of high-performance, built-in libraries, such as MLlib for scalable
382 machine learning [12] and GraphX for graph-parallel computation [56].

383
384 The basic abstraction in Spark is that of a resilient distributed dataset
385 (RDD), which allows users perform in-memory computations on computer clus-
386 ters in a fault-tolerant manner. A RDD is a set of objects partitioned across
387 nodes in a cluster that can be reconstructed if a partition is lost [11].

388
389 Some other key concepts that are necessary for any Spark deployment are:
390 1) Spark Worker – a cluster node that executes a task, 2) Spark Master – a

391 cluster node that coordinates the resources (i.e., collection of worker nodes), 3)
392 Spark Driver – a client application that requests resources from spark master
393 and executes task on worker nodes, and 4) SparkContext – represents the con-
394 nection to a Spark cluster. A SparkContext enables access to a cluster through
395 a resource manager, which allocates resources across processes. Once connected,
396 Spark acquires executors on computer nodes in the cluster, which are processes
397 that run computations and store data. Next, it first passes the application code
398 (which is defined in the algorithm library) to the executors and then the tasks
399 for them to run.

400

401 A Spark cluster can be set up manually using a collection of physical or
402 cloud-based machines. Most cloud service providers also offer services (Elastic
403 MapReduce by Amazon, Dataproc by Google, etc.) that enable configuring
404 and deploying a cloud-based Spark cluster fast and conveniently. The latter
405 option requires little technical knowledge, and together with the basic examples
406 provided on the Apache Spark official website would create a suitable starting
407 point for beginners. For learning purposes, one may also use Spark in the local
408 mode on a single personal computer. In this non-distributed deployment mode,
409 no earlier setup is required to launch Spark applications and the parallelism is
410 done merely on the set of threads available on the single machine.

411

412 5.3. Middleware

413 The Application Program Interfaces (API) for current water computer mod-
414 els are not designed to integrate data as it becomes available. A middleware com-
415 ponent (Fig. 1C), that automatically queries new processed data (Fig. 1A.ii)
416 and formats it to model input, should be introduced. The middleware includes
417 any transformation. For example, the processed data might include one-minute
418 intervals but the model requires five-minute averages, therefore averaging would
419 be applied. Additionally, the middleware should validate the data for each pa-
420 rameter before feeding it as inputs to the model.

421

422 5.4. Wrapper

423 Similar to middleware, a wrapper (Fig. 1D) extends the API of the model.
424 The wrapper provides the functionality to receive streaming data and write
425 model results to the data lake (Fig. 1A.iii). In a real-time EPANET model, for
426 instance, the model boundary conditions, such as individual endpoint demands
427 and tank levels, are automatically updated with their current values streaming
428 in from AMI and SCADA. Therefore, the model outputs, such as pressures and
429 flows distribution, are also current [27].

430

431 This step also includes calibration algorithms, which are analytical approaches
432 to characterize empirical parameters such as the friction factors in the Darcy-
433 Weisbach equation. After completion of each specified period (e.g., one day),

434 actual and model-predicted values of tanks levels and other monitored network
435 parameters are compared. As models show discrepancies between the observed
436 and simulated values for a parameter, the calibration model adjusts the model
437 parameters. Additional algorithms can be developed and placed to intelligently
438 detect an anomaly, field issue, and identify its source. The calibration is done
439 automatically but manual investigations and verifications may be still conducted
440 periodically.

441

442 *5.5. Decision making*

443 Engineers, scientists, and stakeholders can explore the model results interac-
444 tively using visualization tools. Popular visualization tools include Tableau™,
445 D3, and RStudio Shiny™. Additionally, the user can modify model inputs to
446 reflect possible future scenarios. Altogether this automated process decreases
447 the chance of implementing ineffective decisions in the life-time of the water
448 system.

449

450 *5.6. Data cycle platform*

451 The infrastructure for Fig. 1 can be engineered in house to facilitate the
452 data cycle. Alternatively, it can be hosted on the new cloud-based services such
453 as Amazon Web Services and Google Cloud Platform if they do not bypass the
454 cost and expertise required for in-house servers.

455

456 *5.7. Computation cost considerations*

457 Data analytics (e.g., demand time series imputation and forecast) and sim-
458 ulation model runs (e.g., for what-if analysis, calibration, and operation opti-
459 mization) constitute the majority of computation cost. For data analytics, for
460 instance, week-ahead, hourly demand forecast of 15,000 individual water con-
461 sumers in a medium-sized town in California has been done in about one minute
462 on a 10-node, cloud-based Spark cluster [57]. Simulation model runs are more
463 expensive, but since they are often performed in parallel to investigate differ-
464 ent scenarios, they can be also distributed over a cluster by Spark. Given the
465 scalability offered by Spark, distributing the run on a larger cluster is merely a
466 matter of setting the cluster size to a larger number when configuring the cluster
467 on cloud-based service portals. However, this distribution is feasible when the
468 underlying tasks are parallelizable. A run of a single complex adaptive system
469 simulation, for instance, can be only partially parallelizable, given the interde-
470 pendencies between the agents in the past and present.

471

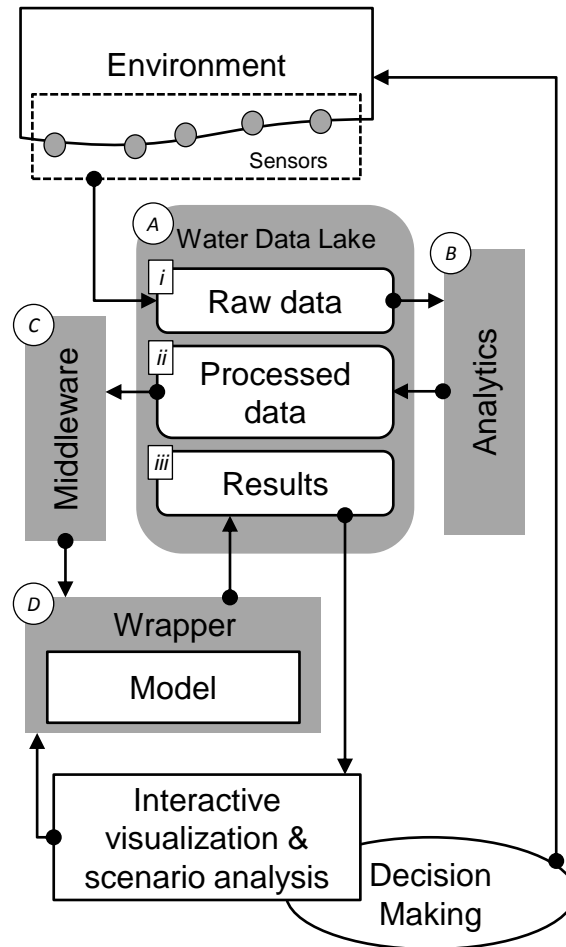


Figure 1: The data cycle for a water system — from collection to decision making — should include a data pipeline that automatically updates a specific model. A) The Water Data Lake stores data during every stage. B) Analytics processes raw data and returns cleaned or forecasted data. C) Middleware pulls, aggregates, and formats data for a model. D) A wrapper provide communication capabilities to a model.

472 6. Applications

473 The proposed framework is applicable to many water computer models. The
474 models can be categorized into physical models, that encode mathematical equa-
475 tions governing a water system (e.g. EPANET, SWMM, and MIKE) and policy-
476 related models that encode rights and policies for sharing and uses of water and
477 evaluate the effect of each decisions on water availability (e.g. WRAP and
478 WEAP). Due to accessibility and lower subjectivity, the transition of environ-
479 mental data into a water model is simpler than the transition of water policies
480 and decisions into these models. This framework can be applied to many models
481 but stands to benefit operational models most. A few examples include water
482 distribution networks, lock and dam operation, treatment plant operation, and
483 storm water management. Below, an illustrative example is briefly explained
484 for integrating high-frequency data with a water distribution model: EPANET
485 [58,].

486
487 Traditional use of EPANET involves making assumptions about the demand
488 patterns for customers and rules for pumps and valves. With the use of Ad-
489 vanced Metering Infrastructure (AMI) and Supervisory Control and Data Ac-
490 quisition (SCADA) data, the hydraulic model can be enhanced by integrating
491 the consumption of each consumer and operations of pumps and tanks. New
492 raw meter reads and SCADA information are stored in the data lake (Fig. 1 *A*).
493 An analytics platform (Fig. 1 *B*) will periodically query and run operations on
494 the data, saving the cleaned data back to the data lake. At each time step, the
495 middleware (Fig. 1 *C*) submits queries to the data lake (Fig. 1 *A*) to check the
496 availability of data for the next time step. The AMI system has transmission
497 latency, therefore, the hydraulic model can be stopped to receive the data. The
498 wrapper (Fig. 1 *D*, which ensures the consumption rate has been stored for
499 each meter and the data is not an error, is checked before running the model
500 and returning the results to the data lake.

502 7. Discussions and Conclusions

503 The aim of this manuscript is to encourage development and enhancement
504 of water computer models by integrating big data. High-frequency data is col-
505 lected from heterogeneous sources across environmental systems. However, the
506 collected data is processed and analyzed at discrete actions. Each action can
507 be thought of as collecting a hunk of data to process and analyzing it to make
508 engineering and scientific discoveries. Despite significant challenges, the data
509 should be integrated with water models in an automated fashion to create real-
510 time models and complete the data cycle for a water system.

511
512 A broad framework is proposed to enhance the current water computer mod-
513 els with a new API that enables near real-time dynamic modeling and completes
514 the data cycle. In this way, the model is able to characterize some parameters

515 using data that becomes available in the water data lake. The results of a sim-
516 ulation are also stored in a water data lake for further analysis. The ultimate
517 outcome of this modeling is to enable a stakeholder to gain better understand-
518 ing on the status quo of a water system and manage this system with more
519 confidence. This type of model enhancement provides ways to encounter water
520 systems as a whole rather than a set of technical, economical, and social sys-
521 tems that are studied separately and in isolation. The outcome of this holistic
522 approach is useful to assess the performance of all aspects of a system.

523

524 Most importantly this manuscript emphasizes the increasing importance of
525 computing and analytics in water systems modeling. While many of the chal-
526 lenges are being addressed by the computer science field, future water profes-
527 sionals will need the basic skills to interface with complex database structures
528 and ever evolving API's.

529

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The highlights of the study are:

- 1- Identify and highlights of using the big data—mention the benefit and study the example
- 2- Identify the challenges along with using the big data for water systems
- 3- Propose a generic model for integration of water computer models with the big data
- 4- Support the study and paper with examples