

# Using Machine Learning to Forecast Air and Water Quality

Carolina Silva<sup>a</sup>, Bruno Fernandes<sup>b</sup>, Pedro Oliveira<sup>c</sup> and Paulo Novais<sup>d</sup>

*Department of Informatics, ALGORITMI Centre, University of Minho, Braga, Portugal*

**Keywords:** Environmental Sustainability, Machine Learning, Tree-based Models, Deep Learning.

**Abstract:** Environmental sustainability is one of the biggest concerns nowadays. With increasingly latent negative impacts, it is substantiated that future generations may be compromised. The research here presented addresses this topic, focusing on air quality and atmospheric pollution, in particular the Ultraviolet index and Carbon Monoxide air concentration, as well as water issues regarding Wastewater Treatment Plants, in particular the pH of water. A set of Machine Learning regressors and classifiers are conceived, tuned, and evaluated in regard to their ability to forecast several parameters of interest. The experimented models include Decision Trees, Random Forests, Multilayer Perceptrons, and Long Short-Term Memory networks. The obtained results assert the strong ability of LSTMs to forecast air pollutants, with all models presenting similar results when the subject was the pH of water.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Over the last few years, more data have been generated than ever. Consequently, many organizations, whether business or public entities, identifies data as a valuable asset that supports its decision-making process ((Hino et al., 2018; Sandryhaila and Moura, 2014)). On the other hand, Machine Learning (ML), a field from Artificial Intelligence (AI), has been growing in importance in the last decade ((Qiu et al., 2016)). This field concerns data collection, analysis, and then the prediction of several meaningful parameters. ML is used in many sectors nowadays, once it is recognized as a field that can provide accurate and real-time solutions. The various entities that operate in the most diverse areas can, with ML, acquire the ability to act before something occur, avoiding and preventing negative impacts ((Qiu et al., 2016)).

Since ML can be implemented in a vast range of areas, it is interesting to apply it in a way that can make a difference, aiming for the common good. From this emerges an area with important societal impact: environmental sustainability. Sustainable development, from an environmental point of view, has been a significant problem for countries for decades since negative environmental impacts are increasingly

perceived and verified ((Isabel Molina-Gómez et al., 2020)). Due to the registered population growth, the demand for natural resources has, consequently, raised. Further, industrial activities are increasingly pronounced in developed countries, being the key to their economic sustainability. All of this generates anthropogenic emissions, which damage the environment, causing visible impacts such as public health problems, climatic changes, and many others. All this can compromise future generations. To avoid these risks, responsible entities need to make decisions to reduce its negative impacts and consequent hazard for the population ((Sarkodie, 2021)).

Aiming to address important points on the scope of environmental sustainability, this research focuses on the conception, tuning, and evaluation of multiple ML models to anticipate possible problematic situations. Thus, it allows one to act in a preventive way to provide the best for the population and future generations. Further, it allows one to better allocate resources and consequently, maximize potential benefits for companies as well as the human being.

Throughout this research, the CRISP-DM methodology was the one being followed to ensure a proper progress of this study. Overall, the main goals of this research are to: (1) Forecast parameters in the air quality domain, including the Ultraviolet (UV) index and the Carbon Monoxide (CO) air concentration; (2) Forecast parameters in the water quality domain, in particular the pH of water, con-

<sup>a</sup> <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8585-5195>

<sup>b</sup> <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1561-2897>

<sup>c</sup> <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7143-5413>

<sup>d</sup> <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3549-0754>

cerning Wastewater Treatment Plants (WWTPs), in the exact moment before it returns to natural sources; (3) Perceive which are the relevant features concerning the forecasting process, evaluated by the quality of the outcomes generated by each model; (4) Understand, compare, and tune tree-based models (Decision Trees (DTs) and Random Forests (RFs)), Multilayer Perceptrons (MLPs), and Long Short Term-Memory networks (LSTMs).

The remaining of this paper is structured as follows: the next section describes the current state of the art regarding the UV index and CO impacts, as well as the WWTP context, exploring its operations and the measured parameters. Material and methods are detailed in the following section, showing the data exploration process, its preparation, and the used technologies. The fourth section focuses on the conducted experiments, showing the conceived scenarios and the hyperparameters' searching space. The fifth section discusses the obtained results. Finally, conclusions are drawn and future work is outlined.

## 2 STATE OF THE ART

Environmentally sustainability is a problem that covers the effort to establish green management, taking into account current and future generations. Atmospheric pollution, more specifically air pollution, is an important environmental issue, primarily linked to urban conditions and industrial emissions. This problem has grown, resulting from an increase in polluting industries, making human activity its central source ((Cohen et al., 2017)). One of the most well recognized primary pollutants is CO. This pollutant constitutes a problem, causing some negative health impacts. The biggest issue of CO exposure is tissue hypoxia (oxygen deficiency in tissues) due to its capability to bind the hemoglobin, blocking the tissues to enough oxygen ((Lee et al., 2020)). Further, there are other problems appointed for CO exposure such as neurological sequels in humans, particularly neurocognitive impairment and behavioral abnormalities in children ((Block et al., 2012)).

UV radiation is yet another topic on air quality that concerns the human health. Over the years, the ozone layer has become thinner, leading to dangerous UV radiation reaching Earth's surface. To inform the population of this radiation risk and cultivate changes in mindset and attitudes against exposure to the sun, the UV index was created ((Igoe et al., 2013)). On a controlled scale, the UV radiation has numerous benefits: it suppresses stress, improves sleep, prevents some illness, and increases the

production of vitamin D in the human body ((Norval et al., 2011)). However, it may cause severe health problems such as ocular melanoma, skin cancer (melanoma and non-melanoma skin cancers), and premature skin aging when exposed to high UV levels ((Norval et al., 2011)).

Water is an indispensable resource for the human being. It is used in many contexts: at home, industries, for agriculture, among many others. So, it is crucial to understand what happens to the residual water that results from that use. In fact, first, water is collected and transported to a plant in water pipes (a network that connects the water sources to the plant). Here, the residual water, commonly called wastewater, is treated and returned to water sources in environmentally safe conditions. This plant is called a WWTP.

A WWTP has a crucial role in Environmental Sustainability. There are four fundamental phases in WWTPs operations. The first one is known as the *pre-treatment*, being here where coarse solids and floating materials are removed from the wastewater. The second is the *primary treatment*. At this phase, the remaining solids are removed as well as organic matter, mainly by the action of gravity, using a primary clarifier. Then, it occurs the *secondary treatment*, where the biodegradable organic matter is removed, along with suspended solids and nutrients. This phase can be divided in two stages: (1) the aeration tank (the anoxic and aerated zone) and (2) the secondary clarifier. The last crucial phase is the *tertiary treatment*, in which the remaining solids are removed, together with organic matter and toxic compounds. After that, the water is ready to be discharged to the surface. Additionally, there is a sludge line in which the solids that left from the previous steps are treated ((Spellman, 2013)). Figure 1 shows a simplified WWTP operation process.

Within a WWTP, there are several parameters that need to be controlled and evaluated in the different stages of the operation process. Among these parameters one may find the temperature, conductivity, alkalinity, pH, Nitrogen, dissolved oxygen, solids, bacteria, among others. However, one of the most significant wastewater characteristics is its pH. When less than 5, it indicates acid water, while values higher than 9 indicate it is alkaline. Identify the pH value in a WWTP is essential since this is a controlling agent of the biological and physical-chemical wastewater functions. This parameter deserves special attention, mainly in the aeration tank. Here occurs a biological treatment, with the action of several microorganisms that need the right pH conditions to do its job ((Spellman, 2013)). At the exit of a WWTP (the discharge

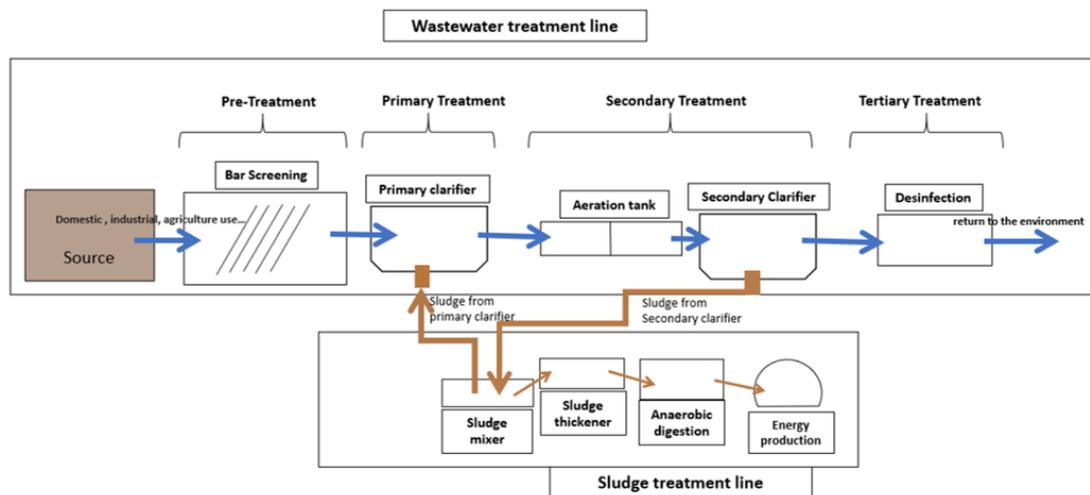


Figure 1: Simplified scheme of a WWTP operation.

process), the pH value must comply with the emission limit values considered by the law. According to the Portuguese Environment Agency ((PAE, 2013)), these values must be between 5.5 and 9 to be considered “good”, and between 6.5 and 8.5 to be classified as “excellent”.

Over the years, several studies were carried out addressing the related topics, air, and water quality. Literature shows some researches addressing the UV index forecast. It stands out the using of a CART regression model in the presence of several environmental conditions. This study shows that when observed opacity are generated better predictions compared to using clear-sky UV ((Burrows, 1997)). Further, addressing the atmospheric pollutants, a study in the city of Hangzhou, in China, was deployed. This research makes use of Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) and RFs for analysis and accurate forecast of several atmospheric pollutants (including CO), based on the prediction of the future 24h ((Feng et al., 2019)). Furthermore, regarding this topic, recent research exposes the use of ML to forecast air quality in the city of California. Using Support Vector Regression (SVR) was hourly predicted pollutant concentrations, like CO, sulfur dioxide, nitrogen dioxide, ground-level ozone, and particulate matter ((Castelli et al., 2020)).

Regarding WWTPs, some studies have already engaged on using a hybrid statistical-ML approach to forecasting the ammonia presented in the activated sludge, to improve the control process of WWTPs ((Gawdzik et al., 2016)). Further, a few studies have already focused on the use of ML models to monitored the WWTPs operations ((Harrou et al., 2018; Dairi et al., 2019)).

### 3 MATERIALS AND METHODS

The next lines describe the materials and methods used in this work, including the used datasets, to achieve the proposed goals.

#### 3.1 Data Exploration

Two datasets support this research. The first concerns the air quality of a Portuguese city, while the other presents water quality features with respect to a WWTP within the same city.

The first dataset reveals data about the UV index (*UV Value*), air pollutants concentration (*CO Value* and *SO<sub>2</sub> Value*), and weather conditions (*Clouds*, *Temperature*, and *Weather Description*). It presents 11817 hourly observations in a time range that goes from 24-07-2018 to 23-03-2020, with some exceptions being observed. There are no missing values. An analysis to the *UV Value* and the *CO Value* shows that, as expected, these data do not present a significant variation through a day.

Figure 2 illustrates the mean monthly UV index behavior in the time range under study. It shows that this feature presents a well-defined behavior, revealing that during July it reached the highest value, and the lowest in December, on average.

Figure 3, on the other hand, shows the CO concentration over time, in the defined time interval. The graph illustrates that higher values are reached in October as well as the presence of missing time steps.

The second dataset contains water quality data from a real WWTP. The main features are the Dissolved Oxygen (DO) (from the anoxic and the aerated zones), the water pH from the secondary clarifier, and

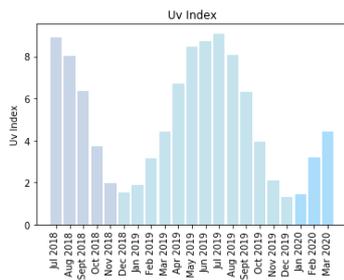


Figure 2: Average UV index per month.

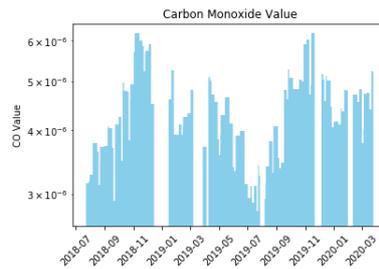


Figure 3: CO concentration over time.

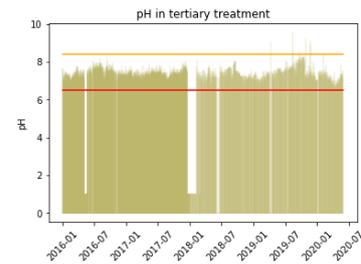


Figure 4: pH in the tertiary treatment unit over time.

the temperature from the tertiary treatment unit. This dataset presents a total of 2379 observations defined in a time range that goes from 2016-01-01 to 2020-05-28. These dataset presents missing values.

Figure 4 illustrates the pH, in the tertiary treatment unit, over time. It depicts that the values mostly comply with those defined by the Portuguese Environment Agency (illustrated by the horizontal lines).

Finally, Table 1 depicts the available features in both datasets.

Table 1: Features available in both datasets.

Dataset	Feature (unit)
Air Quality	UV Value
	CO Value (ppm)
	SO <sub>2</sub> Value (ppm)
	Clouds (%)
	Temperature (°C)
	Weather Description
-----	
Water Quality	Date (YYYY-MM-DD HH:mm:ss)
	DO-Aerated Zone (mg/L)
	DO-Anoxic Zone (mg/L)
	pH-Secondary Clarifier
-----	
	Temperature-Tertiary Treatment (°C)
	Date (YYYY-MM-DD HH:mm:ss)

### 3.2 Data Preparation

With respect to the air quality dataset, the *UV Value* and the *CO Value* (target features) do not present a significant variation during a day. For this reason, data were grouped by day, using the mean value of the *UV Value*, *CO Value*, *SO<sub>2</sub> Value*, *Clouds*, and the *Temperature*. Further, for the nominal feature, the *Weather Description*, the most frequent description in a day was the one used, i.e., the mode. It resulted in a dataset made by 506 daily observations. Furthermore, since neural networks only accept numerical features as inputs, the *Weather Description* was labeled encoded. Date fields were also extracted, creating three new features: *day*, *month*, and *year* in regard to each

observation.

With respect to the water quality dataset, the main transformations focused on handling the missing values. Most of these were computed through linear interpolation, and when that was not possible, the records were removed. After this process, the dataset was left with 2149 observations. Date fields were also extracted, creating four new features: *hour*, *day*, *month*, and *year* in regard to each observation.

This research was originally a regression problem due to the nature of the target features. It was settled, however, that it might be of interest to explore the prediction of the *UV Value* as a classification problem as well. This feature was converted into different levels, those established by the World Health Organization (WHO), through the creation of four bins: *Low* (when the UV index was between 0 and 2), *Medium* (UV index between 3 and 5), *High* (UV index between 6 and 7), and *Very High* (UV index higher than 8). No indexes higher than 11 were found in the dataset.

### 3.3 Technologies

The technologies used to develop this research were the KNIME software as well as Python, supported by Keras and TensorFlow as main APIs. Besides, other important libraries such as pandas, matplotlib, NumPy, and scikit-learn were also used. To tune and train the deep learning models the Google Colaboratory cloud service was used. This service uses a Jupyter notebook environment and runs totally in the cloud, using GPUs.

## 4 EXPERIMENTS

After preparing the data, multiple scenarios were created to study the impact of each feature in the models' performance.

#### 4.1 UV Index Scenarios

First, for the UV index forecasting, five scenarios were built, representing a gradual increase in the features that constituted them. Thereby, the scenarios were as follows:

1. The first scenario has in its constitution the *Date*, the *CO Value*, and the *SO<sub>2</sub> Value*, in order to understand the impact of the atmospheric pollutants;
2. Scenario number two adds the *Temperature* to the previous one. Thus, it enables us to understand the impact of this feature in the outcomes regarding the UV index prediction;
3. The third scenario adds the *Clouds* percentage to the preceding, allowing us to know the influence of clouds percentage in the prediction of the UV index;
4. Scenario number four adds the *month* to the previous one, as the data shows that the UV index has a well-defined behavior according to the month of the year (higher in the summer months and smaller in the winter, in the Northern Hemisphere);
5. Scenario number five adds the *Weather description* to the prior, to perceive its impact on the models' outcomes.

The scenarios described above are used to tune and evaluate all tree-based models. To train the MLP model, the same scenarios were used except for the *Date* feature, which was replaced by the *day*, *month*, and *year*. Therefore, scenario number four becomes useless in this context.

The UV index was also framed as a time series problem. In this context, LSTM models were conceived and tuned using only the *UV Value* feature (framed as a uni-variate problem).

#### 4.2 CO Concentration Scenario

The CO air concentration forecast was exclusively formulated as a time series problem, with a LSTM model being conceived and tuned for a single feature, the *CO Value*. This is the only scenario created for the CO air concentration.

#### 4.3 Water pH Scenarios

For water pH forecasting, four scenarios were created, as follows:

1. Scenario number one is constituted by the *Date*, the *pH-Secondary clarifier*, the *DO-Aerated Zone*,

the *DO-Anoxic Zone*, and the *Temperature-Tertiary Treatment*. This scenario uses all the features available from the water quality dataset;

2. Scenario number two excludes the temperature feature from the previous one, allowing us to understand the impact of this feature in the water pH prediction;
3. The third scenario is constituted by the *Date*, the *DO-Aerated Zone*, the *DO-Anoxic Zone* and the *Temperature-Tertiary Treatment*. When compared with the preceding, this one replaces the pH from the secondary clarifier by the temperature, previously withdrawn;
4. Scenario number four is constituted by the *Date*, the *pH-Secondary clarifier*, and the *Temperature-Tertiary Treatment*. It excludes both dissolved oxygen features to understand its impact on the forecasts' quality.

The above scenarios are used to train all tree-based models. For the MLPs, the date feature is replaced by four features, i.e., *hour*, *day*, *month*, and *year*.

#### 4.4 Hyperparameters Searching Space

After building the feature scenarios, the models' hyperparameters were set. Table 2 shows the searching space considered for each hyperparameter of each model.

### 5 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The best outcomes for each scenario, considering the optimal hyperparameter combination, are presented in the next lines. The used evaluation metrics are the Accuracy and the Mean Absolute Error (MAE).

#### 5.1 UV Index Forecasting

When considering the UV index as a classification problem, the levels defined by WHO were the ones used to set the target feature as *Low*, *Medium*, *High*, and *Very High*. Table 3 presents the results generated from this process for each model type.

The best candidate model achieved an accuracy value of 93.5%. It is generated by the MLP model, making use of the scenario constituted by the atmospheric pollutants and the date fields as features (Scenario 1). It may indicate that, for the MLP classification problem, using the fewest features generate better results in this context. Further, for the tree-based models, Scenario 4 shows the best outcomes, which

Table 2: Hyperparameters tested for each model.

Model	Hyperparameter	Search Space	
Decision Tree	Classification	Quality measure	[Gini Index, Gain ratio]
		Pruning method	[No pruning, MDL]
		Reduced error pruning	[True, False]
	Regression	Minimum records per node	From 1 to 15*
		Missing value handling	[XGBoost, Surrogate]
		Limit number of levels	From 1 to 20*
Random Forest	Classification	Min. node size	From 1 to 15*
		Split criterion	[Information Gain (Ratio), Gini index]
		Tree depth	From 1 to 25*
	Regression	Minimum child node size	From 1 to 15*
		Number of Models	From 100 to 1200**
		Tree depth	From 1 to 15*
MLPs & LSTMs	Classification	Minimum child node size	From 1 to 15*
		Number of Models	From 100 to 1200**
		Activation Function	[relu, tanh, sigmoid]
	Regression	Hidden Layers	[1, 2, 3]
		Learn Rate	[0.001, 0.005, 0.01]
		Neurons	[16, 32, 64, 128]
	Batch Size	[16, 23, 30]	
	Time steps***	[7, 14, 21]	

\* With a step size of 1

\*\* With a step size of 100

\*\*\* LSTM hyperparameter

Table 3: Accuracy values, per scenario, for the classification of the UV index.

Scenario	DT	RF	MLP
1	87.8%	79.6%	<b>93.5%</b>
2	77.9%	83.8%	91.1%
3	74.9%	82.2%	90.5%
4	<b>92.1%</b>	<b>91.5%</b>	-
5	89.5%	91.3%	89.3%

proves that using the month name as a feature results in the best accuracy.

DTs show their best performance (Scenario 4) using the Gini Index as the quality measure, no pruning, and a minimum child node size of 2. Regarding this model, were perceived that for all the scenarios, no pruning revealed to be the best choice. It produces better results, probably due to the low complexity of the generated trees. So, all the branches are considered significant, and its removal leads to a decrease in the model's performance. For the RFs, the best outcomes (again, Scenario 4) are generated using Information Gain Ratio as quality measure, a tree depth of 14, a minimum child node of 9, and a number of models equal to 500, i.e., the number of trees to be learned. Since the maximum number that was experimented was 1200, the best outcome generated by this model is produced with a medium level of complexity. For the MLPs, the best candidate used 3 hidden layers, a learning rate of 0.001, 64 neurons per layer, a batch size of 23, and 'relu' as activation function.

When considering the UV index as a regression problem, the results are the ones presented in Table 4. For the tree-based models, the best scenario is, again, Scenario 4, which adds the month name to its constitution. Further, for the MLP model, the best result arises from Scenario 5. It shows that, regarding this particular model, a higher amount of features generates the best outcome. Overall, the best model is a DT with a MAE of just 0.37.

Table 4: MAE values, per scenario, regarding UV Index forecasting.

Scenario	DT	RF	MLP
1	0.589	1.438	0.490
2	0.789	0.739	0.514
3	0.901	1.128	0.521
4	<b>0.373</b>	<b>0.410</b>	-
5	0.433	1.598	<b>0.452</b>

For the DTs, the best performance (Scenario 4) uses XGBoost to handle missing values, a tree depth of 6, and a minimum node size of 5. For the RFs, the best performance (Scenario 4) shows a tree depth of 11, a minimum child node size of 1, and a number of models equal to 1000, a high value that shows the need for a more complex model. For the MLP, the best candidate used 'relu' as the activation function, 2 hidden layers, a learning rate of 0.001, 32 neurons per layer, and a batch size of 16 (Scenario 5).

Finally, the last approach concerns the UV index

as a time series problem. For this, LSTM models were conceived, making recursive multi-step forecasts, i.e., the goal was to forecast the next three days. The best LSTM candidate achieved an overall MAE of just 0.151, clearly outperforming the results obtained previously, with MLPs and the tree-based models. The hyperparameter combination producing the best candidate makes use of the 'tanh' as activation function, a single hidden layer, a learning rate of 0.01, 16 neurons per layer, and a batch size of 16 sequences. Further, it uses 21 time steps to create a single sequence, i.e., it uses the last three weeks to forecast the next three days. Even though the best candidate does not have a complex architecture, it still took a considerable amount of time to train, especially when compared to the tree-based models.

## 5.2 CO Concentration Forecasting

The CO is one of the primary pollutants. Hence, in this research, the air concentration of this pollutant was set only as a time series problem. The same logic that was used to forecast the UV index is applied to the CO concentration, with the best LSTM candidate reaching a MAE of  $1.345 \times 10^{-7}$ . The best hyperparameter combination uses a single layer, 'relu' as activation function, a learning rate of 0.005, 16 neurons, and a batch size of 16. Moreover, using a sequence of three weeks (in which the predictions are based) shows to be the best option, i.e., time steps equal to 21. It indicates a simple model, taking into account the maximum tested values. However, it also takes a long time to run, as aforementioned.

## 5.3 Water pH Forecasting

The water pH is part of a WWTP, in particular, to its tertiary phase, i.e., the moment right before the water is discharged back to natural sources. This forecast arises in order to try to mitigate the environmental consequences of these systems concerning water quality.

Table 5: MAE values, per scenario, for water pH forecasting.

Scenario	DT	RF	MLP
1	0.106	<b>0.114</b>	0.119
2	0.184	0.180	0.146
3	0.195	0.193	0.154
4	<b>0.106</b>	0.120	<b>0.118</b>

By evaluating Table 5, one may conclude that all the best candidate models produce very similar results, even though from different scenarios. The best

DT uses, as features, the pH from the secondary clarifier, the temperature, and the date (Scenario 4). However, it shows very similar outcomes when compared with Scenario 1, which adds, as new features, the dissolved oxygen from the aerated and the anoxic zones. Further, these two scenarios are also the ones depicting the best solutions for the best RF and the best MLP candidates. So, it is possible to conclude that, when used together, the temperature and the pH from the secondary clarifier are important features to forecast the pH of the water from the tertiary treatment unit. The dissolved oxygen features, by themselves, do not seem to be a decent approach to predict water pH.

The best candidate DT presents its best performance (Scenario 4) using the surrogate as missing value handling, a tree depth of 5, and a minimum node size of 5. The best RF shows its best outcome (Scenario 1) using a tree depth of 4, a minimum child node size of 8, and 500 models, exhibiting a medium complexity. On the other hand, the best MLP model (Scenario 4) is constituted by 64 neurons per layer, three hidden layers, a learning rate of 0.005, and a batch size of 16. Again, this model took longer to train when compared to the tree-based models.

## 6 CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

Environmental sustainability is a big concern for entities nowadays. The detrimental effects on public health, ecosystem imbalance, and climate changes are increasingly evident. Thus, this research conceived and tune several supervised ML models, with different degrees of complexity, to multiple several parameters in the environmental sustainability domain. Regarding the air quality and atmospheric pollution, both the UV index and the CO air concentration were addressed. For the UV index forecast, when treating it as a classification problem, an accuracy of approximately 93% was achieved. In addition, predicting it as a regression problem resulted in a MAE of 0.37 units. For both approaches, the used features proved to be relevant in the quality of the forecasts. Moreover, the UV index was set as a time series problem using a LSTM model. The best candidate model achieved a MAE of 0.15, using a uni-variate approach. With regard to the CO air concentration, a MAE value of  $1.345 \times 10^{-7}$  was achieved, being possible to conclude that it is likely to predict these parameters with small errors, using simple or more complex models.

The water pH was also predicted, achieving a MAE of, approximately, 0.11 units, with the DTs,

RFs and MLPs revealing themselves capable of producing accurate forecasts. Furthermore, the used features revealed themselves to have a significant impact on the outcomes.

This research shows that it is possible to anticipate problematic situations and reduce their negative impacts, with satisfactory accuracy. As future work, the goal is to forecast the CO air concentration using additional models, as well as distinct attributes. Additionally, a major goal focuses on forecasting more parameters related to Environmental Sustainability, in order to promote a more sustainable and green society.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was supported by National Funds through the Portuguese funding agency, FCT - Foundation for Science and Technology, within the project DSAIPA/AI/0099/2019. The work of Bruno Fernandes is also supported by a Portuguese doctoral grant, SFRH/BD/130125/2017, issued by FCT in Portugal.

## REFERENCES

- Block, M. L., Elder, A., Auten, R. L., Bilbo, S. D., Chen, H., Chen, J. C., Cory-Slechta, D. A., Costa, D., Diaz-Sanchez, D., Dorman, D. C., Gold, D. R., Gray, K., Jeng, H. A., Kaufman, J. D., Kleinman, M. T., Kirshner, A., Lawler, C., Miller, D. S., Nadadur, S. S., Ritz, B., Semmens, E. O., Tonelli, L. H., Veronesi, B., Wright, R. O., and Wright, R. J. (2012). The outdoor air pollution and brain health workshop. *NeuroToxicology*, 33(5):972–984.
- Burrows, W. (1997). Cart regression models for predicting uv radiation at the ground in the presence of cloud and other environmental factors. *Journal of Applied Meteorology*, 36(5):531–544. cited By 48.
- Castelli, M., Clemente, F., Popovič, A., Silva, S., and Vanneschi, L. (2020). A machine learning approach to predict air quality in california. *Complexity*, 2020. cited By 0.
- Cohen, A. J., Brauer, M., Burnett, R., Anderson, H. R., Frostad, J., Estep, K., Balakrishnan, K., Brunekreef, B., Dandona, L., Dandona, R., Feigin, V., Freedman, G., Hubbell, B., Jobling, A., Kan, H., Knibbs, L., Liu, Y., Martin, R., Morawska, L., Pope, C. A., Shin, H., Straif, K., Shaddick, G., Thomas, M., van Dingenen, R., van Donkelaar, A., Vos, T., Murray, C. J., and Forouzanfar, M. H. (2017). Estimates and 25-year trends of the global burden of disease attributable to ambient air pollution: an analysis of data from the Global Burden of Diseases Study 2015. *The Lancet*, 389(10082):1907–1918.
- Dairi, A., Cheng, T., Harrou, F., Sun, Y., and Leiknes, T. (2019). Deep learning approach for sustainable wwtp operation: A case study on data-driven influent conditions monitoring. *Sustainable Cities and Society*, 50. cited By 2.
- Feng, R., Zheng, H.-J., Gao, H., Zhang, A.-R., Huang, C., Zhang, J.-X., Luo, K., and Fan, J.-R. (2019). Recurrent neural network and random forest for analysis and accurate forecast of atmospheric pollutants: A case study in hangzhou, china. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 231:1005–1015. cited By 20.
- Gawdzik, J., Szlag, B., Bezak-Mazur, E., and Stoinska, R. (2016). Application of selected nonlinear methods to forecast the amount of excess sludge. *Rocznik Ochrona Srodowiska*, 18(2):695–708.
- Harrou, F., Dairi, A., Sun, Y., and Senouci, M. (2018). Wastewater treatment plant monitoring via a deep learning approach. volume 2018-February, pages 1544–1548. cited By 2.
- Hino, M., Benami, E., and Brooks, N. (2018). Machine learning for environmental monitoring. *Nature Sustainability*, 1(10):583–588.
- Igoe, D., Parisi, A., and Carter, B. (2013). Characterization of a Smartphone Camera’s Response to Ultraviolet A Radiation. *International Journal of Remote Sensing*, pages 215–218.
- Isabel Molina-Gómez, N., Rodríguez-Rojas, K., Calderón-Rivera, D., Luis Díaz-Arévalo, J., and López-Jiménez, P. A. (2020). Using machine learning tools to classify sustainability levels in the development of urban ecosystems. *Sustainability (Switzerland)*, 12(8).
- Lee, K. K., Spath, N., Miller, M. R., Mills, N. L., and Shah, A. S. (2020). Short-term exposure to carbon monoxide and myocardial infarction: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Environment International*, 143(June):105901.
- Norval, M., Lucas, R. M., Cullen, A., de Gruijl, F., Longstreth, J., Takizawa f, Y., and van der Leung, J. (2011). The human health effects of ozone depletion and interactions with climate change. *Photochemical and Photobiological Sciences*, 10(2):173.
- PAE (2013). <https://www.apambiente.pt/>. Accessed: 2020-10-01.
- Qiu, J., Wu, Q., Ding, G., Xu, Y., and Feng, S. (2016). A survey of machine learning for big data processing. *Eurasip Journal on Advances in Signal Processing*, 2016(1).
- Sandryhaila, A. and Moura, J. M. (2014). Representation and processing of massive data sets with irregular structure. *IEEE SIGNAL PROCESSING MAGAZINE*, 5(31):80–90.
- Sarkodie, S. A. (2021). Environmental performance, bio-capacity, carbon & ecological footprint of nations: Drivers, trends and mitigation options. *Science of the Total Environment*, 751:141912.
- Spellman, F. R. (2013). *Handbook of Water and Wastewater Treatment Plant Operations*.