

Combining Deep Learning Model and Evolutionary Optimization for Parameters Identification of NMR Signal

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Abstract: In this study we combine deep learning predictive models and evolutionary optimization algorithm to solve parameter identification problem. We consider parameter identification problem coming from nuclear magnetic resonance signals. We use observation data of sludges and solving water content analysis problem. The content of the liquid flow is the basis of production control of sludge dewatering in various industries. Increasing control performance brings significant economic effect. Since we know the mathematical model of the signal, we reduce content analysis problem to optimization problem and parameters estimation problem. We investigate these approaches and propose a combined approach, which involves predictive models in initial optimization alternative set generation. In numerical research we prove that proposed approach outperforms separate optimization-based approach and predictive models. In examination part, we test approach on signals that were not involved in predictive model learning or optimization algorithm parameters tuning. In this study we utilized standard differential evolution algorithm and multi-layer perceptron.

1 INTRODUCTION

Time domain nuclear magnetic resonance method (TD-NMR) is becoming highly attractive for industries and meets various applications due to relatively low price, mobility, easy operating, and simple sample preparation procedure. The well-known successful applications of TD-NMR confirmed by international standards are solid fat content determination in food and water (ISO 8292) and oil content in oilseeds (ISO 10565). These solutions are based on the difference of NMR parameters of water and lipids and a low exchange degree between these two fractions. There are studies, which demonstrate applying the same approach for analysis of lipid content in microalgae (Gao et al., 2008) and for analysis of oil content of olive mill wastes and municipal wastewater sludge (Willson et al., 2010). Effects of flocculation on the bound water in sludge measured by the NMR spectroscopy has been studied in work (Carberry and Prestowitz, 1985).

Understanding the location of water molecules in materials is important in process engineering because it affects the dewatering process. Different situations

require different amount of energy for drying. The other reason is the quantity of chemical components to be added to the liquid to satisfy the desired characteristics. Both factors take place in sludge dewatering problem. Sludge is a semi-solid by-product remaining after wastewater treatment. It is a separated solid material suspended in a liquid, characteristically comprising large quantities of interstitial water between its solid particles (Global Water Community, 2015). Typically, a polymer is added to the wastewater to separate free water from the solids, and it becomes easier to remove water from the sludge. In wastewater treatment, the dewatering of sludge is one of the most important steps, because it affects largely both the process economics and the costs of sludge disposal.

In sludges there are three water types, i.e. 1) free water, 2) mechanically bound water, and 3) physically or chemically bound water. The free water can be easily removed by mechanical means, whereas the bound water is held firmly within the floc, bound to the sludge, or trapped between the sludge particles, and thus cannot be easily removed (Jin et al., 2004). The bound water can be further divided into chemically or physically bound water, which is

removable only by thermal drying, and mechanically bound water which is bound by weaker capillary forces (Colin & Gazbar, 1995). It must be emphasized that determining the water types is not straightforward and based on the literature it is difficult to reach an unambiguous interpretation on the distribution of water within activated sludge (Vaxelaire & Cézac, 2004). Furthermore, there seem to be no studies focused on the analysis of water types in sludge without a priori knowledge of the shares of different water types.

To efficiently control complex sludge dewatering process, we need to analyze the flow content to make decisions on amount of heating energy and chemical components to add. Analyzing the flow content means solving the parameter identification problem. NMR signals consist of a linear combination of one or more exponential signals, which are traditionally resolved by fitting them to an experimental signal. However, in complex samples such as sludges, the number and form of exponential signals are not exactly known, making the analysis uncertain.

In this work, we start with the case when the number of components is known. We use three different approaches for system identification: the first is based on parameters optimization via evolutionary algorithms, the second is based on parameters estimation via deep learning and the third one is based on combination of evolutionary optimization and deep learning prediction. We numerically prove that proposed approach based on combination of optimization and machine learning outperforms baseline approaches: tuned optimization algorithm and trained model.

2 REDUCTION TO OPTIMIZATION PROBLEM

In this chapter we consider reduction of the water content analysis to extremum seeking on the rational vector space with constrains. Let us denote Y as signal measurements, $Y = \{y_i\}, i = 1, \dots, n, y_i \in R$, and n is the number of observations. Let us denote T as times, where measurements Y were done, $T = \{t_i\}, t_i \in R, i = 1, \dots, n$. In general case, we assume that our measurements of signal are noisy, but in this study, we start with assumptions that measurements represent the real signal. The signal can be explained by the following equation:

$$\hat{y}(t, \alpha, \theta, c) = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i e^{-\frac{t}{\theta_i}} + c \tag{1}$$

where m is the number of components, α_i are amplitudes, θ_i are relaxation times and c is parameter. Now, using equation (1) we can formulate the reduced problem:

$$I(\alpha, \theta, c) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}(t, \alpha, \theta, c))^2, \tag{2}$$

$$\alpha^*, \theta^*, c^* = \arg \min I(\alpha, \theta, c), \tag{3}$$

where α^*, θ^*, c^* are components amplitudes, relaxation times and model constant, respectively.

We assume that we know the number of components m , so to make water content analysis we need to find solution on the vector space R^{2m+1} .

There is another criterion of our interest: the accuracy in parameters. We cannot calculate this criterion for the signal we observe, because we do not know the real parameters, but it is possible in simulation. Once we found solution of the problem (2)-(3), it is possible to compare it to the real parameters:

$$I_a(\alpha, \theta, c) = \|\alpha^r - \alpha^*\| + \|\theta^r - \theta^*\| + |c^r - c^*|, \tag{4}$$

where α^r, θ^r and c^r are the parameters of the real system (1) and $\|\cdot\|$ is any norm on real vector space.

The major research question is if the solution of problem (2)-(3) brings the extremum to criterion (4). In experimental part we compare these criteria and in the next section we describe the modifications of criterion (2) that lead to performance improvement.

2.1 Adjusting Fitting Criterion

Our experiments proved that criterion adjustment is one of the most important parts in increasing performance of optimization and in this part, we formulate the notations we use in the further study.

First, we modified the relaxation time variables and use their exponential representation in search. The reason for this is that amplitude and relaxation time values are different in magnitude, α takes values approximately from interval (0,20) and θ takes values from interval (0.004,0.04). To equalize the parameter values in search we use following exponential transformation of relaxation times:

$$\theta = \frac{1}{e^{\tilde{\theta}}}, \tag{5}$$

where $\tilde{\theta}$ is the variable we use in optimization.

According to (2-3) and (5), the main criterion can be formulated in the following way:

$$\tilde{I}(\alpha, \tilde{\theta}, c) = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(y_i - \hat{y} \left(t, \alpha, \frac{1}{e^{\tilde{\theta}}}, c \right) \right)^2, \quad (6)$$

$$\alpha^*, \tilde{\theta}^*, c^* = \arg \min I \left(\alpha, \frac{1}{e^{\tilde{\theta}}}, c \right). \quad (7)$$

Criteria (2) and (6), as their minimum (3) and (7) are identical but solving problem (6)-(7) is preferable for some optimization algorithms.

Second, we add penalties for constrains violation. We assume, that relaxation times and amplitudes are bounded:

$$\alpha < \alpha_{lim}^u, \tilde{\theta} < \tilde{\theta}_{lim}^u, \alpha > 0, \tilde{\theta} > 0, \quad (8)$$

so the violation of constrains (8) will cause the increase of fitting criteria (6):

$$\tilde{I}_p(\alpha, \tilde{\theta}, c) = \tilde{I}(\alpha, \tilde{\theta}, c) + \gamma_u P_u(\alpha, \tilde{\theta}) + \gamma_l P_l(\alpha, \tilde{\theta}), \quad (9)$$

where $\gamma_u \geq 0$ and $\gamma_l \geq 0$ are penalty coefficients, $P_u(\alpha, \tilde{\theta}) \geq 0$ and $P_l(\alpha, \tilde{\theta}) \geq 0$ are penalty function of upper and lower boundaries, respectively:

$$P_u(\alpha, \tilde{\theta}) = \sum_{i=1}^m f_u(\alpha_i, \alpha_{lim}^u) + \sum_{i=1}^m f_u(\tilde{\theta}_i, \tilde{\theta}_{lim}^u), \quad (10)$$

$$P_l(\alpha, \tilde{\theta}) = \sum_{i=1}^m f_l(\alpha_i, 0) + \sum_{i=1}^m f_l(\tilde{\theta}_i, 0). \quad (11)$$

In penalties (10) and (11), functions f_u and f_l are linear functions of boundary violation:

$$f_u(x, v) = \begin{cases} x - v, & x > v \\ 0, & x \leq v \end{cases}, \quad (12)$$

$$f_l(x, v) = \begin{cases} v - x, & x < v \\ 0, & x \geq v \end{cases}. \quad (13)$$

By adjusting γ_u and γ_l parameters and penalties (10)-(13) we can reach feasible and better solutions of optimization problem (9). In experimental results part we provide statistics that prove performance improvement by adding penalties.

2.2 Generating Alternatives

Model (1) parameters have their boundaries, which originate from the nature of identification problem and expected components. Since we know these values, we can generate alternatives according to them. For example, when one utilizes stochastic optimization algorithm, there is a need in initial alternatives set. This is common in population-based optimization.

First generating condition limits the amplitudes:

$$20 > \alpha_i > 0.1, i = 1, \dots, m, \quad (14)$$

since in our experiments we study signals produced by exponential additives, which amplitudes do not exceed by 20.

Due to borders (14) we utilize uniform random number generator, based on uniform distribution

$$r_\alpha \sim U(0.1, 20). \quad (15)$$

Generating of relaxation time is similar, but it comes out of mixture of distributions

$$\begin{aligned} r_\theta^1 &\sim U(0.01, 0.06), \\ r_\theta^2 &\sim U(0.08, 0.2), \\ r_\theta^3 &\sim U(0.03, 0.06), \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

and $P(r_\theta = r_\theta^1) = P(r_\theta = r_\theta^2) = P(r_\theta = r_\theta^3) = \frac{1}{3}$.

Since the coefficient c is expected to be small in value, we also use a uniform distribution, where density covers small interval around origin,

$$r_c \sim U(-0.05, 0.05). \quad (17)$$

Each time we generate the initial population we randomly generate alternative by generating variables according to distributions (15)-(17).

2.3 Differential Evolution Algorithm

Optimization problem (2)-(3) is a global extremum seeking problem on real vector field, as well as optimization problem that includes penalties for amplitudes and relaxation time parameters (14)-(15). There are various algorithms for solving the problem of this kind (Kochenderfer and Wheeler, 2019) and speaking of global optimization the most of algorithms are stochastic. And among stochastic algorithms there are evolutionary algorithms and bioinspired algorithms, which proved their performance solving different challenging optimization problems (Simon, 2013).

Today there are plenty of population-based optimization algorithms and even more of their

modifications. It is impossible to examine each of those for optimization problem and, perhaps, useless. The only criteria we have is that if the algorithm of our choice solves the problem with required accuracy and in desired time. These criteria are related and have different values for different computational resources and are the subject of the further studies.

Since the problem aim is parameter identification of specific system (1), we are not interested in designing of general optimization algorithm, but specific one, that has a high performance solving the application problem. Reaching this aim requires two steps. First, we need to prove that the reduced optimization problem (2)-(3) or (6)-(7) is fitting solving the component analysis problem (4). Second, we need to examine one of the algorithms by varying its parameters and determining a best one to have a baseline approach, which we could use to compare other algorithms in the future.

As a starting point for algorithms, we used standard differential evolution (DE) algorithm (Storn and Price, 1998). This algorithm has 4 control parameters: mutation rate $c_r \in [0,1]$, differential weight $F \in [0,2]$, population size $n_p \in N$, and number of iterations $n_i \in N$.

3 REDUCTION TO PREDICTIVE MODELING

Machine learning approaches allows train the model on data to recognizes the patterns. One of most powerful approaches in a field of machine learning is based on artificial neural networks (ANN). In this study we utilize ANN, that takes the NMR signal as an input and predicts the parameters of mathematical model (1), that produced this signal.

Since we know the number of exponents in the signal (1) and the distributions of mathematical model parameters (15)-(17), we generated $N = 8 \cdot 10^5$ of parameters combinations and produced the same number of signals (1). We also generated $N^{test} = 500$ of parameters to test ANN model. Now, using N observations of signal outputs and model parameters that they produced we can train the ANN model and then evaluate its performance on N^{test} test observations. Let us denote $Y_i \in R^s, i = 1, \dots, N$, as signals we use to train the model and $Y_i^{test} \in R^s, i = 1, \dots, N^{test}$ as signals we use to test it. Here R^s is vector field of size $s=200$, so $\forall i$:

$$\begin{aligned} T &= \{t: t = 0.04 + 0.02j, j = 1, \dots, s\}, \\ Y_i &= \{y: y = \hat{y}(t_j, \alpha^i, \theta^i, c^i), j = 1, \dots, s\} \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

The same N^{test} observations will be used when testing the proposed approach that combines ANN predictions and DE algorithm search.

3.1 Data Preprocessing

Model (1) represents sum of inverse exponents, so each signal observation contains a small number of values greater than 1 and large number of values that are very close to signal constant c .

First, we scale the all the signals (18) by maximum observed value at each timestep $j = 1, \dots, s$,

$$\tilde{Y}_i = \left\{ y: \frac{(Y_i)_j}{\max_k (Y_k)_j}, j = 1, \dots, s \right\}. \quad (19)$$

Second, we scale the outputs α^i, θ^i, c^i that correspond to each of the i -th signal. For relaxation times θ^i , we use min-max scaling, $\forall i, j$:

$$(\tilde{\theta}_i)_j = \frac{(\theta_i)_j - \min_k ((\theta_k)_j)}{\max_k ((\theta_k)_j) - \min_k ((\theta_k)_j)}. \quad (20)$$

For amplitudes and intercept parameters we additionally scale them on signal maximum, $\forall i, j$:

$$(\tilde{\alpha}_i)_j = \frac{(\alpha_i^*)_j - \min_k ((\alpha_k^*)_j)}{\max_k ((\alpha_k^*)_j) - \min_k ((\alpha_k^*)_j)}, \quad (21)$$

$$\tilde{c}_i = \frac{c_i^* - \min_k (c_k^*)}{\max_k (c_k^*) - \min_k (c_k^*)}, \quad (22)$$

where $\forall i: \alpha_i^* = \frac{\alpha^i}{\max_j (Y_{ij})}$ and $c_i^* = \frac{c^i}{\max_j (Y_{ij})}$ are scaled by maximum signal value amplitude and intercept coefficient.

Proposed data preprocessing makes inputs and outputs balanced. Predicted parameters can be transformed to their initial form, by knowing the signal characteristics and parameters involved in (20)-(22) evaluations.

The same transformations (19)-(22) were applied to test dataset, except for minimum and maximum parameters, which were taken from the train dataset.

3.2 Artificial Neural Network Model

In this study we utilized multi-layer perceptron as ANN structure. The structure of the model is given in Table 1. At this stage of the research, we use a simple architecture with rectified linear activation units and do not apply regularization or dropout.

Table 1: The structure of ANN.

Layer	Activation	Neurons
1	ReLU	256
2	ReLU	128
3	ReLU	64
4	ReLU	128
5	Linear	9

When training the model, we used 25% of train dataset for validation. The training process stops when the error on validation dataset begins to grow. The histograms, showing the parameters square error sum (PSES) is given in Figure 1. The PSES is in logarithmic scale for better representation of the parameter estimations error. The histogram showing the distribution of parameter square error (PSE) for each parameter prediction is given in Figure 2.

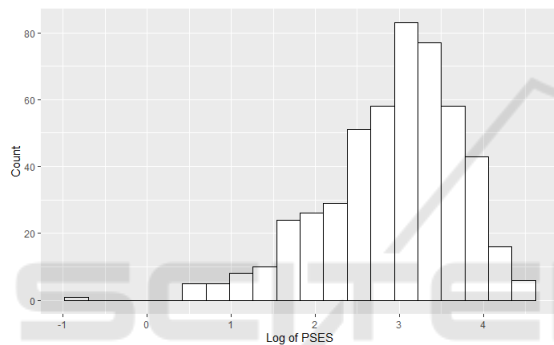


Figure 1: Histogram of PSES distribution for ANN-based parameters predictor.

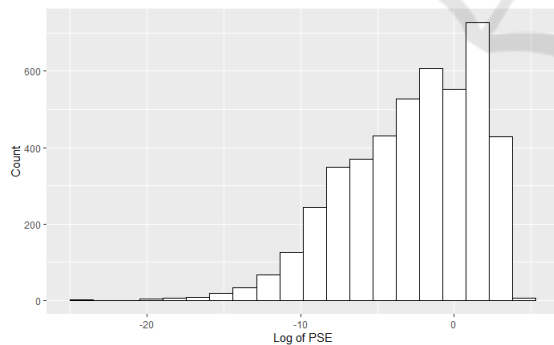


Figure 2: Histogram of PSE distribution for ANN-based parameters predictor.

As one can see, the square sum of error is large. That happens, because some parameters in the prediction are predicted worse than others and their squared value is large.

Histogram in Figure 2 shows that there are many parameters which are predicted well and close to the initial ones. Average error for amplitudes estimation

is 5.99, average error for relaxation times in exponential form is 0.13 and average error of PSES is 24.52. Trained model with its characteristics will be used as baseline model in the further studies.

4 PREDICTION MODEL IN GENERATING INITIAL POPULATION

Generating initial population for DE algorithm is performed according to (15)-(17) random values distributions. These distributions fit the real parameters values boundaries.

The next step of our research is to combine ANN models with optimization algorithm by generating initial population partly according to distributions (15)-(17) and partly by predictions of the machine learning model.

Let $a_i, i = 1, \dots, n_p^{ANN} - 1$, be the alternative in DE algorithm initial population, where $n_p^{ANN} < n_p$ is the number of solutions generated on the basis of ANN model prediction. Let the $a_{n_p^{ANN}}$ be an alternative that is exactly the ANN model prediction for the current signal input. Then for $i = 1, \dots, n_p^{ANN} - 1$:

$$(a_i)_j = (a_{n_p^{ANN}})_j + r, \quad (23)$$

where $r \sim N(0, \sigma_r)$ and σ_r is control parameter.

Generating initial population according to (23) adds distorted ANN predictions and to the alternative set and by controlling parameters n_p^{ANN} and σ_r one can tune the approach and find the best balance between the randomly generated alternatives and alternatives distributed normally around ANN prediction of parameters.

5 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

First, we need to examine if the fitting criteria (2) allows us to find the solution for the identification problem (4). For that purpose, we run DE algorithm for different combinations of its parameters: $c_r \in \{0.01, 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, \dots, 0.9, 0.95\}$, and $F \in \{0.1, 0.2, \dots, 2\}$. It is important to mention that each run of optimization algorithm is done for the same initial population, so different algorithm settings are equal in their initial point. In this part of research, we generated 20 of different initial populations that were

used by algorithm with each setting combination. For each DE algorithm parameters and initial population combination, we do 20 launches if different is not mentioned. As a result, for each parameter combination we have $20 \times 20 = 400$ algorithm runs. The idea of using the same initial population for algorithm with different settings is explained in (Jensen, 2013).

In this part of research, we would generate the amplitudes in smaller area: from 0.1 to 1, instead of 20, as in (15). The initial signal was produced by the following parameters of model (1):

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha^r &= (0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4), \\ \theta^r &= (0.004, 0.01, 0.018, 0.035), \\ c^r &= 0. \end{aligned} \tag{24}$$

Let us start with criteria (2) without penalties, population size of 100 and 500 iterations of algorithm. The mean square error (MES) between model and observations for different optimization parameters is given in Figure 3. Similar plot but for PSES criterion is given in Figure 4.

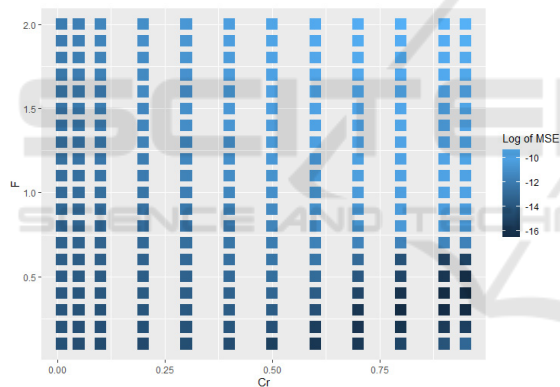


Figure 3: Influence of DE parameters on MSE. No penalties. Number of iterations equals 500.

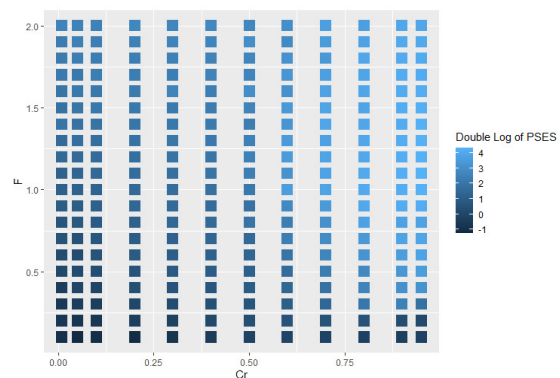


Figure 4: Influence of DE parameters on PSES. No penalties. Number of iterations equals 500.

As one can see, different settings are better for MSE and PSES criteria. But in real world we do not know the real parameters and cannot calculate the PSES criterion and, according to the results, we cannot guarantee that improving of algorithm performance for MSE criterion leads to better parameters predictions.

Let us compare alternatives MSE and PSES criteria on a scatter plot in Figure 5.

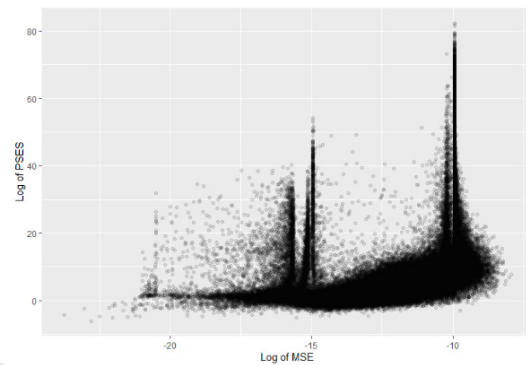


Figure 5: MSE vs PSES criteria for all solutions found by DE with different parameters. No penalties. Number of iterations equals 500.

Figure 5 shows that even though fitting criterion has small values, parameter estimation can be far from the real ones. There are many different peaks of the PSES criterion, and those peaks are formed by alternatives, which have too large $\tilde{\theta}$ parameters. Since these parameters are in exponential form, these exponents are becoming close to 0. In case of 0, algorithm can find any amplitude as its multiplier and that is why the criterion can have such a large value. Also, there are other reasons for bad estimation of the parameters, such as solutions with negative values. But we know that these parameters cannot be too large or negative, that is why we add penalties to the

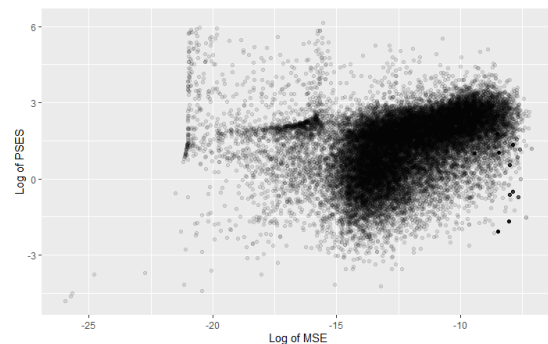


Figure 6: MSE vs PSES criteria for all solutions found by DE with different parameters. Criterion with penalties. Number of iterations equals 500.

fitting function and use criteria (6). The similar scatter plot for fitting criterion with penalties is given in Figure 6.

Our next step is to increase the computational resources: we set the number of iterations to 7500 instead of 500. The scatter plot of MSE versus PSES criterion is given in Figure 7.

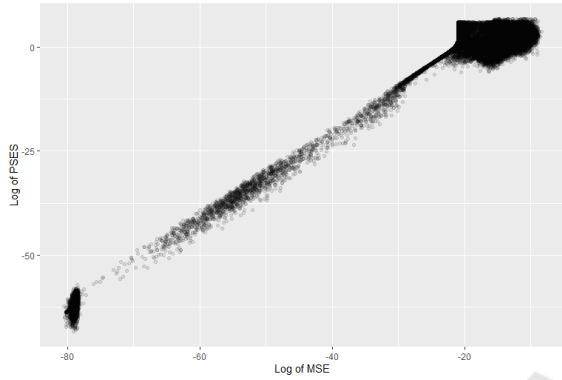


Figure 7: MSE vs PSES criteria for all solutions found by DE with different parameters. Criterion with penalties. Number of iterations equals 7500.

Now we can see that there is a linear trend between fitting and parameter estimation criteria and can conclude that with these amounts of resources algorithm finds good estimations when model fits the observations. Heatmap for different DE parameters influence on MSE is given in Figure 8 and their influence on PSES in given in Figure 9.

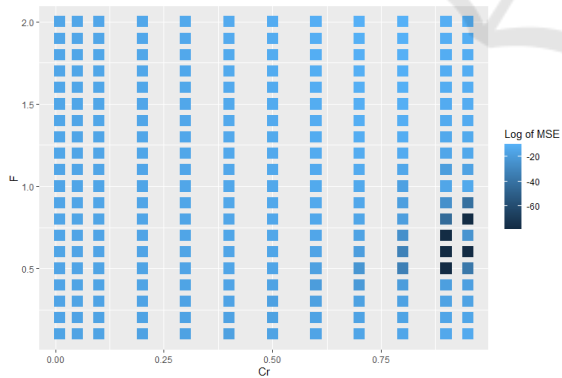


Figure 8: Influence of DE parameters on MSE. Criterion with penalties. Number of iterations equals 7500.

For this number of iterations, the best algorithm parameters match both criteria. In the next part we will use algorithm with 7500 iterations, $c_r = 0.9$ and $F = 0.6$, as the best discovered algorithm settings.

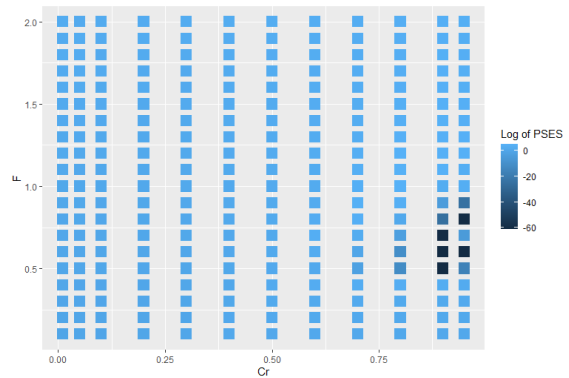


Figure 9: Influence of DE parameters on PSES. Criterion with penalties. Number of iterations equals 7500.

Now we examine algorithm on solving more complex problem, where amplitudes can take values from 0.1 to 20, as in (15). And for examination of algorithm performance, we will use signals from ANN training dataset.

We compared all three approaches in Table 2 by different characteristics: criteria average and the number of solutions that have logarithm of PSES criteria smaller than 0, 1 and 2. We provided Wilcoxon test, which p-value of $2.2e^{-16}$ proves that average of DE and DE+ANN algorithm is different.

Table 2: Characteristics of different approaches: ANN, DE and DE+ANN.

Characteristic	ANN	DE	DE+ANN
Average PSES	24.52	63.37	39.12
Average log of PSES	2.93	-2.57	-6.31
Average MSE	$5.65E^{-3}$	$1.04E^{-7}$	$3.12E^{-8}$
Average log of MSE	-5.97	-31.46	-36.76
Log of PSES < 0, number	1	80	128
Log of PSES < 1, number	12	98	148
Log of PSES < 2, number	69	131	189

Let us compare DE algorithm with DE algorithm that involves ANN prediction in population generating (23). Boxplot showing the difference in MSE values between DE and DE+ANN algorithm is given in Figure 10. Boxplot showing the difference in PSES values is given in Figure 11.

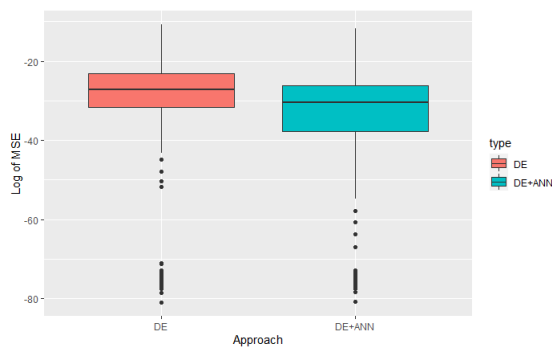


Figure 10: Boxplot for logarithm of best alternatives MSE values found by DE and DE+ANN approaches.

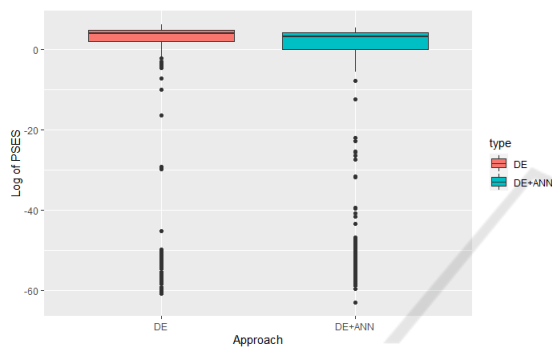


Figure 11: Boxplot for logarithm of best alternatives PSES values found by DE and DE+ANN approaches.

According to Wilcoxon test, Figures 10-11, and results in Table 2, we can conclude that combination of ANN and DE outperforms other approaches.

6 CONCLUSIONS

In this study we examined three different approaches for solving signal parameter identification by observations. We applied evolutionary algorithm with adjusted criterion, deep learning-based approach, and a combination of those. We numerically proved that fitting problem is related to parameter identification problem. We trained a baseline ANN model and optimization algorithm.

Numerical results proves that a combination of DE and ANN for performing DE's initial population gives better results in solving signal parameter recognition problem. Proposed approach outperforms baseline approaches for different metrics, except for average of parameter values error. This happens because errors in its prediction are bigger than in ANN's but appears in fewer cases. The same proves counting of PSES logarithm cases less than 0 or 1.

Further study is focused on designing deep learning architectures and their combinations with evolutionary algorithms that outperforms the proposed approached and baseline approaches in this study.

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