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6 **Evaluation of Stormwater Harvesting Sites Using**  
7 **Multi Criteria Decision Methodology**

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## Abstract

31

32 Selection of suitable urban stormwater harvesting sites and associated project planning are  
33 often complex due to spatial, temporal, economic, environmental and social factors, and  
34 related various other variables. This paper is aimed at developing a comprehensive  
35 methodology framework for evaluating of stormwater harvesting sites in urban areas using  
36 Multi Criteria Decision Analysis (MCDA). At the first phase, framework selects potential  
37 stormwater harvesting (SWH) sites using spatial characteristics in a GIS environment. In  
38 second phase, MCDA methodology is used for evaluating and ranking of SWH sites in multi-  
39 objective and multi-stakeholder environment.

40 The paper briefly describes first phase of framework and focuses chiefly on the second  
41 phase of framework. The application of the methodology is also demonstrated over a case  
42 study comprising of the local government area, City of Melbourne (CoM), Australia for the  
43 benefit of wider water professionals engaged in this area. Nine performance measures  
44 (PMs) were identified to characterise the objectives and system performance related to the  
45 eight alternative SWH sites for the demonstration of the application of developed  
46 methodology. To reflect the stakeholder interests in the current study, four stakeholder  
47 participant groups were identified, namely, water authorities (WA), academics (AC),  
48 consultants (CS), and councils (CL). The decision analysis methodology broadly consisted of  
49 deriving PROMETHEE II rankings of eight alternative SWH sites in the CoM case study,  
50 under two distinct group decision making scenarios.

51 The major innovation of this work is the development and application of comprehensive  
52 methodology framework that assists in the selection of potential sites for SWH, and  
53 facilitates the ranking in multi-objective and multi-stakeholder environment. It is expected

54 that the proposed methodology will assist the water professionals and managers with better  
55 knowledge that will reduce the subjectivity in the selection and evaluation of SWH sites

56 **Keywords: Stormwater Harvesting, MCDA, Decision Making, Stakeholder**  
57 **Engagement**

## 58 **1. Introduction**

59 Among several alternative water resources available for reuse, stormwater is the most  
60 preferred by the general public, especially when compared to recycled wastewater (Mitchell  
61 et al. 2002). Stormwater harvesting (SWH) and reuse is a widely used practice which deals  
62 with collection, storage, treatment and distribution of stormwater systems (Goonrey et al.  
63 2009; Hatt et al. 2006; Sharma et al. 2012a; Sharma et al. 2013). Key benefits of  
64 stormwater harvesting have been demonstrated in terms of efficient use of existing natural  
65 resources, reduction in pollutant loads in the waterways, reduced pressure on existing water  
66 infrastructure, and flood control and protection (Mitchell et al. 2007).

67 The selection and evaluation of SWH sites is a spatial problem. The performance of  
68 stormwater systems in meeting the desired objectives will strongly depend upon the spatial  
69 characteristics of the catchment such as availability of stormwater supply, intended end use  
70 demands, water quality and distance from stormwater sources to end use locations. In  
71 addition, SWH and reuse schemes need significant physical area and financial investment  
72 (Sharma et al. 2016) for installing associated infrastructure (i.e. collection, storage, treatment  
73 and maintenance systems).

74 In this regard, the selection of suitable SWH sites is of key priority for urban water  
75 infrastructure planners. In Australian cities, generally the large scale SWH schemes are  
76 implemented on existing parks, council reserves, or other open spaces. Currently, there is

77 no clear guidance available to select the best SWH site out of many potential sites in the  
78 area. Existing selection approaches are ad-hoc and use subjective knowledge of urban  
79 water managers to short-list the potential SWH schemes.

80 Apart from site selection, SWH infrastructure planning is complex and dynamic, where  
81 systems are expected to achieve several objectives such as maximizing the reliability of  
82 supply, minimizing the public health risks, minimizing the impact on environment and  
83 minimizing the supply cost. In this context, the focus of urban water managers has shifted to  
84 address these real-world problems through Multi Criteria Decision Analysis (MCDA) which is  
85 capable in providing multi-objective assessment of SWH systems and options (Brans 2002;  
86 Kodikara 2008).

87 MCDA is a widely used decision making tool in water resource management decision  
88 making including in SWH systems (DEC 2006; Taylor 2005, Zardari 2015). MCDA can  
89 provide decision aid for SWH systems decision making for their option assessment for  
90 selection under conflicting objectives along with different interests of stakeholders. For  
91 example, a SWH project may have an objective of minimizing the project cost, while at the  
92 same time trying to improve the aesthetic and social values for community welfare which  
93 may increase the cost of the scheme. The MCDA methods can also assist decision makers  
94 to account for the inherent conflicts and trade-offs among such objectives and to rationalize  
95 the comparison among different decision options (Kodikara et al. 2010).

96 Currently, there are various assessment frameworks developed for the evaluation of urban  
97 water servicing systems in the literature (Goonrey et al. 2009; Mitchell et al. 2006; Sharma et  
98 al. 2009; Sharma et al. 2010; Zhang et al. 2009). These frameworks commonly evaluate  
99 urban water systems alternatives by integrating various analysis methods and tools such as  
100 hydrological modelling, water balance analysis, life cycle costing, social analysis as well as

101 stakeholder involvement. However, these frameworks are not exclusively applicable for  
102 selection and evaluation of SWH systems. Considering this knowledge gap, a framework is  
103 presented in this paper for evaluation of urban SWH sites.

104 This paper initially outlines the theoretical foundations of MCDA methods, including the  
105 selected PROMETHEE methodology (Pomerol and Barba-Romero, 2000), and associated  
106 preference elicitation of different stakeholders. Then, it discusses in detail the development  
107 and evaluation of economic, environmental and social performance measures. Also, this  
108 paper presents the application of the framework to a case study of City of Melbourne (CoM)  
109 where ranking of SWH sites is obtained in a multi-objective and multi-stakeholder  
110 environment.

## 111 **2. Framework for Evaluation of Stormwater Harvesting Sites**

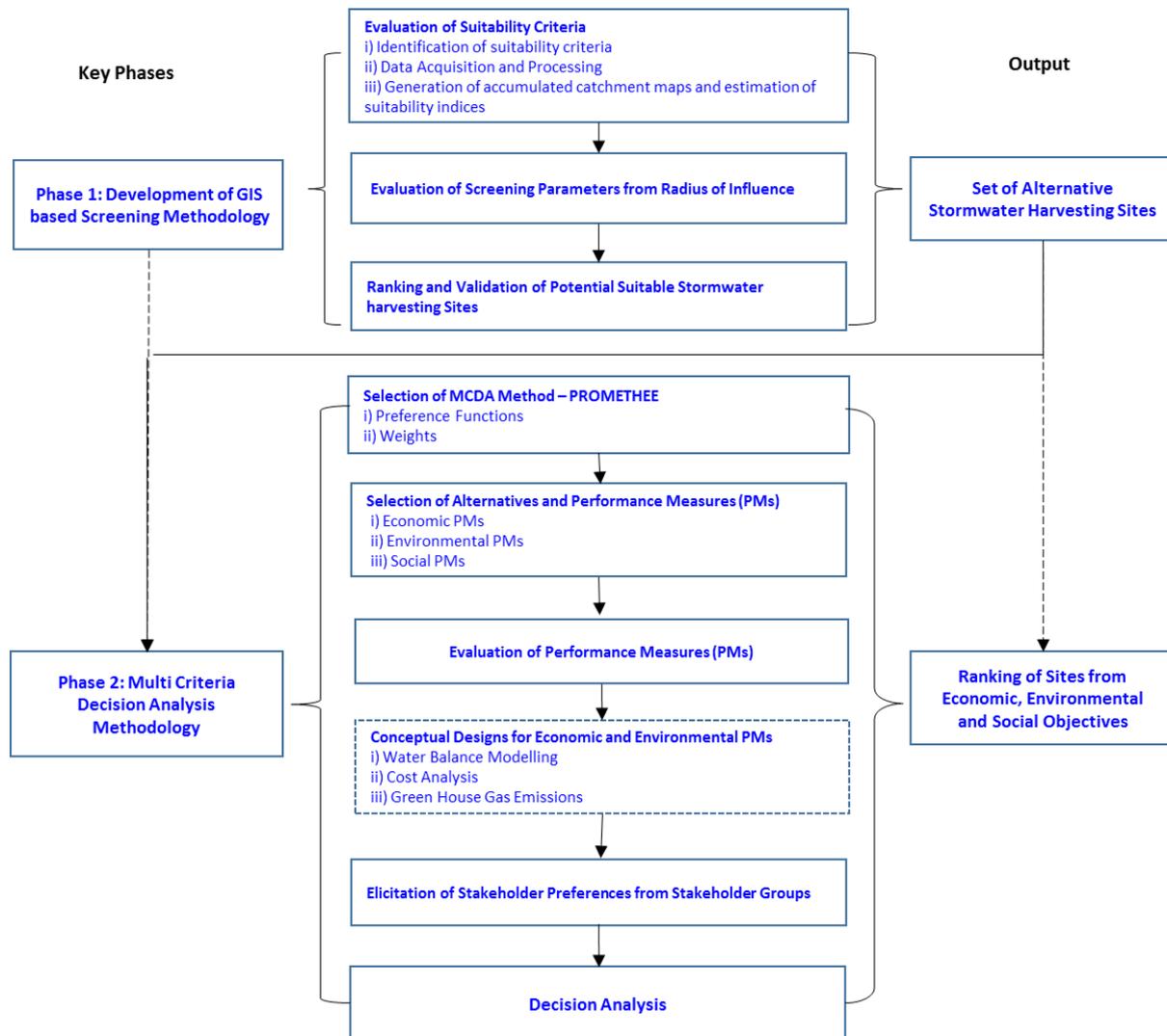
112 The framework presented in this paper is aimed at developing a comprehensive  
113 methodology for identifying and evaluating SWH sites in urban areas. Figure 1 shows the  
114 broad outline of the proposed framework.

115 The framework has two key phases, which are described below:

116 **Phase 1** - Development of a GIS based screening methodology for identification and  
117 selection of a set of suitable SWH sites.

118 The details of the GIS screening methodology (Phase 1) have been described in Inamdar et  
119 al. (2013) along with its application to a City of Melbourne case study area. In summary, the  
120 GIS based screening methodology was developed using the following steps:

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**Figure 1:** Outline of Proposed Framework for Selection and Evaluation of Stormwater Harvesting Sites

125

- Step 1 - Evaluation of suitability criteria: Annual runoff and non-potable demand were considered as the suitability criteria, as they are the principal drivers for any SWH scheme. The concept of accumulated catchment was developed for estimating runoff and demand. Spatial maps were generated for runoff, demand and accumulated catchments, which required the collection of data such as rainfall, water demands, impervious-pervious areas, digital elevation model (DEM), and digital cadastre.

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- 131       • Step 2 - Estimation of environmental flows: This step involved the estimation of  
132       environmental flows. The pre-development flows were considered in this step as the  
133       environmental flows which should be released to the receiving waters before  
134       deciding the amount of stormwater for harvesting from the SWH scheme.
- 135       • Step 3 - Evaluation of screening parameters considering the radius of influence of the  
136       SWH site, which is defined as the distance from the harvesting point (outlet) to the  
137       point of demand. This included identifying: demand, ratio of runoff to demand and  
138       weighted demand distance within the radius of influence of the SWH site.
- 139       • Step 4 - Ranking and validation: This step included ranking of harvesting sites based  
140       on the evaluation of screening parameters (i.e. high demand, highest ratio of runoff to  
141       demand and lowest weighted demand distance), and their validation by the local  
142       water experts to test the developed methodology outcomes in terms of ranking of  
143       sites are consistent with the local knowledge of these experts.

144   A set of potential SWH sites selected from Phase 1 is considered for further assessment  
145   based on economic, environmental and social performance measures in Phase 2.

146   **Phase 2** - Evaluation of potential harvesting sites identified in Phase 1, through MCDA  
147   considering several economic, environmental and social objectives, under different  
148   stakeholders' perspectives.

149   In the second phase, the MCDA evaluation is used to facilitate the rankings of SWH sites  
150   (obtained from Phase 1). It should be noted that Phase 1 ranking (GIS) is conducted using  
151   spatial information to shortlist and identify potentially suitable sites (Inamdar et al. 2013),  
152   while ranking in Phase 2 is done via a comprehensive MCDA evaluation considering several

153 economic, environmental and social objectives. The activities/approaches involved in Phase  
154 2 are detailed in Section 3 below.

### 155 **3. Multi Criteria Decision Analysis (MCDA)**

156 A classic MCDA model considers a finite set of decision options (or alternatives) from  
157 different perspectives which need to be ranked or scored by the decision maker (DM) under  
158 a family of performance measures (or criteria). The generic MCDA problem is structured by  
159 careful selection of performance measures (PMs) representing the objectives of the decision  
160 problem (Sharma et al. 2009; Sharma et al. 2010). Moreover, the PMs describe  
161 quantitative/qualitative attributes of alternatives, typically measured in different units. The  
162 alternatives and performance measures together form the 'evaluation matrix' (or decision  
163 matrix) which can be solved by different MCDA methods.

#### 164 **3.1 Selection of MCDA method - PROMETHEE**

165 The suitable method for the MCDA analysis can be selected based on the objective problem  
166 formulation and assessment needs. Many authors have classified different MCDA methods  
167 in various forms (Rowley et al. 2012, Hajkovicz and Collins 2007; Huang et al. 2011;  
168 Pomerol and Barba-Romero 2000). The main differences in various MCDA methods are  
169 identified based on the methodology used, their user-friendliness, and the sensitivity tools  
170 they offer (Brans 2002).

171 For the assessment framework proposed in this paper, an outranking method PROMETHEE  
172 is recommended based on its non-compensatory properties (i.e. not allowing trade-off  
173 between sustainable objectives), ease of use, and availability of commercial software  
174 (Pomerol and Barba-Romero 2000). Additionally, there has been a growing trend to include  
175 active engagement and collaboration between stakeholders in policy making and planning

176 processes for SWH projects (DEC 2006). The PROMETHEE method has been found  
177 effective in integrating diverse views of stakeholders through its group decision making  
178 capabilities (Kodikara et al. 2010).

### 179 **3.1.1 Inputs to PROMETHEE II**

180 The PROMETHEE II method builds on the principle of preference aggregation in pair-wise  
181 comparison of alternatives against each defined PM. All possible combinations of  
182 alternatives are evaluated according to different PMs which need to be maximized or  
183 minimized. Apart from the basic data required on the evaluation matrix, PROMETHEE II  
184 further requires two datasets of additional information (from DMs) in terms of preference  
185 functions and weights. These are described in the following sections.

#### 186 **3.1.1.1 Preference Functions**

187 During evaluation of a given pair of alternatives, PROMETHEE II considers the magnitude of  
188 the differences( $x$ ) between each PM value between the two alternatives. If this deviation is  
189 large, then higher preference is given to the better alternative. Similarly, smaller deviations  
190 on alternatives are treated as weak preference or indifference. To represent this deviation,  
191 PROMETHEE II uses the concept of preference function,  $p(x)$ , in pair wise comparison of  
192 alternatives. For a given PM, the preference function (PF) translates the deviation ( $x$ )  
193 between the PM values of the two alternatives, to a preference degree (or preference  
194 intensity), which has a value between 0 and 1.

195 For the assignment of preference functions on PMs, the authors of PROMETHEE II (Brans  
196 and Mareschal, 2005) proposed six basic shapes. These shapes are named as Usual  
197 criterion (Type I), U-shape criterion (Type II), V-shape criterion (Type III), level criterion  
198 (Type IV), V-shape with indifference criterion (Type V) and Gaussian criterion (Type VI).

199 Among these six shapes, the qualitative PMs used in this SWH framework can be best  
200 represented by Type I function, while the quantitative PMs can be represented by Type V  
201 function as suggested by Brans and Mareschal (2005).

202 There are three preference function thresholds ( $p$ ,  $q$  and  $s$ ), which can be used to describe  
203 any of the above six preference functions (Brans and Mareschal 2005). The indifference  
204 threshold,  $q$  represents the largest difference in PM values until which DM thinks that the  
205 preference between alternatives  $a$  and  $b$  is negligible or indifferent. The preference  
206 threshold,  $p$ , represents the smallest difference in PM values that is considered as crucial in  
207 generating strong preference of one alternative over the other. The Gaussian threshold ( $s$ )  
208 serves as intermediate preference value between  $p$  and  $q$ .

209 The preference thresholds aim at modelling the preferences of the DMs realistically which  
210 gradually increase from indifference to strict preference while comparing the alternatives on  
211 the given PM (Haralambopoulos and Polatidis, 2003). Estimation of these threshold values  
212 requires a significant subjective input by the DMs which in turn can bring the uncertainty in  
213 the MCDA modelling.

214 There is very little literature available in elicitation of preference thresholds ( $p$ ,  $q$ , and  $s$ ) and  
215 deriving the preference functions for outranking methods. Most of the studies employ the  
216 direct method of asking DMs to specify the appropriate PF and associated thresholds  
217 (Mutikanga et al., 2011; Silva et al., 2010). In the current study, such a direct approach is  
218 used in elicitation of the preference function parameters from the stakeholders.

### 219 **3.1.1.2 Weights**

220 Weights in PROMETHEE II represent the relative importance of the different PMs from the  
221 DM perspective. In PROMETHEE II, the set of weight  $\{W_j, j = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$  for  $n$  number of

222 PMs is obtained such that, normalised weights add up to 1 (i.e.  $\sum_{j=1}^n W_j=1$ ). The PMs with  
223 higher weights are considered important by the DM and vice versa.

224 There are several methods available in the literature for elicitation of weights in the  
225 MCDA/PROMETHEE context. Some of these methods are direct evaluation methods,  
226 entropy methods (Zeleny, 1982), Revised Simo and Analytical Hierarchy Process (AHP)  
227 (Saaty, 2003). Details of these methods can be found in Pomerol and Barba-Romero (2000).

228 Among the weighting methods, the AHP enables weight elicitation in a systematic way,  
229 breaking the complex decision problem into a hierarchy of objectives and PMs. Weights on  
230 PMs are derived through this hierarchy so that the output result (i.e. scores on alternatives)  
231 is a multi-level weighted sum (Pomerol and Barba-Romero, 2000). The AHP method  
232 conducts pair-wise comparisons of PMs (similar to PROMETHEE) to elicit the weights.  
233 Precisely, the weights derived from the AHP are the eigenvectors obtained from the pair-  
234 wise comparison matrix of hierarchical elements (objectives/PMs).

235 Macharis et al. (2004) strongly recommended the combination of PROMETHEE with AHP for  
236 ranking of options considering hierarchical property of AHP in the context of determination of  
237 weights. Considering these benefits, AHP is proposed in this study to derive the weights in  
238 the study.

### 239 **3.1.1.3 Ranking of Alternatives**

240 Once preference function and weights are obtained for each PM, the PROMETHEE II  
241 method estimates net outranking flow by two key steps as described below (Brans and  
242 Mareschal 2005):

#### 243 **Step 1: Building of outranking relationship**

244 Considering the evaluation of finite set **A** of **m** possible alternatives, [ $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m$ ] and  
 245 family of **n** PMs, [ $f_1(\cdot), f_2(\cdot), \dots, f_n(\cdot)$ ], the preference elicitation is facilitated to derive  
 246 the set of relative weights, [ $w_j, j=1,2,\dots,n$ ], and the set of generalized preference function  
 247 types, [ $F_j(x), j=1,2,\dots,n$ ].

248

249 For given pair of alternatives say (a and b) belonging to set **A**, the preference function  
 250 denotes the preference of alternative a over b, and can be expressed  $P_j(x)$  for *Performance*  
 251 *Measure j*,

252 where,  $P_j(a, b) = f_j(a) - f_j(b)$

253

254 The outranking relation for the pair of alternatives (a, b) can be represented by a multi-  
 255 criteria preference index which indicates the degree of preference such that  
 256

$$\pi(a, b) = \sum_{j=1}^n W_j P_j(a, b) \quad (1)$$

$$\pi(b, a) = \sum_{j=1}^n W_j P_j(b, a)$$

257

258 Where,  $\pi(a, b)$  = Preference degree with which a is preferred over b,

259  $\pi(b, a)$  = Preference degree with which b is preferred over a, and

260  $W_j$  = Relative weight of importance for PM  $j$

261

262 **Step 2: Ranking of alternatives using outranking relations**

263 Decision aid in PROMETHEE II can be achieved by estimating and comparing the outgoing  
264 flow,  $\Phi^+(a)$  and the incoming flow,  $\Phi^-(a)$  at each alternative. These flows are represented as  
265 follows

$$\begin{aligned}\Phi^+(a) &= \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \pi(a, i) \\ \Phi^-(a) &= \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \pi(i, a)\end{aligned}\quad (2)$$

266 The positive flow  $\Phi^+(a)$  defines the strength of alternative  $a$  in outranking the remaining  $(n-1)$   
267 alternatives. Higher the  $\Phi^+(a)$ , better is the alternative. Similarly, the negative flow  $\Phi^-(a)$   
268 defines the weakness of alternative  $a$ , and signifies the degree by which  $a$  is outranked by  
269 other  $(n-1)$  alternatives. Higher the  $\Phi^-(a)$ , worse is the alternative.

270 PROMETHEE II provides complete ranking through net outranking flow  $\Phi(a)$  for alternative  
271  $a$ , which can be expressed as

$$\Phi(a) = \Phi^+(a) - \Phi^-(a) \quad (3)$$

272 Similarly, net outranking of all the alternatives can be estimated. The alternative with highest  
273 net outranking flow is considered as best and vice versa. Further technical details on  
274 PROMETHEE (and associated variant methods) can be found in Brans and Mareschal  
275 (2005).

### 276 **3.2 Selection of Performance Measures**

277 As stated in Section 3, the decision matrix consists of alternatives and their corresponding  
278 PMs. For the decision matrix in this study, the set of alternative SWH sites is obtained using  
279 the GIS based screening methodology as described in Phase 1 (Inamdar et al., 2013). In

280 general, the selection of PMs for the MCDA evaluation is decided in consultation with  
281 stakeholders associated with SWH projects who have a good knowledge of the area and  
282 local needs. The PMs used in this study are based on literature review and discussions with  
283 stakeholders such as academics, water authorities, councils and consultants, and are  
284 described in Sections 3.2.1 to 3.2.4.

### 285 **3.2.1 Economic PMs**

286 Life Cycle Costing (LCC) is a widely used approach in economic assessment of SWH  
287 projects (Australian Standards 1999; DEC 2006; Mitchell et al. 2006; Taylor 2005). A  
288 simplified and equivalent approach to life cycle costing is to calculate the net present value  
289 (NPV) of project's capital and operating costs of a project (DEC 2006; Mitchell et al. 2006;  
290 Sharma et al. 2009; Swamee and Sharma 2008).

291 Based on NPV estimations, the current study uses Levelised Cost (LC) as a performance  
292 measure for economic assessment of SWH projects. LC has been recommended in the  
293 literature as it represents the life cycle costs of the SWH schemes (DEC 2006). LC can be  
294 defined as the net present value of the project's infrastructure costs over the analysis period  
295 divided by the net present value of total volume of water supplied over the same period. It is  
296 expressed in units of cost per KL.

### 297 **3.2.2 Environmental PMs**

298 One of the important environmental considerations for SWH projects is to improve water  
299 quality of stormwater before reuse. To support this consideration, SWH projects are often  
300 assessed by comparing the pollutant loads removal with standard best practice targets set  
301 by the designated local/state regulators for end use based on the fit for purpose concept.  
302 The common pollutants considered for removal are Total Suspended Solids (TSS), Total

303 Phosphorous (TP) and Total Nitrogen (TN). The loads of these pollutants are often  
304 expressed in the form of Annualised Removal Costs (ARC) which are then served as  
305 important PMs to meet environmental objectives for the proposed framework. The ARC  
306 (\$/kg/Year) for pollutants represents the cost required to remove each kg of pollutants (TSS,  
307 TN and TP) per year over the life of SWH schemes.

308 According to Sharma et al. (2009), environmental impacts also arise from Green House Gas  
309 (GHG) emissions generated from the energy required for the operation of the services and  
310 embodied energy in manufacturing the infrastructure required for various service provisions.  
311 They reported that GHG emissions are mainly linked with operational electrical energy for  
312 servicing, which are responsible for 85-90% of the total emissions. Therefore, the present  
313 framework considers GHG emission from operational energy only as a performance  
314 measure for comparing the environmental impacts associated with SWH sites, neglecting  
315 the embodied infrastructure energy.

316 The proposed framework in this paper also considers Potable Water Savings (PWS)  
317 generated from SWH schemes as an important performance measure under the  
318 environmental objective. It has been considered that the potable water savings are equally  
319 proportional to stormwater usage. The SWH sites with a higher potential to replace potable  
320 water, represent improved sustainability.

### 321 **3.2.3 Social PMs**

322 The determination of social PMs can be subjective depending on the scope of the study. In  
323 the literature, public perceptions and acceptance of water reuse are recognised as the main  
324 drivers of success for any reuse project including SWH schemes (DEC 2006). Mitchell et al.  
325 (2006) demonstrated that community acceptance for SWH is a function of the degree of

326 human contact. The authors further showed that support for the SWH decreases with more  
327 personal end use such as kitchen and shower. Community acceptance is generally very  
328 high where end-use of stormwater is limited to meet the irrigation demand of the parks  
329 (DEC, 2006).

330 The present study is associated with SWH for the irrigation of local council's parks and  
331 gardens, and thus community acceptance has been considered as critical social PM which is  
332 measured here in terms of degree of stormwater available in meeting irrigation demands  
333 from a given site. The community acceptance will be high for the site where stormwater can  
334 meet a larger component of high irrigation demand of that site. This performance measure  
335 can be evaluated qualitatively in terms of a 1 to 5-point scale (with 5 being very high  
336 acceptance and 1 being lowest).

337 Apart from the public acceptance, the recreational value of SWH sites can be considered as  
338 an important social PM for this framework. This is also described in the literature as  
339 'aesthetic benefits/value' (Philp et al., 2008; Taylor, 2005). The recreational value of SWH  
340 sites depend on the number of sports fields, water bodies, and the popularity of these sites  
341 for recreational activities. In the present framework, the alternative sites with large number of  
342 sport fields and recreational activities can be rated high (5) for recreational value and vice  
343 versa.

344 Risks associated with SWH are considered as a critical PM in various studies (Taylor 2005;  
345 DEC 2006). In general, SWH studies assess environmental, public health and safety  
346 associated risks (Taylor 2005; DEC 2006). As per NRMCC (2009) guidelines on stormwater  
347 harvesting and reuse projects, small-to-medium stormwater reuse schemes involving open  
348 space irrigation (as in current study) can be readily managed using standard practices to  
349 minimise health and environmental risks. Additionally, the health and environmental risks

350 (pollutants, GHG emissions etc.) are explicitly handled in the environmental objective and  
351 therefore they are not considered separately in the social objective.

352 The proposed framework considers risks associated with the construction of the project as  
353 one of key PMs. The user can conduct basic or detailed construction risk assessments for  
354 SWH sites, which can be determined by multiple factors, and are generally location specific.  
355 Construction risks can be estimated by considering number of factors such as location of  
356 nearby existing drainage asset (to minimize construction), availability of sufficient storage,  
357 presence of heritage or culturally significant places near sites, or presence of possible  
358 service disruptions such as electricity poles/transformers, tram crossings lines near sites.  
359 Each site can be ranked separately on multiple factors using a predefined qualitative scale of  
360 1-5. The ranking obtained from these multiple factors can be summed to derive the total  
361 combined ranking score. It should be noted that this total combined score needs to be  
362 standardised into 1-5-point scale which can be used in estimating the overall construction  
363 risks for all sites.

#### 364 **3.2.4 Summary of PMs Considered**

365 Table 1 provides the summary of all PMs considered in the proposed framework under  
366 economic, environmental and social objectives. It should be noted that each PM in Table 1  
367 needs to be either minimized or maximized with respect to relevant objectives in the MCDA  
368 evaluation of alternative SWH sites obtained from the GIS screening methodology.

369 The user can select study specific appropriate sub-PMs under these three categories for  
370 MCDA application.

371

372

373

**Table 1:** Summary of PMs Selected for the Study

<b>Objectives</b>	<b>Performance measures</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>Max or Min</b>
Economic	Levelised Cost	(\$/ kL)	Min
Environmental	Green House Gas Emissions	(Kg CO <sub>2</sub> /kL)	Min
	Potable Water Savings	ML	Max
	Annualised Removal Cost of TSS	(\$/ Kg/Year)	Min
	Annualised Removal Cost of TP	(\$/ Kg/Year)	Min
	Annualised Removal Cost of TN	(\$/ Kg/Year)	Min
Social	Community Acceptance	-	Max
	Construction Risks	-	Min
	Recreational Values	-	Max

374

### 375 **3.3 Estimation of Performance Measures**

376 The estimation of PMs for use in MCDA is required to characterise and quantify the  
 377 alternative SWH sites. The PMs described under economic and environmental objectives  
 378 are quantitative, while PMs under social objectives are qualitative (Table 1). Estimation of  
 379 qualitative PMs in this framework is done using qualitative scales as discussed in Section  
 380 3.2.3.

#### 381 **3.3.1 Quantitative PMs –Environmental and Economic PMs**

382 To estimate the quantitative PM values for selected SWH sites, water balance modelling and  
 383 conceptual designs are conducted for key SWH system components, namely collection,  
 384 storage, treatment and distribution. Table 2 briefly describes the approaches used for  
 385 estimating environmental and economic PMs. Details of the estimation of these PMs are  
 386 given in Sections 3.3.1.1 to 3.3.1.3

387

**Table 2:** Approaches used for evaluation of Economic and Environmental PMs

<b>PM Type</b>	<b>Derived PM</b>	<b>Approach</b>
Economic	Levelised Cost	<p>Conceptual designs are developed for stormwater infrastructure (i.e. stormwater storage and treatment sizing along with water balance modelling and then design of collection and distribution system). The detailed approach is specified in Section 3.3.1.1.</p> <p>Levelised costs of designed stormwater infrastructure are then estimated through the standard approach specified in Section 3.3.1.2</p>
Environmental	Potable Water Savings	Estimate stormwater quantity available for end use (for irrigation here) based on Water Balance Modelling and optimal sizing of stormwater storage and associated volumetric reliability as part of conceptual design as specified in Section 3.3.1.1
	Annualised Removal Cost of TSS, TP, TN	<p>Conduct conceptual design of stormwater treatment unit sizing and associated cost for pollutant load removal as per prescribed local guidelines. Also estimate pollutant loads removed as specified in Section 3.3.1.1</p> <p>Annualised Removal Cost of TSS, TP, TN for each SWH site are then estimated through the standard approach specified in Section 3.3.1.2</p>
	Green House Gas (GHG) Emission	Conceptual design of stormwater infrastructure for GHG emission analysis from energy use as described in Section 3.3.1.3

390 **3.3.1.1. Water Balance Modelling and Conceptual Designs for Stormwater**  
391 **Infrastructure**

392 The water balance modelling and conceptual designs are an integral part of SWH projects.  
393 Considering the seasonal variability of runoff and demand, water balance modelling  
394 determines the ability of the SWH site in meeting the desired end uses and environmental  
395 water quality through a simulation of conceptual designs. For this purpose, software tools  
396 such as MUSIC (<http://ewater.org.au/products/music/>) can be used to ensure that the sizing  
397 of stormwater storage and treatment units are adequate in meeting the specified stormwater  
398 quality and quantity objectives.

399 From water balance modelling, the PWS (environmental PM) from SWH schemes can be  
400 estimated for selected stormwater sizes to achieve the desired volumetric reliability.  
401 Additionally, the water balance modelling can provide information on required pollutant  
402 removal loads of TP, TN and TSS (in kg) from the SWH schemes which further can be used  
403 in determining the annualised removal cost of pollutants (environmental PM).

404 In terms of SWH sites, the conceptual designs can assist in determining the various  
405 infrastructure provisions (such as storage size/treatment options, conveyance pipes,  
406 pumping mains and pump sizes) and associated costs. Additionally, the environmental PMs  
407 such as greenhouse gas emission and pollutant loads removal can also be derived from the  
408 conceptual designs of various SWH system components.

409 **3.3.1.2 Cost Analysis of Designed Infrastructure**

410 As described in Sections 3.2.1 and 3.2.2, the cost analysis for SWH sites can be conducted  
411 for estimating the *Levelised Cost* (economic PM) and *Annualised Removal Cost (ARC)* of

412 *Pollutants* (environmental PM) for use in the MCDA. More importantly, conceptual designs  
413 developed for stormwater infrastructure form the basis for cost analysis of SWH sites.

414 Levelised Cost (LC) for the present study can be defined as

$$LC = \frac{NPV \text{ of total stormwater infrastructure of site } (\$)}{NPV \text{ of volume of stormwater supplied by the site } (kL)} \quad (4)$$

415 In the above equation, the Net Present Value (NPV) of total infrastructure cost can be  
416 obtained by summing NPV of capital and operational costs of all components associated  
417 with each selected site for MCDA over the analysis or design period. The NPV estimation  
418 can be based on the method described by Newnan et al. (2002). Similarly, the NPV of  
419 volume of stormwater supplied can be considered equivalent to potable water savings  
420 (volume of potable water supplied/ required if stormwater system is not available) at each  
421 site over the life of the system or design period. The volume of stormwater supplied  
422 (available for use) can be determined using water balance modelling.

423 For each selected SWH site, the annualised removal costs (ARC) of pollutants (TSS, TP and  
424 TN) can be determined using the approach adopted in MUSIC software (eWater, 2012).  
425 Initially the annualised cost of treatment needs to be estimated by dividing the NPV of  
426 treatment costs by the analysis period. The treatment costs can vary depending on selection  
427 of infrastructure. Furthermore, for estimating the ARC of pollutants, the annualised NPV can  
428 be then again divided by the pollutant loads estimated for each selected SWH site from  
429 water balance modelling.

430 Mathematically, ARC for SWH site can be estimated as:

431

$$\text{Annualised Removal Cost of Pollutant} = \frac{\text{Annualised NPV of Treatment Cost}}{\text{Pollutant Load (Kg/Year)}} \quad (5)$$

$$\text{Annualised NPV of Site} = \frac{\text{Total NPV of Treatment Cost}}{\text{Analysis Period}} \quad (6)$$

### 432 3.3.1.3 Greenhouse Gas Emissions Estimation Analysis

433 The greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions in SWH schemes are mostly associated with  
 434 electrical energy consumption from pumps. Therefore, the GHG emissions for a selected  
 435 SWH site can be considered as the product of electrical energy consumption of the pumps  
 436 (designed as part of conceptual designs) and GHG Emissions factor associated with  
 437 electricity consumption.

### 438 3.4 Elicitation of Preferences from Stakeholder Groups

439 Many studies in the literature have highlighted the well-established fact that stakeholder  
 440 participation can effectively contribute to successful sustainable stormwater management  
 441 (Barbosa et al., 2012; Mankad and Tapsuwan, 2011; Sharma et al., 2012a, Sharma et al.,  
 442 2016). For the SWH projects, key stakeholder groups generally are local councils,  
 443 associated water authorities, research bodies, private consultants and state regulatory  
 444 departments. Each of these stakeholder groups may have different perspectives on SWH  
 445 objectives, and hence it is essential to account for the varied stakeholder preferences on  
 446 SWH systems.

447 Taylor (2005) provided a detailed review of stakeholder preference elicitation methods in the  
 448 context of MCDA assessment of stormwater projects. Some of these methods include direct  
 449 methods such as consensus conference, citizen's jury and expert panel, and indirect

450 methods such as Delphi and workshops. Selection of the suitable elicitation method for any  
451 project depends on multiple factors, such as time available (to use such methods), human  
452 resources, and associated costs. Among different methods, the workshop method, which is  
453 mixed method incorporating approaches from direct and indirect methods, which can serve  
454 as a simple and a quick consultation process, offering group discussions and group learning.  
455 In terms of stormwater harvesting, the workshop method can assist in prioritizing the  
456 conflicting objectives or policies from different stakeholders such as Government, community  
457 and water authority. Considering these advantages, the workshop method is recommended  
458 as the stakeholder preference elicitation method for the current study.

459 In MCDA methods, the stakeholder preferences are used as input to compare and establish  
460 the ranking between the given set of alternatives (Öztürké et al. 2005). In the current  
461 framework, the preferences elicitation for the recommended MCDA method PROMETHEE  
462 requires DM input on PM (Table 1) in terms of two preference parameters, namely,  
463 preference functions (Section 3.1.1.1) and weights (Section 3.1.1.2). With the selected  
464 workshop method, these preferences can be obtained from different stakeholder groups with  
465 limited resources in terms of cost and time.

### 466 **3.5 Decision Analysis of Stormwater Harvesting Sites**

467 The alternative SWH sites with estimated economic, environmental and social PMs (Table 1)  
468 can be combined with preference parameters from stakeholder groups (Section 3.4) to  
469 conduct the decision analysis i.e. to derive the ranking of SWH sites, using the  
470 PROMETHEE II methodology (Section 3.1.1). The alternative site with highest net  
471 outranking flow is considered as the best and vice versa (Section 3.1.1.3).

472 In terms of ranking of SWH sites, the decision analysis can be conducted through either  
473 homogenous or collective perspectives of different stakeholder groups. This study proposes  
474 to evaluate the decision analysis under two group decision making scenarios i.e.  
475 Homogeneous Group Decision Making (HGDM) scenario and Collective Group Decision  
476 Making (CGDM) scenario.

477 Ranking of SWH sites in HGDM scenario can be obtained from a single or similar  
478 stakeholder group e.g. all the representatives from water utility(ies) can be part of HGDM  
479 group, reflecting decision making only from perspectives of water authority. On the contrary,  
480 ranking in CGDM scenario can be obtained by combining representatives of all the  
481 stakeholders or some of these stakeholders (i.e. water authority, local council, research  
482 bodies and private consultants). Finally, the recommendations for suitable SWH sites are  
483 made based on the ranking results coming from HGDM and CGDM scenarios.

484 A PROMETHEE based commercial software such as D-Sight (Hayez et al., 2012) can be  
485 used as the decision-making tool in the decision analysis process.

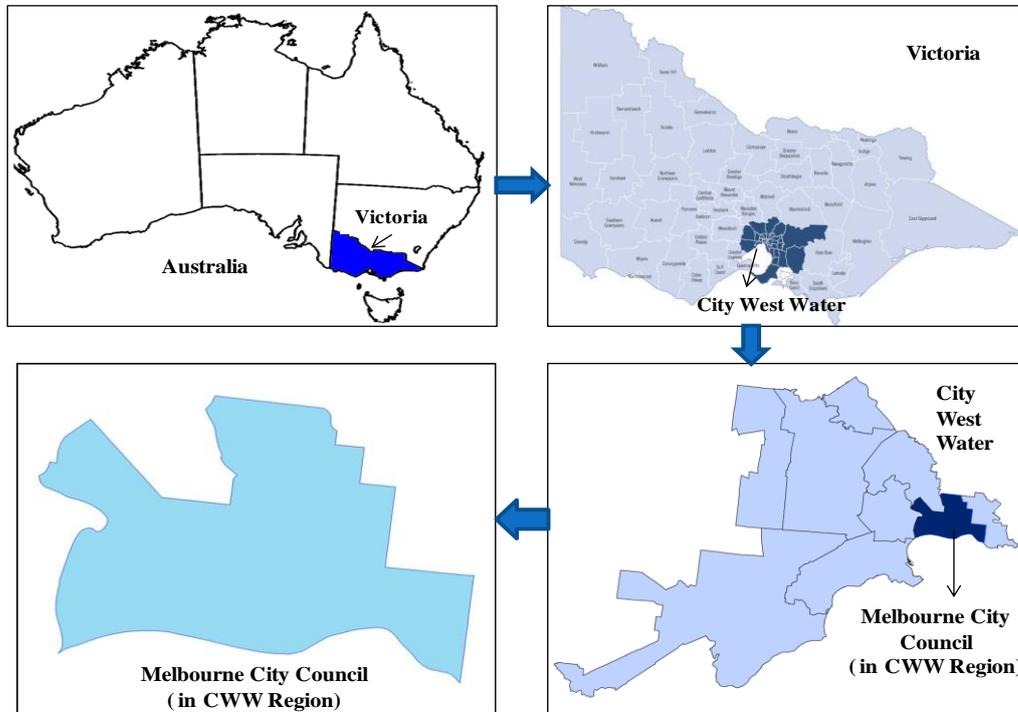
#### 486 **4. Application of MCDA to the Case Study**

##### 487 **4.1 Case Study**

488 The MCDA application was demonstrated in a case study of the City of Melbourne (CoM) in  
489 Australia in collaboration with the one of local water authority, City West Water (CWW) in  
490 Melbourne. The study area of CoM within the CWW servicing region is shown in Figure 2.

491 The study area of CoM (36.5 Km<sup>2</sup>) comprises predominantly commercial land use; other  
492 land uses include public parks, reserves, residential and industrial. The total non-residential  
493 water demand in the study area during the year 2010 was estimated as 11 GL (gigalitres),

494 whereas the total demand including the residential demand constituted 15 GL. This non-  
495 residential demand is mainly commercial water use which constitutes 82% (of the total non-  
496 residential demand of 11 GL).



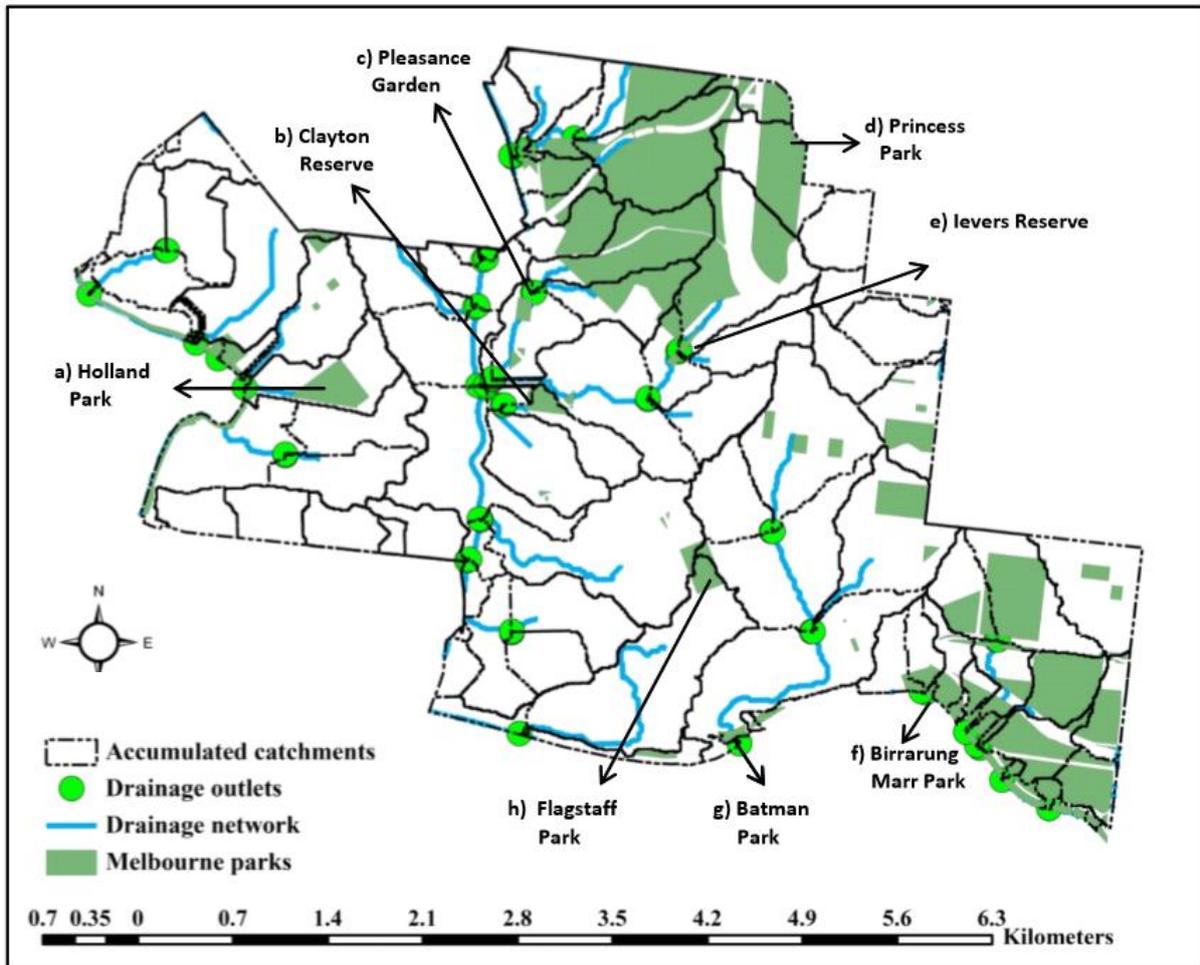
498 **Figure 2: Case Study Area- City of Melbourne**

499 The next highest non-residential demand results from the irrigation of parks and open  
500 spaces accounting for 6%. This high irrigation demand is currently being supplied with  
501 potable water, which is subjected to water supply restrictions. SWH and reuse options are  
502 considered to save potable water used for parks and open space irrigation.

#### 503 **4.2 Selection of Alternatives Stormwater Harvesting Sites**

504 As the first phase of the framework, a GIS based screening methodology was proposed to  
505 identify and select potentially suitable harvesting sites). The application of this methodology  
506 was demonstrated over an urban area in the City of Melbourne, Australia (Inamdar et al.

507 2013). This application shortlisted eight SWH sites (out of 50), which were considered for  
508 MCDA application and evaluation in this paper.



509

510 **Figure 3:** Spatial Locations of Alternative Stormwater Harvesting Sites

511 Figure 3 shows the spatial locations of alternative SWH sites obtained from the application of  
512 the GIS screening tool for the case study area. These sites were validated for SWH  
513 suitability through the discussions with City West Water officers (local water supply utility)  
514 who had a good knowledge of SWH practices in this area. Table 3 shows irrigation demands  
515 from these sites, with Princess Park and Flagstaff Gardens being key locations with higher  
516 demands. These SWH sites were considered as alternatives in the decision matrix of MCDA,

**Table 3:** Alternative Sites Selected for MCDA Evaluation

No.	Alternative Sites	Irrigation Demand, ML/Year
a)	Holland Park	23
b)	Clayton Reserve	32
c)	Pleasance Garden	7
d)	Princess Park	92
e)	Ievers Reserve	7
f)	Birrarung Marr Park	18
g)	Batman Park	7
h)	Flagstaff Park	70

### 518 **4.3 Estimation of Performance Measures**

519 A comprehensive set of nine PMs describing economic, environmental and social objectives  
 520 in the context of sustainable SWH and reuse was developed as defined in Table 1. They are  
 521 used to characterise and quantify the alternative SWH sites. All economic and environmental  
 522 PMs are quantitative, while all social PMs are qualitative.

#### 523 **4.3.1 Quantitative PMs – Economic and Environmental PMs**

524 The general approach used for estimating quantitative performance measures (i.e. economic  
 525 and environmental PMs) for the case study is described in Table 2, and it was applied  
 526 uniformly to all selected eight SWH sites.

##### 527 **4.3.1.1 Water Balance Modelling and Conceptual Designs for Stormwater**

##### 528 **Infrastructure**

529 Water balance modelling was conducted using the MUSIC software  
 530 (<http://www.ewater.com.au/products/ewater-toolkit/urban-tools/music/>). The modelling was

531 conducted using a 6-minute time step for the period of 1997-2006, which represented the  
532 drought period in Victoria, representing a conservative estimate of water availability.  
533 However, the modelling can be conducted for any selected period. MUSIC modelling  
534 required input data in terms of climate data (rainfall and evapotranspiration), catchment  
535 properties (catchment type, pervious/impervious area, rainfall-runoff parameters and  
536 pollutant load parameters) and end use demands for each of selected site.

537 Conceptual configuration selected for modelling consisted of nodes and links representing  
538 catchment, treatment measures, storages and reticulation system. This configuration was  
539 altered for each selected site separately, depending on local physical conditions and  
540 demand. The configurations were adjusted to achieve the best practice targets (removal of  
541 80% of TSS, 45% TP, and 45% of TN) set by the Victorian Standing Committee (1999).  
542 Such a configuration was finally adopted.

543 The stormwater yield estimated from the MUSIC software was considered as *potable water*  
544 *savings* (environmental PM) from SWH schemes. Moreover, MUSIC modelling also provided  
545 information on pollutant removal loads of TP, TN and TSS (in kg) from the catchments of all  
546 SWH sites. These loads were used in determining the annualised removal cost of pollutants,  
547 which is one of important PMs under the environmental objective. The stormwater storage  
548 sizes for adopted reliability and stormwater treatment devised for prescribed pollutant  
549 removal were estimated through water balance modelling.

#### 550 **4.3.1.2 Cost Analysis**

551 The cost analysis for SWH sites was conducted for estimating the *Levelised Cost* (economic  
552 PM) using LCC approaches and *Annualised Removal Cost (ARC) of Pollutants*  
553 (environmental PM) for the MCDA.

554 As specified in Section 3.3.1.2, *Levelised Cost (LC)* for given SWH site was estimated as the  
555 ratio of Net Present Values (NPVs) of the total infrastructure of a SWH site to NPV of the  
556 volume of stormwater supplied (kL) by the site.

557 The NPV analysis for all SWH sites was done for a period of 50 years with the discount rate  
558 of 5.1% based on discussions with CWW. Similarly, the information on the useful life of  
559 various components, their capital and maintenance costs were obtained from the literature  
560 and personal communications with CWW and manufacturers. Additionally, CWW provided  
561 the design and administration costs (15% of capital costs) and the construction and project  
562 management costs (30% of capital costs) for estimating overall project cost.

563 Furthermore, the *Annualised Removal Cost (ARC)* estimation of pollutants (TSS, TP and  
564 TN) with respect to each site was based on determining the ratio of the annualised NPV of  
565 treatment system cost (\$) and pollutant loads (Kg/year) generated from SWH sites.

#### 566 **4.3.1.3 Greenhouse Gas Emissions (GHG) Analysis**

567 As specified in Section 3.3.1.3, the *GHG emissions* from a given SWH site was considered  
568 as the product of Victorian GHG Estimation Factor as 1.21 kg /CO<sub>2</sub>/kWh (Department of  
569 Climate Change 2013) and energy consumption from electric pumps (kWh/kL) in delivering  
570 the stormwater for irrigation at a given SWH site. Here, electrical consumption (kWh/kL) was  
571 estimated by taking ratio of annual pumping energy requirement (kWh/year) to annual  
572 volume of stormwater reuse (kL/year) for each site.

#### 573 **4.3.2 Qualitative PMs - Estimation of Social Performance Measures**

574 This study estimated all social PMs based on pre-defined qualitative common scale of 1-5.  
575 This evaluation of social performance measures was conducted in discussion with CWW,

576 considering their local experience with the community and the knowledge of the case study  
577 area. Brief details on the evaluation for each social PM are given below.

578 **Community Acceptance:** This qualitative assessment was done based on perceived  
579 sustainability of SWH sites in meeting larger demands (with 5 being very high demand site  
580 and 1 being lowest demand site) and ensuring the higher water security for the community to  
581 accept the SWH scheme.

582 **ii) Construction Risks:** The construction risks (1 as lowest risk and 5 as highest risk) for  
583 selected SWH sites in this study were rated on four factors: i) location of the existing  
584 drainage asset, ii) available space for a suitable storage, iii) presence of heritage sites, and  
585 iv) presence of possible service disruptions such as electricity poles/transformers, tram  
586 crossings lines.

587 **iii) Recreational Value:** The recreational value of SWH sites was estimated with respect to  
588 the number of sports fields surrounding the sites and the popularity of these sites for  
589 recreational activities such as walking trails, bicycle paths, barbeque facilities. The  
590 alternative sites with large number of sport fields and recreational activities were rated high  
591 (5) and vice versa.

#### 592 **4.4 Evaluation Matrix**

593 Table 4 shows the evaluation matrix used in this study for the application of MCDA. This  
594 table consists of alternatives SWH sites (Table 3) and economic, social and environmental  
595 PMs estimated in Section 4.3.

596

597

**Table 4:** Evaluation Matrix for MCDA Evaluation

Sites	Objectives								
	Economic	Environmental					Social		
	Performance Measures								
	Levelised Cost (\$/kL)	Greenhouse Gas Emissions (Kg CO <sub>2</sub> / kL)	Potable Water Savings (ML)	Annualised removal cost (\$/Kg/Year)			Community Acceptance	Recreational Value	Construction Risks
TSS <sup>a</sup>				TP <sup>b</sup>	TN <sup>c</sup>				
Holland Park	15.3	0.20	18	4	2527	327	2	5	1
Birrarung Marr Park	15.5	0.17	15	0.9	580	81	2	3	2
Clayton Reserve	14.0	0.17	26	1.4	1021	122	3	3	2
Princess Park	12.3	0.16	73	2.8	1832	241	5	5	3
Flagstaff Park	10.8	0.41	56	1.4	929	118	4	4	3
Batman Park	22.3	0.18	5.7	1.6	1130	140	1	3	3
levers Reserve	21.4	0.18	5.7	1.1	772	95	1	3	1
Pleasance Gardens	27.2	0.17	5.6	3.3	2167	266	1	2	3

599 <sup>a</sup>TSS: Total Suspended Solids <sup>b</sup>TP: Total Phosphorous, <sup>c</sup>TN: Total Nitrogen

600 Although the evaluation matrix in Table 4 provides the brief information on performance of  
601 alternative SWH sites in meeting economic, environmental and social objectives, it is difficult  
602 for decision maker to select the best SWH site by analysing this diverse information  
603 presented in different units. For example, Holland Park and Birrarung Marr Park have similar  
604 economic PM value but different environmental and social PM values. Above examples  
605 highlight the importance of MCDA analysis for bringing rationality in decision making.

606

607

## 608 **4.5 Elicitation of Stakeholder Preference Parameters from Stakeholder Groups**

609 The preference elicitation procedure in the current study comprised of deriving the  
610 preference functions and weights on the performance measures (PMs) as required by the  
611 PROMETHEE II method. To obtain these preference parameters, representatives of four  
612 broad stakeholder groups were consulted as decision makers, namely water authorities  
613 (WA), academics (AC), consultants (CS) and councils (CL). A workshop was organised  
614 where eleven participants belonging to the four identified stakeholder groups expressed their  
615 preferences on the nine PMs. Among these workshop participants, four consultants, three  
616 water authority personnel, three academics and one council stormwater manager  
617 represented the CS, WA, AC and CL stakeholder groups respectively.

### 618 **4.5.1 Elicitation of Preference Functions**

619 To obtain the preference function (PF) information on PMs, the participants in the workshop  
620 were directly asked to specify the preference thresholds on respective PMs specified in the  
621 evaluation matrix (Table 4). For the quantitative PMs, the participants were requested to  
622 specify the p and q values of Type V function while for qualitative PMs, the participants were  
623 advised to use Type I function (Brans and Mareschal, 2005) as discussed in Section 3.1.1.1.  
624 This approach of specifying direct p and q values avoided the complexity of selecting PF  
625 from six available different PF types. Table 5 preference functions (p and q values) derived  
626 from all participants along with combined average values which are used in group decision  
627 making.

628

629

**Table 5: Preference Function Parameters Derived from All Stakeholder Groups**

Participant	PF	PM (Performance Measure)								
		Economic			Environmental				Social	
		LC	GHG	PWS	ARC			CA	CS	RV
					TSS	TP	TN			
WA-1	PF Type	V	V	V	V	V	V			
	q	0	0	1	0	0	5	-	-	-
	p	0.5	0.1	5	0.1	0	0	-	-	-
WA-2	PF Type	V	V	V	V	V	V			
	q	0	0	1	0	0	5	-	-	-
	p	0.5	0.1	5	0.1	0	0	-	-	-
WA-3	PF Type	V	V	V	V	V	V			
	q	1	0.2	5	0.2	100	30	-	-	-
	p	3	1	20	1	500	100	-	-	-
AC-1	PF Type	V	V	V	V	V	V			
	q	0.2	0.1	5	0.1	25	10	-	-	-
	p	2	0.5	10	0.5	100	50	-	-	-
AC-2	PF Type	V	V	V	V	V	V			
	q	0.1	0.5	1	0	0	0.1	-	-	-
	p	0.5	0.8	10	0.1	0	5	-	-	-
AC-3	PF Type	V	V	V	V	V	V			
	q	0.5	0.5	0.25	0.5	200	20	-	-	-
	p	5	2	15	1	600	60	-	-	-
CS-1	PF Type	V	V	V	V	V	V			
	q	3	0.5	5	0.5	200	30	-	-	-
	p	6	1	10	1	500	50	-	-	-
CS-2	PF Type	V	V	V	V	V	V			
	q	1	0.5	5	0.3	50	10	-	-	-
	p	3	1.5	10	1	150	50	-	-	-
CS-3	PF Type	V	V	V	V	V	V			
	q	2	0.6	3	0.6	200	30	-	-	-
	p	3	1	5	1	300	50	-	-	-
CS-4	PF Type	V	V	V	V	V	V			
	q	0.2	0.5	1	0.6	150	20	-	-	-
	p	2	1	5	0.5	400	60	-	-	-
CL-1	PF Type	V	V	V	V	V	V			
	q	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.2	100	20	0	1	0
	p	1	0.5	5	0.5	300	50	0	2	0
Combined Avg.	PF Type	V	V	V	V	V	V			
	q	0.7	0.05	2.5	0.2	93	16	-	-	-
	p	1.3	0.1	7	0.5	259	43	-	-	-

- LC: Levelised Cost
- GHG: Green House Gas Emission
- PWS: Potable Water Savings
- RV: Recreational Value
- CA: Community Acceptance
- CR: Construction Risks

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- ARC: Annualised Removal Costs of Pollutants (TSS, TP and TN)
- TSS: Total Soluble Solids
- TP: Total Phosphorous
- TN: Total Nitrogen

#### **4.5 2 Elicitation of Weights**

As described in Section 3.1.1.2, Analytical Hierarchy Process (AHP) method was used for weights elicitation. The participants from each representative group of WA, AC, CS, and CL were requested to provide the information on the relative importance of objectives and relative importance of PMs, on a pair wise comparison scale of 1-9 as defined by AHP authors.

The pair wise comparison responses recorded from all participants were further analysed with 'EXPERT CHOICE', an AHP based software (<http://expertchoice.com/>), to compute the weights for all PMs. These weights were computed at all stages of the hierarchy of the objectives, PMs and sub-PMs from all stakeholder participant members of WA, AC, CS and CL groups.

As an example, Table 6 provides the average of final weights of all stakeholders obtained through AHP analysis. From overall weight analysis, it was seen that Levelised Cost (LC) and Potable Water Savings (PWS) were highly rated PMs among all stakeholder groups with average weight of 0.43 and 0.16.

**Table 6: Final Weights on PMs by All Stakeholder Participants**

Objective	PM	WA-1	WA-2	WA-3	AC-1	AC-2	AC-3	CS-1	CS-2	CS-3	CS-4	CL-1	Avg.
Economic	LC	0.6	0.34	0.25	0.2	0.25	0.4	0.5	0.54	0.54	0.57	0.54	0.43
Environment	PWS	0.06	0.13	0.2	0.4	0.23	0.21	0.14	0.11	0.1	0.07	0.09	0.16
	GHG	0.06	0.08	0.02	0.1	0.08	0.11	0.03	0.02	0.04	0.03	0.05	0.06
	TSS	0.06	0.05	0.03	0.07	0.05	0.04	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.03
	TP	0.01	0.02	0	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.04	0.01	0.01	0.01	0	0.01
	TN	0.01	0.05	0	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.04	0	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02
Social	CA	0.06	0.11	0.2	0.05	0.16	0.1	0.08	0.08	0.09	0.08	0.09	0.10
	CR	0.06	0.11	0.1	0.1	0.05	0.05	0.08	0.17	0.07	0.08	0.16	0.09
	RV	0.09	0.11	0.2	0.05	0.16	0.05	0.08	0.08	0.12	0.13	0.05	0.10

#### 654 **4.6 Decision Analysis under HGDM and CGDM Scenario**

655 Decision analysis was conducted in the form of ranking of SWH sites using PROMETHEE II.  
656 For this purpose, the estimated PM values of alternative SWH sites (Table 4) were combined  
657 with preference parameters, i.e. preference functions (Section 4.5.1) and weights (Section  
658 4.5.2) from WA, AC, CS and CL group stakeholders. Decision analysis was conducted under  
659 two unique group decision making (GDM) scenarios, namely, Homogeneous Group Decision  
660 Making (HGDM) and Collective Group Decision Making (CGDM). The HGDM scenario  
661 facilitated decision analysis based on input from all representatives of each homogenous  
662 sub-group of stakeholders (WA, AC, CS and CL) separately, while the CGDM scenario  
663 facilitated the collective decision analysis with the all stakeholders from each sub-group of  
664 HGDM. The commercial software, D-Sight (<http://www.d-sight.com/>) was used as the  
665 decision-making tool in the decision analysis.

666 The outcome of ranking based on HGDM and CGDM scenario is shown in Table 7 for all  
667 WA, CS, AC and CL stakeholder groups. As described in Section 3.1.1.3, the PROMETHEE

668 II rankings were based on net outranking scores ( $\Phi$ ) obtained from the preferences of DMs  
 669 for each of the SWH sites.

670 **Table 7:** Ranking of Alternative Sites from HGDM and CGDM Group Stakeholders

Alternative Sites	HGDM Rankings								CGDM ranking	
	WA		CS		AC		CL		$\Phi$	Rank
	$\Phi$	Rank	$\Phi$	Rank	$\Phi$	Rank	$\Phi$	Rank		
Flagstaff Park	0.60	1	0.57	1	0.49	2	0.51	1	0.55	1
Princess Park	0.48	2	0.42	2	0.54	1	0.48	2	0.49	2
Clayton Reserve	0.26	3	0.31	3	0.40	3	0.24	3	0.31	3
Birrarung Marr Park	0.06	4	0.10	4	0.15	4	0.06	4	0.09	4
Holland Park	-0.02	5	-0.04	5	0.02	5	-0.14	5	-0.05	5
Ilevers Reserve	-0.35	6	-0.30	6	-0.11	6	-0.24	6	-0.25	6
Batman Park	-0.32	7	-0.26	7	-0.33	7	-0.45	7	-0.34	7
Pleasance Garden	-0.69	8	-0.65	8	-0.43	8	-0.71	8	-0.62	8

671 It can be seen from Table 7 that the ranking of top three sites under HGDM by various  
 672 stakeholders sub-groups and under CGDM by stakeholders as one group is very similar.  
 673 The Flagstaff Park, Princess Park and Clayton Reserve consistently ranked as the top three  
 674 sites under HGDM and CGDM scenarios. Also, the ranking of the intermediate (4 and 5)  
 675 and low ranked sites (6 to 8) were the same for all 4 subgroups. The sites with negative  $\Phi$   
 676 value in Table 7 were considered unsuitable for SWH.

677 The results from PROMETHEE II ranking of SWH sites obtained under the HGDM and  
 678 CGDM scenario analysis indicated the Flagstaff Park was the most preferred alternative  
 679 SWH site considering its top performance ( $\Phi$  score). Similarly, Princess Park and Clayton  
 680 Reserve emerged as the next best alternative under HGDM and CGDM scenarios. Apart  
 681 from the top three alternatives, Holland Park and Birrarung Marr Park were consistently  
 682 ranked in mid positions, and Pleasance Garden was rated as the lowest ranked alternative  
 683 for both scenarios.

684

## 685 **5. Conclusion**

686 The evaluation of stormwater harvesting (SWH) sites is often complex due to significant  
687 unpredictability in physical stormwater characteristics, demand patterns and social  
688 acceptability, and several institutional and political factors. Moreover, the successful SWH  
689 projects need active collaboration and participation from different stakeholders such as the  
690 government, the water industry, and the community. These stakeholders can have their own  
691 perceptions, which may cause conflict in the desired economic, environmental, and social  
692 objectives expected from SWH projects.

693 This paper presents a comprehensive framework for the Multi Criteria Decision Analysis  
694 (MCDA) evaluation of SWH sites. The framework presented in this study provides  
695 information on suitable SWH site selection in urban areas and also can provide a multi-  
696 objective evaluation of SWH sites under diverse views of stakeholders. This study has  
697 successfully showed the application of a MCDA) methodology for evaluating SWH sites in  
698 the City of Melbourne (CoM) in Australia.

699 The MCDA evaluation in this study consisted of eight alternative SWH sites and a set of nine  
700 performance measures (PMs), representing economic, social, and environmental objectives.  
701 The study described and demonstrated various evaluation procedures to quantify the  
702 selected PMs including water balance modelling, system design, life cycle cost analysis,  
703 GHG emission analysis, and nutrient load assessment for quantitative PMs. Also, study  
704 demonstrated SWH decision making considering the perspectives of variety of stakeholders  
705 individually as well in a group environment. The results of PM evaluations for alternative  
706 SWH sites formulated the evaluation (or decision) matrix which can be assessed with any  
707 standard MCDA method including PROMETHEE as used in this study.

708 It is expected that the application of SWH site selection framework will help water managers  
709 in taking better informed decisions with reduced subjectivity. The water professional will be  
710 able to conduct better assessment of potential harvesting sites. The ranking of SWH sites in  
711 the current study are subject to the selected MCDA method, associated preference  
712 elicitation parameters and analysis software used. Also, this study did not focus on external  
713 uncertainties such as the effect of change in costs, interest rates, inflation, regulations, and  
714 stochastic nature of runoff and demand. These aspects of evaluation can be considered in a  
715 future study.

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