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**Sustainability efficiency assessment of wastewater treatment plants
in China: A data envelopment analysis based on cluster
benchmarking**

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2 **Abstract**

3 Quantitative evaluation on the efficiency of wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) is
4 a key issue that needs to be solved. For this purpose, data envelopment analysis (DEA)
5 was employed to establish a comprehensive efficiency evaluation system on WWTPs,
6 including three inputs of operating cost, electricity consumption and labor, three
7 desirable outputs of chemical oxygen demand (COD) removal rate, ammonia nitrogen
8 ($\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$) removal rate and reclaimed water yield, and one undesirable output of dry
9 sludge yield. 861 WWTPs in China were assessed by a slacked-based DEA model
10 based on cluster benchmarking. The technology gap ratio (TGR) confirmed that large
11 WWTPs operated more efficiently than small ones. The WWTPs had an average
12 efficiency score of 0.611. Among them, 170 samples were relatively efficient with a
13 score of 1, which means these samples could be a benchmark for other inefficient
14 samples. Different degrees of input excesses or output shortfalls existed in 691
15 inefficient samples and these samples should be the key objects to improve the
16 operational efficiency. Furthermore, through the Kruskal-Wallis test, the influent COD
17 concentration and capacity load rate showed significant effects on the WWTP
18 performance. These findings, derived from a simple but effective framework, have
19 potential value for managers to make decisions.

20 *Keywords:* Efficiency assessment; Data envelopment analysis; Cluster benchmarking;
21 Sustainability; Wastewater treatment plant; Slack based measure

22 **1. Introduction**

23 Wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) help protect the surrounding water
24 environment by removing the contaminants from wastewater. In recent years, many
25 countries, particularly quickly developing countries, have made great efforts to
26 strengthen wastewater treatment. In China, for example, the number of municipal
27 WWTPs has increased rapidly during the past 40 years. By 2016, 3552 WWTPs have
28 been built and operated, with a total treatment capacity of $1.76 \times 10^8 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}$ (China

1 Urban Water Association, 2017). There is still a huge demand for future construction
2 and technical upgrading of WWTPs. According to China's 13th Five-Year Plan
3 (NDRC, 2016), by 2020, an additional treatment capacity of 50.22 million cubic
4 meters per day is targeted; 42.2 million cubic meters per day of wastewater treatment
5 facilities will be upgraded; 60,000 tons of extra daily sludge (with 80% water content)
6 will be disposed of harmlessly and the newly-added reclaimed water utilization
7 facilities will reach a scale of 15.05 million cubic meters per day.

8 To achieve effective treatment of urban wastewater and ensure sustainable
9 development of the society, not only should the number of centralized wastewater
10 treatment facilities be greatly increased, but also the operational efficiency of the
11 treatment facilities should be improved. Therefore, how to scientifically evaluate and
12 improve the operational efficiency of existing wastewater treatment facilities has
13 attracted much attention. The efficiency evaluation can help the governmental
14 departments formulate reasonable policies to promote the healthy development of
15 WWTPs, and also provide targeted improvement recommendations for enterprises.

16 It is necessary to assess the WWTP efficiency from a comprehensive perspective.
17 The operation of WWTPs is aimed at reducing wastewater pollution from human
18 activities to minimize adverse impacts on the natural environment and human health
19 (Wang et al., 2012). Proper treatment and further reuse of wastewater can help solve
20 water shortage problems and save valuable resources. However, owing to chemical
21 consumption, energy consumption, and various environmental emissions, WWTPs
22 also bring many additional environmental impacts (Hospido et al., 2004). For instance,
23 sludge is a by-product of wastewater treatment and contains lots of heavy metals,
24 organic pollutants, pathogenic bacteria, and parasite eggs. As the amount of
25 wastewater treatment increases, sludge production is also increasing rapidly, which
26 easily leads to secondary pollution (Buonocore et al., 2018). Another challenge in
27 wastewater treatment is to minimize the economic and manpower inputs involved in
28 the operation. Therefore, in order to realize the goal of real sustainable development,
29 the negative effects of a plant should not exceed the benefits of environmental
30 remediation.

1 DEA is a mature nonparametric method to calculate the relative efficiency of
2 similar entities with various input and output indicators (Charnes et al., 1978).
3 Recently, DEA has been gradually applied in the efficiency evaluation of WWTPs.
4 For example, Gao et al. (2006) applied a CCR model to evaluate five sewage
5 treatment plants in Urumqi, and discussed the influencing factors of operational
6 efficiency, but limited by the small number of samples. Hernandez-Sancho et al.
7 (2011) used a non-radial DEA method to assess energy efficiency for WWTPs in
8 Spain and studied the operating variables that lead to the difference among plants.
9 Sala-Garrido et al. (2011) utilized the DEA meta-frontier model to evaluate four
10 technologies involved in 99 Spanish WWTPs. Dong et al. (2017) innovatively
11 combined a tolerance method with the DEA model to assess the WWTP
12 eco-efficiency under uncertainty analysis. Generally speaking, the application of DEA
13 in wastewater treatment industry is gradually diversified. These studies have
14 demonstrated the adaptability of DEA and have achieved the evaluation of WWTPs in
15 some regions and countries, but there are still some deficiencies. For instance,
16 previous studies did not take into account such indicators as labor input, sludge
17 production, and reclaimed water production. Most of them only considered operating
18 costs and pollutant removal, so that the evaluation could not comprehensively reflect
19 the sustainability of WWTPs. In addition, few studies did relevant cluster
20 benchmarking and comparison of technology gap ratio (TGR) under the scale effect.
21 What's more, quantifying potential improvements in each indicator is critical to
22 supporting the decision-making process. Existing studies mainly focused on
23 efficiency evaluation and failed to provide improvement suggestions for each WWTP,
24 for lacking further analysis in input excesses and output shortfalls. Therefore, this
25 paper aims to overcome these deficiencies and obtain more scientific and useful
26 assessment results.

27 According to the difference in how to analyze the distance between units and
28 measure the production frontier, DEA can generally be divided into radial and
29 non-radial models (Castellet and Molinos-Senante, 2016). A notable disadvantage of
30 radial models is that they set reduction/enlargement of input/output vectors in

1 proportion, which is inconsistent with most actual situations. To solve this problem,
2 Tone (2001) put forward a slack based measure (SBM) model, which is a non-radial
3 DEA model designed to deal straightly with input excesses and output shortfalls.
4 Hence, this study tends to adopt an input-oriented SBM-DEA model based on variable
5 returns to scale (VRS) and cluster benchmarking to evaluate WWTPs.

6 The purpose of this study is to assess the sustainable performance efficiency of
7 861 WWTPs in China, with a view to providing effective and targeted
8 countermeasures. The main contents are as follows: (i) evaluate the efficiency of
9 WWTPs with a comprehensive index system and cluster analysis; (ii) determine the
10 best practices from samples and quantify the potential improvement for each WWTP;
11 (iii) identify underlying factors that affect the plant performance. The assessment
12 takes into account multiple dimensions and statistical analysis of large samples,
13 making it sufficient to reveal the reasons for the efficiency gap. As this study can
14 provide reliable scientific benchmarking data and control information, the final results
15 are expected to have great practical significance for the construction, operation and
16 management of wastewater treatment plants.

17 **2. Methodology**

18 Different WWTPs run at different efficiency levels. Choosing an appropriate
19 DEA model and evaluation index is the key to obtain useful information, such as
20 efficiency scores and projections. Generally, the choice of model needs to consider the
21 undesirable output, orientation, benchmark and so on. To ensure the simplicity and
22 effectiveness of the model, only a certain number of indicators are needed. However,
23 the efficiency of WWTPs may be affected by various factors that have not been
24 chosen as input or output indicators. Thus, after assessing the efficiency, the next
25 phase is to find out the explanatory factors.

26 **2.1. DEA model**

27 DEA, developed by Charnes, Cooper and Rhodes, is a method to evaluate the
28 relative efficiency of decision making units (DMUs) with various input and output
29 indicators (Charnes et al., 1978). Efficiency is relatively assessed, which means that

1 the efficiency of DMUs should be analyzed mutually. After the assessment, DMUs
2 can be divided into two groups: efficient and inefficient. The envelope formed by
3 efficient DMUs is called an efficient frontier, which covers inefficient DMUs like an
4 envelopment, and the name of DEA comes from it.

5 Conventional DEA models suppose that every output index should be maximized
6 under the current input level (Bi et al., 2014), such as CCR-DEA model. However, in
7 the actual production process, desirable outputs are often accompanied by the
8 production of undesirable outputs, such as solid waste. As undesirable outputs should
9 be minimized as much as possible, the traditional DEA model is not well suited to
10 assess the sustainability efficiency, which requires certain special treatment to achieve
11 a more accurate assessment (Zhang et al., 2016).

12 The indirect method is to convert the numeric values related to the undesirable
13 output into an input or a desirable output (Reinhard et al., 2000; Scheel, 2001).
14 However, this method has certain limitations. For instance, considering an undesirable
15 output as an input is impractical to a degree, since the input-output structure defining
16 the production process has been lost (Seiford and Zhu, 2002). Performing a reciprocal
17 or negative conversion process on the undesirable output may bias the final efficiency
18 value (Fare and Grosskopf, 2004).

19 By comparison, the direct method does not change the undesirable output, but
20 integrates it with constraints into the DEA model (Xiao et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2018).
21 It has been proved that dealing with the undesirable output in its original form
22 conforms to the standard axioms and physical laws of production theory (Fare and
23 Grosskopf, 2004). Therefore, this study adopted the direct method to deal with the
24 undesirable output.

25 In this paper, slack based measurement (SBM) was applied to the DEA model
26 involved (Tone, 2001), which can modify the constraints to add the slacks of
27 undesirable outputs into the target function. Zhou et al. (2008) have proved that the
28 SBM model is especially proper for handling undesirable outputs, and it has very high
29 recognition.

30 As stated above, an SBM-DEA model is constructed for this study. Suppose there

1 are n DMUs, each DMU has k inputs, l desirable outputs and m undesirable outputs,
 2 which are denoted as $x \in \mathbb{R}^k$, $y \in \mathbb{R}^l$ and $u \in \mathbb{R}^m$, respectively. Define three matrices X , Y ,
 3 U as $X=[x_1, \dots, x_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}$, $Y=[y_1, \dots, y_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times n}$, $U=[u_1, \dots, u_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$. The mathematical
 4 expression of the input-oriented SBM based on VRS is shown as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Min } \rho^* &= \frac{1 - \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k s_i^- / s_{in}}{1 + \frac{1}{l+m} \left(\sum_{r=1}^l s_r^+ / u_{rn} + \sum_{t=1}^m s_t^- / u_{tn} \right)} \\
 \text{s. t. } &\sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j x_{ij} + s_i^- = x_{in}, i = 1, 2, \dots, k \\
 &\sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j y_{rj} - s_r^+ = y_{rn}, r = 1, 2, \dots, l \\
 &\sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j u_{tj} + s_t^- = u_{tn}, t = 1, 2, \dots, m \\
 &\sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j = 1 \\
 &\lambda_j \geq 0, s_i^- \geq 0, s_r^+ \geq 0, s_t^- \geq 0, j = 1, 2, \dots, n
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

11 where s_i^- , s_r^+ and s_t^- represent the input excesses, desirable output shortfalls and
 12 undesirable output excesses, respectively. λ_j is a non-negative weight vector. In
 13 general, the term ‘‘efficiency’’ refers to the optimal use of resources to satisfy human
 14 desires and needs under given the inputs and technologies. $\text{Min } \rho$ is the objective
 15 function that defines the efficiency for each DMU, and the objective value ρ^* in the
 16 range of 0 and 1 denotes the efficiency score. The higher the value of ρ^* is, the better
 17 the efficiency of the DMU will be. Let the best solution for the above program
 18 be $(\lambda^*, s_i^{-*}, s_r^{+*}, s_t^{-*})$.

19 The DMU is efficient only when $\rho^*=1$ and $s_i^{-*} = s_r^{+*} = s_t^{-*} = 0$. If $\rho^* < 1$,
 20 the relevant DMU is inefficient and its input and output indices should be improved.
 21 Generally, the following SBM-projection can be employed to improve the efficiency
 22 of an inefficient DMU₀ (x_0, y_0, u_0) by reducing input excesses and undesirable output
 23 excesses, as well as making up for desirable output shortfalls:

$$24 \quad x_0 - s_i^{-*} \rightarrow x'_0, y_0 + s_r^{+*} \rightarrow y'_0, u_0 - s_t^{-*} \rightarrow u'_0 \tag{2}$$

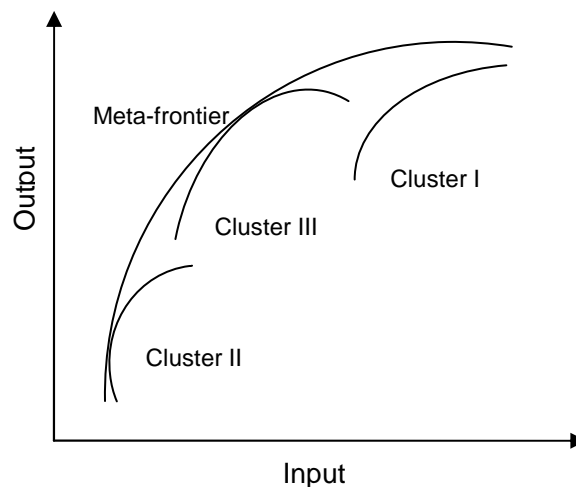
1 Nevertheless, the DEA method considers that samples have similar properties
 2 when evaluating the efficiency of DMUs as a whole. The robustness of DEA results is
 3 determined by the homogeneity of samples (Corton and Berg, 2009), therefore
 4 traditional DEA models cannot be used to compare the DMUs with diverse
 5 characteristics (Lozano-Vivas et al., 2002).

6 Cluster benchmarking is a method of dividing a set of DMUs into groups (i.e.
 7 clusters) according to certain attributes, so DMUs in the same cluster are more similar
 8 to each other than to DMUs in other clusters. The major purpose of grouping is to
 9 maximize the homogeneity of DMUs in the same cluster and the heterogeneity of
 10 DMUs in different clusters (Patra et al., 2011). To achieve the efficiency evaluation of
 11 objects relative to the optimal practice under the respective clusters, it is necessary to
 12 construct the production frontier separately (Zhu, 2013).

13 Self-benchmarking refers to each cluster taking itself as a "reference set" and
 14 conducting "self-assessment" separately. By comparing the results of the non-grouped
 15 DEA model (traditional method, all DMUs as a reference set) and the results of
 16 self-benchmarking after grouping, the technology gap ratio (TGR) can be obtained.
 17 According to Rao et al. (2003), the formula for calculating TGR is as follows:

$$18 \quad \text{TGR} = \frac{\rho_{\text{meta}}^*}{\rho_{\text{cluster}}^*} \quad (3)$$

19 where ρ_{meta}^* refers to the efficiency value based on the meta-frontier, ρ_{cluster}^* refers
 20 to the efficiency value based on the cluster-frontier.



21 **Fig. 1.** Meta-frontier and cluster-frontier.
 22

1 TGR can reflect the gap between the cluster-frontier and the meta-frontier. It is
2 employed to measure the technical efficiency gap of the same DMU under different
3 frontiers. At the same time, TGR can also reflect the necessity of dividing different
4 groups (Rao et al., 2003). The smaller the TGR value is, the greater the necessity of
5 grouping will be, and vice versa. As illustrated in Fig. 1, the meta-frontier is an
6 envelope curve higher than the frontier of each cluster, so $\rho_{\text{cluster}}^* \geq \rho_{\text{meta}}^*$, and the
7 value of TGR ranges from 0 to 1. The closer the numerical value is to 1, the smaller
8 the gap between the meta-frontier and the cluster-frontier is. The meta-frontier
9 represents the latent technical level of the whole evaluated individuals, and the
10 cluster-frontier represents the actual technical level of each cluster. The smaller the
11 TGR is, the farther the actual technical level of the cluster deviates from the potential
12 technical frontier, which means that the technology is relatively backward (Zhu,
13 2013).

14 2.2. Inputs and Outputs

15 Reasonable selection of input and output variables can improve the accuracy of
16 DEA. Several dimensions, such as environment, economy, society, resource and
17 energy, should be comprehensively considered to fully reflect the operation of
18 WWTPs. In general, the consumption of labor, capital, resources or energy represent
19 inputs, while products or services are outputs (Hu et al., 2019). It is important to avoid
20 introducing a large number of variables, because the more variables there are in the
21 model, the more difficult it is to differentiate the DMUs (Morita and Avkiran, 2009).
22 Therefore, it is vital to minimize the number of variables while preserving necessary
23 production factors.

24 This study referred to the variables selected in the previous efficiency evaluation
25 of wastewater treatment industry (Caldas et al., 2019; Lorenzo-Toja et al., 2015;
26 Molinos-Senante et al., 2014; Sala-Garrido et al., 2011; Zeng et al., 2017), and took
27 into account the difficulty of obtaining the indicator data and the applicability of
28 indicators in the selected model. To comprehensively evaluate the efficiency of
29 WWTPs, this study regarded the wastewater treatment as a production process,

1 involving three inputs, three desirable outputs, and one undesirable output. Among
2 them, capital input was expressed by operating cost (x_1 , CNY/m³), energy input was
3 expressed by electricity consumption (x_2 , kWh/m³), and labor input was expressed by
4 the number of labors (x_3 , person/10⁴m³). The desirable outputs included chemical
5 oxygen demand (COD) removal rate (y_1 , %), ammonia nitrogen (NH₃-N) removal rate
6 (y_2 , %) and reclaimed water yield (y_3 , 10⁴ m³/day), while dry sludge yield (u_1 , t/10⁴ m³)
7 was chosen as the undesirable output.

8 2.3. Explanatory factors

9 The efficiency of WWTPs may also be affected by various factors except for the
10 variables selected above. Thus, it is essential to identify the potential factors affecting
11 the WWTP efficiency. According to previous researches (Hu et al., 2019; Longo et al.,
12 2018; Molinos-Senante et al., 2014) and considering the availability of statistics, the
13 following factors were supposed likely to affect efficiency scores: (i) technology used
14 to deal with the wastewater, (ii) capacity load rate of wastewater treatment plants; (iii)
15 influent COD concentration of the wastewater; (iv) discharge standard of pollutants
16 and (v) geographical location of plants.

17 Considering that the samples may not satisfy the assumptions of normalcy and
18 homoscedasticity, the Kruskal–Wallis test (K-W test) was adopted in this paper. The
19 K-W test is a non-parametric test of one-way variance analysis that can be used to test
20 the consistency hypothesis of the overall function distribution and its alternative
21 hypotheses. As an extension of the Mann-Whitney U test, the K-W test can verify the
22 statistical significance of differences among multiple groups (Zeng et al., 2017). If the
23 significance is greater than 0.05 (p-value > 0.05), there is no significant difference
24 among the tested samples. Conversely, if the p-value is less than or equal to 0.05, the
25 samples are significantly different.

26 3. Results and discussion

27 3.1. Characteristics of sample systems

28 This study investigated 1,456 WWTPs under 37 indicators on the Urban

1 Drainage Statistics Yearbook (China Urban Water Association, 2017). 861 valid
2 samples were screened out from more than 50,000 data in 2016, which is the latest
3 and most complete inventory of wastewater treatment plants in China.

4 Chen et al. (2006) found that the correlation between wastewater treatment scale
5 and operating cost of WWTPs was significant: the operating cost of ton water
6 decreased with the increase in treatment scale, and became relatively stable until the
7 treatment scale was greater than 10^5 m³/d. Therefore, in this study, WWTPs were
8 divided into four clusters according to the designed treatment scale: Cluster I (micro
9 WWTPs, $\leq 2 \times 10^4$ m³/d), Cluster II (small WWTPs, $2 \sim 5 \times 10^4$ m³/d), Cluster III
10 (medium WWTPs, $5 \sim 10 \times 10^4$ m³/d) and Cluster IV (large WWTPs, $> 10 \times 10^4$ m³/d).

11 Table 1 listed the descriptive statistical results of sample WWTPs. With the
12 increase in the treatment scale, the average values of three inputs gradually decreased,
13 while desirable output variables gradually increased. To all WWTPs, the average
14 operating cost, electricity consumption, and labor were 0.86 CNY/m³, 0.33 kWh/m³,
15 and 9.96 persons/10⁴ m³ respectively. Average removal rates of COD and NH₃-N were
16 88.74% and 92.47%, while the average reclaimed water and dry sludge yield was
17 0.47×10^4 m³/day and 1.47 t/10⁴ m³ respectively.

18 **Table 1** Average statistics (standard deviation in parentheses) of variables for four clusters.

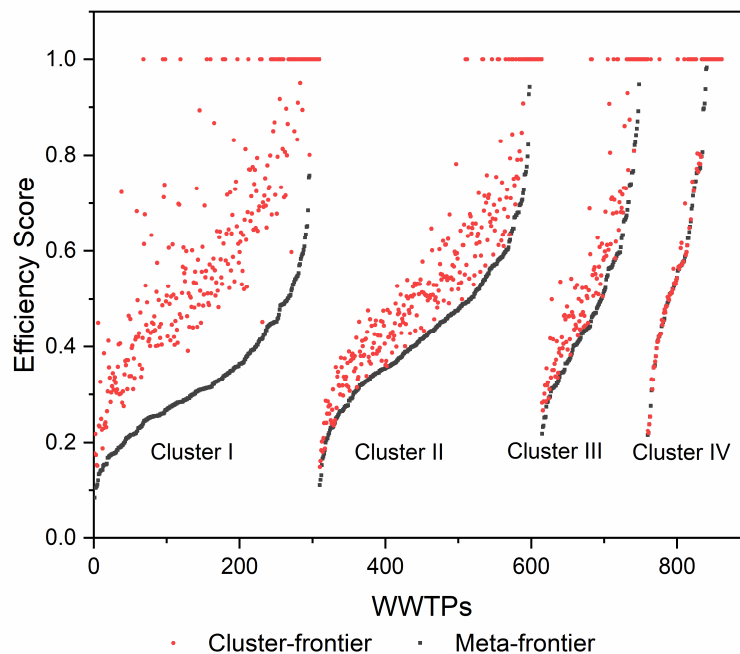
	Cluster I ($\leq 2 \times 10^4$ m ³ /d)	Cluster II ($2 \sim 5 \times 10^4$ m ³ /d)	Cluster III ($5 \sim 10 \times 10^4$ m ³ /d)	Cluster IV ($> 10 \times 10^4$ m ³ /d)	Total
Inputs					
Operating cost (CNY/m ³)	1.06(±0.73)	0.78(±0.56)	0.75(±0.42)	0.70(±0.41)	0.86(±0.61)
Electricity (kWh/m ³)	0.35(±0.27)	0.33(±0.31)	0.29(±0.98)	0.29(±0.12)	0.33(±0.25)
Labor (person/10 ⁴ m ³)	16.51(±12.26)	7.55(±3.81)	5.52(±3.16)	3.62(±2.66)	9.96(±9.33)
Desirable outputs					
COD removal rate (%)	87.29(±6.26)	89.23(±4.11)	89.59(±4.12)	90.44(±4.21)	88.74(±5.12)
NH ₃ -N removal rate (%)	90.88(±9.42)	93.26(±5.97)	93.23(±6.75)	93.89(±6.62)	92.47(±7.65)
Reclaimed water (10 ⁴ m ³ /d)	0.09(±0.32)	0.45(±1.63)	0.74(±1.93)	1.31(±4.31)	0.47(±1.98)
Undesirable output					
Dry sludge yield (t/10 ⁴ m ³)	1.13(±1.11)	1.70(±1.92)	1.56(±1.33)	1.70(±1.43)	1.47(±1.53)

19 3.2. Efficiency analysis

20 3.2.1. Efficiency scores

1 In this study, the input-oriented SBM model based on VRS and cluster
 2 benchmarking was solved by the software MaxDEA Ultra 8 (No 812-182). Detailed
 3 data can be found in Table S1 in Appendix.

4 The efficiency scores of the WWTPs from four clusters were compared with
 5 those based on the meta-frontier, as illustrated in Fig.2. It is obvious that meta-frontier
 6 efficiency scores were lower than those calculated by cluster-frontier, just as
 7 theoretically derived. As shown in Table 2, the average TGRs of the four clusters were
 8 between 0.578 and 0.938. With the increase in the size of the WWTPs, the average
 9 efficiency and TGR were basically increasing, indicating that the gap between the two
 10 frontiers was smaller. In other words, the larger the plant is, the more efficient it may
 11 be. Moreover, the number of efficient WWTPs increased when using cluster
 12 benchmarking. Some WWTPs were inefficient in the meta-frontier analysis but
 13 efficient in the cluster analysis. Since cluster analysis is a method to maximize the
 14 homogeneity of DMUs in the same cluster, its assessment result is considered to be
 15 closer to reality, so the efficiency scores in the following discussion are scores based
 16 on the cluster-frontier.



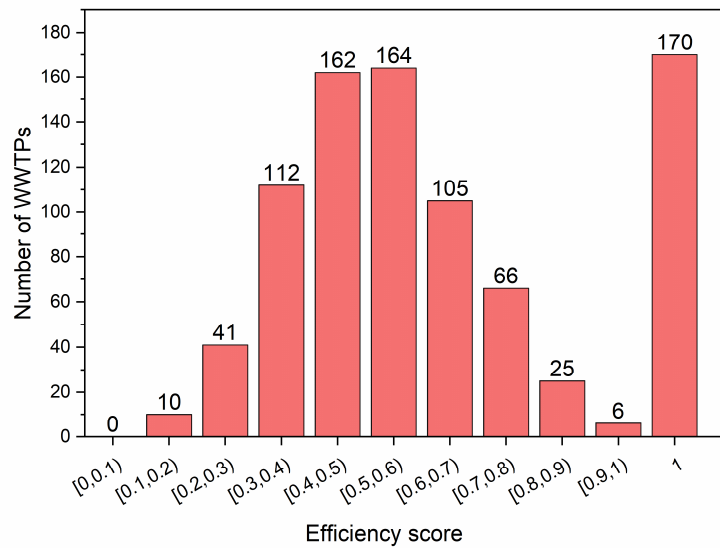
17

18 **Fig. 2.** Efficiency scores of 861 WWTPs based on cluster-frontier and meta-frontier respectively.
 19 Note: Cluster I ($\leq 2 \times 10^4$ m³/d), Cluster II ($2 \sim 5 \times 10^4$ m³/d), Cluster III ($5 \sim 10 \times 10^4$ m³/d) and Cluster
 20 IV ($> 10 \times 10^4$ m³/d).

1 **Table 2** Comparison of operating efficiency of WWTPs from different treatment scale clusters.

	Cluster I ($\leq 2 \times 10^4$ m^3/d)	Cluster II ($2 \sim 5 \times 10^4$ m^3/d)	Cluster III ($5 \sim 10 \times 10^4$ m^3/d)	Cluster IV ($> 10 \times 10^4$ m^3/d)	Total
Number of plants	309	305	145	102	861
Number of Efficient plants	59	40	31	40	170
% Efficient plants	19.09	13.11	21.38	39.22	19.74
Average efficiency score	0.622	0.563	0.623	0.710	0.611
Technology gap ratio (TGR)	0.578	0.828	0.850	0.938	0.755

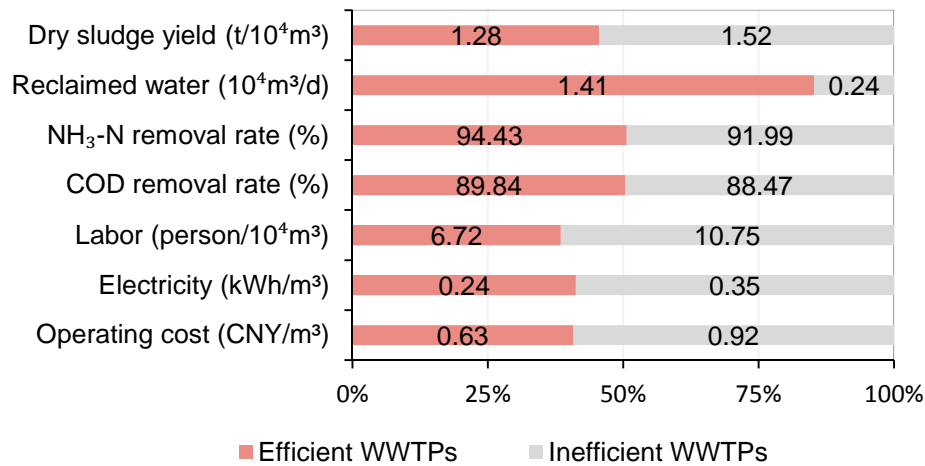
2 As shown in Table 2, 170 plants got a full efficiency score, meaning that 19.74%
3 of plants were efficient and the rest were inefficient. The allocation of capital, labor,
4 and energy in these efficient WWTPs was relatively good during the operation, and
5 these plants were located on the best practice frontier among 861 samples. The
6 WWTPs had an average efficiency score of 0.611. Considering that a WWTP with a
7 score of 1 is the benchmark for best practice, the improvement potential of the sample
8 plants is about 38.9%. As plotted in Fig. 3, 543 inefficient plants scored between 0.3
9 and 0.7. Therefore, inefficient WWTPs had a lot of room to improve their efficiencies.

10 **Fig. 3.** Interval distribution of WWTP efficiencies.
11

12 3.2.2. Improvement potential of the WWTPs

13 The statistical comparison of efficient and inefficient WWTPs is shown in Fig. 4.
14 It was found that the average values of three inputs and the undesirable output of
15 efficient plants were significantly lower than those of inefficient plants. For instance,
16 the average operating cost of efficient plants was 0.63 CNY/ m^3 , while that of

1 inefficient plants was 0.92 CNY/m³. In contrast, the reclaimed water yield of efficient
 2 plants was 1.41×10⁴ m³/d, far higher than that of inefficient plants, which was
 3 0.24×10⁴ m³/d. Moreover, there was no significant difference in pollutant removal
 4 variables, for the removal rates of COD and NH₃-N could reach 90% in most
 5 WWTPs.



6

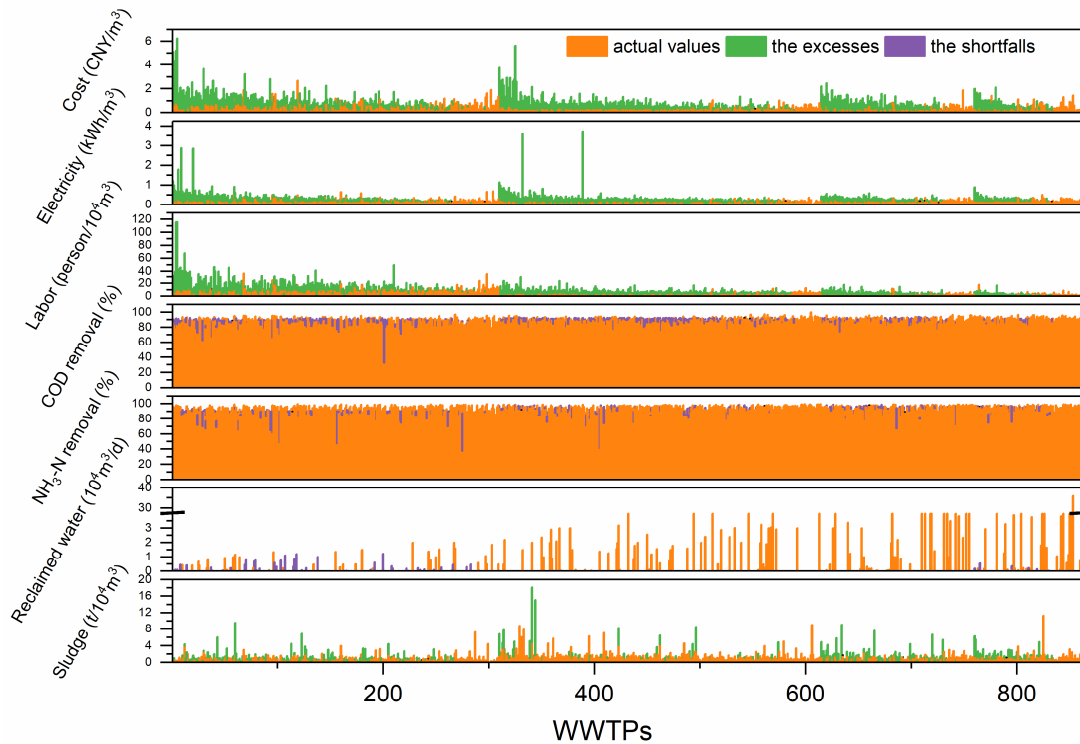
7 **Fig.4.** Comparison of seven variables in efficient and inefficient WWTPs.

8 In addition to providing overall efficiency scores, software MaxDEA can also
 9 provide target improvement for each plant, including all inputs and outputs. WWTPs
 10 can improve performance and become efficient by reducing input and undesirable
 11 output excesses, as well as making up for desirable output shortfalls. The results of
 12 improvement potential are shown in Table 3 and Fig. 5.

13 **Table 3** The improvement potential of all WWTPs in this study.

	Origin	Projection	Improvement	Improvement ratio
Operating cost (10 ⁴ CNY/d)	3776.05	1961.84	-1814.21	-48.05%
Electricity (10 ⁴ kWh/d)	1498.70	986.51	-512.19	-34.18%
Labor (person)	28012	15832	-12179	-43.48%
COD removal rate (%)	88.74	90.67	1.93	2.17%
NH ₃ -N removal rate (%)	92.47	94.20	1.73	1.87%
Reclaimed water (10 ⁴ m ³ /d)	406.95	425.21	18.26	4.49%
Dry sludge yield (t/d)	8092.27	5704.07	-2388.20	-29.51%

14 Note: Negative values in improvement represent input excesses or undesirable output excesses
 15 that should be reduced, positive values represent the desirable output shortfalls that need to be
 16 made up for.



1

2

Fig. 5. The improvement potential of each WWTP.

3

Under the current output level, ineffective WWTPs had diverse levels of input excesses, i.e. inefficient allocations of capital, labor, and energy. For the existing 861 samples, the operating costs, electricity consumption and labor could be reduced by 1.81×10^7 CNY/d, 5.12×10^6 kWh/d, and 12,179 people respectively.

7

Under the current input level, the ineffective WWTPs also had some output shortages, in other words, there is room for improvement in COD removal rate, NH₃-N removal rate and reclaimed water yield. For the existing 861 samples, these three desirable output indicators could be increased by 1.93%, 1.73%, and 1.83×10^5 m³/d, respectively. For undesirable output, dry sludge yield could be reduced by 2388.21 t/d.

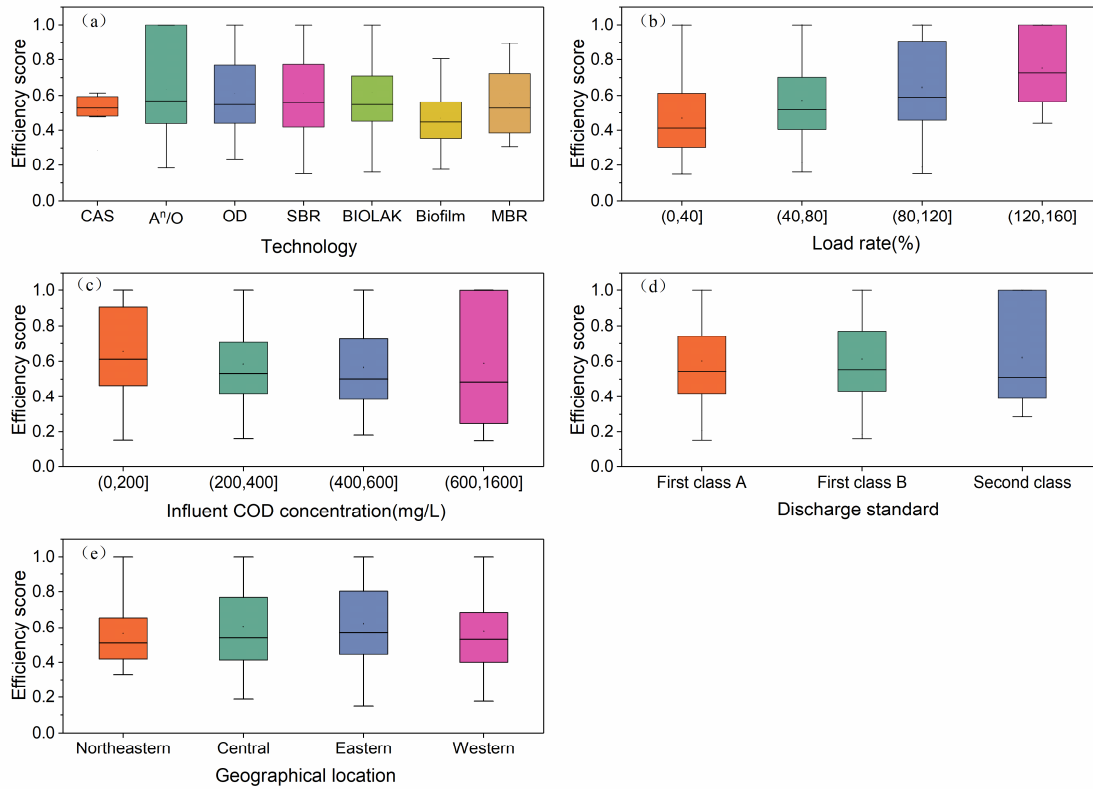
13

Overall, according to the improvement ratio, the improvement space of input indicators is larger than that of output indicators. Through a further and more detailed analysis, it is possible to determine which items must be focused on for each plant to improve efficiency (see Table S2 in Appendix).

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3.3. Explanatory factors

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Fig. 6. Boxplots of the explanatory factors.

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Efficiency scores of plants were grouped according to the explanatory factors in this study. Fig. 6 visually shows the characteristics of efficiency categorized by the five factors. To examine the differences among these groups, Kruskal-Wallis tests were conducted by SPSS 24.0. The results are listed in Table 4.

Table 4 Efficiency scores by explanatory factors and Kruskal-Wallis test results.

	Total WWTPs	Efficient WWTPs	% Eff.	Mean	Std.dev.	P-value	Chi-sq.
Technology							
CAS	8	0	0.0	0.513	0.106		
A ⁿ /O	300	81	27.0	0.635	0.255		
OD	226	37	16.4	0.613	0.228		
SBR	164	30	18.3	0.612	0.238	0.076	11.437
BIOLAK	26	5	19.2	0.620	0.226		
Biofilm	25	0	0.0	0.470	0.158		
MBR	9	0	0.0	0.553	0.195		
Load rate							
(0,40]	38	3	7.9	0.469	0.224		
(40,80]	328	45	13.7	0.572	0.225		
(80,120]	479	117	24.4	0.645	0.241	0.000	38.522
(120,160]	16	5	31.3	0.753	0.213		
Influent COD							

concentration							
(0, 200]	345	84	24.3	0.655	0.242		
(200, 400]	440	69	15.7	0.584	0.226	0.000	20.688
(400, 600]	61	12	19.7	0.565	0.257		
(600, 1600]	15	5	33.3	0.588	0.335		
Discharge standard							
First class A	448	89	19.9	0.601	0.240		
First class B	308	57	18.5	0.612	0.235	0.769	0.525
Second class	30	8	26.7	0.620	0.276		
Geographical location							
Northeastern	44	5	11.4	0.564	0.200		
Central	136	28	20.6	0.607	0.245	0.114	5.959
Eastern	563	123	21.8	0.624	0.244		
Western	118	14	11.9	0.575	0.216		

1 3.3.1. Treatment technology

2 In China, there are many kinds of technologies applied in WWTPs, and different
3 technologies often have diverse costs and treatment effects. Considering such critical
4 conditions as influent characteristics and discharge standards, managers often select
5 certain technologies for maximizing WWTP efficiency (Dong et al., 2017).

6 The wastewater treatment process usually falls into three stages: primary,
7 secondary and tertiary treatment. In order to make a deeper and centralized
8 comparison, this study only considered secondary treatment technology. According to
9 the classification of secondary treatment provided by Li et al. (2018), the WWTPs
10 were divided into seven categories, including CAS (conventional activated sludge
11 process), Aⁿ/O (anoxic/oxic process), OD (oxidation ditch), SBR (sequencing batch
12 reactor), BIOLAK, biofilm, and MBR (membrane bio-reactor).

13 The boxplot of efficiency scores by seven technologies is demonstrated in Fig.
14 6(a). The average scores of CAS, Aⁿ/O, OD, SBR, BIOLAK, biofilm, and MBR were
15 0.513, 0.635, 0.613, 0.612, 0.620, 0.470 and 0.553, respectively. Among them, the
16 average efficiencies of Aⁿ/O, OD and SBR were high, especially Aⁿ/O, while the
17 biofilm method had the lowest average efficiency, only 0.470. Therefore, the activated
18 sludge process was more effective than the biofilm process. This conclusion is
19 consistent with the relevant technical mechanism, as the biofilm process has poorer

1 operational flexibility and additional investment for biofilm carrier (Hu et al. 2019;
2 Wanner et al., 1988)

3 As a high-energy technology (Tolkou and Zouboulis, 2016), MBR had the
4 highest average operating cost and electricity consumption among all technologies,
5 1.13 CNY/m³ and 0.53 kWh/m³, respectively, so its relative efficiency was low.
6 Unlike MBR plants, WWTPs using the Aⁿ/O process had moderate operating costs
7 and electricity consumption (0.84 CNY/m³, 0.32 kWh/m³ on average), so Aⁿ/O plants
8 generally had higher efficiency levels. It is suggested to adopt the Aⁿ/O process in
9 economically backward areas.

10 However, the selection of specific treatment technology did not seem to have a
11 significant impact on the performance of WWTPs. A K-W test was carried out for
12 seven technologies and the result indicated that there was no statistical difference
13 ($p=0.076>0.05$), as shown in Table 4. This result agreed with the findings of Hu et al.
14 (2019) and D'Inverno et al. (2018). It is worth noting that the uneven distribution of
15 the sample may affect the analysis result. The proportion of seven technologies in
16 sample WWTPs is illustrated in Fig. S1 in Appendix. Aⁿ/O, OD, and SBR were the
17 three most common wastewater treatment technologies. 690 out of 861 plants adopted
18 these three technologies and the daily treatment capacity reached 3.75×10^7 m³. On the
19 other hand, fewer than 20 plants adopted CAS and MBR processes.

20 3.3.2. Load rate

21 According to the previous analysis, the performance of a plant is tightly bound to
22 its scale. Nevertheless, the designed capacity cannot completely represent the
23 operating condition. Actually, operating conditions of WWTPs are not always
24 consistent with the expected conditions, so the operating load of WWTPs may be high
25 or low, which will affect the operating performance of WWTPs to a certain extent
26 (Teklehaimanot et al., 2015). Therefore, the operating load rate was chosen as a
27 potential factor affecting the efficiency of the WWTPs. Four groups have been
28 classified according to the capacity load rate: (i) less than 40%, (ii) between 40% and
29 80%, (iii) between 80% and 120%, and (iv) greater than 120%.

1 As shown in Fig. 6(b) and Table 4, the load rate had a positive and significant
2 influence on plant efficiency. With the increase in load rate, the efficiency of WWTPs
3 also increased. The average efficiency scores of the four groups were 0.469, 0.572,
4 0.645 and 0.753, respectively. Interestingly, the efficiency continued to increase for
5 overload plants (within the scope of assessment). It should be noted that heavy
6 overload plants may be out of order, resulting in deterioration of wastewater quality
7 and non-compliance with discharge standards (Longo et al., 2018). Actually, the
8 existing literature is quite contradictory in this factor. Gomez et al. (2017) discovered
9 that overload or underload conditions had no significant influence on WWTP
10 efficiency. Dong et al. (2017) considered that WWTPs with excessive capacity are
11 often inefficient. Our result is consistent with Longo et al. (2018). The higher the
12 capacity load rate, the more efficient WWTP tends to be, even if WWTP is
13 overloaded.

14 3.3.3. Influent COD concentration

15 The influent component is a powerful driving force affecting wastewater
16 treatment performance. For instance, aeration demand and sludge yield have close ties
17 with influent COD concentration (Dong et al., 2017).

18 According to the influent COD concentration, the WWTPs were categorized into
19 four groups: (i) below 200 mg/L, (ii) between 200 mg/L and 400 mg/L, (iii) between
20 400 mg/L and 600 mg/L, and (iv) above 600 mg/L. The efficiency scores of these four
21 groups are illustrated in Fig. 6(c). The K-W test verified that the impact of the influent
22 COD concentration was significant ($p=0.000<0.05$).

23 For the four groups of WWTPs, the median efficiency was monotonically
24 decreasing (0.612, 0.532, 0.500, 0.484), but the average efficiency was not
25 monotonically decreasing (0.655, 0.584, 0.565, 0.588). For the first three groups, the
26 efficiency of plants decreased gradually as the influent COD concentration increased,
27 meaning that reducing the low influent COD concentration is helpful to improve the
28 efficiency of plants. Hu et al. (2019) drew a similar conclusion. When the
29 concentration was more than 600 mg/L, the distribution of efficiency score became

1 more discrete, that is to say, the standard deviation value was higher. The result
2 implied that high influent COD concentration helped improve the WWTP efficiency
3 to some extent. The reason might be that high COD concentration contributed to the
4 anaerobic reaction.

5 3.3.4. Discharge standard

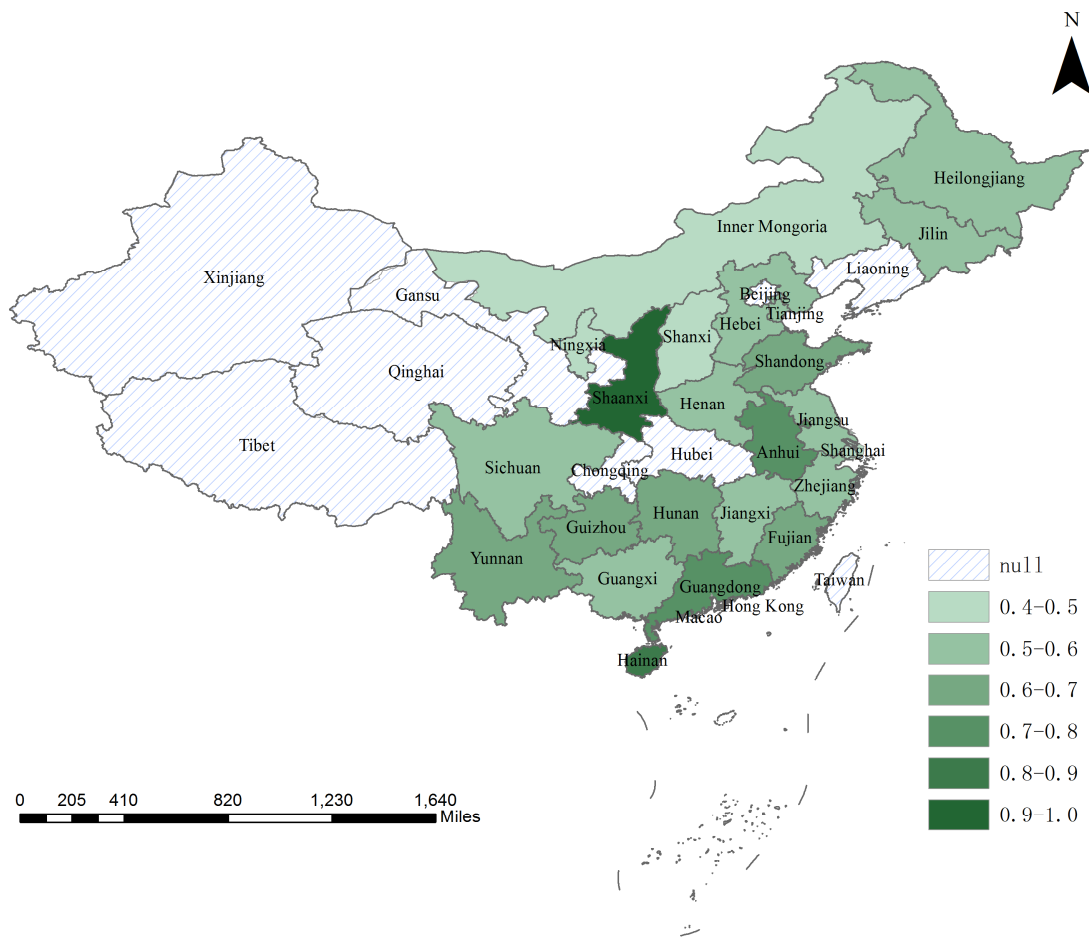
6 With the tightening of the national environmental protection policy, lots of
7 WWTPs are facing the situation of upgrading. On the basis of the Discharge Standard
8 of Pollutants for Municipal Wastewater Treatment Plant (GB18918-2002) in China
9 (NEPA, 2002), three main groups were divided: (i) the first class A, (ii) the first class
10 B, and (iii) the second class. Among the 861 WWTPs, about 52% of plants met the
11 first class A discharge standard and 36% met the first class B.

12 In order to achieve more comprehensive pollution control objectives, WWTPs
13 generally need to invest more energy and chemical consumption to meet higher
14 discharge standards (Fine and Nadas, 2012). Compared with the plants meeting the
15 second class standard, although the pollutant removal rate of the WWTPs meeting the
16 first class A increased, at the same time, the operating cost, labor input and electricity
17 consumption increased by 0.06 CNY/m³, 0.07 kWh/m³ and 2 persons/10⁴m³
18 respectively. As shown in Fig. 6(d), when the standards became more stringent, the
19 efficiency score of WWTPs demonstrated a downward trend, with an average score of
20 0.620, 0.612 and 0.601, respectively. However, the K-W test revealed that the
21 discharge standard had no significant effect at a 5% significance level. It is well
22 known that higher discharge standards may bring more reuse of reclaimed water.
23 Therefore, under our assessment framework, it is believed that the benefits of
24 improving effluent quality can make up for the shortage of high input. If WWTPs are
25 all upgraded to the first class A, it is estimated that the electricity consumption will
26 increase by 1.18×10⁶ kWh/d and reclaimed water yield will increase by 2.00×10⁶
27 m³/d.

28 3.3.5. Geographical location

29 The sample WWTPs covers 155 cities in 23 provinces (municipalities,

1 autonomous regions) from China. It is interesting to study whether there are
 2 additional differences in geographical location. Considering the average score of all
 3 plants in a province as an inter-provincial efficiency, the spatial discrepancy of plants
 4 can be observed. As shown in Fig. 7, different colors represent different efficiency
 5 levels. Overall, inter-provincial efficiencies were mostly at a medium level.
 6 High-efficiency provinces mainly included Shaanxi (0.972), Hainan (0.832), and
 7 Guangdong (0.799). Ningxia performed the worst in all the provinces evaluated, with
 8 an average efficiency of only 0.418. The results require further consideration to avoid
 9 biased conclusions, as the sample distribution was geographically uneven and some
 10 provinces were not evaluated for the lack of data.



11 **Fig. 7.** Average efficiency scores in different provinces of China.

12
 13 Since China is a country with a vast territory and uneven socio-economic
 14 development level (Zhang et al., 2016), in order to make the results more extensive, a
 15 K-W test was carried out on four independent samples from eastern, northeastern,
 16 central and western China. In this study, the eastern region included nine provinces

1 (municipalities) with an average efficiency of 0.624, which was higher than the
2 national average and ranked first in the four regions. In fact, the K-W test showed no
3 significant difference in the distributions of efficiency scores among four regions
4 ($p=0.114>0.05$). As the frontier of China's reform and opening up, the eastern region
5 has great advantages in absorbing, introducing and utilizing advanced wastewater
6 treatment technologies at home and abroad. Its management system is also in a
7 leading position. Generally speaking, some advanced foreign technologies are often
8 first absorbed by the eastern region, and then other regions begin to learn
9 corresponding technologies from the eastern region. Therefore, the industry
10 development of the eastern region basically represents the best state of China and is
11 the benchmark of other regions.

12 **4. Conclusions**

13 With the requirement of sustainable development, a comprehensive and robust
14 evaluation for WWTPs is receiving more and more attention. In this study, an
15 SBM-DEA model based on cluster benchmarking was employed to assess 861
16 WWTPs in China. The evaluation index system considered multiple dimensions such
17 as economic, environment and society. The result showed 170 plants obtained a full
18 efficiency score. From a policy perspective, the assessment could help government
19 agencies identify the best practices in China and set appropriate improvement targets
20 for inefficient plants on the basis of projection values. According to the improvement
21 ratio, there is still much room for saving in the three input indicators (operating cost,
22 electricity consumption, and labor), especially for small plants ($\leq 5 \times 10^4 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}$).
23 Therefore, WWTP managers should focus on strengthening self-inspection of the
24 plant, such as rational investment of funds and employees, and energy consumption
25 analysis. Energy saving and consumption reduction is a comprehensive work, which
26 requires attention to various aspects such as process, equipment, electrical and
27 automatic control. The K-W test revealed that the influent COD concentration and
28 capacity load rate affected the plant efficiency significantly. It is recommended to
29 control the load rate at about 100% and the influent COD concentration below 200

1 mg/L. Moreover, let more wastewater be reused for urban miscellaneous water
2 consumption or scenic environment use.

3 Overall, the DEA model applied to this paper can combine the efficiency of
4 WWTPs with sustainability issues, and can be used as a benchmark model to provide
5 recommendations for improving plants, thereby achieving the best utilization of
6 existing resources. There is no doubt that the methodology and applications in this
7 study are useful for government departments and enterprise managers. The evaluation
8 system can help the government understand the relative operation of WWTPs and
9 strengthen the supervision of third-party enterprises on the operation and management
10 of WWTPs. It can also help enterprises to understand their own shortcomings and
11 improvement potential. It is feasible to conduct incentive control on WWTPs, with
12 rewards and punishments based on periodic evaluations or rankings of operational
13 efficiency.

14 In addition, it is worth noting that DEA can effectively assess the relative
15 efficiency, but cannot reflect the absolute efficiency. Due to the data uncertainty and
16 quantity limitation of indices, further study can conduct sensitivity analysis and
17 extend the index set, such as the use of chemical reagents and potential environmental
18 impacts. Life cycle assessment (LCA) is a new tool for environmental management to
19 quantitatively evaluate environmental impacts. Therefore, the combination of LCA
20 and DEA may achieve a more accurate and comprehensive evaluation.

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27 **Appendix A. Supplementary data**

1 Supplementary data related to this article can be found at

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Highlights

- 861 WWTPs were assessed by an SBM-DEA model based on cluster benchmarking.
- The evaluation index was extended to economic, environmental and social domains.
- 170 plants were regarded as best practices over the latest inventory in China.
- The improvement potential for sample plants was about 38.9%.
- Potential factors affecting the performance efficiency of WWTPs were discussed.