Modeling air pollution by integrating ANFIS and metaheuristic algorithms

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Abstract
Air pollution is increasing for many reasons, such as the crowding of cities, the failure of planning to consider the benefit of society and nature, and the non-implementation of environmental legislation. In the recent era, the impacts of air pollution on human health and the ecosystem have become a primary global concern. Thus, the prediction of air pollution is a crucial issue. ANFIS is an artificial intelligence technique consisting of artificial neural networks and fuzzy inference systems, and it is widely used in estimating studies. To obtain effective results with ANFIS, the training process, which includes optimizing its premise and consequent parameters, is very important. In this study, ANFIS training has been performed using three popular metaheuristic methods: Genetic Algorithm (GA), Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO), and Differential Evolution (DE) for modeling air pollution. Various air pollution parameters which are particular matters: PM$_{2.5}$ and PM$_{10}$, sulfur dioxide (SO$_2$), ozone (O$_3$), nitrogen dioxide (NO$_2$), carbon monoxide (CO), and several meteorological parameters such as wind speed, wind gust, temperature, pressure, and humidity were utilized. Daily air pollution predictions in Istanbul were obtained using these particular matters and parameters via trained ANFIS approaches with metaheuristics. The prediction results from GA, PSO, and DE-trained ANFIS were compared with classical ANFIS results. In conclusion, it can be said that the trained ANFIS approaches are more successful than classical ANFIS for modeling and predicting air pollution.

Keywords Air pollution • ANFIS • Artificial intelligence • Metaheuristics

Introduction
Increasing environmental problems threaten nature and human health. Air pollution is at the forefront of this threat. Air, the primary source of life, is indispensable for humans and living things. Therefore, air pollution is a global threat that significantly impacts human health and ecosystems. Air pollution can occur from natural causes such as forest fires, earthquakes, volcanic activities, swamps, and human activities such as industrialization, heating, transportation, and energy production. In addition, population growth, increasing urbanization, industrialization, drought, topographic conditions, inversion, and climatic features affect air pollution.

According to the World Health Organization (WHO), approximately 7 million deaths are caused by outdoor and indoor air pollution each year. Air pollution is a significant environmental risk to health. Reducing air pollution reduce premature deaths and diseases like stroke, heart diseases, lung cancer, chronic and acute respiratory diseases, and asthma. These premature deaths and diseases result from exposure to 2.5 microns or less of particulate matter (PM$_{2.5}$), one of the most harmful components of air pollution (Afgan et al. 2022; Barthwal and Acharya 2022).

The COVID-19 virus pandemic, which entered our lives in the last months of 2019, also revealed the importance of the relationship between public health and the environment. Studies indicate that people exposed to long-term air pollution have a higher risk of contracting and adversely affecting viruses such as COVID-19 due to emerging chronic diseases. After all these developments, air quality management is becoming an increasingly important issue for citizens and decision-makers worldwide.
Adaptive Network Fuzzy Inference System (ANFIS) is one of the most popular neuro-fuzzy systems. It is a hybrid artificial intelligence technique which is the combination of fuzzy logic and artificial neural networks (ANN). ANFIS does not explain as to the structure of the physical process of the data analyzed during the modeling phase, but it is capable of extracting relationship between input and output of process. Hence, it has been widely used in solving a range of air pollution prediction problems (Yilmaz et al. 2022).

Many studies have been carried out related to the prediction of air pollution in the literature, and various statistical and computational methods have been used for modeling air pollution. Polat and Durduran (2012) present the combination of a data preprocessing called output-dependent data scaling (ODDS) and ANFIS for predicting the PM10 concentration values for the city of Konya in Turkey. Kemal Polat (2012) proposed a novel feature scaling method called neighbor-based feature scaling (NBFS) and combined it with ANN and ANFIS for predicting the SO2 concentration value for Konya province in Turkey. Mirzaei et al. (2019) utilized predicted six air pollutants, including SO2, NO2, O3, HC, Pb, and PM10, in Yogyakarta using an adaptive neuro-fuzzy inference system (ANFIS). Zhou et al. (2020) configured BPNN and ANFIS to establish deterministic forecast models for the regional PM2.5 concentrations of Taipei City in Taiwan. Amanollahi and Ausati (2020a, b) predicted PM10 concentration in the air of Tehran by various models, which are multiple linear regression, MLR, two hybrid models: ANFIS and empirical mode decomposition, and general regression neural network (EEMD-GRNN), and multi-layer perceptron (MLP) mode. Amanollahi and Ausati (2020a, b) used a variety of models for predicting PM2.5 concentrations, including multiple linear regression, multi-layer perceptron (nonlinear model), and an ensemble empirical mode decomposition and general regression neural network (EEMD-GRNN) and ANFIS. Bhardwaj and Pruthi (2020) used the ANFIS by combining PSO and ANFIS to perform predictive analysis of air pollutant—PM2.5 for Shadipur, Delhi. Furthermore, they decomposed the non-stationary PM2.5 time series via wavelet transform. Tunckaya (2020) made a performance analysis of a novel air pollution forecasting system design in a Turkish cement plant via ANFIS, ANN, and MLR methods. Shukura (2020) combined the NF as a nonlinear intelligent method with MLR in a hybrid MLR-NF method to improve PM10 forecasts for Malaysians. Tauqir and Kashif (2022) examined the impact of COVID-19 restrictions on the air quality of Lahore city of Pakistan with asymmetrical Granger causality tests. Their conclusion is to control unnecessary production and consumption activities to reduce air pollution in the city.

In this paper, we have used the ANFIS, one of the most popular artificial intelligence techniques, for air pollutant—PM2.5 prediction. Furthermore, various metaheuristic methods, such as GA, PSO, and DE have been utilized in training ANFIS to improve the performance of ANFIS. Air pollutant—PM2.5 values belonging to Istanbul province have been predicted by trained ANFIS structures. To evaluate the performance of suggested trained ANFIS methods, mean square error (MSE), root mean square error (RMSE), and mean absolute percentage error (MAPE) values have been used.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Sect. 2, ANFIS and some metaheuristic methods: GA, PSO, and DE, used in the training of ANFIS in this study are introduced. In Sect. 3, prediction results of air pollution—PM2.5 obtained via classical ANFIS and trained ANFIS approaches by GA, PSO, and DE are presented and compared. Finally, conclusions are discussed in Sect. 5.

Data sources and method

This study was carried out to model air pollutant PM2.5, the most important indicator of air pollution in Istanbul. Data consist of the daily meteorological data: sulfur dioxide (SO2), ozone (O3), nitrogen dioxide (NO2), carbon monoxide (CO), and several meteorological parameters: wind speed, wind gust, temperature, pressure, and humidity. The air quality data set was obtained from Air Quality Open Data Platform (“Air Quality Open Data Platform” 2021). PM2.5 values were estimated for the province of Istanbul using ANFIS constructs trained with GA, PSO, and DE.

Adaptive network fuzzy inference system

Adaptive network fuzzy inference system (ANFIS), developed by Jang (1993), is one of the most popular neuro-fuzzy systems, which is the primary technique of artificial intelligence. It consists of an artificial neural network and fuzzy inference system. It combines the advantages of
these two methods by enabling the artificial neural network to take its decision-making mechanisms from fuzzy logic and the learning capabilities of fuzzy logic from the artificial neural network.

Different types of ANFIS are introduced regarding fuzzy inference systems such as Mamdani, Sugeno, and Tsukamoto. ANFIS structure-based Sugeno fuzzy model, which is the most widely used in the literature, has been utilized in this study (Stanley et al. 2015).

The network structure of ANFIS consists of two parts called premise and consequent parts. The parameters belonging to these parts are used in ANFIS training. These parameters are determined through an optimization algorithm. The existing input–output data couples and if-then fuzzy rules are utilized during the ANFIS training. The difference between the output obtained during training and the system’s actual output gives the error. To minimize errors, ANFIS parameters are continuously updated, and thus the most optimum structure is created. An ANFIS structure with two inputs, one output, four membership functions, and four rules are given in Fig. 1 (Bhagowati et al. 2022).

ANFIS structure consists of five layers. The layer structure of ANFIS given in Fig. 1 is explained below (Jang 1993; Stanley et al. 2015):

Layer 1: This layer, called as fuzzification layer, uses membership functions to obtain fuzzy clusters from the values of inputs. With this transaction, membership values in [0,1] are calculated. Different membership functions such as generalized bell function, triangle, trapezium, Gaussian, sigmoid, etc. may be used to find membership values. To set the form of the membership function, parameters like \( a, b, c \) are used. These are called premise or antecedent parameters and are utilized in ANFIS training. The membership degrees of each membership function are calculated as follows:

\[
\mu_A(x) = \text{gbellmf}(x; a, b, c) = \frac{1}{1 + \left( \frac{x - c}{a} \right)^{2b}},
\]

\[
O_1^i = \mu_A(x).
\]

Layer 2: This layer, called the rule layer, finds firing strengths \( (w_i) \) for each rule using the membership values obtained in the fuzzification layer. \( w_i \) values are computed by multiplying the membership values as follows:

\[
O_2^i = w_i = \mu_A(x) \cdot \mu_B(y), \quad j = 1, 2; i = 1, 2, 3, 4.
\]

Layer 3: This layer, called as normalization layer, calculates the normalized firing strengths \( (\overline{w}_i) \) for each rule using the firing strengths found in the previous layer. Normalized firing strength of the \( i \)th rule is the ratio of the firing strength of \( i \)th rule to the total firing strengths and is calculated as follows:

\[
O_3^i = \overline{w}_i = \frac{w_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{4} w_i}, \quad i = 1, 2, 3, 4.
\]

Layer 4: This layer, called as defuzzification layer, computes the output of each rule by multiplication of the normalized firing strengths and a first-order polynomial. Calculation of the outputs is given in (4).

\[
O_4^i = \overline{w}_i f_i = \overline{w}_i (p_i x + q_i y + r_i)
\]

Here, \( \{ p_i, q_i, r_i \} \) are the parameter set in the first-order polynomial. These parameters used in ANFIS training are called conclusion or consequent parameters.

Layer 5: This layer, called as summation layer, obtains the actual output of ANFIS by summing the outputs obtained in the defuzzification layer.
\[ O_i^k = \sum_j w_j f_i = \sum_j w_{ji} \]  

(6)

The difference between the actual output and the predicted output of ANFIS is the error. The error value is low in the successful ANFIS model. However, it can be seen as a disadvantage that the weight values of the ANFIS model cannot be explained, that is, a clear model cannot be written. Despite this, it is widely used in the literature because it has many advantages such as learning using examples, requires no assumption on the underlying model, working with insufficient and incomplete information, and being aware of machine learning (Karaboga and Kaya 2019; Abbaspour-Gilandeh and Abbaspour-Gilandeh 2019; Pahlavani et al. 2017).

**Metaheuristic algorithms**

Metaheuristic methods allow tackling large-size problem instances by delivering satisfactory solutions in a reasonable time. These generally start by generating a random initial solution or population and then loop over an iteration process to make the solution or population evolves. For D-dimensional optimization problem, \( \mathbf{x}_i^k = [x_{i,1}^k, x_{i,2}^k, \ldots, x_{i,D}^k] \) indicates the \( i \)th vector of the population at iteration \( k \). The initial population for each element of the vector \( i \) is generated as follows through the prescribed lower limit \( (x_{i,min}) \) and upper limit \( (x_{i,max}) \), which are known as search space, (Talbi 2009; Yang 2010).

\[ x_{i,j}^0 = x_{i,min} + \text{rand}_{[0,1]} [x_{i,max} - x_{i,min}] \]  

(7)

Here, \( \text{rand}_{[0,1]} \) is a uniformly distributed random variable in the range \([0,1]\) (Price et al. 2006; Talbi 2009).

The three metaheuristic algorithms GA, PSO, and DE used in training the ANFIS are shortly explained in the following subsections.

**Genetic algorithm (GA)**

Genetic algorithm (GA) developed by Holland (1975) is a valuable and efficient search method to obtain approximate solutions for optimization problems (Goldberg and Holland 1988; Talbi 2009; Yang 2014).

The GA starts by generating a random initial population, and then it loops over an iteration process for evolving the population. Each iteration comprises selection, reproduction involving the crossover and mutation operators, evolution, and replacement stages (Talbi 2009; Yalçınkaya et al. 2018; Yang 2010).

**Steps of the GA**

**Step 1.** Defining the fitness function, the search space, and the GA parameters: population size (NP), mutation probability \( (p_m) \), crossover probability \( (p_c) \), and mutation rate \( (m) \).

**Step 2.** Generating the random initial population \( \mathbf{x}_i^0 = [x_{i,1}^0, x_{i,2}^0, \ldots, x_{i,D}^0] \) via the predetermined search space and calculating fitness function value for the initial population.

**Step 3.** Selecting a pair of parent solutions from the current population, generating two offspring through the crossover operator, and evaluating the fitness function value of these individuals.

**Step 4.** Selecting a parent and generating new candidate solution/individual using the mutation operator with the mutation probability \( (p_m) \) and evaluating the fitness function value of these individuals.

**Step 5.** Creating a new population by combining all solutions and applying truncation to select the best individuals as the population size and replacing the new population with the senior population for the next generation.

**Step 6.** Evolving the population until the stopping criterion is satisfied. The solution with the best fitness function value at the last iteration is the best solution.

**Particle swarm optimization (PSO)**

Particle swarm optimization (PSO) introduced by Eberhart and Kennedy (1995) is a biologically inspired technique derived from the collective behavior of bird flocking and fish schooling. The population composes of a set of particles. Each particle records its own personal best position (pbest), and knows the best positions found by all particles in the swarm (gbest). Then, all particles update their velocity and position in each iteration.

The velocity and the new position of each particle at iteration \( k+1 \) can be calculated as follows, respectively:

\[ v_{i,j}^{k+1} = w_{i,j} v_{i,j}^k + c_1 r_1 (p_{best,j}^k - x_{i,j}^k) + c_2 r_2 (g_{best,j}^k - x_{i,j}^k), \]  

(8)

\[ x_{i,j}^{k+1} = x_{i,j}^k + v_{i,j}^k. \]  

(9)

In Eqs. (8) and (9), \( v_i^k \) is the velocity of individual \( i \) at iteration \( k \), \( w \) is the inertia weight, \( c_1 \) and \( c_2 \) are the acceleration coefficients, \( r_1 \) and \( r_2 \) are random numbers uniformly distributed between 0 and 1, \( x_{i,j}^k \) is the position
of individual \( i \) at iteration \( k \), \( \text{pbest}^k_i \) is the best position of individual \( i \) until iteration \( k \), \( \text{gbest}^k \) is the best position of the group until iteration \( g \) (Talbi 2009; Yang 2010).

**Steps of the PSO algorithm**

**Step 1.** Defining the fitness function, the search space, and PSO parameters: inertia weight \( \omega \) and acceleration coefficients \( c_1 \) and \( c_2 \), and particle (population) size.

**Step 2.** Generating the random initial population \( \vec{x}_i^0 = [x_1^0, x_2^0, ..., x_{n_p}^0] \) via the predetermined search space and calculating the fitness function value of each solution of the population.

**Step 3.** Recording personal best position (pbest) for each particle and finding the best positions by all particles in the swarm (gbest).

**Step 4.** Calculating the particle velocity according to Equation (7) and updating the particle position with Equation (8) for each population solution.

**Step 5.** Replacing the current population with the new population. If the stopping criterion is not satisfied, go to step 3, else the solution with the best fitness function value at the last iteration is the best solution.

**Steps of the DE algorithm**

**Step 1.** Defining the objective function, the search space and the DE parameters: population size \( (NP \geq 4) \), scaling factor \( (F \in (0, 1]) \), and crossover factor \( (C_r) \).

**Step 2.** Generating the random initial population \( \vec{x}_i^0 = [x_1^0, x_2^0, ..., x_{n_p}^0] \) via the predetermined search space and calculating the fitness function value of each population solution.

**Step 3.** Choosing randomly three distinct vectors \( c_1, c_2, c_3 \) \( i \neq c_2 \neq c_3 \neq i \in (0, NP) \) for each solution of the population and generating new donor vector \( \vec{u}^k_i \) by mutation scheme given by

\[
\vec{v}^k_i = \vec{x}^k_i + F(\vec{x}^k_{c_2} - \vec{x}^k_{c_3}).
\]

**Step 4.** Generating a random index \( j_{rand} \in [0, D] \) and applying the crossover operator given by Eq. (11) to increase the population’s diversity.

\[
\vec{u}^k_{ij} = \begin{cases} 
\vec{v}^k_{ij}, & \text{if } rand_i(0, 1) \leq CR \\
\vec{x}^k_{ij}, & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

**Step 5.** Applying the selection scheme given by Equation (12) to determine the solutions to be transferred to the next generation.

\[
\vec{x}^k_i = \begin{cases} 
\vec{u}^k_i, & f(\vec{u}^k_i) \geq f(\vec{x}^k_i) \\
\vec{x}^k_i, & f(\vec{u}^k_i) < f(\vec{x}^k_i)
\end{cases}
\]

**Step 6.** Replacing the current population with the new population. If the stopping criterion is not satisfied, go to Step 3. Else the solution with the best fitness function value at the last iteration is the best solution.

**Training ANFIS using the metaheuristic methods**

ANFIS training means determining its premise and consequence parameters using an optimization algorithm. Premise parameters \( \{a_i, b_i, c_i\} \) belong to membership functions on the first layer. Consequent parameters \( \{p_i, q_i, r_i\} \) also belong to the first-order polynomial fourth layer. Successful training is essential to achieve effective results with ANFIS. In the first developed classical ANFIS method, a hybrid learning approach was used for training. This learning approach determined premise parameters by gradient descent (GD) algorithm while consequence parameters were determined by the least square estimation (LSE) method. However, there is a risk of getting stuck at the local minimum since these methods are derivative-based. So, using metaheuristic methods instead of derivative-based algorithms provides more efficient performance. Due to such reasons, it is recommended to use some of the metaheuristic algorithms such as GA, PSO, and DE for the training of ANFIS in this study. The best model is created by optimizing the ANFIS parameters with the GA, PSO, and DE algorithms to obtain the lowest differences between the actual output values and the predicted output values derived from ANFIS.

**Results**

Predicting of air pollutant PM\(_{2.5}\) value, which is one of the most crucial indicators of air pollution, is a vital process in environmental research. To predict air pollutant PM\(_{2.5}\)
values in the air of Istanbul province, various trained-ANFIS structures by GA, PSO, and DE have been used. The target/output variable in these structures is the values of PM$_{2.5}$, and predictor/input variables are the daily meteorological data which consist of sulfur dioxide (SO$_2$), ozone (O$_3$), nitrogen dioxide (NO$_2$), carbon monoxide (CO), and several meteorological parameters such as wind speed, wind gust, temperature, pressure, and humidity, for the year 2019 in Istanbul.

Table 1 presents the results of descriptive statistics for the air pollutants. The minimum value for PM$_{2.5}$ considered as target variable in this study was recorded 25 ug/m$^3$ and the maximum value was 157.00 ug/m$^3$, the mean value 62.83 ug/m$^3$ and standard deviation value is 22.21,165 ug/m$^3$ in Istanbul for the year 2019. As can be seen from these results, it has skewed values. Therefore, using a machine learning technique like ANFIS to forecast the PM$_{2.5}$ would be advantageous. Descriptive statistics of other air pollutants can be similarly read from this table.

Before ANFIS models were created, the normalization method was used to clear irrelevantly or too far from traditional value and thus increase the accuracy of results and achieve faster convergence. The data were normalized to the range [0,1] by min–max method given as follows:

\[ y_j = \frac{X_j - X_{\text{min}}}{X_{\text{max}} - X_{\text{min}}} . \]  

(13)

Here, $y_j$ denotes the normalized data, $X_j$ is the original data, $X_{\text{min}}$ is the minimum of the original data, and $X_{\text{max}}$ is the maximum of the original data.

80% of the data were selected for training and the remaining 20% were chosen for test. Test data were determined randomly. In addition, mean square error (MSE), root mean square error (RMSE), coefficient of determination ($R^2$), and mean absolute percentage error (MAPE) were used as performance indexes for methods.

\[ MSE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (y_j - \hat{y}_j)^2 \]  

(14)

\[ RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (y_j - \hat{y}_j)^2} \]  

(15)

\[ R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} (y_j - \hat{y}_j)^2}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} (y_j - \bar{y})^2} \]  

(16)

\[ MAPE = \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left| \frac{y_j - \hat{y}_j}{y_j} \right| \right) \times 100 \]  

(17)

Here, $y_j$ denotes the actual output value, $\hat{y}_j$ indicates the predicted output value, $\bar{y}$ shows the mean of the actual output value, and $n$ represents the number of samples.

Table 1  Air pollution descriptive statistics of Istanbul city for 2019

| Air pollutants | Minimum | Maximum | Mean       | Std. deviation |
|----------------|---------|---------|------------|----------------|
| PM$_{2.5}$(ug/m$^3$) | 25.00   | 157.00  | 62.8300    | 22.21,165      |
| PM$_{10}$(ug/m$^3$)  | 10.00   | 73.00   | 33.6629    | 12.3691        |
| Wind speed        | 1.00    | 12.60   | 4.3227     | 1.9400         |
| Wind gust         | 0.80    | 35.10   | 8.1042     | 5.2181         |
| Temperature       | 0.00    | 28.50   | 16.4660    | 6.8755         |
| SO$_2$ (µg/m$^3$) | 1.60    | 15.80   | 7.8725     | 3.7440         |
| Pressure          | 996.50  | 1031.80 | 101.4439   | 5.8247         |
| O$_3$ (µg/m$^3$)  | 1.50    | 41.60   | 19.6578    | 9.5832         |
| NO$_2$ (µg/m$^3$) | 4.90    | 45.80   | 17.6516    | 7.2156         |
| Humidity          | 35.00   | 94.50   | 69.8901    | 9.6001         |
| CO (µg/m$^3$)     | 5.50    | 32.10   | 17.5575    | 5.8046         |

Fig. 2  The results of ANFIS for train data

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Fig. 3  The results of ANFIS for test data

Fig. 4  The results of trained ANFIS by GA for train data

Fig. 5  The results of trained ANFIS by GA for test data
Fig. 6  The results of trained ANFIS by PSO for train data

Fig. 7  The results of trained ANFIS by PSO for test data

Fig. 8  The results of trained ANFIS by DE for train data
Figures 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 demonstrate the training phase and testing phase results of ANFIS, trained ANFIS by GA, PSO, and DE to predict PM$_{2.5}$ values, respectively.

When we examine the prediction graphs of the test data, we can say that the DE and PSO-trained ANFIS structures give prediction results closer to the real values than the classical ANFIS structure. However, we cannot reach a clear conclusion about which algorithm is better just by looking at the graphs. Therefore, we use various performance indexes to compare the errors of these methods. Table 2 demonstrates the comparison results of ANFIS and trained ANFIS by various metaheuristic methods: GA, PSO, and DE for predicting the air pollutant PM$_{2.5}$ values. The best values of performance indexes show in bold font. This table shows that trained ANFIS structures are better than the classical ANFIS model with low MSE, RMSE, and MAPE values and high $R^2$. Furthermore, it is shown that the obtained results of trained ANFIS by PSO are better than both classic ANFIS and trained ANFIS structured by GA and DE with lowest MSE, RMSE, and MAPE, and highest $R^2$ in testing phases.

Table 2 Comparison of performance of methods

| Methods     | MSE     | RMSE    | $R^2$   | MAPE   |
|-------------|---------|---------|---------|--------|
| ANFIS       | 0.013763| 0.11732 | 0.74753 | 35.0771|
| ANFIS-GA    | 0.0085764| 0.092609| 0.82174 | 25.3104|
| ANFIS-PSO   | 0.0043461| 0.065925| 0.91608 | 24.2287|
| ANFIS-DE    | 0.005373 | 0.073301| 0.89127 | 24.3983|

Discussion

Air, an excellent natural resource that helps people maintain their lives on this earth, is getting polluted by various human activities. Because of the several effects of air pollution, researchers tend to monitor air quality to reduce and control its severity. Many studies show the good efficiency of artificial methods for predictive analysis of air pollutant PM$_{2.5}$, one of the most important indicators of air pollution, using other pollutants and meteorological parameters (Ganesh 2018; Chen 2018). In this study, we used the ANFIS, one of the artificial intelligence methods, to predict PM$_{2.5}$ values for Istanbul.

In the classical ANFIS method, parameter tuning, also called training, is conducted by Gradient Descent and Least Square methods. However, that these methods get trapped in local optimal is a disadvantage for ANFIS. To eliminate this disadvantage and reach the global optimal, the use of heuristic methods in the training of ANFIS has recently become widespread. Evolutionary studies research shows remarkable advantages of GA, PSO, and DE (Wang et al. 2012; Sheniha et al. 2013; Rai et al. 2015; Chang et al. 2015; Baghban et al. 2016; Ghasemi et al. 2016) for the training of ANFIS. This study uses ANFIS models trained with GA, PSO, and DE to predict air pollutant PM$_{2.5}$ values.

It has been supported that the method used in training is critical to achieving practical results with ANFIS in this study. By hybridizing ANFIS with heuristic methods, better predictive values for air pollutant PM$_{2.5}$ has been obtained.
In this study, ANFIS is trained using the various popular metaheuristic algorithms, GA, PSO, and DE, to model and predict air pollutant PM$_{2.5}$ for Istanbul province. The prediction results obtained by the trained ANFIS with GA, PSO, and DE algorithms and classical ANFIS are compared using the prediction graphs and performance criteria. It has been observed that the trained ANFIS structures give better prediction values than classical ANFIS according to MSE, RMSE, $R^2$, and MAPE criteria. Furthermore, it seems that the performance of the PSO algorithm is better than other metaheuristic algorithms in ANFIS training for predicting air pollutant PM$_{2.5}$. As a result, it can be recommended to use trained ANFIS structures instead of the classical ANFIS method for such studies. As a future study, air pollution estimates for other provinces can be made using the methods in this study. In addition, ANFIS can be trained with different metaheuristic methods and compared with the results of this study.

**Conclusions**

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