

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2023.118232>

Wordcount: 7,249 words

1  
2 1  
3  
4  
5 2 **Exploring a multi-output Temporal Convolutional Network driven Encoder-**  
6  
7 3 **Decoder framework for ammonia nitrogen forecasting**

8  
9  
10 4 Sheng Sheng<sup>1</sup>, Kangling Lin<sup>1</sup>, Yanlai Zhou<sup>1</sup>, Hua Chen<sup>1</sup>, Yuxuan Luo<sup>1</sup>, Shenglian Guo<sup>1</sup>, Chong-  
11 5 Yu Xu<sup>2</sup>

12  
13 6 <sup>1</sup>. State Key Laboratory of Water Resources and Hydropower Engineering Science, Wuhan  
14 7 University, Wuhan 430072, China.

15  
16 8 <sup>2</sup>. Department of Geosciences, University of Oslo, P.O. Box 1047 Blindern, N-0316 Oslo,  
17 9 Norway.

18 10  
19 11 \*Correspondence to: Yanlai Zhou (yanlai.zhou@whu.edu.cn); Hua Chen (chua@whu.edu.cn).  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65

## Abstract

Artificial neural networks exhibit significant advantages in terms of learning capability and generalizability, and have been increasingly applied in water quality prediction. Through learning a compressed representation of the input data, the Encoder-Decoder (ED) structure not only could remove noise and redundancies, but also could efficiently capture the complex nonlinear relationships of meteorological and water quality factors. **The novelty of this study lies in proposing a multi-output Temporal Convolutional Network based ED model (TCN-ED) to make ammonia nitrogen forecasts for the first time. The contribution of our study is indebted to systematically assessing the significance of combining the ED structure with advanced neural networks for making accurate and reliable water quality forecasts.** The water quality gauge station located at Haihong village of Hengsha island in Shanghai City of China constituted the case study. The model input contained one hourly water quality factor and hourly meteorological factors of 32 observed stations, where each factor was traced back to the previous 24 hours and each meteorological factor of 32 gauge stations was aggregated into one areal average factor. A total of 13,128 hourly water quality and meteorological data were divided into two datasets corresponding to model training and testing stages. The Long Short-Term Memory based ED (LSTM-ED), LSTM and TCN models were constructed for comparison purposes. The results demonstrated that the developed TCN-ED model can succeed in mimicking the complex dependence between ammonia nitrogen and water quality and meteorological factors, and provide more accurate ammonia nitrogen forecasts (1- up to 6-hour-ahead) than the LSTM-ED, LSTM and TCN models. The TCN-ED model, in general, achieved higher accuracy, stability and reliability compared with the other models. Consequently, the improvement can facilitate river water quality forecasting and early warning, as well as benefit water pollution prevention in the interest of river environmental restoration and sustainability.

**Keywords:** Water quality forecast; Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs); Sequence-to-Sequence; Encoder-Decoder structure; Deep learning

## 1. Introduction

Due to fast industrialization and urbanization, riverine water qualities in many regions worldwide have gradually deteriorated (Ming et al., 2022). Water pollution directly threatens human life safety and becomes a principal obstacle to sustainable development (Mu et al., 2023; Walsh et al., 2022). Ammonia nitrogen is a common pollutant in aquatic environments, and its concentration is usually used as an important indicator of river water quality (Menon et al., 2021; Yan et al., 2023). Accurate and reliable water quality forecasts can provide valuable support and guidance for water pollution prevention and control, and have received broad attention from plenty of researchers (Mohammed et al., 2021; Wiering et al., 2023).

Water quality forecast models, in general, can be separated into two types: physically-based models and data-driven models (Noori et al., 2020). Physically-based models describe specific water chemical processes with physically meaningful equations and parameters (Uddin et al., 2023b), and are broadly used to mimic water quality forecasts (Aloui et al., 2023, Pyo et al., 2021; Quevedo-Castro et al., 2022). However, physically-based models have some limitations, including their idealistic assumptions (Wan et al., 2021), the need for prior knowledge of water physics and chemistry (Wan et al., 2022), and high computation costs (Ahmed et al., 2019), which reduce their efficiency in real-time or short-term water quality forecasts. In pace with data mining techniques developing and the monitoring data increasing, more and more data-driven models are gradually applied in modeling river water quality forecasts (Bertone et al., 2023). Rather than attempting to explain the physical characteristics and chemical processes of water quality factors, data-driven models usually identify the complex nonlinear correlation of meteorological factors and water quality factors (Zhang and Li, 2021; Zheng et al., 2023). As known, ANNs show significant advantages in learning capability, noise immunity, and generalizability, and have been successfully applied to water quality forecasting (Deng et al., 2021; Guo and Cui, 2022). Among ANNs, the Long Short-

1 63 Term Memory (LSTM) cell-based ANNs stand out for their ability to selectively memorize  
2  
3 64 long-term features (Chen et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2023; Yang et al., 2021).  
4

5 65 Recently, Temporal Convolutional Network (TCN) block-based ANNs have received  
6  
7  
8 66 increasing interest from researchers due to their superiority over the LSTM in modeling  
9  
10 67 temporal predictions (Bai et al., 2018). Gopali et al. (2021) compared the performance and  
11  
12 68 training time of the TCN and the LSTM and found that the TCN models have good performance  
13  
14  
15 69 and require less computation time to achieve model convergence. Hewage et al. (2020) utilized  
16  
17 70 the TCN to make 9-hour-ahead weather forecasts and the results show that the TCN could  
18  
19  
20 71 produce better forecast accuracy compared with the LSTM. Similar conclusions have been  
21  
22 72 drawn in the application of the TCN to water quality forecasting (Zhang et al., 2019; Fu et al.,  
23  
24  
25 73 2021). A multi-output TCN model was proposed by Zhang and Li (2023) to predict water  
26  
27 74 quality, and the results verified its superiority over the LSTM and other commonly used  
28  
29  
30 75 machine learning models. Furthermore, the tensor flow-based machine learning has become a  
31  
32 76 popular approach to improving the prediction performance of ANNs (Kao et al., 2020;  
33  
34  
35 77 Laubscher, 2019; Park et al., 2019). The Encoder-Decoder (ED) structure is a powerful neural  
36  
37 78 network framework that can efficiently improve the performance and flexibility of ANNs. The  
38  
39  
40 79 aim of the structure is to translate the input sequence into a context value in the encoder part  
41  
42 80 and parse the context value back to the output sequence in the decoder part. Through learning  
43  
44 81 a compressed representation of the input data, the ED structure can effectively reduce the  
45  
46  
47 82 dimensionality of the input data and extract features from them, which helps capture the  
48  
49  
50 83 complex relationships of sequences and improve the accuracy and performance of ANNs.  
51  
52 84 Compared with ANNs, the ANN-based ED models have exhibited superior performance in  
53  
54 85 various fields including power load prediction (Dorado Rueda et al., 2021), medical image  
55  
56  
57 86 segmentation (Mahmud et al., 2021), and language translation (Abbaszade et al., 2021), and  
58  
59 87 others. Due to the superiority of the ED in learning the patterns of time series (Bian et al., 2019;  
60

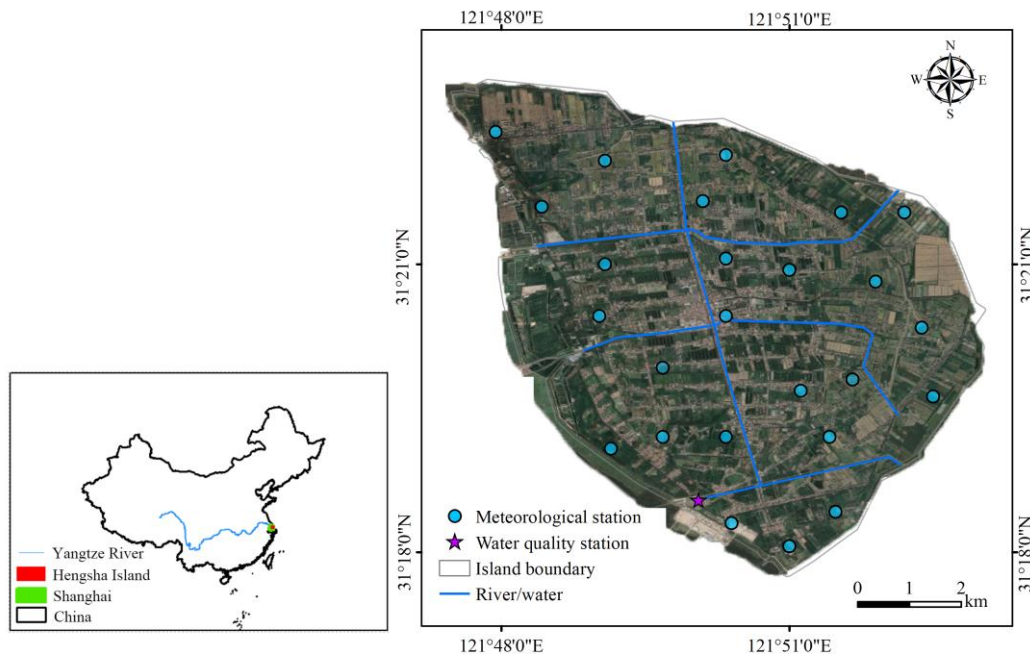
1 88 Zhang et al., 2021), the water quality prediction problem can be modeled as a sequence-to-  
2  
3 89 sequence problem using the ED structure. It is interesting to combine a more advanced and  
4  
5 90 computationally efficient time series model (i.e., TCN) with the ED structure to enhance model  
6  
7  
8 91 accuracy as the effectiveness and robustness of the LSTM with the ED structure (LSTM-ED)  
9  
10 92 have already been verified (Han et al., 2021). From the perspective of water quality forecasts,  
11  
12  
13 93 to date, no studies have fully analyzed the effect of the ED framework on multi-output ANNs  
14  
15 94 (e.g., TCN) by considering sequence-to-sequence learning processes.

17 95 The novelty of our study lies in proposing a multi-output Temporal Convolutional  
18  
19  
20 96 Network based Encoder-Decoder (TCN-ED) framework to make accurate and reliable water  
21  
22  
23 97 quality forecasts for the first time. The developed TCN-ED model is utilized to provide  
24  
25 98 technical support for water quality early warning and water pollution prevention. Meanwhile,  
26  
27 99 we comprehensively compare and evaluate the predictive performance of the LSTM, LSTM-  
28  
29  
30 100 ED, TCN and TCN-ED models for water quality forecasting. Firstly, the ED framework is used  
31  
32 101 to construct a multi-output structure in a sequence-to-sequence learning way. Secondly, the two  
33  
34  
35 102 TCN units and the learning way are incorporated into the ED framework for establishing a deep  
36  
37 103 learning-based multi-output prediction model (i.e. TCN-ED). Lastly, to validate the  
38  
39  
40 104 applicability of the developed TCN-ED model in water quality forecasting, this study adopts  
41  
42 105 an ammonia nitrogen time series of a water quality station located at Hengsha island of  
43  
44 106 Shanghai City in China as a case study.

## 47 107 48 49 108 **2. Study area and materials**

51 109 Hengsha island is located at the estuary of the Yangtze River and covers an area of 52 km<sup>2</sup>  
52  
53  
54 110 (Zhou, 2020). The island lies in a subtropical monsoon climate zone with a mean annual  
55  
56  
57 111 temperature of 15.4°C, and experiences extremely high temperatures of 33-36°C and extremely  
58  
59 112 low temperatures of minus 2-5°C. The total annual rainfall is about 1,100 mm, and the tide level

1 113 ranges between -0.27 and 5.9 meters. The water quality monitoring station in Haihong village  
2  
3 114 is located in the southwest of Hengsha island. The map of Hengsha island, along with the water  
4  
5 115 quality and meteorological gauge stations in Haihong village, is presented in Fig.1.  
6  
7



116  
117 **Fig.1** Spatial distribution of meteorological stations and river water quality observed station in Hengsha  
118 island of Shanghai City in China  
119

120 The study collected continuous hourly monitoring data from the water quality station in  
121 Haihong village and observation data from 25 meteorological stations (Fig.1). After data  
122 cleaning and correlation analysis, hourly water quality data, including Water Temperature (WT),  
123 Conductivity (COND), turbidity (TURB), and Ammonia Nitrogen (NH<sub>3</sub>-N), as well as hourly  
124 meteorological data, including areal precipitation (P), areal wind speed (WS), and areal relative  
125 humidity (RH) from February 2019 to July 2020 were selected to constitute the case study,  
126 where the areal meteorological data were aggregated using the observed data of 25  
127 meteorological stations. To reduce the negative influence of data scales on models' stability,  
128 normal standardization is employed to preprocess the input data. Table 1 presents the Pearson  
129 correlation coefficients between NH<sub>3</sub>-N and water quality and meteorological factors used in  
130 this study.  
131  
132  
133  
134  
135

**Table 1** Pearson correlation coefficient among NH<sub>3</sub>-N and other water quality and meteorological factors.

	Water quality factors			Meteorological factors		
	WT	COND	TURB	P	WS	RH
NH <sub>3</sub> -N	-0.32	0.78	0.69	-0.27	-0.19	0.15

### 3. Methodology

Fig. 2 illustrates the fusion of the LSTM cell (Fig. 2(a)) or the Temporal block (Fig. 2(b)) to the ED framework to construct the forecast models (LSTM-ED & TCN-ED, Fig. 2(c)) in this study. The NH<sub>3</sub>-N concentration forecast (1- up to 6-hour-ahead) is considered as the function of three meteorological factors and four water quality factors (traced back to the previous 24 h). The TCN (LSTM) is fused into the ED framework to construct the TCN-ED (LSTM-ED) prediction model. For comparison purposes, the TCN and LSTM models are established in this study. The related methods are briefly described below.

#### 3.1 Encoder-Decoder framework

The Encoder-Decoder framework developed by [Cho et al. \(2014\)](#) takes two ANN layers as the encoder part and the decoder part, respectively. The Encoder part can translate the information of model input into a context value, while the Decoder part can decode the context value into the targeted value. The goal of the ED framework is to characterize several different information resided in the input data as a fixed-length vector ([Xu et al., 2019](#)).

The purpose of sequence-to-sequence learning process is to mimic the most likely next sequence of  $\tilde{Y}_{t+1}, \dots, \tilde{Y}_{t+k}$  according to the previous observation  $Y_{t-j+1}, \dots, Y_t$ , which can be described below ([Shi et al., 2015](#)).

$$\tilde{Y}_{t+1}, \dots, \tilde{Y}_{t+k} = \underset{\hat{Y}_{t+1}, \dots, \hat{Y}_{t+k}}{\operatorname{argmax}p}(\hat{Y}_{t+1}, \dots, \hat{Y}_{t+k} | Y_{t-j+1}, Y_{t-j+2}, \dots, Y_t) \quad (4)$$

where  $Y_t$  is the observed data at the time step  $t$ .  $k$  and  $j$  are the lengths of the predicted sequence and the observed sequence, respectively.

1 154 The Encoder part refines the various information related to the input sequence, and  
 2  
 3 155 temporarily stored it in the context value:  
 4

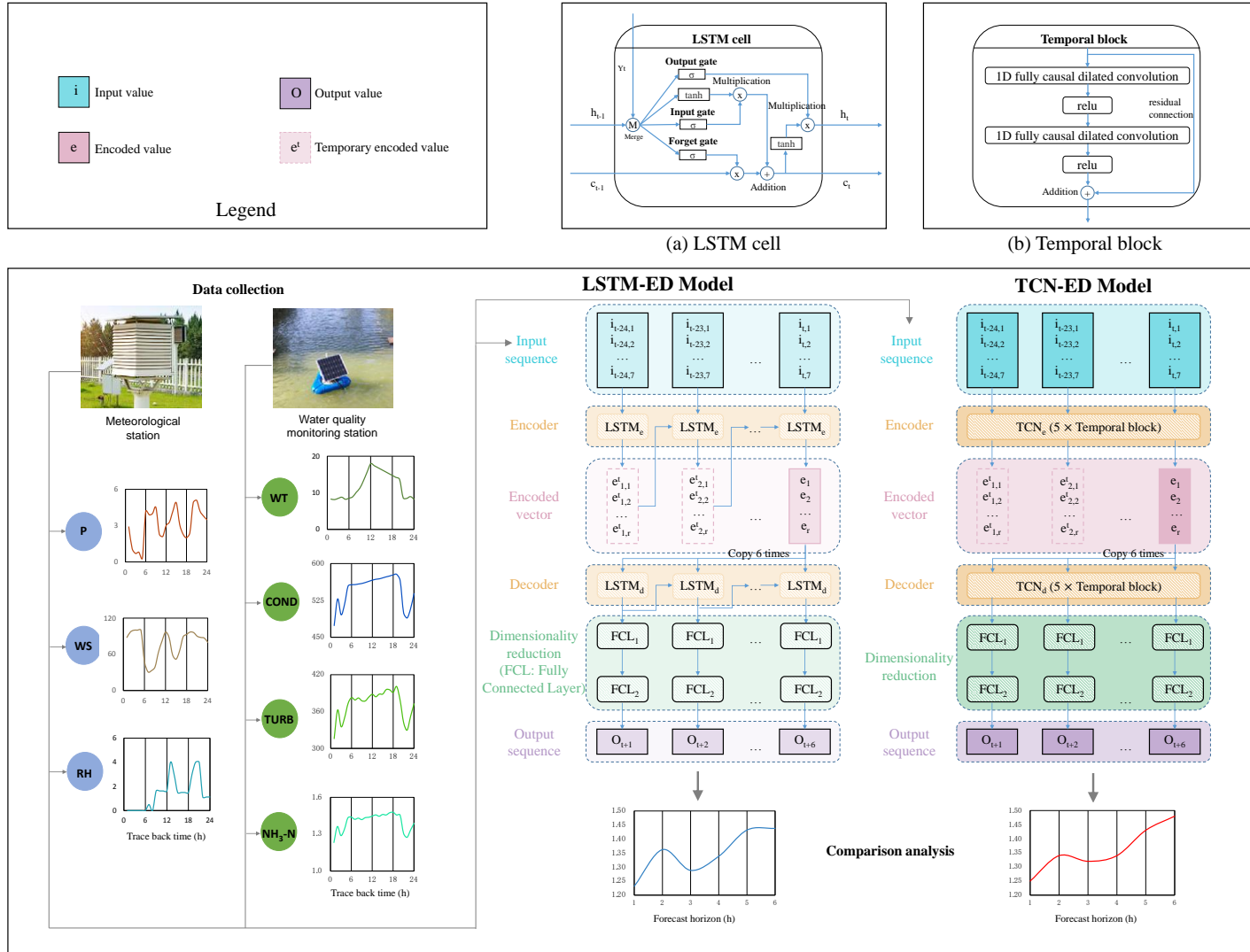
$$5 \quad 156 \quad \tilde{Y}_{t+1}, \dots, \tilde{Y}_{t+k} \approx \underset{\hat{Y}_{t+1}, \dots, \hat{Y}_{t+k}}{\operatorname{argmax} p} \left( \hat{Y}_{t+1}, \dots, \hat{Y}_{t+k} \mid f_{\text{encoder}}(Y_{t-j+1}, Y_{t-j+2}, \dots, Y_t) \right) \quad (5)$$

9 157 Then the Decoder part decodes the refined context value into the expected value:  
 10

$$12 \quad 158 \quad \tilde{Y}_{t+1}, \dots, \tilde{Y}_{t+k} \approx g_{\text{decoder}} \left( f_{\text{encoder}}(Y_{t-j+1}, Y_{t-j+2}, \dots, Y_t) \right) \quad (6)$$



16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65



(c) Forecast Models  
**Fig.2** Research methodology framework. **a.** LSTM cell. **b.** Temporal block. **c.** Forecast models.

### 3.2 LSTM model and LSTM-ED model

The LSTM cell (Fig. 2(a)) consists of the input, forget and output gates. When a new input at each time step  $X_t$  is received, the input gate evaluates the importance of current information and decides whether to retain it. The cell status in the previous time step  $c_{t-1}$  will be discarded if the forget gate is off. The aim of the output gate is to determine which parts of the cell state  $c_t$  need to be propagated to the output state  $h_t$ . The sigmoid activation function  $\sigma$  is used in all three gates, with a result range of  $[0, 1]$  to allow the gates to be half-open (Zhao et al., 2019).  $h_t$  can be specified whether to be sent to the next layer, and then  $h_t$  and  $c_t$  will be sent the LSTM cell when being used again.

The LSTM model is constructed according to the above LSTM unit structure. The LSTM model directly stacks two LSTM layers. The time steps in the two LSTM layers are equal to those of the input data. The output of the LSTM cell at each time step in the first LSTM layer is directly used as the input of the second LSTM layer. The second LSTM layer links its outputs at the last time step with the two fully connected layers (FCL<sub>1</sub> and FCL<sub>2</sub>) to reduce computation dimensions, and then produces the NH<sub>3</sub>-N sequence with horizons ( $t+1$  up to  $t+6$ ).

Through fusing the LSTM into the ED framework, we construct the LSTM-ED model (Fig. 2(c)). The LSTM cell is used several times for translating the input sequence into the output sequence continuously. The number of times to use the LSTM cell in the encoder (decoder) part depends on the input (output) length (Kao et al., 2020). In the encoding phase, each sample contains 24-time step inputs, so the cell of the LSTM encoder (LSTM<sub>e</sub>) is used 24 times. The output state at the last time step  $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_r$  is selected as the context value, which contains the NH<sub>3</sub>-N information refined by the LSTM gating structure using the entire sample. Since the output length is 6, the context value in the encoder part is copied 6 times correspondingly and sent to the decoder part. In the decoding phase, the output state of each time step of the LSTM decoder (LSTM<sub>d</sub>) contains high-dimensional NH<sub>3</sub>-N forecasts. Therefore, FCL<sub>1</sub> and FCL<sub>2</sub> are

186 employed to reduce the dimensionality at each time step. In the final output layer, the LSTM-  
187 ED model outputs the NH<sub>3</sub>-N sequence with forecast horizons of 6 hours.

### 188 3.3 TCN model and TCN-ED model

189 The TCN is a generic architecture used for convolutional sequence prediction (Bai et al., 2018;  
190 Deng et al., 2019; He and Zhao, 2019; Liu et al., 2019). The fundamental building block of the  
191 TCN is the temporal block (Fig. 2(c)), which contains a residual connection and two 1-  
192 dimensional (1D) fully causal dilated convolution layers activated by the rectified linear unit  
193 (relu). The purpose of the 1D fully convolution is to ensure that the lengths of the input and  
194 output sequences in the convolution processes remain the same. The purpose of the causal  
195 convolution is to ensure that future (i.e. forecast) information is not utilized in the convolution  
196 processes. The dilated convolution expands the receptive field of the convolution processes  
197 with a small increase in computational overhead; and residual connections alleviate the  
198 degradation problem of the convolution processes. The TCN integrates these convolution  
199 techniques to achieve efficient and high-precision time series prediction.

200 The TCN model is also constructed by stacking two TCN layers. The numbers of time  
201 steps of the two TCN layers keep the same as those of the sample, and both layers consist of  
202 five temporal blocks. The second TCN layer also links its output at the last time step with FCL<sub>1</sub>  
203 and FCL<sub>2</sub> to reduce computation dimension, and then produces the expected sequence.

204 Through fusing the TCN units into the ED framework, we construct the TCN-ED model  
205 (Fig. 2(c)). The number of temporal blocks in the Encoder part of the TCN is 5. The context  
206 value that is copied 6 times to keep consistent with the output sequence length will be sent to  
207 the TCN decoder (TCN<sub>d</sub>). The number of temporal blocks in the TCN<sub>d</sub> is also 5. Through the  
208 ED framework, the TCN<sub>d</sub> output also executes dimension reduction using FCL<sub>1</sub> and FCL<sub>2</sub>, and  
209 finally produces the prediction data.

210 Table 2 summarizes the hyperparameters and the input/output sequence configured for the

four models, where the parameters were determined by using a trial-and-error procedure. To adequately assess the predictability of the LSTM-ED and TCN-ED models, the hyperparameters (units/filters) of the Encoder and Decoder parts are set to 256 and 128, respectively. Correspondingly, the hyperparameters of the first and second layers of the LSTM and TCN models are also 256 and 128, respectively. Each TCN unit (layer/encoder/decoder) contains 5 temporal blocks. The output dimensions of FCL<sub>1</sub> of the four models are all 64, but due to the different tensor transmission methods, the FCL<sub>2</sub> output dimensions of LSTM and TCN are both 6, and the FCL<sub>2</sub> output dimensions of LSTM-ED and TCN-ED are both 1. The batch size, learning rate and epoch of the four models are 32, 0.01 and 100, respectively. In each model, the amount of input variables is 168 (=4 (water quality factors)+3 (meteorological factors)) × 24 (time-lags) as well as the amount of output variables is 6 (=1 (water quality factor) × 6 (forecast horizons)).

**Table 2** Hyperparameters and the input/output sequence configured for the four models.

Item	Model		Item	Model	
	LSTM	TCN		LSTM-ED	TCN-ED
<b>First layer unit/filter</b>	256	256	<b>Encoder unit/filter</b>	256	256
<b>First layer temporal block</b>	/	5	<b>Encoder temporal block</b>	/	5
<b>Second layer unit/filter</b>	128	128	<b>Decoder unit/filter</b>	128	128
<b>Second layer temporal block</b>	/	5	<b>Decoder temporal block</b>	/	5
<b>FCL<sub>1</sub> output dimension</b>	64	64	<b>FCL<sub>1</sub> output dimension</b>	64	64
<b>FCL<sub>2</sub> output dimension</b>	6	6	<b>FCL<sub>2</sub> output dimension</b>	1	1
Batch size	32	32	Batch size	32	32
Learning rate	0.01	0.01	Learning rate	0.01	0.01
Epoch	100	100	Epoch	100	100
Input sequence	7	7	Input sequence	7	7
	(factors)*24 (time-lags)	(factors)*24 (time-lags)		(factors)*24 (time-lags)	(factors)*24 (time-lags)
Output sequence	1 (factor)*6 (forecast horizons)	1 (factor)*6 (forecast horizons)	Output sequence	1 (factor)*6 (forecast horizons)	1 (factor)*6 (forecast horizons)

1 226 All models were calculated with 20 rounds to reduce the influence of initial weight  
2  
3 227 parameters on the accuracy of prediction models. Consider that Shanghai City has a subtropical  
4  
5 228 monsoon climate and has four seasons consisting of spring (March to May), summer (June to  
6  
7  
8 229 August), autumn (September to November), and winter (December to February). In this study,  
9  
10 230 the training set is composed of the data from February to October 2019, covering late winter,  
11  
12  
13 231 spring, summer, and autumn, and the testing set is composed of the data from November 2019  
14  
15 232 to July 2020, covering late autumn, winter, spring, and summer. Therefore, the collected  
16  
17 233 continuous hourly data were divided into two parts for model training (February 1<sup>st</sup> 2019 –  
18  
19  
20 234 October 31<sup>st</sup> 2019) and testing (November 1<sup>st</sup> 2019 – July 31<sup>st</sup> 2020), both of which cover the  
21  
22 235 four seasons in the study area to mitigate the impact of the large time interval on prediction  
23  
24  
25 236 model accuracy. The Adam optimizer was used to optimize the model parameters, and the Mean  
26  
27 237 Square Error (MSE) (Erdélyi et al., 2023) indicator was used as the objective function to  
28  
29  
30 238 evaluate the efficiency of model training. Since the Encoder-Decoder structure refines the  
31  
32 239 tensor transmission, the TCN-ED (LSTM-ED) model has higher computational efficiency than  
33  
34  
35 240 the TCN (LSTM) model. Specifically, the average calculation times per round for LSTM,  
36  
37 241 LSTM-ED, TCN, and TCN-ED are about 110 s, 80 s, 250 s, and 230 s, respectively (computer  
38  
39  
40 242 specifications: i7-12700H, GeForce RTX 3060, 16GB Memory).

### 41 42 243 *3.4 Evaluation indicators*

43  
44 244 In this study, three evaluation indicators including the Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency (NSE), the  
45  
46  
47 245 Pearson Correlation Coefficient (CC), and the Root Mean Square Error (RMSE), were adopted  
48  
49 246 to assess the forecast accuracy of the constructed models. The NSE indicator is a broadly used  
50  
51  
52 247 criterion for assessing the prediction models' accuracy, and its value lies in the interval  $(-\infty, 1]$   
53  
54 248 (Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970). An NSE value of 1 indicates perfect prediction, while a negative  
55  
56  
57 249 NSE value suggests the average observed value is a better estimate than the model prediction  
58  
59 250 (Jiang et al., 2018). The RMSE indicator measures the difference between forecasted and

observed values, and its value lies in the interval  $[0, +\infty)$  (Jamro et al., 2023). The CC indicator reveals the goodness of fit between the forecasted and observed time series, and its value ranges from 0 to 1, reflecting a low to high correlation, respectively (Pawan and Dhiman, 2023). The calculation equations of these indicators are described as follows.

$$NSE = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{Q}_i - Q_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (\bar{Q} - Q_i)^2} \quad (1)$$

$$CC = \frac{COV(\hat{Q}, Q)}{\sqrt{D(\hat{Q})}\sqrt{D(Q)}} \quad (2)$$

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{Q}_i - Q_i)^2} \quad (3)$$

where  $\hat{Q}$  is the forecasting  $NH_3-N$  concentration.  $Q$  is the observed  $NH_3-N$  concentration and  $\bar{Q}$  is the average value of the observed  $NH_3-N$  concentration.  $n$  is the number of observed data.

## 4. Results and discussion

The study aimed at evaluating the application of the TCN-ED (LSTM-ED) model in enhancing the accuracy, stability and reliability of 1- up to 6-hour-ahead  $NH_3-N$  forecasts. The results, findings, and discussion are presented as follows: assessment on model performance over 20 rounds (Section 4.1); and assessment on model reliability (Section 4.2).

### 4.1 Assessment on model performance

We conducted 20 rounds of experiments for each model to ensure statistical significance. To evaluate the LSTM, LSTM-ED, TCN, and TCN-ED models' performance, the mean and best values of NSE, RMSE, and CC of the models from horizon  $t+1$  up to  $t+6$  were summarized in Table 3.

**Table 3** The mean and best values of evaluation indicators over six forecast horizons of the models corresponding to 20 rounds.

Stage	Indicator	LSTM		LSTM-ED		TCN		TCN-ED	
		Mean	Best	Mean	Best	Mean	Best	Mean	Best
Training	NSE	0.98	<b>0.99</b>	0.98	0.98	0.96	0.98	0.97	0.98
	RSME	0.12	<b>0.09</b>	0.12	0.11	0.15	0.12	0.14	0.12
	CC	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99
Testing	NSE	0.80	0.84	0.83	0.89	0.81	0.90	0.91	<b>0.93</b>
	RSME	0.23	0.21	0.21	0.18	0.23	0.17	0.16	<b>0.14</b>
	CC	0.91	0.95	0.92	0.95	0.95	0.96	0.96	<b>0.97</b>

In the training stage, the NSE values of each model range from 0.96 to 0.99, with a small difference between the average and best values. Among the four models, the LSTM model displays a slight advantage in NSE, achieving the highest accuracy in both average and best values. Conversely, the TCN model exhibits the lowest training accuracy, with an average NSE value of 0.96. Moreover, the RSME values differ by 0.01-0.03 between the average and best values of each model, with the LSTM and LSTM-ED models outperforming the TCN and TCN-ED models. All models exhibit a CC value of 0.99, indicating good training accuracy.

In the testing stage, the average and best values of NSE and RSME differ for each model, with the TCN-ED and TCN models exhibiting the smallest and the largest differences, respectively. The average and best values of CC are different for the LSTM and LSTM-ED models but are similar for the TCN and TCN-ED models.

In general, the TCN-ED model displays the higher prediction accuracy, with average values superior to the best values of the other models. In terms of overall performance in the testing stage, the prediction models are ranked from higher (TCN-ED & TCN) to lower (LSTM-ED & LSTM) accuracy.

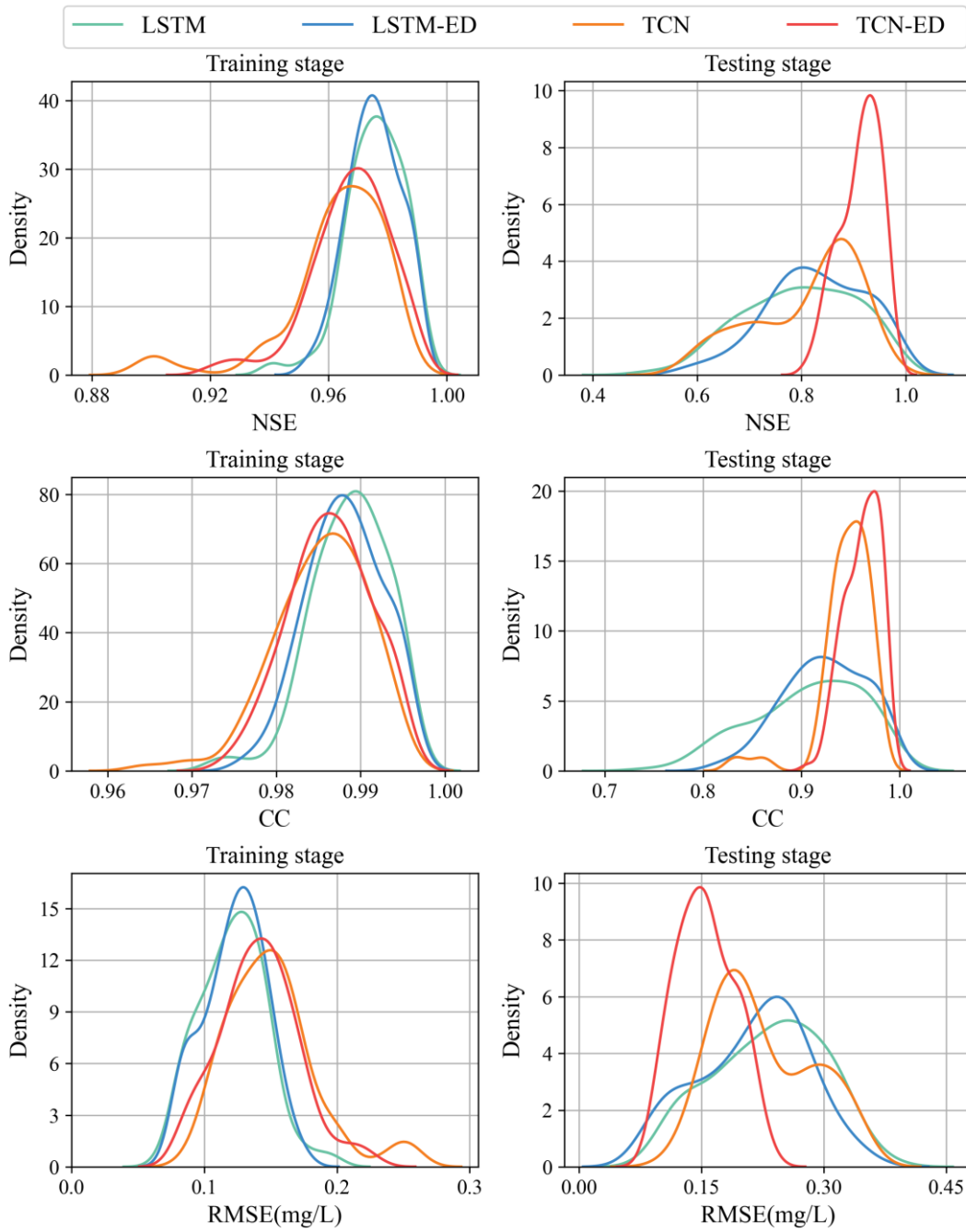
1 290 The Gaussian kernel density estimation (GKDE) curves of the three evaluation indicators  
2  
3 291 of the prediction models (run for 20 rounds) for all forecast horizons are presented in Fig. 3.  
4  
5 292 [The sharpness of the curve](#) suggests the concentration of the values of the evaluation indicator.  
6  
7  
8 293 A sharp GKDE curve indicates high stability for the model.  
9

10 294 The GKDE curves of the NSE and CC indicators for the LSTM and LSTM-ED models are  
11  
12  
13 295 sharp and lean towards the right, where most NSE values concentrate between 0.95 and 1, and  
14  
15 296 most CC values concentrate between 0.97 and 1. This indicates high and stable accuracy during  
16  
17 297 the training stage. Although the stability of the TCN-ED and TCN models [is weaker](#) than that  
18  
19  
20 298 of the LSTM-ED and LSTM models in training phases, the GKDE curves of the TCN-ED and  
21  
22 299 TCN models are sharper and [tend more](#) towards the right in testing phases, indicating the TCN-  
23  
24  
25 300 ED and TCN models provide better stability for the forecasted results. Regarding the GKDE  
26  
27 301 curves of the RSME indicator, the sharpness of the GKDE curves corresponding to the LSTM-  
28  
29  
30 302 ED and LSTM models largely decreases in testing stages, resulting in shorter and fatter curves,  
31  
32 303 compared with [those in](#) training stages. In contrast, the sharpness of the GKDE curves  
33  
34  
35 304 corresponding to the TCN-ED and TCN models displays a smaller difference between training  
36  
37 305 and testing phases. That is to say, the TCN-ED and TCN models have high stability and [low](#)  
38  
39  
40 306 uncertainty.  
41

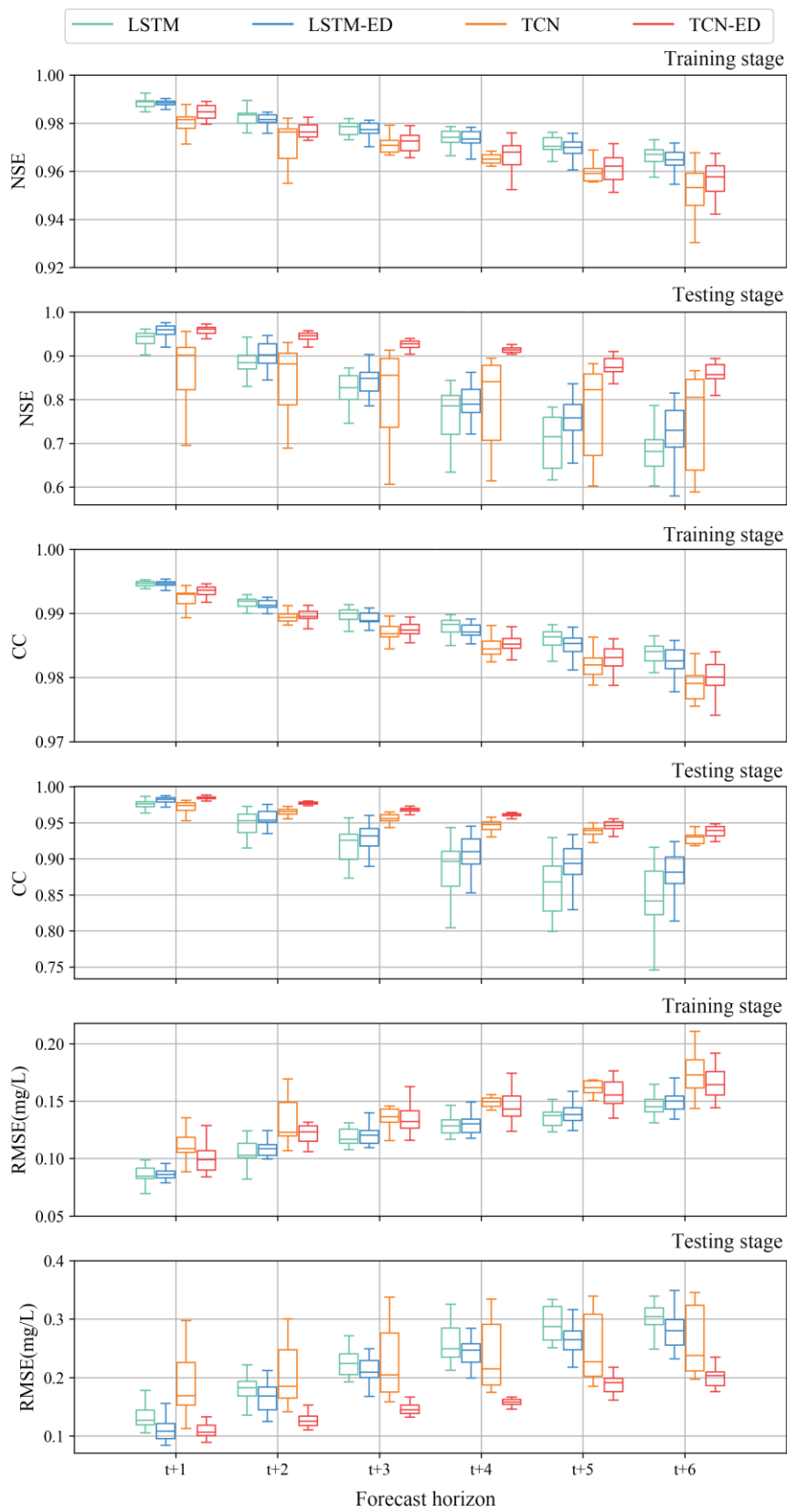
42 307 Furthermore, the ED framework gives rise to higher density peaks in training phases,  
43  
44 308 indicating better stability resided in the TCN-ED (LSTM-ED) model. In testing phases, the  
45  
46  
47 309 GKDE curves of the three evaluation indicators created by the TCN-ED (LSTM-ED) model are  
48  
49 310 sharper than those of the TCN (LSTM) model, and the density peaks of the GKDE curves move  
50  
51  
52 311 towards better values, showing superior accuracy and stability. The ED framework improves  
53  
54 312 the accuracy of the TCN unit more than the LSTM unit, particularly in testing phases. The  
55  
56  
57 313 TCN-ED model exhibits [a large improvement](#) over the [LSTM-ED](#) model in terms of GKDE  
58  
59 314 curve sharpness, density peak, and occurrence position.  
60



1 315 Fig. 4 explicitly presents the boxplots of the values of the three evaluation indicators  
2  
3 316 corresponding to four prediction models from horizon  $t+1$  up to  $t+6$  in training and testing  
4  
5 317 phases. In general, the results corresponding to 20 rounds support that the constructed TCN-  
6  
7  
8 318 ED (LSTM-ED) model is much more stable with better consistency than the TCN (LSTM)  
9  
10 319 model according to the values of the interquartile ranges and min-max ranges. The boxplot  
11  
12  
13 320 results also reveal that the TCN-ED (LSTM-ED) model creates better NSE and CC values, as  
14  
15 321 well as inferior RMSE values than the TCN (LSTM) model, especially significant at long  
16  
17 322 horizons  $> 3h$  in training and testing phases. These results demonstrate that, from the  
18  
19  
20 323 perspective of model performance, the accuracy and stability of the TCN-ED (LSTM-ED)  
21  
22 324 model is better than that of the TCN (LSTM) model. Despite that the LSTM-ED model  
23  
24  
25 325 outperforms the TCN-ED model in terms of accuracy in the training phase, the TCN-ED model  
26  
27 326 displays better accuracy and stability in the testing phase, particularly for the long forecast  
28  
29  
30 327 horizons ( $t+3 - t+6$ ). This suggests that the LSTM-ED model tends to produce unstable  
31  
32 328 forecasts, while the TCN-ED model has strong generalization capability and stability. The  
33  
34  
35 329 widening gap between the two models with the increasing forecast horizons in the testing phase  
36  
37 330 is mainly attributed to the LSTM-ED model's excessive reliance on the update of the cell state  
38  
39  
40 331 in the LSTM at the encoder's last time step. On the one hand, hydrological information would  
41  
42 332 gradually be neglected by the forget gate as redundant information in multiple iterations,  
43  
44 333 making it challenging for the encoder to fully capture temporal dependencies meanwhile  
45  
46  
47 334 resulting in inadequate information in the semantic vectors assigned by the decoder. On the  
48  
49  
50 335 other hand, the TCN encoder with dilated convolution has a receptive field that can encompass  
51  
52 336 24-time steps of the input sequence at the last time step, allowing for better characterization of  
53  
54 337 hydrological patterns in the long forecast horizons. Therefore, the TCN-ED model achieves  
55  
56  
57 338 higher accuracy than the LSTM-ED model.



**Fig.3** Gaussian kernel density estimation curves (GKDEs) of the three evaluation indicators of prediction models corresponding to training and testing phases.



343

344

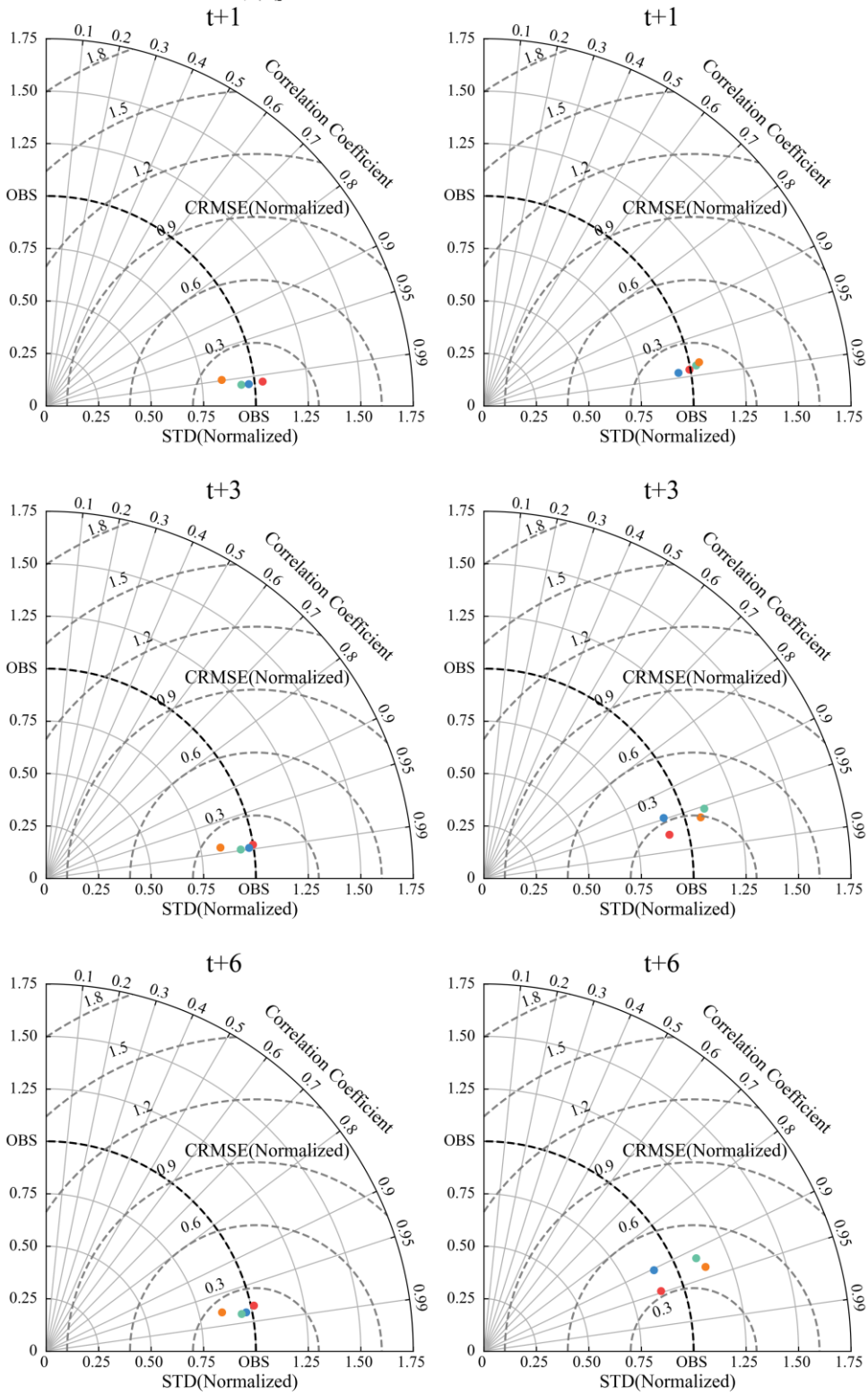
345

**Fig.4** Boxplots of the evaluation indicator values corresponding to four prediction models (each model runs 20 rounds) from horizon t+1 up to t+6 with respect to training and testing phases.

## 4.2 Assessment on model reliability

The Taylor diagram graphically summarizes the goodness of fit between the observed and predicted data by comprehensively considering the CC, the Centered RMSE (CRMSE) and the Standard Deviation (STD) (Taylor, 2001), and has been widely used to evaluate the accuracy of hydrological models (Pal et al., 2022; Uddin et al., 2023a). Fig. 5 displays the normalized Taylor diagrams (Molina et al., 2021) of four prediction models with the highest accuracies over 20 rounds at three horizons ( $t+1$ ,  $t+3$  and  $t+6$ ) in training and testing phases. It is noted that the CRMSE and the standard deviations of each time series are normalized by the standard deviation of the corresponding observed field, so both CRMSE and STD are unitless.

In training phases (Fig. 5(a)), all models have good prediction performance, although each model performance decreases slightly with the growing forecast horizons. The difference in the values of evaluation indicators of the prediction models is similar across the three forecast horizons. The STD values of the data simulated by the TCN model are obviously smaller than those of the observed data, indicating that the variability of the produced data is smaller than that of the observed data. The STD values of the data simulated by the TCN-ED model are slightly larger than 1, while those of the data simulated by the other three models are less than 1. In other words, the simulation data created by the TCN-ED model are closer to the observed data. Regarding the CC and CRMSE values, the effect of the ED framework on the TCN neural network is significantly larger than that of the ED framework on the LSTM neural network. Furthermore, from the standpoint of three evaluation indicators, the TCN-ED outperforms the other three prediction models, despite the superiority decreasing with the growing forecast horizons.



(a) training stage

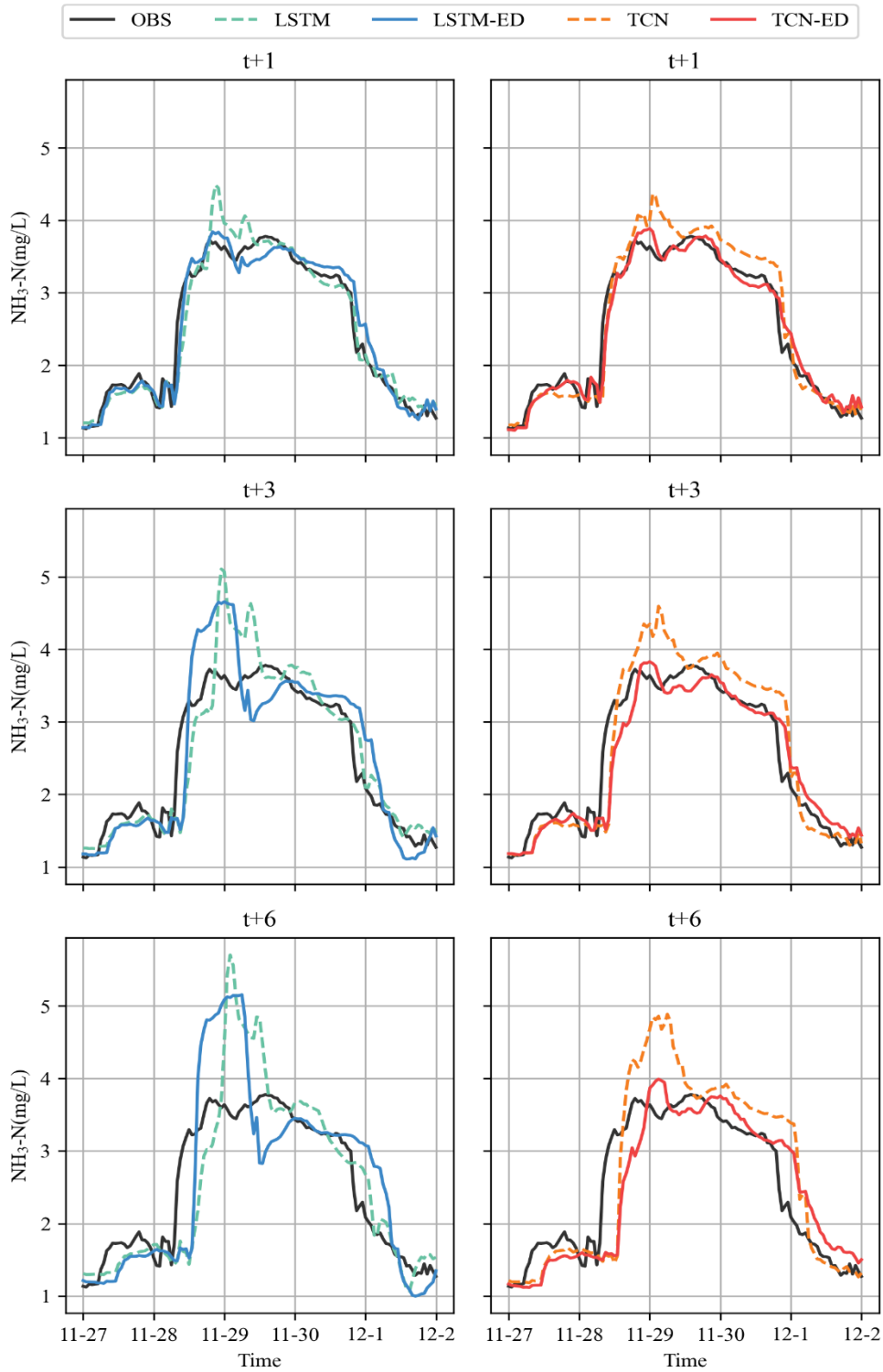
(b) testing stage

**Fig.5** Normalized Taylor diagrams of four prediction models with the highest accuracies over 20 rounds at the horizons  $t+1$ ,  $t+3$  and  $t+6$  with respect to training and testing phases.

1 371  
2 372 In testing phases (Fig.5(b)), the TCN-ED (TCN) achieves better reliability than the LSTM-  
3  
4 373 ED (LSTM) in terms of the CC and CRMSE indicators at horizons  $t+3$  and  $t+6$ . The variation  
5  
6  
7 374 degree (represented by the STD) of the data forecasted by the TCN and LSTM models without  
8  
9  
10 375 using the ED framework is larger than that of the observed data. The variation degree of the  
11  
12 376 data forecasted by the TCN-ED and LSTM-ED models is smaller, and the goodness of fit  
13  
14 377 [between](#) forecasted and observed values decreases with the growth of horizons. That is to say,  
15  
16  
17 378 the ED framework can improve the performance of the TCN and LSTM neural networks by  
18  
19 379 reducing the CRMSE values and increasing the CC values. Besides, for the forecast horizon  
20  
21  
22 380  $t+1$ , all models have good predictability. The TCN has slightly larger CRMSE values, lower  
23  
24 381 CC values, and more significant differences in the STD values from 1, while the values of the  
25  
26 382 CC indicator related to the LSTM are close to 0.98, and the STD values of the TCN-ED model  
27  
28  
29 383 are the best (close to 1), in comparison to other models. For the forecast horizons  $t+3$  and  $t+6$ ,  
30  
31  
32 384 the LSTM model performs the worst while the TCN-ED model performs the best, according to  
33  
34 385 the CC and CRMSE values. [This again demonstrates](#) that the TCN-ED model could well  
35  
36 386 capture the change in ammonia nitrogen concentrations and provide more reliable and accurate  
37  
38  
39 387 forecasts compared with [the other](#) models, especially true at long forecast horizons ( $> 3h$ ).

40  
41 388 Fig. 6 shows the forecast results of the maximum (the highest peak of  $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$   
42  
43 389 concentrations exceeds 3.0 mg/L) ammonia nitrogen outbreak event (2019-11-27 up to 2019-  
44  
45  
46 390 12-2) in testing phases. [The concentration of ammonia nitrogen reaches 3.78 mg/L, which](#)  
47  
48  
49 391 [causes toxicity to aquatic organisms, affecting the growth and reproduction of fish, crustaceans,](#)  
50  
51 392 [and other aquatic organisms \(Xu et al., 2021\).](#)  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65

1 393



53 394

54 395

**Fig.6** Forecast results of the maximum (the highest peak of  $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$  concentrations exceeds 3.0 mg/L) ammonia nitrogen concentration event in testing phases with respect to horizons  $t+1$ ,  $t+3$  and  $t+6$ .

56 396

57 397

58

59 398

It is obviously found that all models perform well and have good predictability at forecast

60

61

62

63

64

65

1 399 horizon  $t+1$ . The forecasting processes of  $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$  concentrations produced by the TCN (LSTM)  
2  
3 400 model show an obvious oscillation around the highest peak of  $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$  concentrations. However,  
4  
5 401 such phenomena would be mitigated after fusing the TCN (LSTM) neural network into the ED  
6  
7 402 framework. The forecasted  $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$  concentrations of the TCN-ED could trace the observed  
8  
9 403  $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$  concentrations, while the forecasting processes of the LSTM model could not fit the  
10  
11 404 observed processes. At the forecast horizon  $t+3$ , the TCN-ED (TCN) has fewer oscillations in  
12  
13 405 the forecasting processes nearby the highest peak of  $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$  concentrations, compared with  
14  
15 406 those of the LSTM-ED (LSTM). Thus, the LSTM-ED (LSTM) cannot capture the dynamic  
16  
17 407 processes of ammonia nitrogen concentrations. Despite that the forecasting processes of the  
18  
19 408 TCN model do not show obvious oscillations, the problem of time-delay effect exists, and the  
20  
21 409 processes of high ammonia nitrogen concentrations on November 28th - 29th do not fit well.  
22  
23 410 After fusing the TCN into the ED framework, the forecasting processes of the TCN-ED not  
24  
25 411 only could well fit the highest peak of ammonia nitrogen concentrations, but also could trace  
26  
27 412 the subsequent receding processes of ammonia nitrogen concentrations. At the forecast horizon  
28  
29 413  $t+6$ , the forecasting processes of the LSTM-ED (LSTM) oscillate more obviously. The highest  
30  
31 414 peak of ammonia nitrogen concentrations is about 3.5 mg/L on November 29th, but the data  
32  
33 415 forecasted by the LSTM-ED (LSTM) is large than 5 mg/L, and the forecasting processes have  
34  
35 416 more intensive oscillations. **In contrast**, the TCN-ED (TCN) model shows a small oscillation  
36  
37 417 after November 29th.

38  
39 418 In summary, the TCN-ED can produce more reliable, stable and accurate ammonia  
40  
41 419 nitrogen forecasts as well as effectively reduce the time-delay effect on the highest peak of  
42  
43 420 ammonia nitrogen concentrations, compared with other three prediction models.  
44  
45



## 5. Conclusion

The ED structure has shown its superiority in capturing the complex and nonlinear relationships between the predictive and dependent variables, thereby enhancing the generalizability of ANNs. The ANN-based ED framework has become a valuable tool in data-driven water quality prediction models. This study developed a TCN-based ED framework (TCN-ED) to forecast ammonia nitrogen processes of a water quality gauge station in Hengsha island of Shanghai City in China. The TCN-ED model could better accomplish the multi-step-ahead ammonia nitrogen forecasts based on three meteorological factors and four water quality factors than the LSTM-ED, TCN and LSTM models. The findings are summarized as follows:

- (1) The TCN and LSTM models can generate small errors in the training phases but undergo overfitting and instability. The TCN-ED and LSTM-ED models can mitigate the error propagation associated with multi-horizon forecasts and efficiently overcome the overfitting bottleneck to achieve better performance with less computation time for model training.
- (2) In the ammonia nitrogen forecasting of the highest peak test event, the TCN-ED model shows the shortest time-delay phenomenon among the four models at the long forecast horizon (6h). The TCN-ED model could provide more accurate, stable and reliable forecasts and trace the dynamic processes of the ammonia nitrogen event, even outperforming the LSTM-ED model.
- (3) The TCN-ED adequately combines predictive variables with dependent variables patterns in the Encoder and accurately produces the sequence of ammonia nitrogen concentrations in a systematic way in the Decoder. The ED framework largely improves the accuracy, stability and reliability of the ANNs.

The study systematically evaluated the influence of the ED framework on ANNs for water quality forecasting. There is a significant need for multi-task learning in water environmental

1 447 management to capture the complex nonlinear correlation between multi-input and multi-output  
2  
3 448 factors. Although this study developed an ANN-based ED model to forecast ammonia nitrogen  
4  
5 449 concentration and applied it to a local case study, the developed TCN-ED can be easily extended  
6  
7  
8 450 to predict more water quality factors and model time series in other fields. Furthermore, some  
9  
10 451 studies could be conducted to explore the developed models for forecasting and early warning  
11  
12 452 water pollution events (e.g., algal bloom outbreak and heavy metal pollution). In future research,  
13  
14 453 the confidence interval of the forecast model will be considered. Probabilistic forecasts that  
15  
16  
17 454 take into account uncertainty in the input data and model parameters will also be carried out as  
18  
19  
20 455 probabilistic forecasts can provide more comprehensive and informative predictions compared  
21  
22 456 with deterministic forecasts.

## 27 458 **Acknowledgments**

29  
30 459 This work was supported by the National Key Research and Development Program of China  
31  
32 460 (No. 2021YFC3200304), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (U20A20317), and  
33  
34 461 the Research Council of Norway (FRINATEK Project 274310, KLIMAFORSK Project  
35 462 302457). The authors would like to thank the Editors and anonymous Reviewers for their  
36  
37 463 constructive comments that greatly contributed to improving the manuscript.  
38  
39 464

## 41 465 **Declaration of competing interest**

42  
43 466 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal  
44  
45 467 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.  
46  
47 468

## 49 469 **Data availability**

50  
51 470 The data that has been used is confidential.  
52  
53 471

## 55 472 **References**

56  
57 473 Abbaszade, M., Salari, V., Mousavi, S.S., Zomorodi, M., Zhou, X., 2021. Application of  
58 474 Quantum Natural Language Processing for Language Translation. *IEEE Access* 9,  
59

130434-130448. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2021.3108768>.

- 1 475  
2 476 Ahmed, A.N., Othman, F.B., Afan, H.A., Ibrahim, R.K., Fai, C.M., Hossain, M.S., Ehteram,  
3 477 M., Elshafie, A., 2019. Machine learning methods for better water quality prediction. *J.*  
4 478 *Hydrol.* 578, 124084. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2019.124084>.
- 5 479 Aloui, S., Mazzoni, A., Elomri, A., Aouissi, J., Boufekane, A., Zghibi, A., 2023. A review of  
6 480 Soil and Water Assessment Tool (SWAT) studies of Mediterranean catchments:  
7 481 Applications, feasibility, and future directions. *J. Environ. Manag.* 326, 116799.  
8 482 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2022.116799>.
- 10 483 Bai, S., Kolter, J.Z., Koltun, V., 2018. An empirical evaluation of generic convolutional and  
11 484 recurrent networks for sequence modeling. *arXiv*, 1803.01271.  
12 485 <https://doi.org/10.48550/arXiv.1803.01271>
- 13 486 Bertone, E., Rousso, B.Z., Kufeji, D., 2023. A probabilistic decision support tool for prediction  
14 487 and management of rainfall-related poor water quality events for a drinking water  
15 488 treatment plant. *J. Environ. Manag.* 332, 117209.  
16 489 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2022.117209>.
- 18 490 Bian, C., He, H., Yang, S., Huang, T., 2019. State-of-charge sequence estimation of lithium-  
19 491 ion battery based on bidirectional long short-term memory encoder-decoder architecture.  
20 492 *J. Power Sources.* 449, 227558. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpowsour.2019.227558>.
- 21 493 Chen, Z., Xu, H., Jiang, P., Yu, S., Lin, G., Bychkov, I., Hmelnov, A., Ruzhnikov, G., Zhu, N.,  
22 494 Liu, Z., 2021. A transfer Learning-Based LSTM strategy for imputing Large-Scale  
23 495 consecutive missing data and its application in a water quality prediction system. *J. Hydrol.*  
24 496 602, 126573. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2021.126573>.
- 26 497 Cho, K., Van Merriënboer, B., Gulcehre, C., Bougares, F., Schwenk, H., Bengio, Y., 2014.  
27 498 Learning phrase representations using RNN encoder-decoder for statistical machine  
28 499 translation. *arXiv Prepr.*, arXiv1406.1078. <https://doi.org/10.48550/arXiv.1406.1078>
- 29 500 Deng, S., Zhang, N., Zhang, W., Chen, J., Pan, J., Chen, H., 2019. Knowledge-driven stock  
30 501 trend prediction and explanation via temporal convolutional network. *Companion*  
31 502 *Proceedings of The 2019 World Wide Web Conference*, 678-685.  
32 503 <https://doi.org/10.1145/3308560.3317701>.
- 34 504 Deng, T., Chau, K.-W., Duan, H.-F., 2021. Machine learning based marine water quality  
35 505 prediction for coastal hydro-environment management. *J. Environ. Manag.* 284, 112051.  
36 506 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2021.112051>.
- 37 507 Dorado Rueda, F., Durán Suárez, J., del Real Torres, A., 2021. Short-Term Load Forecasting  
38 508 Using Encoder-Decoder WaveNet: Application to the French Grid. *Energies* 14, 2524.  
39 509 <https://doi.org/10.3390/en14092524>.
- 41 510 Erdélyi, D., Hatvani, I.G., Jeon, H., Jones, M., Tyler, J., Kern, Z., 2023. Predicting spatial  
42 511 distribution of stable isotopes in precipitation by classical geostatistical- and machine  
43 512 learning methods. *J Hydrol* 617, 129129. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2023.129129>.
- 44 513 Fu, Y., Hu, Z., Zhao, Y., Huang, M., 2021. A Long-Term Water Quality Prediction Method  
45 514 Based on the Temporal Convolutional Network in Smart Mariculture. *Water* 13, 2907.
- 46 515 Gopali, S., Abri, F., Siami-Namini, S., Namin, A.S., Year. A Comparison of TCN and LSTM  
47 516 Models in Detecting Anomalies in Time Series Data. 2021 IEEE International Conference  
48 517 on Big Data (Big Data), 2415-2420. <https://doi.org/10.1109/BigData52589.2021.9671488>.
- 50 518 Guo, C., Cui, Y., 2022. Machine learning exhibited excellent advantages in the performance  
51 519 simulation and prediction of free water surface constructed wetlands. *J. Environ. Manag.*  
52 520 309, 114694. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2022.114694>.
- 53 521 Han, J., Xu, L., Cao, K., Li, T., Tan, X., Tang, Z., Shi, T., Liao, G., 2021. Online estimation of  
54 522 the heat flux during turning using long short-term memory based encoder-decoder. *Case*  
55 523 *Stud Therm Eng* 26, 101002. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.csite.2021.101002>.
- 57 524 He, Y., Zhao, J., 2019. Temporal convolutional networks for anomaly detection in time series.  
58 525 *Journal of Physics: Conference Series* 1213, 042050. [https://doi.org/10.1088/1742-](https://doi.org/10.1088/1742-6596/1213/4/042050)  
59 526 [6596/1213/4/042050](https://doi.org/10.1088/1742-6596/1213/4/042050).

- 1 527 Hewage, P., Behera, A., Trovati, M., Pereira, E., Ghahremani, M., Palmieri, F., Liu, Y., 2020.  
2 528 Temporal convolutional neural (TCN) network for an effective weather forecasting using  
3 529 time-series data from the local weather station. *Soft Comput* 24, 16453-16482.  
4 530 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00500-020-04954-0>.
- 5 531 Jamro, I.A., Raheem, A., Khoso, S., Baloch, H.A., Kumar, A., Chen, G., Bhagat, W.A., Wenga,  
6 532 T., Ma, W., 2023. Investigation of enhanced H<sub>2</sub> production from municipal solid waste  
7 533 gasification via artificial neural network with data on tar compounds. *J. Environ. Manag.*  
8 534 328, 117014. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2022.117014>.
- 10 535 Jiang, S., Zheng, Y., Babovic, V., Tian, Y., Han, F., 2018. A computer vision-based approach  
11 536 to fusing spatiotemporal data for hydrological modeling. *J. Hydrol.* 567, 25-40.  
12 537 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2018.09.064>.
- 13 538 Kao, I.F., Zhou, Y., Chang, L.-C., Chang, F.-J., 2020. Exploring a Long Short-Term Memory  
14 539 based Encoder-Decoder framework for multi-step-ahead flood forecasting. *J. Hydrol.* 583,  
15 540 12. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2020.124631>.
- 17 541 Laubscher, R., 2019. Time-series forecasting of coal-fired power plant reheater metal  
18 542 temperatures using encoder-decoder recurrent neural networks. *Energy* 189, 116187.  
19 543 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.energy.2019.116187>.
- 20 544 Liu, J., Zhu, H., Liu, Y., Wu, H., Lan, Y., Zhang, X., 2019. Anomaly detection for time series  
21 545 using temporal convolutional networks and Gaussian mixture model. *Journal of Physics:*  
22 546 *Conference Series* 1187, 042111. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1742-6596/1187/4/042111>.
- 24 547 Loyola, P., Liu, C., Hirate, Y., Year. Modeling user session and intent with an attention-based  
25 548 encoder-decoder architecture. *Proceedings of the Eleventh ACM Conference on*  
26 549 *Recommender Systems*, 147-151. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3109859.3109917>.
- 27 550 Mahmud, T., Paul, B., Fattah, S.A., 2021. PolypSegNet: A modified encoder-decoder  
28 551 architecture for automated polyp segmentation from colonoscopy images. *Comput Biol*  
29 552 *Med* 128, 104119. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.combiomed.2020.104119>.
- 31 553 Menon, P., Anantha Singh, T.S., Pani, N., Nidheesh, P.V., 2021. Electro-Fenton assisted  
32 554 sonication for removal of ammoniacal nitrogen and organic matter from dye intermediate  
33 555 industrial wastewater. *Chemosphere* 269, 128739.  
34 556 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2020.128739>.
- 35 557 Ming, H., Yan, G., Zhang, X., Pei, X., Fu, L., Zhou, D., 2022. Harsh temperature induces  
36 558 *Microcystis aeruginosa* growth enhancement and water deterioration during vernalization.  
37 559 *Water Res.* 223, 118956. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2022.118956>.
- 39 560 Mohammed, H., Tornyeviadzi, H.M., Seidu, R., 2021. Modelling the impact of weather  
40 561 parameters on the microbial quality of water in distribution systems. *J. Environ. Manag.*  
41 562 284, 111997. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2021.111997>.
- 42 563 Molina, M.O., Gutiérrez, C., Sánchez, E., 2021. Comparison of ERA5 surface wind speed  
43 564 climatologies over Europe with observations from the HadISD dataset. *Int J Climatol* 41,  
44 565 4864-4878. <https://doi.org/10.1002/joc.7103>.
- 45 566 Mu, L., Mou, M., Tang, H., Gao, S., 2023. Exploring preference and willingness for rural water  
46 567 pollution control: A choice experiment approach incorporating extended theory of planned  
47 568 behaviour. *J. Environ. Manag.* 332, 117408.  
48 569 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2023.117408>.
- 50 570 Nash, J.E., Sutcliffe, J.V., 1970. River flow forecasting through conceptual models part I — A  
51 571 discussion of principles. *J. Hydrol.* 10, 0-290. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-1694\(70\)90255-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-1694(70)90255-6).
- 53 573 Noori, N., Kalin, L., Isik, S., 2020. Water quality prediction using SWAT-ANN coupled  
54 574 approach. *J Hydrol* 590, 125220. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2020.125220>.
- 56 575 Pal, S.C., Ruidas, D., Saha, A., Islam, A.R.M.T., Chowdhuri, I., 2022. Application of novel  
57 576 data-mining technique based nitrate concentration susceptibility prediction approach for  
58 577 coastal aquifers in India. *J Clean Prod* 346, 131205.  
59 578 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2022.131205>.

- 1 579 Park, C., Kim, D., Yu, H., 2019. An encoder–decoder switch network for purchase prediction.  
2 580 Knowl. Based. Syst. 185, 104932. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.knosys.2019.104932>.
- 3 581 Pawan, Dhiman, R., 2023. Electroencephalogram channel selection based on pearson  
4 582 correlation coefficient for motor imagery-brain-computer interface. Measurement:  
5 583 Sensors 25, 100616. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.measen.2022.100616>.
- 6 584 Pyo, J., Kwon, Y.S., Min, J.-H., Nam, G., Song, Y.-S., Ahn, J.M., Park, S., Lee, J., Cho, K.H.,  
7 585 Park, Y., 2021. Effect of hyperspectral image-based initial conditions on improving short-  
8 586 term algal simulation of hydrodynamic and water quality models. J. Environ. Manag. 294,  
9 587 112988. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2021.112988>.
- 11 588 Quevedo-Castro, A., Bustos-Terrones, Y.A., Bandala, E.R., Loaiza, J.G., Rangel-Peraza, J.G.,  
12 589 2022. Modeling the effect of climate change scenarios on water quality for tropical  
13 590 reservoirs. J. Environ. Manag. 322, 116137.  
14 591 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2022.116137>.
- 15 592 Shi, X.J., Chen, Z.R., Wang, H., Yeung, D.Y., Wong, W.K., Woo, W.C., 2015. Convolutional  
16 593 LSTM network: A machine learning approach for precipitation nowcasting. Adv Neural  
17 594 Inf Process Syst 28, 802-810.
- 19 595 Taylor, K.E., 2001. Summarizing multiple aspects of model performance in a single diagram.  
20 596 Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres 106, 7183-7192.  
21 597 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2000JD900719>.
- 22 598 Uddin, M.G., Nash, S., Rahman, A., Olbert, A.I., 2023a. A novel approach for estimating and  
23 599 predicting uncertainty in water quality index model using machine learning approaches.  
24 600 Water Res. 229, 119422. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2022.119422>.
- 26 601 Uddin, M.G., Nash, S., Rahman, A., Olbert, A.I., 2023b. A sophisticated model for rating water  
27 602 quality. Sci. Total Environ. 868, 161614. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2023.161614>.
- 28 603 Walsh, C.J., Imberger, M., Burns, M.J., Bos, D.G., Fletcher, T.D., 2022. Dispersed Urban-  
29 604 Stormwater Control Improved Stream Water Quality in a Catchment-Scale Experiment.  
30 605 Water Resour Res 58, e2022WR032041. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2022WR032041>.
- 31 606 Wan, H., Mao, Y., Cai, Y., Li, R., Feng, J., Yang, H.J.E.w.C., 2021. An SPH-based mass  
32 607 transfer model for simulating hydraulic characteristics and mass transfer process of  
33 608 dammed rivers. Engineering with Computers 38, 3169–3184.  
34 609 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00366-021-01354-2>.
- 36 610 Wan, H., Xu, R., Zhang, M., Cai, Y., Li, J., Shen, X., 2022. A novel model for water quality  
37 611 prediction caused by non-point sources pollution based on deep learning and feature  
38 612 extraction methods. J. Hydrol. 612, 128081.  
39 613 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2022.128081>.
- 41 614 Wang, L., Dong, H., Cao, Y., Hou, D., Zhang, G., 2023. Real-time water quality detection based  
42 615 on fluctuation feature analysis with the LSTM model. J. Hydroinf. 25, 140–149.  
43 616 <https://doi.org/10.2166/hydro.2023.127>.
- 44 617 Wiering, M., Kirschke, S., Akif, N.U., 2023. Addressing diffuse water pollution from  
45 618 agriculture: Do governance structures matter for the nature of measures taken? J. Environ.  
46 619 Manag. 332, 117329. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2023.117329>.
- 47 620 Xu, J., Luo, W., Huang, Y., 2019. Dadu river runoff forecasting via Seq2Seq. Proceedings of  
48 621 the 2019 International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Computer Science, 494-  
49 622 498. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3349341.3349457>.
- 51 623 Xu, Z., Cao, J., Qin, X., Qiu, W., Mei, J., Xie, J., 2021. Toxic Effects on Bioaccumulation,  
52 624 Hematological Parameters, Oxidative Stress, Immune Responses and Tissue Structure in  
53 625 Fish Exposed to Ammonia Nitrogen: A Review. Animals 11, 3304.  
54 626 <https://doi.org/10.3390/ani11113304>.
- 55 627 Yan, K., Li, C., Zhao, R., Zhang, Y., Duan, H., Wang, W., 2023. Predicting the ammonia  
56 628 nitrogen of wastewater treatment plant influent via integrated model based on rolling  
57 629 decomposition method and deep learning algorithm. Sustain Cities Soc 94, 104541.  
58 630 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scs.2023.104541>.

- 1 631 Yang, Y., Xiong, Q., Wu, C., Zou, Q., Yu, Y., Yi, H., Gao, M., 2021. A study on water quality  
2 632 prediction by a hybrid CNN-LSTM model with attention mechanism. *Environ. Sci. Pollut.*  
3 633 *Res.* 28, 55129-55139. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-021-14687-8>.
- 4 634 Zhang, L., Wang, W., Gao, Q., Yang, M., Ji, Y., Geng, S., 2021. Study on the Rapid Prediction  
5 635 Model of Water Quality for Emergency Water Pollution. 2021 International Conference  
6 636 on Computer Engineering and Artificial Intelligence (ICCEAI), 211-215.  
7 637 <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICCEAI52939.2021.00041>.
- 8 638 Zhang, Q., Li, Z., 2021. Data-driven interval credibility constrained quadratic programming  
9 639 model for water quality management under uncertainty. *J. Environ. Manag.* 293, 112791.  
10 640 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2021.112791>.
- 11 641 Zhang, X., Li, D., 2023. Multi-input multi-output temporal convolutional network for  
12 642 predicting the long-term water quality of ocean ranches. *Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res.* 30,  
13 643 7914-7929. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-022-22588-7>.
- 14 644 Zhang, Y.-F., Thorburn, P.J., Fitch, P., 2019. Multi-task Temporal Convolutional Network for  
15 645 Predicting Water Quality Sensor Data. *Neural Information Processing*, 122-130.  
16 646 [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-36808-1\\_14](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-36808-1_14).
- 17 647 Zhao, J.C., Deng, F., Cai, Y.Y., Chen, J., 2019. Long short-term memory - Fully connected  
18 648 (LSTM-FC) neural network for PM2.5 concentration prediction. *Chemosphere* 220, 486-  
19 649 492. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2018.12.128>.
- 20 650 Zheng, H., Liu, Y., Wan, W., Zhao, J., Xie, G., 2023. Large-scale prediction of stream water  
21 651 quality using an interpretable deep learning approach. *J. Environ. Manag.* 331, 117309.  
22 652 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2023.117309>.
- 23 653 Zhou, Y., 2020. Real-time probabilistic forecasting of river water quality under data missing  
24 654 situation: Deep learning plus post-processing techniques. *J. Hydrol.* 589, 125164.  
25 655 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2020.125164>.
- 26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65