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Predicting the Trend of Dissolved Oxygen based on kPCA-RNN Model

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Abstract: Water quality forecasting is increasingly significant for agricultural management and environmental protection. Enormous amounts of water quality data are increasingly being collected by advanced sensors, which leads to an interest in using data-driven models for predicting trends in water quality. However, the unpredictable background noises introduced during water quality monitoring seriously degrade the performance of those models. Meanwhile, artificial neural networks (ANN) with feed-forward architecture lack the capability of maintaining and utilizing the accumulated temporal information, which leads to biased predictions in processing time series data. Hence, we propose a water quality predictive model based on a combination of Kernel Principal Component Analysis (kPCA) and Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) to forecast the trend of dissolved oxygen. Water quality variables are reconstructed based on kPCA method, which aims to reduce the noise from the raw sensory data and preserve actionable information. With the RNN's recurrent connections, our model can make use of the previous information in predicting the trend in the future. Data collected from Burnett River, Australia was applied to evaluate our kPCA-RNN model. The kPCA-RNN model achieved R^2 scores up to 0.908, 0.823 and 0.671 for predicting the concentration of dissolved oxygen in the upcoming 1, 2 and 3 hours, respectively. Compared to current data-driven methods like ANN and SVR, the predictive accuracy of the kPCA-RNN model was at least 8 %, 17 % and 21 % better than the comparative models in these 3 cases. The study demonstrates the effectiveness of the kPCA-RNN modeling technique in predicting water quality variables with noisy sensory data.

Keywords: Water Quality; Machine learning; Recurrent Neural Network; PCA

1. Introduction

Multivariate time series data have been generated at an unprecedented speed in the field of water quality monitoring in recent years because of the widely deployed automated monitoring networks [1]. Predicting the temporal variability of water quality is essential for improving water quality management and protection activities [2].

Dissolved oxygen (DO) content is one of the most vital water quality variables as it directly indicates the status of the aquatic ecosystem and its ability to sustain aquatic life [3]. Rapid decomposition of organic materials, including manure or wastewater sources can quickly take the DO out of water in few hours, resulting in deficient DO levels that can lead to stress and death of aquatic fauna [4]. For example, DO levels that remain below 1-2 mg/l for a few hours can result in large fish kills. In the pond management, an aeration system can quickly increase dissolved oxygen levels if the decreasing of dissolved oxygen in the water can be predicted. Hence, short-term predictions of DO is critical in delivering good water quality management [5].

34 While some mathematical models have been applied to predict DO, they have complicated
35 expressions, and are naturally conformed to particular ecosystems [6]. Consequently, those models are
36 not likely to be able to be generalized without significant parameter adjustment [7].

37 Data-driven models have received increasing attention in predicting the concentration of DO
38 based on the sensory data. That work involved feed-forward neural network [8], generalized regression
39 neural network (GRNN) [9,10], radial basis neural network (RBF) [11], extreme learning machine
40 (ELM) [12] and support vector machine (SVM) [13,14] models. Moreover, most predictive data-driven
41 models follow a feed-forward topology structure. Under these circumstances, seasonal or diurnal
42 patterns within the water quality time series data cannot be obtained because of the limitation of these
43 modelling technologies [15].

44 The quality of input data also has a large influence on the data-driven model's performance [16].
45 Random errors generated by the environment, instruments or network transmission are unavoidable
46 when monitoring water quality variables [17,18]. Though techniques such as z-score and min-max
47 are used in preprocessing input data for data-driven models [10], those techniques aim to rescale the
48 numeric range of water quality variables rather reduce sensor noise. Accordingly, the unwanted noise
49 would be accepted as true by the data-driven models, which increases the challenges for generating
50 accurate predictions for water quality variables.

51 In this paper, we propose a water quality predictive model based on Kernel Principal Component
52 Analysis (kPCA) and Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) to solve the above issues. Our work differs
53 from other comparative approaches in the following two aspects

- 54 • Kernel Principal Component Analysis (kPCA) is implemented to the input sensory data, which
55 can filter the background noise as well as extract discriminative features effectively.
- 56 • A recurrent neural network (RNN) is designed to capture the temporal variations within water
57 quality variables and utilize the historical changing patterns as a guide for predicting water
58 quality in the future.

59 The aim of this study is to evaluate the predictive accuracy of the kPCA-RNN model by comparing
60 it with two methods, the feed-forward neural network and support vector regression model. The
61 evaluation is undertaken on a case study of DO concentrations in Burnett River, Australia.

62 2. Material and Methods

63 2.1. Study Area and Monitoring Data

64 2.1.1. Overview

65 The Burnett River is located on the southern Queensland coast and flows into the coral sea of
66 the South Pacific Ocean. Cultivation of sugar cane and small crops are important lands uses in this
67 region. The total area of the catchment is about 33,000 km^2 . Figure 1 illustrates the location and extent
68 of the catchment. Time series physiochemical water quality variables analysed in this study were
69 obtained by a YSI 6 Series sonde sensor near the Bundaberg Co-op Wharf (Figure 1) [20]. Water quality
70 variables such as temperature, electric conductivity (EC), pH, dissolved oxygen (DO), turbidity and
71 chlorophyll-a (Chl-a) are recorded with 1 hour time interval for 5 months in 2015 (Table 1).

72 2.1.2. Water Quality Statistical Analysis

73 As demonstrated in Table 1, Chl-a and turbidity have larger variability than other water quality
74 variables ($CV > 50\%$). In the case of turbidity this is due to extreme weather events [21]. The variability
75 of Chl-a concentration can be affected by the discharge of river, temperature and salinity variation. The
76 high variability in turbidity and Chl-a are caused by a small number of observations with high values
77 (Figure 2). Additionally, outliers of EC tend to have lower measurement values. These outliers can be



Figure 1. Burnett River catchment area and the monitoring site. This monitoring site is part of the Queensland Government's water quality monitoring network [19].

Table 1. Water quality data from 1/6/2015 to 31/10/2015.

Variables	No. of data	Unit	Min	Max	Median	Mean	SD ¹	CV ² (%)
Temperature		°C	16.07	27.92	20.95	21.39	2.33	11
EC		uS cm ⁻¹	613	49150	45750	44712.13	3566.75	8
pH	3672		7.53	8.37	7.85	7.84	0.13	2
DO		mg L ⁻¹	5.24	12.96	6.76	6.85	0.88	13
Turbidity		NTU	2.6	63	8.2	9.46	4.70	50
Chl-a		µg L ⁻¹	0.1	137.6	2.6	3.50	3.56	102

¹standard deviation

²coefficient of variation

78 caused by variations in river flow of other characteristics of the catchment. Ignoring those variations
79 may cause serious information loss.

80 Figure 3 illustrates the changing patterns of DO both within a day and over a consecutive number
81 of days. It is obvious that the concentration of DO follows a similar daily pattern, which makes it
82 possible to predict the changing of DO. However, when tracking the concentration of DO in a larger
83 time scale, it is plain to see that the mean value of the concentration of DO is increasing incrementally.
84 Hence, the predictive model should both capture the temporal pattern within the same day and over a
85 couple of days.

86 Figure 4 depicts the autocorrelation of DO for 24 time steps within a day. The present concentration
87 of DO has a solid relationship with the concentration of DO in the previous 20 time steps. This means
88 to predict the concentration of DO at a time, the historical DO information in the past 20 hours are very
89 helpful. Expressly, DO concentration in the previous 1 and 2 hours can influence the current value
90 significantly. Considering the concentration of DO varies diurnally, each input in our predictive model
91 will involve data from 20 historical time steps.

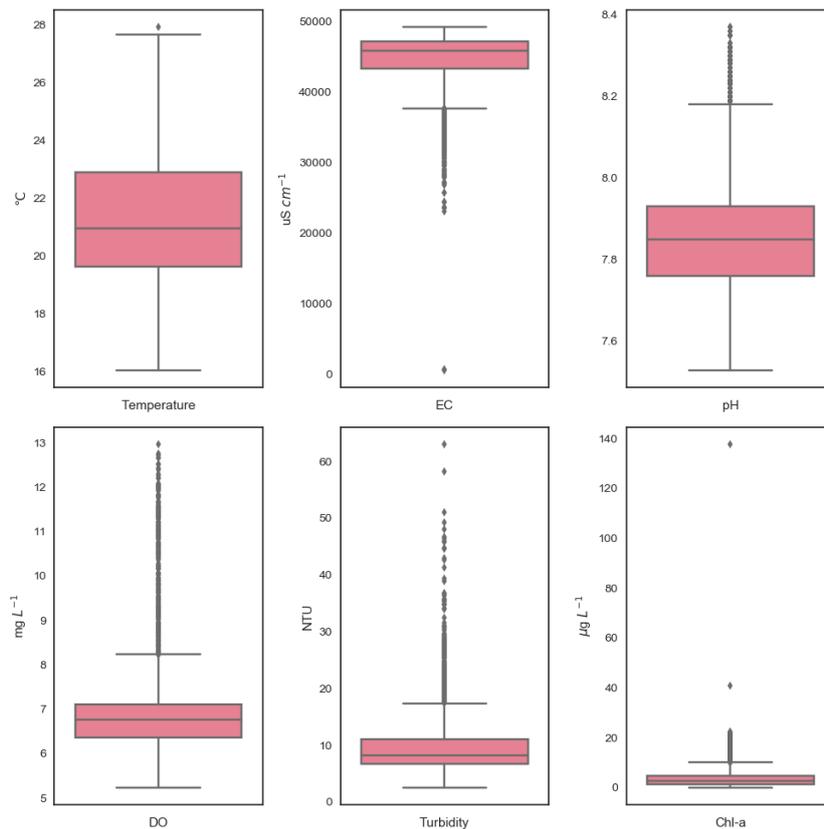


Figure 2. Data distribution for six water quality variables.

92 2.2. kPCA-RNN Model Description

93 2.2.1. Kernel PCA based Input Abstraction

94 Principal component analysis (PCA) is routinely applied for linear dimensionality reduction
 95 and feature abstraction [22]. The diagonal of the correlation matrix transforms the original principal
 96 correlated variables into principal uncorrelated (orthogonal) variables called principal components
 97 (PCs), which are weighed as linear combinations of the original variables. The eigenvalues of the PCs
 98 are a measure of associated variances and the sum of the eigenvalues coincides with the total number
 99 of variables.

100 The standard PCA only allows linear dimensionality reduction. However, the multivariate water
 101 quality data have a more complicated structure which cannot be easily represented in a linear subspace.
 102 In this paper, kernel PCA (kPCA) [23] is chosen as a non-linear extension of PCA to implement
 103 non-linear dimensionality reduction for water quality variables. The kernel represents an implicit
 104 mapping of the data to a higher dimensional space where linear PCA is performed.

The PCA problem in feature space F can be formulated as the diagonalization of an l -sample estimate of the covariance matrix [24], which can be defined as Equation 1:

$$\hat{C} = \frac{1}{l} \sum_{i=1}^l \Phi(x_i) \Phi(x_i)^T, \quad (1)$$

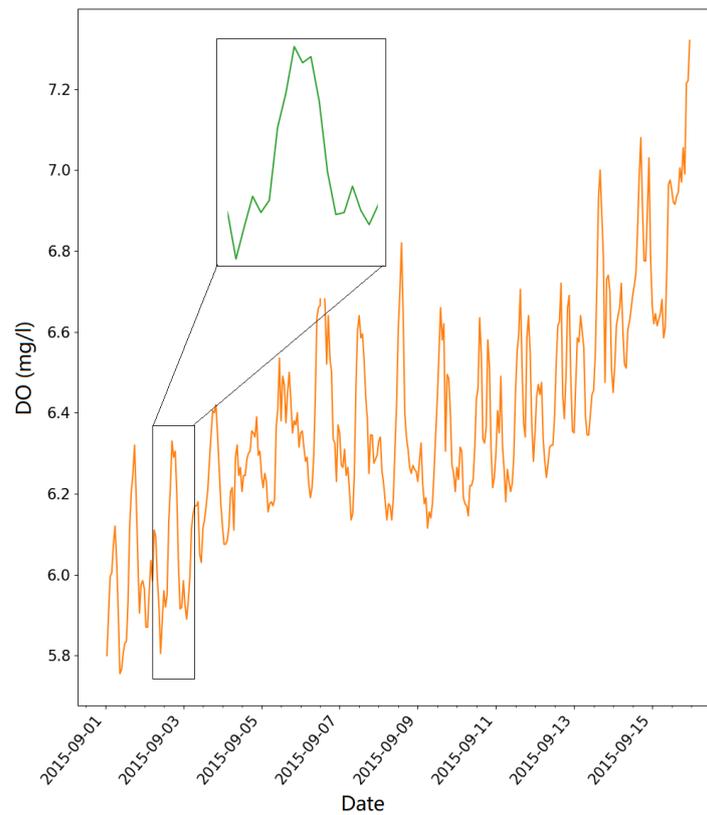


Figure 3. The changing of DO concentration among a period of time.

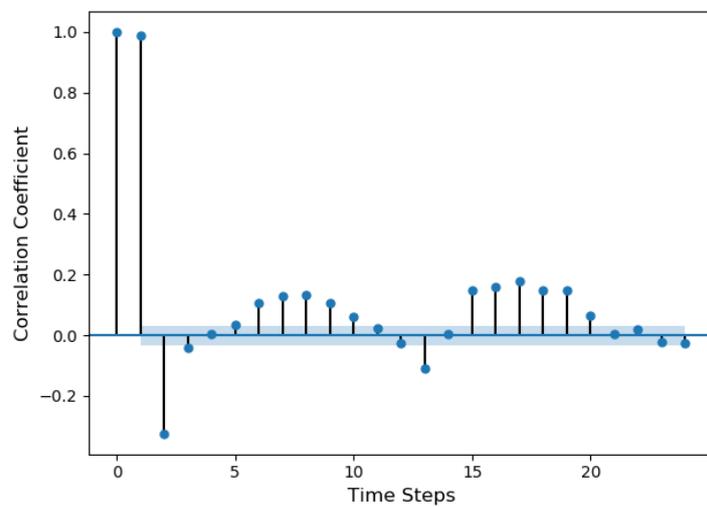


Figure 4. Partial autocorrelation of DO. The concentration of DO is collected hourly.

where $\Phi(x_i)$ are centred non-linear mappings of input variables $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then, we need to solve the following eigenvalue problem:

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda \mathbf{V} &= \hat{\mathbf{C}} \mathbf{V}, \\ \mathbf{V} \in \mathbf{F}, \lambda &\geq 0. \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

Note that all the solutions \mathbf{V} with $\lambda \geq 0$ lie in the span of $\Phi(x_1), \Phi(x_1), \dots, \Phi(x_l)$. An equivalently problem is defined below:

$$n\lambda\alpha = \mathbf{K}\alpha, \quad (3)$$

where α denotes the column vector such that $\mathbf{V} = \sum_{i=1}^l \alpha_i \Phi(x_i)$, and \mathbf{K} is a kernel matrix which satisfies the following conditions:

$$\begin{aligned} \iint K(x, y)g(x)g(y)dxdy &> 0, \\ \int g^2(x)dx &< \infty, \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

where $K(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \alpha_i \psi(x)\psi(y)$, $\alpha_i \geq 0$. Then we can compute the k th non-linear principal component of x as the projection of $\Phi(x)$ onto the eigenvector \mathbf{V}^k :

$$\beta(x)_k = \mathbf{V}^k \Phi(x) = \sum_{i=1}^l \alpha_i^k K(x_i, x). \quad (5)$$

105 Then the first $p < l$ non-linear components are chosen, which have the desired percentage of data
106 variance. By doing this, the complex of the original data series can be greatly reduced.

107 2.2.2. Recurrent Neural Network

108 Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) is able to exhibit dynamic temporal behavior by establishing
109 connections between units form a directed cycle. In contradistinction to feed-forward neural network,
110 RNN has information traveling in both directions. Computations derived from the earlier input are
111 fed back into the network, which is critical in learning the non-linear relationships between multiple
112 water quality variables.

The general input to RNN model is a variable-length sequence $x = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_T\}$ where $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$. At each time step, RNN maintains its internal hidden state h , which results in a hidden sequence of $\{h_1, h_2, \dots, h_k\}$. The operation of RNN at time step t can be formulated as:

$$h_t = f(w_{xh}x_t + w_{hh}h_{t-1}), \quad (6)$$

113 where $f()$ is an activation function, w_{hx} is the matrix of conventional weights between an input layer
114 and a hidden layer and w_{hh} is the matrix between a hidden layer and itself at adjacent time steps.

The output of RNN is computed by:

$$y_t = w_{hy}h_t, \quad (7)$$

115 where w_{hy} is the matrix of weights between the hidden layer and output.

116 As exhibited in Figure 5, the structure of the RNN model across time can be expressed as a deep
117 neural network with one layer per time step. Because this feedback loop occurs at every time step in
118 the series, each hidden state contains traces not only of the previously hidden state but also of all those
119 that preceded h_{t-1} for as long as memory can persist.

120 Comparing to transitional feed-forward neural network, RNN networks can have information
121 travelling in both directions by introducing loops in the network. Computations derived from earlier
122 input are fed back into the network, which gives them a kind of memory. Beside this, RNN networks
123 are dynamic and their 'state' is changing continuously until they reach an equilibrium point. They
124 remain at the equilibrium point until the input changes and a new equilibrium needs to be found.

125 The features of RNN networks are especially suitable for processing time series water quality data
126 because of the following reasons: Firstly, water quality data are periodically collection from different
127 sensors and the previous values have strong relationship with the following changing. Secondly,

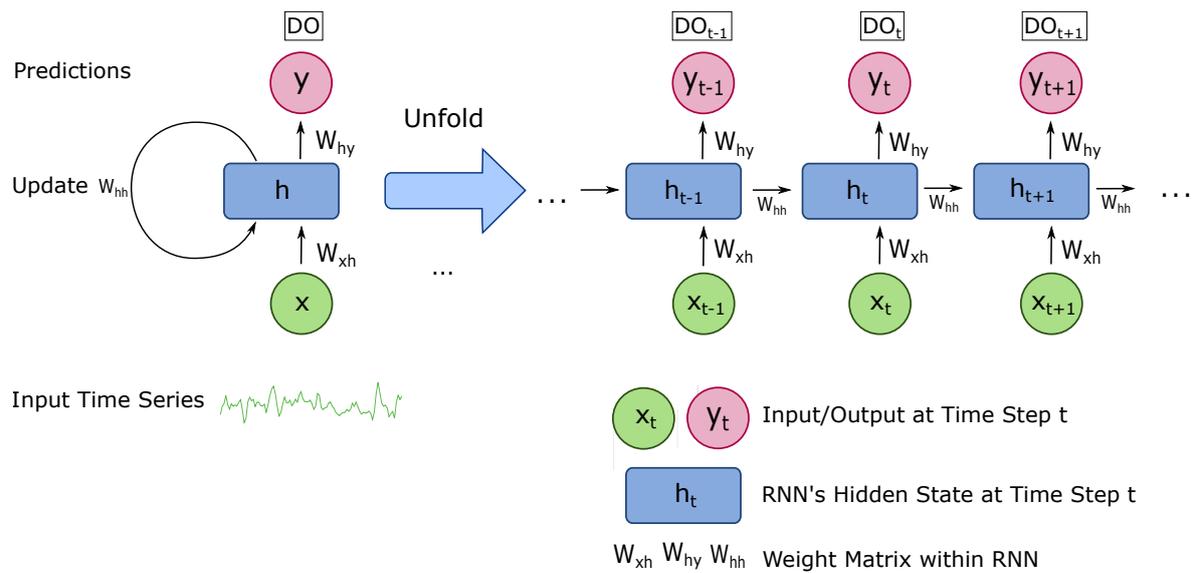


Figure 5. Recurrent neural network for predicting DO.

128 the pattern of many water quality variables can only be recognized when enough historical data are
 129 involved and analysed.

130 In the proposed water quality predictive model, we apply the RNN structure with LSTM cell [25].
 131 To predict the concentration of DO at time step $t + 1$, the input time series include data in previous
 132 m time steps. Additionally, each time step owns n water quality variables. Consequently, each input
 133 of the RNN model can be interpreted as a $m \times n$ matrix. The explicit hyperparameters of our RNN
 134 model will be outlined in the following subsection 3.2.

135 2.3. Model Evaluation

136 We compared the kPCA-RNN model with the following two machine learning methods:

- 137 1. Feed-forward neural network (FFNN). FFNN has been broadly adopted for water quality analysis
 138 due to its capability in capturing non-linear relationships within the short-term period [8].
- 139 2. Support vector regression (SVR). SVR is a classic machine learning technique which can mapping
 140 inputs into higher dimensional space and interpret the problem as linear regression [26].

141 The following performance indicators were applied to evaluate the predictive results. Those
 142 are the mean absolute error (MAE), the coefficient of determination (R^2), the root mean square error
 143 (RMSE) and FA1.1.

$$MAE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |f_i - \hat{f}_i|. \quad (8)$$

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (f_i - \hat{f}_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (f_i - \bar{f}_i)^2}. \quad (9)$$

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (|f_i - \hat{f}_i|)^2}. \quad (10)$$

$$FA1.1 = \frac{m}{n}, \quad m = |0.9 < \frac{\hat{f}_i}{f_i} < 1.1|. \quad (11)$$

144 where f_i , \hat{f}_i , n and m represent the observed value, the predicted value, the number of observations
 145 and the number of predictions within a factor of 1.1 of the observed values, respectively. Additionally,
 146 $\bar{f}_i = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f_i$.

147 2.4. WorkFlow of Predicting DO

148 Figure 6 depicts the workflow of predicting the concentration of DO by using the kPCA-RNN
 149 model.

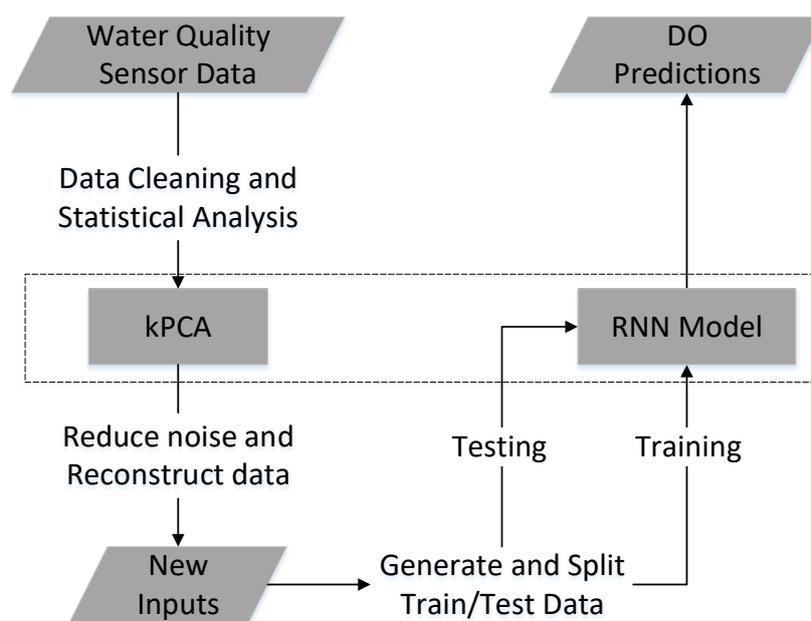


Figure 6. Workflow for predicting DO by applying the kPCA-RNN model.

150 Firstly, the kPCA method is implemented on the tabulated water quality data (Table 1). Principal
 151 components are constructed and elected as new inputs. Next, the input data is formed as $m \times n$ matrix
 152 as we explained in subsection 2.2.2. After training and testing the RNN model, the concentration of
 153 DO in the upcoming time steps can be estimated.

154 3. Model Application

155 3.1. Applying kPCA on the Water Quality Data

156 We applied the kPCA method to the water quality dataset (Table 1) and obtained 5 principal
 157 components (Table 2).

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of 5 principal components.

Principal Components	Eigenvalue	Cumulative Variance Proportion (%)
PC1	466.60944806	44.372466
PC2	285.28307768	71.501607
PC3	129.81274444	83.846217
PC4	114.77119055	94.760442
PC5	55.0978458	100.0

158 Five principal components (Table 2) are ordered by their corresponded eigenvalue. The first
 159 principal component is the linear combination of all the variables that has maximum variance, so it
 160 accounts for as much variation in the data as possible. After that, each succeeding component, in turn,

161 has the highest variance possible under the constraint that it is orthogonal to the preceding components.
 162 The cumulative variance proportion of the first 4 principal components is 94.76 %. This indicates by
 163 retaining only the first 4 principal components, one can explain 94.76 % of the full variance.

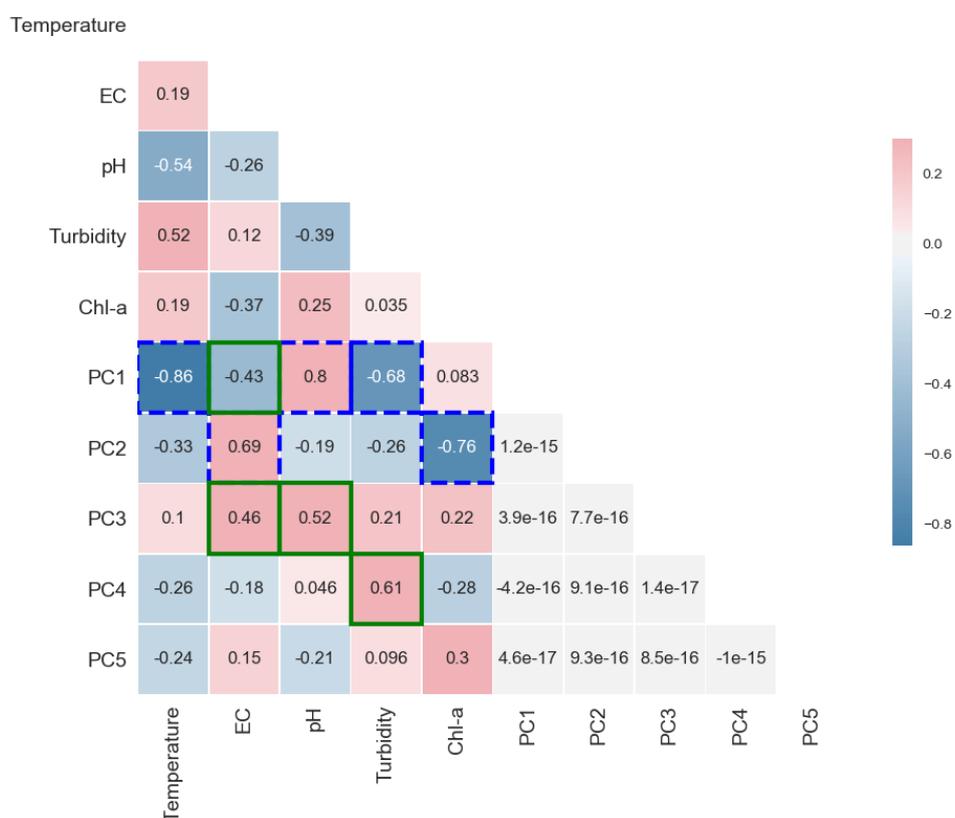


Figure 7. Correlations between water quality variables and principal Components.

164 As has been pointed out, the first principal component (PC1) has the highest correlation (dotted
 165 box, Figure 7) with variables like temperature, pH and turbidity. Furthermore, the second principal
 166 component (PC2) has the highest correlation (dotted box) with the remaining variables EC and
 167 Chl-a. This indicates that by utilizing only principal components PC1 and PC2, most information
 168 involved in those five water quality variables can be presented. Furthermore, PC3 and PC4 also have a
 169 strong correlation with EC, pH, and Turbidity (solid box). On the contrary, PC5 has a low value of
 170 correlation coefficient to all water quality variables, which means it carries much noise information
 171 [27]. Accordingly, we accept the first 4 principal components as new inputs. The kPCA method can
 172 reduce the input size by 20 % while still keep the most valuable information.

173 3.2. RNN Hyperparameters Settings

174 Three RNN models were designed to predict next 1, 2 and 3 hour's DO concentration
 175 independently. Each RNN model has various parameters and they all accept 4 months' data (2928
 176 samples) for training and 1 month's data (744 samples) for testing. Based on the partial autocorrelation
 177 analysis in subsection 2.1.2, data from the previous 20 time steps were accepted as the model's input
 178 when predicting the concentration of DO in each future step.

179 The hyperparameters of the three RNN models were defined in Table 3.

Table 3. Experiments settings.

Model Settings	Experimental Cases		
	1 Hour Ahead	2 Hours Ahead	3 Hours Ahead
No. of Hidden Layers	1	2	3
No. of Hidden Units	40	30	20
Recurrent Cell		LSTM ¹	
Optimizer		Adam ²	
No. of Historical Time Steps		20	
No. of Input in each time step		4	
No. of Training Data		2928	
No. of Testing Data		744	

¹Long short-term memory [25]²Adam [28]

180 3.3. Results and Discussion

181 The model predictions have R^2 values of 0.908 and 0.823 for 1 hour ahead and 2 hour ahead
 182 predictions (Figure 8). Those R^2 values indicate our RNN model can gain high accuracy in predicting
 183 the trend of DO in the near future.

184 In the 3 hours ahead prediction (bottom subfigure in Figure 8), around 93 % prediction results are
 185 within $\pm 10\%$ range of the original observations (FA1.1). The model did not utilize the information
 186 at time step $t + 1$ and $t + 2$ to predict the concentration of DO at time step $t + 3$. Based on the
 187 partial autocorrelation analysis (Figure 4), the concentration of DO at time step t has a much stronger
 188 relationship with the concentration in the previous 1 and 2 time steps. Hence, this model did not utilize
 189 the most relevant information and it reveals why the predictive performance declined in this case.

190 In the water monitoring reports published by Queensland Government, there was a large amount
 191 of discharge for total nutrients, dissolved and particulate nutrients during 10/2015. By contrast, the
 192 discharge in the previous months was low. It indicates that the trend of concentration of DO was
 193 changing more frequently and heavily in October, while the kPCA-RNN model is trained based on the
 194 concentration of DO obtained from historical months with regular DO change. Consequently, there
 195 are some predictions below the high points of the observations, for example, the predictions around
 196 22/10/2015. To resolve this problem, it is necessary to involve extra water quality data to cover a
 197 longer time period.

198 We additionally compared the performance of the kPCA-RNN model with two models stated in
 199 subsection 2.3. Same data set described in subsection 1 was applied in all cases. For FFNN, we set
 200 the same neural network size as in the kPCA-RNN model. For SVR, the Radial Basis Function kernel
 201 (RBF) is taken as the non-linear kernel. The corresponding results are listed in Table 4.

Table 4. Performance comparison with the FFNN and SVR.

Predictive Models	Evaluation Criteria			
	MAE	R^2	RMSE	FA1.1
1 Hour Ahead Prediction				
kPCA-RNN Model	0.149	0.908	0.208	0.995
FFNN	0.175	0.893	0.224	0.989
SVR	0.219	0.810	0.299	0.962
2 Hour Ahead Prediction				
kPCA-RNN Model	0.211	0.823	0.288	0.973
FFNN	0.258	0.757	0.338	0.958
SVR	0.314	0.594	0.437	0.890
3 Hour Ahead Prediction				
kPCA-RNN Model	0.303	0.671	0.394	0.926
FFNN	0.455	0.358	0.550	0.756
SVR	0.358	0.515	0.478	0.858

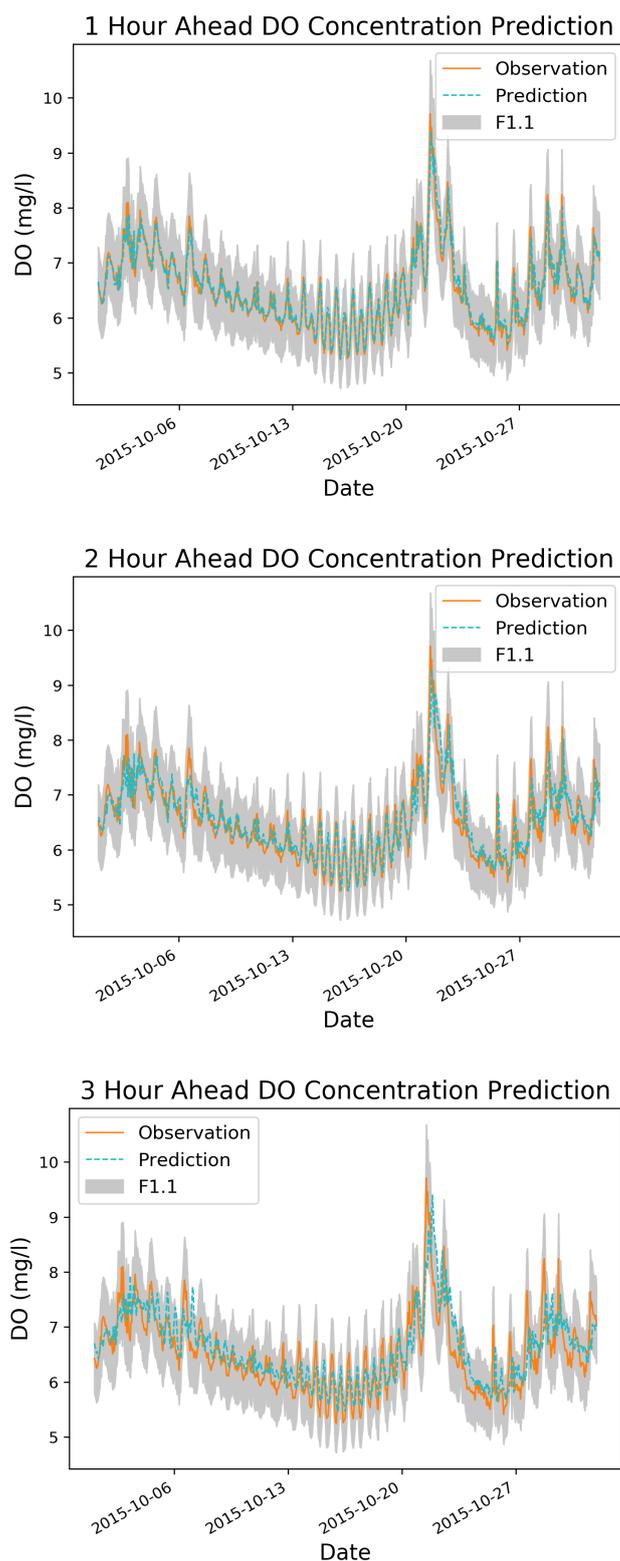


Figure 8. 1, 2 and 3 hours ahead predicting for the concentration of DO. The gray shadow, solid line and dotted line represent the FA1.1 range, DO observations and predictions, respectively.

202 The kPCA-RNN models offer the best performance in all the 3 prediction cases (Table 4). For
 203 example, in the 1 hour ahead prediction, 99.5% of the predictions are within the FA1.1 range, which
 204 demonstrates the model has a stable accuracy for most predictions.

205 The kPCA-RNN model has 8 %, 17 % and 40 % improved performance on the RMSE than the
 206 FFNN in all the three cases, respectively. Similarly, the kPCA-RNN model achieves 43 %, 52 % and 21
 207 % improved performance on the RMSE than the SVR. The improvement in predictive performance
 208 of the kPCA-RNN relative to the FFNN and SVR increase as the predictive time step increases. The
 209 FFNN and SVR are ineffective in predicting long-term water quality changes because their model
 210 structures make them cannot utilize the information learned in previous time steps.

211 Hence, the kPCA-RNN model can perform as an early warning predictor for DO in application
 212 areas such as aquaculture ponds. By providing the DO significant changing alarm, farmers can consider
 213 appropriate actions to maintain the DO on a suitable level for the health of the aquatic ecosystem.

214 4. Conclusion

215 To summarize, the kPCA-RNN model was able to successfully predict the trend of DO in the
 216 following 1 to 3 hours. We evaluated our model by applying the water quality data from Burnett River,
 217 Australia and compared with the FFNN and SVR methods. The results demonstrate our method is
 218 more accurate and stationary to the alternative methods, especially when the prediction lead time is
 219 increasing. Furthermore, as a data-driven modeling method, the kPCA-RNN model is not limited to a
 220 specific hydrological area and can be extended to predict various water quality variables.

221 For future work, inputs can be improved to include extra information such as rail fall and cover
 222 longer periods of time. In addition, the water quality predictive model can be extended to support
 223 multiple targets prediction tasks.

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 225 editing, Peter Fitch; project administration, writing–review and editing, Peter J. Thorburn.

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227 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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