An optimized LSTM-based approach applied to early warning and forecasting of ponding in the urban drainage system

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Abstract. In this study we propose aAn optimized LSTM-based approach which is applied to early warning, and forecasting of ponding in the urban drainage system—is proposed in this study. This approach can quickly identify and locate ponding locations and the ponding process with relatively high accuracy. Based on the approach, a model is developed, which The model is constructed with by two tandem processes and utilizes introduces a multi-task learning mechanism. The superiority The results of the developed model was demonstrated by comparing are compared with those of two widely used neural networks (LSTM, CNN) to validate their advantages. Then, the model is—was further revised with available monitoring data in the study area to achieve higher accuracy. We also discussed here the number of selected monitoring points influences influenced the performance of the corrected model's performance is also discussed. In this study, o Over 15000 designed rainfall events are were used for model training, covering various extreme weather conditions.

15 1 Introduction

The intensity and frequency of urban floods are growing as a result of the increased frequency of extreme weather, rapid urbanization, and climate change (Hossain Anni et al., 2020; Guo et al., 2021; Huong and Pathirana, 2013). It is becoming increasingly clear that urban floods significantly impact city management and endanger the safety of people's life and property. The ability to reliably characterize and forecast urban floods and generate high-precision flood risk maps has become critical in flood mitigation and decision-making.

The most common approach to simulating urban floods is to develop a hydrodynamic model (i.e. storm-inundation simulation). It, which utilizesuses the collected topographic map, information on the pipe network, historical rainfall data, monitoring data, and other information in the study area (Jamali et al., 2018; Aryal et al., 2020; Balstrøm and Crawford, 2018; Tian et al., 2019). However, a realistic hydrodynamic model for continuous simulation requires vast data. S, such as comprehensive information on topography, infiltration conditions, and sewage system data; (including exact locations, depths, and diameters of sewage pipes). However, the above dataall of which are difficult to obtain, especially in metropolitan areas (Rahman et al., 2002; Kuczera et al., 2006). Furthermore, calculation in storm-inundation simulation is sophisticated, and; often computationally intensive, which and takes a long time to execute. The most detailed representation of the storm-inundation simulation is the 1D-2D model (Djordjević et al., 1999; Djordjević et al., 2005). It which

summarizes the dynamic interaction between the flow that enters the underground drainage network and the overloaded flow that spreads to the surface flow network during high-intensity rainfall. Some of the available models that realize storm-inundation simulationRepresentatives of such model include XPSWMM, TUFLOW, and MIKE FLOOD (Leandro and Martins, 2016; Teng et al., 2017; Zhang and Pan, 2014).

The lack of underlying information has The above problems have—hampered the continuous development of hydrodynamic models in urban flood forecasting. As a result, deep learning has emerged as another viable forecasting tool. Deep learning is a form of training that involves creating a unique dataset, and then analyzing and forecasting urban flooding using algorithms (Mudashiru et al., 2021; Sit et al., 2020; Shen, 2018; Moy De Vitry et al., 2019). It can compensate for the impact of actual data scarcity by training on a large designed data set. And unlike traditional hydrodynamic models, deep learning It does not require any assumptions on the physical processes behind it as traditional hydrodynamic models require.

However, some factors need to be improved in order to promote the application of deep learning in urban flood forecasting. Firstly, the data-set for training needs to be revised enriched to reflect the superiority of the approach. There are studies utilizing deep learning algorithms for urban flood forecasting, but the developed model is trained on a small number of samples. For example, Cai and Yu (2022) used only 25 historical floods for forecasting ealculations, and Abou Rjeily et al. (2017) used only 10ten rainfall events for training and verification, which was insufficient need to be revised to reflect the characteristics of rainfall distribution. Secondly, monitoring equipment is expensive and thus not frequently available. Therefore, researchers have to rely on simulations produced from hydrodynamic models, without regard for the accuracy of the models however, often without considering the accuracy of the models. For example, Chiang et al. (2010) used synthetic data from the SWMM model as the target values to train the recurrent neural network (RNN), and they compared the predictions with simulation results to evaluate the model's accuracy in estimating water levels at ungauged locations. Thirdly, some studies have focused on building more complex deep-learning architectures to improve the model's performance. Such as the automatic encoder (Bai et al., 2019), encoder-decoder (Kao et al., 2020c), and customized layers based on Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) (Sit et al., 2020; Kratzert et al., 2019; Kratzert et al., 2019). For example, an encoder-decoder LSTM has been proposed for runoff forecasting up to 6 hours and 24 hours ahead (Xiang et al., 2020b; Kao et al., 2020c). Nevertheless, the urban flooding forecasting tasks with multiple time steps are mainly based on the precipitation forecast hours in advance, which is not available in this paper. With the real-time rain data in a short duration, getting enough data like the continuing runoff data to support the hours ahead prediction is yet to be available.

In this study, we propose This study proposes an optimized LSTM-based approach, which is applied to early warning and forecasting of ponding in the urban drainage system. This approach can quickly identify and locate ponding locations and the ponding process with relatively high accuracy. The model was is constructed by with two tandem processes and introduces a multi-task learning mechanism. The tevaluation results of the model were compared with those of two widely used neural networks (LSTM, CNN) to validate its advantages. The model was further revised with monitoring data in the study area to achieve higher accuracy. This paper We also discussed the influence of the number of monitoring points selected on the

model's performance in the model updating procedure. Over 15000 designed rainfall events were used for model training, covering various extreme weather conditions.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 introduces the methodology <u>used to develop</u>, <u>including</u> the <u>proposed</u> LSTM-based <u>modeling modelling</u> framework, <u>as well as</u>; <u>this part also explains</u> the experimental setup and application <u>of the model</u>; <u>Sections 3 presents the results of the model</u>, and <u>Section 4 presents discussion and discuss the results, respectively, and; and finally</u>, Section 5 <u>concludes this paper by drawings</u> brief conclusions.

70 2 Methodology

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2.1 LSTM-based model

When existing hydrodynamic models work, different mechanisms are used to calculate surface runoff and pipeline confluence. Like a hydrodynamic model, which is generally composed of two processes: runoff process and flow confluence process, tThe LSTM-based model proposed in this study is also constructed with two stages, the runoff process and the flow confluence process, to reduce the computational burden of this data-driven model. Fig. 1 illustrates presents _-the model architecture from input (i.e. rain intensity) to output (i.e. ponding volume of each node) for runoff and flow confluence processes.

The two processes are in tandem: the inputs of the flow confluence process are inherited and concatenated from the outputs of all nodes in the runoff process. However, during the training process, the two processes are trained separately and without mutual interference when as the inputs and outputs of both processes are produced from a hydrodynamic model the simulated results.

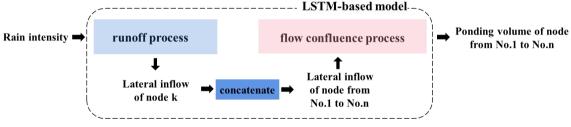


Figure 1: The architecture of the LSTM-based model.

2.1.1 Runoff process

With a general understanding of the a hydrodynamic models, the runoff process involves surface runoff and infiltration, while tThe most important influential factor is rainfall. As a The mass rainfall curve can reflects the characteristics of a specific rainfall process. Thus, it can be directly used as the input of a neural network. The output of the neural network (i.e. lateral inflows at each node) reflects the hydraulic state in the runoff process. Meanwhile, lateral inflows at each node as the outputs reflect the hydraulic state in the runoff process.

90 Fig. 2 <u>illustrates details</u> the <u>runoff process's</u> training, validation erification, and testing processes procedures in the <u>runoff process</u>. As <u>illustrated shown</u> in Fig.2, a training set with two time-series data <u>is</u> fed <u>into</u> the neural network: <u>, i.e., rainfall</u> intensity and lateral inflows that enterat each node node. At each epoch, <u>use</u> four indicators <u>are used</u> to evaluate the consistency between the predicted lateral inflows and the simulation from the hydrodynamic model. If the model converges, evaluate the network <u>is further evaluated</u> on the test set. Otherwise, <u>the next training epoch is startedgo to the next epoch for training</u>.

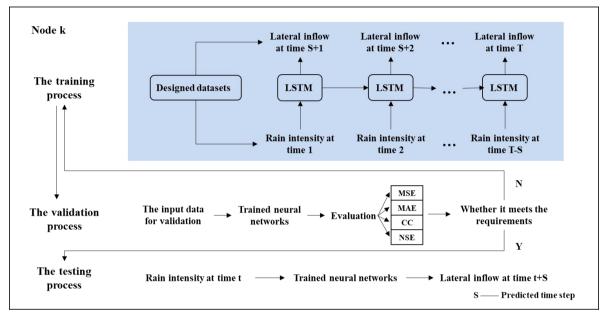


Figure 2: The training, <u>verification validation</u>, and test<u>ing</u> procedures <u>in used when</u> developing the LSTM-based runoff emulator.

In the figure, (MAE is short for... Mean Absolute Error, MSE_is... Mean Squared Error, CC is the... Correlation coefficient,and NSE _-is the Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency coefficient). S represents the advanced time step for prediction fixed at 5min in this paper because of the interval for the measured data obtained.

2.1.2 Flow confluence process

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The flow confluence process is set up in the same manner as with the understanding of the simulation process of a hydrodynamic model (e.g., the SWMM model). If we compare the urban drainage system to is regarded as a black box, onlymainly the lateral inflows at each node and outflows from the outlets enter and leave the system, respectively (Archetti et al., 2011). Therefore, the flow confluence process inputs are the lateral inflows at each node and the outflows. If the a free outflow condition is considereds are set free, namely the hydraulic state behind the outlets has little influence on the interior of the ease areasystem, then the inputs of the flow confluence process are only the lateral inflows at each node. Thus the inputs could remove them.

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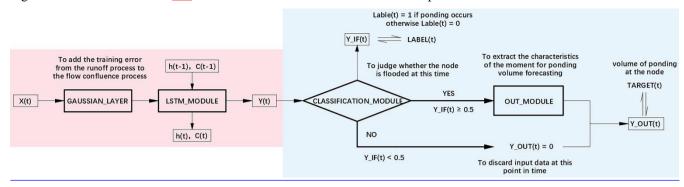


Figure 3: The network structure of the flow confluence process (for a single node).

As illustrated in the pink block in Figure 3, First, a Gaussian layer is added after the input layer in the flow confluence process during training. The gaussian layer serves as a filter to compensate for the inaccuracy of the prediction (by the hydrodynamic model) in the runoff process. The model is trained to minimize the differences between the predictions (from the neural network, i.e. the output from the runoff process) and the simulations (from the hydrodynamic model). is used to avoid interference caused by the predictions in the runoff process. The flow confluence process is trained using simulations, however, the inputs will be the predictions by the runoff process in application. The difference between the predictions and simulations needed to be compensated during training. Sect. 2.2 introduces the calculation about how the error propagates in detail. Then (as illustrated in the blue block in Figure 3), a classification layer task is introduced as an auxiliary task to ponding volume forecasting. The classification module is added after the outputs of each time step in the LSTM module to judge whether ponding occurs at the time step. Only if when ponding has occurred occurs at the time step, can the output of the LSTM module at the time step enters the 'OUT MODULE' (as shown in Fig. 3) to continue with the learning. Otherwise, discard—the output of the LSTM module at this time step is discarded. In this way, the interference of the time points without ponding on the ponding volume forecasting is eliminated to the greatest a great extent. The higher the classification accuracy is, the more accurate the prediction of ponding volume will be. Moreover, the multi-task learning has a hard parameter sharing mechanism-of parameters, which . It could also effectively alleviate the over-fitting of the model. The parameters layers-in thee whole 'LSTM MODULE'-module (-including the parameters of the LSTM layers, batch normalizationBN layers, activation functions,—and etc.); are shared by the 'CLASSIFICATION MODULE' elassification and 'OUT MODULE'out modules.

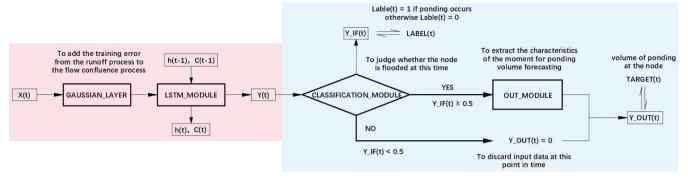


Figure 3: The network structure in of the flow confluence process (for a single node).

2.2 Error transmission

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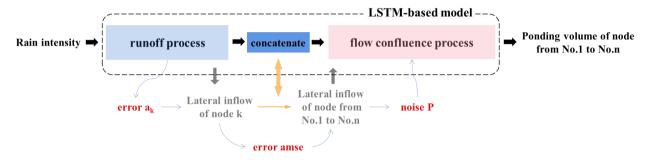


Figure 4: The error transmission during training from the runoff process to the flow confluence process.

Fig. 4 illustrates how the training error of from the neural network propagates from the runoff process propagates to the flow confluence process during training. Noise $P(P \sim N(0, p^2))$ is added to the lateral inflows before feeding the data into the neural network in the flow confluence process. It will in order to avoid the interference caused by the training error in the runoff process and also effectively to alleviate the over-fitting of the neural network. The magnitude of noise \underline{P} can be determined as follows:

1 The mean squared error (MSE) is used to characterize the training error in the runoff process, wheres. Compute the error at node K can be computed by sefollows:

$$a_{k} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{T} \sum_{j=1}^{S} (\hat{X}_{ij} - X_{ij})^{2}}{T \cdot S}$$
 (1)

- where T represents the duration of event j in min, S represents the number of events in the training data, \hat{X}_{ij} represents the simulated lateral inflow at node K of at the i-th time step in the j-th rainfall events in $\underline{L} : \underline{s}^{-1}\underline{L/s}$, $\underline{XX_{ij}}$ if represents the output of the runoff process at node K of at the i-th time step in the j-th sample event in $\underline{L} : \underline{s}^{-1}\underline{L/s}$.
 - 2 Then compute the average mean squared error of all nodes as follows: by

amse =
$$\frac{\sum_{k=1}^{N} a_k^2}{N}$$
 (2)

where N represents the number of nodes.

3 Then convert amse into <u>noise percentage</u> ε with the mean value of the predicted lateral inflows at all nodes in the training set <u>by</u>. Eq. (3) is the definition of noise percentage(ε) and the relationship between amse and the noise percentage:

$$\varepsilon = \sqrt{\frac{P_{N}}{P_{S}}} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{T} \sum_{j=1}^{S} (\hat{X}_{kij} - X_{kij})^{2}}{\sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{T} \sum_{j=1}^{S} (X_{kij})^{2}}} \le \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{T} \sum_{j=1}^{S} (\hat{X}_{kij} - X_{kij})^{2}}{\frac{1}{N \cdot T \cdot S} (\sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{T} \sum_{j=1}^{S} X_{kij})^{2}}} = \frac{\sqrt{\text{amse}}}{\frac{1}{N \cdot T \cdot S} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{T} \sum_{j=1}^{S} X_{kij}}}$$
(3)

Where where P_S represents signal power, and P_N represents noise power.

4 Add Finally add noise P to the inputs (X) in the flow confluence process during the training process. Namely Firstly, generate a set of random numbers G with the length of X by using Pseudorandom Number Generator, where G which obeys a normal distribution $(G \sim N(0,1))$, i.e., $P = p \cdot G$, where p is computed by:

$$p = \varepsilon \cdot \sqrt{\frac{1}{T} \sum_{i=1}^{T} (X_i)^2}$$

$$\tag{4}$$

160 2.3 Model correction system

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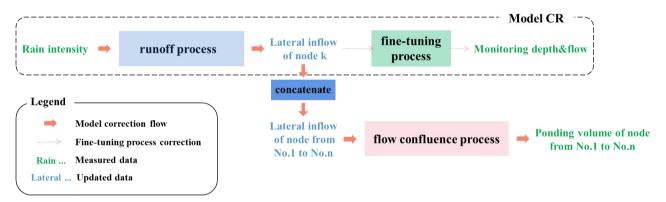


Figure 5: Model correction system. CR is abbreviated for correction of the runoff process.

The LSTM-based model is <u>built_constructed_based</u> on <u>the simulation results of</u> a relatively accurate hydrodynamic model. However, <u>the_the_differences_based</u> between the simulation from the hydrodynamic model at the monitoring points and the <u>obtained_actual_measured_monitoring_data_always_exist_persists_during_the_operation_of_the_pipe_network_operation. It, which leads to a discrepancy between the predicted results from the proposed LSTM-based model and the actual situation. Thus it is necessary to cCorrecting the model <u>usingwith</u> the measured level and flow data at the monitoring points_will_alleviate_this problem, and how to revise the model properly using the available data is also . Revising the model with the measured data is one of the focuses of this study. Fig. 5 indicates_describes_the model correction process using the measured rainfall_data, monitoring_depths and flows atobtained from the monitoring points, and ponding data at any node. Specifically, tThe LSTM-based model is corrected with using the following two steps:</u>

1. The runoff process is corrected with the measured rain, level, and flow data referring to the transfer learning (PAN, S J, et al., 2010). Transfer learning is <u>mainly used</u> to transfer the knowledge of one domain (source domain) to another domain (target domain) suche that the target domain can achieve better learning effects.

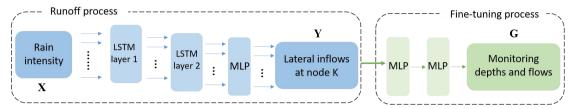


Figure 6: The architecture of Model CR. (MLP -- Multi-Layer Perception)

Fig. 6 shows the schematic of Mthe model CR. It migrates the network structure inof the runoff process from rain data (X) to lateral inflows (Y) to the input-output connection between X and monitoring data (G). And add multiple fully connected layers after the output layer of Y. Model CR is designed to update built for updating the runoff process in the primary LSTM-based model. The correction has two steps is divided into two processes: training and updating. Firstly, the model CR is trained based on a pre-trained mapping between from X toand Y (as shown in Fig.6). Then, it is updated on pairs of measured rain data, and measured-monitored water depths and flows.

2. The flow confluence process is corrected <u>usingwith</u> the updated lateral inflows of all concatenated nodes and the measured ponding volume.

185 **2.4 Case study**

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2.4.1 Study area

The LSTM-based model trains nodes in the pipe network one by one. Namely N sub-models, with the same architecture are generated, where N is the number of nodes in the system. Both in the runoff process and flow confluence process, these sub-models are trained separately, the training process of different nodes will not interfere with each other. Due to thisese structural characteristics, the size of the case area doeswill not limit the model's performance. Regarding the model structure, the output of the runoff process's output is the lateral inflow at a single node's lateral inflow. Likewise, The flow confluence process is similar to the runoff process, where the output of the flow confluence process is the the ponding volume at a single node. Regardless of the size of the pipe networkcase area, the output of the model is in at each nodes. The size of the case area directly affects the network scale, i.e., the number of nodes. However, aA large-scale pipe networkcase area with lots of more nodes will significantly increase the time spent training the model and also require extra processing power. However, it will maintain its accuracy in ponding forecasting.

To verify the feasibility of the modelling method framework above, a small-scale case area, JD₅₂—a residential district in S city, is selected as the study area. Fig. 7(a) shows the elevation map of the study area. There are 32 residential buildings in the district, with a total area of 6.128hm². The study area is separated from the municipal roads by walls with three entrances

on the community's north, east, and west sides. Rain pipes in the study area are circular pipes with 200mm, 300mm, 400mm, 500mm, orand 600mm, most 300mm in diameter (mostly 300mm). The total length of this pipe network is 5.5 km. The network contains 336 nodes and 340 pipes, and is connected to the municipal pipe networks through 4 outlets, as denoted by the green trianglein green in Fig. 7(b). There are 15 level gauges and three flowmeters in the current pipe network. The layout of monitoring points is also showns in Fig. 7(b).

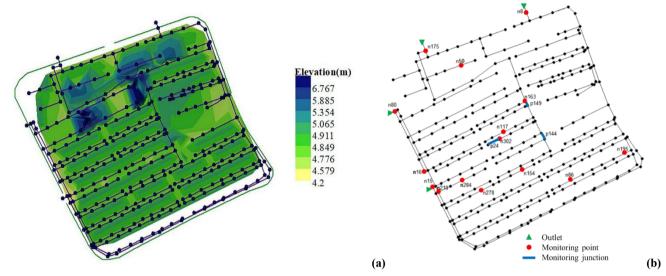


Figure 7: Study area - JD residential district. (a) The elevation map and stormwater system in the case area. (b) Locations—The layout of the monitoring points in the case area.

2.4.2 Rainfall data

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Eq. (5) computed Tthe rainstorm intensity for S city is designed using Eq. (5), which it was obtained according to a universal design storm pattern proposed by Keifer&Chu. The storm pattern is broadly used both at home and abroad-proposed by Keifer&Chu, and. The storms the generated storms are usuallywere extreme enough to reflect the state of the pipe networks under the most unfavorable conditions (Skougaard Kaspersen et al., 2017)...

$$q = \frac{167A(1+C\log P)}{(t+b)^n} = \frac{1600(1+0.846\log P)}{(t+7.0)^{0.656}}$$
 (5)

where <u>q</u> is the rainstorm intensity in $\underline{L} \cdot \underline{s}^{-1} \cdot \underline{h}\underline{m}^{-2}\underline{P}$ is the reappearing rainfall period in <u>a</u>, <u>t</u> is the duration of rainfall in min, and A, C, b, and n are parameters of the rainstorm intensity design formula.

The rainstorm intensity before or after the peak is determined using Eq. (6).

As shown in Eq. (6), tThe rainstorm intensity before or after the peak shown in Eq. (6) was determined by referring to the local rainstorm intensity formula, design storm pattern, and historical rain data, respectively.

$$I(t_{b}) = \frac{A(1+C\lg P)\left[\frac{(1-n)}{r}t_{b}+b\right]}{\left(\frac{t_{b}}{r}+b\right)^{n+1}}$$

$$I(t_{a}) = \frac{A(1+C\lg P)\left[\frac{(1-n)}{1-r}t_{a}+b\right]}{\left(\frac{t_{a}}{1-r}+b\right)^{n+1}}$$
(6)

220 where \underline{t}_h and \underline{t}_a are the time before and after the peak in min, respectively, and r is the rainfall peak coefficient.

Then single-peak rainfall scenarios <u>werewere</u> constructed unevenly by using different rainfall reappearing periods (P) ranging from 0.5a to 100a, peak coefficient (r) ranging from 0.1 to 0.9, and duration (T) ranging from 60 to 360 min.

$$q = \frac{167A(1+C\log P)}{(t+b)^n} = \frac{1600(1+0.846\log P)}{(t+7.0)^{0.656}}$$
(5)

where q is the rainstorm intensity in L · s⁻¹ · hm⁻². P is the reappearing rainfall period in a, t is the duration of rainfall in min, and A, C, b, and n are parameters in of the rainstorm intensity design formula.

$$I(t_{b}) = \frac{A(1 + C \lg P) \left[\frac{(1-n)}{r} t_{b} + b \right]}{\left(\frac{t_{b}}{r} + b \right)^{n+1}}$$

$$I(t_{a}) = \frac{A(1 + C \lg P) \left[\frac{(1-n)}{1-r} t_{a} + b \right]}{\left(\frac{t_{a}}{1-r} + b \right)^{n+1}}$$
(6)

where t_h and t_a are the time before and after the peak in min, respectively, and r is the rainfall peak coefficient.

In addition to single-peak rainfall scenarios, we also considered bimodal rainfall scenarios. Aaccording to the historical bimodal rainfall data in S city, the rainfall peaks corresponding to the bimodal design storm pattern in with the duration of rainfall from 60 to 360 min could be computed by Pilgrim & Cordery. Pilgrim & Cordery was is a method to count the historical rainfall data and deduce the rainstorm pattern from it (Pilgrim & Cordery, 1975). This method divides the duration into several periods. For each rainfall event, determine the sequence number of each period according to the rainfall in each period from large to small, where significant rainfall corresponded to a small sequence number. Then, average the serial numbers of each period, calculate the percentage of each rain to the total rainfall in each period, and take the average rate in each period.

Then, construct double-peak rainfall scenarios where the reappearing period was from 0.5a to 100a.

Table 1: The bimodal design storm pattern.

(a) Duration is 60 minutes duration.

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T(5min)	P/Pmax(%)
1	3.19

T(5min)	P/Pmax(%)
2	16.71
3	8.74
4	1.52
5	2.27
6	4.02
7	5.89
8	22.68
9	10.51
10	12.76
11	7.05
12	4.68

(b) Duration is 120 min duration.

T(5min)	P/Pmax(%)
1	0.74
2	1.76
3	6.42
4	3.75
5	2.05
6	1.52
7	2.73
8	4.43
9	9.23
10	11.17
11	17.57
12	13.81
13	7.76
14	5.3
15	2.38
16	1.13
17	3.17
18	1.32
19	0.98

T(5min)	P/Pmax(%)
20	0.84
21	0.54
22	0.64
23	0.44
24	0.33

Table 1 shows the bimodal design storm patterns with respectively in 60 min and 120 min duration time, respectively—, where P/Pmax in the table representsed the distributions of the rainfall intensity over time (with 5 min. The unit period) was 5 minutes. Then, double-peak rainfall scenarios were constructed according to Table 1 using reappearing periods ranging from 0.5a to 100a.

The produced sSingle-/-and-double-peak rainfall data produced—were then added with Gaussian white noise (produced according to the procedures described in Section 2.2) to .-It-ensured that the obtained datasets containsed enougha majority of extreme rainfall eventconditions. Take the rainfall in-with athe return period of 5a as an example. Fig. 8 shows the process-effect of adding noise.-, where the subfigure Fig. 8(1) showsed the randomly generated Gaussian white noise-generated randomly over the duration, the subfigure Fig. 8(2) shows was the distribution of reordered white noise, and the subfigure Fig. 8(3) zooms in on the part circled in (2). The subfigures showed the details around the rainfall peak in Fig. 8(2), Figs. 8(4)

- (6) showwere the design rainfalls after adding 30%, 50%, and 70% white noise, respectively. Specifically, we have limited the noises near the rainfall peak, i.e., only negative noises are allowed there. In Fig. 8(2), adjust the noise near the peak artificially to be harmful to smooth the extreme maximum rainfall, so the rainfall was closer to the actual situation.

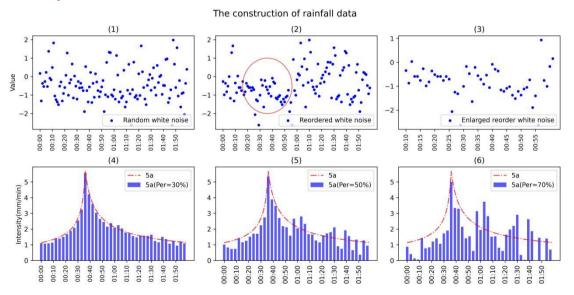


Figure 8: A demonstrative example to show the effect of adding white noise. The construction of the design rainfall data.

In this study, tThe noise percentages went from 0 to 100% withat an incrementinterval of 10% to blur the characteristics of the design storm pattern and intensify the extreme conditions bring the rainfall closer to reality. The synthetic dataset contained a total of 16960 rainfall events, and. Furthermore, the ratios of the training, validation, and test sets were 80%, 10%, and 10%, respectively.

In general, a small training set will-normally leads to-a poor approximation effect. Thus- aA sort of convergence test wais performed to evaluate how much data is-was sufficient required for the proposed LSTM-based model training to obtain the desired approximation effect. In Fig. 9, The model performances using different sizes amount of training data were are compared, as shown in Fig. 9. When the data size is-was reduced to 2/3 of the origin volume, the model performance reaches fell down to 90% of the original. And if the data size was reduced to halfhalved, less than 80% of the origin model performance remainsed.

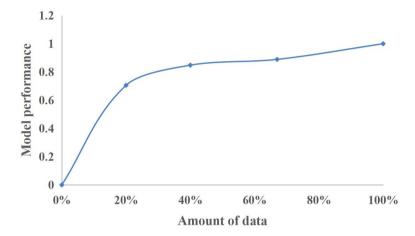


Figure 9: The learning curve which describes to describe the relationship between model performance and data volume.

2.4.3 Simulated and measured data

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A hydrodynamic model was established for the case pipe network. The simulation results (i.e., the lateral inflows and the volume of ponding at each node, as well as the level and flow data at the monitoring points) were obtained using the constructed rainfall events described in Sect. 2.4.2. The constructed rainfall events were used in the training, validation, and testing processes. In the simulation process, we considered a uniform rainfall distribution in space. A simplified representation of the sewer system and a constant, uniform infiltration rate in the green area were also considered for runoff computation (Roland L"owe et al.,2021). Meanwhile, this paper does not we did not consider the two-dimensional surface overflow-process.

Besides, the <u>measured_actual</u> rain data and <u>the_monitoring data (measured_water depthh</u> and flow) data at the monitoring points of in the past five <u>historical</u> rainfall events were <u>used</u> to verify the performance of the corrected model. The uncertainty of the measurements was not considered (Huong and Pathirana, 2013)—for example, errors in data transmission of data monitoring equipment. In this study, we This paper considered the simulation results of the verified hydraulic model as the ground truth heredible. Thus, <u>in_the_process_of_model_correction, we_only_fine_tuned_the_trained_weight_parameters_without_requiring_too_much_measured_data.</u>

In the model correction process, the uncertainty of the measurement (i.e., rainfall data, water depth, and flow data at monitoring points) was not considered (Huong and Pathirana, 2013)—for example, errors in data transmission of data monitoring equipment.

Table 2 shows the measurements of the five historical measured rainfall events used in the process of model correctionsystem. Among the five events, three were used to correct Mthe model CR and the flow confluence process, and the other twos were used to evaluate the reliability of the approach's reliability to update the model.

Table 2: 5 historical rainfall data used to correct the LSTM-based model.

Dataset	Rainfall event	Rainfall (mm)	Max. rain intensity (mm/min)	Duration (min)
Training	No.1	494.50	8.13	180
	No.2	146.63	2.61	90
	No.3	254.51	3.61	240
Testing	No.4	442.61	7.26	150
	No.5	254.41	4.97	120

2.4.4 Model Construction

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Table 3: Hyper-parameters configuration in the model setup and correction processes.

		Mo	Flow confluence	
	Hyper-parameters	Runoff process	Fine-tuning process	process
	Normalization Batch size	Z-score 150	Z-score 150	Min-Max 150
	Epoch	300	300	300
Model setup	Learning rate	1e-2	5e-3	1e-2
1	Optimizer	Adam	SGD	SGD
	LSTM hidden layer neurons MLP hidden layer neurons	16 16	1536/3072	256 256/128*

		Mo	Flow confluence	
	Hyper-parameters	Runoff process	Fine-tuning process	process
	LSTM layers	2	-	4
	MLP layers	1	2	2*
Model correction	Learning rate		1e-4	5e-5
	Optimizer	Adam		SGD

Note: * represents means to setting the hyperparameters of 'CLASSIFICATION MODULE' and 'OUT MODULE' the classification and out modules in the flow confluence process to the same values.

Most of tThe hyper-parameters used in this paper were mainly determined by Hyperopt (BERGSTRA, J et al., 2013). Hyperopt is a Python library for hyper-parameter optimization that adjusts parameters usingby Bayesian optimization, allowing obtaining optimal parameters for a given model. The search space of hyper-parameters was set determined by trial and error first. Then, it received a random combination of hyper-parameters from the search space to do the training and returned the training loss. It used the built-in search algorithms like the tree of Parzen estimators (TPE) to determine the following hyper-parameters combination. Thus, these iterations gradually build an optimal hyper-parameters combination to get the lowest training loss.

Table 3 shows the hyper-parameters in the learning process of the model setup and model correction obtained by Hyperopt. Hyper-parameters in the learning process of the model setup and Table 3 show the model correction obtained by Hyperopt.

2.4.5 Performance evaluation

Mean Absolute Error (MAE), Mean Squared Error (MSE), Correlation coefficient (CC) and Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency coefficient (NSE)MAE, MSE, NSE, and CC are broadly always—used indicators to assess the performance of a data-driven models. In this study, This paperwe used MAE and MSE to quantify the size of the errors, i.e., difference at each node between the predictioned results by the proposed LSTM-based modelneural network and simulation from the hydrodynamic model at each node. Moreover, NSE and CC here-were also used to evaluate the level of agreement at all nodes. Eq-uations (7)-(10) described list the formulas of these 4 indicators criteria.

$$MAE = \frac{1}{DT} \sum_{s=1}^{D} \sum_{t=1}^{T} |Y_{st} - \hat{Y}_{st}|$$
 (7)

$$MSE = \frac{1}{DT} \sum_{s=1}^{D} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (Y_{st} - \hat{Y}_{st})^{2}$$

(8)

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$$NSE = 1 - \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \left(\frac{1}{D} \sum_{s=1}^{D} Y_{st} - \frac{1}{D} \sum_{s=1}^{D} \hat{Y}_{st} \right)^{2}}{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \left(\frac{1}{D} \sum_{s=1}^{D} \hat{Y}_{st} - \frac{1}{DT} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \sum_{s=1}^{D} \hat{Y}_{st} \right)^{2}}$$
(9)

$$CC = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \left(\frac{1}{D} \sum_{s=1}^{D} Y_{st} - \frac{1}{DT} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \sum_{s=1}^{D} Y_{st}\right) \left(\frac{1}{D} \sum_{s=1}^{D} \hat{Y}_{st} - \frac{1}{DT} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \sum_{s=1}^{D} \hat{Y}_{st}\right)}}{\sqrt{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \left(\frac{1}{D} \sum_{s=1}^{D} Y_{st} - \frac{1}{DT} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \sum_{s=1}^{D} Y_{st}\right)^{2}} \sqrt{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \left(\frac{1}{D} \sum_{s=1}^{D} \hat{Y}_{st} - \frac{1}{DT} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \sum_{s=1}^{D} \hat{Y}_{st}\right)^{2}}}$$

$$(10)$$

where D is the number of events in the test set, T is the total number time steps of the relevant rainfall event, Yst is the prediction given value predicted by the neural network at the t-th time step in the s-th event, and \hat{Y}_{st} is the simulation given by result from the hydrodynamic model.

To evaluate the <u>accuracy of the proposed model in predicting ponding judgment of whether a node was flooding as predicted</u> by the <u>model</u>, we have introduced 56 indicators (as shown in Table 4): showed some other criteria. Accuracy (ACC),

Precision (PPV), and False omission Omission rate Rate (FOR) were used to verify evaluate the model accuracy in predicting the occurrence of ponding at a single node of the time of occurrence and duration when ponding occurred in a rainfall event; S - PPV and S - FOR were used to evaluate the model accuracy in predicting the occurrence of ponding for a single the event where ponding occurred.

Table 4: Score valuesIndicators used to evaluate accuracy of the proposed model in predicting ponding for a single node and for a single event. For measuring the level of agreement between the judgment of whether ponding occurred by the neural network and simulation from the hydrodynamic model at one node.

Score	Purpose	Equation	Range	Best Value
ACC	Mean accuracy for time points classified correctly	$ACC = \frac{1}{D} \sum_{s=1}^{D} \frac{TP_s + TN_s}{TP_s + TN_s + FP_s + FN_s}$	0 – 1	1
PPV	Mean precision for well- judged time point	$PPV = \frac{1}{D} \sum_{s=1}^{D} \frac{TP_s}{TP_s + FP_s}$	0 – 1	1
FOR	Mean proportion of omission on the timeline	$FOR = \frac{1}{D} \sum_{s=1}^{D} \frac{FN_s}{TN_s + FN_s}$	0 – 1	0
S – PPV	PercentagePrecision for well-judged samples	$S - PPV = \frac{TP}{TP + FP}$	0 – 1	1
S – FOR	Percentage of samples with false negatives	$S - FOR = \frac{FN}{TN + FN}$	0 – 1	0

where TP and TN denote the number of <u>occurrences whenevents where a ponding case and a normal case (no ponding occurs)</u> are correctly identified, respectively, occurs and does not occur that are correctly classified, and FP <u>isand FN</u> are the number of <u>occurrenceevents</u> whene a <u>normal case</u> is incorrectly identified as a <u>ponding case</u>, ponding and FN is the number

of occurrences when a ponding case is ignored by the model occurs and does not occur incorrectly classified, respectively.

And the subscript "s" denotes Besides, TPs and TNs are the number of time steps in the s-th event, when ponding occurs and does not occur correctly classified. FPs and FNs are the number of time steps that are incorrectly classified.

3 Results

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3.1 Model setup

the LSTM-based model was trained by the Designed rainfall data and simulation produced trained the LSTM-based model from the hydrodynamic model. following the procedure described in Sect. 2.4. According to the procedures described steps in Sect. 2.2, the noise (ε) transmitted from the runoff process to the flow confluence process was calculated ascqual to 1.9412% in the case pipe network. For the sake of convenience of calculations, the noise was set to 2%. Fig. 10 shows the performance evaluation results of the trained model's performance.

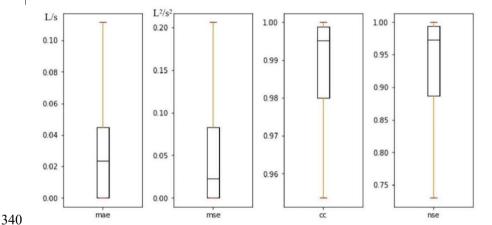
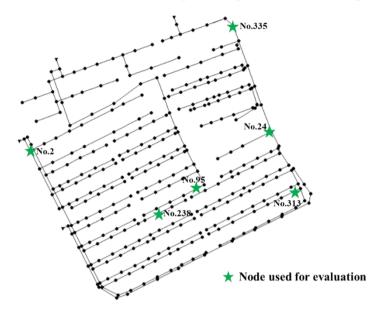


Figure 10: Box plots of score values for comprehensive evaluation of all nodes in the case area in the model development procedure.

Figure- 10 described the model's the overall performance of the model using with four box plots of mean scores (of all nodes) on the test set, of all nodes in the study area with the outliers removed. As shown in the figure, tThe median values of MAE and MSE were much smaller far less than 0.1, indicating that the model the training has donverged at all nodes. The median value of CC was close to 1—, and In contrast, even the minimum value—was higher more significant than 0.95. The median value of NSE was higher more significant—than 0.95, yet while the the minimum value was was about round 0.75, which—It indicateded that although the model's performance at each node was slightly different, the overall prediction results—was generally of the model were reliable.

<u>Due to the limited space, we This article</u> only listed the evaluation results of 6 representative nodes due to the limited space. The six nodes (as shown in Fig. 11) were selected according to because of the their—severity of consequence once ponding occurred, and also because the spatial distribution—they were relatively uniformly distributed in the pipe network to show the

difference in model performance between nodes. Moreover, tThree of them (Nodes 2, 238, -27, and 27313) were chosen because the positive their percentages of samples (where ponding occurred) accounted for less than 50% where ponding occurred of the training set were less than 50%, and the other threes were in the opposite case. For example, at Node 238, the positive samples accounted for 18.33% of the training set percentage of Node 238 was 18.33%, while at Node 95, up tothat of Node 95 was 98.6% samples were positive. Moreover, Fig. 11 marks their locations.



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Figure 11: The locations of the six selected nodes used for evaluation.

On the premise that the model performed differently from node to node, Table 5 listed the score values of the six selected nodes on the judgment of ponding, and Table 6 presented the scores on the volume forecasting.

Table 5: The sScore-values atof the six selected nodes_for evaluating the model accuracy_performance in ponding occurrence prediction. of the judgment of whether ponding occurred at some time step and in a rainfall event predicted by the model.

Node No.	ACC	PPV	FOR	S — PPV	S – FOR
2	99.90%	95.11%	0.04%	98.00%	0.00%
24	99.56%	95.21%	0.27%	99.33%	0.00%
95	98.66%	93.47%	0.98%	100.00%	0.00%
238	99.81%	88.33%	0.06%	94.00%	0.00%
313	99.67%	95.75%	0.19%	99.33%	0.00%
335	99.56%	95.29%	0.23%	100.00%	0.00%

-Table 5 lists the scores at the six selected nodes for evaluating the model performance in ponding occurrence prediction. In the tTable-5, Column ACC the second to FOR fourth columns reflected the accuracy of ponding occurrence prediction in the sense of time (i.e. averaged in time). model's sensitivity in judging the ponding's starting and ending time. The mean ACC

values necuracy (Accuracy) for all the 6 nodes were higher than 98.5% of judging whether ponding occurred at some time step (ACC) of each node was above 98.5%. Compared to ACC, Although the mean PPV values (Precision PPV) of each node wereas slightly lower than ACC, with the minimum value about 88% at Node 238it was higher than 88%, which indicated that a ponding case had at least 88% chance to be correctly identified about 12% of the time points were judged incorrectly. The mean FOR value (False Omission Rate) of eEach node's FOR was generally lower than 1%, and among them the worst performance occurred at that of Node 95 (FOR=0.98%) was slightly higher, which. It indicated that the model had a relatively small chance to ignored ponding, at some point. However, its proportion was far less than the false discovery rate. The last two columns of in Table 5 reflect the accuracy of the model in predicting ponding occurrence for a single rainfall event. For example, falsely reported events took up 6% of the testing events at Node 238 (S-PPV=94%), which was already the worst performance among the 6 selected nodes. While the S-FOR values at all these 6 nodes were zero, which respectively showed that the model performed well at each node in judging whether ponding occurred in the rainfall event. Node 238 falsely reported whether ponding occurred in 6% of the testing events, resulting in the lowest S - PPV . S - FOR in Table 5 indicateded that the model did not miss any ponding incidents during in the testing settle rainfall events.

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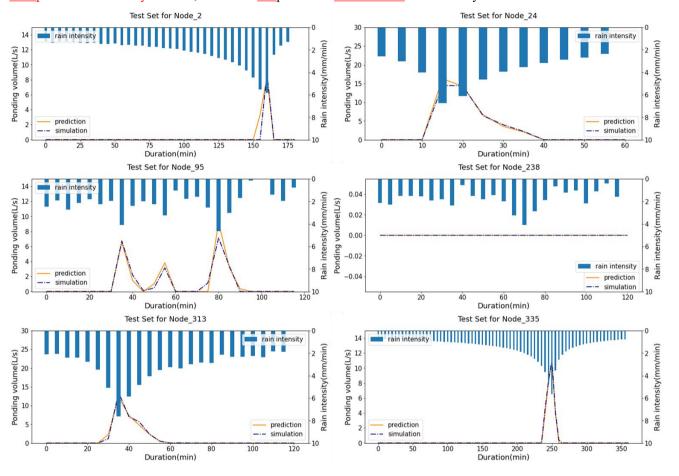
The scores for evaluating the model performance in ponding volume prediction are listed in Table 6. As shown in the table, the MAE and MSE scores were generally small, with the highest MAE score (0.0770L:s=1L/s) occurred at Node 95 and the highest MSE score (0.3788L²:s=2L²/s²) occurred had the highest MAE score, 0.0770L/s, while the maximum MSE score was 0.3788L²/s² at Node 2. Compared to the MAE and MSE scores, the variability of CC scores was much smaller. All of them were very varied slightly between nodes which were close to 1. As for the NSE scores, the lowest score (NSE=0.8195 at Node 238) was above 0.8. However, Node 238 had the lowest NSE score, which remained higher than 0.8. The results shown in Table 6 indicated that the proposed model had a relatively good performance in ponding volume prediction. the predicted volume of ponding at each node was reliable.

Table 6: The sScore values atof the six selected nodes for evaluating the model performance inon the ponding volume prediction. Forecasting.

Node No.	$MAE(\underline{L} \cdot \underline{s}^{-1})$ $\underline{L/s})$	$MSE(\underline{L}^2 : \underline{s}^{-2})$ $\underline{L}^2/\underline{s}^2)$	CC	NSE
2	0.017 <u>0</u>	0.3788	0.9997	0.9811
24	0.0414	0.1876	0.9941	0.9754
95	0.077 <u>0</u>	0.274 <u>0</u>	0.986 <u>0</u>	0.9599
238	0.0073	0.026 <u>0</u>	0.9999	0.8195
313	0.0183	0.0505	0.9974	0.9825
335	0.0349	0.0826	0.9968	0.9882

Furthermore, in the above analysis, mean score values on the test set were used for evaluation, and the <u>variability individual</u> differences among the test set were was ignored. Figure- 12 shows the predicted <u>ponding</u> volume of <u>ponding</u> at the selected nodes compared to with the simulation results in <u>severalsix</u> testing rainfall events. As shown in <u>Fig. 12Subfigure (1)</u>, a the

predicted start time of ponding was 5 minutes earlier than the simulation misjudgment occurred at the beginning of the ponding, which was 5 minutes ahead at Node 2. As shown in Subfigure (2), Three_three peaks appeared in the ponding process of Node 95, and the model has identified each of themone. No ponding occurred at node 238 given the testing precipitation, as shown in -Subfigure (5), with the testing precipitation, and the prediction of the model model model was in consistent with predicted it correctly. Overall, the model the prediction of the model was relatively accurate at each node.



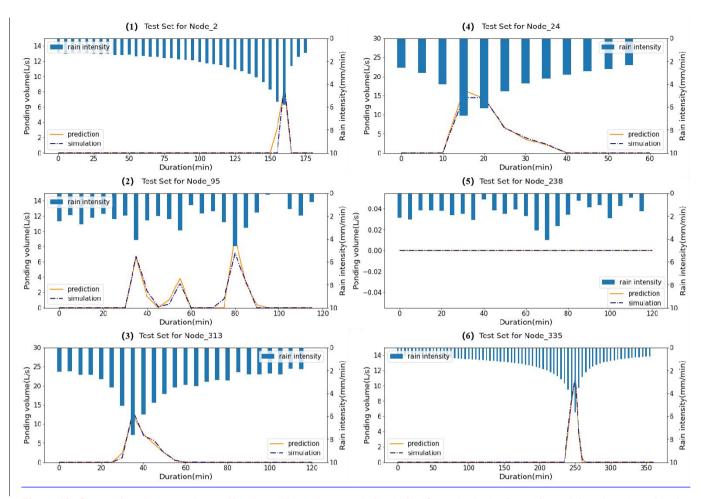


Figure 12: Comparison between the predicted ponding volume and simulation from the hydrodynamic model at the selected nodes in several 6 testing rainfall events that were chosen randomly-chosen.

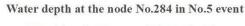
The charts and tables above show the comparison of the simulation from the hydrodynamic model and the predicted results ion of from the neural networks. From them, it was reliable to judge the occurrence and indicate the location and process of ponding using the LSTM-based model trained by the simulation from the hydrodynamic model.

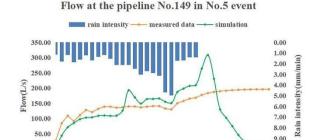
3.2 Model correction

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This paper In this study, -trained the model was trained based on the simulation results from athe hydrodynamic model.

Though the hydrodynamic model has been verified However, the differences between the simulation (from the hydrodynamic model) at the monitoring points and the actual measuremonitoring data persisted during the essential operation of the pipe network, which. It inevitably degraded the accuracy of the LSTM-based model inon ponding forecasting. Thus, it is necessary to correct the model the model must be corrected using the measured rainfall data, level or flow data at the monitoring points, and ponding data.





Duration(min)

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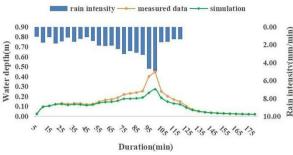
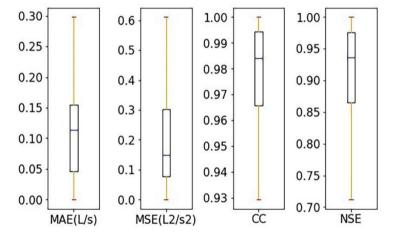


Figure 13: Comparison between the measured data and simulation from the hydrodynamic model at Node 284 and Pipeline 149 in No.5 event.

The discrepancy between the measurements and simulation from the hydrodynamic model can be exemplified by Fig. 13. As shown in the figure Fig. 13, rainfall event No.5 was one of the measured precipitation event where the maximum precipitation intensity reached 4.97mm/min. In For this event, the measured water depth and flowflow or level data were compared with the simulation from the hydrodynamic model, as shown on the left and right panels, respectively, in Fig. 13.

- at the monitoring points and the simulations using the measured precipitation were compared to present the discrepancy between the measured and simulated results. For example, Figure 13 shows the disparity at monitoring node 284 and pipeline 149.



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Figure 14: Box plots of mean score values on the test set for all nodes in the model updating procedure.

The ponding process predicted by the corrected model was compared with the actual monitoringed ponding data to evaluate the model's performance. The approach to fixing the model was reliable if the two agreed. Figure. 14 illustrates the overall performance of the corrected model of using 4 indicators as described in Section 2.4.5. ???all nodes on the ponding volume forecasting. The approach to fixing the model was reliable if the two agreed.

In specific, the 4 box plots Fig. 14 shows the range of the mean score values on the test set of at all nodes after being updated. As shown by in the figure, the median values of CC and NSE scores maintained above 0.98 and 0.9, respectively. In contrast, the maximum values of MAE and MSE scores remained lower than $0.30 \underline{\text{L}} \cdot \underline{\text{s}}^{-1} \underline{\text{L/s}}$, and that of MSE was lower than $0.6\underline{\text{L}}^2 \cdot \underline{\text{s}}^{-2}\underline{\text{L}}^2/\text{s}^2$, respectively.

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Specifically, the mean score values at the six selected nodes obtained using the corrected model are summarized in Table 7. As shown in the tTable 7, the MAE and MSE scores were generally small, the NSE score at each node was stably above 0.9₅ and t—The CC scores waeres all above 0.9₅ The results shown in Table 7 which suggested that the corrected model performed well on the test set. The updated model performed well at different each nodes, and was reliable.

Table 8 summarizes the mean scores of all nodes for five measured rainfall events on the model performance before and after modification.

Table 7: Mean score values on at the six selected nodes obtained test set on predicting the ponding volume in the model updating procedur using the corrected modele.

Node No.	$MAE(\underline{L} \cdot \underline{s}^{-1}\underline{L/s})$	$MSE(\underline{L}^2 : \underline{s}^{-2}\underline{L}^{2/4}$ $\underline{s}^2)$	CC	NSE
2	0.0912	0.1604	0.9774	0.9545
24	0.1359	0.2426	0.9863	0.9586
95	0.2916	0.7378	0.9583	0.9071
238	0.0855	0.1842	0.9773	0.9302
313	0.0642	0.0571	0.9896	0.9727
335	0.0943	0.1135	0.9942	0.9683

To test further the capability of the corrected model, the mean scores of all nodes for five measured rainfall events are summarized in Table 8, where the results from the model without correction are also listed as a comparison. As shown in Table 8, aAll of the four indicators suggested that the corrected model performed much better than the model without correction from the corrected model were much better than those from the uncorrected model in Table 8. Specifically, the NSE score obtained from the model without correction before the correction was less than 0, while this score rose up tocompared to 0.8316 after applying the model correction procedure the modification. It, which indicated the necessity of the model correction updating.

Table 8: Mean score values of all nodes for five measured <u>rainfall</u> events, <u>obtained by using</u> from the <u>model with/without</u> correct<u>ion.ed model versus those from the uncorrected model.</u>

	$MAE(\underline{L} \cdot \underline{s}^{-1})$ $\underline{L/s})$	$MSE(\underline{L}^2 : \underline{s}^{-2}$ $\underline{L}^2/\underline{s}^2)$	CC	NSE
Model without correctionBefore	0.5719	4.5045	0.1139	< 0

	$MAE(\underline{L} \cdot \underline{s}^{-1})$ $\underline{L/s}$	$MSE(\underline{L}^2 : \underline{s}^{-2}$ $\underline{L}^2/\underline{s}^2)$	CC	NSE
updating				
Model with correction After updating	0.1504	0.5919	0.9309	0.8316

To further demonstrate the effect of model correction procedure, we have shown the predicted ponding process at the 6 selected nodes for rainfall event No.5, obtained by using the model with and without correction, as shown in Fig. 15. As shown in the figure, the corrected model Fig. 15 plotted the specific ponding process at the selected nodes in the measured rainfall event No.5 predicted by the corrected model compared to those anticipated before correction. Fig. 15 showed that the revised model performed better at all the selected nodes, e.g., more accurate prediction of start/end time of ponding, more accurate ponding curves (more similar to the measure ones).—in terms of not only starting and ending time but also the process of ponding than the uncorrected model. The prediction by the corrected model had a high consistency with the measured ponding volume at each node in the figure, which proved the reliability of the approach to introducing the measured monitoring data to correct this LSTM-based model as well.

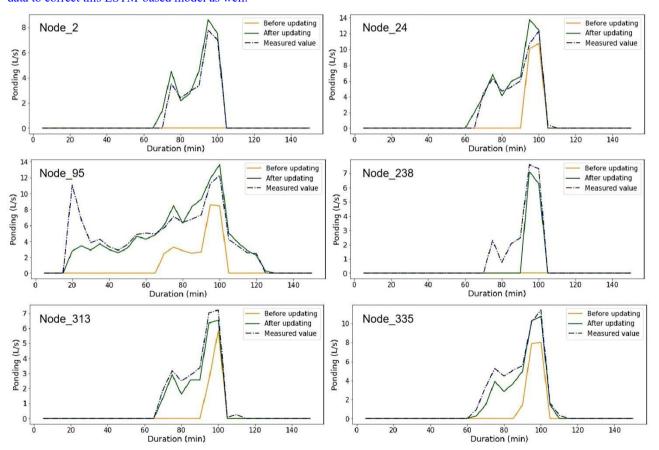


Figure 15: Comparison between the predicted ponding volume and measured values at the selected nodes in rainfall event No.5.

All the results shown above demonstrate the superiority of the corrected model compared to the original one, where the monitoring data were introduced in the model correction procedure. By the comparison between the prediction by the model before and after correction, it proved the reliability of the approach to introducing the measured monitoring data to correct the model.

4 Discussion

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4.1 Comparison of neural network structures

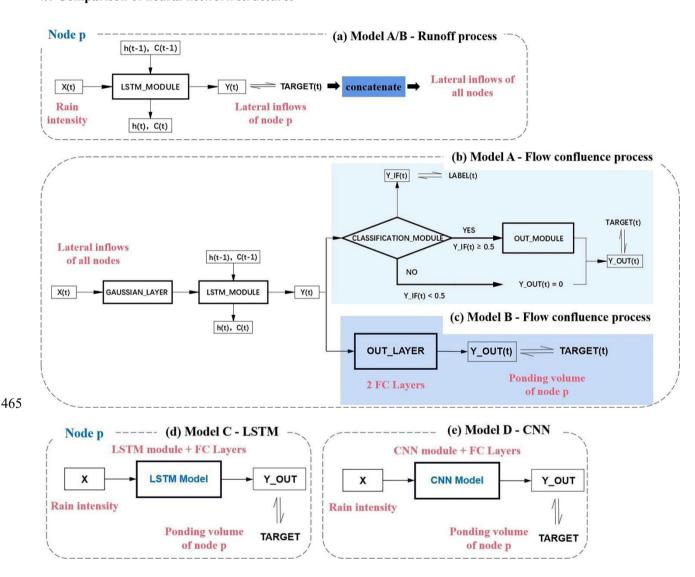
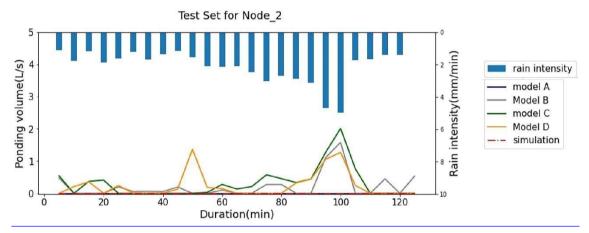
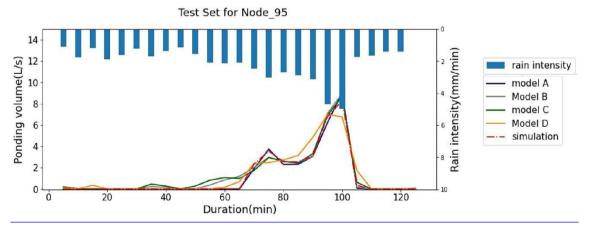


Figure 16: Schematic diagrams of different network structures for comparison. (a) The same runoff process in model A and B. (b) The multi-target learning in the flow confluence process of model A₂—marked in_light blue. (c) The flow confluence process in model B marked in_dark blue. (d) The LSTM structure in model C. (e) The CNN structure in model D.

- The proposed model (termed Model A) was compared with the conventional LSTM structure (termed model B) in Fig. 16(a ~e) to show the superiority of the variant of the LSTM structure in the flow confluence process. The schematic diagrams of the two models are shown in Fig. 16 (a ~ c). As shown in the subfigures, Model B has exactly the same structure as model A in the runoff process. The only difference of the two models lies in the flow confluence process, where a multi-task learning mechanism is introduced in the learning process of Model A.
- Furthermore, Model A proposed in this paper was compared with two other models (Models C and D) to illustrate the necessity of two processes in tandem, i.e. the runoff and flow confluence processes. The network structures of Models C and D are shown in Fig. 16 (d) and (e), respectively, where the ponding information was obtained directly from rainfall data without extracting the characteristics of lateral inflows.



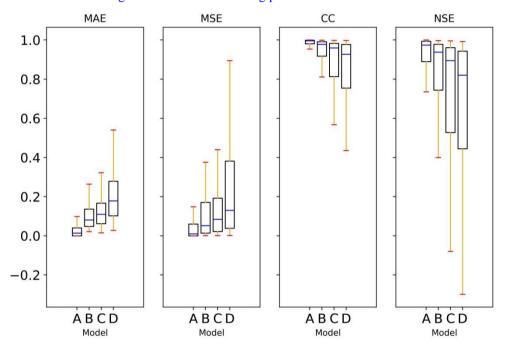
480 (a) Case a where ponding did not occur at Node 2.



(b) Case b, where ponding occurred at Node 95.

Figure 17: A comparison between the predicted ponding volume by the LSTM-based model (Model A) and by Models B, C, and D for a particular rainfall event.

Figure 17 shows two examples. In the first example, as shown in the subfigure (a), ponding did not occur at Node 2. However, about 2-4L·s⁻¹ ponding volume was falsely reported by the three alternative models (Models B, C, and D), while Model A predicted no ponding at this Node, which was consistent with the simulation (considered as the ground truth). In the second example, as shown in the subfigure (b), where ponding occurred and lasted for about 40 minutes, Model A predicted a more accurate ponding curve than the other three alternative models. Model B hasd the same structure as model A with in the runoff and flow confluence processes. The network architecture in model B's runoff process was the same as in model A, presented in Fig. 16(a). However, it was different in model B's flow confluence process (Fig. 16 b ~ c). There was no multi-task learning mechanism in its learning process.



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Figure 178: Comparison of model performance on the ponding volume forecasting. The results of the proposed model A are compared to those obtained from models B, C, and D.

Fig. 17 presented the range of mean score values on the test set of all nodes on model A, B, C, and D performance on the ponding volume forecasting. As shown in Fig. 17, the range of model A's MAE and MSE scores was half that of model B. CC scores of model A were close to 1, while those of model B varied from about 0.8 to 1. NSE scores of model A were higher than 0.7, while model B's were higher than about 0.4. Obviously, the structure in Fig. 16(b) was superior to that in Fig. 16(c) on forecasting ponding volume.

Furthermore, model Model A proposed in this paper was compared with two other models (Models C and D) to illustrate the necessity of two processes in tandem, i.e., the runoff and flow confluence processes. As shown in Figures 16(d) and 16(e),

The network structures of Mmodels C and D are shown in Fig. 16 (d) and (e), respectively, where the obtained ponding information was obtained directly from rainfall data without extracting the characteristics of lateral inflows' characteristics.

Fig-ure 178 presenteds the range of mean score values on the test set forefall nodes, obtained by using on Mmodels A, B, C, and D performance on the ponding volume forecasting. As shown in Fig. 17the figure, the range of model A's of the MAE orand MSE scores from Model A waswas half that of model B. The CC scores from foreful A were very close to 1, while the CC scores fromthose of model B varied from about 0.8 to 1. The NSE scores from foreful A were generally higher than 0.7, while the NSE scores from model B's were unstable and generally lower than those from Model Ahigher than about 0.4. Obviously, Model A performed much better than Model B in ponding volume prediction, as indicated by all of the four indicators, the structure in Fig. 16(b) was superior to that in Fig. 16(c) on forecasting ponding volume.

Also as shown in Fig. 178, the obvious superiority of Model A (or B) over Models C and D demonstrates the necessity of having two processes in tandem. Besides, it is also shown in the figure Fig. 17 showed that the range of all these four indicators expanded gradually from Model A to D, which indicated a decreased steadiness. the MAE and MSE scores of models A, C, and D almost expanded gradually, while the trend in the CC and NSE scores was the opposite. It showed that the structure of two processes in tandem in model A had an advantage over model C. The LSTM structure was better than CNN in dealing with these time series data.

Table 9: Mean score values of all nodes obtained from models for predicting the volume of ponding.

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Model	$MAE(\underline{L} \cdot \underline{s}^{-1}\underline{L}/\underline{s})$	$MSE(\underline{L}^{2} : \underline{s}^{-2}\underline{L}^{2} \neq s^{2})$	CC	NSE
A	0.0309	0.1624	0.9960	0.9462
В	0.0622	0.1815	0.9578	0.8552
C	0.0849	0.2584	0.8823	0.7424
D	0.1358	0.3480	0.9257	0.7391

Table 9 also supported this. It showeds the mean score values atof all nodes (on the test set) obtained by using of the four models on the test set. According to the tableresults, the performance ranking of the four models was mModel A > mModel B > mModel C > mModel D.

The comparative analysis analyses above indicated that the LSTM-based model proposed in this paper had remarkable superiority over the other three alternatives in ponding volume forecasting. There are two reasons behind this. First, the proposed model had two processes in tandem: the runoff and flow confluence processes. The second is due to because of the following two reasons. One of them was the two processes in tandem: the runoff process and the flow confluence process. The other one was the auxiliary classification task introduced variant of the LSTM structure in the flow confluence process. The two tandem processes first one reduced the computational burden of this data-driven model approach and avoided

interference with each other <u>duringwhen</u> training-<u>separately</u>. <u>While the classification task introduced facilitated the capability of the model to identify ponding.</u>

The second one introduced an auxiliary task to judge whether ponding occurred and tried to eliminate the interference of the time points without ponding on the ponding volume forecasting.

4.2 The influence of the number of monitoring points on the model modification correction

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It was easy to spot from the trial that the <u>performance of the corrected modified model's performance depended on whether</u> the <u>layout of the monitoring points' current layout could</u> reflected <u>the the pipe network's hydraulic conditions of the pipe network.</u> An unreasonable design of the monitoring equipment might lead to a failure of <u>in model modification correction</u>.

There were 15 level gauges and three flowmeters in the <u>casecurrent pipe network, as shown in</u>. Fig. 7(b). To analyse how the <u>number of monitoring points impacted the performance of the revised model, shows the layout of the monitoring points. dDifferent numbers of monitoring points were randomly selected as a quantitative control group to analyze whether and how the number of monitoring points impacted the performance of the revised model. Scores in Figure. 19 presented the evaluation results of the revised model on ponding volume forecasting obtained by using when correcting the model with different numbers of monitoring pointsites.</u>

SCORES OF DIFFERENT NUMBERS OF MONITORING POINTS

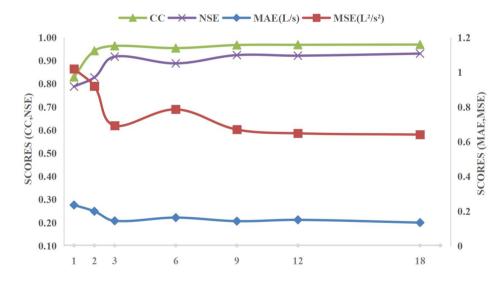


Figure 19: Score values obtained by using of different numbers of monitoring points on the performance of the model correction processed model.

As shown in the figure, the NSE scores stayed around 0.9 when the <u>number of monitoring points exceeded six6</u>, the <u>CC scores showed similar trends as the NSE scores. aAnd the other scores showed the opposite trends showed similar trends as the NSE scores. aAnd the other scores showed the opposite trends as the NSE scores. aAnd the other scores showed the opposite trends as the NSE scores. aAnd the other scores showed the opposite trends as the NSE scores. aAnd the other scores showed the opposite trends as the NSE scores. aAnd the other scores showed the opposite trends as the NSE scores.</u>

the NSE scores: were almost consistent with NSE. It turned out that, when the number of monitoring points was over 1 per hectare, increasing the number of monitoring points <u>further</u> had <u>little-limited effectinfluence</u> on <u>improving the the-accuracy</u> of the corrected model, when the number of monitoring sites was over one per hectare. However, when the number of monitoring points <u>waswent belowdown to about 0.5</u> per hectare (,-i.e., the number of monitoring points was less than 3), <u>it is highly effective to increase the number of monitoring points in the pipe network. the results of the revised model could have been better.</u> For example, the NSE score was lower than 0.8 when the number of monitoring points was only 1.

In summary, one monitoring point per hectare is the critical point. If Suppose the number of monitoring point sites was less than one per hectarethis limit. In that ease, the performance of the revised model could not be guaranteed. Otherwise, if the number of monitoring sites was one per hectare or even more, the accuracy of the revised model on the ponding volume forecasting could be much higher.

5 Conclusions

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In this study, aAn optimized LSTM-based model is proposed, which is applied to early warning, and forecasting of ponding in the urban drainage system—was proposed in this paper. According to the research results, the main conclusions of this study are summarized as follows:

1 The LSTM-based model is constructed based on a relatively accurate hydrodynamic model. However, the difference between the simulation from the hydrodynamic model and the measured monitoring data persists, which leads to a discrepancy between the predicted results from the proposed LSTM-based model and the actual situation (reflected by the monitoring data). Therefore, by calibration using real-life data, the corrected LSTM-based model can closely reflect the actual condition of the pipe network, and is capable of identifying and locating ponding with relatively high accuracy and efficiency. The revised model realizes the real-time prediction of ponding with sure accuracy in the case pipe network. The predicted information includes the ponding location and ponding process at each node.

2 The model is split into two tandem processes: runoff process and flow confluence process. In tThe runofffirst process, is to simulate the process of the lateral inflows inflows entering the individual nodes are simulated, and in the flow confluence process, the second is to predict the ponding volumes of ponding at individual each nodes are calculated in the pipe network. Moreover, the model introduces a multi-task learning mechanism to optimize the network structure in the flow confluence process. The abovese two characteristics structures significantly improve the performance of the LSTM-based model. The advantage superiority of the proposed variant of LSTMmodel (model Model A, a LSTM variant) in handling the task of ponding volume forecasting is demonstrated by a comparison with the conventional LSTM structure (model Model B, also with two tandem processes as Model A). Then, the superiority of having two tandem processes is proved by comparing Model A (or B) with Models C and D, i.e., LSTM and CNN structures with a single process compared to the models based on LSTM and CNN structures (models C and D), the construction with two processes in tandem based on LSTM is reliable.

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3 The performance of the corrected model on ponding volume forecasting prediction is reliable if the number of monitoring sites points is over one per hectare. Increasing the number of monitoring points further has little-limited impact-effect on improving the model's performance.

Overall, the <u>proposed</u> LSTM-based approach provides a <u>new</u> possibility for early warning and forecasting of ponding in the urban drainage system and has a remarkable improvement after being corrected by the measured monitoring data. <u>In this study, all operations were conducted</u> This paper carried out all operations on model correction in an offline mode. <u>In the future study, we will Future studies should explore the capability of the proposed model in real-time event analysis. And also, we will optimize the model by considering the influence of two-dimensional overland flow in ponding volume prediction on line correction. Besides, considering the variation of ponding areas with the two-dimensional groundwater overflow process will further optimize the model.</u>

590 Code availability. The pieces of code used for all analyses are available from the authors upon request.

Data availability. All data used in this study are available from the authors upon request.

Competing interests. The contact author has declared that neither they nor their co-authors have competing interests.

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