

# Predicting effects of non-point source Pollution emission control schemes Based on VMD-BiLSTM and MIKE21

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## Research Article

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1 **Predicting effects of non-point source Pollution emission control schemes Based on**  
2 **VMD-BiLSTM and MIKE21**

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18 **Abstract**

19 Controlling non-point source (NPS) pollution is crucial for implementing water environment  
20 management, and simulating the water quality response to NPS pollution emission control schemes is  
21 of great importance. Variational mode decomposition (VMD) can overcome endpoint effects and modal  
22 aliasing issues, effectively separating intrinsic mode components. Bidirectional long short-term  
23 memory (BiLSTM) can fully mine the information contained in time series and has good predictive  
24 performance. MIKE21, when coupled with the Ecolab module, can well simulate the diffusion process  
25 of NPS pollution. The Weihe River water environment prediction model was constructed using  
26 VMD-BiLSTM and MIKE21, with ammonia nitrogen (NH<sub>3</sub>-N), total phosphorus (TP), and chemical  
27 oxygen demand (COD) as pollution indicators, showing the water quality response of the Weihe River  
28 within a few years after the implementation of agricultural and urban NPS pollution emission control  
29 schemes. Among them, the COD concentration decreased by up to 71.3%, the NH<sub>3</sub>-N concentration  
30 decreased by up to 31.4%, and the TP concentration decreased by up to 43.1%. The results show that  
31 the water quality of the Weihe River can be significantly improved by controlling NPS pollution  
32 emission, and reducing agricultural NPS pollution emission is key to decreasing ammonia nitrogen and  
33 total phosphorus concentrations and improving water quality.

34 **Key Words: Non-point source pollution; Simulation prediction; VMD-BiLSTM; MIKE21; Weihe**  
35 **river**

## 36 **1.Introduction**

37 NPS pollution has become a major factor leading to various water environment issues, such as  
38 river pollution, deterioration of aquatic ecosystems, and severe eutrophication (Xiang et al., 2017; Giri  
39 et al., 2018; Fu et al., 2020). According to the "Second National Pollution Source Census Bulletin"  
40 released by the Chinese government in 2020, it is estimated that NPS contributes to 84% of total water  
41 pollution. The deterioration of the water environment has caused serious damage to aquatic  
42 environments and organisms and has limited the sustainable development of society and economy (Sun  
43 et al., 2018). However, existing policies mainly focus on controlling point source (PS) pollution, such  
44 as improving sanitation facilities and sewage treatment plants in urban and rural areas, while the  
45 dispersed NPS pollution has been somewhat overlooked (Yang et al., 2011; Tong et al., 2017). It has  
46 been proven that the implementation of emission control schemes, including low impact development  
47 (LID) and best management practices (BMPs), can effectively reduce NPS pollution from urban and  
48 agricultural land use (Taghizadeh et al., 2021). Before implementing NPS pollutant control schemes,  
49 simulating water quality response predictions under emission control plans is crucial for  
50 decision-making in water environment management. With the help of field monitoring and model  
51 predictions, the study of NPS pollution characteristics and aquatic environment responses has attracted  
52 widespread attention from scholars in related fields internationally, helping to draft pollution control  
53 plans (Chen et al., 2018). In previous research, researchers typically used historical hydrological data to  
54 simulate non-point source pollutants, for example, Ji et al. (2022) built a water environment model for  
55 the Beijing sub-center using MIKE11, selecting measured hydrological data input of historical  
56 significant rainfall events to highlight the impact of emission control schemes on water quality. Ouyang  
57 et al. (2008) used SWAT to construct a water environment model for Bazhong City, Sichuan Province,  
58 and used daily meteorological data from 1996 to 2005 to simulate basin climate conditions. Hou et al.  
59 (2021) simulated nitrogen transport through MIKE SHE and MIKE11 coupled with Ecolab. However,  
60 since runoff has a significant impact on the water environment carrying capacity, and the annual  
61 variability of runoff in some areas is considerable, using historical data cannot adequately demonstrate  
62 the changes in water quality over a period after the implementation of emission control schemes. As a  
63 result, the support provided for decision-making on water pollution control schemes is not sufficiently  
64 robust. Data-driven models aim to derive linear or nonlinear relationships between explanatory  
65 variables and target variables based on a large amount of input data, making them a type of black-box  
66 model. Deep learning is a kind of data-driven model that has been proven to be a valuable tool in  
67 various hydrological applications. Initially applied to speech-to-text conversion, machine translation,  
68 and sequence data processing, Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) neural networks have been used for  
69 numerous hydrological applications, including soil moisture prediction, flood forecasting, and  
70 groundwater level prediction. BiLSTM, consisting of two oppositely directed LSTM, has recently been  
71 demonstrated to outperform conventional unidirectional LSTM. For example, it was found that, during  
72 calibration and validation periods, BiLSTM could predict groundwater level fluctuations better than  
73 unidirectional LSTM. This study aims to simulate the river water quality response over several years  
74 following the implementation of pollution emission control schemes through the coupling of  
75 VMD-BiLSTM and MIKE21. This approach allows for the prediction and evaluation of the  
76 effectiveness of nonpoint source pollution emission control schemes.

77 In order to achieve simulation predictions of water quality response within a certain period after  
78 the implementation of emission control schemes, we have applied deep learning techniques to the water  
79 environment model. Deep learning is a type of data-driven model that has been proven to be a valuable

80 tool in various applications (Lee et al., 2020). For example, it was initially applied to speech-to-text  
81 conversion, machine translation, and sequence data processing. Among them, LSTM networks have  
82 been used in many hydrological applications, including soil moisture prediction (Fang et al., 2017),  
83 flood forecasting (Hu et al., 2018), and groundwater level prediction (Zhang et al., 2018). BiLSTM  
84 consists of two LSTMs with opposite directions and has recently been shown to outperform traditional  
85 unidirectional ones. For example, Ghasemlounia et al. (2021) found that, during calibration and  
86 validation periods, BiLSTM can predict groundwater level fluctuations better than unidirectional  
87 LSTM. Zhang et al. (2023) found that BiLSTM has higher accuracy in rainfall prediction compared to  
88 LSTM. In this study, we couple VMD-BiLSTM with MIKE21 to simulate the river water quality  
89 response within one year after the implementation of pollution emission control schemes, thus  
90 predicting and evaluating the effectiveness of non-point source pollution emission control schemes.

91 The Weihe River is one of the most important tributaries of the Yellow River, originating from the  
92 Niaoshu Mountain in Gansu Province, passing through the provinces of Shaanxi, Gansu, and Ningxia,  
93 and finally joining the Yellow River in Tongguan County, Shaanxi Province. The Weihe River Basin is  
94 bordered by the millennium imperial capital of Luoyang to the east, connected to Nanyang City by the  
95 Funiu Mountain to the south, and overlooks the ancient city of Xi'an to the west. It has been the center  
96 of various economic and cultural exchanges and integration since ancient times. The Weihe River Basin  
97 is located in the northern Loess Plateau region of China and is one of the most severely affected areas  
98 by soil and water loss in the Yellow River Basin. It is also one of China's important grain, cotton, and  
99 oil production areas and industrial production bases. The Weihe River serves as the ultimate receiving  
100 water body for pollutants in the basin (Yan et al., 2022), and its water quality directly affects the  
101 aquatic environment of the Yellow River Basin. In the past decade, Shaanxi Province has become the  
102 strictest province in the Yellow River Basin for water pollution control to address severe water  
103 pollution issues. In this study, we selected the key river sections in the Weihe River for future water  
104 pollution control as the research area. According to data from the China National Environmental  
105 Monitoring Center, the current river water quality in this area is all below Grade V, indicating that the  
106 water environment urgently needs improvement. We established a water environment model for the  
107 Weihe River based on the coupled VMD-BiLSTM and MIKE model, set different emission control  
108 measures for NPS pollution, and used COD, NH<sub>3</sub>-N, and TP as indicators to analyze the water quality  
109 of the Weihe River after the implementation of emission control schemes and evaluate the effectiveness  
110 of these plans. This research provides support for water environment management in the Weihe River  
111 and the optimization of non-point source pollution control schemes.

## 112 2. Study area

113 The Weihe River flows 502.4 km within Shaanxi Province, passing through Xianyang City, Xi'an  
114 City, and joining the Yellow River in Tongguan County, Weinan City. We selected a 136.6 km long  
115 section of the Weihe River, which lies within the area demarcated by 34° 08' N, 34° 42' N, 108°  
116 39' E, and 109° 55' E for our study. The terrain in the study area is relatively flat, sloping from  
117 southwest to northeast, with elevations ranging from 393 to 332 meters and slope gradients between 0.2‰  
118 and 0.6‰. The average annual rainfall is 740mm, with significant interannual variability, and more  
119 than 80% of the total annual precipitation occurring between July and September (Qiu et al., 2022).  
120 The Weihe River is the largest tributary of the Yellow River, with an average annual runoff of 75.7

121 billion cubic meters, accounting for approximately 13% of the Yellow River's average annual runoff.

122 As a center of cultural convergence and an essential grain, cotton, and oil-producing area and  
 123 industrial production base, high-quality water environments are a strategic necessity for promoting the  
 124 sustainable development of industry, agriculture, and tourism in the Weihe River Basin. However, due  
 125 to upstream and internal water pollution, the water quality is currently unsatisfactory. Approximately  
 126 90% of the annual rainfall and 70% of the urban sewage in the upstream counties of Shaanxi Province  
 127 are received by the Weihe River, Additionally, PS and NPS pollution within the study area exacerbate  
 128 the pollution problem (Jiake et al., 2011). Both organic and inorganic pollutants have damaged the  
 129 surface water environment in the study area. According to data from the China National Environmental  
 130 Monitoring Center, more than 90% of the water quality in the Weihe River section within the study area  
 131 is currently classified as Class V or below, with the main pollutants exceeding the standard limits being  
 132 NH<sub>3</sub>-N, TP, and COD. Therefore, there is an urgent need to improve the water environment in the  
 133 Weihe River Basin.

### 134 3. Material and methods

#### 135 3.1 Model description

##### 136 3.1.1 VMD

137 Variational Mode Decomposition (VMD) is an adaptive, fully non-recursive mode variation and  
 138 signal processing method that can determine the number of decomposition components based on actual  
 139 conditions. While overcoming the endpoint effects and mode mixing issues present in traditional  
 140 Empirical Mode Decomposition (Liu et al., 2018), it effectively separates the intrinsic mode functions  
 141 and decomposes them into multiple frequency-scale and relatively stationary subsequences (Ma et al.,  
 142 2020). The core of VMD is to construct and solve the variational problem. Assuming the original signal  
 143  $f$  is decomposed into  $K$  finite-width mode components with central frequencies, and the sum of the  
 144 estimated bandwidths of each mode is minimized, the constraint condition is that the sum of all modes  
 145 is equal to the original signal. The corresponding constrained variational expression is as follows:

$$146 \min_{\{u_k\}, \{\omega_k\}} \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^K \left\| \partial_t [(\delta(t) + j / \pi t) * u_k(t)] e^{-j\omega_k t} \right\|_2^2 \right\} \quad (1)$$

$$147 s. t \sum_{k=1}^K u_k = f \quad (2)$$

148 Here,  $K$  represents the number of decomposed modes,  $\{u_k\}$ ,  $\{\omega_k\}$  correspond to the  $k$ -th mode  
 149 component and the central frequency after decomposition, respectively.  $\delta(t)$  is the Dirac delta  
 150 function,  $*$  denotes the convolution operator, and  $f$  is the original time series.

##### 151 3.1.2 BiLSTM

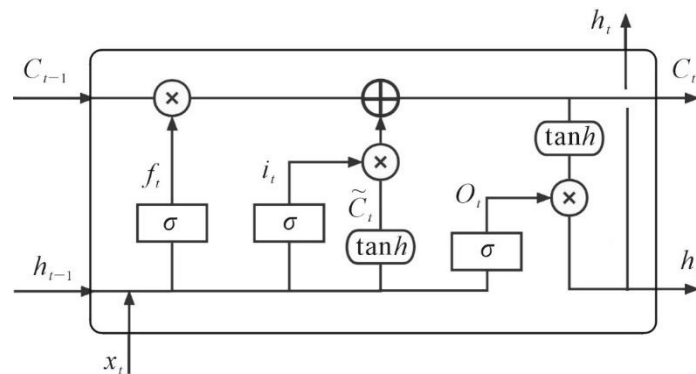


Fig.1 Structure of a single LSTM neuron

152 LSTM is a special type of Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) that not only inherits the advantages  
 153 of RNN but also addresses the gradient vanishing and gradient exploding problems present in RNNs  
 154 (Zhou et al., 2019). It is widely used in time series processing and prediction. Different from regular  
 155 RNNs, the core concept of LSTM lies in the cell state and gate structure. The cell state ensures that  
 156 information can be passed down the sequence, while the gate structure determines which information  
 157 should be saved or forgotten during the training process. This unique network structure enables LSTM  
 158 to capture long-term dependencies in time series while learning current information, making it more  
 159 suitable for processing and predicting events with longer intervals and delays in time series. The  
 160 structure of a single LSTM neuron is shown in **Fig.2**. Below are the formal representations of the three  
 161 gates in LSTM:

$$162 \quad f_t = \sigma(W_f \cdot [h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_f) \quad (3)$$

$$163 \quad i_t = \sigma(W_i \cdot [h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_i) \quad (4)$$

$$164 \quad \tilde{C}_t = \tanh(W_C \cdot [h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_C) \quad (5)$$

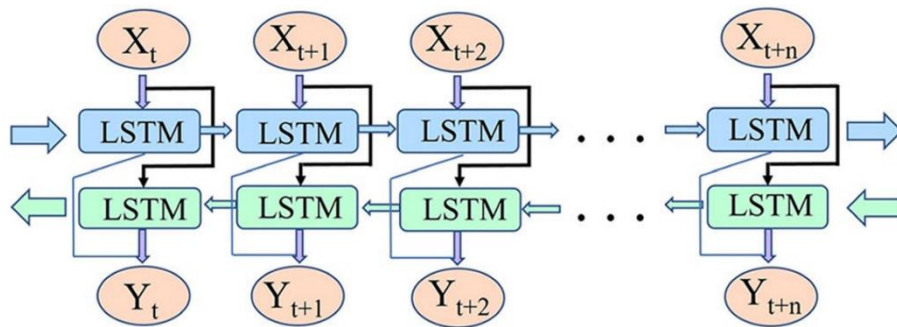
$$165 \quad C_t = f_t * C_{t-1} + i_t * \tilde{C}_t \quad (6)$$

$$166 \quad O_t = \sigma(W_O [h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_O) \quad (7)$$

$$167 \quad h_t = O_t * \tanh(C_t) \quad (8)$$

168 Here,  $W_f$ ,  $W_i$ ,  $W_C$  and  $W_O$  are the weight matrices;  $b_f$ ,  $b_i$ ,  $b_C$  and  $b_O$  are the bias vectors;  
 169  $h_{t-1}$  and  $h_t$  are the input at the previous time step and the output at the current time step, respectively;  
 170  $C_{t-1}$  and  $C_t$  are the cell states at the previous and current time steps, respectively;  $\tilde{C}_t$  is the  
 171 information state passing through the input gate; and  $\sigma$  represents the sigmoid function.

172 Traditional neural networks are always trained through forward propagation, which cannot fully  
 173 exploit the inherent information in daily runoff time series and results in low data utilization. The  
 174 structure of the BiLSTM network model is shown in **Fig.2**. Compared with the traditional  
 175 unidirectional LSTM network, its prominent feature is the construction of a bidirectional recurrent  
 176 neural network that includes both forward and backward propagation, overcoming the deficiency of  
 177 insufficient data mining in the unidirectional LSTM neural network.



**Fig.2** BiLSTM model structure

178 To use VMD-BiLSTM for daily runoff prediction, the runoff sequence needs to be decomposed by  
 179 VMD first, thus obtaining multiple stationary intrinsic mode functions ( $IMF_{(i=1 \sim n)}$ ) and a trend

180 component ( $\tau$ ). Then, the obtained components are normalized and the input and output of the LSTM  
 181 model are finally determined. This model has good predictive performance and can be used for runoff  
 182 prediction at different time scales.

### 183 3.1.1 MIKE21

184 MIKE21 is a numerical hydrodynamic model developed by the Danish DHI company, which can  
 185 be used for simulating and analyzing processes such as water movement, water quality, and sediment  
 186 transport (Ramteke et al., 2020). MIKE21 is one of the widely used hydrodynamic models, and it can  
 187 be adjusted for different levels of model accuracy and complexity according to various application  
 188 scenarios and requirements. The MIKE21 model is based on numerical methods and physical equations  
 189 and can simulate and analyze the hydrodynamic and water quality characteristics of different water  
 190 bodies such as oceans, rivers, lakes, and reservoirs. The core of the model is the description of physical  
 191 processes such as convection, diffusion, turbulence, material transport, and sedimentation, which can  
 192 accurately calculate the changes in water parameters such as flow velocity, water level, water  
 193 temperature, salinity, dissolved oxygen, nutrients, and suspended matter. In terms of environmental  
 194 protection, MIKE21 can be used for predicting and analyzing pollutant diffusion and transport,  
 195 providing a basis for environmental monitoring and emergency response. When coupled with the  
 196 Ecolab module, it can effectively simulate the diffusion process of non-point source pollution.

197 MIKE21 uses the Hydrodynamic (HD) module for water movement simulation. The HD module  
 198 is the core and basic computational module of MIKE21. It is based on the control equation of  
 199 three-dimensional flow, which can be integrated along the water depth, averaged along the water depth,  
 200 and can obtain the two-dimensional shallow water flow averaged along the water depth. The equation  
 201 is represented as:

$$202 \quad \frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial q}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial d}{\partial t} \quad (9)$$

$$203 \quad \frac{\partial p}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{p^2}{h} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{pq}{h} \right) + gh \left( \frac{\partial \xi}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{gp\sqrt{p^2+q^2}}{C^2h^2} \quad (10)$$

$$204 \quad -\frac{1}{\rho} \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (h\tau_{xx}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (h\tau_{xy}) \right] - \Omega q - fVV_x + \frac{h}{\rho} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} p_a = 0 \quad (11)$$

$$205 \quad \frac{\partial p}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{p^2}{h} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{pq}{h} \right) + gh \left( \frac{\partial \xi}{\partial y} \right) + \frac{gp\sqrt{p^2+q^2}}{C^2h^2} \quad (12)$$

$$206 \quad -\frac{1}{\rho} \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (h\tau_{xy}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (h\tau_{xx}) \right] - \Omega q - fVV_y + \frac{h}{\rho} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} p_a = 0 \quad (13)$$

207 Here,  $f = 2\omega \sin \phi$ ,  $\xi$  is the free water level, m.  $t$  is time, d.  $x, y$  are spatial coordinates, m.  $p, q$   
 208 is the flow densities in the  $x$  and  $y$  direction, respectively,  $m^2/s$ .  $d$  is the water depth, m.  $h$  is the  
 209 water depth, m.  $g$  is the acceleration of gravity,  $m^2/s$ ,  $g=9.8m^2/s$ .  $C$  is the Chézy coefficient,  
 210  $m^{1/2}/s$ .  $\rho$  is the density of water,  $kg/m^3$ .  $\tau_{xx}, \tau_{xy}, \tau_{yy}$  are the horizontal shear stress in the  
 211  $x$ -direction, the vertical shear stress in the  $x$ -direction, and the vertical shear stress in the  $y$ -direction,  
 212  $P_a$ .  $\Omega q$  is the Coriol coefficient.  $f$  is the wind resistance coefficient.  $V, V_x, V_y$  is the wind speed and  
 213 the wind speed components in the  $x$  and  $y$  directions, m/s.  $P$  is atmospheric pressure,  $P_a$ .

214 The water quality simulation is carried out using the Ecolab module, which is a new water quality  
 215 and aquatic ecology tool developed by the Danish Hydraulic Research Institute (DHI) based on the

216 concept of traditional water quality modules. The transport equation in the water body is as follows:

$$217 \quad \frac{\partial h\bar{c}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial h\bar{u}\bar{c}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial h\bar{v}\bar{c}}{\partial y} = h \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( D_h \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( D_h \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) \right] \bar{c} - hk_p \bar{c} + hC_s \quad (14)$$

218 Here,  $C_s$  is the concentration of the scalar variable.  $D_h$  is the horizontal diffusion coefficient.  $t$  is  
219 the time.  $k_p$  is the scalar solution coefficient.

220 The calculation formula for the water quality model is as follows:

$$221 \quad \frac{\partial c}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial c}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial c}{\partial y} + w \frac{\partial c}{\partial z} = D_x \frac{\partial^2 c}{\partial x^2} + D_y \frac{\partial^2 c}{\partial y^2} + D_z \frac{\partial^2 c}{\partial z^2} + S_c + P_c \quad (15)$$

222 Here,  $c$ —concentration of Ecolab state variable.  $u$ ,  $v$ ,  $w$ —The flow velocity component of the  
223 convection term.  $D_x$ ,  $D_y$ ,  $D_z$ —The dispersion coefficient of the diffusion term.  $S_c$ —Source and sink  
224 items.  $P_c$ —Biochemical reactions of Ecolab.

### 225 3.2 Data input and model setup

226 MIKE21 simulates the water environment through two modules: the hydrodynamic (HD) module  
227 and the water quality (Ecolab) module. In this study, we obtained 30m-resolution DEM data for the  
228 research area through the Geospatial Data Cloud (www.gsccloud.cn) and combined it with remote  
229 sensing imagery for analysis and processing, resulting in topographic data for the Weihe River basin  
230 from Xianyang City to Weinan City in Shaanxi Province. To predict hydrological information for a  
231 period in the future, we obtained historical hydrological measurement data from the Xianyang and Hua  
232 County hydrological stations through the Shaanxi Provincial Water Resources Bureau, which was  
233 strictly processed and used to train the VMD-BiLSTM model. We used the predicted values from the  
234 model as boundary data input to the MIKE21 hydrodynamic (HD) module. We also obtained  
235 monitoring data at Xianyang Tiejiao, Xinfeng Town Bridge, and Shawangdu, three China's National  
236 Surface Water Environmental Quality Monitoring Points, from the China National Environmental  
237 Monitoring Center (<http://www.cnemc.cn>), to analyze the water quality situation in the Weihe River  
238 within the research area and to input it as upstream water quality boundary conditions for the MIKE21  
239 water quality (Ecolab) module.

240 Based on the main non-point source pollutants and the water quality status of the Weihe River in  
241 the research area, this study selected BOD,  $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$ , and TP as the main water quality indicators in the  
242 water quality (Ecolab) module. Using the data provided by the China National Environmental  
243 Monitoring Center, we set the initial water quality conditions for the Weihe River in the study area to  
244 the Class V water quality standard in the Surface Water Environmental Quality Standards of the  
245 People's Republic of China, with the pollutant concentrations for each standard shown in **Table.1**.

246 **Table 1**

247 Surface water environmental quality standard (GB3838-2002) unit: mg/L

Serial number	State variables	I	II	III	IV	V
1	$\text{DO} \geq$	7.5	6	5	3	2
2	$\text{NH}_3\text{-N} \leq$	0.15	0.5	1	1.5	2
3	$\text{TP} \leq$	0.02	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4
4	COD	15	15	20	30	40

248 In the research area, where all wastewater sources are treated by wastewater treatment plants, this  
249 model focuses on NPS pollution and excludes the interference of incoming water pollution. The



250 locations where non-point source pollution enters the river are determined by the intersection of the  
251 river channel and the sub-catchments along the riverbank, while the sub-catchments are delineated by  
252 the elevation and stormwater pipes within the research area. The model identifies 137 NPS pollution  
253 sources, which can be classified into urban pollution sources and rural pollution sources. We applied  
254 the EcoHydrological Assessment Tools (EcoHAT) model to generate NPS pollutant loads (Dong et al.,  
255 2014), including COD, NH<sub>3</sub>-N, and TP, for each pollution source. The calculated pollution load results  
256 are used as input data for water quality modeling in MIKE21. Other water quality parameters were  
257 determined from previous relevant research and measured data for the Weihe River basin. Coupling  
258 catchment pollutant loads and water environment models ensures the accuracy of input data compared  
259 to empirical formulas and assumptions. A description of the two simulation schemes can be found in  
260 this study's flowchart **Fig.3**.

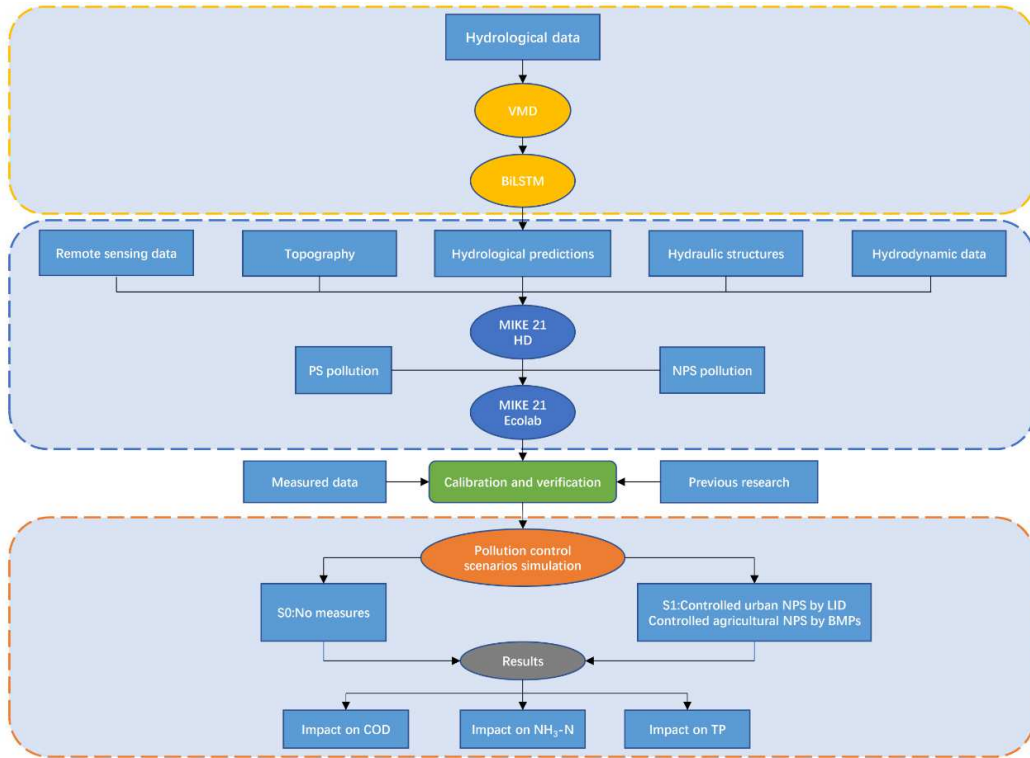


Fig.3 The flowchart of this study

262 **3.3 Evaluation criteria of model performance**

263 In this study, we assess the model's performance using three statistical indicators:  $R^2$ , MAPE, and  
 264 NSE, to ensure the accuracy of the model output data. These indicators have been widely used in  
 265 previous research and can effectively represent the relationship between the model output values and  
 266 the actual values. The specific descriptions of the indicators are as follows:

267 **3.3.1 Correlation index ( $R^2$ )**

268 
$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (M_i - S_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N (M_i - \bar{M}_i)^2 \sum_{i=1}^N (S_i - \bar{S}_i)^2} \quad (16)$$

269 Where  $M$  is the measured value,  $S$  is simulated value,  $N$  is the number of data sequence,  $\bar{M}$  is  
 270 the mean value of the measured value.  $\bar{S}_i$  is mean value of simulated value. The value of  $R^2$  ranges  
 271 from 0 to 1 with model accuracy are considered to be excellent for  $R^2$  values above 0.85, perfect for  
 272  $R^2$  values between 0.65 and 0.85, good for values between 0.5 to 0.65, and poor for values below  
 273 0.5 (Henriksen et al., 2003)

274 **3.3.2 Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency (NSE)**

275 
$$NSE = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (M_i - S_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N (M_i - \bar{M}_i)^2} \quad (18)$$

276 Where all variables are defined as in eq1. The value of NSE ranges from minus infinity to 1 with  
 277 model accuracy increasing as the NSE value approaches 1. A negative NSE value indicates that the  
 278 simulated value is far from the measured value and unsatisfactory simulation result (Yang et al., 2018).

279 **3.3.3 Mean absolute percentage error (MAPE)**

280 
$$MAPE = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{|M_i - S_i|}{M_i} \times \frac{100}{N} \quad (17)$$

281 Where all variables are defined as in Eq1. Model accuracy increases as MAPE value approaches 0.

282 **3.4 Data decomposition and noise reduction processing**

283 We applied VMD to decompose a total of 4748 daily runoff time series data of the Weihe River in  
284 the study area from 2010 to 2022, and the decomposition results are shown in Fig.4.

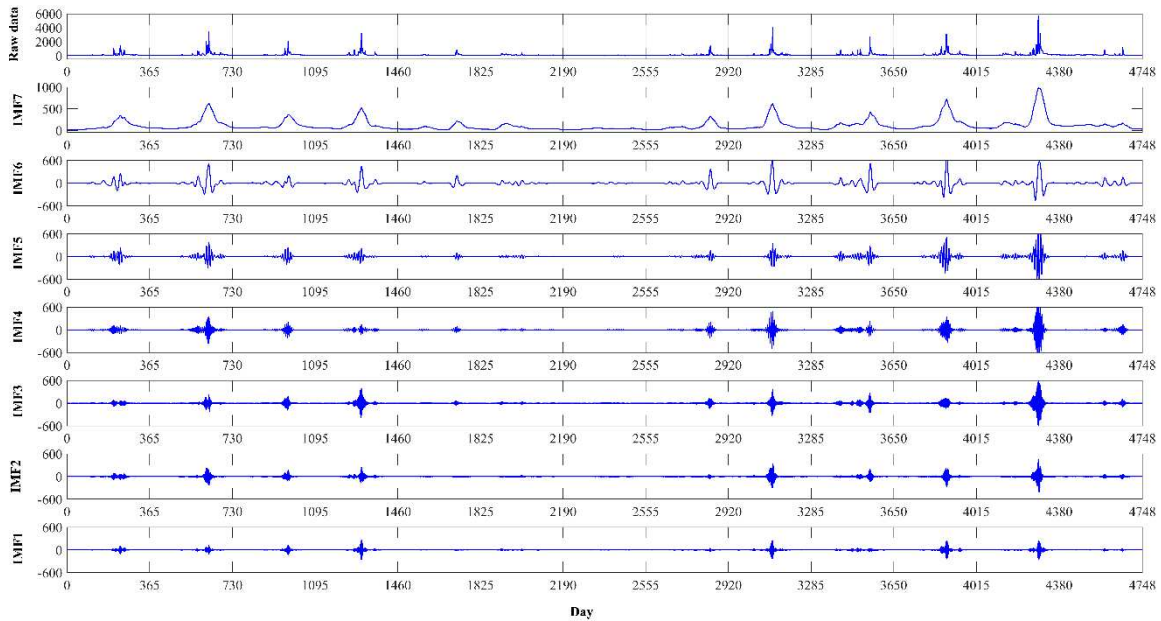


Fig.4 VMD of runoff sequence

285 From the Fig.4, it can be seen that the original daily runoff time series was decomposed into seven  
286 components ranging from high to low frequency, i.e., IMF1, IMF2, ..., IMF<sub>n</sub>. With the increase of data  
287 volume, it not only reduces noise but also identifies the hidden periodic oscillation changes in the  
288 runoff sequence, which helps the model to better analyze the intrinsic transformation rules of the time  
289 series and improve the prediction effect.

290 **3.5 Runoff forecast**

291 When using BiLSTM to predict runoff, we processed a total of 4,380 days of daily runoff data for  
292 the Weihe River from 2010 to 2021 as the training set, and 365 days of daily runoff data for 2022 as the  
293 test set. First, we apply the wavelet signal denoising(WSD) algorithm to denoise the high-frequency  
294 components obtained after decomposition. Then, the denoised results and low-frequency components  
295 are jointly input into the BiLSTM model to obtain the predicted values of each component. After  
296 extensive testing, we set the number of hidden units to 200, the gradient threshold to 1, and the initial  
297 learn rate to 0.005. After 125 rounds of training, we set the learn rate drop factor to 0.2 to reduce the  
298 learning rate. The prediction results of each component were then reconstructed to obtain the daily  
299 runoff prediction data for the Weihe River in 2022, and the comparison between the prediction data and  
300 the original data of the test set is shown in Fig.5. Evaluating the VMD-BiLSTM prediction results for  
301 the test set, we obtained an NSE of 0.89, R<sup>2</sup> of 0.92, and MAPE of 8.39%. As can be seen from Fig.5,  
302 VMD-BiLSTM cannot accurately predict flood peak flows during the flood season; nevertheless, the  
303 overall prediction effect for annual runoff is quite good. The R<sup>2</sup>, MAPE, and NSE indicators  
304 demonstrate the accuracy of the prediction results, suggesting that using VMD-BiLSTM to predict the  
305 Weihe River runoff is feasible. Finally, we used a total of 4,748 days of daily runoff data from 2010 to  
306 2022 as the training set, predicted 365 days of daily runoff data for the Weihe River in 2023, and used  
307 it as the upstream boundary data for the water environment model to simulate non-point source  
308 pollution for the next year.

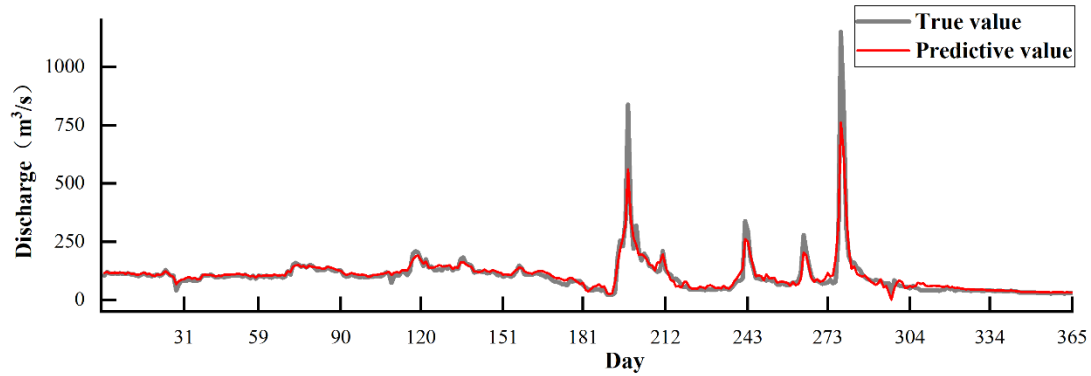


Fig.5 Model prediction curve

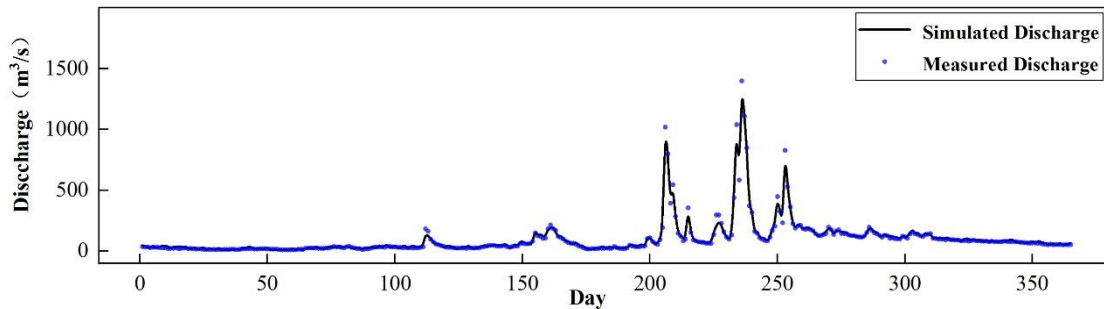
309

### 310 3.6 MIKE21 model calibration and verification

311 In this study, the model is calibrated by comparing its output data with the measured hydrological  
 312 data from 2010. The roughness Manning coefficient is selected within the range of 0.022-0.03 sm<sup>1/3</sup>  
 313 using the trial-and-error method. The initial water depth and initial flow rate are determined through  
 314 measured data. The simulation process starts from January 1, 2010, and ends on December 31, 2010,  
 315 with a time step of 30 seconds. The accuracy of the model is evaluated based on R<sup>2</sup>, MAPE, and NSE,  
 316 as shown in Table 2. The comparative analysis of the model output data and the measured hydrological  
 317 data is presented in Fig.6.

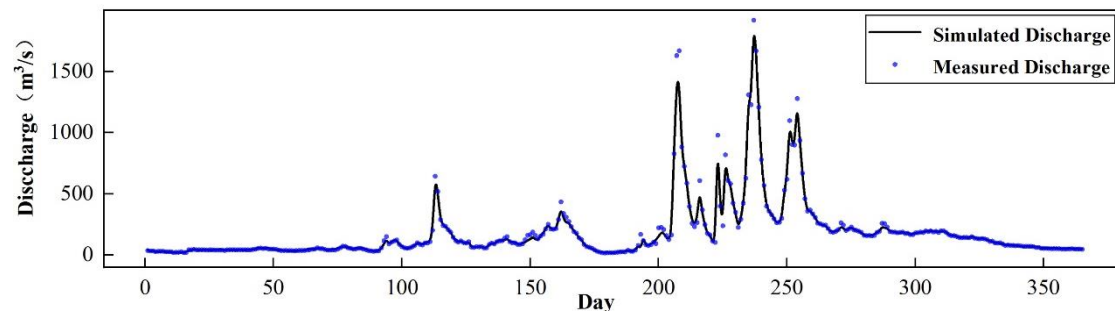
318

#### Xianyang hydrological station



319

#### Huaxian hydrological station



320 Fig.6 Measured and simulated values of hydrodynamic parameters for calibration: (a)  
 321 discharge at Xianyang station and (b) discharge at Huaxian station.

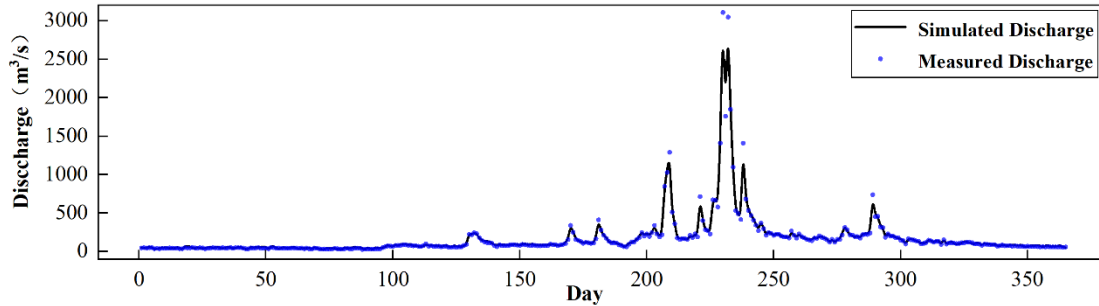
322 As shown in the Fig.6, the variables output by the model are similar to the measured data. From  
 323 the comparison chart, it can be seen that the model cannot accurately predict flood peak flow during the  
 324 flood season. Despite this, the R<sup>2</sup>, MAPE, and NSE values of the model reach 0.91, 0.93, and 14.9%,  
 325 respectively, indicating that the model has relatively high accuracy.

326 The hydrodynamic simulation performance of the model is verified by comparing the measured

327 hydrological data from 2020 and the model output results. The simulation period is from January 1,  
 328 2018, to December 31, 2018, with a time step set to 20 seconds. The values of  $R^2$ , MAPE, and NSE are  
 329 shown in **Table 2**. The comparative analysis of measured values and model output results can be seen  
 330 in **Fig.7**.

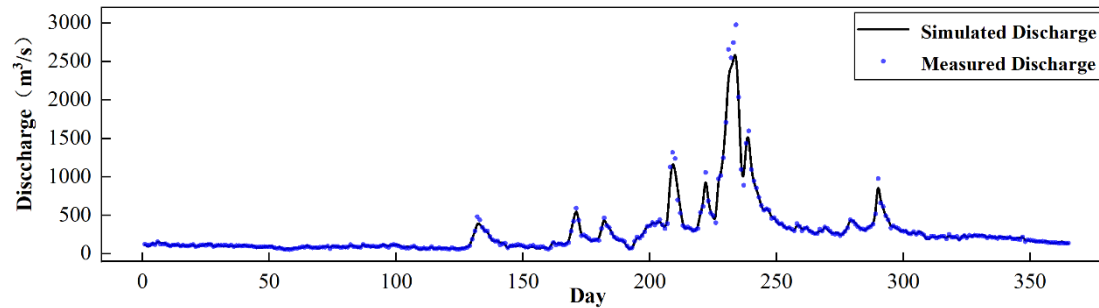
331

### Xianyang hydrological station



332

### Huaxian hydrological station



333 **Fig.7** Measured and simulated values of hydrodynamic parameters for model verification: (a)  
 334 discharge at Xianyang station and (b) discharge at Huaxian station.

335 As shown in the **Fig.7**, the model output results and the measured values show the same trend.  
 336 Similar to the model calibration, the model cannot accurately predict peak flow rates. Although there is  
 337 some mismatch between the model output results and the measured values, the  $R^2$ , MAPE, and NSE  
 338 indicators demonstrate the reliability of the model.

339 **Table 2**

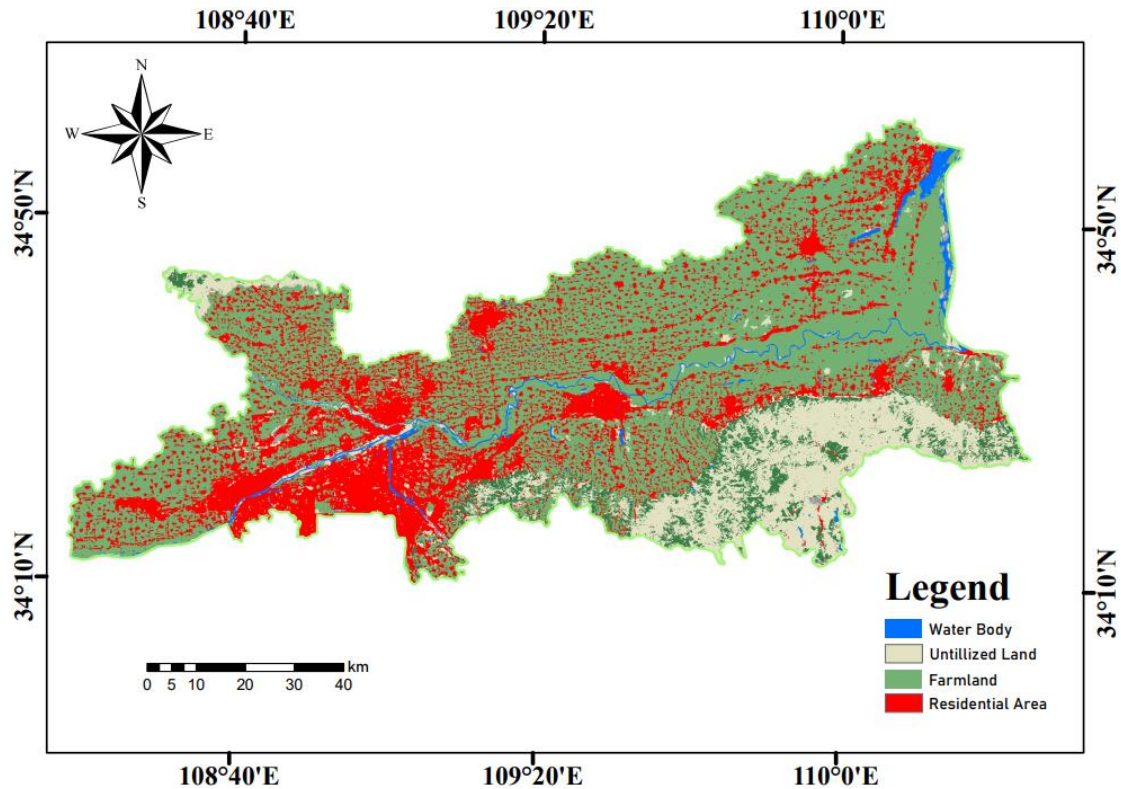
340 Statistics for model calibration and verification

Sampling station	Period	Hydrodynamic Parameters	$NSE$	$R^2$	$MAPE$
Xianyang	Calibration	Discharge	0.93	0.94	23.5%
Xianyang	Verification	Discharge	0.89	0.91	19.1%
Huaxian	Calibration	Discharge	0.87	0.89	14.9%
Huaxian	Verification	Discharge	0.91	0.93	11.2%

341 With the limitations of limited available data, the overall performance of the model in reproducing  
 342 the water environment in the study area is acceptable. Due to the lack of long-term water quality  
 343 monitoring stations and historical measured data in the study area, water quality parameters were not  
 344 calibrated or validated. We referred to previous relevant studies on the Weihe River Basin and selected  
 345 the relevant water quality parameters. The decay coefficients of COD,  $NH_3-N$ , and TP were set to 0.43,  
 346 0.3, and 0.037 per day, respectively, and the diffusion coefficient was set to 15.

### 347 3.7 NPS pollution control scenarios

348 The land use analysis of the study area is shown in **Fig.8**. The western part of the study area is  
 349 highly urbanized, with densely populated residential areas, while the eastern part consists of large areas  
 350 of farmland mixed with a small portion of urban residential areas. This study simulates and compares



**Fig.8** Land use in the study area

351 the results of two different scenarios to predict the water quality response after implementing the NPS  
 352 pollution emission control measures, including agricultural NPS pollution and urban NPS pollution.  
 353 Urban roads, residential areas, and unused land are the main causes of urban NPS pollution, and we  
 354 assume that only NPS pollution generates COD. Previous research reports have shown that Low Impact  
 355 Development (LID) facilities can reduce the concentrations of COD, NH<sub>3</sub>-N, and TP from urban  
 356 pollution sources by 35%, 35%, and 40%, respectively. Therefore, in scenario S1, LID facilities such as  
 357 bioretention ponds, permeable pavements, and grass swales are set up to regulate urban NPS pollution.  
 358 On the other hand, farmland and grassland are the main sources of agricultural nonpoint source  
 359 pollution; currently, Best Management Practices (BMPs) including soil and water conservation,  
 360 reducing fertilizer use, and putting vegetative filter strips in places are widely used for agricultural NPS  
 361 pollution control to reduce NH<sub>3</sub>-N and TP concentrations in pollution sources. Previous studies have  
 362 shown that BMPs can reduce NH<sub>3</sub>-N and TP concentrations by 35% and 40%, respectively. In S1  
 363 (scenario 1), we consider the combined effects of LID facilities and BMPs. In S0(scenario 0), no  
 364 measures are taken to control NPS pollution, and by comparing S0 and S1, we can more clearly see the  
 365 water quality response after implementing NPS pollution emission control measures. In addition, all  
 366 wastewater discharges in the study area are treated by wastewater treatment plants, which can eliminate  
 367 the interference from other pollution sources.

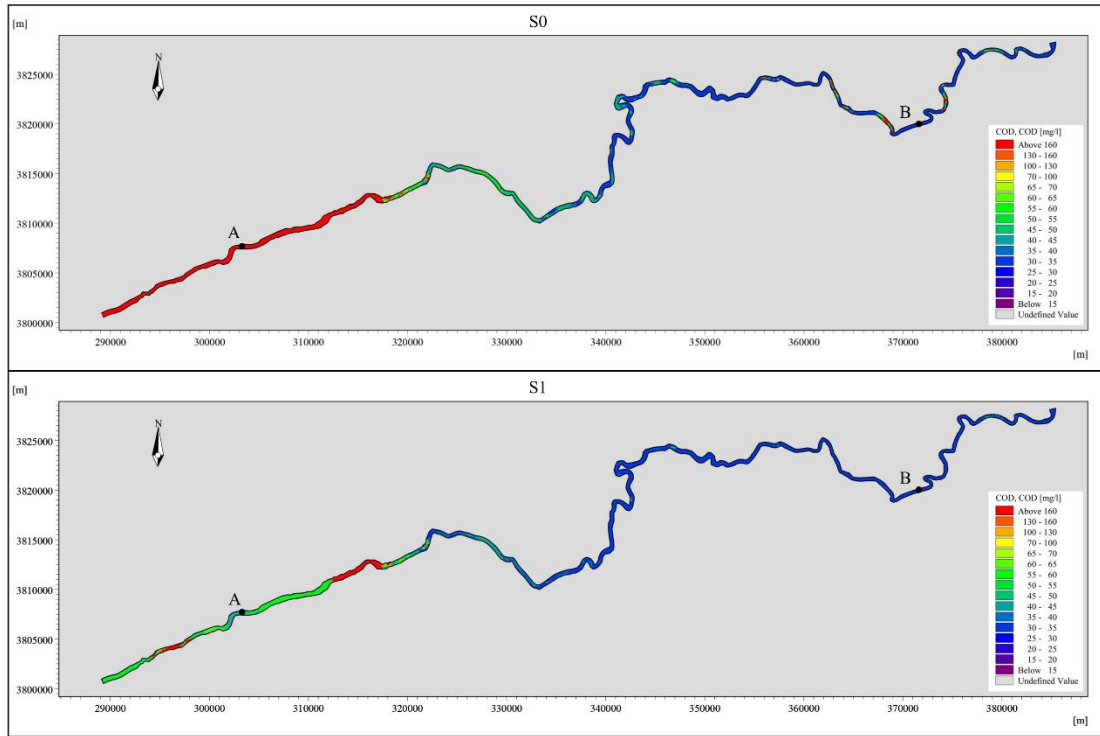
#### 368 **4 Result and discussion**

369 We used the water quality predictions for a flood season in 2023 generated by the VMD-BiLSTM  
 370 model to highlight the impact of pollution emission control schemes on river pollutant concentrations



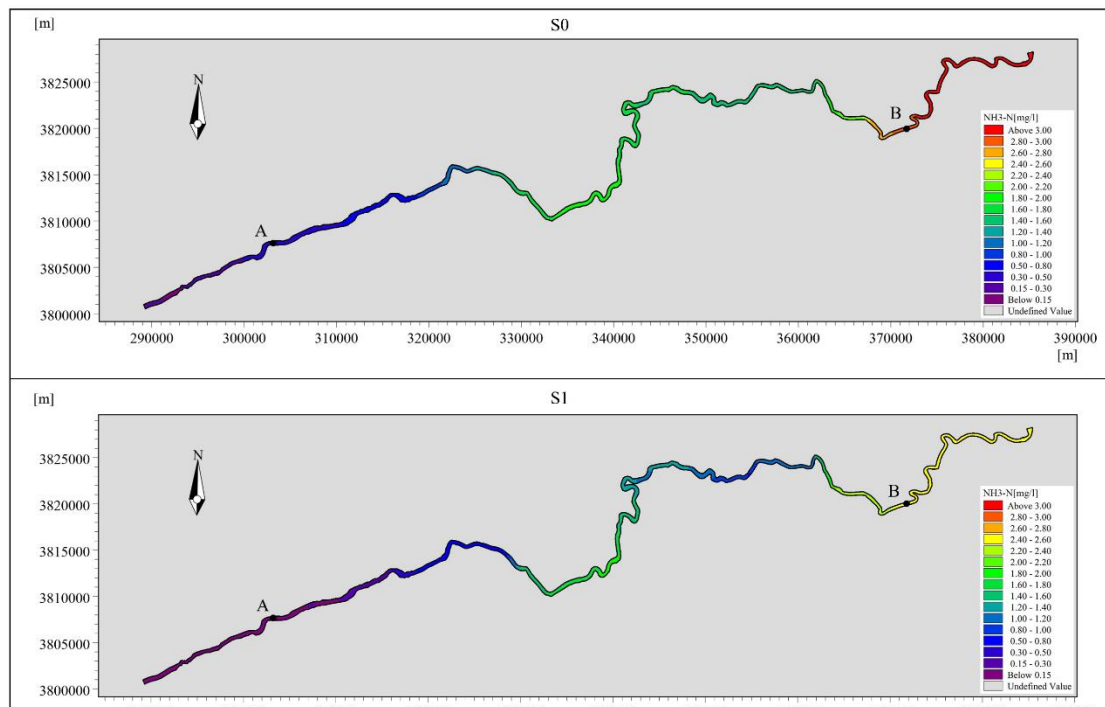
371 under different scenarios. We selected two sections near the main NPS pollution sources to analyze  
 372 river pollution under different land use types. Section A is located near the Xinfeng Town Bridge in  
 373 Xi'an City, surrounded by highly urbanized land and densely populated residential areas. Section B is  
 374 located near the Shawangdu in Weinan City, mainly surrounded by cultivated land. Both sections have  
 375 measured water quality data from China's National Surface Water Environmental Quality Monitoring  
 376 Points available for analysis.

377 **4.1 Effect of different scenarios on COD**



**Fig.9** Effects of different scenarios on COD

378 The impact of different scenarios on COD is shown in **Fig.9**. Since we assume that only urban  
 379 NPS pollution generates COD, the impact of different scenarios on the COD concentration near Section  
 380 A is more significant. In S0, the part of the Weihe River passing through densely populated residential  
 381 areas is severely polluted, with COD concentrations exceeding 160 mg/L. At the same time, the  
 382 downstream part of the river is also polluted. In the river sections surrounded by cultivated land, the  
 383 COD concentration is mainly below 40 mg/L. In S1, some parts of the Weihe River surrounded by  
 384 urban areas still experience continuous severe pollution, but for the most part, especially near Section  
 385 A, the COD concentration is significantly lower than in Scenario 0. Compared to Scenario 0, the water  
 386 quality of the river sections surrounded by cultivated land is higher, with the majority of COD  
 387 concentrations below 30 mg/L. The implementation of Scenario 1 results in a 71.3% reduction in COD  
 388 concentration at Section A compared to Scenario 0, and a 22.1% reduction at Section B.



**Fig.10** Effects of different scenarios on NH<sub>3</sub>-N

390 The water quality response of NH<sub>3</sub>-N under different scenarios is shown in **Fig.10**. In S0, the  
 391 water quality pollution is most severe in the northeastern part of the study area, where the river is  
 392 surrounded by a large amount of cultivated land, with NH<sub>3</sub>-N concentrations exceeding 3 mg/L. In S1,  
 393 due to the reduction of agricultural non-point source pollution, the water quality of the northeastern  
 394 river has improved significantly compared to S0, with NH<sub>3</sub>-N concentrations in most areas being lower  
 395 than in S0. Compared to S0, the NH<sub>3</sub>-N concentration at Section A decreased by 17.1%, and the  
 396 concentration at Section B decreased by 31.4%. These results indicate that controlling non-point source  
 397 pollution emissions can have a significant effect on improving river water quality, especially for  
 398 agricultural non-point source pollution. Therefore, when considering economic value, controlling  
 399 agricultural pollution has a greater impact on the treatment of NH<sub>3</sub>-N in rivers.



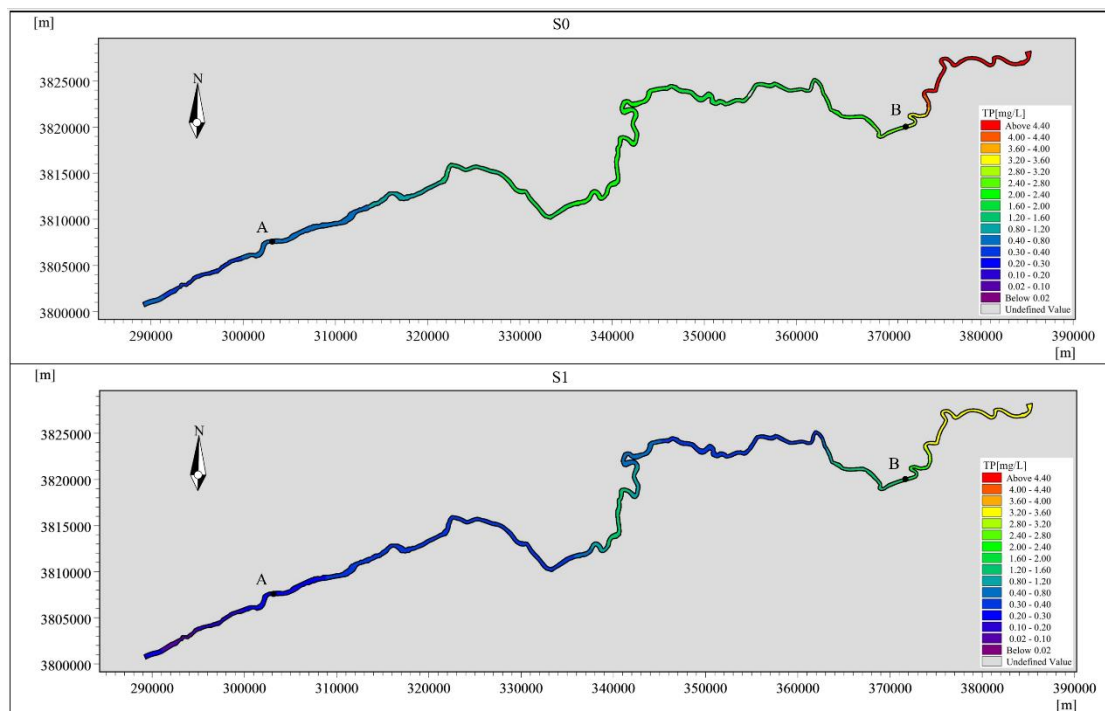


Fig.11 Effects of different scenarios on TP

401 The impact of different scenarios on TP in rivers is shown in **Fig.11**. In Scenario 0, most of the  
 402 river areas are severely polluted. In Scenario 1, due to the reduction of agricultural NPS pollution, the  
 403 TP concentration in the northeastern river surrounded by cultivated land in the study area is  
 404 significantly lower than in Scenario 0. At the same time, the water quality around Section A also  
 405 improves to some extent, with a decrease in TP concentration. However, in almost all areas of the two  
 406 scenarios, TP concentrations exceed 0.3 mg/L, indicating severe river pollution. By comparing  
 407 Scenario 0 with Scenario 1, we can conclude that controlling agricultural NPS pollution can generally  
 408 improve water quality, as agricultural activities are the main source of TP. If measures to control both  
 409 urban and agricultural non-point source pollution emissions are implemented simultaneously, the water  
 410 quality in the study area will continue to improve. However, as the river water quality in most areas is  
 411 below Class IV, more effective measures should be implemented to reduce TP.

412 Compared to Scenario 0, in Scenario 1, the TP concentration at Section A decreased by 23.7%,  
 413 while the concentration at Section B decreased by 43.1%. These results indicate that TP concentrations  
 414 in rivers vary with different land use types and the implementation of emission reduction measures. TP  
 415 concentrations in river areas surrounded by cultivated land are significantly higher than those in areas  
 416 surrounded by densely populated residential areas, and the effect of controlling agricultural NPS  
 417 pollution on reducing TP concentrations in rivers is more significant than controlling urban NPS  
 418 pollution.

#### 419 4.4 Discussion

420 Previous studies have widely documented the ability of water environment-water dynamics  
 421 coupling models to simulate and control NPS pollution and support local environmental policies.  
 422 However, these studies lack attention to predicting hydrological conditions and analyzing water quality.  
 423 This study fills this gap and designs a comprehensive framework for runoff prediction-water

424 dynamics-pollution load-water environment simulation to evaluate the impact of NPS pollution control  
425 scenarios on the water quality of the Weihe River from Xianyang City to Weinan City. During the  
426 calibration and validation phase, the NSE values for simulating flow and water level were both higher  
427 than 0.87, and the  $R^2$  values were higher than 0.89, indicating good performance in simulating  
428 hydrological and water dynamics processes. Due to limited available data, the overall performance of  
429 the model in the study area is acceptable.

430 Numerous studies have shown the effectiveness of LID and BMPs in influencing the transport of  
431 NPS pollutants and improving water quality. In this study, scenario analysis is used to explore the  
432 water quality response to implementing LID and BMPs measures to control urban and agricultural NPS  
433 pollution. In scenario S0 without pollution control measures, the concentration distribution patterns of  
434  $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$  and TP are relatively consistent, while that of COD is different, especially at section A. This  
435 may be due to the different characteristics of pollutant emissions in different land use areas. For section  
436 B surrounded by agriculture-dominated areas, farmland, livestock, poultry, fertilizer application, and  
437 household wastewater may be the main sources of  $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$  and TP. The correlation between  $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$  and  
438 COD cannot be determined.

439 The results of two design scenarios show that reducing agricultural NPS pollution through BMPs  
440 is key to reducing  $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$  and TP concentrations. However, controlling COD pollution through LID to  
441 regulate urban NPS pollution sources is crucial, consistent with previous research conclusions.  
442 Residential and road construction sites are mainly located in the southwest of the study area, so it is  
443 recommended to strengthen the control of urban non-point source pollution from the source, migration,  
444 and terminal aspects. Proposed protective measures include controlling initial rainfall runoff by  
445 arranging distributed sponges, wetlands, and permeable roads, and setting up ecological embankments  
446 and buffer zones on both sides of the river. On the other hand, farmland and rural areas are mainly  
447 located in the northeast of the study area. To reduce agricultural non-point source pollution, it is  
448 recommended to improve the fertilizer application structure of farmland and regulate the operation of  
449 livestock and poultry farming. In addition, ecological embankments and buffer zones should also be set  
450 up on both sides of farmland ditches or ecological ditches should be constructed.

451 In the VMD-LSTM, MIKE21, and EcoHAT coupling system, we believe that only urban NPS  
452 pollution produces COD, while in reality, agricultural activities also produce COD. Because there are  
453 few water quality monitoring stations in the study area and lack long-term water quality monitoring  
454 data, the water quality parameters in the model have not been calibrated and rely on previous research  
455 results from the same or adjacent areas. These deficiencies need to be further improved.

## 456 **5. Conclusions**

457 In this study, we used VMD-LSTM coupled with MIKE21 to construct a water environment  
458 model for the Weihe River from Xianyang City to Weinan City. We predicted the water quality  
459 response within the next year after the implementation of urban and agricultural NPS pollution  
460 reduction measures and evaluated the effectiveness of these measures in improving water quality.

461 We predicted runoff data for a future period using VMD-LSTM and input it into the water  
462 environment model, enabling the model to better predict the water quality response within a future  
463 period after the implementation of emission reduction measures. In Scenario 0, we did not set any  
464 measures to control NPS emissions, while in Scenario 1, we implemented LID and BMPs to control

465 NPS emissions. During the flood season, the highest reduction in COD concentrations was 71.3%,  
466 NH<sub>3</sub>-N concentrations decreased by up to 31.4%, and TP concentrations decreased by up to 43.1%.  
467 This indicates that the water quality of the Weihe River from Xianyang City to Weinan City can be  
468 significantly improved by controlling NPS pollution emissions. However, in Scenario 1, the water  
469 quality in most regions of the river still falls below the Chinese Water Quality Standard Level IV,  
470 suggesting that more effective measures are needed to reduce TP.

471 The results also show that the water quality response varies with different land-use types and the  
472 implementation of reduction measures. Controlling agricultural NPS pollution emissions has a more  
473 significant effect on improving river water quality. Therefore, when considering economic value,  
474 priority can be given to controlling agricultural NPS pollution emissions through BMPs and other  
475 means.

476 This study provides a basis for decision-making in water environment management, especially in  
477 controlling NPS pollution emissions, in the Weihe River Basin of Shaanxi Province.

478 **Declarations**

479 **Ethical Approval**

480 Not applicable.

481 **Competing interest**

482 The authors have no competing interests as defined by Springer, or other interests that might be  
483 perceived to influence the results and/or discussion reported in this paper.

484 **Authors' contributions**

485 Xianqi Zhang and Yu Qi wrote the main manuscript text. Fang Liu, Haiyang Li and Shifeng Sun  
486 prepared all figures. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

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489 **Availability of data and materials**

490 All datasets used can be accessed.

491

492 **Reference**

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