

Seamless integration of convolutional and back-propagation neural networks for regional multi-step-ahead PM_{2.5} forecasting

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Abstract

The fine particulate matter (e.g. PM_{2.5}) gains an increasing concern of human health deterioration. Modelling PM_{2.5} concentrations remains a substantial challenge due to the limited understanding of the dynamic processes as well as uncertainties residing in the emission data and their projections. This study proposed a hybrid model (CNN-BP) engaging a Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) and a Back Propagation Neural Network (BPNN) to make accurate PM_{2.5} forecasts for multiple stations at multiple horizons at the same time. The hourly datasets of six air quality and two meteorological factors collected from 73 air quality monitoring stations in Taiwan during 2017 formed the case study. A total of 639,480 hourly datasets were collected and allocated into training (409,238, 64%), validation (102,346, 16%), and testing

1 26 (127,896, 20%) stages. The forecasts of $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations were first characterized
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4 27 as a function of air quality and meteorological variables. Then the proposed CNN-BP
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7 28 approach effectively learned the dominant features of input data and simultaneously
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10 29 produced accurate regional multi-step-ahead $PM_{2.5}$ forecasts (73 stations; $t+1-t+10$).
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13 30 The results demonstrate that the proposed CNN-BP model is remarkably superior to
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16 31 the BPNN, the random forest and the long short term memory neural network models
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19 32 owing to its higher forecast accuracy and excellence in creating reliable regional
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22 33 multi-step-ahead $PM_{2.5}$ forecasts. Besides, the CNN-BP model not only has the power
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25 34 to cope with the curse of dimensionality by adequately handling heterogeneous inputs
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28 35 with relatively large time-lags but also has the capability to explore different $PM_{2.5}$
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31 36 mechanisms (local emission and transboundary transmission) for the five regions
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34 37 (R1-R5) and the whole Taiwan. This study shows that multi-site (regional) and
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37 38 multi-horizon forecasting can be achieved by exactly one model (i.e. the proposed
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40 39 CNN-BP model), hitting a new milestone. Therefore, the CNN-BP model can
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43 40 facilitate real-time $PM_{2.5}$ forecast service and the forecasts can be made publicly
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46 41 available online.
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52 42 **Keywords:** $PM_{2.5}$ forecast; Deep learning; Convolutional neural network; Back
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55 43 Propagation neural network; Multi-step-ahead forecasts; Taiwan
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1 45 **1. Introduction**
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4 46 Air quality deteriorations have attracted intensive public attention for decades,
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7 47 and fine aerosols (e.g. PM_{2.5}) in suspended particulates are one of the critical
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10 48 indicators of health hazards and air pollution. Air pollutants with particle sizes smaller
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13 49 than 2.5 microns are difficult to control. Besides, the composition of fine particles is
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16 50 too complex to be blocked by the cilia in the respiratory tract, and therefore they are
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19 51 labeled as "pulmonary particulate matter" (Kong et al., 2017; Nurkiewicz et al., 2011;
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22 52 Tang et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2018; Zhou et al., 2018). Once being inhaled, it will
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25 53 reach the lungs, invade the alveoli and enter into the blood vessels, causing serious
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28 54 harms to human health (Lai et al., 2019; Li et al., 2017; Qiu et al., 2013; Tsai and Kuo,
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31 55 2005). In recent years, air pollution caused by industrial development and
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34 56 transportation intensity upon rapid urbanization has become a severe issue in Taiwan.
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37 57 Besides, in winter a large number of aerosols are entrained in the northeast monsoon
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40 58 over the West Pacific Ocean (Hsu et al., 2006), coupled with a gradual expansion of
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43 59 long-range transboundary air pollution (Chan et al., 2006; Du et al., 2010; Hsiao et al.,
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46 60 2017; Hsu et al., 2016; Widiana et al., 2019). It is observed more and more people in
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49 61 Taiwan are substantially affected by air pollution. According to the statistics released
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52 62 by the Environmental Protection Administration in Taiwan (TW EPA), the primary
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55 63 sources of air pollution in Taiwan are building construction (37%), traffic pollution
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1 64 (23%), industrial emissions (23%) and others (17%) (EPM, 2015). This projects that
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4 65 $PM_{2.5}$ is a multi-sources pollutant in relation mainly to industrial and automobile
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7 66 emissions from physical and chemical processes (Li et al., 2019). Therefore, many
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10 67 efforts have been made to forecast $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations (Cheng et al., 2019; Fernando
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13 68 et al., 2012; Loy-Benitez et al., 2019); nevertheless, challenges have arisen in the
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16 69 course of regional multi-step-ahead forecasting when facing high spatio-temporal
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20 70 variability in $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations. This creates a thirst for in-depth research on
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23 71 modelling approaches needed for regional multi-step-ahead $PM_{2.5}$ forecasting.
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26 72 Modelling is an important tool for understanding the linkages between emissions
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29 73 and observations as well as for predicting ambient concentrations under a
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32 74 self-consistent framework. For instance, air quality forecasting is considered critical
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36 75 to early warning and control management of air pollution. Air quality forecast models
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39 76 can be broadly classified into physically-based models and machine learning models.
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42 77 Physically-based models have received extensive attention over the last decades,
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45 78 while notorious complexity and high uncertainty raised in modelling $PM_{2.5}$ has made
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48 79 their development full of thorns and challenges (Karambelas et al., 2018). Machine
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51 80 learning models such as the most commonly used Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs)
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55 81 have served to effectively characterize $PM_{2.5}$ as a function of its affecting factors for
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58 82 rapidly depicting the interdependence between air quality and meteorological systems,
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1 83 and thereby have been considered as a better choice for air quality forecasting (Cheng
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4 84 et al.,2019; Feng et al., 2015; Feng et al., 2019; Fernando et al., 2012; Gao et al., 2018;
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7 85 Loy-Benitez et al., 2019; Ma et al.,2019; Ma et al., 2020; Mihăiță et al., 2019; Wang
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10 86 et al., 2020). A variety of machine learning techniques have been used to predict PM_{2.5}
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13 87 concentrations, such as the backpropagation neural network (BPNN) (Elbayoumi et
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16 88 al., 2015), the neuro-fuzzy neural network (Ausati and Amanollahi, 2016; Mishra et
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19 89 al., 2015), the long short term memory neural network (LSTM) (Bai et al., 2019; Zhao
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23 90 et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2019a), the random forest (RF) (Liu et al., 2018; Stafoggia et
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26 91 al., 2019), and the support vector machine (SVM) (Zhou et al., 2019b). Hybridization
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29 92 approaches integrating different machine learning techniques have also been explored
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32 93 in recent years to improve PM_{2.5} prediction reliability and accuracy, with satisfactory
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35 94 forecast results (e.g. Du et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2018; Jiang, et al., 2017; Mahajan,
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38 95 et al., 2018; Mishra, et al., 2015; Niu, et al., 2016).

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42 96 It is noted that the methods mentioned above have been usually adopted to
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45 97 construct site-specific data-driven models for individual air quality monitoring station.
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48 98 High spatio-temporal variability in PM_{2.5} concentrations also occurs at plenty of
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51 99 monitoring stations spreading over a large region. These issues inevitably create great
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54 100 challenges in regional multi-step-ahead PM_{2.5} forecasting. Bearing this in mind as a
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57 101 motivation, this study intends to develop a novel hybrid deep learning model for
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1 102 multiple site/horizon $PM_{2.5}$ forecasting, with missions to extract the spatio-temporal
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4 103 correlation features and interdependence of multivariate air quality-related and
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7 104 meteorological time series data, explore $PM_{2.5}$ mechanisms (local emission &
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10 105 transboundary transmission), and make $PM_{2.5}$ forecasts for multiple sites at multiple
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13 106 horizons simultaneously.

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16 107 To achieve these goals, we propose a hybridization approach (CNN-BP) that
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19 108 seamlessly integrates a Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) and a BPNN in the
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22 109 interest of improving the reliability and accuracy of regional multi-step-ahead $PM_{2.5}$
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25 110 forecasts, where. One of the study goals is to extend the prediction interval is extended
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28 111 from one hour up to ten hours. Four machine learning models (i.e. CNN-BP, BPNN,
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31 112 RF, and LSTM) are independently constructed for creating regional multi-step-ahead
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34 113 $PM_{2.5}$ forecasts based on hourly observed data collected at 73 air quality monitoring
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37 114 stations spreading over the whole Taiwan, where the two static (BPNN and RF) and
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40 115 one dynamic (LSTM) models are taken as benchmarks for the purpose of comparison.
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43 116 The proposed CNN-BP forecast model (Figure 1) is a meta model enabled to predict
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46 117 multiple site/horizon attributes at once (i.e. 730 forecasts (73 stations x 10 horizons)
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49 118 each time), and the real-time regional multi-step-ahead $PM_{2.5}$ forecasts can be
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52 119 visualized in a 2D map using the Kriging method. Following the Introduction Section,
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55 120 this study is organized to outline the study area and materials in Section 2, introduce
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1 121 the methods in Section 3, show and discuss the multi-step-ahead $PM_{2.5}$ forecast results
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4 122 in Section 4, and make concluding remarks in Section 5.
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10 124 **2. Study area and materials**

11 12 13 125 *2.1. Study area*

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16 126 The fast booming economy and high population density of Taiwan has made air
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20 127 quality deterioration rank high on the hot topic list in recent years. Air pollution not
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23 128 only induces respiratory diseases but is also a matter of life and death. Therefore, it is
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26 129 imperative to make accurate and reliable $PM_{2.5}$ forecasts for assisting in the reduction
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29 130 of the health risk associated with air pollution. Air quality monitoring stations in
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32 131 Taiwan constitute the case study, and the study area is partitioned into five regions
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36 132 according to geographic locations, i.e. R1–northern region, R2–central region,
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39 133 R3–southern region, R4–eastern region, and R5–surrounding islands (Figure 2). Four
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42 134 machine learning models are separately constructed to produce regional
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45 135 multi-step-ahead $PM_{2.5}$ forecasts.
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48 136 *2.2. Data collection and statistical analysis*

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51 137 The TW EPA provides an open data platform accessible to the public, where
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55 138 environmental monitoring datasets such as local air quality and meteorological
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58 139 conditions are on demand (EPA, 2019). This highly facilitates the collection of
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1 140 reliable data for research use. It is noted that there are a total of 76 ground-based air
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4 141 quality monitoring stations in Taiwan but this study adopts data only from 73 stations
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7 142 because 3 stations encountered the problem of massive missing data. The attributes of
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10 143 the five regions defined in this study are give as follows. R1 (26 stations) centers on
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13 144 economic activities with heavy traffic loads and intensive commercial trading. R2 (17
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16 145 stations) and R3 (23 stations) encompass industrial areas locating chemical and
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19 146 thermal power plants. R4 (4 stations) embraces high-elevation mountains with natural
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22 147 scenery famous for tourism. R5 (3 stations) contains three groups of small islands
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25 148 surrounding Taiwan. This study utilizes hourly data of six air quality factors (PM_{2.5},
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28 149 PM₁₀, SO₂, CO, NO₂, and O₃) and two meteorological factors (ambient temperature
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31 150 and relative humidity) collected between 1/1/2017 and 31/12/2017. A total of 639,480
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34 151 hourly datasets (=24 hours x 365 days x 73 stations) were collected, where 409,238
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37 152 datasets (64%) were for model training, and the remaining 102,346 datasets (16%)
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40 153 and 127,896 datasets (20%) were for model validating and testing, respectively. The
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43 154 prediction interval is set as one hour, in accordance with the data collection interval of
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51 156 Table 1 presents the results of the statistical analyses on air quality and
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54 157 meteorological data for use in this study. The results indicate that high NO₂, SO₂ and
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57 158 CO concentrations occur in R1 (northern region), providing evidence that R1 suffers
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1 159 mainly from vehicle exhaust emissions. R2 (central region) and R3 (southern region)
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4 160 have the highest mean values of PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ concentrations due to their thermal
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7 161 power plants. R2, R3, and R5 (surrounding islands) have relatively large standard
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10 162 deviations of PM_{2.5} concentrations. It is conceivable that long-term prediction of
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13 163 PM_{2.5} concentrations at the three regions should be very challenging because their
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16 164 high variations in concentrations would create a barrier to capturing the future trends
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19 165 of PM_{2.5} concentrations. As for R4 (eastern region), its mean and standard deviation
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22 166 of PM_{2.5} concentrations are the lowest on account of few industrial and commercial
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25 167 activities here. It is worth noting that R5 (surrounding islands) is less industrialized
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28 168 but has relatively high concentrations in PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀ and O₃, which suggest that air
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31 169 quality in R5 could be largely affected by transboundary transmissions (Yuan et al.,
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34 170 2004). As known, the deposition process of PM_{2.5} is highly correlated with relative
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37 171 humidity because moisture adheres to fine particles and accumulates to a larger size
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40 172 (Hernandez et al., 2017; Hien et al., 2002; Lou et al., 2017; Tai et al., 2010). The high
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43 173 relative humidity over the whole Taiwan, with an annual average exceeding 70%,
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46 174 implies that PM_{2.5} in Taiwan is profoundly affected by relative humidity (Hien et al.,
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49 175 2002; Lou et al., 2017).
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58 177 **3. Methodology**

1 178 *3.1. Problems and motivations*

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4 179 Accurate air quality forecasting at longer lead times is the key to early warning
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7 180 and management of air pollution. Our goal is to anticipate changes in $PM_{2.5}$
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10 181 concentrations at monitoring stations over time. Air quality forecasting becomes
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13 182 highly challenging under the rapidly changing conditions of weather and pollutant
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16 183 emission, in addition to the influence imposed by plenty of nonlinear and dynamic
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20 184 factors. Therefore, it is difficult to precisely predict air quality for a region at a
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23 185 specific time. Artificial Intelligence (AI) has been significantly empowered to bridge
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26 186 the gap between the capabilities of humans and machines. The advancements in
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29 187 Computer Vision with Deep Learning has been constructed, primarily by the CNN.
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32 188 This study explores a hybridization approach (CNN-BP) driven by CNN and BPNN
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35 189 for producing reliable and accurate regional $PM_{2.5}$ forecasts at longer horizons. Three
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38 190 ANN models (static-BPNN and RF; and dynamic-LSTM) form the benchmarks for
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42 191 comparison purpose in this study.

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45 192 Figure 3 shows the graphical illustration of the proposed air quality forecasting
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48 193 framework, which consists of three main components: the CNN for learning the
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51 194 spatial pattern of each sample in time series (Figure 3(a)); the BPNN for extracting
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54 195 the interdependency and temporal features from the corresponding time series data
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57 196 (Figure 3(b)); and the hybrid CNN-BP model for producing multi-site and

1 197 multi-horizon $PM_{2.5}$ forecasts (Figure 3(c)). To be more precise, the proposed
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4 198 CNN-BP model implements a two-phase procedure engaging feature extraction from
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7 199 air quality and meteorological samples (CNN, configured with three one-dimensional
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10 200 convolutional layers) and forecasting (BPNN, configured with two fully connected
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13 201 hidden layers) for multi-site multi-horizon $PM_{2.5}$ forecasting. The methods involved
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16 202 are briefly introduced as follows.

20 203 *3.2. Convolutional Neural Network (CNN)*

23 204 The CNN configured with a deep learning algorithm is a type of ANNs. It has
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26 205 the merit to effectively differentiate one sample from the others owing to feature
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29 206 extraction, where each sample is assigned importance to gain various objects in the
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32 207 sample and to extract its high-level features/characteristics for differentiating itself
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35 208 from the other samples. The CNN typically has three layers: the convolutional layer
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38 209 that extracts features from the inputs to form a feature map matrix, the pooling layer
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41 210 that reduces the spatial size of the convolved feature, and the fully connected layer
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44 211 that flattens the output into one column vector and feed it into a feed-forward neural
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47 212 network. Therefore, the model can successfully capture the spatio-temporal
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50 213 dependencies in each sample and distinguish between dominating and certain
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53 214 low-level features in samples. The CNN has been widely used in natural language
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56 215 processing and image processing, and it has also been applied to time series
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1 216 forecasting recently (Borovykh et al., 2017; Li et a., 2017). The implementation of the
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4 217 CNN is briefly introduced below.
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7 218 In this study, there are 73 stations and each station has 8,760 samples (24 hours x 365
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10 219 days). Each sample allows 4 types of time lags (6-h, 12-h, 24-h and 36-h), and there
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13 220 are 8 input variables (6 air quality and 2 meteorological variables) at each time lag.
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16 221 The number of filters is set as 100, and the filtering process is conducted on each
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19 222 sample. It is noted that the CNN has a concept of “weight sharing”, that is, a filter
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22 223 does not change its weight values when screening each sample during training and
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25 224 validation stages. This leads to lesser parameters required for the CNN during model
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28 225 construction than for other feed-forward ANNs. As a result, the CNN is easier to train,
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31 226 with an avoidance of overfitting, which makes the CNN an attractive deep learning
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34 227 algorithm. More details of the CNN can be found in Chen et al. (2019).
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39 228 *3.3. Back Propagation Neural Network (BPNN)*

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42 229 The BPNN is a fully connected neural network with three layers, i.e. one input
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45 230 layer, one hidden layer, and one output layer (Figure 3(b)). This static neural network
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48 231 enables two main actions: propagation (forward and backward) and weight adjustment.
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51 232 In the forward propagation, an input signal is assigned a weight by the activation
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54 233 function (i.e. the Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU) function in this study) in the hidden
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57 234 layer, and then the weighted signal is passed to the output layer for calculating the
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1 235 output value. After the forward propagation finishes, the backward propagation will
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4 236 be activated if the difference (error) between the output value and the target output
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7 237 value falls outside the tolerable error range. More details of the BPNN can be found
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10 238 in Hecht-Nielsen (1992).

13 239 *3.4. Hybrid of CNN and BPNN (CNN-BP)*

16 240 The proposed CNN-BP approach aims at simultaneously producing $PM_{2.5}$
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20 241 forecasts of 73 monitoring stations at horizons $t+1$ up to $t+10$, and its two-phase
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23 242 implementation procedure engaging feature extraction by CNN and $PM_{2.5}$ forecasting
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26 243 by BPNN (Figure 3(c)). The CNN-BP model seamlessly connects a CNN (configured
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30 244 with three one-dimensional convolutional layers, determined by trial and error
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33 245 procedures) to a BPNN (configured with two fully connected hidden layers,
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36 246 determined by trial and error procedures).

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39 247 The CNN is a powerful tool for feature extraction because each output of the
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42 248 CNN contains multiple time-attributes. The similarity in patterns among samples can
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45 249 be considered as an auxiliary to improve forecast accuracy; that is to say, learning of
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49 250 similar patterns greatly assists in forecasting, especially for multiple stations and
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52 251 multiple horizons. In brief, the CNN can effectively capture the spatial dependencies
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55 252 and distinguish between dominating and certain low-level features and classify them.

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58 253 Following feature extraction, the flatten layer that links the feature map of the
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1 254 CNN with the fully connected hidden layer of the BPNN has a mission to reshape
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4 255 each multi-dimensional input into a one-dimensional input (Jin et al., 2014). Then, the
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7 256 two fully connected hidden layers and the output layer in the BPNN constitute the
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10 257 forecasting phase of the CNN-BP model. It is worth noting that we set up ten neurons
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13 258 in the output layer for producing ten-dimensional outputs (i.e. horizons t+1 up to t+10
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17 259 of PM_{2.5} concentrations in this study).

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20 260 The ReLU function is employed as the activation function for the three ANN
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23 261 models in this study, and its formula is shown below.

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$$25$$
$$26 262 f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \end{cases} \quad (9)$$
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$$28$$

29 263 where $f(x)$ is a linear function when x is greater than 0, otherwise 0. The ReLU
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32 264 function is very powerful and has several advantages: a) able to solve the problem of
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36 265 gradient disappearance or explosion; b) able to mimic the computational structure of
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39 266 the human brain; c) has a fast calculation speed; and d) easier to converge than the
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42 267 sigmoid activation function ((Glorot et al., 2011; Romero et al., 2015).

43 268 3.5. *Random Forest (RF)*

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48 269 The RF evolved from the decision tree is an ensemble machine learning method
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52 270 and has two cores: "random" for random feature selection and "forest" for bagging
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55 271 (Ho, 1995). It is implemented by establishing a multitude of decision trees at the
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58 272 training stage and then outputting the class that is the status of the classes

1 273 (classification) or mean prediction (regression) of the individual trees (Karginova et
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4 274 al., 2012; Liaw and Wiener, 2002). The RF has been widely used in the field of data
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7 275 mining and time series forecasting (Feng et al., 2019; Kamińska, 2018; Kumar, 2018).
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10 276 In this study, the random forest regressor that averaging the outputs of the individual
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13 277 trees is used.

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16 278 The training procedure of the RF regressor is described as follows.

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20 279 1) Draw a bootstrap sample from the original data.
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23 280 2) For each bootstrap sample, grow a regression tree with the following modification
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26 281 at each node: choosing the best split-point predictors among the m predictors and
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29 282 picking the best variable associated with the best split.
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32 283 3) Predict new data by aggregating the predictions of the n trees, where the final
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35 284 output is produced by aggregating and averaging the prediction results of all
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38 285 decision trees

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42 286 More details of the RF can be found in Liaw and Wiener (2002).

43 287 3.6. Long Short Term Memory Neural Network (LSTM)

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48 288 The LSTM is a well-known recurrent architecture in the deep learning field. It
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51 289 has two capabilities, namely long-term memory and short-term memory, owing to its
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54 290 internal self-looped cell that can pass the previous state to the next (Hochreiter, 1998).
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57 291 The LSTM unit is composed of six parts, including the input block, three gates (input,
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1 292 forget and output gates), the self-looped cell, and the output block. The training

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4 293 procedure of the LSTM is briefly described as follows.

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7 294 (1) The input gate determines what information to produce and what information to

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10 295 add to the current cell state based on the output of the previous state and the input

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13 296 of the current state.

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16 297 (2) The forget gate determines what information to remove from the current cell state.

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19 298 In other words, information considered unimportant can be forgotten. Otherwise,

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22 299 it will be “memorized” by the LSTM cell.

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25 300 (3) The output gate determines the output state and the output of the LSTM cell.

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28 301 More details of the LSTM can be found in Zhou et al. (2019).

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32 302 *3.7. Techniques to prevent overfitting*

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35 303 To avoid overfitting during model training, this study employees the nonlinear

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38 304 L2 regularization technique and the early stopping criterion. The nonlinear L2

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41 305 regularization can discourages the learning of a model to avoid overfitting by adding

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44 306 penalty terms (Chang et al., 2010). Model training will terminate with early stopping

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47 307 when the model reaches the minimum validation loss (Prechelt, 1998), which means

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50 308 the network stops training if the validation error is no longer reducible after n

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53 309 iterations (n=15 in this study).

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57 310 *3.8. Evaluation indicators*

311 We use three indicators to evaluate model performance, which are the Mean
 312 Absolute Error (MAE), the Root Mean Square Error (RMSE), and the coefficient of
 313 determination (R^2). The formula of the three indicators are given below.

$$314 \quad MAE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^L |o_i - p_i|}{L} \quad (10)$$

$$315 \quad RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^L (o_i - p_i)^2}{L}} \quad (11)$$

$$316 \quad R^2 = \frac{L \sum_{i=1}^L o_i p_i - \sum_{i=1}^L o_i \sum_{i=1}^L p_i}{\sqrt{L \sum_{i=1}^L o_i^2 - (\sum_{i=1}^L o_i)^2} \sqrt{L \sum_{i=1}^L p_i^2 - (\sum_{i=1}^L p_i)^2}} \quad (12)$$

317 where o_i denotes observed data, p_i denotes forecasted values, and L denotes the
 318 data length.

319 The MAE is the average of the absolute difference between forecasted values
 320 and observed data, which measures the average magnitude of forecast errors. The
 321 RMSE is an error index favorable for the assessment on forecast accuracy of peak
 322 values due to significant magnification of forecast errors. A model with higher R^2
 323 values but lower RMSE and MAE values performs better. In general, higher R^2
 324 values may coincide with smaller RMSE and MAE values.

326 4. Results and discussion

327 In this study, the CNN-BP model is proposed to produce regional
 328 multi-step-ahead ($t+1$ – $t+10$) $PM_{2.5}$ forecasts based on hourly data of six air quality
 329 and two metrological factors from 73 air quality monitoring stations in Taiwan. Two

1 330 static ANN models (i.e. BPNN and RF) and one dynamic ANN model (i.e. LSTM) are
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4 331 employed for comparison purpose. The results and findings are presented in the order
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6
7 332 of the data preprocessing, model construction, and model comparison, shown as
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9
10 333 follows.

11 12 13 334 *4.1. Data preprocessing*

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16 335 To overcome the different scales of heterogeneous data and/or over-fitting
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20 336 encountered in model training, data normalization is the first step of data
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22
23 337 pre-processing. The goals of normalization are to adjust the values of variables in
24
25
26 338 datasets to a common scale and to make sure different features take on similar ranges
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28
29 339 of values so that gradient descents can converge effectively. The second step of data
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33 340 pre-processing is to randomly allocate the normalized samples into training (64%),
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35
36 341 validation (16%) and testing (20%) datasets.

37 38 39 342 *4.2. Model construction*

40 41 42 343 *4.2.1. Parameter setting*

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45 344 A large number of trial and error procedures are executed to identify parameters
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47
48 345 the most suitable for each ANN model based on the training and validation datasets,
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50
51 346 and the obtained parameter settings of the ANN models are presented in Table 2.

52 53 54 347 *4.2.2. Input factor selection*

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58 348 For the determination of the best input combination, two input scenarios
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1 349 (Scenario 1 & Scenario 2) are designed to assess the impacts of air quality and/or
2
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4 350 meteorological factors on PM_{2.5} forecasts. Scenario 1 considers six air quality factors
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7 351 (PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, SO₂, CO, NO₂ and O₃) as model inputs because these six factors are the
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10 352 components of the Air Quality Index (AQI) defined by the TW EPA (Hao and Liu,
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13 353 2016; Moisan et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018). Scenario 2 considers PM_{2.5} forecasting
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16 354 as a function of the same air quality factors and two meteorological factors (i.e.
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20 355 ambient temperature and relative humidity).

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23 356 Figure 4 shows the forecast performance of CNN-BP, BPNN and RF models at
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26 357 horizons t+6 and t+10 for the whole of Taiwan under Scenarios 1 and 2. The results
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28
29 358 reveal that the three ANN models perform better (higher R² and lower RMSE values)
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32 359 under Scenario 2 than under Scenario 1, especially obvious for the CNN-BP model.
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35 360 This gives a useful hint that high correlation is implicitly expressed between PM_{2.5}
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38 361 concentrations and the two meteorological factors. Previous studies provided the
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42 362 following findings. When there is high relative humidity in the air, the deposition
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45 363 process of PM_{2.5} will occurs (Li et al., 2017). In summer (high temperature),
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48 364 temperature inversion may occur so that a layer of cool air at the surface would be
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51 365 overlaid by a layer of warmer air due to difference in air density; while in winter (low
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54 366 temperature), a slower inversion of temperature may occur due to similar and lower
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57 367 air densities in upper atmospheres (Wallace and Kanaroglou, 2009). This points out

1 368 that temperature is another important factor affecting $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations.
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4 369 Considering our results shown in Figure 4 and the findings from the previous studies,
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7 370 the air quality and meteorological factors of Scenario 2 are determined to form the
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10 371 input combination for carrying out regional multi-step-ahead $PM_{2.5}$ forecasting in this
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13 372 study. The next step is to identify the time-lag of the input variables needed for
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16 373 multi-step-ahead forecasting.
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20 374 To fully investigate the time-lag effect, several historical temporal patterns (i.e.
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23 375 6-h, 12-h, 24-h, and 36-h) of all the eight input variables are incorporated into model
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26 376 training and testing stages of the three ANN models. Taking the CNN-BP model as an
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29 377 example, Table 3 shows the model performance in training/validation and testing
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32 378 stages at horizons $t+6$ and $t+10$ based on the inputs with different time-lags for the
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35 379 whole of Taiwan. The results clearly explain that the model based on inputs with a
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38 380 24-h time-lag patterns would produce the best performance (the highest R^2 values and
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41 381 the smallest RMSE values) in both training/validation and testing stages. When the
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44 382 time-lag increases from 6-h to 24-h, there is a significant improvement in model
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47 383 performance over time. When the time-lag extends from 24-h to 36-h, the model
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50 384 performance, however, deteriorates in both training and testing stages. Such
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53 385 phenomenon might be because uncertainty keeps increasing and more noise
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56 386 information involves as the time-lag exceeds 24-h (a day), which prohibits the model
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1 387 from being well trained and well validated. Consequently, the eight inputs with 24-h
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4 388 time-lag are determined as the final input combination of the three ANN models for
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7 389 carrying out the following analyses.
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10 390 *4.3. Comparison of ANN models for PM_{2.5} forecasts*

11 12 13 391 *4.3.1. Regional multi-step-ahead PM_{2.5} forecasts*

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16 392 Figure 5 gives the comparison of regional multi-step-ahead PM_{2.5} forecasts
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20 393 (R1–R5, the whole Taiwan) obtained from three ANN models in the training and
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23 394 testing stages at horizons t+6 and t+10. The comparative results demonstrate that the
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26 395 CNN-BP model can produce the most accurate PM_{2.5} forecasts in terms of the
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30 396 smallest RMSE values in both training and testing stages at horizons t+6 and t+10.
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33 397 The reason is that the CNN-BP model can adequately handle inputs with relatively
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36 398 large time-lags to cope with the curse of dimensionality. In other words, this model
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39 399 can more effectively and deeply learn and extract useful information (knowledge)
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42 400 from high-dimensional datasets (input-output patterns), as compared with BPNN and
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45 401 RF models.
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49 402 We next take the regional CNN-BP model as an example for further evaluation.
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52 403 In the training stages, it is noticed from Figure 5(a) that the southern region (R3) has
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55 404 the largest RMSE values (5.38 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at t+6, and 5.98 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at t+10), followed by the
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58 405 central region (R2, 4.99 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at t+6, and 5.63 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at t+10), while the lowest
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1 406 RMSE values ($3.74 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at $t+6$, and $4.22 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at $t+10$) occur in the eastern region
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4 407 (R4). In the testing stages, Figure 5(b) indicates that the southern region (R3) gives
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7 408 the largest RMSE values ($6.77 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at $t+6$, and $7.67 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at $t+10$), followed by the
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10 409 central region (R2, $6.32 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at $t+6$, and $7.29 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at $t+10$), while the lowest
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12
13 410 RMSE values ($4.49 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at $t+6$, and $4.95 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at $t+10$) occur in the eastern region
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16 411 (R4). It appears that the constructed CNN-BP model (one model) could be well
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19 412 trained (very small RMSE values) and could make reliable and accurate
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22 413 multi-step-ahead ($t+1$ up to $t+10$) $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ forecasts in the testing stages for all the 73
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25 414 stations. That means multi-site (regional) and multi-horizon forecasting can be
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28 415 achieved by exactly one model (i.e. the proposed CNN-BP model), hitting a new
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31 416 milestone.

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36 417 From the perspective of pollution sources, thermal power plants would be the
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39 418 main source of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ emission in the two most polluted regions, i.e. R2 and R3. Both
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42 419 regions suffer larger RMSE values because changes in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration are more
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45 420 dramatic and irregular here (Figure 5, Table 1). R1 and R5 have moderate $\text{PM}_{2.5}$
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48 421 concentrations and RMSE values. The primary source of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ emission in R1 (the
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51 422 economic center of Taiwan) would be a great number of moving vehicles, resulting in
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54 423 high traffic loads. It is noticed that R5 (the surrounding islands) does not produce the
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57 424 smallest RMSE values among the five regions (Figure 5) even though this region has
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1 425 neither large industrial facilities nor many vehicles. In consideration of the
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4 426 geographical locations of these surrounding islands, we speculate that the primary
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7 427 source of PM_{2.5} emissions in R5 would be transboundary transmissions, especially the
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10 428 monsoon blows from China. As for R4, PM_{2.5} concentration is relatively low here and
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13 429 its RMSE values are also the smallest in both stages (Table 1, Figure 5). We also
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16 430 notice that there is no major industry in R5 and PM_{2.5} concentration does not change
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19 431 much throughout the investigative period. Here are two interesting findings. First, the
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22 432 sources of PM_{2.5} emission in R1–R4 are associated primarily with local emissions
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25 433 from industrial and/or human activities, which reveals PM_{2.5} concentrations of these
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28 434 four regions are closely related to the six air quality factors (PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, SO₂, CO,
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31 435 NO₂ and O₃). Second, transboundary transmission would be the source of PM_{2.5}
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34 436 emission in R5 (surrounding islands), which implies PM_{2.5} concentrations here are
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37 437 closely related to meteorological factors (ambient temperature and relative humidity).
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42 438 Furthermore, the CNN-BP model is compared with the LSTM model, a dynamic
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45 439 model that preserves the previous state in forecasting. The parameter setting of the
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48 440 LSTM model is shown in Table 2. Figure 6 shows the forecast performance of
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51 441 CNN-BP and LSTM models at horizons t+6 and t+10 for the whole of Taiwan. The
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54 442 forecast results indicate that the CNN-BP model is significantly superior (higher R²
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57 443 and lower RMSE values) to the LSTM model. The main reason could be that the
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1 444 LSTM model capable of preserving the previous state of a time series (single station)
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4 445 encountered the over-fitting problem, while the samples of the large region with
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7 446 multiple stations (73 stations) we investigated were time-discontinuous among various
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10 447 stations, which led to poor forecast accuracy.

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13 448 In brief, the results demonstrate that the CNN-BP model not only performs better
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16 449 than the BPNN, RF and LSTM models for multi-step-ahead $PM_{2.5}$ forecasts but is also
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20 450 able to model different $PM_{2.5}$ mechanisms (local emission and transboundary
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23 451 transmission) for the five regions (R1–R5) and the whole Taiwan. In other words, we
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26 452 extract data features from multiple stations to make multi-site multi-horizon forecasts
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29 453 using only a single CNN-BP model. Therefore, the model’s applicability is largely
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32 454 increased. Moreover, forecast accuracy is significantly improved by learning more
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36 455 similar data features from samples of other stations, rather than just of a single station.

37 38 39 456 *4.3.2. $PM_{2.5}$ forecasts at a station with high $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations*

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42 457 We further investigate the three ANN models for $PM_{2.5}$ forecasting at the Nantzu
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45 458 air quality monitoring station (see Nantzu Station in R3 of Figure 2) that suffers high
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48 459 $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations (maximum=94 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, mean=46.81 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, standard
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51 460 deviation=17.45 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). Figure 7 displays the comparative results of the three ANN
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55 461 models at horizon t+10 for this station regarding the errors between the observed and
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58 462 forecasted $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in the testing stages spanning between 3/1/2017 and
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1 463 18/1/2017 (24 hours x 16 days = 384 hours). The results show that the absolute errors
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4 464 of peaks exceed $50 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ for the RF model and the BPNN model but is less than 30
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7 465 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ for the CNN-BP model (Figure 7). Moreover, it is easy to tell that the patterns
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10 466 (384 time series) of forecast errors created by all three models are similar and the
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13 467 absolute errors of the CNN-BP model are significantly smaller than those of RF and
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16 468 BPNN models. This supports that the CNN-BP model not only can efficiently handle
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19 469 heterogeneous data with large time-lags but also can effectively characterize the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$
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23 470 trend and features of each sample using the filter in the CNN. This also explains why
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26 471 the CNN-BP model can catch the variation in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration more precisely than
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29 472 RF and BPNN models.

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33 473 Furthermore, it is noticed from Table 4 that the CNN-BP model has the lowest
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36 474 MAE values in both training ($9.46 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) and testing ($9.18 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) stages, followed
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39 475 by the RF model ($10.35 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in training, and $10.40 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in testing), then by the
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42 476 BPNN model ($12.98 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in training, and $12.78 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in testing) at the Nantzu
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45 477 Station. The results clearly demonstrate that the CNN-BP model serves as a better
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48 478 predictor than the RF and the BPNN models for long-term (e.g. 10 hours) $\text{PM}_{2.5}$
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51 479 forecasting.

52 480 *4.3.3. $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ forecasts for the whole of Taiwan*

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58 481 We also investigate the reliability and accuracy of the constructed CNN-BP
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1 482 model with a recent snapshot of $PM_{2.5}$ concentration. Figure 8 presents the
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4 483 observations and the forecasts obtained from the CNN-BP model at horizons t+6 and
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7 484 t+10 for the whole Taiwan upon a snapshot at 2 am on 21th January in 2018, where the
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10 485 Kriging method is implemented to make a two-dimensional visualization of the
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13 486 observations and the forecasts through spatial interpolation. The color scale of Figure
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16 487 8 refers to the Indicator Table announced by the TW EPA
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19 488 (https://www.hpa.gov.tw/Pages/ashx/File.ashx?FilePath=~/File/Attach/3007/File_369
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22 489 7.pdf). $PM_{2.5}$ concentration higher than $54.5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ is considered harmful to the
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25 490 human body (EPA, 2019). The results of Figure 8 show that the CNN-BP model, in
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28 491 general, can well forecast $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations at both t+6 and t+10. It appears that
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31 492 $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations are much higher in central (R2) and southern (R3) regions.
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34 493 According to Figures 8(b)-8(e), the model does suitably catch the variations of $PM_{2.5}$
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37 494 concentrations at both t+6 and t+10 under the conditions of good and moderate $PM_{2.5}$
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40 495 concentrations while slightly underestimating in certain areas of southern region (R3)
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43 496 under the condition of unhealthy $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations.
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49 497 Figure 9 gives the results of the RMSE values between the observed and
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52 498 forecasted $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations associated with Figure 8. The southern region (R3)
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55 499 has the largest forecast errors ($15.45 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at t+6, and $18.02 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at t+10), followed
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58 500 by the central region (R2, $9.97 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at t+6, and $7.70 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at t+10). Besides, the
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1 501 RMSE values of the eastern region (R4) are $2.53 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and $2.3 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at t+6 and t+10,
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3
4 502 respectively, while the RMSE values of the surrounding islands (R5) are $4.70 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
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7 503 and $4.26 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at t+6 and t+10, respectively. The relatively low forecast errors in R4
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10 504 and R5 would be a consequence that the CNN-BP model can easily catch the trends of
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13 505 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations under conditions of low concentrations (Table 1). As for the
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16 506 whole Taiwan, the RMSE values are $9.36 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and $10.68 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at horizons t+6 and
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19 507 t+10, respectively. In sum, the results of the recent case (2 am on 21th January, 2018)
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23 508 support the generalizability and reliability of our proposed CNN-BP model.
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29 510 **5. Conclusion**

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32 511 Fine particulate matter (e.g. $\text{PM}_{2.5}$) is a complicated air pollutant because it
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35 512 involves a great variety of pollution sources. To model the nonlinear and dynamic
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38 513 multivariate time series of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations, we propose a deep learning
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41 514 framework hybridizing CNN and BPNN for sharing the features extracted from air
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44 515 quality- and meteorological-related time series data to make multi-site (73 stations)
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47 516 multi-horizon (one to ten hours) $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ forecasts concurrently. The main contributions
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50 517 of the proposed approach (CNN-BP) are three-fold. Firstly, the CNN-BP model can
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53 518 adequately characterize the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations into a function of air quality and
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56 519 meteorological variables based on a large number of high-dimensional hourly
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1 520 observed datasets at various stations. Secondly, the CNN-BP model can combine the
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4 521 essential features of CNN and BPNN to significantly improve the forecast accuracy of
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7 522 PM_{2.5} concentrations. Thirdly, the CNN-BP model can effectually produce PM_{2.5}
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10 523 forecasts for multiple stations at multiple horizons simultaneously.

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13 524 This study evaluated the proposed CNN-BP models with three types of machine
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16 525 learning models (static BPNN and RF, and dynamic LSTM). The results demonstrated
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19 526 that the CNN-BP model performed the best, in terms of the smallest RMSE and the
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23 527 highest R² values for the whole of Taiwan and the five regions (R1–R5). The accuracy
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26 528 and reliability of PM_{2.5} forecasts increased significantly for the CNN-BP model. We
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29 529 also demonstrated that the CNN-BP model could more adequately handle
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33 530 heterogeneous inputs with relatively large time-lags to tackle the curse of
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36 531 dimensionality and could more effectively and deeply learn and extract useful
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39 532 information (knowledge) from high-dimensional datasets (input-output patterns), as
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42 533 compared with BPNN, RF and LSTM models. From the standpoint of a monitoring
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45 534 station (Nantzu Station) representative of high PM_{2.5} concentrations, the CNN-BP
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48 535 model could create more precise and stable multi-step-ahead PM_{2.5} forecasts.
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51 536 Therefore, the proposed CNN-BP model can significantly contribute to improving the
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54 537 reliability and accuracy of long-term PM_{2.5} forecasting. In light of methodological
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57 538 transferability, future research can extend the CNN-BP methodology from one single
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1 539 pollutant (PM_{2.5} in this study case) to multi-pollutant (e.g. PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, O₃, etc.)
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4 540 forecasting as well as from deterministic forecasting to probabilistic forecasting by
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7 541 means of post-processing techniques, for instance, Kalman filtering, Generalized
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10 542 Likelihood Uncertainty Estimation (GLUE), and Bayesian methods (Djalalova et al.,
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13 543 2015; Kamińska, 2018; Pucer et al., 2018). Besides, for a longer lead time (e.g. daily
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16 544 forecast), it is very difficult to make accurate forecasts based solely on hourly datasets.
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20 545 Therefore, future work can be extended to daily forecasting in consideration of a
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23 546 collaboration with physical based models.
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29 548 **Acknowledgment**

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33 549 This study is supported by the Ministry of Science and Technology, Taiwan
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35
36 550 (MOST: 108-2119-M-002-017-A). The datasets provided by the Environmental
37
38
39 551 Protection Administration of Taiwan are acknowledged. The authors would like to
40
41
42 552 thank the Editors and anonymous Reviewers for their constructive comments that are
43
44
45 553 greatly contributive to improving the manuscript.
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Credit Author Statement

Pu-Yun Kow: Data curation, Formal analysis, Methodology, Software, Validation, Visualization, Roles/Writing - original draft. **Yi-Shin Wang:** Data curation, Investigation, Project administration. **Yanlai Zhou:** Methodology. **I-Feng Kao:** Investigation, Methodology. **Maikel Issermann:** Formal analysis. **Li-Chiu Chang:** Methodology, Project administration, Resources, Supervision. **Fi-John Chang:** Funding acquisition, Methodology, Project administration, Supervision, Writing - review & editing.

Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: