

1 **From Precipitation to Prediction: Integrating**
2 **ConvLSTM Models for Comprehensive River Runoff**
3 **Forecasting**

4 **Florian Börgel¹, Sven Karsten¹, Karoline Rummel¹**

5 ¹Leibniz-Institute for Baltic Sea Research Warnemünde,

6 **Abstract**
 7 a

8 **Plain Language Summary**
 9 b

10 **1 Introduction**

11 River runoff is an important component of the global water cycle as it comprises
 12 about one third of the precipitation over land areas (Hagemann et al., 2020). In
 13 the context of climate change studies, river runoff is usually generated in two ways.
 14 First, river runoff as input for ocean models can be created using hydrological mod-
 15 els such as the Hydrological Discharge (HD) model (Hagemann et al., 2020). HD
 16 models calculates the water balance using hydrological processes (e.g. snow, glaciers,
 17 soil moisture, groundwater contribution). It represents a complex forecasting tool
 18 that uses underlying physical processes. A different approach would use data-based
 19 models that integrate statistical correction, using the land surface schemes of global
 20 or regional climate models.

21 The relatively recent emergence of machine learning (ML) models has offered differ-
 22 ent approaches to river runoff forecasting. Accurate runoff forecasting is crucial for
 23 effective water resources management, particularly over extended periods (W. Fang
 24 et al., 2019; Tan et al., 2018). Common approaches employ feed-forward artificial
 25 neural networks, support vector machines, adaptive neuro-fuzzy inference systems,
 26 and notably, Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) neural networks that have gained
 27 traction for long-term hydrological forecasting due to their excellent performance
 28 (Ashrafi et al., 2017; L. Fang & Shao, 2022; Huang et al., 2014; Humphrey et al.,
 29 2016; Kratzert et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2020).

30 LSTM networks, first introduced by Hochreiter & Schmidhuber (1997) , are an evo-
 31 lution of the classical Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs). Their structure enables
 32 them to learn long-term dependencies while avoiding the vanishing or exploding
 33 gradient problem. They have shown stability and efficacy in sequence-to-sequence
 34 predictions. However, a limitation of LSTMs is their inability to effectively capture
 35 two-dimensional structures, an area where Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs)
 36 excel. Recognizing this limitation SHI et al. (2015) proposed a Convolutional LSTM
 37 (ConvLSTM) architecture, which combines the strengths of both LSTM and CNN.
 38 The ConvLSTM network has been proven useful for spatio-temporal applications
 39 such as precipitation nowcasting (SHI et al., 2015), flood forecasting (Moishin et al.,
 40 2021), and river runoff forecasting (Ha et al., 2021; Zhu et al., 2023).

41 In this work, we demonstrate that ConvLSTM networks are a reliable method for
 42 predicting multiple rivers simultaneously, using only atmospheric forcing, even in
 43 the absence of a fully functional hydrological model with a complex parameteriza-
 44 tion. We use the Baltic Sea catchment as an example to illustrate our approach.
 45 Although the methodology we propose is universally applicable across various geo-
 46 graphic regions, the Baltic Sea presents a challenge due to its unique hydrological
 47 characteristics, being nearly decoupled from the open ocean (see Figure). As a con-
 48 sequence, the salinity of the Baltic Sea is driven to a large part by freshwater supply
 49 from rivers. Freshwater enters the Baltic Sea through river runoff or positive net
 50 precipitation (precipitation minus evaporation) over the sea surface. The net precip-
 51 itation accounts for 11 % and the river input for 89 % of the total freshwater input
 52 (Meier & Döscher, 2002). Modelling the Baltic Sea is therefore to a large part the
 53 result of the quality of the river input, that is used for the simulation. This makes
 54 the accurate modeling of river runoff especially critical for simulations pertaining to
 55 the Baltic Sea.

56 In this work we will, we present a ConvLSTM architecture that is able to predict
 57 daily river runoff for 97 rivers across the Baltic Sea catchment. ***mehr Fokus auf***
 58 ***Neues?***

59 **2 Implemented model architecture**

60 **2.1 The main idea**

61 We assume that the runoff for a specific point in time for all N_r considered rivers,
 62 collected in the vector $\vec{R}^t \in \mathbb{R}^{N_r}$, can be accurately approximated by a functional
 63 $\vec{M}(\{X_k^t[x, y, \tau]\})$ of $k = 1, \dots N_k$ atmospheric fields $X_k^t[x, y, \tau]$ that are known for the
 64 past $\tau = 1, \dots N_\tau$ time instances, i.e.

$$\vec{R}^t = \vec{M}(\{X_k^t[x, y, \tau]\}).$$

65 The fields are evaluated on a spatial domain $x = 1, \dots N_x$ and $y = 1, \dots N_y$ that
 66 is sufficiently large to capture all significant local and non-local contributions of
 67 atmospheric fields to the river runoff.

68 Usually such a mapping is realized in a suitable hydrological model that simulates
 69 all relevant physical processes that transform variables like, e.g., precipitation and
 70 evaporation to the river runoff, relying on expertise for tuning all appearing parameters
 71 to reasonable values.

72 As an alternative, we propose that this functional can be adequately represented
 73 by a combination of a ConvLSTM with a subsequent FC network. That way, there
 74 is no need to have knowledge of involved processes and how they can be modeled,
 75 instead, these features can be “learned” by the network in an automated manner.

76 Our proposed network architecture is visualized in Figure 1 and described in de-
 77 tail in the following. In order to provide an overview, we will go through the main
 78 ingredients of this architecture one-by-one.

79 **2.2 ConvLSTM network**

80 **2.2.1 The LSTM approach**

81 Before turning directly to the convolutional LSTM, the simpler architecture of the
 82 plain LSTM is examined and should serve as a role model for the later consideration
 83 of the full ConvLSTM.

84 The Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM), a specialized form of Recurrent Neu-
 85 ral Networks (RNNs), is specifically tailored for modeling temporal sequences
 86 $\vec{X}^t[1], \dots \vec{X}^t[\tau], \dots \vec{X}^t[N_\tau]$ of N_τ input quantities $\vec{X}^t[\tau] = (X_k^t[\tau]) \in \mathbb{R}^{N_k}$. The se-
 87 quence is taken from a dataset given in form of a time series $\{\vec{X}^t\}$ and the endpoint
 88 should coincide with the specific element in the time series connected to time t ,
 89 i.e. $\vec{X}^t[N_\tau] \equiv \vec{X}^t$, see Figure 1. The N_k is the number of used input “channels” and
 90 can, for example, represent different measurable quantities. Its unique design allows
 91 it to adeptly handle long-range dependencies, setting it apart from traditional RNNs
 92 in terms of accuracy (see Figure 2).

93 This performance in modeling long-range dependencies has been validated in var-
 94 ious studies (**XXX?**). The key component of the LSTM’s innovation is its cell
 95 state, $\vec{C}^t[\tau] = (C_h^t[\tau]) \in \mathbb{R}^{N_h}$, which stores state information, also referred to as
 96 *long-term memory*. This state information complements the so-called hidden state
 97 $\vec{H}^t[\tau] = (H_h^t[\tau]) \in \mathbb{R}^{N_h}$ vector, which is also known from simpler neural network
 98 architectures. In case of the LSTM, the hidden state vector plays the role of the
 99 *short-term memory*.

100 A significant advantage of this architecture is the memory cell’s ability to retain gra-
 101 dients. This mechanism addresses the vanishing gradient problem, where, as input
 102 sequences elongate, the influence of initial stages becomes harder to capture, causing
 103 gradients of early input points to approach zero. The LSTM’s activation function,

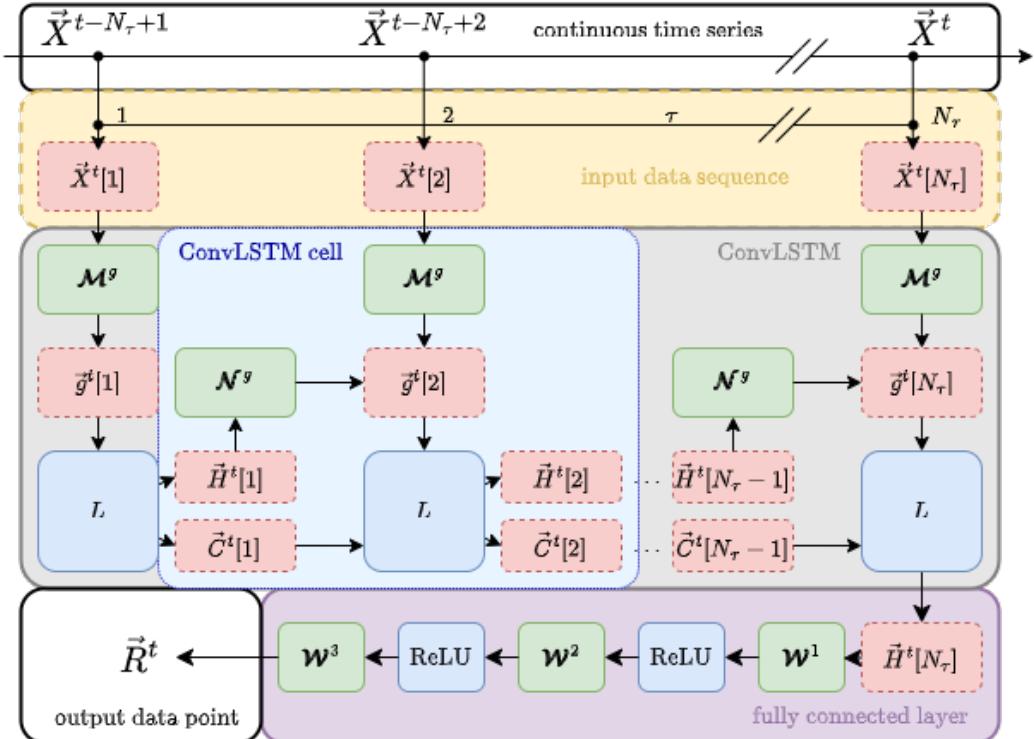


Figure 1: **Combined ConvLSTM and FC network architecture.** The starting point is the continuous timeseries of input data $\{\vec{X}^t\}$, upper white block. From this series, a contiguous sequence of N_τ elements (yellow block) is used to feed a chain of N_τ connected ConvLSTM cells (light blue block) building the ConvLSTM network (grey block). The input sequence is mapped via weighting matrices \mathcal{M}^g (green blocks) onto gate vectors $\vec{g}^t[\tau]$. The gate vectors are then used to update the cell state $\vec{C}^t[\tau - 1]$ and the hidden state $\vec{H}^t[\tau - 1]$ of the last ConvLSTM cell to the current values $\vec{C}^t[\tau]$ and $\vec{H}^t[\tau]$, respectively. The update is performed with LSTM core equations collectively described by the mapping L , see Equation 2. The weighting matrices \mathcal{N}^g (green blocks) control how much of the last hidden state enters the updated state. The final output of the ConvLSTM $\vec{H}^t[\tau]$ is then propagated to a FC network, which itself is a chain of three FC layers consisting of weighting matrices \mathbf{W} and connected via ReLU functions, see Section 2.3. The final result is then the river runoff \vec{R}^t for all rivers considered at the current time instance t (white block on the lower left). Note that all bias vectors are omitted for the sake of clarity. See text for more information.

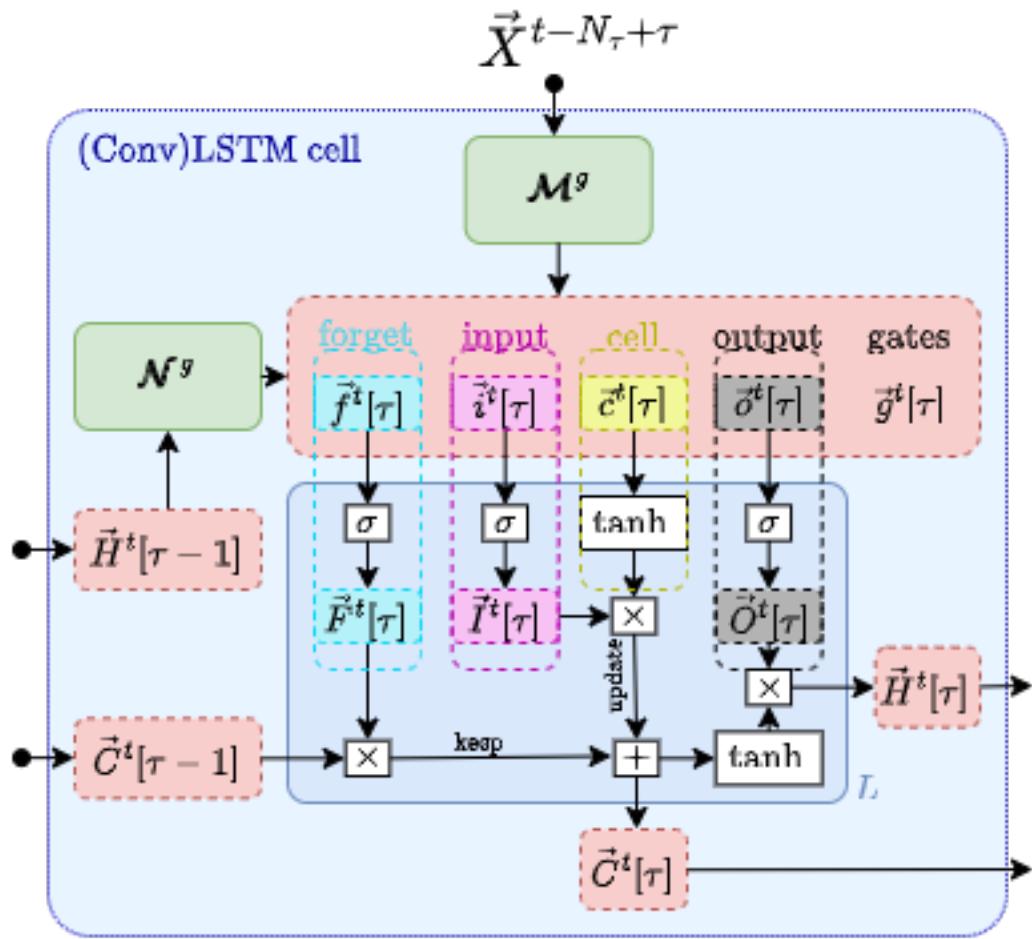


Figure 2: **Inner structure of a Long Short-Term Memory Cell.** See Figure 1 and text for information.

104 inherently recurrent, mirrors the identity function with a consistent derivative of 1.0,
 105 ensuring the gradient remains stable throughout backpropagation.

106 The cell state and the hidden state are vectors, where each element is associated
 107 with one of the N_h hidden layers, labeled by h , which are internal, *artificial* degrees
 108 of freedom that enable the high adaptability of neural networks. These two state vec-
 109 tors are determined through several self-parameterized gates, all in the same vector
 110 space as $\vec{C}^t[\tau]$, see Figure 2 for a visualization.

111 In particular, the forget gate $\vec{F}^t[\tau]$ defines the portion of the previous (long-term
 112 memory) cell state $\vec{C}^t[\tau - 1]$ that should be kept, see dashed cyan box therin. The
 113 input gate $\vec{I}^t[\tau]$ controls the contribution of the current input used to update the
 114 long-term memory, $\vec{C}^t[\tau]$ (magenta and yellow boxes). The output gate, $\vec{O}^t[\tau]$, then
 115 determines how much of this updated long-term memory contributes to the new
 116 (short-term memory) hidden state, $\vec{H}^t[\tau]$ (black dashed box).

117 For a fixed point τ in the sequence, the action of a LSTM cell, i.e. the connection
 118 between the input $\vec{X}^t[\tau]$, the various gates and the state vectors, is mathematically
 119 given as follows.

First, the elements of the input sequence together with the hidden state are mapped
 onto auxiliary gate vectors, collectively denoted by $\vec{g}^t[\tau] = (g_h^t[\tau]) \in \mathbb{R}^{N_h}$, via

$$g_h^t[\tau] = \mathcal{M}_{hk}^g X_k^t[\tau] + \mathcal{N}_{hh'}^g H_{h'}^t[\tau - 1] + \mathcal{B}_h^g ,$$

120 where $g = i, f, o, c$ stands for the input, forget, output and cell-state gate, respec-
 121 tively and Eistein's summation convention is employed, i.e. indices that appear
 122 twice are summed over. The calligraphic symbols \mathcal{M}_{hk}^g , $\mathcal{N}_{hh'}^g$ and \mathcal{B}_h^g are the free
 123 parameters of the network that are optimized for the given problem during the
 124 training, which is at the heart of the any machine learning approach. The matrix
 125 $\mathcal{M}^g = (\mathcal{M}_{hk}^g) \in \mathbb{R}^{N_h \times N_k}$ can be interpreted as a Markovian-like contribution of
 126 the current input $\vec{X}^t[\tau]$ to the gates, whereas the $\mathcal{N}^g = (\mathcal{N}_{hh'}^g) \in \mathbb{R}^{N_h \times N_h}$ scales a
 127 non-Markovian part determined by the hidden state of the last sequence point $\tau - 1$.
 128 The vector $\mathcal{B}^g = (\mathcal{B}_h^g) \in \mathbb{R}^{N_h}$ is a learnable bias. It should be stressed that these
 129 parameters do neither depend on t nor on τ and are thus optimized once for the
 130 complete dataset $\{\vec{X}^t\}$.

131 Note that this mapping is sometimes extended by a contribution to the $g_h^t[\tau]$ from
 132 the past cell state $\vec{C}^t[\tau - 1]$ (XXX?). Nevertheless, this mechanism called “peeping”
 133 is not further considered in this work.

For the sake of brevity, we can write the mapping more compactly in matrix-vector
 form as

$$\vec{g}^t[\tau] = \mathcal{M}^g \vec{X}^t[\tau] + \mathcal{N}^g \vec{H}^t[\tau - 1] + \vec{\mathcal{B}}^g \quad (1)$$

134 Second, the actual gate vectors are computed by the core equations of the LSTM as
 135 proposed by Hochreiter & Schmidhuber (1997):

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{I}^t[\tau] &= \sigma(\vec{i}^t[\tau]) \\ \vec{F}^t[\tau] &= \sigma(\vec{f}^t[\tau]) \\ \vec{O}^t[\tau] &= \sigma(\vec{o}^t[\tau]) \\ \vec{C}^t[\tau] &= \vec{F}^t[\tau] \circ \vec{C}^t[\tau - 1] + \vec{I}^t[\tau] \circ \tanh(\vec{c}^t[\tau]) \\ \vec{H}^t[\tau] &= \vec{O}^t[\tau] \circ \tanh(\vec{C}^t[\tau]) , \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

136 where σ denotes the logisitic sigmoid function, \tanh is the hyperbolic tangent and
 137 the \circ stands for the Hadamard product (all applied in an element-wise fashion to the

vectors). In the last two equations the role of the input, forget and output gates as described above becomes apparent.

The third step in a single layer LSTM (as employed for the work presented here) is then to provide the output of the current LSTM cell, i.e. $\vec{H}^t[\tau]$ and $\vec{C}^t[\tau]$, to the subsequent LSTM cell that processes the next element $\vec{X}^t[\tau + 1]$ of the input sequence.

The full action of the LSTM network up to the end of the sequence can be written as a nested function call

$$(\vec{H}^t[N_\tau], \vec{C}^t[N_\tau]) = L(\vec{X}^t[N_\tau], L(\vec{X}^t[N_\tau - 1], \dots L(\vec{X}^t[1], (\vec{H}^t[0], \vec{C}^t[0])) \dots)) , \quad (3)$$

where $L(\vec{X}^t[\tau], (\vec{H}^t[\tau - 1], \vec{C}^t[\tau - 1]))$ represents Equation 1 and Equation 2. For the present work, the initial conditions are chosen as $\vec{H}^t[0] = \vec{C}^t[0] = 0$, which simply means that there is no memory longer than N_τ time steps.

The final output of the ConvLSTM chain, $\vec{H}^t[N_\tau]$ and $\vec{C}^t[N_\tau]$, encode information on the full input sequence ending at time t . This information has to be decoded to obtain useful information via an appropriate subsequent network, as it is described in the Section 2.3.

2.2.2 Combining LSTM with spatial convolution

Although the plain LSTM has high performance in handling temporal sequences of point-like quantities it is not designed to recognize spatial features in sequences of, e.g., two-dimensional maps as atmospheric-ocean interface fields. To address this limitation we employ a ConvLSTM architecture as described in the following.

In this kind of network the elements of the input sequence are given as spatially varying fields $\vec{X}^t[\tau] = (X_k^t[x, y, \tau]) \in \mathbb{R}^{N_k \times (N_x \times N_y)}$, where $x \in [1, N_x]$ and $y \in [1, N_y]$ run over the horizontal and vertical dimensions of the map, respectively. In order to enable the “learning” of spatial patterns, the free parameters of the network are replaced by two-dimensional convolutional kernels $\mathcal{M}^g = (\mathcal{M}_{hk}^g[\xi, \eta]) \in \mathbb{R}^{(N_h \times N_k) \times (N_\xi \times N_\eta)}$ and $\mathcal{N}^g = (\mathcal{N}_{hh'}^g[\xi, \eta]) \in \mathbb{R}^{(N_h \times N_h) \times (N_\xi \times N_\eta)}$. The width and the height of the kernels are given by N_ξ and N_η , respectively and $\xi \in [-(N_\xi - 1)/2, (N_\xi - 1)/2]$, $\eta \in [-(N_\eta - 1)/2, (N_\eta - 1)/2]$, where, without loss of generality, we assume odd numbers for the kernel sizes.

The mapping from the input quantities to the gates is then given by a convolution with these kernels

$$g_h^t[x, y, \tau] = \mathcal{M}_{hk}^g[\xi, \eta] X_k^t[x - \xi, y - \eta, \tau] + \mathcal{N}_{hh'}^g[\xi, \eta] H_{h'}^t[x - \xi, y - \eta, \tau - 1] + \mathcal{B}_h^g .$$

again with Einstein’s convention imposed.

It becomes immediately apparent that in case of the ConvLSTM, the gate and state vectors must become vector fields ($\in \mathbb{R}^{N_h \times (N_x \times N_y)}$) as well. We can write this mapping in the same fashion as Equation 1 but with replacing the normal matrix-vector multiplication by a convolution (denoted with $*$), i.e.

$$\vec{g}^t[\tau] = \mathcal{M}^g * \vec{X}^t[\tau] + \mathcal{N}^g * \vec{H}^t[\tau - 1] + \vec{\mathcal{B}}^g$$

The subsequent processing of the $\vec{g}^t[\tau]$ remains symbolically the same as presented in Equation 2 but with all appearing quantities now meaning vector fields instead of simple vectors.

In summary, the ConvLSTM excels at processing tasks that demand a combined understanding of spatial patterns and temporal sequences in data. It merges the

177 image-processing capabilities of Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) with the
 178 time-series modeling of Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) networks.

179 **2.3 Fully connected layer**

180 As stated in Sec. Section 2.2.1, the final output $\vec{H}^t[N_\tau]$ and $\vec{C}^t[N_\tau]$ of the Con-
 181 vLSTM encode information on the full input sequence. In order to contract this
 182 information to obtain the runoff vector \vec{R}^t representing the N_r rivers, we propose to
 183 subject the final short-term memory (i.e. the hidden state $\vec{H}^t[N_\tau]$) to an additional
 184 FC network.

185 In particular, the dimensionality of the vector field $\vec{H}^t[N_\tau]$ is sequentially reduced
 186 by three nested FC layers, each connected to the other by the Rectified Linear Unit
 187 (ReLU), see Figure 1. Integrating over artificial degrees of freedom in a step-wise
 188 fashion has turned out to be beneficial [(XXX?)].

189 Spelled out in mathematics, the runoff of the r -th river is then obtained via (using
 190 Einstein's convention)

$$R_r^t = \mathcal{W}_{rb}^3 \text{ReLU} (\mathcal{W}_{ba}^2 \text{ReLU} (\mathcal{W}_{ah}^1 [x, y] H_h^t [x, y, N_\tau] + \mathcal{B}_a^1) + \mathcal{B}_b^2) + \mathcal{B}_r^3 ,$$

191 where $a = 1, \dots, N_a$, $b = 1, \dots, N_b$ and the hyper parameters N_a and N_b are chosen
 192 such that $N_h \cdot N_x \cdot N_y > N_a > N_b > N_r$ in order to achieve the aforementioned
 193 step-by-step reduction of dimensionality. The weights \mathcal{W} and biases \mathcal{B} stand for
 194 parameters that are optimized during the training of the network.

In matrix-vector notation this can be compactified to

$$\vec{R}^t = \mathcal{W}^3 \text{ReLU} (\mathcal{W}^2 \text{ReLU} (\mathcal{W}^1 \vec{H}^t [N_\tau] + \vec{\mathcal{B}}^1) + \vec{\mathcal{B}}^2) + \vec{\mathcal{B}}^3 .$$

195 Combining the last equation with Equation 3 provides finally an explicit formula for
 196 the initial assumption of modelling the runoff for time t as a functional of a sequence
 197 of atmospheric fields, i.e.

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{R}^t &= \vec{M}(\{X_k^t [x, y, \tau]\}) \\ &= \mathcal{W}^3 \text{ReLU} (\mathcal{W}^2 \text{ReLU} (\mathcal{W}^1 \vec{L}_H (\vec{X}^t [N_\tau], L(\vec{X}^t [N_\tau - 1], \dots, L(\vec{X}^t [1], (0, 0)) \dots)) + \vec{\mathcal{B}}^1) + \vec{\mathcal{B}}^2) + \vec{\mathcal{B}}^3 , \end{aligned}$$

198 where the \vec{L}_H means that only the hidden state vector of the final ConvLSTM call is
 199 forwarded to the FC layer.

200 In Section 3, we present the employed model and data setup as well as the choice for
 201 all mentioned hyper parameters that lead to an adequate model performance after
 202 training.

203 **3 Technical details**

204 **3.1 Runoff data used for training**

205 The runoff data covering the period 1979 to 2011 is based on an E-HYPE hindcast
 206 simulation that was forced by a regional downscaling of ERA-Interim (Dee et al.,
 207 2011) with RCA3 (“The rossby centre regional climate model RCA3,” n.d.) and im-
 208 plemented into NEMO-Nordic (Hordoir et al., 2019) as a mass flux. For the periods
 209 before (1961 to 1978) and after (2012 to 2018) additional spatial temporal correc-
 210 tions have been applied to the runoff data, and have therefore been ignored. For
 211 more information see Gröger et al. (2022) and references therein.

212 **3.2 Atmospheric Forcing**

213 The UERRA-HARMONIE regional reanalysis dataset was developed as part of
 214 the FP7 UERRA project (Uncertainties in Ensembles of Regional Re-Analyses,

215 <http://www.uerra.eu/>). The UERRA-HARMONIE system represents a comprehensive,
 216 high-resolution reanalysis covering a wide range of essential climate variables.
 217 This dataset encompasses data on air temperature, pressure, humidity, wind speed
 218 and direction, cloud cover, precipitation, albedo, surface heat fluxes, and radiation
 219 fluxes from January 1961 to July 2019. With a horizontal resolution of 11 km and
 220 analyses conducted at 00 UTC, 06 UTC, 12 UTC, and 18 UTC, it also provides
 221 hourly resolution forecast model data. UERRA-HARMONIE is accessible through
 222 the Copernicus Climate Data Store (CDS, <https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/#!/home>), initially produced during the UERRA project and later transitioned to
 223 the Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S, <https://climate.copernicus.eu/copernicus-regionalreanalysis-europe>).
 224
 225

226 3.3 Ocean Model

227 To simulate the Baltic Sea, we use a coupled 3-dimensional ocean model Baltic Sea,
 228 called the Modular Ocean Model (MOM). This model uses a finite-difference method
 229 to solve the full set of primitive equations to calculate the motion of water and the
 230 transport of heat and salt. The K-profile parameterization (KPP) was used as tur-
 231 bulence closure scheme. The model's western boundary opens into the Skagerrak
 232 and connects the Baltic Sea to the North Sea. The maximum depth was set at 264
 233 meters. A more detailed description of the setup can be found in (Gröger et al.,
 234 2022).

235 3.4 Neural network hyper parameters

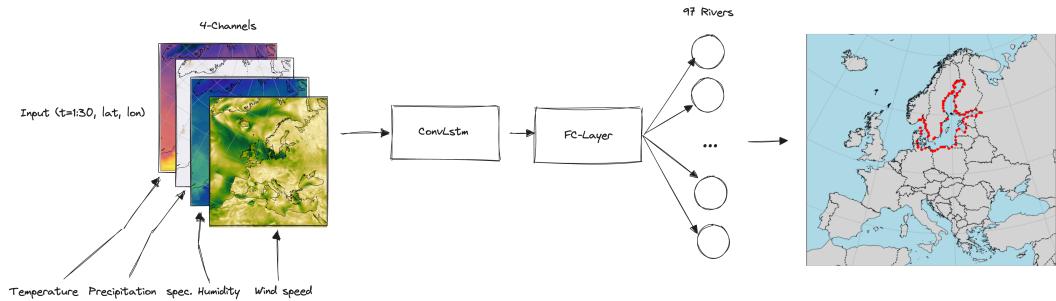


Figure 3: Schematic structure of the ConvLSTM implementation for river runoff forecasting.

236 For the computation we use the following set of hyper parameters:

Table 1: Hyperparameters

Parameter name	Parameter size
Channel size	4
Num. hidden layer	9
Num. timesteps	30
Conv. Kernelsize	(7,7)
Num. ConvLSTM layers	1
Batch size	50
Learning Rate	1e-3 with CosineAnnealing

237 As input the model receives 30 days of atmospheric surface fields temperature T ,
 238 precipitation P , specific humidity Q and wind speed W , with a daily resolution to
 239 predict the river runoff R at the time step $\Delta t + 1$, which can be summarized as

240
$$R_{\Delta t+1} = f(T_{t-30:t}, P_{t-30:t}, Q_{t-30:t}, W_{t-30:t})$$

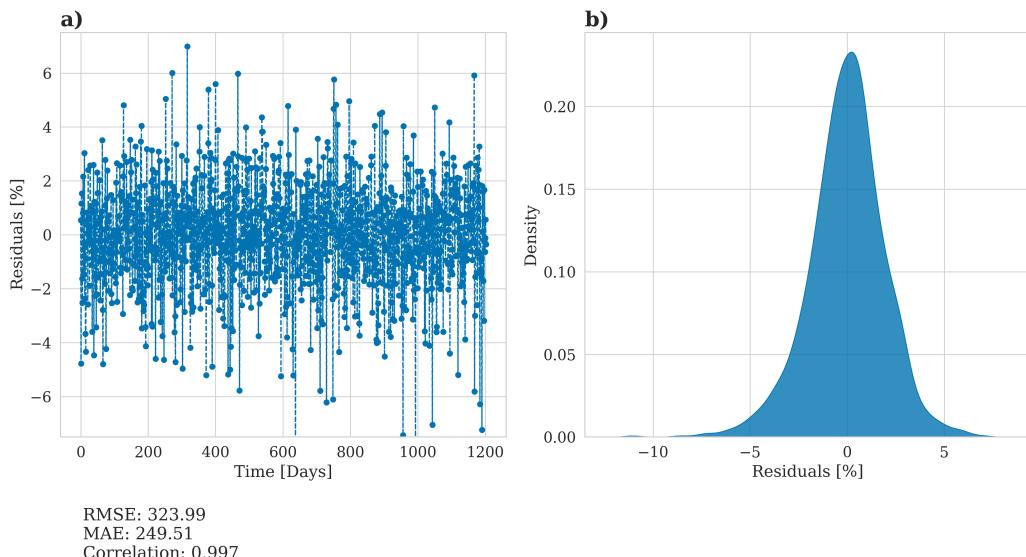
241 with f being a function maps the 30 days of daily atmospheric surface fields data to
 242 the predicted river runoff.

243 The choice of atmospheric fields was based on the implemented river runoff cal-
 244 culation in the atmospheric model COSMO-CLM which uses these four fields to
 245 calculate an river runoff estimate.

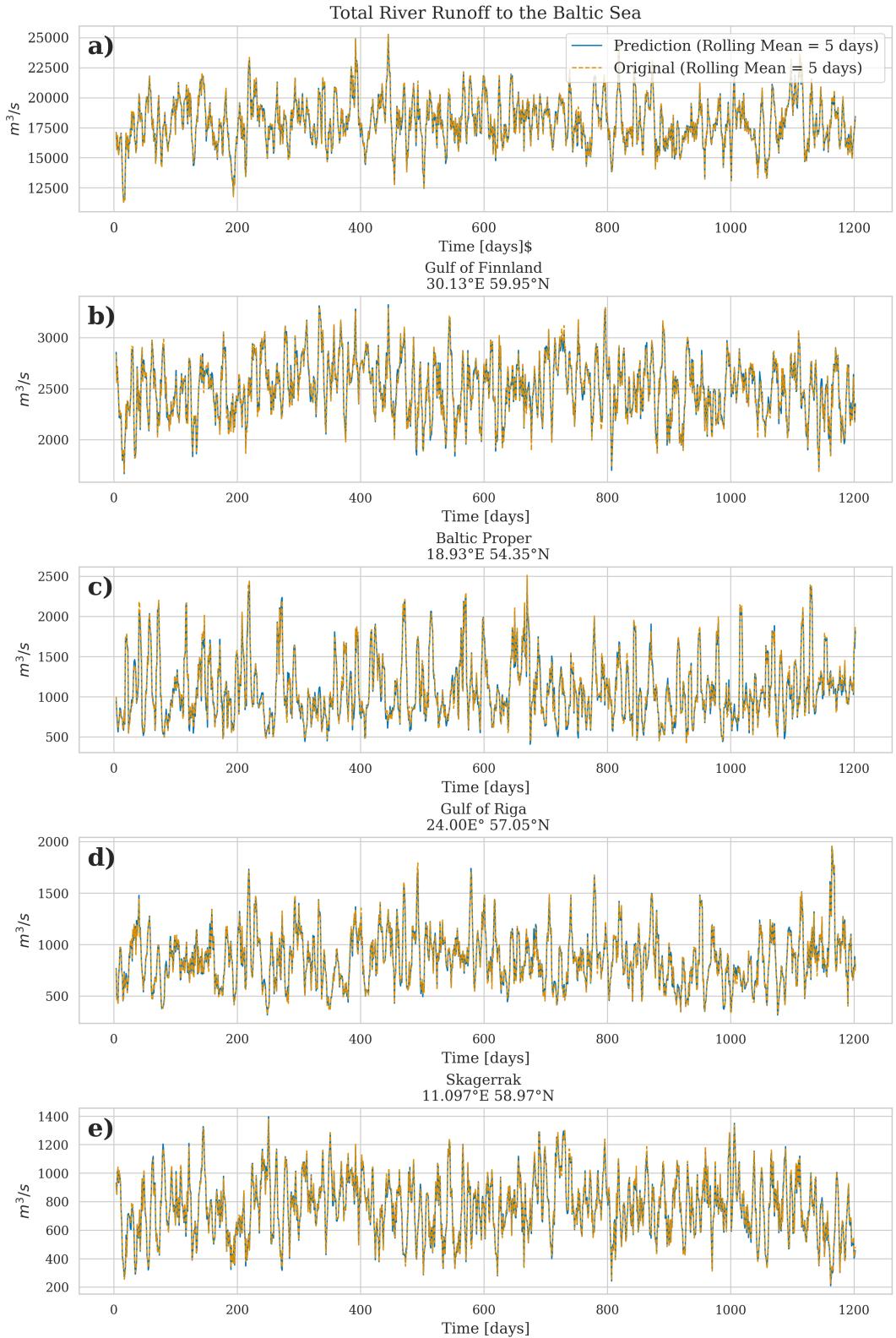
246 4 Results

247 The model was trained with daily data for the period 1979 to 2011, as this period
 248 represents the only period of E-HYPE without further bias correction applied to the
 249 runoff to match observations. The data was divided into randomly chosen splits of
 250 80% training data, 10% validation data to evaluate the performance of the model
 251 during training, and 10% training data which is finally used to evaluate the perfor-
 252 mance of the model after training. The model was trained for 400 epochs and the
 253 model weights with the lowest mean squared error during training have been stored.

254 The accuracy of the model is displayed in Figure ?@fig-statistical-evaluationNN.
 255 As mention above for evaluation, the test dataset was utilized. The left panel panel
 256 (Figure ?@fig-statistical-evaluationNN a)) illustrates the relative prediction
 257 error in relation to the original E-HYPE data, indicating that, on daily timescales,
 258 the model can predict river runoff with an accuracy of $\pm 5\%$. The overall corre-
 259 lation is 0.997 with the resulting error metrics yielding a RMSE of $323.99 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ and
 260 MAE of $249.51 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$. While the model's performance is satisfactory, the discrep-
 261 ancies between the actual values and the predictions could partly be attributed to
 262 the use of a different atmospheric dataset than the one originally used to drive the
 263 E-HYPE model. However, by applying a rolling mean with a 5-day window, the
 264 prediction error is reduced to less than 1%, which is acceptable for the purposes of
 265 climate modeling. Lastly, the right panel demonstrates that the distribution of resid-
 266 uals follows a Gaussian shape, suggesting that our model does not exhibit bias by
 267 systematically over or underestimating river runoff values.



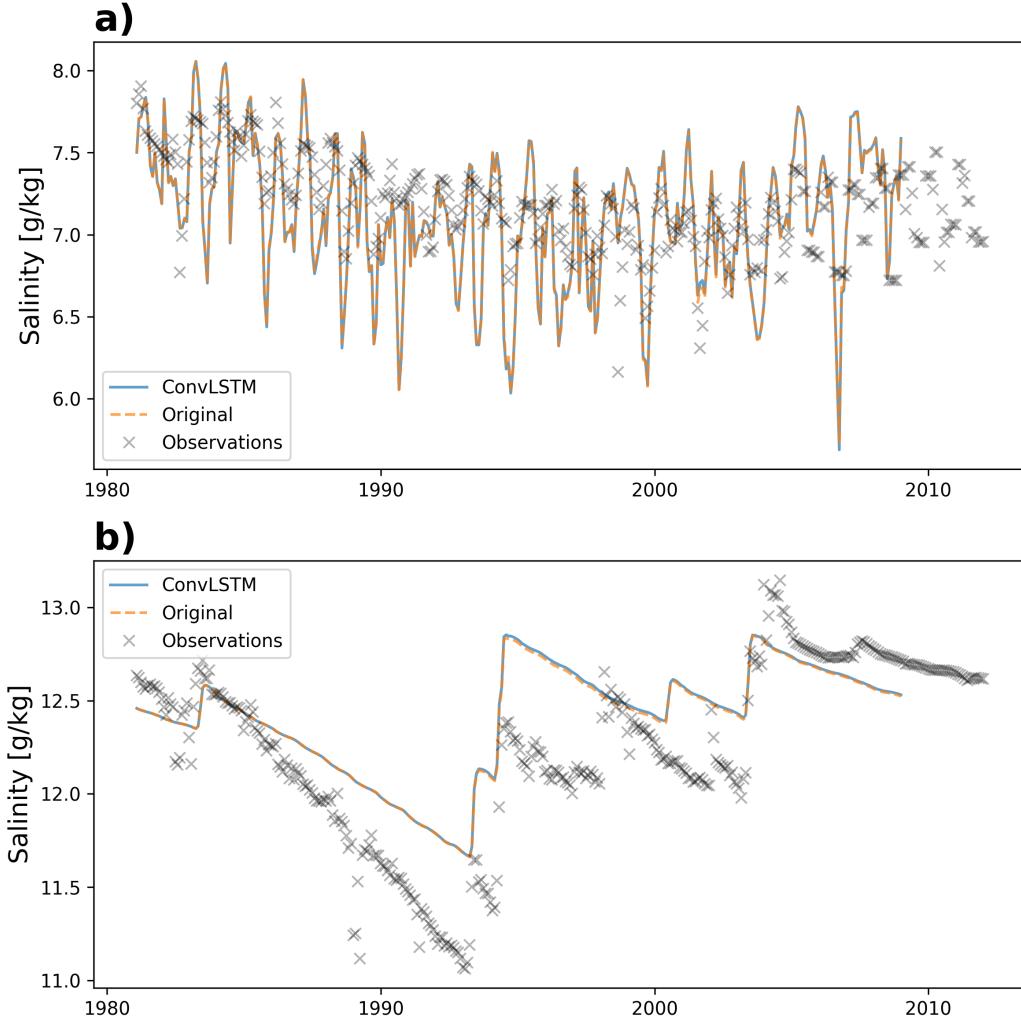
269 In the following we will now address the overall performance of the total river
270 runoff while also zooming in on the four largest rivers entering the Baltic Sea. @fig-
271 PerformanceNeuralNetworkRunoff shows the predicted and the original river runoff
272 using the test dataset. The predicted total river runoff for the Baltic Sea is closely
273 matching the original data (@fig-PerformanceNeuralNetworkRunoff a). Zooming in
274 on the largest individual rivers (@fig-PerformanceNeuralNetworkRunoff b-e) it can
275 be seen that that also the prediction of the individual rivers is close to the original
276 data.



277

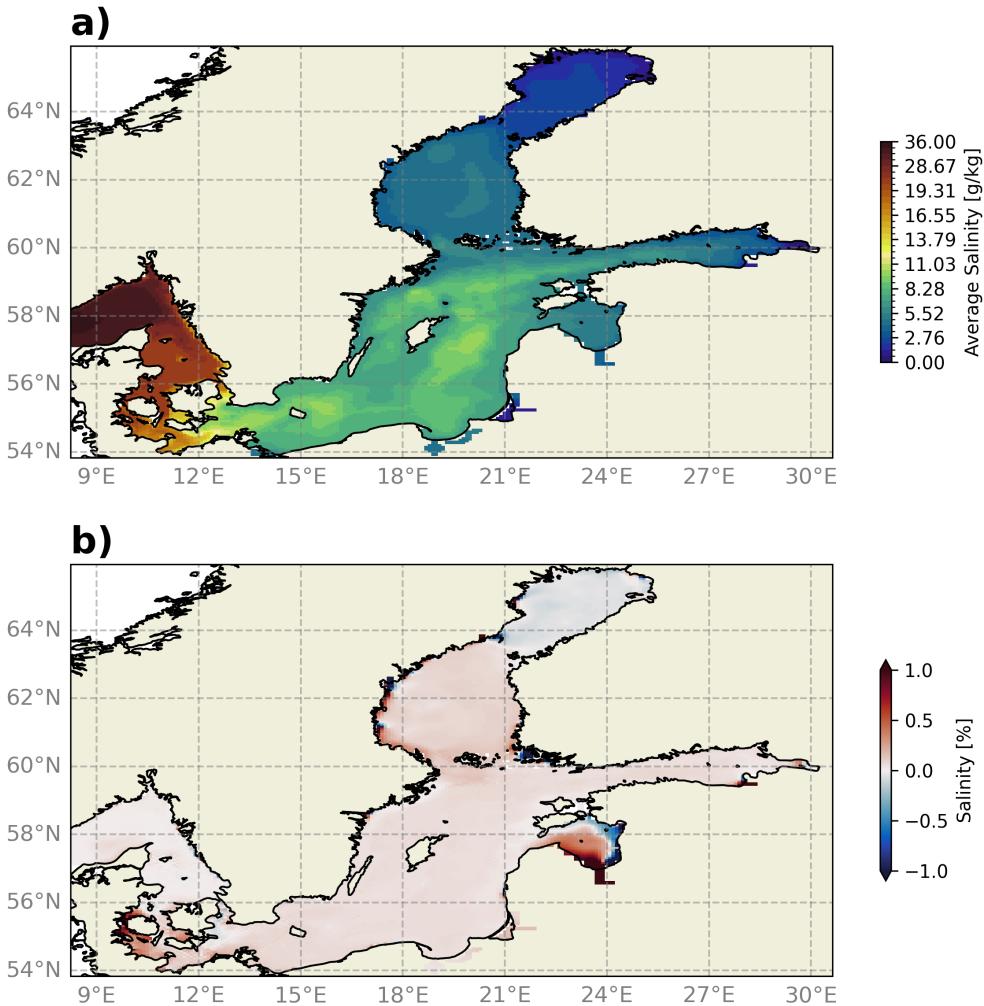
278 Lastly, we evaluated the performance of the runoff model by incorporating the pre-
 279 dicted river runoff as runoff forcing into the ocean model MOM5. This provides a
 280 robust validation of the runoff model against more complex real world conditions.
 281 This allows us to ensure that the predictions accurately reflect the impact of the
 282 river discharge on the ocean dynamics, validating the temporal and spatial variabil-

283 ity of the the river discharge. ?@fig-by15 shows the salinity comparison between
 284 the original E-HYPE river runoff and the predicted river runoff at BY15 - a cen-
 285 tral stations in the Baltic Sea. It can be seen that the model simulation using the
 286 predicted river runoff by the ConvLSTM is closely mirroring the control simulation.
 287 The upper panel (?@fig-by15 a) shows the surface salinity, representing the high-
 288 frequency variations in the salinity, which is heavily affected by river runoff. The
 289 lower panel (?@fig-by15 b) shows the bottom salinity which can be viewed as a
 290 low-pass filter in the Baltic Sea, which is also closely mirrored by the ConvLSTM
 291 predictions.



292

293 The final evaluation of the ConvLSTM model concentrates on the spatial accuracy
 294 of river runoff predictions. Figure xxx a) shows the vertically averaged salinity for
 295 the period 1981 to 2011 in the reference simulation. It highlights the strong horizon-
 296 tal gradients and complex topographic features in the Baltic Sea, as evidenced by
 297 salinity variations in deeper waters, captured by the vertical integration. Figure 4b
 298 compares these results by showing the percentage difference in vertically averaged
 299 salinity between the ConvLSTM simulation and the reference simulation. Overall,
 300 the differences remain below 1%, except near a river mouth in the Gulf of Riga
 301 (22-24°E, 56.5-58.5°N for orientation), where the difference is approximately 1%.



302

303

5 Discussion

304

With the increasing demand of decision makers for regional climate projections, that allow to quantify regional climate change impacts, the availability of precise hydrological forecasting becomes invaluable. The quality of a projection for a coastal sea such as the Baltic Sea is too large parts based on the quality of the hydrological conditions. In this work we analyze the implementation of Convolutional Long Short-Term Memory (ConvLSTM) networks for predicting river runoff, highlighting its potential to enhance river runoff forecasting across different coastal seas. Given the unique hydrological characteristics of the Baltic Sea, largely influenced by its limited connection to the open ocean and significant freshwater input from surrounding rivers, the region presents a critical case for the application of sophisticated forecasting models.

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

319

320

321

322

The transition from traditional hydrological models to machine learning approaches, such as the ConvLSTM model, offers significant advantages. The ConvLSTM can be seamlessly integrated into regional climate models, allowing for the real-time computation of river runoff while performing climate projections. While the initial training of the model requires substantial computational resources, it remains less intensive than running comprehensive hydrological models. Furthermore, once trained, the ConvLSTM model is computationally efficient during inference, ensuring enhanced forecasting capabilities without significantly increasing computational demands.

323 While the ConvLSTM represents an advancement for the climate community, given
 324 that running and tuning traditional hydrological models demands extensive exper-
 325 tise, models like E-HYPE maintain an essential role. They provide a comprehensive
 326 dataset that helps to train our ConvLSTM model effectively. This robust training
 327 enables the machine learning models to achieve highly accurate predictive weights.
 328 Thus, rather than rendering traditional methods obsolete, the integration of machine
 329 learning models builds upon and enhances the foundational data provided by them.

330 The robust performance of the ConvLSTM model in simulating river runoff and
 331 its possible effective integration into regional climate models pave the way for a
 332 multitude of new storyline simulations. Hence, we can now explore various “what-
 333 if” scenarios more reliably, under the assumption that the model weights attained
 334 during training are robust.

335 In summary, we showed that the ConvLSTM model demonstrated robust perfor-
 336 mance in forecasting river runoff across 97 rivers entering the Baltic Sea. Trained
 337 on data from 1979 to 2011, the model achieved an impressive daily prediction accu-
 338 racy of $\pm 5\%$. This capability to generate accurate and detailed simulations enables
 339 to examine the potential impacts of different climate scenarios. Such precision in
 340 forecasting and scenario testing is crucial for crafting effective water resource man-
 341 agement strategies and adapting to the changing climate.

342 Ultimately, the integration of ConvLSTM into regional climate models represents a
 343 significant step forward in our ability to understand and predict the complex dynam-
 344 ics of river systems and their impact on regional climate systems.

345 6 Acknowledgments

346 Phasellus interdum tincidunt ex, a euismod massa pulvinar at. Ut fringilla ut nisi
 347 nec volutpat. Morbi imperdiet congue tincidunt. Vivamus eget rutrum purus. Etiam
 348 et pretium justo. Donec et egestas sem. Donec molestie ex sit amet viverra egestas.
 349 Nullam justo nulla, fringilla at iaculis in, posuere non mauris. Ut eget imperdiet elit.

350 7 Open research

351 Phasellus interdum tincidunt ex, a euismod massa pulvinar at. Ut fringilla ut nisi
 352 nec volutpat. Morbi imperdiet congue tincidunt. Vivamus eget rutrum purus. Etiam
 353 et pretium justo. Donec et egestas sem. Donec molestie ex sit amet viverra egestas.
 354 Nullam justo nulla, fringilla at iaculis in, posuere non mauris. Ut eget imperdiet elit.

355 References

- 356 Ashrafi, M., Chua, L. H. C., Quek, C., & Qin, X. (2017). A fully-online neuro-fuzzy
 357 model for flow forecasting in basins with limited data. *Journal of Hydrology*, 545,
 358 424–435.
- 359 Dee, D. P., Uppala, S. M., Simmons, A. J., Berrisford, P., Poli, P., Kobayashi, S., et
 360 al. (2011). The ERA-Interim reanalysis: configuration and performance of the
 361 data assimilation system. *Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society*,
 362 137(656), 553–597. <https://doi.org/10.1002/qj.828>
- 363 Fang, L., & Shao, D. (2022). Application of long short-term memory (LSTM) on the
 364 prediction of rainfall-runoff in karst area. *Frontiers in Physics*, 9, 790687.
- 365 Fang, W., Huang, S., Ren, K., Huang, Q., Huang, G., Cheng, G., & Li, K. (2019).
 366 Examining the applicability of different sampling techniques in the development
 367 of decomposition-based streamflow forecasting models. *Journal of Hydrology*, 568,
 368 534–550. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2018.11.020>
- 369 Gröger, M., Placke, M., Meier, M., Börgel, F., Brunnabend, S.-E., Dutheil, C., et
 370 al. (2022). *The Baltic Sea model inter-comparison project BMIP – a platform
 371 for model development, evaluation, and uncertainty assessment*. Retrieved from
 372 <https://gmd.copernicus.org/preprints/gmd-2022-160/>

- 373 Ha, S., Liu, D., & Mu, L. (2021). Prediction of Yangtze River streamflow based
 374 on deep learning neural network with El Niño–Southern Oscillation. *Scientific
 375 Reports*, 11(1), 11738. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-021-90964-3>
- 376 Hagemann, S., Stacke, T., & Ho-Hagemann, H. T. M. (2020). High Resolution Dis-
 377 charge Simulations Over Europe and the Baltic Sea Catchment. *Frontiers in
 378 Earth Science*, 8. <https://doi.org/10.3389/feart.2020.00012>
- 379 Hochreiter, S., & Schmidhuber, J. (1997). Long short-term memory. *Neural Compu-
 380 tation*, 9(8), 1735–1780.
- 381 Hordoir, R., Axell, L., Höglund, A., Dieterich, C., Fransner, F., Gröger, M., et al.
 382 (2019). Nemo-nordic 1.0: A NEMO-based ocean model for the baltic and north
 383 seas – research and operational applications. *Geoscientific Model Development*,
 384 12(1), 363–386. <https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-12-363-2019>
- 385 Huang, S., Chang, J., Huang, Q., & Chen, Y. (2014). Monthly streamflow prediction
 386 using modified EMD-based support vector machine. *Journal of Hydrology*, 511,
 387 764–775.
- 388 Humphrey, G. B., Gibbs, M. S., Dandy, G. C., & Maier, H. R. (2016). A hybrid
 389 approach to monthly streamflow forecasting: Integrating hydrological model
 390 outputs into a bayesian artificial neural network. *Journal of Hydrology*, 540,
 391 623–640.
- 392 Kratzert, F., Klotz, D., Brenner, C., Schulz, K., & Herrnegger, M. (2018). Rainfall–
 393 runoff modelling using long short-term memory (LSTM) networks. *Hydrology
 394 and Earth System Sciences*, 22(11), 6005–6022.
- 395 Liu, D., Jiang, W., Mu, L., & Wang, S. (2020). Streamflow prediction using deep
 396 learning neural network: Case study of yangtze river. *IEEE Access*, 8, 90069–
 397 90086.
- 398 Meier, H. M., & Döscher, R. (2002). Simulated water and heat cycles of the baltic
 399 sea using a 3D coupled atmosphere–ice–ocean model. *Boreal Environment Re-
 400 search*, 7(4), 327.
- 401 Moishin, M., Deo, R. C., Prasad, R., Raj, N., & Abdulla, S. (2021). Designing deep-
 402 based learning flood forecast model with ConvLSTM hybrid algorithm. *IEEE
 403 Access*, 9, 50982–50993.
- 404 SHI, X., Chen, Z., Wang, H., Yeung, D.-Y., Wong, W., & WOO, W. (2015). Con-
 405 volutional LSTM Network: A Machine Learning Approach for Precipitation
 406 Nowcasting. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems* (Vol. 28).
 407 Curran Associates, Inc. Retrieved from <https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper/2015/hash/07563a3fe3bbe7e3ba84431ad9d055af-Abstract.html>
- 408 Tan, Q.-F., Lei, X.-H., Wang, X., Wang, H., Wen, X., Ji, Y., & Kang, A.-Q. (2018).
 409 An adaptive middle and long-term runoff forecast model using EEMD-ANN hy-
 410 brid approach. *Journal of Hydrology*, 567, 767–780. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2018.01.015>
- 411 The rossby centre regional climate model RCA3: Model description and perfor-
 412 mance - tellus a: Dynamic meteorology and oceanography. (n.d.). Retrieved
 413 from <https://a.tellusjournals.se/articles/10.1111/j.1600-0870.2010.00478.x>
- 414 Zhu, S., Wei, J., Zhang, H., Xu, Y., & Qin, H. (2023). Spatiotemporal deep learning
 415 rainfall-runoff forecasting combined with remote sensing precipitation products in
 416 large scale basins. *Journal of Hydrology*, 616, 128727.