



Predicting Air Quality by Particulate Matter Based on Neural Networks

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Abstract: These days, many places struggle with air pollution, putting the health of young and old at risk for respiratory issues. Forecasting fine-grained air quality in the future is crucial for informing public policy and helping individuals make decisions. Using historical data on air quality, meteorological expertise, and forecasting data, we predict the average air quality for a town for the next seven days, as well as the air quality for each tracking station for the next 48 hours. Our proposal is a deep neural network method called Deep Air, which is based on domain knowledge about air pollutants. We employ a deep cascaded fusion community for longer-term forecasting and a deep distributed fusion network for station-level long-term prediction, and long-term prospects for the city. The previous community used a neural distributed structure as part of the information transformation preprocessing in order to combine diverse city facts and simultaneously collect the direct and indirect components affecting air quality. The latter network examines the dynamic effects of historical, current, and projected future data on air quality using a neural cascaded architecture. Our device specifically integrates three additives—a project scheduler, and a prediction model—to boost the system's efficacy and stability. These additives function through a structure of many challenges. Results from experiments demonstrate the advantages of our proposed approach, which is mostly based on datasets from nine Indian towns over a three-month period.

Index Term: Air excellent prediction, Deep Neural Networks.

I. INTRODUCTION

The tendency of increased Meteorologicalization is making air pollution a severe issue for many towns [1]. Air pollutants are made up of a mixture of gaseous species (like NO₂, CO, O₃, and SO₂) and particle counts (like PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀). These pollutants have an impact on human fitness over the long and long term, especially for respiratory disorders in the young and old [2].

To measure air pollutants from data set time, the Indian government has constructed a number of air quality monitoring stations and periodically releases data to the public [3].

There is growing interest in projecting future fine-grained air quality in addition to monitoring. The government can use these projections to inform judgments about laws (like implementing traffic limits) and public policy (like deciding whether to allow exercise outside on a given day). For the following reasons, however, it can be exceedingly challenging to forecast future air quality.

According to Fig. 1, the main sources of air pollution are industrial emissions, coal combustion, soil, and vehicle exhaust. Each of these sources emits pollutants in distinct spatial-temporal patterns. Additionally, surrounding emissions, local shipping, and meteorological circumstances all have an impact on the quality of the air [5]. These components can be divided into two groups based on their impact. Local emission and local delivery are direct elements because they directly affect how pollution forms; weather conditions, secondary productions, geography, and time are indirect factors because they together influence how pollution develops. However, we no longer have enough reliable information to precisely model those components [6].

For instance, it is essentially impossible to increase pollution emission on a city-wide scale. The same is true for climate predictions, since "the longer the forecast horizon is, the much less accurate the forecast can be. Second, these components interact in a complicated way. The effects of India for PM_{2.5} is depicted in Fig. 2a when air quality is predicted using multi-layer perceptron and the most efficient type of information. We may observe that the RMSE for weather forecasts and air quality are at odds with one another over time, with the former increasing even while the latter drops. The rationale behind it is that historical air quality records are consistent for day 1 to day 7 projections whereas weather forecast statistics capture future dynamics up until the anticipated time slot. As a result, the significance of various informational cues has changed over time. It is therefore miles away. it's crucial to create the optimum fusion technique for these statistics.



In addition, following a rain, many individuals feel that the air is remarkable and may be higher. However, under some circumstances, adequate air quality will be worse. The impact of rain on air quality is depicted in Fig. 2 using just statistical analysis of 3-year records from India from our records collection. By counting the percentage of $k = AQI_{t+k} - AQI_t$, where $AQI_t > 100$, Weather = rain, and okay is the time in the C language after rain, we may determine ratios. As a result of the condition being unaltered after rain, the raising and descending ratios added here are less than We can see that the likelihood that the air quality will deteriorate 12 hours after rain is still greater than 20%.

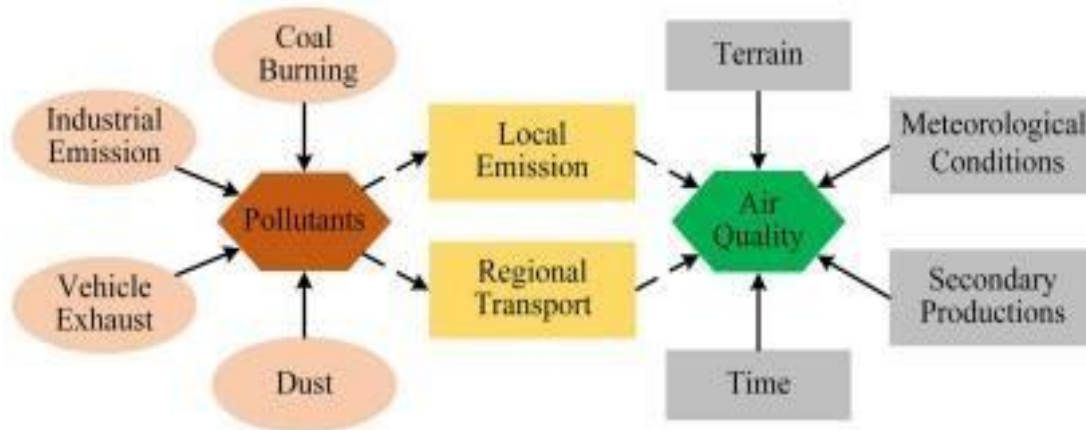


Fig. 1. Various factors influencing air pollution

This is because a number of factors work together to bring down air first class, making it difficult to determine the full impact of any one component. 0.33, air quality substantially varies with time and place, occasionally occurring with a rapid change.

As shown in Fig. 3, the air first-class constantly varies over time with hourly obvious daily, and weekly periodic styles. It also varies in different ways depending on the region. Additionally, we will find some unexpected changes where the air quality index (AQI) lowers extremely rapidly over a very long period of time [7].

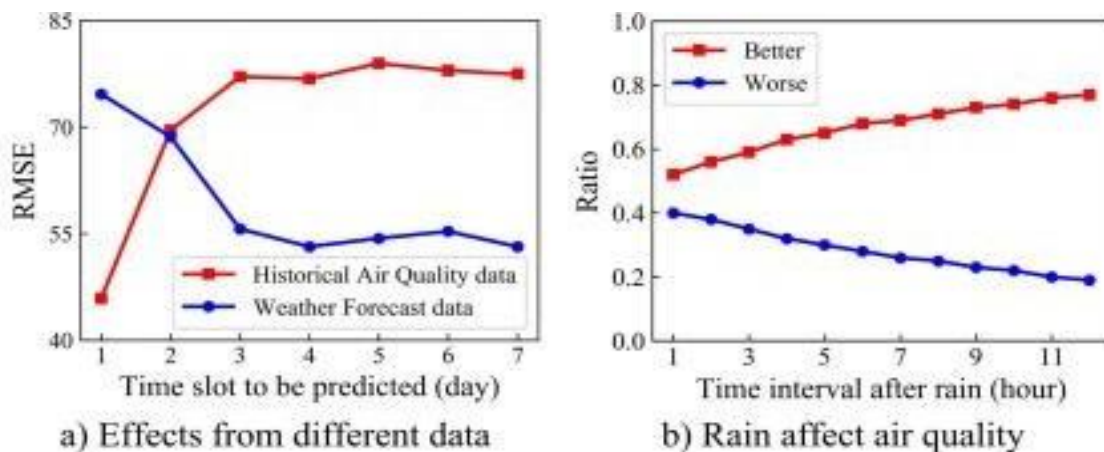


Fig.2. Impact of rain on air quality

A strong wind flowing from the southeast causes the AQI of tracking station S2 at the 30th timestamp to drop by almost 200 over the following hours, as shown in Fig. 3. Any such abrupt transition is crucial because people tend to pay more attention to unexpected changes than to common occurrences in daily life.

When the air is heavily polluted, they only care about future air quality and want to know how long it will last. Even yet, it's possible that the entire dataset only sometimes contains unexpected updates. Some of the three-year records are excellent, and less than 2.3 percent of them contain unexpected changes. Any such information imbalance event makes it very difficult to predict the state of the air.



We suggest a DNN-based method to forecast the air quality of the next 48 hours for a tracking station and the daily average of the next 7 days for a metropolis. This method takes into account air quality statistics, meteorological information, and climate projections. Since all indirect factors affect direct elements and both direct and indirect factors have significant effects on air quality, our strategy is inspired by domain knowledge about air pollution. This knowledge may help in the development of version forms with additional interpretations for long-term predictions. By using distribution, we are able to simultaneously capture these individual and holistic benefits. We combine the benefits of those two elements for long-term forecasts, taking into account the opposing effects of historical air quality and climate forecast over time, in order to capture the dynamic interactions using cascaded Fusion architecture. The following is an index of our contributions:

- We upgrade a device that predicts air quality in from data set-time.
- Providing prediction services for more than three hundred municipalities, both for long and extended time periods.
- We implement three key device components—an information crawler, an undertaking scheduler, and a prediction model—with a multi-task structure in order to increase the system's efficiency and stability.

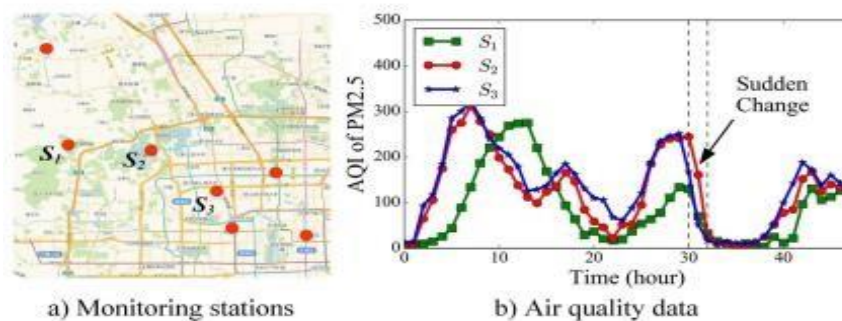


Fig. 3. Air quality change over location and time.

Fig. 3. Change of Air Quality over location and time

II. SYSTEM OVERVIEW

The device architecture is depicted in Fig. 4 and is primarily made up of 3 parts: the prediction version, the project scheduler, and the records crawler. The mission scheduler will activate the prediction model if the collected facts satisfy the prediction criteria. Keep in mind that, in order to increase machine efficiency, information crawlers are implemented with a multi-thread and multi-queue-based totally multi-mission architecture. Regarding the prediction version, following records preprocessing, we predict, for station-level long-term air first-class and city-degree lengthy-time period air terrific. Here, we train the neural networks on the given dataset spatial transformation of 8hrs and then prediction, where multi-undertaking architecture is used to accomplish online prediction. Then, for instant record conversion to quit-person, prediction effects are stored in an additional cache. Prediction results will periodically back up to the database in order to restore the data. Ultimately, we use web services to display the online effects of us from data set-time predictions.

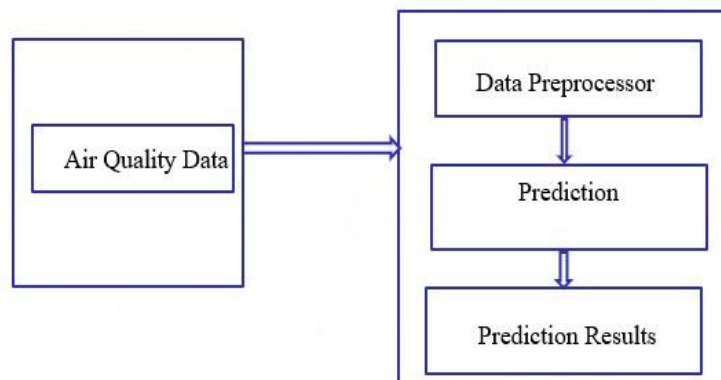


Fig. 4. Architecture of Air Quality Prediction System



III. PREDICTION MODEL

While some clients have unique forecast requirements, others are more concerned with town-level long-term planning, while others are more concerned with station-level long-term planning. As a result, we anticipate that both scenarios—a deep neural network and a deep cascaded fusion network—will produce first-class-grained air.

a. Spatial Transformation

Because contaminants spread over space [6], a location's air quality no longer primarily depends on its prior air quality. Nonetheless, the quality of its surroundings' air also affects how pleasant something is. However, as demonstrated in Fig. 5 leftbottom, air first-rate the shading of the dot indicates the amount of suitable air, and tracking stations are sporadically located over a given geographic area. We develop the Spatial transformation element, which primarily consists of Partition, aggregation, and interpolation, to convert spatial sparse air high-quality facts into a consistent Enter for the additional prediction model. First, we divide the geographical area into sixteen sections using two circles and four strains, or 20 and 100 km semidiameters. Because of this, all regions have the target tracking station as their common center, and those inside the inner circle have a tiny area while those inside the outer circle have a large area.

Furthermore, regions with unique angles maintain eight wind guidelines, which can also be determined by climatic conditions. Additionally, we aggregate the air quality measurements obtained from local monitoring sites. Consequently, areas having a minimum of one station may have a single average AQI. However, we find from India's partition data that different objective stations have varied missing styles, and approximately 33% of areas no longer have monitoring stations. We therefore fill up the blank values in these areas. Specifically, we initially created some fictitious tracking stations in these regions at random. Next, we interpolate the AQI of fictitious monitoring sites using inverse distance weighting (IDW), a traditional spatial interpolation technique [8]. IDW uses the distance to the goal sensor to determine the weight of each available AQI value from neighboring stations, taking into account the stations that are situated both inside and outside the outer circle. These weights and readings are then combined using a weighted common. The average AQI for the region is then calculated by combining the interpolated data from fictional stations. Finally, we acquire 17 AQI in a single timestamp, 1 from the target station and 16 from neighboring regions. We have followed the same method for each monitoring site over the years.

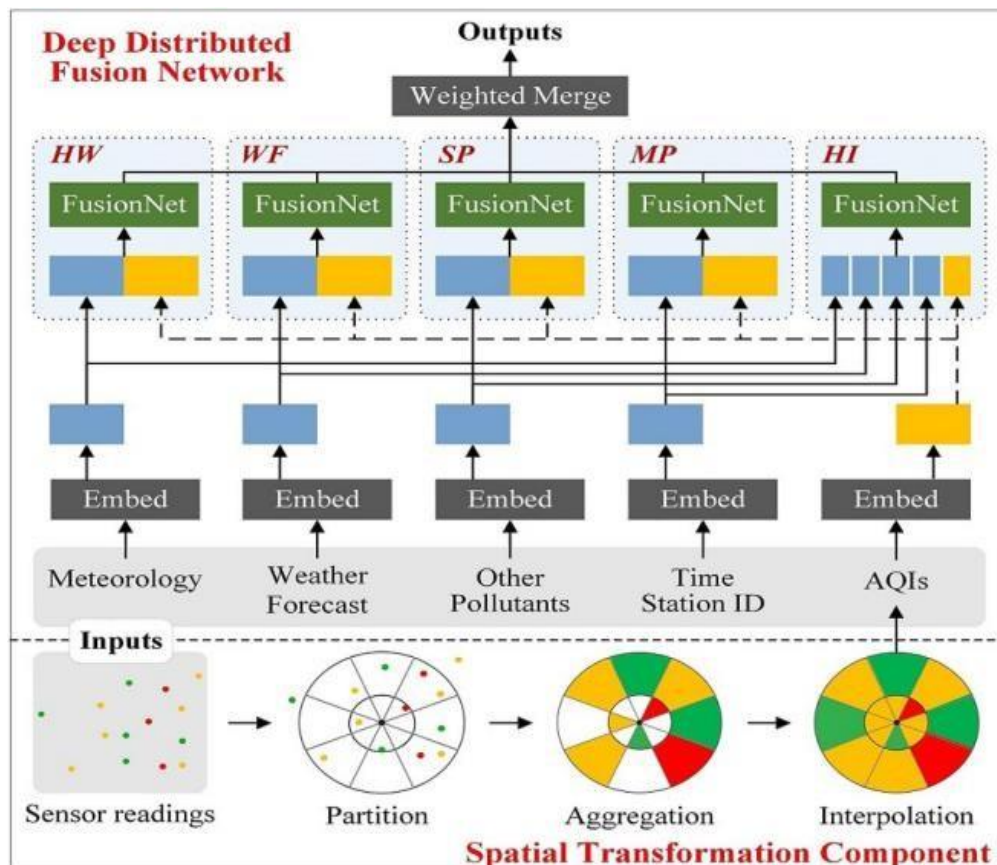


Fig. 5. Framework of station-level long-term prediction.



3.1.2 Deep Distributed Fusion

The reason for constructing the fusion network in Fig 6 subnets deals with facts from the data set and time c language; historically, the climate provided hourly actual weather conditions, while the climate prediction provided 3-hour stress as features for separated historical climate data. weather predicted. Here, the climate forecast considers the following factors: humidity, wind direction, speed, and anthills. Facts:wind route, wind power, and weather are all taken into account. Yew is the outcome of the HW subnet receiving previous Climate data and AQIs. Apart from obtaining you as an output when we supply the WF network with weather forecasts and AQIs. Pollutants in the environment undergo secondary chemical reactions in addition to direct emissions.

To representthe chemical interactions, we thus establish a secondary manufacturing subnet (SP). After merging the PM2:5 AQIs with the other pollutants (PM10, NO2, CO, O3, and SO2) that were measured at the target station, we are able to say with certainty. The Meta Assets Subnet (MP) shapes the time and topography of dwellings that impact air quality. Time(Month, Day, Week, Timecode) is a distinct temporal dimension that is used to version the air quality, such as winter weather. has air quality that is consistently poorer than in the summer. Furthermore, we replicatethe impacts of topography on air quality using station identification, such as the gradual deterioration of air quality in crowded regions compared to open areas. Once station identity, time, and AQIs are combinedin Fusion-Net, we obtain imp. Aside from the specific results, all indirect causes will simultaneously establish the growth environment of direct ones impacting future air quality. We arrange the holistic influence on subnet (hi) to understand the holistic effect by merging all direct and indirect Factors, which enables us to record these Facts. Next, we havechi. While there are many variables that affect flying first class, some of them can be specific.

$$y = \text{Sigmoid}(y_{hw} \cdot whw + y_{wf} \cdot wwf + y_{sp} \cdot wsp + y_{mp} \cdot wmp + y_{hi} \cdot whi) \dots \quad (1)$$

$$wmp + y_{hi} \cdot whi) \dots \quad (1)$$

In which \hat{y}^2_{Rh} are the predicted outcomes, y_{hw} ; y_{wf} ; y_{sp} ; y_{mp} ; y_{hi} Are the outputs of 5 subnets is Hadamard product, and are the learnable parameters that Modify the levels stricken by these subnets. Here, the prediction Outcomes are mapped into [0, 1] by way of Sigmoid characteristic. And later, we deformatize the predictions to get the data set airFirst-rate.

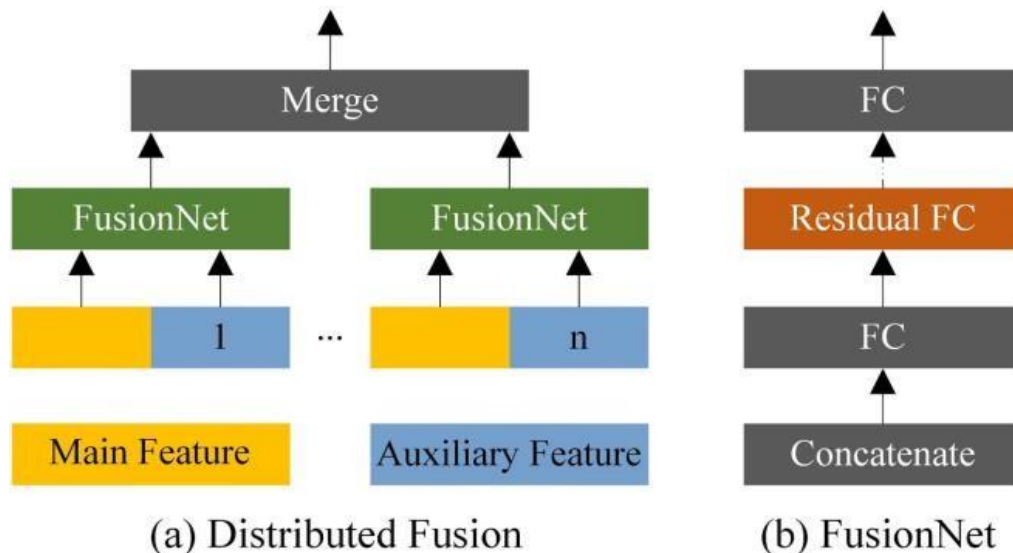


Fig. 6. Architecture of distributed fusion.

b. City-Level Long-Term Prediction

We can anticipate the next 48 hours of Air Satisfactory for all monitoring stations with the DA- brief version. Predicting the daily average air quality for a city over the next seven days is also crucial. The majority of people only give a damn about coarse- grained air quality, such as the average quality of air in a city for the next several days, and don't give a damn about hour-degree quality.



Different from station-stage long-time period prediction, city-level long-time period prediction encounters additional challenging circumstances: First of all, air pleasant denotes strong continuity in a brief length, but it also lacks a daily or weekly periodicity. Consequently, the old air exceptional has a limited role in long-term air quality prediction, where "the longer the forecast horizon is, the less importance will be." Second, other than weather forecasts, there is not enough statistical data to explain the destiny facts. Even if climate forecast accuracy declines over time, it's crucial to highlight the impact of climate forecasting on long-term prediction. 1/3, it's very difficult to tell apart the primary feature from the supporting features because the impact of all capability exchanges builds up over time, not to mention the next week. As such, we are unable to employ Reuse DA-quick for long-term air first-rate prediction right away. As is well known, historical air quality data and weather forecasts have opposing effects over time, with the former decreasing and the latter increasing. As demonstrated in Figure Nine, we propose a Deep cascaded fusion community (DA-lengthy) to capture these intricate dynamic connections and forecast city-level long-duration air exceptionalities. More specifically, in order to investigate the intra-dynamics of each significant issue, we first embed Air satisfaction data, meteorological facts, and weather forecast statistics. Then, air quality records combine meteorological conditions with signet in an iterative fashion, simulating the dynamic interaction between these key components over time. We handle all Fusion results in an identical manner and aggregate all of the fusion effects, which sets us apart from Simplest when taking into account the outcome of the previous Fusion. creating the final prediction through the use of a weighted merging. Here, we extract the town-level daily average AQI of the past few days for air quality data, as well as the area-level AQI of the past few hours via spatial transformation.

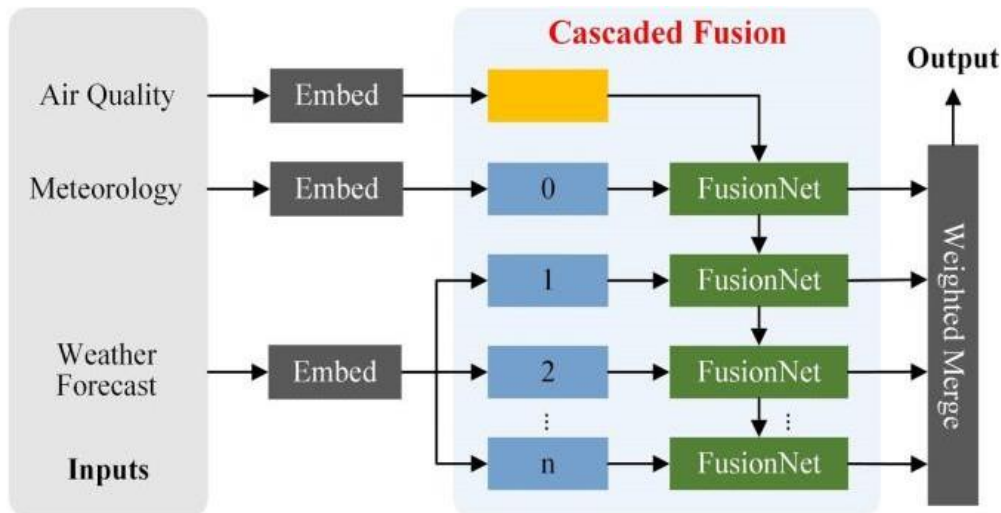


Fig. 7. Fusion Network

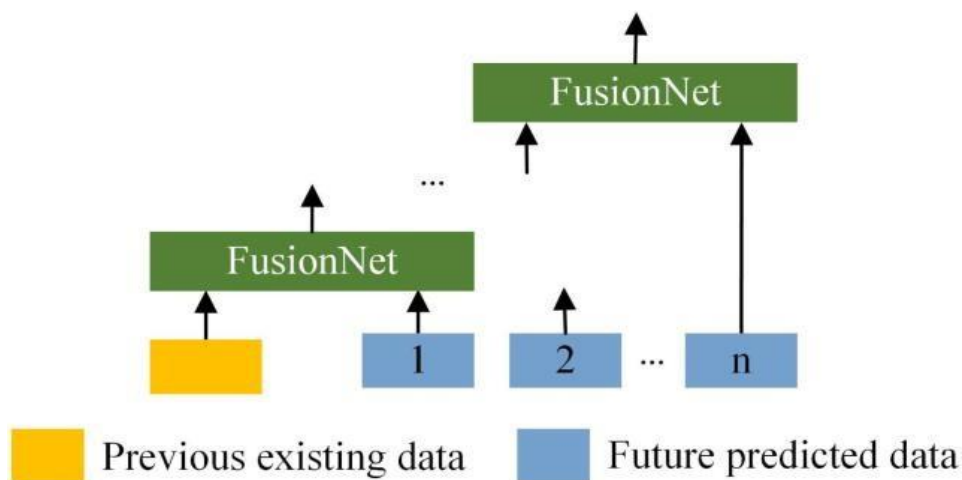


Fig. 8. Architecture of cascaded fusion



i. Deep Cascaded Fusion

We can designate air first-class and meteorology as previous existing records and climate projection as future predicted records by taking time statistics and data from the data set into consideration. The floor records that have already happened are included in the earlier statistics, while the records that are occurring in the future are included in the later records. As we know, with time, the effects of earlier current statistics become weaker and the effects of future anticipated facts become stronger. As illustrated in Fig. 7, we set up a cascading Fusion structure to capture such dynamic interactions throughout time in order to maximize the benefits of each record. Specifically, addresses the two Fusion Net input components: predecessor and successor capabilities. For instance, the air satisfactory facts serve as the first predecessor function, the fusion net's results serve as the second previous capability, and the weather forecast's individual slices serve as the successor function. The dynamic correlations are captured by the cascaded fusion structure when each successor feature fuses with its preceding characteristic in turn. We shall reduce the influence of the original Predecessor function and strengthen the remaining successor function over time with the cascaded fusion architecture. Because of this characteristic, while assessing distributed fusion architecture, cascaded fusion structure makes better predictions for long-term air and is more appropriate for simulating dynamic interactions over time.

c. Algorithm

Algorithm 1 describes the DA-Long process. In order to minimize the loss, we first build the training instances (lines 1–7) and then train the model using backpropagation (lines 8–9). The training DA-Long pseudo-code is comparable. We will disregard it here, as it was discussed in our previous paper [13].

Algorithm 1: DA-Long:(India)

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1: To  $\forall t \in [1, t]$  do
2: for  $\forall i \in s$  do
3:  $x_{ad} = \text{Daily\_Aggregation}([AQI_s^{t-h}, \dots, AQI_s^t])$ 
4:  $x_{ah} = \text{Spatial\_Transformation}$ 
   ( $[AQI_s^{t-h}, \dots, AQI_s^t]$ )
5:  $x_{aqi} = [x_{ad}, x_{ah}]$ 

6:  $y = \text{Get\_Prediction\_Target}(AQI_s^{t+k})$ 
7: Append ( $\{x_{aqi}\}$ ,  $y$  into D)
8: initialize all learnable parameters  $\theta$  in DA-Long

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For time series forecasting, a deep learning technique called the DA-Long algorithm is employed. It is a hybrid of long short-term memory (LSTM) networks with dilated causal convolution (DCC). In time series data, long-range dependencies are captured by the DCC network, and short-range relationships are captured by the LSTM network.

The input time series data is first sent through a DCC network in order for the DA-Long algorithm to function. A stack of dilated causal convolutional layers makes up the DCC network. Because every dilated causal convolutional layer has a unique dilation factor, it may capture dependencies across a range of time scales. An LSTM network receives the DCC network's output after that. A kind of recurrent network is the LSTM network.

IV. EXPERIMENT

a. Settings

i. Datasets

Data on air quality: According to the dataset monitoring stations spread over 9 Indian cities. Six contaminants are included in each air quality record: PM2.5, PM10, NO2, CO, O3, and SO2. We use Indian AQI criteria to translate these concentrations into the appropriate AQI for each contaminant.

From <https://www.kaggle.com/datasets/rohanrao/airqualityda-ta-in-india>



ii. Model Details

The following defines the specific hyper-parameters and embedding for our models; baselines are used for preprocessing, optimization, and activation function settings. Extreme parameters. One residual fully- connected layer is used after the initial fully-connected layer in a Fusion Net, with fully-connected layer sizes set to 24, 3. Ten percent of the training data is kept aside as the validation set for early halting and parameter adjustment, while the other ninety percent is used for training. After that, we use the entire trainingset of data to train the model for a few epochs (e.g., 25 epochs).

iii. Evaluation Metrics

We use prediction accuracy (acc) mae means absolute error(mae) for evaluation, which are defined as follows,

$$\text{acc} = 1 - \frac{\sum_i |y_j - y_i|}{\sum_i y_i} \quad \dots (2)$$

$$\text{mae} = \frac{\sum_i |y_j - y_i|}{\sum_i y_i} \quad \dots (3)$$

b. Performance on Spatial Transformation

Table 1 illustrates the efficacy of the spatial transformation component (STC). When compared to utilizing solely the data from the target station, DA- Long exhibits superior accuracy since it ascertains the true scenario in which air contaminants are distributed across spatial dimensions. DA-Long is able to capture the dynamic changes in air quality from a spatial perspective by using signals from spatial neighbours. The outcome is poorer than STC if we feed in air quality measurements straight from the k-nearest stations (k=17, same size as STC). The neural network's ability to learn spatial information may be confused by the fact that each station has a unique set of k-nearest stations. Whereas the STC is better suited for replicating second-hand pollution sources in from data set-world circumstances since it takes spatial correlations into account and produces a consistent input from eight directions. We discover that inner and outer circles perform better in STC than an inner circle alone. This is because it takes into account signals from both nearby and far-off cities, where air pollution might spread via wind from a far-off source. In particular, information from a distance is more significant than normal circumstances for abrupt shifts.

c. Overall Discussion

Our recommended strategies' frameworks are mostly based on in-depth knowledge of air pollution. For long-term predictions, we recommend a distributed fusion structure in which all fusion capabilities are concatenated at once using simple procedures. Air pollution is reduced from the standpoint of actual global scenarios by both direct and indirect factors. In most cases, all oblique influences will have an impact on direct aspects at the same time. Furthermore, every oblique element affects direct elements. We designed our assigned fusion structure based on this knowledge so that it could properly capture all of those important aspects at once. Remarkable features have special consequences when viewed via the lens of feature selection. By combining each auxiliary feature in parallel with the major feature, we can draw attention to the significance of the primary characteristic and benefit from the effects of auxiliary capabilities.

Furthermore, we use the Weighted Merge Layer, which can simulate the dynamic effects of numerous higher-order impacts, to aggregate the data from each subnet. As a result, in order to increase forecast accuracy, our scattered fusion structure may dynamically fuse functions and automatically determine their relative relevance. We also commend the enhanced long-term air quality forecast of a cascaded fusion structure. The consequences of past climate and air quality projections are contrary over time, with the former increasing while the latter decreases when seen from the standpoint of data set-world situations. Combining the benefits of these skills and simulating the dynamic relationships across time is therefore crucial. Air quality and meteorology are referred to as ancestor characteristics from the standpoint of characteristic choice, while weather forecast is referred to as a successor capability. We shall gradually reduce the influence of the predecessor functions and increase the significance of the successor Functions by iteratively fusing each slice of the successor features with the predecessor capabilities.

The Community can learn the relevance of each fusion output and mechanically fuse the result by utilizing the Weighted Merge layer. For long-term period prediction, a cascaded fusion structure is more suitable. In our suggested method, CNN and LSTM are not used; just DNN is used. CNN is frequently able to learn spatial correlations. However, there is a lack of adequate air data in the area. In India, for instance, there are more than 2,500 Grids divided into six rings using a 1 kilometer by 1 kilometer boundary, yet there are only 36 air quality monitoring stations.



Despite the use of interpolation methods to fill in the gaps, the missing price is greater than 98 percent, which introduces significant uncertainty. If we immediately switch the spatial partition within the spatial transformation component from circles to grids with an image size of (5 * 5), the phase 4.2.1 experiment result isn't always accurate. As a result, the CNN model is unable to process a small amount of information. LSTM is used to model temporal dependency. Some factors, on the other hand, just have a tight temporal closeness with no daily, weekly, or monthly recurring patterns; they have an impact on air quality without having a high temporal reliance. For fast running, we selected DNN above LSTM, taking into account the performance of the web-based prediction tool.

V. RELATED WORKS

a. Predicting Quality of air

Specifically, information-pushed models [21] and numerical prediction models [20] are the two types of air quality prediction methodologies. Numerical prediction methods based on atmospheric dynamics and environmental chemistry, such as CMAQ, WRF/Chem, and CHIMERE, precisely identify the root cause of air pollution [22]. Equations representing the spatial-temporal distribution and transitions are constructed using numerical prediction approaches, solely utilizing information from meteorological statistics and emission sources [23].

However, obtaining the majority of these Elements accurately and completely is extremely difficult. Prediction accuracy is therefore difficult to guarantee. Additionally, the calculation complexity is fairly high and typically takes several hours. Synthetic neural networks and gradient-boosting selection trees are two examples of data-driven algorithms that anticipate air quality based entirely on a variety of features for examining linear or nonlinear correlations [13], [24]. Our previous model in the online device is the multi-view-based hybrid Version [7] that Zheng et al. proposed. However, FFA is an ensemble method that includes a predictor for each of time, space, dynamic aggregation, and inflection. Our approach carefully examines the patterns of air pollution while considering how those components interact.

b. Proposed Prediction Model

Our proposed system has predicted the air quality index accuracy is 83.45% compared to the Beijing DA-Long algorithm. (Fig.9)

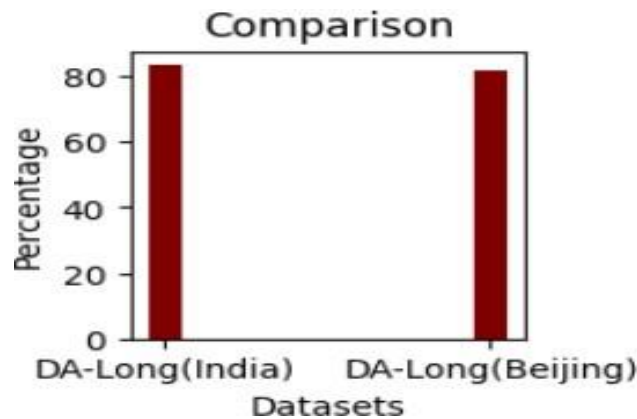


Fig. 9 Comparison of India and Beijing Dataset

Table 1 Accuracy comparison

Methods	8hrs	Mae
DA-Long (Beijing)	79.9%	24.9
DA-Long (India)	82.34%	18.66



VI. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

We present a DNN-based technique for predicting the daily average air quality for a town over the next seven days, as well as the air quality for each tracking station for the next 48 hours, in this paper. We propose a deeply distributed fusion community to describe the particular and cumulative effects of influencing factors for long-term air quality forecasting while accounting for complicated interconnections between direct and indirect causes. We were prompted by the repercussions of One-of-a-kind capabilities altering differentially over time when creating a Deep Cascaded Fusion community to capture the dynamic effects from both previously current data and future projected statistics.

We've developed a data set-time machine that provides hourly station-stage and daily town-level air quality predictions for 300+ Indian cities. Furthermore, we present a multi-project structure based completely challenge scheduler, and prediction model, which may improve the device's efficiency and stability.

In the future, we will see a combination of numerical prediction models and data-driven models for We created a from data set-time machine for 300+ Indian cities that gives hourly station-stage and daily town-level air quality predictions. Furthermore, we provide a multi-project structure that is totally based on a job scheduler, and prediction model, which can increase the device's performance and stability.

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