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20 Analytical solutions are practical tools in ocean engineering, but their derivation is often constrained by the
21 complexities of the real world. This underscores the necessity for alternative approaches. In this study, the poten-
22 tial of Physics-Informed Neural Networks (PINN) for solving the one-dimensional vertical suspended sediment
23 mixing (settling-diffusion) equation which involves simplified and arbitrary vertical D_s profiles is explored. A
24 new approach of temporal Normalized Physics-Informed Neural Networks (T-NPINN) which normalizes the time
25 component is proposed, and it achieves a remarkable accuracy (Mean Square Error of 10^{-5} and Relative Error
26 Loss of 10^{-4}). T-NPINN also proves its ability to handle the challenges posed by long-duration spatiotem-
27 poral models, which is a formidable task for conventional PINN methods. Besides, the T-NPINN is free of the
28 limitations of numerical methods, e.g., the susceptibility to inaccuracies stemming from the discretization and
29 approximations intrinsic to their algorithms, particularly evident within intricate and dynamic oceanic environ-
30 nments. The demonstrated accuracy and versatility of T-NPINN make it a compelling complement to numerical
31 techniques, effectively bridging the gap between analytical and numerical approaches and enriching the toolkit
32 available for oceanic research and engineering.

33 I. INTRODUCTION

34 Analytical solutions are practical tools in ocean engineering applications. Analytical solutions to the one-dimensional
35 vertical (1DV) suspended sediment settling-diffusion equation are useful tools for modeling suspended sediment con-
36 centration profiles (SSC). In recent years, it has also been widely used to optimize key sediment transport parameters from
37 measured SSC data^{1,2}.

38 Existing analytical solutions to the 1DV equation are derived under different assumptions of eddy diffusivity (D_s)
39 profiles along the depth. For example, with constant vertical D_s and settling velocity w_s profiles, the exponential model
40 was given as³:

$$C(z, t) = C(0, t) e^{-\frac{w_s z}{D_s}} \quad (1)$$

41 where $C(z, t)$ is the suspended sediment concentration at anytime t and any elevation in the water column z , with $z=0$
42 representing the sea floor and positive z upwards. $C(0, t)$ is the bottom reference concentration.

43 With linear vertical D_s profile, the power-law model was given as,

$$C(z, t) = C(0, t) \left(\frac{z}{z_r} \right)^{w_s/km_{\max}} \quad (2)$$

44 where $k=0.4$ is the von Karman constant. z_r is the reference elevation at which $C(0,t)$ is given. u_{*max} is the maximum shear
45 friction velocity.

46 With parabolic vertical D_s profile, the Rouse model⁴ was given as:

$$C(z,t) = C(0,t) \left[\frac{z_r/h(1-z/h)}{z/h(1-z_r/h)} \right]^{\delta_T w_s / ku_*} \quad (3)$$

47 where h is the water depth, $\delta_T = 0.7$ is the Prandtl-Schmidt number⁵.

48 Prandle⁶ proposed an analytical solution for sediment concentration time series associated with each erosional event
49 of magnitude M as follows:

$$C(z,t) = \frac{M}{(4\pi D_s t)^{1/2}} \left[e^{-\frac{(z+w_s t)^2}{4D_s t}} + e^{-\frac{(2h+w_s t-z)^2}{4D_s t}} \right] \quad (4)$$

50 where M is the magnitude of each erosional event, thus the observed SSC time series represents a time integration of all
51 the preceding "events".

52 Based on the principle of the convolution of impulse response function and the pick-up rates, a new analytical solution
53 to the 1DV governing equation with bottom flux boundary conditions is given by Zhang *et al.*¹ as follows:

$$C(z,t) = \int_{-\infty}^t \left[\frac{e^{-\frac{(z-w_s[t-t'])^2}{4D_s[t-t']}}}{\sqrt{\pi D_s[t-t']}} + \frac{w_s}{2D_s} \operatorname{erfc} \left(\frac{z-w_s[t-t']}{2\sqrt{D_s[t-t']}} \right) \right] p(t') dt' \quad (5)$$

54 physically this solution considers all the bottom input, i.e., pick-up rates $p(t')$ in history ($t-t'$) ago and integrates all their
55 remaining effects at the present moment (t), and erfc is the error function.

56 However, in many complex cases, analytical solutions are not available, so solving these Partial Differential Equations
57 (PDEs) numerically using approximation methods is necessary. Numerical methods such as finite element method
58 (FEM)⁷⁻⁹, finite difference method (FDM)¹⁰⁻¹² and finite volume method (FVM)¹³ have gained favorable achievement.
59 However, numerical methods require discretization and approximations that may lead to inaccuracies, struggle to capture
60 intricate details, long-term behavior, or rapidly changing conditions like oceanic systems. Besides, numerical methods rely
61 on mesh discretization for a given interest domain. However, in engineering applications sometimes only local data is ex-
62 pected rather than the entire domain^{14,15}. Therefore, meshless methods that use a set of configuration points without grids
63 have been developed¹⁶⁻¹⁸. Deep neural networks (DNN), an efficient mesh-free method without discretization for a given
64 interest domain, have drawn more and more attention. Based on their extraordinary universal approximation capacity¹⁹,
65 DNN can numerically solve the ordinary and partial differential equations as well as the inverse problems for complex
66 geometrical domain and high-dimensional cases²⁰⁻²⁵. While these methods are easy to implement and straightforward,
67 their accuracy may deteriorate or not converge for a few configuration points.

68 With the rapid development of computer science and technology^{23,26}, Physics-Informed Neural Networks (PINN) dating
69 back to the early 1990s again attracted widespread attention of researchers and have made remarkable achievements for
70 approximating the solution of PDEs by embracing the physical laws with neural networks^{27,28}. This method skillfully
71 incorporates the residual of governing equations and the discrepancy of boundary/initial constraints, then formulates a cost
72 function that can be optimized easily via the automatic differentiation in DNN. This makes PINN particularly effective in
73 scenarios where numerical methods encounter challenges posed by intricate geometries, sparse data, or evolving dynamics,
74 underscoring its significance as an innovative and promising tool in ocean science. So far, PINN has been used in solving
75 hydrodynamic equations²⁹⁻³², but not yet in suspended sediment transport equations.

76 In the present paper, the potential of PINN in solving the 1DV suspended sediment settling-diffusion equation with ar-
77 bitrary vertical D_s profiles is explored. An improved Temporal Normalized Physics-Informed Neural Networks (T-NPINN)
78 is proposed and compared with analytical solutions, numerical methods as well as traditional PINN and modified PINNs
79 with different normalization strategies. The great potential of T-NPINN in solving the 1DV suspended sediment settling-
80 diffusion equation in complex conditions is demonstrated. T-NPINN has the potential to be an important complement
81 to cases where analytical solutions are not available and numerical models are not applicable, or even a more practical
82 approach compared to numerical models.

83 **II. METHODOLOGY**

84 **A. An new analytical solution for $C(z,t)$ with depth constant D_s**

85 A new analytical solution for $C(z,t)$ to the 1DV governing equation (Eq. (6)) driven by a step increase in bottom
86 reference concentration $C(0,t)$ is obtained in this section. This analytical solution, as an exact solution, is used to test
87 the performance of PINN under the same conditions, as the first step of this article. This scenario describes the response
88 of $C(z,t)$ to a prescribed bottom concentration that appears instantly and is kept thereafter (Figure 1(a)). The physical
89 significance of taking a constant vertical D_s is for the shallow water region where wind generates turbulence at the air-
90 water interface and ocean flow generates turbulence at the water-seabed interface.

91 **1. Governing equation**

92 The 1DV sediment mixing governing equation is given as:

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left[D_s(z) \frac{\partial C}{\partial z} \right] - w_s \frac{\partial C}{\partial z} \quad (6)$$

93 where D_s is denoted as a function of z , because in the following examples, the assumption that D_s is a constant is released.
94 Therefore, a universal expression is provided here. The eddy diffusivity tensor should stay inside the first derivative of
95 the Laplacian term. Taking it out will change the effective settling velocity against the one measured³³, though these
96 corrections are typically small, and often neglected³⁴. w_s is a constant sedimentation flow or in general an incompressible
97 one. But this method can be easily generalized to compressible flows, in case the velocity is brought in.

98 **2. Boundary and initial conditions**

99 The bottom boundary condition of solving the governing equation is the bottom concentration $C(0,t)$ varies as a step
100 function. The step function is the manifestation of the input quantity jumps from 0 to 1 in a very short period (Figure 1(a)).
101 The step function and impulse function which is the derivative of the step function allow for a convenient description of
102 typical input into a system. Correspondingly, the step response function and impulse response function are convenient
103 descriptions for the output of the dynamic systems. Here, the step function bottom boundary condition physically means
104 that the time series of the bottom concentration at the bed varies as a step function: $C(0,t) = 0$ for $t < 0$; $C(0,t) = 1$ for
105 $t > 0$; and the initial condition is $c(z,t) = 0$ for everywhere.

106 **3. The analytical solution**

107 The analytical solution for $C(z,t)$ driven by a step function bottom concentration input is just the step response function
108 for a system governed by Eq. (6). In other terms, if the SSC at the bed varies as a step function and the suspended sediment
109 concentrations in the overlying column are governed by Eq. (6), one finds the analytical solution for $C(z,t)$ at any time and
110 elevation is:

$$C(z,t) = \frac{C(0,t)}{2} \left\{ \operatorname{erfc} \left(\frac{z + w_s t}{2\sqrt{D_s t}} \right) + e^{-\frac{w_s z}{D_s}} \operatorname{erfc} \left(\frac{z - w_s t}{2\sqrt{D_s t}} \right) \right\}. \quad (7)$$

111 where $C(0,t) = 1$ is the concentration at the bottom. This solution behaves as the example in Figure 1(b), i.e., asymptotic
112 to a steady state for $t \rightarrow \infty$. It can be seen that this analytical solution is reasonable because the closer to the bottom (the
113 smaller z), the earlier and more intense the concentration responses.

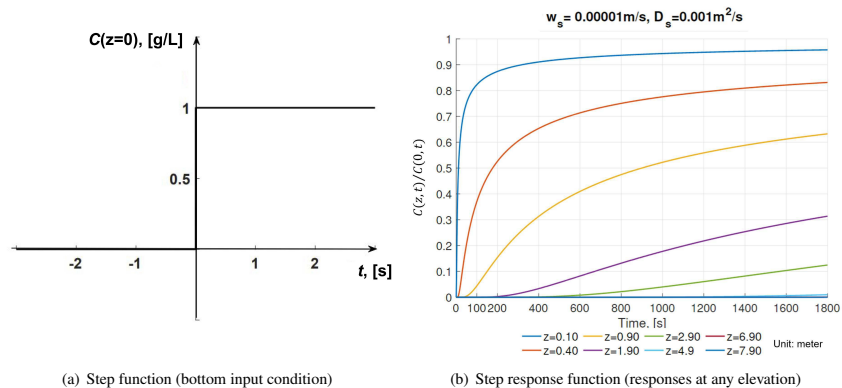


FIG. 1. Diagram of (a) the Step Function (bottom boundary condition) and (b) the Step Response Function (analytical solution for $C(z,t)$). Note: According to the definition of a step function, the y-axis label of panel (a) is concentration in g/L; in panel (b) the y-axis label of the step response function should also be concentration $C(z,t)$ in g/L; here in panel (b) the y-axis label is a ratio because there is $C(0,t)$ on the right side of the equal sign in Eq. (7). When displaying the diagram, $C(0,t)$ is divided to the left side of the equal sign.

114 B. Description of the traditional Physics-Informed Neural Networks (PINN)

115 Physics Informed Neural Networks (PINNs) represent a cutting-edge revolutionary approach that seamlessly merges
 116 the capabilities of neural networks with the governing equations of physical systems. Developed specifically to address
 117 complex PDEs and other intricate physical phenomena, PINN has emerged as a versatile and powerful tool with broad
 118 applications across scientific research and engineering disciplines. The foundational structure of PINN, customized for
 119 solving PDEs, is illustrated in Figure 2. Within the PINN framework, randomly generated coordinates are input to a fully
 120 connected neural network. 50000 random iterations were made in the present work which is crucial and the core reason
 121 behind this work, that is, one should use a neural network rather than a finite difference scheme. This network efficiently
 122 computes both the temporal and spatial differential terms of the output values. These computed terms are then integrated
 123 into the governing equations, allowing for the derivation of a loss function. The ultimate goal is to minimize this loss
 124 function through training, to obtain a highly accurate and efficient solution to the underlying PDEs. This unique fusion of
 125 machine learning and physics-based modeling equips PINN to excel in tackling complex and nonlinear problems, which
 126 may pose challenges for traditional numerical techniques.

127 Consider a system of parameterized PDEs given by:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{N}_\lambda[\hat{u}(\mathbf{x},t)] &= \hat{f}(\mathbf{x},t), & \mathbf{x} \in \Omega, t \in (t_0, T] \\ \mathbb{B}\hat{u}(\mathbf{x},t) &= \hat{g}(\mathbf{x},t), & \mathbf{x} \in \partial\Omega, t \in [t_0, T] \\ \hat{u}(\mathbf{x},t_0) &= \hat{h}(\mathbf{x}), & \mathbf{x} \in \Omega \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

128 where \mathbb{N}_λ represents the linear or nonlinear differential operator with parameters λ , and \mathbb{B} denotes the boundary operators
 129 such as Dirichlet, Neumann, and Robin. Ω and $\partial\Omega$ refer to the region of interest and its boundary. The region here can be
 130 one-dimensional, two-dimensional, or even multidimensional, but the context targeted in this article is one-dimensional;
 131 x is the spatial distance which is elevation z in the present case. In the general PINN approach, a DNN model can be
 132 substituted as the solution to PDEs (Eq. (8)). The optimal solution can then be obtained by minimizing the following loss
 133 function:

$$L = Loss_{PDE} + \omega_1 Loss_{IC} + \omega_2 Loss_{BC} \quad (9)$$

134 with

$$\begin{aligned}
 Loss_{PDE} &= \frac{1}{N_P} \sum_{i=1}^{N_P} \left| \mathbb{N}_\lambda [\hat{u}_{NN}(\mathbf{x}^i, t^i)] - \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}^i, t^i) \right|^2 \\
 Loss_{BC} &= \frac{1}{N_B} \sum_{i=1}^{N_B} \left| \mathbb{B} \hat{u}_{NN}(\mathbf{x}^i, t) - \hat{g}(\mathbf{x}^i, t) \right|^2 \\
 Loss_{IC} &= \frac{1}{N_I} \sum_{i=1}^{N_I} \left| \hat{u}_{NN}(\mathbf{x}^i, t_0) - \hat{h}(\mathbf{x}^i) \right|^2
 \end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

135 where $\omega_1 > 0$ and $\omega_2 > 0$ are the loss weighting coefficients for distinct boundaries that are set as fixed values manually in
 136 implementation according to experiences. $Loss_{PDE}$, $Loss_{IC}$, and $Loss_{BC}$ represent the residuals of the governing equations,
 137 the loss associated with the given initial conditions, and the loss related to the prescribed boundary conditions, respectively.
 138 Thus, solving a partial differential equation is transformed into an optimization problem for a neural network.

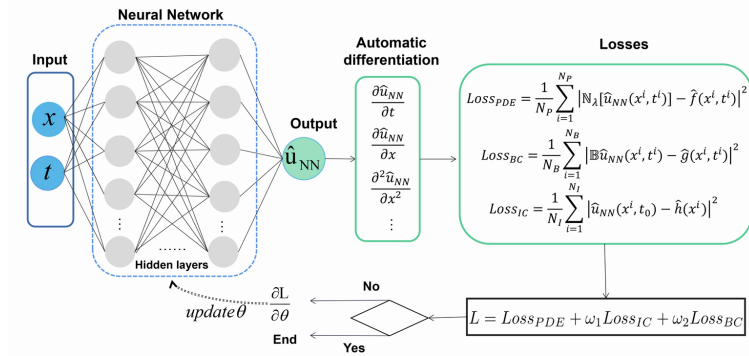


FIG. 2. Schematic diagram of the Physics-Informed Neural Network (PINN) structure.

139 The PINN method is different from traditional finite difference methods that discretize the domain equidistantly. PINN
 140 randomly samples the solution area, not equidistant, and resamples every iteration. Therefore, when the number of iterations
 141 is sufficient, enough points are sampled thus the accuracy is high. This article iterates 50000 times. In the present
 142 work, we know the exact expression of the initial and boundary conditions, and this allows us to perform a bootstrap over
 143 the whole continuous set. In other situations, one might not know the expressions but have a discrete measurement set.
 144 In such cases, one would need to do some interpolation on the boundary conditions first or perform some sort of bagging
 145 else.

146 C. Normalized PINN with different temporal or spatial normalization strategies

147 In this section, we present the innovative concept of a Normalized Physics-Informed Neural Network (NPINN), which
 148 incorporates temporal and/or spatial normalization strategies. This pioneering approach aims to address challenges associated
 149 with solving Settling-Diffusion Equations (SDEs) conveniently in ocean engineering.

150 Temporal Normalized PINN (T-NPINN). The first pivotal augmentation introduced in NPINN involves a normalized
 151 temporal component. By subjecting the time variable to a normalization process, we adeptly mitigate challenges attributed

152 to protracted temporal dependencies, i.e.,

$$\tilde{t} = \frac{t}{T}. \quad (11)$$

153 Then the governed equation of Eq. (8) can be expressed by

$$\mathbb{N}_\lambda[\hat{u}(\mathbf{x}, \tilde{t})] = \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}, \tilde{t}), \quad \mathbf{x} \in \Omega, \tilde{t} \in (t_0/T, 1]. \quad (12)$$

154 This strategic intervention empowers the neural network to adeptly encapsulate and model the intricate temporal intricacies inherent to SDEs. Notably, this temporal normalization holds the potential to profoundly enhance the fidelity of SDE representation across expansive time intervals. This methodological refinement not only ensures the accuracy of the neural network's predictions but also contributes to the overall efficiency of SDE solution strategies in ocean engineering domains.

155 Spatial Normalized PINN (S-NPINN). Additionally, we introduce the Spatial Normalized PINN (S-NPINN), isolating and analyzing the spatial intricacies, allowing for an in-depth exploration of their influence on the SDE solution process. 156 By further scaling the spatial variable into the unit interval $[0, 1]^d$ where d is the dimension, as this article focuses on a 157 one-dimensional vertical problem, $d = 1$, i.e.,

$$\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{\mathbf{x} - \min \Omega}{\max \Omega - \min \Omega}. \quad (13)$$

158 Temporal and Spatial Normalized PINN (ST-NPINN). The last strategy is the Temporal and Spatial Normalized PINN 159 (ST-NPINN). Hence, the governed equation of Eq. (8) can be written in terms of the scaled and characteristic quantities:

$$\mathbb{N}_\lambda[\hat{u}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}, \tilde{t})] = \hat{f}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}, \tilde{t}), \quad \tilde{\mathbf{x}} \in [0, 1]^d, \tilde{t} \in (t_0/T, 1]. \quad (14)$$

160 The corresponding three types of normalized 1DV governing equations are described as follows:

$$\frac{1}{T} \frac{\partial C}{\partial \tilde{t}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} [D_s(z) \frac{\partial C}{\partial z}] - W_s \frac{\partial C}{\partial z} \quad (15)$$

161 and

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial \tilde{t}} = \frac{1}{X^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \tilde{z}} [D_s(\tilde{z}) \frac{\partial C}{\partial \tilde{z}}] - W_s \frac{\partial C}{\partial \tilde{z}} \quad (16)$$

162 with the length of the domain $X = \max \Omega - \min \Omega$, in the present case X is the whole water depth h , and

$$\frac{1}{T} \frac{\partial C}{\partial \tilde{t}} = \frac{1}{X^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \tilde{z}} [D_s(\tilde{z}) \frac{\partial C}{\partial \tilde{z}}] - \frac{W_s}{X} \frac{\partial C}{\partial \tilde{z}}. \quad (17)$$

163 This combined temporal and spatial normalization paradigm enriches the accuracy, efficiency, and interpretability of 164 SDE solutions, providing a novel avenue for advancing the understanding and application of PINN methodologies in 165 ocean engineering research.

171 III. PINN TRAINING

172 The basic common setup of the PINNs used in the present paper is summarized in this section.

173 A. Model setup

174 Four candidate PINN models are tested in the present paper.

- 175 • *The traditional PINN without normalization*: The introduction of this base model has been detailed in Section II B. 176 Here, the solver employs the standard Physics-Informed Neural Network (PINN) model.
- 177 • *Three improved NPINNs with different normalization strategies*: We conducted experiments comparing different 178 normalization strategies. Specifically, we explored three strategies: (1) Temporal Normalized PINN (T-NPINN), (2) 179 Spatial Normalized PINN (S-NPINN), and (3) Spatial-Temporal Normalized PINN (ST-NPINN).

180 **B. Training Setup**

- 181 • *Network configuration:* All four models discussed in the previous sections share a consistent network configuration, ensuring a fair comparison. For the training phase, we employ a 5-layer fully connected neural network architecture with layer sizes of (100, 150, 80, 80, 50), utilizing the sine activation function for all hidden layers and a linear output layer for the final predictions. To maintain a balanced optimization process, we set $\omega_1 = \omega_2 = 1$ defined as in Eq. (9) according to common experience. The training process utilizes the Adam optimizer³⁵ with an exponential learning rate strategy. The initial learning rate is set at 0.001, and it decays at 0.0005 every 100 training epochs. All models are trained for 50,000 epochs.
- 188 • *Sampling strategy:* In each training epoch, we adopt Latin Hypercube Sampling (LHS) to intelligently select training points across the normalized temporal and spatial domains. Specifically, the number of points taken on the control equation $N_R = 10,000$ (collocation points), the number of points taken on the boundary condition $N_B = 6,000$ (boundary points), and the number of points taken on the initial condition $N_I = 3,000$ (initial points) in each epoch. In other words, we have taken 10000 points for each spacetime within the boundary, 6000 points for each spacetime under boundary conditions, and 3000 points for each spacetime under initial conditions. This ensures the models are well-trained and capable of capturing intricate spatiotemporal patterns. During the testing phase, we employ uniform sampling to gather testing data within the domain Ω (or its boundary $\partial\Omega$).
- 196 • *Criterion selection:* To assess the accuracy of the models, we employ the Mean Square Error (MSE) and the Relative Error Loss (REL) as evaluation metrics. These metrics are defined as follows:

182
$$MSE = \frac{1}{N'} \sum_{i=1}^{N'} (\tilde{u}(x^i, t^i) - u^*(x^i, t^i))^2 \quad (18)$$

189 and

190
$$REL = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N'} (\tilde{u}(x^i, t^i) - u^*(x^i, t^i))^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{N'} (u^*(x^i, t^i))^2} \quad (19)$$

191 where $\tilde{u}(x^i, t^i)$ denotes the approximate solution predicted by the neural network, $u^*(x^i, t^i)$ represents the exact/reference solution, and $\{(x^i, t^i)\}_{i=1}^{N'}$ constitutes the set of testing points. The value of N' denotes the total number of testing points.

- 202 • *Visualization:* We logged the MSE and REL of the test set at intervals of 1000 steps and depicted their trends graphically. Concurrently, we conducted a comparative analysis by visualizing the 3D plots generated by NPINN's prediction test set alongside the ground truth images. Additionally, we graphically represented the point-wise absolute errors between the prediction outcomes of the four models and the corresponding actual values.
- 206 • *Computing power resources:* Our implementation uses PyTorch (version 1.12.1) on a workstation with 256 GB of RAM and a single NVIDIA GeForce GTX 2080Ti GPU with 12 GB of memory. These computational resources enable efficient and accurate training of the NPINN model and facilitate insightful analysis of its performance. The time taken per iteration with the computing power resources is 0.006119 seconds.

210 The details of the neural network architectures are summarized in Table I.

212 **IV. VALIDATION OF PINNS IN LINEAR SETTling-DIFFUSION EQUATION**

213 In this section, we first train the four candidate models to address the 1DV equation with a depth constant D_s (linear Settling-Diffusion Equation). To assess their efficacy, we juxtapose their predictions against the benchmark analytical solution in Section II A.

214 This section presents a comprehensive analysis of the outcomes obtained from the four distinct models. A comparative evaluation is conducted through visual representations (Figure 3), error analysis (Figure 4), and convergence studies (Figure 5) which offer a detailed insight into the performance of the models.

TABLE I. Network Configuration and Training Parameters

Parameter	Value
Architecture	5-layer fully connected network
Hidden Layer Sizes	(100, 150, 80, 80, 50)
Activation Functions	Sine (hidden layers), Linear (output layer)
Training Point Selection	Latin Hypercube Sampling (LHS)
Epochs	50000
Learning Rate	Exponential Decay
Initial Learning Rate	0.001
Learning Rate Decay Rate	0.0005 (every 100 epochs)
Collocation points	10000
Boundary points	6000
Initial points	3000

219 The error heatmap of T-NPINN demonstrates a broader and more distributed pattern in contrast to the other three models,
 220 particularly evident in the extended range of the blue area. This distinct feature signifies that T-NPINN exhibits enhanced
 221 training accuracy. The normalization of time variables, a defining characteristic of T-NPINN, is attributed to this improve-
 222 ment, effectively accommodating intricate spatiotemporal dynamics. An intriguing observation is the descending trend of
 223 point-wise errors, illustrating an ascending order of accuracy: PINN, S-NPINN, ST-NPINN, and T-NPINN (Figure 4).

224 Convergence analysis, as depicted in Figures 5(a) and 5(b), reveals that T-NPINN achieves a faster and more stable
 225 convergence rate than the other PINN models. This expedited convergence can be attributed to the incorporation of
 226 time normalization within the T-NPINN architecture, which has been detailed in Section II C. The inherent ability of
 227 this normalization technique to alleviate potential long-term dependencies and temporal evolution within neural networks
 228 contributes significantly to T-NPINN's superior performance.

229 The quantitative assessment outlined in Table II underscores T-NPINN's prowess. The MSE for T-NPINN exhibits a
 230 remarkable reduction than the other PINN models, reflecting its ability to approximate solutions more accurately. Sim-
 231 ilarly, REL for T-NPINN is substantially diminished, underscoring its exceptional proficiency in tackling intricate and
 232 long-duration spatiotemporal Settling-Diffusion equations.

233 In summary, including the time variable normalization within T-NPINN yields substantial improvements in training
 234 accuracy and convergence speed, especially when addressing intricate spatiotemporal Settling-diffusion equations. The
 235 normalization process inherently enhances the network's precision, with T-NPINN exhibiting the highest accuracy when
 236 solely normalizing the time variable.

237 The small gap between the T-NPINN and the analytic solution demonstrates the ability of the T-NPINN to approximate
 238 the exact solution, which validates the ability of T-NPINN in this case.

 TABLE II. Performance of different models in constant D_s scenario

	MSE	REL
PINN	3.082×10^{-1}	4.879
S-NPINN	1.006×10^{-2}	1.592×10^{-1}
T-NPINN	4.078×10^{-5}	6.455×10^{-4}
ST-NPINN	1.360×10^{-4}	2.168×10^{-3}
FDM	4.000×10^{-6}	5.900×10^{-5}

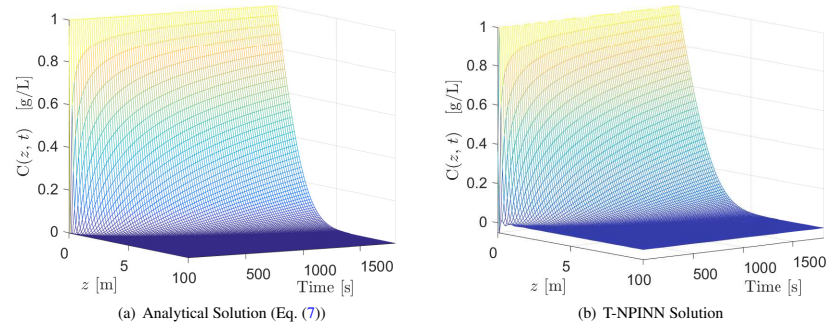


FIG. 3. Comparison between the (a) analytical solution, and (b) T-NPINN solution with constant $C(0, t) = 1$ g/L at the bottom and depth constant D_s .

239 **V. APPLICATION OF PINNS IN NON-LINEAR SETTLING-DIFFUSION EQUATION**

240 The validated PINN models from Section IV are used for predicting the SSC distribution in more complicated scenarios,
241 i.e., the linear, parabolic, and arbitrary depth distribution of D_s , where analytical solutions are unavailable.

242 **A. Scenario 1: Linear depth distribution of D_s**

243 **1. PINN settings**

244 In this scenario, we investigate the behavior of the proposed method when the eddy diffusivity D_s follows a linear
245 depth distribution, i.e., $D_s(z) = 0.0001z$. The spatial and temporal domains, as well as the boundary conditions, remain
246 the same as those in Section IV. Since no analytical solution is available for comparison, we employ the finite difference
247 method (FDM) as a benchmark, which has shown good performance in the constant D_s scenario as shown in Table II (The
248 MSE and REL of T-NPINN and FDM are at the similarly highest level). All the model training settings are identical to
249 Section IV (Table I).

250 **2. Results**

251 A comparative evaluation is conducted through visual representations (Figure 6). The point-wise error of both PINN
252 and NPINN models is illustrated in Figure 7, considering the linear depth distribution of D_s . Additionally, Figure 8 shows
253 the MSE and REL curves during training for all the models. The key results are summarized in Table III and detailed
254 discussions will be made in Section VI.

255 **B. Scenario 2: Parabolic depth distribution of D_s**

256 **1. PINN settings**

257 Taking the D_s in Eq. (6) as $D_s(z) = 0.001(z/5 - 1)^2$, i.e., the eddy diffusivity $D_s(z)$ is a parabolic function of z . The
258 range of spatial and time domain and the boundary conditions are identical to those in Section IV. Since there is no

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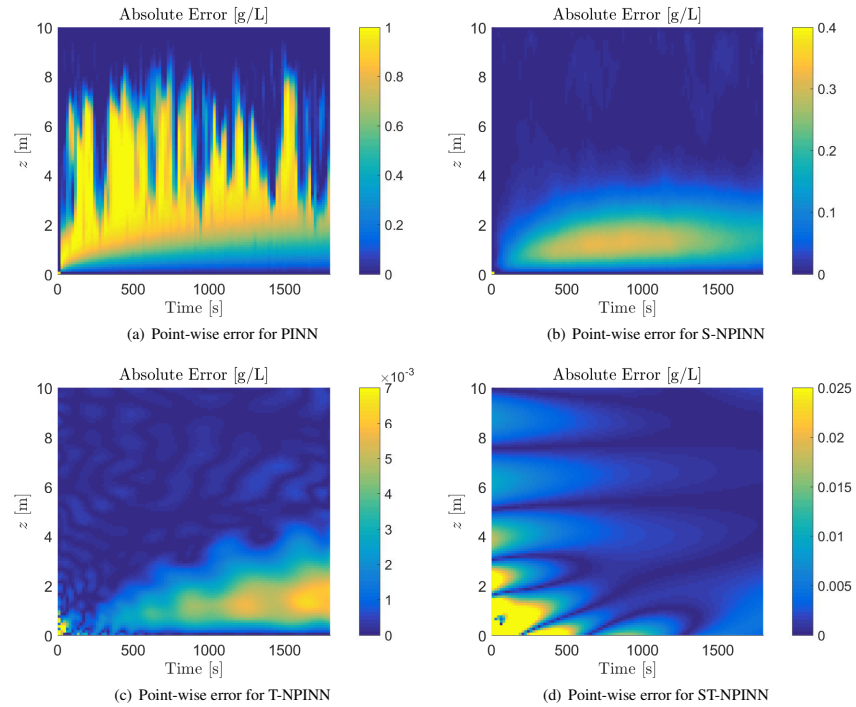


FIG. 4. Point-wise error of 4 candidate models with constant $C(0,t) = 1$ g/L at the bottom and depth constant D_s . (a) For PINN. (b) For S-NPINN. (c) For T-NPINN. (d) For ST-NPINN.

259 theoretical solution to compare, the FDM is again used to compare. All the model training settings are identical to Section
 260 IV (Table I).

261 **2. Results**

262 A comparative evaluation is conducted through visual representations (Figure 9). The point-wise error of both PINN
 263 and NPINN models is illustrated in Figure 10, considering the parabolic depth distribution of D_s . Additionally, Figure 11
 264 shows the MSE and REL curves during training for all the models. The key results are summarized in Table III and detailed
 265 discussions will be made in Section VI.

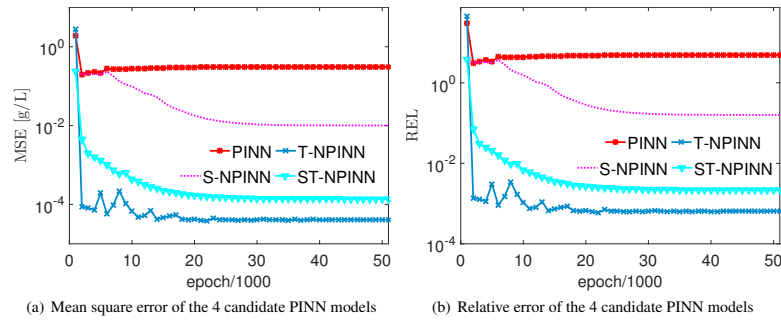


FIG. 5. The test errors curve during training with constant $C(0,t) = 1$ g/L at the bottom and depth constant D_s . (a) Mean square error of the 4 candidate PINN models. (b) Relative error of the 4 candidate PINN models.

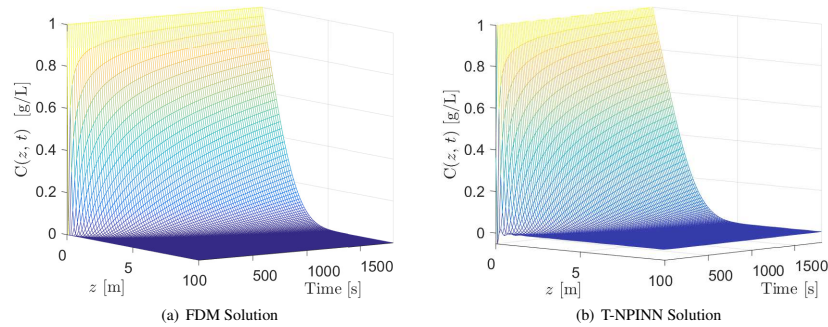


FIG. 6. Comparison between the (a) FDM and (b) T-NPINN solutions with constant bottom $C(0,t) = 1$ g/L and linear depth distribution of D_s .

266 **C. Scenario 3: Arbitrary (exponential) depth distribution of D_s**

267 **1. PINN settings**

268 Taking the D_s in Eq. (6) as $D_s(z) = 0.001 \exp(-z)$, i.e., the eddy diffusivity $D_s(z)$ is an exponential function of z . The
 269 range of spatial and time domains and the boundary conditions are identical to those in Section IV. We also take the FDM
 270 solution as the benchmark. All the model training settings are identical to Section IV (Table I).

271 **2. Results**

272 A comparative evaluation is conducted through visual representations (Figure 12). The point-wise error of both PINN
 273 and NPINN models is illustrated in Figure 13, considering the arbitrary depth distribution of D_s . Additionally, Figure 14
 274 shows the MSE and REL curves during training for all the models. The key results are summarized in Table III and detailed

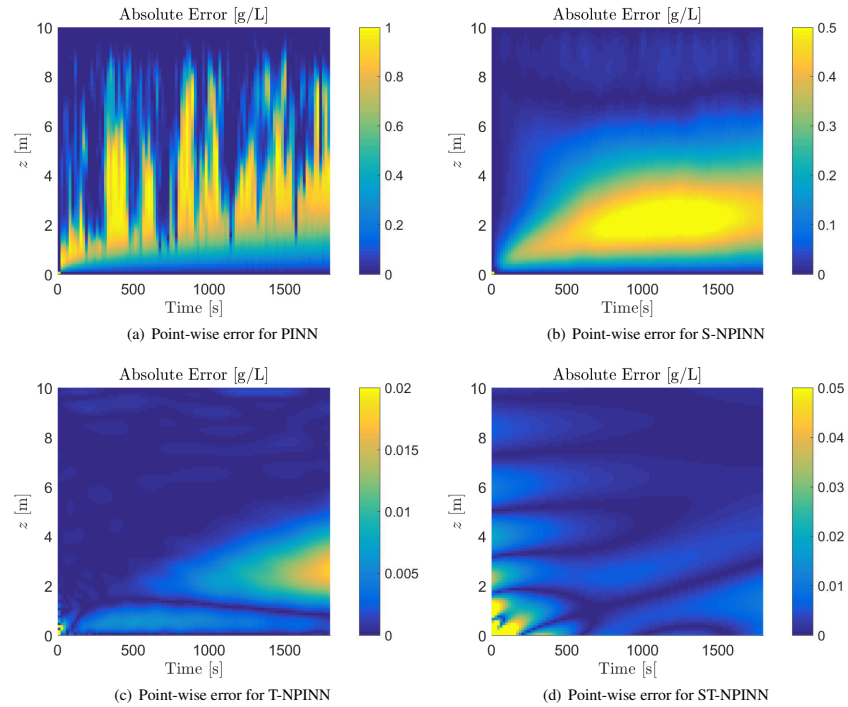


FIG. 7. Point-wise error of the 4 candidate models with constant bottom $C(0,t) = 1$ g/L and linear depth distribution of D_s . (a) For PINN. (b) For S-NPINN. (c) For T-NPINN. (d) For ST-NPINN.

discussions will be made in Section VI.

VI. DISCUSSION

A. The optimal PINN model

The quantitative assessment outlined in Table III underscores T-NPINN's prowess. The MSE for T-NPINN exhibits a remarkable reduction in compared to the traditional PINN, reflecting its ability to approximate solutions more accurately. Similarly, the REL for T-NPINN is substantially diminished, underscoring its exceptional proficiency in tackling intricate and long-duration spatiotemporal Settling-Diffusion equations.

From the visual representations, error analysis, and convergence plots, it can be seen that T-NPINN demonstrates a broader and more distributed pattern in contrast to the other three models. An intriguing observation is the descending trend of point-wise errors, illustrating an ascending order of accuracy: PINN, S-NPINN, ST-NPINN, and T-NPINN. The time normalization, a defining characteristic of T-NPINN, is the most efficient improvement, effectively accommodating intricate spatiotemporal dynamics.

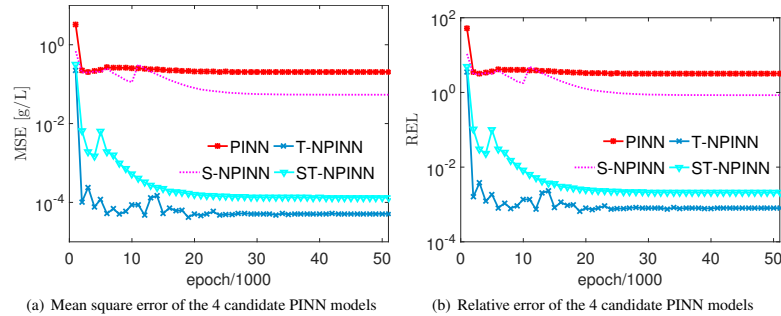


FIG. 8. The test errors curve during training the 4 candidate models with constant bottom $C(0,t) = 1$ g/L and linear depth distribution of D_s . (a) Mean square error of the 4 candidate PINN models. (b) Relative error of the 4 candidate PINN models.

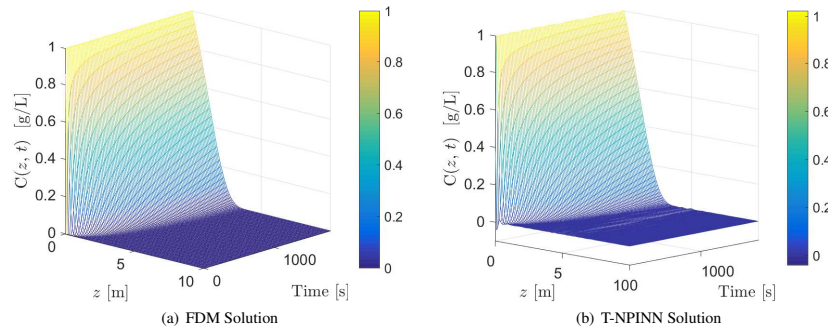


FIG. 9. Comparison between the (a) FDM and (b) T-NPINN solutions with constant bottom $C(0,t) = 1$ g/L and parabolic depth distribution of $D_s(z)$.

287 T-NPINN achieves a faster and more stable convergence rate than the conventional PINN model. This expedited con-
 288 vergence can be attributed to the incorporation of time normalization within the T-NPINN architecture which has been
 289 detailed in Section II C. The inherent ability of this normalization technique to alleviate potential long-term dependencies
 290 and temporal evolution within neural networks contributes significantly to T-NPINN's superior performance.

291 Although the spatial (S-NPINN) and spatiotemporal normalizations (ST-NPINN) don't seem to be the best approaches,
 292 they are maintained in this paper, because we were trying to test and find the optimal normalization strategies. At present,
 293 PINN calculations are generally carried out on a normalized domain, with PINN calculations being carried out on a
 294 maximum range of [0-4]³⁶. The present work conducted PINN calculations for 1800 s by normalizing the independent
 295 variables, so it is necessary to explore different normalization schemes, and the result is that T-NPINN performs the best.
 296 We believe this is also useful information that other more complex solutions are unnecessary.

297 In summary, introducing the time variable normalization within T-NPINN yields substantial improvements in training
 298 accuracy and convergence speed, especially when addressing intricate spatiotemporal SDEs. The normalization process
 299 inherently enhances the network's precision, with T-NPINN exhibiting the highest accuracy when solely normalizing the
 300 time variable.

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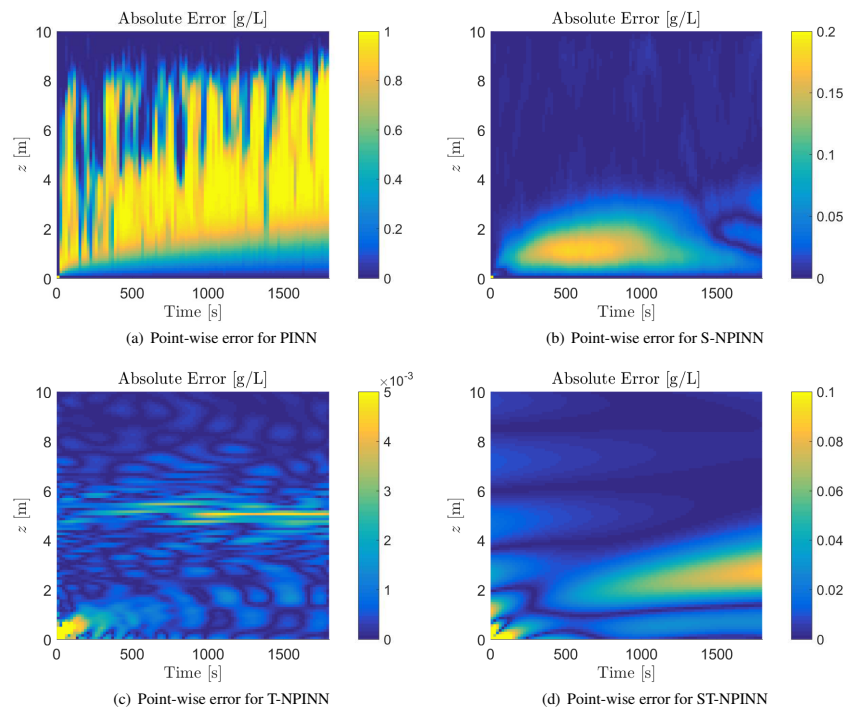


FIG. 10. Point-wise error of the 4 candidate models with constant bottom $C(0,t) = 1$ g/L and parabolic $D_s(z)$. (a) For PINN. (b) For S-NPINN. (c) For T-NPINN. (d) For ST-NPINN.

301 **B. Limitations and future works**

302 The current simulation of the working conditions for the bottom boundary for the step function input, the future will
 303 develop the bottom boundary for the impulse function input^{1,37}, to solve the more realistic common working conditions.

304 In the present case of SSC in the ocean, the solutions are smooth and quite regular throughout the domain. SSC profiles
 305 along the water depth over the seabed normally do not show any significant peaks because the mixing of suspended sed-
 306 iments is influenced by gravity and its profile generally increases towards the bottom¹. Besides, marine sedimentologists
 307 care more about the average suspended sediment concentration profile in estimating the sediment transport fluxes^{38,39}. Our
 308 model starts with simple settling velocity fields, and the application range is relatively narrower.

309 However, the mass transport problem is not only related to settling or mixing in the ocean⁴⁰⁻⁴², the equation we try
 310 to solve appears in other fields such as atmosphere, charged particle transport, etc. In other cases like porous media,
 311 well-behaved enough concentration fields might not hold anymore. Solutions may have strong oscillations or one or more
 312 peaks. This is a limitation for accurate modeling in the ocean and needs further investigation. It is planned that for more
 313 realistic cases with oscillations, peaks, and impulses, the modeling can be tried through a multi-scale neural network
 314 (MscaleDNN)^{43,44}. MsacleDNN is an excellent model for multi-scale problems with oscillations, peaks, and impulses by
 315 converting the high-frequency component into a low-frequency space⁴⁵⁻⁴⁷.

316 Besides, eddy diffusivity might be stiff even for good-looking carrier flows (e.g. cell flows)^{48,49}. with (locally) anoma-

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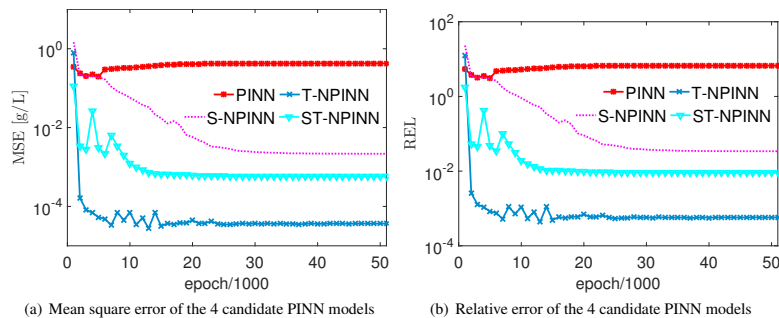


FIG. 11. The test errors curve during training the 4 candidate models with constant bottom $C(0, t) = 1$ g/L and parabolic depth distribution of D_s . (a) Mean square error of the 4 candidate PINN models. (b) Relative error of the 4 candidate PINN models.

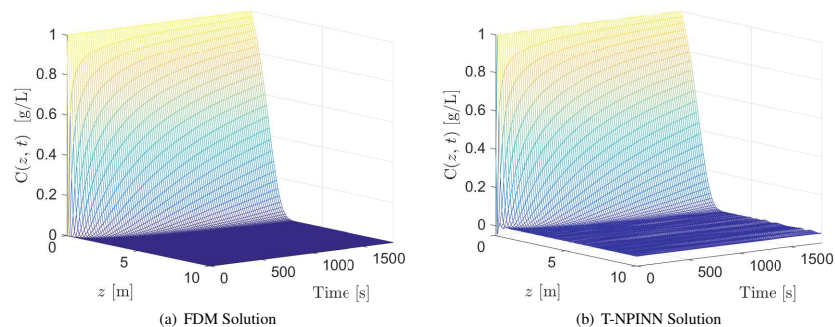


FIG. 12. Comparison between the (a) FDM and (b) T-NPINN solutions with constant bottom $C(0, t) = 1$ g/L and arbitrary (exponential) depth distribution of D_s .

lous diffusion, future works will be done through robust loss functions and Fourier feature network with domain decomposition technique (DFFN). The robust loss function will suppress effectively the adverse effect of abnormal value for the neural network. DFFN model will focus on the local domain with abnormal values and improve the performance of neural networks⁵⁰⁻⁵².

Finally, many approaches have been proposed to tackle transport problems by encapsulating small and mesoscale transport by carrier flow in the eddy diffusivity, especially because the carrier flow can be turbulent/stochastic and so the settling velocity might have these components too when analyzed at small enough scales⁵³. Further investigations into the different scales are also a meaningful generalization.

VII. CONCLUSIONS

Analytical solutions are practical tools in ocean engineering applications. However, their derivation is often constrained by the complexities of the real world. This underscores the necessity for alternative approaches. In this study, the potential

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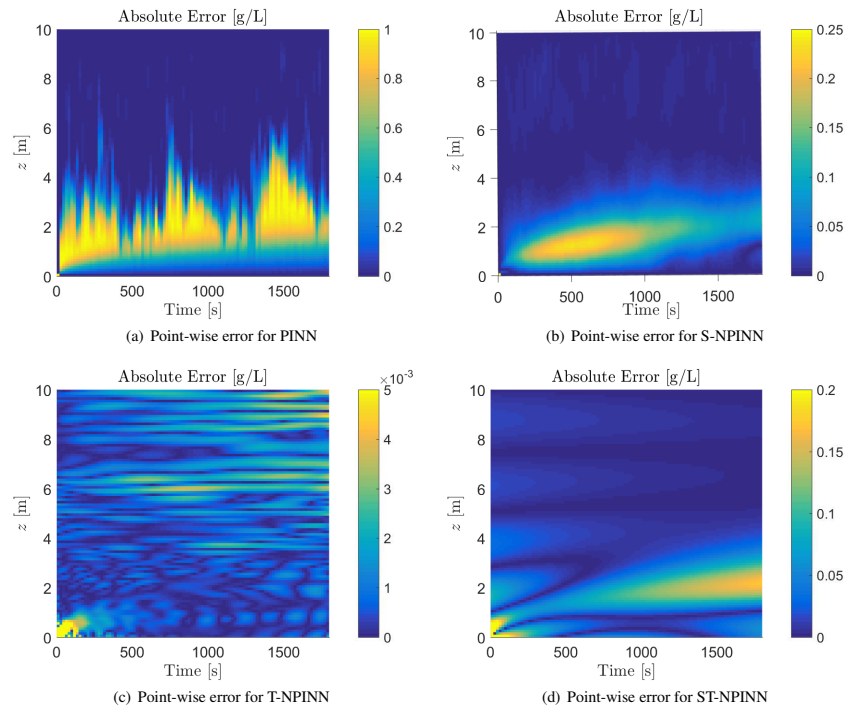


FIG. 13. Point-wise error of the 4 candidate models with constant bottom $C(0,t) = 1$ g/L and arbitrary (exponential) $D_s(z)$. (a) For PINN. (b) For S-NPINN. (c) For T-NPINN. (d) For ST-NPINN.

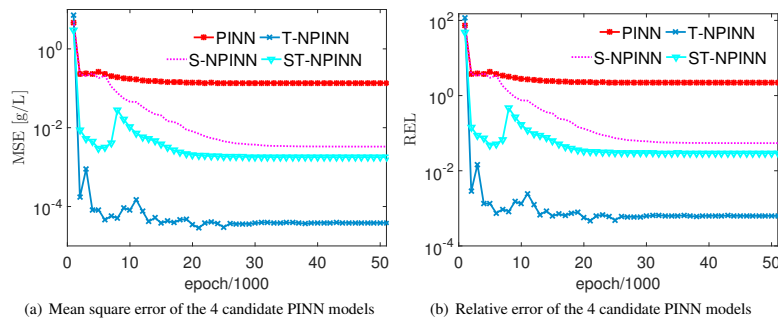


FIG. 14. The test errors curve during training the 4 candidate models with constant bottom $C(0,t) = 1$ g/L and arbitrary (exponential) depth distribution of D_s . (a) Mean square error of the 4 candidate PINN models. (b) Relative error of the 4 candidate PINN models.

TABLE III. Summary of the model performance in different scenarios

Model	Scenario	$D_s(z)$	MSE	REL
PINN	1	$0.0001z$	2.05×10^{-1}	3.21
	2	$0.001(z/5 - 1)^2$	4.25×10^{-1}	6.69
	3	$0.001 \exp(-z)$	1.35×10^{-1}	2.223
S-NPINN	1	$0.0001z$	5.39×10^{-2}	8.45×10^{-1}
	2	$0.001(z/5 - 1)^2$	2.16×10^{-3}	3.41×10^{-2}
	3	$0.001 \exp(-z)$	3.31×10^{-3}	5.43×10^{-2}
ST-NPINN	1	$0.0001z$	1.32×10^{-4}	2.07×10^{-3}
	2	$0.001(z/5 - 1)^2$	5.69×10^{-4}	8.96×10^{-3}
	3	$0.001 \exp(-z)$	1.79×10^{-3}	2.93×10^{-2}
T-NPINN	1	$0.0001z$	5.11×10^{-5}	8.00×10^{-4}
	2	$0.001(z/5 - 1)^2$	3.66×10^{-5}	5.76×10^{-4}
	3	$0.001 \exp(-z)$	3.83×10^{-5}	6.28×10^{-4}

328 of Physics-Informed Neural Networks (PINN) in approaching the solution of the one-dimensional suspended sediment
 329 settling-diffusion equation with arbitrary D_s profiles is explored. A new approach of Temporal Normalized Physics-
 330 Informed Neural Networks (T-NPINN) which normalizes the time component is proposed and achieves a remarkable
 331 accuracy level (Mean Square Error of 10^{-5} and the relative error loss of 10^{-4}). Detailed conclusions can be summarized
 332 as follows:

333 (1) An analytical solution to the 1DV governing equation is derived. The analytical expression assumes that the eddy
 334 diffusivity D_s and settling velocity w_s are uniform along the depth and the bottom reference concentration is a step function.

335 (2) The potential of T-NPINN in solving the 1DV suspended sediment convection-diffusion equation with depth uniform
 336 D_s profiles is validated by comparing it to the analytic solution. The T-NPINN outperforms other PINN normalization
 337 strategies. It achieves a remarkable accuracy level (Mean Square Error of 10^{-5} and the relative error loss of 10^{-4}),
 338 validating the efficiency of the T-NPINN method.

339 (3) The validated T-NPINN is then used in more complex cases of linear, parabolic, and arbitrary (exponential) D_s
 340 profiles when analytical expressions are unavailable. It keeps a remarkable accuracy level (Mean Square Error of 10^{-5}
 341 and the relative error loss of 10^{-4}), proving its ability for more complex scenarios when analytical solutions are not available.

342 The present study reveals the potential of T-NPINN, it bridges the gap between analytical and numerical approaches,
 343 and it emerges as an indispensable tool for addressing scenarios where numerical models encounter limitations, thereby
 344 enriching the toolkit available for oceanic research and engineering.

345 APPENDIX

346 To visualize more closely how well the T-NPINN solution matches the numerical solution, the comparison profile of
 347 FDM and T-NPINN at different depths are shown in Figure 15. T-NPINN can fit the concentration values at different
 348 depths very close to FDM, which also means that our proposed T-NPINN method can be applied to nonlinear SDE when
 349 D_s is linearly distributed.

350 From Figure 16, we can see that when solving the parabolic situation where the distribution of D_s is more complex,
 351 T-NPINN can maintain good stability and almost completely coincide with the FDM solution with higher accuracy in
 352 terms of image fitting.

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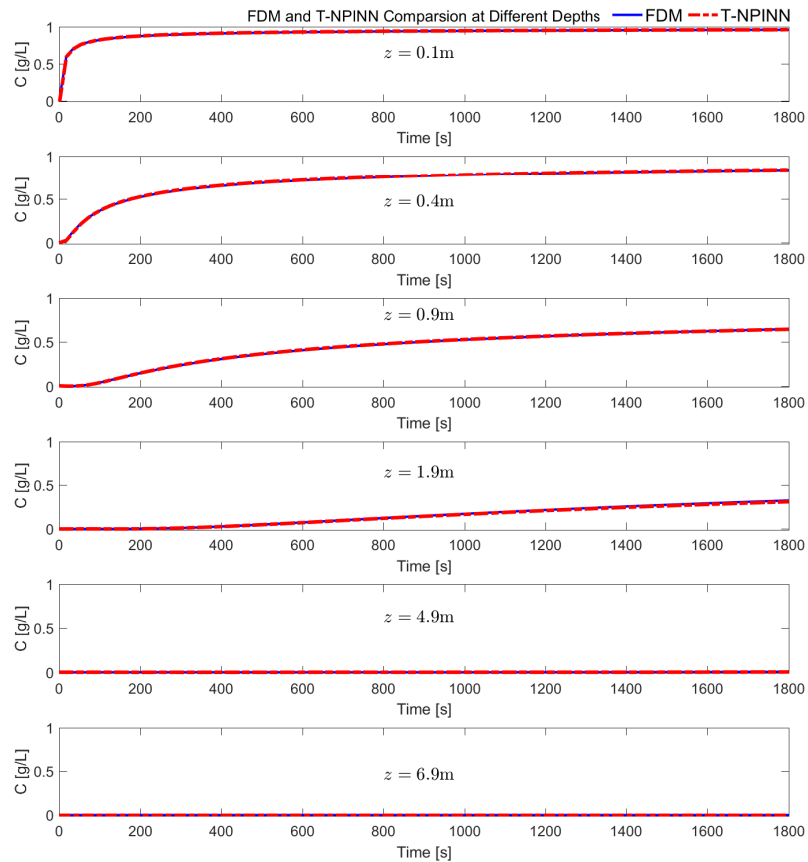


FIG. 15. Comparison of FDM and T-NPINN at Different Depths with a linear depth distribution of D_s .

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357 **DECLARATION OF INTERESTS**

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

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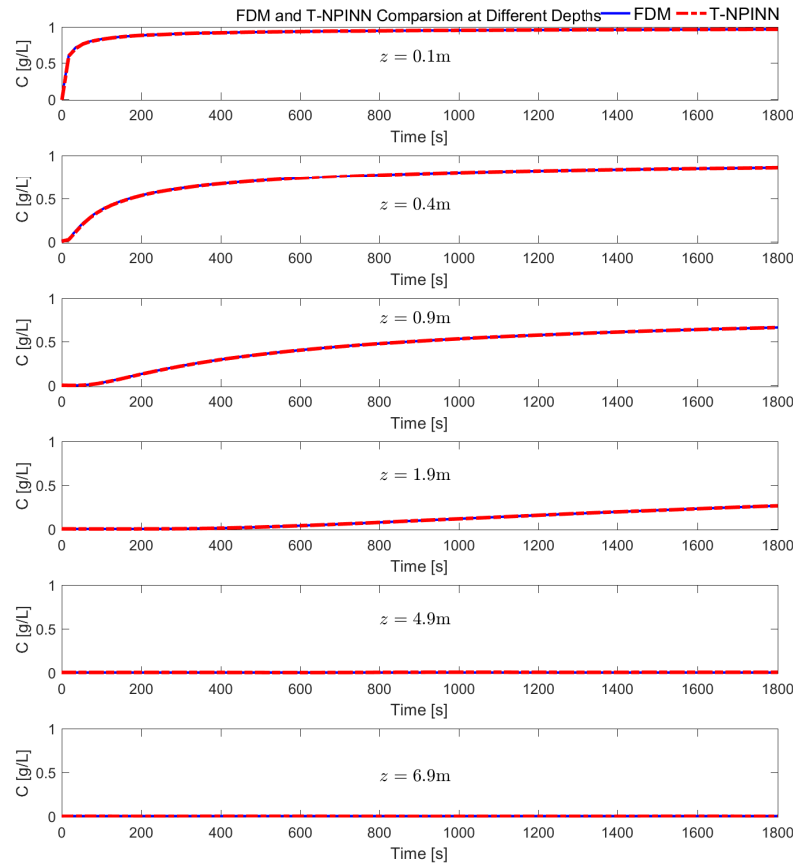


FIG. 16. Comparison of FDM and T-NPINN at Different Depths with a parabolic depth distribution of D_s .

360 CREDIT AUTHORSHIP CONTRIBUTION STATEMENT

361 Shaotong Zhang: Conceptualization, Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing - Original Draft, Project administration,
 362 Funding acquisition. Jiaxin Deng: Methodology, Formal analysis, Writing - Original Draft. Xi'An Li: Conceptualization,
 363 Methodology, Investigation, Writing - Review and Editing. Zixi Zhao: Writing - Review and Editing. Jinran Wu: Writing -
 364 Review and Editing. Weide Li: Writing - Review and Editing. You-Gan Wang: Writing - Review and Editing. Dong-Sheng
 365 Jeng: Writing - Review and Editing.

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