

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
AND TRAINING

VIETNAM ACADEMY OF
SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

GRADUATE UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY



HOANG THI MINH CHAU

**RESEARCH ON DEVELOPING A MULTIMODAL RESERVOIR
WATER LEVEL FORECASTING MODEL USING SATELLITE
IMAGERY AND RESERVOIR OPERATION DATA**

SUMMARY OF DOCTORAL DISSERTATION ON INFORMATICS

Major: Information System

Code: 9 48 01 04

Hanoi - 2026

The dissertation is completed at: Graduate University of Science and Technology, Vietnam Academy of Science and Technology

Supervisors:

Supervisor 1: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Tran Thi Ngan

Supervisor 2: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Nguyen Long Giang

Referee 1: Assoc. Prof. Pham Van Hai

Referee 2: Ph.D. Tran Duc Nghia

The dissertation is examined by Examination Board of Graduate University of Science and Technology, Vietnam Academy of Science and Technology at 2:00 PM on April 21, 2026.

This dissertation can be found at:

- 1) Graduate University of Science and Technology Library
- 2) National Library of Vietnam

INTRODUCTION

1. Research motivation

Reservoirs play a critical role in flow regulation, flood mitigation, water supply, and hydropower generation, thereby contributing to socio-economic development and ecosystem stability. However, climate change is altering hydrological cycles, increasing the frequency of extreme events, and causing nonlinear fluctuations in reservoir water level time series. Many reservoirs worldwide have experienced declining water levels, leading to water resource imbalances, deteriorating water quality, and increasing downstream safety risks, while the flood control function of reservoirs has become increasingly important.

In reservoir operation, the reliability of water level forecasting is a key factor in regulating discharge and water release decisions; inaccurate forecasts may result in flooding or water shortages. Therefore, developing accurate, flexible, and climate-resilient reservoir water level forecasting models is an urgent requirement to improve water resource management efficiency, ensure water security, and mitigate disaster-related risks.

2. Overview of studies on reservoir water level forecasting

Previous studies on reservoir water level forecasting can generally be categorized into two main groups: traditional approaches and deep learning-based approaches.

- **Traditional approaches:** These include hydraulic/hydrological models [29–31], regression-based models such as ARIMA [32, 33], SARIMA [34, 35], and conventional machine learning models [36–46].
- **Machine learning/deep learning approaches:** These approaches employ machine learning or deep learning models such as RNN, LSTM, BiLSTM, and related architectures for reservoir water level forecasting using satellite imagery data.

In recent years, multimodal reservoir water level forecasting methods have been rapidly developed [47–53]. The primary focus of this research direction is the fusion mechanism of heterogeneous data sources (image data and numerical data) to develop comprehensive forecasting models that simultaneously capture spatial characteristics and temporal dynamics of reservoir systems.

The multimodal approach to reservoir water level forecasting has attracted considerable attention, particularly in leveraging the integration of satellite imagery and reservoir operation data with deep learning models to estimate reservoir water levels. This approach enables the simultaneous utilization of rich spatial information and wide-area coverage provided by satellite imagery, together with high-resolution temporal features and continuity offered by hydrological operational data, thereby improving forecasting accuracy and model stability.

In recent years, satellite imagery has become a highly valuable data source and has been increasingly utilized across various domains. For instance, Ul Islam et al. [59] employed remote sensing data to analyze changes in spatial distribution and infrastructure scale in Peshawar District (Pakistan), while Song et al. [60] applied

satellite imagery in the maritime domain, demonstrating the significant potential of image data in representing complex spatiotemporal phenomena.

In the field of hydrology, satellite imagery plays a particularly important role due to its wide spatial coverage, temporal continuity, and remote observation capability. Numerous studies [61, 62] have utilized satellite image time series to monitor and forecast reservoir water level variations at large spatial scales and over long-term periods. In particular, satellite imagery provides water level information for regions where in-situ monitoring systems are difficult or impossible to deploy, such as frequently flooded areas, remote river basins, or large-scale reservoirs [63]. Furthermore, with increasingly shorter revisit cycles and higher spatial resolution, satellite imagery data can timely detect both minor fluctuations and abrupt changes in reservoir water levels, thereby improving the accuracy and reliability of forecasting models [64].

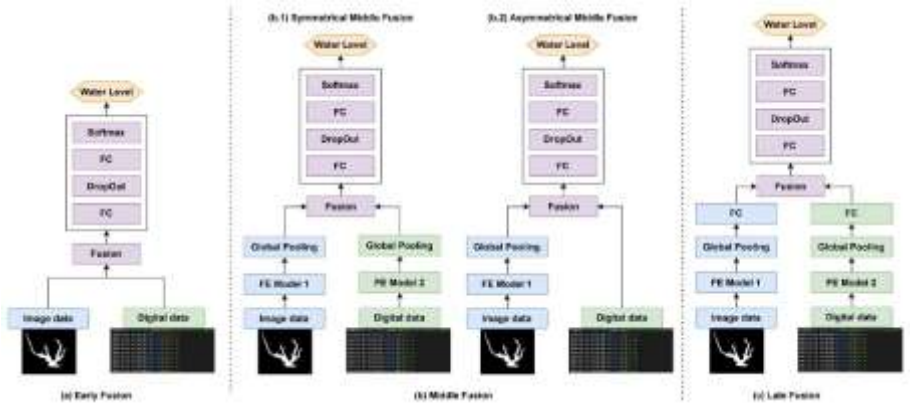


Figure 0.1. Classification of multimodal integration methods

In general, multimodal deep learning approaches follow a common information processing pipeline consisting of three stages to map heterogeneous data sources into a unified forecasting space:

- **Representation stage:** Different types of data are preprocessed and transformed into appropriate formats (vectors, matrices, or tensors).
- **Fusion stage:** This is the most critical stage, where information from different data modalities is integrated. The fusion process may be performed through operations such as concatenation, addition, or more sophisticated mechanisms such as attention mechanisms. The objective is to learn a shared representation that captures both spatial and temporal information.
- **Inference stage:** Based on the shared representation, the model employs fully connected layers to predict the output reservoir water level values.

The fundamental difference among existing studies lies in where the **fusion stage** occurs within the network architecture. Based on this criterion, existing methods can

be categorized into three major strategies: **early fusion, intermediate fusion, and late fusion**. These approaches are illustrated in Figure 0.1

3. Research gaps

- a) The exploitation of satellite imagery in reservoir water level forecasting still exhibits significant research gaps, especially in the context of multimodal forecasting models that combine image data and hydrological numerical data.

Most current studies use CNN or ResNet architectures to extract spatial features from satellite imagery, while reservoir operational data and hydrological time-series are often processed independently by simple models such as MLPs or fully-connected layers. The extracted features are primarily normalized and fused using simple fusion strategies, typically vector concatenation at intermediate or output layers of the model.

This approach shows several limitations:

Firstly, the feature fusion mechanism remains largely mechanical and does not adequately reflect intrinsic relationships and dynamic interactions between spatial information from satellite imagery and the temporal dynamics of the hydrological system.

Secondly, long-term temporal dependencies—which are crucial in processes of storage, release and reservoir regulation—are not effectively exploited due to a lack of tight integration with deep architectures specialized for sequential data such as LSTM, GRU or Transformer.

Thirdly, many models are sensitive to noisy data, cloud cover or missing satellite images, resulting in limited robustness to anomalous inputs and reduced forecasting stability.

Finally, the high computational complexity of some existing multimodal models increases training time and hinders deployment in operational forecasting systems.

- b) There is a lack of analysis on the multimodal characteristics of reservoir water level data that tightly integrate satellite imagery and reservoir operational data. At the same time, unified multimodal forecasting systems that cohesively integrate satellite imagery and operational reservoir data within a single architecture have not been developed to effectively exploit spatio-temporal dependencies across multiple scales. The objective is to improve model accuracy, stability and generalization capability, while steering toward practical applicability in reservoir management and operation.

4. Research objectives of the thesis

General objective: To research and develop a multimodal reservoir water level forecasting model, using satellite imagery of the reservoir area and reservoir operational data as the model inputs.

Specific objectives:

- Propose a multimodal reservoir water level forecasting model in which spatial features extracted from satellite imagery are fused with numerical features from reservoir operational data into a unified representation space for forecasting.

- Establish experiments to evaluate the validity and forecasting performance of the proposed models with the goal of reducing forecast errors, especially under noisy conditions.
- Concurrently develop a web-based multimodal reservoir water level forecasting system to support integration, storage and analysis of satellite imagery and hydrological data in real time, serving reservoir management and operation.

5. Main contributions of the thesis

To enhance forecasting accuracy of reservoir water levels and thereby improve reservoir operation and management effectiveness, this thesis proposes the following principal scientific contributions:

- **First**, the dissertation proposes a multimodal reservoir water level forecasting model, namely HOG-GRU, presented in [CT1], for forecasting scenarios where reservoir water levels experience abrupt intra-day fluctuations.
- **Second**, the dissertation proposes a multimodal reservoir water level forecasting model, namely Colubrid-Net, presented in [CT2], for scenarios in which variations in reservoir water levels lead to changes in the spatial surface area of the reservoir.
- **Third**, the dissertation conducts extensive experiments to evaluate the forecasting performance of the proposed models and develops a web-based multimodal reservoir water level forecasting system in studies [CT3, CT4, CT5].

6. Thesis structure

- **Introduction:** presents research necessity, literature review, objectives, scope, methodology and contributions of the thesis.
- **Chapter 1:** introduces the reservoir water level forecasting problem and its characteristics. This chapter also provides foundational knowledge necessary for the design and refinement of the forecasting models proposed in subsequent chapters.
- **Chapter 2:** proposes two multimodal reservoir water level forecasting models HOG-GRU and Colubrid-Net for daily mean reservoir water level prediction, including detailed descriptions of architectures, feature extraction and fusion methods from satellite imagery and time-series data, as well as model construction and training procedures.
- **Chapter 3:** presents experiments evaluating the effectiveness of the proposed models, including study area description, Sentinel-2 imagery and reservoir operational data, experimental design, evaluation metrics, results and discussion, and introduces the multimodal reservoir water level forecasting system.
- **Conclusion and future directions:** summarizes achieved results, highlights scientific and applied contributions, points out limitations and proposes directions for future research.
- **LIST OF SCIENTIFIC PUBLICATIONS**
- **References**

CHAPTER 1. THEORETICAL BASIS

This chapter presents the foundational knowledge related to the problem of reservoir water level forecasting, including the definition of the reservoir water level forecasting problem and its basic characteristics. At the same time, the chapter also introduces knowledge that supports the research directions implemented in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 of the thesis, such as: Sentinel-2 satellite imagery; regression-based reservoir water level forecasting models; deep-learning-based reservoir water level forecasting models; and image-processing techniques that support the reservoir water level forecasting problem. In addition, model evaluation metrics and the ANOVA analysis method are included.

CHAPTER 2. PROPOSAL OF MULTIMODAL RESERVOIR WATER LEVEL FORECASTING MODELS

2.1. Introduction

Based on analysis of the characteristics of the reservoir water level forecasting problem under multi-source data conditions, this chapter focuses on presenting two multimodal reservoir water level forecasting models. The models jointly exploit Sentinel-2 satellite imagery and observed reservoir water-level data to forecast daily mean reservoir water level for reservoirs whose water-surface shape varies with water level. Satellite imagery serves as a supplementary spatial information source, enhancing representation capacity and supporting operational reservoir data during forecasting.

The common novelty of the proposed models lies not only in combining image and numerical data, but also in the methods of image feature extraction and the feature-fusion strategies. Instead of using simple feature concatenation as in many previous studies, the thesis proposes guided fusion mechanisms and improves the image feature-extraction backbone to more effectively exploit spatial information from satellite imagery. The two proposed models are HOG-GRU [CT1] and Colubrid-Net [CT2].

The research results of Chapter 2 are published in works [CT1, CT2] listed in the “LIST OF SCIENTIFIC PUBLICATIONS” section.

2.2. Proposal of the multimodal forecasting model HOG-GRU

2.2.1. Forecasting model

The proposed model is illustrated in Figure 2.1. The model simultaneously utilizes satellite imagery and observed reservoir water level data as input sources. Satellite images are first transformed into reservoir masks, after which the Histogram of Oriented Gradients (HOG) method is applied to extract feature vectors. These features are then normalized using L2 normalization to obtain the final feature representation.

The extracted image feature vector is subsequently normalized into the same feature space as the reservoir water level data, which has been normalized to the range of $[0, 1]$. These two data sources are then integrated through the feature fusion function $P(y_i, f_i)$ to generate a new exogenous variable.

Finally, the exogenous variable and the original water level time series are normalized to the range of $[0, 1]$ and fed into the GRU model to forecast the reservoir water level at the next time step.

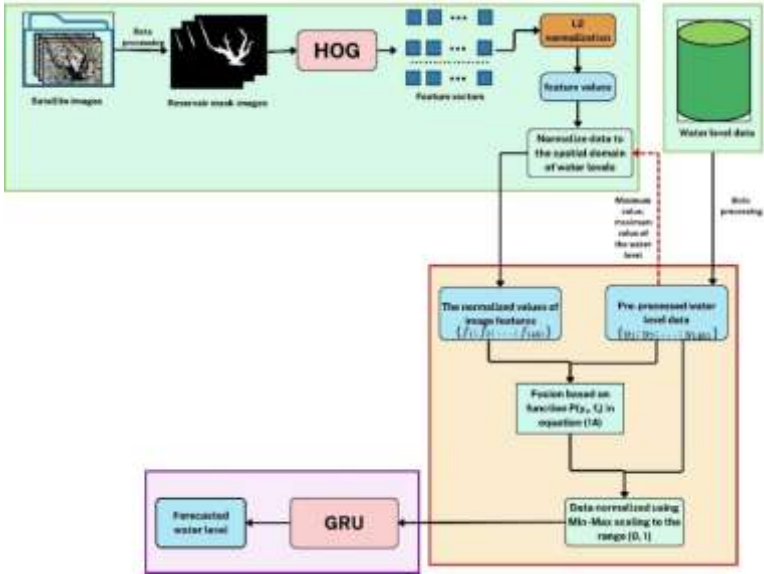


Figure 2.1. Proposed HOG-GRU forecasting model

2.2.2. Data processing



Figure 2.2. Illustrative example of the An Khe reservoir mask image

Images of the An Khe Reservoir area were collected and labeled according to Section 3.2 (Chapter 3) during the period from January 1, 2019, to December 31, 2022, resulting in 18 labeled Sentinel-2 images in the form of boundary masks. These masks were stored in “.txt” format, where pixel values of 0 represent the target object and 255 represent the background. The mask images were converted into grayscale images to reduce data complexity while preserving essential information (Figure 2.2), and were subsequently resized to a standardized dimension of 320×320 . Next, the Minimum Mean Square Error (MMSE) estimator was employed to reduce noise and

enhance image quality. In addition, multi-point interpolation based on the Pearson correlation coefficient was applied to reconstruct missing monthly observations, ensuring that each month had one representative image. The interpolation process generated an additional 30 images, increasing the total number of mask images to 48. Finally, the dataset was smoothed, assigned monthly time indices, and normalized using the Min–Max normalization method in the Python environment.

After preprocessing, the operational datasets of the An Khe and Ka Nak reservoirs consisted of 1,461 samples, which were sequentially indexed on a daily basis to ensure consistency and facilitate integration into the forecasting model. The input water level time series was subsequently normalized to the range of [0, 1].

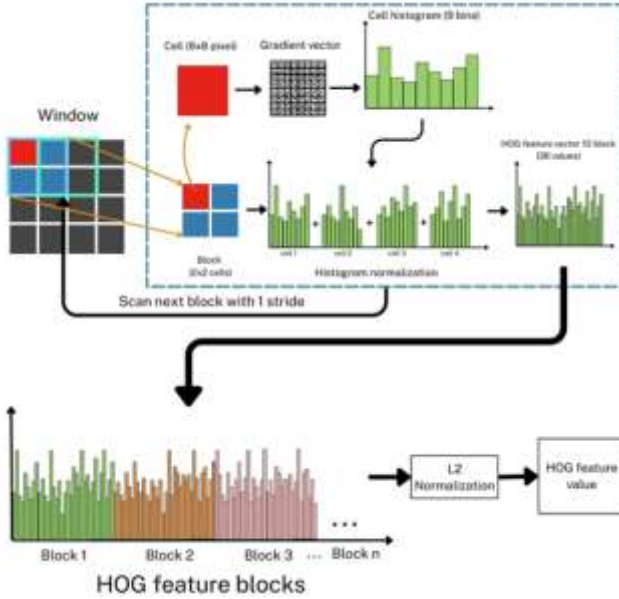


Figure 2.3. HOG algorithm diagram

2.2.3. Image feature extraction and noise handling

Reservoir mask images were intensity-normalized to the range [0,1] and input to the HOG algorithm. Each mask image is represented by a single feature vector. The lengths of these vectors depend on the input image size and are L2-normalized to ensure stability and consistency of the features. After this step, a set of HOG feature values is obtained, as illustrated in Figure 2.3.

L2 normalization is applied according to the following formula:

$$g_t = \sqrt{\sum v_i^2} \quad (2.1)$$

where: v_i is the value of each element in the HOG feature vector, and g_t denotes the overall intensity of the feature, emphasizing salient values and reducing the influence of small noise in the image.

2.2.4. Fusion of water-level data and image features

The fusion function $P(y_t, f_t)$ is expressed in formula (3.1):

$$P(y_t, f_t) = \frac{y_t f_t}{1 + f_t} [1 - S(y_t - a)] + \mu [S(y_t - a) - S(y_t - b)] + \left(y_t + \frac{\mu}{f_t} \right) S(y_t - b) \quad (2.2)$$

Where:

$$S(x) = \begin{cases} 0; & x \leq 0 \\ 3x^2 - 2x^3; & 0 < x < 1, \\ 1; & x \geq 1 \end{cases} \quad (2.3)$$

y_t is the water-level value at time t and $y_t > 0$; f_t is the scaling/coefficient associated with each y_t , representing the image-derived feature value that has been normalized to the same space as the reservoir water-level data, with $f_t > 0$. $\bar{y}$ is the mean value of the y_t series, and a and b are, respectively, the upper and lower bounds of the confidence interval, determined by:

$$a = \mu - \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{N}} * \alpha \quad b = \mu + \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{N}} * \alpha$$

The parameter α is not a learning rate but a z-score coefficient used to define the confidence interval for the water-level series. In this study, $\alpha = 3.291$ corresponding to a 99.9% confidence level. Values within the interval $[a, b]$ are considered normal, while values outside this interval are identified as anomalous and highlighted by the fusion function.

2.2.5. Model implementation and GRU training

Reservoir water-level data and the image-derived fused features were Min–Max normalized to $[0, 1]$ and split into training, validation and test sets in the ratio 7 : 1.5 : 1.5.

This study builds a GRU model to forecast reservoir water level from a multivariate time series with input shaped as (time steps, features). The architecture consists of two GRU layers (64 and 32 units) interleaved with Dropout layers of 30%, and a final Dense output layer with a sigmoid activation for the normalized forecast value. The model is trained using the Adam optimizer ($\text{lr} = 1 \times 10^{-3}$), MSE loss, for 300 epochs, batch size 32, with ModelCheckpoint to save the best-performing model.

2.3. Proposal of the multimodal reservoir water-level forecasting model

Colubrid-Net

Reservoir water-level forecasting is a complex spatio-temporal prediction problem that requires capturing both the temporal hydrodynamic behavior and the reservoir's spatial characteristics. Formally, the problem can be described as learning a mapping function:

$$f: X \times S \rightarrow R$$

Where, $X \subseteq R^{T \times d}$ denotes the multivariate time-series dataset consisting of T time steps with d features, $S \subseteq R^{H \times W \times C}$ denotes the satellite image data with height H , width

W and C spectral channels, and the output is a scalar value representing the forecasted water level.

2.3.1. Idea of the proposed method

The thesis proposes a novel multimodal architecture that integrates a U-Net-based spatial feature extractor with time-series modeling, as illustrated in Figure 2.4. The core idea is that reservoir water-level dynamics are jointly influenced by short-term temporal patterns in observational hydrological data and by relatively stable, long-term spatial features of the reservoir system.

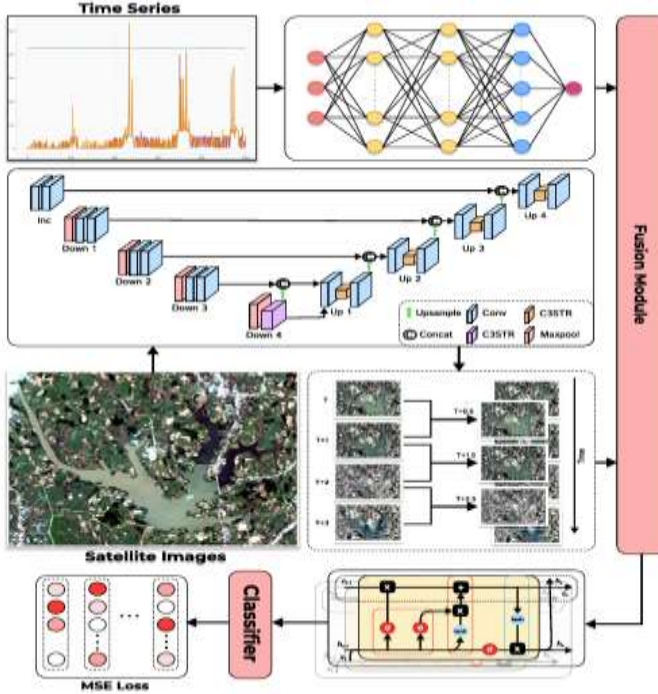


Figure 2.4.. Colubrid-Net architecture

The model processing pipeline comprises three main components:

1. U-Net-based multiscale spatial feature extractor (UMSFE): processes reservoir satellite images to extract hierarchical multiscale spatial representations;
2. Multilayer perceptron temporal feature extractor (MTFE): transforms the time-series data into high-density temporal embedding vectors;
3. Temporal fusion BiLSTM (TF-BiLSTM): performs joint spatio-temporal inference on the fused multimodal features.

The principal contribution of the proposed method is exploiting multiscale feature extraction from both the encoder and decoder paths of U-Net to capture local patterns and global context simultaneously, thereby improving spatial representation and

water-level forecasting accuracy. The model combines spatial features from satellite imagery (UMSFE) and temporal features from time-series data (MTFE), uses temporal interpolation to synchronize resolutions, fuses modalities via concatenation, and forecasts water level using a BiLSTM trained with MSE loss.

Basic concepts: Denote $I_t \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W}$ as the satellite image observing the reservoir at time t , and $x_t \in \mathbb{R}^d$ as the corresponding multivariate time-series vector, which includes water level, outflow, inflow, and engineered features such as seasonal indicators and lagged variables.

The objective is to forecast the water level y_{t+l} at the next time step based on historical observations $\{I_{t-\tau+l}, \dots, I_t\}$ and $\{x_{t-\tau+l}, \dots, x_t\}$ within a regression window of size τ .

2.3.2. UMSFE architecture

1) C3STR Network (C3 Swin Transformer)

The UMSFE architecture uses a C3 Swin Transformer network to overcome the limitations of CNNs in modeling multi-scale spatial relationships in satellite imagery [96]. The original C3 module proposed in YOLOv5 [97] is effective for local feature extraction but has a limited receptive field and therefore cannot fully capture the global relationships required to represent fine-grained details. In this study, reservoir satellite images contain heterogeneous spatial information at multiple scales — from fine surface-water textures to coarse catchment boundaries — which requires architectures capable of robust and efficient multiscale feature extraction.

Swin Transformer (ST) [98] improves on Vision Transformer (ViT) [99] by introducing a hierarchical self-attention mechanism based on shifted windows, reducing computational complexity from quadratic to linear while retaining the ability to model global context. C3STR leverages these advantages via a two-branch architecture, as illustrated in Figure 2.5.(a): one branch processes features using ST to capture long-range dependencies and global context, as shown in Figure 2.5.(b), while the other branch preserves the original features via an identity mapping to ensure stable gradient flow. Each Swin Transformer (ST) block alternates between window-based multi-head self-attention (W-MSA) and shifted-window multi-head self-attention (SW-MSA), as illustrated in Figure 2.5.(c) and expressed by the following formulas:

$$\hat{z}^l = \text{W-MSA}(\text{LN}(z^{l-1})) + z^{l-1} \quad (2.4)$$

$$z^l = \text{MLP}(\text{LN}(\hat{z}^l)) + \hat{z}^l \quad (2.5)$$

$$\hat{z}^{l+1} = \text{SW-MSA}(\text{LN}(z^l)) + z^l \quad (2.6)$$

$$z^{l+1} = \text{MLP}(\text{LN}(\hat{z}^{l+1})) + \hat{z}^{l+1} \quad (2.7)$$

where l is the layer index within the ST block; z^{l-1} , z^l , z^{l+1} are the feature representations of the input at successive layers, and $\hat{z}^{l-1}$, $\hat{z}^l$, $\hat{z}^{l+1}$ are the intermediate feature representations at layers $l-1$, l , $l+1$. These are spatial feature tensors updated sequentially through each Transformer block. LN (Layer Normalization) normalizes across feature channels, stabilizing training and improving convergence.

The window partitioning strategy splits input features into non-overlapping windows of size $M \times M$ to perform local self-attention, while shifted windows in subsequent layers enable information exchange across different regions. For reservoir satellite imagery, the C3STR module is capable of capturing scale-aware spatial features — from fine-grained structures such as surface condition patterns to coarser contexts like reservoir geometry and surrounding land-use types.

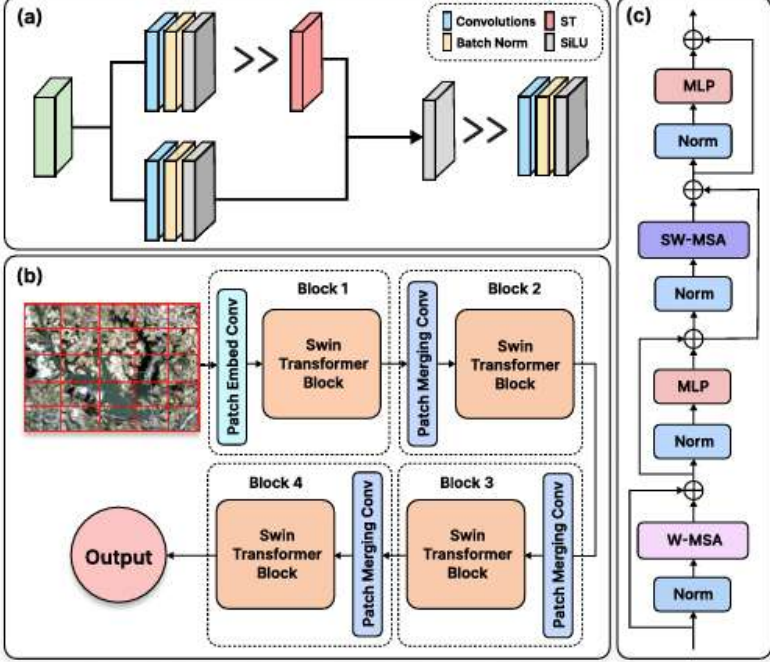


Figure 2.5. Overview of the C3STR module architecture. (a) Two-branch design of C3STR; (b) hierarchical processing structure of the Swin Transformer (ST) module with patch-merging and Transformer blocks; (c) internal structure of an ST block composed of sequential modules.

2) Dynamic Snake Activation Function

To enhance nonlinear modeling capability, we use the dynamic Snake activation function [100] for both encoder and decoder branches. The Snake activation provides a learnable periodic activation suitable for modeling complex feature transformations and is defined as:

$$\text{Snake}(x) = x + \frac{1}{\alpha} \sin^2(\alpha x) \quad (2.8)$$

where α is a learnable frequency parameter that controls the periodicity and amplitude of the sinusoidal component. Unlike fixed activations such as ReLU or GELU, the learnable α can adapt during training, allowing the model to self-tune its

nonlinear characteristics for the specific task, thereby optimizing feature extraction from reservoir satellite imagery.

3) Proposed architecture

The spatial feature-extraction module in this study is designed to learn multiscale representations from reservoir satellite images. The encoder follows a hierarchical downsampling strategy described as:

$$e_l = \text{DoubleConv}(I_l) \quad (2.9)$$

$$e_i = \text{Down}(e_{i-1}), i \in \{2, 3, 4\} \quad (2.10)$$

$$e_5 = \text{DownC3STR}(e_4) \quad (2.11)$$

where DoubleConv performs two consecutive convolutions followed by batch normalization and activation; Down executes max-pooling prior to applying the double-convolution block; and DownC3STR integrates the C3STR module to enhance the feature representation at the bottleneck. The decoder then reconstructs spatial information via upsampling and skip connections as follows:

$$d_l = \text{Up}(e_5, e_l) \quad (2.12)$$

$$d_i = \text{Up}(d_{i-1}, e_{5-i}), i \in \{2, 3, 4\} \quad (2.13)$$

We define the encoder feature set $E = \{e_3, e_4, e_5\}$ and the decoder feature set $D = \{d_1, d_2, d_3, d_4\}$. Each feature map is then processed with Generalized Mean pooling (GeM), defined by:

$$\text{GeM}(F) = (1/HW \sum_{i=1}^H \sum_{j=1}^W F_{i,j}^p)^{1/p} \quad (2.14)$$

Where p is a learnable parameter. The final spatial representation is obtained by concatenating (denoted $\oplus$) all pooled features and applying Layer Normalization:

$$f^{spa} = \text{LayerNorm}(\oplus (\cup_{F \in \mathcal{E} \cup \mathcal{D}} \text{GeM}(F))) \quad (2.15)$$

which is then projected through a two-layer MLP to produce the final spatial feature vector $z^{spa} \in R^{1024}$.

2.3.3. MTFE architecture

The temporal branch processes multivariate time-series data via MLP layers. First, the input features are standardized as $\tilde{x}_t = \text{StandardScale}(x_t)$, and temporal feature extraction proceeds as:

$$h_1 = \text{ReLU}(W_1 \tilde{x}_t + b_1) \quad (2.16)$$

$$h_2 = \text{ReLU}(W_2 h_1 + b_2) \quad (2.17)$$

$$h_3 = \text{ReLU}(W_3 h_2 + b_3) \quad (2.18)$$

$$z^{temp} = \text{ReLU}(W_4 h_3 + b_4) \quad (2.19)$$

Here, W_i and b_i are learnable parameters, and the output vector dimension is $z^{temp} \in R^{1024}$, serving as a compact, information-rich embedding of the hydrological time series before fusion with the spatial feature.

2.3.4. Temporal alignment and image-feature interpolation

To address the temporal incompatibility between monthly satellite imagery and daily time-series data, this thesis develops a temporal interpolation mechanism that expands image features from monthly resolution to daily resolution, while preserving seasonal variation characteristics and introducing realistic temporal dynamics.

Specifically, given a set of monthly image features $\{z_m^{spa}\}_{m=1}^M$, where M denotes the number of observed months, we generate a set of daily features $\{z_d^{spa}\}_{d=1}^D$ for D days using the following interpolation strategy. For each day d within month m, the base interpolated feature is defined as $z_d^{base} = z_m^{spa}$. o model temporal variations that reflect real changes in reservoir conditions, seasonal and stochastic perturbations are introduced according to the following formulations:

$$s_d = \alpha_s \sin \left(\frac{2\pi \cdot \text{day_of_year}(d)}{365} \right) \quad (2.20)$$

$$\epsilon_d \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 I) \quad (2.21)$$

$$z_d^{spa} = z_d^{base} + s_d + \epsilon_d \quad (2.22)$$

where $\alpha_s=0.05$ controls the amplitude of seasonal variation, $\sigma=0.02$ determines the magnitude of random perturbations, and I denotes the identity matrix. This interpolation strategy preserves the fundamental spatial features extracted from monthly satellite imagery while introducing controlled temporal variability to reflect the dynamic nature of the reservoir system.

2.3.5. BiLSTM for temporal fusion

The multimodal features are fused via concatenation, defined as:

$$z_t = z_t^{spa} \oplus z_t^{temp} \in R^{2048} \quad (2.23)$$

To handle the temporal mismatch between monthly satellite imagery and daily observational time-series data, we employ the temporal interpolation approach to upsample monthly image features to daily resolution, as described in Section 2.3.5. Sequence modeling is performed using a two-layer BiLSTM with hidden dimension h=128. The process can be formulated as follows:

$$i_t = \sigma(W_{ii}z_t + b_{ii} + W_{hi}h_{t-1} + b_{hi}) \quad (2.24)$$

$$f_t = \sigma(W_{if}z_t + b_{if} + W_{hf}h_{t-1} + b_{hf}) \quad (2.25)$$

$$o_t = \sigma(W_{io}z_t + b_{io} + W_{ho}h_{t-1} + b_{ho}) \quad (2.26)$$

$$g_t = \tan h(W_{ig}z_t + b_{ig} + W_{hg}h_{t-1} + b_{hg}) \quad (2.27)$$

$$c_t = f_t \odot c_{t-1} + i_t \odot g_t \quad (2.28)$$

$$h_t = o_t \odot \tan h(c_t) \quad (2.29)$$

In the bidirectional setting, the final hidden state at time t is obtained by concatenating the forward and backward hidden states, given by:

$$h_t^{bi} = h_t^{fwd} \oplus h_t^{bwd} \quad (2.30)$$

The final prediction is then produced through a two-layer output head:

$$\hat{y}_{t+1} = W_{out} \text{ReLU}(W_{proj} h_t^{bi} + b_{proj}) + b_{out} \quad (2.31)$$

to obtain a scalar value representing the forecasted reservoir water level at time step $t+1$.

2.4. Chapter conclusion

The proposed HOG-GRU model was developed to address the limitations of previous multimodal forecasting approaches by employing the HOG algorithm instead of complex CNN architectures for satellite image feature extraction. This approach reduces computational cost, shortens training time, and accelerates inference. In addition, the model introduces a feature fusion mechanism between satellite imagery and water level time series data, thereby improving the capability of detecting abrupt fluctuations in reservoir water levels. However, a limitation of HOG-GRU is that image features are still assigned on a monthly basis, which does not fully capture the temporal dynamics of reservoir systems.

To overcome this limitation, the dissertation further develops Colubrid-Net, an advanced multimodal architecture that employs an enhanced U-Net integrated with the C3STR block to simultaneously extract local features and global spatial relationships from multi-scale satellite imagery. Furthermore, the model proposes a temporal alignment and seasonal interpolation mechanism to transform image features from monthly frequency into daily frequency, ensuring synchronization with hydrological time-series data. After feature fusion, a BiLSTM network is utilized to learn bidirectional temporal dependencies and improve the accuracy of daily reservoir water level forecasting.

The results presented in Chapter 2 have been published in studies [CT1, CT2] listed in the “LIST OF SCIENTIFIC PUBLICATIONS”

CHAPTER 3. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE RESERVOIR WATER LEVEL FORECASTING MODEL

3.1. Study Area

The An Khe – Ka Nak reservoir system (Gia Lai Province) was selected as the representative study area due to its complex natural conditions, steep terrain, and inter-reservoir operational regime, which result in rapid and nonlinear fluctuations in water levels. The two reservoirs are located in a region frequently affected by heavy rainfall, flash floods, and prolonged droughts, with large and difficult-to-predict water level variations. This area presents a high risk for flood regulation and water resource management, thereby requiring accurate and timely water level forecasting models, particularly when integrating multimodal data sources.

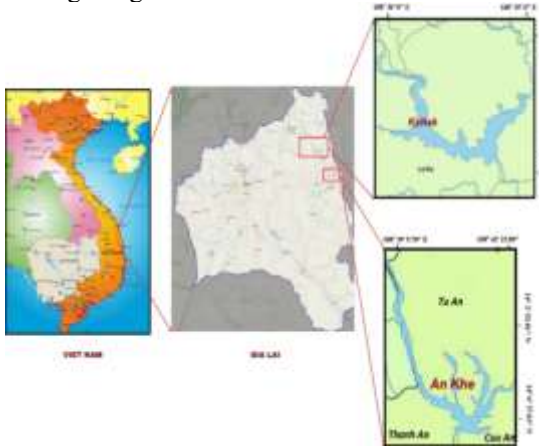


Figure 3.1. Geographic Location of the An Khe and Ka Nak Reservoirs

3.2. Sentinel-2 Satellite Image Collection and Annotation Process

In this section, the dissertation provides a detailed description of the process of collecting and annotating Sentinel-2 satellite imagery. Satellite image data were obtained from the Copernicus program, which is a key component of the European Union Space Programme. These images were acquired from the Sentinel-2 satellites. Currently, the Copernicus program allows global users to freely access its open-source Open Hub platform. In this dissertation, the following criteria were applied to retrieve satellite imagery from Copernicus:

- The processing level was set to Level-2A, with a cloud coverage threshold of less than 20%;
- The data collection period for the An Khe Reservoir area ranged from January 1, 2018, to December 31, 2023;
- The selected spectral bands included R4 (Red), G3 (Green), and B2 (Blue).

Based on these selection criteria, the acquired images exhibited high visual clarity and closely resembled the natural appearance of the reservoir. As a result, 34 satellite images of the An Khe Reservoir area were collected.

After downloading, the satellite images were processed to extract the An Khe Reservoir region using the SNAP software. The image annotation process was conducted based on consistent and appropriate criteria to construct a dataset along with corresponding labels for each image. Within SNAP, the following steps were performed to determine the coordinates of the reservoir area:

Step 1: Select the ZIP file and open it using the spectral bands R4 (Red), G3 (Green), and B2 (Blue). Zoom in on the displayed image to locate the An Khe Reservoir.

Step 2: Use the rectangle drawing tool to identify the reservoir area.

Step 3: Extract the coordinates in WKT format from the Geometry tool and temporarily store them in memory.

Step 4: Open GraphBuilder, create a subset (selecting bands 4, 3, and 2), and save the graph.

Step 5: Edit the polygon within the graph using the coordinates of the reservoir area.

Step 6: Export the final output file in Mygraph.xml format.



Figure 3.2. Example of Sentinel-2 imagery of the An Khe Reservoir area.



Figure 3.3. Labeled image of the reservoir.

The data files were downloaded from the Copernicus website and processed using SNAP software. Polygon coordinates were applied to the reservoir region, after which the software automatically generated cropped images in PNG format. The resulting images correspond to the An Khe Reservoir area and are illustrated in Figure 3.2. From the collected images, the next step involved annotating the water surface area of the An Khe Reservoir using the CVAT tool within an object segmentation environment for a single-class problem (reservoir). Specifically, satellite image files were uploaded and labeled according to the following principles:

- The segmentation target was the water surface area, characterized by relatively uniform and continuous color patterns;
- Annotation points were placed to determine the boundaries between water and non-water regions;

- These points were connected to form a polygon that most accurately represented the shape of the reservoir, as illustrated in Figure 3.3.

After completing the annotation process, the data were stored in a MongoDB database with two primary fields: “images” and “labels.”

3.3. Experimental data description

Sentinel-2 imagery data for the An Khe and Ka Nak reservoirs were collected from January 1, 2019, to December 31, 2022, following the procedure described in Section 3.2. A total of 18 images were collected for the An Khe Reservoir, while 32 images were obtained for the Ka Nak Reservoir. Reservoir operation data for both reservoirs were collected during the same period. The collected data fields included: timestamp, reservoir water level, inflow discharge, and outflow discharge. The operational data were recorded on an hourly basis. Subsequently, the data were preprocessed, and the average daily water level was calculated, resulting in 1,461 daily observations. The processed dataset is illustrated in Figure 3.4.

1	Hồ chứa	LVS/Hồ/Ngày/Giờ	LVS/Hồ chứa/Ngày	Mức nước hồ (m)	Lưu lượng đến hồ (m ³ /s)	Tổng lưu lượng xả (m ³ /s) [Thực tế]
2	An Khê	0	2/4/2022	428.37	40.15	49
3	An Khê	1	2/4/2022	428.36	40.23	49
4	An Khê	2	2/4/2022	428.35	40.32	49
5	An Khê	3	2/4/2022	428.34	40.26	49
6	An Khê	4	2/4/2022	428.33	40.19	49

Figure 3.4. Example Illustration of Reservoir Operational Data

3.4. Evaluation of the HOG-GRU Model Performance

The study compares the proposed HOG-GRU model with several advanced forecasting models commonly used for time-series data, including RNN, LSTM, GRU, HOG-RNN, and HOG-LSTM. The experimental results are presented in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1. Performance evaluation metrics of the forecasting models applied to the entire testing dataset of the An Khe Reservoir

Model	MSE	RMSE	MAE	Tracking Signal	Variance
RNN	0.10637	0.32615	0.24107	-0.17156	0.10773
HOG-RNN	0.08613	0.29348	0.20533	0.16751	0.08745
LSTM	0.11056	0.33250	0.23836	-0.12391	0.10433
HOG-LSTM	0.08604	0.29332	0.20479	-0.05545	0.08608
GRU	0.10527	0.32445	0.23795	-0.18261	0.10108
HOG-GRU	0.08060	0.28390	0.20446	-0.00032	0.08473

In addition, the study evaluates the model performance on a dataset containing anomalous data points to verify its forecasting capability under nonlinear and extreme conditions. The corresponding results are presented in Table 3.2.

The thesis also conducted experimental implementation and evaluation of the models on the Ka Nak reservoir dataset, with the results presented in Table 3.3

Table 3.2. Performance evaluation metrics of the models on the dataset containing anomalous points of the An Khe Reservoir.

Model	MSE	RMSE	MAE	Tracking Signal	Variance
RNN	0.11297	0.33611	0.24897	0.15842	0.12088
HOG-RNN	0.09136	0.30230	0.21256	-0.16571	0.09974
LSTM	0.11699	0.34203	0.24521	0.11173	0.11658
HOG-LSTM	0.09120	0.30199	0.21249	0.05765	0.10191
GRU	0.11133	0.33367	0.24472	0.17023	0.11204
HOG-GRU	0.08546	0.29234	0.21044	-0.02169	0.09783

Table 3.3. Performance evaluation metrics of the reservoir water level forecasting models applied to the entire test dataset of the Ka Nak reservoir.

Model	MAE	MSE	RMSE	Tracking Signal	Variance
RNN	0.95277	1.11083	1.05396	-0.46232	19.33899
LSTM	0.65120	0.63653	0.79783	-0.02049	21.21868
GRU	0.62975	0.58228	0.76307	0.01026	22.01869
HOG-RNN	0.50916	0.39607	0.62934	-0.54665	23.75432
HOG-LSTM	0.45496	0.31161	0.55822	-0.43542	24.72102
HOG-GRU	0.37937	0.20795	0.45601	-0.03985	22.69440

In this section, the thesis conducts experimental comparisons between the two proposed multimodal forecasting models, VGG19-SARIMAX [CT4] and HOG-GRU. The experimental results are presented in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4. Comparison of performance evaluation metrics between the VGG19-SARIMAX and HOG-GRU models.

Model	MAE	MSE	RMSE	Tracking Signal	Train time (minutes)
VGG19-SARIMAX	0.26858	0.10492	0.32392	0.14551	2880
HOG-GRU	0.20408	0.08355	0.28905	0.02625	2

• **Remarks:**

The thesis conducted a comprehensive series of experiments to evaluate the performance of the HOG-GRU model, with the results demonstrating that the proposed model outperforms the comparative methods. These findings not only confirm the effectiveness of the proposed data fusion strategy but also show that using HOG for image feature extraction significantly reduces computational costs while maintaining forecasting accuracy, compared with approaches that rely entirely on deep learning networks.

In this evaluation, the thesis further analyzes and assesses the impact of parameters and components within the fusion function on the forecasting performance of the proposed HOG-GRU model.

• ***How does adding weights to the components of the fusion function $P(y_t, f_t)$ affect the forecasting performance of the prediction model?***

Formula of the fusion function $P(y_t, f_t)$ after introducing the weights w_1 , w_2 and w_3 , transformed into the modified function $P'(y_t, f_t)$ as follows:

$$P'(y_i, f_i) = w_1 \frac{y_i f_i}{1 + f_i} [1 - S(y_i - a)] + w_2 \mu [S(y_i - a) - S(y_i - b)] + w_3 \left(y_i + \frac{\mu}{f_i} \right) S(y_i - b) \quad (3.1)$$

By examining the formula $P'(y_i, f_i)$, it can be observed that when the weights are equal and all set to 1, the equation reduces to the original form $P(y_i, f_i)$. The case where $w_1 = w_2 = w_3 = 1$, is referred to as **Scenario 1**.

Next, additional experiments were conducted under three different scenarios, in which the weight values were adjusted as follows:

- **Scenario 2:** $w_1 = 2, w_2 = 1, w_3 = 1$
- **Scenario 3:** $w_1 = 1, w_2 = 2, w_3 = 1$
- **Scenario 4:** $w_1 = 1, w_2 = 1, w_3 = 2$

In these scenarios, w_1 is used to emphasize the lower bound, w_2 emphasizes the mean (normal) points, and w_3 emphasizes the upper bound. The experimental results are presented in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5. Performance evaluation results of the HOG-GRU model under different weighting scenarios of the fusion function.

	MAE	MSE	RMSE	Tracking Signal	Variance
Scenario 1	0.20408	0.08355	0.28905	0.02625	0.08451
Scenario 2	0.20619	0.08380	0.28955	0.10364	0.09358
Scenario 3	0.20901	0.08544	0.29230	0.18383	0.09358
Scenario 4	0.21381	0.08966	0.29944	-0.09678	0.09730

- **Evaluation of the impact of the value α in the fusion function $P(y_i, f_i)$ on the model performance**

Based on Table 3.6, the parameter α has a noticeable impact on the performance of the HOG-GRU model. When α decreases, the MAE, MSE, and RMSE errors slightly increase, indicating that a narrower water level confidence interval reduces model stability and prediction accuracy. At the same time, the Tracking Signal shifts from slightly positive to negative values, reflecting the presence of systematic bias in the forecasts. However, the mean value of the predicted series remains nearly unchanged, suggesting that α does not significantly affect the overall average trend.

Table 3.6. Performance evaluation results of the HOG-GRU model with different values of α in the fusion function.

	MAE	MSE	RMSE	Tracking Signal	Variance
$\alpha = 1.645(90\%)$	0.21223	0.08692	0.29481	-0.05273	0.09281
$\alpha = 1.960(95\%)$	0.20939	0.08349	0.28894	-0.05881	0.07864
$\alpha = 3.291(99.9\%)$	0.20408	0.08355	0.28905	0.02625	0.08451

- **Evaluation of the contribution of each component in the fusion function to the performance of the forecasting model.**

This analysis aims to quantify the role and effectiveness of each factor in the fusion mechanism by sequentially removing each enhanced component and replacing it with the corresponding baseline representation.

- **Scenario 1:** The lower-bound emphasis component is removed; accordingly, the fusion function $P(y_b, f_t)$ is adjusted to $P_1(y_b, f_t)$.

$$P_1(y_t, f_t) = y_t [1 - S(y_t - a)] + \mu [S(y_t - a) - S(y_t - b)] + \left(y_t + \frac{\mu}{f_t} \right) S(y_t - b) \quad (3.2)$$

- **Scenario 2:** The component emphasizing the mean water level is removed; accordingly, the function $P(y_b, f_t)$ is adjusted to $P_2(y_b, f_t)$.

$$P_2(y_t, f_t) = \frac{y_t f_t}{1 + f_t} [1 - S(y_t - a)] + y_t [S(y_t - a) - S(y_t - b)] + \left(y_t + \frac{\mu}{f_t} \right) S(y_t - b) \quad (3.3)$$

- **Scenario 3:** The upper-bound emphasis component is removed; accordingly, the fusion function $P(y_b, f_t)$ is adjusted to $P_3(y_b, f_t)$.

$$P_3(y_t, f_t) = \frac{y_t f_t}{1 + f_t} [1 - S(y_t - a)] + \mu [S(y_t - a) - S(y_t - b)] + y_t S(y_t - b) \quad (3.4)$$

- **Scenario 4:** Scenario 4: The fusion function $P(y_b, f_t)$ remains unchanged as the original formulation.

Table 3.7. Performance evaluation of the HOG-GRU model when individually removing each component from the fusion function $P(y_b, f_t)$.

	MAE	MSE	RMSE	Tracking Signal	Variance
Scenario 1	0.20611	0.08745	0.29572	0.20639	0.09589
Scenario 2	0.20746	0.08442	0.29055	0.03358	0.09525
Scenario 3	0.21508	0.08517	0.29184	-0.20966	0.08571
Scenario 4	0.20408	0.08355	0.28905	0.02625	0.08571

• **Remarks:**

The thesis conducted experiments across multiple scenarios for the components of the fusion function $P(y_b, f_t)$, the results consistently indicate that the original fusion function used in the proposed method delivers the best performance.

3.5. Performance Evaluation of the Colubrid-Net Model

Experiments were conducted on Sentinel-2 imagery and operational data of the An Khe, reservoir, with preprocessing procedures and configurations standardized according to the HOG-GRU framework to ensure fair comparisons. The results (Table 3.8) show that models without spatial feature integration exhibit large errors (RF: MAE = 0.7329; MLP: MAE = 4.7447), while incorporating spatial information significantly improves performance (VGG19+GRU: MAE = 0.2356). Among advanced methods, the temporal transformer achieves MAE = 0.026 but shows a low R^2 whereas the study by Chau et al. reports MAE = 0.117. Colubrid-Net achieves the best performance with MAE = 0.0242, $R^2 = 0.969$ and KGE = 0.972, representing improvements of 7.4% compared to the temporal transformer and 79.3% compared to Chau et al. These results confirm the critical role of spatial feature extraction using transformers combined with temporal interpolation in enhancing the accuracy and reliability of reservoir water level forecasting.

Table 3.8. Comparative results table

Model	Spatial Features	MAE	MSE	RMSE	R ²	KGE
Linear Regression	No	1.730	4.386	2.094	0.175	0.118
Ridge Regression	No	1.730	4.387	2.094	0.175	0.118
Lasso Regression	No	1.726	4.483	2.117	0.157	0.084
SV Regression	No	0.419	0.366	0.605	0.931	0.9972
Random Forest	No	0.732	0.8971	0.947	0.831	0.894
Gradient Boosting	No	0.493	0.442	0.665	0.916	0.959
XGBoost	No	2.941	18.280	4.275	-2.436	0.140
LightGBM	No	0.577	0.553	0.744	0.895	0.950
CatBoost	No	0.537	0.504	0.710	0.905	0.957
AdaBoost	No	0.200	0.447	0.306	0.911	0.954
Decision Tree	No	2.828	19.925	4.463	-2.746	-0.051
K-Nearest Neighbors	No	3.025	18.342	4.282	-2.448	0.205
MLP	No	4.744	45.808	6.768	-7.612	-0.665
VGG19 w/GRU	Yes	0.235	0.129	0.360	0.929	0.967
U-Net w/GRU	Yes	0.215	1.861	1.364	0.482	0.633
Proposed w/GRU	Yes	0.031	0.007	0.008	0.972	0.967
VGG w/ BiLSTM	Yes	0.026	0.002	0.047	0.936	0.965
U-Net w/BiLSTM	Yes	0.032	0.002	0.049	0.967	0.965
Temporal Transformers	No	0.026	0.009	0.030	0.381	0.703
Chau et al. [CT4]	Yes	0.117	0.268	0.145	-	-
Colubrid-Net	Yes	0.024	0.002	0.046	0.969	0.972

To evaluate the impact of different temporal modeling approaches, Table 3.9 presents a comparison of various recurrent architectures within the proposed model. The results indicate that leveraging bidirectional temporal context enables the model to effectively capture both historical dependencies and “forward-looking” trends in reservoir system dynamics, thereby confirming the suitability of selecting BiLSTM in the Colubrid-Net architecture.

Table 3.9. Performance Comparison of Recurrent Architectures

Architecture	MAE	MSE	RMSE
MLP	0.1235	0.0168	0.1296
GRU	0.0236	0.0027	0.0523
Bi-GRU	0.0415	0.0035	0.0595
LSTM	0.0255	0.0023	0.0485
BiLSTM	0.0242	0.0022	0.0464

Table 3.10 further clarifies the important role of the snake activation function in the proposed architecture. The snake/snake configuration achieves superior performance compared to the remaining configurations.

Table 3.10. Comparison of activation functions in the encoder and decoder.

Activation Function (Encoder/Decoder)	MAE	MSE	RMSE
ReLU/ ReLU	0.2481	0.0714	0.2673
ReLU/ Snake	0.2848	0.0883	0.2971
Snake/ ReLU	0.3015	0.1046	0.3234
Snake/ Snake	0.0242	0.0022	0.0464

3.6. Multimodal Water Level Forecasting System

3.6.1. System Architecture

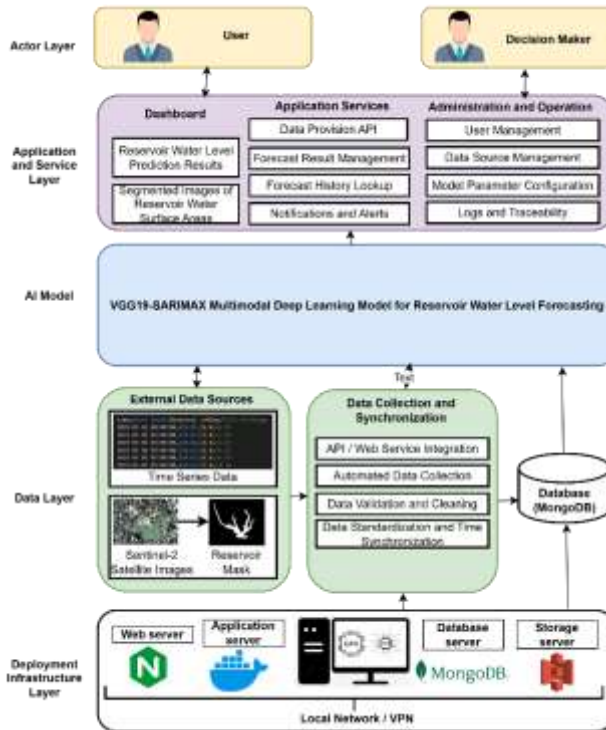


Figure 3.5. Overall Architecture of the Reservoir Water Level Forecasting System

The system is designed based on a client-server architecture (Figure 3.5). It consists of two primary stakeholders: users and decision-makers, who access the system through web interfaces/applications to utilize forecasting results and support reservoir operation management. The application and service layer includes

dashboards, application services, and system administration modules, which are responsible for data visualization, API provisioning, and operational monitoring. The AI model layer deploys the VGG19-SARIMAX multimodal reservoir water level forecasting model. The data layer performs data collection, cleaning, synchronization, and storage from Sentinel-2 imagery, hydrological data, meteorological data, and reservoir operation data. The infrastructure layer consists of web servers, application servers, data processing servers, GPU servers, databases, and storage systems, ensuring efficient data flow and practical deployment capability of the system.

3.6.2. AI Model (VGG19-SARIMAX) in the System

The entire data processing and fusion workflow in this module was developed based on the methodology presented in the VGG19-SARIMAX multimodal forecasting model described in study [CT4].

The system output consists of a sequence of predicted reservoir water level values for predefined forecasting horizons, providing reliable and timely information for reservoir management and operation, as well as supporting decision-making in water resource planning and integrated water resources management

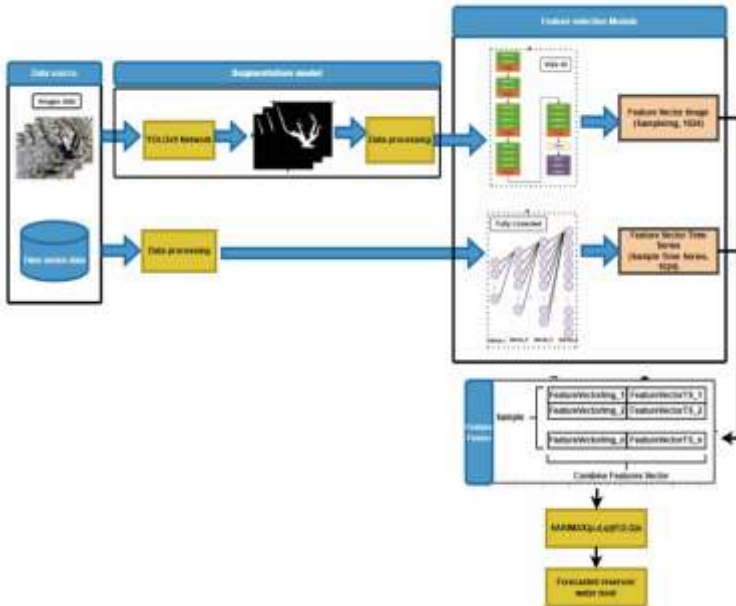


Figure 3.6. VGG19-SARIMAX Reservoir Water Level Forecasting Model

3.7. Chapter Conclusion

The results presented in this chapter have been published in studies [CT4, CT5] listed in the “LIST OF SCIENTIFIC PUBLICATIONS”.

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

1) Main Contributions of the Dissertation

In the context of increasingly complex climate change, reservoir water level forecasting is essential for water resource management, reservoir operation, and disaster risk reduction. However, existing methods still face limitations in forecasting accuracy, generalization capability, and input data requirements. This dissertation develops multimodal reservoir water level forecasting models by integrating reservoir operation data with **Sentinel-2** satellite imagery to improve forecasting performance. The main academic contributions are summarized as follows:

1. **HOG-GRU model:** A multimodal forecasting model that combines hydrological observation data and Sentinel-2 satellite imagery. Image features are extracted using the HOG algorithm and fused with water level data to highlight abnormal variations during floods or droughts. The GRU network then forecasts reservoir water levels at the next time step.
2. **Colubrid-Net model:** A multimodal deep learning architecture that captures spatial-temporal dependencies through multi-scale satellite image feature extraction and hydrological time-series integration. A seasonality-aware temporal interpolation mechanism is proposed to address temporal misalignment between monthly satellite images and daily water level observations.
3. **Web-based forecasting system:** A multimodal reservoir water level forecasting system is developed by integrating hydrological observations and Sentinel-2 remote sensing data to support reservoir management, operation, and decision-making for irrigation and hydropower systems.

2) Limitations and Future Research Directions

Despite the achieved results, the dissertation still has several limitations. The research dataset was constructed based on only two reservoirs belonging to the same hydropower system in Gia Lai during the 2019–2022 period, while the number of available Sentinel-2 images remained limited due to cloud coverage. This may affect the model's ability to learn spatial-temporal representations and reduce its generalization capability when applied to reservoirs with different operational conditions and hydrological characteristics.

In future work, the research will expand datasets across multiple climatic regions and integrate additional meteorological and hydrological variables such as rainfall, reservoir inflow, discharge flow, and evaporation to further improve forecasting accuracy. In addition, the dissertation aims to develop hyperparameter optimization models, online learning approaches, multi-task learning frameworks, and adaptive data fusion mechanisms to enhance operational stability under real-world conditions.

This represents a promising research direction toward building an intelligent reservoir water level forecasting system with broad applicability in water resource management and operation.

LIST OF SCIENTIFIC PUBLICATIONS

[CT1]	Hoang Thị Minh Chau , Tran Thi Ngan, Nguyen Long Giang, Nguyen Nhu Son (2026). HOG-GRU: a novel multi-modal water level forecasting model integrating satellite imagery and reservoir operation data. <i>Data Technologies and Applications</i> , 60(2), 297-329. DOI: 10.1108/DTA-07-2025-0545 (SCIE, Q2).
[CT2]	Nguyen Duc Quang Anh, Nguyen Minh Anh, Tran Thi Ngan, Hoang Thị Minh Chau (2025). Colubrid-Net: A unified cross-modal framework for hydrological forecasting in An Khe Reservoir, Vietnam. <i>IEEE Geoscience and Remote Sensing Letters</i> , vol. 23, pp. 1-5, 2026, Art no. 1500905. DOI: 10.1109/LGRS.2025.3645672 (SCIE, Q1).
[CT3]	Hoang Thị Minh Chau , Tran Thi Ngan, Nguyen Long Giang, Tran Manh Tuan, Tran Kim Chau. (2025). A Hybrid Deep Learning Method for Forecasting Reservoir Water Level from Sentinel-2 Satellite Images. <i>Computers, Materials & Continua</i> , 83(3), 4915. DOI: 10.32604/cmc.2025.062784 (SCIE, Q3).
[CT4]	Hoang Thị Minh Chau , Tran Thi Ngan, Nguyen Long Giang, Tran Kim Chau, Hoang Duc Trung, Ton Nu Mai Khanh. (2024, December). An Integration of VGG19 and SARIMAX in Water Level Forecasting Using Satellite Imagery and Time Series Data. In <i>International Conference on Smart Objects and Technologies for Social Good</i> (pp. 16-28). Springer Nature Switzerland. Scopus Q4 .
[CT5]	Hoang Thị Minh Chau , Tran Thanh Lam, Hoang Duc Trung, Tran Thi Ngan, Nguyen Long Giang, Nguyen Nhu Son, Phung The Huan. (2025). A new multi-modal forecasting system for water level estimation. In <i>International Conference on Advances in Information and Communication Technology</i> . Springer Nature Switzerland. Scopus Q4 .