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Session HS2.3.7: Multi-dataset, multi-variable, and multi-objective techniques to improve prediction of hydrological and water quality models and their Bayesian applications

Large-scale calibration of conceptual rainfall-runoff models for two-stage probabilistic hydrological post-processing

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1. One-slide summary

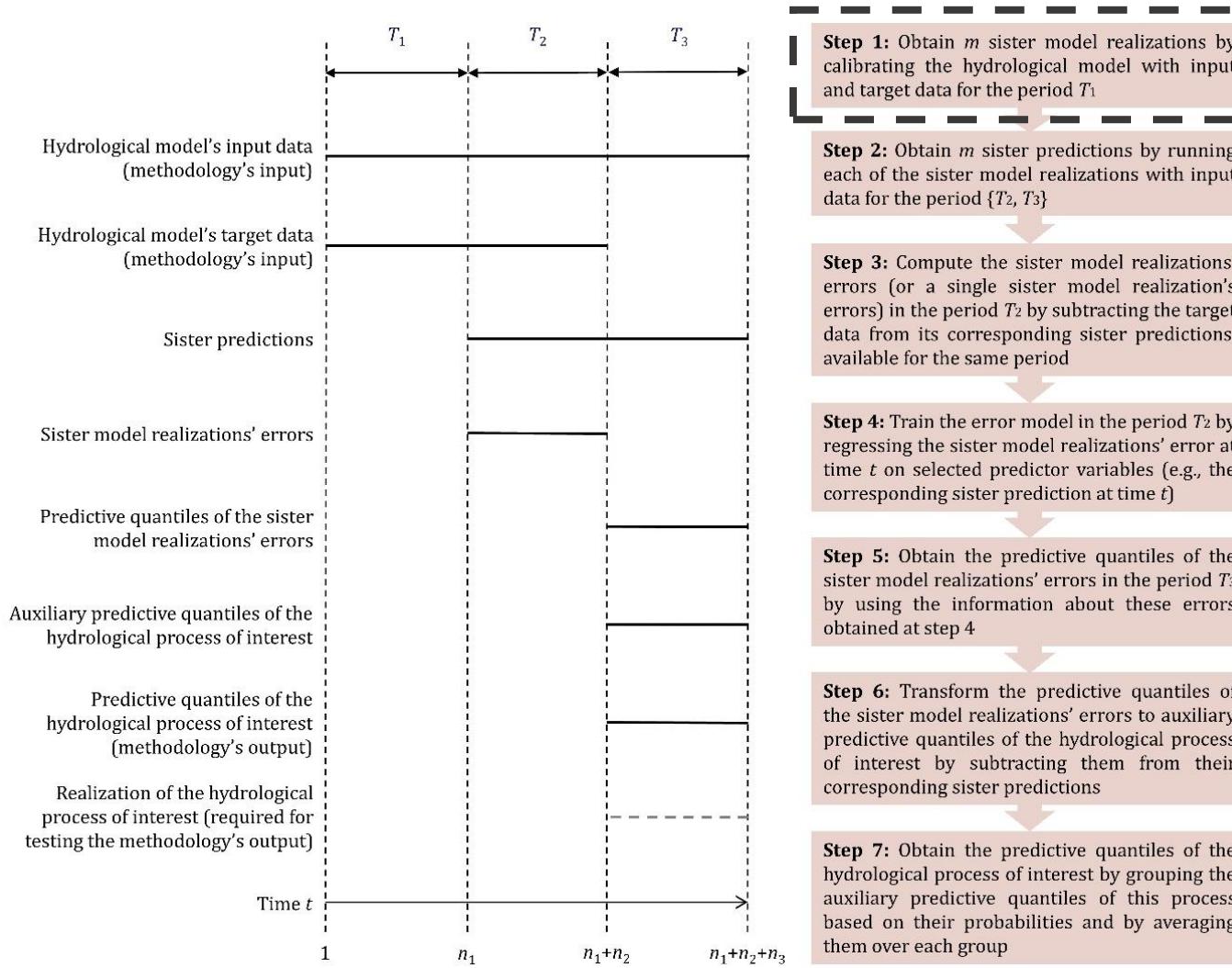
- **Background:** Probabilistic hydrological modelling methodologies often rely on statistical post-processing schemes for benefitting from the “hydrological experience” encompassed in conceptual and physically-based rainfall-runoff models (see e.g., [Montanari and Brath 2004](#); [Montanari and Grossi 2008](#); [Tyralis et al. 2019](#)). These schemes might require issuing an ensemble of rainfall-runoff model simulations by using different input data and/or different parameters (see the blueprint by [Montanari and Koutsoyiannis 2012](#) and its summary in [Slide 2](#)). For obtaining a large number of rainfall-runoff model parameters in this regard, Bayesian large-scale calibration schemes have been adopted in the literature (e.g., in [Montanari and Koutsoyiannis 2012](#); [Sikorska et al. 2015](#)).
- **Objective:** Here, we investigate a possible replacement of Bayesian with non-Bayesian schemes for large-scale rainfall-runoff model calibration within probabilistic hydrological modelling methodologies of the above-defined family.
- **Motivation:** Bayesian rainfall-runoff model calibration schemes are accompanied by computational limitations, which are well-recognized in the literature and may prohibit applications “at scale”.
- **Methodology:** Starting from a Bayesian rainfall-runoff model calibration scheme, we define a computationally convenient calibration scheme (see [Slide 4](#)). We then apply both these schemes as parts of six diverse variants (hereafter, referred to as “ensemble schemes”) of the probabilistic hydrological modelling methodology by [Papacharalampous et al. \(2020a\)](#) and [Papacharalampous et al. \(2020b\)](#). This latter methodology (see its summary in [Slide 3](#)) retains some robust features from its mother blueprint-method ([Montanari and Koutsoyiannis 2012](#)) and simultaneously allows for benefitting from machine learning quantile regression algorithms (see e.g., the references in [Papacharalampous et al. 2019](#), Section 2.3). In this specific context, the two calibration schemes are compared using proper scores and large-scale benchmarking (see [Slides 5](#) and [6](#); see also [Slide 11](#)).
- **Main finding:** Overall, our results (see [Slides 7–9](#)) suggest that the two rainfall-runoff model calibration approaches can lead to mostly comparable probabilistic predictions (see also [Slide 10](#)).
- **Further reading:** For further information on the experiments summarized herein, the reader is referred to [Papacharalampous et al. \(2020b, Appendix E\)](#).

2. Probabilistic hydrological modelling blueprint

- Our methods and experiments build on top of the blueprint by [Montanari and Koutsoyiannis \(2012\)](#), a theoretically consistent and flexible scheme for predictive uncertainty quantification in hydrological modelling.
- In its basic implementation, this scheme uses (a) one rainfall-runoff model to issue a large number of point predictions-simulations (within an ensemble simulation framework), and (b) one error model to statistically post-process each of these point predictions.
- Its output is an ensemble of statistically post-processed point predictions-simulations, together constituting the probabilistic prediction.
- Its hydrological and error models are estimated/trained in two subsequent stages.
- This two-stage character naturally allows the accommodation of regression-based predictive modelling solutions to the scheme (see e.g., the variants of this blueprint by [Sikorska et al 2015](#), [Quilty et al. 2019](#), [Papacharalampous et al. 2020a](#), [Papacharalampous et al. 2020b](#), [Quilty and Adamowski 2020](#)).
- Quantile regression algorithms differ from the typical regression algorithms, and can be incorporated into the blueprint by [Montanari and Koutsoyiannis \(2012\)](#), as detailed in [Papacharalampous et al. \(2020a\)](#) and [Papacharalampous et al. \(2020b\)](#); see also **Slide 3**.
- Basic two-stage probabilistic hydrological post-processing (see e.g., [Montanari and Brath 2004](#); [Montanari and Grossi 2008](#); [López López et al. 2014](#); [Dogulu et al. 2015](#); [Papacharalampous et al. 2019](#); [Koutsoyiannis and Montanari 2020](#)) can also be viewed as a subcase of this blueprint.

3. Probabilistic hydrological modelling methodology

For details, see Papacharalampous et al. (2020a) and Papacharalampous et al. (2020b).



In this presentation, we compare two modelling schemes for taking this step. These two schemes are hereafter referred to as “calibration schemes” and are described in **Slide 4**.

4. Rainfall-runoff model and its calibration

Rainfall-runoff model

- We use the GR2M conceptual rainfall-runoff model by [Mouelhi et al. \(2006\)](#).

Calibration scheme 1: A Bayesian calibration scheme

- We simulate the posterior distribution of the parameters of the rainfall-runoff model conditional on the observations of the period T_1 (see [Slide 3](#)) within a Bayesian MCMC framework.
- We use flat priors for both the parameters θ_1 and θ_2 .
- The likelihood error function is defined by the following equation, where y_t is the monthly streamflow discharge observations at time t , $u_t(\theta_1, \theta_2)$ is the prediction at time t and $|T_1|$ is the number of target data points included in the period T_1 :

$$L(\theta_1, \theta_2) \propto (\sum_t (y_t - u_t(\theta_1, \theta_2))^2)^{-|T_1|/2}$$

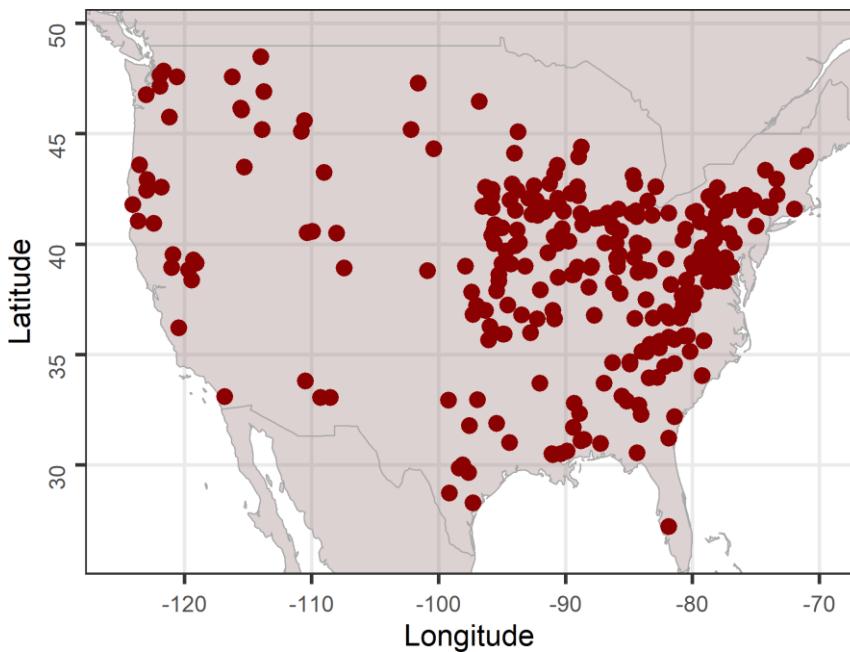
- We run three parallel Markov chains with different initial values, each comprising 2 000 iterations.
- The iterative simulation is performed by using the DRAM algorithm by [Haario et al. \(2006\)](#).
- We assess the approximate convergence of these chains by implementing the algorithm by [Brooks and Gelman \(1998\)](#).
- The simulation process is repeated until approximate convergence is achieved.
- Once the simulation is over, we retain the last 200 values of each chain, i.e., 600 values in total for each catchment (see e.g., the related example in [Slide 6](#)).

Calibration scheme 2: A computationally convenient calibration scheme

- Instead of retaining the last 200 parameter values of each simulated chain (see above), we retain the first 200 parameter values that have not converged to the posterior distribution of the parameters.

5. Experimental data and large-scale benchmarking

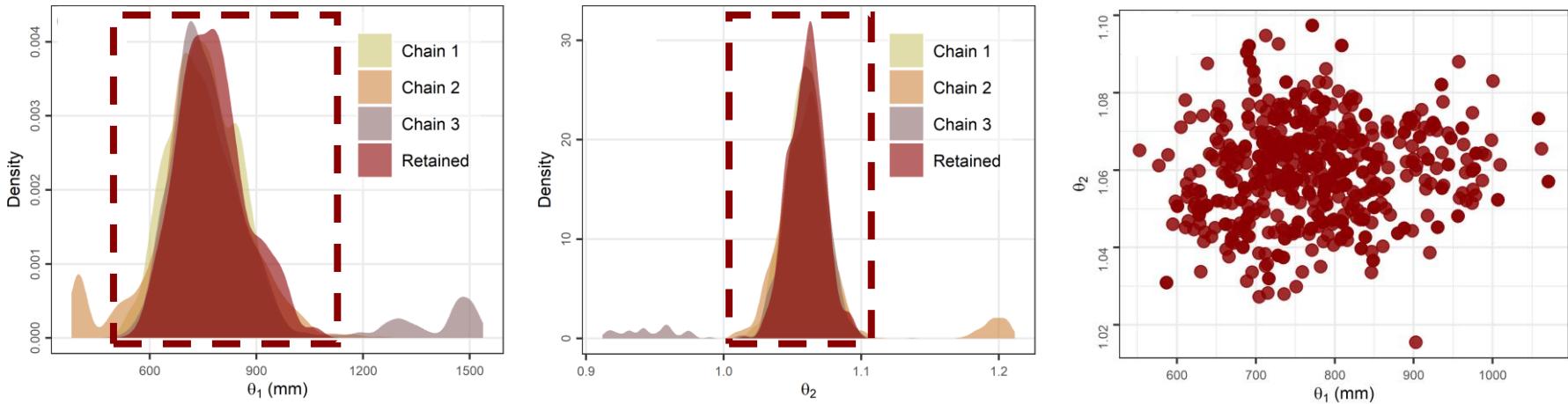
- For our experiments, we use 50-year long monthly precipitation, potential evapotranspiration and streamflow time series originating from 270 MOPEX catchments ([Schaake et al. 2006](#)).
- The geographical locations of the streamflow stations are presented on the bottom of this slide.
- Following the notations provided in [Slide 3](#), we define the periods $T_1 = \{13, \dots, 156\}$, $T_2 = \{157, \dots, 300\}$ and $T_3 = \{301, \dots, 600\}$ (respectively corresponding to years 1951–1962, 1963–1974 and 1975–1999). We also define period $T_0 = \{1, \dots, 12\}$ (corresponding to year 1950 in our dataset). This period is used for warming up the rainfall-runoff model (see [Slide 4](#)).
- Additionally, we define six ensemble schemes starting from the selected probabilistic hydrological modelling methodology (see [Slide 3](#)).
- These ensemble schemes differ with each other in terms of some of their components, as detailed in [Papacharalampous et al. \(2020b\)](#).



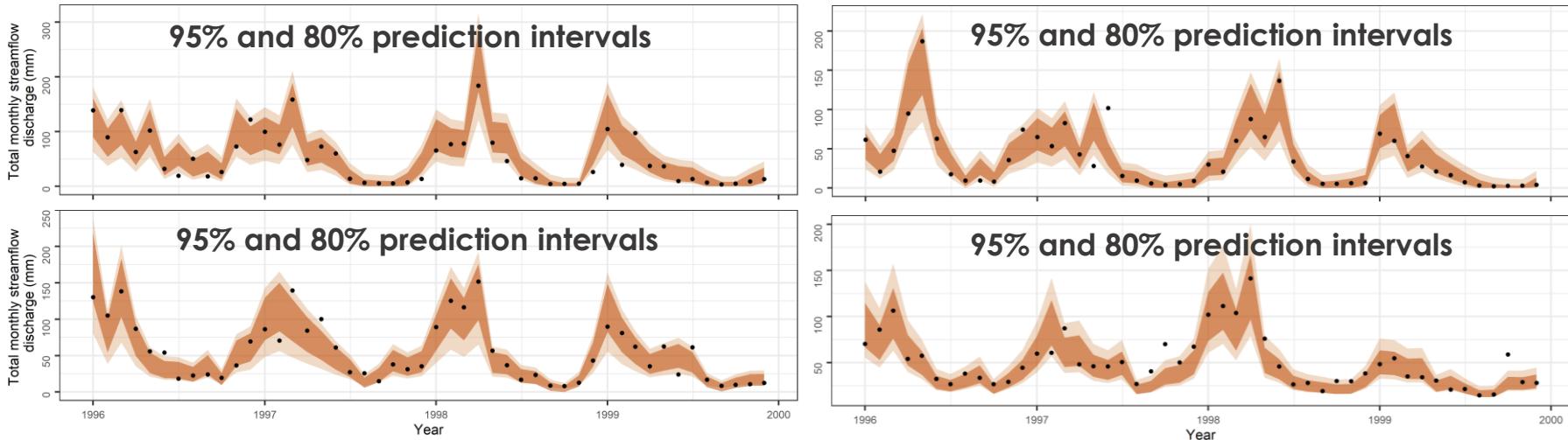
- We apply the ensemble schemes twice, each time using a different calibration scheme (see [Slide 4](#)).
- Specifically, we predict the quantiles of monthly streamflow at levels 0.005, 0.0125, 0.025, 0.05, 0.10, 0.90, 0.95, 0.975, 0.9875 and 0.995 for the period T_3 . These quantiles are then used to form the 80%, 90%, 95%, 97.5% and 99% prediction intervals for the same period.
- Lastly, we assess the quality of our predictions by computing (a) their average interval scores (see e.g., [Gneiting and Raftery 2007](#)), and (b) the relative improvements provided by the Bayesian calibration scheme over the computationally convenient scheme (see [Slides 7 and 8](#)). We further summarize these relative improvements in terms of their means and medians (see [Slide 9](#)).

6. Application examples within the study's framework

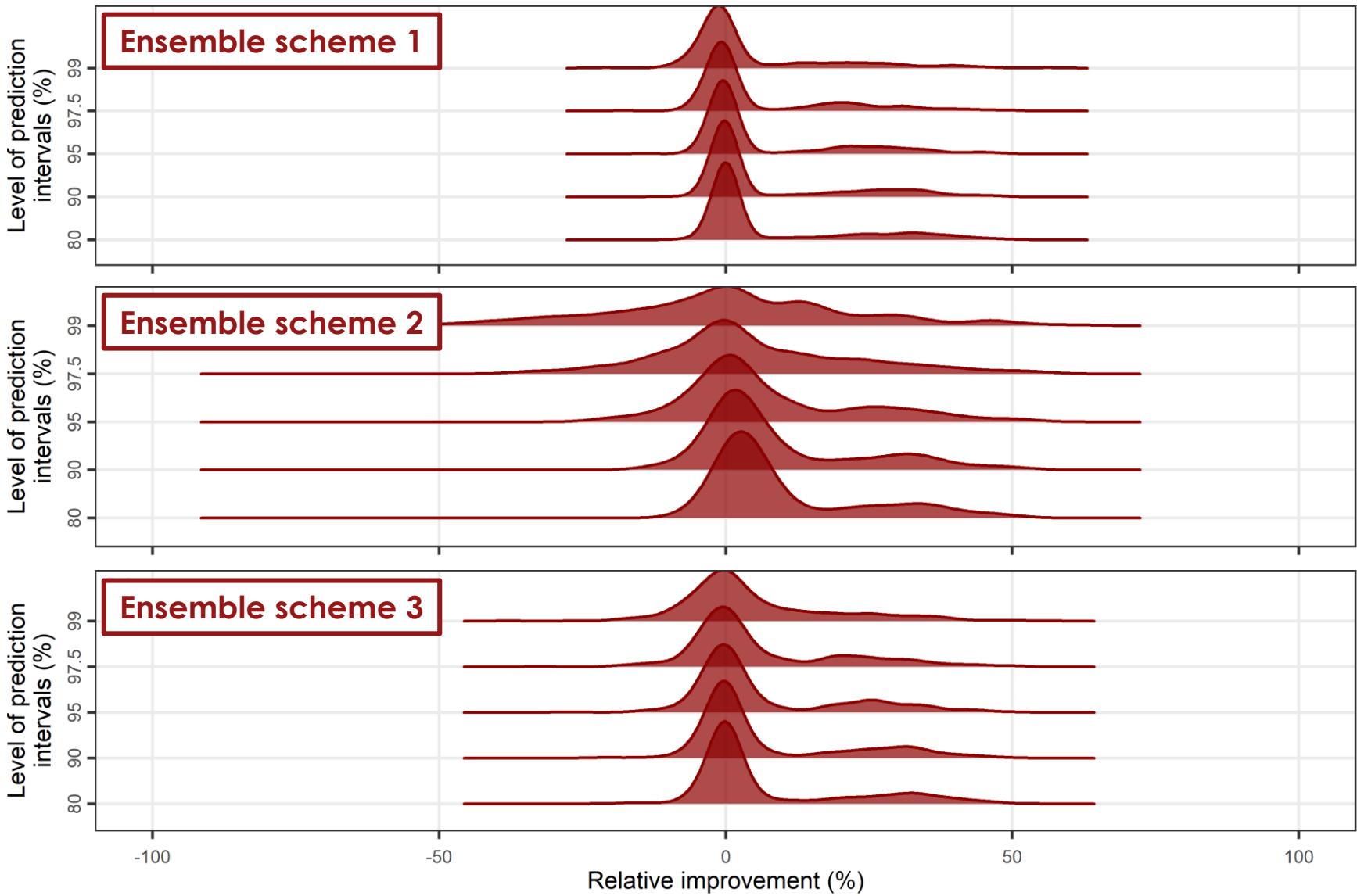
Examples of simulated chains using the Bayesian calibration scheme



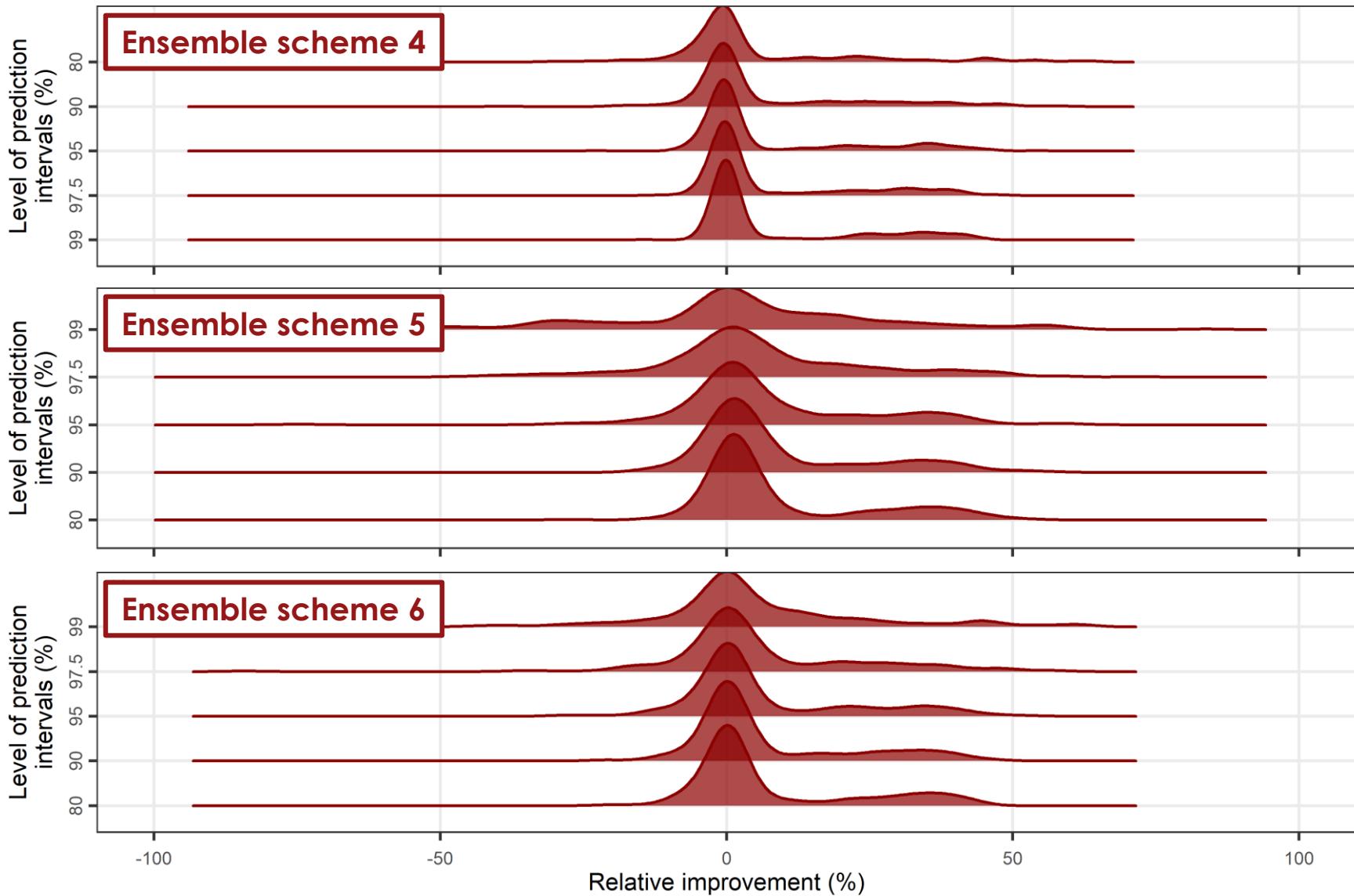
Examples of probabilistic predictions



7. Relative improvements in terms of average interval score

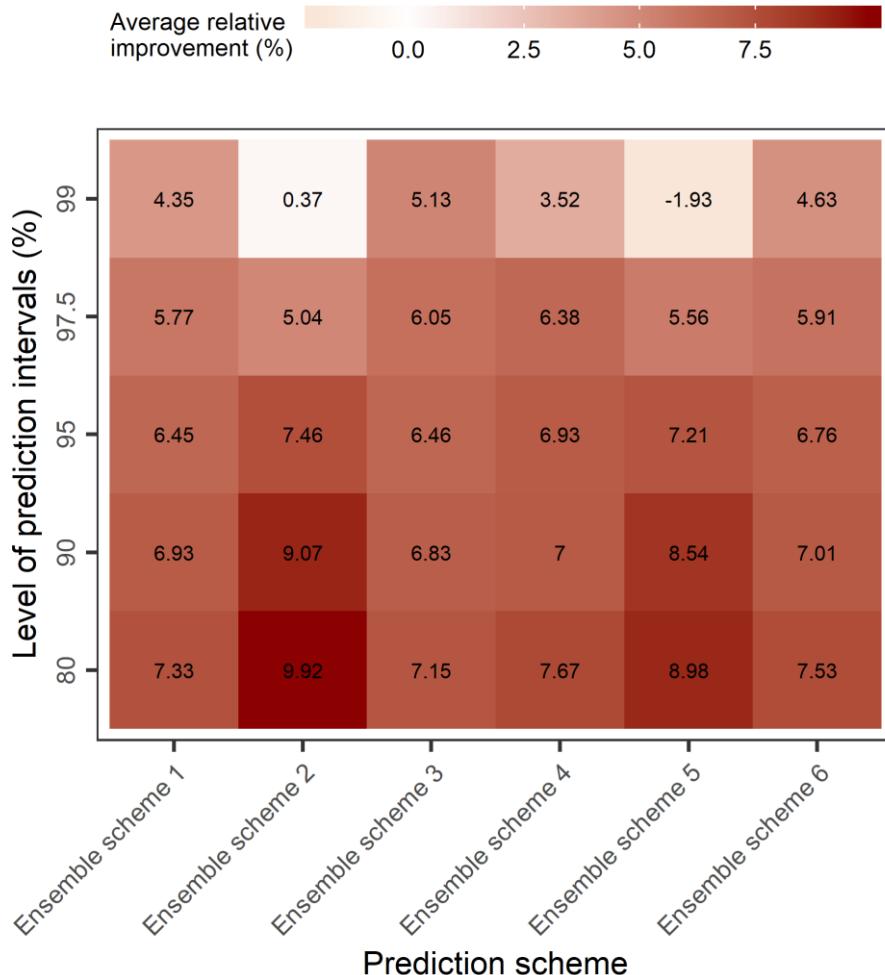


8. Relative improvements in terms of average interval score

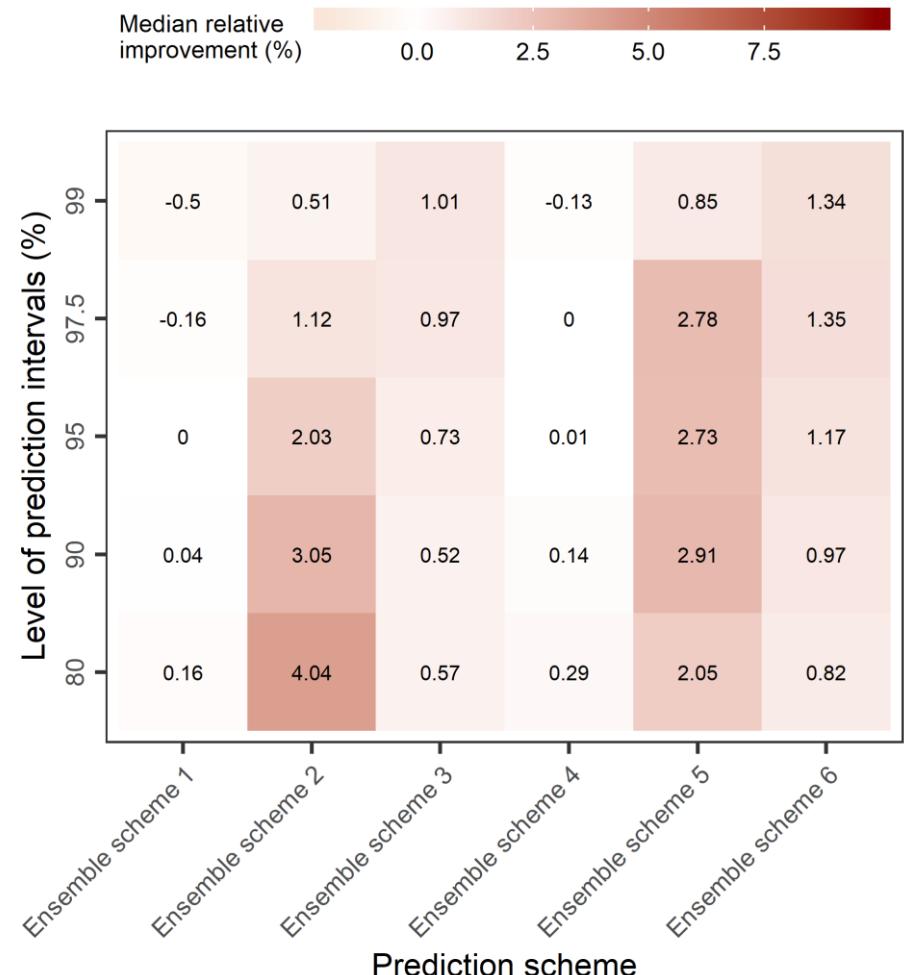


9. Relative improvements in terms of average interval score

Mean relative improvements



Median relative improvements



10. Key findings and conclusions

- Overall, the Bayesian calibration scheme and the computationally convenient calibration scheme can lead to mostly comparable probabilistic predictions in the long run.
- The relative improvements provided by the Bayesian calibration scheme over the computational convenient calibration scheme (see **Slides 7** and **8**) have been found to be either positive or negative for all the ensemble schemes.
- They have also been found to considerably depend both on the examined catchment and the examined prediction interval.
- On average, they favour the Bayesian calibration scheme to a small extent, mostly due to outliers, while their median values are closer to zero (see **Slide 9**).
- We feel that outliers could be fewer if longer time series had been examined.
- We hope that our preliminary experiments will trigger further investigations on the subject.

11. Statistical software information

The analyses and visualizations have been performed in R Programming Language ([R Core Team 2019](#)). We have used the following contributed R packages: airGR ([Coron et al. 2017, 2019](#)), bestNormalize ([Peterson 2017, 2019](#)), coda ([Plummer et al. 2006, 2019](#)), data.table ([Dowle and Srinivasan 2019](#)), devtools ([Wickham et al. 2019c](#)), dplyr ([Wickham et al. 2019b](#)), FME ([Soetaert and Petzoldt 2010, 2016](#)), gdata ([Warnes et al. 2017](#)), ggplot2 ([Wickham 2016a; Wickham et al. 2019a](#)), ggridges ([Wilke 2018](#)), hddtools ([Vitolo 2017, 2018](#)), knitr ([Xie 2014, 2015, 2019](#)), maps ([Brownrigg et al. 2018](#)), matrixStats ([Bengtsson 2018](#)), plyr ([Wickham 2011, 2016b](#)), quantreg ([Koenker 2019](#)), readr ([Wickham et al. 2018](#)), reshape ([Wickham 2007, 2018](#)), rmarkdown ([Allaire et al. 2019](#)), tidyverse ([Wickham and Henry 2019](#)) and zoo ([Zeileis and Grothendieck 2005; Zeileis et al. 2019](#)). We have also followed procedures described in the contributed vignettes of the airGR R package.

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