Improved non-linear transfer function and neural network methods of flow routing for real-time forecasting

D. F. Lekkas, C. E. Imrie and M. J. Lees

ABSTRACT

Data-based methods of flow forecasting are becoming increasingly popular due to their rapid development times, minimum information requirements, and ease of real-time implementation, with transfer function and artificial neural network methods the most commonly applied methods in practice. There is much antagonism between advocates of these two approaches that is fuelled by comparison studies where a state-of-the-art example of one method is unfairly compared with an out-of-date variant of the other technique. This paper presents state-of-the-art variants of these competing methods, non-linear transfer functions and modified recurrent cascade-correlation artificial neural networks, and objectively compares their forecasting performance using a case study based on the UK River Trent. Two methods of real-time error-based updating applicable to both the transfer function and artificial neural network methods are also presented. Comparison results reveal that both methods perform equally well in this case, and that the use of an updating technique can improve forecasting performance considerably, particularly if the forecast model is poor.

Key words | artificial neural networks, error updating, flow forecasting, non-linear transfer functions, real time, River Trent

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1 INTRODUCTION

Popular real-time river flow forecasting methods range from hydraulic models based on the St Venant flow equations, through lumped linear hydrological routing models such as the Muskingum–Cunge model (Cunge 1969) to data-based techniques such as linear transfer function models (Cluckie 1993). The appropriate choice of method should be determined by the nature of the application, data availability and developmental cost. Although there are situations that require the use of hydraulic models, for example where backwater conditions are present, data-based methods can often provide cheap and, especially if real-time updating is employed, sufficiently accurate forecasts.

Recently, another data-based method, the Artificial Neural Network (ANN), has been proposed as a possible alternative method to the more established transfer function (TF) method. Much previous research has been published on transfer function (Reed 1984; Cluckie 1993; Lees *et al*. 1994; Lees 1997, 2000*a*, *b*; Imrie *et al*. 2000*b*) and neural network (Minns & Hall 1996, 1997; Dawson & Wilby 1998, 1999; Campolo *et al*. 1999; Liong *et al*. 2000) methods of flow forecasting. Proponents of each method often claim that one technique is superior to the other, resulting in confusion amongst end-users. Although a number of authors have published comparisons between ANNs and transfer functions, the comparison rarely involves state-of-the-art implementations of the competing methods. For example, Hsu *et al*. (1995) compared an ANN method with a linear TF method for rainfall-runoff forecasting and showed, not unsurprisingly given that the rainfall-runoff process is strongly non-linear, that the ANN method significantly outperformed the linear TF method. Similarly, Dawson & Wilby (1999) compared two types of ANN with a stepwise multiple linear regression model, and found that the commonly used feedforward ANN method produced the best performance.

This paper addresses the need for an objective comparison of state-of-the-art versions of these two classes of data-based methods in the context of flood routing. It is an accepted fact that in certain conditions the propagation of flood waves in channels is a non-linear process, and therefore application of linear transfer function models may result in crude approximations of actual waves, particularly under conditions dominated by high resistance effects. However, research over the last decade has produced a number of advances in transfer function based flood forecasting over the original linear methods that are still in widespread operational use today. The main advance has been in the extension of linear transfer function models to a non-linear form that is better able to characterise the inherently non-linear flow propagation process. Time varying parameter modelling techniques are used to identify state dependent parameter relationships, producing a non-linear transfer function (Young 1998; Lees 2000*a*).

Artificial neural networks provide a quick and flexible means of developing non-linear flow routing models. However, it has been found in previous studies (Minns & Hall 1996; See *et al*. 1997; Dawson & Wilby 1998; Campolo *et al*. 1999) that, since they perform poorly outside the calibration range, they cannot be reliably used in situations where significant events outside the calibration range are important. Obviously, flow forecasting is one such application since we are often interested in the extremes and are often faced with a limited amount of calibration data. The main reason for the poor performance of the popular (backpropagation) ANNs is that all the data are routed through one or more layers of sigmoidal functions, which ultimately means that the maximum output value attainable is proportional to the number of hidden units in the final layer. Although the cascade-correlation algorithm (Fahlman & Lebiere 1990) is largely overlooked by ANN modellers, it surmounts this problem to a large degree as the input units have direct connections to the output units, and so the restriction does not apply. Encouraging results have recently been obtained using a variant of this algorithm whereby a guidance system is added to the learning architecture to prevent over-fitting and to improve the predictive ability of the model outside the calibration range (Imrie *et al*. 2000*a*).

The paper briefly describes these state-of-the-art non-linear TF and ANN flow routing methodologies, and presents a preliminary comparative assessment based on a typical UK case study. Furthermore, a real-time updating technique, which should be considered as an important component of a flood forecasting system, is described and applied to both methods in order to demonstrate the operational performance benefits of real-time updating.

2 NON-LINEAR TRANSFER FUNCTION MODELLING AND FORECASTING

A linear single-input single-output (SISO) transfer function can be represented as:

$$\hat{y}_t = \frac{B(z^{-1})}{A(z^{-1})} u_{t-\delta} + e_t \tag{1}$$

where u_t and $\hat{y}_t$ and are the upstream and downstream flow at time t; δ is a pure time delay, z^{-1} is the backward shift operator, i.e. $z^{-1}x_t = x_{t-1}$; e_t is a zero mean serially uncorrelated sequence of random variables with variance σ^2 which is independent of the upstream flow; and $A(z^{-1})$ and $B(z^{-1})$ and are defined by the following polynomials:

$$B(z^{-1}) = b_0 + b_1 z^{-1} + \ldots + b_m z^{-m} \tag{2}$$

$$A(z^{-1}) = 1 + a_1 z^{-1} + \ldots + a_n z^{-n} \tag{3}$$

This linear TF can be simply extended to a non-linear TF by allowing the parameters $b_0 \ldots b_m$ and $a_1 \ldots a_n$ to vary according to the current upstream or downstream flow, a method which is generally termed state parameter dependency (Young 1998). In this case the polynomials take the following form where the index s is introduced to indicated that the terms are state dependent:

$$B_s(z^{-1}) = b_{0,s} + b_{1,s} z^{-1} + \ldots + b_{m,s} z^{-m} \tag{4}$$

$$A_s(z^{-1}) = 1 + a_{1,s} z^{-1} + \ldots + a_{n,s} z^{-n}. \tag{5}$$

A Kalman filter is used to estimate the state dependent (flow in this case) parameters of the non-linear transfer function, which is formulated in state space form with parameter variations described by a Gauss–Markov process (see Lees (2000*a*) for details). In the case where only the b_0 parameter is estimated as a state dependent parameter with the remaining parameters fixed, the non-linear TF model can be transformed to the following non-linear input form:

$$\hat{y}_t = \frac{B(z^{-1})}{A(z^{-1})}\,(u_{t-\delta}\;w_s) + e_t \qquad (6)$$

where w_s is a state dependent weighting factor.

The non-linear TF models can therefore be divided into two categories:

(i) TF models that incorporate non-linearity by transformation of the input variables; as presented by Equation (6). These will subsequently be referred to as Transfer Function models with Input Non-Linearity (INL-TF)

(ii) TF models that incorporate non-linearity by varying (scheduling) the parameters, as presented in Equations (1), (4) and (5).

In the case study presented in this paper the INL-TF model type is applied as it is able to capture the underlined non-linearity while remaining robust and reliable (Lees 2000*a*).

3 ARTIFICIAL NEURAL NETWORKS

Artificial neural networks are a type of parallel computer, within which a number of processing units are linked together so that the computer's memory is distributed and information is passed in a parallel manner. A large number of ANN architectures and algorithms have been developed, including multi-layer feedforward networks (Rumelhart *et al*. 1986), self-organising feature maps (Kohonen 1982), Hopfield networks (Hopfield 1987), counterpropagation networks (Hecht-Nielsen 1987*a*) and radial basis function networks (Powell 1987). Of these networks, the most commonly used are feedforward networks and radial basis function networks (Karunanithi *et al*. 1994; Bishop 1995). Multi-layer feedforward networks have been found to perform best when used in hydrological applications (Hsu *et al*. 1995; Dawson & Wilby 1999) and as such they are by far the most commonly used (Maier & Dandy 2000).

In feedforward ANNs, the processing units are arranged in layers. Between the input layer and output layer there may be one or more hidden layers. The units in each layer are connected to the units in a subsequent layer by a weight w, which may be adjusted during training. A data pattern comprising the values x_i presented at the input layer i is propagated forward through the network towards the first hidden layer j. Each hidden unit receives the weighted outputs $w_{ji}x_i$ from the units in the previous layer. These are summed to produce a *net* value, which is then transformed to an output value upon the application of an activation function.

To train an ANN, the following procedure is generally applied. Training data patterns are fed sequentially into the input layer, and this information is propagated through the network. The resulting output predictions $y_j(t)$ are compared with a corresponding desired or actual output, $d_j(t)$. The mean squared error at any time t, $E(t)$, may be calculated over the entire data set using Equation (7). The intermediate weights are adjusted using an appropriate learning rule until $E(t)$ has decayed sufficiently:

$$E(t) = \frac{1}{2}\sum(y_j(t) - d_j(t))^2\,. \qquad (7)$$

A wide range of training algorithms has been developed to achieve optimum model performance. For feedforward ANNs, the error backpropagation algorithm with the gradient descent update rule (Rumelhart *et al*. 1986) is most commonly employed. However, there are a number of inconvenient drawbacks associated with the use of this algorithm. For example, prior to ANN training it is necessary to specify the network architecture, that is, the number and configuration of its hidden units. The learning ability and performance of an ANN model depends on the suitability of its architecture. If the network is too small, it may have insufficient degrees of freedom to fully capture all the underlying relationships in the data. Conversely, if the network is too large, it may fail to generalise, memorising events in the training data that are not necessarily representative of the system under consideration. The optimum architecture is usually found by a process of trial and error, which is somewhat frustrating and time-consuming (Karunanithi *et al.* 1994). Various means of circumventing this problem are: optimal brain damage, whereby the 'least significant' weights are removed periodically during ANN training (Le Cun *et al.* 1990); beginning with a large number of hidden units and pruning these until an optimal architecture is found (Karnin 1990); weight pruning using a genetic algorithm (Bebis *et al.* 1997); beginning with a small network and adding units until the optimum structure is obtained (e.g. Hsu *et al.* 1995); and to use a genetic algorithm to search the space of network structures (Miller *et al.* 1989; Yao 1993; Blanco *et al.* 2000), although according to Russell & Norvig (1995) this process would be time and CPU intensive. Alternatively, a number of empirical guidelines based on the number of training patterns or input units have been proposed (Hecht-Nielsen 1987*b*; Weigend *et al.* 1990).

A number of 'constructive' algorithms have been developed to avoid the need to specify the architecture prior to training (Fahlman & Lebiere 1990; Hirose *et al.* 1991; Setiono & Hui 1995). The most established of these algorithms is the cascade-correlation learning architecture (Fahlman & Lebiere 1990), which builds the network during training by adding one hidden unit at a time. This algorithm has been used successfully in a number of hydrological applications (Karunanithi *et al.* 1994; Muttiah *et al.* 1997; Augusteijn & Warrender 1998; Durucan & Imrie 1998; Imrie & Durucan 1999). The algorithm was further developed by Imrie *et al.* (2000*a*) to include an automated procedure for ensuring ANN generalisation.

In this paper, the modified cascade-correlation algorithm presented in Imrie *et al.* (2000*a*) has been further developed to emulate a recurrent ANN algorithm. This makes it different from a feedforward ANN algorithm as the outputs obtained from the ANN upon the presentation of a pattern are fed back into the network as additional inputs for the subsequent pattern. An outline of these developments of the cascade-correlation learning architecture is provided in the following sections.

3.1 Cascade-correlation

The training of an ANN using the cascade-correlation learning architecture (Fahlman & Lebiere 1990) proceeds as follows. A network with one layer of initially randomised weights is trained until a suitable error level is reached. Since only one layer of weights is being trained, the *quickprop* rule (Fahlman 1988) can be employed instead of the slower gradient descent method. The weights between the input and output layers are then frozen, and a pool of *candidate* units is fully connected to the input layer. The data patterns are propagated forwards through both systems of weights towards the output layer and to the layer of candidate units. The activation of each candidate is compared with the residual error summed over the output layer upon the presentation of each pattern. The covariance between the error signal and each candidate's output is calculated. The aim is to maximise this covariance, so that when the candidate unit is entered into the ANN as a fully connected hidden unit, it acts as a feature detector.

The quickprop update rule can be used to maximise the covariance until no further improvement is observed in any of the candidate units. The candidate unit that has the highest covariance has its input weights frozen and is installed into the network as a hidden unit. It is connected by additional, randomly initialised weights to the output layer and a second bout of error minimisation is commenced. When the output error stops decreasing, all the weights from the input layer and the newly installed hidden unit to the output layer are frozen. A second pool of candidate units is then connected to the input layer and hidden unit, and the procedure continues as before.

The incorporation of each new hidden unit and the subsequent error minimisation phase should result in a lower residual error. Hidden units are incorporated in this way until the output error has stopped decreasing or has reached a satisfactory level. The final ANN will therefore have a multi-layer structure, with each

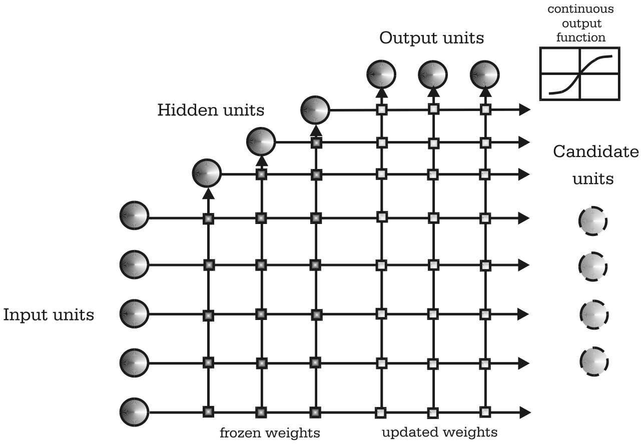

Figure 1 | Cascade-correlation architecture.

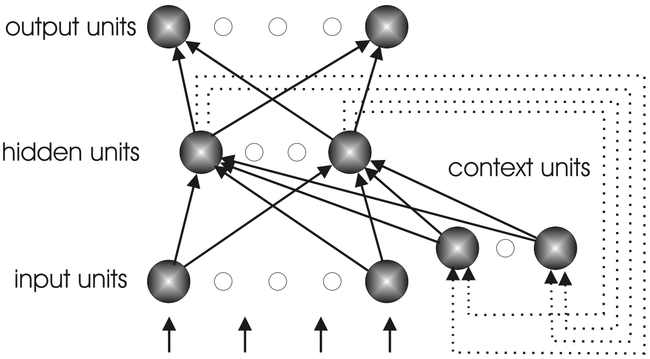

Figure 2 | The recurrent architecture of Elman networks.

hidden layer containing a single unit. The topology of a cascade-correlation network is depicted in Figure 1.

As can be seen in Figure 1, the input units of a cascade-correlation ANN have direct connections with the output units, and as such the data are not forced through a layer of limiting sigmoidal functions. An indirect advantage of this is that there is no limit to the activation value obtained at the output layer. Using an appropriate output activation function can further ensure generalisation beyond the calibration range.

As described in Imrie *et al.* (2000*a*), the cascade-correlation algorithm employed in this paper has been subject to a number of alterations. One such adjustment was made to ensure that the network will generalise and the final model will perform adequately when confronted with fresh data. This 'guidance system' was developed according to the standard cross-verification procedure, whereby the available data are split into three parts: a training set used to adjust the weights, a testing set used to avoid over-training, and a separate verification set with which to judge the overall performance of the trained network.

3.2 Recurrent modified cascade-correlation algorithm

The majority of ANN forecasting applications in hydrology involve the construction of input patterns that contain a length of lagged values representing time series windows of the determinand of interest and other pertinent variables (e.g. Hsu *et al.* 1995; Minns & Hall 1997; Campolo *et al.* 1999; Zealand *et al.* 1999). However, when the forecast lead-time is greater than one time-step, it may be useful to use the ANN's forecast of the modelled variable as an additional input to the next time step. This principle is used in recurrent neural networks, which were first conceived by Jordan (1986). These are now commonly employed on temporal processing tasks (Wang *et al.* 1996), although their application in hydrological modelling is not widely reported.

The simplest form of recurrent ANN is the Elman network (Elman 1988), whose architecture is presented in Figure 2. These networks assume that that the ANN operates in discrete time steps. The activations of the hidden units at time t are fed backwards and used as inputs to 'context units' at time $t+1$, representing a kind of short-term memory. The importance and influence of these lag 1 inputs are determined during the training of the network.

A recurrent version of the original cascade-correlation algorithm has also been developed (Fahlman 1991). In this case the hidden unit activations are no longer fed back to all of the other hidden units. Instead, every hidden unit has only one self-recurrent link, which is trained along with the candidate unit's other input weights to maximise the correlation. When the candidate unit is added to the active network as a hidden unit, the recurrent link is frozen along with all other links.

The majority of recurrent ANN algorithms were originally designed for tasks associated with temporal sequences, such as natural language processing and recognising characters from Morse code (Fahlman 1991; Wang *et al*. 1996). As such, the hidden unit activations are recycled as internal state variables, and the resulting ANNs are used to map sequences of inputs into desired corresponding sequences of outputs. The problem posed in river flow forecasting differs in that the aim is to provide a continuous sequence of forecasts with lead times of greater than one time step. For this reason, the recurrent modified cascade-correlation algorithm developed in this paper recycles the *output* of the network instead of the activations of the hidden units. There are a number of advantages to this simple implementation: the number of input units does not grow as the hidden units are added; and it would be possible to directly determine the relative importance of the recycled values in a sensitivity analysis.

It should be noted that there are also a number of possible drawbacks to the use of recurrent ANNs. Firstly, the procedure of training the weights in recurrent neural networks is much less orderly than in simple feedforward networks (Russell and Norvig 1995). The networks can become unstable and chaotic. In particular, for an ANN that uses its outputs as additional inputs on the next pattern, each input pattern will change after each weight update. This constitutes a moving target problem, as the error surface is continually changing as training proceeds. Furthermore, the benefits of recycling the output predictions will ultimately depend on the quality of the predictions themselves. However, results obtained in previous research showed that the recurrent version performed better in various river flow prediction applications than the modified cascade-correlation algorithm alone (Imrie 2000a), and so this algorithm will be used for the modelling undertaken in this paper.

4 REAL-TIME ERROR UPDATING (EU)

Utilisation of the latest available observed data to improve the performance of a real-time forecasting system is called updating. If an operational flow forecasting model produces forecasts that consistently do not agree with the observed flow (prediction error), then corrective action should be taken in order to modify future forecasts in an attempt to improve performance. However, effort spent implementing an updating method should not be at the expense of effort spent improving the model or quality of input data, since the quality of the forecast model has the greatest impact on forecast accuracy (Bell & Moore 1998). It should also be noted that improvements resulting from updating reduce with the forecast lead-time since all techniques rely upon the presence of persistence in the prediction errors (Lees 2000*a*).

4.1 Error prediction

One way of developing an error prediction updating method is to represent the error fluctuation by an Auto-Regressive Moving Average (ARMA) noise model (e.g. Ahsan & O'Connor 1994). This technique takes advantage of the dependence of model errors by characterising this dependence through a weighted combination of past prediction errors. The sequence of errors e_t can be simulated as

$$e_t = \phi_1 e_{t-1} + \phi_2 e_{t-2} + \ldots + \phi_p e_{t-p} + a_t + \theta_1 a_{t-1} + \ldots + \theta_q a_{t-q} \qquad (8)$$

where $\phi_1, \phi_2, \ldots, \phi_p$ are the auto-regressive and $\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_q$ are the moving average parameters, and a_t is a random process with zero mean and variance σ_a^2. The order of the ARMA model can be determined by examining auto-correlation (ACF) and the partial auto-correlation (PACF) functions of a prediction error time series generated from historical data. Once the structure has been determined then least squares (LS) is used to estimate the parameters.

The error forecast $e_{t+f/t}$ at the $(t+f)$th sampling instant is then given by

$$e_{t+f/t} = \phi_1 e_{t-1+f/t} + \ldots + \phi^{p} e_{t-p+f/t} + a_t + \theta_1 a_{t-1+f/t} + \ldots + \theta_q a_{t-q+f/t} \qquad (9)$$

and the updated flow forecast $yu_{t+f/t}$ at time $t+f$ by:

$$yu_{t+f/t} = y_{t+f/t} + e_{t+f/t} \qquad (10)$$

where $y_{t+f/t}$ is the f step ahead model flow forecast.

In contrast to state adjustment schemes, which internally adjust values within the model, the error prediction scheme is fully external to the deterministic operation. The result is a prediction of the future errors, which is added to the model simulation forecasts to form updated forecasts for different lead times. This means that the method can be used regardless of the type of forecast model, and can therefore also be applied to ANN forecasts.

Error prediction is useful when the source of the error of the current event is unknown or untraceable and it performs slightly better in catchments with a slow response (Refsgaard 1997). However, one restriction associated with using error prediction is that, as the corrections are made by the difference between the simulated and the observed values of the flow, the flow data have to be reliable (Lundberg 1982).

4.2 ANN error updating

The recurrent modified cascade-correlation algorithm described above allows the most recent ANN forecasts to be utilised as inputs in the subsequent forecast. The use of this method necessitates that the patterns presented to the network are temporally consecutive. One potential improvement to this algorithm is to also include the most recent error calculated between the observed and predicted values. This procedure was implemented into the recurrent modified cascade-correlation algorithm, and its benefits are assessed in the subsequent case study. It is important to note that the error input must have an associated lag time that matches the length of the forecast. This constitutes an intrinsic form of the real-time updating techniques that were discussed in the previous section.

5 RIVER FLOW PREDICTION

River flow data covering the years 1996, 1997 and 1998 were obtained from the Environment Agency of England and Wales for a number of gauging stations located within the catchment of the River Trent, as shown in Figure 3.

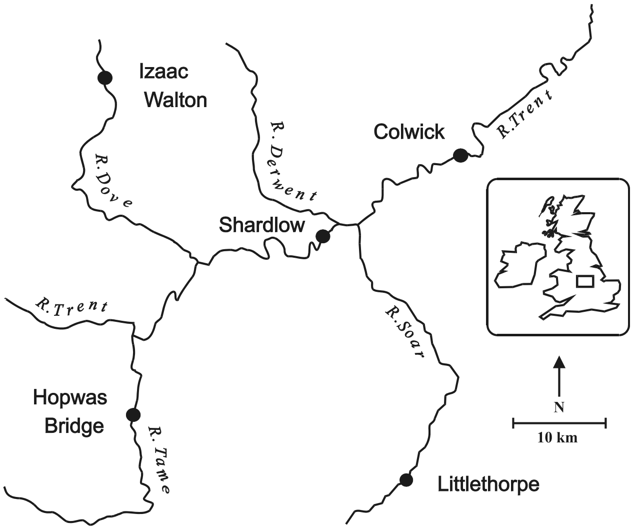

Figure 3 | Map of River Trent catchment showing position of gauging stations.

The aim was to create models that could forecast the flow at Colwick with a lead time of 12 hours. The size of the catchment upstream of Colwick is 7486 km^2. Drought prevailed over this area during the years of 1995 and 1996 (Smith & Crymble 1998), and so flows during this period were generally low. Although 1997 saw a greater number of high flow events, the highest and most numerous flood peaks were observed in 1998. Therefore, in order to test the performance of the methods for significantly higher flows than those present in the calibration period, it was most informative to use the years 1996 and 1997 as calibration data, and to validate the models using data from 1998. The Colwick flow time series for all three years, showing the division of the data into calibration and verification datasets, is shown in Figure 4.

A correlation analysis was performed on the data to identify suitable lags to be applied to each upstream gauging station time series in order to form the ANN's input patterns and to define an appropriate range of TF model structures to be investigated. The intention was to provide the models with a snapshot of the current ($t = 0$ hours) and antecedent ($t = -1, -2, \ldots -n$ hours) conditions at each of the selected gauging stations, which could then be used to predict the flow at Colwick at $t = 12$ hours. For Hopwas Bridge and Izaac Walton, lags up to $t = -14$ hours were

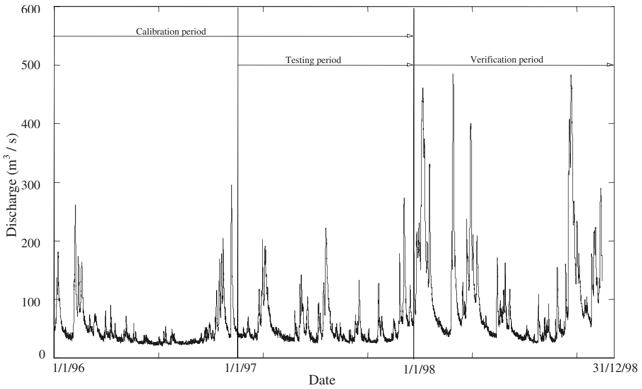

Figure 4 | Discharge data record for Colwick gauging station.

Table 1 | Flow forecast results at Colwick with a lead time of 12 h

	R^2 (Verification)	
Model	**Original**	**With EU**
ARMA	0.787	0.944
INL-TF	0.922	0.952
BP-ANN	0.907	0.966
RMCC-ANN	0.961	0.975

INL-TF: Transfer Function models with Input Non-Linearity; EU: Error Updating; BP-ANN: Backpropagation ANN; RMCC-ANN: Recurrent Modified Cascade-Correlation ANN.

considered appropriate, whereas at Littlethorpe, which is closer to Colwick, lags up to $t = -12$ hours were used.

Two ANN models were developed, based upon the input data described above. All the ANNs incorporated linear activation functions at the output layer. The first type was a traditional feed-forward backpropagation ANN trained with the gradient descent method, as described by Imrie *et al.* (2000*a*). The model was developed using the SNNS software package (Zell *et al.* 1995), the successful use of which has been reported in a number of applications (Abrahart & Kneale 1997; See & Openshaw 1998; Tchaban *et al.* 1998; Campolo *et al.* 1999). The backpropagation ANN (BP-ANN) had one layer of 15 hidden units. The error prediction technique discussed above was then applied to this model to assess the benefits of real-time error updating.

The second type of ANN, the recurrent modified cascade-correlation ANN (RMCC-ANN), was found to perform best when it included one recurrent output, that is, the forecast representing time $t+11$ was appended to the input pattern for forecasting the flow at time $t+12$. The ANN error updating method was then applied in conjunction with this configuration.

Two types of time series models were developed: a simple ARMA model and an INL-TF; all with a single a and a single b parameter and a 12 hour lag. The error prediction technique was also utilised for real-time correction purposes.

6 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The overall performance of each model obtained was judged with respect to the verification data on the basis of the coefficient of efficiency, R^2, defined as follows:

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_p (y_p - d_p)^2}{\sum_p (d_p - \bar{d})^2} \tag{11}$$

where y_p, and d_p are the model predictions and target values for each pattern (sample) p respectively, and $\bar{d}$ is the mean target output. The R^2 coefficient is a useful statistic in that it provides a measure of the proportion of variance that is explained by the model. The closer its value is to unity, the better the fit of the model.

The results obtained using each of the forecasting methods over the verification period are presented in Table 1. It can be seen that the simple ARMA method, which assumes linearity, provides the poorest predictions of all the models. In comparison with the linear ARMA model the non-linear TF method (INL-TF) provides considerably better flow forecasts, suggesting that a non-linear method is required to provide a reasonable flow prediction model. The predictions made by each model can be compared in Figure 5. An inspection of the graph shows that the non-linear model is superior to the ARMA model in terms of both the timing and magnitude of the peaks.

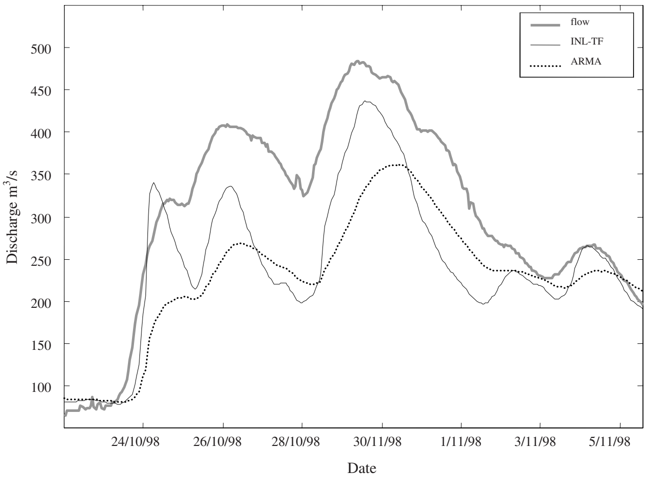

Figure 5 | Comparison between ARMA and INL-TF model.

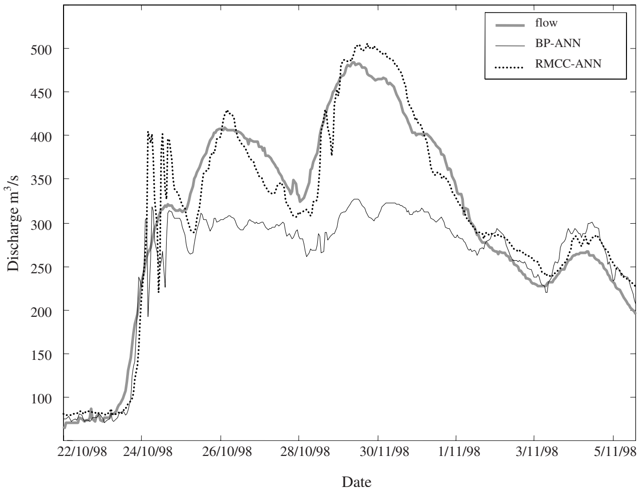

Figure 6 | Comparison between Recurrent Modified Cascade-Correlation ANN and Backpropagation ANN.

The BP-ANN, also non-linear, provides only slightly better predictions than the INL-TF model. However, a more significant increase in R^2 was obtained using the recurrent modified cascade correlation model. Figure 6 compares the predictions made by the BP-ANN with those of the RMCC-ANN over a section of the verification period. It can be clearly seen that the RMCC-ANN model is far better able to capture the peak flow values than the traditional BP-ANN.

The second column in Table 1 lists the R^2 coefficients obtained when an error updating method is applied in conjunction with each of the modelling techniques. The application of EU resulted in an improvement in the performance of each model. The most significant improvement is observed when the method is applied to the ARMA model, increasing the R^2 from 0.787 to 0.944. Figure 7 compares the original ARMA forecasts with those obtained when the error updating technique is applied. It can be seen from this graph that the updating procedure has allowed higher flows to be predicted, since it has been able to compensate for the consistent underestimation of the original ARMA model. However, it can also be seen that the error updating technique has not improved the timing of the flow fluctuations.

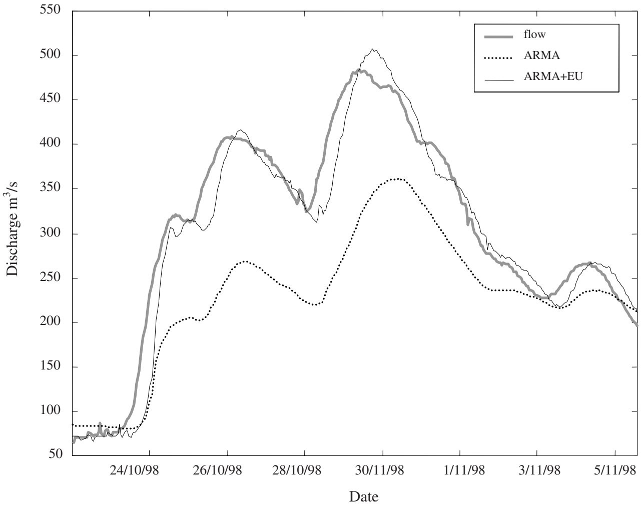

Figure 7 | Comparison between original ARMA model and ARMA model with error updating.

The changes observed when error updating is used with the INL-TF and BP-ANN models are less significant, but still constitute a sizeable improvement. The recurrent modified cascade-correlation algorithm is again improved when the error updating method is introduced: however, this increase from 0.961 to 0.975 is barely noteworthy. The results obtained using the ILN-TF and the RMCC-ANN in conjunction with their real-time error updating techniques are plotted in Figure 8. The graph confirms that, although the RMCC-ANN matches the observed flow slightly better than the INL-TF model, there is little difference in performance between the two models. While both models perform very well, the minor fluctuations in the

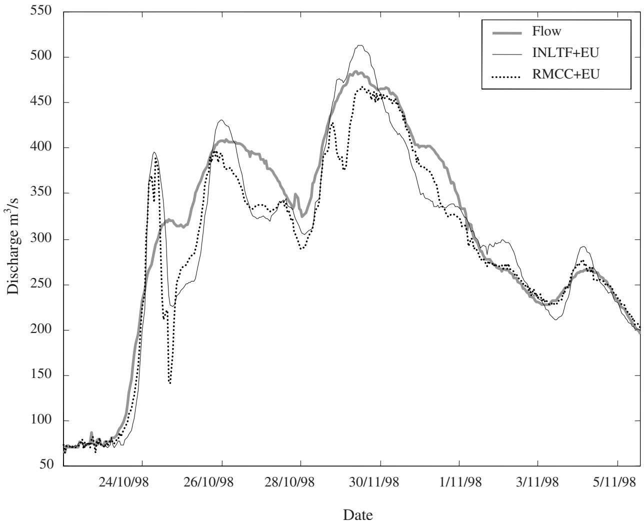

Figure 8 | Comparison between INL-TF and RMCC-ANN, both with real-time error updating.

predicted flow series may indicate that the non-linearity of the two types of model has compromised their overall stability.

7 CONCLUSIONS

The objective of the paper was to demonstrate and compare the performance of two state-of-the-art data-based flow forecasting methodologies using real data from the River Trent. The result of this comparison was that both the non-linear Transfer Function and Backpropagation ANN methods performed significantly better than the linear ARMA method, with little difference in performance. The best overall performance was obtained using the recurrent modified cascade-correlation ANN. The real-time updating techniques that were subsequently applied improved the forecast accuracy, particularly for the poorer models, showing that updating is a very important component of a real-time flood forecasting system. However, it was also noted that the application of the error updating method to the linear model could only improve its performance in terms of the magnitude of the flow, and not the timing of the peaks.

While the power of these techniques has been demonstrated in this paper, their application was limited to a single case study. It would therefore be inappropriate to draw firm conclusions about their overall performance. Additional case studies should be considered, using different catchment sizes and climates, to further assess their overall performance.

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ABBREVIATIONS

ANN	Artificial Neural Network
ARMA	Auto-Regressive Moving Average
BP-ANN	Backpropagation ANN
EU	Error Updating
INL-TF	Transfer Function models with Input Non-Linearity
RMCC-ANN	Recurrent Modified Cascade-Correlation ANN
TF	Transfer Function

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