Reliable prediction of wave overtopping volumes using Bayesian neural networks

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Reliable prediction of wave overtopping volumes using Bayesian neural networks

G.B. Kingston, D.I. Robinson, B.P. Gouldby & T. Pullen
HR Wallingford, Wallingford, United Kingdom

ABSTRACT: Artificial neural networks have been used successfully for generating predictions of wave overtopping volumes, which are required to appropriately design coastal structures as well as support associated flood risk analyses. It is particularly important to assess the uncertainty associated with such predictions, given the complexity of the modelling problem and the difficulty in obtaining accurate measurements of the large number of variables needed to estimate wave overtopping. The bootstrapping method previously used to estimate the uncertainty associated with ANN overtopping predictions does not, however, fully capture the total prediction variance. In this paper, Bayesian ANN methods are used to improve the reliability and robustness of wave overtopping predictions and to provide accurate estimates of the associated prediction uncertainty.

1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Climate change and rising sea levels are increasing flood risks in coastal areas. In order to appropriately assess and protect against such risks, reliable predictions of wave overtopping volumes at coastal structures are required. However, the complexity of the physical processes involved and the highly nonlinear dependence between the wave-structure characteristics makes the development of robust and reliable overtopping prediction models a nontrivial problem, with many of the models traditionally used for this purpose being applicable only over a restricted range. Moreover, the accuracy of overtopping predictions is often further hindered by the difficulty in obtaining accurate measurements of the large number of variables required. As such, it is of utmost importance to characterise the uncertainty associated with overtopping predictions, as suppressing this information can create a false sense of security in the predictions generated. As a consequence, coastal structures may be inappropriately designed and maintained; in turn, resulting in dangerous conditions in cases of storm surges, wave attack and flooding.

In the attempt to address this problem, one of the main objectives of the European CLASH project (EVK3-CT-2001-00058) was to develop a generic method for estimating wave overtopping volumes and their associated uncertainty (De Rouck & Geeraerts, 2005; Van Gent et al. 2005). Wave overtopping data sets from research institutes and universities around the world were collated, resulting in a database containing more than 10,000 overtopping measurements (henceforth, referred to as the CLASH database) on which to base the model. An artificial neural network (ANN) was chosen as the generic prediction tool, as these models are particularly suited to modelling complex and nonlinear problems when available data are abundant. To measure the reliability of the overtopping predictions, a bootstrapping procedure was applied, whereby 500 resamples of the original CLASH dataset were used to train (calibrate) the ANN model to provide an ensemble of estimated mean overtopping discharge rates and associated confidence limits.

There are, however, a number of limitations associated with bootstrapping procedures, which make them less than ideal for quantifying the uncertainty associated with ANN predictions. Firstly, such procedures only capture one aspect of prediction uncertainty. That is, they only measure the accuracy of the estimated model with respect to the mean of the target distribution, but do not measure the accuracy with which the actual target data (measured overtopping volumes) can be predicted (Heskes, 1997). In fact, for the CLASH ANN model, Van Gent et al. (2007) did not report on the prediction limits estimated using the bootstrapping procedure, but instead relied on an indicative prediction error band to assess the accuracy of the overtopping estimates. To capture both aspects of prediction uncertainty, and provide better coverage of the true range in which a prediction might lie, prediction limits must include an additional estimate of the noise inherent to the problem. Secondly, the first aspect of prediction uncertainty may be overestimated.
due to the learning procedure becoming stuck in local
minima in the error surface rather than converging
to the (near) global minimum. In this case, not only
are inaccuracies in the estimated model captured, but
also inaccuracies in the training procedure. Finally,
bootstrapping methods are computationally intensive
and time consuming. For example, in the CLASH
project, 500 bootstraps were used to assess uncer-
tainty in the model, meaning that the ANN model
was retrained 500 times. If new data become avail-
able and the model requires updating, this could take
everal days with a bootstrap method.

While the importance of providing estimates of
prediction uncertainty is increasingly being recog-
nised in flood risk analysis, it is essential that the
derivation of these estimates is as reliable as possi-
bile. This paper details the development of a Baye-
sian artificial neural network (ANN) model used
to improve the reliability and robustness of wave
overtopping predictions and to provide accurate esti-
mates of the associated prediction uncertainty result-
ing from uncertainty in the data and the difficulty of
accurately capturing the wave overtopping process.
An advantage of Bayesian methods over bootstrap-
ning for ANN uncertainty assessment is that uncer-
tainty in the model parameters is handled explicitly
by estimating weight distributions which include all
weights and to prevent overfitting of the data, a hier-
archical prior distribution in the form:

\[
p(w) = \prod_{g=1}^{G} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_{wg}^2}} \exp\left( -\frac{(w_g^2)^2}{2\sigma_{wg}^2} \right) \]  

where \(\sigma_{wg}\) are the variance and dimension
of the \(g\)th weight group, respectively. Both
\(\sigma_{wd}\) and \(\sigma_{yi}\) are the variance and dimension
of the \(i\)th input layer weights, the hidden layer biases, the hidden-output
layer weights and the output layer biases. The
parameters \(\sigma_{wg}\) and \(\sigma_{yi}\) are treated as unknown hyperparameters with rather
noninformative inverse chi-squared hyperprior distrib-
tions, which allows their values to be determined
from the data. The MCMC approach then involves a
two-step iterative procedure, where the hyperpa-
rameters are first sampled using the Gibbs sampler
and then the weight vector is sampled using the adap-
tive Metropolis algorithm developed by Haario et al.
(2001). Given sufficient burn-in iterations, the sam-
ples should converge to a stationary distrib-
tion. From this point onwards, this can be considered
that the sampled parameters are generated from the
posterior distribution.

2 BAYESIAN NEURAL NETWORKS

2.1 Concept

The concept behind the Bayesian modelling fram-
ework is Bayes’ theorem, which states that any prior
beliefs regarding an uncertain quantity are updated,based on new information, to yield a posterior prob-
ability of the unknown quantity. In terms of an ANN,
Bayes’ theorem can be used to estimate the posterior
distribution of the network weights \(w = \{w_1, \ldots, w_d\}\)
given a set of \(N\) target data \(y = \{y_1, \ldots, y_N\}\) as
follows:

\[
p(w|y) = \frac{p(y|w)p(w)}{p(y)} \]  

In this equation, \(p(w)\) is the prior distribution, which
describes any knowledge of the weight values before
observing the data; \(p(y|w)\) is known as the likelihood
function and is obtained by comparing the observed
data \(y\) to the model outputs \(\hat{y}\). This is the function
through which the prior knowledge of \(w\) is updated by
the data. The denominator \(p(y)\) is a normalising con-
stant known as the marginal likelihood, or evidence,
of the model.

2.2 Bayesian training

For complex models like most ANNs, (1) is ana-
lytically intractable. To overcome this problem, the
Markov chain Monte Carlo approach developed by
Kingston et al. (2005) is used to generate samples
from the posterior weight distribution. Assuming
that the residuals between the observed data and the
model outputs are normally and independently dis-
tributed with zero mean and constant variance \(\sigma_i^2\),
the likelihood function is given by:

\[
p(y|w, \sigma_i^2) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_i^2}} \exp\left( -\frac{(y_i - f(x_i,w))^2}{2\sigma_i^2} \right) \]  

where \(f(x_i,w)\) is the ANN output given the \(i\)th input
vector \(x_i\). To define a lack of prior knowledge about the
weights and to prevent overfitting of the data, a hi-
archical prior distribution in the form:

\[
p(w) = \prod_{g=1}^{G} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_{wg}^2}} \exp\left( -\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} w_{gi}^2}{2\sigma_{wg}^2} \right) \]  

is used, which is the product of four different normal
distributions, corresponding to four different weight
groups (i.e. \(w = \{w_g\}_g\)): the input-hidden layer
weights, the hidden layer biases, the hidden-output
layer weights and the output layer biases. The
parameters \(\sigma_{wg}\) and \(\sigma_{yi}\) are the variance and dimension
of the \(g\)th weight group, respectively. Both \(\sigma_{wg}\) and
\(\sigma_{yi}\) are treated as unknown hyperparameters with rather
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tion. From this point onwards, this can be considered
that the sampled parameters are generated from the
posterior distribution.
Samples from the posterior weight distribution can be used directly to calculate an output distribution for each given input pattern. To convert these outputs to samples from the predictive distribution of the targets, Gaussian noise with zero mean and estimated variance $\sigma^2_y$ is then added. As such, the estimated predictive distribution accounts for both aspects of prediction uncertainty described in Section 1; $p(w|y, H)$ describes the accuracy of the estimated model with respect to the mean of the target distribution, while $\sigma^2_y$ accounts for the variance with respect to the actual target data including noise.

For further details of the Bayesian training method, see Kingston et al. (2005).

### 3.1 CLASH database

The complete CLASH database (available from http://clash.ugent.be/results/Database_20050101.xls) contains over 10,000 wave overtopping test results, represented by parameters that describe the hydraulic and structural characteristics of the tests. It also contains information about the reliability of the tests and the complexity of the test structures, represented by a Reliability Factor (RF) and Complexity Factor (CF), respectively. The RF ranges from 1 (very reliable) to 4 (not reliable), while the CF also ranges from 1 (very simple) to 4 (very complex). For development of the ANN model, these factors were combined into a single Weight Factor (WF), which was then used during training to ensure that the simpler, more reliable tests were given more importance during training (see Section 3.2). The WF was calculated according to $WF = (4-\text{RF}) \times (4-\text{CF})$; however, tests for which $q < 10^{-2} \text{ m}^3/\text{s/m}$ were assigned a $WF = 1$, as these tests were considered as less accurate than larger overtopping discharges. The inputs and outputs used in developing the Bayesian ANN for wave overtopping are given in Table 1.

Preprocessing of the database involved removing those tests for which the overtopping discharge, $q$, was equal to 0 m/s/m, tests for which $WF = 0$ and any other tests showing clear inconsistencies. This resulted in a total of 8016 tests for developing the ANN model. The input and output parameters were then scaled to $H_{m0} = 1$ m using Froude’s similarity law in order to extrapolate information from small-scale test results to prototype conditions, ensuring that the model developed would be applicable to both small- and large-scale overtopping tests. For further information about this scaling see Van Gent et al. (2005).

Finally, the logarithm of the scaled overtopping volumes, $q'$, was taken and this became the target data for fitting the ANN model.

### 3.2 Bayesian ANN development

The type of ANN used to model the wave overtopping volumes was a feedforward multilayer perceptron with 14 nodes in the input layer, corresponding to the 14 input variables given in Table 1, and 1 output node in the output layer, corresponding to log $q'$. Van Gent et al. (2007) found that a network containing 15 hidden nodes was optimal for modelling this problem; thus an ANN with 15 hidden nodes was also used in this study. The hyperbolic tangent transfer function was used at the hidden layer nodes, while a linear transfer was applied at the output.

Prior to training the model, the available data were divided into two subsets: a training set containing 80% of the data (6104 data patterns) and an

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$H_{m0}$*</td>
<td>Significant wave height at the toe of the structure (m)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T_{m-1.0}$</td>
<td>Mean wave period at the toe of the structure (s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\beta$</td>
<td>Direction of wave attack w.r.t. the normal of the structure (°)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$h$</td>
<td>Water depth in front of the structure (m)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$h_c$</td>
<td>Water depth at the toe of the structure (m)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$B_c$</td>
<td>Width of the toe of the structure (m)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\gamma$</td>
<td>Roughness/permeability of the structure (-)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\cot \alpha_s$</td>
<td>Slope of the structure downward of the berm (-)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$B$</td>
<td>Width of the berm (m)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$h_b$</td>
<td>Water depth at the berm (m)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\tan \alpha_t$</td>
<td>Slope of the berm (-)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R_c$</td>
<td>Crest freeboard of the structure (m)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_c$</td>
<td>Armour crest freeboard of the structure (m)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$G_c$</td>
<td>Crest width of the structure (m)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$WF^{**}$</td>
<td>Weight Factor (-)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$q^{***}$</td>
<td>Overtopping discharge (m$^3$/s/m)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $H_{m0}$ was not used as an input to the ANN, but was used to scale the input/output data.

** $WF$ is not an input to the ANN model, but is used in calculating the objective function.

*** $q$ is the model output.
independent validation set containing the remaining 20% (1912 data patterns). As mentioned in the previous section, the WF values associated with overtopping tests were used to give more importance to tests with greater reliability and simplicity during training. In the CLASH project, this was done by applying the weight factor to the total cost function calculated during training, as follows:

$$E = \sum_{i=1}^{N} WF_i [y_i - f(x_i, w)]^2$$  \hspace{1cm} (4)

Therefore, the likelihood function given by (2) was also modified to include WF, as follows:

$$p(y | w, \sigma_i^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_i^2}} \prod_{i=1}^{N} \exp \left( \frac{WF_i [y_i - f(x_i, w)]^2}{2\sigma_i^2} \right)$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)

The MCMC algorithm described in Section 2.2 was run for 600,000 iterations, where the first 300,000 were discarded as burn-in iterations. Traces of the log (unnormalized) posterior, log likelihood and log prior values were inspected to ensure that approximate convergence was achieved within the burn-in period. Predictive distributions, from which mean predictions and 95% prediction limits were evaluated, were calculated based on 10,000 weight vectors, randomly sampled after approximate convergence had been achieved.

In order to properly examine the advantages of a Bayesian training procedure over bootstrapping for prediction uncertainty assessment, an ANN model was also developed using the bootstrapping procedure described in (Van Gent et al. 2005; Van Gent et al. 2007).

4 RESULTS

Figure 1 displays the mean predictions and 95% prediction limits obtained using the Bayesian ANN, plotted against the measured overtopping volumes for the training and validation data sets. It can be seen in this figure that the mean overtopping predictions are reasonably accurate; however, the prediction limits indicate that these predictions have a reasonably high degree of associated uncertainty, as the ANN predictions are a factor 10 (or more) larger/smaller than these mean predictions (and the corresponding measured data). Nevertheless, for both the training data and the validation data, the 95% prediction limits account for greater than 98% of the measured overtopping volumes. In the CLASH ANN publications (Van Gent et al. 2005; Van Gent et al. 2007), the percentage of measured data accounted for by the prediction limits obtained using the bootstrapping procedure is not reported. However, for the ANN model developed using bootstrapping in this study, these limits only account for around 50% of the measured training and validation data.

Although the overtopping volumes modelled are not a time series, it is useful to compare the results obtained using Bayesian and bootstrapping methods as shown in Figure 2. In this figure, 100 of the measured validation overtopping volumes with WF = 9 are plotted with the corresponding mean predictions and 95% prediction limits obtained using the Bayesian ANN. Also included in this figure are the 95% prediction limits obtained using the bootstrapping procedure. As can be easily seen in this figure, the prediction limits obtained using the bootstrapping procedure are significantly wider than the limits obtained using bootstrapping. Therefore, it
can be concluded that noise variance is a significant component of prediction uncertainty and by not accounting for this aspect, the uncertainty associated with the bootstrapping ANN predictions is significantly underestimated.

In addition, the training time required by the Bayesian approach was 785 minutes, whereas the time taken for bootstrap training with 500 bootstraps was 7389 minutes; almost 10 times the computation time.

5 CONCLUSIONS

It has been demonstrated in this study that the mean predictions and 95% prediction limits obtained using a Bayesian ANNs are much better able to represent measured wave overtopping data than the prediction limits obtained using bootstrapping methods. Whilst bootstrapping methods account for model uncertainty variance due to limitations of the ANN model, they neglect the second component of total prediction variance; data noise variance. On the other hand Bayesian methods account for both of these sources of prediction variance and as a result, the prediction limits obtained provide much better coverage of the target data than those obtained using bootstrapping.

Noise is inherent to all real data and thus data noise variance is always likely to be a significant component of ANN prediction uncertainty. Therefore, in order to correctly indicate the reliability associated with ANN predictions of wave overtopping volumes, it is recommended that a Bayesian approach be considered. If bootstrapping methods are relied upon to estimate prediction accuracy, it is likely that too much confidence could be placed in the predictions, which could have severe consequences if the predictions turn out to be incorrect.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study made use of much of the initial ANN development and data preprocessing approach devised by Van Gent et al. (2005; 2007). The authors would also like to acknowledge William Allsop for his input on wave overtopping and the CLASH project.

REFERENCES

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