Fully nonlinear statistical and machine learning approaches for hydrological frequency estimation at ungauged sites

D. Ouali^{1,*}, F. Chebana², T. B.M.J. Ouarda^{2, 3}

¹ Pacific Climate Impacts Consortium, University of Victoria, PO Box 1700 Stn CSC, Victoria, BC V8W2Y2, Canada

²Institut National de la Recherche Scientifique, Centre Eau Terre et Environnement,

490, rue de la Couronne, Québec (Québec), G1K 9A9, Canada

³Institute Centre for Water Advanced Technology and Environmental Research,

Masdar Institute of Science and Technology, P.O. Box 54224, Abu Dhabi, UAE

*Corresponding author: Email: d.ouali@uvic.ca

Key points:

- Improve estimating the frequencies of occurrence of hydrological extremes at ungauged sites through considering nonlinear techniques in the entire estimation procedure
- Fully and partially nonlinear approaches are developed and intercompared

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• Obtained results reveal the importance of considering the nonlinear aspect of hydrological processes when dealing with frequency estimations at ungauged sites.

Abstract

The high complexity of hydrological systems has long been recognized. Despite the increasing number of statistical techniques that aim to estimate hydrological quantiles at ungauged sites, few approaches were designed to account for the possible nonlinear connections between hydrological variables and catchments characteristics. Recently, a number of nonlinear machine-learning tools have received attention in regional frequency analysis (RFA) applications especially for estimation purposes. In this paper, the aim is to study nonlinearity related aspects in the RFA of hydrological variables using statistical and machine-learning approaches. To this end, a variety of combinations of linear and nonlinear approaches are considered in the main RFA steps (delineation and estimation). Artificial neural networks (ANN) and generalized additive models (GAM) are combined to a non-linear ANN-based canonical correlation analysis (NLCCA) procedure to ensure an appropriate nonlinear modelling of the complex processes involved. A comparison is carried out between classical linear combinations (CCA combined with linear regression model, LR), semi-linear combinations (e.g. NLCCA with LR) and fully nonlinear combinations (e.g. NLCCA with GAM). The considered models are applied to three different datasets located in North America. Results indicate that fully nonlinear models (in both RFA steps) are the most appropriate since they provide best performances and a more realistic description of the physical processes involved, even though they are relatively more complex than linear ones. On the other hand, semi-linear models which consider non-linearity either in the delineation or estimation steps showed little improvement over linear models. The linear approaches provided the lowest performances.

Keywords: nonlinear hydrological process, hydrological modelling, model comparison, regional frequency analysis, quantile estimation.

1. Introduction and literature review

Appropriate estimation of the occurrence frequency of hydrological extreme events, such as droughts and floods is of extreme importance for the adequate design and operation of water resources systems and to ensure public safety. To this end, frequency analysis of hydrological variables is a widely used approach when hydrological information is available at a given target site. Nevertheless, it is often required to estimate extreme events at ungauged sites where no hydrological observations are available. Regional frequency analysis (RFA) is a commonly used approach that aims to estimate hydrological quantiles at ungauged sites. It consists in two main steps, namely the identification of homogeneous regions and the transfer of hydrological information within the same homogeneous region [e.g. Hosking et Wallis, 1997].

A large number of statistical techniques were proposed in the literature for each step assuming generally linear relationships between flood quantiles and catchment characteristics [Pandey et Nguyen, 1999; Ouarda et al., 2000]. However, as hydrological systems involve complex processes, it seems inadequate to assume a linear coupling between hydrological and physiometeorological variables. Indeed, the linkage between these variables is generally characterised by a strong nonlinearity [e.g. Sivakumar et Singh, 2012]. Therefore, a number of techniques have been proposed in the literature to account for possible nonlinearities in the relationships between variables. Recently, artificial neural networks (ANN) and generalized additive models (GAM) have known increasing popularity in a number of fields including hydrology. These two nonlinear models have also attracted significant attention in hydrological modeling as alternatives to classical regressive models [Shu et Burn, 2004; Chebana et al., 2014].

An ANN is a nonparametric computing and modeling approach inspired by the biological functioning of the human brain [e.g. Rumelhart et al., 1985]. Due to its capacity to detect complex nonlinear relationships, ANN has been widely adopted for simulating and forecasting hydrological processes. Different ANN configurations were used for solving numerous hydrological problems such as rainfall-runoff modelling, groundwater flow analysis, river ice modelling and streamflow forecasting [Dawson et Wilby, 2001; Zhang et Govindaraju, 2003; Seidou et al., 2006; Nohair et al., 2008; Gao et al., 2010; Huo et al., 2012; Aziz et al., 2014]. Despite the extensive use of ANNs in the hydrological framework, their adoptions in RFA have been more modest. For instance, in Shu et Burn [2004] six various approaches have been applied using ANN ensembles, and compared to the single ANN model to estimate the index flood and the 10-year flood quantile. The application of the above models to some selected catchments indicated their ability to take into account nonlinear structures. In another study, Dawson et al. [2006] exploited the ANN ability to estimate the T-year flood events at ungauged sites. Shu et Ouarda [2007] introduced a one-step estimation model based on physiographical canonical variables produced by canonical correlation analysis (CCA), as inputs to ANN models (single and ensemble). Results showed that this technique provided superior estimations to those obtained in previous studies such as Chokmani et Ouarda [2004] and Ouarda et al. [2001]. In Shu et Ouarda [2008], the adaptive neuro-fuzzy inference system model was applied to 151 catchments in the province of Quebec, Canada, and compared to the single ANN model and the power-form nonlinear regression model. Results of this study suggested that the proposed model outperforms the nonlinear regression model and has a comparable performance to the ANN based approach. The ANN approach has also been considered in Aziz et al. [2014] on an extensive dataset of 452 gauged catchments in Australia. The authors found that the ANN-based model presents the best performance among all employed models. Several other relevant studies used ANN models to obtain flood (or low-flow) estimations at ungauged sites, such as Hall et Minns [1998]; Ouarda et Shu [2009]; Besaw et al. [2010]; Alobaidi et al. [2015]; and Kumar et al. [2015]. A major drawback of ANN modelling, as a machine learning method, is the requirement of a large dataset to obtain the expected performances [Dawson et al., 2006]. Furthermore, ANN calibration is a somewhat complex task which requires some subjective choices since no explicit regression equations can be given.

As opposed to the ANN model, the Generalized Additive Model (GAM) is an effective nonlinear tool defined using an explicit formulation [Hastie et Tibshirani, 1990]. Due to its considerable flexibility, it has been successfully applied in different fields such as medicine [e.g. Austin, 2007], environment [e.g. Guisan et al., 2002], finance [e.g. Taylan et al., 2007] and hydrology [e.g. López-Moreno et Nogués-Bravo, 2005]. For regional estimation purposes, GAM was introduced in the RFA context by Chebana et al. [2014] who showed that the GAM-based approaches outperformed the classical ones and provided an explicit description of nonlinearities. However, most of the current RFA literature, including the above mentioned studies, pays particular attention to the integration of nonlinearity in the estimation step. There have been very few studies dealing with the integration of nonlinear approaches in the delineation step. For instance, Lin et Chen [2006] the Self-Organizing Map, trained using an unsupervised competitive learning algorithm, has been used to identify homogeneous regions. For each neuron, the algorithm calculated a similarity measure (the Euclidean distance) between the input variables and the associated weights, and then, selected the output neuron with the smallest distance from the input variables. The obtained results suggested that the Self-Organizing Map approach is an effective and robust tool providing accurate hydrological neighbourhoods. Recently, a nonlinear Canonical Correlation Analysis (NLCCA) approach was investigated by Ouali et al. [2015]. The authors used a coupled CCA and ANN approaches to identify hydrological neighborhoods, and then combined the proposed approach to a classical log-linear regression model for the estimation step. The obtained results showed the importance of accounting for nonlinear statistical connections in the delineation step which also improved estimation performances.

Despite previous research efforts, it is important to mention that the nonlinear techniques have not yet been considered simultaneously in both RFA steps. The main goal of the present paper is to exploit the potential of nonlinear statistical tools in the RFA procedure. This comes down to consider a variety of combinations of nonlinear tools in both RFA steps. A second objective is to identify which step is more affected by nonlinearity. Therefore, new nonlinear combinations are proposed, assessed and compared.

The remainder of the present paper is organized as follows. The theoretical background of the techniques used in this study is given in section 2. In section 3, the description of the three case studies as well as the details of the ANNs and GAMs implementations in the RFA are provided. In section 4, the results of the application of the proposed approaches are presented and discussed. Finally, section 5 summarizes the main conclusions.

2. Theoretical background

The present paper deals with the nonlinear aspects of complex hydrological systems. Unlike previous RFA studies, which treated the nonlinearity in only one RFA step, either the delineation or the estimation, all employed estimation tools herein (for both steps) are nonlinear techniques. In the following, we briefly present the theoretical background of the adopted approaches in each step.

2.1. Regional hydrological quantile estimation

In this subsection, an overview of the estimation approaches adopted in the current work is presented, namely the ANN (single and ensemble) and the GAM models.

2.1.1. Single and Ensemble ANN

To date, a number of ANN models have been developed and introduced allowing solving large complex problems especially in environmental concerns [Eissa et al., 2013; Anmala et al., 2014; Ashtiani et al., 2014; Coad et al., 2014; Benzer et Benzer, 2015; and Wang et al., 2015]. The differences between various ANN classes may reside, for instance, in the model topology, the training algorithm and the transfer function used. Among the various ANN types that are available, the multilayer perceptron (MLP), also known as the multilayer feed-forward network is, so far, the most commonly used model for hydrological applications [Chokmani et al., 2008; e.g. Pramanik et Panda, 2009; Zaier et al., 2010; Wu et Chau, 2011; Kia et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2013].

A typical architecture of a MLP network is characterized by an input layer, one or more hidden layers and an output layer. Each layer contains computational units directly interconnected in a feed-forward way. Connections between neurons of two succeeding layers are performed using transfer functions designed through estimating appropriate parameters. Indeed, during the training process, the ANN parameters are estimated using an optimisation procedure [Park et al., 1991]. A number of training algorithms for MLP network are proposed in the literature among which the basic back propagation algorithm is the most popular [Shu et Burn, 2004]. More technical details about this algorithm are provided in Haykin et Lippmann [1994] and Werbos [1994].

A generalization of the single ANN abilities may show a significant improvement in its robustness and reliabilities by combining several ANNs into an Ensemble of ANNs (EANN). The EANN approach has received considerable attention in the hydrological literature [e.g. Cannon et Whitfield, 2002; Araghinejad et al., 2011; Demirel et al., 2015]. Although combining identical single ANNs may appear redundant, this generalized approach offers a better performance than

the single ANN [Shu et Burn, 2004]. The principal idea is to train each network differently through, for example, considering different training sets, and then to combine all ANN estimations to provide a single output. To this end, boosting and bagging approaches are two popular training methods. Several ways to combine all network outputs were proposed in the literature, such as averaging and stacking. For more details about these techniques, the reader is referred to Schwenk et Bengio [2000], Breiman [1996], Bishop [1995] and Wolpert [1992].

2.1.2. Generalized Additive Model (GAM)

Before presenting the Generalized Additive Model (GAM), it is of interest to introduce the Generalized Linear Model (GLM). The latter is a flexible extension of the ordinary linear regression model allowing for the response distribution to be non-Gaussian and relating a response variable Y to explanatory variables X via a link function g [McCullagh et Nelder, 1989]. GAMs, initially introduced by Hastie et Tibshirani [1986], are an extension of GLMs linking, via a link function g, a non-Gaussian response to a sum of (nonlinear) smooth functions of explanatory variables.

The basic model formulation, using m explanatory variables X_i , is explicitly given by [Wood, 2006]:

$$g\left\{Y\right\} = \alpha + \sum_{i=1}^{m} f_i\left(X_i\right) + \varepsilon \tag{1}$$

where g is a monotonic link function, f_i is a smooth function of explanatory variable, α is the intercept coefficient and ε is the error term.

This model allows accounting for nonlinear connections between response and explanatory variables through the smooth functions. Accordingly, the first step in GAM estimation is to estimate the smooth functions such that:

$$f_i(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{q} \beta_{ij} b_{ij}(x)$$
(2)

where b_{ij} are basis functions and β_{ij} are the q parameters to be estimated for the ith explanatory variable. Typically, smooth functions can take both parametric and nonparametric forms. Note that Spline functions are the most commonly used basis to characterize smooth functions [Wahba, 1990]. Overall, the ability to consider non-parametric fitting with relaxed linear as well as Gaussian assumptions provides the potential for GAM to better describe regression relationships.

2.2. Delineation of homogeneous regions

CCA is one of the most recommended approaches adopted in RFA for identifying hydrological neighborhoods [Ouarda et al., 2001]. To represent the relationship between two groups of variables, this technique consists on constructing new canonical variables resulting from *linear* combinations of physiographical and hydrological variables (*X* and *Y* respectively).

Recent research efforts have shown increased interest in the nonlinear dynamics of hydrological processes. In this regard, the nonlinear CCA (NLCCA) based on ANN approach [Ouali et al., 2015] is considered in the current study. This method consists in establishing non-linear combinations between original variables (*X* and *Y*) and the new canonical variables (*U* and *V*) via a transfer function. Consider the following hidden layer:

$$h_k^{(x)} = f\left[\left(W^{(x)}x + b^{(x)}\right)_k\right] \quad ; \qquad k \in \{1, ..., l\}$$
 (3)

$$h_n^{(y)} = f \left[\left(W^{(y)} y + b^{(y)} \right)_n \right] ; \quad n \in \{1, ..., l\}$$
 (4)

where x and y denotes the observations vectors of the variables X and Y, respectively, $W^{(x)}$ and $W^{(y)}$ are weight matrices, $b^{(x)}$ and $b^{(y)}$ are vectors of biased parameters, k and n denote respectively the indices of the vector's elements $h^{(x)}$ and $h^{(y)}$ and l denotes the number of hidden neurons. Therefore, canonical variables U and V are determined from a linear combination of $h^{(x)}$ and $h^{(y)}$ as:

$$U = w^{(x)}h^{(x)} + \bar{b}^{(x)}$$
 (5)

$$V = w^{(y)}h^{(y)} + \bar{b}^{(y)} \tag{6}$$

where $w^{(x)}$ and $w^{(y)}$ are weight vectors estimated during the map from the hidden neurons ($h^{(x)}$ and $h^{(y)}$) to the canonical variables.

A more detailed description of the properties of NLCCA can be found in Hsieh [2000] whereas the adaptation and application to the RFA context can be found in Ouali et al. [2015].

3. Applications and numerical implementations

In the following, we present the datasets used in this work as well as details of the study design.

3.1. Datasets

In this work, the proposed models and methods are applied to real-world case studies and each model performance is then compared to the performance of a number of classical approaches. For comparison purposes, case studies already used in previous studies are also adopted in the present study.

The first considered data base is inherent from the hydrometric station network of the southern part of the province of Quebec, Canada. A total of 151 stations located between the 45° N and the 55° N were selected (Chokmani and Ouarda 2004). Three types of variables are identified namely

physiographical, meteorological and hydrological. The physiographical variables, as identified in Chokmani and Ouarda (2004), are the basin area (BV), mean basin slope (MBS) and the fraction of the basin area covered with lakes (FAL). The meteorological variables are the annual mean total precipitation (AMP) and the annual mean degree days over 0° C (AMD). The hydrological variables correspond to the specific at-site flood quantiles Q_{ST} corresponding to a given return period T. A summary of all data statistics is provided in Table 1.

Two other case studies are also considered in this work, namely the hydrometric networks of the states of Arkansas and Texas in the United States with 204 and 69 catchments respectively. The employed basin characteristics are the same as in Ouali et al. [2015], explicitly, the basin area (BV), the slope of the main channel (S), the annual mean total precipitation (AMP), the mean basin elevation (EL) and the length of the main channel (L). The hydrological variables are the specific at-site flood quantiles, Q_{ST} , corresponding to 10, and 50 years return periods.

3.2. Model designs for RFA

One important issue to address in this study is the use of considered nonlinear techniques in both delineation and estimation steps. Consequently, several regional models will be developed. Because of space limitations, model implementations and results associated to the Quebec case study are reported in details whereas those of Texas and Arkansas are briefly presented. In Table 2 a recapitulation of all adopted regional models as well as the list of selected explanatory variables for the Quebec case study are presented. It is worthwhile to note that NLCCA implementation is carried out as in Ouali et al. [2015].

a. ANN and EANN implementation

In the present study, the MLP was selected to design both the ANN and EANN models. The model inputs are the standardized catchment characteristics (BV, MBS, FAL, AMP and AMD)

that may affect the watershed hydrological behaviour. Model outputs are the log-transformed atsite estimated specific quantiles. According to the literature, the adopted transfer functions for both the hidden and the output layers are respectively the tan-sigmoid and the linear function. As mentioned in previous studies [Shu et Ouarda, 2007; Ouarda et Shu, 2009], seeking the optimal number of neurons in the hidden layer is a crucial step when designing an ANN model. Indeed, this number should neither be too high, to avoid overfitting, nor too low to avoid underfitting. In Shu et Burn [2004], five neurons in the hidden layer lead to accurate results.

After testing several ANN configurations including for instance varying the number of hidden neurons from 1 to 15, models using four neurons were selected since they allowed optimising the mean squared error (MSE) criterion. The Levenberg-Marquardt (LM) training algorithm (Hagan and Menhaj, 1994) was employed for training both ANN and EANN. Although it requires more memory than other algorithms, it is much faster and more efficient than the basic backpropagation algorithm. It has also the ability to resolve several complex problems through proposing optimal solutions [Shu et Burn, 2004]. Depending on the initial value of the learning parameter μ , which appears in the LM algorithm weights, the LM algorithm behaves as a gradient descent method for large values of μ and as the Gauss-Newton method when μ is close to zero [Ouarda et Shu, 2009]. Similar to Shu et Ouarda [2007], an initial value of μ is given in the current work as 0.005.

For the EANN, a bagging with averaging approach is adopted. To achieve sufficient generalization ability, the ensemble size should be well selected. Indeed, if the size is too large, the training time increases whereas if the size is too small, no significant improvement in the generalization ability can be obtained [Shu et Ouarda, 2007]. In previous studies by Agrafiotis et al. [2002] and Shu et Burn [2004], an ensemble size of 10 was found to lead to satisfactory

results. In Shu et Ouarda [2007], where the same case study of the province of Quebec was treated, an ensemble of 14 ANNs yielded the best results. In the current work, using the bagging-averaging configuration, different network sizes were trained (including 14 and 10 ANNs) with randomly sampled training data. The ensemble output is obtained after averaging all ANN outputs. According to the criteria presented hereafter, results indicated that using a network size of 10 achieved the best performance.

b. GAM implementation

In this application, GAM was implemented based on the **mgcv** package in the R language and environment [Wood, 2006]. Due to their theoretical motivations, the thin plate regression splines, which are a generalisation of cubic splines, are considered as basis b_{ij} in the smoothing functions f_i as in (2). Note that this class of basis is characterized by its high computational speed and includes a reduced number of parameters compared to other smoothing functions [Wood, 2003]. The considered link function g in (1) is the identity function since the log-transformed quantiles are approximately normally distributed (as in Chebana et al. [2014]).

A critical task when dealing with GAMs consists in selecting the appropriate smoothing level for each explanatory variable. This is achieved using the concept of effective degrees of freedom (edf) [Guisan et al., 2002]. The total edf number used for all explanatory variables must be lower than the total number of observations (in the RFA context, it corresponds to the number of sites belonging to a given homogeneous region). In the current work, edf values are estimated using a stepwise procedure.

A stepwise selection procedure was also carried out to ensure an objective selection of the explanatory variables. As indicated in Chebana et al. [2014], the correlation-based selection method is a linear tool which seems to be more adequate with the CCA concept. Accordingly, in

this study significant variables were selected using an automatic stepwise procedure within GAM. Prediction error criteria such as the Generalized Cross Validation score (GCV) and the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) are adopted to select appropriate variables. As a result, identified variables were found to be the same as in Chebana et al. [2014], namely BV, FAL, AMD, LAT and LONG with edf respectively 1, 4, 4, 1 and 2.

Once a RFA model is established, a cross validation procedure (also called jackknife or leaveone-out procedure) is used to assess model performance. To this end, the following evaluation indices are employed:

Efficiency Coefficient:
$$EC = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - \overline{y})^2}$$
 (7)

Relative root mean square error:
$$RRMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(\frac{y_i - \hat{y}_i}{y_i} \right)^2}$$
 (8)

Relative bias:
$$RBIAS = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(\frac{y_i - \hat{y}_i}{y_i} \right)$$
 (9)

where y_i denotes the local estimated quantile at the site i and \hat{y}_i is the regional estimated one. N is the total number of sites [Hassanzadeh et al., 2011; Abdi et al., 2016].

4. Results and discussion

Both ANN and GAM models were combined to the NLCCA in the delineation step and applied to the three considered datasets.

4.1. Results of the Quebec case study

The obtained results for the province of Quebec, using the cross-validation procedure for all considered combinations, are presented in Figure 1. Accordingly, the best overall performances

are those obtained from the full nonlinear model NLCCA-GAM first when the explanatory variables are those identified in Chokmani et Ouarda [2004], followed by the case when variables are selected with a stepwise technique (mainly in terms of RRMSE). In the following, we denote by NLCCA-GAM the model using BV, MBS, AMP, FAL and AMD variables. According to the high EC values (more than 0.8) and the lowest RRMSE values (28.35% for Q_{S100}), the NLCCA-GAM model provides the most accurate estimates compared to all other approaches. Based on the RBIAS, results show that, even though all models underestimate flood quantiles, the CCA-GAM is the least biased model (-3.7 % for Q_{S100}). However, compared to the NLCCA-GAM approach, the difference is not significant (a difference of -1.3 % for Q_{S100}).

Results indicate also that the NLCCA-GAM approach yields more accurate estimates when compared to the same approach using variables identified by stepwise, despite the fact that the difference is not too large. This may be explained by the fact that criteria used to select the variables (GCV and AIC) are not the same criteria used to evaluate model performances (EC, RRMSE, RBIAS). In addition, in the case of the stepwise based combination, the used NLCCA solution is the same as in the NLCCA-GAM. Hence, through a more advanced NLCCA parameterization, better results could be achieved by using the stepwise approach.

Moreover, the obtained results reveal that, when using the same gauged sites meaning the same delineation method, GAM outperforms ANN-based approaches (ANN and EANN) in terms of all evaluation criteria. This is probably attributable not only to the flexibility of GAM and its ability to adequately account for the nonlinearities, but also to the data size. Indeed, since the considered dataset is relatively not too large (151 catchments), the ANN-based models might not be properly trained. On the other hand, an expected finding is that, overall, the NLCCA-EANN approach outperforms ANN-based approaches (CCA-ANN, CCA-EANN and NLCCA-ANN). This is due

to the combination of the advantages of the nonlinear delineation method and the generalization ability of the nonlinear estimation method.

In addition, the gauged sites included in the homogeneous region when using the NLCCA approach lead to significant improvements in regional flood estimations when compared to sites retained using the linear CCA approach. More precisely, based on the RRMSE criterion (Figure 1-b), a relative improvement of 20% for the Q_{S100} estimates is obtained when considering the NLCCA-LR approach compared to the basic CCA-LR model. Regarding the estimation step, a relative improvement of 22% is recorded when considering CCA-GAM, and only 7% when considering the CCA-EANN approach. However, when we account for nonlinearity in both RFA steps, especially NLCCA combined with GAM, the relative gain reaches 45% (compared to the full linear model CCA-LR). This illustrates clearly the importance of the proposed approaches based on nonlinear tools in both RFA steps. In fact, an improvement in the estimation accuracy of quantiles at ungauged sites would significantly reduce flood damages, losses and costs.

The comparison can also be extended to other regional models in the literature, such as the depth-based approach [Wazneh et al., 2013], the EANN in the CCA space [Shu et Ouarda, 2007; Khalil et al., 2011] and the projection pursuit regression approach [Durocher et al., 2015]. In the two latter approaches the delineation step is not considered (one-step RFA models) and, in addition, the estimation models are nonlinear. Table 3 reports the results of the above-listed studies. It indicates that, in terms of RRMSE and EC, the NLCCA-GAM model outperforms considerably all other approaches. However, the RBIAS values indicate that the depth-based approach performs slightly better.

To further explain the above results, the relative errors over sites associated to the best model in each category of combinations, CCA-GAM, NLCCA-LR, NLCCA-EANN and NLCCA-GAM,

are presented in Figure 2. One can notice that the lowest errors are associated to the full nonlinear combination NLCCA-GAM. Note also that, for some sites, the NLCCA-LR and NLCCA-EANN approaches show comparable performances. Furthermore, for a small number of sites the CCA-GAM approach seems to perform poorly. Indeed, a number of problematic stations corresponding to atypically large relative errors for most of the considered approaches have been identified (stations with identification numbers: 030401, 041901, 041903, 042607, 050701, 076601, 081002 and 092711). Some of these stations (030401, 041903 and 042607) were also identified in previous studies treating the same case study [Chokmani et Ouarda, 2004; Durocher et al., 2015]. These sites were found to have under-evaluated areas (Chokmani and Ouarda 2004). Using the NLCCA-GAM approach, the estimations corresponding to these particular sites are significantly improved as shown in Figure 2.

On the other hand, the exploration of the variability of errors as a function of the at-site Q_{S100} is shown in Figure 3 (because of space limitations and the similarity between results, those corresponding to Q_{S10} and Q_{S50} are not presented). One can see that the lowest specific quantile values are poorly estimated by all approaches except when using the full nonlinear combination, NLCCA-GAM, which provides accurate estimates.

At-site versus regional quantile estimates are presented in Figure 4 for Q_{S100} . To this end, five models are considered (CCA-LR, NLCCA-LR, NLCCA-EANN, CCA-GAM, and NLCCA-GAM) where LR-based ones (CCA-LR and NLCCA-LR) are considered as benchmarks and the NLCCA-EANN is selected as the best ANN-based model. According to Figure 4 the full nonlinear models show better overall performances (NLCCA-GAM followed by NLCCA-EANN). Indeed, associated at-site and regional estimations are very close since the points are less dispersed around the diagonal line. Moreover, higher specific quantile values are somewhat underestimated leading to the above obtained negative RBIAS values. These large quantile values

were found to be associated to small basins (the area is less than 800 km²), which seems to be systematically explained by their sharp hydrological responses. On the other hand, one can see, again, that the lowest specific quantile values are often overestimated except when using the full nonlinear model, NLCCA-GAM, by which they are well estimated. Note that these sites are the same ones identified as problematic in Figure 2. These sites, whose geographical locations are indicated in Figure 5, were found to have large basin areas (such as sites 030401, 076601, 081002 and 092711) or to be located in the limit of the province with medium size catchments (041901, 041903, 042607 and 050701).

As opposed to previous studies, where problematic sites were often removed to improve the model and the overall estimation results, in this work these stations are preserved. Figure 6 shows specifically relative errors for these sites. It indicates that the NLCCA-GAM model yields the best estimations for these particular sites and significant improvements are obtained which explain the overall high performance. In particular, the NLCCA-GAM model leads to an accurate estimate at the site 042607 which is the most notable station in previous studies and models. This site belongs to the drainage basin of the Kipawa River with a moderate catchment area of 2110 km². Examination of the at-site estimation quantiles shows that this site has the lowest at-site quantile values for all return periods (64 m³/s for Q_{S100}). Hence, unlike the classical regressive models, the high flexibility offered by GAM leads to a better modelling of the complex hydrological phenomena and to a much improved estimation. This finding points out a significant advantage of nonlinear models, in particular the NLCCA-GAM approach. Indeed, it shows that there is no need to develop specific models for different classes of basins according to their size, slope, or streamflow magnitude.

4.2. Results of the Arkansas and Texas case studies

Results of the Arkansas and Texas case studies are presented in Tables 4 and 5. It can be seen that, again, the NLCCA-GAM approach provides the most accurate estimates especially in terms of RRMSE. In fact, for Texas, the NLCCA-GAM performs well in terms of all evaluation criteria. However, the relative improvement was not as large as in the case of the province of Quebec. Indeed, the comparison of NLCCA-GAM and CCA-LR shows that a relative improvement of only 31% has been achieved in Texas for Q_{S10} against 48% in the case of Quebec. Results associated to Arkansas reveal that the NLCCA-GAM approach is recommended when considering the RRMSE which is the most important criterion [Hosking et Wallis, 1997]. Compared to the fully linear combination, the relative improvement reaches 35% for Q_{S10} . This large difference between the NLCCA-GAM results in the three considered case studies can be explained by the fact that the nonlinearity is not as pronounced in the Arkansas and Texas case studies as it is the case of Quebec.

Figure 7 illustrates the smooth functions of the response variables as a function of the explanatory variables for the three considered case studies. One can effectively notice the difference in the degree of nonlinearity between the three regions. Indeed, the most complex relations between explanatory and response variables appear in the case of the province of Quebec which explains the high gain recorded when using the fully nonlinear combination NLCCA-GAM (48%). Note also, from these figures, that the Texas region seems to represent the simplest linear case study (linear smooth function curves and low edf values) which justify the smallest relative improvement (31%).

5. Conclusions

The main objective of this study is to investigate the potential of nonlinear approaches in both RFA steps, simultaneously. This allows taking full advantages of the nonlinearity considered in one of the two steps. To this end, a number of combinations of delineation methods (CCA and NLCCA) and regional estimation methods (LR, GAM, ANN and EANN) are considered. To illustrate the potential of the proposed approaches, these latter were applied to three different case studies in North America.

The obtained results reveal that considering nonlinear techniques in both RFA steps would significantly improve the performance of the regional model and, consequently, engender more accurate flood quantiles estimations at ungauged sites. This can have positive implications for the risk assessment of extreme hydrological events. In fact, the regional model combining the NLCCA approach for the delineation step with the GAM for the estimation step (NLCCA-GAM) was found to be the most appropriate model followed by the NLCCA-EANN approach for the Quebec case study.

Another noteworthy result is related to the importance of considering nonlinearity in the delineation or in the estimation step. It was found that considering nonlinearity in the delineation or in the estimation step lead to comparable results. Indeed, improvement in the overall model performance requires the integration of nonlinear tools in both steps. In summary, despite the relative complexity of the NLCCA-GAM approach, it is worthwhile to consider such model to adequately account for the nonlinearities of complex hydrological phenomena. Actually, a reliable regional model could be particularly useful for water resources managers.

In this study, the focus was on assessing the performances of the ANN and GAM models, combined to the NLCCA approach. In further efforts, it may be of interest to proceed with other

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statistical techniques such as the projection pursuit regression, as a generalization of these two techniques, coupled to a delineation approach.

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Table 1. Descriptive statistics of hydrological and physio-meteorological variables-Quebec

| Variable | Min | Mean | Max | STD |
|---|------|-------|-------|-------|
| Mean Basin Slope (MBS) (%) | 0.96 | 2.43 | 6.81 | 0.99 |
| Fraction of the basin area covered with lakes (FAL) (%) | 0.00 | 7.72 | 47.00 | 7.99 |
| Annual mean total precipitation (AMP) (mm) | 646 | 988 | 1534 | 154 |
| Annual mean degree days over 0° (AMD) (°C) | 8589 | 16346 | 29631 | 5382 |
| Basin area (BV) (km²) | 208 | 6255 | 96600 | 11716 |
| Latitude (LAT) (°N) | 45 | 48 | 54 | 2 |
| Longitude (LONG) (°W) | 58 | 72 | 79 | 4 |
| Flood quantile of 10 year return period (m³/s) | 53 | 698 | 5649 | 828 |
| Flood quantile of 50 year return period (m³/s) | 61 | 851 | 6642 | 985 |
| Flood quantile of 100 year return period (m³/s) | 64 | 913 | 7013 | 1048 |

 Table 2. Summary of all considered regional models.

| | Delineation step (D) | Estimation step (E) | Regional model notation | Reference | Physiographical variables |
|------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|
| Linear D & E | CCA | LR | CCA-LR | Ouarda et al. [2001] | BV, MBS, FAL, AMP, AMD |
| Linear D & nonlinear E | CCA CCA | ANN EANN | CCA-ANN CCA-EANN | Current work | BV, MBS, FAL, AMP, AMD |
| | CCA | GAM | CCA-GAM | Chebana et al. [2014] | ANVIII, ANVID |
| Nonlinear D & linear E | NLCCA | LR | NLCCA-LR | Ouali et al. [2015] | BV, MBS, FAL, AMP, AMD |
| | NLCCA | ANN | NLCCA-ANN | | DV MDC EAL |
| Nonlinear D & E | NLCCA | CCA EANN NLCCA-EANN | | BV, MBS, FAL, AMP, AMD | |
| Nominear D & E | NLCCA | GAM | NLCCA-GAM | Current work | AMI, AMD |
| | NLCCA | GAM | NLCCA- GAM/STPW | | BV, FAL, AMD, LAT, LONG |
| | | | | | |
| | | | | | |
| | | | | | |

Table 3. Comparison of NLCCA-GAM with a number of RFA approaches from previous studies applied to the same dataset, Quebec.

| Regional model | Hydrological variables | EC | RRMSE (%) | RBIAS (%) |
|--|------------------------|------|-----------|-----------|
| ANN- Linear CCA [Shu et Ouarda, 2007] | QS10 | 0.84 | 37 | -5 |
| ANN- Linear CCA [Snu et Ouarda, 2007] | QS100 | 0.78 | 45 | -6 |
| Ontired double boost organization (W. J. 1, 2012) | QS10 | - | 38 | -3 |
| Optimal depth-based approach [Wazneh et al., 2013] | QS100 | - | 44 | -2 |
| Projection pursuit regression_STPW [Durocher et al., | QS10 | 0.82 | 34 | -4 |
| 2015] | QS100 | 0.79 | 40 | -6 |
| NLCCA-GAM | QS10 | 0.87 | 23 | -4 |
| NLCCA-GAIVI | QS100 | 0.82 | 28 | -5 |

Best results are in bold character.

Table 4. Jackknife Validation Results- Arkansas.

| Regional model | Hydrological variables | EC | RRMSE (%) | RBIAS (%) |
|----------------|------------------------|------|-----------|-----------|
| CCA-LR | QS10 | 0.75 | 47.70 | -3.04 |
| CCA-LK | QS50 | 0.73 | 61.36 | -5.76 |
| CCA-ANN | QS10 | 0.71 | 63.58 | -19.35 |
| CCA-ANN | QS50 | 0.71 | 66.27 | -14.80 |
| CCA-EANN | QS10 | 0.74 | 61.63 | -16.83 |
| CCA-EANN | QS50 | 0.73 | 68.97 | -19.12 |
| CCA-GAM | QS10 | 0.74 | 40.54 | -10.39 |
| CCA-GAM | QS50 | 0.72 | 52.37 | -13.50 |
| NI CCA I D | QS10 | 0.72 | 37.23 | 6.27 |
| NLCCA-LR | QS50 | 0.71 | 44.78 | 5.54 |
| NI CCA CAM | QS10 | 0.73 | 31.10 | 8.70 |
| NLCCA-GAM | QS50 | 0.72 | 34.50 | 8.40 |
| NI CCA ANN | QS10 | 0.65 | 49.71 | 8.16 |
| NLCCA-ANN | QS50 | 0.67 | 51.30 | 2.71 |
| NI CCA FANN | QS10 | 0.69 | 41.35 | 4.14 |
| NLCCA-EANN | QS50 | 0.70 | 45.93 | 3.66 |

Best results are in bold character.



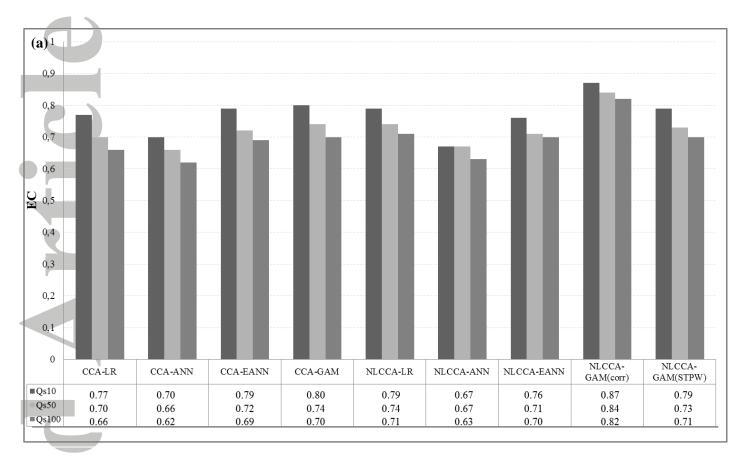
 Table 5. Jackknife Validation Results- Texas

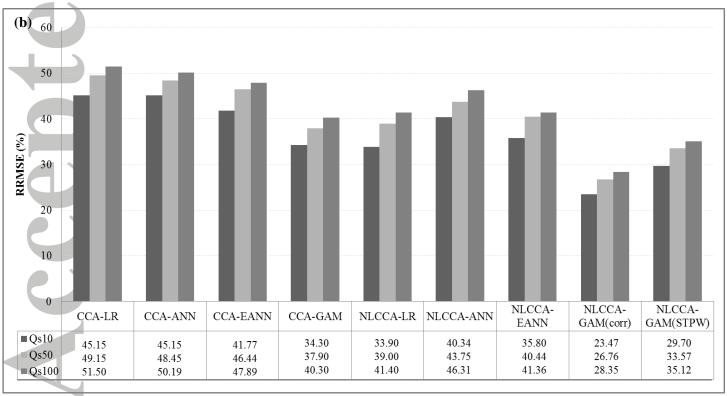
| Regional model | Hydrological variables | EC | RRMSE(%) | RBIAS(%) |
|----------------|------------------------|------|----------|----------|
| CCAID | QS10 | 0.35 | 44.75 | -7.56 |
| CCA-LR | QS50 | 0.13 | 54.88 | -4.11 |
| CCA ANN | QS10 | 0.49 | 52.46 | -10.85 |
| CCA-ANN | QS50 | 0.46 | 58.82 | -14.91 |
| CCA-EANN | QS10 | 0.53 | 44.92 | -14.90 |
| CCA-EANN | QS50 | 0.41 | 56.52 | -18.75 |
| CCA CAM | QS10 | 0.55 | 40.24 | -3.49 |
| CCA-GAM | QS50 | 0.49 | 44.72 | -6.72 |
| NLCCA-LR | QS10 | 0.53 | 42.85 | -5.64 |
| | QS50 | 0.44 | 51.11 | -7.09 |
| NI CCA CAN | QS10 | 0.68 | 30.7 | -2.9 |
| NLCCA-GAM | QS50 | 0.61 | 38.4 | -5.2 |
| NII CCA ANDI | QS10 | 0.56 | 43.26 | -9.11 |
| NLCCA-ANN | QS50 | 0.53 | 45.70 | -7.33 |
| NI CCA FANN | QS10 | 0.57 | 41.90 | -12.65 |
| NLCCA-EANN | QS50 | 0.46 | 52.73 | -16.40 |

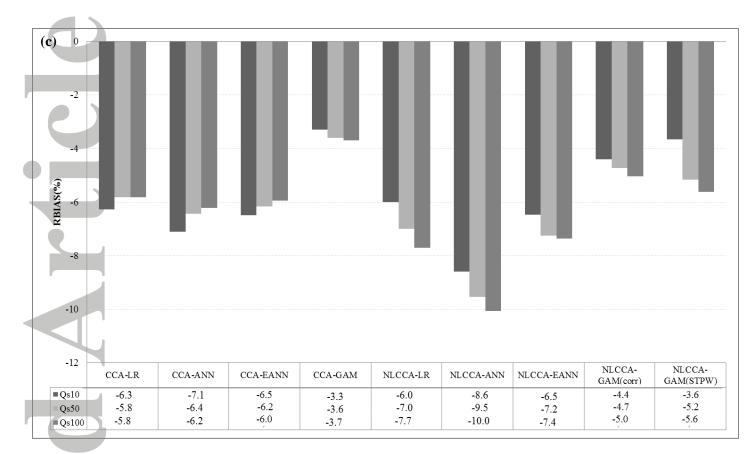
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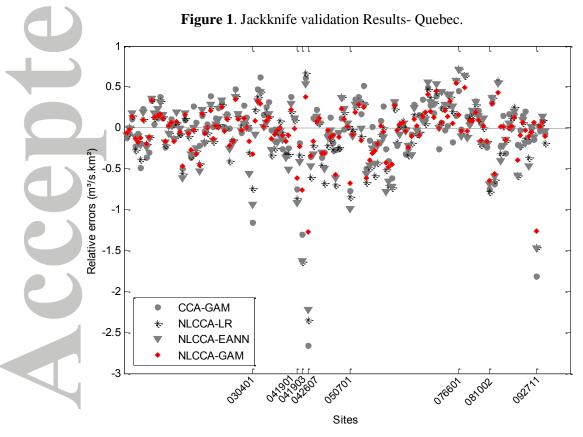


Figure 2. Relative errors associated to Q_{S100} calculated at each site using CCA-GAM, NLCCA-LR, NLCCA-EANN and NLCCA-GAM.

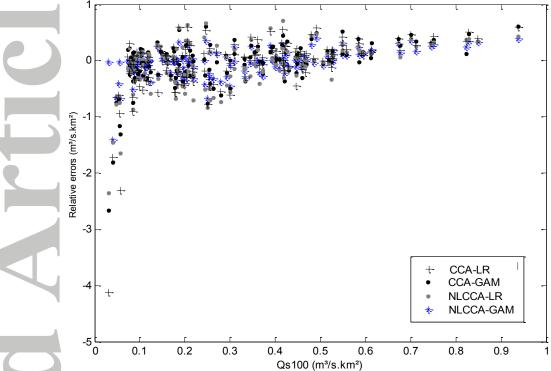


Figure 3. Relative errors using CCA-LR, CCA-GAM, NLCCA-LR and NLCCA-GAM as a function of $Q_{\rm S100}$ for Quebec.

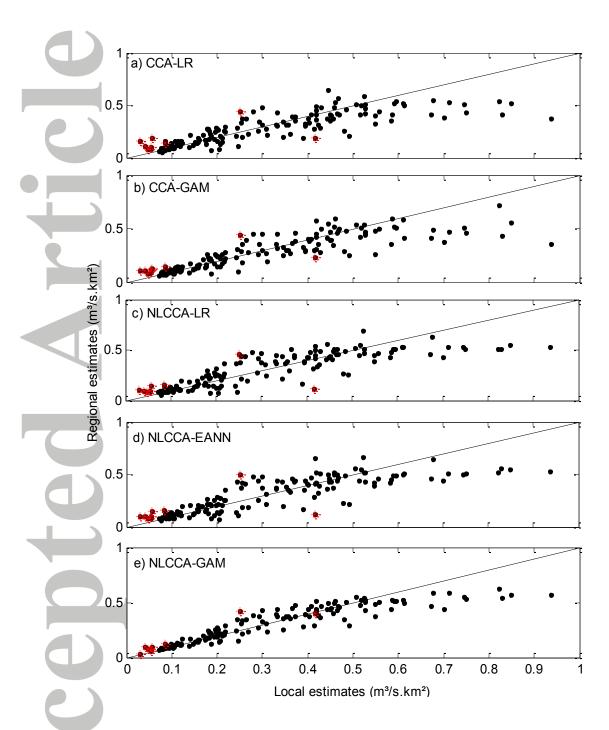


Figure 4. Jackknife estimation using the CCA-LR, CCA-GAM, NLCCA-LR, NLCCA-EANN, and the NLCCA-GAM approaches for Q_{S100} . Red asterisks are associated to estimations at particular sites.

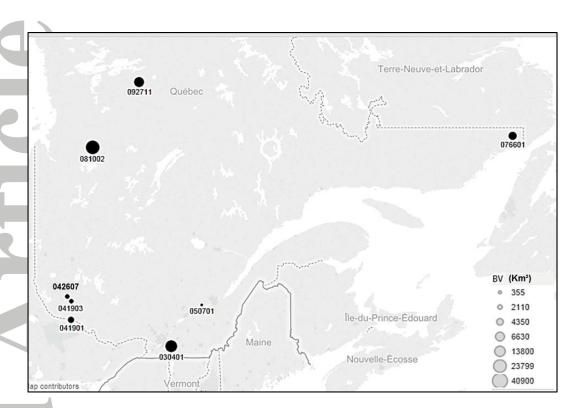


Figure 5. Geographical location of the identified particular stations in southern Quebec, Canada

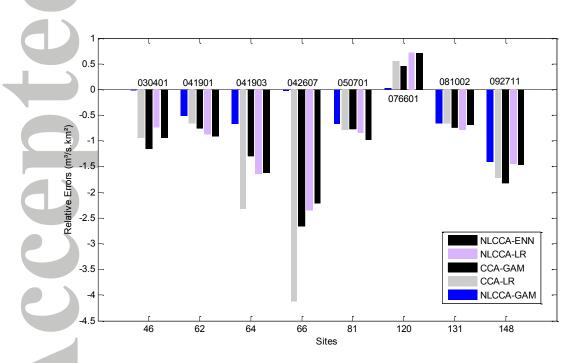


Figure 6. Relative errors for identified problematic sites using several approaches, Q_{S100} .

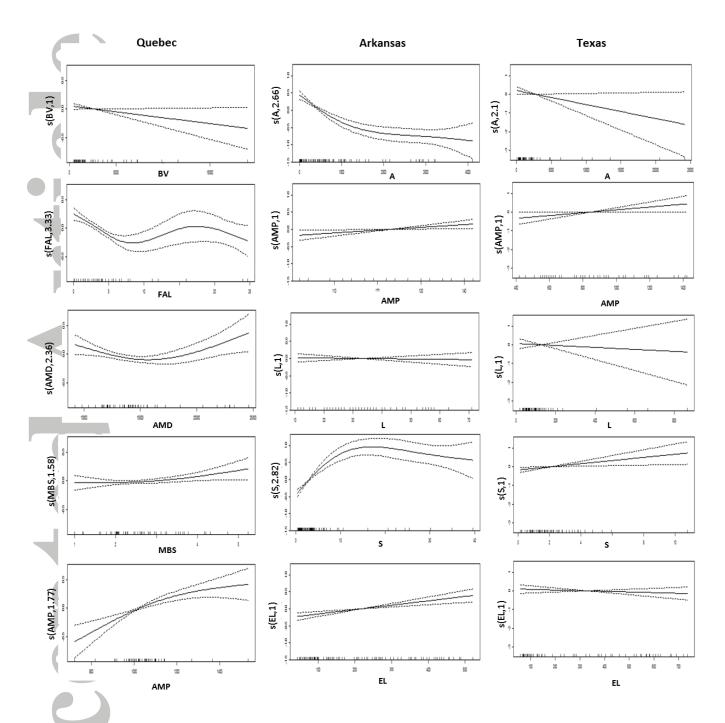


Figure 7. Smooth functions of Q_{S10} as a function of the explanatory variables of the NLCCA-GAM model for Quebec, Arkansas and Texas, with associated 95% confidence intervals (dotted lines) and the estimated degree of freedom of the smooth (labelled in the vertical axes).