

Developing a Novel Parameter-free Optimization Algorithm for Flood Routing

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1 **Developing a novel parameter-free optimization algorithm for flood routing**

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13
14 **Abstract**

15 The Muskingum model is a popular hydrologic flood routing method; however, the accurate
16 estimation of Muskingum model parameters is a critical task in the successful and precise
17 implementation of flood routing. Evolutionary and metaheuristic optimization algorithms
18 (EMOAs) are well suited for parameter estimation associated with various complex models
19 including the nonlinear Muskingum model. Among EMOAs, teaching-learning-based
20 optimization (TLBO) is a relatively new parameterless metaheuristic optimization algorithm,
21 inspired by the relationship between teacher and students in a classroom to improve the overall
22 knowledge of a topic in a class. This paper presents an application of TLBO to estimate
23 Muskingum model parameters by minimizing the prediction error of outflow measurements.
24 Several examples evaluate and confirm the successful performance of TLBO for the estimation
25 of Muskingum-routing parameters precisely. The results show TLBO-Muskingum's high

26 accuracy for estimating accurately Muskingum's parameters based on the Nash-Sutcliffe
27 Efficiency (NSE) to evaluate the TLBO's predictive skill with benchmark problems.

28 **Key words:** Teaching-learning-based optimization (TLBO) algorithm; Flood routing; Parameter
29 estimation; Muskingum model; Optimization; Nash-sutcliffe efficiency.

30 **Introduction**

31 Hydrograph routing is a technique used to simulate the changes in the shape of a flood
32 hydrograph as water moves through a river channel or a reservoir. Hydrograph routing methods
33 can be classified into two groups, hydraulic and hydrologic models (Aboutalebi et al. 2016a).
34 Hydraulic models such as HEC-RAS (Hydrologic Engineering Center River Analysis System)
35 and MIKE11 are relatively complex models compared with hydrologic routing models and
36 require solving the continuity, the energy and/or the momentum equations. Hydraulic routing
37 models, in addition, require detailed data on river geometry and Manning's roughness coefficient
38 whose determination is time consuming and expensive. On the other hand, hydrologic routing
39 models, such as the Muskingum model, are popular because of their simplicity, even though
40 hydraulic routing methods are more accurate and have a physically-based foundation. Yet, the
41 calibration of hydrologic models improves their accuracy to acceptable levels (Chow et al.
42 1988). The Muskingum model features storage-time parameter (K), dimensionless river reach
43 weighting factor (χ), and dimensionless nonlinear flood wave parameter (m). These parameters
44 have been estimated with mathematical techniques and evolutionary or meta-heuristic algorithms
45 (Geem, 2011).

46 Among the mathematical techniques one can cite the segmented least-squares method (S-
47 LSM) by Gill (1978), univariate least squares (ULS) by Heggen (1984), least squares (LS) by
48 Aldama (1990), the nonlinear least-squares method (N-LSM) by Yoon and Padmanabhan (1993),

49 feasible sequential quadratic programming (Kshirsagar et al., 1995), the Lagrange multiplier
50 (LM) method by Das (2004), the Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shannon (BFGS) technique by
51 Geem (2006), the Newton-type trust region algorithm (NTRA) by Sheng et al. (2014). These
52 mathematical techniques, and others not cited, have been applied to provide an estimation of the
53 nonlinear form of the Muskingum model parameters. These techniques are straightforward; yet,
54 they are computationally burdensome and are commonly trapped into local optima. Moreover,
55 the performance of the mathematical techniques frequently depends on the quality of an initial
56 search point: if the initial search point is not near the unknown global solution, there is a high
57 probability that the optimization technique will converge to a local optimum, which is undesired.

58 Among the evolutionary or metaheuristic optimization algorithms ((EMOAs) one finds
59 the genetic algorithm (GA) by Mohan (1997), harmony search (HS) by Geem et al. (2000) and
60 by Kim et al. (2001), the ant colony algorithm (ACA) by Zhan and Xu (2005), the gray-encoded
61 accelerating genetic algorithm (GEAGA) by Chen and Yang (2007), particle swarm optimization
62 (PSO) by Chu and Chang (2009), the immune clonal selection algorithm (ICSA) by Luo and Xie
63 (2010), the parameter setting free harmony search (PSF-HS) algorithm by Geem (2011), the
64 imperialist competitive algorithm (ICA) by Tahershamsi and Sheikholeslami (2011), multi-
65 objective particle swarm optimization (MOPSO) by Azadnia and Zahraie (2011), differential
66 evolution (DE) by Xu et al. (2012), a combination of the simulated annealing (SA) algorithm and
67 hybrid harmony search algorithm (HHS) by Karahan et al. (2013), modified honey-bee mating
68 optimization (MHBMO) algorithm by Niazkar and Afzali (2015), the backtracking search
69 algorithm (BSA) by Yuan et al. (2016), PSO for a new form of Muskingum (four-parameter
70 Muskingum model proposed by Easa (2014)) by Moghaddam et al. (2016), hybrid modified
71 honey-bee mating (HMHBM) algorithm by Niazkar and Afzali (2017), bat algorithm (BA) by

72 Farzin et al. (2018), wolf pack algorithm (WPA) by Bai et al. (2018), shark algorithm (SA) by
73 Farahani et al. (2019), and others. These algorithms have been applied to estimate the three
74 parameters of the nonlinear form of the Muskingum parameters (K , χ , and m). They achieve an
75 acceptable accuracy in the estimation of Muskingum parameters that are near global optima.
76 However, these algorithms must be pre-calibrated to assure their computational efficiency and
77 accuracy. Therefore, the calibration of the three-parameter non-linear Muskingum model with
78 the GA, which has at least four parameters (the number of populations, the mutation and cross-
79 over rates, and the stopping criteria's parameter), turns into a calibration of two sets of
80 parameters, three for the routing model and those of the optimization algorithm. Other
81 limitations of evolutionary algorithms in water resources applications have been discussed in
82 Aboutalebi et al. (2015, 2016a, 2016b and 2016c) and Garousi-Nejad et al. (2016a and 2016b).

83 This study overcomes the limitations of the mathematical search techniques and the
84 calibration of evolutionary algorithmic parameters by introducing teaching-learning-based
85 optimization (TLBO) (Rao et al., 2011) to estimate the parameters of the nonlinear Muskingum
86 model. TLBO is a metaheuristic search algorithm with the significant merit that it does not
87 involve algorithmic parameters. In other words, its application does not require a pre-calibration
88 process which leads to fast and efficient estimation of parameters. Model outputs obtained with
89 optimization algorithms are highly sensitive to the algorithms' calibrated parameters values, thus
90 implying time-consuming computations to calibrate the algorithmic parameters appropriately.
91 TLBO does not require optimizing algorithmic parameters, which constitutes a significant
92 advantage in the implementation of the nonlinear Muskingum model. TLBO is inspired by the
93 teaching and learning processes that occur in educational environments, such as classrooms. The
94 TLBO's efficiency is assessed by applying it to several benchmark problems, relying on the

95 Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency (NSE) as a performance criterion to evaluate the TLBO's accuracy in
 96 outflows measurements predictions.

97 **Methods**

98 **The Nonlinear Muskingum Flood-routing Model**

99 The relation between stream flow and reach storage is nonlinear. Therefore, the original
 100 linear form of the Muskingum flood-routing model has been superseded by the following
 101 continuity and nonlinear Muskingum model, respectively (Tung, 1985; Gill, 1978; and Geem
 102 2011):

$$\frac{dS_t}{dt} = I_t - O_t \quad (1)$$

$$S_t = K[\chi I_t + (1 - \chi)O_t]^m \quad (2)$$

103 where S_t , I , and O_t denote the channel storage (with dimension of L^3) of a river reach, rate of
 104 inflow with dimension of L^3/T to a river reach, and rate of outflow (with dimension of L^3/T) to a
 105 river reach, and respectively, at time t ; K = storage-time constant parameter (with dimension of
 106 $L^{3(1-m)}T^m$); χ = dimensionless weighting factor river reach; m = dimensionless parameter related
 107 to nonlinearity of the flood wave. The following Equation (3) is from Equation (2):

$$O_t = \frac{(S_t / K)^{1/m} - \chi I_t}{1 - \chi} \quad (3)$$

108 Substituting Equation (3) in Equation (1) and taking the derivate of S_t with respect to
 109 time produces:

$$\frac{dS_t}{dt} = I_t - \frac{(S_t / K)^{1/m} - \chi I_t}{1 - \chi} = \frac{I_t - (S_t / K)^{1/m}}{1 - \chi} \quad (4)$$

110 Equation (4) is an ordinary first-order, nonlinear, differential equation that does not have
 111 an analytical solution. Instead, Equation (4) is routinely solved numerically. Regardless of the

112 numerical solution method employed to solve this equation the following conditions are
 113 pertinent: (1) the inflow hydrograph I_t is known, (2) the initial inflow equals the initial
 114 outflow $O_1(=I_1)$. Assumption (2) and Equation (2) imply that $S_1(=KO_1^m)$. Given values of the
 115 Muskingum parameters (K , χ , and m) and applying the numerical discretization of the time
 116 derivative in Equation (4), produces a recursive equation for reach storage S_{t+1} as written in
 117 Equation (5):

$$S_{t+1} = S_t + \Delta t \left(\frac{\Delta S_t}{\Delta t} \right) \quad t = 1, 2, 3, \dots \quad (5)$$

118 in which Δt is the time step of hydrograph simulation. Therefore, the outflow O_t is calculated
 119 with Equation (6):

$$O_{t+1} = \frac{(S_{t+1} / K)^{1/m} - \chi I_{t+1}}{1 - \chi} \quad t = 1, 2, 3, \dots \quad (6)$$

120 The values of the parameters K , χ , and m must be calibrated to achieve accurate outflow
 121 predictions with Equation (6). Parameter calibration and hydraulic prediction can be achieved
 122 efficiently and accurately with EMOAs. The next section describes TLBO for the estimation of
 123 the Muskingum parameters with a novel metaheuristic optimization algorithm.

124 **Teaching-Learning-Based optimization (TLBO)**

125 Teaching-learning-based optimization (TLBO) is a meta-heuristic optimization algorithm
 126 inspired by the swarm intelligence of a population seeking to change from a current situation to
 127 an optimal situation emulating the knowledge improvement of students in a classroom (Rao et
 128 al., 2011). The interesting trait of TLBO is that it does not require algorithmic parameters for its
 129 implementation other than general parameters ubiquitous to all evolutionary optimization
 130 algorithms such as population size and number of iterations. Recall the GA needs crossover and

131 mutation rates, whose values affect the optimization results (Sarzaeim et al, 2018). TLBO does
132 not require any specific parameters. TLBO starts searching for the optimal solution of a well-
133 posed problem with an initial population whose members' scores are the values of the decision
134 variables, such as grades earned by students. TLBO strives to improve the population's quality
135 by means of a "Teaching Phase" and a "Learner Phase" to achieve a solution that is very near the
136 globally optimal solution. A more in-depth description of TLBO can be found in Rao et al.
137 (2011), Rao and Kalyankar (2013), and Sarzaeim et al. (2018).

138 **Linking TLBO to the Muskingum model**

139 Figure 1 depicts the steps of the algorithm applied with TLBO to estimate the
140 Muskingum model parameters. It is seen in Figure 1 the algorithm begins with the generation of
141 the initial population of Muskingum parameters. The flood hydrograph is then simulated with
142 Equations (5) and (6). The values of the objective function for each sequence of scores of earned
143 by the students are calculated following the Muskingum simulation. The third step improves the
144 current population of decision variables (i.e., the estimates of the Muskingum parameters) by
145 calculating the mean value of the objective function and choosing the best solution as the teacher
146 of the population. Afterward, the population of parameters is updated in the teaching phase (by
147 moving the population toward the teachers' sequence of simulated outflows) and the learning
148 phase (i.e., updating the population based on the interaction between the members of the
149 population (students)). The new population of parameters is generated with the modifier operator
150 such that each student (or parameter estimate) starts moving towards the best solution in the
151 population by means of the linear and random base equation (this is the so-called Teacher
152 Phase). In addition, the improvement of the population is guided by the interactions between
153 students using a linear equation based on the difference between their positions (this is the so-

154 called Learner Phase). The Muskingum simulation is repeated with the improved or updated
 155 population and the objective function is re-evaluated. A solution is reported whenever the user-
 156 specified termination criteria are satisfied. Otherwise the iterations involving improvement of the
 157 current population, Muskingum simulation, evaluation of objective functions, and assessment of
 158 the termination criteria are continuing until convergence is achieved.

159 **Results and Discussion**

160 The application of the TLBO in estimating the Muskingum model parameters is
 161 illustrated with two case studies. The first case study is a benchmark problem based on the data
 162 provided by Wilson (1974) and solved by several authors (Gill 1978, Das 2004, Chu and Chang
 163 2009; Barati 2013; Vatankhah 2014; Easa 2015; Bozorg-Haddad et al. 2015) with evolutionary
 164 or meta-heuristic algorithms that estimated the nonlinear Muskingum model’s parameters.

165 The second case study is a flood event that occurred in the River Wye in the United
 166 Kingdom (NERC, 1975). The objective function adopted to evaluate the optimal values of the
 167 Muskingum model’s parameters is the maximization of Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency (NSE), which
 168 is a normalized index of error variance (Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970). NSE is a performance metric
 169 to evaluate the accuracy of model predictions (Sarzaeim et al. 2017; Hoang et al. 2019) as
 170 follow:

$$Max \ NSE = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (O_i - \hat{O}_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N (O_i - \bar{O})^2} \quad t = 1, 2, 3, \dots \quad (7)$$

171 where NSE = Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency, O_i = observed outflow at time interval i , \hat{O}_i = simulated
 172 outflow at time interval i , and \bar{O} = average of observed outflow.

173 The value of *NSE* illustrates the predictability of hydrological models, which provides a
174 value in the range of $(-\infty, 1]$. The closer *NSE* value is to 1, the more accurately the model
175 performs.

176 The observed data and simulated data calculated with the best solutions for the
177 Muskingum parameters from the TLBO for the first and second case studies are listed in Tables
178 1 and 2 for each time step (every 6 hours), respectively. Table 3 lists the optimal values of the
179 parameters calculated by TLBO (K , χ , and m) and the values of the *NSE* as the objective
180 function. It is seen in Table 3 the calculated *NSE* equals 0.99 and 0.94 for the first and second
181 case study respectively, which indicates the high accuracy of TLBO algorithm in simulation of
182 Muskingum model's parameters. Recall that the closer the *NSE* is to 1, the more accurate the
183 model prediction is.

184 Figures 2 and 3 depict in graphical form the observed and simulated hydrographs for case
185 studies 1 and 2, respectively. The simulated outflow hydrographs correspond to the best
186 estimates of the Muskingum parameters. It is seen in Figures 2 and 3 the overall good fit between
187 observations and predictions. Obviously, the accuracy of the TLBO-Muskingum algorithm's
188 predictability is relatively higher for the first benchmark problem. While, in the second case
189 study, the general accuracy is considerable ($NSE = 0.94$) except for the peak outflow. In this
190 case, the simulated measurement is considerably lower than the observed value, indicating that
191 the model may not able to capture the behavior of Muskingum flood routing for peak flows. In
192 order to tackle this issue, the training phase of the optimization algorithm may need longer time
193 series. Furthermore, applying TLBO to four-parameter Muskingum model may lead to better
194 performance of the flood routing in peak flows, which may be considered for the future works.

195 **Concluding remarks**

196 There are many evolutionary optimization algorithms such as the Genetic Algorithm
197 (GA), Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO), and the Firefly Algorithm (FA). These algorithms
198 calculate near optimal solutions for even highly complex problems. Yet, their performance relies
199 on the calibration of algorithmic parameters, for there is no deterministic method for their
200 assignment. The specification of evolutionary algorithmic parameters is commonly guided by
201 experienced gained with similar optimization problems, if available. This paper implemented
202 TLBO to estimate nonlinear 3-Muskingum parameters. TLBO was coupled with a nonlinear
203 Muskingum flood routing model to make optimal predictions of outflow hydrographs by means
204 of K , χ , and m calibration, which is the major challenge in Muskingum application for flood
205 routing purposes. The coupling of TLBO with Muskingum routing bypassed the need for
206 algorithmic optimization parameters, which are not required in TLBO. The results of NSE (0.99
207 and 0.94) demonstrate the effectiveness of TLBO for estimating the parameters values rapidly
208 without requiring recalibrating of the optimizing algorithm parameters. According to the
209 successful of TLBO performance in solving 3-parameter Muskingum model, it is highly
210 recommended to evaluate the TLBO's predictability in solving 4-parameter Muskingum in the
211 future works, which may lead to even better accuracy of Muskingum flood routing.

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215 **Conflict of Interests:**

216 None.

217 **Data Availability Statement (DAS)**

218 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding
219 author upon reasonable request.

220

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355

Table 1. Observed and simulated outflows for the first case study.

i	Time (h)	$O_i(m^3 / s)$	$\hat{O}_i(m^3 / s)$	$(O_i - \hat{O}_i)^2$	$(O_i - \bar{O})^2$
0	0	22.00	22.00	0.00	690.26
1	6	21.00	21.77	0.59	743.80
2	12	21.00	19.91	1.20	743.80
3	18	26.00	20.74	27.67	469.07
4	24	34.00	32.41	2.52	203.71
5	30	44.00	48.02	16.15	18.26
6	36	55.00	60.43	29.53	45.26
7	42	66.00	70.44	19.72	314.26
8	48	75.00	78.12	9.76	714.35
9	54	82.00	82.76	0.58	1137.53
10	60	85.00	84.57	0.18	1348.89
11	66	84.00	82.39	2.60	1276.44
12	72	80.00	78.55	2.09	1006.62
13	78	73.00	73.18	0.03	611.44
14	84	64.00	65.84	3.37	247.35
15	90	54.00	57.88	15.06	32.80
16	96	44.00	48.70	22.06	18.26
17	102	36.00	39.31	10.92	150.62
18	108	30.00	30.89	0.78	333.89
19	114	25.00	24.29	0.51	541.62
20	120	22.00	20.03	3.89	690.26
21	126	19.00	19.31	0.10	856.89
sum	-	-	-	169.31	12*222.36

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Table 2. Observed and simulated outflows for the second case study.

i	Time (hr)	$O_i(m^3 / s)$	$\hat{O}_i(m^3 / s)$	$(O_i - \hat{O}_i)^2$	$(O_i - \bar{O})^2$
0	0	102.00	102.00	0.00	26110.76
1	6	140.00	171.37	984.36	15274.05
2	12	169.00	129.60	1551.97	8946.93
3	18	190.00	219.44	866.95	5415.23
4	24	209.00	189.89	365.35	2979.88
5	30	218.00	180.26	1424.53	2078.29
6	36	210.00	197.97	144.61	2871.70
7	42	194.00	172.79	450.00	4842.52
8	48	172.00	155.64	267.73	8388.40
9	54	149.00	110.41	1489.18	13130.46
10	60	136.00	148.17	148.06	16278.76
11	66	228.00	172.98	3027.29	1266.52
12	72	303.00	251.59	2643.48	1553.29
13	78	366.00	302.30	4057.67	10488.17
14	84	456.00	480.43	596.76	37022.29
15	90	615.00	764.70	22411.35	123490.23
16	96	830.00	801.86	791.78	320822.29
17	102	969.00	741.45	51778.15	497605.76
18	108	665.00	637.53	754.83	161131.40
19	114	519.00	568.66	2465.92	65235.17
20	120	444.00	453.41	88.48	32548.40
21	126	321.00	333.33	152.12	3296.11
22	132	208.00	219.50	132.26	3090.05
23	138	176.00	129.19	2191.33	7671.70
24	144	148.00	112.42	1265.98	13360.64
25	150	125.00	97.45	759.10	19206.70
26	156	114.00	90.45	554.78	22376.64
27	162	106.00	87.21	353.18	24834.05
28	168	97.00	77.42	383.22	27751.64
29	174	89.00	74.86	200.00	30481.05
30	180	81.00	71.03	99.49	33338.46
31	186	76.00	69.17	46.64	35189.35
32	192	71.00	64.23	45.81	37090.23
33	198	66.00	61.68	18.65	39041.11
sum	-	-	-	102'510.99	1'654'208.24

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Table 3. Muskingum model parameters and calculated objective functions.

Case study	Muskingum model parameters			Objective function
	K	χ	m	NSE
The first case study	0.0703	0.1895	2.1339	0.99
The second case study	0.0103	0.2221	2.1493	0.94

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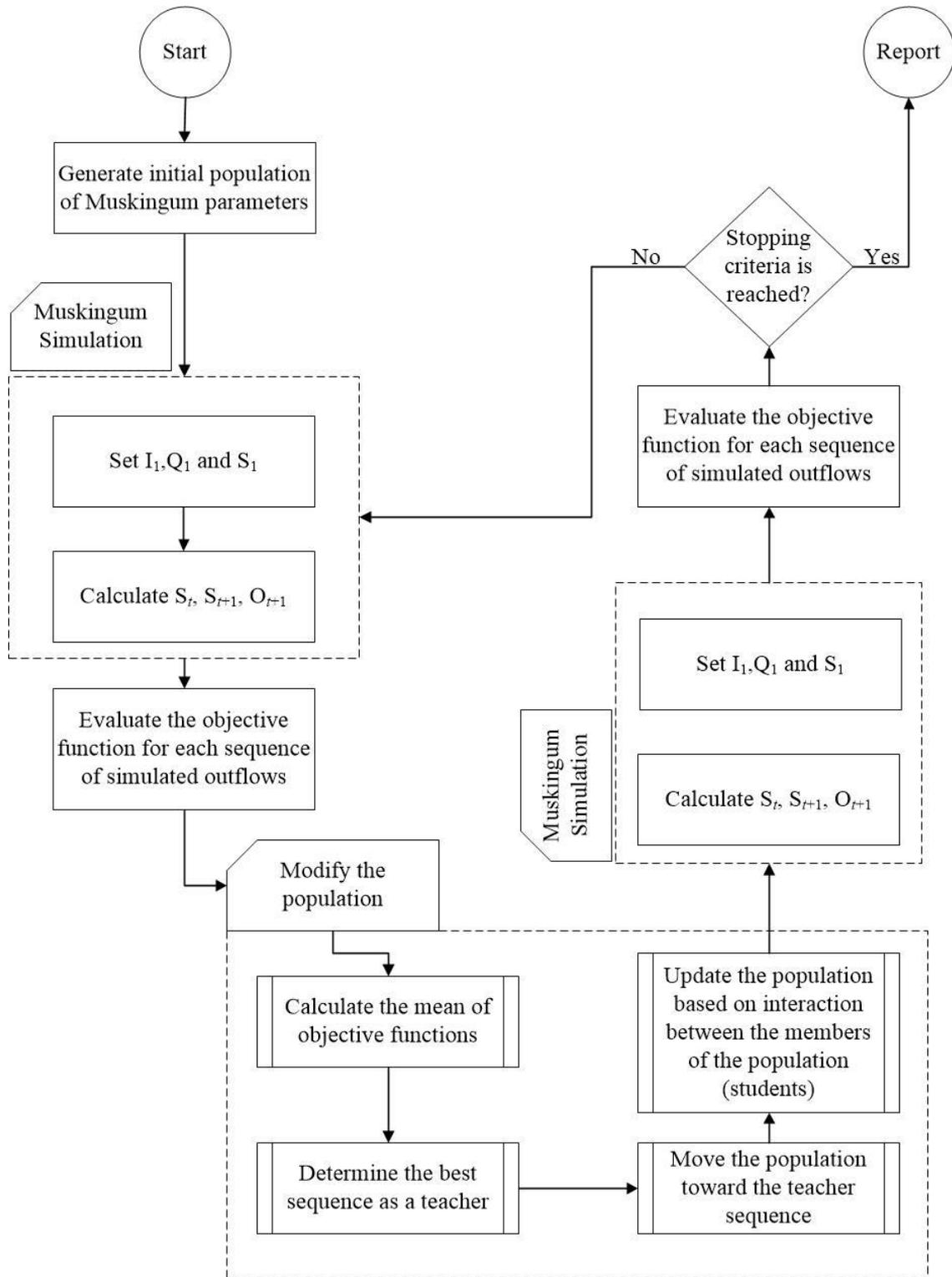
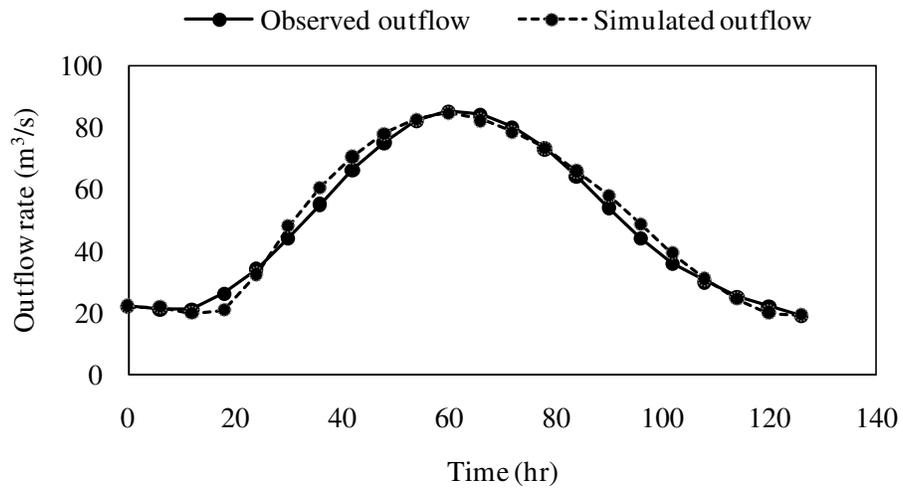
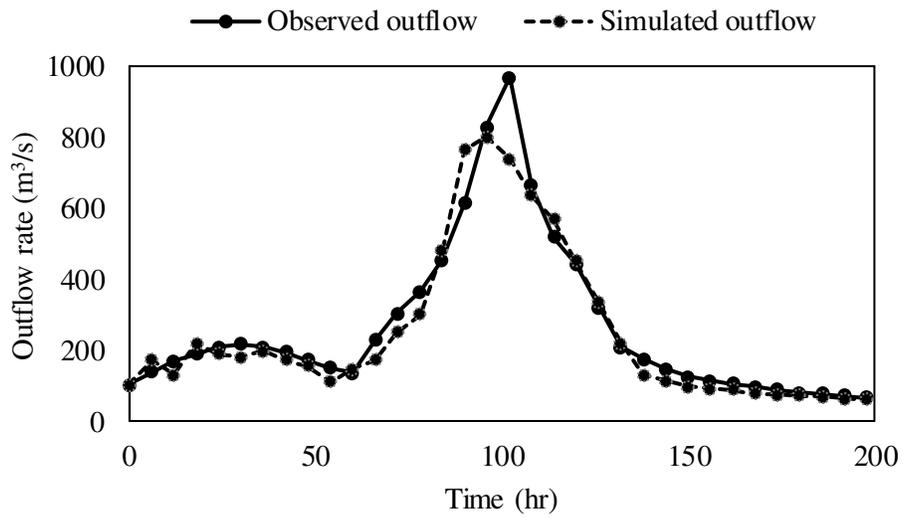


Figure 1. The flowchart the algorithm linking TLBO to the Muskingum model (string: sequence of predictions)



363 **Figure 2.** Hydrograph simulated with the parameters calculated by TLBO versus observed hydrograph for
 364 the first case study,

365



367 **Figure 3.** Hydrograph simulated with the parameters calculated by TLBO versus observed hydrograph for
368 the second case study.

Figures

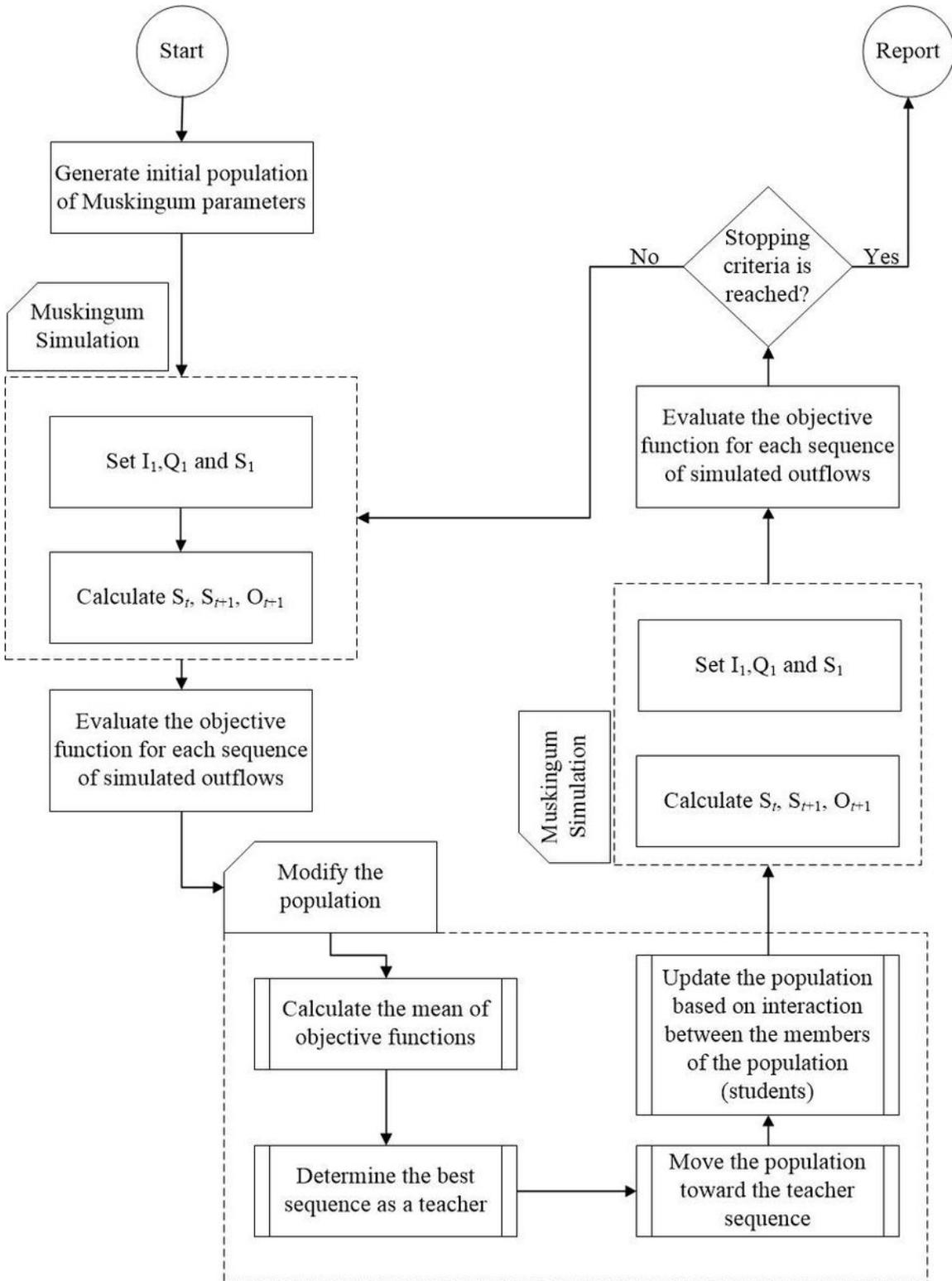


Figure 1

The flowchart the algorithm linking TLBO to the Muskingum model (string: sequence of predictions)

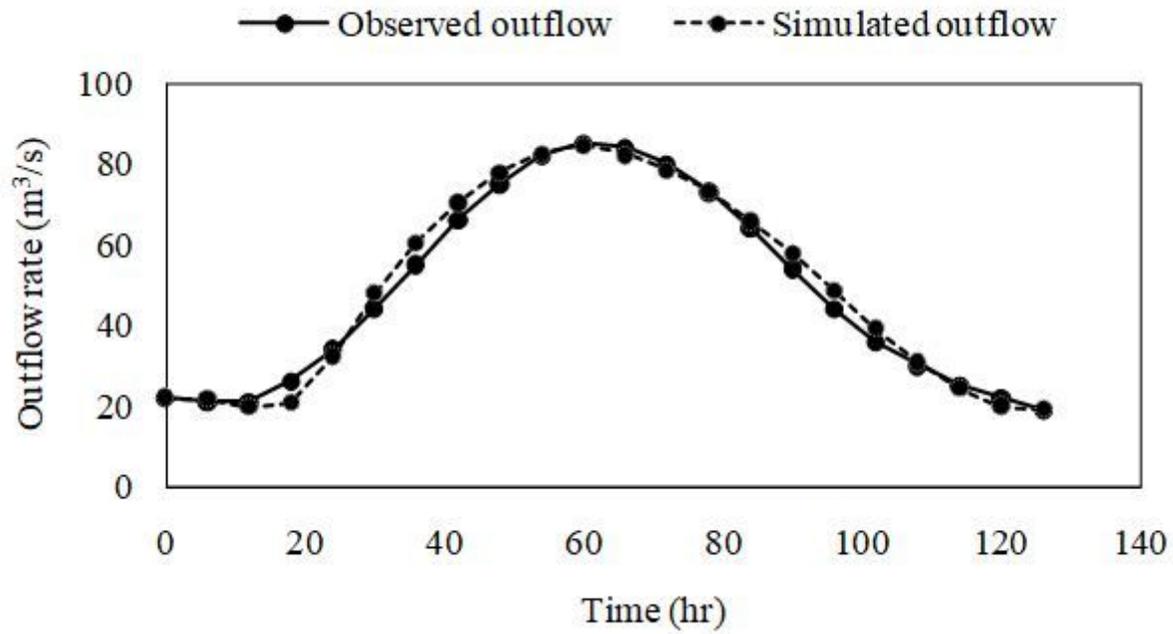


Figure 2

Hydrograph simulated with the parameters calculated by TLBO versus observed hydrograph for the first case study,

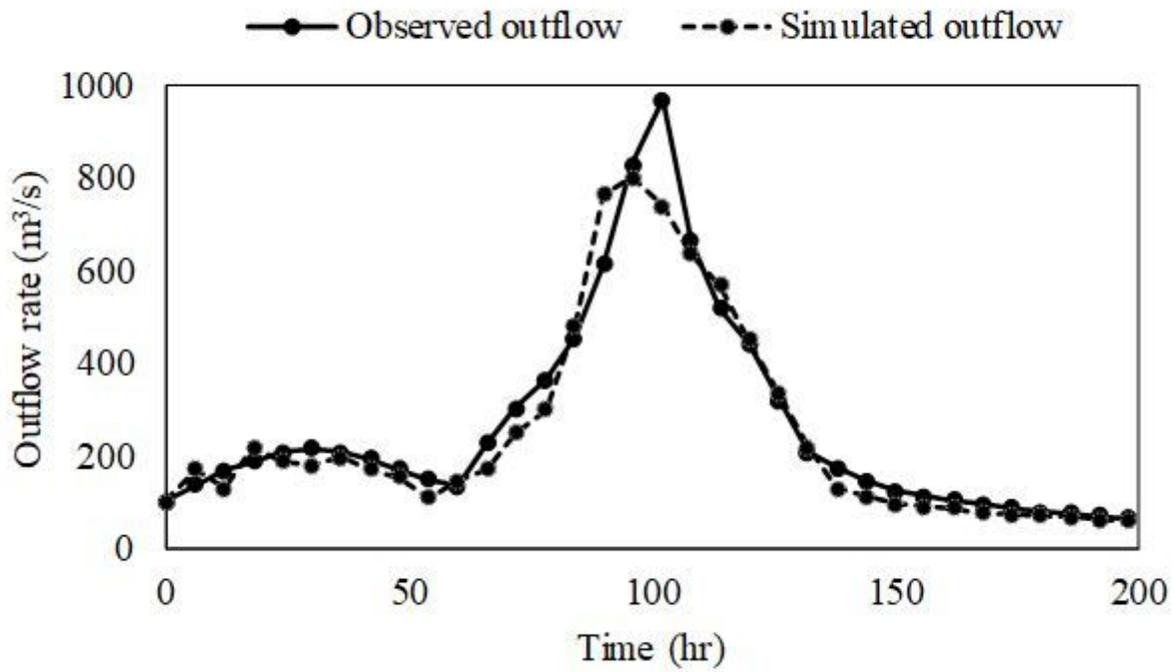


Figure 3

Hydrograph simulated with the parameters calculated by TLBO versus observed hydrograph for the second case study.