

Synthetic Stream-Flow Generation with Deseasonalized ARMA Model

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ABSTRACT

Time series models are used in river hydrology for synthetic generation. The development of such a model, namely deseasonalized Autoregressive Moving Average (ARMA), for generation of decadal (10-day) flows of the Brahmaputra River in Bangladesh is described. The model was fitted following systematic stages of identification, estimation and diagnostic checking of model building. A negative power transformation for the Brahmaputra flow was found to be necessary for model construction. The seasonality of the flow was removed by Fourier analysis using 5 harmonics for decadal means and 13 harmonics for standard deviations. The fitted model was ARMA (1, 3) having one autoregressive parameter and three moving average parameters. The validation forecasts made with the model indicated that the deseasonalized ARMA model could capture the decadal variability of the Brahmaputra flow reasonably well. Two hundred synthetic flow sequences, each with a length of 50 years, were generated using this model to further validate and verify the model. The fitted ARMA model was found to be capable of preserving both short-term statistics (variance and autocorrelation) and long-term statistics (Hurst coefficient and rescaled adjusted range) of the historic Brahmaputra flow.

Keywords: ARMA model; synthetic flow; deseasonalization; Brahmaputra River

1. INTRODUCTION

Time series models are popular and widely used tools in stochastic river hydrology throughout the world, mainly for medium-range forecasting and generation of synthetic flows (McKerchar and Delleur, 1974; Delleur and Kavvas, 1978; Govindasamy, 1991; Hipel and McLeod, 1994; Papamichail and Georgiou, 2001; Mondal and Wasimi, 2005a, 2005b, 2006, 2007a). Synthetic data are now widely used in water resources planning and simulation studies throughout

the developed nations. Typical uses include estimation of command/service area of a water development project/option, sizing of water retention structures, evaluation of risk-based performance indicators for water supply, setting a reservoir/barrage operation policy, etc. Mondal and Wasimi (2007b) and Mondal *et al.* (2010) have recently used two such models in risk-based evaluation of the Ganges and Brahmaputra water developments, respectively, in meeting future water demands within

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Bangladesh. Time series models of univariate and multivariate, periodic and non-periodic, and seasonal and non-seasonal types are in use.

There are a number of commonly used univariate models for seasonal forecasting and data generation, such as exponential smoothing, Markov models, Holt-Winters method, Box-Jenkins multiplicative Seasonal Autoregressive Integrated Moving Average (SARIMA) class of models, deseasonalized models, periodic models, and disaggregation models. The selection of an appropriate model for analyzing a particular problem depends on many factors, such as, number of series to be modeled, modeling costs, required accuracy, ease of use of the models, ease of interpretation of the results, etc. In the published literature (Newbold and Granger, 1974; Hipel and McLeod, 1978; Pankratz, 1983; Chatfield, 1996), it is noted that, when the number of series to be modeled is relatively few and a large expenditure of time and effort can be justified, as in the case of the Brahmaputra River, the Box-Jenkins method (SARIMA) should generally be preferred. This choice is due to its inclusion of a family of models which can be fitted to a wide variety of time series processes. An inherent advantage of the SARIMA family of models is that only few model parameters are required for describing time series which exhibit non-stationarity both within and across seasons. Some useful applications of these models in seasonal river flow forecasting are reported in McKerchar and Delleur (1974), Panu *et al.* (1978), Cline (1981), Govindasamy (1991), Irvine and Eberhardt (1992), Sidhu (1995), Papamichail and Georgiou (2001), Mondal (2005) and Mondal *et al.* (2007).

In the case of SARIMA model, seasonal and/or non-seasonal differencing is applied to remove the intra- and/or inter-year non-stationarity, respectively. Kavvas and Delleur (1975) have shown, both from analytical and empirical

results, that seasonal and/or non-seasonal differencing, although very effective in the removal of hydrologic periodicities, distorts the original spectrum, thus making it impractical or impossible to fit an Autoregressive Moving Average (ARMA) model for hydrologic simulation or synthetic generation. McKerchar and Delleur (1974) and Delleur *et al.* (1976) have also shown that forecasting capabilities of seasonally differenced models may be impaired by the fact that they may not take into account the variation in the seasonal standard deviations. In addition, non-seasonal differencing does not preserve the seasonal structure in forecasting.

When simulation, as well as forecasting, is an objective, another class of hydrologic models called structural models can be used (see for example, Tao and Delleur, 1976; Salas *et al.*, 1981; Vecchia, 1985; Hipel and McLeod, 1994). This class of models is suitable for seasonal hydrologic time series which exhibits an autocorrelation structure that depends not only on the time lag between observations but also on the season of the year, and which except for some random variation possesses second-order stationarity within individual seasons across years (Hipel and McLeod, 1994). There are two types of structural models – deseasonalized and periodic. In deseasonalized modeling, the seasonal component of the time series to be modelled is removed by first subtracting each seasonal mean from the corresponding seasonal observations, and then dividing by the respective seasonal standard deviation (if necessary). An appropriate ARMA model is then fitted to the resulting deseasonalized time series (Lungu and Sefe, 1991; Hipel and McLeod, 1994). In periodic modeling, the model parameters, as well as model types and orders, are allowed to vary depending on the season of the year. The advantage of a periodic model is that it can account for variability in seasonal standard deviations and correlations that a SARIMA

model cannot (Delleur and Kavvas, 1978; Hipel and McLeod, 1994). However, a potential drawback of using a periodic model in an application is that the model often requires the use of a substantial number of parameters.

In this paper, we develop a deseasonalized ARMA model for generation of decadal flow of the Brahmaputra River at Bahadurabad. The necessity for development of such a model emerges due to the fact that available records of the Brahmaputra flow within Bangladesh are of limited lengths for detailed evaluation of options for development of the Brahmaputra water in meeting future water demand in the Brahmaputra Dependent Area.

2. DESEASONALIZED ARMA MODEL

2.1 Formulation, identification, estimation and diagnostic checking

Let $x_{r,s}$ represents a time series value in the r th year and s th season. For decadal data, $s = 1, 2, \dots, 36$. Year and season indices follow modulo s arithmetic such that $x_{r,s} = x_{r \pm m, s \mp 36m}$ for decadal data, where m is any real integer. If the variable $x_{r,s}$ is skewed, then an appropriate transformation may be undertaken to make the transformed series, $y_{r,s}$, approximately normal. After transformation, the seasonal mean is removed from the series $y_{r,s}$ by subtracting the seasonal mean $\mu^{(s)}$ from each observation and then dividing the result by the corresponding seasonal standard deviation $\sigma^{(s)}$. Seasonal means and standard deviations can be obtained by parametric or non-parametric analysis. The non-parametric method requires many parameters to remove seasonality, particularly when a time series is weekly or decadal. The problem of requiring many parameters can be overcome by using the parametric method, which is based on the Fourier series approach (see Salas *et al.*, 1988).

The parametric representation of $\mu^{(s)}$, denoted in general as $\hat{\mu}^{(s)}$, can be obtained by:

$$\hat{\mu}^{(s)} = \bar{\mu} + \sum_{i=1}^h [A_i \cos(2\pi i s / S) + B_i \sin(2\pi i s / S)] \quad (1)$$

where $\bar{\mu}$ is the mean of $\mu^{(s)}$, A_i and B_i are the Fourier series coefficients, i is the harmonic, and h is the total number of harmonics which is equal to $S/2$ when S is even and $(S-1)/2$ when S is odd. For instance, a decadal series has $S=36$ and $h=18$. The Fourier coefficients are determined by:

$$A_i = \frac{2}{S} \sum_{s=1}^S \mu^{(s)} \cos(2\pi i s / S) \quad \text{and}$$

$$B_i = \frac{2}{S} \sum_{s=1}^S \mu^{(s)} \sin(2\pi i s / S) \quad , i = 1, 2, \dots, h \quad (2)$$

When S is even, the last coefficients A_h and B_h are given by:

$$A_h = \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^S \mu^{(s)} \cos(2\pi h s / S) \quad \text{and} \quad B_h = 0 \quad (3)$$

When $\hat{\mu}^{(s)}$ of equation (1) is determined using all the harmonics $i = 1, 2, \dots, h$, (i.e. all the coefficients A_i and B_i), $\hat{\mu}^{(s)}$ is exactly the same as $\mu^{(s)}$ for all values of $s = 1, 2, \dots, S$.

To find out the required number of harmonics, and corresponding Fourier coefficients, necessary for a good fit in equation (1), a cumulative periodogram test, which is a graphical test, is usually conducted. This test is the most accurate for selecting the number of significant harmonics (Salas *et al.*, 1988). The test is carried out by computing first the mean squared deviation (MSD) of $\mu^{(s)}$ around $\bar{\mu}$:

$$MSD(\mu) = \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^S (\mu^{(s)} - \bar{\mu})^2 \quad (4)$$

MSD (μ) is composed of the MSD (i) of each harmonic i , which is determined by:

$$MSD(i) = \frac{1}{2}(A_i^2 + B_i^2), i = 1, 2, \dots, h \quad (5)$$

After computation of all the values of MSD (i), they are arranged in descending order so that MSD (h_i) represents the ordered sequence, h_1 being the harmonic with the highest MSD and h_h with the lowest MSD. P_i , which is the ratio of the sum of the first i MSDs to the MSD (μ), is then computed from:

$$P_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^i MSD(h_j)}{MSD(\mu)}, i = 1, 2, \dots, h \quad (6)$$

The plot of P_i versus i is called the cumulative periodogram, which is composed of two distinct parts: a faster increasing periodic part and a slower increasing sampling part. The two parts are approximated by two smooth curves, the intersecting point of which provides the number of significant harmonics.

Let the deseasonalized series be written as:

$$z_t = z_{r,s} = \frac{y_{r,s} - \mu^{(s)}}{\sigma^{(s)}} \quad (7)$$

where $t = 1, 2, \dots, n$ and n is the number of observations. An ARMA model is then fitted to the deseasonalized time series z_t . The general equation of the ARMA model (Box *et al.*, 1994) for a variable z_t is given by:

$$\phi_p(B)z_t = \theta_q(B)a_t \quad (8)$$

where the polynomials $\phi_p(B)$ and $\theta_q(B)$ are autoregressive (AR) and moving average (MA) operators of order p and q , respectively, i.e.,

$$\phi_p(B) = (1 - \phi_1 B - \phi_2 B^2 - \dots - \phi_p B^p) \text{ and } \theta_q(B) = (1 - \theta_1 B - \theta_2 B^2 - \dots - \theta_q B^q) \quad (9)$$

a_t is a stochastic random shock component with zero mean, constant variance and no serial correlation (i.e., white noise).

The model selection process consists of three iterative stages: (i) model identification, (ii)

model parameter estimation, and (iii) diagnostic checking of the model residuals. A detailed description of each of these stages can be found in Box *et al.* (1994). In the identification stage, the orders of AR and MA parameters are chosen from the autocorrelation function (ACF) and partial autocorrelation function (PACF) of the variable z_t . In the estimation stage, maximum likelihood estimates of different model parameters are obtained. Stationarity and invertibility conditions of the AR and MA parameters, respectively, are checked at this stage. Mathematical definitions and physical interpretations of stationarity of AR and invertibility of MA parameters can be found in Delleur and Kavvas (1978), Vandaele (1997), and others. There are some additional statistical tools, such as Akaike Information Criterion (AIC, Akaike, 1974) and Bayes Information Criterion (BIC, Schwartz, 1978), which can be used to select the best model from several possible models.

In the diagnostic checking stage, a decision is made whether the selected model from the estimation stage is statistically adequate. For this, the model residuals are checked to determine whether they satisfy the assumptions of independence, normality, and homoscedasticity (constant variance). The most important of these assumptions is that, the random shocks from the estimated model are independent. Residual ACF is the basic analytical tool to test the null hypothesis of white noise residuals through either t - or χ^2 -test (Box and Pierce, 1970; Ljung and Box, 1978). Box *et al.* (1994) have further suggested the cumulative periodogram test for the detection of periodic patterns in a background of white noise.

The hypothesis that a given time series is normal can be tested through normal probability plot, detrended normal plot, Shapiro-Wilk test (Shapiro and Wilk, 1965), Lilliefors test

(Lilliefors, 1967), χ^2 -test, skewness test (Salas *et al.*, 1988), etc. To check for violations of equality-of-variance assumption, scatter-plot of residuals against fitted values can be produced. If the spread of the residuals does not appear to be increasing or decreasing with the magnitude of the fitted values, the assumption of constant variance is met. Some informal techniques, such as, time series plot of residuals, over-fitting of the selected model and fitting models to subsets of data, often provide valuable information on adequacy of the model and reveal important clues on how an inadequate model can be reformulated. When the model residuals pass all these checks, the model is considered statistically adequate. In a situation where a model fails to pass any of the checks, the model is reformulated by changing its form/order or by choosing an appropriate data transformation, such as Box-Cox transformation (Box and Cox, 1964).

2.2 Data generation

McLeod and Hipel (1978) developed an exact simulation procedure for the univariate ARMA model and its subsets. They suggested using a theoretically correct variance-covariance structure to initialize the generation process and to avoid systematic bias in the generated sequences. Suppose that it is required to generate N terms of an ARMA (p, q) model with innovations that are NID (0, σ_a^2). The data generation procedure (McLeod and Hipel, 1978) is as follows:

- (1) The theoretical auto-covariance function γ_j for $j = 0, 1, \dots, (p-1)$, is obtained first. For this, the ARMA model is first written in the difference form and then multiplied by z_{t-k} and a_{t-k} , and the resulting equations are solved for γ_j . The notation k indicates a time lag.
- (2) The random shock coefficients ψ_j for $j = 1, 2, \dots, (q-1)$, is then determined by equating the coefficients of like powers of B

from both sides of $z_t = \frac{\theta(B)}{\phi(B)} a_t = \psi(B) a_t$.

(3) The variance-covariance matrix Δ of $z_p, z_{p-1}, \dots, z_1, a_p, a_{p-1}, \dots, a_{p-q+1}$ is formed as below:

$$\Delta = \begin{bmatrix} \left(\gamma_{i-j} \right)_{p \times q} & \left(\psi_{j-i} \right)_{p \times q} \\ \left(\psi_{i-j} \right)_{q \times p} & \left(\delta_{i,j} \right)_{q \times q} \end{bmatrix}_{(p+q) \times (p+q)}$$

where the $(i, j)^{th}$ element and dimension of each partitioned matrix are indicated. The values of $\delta_{i,j}$ are 1 or 0 according to whether $i = j$ or $i \neq j$, respectively. When $i - j < 0$, then $\gamma_{i-j} = \gamma_{j-i}$ and $\psi_{i-j} = 0$.

(4) The lower triangular matrix M is determined by Cholesky decomposition or any other matrix method such that

$$\Delta = M M^T$$

where the notation T indicates a matrix transpose.

(5) Two random sequences e_1, e_2, \dots, e_{p+q} and $a_{p+1}, a_{p+2}, \dots, a_N$ are generated, where both e_t and a_t sequences are NID (0, σ_a^2).

(6) A w_t sequence of p terms w_1, w_2, \dots, w_p is calculated from

$$w_{p+1-t} = \sum_{j=1}^t m_{t,j} e_j, \quad t = 1, 2, \dots, p$$

where $m_{t,j}^{j=1}$ is the $(t, j)^{th}$ entry in the matrix M.

(7) A residual sequence of a_t with q terms $a_{p-q+1}, a_{p-q+2}, \dots, a_p$ is determined from

$$a_{p+1-t} = \sum_{j=1}^{p+1} m_{t+p,j} e_j, \quad t = 1, 2, \dots, q$$

(8) Finally, the remaining $(N - p)$ terms, $w_{p+1}, w_{p+2}, \dots, w_N$, of w_t sequence are obtained using

$$w_t = \phi_1 w_{t-1} + \phi_2 w_{t-2} + \dots + \phi_p w_{t-p} + a_t - \theta_1 a_{t-1} - \theta_2 a_{t-2} - \dots - \theta_q a_{t-q}$$

where $t = p + 1, p + 2, \dots, N$

Steps (5) through (8) are repeated for generation of every new series of length N .

3. APPLICATION OF THE MODEL

The Brahmaputra is a major trans-boundary river and contributes about two-thirds of the total dry season flows in Bangladesh. It plays an important role in overall socio-economic development of the country. An application of the above deseasonalized ARMA model was made to the decadal flow of this river at Bahadurabad. Before proceeding to the model application, a general description of the Brahmaputra River and its flow characteristics is given.

3.1 The Brahmaputra River

The Brahmaputra River is one of the largest rivers in the world. It originates in the Jima Yangzong glacier near the Mount Kailash in the northern Himalayas. It has a long course for about 1700 km through the dry and flat region of southern Tibet. Throughout this upper course, the river is generally known as the Tsang-Po (FAP 24, 1996a). At its easternmost point, the river bends around the Namcha Barwa peak. As the river enters Arunachal state of India, it is called Siang. The Brahmaputra appears in the Assam valley as the Dihang River. It flows for about 268 km through Arunachal state and 640 km through Assam. The Dihang is joined by the Dibang and the Lohit from the east near Sadiya in northeast Assam. From this point of confluence, the river is called the Brahmaputra. As Brahmaputra, the river flows through the entire stretch of Assam and sweeps round the Garo Hills and enters Bangladesh. In Bangladesh, the Brahmaputra flows southward for nearly 240 km before joining the Ganges at Goalanda (FAP 24, 1996b). Thus the total length of the Brahmaputra River is about 2,848 km, of which about 8.4% lies within Bangladesh.

The catchment area of the river is about 0.55 Mkm² stretching over Tibet, India, Bangladesh and Bhutan, of which about 8% is within Bangladesh (FAP 24, 1996b). However, this 8% is equivalent to about 32% of the area of Bangladesh. A gauge station of the river is located at Bahadurabad, which is at 10 km downstream of the off-take of the Old Brahmaputra. The distance between Bahadurabad and Aricha is about 130 km. The width of the river varies spatially and temporally, and the overall width ranges from 6 to 14 km (FAP 24, 1996b).

3.2 Flow characteristics of the Brahmaputra River

Discharge data of the Brahmaputra are available for Bahadurabad station since April 1956. The data are missing for 18 months (October 1963 to March 1964, and April 1971 to March 1972). Inconsistencies have been detected in the BWDB discharge data for a period of 56 months (August 1988 to March 1993) in the FAP 24 (1996a) report. The data for this period have been replaced with the data derived from the three rating equations suggested in FAP 24 (1996a).

The Brahmaputra flow, on an average, reaches its peak during the second decade of July and trough during the last decade of February. From the second decade of June to the first decade of October, flows are much higher compared to the rest of the year. There is a strong seasonal pattern in the Brahmaputra flow, so the flow is intra-year non-stationary.

To check whether or not the flow is inter-year stationary, a total of 36 time series, one for each decade of each month of the year, was plotted. A linear regression line was superimposed on each of these plots. The slopes of the least-squares lines were found to be negative for the periods of May II, May III, Jun III, Aug I and Aug II, and positive for the remaining periods. Thus

the flow has in general increasing trends except some decades in the pre-monsoon and monsoon periods. However, the slopes of the increasing trend lines were generally low. The per year increase was found to vary between 0.10% for the second decade of June to 1.16% for the third decade of November of the respective decadal average flows. The values of the coefficient of determination (R^2) of the trend lines were also low, 0 to 16.6%. Therefore, the small increasing trends found in some decades were ignored in subsequent analyses.

To see whether or not the annual hydrograph of the Brahmaputra River exhibits a trend in the annual peak or trough, the highest and lowest flows of each year were found out from the 365 or 366 daily values. They can be found in Mondal *et al.* (2007). The analysis of the two extreme value series did not indicate the presence of any linear trend in either series. To check if there has been any temporal change in the annual peak and low flows, the dates of occurrences of the highest and lowest water levels were determined for each year. It is found that the median date of occurrence of peak flow is 30 July with a standard deviation of 36 days and the median date of occurrence of the lowest flow is 27 February with a standard deviation of 13 days. Dividing the peak and low flow time series into two halves (each half with a 24-year length), it is found that there is no significant difference in the time of occurrence of either the peak discharge or the low discharge between the two halves of the available periods. Furthermore, no trend is found in the two time series of the dates of occurrences of the highest and lowest flows.

Decadal means and standard deviations of the Brahmaputra flow were found to be approximately proportional (see Mondal *et al.*, 2007). The existence of such proportionality indicates that a power or logarithmic transformation should be applied to the raw data before model construction. This conclusion

is also justified from the fact that the skewness of all months except June and July decreases due to the natural logarithmic transformation as reported in Mondal *et al.* (2007). A common way of investigating the relationship between the average value, or expected level, of a variable and the variability, or spread, associated with it is to plot the values of spread and level for each period. If there is no relationship, the points would cluster around a horizontal line. Otherwise, we can use the observed relationship between the two variables to choose an appropriate transformation. To determine an appropriate power for transforming the data, we can plot, for each period, the logarithm of the median against the logarithm of the inter-quartile range. Figure 1 shows such a plot for the Brahmaputra flow data. We can see that there is a fairly strong linear relationship between spread and level with a R^2 value of about 95%. The slope of the least-squares line is about 1.20, so the power for the transformation is -0.20 . After applying this power transformation, a spread-versus-level plot was again obtained. No further relationship was evident from such a plot.

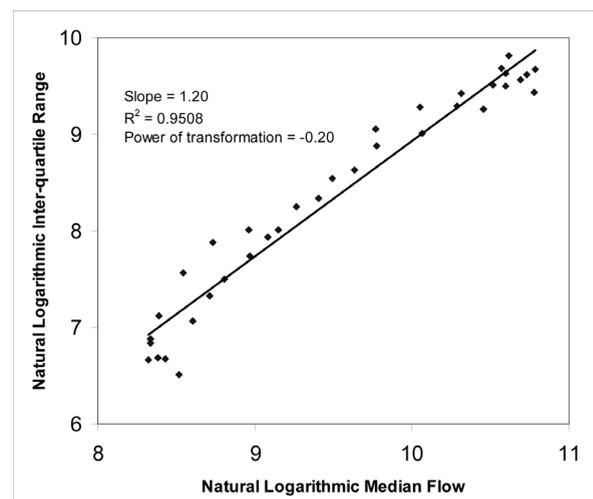


Figure 1: Spread versus level plot of the Brahmaputra flow at Bahadurabad

Normality checks of the negative power transformed data were made with normal

probability plots as well as with tests of normality. Both Kolmogorov-Smirnov's test with Lilliefors significance correction (Lilliefors, 1967) and Shapira-Wilk's test (Shapira and Wilk, 1965) indicated that the power transformation improved the normality of the data significantly. The box-and-whisker plot and the stem-and-leaf plot (Tukey, 1977) also indicated that the number of outliers/extremes reduces due to the transformation. Therefore, the negative power transformed data were used for model building in the following sections.

3.3 Fitting Deseasonalized ARMA model to the Brahmaputra flow

To fit a deseasonalized ARMA model, the decadal mean was subtracted from each decadal observation. The result was then divided by the corresponding decadal standard deviation to obtain the deseasonalized series. The 36 decadal means and 36 decadal standard deviations for the transformed decadal flows were obtained by the parametric method. The first 5 and 13 harmonics were found to be significant for the decadal means and standard deviations, respectively. To identify the significant harmonics, the graphical criterion of separating the harmonics into the periodic and sampling variation parts from the plot of the cumulative periodogram, as outlined earlier, was followed. Figure 2 shows the cumulative periodogram for the decadal means.

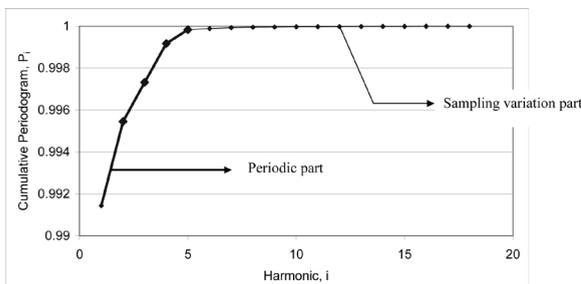


Figure 2: Separation of the cumulative periodogram of decadal means into two parts: periodic (significant) and sampling variation (insignificant)

After removal of the seasonal component, autocorrelations and partial autocorrelations at different lags of the deseasonalized series were estimated and are given in Figure 3. It is seen

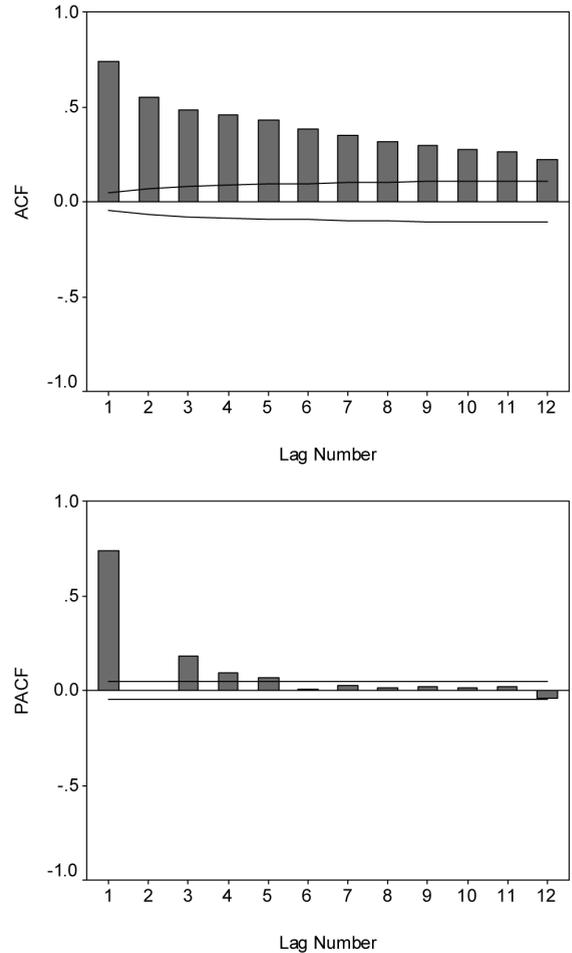


Figure 3: ACF and PACF along with the 95% confidence limits of the deseasonalized, power transformed decadal flow of the Brahmaputra River at Bahadurabad

from the figure that the ACF has an exponentially decaying pattern and the PACF has significant values until lag 5, except for lag 2, with also a decaying pattern. These patterns indicate that the model can be a mixed model having both AR and MA parameters. After a few iterations, the model that appeared to be suitable was ARMA (1, 3). The estimated parameters of the fitted model are given in Table 1. It is seen from the last column of the table that three parameters

Table 1: Estimated values, standard errors, t-statistics, etc. of different parameters of the deseasonalized ARMA (1, 3) model

Parameter	Estimated Value	Standard Error of Estimate	t-ratio	Approximate Probability
$\hat{\phi}_1$	0.92880	0.01557	59.64	0.000
$\hat{\theta}_1$	0.20725	0.02908	7.13	0.000
$\hat{\theta}_2$	0.28031	0.02773	10.11	0.000
$\hat{\theta}_3$	0.05052	0.02651	1.91	0.057

Note: The model had residual variance, standard error, log-likelihood, AIC and BIC values of 0.4193, 0.6475, -1680, 3368 and 3389, respectively, in the deseasonalized scale.

($\hat{\phi}_1$, $\hat{\theta}_1$ and $\hat{\theta}_2$) are significant at a 1% level of significance and the remaining parameter ($\hat{\theta}_3$) is significant at a 10% level of significance.

The residual ACF of the above ARMA model is shown in Figure 4, which does not give any indication of non-whiteness of the model residuals. The cumulative periodogram of the residuals is shown in Figure 5. This figure does not show any periodic pattern in the model residuals. The fitted deseasonalized ARMA model can be expressed with the following equation:

$$(1 - 0.92880B)z_t = (1 - 0.20725B - 0.28031B^2 - 0.05052B^3)\hat{a}_t \quad (10)$$

where z_t is the parametrically deseasonalized power transformed decadal flow of the Brahmaputra River. The total number of

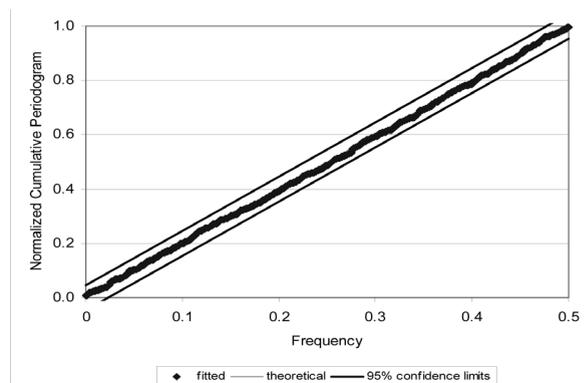


Figure 5: Cumulative periodogram with the 95% large-sample confidence limits for the residuals of the deseasonalized ARMA model

parameters in the deseasonalized ARMA model is 23 (5 harmonics for decadal means and 13 for standard deviations, 1 AR coefficient, 3 MA coefficients, and 1 residual variance).

3.4 Model validation

To evaluate the performance of the model, validation forecasts were generated from the model. The procedures of forecast generation from the model are described in Mondal *et al.* (2007). The parameters of the model were estimated with the data up to February 1997 and the model was validated with the data from March 1997 to February 2005 using one-step-ahead validation forecasts. One-step-ahead validation forecasts from the deseasonalized ARMA (1, 3) model along with the observed

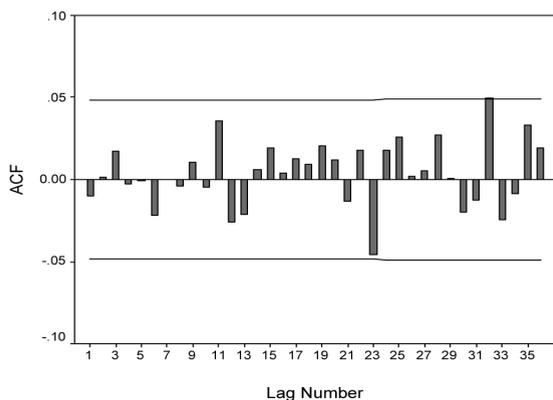


Figure 4: The residual ACF along with the 95% confidence limits of the fitted deseasonalized ARMA model

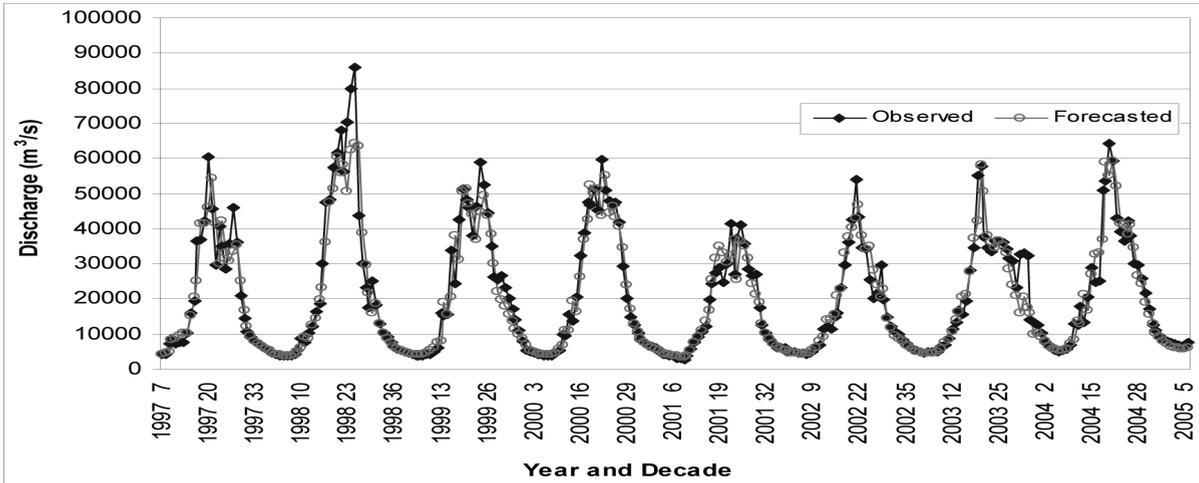


Figure 6: One-step-ahead forecasted flows along with the observed flows from the first decade of March 1997 to the last decade of February 2005

flows are given in Figure 6. It is seen from the figure that the fitted model captures the observed decadal pattern of the Brahmaputra flow reasonably well. The model performs very well during the dry season for which synthetic flow would basically be required.

To check how a disturbance in the current time period affects the current and future flows, the deseasonalized ARMA model was written in random shock form and the shock coefficients were estimated. A plot of the coefficients against lead time is shown in Figure 7. It is evident from the figure that a disturbance in a decade of a year has the most influence on flow of that decade

of that year. The influence of the disturbance on future flows reduces with the increase in lead time. This is also understandable from a physical point of view. For example, if there is some rain in a time period, this rain will have the most influence on the current time period river flow. The effect of rain on river flow will decrease gradually as time passes away. This physical explanation of the behavior of the deseasonalized ARMA model gives it a strong basis for use in river hydrology. The RMSE and MAE of the one-step-ahead forecasts are given in Table 2.

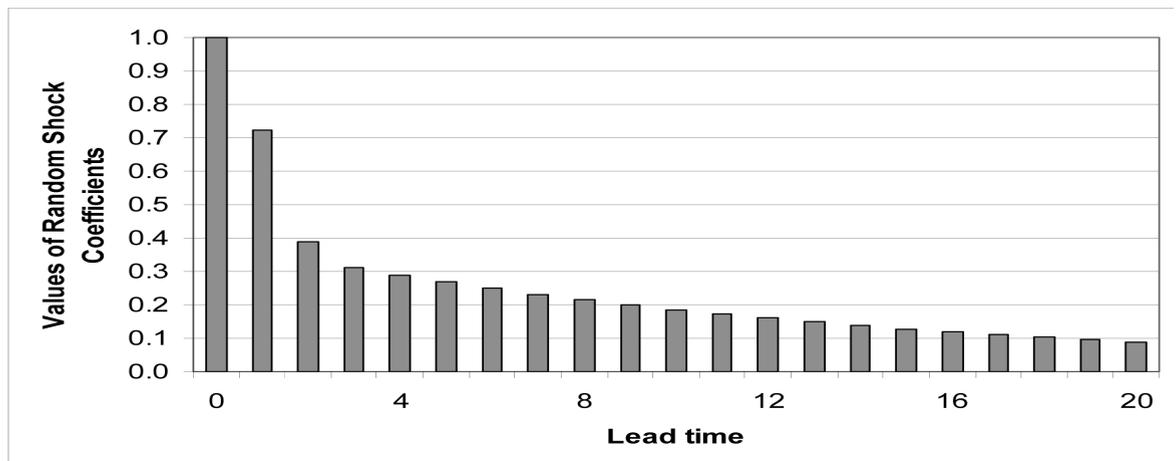


Figure 7: The influence of the current period disturbance on current and future flows

Table 2: RMSE and MAE (m³/s) of one-step-ahead validation forecasts of the deseasonalized ARMA model fitted to the Brahmaputra flow

Decade	RMSE	MAE	Decade	RMSE	MAE
Jan I	729	568	Jul I	6243	4937
Jan II	388	292	Jul II	6830	4934
Jan III	404	269	Jul III	8309	6576
Feb I	406	300	Aug I	8837	7562
Feb II	363	279	Aug II	9612	7826
Feb III	692	412	Aug III	9559	7602
Mar I	367	267	Sep I	8840	5929
Mar II	299	238	Sep II	7940	5248
Mar III	962	659	Sep III	5876	4537
Apr I	1898	1175	Oct I	4923	4276
Apr II	1436	1192	Oct II	4339	4052
Apr III	2306	1815	Oct III	4423	3423
May I	4443	3269	Nov I	6232	3250
May II	3010	2320	Nov II	4718	2407
May III	2516	1874	Nov III	5396	2689
Jun I	6699	5649	Dec I	1179	792
Jun II	8038	6014	Dec II	1379	798
Jun III	7203	5766	Dec III	831	595

4. GENERATION OF SYNTHETIC FLOWS

The fitted deseasonalized ARMA model was employed to generate decadal flows of the Brahmaputra River. The general algorithm described earlier for exact simulation with an ARMA model was used for the data generation. Portable independent normal variables, e 's, required in such simulations were generated using the SPSS (1995) package, with different random number seeds for different sequences. Two hundred synthetic traces, each trace with a length of 50 years, were generated with the developed model. For each generated sequence, the variance, and the lag-1 to lag-7 autocorrelations were computed. The mean

values and confidence limits of each of the six parameters were then obtained from the 200 values each, and are given in Column 4 of Table 3.

Stedinger and Taylor (1982) suggested two diagnostics – model verification and validation – in addition to the conventional diagnostic checks to evaluate the adequacy of a stochastic model. According to these authors, model verification is the demonstration that the developed model produces flows with the characteristics predicted by its theoretical prototype. For this test, the theoretical variance γ_0 was obtained by multiplying z_t in equation (7) with z_t and then taking expected values. The theoretical covariance γ_k at lag k was obtained

Table 3: Observed, theoretical and generated variances, and lag-1 to lag-7 autocorrelations, for the deseasonalized decadal flows

Parameter	Observed	Theoretical	Generated
Variance	0.982	0.998	0.977 (0.803 1.151)
Lag-1 autocorrelation	0.741	0.748	0.741 (0.694 0.789)
Lag-2 autocorrelation	0.548	0.562	0.551 (0.472 0.630)
Lag-3 autocorrelation	0.486	0.501	0.490 (0.402 0.577)
Lag-4 autocorrelation	0.459	0.465	0.453 (0.364 0.542)
Lag-5 autocorrelation	0.431	0.432	0.419 (0.327 0.512)
Lag-6 autocorrelation	0.385	0.401	0.388 (0.293 0.482)
Lag-7 autocorrelation	0.347	0.373	0.360 (0.262 0.457)

Note: Values within parentheses in the last column are 95% confidence limits

by multiplying z_t with z_{t-k} and then taking expected values. The solution process involved a total of ten equations with ten unknowns. Both the theoretical and observed variances, and the lag-1 to lag-7 autocorrelations are given in Table 3. It is evident from the table that the theoretical, as well as the observed, values of all the parameters are well inside the 95% confidence limits of generated values. It can therefore be concluded that the generated sequences exhibit short-term characteristics, which are statistically indistinguishable not only from the theoretical prototype but also from the historical observations.

Stedinger and Taylor (1982) described model validation as the demonstration that the generated sequences preserve the long-term

statistics. For this, the Hurst coefficient and Rescaled Adjusted Range (RAR) (Salas *et al.* 1979) were estimated for each of the 200 sequences, as well as for the historical sequence of the Brahmaputra flows. These are reported in Table 4. It is seen from the table that the historical sequence has a Hurst coefficient of 0.669, whereas the generated sequences have an expected value of 0.667 with the 95% large sample confidence limits of 0.587 to 0.747. The observed sequence has a RAR of 90.85, and the generated sequences have a mean value of 95.98 with the 95% large sample confidence limits of 42.79 to 149.17. The probability of exceedence of the historical Hurst coefficient and RAR was found to be 48.0% and 50.5%, respectively. The exceedence probability is

Table 4: Hurst coefficient and Rescaled Adjusted Range (RAR) for both observed and generated flows of the Brahmaputra River

Parameter	Observed	Generated	Exceedence Probability
Hurst coefficient	0.669	0.667 (0.587 0.747)	0.480
RAR	90.85	95.98 (42.79 149.17)	0.505

Note: Values within parentheses in the third column are 95% confidence limits

greater than the usual threshold level of 5% or 10%. Therefore, the developed deseasonalized ARMA model can be considered to have the capability of preserving the important long-term statistics of the Brahmaputra flow. Earlier, fitting ARMA models to a number of different geophysical time series, Hipel and McLeod (1978, 1994), McLeod and Hipel (1978), Salas *et al.* (1988), Mondal (2005) and others have also demonstrated that these models can preserve the long-term statistics.

From the discussions above in this section and also from the results in Tables 3 and 4, it can be concluded that the generated flows with the deseasonalized ARMA model have both short- and long-term statistical characteristics similar to the observed flows. Such flows have already been used in a risk-based evaluation of Brahmaputra water development in meeting future water demand (Mondal *et al.*, 2010). Figure 8 shows one sequence, out of 200 sequences, of the discharge data generated with the ARMA model. Figure 9 shows the plot of a small portion (one year) of the generated data for 5 sequences, so that we can get a view of the sequences together in a plot and have a visual impression about the underlying sampling variability.

5. CONCLUSIONS

A deseasonalized ARMA model is fitted to the decadal (10-day) flow of the Brahmaputra River at Bahadurabad. The basic use of this model is to generate synthetic flows. Comparing the one-step-ahead validation forecasts with the observed flows using graphical plot as well as RMSE and MAE criteria, the deseasonalized ARMA model was found to be suitable for generation of the Brahmaputra flow. Further validation and verification of the model using synthetic flows showed that the ARMA model could preserve the important short- and long-term statistics of the Brahmaputra flow. The

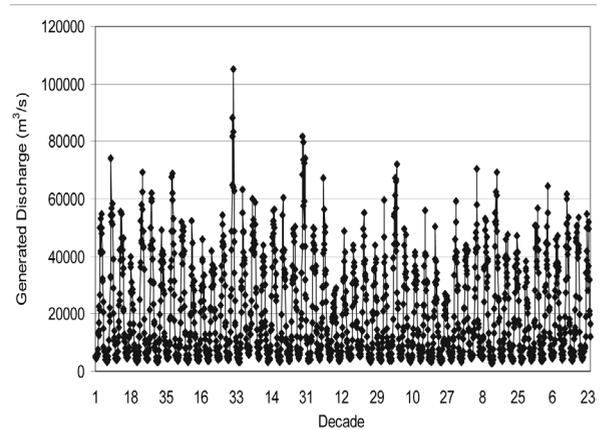


Figure 8: One long time series, out of 200, of generated discharge data

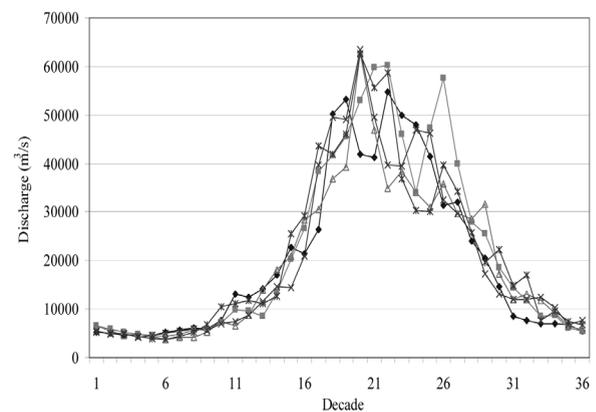


Figure 9: Time series plot of generated data for one year (5 sequences are shown)

fitted model was used to generate 200 synthetic sequences, each of 50-year length, of the decadal Brahmaputra flow. These sequences were used in risk-based evaluation of performance of the proposed Brahmaputra barrage at Bahadurabad in meeting future water demand of the Brahmaputra barrage command area.

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