



MACHINE LEARNING METHODS FOR FORECASTING OCEAN DYNAMICS (SEA LEVEL)

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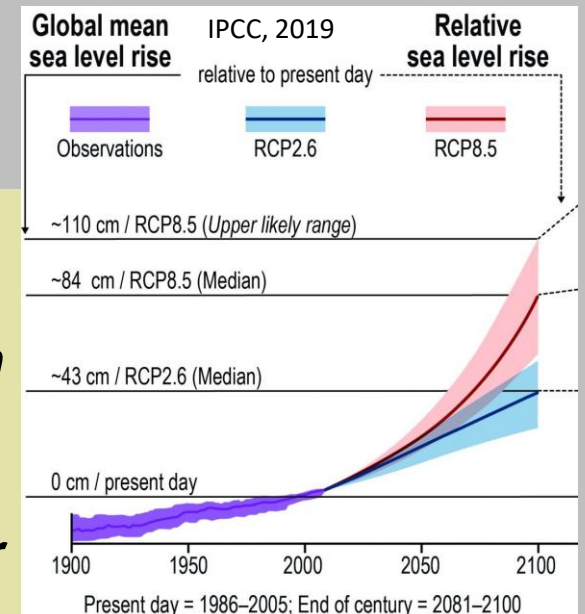
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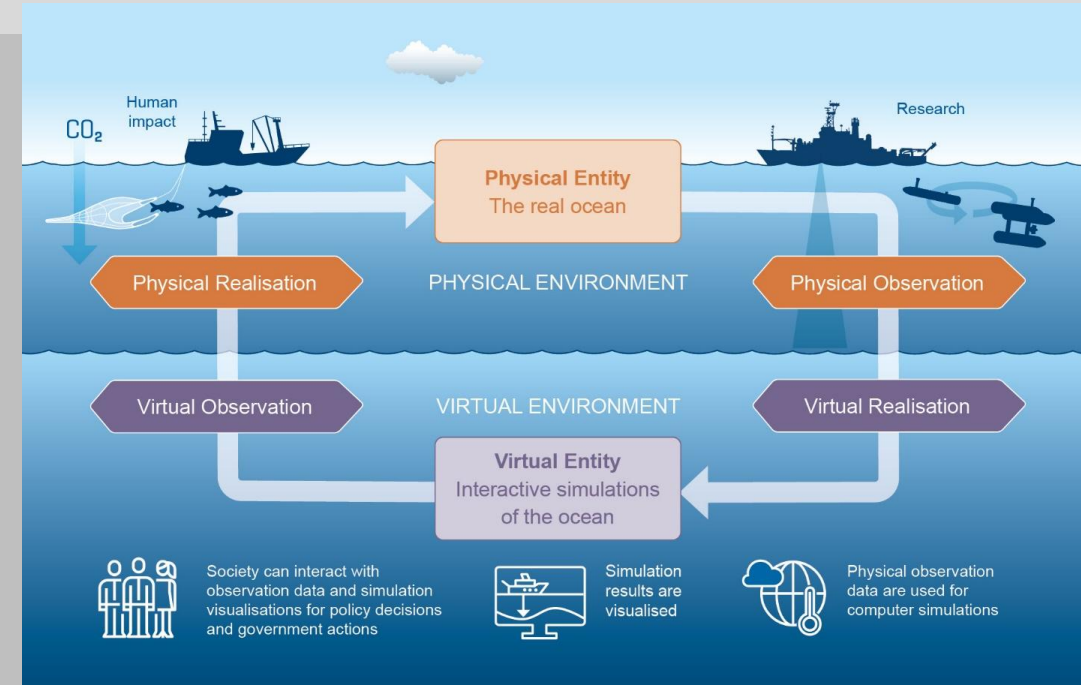
MOTIVATION I

- **Consistent and accurate sea level is a key component for:**
 - Safe navigations, coastal protection, marine engineering, climate change, and coastal city flooding
 - Operational forecasting systems and planning decisions
 - Important for Digital Twin applications
- **Sea level maximas and extremes (SLM)** are a major contributor of coastal flooding, erosion, infrastructure damage etc.
- Based on **climate projections** of IPCC **sea level is rising** and **extremes are expected to increase** with magnitude, frequency and duration
- **This signals the need for adaptation and mitigation solutions**
- **Forecasting of sea level and their extemes are necessity both on the short-term and the long terms perspective.**
- **Machine and deep learning (ML/DL) approaches can be utilized for some of these solutions**



MOTIVATION II: MACHINE LEARNING AND DEEP LEARNING

- Massive data sets (satellites, in-situ, models)
- Due to **advancements in computing technology** (language processing, computational power, etc.), machine learning (ML)/Deep learning (DL) algorithms have been widely **acknowledged** as robust tools in **finding patterns** and **forecasting in various fields** (Zhou et al., 2023).
- Technological change and **need of society** are increasing--→ digital transformation

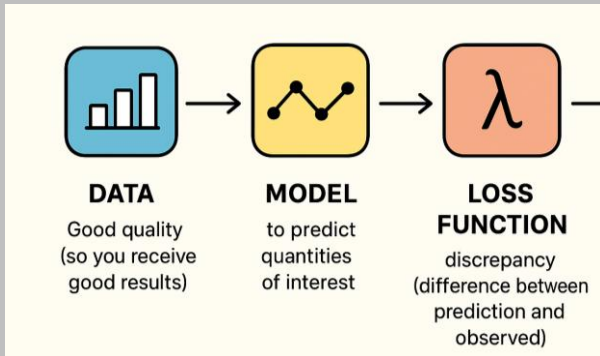


OUTLINE

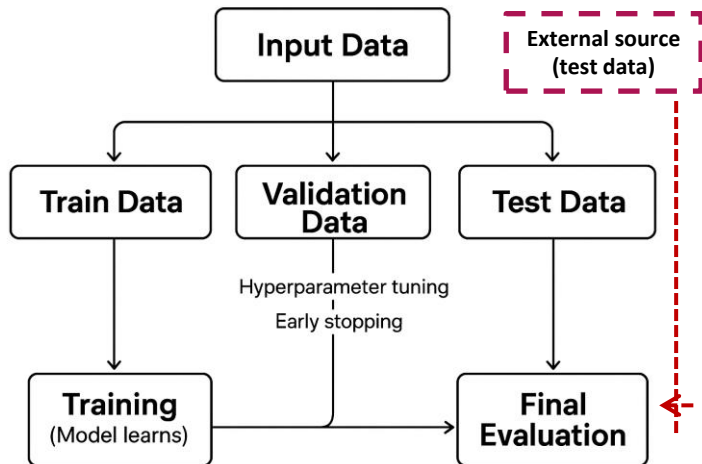
- Background of ML/DL
- Sealevel forecasting in the Baltic Sea
- Extreme sea level forecasting in Baltic Sea
- ML method to improve hydrodynamic model applied to Baltic and Barent Sea

MACHINE LEARNING BACKGROUND

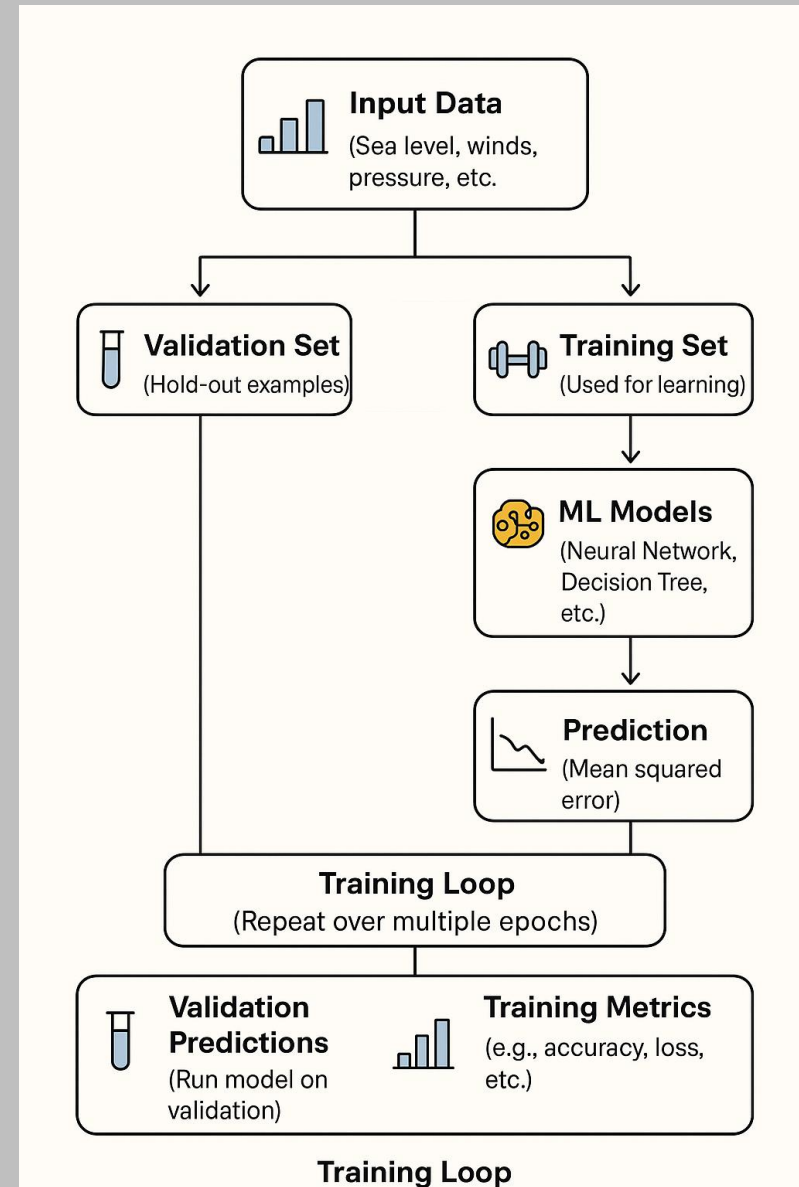
- ML/DL: computer learns to perform tasks based on experience it gains during training.
- Basic components:



- **Data** (as input)
- **A model (i.e a hypothesis):** to predict quantities of interest (model chosen by user)
- **Loss function:** the discrepancy (difference between prediction and observed)
- An iterative approach is used until the loss function is minimum
- Evaluation: test data



Train: fitting parameters of model
Validation: internal (tuning hyperparameters)
Test: final evaluation
External test set: independant source evaluation
Ratio: 70% train, 30% test

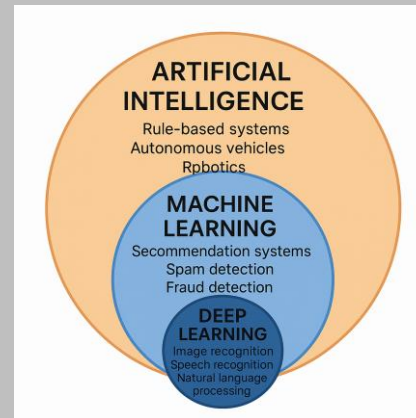


ML COMPONENTS

Component	Role
Input Data	Data source used to train the model; quality heavily impacts performance (e.g hourly sea level data)
Model	Mathematical structure that learns a mapping from input to output.
Prediction	Output of the model (e.g., sea level forecast for 24 hours).
Loss Function	Quantifies the error between predicted value and ground truth.
Ground Truth	The actual correct output (labels) used for comparison.
Optimization	Adjusts the model (weights/parameters) to reduce the loss
Training Loop	Repeated process of prediction → error → update, until model performance is satisfactory.

ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE, MACHINE LEARNING, DEEP LEARNING AND NEURAL NETWORKS

- AI is the main system. Machine learning is a subset of AI. Deep learning is a subfield of machine learning, and neural networks make up the backbone of deep learning algorithms.



- DL is generated in almost the same way as ML, but it has many more levels, so that it attempts to function similar to brain, in that it can take an input, processes it and then make its own intuitive decisions/predictions. This, makes it ideal for large and nonlinear data processing.
- Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) and Recurrent-based Neural Networks such as Long Short-Term Memory Networks have been well-known DL methods.

EXAMPLES OF STUDIES

Category	Method / Architecture	Typical Applications
AI (General)	Rule-Based Expert Systems	Medical diagnosis support, navigation systems, fault detection
	Knowledge Graphs	Search engines, recommendation systems, biomedical discovery
Machine Learning (ML)	Linear / Logistic Regression	Economic forecasting, medical risk prediction
	Decision Trees	Fraud detection, medical decision support
	Random Forest (RF)	Remote sensing classification, finance risk assessment, anomaly detection
	Gradient Boosting (XGBoost, LightGBM, CatBoost)	Kaggle competitions, financial forecasting, ranking systems
	Gaussian Process Regression (GPR)	Time series prediction, robotics control, uncertainty quantification
	Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN)	Image recognition (e.g., ImageNet), facial recognition, medical imaging
Deep Learning (DL)	Recurrent Neural Networks (RNN), LSTM, GRU	Speech recognition, language modeling, stock prediction
	Transformers (BERT, GPT, ViT)	Natural language processing, translation, vision tasks
	Graph Neural Networks (GNNs)	Social network analysis, drug discovery, traffic prediction
	Deep Reinforcement Learning (DQN, PPO, A3C)	Robotics, AlphaGo (game playing), autonomous driving

ML/DL COMPONENTS: INPUTS/FEATURES

- DL models are renowned for their ability to automatically extract influential features and patterns from raw data, making them suitable for complex tasks such as time series analysis
- Thus it is important to identify the most influential inputs affecting the target variable:

Methods to determine most influential inputs:

- Statistical boxplots: mean, median, interquartile range, and extremes
- Pearson correlation coefficient (written as r): measures the linear relationship between two variables X and Y . Can assist in prevent overfitting
- Mutual Information (MI) index: to examine relationships between variables. It measures how much knowing one variable reduces uncertainty about another variable. *Effective in detecting nonlinear relationships.*
- Aprior knowledge based on previous studies
- wrapper-type sequential feature elimination algorithm

Pearson correlation

$$r = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \cdot \sqrt{\sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2}}$$

$r=+1 \rightarrow$ Perfect positive linear relationship

$r=-1 \rightarrow$ Perfect negative linear relationship

$r=0 \rightarrow$ No linear relationship

MI Index

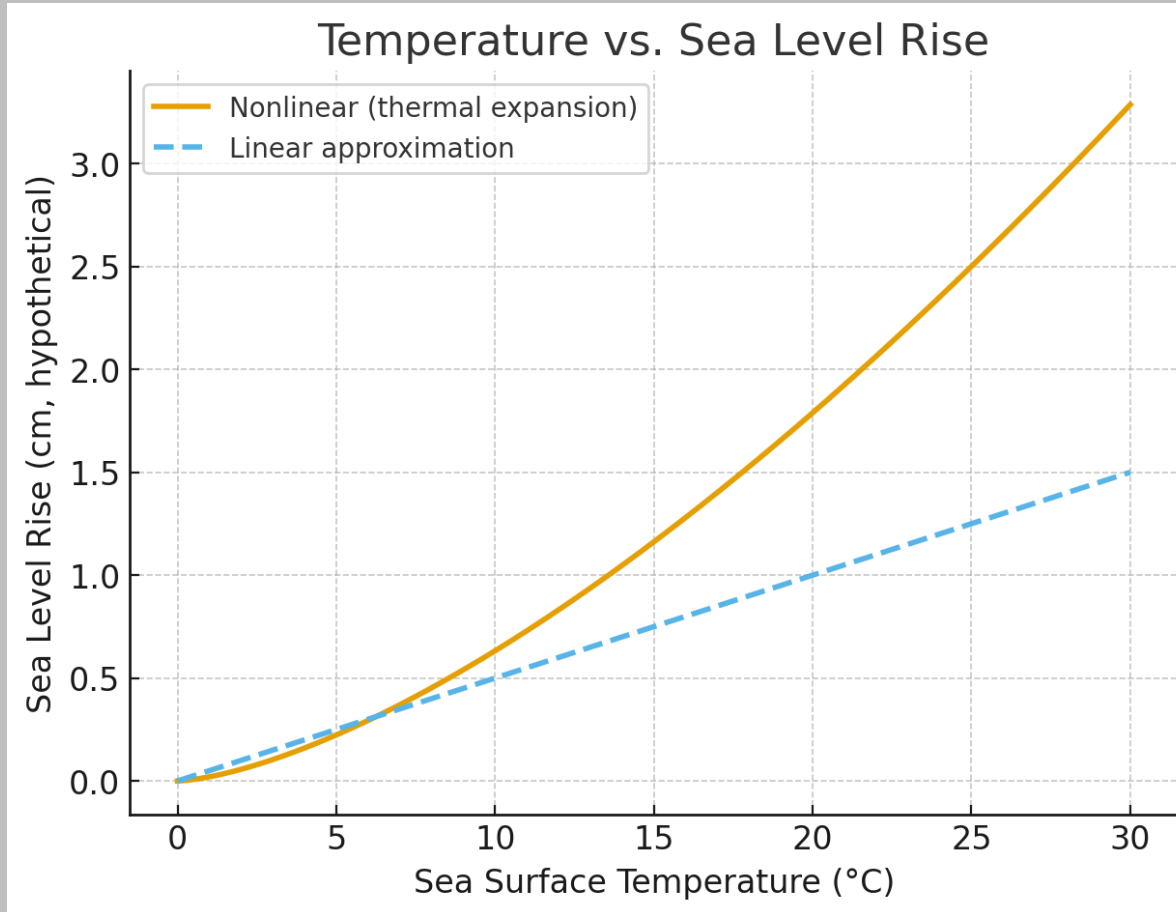
$$I(X;Y) = \sum \sum p(x,y) \cdot \log(p(x,y) / (p(x)p(y)))$$

$p(x,y)$ = joint probability distribution of X and Y

$p(x),p(y)$ = marginal distributions

If X and Y are independent $\rightarrow I(X;Y)=0$ (no shared information).

If knowing X perfectly predicts $Y \rightarrow I(X;Y)$ is **high**



As **sea surface temperature increases**, the contribution of **thermal expansion** to sea level rise accelerates

ML/DL COMPONENTS: INPUTS AND METHOD

Various ML/DL approaches can be utilized:

- **Univariate** (i.e. it considers only the target variable) e.g:using traditional ML models such as linear regression, regression tree, ensemble
- **Multivariate** frameworks (where several vadeep learning, Convolution Neural Network, random forest, Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs), and hybrid CNN-RNN models with respect to the target parameter are considered) e.g

Multivariate forecasting methods generally outperform univariate models

Supervised Learning:The model is trained on a labeled dataset, meaning each input comes with the correct output. Learn a mapping function from inputs (X) to outputs (Y)

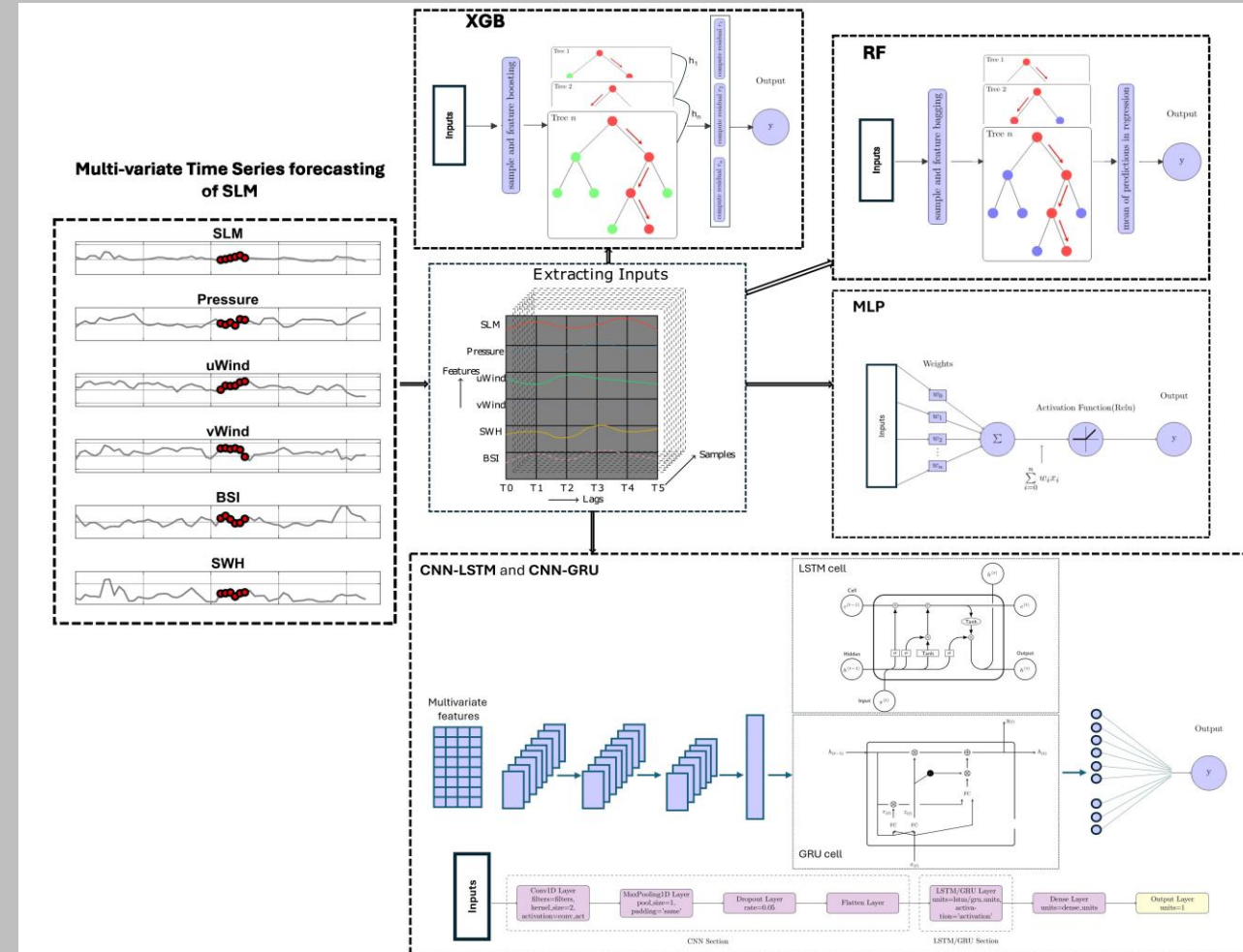
Example: To forecast sealevel every 24 hours

Unsupervised learning: The model is trained on unlabeled data — only the inputs (X) are given, without known outputs (Y). Discover hidden structures or patterns in data

Example: using satellite SST to determine hotspot patterns of hot and cold regions

ML METHOD: RANDOM FOREST

- The RF algorithm is based on the bagging (Bootstrap Aggregating) technique.
- Generates multiple decision trees based on random subsets of the data.
- Each tree makes a prediction (like taking votes)
- The forest combines all votes (majority vote for classification, average for regression).



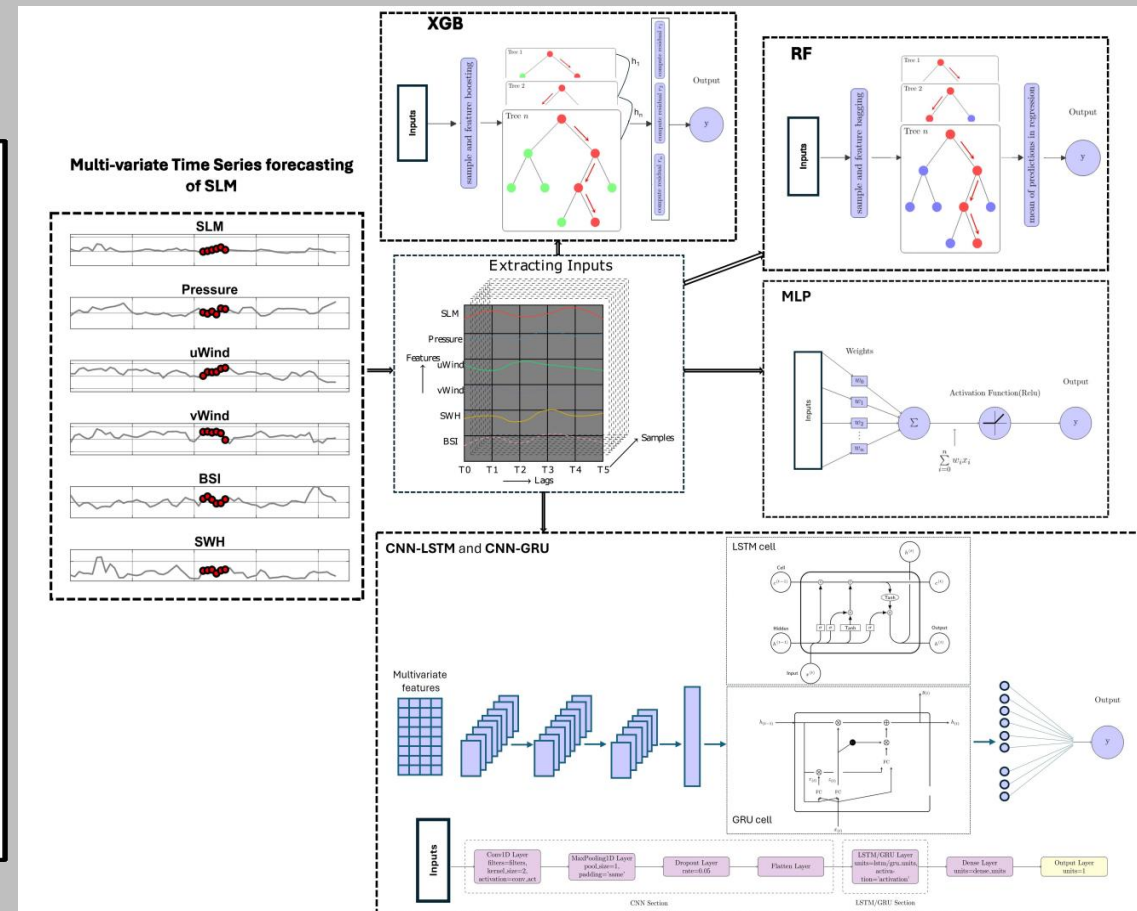
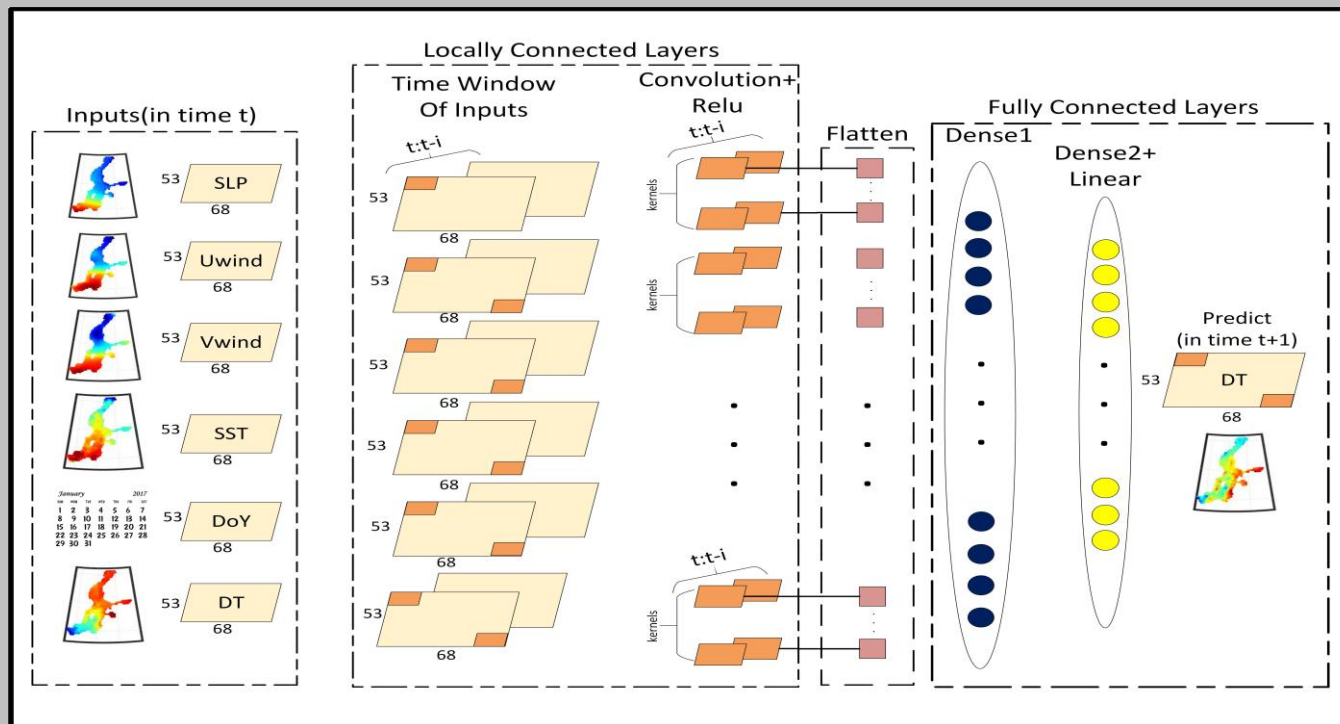
DL METHOD: CONVOLUTION NEURAL NETWORK

DL methods such as **Convolution Neural Networks (CNN's)** and **Recurrent based Neural** Network applied *successfully* in prediction *sea level tasks*

Three primary layers:

- **Convolution layer:** most critical step usually a linear process. Input data assigned weights and biases (filter or kernel). ReLU function (for nonlinearity)
- **Flattening layer:** produce a feature maps
- **Fully connected layer:** flattened data passed to CNN. Models are capable of spatio-temporal connections and discern between dominating and low-level characteristics

METHODS



OVERFITTING

Overfitting in machine learning happens when a model learns the training data too well, including its noise, outliers, and random fluctuations, instead of just the underlying patterns.

- Signs

- Performs very well on training data (low training error).
- Performs poorly on new/unseen data (high test/validation error).

- Causes of Overfitting

- Model is too complex (too many parameters compared to data size).
- Not enough training data.
- Training for too many epochs.
- Including irrelevant features (noisy data).

Example: Studying for an exam if you memorize past questions word for word, you'll ace practice tests but fail on new questions

- Ways to Prevent Overfitting

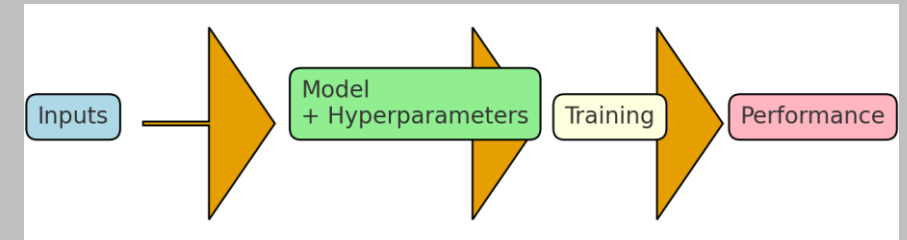
- Simplify the model (reduce parameters, prune trees, etc.).
- Regularization (dropout, weight decay).
- Early stopping during training.
- More training data or data augmentation.
- Cross-validation to tune hyperparameters.

HYPERPARAMETERS

- The selection of the hyperparameters influences the model's architecture, training process, and overall performance. This is one of the most important steps to obtain better model accuracy, achieve best possible performance and can prevent models from overfitting
- Hyperparameters, which are predetermined settings (e.g. learning rate, number of layers, batch size, etc.), must be set before the learning process.

Several optimization approaches for hyperparameter tuning

- trial-and-error
- random search
- grid search
- genetic algorithms (Holland, 1992),
- particle swarm optimization algorithms (Kennedy and Eberhart, 1995),
- Bayesian optimization (BO) (Snoek et al., 2012)



HYPERPARAMETERS METHODS

Method	How it Works	Advantages	Disadvantages
Trial-and-Error	Researcher manually tests different hyperparameter values and adjusts based on performance.	- Simple to implement- Uses domain intuition	- Very slow- No systematic exploration- Not scalable
Grid Search	Tests all combinations of hyperparameters on a predefined grid.	- Systematic- Easy to implement	- Computationally expensive- Inefficient in high dimensions- Wastes trials on unimportant parameters
Random Search	Randomly samples hyperparameter values from defined ranges.	- More efficient than grid search- Covers more diverse space- Simple automation	- Still requires many trials- No memory of past results
Genetic Algorithms (GA) <i>(Holland, 1992)</i>	Mimics evolution: populations of hyperparameters evolve through selection, crossover, mutation.	- Good at exploring large, complex spaces- Can escape local optima	- Computationally expensive- Many hyperparameters to tune in the algorithm itself
Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) <i>(Kennedy & Eberhart, 1995)</i>	Models hyperparameters as particles moving through space, guided by best performers.	- Efficient for continuous spaces- Good balance of exploration/exploitation	- Can get stuck in local optima- Sensitive to parameter choices
Bayesian Optimization (BO) <i>(Snoek et al., 2012)</i>	Builds a probabilistic model of performance, chooses next hyperparameters based on expected improvement.	- Very sample-efficient- Finds good hyperparameters with fewer trials- Strong theoretical basis	- More complex to implement- Slower for very high-dimensional spaces

EVALUATION

Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE): RMSE provides a measure of the typical prediction error, with higher weight given to larger errors. The formulation is defined as below

Coefficient of Determination (R-squared): R-squared quantifies the proportion of variance in the sea level data that are captured by the model predictions. The formulation is defined as below:

$$RMSE_{(\phi_s, \lambda_s)} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{t=1}^n (\widehat{DT}_{(\phi_s, \lambda_s, t)} - DT_{(\phi_s, \lambda_s, t)})^2}{n}}$$

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{s=1}^m \sum_{t=1}^n (\widehat{DT}_{(\phi_s, \lambda_s, t)} - DT_{(\phi_s, \lambda_s, t)})^2}{\sum_{s=1}^m \sum_{t=1}^n (\widehat{DT}_{(\phi_s, \lambda_s, t)} - \overline{DT}_{(\phi_s, \lambda_s)})^2},$$

where $\overline{DT} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n DT_{(\phi_s, \lambda_s, t)}$

SEA LEVEL FORECASTING: SHORT TERM (HOURS, DAYS)

References

Rajabi-Kiasari, S.; Ellmann, A.; Delpeche-Ellmann, N. (2025). Sea level Forecasting using Deep Recurrent Neural Networks with High-Resolution Hydrodynamic Model. Applied Ocean Research, 157, #104496. DOI: 10.1016/j.apor.2025.104496.

Rajabi-Kiasari, Saeed; Delpeche-Ellmann, Nicole; Ellmann, Artu (2023). Forecasting of absolute dynamic topography using deep learning algorithm with application to the Baltic Sea. Computers & Geosciences, 178, #105406. DOI: 10.1016/j.cageo.2023.105406.

Jahanmard, Vahidreza; Hordoir, Robinson; Delpeche-Ellmann, Nicole; Ellmann, Artu (2023). Quantification of Hydrodynamic Model Sea Level Bias Utilizing Deep Learning and Synergistic Integration of Data Sources. Ocean Modelling, 186, #102286. DOI: 10.1016/j.ocemod.2023.102286.

FACTORS THAT AFFECT SEA LEVEL

Several components based on different time frames affect the sea level dynamics in the Baltic Sea.

- **Long term (decadal, centuries):**

- Global sea level change (due to thermal sea water expansion and the melting of glaciers) will influence the Baltic Sea's level
- Variation in temperature, precipitation, and evaporation is expected to mostly exert influence on a decadal time scale

- **Short-term (yearly, seasonally, daily, etc.):**

- Major Baltic inflow, meteorological factors such as wind speed, sea level pressure, tides
- River runoff also affects the water balance, with the biggest freshwater contributor being the Neva River located on the eastern side of the Baltic
- Sea ice

- **Much shorter time frames (e.g., weekly, daily, and hourly)**

- Localized events also affect the sea level. Most of these events tend to be influenced by meteorological factors especially the winds
- Surface waves
- Storm surges

- **Including relevant components enhances the accuracy and performance of the models**

- **HOWEVER INCLUDING TOO MANY INPUTS CAN LEAD TO OVERFITTING AND REQUIRES INCREASED COMPUTER PROCESSING RESOURCES**

CASE STUDY: GULF OF FINLAND, BALTIC SEA

- To forecast dynamic topography multi-step time ahead (3h, 6h, 9h, 12h, 24h)
- Several inputs were examined: winds, temperature, salinity, pressure, dynamic topography

$$\widehat{DT}_{(\phi_s, \lambda_s, t+(1:\Delta))} = f(Pressure_{(\phi_s, \lambda_s)}, uwind_{(\phi_s, \lambda_s)}, vwind_{(\phi_s, \lambda_s)}, SST_{(\phi_s, \lambda_s)}, SSS_{(\phi_s, \lambda_s)}, DT_{(\phi_s, \lambda_s)})_{(t-w:t)}$$

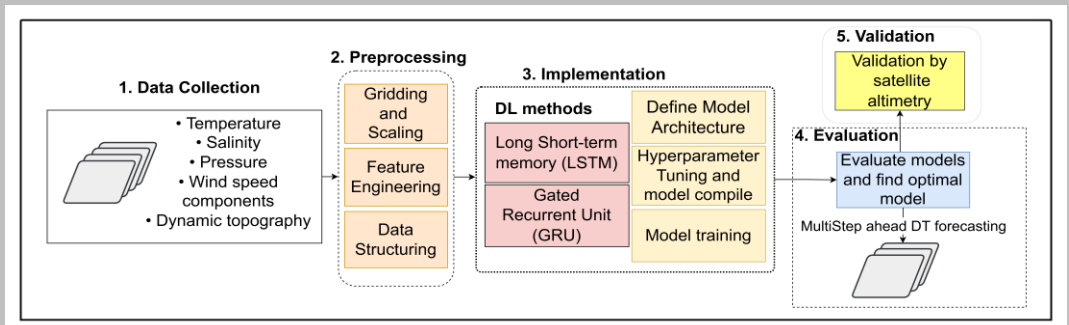
, where $s = 1$: number of grid points

w , Δ , and f define the temporal lag, the lead time (also called forecast horizon) and the mapping function, respectively

Variable	Spatial resolution	Temporal resolution	Source
Wind speed (u and v)	1nm	Hourly	Nemo Nordic
Surface Pressure	0.25°×0.25°	Hourly	Era5
Sea Surface temperature	1nm	Hourly	Nemo Nordic
Sea Surface Salinity	1nm	Hourly	Nemo Nordic
Dynamic Topography	1nm	Hourly	Corrected Nemo Nordic
Sea Surface Height	300m	27 days revisiting time, 20Hz data at each pass	Along-track Sentinel 3A and 3B (EUMETSAT)

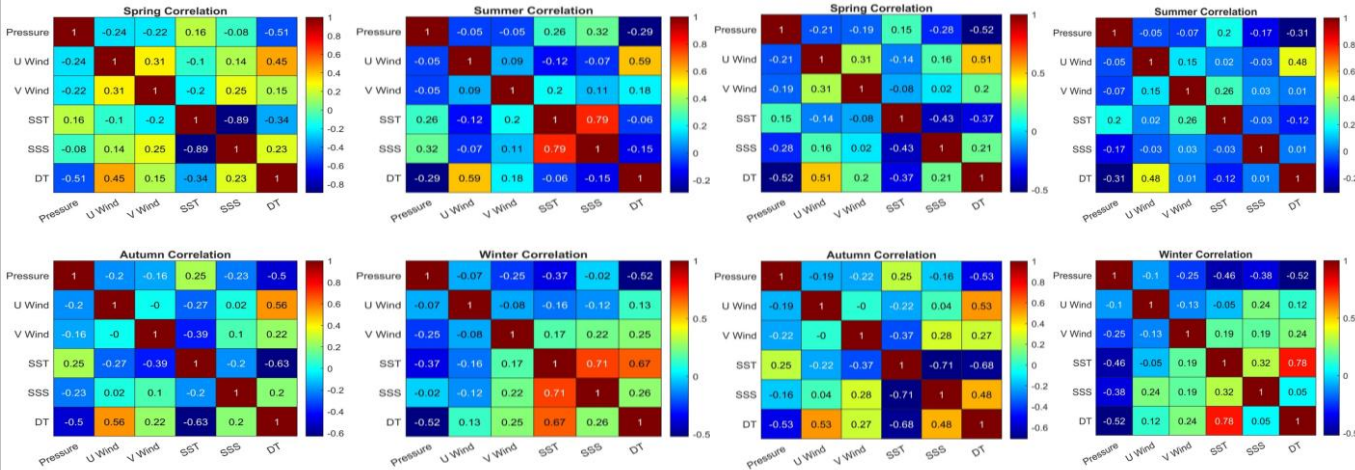
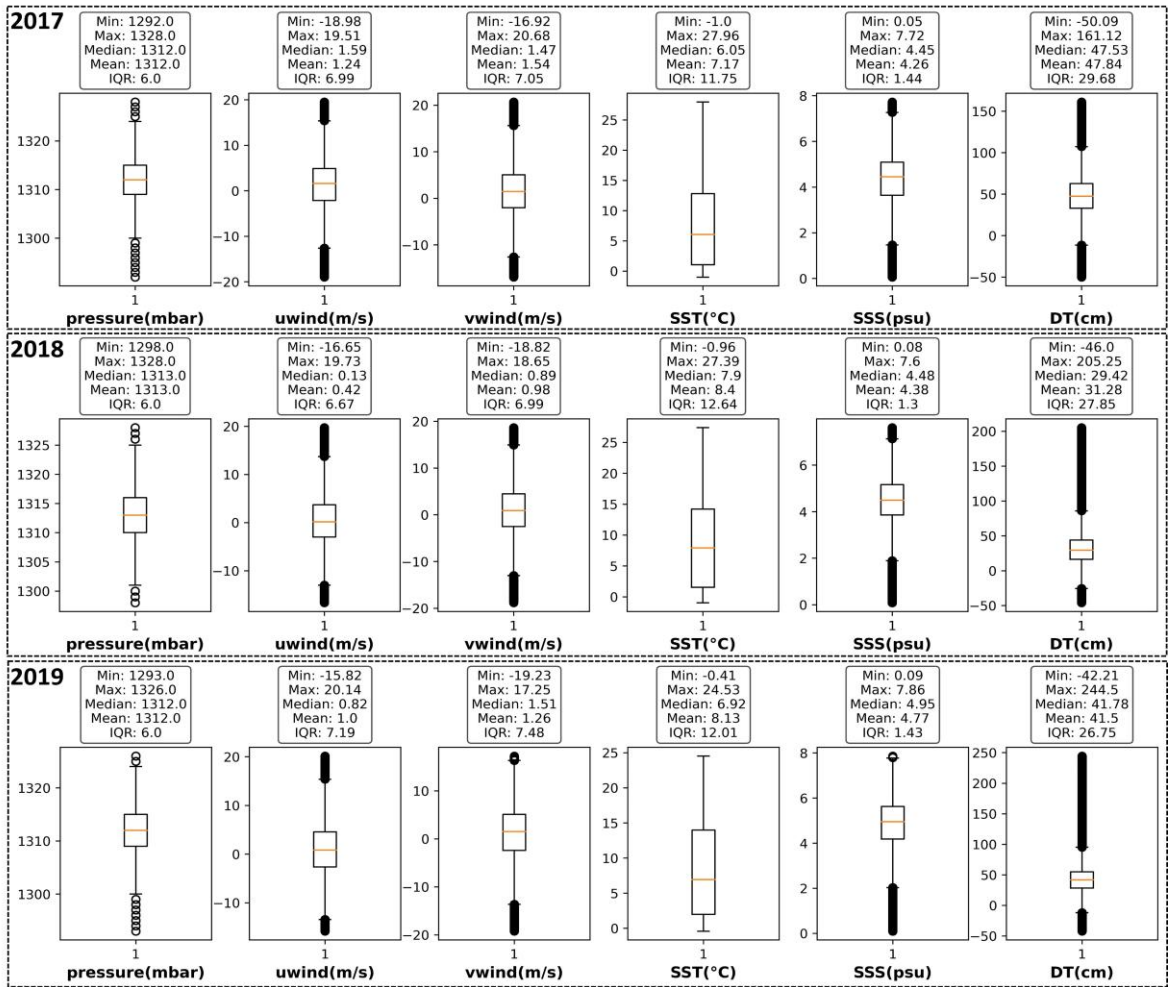
DT has been referred to the European Vertical Reference System (EVRS) which the tide gauges and geoid model referred to

Data 2017 to 2019 (85% for train and 15% for test)
 Train data : 2017-01-01 to 2019-07-20
 Test data: 2019-07-21 to 2019-12-30
 External validation SA: 2019-07-21 to 2019-12-30



CASE STUDY: CHOOSING INPUTS

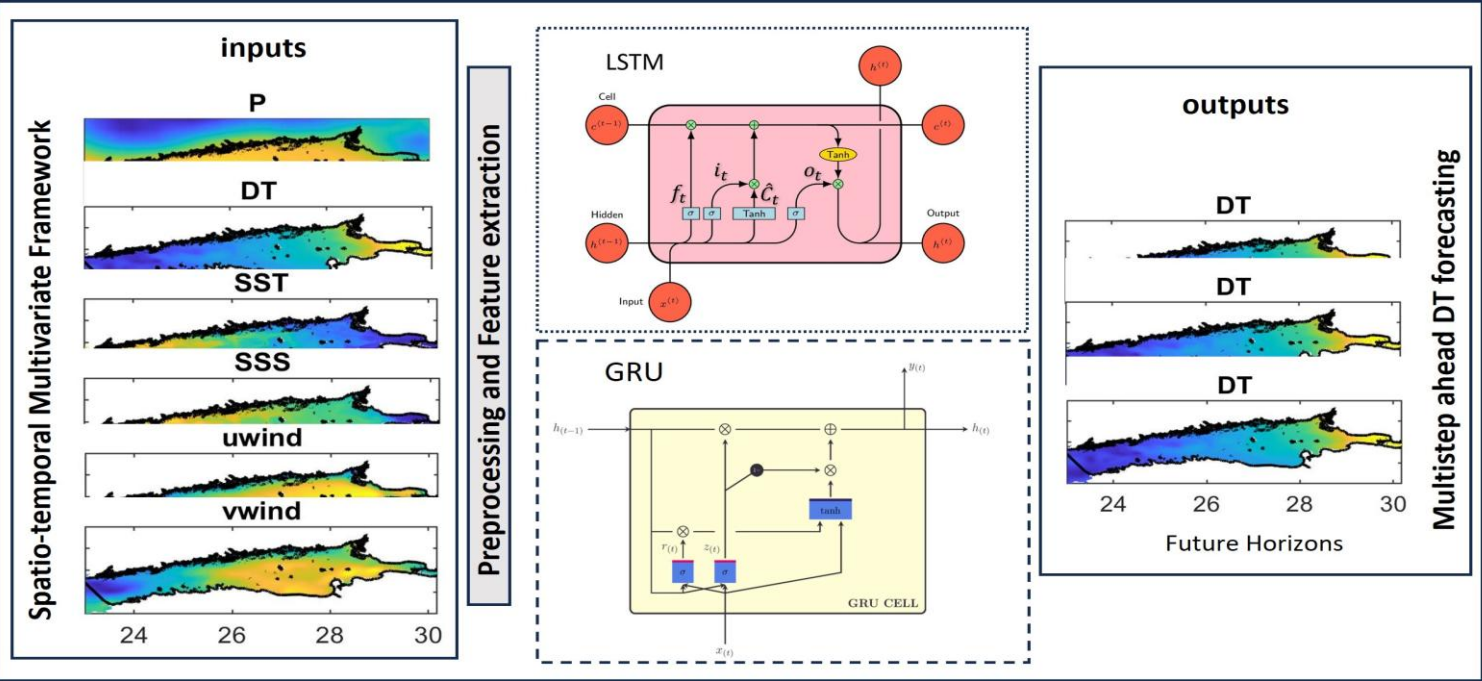
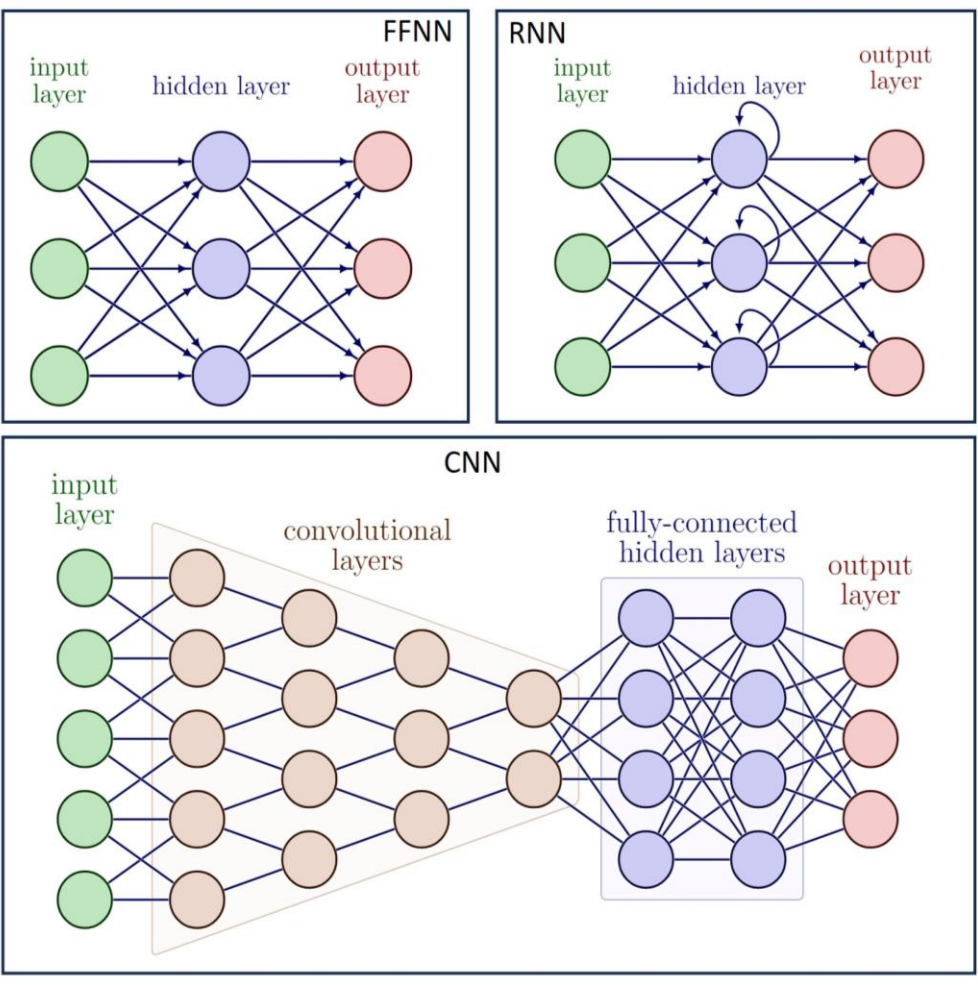
- Box plots of mean, median, extremes, IQR
- Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated for all input components across distinct seasons (spring, summer, winter, autumn)



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CASE STUDY: DL MODELS

Two recurrent neural network-based models such as the Long Short-Term Memory Networks (LSTMs), and the Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU)



CASE STUDY: HYPERPARAMETER OPTIMIZATION

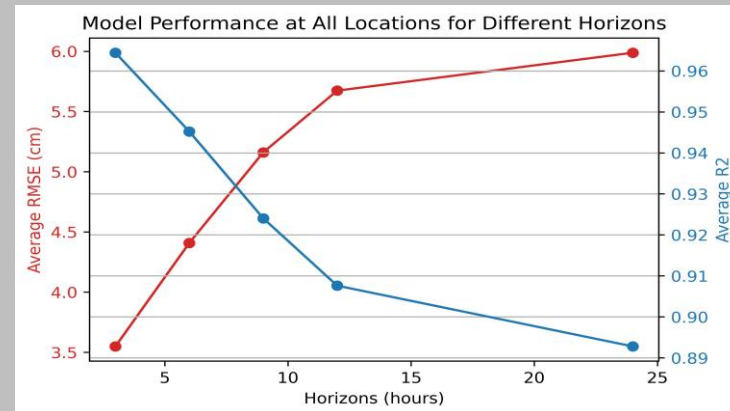
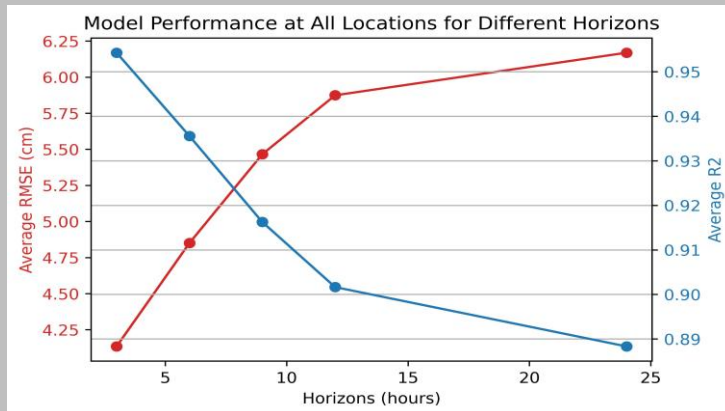
- Trial-and-error method

Model parameters	Description	Chosen hyperparameter
LSTM/GRU Units	Specifies the dimensionality of the model's internal state.	512
Activation Functions	The activation function is applied after each layer in the model to add nonlinearity. The common choice for RNNs is 'Tanh' and Sigmoid.	'default'
Batch Size	Determines the number of samples used in each forward and backward pass during training.	128
Number of Training Epochs	Specifies how many times the model will be exposed to the entire training dataset during training.	50
Loss Function	Determines the objective function that the model is trying to minimize during training.	'MSE'
Optimizer	The optimizer determines the specific algorithm used to update the model's weights during training. Common optimizers include Adam, RMSprop, and Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD).	'Adam'
Dropout Rate Regularization	A regularization technique that helps prevent overfitting. It specifies the proportion of neurons or units that are randomly dropped out during training, forcing the model to be more robust.	0.1
Kernel Regularization	Technique used to limit the model's weights with certain values. It adds a penalty term to the loss function based on the magnitude of the weights. Common regularization techniques include L1 and L2 regularization. The regularization Strength hyperparameter controls the strength of the kernel regularization	L2, 0.01

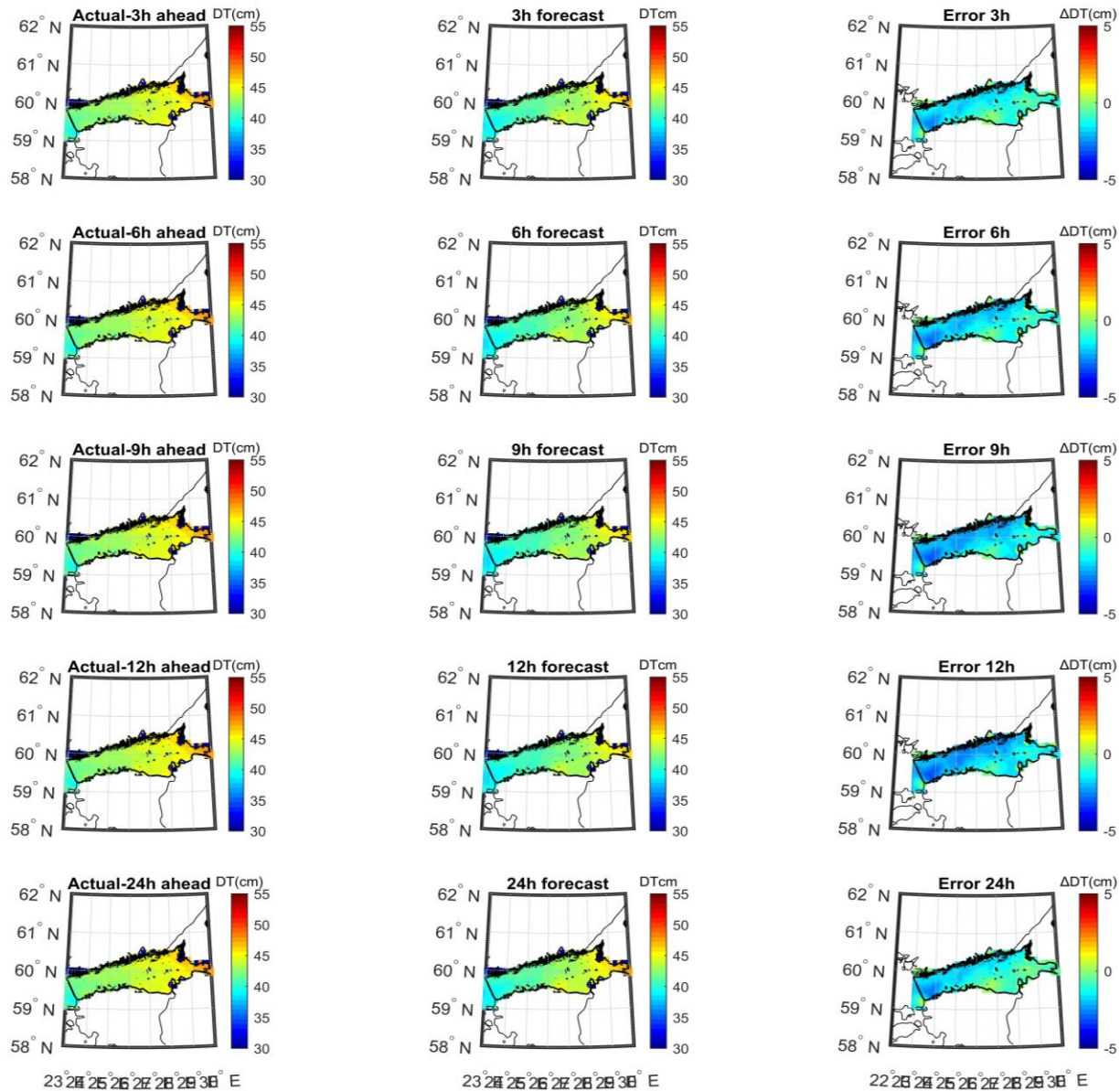
CASE STUDY: RESULTS (OVERVIEW)

- Both LSTM and GRU methods are strong choices for sea level forecasting with RMSE <6 CM. GRU performed slightly better with R2 and RMSE of 0.93, 4.96 cm
- Main difference between the LSTM and GRU model was that the GRU model has a simpler method in storing and updating the connections between the different variables resulting in fewer complexities and less computing time.

Horizons (hours)	Models			
	GRU		LSTM	
	R ²	RMSE (cm)	R ²	RMSE (cm)
3	0.96	3.55	0.95	4.13
6	0.95	4.41	0.94	4.85
9	0.92	5.16	0.92	5.47
12	0.91	5.67	0.90	5.87
24	0.89	5.99	0.89	6.17
average	0.93	4.96	0.92	5.3

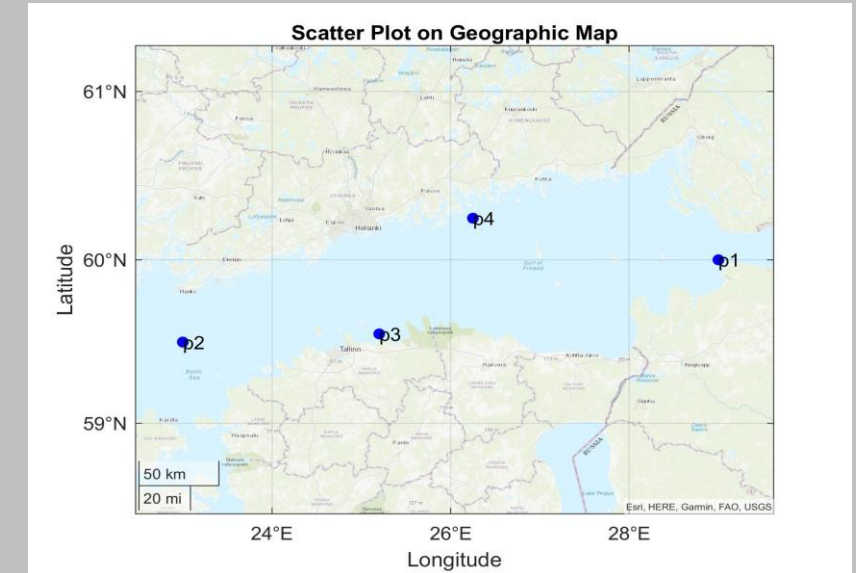
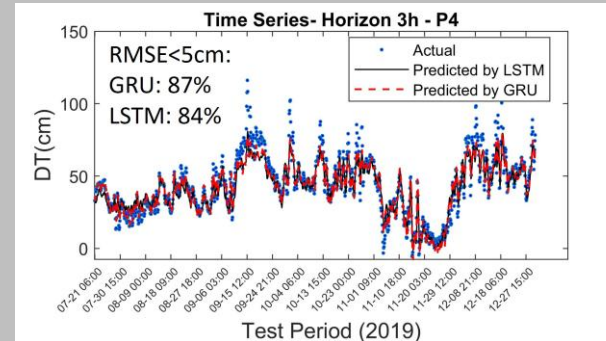
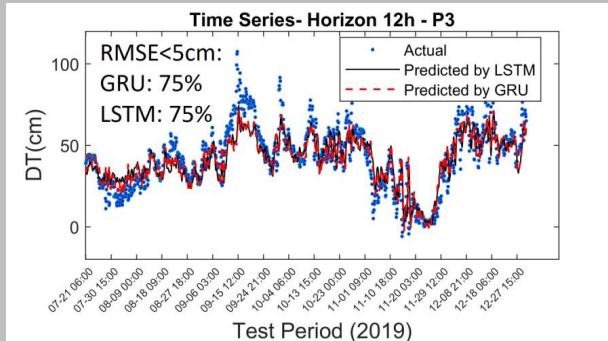
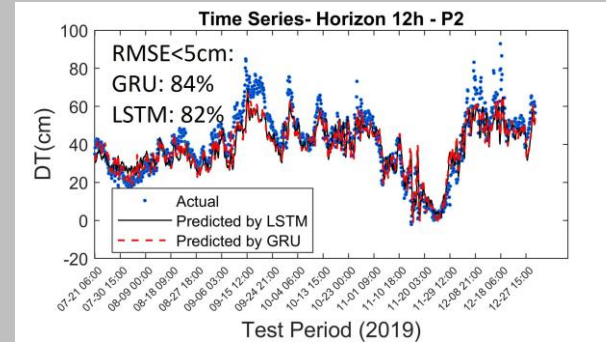
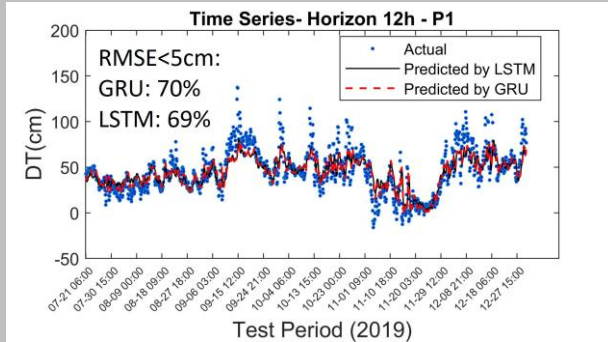


GRU model spatial performance during test period



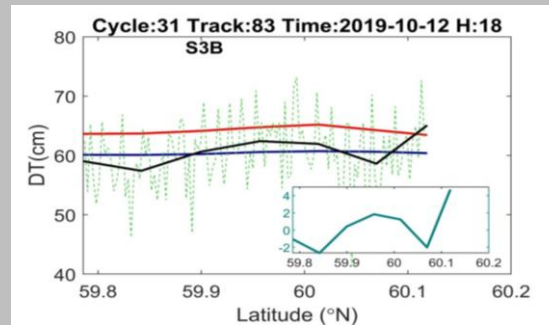
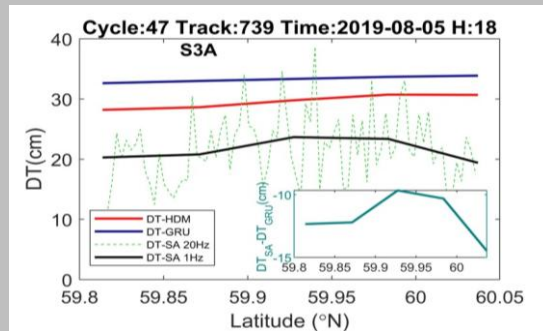
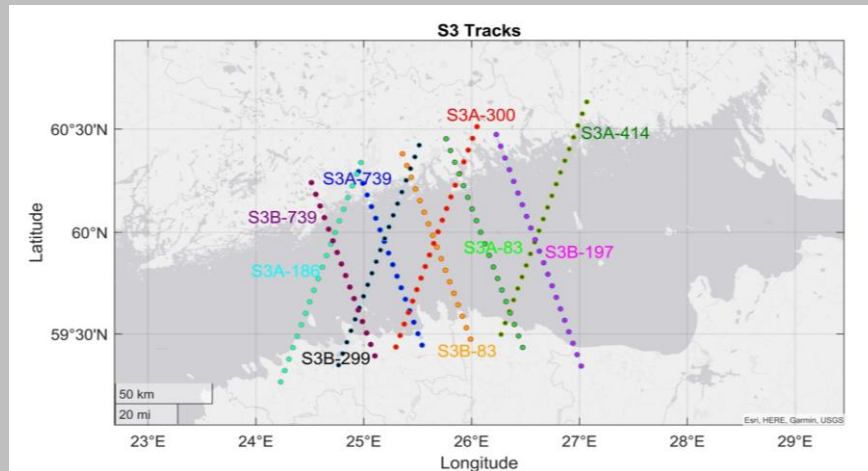
- The input component (v winds, sea surface salinity, river discharge) were not included in the final variable selection
- This exclusion may have contributed to the poorer performance experienced at eastern and other sections

CASE STUDY: SPECIFIC SITE RESULTS



- Both methods forecasted the normal sea level very good
- Both experience difficulties with the sea level maxima/extremes
- Insufficient representation of maximum/extreme events in the training dataset (skewness towards normal sea levels than extremes)

CASE STUDY: EXTERNAL TEST DATA WITH SATELLITE ALTIMETRY



- External test data was performed with S3A and S3B
- GRU-forecasted DTs and the HDM DT are for most occasions in good agreement with SA DT values, with the discrepancy of lower than 5 cm for tracks S3A-83, S3A-300, S3A-414, S3B-83 and S3B-197.
- However, the GRU model had poorer validation results for tracks S3A-739, S3A-186, S3B-739, and S3B-299 (10-15 cm).
- The reason for these larger discrepancies may be due to:
 - HDM model not accurately modelling the observed ocean dynamics.
 - HDM corrected DTs had better consistency with Sentinel 3A tracks compared to the Sentinel 3B, which is also in agreement with previous results (Mostafavi et al., 2023).

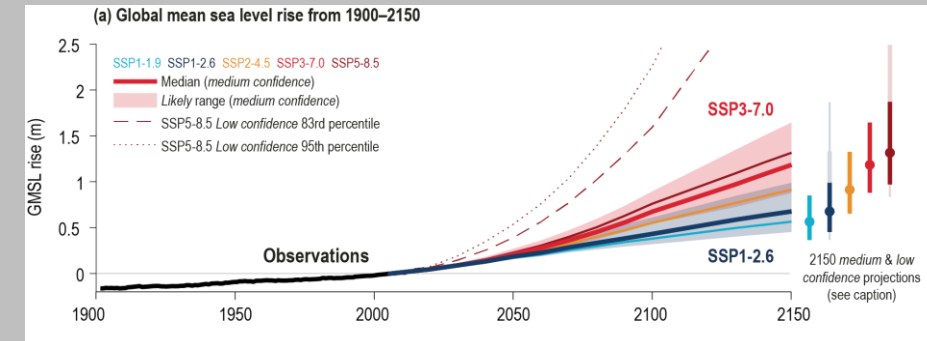
FORECASTING OF SEA LEVEL EXTREMES (SHORT TERM & LONG TERM)

Reference

Rajabi-Kiasari, S.; Ellmann, A.; Delpeche-Ellmann, N. Soomere, T. (submitted, Under review). Forecasting Sea Level Maxima using Machine Learning with Explainability and Extreme Value AnalysisSea level Forecasting using Deep Recurrent Neural Networks with High-Resolution Hydrodynamic Model, International Journal of Applied Earth Observation and Geoinformation

MACHINE LEARNING AND DEEP LEARNING

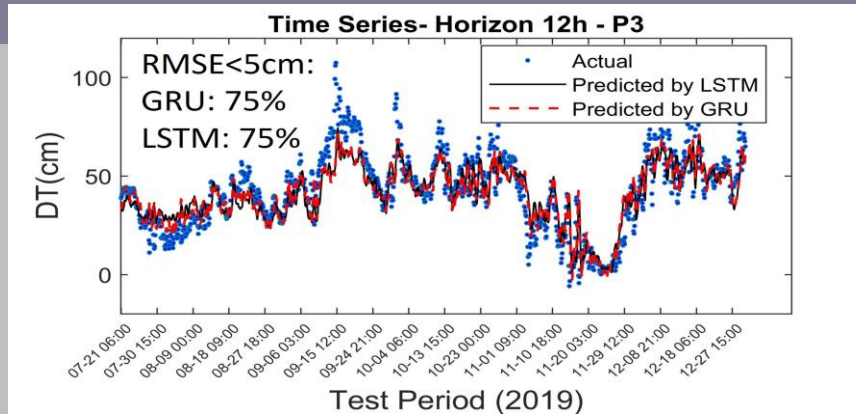
- ***Sea level maximas and extremes (SLM)*** are a major contributor of coastal flooding, erosion, infrastructure damage etc.
- The ***SLM are often characterized*** as (i) ***occurring suddenly*** and usually ***having a time scale from minutes*** (rogue waves, edge waves) to ***a few days*** (storm surges); (ii) ***being site-specific rather than basin-wide*** (Pindsoo et al., 2020); (iii) primarily ***driven*** by very strong ***storms***
- ***Semi-enclosed sea areas*** such as (Baltic Sea, Meditteranean, Caspian Sea) ***most at risk for SLM***, most impactful on coastal areas that affects several countries.
- ***Influenced by compound events*** such as waves, tides storms that influence each other



CHALLENGES

Challenges:

- **Machine/Deep Learning (ML/DL) models** have been shown to be efficient in forecasting mean sea level,
- **ML/DL models often under-estimate sea level maxima/extremes and there exist uncertainty on the influence of the drivers.** Possible reasons:
 - **Lack of adequate representation** of extreme events in training data
 - Selecting of best **hyperparameters** and **optimizing models** are crucial steps in developing ML/DL models for capturing complex peak patterns (*Li et al., 2024*).
 - **Compound events**, whereby some inputs not considered in model
 - **Some extreme conditions such as storm surges, seiches** due to their frequency and complexity are **challenging to model**



Opportunities/Objectives:

- **Machine/Deep Learning approaches** that can specifically **examine SLM**
- **Deeper insight into the role of the drivers** influencing these extremes by using **explainability analysis**
- **Linking ML/DL results with traditional methods** such as extreme value analysis gives deeper insight into the long-term forecasting

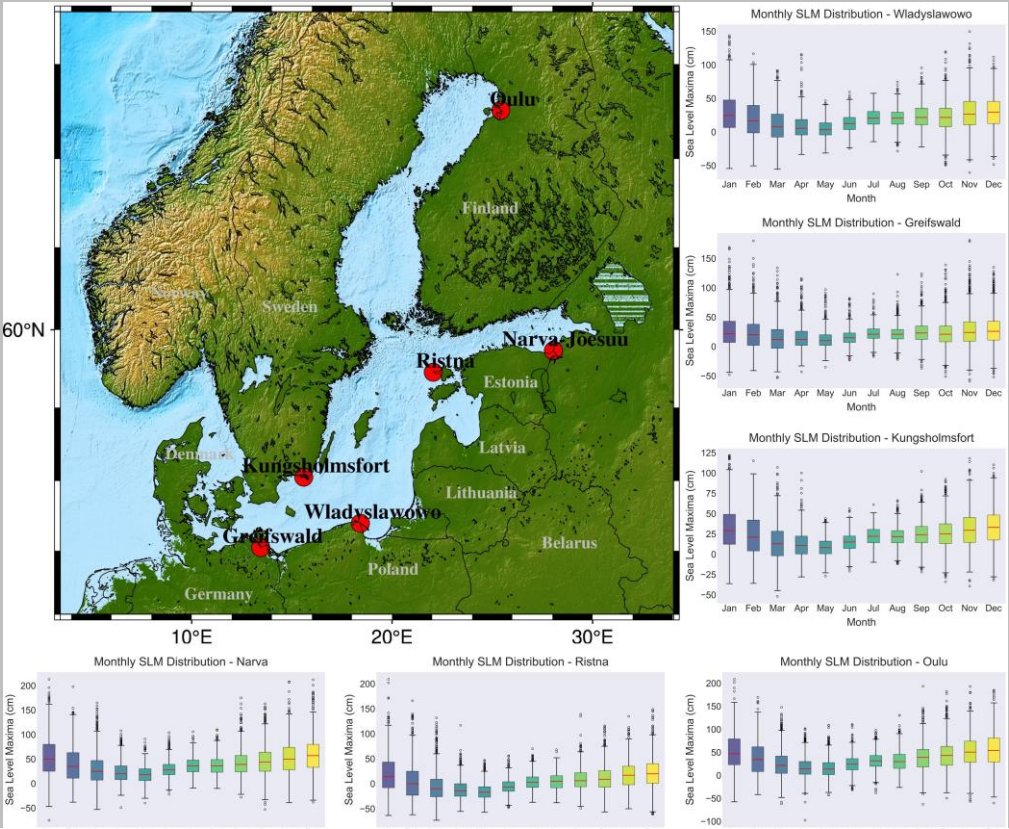
CASE STUDY: EXTREMES BALTIC SEA

SLM on Baltic coasts occur at *different locations* with *different influential forces* which can be due to:

- Initial sea Level (filling-up or prefilling) of the Baltic Sea
- Wind Stress: magnitude, direction and duration
- Low-Pressure Systems: Storms
- Other factors: surface waves, water exchange between the Baltic and the North Sea, precipitation, seasonal changes in water density, and the occurrence of seiches (*Weisse and Weidemann, 2017*)

Characteristics:

- Typical **SLM** in the Baltic Sea is **0.8 m**
- **SLM** in the Baltic Sea are more pronounced in the **winter season** due to the seasonal cycle of wind
- **Wave set up** may influence the **SLM**
- **Maximum SWH of 8.2 m** was recorded in December 2004 in the northern Baltic Proper



- *Six tide gauges* stations selected: *Narva, Ristna, Oulu, Kungsholmsfort, Greifswald, Wladyslawowo*
- Data between 1971 to 2022. All data are referred to BSCD 2000 indicating vertical reference compatability
- Relative Sea level utilized (Land uplift correction not applied)
- *Gaps in TG data* filled by using *bilinear interpolation*

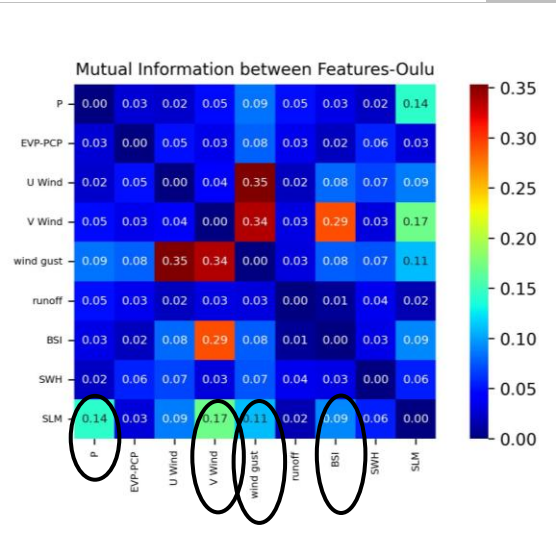
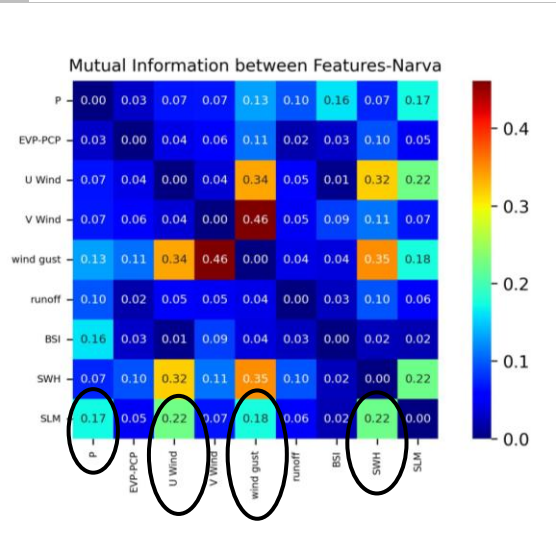
Station	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°E)	Country	Datum	Missing data rate	Conversion to BSCD2000 (cm)	Source
Narva	59.4691	28.0421	Estonia	EH2000	0.1%	-500	EEA (2024)
Ristna	58.9212	22.0552	Estonia	EH2000	0.3%	-500	EEA (2024)
Oulu	65.0403	25.4182	Finland	N2000	0	-	FMI (202)
Greifswald	54.0928	13.446	Germany	DHHN92	0	-496.9	BSH (2024)
Wladyslawowo	54.7968	18.4187	Poland	PL-EVRF2007-NH	0.5%	-494.4	BOOS (2024)
Kungsholmsfort	56.1053	15.5894	Sweden	RH2000	0	-	SMHI (2024)

FEATURE SELECTION RESULTS

- **Initial feature selection:** wind speed (zonal, meridional and gust), surface atmospheric pressure, evaporation, precipitation, river runoff, Baltic Sea Index, significant wave height
- **Mutual information (MI) index** to discover the influential parameters
- **Uwind, Vwind, SWH, BSI and P** were selected as the basic features for all stations.
- **Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC)** index for each station separately identified: the previous timesteps to consider

Variable	Units	Source	Statistics		
			Min	Mean	Max
Zonal Wind speed	m/s	Era5	-16.33	3.53	24
Meridional Wind speed	m/s	Era5	-14.52	3.21	20.41
Wind gust	m/s	Era5	1.96	11.11	35.82
Surface atmospheric pressure	Mbar	Era5	944.98	1008.2	1052.2
Significant wave height	m	SWAN and WAM	0	0.89	7.31
Evaporation minus Precipitation	m	Era5	-0.00090	-0.000027	0.00019
Surface runoff	m	Era5	-4.34e-19	1.0196e-06	0.00082
Baltic Sea Index	-	Era5	-1.6192	0.2302	2.6213
Sea level	cm	TGs	-97.5	23.2914	213

Impacts of different features on Sea level maxima using mutual index

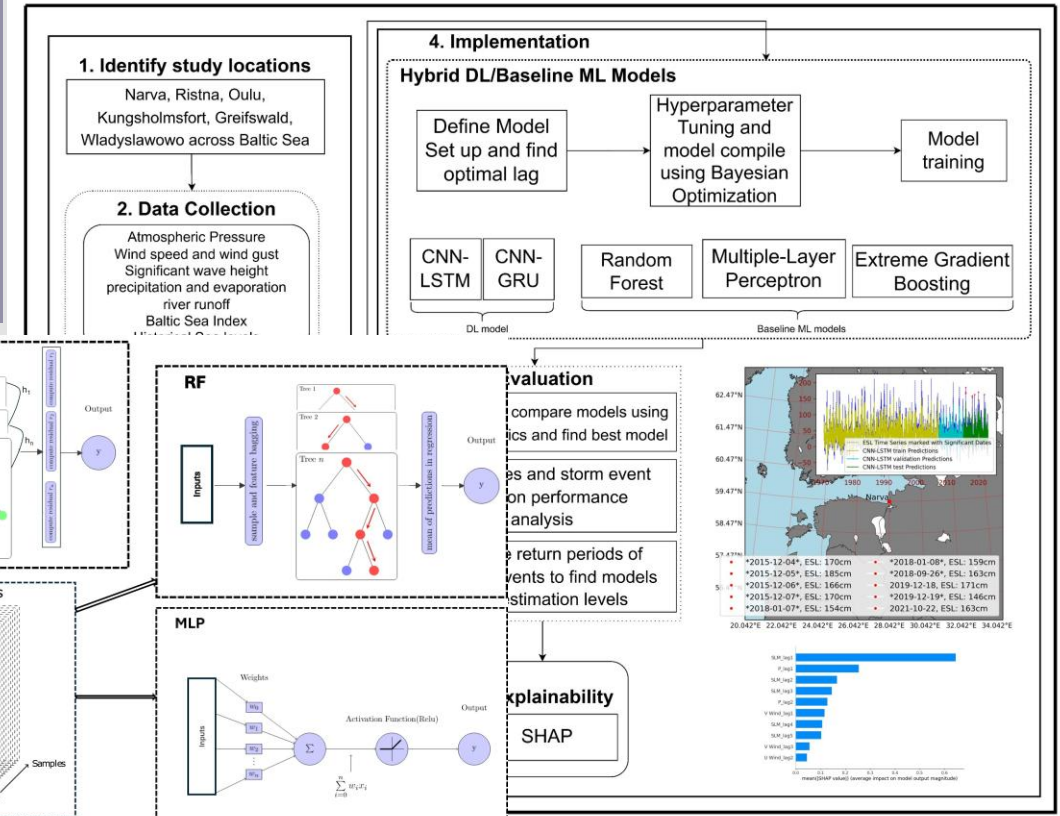


stations	Narva	Ristna	Oulu	Kungsholmsfort	Wladyslawow o	Greifswald
Selected features (MI)	u,v,p,swh, wind gust	u,v,p,swh	u,v,p,swh, wind gust, BSI	u,v,p,swh, wind gust, BSI	u,v,p,swh, BSI	u,v,p,swh, wind gust, BSI
Optimal lag (BIC)	5	3	5	5	5	5

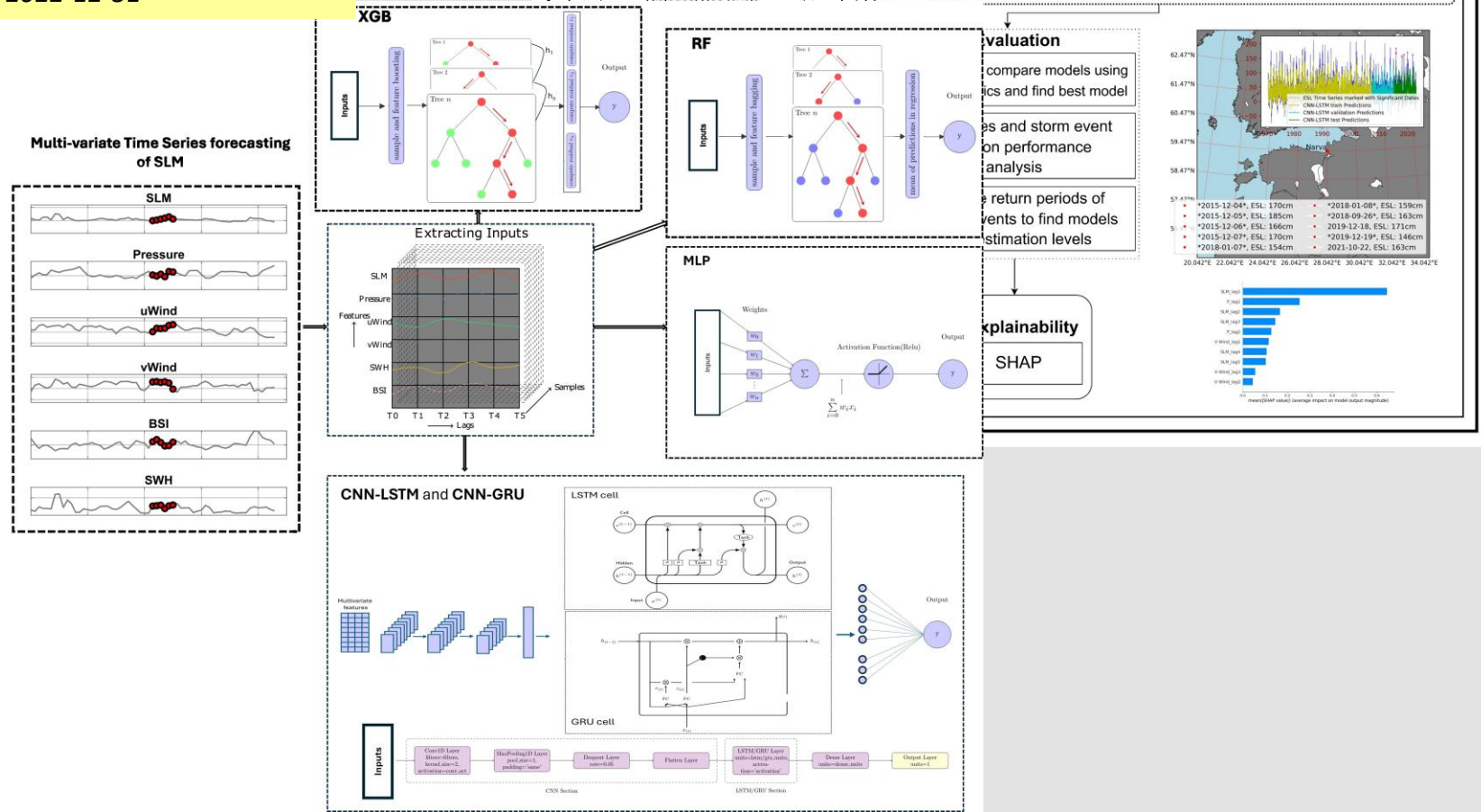
PROPOSED STRATEGY FOR SEA LEVEL MAXIMA FORECASTING

- Five ML/DL methods: *Random Forest (RF)*, *Extreme gradient boosting (XGB)*, *Multi-layer perceptron (MLP)* neural network, *CNN-LSTM*
- Hyperparameter tuning* (learning rate, number of layers, batch size, etc.): *Bayesian Optimization* configured with 50 iterations
- Other: 'Adam' as the optimizer; loss function as Mean Squared Error (MSE)

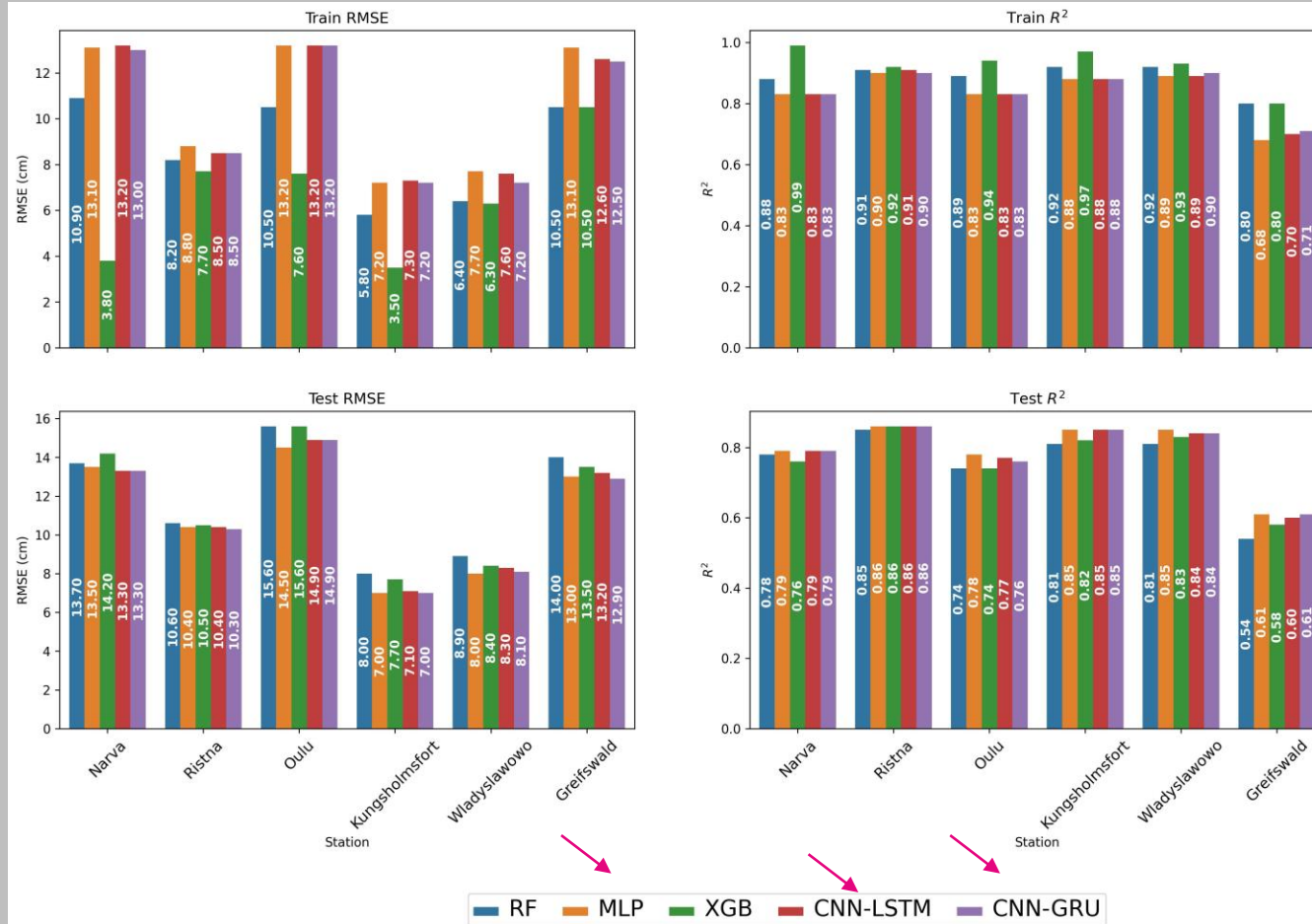
training period: 1971-01-01 to 2007-05-27
validation period: 2007-05-28 to 2015-03-14
test period: 2015-03-15 to 2022-12-31



Models	Hyper-parameters	Definitions	Ranges	Optimized value					
				Narva-Jõesuu	Ristna	Oulu	Kungsholmsfort	Wladyslawowo	Greifswald
MLP	Number of hidden neurons	Number of neurons in hidden layers, controls model complexity	(10, 100)	24	100	10	16	19	10
	alpha	Regularization term to prevent overfitting	(0.01, 0.05)	0.0221	0.0458	0.016	0.01	0.0437	0.037
	learning_rate_init	Starting learning rate, controls how fast the model learns	(0.01, 1)	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
RF	Number of Trees (n_estimators)	Number of trees in the forest showing model complexity	(50, 100, 150, 200, 300)	300	150	300	100	300	300
	Tree Depth (max_depth)	Maximum depth of each tree	(3, 5, 7, 10)	10	7	10	10	10	10
	min_samples_split	Minimum samples required to split a node	(2, 5, 10, 20)	20	2	2	2	5	2
XGB	Number of Trees (n_estimators)	Number of boosting rounds (trees)	(50, 100, 150, 200, 300)	150	100	150	200	200	200
	Tree Depth (max_depth)	Maximum depth of trees	(3, 5, 7, 10)	7	3	5	5	3	3
	Learning rate	Controls the size of each step during training	(0.01, 1)	0.1485	0.179	0.06	0.129	0.0176	0.124
CNN-LSTM	Number of filters	Number of convolution filters, determines feature extraction	(8, 128)	10	17	8	8	8	8
	activation function	Function used to activate neurons (e.g., ReLU)	['ReLU', 'tanh', 'Leaky ReLU']	'tanh'	'Leaky ReLU'	'Leaky ReLU'	'tanh'	'tanh'	'tanh'
	Dense units	Number of neurons in the fully connected layer	(16, 128)	124	125	16	58	107	16
CNN-GRU	Number of filters	Number of convolution filters	(8, 128)	8	126	8	8	53	8
	activation function	Activation function for neurons	['ReLU', 'tanh', 'Leaky ReLU']	'Leaky ReLU'	'Leaky ReLU'	'tanh'	'tanh'	'Leaky ReLU'	'Leaky ReLU'
	Dense units	Neurons in the fully connected layer	(16, 128)	16	35	16	16	16	128
CNN-GRU	Number of filters	Number of convolution filters	(8, 128)	8	126	8	8	53	8
	activation function	Activation function for neurons	['ReLU', 'tanh', 'Leaky ReLU']	'Leaky ReLU'	'Leaky ReLU'	'tanh'	'tanh'	'Leaky ReLU'	'Leaky ReLU'
	Dense units	Neurons in the fully connected layer	(16, 128)	16	35	16	16	16	128
CNN-GRU	Number of filters	Number of convolution filters	(8, 128)	8	126	8	8	53	8
	activation function	Activation function for neurons	['ReLU', 'tanh', 'Leaky ReLU']	'Leaky ReLU'	'Leaky ReLU'	'tanh'	'tanh'	'Leaky ReLU'	'Leaky ReLU'
	Dense units	Neurons in the fully connected layer	(16, 128)	16	35	16	16	16	128



RESULTS: MODEL PERFORMANCE

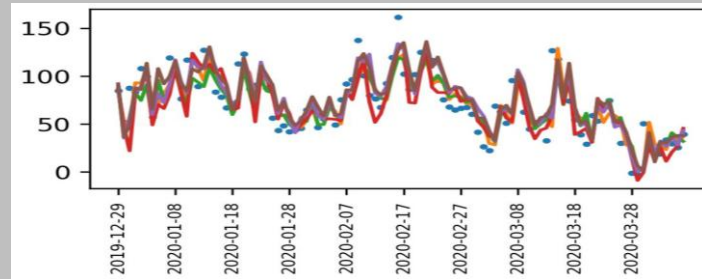
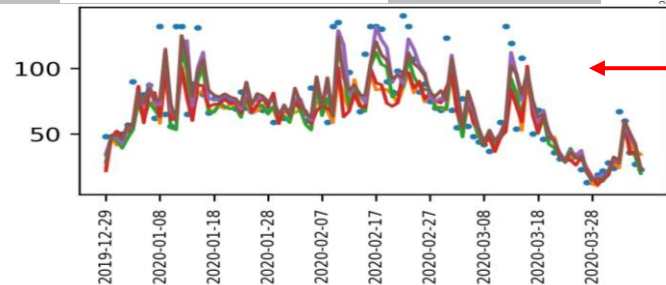


➤ Neural-network-based models **MLP, CNN-GRU, and CNN-LSTM** demonstrated **better generalization capabilities**

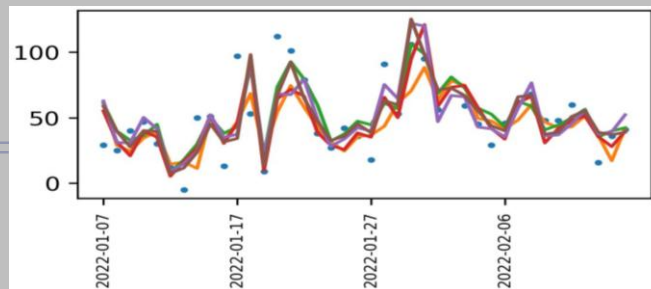
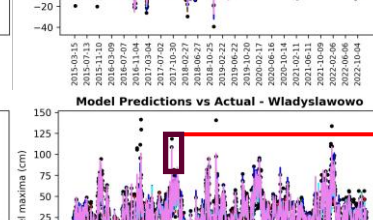
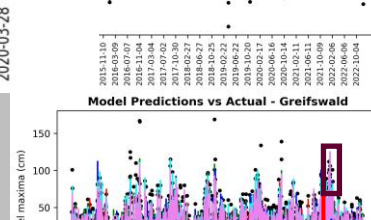
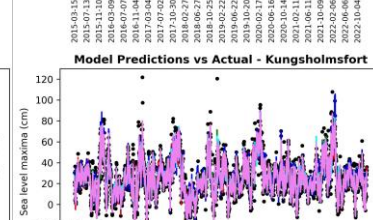
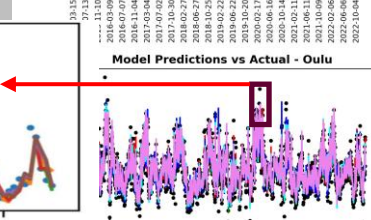
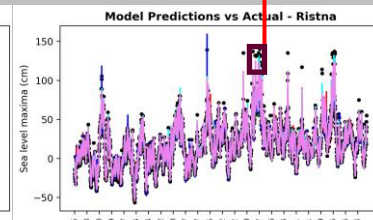
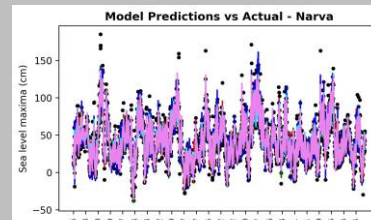
➤ **RF and XGB models** exhibited **signs of overfitting: drop in R^2 scores; increase in RMSE from training to test** for XGB at Narva-Jõesuu, Oulu, and Kungsholmsfort, as well as for RF at Oulu and Wladyslawowo

RESULTS: INSTANTANEOUS

Model RF
 Model MLP
 Model XGB
 Model CNN-LSTM
 Model CNN-GRU

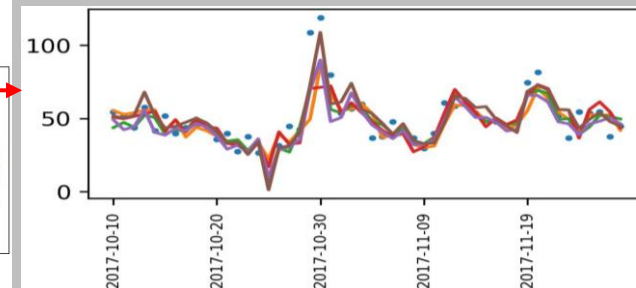
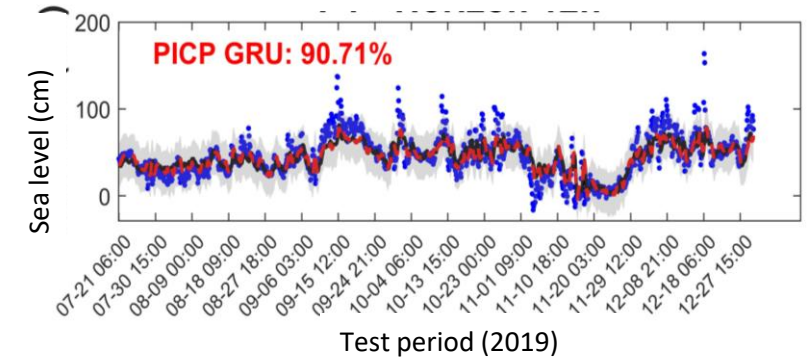


Actual
 Model RF
 Model MLP
 Model XGB
 Model CNN-LSTM
 Model CNN-GRU



Previous studies: normal sea level

Sea level forecast using ML/DL (LSTM/GRU) Baltic Sea

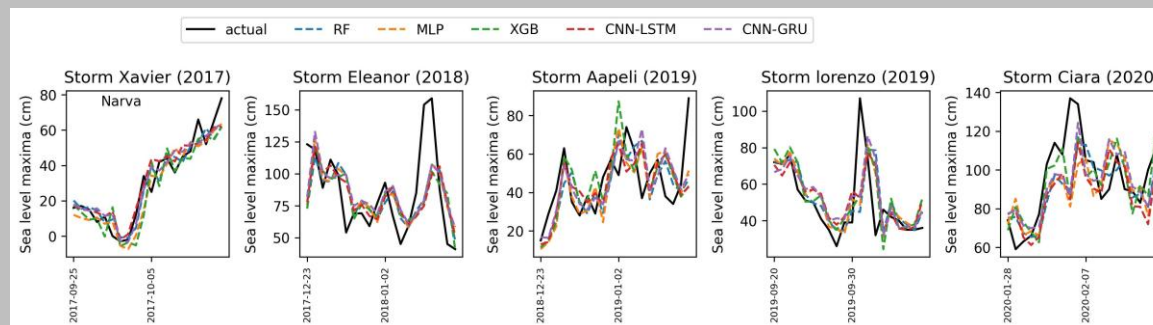
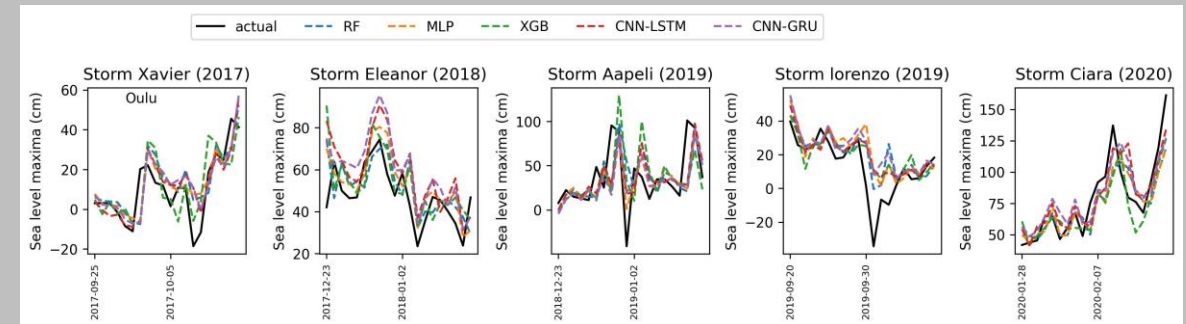
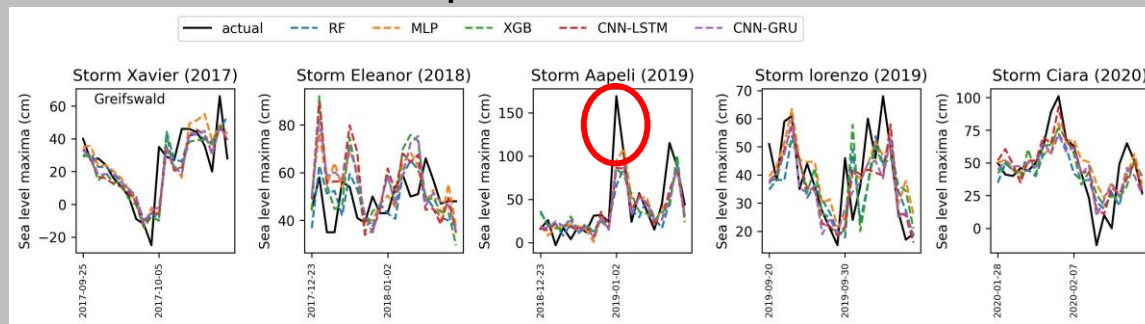


- MLP, CNN-GRU, and CNN-LSTM models performed reasonably well
- However, models *underestimated the SLM peak values, specifically those exceeding 160 cm*

RESULTS: STORM EVENT DETECTION

- **Storm events** are recognized as a **major contributor** to SLM
- **Five major recent storm surge events** in the Baltic Sea 2017–2020 are examined for their forecasting performance using ML/DL
- **Different storms** peaked at different stations

- Xavier (October 4–6, 2017, 118.6 cm at Wladyslawowo)
- Eleanor (January 2–4, 2018, 159 cm at Narva)
- Aapeli (January 1–2, 2019, 169 cm at Greifswald)
- Lorenzo (October 2–7, 2019, 107 cm at Narva)
- and Ciara (February 3–16, 2020, 161.30 cm at Oulu)

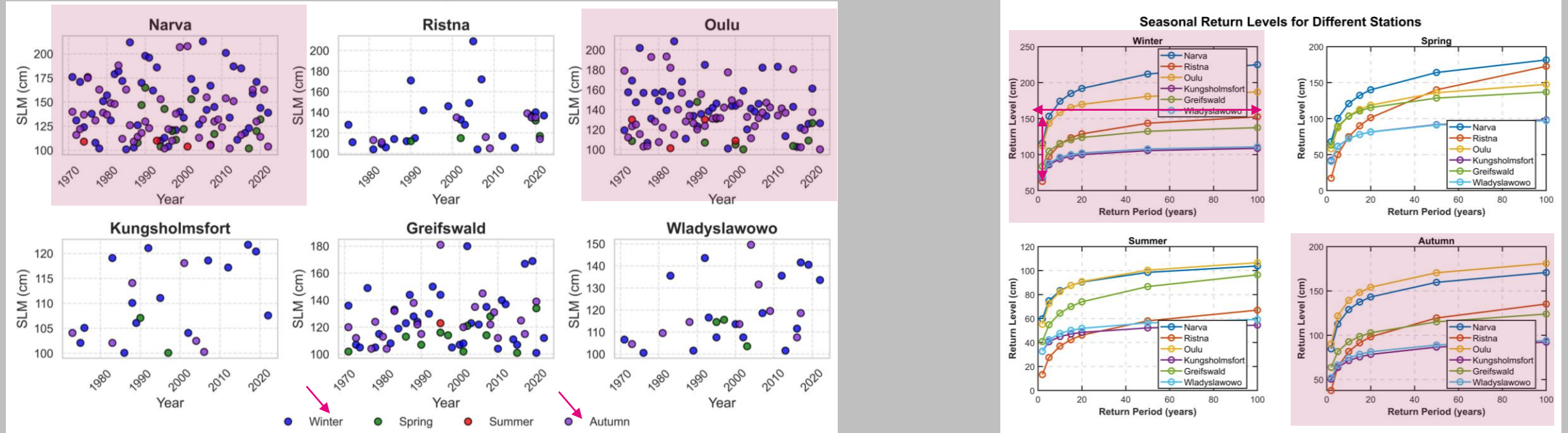


- During the analyzed storms, **CNN-GRU model often showed better performance**, especially when dealing with sharp changes.
- Models mainly **underestimated the peaks in storm Aapeli, especially for Greifswald with peaks at 155 cm**

LONG TERM FORECAST: RETURN PERIODS OF EXTREMES-GEV FIT

- To *understand intensity and frequency of SLM* for long term forecast
- *Deeper insight into the SLM* not adequately represented by ML/DL

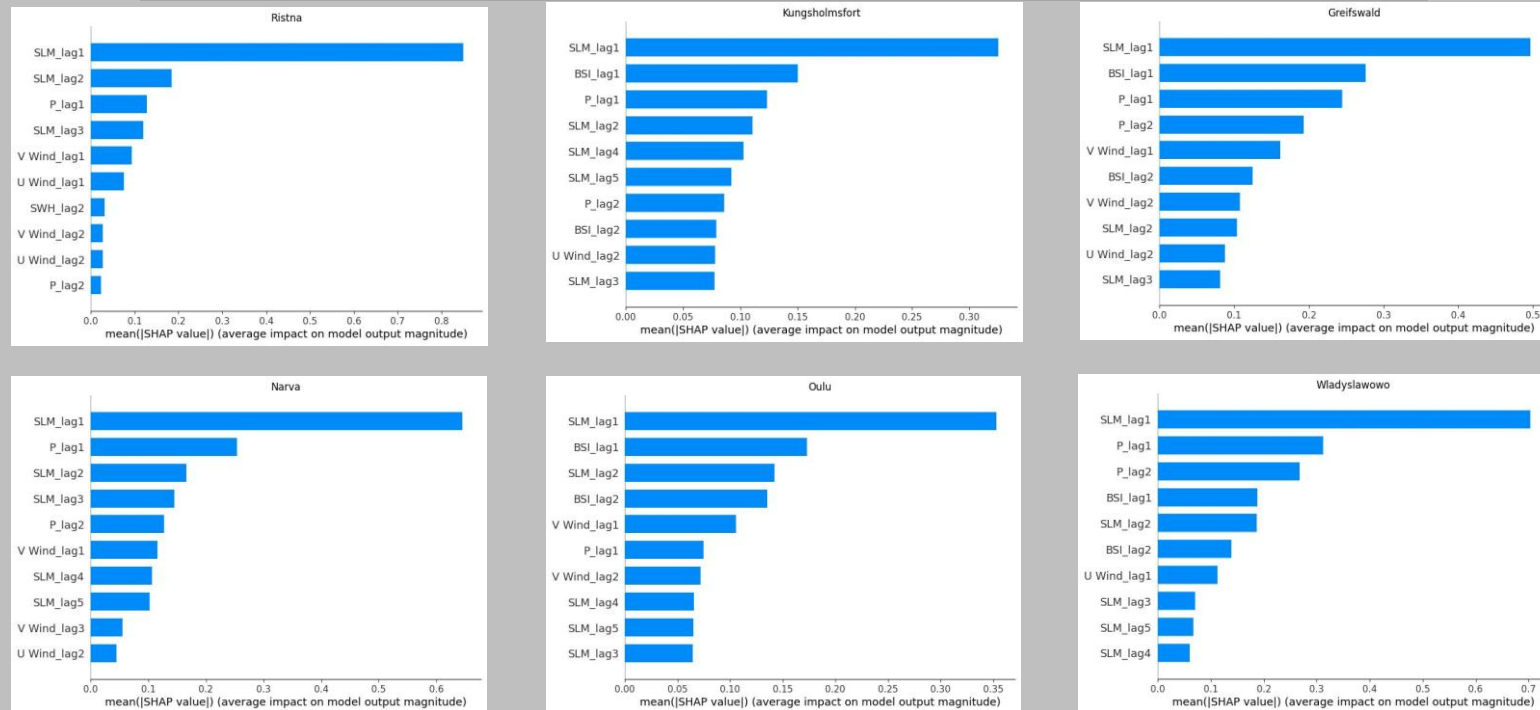
GEV distribution with block maxima (Arns et al., 2013)



- *Winter season* tends to experience *greater SLM*
- Seasonal return periods shows that *sea level maxima of 150 cm (underestimated by models) has a 5-year winter return period in Narva and 7-year return period in Oulu stations* (consistent with recent studies in the Baltic Sea, (Wolski et al., 2025))
- This study's *37 yr trained DL/ML* models were *not sufficient* in capturing these *extremes*

EXPLAINABILITY RESULTS: CNN-GRU MODEL

SHAP feature importance bar plot (Lundberg and Lee, 2017)



- The **SLM the day before had the greatest influence** on models predictions
- Other features like „**pressure**“, "**BSI**", and **wind components** also appear frequently in the rankings, although their significance varies depending on the location
- The **Baltic Sea Index (BSI)** lags are significant in mostly western locations, such as **Kungsholmsfort**, **Greifswald** and **Wladyslawowo**
- Wind-related variables, such as "**U Wind**" and "**V Wind**", had greater impacts for stations like Oulu in Finland
- **SWH** was most influential at **Ristna station**

Western locations more affected by atmospheric forcing from the North Atlantic than the eastern stations, usually more localized effects are frequent. Highest SLM found on the eastern section

SUMMARY

- Overall for forecasting SLM:
 - Deep Learning method **CNN-GRU** model demonstrated **superior performance** (accuracy of 7–14.9 cm)
 - Other ML models like XGB and RF exhibited overfitting, (high training accuracy but lower test accuracy)
- Models **capturing** most of the peaks around **100–130 cm**, although **missing** some exceptional peaks **e.g. 150 cm**
- Key differences in our approach that have led to this improvements in forecasting SLM include:
 - **using daily maximum values** from a long historical dataset instead of hourly data,
 - a more extensive feature set using a **nonlinear mutual information (MI) method**,
 - **utilization of Bayesian optimization** that allows fine-tuning of hyperparameters for each station
- Models still **unpredicted results during some storms (SLM > (130 to 150 cm))**. This could be due to trainind data set too short or non-stationarity dynamics not catpured by models
- **Winter season** tends to experience **frequent SLM**. **SLM > 150 cm tends to occur every 5 to 7 year at Narva and Oulu stations**
- **Western locations** more affected by conditions of **North Atlantic**, whilst **eastern locations** affected by **localized atmospheric conditions**. **Eastern locations experienced greater SLM**
- A **combination of methods** allows a deeper understanding of SLM

IMPROVING ON HYDRODYNAMIC MODELS

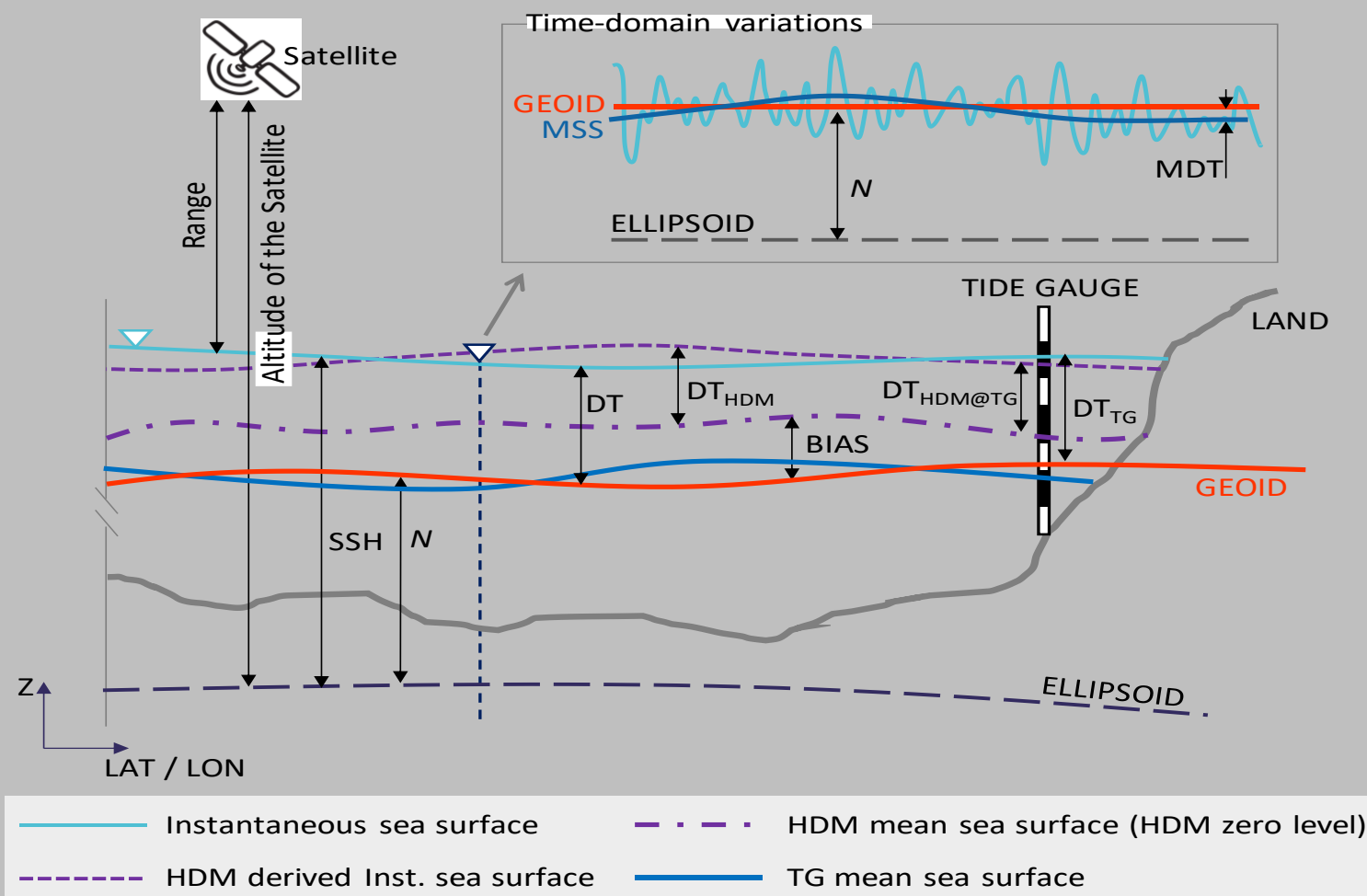
References

Jahanmard, Vahidreza; Löptien, Ulrike; Sandø, Anne Britt; Gierisch, Andrea M. U.; Dietze, Heiner; Lien, Vidar; Delpeche-Ellmann, Nicole; Hordoir, Robinson (2025). Barotropic Trends Through the Barents Sea Opening for the Period 1975–2021. *Journal of Geophysical Research Oceans*, 130, 1, 1–20. DOI: 10.1029/2024JC021663.

Jahanmard, Vahidreza; Hordoir, Robinson; Delpeche-Ellmann, Nicole; Ellmann, Artu (2023). Quantification of Hydrodynamic Model Sea Level Bias Utilizing Deep Learning and Synergistic Integration of Data Sources. *Ocean Modelling*, 186, #102286. DOI: 10.1016/j.ocemod.2023.102286.

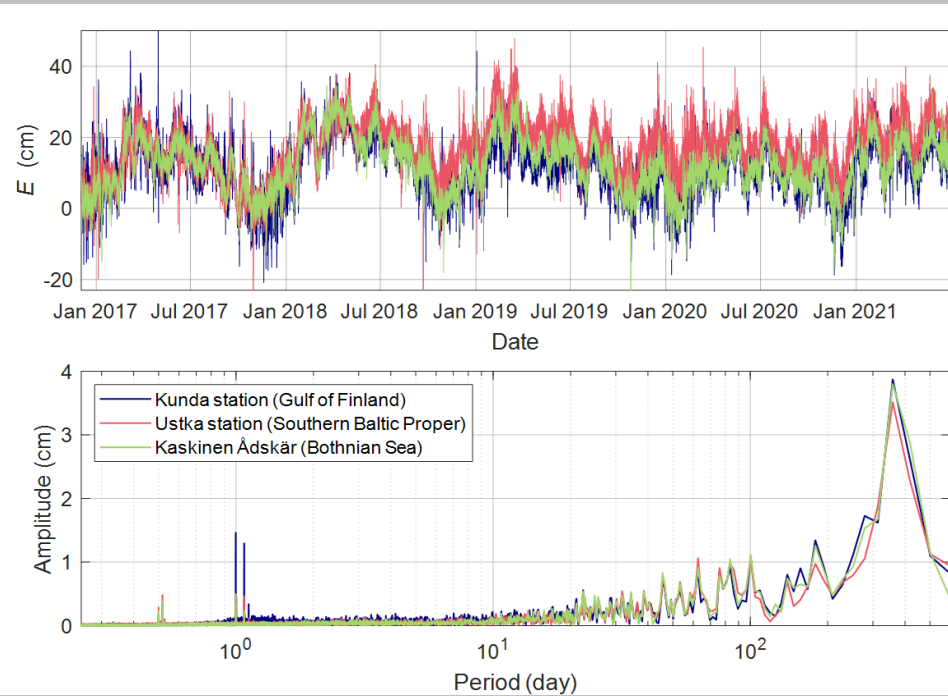
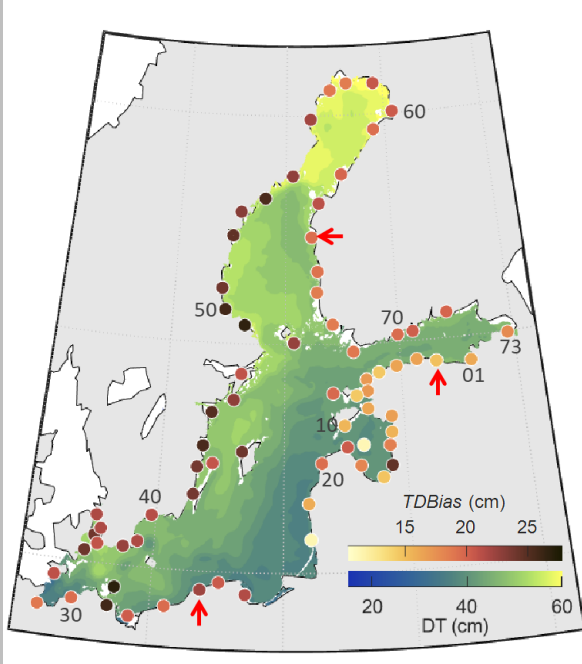
Jahanmard, V.; Delpeche-Ellmann, N.; Ellmann, A. (2022). Towards realistic dynamic topography from coast to offshore by incorporating hydrodynamic and geoid models. *Ocean Modelling*, #102124. DOI: 10.1016/j.ocemod.2022.102124.

SOURCES OF SEA LEVEL DATA: VERTICAL REFERENCE



VERTICAL REFERENCE DIFFERENCES: HDM VS TG

$$E(\varphi_{TG}, \lambda_{TG}, t) = [DT]_{HDM}(\varphi_{TG}, \lambda_{TG}, t) - [DT]_{TG}(\varphi_{TG}, \lambda_{TG}, t)$$



Question/Challenge:

- Coastal areas can be corrected by TG but what is the procedure in the offshore areas?

Observations:

- Difference can be as much as -20 to 40cm
- Stations follows similar pattern and frequency of error

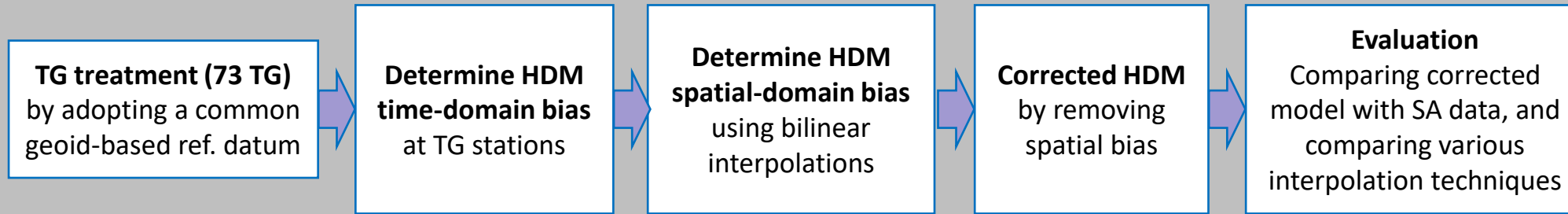
Differences:

- Spatial and temporal resolution differs
- Vertical datum differs
- Different mode of measurement

METHOD FOR CORRECTING HDM BIAS (COASTAL TO OFFSHORE)

Method I: use of geoid-referenced TG network

- Use a dense close-loop network of TGs with a common geoid-based reference datum (i.e., BSCD2000).
- Propagate HDM discrepancies from stations to offshore using a bilinear interpolation at each time instant.

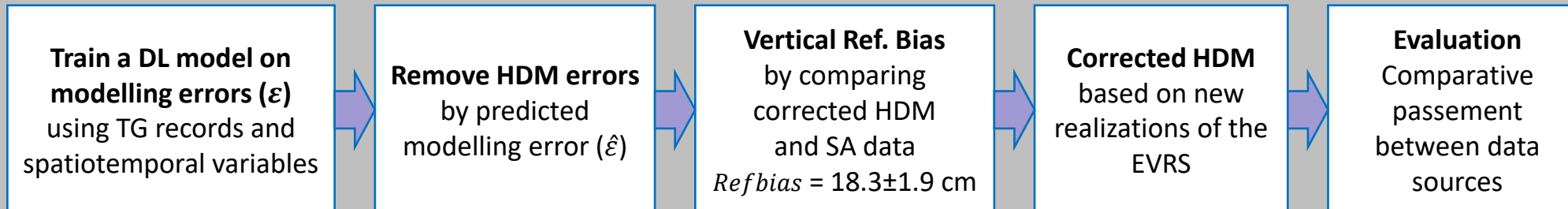


Method II: use of deep learning (DL) model in a way that: $E(\varphi, \lambda, t) = \varepsilon(\varphi, \lambda, t) + RefBias$

where:

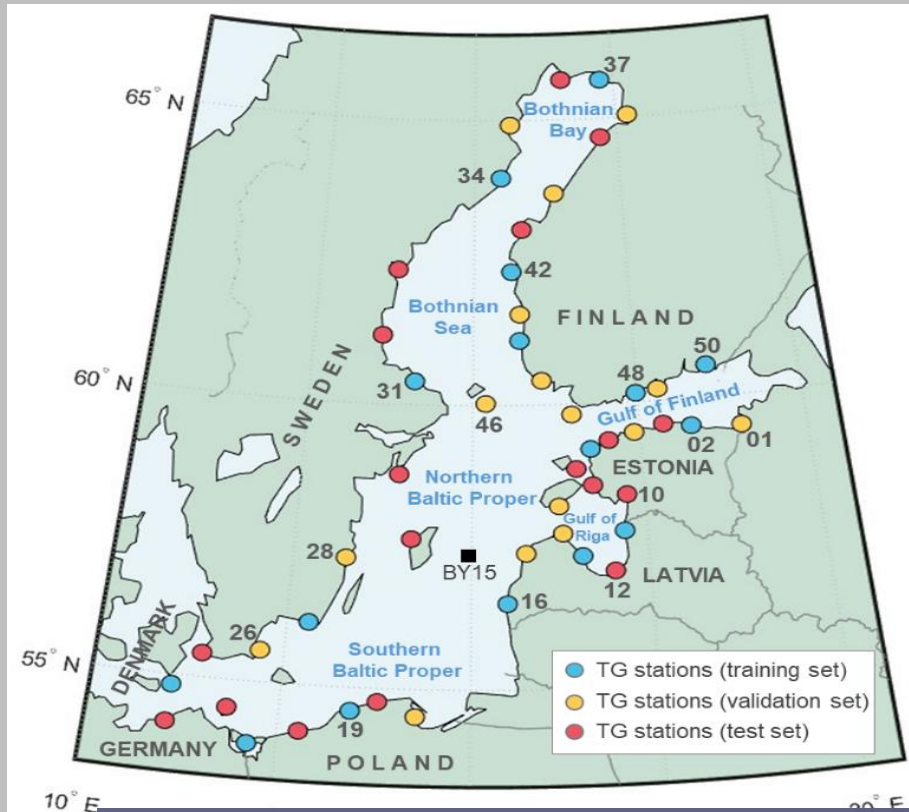
ε is HDM modelling errors (can be predicted by a DL model)

RefBias is the differences between HDM's reference surface and a particular geoid model.

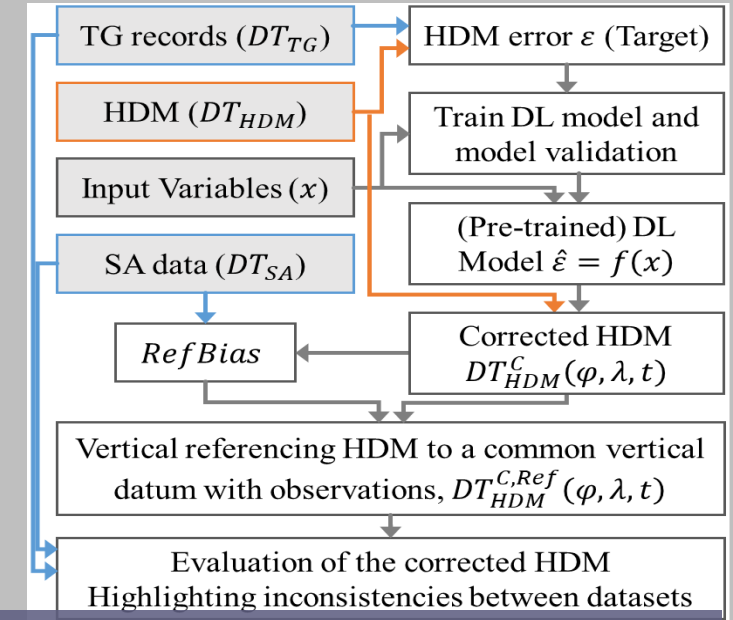
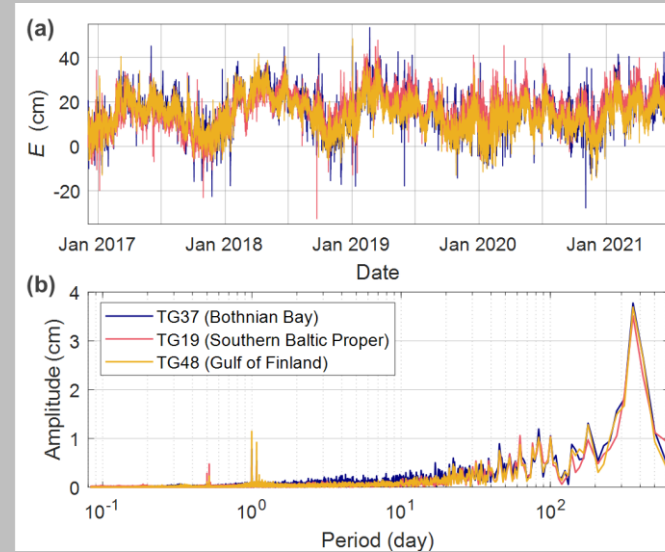


RESULTS: METHOD 2, DEEP LEARNING (WAVENET APPROACH)

$$\mathbf{E}(\varphi, \lambda, t) = \varepsilon(\varphi, \lambda, t) + \text{RefBias}$$



- 4.5 years examined
- Train: 16 TG stations (blue)
- Test: 18 TG stations (red)
- Validation : 16 stations (yellow)
- Evaluated: 52 stations

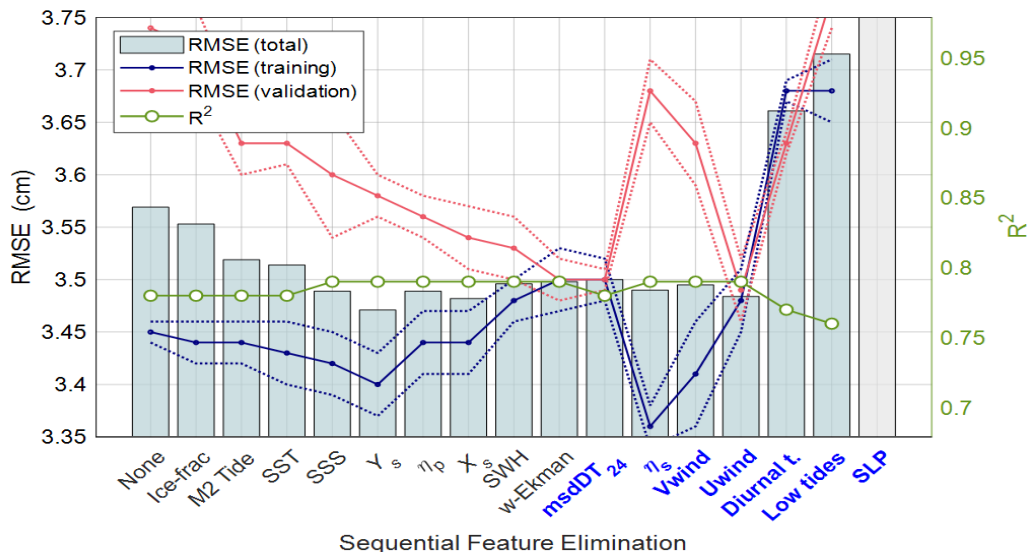


- The HDM error ε expected to consist of different components that are most likely to be predictable both in time and space.
- RefBias is expected to be constant both in space and time
- DL model with temporal dilated causal convolution layers inspired by **WaveNet (Oord et al., 2016)**...(spectrum analysis)
- Causal convolution is unidirectional (1D), and the learnable parameters (i.e., weights and biases) are trained to predict the current component using historical information

METHOD II: DETERMINE RELEVANT INPUTS/VARIABLES

$$E(\varphi, \lambda, t) = \varepsilon(\varphi, \lambda, t) + RefBias$$

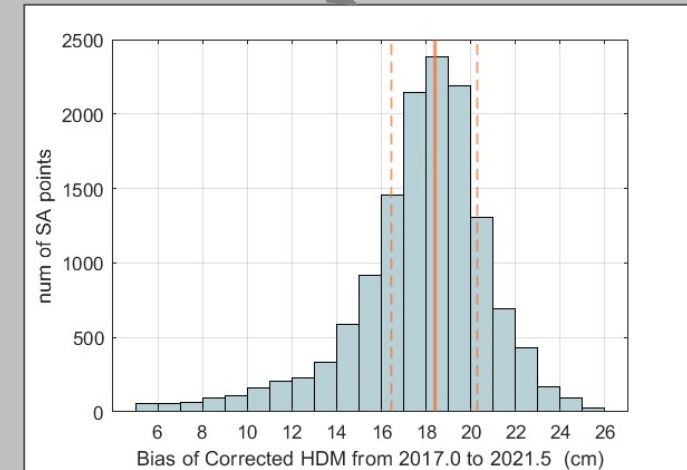
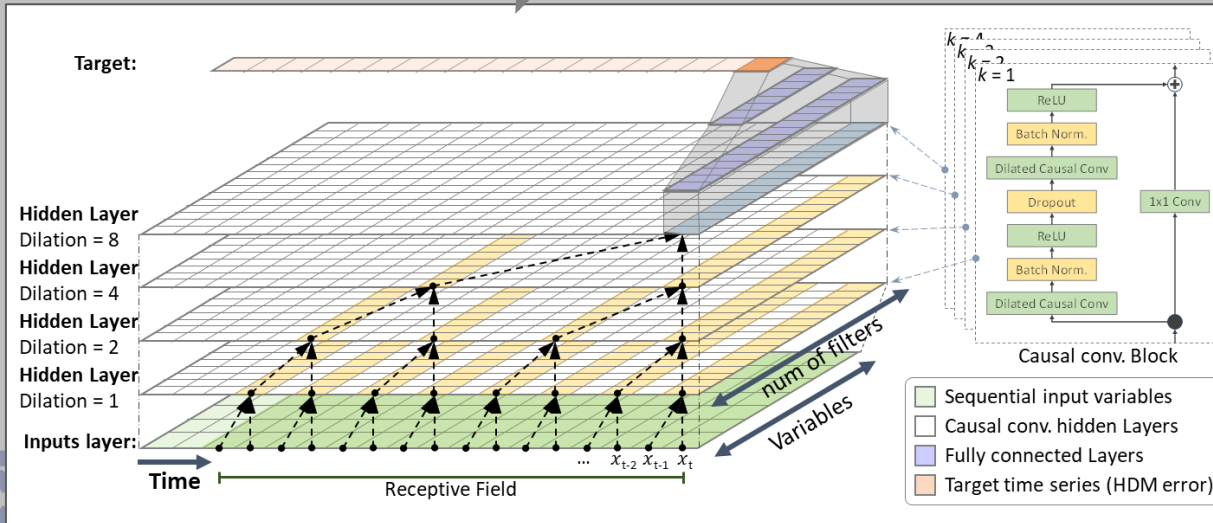
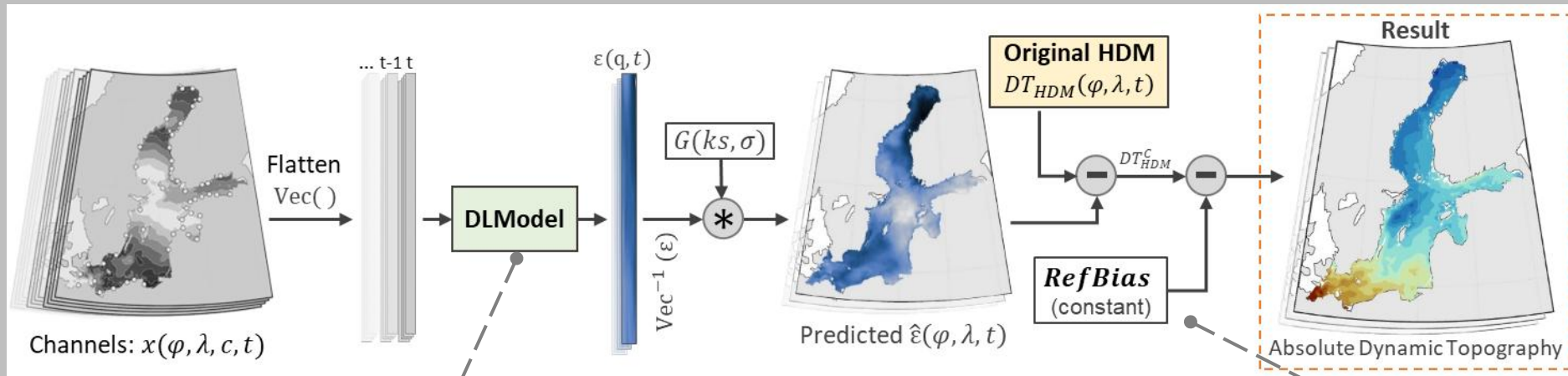
- A wrapper-type sequential feature elimination algorithm was utilized
- The algorithm starts training with a subset of variables and then removes a variable based on an elimination criterion. This criterion is a combination of the RMSEs from both the training and validation sets,
- **DL model was generalized** over the spatial dimension using input variables: '*msdDT₂₄*', '*η_s*', '*Uwind*', '*Vwind*', '*Diurnal tides*', '*Low tides*', and '*SLP*'.

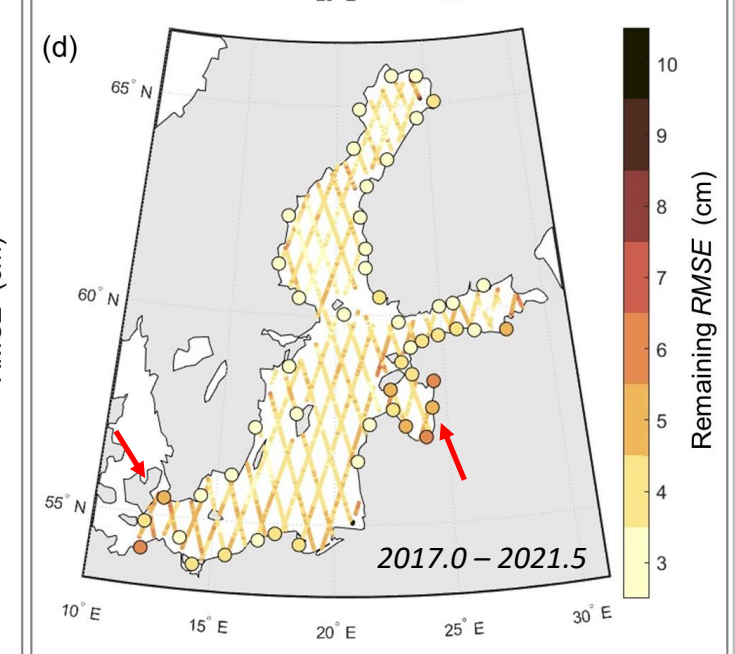
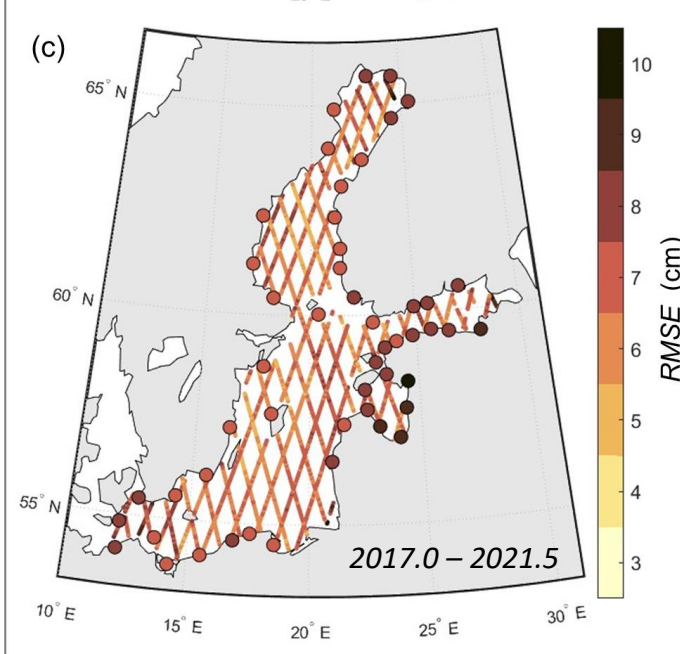
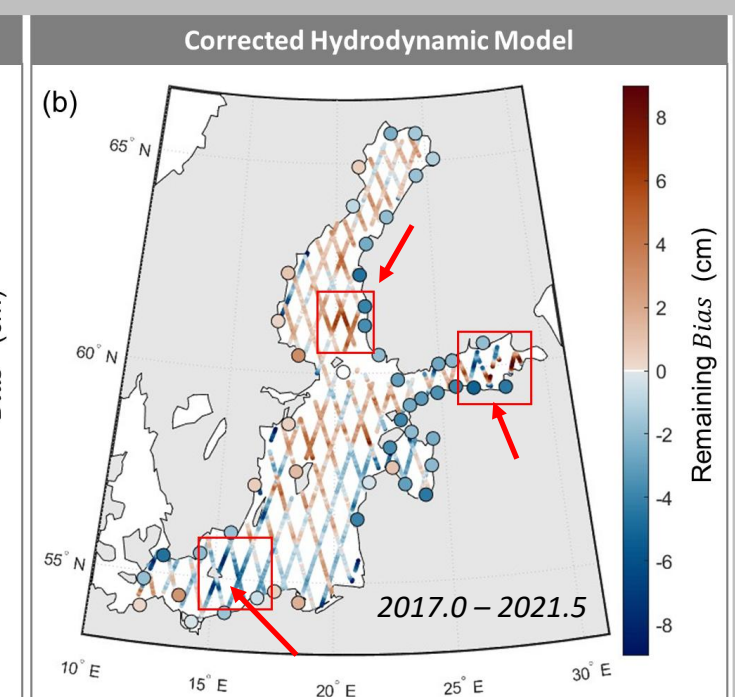
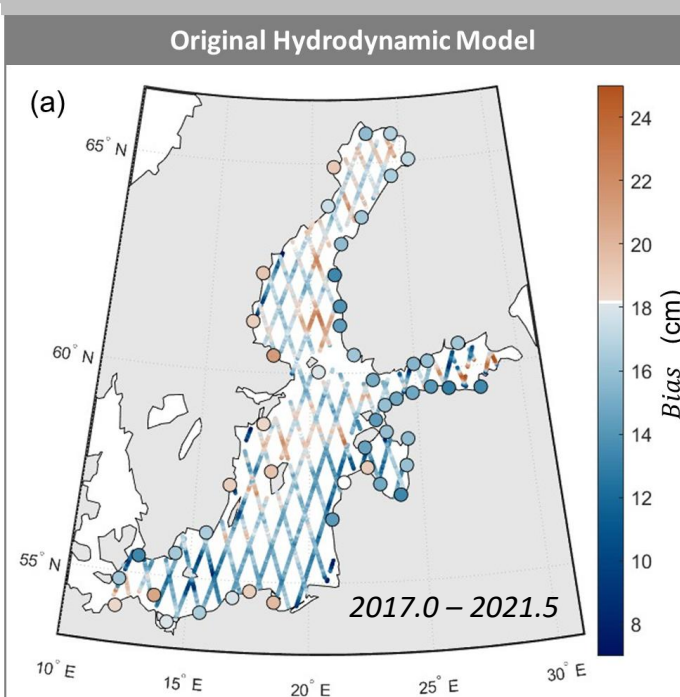
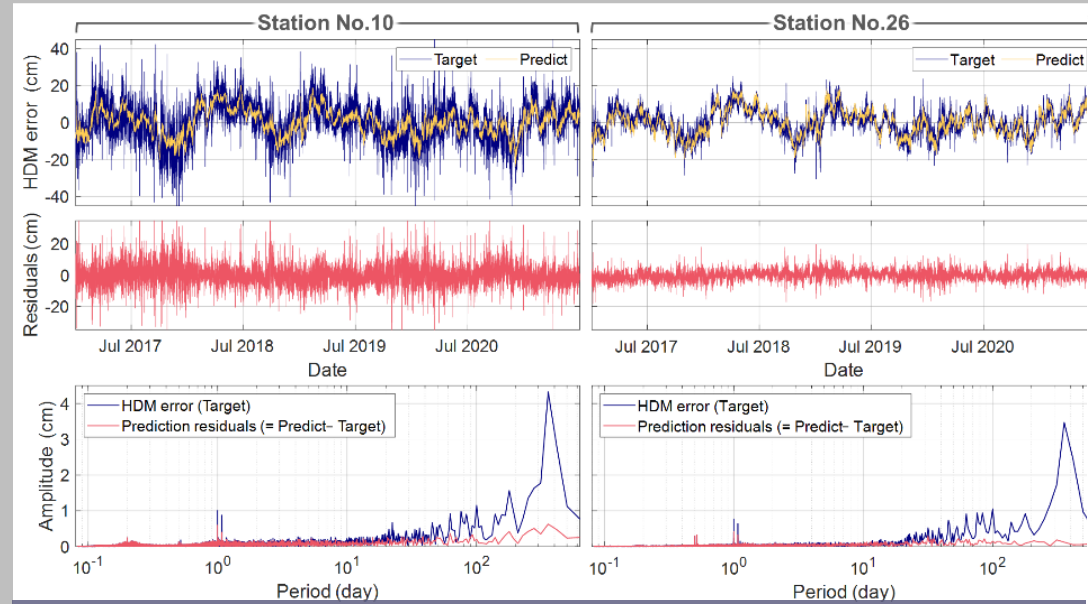


	Variable	units	Sourced resolution		Data source
			Temporal	Spatial	
1	Zonal wind (Uwind)	m/s	Hourly	1 NM	Sourced from Nemo-Nordic dataset
2	Meridional wind (Vwind)	m/s	Hourly	1 NM	
3	Sea surface temperature (SST)	°C	Hourly	1 NM	
4	Sea surface salinity (SSS)	psu	Hourly	1 NM	
5	Ice fraction (Ice-frac)	%	Hourly	1 NM	
6	Zonal wind stress (X_s)	Pa	Computed at the HDM grid points with an hourly temporal resolution using U and Vwind		
7	Meridional wind stress (Y_s)	Pa			
8	Ekman pumping (w-Ekman)	m/s			
9	Sea surface pressure (SLP)	Pa	3-hourly	5.5 km	Copernicus: https://doi.org/10.24381/cds.622a565a
10	Precipitation water col. (η_p)	cm	Hourly	0.25°	MTPR was sourced from Copernicus: https://doi.org/10.24381/cds.a4dbb2d47
11	Significant wave height (SWH)	m	Hourly	2 km	Copernicus; https://doi.org/10.48670/moi-00014
12	Semi-diurnal tide (M2)	cm	Computed at the HDM grid points with an hourly temporal resolution		Aviso: https://www.aviso.altimetry.fr/
13	Diurnal tides	cm			
14	Low tides	cm			
15	Steric height changes (η_s)	cm			Monthly profiles of S and T were sourced from SHARKweb: https://sharkweb.smhi.se/
16	Sea level variability ($msdDT_{24}$)	cm			Computed

METHOD

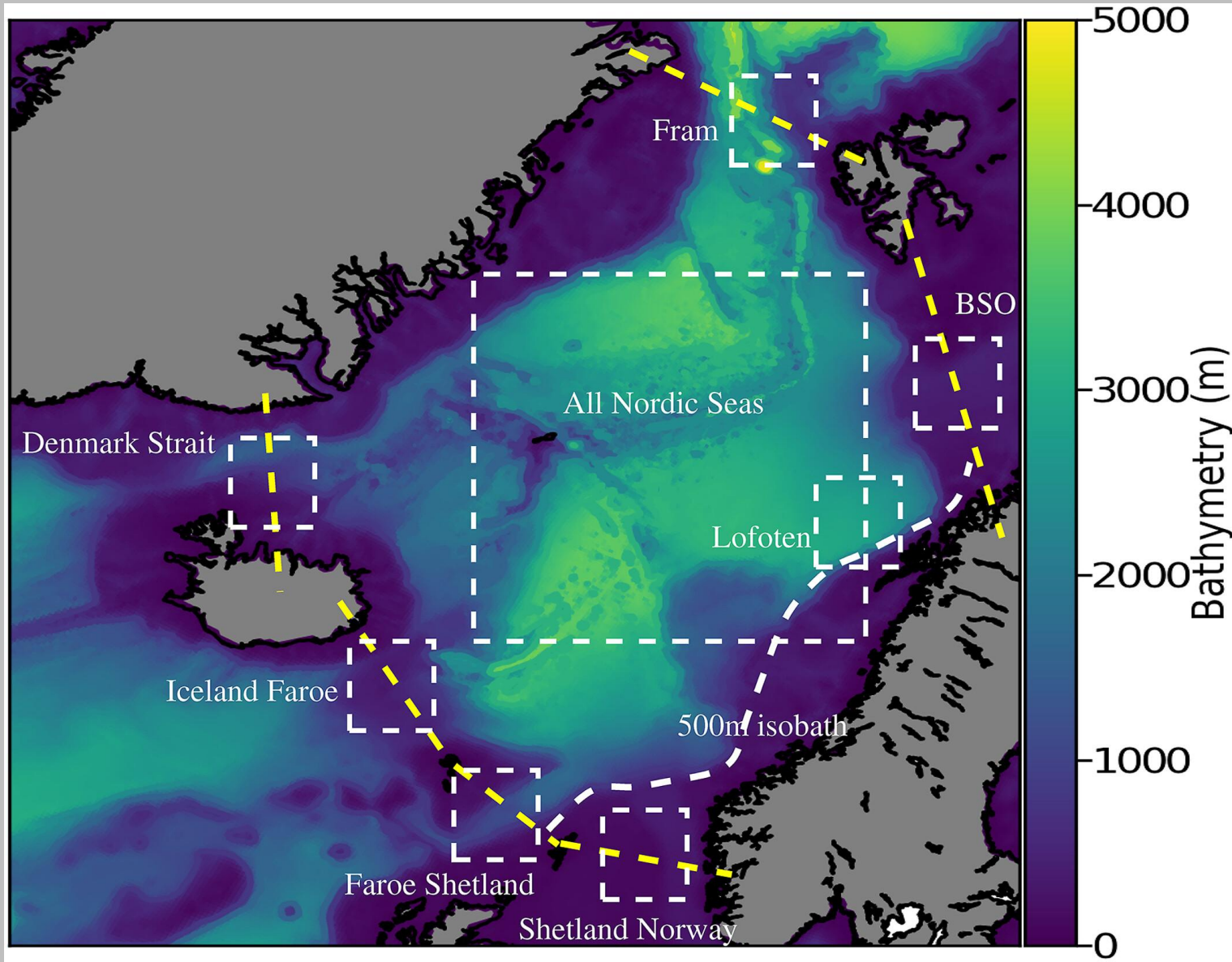
$$E(\varphi, \lambda, t) = \varepsilon(\varphi, \lambda, t) + RefBias$$





- RMSE of the Nemo-Nordic model relative to TGs improved from **7.6 cm** to **3.4 cm**.
- RMSE relative to satellite altimetry decreased from **6.5 cm** to **4.1 cm**.
- Some **problematic areas after correction** a (remaining bias exceeding ± 7 cm): **eastern Gulf of Finland, Bothnian Sea, and the Southwest of the Baltic Sea (Bornholm)**
- Eastern Gulf of Finland, Bothnian Sea (geoid problem); Bornholm Is (uncertain)
- High RMSE areas Gulf of Riga and the entrance of the Baltic Sea where seiches may be present and that the DL model was not able to replicate

APPLICATION TO BARENTS SEA



- Ocean model shows that the simulated volume transport at the BSO increases for the period 1975–2021. Thus bringing warmer waters into the Atlantic
- We attempted to reconstruct the temporal evolution of the BSO flow based on local time series of surface winds using a multivariate deep neural network.
- By combining expert knowledge with trial and error, we find that in order to reconstruct the flow (a) all wind data backlogged as far as 21 days and, occasionally, even as far back as 30 days is required and (b) daily resolution is insufficient, as it fails to capture the full amplitude of the trend in BSO flow

SUMMARIZING

- **Hydrodynamic Improvements**

- A temporal-spatial bias exist in HDM that consists of a reference bias and modelling errors
- Machine learning using WaveNet approach can: (i) increase accuracy of Nemo Nordic; (ii) identify and quantify errors (reference bias and modelling errors)
- DL model identified seven main input variables: sea level pressure, diurnal and low tides, zonal and meridional wind, steric height, and sea level variability for predicting the modelling errors
- Machine Learning depends on input variables considered so often generalized approach utilized. So location dependent variables should also be considered e.g. ice conditions
- DL model is successful in estimating the low-frequency HDM errors, including annual and seasonal cycles. Further efforts are required for high-frequency errors.
- Corrected HDM improved by a factor of 2, RMSE of the Nemo-Nordic model relative to TGs improved from 7.6 cm to 3.4 cm and
- Satellite altimetry crucial for validation especially in offshore areas

- **We applied similar approach to the Barent Sea Opening**

**TAL
TECH**

THANK YOU FOR YOUR ATTENTION!

QUESTIONS