

1 **An elicitation process to quantify Bayesian networks for dam failure analysis**

2 Andrea Verzobio^{a,*}, Ahmed El-Awady^{b,c}, Kumaraswamy Ponnambalam^c, John Quigley^d and
3 Daniele Zonta^e

4 ^aDepartment of Civil and Environmental Engineering, University of Strathclyde, Glasgow, UK;
5 andrea.verzobio@strath.ac.uk

6 ^bDepartment of Environmental Engineering Science, Institute of Environmental Studies and
7 Research, Ain Shams University, Cairo, Egypt; ahmed.awady@iesr.asu.edu.eg

8 ^cDepartment of Systems Design Engineering, University of Waterloo, Ontario, Canada;
9 aelawady@uwaterloo.ca, ponnu@uwaterloo.ca

10 ^dDepartment of Management Science, University of Strathclyde, Glasgow, UK;
11 j.quigley@strath.ac.uk

12 ^eDepartment of Civil, Environmental and Mechanical Engineering, University of Trento, Trento,
13 Italy; daniele.zonta@unitn.it

14 *Corresponding author: Andrea Verzobio, Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering,
15 University of Strathclyde, 75 Montrose Street, Glasgow, G1 1XJ, Scotland, UK; 07842880677;
16 andrea.verzobio@strath.ac.uk

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18 **Abstract**

19 Bayesian Networks support the probabilistic failure analysis of complex systems, e.g. dams and
20 bridges, needed for a better understanding of the system reliability and for taking mitigation
21 actions. In particular, they are useful in representing graphically the interactions among system
22 components, while the quantitative strength of the interrelationships between the variables is
23 measured using conditional probabilities. However, due to a lack of objective data it often becomes
24 necessary to rely on expert judgment to provide subjective probabilities to quantify the model.
25 This paper proposes an elicitation process that can be used to support the collection of valid and
26 reliable data with the specific aim of quantifying a Bayesian Network, while minimizing the
27 adverse impact of biases to which judgment is commonly subjected. To illustrate how this
28 framework works, it is applied to a real-life case study regarding the safety of the Mountain Chute
29 Dam and Generating Station, which is located on the Madawaska River in Ontario, Canada. This
30 contribution provides a demonstration of the usefulness of eliciting engineering expertise with
31 regard to system reliability analysis.

32 **Keywords**

33 Dam safety, Bayesian network, statistical inference, elicitation, expert knowledge, expert
34 judgment.

35 **1. Introduction**

36 Dams fail due to a combination of more frequent load and reduced resistance to the load
37 exceeding the facility's capacity, design problems, unexpected flood events or inappropriate
38 decisions in managing dams. Such failures, including breaches, may lead to catastrophic events
39 which affect both properties and lives of people. Maintaining dams is challenging, as resources

40 such as labor and capital are limited, facilities are remote and usage profiles are uncertain. Global
41 weather patterns have been changing, causing periods of flooding, which have resulted in an
42 increase in operating the dams. Understanding and anticipating the environment in which the dams
43 will operate is vital for maintaining the availability of the asset. Effectively maintaining the asset
44 requires a mathematical model to explicate the relationship between environment, usage, hazards
45 and management decisions, and to support the optimal long-term productivity of the asset.

46 While several examples of mathematical and probabilistic approaches used to evaluate the
47 safety of dams can be found in the literature (Yanmaz & Gunindi, 2008) (Li, et al., 2011)
48 (Goodarzi, et al., 2012) (Su, et al., 2015), in this contribution we decide to use the Bayesian
49 Network (BN) since it has many advantages and it is an increasingly popular method for reasoning
50 under uncertainty and modelling uncertain domains. For instance, in comparison with two most
51 commonly used approaches, i.e. the Event Tree Analysis (ETA) and the Fault Tree Analysis
52 (FTA), BNs can more succinctly represent the dependency relationship between a large number of
53 variables, permit variables to be described in multiple states not just binary, i.e. true or false,
54 describe and represent multiple initiating events, and explicitly integrate different types of data,
55 e.g. technical, environmental and social, in a single unified representation. Comparisons between
56 BN and ETA or FTA in safety analysis can be found in (Khakzad, et al., 2011) (Jong & Leu, 2013)
57 (Zerrouki & Tamrabet, 2015a) (Zerrouki & Tamrabet, 2015b).

58 BNs provide a powerful framework for reasoning under uncertainty, and consequently have
59 been recently applied to various engineering problems, e.g. earthquake risk management
60 (Bayraktarli, et al., 2005) (Bensi, et al., 2011) (Liu & Nadim, 2013), avalanche risk assessment
61 (Gret-Regamey & Straub, 2006), landslide hazard mitigation (Medina-Cetina & Nadim, 2008),
62 reliability analysis (Langsetha & Portinaleb, 2007), climate change assessment (Peter, et al., 2009),
63 risk assessment in maritime engineering (Kelangath, et al., 2011), environmental modelling and

64 management (Aguilera, et al., 2011), risk assessment for fatigue damage (Sankararaman, et al.,
65 2011) (Ling & Mahadevan, 2012), scour management (Maroni, et al., 2019). In addition, as regards
66 the topic of this paper, in the literature we can find many papers in which BNs are used to develop
67 dam safety analysis, among the many we recommend (Smith, 2006) (Xu, et al., 2011) (Zhang, et
68 al., 2011) (Miroslaw-Swiatek, et al., 2012) (Peng & Zhang, 2013) (Ahmadi, et al., 2015) (Gang,
69 et al., 2016) (Eldosouky, et al., 2017) (Liu, et al., 2017) (Briseno-Ramiro, et al., 2019)
70 (Dassanavake & Mousa, 2020).

71 Specifically, BNs are probabilistic graphical models that use directed acyclic graph to represent
72 a set of uncertain variables and their conditional dependencies (Charniak, 1991) (Ben Gal, 2007)
73 (Jensen & Nielsen, 2007). In detail, nodes represent the collection of random variables, while
74 edges represent the interrelationship between these variables. While the topology of the BN
75 provides the causal structuring of the problem under study, the quantitative strength of the
76 interrelationships among variables is measured using conditional probability distributions, which
77 can be updated when new data become available. Typically, the quantification of the probabilities
78 may be obtained from statistical and historical data, existing physical or empirical models and
79 logic inference. However, these quantification sources and methodologies are often not easy to be
80 conducted and not sufficient to quantify the entire BN, due to the lack of sufficient models that
81 interpret the interrelationships among system variables and due to the lack of data and information.
82 Consequently, it becomes necessary to rely on expert judgments to quantify these dependencies:
83 engineering knowledge and experience can be an important data source for estimating these
84 probabilities (Dias, et al., 2018).

85 Eliciting expert judgment in the form of subjective probabilities is a socio-technical activity.
86 As such it requires a structured and facilitated process to extract meaningful judgments because
87 people, even experts, are unable to provide accurate and reliable data simply on request (Ferrell,

88 1994) (Vick, 2002). An example about discrepancies between experts in risk assessment can be
89 found in (Rizak & Hrudey, 2005). In addition, since the work of Tversky and Kahneman in the
90 early 1970s (Tversky & Kahneman, 1974), there has been awareness of the biases and heuristics
91 people apply in decision-making under uncertainty that can result in poor probability assessments.
92 Elicitation processes are designed to minimize the influence of these biases (Quigley & Walls,
93 2020). In the literature, there are a variety of existing processes for eliciting expert knowledge with
94 engineering applications, see for instance (Bubniz, et al., 1998), (Hodge, et al., 2001) and
95 (Astfalck, et al., 2018). Textbooks such as (Cooke, 1991), (Meyer & Booker, 1991) and (Dias, et
96 al., 2018) are references for general aspects of elicitation. However, very little has been reported
97 about elicitation processes aimed specifically at quantifying BNs using expert judgment
98 (Sigurdsson, et al., 2001) (Norrington, et al., 2008) (Christophersen, et al., 2018), especially for
99 civil engineering applications, where we require experts to assess a variety of dependent variables,
100 each of which is in one of several possible states. In particular, a methodology to support the
101 collection of valid and reliable data in order to quantify the BN is not available.

102 In this paper, the aim is to develop a methodology for eliciting expert knowledge in the specific
103 case where the model is described by a BN. We start with an introduction of the fundamentals of
104 BNs in section 2. In section 3, a four-stage structured elicitation process is developed generically
105 so that it can be applied to many civil engineering structures, e.g. dams and bridges. Section 4
106 presents an implementation of this methodology, with its application to a real-life case study
107 regarding the safety of the Mountain Chute Dam and Generating Station, which is situated on the
108 Madawaska River in Ontario, Canada. Concluding remarks, along with the explanation of the
109 lessons learnt from the application, are presented at the end of the paper.

110 2. Bayesian Networks

111 Bayesian Networks (BNs), also known as Bayes networks, belief networks or decision
112 networks, are probabilistic graphical models used to represent knowledge about an uncertain
113 domain using a combination of principles from graph theory, probability theory, computer science,
114 and statistics (Charniak, 1991) (Ben Gal, 2007) (Jensen & Nielsen, 2007). In the graph, nodes
115 represent the collection of random variables, while edges represent the interrelationship between
116 these variables. In addition, each node is associated with conditional probability values that model
117 the uncertain relationship between the node and its parents; they compose the so-called node
118 probability table (NPT). BNs can model the quantitative strength of the interrelationships among
119 variables, i.e. the nodes, allowing their probabilities to be updated using any new available data
120 and information. They are mathematically rigorous, understandable, and efficient in computing
121 joint probability distribution over a set of random variables, and consequently very useful in
122 supporting risk analysis of complex systems.

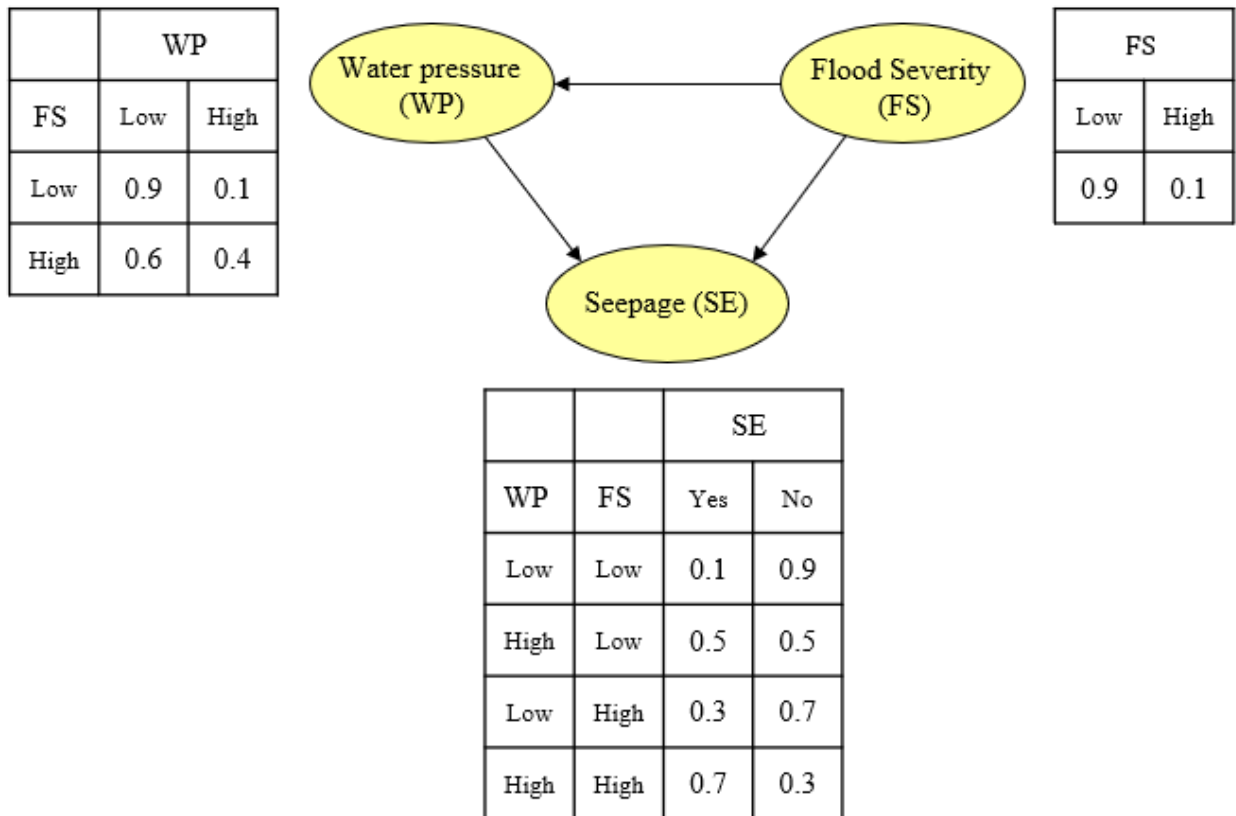
123 BNs are probabilistic graphical models that use directed acyclic graph (DAG): this means that
124 a set of directed edges are used to connect the set of nodes, where these edges represent direct
125 statistical dependencies among variables, with the constraint of not having any directed cycles. Let
126 $X = (X_1, \dots, X_i, \dots, X_n)$ represent the set of nodes, i.e. the uncertain variables. A node X_j is called
127 parent of a child node X_i if there is a directed edge from node X_j to node X_i , meaning that X_i
128 depends on X_j . Each node can have many parents nodes, while nodes with no parent are called root
129 nodes and nodes with no child are called leaf nodes. In addition, each root node is associated with
130 a basic probability table (BPT), while each child node with a conditional probability table (CPT).
131 The joint probability function of random variables in a BN can be expressed as follows:

132

$$P(X) = \prod_{i=1}^n P[X_i | Pa(X_i)], \tag{1}$$

133 where $P(X)$ is the joint probability and $Pa(X_i)$ is the parent set of node X_i . If X_i has no parents, i.e.
 134 it is a root node, then the function reduces to the unconditional probability of $P(X_i)$. A simple
 135 example of BN with three variables as regards dam safety analysis is shown in Figure 1: both the
 136 severity of the flood and a high-water pressure can cause the presence of seepage in the dam; in
 137 addition, the flood severity has a direct effect on the level of water pressure. The table related to
 138 the flood severity, that is a root node, represent an example of BPT, while the tables of the other
 139 two child nodes are examples of CPT.

140 **Figure 1.** An example of BN with three variables.



141

142 Generically, in BNs there are two main types of reasoning: predictive reasoning, i.e. top-down

143 or forward reasoning, in which evidence nodes are connected through parent nodes (cause to
144 effect), and diagnostic reasoning, i.e. bottom-up or backward reasoning, in which evidence nodes
145 are connected through child nodes (effect to cause).

146 Finally, we can summarize how to build and use a BN with three steps: structuring the problem,
147 defining the conditional probabilities, and making the final inference. The first step aims to define
148 the topology of the BN: first, the relevant variables of the problem are identified and expressed as
149 statistical variables, discrete or continuous; then, the network is created by joining the variables
150 according to their dependency. The second step is about quantifying the interrelationship among
151 connected nodes, i.e. defining the CPTs, as well as the BPTs in the case of root nodes. They may
152 be obtained from statistical and historical data, existing physical or empirical models, logic
153 inference or they may be elicited from experts. Lastly, the inference step concerns entering the
154 evidence in the BN, updating the probabilities, and interpreting the final results.

155 **3. Elicitation Process for Bayesian Networks**

156 In this paper, the aim is to support the collection of valid and reliable data in order to quantify
157 a BN, by developing a methodology for the specific case where the topology of the BN has already
158 been defined, i.e. with the problem already structured. In this case, the elicitation process is then
159 required to extract and quantify the subjective judgments about the uncertain quantities, which are
160 the conditional probabilities that represent the interrelationships among connected nodes.

161 There are various protocols for probability elicitation (Morgan, et al., 1990), for a recent review
162 see (Quigley & Walls, 2020). The methodology proposed in this contribution is adapted from the
163 Stanford Research Institute (SRI) model (Ferrell, 1985) (Spetzler & Stael Von Holstein, 1985)
164 (Merkhofer, 1987). Accordingly, the process for eliciting expert judgment is based on seven
165 possible stages: motivating the experts with the aims of the elicitation process, structuring the

166 uncertain quantities in an unambiguous way, conditioning the expert's judgement to avoid
167 cognitive biases, encoding the probability distributions, verifying the consistency of the elicited
168 distributions, aggregating probabilities from different experts and discretizing continuous
169 probability distributions. Moreover, to conduct an elicitation process at least two characters are
170 necessary: a subject, i.e. the expert, and an analyst, i.e. the interviewer. The first one provides
171 expertise, i.e. he/she is "a person with substantive knowledge about the events whose uncertainty
172 is to be assessed" (Ferrell, 1985), while the second one has responsibility for designing, developing
173 and executing the process as well as evaluating the procedures. For the role of analyst, also called
174 facilitator, it is common to have at least one person who is very knowledgeable in elicitation
175 practice and can manage the process, and another one with wide expertise in the area of the design
176 project.

177 Starting from the SRI protocol and according to the specific requirements of a BN, we develop
178 a four-stage structured methodology to support the elicitation meaningfully. In the next subsection
179 each stage is extensively presented by defining each phase of the process, presenting the roles of
180 the key personnel and highlighting all the potential biases that may influence the process, while
181 proposing appropriate actions in order to minimize the risk of a biased judgment.

182 **3.1 The four-stage structured elicitation process**

183 In the following, each stage of the process is presented in detail; the flowchart in Figure 2 shows
184 the proposed elicitation process.

185 Stage 1: *Selecting*. To start, the analysts have to study carefully the project and the proposed
186 BN, to understand which kind of expertise is required: it is fundamental to ensure coverage of all
187 the different aspects of the problem, so more than one expert is usually necessary. This is even
188 more important in civil engineering applications, because in this field experts are usually very

189 specialized. Therefore, the analysts should identify the essential and desired characteristic of
190 experts and build up profiles of experts who may be able to answer questions concerning the
191 quantities of interest, i.e. the values required to be quantified in the BN. Constructing a profile
192 matrix can be useful (Bolger, 2018), which matches the knowledge requirements with the expert
193 roles: it supports the identification of expertise needed as well as justification for the choice of
194 experts. The number of required experts depends then on the variability of expertise per domain.
195 Adding as many experts as possible seems beneficial, however, practically it may be difficult to
196 manage many experts and there will be a diminishing return on adding more experts. In addition,
197 we have to be aware that in real-world it is not so easy to have the availability of many experts.
198 Once the experts have been selected, the analysts have to arrange meetings to conduct interviews.
199 Prior to the meetings, it is recommended to give to the experts an outline about the project and
200 where their knowledge will be useful, so that they have the opportunity to reflect upon the events.

201 Stage 2: *Structuring*. Individual interviews between the analysts and the selected experts are
202 conducted. The initial part of the interview has two purposes: to introduce the expert to the
203 encoding task as well as identifying and addressing motivational biases (Fischhoff, 1989), such as
204 management bias and expert bias. Management bias occurs when experts provide goals rather than
205 judgments, e.g. “the dam will not fail”, while expert bias comes when experts become overly
206 confident because they have been labelled as “experts”. During this initial part of the interview,
207 the BN should be explained, indicating the uncertainty variables that will be elicited and explaining
208 how this process can be useful as regards the resolution of the overall problem. The second part of
209 this stage is concerned with structuring the variables: each quantity of interest that will be
210 quantified needs to be specified so that a measurement scale can be determined. Even if the
211 topology of the BN has already been defined, it is fundamental to review with the experts the
212 definitions of the variables and their states, in order to structure the uncertain quantities in an

213 unambiguous and meaningful way, before starting with the encoding phase. Each variable must
214 have a clear definition that will be understood without any possibility of misunderstanding by the
215 expert. In addition, the states of every variable have to be determined in order to make
216 unambiguous the final estimation of the expert. It is common for a BN to represent the nodes with
217 discrete states: we suggest keeping them binary if possible, to minimize the number of variables
218 to quantify. Depending on the experience and mental models of the experts, it may be appropriate
219 to disaggregate the variable into more elemental variables. This can be very useful in the case of
220 the BN, because each node might depend on several aspects and it can be easier for the experts to
221 evaluate these secondary probabilities. This technique also allows the analysts to combat the
222 motivational biases introduced at the beginning of this stage, i.e. the so-called management bias
223 and expert bias, and also some cognitive biases, e.g. the conjunctive bias, by increasing the level
224 of detail. The conjunctive bias is one of the biases associated to the anchoring heuristic (Tversky
225 & Kahneman, 1974), which states that the overall probability is overestimated in conjunctive
226 problems and underestimated in disjunctive problems.

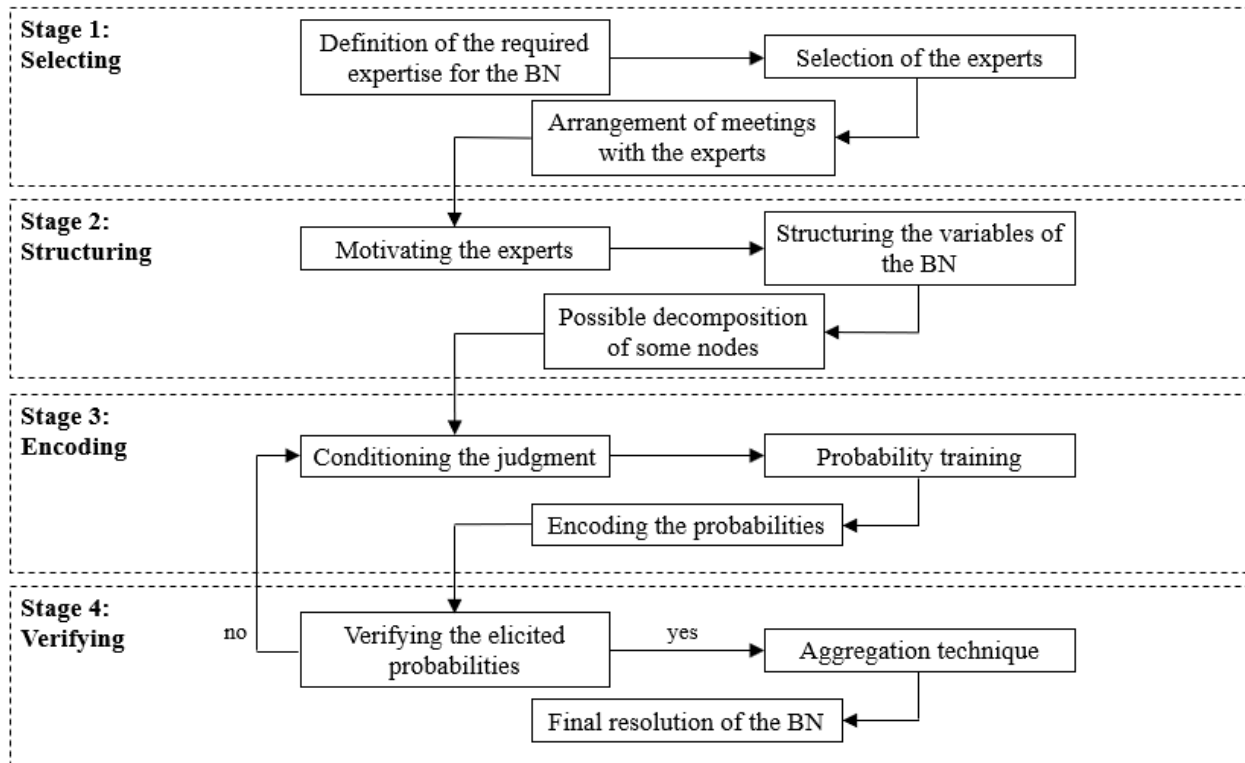
227 Stage 3: *Encoding*. This stage is concerned with encoding the expert's uncertainty on the
228 quantity of interest as a probability. Prior to eliciting these quantities training experts on probability
229 and providing relevant information for discussion should be conducted to minimize the presence
230 of potential biases (Tversky & Kahneman, 1974) (Armstrong, et al., 1975). In particular, this can
231 address biases such as anchoring (Tversky & Kahneman, 1974), i.e. when the evaluation is
232 conditioned by an initial assessment, and availability (Kahneman & Tversky, 1973), i.e. when the
233 evaluation is based on the ease with which relevant instances come to mind. Probability training
234 should be provided to calibrate the experts: a brief review of basic probability concepts may be
235 helpful, along with some training questions which can help the experts to become familiar with
236 the elicitation process itself. Experts should be trained on problems relevant to the questions on

237 which they will be providing judgement. When the training is completed, the encoding stage
238 commences. There are many available approaches to elicit probabilities, including direct
239 assessments of probabilities; for a review of methods we refer the Reader to (O'Hagan, et al., 2006).
240 A popular encoding procedure for distributions is the fractile method (Cooke 1991), where the expert
241 assesses the median value of their subjective probability distribution along with the (25th,75th) and the
242 (5th, 95th) percentiles. Once the initial values have been elicited a parametric distribution can be
243 investigated and assessed for fit with the elicited values. The order in which these quantities are
244 elicited should start with the extreme values first and progress towards the central values, in order to
245 avoid the so-called central bias, i.e. the tendency to give an answer that is closer to the center of
246 opinions, and to not give an extreme answer. If the expert is uncomfortable with percentiles,
247 questions can be rephrased using qualitative bands, such as “highly likely” or “highly unlikely”,
248 but the percentiles associated with these qualitative terms must be discussed and understood by
249 both expert and analysts. Alternately, graphical techniques (Chaloner, et al., 1993) may be useful
250 to improve the quality of the results. We recommend using the technique which makes the expert
251 more comfortable. In the case that there are a lot of probabilities to be elicited for the same node,
252 we suggest that the expert first ranks the factors from the most to the least influential and
253 subsequently quantifying the relationship, for instance following the swing weight method to
254 elicitation used with multi-attribute decision analysis (Belton & Steward, 2001). Moreover,
255 sometimes it is not possible to elicit data for all the BN components, especially when it is composed
256 by a huge number of nodes or due to a limited time available. In this case, we recommend
257 identifying the quantities of interest that make the most significant contribution to the assessment
258 of the structure, for example through a sensitivity analysis (Li & Mahadevan, 2018). Finally,
259 during the encoding phase, asking the same question in several ways can be a useful way of

260 identifying potential inconsistencies with expert assessments. If this occur the expert should be
261 confronted and encouraged to reflect and respond on the assessments.

262 Stage 4: *Verifying*. This final stage starts by verifying the consistency of the elicited
263 probabilities. First of all, the analysts should verify that each expert has provided a reflection of
264 their true beliefs. Moreover, it is important to check for trends across the elicited probabilities to
265 determine if there are any indicators of anchoring bias or availability bias. If the results are not
266 satisfactory or biased, the previous stage should be repeated. In the case that the same conditional
267 probabilities have been elicited from different experts, the analysts should then develop an
268 aggregation technique to obtain one single final result; see (Quigley, et al., 2018) for a
269 performance-based approach or, if a consensus amongst experts is desired, see (Gosling, 2018) for
270 a behavioral based approach. Since the proposed methodology is based on discrete states, the final
271 stage of the SRI model, i.e. discretizing continuous probability distributions, is not needed. Once
272 each elicited probability has been verified and, if necessary, aggregated, the analysts should solve
273 the overall BN to achieve the final results. We suggest discussing with the experts also these final
274 outcomes in order to have a further validation of the developed process. After that, the interview
275 ends and the process can be considered concluded.

276 **Figure 2.** Flowchart of the proposed elicitation process.



277

278 **4. The Mountain Chute Dam and GS case study**

279 The case study motivating our research is the Mountain Chute Dam and Generating Station
 280 (GS), which is operated by Ontario Power Generation (OPG). Mountain Chute Dam and GS,
 281 presented in Figure 3, is located in Greater Madawaska Township in Renfrew County (Ontario,
 282 Canada): it has an electric power generation capacity of 170 megawatts of clean, renewable
 283 electricity. It is situated on the Madawaska River, 64 km upstream from its confluence with the
 284 Ottawa River, and it is in the upstream of four other hydroelectric facilities on the Madawaska
 285 River: Barrett Chute GS, Calabogie GS, Stewartville GS and Arnprior GS. The construction started
 286 in 1965 and was completed in December 1967. Three dams are located at the Mountain Chute GS:
 287 one main concrete dam and two earthen block dams, i.e. the north block dam and the whitefish
 288 draw dam. The main dam, shown in Figure 3(a), consists of the north and the south concrete gravity

289 walls, the sluiceway and the headworks. It is 436 m long and 55 m above the rock foundations at
290 the deepest section; the elevation of the top of the concrete structure is 249.9 m. The north block
291 dam, which is an embankment structure constructed across a shallow depression about 300 m north
292 east of the north abutment of the main dam north, is about 125 m long and has a maximum height
293 of 12 m. Finally, the whitefish draw dam is a block dam preventing the reservoir from flowing out
294 via a side valley, it is located about 2.5 km north of the main dam, it is 204 m long and it has a
295 maximum height of 18 m. More details about Mountain Chute GS and its case study are provided
296 in (El-Awady, et al., 2019) and (Verzobio, et al., 2019).

297 **Figure 3.** Mountain Chute Dam and GS: a) the main dam and the sluice gates; b) the downstream
298 of the dam; c) the upstream of the dam with the reservoir.

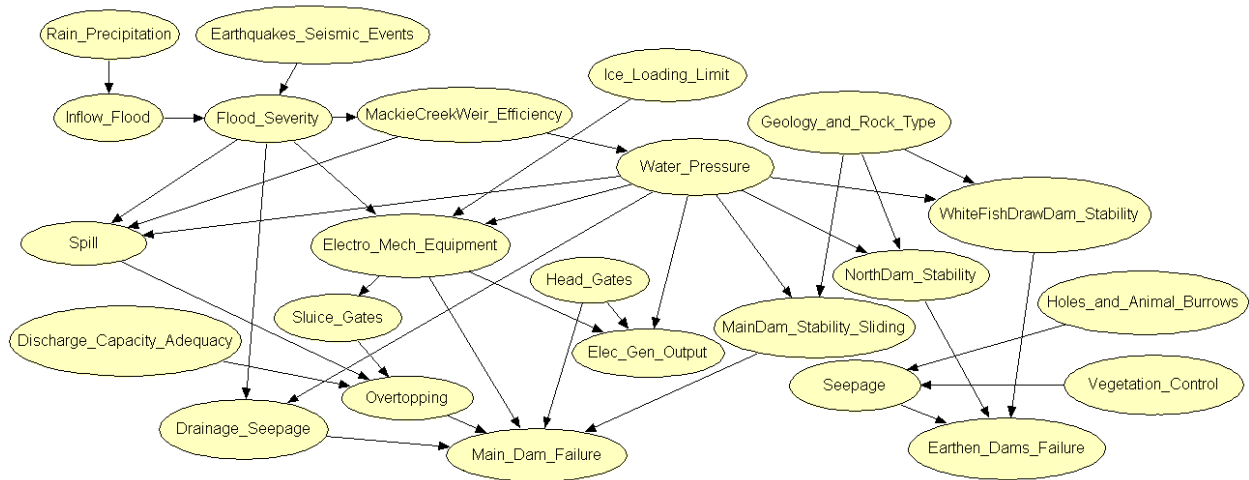


299
300 The main scope of this project is about the general safety of Mountain Chute, with the final aim
301 to estimate the probability of failure of the dams, intended as failure to perform at least one of the
302 required operations, according to the interrelated dam components. In the next subsections, we
303 describe the developed BN and successively the application of the proposed elicitation process,
304 which allows for improving the estimation of the failure probability of the dams, thanks to the
305 acquisition of valid and reliable data from expert knowledge.

306 **4.1 Bayesian Network of Mountain Chute Dam and GS**

307 Mountain Chute station includes different kinds of system components. For the purpose of
308 analyzing the failure of this system, all system components should be defined, explained and
309 analyzed. Specifically, components such as rain precipitation, ice loading, earthquake and seismic
310 actions, water pressure, geology and rock type, flood severity, adequacy of discharge capacity,
311 sluice gate, drainage, vegetation control and other secondary components have to be considered.
312 A BN was constructed based on these components and based on the factors that can lead to the
313 failure of the dams, e.g. overtopping, seepage, sliding, stability issues and any operational failure,
314 such as problems related to the head gates or to the electromechanical equipment. The resultant
315 BN is presented in Figure 4.

316 **Figure 4.** Bayesian Network of Mountain Chute Dam and GS showing all the primary variables.



317
318 The main purpose of the developed BN, which is represented by 24 different nodes, i.e. the
319 yellow ovals in Figure 4, is predicting the probability of failure of the main dam from overtopping,
320 seepage, sliding or any operational failures. Moreover, it estimates the probability of failure of the
321 earthen block dams resulting from the threats of seepage and sliding. In the following, we analyze

322 in detail the BN.

323 The basic events are rain precipitation, ice loading limits, earthquakes, geological and rock
324 stability, vegetation control and control of animal burrows. It can be seen from the BN that the
325 amount of rain affects the inflow to Mountain Chute dam; this inflow is considered a flood if it
326 exceeds a certain limit. If a flood takes place, it may be normal or severe. Flood severity is also
327 affected by seismic actions and earthquakes. The inflow rate and the severity level of the flood are
328 controlled by the Mackie Creek weir. Controlling the inflow is about preventing severe floods
329 from reaching the dam reservoir. The weir may be efficient or not, depending on the flood severity.
330 After passing the weir, the water in the reservoir, blocked by two earthen block dams and the main
331 concrete dam, is ready to be controlled by the dam head gates; this means that there is water
332 pressure behind the dams that may affect their stability. The geological and rock stability for the
333 structure of the three dams have been considered as it affects the sliding of the dam; sliding is one
334 of the causes of dam breach failure.

335 In addition, ice loading, water pressure and flood severity are connected to the
336 electromechanical equipment, including turbines; for instance, ice loading affects the failure of the
337 mechanical equipment and at the time of a severe flood and high-water pressure could result in
338 dam failure from maloperations of gates. As regards the electric power generation, the head gates
339 are opened to let the water flow through the penstock to generate electricity from hydropower
340 turbines. If the head gates fail to open, this is considered a failure of the main dam, especially if
341 the water pressure is high in the upstream side of the dam; this may affect the dam stability and
342 also the amount of power generated by the turbines.

343 Moreover, the flood severity, the weir efficiency in controlling the inflow to the reservoir and
344 the water pressure are all affecting the probability to have spill in the main dam; the spill is the
345 amount of water that exceeds the reservoir maximum capacity limit after considering various

346 controlled outflows. This amount should be released from the upstream side to the downstream
347 side through the spillway (sluiceway) gates or an overtopping failure could take place. The amount
348 of water spill is also related to the capacity of sluiceway, which may not be adequate for that
349 amount of water to be discharged, and to the condition of the sluice gate, i.e. open or failed to open
350 due to electromechanical failure. If the water spill is not released from behind the main dam
351 because of the inadequate capacity of the sluiceway, or because the sluice gate fails to open, there
352 is an increasing probability, i.e. risk, of overtopping failure.

353 As concerns the main dam, severe floods with increased water pressure increases the possibility
354 to have seepage in the body of the main dam. If the seepage is not completely controlled and
355 monitored through a drain system which may include drain inspection tunnel, this would result in
356 an increasing risk that reduces the remaining lifetime of the dam. Finally, as regards the earthen
357 dams in Mountain Chute GS, seepage may take place because of uncontrolled vegetation and due
358 to animal burrows and holes in the vicinity of the dams. Seepage in the earthen block dams is then
359 an increasing risk for seepage piping and dam breach failure.

360 After the development of the topology of the BN with all its variables, the corresponding states
361 have been defined. It was clear that defining more than two states for every component of the BN
362 would have turned the system into a more complex network. On the other hand, more states would
363 have allowed to get more accurate results. Following the proposed methodology of the elicitation
364 process, due to the considerable number of nodes, it has been decided to keep the states of the
365 nodes binary, e.g. fail/no fail, safe/not safe, controlled/not controlled, efficient/not efficient. Table
366 1 presents the defined states for each node. In addition, each state has been associated with a
367 detailed definition or a numerical value, so as to make them quantifiable. As an example, according
368 to the available data, the threshold according to which the rain precipitation passes from the state
369 *low* to the state *high* is when the rain depth reaches 60 mm.

370 **Table 1.** States of the BN variables.

Variable	States	
Rain precipitation	Low	High
Earthquakes seismic events	Normal	Severe
Ice loading limit	Safe	Not safe
Geology & rock type	Stable	Unstable
Discharge capacity adequacy	Adequate	Not adequate
Head gates main dam	Open	Close/Fail to open
Holes and animal burrows	Controlled	Not controlled
Vegetation control	Controlled	Not controlled
Inflow flood	Low	High
Flood severity	Normal	Severe
Mackie Creek weir efficiency	Efficient	Not efficient
Water pressure	Normal	High
Spill	Yes	No
Electromechanical equipment main dam	Efficient	Not efficient
Sluice gates main dam	Open	Close/Fail to open
Electric generation output	Low	High
Overtopping	Yes	No
Drainage main dam seepage	Leakage	No leakage
Main dam stability sliding	Stable	Unstable
Main dam failure	Fail	No fail
North dam stability	Stable	Unstable
White fish drawn dam stability	Stable	Unstable
Seepage	Exist	Not exist
Earthen dams failure	Fail	No fail

371 Once the BN structure is completely defined, the conditional probability distributions were
372 determined based on logical inference and limited historical data; these probabilities are defined
373 to represent 100 years of operation for the Mountain Chute Dam and GS. Nevertheless, the
374 available data were not enough, and they did not allow to cover all the nodes of the BN. Then, it
375 was necessary to rely on expert judgment to provide subjective probabilities in order to populate
376 completely the model.

377 **4.2 Elicitation Process**

378 By following the methodology proposed in section 3, we implemented each stage of the process

379 as follows.

380 Stage 1: *Selecting*. There were two analysts: one with knowledge in elicitation practice and
381 another with experience in the specific engineering area of failure analysis. After studying the
382 project and the defined model, we identified three areas of expertise from which we sought to elicit
383 expert judgment: structural stability expertise, environmental expertise and system design
384 expertise. While finding one expert per each area was desirable, due to availability constraints we
385 were given access to only one expert, who had a reasonable expertise in all the three areas: he was
386 an engineer of the Ontario Power Generation who was responsible for monitoring the operations
387 of this specific GS. We were aware about the possible difficulty in finding available experts, but
388 managed to satisfy an essential coverage of expertise in all relevant area. A meeting was then
389 arranged at the site of the dam, in order to develop the interview. In preparation, the expert was
390 informed by email about the project and the specific aims of the interview.

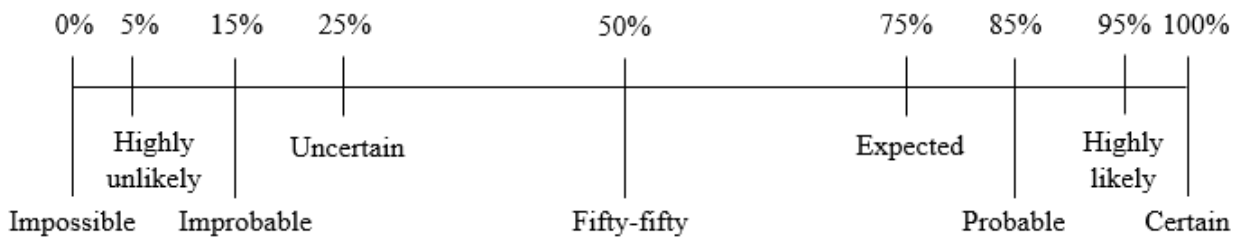
391 Stage 2: *Structuring*. At the beginning of the interview the expert was motivated by explaining
392 the importance of the project, his fundamental rule and how the results will be used. Moreover,
393 the possible presence of motivational biases was investigated, especially the expert bias: it was
394 carefully pointed out to the expert that the goal is not to measure his personal expertise, but to
395 measure his knowledge about the events. Successively, we moved to the second part of this stage:
396 we reviewed the topology of the BN and the states of the variables together with the expert, to
397 ensure that there was no misunderstanding about their definition before moving to the encoding
398 phase. The expert therefore had the opportunity to review the topology of the BN but he decided
399 not to modify it, probably because we arrived at the meeting with a too refined model; he also
400 agreed with the proposed variables, refusing the possibility to disaggregate some nodes too. In
401 addition, we spent more time explaining meticulously to the expert the meaning of each variable

402 and the corresponding states: after this discussion, and based on his opinions, we agreed to change
403 the definition as well as the threshold of some states.

404 Stage 3: *Encoding*. The encoding phase started by conditioning the expert's judgment in order
405 to avoid the possible presence of some cognitive biases. In particular, we focused mainly on the
406 anchoring, which is of particular concern with BNs given the large number of variables being
407 quantified: after the first assessment of the initial quantity of interest, the expert must avoid linking
408 the subsequent assessment with the previous one, as it would result in a biased adjustment.
409 Following this discussion, a probability training was carried out: we reviewed some probability
410 concepts and trained the expert with some specific questions similar to those that we would be
411 asked in the encoding phase, trying for instance to clarify the difference between a frequent event
412 and a very rare event. In addition, the probability scale illustrated in Figure 5 was introduced, that
413 we had established in order to help the expert during this stage of the process. This led to the
414 encoding phase, which was the most important and the longest, i.e. around 1 hour. It was developed
415 by asking questions in several ways, e.g. direct assessment of probabilities but also rephrasing the
416 questions using qualitative bands, to find potential inconsistencies in the answers and also to
417 reduce the influence of the explained biases. We chose these types of questions because we had
418 noticed that the expert was not completely comfortable using the percentiles. For example, we
419 asked the following questions: "What is the probability of a *high* inflow if the state of the rain
420 precipitation is *low*?"; "How frequently does it occur that the head gates of the main dam fail to
421 open?"; "How many days per year is it highly likely to have an inadequate capacity of sluiceway?"
422 During this phase it is important that the questions are very clear: for instance, we had to pay
423 attention to the reference time of each question in order to avoid misunderstanding with
424 interpreting the expert data, for example caused by the difference between the design time of a
425 dam and the real-life time of the dam.

426 Stage 4: *Verifying*. Finally, a verification of the individual elicited probabilities was developed:
 427 the results were satisfactory because the numerical outcomes seemed to coincide appropriately
 428 with the true beliefs of the expert. Since we had the availability of just one expert, no aggregation
 429 technique was necessary. Due to a limited time available the interview ended without the time to
 430 solve the overall BN and to discuss the resulting outcomes, which would have been useful also as
 431 an additional verification. In the end the interview lasted approximately two hours.

432 **Figure 5.** Probability scale used during the elicitation process.



433

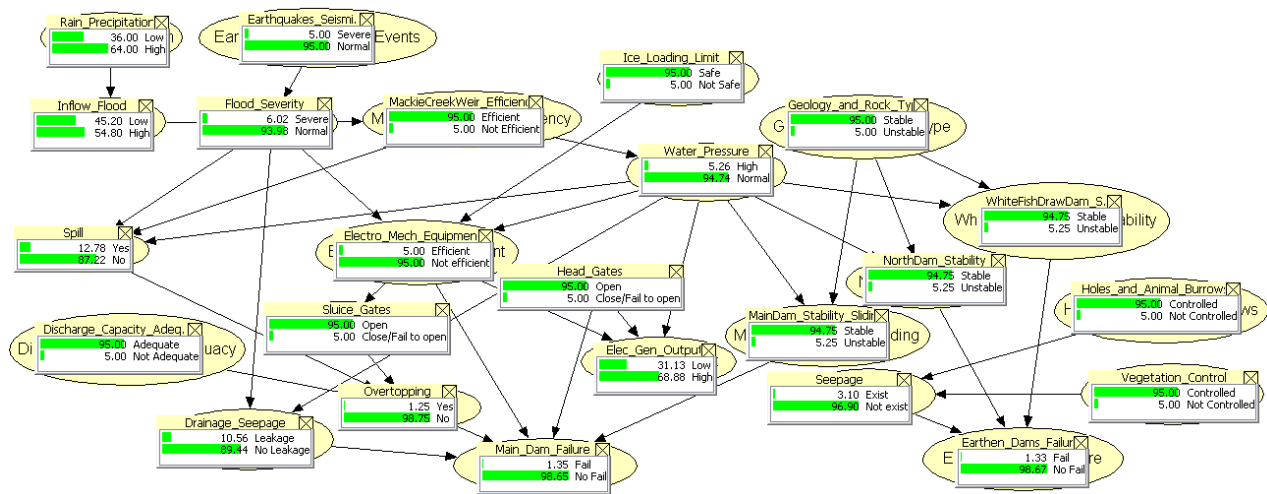
434 **4.3 Case study results**

435 In conclusion, after updating the probability distributions with data inferred from expert
 436 engineering judgment as presented in the previous subsection, the overall BN was solved in order
 437 to estimate the failure probabilities, which we remember are intended as failure to perform at least
 438 one of the required operations. Figure 6 shows the results, achieved using the software Hugin: the
 439 Bayesian inference results in a failure probability $p_F = 0.0135$ for the main dam and $p_F = 0.0133$
 440 for the earthen block dams, both evaluated over the lifetime of the dams, i.e. 100 years. It is evident
 441 that adding expert engineering judgments helps in reducing the uncertainties in the network, and
 442 gives better estimates for the operation of the dam in comparison with those obtained using only
 443 the limited available data and logical inference (El-Awady, et al., 2019). These final results about
 444 the failure probability are satisfactory as they are close to those expected when considering these

445 kind of systems design components: it provides approximately a failure of 1 in 10000 at any year
 446 or equivalent to designing a dam for failure due to the so-called ten thousand years flood.

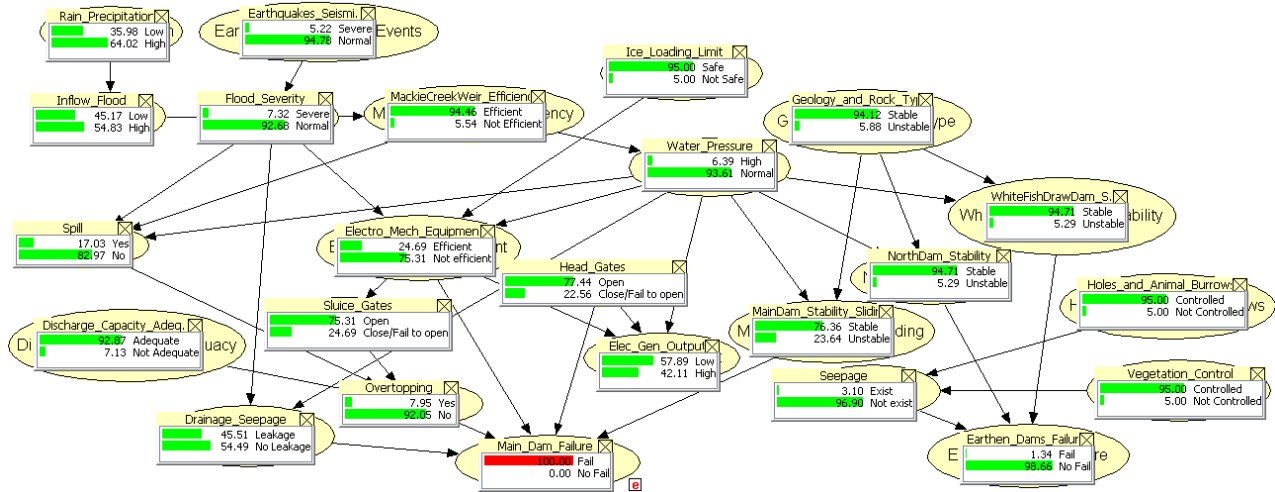
447 In addition, a BN is useful because explicates the cause-effect relationship, that is essential for
 448 a better understanding of the dam safety. For instance, it is possible to understand the main
 449 contributors to the failure of the main dam. Figure 7 shows the conditional probabilities of each
 450 node given the main dam has failed. The most influential variables and the associated probabilities
 451 are: seepage, i.e. 0.4551 leakage, electromechanical equipment, i.e. 0.2469 fail, sliding stability,
 452 i.e. 0.2364 unstable, head gates, i.e. 0.2256 failed to open. On the other hand, overtopping has just
 453 a probability of the 0.0795.

454 **Figure 6.** The quantified BN of Mountain Chute Dam and GS (note that the numerical values are
 455 percentage).



456

457 **Figure 7.** BN of Mountain Chute Dam and GS given the evidence that the main dam fails (note
 458 that the numerical values are percentage).



459

460 4.4 Evaluation of the process

461 After discussing the implementation of the planned elicitation process to this specific
 462 engineering case study and the consequent results, in this section we propose a critical discussion
 463 about the main steps of the process, based on what happened during its application, in order to
 464 understand how to improve the process and to give practical guidelines that can be used for similar
 465 application in the future.

- 466 - The selection of the experts is fundamental and should not be underestimated. In particular,
 467 working in a field where experts have narrow areas of expertise rather than generalists
 468 requires more experts to be involved in the elicitation to ensure sufficient coverage of the
 469 relevant issues. It is worthwhile reflecting on expertise that is desirable for the study or
 470 essential. In our case, even if we had the availability of only one expert, we managed to
 471 satisfy an essential coverage of expertise in all relevant area. For larger projects, expert

472 profile matrices can be useful at structuring this reflection (European Food Safety
473 Authority, 2014) (Bolger, 2018).

474 - As regards the number of analysts, the choice of two analysts with different competences
475 seemed appropriate: it is essential to have at least one facilitator with the expertise in the
476 elicitation practice that have to lead all the process, and at least another one with engineering
477 knowledge that have to make his contribution regarding the technical aspects of the specific
478 design project.

479 - The interview was conducted at the dam site: this choice has proved to be suitable because
480 it allowed us also to understand better some practical aspects of the dam operation. As
481 regards the available time for the interview, we had scheduled a two-hour meeting but in the
482 end we realised that it was not enough to properly complete all the planned elicitation
483 process. During the scheduling phase we had probably underestimated some aspects of the
484 interview that can lead to a delay, so we suggest detailed planning of the interview to identify
485 an appropriate time.

486 - As concerns the *structuring* phase, we started with a very refined model, which can have
487 some disadvantages, as it was evident that the expert did not propose many changes to the
488 structure and agreed almost completely with our proposal; if the model had been less refined
489 then the expert would have been more empowered to create a different model. Since this
490 phase is fundamental in order to achieve accurate results during the encoding, we
491 recommend involving the experts in the creation of the model and its variables.

492 - The training phase is fundamental to get accurate and reliable data from the experts.
493 Unfortunately, the time that we spent on training was too little, both because of the limited
494 available time and because the expert did not seem too convinced about the importance of
495 this phase. Consequently, we suggest adding a motivational phase at the beginning of this

496 stage, i.e. *encoding*, in the same way as in the *structuring* stage, with the aim to explain to
497 the expert why it is necessary its development in order to calibrate him before encoding.

498 - There is a trade-off between the level of detail in a model and the time required to populate
499 with probabilities. The model structure needs to be flexible and adapt during the *encoding*,
500 as experts may not be comfortable expressing uncertainties on variables and require an
501 elaboration of the node.

502 - As concerns the *encoding* techniques, the choice to ask the questions with direct assessment
503 of probabilities and rephrasing the question using qualitative bands was made according to
504 the specific features of our expert: it was clear to us for instance that he was not comfortable
505 with the use of the percentiles. A good idea is then to prepare the questions in different ways
506 before the meeting, and to choose which ones to use only during the interview, so as to make
507 the expert as comfortable as possible.

508 - As regards the *verifying* stage, the limited available time did not let us to carry out it
509 completely. This is a problem that we have already highlighted and should be considered
510 properly during the scheduling phase. In particular, it would have been important to have
511 more time available in order to verify with the expert also the final resolution of the BN,
512 based on the elicited variables.

513 - Finally, during the implementation of all the stages we have paid close attention to the
514 possible presence of heuristics and biases, by following the appropriate actions suggested in
515 the methodology in order to minimize the risk of biased judgments. The achieved results
516 allow us to confirm the suitability of our four-stage elicitation process.

517 5. Conclusions

518 BNs allow for analyzing complex systems like dams in order to develop a safety analysis based
519 on probabilistic estimates of failure. Due to the lack of data, in this paper we proposed a
520 methodology for an elicitation process aimed specifically at quantifying BNs, with the final goal
521 of collecting reliable data from engineering knowledge. The elicitation exercise we carried out for
522 this specific case study regarding the safety of the Mountain Chute Dam and GS, even if developed
523 in a simplified way, demonstrated the potential and the usefulness of the engineering expertise,
524 and allowed us to learn many lessons that are useful for improving the methodology, which we
525 intend to address in future for similar applications. In summary, we can conclude as follows:

- 526 - While the elicitation process has been applied in many fields, in civil engineering there is
527 little experience of applying formal elicitation processes to quantify models. This paper
528 demonstrates that engineering knowledge and experience can be very useful to solve
529 appropriately also this type of analysis.
- 530 - It is undeniable that the elicitation requires a structured and facilitated process in order to
531 achieve accurate and reliable data, by avoiding the adverse impact of biases. However, there
532 is no perfect elicitation process: it has to be planned according to the particular context and
533 to the specific aims. Consequently, we proposed a detailed methodology for the precise aim
534 to quantify a BN.
- 535 - Our four-stage structured elicitation process works properly according to the results achieved
536 in the case study. However, this has been just our first experience in implementing an
537 elicitation process and instead, during the application, we have noticed some aspects that
538 need to be improved in order to make the process even more successful and reliable.

539 - As regards to future work, we aim to improve this structured methodology based on what
540 we have learnt from this first application, and to apply it to other civil engineering structures,
541 e.g. bridges.

542 **Acknowledgements**

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544 Zielinski, for letting us to work on such an important real-life case study, sharing all the required
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701

702

703 **Tables**704 **Table 1.** States of the BN variables.

Variable	States	
Rain precipitation	Low	High
Earthquakes seismic events	Normal	Severe
Ice loading limit	Safe	Not safe
Geology & rock type	Stable	Unstable
Discharge capacity adequacy	Adequate	Not adequate
Head gates main dam	Open	Close/Fail to open
Holes and animal burrows	Controlled	Not controlled
Vegetation control	Controlled	Not controlled
Inflow flood	Low	High
Flood severity	Normal	Severe
Mackie Creek weir efficiency	Efficient	Not efficient
Water pressure	Normal	High
Spill	Yes	No
Electromechanical equipment main dam	Efficient	Not efficient
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Overtopping	Yes	No
Drainage main dam seepage	Leakage	No leakage
Main dam stability sliding	Stable	Unstable
Main dam failure	Fail	No fail
North dam stability	Stable	Unstable
White fish drawn dam stability	Stable	Unstable
Seepage	Exist	Not exist
Earthen dams failure	Fail	No fail

705

706 **List of figure captions**

707 **Figure 1.** An example of BN with three variables.

708 **Figure 2.** Flowchart of the proposed elicitation process.

709 **Figure 3.** Mountain Chute Dam and GS: a) the main dam and the sluice gates; b) the downstream
710 of the dam; c) the upstream of the dam with the reservoir.

711 **Figure 4.** Bayesian Network of Mountain Chute Dam and GS showing all the primary variables.

712 **Figure 5.** Probability scale used during the elicitation process.

713 **Figure 6.** The quantified BN of Mountain Chute Dam and GS (note that the numerical values are
714 percentage).

715 **Figure 7.** BN of Mountain Chute Dam and GS given the evidence that the main dam fails (note
716 that the numerical values are percentage).