

Statistical tools and software for extreme value analysis and quantifying uncertainty in event attribution

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Outline

- Statistical methods for event attribution
 - Sources of uncertainty
 - Risk ratio estimation methods
 - Methods for quantifying uncertainty
 - Recommendations
- Illustration with Texas heatwave of 2011
 - Sensitivity analysis with respect to event definition
 - Use of climextremes package for risk ratio estimation
- climextremes package
 - Features/capabilities
 - Illustration on station precipitation data

Event attribution background

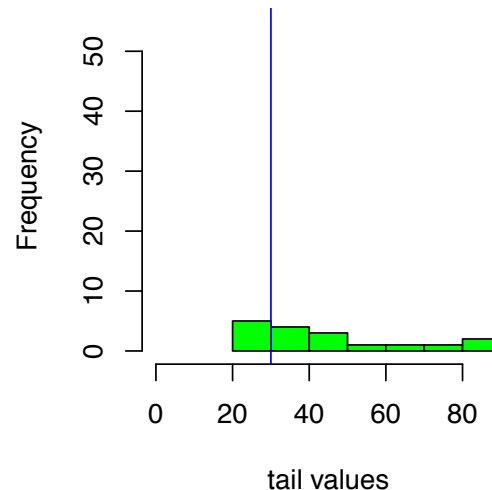
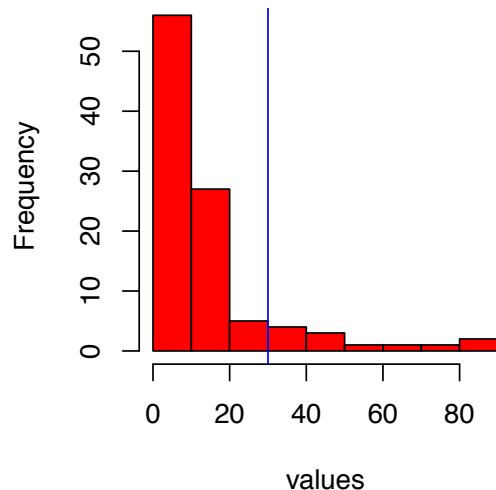
- A standard approach for event attribution involves estimation of:
 - $RR = p_F / p_C$, or
 - $FAR = 1 - p_C / p_F$where
 - p_F is for the event under the “factual” or “all-forcings” scenario and
 - p_C is under the “counterfactual” or “natural-forcings” or “historical” scenario.
- Observational analyses: generally estimate probabilities in recent time relative to probabilities decades ago.
- Model-based analyses, generally use ensembles under imposed factual and counterfactual forcing scenarios to estimate probabilities.
- The “event” might be actual event, hypothetical event or quantile of an empirical distribution.

Sources of uncertainty in model-based event attribution

- Sampling uncertainty
 - Due to variability in the earth system
 - Amenable to frequentist or Bayesian statistical treatment
 - Uncertainty decreases with larger ensembles
- Non-sampling uncertainty
 - Sources:
 - Boundary condition uncertainty
 - Model parametric uncertainty
 - Model structural uncertainty
 - Not amenable to frequentist treatment
 - Does not decrease with larger ensembles
 - Possibly characterized based on sensitivity analysis or drawing from prior distribution over boundary conditions, parameter values, models, etc.

Methods to estimate probabilities for risk ratio (RR)

- Fit a **parametric statistical model** to climate variable values
 - E.g., lognormal or gamma distribution
 - Estimate probability of exceeding the **event cutoff** from fitted distribution
 - Strong assumption about appropriateness of the distribution (all data used)
- **Count exceedances of event cutoff** (binomial sample) amongst climate variable values
 - “Nonparametric” – no distributional assumption
 - More involved to account for dependence (e.g., daily data)
 - High uncertainty when there are very few events, but can be effective for RR if event not-too-infrequent for at least one scenario
- **Fit extreme value distribution** (e.g., GEV or peaks-over-threshold (POT))
 - Theoretically justified when event or threshold is far in tail
 - Informed only by extreme values
 - Hard to use with seasonal events because of small sample sizes



Methods to estimate uncertainty in RR

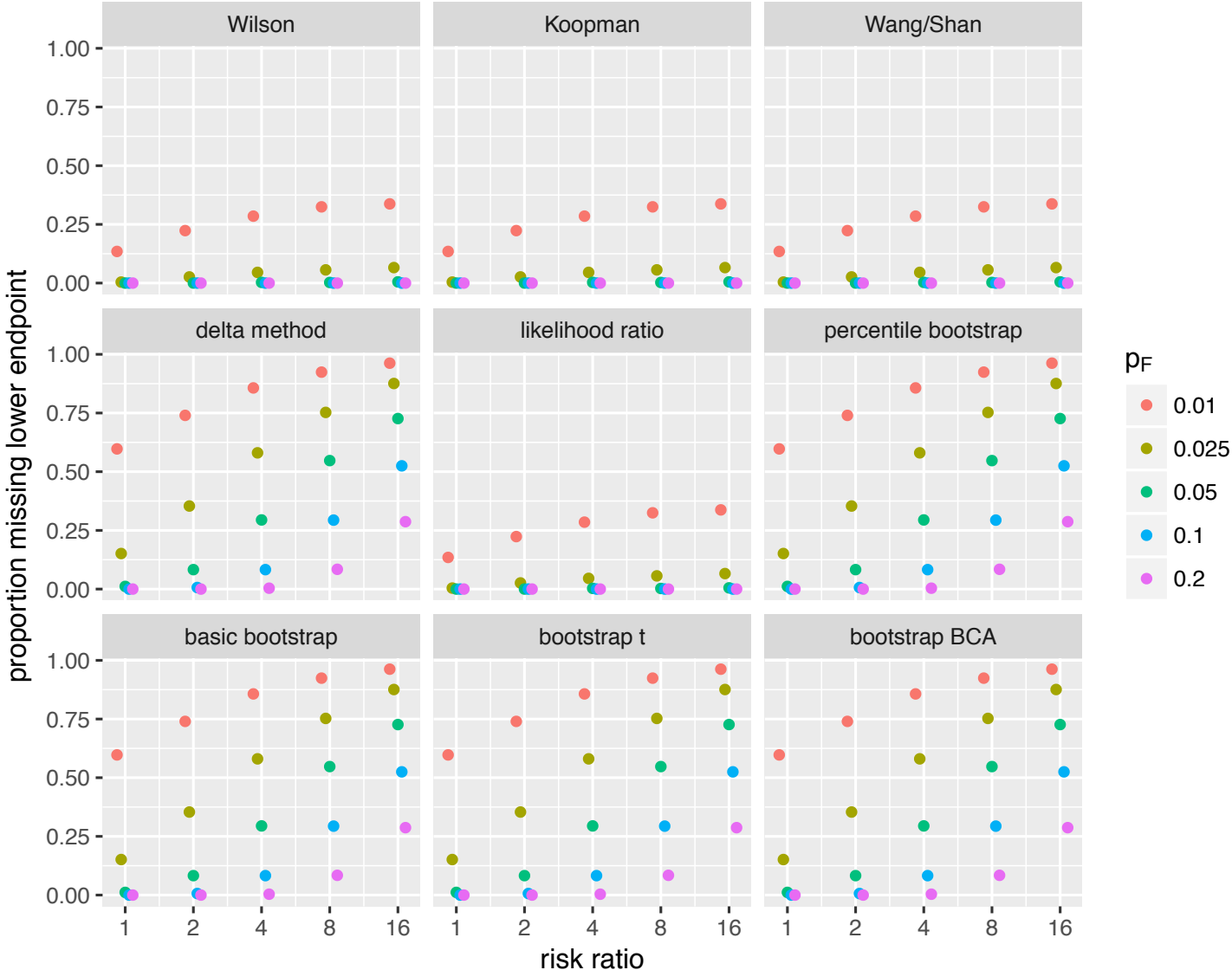
- Methods for both **extreme value analysis and binomial counting**
 - Asymptotic statistical calculations (delta method / propagation of error)
 - Assumption of normality
 - Bootstrap
 - Standard statistical bootstrap gives a confidence interval, not a Bayesian probability interval
 - Estimation of RR in bootstrap samples often fails (lack of EVA convergence, zeros in binomial counting approach)
 - Likelihood ratio-based interval
- Methods for **binomial counting** (from epidemiology/biostatistics)
 - Wilson's method
 - Koopman's method
 - Wang/Shan method
- All but asymptotic and bootstrap can give interval when RR estimate is 0 or Infinity; e.g., (12.8, Infinity)

Simulation study overview

- Context: evaluate model-based event attribution, focused on binomial counting approach
- Frequentist statistical approach:
 - $RR = p_F / p_C$
 - For known values of p_F , RR (and therefore p_C) generate simulated datasets and estimate \widehat{RR}_i $i=1, \dots, 5000$
- $N=25,50,100,400$ ensemble members for each of factual, counterfactual scenarios
- Various values of p_F , RR (and therefore p_C)
- Various statistical methods considered
- Criteria
 - Proportion of datasets where interval can be computed
 - Statistical coverage of 90% intervals (at both ends)
 - Length of intervals (judged by magnitude of lower interval endpoint)

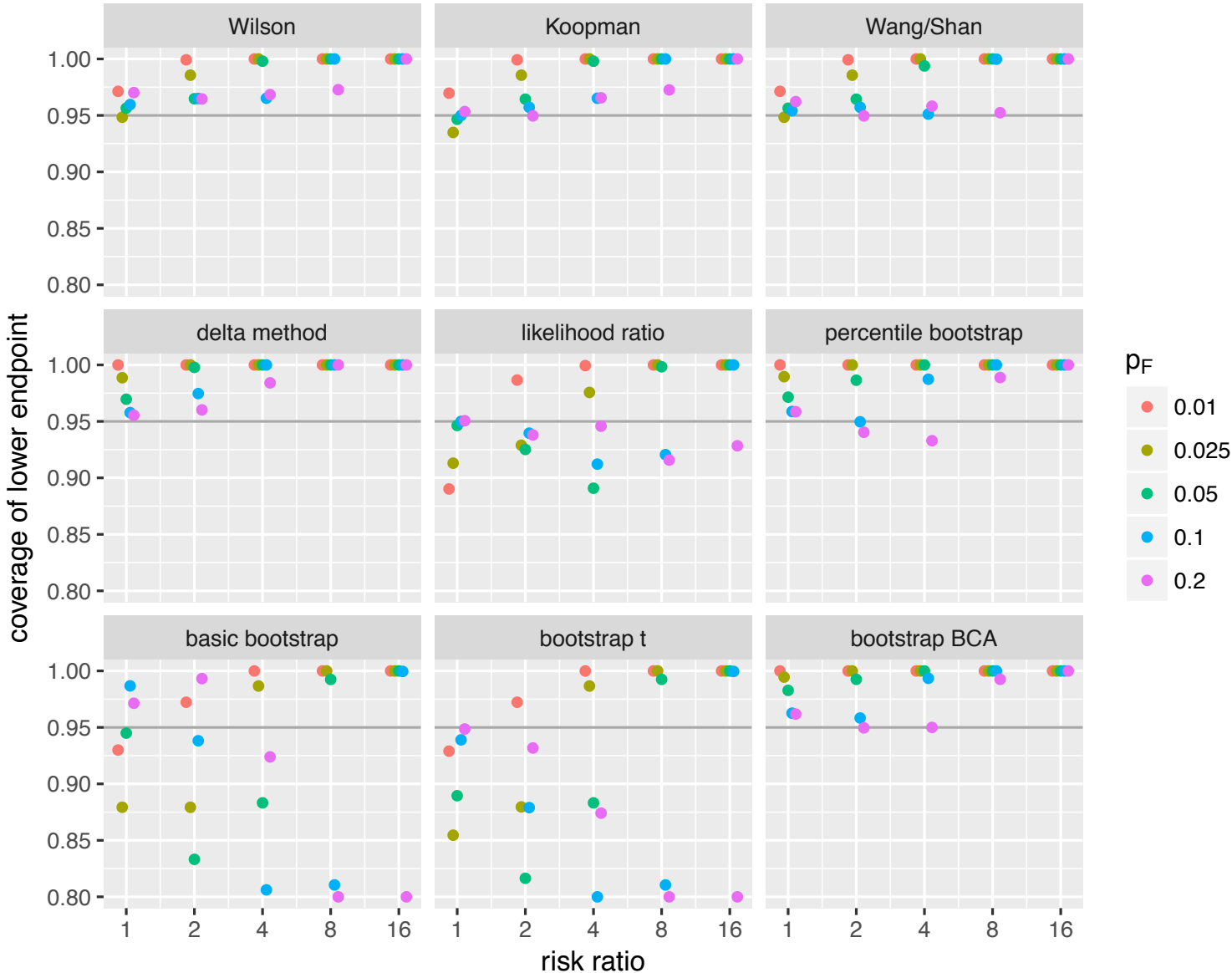
RR confidence intervals (binomial counting) simulation results

Proportion of times interval cannot be calculated (e.g., 0 events / 0 events)



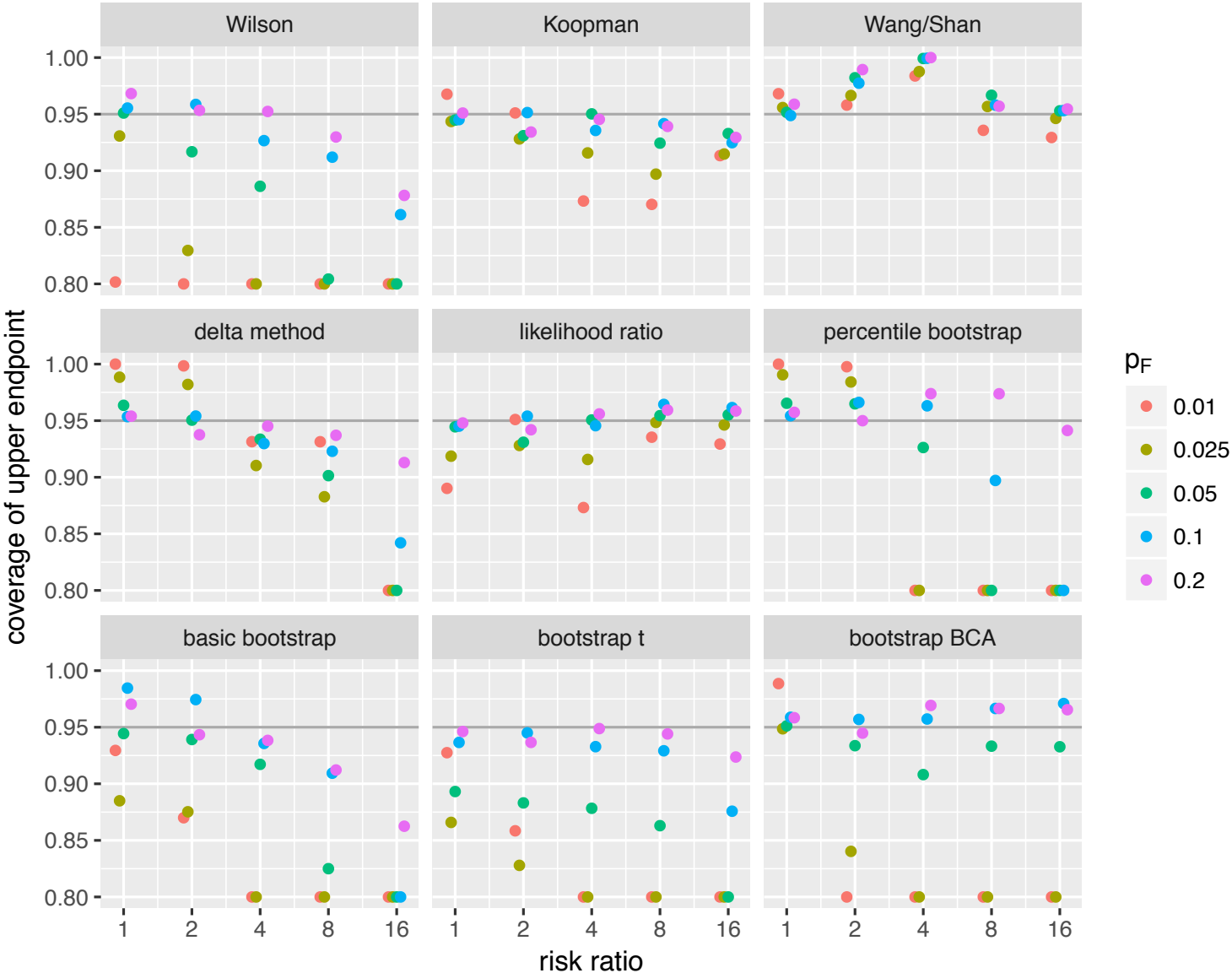
RR confidence intervals (binomial counting) simulation results

Proportion of times lower interval endpoint includes true RR (95% is best)



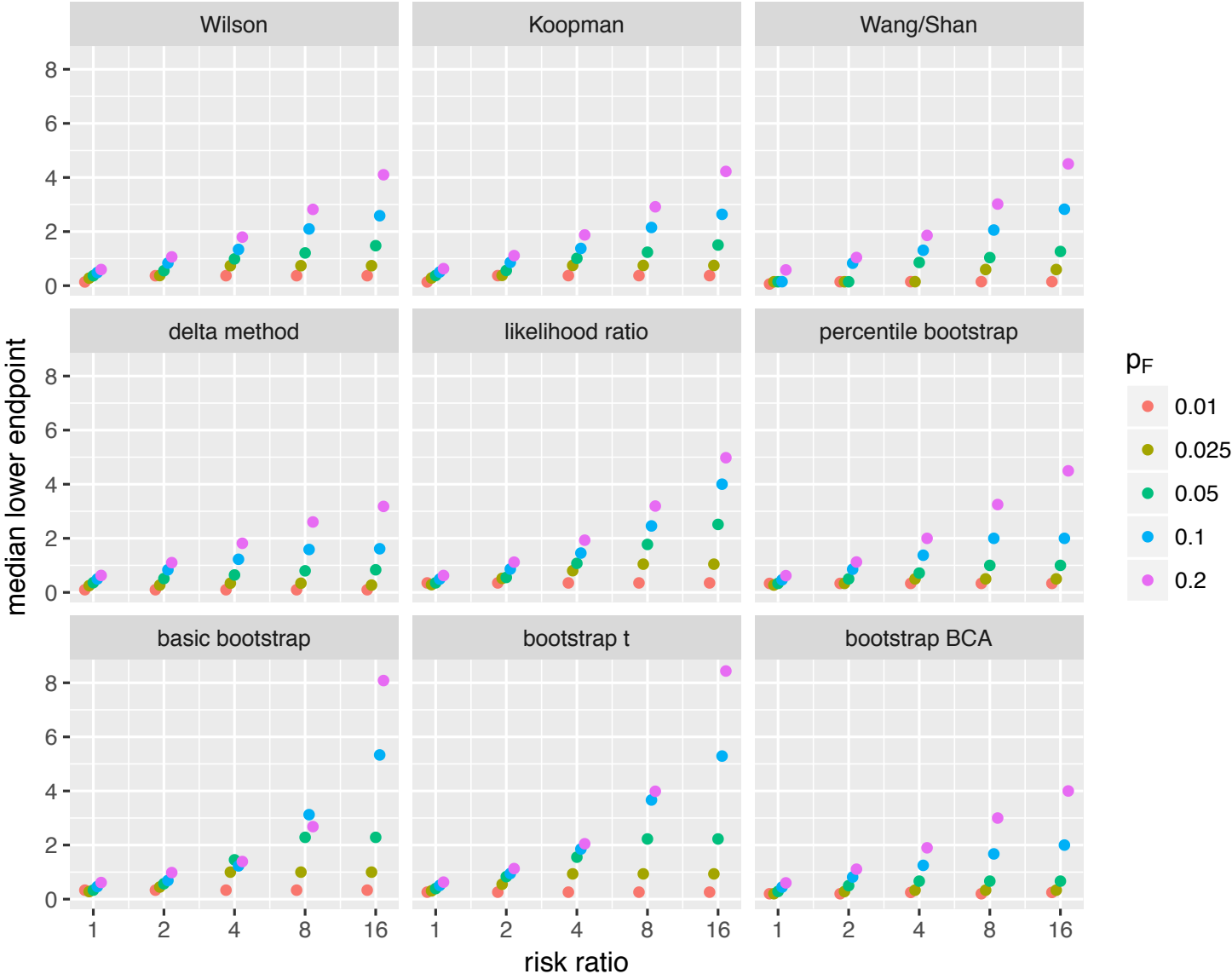
RR confidence intervals (binomial counting) simulation results

Proportion of times upper interval endpoint includes true RR (95% is best)



RR confidence intervals (binomial counting) simulation results

Average value of lower endpoint (higher is better)

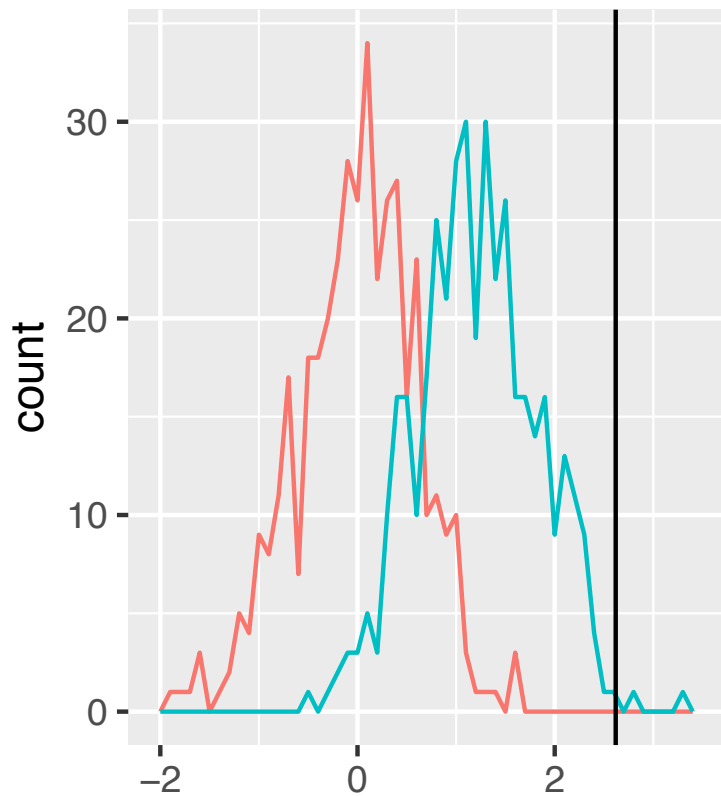


Methods to estimate uncertainty in binomial-based RR: Conclusions

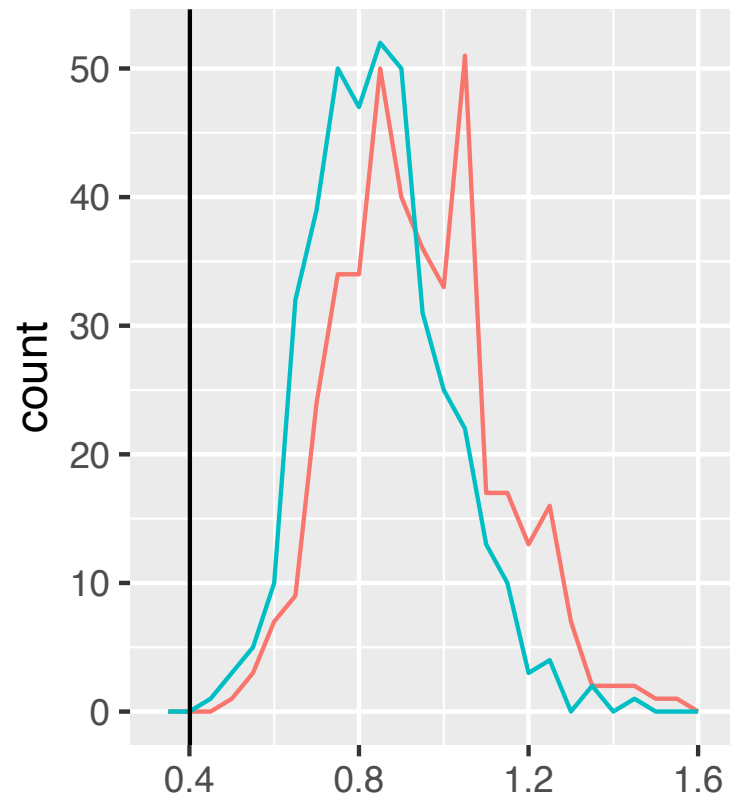
- Bootstrap methods
 - Often fail to provide an interval
 - Poor statistical performance
- Likelihood ratio method
 - Reasonably good statistical performance, but coverage sometimes too low
 - Will work with both extreme value analysis and binomial counting
- Epidemiology/biostatistical methods
 - Work only for binomial counting
 - Koopman and Wang-Shan methods generally perform well
- All methods except Wang-Shan available in climextremes software package

RR analysis example: Texas 2011 heatwave / drought

- CAM5.1 ensembles (400-member) for factual and counterfactual
- March-August temperature and rainfall over Texas
- Estimation done using climextremes software
- Temperature: 2/0 is RR count-based estimate
- Precipitation: 0/0 is RR count-based estimate



(a) temperature anomaly



(b) precipitation anomaly

type
— counterfactual
— factual

Texas 2011 temperature analysis

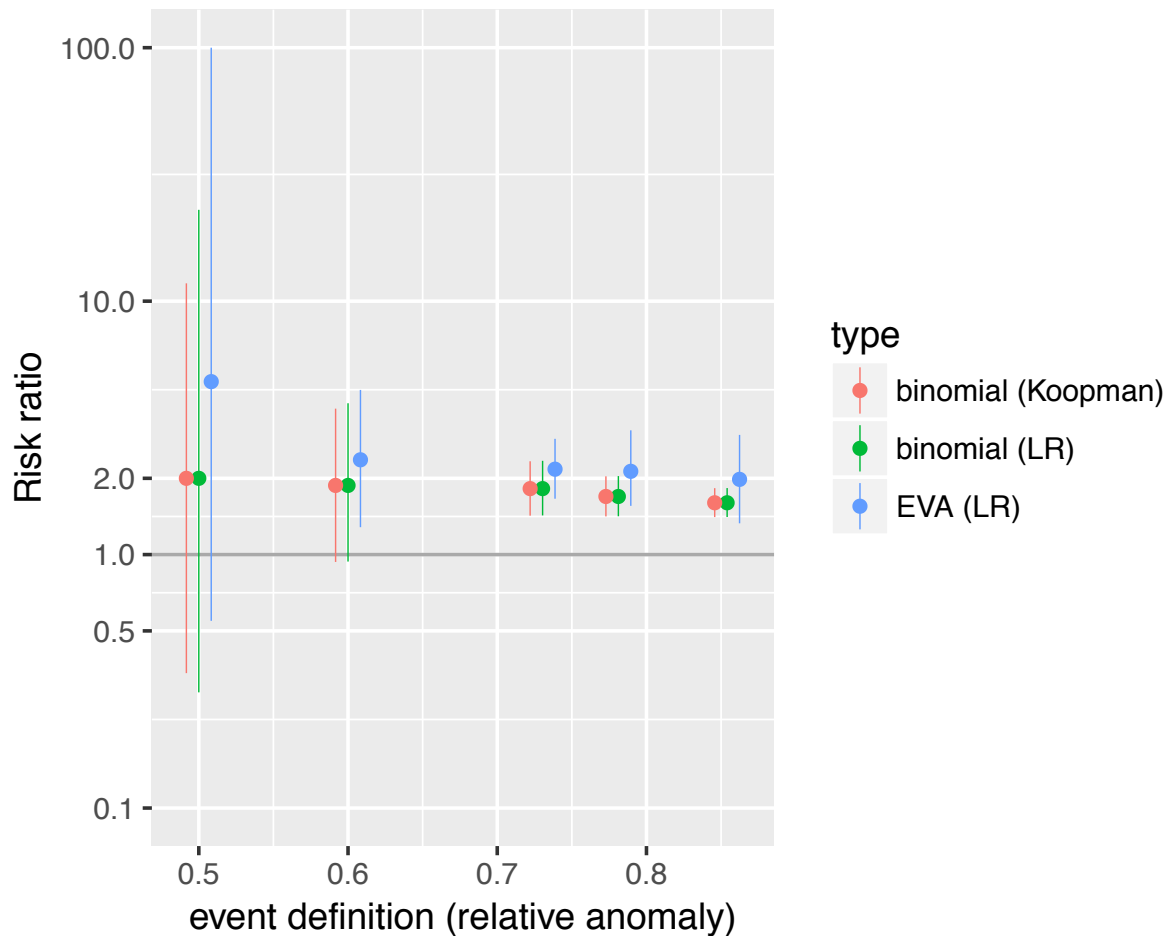
Actual event is 2.62 degree anomaly

Event	Number exceedances	RR estimate	EVA likelihood ratio CI	Binomial likelihood ratio CI	Binomial Koopman CI
2.62 (actual)	2/0	Inf	(12.8, Inf)	(1.0, Inf)	(0.7, Inf)
2.0	43/0	Inf	NA	(31, Inf)	(16, Inf)
1.5	129/3	43	NA	(19, 133)	(17, 108)
1.03 (20-year event)	245/11	22	NA	(14, 38)	(14, 36)
0.73 (10-year event)	314/40	7.9	NA	(6.2, 10.2)	(6.1, 10.1)
0.43 (5-year event)	357/90	4.0	NA	(3.4, 4.7)	(3.4, 4.6)

Notes: EVA not appropriate except for 2.62 event - other definitions not extreme in factual scenario.

Texas 2011 precipitation analysis

- Recall that actual event (40% of historical average precipitation) has no events in factual or counterfactual ensembles
 - Extreme value analysis (EVA) gives (0.01, Inf) as interval
- Instead consider variety of less extreme event definitions
 - EVA not really appropriate for less extreme events but shown anyway

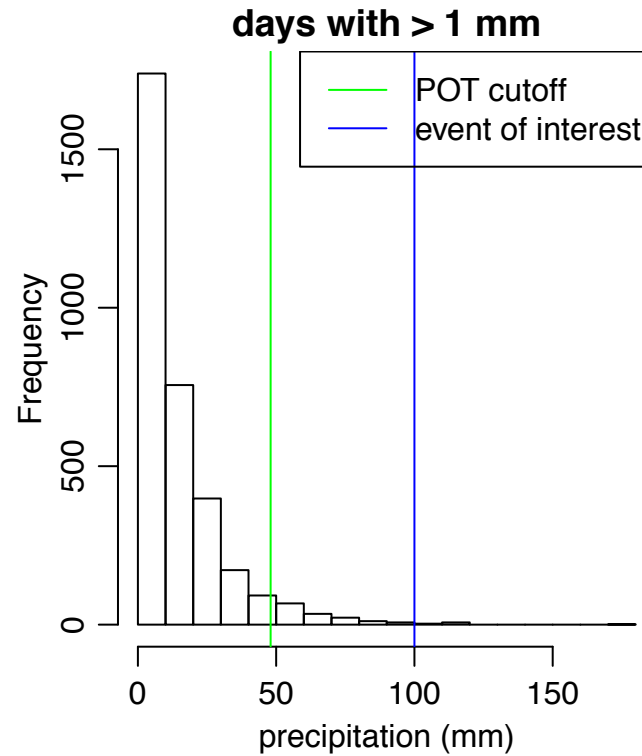
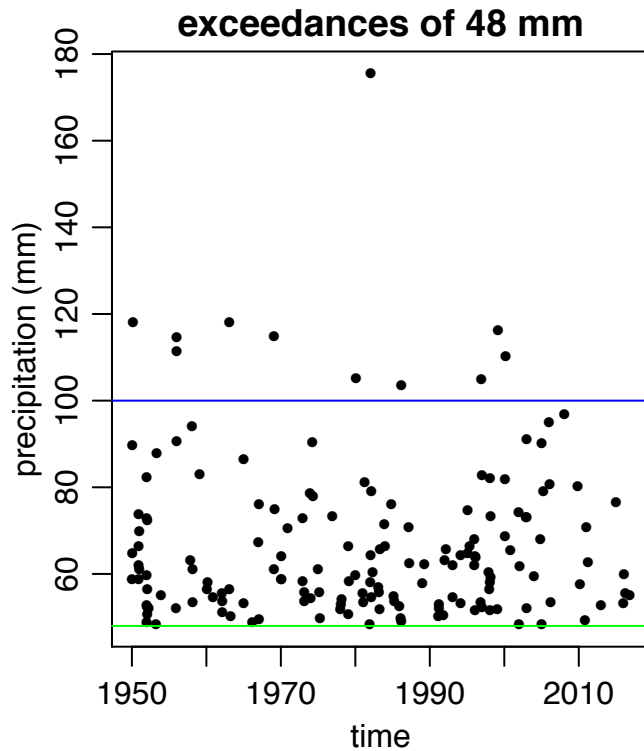


climextremes software

- High-level goals
 - Operate from Python or R
 - Provide risk ratio calculations and extreme value analysis fitting (GEV and POT)
 - Handle common situations with climate data
 - Designed for both observations and model output
- Technical features
 - Use of covariates for any extreme value distribution parameter (nonstationary fitting)
 - Estimation with uncertainty for risk ratios, return values, return periods/probabilities, differences in return values
 - Various techniques for estimating uncertainty
 - Handles annual/seasonal aggregated data
 - Statistically rigorous estimation with model ensembles
 - Statistically rigorous treatment of missing values (for POT)
 - Allows weighting (e.g., weighting nearby stations)

climextremes example

- US GHCN Santa Cruz, California daily precipitation
 - 1950-2016
 - November-May rainy season
 - 270 missing days



climextremes example

Stationary peaks-over-threshold fit

```
result = climextremes.fit_pot(numpy.array(exc.y),  
    nBlocks = nyears, threshold = threshold, firstBlock = seasonyear[0],  
    blockIndex = numpy.array(exc.seasonyear), index = numpy.array(exc.day),  
    proportionMissing = numpy.array(prop_missing),  
    declustering = 'noruns', returnPeriod = 20, returnValue = 100,  
    bootSE = False)
```

Nonstationary peaks-over-threshold fit

linear location trend in time

contrast 2015 return value and return probability with that for 1950

```
resultNS = climextremes.fit_pot(numpy.array(exc.y),  
    x = numpy.array(seasonyear), locationFun = 1,  
    nBlocks = nyears, threshold = threshold, firstBlock = seasonyear[0],  
    blockIndex = numpy.array(exc.seasonyear), index = numpy.array(exc.day),  
    proportionMissing = numpy.array(prop_missing), declustering = 'noruns',  
    xNew = 2015, xContrast = 1950, returnPeriod = 20, returnValue = 100,  
    bootSE = False)
```

climextremes example

Stationary peaks-over-threshold fit

20-year return value and standard error

```
result['returnValue']
```

```
# 120.3 mm
```

```
result['se_returnValue']    # return value standard error (asymptotic)
```

```
# 7.9 mm
```

```
result['logReturnProb']    # log of probability of exceeding 'returnValue=100'
```

```
# -1.98
```

confidence interval on return probability for 100 mm event

```
np.exp(result['logReturnProb'] + np.array((-2, 2))*result['se_logReturnProb'])
```

```
# (0.0872262, 0.2200104)
```

Nonstationary fit with location linear in year

change in return value (2015 - 1950) and standard error of the change

```
resultNS['returnValueDiff']
```

```
# -2.68 mm
```

```
resultNS['se_returnValueDiff']
```

```
# 5.37 mm
```

risk ratio 2015 / 1950 for 100 mm event with confidence interval

```
np.exp(resultNS['logReturnProbDiff'])
```

```
# 0.88
```

```
np.exp(resultNS['logReturnProbDiff'] + np.array((-2, 2))*resultNS['se_logReturnProbDiff'])
```

```
# (0.51, 1.49)
```

References / Links

- Statistical methods:
 - Paciorek C.J., D.A. Stone, and M.F. Wehner. 2018. Quantifying statistical uncertainty in the attribution of human influence on severe weather. *Weather and Climate Extremes*, 20: 69-80.
 - <https://arxiv.org/abs/1706.03388>
- climextremes software (version 0.2.1):
 - Available via pip or conda for Python
 - pip install climextremes
 - conda install -c cascade climextremes
 - Available via CRAN for R
 - Install.packages('climextRemes')
 - Repository: <https://bitbucket.org/lbl-cascade/climextremes-dev>