

CLIMATE EXTREME EVENT ATTRIBUTION and MULTIVARIATE EXTREME VALUE THEORY



LSCE

LABORATOIRE DES SCIENCES DU CLIMAT
& DE L'ENVIRONNEMENT

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Joint work with Anna Kiriliouk, Julien Worms, Soulianh Thao, Alexis Hannart and Aurélien Ribes.

Outline

Climate models and Detection & Attribution (D&A)

- Concepts

Extremes and attribution

- Multivariate extreme value theory

The statistical setup

Return level u_T for the time period T

$$\mathbb{P}(X > u_T) = \frac{1}{T}$$

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Return period for a weighted sum

$$\mathbb{P}(\omega_1 X_1 + \omega_2 X_2 > u_T) = \frac{1}{?}$$

with $\mathbb{P}(X_1 > u_T) = \mathbb{P}(X_2 > u_T) = \frac{1}{T}$

Return period for a weighted sum

$$\mathbb{P}(\omega_1 X_1 + \omega_2 X_2 > u_T) = \frac{1}{?}$$

with X_i unit exponentials and $u_T = \log T$

	$w_1 = w_2 = 0.5$		
	$T = 10$	$T = 50$	$T = 100$
Complete dependence	10	50	100

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	$w_1 = 0.2, w_2 = 0.8$		
	$T = 10$	$T = 50$	$T = 100$
Complete dependence	10	50	100
Intermediate dependence (MGPD)	18	88	175
Independence	13	100	237

Learned lesson

Given identically distributed univariate variables with the same return level u_T , the **degree of dependence** in the original data and the **weights** greatly influence the return period of the event

$$\{\omega_1 X_1 + \omega_2 X_2 > u_T\}$$

The climatological setup

Detection & Attribution

Attribution

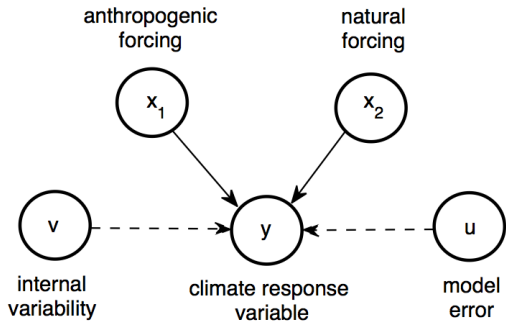
Evaluating the relative contributions of multiple causal factors¹ to a change or event with an assignment of statistical confidence.

Consequences

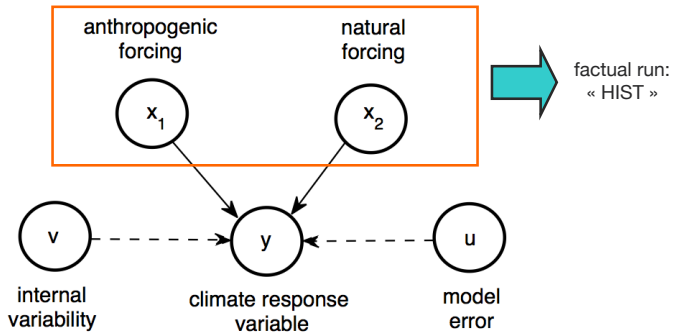
Need to assess whether the observed changes are

- consistent with the expected responses to external forcings (PS)
- inconsistent with alternative explanations (PN)

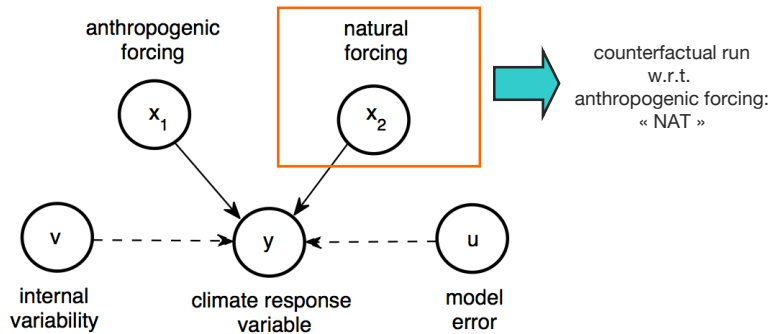
1. casual factors usually refer to external influences, which may be anthropogenic (GHGs, aerosols, ozone precursors, land use) and/or natural (volcanic eruptions, solar cycle modulations)



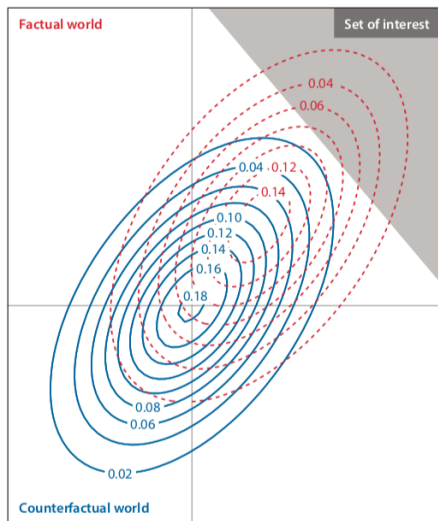
Factual world



Counterfactual world



Counterfactual and factual world in a probabilistic framework



The so-called event attribution scheme

Fraction of Attributable Risk (FAR)

Relative ratio of two probabilities, p_0 the probability of exceeding a threshold in a “world that might have been (no antropogenic forcings)” and p_1 the probability of exceeding the same threshold in a “world that it is”

$$FAR = 1 - \frac{p_0}{p_1}.$$

(see Stott P. A., Stone D. A., Allen M. R. (2004). Human contribution to the European heatwave of 2003. Nature)

FAR is linked with Pearl counter-factual theory

Hannart, Pearl, Otto, PN and Ghil. Counterfactual causality theory for the attribution of weather and climate-related events, BAMS, 2015

PN, Hannart and Ribes, Statistical Methods for Extreme Event Attribution in Climate Science, Annual Rev. of Stat. and Its Appl., 2020

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Causality cheat sheet

$$\text{Necessary causation} = \text{PN} = \text{FAR} = \max\left(1 - \frac{p_0}{p_1}, 0\right),$$

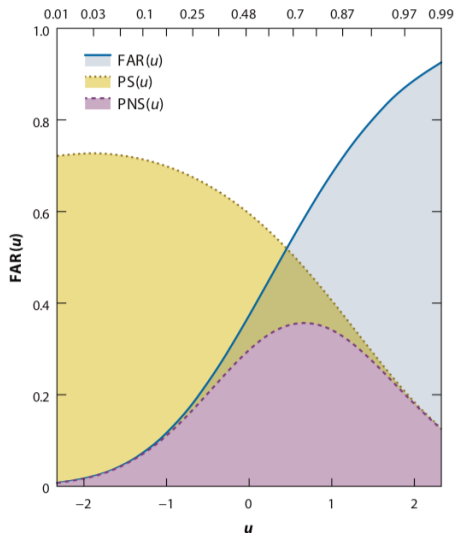
$$\text{Sufficient causation} = \text{PS} = \max\left(1 - \frac{1 - p_1}{1 - p_0}, 0\right),$$

$$\text{Both causation} = \text{PNS} = \max(p_1 - p_0, 0),$$

where p_0 proba in the counterfactual world & p_1 in the factual one

Gaussian example with $p_0 = P(X > u)$ and $p_1 = P(Z > u)$

Gaussian case with $X \sim N(0, 1)$, $Z \sim N(1, 1.5)$

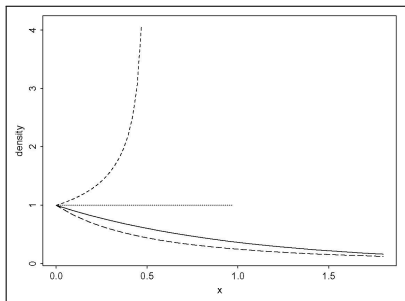


Another example : the Generalized Pareto Distribution (GP) survival function

$$\bar{H}_\gamma(x/\sigma) = \left(1 + \frac{\gamma x}{\sigma}\right)_+^{-1/\gamma}$$



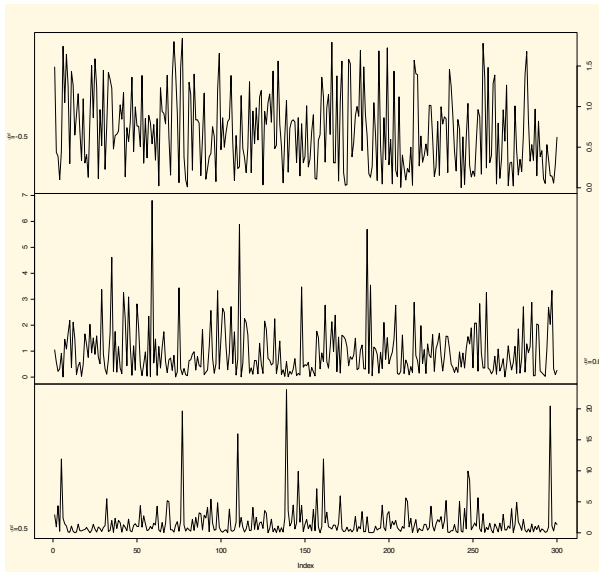
Vilfredo Pareto : 1848-1923



Born in France and trained as an engineer in Italy, he turned to the social sciences and ended his career in Switzerland. He formulated the power-law distribution (or "Pareto's Law"), as a model for how income or wealth is distributed across society.

see, e.g. *Statistics of Extremes* A.C. Davison and R. Huser *Annual Review of Statistics and Its Application* 2015 2 :1, 203-235

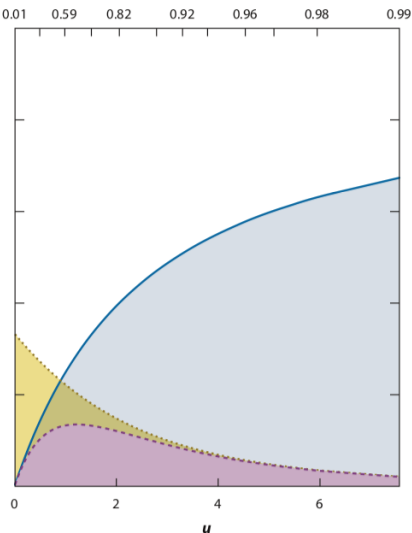
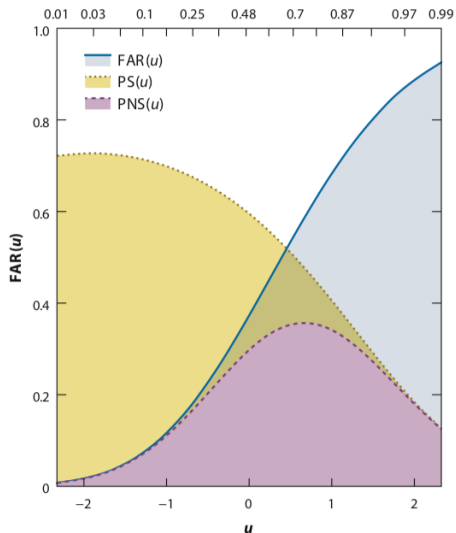
From Bounded ($\gamma < 0$) to Heavy tails ($\gamma > 0$)



Examples with $p_0 = P(X > u)$ and $p_1 = P(Z > u)$

Gaussian case with $X \sim N(0, 1), Z \sim N(1, 1.5)$

Pareto case with $X \sim GP(0, 1, 0.2), Z \sim GP(1, 1.5, 0.2)$



Moving to multivariate extremes

The Annals of Applied Statistics
2020, Vol. 14, No. 3, 1342–1358
<https://doi.org/10.1214/20-AOAS1355>
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CLIMATE EXTREME EVENT ATTRIBUTION USING MULTIVARIATE PEAKS-OVER-THRESHOLDS MODELING AND COUNTERFACTUAL THEORY

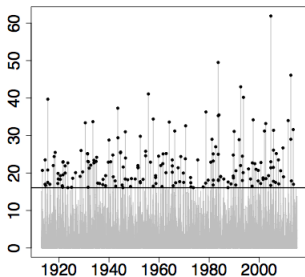
BY ANNA KIRILIOUK¹ AND PHILIPPE NAVEAU²

Univariate modelling strategy:

- Fix some high threshold u .
- Fit a GPD to the conditional threshold excesses

$$Y - u \mid Y > u.$$

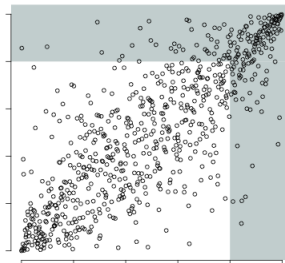
Daily rainfall amounts



Multivariate modelling strategy:

- Fix some high threshold u .
- Fit a multivariate GPD to the conditional threshold excesses

$$\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{u} \mid \mathbf{Y} \not\leq \mathbf{u}.$$



Multivariate generalized Pareto definition

Simulation

$$\mathbf{V}_{\gamma=0} \stackrel{d}{=} E + \mathbf{T} - \max_{1 \leq j \leq d} T_j,$$

where $E \sim \text{Exp}(1)$ and \mathbf{T} a d -dimensional r.v., $\perp E$.

Multivariate generalized Pareto definition

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Exponential conditional marginals

$$\mathbb{P}[V_i > z | V_i > 0] = \exp(-z)$$

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Different marginals

Every MGP vector has a representation on $\{\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^d : \mathbf{v} \preceq \mathbf{0}\}$ as

$$\mathbf{v} \stackrel{d}{=} \sigma \frac{\mathbf{e}^{\gamma \mathbf{V}_{\gamma=0}} - \mathbf{1}}{\gamma}$$

and

$$\mathbb{P}[V_j > v \mid V_j > 0] = (1 + \gamma_j v / \sigma_j)_+^{-1/\gamma_j},$$

MGPD simulated samples with density contours

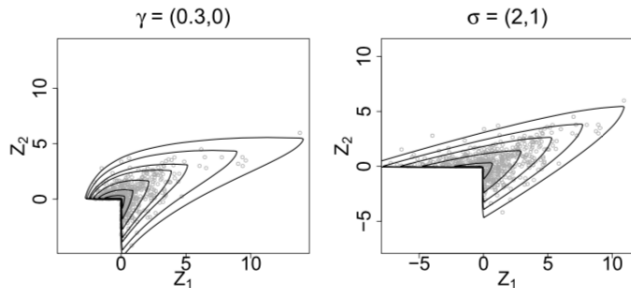


FIG. 1. Scatterplots and density contours from 500 bivariate GPD random draws using (2) parameters $\boldsymbol{\gamma} = (0.3, 0)$, $\boldsymbol{\sigma} = (1, 1)$ for the left panel and $\boldsymbol{\gamma} = (0, 0)$, $\boldsymbol{\sigma} = (2, 1)$ for the right panel. \mathbf{T} is zero-mean bivariate Gaussian with unit covariance matrix \mathbf{I}_2 .

Theoretical justification

Let $\mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $\mathbf{Y}_i = (Y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{id})$, $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, n iid copies of \mathbf{Y} . Let $\mathbf{M}_n := (M_{n,1}, \dots, M_{n,d})$ with $M_{nj} := \max(Y_{1j}, \dots, Y_{nj})$

Max-domain of attraction

$$\mathbb{P} \left[\frac{\mathbf{M}_n - \mathbf{b}_n}{\mathbf{a}_n} \leq \mathbf{x} \right] = \mathbb{P}^n (\mathbf{Y} \leq \mathbf{a}_n \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}_n) \xrightarrow{d} MGEV(\mathbf{x}), \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty. \quad (1)$$

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Multivariate Generalized Pareto (GP) r.v. (Rootzen & Tajvidi, 2006)

Let $\mathbf{l} = (l_1, \dots, l_d)$ the lower endpoints vector of G . If (1) holds,

$$\max \left\{ \frac{\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{b}_n}{\mathbf{a}_n}, \mathbf{l} \right\} \mid \mathbf{Y} \not\leq \mathbf{b}_n \xrightarrow{d} \mathbf{V}, \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty,$$

where \mathbf{V} is said to follow a multivariate GP distribution with cdf H .

Multivariate generalized Pareto properties

	$w_1 = w_2 = 0.5$		
	$T = 10$	$T = 50$	$T = 100$
Complete dependence	10	50	100
Intermediate dependence (MGPD)	19	96	191
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Linear projection (Rootzen et al. 2016)

If $\gamma = \gamma \mathbf{1}$, then for any weights $\mathbf{w} = (w_1, \dots, w_d) > \mathbf{0}$ such that $\mathbb{P}[\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{V} > 0] > 0$,

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{V} \mid \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{V} > 0 \sim \text{GP}(\mathbf{w}^T \sigma, \gamma).$$

MGPD and maximizing causality

Causality cheat sheet

$$PN = FAR = \max \left(1 - \frac{p_0}{p_1}, 0 \right),$$

$$PS = \max \left(1 - \frac{1 - p_1}{1 - p_0}, 0 \right),$$

$$PNS = \max (p_1 - p_0, 0),$$

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Optimal projection that maximizes PN

Find weights $\mathbf{w} \in \{\mathbf{w} \in [0, 1]^d : w_1 + \dots + w_d = 1\}$ that maximizes

$$PN(v, \mathbf{w}) = \max\left(1 - \frac{\mathbb{P}[\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{X}^{(0)} > v]}{\mathbb{P}[\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{X}^{(1)} > v]}, 0\right).$$

Optimal projection that maximizes PN

Find weights $\mathbf{w} \in \{\mathbf{w} \in [0, 1]^d : w_1 + \dots + w_d = 1\}$ that maximizes

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Homogeneous case with $\gamma = \gamma \mathbf{1}_d$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}[\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{X} > v] &= \mathbb{P}[\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{X} > \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{u}] \mathbb{P}[\mathbf{w}^T (\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{u}) > v - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{u} \mid \mathbf{w}^T (\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{u}) > 0] \\ &\approx \mathbb{P}[\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{X} > \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{u}] \bar{H}(v - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{u}; \mathbf{w}^T \sigma, \gamma), \end{aligned}$$

Necessary gain from univariate to multivariate analysis (equal weights but different dependence strengths)

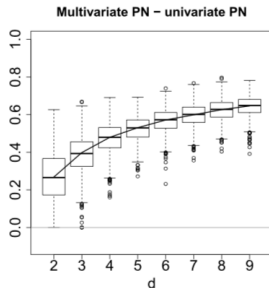


FIG. 6. Boxplots of the multivariate estimates $\widehat{\text{PN}} = 1 - \widehat{p}_0 / \widehat{p}_1$ minus the univariate PN estimates of aggregated data, where \widehat{p}_i is defined in (4.4), and $d \in \{2, \dots, 9\}$. 1000 samples of size $n = 2000$ were simulated from a multivariate Gaussian GPD model with $\sigma^{(0)} = \sigma^{(1)} = 1$ and $\gamma^{(0)} = \gamma^{(1)} = 0$, $\chi^{(0)} \in [0.3, 0.4]$ and $\chi^{(1)} \in [0.4, 0.55]$ (pairwise). The black line corresponds to the true values.

Necessary gain from univariate to bivariate analysis (equal dependence but different weights)

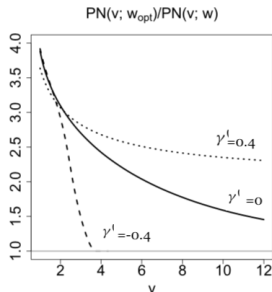


FIG. 5. Necessary causation gain for $\mathbf{X}^{(0)} \stackrel{d}{=} \mathbf{Z}^{(0)} \sim \text{MGPD}(\mathbf{T}^{(0)}, (1, 2)^T, \gamma \mathbf{1}_d)$ and $\mathbf{X}^{(1)} \stackrel{d}{=} \mathbf{Z}^{(1)} \sim \text{MGPD}(\mathbf{T}^{(1)}, (1.5, 2)^T, \gamma \mathbf{1}_d)$, where $\mathbf{T}^{(1)}, \mathbf{T}^{(0)}$ are Gaussian random vectors such that $\chi^{(0)} = \chi^{(1)} = 0.5$. The ratio of $\text{PN}(v, (w_{\text{opt}}, 1 - w_{\text{opt}})^T)$ to $\text{PN}(v, (0.5, 0.5)^T)$ is shown as a function of v , where $w_{\text{opt}} = 1$ based on Proposition 4.1. The dashed, solid and dotted lines correspond to a shape parameter (with constraint $\gamma^{(0)} = \gamma^{(1)}$) of $-0.4, 0$ and 0.4 , respectively.

Climate model (CNRM)

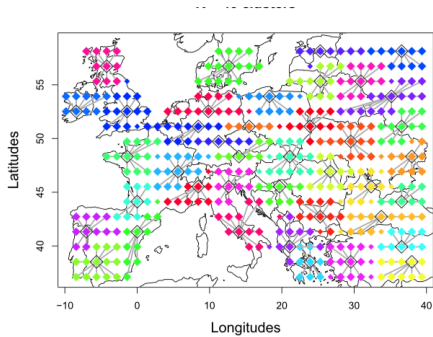
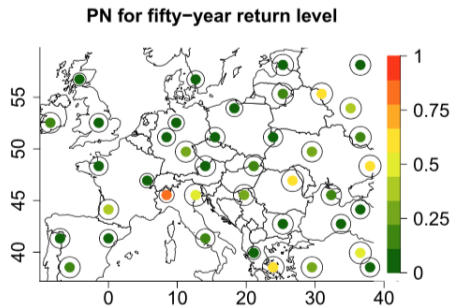


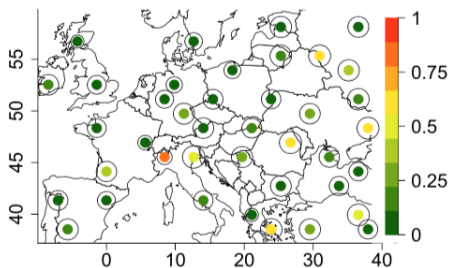
FIG. 7. Clustering of weekly maximum winter precipitation in central Europe between January 1985 and August 2014, using the PAM algorithm with distance based on pairwise tail dependence coefficients.

Weights influence

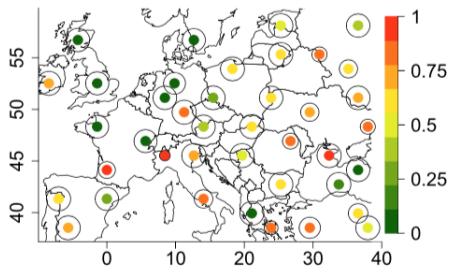


Weights influence

PN for fifty-year return level



PN for fifty-year return level, optimal weights



Projection $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{V}^{(i)}$ with $\mathbf{V}_{\gamma=0} = E + \mathbf{T} - \max_{1 \leq j \leq d} T_j$

$$\mathbb{P}[\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{V} > v] = \frac{1}{(\gamma v + \mathbf{w}^T \sigma)^{1/\gamma}} \mathbb{E} \left[\left(\sum_{j=1}^d w_j \sigma_j e^{\gamma(T_j - \max(\mathbf{T}))} \right)^{1/\gamma} \right] \text{ if } \gamma \neq 0,$$

Projection $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{V}^{(i)}$ with $\mathbf{V}_{\gamma=0} = \mathbf{E} + \mathbf{T} - \max_{1 \leq j \leq d} T_j$ with $\gamma = 1$

If \mathbf{T} a bivariate normal r.v. with $\text{Var}(T_i) = 1$ & $\text{Cor}(T_1, T_2) = \rho$, then

$$\mathbb{P}[\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{V} > v] = \frac{\mathbf{w}^T \sigma}{v + \mathbf{w}^T \sigma} \left\{ e^{1-\rho} \Phi \left(-\sqrt{2(1-\rho)} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \right\}.$$

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PNS

$$PNS(v, \mathbf{w}) = c_1 \frac{\mathbf{w}^T \sigma^{(1)}}{v + \mathbf{w}^T \sigma^{(1)}} - c_0 \frac{\mathbf{w}^T \sigma^{(0)}}{v + \mathbf{w}^T \sigma^{(0)}}$$

with $c_i = e^{1-\rho^{(i)}} \Phi \left(-\sqrt{2(1-\rho^{(i)})} \right) + \frac{1}{2}$

Projection $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{V}^{(i)}$ with $\mathbf{V}_{\gamma=0} = \mathbf{E} + \mathbf{T} - \max_{1 \leq j \leq d} T_j$ with $\gamma = 1$

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$$\text{with } c_i = e^{1-\rho^{(i)}} \Phi \left(-\sqrt{2(1-\rho^{(i)})} \right) + \frac{1}{2}$$

Maximizing PNS with respect to v

$$v^* = \frac{(\mathbf{w}^T \sigma^{(0)})(\mathbf{w}^T \sigma^{(1)}) + \sqrt{(\mathbf{w}^T \sigma^{(0)})(\mathbf{w}^T \sigma^{(1)})c_0 c_1}}{c_1(\mathbf{w}^T \sigma^{(1)}) - c_0(\mathbf{w}^T \sigma^{(0)})}$$

Also explicit expressions for maximizing PNS with respect to \mathbf{w} , but particularly ugly

Example : $\gamma = 1$ and $\mathbf{V}_{\gamma=0} = \mathbf{E} + \mathbf{T} - \max_{1 \leq j \leq d} T_j$ with \mathbf{T} a bivariate normal

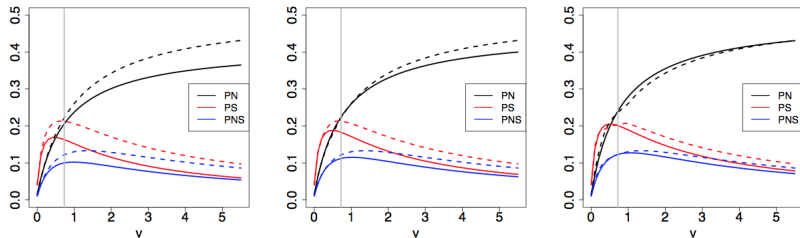


Figure 4: PN, PS and PNS for $\gamma = 1$ and $\sigma^{(0)} = (1, 0.6)$, for $\sigma^{(1)} = (2, 0.7)$ (left), $\sigma^{(1)} = (2, 0.9)$ (middle) and $\sigma^{(1)} = (2, 1.1)$ (right), for $w = 1/2$ (solid lines) and $w = w_{\text{PNS}}^*$ (dashed lines). The dependence structure is as in Example 2.2 with a correlation of 0.3 in the factual world and 0.4 in the counterfactual world.

Example : $\gamma = 0$ and $V_{\gamma=0} = E + T - \max_{1 \leq j \leq d} T_j$ with T a bivariate normal

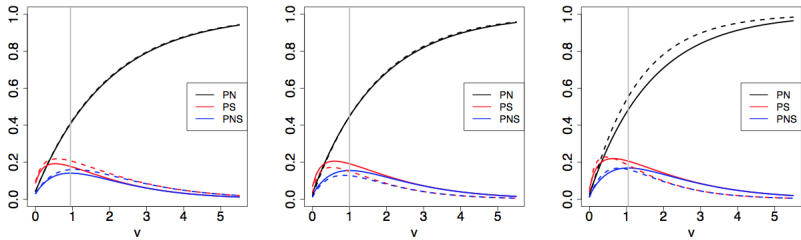


Figure 3: PN, PS and PNS for $\gamma = 0$ and $\sigma^{(0)} = (1, 0.6)$, for $\sigma^{(1)} = (2, 0.7)$ (left), $\sigma^{(1)} = (2, 0.9)$ (middle) and $\sigma^{(1)} = (2, 1.1)$ (right), for $w = 1/2$ (solid lines) and $w = w_{PN}^*$ (dashed lines). The dependence structure is as in Example 2.2 with a correlation of 0.3 in the factual world and 0.4 in the counterfactual world.

Conclusions

Main messages

- Interesting links between Extreme Value Theory and Causality Theory in attributing climate extremes
- Multivariate Pareto projections can be optimized with respect to causation criteria
- In climate studies, this can help contrasting the impact of anthropogenic effect

Future work on difference sources of error and/or uncertainty in D&A

- Natural climate internal variability
- Natural forcing variations
- Model uncertainty from approximating the true climate system with numerical experiments
- Observational uncertainties due to instrumental errors, homogenization problems and mismatches between data sources
- Sampling uncertainty in space and time
- Statistical modeling error by assuming a specific statistical model, e.g., assuming a generalized extreme value distribution for independent block maxima.
- Inferential uncertainties

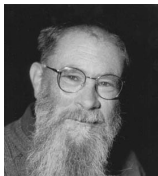
PhD ad on "Development of machine learning methods to combine multi-model biases in studies of detection and attribution of climatic extremes" (contact me).

The cornerstone of causality: counterfactual definition

- D. Hume, *An Enquiry Concerning Human Understanding*, 1748
« We may define a cause to be an object followed by another, where, if the first object had not been, the second never had existed. »
- D. K. Lewis, *Counterfactuals*, 1973
« We think of a cause as something that makes a difference, and the difference it makes must be a difference from what would have happened without it. Had it been absent, its effects would have been absent as well. »



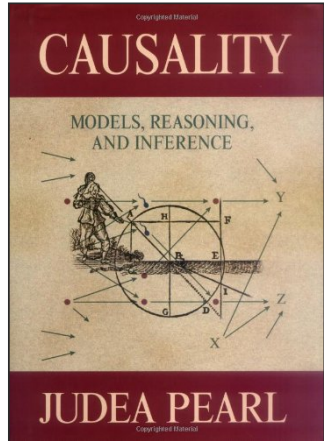
D. Hume, 18th century

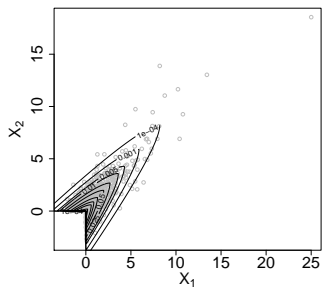
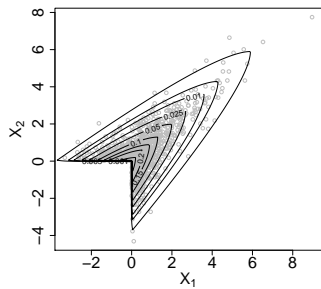


D. Lewis, 20th century

Consolidation of a standard causality theory (1980-1990)

- Common theoretical corpus on causality
 - what does «X causes Y» mean ?
 - how does one evidence a causality link from data ?
 - philosophy, artificial intelligence, statistics.
 - statistics alone not enough - more concepts needed.
- J. Pearl (2000), *Causality: models, reasoning and inference*, Cambridge University Press.
- Turing Award 2004.
- Provides clear semantics and sound logic for causal reasoning.

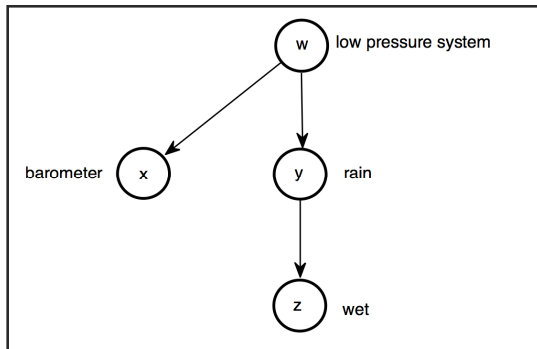




$\text{Cor}(T_1, T_2) = 0.4$, with $\gamma = \mathbf{0}$ (left) and $\gamma = (0.2, 0.2)$ (right)

Oriented graphs

- visual representation of the conditional independence structure of a joint distribution



$$P(X, Y, Z, W) = P(W) \cdot P(X | W) \cdot P(Y | W) \cdot P(Z | Y)$$

Interventional probability

- Limitation of oriented graphs
 - identifiability: several causal graphs are compatible with the same pdf (and hence with the same observations).

$$P(X, Y) = P(X) \cdot P(Y | X) = P(Y) \cdot P(X | Y)$$



$X \rightarrow Y$



$Y \rightarrow X$

- Need for disambiguation.

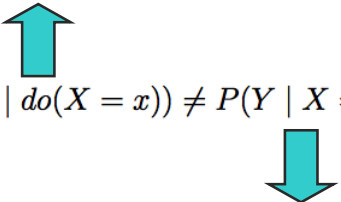


experimentation

Interventional probability

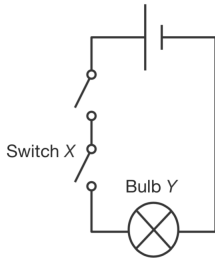
- New notion:
 - intervention $do(X=x)$
 - interventional probability $P(Y | do(X=x)) = P(Y_x)$

the probability of rain **forcing** the barometer to decrease,
in an experimental context in which the barometer is manipulated

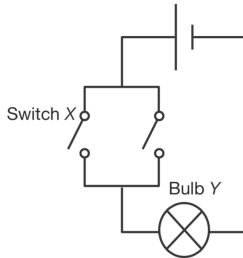

$$P(Y | do(X = x)) \neq P(Y | X = x)$$

the probability of rain **knowing** that the barometer is decreasing,
in a non-experimental context in which the barometer evolution is left unconstrained

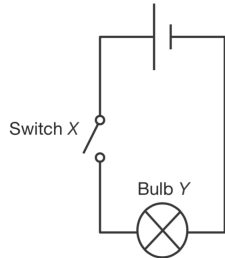
Causal theory (Pearl): causality has two facets



Necessary
Causation



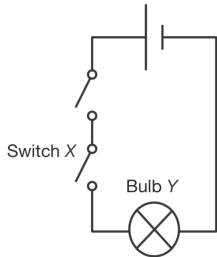
Sufficient
Causation



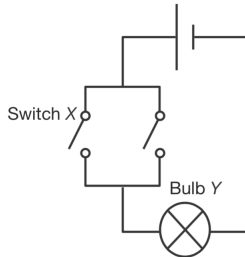
Nec. & Suf.
Causation

Causal theory (Pearl): Probabilities of causation

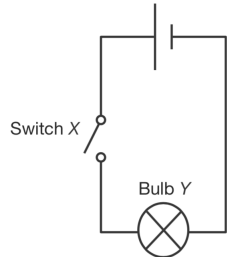
- **Probability of necessary causation** = probability that the effect is removed when the cause is turned off, conditional on the fact that the effect and the cause were initially present.



Necessary
Causation



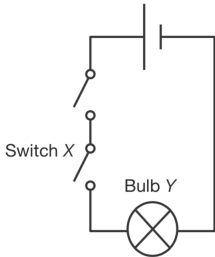
Sufficient
Causation



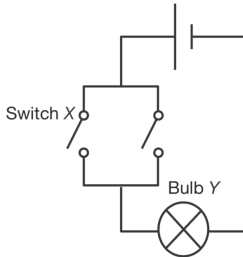
Nec. & Suf.
Causation

Causal theory (Pearl): Probabilities of causation

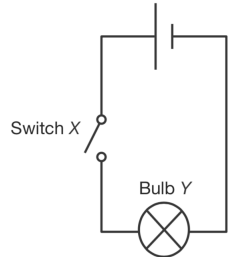
- **Probability of sufficient causation** = probability that the effect appears when the cause is turned on, conditional on the fact that the effect and the cause were initially absent.



Necessary
Causation



Sufficient
Causation



Nec. & Suf.
Causation

Fundamental difference : necessary and sufficient causation

- Definitions:
 - “*X is a necessary cause of Y*” means that X is required for Y to occur but that other factors might be required as well.
 - “*X is a sufficient cause of Y*” means that X always triggers Y but that Y may also occur for other reasons without requiring X.
- Examples:
 - clouds are a necessary cause of rain but not a sufficient one.
 - rain is a sufficient cause for the road being wet, but not a necessary one.

Fundamental difference : necessary and sufficient causation

- Definitions:
 - **Probability of necessary causality = PN** = the probability that the event Y would not have occurred in the absence of the event X given that both events Y and X did in fact occur.
 - **Probability of sufficient causation = PS** = the probability that Y would have occurred in the presence of X, given that Y and X did not occur.
- Formalization:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{PN} =_{\text{def}} P(Y_0 = 0 \mid Y = 1, X = 1) \\ \text{PS} =_{\text{def}} P(Y_1 = 1 \mid Y = 0, X = 0) \\ \text{PNS} =_{\text{def}} P(Y_0 = 0, Y_1 = 1) \end{array} \right.$$