

Extreme Value Analysis

The statistical analysis of low frequency, high severity events

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Extreme Value Analysis (EVA)

- EVA is a statistical methodology for making inferences about rare events (weather, finance, public health, materials, etc.)
 - It is also very often referred to as Extreme Value Theory (EVT)
- Disambiguation:
 - Extreme Value Theory (Analysis) has nothing to do with the Extreme Value Theorem, from elementary calculus.
- This talk will be limited to:
 - "Classical" EVA (mostly)
 - Univariate, continuous probability distributions
 - Maxima, since $\min(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) = -\max(-X_1, -X_2, \dots, -X_n)$

North Sea Flood of 1953

Losses:

- 1836 people killed
- 72,000 people evacuated
- 49,000 houses and farms flooded
- 201,000 cattle drowned
- 500 km coastal defenses destroyed
- More than 200,000 ha flooded

Effect on Study of Extreme Events:

- Very little systematic statistical research w.r.t. height of the dikes was done before 1953
 - Flood of 1570 was mean-sea-level + 4m
- Gave EVA research a decisive push
- Needed height estimate **well outside range of existing data**
 - Van Dantzig report estimated $p=1-10^{-4}$ quantile (one-in-ten-thousand-year surge height) of mean-sea-level + 5.14m

Source: [Embrechts 1997]

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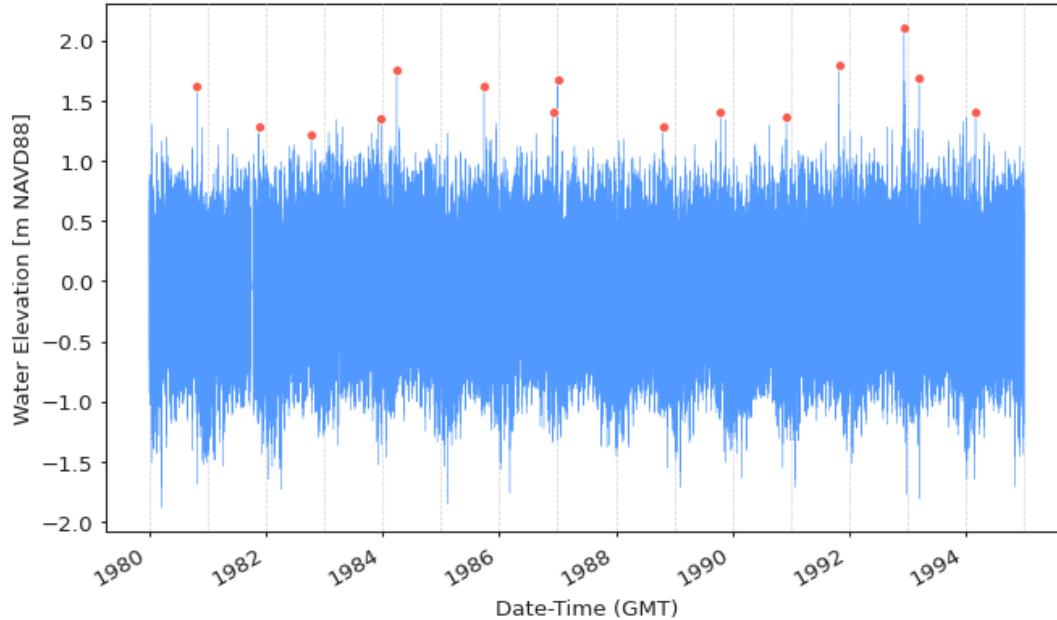
Extreme Value Analysis



Netherlands, during 1953 North Sea Flood.
Viewed from a U.S. Army helicopter.

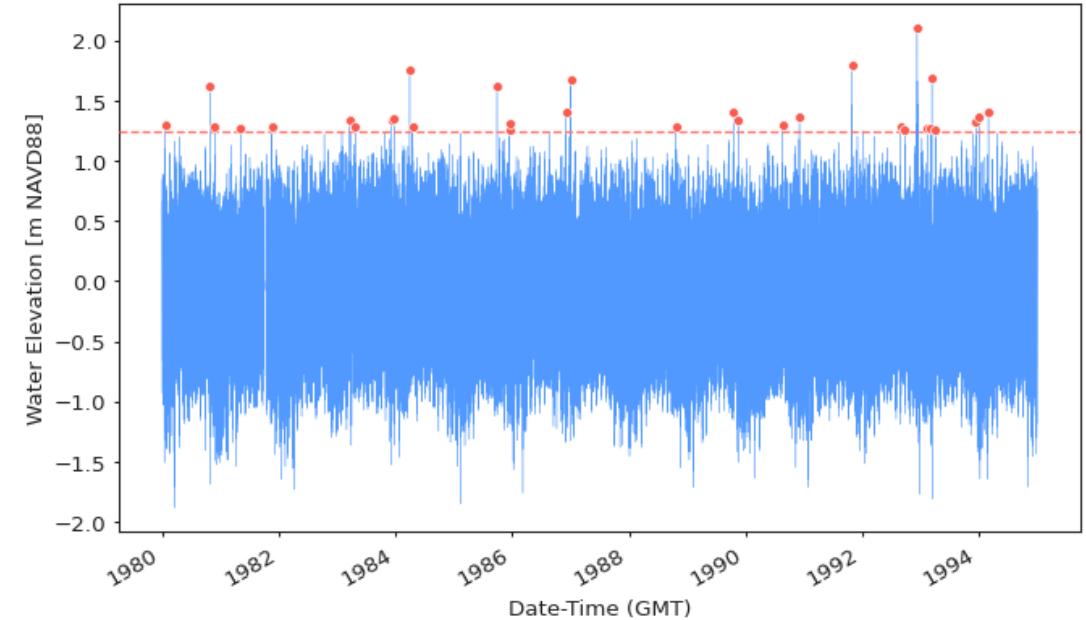
Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/North_Sea_flood_of_1953

Two Primary Approaches to EVA



Block Maxima (BM)

Divide the data into large/long blocks and use the maximum/minimum value in each block



Points Over Threshold (POT)

Use all data that exceeds a specific threshold

Source: PyExtremes User Guide

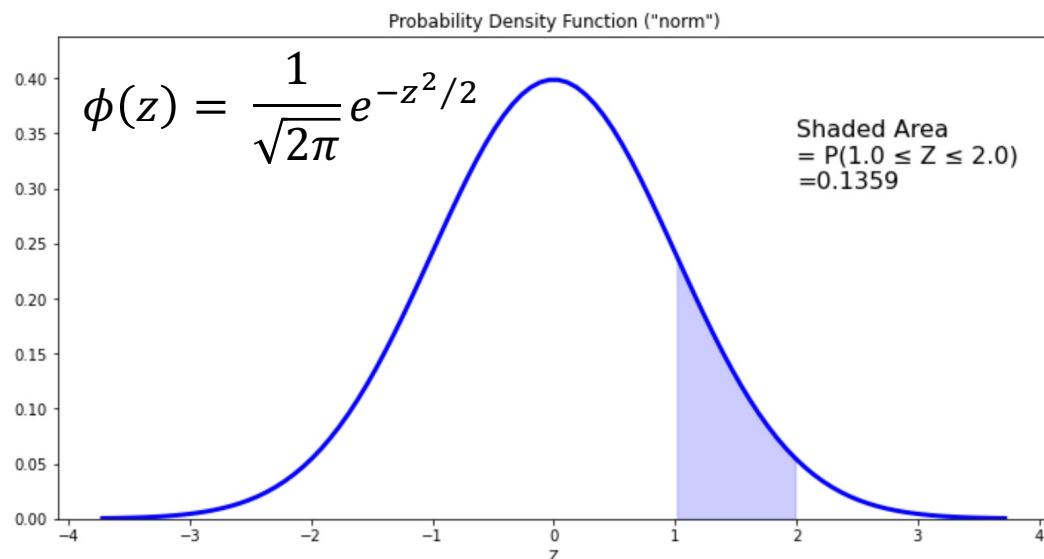
A Very Brief Refresher

Probability Theory: PDFs, CDFs, CLT, etc.

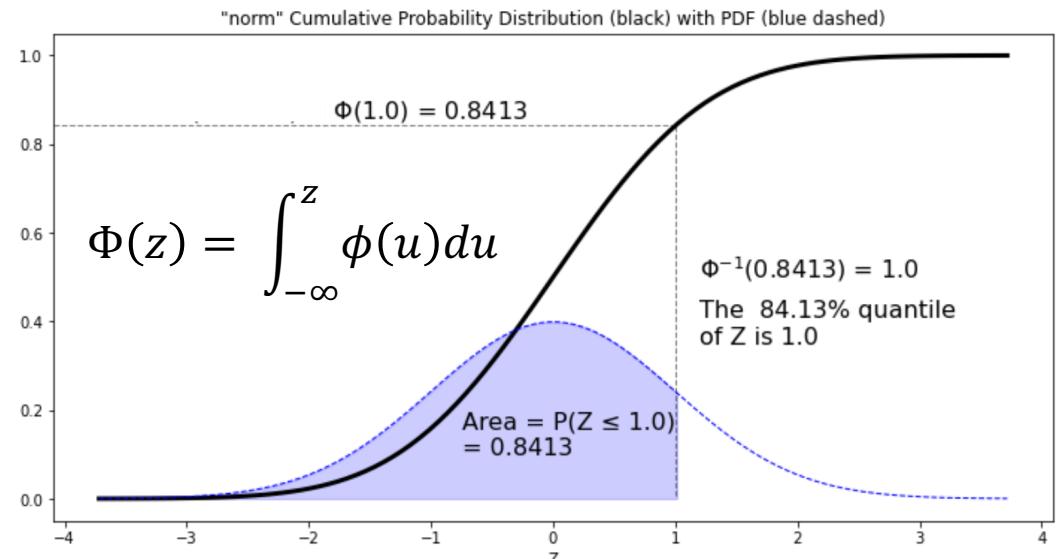
Continuous PDFs and CDFs

Standard Normal Distribution

Probability Density Function (PDF)



Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF)

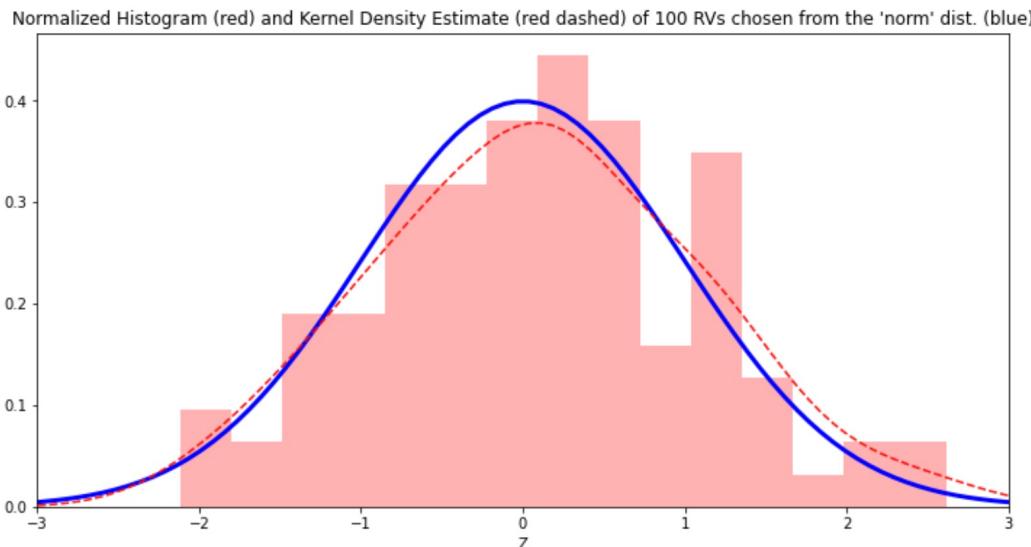


If $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$ and $Z = \frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}$,
then $F_X(x) = P(X \leq x) = P\left(Z \leq \frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right) = \Phi\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)$, i.e., a location-scale family[†]

[†]A location-scale family is a family of distributions formed by translation and scaling of a *standard* family member.

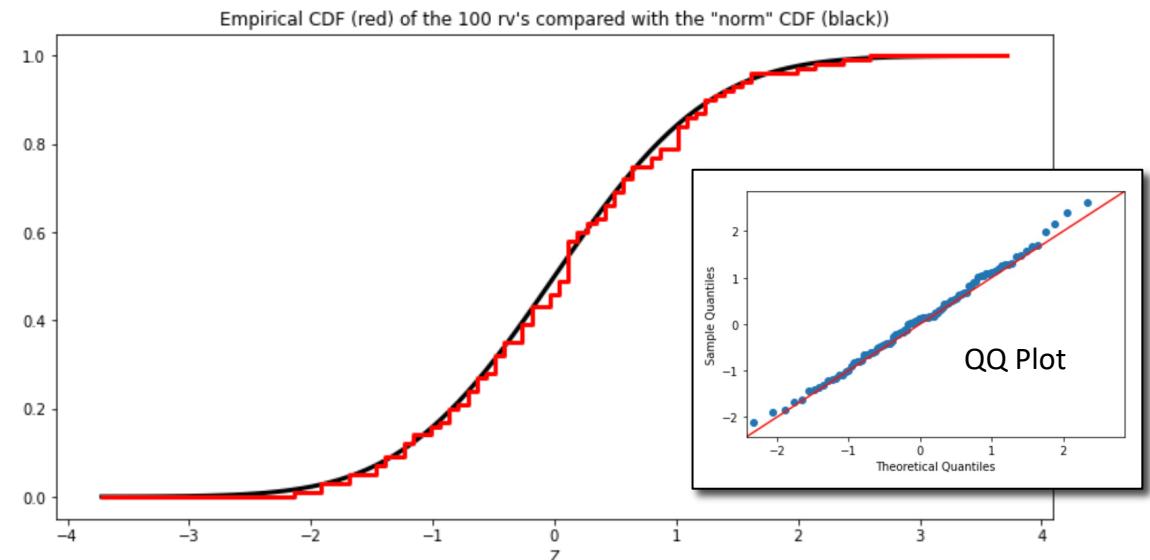
Histograms and Empirical CDFs

Normalized Histogram & Kernel Density Estimate
of a Random Sample



- Histograms (normalized) are empirical estimates of PDFs, but their shape is sensitive to bin size
- Kernel density estimates are another form of PDF estimate, but their shape is sensitive to the type of kernel used

Empirical CDF of the Same Random Sample



- The Empirical CDF is less susceptible to subjective choices,
- so it is often used for model checking, for example, using Quantile-Quantile Plots.

Parameter Estimation

$X_1, \dots, X_n \sim F(x; \underline{\theta})$ iid and $f = F'$

- Maximum Likelihood Est. (MLE)

- $\underline{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)^T$
- $\mathcal{L}_n(\underline{\theta}; \underline{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i; \underline{\theta})$
- $\hat{\underline{\theta}} = \underset{\underline{\theta}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \ln[\mathcal{L}_n(\underline{\theta}; \underline{x})]$

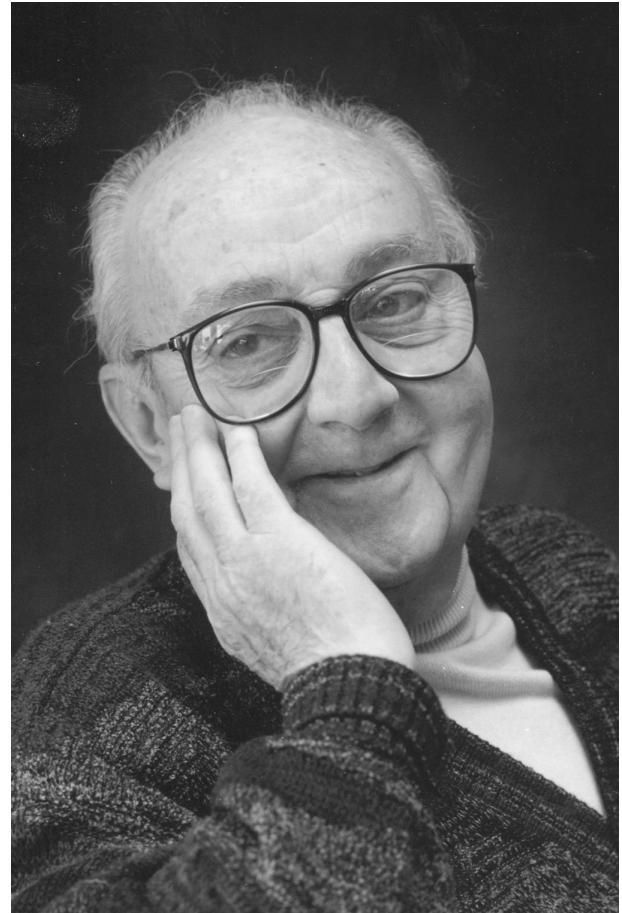
- Other Methods

- MOM / PWM / L-Moments
- Bayesian Parameter Estimation
- ...

- Confidence Intervals (CI)
 - Wald CI ("classical" method)
 - MLE: $\hat{\underline{\theta}} \sim MVN_d(\underline{\theta}, I^{-1}(\underline{\theta}))$
 - Profile Likelihood CI
 - Likelihood ratio is asymptotically χ^2_{df}
 - Bootstrapping (resampling w/ replacement)
 - Credible Interval / Highest Posterior Density (HPD) Interval/Region (Bayesian)
 - ...

**“All models are wrong,
but some are useful”**

-- George E. P. Box



By DavidMCEddy at en.wikipedia, CC BY-SA 3.0,
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=115167166>

Maximum Values

An experiment using pseudo-random numbers, along with some theory

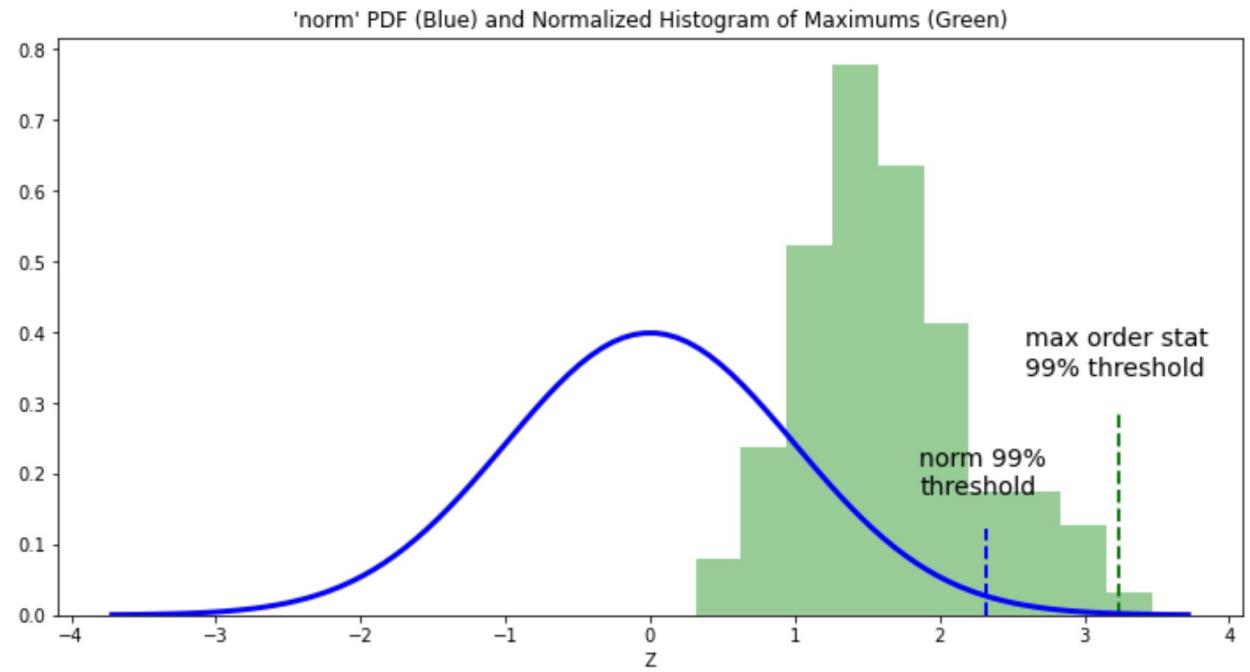
Order Statistics

- Let $X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots, X_n$ be iid RVs
 - with CDF: $F(x)$
 - and PDF: $f(x) = \frac{d}{dx}F(x)$
- Also, let $Y_1 \leq Y_2 \leq Y_3 \leq \dots \leq Y_n$ be the X 's in ascending order
- The Y 's are *Order Statistics* based on the X 's
- We'll focus on the Maximum Order Statistic, Y_n

A Random Sample of Maximum Order Statistics (based on Std. Normal Dist.)

The figure at right depicts:

- Standard Normal PDF (blue)
- A normalized histogram of 200 maximum order statistics (green)
 - Where each maximum came from a random sample of 12 standard normal RVs
- Two quantiles (“thresholds”):
 - Standard normal 99% quantile (~ 2.33)
 - Empirical 99% quantile of the 200 maxs (~ 3.24)
- Note that there is almost a full $N(0,1)$ standard deviation between the quantiles.



Distribution of the Maximum Order Statistic

The maximum order statistic ...

- has CDF, $Y_n \sim G$, where $G(y) = [F(y)]^n$

$$\begin{aligned}G(y) &= P(Y_n \leq y) \\&= P(X_1 \leq y, \dots, X_n \leq y) \\&= P(X_1 \leq y) \dots P(X_n \leq y) \\&= [F(y)]^n\end{aligned}$$

- The PDF is $g(y) = n[F(y)]^{n-1}f(y)$
- Note: If $F(x) < 1$, then $F^n(x) \rightarrow 0$, as $n \rightarrow \infty$

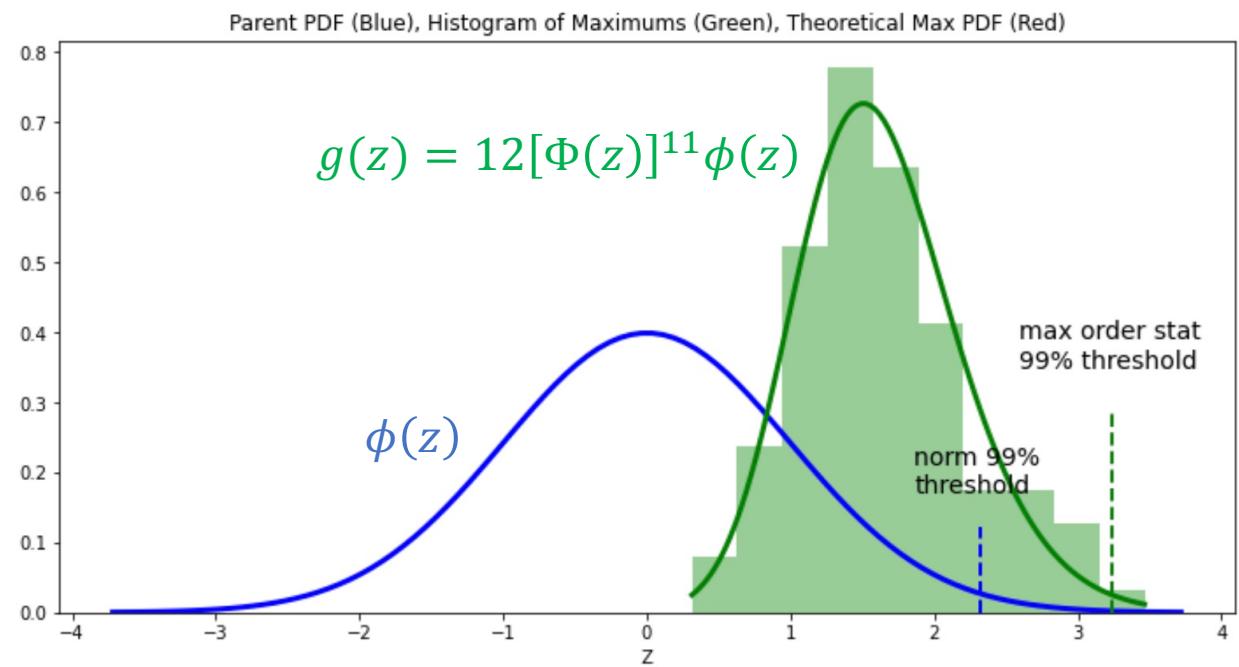
Max. Order Stat. Distribution (based on Std. Normal Dist.)

If $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim N(0,1)$ iid and Y_n is the Maximum Order Statistic, then its CDF and PDF are as follows, resp.:

$$G(y) = [\Phi(y)]^n$$

$$g(y) = n[\Phi(y)]^{n-1}\phi(y)$$

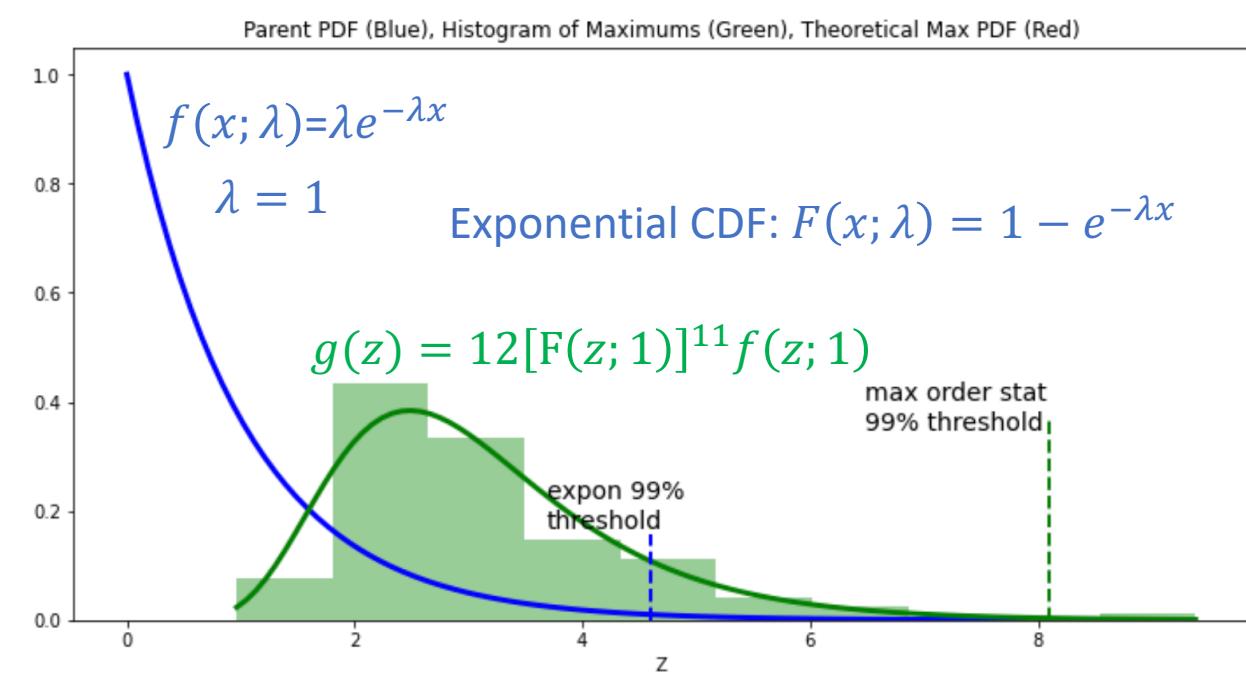
At right, the PDF, g , is plotted (in green) along with the histogram of maximums from 200 samples, each of size $n = 12$.



Max. Order Stat. Distribution (based on Exponential Dist.)

The figure at right depicts:

- Exponential PDF, $\lambda = 1$ (blue)
- A histogram of 200 maximum order statistics (green)
 - Where each maximum came from a random sample (iid) of 12 exponential RVs ($\lambda = 1$)
- Two quantiles (“thresholds”):
 - Exponential 99% quantile (~ 4.6)
 - Empirical 99% quantile of the 200 maxs (~ 8.1)



Extreme Value Theory (EVT)

The Generalized Extreme Value (GEV) Distribution and Theorem

Generalized Extreme Value (GEV) Distribution

$$G(z) = \exp \left\{ - \left[1 + \xi \left(\frac{z - \mu}{\sigma} \right) \right]^{-1/\xi} \right\}$$

defined on the set $\{z: 1 + \frac{\xi(z-\mu)}{\sigma} > 0\}$,

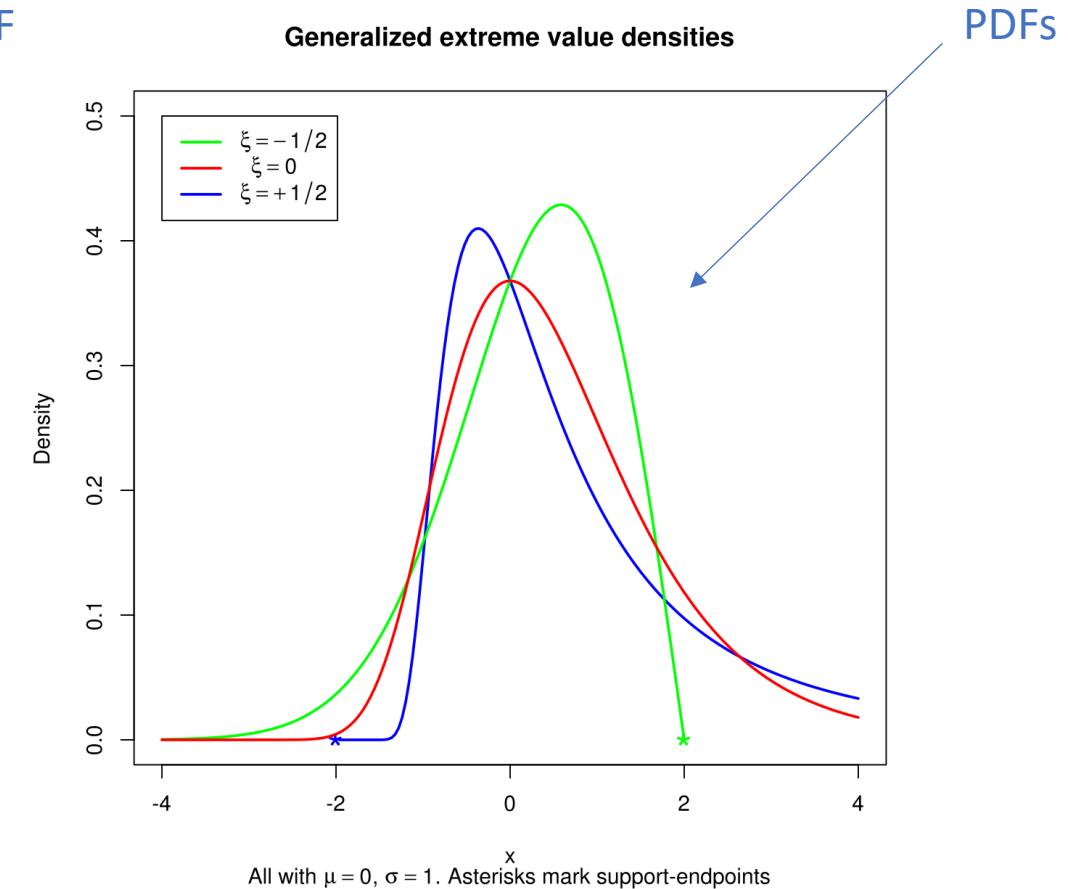
where $-\infty < \mu < \infty$, $\sigma > 0$ and $-\infty < \xi < \infty$.

- If $\xi > 0$, then G is the **Fréchet** dist. (heavy tailed)
- If $\xi < 0$, then G is the **Weibull** dist. (upper-bounded)
- Taking the limit as $\xi \rightarrow 0$, obtains the **Gumbel** dist. (light-tailed)

$$G(z) = \exp \left[-\exp \left\{ -\left(\frac{z-\mu}{\sigma} \right) \right\} \right], -\infty < z < \infty$$

Source: [Coles 2001]

NOTE: scipy.stats reverses the sign of ξ . ($c = -\xi$)



Source: [Wikipedia: GEV]

Extreme Value Theorem

Let Y_n be the maximum order statistic of X_1, \dots, X_n , a sequence of iid random variables with common CDF, F , then if there exists sequences of constants $\{a_n > 0\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ such that

$$P\left(\frac{Y_n - b_n}{a_n} \leq z\right) \rightarrow G(z) \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

for a non-degenerate distribution function G ,
then G is a member of the GEV family (described on the previous slide).

GEV is a Location-Scale Family of Distributions

$P(Y_n \leq w)$ is approximated by another member, G^* , of the GEV location-scale family.

To see this, observe that the GEV distribution G is a family of distributions formed by translation and scaling of a standard family member.

The standard member is $H(x; \xi) = \exp[-(1 + \xi x)^{-1/\xi}]$, for $\xi \neq 0$,

and so, $G(z) = H\left(\frac{z-\mu}{\sigma}; \xi\right)$, for $\xi \neq 0$ and $\left\{z : 1 + \frac{\xi(z-\mu)}{\sigma} > 0\right\}$

For $\xi = 0$, define $H(x; 0) = \exp[-\exp(-x)]$

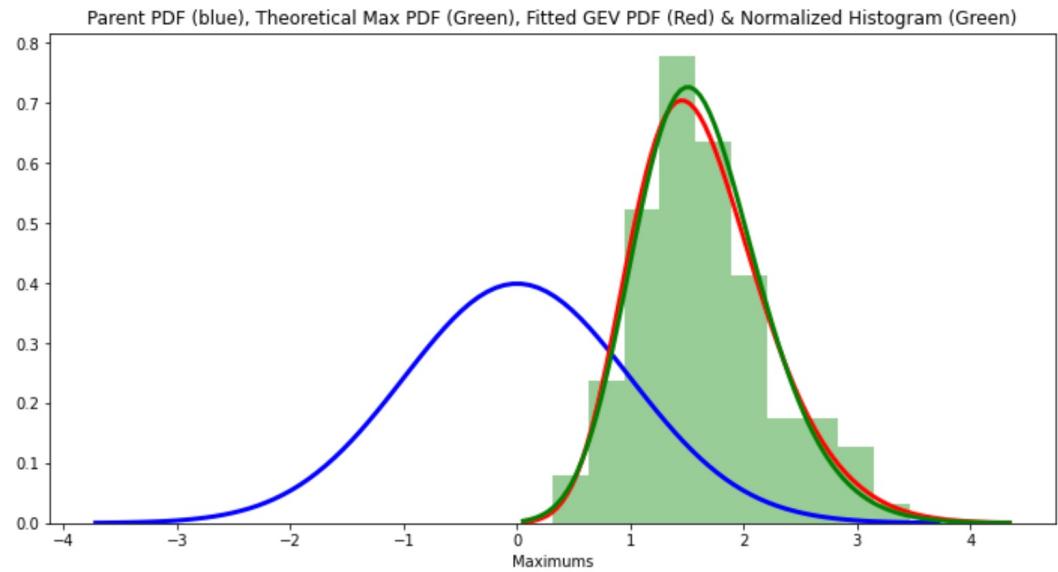
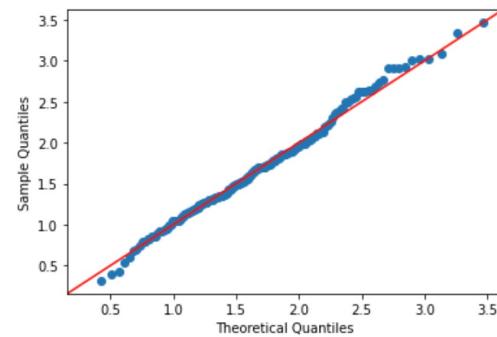
Furthermore, $P\left(\frac{Y_n - b_n}{a_n} \leq z\right) \approx H\left(\frac{z-\mu}{\sigma}; \xi\right)$ for large n , which, after some algebraic manipulation, can be written as

$$P(Y_n \leq w) \approx H\left(\frac{w - b_n^*}{a_n^*}; \xi\right) = G^*(w)$$

using different location and scale values, a_n^* and b_n^* .

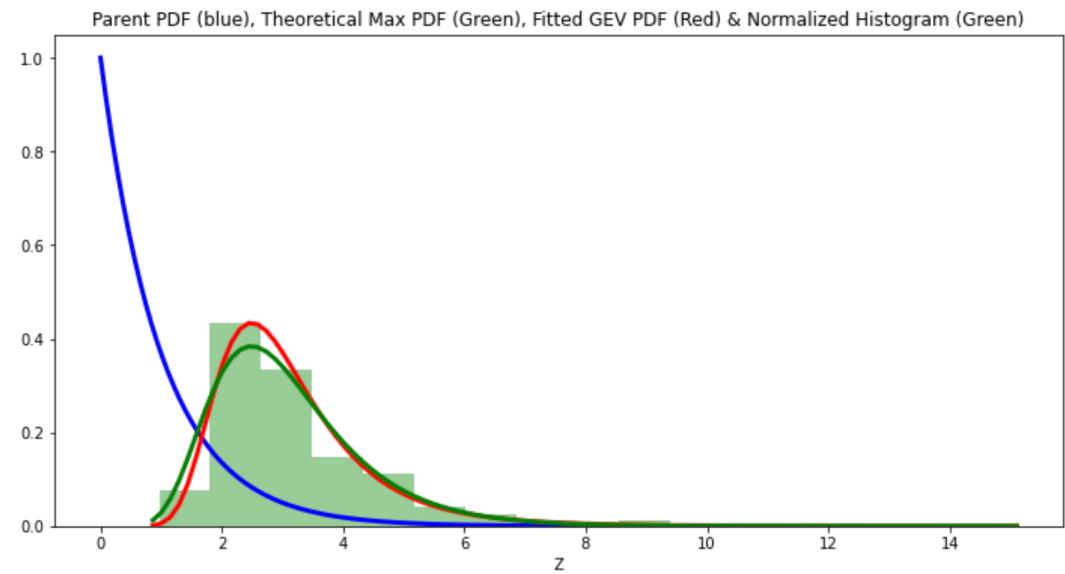
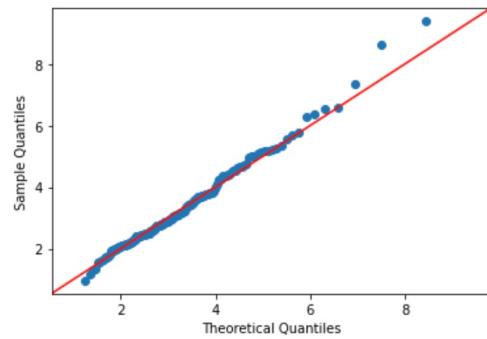
GEV MLE Fit to Maximums based on Std. Normal RVs

- Same as earlier normal plot, except that now the GEV fit (via MLE) is also shown (red)
- The QQ-plot shows the normal-based maximums (data) vs. the GEV fit



GEV MLE Fit to Maximums based on Exponential RVs

- Same as earlier exponential plot, except that now the GEV fit (via MLE) is also shown (red)
- The QQ-plot shows the exponential-based maximums (data) vs. the GEV fit



Return Levels & Return Periods

- The quantiles of the GEV can be interpreted as **return levels**
- A **return level** is the value expected to be exceeded on average once every $1/p$ periods, where $1 - p$ is the specific probability associated with the quantile $G(z_p) = 1 - p$

$$\Rightarrow z_p = \mu - \frac{\sigma}{\xi} \{1 - [-\log(1-p)]^{-\xi}\}, \xi \neq 0$$
$$z_p = \mu - \sigma \log\{-\log(1-p)\}, \xi = 0$$

- z_p is the **return level** associated with the **return period** of $1/p$

EVA Software

- R:
 - **ismev**: <https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/ismev/index.html>
 - **extRemes**: <https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/extRemes/index.html>
 - and many, many more... see the following...
 - <https://cran.r-project.org/web/views/ExtremeValue.html> (Many links to other EVA packages in R)
 - “A modeler’s guide to extreme value software”, Belzile, et al., arXiv:2205.07714v1, 16 May 2022
- Python:
 - **Pyextremes**: <https://georgebv.github.io/pyextremes/>
 - Scikit-extremes: <https://kikocorreoso.github.io/scikit-extremes/>
 - Wafo: <https://pypi.org/project/wafo/>
- Documentation
 - Both extRemes (R) and Pyextremes (Python) have excellent documentation
 - Not that other packages don’t, but the docs for these two packages make good starting points for learning more about EVA.
 - W.r.t. a Good Book, I recommend Coles’ book:
 - “An Introduction to Statistical Modeling of Extreme Values”
 - ...that is, *ISMEV*

Example 1

GEV Fit using ISMEV (R)

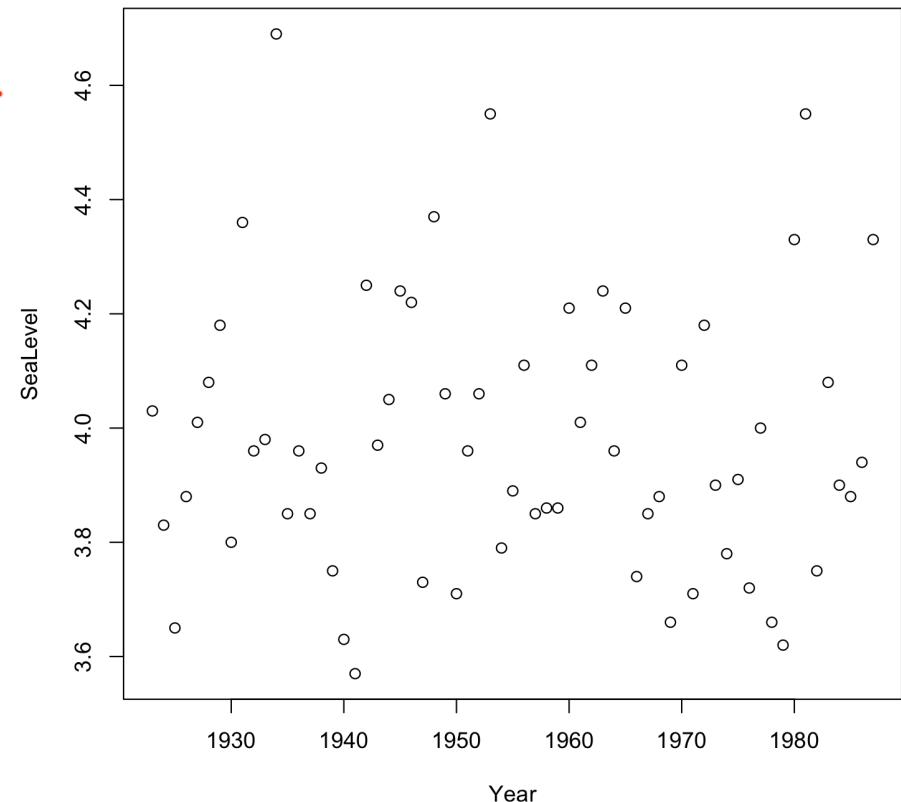
Example 1: ismev (R)

```
> library(ismev)
Loading required package: mgcv
Loading required package: nlme
This is mgcv 1.8-40. For overview type 'help("mgcv-package")'.
> data(portpirie)
> plot(portpirie)
> ppfit <- gev.fit(portpirie[,2])
$conv
[1] 0
$nlh
[1] -4.339058
$mle       $\mu$        $\sigma$        $\xi$ 
[1]  3.87474692  0.19804120 -0.05008773
$se
[1]  0.02793211  0.02024610  0.09825633
> |
```

Information, derived during the MLE fit, is stored here.

95% CI
 $-0.0500 \pm 1.96 * 0.0983$
 $-0.243 < \xi < 0.142$

Annual Maximum Sea-Levels at Port Pirie, South Australia



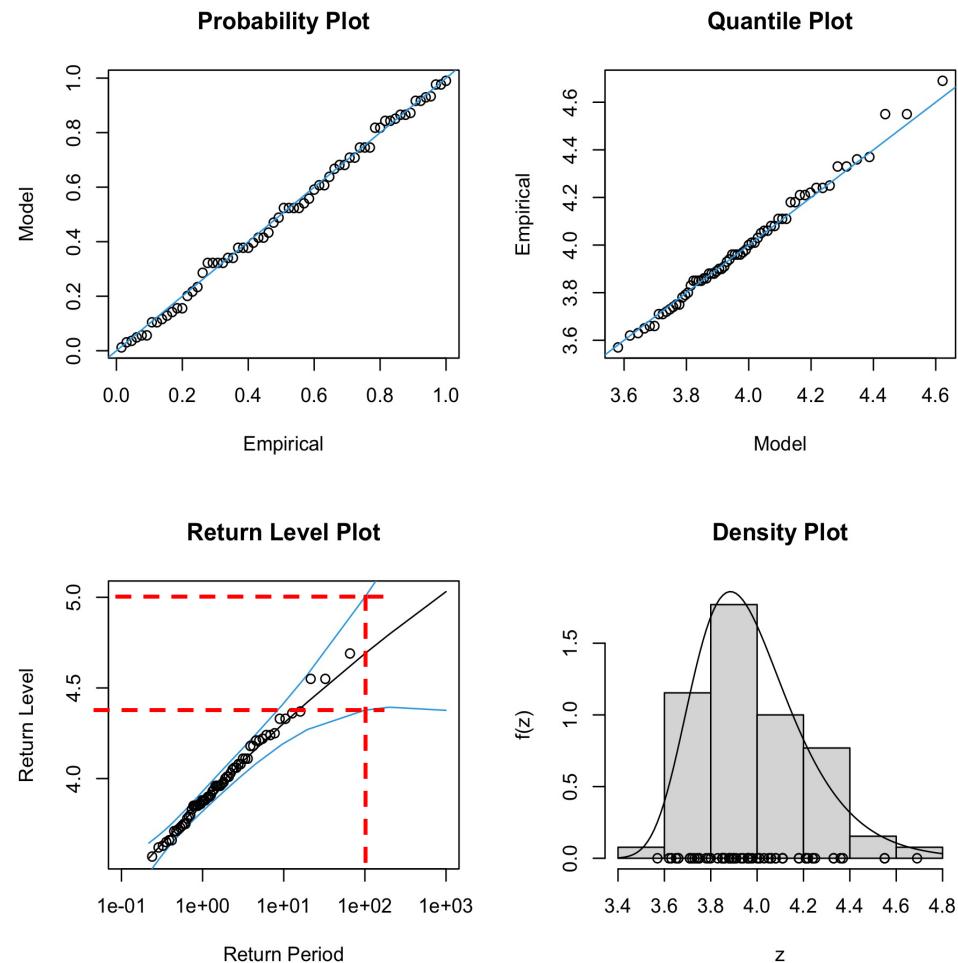
Example 1: Diagnostics

R function call:

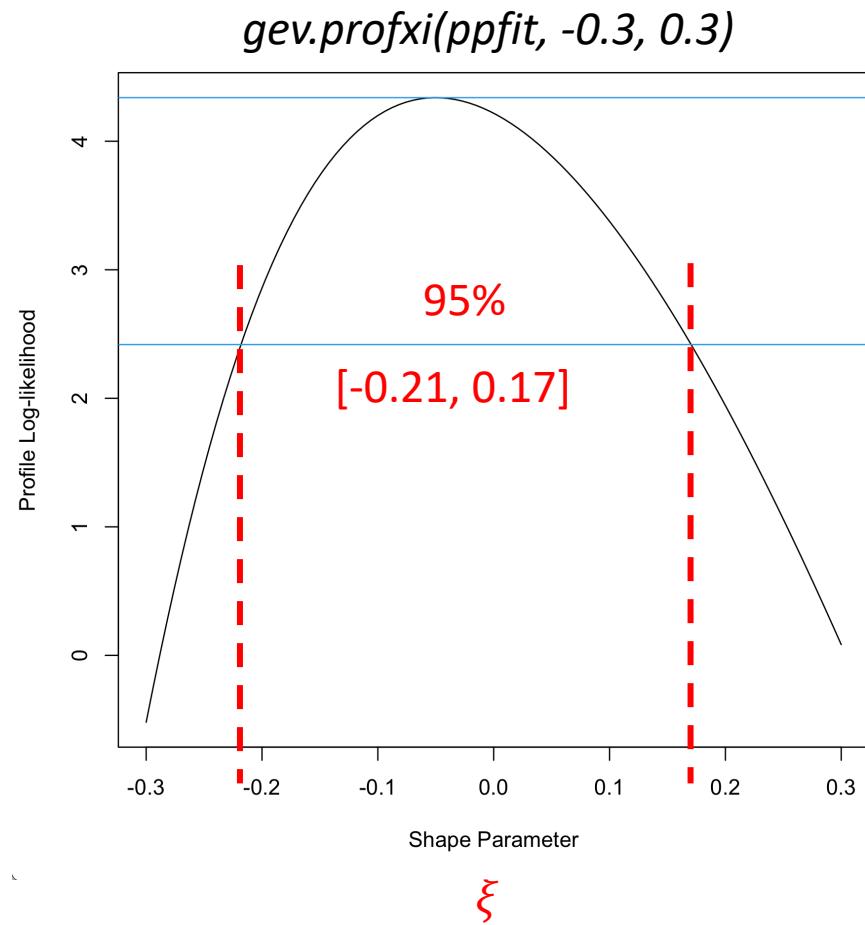
gev.diag(ppfit)

Return Levels (& Wald 95% CI)

- 10 year: $\hat{z}_{0.1} = 4.30, [4.19, 4.41]$
- 100 year: $\hat{z}_{0.01} = 4.69, [4.38, 5.00]$



Example 1: Profile Likelihood



- Confidence intervals produced using the profile likelihood method are derived from the asymptotic Chi-Square distribution of the likelihood ratio.
- They are “better” for asymmetric, sparse datasets, like those encountered in EVA.

Recall from the first slide of
this example, we had:
 $-0.243 < \xi < 0.142$

Peaks Over Threshold (POT)

and the Generalized Pareto Distribution (GPD)

Peaks Over Threshold (POT) & the Generalized Pareto Distribution (GPD)

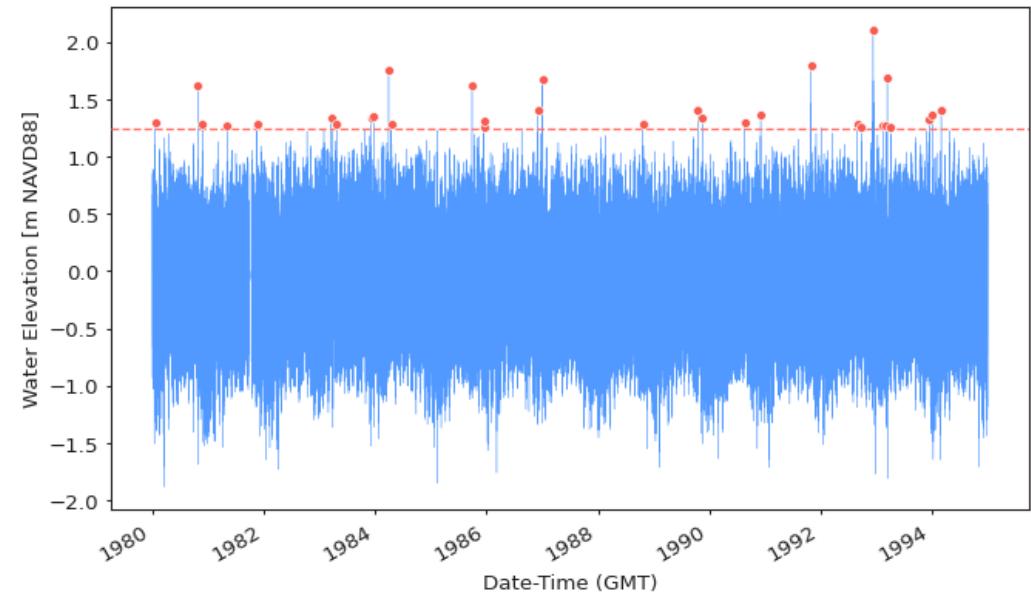
- Let X_1, \dots, X_n iid $\sim F$
- Define *extreme events* as those X_i 's that exceed some high threshold, u .
- If F is known, then the distribution of threshold **exceedances** is:

$$P(X > u + y \mid X > u) = \frac{1 - F(u + y)}{1 - F(u)}$$

- Otherwise, if $Y_n = \max(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ and $Y_n \stackrel{\text{d}}{\sim} GEV(x; \mu, \sigma, \xi)$ then, for large enough u , the distribution of exceedances is approximately the **Generalized Pareto Distribution**:

$$H(y) = 1 - \left(1 + \frac{\xi y}{\tilde{\sigma}}\right)^{-1/\xi}$$

where $\{y: y > 0 \text{ and } (1 + \xi y / \tilde{\sigma}) > 0\}$
and $\tilde{\sigma} = \sigma + \xi(u - \mu)$

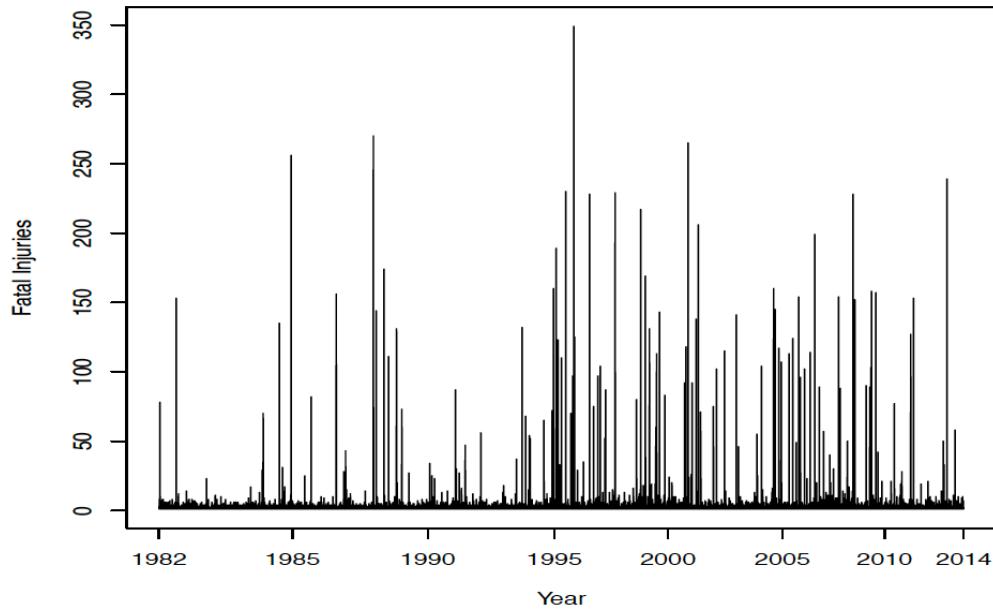


But now there's a problem...
How do we choose the threshold?

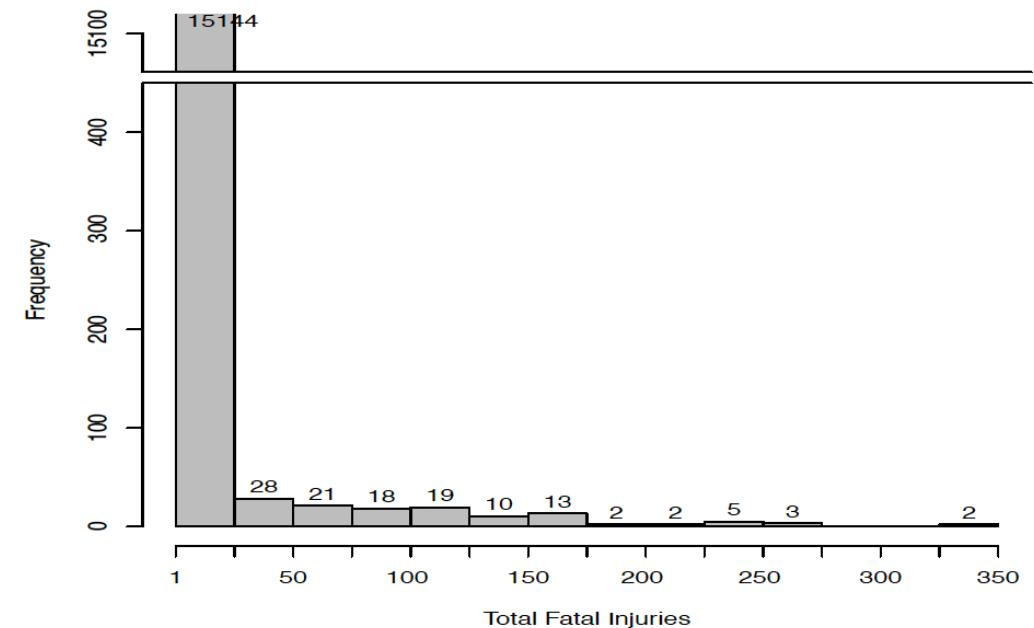
Choosing a Threshold for POT: Example

Fatal Injuries from Aviation Accidents

- “Quantification of the large accidents which have far reaching effect (fatality) would provide objective guidance in long-term planning and response for manufacturers, insurers and re-insurers.” [Das 2016]



Numbers of fatal injuries from aviation accidents, 1982 - 2014



Histogram of fatal injuries from aviation accidents

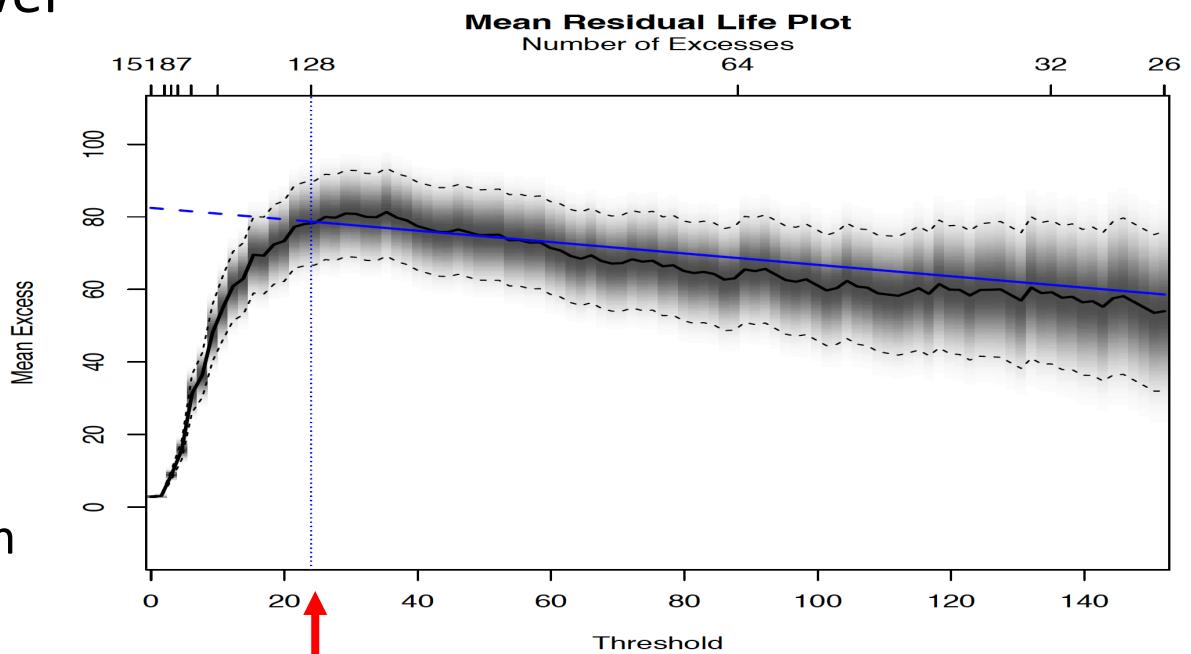
Source: [Das 2016]

Choosing a Threshold for POT: MRL

- If the tail data follow a GPD with lower bound of u , then the Mean Residual Life (MRL) plot should be approx. linear for values above u .

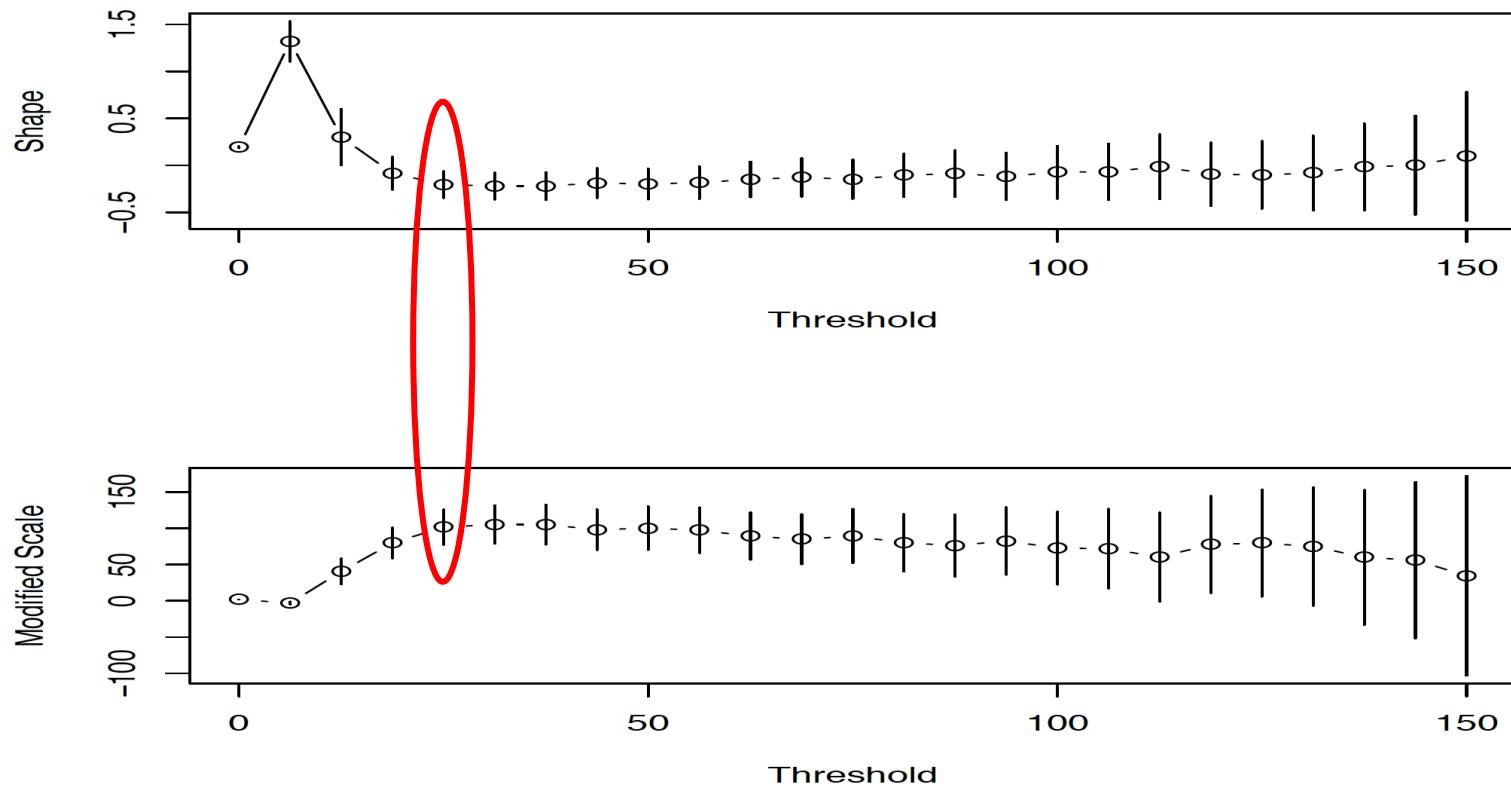
$$mrl(x) = E(X - x \mid X > x)$$

- MRL is also sometimes called the Mean Excess Function
- So, select the smallest u which gives a linear MRL plot.



Source: [Das 2016]

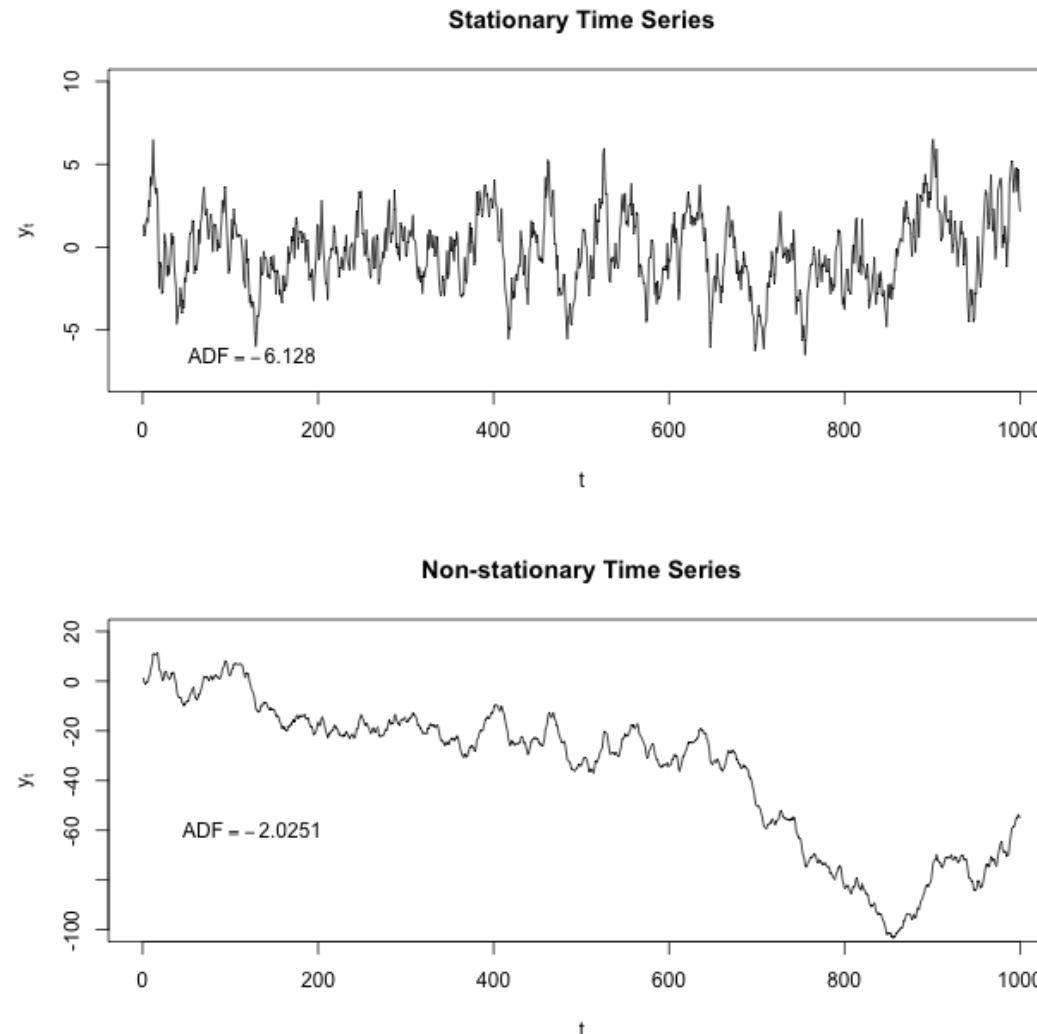
Choosing a Threshold for POT: Parameter Stability



Stationarity & Non-Stationarity

Stationarity

- X_1, X_2, \dots is a **stationary** random process if for any set of integers $\{i_1, \dots, i_k\}$ and any integer m , the joint distributions of $(X_{i_1}, \dots, X_{i_k})$ and $(X_{i_1+m}, \dots, X_{i_k+m})$ are identical.



https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stationary_process

Dealing with Non-Stationarity

- Data often contains trends and seasonal cycles (financial, weather)
- Using BM with annual maximums can avoid seasonal cycles (weather)
- Trends and cycles can be removed via regression or time-series modeling.

$$\mu(t) = \mu_0 + \mu_1 t + \mu_2 t^2,$$

$$\sigma(t) = \sigma_0 + \sigma_1 t,$$

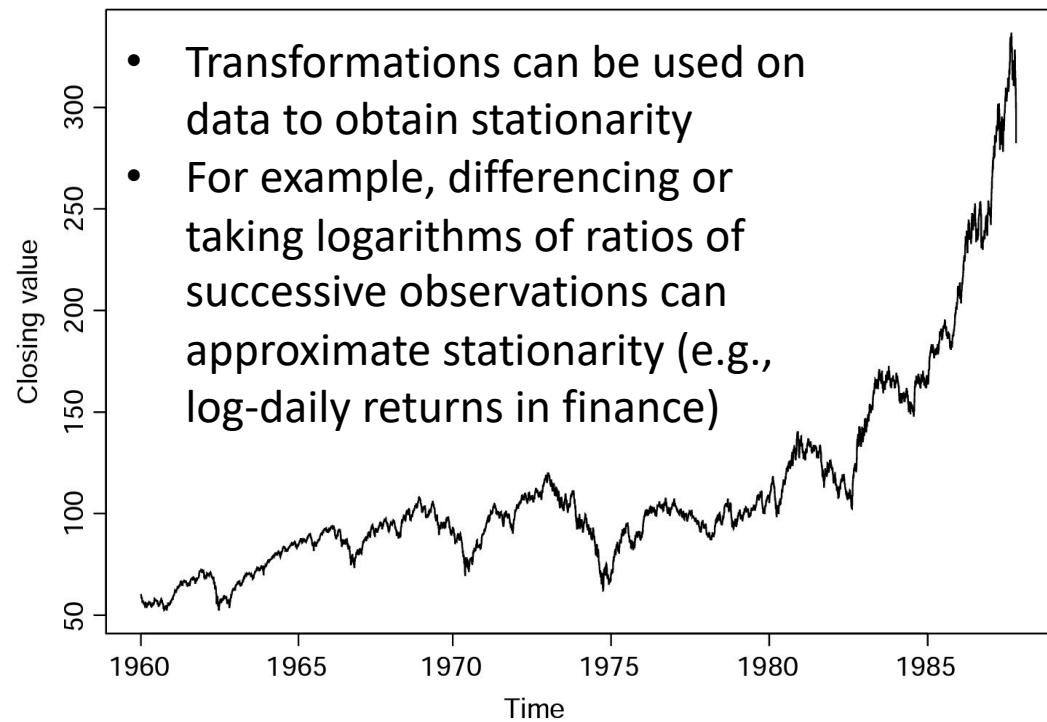
$$\xi(t) = \begin{cases} \xi_0, & t \leq t_0, \\ \xi_1, & t > t_0. \end{cases}$$

Example from *extRemes*
[Gilliland 2016]

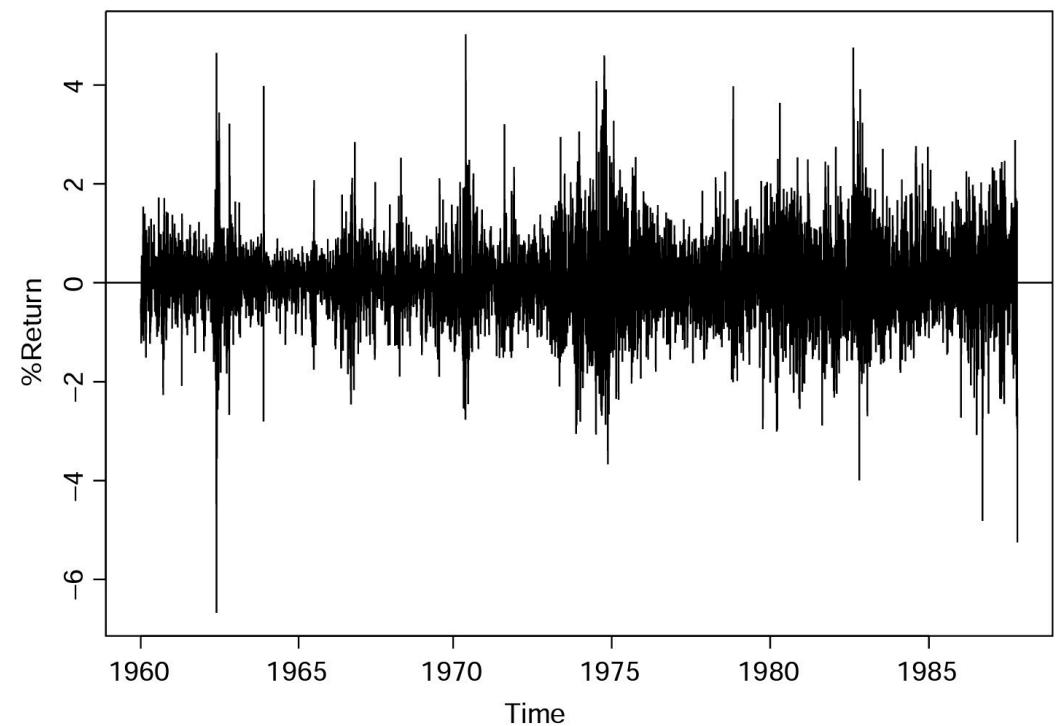
Dealing with Non-Stationarity (cont.)

Financial Application: Estimate VaR (Value-at-Risk) for a given portfolio

S&P 500 Closing Values



Daily % Returns



Source: [Beirlant 2004]

References

- [Beirlant 2004] J. Beirlant, et al., “Statistics of Extremes: Theory and Applications” (2004)
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- [Das 2016] K. Das & A. Dey, “Analyzing fatal accidents in aviation using extreme value theory” (2016)
- [Einmahl 2019] J. J. Einmahl, et al., “Limits to Human Life Span Through Extreme Value Theory”, JASA, 114:527, 1075-1080 (2019)
- [Embrechts 1997] Embrechts, Paul, et al. “Modelling Extremal Events for Insurance and Finance”, Springer (1997)
- [Gilleland 2016] E. Gilleland, R.W. Katz “extRemes 2.0: An Extreme Value Analysis Package in R”, J. of Statistical Software, 72(8), 1-39 (2016)
- [Gumbel 1958] E.J. Gumbel, “Statistics of Extremes”, Columbia University Press, New York (1958)
- [Robeson 2015] Robeson, S. M., “Revisiting the recent California drought as an extreme value”, Geophys. Res. Lett., 42, 6771–6779 (2015)
- [Tsiftsi 2018] Tsiftsi, T., & De la Luz, V., “Extreme value analysis of solar flare events”, Space Weather, 16, 1984–1996 (2018)
- [Wikipedia GEV] “Generalized extreme value distribution”

Backup Slides

Central Limit Theorem[†]

- Let $X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots, X_n$ be independent & identically distributed (iid) random variables (RVs)
- from a distribution that has mean μ and positive variance σ^2 ,
- and let $\bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$, then

$$\frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \xrightarrow{d} N(0,1)$$

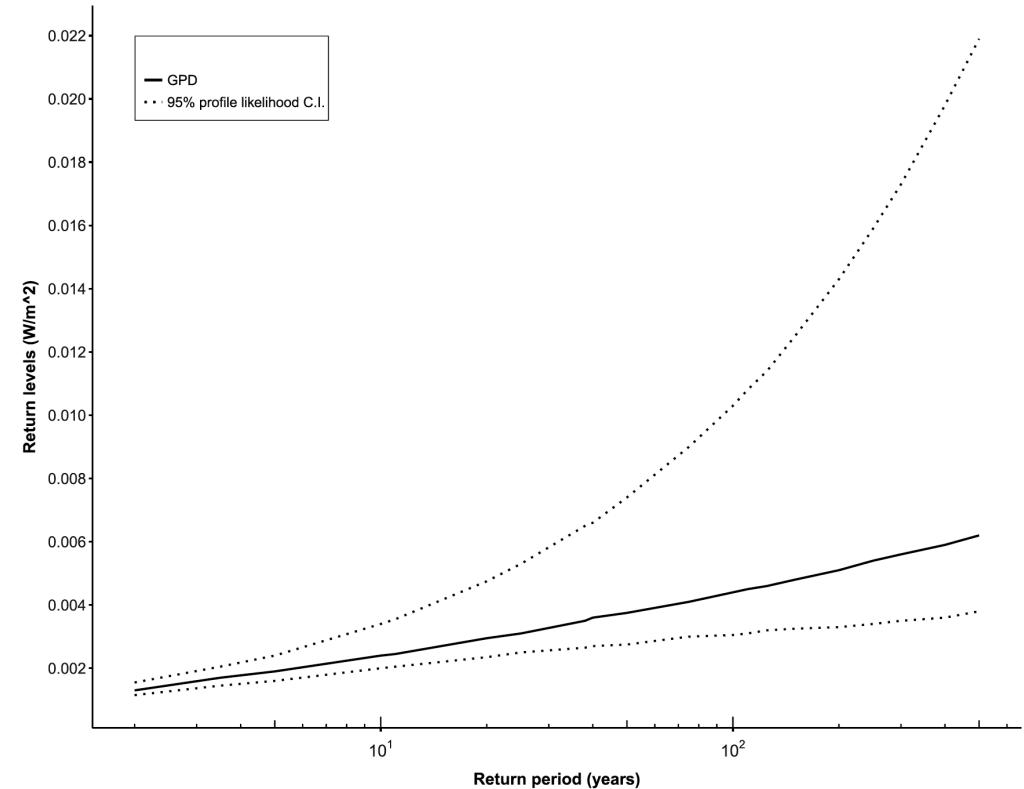
[†] This is a limited form of the CLT; other variants impose fewer conditions.

Case Studies (brief)

Solar Flares, California Droughts, and Human Life Span

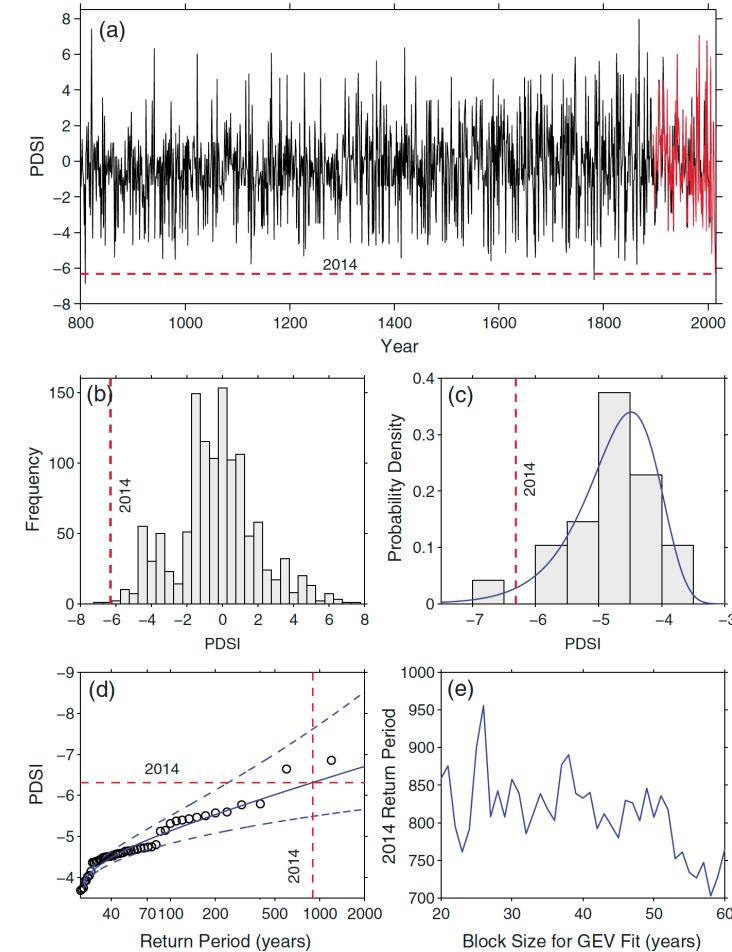
“EVA of Solar Flare Events” [Tsiftsi 2018]

- 1859 – the “Carrington Event” (X45), most intense geomagnetic storm in recorded history
 - Est. cost to U.S. of similar event: **\$670 billion to \$2.9 trillion (~ 3.6% – 15.5% annual GDP)**
 - https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Carrington_Event#Similar_events
 - **Return Period: 110 years,**
 - with profile likelihood CI $\sim (20, 6500)$ years.
 - Probability of a Carrington-like event happening in the next decade is 9%
- 2003 – “Halloween solar storms” (X35) generated largest solar flare ever recorded by GOES
 - **Return Period: 38 years,**
 - with profile likelihood CI $\sim (10, 300)$ years.
 - A Halloween-like event is expected in the next decade with probability 23.8%



California Droughts [Robeson 2015]

- The 1-year 2014 drought was most severe in the 1895–2014 record
 - Has a return period of 140–180 years,
 - however, *quantile mapping* produces return periods of 700–900 years
- Cumulative 3- and 4-year droughts are estimated to be much more severe
 - 2012–2014 drought is nearly a 10,000-year event
 - 2012–2015 drought has an almost incalculable return period and is completely without precedent



PDSI – Palmer Drought Severity Index

Limits to Human Life Span [Einmahl 2019]

- Used EVA to consider whether the human life span is bounded:
- 30 years of data from Dutch residents
- The estimated extreme value indices (ξ), exhibited in Figure 2, at right, are all negative, hinting at a finite upper endpoint, that is, a **finite maximum life span**.

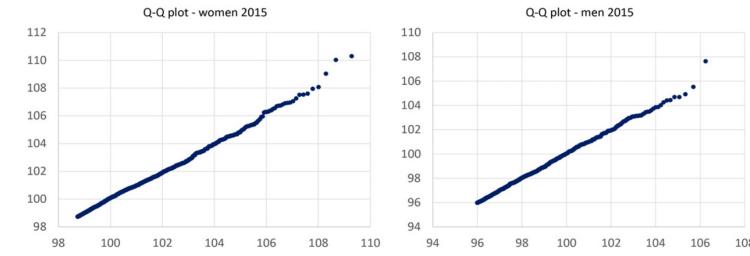


Figure 1. Generalized Pareto Q–Q plots for women and men for the year 2015.

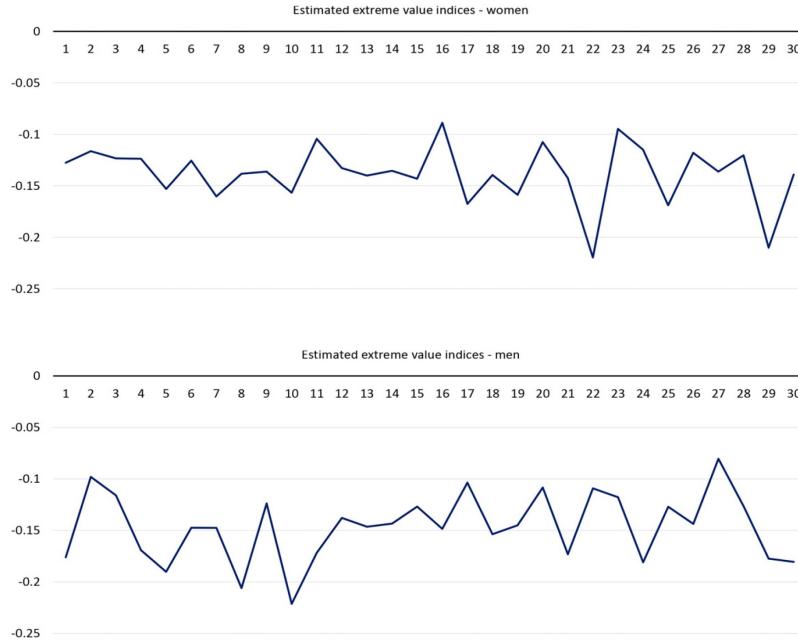


Figure 2. Estimated extreme values indices for the years of death $1985 + j, j = 1, \dots, 30$.

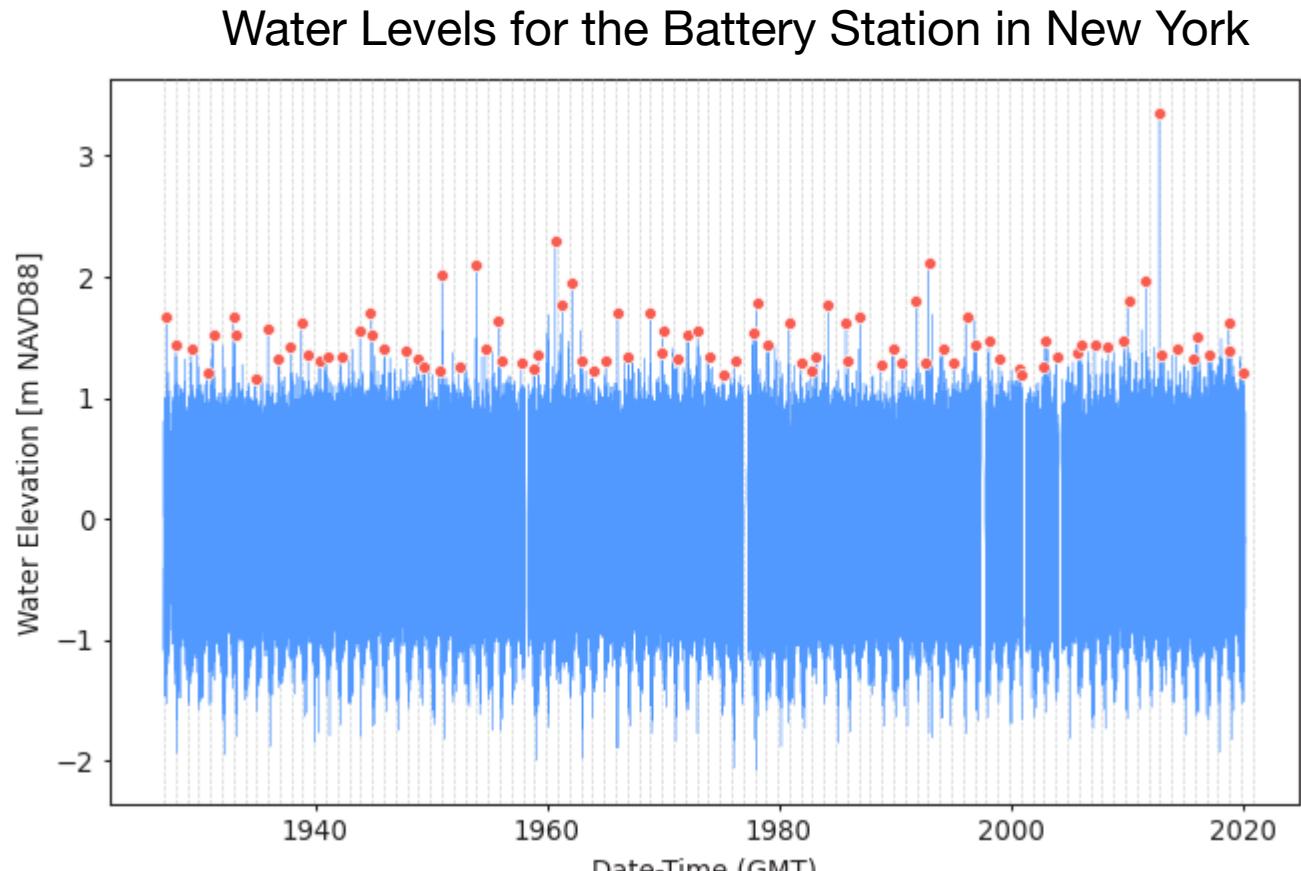
Example 2

GEV Fit using PyExtremes (Python)

Example 2: pyextremes (Python)

- Raw Data (.csv) read & "cleaned"
 - Sorted in ascending order
 - NaN entries removed
 - Converted to Pandas.Series
 - <https://pandas.pydata.org/>
 - Trend removed (+2.87 mm/yr)

```
> from pyextremes import EVA  
  
> model = EVA(data)  
  
• EVA class provides interface to  
pyextremes library  
  
> model.get_extremes(method="BM",  
block_size="365.2425D")  
  
> model.plot_extremes()
```



See <https://pypi.org/project/pyextremes/>

Example 2: pyextremes (Model Fit)

```
> model.fit_model()
```

```
Univariate Extreme Value Analysis
=====
Source Data
-----
Data label: Water Elevation [m NAVD88] Size: 796,751
Start: November 1926 End: March 2020
-----
Extreme Values
-----
Count: 94 Extraction method: BM
Type: high Block size: 365 days 05:49:12
-----
Model
-----
Model: MLE Distribution: genextreme
Log-likelihood: 18.026 AIC: -29.786
-----
Free parameters: c=-0.266 Fixed parameters: All parameters are free
                  loc=1.353
                  scale=0.146
=====
```

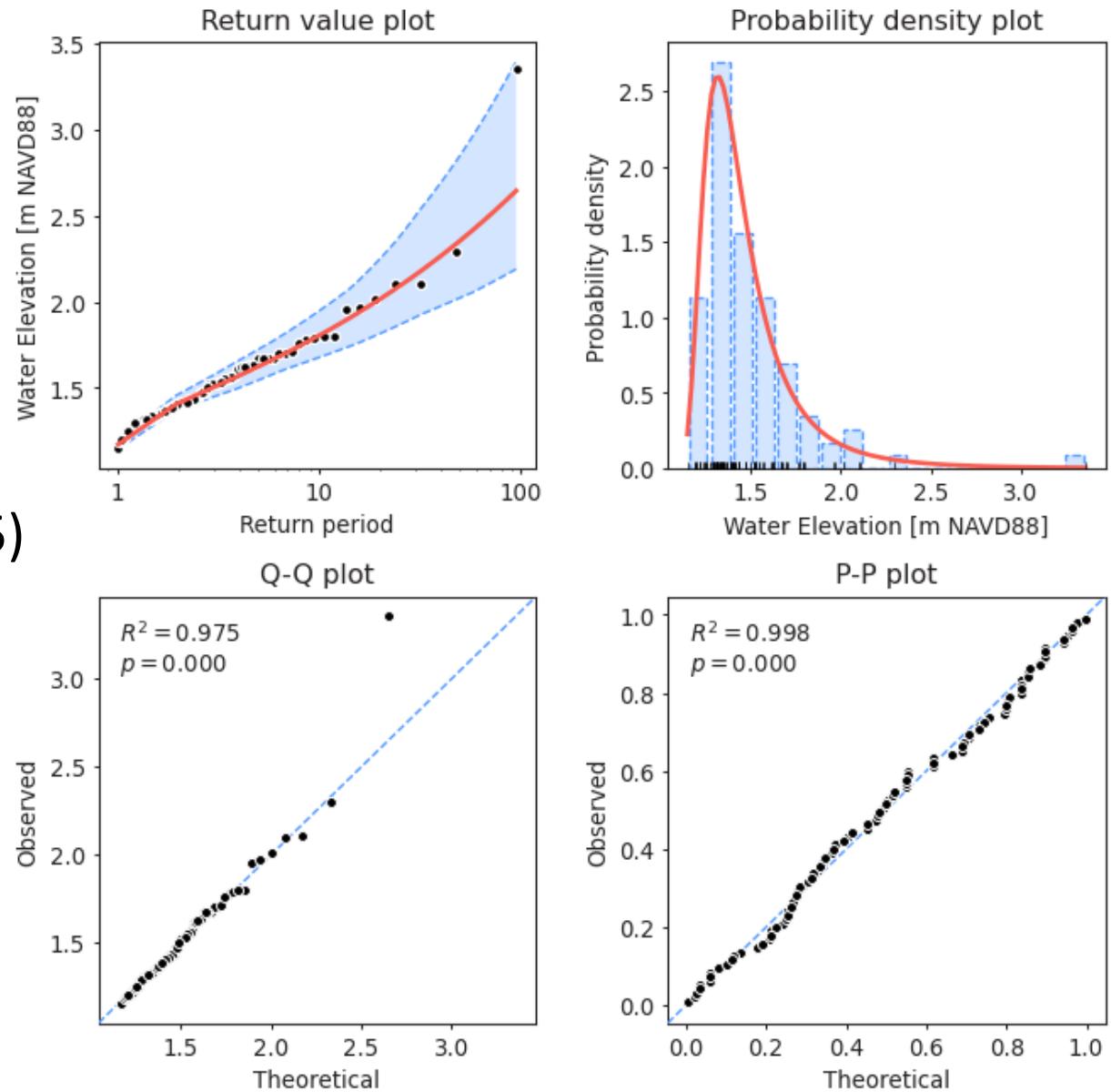
Example 2: pyextremes (Model Summary)

```
summary = model.get_summary(  
    return_period=[1, 2, 5, 10, 25, 50, 100, 250, 500, 1000],  
    alpha=0.95,  
    n_samples=1000,  
)  
summary
```

| | return value | lower ci | upper ci |
|---------------|--------------|-----------|----------|
| return period | | | |
| 1.0 | 0.802610 | -0.313507 | 1.025702 |
| 2.0 | 1.409343 | 1.372263 | 1.453800 |
| 5.0 | 1.622565 | 1.547693 | 1.706435 |
| 10.0 | 1.803499 | 1.674898 | 1.951093 |
| 25.0 | 2.090267 | 1.854483 | 2.392612 |
| 50.0 | 2.354889 | 1.992968 | 2.875355 |
| 100.0 | 2.671313 | 2.139693 | 3.575801 |
| 250.0 | 3.188356 | 2.346309 | 4.843293 |
| 500.0 | 3.671580 | 2.522520 | 6.239443 |
| 1000.0 | 4.252220 | 2.704200 | 8.166698 |

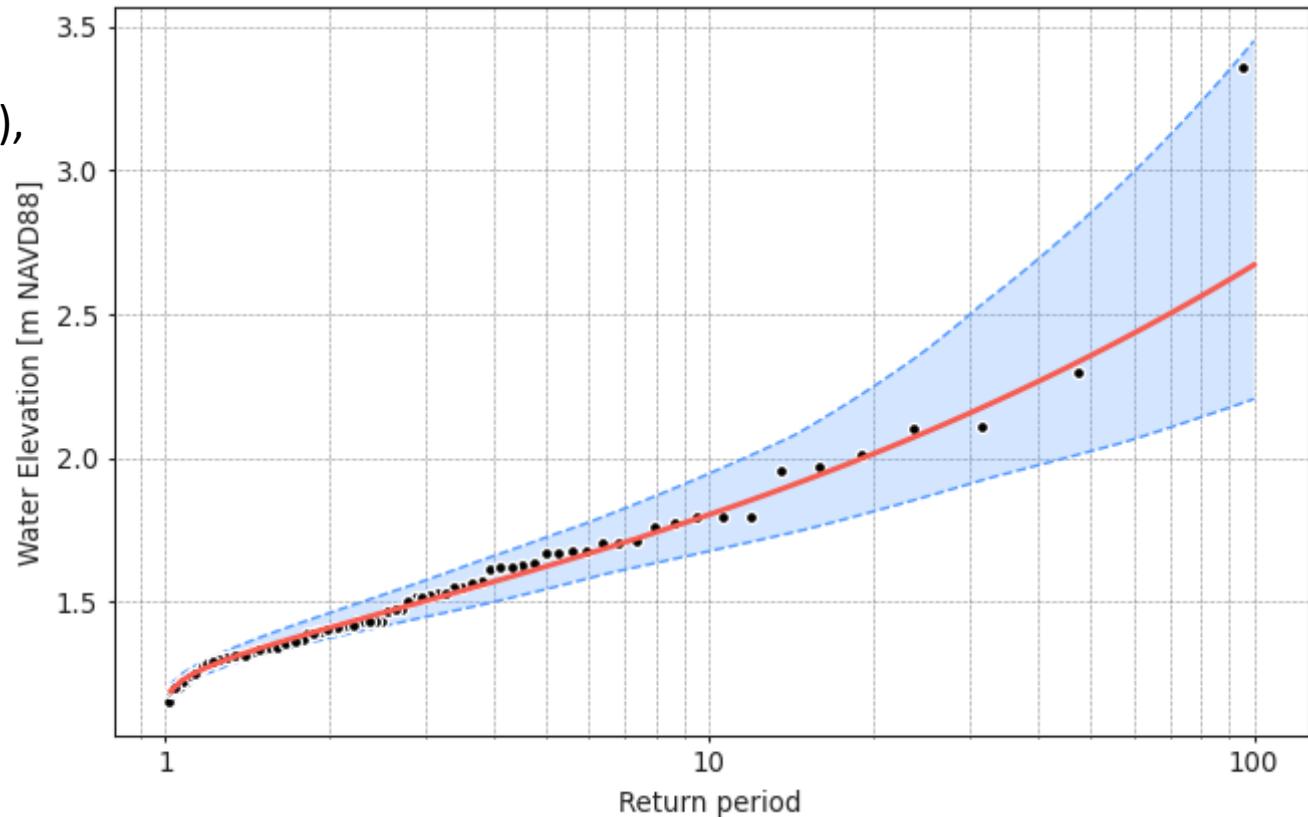
Example 2: pyextremes (Diagnostic Plots)

```
> model.plot_diagnostic(alpha=0.95)
```



Example 2: pyextremes (Return Values Plot)

```
> model.plot_return_values(  
    return_period=np.logspace(0.01, 2, 100),  
    return_period_size="365.2425D",  
    alpha=0.95,  
)
```



BM or POT?

- We cannot say that one method is better than another
- Different models and approaches (correctly applied) should converge to the same answer (within reasonable limits)
- So, investigate both
- BM is a simpler and more stable model
 - Requires very little input from the user
 - Use BM with a reasonable block size to avoid capturing seasonality
 - Get the initial estimates and see how the extremes behave
- Use POT with a reasonable threshold and declustering
 - To see how well the model behaves near the target return periods
 - and to gain more confidence in the results

Source: PyExtremes User Guide