To know what we cannot know: Global mapping of minimal detectable precipitation trends

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To know what we cannot know: Global mapping of minimal detectable precipitation trends

Talk outline

- **The problem**
- **Ob jectives**
- **Methodology**
- **Minimal trend detection**
- **Global mapping**
- **Controls of the minimal detectable trend**
- **Hydrological implications**
- **Summary**

Precipitation trends **are of special interest i t td n water resources managemen er management and planning**

But

The natural high variability of precipitation natural data masks the possibility to detect existing t d ren s

Insignificant trends

Trends in land averaged data are al ft so o en insignificant

Trenberth et al., 2007 (Ch. 3 in the 4th Assessment Report of the IPCC)

Israeli stations: Trends in mm per decade **1996 For the 1-21.1** for 1964-2003

Trends are insignificant in all examined stations

How to deal with insignificant trends? Option 1: assume there are no trends : Option 2: understand that trends maybe exist but have a low chance to be detected (i.e., probability of type II error is large)

Taking approach 2 we can at least estimate what is the "**minimal detectable trend**" for specific conditions

Objective

The main ob obj qy p ective is to quantify and to ma map over the globe lower limits of detectable annual p p reci itation linear trends

Objective

The minimal detectable trend: trend: The minimal trend (absolute value) that the probability to identify it as significant (5% level) is higher than a pre-selected threshold (in this study: 20 and 50%).

In statistical terms: the minimal trend for which the power of the test (the complementary of the probability of type II error) is higher than a pre-selected threshold.

Methodology

Assumptions:

• Record length: 50 years

$$
t_{1}\cdots t_{50}
$$

- \bullet Annual precipitation data $P_1 \cdots P_{50}$
- Linear trends

$$
P_i = \alpha + \beta t_i + \varepsilon_i
$$

- Assumptions on residuals: depends on trend detection method
- 5% significance level

Methodology

Linear trend detection

Simple linear regression method:

Residuals are assumed to be independent, normally distributed with equal variance. Regression parameters are estimated from data using least square method, and their significance is examined with a t-test.

Mann-Kendall method:

A good non-parametric, rank-based alternative for simple linear regression when the normality assumption cannot be met and an outlier effect should be reduced. Modifications exist to account for serial correlation of residuals.

Methodology

Mann-Kendall method:

$$
\hat{\beta} = median \left(\frac{P_{j} - P_{i}}{t_{j} - t_{i}} \right)
$$

$$
S=\sum_{i=1}^{n-1}\sum_{j=i+1}^{n}sign(P_j-P_i)
$$

$$
Var(S) = \frac{1}{18} (n(n-1)(2n+5))
$$

$$
z = \frac{S - sign(S)}{\sqrt{Var(S)}} \sim N(0,1) \quad \text{for n>8}
$$

* Accounting for serial correlation

* Accounting for ties

Realizations of annual precipitation 50-year data series were generated for a given positive trend (β) and precipitation characteristics: mean (P) and coefficient of variance ($CV(P)$)

$$
t_i = 1951:2000
$$

$$
P_i = \alpha + \beta t_i + \varepsilon_i
$$

$$
\varepsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)
$$
 independent

$$
\alpha = \overline{P} - \beta \cdot \bar{t}
$$

Residual variance is related to precipitation moments assuming zero covariance between the residuals and the time:

$$
\sigma^2 = Var(\varepsilon) =
$$

= Var(P) - \beta^2 \cdot Var(t) =
= (CV(P) \cdot \overline{P})^2 - \beta^2 \cdot Var(t)

Example:

 $CV(P) = 0.20$ *Std*(*P*) = 120mm 600=*P mm*

 m $\beta = 10$ mm/decade \Rightarrow 8% in 50 years

Example: $\overline{P} = 600$ *mm* $CV(P) = 0.20$ *Std*(*P*) = 120mm

β =10*mm* / *decade* \Rightarrow 8% in 50 years

Monte-Carlo simulations: 1000 realizations12% found significant, 88% found insignificant at 5% level (i.e., estimated probability of type II error is: 88%)

Probability of this trend to be detected is estimated 12 % which is lower from the pre-defined thresholds of 20 and 50%.

The computations is done for different trend magnitudes until the thresholds are exceeded.

For mean precipitation of 600 mm and CV of 0.2 the minimal detectable trends are:

> 12.5 mm/decade with 20% probability threshold 20.0 mm/decade with 50% probability threshold

 $\frac{a}{\sqrt{2}}$ $\frac{a}{\sqrt{2}}$ Response surfaces of the minimal detectable trend (in mm/decade) as ^a function of the precipitation mean and CV

Global mapping

The GPCC VASClimO data set was used to compute mean annual precipitation and CV globally over land areas for years 1951-1999 at $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ resolution

Beck et al., 2004

Global mapping Mean annual

precipitation

Precipitation (mm)

- < 100
- $100 300$
- $300 500$
- $500 1000$
- $1000 2000$
- > 2000 \bullet

- **CV**
	- < 0.1 $0.1 - 0.2$
- $0.2 0.3$
- $0.3 0.4$
- $0.4 1.0$
- > 1.0

Based on GPCC VASClimO data set

20% probability thresholdGlobal mapping

Absolute minimal detectable trend

50% probability threshold

Trend (mm/decade)

- $0 10$
- $10 20$
- $20 30$
- $30 40$
- 40-50
- 50-75
- 75-100
- \bullet >100

Global mapping

The highest undetectable trends are mainly in the tropics due to high precipitation mean and variability.

In arid and semi-arid regions the minimal detectable trends are considerably lower but are very substantial when translated into percent change in annual precipitation.

20% probability thresholdGlobal mapping

Global mapping

- **Mean and CV of annual precipitation**
- **Record length**
- **Temporal smoothing/Serial correlation**
- **Spatial averaging/Spatial correlation**

Mean and CV of annual precipitation precipitation

Controls of the minimal detectable trend Record length

Controls of the minimal detectable trendRecord length

Temporal smoothing/Serial correlation (under study):

Smoothing reduces variance but also increases the serial correlation.

In general, if a time series is positively correlated then the trend identification test will find a significant trend more often than it will for an independent series (Kulkarni and von Storch, 1995).

Temporal smoothing/Serial correlation (under study):

Spatial averaging/Spatial correlation (under study):

Spatial averaging reduces variance and can improve trend detectability. However, averaging over large area (> 35º) is required to get significant trends and in this area may include different trend signs.

Israel pixel

Hydrological implications

Israel (north) Mean = 535 mm CV = 0.25 Min20 = 15 mm/decadeMin50 = 25 mm/decade Change $20 = 14%$ Change $50 = 23%$

Yarqon-Taninim regional Aquifer

Recharge to the Runoff volume in the Taninim catchment (51 km 2)

Hydrological implications

Continuous hydrological model representing the main processes of the water budget: rain, infiltration, runoff, evapotranspiration, and deep percolation.

Hydrological implications

Summary

- \triangleright Trends in precipitation data are often masked by their high variance.
- ¾ Monte-Carlo simulations together with the Mann-Kendall method were applied to detect the probability of existing trends to be found significant.
- \triangleright The minimal detectable trends were derived using probability thresholds of 20% and 50%.
- ¾ Minimal trends were mapped globally both in mm/decade and in percent from mean annuals. The GPCC VASClimO data set was used for the mapping.
- \triangleright The highest minimal detectable trends were found in the tropics and other wet regions, but in terms of percent from mean semi-arid and arid areas are emphasized.
- \triangleright The main controls of the minimal detectable trends are: mean precipitation, CV, record length, temporal and spatial smoothing.
- \triangleright It is demonstrated that the hydrological systems (aquifer recharge and catchment runoff volume) magnifies trends in precipitation means.

Conclusions

 \triangleright In many cases the chance to detect a significant trend in **precipitation data series is low even if the trend exists.** ¾**Onl trends abo e some threshold are detectable Only above detectable.** ¾**The undetectable (in terms of statistical significance) t d i ti t li ibl d h trends are in practice not negligible and can have a crucial impact on water resources availability.** \triangleright The knowledge of these limits is important input **especially for risk assessment that is related to adaption decision making.**

> *Th k f an sor your attention!*

Figure 3.14. Precipitation for 1900 to 2005. The central map shows the annual mean trends (% per century). Areas in grey have insufficient data to produce reliable trends. The surrounding time series of annual precipitation displayed (% of mean, with the mean given at top for 1961 to 1990) are for the named regions as indicated by the red arrows. The GHCN precipitation from NCDC was used for the annual green bars and black for decadal variations (see Appendix 3.A), and for comparison the CRU decadal variations are in magenta. The range is +30 to -30% except for the two Australian panels. The regions are a subset of those defined in Table 11.1 (Section 11.1) and include: Central North America, Westem North America, Alaska, Central America, Eastern North America, Mediterranean, Northem Europe, North Asia, East Asia, Central Asia, Southeast Asia, Southern Asia, Northern Australia, Southern Australia, Eastern Africa, Western Africa, Southern Africa, Southern South America, and the Amazon.

