

1                   **Comment on “Biases in Estimating Long-Term Recurrence Intervals of**  
2                   **Extreme Events Due To Regionalized Sampling” by El Rafei et al. (2023)**  
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9   **Key Points:**

- 10       • Grouping data from stations of consistent meteorology does not induce biases at long  
11       recurrence intervals
- 12       • The ‘superstation’ technique reduces the sampling errors of short-length data from  
13       individual stations of consistent meteorology
- 14       • Consistent meteorology is required for grouping stations corrected for non-standard  
15       terrain and effects of local topography  
16

17   **Abstract**

18   The ‘super-station’ approach has been adopted since 1980s as a pragmatic method of  
19   improving extreme-value predictions by grouping short-length datasets from several  
20   measurement stations to become a larger dataset to reduce uncertainties due to random  
21   sampling variation. El Rafei *et al.* (2023, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2023GL105286>) analyzed  
22   reanalysis and randomly generated wind extremes datasets and claimed that this technique  
23   can introduce unexpected biases in typical situations. We demonstrate by Monte-Carlo  
24   simulation, assuming the same number of grouped stations and data lengths used, that  
25   applying the grouping technique to samples from *homogeneous* datasets does *not* lead to  
26   biased prediction of extremes. In addition, the grouping technique effectively reduces the  
27   uncertainty and sampling errors that result from short-length datasets from individual stations  
28   of consistent meteorology.

29   **Plain Language Summary**

30   Pooling extremal data observed from different sites of consistent environment for analysis  
31   and treating the pooled data as if they were observed at one site has been in practice for 40  
32   years. A recent study reckoned such data pooling introduces bias errors in typical situations.  
33   We repeat their analysis by random-number generation and found the data-pooling technique  
34   does not cause bias errors. Instead, the technique is effective in reducing the random errors  
35   experienced when analyzing an unpooled small dataset.  
36

37   **1 Introduction**

38   This contribution is concerned with the common practice of grouping recorded extreme  
39   climatic variables from measurement stations with perceived similar climates since 1980s  
40   (Dorman 1983), in an effort to reduce statistical sampling errors from short record lengths,  
41   when making predictions for low probabilities of exceedance, or high average recurrence

42 intervals (ARIs). We use Monte-Carlo simulated extreme wind speeds to illustrate the  
43 approach, as employed by El Rafei *et al* (2023).

## 44 **2 Comments on El Rafei *et al* (2023)**

45 El Rafei *et al* (2023) have used convective wind gusts in New South Wales in Australia as  
46 examples and concluded that the grouping approach leads to biases in estimates of  
47 geophysical variables with high ARIs. Thus, in their ‘Conclusion’ section, the authors state:  
48 “*The superstation fit tends to the highest levels suggested by any of the pooled locations and*  
49 *this bias increases with longer recurrence intervals*”. However, several questions come to  
50 mind with respect to the analyses by El Rafei *et al*.

51 The authors have not used recorded and corrected surface wind data, but instead distributions  
52 from BARRA-SY reanalysis. When processing recorded anemometer data from surface  
53 weather stations, it is necessary to correct for terrain and topography (e.g. Holmes, 2016);  
54 however it is not clear how this is done with the reanalysis-derived gusts. Are uncorrected  
55 terrain and topographic effects a reason for the ‘speckling’ in Figure 1A?

56 Secondly the data set only extends to 23 years (1996 to 2019). The ‘speckled’ values in  
57 Figure 1A derived from such a short period therefore themselves contain significant sampling  
58 errors.

59 Thirdly, the 50 km by 50 km group size is relatively small. Although individual convective  
60 downburst events are smaller, they often occur sequentially in multiple cells (e.g. ‘squall  
61 lines’) that affect much larger areas. A good example is the event in South Australia in  
62 September 2016 that caused failures of several transmission lines (Australian Bureau of  
63 Meteorology 2016).

64 The simulation analysis leading to Figure 2 of their paper is also puzzling. The authors have  
65 deliberately varied the parameters of the underlying probability distributions when generating  
66 synthetic data. Hence, the combined data is heterogeneous. Is it then legitimate to make  
67 conclusions about a grouping method that assumes homogeneity, using inhomogeneous  
68 synthetic data?

69 El Rafei *et al* noted that: “... *These superstations represent specific geographical areas*  
70 *where stations with meteorological consistency are grouped together...*”. Therefore, all the  
71 locations where the datasets are recorded should be ensured as having one and the same  
72 underlying statistical distribution which randomly generates the data points grouped.

73 Because of random sampling variation, however, the extent of uncertainty for estimating the  
74 underlying statistical distribution depends on the length of the dataset. This manifests as the  
75 extent of uncertainty in the estimated distribution parameters: the longer the dataset, the  
76 narrower the confidence intervals (CI’s) of the distribution parameters. For example, as  
77 illustrated in the following section, individual station data lengths of 23 years and 1,000  
78 years, as used for the results shown respectively in Figures 1 and 2 in El Rafei *et al* (2023),  
79 lead to different conclusions about whether a specific distribution is accepted as the  
80 underlying model of the data.

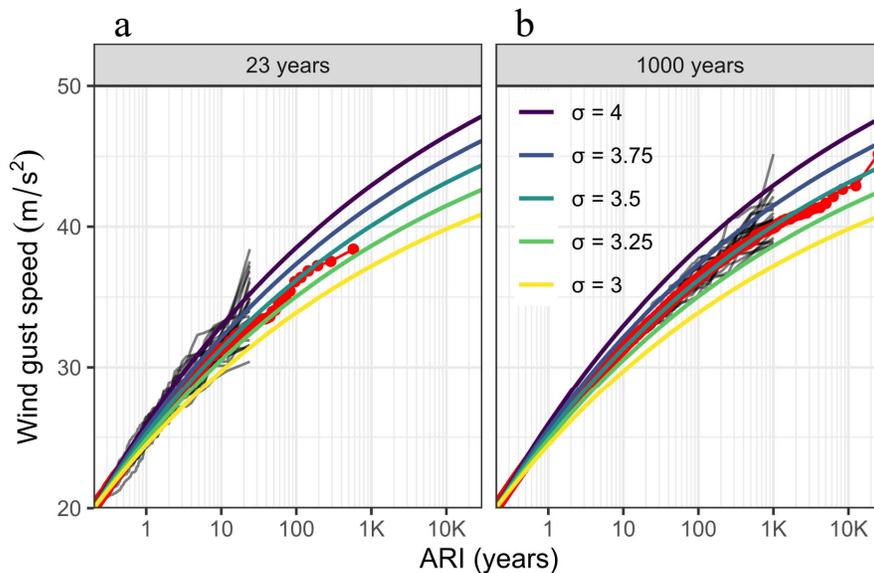
81 Five Generalized Pareto distributions (GPD) were used in Figure 2A by El Rafei *et al*. These  
82 had the same exceedance rate ( $\lambda = 5$ ), threshold ( $u_0 = 20$  m/s) and shape parameter  
83 ( $\xi = -0.1$ ), but different scale parameters ( $\sigma_i = 2.75 + 0.25i, i = 1, 2, \dots, 5$ ).

84 El Rafei *et al* (2023) also claimed, at the end of Section 3 of that paper, that: “Both (GPD and  
 85 GEV) show a similar level of bias for all record lengths, although the biases are slightly  
 86 smaller if GPD is used instead of the usual (for rainfall) GEV.” The GPD and GEV have  
 87 been known to possess a duality relationship: for a given GPD model, an equivalent GEV  
 88 model can be found, and vice versa (Wang and Holmes, 2020). That is, it is unnecessary to  
 89 reprocess a block-maxima dataset into a peaks-over-threshold. For example, for the model  
 90 with  $\sigma_3 = 3.5$  in Figure 2A of their paper, the parameters of its equivalent GEV are  
 91  $u_{0_g} = 25.2$ ,  $\sigma_g = 2.98$ , and  $\xi_g = -0.1$ .

### 92 3 Validity check of the grouping approach by simulations

93 To check of validity of the biases by the super-station approach claimed by El Rafei *et al*,  
 94 their third GPD model (i.e. with  $\sigma_3 = 3.5$ ) is used here to generate synthetic data. We follow  
 95 the treatment of their paper to generate by Monte-Carlo simulation 23 years of data for 25  
 96 hypothetical stations. Figure 1a shows the generated data (thin black lines) and the resulting  
 97 super-station data (red circular points) along with the five theoretical GPD models (thick  
 98 colored lines) in the wind gust versus log-ARI plot. Similarly, because Figure 2A of the  
 99 paper by El Rafei *et al* used 1,000 years of data to obtain the super-station data, we have  
 100 generated 1,000 years of data for 25 hypothetical stations, as shown in Figure 1b.

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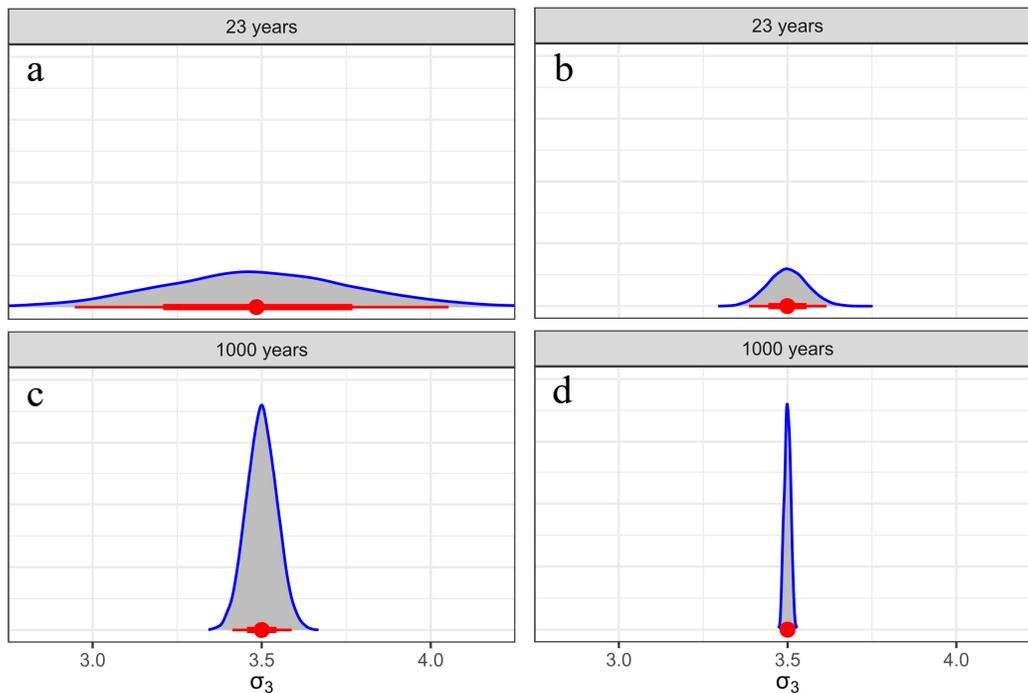
103 Figure 1: Simulated gust data of 25 hypothetical stations and super-station for (a) 23 years;  
 104 and (b) 1,000 years.  
 105

106 Figure 1 clearly reveals that, for wind gusts given an ARI, the dataset of 23 years spreads  
 107 much more widely than the dataset of 1,000 years. This is a manifest of shorter records being  
 108 more seriously affected by sampling variation than of longer records. The spread of the 23-  
 109 year data tracks of the 25 stations covers essentially all the theoretical gust speed values of  
 110 the five models. That is, given a sample of 23-year data from any individual station, one  
 111 cannot assert with high confidence which of the five models is the underlying model. On the  
 112 contrary, with 1,000-year data from an individual station, in the overwhelming cases one is

113 able to deduce with sufficient confidence the third model is the model which generates the  
114 dataset. In addition, the super-stations (red circular points) shown in the two cases do not  
115 exhibit a systematic tendency of biases towards more hazardous models, as claimed by the  
116 authors.

117 To see more closely the uncertainties in  $\sigma_3$ , 10,000 stations are generated for datasets of 23  
118 and 1,000 years. They have been fitted to the GPD model with the shape parameter being the  
119 only unknown. The probability densities of the estimated  $\sigma_3$  are shown in Figure 2, in which  
120 the thick and thin red lines represent 67 % and 95 % CIs, respectively. Figure 2a shows that  
121 the 95 % CI for  $\sigma_3$  for 23-year data from one station is [2.93, 4.08], covering all the  
122 shape-parameter values (ranging from 3 to 4) of the five models. This implies that, with 23  
123 years of data in one station, we fail to reject that any of the five models could be the true  
124 model. In contrast, the 95 % CI of  $\sigma_3$  for 1,000 years data from one station is [3.41, 3.59]  
125 (Figure 2c), which establishes with statistical significance that the third model is the true one.

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127

128 Figure 2: Probability densities and confidence intervals of  $\sigma_3$  for datasets of (a) 23 years at  
129 one station; (b) 23 years at 25 grouped stations; (c) 1,000 years at one station; and (d) 1,000  
130 years at 25 grouped stations.  
131

132 Comparing Figures 2a and c to Figures 2b and d (produced by grouping data from the 25  
133 hypothetical stations to form super-stations), respectively, illustrates the advantageous effect  
134 by data grouping in reducing the variance of  $\sigma_3$ , which is also implied in Figure 1.  
135 Importantly, all the point estimates (red circles) do not show biases for the true value of  $\sigma_3$   
136 due to data grouping.

137 Another implication of Figure 2 is that the 1,000-year datasets generated by the five different  
138 models, as done in El Rafei *et al* (2023), would indicate clearly that they are generated by

139 five distinct models, which mean indeed the five datasets are from heterogeneous  
140 meteorology. Grouping the five datasets into a super-station would violate the basic  
141 requirement that they are recorded in regions of consistent meteorology, which is the same  
142 basic requirement for estimating the common inferential statistics (e.g. mean and standard  
143 deviation) of a dataset drawn from a defined sample space. Therefore, the claimed biases  
144 observed in Figure 2A of the paper by El Rafei *et al* arise from treating datasets from  
145 obviously different sample spaces as if they were drawn from one sample space, but not  
146 biases due to the application of super-station approach. This also indicates the importance of  
147 clearly identifying the sample space of subject-matter problem before conducting a proper  
148 statistical analysis.

149

#### 150 **4 Summary**

151 We have shown by simulation of samples from the *same underlying probability distribution*,  
152 i.e. *homogeneous* datasets, that the grouping technique does *not* lead to biased prediction of  
153 extremes, as previously claimed by El Rafei *et al* (2023). However, the technique is shown  
154 to reduce the uncertainty and sampling errors resulting from prediction from datasets from  
155 individual stations of short length, provided that datasets from similar climates are grouped,  
156 and that they are corrected for non-standard terrain and for any effects of local topography.

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