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LMD – 4<sup>e</sup> étage “dans les serres”

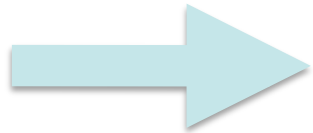
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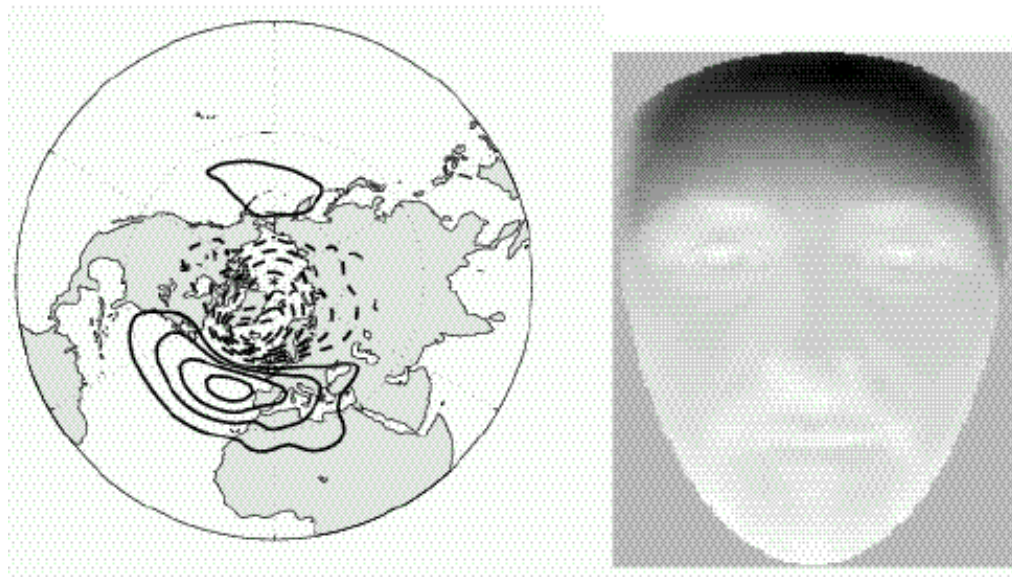
<http://www.lmd.ens.fr/dandrea/TEACH>

## ***Program***

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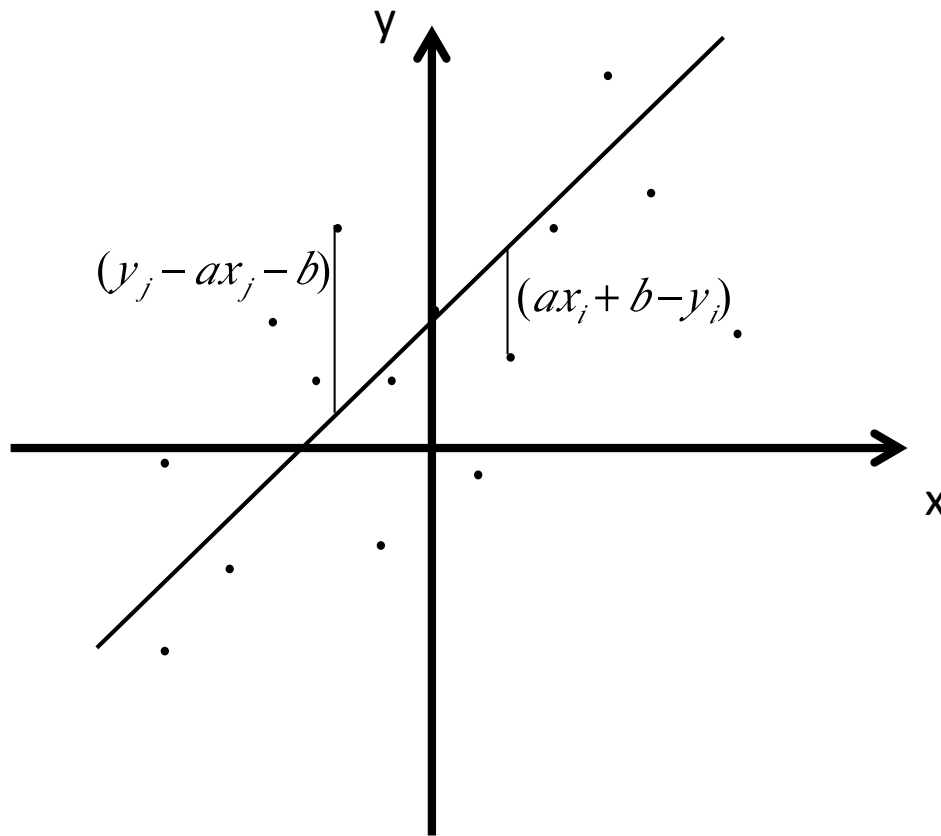


## **.Lesson 4. Principal Component Analysis**



**Reminders: regression and correlation**





We want to minimize:

$$\sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - ax_i - b)^2$$

We take the derivative with respect to  $a$  and  $b$  and we obtain the two conditions:

$$a) \quad \sum x_i (y_i - ax_i - b) = 0$$

$$b) \quad \sum (y_i - ax_i - b) = 0$$

Condition b) gives:

$$b) \quad \sum_{i=1}^N y_i - a \sum_{i=1}^N x_i - Nb = 0 \Rightarrow \boxed{b = \bar{y} - a\bar{x}}$$

Substituting b) into a) gives:

$$a) \quad \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i x_i - ax_i^2 - \bar{y}x_i - a\bar{x}x_i) = \sum_{i=1}^N (y'_i x'_i - ax_i'^2)$$

Where we have introduced the definitions :

$$x_i = \bar{x} + x', y_i = \bar{y} + y'.$$

Hence

$$a = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N x'_i y'_i}{\sum_{i=1}^N x_i'^2}$$

Regression

$$b = \bar{y} - a\bar{x}$$

How good is the regression?

The regression is not perfect:  $\hat{y}_i = ax_i + b \neq y_i$

Introducing the error  $y_i^* = y_i - \hat{y}_i$  We can write  $y_i = ax_i + b + y_i^*$

And the variance of y becomes:

$$\overline{y'^2} = \overline{a^2 x'^2} + \overline{y^{*2}} \Rightarrow \frac{\overline{a^2 x'^2} + \overline{y^{*2}}}{\overline{y'^2}} = 1$$

Explained variance + unexplained variance = 1

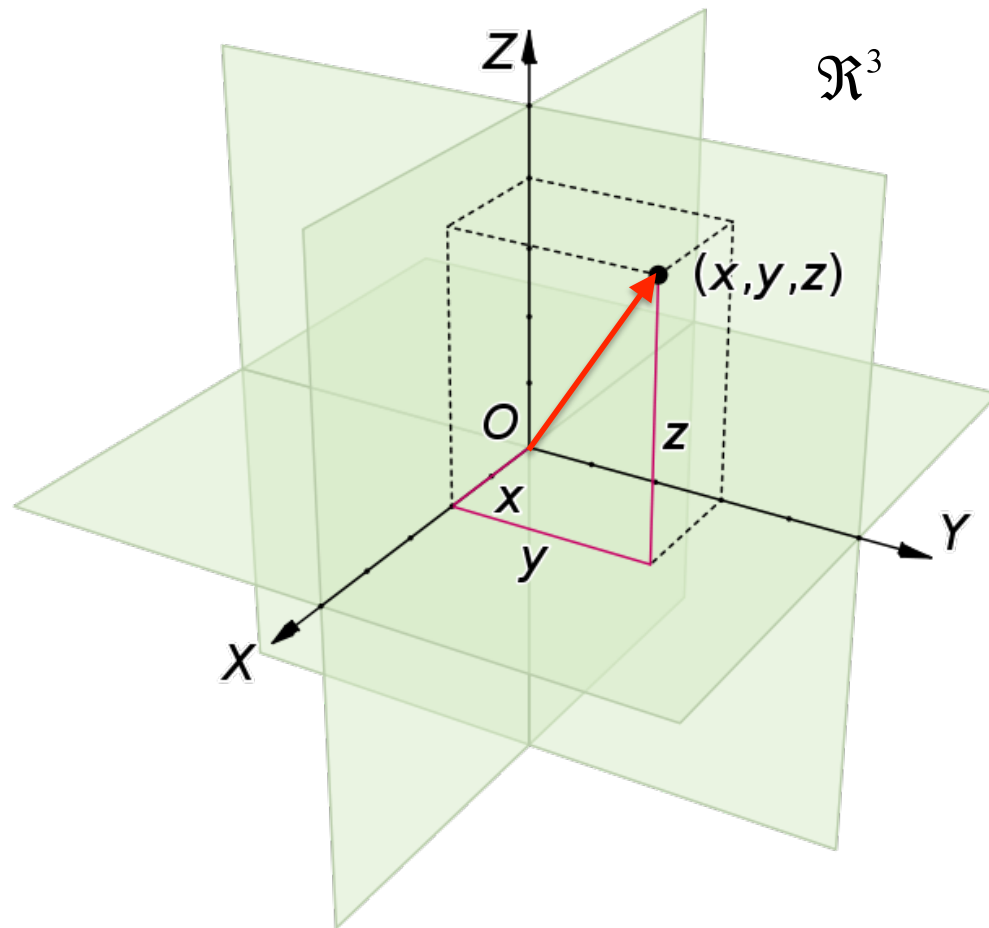
Substituting the value of  $a$  found above we find:

$$\frac{\overline{a^2 x'^2}}{\overline{y'^2}} = \frac{(\overline{x'y'})^2}{\overline{x'^2} \overline{y'^2}} = r^2, \quad r = \frac{\overline{x'y'}}{\sigma_x \sigma_y} \text{ Is the correlation coefficient}$$

$$r^2 = \frac{\text{Explained Variance}}{\text{Total Variance}}; \quad 1 - r^2 = \frac{\text{Unexplained Variance}}{\text{Total Variance}}$$

## Reminder: Euclidean spaces

Norms, scalar product, distance, bases....



You are familiar with the cartesian coordinate system in 3d.  
A vector  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathfrak{R}^3$  can be represented by its components:

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^3 x_i \mathbf{e}_i$$

where:

$$\mathbf{e}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{e}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{e}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ is the euclidean basis, or canonical basis (or standard, or natural)}$$

You also know what is the length of a vector:

$$|\mathbf{x}| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2}$$

Generalising to  $N$  dimensions

$$\mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i \mathbf{e}_i$$

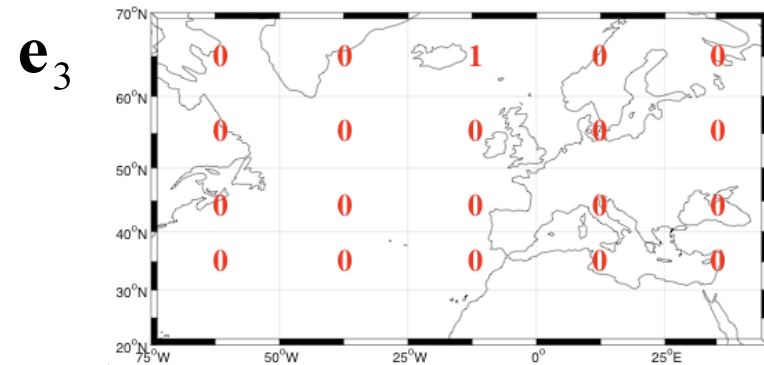
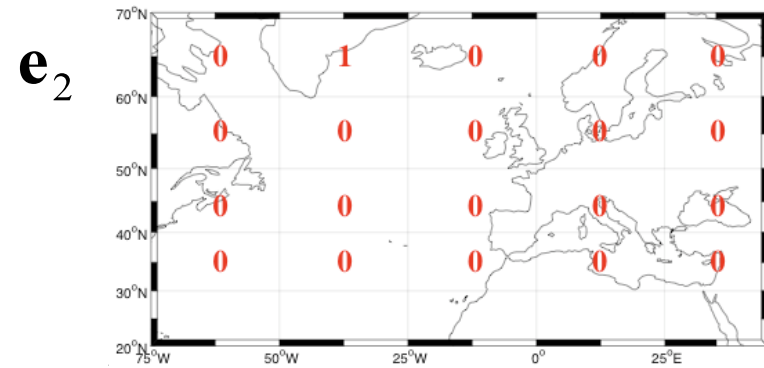
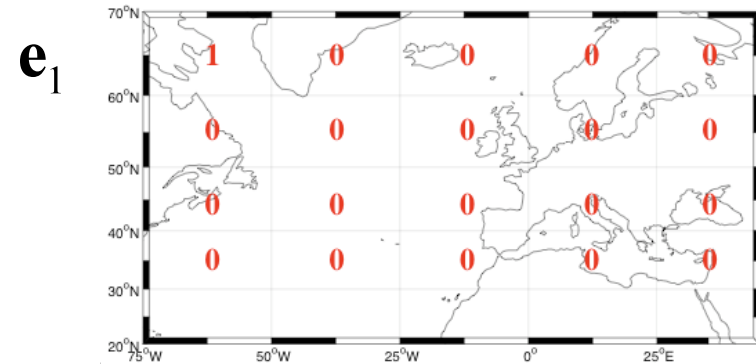
where:

$$\mathbf{e}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{e}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \dots, \mathbf{e}_N = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

## EXAMPLE

A grid can be seen as a linear basis of the vector space  $\Re^N$

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = \sum_{i=1}^N c_i(t) \mathbf{e}_i$$



$$\mathbf{x} \in \Re^N, \ N = 20$$

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = \sum_{i=1}^N c_i(t) \mathbf{e}_i$$

$$\mathbf{e}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{e}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Etc...

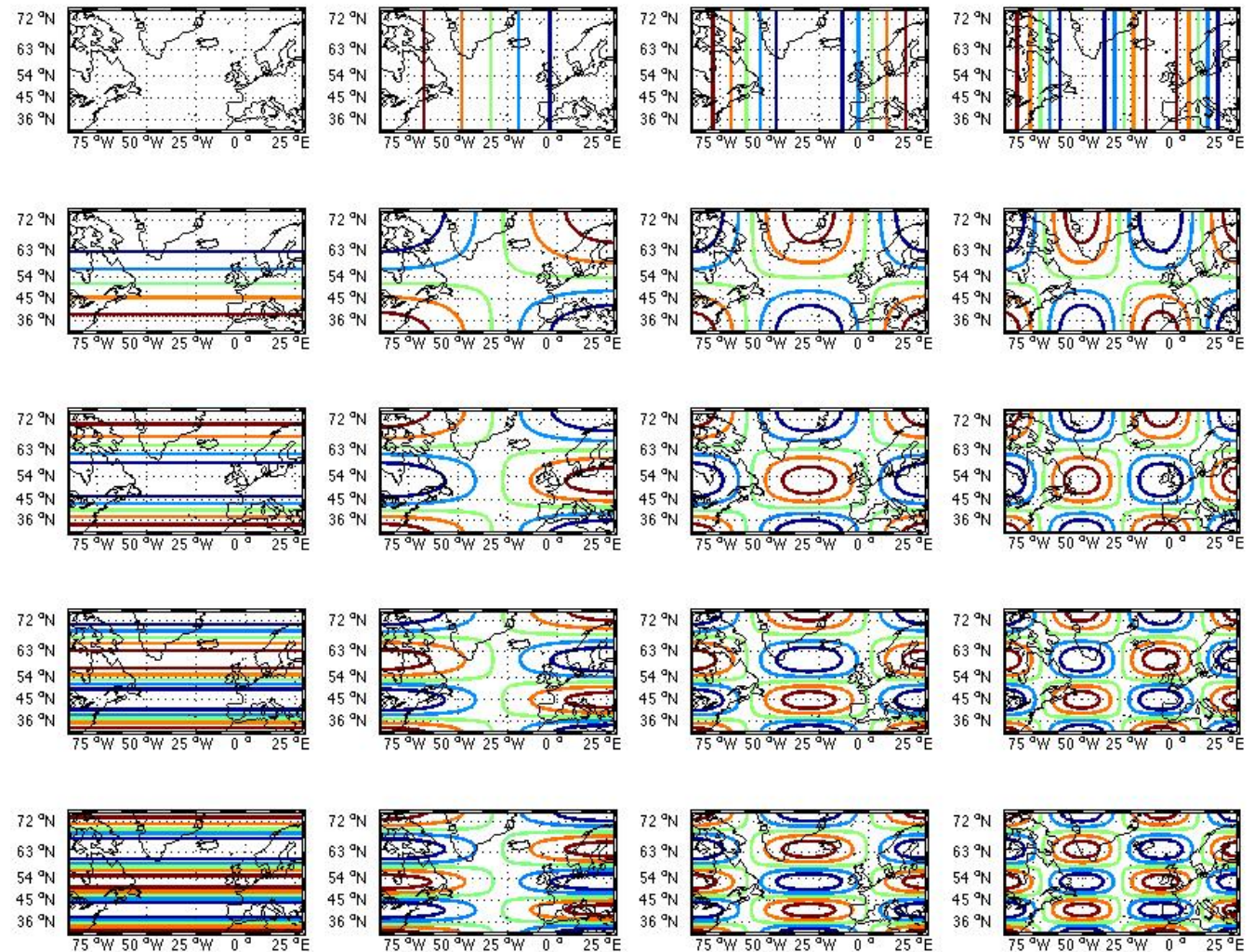
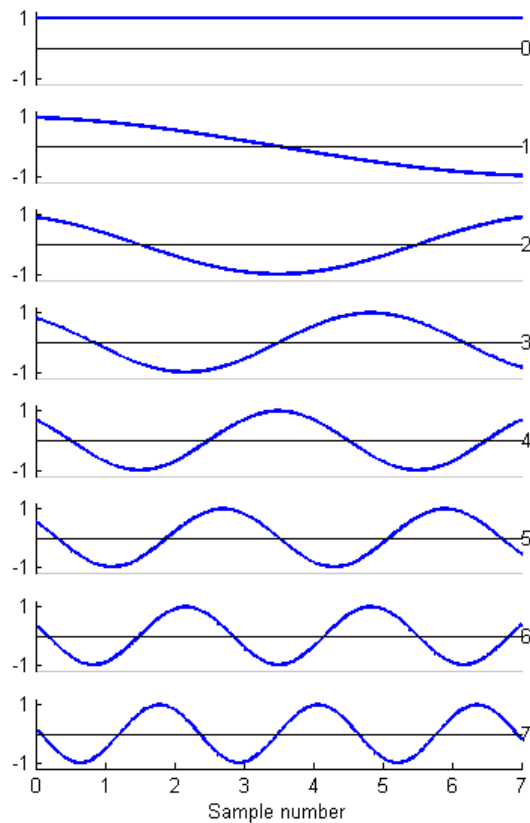
Do you know any other basis?

Yes you do: The Fourier basis.

2D

1D

DCT-II 8-point





In order to introduce a geometry, we need to have a concept of angles and distances.

This is done by introducing a scalar product. The standard scalar product is

$$\mathbf{x} \bullet \mathbf{y} = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i y_i = 2xy \cos \vartheta$$

or, using a matrix notation :

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \cdots & x_{N-1} & x_N \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_{N-1} \\ y_N \end{pmatrix}$$

A scalar product induces a norm in a standard way, which generalizes the idea of length:

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|^2 = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i^2$$

This in turn induces a definition of distance:

$$d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - y_i)^2}$$

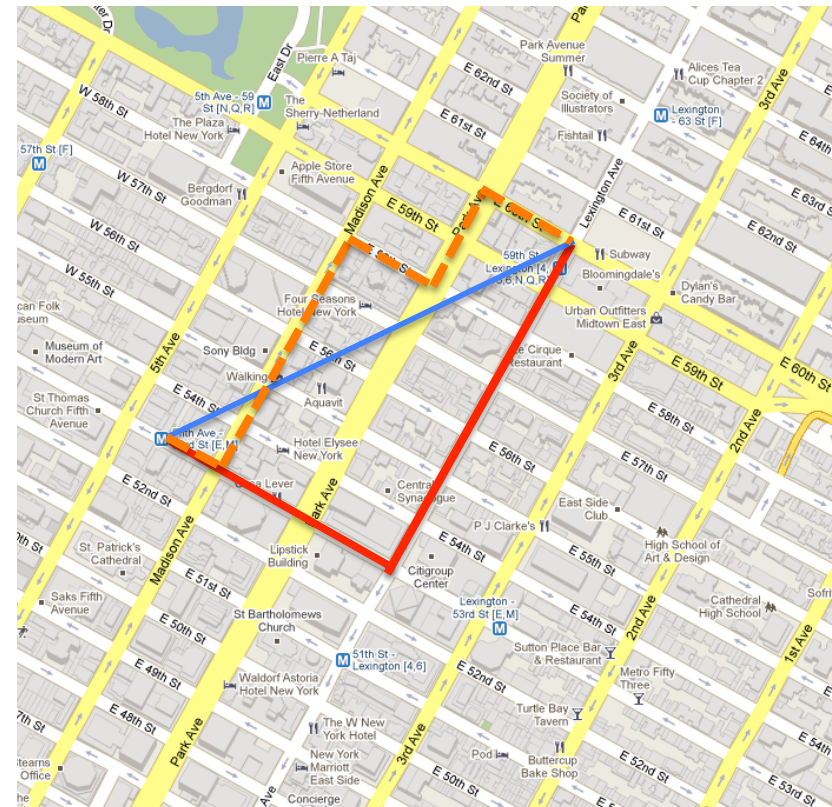
Scalar products, norms and distances are in no way unique. There are several possible choices, given that they satisfy the definition (ask your friends at the math department, or see a geometry handbook for that....)

Exemples of other norms:

The “Manhattan” norm, which induces the “taxi” distance:

$$\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sum_{i=1}^N |x_i|$$

$$d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N |x_i - y_i|}$$

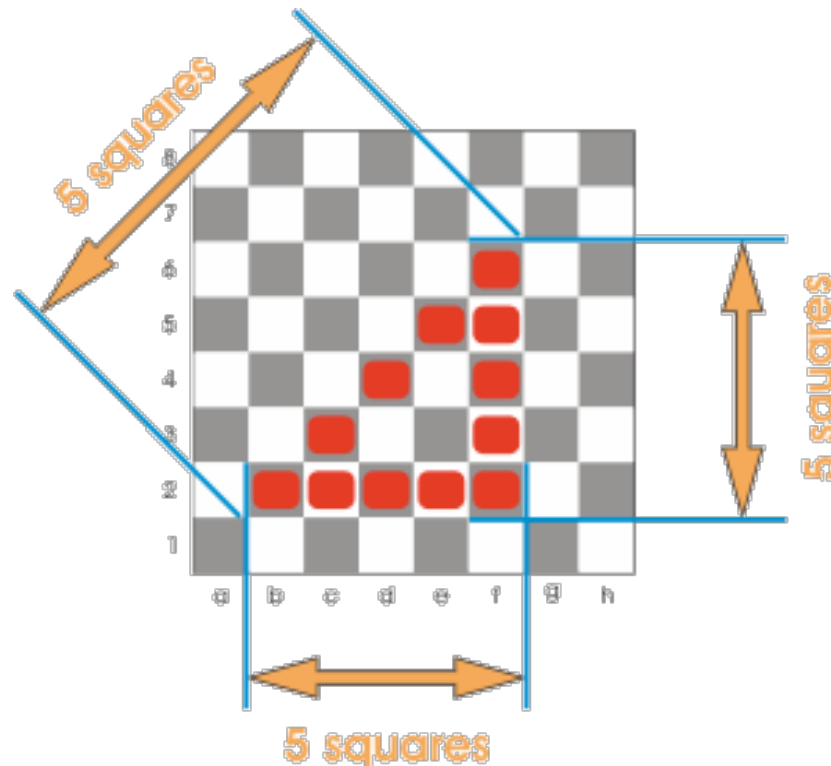


The general case: the  $p$  norm

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_p = \left( \sum_{i=1}^N |x_i|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

The  $p = \infty$  norm, or the *sup* or Chebyshev norm, which induces the chessboard distance:

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty = \sup |x_i|$$



A “statistically interesting” norm (Mahalanobis norm):

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|^2 = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{C}^{-1} \mathbf{x} \rangle$$

If  $\mathbf{C}$  is diagonal, the distance becomes:

$$d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{(x_i - y_i)^2}{\sigma_i^2}}$$

Which means that each component is normalized by its own variance. It is useful in case of vectors of heterogeneous observations.



Prashanta Mahalanobis  
(1893 –1972)

Given two norms, there is always a matrix, called Metric Matrix, that transforms one norm into the other.

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_a^2 = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle_a$$

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_b^2 = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle_b$$

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle_b = \langle \mathbf{x}, M_b \mathbf{x} \rangle_a$$

## Spectral theorem

Ask your mathematician friends for all the nice hypotheses and symbols. Here, just a special simple result is given.

All the matrices for which this is true:

$$\langle \mathbf{y}, L\mathbf{x} \rangle = \langle L\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle$$

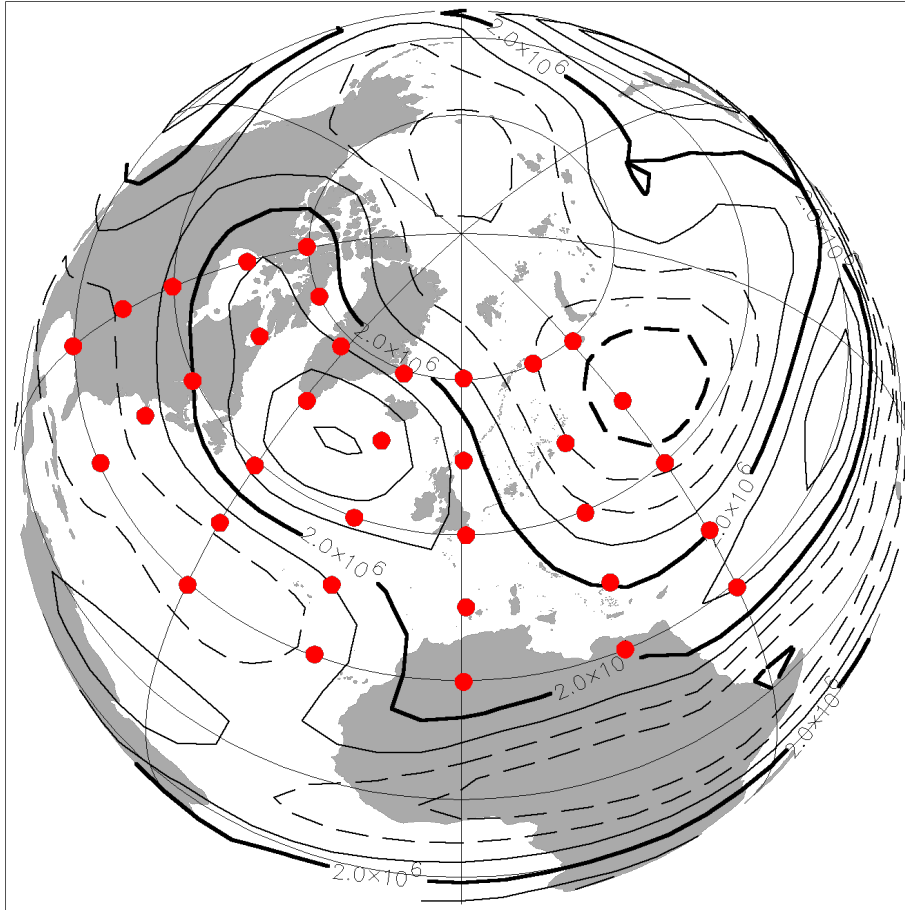
have eigenvectors that define an orthonormal basis for the vector space. In other words, all symmetric (self-adjoint) matrices ( $L = L^T$ ) have an orthonormal complete set of eigenvectors.

In yet other words, for any symmetric matrix  $L$ , there exist two orthogonal matrices and a diagonal matrix for which:

$$D = M^{-1}LM = M^T LM$$

We'll encounter this later on...

A geophysical map is a vector belonging to  $\mathbb{R}^N$



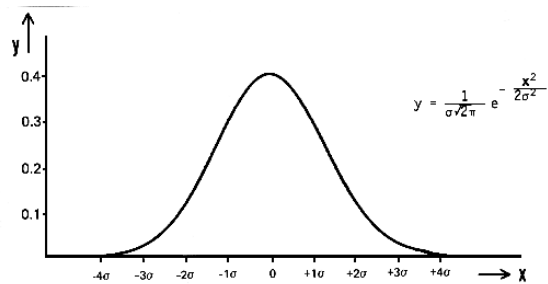
How big is  $N$ ??

Atmosphere:  $10^{45}$

Weather / Climate models:  $10^9$ - $10^{10}$

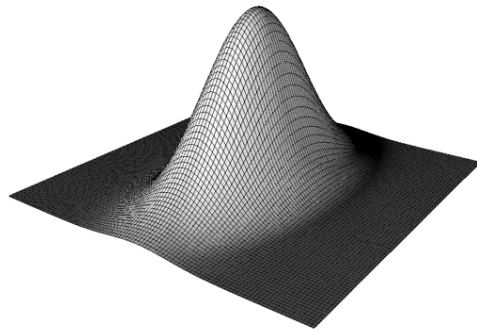


# Analysing $\mathbf{x}(t)$



You are now familiar with scalar time series statistics. Mean, variance, correlation, spectra, etc.

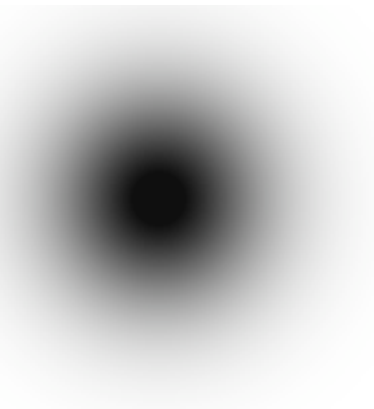
What happens with vector time series?



The mean is easy. Let's suppose  $\bar{\mathbf{x}} = 0$

But what takes the place of variance?

The covariance matrix:  $\overline{\mathbf{xx}^T}$

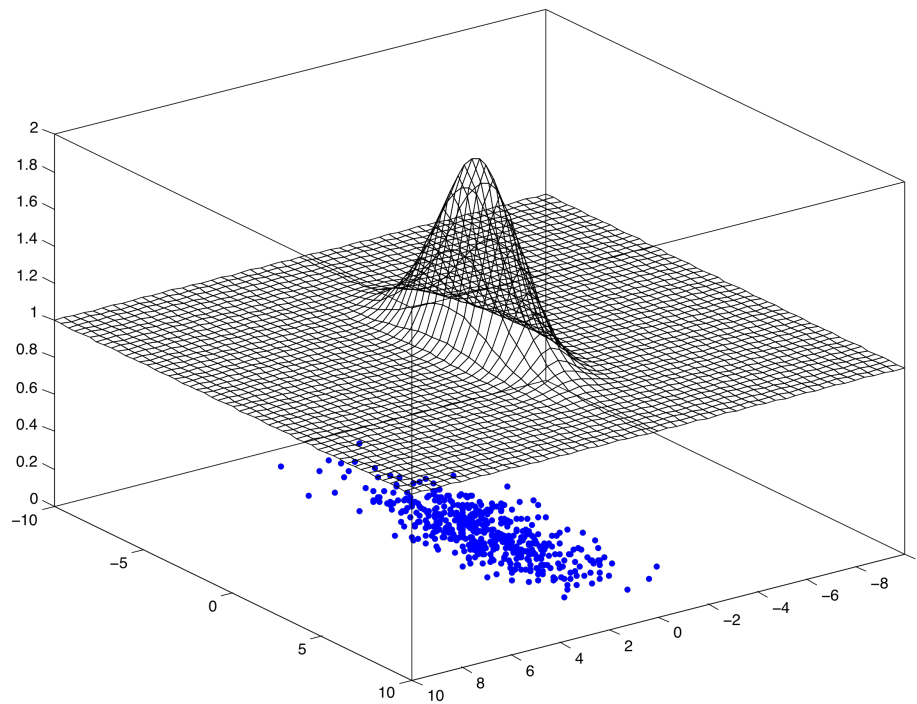


$$C = \begin{pmatrix} \overline{x_1 x_1} & \overline{x_1 x_2} & \dots & \dots & \overline{x_1 x_N} \\ \overline{x_2 x_1} & \overline{x_2 x_2} & \dots & \dots & \overline{x_2 x_N} \\ \vdots & & \ddots & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & & \ddots & \vdots \\ \overline{x_N x_1} & \overline{x_N x_2} & \dots & \dots & \overline{x_N x_N} \end{pmatrix}$$

$C$  gives the variance of the sample in any given direction in phase space. So if  $\mathbf{e}$  is a unitary vector,

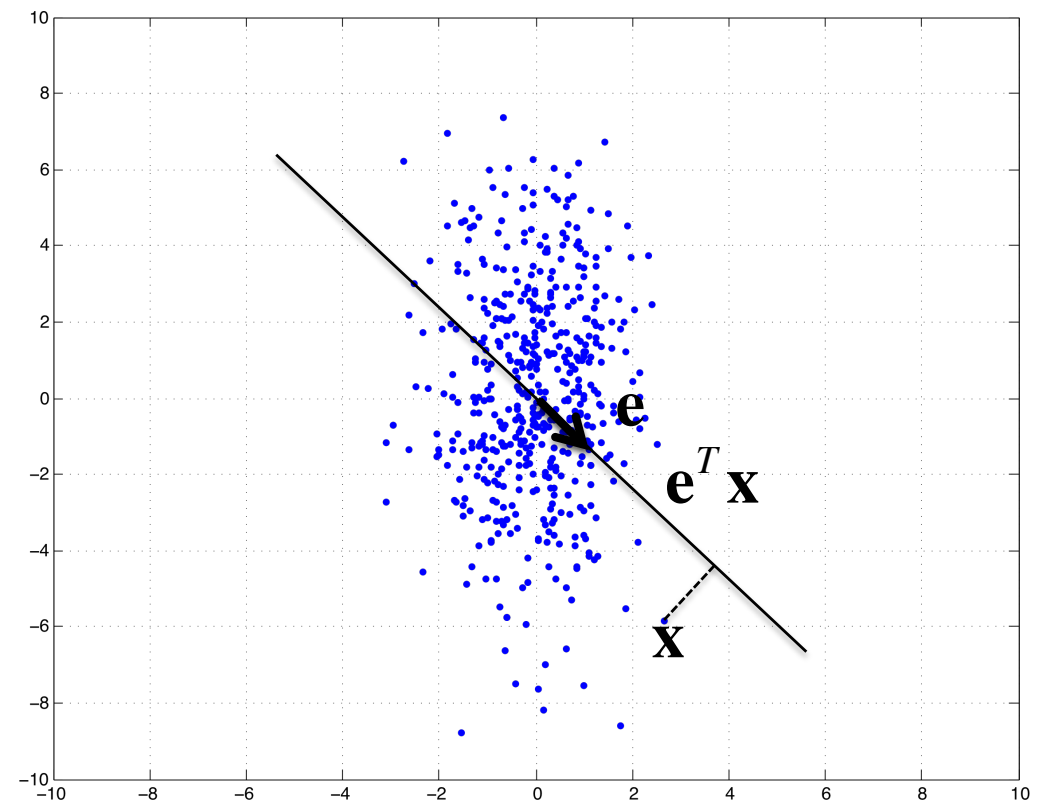
$$\mathbf{e}^T C \mathbf{e}$$

is the variance in the direction  $\mathbf{e}$ .



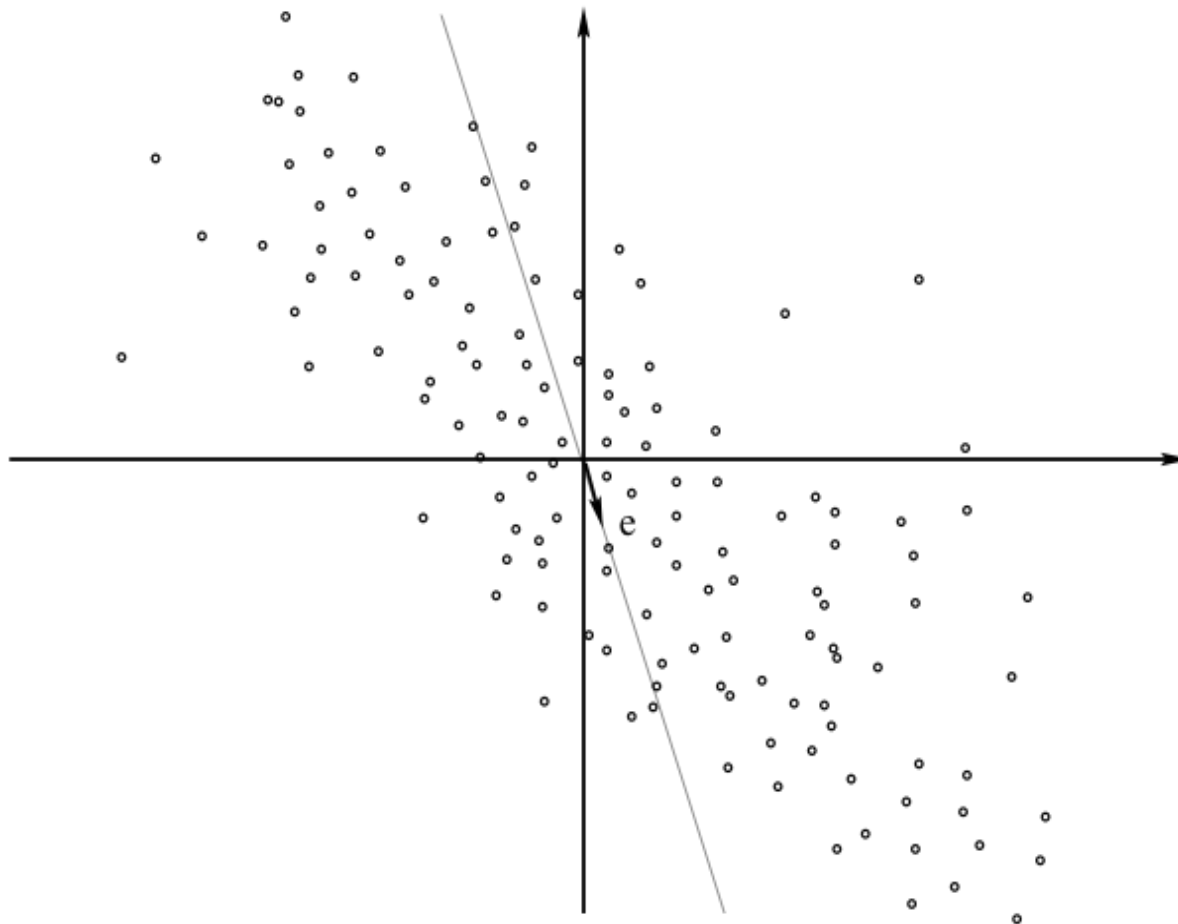
$$\overline{(\mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{x})^2} = \mathbf{e}^T \overline{\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^T} \mathbf{e} = \mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{C} \mathbf{e}$$

$$\sigma^2(\mathbf{e}) = \mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{C} \mathbf{e}$$



# **Principal Component Analysis**

**Problem:** find the direction  $\mathbf{e}$  that maximises the variance.



It is a constrained  
Maximization problem.  
We want to find the  
maximum:

$$\text{Max}(\mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{C} \mathbf{e})$$

Submitted to the  
constraint:

$$\|\mathbf{e}\|^2 = \mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{e} = 1$$

The problem can be solved via the Lagrange multiplier  $\lambda$ .  
The maximum to be found is:

$$\text{Max}[\mathbf{e}^T C \mathbf{e} - \lambda(\mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{e} - 1)]$$

Differentiating with respect to  $\mathbf{e}$

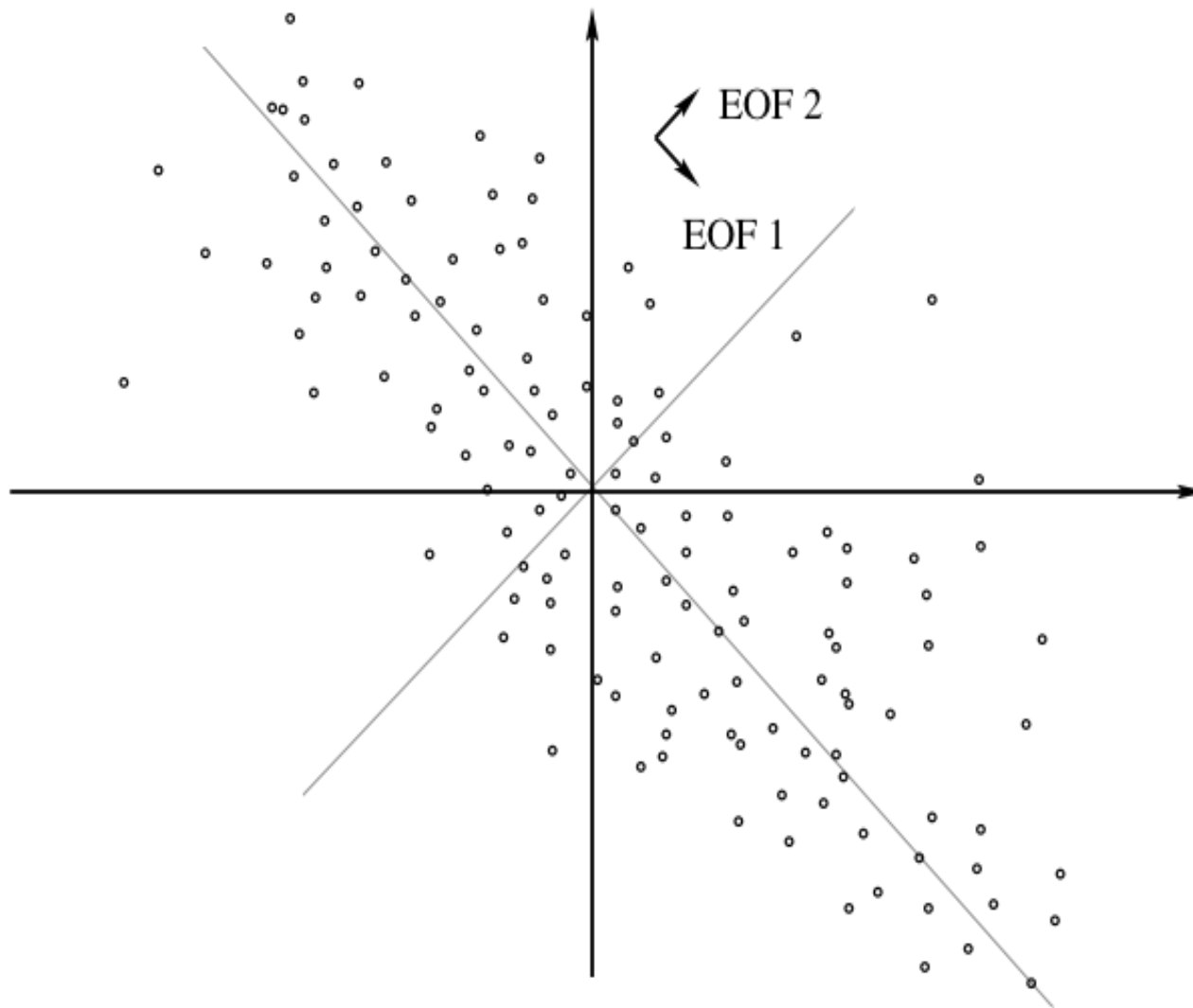
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{e}} [\mathbf{e}^T C \mathbf{e} - \lambda(\mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{e} - 1)] = 2C\mathbf{e} - 2\lambda\mathbf{e} = 0$$

Hence:

$$C\mathbf{e} = \lambda\mathbf{e}$$

The maximization problem is simply the eigenvalue problem for  $C$ .

In geophysical applications, these eigenvectors are usually called EOFs (Empirical Orthogonal functions).



The first EOF is the direction along which the variance of the sample is maximum. The second EOF is the direction along which the variance is maximum, under constraint of orthogonality with the first, and so forth.

$C$  is a symmetric matrix, consequently it has a complete orthonormal set of eigenvectors. The EOFs are an orthonormal basis for  $\Re^N$  :

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = \sum_{n=1}^N c_n(t) \mathbf{e}_n, \quad c_n(t) = \langle \mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{e}_n \rangle$$

## PROPERTIES

an important property is that for any given truncation  $T < N$ :

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = \sum_{n=1}^T c_n(t) \mathbf{e}_n + R$$

the EOFs are the linear basis that minimises the residual  $R$ , given the chosen norm.

This is very efficient for data compression.

What about the eigenvalues  $\lambda_n$ ?

$$\mathbf{e}_n^T C \mathbf{e}_n = \mathbf{e}_n^T \lambda_n \mathbf{e}_n = \lambda_n$$

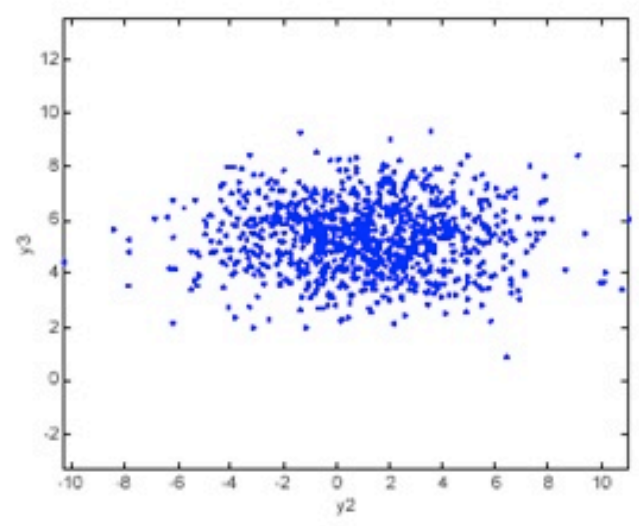
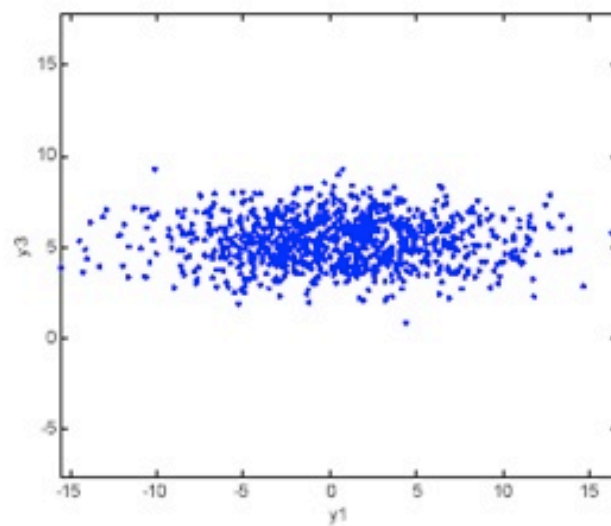
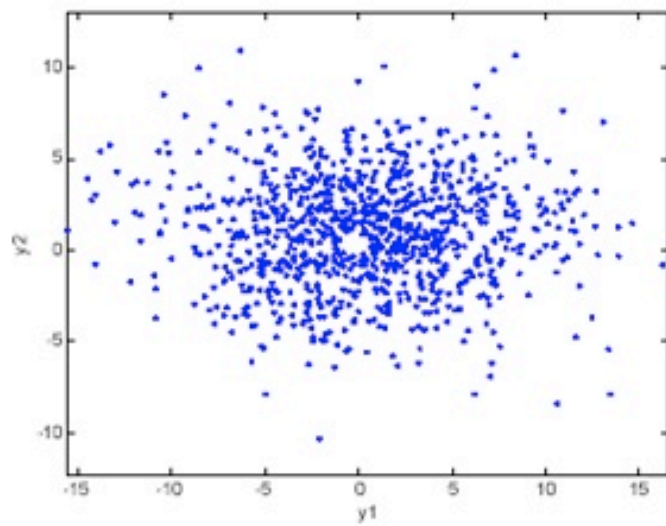
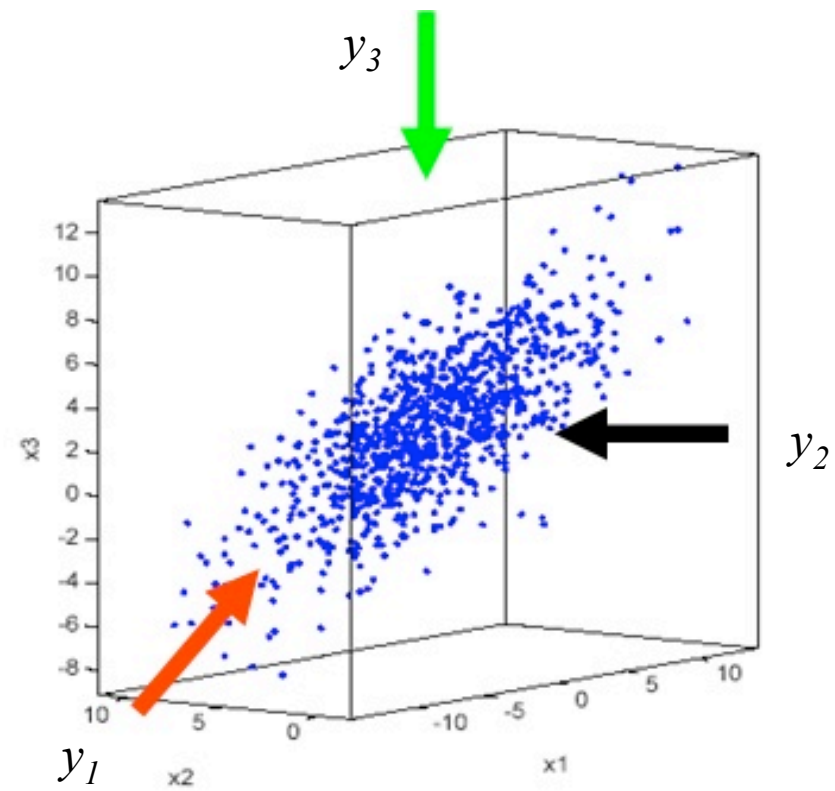
So the n-th eigenvalue is the variance explained in the direction of the n-th EOF.



Since the total variance of  $\mathbf{x}(t)$  is :

$$Var(\mathbf{x}(t)) = \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda_n$$

One can express the percent of variance explained by an EOF as  $\frac{\lambda_i}{\sum_{n=1}^N \lambda_n}$



Example 1:  
**Principal component analysis of human faces**

Digitalized photos of the faces of students of the university of Kent.  
It allows to compute the « mean face » and the first EOFs of faces.





## « *Truncating a face* »

Reconstruction of a vector by projection on the EOF basis. The effect of the truncation.

Original



20 byte code



40 byte code



60 byte code



80 byte code



120 byte code



Google:

“faces principal  
component analysis”

- A lot of fun stuff-

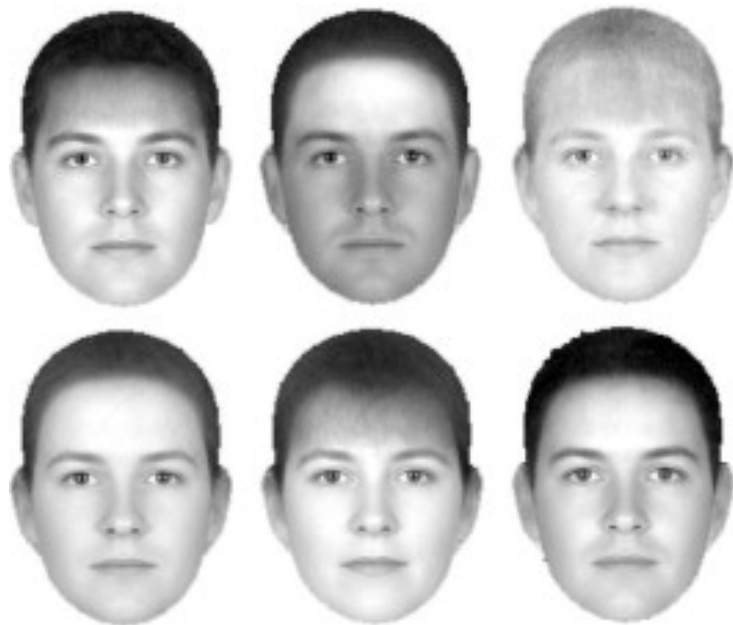


Figure I. Analysis of face components. From left to right, the first three image components resulting from a principal components analysis, illustrated by subtracting (top row) and adding (bottom row) the component to the average face (although note that the sign of the change is arbitrary). These early components are largely dominated by lighting and hair effects, but note that the latter strongly codes face gender.



Figure II. Analysis of face shape. From left to right, the first two and the ninth shape components, illustrated by subtracting (top row) and adding (bottom row) the component to the shape of the average shape-free face. The first codes head size, along with an element of face gender (women in this set have smaller heads, even after normalizing for pupil centres). The ninth is included because it clearly captures another aspect of sex differences.

The problem of maximizing the variance is equivalent to the problem of finding the direction  $\mathbf{e}$  having the largest projection on the data sample. Or alternatively, of finding the straight line of smallest distance (given a definition of distance) from all the data sample.

In fact, we can write the mean square projection:

$$\overline{(\mathbf{e}^T M \mathbf{x})^2} = \mathbf{e}^T M \overline{\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^T} M \mathbf{e} = \mathbf{e}^T M C M \mathbf{e}$$

Which is equivalent to the variance definition of before for the canonic metric, i.e. for  $M$  equal to the identity.

We can reformulate for a general metric the EOF formula. The maximization problem becomes:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{e}} [\mathbf{e}^T M C M \mathbf{e} - \lambda(\mathbf{e}^T M \mathbf{e} - 1)] = 2 M C M \mathbf{e} - 2 \lambda M \mathbf{e} = 0,$$

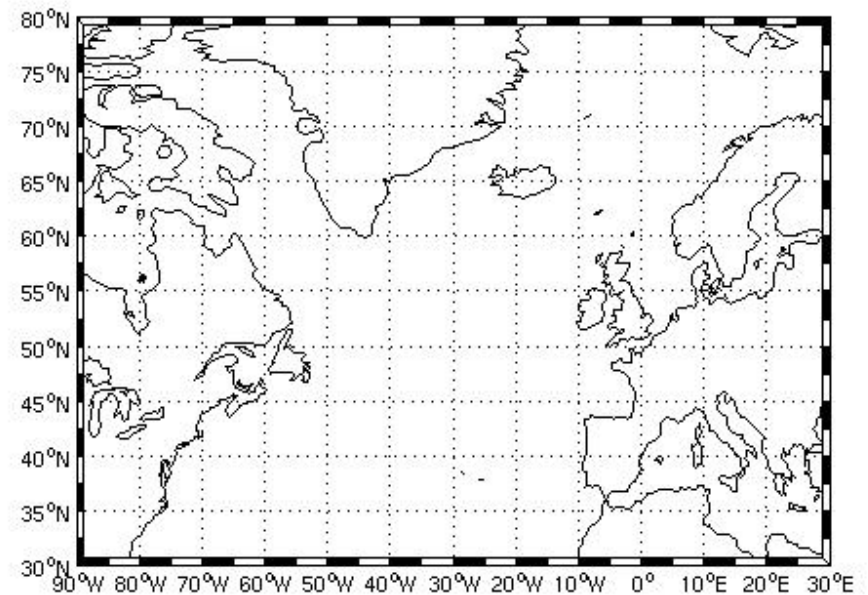
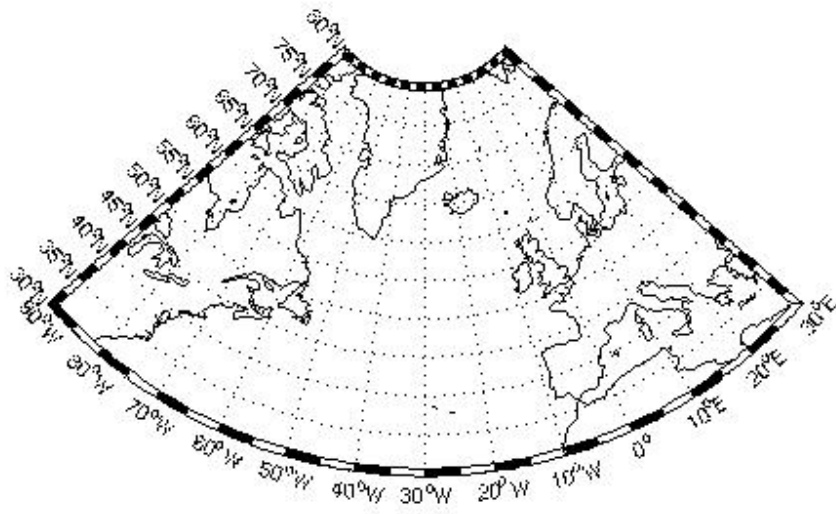
Hence:  $CMe = \lambda e.$  Generalized eigenvalue problem

M can be the metric matrix of the canonical norm, or any other norm.

The EOFs do depend on the choice of a norm.

## Area-weighting norm

A useful norm is the area-weighting norm, used when the data analysed are represented on a lat-lon regular grid.





In this case, the scalar product is the the area integral of the product of two fields. In the discrete approximation it becomes the following sum. It measures « how much two fields are similar ».

$$\begin{aligned}\langle x, y \rangle &= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} xy R^2 \cos \theta d\theta d\lambda = R^2 \sum_{n=1}^N x_n y_n \cos \theta_n = \\ &= x^T M y.\end{aligned}$$

Where  $M$  is the metric defined as follows:

$$M = R^2 \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta_1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \theta_2 & & & \vdots \\ 0 & & \cos \theta_3 & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & \cos \theta_N \end{pmatrix}$$

## Just a trick

There is a trick to solve the eigenvalue problem in the case of this norm:

We can make the variable change  $\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{m}\mathbf{x}$ , where  $\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{m}\mathbf{m}$ . This way, the eigenvector of  $\mathbf{C}' = \overline{\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{x}'^T}$  are the eigenvector of  $\mathbf{CM}$ , multiplied by  $\mathbf{m}$ .

Proof:

$$\mathbf{C}' = \overline{\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{x}'^T} = \overline{\mathbf{m}\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{m}\mathbf{x})^T} = \overline{\mathbf{m}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^T}\mathbf{m}^T = \mathbf{m}\mathbf{C}\mathbf{m}$$

Hence the eigenvalue problem to be solved is

$$\mathbf{m}\mathbf{C}\mathbf{m} \mathbf{e} = \lambda \mathbf{e}$$

$$\mathbf{m}\mathbf{C}\mathbf{m} \mathbf{m}\mathbf{m}^{-1}\mathbf{e} = \lambda \mathbf{e}$$

$$\mathbf{CM} \mathbf{m}^{-1}\mathbf{e} = \lambda \mathbf{m}^{-1}\mathbf{e}$$

Conclusion: first multiply all your data by the square root of the cosine of latitude, then compute the EOFs. After, divide them by the square root of the cosine of latitude.

## Statistical significance of EOFs.

It is complicated, but the standard error of the eigenvectors and of the eigenvalues can be computed. See:

North et al, 1982: “Sampling Errors in the Estimation of Empirical Orthogonal Functions”. Mon Wea Rev, 110, 699–706.

There is a « rule of thumb »:

$$\Delta\lambda_i \approx \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}}\lambda_i$$
$$\Delta\mathbf{e}_i \approx \frac{\Delta\lambda_i}{\lambda_i - \lambda_j} \mathbf{e}_j$$

Where  $\lambda_j$  is the eigenvalue closest in value to  $\lambda_i$

## Example 2

### Principal component analysis of 500 mb geopotential height maps

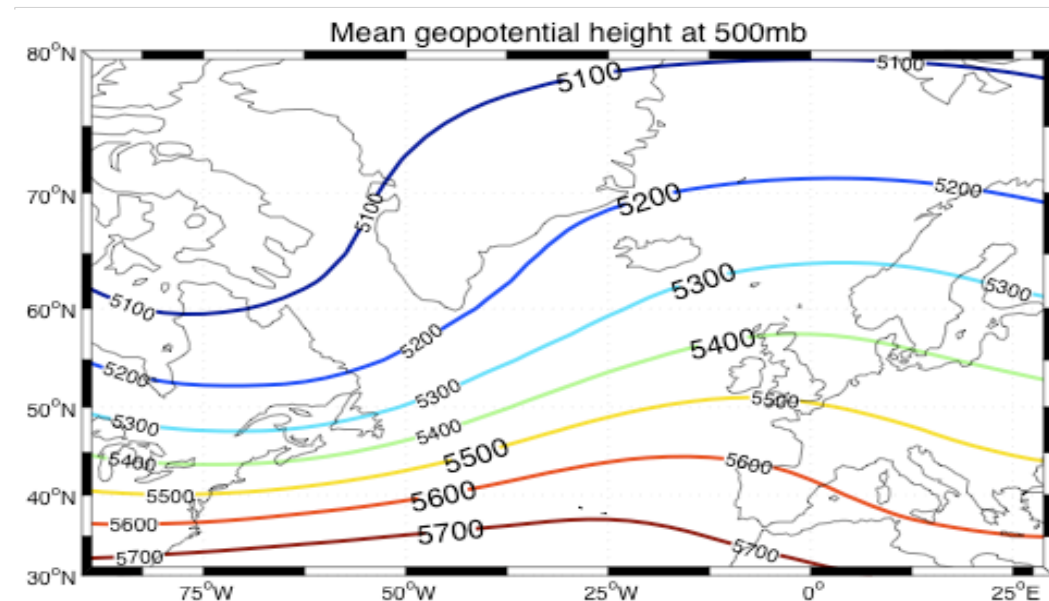
Geopotential height is defined by  $Z(p) = \frac{R}{g} \int_{p_0}^p T d \ln p$

Intuitively, it can be seen at the height from the ground at which a pressure  $p$  is found – more or less.

Remember that  
by geostrophy it  
is:

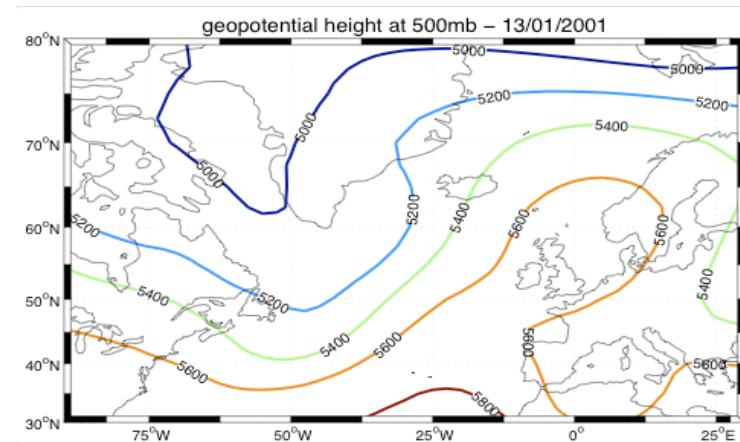
$$fu = g \frac{\partial Z}{\partial y}$$

$$fv = -g \frac{\partial Z}{\partial x}$$

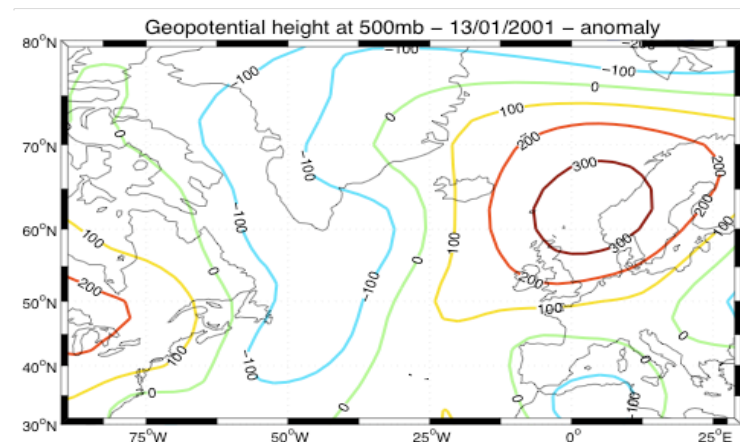


In this case the time series  $\mathbf{x}(t)$  is a series of daily meteorological maps projected on a lat-lon grid of 25x49 points. Hence one can say that  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathfrak{R}^N$  and  $N=1225$ .

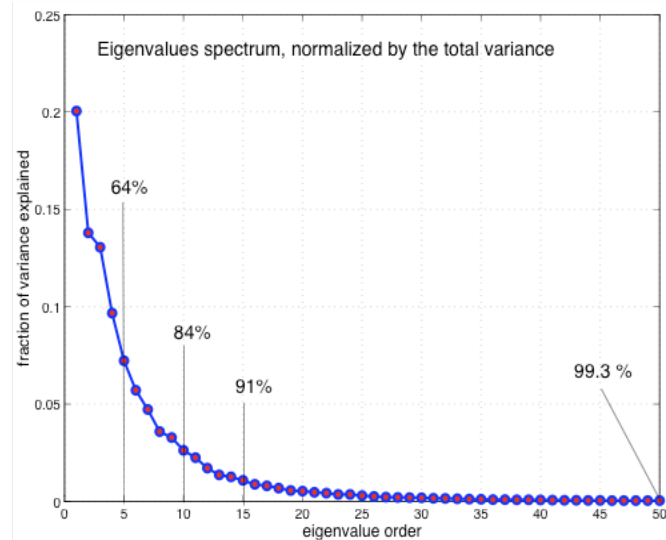
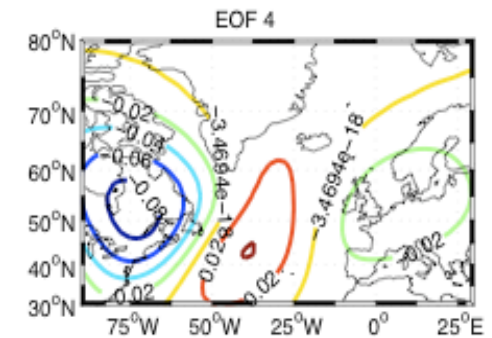
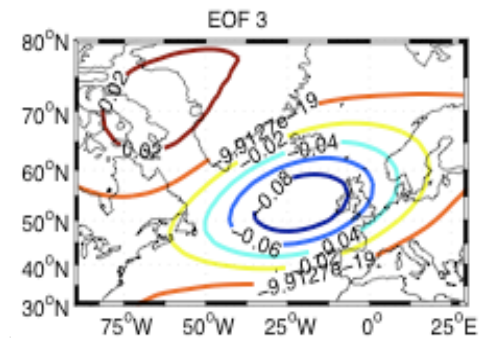
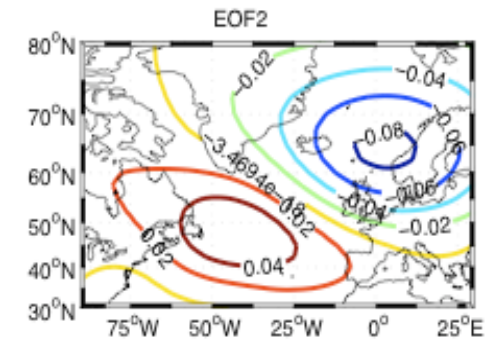
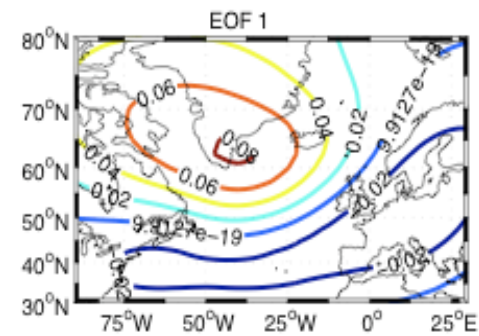
Example of  $(t)$  for a given day



And subtracting the mean  $\mathbf{x}(t) - \bar{\mathbf{x}}$



And here are the EOFs



And the eigenvalues spectrum

## Normalization of EOFs

EOFs are normalized, but sometimes one can visualize the amount of variance explained in the direction of an EOF by multiplying it by the correspondent eigenvalue:  $\mathbf{e}_n' = \lambda_n \mathbf{e}_n$

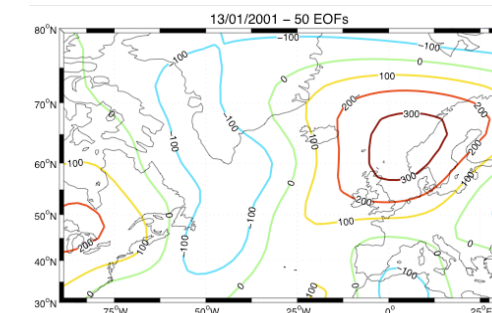
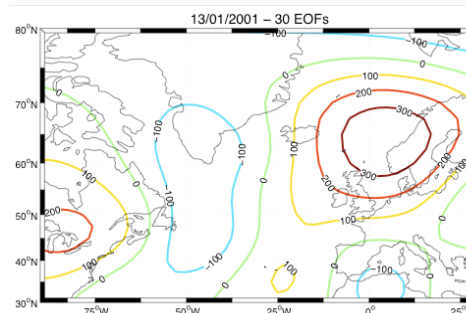
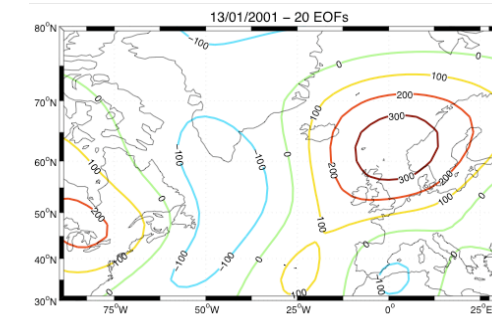
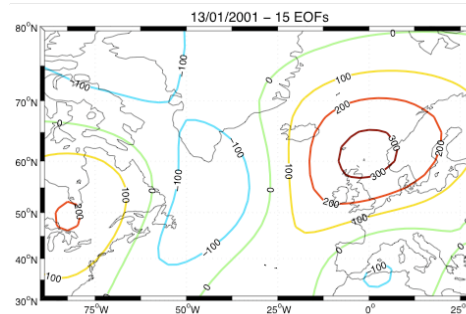
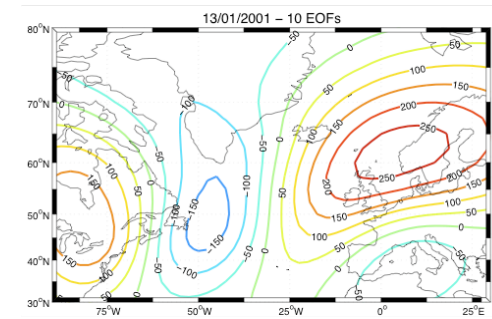
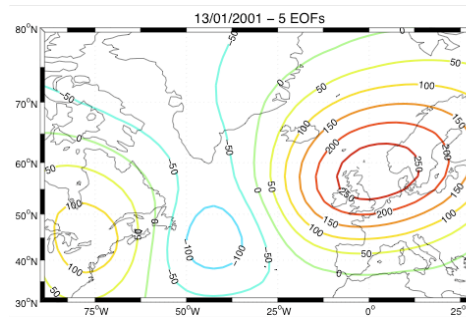
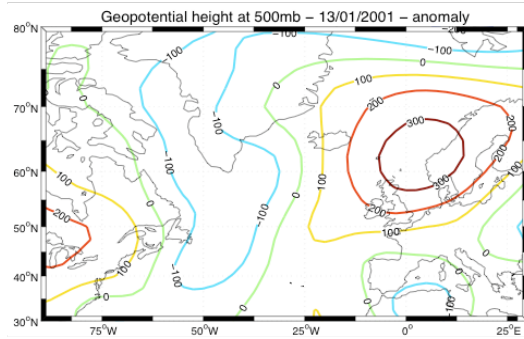
In this case, the Principal Components have variance 1

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = \sum_{n=1}^N c_n'(t) \mathbf{e}_n'$$



## Truncating a map

Reconstruction of a given vector of the time series, or also of a given map, on a truncated series of EOFs

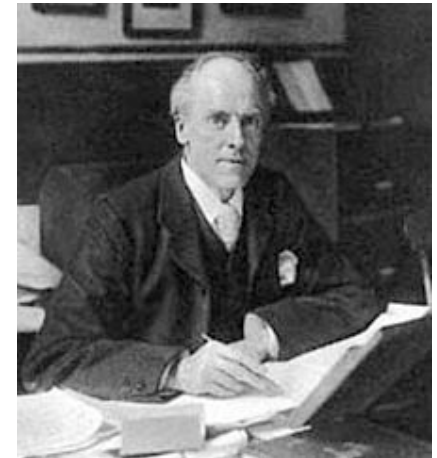




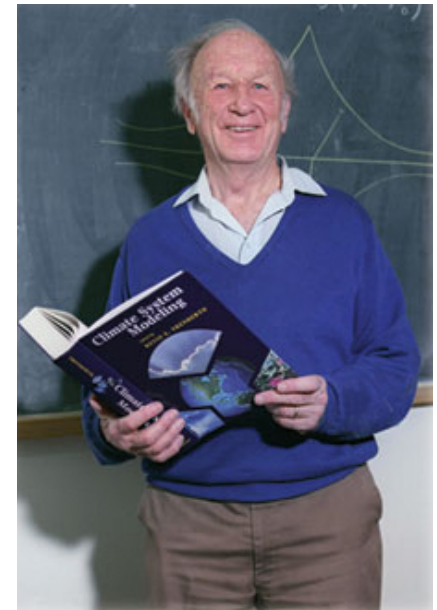
PCA has many names, according to application.

Depending on the field of application, it is also named the discrete **Karhunen–Loève transform** (KLT), the **Hotelling transform** in multivariate quality control, **proper orthogonal decomposition** (POD) in turbulence, **singular value decomposition** (SVD) of  $X$ , **eigenvalue decomposition** (EVD) of  $X^T X$  in linear algebra, **Factor analysis** in social sciences, **Eckart-Young Theorem** in psychometrics, **Schmidt-Mirsky theorem**, **Empirical Orthogonal Functions** (EOF) in meteorological science, **Empirical Eigenfunction Decomposition**, **Empirical Component Analysis**, Quasiharmonic Modes, **Spectral Decomposition** in noise and vibration, and **Empirical Modal Analysis** in structural dynamics.

[Wikipedia « *Principal component analysis* »]



Karl Pearson  
(1857 – 1936)



Ed Lorenz  
(1917 – 2008)

# Physical Interpretation

The EOFs are a statistical construct, so they cannot *a priori* be linked to a given physical mechanism. They are the signature of the dynamics of a given physical system. The physical interpretation is done *a posteriori* by the user. Sometimes it is evident, sometimes not.

In the following we will see two examples of physical phenomena, or better of the EOF signatures of two physical phenomena:

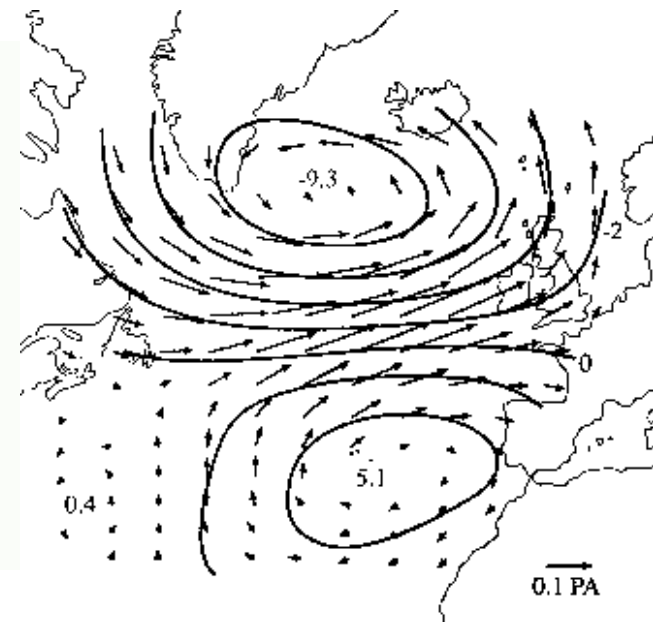
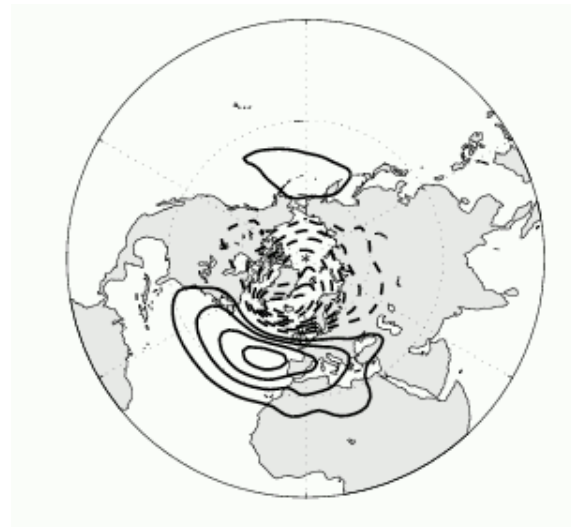
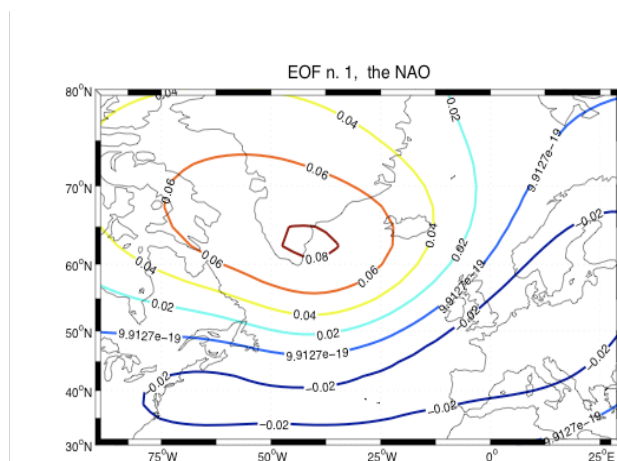
- 1) The North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO)
- 2) The El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO)

## Example 1: The North Atlantic Oscillation

The first EOF of geopotential height is very well known to meteorologists. It is the sign of a phenomenon so important in the North Atlantic region, that it was given a name: **NAO**.

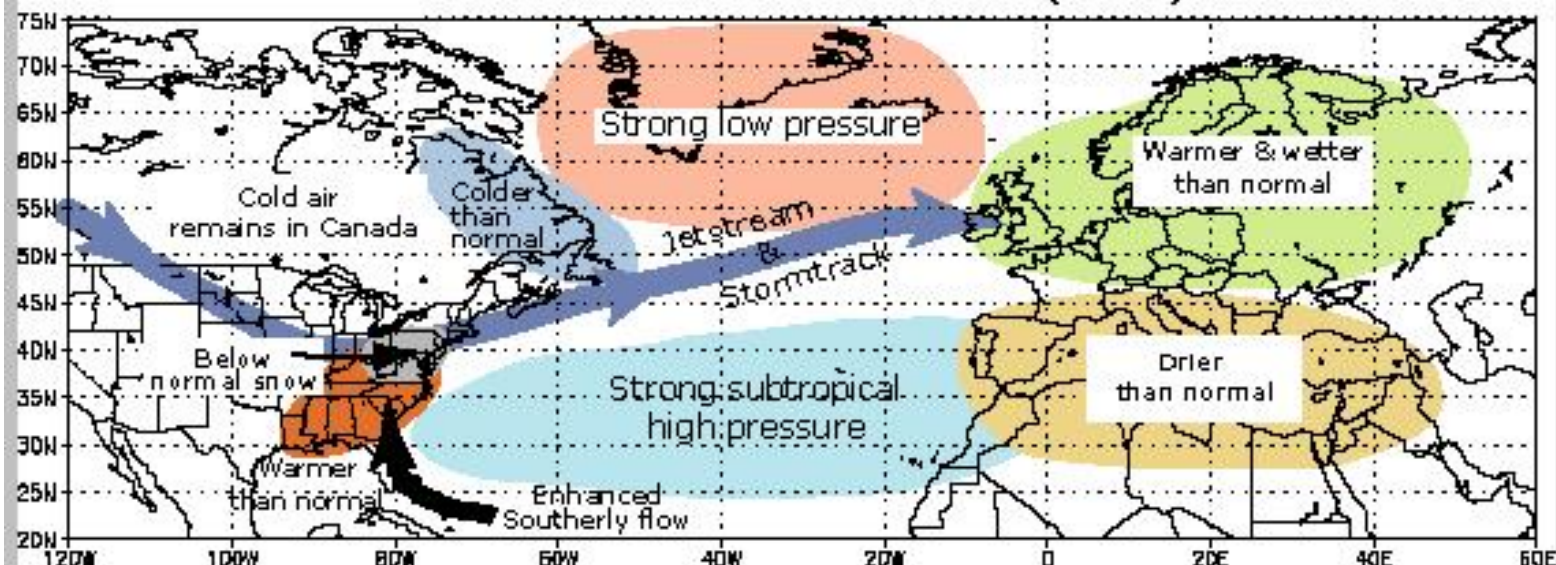


It has a dipolar structure and represents an anticorrelation between the Greenland ridge and the Açores anticyclon.

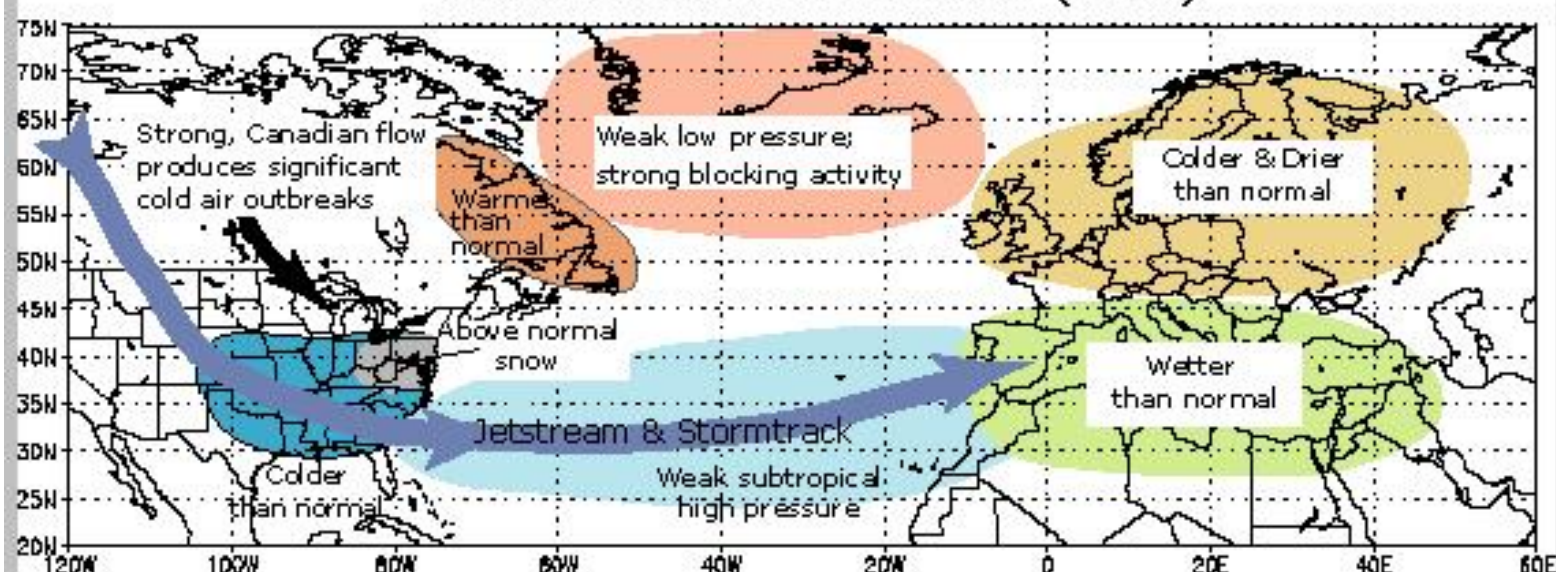




## Positive Phase of the Wintertime North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO)



## Negative Phase of the Wintertime North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO)





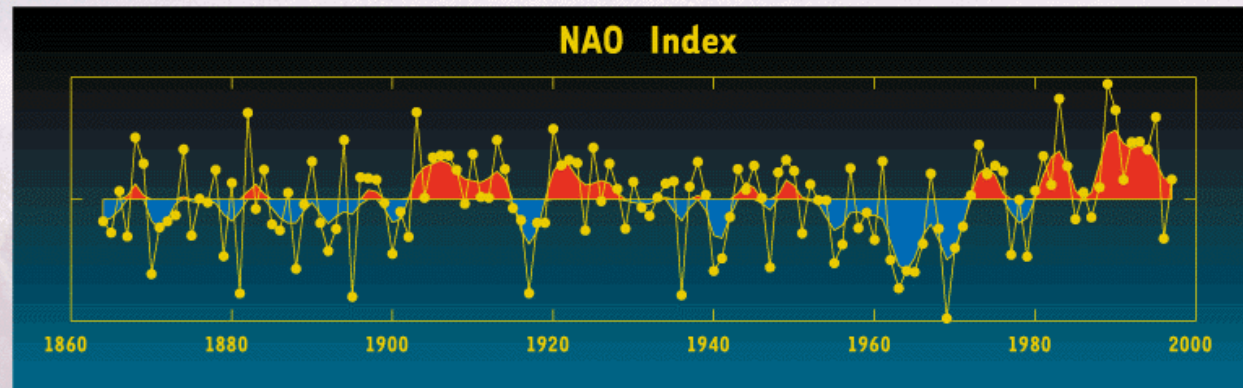
# THE NORTH ATLANTIC OSCILLATION NAO

The NAO index is defined as the anomalous pressure difference between the Icelandic Low and the Azores High. The figure at right shows the measured sea level pressure difference between Stykkisholmur, Iceland and Lisbon, Portugal over the period 1865-1998 during the winter season (December through March).

The NAO is a large-scale see-saw in atmospheric mass between the subtropical high located near the Azores and the sub-polar low near Iceland. An index can be derived that tracks the behavior of the NAO through time. The index shows both high frequency and low frequency variability. In the later portion of the record there is a positive trend, steadily increasing with time. The high and low frequency variability of the NAO is believed to be related to natural variations in the

climate system, while the trend witnessed over the last 30 years may be caused by anthropogenic impacts such as ozone depletion and increased CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. One of the fundamental questions driving NAO-related research is:

How do these two influences, **natural** climate variability and **global warming**, interact?



## NATURAL VARIABILITY NAO & the Atlantic Ocean

The NAO is the dominant mode of winter climate variability in the North Atlantic region. The corresponding index varies from year to year, but also exhibits a tendency to remain in a positive or negative phase for intervals lasting several years (see red and blue sections of the NAO index above).

The characteristic time scale of atmospheric circulation anomalies are only on the order of weeks. However, the ocean, with its large capacity to absorb heat, has significant long-term memory, and may set the pace for decadal variations in the NAO. Ocean currents have the ability to propagate temperature anomalies across the Atlantic, which may influence the dynamics of the overlying atmosphere. As a result, some scientists believe that decadal variations in the NAO are due to 'two-way' communication between the ocean and atmosphere. Other scientists have suggested that the oceanic variability is merely the integrated response of the ocean to high frequency variability in the atmosphere. Another hypothesis is that the NAO might be influenced by variability in the tropical Atlantic Ocean. Once the interactions between the ocean, atmosphere, and land are more clearly understood, it may be possible to forecast year-to-year changes in the NAO.

## ANTHROPOGENIC CHANGE NAO & Global Warming

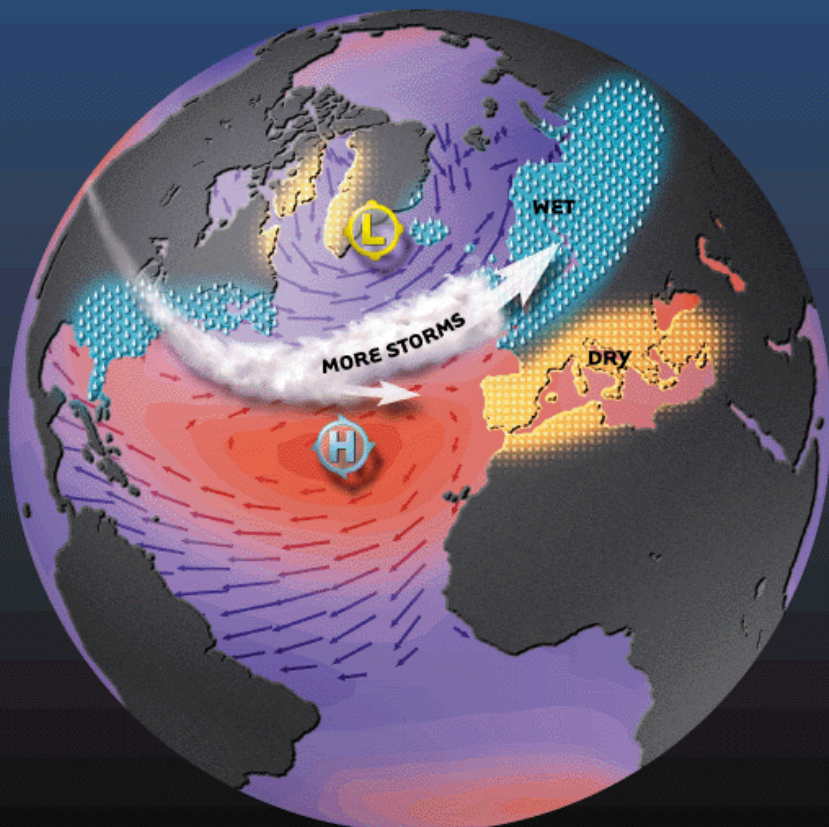
Over the past thirty years, the NAO has steadily strengthened, rising from its low index state in the 1960s to a historic maximum in the early 1990s. This trend accounts for a significant portion of Northern Hemisphere wintertime temperature increase over Eurasia, a major component of the recent warming. Consequently, the NAO has made its way into the global warming debate.

More recently, scientists became aware of a connection between variations in temperature at the earth's surface and the strength of the stratospheric winter vortex, located about 60 km above the earth's surface. Changes in stratospheric circulation can be forced by several different mechanisms including ozone depletion, volcanic dust, and CO<sub>2</sub>. Rising CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations cool and strengthen the stratospheric winter vortex which translates into stronger surface winds. Enhanced surface westerly winds are consistent with a positive NAO index. These changes, which modulate the temperature over northern Eurasia and America, are sometimes referred to as the Arctic Oscillation.



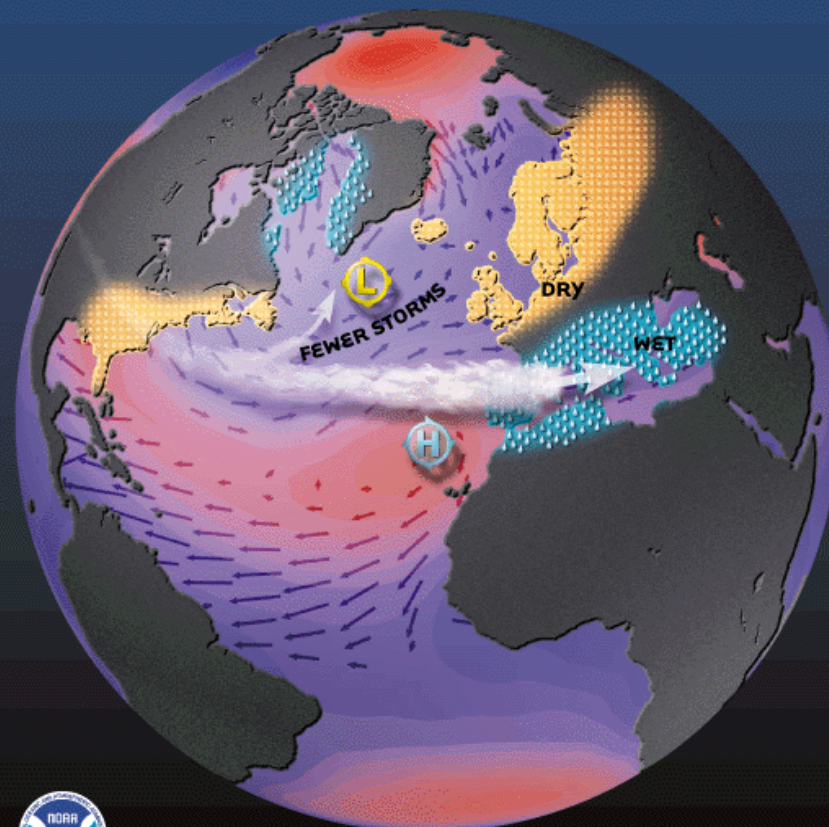


# North Atlantic Oscillation



POSITIVE NAO

# North Atlantic Oscillation



NEGATIVE NAO



NOAA Office of Global Programs  
1180 Wayne Avenue, Suite 1225  
Silver Spring, MD 20910-5603  
PHONE 301.427.2889

LAMONT-DOHERTY  
EARTH OBSERVATORY  
OF COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

FOR MORE INFORMATION  
<http://www.ldeo.columbia.edu/NAO/>



## IMPACTS ASSOCIATED WITH A POSITIVE NAO YEAR.



**NORTHEASTERN US**  
Increased temperature results in decreased number of snow days



**NORTH SEA**  
Increased wave height affects safety of oil rigs and their operators



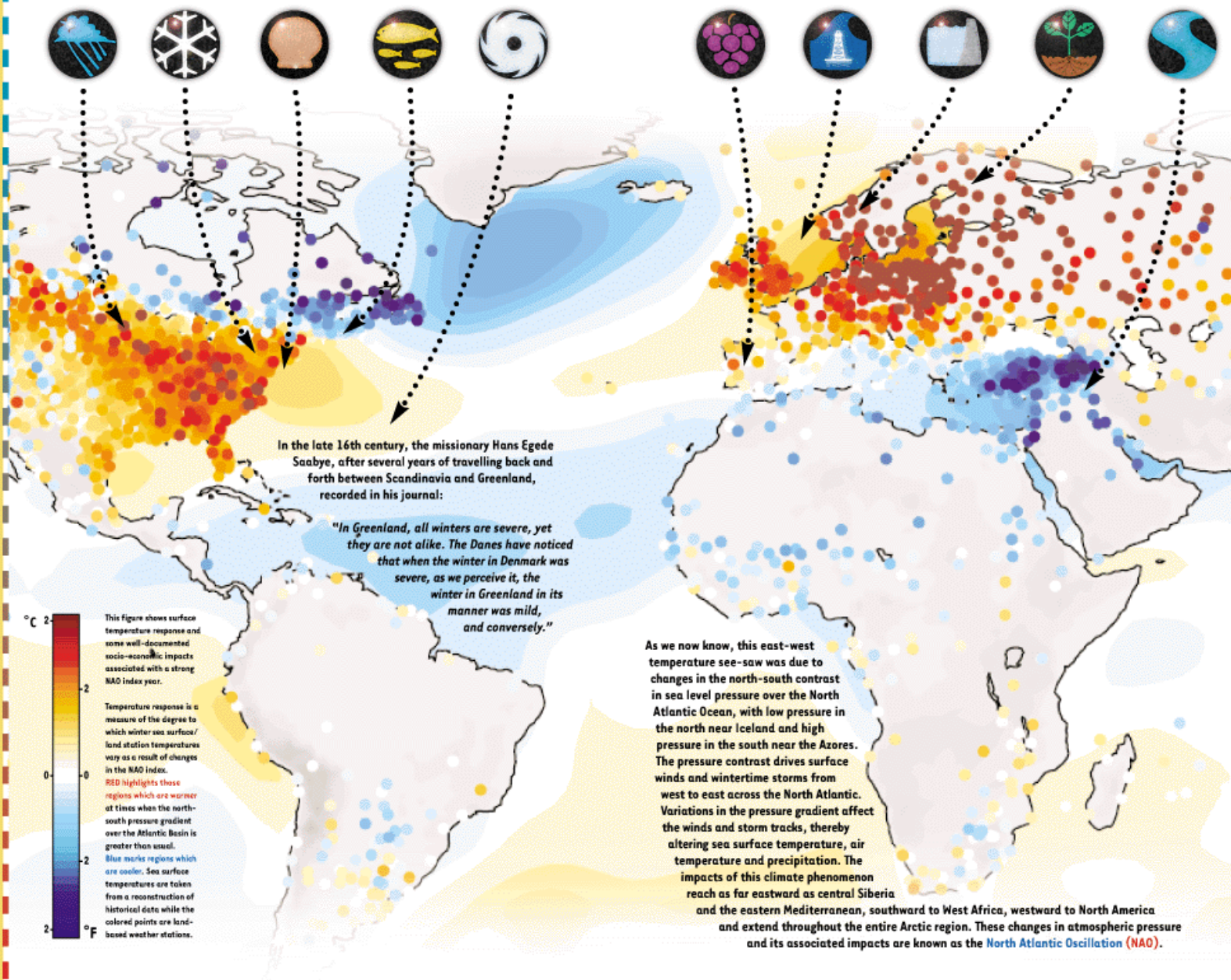
**NORWAY**  
Surplus water in hydroelectric reservoirs provides potential for selling surplus electricity



**SCANDINAVIA**  
Length of the plant growth season is lengthened by 20 days



**CENTRAL US**  
Increased precipitation and river runoff



## IMPACTS ASSOCIATED WITH A NEGATIVE NAO YEAR.



**TROPICAL ATLANTIC/ GULF COAST**  
Warmer sea surface temperatures cause increases in number and strength of hurricanes



**ATLANTIC**  
Increased growth and recruitment of Northern Cod



**EASTERN LONG ISLAND**  
Decreased "brown tide" events increase scallop harvests



**PORTUGAL & SPAIN**  
Increased grape and olive harvests



**TURKEY**  
Increased precipitation and streamflow in the Tigris-Euphrates River Basin



## ENERGY PRODUCTION & CONSUMPTION

### US HYDROPOWER PRODUCTION

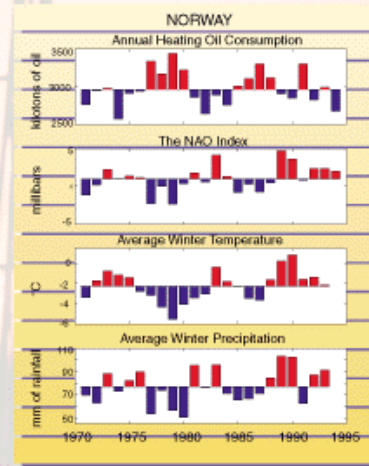
In the United States hydropower supplies 12% of the nation's electricity. Hydropower produces more than 90,000 megawatts of electricity, which is enough to meet the needs of 28.3 million consumers. Hydropower accounts for over 90% of all electricity that comes from renewable resources (such as solar, geothermal, wind and biomass).

A primary goal of reservoir operators at hydropower facilities is optimizing flood protection vs. energy generation. If reservoir operators underestimate flood volume, the reservoir system will be unable to fully regulate flow. As a result, water must be spilled over into spillways. Environmental damage due to flooding and financial loss due to decreased generating capacity result. The link between a positive NAO and increased East Coast precipitation suggests that reservoir operators in this region could gain from knowing more about the NAO.

### ENERGY CONSUMPTION AND PRODUCTION IN NORWAY AND THE NAO

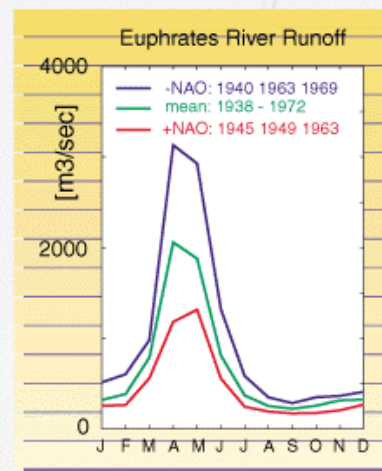
The demand for heating oil in Norway clearly shows human sensitivity to changes in the NAO. Cooler winters and a generally negative NAO prevailed during the late 1970's resulting in a greater demand for heating oil. Things changed in the early 1980's as the NAO index switched to a positive phase and Norway became warmer, resulting in decreased demand for heating oil. These changes in demand vary by 10-15% of the average demand between 1970 - 1995.

Norway is the world's sixth largest hydropower producer, and the largest producer of hydropower in Europe. Annual winter precipitation in Norway can be thought of as a surrogate for streamflow and hence hydropower generation. Between 1980 and 1993, a period of increasingly positive NAO years, precipitation was higher than normal, resulting in increased water inflow for power generation.



## HYDROLOGY & WATER RESOURCE MANAGMENT

Freshwater constitutes only ~2.5% of the total volume of water on earth, and two-thirds of it is trapped in glacial ice. Only 0.77% of freshwater is held in places more accessible to humans such as aquifers, lakes, rivers, and the atmosphere. River runoff is the most accessible source and accounts for much of the water used for irrigation agriculture, industry, and hydropower generation. New dam construction has the potential to increase accessible runoff by ~10% over the next 30 years, however population is projected to increase by more than 45% during that period. As a result humans will become increasingly sensitive to natural variations in precipitation and river runoff.

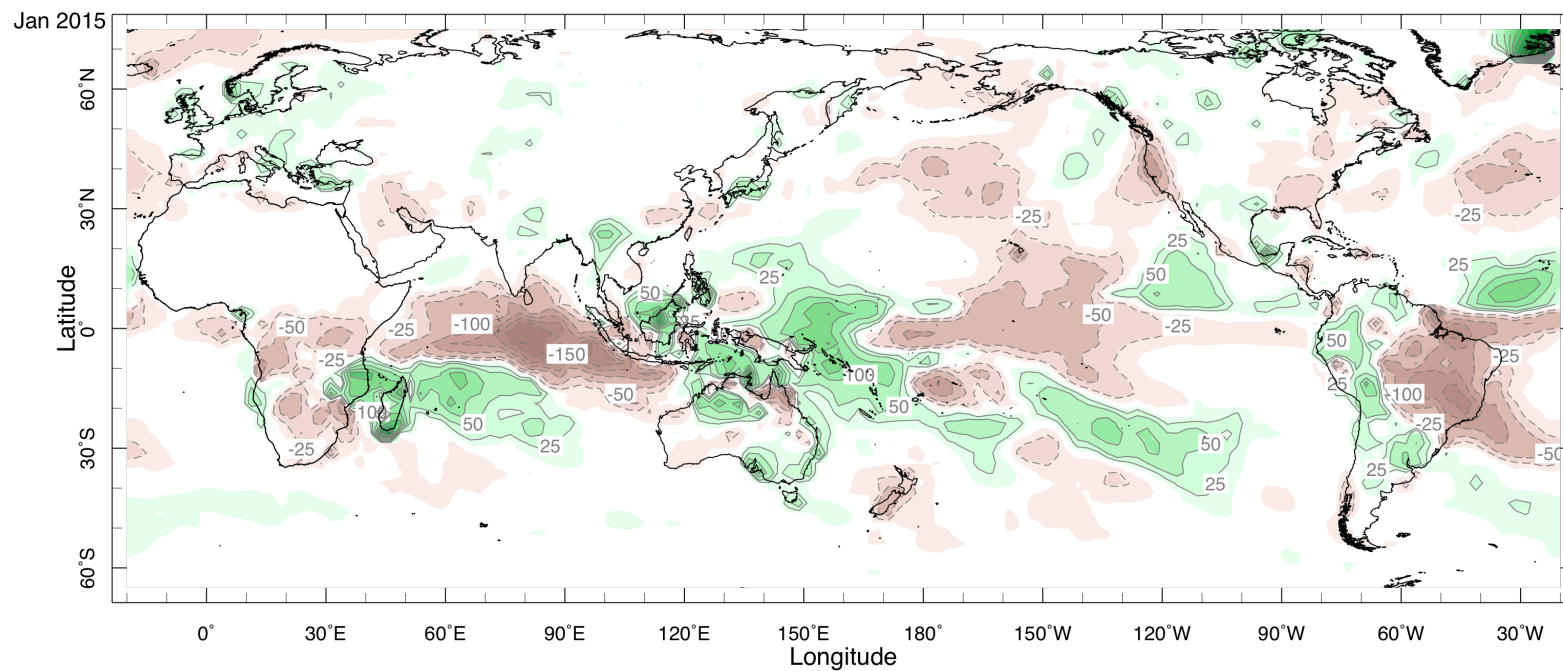
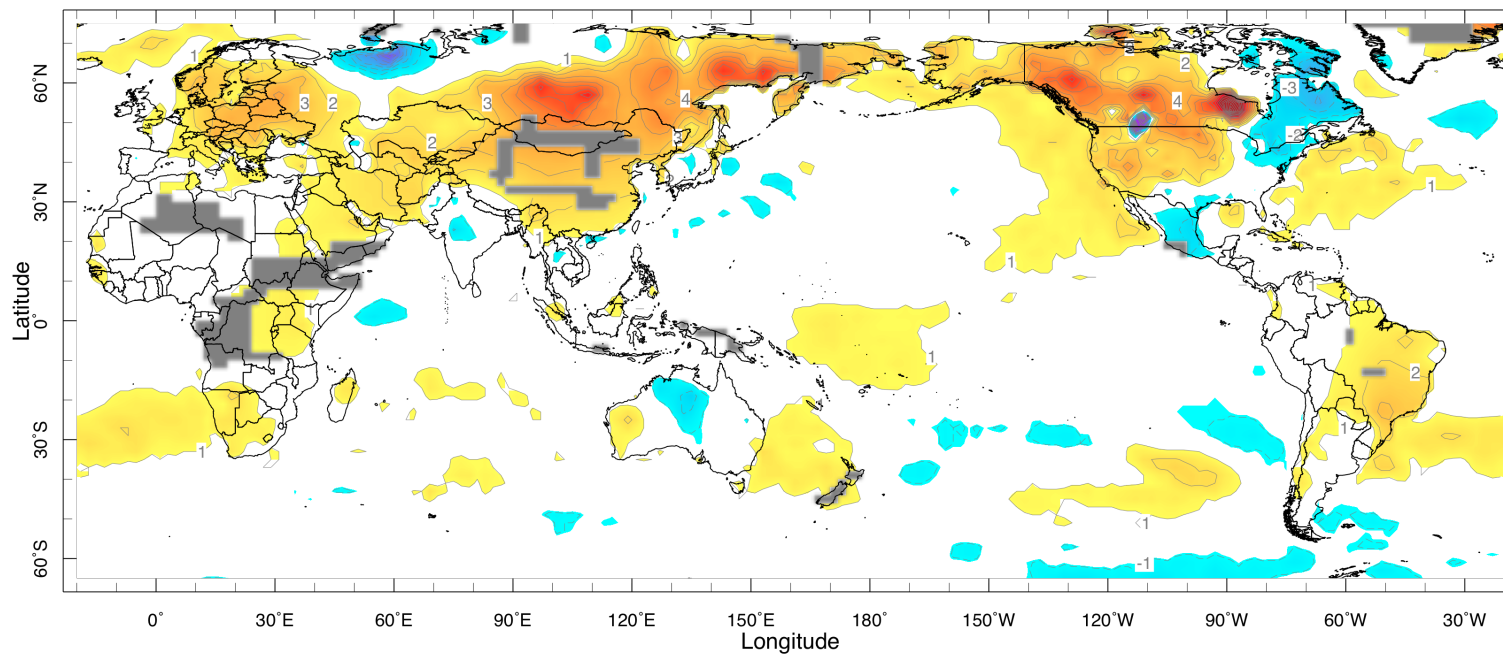


Perhaps the most sensitive of all regions is the Middle East, where usable freshwater is already scarce. With population increasing by 3.2% each year and irrigation practices consuming upwards of 80% of available water supply, water is a key variable affecting regional public health and political stability. Much of the current focus in Middle Eastern water policy has been the environmental and socio-economic impacts associated with increased damming along the Tigris-Euphrates River system.

Turkey, because it has the good fortune of being situated at the headwaters of the Tigris-Euphrates River system, can literally turn off the supply of water to its downstream neighbors and has threatened to do so on occasion. For example, when the Ataturk Dam was completed in 1990, Turkey stopped the flow of the Euphrates entirely for one month, leaving Iraq and Syria in considerable distress. However natural climate variability, which has no political alliances, can be attributed to variations in Turkish precipitation and Euphrates River runoff and is linked to changes in the NAO. Even the recent trend in the NAO index can be seen in historical precipitation data; with droughts occurring in Turkey during the 1980s and the early 1990s and wet conditions generally occurring during the 1960s and the late 1970s.

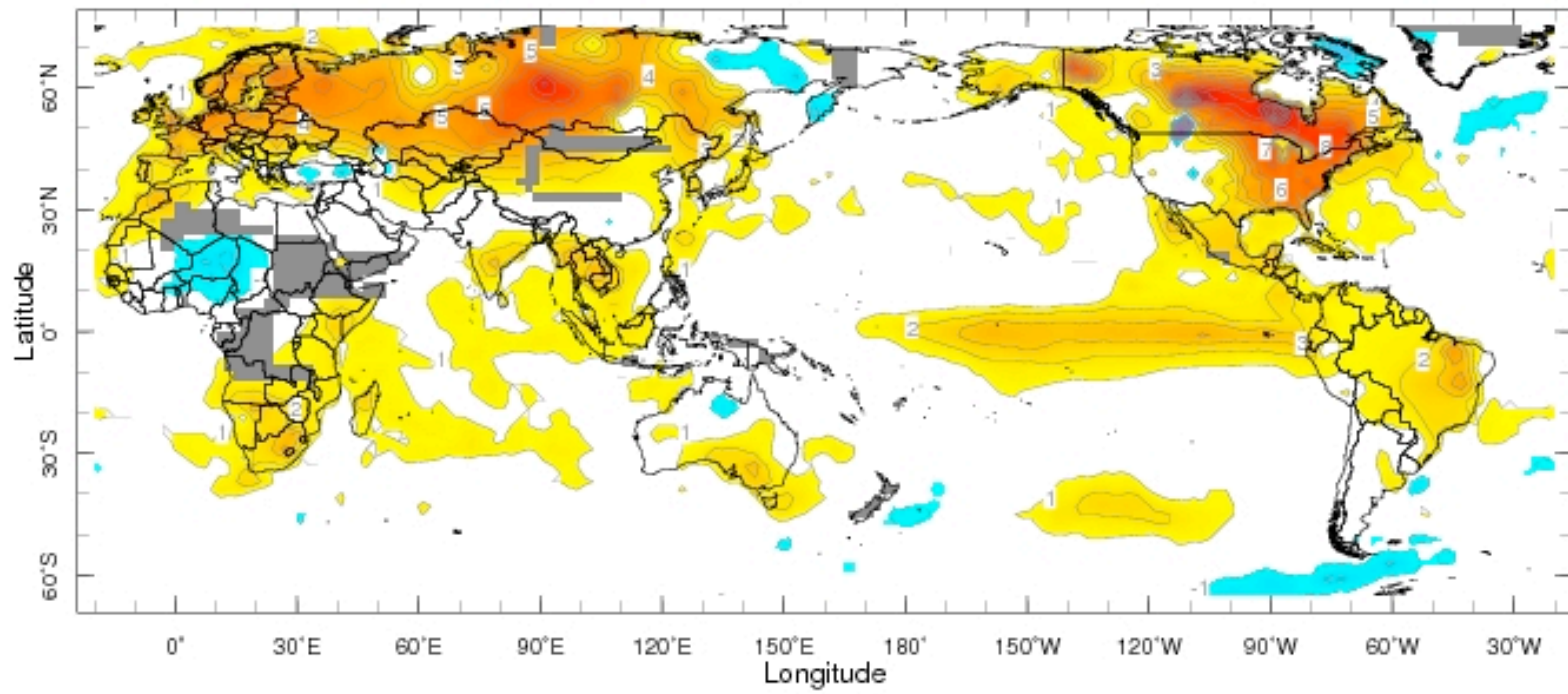






Jan 2015

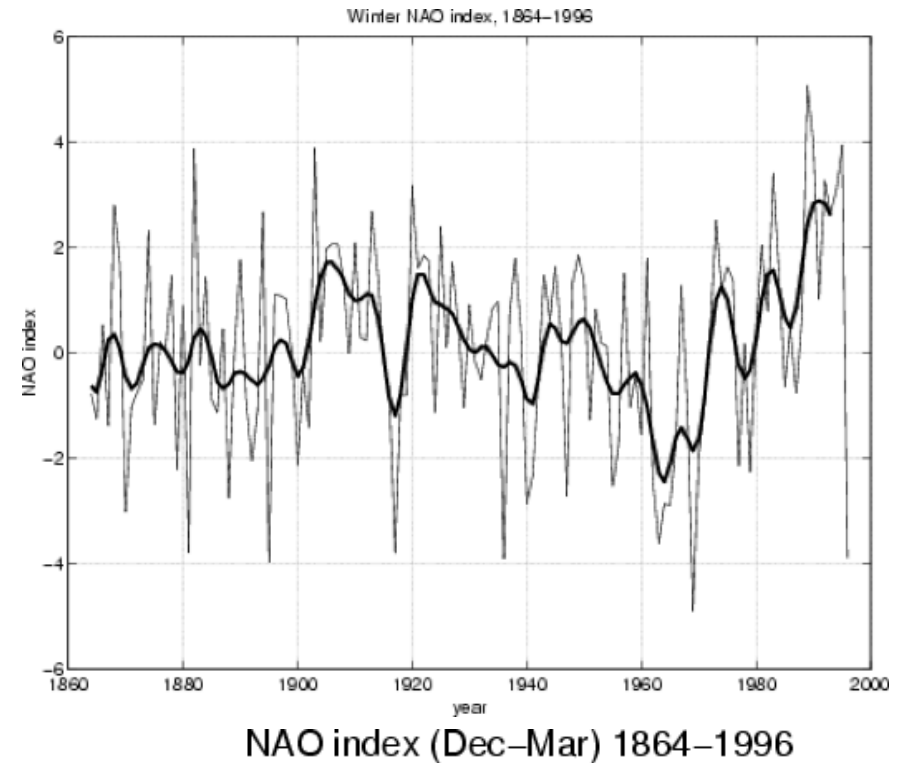
Monthly averages for January 2015 strong and persistent Positive NAO  
(credit: <http://iridl.ldeo.columbia.edu/>)



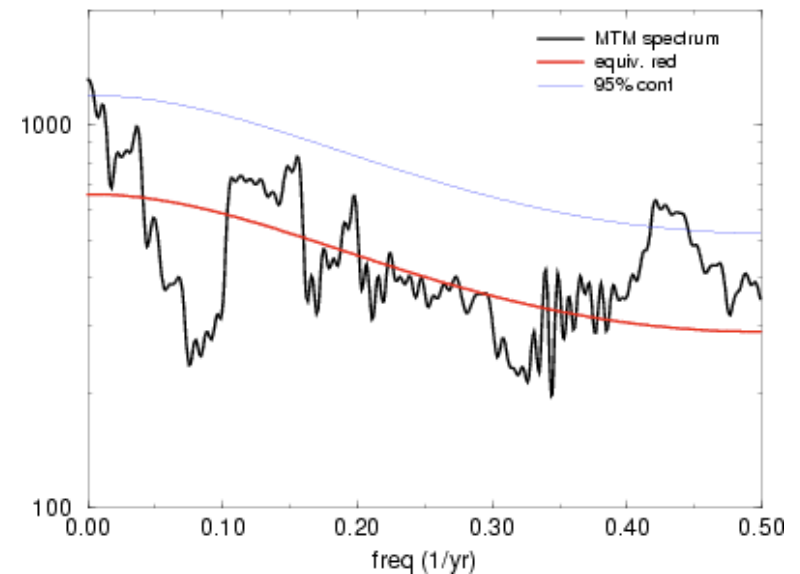
Dec 2015

## NAO variability

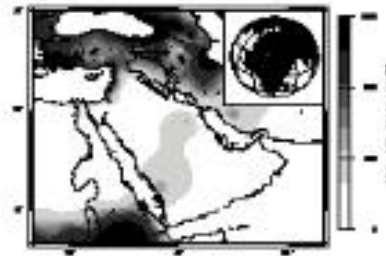
Analysing the time series  $\mathbf{x}(t)$  we can see that the NAO has many time scales of variability.



Its spectrum shows power at all frequencies and is compatible with a red noise process. It doesn't really show any significant peaks (still debated).



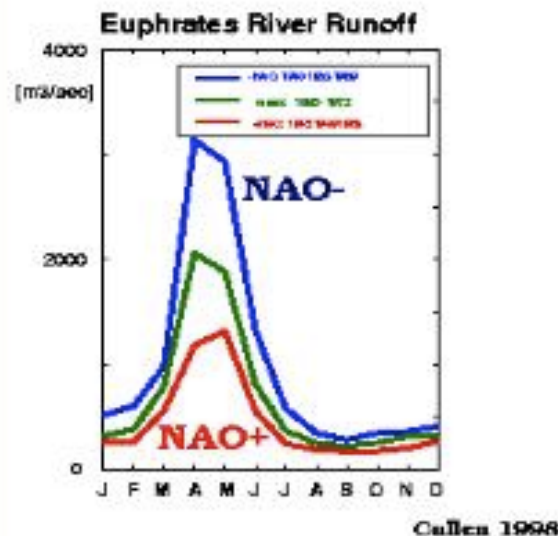
# NAO and Water Resources in Turkey and the Middle East



Precipitation in Turkey is well correlated with the NAO.

As a result spring stream flow in the Euphrates River varies by about 50% with the NAO.

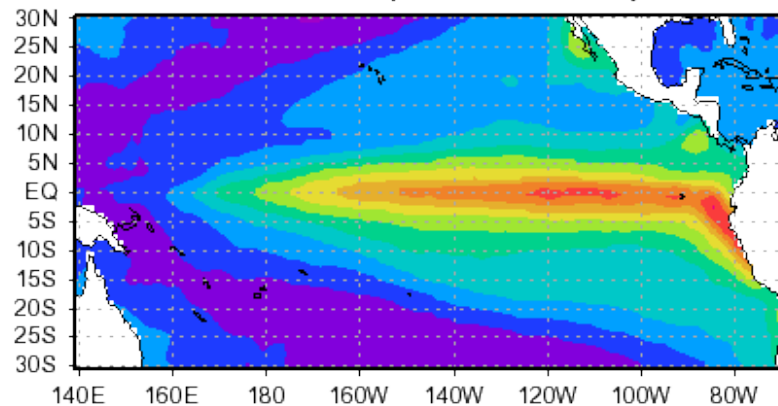
An upward trend in the NAO will lead to drought conditions in the Middle East.



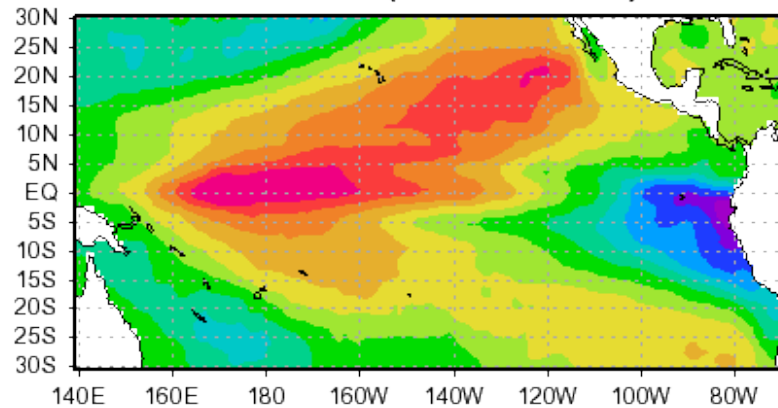
## Example 2:

EOFs of Sea Surface Temperatures. Equatorial Pacific ocean.

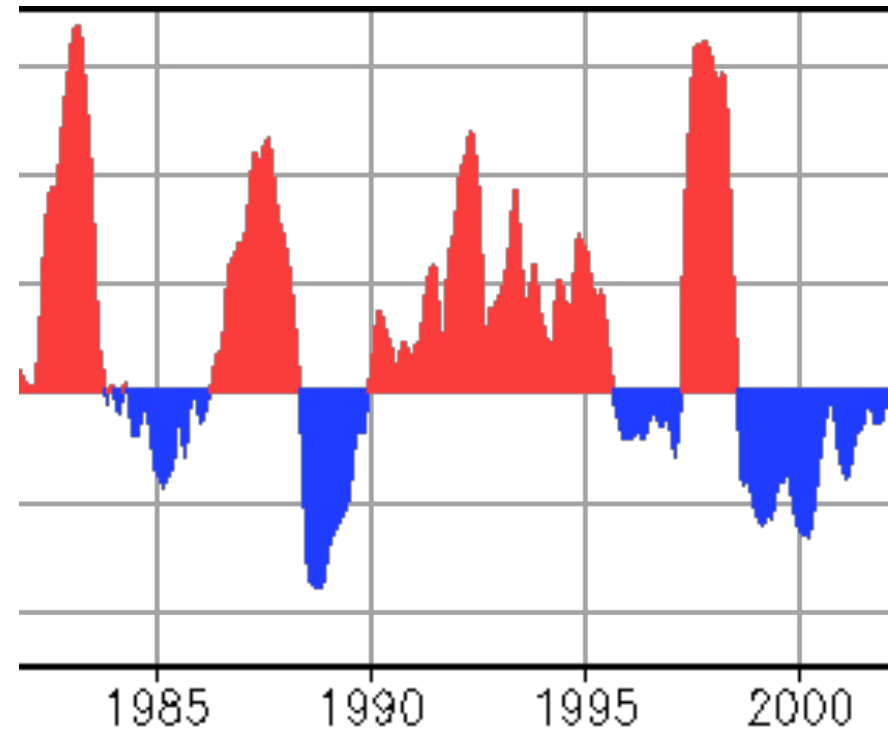
EOF 1 (42. % Var)



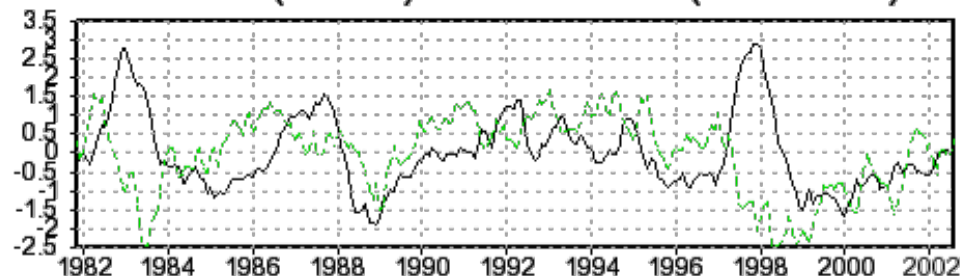
EOF 2 (11. % Var)



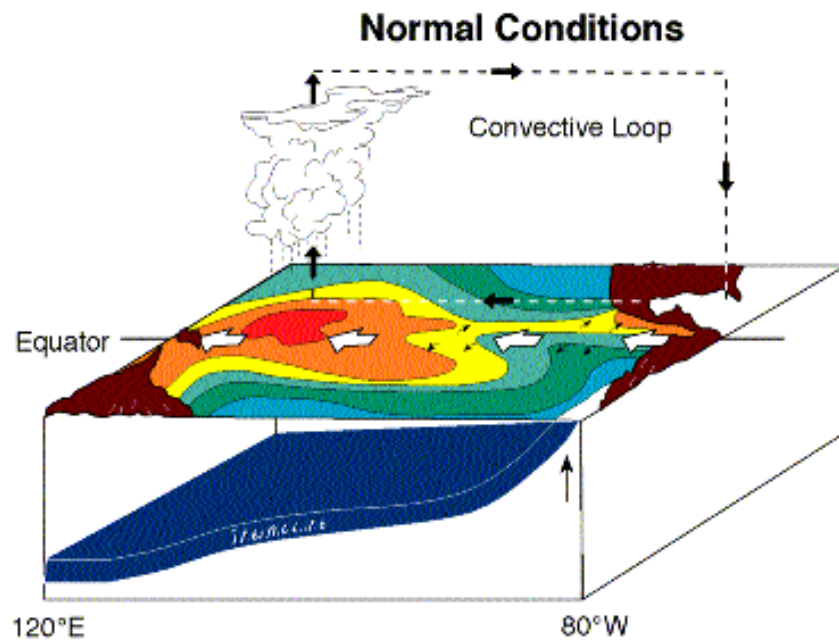
Mutivariate ENSO index (MEI), source NOAA



PC 1 (solid) and PC 2 (dashed)

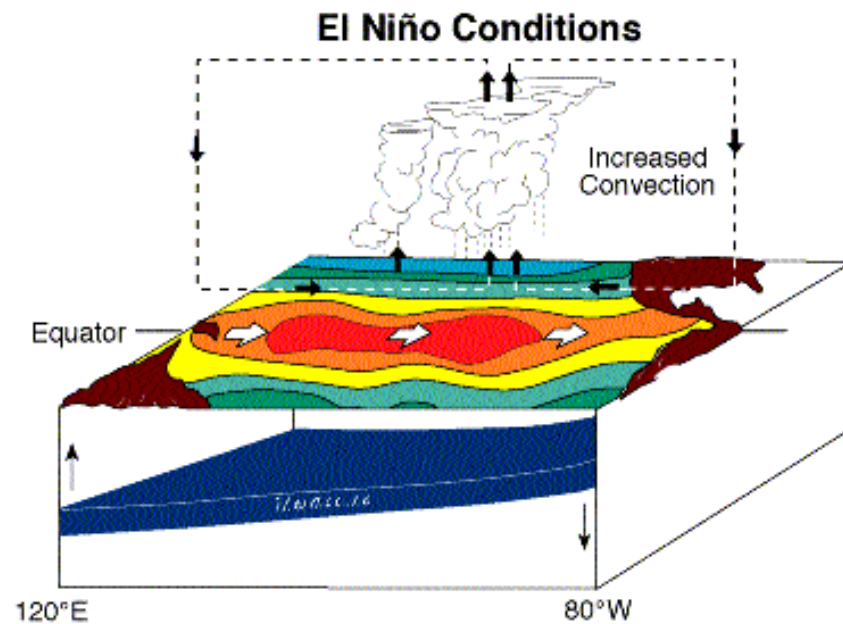


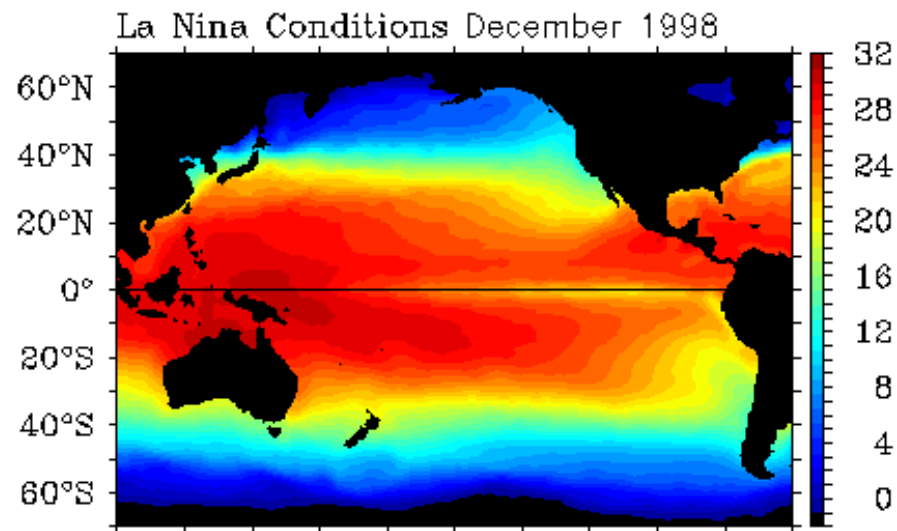




Dynamical mechanisms of ENSO (El Niño Southern Oscillation).

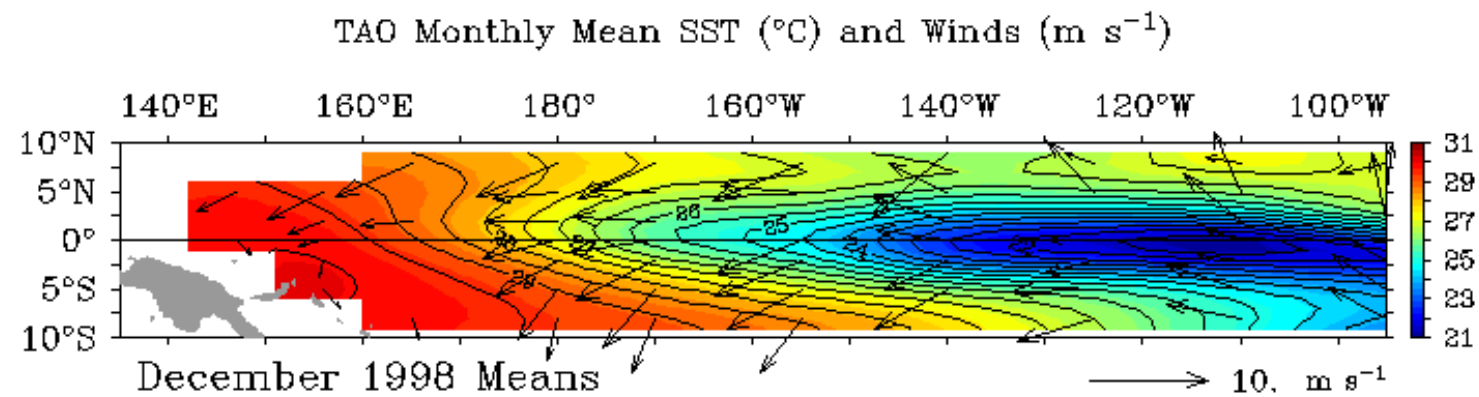
The EOFs are often the sign of a physical mechanism creating the variability, but it is not necessarily so.



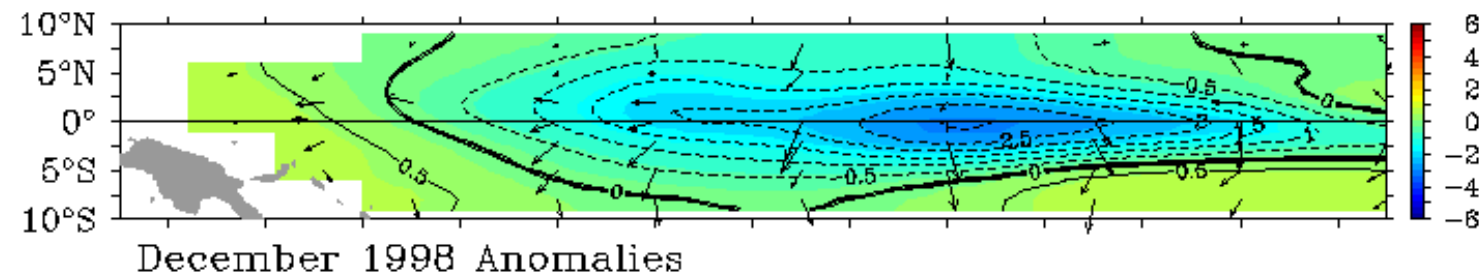


NORMAL CONDITIONS

Reynolds SSTdata

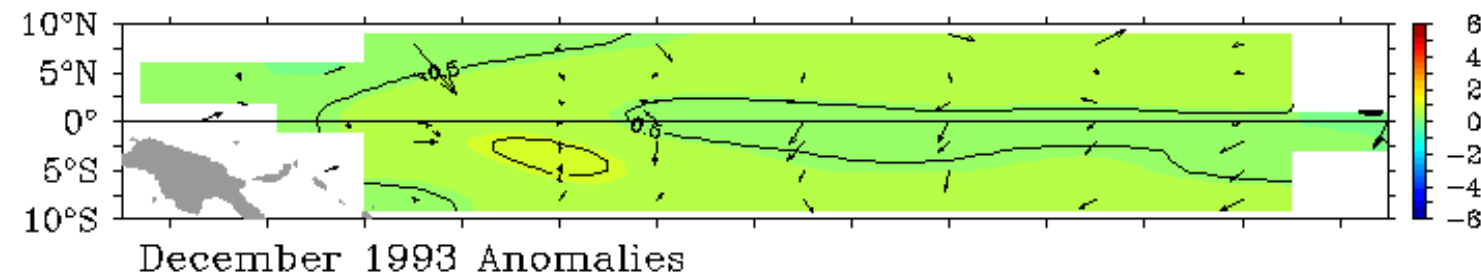
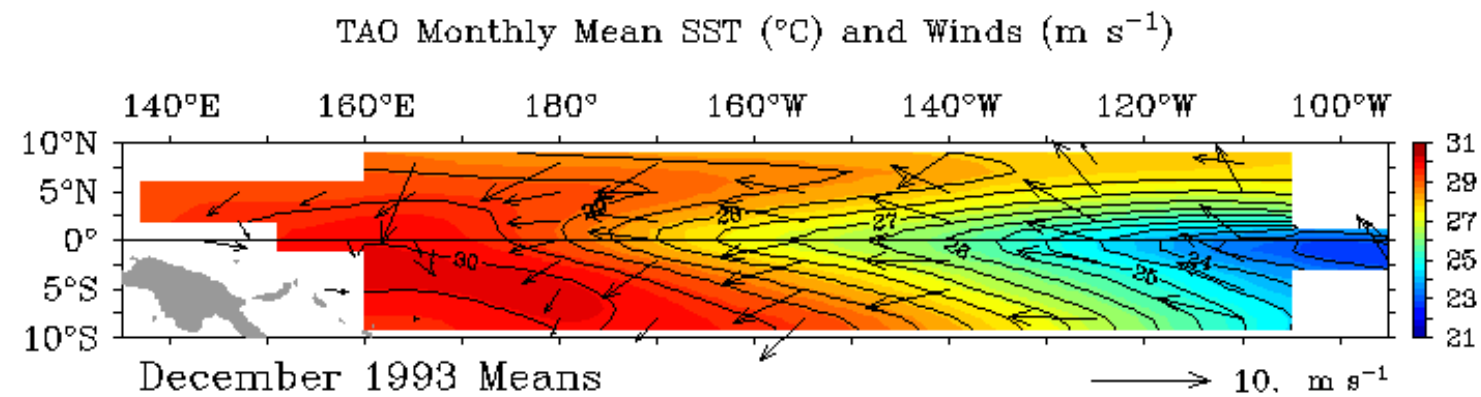
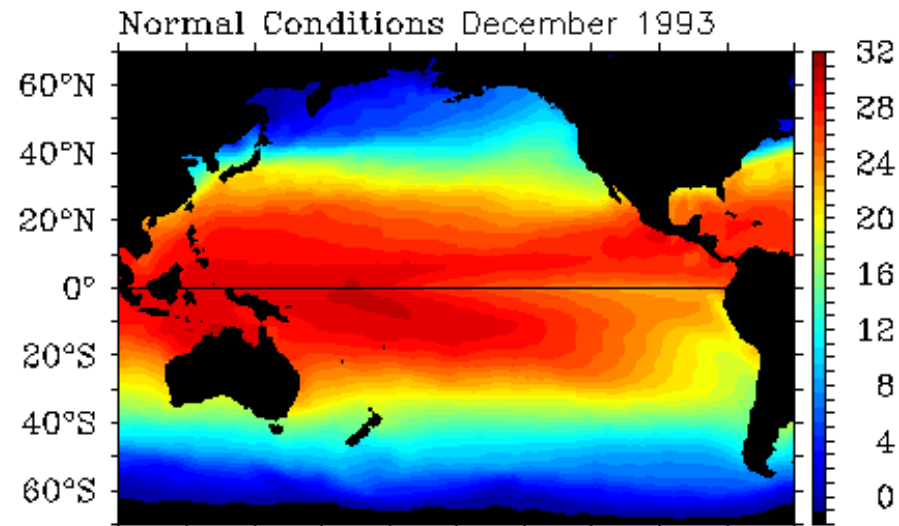


TAO data



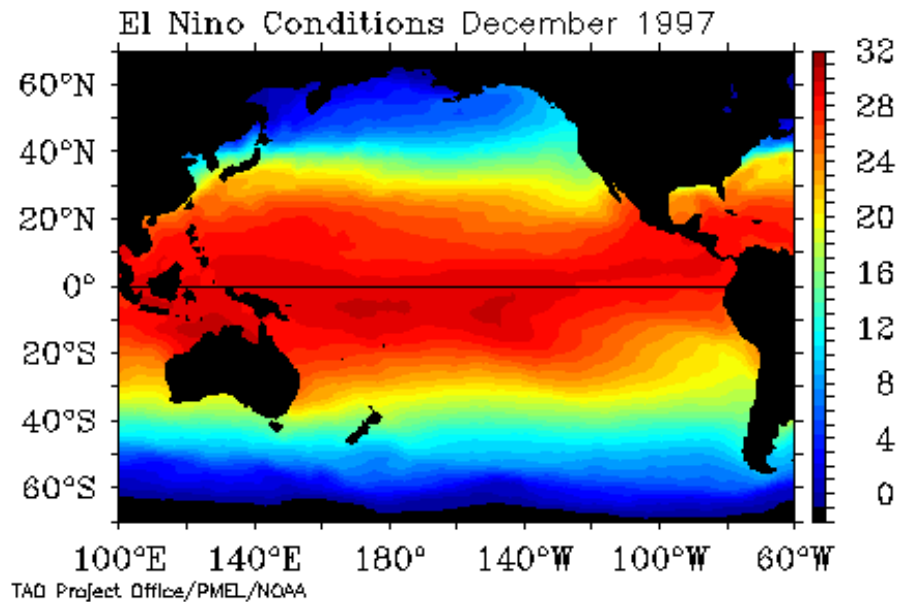
*La Nina Conditions*

# LA NIÑA CONDITIONS

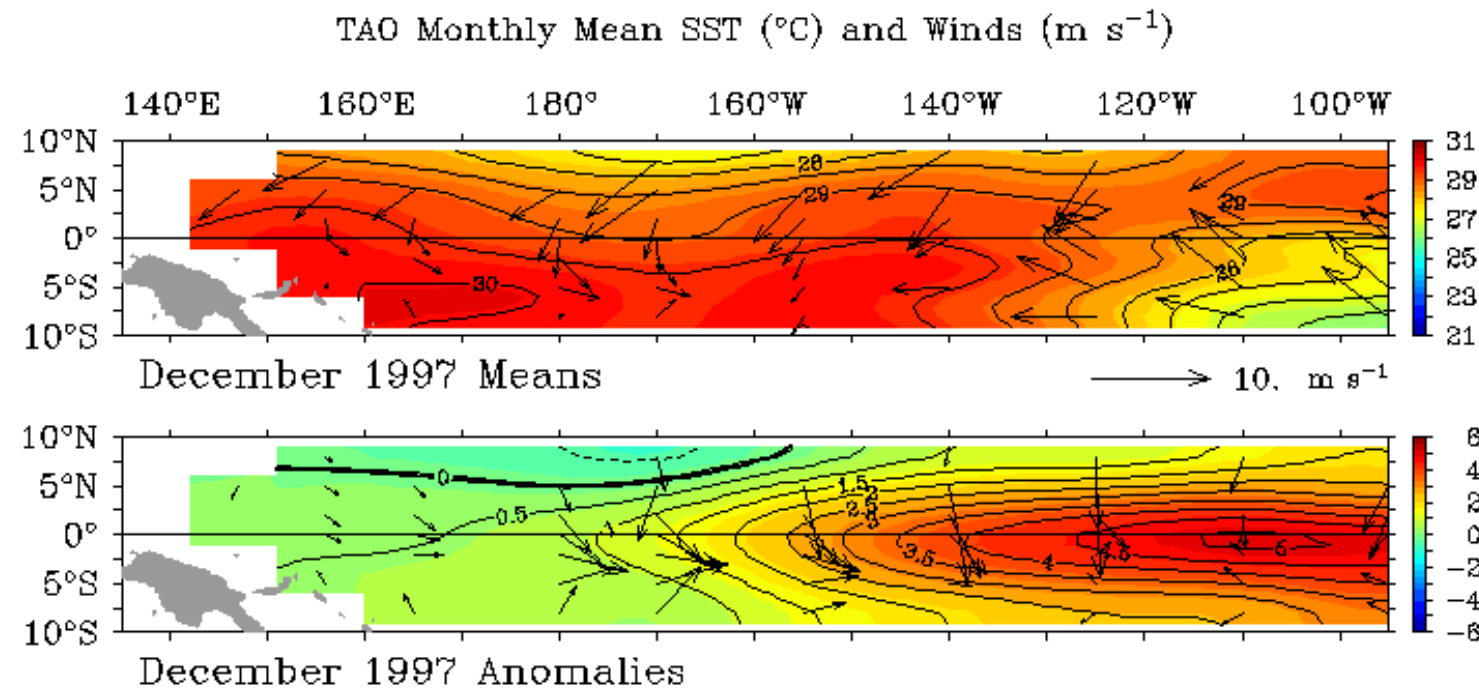




# EL NIÑO CONDITIONS



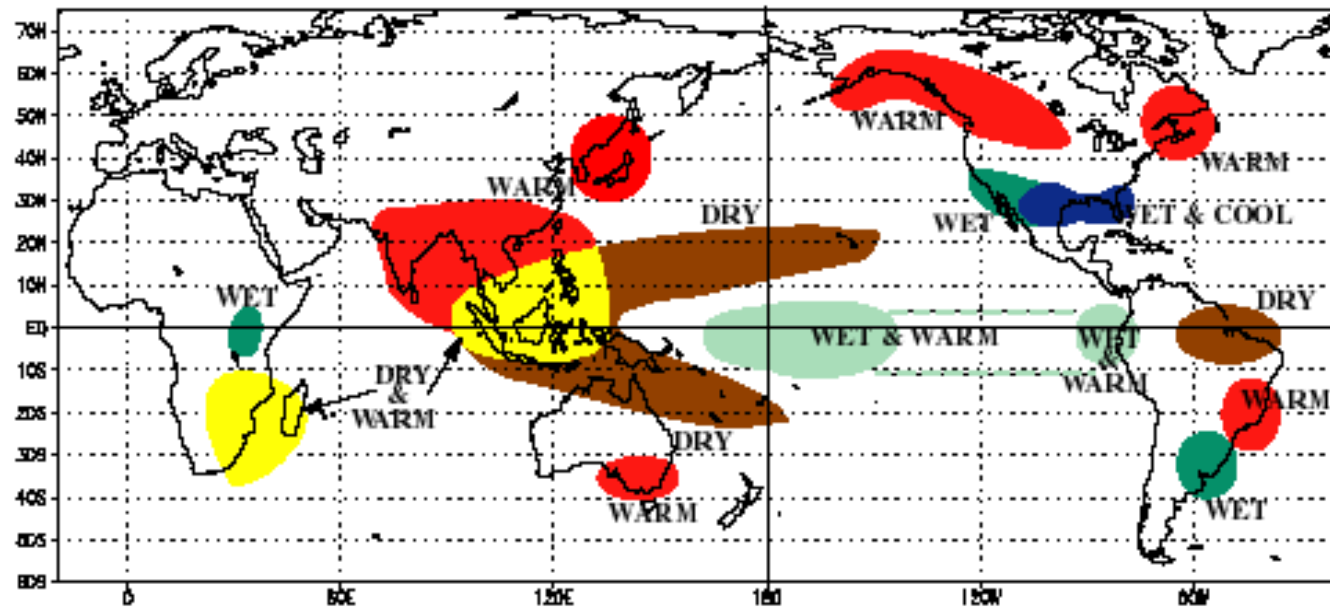
Reynolds SSTdata



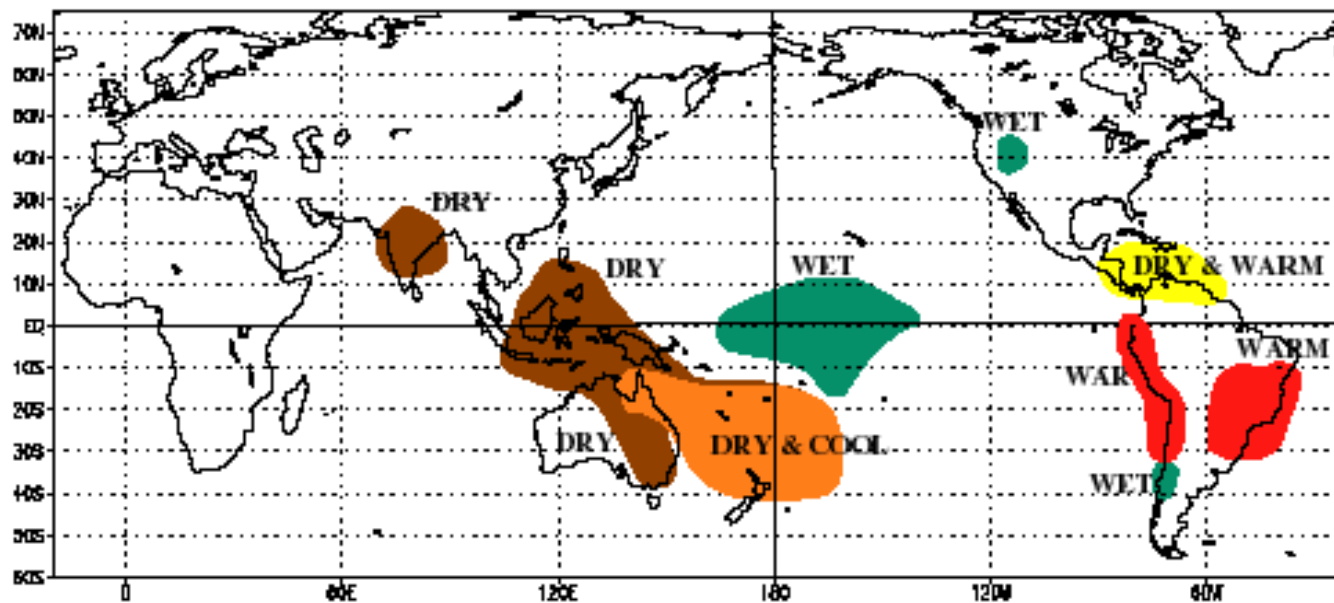
TAO data

*El Nino Conditions*

## WARM EPISODE RELATIONSHIPS DECEMBER - FEBRUARY



## WARM EPISODE RELATIONSHIPS JUNE - AUGUST





## Impacts of 1983 El Niño

- 1 Australia-Drought and bush fires
- 2 Indonesia, Philippines-Crops fail, starvation follows
- 3 India, Sri Lanka-Drought,fresh water shortages
- 4 Tahiti- tropical cyclones
- 5 South America-Fish industry devastated
- 6 Across the Pacific-Coral reefs die
- 7 Colorado River basin-Flooding, mud slides
- 8 Gulf states-Downpours cause death, property damage
- 9 Peru, Ecuador-Floods, landslides
- 10 Southern Africa-Drought, disease, malnutrition